



Partial Power Processing for Electric Vehicle Fast Charging Stations

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ABSTRACT

Charging stations are essential as the number of electric vehicles (EVs) continues to rise. Emerging extreme fast charging (XFC) technology could allow gasoline-like recharge. This article analyzes the state-of-the-art EV charge stations and XFC technologies needed to serve current and future EV refueling needs. We explore XFC station design and popular power electronics converter topologies. We examine the advantages of adopting solid-state transformers (SSTs) in XFC stations to replace standard line-frequency transformers and assess medium-voltage SST designs for XFC. This paper provides a power distribution technique for a station that can charge numerous electric automobiles at once (EVs) (EVs). A cascaded H-bridge (CHB) converter interacts directly with the MV grid, while dual active bridge (DAB)-based soft-switched solid-state transformers (SST) maintain galvanic isolation. Using partial-power DC-DC converters to charge EVs reduces wasteful power conversion. Partial power processing allows each EV to charge separately by processing a part of the battery charging power. explores feasible partial power charger implementation techniques. PSFB charger is advised. The architecture of several charging stations and their control are examined. Experimental results from a downscaled laboratory test-bed verify the proposed XFC station power delivery method. A partial power converter rated to take just 27% of the battery power increases efficiency by 0.6% at full-load and 1.6% at 50% load.

Keywords: Cascaded H-bridge (CHB) converter, DC fast charger, DC-DC power converters, Dual active bridge (DAB), energy storage, fast charging station, integrated chargers, levels 1, 2, and 3 chargers, conductive and inductive charging, plug-in electric vehicles (PEVs).

1. Introduction

Governments and corporations alike have sought for alternatives to petroleum as a transportation fuel in response to growing worries about its impact on the environment. Plugged-in EVs that use battery power may be charged using renewable energy, which in turn reduces the need for oil. Batteries that can store energy and power are essential for electric cars. Due to advancements in Li-ion battery technology, EVs are now more accessible financially and practically. Batteries costing less than 120 cents per watt-hour The driving range of EVs on a single charge is still shorter than that of typical gasoline automobiles (12,000 Wh/kg), despite. significant advancements in the energy density of Li-ion batteries (200-300 Wh/kg) and the reliability of the electric motor system. Key obstacles to widespread EV adoption still exist, including the degradation of Li-ion batteries at rest and during cycles, the slow charging rate imposed by electrochemical processes, and the low energy density (in comparison to petroleum). Lack of refuelling equipment that can rapidly and seamlessly recharge EV batteries to increase driving range on longer excursions is a major lingering barrier for the broad adoption of EVs. EVs are desperately required. The charging infrastructure will be similar to gas stations in areas frequented by long-distance travellers. There are several technical and regulatory hurdles to overcome when planning and implementing an electric vehicle charging infrastructure, including as conflicting industry standards, available technology, grid consequences, and more. In this research, we compare and contrast several different types of cutting-edge DC fast chargers, and we elaborate on the necessity and advantages of extreme fast charging (XFC) hubs. We talk about AC/DC front-end stage design, isolated and non-isolated DC/DC converter topologies, and other power electronics converter topologies that are suitable for XFC stations. We also assess the benefits of using a solid-state transformer (SST) to convert MV to LV and provide galvanic isolation in XFC stations rather than the conventional line frequency transformer. We assess potential SST architectures for XFC.

2. Literature review

For XFC stations, this research suggests a setup with numerous PPCUs for delivering electricity. The proposed power distribution strategy improves efficiency while decreasing construction expenditures and operational expenses. A appropriate converter design is discussed, along with the benefits and requirements of using a PPCU to charge batteries. The design, modeling, and evaluation of PPCUs for charging the batteries of electric vehicles are covered. Control, functionality, and efficiency of the proposed power distribution method are supported by observations from a downscaled laboratory test bed. PPCUs have been approved to manage 27% of the battery power supply using prototypes that are significantly smaller. [1].

