

Empirical Methods for the Analysis of the Energy Transition: Day 4

CEMFI Summer School

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Today's outline

1) Demand side policies evaluation

- Experiments
- ML

2) Case study: Real-time pricing in Spain

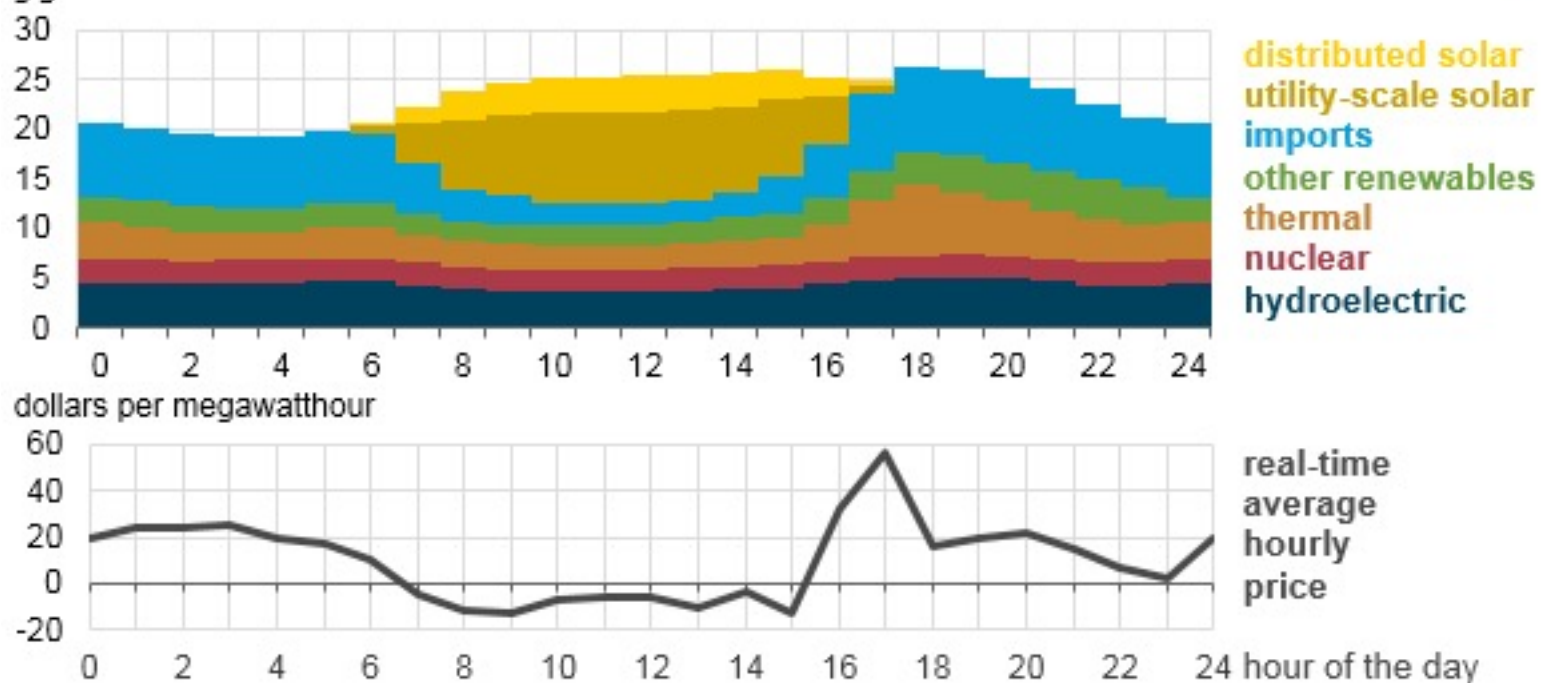
Electricity Demand – why do we care?

- Electricity demand has been plateauing due to energy efficiency improvements.
- But it is expected to grow considerably as we electrify more areas of the economy (e.g., cars).
- Electricity demand is generally very unresponsive, but that does not go well with renewables...

Electricity Demand – why do we care?

- Response even more important when there is a lot of renewable energy!

California Independent System Operator net generation, March 11, 2017



Electricity Demand – why do we care?

- In the US, 34% of GHG emissions come from electricity (EPA 2007).
 - Big focus on shifting to cleaner technologies.
 - Shifting demand to when cleaner technologies are available can also be equally effective and make the transition cheaper.
- If we reduce demand, it is important to think about which consumption we should try to lower.
 - GHG depends on the source of electricity
 - The location of end-use consumption
 - The day and time of end-use consumption

Energy demand: several response margins

- We will separate between two strategies:
 - **Energy efficiency:** becoming better at consuming the same goods, e.g., LEDs, building retrofit, better appliances, etc.
 - **Demand response:** reducing our consumption if prices are high
- I will discuss papers from both, as they can be very related in methods and type of data.

Energy efficiency

- We do not consume energy directly
 - We consume “energy services” produced with energy inputs
- Energy efficiency refers to the productivity of energy inputs:

$$\text{Energy efficiency} = \text{energy services} / \text{energy input}$$

- Examples
 - *Example 1*: keep room at 65F for an hour
 - *Example 2*: run a washing machine at 4pm
 - *Example 3*?

The energy efficiency gap

- The energy efficiency gap refers to potential underinvestment in energy efficient technologies (typically by the part of consumers) – second channel of inefficiency.
- Defined as “a wedge between the cost-minimizing level of energy efficiency and the level actually realized.”
- Suggests there are other market failures at play.

