

Exploiting the Potential of Energy Hubs in Power Systems Regulation Services

Shahab Bahrami, *Member, IEEE* and Farrokh Aminifar, *Senior Member, IEEE*

Abstract—Smart grid infrastructures enable consumers with technologies such as electric vehicle and energy storage to participate in electric regulation services. Usually with such technologies, the implementation of large-scale regulation services confronts high interruption cost, uncertainties in availability, and batteries' degradation cost. This motivates us to explore an alternative solution by participating energy hubs with energy conversion technologies to adjust the conversion of natural gas into electricity if the electric grid calls for demand shaping and regulation services. To exploit the potential of energy hubs, we propose an auction for their participation in regulation services. The energy hubs' interaction in the auction is modeled as a non-cooperative game with coupling constraints. To study the existence and uniqueness of the generalized Nash equilibrium (GNE) for such a game, we show that it admits a best response potential function, whose global minimum corresponds to the GNE. We also design a distributed algorithm to achieve that equilibrium. Simulations are performed to illustrate the convergence properties and scalability of the proposed algorithm. Results show that if a participant becomes an energy hub, its profit increases by 60% on average. The electric system operator also benefits from 31% payment reduction to the participants.

Index Terms—Energy hub, regulation services, generalized Nash equilibrium, potential game, distributed algorithm.

I. INTRODUCTION

Addressing unforeseen supply-demand imbalance at short notice is of prominent importance to guarantee the stable operation of power grids. This goal can be achieved through procuring regulation services comprising a variety of control actions to maintain the grid's secure operation at the nominal frequency. Regulation services have conventionally been provided by generation facilities with automatic generation control (AGC) capability to adjust their output power. The recent advancement in smart grid facilities has promoted effective regulation services by electricity consumers adjusting their demand in response to an unexpected supply variation [1].

The evolving regulatory frameworks such as the recent orders issued by the United States (U.S.) Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (FERC) have opened ancillary services markets for new technologies [2]. This has motivated a recent rich body of literature on the participation of electricity consumers in regulation services programs. In [3]–[5], responsive

thermal loads such as heating, ventilation, and air-conditioners (HVACs) are suggested to be switched off when the frequency drops. Nevertheless, the consumers often experience a high interruption cost for curtailing their demand. To mitigate the high interruption cost, the application of electric vehicles (EVs) for regulation services has been studied by using different techniques such as stochastic optimization [6], robust control [7], game theory [8], and Markov decision process [9]. Using EVs, however, involves uncertainty in the arrival and departure times. To avoid these uncertainties, energy storage systems (ESSs) has been suggested for regulation services. To do so, different techniques such as robust optimization [10], convex optimization [11], and dynamic programming [12] have been used. Nonetheless, ESSs have strict constraints for their battery's cycle life cost and capacity degradation.

The low energy efficiency of the fossil fueled power plants have accelerated the proliferation of new high-efficiency energy conversion technologies such as combined heat and power (CHP) units in energy hub [13]. CHPs in energy hubs are equipped with micro turbine and gas furnace to convert natural gas into electricity locally, enabling them to adjust the conversion process of natural gas into electricity if the electric grid is in need of demand shaping. In other words, CHPs in energy hubs can decouple the electricity consumption at the customer-side from the electrical power provided by the power grid. Hence, an energy hub is able to change the amount of purchased electric power without a major effect on the customer side's power consumption. This unique flexibility can make energy hubs applicable source of regulation services with high availability and low customers' interruption cost.

A rich body of literature including [14]–[16] studied the load management for an energy hub with CHPs to address the operation scheduling problem in a demand response program for power systems. These studies, however, cannot be directly applied for regulation services as they did not mention how the proposed approaches can be extended to a system with multiple energy hubs. A main challenge in regulation services is to cope with the demand shaping of multiple participants. Several studies including [17]–[19] addressed the interaction of multiple energy hubs for energy management in an energy system to tackle the problem of steady state balancing the supply and demand. Nevertheless, addressing *unforeseen* supply-demand imbalance needs a proper mechanism to incentivize the participants for a *near real-time* demand shaping. The recent work in [20] has studied the participation of energy hubs in tertiary regulation services, where the reserves are traded for capacity and energy. This is a long-run optimization problem, which is formulated as a mixed-integer linear program.

Manuscript received June 1, 2018; revised November 10, 2018; accepted December 10, 2018.