As a means of decreasing dependency on fossil fuels and GHG emissions, electric vehicles (EVs) are being explored as a viable alternative to conventional cars powered by internal combustion engines (ICEs). There are several challenges to implementing on a large scale. Charging a huge number of EVs in a disorganized fashion might strain the power grid. In light of the problems caused by EV peak demand, several studies have proposed potential alternatives. If aggregating agents are used to implement EV charging solutions, the impact on the grid may be mitigated, and service quality could be guaranteed. Smart grid technology, including smart meters, ICTs, and energy storage systems, is necessary for effective charging strategies (ESSs). Smart grid fast charging stations from the previous generation can benefit from the addition of ESSs into modern electrical grids, an essential part of the smart grid paradigm.[2].

Electric vehicles (EVs) are being introduced by automakers as a green replacement for conventional gas-powered cars. It is expected that the number of EVs on the road will increase dramatically in the next years. Inadequately coordinated charging might put a load on the electrical system. There has been a lot of focus on how to charge electric vehicles in recent years. In this article, we'll examine the various approaches to EV charging scheduling using a smart grid. [3].

In order to facilitate the widespread use of plug-in electric vehicles, this research provides an EMS for a DC distribution system (PEVs). The dc distribution system links the parking lot's electric vehicles to the ac grid via bidirectional dc-dc converters (battery chargers) and a central voltage source converter. By use of online constrained optimization, the proposed EMS controls DC power flow. Depending on the battery's health and the length of time until the next journey, PEV owners can elect to either charge or discharge their batteries. The EMS provides plug-in electric vehicle (PEV) owners with two energy-exchange options: 1) the rapid energy exchange option, for owners who value efficiency over time, and 2) the optimum energy exchange option, for owners who value economy over efficiency in either charging or selling their stored energy.[4].

Transport's disproportionate share of the world's carbon emissions has spurred the rise of the electric car. Despite the positive effects on the environment and the economy, electric vehicle charging is a burden on the infrastructure. The impact of fast-charging electric vehicles on low-voltage networks during peak demand is investigated in this article. The quick charging of six electric vehicles was shown in simulations to be too high of a voltage for the network. To combat voltage, drop, a novel control architecture and bidirectional DC fast charging station are introduced. Using a revolutionary constant current/reduced constant current technology, DC fast charging stations rapidly refuel electric vehicles. [5].

It is recommended that charging stations use a two-stage coordinated charging optimization formulation for plug-in electric vehicles (PEVs). Economic profits and customer billing requirements are both maximized in the first step of optimization. Using the results of the first stage of optimization, the peak load on the distribution transformer is reduced in the second. Customers' billing patterns can be modeled with Monte Carlo simulations. Financial viability and distribution transformer loads are simulated for charging stations under coordinated charging with peak load management, coordinated charging without peak load control, and uncoordinated charging scenarios[6].

DC micro-grids for rapidly charging electric and plug-in hybrid vehicles are the focus of this research, which also examines their prerequisites, design, control techniques, and experimental testing. Considering the integration of RES with stationary energy storage systems and electric/hybrid vehicle fleets, the suggested DC fast charging architecture is produced by comparing the key aspects of well-known designs, which are mostly based on AC and DC bus. Following the blueprint provided, a prototype charging station was constructed in the lab using a 20kW bidirectional grid tie converter and two comparable voltage DC/DC converters. The AC/DC converter converts 790 V DC to AC, while the other two converters are used to either charge the batteries in electric vehicles or store energy to support the main grid during peak charging.[7].

Learn how the lab demonstration functions in real-world scenarios, including vehicle-to-grid (V2G) operations, charging and discharging of various storage systems, and fast charging of electric cars on the go, with this in-depth look at the tests conducted in the lab. Compared to conventional gasoline or diesel vehicles, electric and hybrid vehicles use significantly less energy and create less greenhouse emissions, making them environmentally friendly. Recent calculations show that electric automobiles are a net contributor to the rise in greenhouse gas emissions across Europe due to their excessive need for power sources, especially in locations with limited renewable energy sources. Reducing electric waste in the environment requires significant investment and recycling technology to deal with the chemical and electrical components of automotive batteries and their waste disposal. [8].

