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Balancing CO₂ Emissions and Economic Cost in a Microgrid through an Energy Management System using MPC and Multi-Objective Optimization

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Luis O. Polanco Vásquez^a, Juana López Redondo^b, José Domingo Álvarez
Hervás^b, Víctor M. Ramírez^{a,*}, José Luis Torres^b

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^a*Unidad de Energía Renovable, Centro de Investigación Científica de Yucatán
AC, luis.polanco@cicy.mx, victor.ramirez@cicy.mx, Mérida, 97205, Yucatán, México*
^b*University of Almería, Agrifood Campus of International Excellence (ceiA3) CIESOL
Joint Centre University of Almería-CIEMAT, jlredondo, jhervas,
jltmoreno@ual.es, Almería, 04120, Almería, Spain*

Abstract

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In this work, the energy production of a microgrid is managed to satisfy the demand while simultaneously minimizing two objectives: CO₂ emissions and the economic cost of operating the microgrid. To this end, a novel energy management system (EMS) that combines a Model Predictive Control (MPC), a multi-objective optimization algorithm and a decision-tool, has been developed. This EMS takes advantage of the individual strengths of these components to address the changes that frequently appear in the microgrid operating conditions. Unlike traditional optimization, MPC applies the concept of receding horizon, so that the optimization problem covers a prediction horizon instead of the entire simulation time. In addition, it is rerun at each simulation sample time with updated information, so that the controller can adapt to changes. The multi-objective optimization algorithm optimizes the CO₂ emissions and the economic cost (these two objectives are in conflict objectives and need to be optimized simultaneously) and generates a set of solutions, each of which is a trade-off between the two objectives. These solutions are called Pareto optimal solutions, and they form the Pareto front. The decision-tool automates the process by managing the Pareto front obtained from the multi-objective optimization. It acts as an expert and selects, among those equally suitable solutions, the one that best

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*Corresponding author

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9 fits the current priorities. To test the performance and robustness of the
10 MPC and to demonstrate that the decreasing horizon actually helps to mit-
11 igate the uncertainties in the predictions, two simulations are performed. In
12 the first one, the forecasting variables are assumed to be predicted without
13 errors, while in the second one, a prediction error is added to these variables.
14 For each experiment, the decision-tool has been adjusted to select, from the
15 Pareto front provided by the multi-objective algorithm, different solutions
16 satisfying various requirements.
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20 *Keywords:*

21 Model Predictive Control, Multi-objective optimization, Decision-tool, CO₂
22 Emissions Minimization, Economic Cost Minimization, Energy
23 Management System, Changing Operating Conditions, Trade-off Solutions
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26 27 **1. Introduction**

28
29 In global markets reference indices, the rise in certain fossil fuels, such as
30 gas and oil, is putting pressure on the price of electricity in most countries'
31 electricity markets [1]. This increase is due to several factors that are not
32 necessarily mutually exclusive: i) the fact that the production peak of the
33 main gas suppliers may have been reached [2]; ii) various geopolitical tensions
34 affecting supply, such as the war in Ukraine; and, iii) logistical and trans-
35 portation problems due to the upturn in energy demand once the pandemic
36 caused by Covid-19 is behind us. These factors are accelerating the energy
37 change from a model dependent on fossil fuels, which are limited, polluting
38 and in the hands of a few countries, to another energy model in which renew-
39 able energies cover, if not all, a significant part of energy demand. Within
40 this framework, microgrids emerge as a new type of electrical grid based on
41 renewable energies, which incorporate a control system that also seeks to
42 maximize energy use from these sources.
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46 Today, microgrids are an essential element within electricity distribution
47 systems. They are also a technically feasible solution to reduce CO₂ emis-
48 sions. Within microgrids, the control system is a key element, as they allow
49 the integration of renewable energy sources and storage in point-of-use en-
50 ergy systems. Among other controllers, Model Predictive Control (MPC)
51 is a suitable control scheme due to its ability to include demand forecasts,
52 weather conditions, and renewable energy production. In addition, MPC al-
53 lows direct optimization of incentives such as CO₂ emissions, electricity to the
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9 main grid, or monetary costs (known as economic MPC). Most of the works
10 presented in the literature have addressed the optimization of one of these
11 objectives, either using heuristic optimization techniques or with determinis-
12 tic algorithms. However, when more than one objective has been considered
13 simultaneously, the multi-objective problem has often been reduced to a con-
14 strained single-objective optimization problem [3]. Nevertheless, as stated in
15 [4], multi-objective optimization has many advantages over single-objective
16 optimization for energy management in microgrids. For example, the multi-
17 objective solution offers many more trade-off solutions, eligible according to
18 the different constraints provided by the decision tool methodology. The
19 computation time is also more advantageous, since almost the same time
20 is used to obtain more solutions than in a single-objective problem. This
21 methodology is perfect for cases where microgrids are scalable and/or condi-
22 tions change rapidly [5]. Therefore, there is a need for a systematic approach
23 and formalizing a multi-objective optimization problem [5].

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28 In this context, the contribution of this work is twofold. On the one hand,
29 it proposes an EMS that combines a stochastic multi-objective optimization
30 with an MPC to help mitigate the uncertainties introduced by renewable
31 energy in microgrids. On the other hand, it uses an automatized decision
32 tool to select, among the available ones, the most suited solution for the
33 current conditions.
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36 Integrating multi-objective optimization with stochastic methods to im-
37 prove predictions in the variations introduced by renewable energies, specif-
38 ically solar and wind, is not widely studied in the literature. As far as we
39 know, only in [6] an optimization model with probabilistic constraints is
40 proposed to improve the generation predictions of renewable systems. In
41 fact, only a few works seek to improve energy management by integrating
42 techniques such as MPC, fuzzy control and modern control techniques in
43 multi-objective optimization [5, 7, 8]. In this work, we opt for an MPC since
44 it is a widely used industrial control scheme that internally uses a model of
45 the system to be controlled. The MPC monitors the control of a microgrid
46 and can predict weather conditions or renewable energy production over a
47 predefined horizon. Finally, it also includes a method that can optimize one
48 or several objective functions, depending on the problem. This paper con-
49 siders the energy cost and the emissions produced by fossil fuels, resulting in
50 a bi-objective optimization problem.
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53 Apart from a few works such as [9], most studies in the microgrids lit-
54 erature propose the optimization of bi-objective problems [5, 7, 8, 10, 11].
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9 More precisely, in [9], a multi-objective analysis of more than two criteria for
10 microgrids is performed, taking into account the social approach that is very
11 important nowadays for the business environment. The rest of the articles
12 mainly focus on minimizing energy cost optimization by managing the re-
13 newable generation and operating costs of different energy sources as one of
14 the objective functions. The second objective varies depending on the work
15 considered. For example, works [8, 10] optimize the energy availability due
16 to the intermittency of both solar photovoltaic and wind systems by man-
17 aging the storage systems, i.e., implicitly minimizing the degradation rate
18 of these systems. The work [11] considers the minimization of the environ-
19 mental pollution rate as a second objective, and the works [5, 12] optimize
20 the thermal comfort for systems that include heat or cooling generation by
21 internal combustion engines using biogas and other fuels.

