

# A virtual power plant optimal dispatch model with large and small-scale distributed renewable generation

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## Abstract

Volatility and sharp increases in the price of electricity are serious economic problems in the primary sector because they affect modernization investments for irrigation systems in Spain. This paper presents a new virtual power plant (VPP) model that integrates all available full-scale distributed renewable generation technologies. The proposed VPP operates as a single plant in the wholesale electricity market and aims to maximize profit from its operation to meet demand. Two levels of renewable energy integration in the VPP were considered: first, a wind farm and six hydroelectric power plants that inject the generated electricity directly to the distribution network, and second, on-site photovoltaic plants associated with each of the electricity supply points in the system that are designed to prioritize self-consumption. The proposed technical-economic dispatch model was developed as a mixed-integer optimization problem that determines the hourly operation of distributed large-scale renewable generation plants and on-site generation plants. The model was applied to real data from an irrigation system comprising a number of water pumping stations in Aragon (Spain). The results of the VPP model demonstrate the importance of the technical and economic management of all production facilities to significantly reduce grid dependence and final electricity costs.

**Keywords:** optimization, renewable power sources, distributed generation, self-consumption, management.

## 36 **Nomenclature**

### 37 *Indexes*

38  $i$  index for number of hours

39  $j$  index for pumping stations

### 40 *Variables*

41  $P_{exp}^i$  energy exported to the grid (MWh)

42  $P_{imp}^i$  energy imported from the grid (MWh)

43  $P_W^i$  wind power generated (MW)

44  $P_H^i$  hydroelectric power generated (MW)

45  $P_{inj}^i$  energy input from general bus  $A$  to a pumping station  $j$  (MWh)

46  $P_{outj}^i$  energy output from a pumping station  $j$  to general bus  $A$  (MWh)

47  $I_{exp}^i$  binary variable equal to 1 if energy is delivered to the grid;  
48 otherwise, it is equal to 0

49  $I_{imp}^i$  binary variable equal to 1 if the pumping station  $j$  imports energy  
50 from the grid; otherwise, it is equal to 0

51  $I_{inj}^i$  binary variable equal to 1 if energy is received by the pumping  
52 station  $j$  from general bus  $A$ ; otherwise, it is equal to 0

53  $I_{outj}^i$  binary variable equal to 1 if energy is delivered from the pumping  
54 station  $j$  to general bus  $A$ ; otherwise, it is equal to 0

### 55 *Data*

56  $\rho_{exp}^i$  hourly energy sales price (€/MWh)

57  $\rho_{imp}^i$  hourly energy purchase price (€/MWh)

58  $f_W$  operation and maintenance cost of wind farm technology  
59 (€/MWh)

60  $f_H$  operation and maintenance cost of hydroelectric technology  
61 (€/MWh)

62  $f_{PV}$  operation and maintenance cost of photovoltaic technology  
63 (€/MWh)

64  $P_{Dj}^i$  hourly load of each pumping station  $j$  (MW)

65  $P_{PVj}^i$  photovoltaic power generated hourly (MW)

66	$P_{W \max}^i$	hourly available wind power generation (MW)
67	$P_{H \max}^i$	hourly available hydroelectric power generation (MW)
68	$P_{\text{exp max}}^i$	hourly maximum power exported to the grid (MWh)
69	$P_{\text{imp max}}^i$	hourly maximum power imported from the grid (MWh)

70

## 71 **1. Introduction**

72 Electricity is one of the most costly elements in the operation of an agricultural  
 73 irrigation water pumping station. Until 2008, the Spanish government set regulated  
 74 electricity rates, but since then, farming communities have had to purchase electricity  
 75 from a deregulated market at much higher prices. As a result, the survival of many  
 76 recently modernized facilities has been threatened due to higher electricity prices; these  
 77 prices also exhibit volatility and uncertainty throughout the year. Farming communities  
 78 paid prices above 15 c€/kWh in 2014, compared to an average of 7.7 c€/kWh in 2007.  
 79 The future of the current scenario of volatility and steep increases in wholesale  
 80 electricity market pricing is uncertain.

81 Countries worldwide rely on their energy policy strategies to develop renewable energy  
 82 to address global warming, reduce their dependence on fossil-fuel-based electricity,  
 83 improve the security of energy supply and promote industry and development in a  
 84 region where renewable energy technology is installed. Introducing renewable energy to  
 85 an increasingly competitive electricity market requires new technologies and operating  
 86 systems to address new technical and economic challenges arising from the optimal  
 87 integration of available resources. Smart grids, virtual power plants and digital  
 88 transformation are keys to this integration.

89 Most of the studies reviewed in this paper have focused on the growing importance of  
 90 the management capabilities of different types of virtual power plants. A virtual power  
 91 plant can be defined as a cluster of distributed generation units, controllable loads and  
 92 storage systems that are aggregated to operate as a single power plant without the need  
 93 for a physical connection by direct power lines [1]. In virtual power plants, an energy  
 94 management system is integral to coordinating power flow between generators, loads  
 95 and storage. Communication between units may be bidirectional, which means that the  
 96 virtual power plant (VPP) can send control signals to the components that constitute the  
 97 virtual plant as well as receive information on the current status of each unit.

98 The main objective of previous studies has been optimizing the operation of the VPP to  
 99 maximize profit, using techniques for typical technical and economic dispatch  
 100 problems, which leads to scheduling different power generation sources [2].

101 Researchers have proposed different solving methods for the dispatch problem (see  
 102 Table 1). In [3], the problem of optimal energy management has been solved with an  
 103 imperialist competitive algorithm. The study in [4] has proposed a fully distributed

104 dispatch algorithm without a centralized controller. The authors of [5] have used a  
105 combined optimization method based on interval and deterministic optimization to  
106 solve an economic dispatch problem related to VPPs and to manage the uncertainties  
107 associated with renewable energy. In [6], the “Big Bang Big Crunch” optimization  
108 method has been used to minimize the annual purchase of electricity in unbalanced  
109 distribution networks. Other works have applied stochastic optimization ([7], [8]) and  
110 non-linear optimization programming ([9], [10]). However, the most frequently applied  
111 optimization technique has been mixed-integer linear programming since it suits the  
112 characteristics of dispatch problems ([11]–[17]).

113 One must also consider the economic aspects of the dispatch problem. Virtual power  
114 plants can participate in different electricity markets to purchase and sell power.  
115 Different approaches can be found in the literature that consider energy markets in  
116 relation to VPPs. Reference [11] has maximized the weekly profit of a VPP under long-  
117 term bilateral contracts. In [12], a coalition-forming scheme has been developed for a  
118 commercial virtual power plant based on weekly bilateral contracting and futures  
119 market as well as day-ahead markets. Reference [13] has used several interregional  
120 energy contracts to model a cooperation system among neighbouring VPPs. In [18], a  
121 methodology to coordinate different VPP agents and electricity market operators has  
122 been presented.

123 Electricity can also be purchased and sold in real-time. Several papers have aimed to  
124 determine an optimal bidding strategy for a VPP using different optimization methods.  
125 In [19], an optimal offering strategy for a commercial virtual power plant has been  
126 obtained by using stochastic optimization. The study in [7] has provided a combination  
127 of adaptive robust and stochastic optimization for VPP models that participate in day-  
128 ahead and real-time electricity markets. In [9], the distributionally robust optimization  
129 approach has been proposed to determine the optimal values of parameters for the  
130 bidding strategy, such as capacity or cost curve. The authors of [10] have presented a  
131 fuzzy optimization technique to address the bidding problem and have achieved lower  
132 computation times with this method than with other deterministic and probabilistic  
133 methods.

134 In order to reduce the range of the problem’s uncertainties, some papers have  
135 incorporated an initial statistical contribution in which electricity market pricing and  
136 renewable power generation intermittency are the most influential variables. Different  
137 methods have been proposed to manage the uncertainty of these parameters in VPP  
138 scheduling. References [14] and [19] have considered different demand response  
139 programs and have used stochastic programming to manage uncertainty. The point  
140 estimate method has been used in [15], while the studies [7] and [8] have proposed a  
141 stochastic robust optimization method. References such as [16] and [20] have applied  
142 the Conditional Value at Risk (CVaR) method to risk management in the VPP model.  
143 Reference [21] has presented a multi-objective programming model that incorporates  
144 the uncertainty management and carbon dioxide emissions of VPP. In the mentioned  
145 study, the Conditional Risk at Value (CVaR) method and robust optimization theory

146 have been used to model uncertainty. In [22], a method has been provided for profit  
 147 allocation among different distributed energy resources that constitute the VPP. This  
 148 method has been shown to reduce computation time through cooperative game theory  
 149 methods.

150 Very few papers have studied and analyzed the virtual power plant concept in real  
 151 cases. In [23], the integration of VPPs in the German energy market has been  
 152 economically assessed, while the study [17] has analyzed the technical-economic  
 153 impact of the implementation of the VPP concept in the Spanish electricity system. In  
 154 [24], the economic feasibility of VPPs in Chongming Island (China) has been studied  
 155 by calculating the net present value (NPV) and analyzing the life cycle cost.

