

Load shifting versus manual frequency reserve: Which one is more appealing to flexible loads?

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Contents

Nomenclature	3
Abbreviations	3
1 Introduction	3
2 Literature review	3
3 Monetizing flexibility	3
3.1 mFRR	3
3.2 Load shifting	3
4 Grey-box modelling	3
4.1 Prediction error method vs simulation errors	4
5 Thermostatically controlled loads	4
5.1 Visualization of freezer measurements	5
5.2 Thermal modelling of freezer	5
5.3 Validation and simulation	6
6 Optimization model	7
6.1 Objective function	7
6.2 Scenario generation	7
6.3 Decomposition	7
7 Results	8
7.1 ADMM	8
7.2 Lookback	9
7.3 Load shifting vs mFRR	10
8 Discussion	12

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9 Conclusion	12
Appendices	12
A Appendix	12

Nomenclature

IS In-sample.

Abbreviations

OOS Out-of-sample.

Abstract

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1 Introduction

2 Literature review

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3 Monetizing flexibility

3.1 mFRR

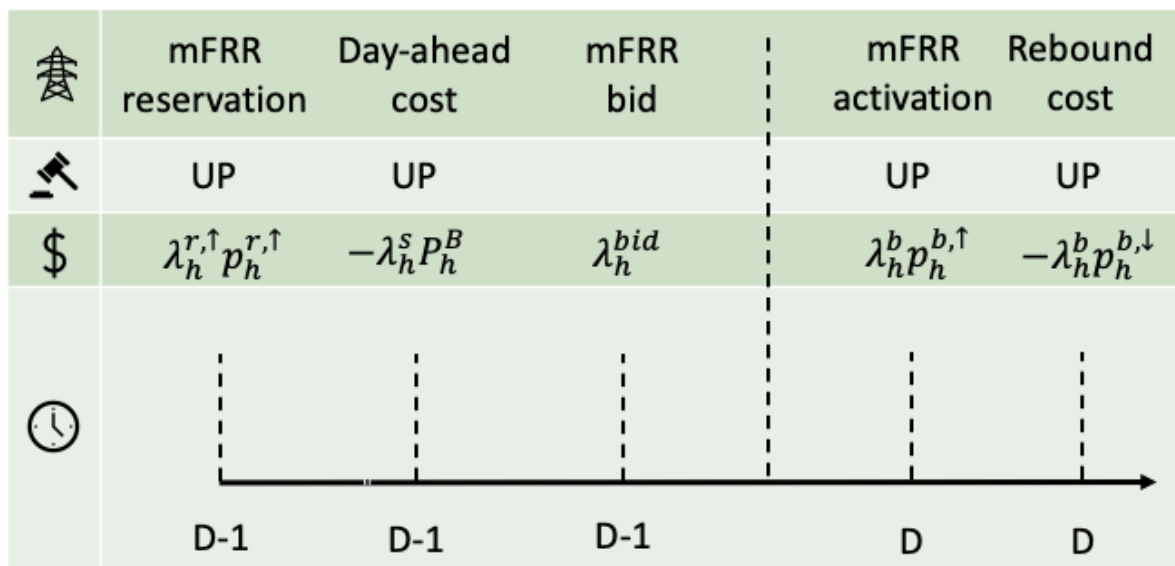


Figure 1: Timeline of cost components in (??).

3.2 Load shifting

4 Grey-box modelling

Most - if not all - of this goes to appendix

4.1 Prediction error method vs simulation errors

5 Thermostatically controlled loads

TCLs are characterized by being controlled such that the temperature is kept at a specified setpoint. Examples includes heat pumps, freezers, air condition units, ovens, etc. They are widely believed to constitute an important part of demand-side flexibility due to the inherent thermal inertia of such temperature-driven systems.

In this paper, we focus on freezers, which are a common type of TCL. Specifically, we focus on a single freezer display in a Danish supermarket. Freezers are characterized by a large thermal inertia due to the frozen food, which makes them suitable for flexibility. On the other hand, there is a risk of food degradation when utilizing flexibility. Therefore, it is important to model the temperature dynamics in the freezer for a realistic estimation of its flexibility.

The rest of the section is organized as follows. First, we visualize the most important measurements from a real supermarket freezer. Second, we introduce a second-order model that characterizes the supermarket freezer. Third, we validate the second-order model and show how it can be used to simulate a demand response from a freezer.