S. Bahrami and F. Aminifar are with School of Electrical and Computer Engineering, College of Engineering, University of Tehran, Tehran, Iran (e-mail: bahramis@ut.ac.ir; faminifar@ut.ac.ir).

Color versions of one or more of the figures in this paper are available online at <http://ieeexplore.ieee.org>.

Digital Object Identifier .../TSG.2018...

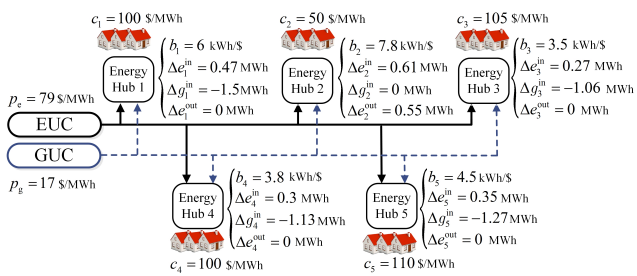


Fig. 2. The equilibrium of the energy market in the underlying auction-based regulation services program.

First we study the participation of the energy hubs in the proposed auction-based regulation services program. Fig. 2 shows the underlying energy network with five energy hubs in the GNE. The auction clearing price in the GNE is $p_e = 79$ \$/MWh. Different factors such as the marginal interruption cost c_n , the dispatch factor α_n , and the natural gas demand G_n^{in} affect the contribution of each energy hub in the regulation services program. For example, energy hub 2 has the largest Δe_n^{in} due to its low marginal interruption cost. Energy hub 1 has also a large contribution due its small initial dispatch factor. As expected, the energy hub with a larger contribution would submit a larger bid in the auction. We can observe that $\Delta g_n^{\text{in}} \leq 0$ for all energy hubs. Energy hub 1 has the highest $|\Delta g_n^{\text{in}}|$ due to its low dispatch factor. Furthermore for energy hub 2, we have $\Delta g_n^{\text{in}} = 0$, since $p_g \geq p_{g,2}^{\text{thr}}$ (condition C1). Energy hub 2 has the lowest interruption cost, and hence it does not prefer to pay to the GUC for converting natural gas into electricity. Instead, it prefers to interrupt its customer side's electricity consumption, i.e., $\Delta e_n^{\text{out}} = 0.55$ MWh. Other energy hubs have relatively high interruption costs, and thereby preferring to use their CHP technology for energy conversion. We can observe that $\Delta e_n^{\text{out}} = 0$ for energy hubs 1, 3, 4, and 5. This perfectly demonstrates the potential of energy hubs in a regulation services program, as they can actively participate in the program without affecting their customer side's electricity consumption habits.

We now study the convergence of Algorithm 1 to the GNE. Fig. 3(a) shows the convergence of the auction clearing price p_e from the initial value 120 \$/MWh to 79 \$/MWh in the GNE within 27 iterations. Fig. 3(b) shows the convergence of electrical load change Δe_n for the participating energy hubs. The initial value of Δe_n is zero for all energy hubs. The value of Δe_n is higher in the initial iterations, as the auction price is still large compared with the clearing price in the GNE. Fig. 3(c) shows the convergence of Δg_n^{in} . For hub 2, we have $\Delta g_n^{\text{in}} = 0$ in all iterations, as condition C1 is always satisfied for this energy hub. Fig. 3(d) shows the convergence of the submitted bids. A larger bid implies a larger market share. We can observe that energy hub 2 gains a larger market share gradually due its lowest interruption cost.

We study the impact of communication delay/interruption on the convergence of Algorithm 1 to the GNE. We consider four scenarios: In Scenario 1, no delay or interruption is occurred. In Scenario 2, energy hubs 1, 2, and 3 experience an interruption in their communication link from iteration 4 to 20.

