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I. F. Abdin and E. Zio

Abstract Electric power systems provide an essential service to any modern 4 society. They are inherently large- scale dynamic systems with a high degree of 5 spatio-temporal complexity. Their reliability and security of supply are central 6 considerations in any regional or global energy-related policy. Methods for power 7 systems planning have typically ensured key operational reliability aspects under 8 normal operating conditions and in response to anticipated demand variability, 9 uncertainty and supply disruptions, e.g. due to errors in load forecasts and to 10 unexpected generation units outages. Solutions have been commonly built on 11 capacity adequacy and operating reserves requirements, among others. However, 12 recent objectives for environmental sustainability and the threats of climate change 13 are challenging the reliability requirements of power systems in various new ways 14 and necessitate adapted planning methods.

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The present chapter describes some of the issues related to the development of 16 the integrated techno-economic modeling and robust optimization framework that 17 is needed today for power systems planning adapted. Such planning framework 18 should cope with the new context by addressing the challenges associated with 19 the sustainability targets of future power systems, and most notably ensuring 20 operational flexibility against the variability of renewable energy sources, ensuring 21 resilience against extreme weather events and ensuring robustness against the 22 uncertainties inherent in both the electric power supply and system load. 23

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This chapter presents the context by summarizing the main sustainability drivers ²⁴ for the current (and future) power systems planning and operation. These well-²⁵ known sustainability targets have become a worldwide imperative in all sectors ²⁶ of economic activity, and are embedded within almost any regulatory or policy ²⁷ dialogue. We will, then, review the particular transformation undergoing in the ²⁸ electric power sector planning, not only driven by the sustainability goals, but also ²⁹ by the more general technological and/or regulatory advancements. The main power ³⁰ systems planning related challenges are detailed, along with a thorough review ³¹ of previous research works and research gaps. Then, key research questions and ³² ensuing objectives are formulated. ³³

1 Sustainability of Future Electric Power Systems

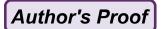
The electric power industry is at the same time a major contributor to climate change ³⁵ and a sector that will be deeply disturbed by the effects of climate change. The role ³⁶ of the power sector towards climate change stems from the fact that it is the largest ³⁷ contributor to global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. From 2000 to 2010, the ³⁸ increase in the power sector emissions outpaced the increase in overall emissions ³⁹ by around 1% per year [1]. In 2018, global energy-related CO₂ emissions rose 1.7% ⁴⁰ to a historic high of 33.1 Gt CO₂. The power sector accounted for nearly twothirds of this emissions growth [2]. To reduce emissions to levels equivalent with ⁴² the internationally agreed goal of keeping the temperature increase below 2 °C of ⁴³ that of pre-industrial levels, the share of low-carbon electricity generation will need ⁴⁴ to triple or quadruple by 2050 [2].

At the same time, it is expected that over the coming decades the power sector ⁴⁶ will be significantly disturbed by climate change impacts. For example, power ⁴⁷ plants, especially those in coastal areas, will be affected by extreme weather events ⁴⁸ and rising sea levels. Electricity grids will be impacted by storms, and the rise in ⁴⁹ global temperature may affect electricity generation including thermal and hydro-⁵⁰ electric stations in many locations. And while the industry may have options for ⁵¹ adapting to climatic changes, significant costs are likely to be incurred [3]. Several ⁵² actions are, therefore, urgently needed if the reliability and sustainability targets for ⁵³ the power sector are to be achieved. ⁵⁴

1.1 Greenhouse Gas Emissions

Controlling GHG emissions ultimately requires "de-carbonizing" the power sector, ⁵⁶ both by reducing the high demand for energy and by supplying power that generates ⁵⁷ much less GHG. A clear path for de-carbonizing power production is through what ⁵⁸ the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) describes as a fundamental ⁵⁹ shift in global investment from fossil fuel to renewable energy [1]. Renewable ₆₀