22 Solving a multi-objective optimization problem is not a mean task. To
23 deal with it, a genetic algorithm has been considered here. These methods
24 can find multiple optimal solutions in a single simulation run due to its
25 population-based search approach [13]. Additionally, they are demonstrated
26 to be suitable to deal with related optimization problems as [8, 10, 11, 14, 15,
27 16, 17, 18]. As a result, the multi-objective method does not provide a single
28 solution that simultaneously minimizes all objective functions. Instead, the
29 solution consists of several trade-off points in the feasible space known as the
30 Pareto front [19]. This paper also proposes an online decision tool that selects
31 the preferable point, according to some pre-specified requirements, without
32 the intervention of an expert. This idea of selecting the best solution needs
33 to be explored more profoundly in the microgrids framework, i.e. only a
34 few papers include the concept of decision maker in the study [10], while
35 others present an analysis of the metrics and normalization schemes to select
36 inflexion points of the Pareto front [5].

37 Finally, to conclude with the review of this topic, we highlight some works
38 where the storage system of the microgrid is coordinated through a cloud
39 platform, and the monitoring of the operation of the battery pack is carried
40 out in real-time [20, 21, 22].

41 The paper is organized into the following sections: in Section 2, the pro-
42 posed EMS is presented, both the MPC controller and the model are de-
43 scribed, and the particular optimization problem for our microgrid as well as
44 the decision tool are shown. Section 3 shows the case studies and verification
45 of the simulation results. Finally, section 4 presents the main conclusions
46 drawn from this work.

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2. Energy management system

As pointed out before, this work proposes an EMS with a unifying framework between multi-objective optimization and MPC. Figure 1 shows a representation of the implemented scheme. In the following, the important components of the designed scheme are deeply explained.

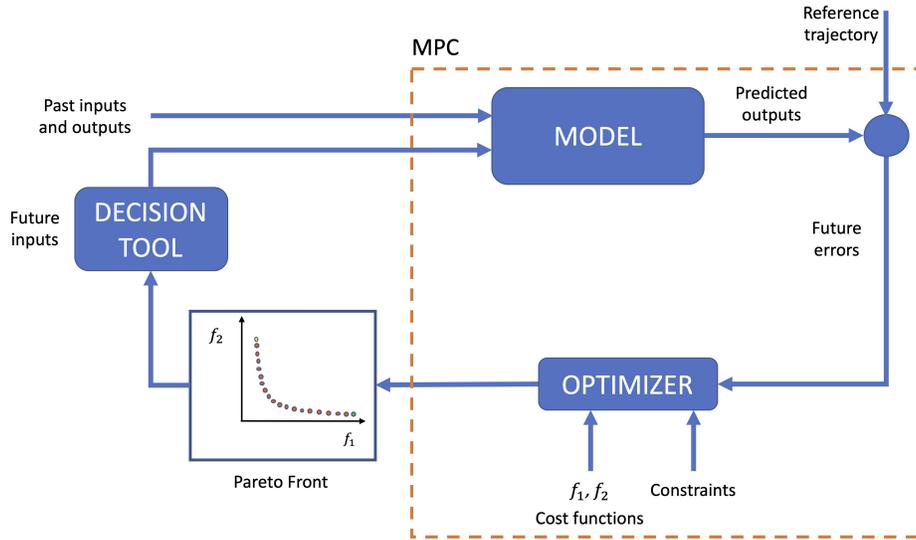


Figure 1: Implemented EMS scheme.

2.1. Model-based Predictive Control

Generally speaking, MPC is based on the iterative and finite-horizon optimization of a plant model. At time t , the current output $y(t + 1)$ of the plant is predicted using a model of the process, and a control strategy $u(t + 1)$ that optimizes the cost function is computed for a relatively short future time horizon, N_p . Specifically, an online or on-the-fly calculation is used to explore state trajectories arising from the current state and to find a cost-optimized control strategy up to the time $(t + N_c)$, where N_c is the control horizon. Only the first step of the control strategy is implemented. The state of the plant is sampled again, and all calculations are repeated based on the new current state, giving rise to further control and new predictions in the state path $v(t + 1)$. The prediction horizon is constantly updated forward and, for this reason, it is said that the MPC has the feature of receding control horizon [23] (see Figure 2).

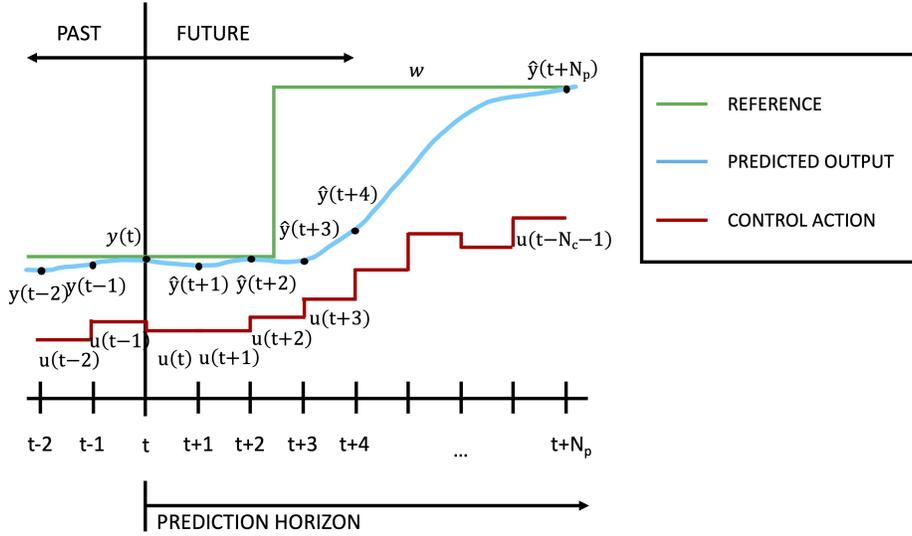


Figure 2: Representation of the receding control horizon in an MPC.

