

# Reduced model of active-rectifier-based bi-directional charger for vehicle-to-grid

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## Abstract

The dramatic increase in the number of electric vehicles (EVs) on the roads may cause a negative impact on the grid, as charging their battery requires a huge amount of power. In such circumstances, Vehicle-to-Grid (V2G) becomes a promising solution that can regulate the energy flow between EVs' batteries and the power system to avoid overloading and enhance power quality. This paper proposes a bi-directional charging control system based on the reduced model of the active rectifier for V2G application. The proposed control system can exchange energy with the grid in V2G mode, limit the charging power in smart charging mode, and control the active and reactive power to the grid. All the controllers of the system are designed based on the average model using energetic macroscopic representation (EMR), hence, they can operate in a wide working range. The performance and functionality of the proposed charger are evaluated by numerically simulating a full charging cycle of the battery with various testing scenarios.

**Keywords:** V2G; EMR; Smart Charging; EVs; Charging Strategy

## 1. Introduction

The environment and natural resources are becoming an increasingly significant challenge for our modern world. In this context, electric vehicles (EVs) have emerged as a promising solution to mitigate negative environmental impacts and conserve natural resources [1]. EVs operate more efficiently than traditional internal combustion engine (ICE) vehicles, helping to save energy and reduce resource consumption. Furthermore, advancements in battery technology and charging infrastructure are making important progress, enhancing driving range, reducing charging times, and making it more convenient to use in daily life. Using EVs is a crucial step towards building a more sustainable, cleaner, and modern future.

The large-scale deployment of EV charging infrastructure poses significant challenges for the existing power grid. One major concern is voltage variation. When a large number of EVs are charged simultaneously in a localized area, the sudden increase in load demand can lead to voltage drops or fluctuations. This can adversely affect the performance of both EV chargers and household appliances. Additionally, grid frequency stability may also be compromised. The irregular and unpredictable nature of EV charging loads, particularly during peak hours, can create an imbalance between supply and demand, resulting in deviations in system frequency and potentially leading to grid instability. Moreover, fast EV charging can degrade power quality by introducing harmonics, causing voltage flicker, and resulting in a low power factor.

Therefore, there is an urgent need for a charging infrastructure that is efficient, scalable, safe, and sustainable to ensure the stable operation of future power systems. For that, in addition to providing energy to EVs, charging stations must also maintain grid stability. Numerous studies have been

conducted to improve EV charging technology, focusing on various aspects.

In the first aspect, research on charging station design aims to develop optimal charging architectures that enhance energy transfer efficiency and integration with the electrical system. Investigations in this area focus on improving energy converters, particularly DC-AC and DC-DC converters, to minimize energy losses and enhance grid compatibility [2], [3], [4]. The studies presented in [5] and [6] offer in-depth insights into circuit configurations for both AC-DC and DC-DC conversion stages. Popular topologies under investigation include multi-level inverters, resonant converters, and high-frequency converters, all designed to optimize the size and performance of charging stations. Additionally, Wireless Power Transfer (WPT) technology is also being explored to enhance the convenience and safety of the EV charging process [7], [8].

Studies on control strategies for optimizing charging performance have been implemented to reduce energy losses and maintain system stability [9], [10], [11], [12], [13]. Control methods applied include hysteresis control, PI/PID control, and LQR control [14]. Notably, advanced control algorithms based on artificial intelligence (AI) are being investigated to automatically adjust charging currents, thereby improving performance and protecting the electrical system from undesirable fluctuations [15].

Research works aimed at optimizing the charging process to ensure battery longevity and usage efficiency have proposed various charging profiles, among which the most common are the Constant Current (CC), Constant Voltage (CV), and hybrid CC/CV modes [16], [17], [18]. These studies also focus on reducing battery operating temperatures and limiting the maximum state of charge to decelerate battery degradation [19], [20].

Currently, research on Vehicle-to-Grid (V2G) technology is being conducted to enable EVs not only to consume but also to supply electricity back to the grid, thus aiding in load balancing, supporting the integration of renewable energy, and optimizing energy management. However, current V2G studies primarily focus on energy management aspects, considering the charging station as an ideal connection point that can be fully controlled, rather than concentrating on power electronics control.

EV charging is a specific topic within the broader research field of power electronics, which focuses primarily on the design, modeling, and control of power converters. Researchers in this field conduct detailed investigations into switching behavior, operational modes, and various converter topologies. Such studies often require precise observation of voltage and current waveforms at very high time resolution, typically in nanoseconds, to capture the rapid switching events in semiconductor devices, which significantly increases the computational load. As a result, even simulating a few seconds of converter operation can require significant processing power and memory resources, particularly when detailed models of power semiconductor devices and control loops are included. Additionally, when these converters are integrated into larger systems, such as EV charging stations or grid-connected charging networks, the complexity of the overall simulation increases exponentially. Consequently, long-term or real-time simulations of EV charging systems at the power electronics level are often impractical. These simulations are highly resource-intensive and frequently exceed the capabilities of standard simulation platforms, leading to a lack of a comprehensive overview of system performance.

In this paper, we propose a design of a charging station that allows bidirectional energy exchange with the grid. The proposed system is first represented by the Energetic Macroscopic Representation (EMR) method. From that, the control scheme is deduced by the Inversion-based Control (IBC) principle. The studied charging station can support the grid by controlling active and reactive power, as well as limiting the charging power as demanded. The paper has the following contributions.