The energy efficiency gap – Debate

“Energy efficiency offers a vast, low-cost energy resource for the U.S. economy—but only if the nation can craft a comprehensive and innovative approach to unlock it.”

–McKinsey & Co. (2009), *Unlocking Energy Efficiency in the U.S. Economy*

“When one tallies up the available empirical evidence from different contexts, it is difficult to substantiate claims of a pervasive energy-efficiency gap... the empirical magnitudes of the investment inefficiencies appear to be smaller, indeed substantially smaller, than the massive potential savings calculated in engineering analyses such as McKinsey & Co. (2009).

- Alcott and Greenstone (2012), *Journal of Economic Perspectives*

The energy efficiency gap – Evidence

- There is somewhat of a debate on how much of an “energy efficiency puzzle” there is.
 - Engineering view: typically more “optimistic”
 - Economists view: typically more “pessimistic”
- Studies find a wide range of estimates of costs of energy efficiency.

Evidence – Empirical difficulties I

- Studies of energy efficiency gap are difficult:
 - Typically in non-randomized settings
 - Randomized experiments can be very expensive
- Ideal world:
 - Have two parallel universes with the same consumers
 - Offer energy-efficient appliance rebate in one and compare
- In practice from observational data:
 - Consumers might be changing other things at the same time
 - Inframarginal consumers: they would have bought the better appliance anyway (should not count)
 - Often only include “program” costs

Evidence – Empirical difficulties II

- Engineering measurement to go around some of these difficulties:
 - Tries to get at the savings by formulating a model of energy consumption.
 - Circumvents the problem of households changing other consumption aspects at the same time
 - Does not deal with infra-marginal types
- In practice from observational data:
 - Consumers might change their behavior also with respect to the new appliance (e.g., better AC, use it more)
 - Known as “rebound affect”

Example – “Cash for Coolers”

- Since 2009 over 1.5 million refrigerators and air-conditioners have been replaced through Mexico’s “Cash for Coolers” Program.



C4C program details

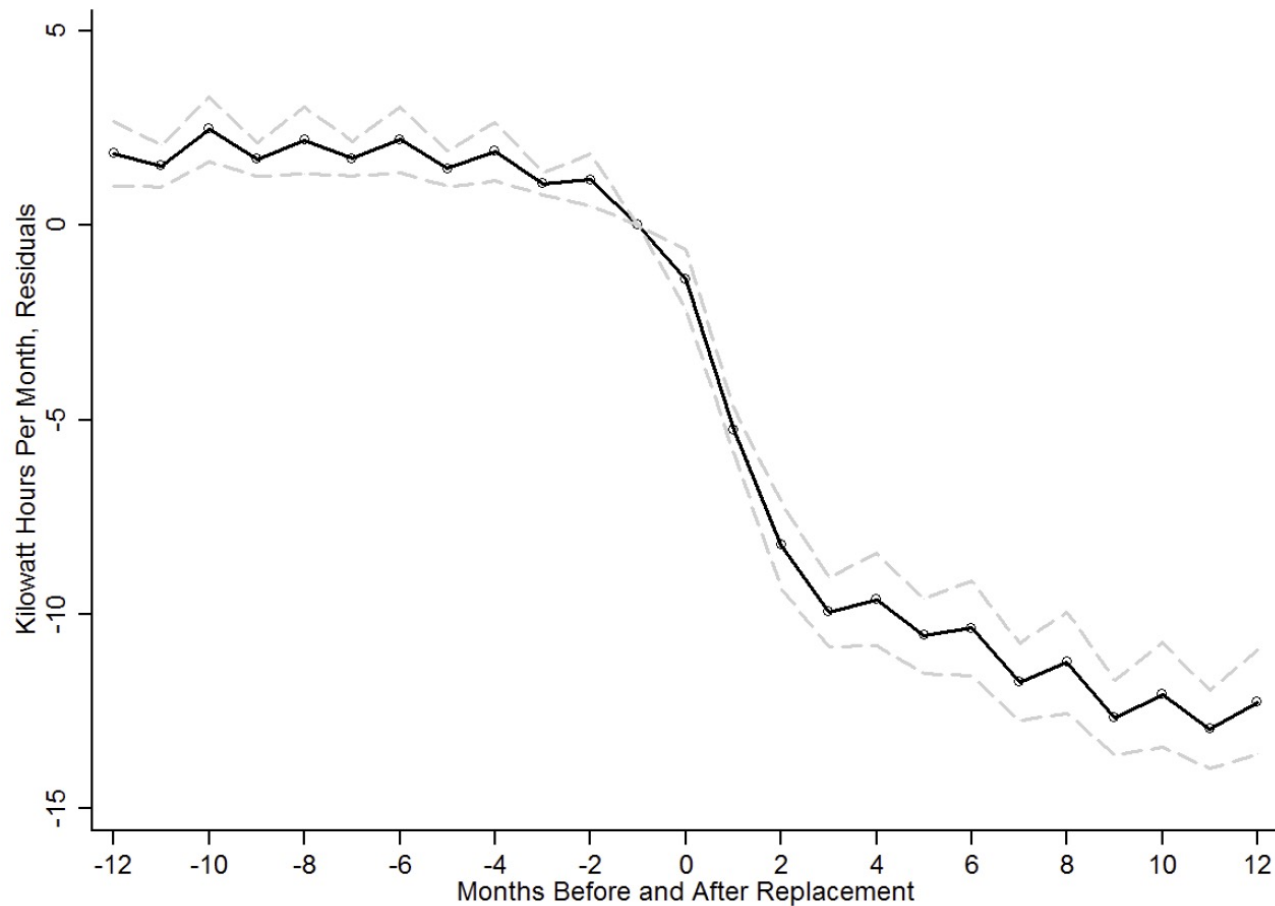
- Includes both refrigerators and room air-conditioners
 - To date 90% refrigerators, 10% air-conditioners
 - Direct cash subsidies of up to \$185
 - Also low-interest credit against future electric bills
- Old appliance must be 10+ years old
 - Verified by the retailer to be working at time of replacement
 - Then permanently disassembled in recycling centers
- New appliance must meet exceed 2002 standard by 5%.