Electric vehicle battery chargers, charging power levels, and supporting infrastructure are all examined here. You may choose between unidirectional and bidirectional charging for your devices, depending on whether you're using an on-board or off-board source. Reduced hardware and connection issues are a result of unidirectional charging. Batteries can now provide power to the grid thanks to bidirectional charging. On-board charging capacity is constrained by factors like size, cost, and weight.[9].

The discipline of Power Electronics (PE) is expanding into new areas of technology. It also covers electric vehicles. When it comes to sustainable transportation, Power Electronics is a cutting-edge technology that can change traction vehicles from charging stations to mobile power plants. Fast battery charging methods for PE infrastructures are the topic of this study. A 100-kilometer range may be restored in as little as 10 minutes; however, this varies by battery type and car model. With the development of better batteries, filling up will be as easy as filling up with electricity.[10].

Because of how quickly they charge, Plug-in Hybrid Electric Vehicles (PHEVs) require extensive access to fast charging stations. The use of electrical storage systems (ESSs) in fast charging stations has the potential to reduce the associated costs and impacts on the power grid. In this research, we provide a strategy for calculating the optimal storage capacity for a fast-charging station. To begin, the number of PHEVs that will require charging at a given station is determined by their attributes and typical usage patterns. [11]

3. Methodology

Possible range anxiety in electric vehicles due to inadequate charging infrastructure and lengthy charge periods. Standard AC Level 1 (2 kW) or Level 2 (> 2 kW and 10 kW) charging is typically found in homes and workplaces. AC Level 2 charging is used in both public and private establishments. Long distance trips can be prepared for with the installation of DC quick charging stations (>20 kW and >120 kW). The time it takes to charge a BEV, even with a DC fast charger, is still much longer than the time it takes to fill up an equivalent internal combustion engine car. Extreme Fast Charging (XFC) infrastructure (> 300 kW) is required for the widespread adoption of long-range EVs. People's concerns about their vehicles' range should be reduced as a result. A line frequency transformer connects a centralized front-end converter (FEC) device to the MV grid (Fig. 1a). In urban areas with high land prices, the bulk, size, volume, and enormous footprint of a line frequency transformer present difficulties. In, a fast-charging station that uses a cascaded H-bridge (CHB) front-end converter and connects directly to the MV grid is detailed. XFC battery charging is achieved by using DC-DC converters operating at maximum capacity across all methods.

Differing power processing is referred to in the literature. A portion of the total power is converted in a series or parallel load using a partial power converter. Terminal connections of a regular power converter are changed to mimic those of a partial power processor. When used to the integration of solar panels, thermoelectric generation, the distribution of power in data centers, the charging of electric vehicles, etc., partial power processing converters have been shown to increase system performance. In this study, we present an XFC basis that uses partial power processing. This study extends the theory in a systematic way and confirms it at the cellular and systemic levels.

