



# Challenges of Power Market Transition and Liberalization

Peter R Hartley

George & Cynthia Mitchell Professor of Economics and  
Rice Scholar in Energy Studies, James A. Baker III Institute for Public Policy

Rice University



## Key elements of reform

- ❖ Separate the industry into generation, transmission, distribution, and retailing and use an auction market to set a time-varying wholesale price of electricity
  - ❖ The IT revolution was a necessary pre-condition
- ❖ Encourage wholesale market competition between generators
  - ❖ Electricity *generation* is not a natural monopoly because short-run system-wide operating costs are increasing
  - ❖ Economies of scale in adding new capacity make the competitive investment path inefficient, but no worse than in many other industries run competitively
- ❖ Allow long-term contracts, with futures and options markets, to aid risk sharing
  - ❖ If generation < contracted amount, generator becomes a buyer and wants lower prices
  - ❖ Contracts for differences reconcile contract prices with formal spot market trading
    - ❖ A higher volume of spot trade makes the market more liquid, and reference to the spot price reveals the opportunity cost of a contract to both parties



## What are the potential gains?

- ❖ Most significant gains are where government-owned firms are privatized
- ❖ Strong evidence, not just from electricity markets, shows that government-owned firms do not minimize costs or provide good service
  - ❖ Shareholder owned firms have much stronger incentives to minimize cost and find better ways of serving customers, including via technological innovation
  - ❖ More rapid technological change raises the benefits of decentralized decision making
  - ❖ Nominally, monitoring by politicians replaces monitoring by shareholders, but profitability is not a primary focus of political monitoring
  - ❖ Government firms also often face budgetary or political constraints on investments
- ❖ Government firms impose commercial risks on taxpayers involuntarily, whereas private investors are those most willing to voluntarily accept risks
- ❖ The many other uses for scarce public funds – such as education, health, public infrastructure – make it costly for government to do things firms would do
- ❖ After investments have been made, the return to capital becomes “rents” to be fought over by consumers and suppliers



## Prices as signals

- ❖ Another key goal of electricity market reforms is to have market-determined prices direct resource use
  - ❖ Market prices convey information to consumers about production costs, and to producers about the benefits of satisfying consumer demand
- ❖ Individuals and firms have an incentive to respond to the price signals using information initially known only to themselves
  - ❖ In doing so, they can make the prices reflect their private information
  - ❖ Decentralized decision making can in principle utilize more, and more disparate, information than monopoly command and control structures
  - ❖ But the *structure* of prices needs to reflect the *structure* of costs and benefits, and decision makers need flexibility to respond to them
- ❖ If prices are distorted signals about marginal costs and benefits, markets allow incentivized agents to respond powerfully in the wrong ways



## Most common error: Inadequate competition

- ❖ Liberalization is a means to the end of promoting more efficient resource use
  - ❖ Furthermore, the net gains have to be sufficient to offset the transition costs
- ❖ If the new market is uncompetitive, the outcome can be worse than before reform
- ❖ Reduced competition has been supported by claims there are economies of scale in electricity generation that mean costs would be higher if firms were smaller
  - ❖ While there are likely economies from keeping a single owner/operator of generating sets *within each power station*, these do not extend to multiple generating stations
  - ❖ Econometric studies reporting economies of scale estimate production functions including capital as an input
  - ❖ While there are economies of scale in investment, these do not justify aggregating existing firms since that does not lower operating costs
- ❖ Another argument is that it is “more risky” for firms to hold generators that serve only part of the load (base, intermediate or peak)
  - ❖ But investors can usually diversify risk more efficiently than firms



## Problem: Asset sales price used as criterion

- ❖ Since governments are often privatizing to reduce a budget deficit, they want to raise as much money as possible
- ❖ Investment bankers advising the government on privatization also want the highest possible asset sales price since their fees typically depend on it
- ❖ Voters also may use the sale price to measure of the success of the policy
  - ❖ People selling their house, for example, want to get the highest possible price
  - ❖ So if privatization is seen as an asset sale, it is natural to regard a high sale price as better than a low sale price



## Why is this a mistake?

- ❖ The asset sale price does not reflect how efficiently resources are being used
- ❖ The government could maximize asset sale value by making the firm a monopoly
  - ❖ Investors would bid the discounted present value of the monopoly rents for the assets
  - ❖ But, the loss to the consumers would exceed the value of the monopoly rents
- ❖ Workers in the industry, and perhaps beneficiaries of politicized prices, also favor a market structure with lots of monopoly rents
  - ❖ With more rents, the politically powerful retain the opportunity to exploit privileges
  - ❖ But political action to capture rents wastes additional resources
- ❖ The best reform delivers maximum value to producers PLUS consumers, which amounts to maximizing *efficiency*



