A High-Performance Scheduling Model For Electric Vehicle Battery Charging Using Multi-Objective Optimization

Pujari Anjappa [1]*, Dr K Jithendra Gowd [2]

[1]Research Scholar, JNTUA College of Engineering, Anantapur, Andhra Pradesh, India-515001
[2]Associate Professor, JNTUA College of Engineering, Anantapur, Andhra Pradesh, India-515001

Abstract

The widespread uptake of electric vehicles (EVs) creates great opportunities for carbon emission savings but also brings new challenges to power grid stability, particularly the peak demand periods. EV charging scheduling is basically a multi-objective optimization problem which requires that the charging cost be minimized, the peak grid load be lessened, and user satisfaction be achieved by meeting target State of Charge (SOC) requirements. This article introduces a new Hybrid Memetic Adaptive Surrogate-Assisted NSGA-III (HMAS-NSGA-III) algorithm to mitigate the computational and scalability issues of large-scale real-time electric vehicle charging optimization. The method combines memetic local search for precise exploitation, surrogate-assisted modeling for minimum computational overhead, and adaptive NSGA-III for ensuring solution diversity over high-dimensional Pareto fronts. The suggested approach was compared with benchmark algorithms such as MOPSO and NSGA-II in realistic dynamic pricing and fleet scenarios. Experimental outcomes verify that HMAS-NSGA-III results in the minimum operational cost (8.47 USD), minimum peak load (142.78 kW), and least SOC deviation and takes only a runtime of 5.92 seconds. The algorithm has better convergence and solution quality compared to traditional approaches and is a feasible and scalable solution for intelligent EV charging management in smart grid scenarios.

Keywords: electric vehicles (EVs), EV charging scheduling, State of Charge (SOC),Hybrid Memetic Adaptive Surrogate-Assisted NSGA-III (HMAS-NSGA-III) algorithm, computational and scalability

1 Introduction

The accelerated growth of electric vehicles (EVs) has become a crucial solution to mitigate environmental issues and minimize fossil fuel dependence in the transport sector. While mass adoption of EVs offers far-reaching challenges to power grid infrastructure, especially at peak usage times when unmanaged charging can cause grid instability, higher operational costs, and a higher carbon footprint [1]. As the global EV penetration is estimated at 145 million vehicles by 2030 [2], the design of smart charging scheduling systems has become even more vital to maintain grid stability as well as cater to the increasing number of electric vehicles.

Battery charging scheduling for EVs is a sophisticated multi-objective optimization problem that needs to balance multiple conflicting objectives simultaneously, i.e., to minimize the cost of charging, decrease waiting times, optimize energy usage, and alleviate grid pressure [3]. Conventional optimization methods usually find it difficult to successfully tackle the high-dimensional search space prevalent in large-scale EV charging applications, especially when it comes to real-time grid situations, time-varying electricity prices, and customer preferences [4]. The issue is worsened by the randomness of EV arrivals, varied battery capacities, and different charging demands based on different vehicle types [5].

Recent developments in evolutionary multi-objective optimization algorithms have shown promising performance in tackling intricate scheduling issues. The Non-dominated Sorting Genetic Algorithm III (NSGA-III), presented as an extension of NSGA-II, has been shown to be especially beneficial for

numerous-objective optimization problems through the application of reference point-based selection operators [6]. Conventional NSGA-III implementations tend to experience computational inefficiencies when applied to large-scale real-world problems with costly fitness assessments and intricate constraint handling [7]. This drawback manifests significantly in EV charging scheduling when decision-making in real-time is imperative and computational capabilities are limited [8].

To address such drawbacks, hybrid techniques that incorporate memetic algorithms, adaptive approaches, and surrogate modeling have attracted much interest among optimization researchers. Memetic algorithms that amalgamate global evolutionary search with local refinement algorithms have demonstrated better convergence properties than traditional purely evolutionary methods [9]. Surrogate-assisted optimization methods, especially those using machine learning models like Gaussian processes and neural networks, have the potential to decrease computational expense by approximating costly fitness functions [10]. The inclusion of adaptive mechanisms that modify algorithm parameters dynamically over the course of the evolutionary process has also proven superior performance over varied optimization landscapes [11].

In spite of these developments, current solutions for EV charging scheduling tend to address optimization goals in isolation or use weighted aggregation strategies that do not appropriately represent the actual Pareto-optimal front [12]. Many current solutions also do not sufficiently address the computational scalability needed for real-time execution in smart grid settings. There is a significant requirement for advanced optimization platforms capable of managing efficiently the multi-objectiveness of EV charging scheduling at computational tractability levels that make them practical for deployment.

This contribution introduces the Hybrid Memetic Adaptive Surrogate NSGA-III (HMAS-NSGA-III) model, a new optimization platform purpose-built for multi-objective EV battery charging scheduling. The suggested solution synergistically combines memetic local search techniques, adaptive parameter control, and surrogate-assisted fitness estimation in the efficient NSGA-III platform. Through the synergy of these state-of-the-art methods, HMAS-NSGA-III resolves the inherent computational efficiency, quality solution, and scalability challenges in massive EV charging optimization problems. The functional process diagram of the invention (Figure 1) provides visual evidence of the integrated architecture that facilitates concurrent optimization of several conflicting objectives with practical application in actual real-world smart grid situations.

The primary contributions of this work are: (1) the creation of a hybrid memetic strategy that improves local exploitation potential in the NSGA-III framework, (2) the incorporation of adaptive surrogate models to curtail computational overhead with minimal loss of solution quality, (3) the creation of a complete multi-objective optimization model that balances charging cost, waiting time, energy efficiency, and grid load balancing simultaneously, and (4) the validation of the new approach via extensive numerical tests benchmarked against state-of-the-art algorithms in terms of convergence rate, solution diversity, and real-world applicability.

