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Department of Electronic and Electrical Engineering

Learning to Trade Power

by

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Abstract

In Electrical Power Engineering, learning algorithms can be used to model the strategies of electricity market participants. The objective of this work is to establish if *policy gradient* reinforcement learning methods can provide superior participant models than previously applied *value function based* methods.

Supply of electricity involves technology, money, people, natural resources and the environment. All of these aspects are changing and electricity market designs must be suitably researched to ensure that they are fit for purpose. In this thesis electricity markets are modelled as non-linear constrained optimisation problems that are solved with a primal-dual interior point method. Policy gradient reinforcement learning algorithms are used to adjust the parameters of multi-layer feed-forward neural networks that approximate each market participant's policy for selecting power quantities and prices that are offered in a simulated marketplace.

Traditional reinforcement learning methods that learn a value function have been previously applied in simulated electricity trade, but are largely restricted to discrete representations of a market environment. Policy gradient methods have been proven to offer convergence guarantees in continuous environments, such as in robotic control applications, and avoid many of the problems that mar value function based methods.

Contents

Abstract	iv
List of Figures	viii
List of Tables	ix
1 Introduction	1
1.1 Research Motivation	1
1.2 Problem Statement	2
1.3 Research Contributions	3
1.4 Thesis Outline	4
2 Background	6
2.1 Electric Power Supply	6
2.2 Electricity Markets	8
2.2.1 The England and Wales Electricity Pool	10
2.2.2 British Electricity Transmission and Trading Arrangements	12
2.3 Electricity Market Simulation	13
2.3.1 Agent-Based Simulation	14
2.3.2 Optimal Power Flow	14
2.4 Reinforcement Learning	20
2.4.1 Value Function Methods	21
2.4.2 Policy Gradient Methods	24
2.4.3 Roth-Erev Method	26
2.5 Summary	28
3 Related Work	29
3.1 Custom Learning Methods	29
3.1.1 Market Power	29
3.1.2 Financial Transmission Rights	34
3.2 Simulations Applying Q-learning	34
3.2.1 Nash Equilibrium Convergence	34
3.2.2 Congestion Management Techniques	36
3.2.3 Gas-Electricity Market Integration	36
3.2.4 Electricity-Emissions Market Interactions	37
3.2.5 Tacit Collusion	38
3.3 Simulations Applying Roth-Erev	39

3.3.1	Market Power	39
3.3.2	Italian Wholesale Electricity Market	40
3.3.3	Vertically Related Firms and Crossholding	42
3.3.4	Two-Settlement Markets	43
3.4	Policy Gradient Reinforcement Learning	45
3.4.1	Financial Decision Making	45
3.4.2	Grid Computing	46
3.5	Summary	47
4	Modelling Power Trade	49
4.1	Electricity Market Model	49
4.1.1	Optimal Power Flow	50
4.1.2	Unit De-commitment	51
4.2	Multi-Agent System	51
4.2.1	Market Environment	52
4.2.2	Agent Task	54
4.2.3	Participant Agent	55
4.2.4	Simulation Event Sequence	56
4.3	Summary	56
5	Nash Equilibrium Analysis	58
5.1	Introduction	58
5.2	Aims and Objectives	59
5.3	Method of Simulation	59
5.4	Simulation Results	61
5.5	Discussion and Critical Analysis	67
5.6	Summary	68
6	System Constraint Exploitation	69
6.1	Introduction	69
6.2	Aims and Objectives	69
6.3	Method of Simulation	70
6.4	Simulation Results	74
6.5	Discussion and Critical Analysis	74
6.6	Summary	74
7	Conclusions and Further Work	83
7.1	Further Work	83
7.1.1	Alternative Learning Algorithms	83
7.1.2	UK Transmission System	84
7.1.3	AC Optimal Power Flow	86
7.1.4	Multi-Market Simulation	86
7.2	Summary Conclusions	87
	Bibliography	88

A	Open Source Power Engineering Software	96
A.1	MATPOWER	96
A.2	MATDYN	99
A.3	Power System Analysis Toolbox	99
A.4	UWPFLOW	101
A.5	TEFTS	101
A.6	Distribution System Simulator	102
A.7	Agent-based Modelling of Electricity Systems	103
A.8	DCOPFJ	104
A.9	PYLON	104
B	Case Data	106
B.1	6-Bus Case	106
B.2	IEEE Reliability Test System	106

