Center for Energy and innovative Technologies

A flexible low cost PV/EV microgrid controller concept based on a Raspberry Pi

In collaboration with Bioenergy2020+ GmbH

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Preface

This is a working paper that should create interest in microgrid topics and is deliberately written for technical audience without deep research background. The main goal is to show that with simple approaches, renewable based microgrids are possible. The paper should also support interested readers in building their own simple system. However, the paper follows the basic concept of research work and includes references and citations that support the assumptions and it documents the success of the approach by documenting the major steps and results. If you want to cite this paper, please use following citation:

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Abstract
Current microgrid controller concepts are based on proprietary communication with high engineering and implementation costs as well as limited scalability. This work demonstrates a flexible and low cost energy management platform for a grid-connected microgrid, involving an electric vehicle and Photovoltaics system. A major focus of this work has been on simplicity, low costs, scalability, and interoperability with other Distributed Energy Technologies. The whole technical concept is described from a high level perspective, the developed Python modules of the Raspberry Pi controller are discussed, and the system has been fully and successfully implemented at an Austria building and this provides unique insights in practical implementation challenges and costs. The whole Proof-Of-Concept platform has been designed for €13500 ($16500) and can be replicated and installed at other sites for only €1700 ($2100). The designed concept can host more sophisticated controller techniques, as Artificial Intelligence or Model Predictive Control, and serve as testbed for future research. This work proves that simple communication and control concepts are possible and can directly support the penetration of PV and EV in microgrids.

Keywords
Electric Vehicle, microgrid controller, Photovoltaics, Raspberry Pi

1 Introduction
Multiple research and implementation projects in the field of microgrid control systems have shown the complexity of such projects, especially when it comes to underlying metering hardware, data acquisition and communication systems. Theoretical research is dedicated to microgrid control strategies, Model Predictive Control (MPC) e.g. (Michael Zachar, 2016) and stochastic optimization techniques e.g. (Cardoso G., 2013), even Artificial Intelligence (AI) or Machine Learning topics e.g. (Aymen Chaouachi, 2013). The industry still faces challenges to establish simple, cheap, and reliable IP enabled metering devices and communication infrastructures to enable those sophisticated research topics and microgrids, making it difficult to establish scalable controllers (Farid Katiraei, 2017). Thus, over the years the idea matured to demonstrate a very simple and cheap microgrid control system (and control strategy) at small commercial and residential buildings for fractions of the costs than available currently. If there is no standardized, scalable, and cheap underlying hardware and infrastructure, the sophisticated methods designed for microgrid control cannot be easily harvested and wider renewable energy and microgrid adoption is at risk.

Thus, in this section the need for a low cost communication infrastructure and controller with basic and easy expandable functionalities will be derived and the paper is structured as follows:

- The rest of the introduction describes the Test Building, Market Conditions, the basic Microgrid Concept and the relevance of this work.
- Section 2 describes the Proposed Solution, including some details on the Raspberry Pi controller, how the EV price signal for charging is calculated, discusses the implementation, and also the expected costs for this Proof-of-Concept (POC) work.
- Section 3 discusses the performed Test Runs, and finally
- Section 4 concludes the performed work, identifies limitations, and points to the next steps.

These points will be demonstrated through the example of a residential building in Austria.

1.1 Test Building and Market Conditions

The test building is a residential building located in Austria with roughly 290 m^2 (3120 sqft) of heated living space for two families with 2 adults per family. It is a building from the mid-70s on an elevation of 250 m (820 ft). Winter can be very cold and below -15°C (5°F). There is no cooling system. The building has been retrofitted around the year 2008 and now it is equipped with very high efficient triple pane windows, additional 16 cm (6.3 inch) wall insulation, a 4.5 kW PV system, a 12.5 m^2 (135 sqft) solar thermal system coupled with a 1000 Liter (265 US gallons) hot water storage tank that is also served by a biomass heating and domestic hot water system. The maximum heating demand is less than 5 kW due to the insulation and window upgrades resulting in an annual wood demand of roughly 15 m^3 (530 cft). On average the PV system generates 4360 kWh electricity per year and the total electricity demand of the building (without EV) is around 4230 kWh per year. Thus, the building is basically zero net energy when it comes to the electricity demand. Considering the volatility of the building demand and non-coincidence of PV supply and building demand at certain hours, roughly 2900kWh of electricity per year are purchased from and are also sold to the utility. This purchase/sale balance creates a monetary loss due to lower sales prices than purchase prices. A purchased kilo-watt-hour of electricity costs roughly €0.2 (US$0.24) and the sales price is €0.06 (US$0.073). This monetary imbalance is constituted by the deregulation of the European electricity sector which differentiates between grid and energy costs. When selling energy from the PV system, the distribution grid needs to be used, and therefore, the PV owner gets only reimbursed for the delivered energy and this does not include the grid portion of the retail electricity tariff. This is fundamentally different to the frequently used Net-Metering system in which the electric meter just spins backwards when there is excessive electricity generation from the PV system (GoSolarCalifornia, 2018). Thus, from customers' perspective this Net-Metering system values sold and purchased energy equally and this is also a major reason for the success of PV in states like California (Naïm Darghouth, 2010). However, also states like California are in the process of changing the Net-Metering system to consider differences in hourly energy and grid costs via Time-of-Use rates and are also rethinking their market regulation (Net Energy Metering (NEM), 2016), (California Public Utilities Comission, 2017). Hence, even very progressive states like California are moving slowly towards a system similar to the one already in place for the residential building in Austria. In Austria there is the possibility to request a Feed-In tariff for PV systems with capacities greater than 5 kW. PV systems built until the end of 2016 only receive €0.0791€/kWh (US$ 0.0965) (European Commission, 2017).