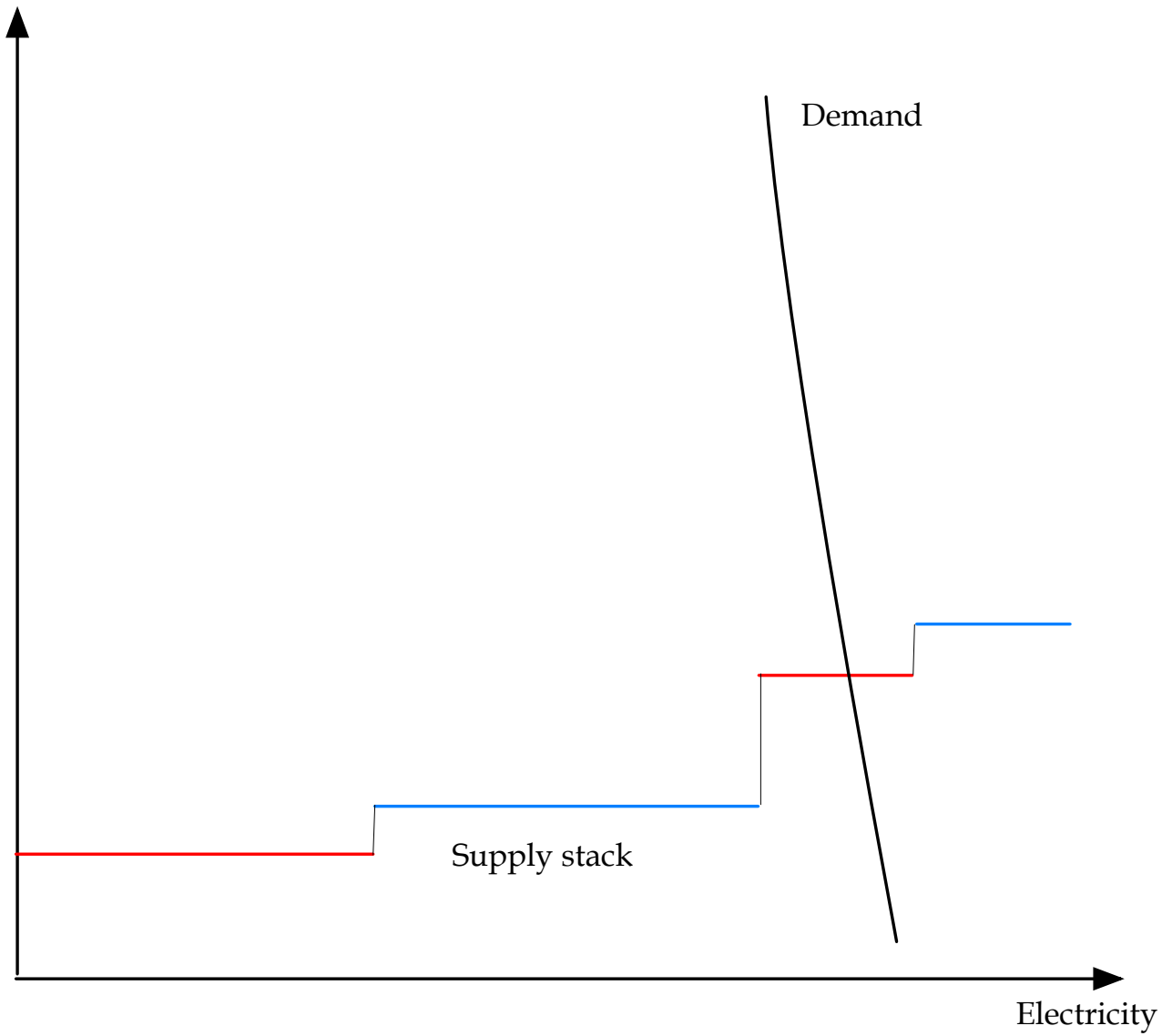
## Problems with portfolios of generators

- ❖ A firm with generators using just one technology has an incentive to bid its full capacity into the market at marginal cost whenever market price  $p \geq MC$
- ❖ But suppose a firm has 2 generators with different marginal costs  $MC_1 < MC_2$ 
  - ❖ If  $p = MC_2$ , reducing 2 output cuts revenue and operating costs by the same amount
  - ❖ But if  $p$  rises as a result, rents to type 1 plant increase (see next slide)
- ❖ A firm with plants at several locations can also exploit geographic price differentials by withholding capacity
- ❖ More generally, gaming the wholesale electricity market has repeatedly been a problem when firms hold multiple generators
- ❖ When firms can game the wholesale market, the prices will be a distorted signal of the true marginal costs of supply
  - ❖ Sending a “sharp signal” that is distorted could give a worse outcome than retaining the “blunt signals” of the old system of vertically integrated monopoly supply





Marginal cost, price





## Another common problem: Price Caps

- ❖ Low operating cost baseload plants earn revenue in excess of short-run operating costs in non-base periods to cover their capital costs
- ❖ Peak load plants are supposed to cover capital costs from:
  1. Providing ancillary services; but also
  2. Revenue in excess of short-run operating costs at peak periods when demand is capacity constrained
- ❖ But since electricity demand is quite inelastic, peak period prices needed to constrain demand can become very large
- ❖ Controls are often instituted to limit peak wholesale market prices
  - ❖ This leads to a “missing money problem”
- ❖ In many jurisdictions, capacity markets are being added to energy markets to ensure sufficient revenue to cover capital costs of plants
  - ❖ But these are difficult to design and often lead to too little or too much capacity



## Mandated generating technologies

- ❖ Even after the most successful privatization and reform programs, governments have again intervened, now usually to pursue environmental objectives
  - ❖ Governments mandating technologies have become vulnerable to rent seeking
- ❖ The environmental policies most compatible with competitive markets are taxes or tradeable emission permits, not command & control
  - ❖ The economic approaches harness incentives to minimize pollution
    - ❖ Clean air or water becomes another “input” into production
    - ❖ Firms are incentivized to do R&D to improve emissions reduction technology
  - ❖ Emission reductions are allocated across firms in the least cost way
    - ❖ Firms with lower costs of reducing emissions cut back more
- ❖ Permits with a ceiling and floor price are generally best because they reduce risks and give firms a stronger incentive to truthfully reveal costs of control