5.1 Visualization of freezer measurements

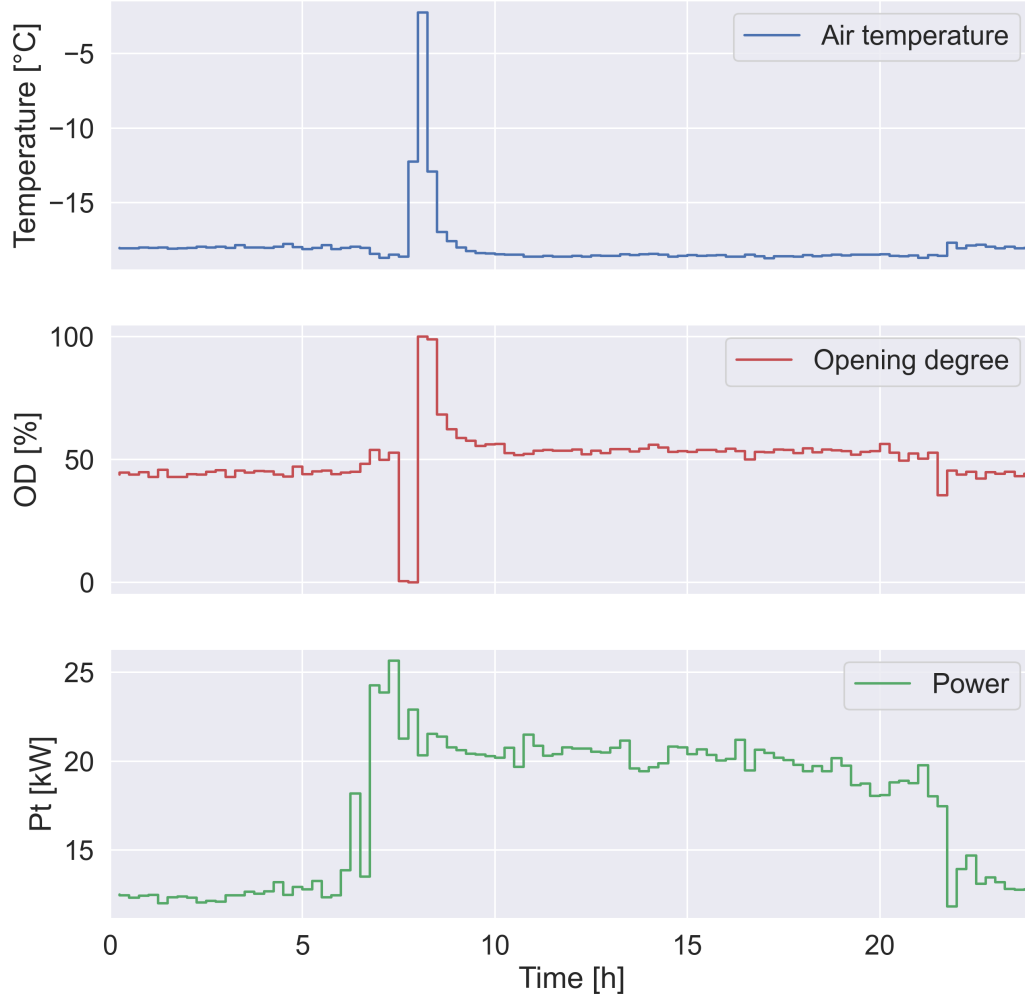


Figure 2: **Top:** yearly average temperature of a single freezer in a supermarket. **Middle:** opening degree of the freezer expansion valve. **Bottom:** power of the compressors feeding all the freezers (scaled to only include all freezers in the supermarket).

5.2 Thermal modelling of freezer

In Appendix A, it is described how a simple TCL model can be made. We extend it to a second-order model that accounts for the thermal mass of the food, which essentially provides the flexibility in freezers:

$$\frac{dT^f(t)}{dt} = \frac{1}{C^f} \left(\frac{1}{R^{cf}} (T^c(t) - T^f(t)) \right) \quad (1a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dT^c(t)}{dt} = & \frac{1}{C^c} \left(\frac{1}{R^{cf}} (T^f(t) - T^c(t)) + \frac{1}{R^{ci}(t)} (T^i(t) - T^c(t)) - \right. \\ & \left. \eta \cdot OD(t) P(t) \right) + \epsilon \mathbb{1}^{df} \end{aligned} \quad (1b)$$