Thus, the goal needs to be the usage of electricity from the PV system as much as possible and to serve loads when the PV system is generating electricity. A good solution would be a stationary electric storage system, which could be charged with excessive energy and discharged when needed. However, current Lithium-Ion electric storage prices of at least $200/kWh (€165/kWh) (Björn Nykvist, 2015), (O. Schmidt, 2017) make this additional investment for a stationary battery difficult. Of course, the Lithium-Ion EV battery might be in the same price range as the stationary storage[1], but the EV is primarily purchased for transportation reasons and can create an *additional* benefit for the PV system and building by using

[1] As pointed out in (O. Schmidt, 2017) there is a lack of open data and the EV battery costs are used as estimates for stationary battery costs.

energy from the PV system. This is exactly the scenario which has been analyzed in this work and the EV battery capacity at hand is 41kWh.

The basic microgrid controller framework designed in this work can easily be extended and also consider future electric stationary storage.

1.2 Microgrid Concept

Distributed Energy Resources (DERs) as on-site generation via PV, backup or emergency systems are not new. However, the coordinated control of multiple on-site units and loads to form a controllable cluster of distributed resources, storage systems, and loads is fairly new and can create benefits to the owner of the DER technologies as well as the utility and wider distribution system by reducing energy costs and problems to the power system (G. Y. Morris, 2012) (Stadler Michael, 2016). Some also define that microgrids need the ability to disconnect from the utility and reconnect without major interruptions of on-site generation and services (U.S Department of Energy Berkeley Lab, 2017). Thus, the microgrid should be operational also during blackouts after a short start-up period and serve the connected loads. A further extension of the microgrid concept considers the seamless islanding capability, which allows the microgrid to transition without any interruption from the grid-connected state to the islanded state and vice versa (R. H. Lasseter, 2011) (Eto, 2015). Currently, most of the commercial controller and energy management work is around the first definition, which assumes an always grid-connected microgrid to manage and minimize the energy costs from the owner's perspective, which is just a subset of the entire controller features (Dan Ton J. R., 2017). Microgrid implementation work shows that expensive data communication solutions and commercial Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition (SCADA) systems have to be used, preventing wide penetration of microgrid controllers. Up to 20% of the entire microgrid costs can be attributed to the communication and up to 30% to the system integration and engineering (Dan Ton M. A., 2012). Thus, almost each controller is unique and not scalable.

Thus, the communication technologies and algorithms considered in this Proof-of-Concept work focus on a cheap solution for communication and cost management in microgrids.

2 Proposed Solution

The overall objective of the Proof-of-Concept (POC) controller has been the implementation of a simple communication network based on off-the-shelf hardware products and the development of flexible Python software modules to demonstrate low costs, simplicity, and reliability with the potential to host sophisticated MPC or AI modules in the future. Thus, the innovation lies in the flexible system integration, scalability, and low costs.

Figure 1 shows the basic structure of the tested concept. The PV system, including the inverter with an integrated power meter, RJ 45 interface, and on-board web server for data communication as well as the electric vehicle were already present at the building. One real-time bi-directional power meter as well as one uni-directional power meter had to be implemented. Both power meters are RJ 45 enabled with onboard web server (IP enabled) for the communication and allow reactive and active power measurements in real-time. To link the PV inverter with the power meters and the Raspberry Pi controller the power meters and PV inverter are connected via encrypted IEEE-1901 standard (Power-

LAN) to the internal local network and are behind the firewall for security reasons. Power-LAN or direct-LAN (d-Lan) is a communication technology which uses existing low voltage power lines for data transfer. Thus, no additional wires are needed. The IEEE-1901 standard and can achieve data rates up to 2000Mbit/s and transmit and revive in a range up to 300 m (985 ft) wire length.

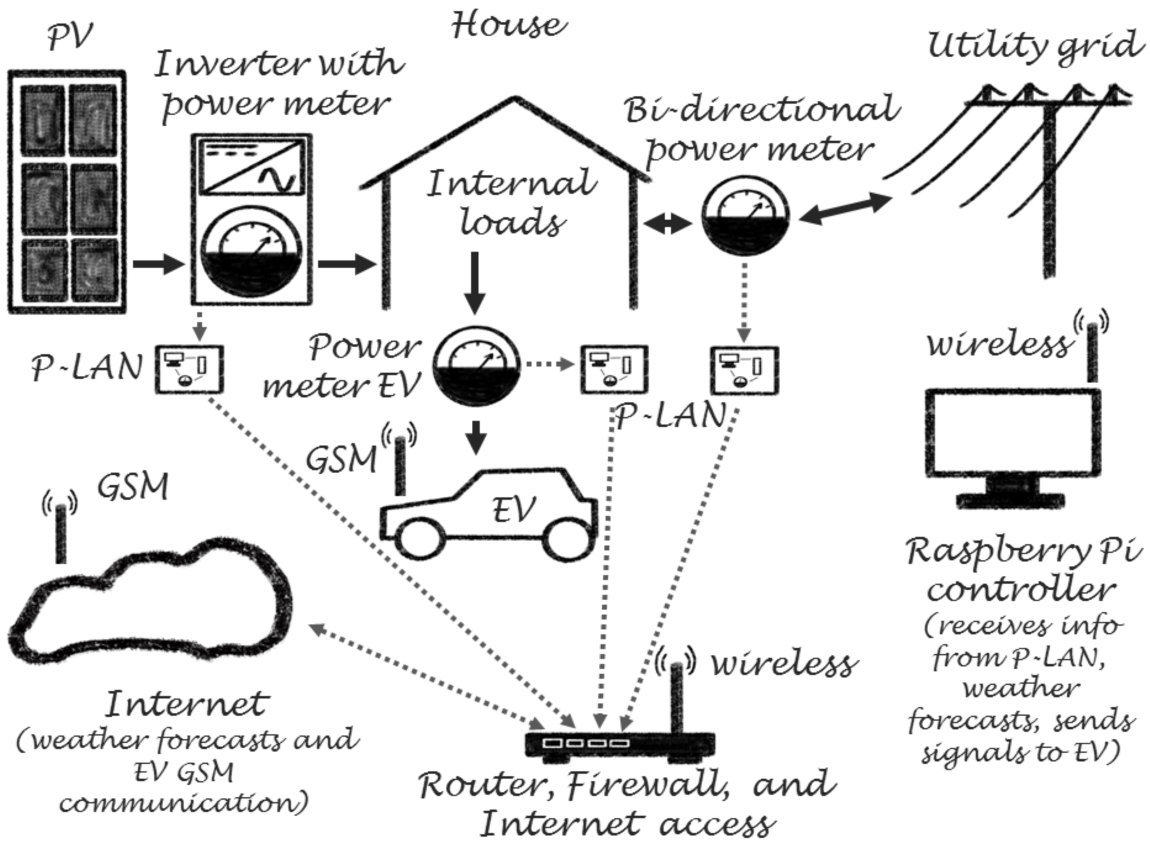

Figure 1: Schematic of energy and information flows; dark bold arrows: energy/power flows; dotted arrows: information flows.

