

Dynamic Charging on the Go: Optimizing Mobile Charging Stations for Electric Vehicle Infrastructure

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Abstract: With the growing adoption of electric vehicles (EVs) as an eco-friendly and sustainable means of transportation, availability of adequate EV charging infrastructure has become very important. While fixed charging stations are the primary means for public charging, they can be effectively augmented by mobile charging stations. In this paper, we address the problem of planning and operating a mobile charging station fleet by an operator. We propose an algorithm for the operator to use for route planning of the MCSs and for scheduling charging requests of EVs to them to try to maximize the number of charging requests served. Detailed simulation results are presented in different realistic scenarios to show that the proposed algorithm works well.

1 INTRODUCTION

Electric vehicles (EVs) are being increasingly seen as the future of transportation towards a more sustainable future, with the global EV market growing at a fast rate. EVs are primarily charged at home using slow charging options, or at fixed charging stations (FCSs) installed at designated locations offering fast charging options. As the adoption of EVs grows, the availability and accessibility of adequate charging points will become pivotal factors in the widespread acceptance of EVs. However, fixed charging stations are anchored to specific locations, which presents a number of challenges, such as lack of universal accessibility, space availability, high setup cost etc.

Mobile charging stations (MCSs) have been proposed as a versatile and innovative solution to these challenges. MCSs can be built using conventional vehicles carrying batteries for charging, with plug-in charging capabilities for EVs to charge. They can park anywhere with enough space to charge EVs, and can bring charging facilities directly to the EV user, regardless of their locations, thereby providing easy access to EV charging. MCSs can be swiftly deployed to areas experiencing high demand or in areas where the charging infrastructure is inadequate or overloaded. They can also be used to provide emergency charging services to stalled vehicles with little or no charge left.

In this paper, we consider an MCS operator with a fleet of MCSs, and address the problem of dispatch-

ing the MCSs to different locations in a city to serve EV charging requests. Specifically, we first formulate the problem of planning the placement of MCSs at different locations in a city and scheduling EVs to a suitable MCS for charging. We then propose an algorithm called GoMCS for the problem that attempts to maximize the number of requests served while trying to optimize average distance travelled by MCSs and average waiting times of EVs. Detailed simulation results are presented to show that the proposed algorithm performs well compared to an existing algorithm.

2 RELATED WORK

The existing literature in the area of mobile EV charging can be broadly classified into two parts, design of MCS infrastructure, and dispatch and operation of MCSs (the focus of this work). Several existing works have looked at different aspects of MCS dispatch and operation such as path planning, deciding priority of EVs to be charged, deciding charging locations and times etc., to optimize various objectives such as serving the most number of customers, minimizing wait time for customers, maximizing profit for MCS operators etc. (Atmaja and Mirdanies, 2015; Cui et al., 2018; Tang et al., 2020; Raboaca et al., 2020; Moghaddam et al., 2021; Jeon and Choi, 2021; Kong, 2019; El-Fedany et al., 2021; Zhang et al.,

2020; Liu et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2018). The algorithms differ in assumptions made and target parameters chosen.

Among the works mentioned above, only (Liu et al., 2018) and (Tang et al., 2020) address online route planning and operation of MCSs. The work in (Liu et al., 2018) focus on using demand and distance based routing algorithms for MCSs, but does not propose any mechanism for finding the optimal MCS for a particular request. The work in (Tang et al., 2020) formulates the problem as a mixed integer linear programming problem which is not scalable to a large number of requests and MCSs. We aim to build efficient heuristic algorithms which perform both route planning of MCSs and scheduling of charging requests in an online manner at scale.

3 PROBLEM SPECIFICATION

We consider EVs moving in a city, with an MCS operator providing mobile charging service to the EVs. MCSs are charging stations with limited charge capacity (from batteries carried on vehicles) that move within the city. Their states are always known to the MCS operator, including remaining charge, location, and availability. While the capacity of an MCS to charge EVs depends on the capacity of batteries it carries, the MCS itself is assumed to be gas-powered; hence, it is assumed to have no range limitation for its own movement. An MCS can only charge EVs at one or more of a set of predefined fixed charging locations. We assume that at a time, only one MCS can be parked at one of these locations. The charging service is provided for a fixed duration in a day, broken up into T time instants. At the start of a day, all MCSs are fully charged and stationed at their home depot. MCSs travel to different locations to charge EVs as directed by the MCS operator. If an MCS runs out of charge, it goes to its closest depot to get charged, and then services requests again.

