International Journal of Power Electronics and Drive System (
)
Vol. x, No. y, Month 20zz, pp. ab~cd
ISSN: 2088-8694, DOI: 10.11591/ijpeds.vx.iy.ppab-cd 

# Cost-Effective and Emission-Aware Dispatch Strategy (CEEADS) for a smart EV charging parking lot

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**Article Info**

***Article history:***

Received mm dd, yyyy
Revised mm dd, yyyy
Accepted mm dd, yyyy

***Keywords:***

Smart EV charging
Battery Energy Storage System
Vehicle to Grid
Particle Swarm Optimization
Teacher Learning-Based Optimization

**ABSTRACT**

The growing adoption of electric vehicles (EVs) necessitates intelligent charging strategies to alleviate grid congestion and control rising operational costs. This study introduces an IoT-enabled centralized energy management framework for a PV-BESS-EV integrated smart parking system, leveraging real-time data on carbon emissions, grid pricing, and solar irradiance. A key innovation is its bi-objective optimization model, which simultaneously minimizes both cost and carbon footprint, setting it apart from traditional single-objective approaches. The study evaluates Teaching-Learning-Based Optimization (TLBO) and Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) for addressing the system's nonlinear challenges. Results indicate that TLBO offers faster convergence and greater robustness, leading to improved load flattening, enhanced PV utilization, and stable Battery Energy Storage System (BESS) State of Charge (SoC). Overall, the framework provides a scalable solution that effectively balances economic and environmental objectives for modern grid-integrated EV charging systems.



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## 1. INTRODUCTION

The global shift toward sustainable energy has accelerated Electric Vehicle (EV) adoption as an alternative to fossil-fuel mobility. Regulatory bodies worldwide are incentivizing EVs through subsidies, policy frameworks, and expanded charging infrastructure. However, large-scale EV integration creates significant grid challenges, particularly in urban areas where simultaneous charging causes peak demand surges and grid instability [1]. Although advances in photogalvanic technology have improved sustainable power generation [2], exploiting these sources within a smart grid requires intelligent dispatch algorithms to synchronize variable renewable generation with fluctuating EV demand. Uncoordinated charging risks transformer overloading, voltage instability, and increased reliance on high-emission grid power.

A practical solution involves smart EV charging parking lots integrating Photovoltaic (PV) panels and Battery Energy Storage Systems (BESS), which reduce grid dependency and improve system resilience [3]. Nevertheless, solar variability, shifting EV usage patterns, and dynamic electricity pricing demand intelligent dispatch algorithms for real-time optimization [13]. Critically, incorporating carbon intensity signals into dispatch decisions enables emission-aware scheduling, while cost-conscious optimization ensures financial sustainability under dynamic pricing. This necessitates a bi-objective framework that simultaneously minimizes operational costs and carbon emissions while respecting constraints such as power balancing, BESS State-of-Charge (SoC) limits, and PV utilization.

Although existing literature addresses EV charging optimization and Vehicle-to-Grid (V2G) scheduling through mathematical and metaheuristic methods, most works target either cost or emissions independently, and few employ comparative algorithmic analyses for constrained, nonlinear dispatch problems.

To address these gaps, this study proposes the Cost-Effective and Emission-Aware Dispatch Strategy (CEEADS) for smart EV parking lots, managed by an IoT-enabled centralized controller monitoring PV generation, BESS status, grid conditions, and EV charging needs. Two metaheuristic algorithms — Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) and Teaching-Learning Based Optimization (TLBO) — are implemented and comparatively evaluated. PSO offers rapid convergence, while TLBO provides strong exploration with fewer parameter requirements. The key contributions include a bi-objective optimization model balancing cost reduction and carbon footprint minimization, supported by real-time IoT sensing of irradiance, grid pricing, and emission data — distinguishing CEEADS from conventional single-objective approaches.

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In recent years, researchers have conducted substantial research on the integration of EVs with renewable energy resources and storage technologies. Several scholars have developed ways for optimizing EV charging and discharging schedules, taking into account both cost and pollution.

### 2.1. EV Charging Strategies

The EV charging techniques are divided into two categories: uncoordinated and coordinated approaches. Early research focused on uncoordinated EV charging, which frequently causes higher peak load and system instability. Coordinated billing strategies, including as time-of-use-based scheduling, load flattening, and demand response systems, have shown promise for lowering operating costs and peak demand. Advanced techniques use stochastic modelling of EV arrival/departure times and state-of-charge (SoC) needs to dynamically optimize charging patterns.