2.2. Model

The mathematical models used for the microgrid components in this work are briefly described in this section. The connection to the main grid is modelled as a Point of Common Coupling (PCC), which is electrically robust and is used for unlimited exchange of active and reactive power. The PCCs are modelled as generation sources that operate at voltage levels within limits given by the electrical system, as shown in Equation 1. Another essential element in the microgrid is the storage system; it is modelled as a system that consumes energy $P_{Bcj} < 0$ when it is charging and as a source that delivers energy to the microgrid $P_{Bdj} > 0$ when the system is discharging (see Equation 2); in addition, the State Of Charge (SOC) of the storage system can be approximated by Equation 3 for any instant t . The wind system is modelled as an uncontrolled source of active power that depends on the speed of the wind S_w , its density δ_w and the area covered by its blades A_w (see Equation 4). The model used for the photovoltaic system is widely known as model of one diode, Equation 5 describes the behaviour of the power generated by the PV as a function of the terminals current and voltage. The PV terminal voltage and current equations are described in detail in [24]. The diesel generator is modelled as a system that delivers minimum and maximum power at appropriate voltage levels. The load model represents

the constant power for the entire time interval T . Equation 6 describes it.

$$\{\underline{V}_j \leq V_j^{t_k} \leq \bar{V}_j; \underline{\theta}_j \leq \theta_j^{t_k} \leq \bar{\theta}_j\} \forall t_k \in T \quad (1)$$

$$P_{Bnj}^{t_k} = P_{Bcj}^{t_k} + P_{Bdj}^{t_k}; 0 \leq P_{Bdj}^{t_k}; P_{Bcj}^{t_k} \leq 0; \forall t_k \in T \quad (2)$$

$$SOC_{Bj}^{t_k} = SOC_{Bj}^{t_0} - \frac{\varepsilon_{cj} \Delta t}{E_{Bnomj}} \sum_{t=1}^{t_k} P_{Bcj}^t - \frac{\Delta t}{E_{Bnomj} \varepsilon_{dj}} \sum_{t=1}^{t_k} P_{Bdj}^t \quad (3)$$

$$P_{wj}^{t_k} = \delta_w A_w (S_w^{t_k})^3 / 2; \forall t_k \in T \quad (4)$$

$$P_{CDm}^{t_k} (V_{CDm}^{t_k}, I_{CDm}^{t_k}) = I_{CDm}^{t_k} V_{CDm}^{t_k}; \forall t_k \in T \quad (5)$$

$$S_{li}^{t_k} = P_{li}^{t_k} + jQ_{li}^{t_k} \forall t_k \in T \quad (6)$$

Symbols and acronyms are not described in this section, but the interested reader can find their meaning in table 1 for symbols and table 2 for acronyms.

2.3. Cost functions: the optimization problem

In this work, the following bi-objective optimization problem is considered:

$$\{\min f_1, \min f_2\} \quad (7)$$

The first cost function, f_1 , symbolizes the emissions produced by the fossil fuels used in the main grid for power generation. CO₂ equivalents are considered for traditional generators and diesel generation. The emissions caused by the photovoltaic system, wind turbine, and batteries are considered zero. Equation 8 expresses mathematically this objective function.

$$f_1 = \sum_{t_k=1}^{N_p} \sum_{j=1}^{N_b} \chi_j (P^{t_k}) \quad (8)$$

where N_b is the number of connecting nodes, χ_j represents the emission factor of each connecting node, P (including the main grid, the diesel generator, the solar system, the wind system, and the batteries) at time t_k . According

to the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), the emission factor values are the upper limits of CO₂ emissions [25].

The second cost function, f_2 , represents the cost of energy (see Equation 9). It is calculated based on the cost of the fuel spent to generate electricity using the distributed energy resources included in the microgrid, and the cost of maintenance. Renewable energy sources, such as solar and wind, are assumed to have a maintenance cost, but no fuel operating costs. Mathematically, it can be written as:

$$f_2 = \sum_{t_k=1}^{N_p} \sum_{j=1}^{N_b} a_j + b_j \left(P_{DGj}^{t_k} \right) + c_j \left(P_{MGj}^{t_k} \right)^2 \quad (9)$$

where the parameters a , b , and c are the generation cost coefficients in €/kW. Finally, P_{MG} and P_{DG} are the generation output power of the main grid and the power of the diesel generator, respectively, both in kW [26].

Our bi-objective problem has also several constraints that must be satisfied. Equation (10) represents the equality constraints, which indicates the microgrid's active and reactive power balance. More precisely, the first part of the equation (10) represents the active power balance, while the second part describes the microgrid's reactive power balance, and the third block of the photovoltaic system model [27].

$$\mathbf{h}^{t_k}(\mathbf{x}^{t_k}) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} P_{MGj}^{t_k} + P_{DGj}^{t_k} + \sum_{\forall j} P_{Bcj}^{t_k} + \sum_{\forall j} P_{Bdj}^{t_k} + \sum_{\forall j} P_{wj}^{t_k} + \\ \sum_{\forall j \in i} P_{CDj}^{t_k} - \sum_{\forall j \in i} P_{lj}^{t_k} - \sum_{\forall j \in i | j \in N_{Al}, N_T} P_{injj}^{t_k}(\mathbf{V}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = 0, \\ Q_{MGj}^{t_k} - \sum_{\forall j} Q_{lj}^{t_k} - \sum_{\forall j} Q_{injj}^{t_k}(\mathbf{V}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = 0 \\ j = 1, 2, \dots, N_{bAC}; = 1, 2, \dots, N_{bAC} \mid \forall j \notin N_{GEN} \\ \Delta I_{CDm}^{t_k} = I_{CDm}^{t_k} - f_{CD}(V_{CDm}^{t_k}, I_{CDm}^{t_k}) = 0, \\ \Delta P_{CDm}^{t_k} = P_{ACm}^{t_k}(\mathbf{V}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) - \Delta P_{CDm}^{t_k}(V_{CDm}^{t_k}, I_{CDm}^{t_k}) = 0 \\ \Delta V_{CDm}^{t_k} = V_{CDm}^{t_k} - \left(\frac{\pi}{16}\right) V_m^{t_k} = 0 \\ m = N_{bAC} + 1, \dots, N_{bAC} + N_{bCD} \end{array} \right\} \forall t_k \in T \quad (10)$$

Some inequality constraints have also been taken into consideration. Equation (11) represents the interval $[SOC_{Bj}^{min}, SOC_{Bj}^{max}]$, where the SOC of the batteries must be included [28]. Equation (12) represents the inequality constraints to a variable that indicates the maximum and minimum values of voltage, frequency, and power of the microgrid components.

$$\mathbf{z}^{t_k}(\mathbf{x}^{t_k}) = \{SOC_{B_j}^{\min} \leq SOC_{B_j}^{t_k} \leq SOC_{B_j}^{\max}\} \forall j \in N_B, \forall t_k \quad (11)$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \underline{\mathbf{y}}_{MG} \leq \mathbf{y}_{MG}^{t_k} \leq \bar{\mathbf{y}}_{MG} \\ \underline{\mathbf{y}}_{CD} \leq \mathbf{y}_{CD}^{t_k} \leq \bar{\mathbf{y}}_{CD} \\ \underline{\mathbf{y}}_B \leq \mathbf{y}_B^{t_k} \leq \bar{\mathbf{y}}_B \\ \underline{\mathbf{y}}_W \leq \mathbf{y}_W^{t_k} \leq \bar{\mathbf{y}}_W \\ \underline{\mathbf{y}}_{DG} \leq \mathbf{y}_{DG}^{t_k} \leq \bar{\mathbf{y}}_{DG} \end{array} \right\} \forall t_k \in T \quad (12)$$

Once the optimization problem is defined, both common multi-objective terminology and what it means to solve a multi-objective problem (MOP) are explained.