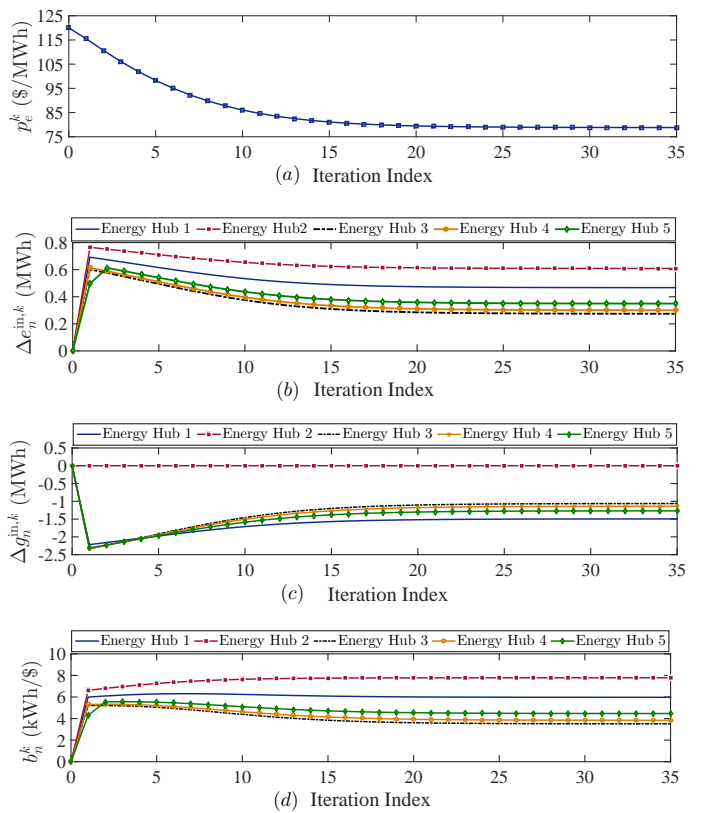


Fig. 3. Convergence of (a) market price; (b) electrical load change; (c) natural gas load change; and (d) submitted bids to the GNE of Game 1.

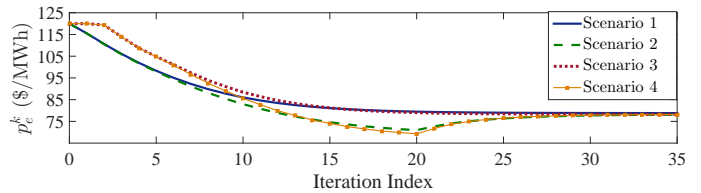


Fig. 4. The impact of communication delay and interruption on the convergence of Algorithm 1 to the GNE.

In Scenario 3, energy hubs 4 and 52 experience a delay in their communication link and update their bids in every 2 iterations; and Scenario 4 is the combination of the second and third scenarios. Fig. 4 depicts that in all aforementioned scenarios, the clearing market price converges to a same value in the unique GNE though the convergence rate changes. This shows that the GNE is asymptotically stable and the convergence of Algorithm 1 is independent to the initial conditions.

Next we study the profit of the energy hubs and the total payment of the EUC to the energy hubs in the GNE. We consider three scenarios. In Scenario 1, the energy hubs do not convert gas to electricity. In Scenario 2, energy hub 1 uses its ability to convert gas to electricity, but other energy hubs do not convert natural gas to electricity. In Scenario 3, all energy hubs use their ability to convert gas to electricity. Fig 5(a) shows that in Scenario 1, energy hub 2 gains the highest profit due to its lowest marginal interruption cost. When energy hub 1 uses CHP technology in the second scenario, it can get a larger market share to increase its profit. When energy hubs

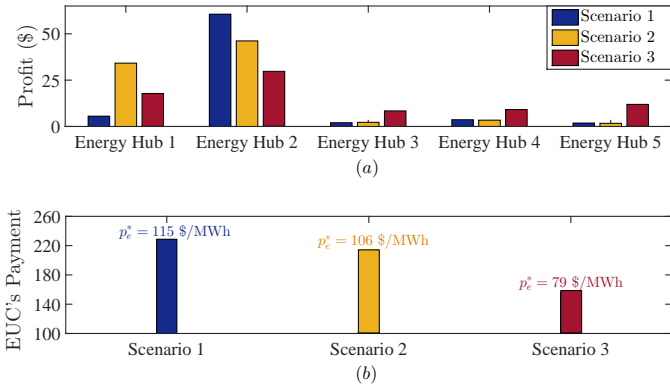


Fig. 5. (a) Profit of the energy hubs; and (b) payment of the EUC.

3, 4, and 5 also use CHP in the third scenario, they can increase their market share, and thus their profit (by about 60%). Results for all five energy hubs show that using the CHP enables them to avoid a large interruption cost and increase their profit by about 7.6% compared to Scenario 1.