156

Ref.	Objective	Solving method	Wholesale markets	Uncertainty management	Storage	Case study	Real case study
[3]	Energy management	Imperialist competitive algorithm		✓	✓	✓	
[4]	Profit maximization	ADMM and consensus optimization				✓	
[5]	Economic dispatch	Combined interval and deterministic optimization		✓			✓
[6]	Energy management	Big Bang Big Crunch	✓		✓	✓	
[7]	Bidding strategy	Stochastic adaptive robust optimization	✓	✓			
[8]	Self-scheduling	Stochastic adaptive robust optimization	✓	✓		✓	
[9]	Bidding strategy	Second-order cone program	✓		✓		
[10]	Bidding strategy	MINLP	✓	✓		✓	
[11]	Mid-term dispatch scheduling	MILP	✓	✓	✓	✓	
[12]	Medium term coalition	MILP	✓			✓	
[13]	Interregional cooperation	MILP	✓	✓		✓	

[14]	Electrical/thermal energy scheduling	MILP	✓	✓	✓
[15]	Electrical/thermal energy scheduling	MILP	✓	✓	✓
[16]	Risk aversion scheduling	MILP		✓	✓
[17]	Profit maximization	MILP			✓
[18]	Congestion management,	Rolling horizon method	✓	✓	✓
[19]	Bidding strategy	Mathematical programming model with equilibrium constraints	✓	✓	✓
[20]	Energy management	MINLP	✓		✓
[21]	Multi-objective profit maximization/risk minimization/carbon emissions minimization	Robust optimization		✓	
[22]	Profit allocation	Two-stage stochastic programming/ game theory	✓	✓	
[23]	Economic feasibility	Scenario method			✓
[24]	Economic feasibility	NPV/life cycle cost			✓

157 **Table 1.** Classification of the reviewed VPP studies

158

159 In summary, the reviewed studies have generally proposed models that do not include  
160 all the control variables of the different types of renewable generation. In addition, these  
161 models have not integrated the management of large- or medium-scale power  
162 generation plants (which are mainly designed to export all the electricity produced to  
163 the grid) with small-scale photovoltaic self-consumption facilities. Furthermore, the  
164 VPP concept has rarely been applied to real cases. These aspects are all considered in  
165 our research.

166 The goal of this paper is to develop a new optimal operation model that incorporates the  
167 electricity generation and consumption of irrigation systems. This model incorporates  
168 both renewable generation sources and the hourly electricity demand through a virtual  
169 power plant mathematical model. As a new feature, the model proposes that the

170 pumping stations' demand is supplied by their own system's power generation sources  
171 (for example, wind or hydro) but also by renewable distributed generation sources at  
172 each pumping station (photovoltaic), to reduce both its dependence on the grid and the  
173 final electricity cost. When necessary, electricity from the grid can be purchased to meet  
174 demand. The proposed model is a mixed-integer linear programming model that aims to  
175 maximize the profit of the operation of the VPP for each hourly period over one year of  
176 study.

177 In summary, the most innovative contributions of this research are as follows:

- 178 • The design of an optimal VPP management model with two levels of integration  
179 of renewable energy: on the one hand, wind and hydroelectric power generation  
180 injected directly to the grid, and on the other, on-site photovoltaic self-  
181 consumption facilities.
- 182 • The application of this model to the operation of a power control centre of a  
183 135,000 ha irrigation system in Aragon (Spain) with an electricity consumption  
184 of 39 GWh per year and a power generation of 180 GWh per year.

185 The rest of this article is organized as follows. Section 2 explains the proposed optimal  
186 dispatch model. Section 3 details the case study with actual demand and renewable  
187 power generation data. Section 4 presents the main results of the model. Next, Section 5  
188 provides a sensitivity analysis of various model parameters. Finally, Section 6 presents  
189 the main conclusions of this study.

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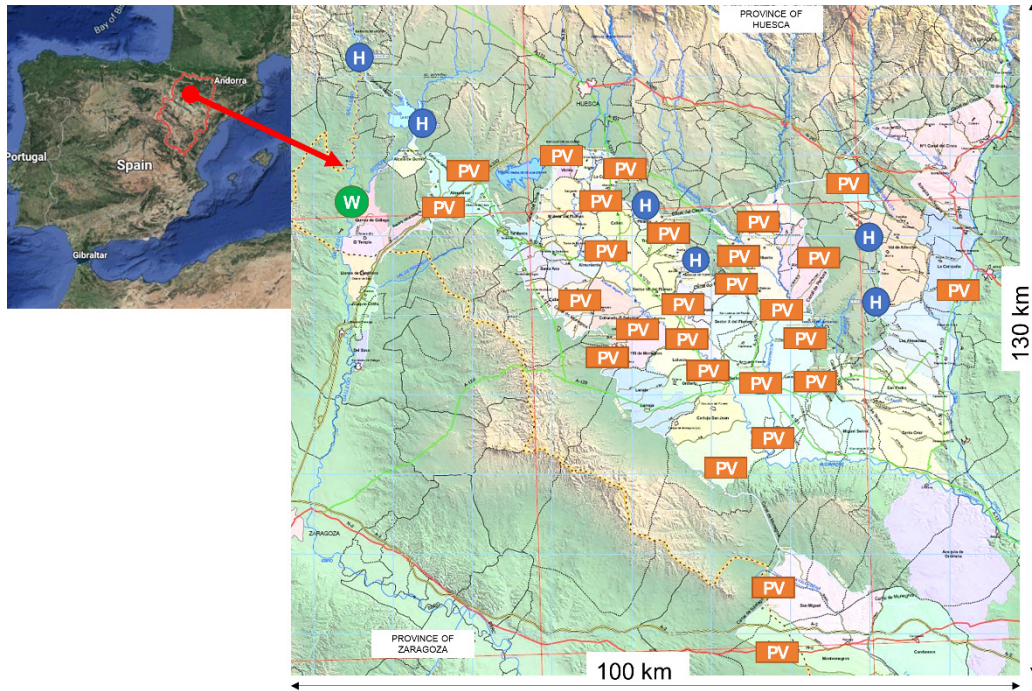
## 191 **2. Optimal dispatch model**

192 The irrigation system of Riegos del Alto Aragon, one of the largest in Europe,  
193 comprises a group of irrigation communities spanning an area exceeding 135,000 ha  
194 and with an annual water consumption of 800 Hm<sup>3</sup>. This system is located in Aragon  
195 (Spain), where climatic conditions make irrigation a key determinant of production  
196 diversification and of labour and land productivity. Therefore, irrigation is a key  
197 influencer of farm income and of the living standards of farmers, which is reflected in  
198 the territorial distribution of farm employment.

199 In recent years, irrigation communities in Riegos del Alto Aragon have invested  
200 significantly in their own renewable power generation facilities (wind, hydro). These  
201 communities are also large consumers of electricity due to their water pumping stations;  
202 therefore, it is essential to jointly manage consumption and power generation to reduce  
203 energy costs and improve environmental sustainability. This paper proposes the design  
204 and implementation of a VPP that incorporates the electricity consumption of pumping  
205 stations and power generation plants. The proposed VPP operates as a single plant in the  
206 wholesale electricity market and maximizes the profit of the systems involved. Fig. 1  
207 depicts the location of the electricity generation facilities and the irrigated areas of the  
208 Riegos del Alto Aragon irrigation system.

209 The system under study consists of 27 irrigation water pumping stations that are  
210 connected to the electric distribution network and have a total annual electricity demand  
211 of 39 GWh. This demand is partially supplied by on-site photovoltaic generation  
212 facilities, by other sources from within their own generation system or by the purchase  
213 of electricity from the electricity market.

214



215

216 Fig. 1. Map of the irrigation communities of Riegos del Alto Aragón and the location of their renewable  
217 power generation facilities

218

219 This research proposes a mathematical model of optimal hourly dispatch to incorporate  
220 the technical and economic management of all the consumption and generation facilities  
221 into a VPP model. The mathematical problem of the VPP profit maximization was  
222 formulated as a mixed-integer linear programming model. On the one hand, the problem  
223 has binary variables associated with the decision to import or export energy in each  
224 subsystem for each hour. On the other hand, the optimum values of the power  
225 generation and the imported energy were calculated, both at each pumping station and  
226 by the system overall. Equations (1) to (13) formulate the objective function and the  
227 technical constraints that model the system behaviour.

228 Hourly demand and renewable electricity generation forecasts are available the day  
229 before for the dispatch model, as well as electricity market prices for purchasing and  
230 selling energy from the day-ahead market [25]. However, the decision-making process  
231 was performed hourly for one year in order to analyze the system operation and the  
232 effective generation and demand coupling during the year 2017.



233 Fig. 2 schematically presents the VPP agents. The electricity generation plants  
 234 distributed in the region are connected hourly to attempt to meet the pumping station  
 235 demand. There are two levels for connecting the generated power: (i) the wind farm and  
 236 the six hydroelectric power plants send the generated electricity directly to the  
 237 distribution network, and (ii) the on-site photovoltaic plants (PV) are designed to  
 238 prioritize meeting the demand of each pumping station and inject any surplus power  
 239 into the distribution network. These self-consumption facilities are obliged to meet first  
 240 the local demand in accordance with the provisions of article 9.1 of Spanish Law  
 241 24/2013 [26]. Fig. 2 presents the load  $P_{Dj}^i$  and produced solar power  $P_{PVj}^i$ , and the input  
 242  $P_{inj}^i$  and output  $P_{outj}^i$  power in each subsystem. These variables do not represent the  
 243 power line flows, but rather, the power to connect hourly in the integrated economic  
 244 VPP model.