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energy sources have significant potential for reducing GHG emissions and are 61 becoming mainstream investment choices as they are becoming more competitive. 62 In 2012, they accounted for just over half of the new electricity-generating capacity 63 investments globally, while electricity generation from renewable sources increased 64 by over 7% in 2018 alone [2]. Yet only a small fraction of renewable potential 65 has been exploited so far; estimates suggest that in different regions of the world, 66 renewable energy sources can produce more than 2.6 times the energy demand [1]. 67 Another path for supporting the reduction of GHG is placing more stringent limits 68 on carbon emissions for existing or new thermal plants. A clear example is the use 69 of carbon capture and storage (CCS) technology already imposed in many regions. 70

1.2 Climate Change

Ensuring the resilience of the power system against the adverse effects of climate 72 change is another key element for ensuring the sustainability and reliability of 73 power supply. The past decade has seen a rising frequency in weather-related natural 74 disasters. Damage and loss associated with these extreme events resulted in millions 75 of victims and billions of dollars in losses. There are various ways in which climate 76 change affects the power sector [4]: 77

- Extreme weather events such as storms, floods and extreme temperatures can 78 impact the power production and delivery, causing supply disruptions and 79 infrastructure damage.
- The reduction in water availability can constrain hydropower as well as the ⁸¹ operation of the thermal power plants (fossil fuel and nuclear), which require ⁸² water for cooling. ⁸³
- Unusual seasonal temperatures can impact the electricity demand patterns due ⁸⁴ to the increased need for cooling during summer heat waves, or the increased ⁸⁵ demand for heating in excessively cold winters.

Although thermal power plants are designed to operate under diverse climatic ⁸⁷ conditions, they will be particularly affected by the decreasing efficiency of thermal ⁸⁸ conversion as a result of rising ambient temperatures. In addition, in many regions, ⁸⁹ decreasing volumes of water available for cooling and increasing water temperatures ⁹⁰ could lead to reduced power operations, operations at reduced capacity or even ⁹¹ temporary shutdowns [5]. The rising temperatures also create challenges for meeting ⁹² river temperature regulations. For example, in 2009, the French power system at one ⁹³ time lost one third of its nuclear capacity, to respect thermal discharge limits [4]. ⁹⁴

Within this context, it is clear that current power system planning efforts must be 95 able to account for these future challenges or, otherwise, they run the risk of leading 96 to inadequate and unreliable investments. 97

Author's Proof

Power system planning is an important techno-economic problem, which has 99 been addressed extensively both by the sector stakeholders and by academics. 100 Research on power system planning is carried out by governments and power system 101 operators for future system-wide expansion, and for deciding on optimal policies 102 and regulations. It is also carried out within privately owned power utilities in 103 countries which have liberalized the energy sector, to plan for future investments. 104

Electric power systems planning can be divided into two main problems: 105 generation expansion planning (GEP) and network expansion planning (NEP). Both 106 are typically formulated as optimization problems, seeking to determine the optimal 107 technology mix, location and construction time of new generation units, as well as 108 the optimal size and location of the power lines. Albeit being highly intertwined, 109 the complexity and scale of each problem has led research work to often focus on 110 addressing each of them separately [6].

The present work focuses on the modeling of the GEP problem and the 112 optimization of its solution, as it is considered most critically affected by the future 113 context, both from the economic (costs) and technical (service provision) aspects. 114 In literature, GEP modeling in a centralized planning context can be traced back to 115 the seminal paper [7]. With the power sector being constantly subjected to changes 116 driven by economical, technical, technological and environmental issues, the body 117 of GEP literature has persistently expanded to accommodate the new requirements, 118 through a variety of modeling and solution methods. Some of the developments 119 include: improvements in the details considered, such as reserve requirements 120 [8, 9], reliability and maintenance [8, 10–12], policy developments such as the 121 restructuring of the power sector and the introduction of competition [10, 13- 122 15], CO₂ mitigation solutions [16, 17], renewable energy resources integration and 123 support schemes [15, 18–21], uncertainty and stochasticity in generation production 124 and demand [10, 19, 22–25], demand side management (DSM) [26, 27], and smartgrids [28], among others. Reviews of the GEP problem can be found in [6, 29, 30], 126 and a comprehensive recent review in [31]. 127

In particular, as noted in the previous section, the need to combat climate through the decarbonization of the sector, as well as the advancements in the information and in both the electricity supply and demand of electricity). On the supply side: 131

- There is an increased shift from large synchronous generators to light-weight 132
 decentralized ones. 133
- There is an increased penetration of intermittent renewable energy sources 134 (IRES), for which the investments are getting cheaper and the remuneration 135 programs are becoming more attractive. 136
- There is an increased threat of power disruption due to extreme weather events. 137

On the demand side:

- There is a growing number of distributed variable generation resources, in the 139 form of electric vehicles, electric solar production roof-tops, micro-grids, energy 140 storage systems, among others.
- There is a usage shift of the demand from being passive (pure consumers) to 142 being active (both consumers and small-scale producers, i.e. "prosumers").

