

# Pricing with Non-Convexities

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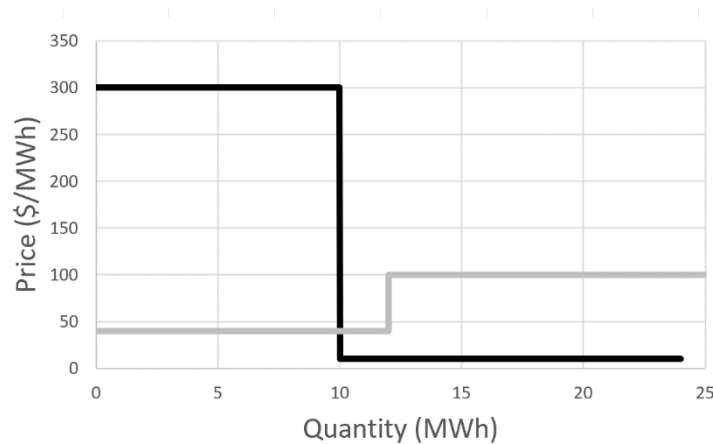
Source: section 7.3, Papavasiliou [1]

# Outline

- Inexistence of a clearing price
- Measuring deviation from equilibrium
- Alternative pricing proposals
- The European exchange and EUPHEMIA

# Inexistence of a clearing price

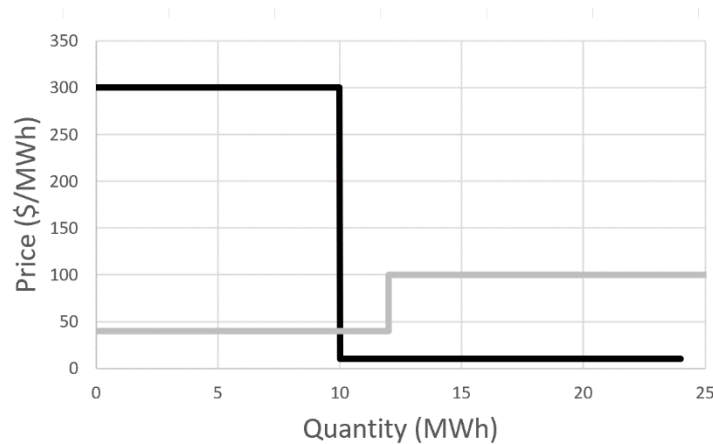
# Example 7.6: a uniform price **always** exists in convex markets



| Bid      | Quantity (MWh) | Price (\$/MWh) |
|----------|----------------|----------------|
| A (buy)  | 10             | 300            |
| B (buy)  | 14             | 10             |
| C (sell) | 12             | 40             |
| D (sell) | 13             | 100            |

- Definition of economic equilibrium:
  - Surplus maximization (quantity adjustment)
  - Market clearing (price adjustment)
- For this example: 40 \$/MWh
- A market clearing price can be proven to exist in convex models (proposition 4.11)
- Corresponds to welfare maximization

# Example 7.6: in markets with “complicated” products uniform clearing prices may **not** exist



“Complicated” orders: non-convex

In practice:

- Block orders
- MICs
- PUNs

Uniform price does not exist for this example

- At 40 \$/MWh, **supply  $\neq$  demand** because of min acceptance
- Below 40 \$/MWh: **supply < demand**
- Above 40 \$/MWh: **supply > demand**

| Bid      | Quantity (MWh) | Price (\$/MWh) | Minimum acceptance (MWh) |
|----------|----------------|----------------|--------------------------|
| A (buy)  | 10             | 300            | 0                        |
| B (buy)  | 14             | 10             | 0                        |
| C (sell) | 12             | 40             | 11                       |
| D (sell) | 13             | 100            | 0                        |

# The model of example 7.6

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{p,d,u} & 300 \cdot d_A + 10 \cdot d_B - 40 \cdot p_C - 100 \cdot p_D \\ & d_A + d_B - p_C - p_D = 0 \\ & 11 \cdot u_C \leq p_C \leq 12 \cdot u_C \\ & d_A \leq 10, d_B \leq 14, p_D \leq 13 \\ & d_A, d_B, p_D \geq 0 \\ & u_C \in \{0,1\} \end{aligned}$$

- Optimal solution:
  - Bid A:  $d_A^* = 10$  MWh
  - Bid B:  $d_B^* = 1$  MWh
  - Bid C:  $p_C^* = 11$  MWh,  $u_C^* = 1$
  - Bid D:  $p_D^* = 0$  MWh
- Surplus: \$2570

# Two solutions to the existence problem

Uniform pricing and paradoxically rejected blocks (PRBs)

**Same price** for all, but allow some paradoxically rejected orders

**Rationale:**

- Paradoxically rejected orders: no losses incurred, more tolerable, no need for side payments
- Paradoxically accepted orders: losses are incurred, not acceptable in European design

**Mathematically:**

- Maximize welfare, subject to extra constraints (allow PRBs)
- Extra constraints: lower welfare

**Practice in EUPHEMIA**

**Very complex problem, not solved to optimality**

Uplifts

**Rationale:** maximize welfare, uses uplift payments to “make everybody happy”

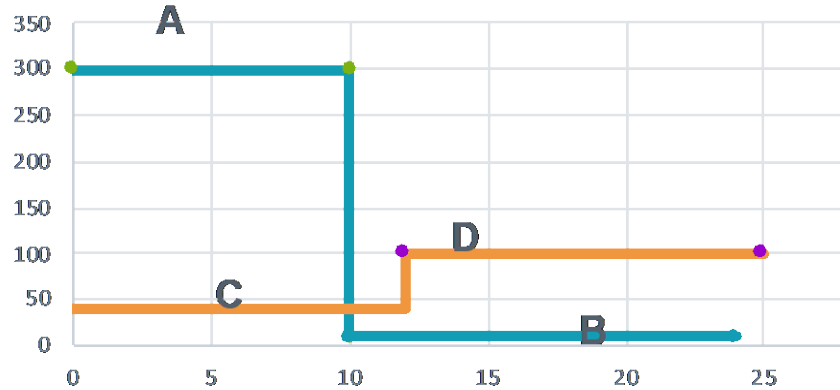
**Mathematically:**

- Solve for optimal selection of orders
- Solve for price
- Compute uplifts separately

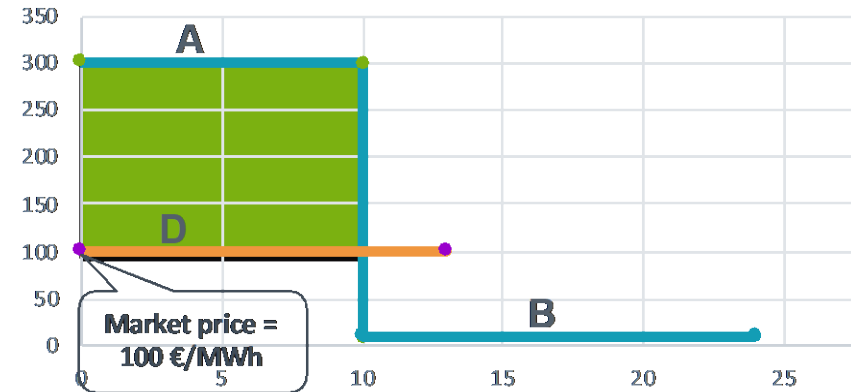
**Practice in the US**

# Approach 1: paradoxically rejected bids (example 7.7)

Welfare maximization



Euphemia Solution



| Bid                 | Quantity (MWh) | Price (\$/MWh) | Min acceptance ratio (MWh) |
|---------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------------------|
| A (buy)             | 10             | 300            | 0                          |
| B (buy)             | 14             | 10             | 0                          |
| C (sell)            | 12             | 40             | 11                         |
| <del>D (sell)</del> | <del>13</del>  | <del>100</del> | <del>0</del>               |

- For this example, we showed that we cannot accept C
- So, if we reject C, the price becomes 100 \$/MWh
- Welfare: \$2000