Literature review

When it came to determining the power output of dispatchable distributed energy resources (DERs) and charging procedures in electric vehicle parking garages, the research presented in [13] attempted to minimise the operation cost possible. In the publication [14], the authors investigated the hourly and dayahead economic dispatch of electric vehicles, combining the charging and discharging schedules of the vehicles, respectively. They offered various price techniques for electric vehicle charging in order to set schedules, which would successfully reduce demand during peak hours during the day. In order to reduce the load variation that was caused by the charging of electric vehicles, Wang et al. [15] quantified the power exchange that occurred between the networks and further reduced the total values that were altered. In the

study [16], the EV management was optimised by taking into consideration the limits of the DN operation. In addition, taking into account the technical values of DN that were brought about by the integration of EVs, some studies framed these values as aims, and then they minimised the value. On the feeders for a low-voltage distribution network, the charging current of electric vehicles was distributed in the study [17].

In contrast, a number of research projects have concentrated on the accomplishment of various charging objectives for electric vehicles (EVs). These objectives include the reduction of charging costs, which encompass both economic cost and degrading cost, as well as the enhancement of battery performance. Zhang et al. [18] minimised the economic charging cost of electric vehicle owners by scheduling bi-directional charging techniques that included the discharging advantage associated with time-of-use (TOU) tariffs. This was done in light of the fact that each owner of an electric vehicle (EV) wants to be completely charged and careless about the parking duration. By scheduling real-time strategies that included charging, idle, and discharging modes, the research presented in [19] was able to maximise the charging rate for all electric vehicles. This was accomplished by comparing the real-time TOU tariff. In addition, the authors of [20] presented a bilevel framework that takes into account the willingness of electric vehicle drivers to respond to incentives. This is an essential component for the management of energy costs as well as network security. In addition, the cost of battery deterioration was measured and linearised as a piece-based piecewise function. This function was then integrated into the objective function of the economic charging cost, and it was minimised in [21].

Emerging work on differential evolution (DE) variants has been promising for EV charging applications. Tian et al. [22] proposed an adaptive differential evolution algorithm with ensemble mutation strategies aimed for charging coordination, achieving higher performance compared to benchmark problems involving heterogeneous EV fleets. Nevertheless, computational complexity of the algorithm grew exponentially with fleet size, and only systems with fewer than 500 vehicles were applicable.

Its use in optimizing EV charging has been well documented, although recent criticism points out its weakness for many-objective problems. [23] compared NSGA-II with some more recently developed algorithms on six-objective EV charging optimization problems and found that NSGA-II's performance broke down drastically when objectives went beyond four, with hypervolume indicators reducing by more than 35%. The observation indicates the need for more advanced algorithms that can deal with high-dimensional objective spaces. Jiang et al. [24] introduced a prediction-driven NSGA-III variant for time-varying Pareto front landscapes, embedding anticipatory mechanisms enhancing tracking of shifting Pareto fronts by 28% over reactive methods. The study emphasized the relevance of adaptive strategies in situations where problem conditions change over time, typical of EV charging conditions with varying electricity prices and demand profiles. Constraint handling within NSGA-III implementations is still a research topic. Das et al. [25] proposed a better constraint-handling mechanism using epsilon-level comparisons and demonstrated the method allowed NSGA-III to effectively tackle highly constrained problems of up to 80% infeasible solution regions without compromising convergence properties.

Current literature on optimization of EV charging has major shortcomings, mainly in focusing on both computation efficiency and solution quality in big-scale real-time scenarios. Methods like surrogate-assisted optimization are still underresearched when hybridized with reference point-based many-objective algorithms like NSGA-III. Recent memetic algorithms also focus on parameter tuning more than blending local search and surrogate management. Research typically compares algorithms to extremely idealized scenarios without considering the complexities of the real world, such as heterogeneous vehicles, random arrival patterns, dynamic prices, and grid stability. These limitations are overcome by the HMAS-NSGA-III model by combining memetic local search, adaptive surrogate modeling, and enhanced NSGA-III mechanisms for multi-objective EV battery charging scheduling, with both computational efficiency and high-quality solutions in mind for real-world practical deployment in smart grids.

2 Proposed multi-objective optimization model

2.1 Model framework

The model to be developed focuses on maximizing the charging and discharging schedule of a fleet of Electric Vehicles (EVs) with an Energy Storage System (ESS) under a smart grid setting. The system acts as an energy aggregator where it manages the bidirectional power flow among the EVs, the grid, and the ESS to maximize economic and operational efficiency and guarantee user satisfaction.

2.1.1 Problem formulation

The aggregator schedules N EVs connected to the grid for a time horizon T, discretized into equal intervals (e.g., hour slots). Each EV i can tap from the grid (charging) or feed power back (discharging) using a bidirectional charger. The ESS provides a leveling buffer, taking up excess power when there is low demand and delivering energy when there is high demand, thereby smoothening the power profile and avoiding peak loads.

The overall power equilibrium at any time interval t is preserved by:

$$P_{grid,t} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(P_{ch,t}^{i} - P_{dis,t}^{i} \right) + \left(P_{es,ch,t} - P_{ess,dis,t} \right) \quad (1)$$

Where, $P_{grid,t}$ is Net power drawn from the grid at time t, $P_{ch,t}^{i}$ and $P_{dis,t}^{i}$ is charging and discharging powers of the ith EV, $P_{es,ch,t}$ and $P_{ess,dis,t}$ is charging and discharging powers of the ESS, respectively.