4. Working and operation

4.1 STATUS OF THE EV CHARGING INFRASTRUCTURE

The SAE J1772 standard defines conductive EV charging methods for the North American market. Both the AC level 1 and 2 on-board chargers require 120 V and 240 V ac input, with the former producing 1.9 kW and the latter 19.2 kW. Due to their low power rating, these onboard chargers may be recharged while you sleep. However, dc fast chargers with outputs of up to 350 kW have been developed to make up for the limited power of on-board chargers. These chargers include a separate power converter that provides dc power to the automobile battery while still outside the car. Provides details on the most cutting-edge DC quick chargers available today. Modern DC fast chargers use two power electronics conversion stages to bring three-phase ac voltage up to 480 V down to the dc voltage needed to charge an electric vehicle, first through an AC/DC rectification stage with power factor correction (PFC) to an intermediate dc voltage and then through a DC/DC stage to the regulated dc voltage. There are two possible methods of galvanic isolation between the grid and the EV battery. Before connecting the AC/DC stage to the grid, a line-frequency transformer must be installed (See Fig. 1a). Next DC/DC converter is not isolated. A high-frequency transformer may be used to isolate a DC/DC converter, which brings us to our second point (See Fig. 1b). A dc fast charger's power needs can be met by connecting multiple charging modules in parallel. The Tesla Supercharger is comprised of 12 modules that work in tandem. Dc quick charging methods and couplers have been established by authorities to ensure compatibility. There are five different types of DC rapid chargers. IEC 62196-3 defines four vehicle coupler configurations for dc fast charging: Configuration AA (proposed and implemented by the CHAdeMO Association), Configuration BB (GB/T, only available in China), Configuration EE (Type 1 Combined Charging System (CCS), adopted by North America), and Configuration FF (proposed and implemented by the CHAdeMO Alliance) (Type 2 CCS, adopted in Europe and Australia). The automobiles produced by Tesla, Inc. use a proprietary technology designed by the company.

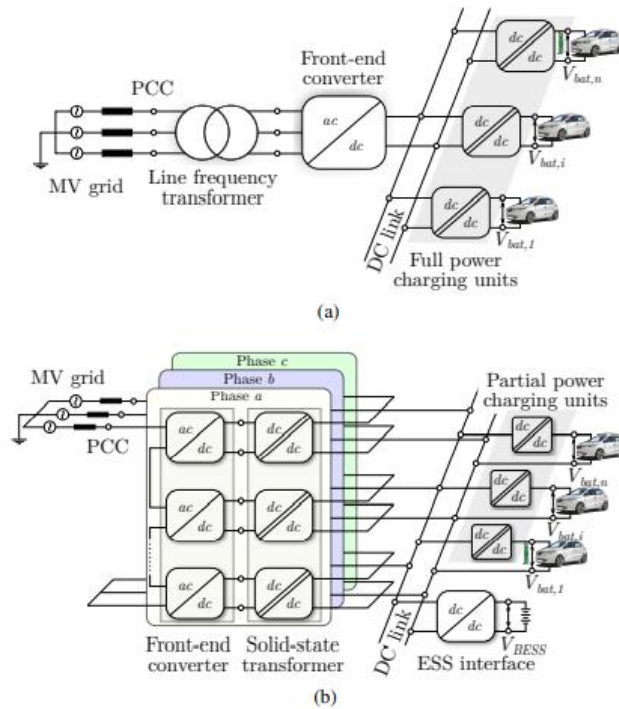


Fig. 1. Construction of an XFC station. Method (a) is the standard setup, which uses charging converters at their maximum capacity. Schematic (b) including proposed converters for half rated charging.

4.2 XFC STATIONS: MOTIVATION, TRENDS AND CHALLENGES

In response to consumer demand, most modern electric vehicles now have a range of more than 200 miles on a single charge. Battery size and range for common EVs are listed in Table III. There is a need for a charging infrastructure that can replenish batteries as rapidly as gasoline, as the vehicle's range is suitable for many driving circumstances. If you want to add 200 miles to your EV's range with a 7.2 kW on-board charger, you'll be waiting for more than 8 hours (assuming continuous power). Although 135 kW Tesla Superchargers can add 200 miles to a charge in only 27 minutes, a 50kW fast charge takes nearly an hour. According to fig. 1c and 1d, 350 kW DC ultra-fast chargers may extend a battery-powered vehicle's range by the equivalent of 200 miles in just 10 minutes.

It is difficult and expensive to design and operate a system to provide such powerful EV charging. Due to electrical service modifications like a transformer and feeder, ground surface quality, conduits from the power supply to the service transformer and from the transformer to the fast charger, along with the cost of materials, permits, and administration, XFC station installations can be quite pricey. Modifications to the existing electrical supply account for a sizable portion of the total cost of installing a dc fast charger. Since the costs of setting up an XFC charging station are spread across many ports, it is more cost-effective to install multiple ports than it would be to install a single port. XFC stations may be installed in high-density areas because their small footprint per port results from several chargers sharing upstream equipment.