C4C assessment

- *Lucas Davis, Alan Fuchs, and Paul Gertler, “Cash for Coolers”.*
- What is the effect of *C4C* on electricity consumption?
 - What is the implied cost per “negawatt”?
 - What is the implied cost per ton of carbon dioxide abated?
 - How does this compare to *ex ante* predictions?
- What broader lessons can be learned from *C4C* for the design of energy efficiency programs?

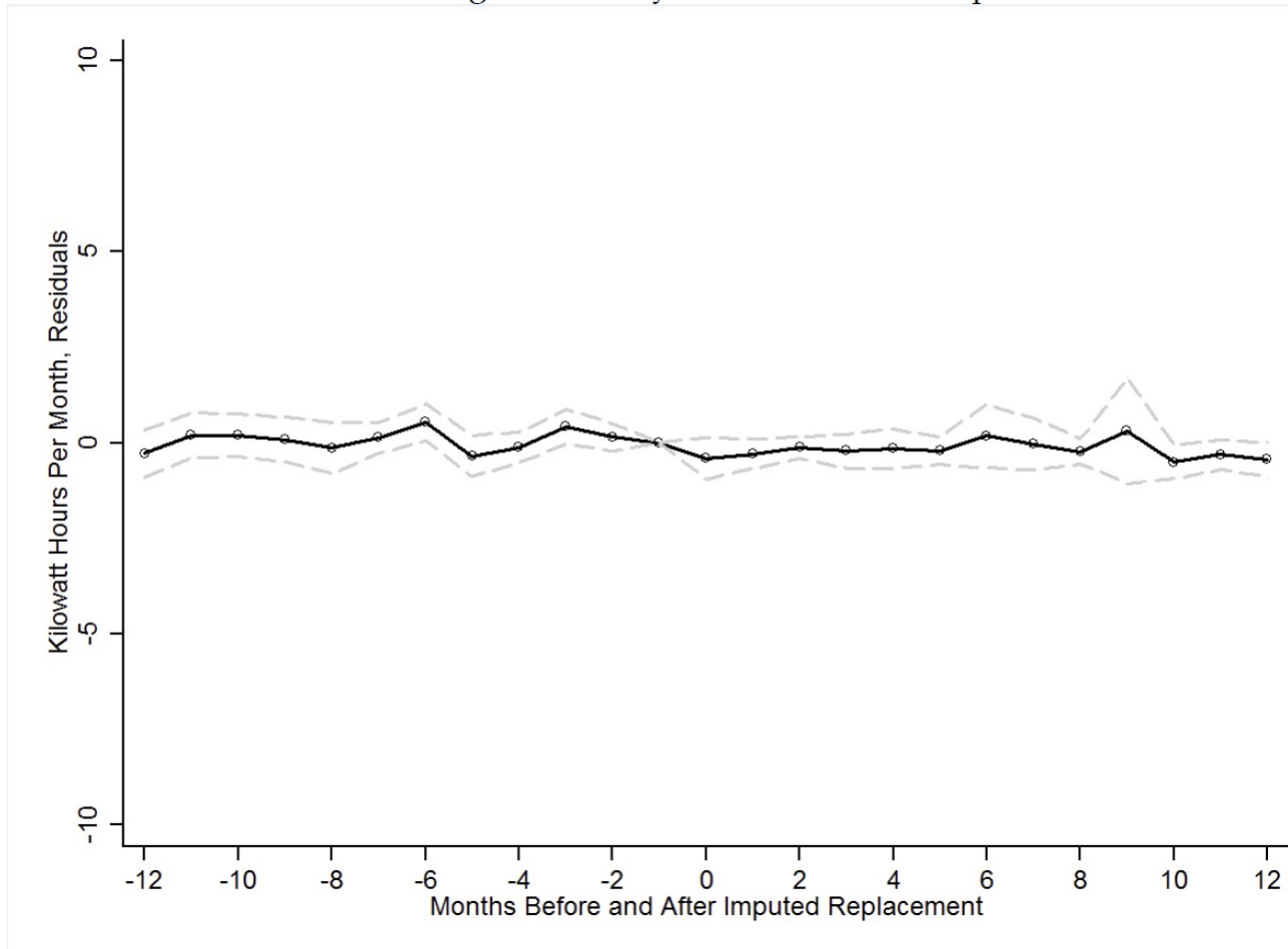
C4C impacts

FIGURE 2
The Effect of Refrigerator Replacement on Household Electricity Consumption



