

# Energy Systems, Summer Semester 2022 Lecture 10: Complex Markets

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# **Optimisation Revision**

# **Optimisation problem**



We have an **objective function**  $f : \mathbb{R}^k \to \mathbb{R}$ 

 $\max_{x} f(x)$ 

 $[x = (x_1, \dots, x_k)]$  subject to some **constraints** within  $\mathbb{R}^k$ :

$$g_i(x) = c_i \qquad \leftrightarrow \qquad \lambda_i \qquad i = 1, \dots n$$
  
 $h_j(x) \le d_j \qquad \leftrightarrow \qquad \mu_j \qquad j = 1, \dots m$ 

 $\lambda_i$  and  $\mu_j$  are the **KKT multipliers** we introduce for each constraint equation; they measure the change in the objective value of the optimal solution obtained by relaxing the constraints (for this reason they are also called **shadow prices**).

## **KKT conditions**



The Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (KKT) conditions are necessary conditions that an optimal solution  $x^*, \mu^*, \lambda^*$  always satisfies (up to some regularity conditions):

1. Stationarity: For  $l = 1, \ldots k$ 

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial x_l} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_l} - \sum_i \lambda_i^* \frac{\partial g_i}{\partial x_l} - \sum_j \mu_j^* \frac{\partial h_j}{\partial x_l} = 0$$

2. Primal feasibility:

$$g_i(x^*) = c_i$$
  
 $h_j(x^*) \le d_j$ 

- 3. **Dual feasibility**:  $\mu_j^* \ge 0$
- 4. Complementary slackness:  $\mu_j^*(h_j(x^*) d_j) = 0$

# min/max and signs



If the problem is a **maximisation** problem (e.g. welfare maximisation), then  $\mu_j^* \ge 0$  since  $\mu_j = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial d_j}$  and if we increase  $d_j$  in the constraint  $h_j(x) \le d_j$ , then the feasible space can only get bigger. Since if  $X \subseteq X'$ 

$$\max_{x\in X} f(x) \le \max_{x\in X'} f(x)$$

then the objective value at the optimum point can only get bigger, and thus  $\mu_j^* \ge 0$ . (If  $d_j \to \infty$  then the constraint is no longer binding, if  $d_j \to -\infty$  then the feasible space vanishes.)

If however the problem is a minimisation problem (e.g. cost minimisation) then we can use

$$\min_{x \in X} f(x) = -\max_{x \in X} \left[ -f(x) \right]$$

We can keep our definition of the Lagrangian and almost all the KKT conditions, but we have a change of sign  $\mu_i^* \leq 0$ , since

$$\min_{x\in X} f(x) \ge \min_{x\in X'} f(x)$$

The  $\lambda_i^*$  also change sign.

# Welfare maximisation revision

# KKT and Welfare Maximisation 1/2



Apply KKT now to maximisation of total economic welfare:

$$\max_{\{d_b\},\{g_s\}} f(\{d_b\},\{g_s\}) = \left[\sum_b U_b(d_b) - \sum_s C_s(g_s)\right]$$

subject to the balance constraint:

$$g(\{d_b\},\{g_s\}) = \sum_b d_b - \sum_s g_s = 0 \qquad \leftrightarrow \qquad \lambda$$

and any other constraints (e.g. limits on generator capacity, etc.).

Our optimisation variables are  $\{x\} = \{d_b\} \cup \{g_s\}$ .

We get from KKT stationarity at the optimal point:

$$0 = \frac{\partial f}{\partial d_b} - \sum_b \lambda^* \frac{\partial g}{\partial d_b} = U'_b(d^*_b) - \lambda^* = 0$$
$$0 = \frac{\partial f}{\partial g_s} - \sum_s \lambda^* \frac{\partial g}{\partial g_s} = -C'_s(g^*_s) + \lambda^* = 0$$



So at the optimal point of maximal total economic welfare we get the same result as if everyone maximises their own welfare separately based on the price  $\lambda^*$ :

 $egin{aligned} U_b'(d_b^*) &= \lambda^* \ C_s'(g_s^*) &= \lambda^* \end{aligned}$ 

This is the CENTRAL result of microeconomics.

If we have further inequality constraints that are binding (e.g. capacity constraints), then these equations will receive additions with  $\mu_i^* > 0$ .

Optimise Single Node with Linear Generation Costs and Demand Utility

# Simplified world: linear generation costs, linear demand utility



We will now turn to a simpler world: all the generator cost functions are linear

$$C_s(g_s) = o_s g_s$$

and each generator has limited output  $0 \le g_s \le G_s$ . The marginal cost function is a constant  $C_s'(g_s) = o_s$ .

The quantity  $G_s$  and marginal cost  $o_s$  define a **supply offer**.

All the consumer utility functions are also linear

$$U_b(d_b) = v_b d_b$$

and each consumer has limited consumption  $0 \le d_b \le D_b$ . The marginal utility function is a constant  $U'_b(d_b) = v_b$ .

The quantity  $D_b$  and marginal utility  $v_b$  define a **demand bid**.