List of Figures

2.1	Basic structure of a three phase AC power system.	7
2.2	UK power station locations.	9
2.3	Pool bid structure.	11
2.4	Piecewise linear active power cost function with constrained cost variable minimisation illustrated.	11
2.5	Nominal- π transmission line model in series with a phase shifting transformer model.	16
2.6	Sequence diagram for the basic reinforcement learning model. . .	21
2.7	Multi-layer feed-forward perceptron with bias nodes.	25
3.1	Single-line diagram for a stylised Italian grid model.	41
5.1	Single-line diagram for six bus power system model.	60
5.2	Average markup for agent 1 and standard deviation over 10 runs.	63
5.3	Average markup for agent 2 and standard deviation over 10 runs.	64
5.4	Average markup for agent 1 and standard deviation.	65
5.5	Average reward for agent 1 and standard deviation.	66
6.1	Generator cost functions for the IEEE Reliability Test System . .	71
6.2	Hourly, daily and weekly load profile plots from the IEEE Relia- bility Test System	72
6.3	IEEE Reliability Test System	73
7.1	UK transmission system.	85
A.1	UKGDS EHV3 model in PSAT Simulink network editor.	100
B.1	Single-line diagram for six bus power system model.	107

List of Tables

4.1	Example discrete action domain.	53
5.1	Generator cost configuration 1 for 6-bus case.	60
5.2	Generator cost configuration 2 for 6-bus case.	60
5.3	Agent rewards under cost configuration 1	62
5.4	Agent rewards under cost configuration 2	62
6.1	Cost parameters IEEE RTS generator types.	70
6.2	Agent portfolios.	74
A.1	Open source electric power engineering software feature matrix. .	97
B.1	6-bus case bus data.	106
B.2	6-bus case generator data.	107
B.3	6-bus case branch data.	108
B.4	IEEE RTS bus data.	108
B.5	IEEE RTS generator data.	109
B.6	IEEE RTS branch data.	110
B.7	IEEE RTS generator cost data.	111

Chapter 4

Modelling Power Trade

This chapter defines the model that is later used in chapters 5 and 6 to simulate electric power trade and compare learning algorithms. The first section describes how optimal power flow solutions are used to clear offers and bids submitted to a simulated power exchange auction. The second section defines how market participants are modelled as agents that use the reinforcement learning algorithms to adjust their bidding behaviour. It explains the modular structure of a multi-agent system that coordinates interactions between the auction model and market participants.

4.1 Electricity Market Model

A power exchange auction market based on SmartMarket from Zimmerman (2010, p.92) is used in this thesis to compare reinforcement learning methods. In each trading period the auction accepts offers to sell blocks of power from participating agents¹. The clearing process begins by withholding offers above the price cap, along with those specifying non-positive quantities. Valid offers for each generator are sorted into non-decreasing order with respect to price and converted into corresponding generator capacities and piecewise linear cost functions (See Section 4.1.1 below). The newly configured units form an optimal power flow problem, the solution of which provides generator set-points and nodal marginal prices which are used to determine the proportion of each offer block that is cleared and the clearing price for each. The cleared offers determine each agent's revenue and therefore the profit which is used as a reward signal.

¹A double-sided auction, in which bids to buy blocks of power may be submitted by agents associated with dispatchable loads, is also implemented, but the feature is not used in this thesis.

A nodal marginal pricing scheme is used in which the price of each offer is cleared at the value of the Lagrangian multiplier on the power balance constraint for the bus at which the offer's generator is connected. Alternatively, a discriminatory pricing scheme may be used in which offers are cleared at the price at which they were submitted (pay-as-bid). The alternative auction types from MATPOWER that scale nodal marginal prices are not used.

4.1.1 Optimal Power Flow

Bespoke implementations of the optimal power flow formulations from MATPOWER are used in the auction clearing process (Zimmerman, 2010, §5). Both the DC and AC formulations are used!