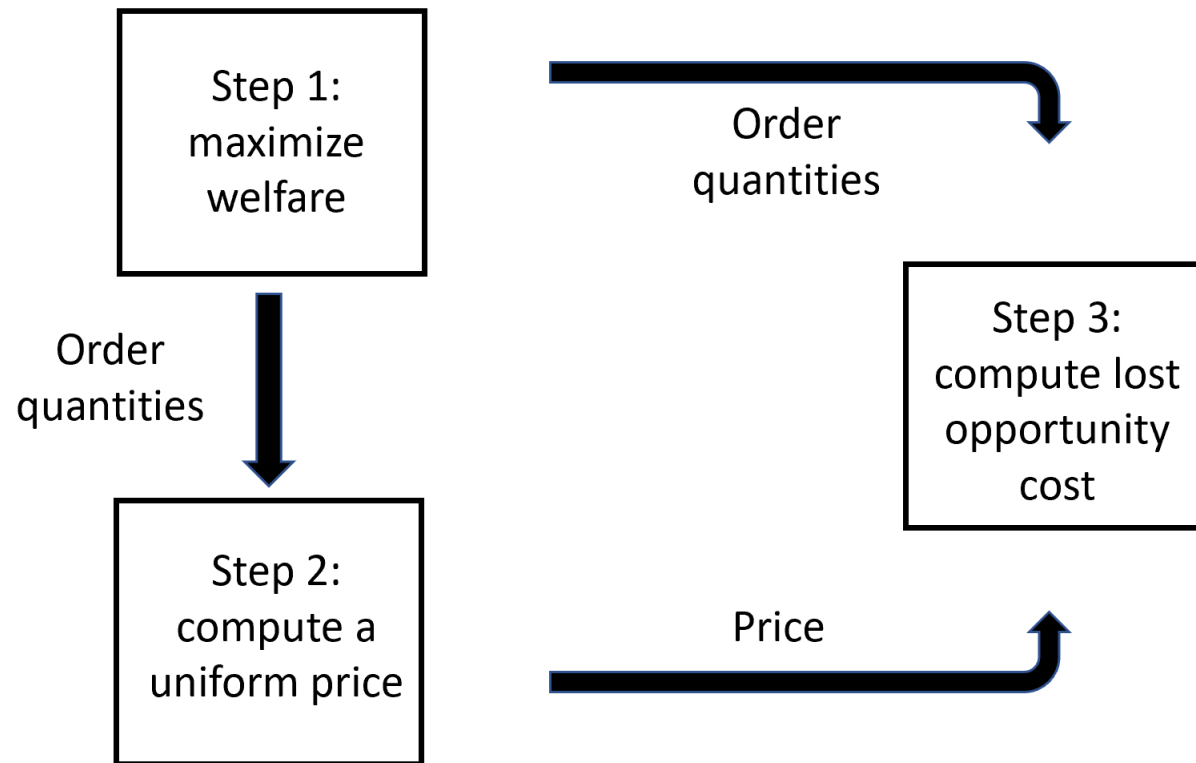
# Mathematical model of example 7.7

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{p,d} & 300 \cdot d_A + 10 \cdot d_B - 100 \cdot p_D \\ (\lambda): & d_A + d_B - p_D = 0 \\ & d_A \leq 10, d_B \leq 14, p_D \leq 13 \\ & d_A, d_B, p_D \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

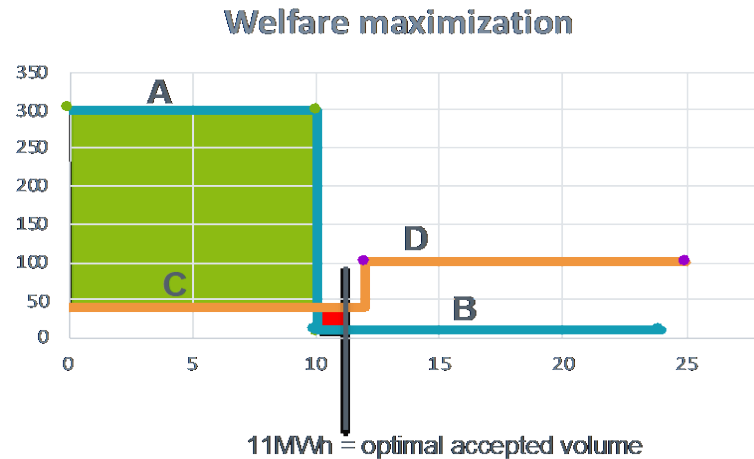
Solution:

- $\lambda = 100$  \$/MWh
- Welfare: \$2000 (loss of \$570 of welfare)

# Approach 2: separate computation of matches and prices



# Approach 2: separate computation of matches and prices



| Bid      | Quantity (MWh) | Price (\$/MWh) | Minimum quantity (MWh) |
|----------|----------------|----------------|------------------------|
| A (buy)  | 10             | 300            | 0                      |
| B (buy)  | 14             | 10             | 0                      |
| C (sell) | 12             | 40             | 11                     |
| D (sell) | 13             | 100            | 0                      |

- Step 1: select quantities by matching welfare
  - Bid A: 10 MWh
  - Bid B: 1 MWh
  - Bid C: 11 MWh
  - Bid D: 0 MWh
- Step 2: find a uniform price, let's try 40 \$/MWh
- Step 3: pay lost opportunity cost, if needed
  - Bids A, C, D: \$0, no lost opportunity cost
  - Bid B: \$30

# Measuring deviation from equilibrium

# Self-scheduling and lost opportunity cost

- Although the existence of an equilibrium price is not guaranteed, we want a price that “approximates” this goal
- How do we quantify “approximates”?
- Given a market price  $\lambda$ , the **lost opportunity cost** is
$$LOC(\lambda) = \Pi^*(\lambda) - \bar{\Pi}(\lambda)$$

- Where:
  - $\Pi^*(\lambda)$ : profit of an agent that **self-schedules** its production
  - $\bar{\Pi}(\lambda)$ : the profit of an agent if it follows the instruction of the auction

# Mathematical definition of lost opportunity cost

- Consider a general agent which decides  $(x, q)$ , a benefit function  $f(x)$ , and a set of constraints  $g(x) \leq 0$  and  $h(x) = q$
- Given a market clearing price  $\lambda^*$ , the surplus maximization problem of the agent is expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{x,q} & (f(x) - (\lambda^*)^T q) \\ & g(x) \leq 0 \\ & h(x) = q \end{aligned}$$

Denote:

- $(\bar{x}, \bar{q})$  the instruction of the market
- $(x^*, q^*)$  the optimal self-scheduling decision
  
- $\Pi^*$ : the surplus of the agent given  $(x^*, q^*)$
- $\bar{\Pi}$ : the surplus of the agent given  $(\bar{x}, \bar{q})$

# Computation of lost opportunity cost

- Suppose that we price at 40 \$/MWh (see slide 11)

- For  $\lambda^* = 40$  \$/MWh we have  $\bar{\Pi}$  of offer B:

$$(1)[\text{MWh}] \cdot (10 - 40) \left[ \frac{\$}{\text{MWh}} \right] = -\$30$$

- For  $\lambda^* = 40$  \$/MWh we have  $\Pi^*$  for offer B:

$$(0)[\text{MWh}] \cdot (10 - 40) \left[ \frac{\$}{\text{MWh}} \right] = \$0$$

- So the lost opportunity cost is \$30

# Make-whole payments

**Make-whole payments:** payment that compensates an agent if the agent is exposed to a negative surplus when following the market schedule  $(\bar{x}, \bar{q})$ , given market price  $\lambda^*$