# Supply-demand linear example: generator offers



Example from Kirschen and Strbac pages 56-58.

The following generators offer into the market for the hour between 0900 and 1000 on 20th April 2016:

| Company | Quantity [MW] | Marginal cost [ $MWh$ ] |
|---------|---------------|-------------------------|
| Red     | 200           | 12                      |
| Red     | 50            | 15                      |
| Red     | 150           | 20                      |
| Green   | 150           | 16                      |
| Green   | 50            | 17                      |
| Blue    | 100           | 13                      |
| Blue    | 50            | 18                      |



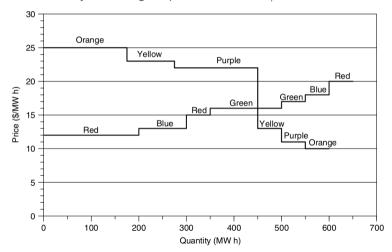
The following consumers make bids for the same period:

| Company | Quantity [MW] | Marginal utility [\$/MWh] |
|---------|---------------|---------------------------|
| Yellow  | 50            | 13                        |
| Yellow  | 100           | 23                        |
| Purple  | 50            | 11                        |
| Purple  | 150           | 22                        |
| Orange  | 50            | 10                        |
| Orange  | 200           | 25                        |

# Supply-demand example: Curve



If the bids and offers are stacked up in order, the supply and demand curves meet with a demand of 450 MW at a system marginal price of  $\lambda^* = 16$  \$/MWh.



10 Source: Kirschen & Strbac

# Supply-demand example: Revenue and Expenses



Dispatch and revenue/expense of each company:

| Company | Production<br>[MWh] | Consumption<br>[MWh] | Revenue<br>[\$] | Expense<br>[\$] |
|---------|---------------------|----------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Red     | 250                 |                      | 4000            |                 |
| Blue    | 100                 |                      | 1600            |                 |
| Green   | 100                 |                      | 1600            |                 |
| Orange  |                     | 200                  |                 | 3200            |
| Yellow  |                     | 100                  |                 | 1600            |
| Purple  |                     | 150                  |                 | 2400            |
| Total   | 450                 | 450                  | 7200            | 7200            |



For the analysis of the KKT equations, we will simplify even further.

We consider a single demand bid of volume D so that the demand does not respond to price changes (i.e. the demand is **perfectly inelastic**) up to a very high marginal utility  $v >> o_s \forall s$ , i.e.

$$U(d) = vd$$

for  $d \leq D$ .

v is sometimes called the Value Of Lost Load (VOLL).

# Simplify representation of consumers and generators



In this case we get for our welfare maximisation:

$$\max_{d,\{g_s\}}\left[vd-\sum_s o_s g_s\right]$$

subject to:

$$egin{array}{lll} d-\sum_{s}g_{s}=0 & \leftrightarrow & \lambda \ & d\leq D & \leftrightarrow & \mu \ & g_{s}\leq G_{s} & \leftrightarrow & ar{\mu}_{s} \ & -g_{s}\leq 0 & \leftrightarrow & \mu_{s} \end{array}$$



Suppose all generators have the same marginal cost o and we represent their total dispatch by g and total capacity by  ${\cal G}$ 

$$\max_{d,g} [vd - og]$$

such that:



If D < G then since v >> o, it will be always be welfare-maximising to dispatch to satisfy the load, i.e.

$$g^* = d^* = D$$

If the demand is non-zero then since  $g^* > 0$  by complementarity we have  $\mu^* = 0$ . Since D < G then  $g^* < G$  and by complementarity we have  $\bar{\mu}^* = 0$ . To compute  $\lambda^*$  we use stationarity:

$$0 = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial g} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial g} - \sum_{i} \lambda_{i}^{*} \frac{\partial g_{i}}{\partial g} - \sum_{j} \mu_{j}^{*} \frac{\partial h_{j}}{\partial g} = -o + \lambda^{*} - \bar{\mu}^{*} + \underline{\mu}^{*}$$

Thus  $\lambda^* = o$ , which is the cost per unit of supplying extra demand. The generator sets the price. There is no generator short-term profit and a large consumer surplus.

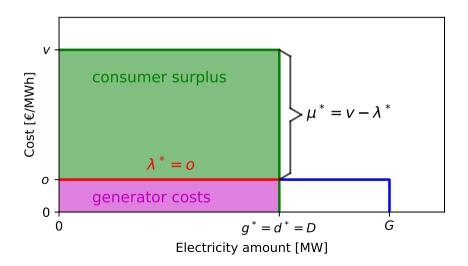
For the load  $\mu^*$  can be non-zero because  $d^* = D$ :

$$0 = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial d} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial d} - \sum_{i} \lambda_{i}^{*} \frac{\partial g_{i}}{\partial d} - \sum_{j} \mu_{j}^{*} \frac{\partial h_{j}}{\partial d} = v - \lambda^{*} - \mu^{*}$$

 $\mu^* = \mathbf{v} - \lambda^*$  is the marginal benefit of each increase in demand.