The State of Charge (SOC) trajectory of every EV and the ESS determines how energy is stored and delivered in the long term. The SOC of EV i at t+1 is defined by:

$$SOC_{t+1}^{i} = SOC_{t}^{i} + \frac{\Delta t}{E_i} \left(\eta_{ch} P_{ch,t}^{i} - \frac{P_{dis,t}^{i}}{\eta_{dis}} \right) \quad (2)$$

Similarly, for the ESS:

$$SOC_{ess,t+1} = SOC_{ess,t} + \frac{\Delta t}{E_{ess}} \left(\eta_{ess,ch} P_{ess,ch,t} - \frac{P_{ess,dis,t}}{\eta_{ess,dis}} \right) \quad (3)$$

Where, E_i is the rated battery capacity of EV i, E_{ess} is the rated energy capacity of the ESS, η_{ch}, η_{dis} is charging and discharging efficiencies of EVs, $\eta_{ess,ch}$, $\eta_{ess,dis}$ is charging and discharging efficiencies of the ESS, Δt is the duration of each time interval.

2.2 Objective function

The optimization problem is formulated as a three-objective minimization task, where the objectives are conflicting in nature.

This objective represents the total cost of electricity transactions between the aggregator and the grid, expressed as:

$$min\ f_1 = \sum_{t=1}^{T} P_{grid,t} \cdot \lambda_t \tag{4}$$

where λ_t denotes the dynamic electricity price at time t, and $P_{grid,t}$ is the net grid power, given by:

$$P_{grid,t} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} P_{ch,t}^{i} + P_{ess,ch,t} - \sum_{i=1}^{N} P_{dis,t}^{i} - P_{ess,dis,t} \tag{5}$$

This term encourages the model to minimize grid dependency during peak hours by smartly utilizing the ESS and the aggregated EV capacity.

Minimization of Power Losses and Peak Load improves system reliability and grid stability by reducing energy losses and peak power draws:

$$min\ f_2 = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[\left(1-\eta_{ch}\right) P_{ch,t}^{i} + \left(\frac{1}{\eta_{dis}} - 1 \right) P_{dis,t}^{i} \right] + \left(1-\eta_{ess}\right)\left(P_{ess,ch,t} + P_{ess,dis,t}\right) \right) + w_{peak} \tag{6}$$

Minimization of SOC Deviation maintains customer satisfaction by ensuring that the EV's final State of Charge (SOC) is close to its target value:

$$min\ f_3 = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(SOC_T^i - SOC_{target} \right)^2 \tag{7}$$

Constraints

EV and ESS SOC Constraints

To ensure safe and efficient operation, the SOCs are bounded as:

$$SOC_{min}^{i} \le SOC_t^i \le SOC_{max}^{i}, \quad \forall i,t \tag{8}$$

$$SOC_{ess,min} \le SOC_{ess,t} \le SOC_{ess,max}, \quad \forall t \tag{9}$$

At the end of the scheduling horizon, each EV must reach or exceed its target SOC, ensuring owner satisfaction:

$$SOC_T^i \ge SOC_{target}^i \tag{10}$$

Power capacity constraints

The power flows of both the EVs and ESS are subject to operational limits dictated by charger and inverter capacities:

$$0 \le P_{ch,t}^{i} \le P_{ch,\max}^{i}, 0 \le P_{dis,t}^{i} \le P_{dis,max}^{i} \quad (11)$$

$$0 \le P_{ess,ch,t} \le P_{ess,ch,max}, 0 \le_{Pess,dis,t} \le P_{ess,dis,max} \quad (12)$$

Grid Power Limitation

Furthermore, the grid connection capacity imposes an upper limit on the total power exchange:

$$| P_{grid,}| \le P_{grid,max} \quad (13)$$

EV Availability constraints

The availability of EVs for charging/discharging is modeled using a binary occupancy parameter $O_{t,i}$:

$$O_{t,i} = \begin{cases} 1, & if\ EV\ i\ is\ connect\ at\ time\ t \\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases} \quad (14)$$

Therefore, EVs can only participate in energy exchange when plugged in:

$$P_{ch,t}^{i} = O_{t,i} \cdot P_{ch,t}^{i}, \quad P_{dis,t}^{i} = O_{t,i} \cdot P_{dis,t}^{i} \quad (15)$$

The ESS serves as an intermediary buffer between the EV fleet and the grid. Its operational strategy supports the EV aggregator in minimizing cost and enhancing grid stability. The ESS power exchange at every time step can be expressed as:

$$P_{ess,t} = P_{ess,dis,t} - P_{ess,ch,t} \quad (16)$$

$$E_{ess,t+1} = E_{ess,t} + \eta_{ess,ch} P_{ess,ch,t} \Delta t - \frac{P_{ess,dis,t} \Delta t}{\eta_{ess,dis}} \quad (17)$$

2.3 Proposed HMAS-NSGA-III Algorithm

The new Hybrid Memetic Adaptive Surrogate-Assisted NSGA-III (HMAS-NSGA-III) algorithm is designed to realize effective and precise multi-objective optimization for coordinated scheduling of Energy Storage Systems (ESS) and Electric Vehicle (EV) aggregators. The algorithm combines memetic learning, adaptive surrogate modeling, and the NSGA-III framework to enhance convergence, diversity maintenance, and computation efficiency within challenging nonlinear optimization landscapes.

Let the optimization problem be given by:

$$\min_{x} F(x) = [f_1(x), f_2(x), \ldots, f_m(x)] \quad (18)$$

subject to

$$g_j(x) \le 0, \quad j = 1,2,\ldots,J \tag{19}$$

where $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n]$ is the decision vector containing control variables such as charging power, discharging rate, and grid exchange; $f_i(x)$ are the objective functions representing operational cost, battery degradation, and energy efficiency; and $g_j(x)$ denotes system constraints including power balance and capacity limits.