- The proposed charging system can operate in various modes, including conventional charging, smart charging, and V2G mode (bidirectional charging).
- The proposed system enables long-term system simulations. In other words, the system can be observed over a long duration of charging, allowing a thorough evaluation and observation of operational effectiveness and the impact of the charging process on the grid.
- The paper analyses the behavior of the system when changing the charging modes. For that, a controller switching technique is also proposed to smooth the charging process and enhance the control performance.

The proposed charging system is validated by simulation and evaluated with various testing scenarios. The results illustrate the practical feasibility of V2G in real-life applications.

The paper is organized as follows. Section II describes the configuration of the charging system. Section III proposes the control and management system design. Section IV validates the proposed system and presents the simulation results of the charging system. Finally, conclusions are given in Section V.

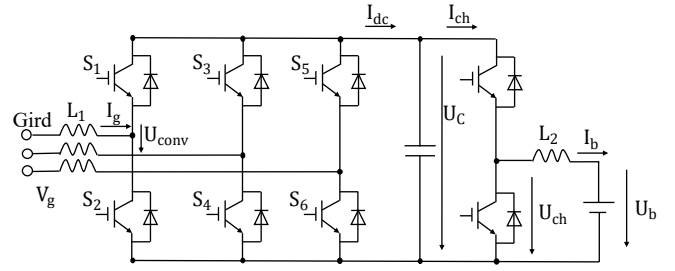


Figure 1: System Configuration.

## 2. System Configuration and Modeling

This paper employs the EMR method to represent the system and design the charging control scheme using the averaged model instead of the switching model. Consequently, the system can be simulated over an extended period, thereby supporting the application of bidirectional V2G.

EMR is a graphical representation method, is almost immediately applied in the research of systems with various interacting physical components, such as wind power systems[21], electrochemical processes[22], and notably in energy exchange systems within electric vehicles. There are principles of the EMR that must be followed during model development.

- Interaction principle: Elements in the system are bidirectionally linked based on the principles of action and reaction.
- Causality principle: Causality integration is employed in the method, manifested in the accumulation element describing the time-dependent relationship between variables.
- Inversion principle: To attain the desired input value from the desired output, the control structure of the system is regarded as an inverted model for each element.

### 2.1 System Configuration

Fig. 1 illustrates a commonly used charging system configuration. The grid is connected to the input AC inductors  $L_1$  for filtering, then passes through an active rectifier stage to create a DC voltage at the capacitor. At this point, this voltage is controlled to achieve a set value. The voltage at the capacitor goes through a DC/DC stage and is connected to a DC inductor  $L_2$  and the vehicle battery. The current through the inductor coil  $L_2$  and the voltage of the battery are controlled sequentially in CC and CV charging modes.

### 2.2 System Modeling

The system model components are represented by yellow and green blocks within the System Modules Layer, as illustrated in Fig. 4. The arrows indicate the interaction variables that are exchanged between the modules. The detailed description of each component's model is presented below.

- Grid: The power grid comprises three line-to-line voltages, each with a peak amplitude of  $V_g$  and an angular frequency of  $\omega$ . These line voltages are phase-shifted by an angle of  $\frac{2\pi}{3}$  with respect to one another. The mathematical representation of the grid voltages is as follows:

$$\begin{cases} U_{ga} = V_g \sin(\omega t + \frac{2\pi}{3}) \\ U_{gb} = V_g \sin(\omega t) \\ U_{gc} = V_g \sin(\omega t - \frac{2\pi}{3}) \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

- Grid-side Inductor  $L_1$ : The voltage drop across the grid-side inductor ( $U_{L1}$ ) is calculated as the difference between the grid voltage ( $U_g$ ) and the converter's input voltage ( $U_{conv}$ ). In the time domain, this relationship can be represented by the following equation:

$$U_g - U_{conv} = L_1 \frac{dI_g}{dt} + R_1 I_g \quad (2)$$

where  $L_1$  denotes the inductance value of the grid-side inductors, and  $R_1$  represents their resistance.

For the purpose of control system design, the circuit elements are modeled in the frequency domain with the Laplace operator. Consequently, the relationship between the relevant quantities associated with inductor  $L_1$  can be expressed as:

$$I_g(s) = (U_g(s) - U_{conv}(s)) \frac{1}{L_1 s + R_1} \quad (3)$$

- Battery-side Inductor  $L_2$ : The voltage drop across this inductor ( $U_{L2}$ ) is equal to the difference between the output voltage of the chopper ( $U_{ch}$ ) and the battery voltage ( $U_b$ ). The corresponding expression can be derived as follows:

$$I_b(s) = (U_{ch}(s) - U_b(s)) \frac{1}{L_2 s + R_2} \quad (4)$$

where,  $L_2$  represents the inductance of the battery-side inductor, and  $R_2$  denotes its resistance.

- DC-link Capacitor: The voltage across the capacitor ( $U_c$ ) is equal to the integral of the current flowing through it ( $I_c$ ), divided by its capacitance ( $C$ ). This relationship can be expressed as:

$$U_c = \frac{1}{C} \int I_c dt \quad (5)$$

where,  $I_c = I_{dc} - I_{ch}$ , and  $I_{dc}$  is the output current of the converter, and  $I_{ch}$  is the input current of the chopper. By transforming this expression to the frequency domain, the relationship between the capacitor current and voltage can be described as:

$$U_c(s) = (I_{dc}(s) - I_{ch}(s)) \frac{1}{Cs} \quad (6)$$

- Active rectifier: The control signal  $m_1$  consists of three modulation functions in types of sine waves,  $m_1 = [m_a, m_b, m_c]^T$

$$\begin{cases} U_{conv} = m_1 \frac{U_c}{2} \\ I_{dc} = m_a I_{ga} + m_b I_{gb} + m_c I_{gc} \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

- The DC/DC converter (chopper):

$$\begin{cases} I_{ch} = m_2 I_{dc} \\ U_{ch} = m_2 U_c \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

where,  $m_2$  is the modulation function of the chopper.