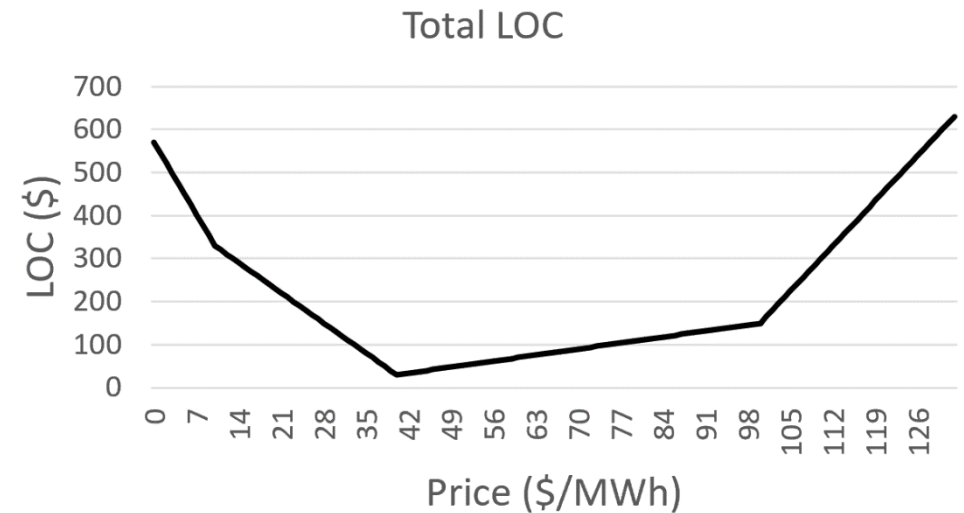
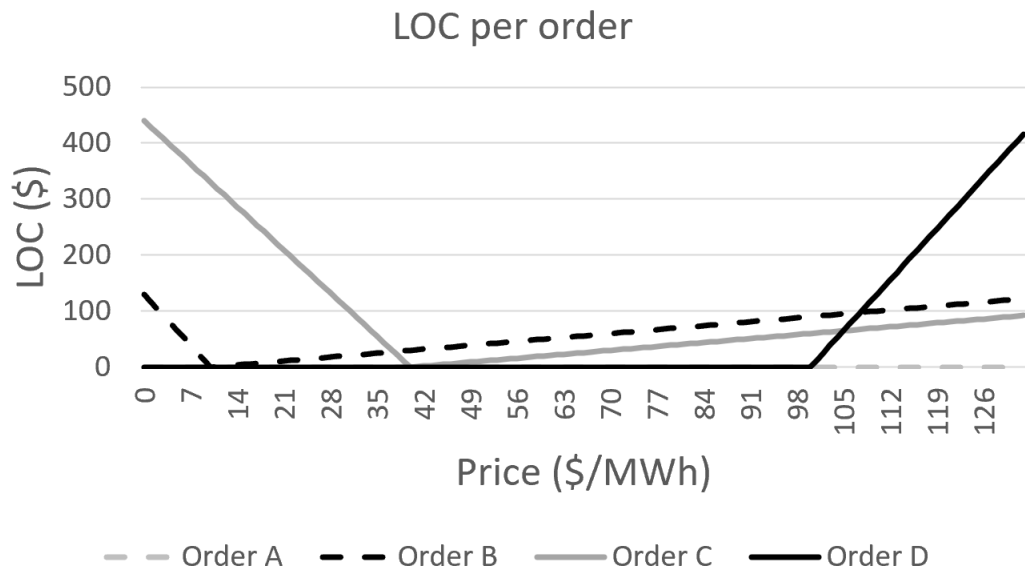
$$MWP = \max\left(0, -(f(\bar{x}) - (\lambda^*)^T \bar{q})\right)$$

Clarifying terminology:

- Lost opportunity cost sometimes referred to as **uplift**
- Other publications reserve the term uplift for make-whole payments
- Difference in terminology reflects deeper divide regarding pricing in non-convex market models
  - Some experts argue that uplift payments should be minimized
  - Others argue in favor of minimizing lost opportunity cost



# Example 7.8: lost opportunity cost depends on the market price

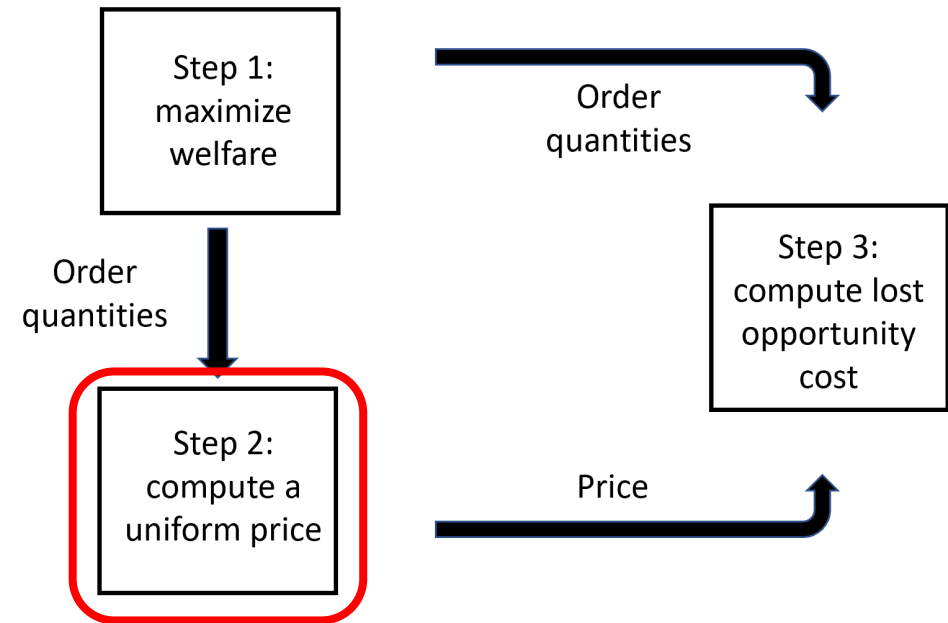


# Alternative pricing proposals

# Alternative pricing proposals

## Alternatives for step 2:

- Convex hull pricing (MISO)
- Integer programming pricing (California)
- Linear programming relaxation (PJM)



# Mathematical definition

- $\text{conv}(X)$ : convex hull of set  $X$
- $f^{**}$ : the tightest convex approximation of  $f$

# Convex hull pricing

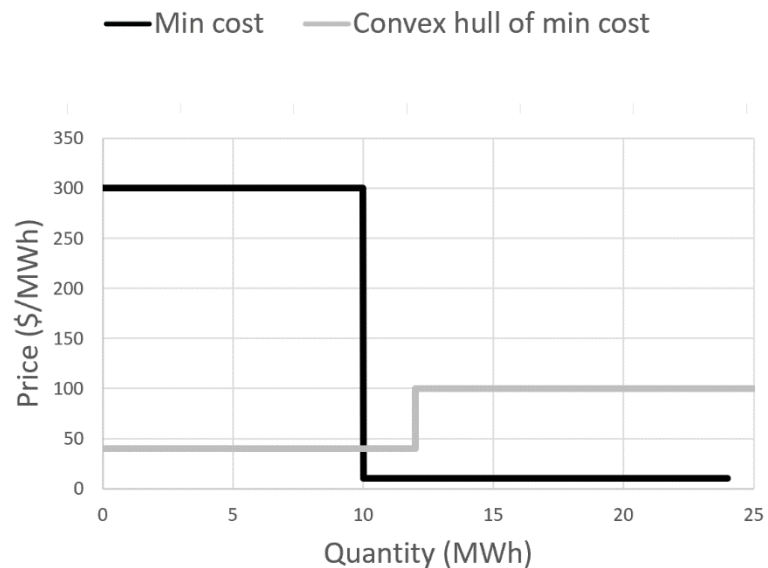
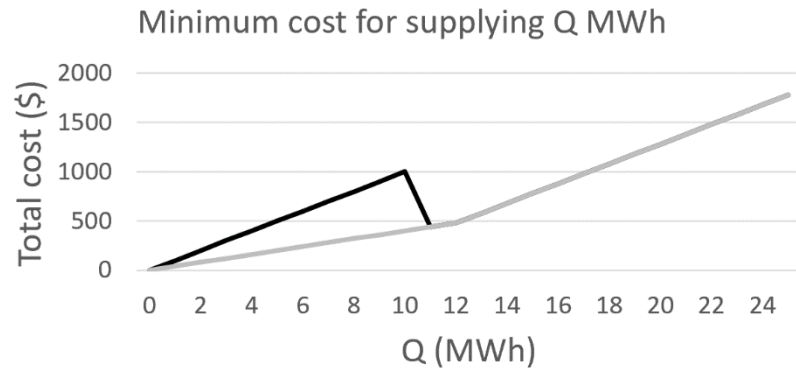
Energy and reserve prices  $(\lambda, \lambda R)$  are computed from the solution of the following problem:

$$\begin{aligned} (CHP): \min_{p,u,r} & \sum_{g \in G} TC_g^{**}(u_g, p_g) \\ & (p_g, u_g, r_g) \in \text{conv}(X_g), g \in G \\ (\lambda): & \sum_{g \in G} p_{gt} = D_t, t = 1, \dots, T \\ (\lambda R): & \sum_{g \in G} r_{gt} = R_t, t = 1, \dots, T \end{aligned}$$

where  $X_g = \{(p_g, u_g, r_g): h_g(p_g, r_g, u_g) \leq 0, u_g \in \{0,1\}^T\}$

Intuition: the equilibrium price that would emerge from a convex economy that the “closest possible” to our non-convex economy

