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Keywords (separated by '-')	Supply–demand - Energy markets - Price stability - Control
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# Chapter 57

## A Control Approach to Energy Supply–Demand Markets



Bertinho A. Costa and João M. Lemos

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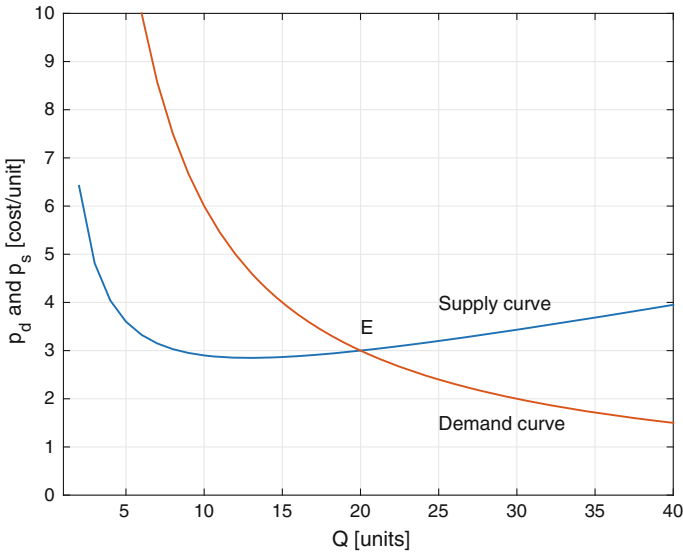
## 57.1 Introduction

The decreasing costs of renewable energy technology as well as the need to decrease the consumption of energy from fossil energy sources motivate the integration of renewable electric generation into local grids (microgrids) such as in residential areas. This integration requires a management strategy to coordinate local generation and the access to the main electric grid. Consumers may switch from the main grid to local consumption and, later, they can connect again to the main grid. One important point that characterizes the AC electric networks is that the amount of energy produced must be in balance with the amount of energy consumed, since otherwise the operation/service of the electric grid is degraded.

Several problems of this area have been previously addressed in the literature. In [1], the scheduling of energy storage to maximize the islanding time for microgrids using distributed predictive control with the alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM) algorithm is described. In [2], the problem of microgrid islanded operation is addressed by considering operational details, such as frequency versus power drop. In [3], the aim is to obtain a balance of power in a group of prosumers based on a price mechanism, and optimal control is applied. Balance of the demand and supply in a heat network is addressed in [4].

In this paper, the aim is to describe the balance of energy in a network using the economic concepts, the supply-demand curves, which incorporate costs and budget constraints that are translated in nonlinear functions. Technical details of the operation of the network are assumed to be translated into higher level constraints, such as the minimum time interval to disconnect/connect a consumer from/to a energy network, or the maximum energy rate change allowed to consumers.

This paper is organized as follows: In Sect. 57.2, the supply and demand functions are described based on simplified economic principles for a market with a single supplier and a single consumer. The dynamics of the negotiation process, the control, and convergence is addressed in Sect. 57.3. Section 57.4 addresses the negotiation dynamics based on time cost profiles. The extension of the single supplier/single consumer to a single supplier/multiple consumer and its control is described in Sect. 57.5. In this case, it is assumed that the supplier has a constraint on the energy rate change. This constraint is explored to formulate the control strategy of the market. Its implementation is based on the existence of an information network to broadcast information (current price and aggregate quantity) from the supplier to the consumers, and the computation, among the consumers, of the number of consumers that want to increase or decrease their consumption level. The behaviour of the control algorithm is illustrated with computer simulation results. Changes in aggregated demand over time and the supply curve of the producer define the price/unit in the market. From the point of view of consumers, it is important to find a strategy that minimizes their costs, but subject to the constraint the given amount of energy is needed for their needs, a strategy addressed in Sect. 57.6. Conclusions are drawn in the last section.



**Fig. 57.1** Example of a supply curve  $f_s(\cdot)$  and a demand curve  $g_d(\cdot)$  that intercept at the point E, which defines the market price equilibrium

## 57.2 Modelling an Energy Market

The simplest energy market that can be considered has a single supplier and a single consumer. These market agents have economic objectives that are described by a supply curve (function) and by a demand curve (function).

A supply function  $f_s(\cdot)$  relates the quantity supplied  $Q_s > 0$  to the price/unit defined by the supplier  $p_s(Q_s) > 0$ , that is  $p_s(Q_s) = f_s(Q_s)$ . In a similar way, a demand function  $g_d(\cdot)$  relates the quantity demanded,  $Q_d > 0$ , to the price  $p_d(Q_d) > 0$  (cost/unit), that is  $p_d(Q_d) = g_d(Q_d)$ .