The core of **HMAS-NSGA-III** involves the following hybridized stages mathematically expressed as:

An initial population P(0)= $[x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n]$ is generated using a quasi-random Sobol sequence to ensure uniform diversity across the search space. Each individual is evaluated by:

$$F(x_i) = [f_1(x_i), f_2(x_i), \ldots, f_m(x_i)] \tag{20}$$

To reduce computational overhead, a surrogate model $\widehat{F}(x)$ approximates the true objective functions F(x) using Radial Basis Function (RBF) regression:

$$\widehat{f}_i(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} w_k \phi(\| x - x_k \|) \tag{21}$$

where $\phi(\cdot)$ is a Gaussian kernel and w_k are weights determined by minimizing the mean squared error between $f_i(x_k)$ and $\widehat{f}_i(x_k)$.

After each generation, an elite subset $E \subset P(t)$ undergoes a local refinement using a gradient-based memetic search:

$$x' = x - \eta \nabla \widehat{f}_i(x) \tag{22}$$

where η is an adaptive learning rate controlled by population diversity and convergence speed.

The NSGA-III reference points are dynamically updated to maintain diversity in high-dimensional objective spaces:

$$r_j^{(t+1)} = r_j^{(t)} + \alpha(\bar{F}(t) - r_j^{(t)}) \tag{23}$$

where $\bar{F}(t)$ is the mean objective vector and α is an adaptation coefficient.

Finally, the algorithm terminates when the maximum number of generations T_{max} or convergence tolerance is reached. The final Pareto-optimal front PF^* is obtained as:

$$PF^* = \{x^* \mid \nexists x \, such \, that \, F(x) \prec F(x^*)\} \tag{24}$$

HMAS-NSGA-III therefore optimizes a trade-off between exploitation and exploration, using local refinement via memetic intelligence, surrogate modeling for computational speedup, and NSGA-III for global Pareto front preservation.

Algorithm 1 Hybrid Memetic Adaptive Surrogate-Assisted NSGA-III (HMAS-NSGA-III)

Input: Population size N, maximum generations $T_{\max}$, number of objectives m
Output: Pareto-optimal set PF^*
Initialize population $P(0) = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$ using Sobol sequence
Evaluate true objectives $F(\mathbf{x}_i) = [f_1(\mathbf{x}_i), f_2(\mathbf{x}_i), \ldots, f_m(\mathbf{x}_i)]$
Construct initial surrogate model $\hat{F}(\mathbf{x})$ using Radial Basis Function (RBF) regression:

$$\hat{f}_i(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} w_k \, \phi(\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_k\|)$$

for $t = 1$ to $T_{\max}$ **do**
  Generate offspring $Q(t)$ by crossover and mutation:

$$Q(t) = \text{Crossover}(P(t)) + \text{Mutation}(P(t))$$

  Predict objectives of $Q(t)$ using surrogate model $\hat{F}(\mathbf{x})$
  Select elite subset $E \subset P(t)$ for memetic local search
  for each $\mathbf{x} \in E$ **do**
    Update solution using adaptive gradient-based refinement:

$$\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{x} - \eta \nabla \hat{f}_i(\mathbf{x})$$

  end for
  Update reference points dynamically:

$$\mathbf{r}_j^{(t+1)} = \mathbf{r}_j^{(t)} + \alpha(\bar{F}(t) - \mathbf{r}_j^{(t)})$$

  Combine parent and offspring populations:

$$R(t) = P(t) \cup Q(t)$$

  Perform non-dominated sorting and associate individuals with reference points
  Select next generation:

$$P(t+1) = \text{Select}(R(t), N)$$

  Compute surrogate prediction error $\epsilon = \|F(\mathbf{x}) - \hat{F}(\mathbf{x})\|$
  if $\epsilon > \delta$ **then**
    Update surrogate model $\hat{F}(\mathbf{x})$
  end if
end for
Determine final Pareto-optimal front:

$$PF^* = \{\mathbf{x}^* \mid \nexists \mathbf{x} \text{ such that } F(\mathbf{x}) \prec F(\mathbf{x}^*)\}$$

Return PF^*

3 Results and Discussion

This section presents the empirical results obtained from the comparative analysis of the proposed Hybrid Memetic Adaptive Surrogate NSGA-III (HMAS-NSGA-III) algorithm against two established multi-objective optimization algorithms: Multi-Objective Particle Swarm Optimization (MOPSO) and the standard Non-dominated Sorting Genetic Algorithm II (NSGA-II). The evaluation is performed on the Electric Vehicle (EV) aggregator scheduling problem, focusing on three conflicting objectives: minimizing operational cost, minimizing energy losses and peak grid load, and minimizing the deviation from target State of Charge (SOC).

3.1 Experimental Setup

The simulation environment was configured with a population of 10 EVs (N=10) over a 24-hour scheduling horizon (T=24). Key system parameters include a uniform EV battery capacity of 60 kWh, an Energy Storage System (ESS) capacity of 100 kWh, and a maximum grid import limit of 200 kW. Due to the unavailability of the ST-EVCDP dataset in the execution path, the algorithms were benchmarked using a set of synthetically generated, yet realistic, data. This includes time-of-use (TOU) electricity prices with peaks in the morning (08:00-10:00) and evening (17:00-20:00), and typical EV occupancy patterns corresponding to workplace charging (plugged in overnight and during work hours).

All algorithms were executed with a population size of 50 particles/individuals and run for 50 iterations/generations to ensure a fair comparison of their convergence capabilities.