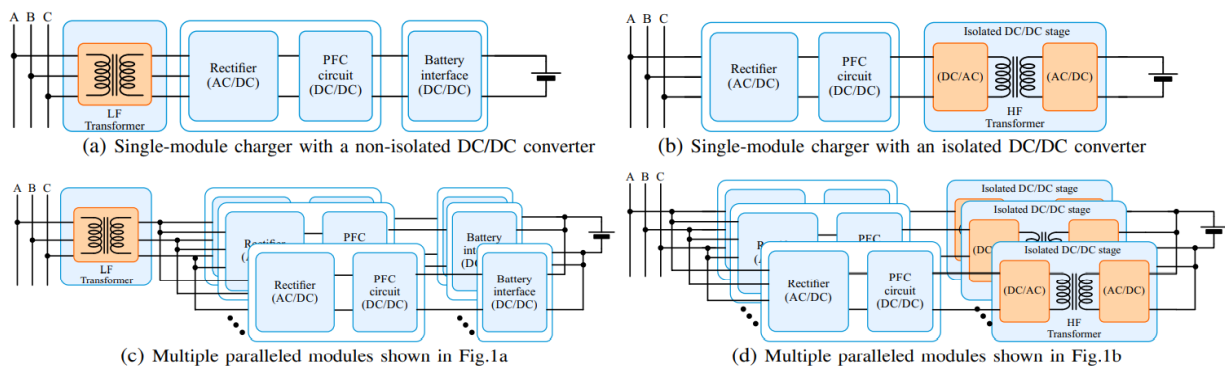


Fig-2 Simplified block diagram of conventional dc fast charger power conversion systems.

As a result of unmonitored EV charging, the daily peak demand may increase and change, leading to transformer and feeder overload, premature transformer aging, and higher power losses. Consistent power consumption from the chargers might have an effect on the reliability, voltage balancing, and power quality of the distribution system. XFC stations may have less of an impact on the grid if renewable energy sources and battery energy storage devices are included into them. Located in Mountain View, California, the Tesla supercharger station has 400 kWh of battery capacity. Peak demand can be reduced by coordinating a large number of EVs to use a single or several XFC charging stations.

Because of the potential for several chargers (and EVs) at an XFC charging station, it is possible to schedule car charging and de-rate upstream equipment. When a large number of EVs are charging at once, the charging station's power needs may fluctuate widely due to the fact that the charging power for each EV depends on the size and SOC of the batteries being charged. The actual system power demand from the grid may be lower than the stated amount by timing the charging of many automobiles and leveraging load diversity from varied EV battery capacities. The station's use of peak power might be reduced using an energy storage device. According to the research presented in [22], when real EV arrival dates and initial EV battery state-of-charge are taken into account, an XFC station with 10 charging slots, each rated at 240 kW, may be set at less than 50% of the rated power. With a 10-second charging lag, 98% of the power demand could be fulfilled if a small storage system was connected to the station.

Researchers have looked exploring vehicle-to-infrastructure (V2I) communication to direct electric vehicles to charging stations with spare capacity or where their load would have the smallest impact on the power system. It is suggested that EVs, roadside devices, and charging stations all use a publish/subscribe system. The roadside equipment acts as a communication hub for electric vehicles and charging stations, allowing the vehicles to find and reserve the least congested ones. To help electric vehicles find the most direct route to their destination, buses will operate as intermediaries between the message publisher (charging station) and subscriber (EVs), rather than traditional roadside devices. Planned current flow for recharging stations for electric vehicles. Profitability at charging stations may be increased and EV users' experiences improved by strategic distribution of power. Where you put recharging stations for electric vehicles is critical. By incorporating a time-space perspective into an EV mobility model, we can determine where and how many charging stations should be installed, therefore cutting down on planning expenses and increasing the number of chargers that are readily available.