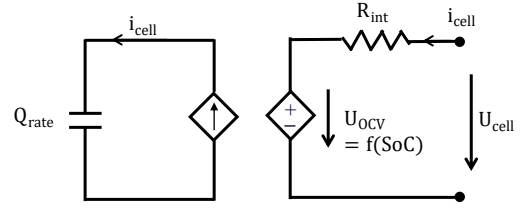


Figure 2: Equivalent circuit of battery cell

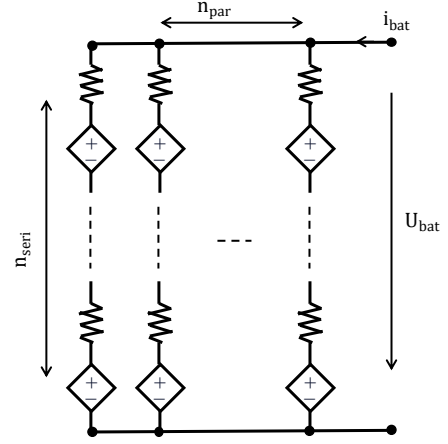


Figure 3: Equivalent circuit of battery pack.

- Vehicle battery: A vehicle battery cell can be represented by an internal resistor  $R_b$  which is connected in series with a very high energy-density capacitor with capacitance  $Q_b$  as described in Fig. 2. For each cell of the battery pack, the model can be deduced from its equivalent circuit as follows.

$$\begin{cases} SOC = \frac{1}{3600 Q_b} \int I_{cell} \\ U_{cell} = I_{cell} R_b + U_{OCV} \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

where,  $U_{OCV}$  is the open circuit voltage of the battery cell which is a function of the state-of-charge (SOC),  $U_{cell}$  and  $I_{cell}$  denote output voltage and current of each cell, respectively.

In order to design a battery pack, one can generate combinations of cells by connecting them in a given configuration. Let us define  $n_{seri}$  number of battery cells that are connected in series and  $n_{par}$  number of parallel branches as described in Fig. 3, the power sharing among cells inside the pack can be written:

$$U_b = (\frac{I_b}{n_{par}} R_b + U_{OCV}) n_{seri} \quad (10)$$

### 3. Proposed Control and Management system design

Based on the inversion principle of the EMR, the control architecture of the system is designed as illustrated in Fig. 4. Each yellow element in Fig. 4 corresponds to an element of the system in Fig. 1. The key components are the blue blocks located in the Control Layer, which include the current and voltage controllers, as well as the inverted models of the converter and chopper. The Estimation Layer consists of pink elements that are responsible for estimating the rotational angle of the grid voltage. Meanwhile, the dark blue blocks in the

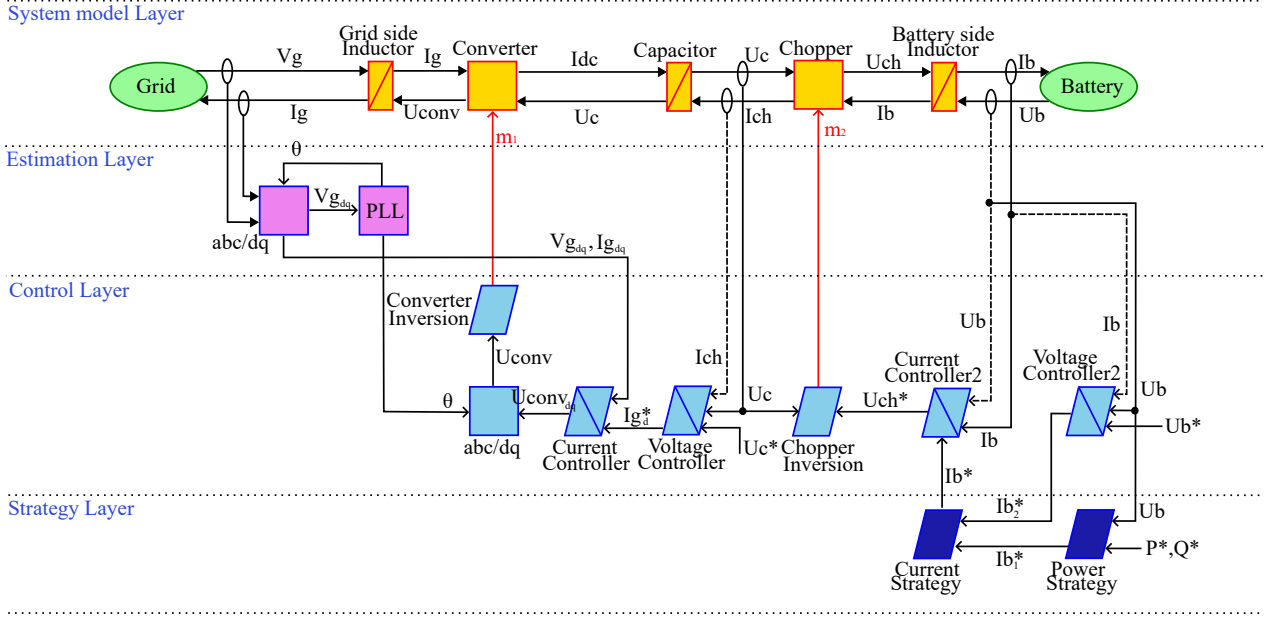


Figure 4: System Representation and Control Scheme.