Definition 2.1. For two feasible vectors $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \in S$, we say that \mathbf{x} dominates \mathbf{x}' and $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$ dominates $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}')$ if and only if $f_i(\mathbf{x}) \leq f_i(\mathbf{x}')$ for all $i = 1, \dots, m$, and there exists one $j \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ such that $f_j(\mathbf{x}) < f_j(\mathbf{x}')$.

Definition 2.2. A decision vector $\mathbf{x} \in S$ is said to be efficient or a Pareto optimal solution if and only if there does not exist another feasible vector $\mathbf{x}' \in S$ dominating \mathbf{x} , i.e., none of the objective functions can be improved without worsening at least one of the others. The set S_E of all the Pareto optimal solutions is called the efficient set or the Pareto optimal set. The image of a Pareto optimal solution $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$ is called Pareto optimal objective vector and the set of all the Pareto optimal objective vectors $\mathbf{f}(S_E)$ is denominated Pareto optimal front.

Therefore, solving an MOP as formulated in Equation (7) means obtaining the whole non-dominated subset formed by all the efficient decision vectors, whose corresponding objective vectors represent the Pareto optimal front. Nevertheless, for most MOPs, obtaining an accurate description of the efficient set (or PF) is not possible because those sets are usually a continuum and include an infinite number of points. Furthermore, the computing cost may be high, which is an essential issue for hard-to-solve optimization problems, such as the one considered here.

This work proposes using heuristic multi-objective optimization algorithms (MOEAs), which obtain ‘good approximations’ of the PF in reasonable computing times. A suitable *PF approximation* (PFA) as a finite set of

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9 non-dominated objective vectors which cover the whole PF evenly (see Fig-
10 ure 1) is defined. Notice that the extreme points corresponds to the solutions
11 that minimize f_1 and f_2 .
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13 14 *2.4. Optimizer*

15 To solve the optimization problem previously defined, the multi-objective
16 genetic algorithm (GA) **gamultiobj** provided by the MatLab® toolbox has
17 been chosen [29].
18

19 Genetic algorithms search for the solution of a function by employing
20 procedures that mimic the natural evolution, that is, by using operations
21 such as crossover, mutation, and selection that are applied to individuals
22 (candidate solutions) in a population [30]. These mechanisms are executed
23 from an initial population until a termination criterion is satisfied [31].
24

25 Crossing over takes two individuals and produces two new ones, while
26 mutation alters one individual to create a single new solution. In this work,
27 a crossover heuristic that penalizes the crossover between candidate solutions
28 that are too similar is used; this encourages diversity in the population and
29 helps prevent premature convergence towards a less than optimal solution. In
30 addition, Adaptive Feasible Mutation is considered, this mutation strategy
31 randomly chooses an improvement direction and a step length, and moves a
32 candidate solution whenever the objective function value increases and the
33 constraints are satisfied [32].
34

35 The selection of individuals to produce successive generations plays a vital
36 role in a genetic algorithm. In this paper, the @selectiontournament tool has
37 been considered [33], which is a probabilistic method based on the fitness
38 of the individual, so that the best individuals have a higher probability of
39 being selected. In our implementation, an individual in the population cannot
40 be selected more than once, and all individuals in the population have the
41 possibility of being selected and be part of the next generation.
42

43 The initial population considered here is composed of 100 individuals
44 randomly created, which evolve during the optimization procedure until a
45 stopping criterion is satisfied, i.e. after 5000 generations are achieved.
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47 As a result of the multi-objective optimization algorithm, a PF approx-
48 imation is obtained. Then, there are available a set of points that are indi-
49 vidually satisfactory solutions.
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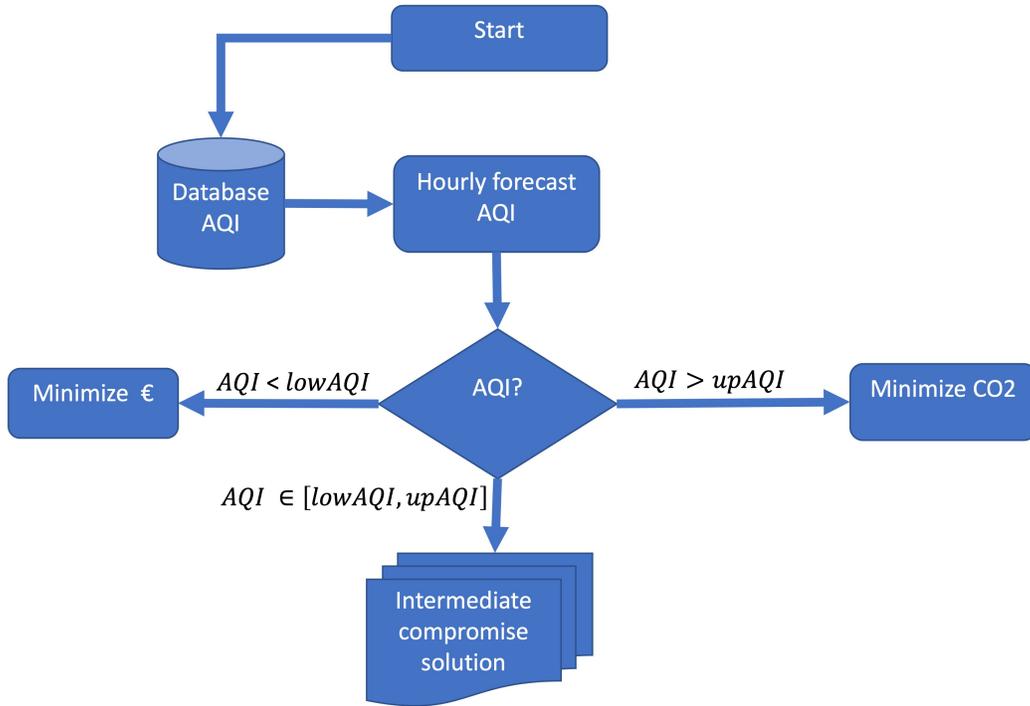


Figure 3: Decision tool flow chart.

2.5. Decision-tool

In this work, an online decision tool (DT) to select the preferable solution according to pre-specified criteria is proposed. See Figure 3 for a graphical representation. In particular, the designed decision scheme will choose, among the points that compose the PF, the one minimizing the CO₂ whether the Air Quality Index (AQI) is higher than a given threshold $upAQI$. Similarly, it will choose the solution minimizing the cost of energy if the AQI is lower than an established boundary $lowAQI$. Notice that those points are the extreme points of the PF, depicted in yellow and green colors in Figure ???. For those cases where the air quality stays in the interval $[lowAQI, upAQI]$, the decision tool will select a compromise solution to balance the costs and the emissions of CO₂. Specifically, it will select from the PF the solution that is proportionally away from the minimum distance between the current AQI and the $lowAQI$ and $upAQI$ boundaries.