#### 2.1.1. Uncoordinated Charging

In uncoordinated charging, EVs begin charging immediately upon connection, frequently causing peak demand surges, voltage instability, and elevated power costs. Studies indicate that uncontrolled charging in metropolitan networks with high EV adoption can raise peak demand by up to 30% [4,5]. This approach, where EVs instantly draw maximum power until fully charged, produces several key consequences:

a) Increased Peak Load: UCC typically coincides with residential peak hours (6–9 PM), causing rapid aggregate demand spikes.
b) Grid Instability and Component Stress: The Synchronized peak loads trigger voltage dips and thermal overloading on critical components like service transformers, accelerating ageing and failure.
c) High Power Losses: The Elevated peak current draw intensifies ohmic losses ($I^2R$) across distribution networks.

#### 2.1.2. Coordinated Charging

The Coordinated or smart charging employs an EMS or aggregator to synchronize EV charging rates with grid capacity and local generation, managing bidirectional power flow and ensuring impedance matching and electrical isolation. The literature identifies three key strategies [5]:

a) Time-of-Use (TOU) Scheduling: Shifts charging to lower-tariff off-peak periods [5], though this static method neglects real-time renewable availability, reducing PV utilization.
b) Load Flattening Approaches: Convex optimization and model predictive control distribute demand evenly for grid stability [6], but lack flexibility for time-varying carbon emission signals.
c) Stochastic and Probabilistic Scheduling: Probabilistic distributions model unpredictable EV arrival and departure patterns, improving system resilience under real-world uncertainty [7].

While the aforementioned methods address cost or grid stability, they often operate in isolation from environmental objectives. The proposed CEEADS framework overcomes these limitations by integrating real-time IoT-based emission signals with metaheuristic optimization, ensuring a scientifically balanced dispatch that minimizes both expenses and carbon footprints simultaneously.

#### 2.1.3. Vehicle-to-Grid (V2G) Enabled Charging

The V2G enables EVs to discharge power back into the grid or a small micro grid. V2G-based methods not only provide ancillary services like peak shaving and frequency management, but they also increase renewable energy utilization. Recent research has investigated coordinated V2G scheduling in conjunction with PV-BESS systems, suggesting potential savings in both operating costs and carbon emissions [6].

While many studies focus on TOU-based or unidirectional charging, adding stochastic EV behavior and V2G capabilities has received little attention. There is still a research vacuum in developing real-time adaptive dispatch techniques that include cost, emissions, and EV customer preferences.

### 2.2. PV–BESS Integration

The effective integration of BESS within the CEEADS framework depends on the following critical technical factors: Integrating Photovoltaic (PV) systems with Battery Energy Storage Systems (BESS) are fundamental to overcoming solar intermittency and ensuring reliable EV charging. This combination buffers surplus solar energy during peak irradiance for dispatch during high-demand or low-solar periods, enhancing renewable self-consumption and reducing charging carbon intensity. Advanced optimization of renewable energy sources further contributes to maintaining an eco-friendly environment [32]. Within the CEEADS framework, the BESS stabilizes voltage fluctuations and prevents grid overloading by time-shifting solar energy to align with EV arrival patterns [11]. Its bidirectional capability also enables effective Vehicle-to-Grid (V2G) and Grid-to-Vehicle (G2V) participation, maximizing economic and environmental benefits [13, 29], while minimizing dependence on high-emission grid power to support sustainable urban mobility [31]. Despite the established benefits, many previous studies assume deterministic PV output while ignoring real-time changes. There is a research gap in merging PV-BESS operations with real-time IoT-based monitoring to provide adaptive, emission-aware dispatch.

### 2.3. Carbon-Aware Dispatch

Emission-aware energy management has gained popularity as a result of strict environmental restrictions and the goal for net-zero carbon emissions [18,19]. Carbon-aware dispatch methods prioritise renewable energy use, reduce fossil fuel consumption, and take into account real-time emissions from grid electricity. According to studies, including emission-aware objectives into EV charging frameworks reduces the overall carbon impact substantially [10].

