

Unleashing Grid Services Potential of Electric Vehicles for the Volt/VAR Optimization Problem

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Abstract—Emerging utilization of Electric Vehicles (EVs) in Distribution Networks (DNs) decreases the power quality in the DN. The main quest of this research is to find out *Can EVs and Photovoltaic (PV) systems support the DN and mitigate the voltage magnitude violations due to utilizing high penetration level EV?* This article proposes a novel volt/VAR optimization (VVO) model by leveraging the reactive power support of EVs and PVs as Distributed Energy Resources (DERs) for the DN. The proposed VVO model contains the second-order conic relaxed form of the AC power flow equations. Thus, the presented VVO problem is a Mixed-Integer Second-Order Cone Programming (MISOCP) problem. To obtain the ability to support the DN, Smart Inverters (SIs) are utilized to connect EVs and PV systems to the DN. Thus, to add the PV and EV systems to the convexified form of the VVO problem, the P-Q characteristics and the model of SIs working at different operating points are presented based on experimental results. The proposed model of SIs allows the participation of DERs in the reactive power compensation to mitigate voltage issues of DN due to utilizing high penetration level EVs. Besides, the proposed model of SIs enables DERs to increase their dispatchability. The performance of the proposed model is examined in the case studies using the IEEE 33-bus system and the 123-bus system. It is illustrated in the case studies that the solar dispatchability increases by 12% when the proposed volt/VAR model is utilized for IEEE 33-bus system. Besides, it is illustrated in the case studies that the voltage profile of buses remains in the desired operating range when the proposed model is leveraged, even if the penetration level of EVs increased to 40%.

Index Terms—volt/VAR optimization problem, reactive power compensation, smart inverters, DN operation, grid services

NOMENCLATURE

Parameters

α_s^t	Available solar power for solar unit s at time t
B, G	Susceptance and conductance matrices
C_E^t	Cost of electricity at time t
C_D	Degradation cost of the DER
C_V	Penalty factor for voltage magnitude violation
$\bar{E}_e, \underline{E}_e$	Max./Min. energy level of EV fleet e
\bar{P}_e^d, \bar{P}_e^c	Max. dis/charging power of fleet of EV e
p_d^t	Real power demand of load d at time t
$P_{e,t}^{tr}$	Traveling power consumption of EV fleet e at time t
q_d^t	Reactive power demand of load d at time t
\bar{Q}_a^t	Maximum reactive power of a th quadrant of SI
\underline{Q}_a^t	Minimum reactive power of a th quadrant of SI
\bar{R}_c^t	The proportion of connected EVs at time t
R_{tr}^t	The proportion of traveling EVs at time t

\bar{S}_{ij}	The maximum apparent power flow of each distribution line
$\bar{V}_i, \underline{V}_i$	Voltage magnitude limits of bus i
ρ_a^ζ	Slope of segment ζ of piece-wise linear function of a th quadrant
η_N	The nominal efficiency of SI at unity power factor
δ_a^ζ	Maximum reactive power share of segment ζ of quadrant a of the SI

Control Variables

$I_e^{ch,t}$	Charging mode status of EV e at time t
P_g^t, Q_g^t	Real/Reactive power grid injection at point g into the DN at time t
$P_{SI}^{AC,t}$	Real power at the AC side of the SI at time t
$P_{SI}^{DC,t}$	Real power at the DC side of the SI at time t
$P_{e,dc}^{\nu,t}$	V2G DC power of SI of EV e at time t
$P_{e,t}^{\nu}$	V2G real power at the AC side of SI of EV e at time t
$P_{e,dc}^{c,t}$	Charging DC power of SI of EV e at time t
$P_{e,t}^c$	Charging real power at the AC side of SI of EV e at time t
P_s^t	Real power dispatch of SI of solar generation unit s at the AC side at time t
$q_a^{\zeta,t}$	Reactive power of segment ζ of a th quadrant of SI at time t

State Variables

c, s	lifting operator terms for SOCP relaxation
$\bar{c}_i^t, \underline{c}_i^t$	Slack variables representing voltage violation
$E_{e,t}$	Energy of fleet of EV e at time t
e_i^t, f_i^t	Real and Imaginary part of voltage phasor of bus i at time t
P_{ij}^t, Q_{ij}^t	Real and reactive power flow between bus i and j at time t
P_Q^t	Real power drop due to reactive power compensation of the SI at time t
$\bar{q}_a^{\zeta,t}$	Maximum reactive power of segment ζ of a th quadrant of SI at time t
Q_{SI}^t	Reactive power of the SI at time t
$Q_{e,t}^c$	Charging reactive power exchange between the SI of EV e and the DN at time t
$Q_{e,t}^{\nu}$	V2G reactive power exchange between the SI of EV e and the DN at time t
Q_s^t	Reactive power dispatch of SI of solar generation unit s at the AC side at time t
V_i	Voltage phasor of bus i
Sets	
\mathcal{BP}	Set of all buspairs
\mathcal{BPF}_i	Set of all buspairs originated from bus i
\mathcal{E}	Set of all electric vehicles

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\mathcal{D}	Set of all loads
\mathcal{D}_i	Set of load connected to bus i
\mathcal{E}_i	Set of the electric vehicle connected to bus i
\mathcal{FB}_{bp}	Set of the bus which buspair bp originated from
\mathcal{G}	Set of all grids connected to the DN
\mathcal{G}_i	Set of the grid connected to the DN through bus i
\mathcal{I}_e	Set of the bus connected to EV e
\mathcal{I}_g	Set of the bus connected to grid g
\mathcal{I}_l	Set of the bus connected to load l
\mathcal{I}_s	Set of the bus connected to solar generation unit s
\mathcal{L}	Set of all branches
\mathcal{SW}	Set of all branches with tie switch
\mathcal{N}	Set of all buses
\mathcal{S}	Set of all solar generation units
\mathcal{S}_ς	Set of segments of SI ς
\mathcal{S}_i	Set of solar generation unit connected to bus i
\mathcal{T}	Set of period
\mathcal{TB}_{bp}	Set of the bus which buspair bp destined to

I. INTRODUCTION

TRANSPORTATION is the second-largest source of global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, and it can increase to 60% of the total GHGs emissions by 2050 in the absence of mitigation measures [1]. It is critical to accelerating the adoption of EVs , which are now being promoted to replace combustion engine vehicles, in order to reduce GHG emissions from the transportation sector [2]. In [3], the authors presented a smart charging strategy to increase the penetration level of EVs and alleviate customer concerns over the limited availability of charging stations. Establishing reliable EV charging capabilities from a clean resource is critical to the success of this transition toward EV adoption. Thus, the electricity DN should be prepared to support the increasing demand of charging EVs , where fast charging rate chargers could have an adverse impact on the power quality within the DN [4]. In [5], the authors developed the models and methods to evaluate the capacity of electrical energy supply based on voltage stability in the worst charging case scenario and showed the impact of charging location and route choice on the voltage margin limitation. The increasing penetration level of EVs will lead to a high electricity demand burden on the power grid especially on the DN [6], [7] and decrease the reliability of the DN [8]. In [9], authors show the challenges that different EV charging methods create for the DN operation. In [10], [11], authors investigated the impact of time-of-use pricing and utilizing different methods of charging EVs on the voltage magnitude of buses in the DN . With the increase of domestic EV charging, the existing early evening peak demand will exacerbate [12]. Thus, it is essential to address these challenges of utilizing EVs for DNs . This paper presents a novel VVO method based on the reactive power exchangeability of SIs connecting the EVs and PV systems to the DN .