Fig 5(b) shows the EUC's payment in the mentioned three scenarios. The market clearing price is 115 \$/MWh and 79 \$/MWh in Scenarios 1 and 3, respectively. That is, the EUC's payment to the participating consumers is about 31% lower when energy hubs convert natural gas to electricity in the third scenario. This shows the advantage of using energy conversion technologies in the regulation services programs. The CHP technology enables the energy hubs' active participation with lower bids through converting natural gas to electricity. Scenario 2 demonstrates that if energy hub 1 deploys the CHP technology, then it can damp the market by reducing the market clearing price from 115 to 106 \$/MWh. This scenario shows the fact that even if the EUC motivates one energy hub to participate in the ancillary services market, then its payment will be reduced. Other participants are also motivated to deploy the CHP; they will otherwise lose the market share to their competitors with CHP technology.

Now we study the impact of power network constraints on the auction results. Suppose that the energy hubs are located in an IEEE 37-bus test feeder, as shown in Fig. 6(a). The limits for the bus voltage are set to 0.95 pu and 1.05 pu. The line flow limit is set to 1.05 pu. The initial operating conditions are shown in Fig. 6(a). Figs. 6(b) and (c) show the auction clearing price and the energy hubs contributions to curtail 2 MW of electric demand. Energy hubs 2 and 3 are located in buses with low voltage magnitudes. Thus, they cannot reduce their demand too much due to constraint (8a). In particular, when the network constraints are taken into account, the auction price increases from 79 \$/MWh to 90 \$/MWh (i.e., the DNO pays more to the participants). Also, the contributions of energy hubs 2 and 3 decrease in the regulation services. That is, the network constraints force a new operating condition in the regulation services that might limit high-potential participants (e.g., energy hub 2) not to schedule their demand as much as they can.

We study the scalability of Algorithm 1 by considering test systems with 37, 123, and 8500 buses [30] with different

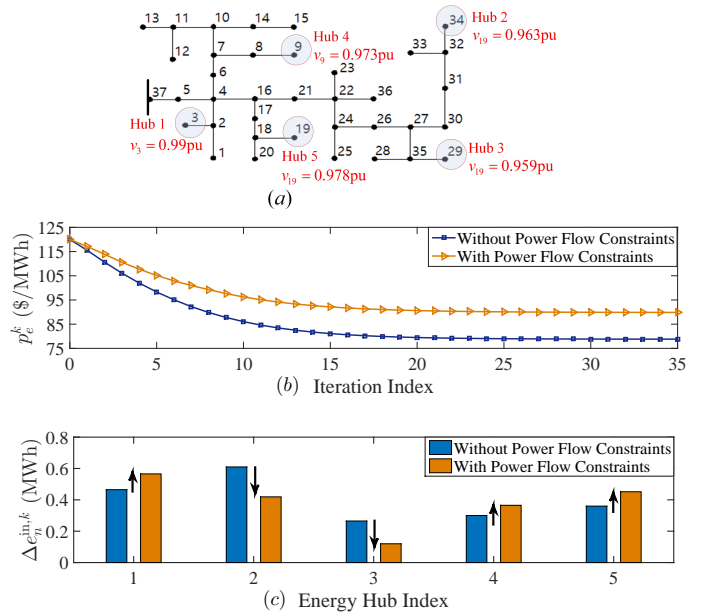


Fig. 6. (a) Energy hubs' locations in the distribution feeder; (b) auction clearing price; and (c) contributions of each energy hub, with and without considering power flow constraints.

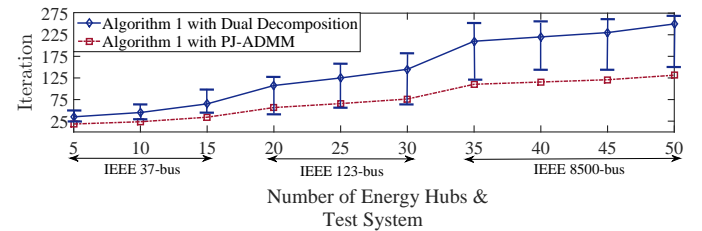


Fig. 7. Required number of iterations for convergence to the GNE.

number of energy hubs. The characteristics of the energy hubs are randomly chosen to be similar to our simulation setup. Fig. 7 depicts the required number of iterations for convergence to the GNE. For 100 random initial conditions, the minimum and maximum number of iterations are shown, which are even in large test systems. We also apply the approach in [27, Algorithm 4] and [28, Sec. IV.B] to enhance the convergence rate of Algorithm 1. We can observe that PJ-ADMM can reduce the average number of iterations by about 40%. Usually, in practical energy markets, the number of energy hubs is not too large. Thus, Algorithm 1 has a potential to be used in practice. In all scenarios, the running time per iteration is less than 0.5 seconds thanks to the closed form update rules in (28)–(33), which do not depend on the network scale and number of energy hubs. In other words, the number of iterations for convergence is the bottleneck for the algorithm's aggregate running time.