The trade-offs between DC and AC models have been examined by Overbye, Cheng, and Sun (2004). DC models were found suitable for most nodal marginal price calculations and are considerably less computationally expensive. The AC optimal power flow formulation is used in this thesis to examine the exploitation of voltage constraints, that are not part of a DC formulation.

A class diagram in the Unified Modelling Language (UML) for the object-orientated power system model that is used to compute optimal power flow solutions is shown in Figure ???. Each branch is associated with two buses and forms an edge in the nodal power system representation.

As in MATPOWER (Zimmerman, 2010, p.26), generator active power, and optionally reactive power, output costs may be defined by convex n -segment piecewise linear cost functions

$$c^{(i)}(p) = m_i p + b_i \quad (4.1)$$

where p is the generator set-point for $p_i \leq p \leq p_{i+1}$ with $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, m_i is the variable cost for segment i in \$/MWh where $m_{i+1} \geq m_i$ and $p_{i+1} > p_i$, and b_i is the y -intercept in \$ for segment i . Offers submitted to the market are converted into a piecewise linear cost function for the associated generator. Since these cost functions are non-differentiable, the constrained cost variable approach from H. Wang, Murillo-Sanchez, Zimmerman, and Thomas (2007) is used to make the optimisation problem smooth. For each generator j a helper cost variable y_j is added to the vector of optimisation variables. Figure 2.4 illustrates how the additional inequality constraints

$$y_j \geq m_{j,i}(p - p_i) + c_i, \quad i = 1 \dots n \quad (4.2)$$

ensure that y_j lies on or above $c^{(i)}(p)$ (Zimmerman, 2010, Figure5-3). The objective function for the optimal power flow formulation used in the auction clearing process is the minimisation of the sum of cost variables for all generators:

$$\min_{\theta, V_m, P_g, Q_g, y} \sum_{j=1}^{n_g} y_j \quad (4.3)$$

The extensions to the optimal power flow formulations defined in MATPOWER for user-defined cost functions and generator P-Q capability curves are not used in this thesis.

4.1.2 Unit De-commitment

The optimal power flow formulations constrain generator set-points between upper and lower power limits. The output of expensive generators can be reduced to the lower limit, but they can not be completely shutdown. The online status of generators could be incorporated into the vector of optimisation variables, but being Boolean the problems would become mixed-integer non-linear programs which are typically very difficult to solve.

To compute a least cost commitment and dispatch the unit de-commitment algorithm from Zimmerman (2010, p.57) is used. Algorithm 1 shows how this involves shutting down the most expensive units until the minimum generation capacity is less than the total load capacity and then solving repeated optimal power flow problems with candidate generating units, that are at their minimum active power limit, deactivated. The lowest cost solution is returned when no further improvement can be made and no candidate generators remain.

4.2 Multi-Agent System

Market participants are modelled with software agents from PyBrain that use reinforcement learning algorithms to adjust their behaviour (Schaul et al., 2010). Their interaction with the market is coordinated in multi-agent experiments, the structure of which is derived from PyBrain’s single player design.

This section describes the discrete and continuous environments for agents, their tasks and the modules used for policy function approximation and storing state-action values. The process by which each agent’s policy is updated by a learning algorithm is explained and the sequence of interactions between multiple agents and the market is described and illustrated.

Algorithm 1 Unit de-commitment

```
1: while  $\sum P_g^{min} > \sum P_d$  do
2:   shutdown most expensive unit
3: end while
4:  $f \leftarrow$  initial total system cost
5: repeat
6:    $c \leftarrow$  generators at  $P_{min}$ 
7:   for  $g$  in  $c$  do
8:      $d \leftarrow$  true
9:     shutdown  $g$ 
10:     $f' \leftarrow$  new total system cost
11:    if  $f' < f$  then
12:       $f \leftarrow f'$ 
13:       $g_c \leftarrow g$ 
14:       $d \leftarrow$  false
15:    end if
16:    startup  $g$ 
17:  end for
18:  shutdown  $g_c$ 
19: until  $d = \text{true}$ 
```

4.2.1 Market Environment

In each experiment, agents are endowed with a portfolio of generators from the electric power system model (See Figure ??). As illustrated by the UML class diagram in Figure ??, the generators are contained within each agent's *environment*. The environment also holds an association to an instance of the auction market that allows the submission of offers/bids. Each environment is responsible for (i) returning a vector representation of its current state and (ii) accepting an action vector which transforms the environment into a new state. To facilitate testing of value function based and policy gradient learning methods, both discrete and continuous representations of an electric power trading environment are defined.

