

Long-term models

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This tutorial in three parts

- ① Short-term models (hours/days)
 - social plan minimizing cost
 - maximizing profit given prices
- ② Multistage and medium-term models (weeks/months)
 - social plan minimizing cost
 - maximizing profit given prices
- ③ Long-term models (years/decades)
 - social plan minimizing cost
 - maximizing return on investment given prices

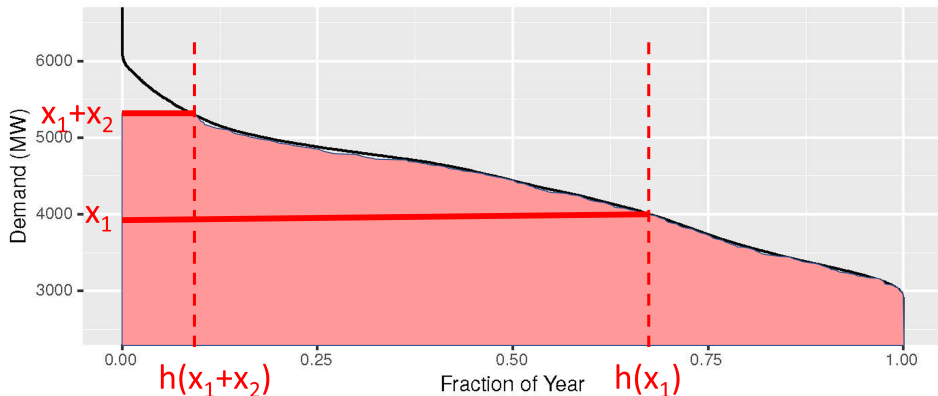
Summary

- ① Long-term (investment) models
- ② Multi-horizon planning
- ③ EMERALD: Multi-horizon model of New Zealand
 - Demonstration
 - Results
 - Research questions
- ④ Planning versus competitive equilibrium
- ⑤ What's next?

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Screening Curves



Load duration curve showing optimal capacities of conventional generation with annual fixed costs a_1 , a_2 , and marginal costs c_1 , c_2 . Here $h(x_1 + x_2) = \frac{a_2}{V - c_2}$,
 $h(x_1) = \frac{a_1 - a_2}{c_2 - c_1}$.

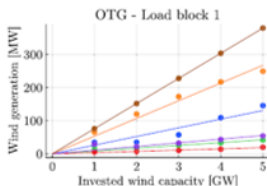
With intermittent renewables

- Wind and solar are not dispatchable and disrupt the merit order.
- How to do screening?
- Subtract wind and solar from demand and create **net load duration curve**.
 - Suitable if wind/solar investment is exogenous . . .
 - . . . but difficult to optimize short-term storage.
 - If planning wind/solar investment need to approximate this process for different capacity choices.
- Use **representative days** and solve two-stage stochastic program.
 - Represents intraday variation e.g. for battery investment.
 - Suffers from perfect foresight bias.

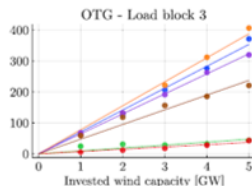
Wind adjusted load duration curve

[Hole et al, 2024]

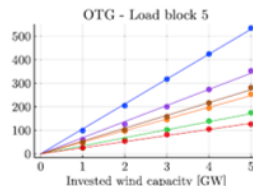
- Load duration curve piecewise constant with decreasing **load blocks**.
- Increased wind investment decreases net load across all load blocks.
- Fix the set of hours in each block and fit a linear curve that defines how increased wind capacity decreases load in that block.