Finally, we compare performance of the proposed auction mechanism with existing demand response algorithms (e.g., [17]–[20]). We consider an optimization problem with the objective function $\sum_{n \in \mathcal{N}} \mathcal{I}_n(\Delta e_n^{\text{out}}) - p_g \Delta g_i^{\text{in}}$ and constraints (4), (5), (8a), and (8b), as well as the constraint $\sum_{n \in \mathcal{N}} \Delta e_n^{\text{in}} = D$. We focus on the profit of energy hubs in the GNE of Game 1 and the underlying demand response framework in Fig. 8. Two facts can be observed. i) Energy hubs 3, 4, and

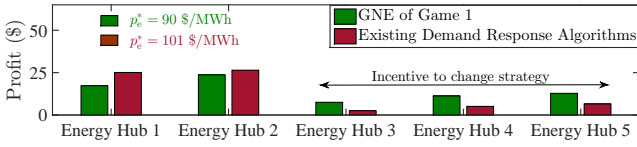


Fig. 8. Energy hubs' profit in the GNE of Game 1 and minimum social cost.

5 have lower profit in the underlying demand response framework. They have incentive to change their strategy unilaterally to increase their own profit. In the GNE, however, the energy hubs are satisfied with their profit and do not have incentive to change their strategy unilaterally, i.e., the GNE is *stable*. *ii*) As shown in Fig. 8, the market clearing price p_e^* (i.e., the dual variable associated with constraint $\sum_{n \in \mathcal{N}} \Delta e_n^{\text{in}} = D$) is lower in the GNE. The reason is that in our framework, the energy hubs are allowed to submit bids considering their interruption costs. But when the EUC minimizes the social cost, all energy hubs should be satisfied; thereby the clearing price is largely biased by the participants with higher interruption costs.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we studied the potential of energy hubs for power systems regulation services. We considered the scenario of electric supply shortage and showed that energy hubs can effectively adjust energy conversion process to reduce their input electric power without a major effect on the customer side's electric power consumption. We proposed a bidding mechanism and modeled the interaction among energy hubs as a non-cooperative game with coupling constraints. We prove the existence of the GNE in such a game by constructing a best response potential function, whose global minimum corresponds to the GNE. We also developed a distributed algorithm to reach the GNE. Simulation results showed that the proposed algorithm converges to the GNE in a reasonable number of iterations even with interruption in the communication network. If all participants use CHP technology, they can take advantage of 7.6% increase in their profit on average. Meanwhile, the EUC can reduce its payment by 31% by motivating energy hubs to participate in the regulation program. For future work, we plan to extend our proposed algorithm by considering the energy hubs' interaction in capacity markets.

APPENDIX A PROOF OF THEOREM 1

We prove the result by contradiction. Suppose that for a system with two energy hubs, there exists a GNE for Game 1. From the optimality conditions (16), (19), and (22), we conclude that $b_n^* < B_{-n}^*$, $n \in \mathcal{N}$. Specifically, if $b_n^* \geq B_{-n}^*$ for energy hub n , then we have $\frac{\partial \mathcal{C}_n(b_n^*, \mathbf{x}_{-n}^*)}{\partial b_n^*} > 0$. That is, energy hub n has an incentive to decrease its bid b_n^* , which contradicts with the definition of the GNE. Consequently, from (10), we obtain $\Delta e_n^{\text{in}}(\mathbf{b}^*) = \frac{D b_n^*}{b_n^* + B_{-n}^*} < \frac{D}{2}$. Thus, for a system with $N = 2$ energy hubs, we have $\sum_{n \in \mathcal{N}} \Delta e_n^{\text{in}}(\mathbf{b}^*) < D$, which contradicts with the power balance. We conclude that the GNE does not exist. The proof is completed. ■

APPENDIX B PROOF OF THEOREM 2

The proof involves the following two steps:

Step a) Considering $\Delta e_n^{\text{in}}(\mathbf{b}) = \frac{D b_n}{b_n + B_{-n}}$, the conditions for (26a)–(26c) correspond to the conditions C1, C2, and C3 for Cases 1, 2, and 3 in Section III-A, respectively. $\Delta g_n^{*,\text{in}} = 0$ is the optimal point for (26a) which also corresponds to (14). $\Delta g_n^{*,\text{in}} = -\eta_n \Delta e_n^{*,\text{in}}$ is the optimal point for (26b) which also corresponds to (17). $\Delta g_n^{*,\text{in}} = -\Delta g_n^{\text{min}}$ is the optimal point for (26c) which also corresponds to (20).