The Router with integrated firewall interfaces with the Power-LAN and communicates with the Raspberry Pi via encrypted wireless, which also allows the Raspberry Pi Python controller modules to communicate with internet resources as wunderground.com (for weather forecasts) and also with the EV via a user Application Software (App). The Raspberry PI is a single-board computer, originally developed for teaching of basic computer science in developing countries, but because of its simplicity and the robust performance it is used for robotics and automation. Most Raspberry Pi systems use Linux distributions as operating system, making the Python programming language a prime candidate for the controller design and programming.

The designed communication module on the Raspberry Pi emulates user interaction with the EV app to start and stop the charging when required by the controller. The EV app then will initiate charging or stop charging via GSM communication, which is already built into the EV. The Raspberry Pi has been configured with “iptables” to enable a local firewall for security reasons. To ensure security it is also necessary to change the password on the standard Raspberry Pi user since it could be looked up on the internet.

2.1 Raspberry Pi Controller[2]

The POC controller consists of 5 individual programmed Python modules working together:

- forecaster module
- forecast upload module
- real-time data collection and control signal module
- EV communication module
- real-time figure upload module

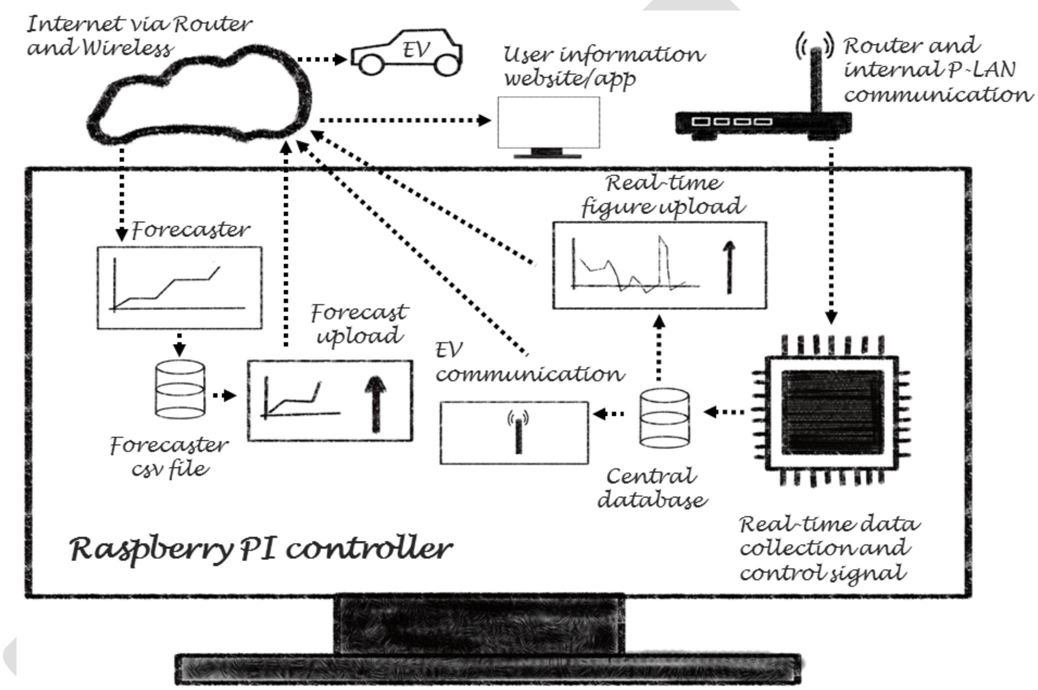

Figure 2: Raspberry Pi controller modules and functions.

The *forecaster module* connects to wunderground.com and collects the expected cloud cover for the forecast period on an hourly basis. The ideal PV output for the considered location and future hour will be modified with the cloud cover. A 100% cloud cover equals no PV output. Every 15 mins a new forecast update will be generated and uploaded to the user information website/app, which has been designed within this project so that the user can check the actual status of the forecast. The upload will be initiated by the *forecast upload module*. This process will inform the car owner about the expected PV output and if he/she should consider charging the EV within the next couple of days.

[2] Interested readers can request the Python source code. However, there is no guarantee that the code will be provided due to possible legal limitations.

