

# Adjustment Mechanisms

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# Some Problems with Rate Setting

- ▶ Rate of return regulation is periodic
  - ▶ Either the utility or the PUC can start a new rate case
  - ▶ PUC if profits seem high
  - ▶ Utility if profits seem low
- ▶ Usually 3-5 years between – called “regulatory lag”.
- ▶ This may limit incentives to make cost reducing investments.
- ▶ May cause wide swings in regulated prices (Fuel prices changing)

# Evaluating Lag Requires Us to Deal with Time

- ▶ This is time consistent time value of money
- ▶ Standard topic in some intro economics courses
- ▶ Engineers will have seen it in their engineering economics courses, EC314 at PSU.

# Assumptions

These are demonstrably false but give us tractable methods.

- ▶ Costs and benefits of equal size have equal value in all time periods. *Can evaluate without worrying about wealth or taste changes.*
- ▶ The value of costs and benefits is independent of costs and benefits in other time periods. *No habit, addiction or hangovers.*
- ▶ Benefits offset costs. *Ever fought a parking ticket?*
- ▶ Future values are known with certainty. *Math is easy*

## What it looks like

$$\sum x_n d(n)$$

- ▶  $d(n)$  is a discounting function.
- ▶ Many are possible but only a few are time consistent.
  - ▶  $d(n) = \frac{1}{(1+r)^n}$  for discrete time.
  - ▶  $d(n) = \frac{1}{e^{rn}}$  for continuous time.

## Example of Time Inconsistency

Back in the day I did this in class with real beer. Now, it's a policy violation.

- ▶ Chose 6-pack of beer a month and a day from now or 1 beer a month from now.
- ▶ A beer right now or a 6-pack tomorrow.
- ▶ Many of you changed your mind.

# Integer time

- ▶ Will say “Time 1”, “Time zero” because “1st time period is confusing”
- ▶ “Now” means time zero.
- ▶ Intervals are half open on the right, e.g.,  $[0, 1)$
- ▶ Jan 1, 1908 and Dec 31, 1908 are in the same period, but Jan 1, 1909 is not, when the unit of analysis is a year.

# Time Consistent Integer Time Discounting

$$F = P(1 + i)^N$$

Symbolic notation depends on context.

- ▶  $i$  = The interest rate
- ▶  $P$  = Present worth *or* some value in time zero.
- ▶  $N$  =  $N$  time periods from Now *or* Time  $N$
- ▶  $F$  = Future Value *or* Present Value in time  $N$  *or* A value in time  $N$ .



## Easy Future Value Calculation

“If you deposit \$26 into an account that earns 2% a month, how much will be in the account after 500 months?”

$$F = 26(1 + .02)^{500} = 5.188708 \times 10^5$$

## Easy Present Worth Calculation

“How much would you have to deposit now into an account that earns 10% per year to have 100K in 10 years?”

$$P = \frac{100K}{(1 + .1)^{10}} = 38.5543289K$$

# Incentives to Innovate

- ▶ Utilities have to impose a cost on themselves to innovate in time zero
- ▶ The cost to innovate is  $I_0$
- ▶ The innovation reduces constant marginal costs in future periods of  $\Delta_c$
- ▶ The utility enjoys the cost savings until time  $t$
- ▶ The regulators then reduce price by  $\Delta_c$
- ▶ The firm faces a discount rate of  $\delta$

## Regulator never changes prices

A regulated firm will expend effort  $l_0$  in time zero for change in cost  $\Delta_c$  in future periods when:

$$l_0 \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Delta_c}{(1 + \delta)^n} = \frac{\Delta_c}{\delta}$$

Basically, as long as the sum of discounted benefits in the future is at least as big as the cost.

## Now The Regulator Revises Prices Every Three Years

This means that all benefits of the investment,  $I_0$ , vanish after three years

$$I_0 \leq \frac{\Delta_c}{(1+\delta)^1} + \frac{\Delta_c}{(1+\delta)^2} + \frac{\Delta_c}{(1+\delta)^3} \leq \frac{\Delta_c}{\delta}$$

Note that savings in each year,  $\Delta_c$ , must be larger than before to warrant expense, or  $I_0$  must be smaller.