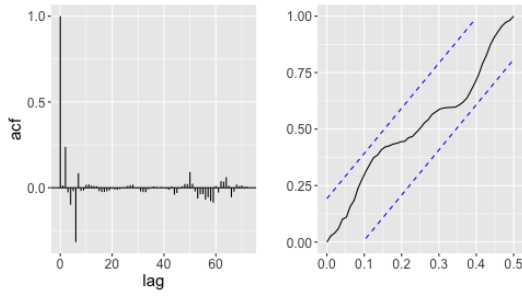
In state-space form, it is:

$$T_{t+1}^f = T_t^f + dt \cdot \frac{1}{C^f} \left(\frac{1}{R^{cf}} (T_t^c - T_t^f) \right) \quad (2a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} T_{t+1}^c = & T_t^c + dt \cdot \frac{1}{C^c} \left(\frac{1}{R^{cf}} (T_t^f - T_t^c) + \frac{1}{R_t^{ci}} (T_t^i - T_t^c) - \right. \\ & \left. \eta \cdot OD_t P_t \right) + \epsilon \mathbb{1}^{df} \end{aligned} \quad (2b)$$

Here, T^c is the air temperature in the freezer, and T^f is the food temperature which is a latent, unobserved state. It is essentially a low-pass filter of the air temperature in the freezer with time constant $\tau = C^f R^{cf}$. C^f and C^c are the thermal capacitance of the food and air in the freezer, respectively. R^{cf} and R^{ci} are the thermal resistance between food and air, and air and indoor temperature, respectively. Furthermore, ϵ represents the temperature change when defrosting and $\mathbb{1}^{df}$ is an indicator for when defrosting happens. R^{ci} is time-varying to capture the differences between opening- and closing hours. The opening degree, OD_t , and power P_t , are exogenous inputs.

5.3 Validation and simulation



Parameter	Value	Unit
C^f	5.50	kWh/°C
C^c	0.13	kWh/°C
R^{cf}	4.91	°C/kW
$R^{ci,day}$	25.6	°C/kW
$R^{ci,night}$	46.5	°C/kW
η	2.38	
ϵ	6.477	°C/h

(a) Validation of the state-space model in (2). Left: auto-correlation function of the model residuals. Right: cumulated periodogram of the residuals.

(b) Parameter estimates of eq. (2).

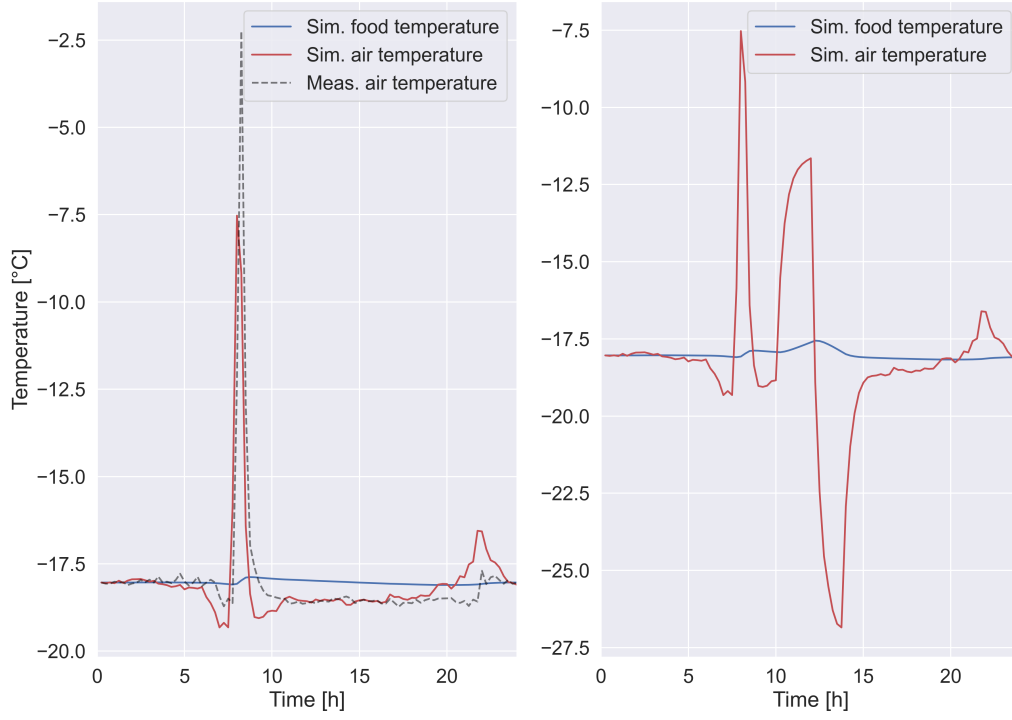


Figure 4: **Left:** Simulation of (2) using the parameters in Table 3b **Right:** Simulation where power is turned off for two hours with a subsequent rebound at the nominal power until the food temperature is back to its normal value.