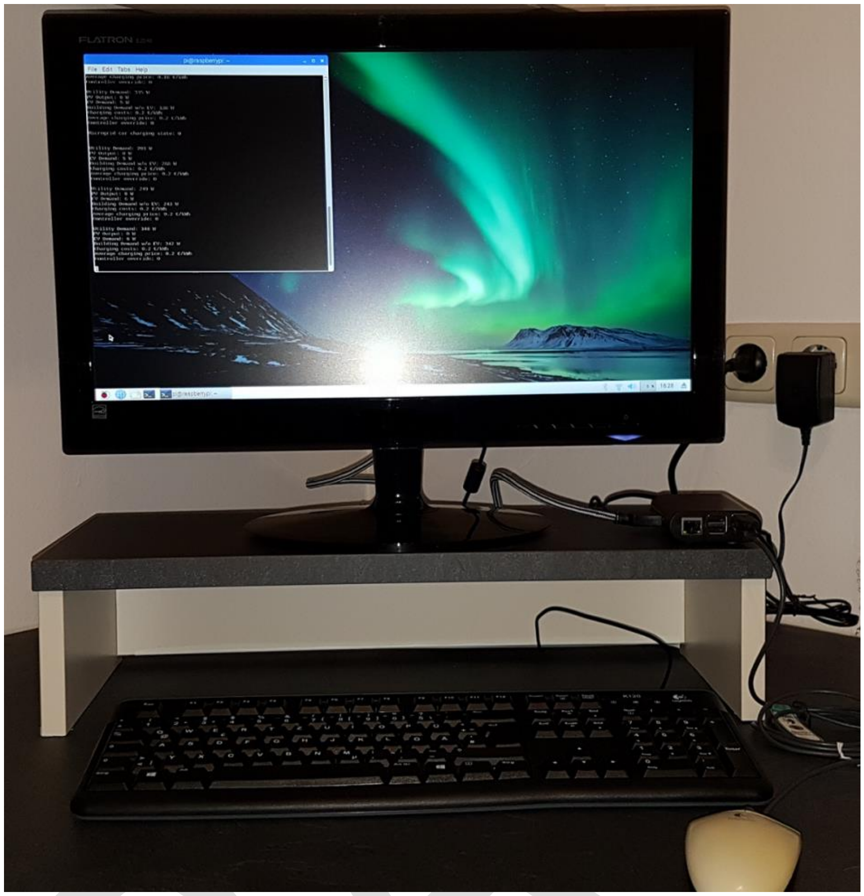

Figure 3: Operational wireless enabled Raspberry Pi controller (small black box on the right) with the controller modules running (small window on the screen).

The *forecaster module* consists of roughly 7000 characters or 180 lines of Python code (including comments, spaces and empty lines between code) and the major tasks are to a) connect to wunderground.com and retrieve the json forecast file for the specified location, b) parse through the returned file and determine the sky cover for the forecasting period, c) calculate the expected PV output based on the forecasted sky cover and ideal PV output without any clouds for the forecasting period, d) save the expected PV output for the next days in a csv file so that the *forecast upload module* can upload the data to the webserver in the next step. The top of Figure 4 shows an example for February/March 2018 in which the green line represents the forecasted PV output and the red line represents the forecasted cloud cover. When the "PV output forecast" is near or above the "Very low level charging" line the EV owner should consider connecting the EV to the socket since this represents our selected charging level in this proof-of-concept project. Please note that the cloud cover is scaled by a factor 10 to fit the diagram. The top figure of Figure 4 indicates that charging via the PV system will be attractive on March 1st.

The *forecast upload module* consists of roughly 2900 characters or 105 lines of Python code (including comments, spaces and empty lines between code). The Python code for the forecast upload module basically creates a plot of the forecast, based on the csv file, by using python's matplotlib and uploading it to a webserver via the python library ftplib.

The *real-time data collection and control signal module* is the most sophisticated python module required for this project. It consists of roughly 12600 characters or 390 lines of Python code (including comments, spaces and empty lines between code) and the major tasks are to a) collect the current sky cover for data logging and future self-learning algorithms[3], b) collect the actual power demand from the EV power meter, c) collect the actual building demand from the bi-directional power meter, d) collect the PV output from the PV inverter, e) calculate the controller signals (see also section 2.1.1 EV Controller Signal), f) and create and or update the central csv database file for data logging and to allow the *real-time figure upload module* to create graphs and also the EV communication module to send information to the EV. All python modules are programmed in a way to allow simple adjustment and scalability to other sites. In the case of the *real-time data collection and control signal module* the initialization section holds for example following information: 1) http addresses of the power meters or the weather website, 2) usernames and passwords for the power meter built-in accounts, 3) strings to identify the relevant information on the power meters and PV inverter since web-scraping techniques are programmed to find the relevant information, 4) electricity purchase and sales prices and other building relevant information to calculate the EV controller signals. The *real-time data collection and control signal module* does not communicate with the EV directly and the communication has been implemented via the *EV communication module*. Thus, all information collected and calculated by the controller is stored in a central database (in our case a csv file) with 16 entries/columns, holding important information as for example car connected to the building? Controller Override? First of all, the controller should only control the EV when it is connected to the building. This can be determined by the standby current of the EV. If the car is connected to the EV charging cable the EV power meter will detect a small standby power of roughly 4 W. If the controller does not detect at least an EV power demand of 4 W there is no car connected to the building and the controller will write a "0" into the database, and thus, the *EV communication module* will not attempt any communication with the EV. This is important since we do not want to interfere with any ongoing charging of the EV at other sites or external charging stations. Another important feature is fast charging, which should be able at the building at any time without any controller restrictions. Thus, the controller is designed to control only one level of charging. In our case 2300 W has been selected as the controllable level ("Very Low charging Level" from Figure 4). If the car owner wants to charge at any time he/she just selects a higher charging level on the charging cable settings and the controller will initiate a "Controller Override" and the *EV communication module* will also not interfere with the charging. The objective of the controller is to minimize the energy costs at the building (see next section).

The *real-time data collection and control signal module* runs in a 1 min loop and shorter loops could be set, which will be important in the future when islanded microgrids should be considered and faster response is required.

[3] To improve the forecasting and build the ideal PV output table for the forecaster module.

The *EV communication module* consists of roughly 5250 characters or 150 lines of Python code (including comments, spaces and empty lines between code) and the major task is to automatically login to the EV web application and retrieve a security token to perform the charging and discharging operations in an automated and encrypted fashion. To achieve this, the Vehicle Identification Number (VIN) is used to establish a secured communication with the proper car. Whenever there is a change in the central csv database (see Figure 4) regarding the charging signal, the *EV communication module* will send the changes to the EV web application via post requests from the python request library. To minimize the traffic between the Raspberry Pi *EV communication module* and the EV web application only changes in the charging state are sent to the EV website and then to the car, identified by the VIN.

The last module used in the controller is the *"real-time figure upload module"*, which creates a figure of the real-time building demand, EV demand, PV output and other parameters. The module consists of roughly 5800 characters or 190 lines of Python code (including comments, spaces and empty lines between code).