This transformation is driven by technological advancement (e.g. the developments in the communication and control systems, affordable investments in 145 renewable technologies), as well as by global energy policies with the aim of moving 146 towards decentralized power generation and bi-directional power flow. 147

These developments are posing a number of pressing challenges that need to 148 be adequately and methodologically addressed within the power system planning 149 framework. 150

3 Electric Power Systems Planning Challenges

Traditional GEP models, based on step-wise load duration curves or other nonchronological approximations, have for long been appropriate for power systems planning, especially in systems dominated by dispatchable hydro-thermal units and with the primary concern of generation adequacy (e.g. [40–42]). These models have the main advantage of being computationally cheap, and therefore large sized systems and long-term planning horizons up to several decades can be easily optimized. However, when it comes to planning for system flexibility under IRES 158

Study [43] considers a combined GEP-UC model for planning over a single 161 year, reduced to 4 weeks with chronological hourly representation, each week 162 representing a season. In [9] a detailed formulation of the combined GEP-UC 163 problem is provided and employed for the analysis of the Greek power system, 164 under several scenarios of carbon emission pricing, emission caps, and IRES penetration targets. A multi-annual planning horizon is considered, where the 166 year is approximated to 12 days, each one representing a month. The results 167 reveal the correlation between significant IRES penetration with large amounts 168 of natural gas production, which offers more flexibility to the power system. 169 Similarly, in [44] a combined model for multi-annual planning is proposed and 170 a clustering representation of the units in integer variables is presented. Several 171 planning horizons are considered, where annual demand is reduced to a number 172 of representative weeks selected in an ad-hoc manner. The comparison on the case 173 study shows that when short-term constraints are considered, higher investments are 174 driven to flexible peaking plants. In [45], a soft-linking between long-term and shortterm models is implemented. The framework is to solve a long-term low resolution 176 model to obtain a generation portfolio under a single IRES penetration scenario 177

penetration, recent studies have started to show the importance of integrating the 159

UC short-term constraints within the long-term planning model [9, 43–50].

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and to embed this portfolio in a short-term chronological model, which is solved 178 multiple times with increasing level of technical constraints. It considers a case 179 study for a single year and uses the number of units start-ups as a proxy for flexibility 180 evaluation. A very similar approach is implemented in [46], but also varying the 181 IRES penetration level. The impact of including several short-term constraints (most 182 notably: startups/shutdowns, minimum stable load, ramping rates and operating 183 reserves) is analyzed for a future planning year. Study [47] solves a planning model 184 based on a basic screening curve method and proposes a perturbation algorithm with 185 embedded short-term constraints to improve the plans obtained. A single future year 186 is considered under different IRES penetration scenarios. A brief comparison of 187 the results obtained pre- and post-implementation of the perturbation algorithm, in 188 terms of the installed capacity, is discussed. It shows that considering the short-term 189 constraints results in less installation of base load capacity compared to mid- and 190 peak-load ones. Finally, studies [48, 49] compare the results of a fully integrated 191 model to those of a traditional planning only model. The former work considers 192 only a single future planning year, whereas the latter considers a multi-annual 193 planning horizon of 10 years, where each year is approximated to 4 days in an 194 ad-hoc manner. The comparison is based on the costs and emission levels resulting 195 from both models, and shows that neglecting these constraints underestimates both 196 attributes. 197

