

# An Optimal Dynamic Pricing and Schedule Approach in V2G

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**Abstract**—Smart Grid (SG) can greatly improve the efficiency and reliability of traditional grid. As a promising feature of future SG, the Vehicle-to-Grid (V2G) technique exhibits great potential to balance the supply and demand of electrical power as well as integrate renewable energy. Recently, some V2G-based schemes have been proposed to leverage the energy-storage capability of electric vehicles (EVs) to effectively reduce energy loss caused by supply-demand mismatches. However, most of the existing schemes rely on the assumption that the charge station is profit-neutral, lacking of adequate incentive to the charge stations for wide deployment. In this paper, we investigate a scenario where the charge station is modelled as an entity driven by its own profit. We formulate the interactions between the charge station and multiple EVs as a game, in which two kinds of EVs, cooperative EVs and selfish EVs, are considered. Regarding the intelligence of selfish EVs, a dynamic pricing over multiple time slots is developed from the charge station’s perspective to maximize its own profit. Both theoretical analysis and simulation results show that through our scheme of dynamic pricing for selfish EVs and charging scheduling for cooperative EVs, the charge station can maximize its profit while EVs maximize their utilities.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Due to the shrinkage of fossil fuels supply, exacerbation of environment pollution and other economic reasons, EVs have emerged as a promising alternative in recent years that use electricity to replace a significant fraction of fossil fuels consumption [1], [2]. The fuel conversion efficiency of EVs is estimated as 22.5%-45% [3], [4], while that of the conventional vehicles is only about 20%. Therefore, the usage of EVs are growing dramatically recently. Commercial plug-in hybrid electric vehicles (PHEVs) have been produced by a few automobile manufacturers such as Cooper, Nissan, Tesla, etc.. Moreover, the first generation of PHEVs have emerged into the market in 2011 [5]. It is estimated by Oak Ridge National Laboratories that almost 30% of the vehicles in the European Union will be PHEVs by 2020 [6]. Similar study done by the German Federal Government showed that there would be one million EVs on Germany’s road by 2020 [7].

The large-scale deployment of EVs has drawn great attentions from researchers in power grid and smart grid [8]-[10]. In [8], Kempton and Letendre analyzed in details vehicle battery storage by comparing three EV configurations over various driving requirements and electric utility demand conditions. Mi studied in [9] the design of EV including topology, control, battery management, etc., while Turker et al. in [10] conducted research on the impact of EVs on electric grids and investigate

the energy management for Vehicle-to-Grid (V2G).

The widely deployment of EVs may cause sever impact on the power grid such as power losses and voltage deviations without coordination of the charging of EVs. For example, Hadley performed a thorough analysis of EV penetration into the regional power grid [11], and reported that quick charging EVs during the evening hours could create much higher new peaks without proper coordination. To tackle such challenges, the author in [12] proposed a coordinate charging scheme to minimize the power losses and maximize the main grid load factor while the authors in [13] used quadratic programming to regulate the frequency in the grid. The effects of the grid-connected EVs on bulk power systems were investigated in [14], where a smart storage scheme was proposed to maintain the quality of power frequency under a large number of EVs.

By using EVs’ batteries as distributed storages, V2G can assist the power grid to embrace the potential economic and environmental benefits that are not possible before [15]-[19]. In [16], V2G is used to stabilize the grid by compensating the mismatch in supply and demand. In [19], the authors proposed an advanced smart charging communication protocol to match domestic load demand with the intermittent decentralized power supply. As shown in [18], with a proper scheduling scheme, V2G can help reduce the peak demand by 70%. V2G can also be utilized to integrate renewable energy [20]-[23]. In [21], V2G is investigated to integrate the wind power. Later in [23], Islam and Pota proposed a feed forward compensating control strategy to smooth power variation in wind farm.

One key problem in V2G is how to control the charging/discharging process of EVs [24]-[26]. In [24], the authors proposed a distributed approach to schedule the charging and discharging process of EVs to compensate the mismatch between load demand and power supply. However, there is no justification about the reason that EVs would obey the scheme. Similarly, the authors in [25] failed to provide a valid reasoning that residential load would cooperate. In [26], EVs are assumed to be intelligent who would minimize their own charging cost. By proper setting the real-time selling price, rational EVs that minimize their own charging cost can help balance the load and supply. Nevertheless, the charge stations were assumed to be profit-neutral, and thus lacking of adequate incentive to the charge station for wide deployment.