Each EV move from a source to a destination location. If the remaining charge is deemed to be insufficient, EVs make charging requests with details of their requirements to the MCS operator's central control system. The central system sends a response to the request immediately accepting or rejecting it. If the system accepts a request, it is always served.

The road network in the city is modeled as a directed graph $G = (\mathcal{N}, \mathcal{E})$, where \mathcal{N} denotes the set of nodes, and \mathcal{E} denotes the set of roads. The nodes can be vehicle locations, charging stations, depot locations, charging locations, or source/destination locations.

The set of electric vehicles is denoted as \mathcal{V} . A vehicle $v \in \mathcal{V}$ is represented by the tuple $\langle cap_v, soc_v^t, loc_v^t, s_v, d_v, c_v \rangle$, where cap_v is the battery capacity (kWh) of v , soc_v^t is the state of charge (SoC) of v at time t (charge remaining as a percentage of total charge), loc_v^t is the location of v at time t , s_v is the average speed of the vehicle, d_v is the discharging rate (battery discharged per unit distance), and c_v is the charging rate (battery charged per unit time).

Let \mathcal{M} be the set of all MCSs. An MCS $m \in \mathcal{M}$ at a particular time t , is represented by the tuple $\langle dep_m, cap_m, soc_m^t, loc_m^t, s_m, out_m, c_m, cout_m, req_list_m^t, path_m^t \rangle$, where dep_m is the home depot of m , cap_m is the effective battery capacity (kWh) of m (to charge EVs), soc_m^t is the state of charge (SoC) of m , loc_m^t is the location of m at time t , s_m is the average speed of m , out_m is the number of outlets/ports in m which can be used for charging, c_m is the rate at which m can get charged, $cout_m$ is the rate at which m can charge a vehicle (in kWh per unit time), $path_m^t$ is the future path planned for m at time t (a sequence of tuples, each with a location, starting time and ending time denoting the duration the MCS will stay in that location), and $req_list_m^t$ is the requests scheduled at the MCS at time t . The requests are stored as an array of 2-tuples, containing the starting time at which the vehicle is scheduled to start, and the time at which the charging will end.

Let \mathcal{R} be the set of all charging requests. A request $r \in \mathcal{R}$ is represented by the tuple $\langle time_r, v_r, curr_soc_r, des_soc_r, req_loc_r, des_loc_r, dev_r, wait_r \rangle$, where $time_r$ is the time at which the request is made, v_r is the EV which has made the request, $curr_soc_r$ is the current SoC of the EV requesting charge, des_soc_r is the desired SoC of the EV requesting charge, req_loc_r is the current location of the EV when the request is made, des_loc_r is the destination location of the EV, dev_r is the maximum extra distance the EV is willing to travel for charging, and $wait_r$ is the maximum time the vehicle can wait at the charging location. Let \mathcal{L} ($\mathcal{L} \subset \mathcal{N}$) be the set of all charging locations. MCSs can charge EVs only at one of these locations.

The output of any algorithm for the MCS allocation problem is a $|\mathcal{M}| \times |\mathcal{V}| \times |\mathcal{L}| \times T$ matrix \mathcal{S} , where $\mathcal{S}[m, v, l, t] = 1$ if and only if MCS m is charging the EV v placed at charging location l at time t , 0 otherwise. The problem is to compute a schedule for placing the set of MCSs at the set of locations for charging the vehicles in the set \mathcal{V} such that the number of vehicles charged is maximized. Formally, the goal is to maximize

$$\sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} \sum_{v \in \mathcal{V}} \sum_{l \in \mathcal{L}} \sum_{t \in T}$$

$$(S[m, v, l, t] = 0 \cap S[m, v, l, t + 1] = 1)$$

subject to the following constraints:

1. An EV can be in at most one location at one time being charged by at most one MCS.
2. An MCS can be in at most one location at a point of time.
3. For each MCS, the total charge provided to all EVs is less than or equal to its capacity.
4. At a time each MCS can charge at most as many EVs as the number of ports it has.
5. At most one MCS can be located at a charging location at a time.
6. If an MCS starts charging an EV, it charges the EV fully (upto its desired final SoC) without interruption.
7. An MCS must have enough time to move between two charging locations if it is charging EVs at both locations at different times.
8. An EV must have enough charge left to reach its assigned charging location.
9. The extra distance travelled by the EV must be less than the maximum extra distance allowed in the request.
10. The maximum time spent at the charging location must be less than the maximum waiting time allowed in the request.

4 GoMCS ALGORITHM

In this section, we present a heuristic algorithm, GoMCS, for maximizing the number of charging requests served. The algorithm is divided into two parts, planning the routes of the MCSs and scheduling the charging requests made by EVs to MCSs. The algorithms for both these parts are described next.

4.1 Route Planning of MCS

For this part, we assume that the estimated demands at future points in time at various locations are available. We briefly discuss later two heuristic implementations for computing this estimate. We note that this heuristic can be replaced by any other estimate of future demand using past data, the route planning algorithm just assumes that such an estimate is available.

At the start of each day, an MCS starts at its home depot, and then, for the whole day, follows a path planned at the start of the day itself. This path is followed till the day ends or till the MCS runs out

of charge to give. The algorithm presented next for route planning of one MCS is repeated for all MCS independently, i.e., without any consideration of other MCSs whose paths may have already been planned.

While planning the path of an MCS, it is ensured that when an MCS reaches a charging location, it stays there for a fixed amount of time Δ . After this, it can move to another location or plan to stay for another Δ time at that same location. The MCS may move to a nearby location if the demand at the current location is low and the estimated future demand at the nearby location indicates it may have unmet demand. Thus, a mechanism is needed that quantifies demand in an area and how much of it can be met by nearby MCSs. The route planning algorithm assumes the existence of a function $\text{GETDEMAND}(l, t_1, t_2)$ that can give the demand at a location l at a future time duration from t_1 to t_2 . Possible implementations of the function for both offline and online cases is discussed later in the section.

The path is planned one Δ interval at a time. Suppose the path of the MCS is already planned till a particular time. To find the next location (for the next Δ interval), the demand for the next Δ interval at all locations, including the current location, is calculated using the GETDEMAND function. The location which has the highest unmet demand, will be picked as the location for the next Δ amount of time, and inserted in the future path list of the MCS. The MCS actually stays at the next location for a time less than Δ , as the MCS will take a time equal to the travel time from the current location to the next location to reach it. This process continues in an iterative manner for each Δ interval till the path has been planned for the whole day.

While computing the demand for the next Δ interval at a location l , the travel time from the current location to l is actually subtracted from Δ . Thus, the time for which the demand is calculated is actually less than Δ , and this duration decreases further with increasing distance from the current location as the travel time increases, causing the demand computed to be lower also. This in turn reduces the chance that an MCS will be sent to a location that is far away from its current location, reducing its travel time.

A sketch of two implementations of the GETDEMAND function are briefly discussed next; the full details are omitted due to lack of space. The first is an offline one that assumes that all future requests are known a-priori. A request is considered to be eligible for computing demand at a location l for a given interval of time τ if (i) the request originates within τ , (ii) the EV can reach l with its remaining SoC, and (iii) l satisfies the maximum extra travel distance constraint.

If this request can be served by more than one MCS nearby, its contribution to the total demand is taken to be inversely proportional to the number of MCSs that can service this request. The function returns the total demand over all eligible requests for l for the duration τ .