To inform the car owner a user information screen is created by the modules and displaced on a website. This is the only information and interaction point for the user, and thus, creates a very user-friendly environment (see Figure 4). At the top are two icons indicating if the car is connected to the microgrid and if the EV is charged (in our example no charging happens since the battery icon is crossed out). The top diagram in Figure 4 is the forecast uploaded by the *forecast upload module* and the diagram at the bottom is the real-time figure indicating the conditions of the system, created by the *real-time figure upload module*. The forecast indicates that connecting the EV on February 28th might be beneficial and March 1st looks very promising for controlled EV charging. The real-time figure is the most complicated diagram and the dark blue line is the total demand purchased from the utility. The spikes around time-step 400 to 500 indicate electric cooking at noon. The green line is the PV output and since the figure shows a snowy winter day there is only limited PV output, which also is reflected by the dashed yellow line. The dashed yellow line is the *actual kWh cost* as described in the next section and it is always higher than the charging threshold *kWh cost 1*. The turquoise line is the EV charging and there is no charging all day long, except a tiny spike at time-step 700. The car was not connected all day long and at time-step 700 the car was connected and started charging, but since the costs are not favorable the controller turned off the charging immediately. Finally, the red line is the observed sky cover. To fit the diagram nicely it is shown in 10 times 100% and 100% sky cover is equal 1000% in Figure 4.

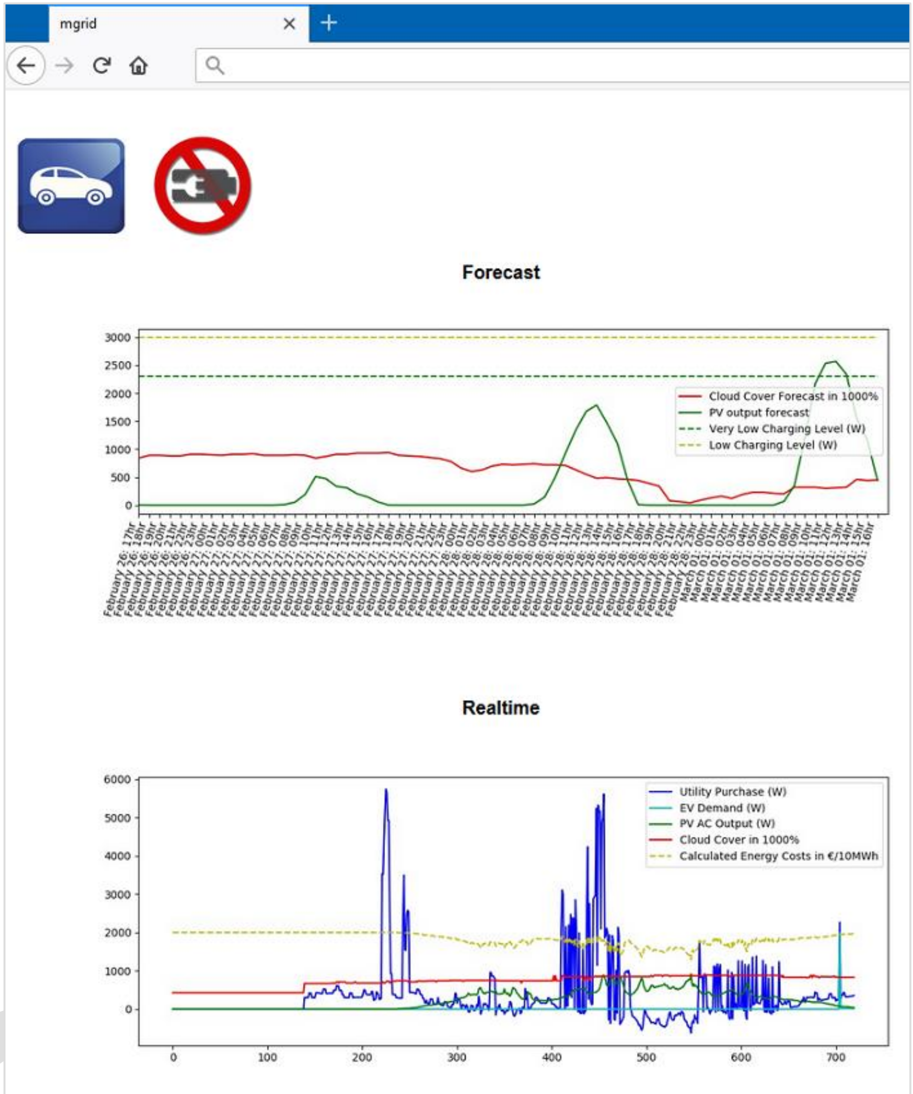

Figure 4: User information website screen for the entire controller package created in this proof-of-concept.

2.1.1 EV Controller Signal

Ideally we would like to charge the electric vehicle with just excessive PV output, but this requires that the EV charger can provide continues charging power to reflect continuous outputs of the PV inverter. Current charging infrastructure, like the one used in this work, can only change the charging current and power in discrete steps or it is not controllable via the Internet or other forms of easy communication. Thus, we have to find estimates for an optimal EV charging strategy. Since the PV system had been already installed before the electric vehicle was considered, the only costs we can control at this point are the utility costs. Hence, a strategy could be to minimize the kilo-watt-hour costs for the entire building by using the electric vehicle mostly at times when the PV system is generating.

But, when should we start charging the EV via the PV system to create a “profit”? Should it be when the PV system could cover all the EV charging power, meaning when the sales to the utility are exactly the power demand for the EV charger or is it possible that we could start at lower PV output levels when we still have to purchase some energy from the utility?