Different methods have been proposed in the literature to mitigate the impact of EV charging on the DN . One way to mitigate the effect of utilizing high penetration EVs on the DNs is smart charging [13], [14]. Smart charging is defined as the coordinated scheduling of the charging time and charging power of EVs [15]. [13] shows that smart

charging reduces the percentage of DNs that would require reinforcement due to power quality issues originating from deploying high penetration EVs . The algorithms proposed to control the EV charging vary in their objectives, control hierarchy, and the constraints they take into account. Control of EV charging is divided into centralized and decentralized methods [16]. In the centralized method, one operator plans the charging schedule for a group of EVs . This method provides a structure for EV owners to choose their service type based on their average charging need and their willingness to pay to decrease the impact of utilizing high penetration EVs on the DN [17]. Centralized smart charging schemes are computationally expensive and may not scale to many EVs . In the decentralized method, EVs control their own charging in response to a signal data input such as electricity price [18], local transformer temperature [19], and the capacity of the local network to prevent overload [20] and stabilizing voltage [21]. The proposed objectives in the literature included: cost minimization [22], peak shaving [23], minimizing losses [24], maximizing compensation of $DERs$ [25]. Most methods include an energy constraint, which assures that the SOC of the battery of EVs is appropriate. However, some include additional constraints on the network operation [18], battery temperature [26], battery life [27], utilizing long-range EVs [28], or voltage and substation capacity limits [22]. However, these centralized and decentralized methods require significant infrastructure to operate, such as centralized or local smart agents, connected and controllable EV supply equipment, grid sensors, communication networks, and a scheme to obtain state-of-charge (SOC) data from various EV models [29]. Besides, implementing smart charging approaches is very complex, and the willingness of the customers is required [15].

Another approach to mitigate the voltage issues of the DNs due to deploying high penetration EVs is utilizing a home PV system integrated with EV . In this method, the EV battery can mitigate intermittency effects for the home PV system [30]. In the noontime, when the electricity demand is less, the excess electric energy from house PV systems will be injected into the feeder and can cause a voltage rise [31], [32]. Thus, energy storage units are required to mitigate the impact of high penetration house PV systems [33], [34]. However, adding batteries to the system causes extra costs and customers might not be willing to invest in energy storage systems. Thus, the utility should invest the money to add energy storage units to prevent solar generation power loss or voltage increase in DN [35]. In recent years, researchers have proposed the idea of utilizing the EV battery as an energy storage system where they can store the excess power of PV and inject power into the grid when needed [36], [37]. It is studied that the integrated EV - PV system can provide grid support during peak demand and mitigate the impacts of high penetration of both residential PV systems and EVs [38]. However, the PV systems generate power only during sunny hours, and during this period, most EVs will be at work instead of home. Thus, most of the solar dispatch would be curtailed during those hours.

An alternative solution to mitigate the impact of utilizing a high penetration level of EVs is leveraging SIs . SIs exchange reactive power with the DN to support the DN and

provide distribution grid services. Utilizing *SIs* with a non-unity power factor by customers decreases the need for voltage management devices implemented by the utility like capacitors and batteries to support the *DN* [39]. Deploying *SIs* can enhance the performance of the *DN* and work as a power factor correction device. Reactive power compensation will allow an increase of *EV* integration with continuous voltage and energy support [40]. The reactive power compensation originates from the real power exchange between the *DER* and the *DN*. Implementing this method enables customers to participate in grid services. The use of *SIs* for volt/VAR control of high penetration *PV* systems on *DNs* is studied in [41]. In [42], the authors proposed a mixed strategy game between a volt/VAR and conservation voltage reduction optimization model and an optimal energy consumption model to solve the *VVO* problem by considering load shifting, *EV* as the storage and carrier of the energy, and the use of *DERs* as demand-responsive assets. However, this paper does not consider the reactive power support of *DERs* and their role in *VVO* problem. Most of the papers in the literature have focused on the impact of *EVs* or *PV* systems alone on the *DN*. In [43], authors investigate the impact of *EV* along with *PV* systems on *DNs* with *SIs*. The authors in [44] proposed a multi-objective nonlinear optimal power flow (OPF) problem that can simultaneously improve voltage magnitude and balance profiles while minimizing network losses and generation costs. The proposed *PV* nonlinear operational optimization strategy improves the performance of significantly unbalanced three-phase, four-wire low voltage distribution networks with high residential *PV* penetrations. A bi-level *VVO* approach is presented in [45] where the first level optimizes the control of smart inverters and legacy devices in the network using a linearly approximated method and the second level adjusts the control parameters for smart inverters by solving the approximate OPF model. In [46], the authors presented a two-stage optimization strategy to solve the linearized *VVO* problem considering high penetration levels *EVs*. However, in these studies, the approximate model of *SIs* and the approximate or nonlinear model of the *AC* power flow equations are utilized. Besides, the performance of the *VVO* problem of the *DN* with *SIs* has not been investigated in these studies.

Recent advancements in finding a polynomial-time solution for the optimization problems with *AC* power flow constraints enable the authors of this paper to procure the solution of the *VVO* problem with *AC* power flow constraints. Different relaxation methods including the *SOCP* relaxation method [47] presented a convex relaxed form of the optimization problem with *AC* power flow constraints with improved relaxation gap. In [48], authors discussed that the *SOCP* relaxation method is exact for acyclic *DNs* such as *DNs*. Thus in this paper, the solution of the *VVO* problem of *DNs* with *AC* power flow equations and *SIs* connecting the *DERs* to the network is procured by leveraging the *SOCP* relaxation method. To enable the capability of reactive power compensation of *SIs*, a bidirectional model of *SIs* is presented. The main contributions of this paper are listed as follows:

- Propose a novel *VVO* problem to leverage the potential of

DERs in compensating the reactive power to increase the power quality of the *DNs* with high penetration level *EVs*. The presented *VVO* problem contains *AC* power flow constraints to investigate the impact of reactive power compensation of *SIs*.

- Model the bidirectional *SIs* operating at different power factors to enable the customers to participate in grid services. The model of *DERs* connected to *SIs* working on different modes is presented and deployed in the proposed volt/VAR method.
- The model of *SIs* based on their operating point is presented to enable *DERs* to support the *DNs* by exchanging reactive power. It is shown that coordinating *SIs* within the *DN* enhances the dispatchability of renewable *DERs* and decreases the unfortunate renewable generation curtailments.

II. PROBLEM FORMULATION AND SOLUTION METHODOLOGY

In this section, the reactive power support of *DERs* connected to the *DN* using *SIs* in the volt/VAR optimization problem with *AC* power flow constraints is modeled. First, the exact model of the *SI* based on its operating point and its maximum power is presented. Then, by leveraging the proposed model of *SIs*, the *VVO* problem with *AC* power flow constraints is reformulated using *SOCP* relaxation in a *DN* with *EVs* and solar generation units working as *DERs*.

A. Smart Inverter's Model

It is supposed that *SIs* are operating in four $P-Q$ quadrants. While Legacy Inverters (LIs) are usually operated in one-way power transfer at the unity power factor, the presented *SI* model exhibits bi-directional power transfer with a lower than or equal to the unity power factor. The presented model is consistent with the experimental data presented in [49]. The real power loss of *SIs* changes with the change of the power factor (i.e., the operating point of the *SI*). Each quadrant of the *SI* is divided into $|\mathcal{S}_c|$ segments. In Fig. 1, the $P-Q$ characteristics of *SIs* are represented with four piece-wised linear functions for each quadrant. The real power of *SI* at the *AC* side at time t depends on the reactive power of the *SI* at time t , the DC power of the *SI* at time t , and the nominal efficiency of the *SI* operating at the unity power factor.