The second implementation assumes that the charging request patterns for the recent past duration is available. The core idea of this heuristic is derived from (Liu et al., 2018), which is modified to match our system model. For each location l , we first count the number of requests in each day in the Δ duration under consideration that could be served at l without violating the distance constraint, and an exponential moving average of this data is taken as the estimate of the demand d_l at l for that duration. It is assumed following (Liu et al., 2018) that the demand at a location i can shift to a nearby location j with a probability given by $P(i, j) = \frac{e^{dist(i, j)}}{\sum_{l \in \mathcal{L}} e^{dist(i, l)}}$. Given the above, the demand at any location l is now updated by adding $d_{loc} \times P(loc, l)$ to d_l for every other location loc . Finally, as this demand at l can be serviced by multiple MCS in the vicinity, the demand is divided by the sum of a weight for every MCS to get the final estimate of the demand at l for the duration under consideration. The weight for an MCS captures the potential of the MCS to service the requests, and is given by the ratio of the overlap time of the MCS with the duration under consideration if the MCS is moved to l from its current location, and the current distance of the MCS from l . The intuition is that an MCS that is far away from l has less chance of servicing the demand at l .

When the SoC (of the battery for charging the EVs) of an MCS falls below a threshold, the MCS visits the depot nearest to its current location. After it recharges fully, its original planned path is discarded, and a new route is planned for it to service requests for the rest of the day again using the same algorithm described above.

We will refer to the algorithm using the offline demand estimation as *GoMCS-Offline* and the one using the online demand estimate simply as *GoMCS* in the rest of this paper.

4.2 Scheduling EV Requests

The output of the route planning algorithm is the route followed and location of every MCS at each time instant. With this information, the charging requests made by EVs are considered in increasing order of request time. To schedule a request, an appropriate MCS and its location is found first and then a charging slot is assigned to the EV at that MCS in that location.

Each MCS is first checked to see if it is eligible for

servicing the request. An MCS is eligible to charge an EV at a location, at a particular charging slot within the time duration it is scheduled to be at that location, if and only if (i) the EV can reach the location of the MCS with its remaining SoC without violating the maximum extra distance travel constraint, (ii) there is enough charge left in the MCS to service the EV request (considering all already accepted EV requests), (iii) the allocated slot will not violate the maximum waiting time constraint of the EV, and (iv) the EV can finish charging within the duration of stay of the MCS at that location. Travel times, current SoC, SoC after reaching the location, and the required charging time of the EV can be easily computed for performing this eligibility check.

Among these eligible MCSs, the ones with lower loads are considered to be better as they will have less waiting time. For calculating load, the sum of two load indicators is taken, the current load and the estimated future load. The current load is given simply by the number of requests already scheduled at the MCS at that location. For future load, the GETDEMAND function defined earlier is used. The future load is estimated in the interval between the time of the request and the time at which the charging of the EV will be completed if the MCS being evaluated is chosen. The MCS and its location that gives the lowest sum is chosen as the MCS and location for the EV to charge. Note that given the eligibility criteria for MCS described above, the EV is guaranteed to be able to complete its charging at that location, though the waiting time may vary.

Once the MCS and its location are chosen, a charging slot is assigned to the EV for charging. As EVs can take different amounts of time to reach the location, if the slots are allocated in *First Come, First Serve* order, then a request that originates later but closer to the location might start charging earlier than the original request. This can be a problem as the starting time of charging of a request must be known for sure before responding to the request. The problem of assigning charging slots can be modelled as an overlapping intervals problem. At any point of time, the requests scheduled at an MCS can be modelled as time intervals, and the number of overlapping intervals can never be more than the number of ports on the MCS. So, to schedule a request, we need to find the earliest time after the vehicle reaches the MCS, at which at least one port is available for a certain period of time. This is a well-known algorithmic problem to solve and is not further elaborated here.

5 SIMULATION RESULTS

The proposed algorithm is evaluated using detailed simulations under different scenarios. The charging request data used is sourced from a Kaggle Competition on EV Charging Station Usage of Palo Alto, California, USA (Kaggle, 2023). The distance between any two points is obtained by using OSRM (OSRM, 2024). The parameters used for the simulation are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Parameter Values for Simulation.