For the case D < G:





If D > G then the generator will dispatch up to its maximum capacity

$$g^* = d^* = G$$

For its lower limit we have  $\underline{\mu}^*=\mathbf{0}.$  From stationarity:

$$0 = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial g} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial g} - \sum_{i} \lambda_{i}^{*} \frac{\partial g_{i}}{\partial g} - \sum_{j} \mu_{j}^{*} \frac{\partial h_{j}}{\partial g} = -o + \lambda^{*} - \bar{\mu}^{*} + \underline{\mu}^{*}$$

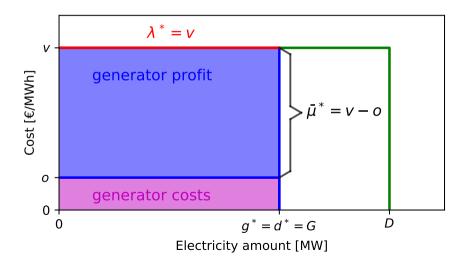
Thus  $\lambda^* = o + \overline{\mu}^*$ . To find  $\lambda^*$  we have to look at the demand:

$$0 = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial d} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial d} - \sum_{i} \lambda_{i}^{*} \frac{\partial g_{i}}{\partial d} - \sum_{j} \mu_{j}^{*} \frac{\partial h_{j}}{\partial d} = \mathbf{v} - \lambda^{*} - \mu^{*}$$

Since  $d^* < D$ ,  $\mu^* = 0$ ,  $\lambda^* = v$  and thus  $\bar{\mu}^* = v - o$ , which is the marginal benefit of increasing the generator capacity *G*. The **demand sets the price**. There is no consumer surplus and the generator makes a large profit.  $\bar{\mu}^*$  is the **inframarginal rent**, i.e. the difference between the market price and the generator's marginal cost. It is also know as the **contribution margin** towards paying the fixed costs of the generator.



For the case D > G:



#### Next simplest example: several generators, fixed demand



Suppose we have several generators with dispatch  $g_s$  and strictly ordered operating costs  $o_s$  such that  $o_s < o_{s+1}$ . We now maximise

$$\max_{\{d,g_s\}} \left[ vd - \sum_s o_s g_s \right]$$

such that

#### Next simplest example: several generators, fixed demand



Stationarity gives us for each generator  $g_s$ :

$$0=rac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial g_s}=-o_s+\lambda^*-ar{\mu}^*_s+ar{\mu}^*_s$$

and from complementarity we get

$$ar{\mu}_s(g^*_s-G_s)=0 \qquad \qquad \underline{\mu}_s g^*_s=0$$

We can see by inspection that we will dispatch the cheapest generation first. Suppose that we have enough generation for the demand, i.e.  $D < \sum_s G_s$ . [If  $D > \sum_s G_s$  we have the same situation as for a single generator, i.e.  $\lambda^* = v$ , so that the demand sets the price.]

Find the generator m on the margin where the supply curve intersects with the demand D, i.e. the m where  $\sum_{s=1}^{m-1} G_s < D < \sum_{s=1}^{m} G_s$ .

For  $s \le m-1$  we have  $g_s^* = G_s$ ,  $\underline{\mu}_s^* = 0$ ,  $\bar{\mu}_s^* = \lambda^* - o_s$ .  $\bar{\mu}_s^*$  are the inframarginal rents.

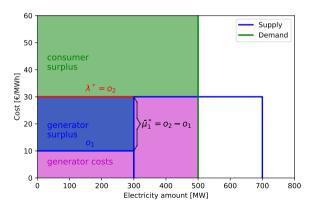
For s = m we have  $g_m^* = D - \sum_{s=1}^{m-1} G_s$  to cover what's left of the demand. Since  $0 < g_m^* < G_m$  we have  $\underline{\mu}_m^* = \overline{\mu}_m^* = 0$  and thus  $\lambda^* = o_m$ .

#### Next simplest example: several generators, fixed demand



Specific example of two generators with  $G_1 = 300$  MW,  $G_2 = 400$  MW,  $o_1 = 10 \in /MWh$ ,  $o_2 = 30 \in /MWh$  and D = 500 MW.

In this case m = 2,  $g_1^* = G_1 = 300$  MW,  $g_2^* = d - G_1 = 200$  MW,  $\lambda^* = o_2$ ,  $\mu_i = 0$ ,  $\bar{\mu}_2 = 0$  and  $\bar{\mu}_1 = o_2 - o_1$ .



#### From welfare maximisation to cost minimisation



For the case  $D > \sum_s G_s$  we can instead imagine that the demand is rigidly fixed to D and that instead we have a dummy generator with dispatch  $g_d = D - \sum_s G_s$  that represents load shedding. In this case we can substitute  $d = D - g_d$  to get

$$\max_{g_d,g_s\}} \left[ vD - vg_d - \sum_s o_s g_s \right]$$

such that

$$egin{aligned} \mathcal{D} - g_d - \sum_s g_s &= 0 & \leftrightarrow & \lambda \ g_s &\leq G_s & \leftrightarrow & ar{\mu}_s \ -g_s &\leq 0 & \leftrightarrow & \mu_s \end{aligned}$$

Since vD is a constant, we can use  $\max_{x \in X} [-f(x)] = -\min_{x \in X} f(x)$  to recast this as a minimisation of the total generator costs, absorbing  $g_d$  into the set  $\{g_s\}$ . The constant vD is dropped.