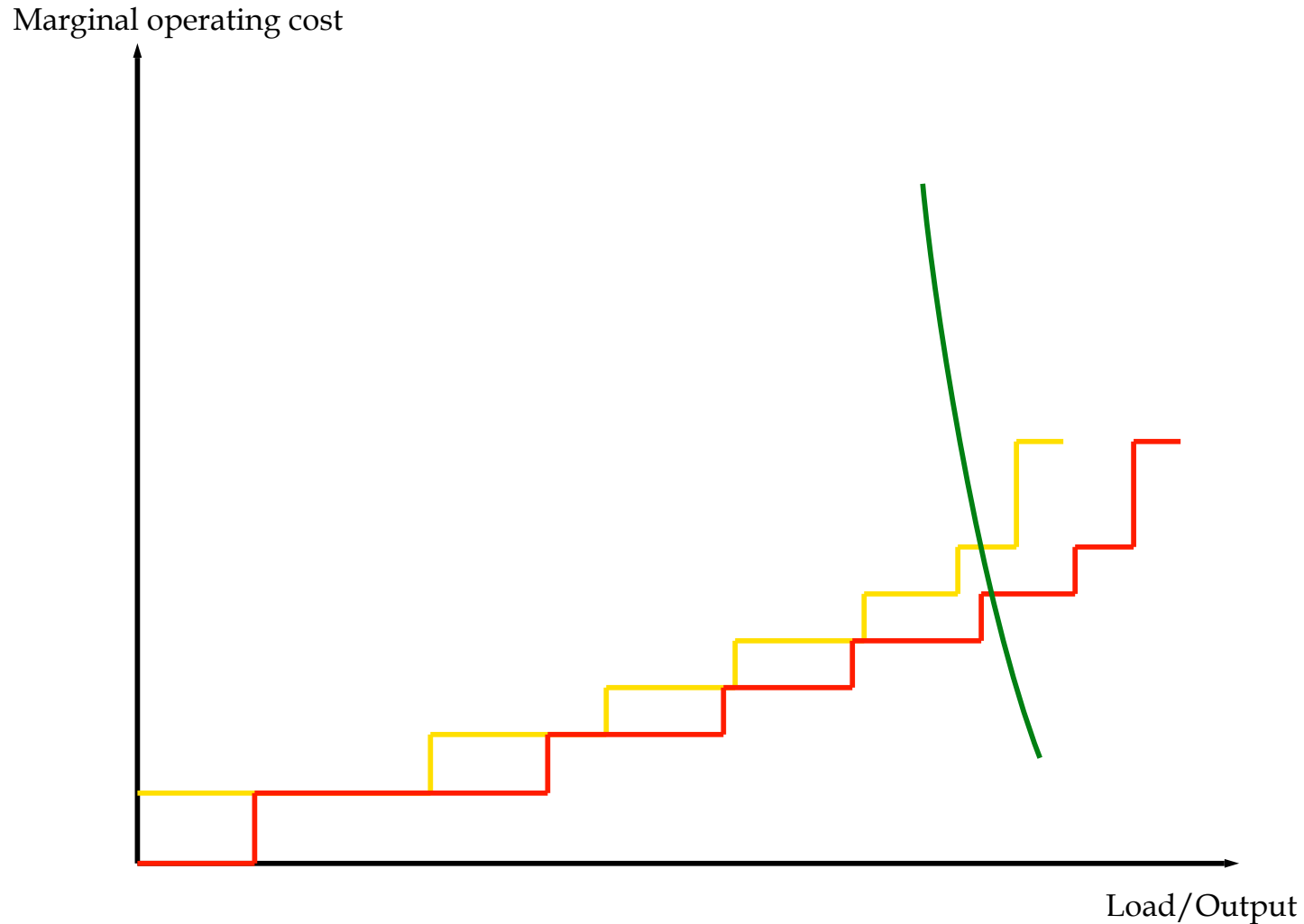


## Wind and solar mandates and subsidies

- ❖ Wind and solar PV now provide much of the new generating capacity in developed countries
  - ❖ Wind: mostly wholesale level, solar PV: mostly the retail level
- ❖ In many cases, their expansion has depended on supporting policies such as:
  - ❖ Investment or production tax credits or subsidies
  - ❖ Renewable energy (RE) mandates
  - ❖ Subsidized grid expansions and subsidized distribution system upgrades
  - ❖ Exemptions from planning, zoning, wildlife, site remediation and other laws
- ❖ But learning by doing and explicit R&D have also greatly reduced RE levelized costs of electricity (LCOE)
- ❖ Wind and solar generation were expected to lower power prices by displacing higher marginal cost generators in wholesale markets



# Merit order effect: Wind lowers wholesale prices when generating





## Negative prices

- ❖ Wind generation *production* subsidies can give negative wholesale prices
  - ❖ Generators will bid up to minus the subsidy to be allowed to generate
- ❖ Negative prices should also reduce average wholesale prices
- ❖ But negative prices also impose costs on thermal generators that have inflexible output or substantial ramping costs
- ❖ More generally, the merit order effect is a short-run phenomenon
  - ❖ Reduced revenue to thermal capacity leads to plant exit or discourages entry
  - ❖ Mandating renewables also exacerbates the “missing money” problem