Parameter	Value
Number of charging locations	200
Number of depots	5
Speed of movement of EVs	45 km/h
Speed of movement of MCSs	30 km/h
Mileage of the EVs	5 km/kWh
Charging rate of EVs	6 kW
Charging rate of MCS	45 kW
Battery capacity of the MCS	90kWh
Number of ports on the MCS	4
The length of the interval Δ	2 hrs
Active time in a day	18 hrs
Number of requests	2000, 4000
Number of MCS	20, 40

The depots and the charging locations are randomly chosen from the 200 candidate locations. It is ensured that the distance between any two depots or charging locations is more than a threshold value, which is defined based on the number of depots and charging locations.

The request times of the charging requests are distributed throughout the day in the dataset. The location of the EV and its destination are randomly sampled from the candidate locations while making sure the distance between them is at least 5 km. The rest of the parameters are uniformly generated in the ranges mentioned in Table 2. The spatial distribution of the requests is varied in three different scenarios:

- *Scenario 1: Random Charging Requests*
- *Scenario 2: Urban Commute Charging Requests*
- *Scenario 3: Repetitive Random Charging Requests*

More details on how these patterns are generated are discussed in the relevant subsections later.

Table 2: Range for request parameters.

Parameter	Range
Current SoC	$[0.5 - 0.8] * req_charge_r$
Desired SoC	$[(1 - 2)] * req_charge_r$
Max Extra Distance	$[2\text{ km}, 0.5 * dist_r]$
Max Waiting Time	$[0.2 - 0.3] * charge_time_r$

where $dist_r$ is the distance and req_charge_r is the

charge required for the EV in request r to reach its destination, and $charge_time_r$ is its charging time to the desired SoC.

To evaluate the performance of the algorithms, the following metrics are used: percentage of total requests served, average waiting time of the EVs, and the variation in the number of requests served by different MCSs. The results show the comparison between three algorithms: (i) GoMCS, (ii) GoMCS-Offline and (iii) the algorithm proposed in (Liu et al., 2018) which is referred to as GSDD. Each result reported is the average of 10 runs.

5.1 Scenario 1: Random Charging Requests

This scenario considers charging requests from EVs occurring at random locations with random destinations without any pattern or correlation between the requests.

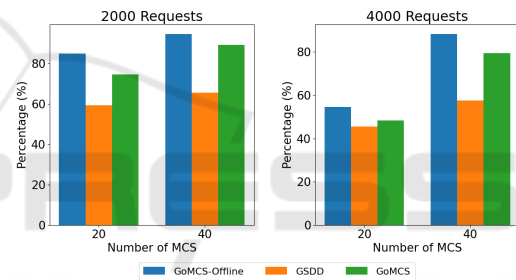


Figure 1: Percentage of requests served.

Fig. 1 shows the percentage of requests served for varying number of MCSs and requests. It is seen that as we increase the number of MCSs, the percentage of served requests always increases as expected. Note that irrespective of the number of MCSs, there may always be some requests where either the remaining charge is too low or the constraints are too strict for the EV to reach any of the MCSs. It is seen that GoMCS performs much better than GSDD and worse than GoMCS-Offline. The increase for GoMCS is also lower when MCSs are increased in the case of 2000 requests because each incremental MCS serves fewer requests compared to the previous one, as fewer total requests remain to be served.

Fig. 2 shows the average waiting time of an EV for varying number of MCSs and requests. It can be seen that as the number of MCSs increases, the waiting time decreases as the requests served per MCS decreases, causing lower queuing delay. When the number of requests is low, MCS ports are mostly empty, so the wait time is mainly because of the MCS arriving at a location after the EV. As requests increase,

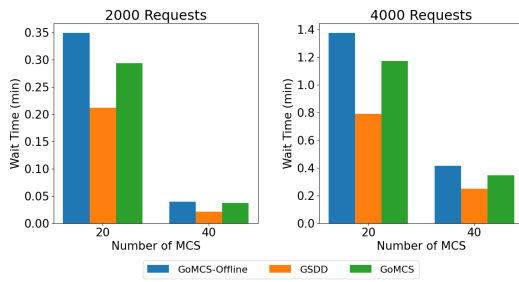


Figure 2: Average Waiting Time of EVs.

the EVs have to wait for free ports to start charging, which increases the wait time; however this is again reduced as the number of MCSs increase as expected.