#### From welfare maximisation to cost minimisation



We have turned the maximisation of total welfare into cost minimisation:

such that:

$$\sum_{s} g_{s} - d = 0 \qquad \leftrightarrow \qquad \lambda$$
$$g_{s} \leq G_{s} \qquad \leftrightarrow \qquad \bar{\mu}_{s}$$
$$-g_{s} \leq 0 \qquad \leftrightarrow \qquad \mu_{s}$$

 $\min_{\{g_s\}} \sum o_s g_s$ 

The most expensive generator has  $o_s = v$  and  $G_s = \infty$  and represents **load shedding**.

We've replaced the symbol D with d for simplicity going forward (d is now a constant).

NB: Because the signs of the KKT multipliers change when we go from maximisation to minimisation, we've also changed the sign of the balance constraint to keep the marginal price  $\lambda$  positive.

Optimise nodes in a network

#### Welfare optimisation for several nodes in a network



Now let's suppose we have several nodes i with different loads and different generators, with flows  $f_{\ell}$  in the network lines  $\ell$ .

Now we have additional optimisation variables  $f_{\ell}$  AND additional constraints for welfare maximisation:

$$\max_{\{d_{i,b}\},\{g_{i,s}\},\{f_{\ell}\}} \left[ \sum_{i,b} U_{i,b}(d_{i,b}) - \sum_{i,s} C_{i,s}(g_{i,s}) \right]$$

such that demand is met either by generation or by the network at each node i

$$\sum_{b} d_{i,b} - \sum_{s} g_{i,s} + \sum_{\ell} K_{i\ell} f_{\ell} = 0 \qquad \leftrightarrow \qquad \lambda_{i}$$

Note there is now a market price for each node. As before, generator constraints are satisified

$$g_{i,s} \leq G_{i,s} \qquad \leftrightarrow \qquad \bar{\mu}_{i,s} \\ -g_{i,s} \leq 0 \qquad \leftrightarrow \qquad \underline{\mu}_{i,s}$$

#### Linear cost minimisation at several nodes in a network



For cost minimisation we have a fixed load  $d_i$  at each node, and absorb load-shedding above a value v into a dummy generator.

Now we minimise over  $f_{\ell}$  and  $g_{i,s}$  for the case of linear cost functions:

$$\min_{g_{i,s}\}, \{f_\ell\}} \sum_{i,s} o_{i,s} g_{i,s}$$

such that demand is met either by generation or by the network at each node i

$$\sum_{s} g_{i,s} - d_i = \sum_{\ell} K_{i\ell} f_{\ell} \qquad \leftrightarrow \qquad \lambda_i$$

and generator constraints are satisified

$$g_{i,s} \leq G_{i,s} \qquad \leftrightarrow \qquad ar{\mu}_{i,s} \ -g_{i,s} \leq 0 \qquad \leftrightarrow \qquad \mu_{i,s}$$



In addition we have constraints on the line flows.

First, they have to satisfy Kirchoff's Voltage Law around each closed cycle c:

$$\sum_{c} C_{\ell c} x_{\ell} f_{\ell} = 0 \qquad \leftrightarrow \qquad \lambda_{c}$$

and in addition the flows cannot overload the thermal limits,  $|f_\ell| \leq F_\ell$ 

$$\begin{aligned} f_{\ell} &\leq F_{\ell} & \leftrightarrow & \bar{\mu}_{\ell} \\ -f_{\ell} &\leq F_{\ell} & \leftrightarrow & \mu_{\ell} \end{aligned}$$



At node 1 we have demand of  $d_1 = 100$  MW and a generator with costs  $o_1 = 10 \in /MWh$  and a capacity of  $G_1 = 300$  MW.

At node 2 we have demand of  $d_2 = 100$  MW and a generator with costs  $o_2 = 20 \in /MWh$  and a capacity of  $G_2 = 300$  MW.

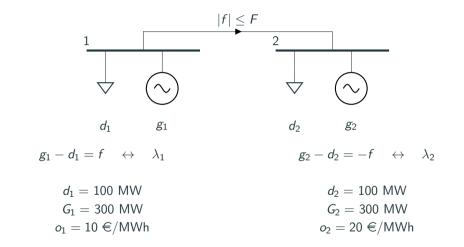
What happens if the capacity of the line connecting them is F = 0?

What about F = 50 MW?

What about  $F = \infty$ ?

