

Virtual Bidding for Coordination of Power and Natural Gas Markets Under Uncertainty

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Abstract The current design of energy markets is based on a sequential clearing of trading floors, e.g., day-ahead (DA) and real-time (RT), with deterministic description of uncertain supply. This setup is being challenged by the increasing share of renewables, since their inaccurate forecast in DA may result in high balancing costs and cause market inefficiencies. Besides, electricity and natural gas markets are cleared sequentially and separately. However, high integration of renewables increases their interactions as more operational flexibility is needed from gas-fired power units. These challenges require improving the coordination between power and gas markets (*sectoral coordination*) as well as the coordination between DA and RT markets in each of the energy sectors (*temporal coordination*). We explore virtual bidding (VB) as a potential market-based solution for improving both sectoral and temporal coordination, while preserving the sequences of current market clearings. Two types of VB, i.e., explicit and implicit, are investigated. The explicit VB by purely financial players can enhance temporal coordination, while the implicit one by phys-

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ical players (e.g., gas-fired power units) can improve sectoral coordination. Under the assumption of perfect competition, we formulate an equilibrium model including the deterministic market-clearing problems by the electricity and natural gas market operators in DA and RT stages as well as the self-scheduling problem by each virtual bidder who solves a stochastic program to maximize her expected profit. The resulting model is a generalized Nash equilibrium problem. With a fully stochastic co-optimization model as an ideal benchmark, we show in a case study the increase of market efficiency in terms of total system cost using VB, since flexible resources are dispatched more efficiently.

Keywords Electricity and natural gas markets · multi-energy system · generalized Nash equilibrium · operational flexibility · self-scheduling · virtual bidding.

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1 Introduction

High share of power production from stochastic renewable sources (e.g., wind and solar units) increases the need for operational flexibility to deal with their variability and uncertainty. By operational flexibility, we refer to the capability of a power system to modify its output or state in response to a change in renewable power production (Zhao et al., 2016). Natural gas-fired power plants are usually flexible units and compensate for the production variability and uncertainty caused by stochastic renewable sources (Gil et al., 2014). These gas-fired units operate at the interface of the electricity and the natural gas systems, yielding both physical and economic interactions. The natural gas system is crucial for ensuring fuel availability and technical feasibility, while it can also provide flexibility for power systems through stored gas in the pipelines (Ordoudis et al., 2019; Correa-Posada and Sánchez-Martín, 2015; Yang et al., 2018). An increasingly volatile dispatch of gas-fired power plants to offset wind intermittency introduces demand fluctuations and uncertainty into the gas market (Heinen et al., 2017; Dall’Anese et al., 2017; Nicholson and Quinn, 2019). The subsequent trend towards increasing volumes in gas trading in short-term spot markets like Gaspoint Nordic (Hibbard and Schatzki, 2012; Pinson et al., 2017) will become more important as natural gas demand profiles become more uncertain.

The current power markets are relied upon a *sequential* clearing of trading floors, e.g., day-ahead (DA) and real-time (RT), each with *deterministic*

description of uncertain supply. There is a similar sequential deterministic market design for natural gas systems. Despite the recent advances in forecasting tools, the deterministic forecast of renewable sources in DA can be erroneous, which may cause wrong unit commitment and dispatch decisions, resulting in market inefficiency, i.e., higher system cost. This challenge requires *temporal coordination* between DA and RT markets in both power and gas systems. In addition, by increasing the interaction of power and natural gas systems, *sectoral coordination* between power and natural gas markets is crucial (Meibom et al., 2013), though they are cleared separately and sequentially in most countries (Hibbard and Schatzki, 2012; Tabors et al., 2012).

The market-based mechanisms for improving both temporal and sectoral coordination of power and natural gas systems range from an extremely disruptive choice of designing a fully stochastic integrated energy market (Correa-Posada and Sánchez-Martín, 2015; Zlotnik et al., 2016) to less-disruptive solutions that preserve the current regulatory framework with separate and sequential clearing of markets. The latter (i.e., less disruptive market mechanisms) is the focus of this paper, while the former (i.e., the fully stochastic integrated energy market) is used as an *ideal benchmark* to assess the performance of the proposed mechanisms. The less-disruptive (or “soft”) market-based mechanisms for power and gas coordination can be realized for instance through more awareness and information exchange among the markets (Byeon and Van Hentenryck, 2019), introducing new market products (Chen et al., 2017; Warrington et al., 2013; Wang and Hobbs, 2016) and bidding formats (Liu et al., 2015; O’Connell et al., 2016), and allowing new market players.