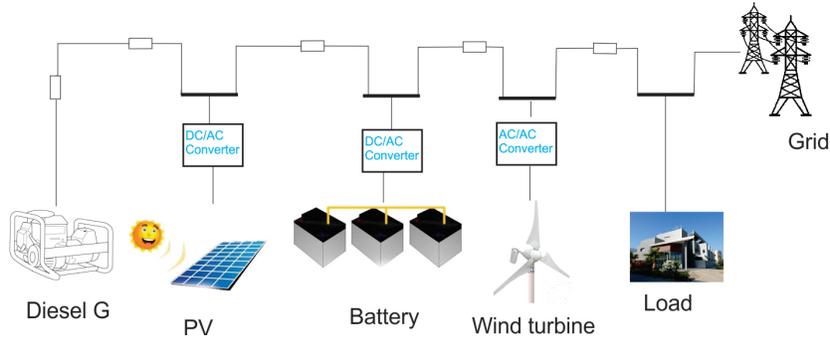


Figure 4: Scheme of the microgrid test.

3. Results and discussion

This section summarizes the simulation framework where the experiments have been carried out as well as the obtained results.

3.1. Testbed description for simulation

The microgrid considered as a testbed is located in the CIESOL bioclimatic building at the University of Almería (Spain). Broadly speaking, a bioclimatic building is a type of building design that takes into account the local climate to minimize the use of artificial heating and cooling systems. This is achieved by utilizing natural ventilation, thermal mass, and other passive design techniques to regulate the temperature and airflow within the building and, in this way, the thermal comfort of its users. A bioclimatic building can include renewable energy systems such as solar panels, wind turbines, and geothermal systems to generate electricity and provide heating and cooling. By integrating these systems with the building's design, a bioclimatic building can become energy-efficient, reduce its carbon footprint, and achieve energy self-sufficiency. In our particular case, the CIESOL's microgrid comprises a storage system (battery), a wind turbine, a diesel generator, a photovoltaic (PV) system connected to the main grid and some loads, see Figure 4. The power that those elements can produce or consume from the microgrid are (all in kW) 2, 1, 3, 2 and 6, respectively.

The data inputs for the microgrid simulation are shown in Figure 5. From top to bottom, it is possible to see: i) the solar radiation profile, ii) the wind speed profile for Almería and, iii) the load profile of a part of the bioclimatic laboratories of CIESOL. The solid blue line shows the current data, and the dashed red line shows the predictions made by the Double Exponential

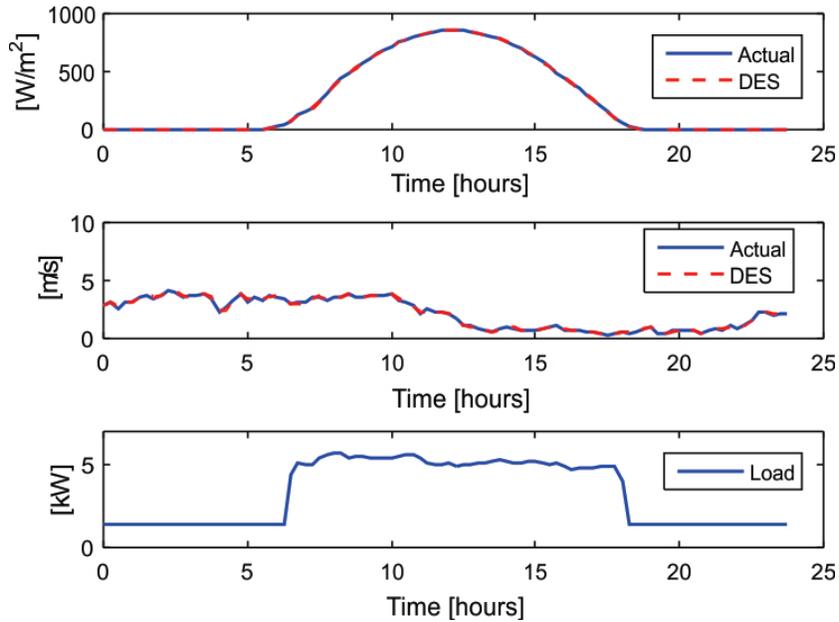


Figure 5: Forecasting curves for the testbed microgrid.

The hourly information of the air quality index is provided by the Ministry for the Ecological Transition and the Demographic Challenge of Spain (MITECO). In particular, the atmospheric measurements of the air quality index of the city of Almería are taken [35]. For the DT, an interval of $[lowAQI, upAQI] = [202, 278] \mu g/m^3$ has been considered.

To analyze the performance of the proposed EMS, two simulations have been carried out. In the first one, it is considered that there are not prediction errors, while in the second one an error is introduced in the forecasting variables.

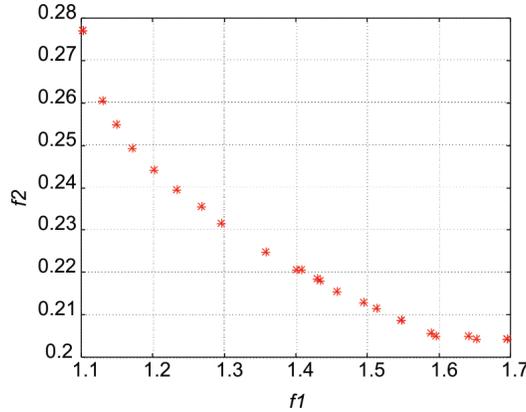


Figure 6: Pareto-front obtained by the multi-objective optimizer when no prediction errors are considered.

3.2. Simulation without error in predictions

In this case, several assumptions have been made. In particular, it is assumed that there is no error in the prediction of the forecast variables, see Figure 5. Zero energy cost and CO₂ emission coefficients are used for the PV system, wind system and battery; high cost and low CO₂ emission coefficients are considered for the energy coming from the main grid; low cost and high CO₂ emission coefficients are assigned for the diesel generator; and, finally, a sampling time for the MPC equal to 15 minutes and a prediction horizon of $N_p=10$ are set, which means that the optimization is performed with prediction variables predicted for the next 2:30 hours. Regarding the multi-objective optimization algorithm, it has been configured to provide at most 25 solutions in the PF.

Figure 6 shows a graphical representation of the PF obtained. According to the scheme shown in Figure 1, that PF will be the input of the decision tool, which will select the preferable solution according to the AQI index and the preferences summarized in subsection 2.5. In the following, we analyze the solution provided by the tool when different values of AQI are considered.