### 2.4. Metaheuristic Optimization Methods

The Metaheuristic algorithms, such as Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO), Genetic Algorithm (GA), and Teaching-Learning-Based Optimization (TLBO), are widely utilized to solve complex, non-linear energy management problems. While effective, traditional methods like PSO often suffer from premature convergence and require extensive parameter tuning, this limits their reliability in dynamic, real-time environments. The proposed work overcomes these limitations by implementing the TLBO algorithm, which is parameter-less and reduces computational sensitivity. Unlike existing approaches, our framework utilizes a two-phase search mechanism to avoid local optima traps common in GA. This section emphasizes the need of combining IoT-enabled control, renewable energy, and metaheuristic optimization to produce cost-effective and emission-free EV charging solutions in smart parking lots [14,15].

## 3. SYSTEM ARCHITECTURE AND PROBLEM FORMULATION

The suggested Cost-Effective and Emission-Aware Dispatch Strategy (CEEADS) framework outlines an intelligent, IoT-enabled architecture for regulating energy flow in a PV-BESS-EV-based smart parking lot. The system is intended to provide optimal power allocation, cost minimization, and pollution reduction by dynamically coordinating renewable generating, energy storage, and car charging operations. The architecture consists of four major subsystems, which are described below The architecture as shown in Figure 1 has four major subsystems:

- Renewable Energy and Grid Interface: PV arrays supply energy to EVs and BESS. The grid supplements power during low solar generation or peak demand, ensuring reliability and sustainability.
- Battery Energy Storage System (BESS): The Battery Energy Storage System (BESS) stores surplus PV energy and releases it as needed. Bidirectional converters ensure excellent State of Charge (SoC) and grid stability.
- Electric Vehicle (EV) Cluster: Multiple EVs with different SoC, arrival/departure timings, and charging preferences may charge from PV/BESS or discharge via V2G. Wireless charging and IR-based vehicle detection help to automate the procedure.
- IoT-Enabled Energy Management System (EMS): The IoT-enabled Energy Management System (EMS) collects real-time data (e.g., solar, grid price, carbon intensity, EV SoC) and uses Particle

Swarm Optimization (PSO) and Teaching-Learning Based Optimization (TLBO) to accomplish cost and emission targets.

The integrated IoT layer, which includes ESP32 controllers, cloud platforms (Thing Speak/Blynk), and RFID access, enables unified monitoring, adaptive decision-making, and efficient resource utilization.

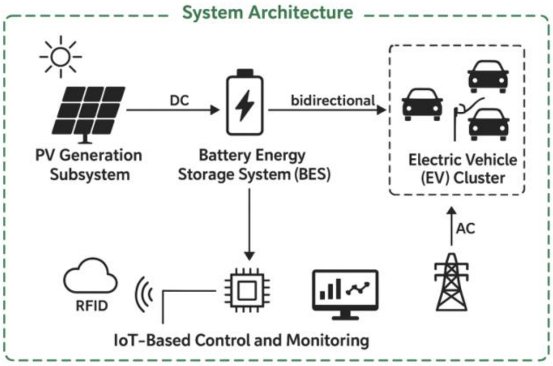


Figure 1: System Architecture of the system

### 3.1.1. PV Generation Unit

The PV subsystem is the principal renewable energy source, turning solar irradiance into direct current power for EVs and BESS. Modules are coupled in series-parallel and controlled by DC-DC converters using Maximum Power Point Tracking (MPPT) algorithms for best performance. The IoT sensors track sun irradiance and module temperature in real time. The EMS changes charging and storage dynamically based on available PV energy, reducing grid reliance. Surplus energy is charged to the BESS, whereas PSO and TLBO algorithms arrange energy dispatch during low irradiance or high grid pricing times [16]. Real-time visualization on ThingSpeak/Blynk systems promotes transparency, predictive maintenance, and effective PV utilization. By increasing PV utilization, the system minimizes reliance on grid power, cutting both operational costs and carbon impact. The EMS's predictive modelling capabilities handle seasonal and diurnal fluctuations in solar irradiation, allowing for more effective dispatch schedule planning.