The *SI* works in first and second quadrants when the direction of real power flow is from the *DER* to the *DN* as shown in Fig. 2(a). This operating mode of the *SI* is called discharging mode, and the piece-wise linear $P-Q$ characteristics of the *SI* are presented in Fig. 1(a). When the *SI* works in quadrants 1, 4, it dispatches reactive power to the distribution network (i.e., works as a capacitor). This operation mode occurs when the *SI* is compensating for the lack of reactive power to mitigate the voltage magnitude drop. On the contrary, when the *SI* works in quadrants 2, 3, it works in inductive mode. The real power dispatch of the *SI* in the discharging mode depends on the DC power dispatch of the connected *DER*, the nominal efficiency of the *SI* at the unity power factor, and the real power reduction due to the reactive power support of the *SI* as presented in (1a).

The real power reduction due to the reactive power support of the *SI* depends on the reactive power exchange between the *SI* and the *DN* as presented in (1b). Where the reactive power support of the *SI* is the summation of the reactive power of all segments of the first quadrant minus the summation of the reactive power of all segments of the second quadrant as presented in (1c). It should be noted that the slope of the piecewise linear functions of the first quadrant is negative, while the one for the second quadrant is positive, as shown in Fig. 1(a). The reactive power of segment ζ of the first two quadrants of the *SI* at time t is limited by the maximum reactive power of segment ζ at time t and it is non-negative as presented in (1d). Besides, the reactive power of segments in each quadrant depends on the DC power dispatch of the connected *DER*, the nominal efficiency of the *SI* at the unity power factor, and the maximum reactive power share of segment ζ of each quadrant of the *SI* (i.e., δ_a^ζ) as presented in (1e). In other words, the reactive power support is always less than or equal to the real power input of the *SI* times the efficiency at the unity power factor. However, there is no limit for the power factor of *SI* and the power factor can vary between 0 and 1. If the *VVO* problem decides that the real power input of the *SI* can be increased to increase the reactive power support of each *SI*.

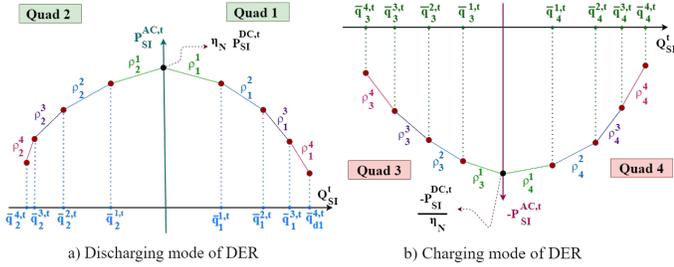


Fig. 1: The piece-wise linear P-Q characteristics of *SIs*

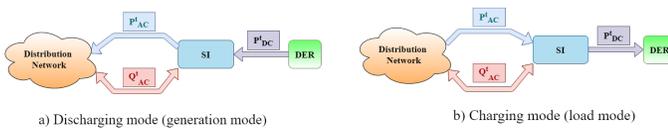


Fig. 2: The power direction of charging and discharging modes of *SIs*

Decreasing the power factor (i.e., increasing the reactive power compensation of *SIs*) leads to a decrease in the real power of the *SI* as presented in (1a), (1b). Thus, the *SI*'s efficiency decreases with the decrease in the power factor. When the *SI* operates in the first quadrant, the reactive power dispatch of the *SI* is the summation of the reactive power of all segments of the first quadrant of the *SI* as presented in (1c). However, when the *SI* operates in the second quadrant, the reactive power dispatch of the *SI* is the negative of the summation of all reactive power segments of the second quadrant of the *SI* since it is working in inductive mode as presented in (1c).

$$P_{SI}^{AC,t} = \eta_N P_{SI}^{DC,t} - P_Q^t \quad (1a)$$

$$P_Q^t = - \sum_{\zeta \in \mathcal{S}_c} \rho_1^\zeta q_1^{\zeta,t} + \sum_{\zeta \in \mathcal{S}_c} \rho_2^\zeta q_2^{\zeta,t} \quad (1b)$$

$$Q_{SI}^t = \sum_{\zeta \in \mathcal{S}_c} q_1^{\zeta,t} - \sum_{\zeta \in \mathcal{S}_c} q_2^{\zeta,t} \quad (1c)$$

$$0 \leq q_a^{\zeta,t} \leq \bar{q}_a^{\zeta,t} \quad : \forall a \in \{1, 2\} \quad (1d)$$

$$\text{Where: } \bar{q}_a^{\zeta,t} = \delta_a^\zeta \eta_N P_{SI}^{DC,t} \quad : \forall a \in \{1, 2\} \quad (1e)$$

The *AC* real power of the *SI* in the third and fourth quadrants (i.e., charging mode) depends on the DC power of the *SI*, the efficiency of the *SI* in the unity power factor, and the real power drop due to reactive power support as presented in (2a). However, to provide proper grid services, the *SI* doesn't work with the unity power factor. In this mode, the direction of the real power is from the distribution network toward the *DER* as presented in Fig. 1(b). Thus, the *SI* in the charging mode operates as an inductive (i.e., quadrant 3) or captive (i.e., quadrant 4) load for the *DN* as shown in 2(b). The DC real power drop due to grid services of the *SI* in the charging mode is presented in (2b). Note that the slope of the piecewise linear functions of the third quadrant is negative, while the one for the fourth quadrant is positive. The total reactive power compensation of the *SI* is the summation of all segments of each quadrant of the *SI* as presented in (2c). The upper and lower limits of the reactive power of segment ζ of the *SI* at time t in charging mode are presented in (2d). Where the reactive power of each segment of the *SI* depends on the real power of the *SI*, the efficiency of the *SI* at unity power factor, and the maximum reactive power share of segment ζ of each quadrant of the *SI* (i.e., δ_a^ζ) as presented in (2e). When the *SI* works in the third quadrant, the total reactive power exchange between the *SI* and the *DN* is the negative of the summation of the reactive power of segments of the 3rd quadrant of the *SI* as it is shown in 1(b). In this model, when the *DER* is working in charging mode, it is considered a load, and the *AC* real power of its *SI* will appear on the right-hand side of the nodal balance equation. Thus, the *AC* real power and DC power of *SIs* working in charging mode are non-negative.

$$P_{SI}^{AC,t} = \frac{P_{SI}^{DC,t}}{\eta_N} + P_Q^t \quad (2a)$$

$$P_Q^t = \sum_{\zeta \in \mathcal{S}_c} \rho_4^\zeta q_4^{\zeta,t} - \sum_{\zeta \in \mathcal{S}_c} \rho_3^\zeta q_3^{\zeta,t} \quad (2b)$$

$$Q_{SI}^t = \sum_{\zeta \in \mathcal{S}_c} q_4^{\zeta,t} - \sum_{\zeta \in \mathcal{S}_c} q_3^{\zeta,t} \quad (2c)$$

$$0 \leq q_a^{\zeta,t} \leq |\bar{q}_a^{\zeta,t}| \quad : \forall a \in \{3, 4\} \quad (2d)$$

$$\text{Where: } |\bar{q}_a^{\zeta,t}| = \delta_a^\zeta |P_{SI}^{AC,t}| \quad : \forall a \in \{3, 4\} \quad (2e)$$

B. Volt/VAR Optimization Problem

In this section, the *VVO* problem of the *DN* with solar generation units and *EVs* connected to the *DN* using *SIs* is presented. The goal of the proposed *VVO* problem is to minimize the operation cost and voltage magnitude violations in distribution networks by utilizing the proposed model of *SIs*.