6 Optimization model

6.1 Objective function

6.2 Scenario generation

6.3 Decomposition

Write about ADMM to solve the optimization problem.

7 Results

7.1 ADMM

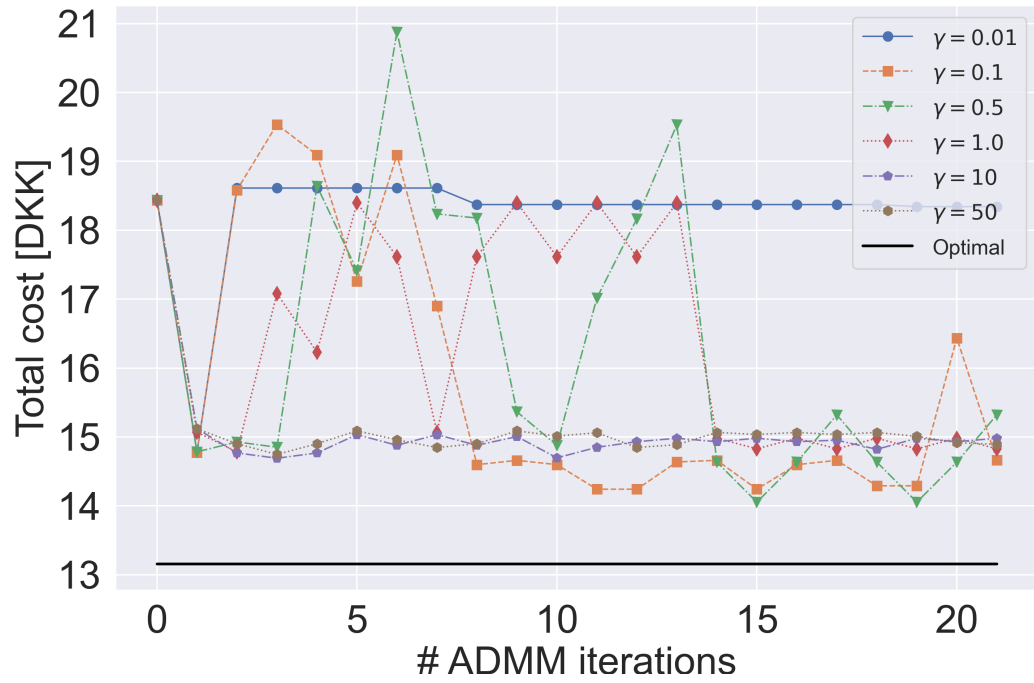


Figure 5: ADMM solution versus the optimal solution for five scenarios.

