# Modelling Carbon Tax in the UK Electricity Market using an Agent-Based Model

Alexander Kell School of Computing Newcastle University Newcastle upon Tyne, UK a.kell2@newcastle.ac.uk Matthew Forshaw
School of Computing
Newcastle University
Newcastle upon Tyne, UK
matthew.forshaw@newcastle.ac.uk

A. Stephen McGough
School of Computing
Newcastle University
Newcastle upon Tyne, UK
stephen.mcgough@newcastle.ac.uk

## **ABSTRACT**

Impacts on natural and human systems have already been observed due to anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions [17]. To reduce these emissions, a transition to a low-carbon economy is required. Carbon taxes can be used as a tool for pricing in the negative externalities of pollution and enabling a more rapid transition to a low-carbon economy.

This paper proposes the use of agent-based models to simulate an electricity market. We have used the United Kingdom as an exemplar, however any country can be used through parametrisation. We vary carbon tax to observe the effects on investment up until 2050. We find that a carbon tax of £70 (\$90) per tonne of  $CO_2$  is sufficient in driving investment to an almost 100% renewable energy supply. A less aggressive option, however, of setting a carbon tax at £20 (\$26) would lead to a 50% low-carbon, 50% traditional generation energy mix.

# 1 INTRODUCTION

Governmental policy is a tool that can be used to aid in the transition to a low-carbon economy to prevent the worst effects of climate change. Options include a tax on all carbon emissions or subsidies in low-carbon technologies. In this paper, we vary carbon taxes to assess the long-term impacts on investment in the electricity market. We used a general agent-based model simulation made for wholesale electricity markets, created by us named ElecSim.

Simulation is a technique to create a physical system in a virtual world. In this context a model is defined as a set of mathematical formulas and algorithms which are designed to mimic real life [10]. Simulation allows practitioners to rapidly prototype high risk ideas in this virtual model and assess their outcome before implementation in the real world.

The electricity market in many western democracies consists of multiple heterogenous actors acting for their own best interest [18]. Agent-based modelling is a technique which allows for the simulation of these heterogenous actors with different risk profiles, profit requirements and preferences. A number of agent-based models have been used to model the impact of carbon tax on long term

Permission to make digital or hard copies of part or all of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. Copyrights for third-party components of this work must be honored. For all other uses, contact the owner/author(s).

e-Energy '19, June 25–28, 2019, Phoenix, AZ, USA © 2019 Copyright held by the owner/author(s). ACM ISBN 978-1-4503-6671-7/19/06. https://doi.org/10.1145/3307772.3330175

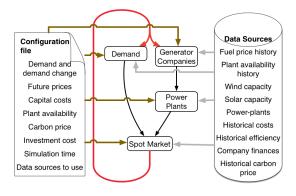


Figure 1: System overview of agent-based market model.

investments [4, 5, 23]. ABMs have been utilised in this field to address phenomena such as market power [21].

We model the realisation of the wholesale electricity market in the United Kingdom and adjust carbon tax in our agent-based model to see the effect of long-term investment. Whilst we have modelled the United Kingdom, it would be possible to model for any country with different parameters. We posit that decisions made today can have complex long-term consequences, the process of which can be observed through simulation.

This paper details our model and different carbon scenarios. Section 2 details the model, assumptions made and parameters. Section 3 presents our results. We conclude our work in Section 4 and explore possible routes forward.

## 2 MODEL ARCHITECTURE

The agent-based model is made up of five significant parts: the agents which are made up of the generation companies (GenCos) and demand agents; power plants and a market operator which controls the spot market. How these parts interact are displayed in Figure 1. The relevant data sources are also provided there.

We initialise the United Kingdom with our model with exemplar data from the UK. We model every single power plant in operation in the year 2018, which are owned by their respective generation companies. Individual historical power plant costs are estimated from levelized cost of electricity (LCOE) [7, 12, 13], whereas future and present power plant costs are taken from the department of business and industrial strategy [8]. The variable operation and maintenance cost was defined stochastically to model the varying costs per project. A uniform distribution was chosen to provide sufficient variance between projects.