1) *Objective function*: The objective function of the VVO problem depends on the operation cost of the DN, the voltage violation that is penalized, and the degradation cost of DERs as presented in (3). The operation cost of the DN depends on the time-of-use price of electricity and the real power dispatch of the feeder. Besides, the voltage violation cost depends on the voltage violation at the buses of the DN and the voltage violation penalty factor. Moreover, the degradation cost of DERs depends on the degradation cost of EVs and solar generation units and the dispatch of EVs and solar generation units in the DN.

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{P_g^t, P_e, t, P_s^t, c_i^t, \bar{c}_i^t} & \sum_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \sum_{t \in \mathcal{T}} C_E^t P_g^t + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \sum_{t \in \mathcal{T}} C_V (c_i^t + \bar{c}_i^t) + \\ & + \sum_{t \in \mathcal{T}} \left(\sum_{e \in \mathcal{E}} C_D P_{e,t}^\nu + \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} C_D P_s^t \right) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

2) *Solar generation units model*: The model of solar generation units is presented in (4). The SIs connected to solar generation units work in the generation (discharging) mode i.e., first and second quadrants of the P-Q characteristics as shown in Fig. 1(a). It should be noted that in this model for SIs, the AC real power, DC power, and real power drop due to reactive power support of the SI are non-negative. However, the reactive power support of the SI can be negative, zero, or positive, depending on the reactive power need of the DN. The relation between the real power, the real power drop due to reactive power support, and the available solar generation power as the power of SI in the DC side at time t is presented in (4a). Where the real power drop due to reactive power support of the SI depends on the P-Q characteristics of the SI and the reactive power of segments of each quadrant of the SI connected to solar generation unit s as presented in (4b). Since $P_Q^{s,t}$ and $q_1^{\zeta,t}$ are non-negative and ρ_1^ζ is negative, the first term in the right-hand side (RHS) of (4b) should have a negative sign. The total reactive power support of the SI of solar s depends on the operating point of the SI as presented in (4c). The reactive power of the segment ζ of the SI connected to solar s is limited in (4d). The upper limit of the reactive power of segment ζ of the SI connected to solar generation unit s at time t depends on the available solar generation power, the efficiency of the SI at unity power factor, and the share of each segment of each quadrant of the SI as shown in (4e). (4f) represents that the DC power of the SI connected to solar generation unit s is less than or equal to the available solar power due to the solar generation curtailment capability of PV systems.

$$P_s^t = \eta_N P_s^{dc,t} - P_Q^{s,t} \quad (4a)$$

$$P_Q^{s,t} = - \sum_{\zeta \in \mathcal{S}_\zeta} \rho_1^\zeta q_1^{\zeta,t} + \sum_{\zeta \in \mathcal{S}_\zeta} \rho_2^\zeta q_2^{\zeta,t} \quad (4b)$$

$$Q_s^t = \sum_{\zeta \in \mathcal{S}_\zeta} q_1^{\zeta,t} - \sum_{\zeta \in \mathcal{S}_\zeta} q_2^{\zeta,t} \quad (4c)$$

$$0 \leq q_{s,\zeta}^{a,t} \leq \bar{q}_a^{\zeta,t} \quad : \forall a \in \{1, 2\} \quad (4d)$$

$$\text{Where: } \bar{q}_a^{\zeta,t} = \delta_a^\zeta \eta_N P_s^{dc,t} \quad : \forall a \in \{1, 2\} \quad (4e)$$

$$0 \leq P_s^{dc,t} \leq \alpha_s^t \quad (4f)$$

3) *EV model*: The SIs connected to EVs in V2G mode work in the first and second quadrants i.e. generation mode, as shown in Fig. 2(a). However, those connected to EVs in charging mode work in the third and fourth quadrants i.e. load mode, as shown in Fig. 2(b). The model of the SI connected to EV e in charging mode is presented in (5). The real power of the SI at the AC side depends on the DC power of the SI, the efficiency of the SI at unity PF, and the real power drop due to reactive power support of the SI as presented in (5a). Where the real power drop due to reactive power support depends on the reactive power of segments of the SI and the piece-wise linear function of the P-Q characteristics of the SI as presented in (5b). The reactive power of each segment of each quadrant of the SI connected to EV e at time t is limited in (5d). The upper bound of the reactive power of each segment of each quadrant of the SI connected to EV e at time t depends on the real power of the SI at the AC side and the maximum reactive power share of that segment as shown in (5e). As mentioned before, the real power of the SI connected to EV e at time t working in charging mode is non-negative, and its lower bound depends on the proportion of charging EVs at time t as presented in (5f). Note that the model of EV presented here is a deterministic model, and battery charging time, the charging SOC, a traveling schedule for EVs, and other parameters related to the EV model are given.

$$P_{e,t}^c = \frac{P_{e,dc}^{c,t}}{\eta_N} + P_{Q,c}^{e,t} \quad (5a)$$

$$P_{Q,c}^{e,t} = \sum_{\zeta \in \mathcal{S}_\zeta} \rho_4^\zeta q_4^{\zeta,t} - \sum_{\zeta \in \mathcal{S}_\zeta} \rho_3^\zeta q_3^{\zeta,t} \quad (5b)$$

$$Q_{e,t}^c = \sum_{\zeta \in \mathcal{S}_\zeta} q_4^{\zeta,t} - \sum_{\zeta \in \mathcal{S}_\zeta} q_3^{\zeta,t} \quad (5c)$$

$$0 \leq q_{e,a}^{\zeta,t} \leq \bar{q}_a^{\zeta,t} \quad : \forall a \in \{3, 4\} \quad (5d)$$

$$\text{Where: } \bar{q}_a^{\zeta,t} = -\delta_a^\zeta P_{e,t}^c \quad : \forall a \in \{3, 4\} \quad (5e)$$

$$0 \leq P_{e,dc}^{c,t} \leq \bar{P}_e^c R_c^t I_e^{ch,t} \quad (5f)$$

The model of EVs in V2G mode connected to the DN through SI is presented in (6). The relation between the real power at the AC side of the SI, DC power of the SI, and the real power drop at the AC side of the SI due to grid service is presented in (6a). Where the real power drop at the AC side of the SI due to reactive power compensation is presented in (6b). The relation between the reactive power support of the SI and the reactive power of each segment of each quadrant of the SI is presented in (6c). Where the upper and lower limit constraints of the reactive power of segment ζ of quadrant a at time t are presented in (6d). The upper limit of the reactive power of segment ζ of quadrant a at time t depends on the DC power of the SI, efficiency at unity PF, and maximum reactive power share of segment ζ (6e). The maximum DC power of the SI depends on the proportion of charging EVs at time t and the maximum charging rate of EVs as shown in (6f).