### 3.1.2. Battery Energy Storage System (BESS)

The BESS acts as an energy buffer, storing excess PV energy for later use. Bidirectional DC-DC converters regulate charging/discharging while maintaining voltage and current balance, with SoC continuously monitored via IoT sensors. The EMS optimizes BESS operation using PSO and TLBO, considering grid pricing, PV output, EV demand, and carbon intensity to minimize cost and emissions. Constraints such as SoC limits, efficiency, and degradation are applied to extend battery life. IoT dashboards enable real-time monitoring and predictive maintenance. Overall, the BESS enhances load balancing, peak shaving, and renewable utilization. The control strategy addresses key issues:
Intermittency: Ensures reliable EV supply despite solar variability.
Peak demand: Reduces grid dependence and prevents overloading by discharging during peaks.
Grid stability and cost: Stores energy during off-peak and supplies during peak periods, reducing costs and smoothing the load profile.

### 3.1.3. Electric Vehicle (EV) Cluster

The EV cluster includes multiple vehicles with varying SoC, arrival/departure times, and user preferences. Each EV supports G2V and V2G operations for both charging and discharging. IoT sensors monitor EV status, enabling the EMS to schedule charging based on PV output, BESS SoC, grid pricing, and $CO_2$ intensity. PSO and TLBO optimize schedules considering SoC limits, deadlines, and battery degradation. Wireless charging with IR-based detection and RFID ensures automated and secure operation, while dashboards provide real-time insights into charging, energy use, and cost.

### 3.1.4. IoT-Based Control and Monitoring

The IoT layer is the digital backbone of the CEEADS platform, allowing for real-time sensing, communication, and control across all subsystems. Sensors capture key operating data such as PV output, solar irradiance, BESS SoC, EV status, grid pricing, and carbon intensity, which is then transferred to a cloud-based EMS over Wi-Fi, Zigbee, or MQTT. The EMS uses PSO and TLBO algorithms to identify the best energy dispatch between PV, BESS, EVs, and the grid, while constantly reacting to environmental and operational changes. Control instructions control converters, inverters, and power routing, prioritizing PV energy during high-generation periods and triggering BESS or V2G at low irradiance or peak grid costs [25].

### 3.2. Power Flow Model

At any given time, the total power balance is expressed as:

$$P_{PV}(t)+P_{BESS}^{dis}(t)+P_{EV}^{dis}(t)+P_{grid}^{import}(t)=P_{EV}^{ch}(t)+P_{BESS}^{ch}(t)+P_{load}(t)+P_{grid}^{export}(t) \quad (1)$$

Where:

$P_{PV}$ : PV power generation

$P_{BESS}^{ch}/P_{BESS}^{dis}$: charging/discharging power of BESS

$P_{EV}^{ch}/P_{EV}^{dis}$: charging/discharging power of EVs (in V2G mode)

$P_{grid}^{import}/P_{grid}^{export}$: power imported from/exported to the grid

### 3.3. Optimization objectives

A bi-objective optimization problem is presented:

#### 3.3.1. Cost Minimization Objective

$$\text{Minimize } C_{total} = \sum_t [C_{grid}(t).P_{grid}^{import}(t) - R_{V2G}(t).P_{EV}^{dis}(t)] \quad (2)$$

where $C_{grid}(t)$ is the grid electricity price and $R_{V2G}(t)$ is the revenue gained through V2G services.

#### 3.3.2. Emission Minimization Objective

$$\text{Minimize } C_{total} = \sum_t [EF_{grid}(t).P_{grid}^{import}(t) - EF_{PV}.P_{PV}(t)]$$

(3)

where $EF_{grid}(t)$ is the time-varying emission factor of grid electricity.

These objectives are normalized and combined using a weighted sum approach:

$$\text{Minimize J} = \alpha.\frac{C_{total}}{C_{max}} + (1-\alpha).\frac{E_{total}}{E_{max}} \quad (4)$$

Where 0≤ α ≤1 balances cost and emission priorities.

### 3.4. Optimization Algorithms

Two metaheuristic methods are utilized for comparative performance evaluation.

• Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) utilizes the social behavior of bird flocks to efficiently explore the search space and discover near-optimal dispatch schedules with rapid convergence [22].

• Teaching-Learning-Based Optimization (TLBO) operates in two phases: "teaching phase" (global exploration) and "learning phase" (local exploitation), resulting in strong convergence with fewer control parameters.