Strategy Layer coordinate the operation of the control scheme, which helps generate the desired power reference.

The control of the system involves two concurrent processes. The first process, i.e., active rectification, aims to maintain a constant voltage level in the DC-link capacitor. The second process focuses on controlling the charging power, where the charging current ( $I_b$ ) is calculated based on a reference charging power. Furthermore, the State of Charge (SOC) of the battery is used to decide whether to apply Constant Current (CC) or Constant Voltage (CV) charging mode.

Additionally, the control system is designed in the dq coordinate system for some benefits, such as simplification, reduced dimensions, and increased system stability.

### 3.1 Phase-locked loop

Located in the Estimation Layer, the phase-locked loop (PLL) operates based on controlling the angular velocity of the dq-coordinate axis system such that the projection of the grid voltage vector onto the q-axis is zero (at that time, the grid voltage vector lies along the d-axis). Consequently, the angular velocity of the coordinate system axis tracks the angular velocity of the grid voltage vector. By determining the angular velocity and angle of the coordinate system axis, the frequency and phase angle of the grid voltage can be calculated. The transfer function of the phase control loop circuit can be described by a second-order system  $G_{pll}$ .

$$G_{pll} = \frac{Kp_{pll}s + Ki_{pll}}{s^2 + Kp_{pll}s + Ki_{pll}} \quad (11)$$

By comparing it with a standard second-order function, we have the control parameters of the PLL.

$$\begin{cases} Kp_{pll} = 2\frac{2\pi}{T_{res_{pll}}}\xi \\ Ki_{pll} = \frac{2\pi}{T_{res_{pll}}}^2 \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

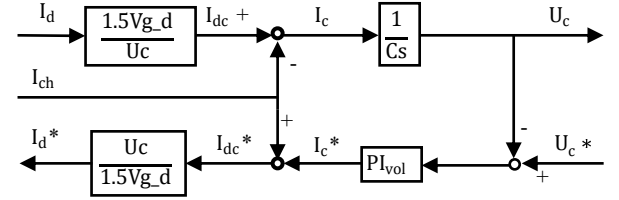


Figure 5: Block diagram of the capacitor voltage control loop.

## 3.2 System Control Design

### 3.2.1 AC/DC control

Aiming to regulate the DC-link capacitor voltage to a constant level, this process consists of 2 main control loops: the capacitor's voltage control loop and the current control loop.

**Voltage control loop** As illustrated in Fig. 5, the actual value  $U_c$  is compared with the reference value  $U_c^*$ , then passed through a PI controller to generate the set value  $I_{dc}^*$ . Next, disturbances are compensated for by adding the value  $I_{ch}$  to create the quantity  $I_{dc}^*$ . If losses in the rectifier and in the inductor are neglected, then:

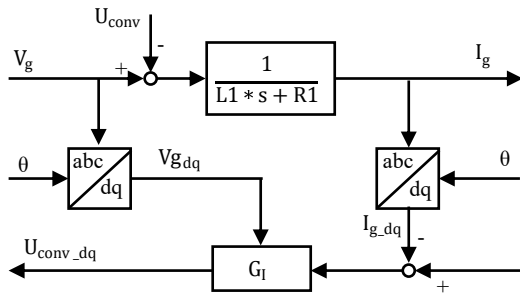
$$\frac{I_{dc}(t)}{I_{gd}(t)} = \frac{\frac{3}{2}V_{gd}}{U_c} \quad (13)$$

The transfer function of the closed-loop system:

$$G_{vol} = \frac{\frac{kp_{vol}}{C}s + \frac{ki_{vol}}{C}}{s^2 + \frac{kp_{vol}}{C}s + \frac{ki_{vol}}{C}} \quad (14)$$

Similar to the control design procedure of the PLL, the voltage controller parameters can be achieved.

$$\begin{cases} kp_{vol} = 2\xi_{vol}\omega_{vol}C \\ ki_{vol} = \omega_{vol}^2C \end{cases} \quad (15)$$



**Current control loop (Fig. 6-7)** In the abc coordinate system.

$$\begin{cases} U_{ga} = R_1 I_{ga} + L_1 \frac{dI_{ga}}{dt} + U_{conv_a} \\ U_{gb} = R_1 I_{gb} + L_1 \frac{dI_{gb}}{dt} + U_{conv_b} \\ U_{gc} = R_1 I_{gc} + L_1 \frac{dI_{gc}}{dt} + U_{conv_c} \end{cases} \quad (16)$$

Using Park transformation, the voltage equation in the dq-frame can be obtained as follows..

$$\begin{cases} U_{conv_d} = U_{gd} - (R_1 I_{gd} + L_1 \frac{dI_{gd}}{dt}) + \omega L_1 I_{gq} \\ U_{conv_q} = U_{gq} - (R_1 I_{gd} + L_1 \frac{dI_{gd}}{dt}) - \omega L_1 I_{gd} \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

From that, we have the parameters of the current controllers.