$$P_{e,t}^\nu = \eta_N P_{e,dc}^{\nu,t} - P_{Q,\nu}^{e,t} \quad (6a)$$

$$\text{Where: } P_{Q,\nu}^{e,t} = - \sum_{\zeta \in \mathcal{E}} \rho_1^\zeta q_1^{\zeta,t} + \sum_{\zeta \in \mathcal{E}} \rho_2^\zeta q_2^{\zeta,t} \quad (6b)$$

$$Q_{e,t}^\nu = \sum_{\zeta \in \epsilon} q_1^{\zeta,t} - \sum_{\zeta \in \epsilon} q_2^{\zeta,t} \quad (6c)$$

$$0 \leq q_{e,\zeta}^{a,t} \leq \bar{q}_a^{\zeta,t} \quad : \forall a \in \{1, 2\} \quad (6d)$$

$$\text{Where: } \bar{q}_a^{\zeta,t} = \delta_a^\zeta \eta_N P_{e,dc}^{\nu,t} \quad : \forall a \in \{1, 2\} \quad (6e)$$

$$0 \leq P_{e,dc}^{\nu,t} \leq \bar{P}_e^c R_c^t (1 - I_e^{ch,t}) \quad (6f)$$

The energy balance of each *EV* fleet at time *t* is presented in (7a). The physical limit of the energy of *EV* fleet *e* at time *t* is presented in (7b).

$$E_{e,t} = E_{e,t-1} - (P_{e,t}^{tr} R_{tr}^t + P_{e,dc}^{\nu,t} - P_{e,dc}^{c,t}) \quad (7a)$$

$$\underline{E}_e \leq E_{e,t} \leq \bar{E}_e \quad (7b)$$

4) *Nodal balance and power flow equations*: The real and reactive nodal balance at bus *i* at time *t* is presented in (8a) and (8b), respectively. The real and reactive power flow on line (*i, j*) are given in (8c) and (8d), respectively.

$$\sum_{g \in \mathcal{G}_i} P_g^t + \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}_i} P_s^t + \sum_{e \in \mathcal{E}_i} P_{e,t}^\nu = \sum_{d \in \mathcal{D}_i} p_d^t + \sum_{e \in \mathcal{E}_i} P_{e,t}^c + \left(G_{ii} + \sum_{j \in \delta_i} G_{ij} \right) ((e_i^t)^2 + (f_i^t)^2) + \sum_{j \in \delta_i} P_{ij}^t \quad (8a)$$

$$\sum_{g \in \mathcal{G}_i} Q_g^t + \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}_i} Q_s^t + \sum_{e \in \mathcal{E}_i} Q_{e,t}^c + \sum_{e \in \mathcal{E}_i} Q_{e,t}^\nu = \sum_{d \in \mathcal{D}_i} q_d^t - \left(B_{ii} + \sum_{j \in \delta_i} B_{ij} \right) [(e_i^t)^2 + (f_i^t)^2] + \sum_{j \in \delta_i} Q_{ij}^t \quad (8b)$$

$$P_{ij}^t = -G_{ij}((e_i^t)^2 + (f_i^t)^2) + G_{ij}(e_i^t e_j^t + f_i^t f_j^t) - B_{ij}(e_i^t f_j^t - e_j^t f_i^t) \quad (8c)$$

$$Q_{ij}^t = B_{ij}((e_i^t)^2 + (f_i^t)^2) - B_{ij}(e_i^t e_j^t + f_i^t f_j^t) - G_{ij}(e_i^t f_j^t - e_j^t f_i^t) \quad (8d)$$

Note that equations (8a)-(8d) are presented for single phase full AC nodal balance and power flow constraints. These equations have bi-linear terms, which make the *AC VVO* problem a mixed-integer non-convex optimization problem. To relax these bi-linear terms, a set of lifting variables is introduced in (9). It should be noted that c_{ii}^t represents the voltage magnitude square of bus *i* at time *t*.

$$c_{ii}^t := (e_i^t)^2 + (f_i^t)^2; \quad c_{ij}^t := e_i^t e_j^t + f_i^t f_j^t; \quad s_{ij}^t := e_j^t f_i^t - f_j^t e_i^t \quad (9)$$

The *SOCP* relaxed form of the nodal balance and power flow equations is presented in (10) by leveraging the *SOCP* lifting variables introduced in (9).

$$\sum_{g \in \mathcal{G}_i} P_g^t + \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}_i} P_s^t + \sum_{e \in \mathcal{E}_i} P_{e,t}^\nu = \sum_{d \in \mathcal{D}_i} P_d^t + \sum_{e \in \mathcal{E}_i} P_{e,t}^c + \left(G_{ii} + \sum_{j \in \delta_i} G_{ij} \right) c_{ii}^t + \sum_{j \in \delta_i} P_{ij}^t \quad (10a)$$

$$\sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}_i} Q_s^t + \sum_{g \in \mathcal{G}_i} Q_g^t + \sum_{e \in \mathcal{E}_i} Q_{e,t}^c + \sum_{e \in \mathcal{E}_i} Q_{e,t}^\nu = \sum_{d \in \mathcal{D}_i} q_d^t - \left(B_{ii} + \sum_{j \in \delta_i} B_{ij} \right) c_{ii}^t + \sum_{j \in \delta_i} Q_{ij}^t \quad (10b)$$

$$P_{ij}^t = -G_{ij} c_{ii}^t + G_{ij} c_{ij}^t + B_{ij} s_{ij}^t \quad (10c)$$

$$Q_{ij}^t = B_{ij} c_{ii}^t - B_{ij} c_{ij}^t + G_{ij} s_{ij}^t \quad (10d)$$

The relationship between the *SOCP* lifting variables and the second-order cone relaxation of the relationship between the *SOCP* lifting terms are presented in (11a) and (11b), respectively.

$$c_{ij} = c_{ji} \quad , \quad s_{ij} = -s_{ji} \quad (11a)$$

$$\left\| \begin{array}{c} 2c_{ij} \\ 2s_{ij} \\ c_{ii} - c_{jj} \end{array} \right\| \leq c_{ii} + c_{jj} \quad (11b)$$

5) *Voltage and line limits*: Constraint (12a) limits the voltage magnitude of each bus of the *DN* due to the operational limits. The apparent power flow of lines is limited, as presented in (12b). Note that the lower and upper voltage magnitude violation squares of bus *i* at time *t* are presented as $\underline{c}_{ii}^t, \bar{c}_{ii}^t$ in (12), respectively.

$$\underline{V}_i^2 - \underline{c}_i^t \leq (e_i^t)^2 + (f_i^t)^2 \leq \bar{V}_i^2 + \bar{c}_i^t \quad (12a)$$

$$\sqrt{(P_{ij}^t)^2 + (Q_{ij}^t)^2} \leq \bar{S}_{ij} \quad (12b)$$

The upper limit and lower limit of voltage magnitude at each bus are given in (13), where the *SOCP* variable corresponding with a squared form of voltage magnitude is leveraged.

$$\underline{V}_i^2 - \underline{c}_i^t \leq c_{ii}^t \leq \bar{V}_i^2 + \bar{c}_i^t \quad (13)$$

The *SOCP* relaxed form of the *VVO* problem for the *DN* with *EVs* and solar generation units connected through *SIs* to the *DN* is presented in (14). The real power of the *SI* connected to *EV* at time *t* presented in (5f) and (6f) depends on the *EV* charging binary decision variable (i.e., $I_e^{ch,t}$). Thus, the *VVO* problem in (14) is a *MISOCP* optimization problem.

$$\text{Objective:} \quad (3)$$

s.t.

$$\underline{c}_i^t, \bar{c}_i^t \geq 0$$

$$(4), (5), (6), (7), (10), (11), (12b), (13) \quad (14)$$

The *SOCP* relaxation method is tight for acyclic radial networks with cost minimization as the objective function [50]. However, it should be noted that the exactness of the *SOCP* relaxation is dependent on the network being acyclic and radial, which may not be satisfied in the case of a three-phase unbalanced distribution network. In such cases, the mutual impedance of the three-phase line creates virtual loops in the graph structure, making the network non-radial [51]. However, given that the proposed *VVO* problem in this paper involves a distribution network with a combination of cost minimization and weighted voltage deviation, it can be concluded that the *SOCP* relaxation of this problem will produce an exact solution [52]. The *SOCP* relaxed problem reformulation presented in (14) is exact for radial networks [48]. Since *DNs* are radial, the *SOCP* relaxation form of the *AC* optimal power flow problem is exact for *DNs*. The presented problem is formulated as a single-level *VVO* problem with *MISOCP* constraints, solar generation units, and *EVs* as *DERs* connected to the *DN* through *SIs*. The structure of the proposed *MISOCP VVO* problem is presented in Fig. 3.