(a) Linear wind representation in Otago for load block 1



(b) Linear wind representation in Otago for load block 3



(c) Linear wind representation in Otago for load block 5

Wind investment using SDDP

[Hole et al, 2024]

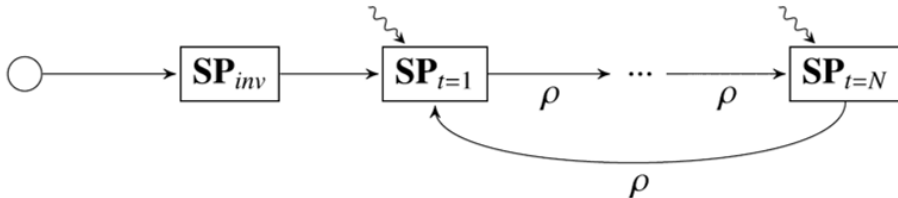
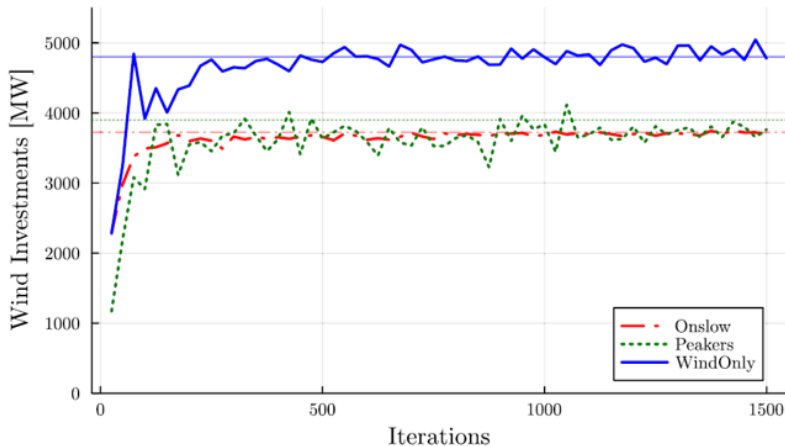


Fig. 3. The policy graph structure for **INV - HTP - ∞** .

New Zealand Case study

[Hole et al, 2024]

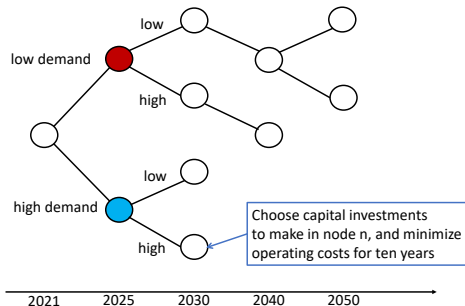


Investment decisions plotted every 20 iterations of SDDP.

Summary

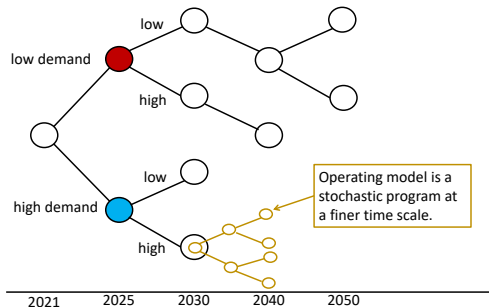
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Multi-horizon planning

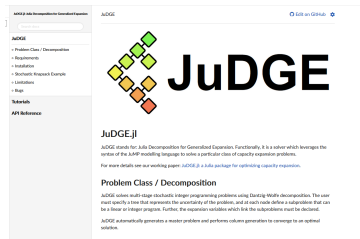


- Capacity-expansion decisions over longer time scale (5 years or 10 years)
- Use a scenario tree to model uncertainty.

Multi-horizon scenario trees



- Operational uncertainty (brown) modeled with a finer time scale.
- Can model this using
 - a fine scenario tree;
 - a Markov Decision Process;
 - representative days/weeks/seasons.



<https://github.com/EP0C-NZ/JuDGE.jl>

JuDGE stands for **J**ulia **D**ecomposition for **G**eneralized **E**xpansion.).

- allows users to easily implement multi-horizon optimization models using the JuMP modelling language;
- can apply end-of-horizon risk-measures in objective function and/or the constraints; and
- outputs an interactive view of the results over the scenario tree, enabling decision makers to explore the optimal expansion plan.