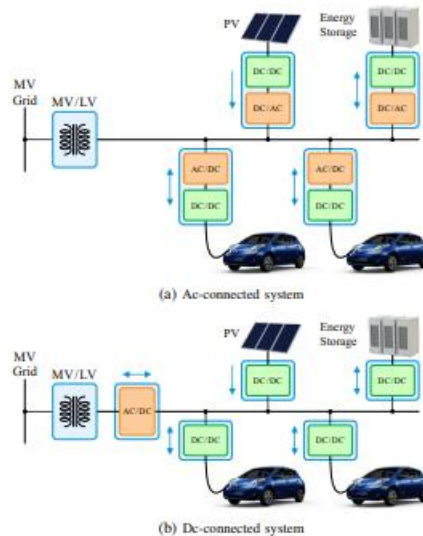


Fig-3 Configurations for XFC stations

4.3 XFC STATION CONCEPTS AND CONVERTER TOPOLOGIES:

As can be observed in Fig. 3a and 3b, both ac and dc can be used for local distribution networks. The advantages and disadvantages of each strategy are shown in Table IV. Challenges and opportunities for both types of charging stations are discussed below. Different types of XFC power converters are analyzed and contrasted. Evaluate the benefits and drawbacks of this option. Additional topological and control improvements for XFC that have been offered in the literature are also analyzed. Topologies for XFC converters, rather than on-board chargers, are the topic of this article.

- AC/DC XFC STATIONS :

A step-down transformer connects the distribution network to a three-phase ac bus that operates at 250 to 480 volts. A dedicated AC/DC bus is provided for each charger in the station. This increases the number of conversion steps between the distribution network and EV or RES dc terminal (eg. PV or battery) (eg. PV or battery). Adding more stages of conversion to an ac-connected system increases the system's complexity, cost, and efficiency. There are established practices and protocols for ac power distribution systems, as well as mature rectifier and inverter technologies on the ac bus. There are regulations for EV charging stations. The Tesla supercharger station in Mountain View, California, as well as the ABB dc fast charging station in Euroa, Victoria, Australia, are both examples of ac-connected state-of-the-art XFC stations. To more effectively link dc energy storage and renewable energy sources, a single front-end AC/DC converter can provide a dc bus for devices operating on the dc power supply. A low-frequency transformer and an LV (250 V - 480 V) rectifier stage or a single-stage transformer (SST) that performs rectification, voltage step-down, and isolation are found in the center of

the front-end. To accommodate the voltage of today's batteries, the dc bus is often less than 1000 V. (around 400 V). At this power output, dc-bus XFC stations should be fully compatible with ac stations. To avoid the need for AC/DC converters, each charger communicates with the dc bus via a DC/DC converter. Efficiency in dc-connected systems is higher since there are fewer conversion stages involved. In order to connect to the utility, the "dc distribution" method requires a centralized front-end. As a result, the AC/DC converter and the grid connection nameplate can be significantly de-rated, reducing the system installation cost, to accommodate the load diversity resulting from variable EV battery capacity and fluctuating charge acceptance as a function of SOC. Since DC systems don't produce reactive power, they're easier to regulate. Islanding and grid connectivity are simplified by using a single inverter connection. Partial power converters could be used in DC distribution systems to facilitate interactions with automobiles. Reduced ratings, costs, and conversion efficiency result from the fact that partial power converters only handle a portion of the vehicle's power. The DC bus of an XFC station should use a fractional-power DC/DC converter. However, these converters do not provide galvanic isolation since they feed power directly from the DC bus to the car. To meet current charging criteria, which demand "each output circuit be segregated from each other" for an electric vehicle charging station, this method confronts significant technological hurdles.