245 If the demand of the pumping stations is not met, energy  $P_{imp}^i$  will be purchased from  
 246 the electricity market by a pass-through contract indexed to the OMIE wholesale market  
 247 prices of Spain [25]. Conversely, if excess energy  $P_{exp}^i$  is produced, it will be sold to the  
 248 grid each hour at the price stated by the OMIE day-ahead market, minus generation  
 249 taxes and fees. The model assumes that purchasing and selling energy transactions  
 250 cannot occur simultaneously (Eq. 6).

251 The objective function presented in Eq. 1 maximizes the hourly profit of joint operation  
 252 of the power generation and consumption facilities of the VPP, expressed as the  
 253 difference between income and costs of all the system agents. The income results from  
 254 selling the hourly excess in generated power ( $\rho_{exp}^i \cdot P_{exp}^i$ ) to the electricity market, while  
 255 the costs are from the power generated hourly by each wind and hydro generation  
 256 facility ( $f_W \cdot P_W^i$ ,  $f_H \cdot P_H^i$ ), the cost of PV surplus power sent out from the pumping station  
 257 ( $f_{PV} \cdot P_{outj}^i$ ) and the hourly cost of purchasing energy if generation does not meet  
 258 demand ( $\rho_{imp}^i \cdot P_{imp}^i$ ).

259 As mentioned above, the PV plants meet the demand of each pumping station first, so  
 260 the demand supplied by the PV plants does not need to be purchased from the electricity  
 261 market. Only the cost of the extra energy generated by each PV plant and injected into  
 262 the distribution network is considered in the dispatch model.

263 The technical constraints considered for modelling the system are defined below.

264 The overall power balance of the system that ensures the supply of the demand at all  
 265 times is stated in Eq. 2. Furthermore, Eq. 3 defines the power balance at each pumping  
 266 station and ensures that all available photovoltaic power is used every hour.

267 Eq. 4 and 5 establish that wind and hydroelectric power generation ( $P_W^i$ ,  $P_H^i$ ) must each  
 268 be equal to or greater than 0 and are limited by their maximum available power.

269 Next, the constraints related to the energy imported from and exported to the  
 270 distribution network are presented. The transactions of purchasing and selling energy in  
 271 the electricity market cannot occur simultaneously every hour; therefore, Eq. 6 states

272 that the sum of the integer decision variables ( $I_{imp}^i, I_{exp}^i$ ) must be less than or equal to 1.  
 273 The limits of energy imported from the grid are defined by Eq. 7; the minimum value  
 274 must be greater than or equal to 0, while the maximum value depends on the product of  
 275 the maximum demand of the system (Eq. 9) and the associated integer variable. If  
 276 energy is imported,  $I_{imp}^i = 1$ , and the imported energy will be less than or equal to the  
 277 maximum demand,  $P_{imp\ max}^i$ . A similar situation exists for energy exported to the grid  
 278 (Eqs. 8 and 10). The maximum system energy that can be generated, and therefore  
 279 exported to the grid,  $P_{exp\ max}^i$ , is stated in Eq. 10.

280 Lastly, the constraints related to the photovoltaic generation plants in each pumping  
 281 station were established. Electricity can only be exchanged in one direction between a  
 282 subsystem B and the virtual bus of system A each hour (that is, it can only be imported  
 283 from A to B or exported from B to A (see Fig. 2)); As stated by Eq. 11, the sum of the  
 284 integer decision variables ( $I_{outj}^i, I_{inj}^i$ ) must be less than or equal to 1. The limits of the  
 285 energy output of each pumping station is indicated by Eq. 12; it must be greater than or  
 286 equal to 0, and the upper limit depends on the integer decision variables  $I_{outj}^i$  and  $I_{inj}^i$ . If  
 287 energy is delivered to the general bus A,  $I_{outj}^i = 1$ , and the upper limit of the energy  
 288 output of each pumping station will correspond to the available hourly photovoltaic  
 289 power generated. Otherwise, if the energy is received,  $I_{inj}^i = 1$ , and the maximum value  
 290 of the energy input of the pumping station will coincide with its hourly demand (Eq.  
 291 13).

292 • Objective function

$$\max \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{8760} \left( \rho_{exp}^i \cdot P_{exp}^i - \rho_{imp}^i \cdot P_{imp}^i - f_W \cdot P_W^i - f_H \cdot P_H^i - \sum_{j=1}^{27} f_{PV} \cdot P_{outj}^i \right) \right\} \quad (1)$$

293 • Constraints

$$P_{imp}^i - P_{exp}^i + P_W^i + P_H^i = - \sum_{j=1}^{27} P_{outj}^i + \sum_{j=1}^{27} P_{inj}^i \quad (i = 1..8760) \quad (2)$$

$$P_{outj}^i - P_{inj}^i = P_{PVj}^i - P_{Dj}^i \quad (j = 1..27, i = 1..8760) \quad (3)$$

$$0 \leq P_W^i \leq P_{W\ max}^i \quad (4)$$

$$0 \leq P_H^i \leq P_{H\ max}^i \quad (5)$$

$$I_{imp}^i + I_{exp}^i \leq 1 \quad (6)$$

$$0 \leq P_{imp}^i \leq I_{imp}^i \cdot P_{imp\ max}^i \quad (7)$$

$$0 \leq P_{exp}^i \leq I_{exp}^i \cdot P_{exp\ max}^i \quad (8)$$

$$P_{imp\ max}^i = \sum_{j=1}^{27} P_{Dj}^i \quad (9)$$

$$P_{exp\ max}^i = P_{W\ max}^i + P_{H\ max}^i + \sum_{j=1}^{27} P_{PVj}^i \quad (10)$$

$$I_{out,j}^i + I_{in,j}^i \leq 1 \quad (11)$$

$$0 \leq P_{outj}^i \leq I_{outj}^i \cdot P_{PVj}^i \quad (12)$$

$$0 \leq P_{inj}^i \leq I_{inj}^i \cdot P_{Dj}^i \quad (13)$$

294 As indicated by the equations of the formulated optimization problem, the model is of a  
 295 mixed-integer linear programming type (MILP) because there are decision variables  
 296 related to the import or export of electricity and continuous variables for the values of  
 297 energy exchanged. An appropriate solving method involves obtaining the optimal  
 298 management of energy resources integrated into a VPP, as seen in Section 1. The  
 299 integer variables are used to carry out the decision-making process for each hourly  
 300 period during a year. Thus, an optimal hourly solution to the problem can be obtained.  
 301 MATLAB software was used to solve the mathematical problem because its  
 302 optimization toolbox includes an efficient solver for mixed-integer linear programming  
 303 (MILP). The computation time was 6.64 minutes for the dispatch problem of 8760  
 304 hours using a computer with an Intel®Core i7 processor, 2.5 GHz CPU and 12 GB of  
 305 RAM.