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Example: New Zealand decarbonization model

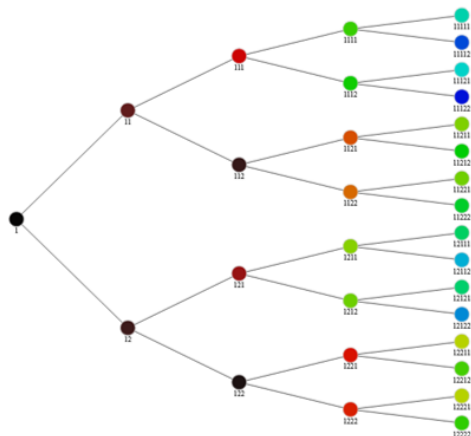
Expansions and shutdowns

Optimize capacity expansion under uncertainty represented by a scenario tree.

Model is a risk-averse central-planning model minimizing discounted disbenefit Z summed from 2021-2050.

End-of-horizon risk is a convex combination of expected value and average value at risk, so $\text{Risk}(\lambda, \alpha)$ is

$$(1 - \lambda)\mathbb{E}[Z] + \lambda \text{AVaR}_{1-\alpha}[Z]$$



31-node scenario tree.

Example: New Zealand decarbonization model

Defining the subproblems

Sets:

- seasons $t \in \mathcal{T}$;
- load blocks $b \in \mathcal{B}_t$, $t \in \mathcal{T}$;
- hydrological years $h \in \mathcal{H}$;
- technologies $k \in \mathcal{K}$.

Variables:

- x_k capacity to build for technology k ;
- g_k^{bh} generation from technology k in load block b , with hydrological year h .

Parameters:

- d^b demand in load block b ;
- u_k initial capacity of technology k ;
- U_k maximum capacity increment of each new technology k ;
- θ_k^b is the capacity factor for technology k , in load block b .

Medium-term Operational Model

Subproblem objective function

Subproblem at node n minimizes the operational costs of the electricity system:

$$\min \sum_{t \in \mathcal{T}} \sum_{b \in \mathcal{B}_t} \Delta_b \sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \rho_h \sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}} (c_k + \tau e_k) g_k^{bh},$$

where Δ_b is the number of hours corresponding to load block b ;

ρ_h is the probability of hydrological year h ;

c_k is the marginal cost of technology k ;

e_k gives the emissions factor of technology k ;

τ is the carbon tax.

Cost of investments over the tree:

$$\min \sum_{n \in \mathcal{N}} \phi_n \sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}} C_k x_k,$$

ϕ_n is the (discounted) probability of reaching node n ;

C_k is the capital cost (per unit) of technology k ;

$x_k \in [0, 1]$ represents investment in technology k .

Medium-term operations

Subproblem constraints

Load balance:

$$\sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}} g_k^{bh} = d^b, \quad \forall b \in \mathcal{B}, h \in \mathcal{H},$$

Generation capacity:

$$0 \leq g_k^{bh} \leq \theta_k^b (u_k + x_k U_k) \quad \forall b \in \mathcal{B}_t, t \in \mathcal{T}, h \in \mathcal{H}, k \in \mathcal{K},$$

Stored hydro generation:

$$\sum_{b \in \mathcal{B}_t} g_{\text{hydro}}^{bh} \times \Delta_b = \mu_t^h \quad \forall h \in \mathcal{H}, t \in \mathcal{T},$$

Expansions:

$$x_k \in [0, 1], \quad \forall k \in \mathcal{K}, i \in \{1, \dots, N\}.$$

EMERALD demonstration

EMERALD case study uses...

- Three regions (NI, HAY, SI).
- Four seasons with 10 load blocks each.
- 16 load growth scenarios.
- 13 historical years model seasonal hydrological inflows.
- Data based on two-stage model of NZ system.¹

¹Ferris & Philpott, 100% renewable electricity with storage (2019) <http://www.epoc.org.nz>.

EMERALD input data

Random demand and carbon prices

- Annual total energy demand increases from
 - Electric vehicles;
 - Industrial load;
 - Consumer load;
 - Aluminium smelter (or replacement).
- NZ carbon prices in target years are assumed.
- Carbon prices affect fossil fuels and electricity prices.
- Electricity demand growth from PEVs.
- Exogeneous decrease in cost of solar panels.