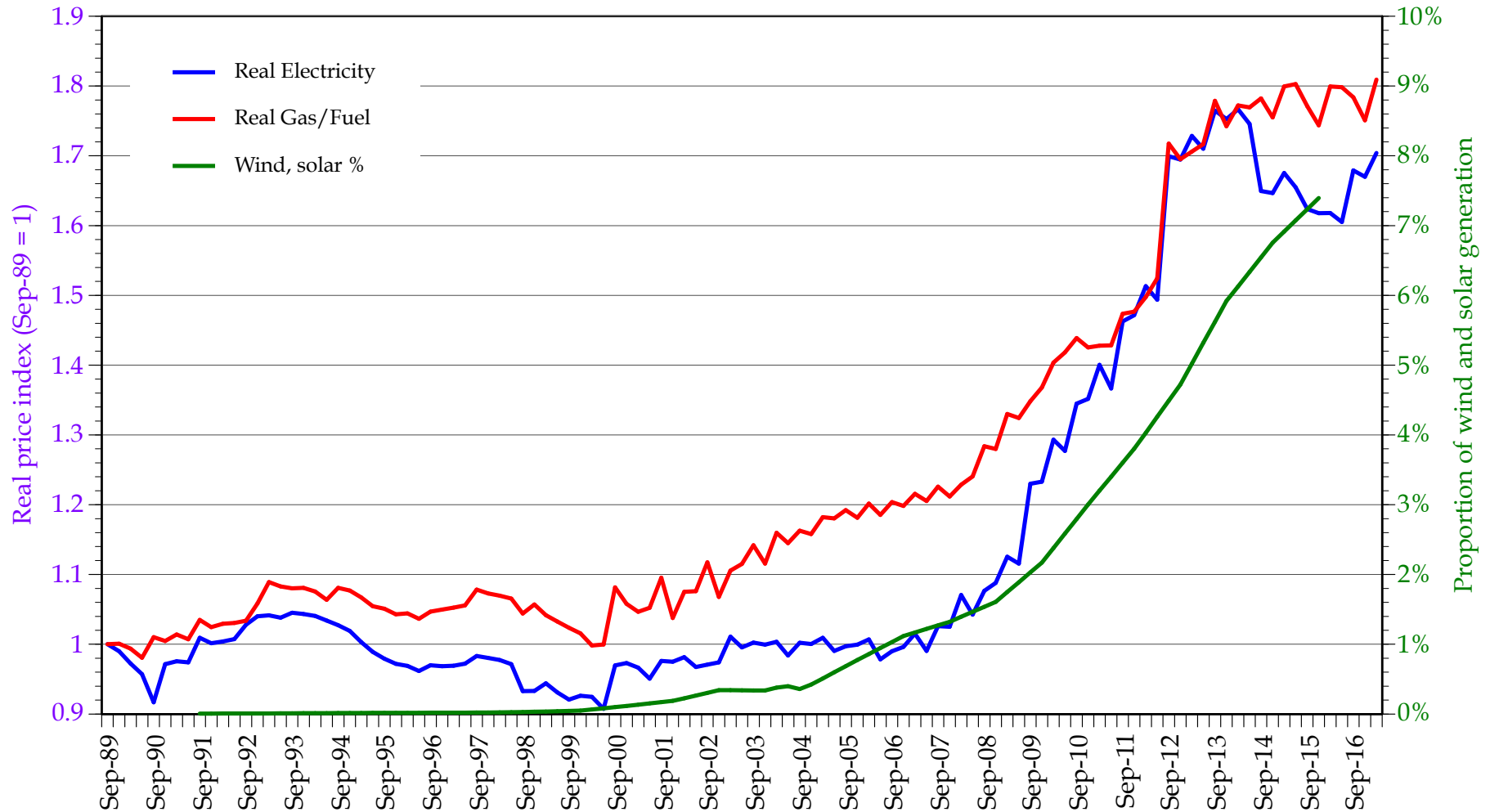
## European real household electricity prices 2007-2016

$$p = \underset{(0.013)}{0.158} - \underset{(0.035)}{0.156} N - \underset{(0.036)}{0.067} HL + \underset{(0.069)}{0.131} GT + \underset{(0.041)}{0.164} W + \underset{(0.035)}{0.253} S + \underset{(0.014)}{0.054} E$$

- ❖  $p$  = Real household electricity price per kWh for households consuming 5–15MWh pa  
 $N$  = nuclear capacity as fraction of total  
 $HL$  = large hydro (>10MW) capacity as fraction of total  
 $GT$  = gas turbine capacity as fraction of total  
 $W$  = wind capacity as fraction of total  
 $S$  = solar (thermal + PV) capacity as fraction of total  
 $E$  = 1 if former east European country, 0 otherwise
- ❖  $R^2$  (overall) = 0.5335,  $R^2$  (within) = 0.4996,  $R^2$  (between) = 0.5414  
Fraction of variance due to country effects = 0.7654  
Joint test of significance of coefficients  $\chi^2(6) = 224.23$
- ❖ 23 countries in sample: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom



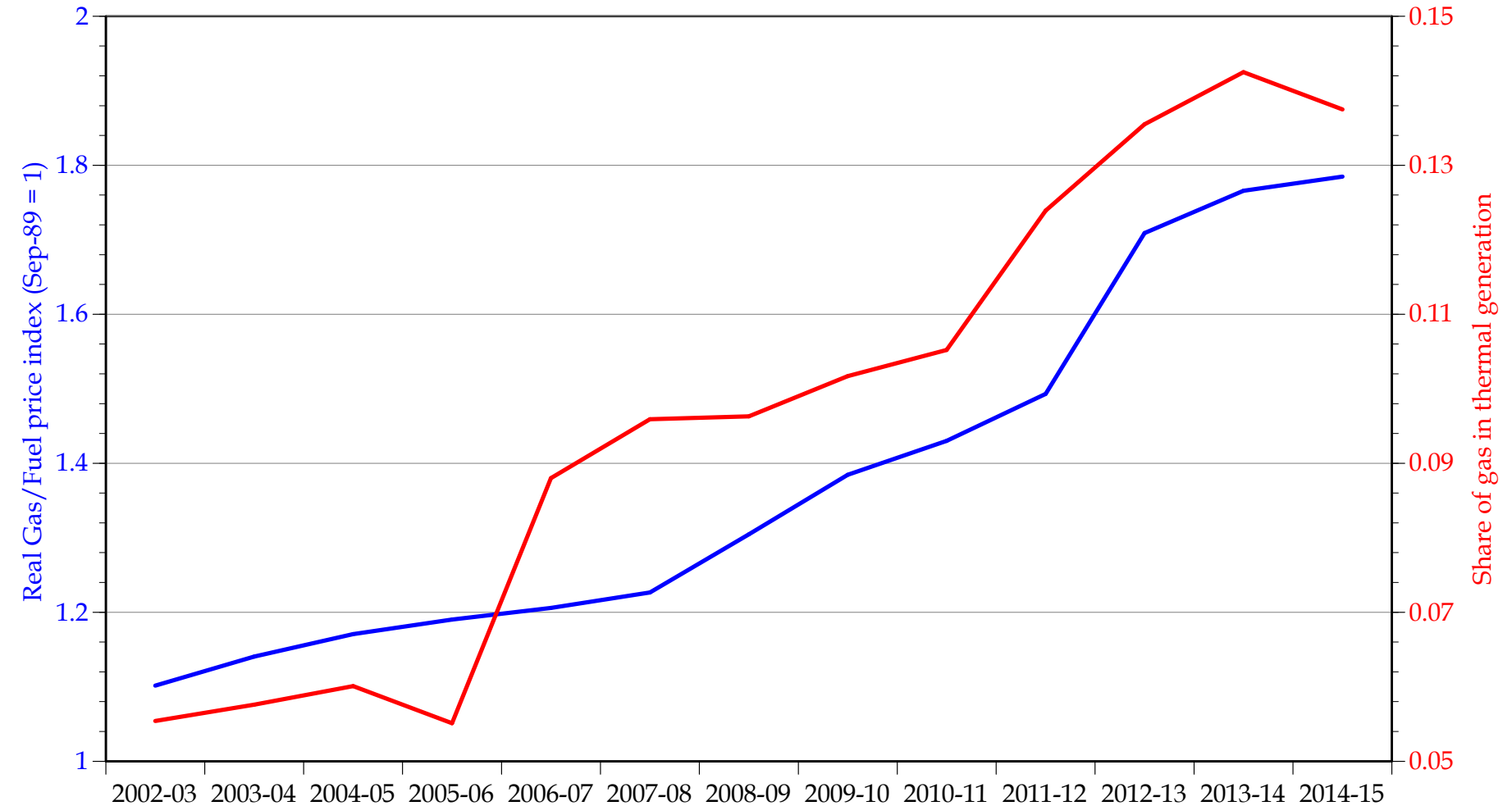
# Australian retail electricity, gas prices







# Australian gas price and gas use in electricity generation





## Systemic issues with wind generation

- ❖ Time of day correlation with load
- ❖ Seasonal correlation with load
- ❖ The need to control short-term frequency and voltage instability
  - ❖ South Australian episodes following both high and low wind speeds
- ❖ Remoteness of RE sources leads to long transmission links operated at low capacity factors
  - ❖ CREZ zones in Texas - \$7 billion transmission upgrade
  - ❖ These links have also proven fragile as in Australia



# Systemic issues with solar PV

- ❖ Wholesale versus retail competition with natural gas in NW Australia
- ❖ Economics of wholesale versus retail competition
  - ❖ Why isn't it like growing your own food rather than buying retail?
  - ❖ In electricity, fixed costs mostly are rolled into the marginal charge
  - ❖ Equity aspect and why high demand customers install PV
  - ❖ An alternative: A fixed plus a variable charge is common for club goods
- ❖ Exacerbated by net metering
- ❖ Costs of network upgrades to accommodate solar
- ❖ In some parts of Australia:
  - ❖ No more solar PV is allowed as the "duck belly" is about to hit the ground
  - ❖ Excessive voltages from solar power are raising costs for some non-PV customers and have damaged their appliances



## “But LCOE show wind and solar are now competitive”

- ❖ If so, why are subsidies, mandates, tax benefits etc. still needed to support them?
- ❖ Comparing technologies via LCOE implicitly assumes that the *value* of the generated power is irrelevant to the competitiveness of the different sources
  - ❖ But as Joskow has noted, the critical issue is *value of output minus cost*
- ❖ Hirth and others have shown that the wholesale prices RE generators receive decline as RE generators using the same energy source are added to a system
  - ❖ Renewable generation “fouls its own nest”
  - ❖ Green and Léautier (2018) show subsidies can rise dramatically if baseload exits and stops setting marginal prices at the time renewable generators are operating
- ❖ In addition, as the share of wind in particular rises, short-run variability of its output imposes ancillary service costs that are not part of the LCOE calculation