C. Measure of Flat Voltage Magnitude

To evaluate the overall voltage deviation caused by the increasing penetration of *EVs* in the distribution network, we have introduced the Measure of Flat Voltage Magnitude

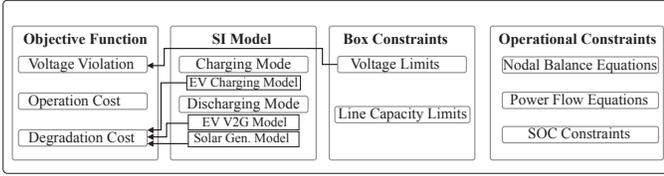


Fig. 3: Visualization of the VVO problem

(MFVM) in (15). The *MFVM* indicates the average voltage deviation of the distribution network over a 24-hour period, as illustrated in (15). It is important to note that a distribution network with a *MFVM* value of zero means that the voltage magnitude of all buses remains within the desired range (i.e., [0.95-1.05] per unit) for the entire 24 hours (\mathcal{T}).

$$MFVM = \frac{\sum_{t \in \mathcal{T}} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} (\text{Max}\{|\sqrt{c_{ii}^t} - 1|, 0.05\} - 0.05)}{|\mathcal{I}|} \quad (15)$$

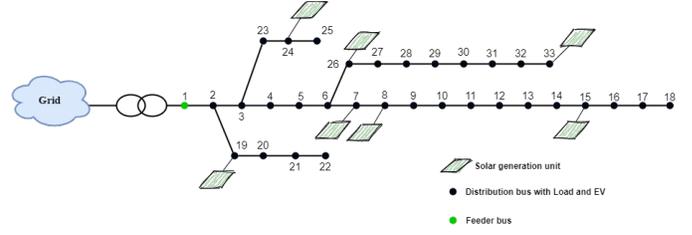
III. CASE STUDIES

In this section, two *DN*s are utilized to evaluate the performance of the proposed *VVO* problem. For different networks, the impact of *SIs* on the voltage profiles of various buses is investigated. The base demand and solar generation availability are set according to the normalized hourly data of California ISO on August 18, 2020. Here, Gurobi [53] is employed as the off-the-shelf solver to solve the formulated conic programming problem presented in (14). The results presented here were performed on a PC with a Core i7 CPU 4.70GHz processor and 48 GB memory. It should be noted that the negative sign of reactive power of *DERs* (solar generation units and *EVs*) shows the reactive power flow from *DER* to the *DN* and positive reactive power shows the opposite power flow direction. It is worth mentioning that the penetration level of a *DER* in a distribution network is the percentage of houses in the distribution network equipped with that type of *DER*.

A. Modified IEEE 33-bus system

In this section, the modified IEEE 33-bus *DN* consists of 33 buses, 32 branches, 7 solar generation units, 32 loads, and 32 electric vehicle fleets is employed to illustrate the effectiveness of the proposed *VVO* problem and the proposed model for *SIs*. Note that the model of load utilized here is constant power. This type of load is chosen to show the worst-case scenario for the voltage profile of buses throughout the distribution network [10]. The modified IEEE 33-bus system is presented in 4. The impact of utilizing *SIs* on the voltage profile of buses, the real power dispatch of the grid that is connected to the *DN* through the feeder, and the operation cost of the *DN* are investigated in this section. Note that the base net demand and solar generation trends are set according to the normalized hourly data of California ISO on November 4, 2021 [54]. The *VVO* problem is modeled for 24 hours. Thus, it is called one in a day. Therefore, all the results are presented for November 1, 2021.

1) **Impact of utilizing smart inverters on the voltage profile of buses:** In this section, the voltage profile of buses of the IEEE 33-bus *DN* over 24 hours when Legacy Inverters (LI) are utilized is compared with the one procured by the


 Fig. 4: The modified IEEE 33-bus *DN*

proposed volt/VAR model with *SIs*. Utilizing *SIs* mitigates the voltage magnitude drop of buses in a *DN* with a high penetration level of *EVs*. Fig. 5 presents the voltage profile of bus 18 over 24 hours procured by the *VVO* problem with different *EV* penetration levels. It should be noted that the farthest bus from the feeder bus, which has the most voltage magnitude violation, is chosen to show how the grid service capability of the *SIs* can mitigate the voltage magnitude violation of buses. When the penetration level of *EVs* is zero, the voltage magnitude of all buses stays within the desired limits of voltage magnitudes (i.e., [0.95-1.05] p.u.). Increasing the penetration level of *EVs*, decreases the voltage magnitudes across all buses. However, the voltage magnitude violation occurs in those buses far from the feeder e.g., buses 15 – 18. It is shown in Fig. 5 that deploying *SIs* eradicates this voltage violation. The *MFVM* index of the *DN* procured by the *LI* case is 0.075 for a 40% *EV* penetration level, and it is decreased to 0 when the proposed *SI* model is utilized. Besides, the operation cost of the *DN* procured by the proposed method with *SI* model is decreased 5% to \$29,775 compared to the one procured by the *VVO* problem with *LIs* which is \$31,324. It should be noted that the solution time of the proposed model is 374 seconds for the IEEE 33-bus system.

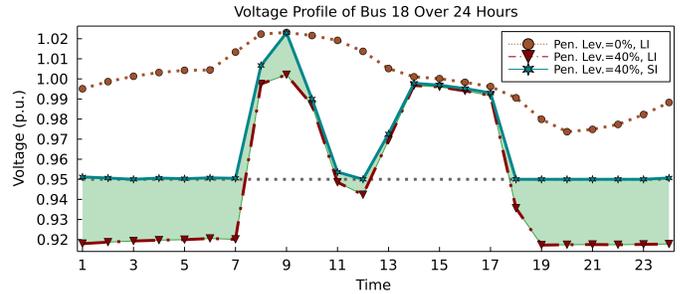


Fig. 5: Mitigating voltage violation using the proposed method

Fig. 6 illustrates how the *SIs* serve the grid by dispatching the reactive power to maintain the voltage magnitudes in the desired range. The reactive power dispatch of *SI* of *EV* connected to bus 18 illustrated that the *SI* support the *DN* during the hours that voltage magnitude violation occurs, as shown in Fig. 6. In Fig. 6, it should be noted that the positive sign for the real power of *SI* means that the *EV* is dispatching real power (i.e. V2G mode). It is an interesting observation that *SIs* increase the charging power of *EVs* in some hours and, as a result, increase V2G power in other hours. The *SIs* do this pattern to increase their ability to support the *DN*.

To present a fair comparison illustrating the merits of this work, the proposed *VVO* method with four quadrants *SI* (4Q-SI) is compared with the one with two quadrants *SI* (2Q-SI).