Goods are traded if there is an agreement between the supplier and the consumer, and this is achieved if, for a given quantity  $Q$ , the condition  $p_s(Q) = p_d(Q)$  is fulfilled. This condition is represented in Fig. 57.1 where the point E represents the market equilibrium.

### 57.2.1 Demand Function

Several constraints may shape a demand function. A consumer may have a rigid consumption profile over a “large” period of time. An other consumer may assign a constant amount of money  $\beta > 0$  to buy a product. This consumer may increase

71 or decrease the consumption  $Q > 0$  depending on the supplier's price, such that  
 72  $p_d(Q)Q \leq \beta$ ,

$$73 \quad p_d(Q) \leq \frac{\beta}{Q} \text{ with } Q \in [Q_{min}; Q_{max}], \quad (57.1)$$

74 with  $0 < Q_{min} \leq Q_{max}$ . This function is used in this work, and it is represented in  
 75 Fig. 57.1 where  $\beta = 60$ .

## 76 57.2.2 Supply Function

77 A supply function defines the price of a product as a function of quantity, and it  
 78 depends on the production cost plus some profit. The total production cost depends  
 79 on fixed costs  $c_o > 0$  and running costs  $c_v Q > 0$ . The total cost ( $C_T(Q)$ ) that the  
 80 market "must" cover is formed by the total production cost plus a gain  $gQ > 0$ ,  
 81 where  $g > 0$  is a profit parameter,

$$82 \quad C_T(Q) = c_o + c_v(1 + \alpha Q)Q + gQ, \quad (57.2)$$

83 where the term  $\alpha Q > 0$  represents an increasing cost due to a loss of efficient when  
 84 the production is large. In the supply function, the price per unit is obtained by  
 85 computing  $C_T(Q)/Q$  that yields

$$86 \quad p_s(Q) = \frac{c_o}{Q} + c_v(1 + \alpha Q) + g. \quad (57.3)$$

87 This function is represented in Fig. 57.1, where  $c_o = 10$ ,  $c_v = 1$ ,  $\alpha = 0.06$ , and  
 88  $g = 0.3$ .

## 89 57.2.3 Market Equilibrium Point

90 The market equilibrium point(s) is obtained by solving the equation

$$91 \quad p_d(Q) = p_s(Q), \quad (57.4)$$

92 subjected to the constraint  $Q \in [Q_{min}; Q_{max}]$ . For the functions described ((57.1)  
 93 and (57.3)), the problem can be solved by finding the positive solution ( $Q^*$ ) of the  
 94 second-order equation

$$95 \quad c_v \alpha Q^2 + (c_v + g)Q + (c_o - \beta) = 0, \quad (57.5)$$

and by checking if it belongs to the interval  $[Q_{min}; Q_{max}]$ . This second-order equation has a real positive solution if  $\beta - c_o > 0$ . This can be concluded by inspecting the algebraic expression of the solutions. In the special case that  $1 + \alpha Q^*$  is approximately 1, the solution is given by

$$Q^* = \frac{\beta - c_o}{c_v + g}, \quad (57.6)$$

where  $\beta - c_o > 0$ . The profit is defined by  $L = gQ^*$  that yields

$$L = (\beta - c_o) \frac{g}{c_v + g}, \quad (57.7)$$

where the parameter  $g$  can be used by the supplier to increase the profit. In this particular case, the maximum profit is obtained by increasing  $g$  towards  $+\infty$ ,  $Q^* \rightarrow 0$  causing  $p^* \rightarrow +\infty$ . To avoid this situation, a lower bound on  $Q$  must be selected. AQ2

### 57.3 Negotiation Dynamics

The negotiation is an iterative process that has the objective of driving the price to an equilibrium value defined by the aggregate supply function and the aggregate demand function of the market.

To describe the negotiation between the supplier and the consumer, the following assumptions are used:

1. The negotiation happens over discrete-time intervals of equal length ( $h$ ).
2. The consumer asks the supplier the price (per unit) for a quantity  $Q$ .
3. The supplier sends the price to the consumer.
4. The consumer decides to increase the quantity  $Q$  if  $p_d(Q) \geq p_s(Q)$ , or to decrease quantity if  $p_d(Q) < p_s(Q)$ .