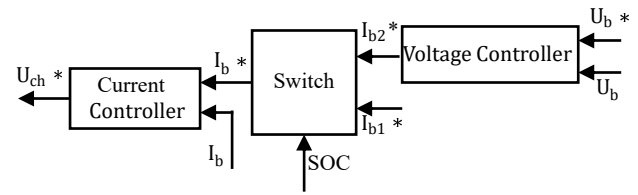
$$\begin{cases} ki_{cur} = \frac{\ln(20)}{Tres_{cur}} R_1 \\ kp_{cur} = Ki_{cur} \frac{L_1}{R_1} \end{cases} \quad (18)$$

### 3.2.2 DC/DC control

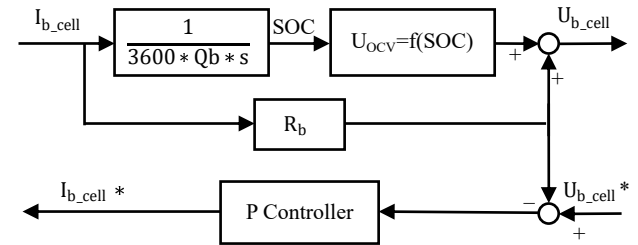
The goal of this process is to maintain a constant current flowing through the vehicle's battery in CC charging mode and reduce that current in CV charging mode.

The system comprises two main control loops: the battery's voltage control loop and the charging current control loop. When the State of Charge (*SOC*) of the battery is less than 80%, the current controller directly takes the set current value without obtaining it from the output of the battery voltage controller. When  $SOC \geq 80\%$ , the set current value is taken from the battery voltage controller.

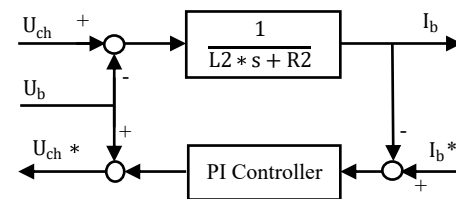
**Battery's voltage control loop (Fig. 9)** The battery can be seen as a big capacitor, hence its model is an integrator. For that, a proportional controller is utilized to regulate the battery voltage. The control parameter is given as in (19).



**Figure 8: CC, CV Charging Control.**



**Figure 9:** Battery's voltage control loop.



**Figure 10:** Charging current control loop.

$$kp_{volbat} = \frac{\ln(20)}{T_{res_{volbat}}} 3600 Q_b \quad (19)$$

**Charging current control loop (Fig. 10)** Using the settling-time assignment method for a first-order inertial object, the parameters of the charging current controller can be determined as follows.

$$\begin{cases} ki_{curbat} = \frac{\ln(20)}{Tres_{curbat}} R_2 \\ kp_{curbat} = Ki_{curbat} \frac{L_2}{R_2} \end{cases} \quad (20)$$

### 3.3 Charging and Discharging Strategy

The objective of this section is to select and calculate the charging current  $I_b^*$  based on the current  $I_{b1}^*$  (output of the Power Charging Strategy unit) and the current  $I_{b2}^*$  (output of the Voltage Controller 2 unit).

The current  $I_{b1}^*$  is calculated by taking the permissible charging or discharging power ( $P_{ref}$ ) and dividing it by the current voltage of the vehicle's battery ( $U_b$ ). It is then constrained by the maximum charging current the battery can handle ( $I_{bmax}$ ) and the maximum discharging current the battery can handle ( $I_{bmin}$ ). Different types of electric vehicle batteries have different  $I_{bmax}$  and  $I_{bmin}$  values depending on the design and regulations of each specific battery type, as well as the battery charging system used. This is done to ensure the safety and longevity of the battery.

In discharge mode ( $P_{ref} < 0$ ), the current  $I_b^*$  is taken from  $I_{b1}^*$  since there is no need to follow the CC/CV charging mode. When  $SOC < 20\%$ , the discharging is stopped to ensure the durability of the vehicle's battery, and the value of 20% can be replaced by other values depending on the battery type and charging station.



**Table 1:** Parameters of Model

<b>Grid voltage</b>	$V_g = 380V$
<b>Grid frequency</b>	$f = 50Hz$
<b>Inductor</b>	$L_1 = 10mH, R_1 = 0.005\Omega$ $L_2 = 4.7mH, R_2 = 0.005\Omega$
<b>Capacitor</b>	$C = 5.6mF$
<b>Battery</b>	$n_{par} = 22; n_{seri} = 88$ $U_{rate} = 3.6V; Q_{rate} = 3.3Ah$
<b>Phase-locked loop</b>	$kp_{pll} = 25.3$ $ki_{pll} = 157.91$
<b><math>U_c</math> controller</b>	$U_{c-ref} = 800V$ $kp_{vol} = 0.7$ $ki_{vol} = 22.1$
<b>Current controller</b>	$kp_{cur} = 1.5$ $ki_{cur} = 3$
<b>Battery voltage controller</b>	$kp_{volbat} = 32.7$
<b><math>I_b</math> control loop</b>	$kp_{curbat} = 1.3$ $ki_{curbat} = 1.4$

On the other hand, in charging mode ( $P_{ref} \geq 0$ ), when  $SOC \geq 80\%$ :  $I_b^* = I_{b2}^*$ . And the current  $I_{b2}^*$  is always limited by  $I_{b1}^*$  to keep the charging power within the allowed limits. The charging current  $I_b^*$  is taken from  $I_{b1}^*$  when  $SOC < 80\%$

## 4. Results

### 4.1 Testing Scenarios

The charging system is simulated under three representative scenarios as follows.