C4C impacts

FIGURE 3
Assessing the Validity of the Control Group



C4C and rebound

TABLE 2
The Effect of Appliance Replacement on Household Electricity Consumption

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) |
|---|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| 1[New Refrigerator] _{it} | -11.2** (0.5) | -11.0** (0.4) | -11.0** (0.4) | -11.5** (0.4) | -11.5** (0.5) | -11.4** (0.5) |
| 1[New Air Conditioner] _{it} | 8.5* (3.6) | 6.6** (2.2) | -0.2 (0.8) | -0.7 (0.8) | 1.2 (0.8) | 1.2 (0.9) |
| 1[New Air Conditioner] _{it} × 1[Summer Months] _{it} | | | 16.5** (4.2) | 16.6** (4.2) | 12.6** (3.9) | 14.5** (4.1) |
| Household By Calendar Month Fixed Effects | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Month-of-Sample Fixed Effects | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Month-of-Sample By County Fixed Effects | No | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Including Linear Time Trend for Participants | No | No | No | Yes | No | No |
| Including Treatment Households Only | No | No | No | No | Yes | Yes |
| Dropping Month of Replacement | No | No | No | No | No | Yes |
| Number of Households | 1,914,160 | 1,914,160 | 1,914,160 | 1,914,160 | 957,080 | 957,080 |

C4C and rebound – Potential causes

1. The new appliances tended to be larger and have more features.
 - These features are valued by households, but use more electricity
 - For example, through-the-door ice adds 80 kWh per year
2. The old appliances tended to be close to the minimum age threshold.
 - Refrigerators average age 13.2 years
 - Air-conditioner average age 10.9 years
3. Households likely increased utilization of air-conditioners.
 - Valued by households, but increased electricity consumption.
 - This may have been amplified by the increasing block rates
4. Some of the old appliances were probably not working.

C4C cost effectiveness

TABLE 4
Electricity Consumption, Carbon Dioxide Emissions, and Cost-Effectiveness

| | Refrigerators (1) | Air Conditioners (2) | Both Appliances Combined (3) |
|---|----------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------------|
| C. Cost-Effectiveness | | | |
| Total Direct Program Cost (U.S. 2010 dollars, millions) | \$129.9 | \$13.3 | \$143.2 |
| Program Cost Per Kilowatt Hour (U.S. 2010 dollars) | \$0.25 | -- | \$0.30 |
| Program Cost Per Ton of Carbon Dioxide (U.S. 2010 dollars) | \$427 | -- | \$506 |

Machine learning and policy evaluation

- Several papers now highlight the usefulness of machine learning in the context of panel regressions (e.g., see work by Athey).
- Electricity consumption data at high frequency lends itself very well to the use of ML.
- See Christensen, P., Francisco, P., Myers, E., & Souza, M. (2021) for another example of this.
- *Can it really help? How?*

Burlig Knittel Rapson Reguant Wolfram (2020)

Slides

Demand response

- Demand response programs are intended to **increase the elasticity of demand**.
 - Reduce or shift in periods of congestion
- This response should help balance supply and demand.
 - “Demand follows supply” vs.
 - “Supply follows demand”
- It can be achieved with incentives (pecuniary or not) or via smart devices and artificial intelligence.

Electricity Demand – how responsive?

- As we explained, demand for electricity tends to be highly inelastic.
- Many consumers are unaware of their costs of electricity, especially their *marginal* cost of electricity.
- Even for businesses and industrial producers, electricity might be a small share of total inputs.
 - With some important exceptions!
 - And increasingly more aware of the opportunities.

Electricity Demand – how responsive?

- Estimates of residential demand electricity typically in the range of -0.3 to -0.1.
- Even long-run estimates appear to be in inelastic range, -0.8 to -0.4.
- Elasticities might be difficult to interpret, as most consumers do not face the mg. cost of electricity.
- Some studies examine how they respond to their average price of electricity, and it is still limited.

Energy efficiency vs demand response

- **Demand response:**
 - Getting consumers to change their behavior (when to consume and how much) as a response to a “signal”.
 - Smart appliances/thermostats crucial to enable demand response.
- Demand response might induce consumers to engage in direct energy efficiency as well!
 - *Example:* someone consumes a lot of electricity at peak times because of washing machine consumption.
 - If shifted to real-time prices, decide to shift demand, or decide to buy a more efficient appliance (or automatic).

Electricity metering pre-XXI

- Electricity was (and still is in many places) metered only once a month, as water and gas.
- Difficult to imagine how consumers should respond to prices, if we do not even know how much they consume!
- Some utilities experimented with time-varying prices of electricity.
 - However, it had to be based on “representative” load curve for the neighborhood or for that kind of consumer

Smart meters

- Nowadays, there is a substantial push and rollout of smart meters.
- These meters enable collection of real-time electricity consumption data (typically every 15 minutes).
- The “economics” of smart meters
 - In some areas, they pay for themselves due to the savings in metering “by-hand”
 - Biggest trade-off is when to adopt, as technologies are getting better

Smart meters and their popularity

- Smart meters have received some criticisms:
 - Confidentiality issues, data storage
 - Consumers will face erratic prices
 - Note that one could always offer a flat-rate contract for a premium
 - Competition concerns, obfuscation
 - Health concerns (?)
- Efforts are put in place to preserve the data collected in a safe manner.
- Overall, it seems that the benefits could outweigh the costs.

“Smart” pricing

- Smart meters unable a more tailored approach to electricity pricing.
- Different pricing formulas:
 - Flat tariff (most common, traditional)
 - Time-of-use pricing
 - Critical peak pricing
 - Real-time pricing
 - Non-price interventions (not necessarily smart)

TOU pricing

- This type of pricing model is similar to time-based telephone or internet plans.
- Depending on the hour of the day, the day of the week or the season, there is a schedule of pre-arranged prices.
- These prices tend to be fixed by hour, so the prices are far from being in “real-time”.
- Yet, it can get consumers to engage in time-shifting behavior.
 - E.g., put washing machine at night

Critical peak pricing

- This type of intervention is implemented to get consumers to respond during extreme events.
 - Typically, extremely hot days in which air conditioning brings up electricity consumptions to very high levels
- Consumers agree to get really high prices on at most 10 critical peak events per summer.
- In compensation, they get a discount.
- Limitations: gets larger responses in critical days, but it only harvests responses in few events.