In this paper, we explore the effect of *virtual bidding* (VB) (Hogan, 2016), also called “convergence bidding” (Li et al., 2015) in the literature, as a soft market-based mechanism for improving both temporal and sectoral coordination in power and natural gas systems. VB exists today in U.S. markets, and refers to the financial arbitrage between two trading floors in an energy market, e.g., between DA and RT electricity markets. The virtual bidder may earn profit due to price difference in DA and RT markets by performing arbitrage. This virtual bidder can be a purely financial player who has no physical asset (the so-called explicit VB), or she can be one of the existing physical market players (implicit VB), e.g., a generator, who does arbitrage between DA and RT markets by selling power in DA more than her capacity (Ise-monger, 2006; Mather et al., 2017). It is known today that VB can improve the market efficiency of two-settlement deterministic electricity markets by enhancing the temporal coordination (Kazempour and Hobbs, 2018; Morales and Pineda, 2017) thanks to increasing market liquidity and bringing additional information to the markets. Though this improved market efficiency may not be realized under some circumstances (Parsons et al., 2015) or may have some limits (Birge et al., 2018; Ito and Reguant, 2016), e.g., when virtual bidders behave strategically (Prete et al., 2019).

As the core contribution of this paper, we first extend the application of VB to natural gas markets, yielding temporal coordination between DA and RT natural gas markets. Then, we investigate the possibility of gas-fired

power plants who are at the interface of power and gas systems to behave as implicit virtual bidders. We underline the ability of these gas-fired power plants to submit virtual bids (by acting as self-scheduling units) to enhance both temporal and sectoral coordination between existing sequential power and gas markets.

Under the assumption of perfect competition, we formulate an equilibrium model including the deterministic market-clearing problems of the electricity and natural gas market operators in DA and RT stages as well as the self-scheduling problem by each virtual bidder (either explicit or implicit) who solves a stochastic program to maximize her expected profit. The resulting model is a generalized Nash equilibrium (GNE) problem, whose solution existence can be mathematically ensured under some assumptions. We also provide analytic insights for the comparison of the GNE problem and the ideal benchmark of the two-stage stochastic optimization problem of a fully integrated energy system.

The manuscript is organized as follows. In Section 2 we provide more details about temporal and sectoral market coordination, the concept of VB and our modeling assumptions. Sections 3 and 4 contain the mathematical formulations of the GNE model with explicit and implicit VB, respectively. The formulation of the ideal benchmark model is included in Section 5. In Section 6, we show the numerical results for a case study, and finally Section 7 concludes the paper. For clarity purposes, we stick to the generic representation of optimization problems throughout the paper, and include their detailed representations in the online appendix (Schwele et al., 2019b).

2 Preliminaries

This section first highlights the temporal and sectoral coordination of power and natural gas markets under uncertainty. Then, it further describes both types of VB (explicit and implicit). Finally, it summarizes the modeling assumptions made in this paper.

2.1 Two-dimensional Coordination: Temporal and Sectoral

The independent market operators clear each trading stage (DA and RT) separately and sequentially for electricity and natural gas markets. The current market-clearing framework for electricity and natural gas systems is illustrated in Fig. 1, including four market-clearing sequences. First, the electricity market is cleared in a day-ahead auction 12-36 hours before actual energy delivery using a deterministic forecast of uncertain parameters, e.g., renewable power generation and natural gas prices. Note that future natural gas prices directly impact the marginal production cost of gas-fired power plants and consequently the merit order in the electricity market. Second, the natural gas day-ahead market is cleared for given gas demand of gas-fired power plants

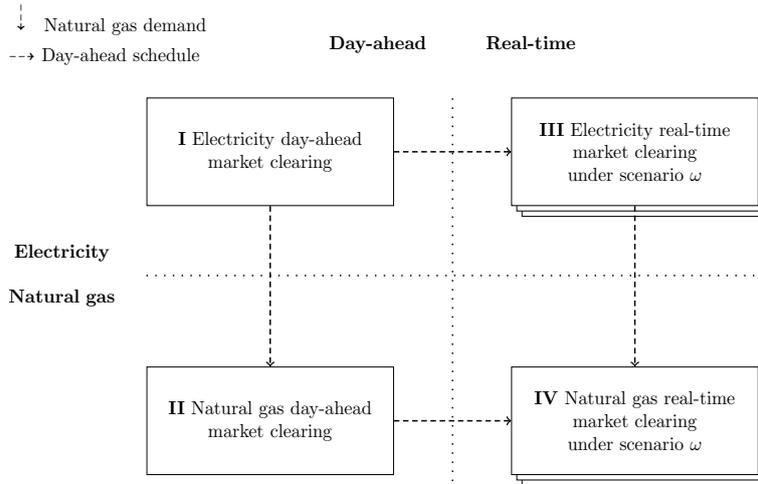


Fig. 1 Sequential setup of electricity and natural gas markets, including four market-clearing sequences I to IV.