We define following objective function for the controller: *Charge the EV in a way to reduce the kilo-watt hour costs for all consumed energy at the building, including the energy for EV charging.*

To follow this objective, it is necessary to calculate the kilo-watt hour costs for the building without the electric vehicle.

$$kwh\ cost\ 1 = \frac{utility\ demand \cdot purchase\ price\ - sales\ to\ the\ utility\ \cdot sale\ price}{electricity\ demand\ building}$$

$$= €0.096/kWh$$

Equation 1

with

$utility\ demand = 2900\ kWh/year$

$sales\ to\ the\ utility = 2900\ kWh/year$

$electricity\ demand\ building = 4230\ kWh/year$

$purchase\ price = €0.2/kWh$

$sales\ price = €0.06/kWh$

Now, how would the most optimal charging strategy look like? Since we are not controlling the building itself, the best the controller could do is to charge the EV with PV energy only. In this case, we could achieve following kilo-watt hour costs for the building, including the EV demand.

$$kWh\ cost\ 2 = \frac{utility\ demand\ \cdot purchase\ price\ - \{sales\ to\ the\ utility - EV\ charging\} \cdot sale\ price}{total\ electricity\ demand} = €0.086/kWh$$

Equation 2

with

$utility\ demand = 2900\ kWh/year\ (utility\ demand\ without\ EV)$

$sales\ to\ the\ utility = 2900\ kWh/year\ (without\ EV)$

$EV\ charging = 1700\ kWh/year$[4]

$total\ electricity\ demand = 5930\ kWh/year\ (including\ EV)$

The worst case would be if all additional electricity for the EV were to be purchased from the utility.

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[4] This is based on real driving data from the electric vehicle which is used 10,000 km a year and consumes 17kWh/100km on average.

$$kWh\ cost\ 3 = \frac{\{utility\ demand + EV\ charging\} \cdot purchase\ price\ -\ sales\ to\ the\ utility\ \cdot sale\ price}{total\ electricity\ demand} = €0.126/kWh$$

Equation 3

Based on these considerations the electric vehicle should be charged when the kilo-watt hour costs in each controller time step are less than *kWh cost 1* (€0.096/kWh).

For each controller time step, the Python *real-time data collection and control signal module* on the Raspberry Pi will calculate the *actual kWh cost* and if it is less than *kWh cost 1* it will initiate charging. To be able to do this the controller needs to assume a certain charging level. In our case the smallest charging level the infrastructure can provide is 2.3 kW. The power meters provide the PV output, the EV charging level, and effective utility demand in each time step, which is one minute in our test case. If there was no charging signal in the previous controller loop, the controller will calculate a charging option by adding 2.3 kW to the utility demand and check if the resulting *kWh cost* for this option is less than *kWh cost 1*. If it is less, the controller will initiate the charging command. In the next loop the controller will use the real power demand from the EV charging infrastructure, which might deviate slightly from the 2.3 kW. It will also use the updated PV output and updated utility demand to calculate the *actual kWh cost*. If the *actual kWh cost* is greater than *kWh cost 1* it will stop the charging, otherwise continue. Please consider following example:

1) Actual controller state: no charging
2) Metered PV output: 1.9 kW
3) Metered electricity demand from utility: -1.2 kW (sales to the utility)
4) Calculated building demand: 0.7 kW
5) Controller adds a charging option with 2.3 kW (since there is no actual charging)
6) *kWh cost* for charging option: $= \frac{2.3-1.2}{3} \cdot 0.2 = €0.073/kWh < 0.093€/kWh$
7) Initiate charging signal.

To avoid frequent cycling around *kWh cost 1*, a moving average of the last 5 *actual kWh cost* will be used for the decision making in the controller.

Of course, this approach does not describe the most optimal solution due to the already mentioned discrete charging levels, which prevent the controller from utilizing all the excessive energy from the PV system. Also, this approach completely neglects forward looking capabilities as used in MPC. Such MPC approaches would allow more flexibility since the MPC could also inform the building owner about possible PV output conditions during the next days and this would allow more flexibility and cost savings (Michael Stadler, 2015; Stefano Raimondi Cominesi, 2017). Sophisticated microgrids should also consider thermal energy and MPC for thermal technologies as hot water storage or local biomass systems (Moser, 2016). However, the main goal of this work is to demonstrate a basic, simple, and expandable controller platform and it could be extended by MPC methods.

2.2 Communication Infrastructure and Hardware Implementation

It was a challenge to retrieve real-time load data for the entire building (bi-directional power meter in Figure 1). The building is equipped with a smart meter owned by the public utility, but the regulation in Austria is lacking behind other countries and there is no legislation in place which regulates real-time data exchange between the utility owned smart meter and the building owner. Thus, the decision was to use a separate metering unit. However, most cheap metering technologies are running on propriety protocols without any direct IP enabled on-board web-server for direct Internet of Things (IoT) communication. There are only a limited number of IP enabled metering devices available, and therefore, most of the hardware costs were spent on the two IP enabled power meters, which results in 45% of the total equipment and engineering costs from Table 2. Since it was necessary to use a separate power meter for the entire building, it was also necessary to hire a licensed electrical contractor to install the power meter in the switchbox (see also Figure 5). That electrical engineer had to upgrade cables for the EV charging to enable fast charging too. Those engineering costs are roughly 38% of the total contracted engineering and equipment costs from Table 2.

Figure 5: Bi-directional power meter (small black box at the top) and P-Lan (grey box that connects to the bi-directional power meter) in the switchbox.

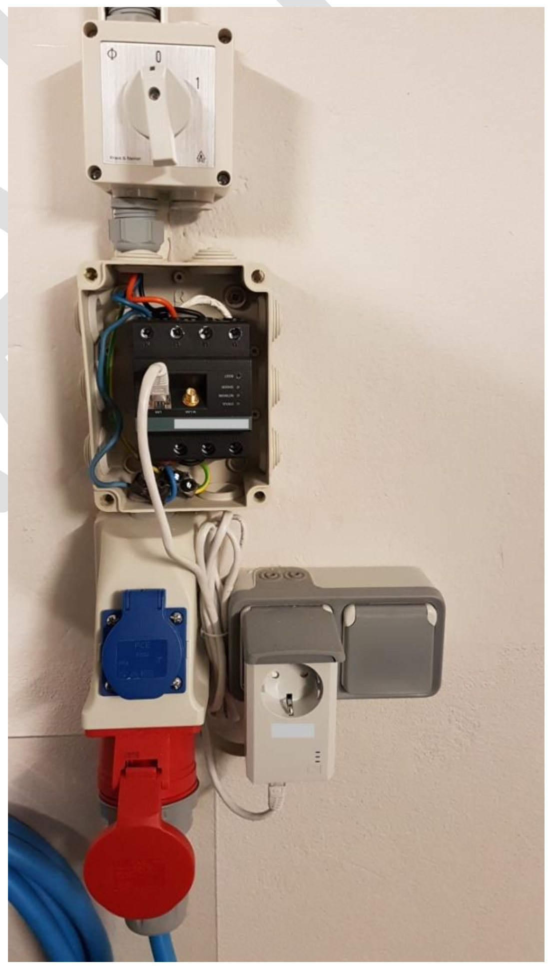

Figure 6: Main switch (at the top), EV power meter (black box in open casing), P-Lan unit (grey box which connects via network cable to the EV power meter), and charging cable for EV (red socket with blue cable).