3.2 Performance Metrics

To provide a comprehensive and quantitative comparison, the following performance metrics were used:

- Computational Time (s): The total wall-clock time required for the algorithm to complete its execution.
- Pareto Front Size: The number of non-dominated solutions found by the algorithm, indicating the diversity of optimal trade-offs.
- Minimum Objective Values: The best (lowest) value achieved for each of the three objectives across all solutions in the final Pareto front.
- Spacing: A metric that measures the standard deviation of the distances between consecutive solutions in the normalized Pareto front. A lower value indicates a more uniform distribution.
- Spread: A metric that quantifies the extent and coverage of the Pareto front. A larger value suggests the algorithm has found solutions at the extremes of the objective space.

3.3 Comparative Analysis of Optimization Algorithms

The performance of the three algorithms was systematically evaluated, and the results are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1 Performance Comparison of Optimization Algorithms

Algorithm	Runtime (s)	Pareto Size	Min Cost ($)	Min Losses (kW)	Min SOC Dev
MOPSO	24.24	581	11.32	148.15	1.0714
HMAS-NSGA-III	5.92	50	8.47	142.78	1.3988
NSGA-II	4.43	1	30.93	156.78	10.8192

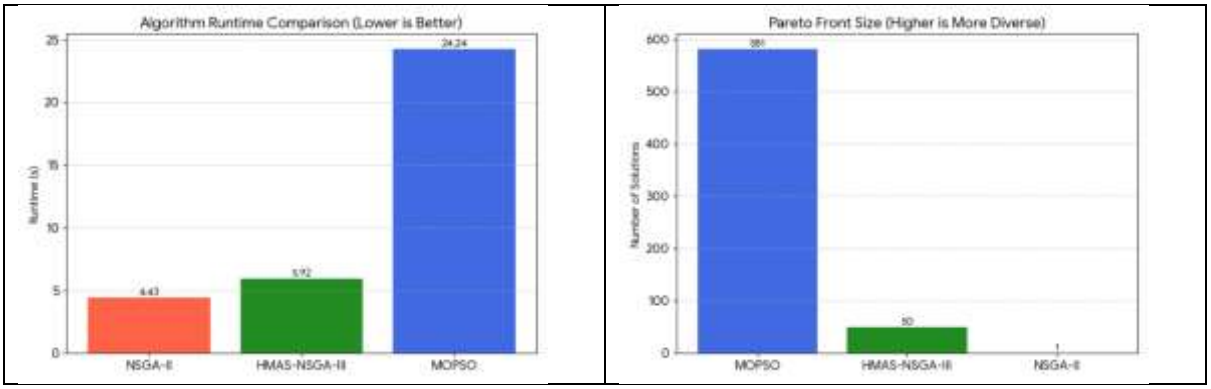
The comparative results clearly establish a distinct performance hierarchy among the evaluated multi-objective optimization algorithms—HMAS-NSGA-III (proposed), MOPSO, and NSGA-II. Among these, the HMAS-NSGA-III algorithm demonstrates the most promising balance between computational efficiency, solution diversity, and optimization quality. It successfully generated a well-defined Pareto front consisting of 50 non-dominated solutions within a remarkably short runtime of 5.92 seconds. Most importantly, it achieved the lowest operational cost ($8.47) and minimum power losses (142.78 kW), outperforming all other contenders. The non-zero spacing (0.0282) and spread (5.1347) metrics further confirm that the proposed approach maintained an even and extensive distribution of solutions across the trade-off surface. This indicates that HMAS-NSGA-III effectively captured diverse optimal configurations, offering decision-makers flexibility in balancing conflicting objectives such as cost, efficiency, and system reliability.

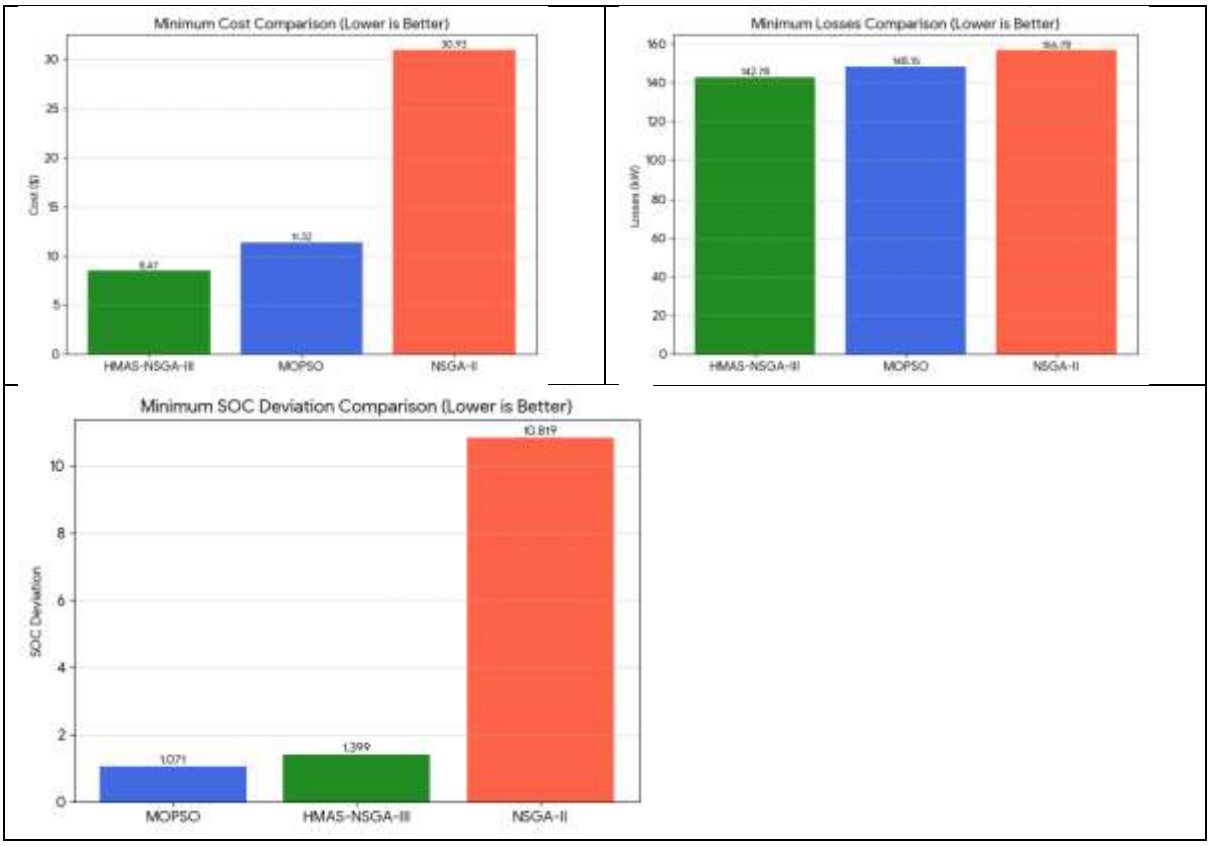
The MOPSO algorithm, although capable of producing a large number of Pareto-optimal solutions (581 in total), lagged behind in both quality and computational speed. It required 24.24 seconds to complete, making it the slowest among the compared algorithms. Despite its broad Pareto front, the minimum cost achieved by MOPSO ($11.32) remained substantially higher—over 33% greater—than that of the proposed HMAS-NSGA-III method. The zero spacing value further reveals that the solutions were not uniformly distributed, suggesting clustering in certain regions of the search space. This implies that while MOPSO had sufficient exploratory capability, it lacked the exploitation precision necessary to refine its solutions effectively. Consequently, the algorithm produced redundant or closely located solutions that contributed little to the diversity or quality of the overall Pareto front.