This iterative procedure has the purpose to find the solution of an algebraic equation. To describe this negotiation process at the discrete time  $k$ , a tracking error variable  $e[k]$  is defined by the difference between the consumer's price and the supplier's price,

$$e[k] = p_d(Q[k]) - p_s(Q[k]). \quad (57.8)$$

Considering now the tracking error at discrete time  $k + 1$ , it relates to  $e[k]$  by

$$e[k + 1] = e[k] + [g_d(Q(k + 1)) - g_d(Q(k))] - [f_s(Q(k + 1)) - f_s(Q(k))]. \quad (57.9)$$

Using Eqs. (57.1) and (57.3) in Eq. (57.9) yields

$$e[k + 1] = e[k] - \left( \frac{\beta - c_o}{Q(k + 1)Q(k)} + c_v \alpha \right) (Q(k + 1) - Q(k)). \quad (57.10)$$

126 Considering (57.10), the purpose is to adjust the quantity  $(Q(k+1) - Q(k))$  over  
 127 time such that  $e[k] \rightarrow 0$ . One possible solution is to select a linear control law such  
 128 that

$$129 \quad Q(k+1) - Q(k) = h\theta e[k], \quad (57.11)$$

130 where  $h$  is the discrete-time interval and  $\theta > 0$  is an adjustable parameter that can  
 131 be used to accelerate the convergence speed.

132 **Lemma 1** *The closed-loop system defined by (57.10) and the control law (57.11)*  
 133 *are stable if  $\theta$  is chosen according to*

$$134 \quad 0 < \left( \frac{\beta - c_o}{Q(k+1)Q(k)} + c_v\alpha \right) < \frac{1}{h\theta}. \quad (57.12)$$

135 **Proof** Using Eq. (57.11) in Eq. (57.10) yields

$$136 \quad e[k+1] = \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{\beta - c_o}{Q(k+1)Q(k)} + c_v\alpha \right) \right] h\theta e[k]. \quad (57.13)$$

137 By applying stability criteria to this discrete-time closed-loop nonlinear model and  
 138  $Q[\cdot] > 0$ , the output will converge to zero if the condition (57.12) is fulfilled. Note  
 139 that  $Q[k] \rightarrow Q^*$ .

140 From (57.12), it can be concluded that  $\theta$  can be chosen small enough to fulfil the  
 141 stability condition. But for very small values, the convergence may be too slow. In  
 142 this case, the “optimal” value for  $\theta$  depends on the knowledge of the parameters of  
 143 the supply and the demand functions.

144 **Lemma 2** *The continuous-time version of the closed-loop system defined by (57.10)*  
 145 *and (57.11) is asymptotically stable.*

146 **Proof** Equations (57.10) and (57.11) can be written as

$$147 \quad \frac{e[k+1] - e[k]}{h} = - \left( \frac{\beta - c_o}{(Q(k) + h\theta e[k])Q(k)} + c_v\alpha \right) \theta e[k]. \quad (57.14)$$

148 Note: Considering that  $k$  corresponds to  $t$ , then the discrete time  $k+1$  corresponds  
 149 to  $t+h$ .

150 Letting  $h \rightarrow 0$  yields

$$151 \quad \frac{de(t)}{dt} = - \left( \frac{\beta - c_o}{Q^2(t)} + c_v\alpha \right) \theta e(t), \quad (57.15)$$

152 and

$$153 \quad \frac{de_q(t)}{dt} = \theta e(t), \quad (57.16)$$

154 where  $e_q(t) = Q(t) - Q^*$  and  $Q^*$  represents the quantity of energy at the equilib-  
 155 rium. As the term  $\left(\frac{\beta - c_o}{Q^2(t)} + c_v \alpha\right)$  is positive and  $Q(\cdot) > 0$ , the solution of (57.15)  
 156 tends to zero and  $Q(t) \rightarrow Q^*$ .

157 A detailed analysis can be done by considering the Lyapunov candidate function

$$158 \quad V(t) = \frac{1}{2}e^2(t) + \frac{1}{2}e_q^2(t). \quad (57.17)$$

159 The time derivative of  $V(t)$  can be written as

$$160 \quad \frac{dV(t)}{dt} = - \left( \frac{\beta - c_o}{(e_q(t) + Q^*)^2} + c_v \alpha \right) \theta e^2(t) + e(t)e_q(t). \quad (57.18)$$

161 By inspecting Fig. 57.1, it can be concluded that  $e_q(t) < 0$  for  $e(t) > 0$ ,  $e_q(t) > 0$   
 162 for  $e(t) < 0$ , and  $e(t)e_q(t) \leq 0$ . This implies that  $\frac{dV(t)}{dt} < 0$  for  $e(t) \neq 0$ . In the case  
 163 that  $\frac{dV(t)}{dt} = 0$  implies that  $e(t) = 0$  and  $e_q(t) = 0$ . Thus, the closed-loop nonlinear  
 164 dynamic system is asymptotically stable. AQ3