#### Simplest example: two nodes connected by a single line





#### Simplest example: two nodes connected by a single line



Out optimisation problem has objective function:

$$\min_{g_1,g_2,f} \left[ o_1 g_1 + o_2 g_2 \right]$$

subject to the following constraints:

| $g_1-d_1=f$             | $\leftrightarrow$ | $\lambda_1$         |
|-------------------------|-------------------|---------------------|
| $g_2-d_2=-f$            | $\leftrightarrow$ | $\lambda_2$         |
| $g_1 \leq \mathit{G}_1$ | $\leftrightarrow$ | $\bar{\mu}_1$       |
| $-g_1 \leq 0$           | $\leftrightarrow$ | $\underline{\mu}_1$ |
| $g_2 \leq G_2$          | $\leftrightarrow$ | $\bar{\mu}_2$       |
| $-g_2 \leq 0$           | $\leftrightarrow$ | $\underline{\mu}_2$ |
| $f \leq F$              | $\leftrightarrow$ | $\bar{\mu}$         |
| $-f \leq F$             | $\leftrightarrow$ | $\mu$               |

#### **Two nodes: Case** F = 0



For the case F = 0 the nodes are like two separated islands,  $f^* = 0$ .

The generator on each island provides the demand separately, so:

$$g_1^* = d_1$$
 and  $g_2^* = d_2$ 

Neither generator has any binding constraints, since in each case the demand (100 MW) is less than the generator capacity (300 MW), so

$$\bar{\mu}_1^* = \underline{\mu}_1^* = \bar{\mu}_2^* = \underline{\mu}_2^* = 0$$

From stationarity for each site we get

$$0 = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial g_i} = o_i - \lambda_i^* - \bar{\mu}_i^* + \underline{\mu}_i^*$$

Thus we have at each site  $\lambda_i^* = o_i$ , as if we had optimised the nodes separately.

#### Two nodes: Case F = 50 MW

For the case F = 50 MW the cheaper node 1 will export to the more expensive node 2 as much as the restricted capacity F allows:

 $f^*=F=50~{\rm MW}$ 

Generator 1 covers 50 MW of the demand from node 2:

 $g_1^* = d_1 + f^* = 150 \text{ MW}$  and  $g_2^* = d_2 - f^* = 50 \text{ MW}$ 

Neither generator has any binding constraints, so

 $\bar{\mu}_1^* = \underline{\mu}_1^* = \bar{\mu}_2^* = \underline{\mu}_2^* = \mathbf{0}$ 

and thus we have again different prices at each  $\lambda_i^* = o_i$ . For the flow:

$$0 = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial f} = 0 + \lambda_1^* - \lambda_2^* - \bar{\mu}^* + \underline{\mu}^*$$

Only the upper limit is binding, so we get  $\underline{\mu}^* = 0$  and  $\overline{\mu}^* = \lambda_1^* - \lambda_2^* = o_1 - o_2 = -10 \in /\mathsf{MWh}$ .

 $\bar{\mu}^*$  is the cost reduction if we expand the transmission capacity F by  $\varepsilon$ , allowing us to substitute some of the expensive generation at node 2 with cheap generation from node 1.



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#### **Two nodes:** Case $F = \infty$



For the case  $F = \infty$  we have unrestricted capacity, so it is like merging the two nodes to one node. Now all the demand is covered by the cheapest node:

 $f^* = d_2 = 100 \text{ MW}$ 

Generator 1 covers all the demand:

 $g_1^* = d_1 + d_2 = 200 \text{ MW}$  and  $g_2^* = 0$ 

Only generator 2 has a non-zero KKT multiplier, so at node 1 we have  $\lambda_1^* = o_1$  and at node 2 we have:

$$\underline{\mu}_2^* = \lambda_2^* - o_2$$

From KKT for the flow f we have no constraints so  $\bar{\mu}^* = \mu^* = 0$  and from stationarity

$$0 = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial f} = 0 + \lambda_1^* - \lambda_2^* - \bar{\mu}^* + \underline{\mu}^*$$

i.e.  $\lambda_1^*=\lambda_2^*.$  We have price equalisation, as if it were a single node.

## Two node: demand payments versus generation revenue



Now let's compare for our examples what each demand pays  $\lambda_i^* d_i$  and what each generator receives as revenue  $\lambda_i^* g_i^*$  from each market.

| Case         | $\lambda_1^*$ | $\lambda_2^*$ | $\lambda_1^* d_1$ | $\lambda_2^* d_2$ | $\sum_i \lambda_i^* d_i$ | $\lambda_1^* g_1^*$ | $\lambda_2^* g_2^*$ | $\sum_i \lambda_i^* g_i^*$ |
|--------------|---------------|---------------|-------------------|-------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|----------------------------|
|              | [€/MWh]       | [€/MWh]       | [€/h]             | [€/h]             | [€/h]                    | [€/h]               | [€/h]               | [€/h]                      |
| F = 0        | 10            | 20            | 1000              | 2000              | 3000                     | 1000                | 2000                | 3000                       |
| F = 50       | 10            | 20            | 1000              | 2000              | 3000                     | 1500                | 1000                | 2500                       |
| $F = \infty$ | 10            | 10            | 1000              | 1000              | 2000                     | 2000                | 0                   | 2000                       |

NB: In the case with F = 50, total demand payments are  $3000 \in /h$ , whereas the generators are only receiving  $2500 \in /h$ .