Real-time pricing

- In its most extreme form, consumers pay the wholesale price of electricity (plus the additional surcharges for distribution, taxes).
- Consumers fully internalize the conditions in the market (at least in theory).
- It implies that they can be made aware of:
 - Demand conditions
 - Renewable and other supply availability
 - Carbon/NO_x/SO₂ costs if pollution prices in the market

Behavioral interventions

- Real-time pricing or time-of-use not always available, and often limited consumer engagement.
- Behavioral interventions attempt to engage residential consumers in a non-price manner.
 - Convince them that their effort is important to the system (e.g., post-Fukushima in Japan)
 - Show them how other neighbors are doing
 - Create competitions (e.g., in dorms where students don't see their electricity bill at the individual level)

Implications of real-time pricing

- Real-time pricing has short run effects:
 - Shifts demand from high price times
- In the long run, it also has implications for the generation mix.
 - The long run implications between TOU and real-time can be quite different (Borenstein, 2005)
- In the peak-load pricing model:
 - Avoid investments for extreme outcomes.
 - Reduces need for batteries in transition.

Demand response effectiveness

- A big challenge emerges.
- One criticism of real-time pricing initiatives is that consumers are not attentive enough to their electricity costs.
- Even if consumers face real-time prices, they might not have the willingness to respond, or they might not even be at home.

So... do consumers respond? And how much?

Real-time pricing and experiments

- There is a large literature of experiments examining the effects of real-time pricing.
- Studies are performed in conjunction with the utilities, who have an interest in understanding the implications of these policies.
- Typical design:
 - Identify a target population
 - Encourage switching to real-time to treatment group
 - Compare encouraged group to the rest

Difficulties with experiments

- Encouragement of real-time pricing can have limited adoption in a baseline population.
- Alternative design:
 - Identify a target population that wants to adopt real-time pricing
 - Randomize who actually gets real-time pricing
 - Compare treatment group to control
- Limited external validity: *How applicable is it for people who do not want real-time pricing?*

Two examples

- Jessoie and Rapson (2015)
 - Look at the importance of information provision to achieve demand response
- Allcott and (2014)
 - Look at the importance of social comparisons to achieve demand response
 - Examine long-run persistence of the effects

Jessoe and Rapson (2015)

- What does the paper do?
 - Estimate demand responses when consumers see simple information
 - Based on a randomized control trial under different informational treatments
- What does the paper find?
 - Informed households are three standard deviations more responsive to temporary price increases
 - Conservation extends beyond pricing events

Research Design

- RCT with utility in Connecticut during July and August of 2011 (peak electricity demand).
- Encouragement across all costumers, intervention focused on those who decide to participate.
- Treatments:
 - Control. 207 households.
 - Price only. 130 households. Notification day prior to high price event (\$0.50) and thirty minutes prior (\$1.25).
 - Price + IHD. 100 households. Same as price plus real-time information about electricity use and price.