Step b) Next we show that the optimality condition for Δe_n^{in} , $n \in \mathcal{N}$ in Game 2 is equivalent to the optimality conditions (16), (19), and (22) for b_n , $n \in \mathcal{N}$ in Game 1.

Consider (16) and (22). By exchanging the denominator of the first term and the nominator of the second term, we can rewrite the optimality conditions (16) and (22) as follows:

$$\left(\frac{c_n \eta_{\Gamma, n} B_{-n}^*}{B_{-n}^* - b_n^*} - \frac{D}{B_{-n}^* + b_n^*} \right) (b_n - b_n^*) \geq 0, \quad (34)$$

and for all feasible b_n :

$$\left(\frac{p_g \eta_{\Gamma, n} B_{-n}^*}{B_{-n}^* - b_n^*} - \frac{D}{B_{-n}^* + b_n^*} \right) (b_n - b_n^*) \geq 0. \quad (35)$$

It enables us to express the optimality condition (16) and (22) in terms of $\Delta e_n^{*,\text{in}}$. By substituting $\Delta e_n^{*,\text{in}} = \frac{D b_n^*}{B_{-n}^* + b_n^*}$ and $p_e^* = \frac{D}{B_{-n}^* + b_n^*}$ into (34), for all feasible b_n , we obtain

$$\left(c_n \eta_{\Gamma, n} \frac{D - \Delta e_n^{*,\text{in}}}{D - 2\Delta e_n^{*,\text{in}}} - p_e^* \right) (p_e^* b_n - \Delta e_n^{*,\text{in}}) \geq 0. \quad (36)$$

Similarly, the optimality condition (35) is equivalent to

$$\left(p_g \eta_{\Gamma, n} \frac{D - \Delta e_n^{*,\text{in}}}{D - 2\Delta e_n^{*,\text{in}}} - p_e^* \right) (p_e^* b_n - \Delta e_n^{*,\text{in}}) \geq 0. \quad (37)$$

Now we study the optimality conditions for Δe_n^{in} in Game 2. Let \mathbf{y}^* denote the optimal point of potential function $\Phi(\mathbf{y})$. Let λ^* denote the dual variable for constraint $\sum_{n \in \mathcal{N}} \Delta e_n^{\text{in}} = D$ in the optimal point of $\Phi(\mathbf{y})$. The derivative of $\frac{\Delta e_n^{\text{in}}}{2} - \frac{\lambda}{4} \ln(D - 2\Delta e_n^{\text{in}})$ w.r.t. Δe_n^{in} is $\frac{D - \Delta e_n^{\text{in}}}{D - 2\Delta e_n^{\text{in}}}$. Thus, the optimality condition for Δe_n^{in} in (26a) (and (26c)) is obtained as

$$\left(c_n \eta_{\Gamma, n} \frac{D - \Delta e_n^{*,\text{in}}}{D - 2\Delta e_n^{*,\text{in}}} - \lambda^* \right) (\Delta e_n^{\text{in}} - \Delta e_n^{*,\text{in}}) \geq 0, \quad (38)$$

which is the same as (36) by setting $\lambda^* = p_e^*$. In a similar manner, the optimality condition for $\varphi_n(\mathbf{y}_n)$ in (26b) after substituting $\Delta g_n^{*,\text{in}} = -\eta_n \Delta e_n^{*,\text{in}}$ is as

$$\left(p_g \eta_{\Gamma, n} \frac{D - \Delta e_n^{*,\text{in}}}{D - 2\Delta e_n^{*,\text{in}}} - \lambda^* \right) (\Delta e_n^{\text{in}} - \Delta e_n^{*,\text{in}}) \geq 0, \quad (39)$$

which is the same as (37) by setting $\lambda^* = p_e^*$. That is, we have a one-to-one mapping between $\Delta e_n^{*,\text{in}}$ and b_n^* .