# Example 7.11: convex hull pricing



- **Black curve:** what is the cheapest way to produce Q MWh?
- **Gray curve:** the convex hull is the largest convex function that sits under the black curve
- If offers were not “complicated” (i.e. if they were convex) we would get the orange total cost function
- Convex hull prices are the prices that would emerge in this convex model, which is closest convex approximation to the true setting

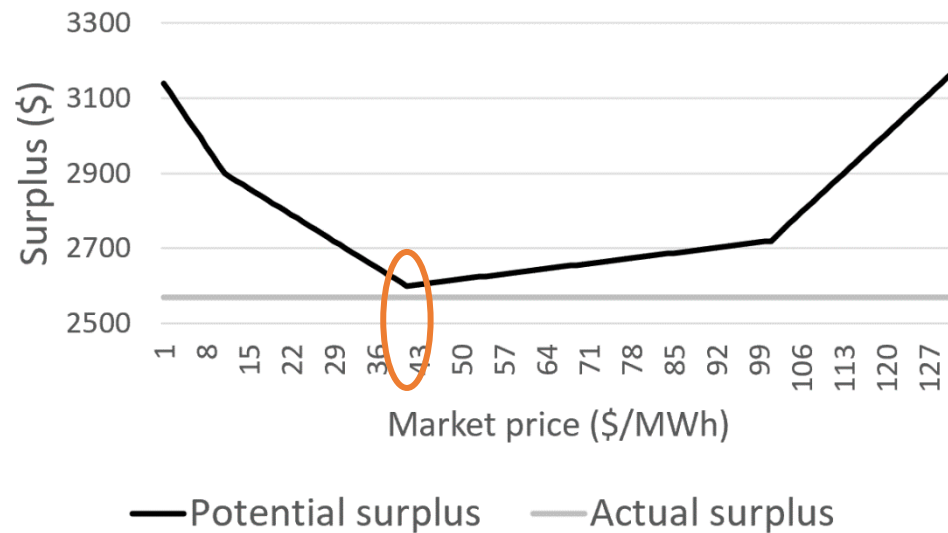
# Convex hull pricing minimizes lost opportunity cost

- Lost opportunity cost is the duality gap of the market model when we relax market clearing constraints
- The convex hull price minimizes lost opportunity cost

Mathematically:

$$p^* - d^* = \sum_{g \in G} \Pi_g^*(\lambda^*, \lambda R^*) - \sum_{g \in G} \bar{\Pi}_g(\lambda^*, \lambda R^*) = LOC(\lambda^*, \lambda R^*)$$

# Convex hull pricing minimizes lost opportunity cost



**Convex hull price (CHP):** price that minimizes lost opportunity cost

For our example, the CHP is **40 \$/MWh**

The minimum lost opportunity cost is **\$30**



# Integer programming pricing

Energy and reserve prices ( $\lambda$ ,  $\lambda R$ ) are computed by solving the following problem:

$$\begin{aligned} (IP): \min_{p,r} & \sum_{g \in G} TC_g(u_g^*, p_g) \\ & h_g(p_g, r_g, u_g^*) \leq 0, g \in G \\ (\lambda): & \sum_{g \in G} p_{gt} = D_t, t = 1, \dots, T \\ (\lambda R): & \sum_{g \in G} r_{gt} = R_t, t = 1, \dots, T \end{aligned}$$

where  $u^*$  are the optimal commitments that are computed in step 1 of slide 19

# Example 7.12: integer programming pricing

- From slide 6, we have that  $u_C^* = 1$
- So the IP price is the dual multiplier  $\lambda$  of the following model:

$$\max_{p,d} 300 \cdot d_A + 10 \cdot d_B - 40 \cdot p_C - 100 \cdot p_D$$

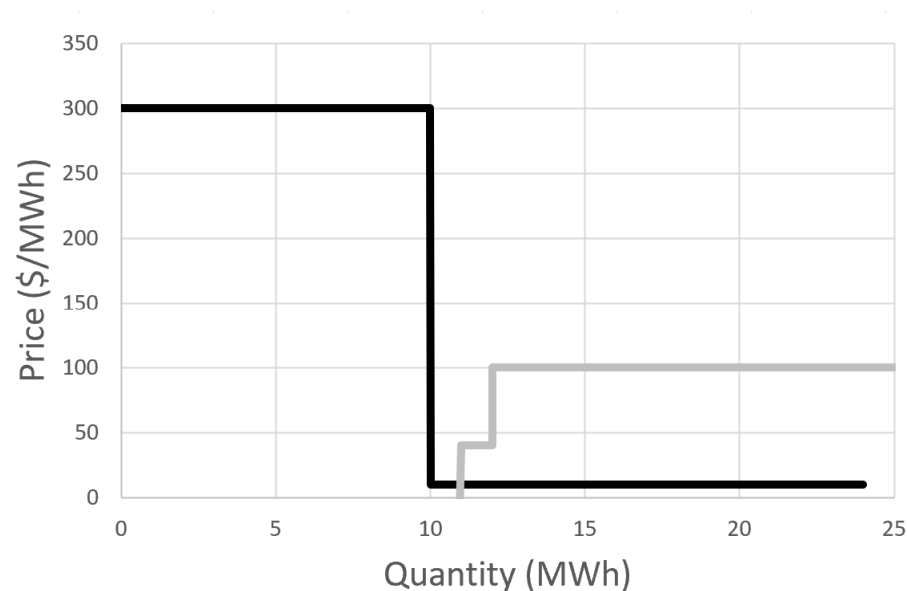
$$(\lambda): d_A + d_B - p_C - p_D = 0$$

$$11 \leq p_C \leq 12$$

$$d_A \leq 10, d_B \leq 40, p_D \leq 13$$

$$d_A, d_B, p_D \geq 0$$

# Graphical interpretation of integer programming pricing



- Due to the constraint  $p_C \geq 11$ , the supply curve of C and D essentially “starts” at 11 MWh
- In other words, at this point, the supply curve moves from minus infinity to 40 \$/MWh
- The IP price is the intersection of this supply curve with the demand curve, thus equal to 10 \$/MWh

# Linear programming relaxation pricing

The prices of energy and reserve ( $\lambda, \lambda R$ ) are computed from the solution of the following problem:

$$(LPR): \min_{u,p,r} \sum_{g \in G} TC_g(u_g, p_g)$$

$$h_g(p_g, r_g, u_g) \leq 0, g \in G$$

$$(\lambda): \sum_{g \in G} p_{gt} = D_t, t = 1, \dots, T$$

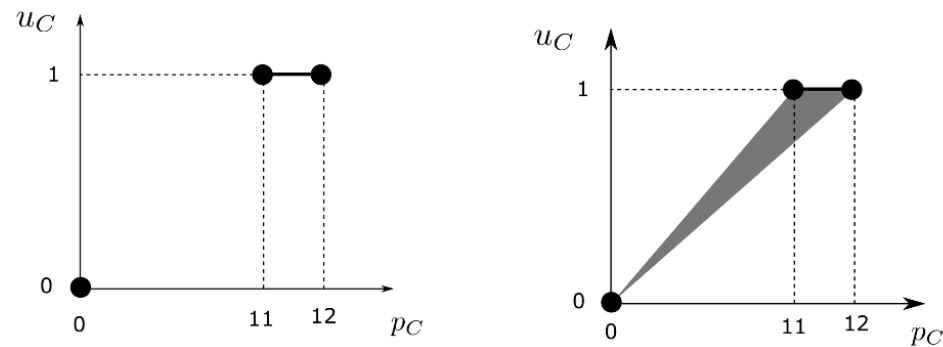
$$(\lambda R): \sum_{g \in G} r_{gt} = R_t, t = 1, \dots, T$$

$$0 \leq u_{gt} \leq 1, g \in G, t = 1, \dots, T$$

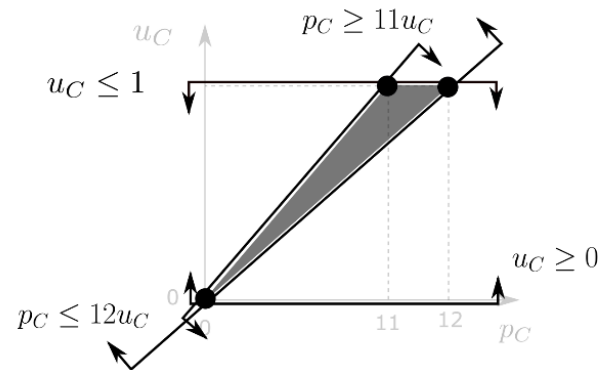
# Some advantages of linear programming relaxation pricing