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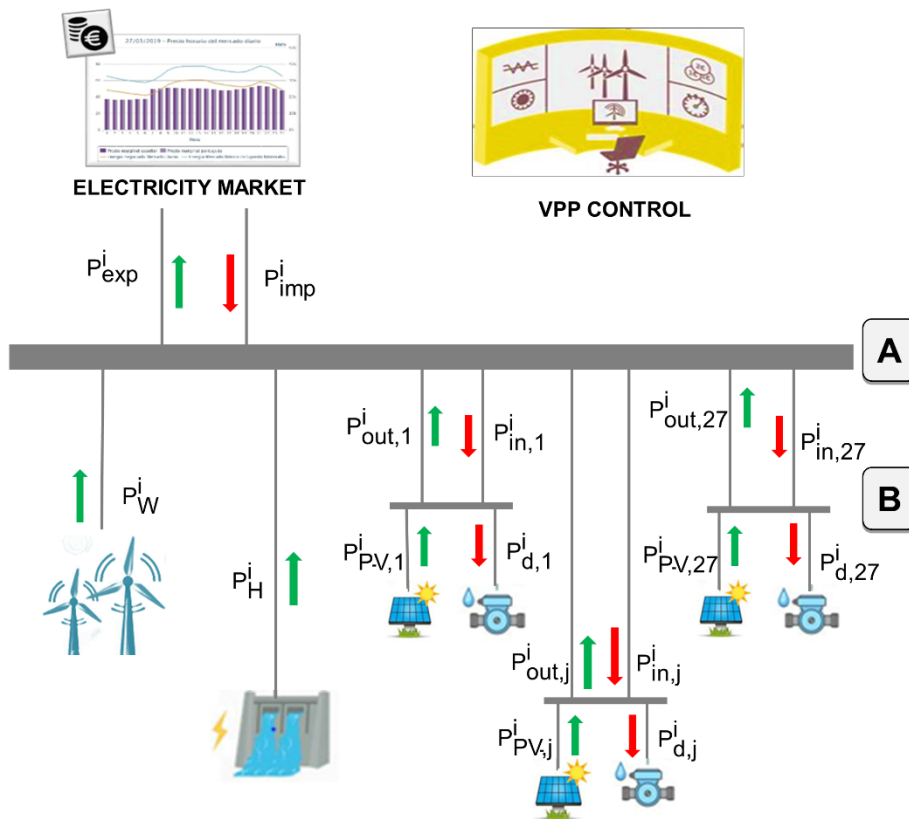
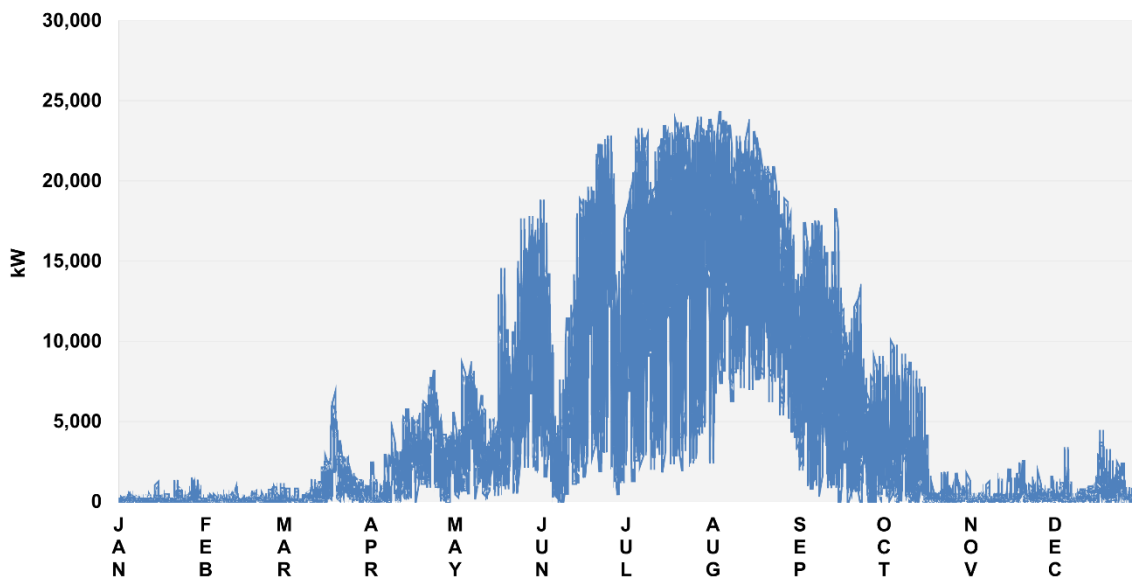


Fig. 2. Agents involved in the proposed VPP

### 3. Case study: data

#### 3.1. Demand

The hourly load curves of the pumping stations in 2017 are available for integrating demand into the VPP dispatch model. Electricity consumption is highly seasonal since the area's crop irrigation season mainly occurs during the summer months (see Fig. 3).



317

**Fig. 3.** Annual demand curve of the irrigation communities under study

318

319 Table 2 presents the electricity consumption per year for each pumping station. The  
320 total annual consumption of the analyzed system was 39 GWh.

321

<b>Pumping station</b>	<b>Energy (MWh)</b>	<b>Pumping station</b>	<b>Energy (MWh)</b>
<b>PS1</b>	746	<b>PS15</b>	450
<b>PS2</b>	2,223	<b>PS16</b>	622
<b>PS3</b>	965	<b>PS17</b>	3,732
<b>PS4</b>	4,419	<b>PS18</b>	278
<b>PS5</b>	2,112	<b>PS19</b>	656
<b>PS6</b>	2,555	<b>PS20</b>	900
<b>PS7</b>	843	<b>PS21</b>	1,615
<b>PS8</b>	530	<b>PS22</b>	1,592
<b>PS9</b>	2,036	<b>PS23</b>	2,688
<b>PS10</b>	284	<b>PS24</b>	2,014
<b>PS11</b>	1,011	<b>PS25</b>	1,053
<b>PS12</b>	1,282	<b>PS26</b>	192
<b>PS13</b>	1,045	<b>PS27</b>	801
<b>PS14</b>	2,361		
<b>Total energy (MWh)</b>		<b>39,003</b>	

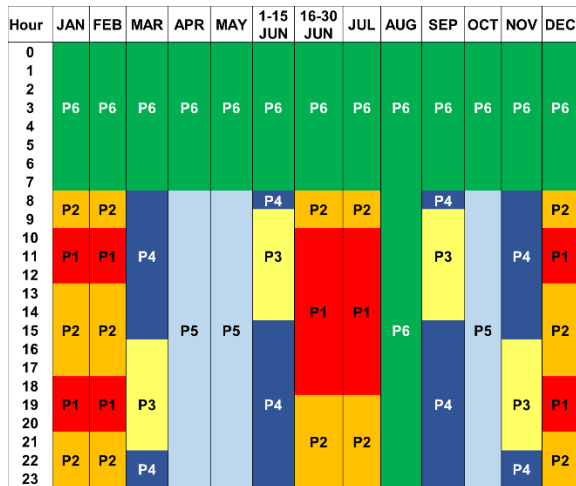
322 **Table 2.** Annual electricity consumption of the pumping stations

323

324 The final cost of electricity to a consumer in Spain is the sum of the cost of generating  
325 electricity in the wholesale market plus the cost of access tariffs for grid use and other  
326 minor fees.

327 The irrigation communities are under a six-period access tariff contract, meaning there  
328 are six different periods with different grid usage costs that depend on the month and  
329 time of day. Period P1 is the most expensive and period P6 is the cheapest; therefore,  
330 the irrigation communities try to minimize consumption in period 1 and concentrate it in  
331 cheaper periods. Fig. 4 shows the distribution of the different periods of the time-of-use  
332 access tariffs throughout the year.

333



334

335 Fig. 4. Time-of-use access tariff schedule

336

337 Table 3 presents the distribution of electricity consumption for each of the six periods of  
 338 the high voltage access tariffs. An analysis of the energy distribution indicates that most  
 339 electricity consumption occurs in period P6 when the energy price is lower; this  
 340 corresponds to nights, weekends and the month of August.

341

Period	Energy consumed (MWh)	Percentage (%)
P1	1,124	2.88%
P2	2,432	6.23%
P3	405	1.04%
P4	1,334	3.42%
P5	1,676	4.30%
P6	32,032	82.13%
<b>Total energy (MWh)</b>	<b>39,003</b>	<b>100.00%</b>

342 Table 3. Electricity consumption distribution by pricing period

343

344 3.2. Hydroelectric generation

345 The system has six hydroelectric power plants, geographically scattered throughout the  
 346 region, with a total output power of 14.7 MW. These plants use dammed water and  
 347 water flowing through channels to produce electricity. Table 4 describes the power  
 348 distribution of each hydroelectric power plant. The hourly hydropower generation data  
 349 are available for 2017. Fig. 5 depicts the monthly generation of the system's six  
 350 hydroelectric plants.

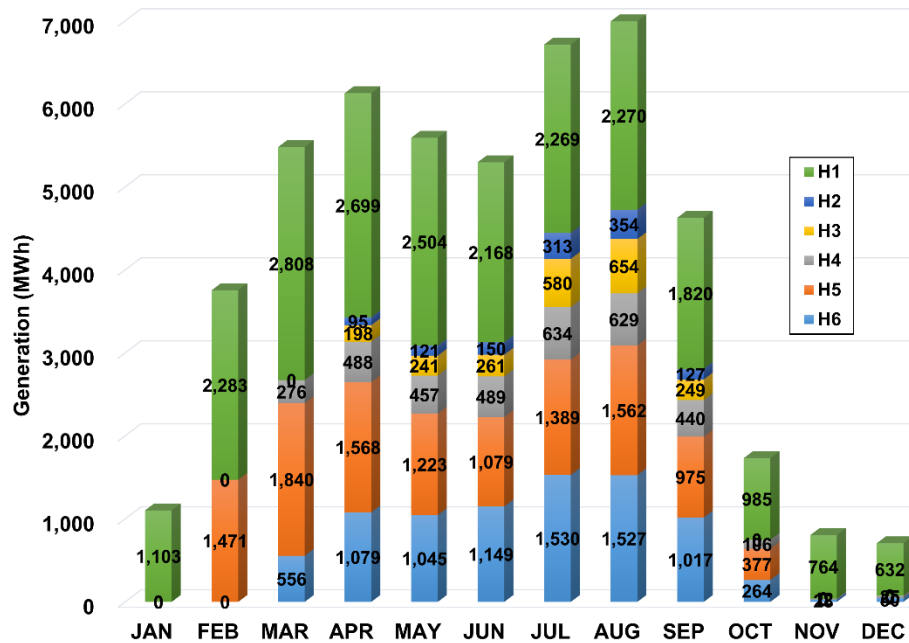
351

Hydroelectric power plant	Installed capacity (MW)
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<b>H1</b>	4.4
<b>H2</b>	0.9
<b>H3</b>	1.2
<b>H4</b>	1.1
<b>H5</b>	5.0
<b>H6</b>	2.1
<b>Total power (MW)</b>	<b>14.7</b>

352 **Table 4.** Installed capacity of the hydroelectric facilities

353



354

355

**Fig. 5.** Monthly power generation of the hydropower plants

356

357 As indicated in Fig. 5, only one plant operates for the whole year because its dam is fed  
358 by a river. The remaining five plants generate power mainly during the irrigation  
359 season, when there is an increased amount of water flowing through the transport  
360 channels. Table 5 describes the distribution of generated power by pricing period. The  
361 total amount of energy generated by the hydropower plants is 48.9 GWh/year.