Scenario 1: Charging without power limitation: During times of low grid demand, the charger allows the vehicle to charge at its maximum power capacity. The vehicle is charged using CC and CV modes, with no requirement to push energy back into the grid.

Scenario 2: Charging with Limited Power: During peak hours, charging stations implement a power limit, resulting in a lower charging current for vehicles. This can be seen as the smart charging mode or unidirectional V2G.

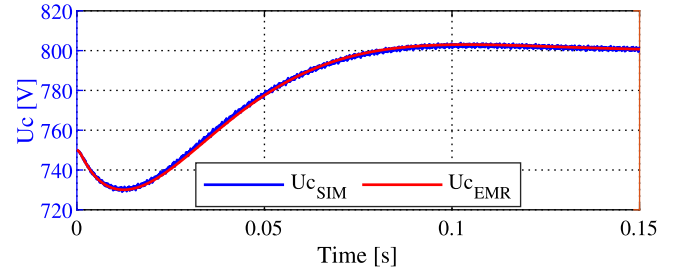
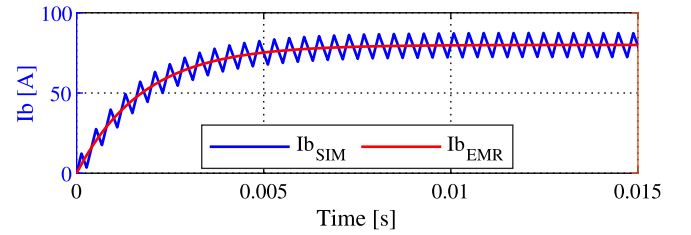
Scenario 3: Integrating Charging and Discharging: At times, the electrical grid may need to draw energy from electric vehicles to maintain balance. In this scenario, electric vehicles are charged and discharged regularly to test the stability of the system. In practice, the occurrence of pushing energy back into the grid may happen less frequently.

The simulation parameters of the studied system are listed in Table 1.

All the scenarios demonstrate the performance of the proposed control system across both steady-state operating conditions and the transitions between different operating modes.

### 4.2 Model Validation

Since the EMR method is based on an averaged model, it cannot capture switching behaviors, measurement noise issues, or power losses. Additionally, this method cannot depict various switching scenarios.

**Figure 11:** Capacitor voltage  $U_c$  in both models**Figure 12:** Current  $I_b$  in both models over a short period of time.

However, the EMR method offers significant advantages, particularly in control system design. Typically, when dealing with nonlinear systems, common approaches include linearizing the system or applying nonlinear controllers. In contrast, with the EMR method, we use conventional linear controllers combined with a nonlinear control structure to manage nonlinear systems. This approach simplifies controller design process, as the controlled objects are reduced to basic integral or first-order inertial components. Moreover, as illustrated in the system diagram in Fig 4, the components are arranged into separate layers, which aids in implementation on microcontrollers.

It is important to consider the accuracy of the developed system model. To do this, a model using elements from the Simscape library in Matlab/Simulink is employed to compare the results with those of the average model based on the EMR method. The system model, based on physical elements in the Simscape library (switching model), is built according to the configuration shown in Fig. 1, while the identical control system is used for both the EMR and switching models. Since only short-term comparisons can be made due to the switching behavior of the Simscape element, the electric vehicle battery is treated as a voltage source.

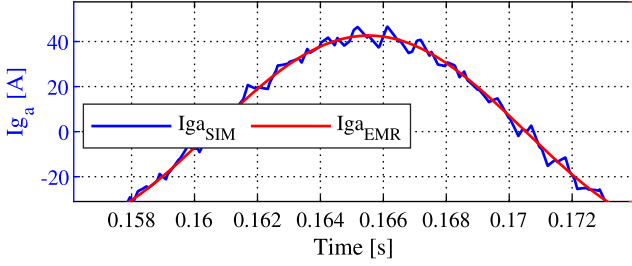
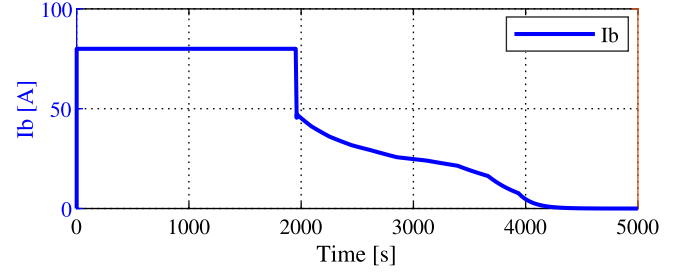
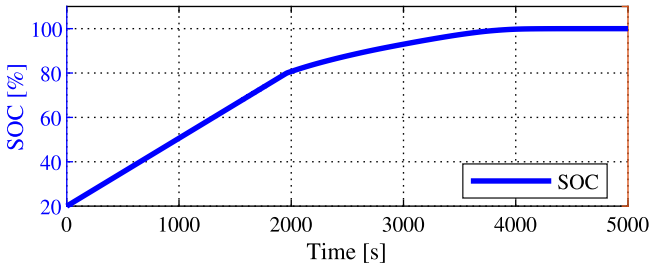
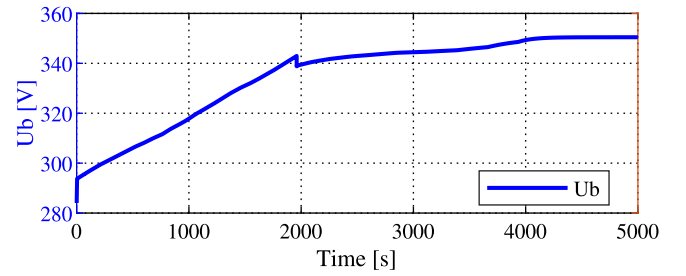
As illustrated in Fig. 11–13, the results obtained from both models are similar, with only minor differences caused by the switching phenomenon. To compare the results of the two models in more detail, Table 2 presents the quantitative deviation between the two models at the simulation time of 1 second, as follows:

- Capacitor voltage ( $U_c$ ): Settling time error:  $2 \times 10^{-3}s$ ; RMS error: 0.0125%.
- Battery current ( $I_b$ ): Settling time error:  $0.188 \times 10^{-3}s$ ; RMS error: 0.187%.
- Grid current ( $I_{grid}$ ): RMS error: 0.299%; Phase shift:  $0.4^\circ$ .

We have summarized the comparison between the EMR-

**Table 2:** Quantitative comparison of the EMR and Simscape model results.

	Settling time error (seconds)	RMS error(%)	Phase shift (degrees)
$U_c$	$2 * 10^{-3}$	0.0125	
$I_{battery}$	$0.188 * 10^{-3}$	0.187	
$I_{grid}$		0.299	0.4

**Figure 13:** Grid current in phase a ( $I_{ga}$ ) over a short period of time.**Figure 15:** Battery charging current.**Figure 14:** SOC of the battery during the charging process.**Figure 16:** Voltage of the battery during the charging process.

based average model and the Simscape model in Table 3.

From this comparison, the system model using the EMR method is validated and can be used for further testing scenarios.

### 4.3 Numerical Results

Scenario 1: Charging Without Power Limitation results are illustrated in Fig. 14–17. In this scenario, the vehicle is charged in CC mode when the battery SOC is less than 80%. During this phase, the charging utilizes the maximum permissible battery current ( $I_{bmax}$ ).

Once the SOC reaches 80% and transitions to CV mode, the charging current gradually decreases to 0 A. Concurrently, the battery voltage ( $U_b$ ) increases steadily until it reaches its maximum value ( $U_b^*$ ).

The simulation of the charging process is performed from a SOC of 20% to 100%. The results are presented in Fig. 14–16. During the CC phase of charging, the SOC increases rapidly, while the increase is slower during the CV phase. The SOC rises from 20% to 80% in approximately 30 minutes, which meets the requirements for a fast-charging system. However, it takes an additional 30 minutes or more for the battery to reach a full charge.

Scenario 2: The results of Charging the vehicle with limited power test are described in Fig. 18–19. In this scenario, we

assume that the maximum permissible power of the charging station ( $P_{ref}$ ) is 10kW. The system is simulated with SOC starting at 70%

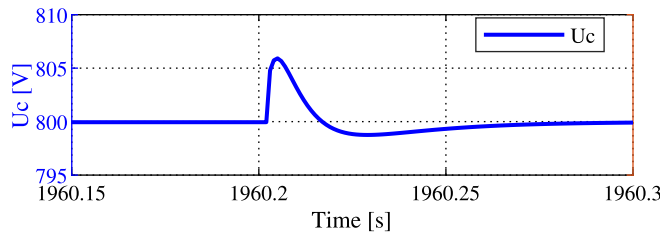
In Fig. 19, as discussed in the control system design, when SOC is less than 80%, the current  $I_{b1}^*$  (represented by the blue line) gradually decreases as the voltage  $U_b$  increases ( $I_{b1}^* = \frac{P_{ref}}{U_b}$ ).

When SOC reaches to the value of 80% or higher, the current controller is set to a value of  $I_{b2}$  (indicated by the red line). However,  $I_{b2}$  is still limited by  $I_{b1}$ . As a result, the charging current  $I_b$  (the yellow line) continues to follow its previous trend until  $I_{b2}$  becomes smaller than  $I_{b1}$ . At that point, the charging current decreases significantly.

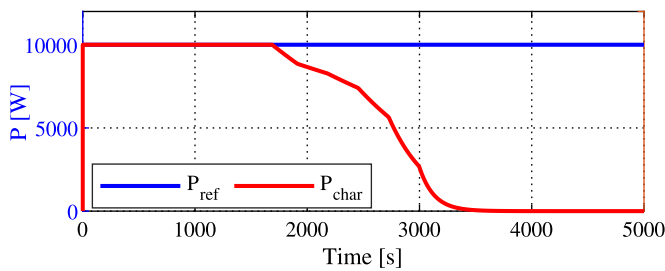
Scenario 3: Integrating charging and discharging: Test results are depicted in Fig. 20–22. As shown in Fig. 20, the reference charging power value varies continuously, with transitions between charging and discharging modes. The blue curve represents the permissible charging power of the charging station, which takes on negative values during discharging mode. Meanwhile, the red curve indicates the actual response of the charging power. When the vehicle's allowable charging power range is considered, the two curves align perfectly. However, there are moments when the curves diverge because the permissible charging power of the station exceeds the vehicle battery's allowable limits, which are