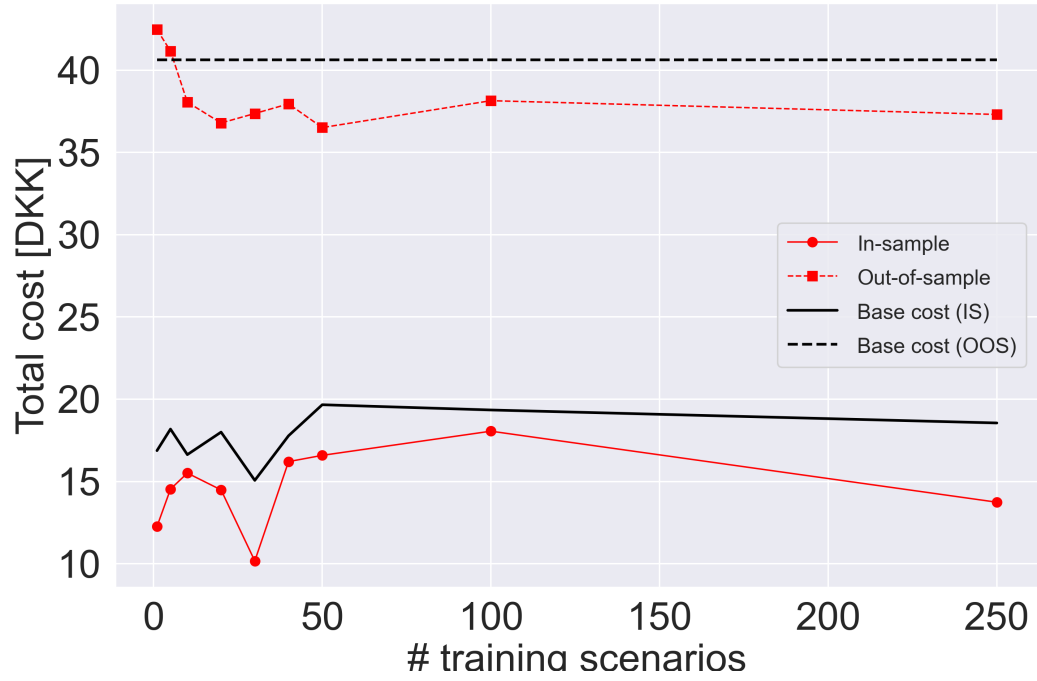


Figure 6: Effect of number of in-sample scenarios on out-of-sample performance for ADMM. Both are compared to the baseline costs of the freezer.

7.2 Lookback

TODO: create plot of effect of lookback parameter.