362

Periods	Energy produced (MWh)	Percentage (%)
<b>P1</b>	3,206	6.55%
<b>P2</b>	3,841	7.85%
<b>P3</b>	2,416	4.94%
<b>P4</b>	4,007	8.19%
<b>P5</b>	6,239	12.75%
<b>P6</b>	29,226	59.72%
<b>Total energy [MWh]</b>	<b>48,934</b>	<b>100.00%</b>

363 **Table 5.** Distribution of hydropower generation by pricing period

364

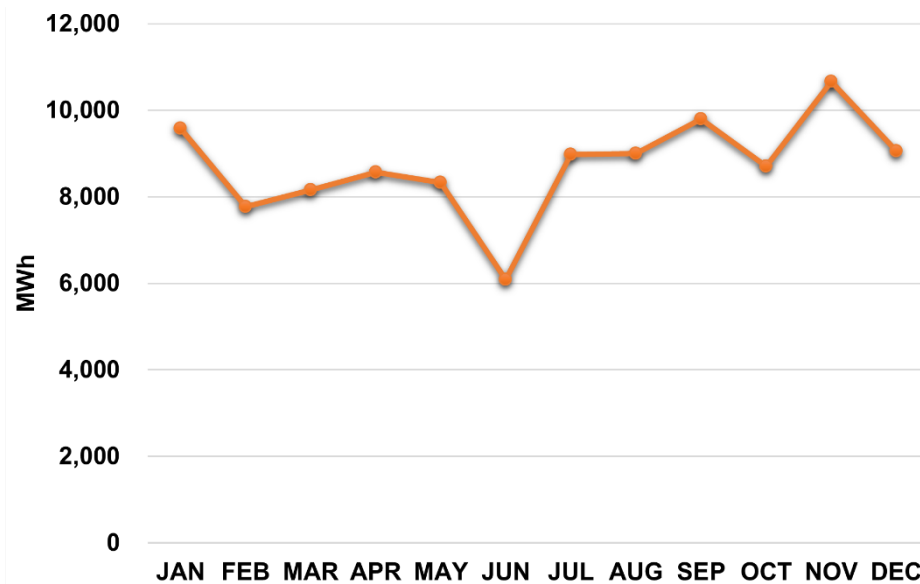
365 As previously stated, 60% of the power generation occurs during period P6. However,  
366 80% of the yearly pumping station demand is concentrated in the hours of the same  
367 pricing period, P6; therefore, a complete temporal match between hydropower  
368 generation and power demand does not exist.

369

### 370 3.3. Wind farm

371 The system has a wind farm consisting of nine wind turbines with an installed capacity  
372 of 30 MW. The hourly generation data of the wind farm are available. Fig. 6 visualizes  
373 the power generated per month.

374



375

376 **Fig. 6.** Wind power generation per month

377

378 Table 6 presents the power generation distribution by pricing period. Again, the largest  
379 power generation occurs during period P6, which is relevant for system power  
380 management because it coincides with the period of highest consumption by the  
381 irrigation communities.

382

Period	Energy produced (MWh)	Percentage (%)
P1	6,806	6.50%
P2	10,684	10.20%
P3	4,879	4.66%
P4	9,224	8.81%
P5	10,014	9.56%



<b>P6</b>	63,096	60.26%
<b>Total energy (MWh)</b>	<b>104,703</b>	<b>100.00%</b>

383 **Table 6.** Distribution of wind power generation by pricing period.

384

### 385 3.4. Distributed photovoltaic generation

386 Each pumping station has a self-consumption photovoltaic (PV) system. The total  
 387 installed PV capacity is 15.5 MW. Table 7 lists the installed capacity of each pumping  
 388 station. Fig. 7 presents the total power generation of the 27 PV plants for each of the 24  
 389 hours of every day over the 365 days of study.

390

<b>Pumping station</b>	<b>Installed PV capacity (kW)</b>	<b>Pumping station</b>	<b>Installed PV capacity (kW)</b>
<b>PS1</b>	325	<b>PS15</b>	575
<b>PS2</b>	700	<b>PS16</b>	230
<b>PS3</b>	300	<b>PS17</b>	1.005
<b>PS4</b>	975	<b>PS18</b>	230
<b>PS5</b>	941	<b>PS19</b>	255
<b>PS6</b>	1,106	<b>PS20</b>	350
<b>PS7</b>	367	<b>PS21</b>	750
<b>PS8</b>	301	<b>PS22</b>	750
<b>PS9</b>	1,000	<b>PS23</b>	715
<b>PS10</b>	225	<b>PS24</b>	815
<b>PS11</b>	400	<b>PS25</b>	445
<b>PS12</b>	420	<b>PS26</b>	877
<b>PS13</b>	230	<b>PS27</b>	585
<b>PS14</b>	600		
<b>Total power (MW)</b>		<b>15.5</b>	

391 **Table 7.** Installed capacity of photovoltaic facilities

392

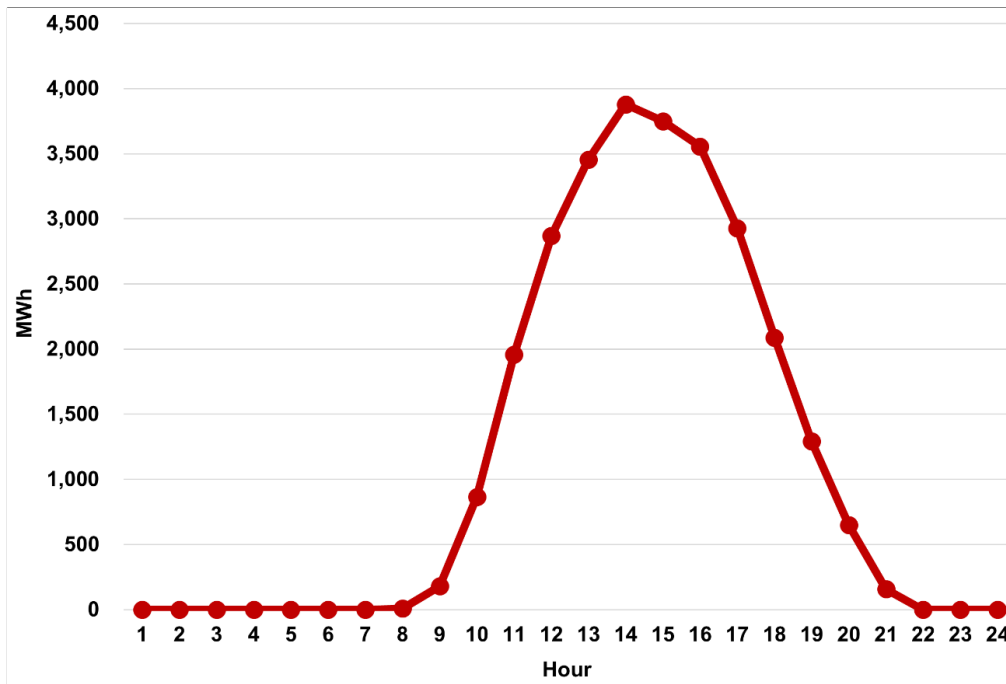


Fig. 7. Total energy generated by the photovoltaic plants

393

394

395

396 As expected, power generation is concentrated in the hours when there is solar  
 397 radiation, and the maximum generation values are obtained between 12:00 and 17:00.

398 Additionally, Table 8 presents the distribution of the energy generated by pricing  
 399 period. The highest power generation occurs in period P6, but this amount is less than  
 400 that of the wind farm and the hydropower plants.

401

Period	Energy generated (MWh)	Percentage (%)
P1	3,874	14.02%
P2	2,473	8.95%
P3	2,057	7.44%
P4	3,099	11.21%
P5	5,588	20.21%
P6	10,553	38.17%
<b>Total energy (MWh)</b>	<b>27,645</b>	<b>100.00%</b>

402 **Table 8.** Distribution of the total photovoltaic generation by pricing period

403

### 404 3.5. Generation costs

405 This research considered variable generation costs, including the renewable  
 406 technologies' operating and maintenance costs that determine the study model  
 407 behaviour (see Table 9).