The integration of the power meters and the PV inverter in the Power-Lan communication infrastructure does not require a licensed technician. It was also necessary to mount a casing for the EV power meter and to add a main switch to allow complete disconnection of the EV charging unit. This work does not require a skilled engineer either (see also Figure 6). Figure 6 also shows the blue charging cable at the bottom, which needs to be plugged into the car for charging. That blue cable is attached to a “smart” device which allows selecting the different charging levels. The “smart” device, which is not shown in the figure to avoid any indirect support for that equipment manufacturer can provide charging levels up to 22 kW by just pressing an associated button. If the car owner wants that the Python controller manages the charging he/she just selects the selected controllable level (in our case the 2.3 kW, see also the description of the *real-time data collection and control signal* module in the previous section).

2.3 Equipment Costs, Labor, and Hours

The following tables clearly show the low costs for this Proof-of-Concept controller. The entire functional system was just developed for roughly €13500 ($16500). If this system would be rolled out at different residential buildings with an EV and PV system present, it would only cost roughly €2300 ($2800)[5] per site and if no cable upgrades are needed, the cost would be only around €1700 ($2100).

Category	Note	Hours	Assumed Hourly Rate ($/hr)	Costs ($)	Costs (Euro)
Research	IT infrastructure, communication technologies, electrical equipment, EV charging algorithms	18	200	3600	2951
IT Research and Software Programming	Python Programming and controller algorithms	64.5	150	9675	7930
Minor Electrical Installation Work	Installation of Power-LAN and power meter for EV	8	100	800	656
Administrative Work	Purchase of equipment	6	70	420	344
	Total	**96.5**		**14495**	**11881**

Table 1: Research, software programming, and minor electrical installation work for the Prototype.

Category	Items	Costs (US $)	Costs (Euro)
Communication Infrastructure	Four Power-LAN adapters for the PV, EV meter, main meter, Router integration	138	113
Controller	Raspberry Pi, memory card, Raspberry Pi casing, monitor cable	109	89
Power Meter	Two real-time IP enabled power meters (main bi-directional meter for the building and EV power meter	885	726
Electrical Equipment	Manual on/off switch and small electric casing for EV power meter	82	67
	Sub-Total	***1214***	***995***
Electrical Engineer	Cable upgrades to enable super-fast charging (22 kW), was necessary due to old cables in house; installation of bi-directional power meter	744	610
	Total	**1958**	**1605**

Table 2: Microgrid controller equipment and contracted engineering costs.

[5] Total costs of Table 2 plus „Minor Electrical Installation Work“ from Table 1.

Of course, these costs do not consider any maintenance service, liability costs, or major changes to the Python code at a major product roll-out. However, since the Python code was programmed in a modular way, simple adjustments and modifications like IP address changes, energy prices, etc. can be handled in minutes.

3 Test runs

3.1 Volatile PV Output and Controller Response

For low level charging, as described in the previous section, the controller will plan the charging based on a cost threshold, in our case $kWh\ cost\ 1$. To dampen some of the fluctuations, the average of the last 5 $actual\ kWh\ cost$ numbers is used and if that number is less than $kWh\ cost\ 1$ (in our case $0.096/kWh), the controller will initiate the charging. To test this behavior a very volatile PV output pattern was chosen. Figure 7 depicts the metered utility purchase (in blue) the PV Output (in green), the controlled EV charging (in turquoise), the observed cloud cover (in red), and $actual\ kWh\ cost$ (in the figure it is called "Calculated Energy Costs in €/10MWh" and represented by the dashed yellow line). Around time step 300, the averaged $actual\ kWh\ cost$ is less than $kWh\ cost\ 1$ and the controller initiates charging, but only for a brief period of time since the $actual\ kWh\ cost$ increases again because of reduced PV output. The EV won't be charged until the PV output increases again around time step 400. Because of the charging between time step 400 and 525 the utility demand hoovers around the zero line. There is also a brief period of charging around time step 575. One observed problem during the tests was a limited GSM reception during bad weather conditions and this resulted in lost data packages. This required a change in the EV communication module. It was necessary to program a status check and to require a confirmation from the EV. If the EV does not send a confirmation about the initiated command, the controller resends the command until a positive response has been received.