### 165 57.3.1 Example—Illustration of the Convergence 166 of the Negotiation

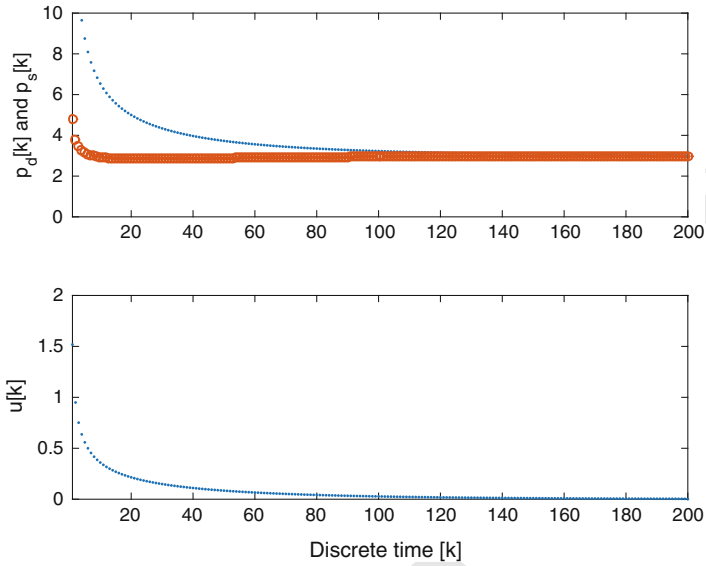
167 The results obtained with computer simulation are shown in Fig. 57.2, where the  
 168 initial value for  $Q(1) = 3$ ,  $h = 1$ , and  $\theta = 0.1$ . Figure 57.3 shows the time evolution  
 169 of the prices in the supply–demand plane, and this to be compared with Fig. 57.1  
 170 that shows the supply and demand functions.

### 171 57.3.2 The Cobweb Model

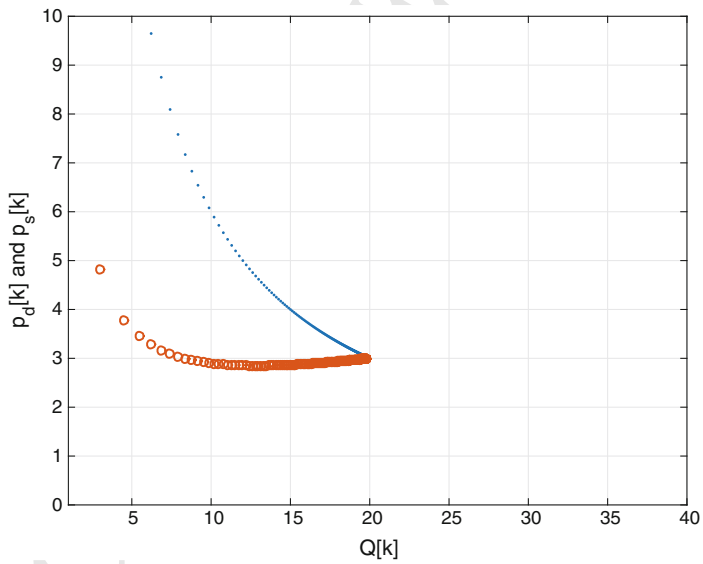
172 The cobweb model is a dynamic model that is used to describe the behaviour of  
 173 markets. As such, it is interesting to compare the results obtained by the approach  
 174 followed in this work and the cobweb model.

175 Figure 57.4 shows, on the left, the behaviour obtained by applying the control law  
 176  $Q[k + 1] = Q[k] + h\theta e[k]$ . The system evolved along  $Q$  (represented by vertical  
 177 lines) in the price/quantity space, having a “smooth” convergence. In the case of  
 178 the cobweb model, which is represented on Fig. 57.4 on the right, it is assumed an  
 179 initial high demand/high price (point 1); this causes a large production (point 2); in  
 180 consequence, the demand side decreases the price (point 3); the producer acts by  
 181 decreasing the production (point 4), which leads to an increase in the price (point  
 182 5), ... , until the demand and supply are equal or until a limit cycle is obtained. This  
 183 describes oscillatory behaviour.

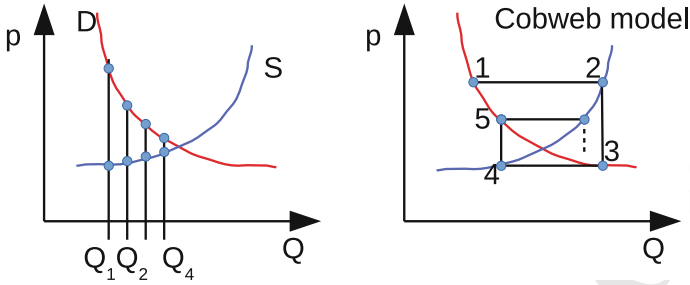




**Fig. 57.2** Illustration of the negotiation process where  $p_d(k)$  and  $p_s(k)$  converge to the same value



**Fig. 57.3** Evolution of the negotiation process along the supply and demand functions towards the price equilibrium. This figure should be compared to Fig. 57.1



**Fig. 57.4** Comparing the results obtained with the proposed negotiation model and the behaviour of the cobweb model

184 The main conclusion is that by defining a negotiation process and by using a  
 185 control law with adequate properties, smooth behaviour is obtained that avoids the  
 186 oscillatory behaviour present in the cobweb model.