## Backup for renewables is the key issue

- ❖ Example: The Danish success?
  - ❖ Large scale hydro (“the Scandinavian battery”) provided critical support
  - ❖ Shows again that trade can be an alternative to “domestic backup”
  - ❖ Even so, Denmark often sells when the price is low, buys when its high
- ❖ Pumped storage
  - ❖ Currently 99% of bulk electricity storage
  - ❖ Approximately 80% round-trip efficiency
  - ❖ Topography is a critical limitation
- ❖ Batteries
  - ❖ 50% higher LCOE than pumped storage under generous assumptions
  - ❖ Some problems: Leakage, deterioration over time
  - ❖ More suited to provide ancillary services than seasonal storage
  - ❖ Expanded battery use would also increase the need for, and price of, material inputs



## Natural gas as backup

- ❖ Texas (ERCOT) experience with wind has been more favorable than the European and Australian experiences discussed earlier
  - ❖ More than 22GW wind; 0.46GW non-dispatchable and only 0.09GW dispatchable hydro; 1.75GW of solar; less than 0.09GW of battery storage
  - ❖ About 66.5GW of thermal; of which 5.06 is nuclear; 14.25 is coal; remainder mostly natural gas
- ❖ Critical supporting factor: Low cost natural gas
- ❖ Australian expansion of RE coincided with opening to LNG exports and simultaneous bans on onshore natural gas E&P in much of SE Australia
- ❖ In Europe, natural gas prices from LNG and Russian imports are also high



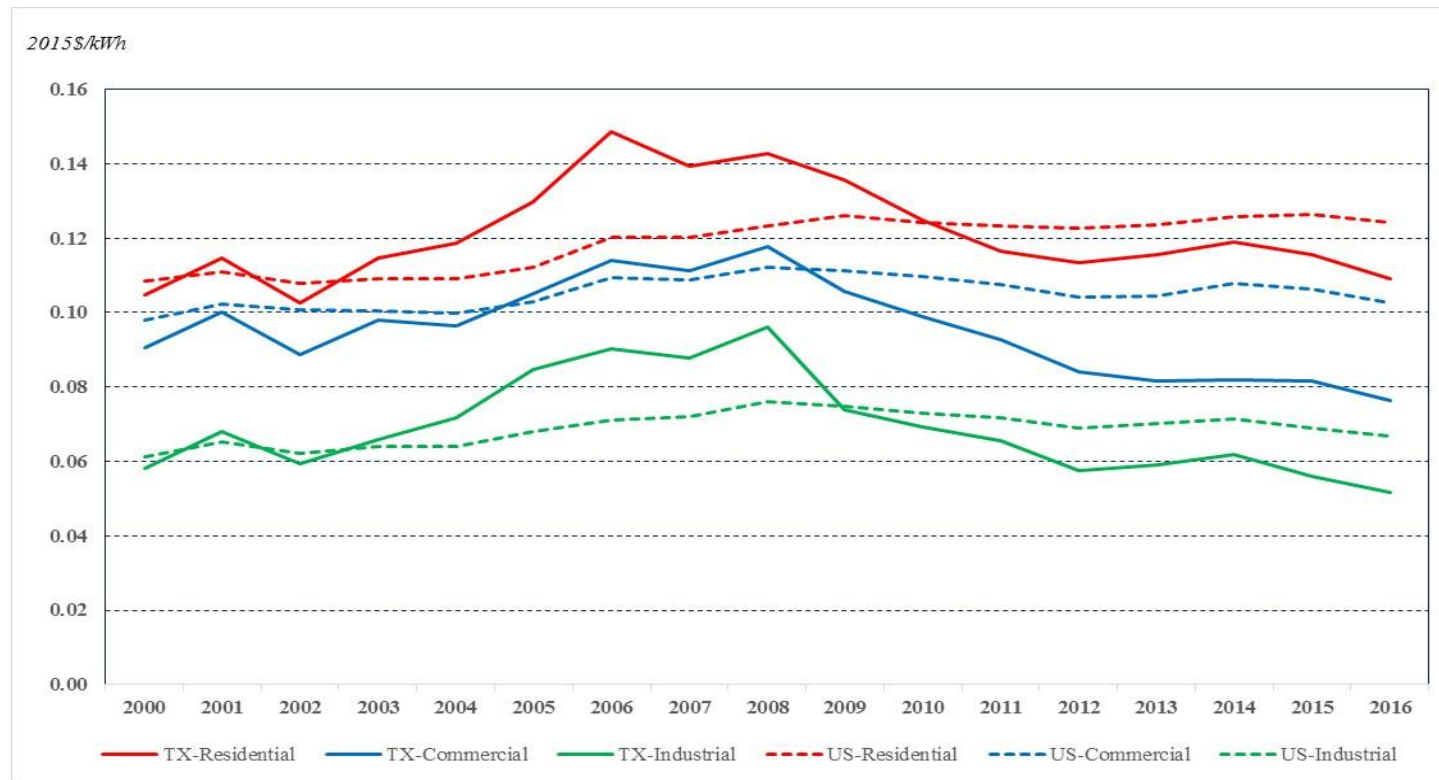
## Texas electricity market reform

- ❖ The Texas electricity market featured vertically integrated utilities until the passage of Senate Bill 7 in 1999, which allowed competition in the market
- ❖ Utilities were “unbundled” into retail energy providers, generators, and distribution and transmission utility companies
- ❖ Consumer choice of retailer commenced in January 2002
- ❖ In the five years that followed, transitory provisions such as mandated price caps or “price-to-beat” were established to incentivize market entry
- ❖ Zarnikau (2008): “ERCOT market is generally considered to be the most successful of the restructured electricity markets in North America”
  - ❖ More retail competition than any other market in the U.S. or Canada
  - ❖ According to the Public Utility Commission of Texas (PUCT, 2017), as of March 2016, 92% of all customers have exercised their right to choose an electricity supplier
  - ❖ ERCOT (2016) notes that 75% of electricity is sold to retail choice consumers