**Table 3:** Comparison of the EMR and Simscape model.

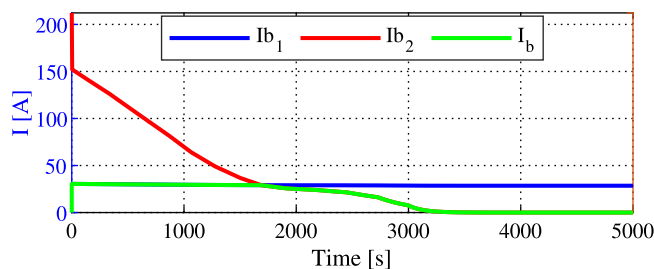
	EMR Method (Average Model)	Switching Model
Simulation Time	Supports long-term simulation	Very resource-intensive
Accuracy	Very small error (e.g., grid current 0.299%; DC-link voltage 0.0125%)	Used as reference model
Physical Detail	Cannot capture switching behavior, measurement noise, or power losses	Shows switching behavior at high time resolution



**Figure 17:** Capacitor voltage  $U_c$  when switching charging modes. (The capacitor voltage  $U_c$  is maintained at 800V throughout the charging process. At the moment of switching the charging mode,  $U_c$  experiences fluctuations due to the sudden change in current  $I_b$ .)

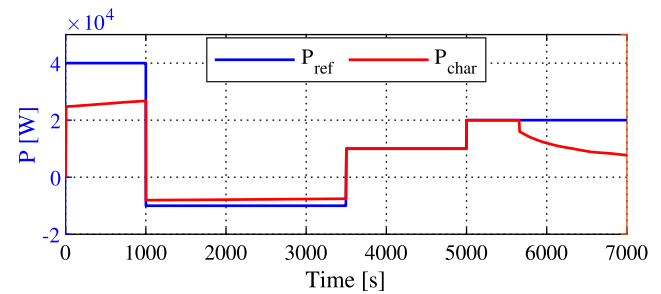


**Figure 18:** Permissible charging power (blue line) and actual charging power (red line).

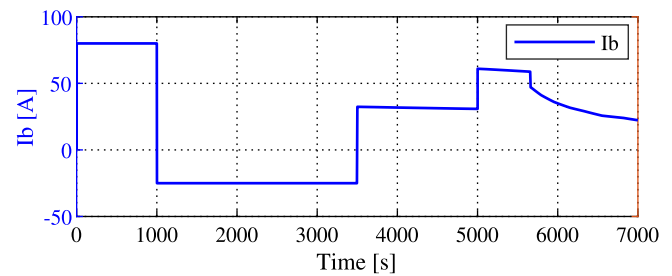


**Figure 19:** Permissible charging current (blue line and red line) and actual charging current (green line).

determined by the vehicle's specific design. From the actual charging power response of the station, the charging current can be determined, as illustrated in Fig. 21. Furthermore, the current and voltage of phase A are examined during the transitions between charging and discharging modes, as illustrated in Fig. 22.



**Figure 20:** Permissible charging power (blue line) and actual charging power (red line).



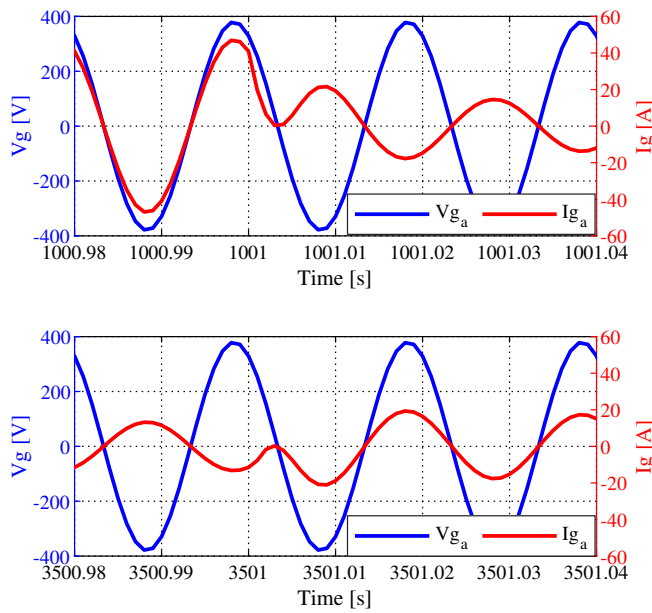
**Figure 21:** Battery charging current variation with changing power demand

## 5. CONCLUSION

The paper has studied the V2G Bidirectional charging system, its optimization compared to other current charging methods. The project has also explored the EMR method, built and modeled the V2G Bidirectional charging system using the EMR method, designed and calculated current control systems and voltage control systems. The charging system is simulated using an average model based on the EMR method and a Simscape model in MATLAB Simulink software. The two models that yield similar results have demonstrated the precision of the EMR method. The charging system can respond to real-time power demand, enabling the calculation of the charging current supplied to the battery under the CC-CV charging method.

This research provides a theoretical foundation for the development of smart chargers in V2G systems. By demonstrating the effectiveness of the EMR approach, it simplifies the modeling and control process while offering a basis for large-scale practical deployment of V2G charging stations. Additionally, the results can enhance renewable





**Figure 22:** Comparison the phase of  $V_{ga}$  and  $I_{ga}$ . When switching from charging and discharging modes,  $V_g$  and  $I_g$  transition from in-phase to out-of-phase. Conversely, when switching from discharging to charging the battery,  $V_g$  and  $I_g$  transition from out-of-phase to in-phase. From the obtained values, it can be seen that the system remains stable when continuously changing the value of  $P_{ref}$ .

energy integration, improve grid stability, and support the advancement of sustainable green transportation.

Future studies can be expanded into areas such as optimizing charger efficiency, improving the dynamic response under rapidly changing load conditions, conducting experimental validations, and integrating intelligent energy management solutions. These directions will contribute to the realization of a more practical V2G system.

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