7.3 Load shifting vs mFRR

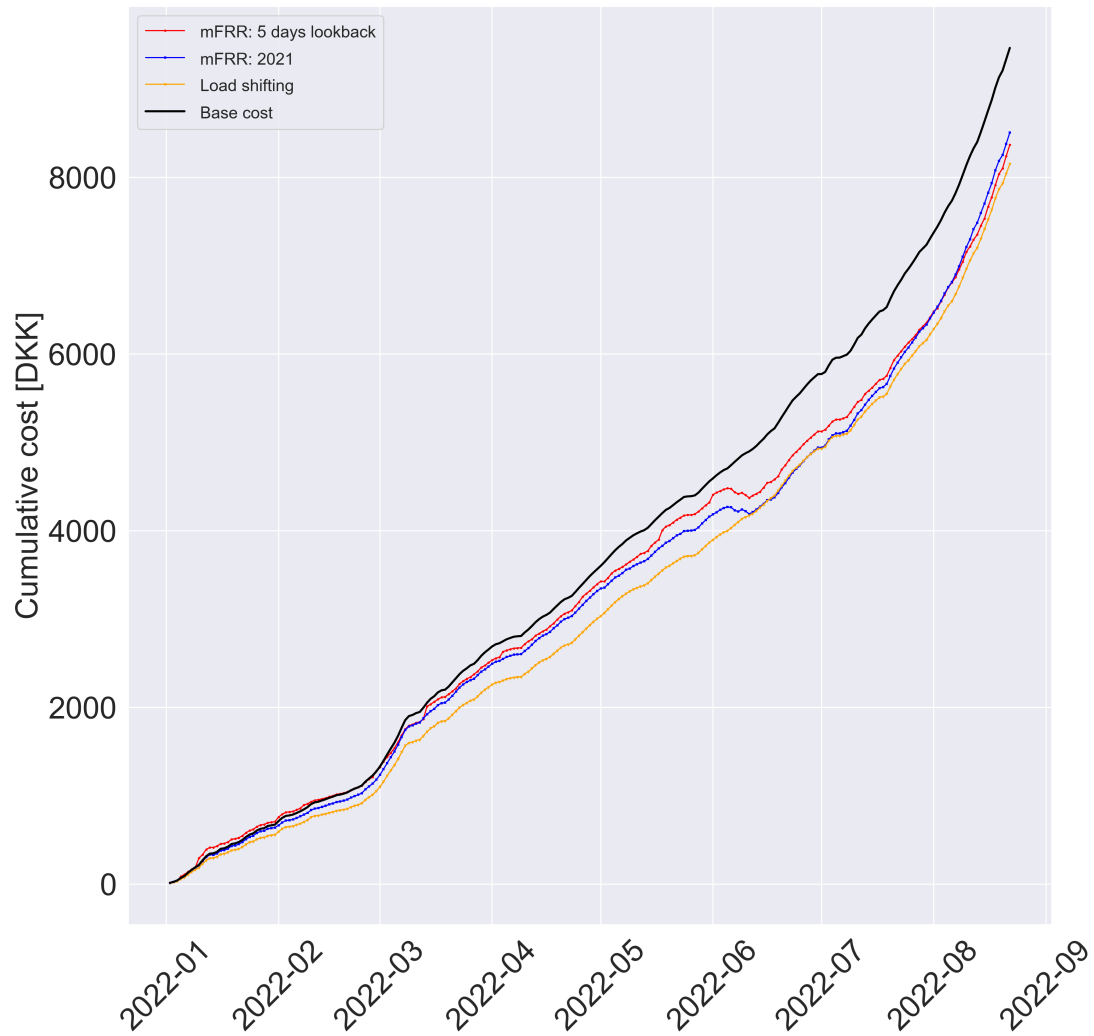
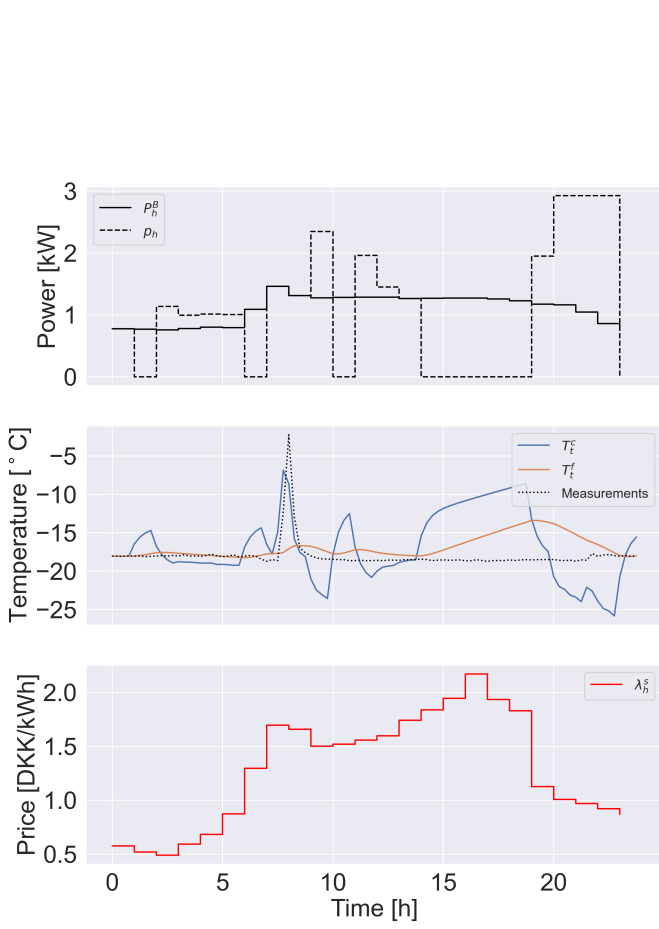
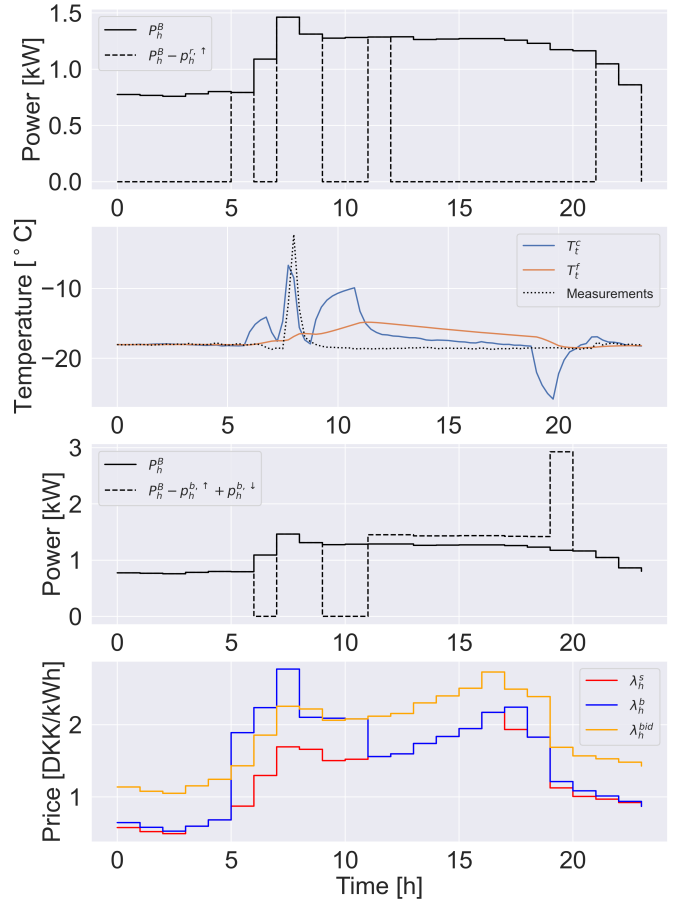


Figure 7: Out-of-sample cumulative costs for load shifting and mFRR using ADMM with 50 scenarios and a lookback of 5 scenarios.