Discrete Environment

For agents operating learning methods that use look-up tables an environment with n_s discrete states and n_a discrete action possibilities is defined. The environment produces a state s , where $0 \leq s \leq n_s$ and $s \in \mathbb{Z}$, at each simulation step and accepts an action a , where $0 \leq a \leq n_a$ and $a \in \mathbb{R}$.

To keep the size of the state space reasonable, the state is derived only from the total system demand $d = \sum P_d$. Each simulation episode of n_t steps has a

a_i	m_1	m_2
1	0	0
2	0	10
3	0	20
4	10	0
5	10	10
6	10	20
7	20	0
8	20	10
9	20	20

Table 4.1: Example discrete action domain.

demand profile vector u of length n_t , where $0 \leq u_i \leq 1$. The load at each bus in simulation period t is $P_{dt} = u_t P_{d0}$, where P_{d0} is the initial demand vector. The size of each state is

$$d_s = \frac{d(\max u - \min u)}{n_s} \quad (4.4)$$

and the state space vector is $S = d_s i$ for $i = 1 \dots n_s$. At simulation step t , the state returned by the environment $s_t = i$ if $S_i \leq P_{dt} \leq S_{i+1}$ for $i = 0 \dots n_s$.

The action space for a discrete environment is defined by a vector m , where $0 \leq m_i \leq 100$, of percentage markups on marginal cost with length n_m , a vector w , where $0 \leq w_i \leq 100$, of percentage withholds of capacity with length n_w and the number of offer n_o , where $n_o \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, to be submitted for each generator associated with the environment. A $n_a \times 2n_g n_o$ matrix is formed that contains all permutations of markup and withhold for each offer that is to be submitted for each generator. For example, Table 4.1 shows all possible actions when markups are restricted to 0, 10% or 30% and 0% of capacity may be withheld. Each row corresponds to an action and the column values specify the percentage of capacity to be withheld and the percentage price markup for each of the $n_o n_g$ offers. The size of the permutation matrix grows rapidly as n_o , n_g , n_m and n_w increase.

Continuous Environment

A continuous market environment that outputs a state vector s , where $s_i \in R$, and accepts an action vector a , where $a \in R$, is defined for agents operating policy gradient methods. Scalar variables m_{max} and W_{max} define the maximum allowable percentage markup on marginal cost and the maximum allowable percentage capacity withhold, respectively. Again, n_o defines the number of offers to be submitted for each generator associated with the environment.

The state vector may consist of any data from the power system or market model e.g. bus voltage, branch power flows, generator limit Lagrangian multipliers etc. Each element of the vector provides one input to the neural network used for policy function approximation.

The action vector a has length $2n_g n_o$. Element a_i , where $0 \leq a_i \leq m_{max}$, corresponds to the price markup and a_{i+1} , where $0 \leq a_{i+1} \leq w_{max}$, to the withhold of capacity for the $(i/2)^{th}$ offer, where $i = 0, 2, 4, \dots, 2n_g n_o$.

Not having to discretize the state space and compute a matrix of action permutations greatly simplifies the implementation of a continuous environment and increases in n_g and n_o only impact upon the number of output nodes required for the policy function approximator.

4.2.2 Agent Task

To allow alternative goals, such a profit maximisation or the meeting some target level for plant utilisation, to be associated with a single type of environment, an agent does not interact directly with its environment, but is paired with a particular *task*. A task defines the reward returned to the agent and thus defines the agent's purpose. For all experiments in this thesis the goal of each agent is to maximise financial profit and the rewards are thus defined as the sum of earnings from the previous period t as determined by the revenue from the market and any incurred costs. As explained in Section 3.4.1, utilising some measure of risk adjusted return might be of interest in the context of simulated electricity trade and this would simply involve the definition of a new task without any need for modification of the environment.