Let us consider the case where the $AQI \geq 278 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, which indicates that the city has high pollution rates. In this case, the decision tool selects the point that minimizes CO₂ emissions, i.e., the one with values equal to $(f_1, f_2) = (1.10, 0.278)$ and which corresponds to the extreme upper solution in the PF. The results of this simulation are depicted in Figure 7.

As can be seen, the main grid power is mainly used as primary, since it has a lower CO₂ emission coefficient than the diesel generator. It is worth mentioning that, each generation source contributes to supply the microgrid load, represented in the figure by the red solid line. As can be seen, from 00:00 to 8:00 hours, the demand is satisfied by the main grid generation, the wind turbine and the energy saved in the battery. In addition, the surplus from the wind turbine is sometimes used to charge the battery. In the period between 8:01 hours and 18:00 hours, demand is met by the main grid, the photovoltaic system, since these are the hours of highest solar irradiation, the battery and minimally by the diesel generator. In addition, the surplus generated by the PV system contributes to charging the battery. In fact, it mainly supplies the main grid and the battery in the following hours. In general, we can conclude that the solution provided is valuable and satisfies the requirements imposed.

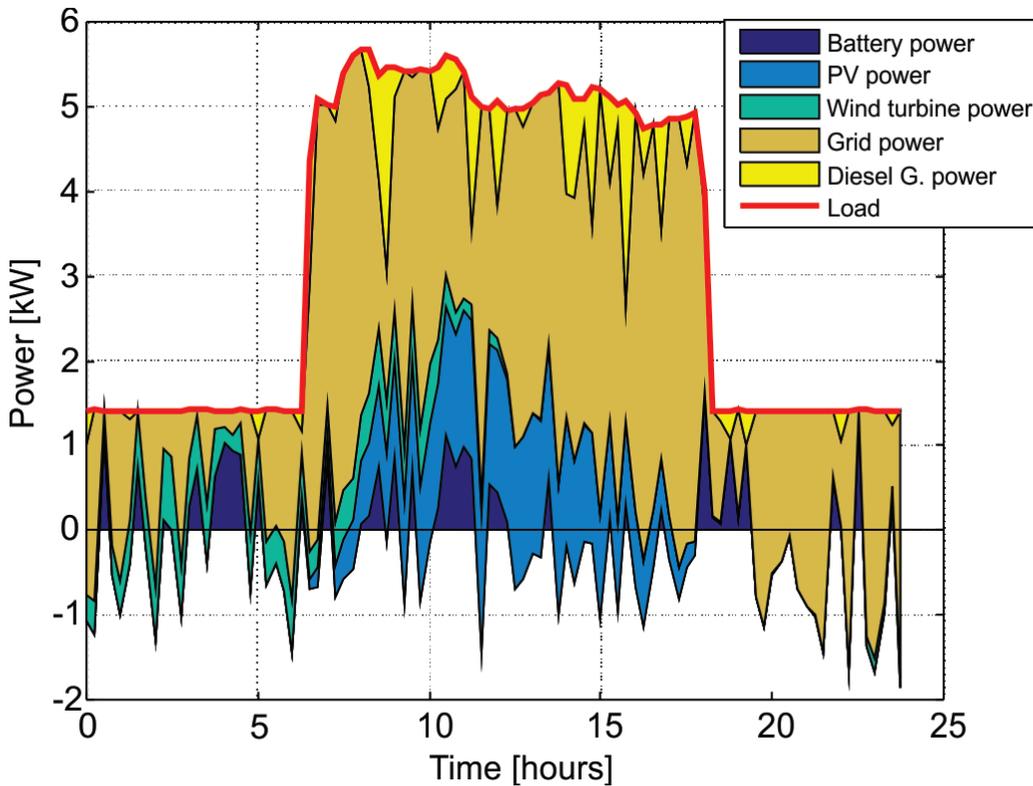


Figure 7: Simulation for the left upper solution of the PF.

Let us now analyze the opposite case, where the city has the lowest pollution rates and the $AQI \leq 202 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. Now, the decision tool selects the point in the lower right corner with values $(f_1, f_2) = (1.69, 0.202)$. A graphical representation of such a solution is given by Figure 8. In this case, the objective is to minimize the economic cost of the microgrid, which explains why the contribution of the diesel generator is greater than that considered in the previous case. Specifically, in the period from 00:00 to 8:00, it begins to contribute to the achievement of the demand.. In the stretch from 8:01 to 18:00 (hours of most significant consumption), the contribution of the diesel generator is the maximum to minimize energy costs in the microgrid. Finally, it should be noted that, at times of high energy production, the battery is charged from renewable sources such as the photovoltaic system and the wind turbine, since these are cheap and non-polluting energies.

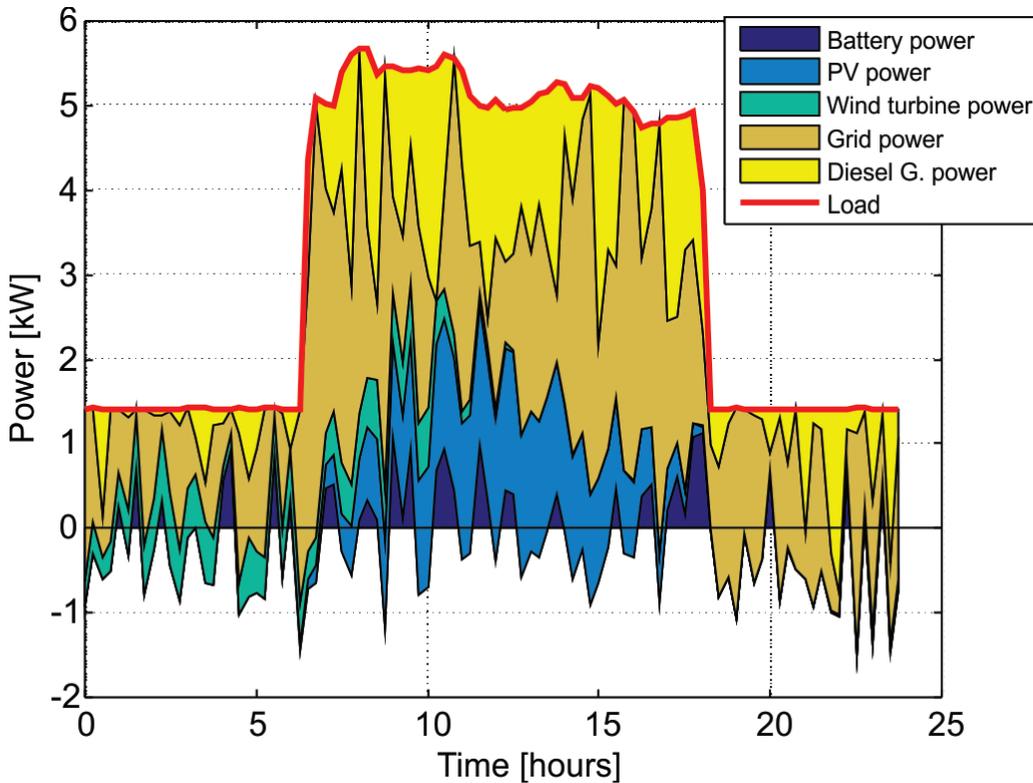


Figure 8: Simulation for the right lower solution of the PF.