- Simple implementation (+)
- Computationally easy (+)
- The method leads to the exact same solution as convex hull pricing in certain cases (+)

# Equivalence of linear programming relaxation and convex hull pricing (in simple cases)



- Upper left: the feasible set of bid C
- Upper right: the convex hull of the feasible set of bid C
- Lower: linear relaxation of bid C



Important observation: the upper right and lower sets are equivalent

# Example 7:13: linear programming relaxation pricing

The linear programming relaxation price is the dual multiplier  $\lambda$  of the following model:

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{p,u,d} & 300 \cdot d_A + 10 \cdot d_B - 40 \cdot p_C - 100 \cdot p_D \\ (\lambda): & d_A + d_B - p_C - p_D = 0 \\ & 11 \cdot u_C \leq p_C \leq 12 \cdot u_C \\ & d_A \leq 10, d_B \leq 40, p_D \leq 13 \\ & d_A, d_B, p_D \geq 0 \\ & 0 \leq u_C \leq 1 \end{aligned}$$

Clearing price: 40 \$/MWh (same as CHP)

# The European exchange and EUPHEMIA



# Products in the European power exchange

- Aggregated hourly orders
  - Linear orders
  - Stepwise orders
- Complex orders
  - Load gradients
  - Minimum income conditions
- Block orders
- Merit orders and unique national price (Prezzo Unico Nazionale, PUN) orders

# Το πρόβλημα εκκαθάρισης της ευρωπαϊκής αγοράς ηλεκτρισμού

- Integer quadratic program subject to complementarity constraints
- Quadratic objective function: surplus from trading energy
- Integer variables: accept or reject block orders and other products
- Complementarity constraints: pricing business rules in the European market

# Formulation of the model (in words) for the running example

Maximize surplus, subject to the following constraints:

- Pricing rules for continuous offers (bids A, B, and D): maximize surplus given market prices
- Pricing rules for block orders (bid C): cannot be paradoxically accepted, but can be paradoxically rejected

# Pricing rules of continuous offers

Surplus maximization problem of bid A is expressed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{d_A} & (300 - \lambda) \cdot d_A \\ (\mu_A): & d_A \leq 10 \end{aligned}$$

Equivalent to the following KKT conditions:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 & \leq d_A \perp \lambda - 300 + \mu_A \geq 0 \\ 0 & \leq \mu_A \perp 10 - d_A \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

# Confirming the pricing rules

- If the bid is fully accepted ( $d_A = 10$ ), then it is in the money or at the money ( $300 \geq \lambda$ )
- If the bid is partially accepted ( $0 < d_A < 10$ ) then it is on the money ( $300 = \lambda$ )
- If the bid is rejected ( $d_A = 0$ ), then it is on the money or out of the money ( $300 \leq \lambda$ )

# Block order pricing rules

We work with the *linear relaxation* of the block order profit maximization problem:

$$\begin{aligned} & \max_{u_C, p_C} (\lambda - 40) \cdot p_C \\ & (\mu_C): p_C - 12 \cdot u_C \leq 0 \\ & (\nu_C): 11 \cdot u_C - p_C \leq 0 \\ & (s_C): u_C \leq 1 \\ & p_C, u_C \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

# KKT conditions of linear relaxation

The KKT conditions of the previous slide are:

$$\begin{aligned}0 &\leq p_C \perp 40 - \lambda + \mu_C - v_C \geq 0 \\0 &\leq u_C \perp -12 \cdot \mu_C + 11 \cdot v_C + s_C \geq 0 \\0 &\leq \mu_C \perp 12 \cdot u_C - p_C \geq 0 \\0 &\leq v_C \perp p_C - 11 \cdot u_C \geq 0 \\0 &\leq s_C \perp 1 - u_C \geq 0\end{aligned}$$

In order to express the pricing rules, we remove the complementarity operator from the last condition:

$$0 \leq s_C \cancel{\perp} 1 - u_C \geq 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad s_C \geq 0, u_C \leq 1$$

# What is the effect of removing the complementarity operator?

The complementarity operator prevents

- that the offer has positive surplus ( $s_C > 0$ ) *and*
- that it is not fully accepted ( $u_C < 1$ )

Lifting complementarity is precisely the essence of paradoxically rejected orders



# Full model for the running example

Maximize surplus (EUDA):  $\max_{p,d,u,\lambda,\mu,\nu,s} 300 \cdot d_A + 10 \cdot d_B - 40 \cdot p_C - 100 \cdot p_D$

Pricing rules of  
continuous orders

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq d_A \perp \lambda - 300 + \mu_A &\geq 0, 0 \leq \mu_A \perp 10 - d_A \geq 0 \\ 0 \leq d_B \perp \lambda - 10 + \mu_B &\geq 0, 0 \leq \mu_B \perp 14 - d_B \geq 0 \\ 0 \leq p_D \perp 100 - \lambda + \mu_D &\geq 0, 0 \leq \mu_D \perp 13 - p_D \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Pricing rules of block  
orders

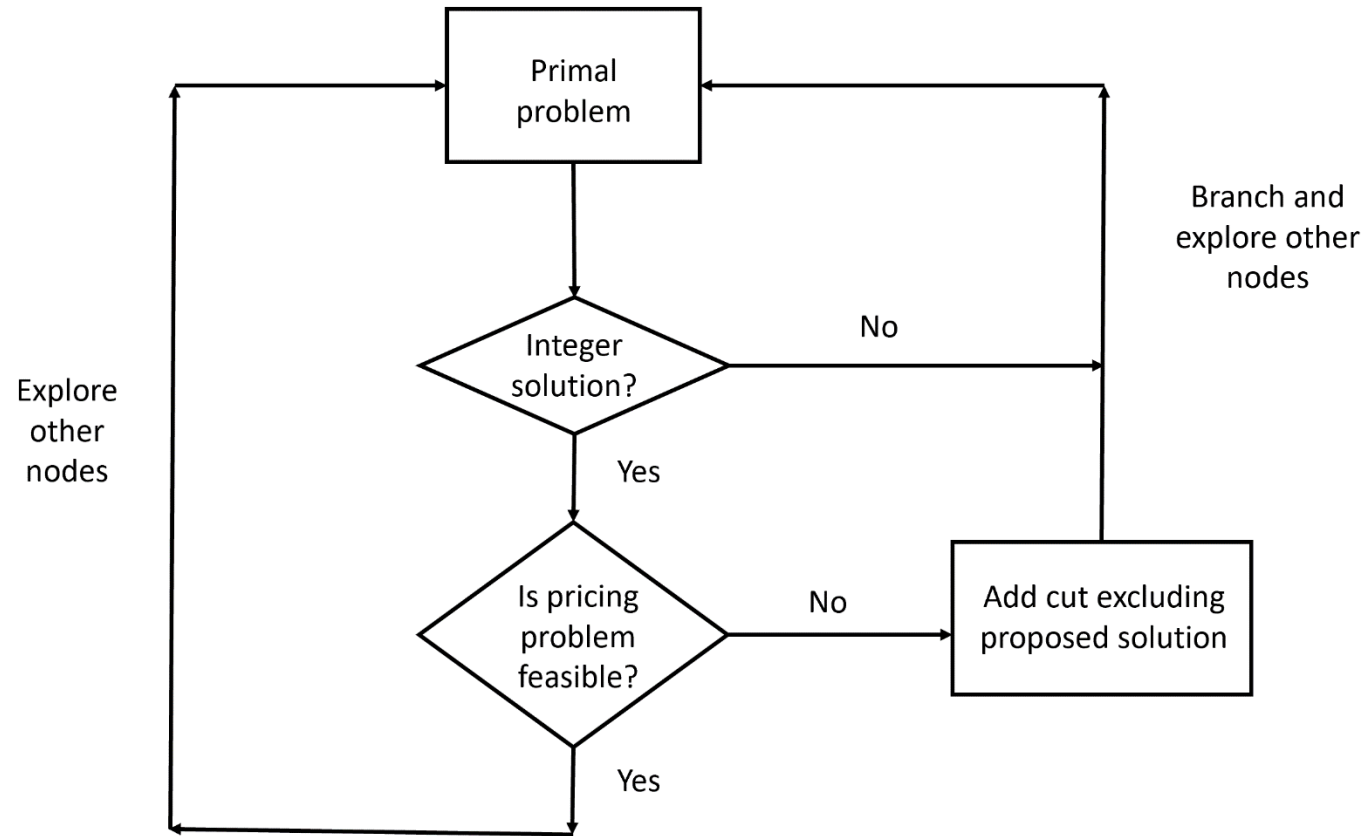
$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq p_C \perp 40 - \lambda + \mu_C - \nu_C &\geq 0 \\ 0 \leq u_C \perp -12 \cdot \mu_C + 11 \cdot \nu_C + s_C &\geq 0 \\ 0 \leq \mu_C \perp 12 \cdot u_C - p_C &\geq 0 \\ 0 \leq \nu_C \perp p_C - 11 \cdot u_C &\geq 0 \\ s_C \geq 0, u_C \in \{0,1\} & \end{aligned}$$

$$d_A + d_B - p_C - p_D = 0$$

# Some observations

- The model is expressed in both primal and dual variables
- The problem is **mixed integer** (binary variable  $u_C$ )
- The problem is subject to **complementarity constraints** (pricing rules)
  