The demand agent is modelled as a single aggregated demand, split up into 20 segments of a yearly load duration curve (LDC),

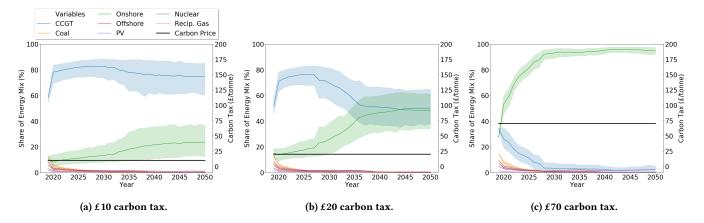


Figure 2: Scenarios from 2020 to 2050 with varying carbon tax.

enabling us to increase speed of computation whilst maintaining accuracy. An LDC is defined as load sorted in order of magnitude.

We model the influence of outages using availability data for gas, coal, photovoltaic, and wind power generators [3, 11, 16]. Historical availabilities are modelled for old gas, coal and hydro power plants [1]. Capacity factors per geographical location were taken as an average of the UK for solar and wind [20, 22]. Where a capacity factor is defined as the ratio of electrical output over a given time period over the maximum possible electrical energy output.

The generation companies make electricity bids each year for each of their power plants. The market operator then matches demand with supply in order of price, also known as merit-order dispatch. We model a uniform pricing market, where each of the companies are paid the highest accepted bid per load segment.

GenCos have the ability to invest every year in new power plants based on the expected net present value (NPV) of each type of power plant. NPV is a summation of the present value of a series of present and future cash flow. The NPV calculation is dependent on a stochastic representation of GenCos predictions of fuel, carbon and electricity price and demand.

Each GenCo has a separate weighted average cost of capital (WACC), which is the average rate that a company is expected to for its stock and debt. This is used as the discount rate in the NPV calculation [14]. The WACC is modelled as a stochastic variable, with a Gaussian distribution, with a  $\pm 3\%$  standard deviation, with values of 5.9% for non-nuclear power plants, and 10% for nuclear power plants [15, 19].

The model took yearly time-steps to limit the impact on computation time, however, to model the intermittency of renewable generation, we correlated demand with the respective capacity factor, enabling for example, solar and wind to only contribute a certain capacity to their load curve.

Stochasticity of fuel price within a year was also modelled, to take into account difference in hedging strategies and chance. An ARIMA model [9] was fit to historic coal and natural gas prices.

#### 3 RESULTS

We experimented with the following levels of carbon tax: £10 (\$13), £20 (\$26) and £70 (\$90) with demand decreasing 1% per year. This

was chosen due to the increasing efficiency of homes, industry and technology, and due to the recent trend in the UK. We run each scenario 8 times to capture the stochastic nature of the process. Via the observation of the emergent investment behaviour until 2050, an understanding of how real life investors may behave emerges.

Figure 2a shows that with a carbon tax of £10, whilst renewable technology does grow, gas power plants provide the majority of supply in each year. However, at a level of £20 the increase in wind turbines is enough to match gas turbines. A carbon tax of £70, however, shows a near 100% uptake of wind turbines.

It is infeasible for the power supply to be provided solely by wind turbines today. This overestimation, however, is due to the low time granularity of the model [6]. This scenario therefore assumes perfect storage capabilities.

# 4 CONCLUSIONS

Agent-based models provide a method of simulating investor behaviour in an electricity market. We observed that an increase in carbon tax had a significant impact on investment. These findings enable policy makers to better understand the impact that their decisions may have. For a high uptake of renewable energy technology, rapid results can be seen after 10 years with a carbon tax of £70 (\$90).

Agent-based models open up the possibility of testing differing investor behaviours through techniques such as reinforcement learning. This can be extended to incorporate collusion which can have an impact in liberalized electricity markets [2].

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council, Centre for Doctoral Training in Cloud Computing for Big Data [grant number EP/L015358/1].