408

TECHNOLOGY	OPERATING AND MAINTENANCE COSTS (€/MWh)
Wind	$f_w = 16.49$
Hydroelectric	$f_H = 16.19$
Distributed photovoltaic	$f_{PV} = 7.40$

409 **Table 9.** Operating and maintenance costs of renewable technologies [27],[28]

410

### 411 3.6. Cost of purchasing electricity

412 The demand of the pumping stations is met first by on-site photovoltaic plants and  
413 secondly by the system generators. In the event that the generation does not fully meet  
414 the demand, additional energy  $P_{imp}^i$  will be purchased from the electricity market  
415 through an indexed contract. In the standard format of a pass-through electricity supply  
416 contract, the calculation of the hourly price of purchasing electricity  $\rho_{imp}^i$  must  
417 incorporate other terms in addition to the energy price term of the OMIE day-ahead  
418 market (see Eq. 14).

$$\rho_{imp}^i (\text{€/MWh}) = [(C_{OMIE}^i + C_{const}^i + C_{procSO}^i + C_{int}^i + C_{cap}^i + C_{MO} + C_{SO}) \cdot (1 + k_{loss}^i) \cdot Cf] + Fee + NT^i$$

419 (14)

420 The terms of Eq. 14 are defined as follows:

- 421 ▪  $C_{OMIE}^i$ : hourly electricity price from the OMIE day-ahead market
- 422 ▪  $C_{const}^i$ : hourly technical constraints on the market price
- 423 ▪  $C_{procSO}^i$ : hourly market price of ancillary services of the system operator
- 424 ▪  $C_{int}^i$ : interruptible service cost
- 425 ▪  $C_{cap}^i$ : capacity cost
- 426 ▪  $C_{MO}$ : market operator cost
- 427 ▪  $C_{SO}$ : system operator cost
- 428 ▪  $k_{loss}^i$ : grid loss coefficient
- 429 ▪  $Cf$ : coefficient that varies according to the supplier (usually from 1.15 to 1.18)
- 430 ▪  $Fee$ : management cost that depends on the supplier
- 431 ▪  $NT^i$ : regulated energy term for the grid access tariff

432

### 433 3.7. Income from selling electricity

434 In the proposed model, surplus energy generated in the system is sold at the marginal  
435 hourly price recorded by the OMIE wholesale market during 2017. The generation tax  
436 (7%) and the generation grid access tariff (0.5 €/MWh) are considered in the final  
437 energy sales price (see Eq. 15).

$$\rho_{exp}^i (\text{€/MWh}) = [C_{OMIE}^i \cdot (1 - 0.07) - 0.5]$$

(15)

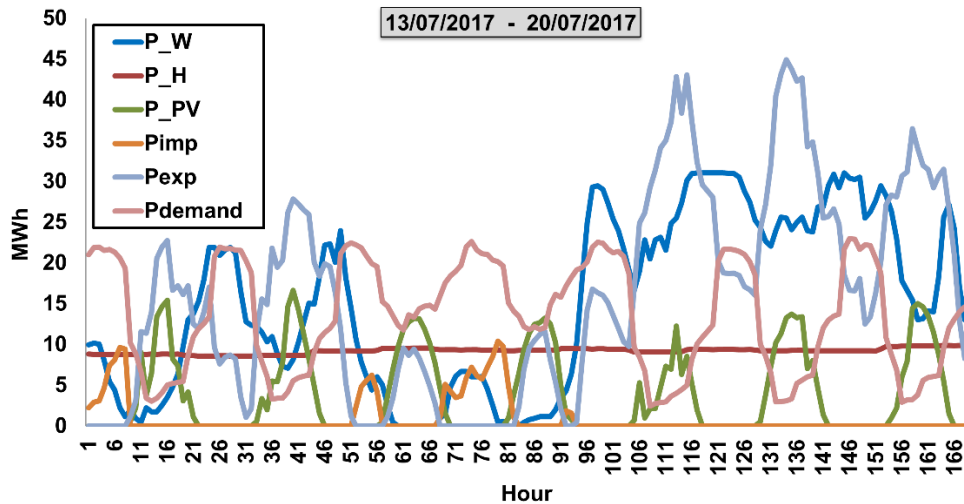
438

#### 439 4. Case study: results

440 The optimization model, which maximizes the hourly profit generated by the system,  
441 calculates the optimum value of 114 variables over the 8,760 hours of a year. The main  
442 optimization problem variables are those related to the power generated by each of the  
443 technologies included in the model and the amount of energy imported or exported  
444 hourly, both at each pumping station and by the whole system overall. In addition, the  
445 model includes 56 integer variables that have a value of 0 or 1 depending on the most  
446 profitable option for the system every hour.

447 Fig. 8 displays the hourly results obtained to meet the demand of all pumping stations  
448 for a week in July, which is typically the month of maximum annual demand.

449



450

451

Fig. 8. Hourly optimum results for a week in July

452

453 In the optimal VPP solution for the hours in July, hydropower generation remains  
454 almost constant, since hydroelectric plants depend on water flow into the irrigation  
455 communities through the supply channels, and in this month the pumping stations are in  
456 full operation.

457 In contrast, the variability of wind power generation is apparent and leads to some full  
458 demand coverage situations but also to some periods with a lower contribution to the  
459 energy system. When maximum wind power generation is reached, there is no need to  
460 buy electricity from the grid, and excess power is exported to the grid; conversely, if  
461 wind power generation decreases, the system usually needs to purchase energy from the  
462 grid to meet demand.

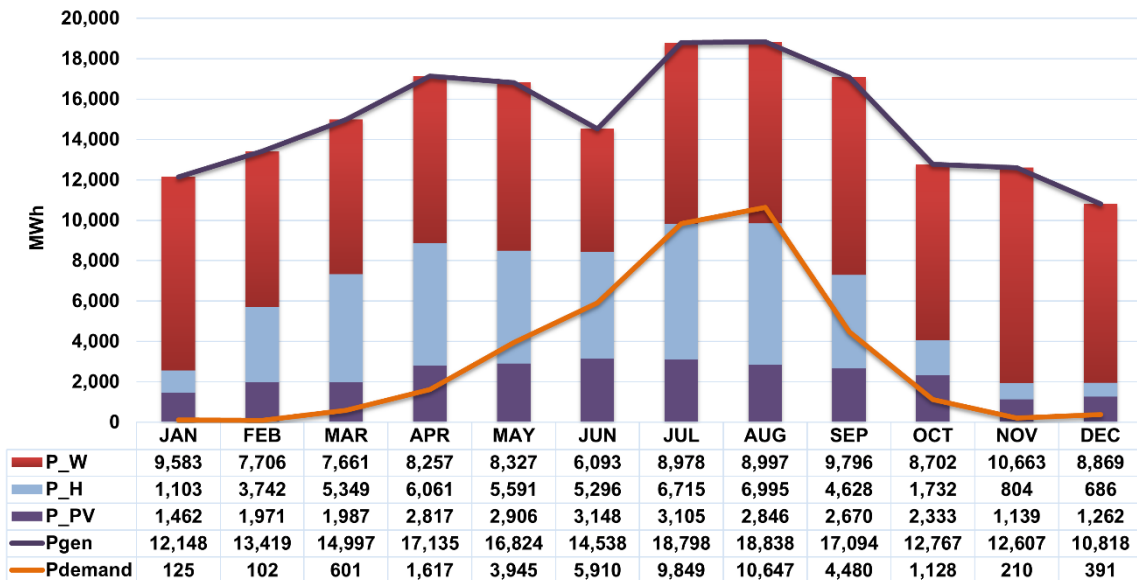
463 Lastly, according to the design specifications, the photovoltaic plant's power is self-  
464 consumed as much as possible. However, energy consumption patterns are different for  
465 each pumping station, and the on-site photovoltaic generation does not perfectly match  
466 the load profile of each pumping station. For that reason, some of the stations obtain

467 very small self-consumption rates since they barely connect their pumps during the day  
 468 when there is substantial photovoltaic generation, while other pumping stations reach  
 469 self-consumption percentages of around 50%. In the winter months, there is almost no  
 470 demand, and solar generation is exported to the grid; therefore, the system income  
 471 increases due to the sale of surplus power.

472 Fig. 9 shows the optimal power generated monthly by each technology included in the  
 473 model. As expected, the hydropower plants produce electricity according to the  
 474 seasonality of the water flowing through the transport channels to the pumping stations,  
 475 that is, generation is more concentrated in months of the irrigation season. The variation  
 476 in the electricity generated by the photovoltaic plants follows the typical solar irradiance  
 477 cycle during the year. However, wind energy production exhibits greater variability than  
 478 solar energy production due to its stochastic nature, as later discussed in Section 5.2.

479 Fig. 9 also demonstrates that the demand follows a seasonal pattern and is mainly  
 480 concentrated in the summer months. However, for the overall system, monthly  
 481 production is greater than monthly demand throughout the year.

482 Furthermore, a very high percentage of the available wind and hydroelectric power  
 483 production is scheduled (98.98% and 99.53%, respectively) (Table 10), but for some  
 484 hours it is more profitable to purchase energy from the electricity market instead of  
 485 generating it using renewable power generation plants (see Fig. 11). Electricity  
 486 production from on-site photovoltaic plants reaches 100% since these plants produce  
 487 energy whenever the solar resource is available. This information illustrates the  
 488 usefulness of the optimal dispatch model in maximizing the profit of an integrated VPP  
 489 operation.