- **Mixed integer**  $\Rightarrow$  hard
- **Complementarity conditions**  $\Rightarrow$  extremely hard

# EUPHEMIA



# EUPHEMIA

- EUPHEMIA is a branch and bound algorithm
- Developed by N-SIDE, spinoff of the Center for Operations Research and Econometrics (CORE) at the Université catholique de Louvain
- Clears the **pan-European** day-ahead electricity market

# The EUPHEMIA algorithm

- *Primal problem* function: convex integer program (computationally easy)
  - Binary variables are replaced by their linear relaxations
- *Integer solution* check: (easy) check if the solution of the problem results in integer values for  $u$
- *Feasible pricing problem* check: can be expressed as a linear program
- *Add cut excluding proposed solution* function: one of the strong points of the EUPHEMIA algorithm

# Feasible pricing problem

- Corresponds to the complementarity system that implements the pricing rules
- We use *constant* values for primal variables  $(u, p, d)$  from the optimal solution of the *primal problem*
- Computationally easy step
- The only free variables in this computation are the dual variables, i.e.  $(\mu, \nu, \lambda, s)$

# Adding cuts

- Cuts exploit the structure of the problem
- They cut off not only the current candidate solution but also many other alternatives that will never need to be explored in the branch and bound tree
- Such “deep” cuts exploit the special structure of the problem that is tackled by EUPHEMIA

# References

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

<https://www.cambridge.org/highereducation/books/optimization-models-in-electricity-markets/0D2D36891FB5EB6AAC3A4EFC78A8F1D3#overview>

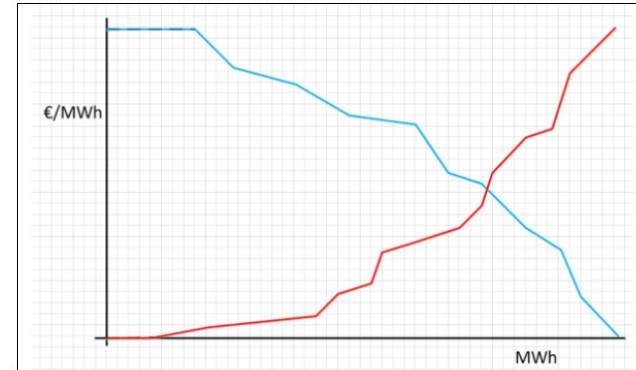
[2] Madani, Mehdi, and Mathieu Van Vyve. "Computationally efficient MIP formulation and algorithms for European day-ahead electricity market auctions." European Journal of Operational Research 242.2 (2015): 580-593



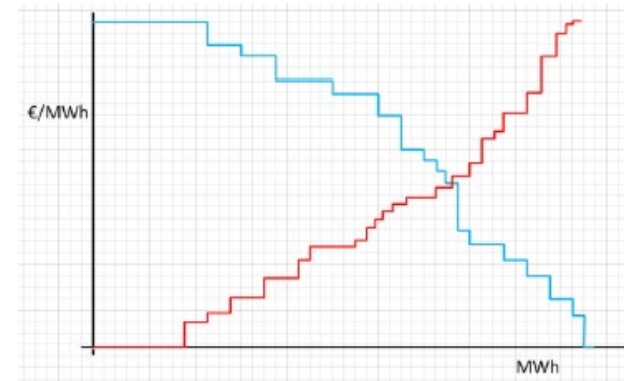
# Appendix

# Aggregated hourly orders

- Specific to each hour within a bidding area
- Supply orders are sorted in increasing price
- Demand orders are sorted in decreasing price
- Stepwise curves: two consecutive points always have same price or same quantity



Linear piecewise aggregated curve



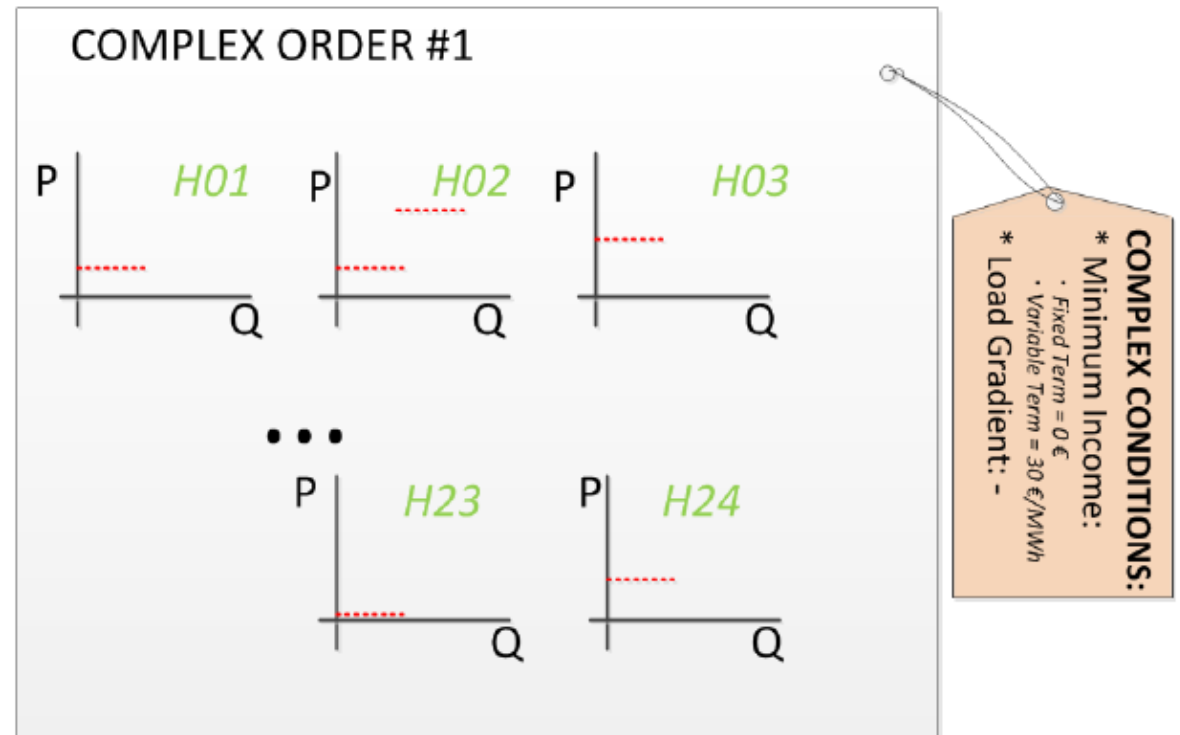
Stepwise aggregated curve

# Acceptance of aggregated orders

- Definition of ITM/ATM/OTM:
  - A demand (resp. supply) hourly order is said to be ***in-the-money*** (ITM) when the market clearing price is lower (resp. higher) than the price of the hourly order
  - A demand or supply hourly order is said to be ***at-the-money*** (ATM) when the price of the hourly order is equal to the market clearing price
  - A demand (resp. supply) hourly order is said to be ***out-of-the-money*** (OTM) when the market clearing price is higher (resp. lower) than the price of the hourly order
- Acceptance rules:
  - Any in-the-money order must be fully accepted
  - Any out-of-the money order must be rejected
  - At-the-money orders can be either accepted (fully or partially) or rejected

# Complex orders

- Used for representing dependencies across time periods
- Two types of complex conditions:
  - Minimum Income Condition (with or without scheduled stop)
  - Load Gradient