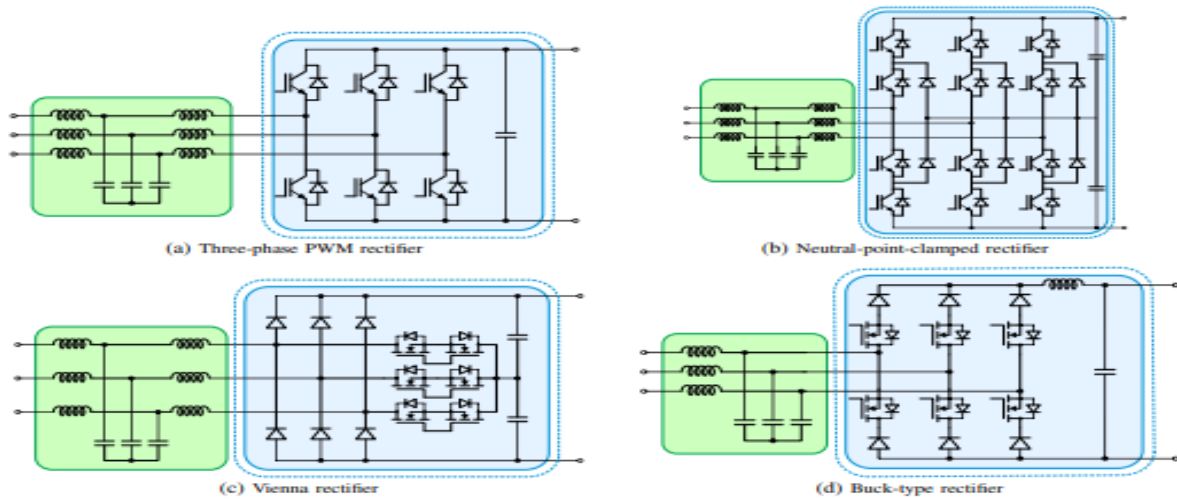


Fig-4 AC-DC front-end topologies for dc fast chargers.

- GRID-FACING AC/DC CONVERTERS:

The AC/DC converters connected to the grid communicate with the regulated DC bus. Having both the ac and dc sides of the converter provide high-quality power is essential for the converter's performance. Electrical current to direct current converters suitable for XFC are seen in Fig. 4.

- BIDIRECTIONAL AC/DC CONVERTERS:

A three-phase LCL-filtered active pulse-width-modulated (PWM) converter is depicted in Fig.4a. The output voltage of this boost-type converter is higher than the input voltage. Adjusting the power factor (PF) and bidirectional power flow are both possible with the six-switch PWM converter. Since it is easy to implement with standard control systems and inexpensive IGBT transistors that can handle the necessary current and voltage, this design is widely employed in contemporary dc rapid chargers. Another implementation of the boost type is the neutralpoint-clamped (NPC) converter. This three-stage converter paves the way for lower-voltage devices with manageable switching losses. Lower input current harmonics and dv/dt are achieved by using a three-stage voltage waveform.

- UNIDIRECTIONAL AC/DC CONVERTERS:

A T-type Vienna rectifier with fewer active switches for one-way power flow is seen in Fig. 4c. Despite keeping the advantages of three-level converters, it also has their drawbacks, such as the need for dc-link capacitor voltage balancing. Vienna rectifiers have limitations like unidirectional power flow and limited reactive power regulation. Due to the small modulation vector, the reactive power range is dependent on the output voltage (30% when the output voltage is greater than twice the peak input ac line-to-line voltage, and = 0 if the output voltage is equal to the peak input ac line-to-line voltage). Prototype electric vehicle charger with 25 kilowatts of power and a single-switch Vienna rectifier and four parallel 3-level DC/DC converters. The Vienna rectifier, which is based on SiC and switches at 140 kHz, has very small passive components and an efficiency of 98.6 percent. A Vienna rectifier and two isolated DC/DC converters, each connected to one half of the dc bus voltage, are proposed for use in an EV charger. System efficiency is increased by modulating only one phase of the Vienna rectifier when using DC/DC converters to inject the sixth order harmonic in the dc bus voltage.