Where is the missing money (500  $\in$ /h) going?

Answer: to the network operator for service of doing arbitrage, buying low and selling high.



Due to the congestion of the transmission line, the marginal cost of producing electricity can be different at node 1 and node 2. The competitive price at node 2 is higher than at node 1 -this corresponds to **locational marginal pricing**, or **nodal pricing**.

Since consumers pay and generators get paid the price in their local market, in case of congestion there is a difference between the total payment of consumers and the total revenue of producers – this is the **merchandising surplus** or **congestion rent**, collected by the network operator. For each line it is given by the price difference in both regions times the amount of power flow between them:

Congestion rent =  $\Delta \lambda \times f$ 



Returning to our two node example:

| Case         | Demand pays | Generator gets | $\lambda_2^* - \lambda_1^*$ | flow f | Cong. rent |
|--------------|-------------|----------------|-----------------------------|--------|------------|
|              | [€/h]       | [€/h]          | [€/MWh]                     | [MW]   | [€/h]      |
| F = 0        | 3000        | 3000           | 10                          | 0      | 0          |
| F = 50       | 3000        | 2500           | 10                          | 50     | 500        |
| $F = \infty$ | 2000        | 2000           | 0                           | 100    | 0          |

To get a congestion rent, we need congestion to cause a price difference between the nodes, as well as a non-zero flow between the nodes.

## **Congestion rent**



In this example we saw that the sum of what consumers pay does not always equal the sum of generator revenue.

In fact if we take the balance constraint and sum it weighted by the market price at each node we find

$$\sum_{i} \lambda_{i}^{*} d_{i} - \sum_{i} \lambda_{i}^{*} \sum_{s} g_{i,s}^{*} = -\sum_{i} \lambda_{i}^{*} \sum_{\ell} \mathcal{K}_{i\ell} f_{\ell}^{*}$$

The quantity for each  $\ell$ 

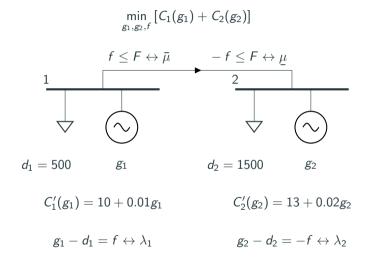
$$-f_\ell^*\sum_i \mathsf{K}_{i\ell}\lambda_i^* = f_\ell(\lambda_{ ext{end}}^* - \lambda_{ ext{start}}^*)$$

is called the **congestion rent** and is the money the network operator receives for transferring power from a low price node (start) to a high price node (end), 'buy it low, sell it high'.

It is zero if: a) the flow is zero or b) the price difference is zero.

#### Two nodes, quadratic cost function







From stationarity

$$0 = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial g_1} = C_1'(g_1^*) - \lambda_1^*$$
  

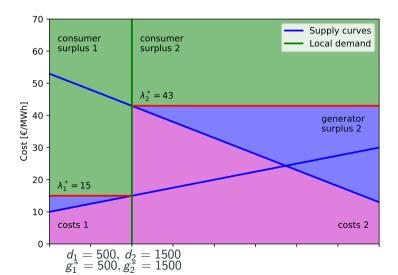
$$0 = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial g_2} = C_2'(g_2^*) - \lambda_2^*$$
  

$$0 = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial f} = 0 + \lambda_1^* - \lambda_2^* - \bar{\mu}^* + \underline{\mu}^*$$

#### **Outcome with no transmission capacity** F = 0



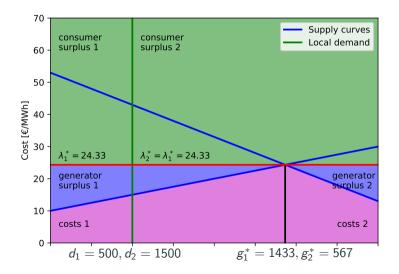
$$F = 0, f^* = 0, g_1^* = 500, g_2^* = 1500, \lambda_1^* = 15, \lambda_2^* = 43, \underline{\mu}^* = 0, \bar{\mu}^* = \lambda_1^* - \lambda_2^* = -28$$



#### Outcome with unlimited transmission capacity $F = \infty$



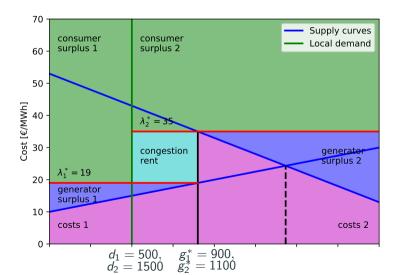
$$F = \infty, f^* = 933, g_1^* = 1433, g_2^* = 567, \lambda_1^* = \lambda_2^* = 24.33, \underline{\mu}^* = \overline{\mu}^* = 0$$



#### **Outcome with constrained transmission capacity** F = 400



$${m F}=400, f^*=400, g_1^*=900, g_2^*=1100, \lambda_1^*=19, \lambda_2^*=35, {\underline{\mu}}^*=0, {ar{\mu}}^*=\lambda_1^*-\lambda_2^*=-160, {ar{\mu}}^*=10, {ar$$