Finally, Figure 9 shows the compromise solution chosen by the decision

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 9 tool for the case where pollution levels are intermediate in the city. It lies
 10 right in the middle of the PF $(f_1(x), f_2(x)) = (1.40, 0.222)$. This solution
 11 presents a compromise between minimizing energy cost and minimizing CO₂
 12 emissions. It is observed that from 8:00 hours to 18:00 hours, there is an
 13 increase in the energy contribution of the diesel generator trying to balance
 14 the total energy cost in the microgrid. The contribution of the diesel gener-
 15 ator is higher than in the first case (upper left corner of the PF where the
 16 minimization of CO₂ emissions has priority) but lower than in the second
 17 case (lower right corner of the PF where the economic cost has priority).
 18 Data on minimum and maximum pollution levels in Almeria city Council
 19 have been provided by the Spanish Ministry for the Ecological Transition
 20 and the Demographic Challenge (MITECO).
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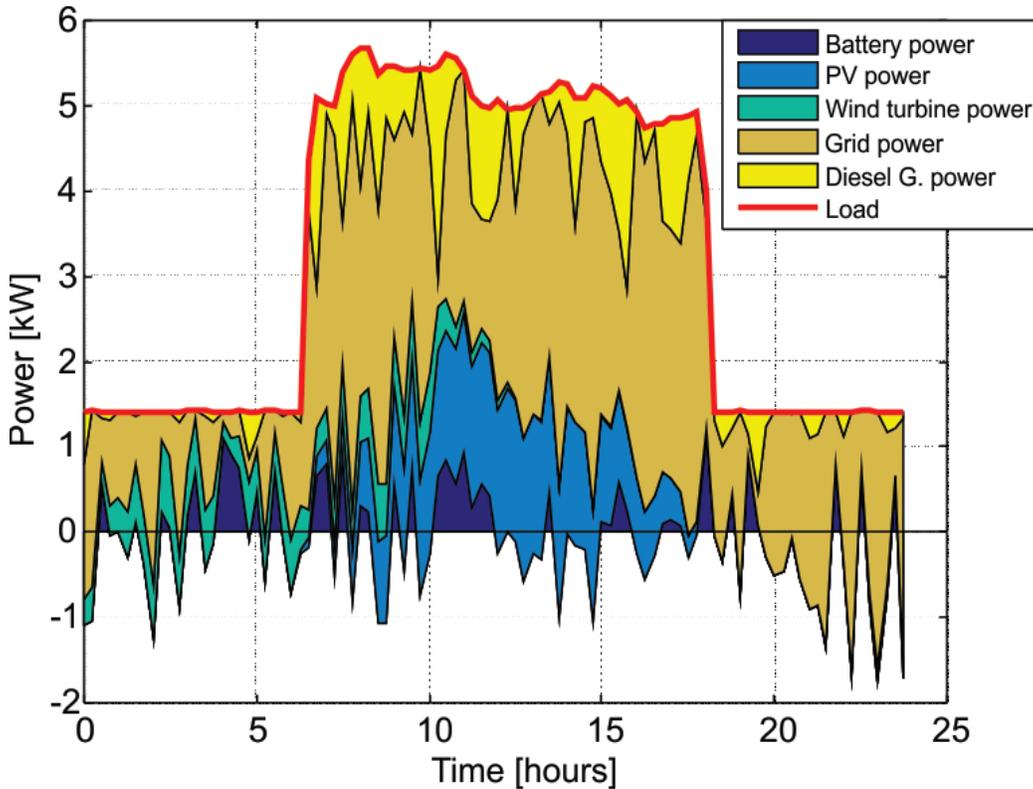


Figure 9: Simulation for a compromise solution in the middle of the PF.

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9 *3.3. Simulation with error in predictions*

10 The receding horizon makes the MPC more robust to uncertainties. This
11 is because at each sample time the values of the forecasting variables are
12 updated with new information and the optimization is re-run through the
13 control horizon. However, in other EMS, the optimization is performed only
14 once at the beginning of the simulation, so these uncertainties may be larger.
15

16 Then, to evaluate the robustness of the MPC, an error has been added
17 to the prediction of the forecast variables, i.e. solar radiation and wind
18 speed. Specifically, an error of 12% lower than the actual value of the variable
19 has been considered, as is possible to see in Figure 10. This figure gives a
20 graphical representation of the error profile. Notice that this error is time-
21 weighted, i.e., at the beginning of the simulation, time t , the future error for
22 the next sampling time $t+1$ is almost negligible, but as the time horizon of
23 the predictions increases, this error increases significantly. Therefore, as the
24 information of the prediction variables is updated at each sampling time, this
25 error will always be bounded.
26

27 Figure 11 shows the new PF obtained for the case in which the 12% error
28 is introduced. As can be seen, there are negligible variations in the PF with
29 respect to the case in which there is no error.
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31 The same three scenarios considered in subsection 3.2 have now been
32 analyzed. More specifically: (i) the solution chosen by the decision tool
33 when the city has the highest pollution rates and the main priority is to
34 reduce CO₂ emission, i.e., the point located in the upper left corner of the
35 PF $(f_1(x), f_2(x)) = (1.187, 0.283)$; ii) the solution chosen when the city has
36 the lowest pollution rates and the priority is to reduce the economic cost, i.e.,
37 the point in the lower right corner of the PF $(f_1(x), f_2(x)) = (1.78, 0.210)$,
38 and; iii) a compromise solution between minimizing energy cost and CO₂
39 emissions, i.e., the midpoint of the PF $(f_1(x), f_2(x)) = (1.486, 0.227)$. The
40 simulation results for these three cases are shown in the top image, the middle
41 image, and the bottom image of Figure 12, respectively.
42