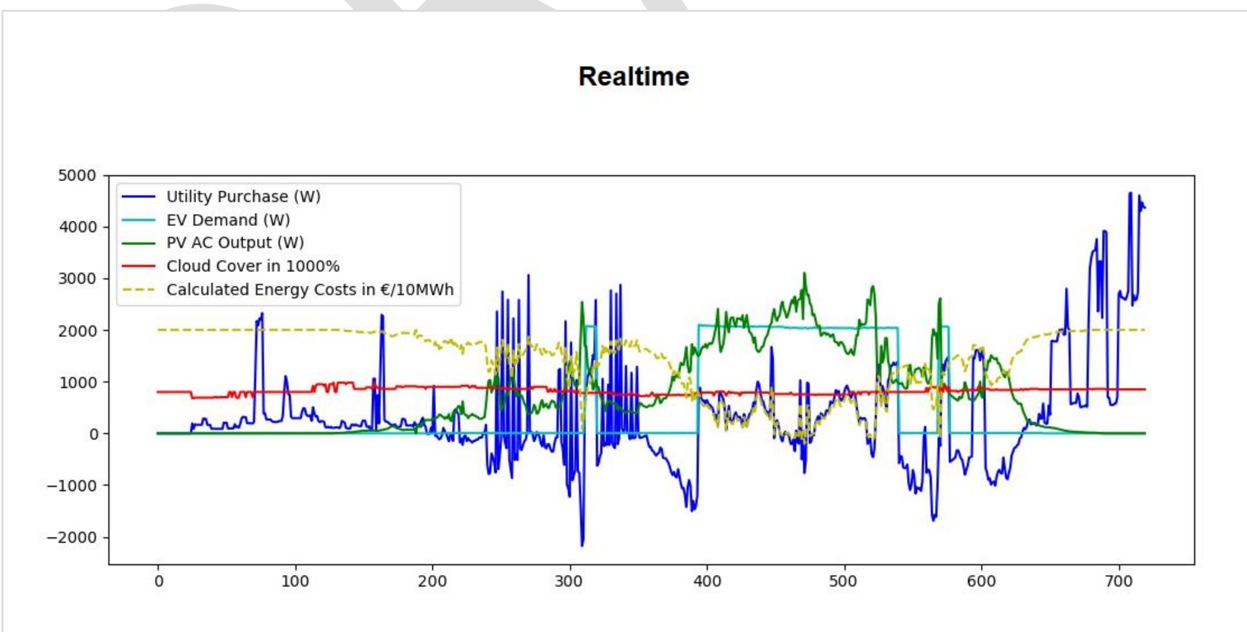

Figure 7: Realtime figure for a volatile PV output. Source: User information screen of the controller.

3.2 Fast Charging Detection and Controller Override

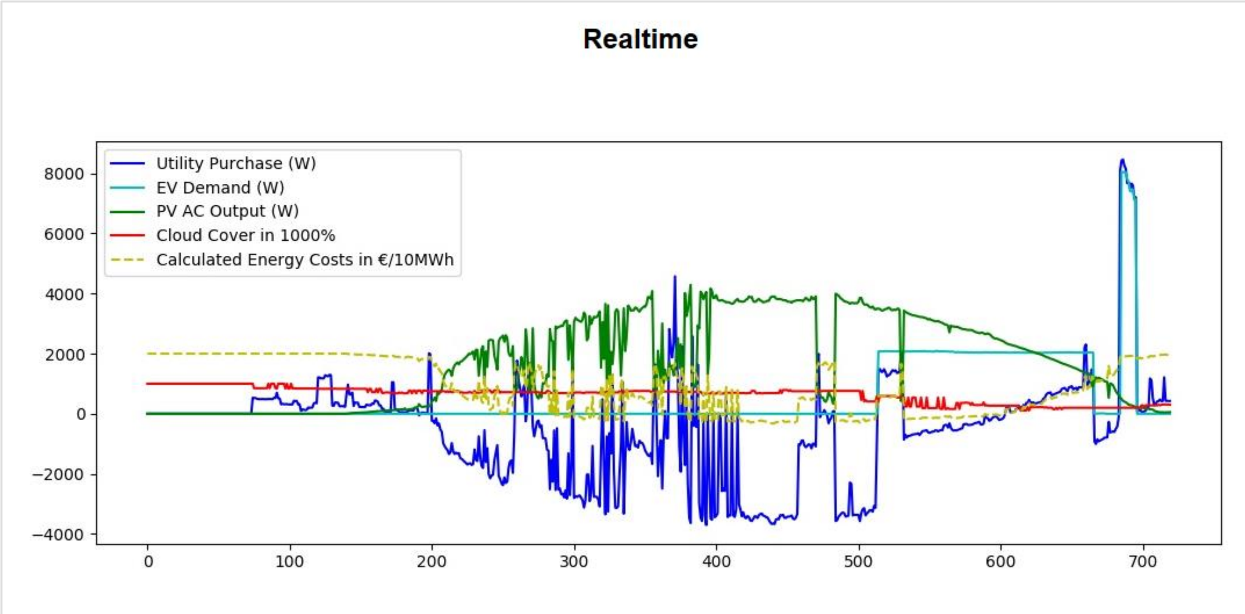

Figure 8: Realtime figure with fast charging. Source: User information screen of the controller.

An important feature of the POC Python controller is to manage the charging process at a certain charging level only (in our case 2.3 kW) and not to interfere with the charging at higher charging levels or when the car is not connected to the building. Figure 8 demonstrates that behavior. The EV was not connected to the building until around time step 500. Because of favorable conditions the controller initiated charging as the EV became connected to the building and initiated the stop charging command around time step 675. Right after that a higher charging level was selected by the car owner at the "smart" charging cable to completely charge the EV at any charging costs. The *real-time data collection and control signal module* detected that higher charging power of 8 kW and did not interfere with the charging since it sent a controller override to the central database and this means that the *EV communication module* will not interfere with the charging. As the EV battery was fully charged, the EV stop-charging automatically.

4 Conclusions

The main objective of this work has been to demonstrate a low costs and basic controller concept based on standardized hardware communication products and expandable Python software modules which are running on a cheap Raspberry PI to control the charging process of an EV. That battery charging will be controlled only when the EV is connected to the building with the objective to minimize charging costs and support the electricity generation from the onsite PV system. This work is driven by the fact that expensive communication hardware and proprietary communication protocols and infrastructure limit the penetration of new and innovative technologies in microgrids. Furthermore, sophisticated controller algorithms cannot be deployed if it requires customized engineering for each microgrid. Thus, the demonstrated concept should be understood as a basic test case that will be expended by MPC and AI algorithms in the future. The designed concept is open enough to consider other technologies as stationary storage without major changes to the code and communication. The Proof-of-Concept platform will be used as testbed for future research.

The work clearly demonstrates that it is possible to design such a Proof-of-Concept controller for €13500 ($16500) and a roll-out of such a controller can be as cheap as €1700 ($2100). Focusing on the hardware costs of such a controller concept it becomes clear that the hardware can be cheaper than €1000 ($1200), creating a reference point for any commercial communication, data infrastructure, and smart controller hardware in a residential or small commercial microgrid.

It has been proven that the controller works reliable and the next steps are the integration of MPC and AI methods to create forward looking predictive capabilities. Another focus of research will be the consideration of islanded conditions, which will create interesting challenges due to active and reactive power aspects and fast response times.

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