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# Comparison



|                                      | Separate markets | Single market | Constrained market |
|--------------------------------------|------------------|---------------|--------------------|
| $d_1 \; [MW]$                        | 500              | 500           | 500                |
| $g_1^*$ [MW]                         | 500              | 1433          | 900                |
| $\lambda_1^* \ [{\in}/{\sf MWh}]$    | 15               | 24.33         | 19                 |
| <i>d</i> <sub>2</sub> [MW]           | 1500             | 1500          | 1500               |
| g <sub>2</sub> * [MW]                | 1500             | 567           | 1100               |
| $\lambda_2^*$ [ $\in$ /MWh]          | 43               | 24.33         | 35                 |
| f* [MW]                              | 0                | 933           | 400                |
| <u>µ</u> * [€/MWh]                   | 0                | 0             | C                  |
| $ar{\mu}^*$ [ $\in$ /MWh]            | -28              | 0             | -16                |
| $\sum_{s} \lambda_s \times g_s \in $ | 72000            | 48660         | 55600              |
| $\sum_{s} \lambda_s \times d_s \in $ | 72000            | 48660         | 62000              |
| congestion rent                      | 0                | 0             | 6400               |
|                                      |                  |               |                    |

The European Market

## **Existing bidding zones**



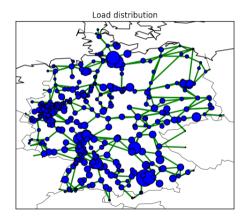


- Bids for German electricity take place in a giant bidding zone encompassing both Germany and Luxembourg (Austria was separated from the German bidding zone in October 2018)
- This means that transmission constraints are only visible to the market at the **borders** to the other national zones
- Internal transmission constraints are ignored market bids are handled as if they do not exist
- Only KCL enforced on most borders KVL much harder

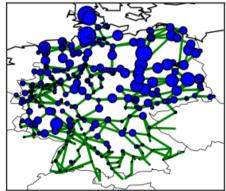
## The Problem



Renewables are not always located near demand centres, as in this example from Germany.

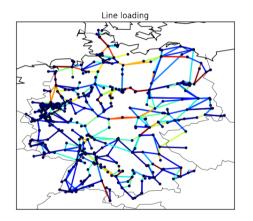


Wind Onshore



#### **The Problem**





- This leads to **overloaded lines** in the middle of Germany, which cannot transport all the wind energy from North Germany to the load in South Germany
- It also overloads lines in neighbouring countries due to loop flows (unplanned physical flows 'according to least resistance' which do not correspond to traded flows)
- It also blocks imports and exports with neighbouring countries, e.g. Denmark

# Solution 1: Redispatch after energy market clearing



These problems are **not visible** in the day-ahead electricity market, which treats the whole of Germany and Austria as a single bidding zone. It dispatches wind in North Germany as if there was no internal congestion...

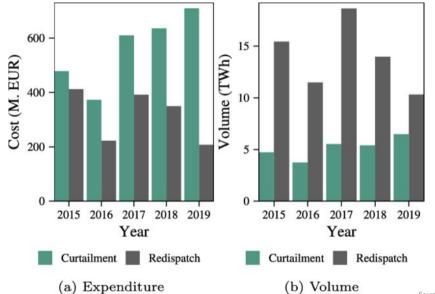
To ensure that the physical limits of transmission are not exceeded, the network operator must **'re-dispatch'** power stations and **curtail** (Einspeisemanagement) renewables to restore order. This is **costly** (0.8 redispatch + 0.6 RE-compensation = 1.4 billion EUR in 2017 - although exceptional circumstances in 1st quarter) and results in **lost CO**<sub>2</sub>-free generation (5.5 TWh curtailment of RE and CHP in 2017).

**International redispatch** is sometimes also required (Multilateral Remedial Actions = MRA).

Furthermore, there are **no market incentives** to reinforce the North-South grid, to locate more power stations in South Germany or to build storage / P2X in North Germany.

## **Redispatch in Germany: Trend**





## Solution 2: Smaller bidding zones to "see" congested boundaries

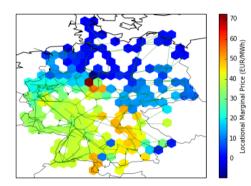




- In Scandinavia they have solved this by introducing smaller bidding zones
- Now congestion at the boundaries between zones is taken into account in the implicit auctions of the market
- This is also done in Italy (again, a long country), where prices for small consumers are uniformised for fairness

# Solution 3: Nodal pricing

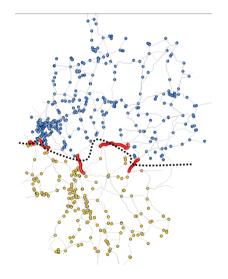




- The ultimate solution, as used in the US and other markets, is **nodal pricing**, which exposes all transmission congestion
- Considered too complex and subject to market power to be used in Europe, but this is questionable...
- Here we see clearly why many argue for a North-South German split

#### First step: Split Germany North-South





- Initial price difference could average up to 12 EUR/MWh
- Prices would converge with more network expansion
- Redispatch costs reduced by 39% in 2025, 58% in 2035 (assuming NEP 2030 transmission projects get built)
- Politically difficult, may require, like Italy, uniformised price on consumer side

# Solution 1.5: Flow-based market coupling



Flow-based market coupling can be used in zonal markets to see precise individual line constraints, instead of "boxing" the feasible space like ATC/NTC schemes do.