43 All simulations have almost the same results as those shown when there is
44 no error in the forecast variables (see Figures 7-9). In fact, the differences are
45 not significant at first glance. These results demonstrate the robustness of the
46 proposed MPC to the uncertainties, which is an advantage over optimizing
47 only once at the beginning of the simulation, since its efficiency could be
48 more affected by the errors of the forecast variables.
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50 Finally, taking into account the efficiency of the proposed approach, it is
51 worth mentioning that in our experiments, the computation time employed
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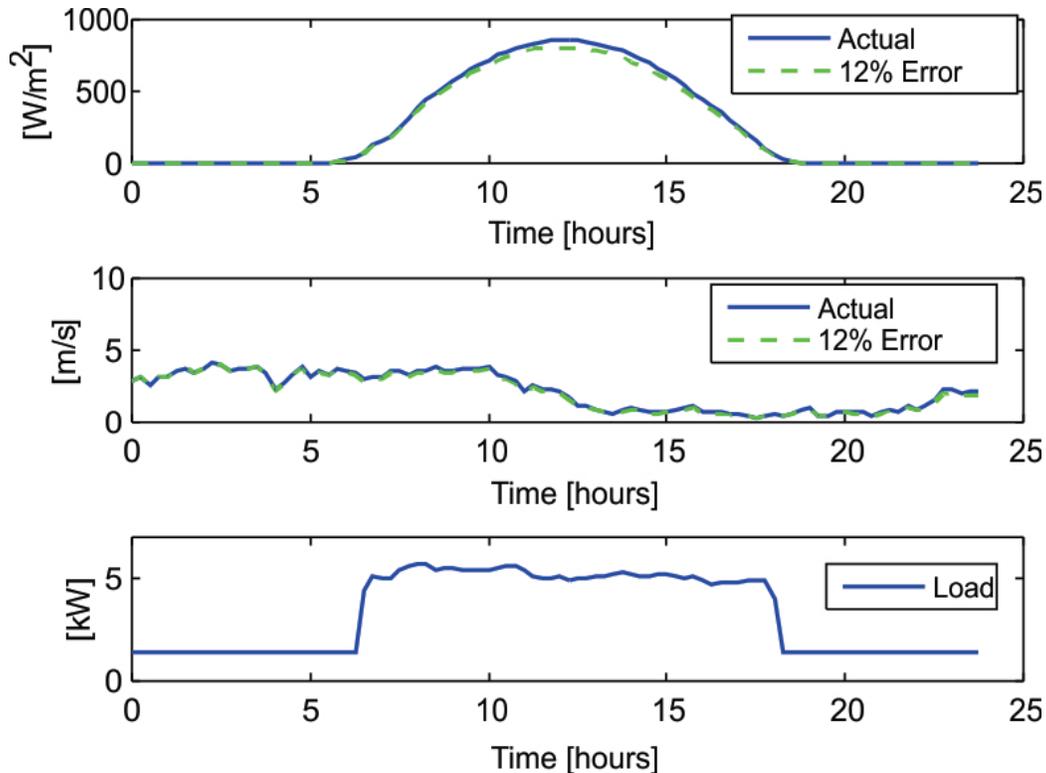


Figure 10: Forecast curves with a twelve per cent error.

by both the multi-objective algorithm and the decision tool to finally select the preferred solution was 1709 seconds. The contribution of the decision tool to this time is practically negligible, which means that the optimization algorithm consumes most of this time.

To illustrate the efficiency of the proposed approach, a small computational experiment has been carried out consisting of replacing the multi-objective algorithm by a single-objective one and then running two experiments in which the functions $f_1(x)$ and $f_2(x)$ are independently minimized. For this purpose, we considered the genetic algorithm (GA) included in the Matlab Global Optimization Toolbox configured to consume the same number of function evaluations as the multi-objective method. Thus, the comparison is fair since both algorithms have the same budget to reach the optima.

Table 3 summarizes the values of the objective functions obtained and the computation time consumed by the GA. In addition, for comparison, we have evaluated the solution obtained when $f_1(x)$ is minimized, with the func-

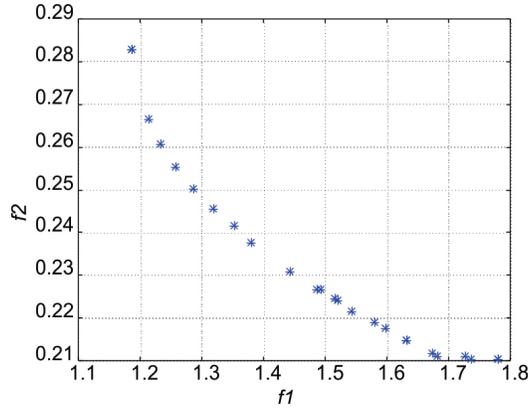


Figure 11: Pareto-front obtained by the multi-objective optimizer when prediction errors are considered.

tion $f_2(x)$, and vice versa. This calculation is highlighted in the table with a "*", warning that this results from evaluating the optimal solution found with the other objective function. In addition, for the reader's convenience, we have also included the results of the multi-objective algorithm. Specifically, we have included the total time consumed and the objective function values associated with the Pareto front endpoints. Notice that those two solutions correspond to the solutions that minimize $f_1(x)$ and $f_2(x)$, respectively. Hence, they are comparable in terms of effectiveness with the ones obtained by the GA. As can be seen, solutions of similar quality are obtained for the single-objective and multi-objective algorithms, meaning that both are comparable in terms of effectiveness.

From an efficiency point of view, the multi-objective algorithm used 1709 seconds to obtain 25 different compromised solutions in a single run, including those obtained by the single-objective problems. In contrast, with a single-objective methodology, every time the problem conditions change, another optimization problem needs to be solved. Then, the single-objective algorithm required 2511 seconds and two independent runs to obtain only two solutions, demonstrating that the multi-objective approach outperforms the single-objective approach in terms of computational complexity.

4. Conclusions

The transition in the electricity markets between the traditional electricity generation model and a new model in which electricity will be generated

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9 in a distributed manner through microgrids, will only be possible with the
10 development of efficient energy management systems.

11 This work takes a step in that direction and presents an EMS capable
12 of satisfying the energy demand while considering requirements regarding
13 allowable CO₂ emissions and energy cost. More specifically, the EMS can
14 adapt to frequently changing operating conditions and automatically con-
15 sider a solution that minimizes CO₂ emissions, energy costs or a compromise
16 solution between the two. To do so, the EMS includes three components: an
17 MPC that makes the EMS more robust to uncertainties; a multi-objective
18 algorithm that allows optimizing more than one objective simultaneously and
19 proposes several candidate solutions; and a decision tool that selects the most
20 appropriate solution for the current scenario.

21 To illustrate how MPC helps to increase the robustness and performance
22 of the proposed EMS, we conducted a study in which no prediction errors
23 were considered and another in which the prediction failed. The results
24 showed that thanks to the decreasing horizon feature, the MPC could correct
25 the erroneous predictions and provide a solution of equal quality to the one
26 obtained when the prediction was correct.

27 Moreover, to show the benefits of using both the multi-objective opti-
28 mization and the decision tool, several solutions from the PF were analyzed.
29 The experiments showed that different candidate solutions could be obtained
30 in a single optimization run. The decision tool was responsible for selecting
31 the most suitable one based on the implemented preferences.

32 Therefore, it can be concluded that the proposed EMS is a promising tool
33 for managing the energy flows in the microgrid.

34 In the future, we plan to extend the problem to more than two objectives
35 and test other multi-objective techniques, such as those based on preferences.

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Declaration of Interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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