Power Market Operations

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Source: Chapter 3.2, Papavasiliou [1]

Outline

- Exchanges and pools
- Uniform and pay-as-bid auctions
- Electricity market blueprint
- Example: California and Central Western Europe

Exchanges and pools

The motivation for markets

- Information: each agent uses only private information
- Short-run efficiency (Adam Smith's "invisible hand"): profitmaximizing agents behave optimally from a global point of view if "the price is right"
- Long-run efficiency: correct investment incentives

Degree of centralization

Bilateral (least centralized) \rightarrow Exchange \rightarrow Pool (most centralized)

- Bilateral trade: traders exchange in pairs
- Exchanges: traders submit simple bids to auctions with simple rules
- **Pools**: traders submit multi-part bids to auctions with complex rules

Can electricity be traded bilaterally in real time?

Example: exchange versus pool

Consider a generator with startup cost of \$2400, capacity of 10 MW and fuel cost of 20 \$/MWh who wants to sell energy for 24 hours

- Exchange: at least how much should the generator bid in order not to suffer financial losses?
- Pool profit given energy price P: max((P - 20) · 10 · 24 - 2400,0) €
- Pool side payment:

$$\max(2400 - (P - 20) \cdot 10 \cdot 24, 0) \in$$

Degree of centralization in different time frames



Uniform and pay-as-bid auctions

Uniform-price auctions

- Generator bids: price-quantity pairs (P, Q), representing price P at which producers are willing to produce quantity Q
- Consumer bids: price-quantity pairs (P,Q), representing price P consumers are willing to pay for quantity Q
- Obligations and payoffs:
 - Market clearing price P^* : intersection of supply and demand curves
 - In the money supply bids: produce and receive $P^* \in /MWh$
 - In the money demand bids: consume and pay $P^* \in /MWh$

Example

The following bids are submitted for *5-minute* power in a uniform price auction

- Producer 1: 30 MW at 12 \$/MWh
- Producer 2: 35 MW at 28 \$/MWh
- Producer 3: 25 MW στα 80 \$/MWh
- Consumer 1: 10 MW at 90 \$/MWh
- Consumer 2: 40 MW at 40 \$/MWh
- Consumer 3: 25 MW at 20 \$/MWh
- What is the uniform price?
- What is each producer's profit?
- What is each consumer's profit?
- How much surplus is left to the auctioneer?



Second-price auctions

Auctions for selling one item

- Lowest bidder (supplier) paid for supplying the auctioned item
- Supplier is paid price bid by cheapest losing bidder

Induces truthful bidding

- Why would you want to understate cost?
- Why would you want to overstate cost?



William Vickrey: 1996 Nobel prize in economics

Example: second-price auction for commissioning a public construction project

- Second-price auctions assign a project to the lowest-cost bidder, but pay the awardee the price that was offered by the second lowest-cost offer
- We claim that second-price auctions result in truthful offers
- Consider a potential supplier with a privately known cost of \$1000

Proof strategy

- We analyze two cases
 - Under-bidding: the firm bids a cost that is lower than the actual one, e.g. \$900
 - Over-bidding: the firm bids a cost that is higher than the actual one, e.g. \$1100
- We want to show that both cases lead to the firm being worse off relative to truthful bidding. We can prove it consider two sub-cases for each case:
 - The state of the firm does not change (state being whether the firm wins the auction or not)
 - The state of the firm changes

Case 1: under-bid

- Case 1.1: state of the firm does not change
 - If the firm changes its bid from \$1000 to \$900 and loses the auction, then its profit does not change
 - If the firm changes its bid from \$1000 to \$900 and still wins the auction, then its profit does not change because the price is determined by the 2nd lowest-cost offer by design of the second-price auction
- The payoff therefore does not change in case 1.1 when the firm under-bids



Case 1: under-bid

- Case 1.2: the state of the firm changes
 - If the firm changes its bid from \$1000 to \$900 and the firm ended up losing the auction instead of winning it, it is because there is another firm bidding less than \$1000 which prevents our form from winning. But in this case the profit of the firm changes from 0 to something negative!
- Therefore in this case the profit changes, but becomes worse!



Case 2: over-bid

- Case 2.1: the state of the firm does not change
 - If the firm changes its bid from \$1000 to \$1100 and the firm still loses the auction, then the profit does not change
 - If the firm changes its bid from \$1000 to \$1100 and it still wins the auction, then the profit does not change because the price is set by the second lowest-cost offer by design of the second-price auction
- Therefore the profit does not change in case 2.1 when the firm over-bids



Case 2: over-bid

- Case 2.2: the state of the firm changes
 - If the firm changes its bid from \$1000 to \$1100 and the firm ends up losing the auction instead of winning it, it is because there is a competitor with an offer that exceeds \$1000 which prevents the firm from winning. But in this case the profit of the firm changes from something positive to zero!
- Therefore in this case the profit changes, but becomes worse!



From second-price auctions to uniform-price auctions

Uniform prices are a natural generalization of second-price auctions to multiple items, "losing" bid is k + 1



Hockey stick bidding



Meanwhile, in Texas (February 24, 2013)

Pay-as-bid auction

Pay-as-bid pricing: Bids are accepted in order to maximize benefit from trade, each agent pays/receives the price they bid

Criticisms of uniform pricing

- Price volatility
- Hockey-stick bidding
- Unfair profit margins for infra-marginal suppliers
- Criticisms of pay-as-bid pricing
 - Discriminatory (different price for the same product)
 - Lack of transparency

Example

The following bids are submitted for *5-minute* power in a pay-as-bid auction

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Lignite dispatch in Germany (May-December 2014)



- Which of the blue dots are suffering losses?
- Which of the blue dots could be suspect of keeping power out of the market?

Blueprint of an electricity market

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Blueprint variants

What would the following mean?

- An "Energy" arrow from generators to utilities
- An "Ancillary Services" arrow from system operator/generators to utilities
- A "Capacity" arrow from generators to utilities
- An "Ancillary Services" arrow from utilities to the system operator

Example: California and Central Western Europe

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- Pool versus exchange
- Coordination
- Nodal versus zonal pricing

Day-ahead market

California:

- Pool: detailed bids and uplift payments
- Uniform price for energy (different between nodes)
- Each generator bids individually
- Determines energy, reserve, transmission usage simultaneously
- Central-Western Europe:
 - Exchange: simple bids
 - Uniform price for energy (different between zones)
 - Each firm (not generator) bids individually
 - Determines energy, cross-border transmission usage (not reserve)
 - Ignores Kirchhoff's laws (for the time being)

Ignoring Kirchhoff's laws

All lines have identical characteristics



What is the optimal dispatch if we ignore Kirchhoff?

If we account for Kirchhoff?

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Nodal pricing versus zonal pricing

- California:
 - **Node**: physical connection point of the network
 - Nodal pricing: transmission capacity is bought indirectly by differentiating price of energy at each *node*
- Central and Western Europe:
 - **Zone**: collection of nodes at which electric energy is sold at the same price
 - **Zonal pricing**: motivation is to simplify the trading of energy by reducing the number of markets

Nodal pricing in PJM (February 15, 2014)



05:40 (upper left), 08:40 (upper right), 09:20 (lower left), 09:55 (lower right)

Zonal Pricing



Unique price for each zone (country)



[1] A. Papavasiliou, Optimization Models in Electricity Markets, Cambridge University Press

https://www.cambridge.org/highereducation/books/optimizationmodels-in-electricitymarkets/0D2D36891FB5EB6AAC3A4EFC78A8F1D3#overview