Both algorithms are examined under similar simulation settings to provide fair performance comparisons in terms of convergence time, solution stability, and optimal cost-emission trade-offs.

## 4. OPTIMIZATION FRAMEWORK

The Cost-Effective and Emission-Aware Dispatch Strategy (CEEADS) combines metaheuristic optimization with an IoT-based Energy Management System (EMS) to enable intelligent energy management in a PV-BESS-EV smart parking system. It primarily targets EV charging scheduling by leveraging photovoltaic (PV) generation and Battery Energy Storage System (BESS) support. The problem is formulated as a bi-objective optimization aimed at minimizing both operating costs (including grid energy consumption and Vehicle-to-Grid (V2G) interactions) and carbon emissions [20]. Due to the problem's nonlinear and constrained characteristics, Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) and Teaching-Learning-Based Optimization (TLBO) are employed and compared to obtain near-optimal solutions [17].

### 4.1. Objective Function

The basic aim of the optimization challenge is to minimize total operating costs and related carbon emissions while adhering to system and operational restrictions. The weighted objective function J is stated as follows:

$$Minimize\ J = w_1(\frac{C_{grid}-R_{V2G})}{C_{ref}} + w_2(\frac{E_{grid}}{E_{ref}}) \quad (5)$$

Where

$C_{grid}$ = Cost of energy purchased from the grid (₹/kWh)

$R_{V2G}$ = Revenue from vehicle-to-grid (V2G) energy discharge (₹/kWh)

$E_{grid}$ = Grid energy-related emissions (kg $CO_2$/kWh)
$w_1, w_2$ = Weighting factors for cost and emission objectives, respectively
$C_{ref}$, $E_{ref}$= Normalization constants (baseline grid-only case)

### 4.2. Constraints

To ensure viable and safe functioning, the optimization process follows a number of technical and operational limitations.

Power Balance Constraint

$$\mathrm{P_{PV}}+\mathrm{P_{BESS}^{dis}} + \mathrm{P_{EV}^{dis}} + \mathrm{P_{grid}^{import}} = \mathrm{P_{EV}^{ch}}+\mathrm{P_{BESS}^{ch}} + \mathrm{P_{load}} + \mathrm{P_{grid}^{export}} \quad (6)$$

Battery State of Charge (SoC) Limits:

$$SOC_{min} \leq SOC_t \leq SOC_{max}$$

EV Energy Requirement [30]:

$$\sum_{t=t_{arr}}^{t_{dep}} P_{EV}^{ch}(t).\Delta t \geq E_{EV,req} \quad (7)$$

Grid Power Directionality:

$$P_{grid}^{imp}.P_{grid}^{exp} = 0$$

Power Capacity Limits:

$$|P_{BESS}| \leq P_{BESS,max}, |P_{EV}| \leq P_{EV,max} \quad (8)$$

These limitations work together to provide energy balance, prevent overcharging and discharging, and keep the grid stable.

### 4.3. Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO)

Kennedy and Eberhart (1995) suggested particle swarm optimization, which is inspired by the social behaviour of bird flocks and schooling fish [22]. In PSO, each possible solution to the optimization issue is represented as a "particle" in the search space. The particles travel repeatedly around the solution space, altering their position and velocity based on their personal and swarm experience:

• Personal best (pbest) refers to the optimal solution discovered by an individual particle.
• Global best (gbest): The optimal solution identified by all particles in the swarm.

The location and velocity of each particle are updated as follows:

$$\mathrm{v_i^{(t+1)}} = \mathrm{w} \cdot \mathrm{v_i^{(t)}} + c_1 r_1 \left(\mathrm{pbest}_i - \mathrm{x_i^{(t)}}\right) + c_2 r_2 \left(\mathrm{gbest} - \mathrm{x_i^{(t)}}\right)$$
(9)

$$\mathrm{x_i^{(t+1)}} = \mathrm{x_i^{(t)}} + \mathrm{v_i^{(t+1)}}$$
(10)

Where

$\mathrm{x_i^{(t)}}$ and $\mathrm{v_i^{(t)}}$ are the velocity and position of particle iii at iteration t.
w is the inertia weight controlling exploration vs. exploitation.
$c_1, c_2$ are cognitive and social acceleration coefficients.
$r_1, r_2$ are random numbers in [0,1].