We can conclude that Game 1 is a best response potential game, and the potential function is given in (23). ■

APPENDIX C PROOF OF THEOREM 3

The GNE of Game 1 is the fixed point of the best response strategies of energy hubs. According to Theorem 2, Game 1 is

a best response potential game. Hence, the fixed point of the best response of the energy hubs in Game 1 corresponds to global optimal point of the potential function $\Phi(\mathbf{y})$ in (23) over the feasible space \mathcal{Y} defined by constraints $0 \leq \Delta e_n^{\text{in}} < \frac{D}{2}$, $\Delta g_n^{\text{in}} \leq 0$, $n \in \mathcal{N}$, $\sum_{n \in \mathcal{N}} \Delta e_n^{\text{in}} = D$, and the power flow constraints (8a) and (8b). If this feasible space is non-empty when $N \geq 3$, then, the global optimal point of $\Phi(\mathbf{y})$ exists, and thereby Game 1 has at least one GNE.

Next we show that the potential function $\Phi(\mathbf{y})$ in (23) is strictly convex. It is sufficient to show that function $\varphi_n(\mathbf{y}_n)$ defined in (28a)–(28c) is strictly convex in $\mathbf{y}_n = (\Delta e_n^{\text{in}}, \Delta g_n^{\text{in}})$. The second derivative of $\frac{\Delta e_n^{\text{in}}}{2} - \frac{D}{4} \ln(D - 2\Delta e_n^{\text{in}})$ with respect to Δe_n^{in} is $\frac{D}{(D - 2\Delta e_n^{\text{in}})^2}$, which is positive and continuous for $\Delta e_n^{\text{in}} < D/2$. That is, function $\frac{\Delta e_n^{\text{in}}}{2} - \frac{D}{4} \ln(D - 2\Delta e_n^{\text{in}})$ is strictly convex. Other terms in (28a)–(28c) are quadratic functions of \mathbf{y}_n , $n \in \mathcal{N}$. Hence, function $\varphi_n(\mathbf{y}_n)$ is strictly convex in $\mathbf{y}_n = (\Delta e_n^{\text{in}}, \Delta g_n^{\text{in}})$.

The feasible space is also a convex polyhedron, and thus, the potential function has a unique global minimum corresponding to the unique GNE of Game 1. ■