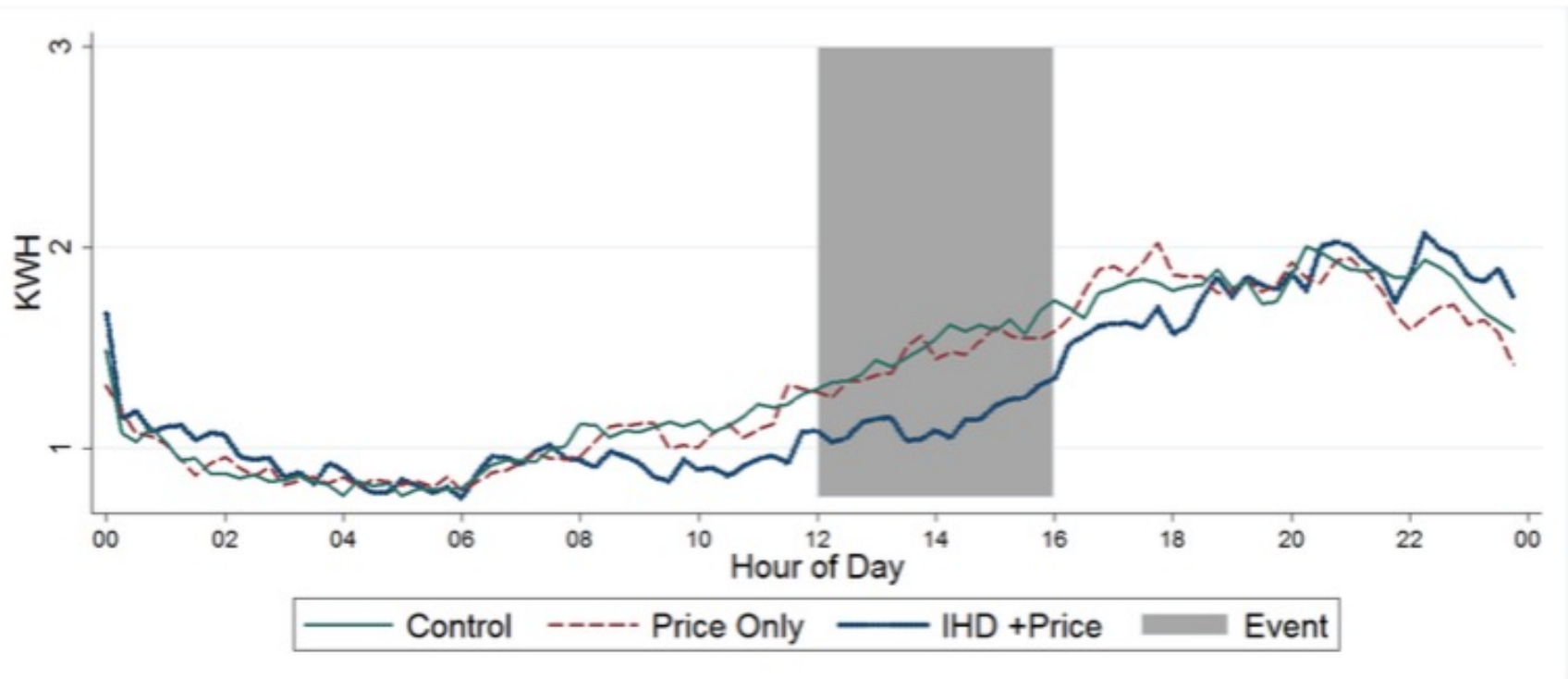
Main Results

TABLE 5—TREATMENT EFFECTS (*Unbalanced Panel*)

| Event type: | All (1) | All (2) | All (3) | All (4) | Day ahead (DA) (5) | 30min (TM) (6) |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|----------------------|
| <i>Panel A. ITT unbalanced panel</i> | | | | | | |
| Price-only | −0.031 (0.036) | −0.054 (0.036) | −0.027 (0.036) | −0.038 (0.036) | −0.071* (0.042) | 0.006 (0.044) |
| Price + IHD | −0.116** (0.048) | −0.137*** (0.048) | −0.123*** (0.047) | −0.137*** (0.046) | −0.171*** (0.051) | −0.084 (0.057) |
| Prob($P = P + I$) | 0.096* | 0.098* | 0.051* | 0.044** | 0.066* | 0.130 |
| R^2 | 0.001 | 0.054 | 0.536 | 0.583 | 0.583 | 0.583 |
| <i>Panel B. ToT unbalanced panel</i> | | | | | | |
| Price-only | −0.032 (0.037) | −0.056 (0.037) | −0.028 (0.037) | −0.040 (0.037) | −0.074* (0.044) | 0.007 (0.046) |
| Price + IHD | −0.143** (0.058) | −0.170*** (0.058) | −0.153*** (0.057) | −0.170*** (0.057) | −0.217*** (0.064) | −0.100 (0.067) |
| Prob($P = P + I$) | 0.061* | 0.052* | 0.030** | 0.023** | 0.025** | 0.115 |
| R^2 | 0.001 | 0.054 | 0.536 | 0.583 | 0.583 | 0.583 |
| HH FEs | No | No | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Hour-by-day FEs | No | Yes | No | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Number of events | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 3 | 3 |
| Number of HHs | 437 | 437 | 437 | 437 | 437 | 401 |