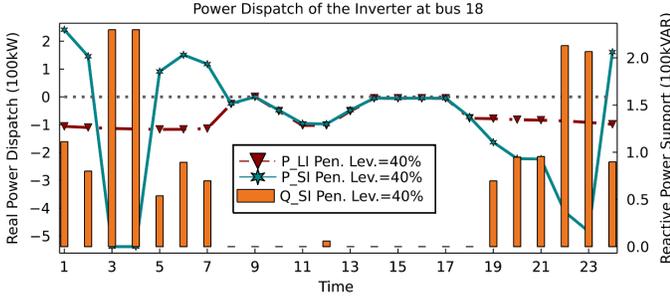


Fig. 6: Real and Reactive power dispatch of EV's inverter

With adding 4Q-SI to EVs, the operation cost of DN decreases from \$32,402 to \$29,775 and the MFVM index is decreased to 0 from 0.072.

The operation cost and the MFVM index of the DN is \$31,509 and 0.6, respectively when the VVO problem is formulated with linearized DC power flow along with a lossless model of SIs. In this case, the power flow equations are DC, and the model of the SI connecting DERs to the DN is not accurate. The operation cost and the MFVM index of the DN procured by the proposed VVO problem in this paper with an accurate SI model are \$29,775 and 0, respectively. Thus, utilizing the proposed VVO model decreases the voltage violations and the operation cost of the DN.

2) **Impact of enabling V2G mode on the reactive power support of SIs:** In this section, the impact of enabling V2G mode for EVs on the voltage profile support capability of SIs is investigated. Fig. 7 compares the voltage profile of bus 18 over 24 hours when V2G mode is enabled for EVs with the one procured when V2G mode is disabled. It should be noted that EVs penetration level is 40% for both scenarios. Enabling V2G mode mitigates the voltage magnitude violation by increasing the reactive power support of the EV as shown in Fig. 8.

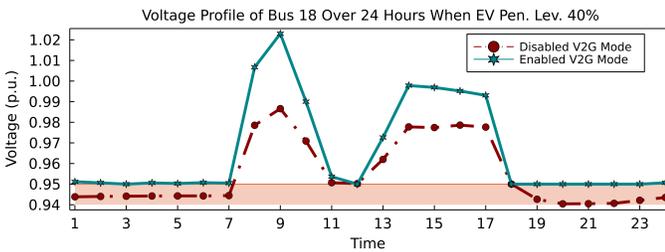


Fig. 7: Impact of enabling V2G mode on the voltage profile

Fig. 8 illustrates the real and reactive power dispatch of the SI connected to EV 17 (i.e., the EV connected to bus 18) for both scenarios. An interesting point is that the charging rate of EVs increases during the night hours since the reactive power support of SIs increases. Thus, EVs minimize their cost by selling their energy in V2G mode and support the voltage profile of the network in the meantime by dispatching reactive power. Increasing the AC real power in charging and V2G modes increases the reactive power support of the SIs. Thus, increasing the charging power of SIs in those hours leads to the working of EVs in V2G mode in other night hours, and that will lead to increasing the reactive power support of the SI

in all night. The SI of the EV connected to bus 18 procured by the proposed SI model works in different power factors during 24 hours to support the reactive power as presented in Fig. 8.

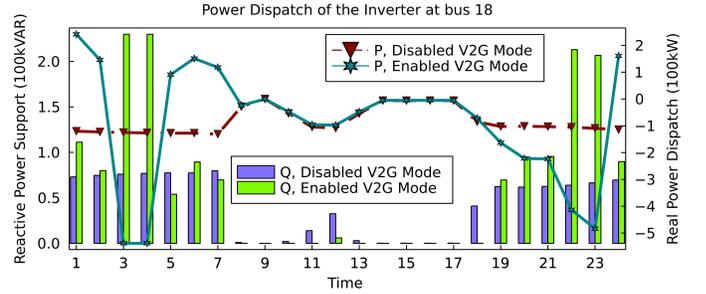


Fig. 8: Real and Reactive power dispatch of EV's inverter

3) **Impact of utilizing SIs on dispatchability of DERs:** Utilizing a high penetration level of DERs (such as solar generation units) might lead to generation curtailments within ADN. However, utilizing SIs can increase the dispatchability of renewable DERs. In this case, the penetration level of solar is increased to 80% and the penetration level of EVs is 10%. The curtailed solar power and reactive power dispatch of solar generation unit 4 which is connected to bus 7 are presented in Fig. 9. The curtailed solar dispatch of the network when LIs are utilized is 566.93 kWh over 24 hours. However, utilizing SIs cut the solar dispatch curtailment by more than 51% to 277.56 kWh over 24 hours.

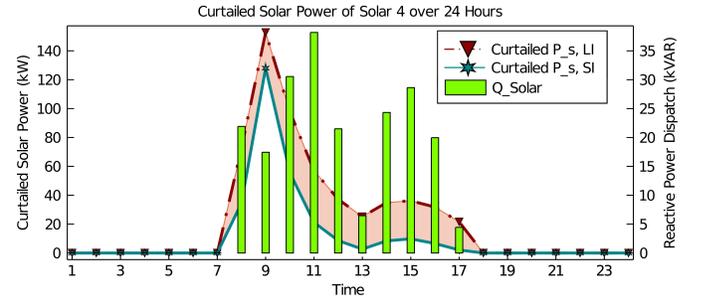


Fig. 9: Increasing the solar dispatchability by utilizing SIs

Here, it is shown that utilizing SIs in the proposed VVO problem not only decreases the voltage magnitude violation but also enhances dispatchability of solar generation units. Fig. 10 illustrates how SIs increase the dispatchability of solar generation units by decreasing the voltage magnitude of buses experiencing over voltage. Note that in this case, the penetration level of solar generation units is 80%. SIs connected to the solar generation units exploit their grid service capacity to decrease the voltage magnitude violation and increase the dispatchability of solar generation units.

B. Modified IEEE 123-bus System

In this section, the modified IEEE 123-bus network is leveraged to illustrate the performance of the proposed method. An arbitrary configuration of the IEEE 123-bus system is selected in this part. The modified IEEE 123-bus system consists of

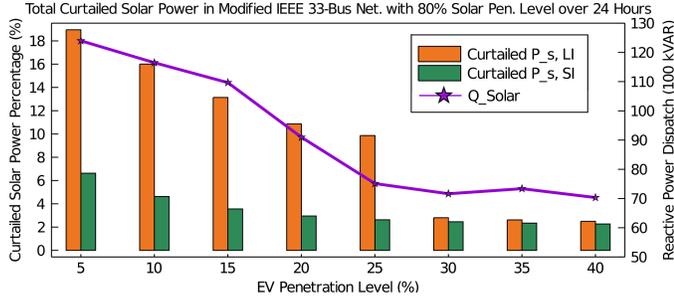


Fig. 10: The reduction in solar curtailment with *SI*

126 buses, 125 lines, 85 loads, 16 solar generation units, and 114 EVs as shown in Fig. 11. The green buses are the buses that EVs connected to them.