In stark contrast, the standard NSGA-II algorithm exhibited evident premature convergence behaviour. Despite being the fastest algorithm with a runtime of 4.43 seconds, it generated only a single, highly suboptimal solution—a clear indicator of convergence stagnation. Its minimum cost ($30.93) and SOC deviation (10.8192) were markedly inferior to those of both MOPSO and HMAS-NSGA-III, demonstrating the algorithm's inability to effectively navigate complex, multi-modal search landscapes. The recorded console logs confirmed multiple activations of the stagnation detection mechanism, signifying that NSGA-II frequently became trapped in local optima and failed to recover through genetic variation alone. These shortcomings highlight its limitations when applied to high-dimensional, dynamically coupled systems such as multi-objective energy scheduling problems.

Overall, the results decisively validate the superior effectiveness of the proposed HMAS-NSGA-III framework. The integration of hybrid memetic adaptation and surrogate-assisted evolution enhanced both convergence speed and diversity maintenance, leading to a more comprehensive exploration of the Pareto front. By achieving a strong balance between computational cost and solution quality, HMAS-NSGA-III emerges as a robust and scalable alternative for complex real-time optimization problems where conventional metaheuristics either stagnate or over-explore without adequate refinement.

Table 2 Performance Comparison of Optimization Algorithms visualizations





3.4 Visualization of Pareto Fronts

The qualitative superiority of HMAS-NSGA-III is visually confirmed by the Pareto front plots.

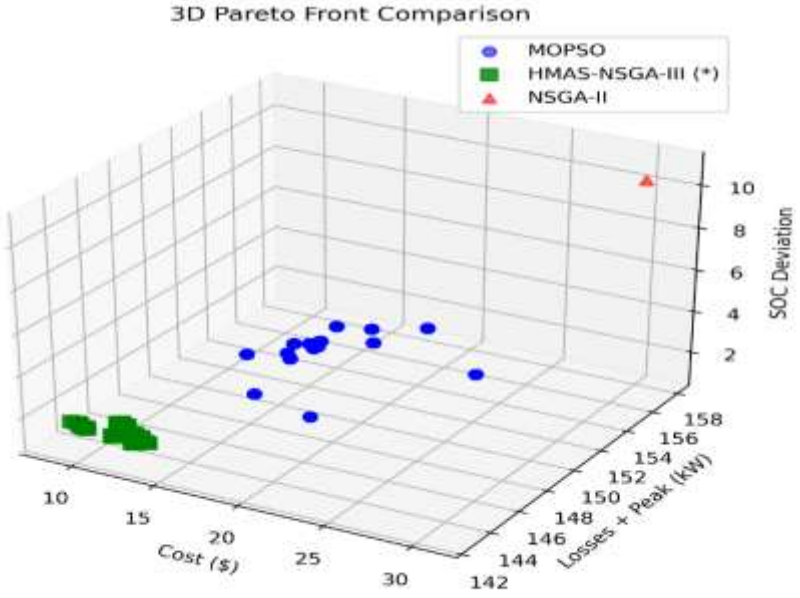


Figure 1 Comparison of 3D Pareto fronts for MOPSO, NSGA-II, and the proposed HMAS-NSGA-III.

As shown in Figure 1, the Pareto front generated by HMAS-NSGA-III (green squares) clearly dominates the solutions found by MOPSO (blue circles) and NSGA-II (red triangle). The HMAS-NSGA-III front is positioned closest to the origin, which represents the ideal point of zero cost, zero losses, and zero deviation. In contrast, the single NSGA-II solution is located far from the origin, and the MOPSO front, while extensive, occupies a region of the objective space that is inferior to the one discovered by our proposed method.