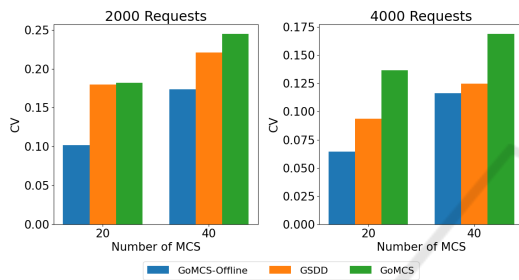


Figure 3: Coefficient of Variance of Requests Served.

Fig. 3 shows the coefficient of variance (CV) of requests served per MCS with varying number of MCSs and requests. It is seen that the CV value decreases with the number of requests and increases with the number of MCS. This happens because when there are multiple MCSs and fewer requests in the same area, some MCSs may remain idle, leading to a higher CV. GoMCS-Offline has the least variation, which is expected as with exact knowledge of future requests, it can distribute the requests to MCSs more evenly.

5.2 Scenario 2: Urban Commute Charging Requests

In this scenario, charging requests are simulated from EVs traveling in a pattern similar to commuter patterns in a metropolitan city. In the first half of the day, people move from the suburbs (outskirts) to the central part of the city for jobs, business etc., and the opposite happens in the second half of the day. While generating the dataset, the probability of picking up a location as the starting or ending point is adjusted according to its distance from the city center. In the first half, the starting point of a request is chosen with a probability that is directly proportional to its distance from the city center. Similarly, while picking

the destination, it is taken as inversely proportional to the distance from the city center. This dataset tries to represent the charging needs across a typical big city, where the deployment of MCSs makes the most sense.

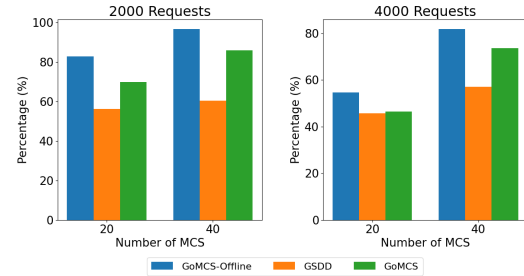


Figure 4: Percentage of requests served.

Fig. 4 shows the percentage of requests served for varying number of MCSs and requests. It is seen that as we increase the number of MCSs, the percentage of requests served always increases as expected. The GoMCS algorithm performs much better than GSDD in this case also. One change to note is that across most cases, the percentage of served requests decreases from Scenario 1. This is because the MCSs are not distributed according to the traffic patterns, causing variation in use of MCSs.

Fig. 5 shows the average waiting time of an EV for varying number of MCSs and requests. The trends are similar to that in Scenario 1, for similar reasons. The waiting time for all cases increases compared to Scenario 1 as if the traffic is congested in a specific area and a limited number of MCSs are in that area, then the EVs will need to wait for a longer time. The trends for the coefficient of variation are also similar and is not shown separately here again.

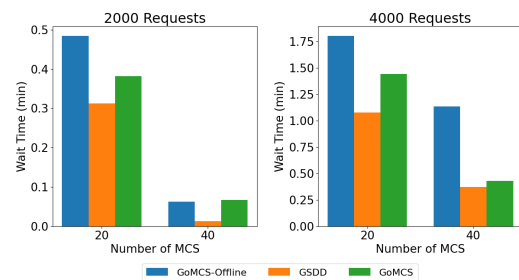


Figure 5: Average Waiting Time of EVs.