## 187 57.4 Negotiation Dynamics Based on a Time Price Profile

188 Energy consumption shows periodic behaviours in short (daily) and long (season)  
 189 periods. A producer can explore these behaviours to impose a time price profile,  
 190 which is associated with time instants, independently of the consumption of each  
 191 consumer.

192 In this scenario, a consumer will try to consume or store energy during time periods  
 193 where the price is low. Assuming that a consumer needs a given time-consumption  
 194 profile  $v[k] \geq 0$  with  $k = 1, \dots, n$ , and receives (or learns) the time price profile  
 195  $p[k] > 0$ , he/she can decide to store energy  $u[k] > 0$  in a device that has an energy  
 196 level  $x[k]$  such that  $0 \leq x[k] \leq C$  by requesting energy  $y[k]$  to the producer. If  
 197 the price is high, the consumer will use the energy that is in the device by selecting  
 198  $u[k] < 0$ . The constant  $C > 0$  represents the maximum storing capacity. The decision  
 199 to store energy and the level of energy in the device can be modelled by the following  
 200 discrete-time dynamic system:

$$201 \quad x[k + 1] = x[k] + T u[k] \quad (57.19)$$

$$202 \quad y[k] = w[k] + u[k],$$

203 where  $T > 0$  is a normalization constant. In this work  $T$  is set to 1.

204 The problem consists in finding  $u[\cdot]$  such that the cost function

$$205 \quad J(N) = \sum_{k=1}^n y[k] p[k] \quad (57.20)$$

is minimized subject to the constraints imposed by (57.19) and

$$\sum_{k=1}^n y[k] = \sum_{k=1}^n v[k], \quad (57.21)$$

$$0 \leq y_{min}[k] \leq y[k] \leq y_{max}[k], \quad (57.22)$$

$$0 \leq x[k] \leq C. \quad (57.23)$$

This problem can be translated in a Linear Programming (LP) minimization problem with a set of inequalities (due to the dynamics of the storing device)

$$AY \leq I_{n,1}(C - x(1)) + AW, \quad (57.24)$$

where  $Y = [y[1], y[2], \dots, y[n]]'$ ,  $I_{n,1} = [1, 1, \dots, 1]'$ ,  $W = [w[1], w[2], \dots, w[n]]'$  and,

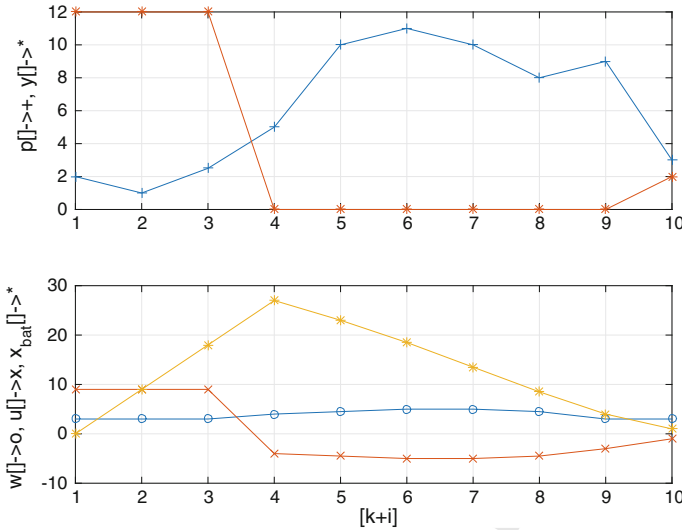
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \ddots & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (57.25)$$

and the equality due to equation  $\sum_{k=1}^n y[k] = \sum_{k=1}^n v[k]$ .

### 57.4.1 Example—Consumer Decision Based on Linear Programming Optimization

Figure 57.5 shows the results obtained by applying the LP minimization method. The upper plot shows the price profile (“+”) and the requested energy  $y[k]$  (“\*”) that occurs during time instants with low prices. The energy requested is stored in the device and it will be used during the time period where the prices are at a higher level, as shown in the lower plot. The energy level stored in the device,  $x[k]$ , is represented by the line with “\*”, the consumer profile  $v[k]$  is represented by the line with “o”, and the command  $u[k]$  is represented by the line with “x”.