In this paper, we consider a more realistic scenario where both EVs and charge station are intelligent. On one hand, EVs will dynamically adjust their charging scheme to maximize

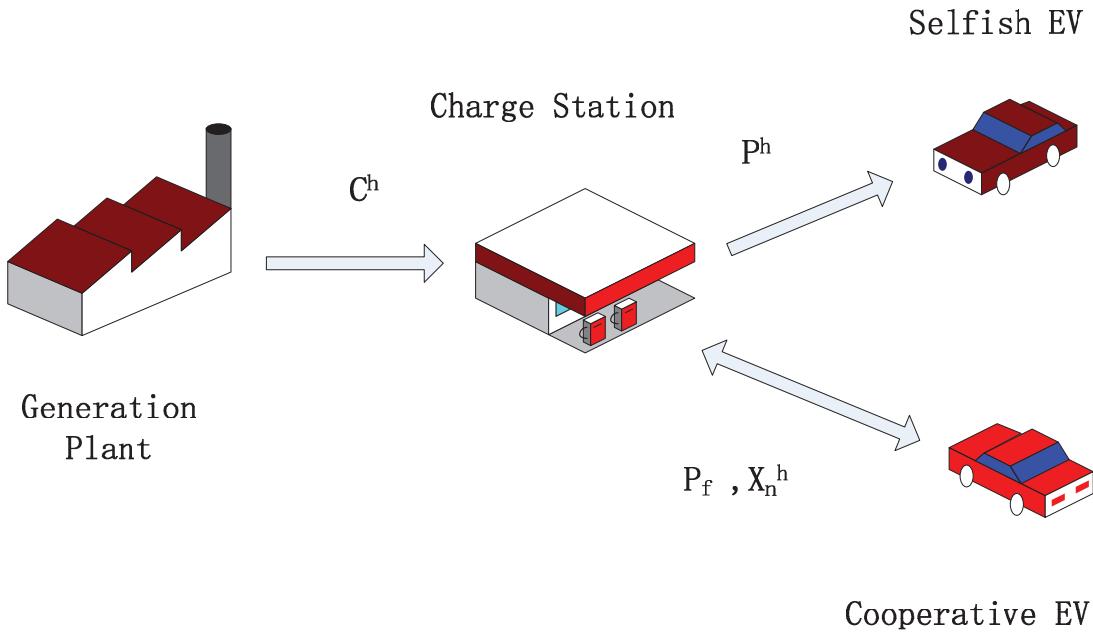


Fig. 1. System Model

their own utilities according to the real-time selling price. On the other hand, the charge station would set up the optimal real-time price to maximize its own profit instead of the social welfare by taking into account the response of EVs. In such a case, the charge station would not set up a very high real-time selling price to avoid the situation that there is not many EVs, nor would it set up the price too low to reduce the profit. The simulation results show that the proposed scheme can maximize both the charge station's profit and EVs' utilities.

The remainder of paper is organized as follows. We describe in details the system model in Section II. The optimal strategy of selfish EVs is analyzed in Section III while the optimal strategy of the charge station is discussed in Section IV. Finally, we show the simulation results in Section V and draw conclusions in Section VI.

## II. SYSTEM MODEL

Consider the system in Fig 1. It consists of four main components: cooperative EV, selfish EV, charge station and generation plant. The charge station buys electricity from generation plant at the price  $c^h$ , and then sells the electricity to two kinds of EVs: selfish EVs at the real-time selling price  $p^h$  and cooperative EVs at a fixed price  $p_f$ . We assume that  $c^h$ ,  $p_f$  and the number of selfish EVs and cooperative EVs remain the same in  $H$  time slots.

### A. Generation Plant

We assume that generation plant announces the generation price  $c^h$  every  $H$  time slots. Here, the time scale  $H$  is relatively

small since it would be difficult for the generation plant to announce a valid price for a long period in the future. We further assume that the generation plant always have enough electricity to support all EVs to be charged, i.e., there would be no blackout. Last, discharging back from the charge station is not allowed.

### B. Charge Station

As discussed above, the charge station would buy electricity from the generation plant at  $c^h$  and charge selfish EVs at the real-time selling price  $p^h$  and cooperative EVs at a fixed price  $p_f$ . The goal of the charge station is to maximize its own profit by dynamically setting  $p^h$  and properly scheduling the charging process of cooperative EVs according to  $c^h$ . We further assume that the numbers and feature parameters of both kinds of EVs are known to the charge station and would remain unchanged in  $H$  time slots.

Since only one charge station is considered in our system, we assume that the charging prices lie between  $p_{min}$  and  $p_{max}$  to avoid monopoly. The fixed price  $p_f$  is usually lower than  $p^h$  since the cooperative EVs would obey the charging scheme controlled by the charge station. On the other hand, we assume that the selfish EVs are not allowed to discharge back to the station since they are not directly controlled by the charge station.

### C. Cooperative EV and Selfish EV

We assume that there are  $N_1$  cooperative EVs and  $N_2$  selfish EVs in next  $H$  time slots. Let us denote  $N_1 = \{1, \dots, N_1\}$







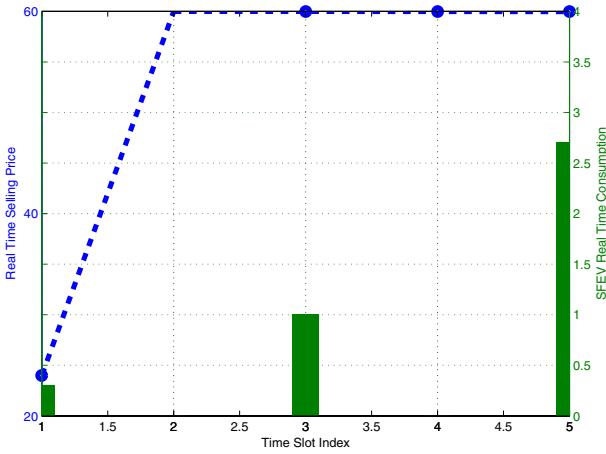


Fig. 3. optimal real-time pricing and the corresponding optimal total consumption of selfish EVs