4.4 SST-BASED MEDIUM VOLTAGE EXTREME FAST CHARGERS:

The current used by quick charging stations is up to 480 V line-to-line (region dependent) from a three-phase low-voltage grid. The voltage is generated via MV-to-LV transformers. The heavy duty service transformer adds complexity and cost to the overall system. The MV grid might be connected directly

to the LV grid with the help of a solid-state transformer (SST) based on power electronics. Power electronics converters that use high-frequency transformers for voltage conversion and galvanic isolation are what solid-state transformers (SST) have replaced. When compared to conventional line frequency transformers, SSTs excel in terms of controllability, current limiting, and efficiency at low loads. Suggested SSTs. Three-phase MV ac to LV ac conversion. Initially, MV ac at line frequency is rectified by an active front-end to produce dc. The DC voltage is transformed to the desired voltage by a DC/DC stage that is galvanically isolated from the rest of the circuit. Last but not least, dc is converted to LV ac by inversion. The three-stage design is optimized for generating a dc bus that can connect photovoltaic panels, battery energy storage systems, electric vehicles, and other dc sources and loads. In-depth analysis of the differences between SST topologies and implementations.



Fig. 5: Comparison of the state-of-the-art dc fast charger station to the SST-based solution. Both stations at rated at 675Kw

The SST in XFC is a high-frequency transformer that converts MV ac to LV dc and offers galvanic isolation. High-frequency transformers are much smaller than their line-frequency counterparts because they operate at frequencies in the tens of kilohertz range. When compared to conventional low frequency transformers and rectifiers, SSTs provide superior conversion efficiency while also taking up significantly less room. The power savings from the improved efficiency of the infrastructure may be passed on to EV owners. The efficiency with which charging stations utilize their locations increases as system footprints shrink. The importance of this will only increase as EV battery technology advances and EVs gain in popularity. Fig. 5 is a side-by-side depiction of a state-of-the-art dc rapid charging station (modeled after a Tesla Supercharger station) and the SST-based solution.

5. Results and Discussion:

Table-1 : Advanced dc rapid chargers' technical details

S.No	Manufacture model	Power	Input voltage	Output Voltage	Output Current	Peak Efficiency	Volume	Weight
1.	ABB Tera 53	50Kw	480 Vac	200-500 V	120A	94%	758L	400kg
2.	Tritium Veefil-RT	50Kw	380 Vac	200-750 V	240A	93.5%	591L	240kg
3.	Telsa super charger	135KW	380-480 Vac	50-410 V	330 A	91%	1047L	600Kg

Improvements are needed in the areas of solid-state battery design, cell and pack architecture, battery management, and electrolyte/electrode stability. Environmental compatibility is a critical issue as EV charging stations proliferate rapidly, calling for research into heat dissipation, noise reduction, and EMI shielding. There can't be any hiccups in the power distribution system as more EVs need heavy current. Apply intelligent charging in response to fluctuations in peak demand, renewable source generation, variable price, and the demands of EV owners. Smarter choices concerning EV charging loads, driving ranges, and dynamic pricing may be made by control algorithms powered by artificial intelligence. Protection of both the charging network and the car itself against cyberattacks is vital. Details on the charging system, the building where it is located, the owner, and any fees that may be incurred may be recorded. The EV's remote control might be compromised by a cyberattack. There has to be investigation into cyber security, resilience, reliability, and protecting user and grid data from attacks.

Electric vehicles are restricted to everyday commutes and weekend vacations due to a lack of charging infrastructure and long charging times. An affordable, widespread charging infrastructure that can compete with gas stations is needed to meet this problem. Recent advances in XFC converter technology for electric vehicles are discussed in this paper. Co-locating many XFCs when building charging stations decreases the installation cost per stall. Reduced installation and operation costs would be to the station owner's and EV users' advantage if load variety from different EV battery capacities and charge acceptance depending on battery SOC were used. Charging stations are using energy storage and RES to reduce peak demand rates. It also tracks the energy transferred between the charging station and the grid, which helps the system operate. There are two methods provided for disseminating XFC. When compared to ac distribution, which has readily available components and well-established standards, dc distribution has the potential to be less expensive and more efficient. The energy converters of the two methods are contrasted. The wide voltage and power range required for EV charging necessitates converters with great efficiency and power density.

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