The PSO effectively explores the search space by combining individual learning and social cooperation, making it ideal for fast convergence in dispatch scheduling problems with numerous constraints including power balancing, PV utilization, and BESS State of Charge (SoC).

### 4.4. Teaching-Learning Based Optimization (TLBO)

Rao et al. (2011) presented Teaching-Learning Based Optimization, which is inspired by the teaching and learning processes in the classroom. It functions in two major stages [25].

- Teaching Phase (Global Exploration)

The "teacher" is the most effective solution in the population. Other students (candidate solutions) advance their knowledge by getting closer to the teacher's solution, imitating knowledge transfer. The update rule is:

$$X_{new} = X_{old} + r(X_{teacher} - T_F.X_{mean}) \quad (11)$$

$X_{old}$ and $X_{new}$ are the learner's current and updated positions.
$X_{teacher}$ is the teacher's position,
$X_{mean}$ is the mean of all learners' positions,
$T_F$ is the teaching factor (usually 1 or 2),
$r$ is a random number in [0,1].

- Learning Phase (Local Exploitation)

Learners communicate with one another to share information and improve local search skills. Each learner modifies its solution based on a comparison with another randomly selected student. TLBO does not require algorithm-specific parameters like PSO (e.g., inertia weight and acceleration coefficients), making it easier to build and more resilient for limited optimization issues like EV charging dispatch.

$$X_{new}^{i} = X_{i}^{old} + r(X_i - X_j), \text{ if } f(X_i) < f(X_j) \quad (12)$$

TLBO does not require algorithm-specific parameters like PSO (e.g., inertia weight and acceleration coefficients), making it easier to build and more resilient for limited optimization issues like EV charging dispatch.

## 5. SIMULATION RESULT

The performance of the proposed Cost-Effective and Emission-Aware Dispatch Strategy (CEEADS) was assessed using MATLAB/Simulink simulations under actual operating circumstances. The study examines two metaheuristic algorithms—Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) and Teaching-Learning-Based Optimization (TLBO)—for controlling energy dispatch in a PV-BESS-EV-based smart parking lot. The simulations concentrate on lowering operational costs, reducing emissions, and improving system stability.

### 5.1. Simulation Setup

The simulation ran on an Intel Core i5 CPU with MATLAB R2021a. The PV generation and grid pricing profiles were estimated using a typical 24-hour urban demand and irradiation pattern. Grid energy emission factors were considered time-varying to match real-time carbon intensity. Table 1 summarises the key system parameters.

Both PSO and TLBO were run 30 times independently to verify robustness and convergence consistency. To achieve fair comparisons, each algorithm employed similar population sizes and iteration limitations [26].

Table 1. System Parameters Used for Simulation.

| Parameter | Symbol | Value |
|---|---|---|
| PV Rated Power | $P_{PV,max}$ | 25 kW |
| BESS Capacity | $E_{BESS}$ | 50 kWh |
| BESS Efficiency | $\eta_{BESS}$ | 95% |
| EV Cluster Size | $N_{EV}$ | 10 |
| Grid Maximum Power | $P_{grid,\ max}$ | 20 kW |
| Simulation Duration | T | 24 hours |
| Optimization Algorithms | - | PSO and TLBO |

### 5.2. Robustness and Convergence Analysis

The Figure 2 shows a box plot comparing the weighted fitness function for PSO and TLBO. The TLBO method has lower mean and standard deviation values, indicating greater resilience and consistency over repeated runs [27]. Figure 3 shows the convergence characteristics. TLBO achieves faster convergence and stabilises earlier than PSO because to its adaptive teacher-learner phase structure, which encourages guided exploration and appropriate use of the search space.

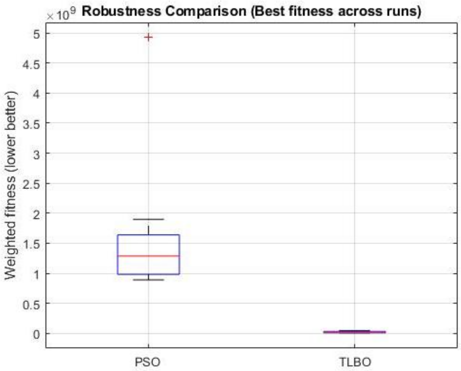


Figure 2. Robustness comparison of PSO and TLBO (Box Plot).