#### REFERENCES

- Alberta System Electric Operator. 2016. AESO 2015 Annual Market Statistics. March (2016), 28. https://www.aeso.ca/market/market-and-system-reporting/annual-market-statistic-reports/
- [2] Richard Benjamin. 2016. Tacit Collusion in Electricity Markets with Uncertain Demand. Review of Industrial Organization 48, 1 (2016), 69–93. https://doi.org/ 10.1007/s11151-015-9481-0
- [3] James Carroll, Allan May, Alasdair McDonald, and David McMillan. [n. d.]. Availability Improvements from Condition Monitoring Systems and Performance Based Maintenance Contracts. 45 ([n. d.]), 39.
- [4] Emile J.L. Chappin, Laurens J. de Vries, Joern C. Richstein, Pradyumna Bhagwat, Kaveri Iychettira, and Salman Khan. 2017. Simulating climate and energy policy with agent-based modelling: The Energy Modelling Laboratory (EMLab). Environmental Modelling and Software 96 (2017), 421–431.
- [5] Lin-Ju Chen, Lei Zhu, Ying Fan, and Sheng-Hua Cai. 2014. Long-Term Impacts of Carbon Tax and Feed-in Tariff Policies on China's Generating Portfolio and Carbon Emissions: A Multi-Agent-Based Analysis. *Energy & Environment* 24, 7-8 (2014), 1271–1293. https://doi.org/10.1260/0958-305x.24.7-8.1271
- [6] Seán Collins, John Paul Deane, Kris Poncelet, Evangelos Panos, Robert C. Pietzcker, Erik Delarue, and Brian Pádraig Ó Gallachóir. 2017. Integrating short term variations of the power system into integrated energy system models: A methodological review. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews 76, January (2017), 839–856. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rser.2017.03.090
- [7] Michael Dale. 2013. A Comparative Analysis of Energy Costs of Photovoltaic, Solar Thermal, and Wind Electricity Generation Technologies. Applied Sciences 3, 2 (2013), 325–337. https://doi.org/10.3390/app3020325
- [8] Department for Business Energy & Industrial Strategy. 2016. Electricity Generation Costs. November (2016).
- [9] "Norbert Wiener et al.". 1930. "Autoregressive integrated moving average". (1930).
- [10] Matthew Forshaw, Nigel Thomas, and A. Stephen McGough. 2016. The case for energy-aware simulation and modelling of internet of things (IoT). Proceedings of the 2nd International Workshop on Energy-Aware Simulation - ENERGY-SIM '16 (2016), 1-4.
- [11] Kirby Hunt, Anthony Blekicki, and Robert Callery. 2015. Availability of utility-scale photovoltaic power plants. 2015 IEEE 42nd Photovoltaic Specialist Conference, PVSC 2015 (2015), 0–2. https://doi.org/10.1109/PVSC.2015.7355976
- [12] IEA. 2015. Projected Costs of Generating Electricity. (2015), 215.
- [13] IRENA. 2018. Renewable Power Generation Costs in 2017. IRENA International Renewable Energy Agency. 160 pages.
- [14] Stephen C Kincheloe. 1990. The Weighted Average Cost Of Capital The Correct Discount. The Appraisal journal. 58, 1 (1990).
- [15] KPMG. 2017. Cost of Capital Study 2017. KPMG (2017).
- [16] LeighFisher Ltd. 2016. Final Report: Electricity Generation Costs and Hurdle Rates. (2016).
- [17] V Masson-Delmotte, P Zhai, H.O Pörtner, D Roberts, J Skea, P R Shukla, A Pirani, W Moufouma-Okia, C Péan, R Pidcock, S Connors, J B Matthews, Y Chen, X Zhou, M I Gomis, E Lonnoy, T Maycock, M Tignor, and T Waterfield. 2018. IPCC Special Report 1.5 - Summary for Policymakers.
- [18] Dominik Möst and Dogan Keles. 2010. A survey of stochastic modelling approaches for liberalised electricity markets. European Journal of Operational Research 207, 2 (2010), 543–556.
- [19] Icept Working Paper and Phil Heptonstall. 2012. Cost estimates for nuclear power in the UK. ICEPT Working Paper August (2012).
- [20] Stefan Pfenninger and Iain Staffell. 2016. Long-term patterns of European PV output using 30 years of validated hourly reanalysis and satellite data. *Energy* 114 (2016), 1251–1265. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.energy.2016.08.060
- [21] Philipp Ringler, Dogan Keles, and Wolf Fichtner. 2016. Agent-based modelling and simulation of smart electricity grids and markets - A literature review. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews 57, September (2016), 205–215.
- [22] Iain Staffell and Stefan Pfenninger. 2016. Using bias-corrected reanalysis to simulate current and future wind power output. Energy 114 (2016), 1224–1239. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.energy.2016.08.068
- [23] Ling Tang, Jiaqian Wu, Lean Yu, and Qin Bao. 2015. Carbon emissions trading scheme exploration in China: A multi-agent-based model. *Energy Policy* 81, 2015 (2015), 152–169. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enpol.2015.02.032