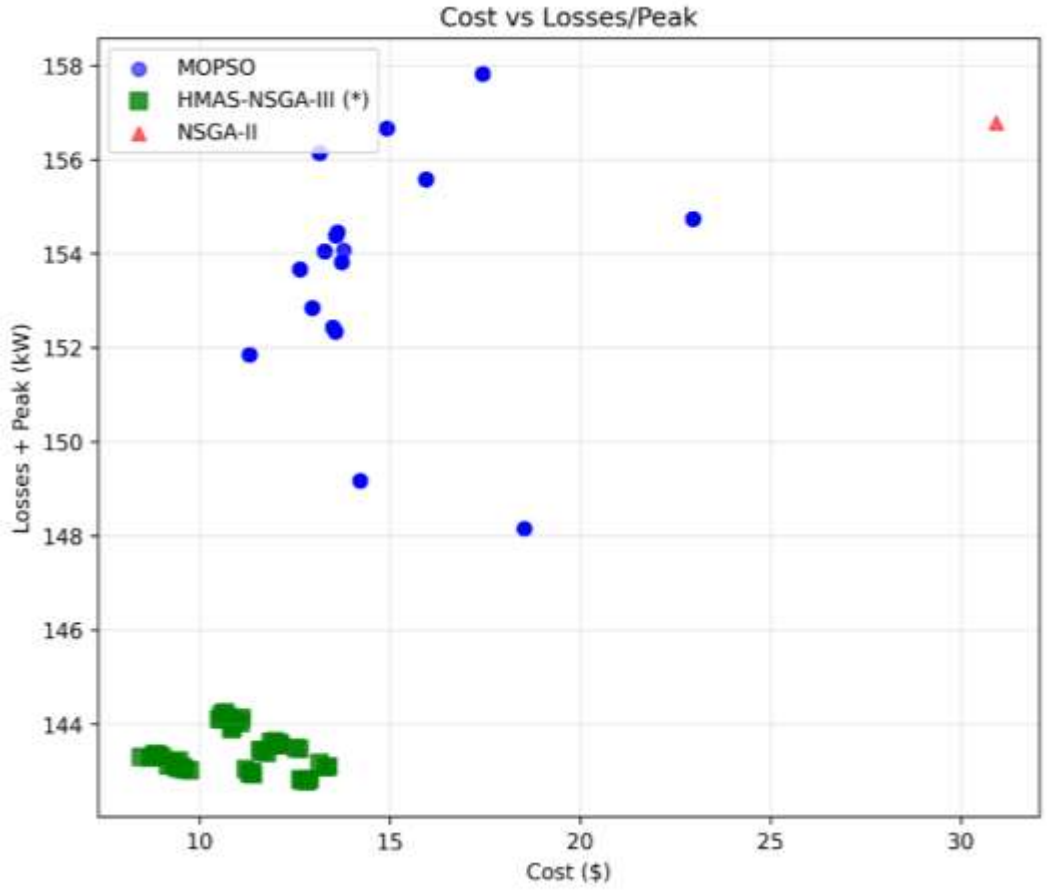


Figure 2 (Cost vs Losses/Peak)

This figure 2 presents a two-dimensional comparison of the Pareto fronts generated by the MOPSO, HMAS-NSGA-III, and NSGA-II algorithms, plotting the trade-off between Minimizing Cost (x-axis) and Minimizing Losses + Peak Load (y-axis). An ideal solution would be located at the bottom-left corner, representing the minimum possible value for both objectives. The plot clearly illustrates the superior performance of the proposed HMAS-NSGA-III algorithm (green squares), as its cluster of solutions dominates the others by achieving significantly lower costs and lower peak loads simultaneously. In contrast, the solutions from MOPSO (blue circles) are scattered in a region with higher costs and losses, indicating they are suboptimal. The standard NSGA-II (red triangle) performed the worst, converging to a single, poor-quality solution with the highest cost and a high peak load, demonstrating its failure to effectively navigate the solution space for this problem.