## Longer Period Between Adjustments

The more investments you will see.

$$\begin{aligned} I_0 &\leq \frac{\Delta_c}{(1+\delta)^1} + \frac{\Delta_c}{(1+\delta)^2} + \frac{\Delta_c}{(1+\delta)^3} \leq \\ &\frac{\Delta_c}{(1+\delta)^1} + \frac{\Delta_c}{(1+\delta)^2} + \frac{\Delta_c}{(1+\delta)^3} \frac{\Delta_c}{(1+\delta)^4} \leq \\ &\frac{\Delta_c}{\delta} \end{aligned}$$

So, encourage innovation, more regulatory lag is good.

## In Summary

- ▶ Because all cost savings are reflected in lower prices at the next rate case, there are some cost saving investments that are not made.
- ▶ More lag, encourages more cost saving investments.

## Lag Can Also Be Bad

If there is general inflation, then lag can cause the utility to not capture the cost of service in price.

- ▶ Costs increase constantly
- ▶ Prices are only set periodically to match those current costs



## Bad Lag

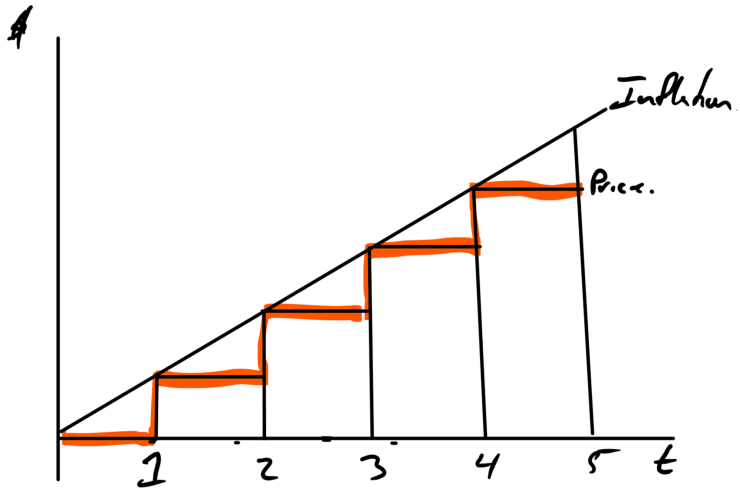


Figure 1:

## Yes, there are fixes to this

- ▶ Set prices not to current costs, but expected average over until the next rate case taking into account the cost of funds.
  - ▶ Have automatic adjustments based on actual inflation.
  - ▶ Have costs that have a market basis pass through to consumer.
- More common with Natural Gas

(<https://www.nwnatural.com/uploadedFiles/25150-1.pdf>)

# Adjustment for Anticipated Inflation

- ▶  $P$ : Rate (Price) at start of new rate period, time one (Note time convention difference.)
- ▶  $\pi$ : Expected inflation
- ▶  $r$ : Regulated rate of return
- ▶  $T$ : Years between rate adjustment
- ▶  $P^*$ : Fixed Inflation adjusted rate

$$\sum_{t=1}^T \frac{P(1 + \pi)^{t-1}}{(1 + r)^{t-1}} = P^* \sum_{t=1}^T \frac{1}{(1 + r)^{t-1}}$$

Result is a proportional increase

$$\sum_{t=1}^T \frac{P(1+\pi)^{t-1}}{(1+r)^{t-1}} = P^* \sum_{t=1}^T \frac{1}{(1+r)^{t-1}}$$
$$\frac{P^*}{P} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T \frac{(1+\pi)^{t-1}}{(1+r)^{t-1}}}{\sum_{t=1}^T \frac{1}{(1+r)^{t-1}}}$$

- ▶ Book goes on to continuous time discounting but ...
- ▶ Note quite the average of starting and ending, closer to start than end.

# The General Method of Automatic Adjustment

- ▶ Many names, I knew this as “CPI-X”.
- ▶ Book calls it “RPI-X”
- ▶ Says prices increase by some measure of the rate of inflation less some percentage amount  $X$  determined by:
  - ▶ K: Capital investments
  - ▶ Q: (Q)uality of service
  - ▶ Z: Input price changes and other factors
- ▶ The factors are often summarized through
  - ▶ Regression to give Total Factor Productivity (TFP), or
  - ▶ Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA)

This is rare in the US but most common in UK

## How Automatic Adjustment Helps

- ▶ It unlinks *specific* investments in cost savings from the price.
- ▶ Assumes a general rate of investment in cost savings.
- ▶ If the utility invests more than assumed, more profits
- ▶ If the utility invests less than assumed, less profits

Yes, you do fight over the assumed rate. Yes, you do reset the rates based on cost but there is a longer lag period.