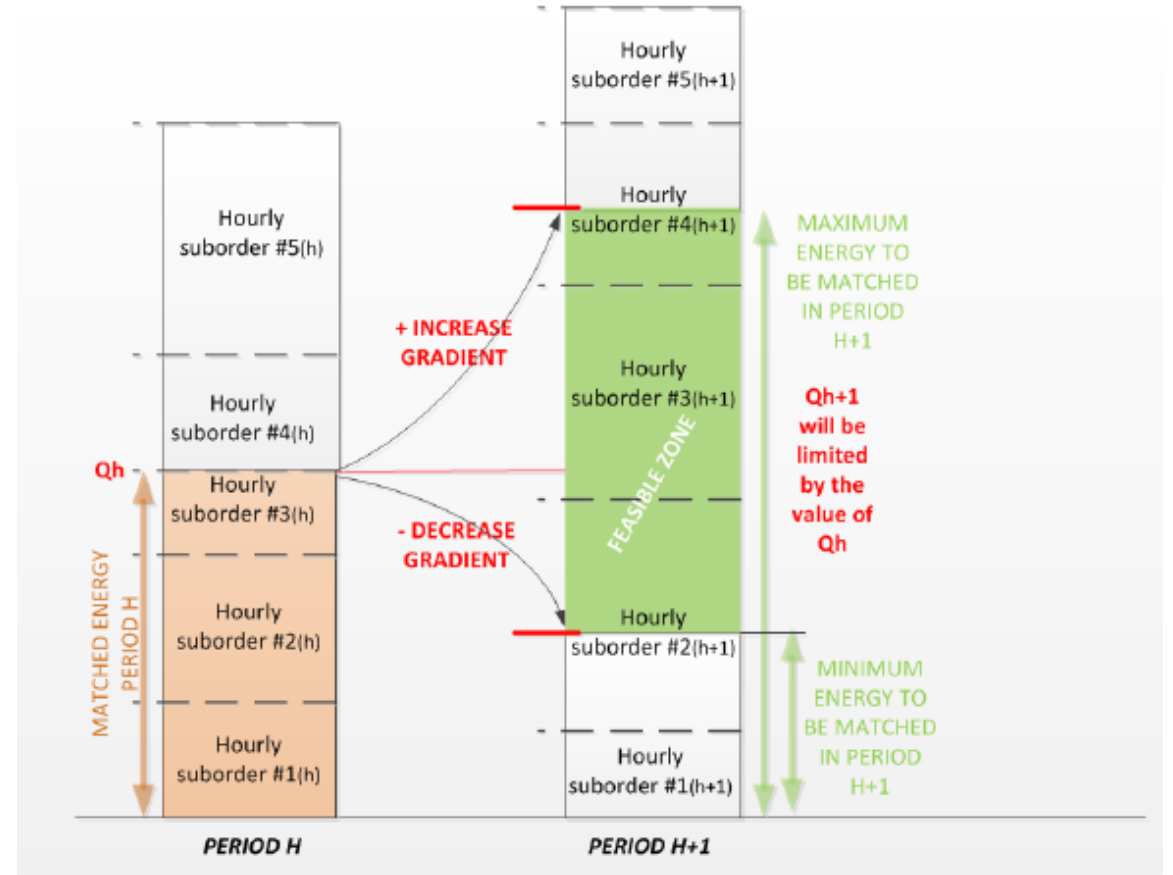


# Minimum income conditions (MIC)

- Minimum income conditions mean that the order should cover
  - a fixed (startup) cost and
  - a variable (fuel) cost
- If MIC is activated, each of the hourly sub-orders is
  - accepted if in-the-money
  - rejected if out-of-the-money
  - can be either accepted (fully or partially) or rejected if at-the-money
- If a MIC order is deactivated, every sub-order is fully rejected (even if in-the-money)
- No paradoxically accepted MICs

# Load gradient orders

- Used to represent ramp constraints
- Ramp limited by an increment/decrement limit (same value for all periods)



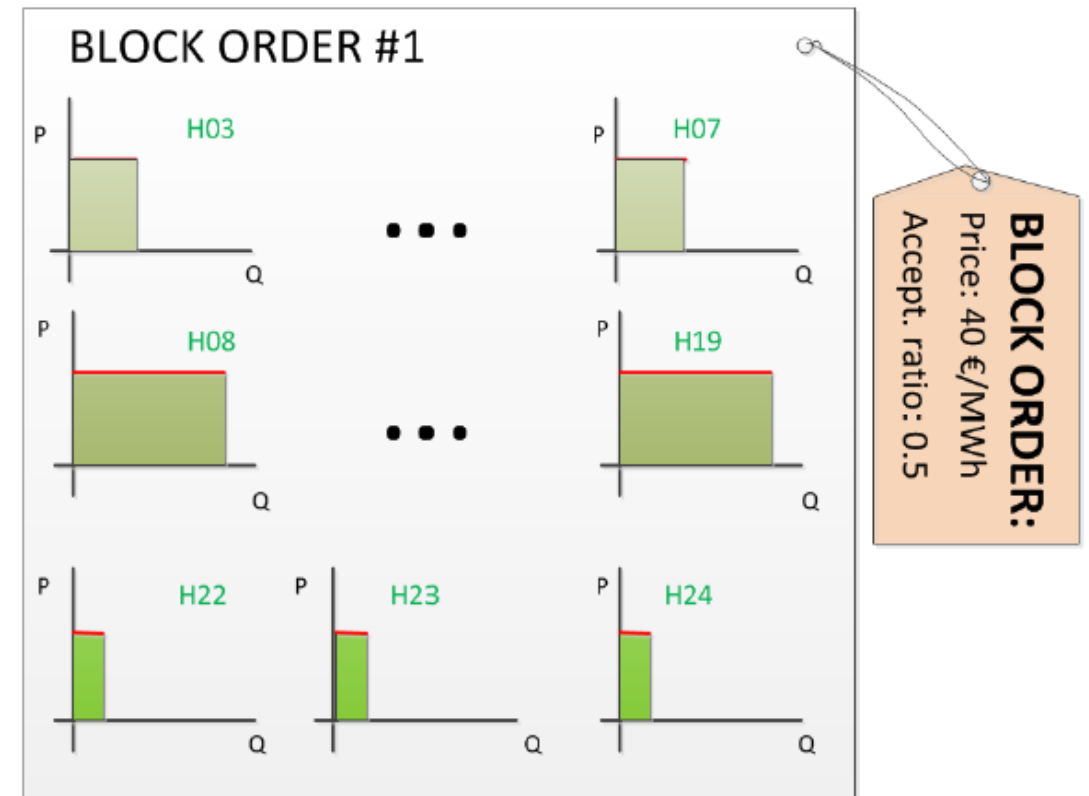
# Block orders

- A block order is defined by:
  - Sense (supply or demand)
  - Price limit
  - Number of periods
  - Volume (can be different for every period)
  - Minimum acceptance ratio
- **Regular (fill-or-kill) block order:**
  - Block order defined for a consecutive set of periods
  - Same volume
  - A minimum acceptance ratio of 1
- The periods of the block order can be non-consecutive
- The volume can differ over the periods
- **Curtable Block Orders:** the minimum acceptance ratio can be less than 1

# Example block order

Example block order:

- Sense: supply
- Price: 40 €/MWh
- Minimum acceptance ratio: 0.5
- Intervals: hours (3-7), hours (8-19) and hours (22-24)
- Volume: 80 MWh in the first interval, 220 MWh in the second one, and 40 MWh in the third one