Note, however, that the solution depends on the selection of the constraints, and if there is a large difference between the lower and the higher prices, the consumers rationally will shift the energy purchases to the time periods that have the lower prices. They will avoid the time periods that have higher prices. This creates synchronous behaviour in the consumers that may cause rush periods. Additionally, the producer may change the price profile to explore the new behaviour of the consumers, and this can destabilize the energy network.



**Fig. 57.5** Requesting energy based on Linear Programming Minimization. The upper plot shows the price profile (“+”), and the requested energy  $y[k]$  (“\*”) which occurs during the time instants with low prices. The lower plot shows the command to store energy  $u[k]$  (“o”), the energy level in the device  $x[k]$  (“\*”) and the consumer profile  $v[k]$  (“x”).

## 57.5 Management of a Market With a Single Producer and Several Consumers

In this section, a market composed of one energy producer and by several consumer agents is considered. This model can represent a local grid with local production (wind or solar photovoltaic and local storage) and a connection to the main electric power network. Consumer agents may switch from the main grid to local consumption, and after some time, will connect again to the main grid. One important point that characterizes AC networks is that the amount of energy produced must be in balance with the amount of energy consumed, since otherwise the operation of the electric grid is compromised. Thus, a producer cannot instantaneously change its energy output from one level to another level. This fact imposes constraints on how consumer agents interact with the producer. An information, a telecommunication/computer network must be used to broadcast information to the consumer agents to allow them to shape their interactions with the producer.

In this analysis, the information that is broadcasted to the consumer agents by the producer is the following:

1. The production output  $Q[k]$  at discrete time  $k$  and the price  $p_s(Q[k])$ .
2. The production upper bound for the next time  $k + 1$ ,  $Q_{max}[k + 1] = Q[k] + \Delta_1[k]$ , and the price  $p_s(Q_{max}[k + 1])$ .

252 3. The production lower bound for the next time  $k + 1$ ,  $Q_{min}[k + 1] = Q[k] -$   
 253  $\Delta_2[k]$ , and the price  $p_s(Q_{min}[k + 1])$ .

254 With this set of information, the current segment of the supply function is disclosed  
 255 to let users shape their requests for the next time interval  $k + 1$ , and this includes the  
 256 (production rate) constraint from the supplier,

$$257 \quad Q[k + 1] \in [Q[k] - \Delta_2[k]; Q[k] + \Delta_1[k]] . \quad (57.26)$$

258 This simplifies the search of the market equilibrium, and promotes the implementa-  
 259 tion of decentralized management of the market.

260 The next problem that must be addressed is how to split the increments  $\Delta_1$  and  
 261  $\Delta_2$  among the consumer agents. The aggregate demand (consumption)  $Q[k]$  is given  
 262 by

$$263 \quad Q[k] = \sum_{i=1}^m Q_i[k] , \quad (57.27)$$

264 where  $m$  represents the number of consumer agents, and  $Q_i[k]$  is the consumption  
 265 of an agent  $i$ .

266 A solution to be considered involves the computation of the number of agents that  
 267 want to increase the consumptions,  $n_1$ , the number of agents that want to keep their  
 268 consumptions,  $n_o$ , and the number of agents that want to decrease the consumptions,  
 269  $n_2$ . The counting process can be implemented using the information network to  
 270 exchange information among the consumer agents.

271 Knowing the values of  $n_1[k]$ ,  $n_o[k]$ , and  $n_2[k]$ , each consumer agent can compute  
 272 the increment

$$273 \quad \Delta_{1i}[k] = \Delta_1[k]/n_1[k] , \quad (57.28)$$

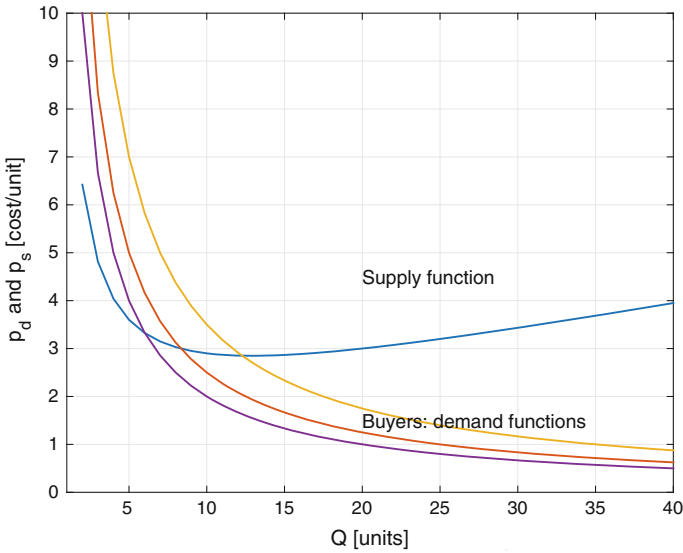
$$274 \quad \Delta_{2j}[k] = \Delta_2[k]/n_2[k] . \quad (57.29)$$