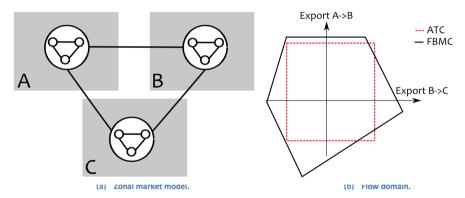


Figure 4. In the FMBC method, only one equivalent node per zone is considered, but all (critical) lines are taken into account. In this simple grid, the zonal network consists of 3 nodes and 12 lines. The FBMC flow domain is larger than the ATC flow domain as the physical characteristics of the grid are better represented in the FBMC method.

# Solution 1.5: Flow-based market coupling





- From May 2015 to June 2022 flow-based market coupling was only applied in Germany, France, Netherlands, Belgium and Luxembourg
- From June 2022 it has extended across northern 'Core' countries in continental Europe

# **Storage Optimisation**

## **Storage equations**



Now, like the network case where we add different nodes i with different loads, for storage we have to consider different time periods t. This is called **multi-period optimisation**.

Label conventional generators by s, storage by r and now minimise

$$\min_{\{g_{i,s,t}\},\{g_{i,r,t,\text{charge}}\},\{g_{i,r,t,\text{discharge}}\},\{f_{\ell,t}\} } \left[ \sum_{i,s,t} o_{i,s} g_{i,s,t} + \sum_{i,r,t} o_{i,r,\text{charge}} g_{i,r,t,\text{charge}} + \sum_{i,r,t} o_{i,r,\text{discharge}} g_{i,r,t,\text{discharge}} \right]$$

The power balance constraints are now (cf. Lecture 5) for each node i and time t that the demand is met either by generation, storage or network flows:

$$\sum_{s} g_{i,s,t} + \sum_{r} (g_{i,r,t,\mathrm{discharge}} - g_{i,r,t,\mathrm{charge}}) - d_{i,t} = \sum_{\ell} K_{i\ell} f_{\ell,t} \quad \leftrightarrow \quad \lambda_{i,t}$$

Now we have a market price  $\lambda_{i,t}$  for each node *i* and time *t*.

#### **Storage equations**



We have constraints on normal generators

$$0 \leq g_{i,s,t} \leq G_{i,s}$$

and on the storage

 $0 \le g_{i,r,t,\mathrm{discharge}} \le G_{i,r,\mathrm{discharge}}$  $0 \le g_{i,r,t,\mathrm{charge}} \le G_{i,r,\mathrm{charge}}$ 

The energy level of the storage is given by

$$e_{i,r,t} = \eta_0 e_{i,r,t-1} + \eta_1 g_{i,r,t,\text{charge}} - \eta_2^{-1} g_{i,r,t,\text{discharge}}$$

and limited by

$$0 \leq e_{i,r,t} \leq E_{i,r}$$



Storage does 'buy it low, sell it high' **arbitrage**, like network, but in time rather than space, i.e. between cheap times (e.g. with lots of zero-marginal-cost renewables) and expensive times (e.g. with high demand, low renewables and expensive conventional generators).

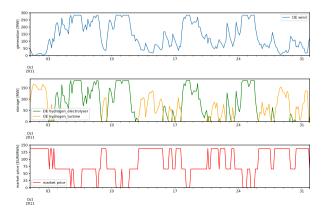
# Storage charges at low prices, discharges at high prices



Simplified example from **https://model.energy** For Germany with only wind and hydrogen storage to meet a flat 100 MW demand.

Average charging price (with electrolyser): 43  $\in$ /MWh

Average discharging price (with turbine): 144  $\in$ /MWh





Finally for the flows we repeat the constraints for each time t.

We have KVL for each cycle c and time t

$$\sum_{\ell} C_{\ell c} x_{\ell} f_{\ell,t} = 0 \qquad \leftrightarrow \qquad \lambda_{c,t}$$

and in addition the flows cannot overload the thermal limits,  $|f_{\ell,t}| \leq F_{\ell}$ 

$$\begin{array}{cccc} f_{\ell,t} \leq F_{\ell} & \leftrightarrow & \bar{\mu}_{\ell,t} \\ -f_{\ell,t} \leq F_{\ell} & \leftrightarrow & \underline{\mu}_{\ell,t} \end{array}$$



Preview for next time:

Next time we will also optimise **investment** in the **capacities** of generators, storage and network lines, to maximise **long-run efficiency**.

We will promote the capacities  $G_{i,s}$ ,  $G_{i,r,*}$ ,  $E_{i,r}$  and  $F_{\ell}$  to optimisation variables.