Main Results

Figure 6: August 26, 2011: 4hr \$0.50 increase, day-ahead notice



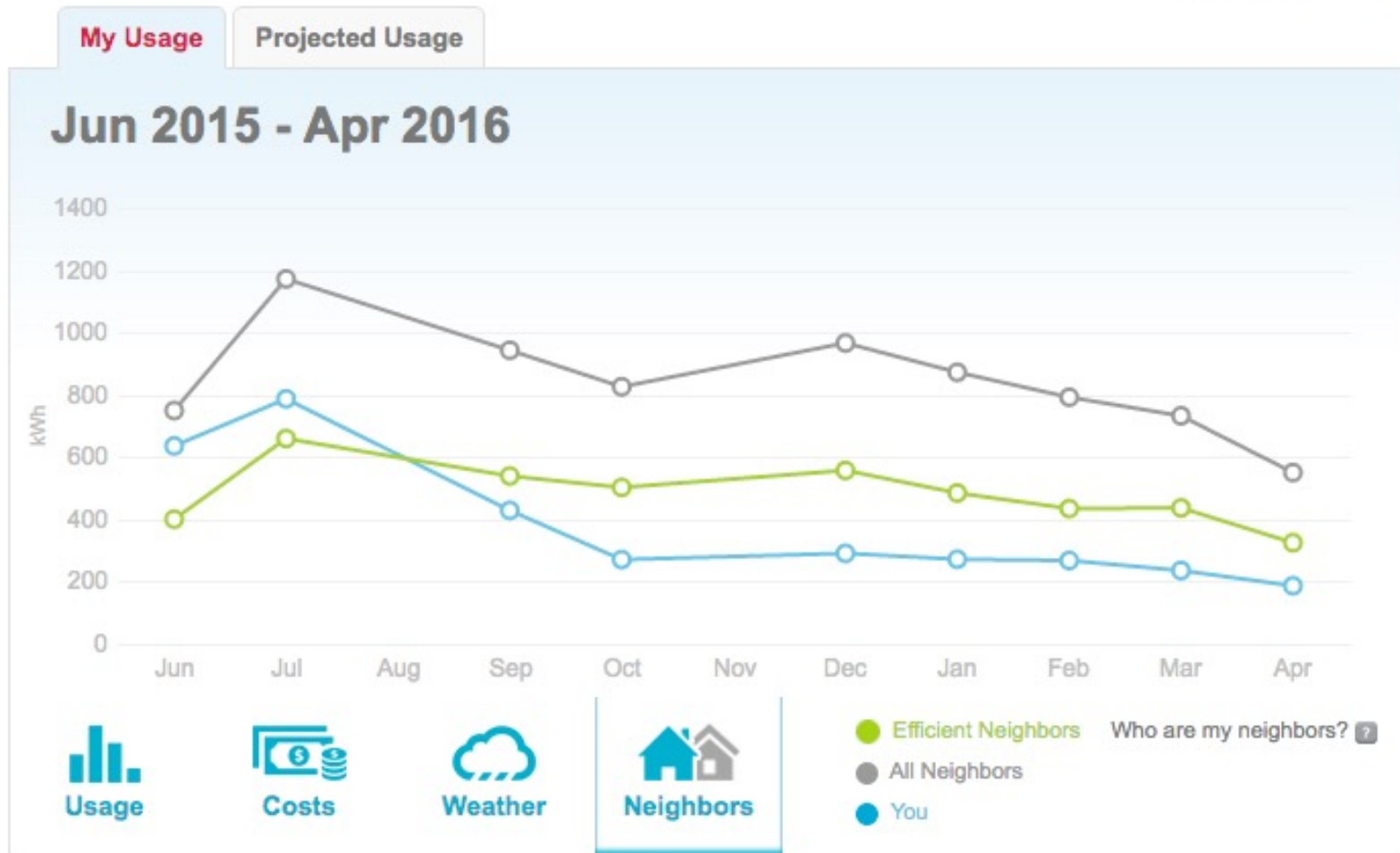
Additional Results

- Effect of price and price + IHD most pronounced if consumers confirmed receipt.
- Otherwise, insignificant although still negative for IHD.
- Learning and experience seem to play a role, habit formation implies savings in other hours.
- Consumers who experience more with IHD appear to be most responsive.
 - Potential for unobserved heterogeneity

Allcott and Rogers (2014)

- What does the paper do?
 - Look at responses of consumers to a behavioral intervention (comparison to neighbors)
 - Look at three different climatic areas
 - Analyze data over an extended period of time
- What does the paper find?
 - Initial effects are large given limited intervention
 - “Action and backsliding”, but persistent effects
 - Consumers respond even after two years

Smart meters and social comparisons

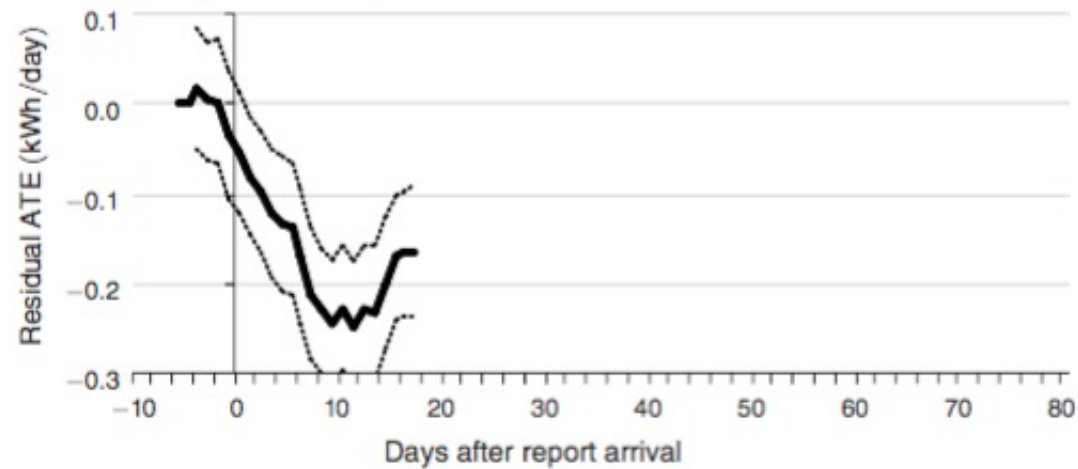


Research design

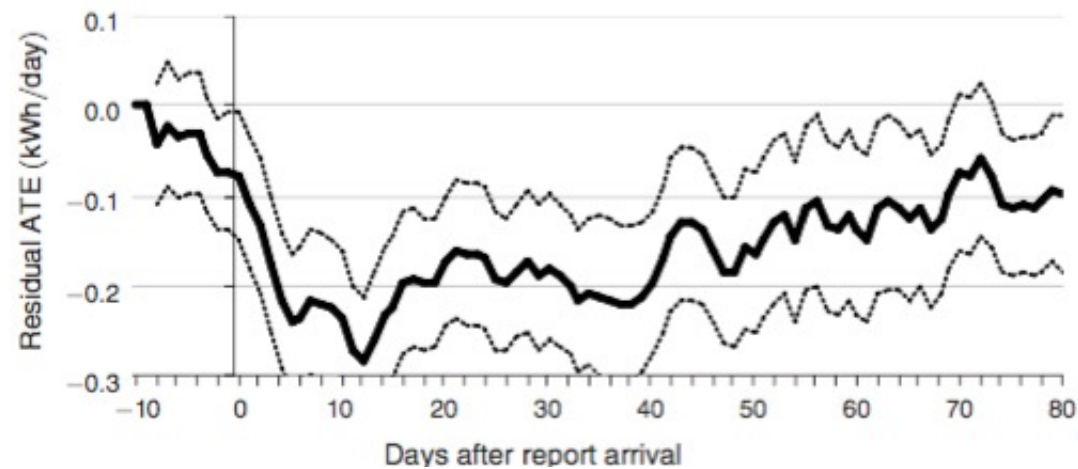
| Site: | (1) | (2) | (3) |
|---|--|---|--|
| <i>Region</i> | Upper midwest | Northwest | Southwest |
| Average January heating degrees | 46.9 | 25.4 | 19.3 |
| Average July cooling degrees | 5.6 | 2.2 | 8.9 |
| <i>Narrative</i> | | | |
| Baseline period begins | October 2007 | January 2007 | April 2006 |
| First reports generated | January and February 2009 | October 2008 | March to May 2008 |
| Last report generated for dropped group | January 2011 | September 2010 | June 2010 |
| End of sample | April 2013 | March 2013 | March 2013 |
| <i>Frequency</i> | | | |
| | 60 percent monthly 40 percent quarterly (Randomly assigned) Continued group changed to Biannual in 2011 | 72 percent monthly 28 percent quarterly (Randomly assigned) | 71 percent monthly (heavier users) 29 percent quarterly (lighter users) |
| <i>Number of households</i> | | | |
| Treatment: Continued | 26,262 | 23,399 | 21,630 |
| Treatment: Dropped | 12,368 | 11,543 | 12,117 |
| Control | 33,524 | 43,945 | 49,290 |
| Total | 72,154 | 78,887 | 83,037 |