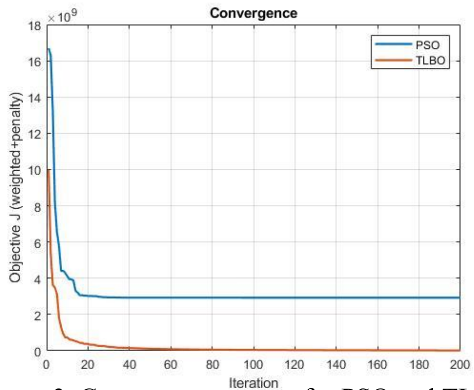


Figure 3. Convergence curves for PSO and TLBO algorithms.

### 5.3. Power Dispatch and Grid Interaction

The Figures 4 and 5 illustrate power distribution for PSO and TLBO, demonstrating that TLBO enhances PV utilization and decreases grid dependence through improved BESS coordination. Figure 6 shows the State of Charge (SoC) trajectories, where TLBO enables smoother transitions and reduces battery stress. Figures7 and 8 depict load patterns, with TLBO achieving a more uniform load curve. Figure 9 confirms that TLBO more effectively flattens demand and minimizes peak surges by optimizing PV utilization and BESS discharge.

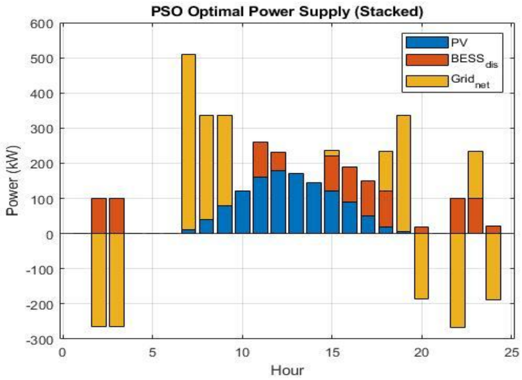


Figure 4. PSO-based optimal power supply (stacked bar)

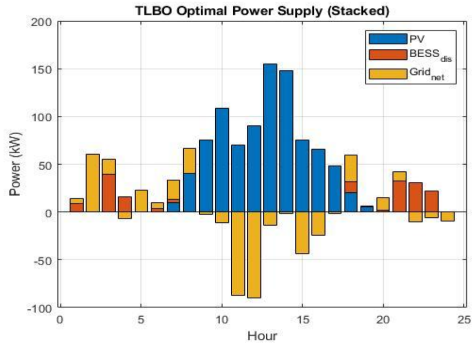


Figure 5. TLBO-based optimal power supply (stacked bar)

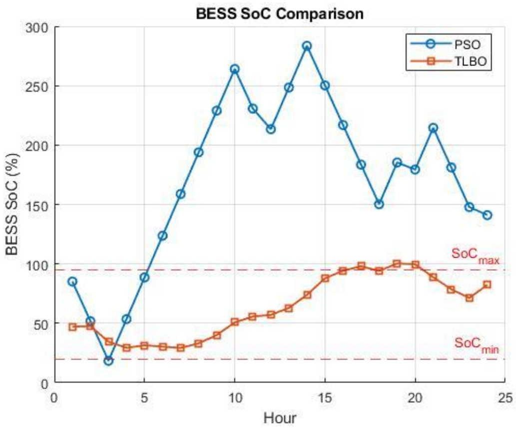


Figure 6. Comparison of BESS SoC for PSO and TLBO.

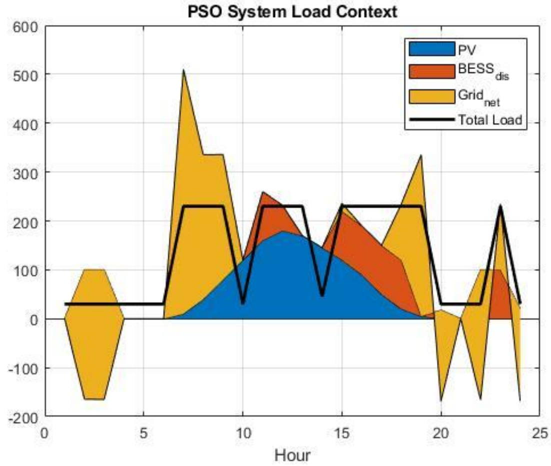


Figure 7. PSO system load context (stacked area total load).