## Texas versus US electricity rates

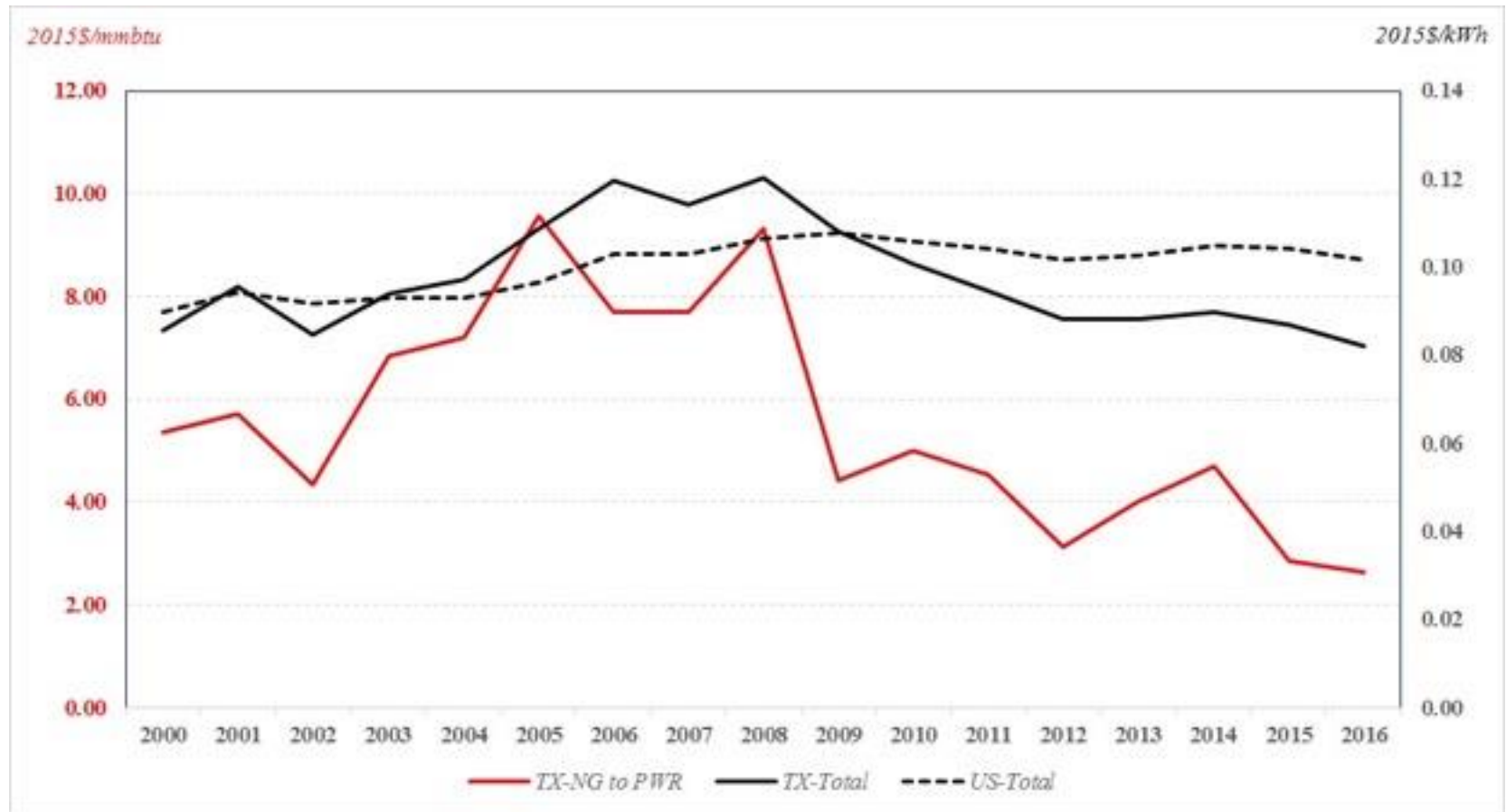
- ❖ By contrast, a Texas Coalition for Affordable Power study (TCAP, 2016) claimed the Texas reform was ineffective
- ❖ In the decade prior to deregulation average residential rates in Texas were 6.4 percent *below* the national average, but in the decade following it they were 8.5 percent *above*







