(Yesterday's &) Today's Electric Power System

Lecture 17

eDMP: 14.43 / 15.031 / 21A.341 / 11.161

In 2010 Electricity Used 40% of Primary Energy, Produced About 40% of CO₂ Emissions; 74% to Residential + Commercial, Supplied 46% of Energy



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This Session and the Next

- Today:
 - Essential features of electric power systems
 - History & current status of the US system
- Next Monday:
 - Challenges facing the system looking forward
 - Opportunities provided by new technologies
 - Live policy issues, being debated now

Key Features of Electric Power Systems

- Output is essentially not storable
 - Pumped hydro, compressed air are used, but expensive
- Demand varies over time, not perfectly predicable
 - Most US systems are now summer peaking, even NE

Graph of 2009-2010 peak forecast removed due to copyright restrictions.

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Graph of forecast load and actual load removed due to copyright restrictions.

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 - Considerable short-term variation within days
 - Frequency normally maintained by automatic control at designated "load-following" units not nukes or coal
- Since capacity used varies, it is efficient to mix technologies. Suppose only two (classic) types:
 - Baseload units (nuclear, coal) have high fixed (capital) cost, low marginal (mainly fuel) cost – run as much as possible
 - Peaking units (gas turbine, diesel) have relatively low fixed costs, higher marginal cost – run only when needed

Coal/Nuclear baseload plants generally huge; CCGT/gas turbines can be small



Generally baseload plants run flat out when they run; other plants can more easily vary output to follow load

Photo by NRC and Jim Champion on Wikipedia Commons.



Consider two plants with equal capacities: If plan to run < H* hours, the peaker is cheaper



Load Duration Curve for Britain, Continuing Two-Technology Example; Optimal Mix (Stylized!!)



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Many technologies, costs; "economic dispatch" = turn on lowest marginal cost units first

Graph of 2008 supply curve for lower 48 NERC regions removed due to copyright restrictions.

Grid Architecture & Features

• Transmission & distribution generally viewed as natural monopolies; inefficient to have two systems

Natural Monopoly & Its Problems

- Natural monopoly: having more than one supplier would raise costs (significantly)
 - Sub-additivity: $C(X_1 + X_2) < C(X_1) + C(X_2)$ for all X vectors
 - Global scale economies sufficient:
- What problems do natural monopolies pose?
 - Competition not viable (cable?)
 - Prices above costs (deadweight loss triangles)
 - Costs likely too high (rectangles, potentially larger)



> If products are necessities, poor \rightarrow rich transfers

"Solutions" to Natural Monopoly

- Several policy types have been employed to deal with natural monopolies – Examples? Characteristics?
 - <u>Government ownership</u> (EU, LADWP, MBTA eventually; incentives to control employment, costs?)
 - Regulation by <u>local contract</u> (early streetcars, buses, etc.)
 - Cost-plus or <u>rate-of-return regulation</u> (US early 20th century innovation; controls profits, but not costs)
 - <u>"Incentive" regulation (RPI-X; gives incentives between infrequent reviews, but prices can get out of whack)</u>
 - <u>Franchise bidding (compete for the market, but hard to have fair bidding for renewals)</u>
 - <u>Cooperatives</u> (like the COOP, owned by their customers)
- All these become "political" in practice; none perfect
 - Economists often argue for limiting their scope for efficiency

Grid Architecture & Features

- Transmission & distribution generally viewed as natural monopolies; inefficient to have two systems
- Low-voltage distribution to customers: mainly a <u>tree</u> structure, one path from transmission to load
- High voltage transmission from generation: a <u>mesh</u> structure, generally many paths from A to B
 - Reliability (within & between utilities) a key motivation, but multiple paths cost more
 - Current flows on ALL paths from A to B, with loadings depending on impedance – Kirchhoff's laws, not pipes
 - Individual lines have stability, thermal capacities: exceeding thermal capacity causes over-heating, sag, failure
 - Increasing generation at A and load at B may cause transmission lines elsewhere to congest – "loop flow"

Transmission: 3 "Interconnects", ≈170k Miles; Eastern 73%, Western 19%, ERCOT 8% of Sales

Map of power grids across the US in 2004 removed due to copyright restrictions.