275 Other strategies can be used that explore the ratio  $Q_i[.]/Q[.]$  to define the increments.  
 276 A consumer agent that wants to increase the consumption must compare the price  
 277 given by the supplier  $p_s[Q[k] + \Delta_1[k]]$  to  $p_{di}(Q_i[k] + \Delta_{1i}[k])$ :

- 278 – If  $p_s(Q[k] + \Delta_1[k]) \leq p_{di}(Q_i[k] + \Delta_{1i}[k])$ , the increment  $\Delta_{1i}[k]$  is requested.
- 279 – If  $p_s(Q[k]) < p_{di}(Q_i[k] + \Delta_{1i}[k]) < p_s[Q[k] + \Delta_1[k]]$ , the increment  $\theta \times$   
 280  $\Delta_{1i}[k]$  is requested, with  $\theta \in [0; 1]$ .
- 281 – If  $p_{di}(Q_i[k] + \Delta_{1i}[k]) < \min(p_s[Q[k]], p_s[Q[k] + \Delta_1[k]])$ , then  $Q_i[k + 1] =$   
 282  $Q_i[k]$  and a decision can be taken to decrease the consumption in the discrete  
 283 time  $k + 2$ .

284 A similar approach can be applied by a consumer agent that wants to decrease the  
 285 consumption.

286 This control strategy is a one-step-ahead control strategy since it involves a deci-  
 287 sion at time  $k$  based on the future behaviour of the market for time  $k + 1$ . This strategy



**Fig. 57.6** Demand functions and supply function used to illustrate the behaviour of the market where the supplier has a rate production constraint. The supplier defines the price and buyers adjust the amount  $Q_i$  according to their demand functions and the constraints imposed by the supplier

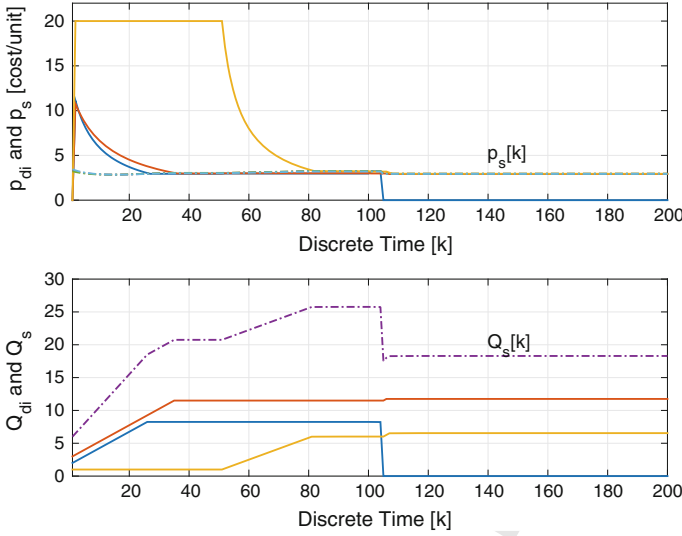
288 allows a consumer to request energy, enables the competition based on the demand  
 289 profile of each consumer, and addresses the rate producer constraint.

### 290 57.5.1 Example—Illustration of the Proposed Strategy

291 To illustrate the results with this control approach, the following scenario is consid-  
 292 ered. Three buyers are present in the market; their demand functions have  $\beta_1 = 25$ ,  
 293  $\beta_2 = 35$ , and  $\beta_3 = 20$ . The supplier function and the demand functions are repre-  
 294 sented in Fig. 57.6.

295 The decision prices of a consumers  $p_{di}[k]$ , demand quantities  $Q_i[k]$ , the  $Q_s[k]$ ,<sup>1</sup>  
 296 and the price  $p_s[k]$  of the supplier are shown in Fig. 57.7. At the beginning of the  
 297 computer simulation, the initial values assigned to  $Q_i[k]$  are  $Q_1[1] = 2$ ,  $Q_2[1] = 3$ ,  
 298 and  $Q_3[1] = 1$ . The increments  $\Delta_1 = \Delta_2 = 0.5$ . Buyer 1 and buyer 2 start from the  
 299 beginning to increase  $Q_i$  according to their demand functions. Buyer 3 maintains a  
 300 constant value  $Q_3[1] = 1$  until time  $k = 50$ ; after this moment, buyer 3 starts to adjust  
 301  $Q_3[k]$ . At time  $k > 100$ , buyer 1 decides to leave the market and starts decreasing  
 302  $Q_1[k]$  according to the constraints imposed by the supplier.