REFERENCES

- [1] H. Bevrani, *Robust Power System Frequency Control*, 2nd ed. Switzerland: Springer, 2014.
- [2] U.S. Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (FERC), “Frequency regulation compensation in organized wholesale power markets,” *Washington, DC, FERC 755, Dockets RM11-7-000 AD10-11-000*, Oct. 2011.
- [3] Z. Xu, J. Ostergaard, and M. Togeby, “Demand as frequency controlled reserve,” *IEEE Trans. on Power Syst.*, vol. 26, no. 3, pp. 1062–1071, Aug. 2011.
- [4] A. Molina-Garcia, F. Bouffard, and D. S. Kirschen, “Decentralized demand-side contribution to primary frequency control,” *IEEE Trans. on Power Syst.*, vol. 26, no. 1, pp. 411–419, Feb. 2011.
- [5] M. R. V. Moghadam, R. T. B. Ma, and R. Zhang, “Distributed frequency control in smart grids via randomized demand response,” *IEEE Trans. on Smart Grid*, vol. 5, no. 6, pp. 2798–2809, Nov. 2014.
- [6] J. Donadee and M. D. Ilić, “Stochastic optimization of grid to vehicle frequency regulation capacity bids,” *IEEE Trans. on Smart Grid*, vol. 5, no. 2, pp. 1061–1069, Mar. 2014.
- [7] E. Yao, V. W. S. Wong, and R. Schober, “Robust frequency regulation capacity scheduling algorithm for electric vehicles,” *IEEE Trans. on Smart Grid*, vol. 8, no. 2, pp. 984–997, Mar. 2017.
- [8] J. Tan and L. Wang, “A game-theoretic framework for vehicle-to-grid frequency regulation considering smart charging mechanism,” *IEEE Trans. on Smart Grid*, vol. 8, no. 5, pp. 2358–2369, Sept. 2017.
- [9] N. Zou, L. Qian, and H. Li, “Auxiliary frequency and voltage regulation in microgrid via intelligent electric vehicle charging,” in *Proc. of IEEE SmartGridComm*, Venice, Italy, Nov. 2014.
- [10] G. He, Q. Chen, C. Kang, Q. Xia, and K. Poolla, “Cooperation of wind power and battery storage to provide frequency regulation in power markets,” *IEEE Trans. on Power Syst.*, vol. 32, no. 5, pp. 984–997, Sept. 2017.
- [11] Y. Sun, S. Bahrami, V.W.S. Wong, and L. Lampe, “Application of energy storage syst. for frequency regulation service,” in *Proc. of IEEE SmartGridComm*, Dresden, Germany, Oct. 2017.
- [12] B. Cheng and W. Powell, “Co-optimizing battery storage for the frequency regulation and energy arbitrage using multi-scale dynamic programming,” to be published in *IEEE Trans. on Smart Grid*, 2016.
- [13] M. Geidl and G. Andersson, “Optimal power flow of multiple energy carriers,” *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 22, pp. 145–155, Feb. 2007.
- [14] M. Rastegar, M. Fotuhi-Firuzabad, and M. Lehtonen, “Home load management in a residential energy hub,” *Electr. Power Syst. Res.*, vol. 119, pp. 322–328, Feb. 2015.
- [15] X. Zhang, M. Shahidehpour, A. Alabdulwahab, and A. Abusorrah, “Optimal expansion planning of energy hub with multiple energy infrastructures,” *IEEE Trans. Smart Grid*, vol. 6, no. 5, pp. 2302–2311, Sep. 2015.
- [16] M. C. Bozchalui, S. A. Hashmi, H. Hassen, C. A. Canizares, and K. Bhattacharya, “Optimal operation of residential energy hubs in smart grids,” *IEEE Trans. Smart Grid*, vol. 3, no. 4, pp. 1755–1766, Dec. 2012.
- [17] S. Bahrami and A. Sheikhi, “From demand response in smart grid toward integrated demand response in smart energy hub,” *IEEE Trans. on Smart Grid*, vol. 7, no. 2, pp. 650–658, Mar. 2016.
- [18] M. Moeini-Aghaie, A. Abbaspour, M. Fotuhi-Firuzabad, and E. Hajipour, “A decomposed solution to multiple-energy carriers optimal power flow,” *IEEE Trans. on Power Systems*, vol. 29, no. 2, pp. 707–716, Mar. 2014.
- [19] C. Shao, X. Wang, M. Shahidehpour, X. Wang, and B. Wang, “An MILP-based optimal power flow in multicarrier energy systems,” *IEEE Trans. on Sustainable Energy*, vol. 8, no. 1, pp. 239–248, Jan. 2017.
- [20] F. R. Tsaousi, “The Influence of Participation in Ancillary Service Markets on Optimal Energy Hub Operation,” Master’s thesis, Swiss Federal Institute of Technology, Zurich, 2017.
- [21] N. Li, L. Chen, and M. A. Dahleh, “Demand response using linear supply function bidding,” *IEEE Trans. on Smart Grid*, vol. 6, no. 4, pp. 1827–1838, Jul. 2015.
- [22] D. Dorsch, H. T. Jongen, and V. Shikhman, “On structure and computation of generalized Nash equilibria,” *SIAM Journal on Optimization*, vol. 23, no. 1, pp. 452–474, Feb. 2013.
- [23] D. Monderer and L. S. Shapley, “Potential games,” *Games and Economic Behavior*, vol. 14, no. 1, pp. 3124–3143, May 1996.
- [24] S. Bolognani and S. Zampieri, “On the existence and linear approximation of the power flow solution in power distribution networks,” *IEEE Trans. on Power Systems*, vol. 31, no. 1, pp. 163–172, Jan. 2016.
- [25] R. Johari and J. N. Tsitsiklis, “Energy hubs for the future,” *Operations Research*, vol. 59, no. 5, pp. 1079–1089, Oct. 2011.
- [26] D. P. Bertsekas and J. N. Tsitsiklis, *Parallel and Distributed Computation: Numerical Methods*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1989.
- [27] S. Boyd, N. Parikh, E. Chu, B. Peleato, and J. Eckstein, “Distributed optimization and statistical learning via the alternating direction method of multipliers,” *Found. Trends Mach. Learn.*, vol. 3, no. 1, pp. 1–122, Jan. 2011.
- [28] S. Bahrami, M. H. Amini, M. Shafie-Khah, and J. P. S. Catalão, “A decentralized renewable generation management and demand response in power distribution networks,” *IEEE Trans. on Sustainable Energy*, vol. 9, no. 4, pp. 1783–1797, Oct. 2018.
- [29] U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). [Online]. Available: <http://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-07/documents/catalog-of-chp-technologies.pdf>
- [30] [Online]. Available: <https://ewh.ieee.org/soc/pes/dsacom/testfeeders/>