490  
 491  
 492

Fig. 9. Monthly aggregation of optimal hourly power generation

	Energy production (MWh)	Demand coverage (%)	Scheduled generation (%)
P <sub>w</sub>	103,634	54.5%	98.98%

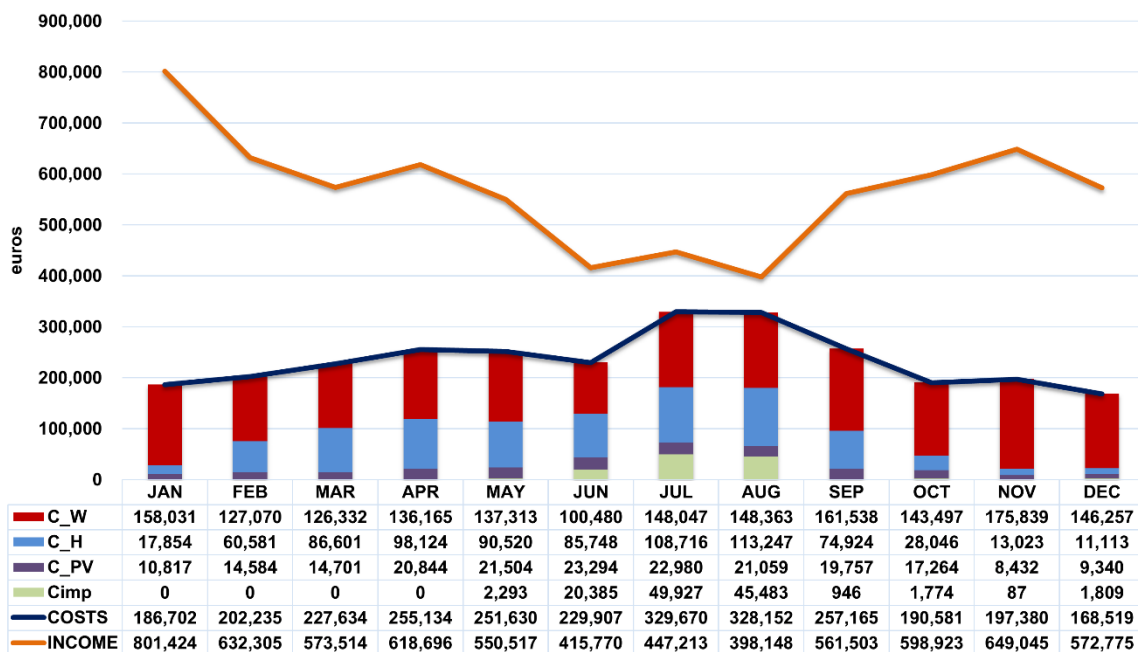
$P_H$	48,703	25.6%	99.53%
$P_{PV}$	27,645	14.5%	100.00%
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>179,982</b>	<b>94.6%</b>	

493 **Table 10.** Percentage of annual demand supplied by the system's generators and scheduled generation of  
494 each technology

495

496 Fig. 10 depicts the monthly generation costs of each technology as well as the income  
497 from the sale of surplus power to the electricity market. As indicated, the income  
498 throughout the year is greater than the system costs. In the months when the system  
499 demand is minimal, surplus power is generated, and high income results from its sale.  
500 Conversely, in the irrigation season months, self-consumption increases, and energy  
501 must be purchased from the electricity market ( $C_{imp}$ ) to meet demand, resulting in  
502 higher costs.

503



504

505

**Fig. 10.** Monthly costs and income

506

507 The pumping station demand is entirely met by the power generation plants for 8,247  
508 hours per year (see Fig. 11). In addition, the power plants produce no power for 36  
509 hours a year. During those hours it is necessary to purchase all the energy required from  
510 the electricity market to meet demand, a situation that occurs most often during the peak  
511 demand summer months (see  $C_{imp}$  in Fig. 10).

512

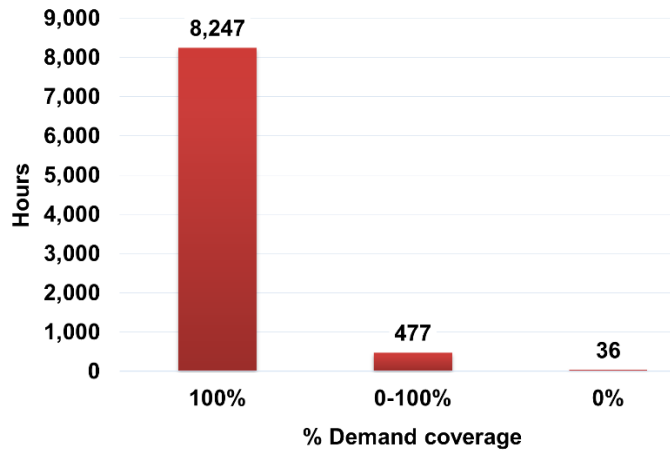


Fig. 11. Number of hours and percentage of demand supplied by the VPP

513

514

515

516 Table 11 presents the main results obtained, in terms of both energy and cost. The  
 517 power generation plants cover 94.6% of the annual pumping station demand, which  
 518 considerably reduces the dependence on the grid and aids system sustainability. The  
 519 remaining 5.4% of demand is purchased from the electricity market either because there  
 520 is not enough internal generation in the VPP or because purchasing energy is more  
 521 profitable.

522 From the results in Table 11, an annual average generation cost of the electricity  
 523 production of 15.01 €/MWh can be calculated. The annual average remuneration  
 524 obtained from the sale of electricity is 47.67 €/MWh, and the average cost of the  
 525 electricity purchase is 58.65 €/MWh. As explained in Section 3, the purchase cost is the  
 526 sum of the wholesale market price and the network access tariffs.

527 For the system to maximize its profit, the electricity generation must occur at the same  
 528 time as consumption, that is, the quantity of energy produced must match the energy  
 529 demand as closely as possible. However, it depends not only on the available generation  
 530 resources but also on whether the generation costs are competitive compared to the  
 531 prices set in the day-ahead electricity market.

532

	Energy (MWh)	Demand coverage (%)	Costs / Income (€)
$P_{\text{demand}}$	39,003	100%	
$P_{\text{gen}}$	179,982		-2,702,004
$P_{\text{exp}}$	143,071		6,819,833
$P_{\text{imp}}$	2,092	5.4%	-122,704
$P_{\text{self-cons}}$	36,912	94.6%	
<b>Total cost</b>			-2,824,708
<b>Total income</b>			6,819,833

533 Table 11. Optimal annual results of the VPP

534

535 **5. Sensitivity analysis**

536 This section presents a sensitivity analysis of various model parameters to evaluate their  
537 corresponding economic impact on the VPP.

538

539 5.1. Wholesale electricity market prices

540 This section analyzes the sensitivity of the optimal dispatch model in different  
541 electricity market price scenarios. Variation in these prices affects both the income from  
542 the sale of surplus generation to the wholesale market and the costs of purchasing  
543 energy during certain months of the year. Using the OMIE average 2017 wholesale  
544 market price in Spain as a reference, between 2006 and 2017 there are differences that  
545 range from -40% to +20% of the 2017 price [25], [29]. Six scenarios of sensitivity  
546 analysis have been performed for market prices ranging from -40% to +20%.

547 Table 12 describes the evolution of the annual generation, import and export of power  
548 in relation to the variation in the average electricity market price. Energy imported from  
549 the grid remains constant since it is difficult to compete against renewable power  
550 generation costs, even when electricity market prices drop by 40%. However, when the  
551 market price increases, generation and surplus power sales increase slightly (0.2%)  
552 because the price paid by the market renders power generation more profitable.  
553 Conversely, when the market price drops, power generation decreases between the  
554 reference case and the OMIE -40% case (-1.6%) because generating power is not as  
555 profitable if the power is sold at a price below the generation cost.

556

	OMIE -40%	OMIE -30%	OMIE -20%	OMIE -10%	OMIE ref	OMIE +10%	OMIE +20%
<b>P<sub>gen</sub> (MWh)</b>	177,069	178,861	179,720	179,853	179,982	180,144	180,306
<b>P<sub>imp</sub> (MWh)</b>	2,092	2,092	2,092	2,092	2,092	2,092	2,092
<b>P<sub>exp</sub> (MWh)</b>	140,157	141,949	142,808	142,941	143,071	143,232	143,394

557 **Table 12.** Evolution of the annual generation, import and export of power according to OMIE prices