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EMERALD input data

Scenario tree for demand and carbon price

```
mytree, data = tree_with_data(myscenariotree.csv)

n,p,probability,evgrowth,phggrowth,loadgrowth,smelter,carbon
1,-,1,1,1,1,1,50
,1,0.5,1.389,1.261,1.16,1,50
12,1,0.5,1.389,1.35,1.052,1,50
111,11,0.25,5.5,1.44,1.28,1,200
112,11,0.25,5.5,1.317,1.03,1,200
121,12,0.25,5.5,1.542,1.161,1,200
122,12,0.25,5.5,1.411,0.934,1,200
1111,111,0.125,50,1.86,1.427,1,500
1112,111,0.125,50,1.623,1.546,1,500
1121,112,0.125,50,1.702,1.147,1,500
....
```

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1121,112,0.125,50,1.702,1.147,1,500
....

JuDGE.visualize_tree(mytree, data)
```

Scenario tree

Creating the JuDGE model

```
model = JuDGEModel(mytree,  
    ConditionallyUniformProbabilities,  
    sub_problems,  
    JuDGE_MP_Solver,  
    discount_factor=discfactor)  
risk=Risk(0.95,(1/16)  
)
```

Running EMERALD

Solving and producing output

```
JuDGE.solve(model,termination=Termination(reltol=0.001))  
resolve_subproblems(model)  
solution = JuDGE.solution_to_dictionary(model)  
(some code to set up custom_plots using plotly)  
JuDGE.visualize_tree(mytree, solution,  
custom=custom_plots)
```

EMERALD results

What is missing from these planning models?

- ① Endogeneous **learning**;
- ② Optimal operational **policies** for renewables;
- ③ **Revenue stacking** for some technologies, e.g. batteries;
- ④ More sophisticated solution **interpretation** tools for large scale models;
- ⑤ Relationship to **generator investment** behaviour.

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Dynamic investment equilibrium = EMERALD solution

[Ralph & Smeers (2015)], [Abada et al, (2017)], [De Maere d'Aertrycke et al (2017)], [Ferris & P. (2022).]

- Suppose each agent in EMERALD has their own **nested coherent risk measure** with single-stage risk sets (that can vary with node).
- Each agent invests to maximize risk-adjusted return at market prices, where they trade risk in each node in a complete market of Arrow-Debreu securities.
- Suppose planner optimizes welfare using a **social risk measure** that is nested using the intersection of agent risk sets at each node. (JuDGE uses an **end-of-horizon** risk measure.)
- Optimal risk-averse plan gives prices and investments that form a partial equilibrium.

Incomplete risk markets

[Abada et al, (2017)], [Gerard et al, (2018)], [Kok et al, (2018)]

- When markets for risk are **incomplete** risked equilibrium might not correspond to social plan.
- Can show risked equilibria exist either with no contracts or a complete market.
- There might exist **multiple** risked equilibria or none. [Gerard et al (2018)]
- If contracts have bounded payoffs (e.g. **contracts for differences with price caps**) then can prove existence [Kok et al (2018)].

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New Challenges

- Is (risked) Walrasian equilibrium the right model?
 - **Subgame perfect Nash equilibrium** arguably more realistic.
 - Dispatch is a **repeated game**, so perhaps we should study tacit collusion.
 - Should **price-setting behaviour** in markets be penalized by regulator?
How to detect it.
- How to model **constraints on deployment**.
 - Raw material constraints;
 - Labour and expertise;
 - Connection queues.
- Prosumers and aggregation.
- System **stability** with random events.
- System **reliability** for climate change.

Stochastic programming, energy and A.I.

- Is A.I. a game-changer in energy optimization?
 - Machine learning can determine reserve requirements using offline optimization.
 - Machine learning can help train operational models to optimize subproblems in multihorizon settings.
 - Will A.I. create a new law of learning rate?
- How will regulators prevent LLMs from enabling collusive outcomes?
- Will demand for A.I. data centres overwhelm the electricity transition?

References

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