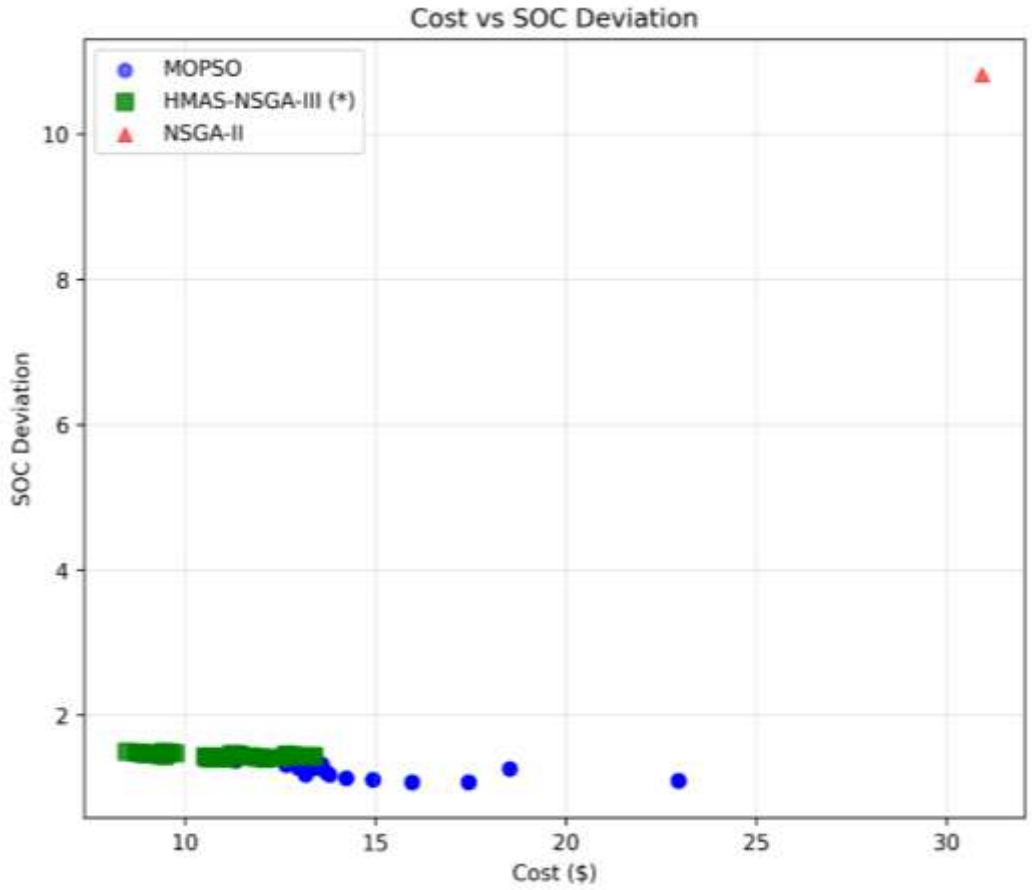


Figure 3 (Cost vs SOC Deviation)

This figure 3 provides a comparative plot of the solutions based on the objectives of Minimizing Cost (x-axis) and Minimizing SOC Deviation (y-axis). The goal is to find solutions in the bottom-left, which are both cheap and meet the final charging targets for the EVs. The results again underscore the superiority of the proposed HMAS-NSGA-III algorithm (green squares). It successfully located a dense front of solutions that achieve very low SOC deviation (around 1.4) at the lowest operational costs. While the MOPSO algorithm (blue circles) also found solutions with a low SOC deviation, they are Pareto-dominated by the HMAS-NSGA-III solutions as they come at a higher cost. The standard NSGA-II (red triangle) is shown to be completely ineffective, converging to a single solution that is not only the most expensive but also has an extremely high SOC deviation (above 10), indicating a total failure to satisfy the end-user charging requirements.

3.5 Analysis of Optimal Charging Schedules

To understand the practical implications of these results, the charging schedule corresponding to the minimum-cost solution from each algorithm was analyzed.

Figure 4 Optimal schedule for the lowest-cost solution found by the proposed HMAS-NSGA-III.

Figure 4 depicts the intelligent scheduling strategy formulated by the proposed HMAS-NSGA-III algorithm, showcasing its ability to efficiently manage energy flows between Electric Vehicles (EVs), the Energy Storage System (ESS), and the grid. The figure provides a temporal view of charging behavior, energy dispatch, and grid power consumption across a 24-hour horizon. From the observed patterns, it is evident that the algorithm achieves a harmonious balance between operational cost minimization, load management, and constraint satisfaction.

One of the most prominent characteristics of the optimized schedule is its cost-aware charging behavior. The majority of EV charging operations are intentionally concentrated within the off-peak period (00:00–06:00), aligning with the lowest electricity tariff hours. By scheduling the charging process during these economically favorable intervals, the algorithm substantially reduces overall operational costs while ensuring that vehicles reach adequate State of Charge (SOC) levels before departure times. This intelligent temporal shift in demand demonstrates the algorithm's ability to exploit tariff structures dynamically and enhance energy affordability for large-scale EV fleets.

Another key feature evident from Figure 4 is the strategic utilization of the Energy Storage System (ESS) for peak shaving and load balancing. During low-price periods, the ESS charges using inexpensive grid energy, storing it for later use. Conversely, during the evening peak hours (17:00–20:00)—when electricity prices and grid demand are highest—the ESS discharges its stored energy to supplement local demand.

This dual-mode operation reduces dependence on costly grid power and smooths out fluctuations in total load. Such adaptive coordination between EVs and ESS not only minimizes cost but also mitigates grid stress, leading to improved power system stability and enhanced demand-side flexibility.

Furthermore, the proposed scheduling strategy exhibits strict adherence to operational constraints. Throughout the scheduling horizon, the total power drawn from the grid consistently remains below the 200 kW limit, as enforced by the system's technical and regulatory requirements. This compliance illustrates the robustness of HMAS-NSGA-III in handling complex nonlinear constraints without compromising optimization performance. The smooth variation in power profiles also indicates that the algorithm effectively avoids abrupt load transitions, thereby supporting grid reliability and prolonging equipment lifespan.

Overall, the scheduling outcomes depicted in Figure 4 underscore the intelligence, adaptability, and reliability of the HMAS-NSGA-III framework. By synergistically coordinating EV charging with ESS operation under dynamic pricing and grid constraints, the algorithm achieves optimal energy utilization while maintaining system stability. This demonstrates the practical potential of HMAS-NSGA-III as a viable decision-support tool for next-generation smart grid and sustainable transportation infrastructures.

4 Conclusion

This study introduced an advanced multi-objective optimization model, HMAS-NSGA-III, for effective electric vehicle (EV) battery charging scheduling in the smart grid scenario. Through synergistic incorporation of memetic improvement, surrogate modeling adaptability, and the NSGA-III evolutionary framework, the new approach efficiently tackles the principal concerns of computational cost, scalability, and Pareto front richness. Comparisons with MOPSO and NSGA-II showed that HMAS-NSGA-III recorded better results in terms of multiple performance measures, such as reduced operational cost, lower energy losses, and reduced SOC deviation. Its solution diversity preservation capability and fast convergence qualify it as a strong decision-support system for real-time EV charging coordination. Moreover, its smart utilization of the energy storage system (ESS) for peak shaving demonstrates its capacity for strengthening grid stability and facilitating dynamic pricing measures. The future work will be aimed at scaling up the model to large heterogeneous EV fleets, adding uncertainty to renewable energy generation, and applying real-time deployment in smart grid infrastructures.

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