(a) **Top:** Power profile when load shifting and baseline power of freezer. **Middle:** Air and food temperature dynamics. **Bottom:** Spot price in scenario.



(b) **Top:** Reservation capacities and baseline power of freezer. **Upper middle:** Air and food temperature dynamics. **Lower middle:** mFRR activations in this scenarios, i.e., when $\lambda_h^{bid} \leq \lambda_h^b$ and $\lambda_h^b > \lambda_h^s$ and $p_h^{r,\uparrow} > 0$. **Bottom:** Spot price, balancing price, and bid in scenario.

Figure 8: Comparison between load shifting and mFRR in one scenario in-sample. **Left:** Load shifting. **Right:** mFRR.

Table 1: Out-of-sample costs of freezer in [DKK/day] for mFRR with five days lookback, load shifting, and mFRR trained with 50 in-sample scenarios using ADMM.

Name	mFRR w. lookback	Load shifting	mFRR w. 2021
Base cost today	40.628	40.628	40.628
Total cost	35.918	34.994	36.514
Expected energy cost	40.628	34.994	40.628
Rebound cost	0.858	92.869	0.911
Reserve payment	3.216	0.0	3.381
Act payment	8.092	0.0	2.161
Penalty cost	5.741	0.0	0.516
Scenarios	-5	1	50
Admm	False	False	True
% savings	11.6	13.9	10.1

8 Discussion

9 Conclusion

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Appendices

A Appendix

Hao et al. [1] describes how a TCL can be modelled as a virtual battery using a first-order thermal-electric ODE:

$$\frac{dT(t)}{dt} = \frac{1}{C} \left(\frac{1}{R} (T^a(t) - T(t)) + \eta P(t) \right) \quad (3)$$

Here, $T(t)$ is the temperature, C is the thermal capacitance (kWh/°C), R is the thermal resistance (°C/kW), η is the coefficient of performance (COP), i.e., the cooling/heating effect, $P(t)$ is the power to the TCL, and $T^a(t)$ is the ambient temperature outside the TCL (typically around 20 °C in an indoor environment).

Note, (3) can readily be formulated in a deterministic, state-space model as in (??). The following difference equation yields the Euler approximation of (3) which can be used in an optimization model (with the same time step dt):

$$T_{t+1} = T_t + dt \cdot \left(\frac{1}{C} \left(\frac{1}{R} (T_t^a - T_t) + \eta P_t \right) \right) \quad (4)$$

Eq. (3) and (4) constitutes the most simple model of a TCL one can imagine, but, nevertheless, has a quite powerful interpretation: the rate of change of temperature is determined by the heat flux to the surrounding environment and the heat flux from the power source to the TCL. It thus captures the most fundamental temperature dynamics of a TCL.

The steady-state power in (3) is given by:

$$P^{ss}(t) = \frac{T^a(t) - T(t)}{\eta R} \quad (5)$$

The steady-state power is thus the power required to keep the temperature of the TCL constant with respect to the outside temperature, $T^a(t)$, given the efficiency of the system and the thermal resistance. A better energy efficiency can be achieved by either 1) increasing the mechanical efficiency of the cooling/heating system or 2) increasing the thermal resistance to the outside temperature by, e.g., insulating a freezer.

The drawback of the first-order model in (3) is that it is only parameterized by three parameters, and it excludes disturbances. Hence, it might not be an accurate model of a real system. The model can easily be extended to include more complicated dynamics such as heat exchange with a barrier between $T^a(t)$ and $T(t)$, additional disturbance terms (e.g., when a fridge is opened), hourly values of C and R , etc. Nevertheless, (3) serves as a good starting point for a simple TCL model.

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- [1] He Hao et al. “Aggregate flexibility of thermostatically controlled loads”. *IEEE Transactions on Power Systems* 30 (1) (2014), pages 189–198.

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