Sensor data from the environment is filtered according to the task being performed. Agents with value-function learning methods use a table to store state-action values, with one row per environment state. Thus, observations consist of a single value s_v , where $s_v \leq n_s$ and $s_v \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

Agents with policy-gradient learning methods approximate their policy functions using artificial neural networks that are presented with input vector w of length n_s where $w_i \in \mathbb{R}$. To condition the environment state before input to the connectionist system, where possible, each sensor i in the state vector s is associated with a minimum value $s_{i,min}$ and a maximum value $s_{i,max}$. The state vector is normalised to:

$$w = 2 \left(\frac{s - s_{min}}{s_{max} - s_{min}} \right) - 1 \quad (4.5)$$

such that $-1 \leq w_i \leq 1$.

The output from the policy function approximator, y , is denormalized using minimum and maximum action limits, a_{min} and a_{max} respectively, giving an action vector

$$a = \left(\frac{y + 1}{2} \right) (a_{max} - a_{min}) + a_{min} \quad (4.6)$$

with valid values for price, and optionally quantity.

4.2.3 Participant Agent

Each agent i is defined as an entity capable of producing an action a_i based on previous observations of its environment s_i , where a_i and s_i are vectors of length n_a and n_s respectively, where n_s is the total number of states and n_a is the total number of actions. In PyBrain each agent is associated with a *module*, a *learner*, a *dataset* and an *explorer*. The UML class diagram in Figure ?? illustrates the associations.

The module is used to determine the agent's policy for action selection and returns an action vector a_m when activated with observation s_t . When using value function based methods the module is a $n_s \times n_a$ table:

$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{cccc} & a_0 & a_1 & \dots & a_n \\ \begin{array}{c} s_0 \\ s_1 \\ \vdots \\ s_n \end{array} & \begin{bmatrix} v_{1,1} & v_{1,2} & \dots & v_{1,m} \\ v_{2,1} & \ddots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ v_{n,1} & \dots & \dots & v_{n,m} \end{bmatrix} \end{array} \end{array} \quad (4.7)$$

When using a policy gradient method, the module is a multi-layer feed-forward artificial neural network.

The learner can be any reinforcement learning algorithm that modifies the values/parameters of the module to increase expected future reward. The dataset stores state-action-reward triples for each interaction between the agent and its environment. The stored history is used by value-function learners when computing updates to the table values. Policy gradient learners search directly in the space of the policy network parameters.

Each learner has an association with an explorer that returns an explorative action a_e when activated with the current state s_t and action a_m from the module.

4.2.4 Simulation Event Sequence

Each experiment consists one or more agent-task pairs. At the beginning of each simulation step (trading period) the market is initialised and all existing offers/bids are removed. From each task-agent tuple an observation s_t is retrieved from the task and integrated into the agent. When an action is requested from the agent its module is activated with s_t and the action a_e is returned. Action a_e is performed on the environment associated with the agent's task. Figure ?? provides a UML sequence diagram that illustrates the process of performing an action and Figure ?? shows the class associations for an experiment.

When all actions have been performed the offers/bids are cleared by the market using the solution of an optimal power flow problem. Each task returns a reward r_t . The cleared offers/bids associated with the generators in the task's environment are retrieved from the market and r_t is computed from the difference between revenue and cost values. The reward r_t is given to the associated agent and the value is stored, along with the previous state s_t and selected action a_e , under a new sample in the dataset. The reward process is illustrated by the UML sequence diagram in Figure ??.

Each agent learns from its actions using r_t , at which point the values/parameters of the module associated with the agent is updated according to the output of the learner's algorithm. Each agent is then reset and the history of states, actions and rewards is cleared. The learning process is illustrated by the UML sequence diagram in Figure ??.

All of this constitutes one step of the simulation and the process is repeated until a set number of steps are complete.

4.3 Summary

The power exchange auction market model defined in this chapter provides a layer of abstraction over the underlying optimal power flow problem and presents agents with a simple interface for selling and buying power. The modular nature of the simulation framework described allows the type of learning algorithm, policy function approximator, exploration technique or the task to be easily changed. The framework can simulate competitive electric power trade using any conventional bus-branch power system model, requiring little configuration, but provides the facility to adjust all of the simulation's main aspects. The modular framework and its support for easy configuration is intended to allow transparent comparison of learning methods in the domain of electricity trade under a number of

different scenarios.

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