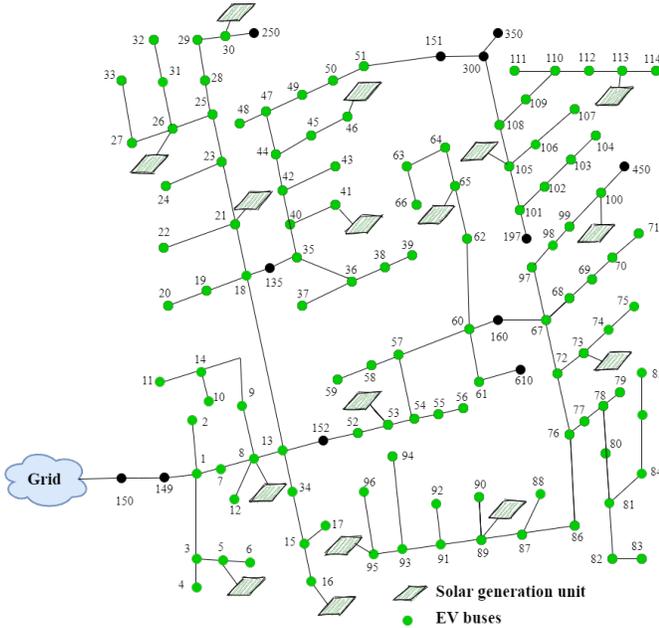


Fig. 11: The modified IEEE 123-bus *DN*

Fig. 12 illustrates how *SIs* mitigate the voltage magnitude violation in buses far from the feeder bus due to utilizing high penetration *EVs*. The voltage profile of the selected bus (i.e., bus 100) procured by the proposed *VVO* problem is compared with the one procured by the *VVO* problem with *LIs* in Fig. 12.A. To mitigate the voltage violation, the *SIs* change the charging power of *EVs* as shown in Fig. 12.B. to increase their capacity to support reactive power in those hours under voltage occurs as presented in Fig. 12.C. As presented in Fig. 11 solar generation unit 14 is connected to bus 100. Thus, the coordination between the *SIs* of *EV* and *PV* connected to bus 100 to decrease the voltage violation is presented in Fig. 12.C. Solar generation unit 14 utilizes its real power dispatch to support the grid by dispatching the reactive power to bus 100, as shown in Figs. 12.C and 12.D. The overall power quality of the *DN* increases when the proposed *SI* method is utilized. *MFVM* is used for the 123-bus system to compare the overall power quality of the *DN* procured by the proposed method with the one procured by the *LI* method. The *MFVM* index of the *DN* procured by the *LI* method is 0.037, and it

is reduced by 97% to $1.2e^{-3}$ when the proposed method is utilized. Not only does the overall power quality increase when the proposed model is utilized, but also the operation cost of the IEEE 123-bus system decreases by 1.6% from \$479,980 to \$472,488.

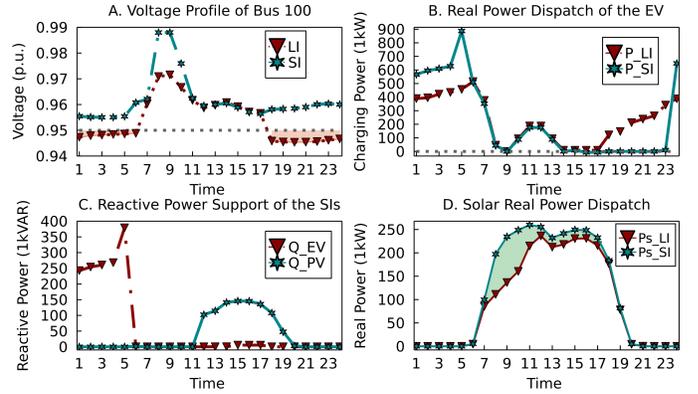


Fig. 12: Grid services of *SIs*

C. Three-Phase Unbalanced Case: Modified IEEE 123-bus System

In this section, the performance of the proposed *VVO* model with *SIs* is evaluated in a three-phase unbalanced distribution network. The mutual impedance of the three-phase line creates virtual loops in the graph structure of the network, resulting in a non-radial network. The *SOCP* relaxation method does not procure an exact solution for unbalanced three-phase distribution networks [55]. Hence, the two-stage algorithm presented in [56] is utilized to compare the proposed *VVO* model with the one with *LIs*.

The voltage magnitude of buses at 8 am as obtained by the proposed *VVO* problem with *LI* and with *SI* is presented in Figs. 13 and 14, respectively. The figures show that the use of *SI* brings the voltage profile of buses within the desired range (0.95 p.u. to 1.05 p.u.). The *SI* connecting *EVs* and solar generation units to the distribution network helps regulate the voltage profile of different phases of buses by dispatching reactive power to the network. The *MFVM* index of the *DN* procured by the *LI* case is $5e^{-3}$ for 40% *EV* penetration level, and it is decreased to 0 when the proposed *SI* model is utilized. Besides, the operation cost procured by the *LI* model is \$1.56M, while the one procured by the *SI* model decreases by 3.2% to \$1.51M.

IV. CONCLUSION

This paper presented a *VVO* method for the *DN* in the presence of *EV* and *PV* systems. Utilizing *SIs* to connect *DERs* to the *DN* introduces grid service opportunities to the *DNs*. In this paper, the model of bidirectional *SIs* that can operate at different power factors is presented. Thus, the model of *DERs* (i.e., solar generation units and *EVs* in this paper) connected to these four quadrants *SIs* in the *VVO* problem is presented. The *VVO* problem is a non-convex optimization problem that is hard to solve. Thus, in this paper, the *SOCP* relaxation method is utilized to relax the bilinear terms in

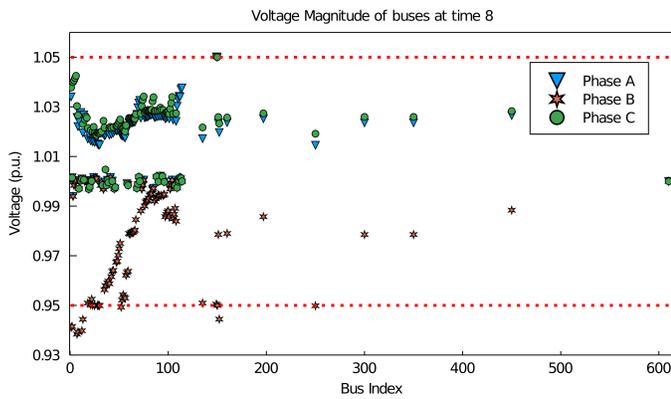


Fig. 13: The voltage profile of 123-bus system proposed by the *LI* model in under-voltage loading condition

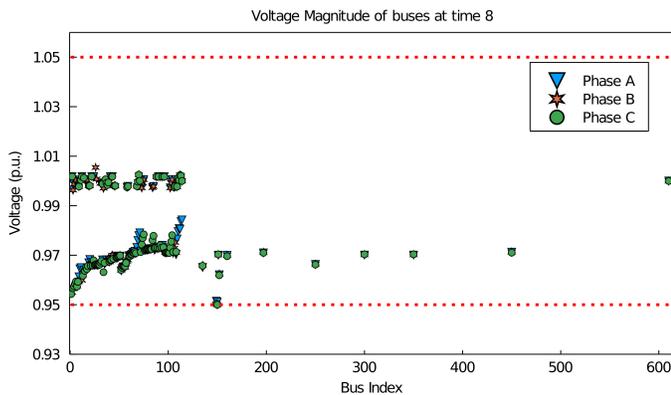


Fig. 14: The voltage profile of 123-bus system proposed by the proposed *SI* model in under-voltage loading condition

the power flow equations. Since the *DERs* connected to *SIs* might work in charging or discharging modes, the model of *DERs* connected to *SIs* based on the direction of their real and reactive power flow is proposed using a piece-wised linear P-Q characteristics model for *SIs*. The presented *VVO* method with *SIs* unleashes the grid services potential of *DERs* to increase the power quality in *DNs*. Also, the proposed *VVO* method increases the *DERs* dispatchability. However, the *SIs* utilize a portion of their input power to support the reactive power of *DNs*. Therefore, the operation cost of the *DN* will increase when *SIs* are utilized.

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