5.3 Scenario 3: Repetitive Random Charging Requests

In this dataset, for the first few days, we generate requests from EVs occurring at random locations with random destinations without any discernible pattern or correlation between successive requests. Then, from a particular day onward, the requests lie within a certain time and distance bound of the requests that occur on the previous day and thus are similar. A similarity index (s_i) is defined which decides these bounds on the time and distance, with 0 indicating that the request pattern is completely random and 1 indicating that the request pattern of consecutive days are exactly the same. The time and distance bounds are set as $30 \times (1 - s_i)$ minutes and $5000 \times (1 - s_i)$ meters respectively, where s_i varies from 0 to 1.

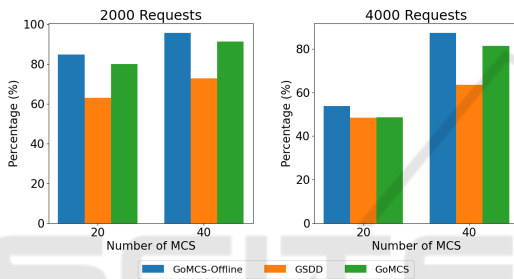


Figure 6: Percentage of requests served.

Fig. 6 shows the percentage of requests served for different number of MCSs and number of requests. It is seen that as we increase the number of MCSs, the percentage of requests served always increases for the same reason as described earlier. GoMCS performs much better than GSDD in this case also. One change to note in this case is that although the values for GoMCS-Offline remain almost the same, the performance of both GoMCS and GSDD algorithms improves, with GoMCS performing almost as well as GoMCS-Offline. This happens as the heuristic is able to learn from past request patterns effectively.

Fig. 7 shows the average waiting time of EVs for varying number of MCSs and requests. From Fig. 2 and Fig. 7, it is seen that although the percentage of requests served increases for GoMCS and GSDD, the waiting times remain almost the same or decrease in some cases. This shows that the algorithms are able to better distribute the MCSs according to the traffic patterns.

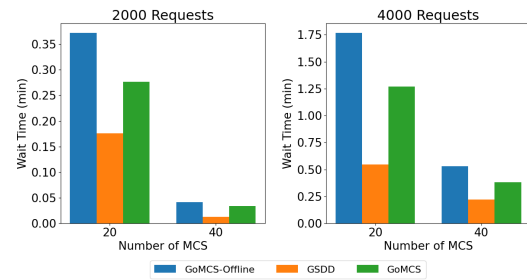


Figure 7: Average Waiting Time of EVs.

Fig. 8 shows the coefficient of variance (CV) of requests served per MCS, for varying number of MCSs and requests. The CV of GoMCS and GSDD are both slightly less compared to Scenario 1, due to better prediction of demand resulting in more even distribution.

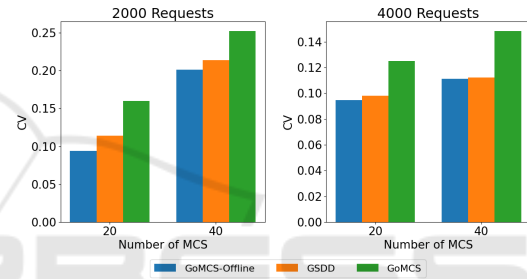


Figure 8: Coefficient of Variance of Requests Served.

For this scenario, the robustness of GoMCS to deviations in the recurring spatiotemporal pattern of requests is also evaluated for 2000 requests and 20 MCSs. GoMCS is run normally for a few days and then, for a certain day, the request pattern is changed to different patterns. In the first case, the start and end points of the requests are generated randomly across the city on each day. In the second case, the requests are generated with the start points being closer to the city center and the end points being away from the city center. In the third case, the start points are chosen away from the city center and the end points closer to the city center. Table 3 shows the results. As the MCSs are almost evenly distributed on a normal day, performance difference for the first case is not significant. In the second case, the EVs are near the center of the city, so the MCSs located in the outskirts are underutilized, and those near the center are overloaded, which reduces the percentage of requests served. When EVs move from outskirts of the city, many trips still pass through the center of the city so the MCSs in the city center are less underutilized; hence the fall in performance is much less.

Table 3: Robustness with Request Patterns.

Request Pattern	% Served
Normal day (Recurring)	80.1
Random requests	78.8
Request mainly near city center	74.9
Request mainly from outskirts	77.1

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