## Real electricity rates and natural gas prices



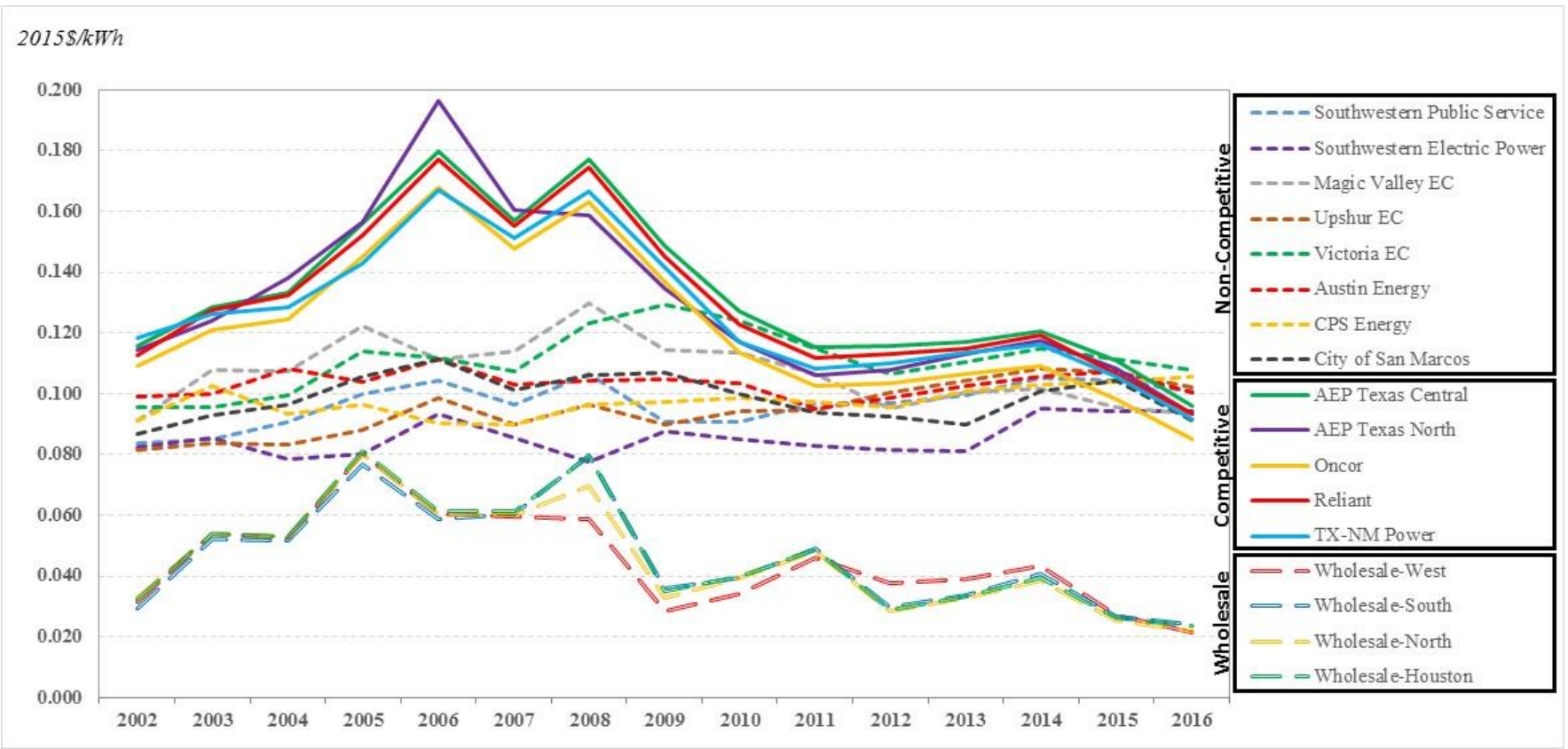
Source: Energy Information Administration



## Competitive and non-competitive retailers

- ❖ Utilities owned/regulated by municipal governments and co-operatives were allowed to retain their pre-reform status
- ❖ Non-competitive retail areas:
  - ❖ Municipally owned – Austin Energy, CPS Energy, City of San Marcos
  - ❖ Investor-owned – SW Electric Power, SW Public Service
  - ❖ Co-operatives – Magic Valley EC, Upshur EC, Victoria EC
  - ❖ Some included limited generation capacity, but they all still purchased wholesale power
- ❖ Competitive retail areas: AEP Texas Central, AEP Texas North, Oncor, Reliant CPT, TX-NM Power
- ❖ TCAP study found that, after restructuring, residential customers in non-competitive areas enjoyed lower rates on average than those in competitive areas

## Annual average residential rates (1000kWh) and wholesale prices (\$2015)



Sources: Public Utilities Commission Texas, ERCOT, US Federal Reserve



## Some key observations from the Texas case

- ❖ Residential prices closely track wholesale prices in the competitive, but not in the non-competitive, areas
- ❖ Competitive area residential price volatility also better mirrored wholesale price volatility, and hence exceeded non-competitive area price volatility
- ❖ A declining gap between competitive area retail and wholesale rates suggests that competition is reducing costs in competitive areas
  - ❖ The gap has generally widened in non-competitive areas
  - ❖ As reported by TCAP (2016), the post-reform average residential rate was higher in competitive than in non-competitive areas, but the gap disappeared by 2015
- ❖ Consistent with political interference, we found cross-subsidization from commercial to residential customers in the non-competitive areas



# Challenges in power market transition and liberalization

- ❖ We have identified five key issues that need to be addressed when liberalizing power supply:
  1. Markets need to be sufficiently *competitive*
  2. The *structure* of prices has to reflect the *structure* of costs – especially with regard to the fixed and variable components of costs
  3. Price caps cause a “missing money problem” and insufficient capacity, exacerbated by mandating zero marginal operating cost renewable plants
  4. *Privatization* enhances the benefits of using markets, prices and decentralized information to achieve efficient outcomes
  5. Other policies, such as environmental ones, need to *use neutral market mechanisms* that do not favor particular technologies