Early history, State Regulation

- 1882: Edison's Pearl Street Station, 100v DC to 59 nearby lighting customers
- 1880s: More local DC systems, "regulation" by municipal franchise; concessions for use of streets
- Municipal systems (LA, Belmont), peaked at 8% of generation in 1900 – like transit, water, etc
- 1896: Westinghouse uses AC + transformers (new) to send power from Niagara Falls to Buffalo; AC wins
- Transmission enables geographic expansion, state "public utility" regulation spreads from 1907
- In Europe, government firms came to dominate Why?

A Federal Role Emerges

- 1906: Start selling (Cheap! Why?) surplus power from irrigation projects, preference for municipals
- 1900-29: *14%/year growth(!),* interstate holding companies formed to drive stocks, evade regulation
- 1920: FPC (now FERC) deals with hydro (waterways are federal), wholesale power regulation from 1935
- 1935: PUHCA outlaws multi-area holding companies, freezes vertically integrated monopoly structure
- 1930s: Rural electric coops created, get preferential access to cheap power from federal dams (e.g., TVA)
- 1950: Federal generation was 12% of US total

Characteristics of State Regulation

- Utilities: monopoly service areas (esp. post-PUHCA); commissions: require "just & reasonable" rates
- "Rate of return" regulation: set prices so utility would earn "fair rate of return" on investment cost plus
- How/why might this system perform badly?
 - Costs too high because no discipline
 - ▶ Gold-plating (A-J) because more capital \Rightarrow more profit
 - "Capture," since utility is organized but consumers aren't
 - No incentive to make prices reflect cost differences over time; differences among customers reflected politics not cost
- Why few complaints until the 1970s?
 - Rapid technical change drove real prices down until then

An Alternative Model Appears

- 1970s: Pressures for change build
 - Deregulation of wellhead natural gas, airlines, railroads, interstate trucking lead to price reductions
 - Electricity: fuel cost increases slowed demand, led to excess generation capacity for which ratepayers must pay
- 1978: PURPA required utilities to buy from renewables, CHP units at regulated "avoided cost"
- Early 1980s: "Why not just deregulate electricity?"
 - Joskow & Schmalensee 1983, Markets for Power. some scope for competition, special features mean care is needed
- 1990: Privatization, vertical disintegration in England and Wales: wholesale markets, independent grid!!

The US Starts to Follow, But Hits a Wall

- 1992-96: EPA expands FERC authority, FERC requires transmission systems to be "common carriers"
- 1999: FERC enables independent grid operators (ISOs & RTOs) with wholesale markets, some implement
- 2000-01: Prices in the CA market, which began in 1998, explode; blackouts; Enron...
- Post-California: Movement toward reform stops; pressure to reverse in areas where capacity is tight
- Will discuss current state of play next time

The New, Market-Centric Model

- Competition in generation has worked elsewhere, though need to deal with market power
 - Has continued in England & Wales, now the core EU policy, in several Latin American countries (Chile since 1982!),
 - > And for about 2/3 of US consumers, including New England

Coverage of ISO/RTO Markets (Approx)



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Graph of average wholesale prices removed due to copyright restrictions.

The Current Structure (Approx)

- 2/3 of US customers & load in ISO/RTO areas
- **Transmission:** about 450 entities own parts; 66% investor-owned
- Distribution:
 - > 2,200 publicly owned (munis, feds), 16%
 - 820 cooperatives, 10%
 - > 242 Investor-owned, 66%
 - Retail competitors (no wires), 8%
- Generation (huge change since 1980):
 - Govt systems (incl. TVA) & coops, 16%
 - Investor-owned utilities (with retail sales), 42%
 - Independent producers (without retail sales), 42%

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