<sup>1</sup> In this example, the aggregate quantity  $Q[k]$  is represented as  $Q_s[k]$ .



**Fig. 57.7** Time evolution of the market with three buyers and one supplier. The price  $p_s[k]$  is defined by the supplier based on the aggregate quantity  $\sum_{i=1}^n Q_i[k]$ . The aggregate quantity depends on the number of buyers present in the market

303 The speed of convergence to equilibrium depends on the value of  $\Delta_1$  and  $\Delta_2$ , but  
 304 because they represent a working constraint imposed by the supplier it is not possible  
 305 to speed up the convergence process.

## 306 57.6 Strategy to Coordinate the Demand

307 The price per unit depends on the aggregated demand and on the supply curve of the  
 308 producer. As illustrated in the previous section, consumer behaviours cause demand  
 309 variations over time that affect the price/unit and the total cost to pay. From the point  
 310 of view of the consumers, it is important to find a strategy that minimizes their costs,  
 311 but subjected to the constraint that a given amount of energy is needed for their needs.  
 312 For this purpose, the following cost function is considered:

$$313 \quad J_1(N) = \sum_{k=1}^n Q[k]p[k], \quad (57.30)$$

314 subject to the constraint  $\sum_{k=1}^n Q[k] = Q_n$ , where  $Q_n$  represents the total consump-  
 315 tion for the time period length  $n$  ( $n$  can represent a time interval of 24h),  $Q[i]$  and  
 316  $p[i]$  are the consumption, and the price/unit at the discrete time  $k$ .

317 In order to perform the minimization with the constraint, the Lagrange multiplier  
318 technique is applied. For that sake, define the Lagrangian function

$$319 \quad J_2(N) = \sum_{k=1}^n Q[k]p[k] + \lambda \left( \sum_{k=1}^n Q[k] - Q_n \right), \quad (57.31)$$

320 where  $\lambda$  is the Lagrange multiplier. Using the equation of the total cost in (57.31)  
321 yields

$$322 \quad J_2(N) = \sum_{k=1}^n [c_o + c_v(1 + \alpha Q[k])Q[k] + gQ[k]] + \lambda \left( \sum_{k=1}^n Q[k] - Q_n \right). \quad (57.32)$$

323 Computing the partial derivatives in order to  $Q[k]$  and  $\lambda$ , and equating to zero yields AQ5

$$324 \quad \frac{\partial J_2(n)}{\partial Q[k]} = c_v + g + 2\alpha Q[k] + \lambda = 0 \quad \text{for } k = 1 \dots n, \quad (57.33)$$

$$325 \quad \frac{\partial J_2(n)}{\partial \lambda} = \sum_{k=1}^n Q[k] - Q_n = 0. \quad (57.34)$$

326 By algebraic manipulations, the Lagrange multiplier is given by

$$327 \quad \lambda = - \frac{n(c_v + g) + 2c_v\alpha Q_n}{Q_n}, \quad (57.35)$$

328 and

$$329 \quad Q^*[k] = \frac{Q_n}{n} \quad \text{for } k = 1 \dots n. \quad (57.36)$$

330 This last equation defines the best strategy for the consumers to keep the total cost  
331 at the minimum value. The aggregate demand must be uniform over the time inter-  
332 val. This result implies cooperation among the consumers, meaning that they must  
333 coordinate the scheduling of their consumptions, and they must use devices to store  
334 energy during the time periods when their real consumption is below  $Q^*$ , and to use  
335 the stored energy when the real consumption is above  $Q^*$ . Note however that, in this  
336 analysis, no costs were assigned to the operation of the energy storage devices. If  
337 the cost of operating the energy storage devices is too high, there is no economic  
338 incentive to use them to compensate for the energy cost changes.



339 **57.7 Conclusion**

340 In this paper, the dynamics of a supply–demand market is considered. The aim is  
341 to describe the time evolution of the market price towards an equilibrium, where  
342 the negotiation is executed automatically. As a starting point, a dynamic model for  
343 the negotiation process of a simplified market with a single supplier and single  
344 consumer is tackled. Stability conditions were found that render the negotiation  
345 process stable, in which case it converges to the intersection of the supply curve with  
346 the demand curve. Linear programming minimization is used to address the demand  
347 for energy if the supplier imposes a time price profile. The simplified market model  
348 was expanded to include several consumers that are simultaneously present in the  
349 market. Additionally, a constraint production rate is addressed which motivates a  
350 different control approach to handle the stability of the market. In this case, the  
351 speed of convergence depends on the constraint production rate from the supplier  
352 side. Computer simulation results illustrate the working principles of the proposed  
353 control algorithms.

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