## How to interpret the X

- ▶ There is an economy wide increase in productivity that increases output
- ▶ There is also monetary inflation.
- ▶ The price level goes up by monetary inflation less productivity

The X is the amount by which the industry exceeds the average increase in productivity.

# Creating an X

- ▶ This is mostly through finding a good estimate of future total factor productivity (TFP)
- ▶ Many cautions here:
  - ▶ Lots of things go by the name TFP.
  - ▶ An economist would not recognize all of them as TFP



# Economist Point of View

- ▶ You are estimating a regression equation.
- ▶ Some measure of output
- ▶ Some measures of inputs
- ▶ You may make some ad hoc adjustments.

You can do this from FERC Form 1 for the most part *Example PGE Form 1*

# Make a Regression

- ▶ Include an output measure, for example total kWh.
- ▶ Include measures of input, labor hours, the capital stock of the plant and other factors.
- ▶ Include one last variable, the constant term. That will be your TFP measure.
- ▶ The rules differ by jurisdiction, UK, AU, NZ, etc.

For example:

$$KWh = AK^{\alpha}L^{\beta}$$

or

$$KWh = \ln(A) + \alpha \ln(K) + \beta \ln(L)$$

Your regression will estimate  $A$ ,  $\alpha$ , and  $\beta$ .  $\ln(A)$  is the growth in TFP.

# Data Envelopment Analysis

- ▶ We had a brief introduction to Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) earlier in the class.
- ▶ Our context was input-output space, i.e., index of inputs on the horizontal and index of outputs on vertical axis.
- ▶ DEA can also work in input space with isoquants

## Example DEA in Input-Isoquant Space

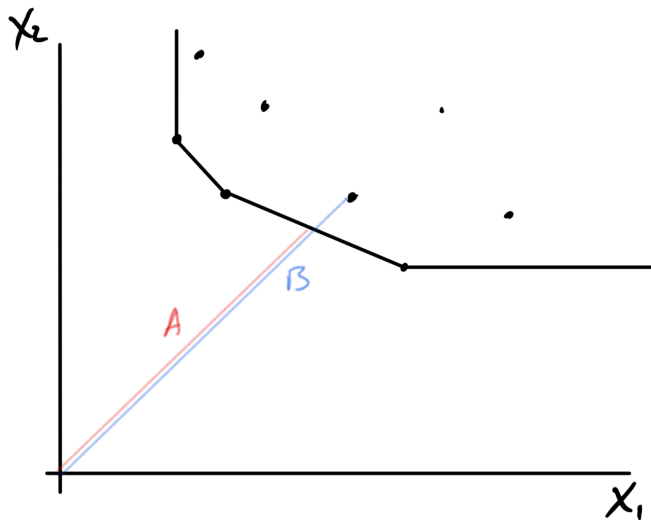


Figure 2:

## Comment

- ▶ Technical Efficiency is  $A/B$ , i.e., best divided by you.  $[0,1]$ .
- ▶ Assumption of homothetic production functions, optimal proportion of inputs is constant over a wide range of output levels.
  - ▶ Homothetic means,  $f(ax) = a^n f(x)$
  - ▶  $n = 1$  is constant returns to scale
  - ▶  $n < 1$  is decreasing returns to scale
  - ▶  $n > 1$  is increasing returns to scale
- ▶ Not a DEA expert but
  - ▶ How do you assess goodness of fit?
  - ▶ How do you evaluate input parameter choices?
  - ▶ What is random, the population or the sample?
  - ▶ Yes, you can bootstrap, but parameter estimates from data should come with:
    - ▶ Distribution of belief, or
    - ▶ Distribution of uncertainty.