3.1 Operational Flexibility

Properly quantifying operational flexibility is critical for evaluating the overall 199 system reliability. Whereas reliability relates to the fact that sufficient firm-capacity 200 is available at each time period to satisfy the system load, as measured by typical 201 metrics, such as loss of load expectation (LOLE) and expected energy not supplied 202 (EENS), operational flexibility considers how a specific operational state of the 203 system at a given period would contribute to (or hinder) its ability to deploy 204 its resources for accommodating variations in subsequent periods: for this, no 205 time period can be assessed in isolation of the others, nor without de- tailed 206 knowledge of the exact system state and technical characteristics at the given 207 period. Therefore, metrics to describe operational flexibility have been proposed 208 in the literature, varying in the degree of complexity and in the data required for 209 their estimation. The work in [51] proposes a probabilistic metric that takes into 210 account key technical characteristics of the generation units and aggregates them 211 for a system-level assessment. In [52], a number of interdependent metrics are 212 defined for individual generation units to assess their available flexibility in real 213 time. Study [53] proposes two flexibility indices to provide an offline estimation 214 of the flexibility level of power systems. The first metric is obtained by analyzing 215 adjustable space of generators, whereas the second assesses the flexibility level 216 of a system by its capability for accommodating wind. Finally, [54] proposes a 217 metric which additionally considers the impacts of the transmission network on the 218 flexibility levels. 219

3.1.1 Research Gap

As shown, most of the studies reviewed argue for the benefit of including the 221 short-term unit-commitment constraints within the long-term planning framework, 222 especially in terms of answering to the flexibility requirements under increased 223 IRES penetration, by analyzing the differences in capacity installation, production 224 profile, emission and curtailment levels, system costs, or a combination of these. 225 Those studies, however, do not resolve to using quantitative flexibility metrics to 226 formally assess and compare the benefits of their proposed approaches. On the 227 other hand, studies that have proposed quantitative flexibility metrics have often 228 considered existing systems for the application and do not integrate those methods 229 within the expansion planning problem itself. Furthermore, since the resulting 230 expansion problem with unit-commitment constraints is computationally intensive, 231 each study has resorted to a different combination of horizons reduction or ad-hoc 232 approximation, neglecting to address the bias that this can impose on the results.

3.2 Resilience

Increasingly frequent and extreme weather events, such as heat waves, droughts, ²³⁵ floods and storms, significantly affect the operational status of power systems. ²³⁶ Evidence of power generation disruptions due to such events highlights the fragility ²³⁷ of the existing systems and the need of considering resilience within the planning of ²³⁸ future power systems [55]. ²³⁹

Particularly, heat waves are among the most worrying weather extremes, due 240 to the expected increase in their frequency and severity in the twenty-first century 241 [56, 57]. For example, France was particularly impacted by the 2003 summer heat 242 wave, which caused an excess of about 15,000 deaths from 4th to 18th August 243 directly attributable to the heat [58]. By combining peaks of extreme temperature 244 and severe soil and hydrological droughts, this event also affected significantly the 245 energy production sector (mainly because of the cooling process of thermal power 246 plants). These last years, numerous regions of the world experienced severe heat 247 waves with comparable effects: Russia in 2010, Texas in 2011, Australia in 2012, 248 India and Southern Pakistan in 2015. Therefore, it is of great importance to design 249 the ability of the energy systems for coping with future heat wave events.

Among the research that studied the impacts of extreme weather events on 251 power systems, [59] presents a multi-objective optimization of distributed power 252 generation systems considering extreme wind and lightning events [60]. Proposes 253 a probabilistic methodology to assess the resilience degradation of transmission 254 networks subject to extreme wind events. In [61], an extreme weather stochastic 255 model is applied to a realistic cascading failure simulator of power grids, accounting 256 for the operating conditions that a repair crew may encounter during an extreme 257 weather event. The impacts of water availability on the generation capacity expan-258 sion planning is investigated in [62] and the electricity sector growth is compared 259

under different scenarios of water rights [63]. Proposes an integrated electricity 260 and natural gas planning model taking into consideration the power grid resilience 261 against storms, earthquakes and floods [64]. Studies the potential impacts of heat 262 waves on power grid operation, by quantifying the capacity of thermal power plants 263 as a function of ambient temperature. 264

3.2.1 Research Gap

Whereas most of those studies focus on evaluating the impact of extreme weather 266 threats on the operation of power systems, there exist very few studies that 267 incorporate resilience within the power system planning problem itself. Moreover, 268 no study explicitly considers flexibility and resilience within a unified planning and 269 assessment framework. 270