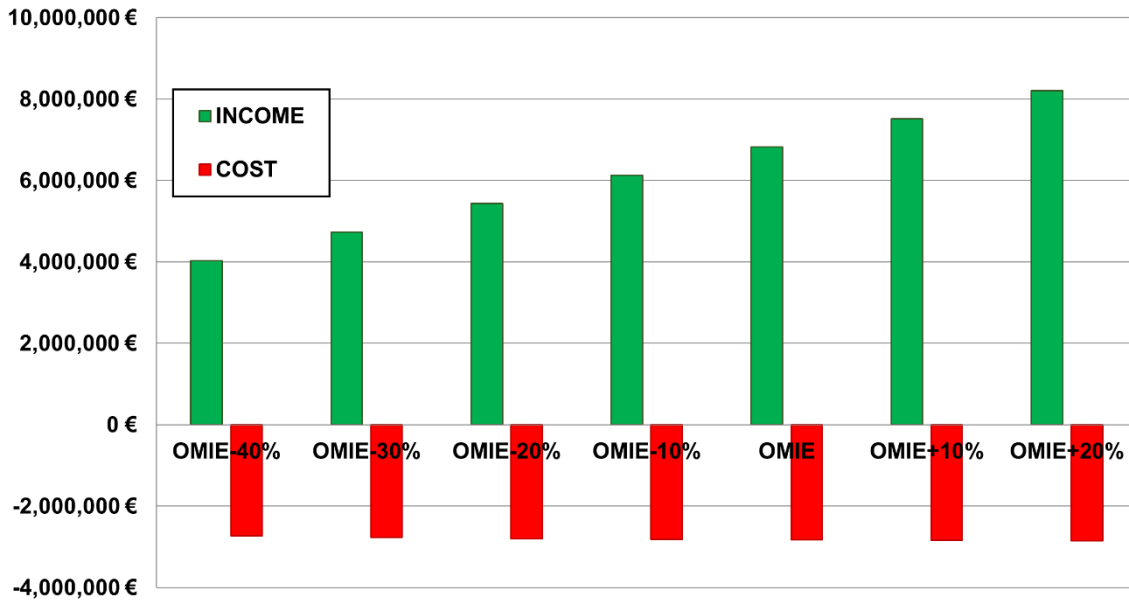
558

559 Fig. 12 presents the evolution of system costs and income depending on the electricity  
560 market price. In general, the income is greater than system costs for all cases analyzed  
561 and always yields a positive operating profit. Changes in electricity market prices have a  
562 greater impact on income because they are directly related to the power sales price set  
563 by the market, while costs barely change with decreases or increases in the OMIE  
564 market price. For example, in the OMIE +20% case, income increases by 20%



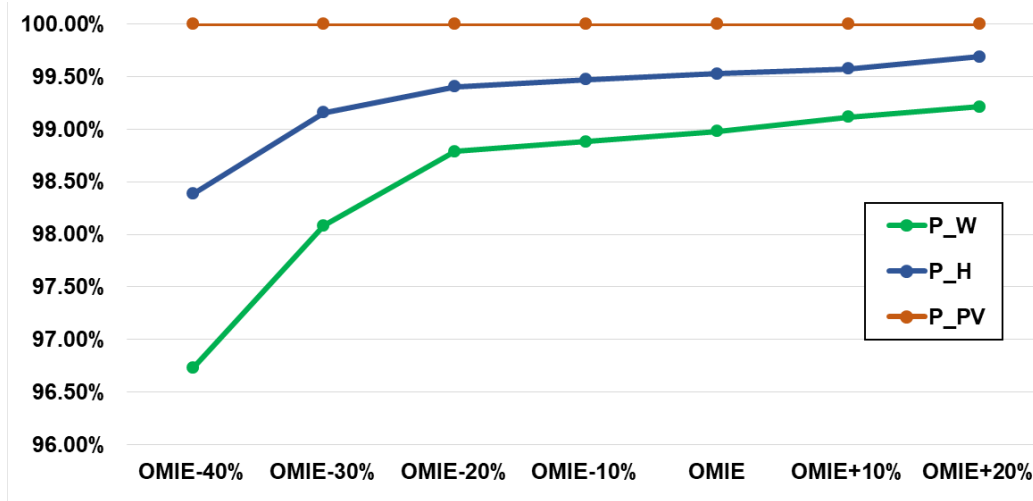
565 compared to the 2017 reference case and 61% compared to the OMIE -40% case;  
 566 however, costs only increase 1% and 4% for each case, respectively.

567  
 568



569  
 570  
 571

Fig. 12. Evolution of annual system cost and income versus OMIE day-ahead market prices



572  
 573  
 574

Fig. 13. Optimal power production of each generation technology for different market prices

575 Fig. 13 represents the optimal scheduling of power generation according to the variation  
 576 in electricity market prices. The photovoltaic energy always reaches 100% due to design  
 577 specifications. The wind and hydropower generation curves follow a similar trend, but  
 578 wind energy is used less than hydropower in all the cases studied. This disparity arises  
 579 mainly because wind power has a higher generation cost; furthermore, the hours of  
 580 hydroelectric generation and the hours of demand are more similar than those of wind

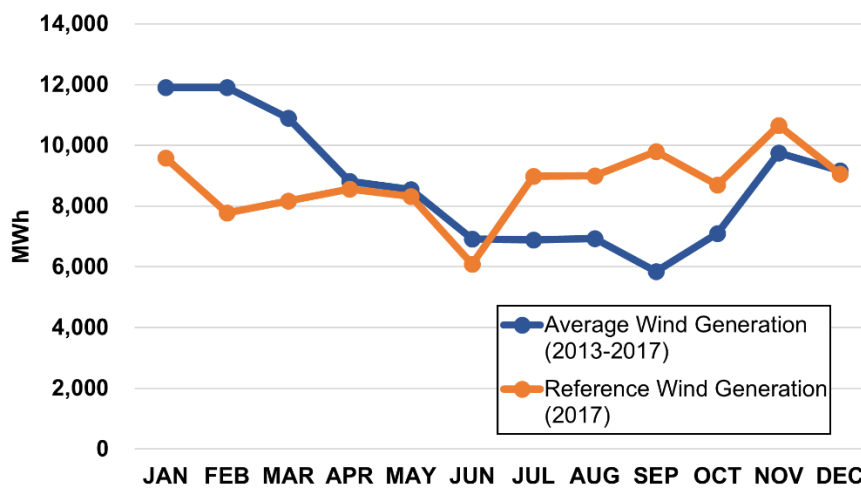
581 power. Fig. 13 also demonstrates that as market prices increase, producing more  
 582 electricity with the wind farm and hydropower plants becomes increasingly profitable.

583

584 5.2. Wind power generation

585 Wind power technology has the greatest influence on the VPP model. Section 4  
 586 validated the model with actual production data from the wind farm in 2017, and this  
 587 section studies the influence of other wind power generation profiles on the model. For  
 588 this sensitivity analysis, the 2013–2017 average monthly generation in Spain was  
 589 applied to the hourly generation profile used in Section 4 (see Fig. 14).

590



591

592 Fig. 14. Monthly wind power generation

593

594 The new wind power generation values were applied to the VPP optimal dispatch  
 595 model. Tables 13 and 14 present the main results obtained by changing wind power  
 596 generation. As a result of wind power generation reduction in the highest-demand  
 597 months of the irrigation communities (May to September), power import from the grid  
 598 increases and causes a slight decrease in the use of wind power (-0.22%) and a small  
 599 increase in system costs (+0.93%). However, the income increases due to excess  
 600 generation in lower-demand months (+0.73%), and a higher operating profit is achieved  
 601 compared to the base case in Section 4 (+0.59%). These results demonstrate that the  
 602 seasonal variations in wind generation do not excessively influence the economic profit  
 603 of the VPP model.

604

	Energy (MWh)	Demand coverage (%)	Demand coverage $\Delta$	Scheduled generation (%)	Scheduled generation $\Delta$
$P_w$	103,407	53.7%	-1.47%	98.76%	-0.22%

<b>P<sub>H</sub></b>	48,703	25.3%	-1.17%	99.53%	-
<b>P<sub>PV</sub></b>	27,645	14.4%	-0.69%	100.00%	-

605 **Table 13.** Percentage of annual demand supplied by system generators and scheduled generation of each  
606 technology, compared with previous results from Table 10

607

	<b>Energy (MWh)</b>	<b>Demand coverage (%)</b>	<b>Costs / Income (€)</b>	<b>Δ</b>
<b>P<sub>demand</sub></b>	39,003	100%		
<b>P<sub>gen</sub></b>	179,755		-2,698,256	-0.14%
<b>P<sub>exp</sub></b>	143,359		6,869,826	+0.73%
<b>P<sub>imp</sub></b>	2,608	6.7%	-152,986	+19.79%
<b>P<sub>self-cons</sub></b>	36,396	93.3%		
<b>Costs</b>			-2,851,242	+0.93%
<b>Income</b>			6,869,826	+0.73%

608 **Table 14.** Optimal annual results depending on the annual wind power generation profile, compared with  
609 previous results from Table 11

610

## 611 **6. Conclusions**

612 The development of new power management tools for irrigation systems is essential to  
613 improve farm profitability. In addition, the adoption of distributed generation in power  
614 systems and the development of more competitive electricity markets require new  
615 operation models to optimally integrate the available resources. The proposed technical-  
616 economic dispatch model supports VPP management, which is essential for such  
617 integration.

618 With the available renewable-source power generation facilities in the Riegos del Alto  
619 Aragon irrigation system, the VPP is able to meet almost 95% of the demand, greatly  
620 reducing the system's dependence on the grid and the final cost of power supply. Power  
621 is purchased from the electricity market when the hours or quantities of generation and  
622 consumption do not match or when purchasing energy is more profitable than  
623 generating it with internal renewable-source generation plants. In the latter case, wind  
624 and hydroelectric power generation are not 100% scheduled, while photovoltaic  
625 generation is completely utilized due to the model design.

626 A sensitivity analysis of the impact of changes in the wholesale electricity market price  
627 on the optimal dispatch model of the VPP was performed. Higher electricity market  
628 prices yield higher income from the energy exported to the grid, and increasing power  
629 generation and sale to the wholesale electricity market is more profitable. However, a  
630 variation in the annual wind power generation profile only slightly changes the results.

631

632

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