# Homothetic Production

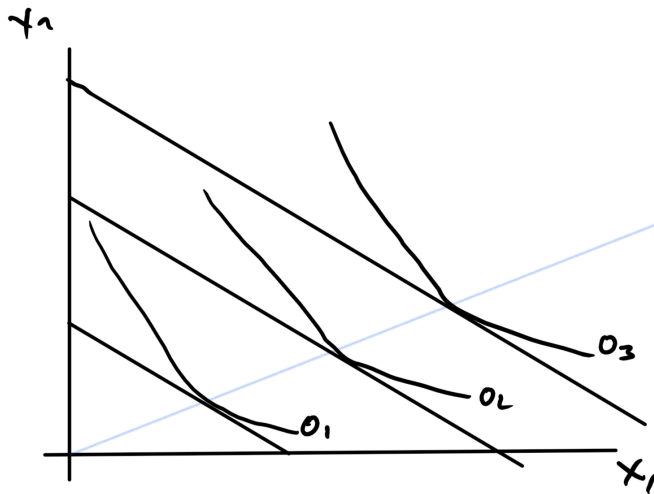


Figure 3:

# Properties of homothetic production

- ▶ The ratio of inputs is constant over all scales
- ▶ If you know the optimum at one level, you can just multiply

## Non-homothetic

- ▶ The most common kind are quasi-linear,  $f(x, y) = a + g(y)$
- ▶ Proportions of inputs change with output levels.



## Non-homothetic

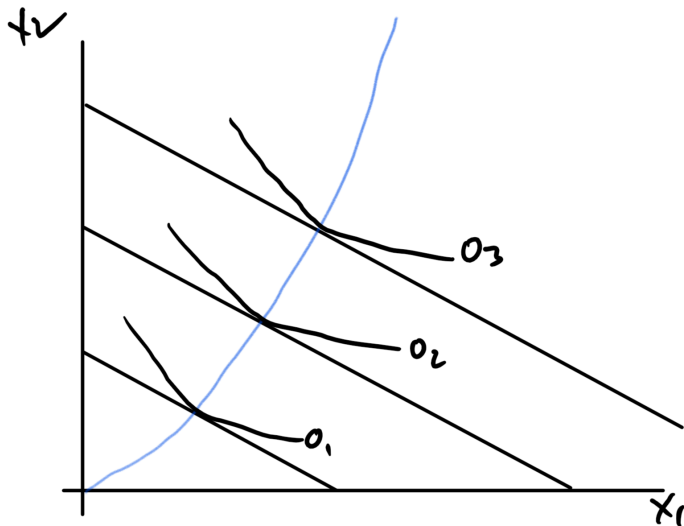


Figure 4:

## How Efficiency Index Can Break

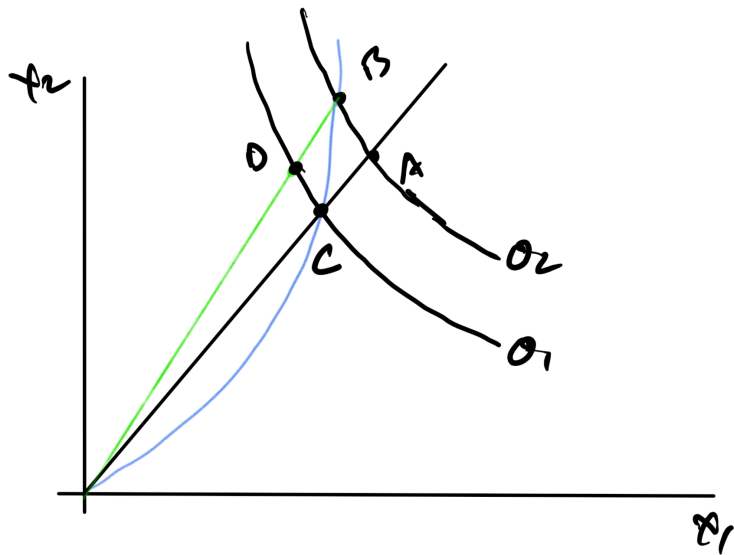


Figure 5:

## How it Breaks

- ▶ Suppose you are at A with output slightly higher than baseline level
  - ▶ Technical Efficiency is  $OB/OA$
  - ▶ But you should be at B
- ▶ Even if you were at B, you would still be technically inefficient
- ▶ Captures only the scale difference
- ▶ Does not get that the ratio of  $X_1/X_2$  is wrong at those input price levels.
- ▶ That is the consequence of the homotheticity assumption.