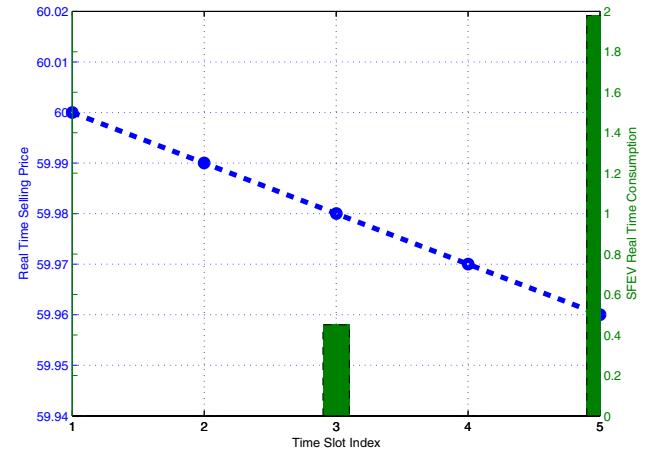


Fig. 4. maximal real-time pricing and the corresponding optimal total consumption of selfish EVs

only one selfish EV could be charged at the first time slot as can be seen from Table I. Thus the charge station set the real-time selling price low enough to persuade the selfish EV to be charged when cooperative EVs would discharge.

From Fig. 3 we can see that setting real-time selling price to  $p_{max} = 60$  all the time is not the optimal choice to maximize the profit of the charge station. To validate this conclusion, we set the real-time selling price around 60 for 5 hours and optimize the charging scheme of cooperative EVs. The results are shown in Fig. 4. We can see that the charging amount of all 15 selfish EVs over 5 hours are 0, 0, 0.45, 0, 1.98, respectively. Compared with the results in Fig. 3, we can see that the optimal total consumption of selfish EVs decreases significantly at all time slots due to the non-optimal real-time selling price. In such a case, even though the selling price is higher, the profit of charge station still decreases from 183.8062 to 100.3814.

#### B. Availability of Cooperative EV

The increasing availability of cooperative EVs would enlarge the maximal profit of the charge station when other conditions keep unchanged. The availability can be represented as stay length, charging/discharging speed, number of EVs, etc.. Such a phenomenon is because cooperative EVs, which are under the direct control of the charge station, can be used to enlarge the profit of the charge station. Without loss of generality, this paper takes the stay length of cooperative EVs as an example.

Specifically, we adjust the stay length of the first 5 cooperative EVs to 5 while keeping the other parameters unchanged. That is 5 out of 10 cooperative EVs would arrive at charge station at the first time slot and leave at the last time slot. With such a setting, the number of available cooperative EVs at the charge station increases from 3, 6, 8, 7, 2 to 6, 8, 9, 9, 6, while the optimal charging amount of cooperative EVs changes from 0, 0.3, 2.2, 0.7, 0.6 to -0.3, 0, 2.3, 0.8, as shown in Fig. 6 and

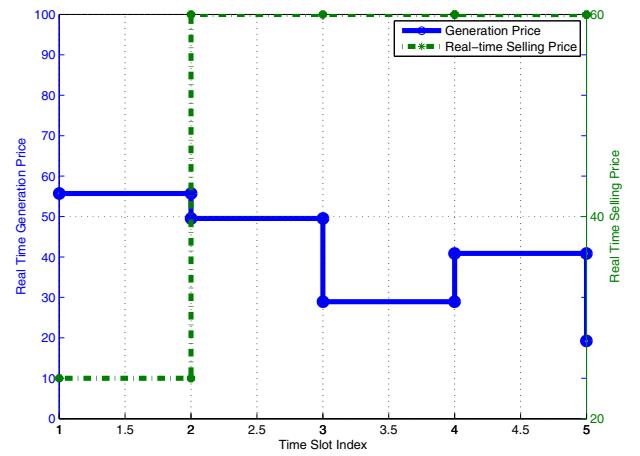


Fig. 5. generation price and the corresponding real-time selling price

Fig. 7. In such a case, the profit of the charge station increases from 183.8062 to 217.9916, which verifies our conclusion that the profit of the charge station increases as the availability of cooperative EVs increases.

The increasing stay length of cooperative EVs also enables more flexible ability of charging and discharging at each time slot. From Fig. 2, we can see that the generation price is the lowest at the last time slot. With the increasing stay length of cooperative EVs, more cooperative EVs can be charged at the last time slot as shown in Fig. 7. The total charging amount of 10 cooperative EVs at the last time slot has increased from 0.6 to 1.8. Moreover, the enlarged stay length enables the cooperative EVs to be discharged by 0.3 at the first time slot, where the generation price is the highest. In this way, the enlarged stay length increases the charge station's profit.



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