Main results

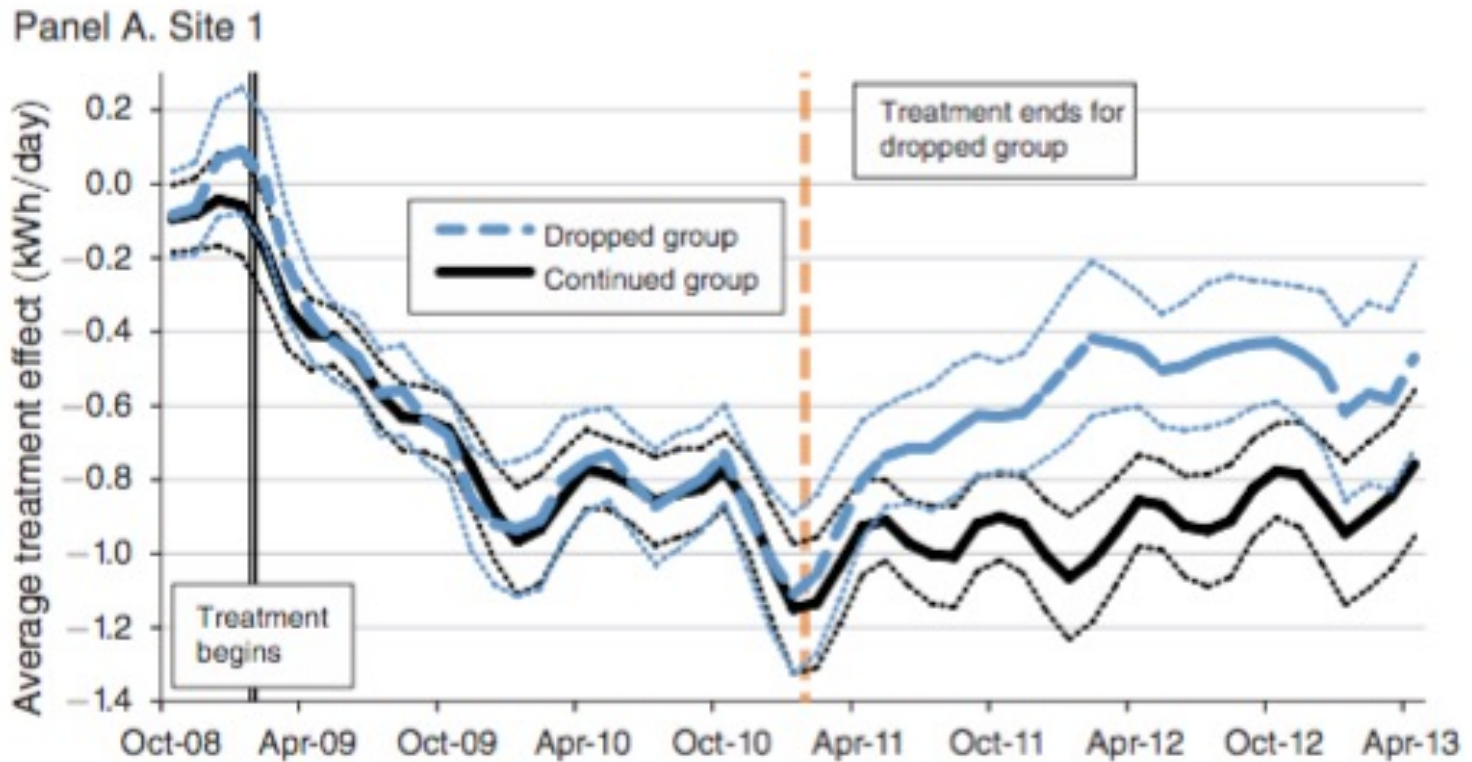
Panel A. Monthly: First four reports



Panel B. Quarterly: First four reports



Main results



Today's outline

1) Demand side policies evaluation

- Experiments
- ML

2) Case study: Real-time pricing in Spain

Fabra Rapson Reguant Wang (2021)

Slides

Next class

- Demand II.
 - What are the distributional impacts of the energy transition?
 - How can we get at the heterogeneous impacts of the transition?

References

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