3.3 Uncertainties

Accounting for the inherent uncertainties in IRES supply and system load is 272 another significant concern for ensuring reliable system performance. Two popular 273 approaches have been often applied to address the uncertainties for the GEP and UC 274 problems, separately. One is stochastic optimization (SO) [22, 24, 65–67], which 275 models uncertain parameters by means of scenarios generated from probability 276 distribution functions. This method may be suit- able if the probability functions 277 are available, which is not always the case, and especially when considering long- 278 term uncertainties such as in a GEP problem. Moreover, SO does not guarantee the 279 feasibility of the solution for all possible uncertainty realizations, which is a sig- 280 nificant limitation in addressing the operational flexibility issue. The other popular 281 approach is robust optimization (RO) [68], which models uncertain parameters by 282 means of distribution-free bounded intervals. RO is attractive in that it avoids the 283 above-mentioned limitations of SO, but, it has been often criticized for resulting 284 in over-conservative solutions and for being computationally intensive. State-of- 285 the art RO methods deal with these problems by introducing an uncertainty budget 286 parameter to control the conservatism of the solution and by resorting to efficient 287 solution methods (such as Column and Constraint Generation (CCG) [69] or affine 288 simplification of the recourse action [70]) to accelerate the solution. 289

3.3.1 Research Gap

Some research works have focused on RO-based approaches to handle uncertainties ²⁹¹ and address operational flexibility in power systems planning and operation. In ²⁹² [71], a two- stage adaptive RO model is proposed for long term generation and ²⁹³ transmission expansion under generator output uncertainties but with no explicit ²⁹⁴

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consideration of the ramping requirements. Ramping was considered in [72] for 295 power system planning but only through an approximated hourly load ramping 296 uncertainty that is based on average net-load levels. Detailed ramping constraints 297 were considered in robust unit commitment models such as in [73–76], but 298 without considering the impact on power systems planning. Moreover, [75] has 299 demonstrated how the two-stage robust UC model can lead to infeasibility in the 300 dispatch problem when the generation ramping capability is limited. This showed 301 the importance of considering non-anticipativity constraints in power systems 302 operations within a multistage robust optimization. Yet, these results were not 303 extended to investigate their impact on the power systems investment decisions. 304

4 Conclusions

Planning power systems for providing secure and reliable electricity to users is key 306 in any energy strategy. This is being challenged by several recent developments, 307 most notably, the increased penetration of variable intermittent renewable energy 308 sources (IRES), which is raising concerns about the ability of future power 309 systems to effectively respond to the high net-load variations, a system property 310 which is referred to as operational flexibility. Moreover, climate change threats 311 and, particularly, the increased frequency and severity of extreme weather events, 312 are threatening to disrupt electric power supply and require the consideration of 313 system resilience right from the planning stage. Also, the inherent uncertainties 314 characterizing those systems must be inevitably considered. 315

To address the above-mentioned challenges, efforts must be devoted to developing efficient techno-economic modeling and robust optimization frameworks for multi-period generation expansion planning considering high shares of IRES and resilience against extreme weather events. The planning problem considers the technology choice, size and commissioning schedule of conventional and renewable generation units under technical, economic, environmental and operational constraints. Within this problem, key research objectives to be addressed are (i) the proper integration and assessment of the operational flexibility needs due to the increased variability from the high shares of IRES penetration, (ii) the appropriate events within the power system planning model and (iii) the representation and treatment of the inherent uncertainties in the system supply and demand within this planning context.

The framework will need to accommodate the fact that the economic planning 329 parameters and the technical behavior of energy generation are affected by nonlinear 330 conditions. For instance, production costs and ramping rates are nonlinear functions 331 of the variations in partial-load levels, whereas start-up costs and times are nonlinear 332 functions of the shut-down duration. These conditions become particularly relevant 333 when short-term capabilities and operational flexibility are considered in the model. 334 Then, the optimization model will need to give due count to the nonlinearities 335

in the system. Moreover, the modeling and optimization framework should be 336 applicable to multi-regional planning, accounting for the differences in weather 337 conditions across the different regions. Also, potential benefits should be studied, 338 of considering demand-side management policies, and/or different storage options 339 as operational flexibility and resilience enabling resources. 340

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