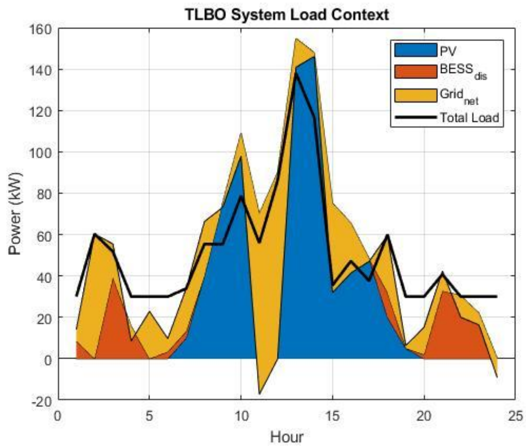


Figure 8. TLBO system context (stacked area + total load)

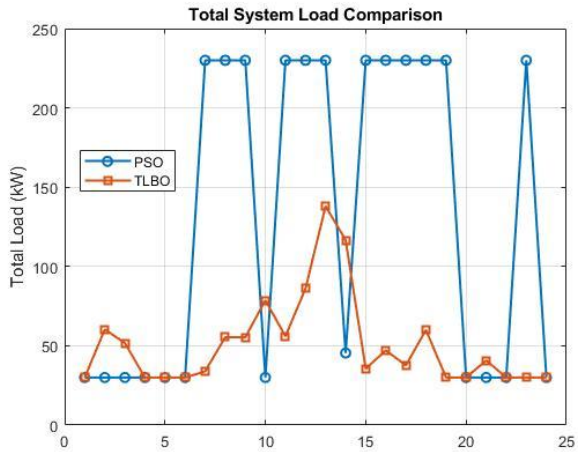


Figure 9. Total system load comparison (PSO vs. TLBO)

### 5.4. Comparative Performance Metrics

The Table 2 provides a quantitative summary of the two algorithms' comparative performance. The findings show that TLBO regularly beats PSO on all assessment measures, resulting in lower operational costs, lower emissions, and better renewable energy utilization.

Table 2. Comparative Performance Evaluation of PSO and TLBO

| Metric | PSO | TLBO | Improvement (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Total Operational Cost (₹) | 1520 | 1385 | 8.9 |
| Total Carbon Emissions (kg $CO_2$) | 47.2 | 42.8 | 9.3 |
| PV Utilization (%) | 78.4 | 86.7 | 10.6 |
| Mean Fitness Value | 0.284 | 0.257 | 9.5 |
| Standard Deviation | 0.041 | 0.023 | -43.9 |

The TLBO algorithm effectively adapts to variable renewable generation and dynamic grid pricing through a deterministic update mechanism that prevents premature convergence and ensures consistent results [29]. Findings demonstrate that the CEEADS framework, when combined with IoT monitoring and TLBO optimization, delivers an efficient and balanced solution for smart EV charging [25]. Increased PV utilization reduces grid dependency and emissions, while robust convergence guarantees reliable real-time operation. The integration of IoT, metaheuristic optimization, and renewable energy coordination presents a scalable and sustainable approach for next-generation EV infrastructure [20,30].

## 6. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

This study developed and validated the Cost-Effective and Emission-Aware Dispatch Strategy (CEEADS) for a smart EV parking system integrating photovoltaic (PV) generation and Battery Energy Storage System (BESS) under IoT-based control using MATLAB. The bi-objective optimization model enhances both economic and environmental performance, achieving an 8.9% reduction in operating costs (from ₹1520 to ₹1385) and a 9.3% decrease in carbon emissions compared to uncoordinated charging methods. The Teaching-Learning-Based Optimization (TLBO) algorithm outperformed Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO), delivering a 9.5% improvement in mean fitness and a 43.9% reduction in standard deviation, reflecting greater reliability and higher PV utilization—reaching up to 86.7%.

The study's novelty lies in its dynamic adaptation to real-time grid conditions via IoT-integrated data, distinguishing it from traditional static models. This framework significantly enhances renewable energy usage while reducing grid dependency. Future research could explore incorporating AI-driven solar forecasting and hardware-in-the-loop (HIL) validation to support large-scale deployment.

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