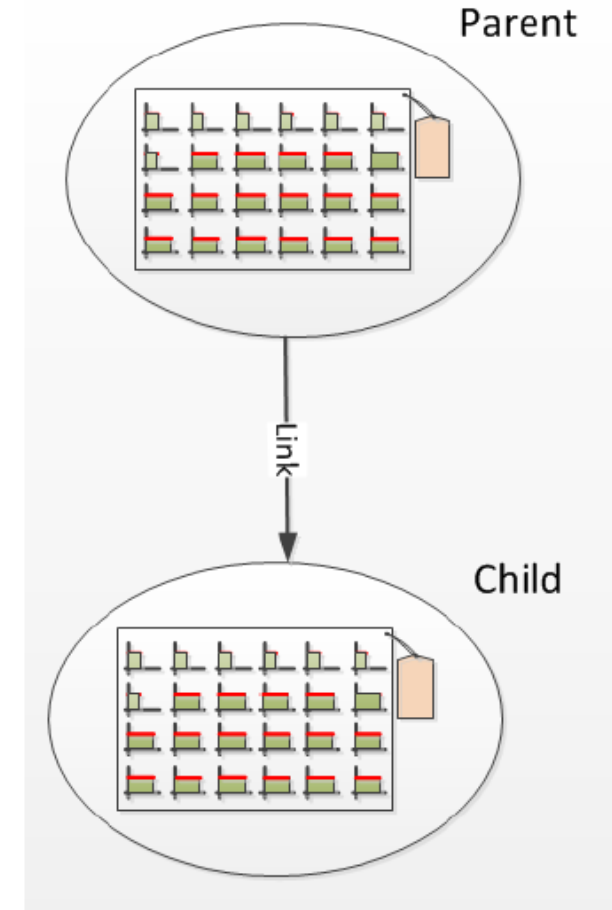


# Acceptance of block orders

- Block orders that are ***out-of-the-money*** must be rejected
- If the block is ***in-the-money*** (or ***at-the-money***), then the block can be entirely accepted
- If the block is ***in-the-money*** (or ***at-the-money***), then the block can be fully rejected => Paradoxically Rejected Bid (PRB)
- If the block is ***in-the-money*** (or ***at-the-money***), then the block can be partially accepted => Partially Paradoxically Rejected Bid (PPRB)

# Linked block orders

- The child can never be accepted “more” than the parent
- A child which is individually generating losses cannot be accepted, unless it is itself a parent of another order
- Rules in a single link:
  - The parent can be accepted alone
  - The child can “save” the parent with its surplus, but not the opposite



# Block orders in an exclusive group

- An exclusive group is a set of block orders for which the sum of the accepted ratios cannot exceed 1
- When blocks have a minimum acceptance ratio of 1, at most one of the blocks in the exclusive group can be accepted

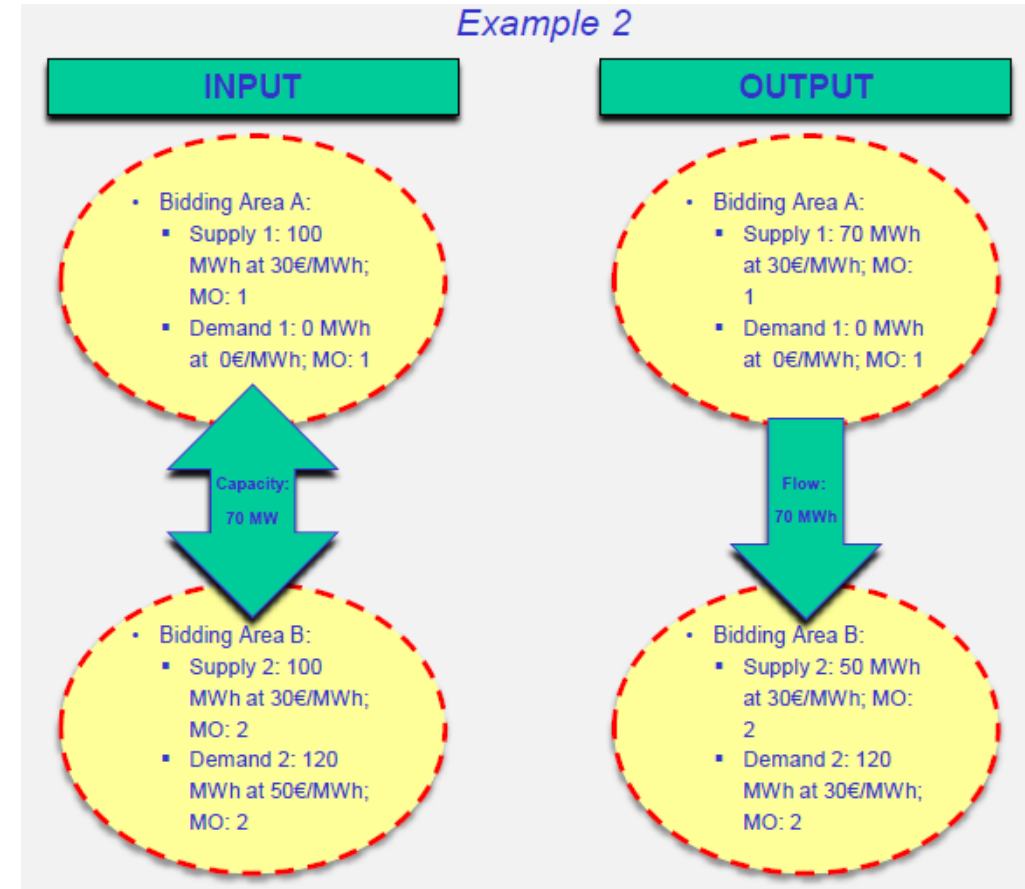
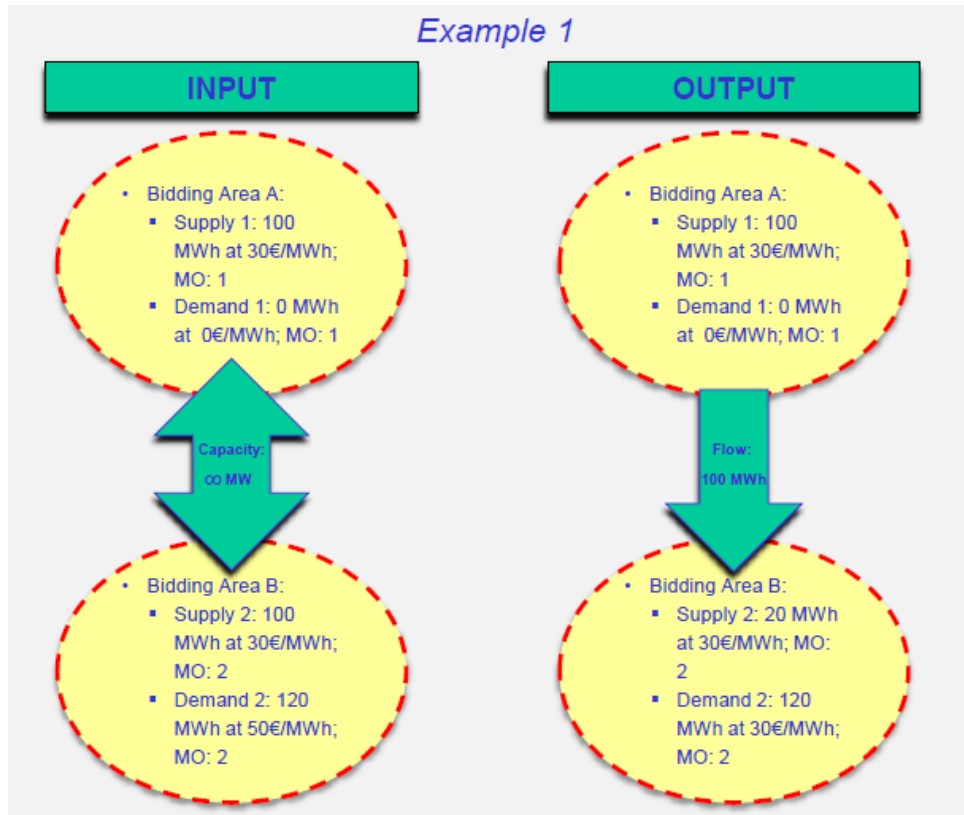
# Flexible hourly block order

- A flexible “hourly” order is a block order with a fixed price limit, a fixed volume, minimum acceptance ratio of 1, with duration of 1 hour
- The hour is not defined by the participant but is determined by the algorithm (hence the name “flexible”)

# Merit orders

- Merit orders are individual step orders defined at a given period that have an associated so-called **merit order number**
- A merit order number is unique per period and order type (demand, supply, PUN)
- The merit order number is used for ranking merit orders in the *bidding areas* containing this order type
- The lower the merit order number, the higher the priority for acceptance

# Merit order examples



# PUN orders

- PUN orders are a particular type of demand merit orders
- Cleared at the **PUN price** (“Prezzo Unico Nazionale”) rather than the *bidding area* market clearing price
- For each period, financial balance needs to hold:

$$P_{PUN} \cdot \sum_z Q_z = \sum_z P_z \cdot Q_z \pm \Delta$$

- $P_{PUN}$ : PUN price
- $Q_z$ : volumes consumed in bidding area  $z$
- $P_z$ : price of bidding area  $z$
- $\Delta$ : PUN imbalance (has to be near-zero)