109 determined by their dispatch in the electricity market. Third, once the un-
 110 certainty is realized (e.g., scenario ω occurs), the real-time electricity market
 111 is cleared to adjust imbalances under fixed day-ahead unit commitment and
 112 schedule decisions. Fourth, the natural gas market is cleared in real-time, while
 113 the dispatch of gas suppliers in DA and the demand of gas-fired power plants
 114 in RT are given.

115 The sequential setup in Fig. 1, even though aligned with current practice,
 116 is totally uncoordinated in both temporal and sectoral dimensions. This setup
 117 is temporally uncoordinated since both electricity and gas markets in DA are
 118 cleared based on the available deterministic forecast in that stage, without
 119 foresight into the potential scenarios that may realize in RT. It is also sectorally
 120 uncoordinated because the electricity market is cleared based on an
 121 estimation of natural gas price, and the gas market is cleared afterwards. As
 122 common in practice, note that operating reserve is able to potentially enhance
 123 the temporal coordination between DA and RT markets under renewables un-
 124 certainty, however it may bring extra inefficiencies if the value assigned for the
 125 minimum reserve requirement in DA market is not properly selected (Doherty
 126 and O'Malley, 2005; Papavasiliou et al., 2011). This can be a more challeng-
 127 ing issue in European markets, where energy and reserve markets are cleared
 128 sequentially (Dominguez et al., 2019). Note that the reserve market is not the
 129 focus of this paper.

130 While the share of stochastic renewable energy sources is growing, the lack
 131 of temporal and sectoral coordination in electricity and natural gas markets

causes increasing market inefficiency (i.e., higher system cost) by potentially making faulty DA decisions. In other words, flexible sources dispatched in DA wrongly might not be available in RT for coping imbalances, and thereby, more expensive actions (e.g., load curtailment) might be required. Therefore, it is desirable to dispatch the flexible sources in DA in an efficient manner while preserving the current sequential market-clearing framework. This requires soft market-based mechanisms for enhancing the temporal and sectoral coordination of power and natural gas markets, which is the focus of this paper.

2.2 Virtual Bidding

Virtual bidding is a purely financial instrument, existing in the U.S. electricity markets, e.g., CAISO, PJM, and MISO (Li et al., 2015; Hogan, 2016; Birge et al., 2018). It allows market players to profit from anticipated price differences between the DA and RT markets by performing arbitrage. We explain below both explicit and implicit VB (Isemonger, 2006; Mather et al., 2017).

An *explicit* virtual bidder is a purely financial player who does not own any physical asset, and thereby, her positions in DA and RT need to even out to zero. For example, an explicit virtual bidder may buy 10 MW in the DA electricity market in a specific hour at the DA market price in that hour, and then sells the same 10 MW back in the RT electricity market at the same hour but at the price of the RT market. Therefore, her payoff is equal to the difference between the DA and RT prices times the amount of virtually traded power. Assuming that this virtual bidder is a price-taker with perfect foresight into the distribution of DA and RT prices, she is supposed to enhance informational and productive efficiency of the two-settlement market by bringing more competitiveness, liquidity and transparency to wholesale energy markets. Fig. 2 illustrates how such an explicit VB is integrated into the two-settlement market-clearing setup. While DA and RT energy markets are cleared deterministically and sequentially, the explicit virtual bidder solves a stochastic program maximizing her expected profit. The outcomes of the stochastic program of virtual bidders, i.e., virtual trades, are exogenous in DA and RT markets. It is demonstrated in (Kazempour and Hobbs, 2018) that this setup can bring temporal coordination. This is an interesting insight for market operators since they can keep the market clearing deterministic, while leaving the correction of market inefficiency to virtual bidders. However, VB may not always work in such a desirable way, as discussed in (Birge et al., 2018; Parsons et al., 2015).

Unlike the explicit VB, the *implicit* virtual bidder is a physical market player, e.g., a gas-fired power plant who is at the interface of power and natural gas systems, as illustrated in Fig. 3. Virtual bidding gas-fired units can bring temporal and sectoral coordination. Though the presence of explicit VB may eliminate the motivation of physical players to perform arbitrage, physical players may still find *self-scheduling* profitable to forgo the market and

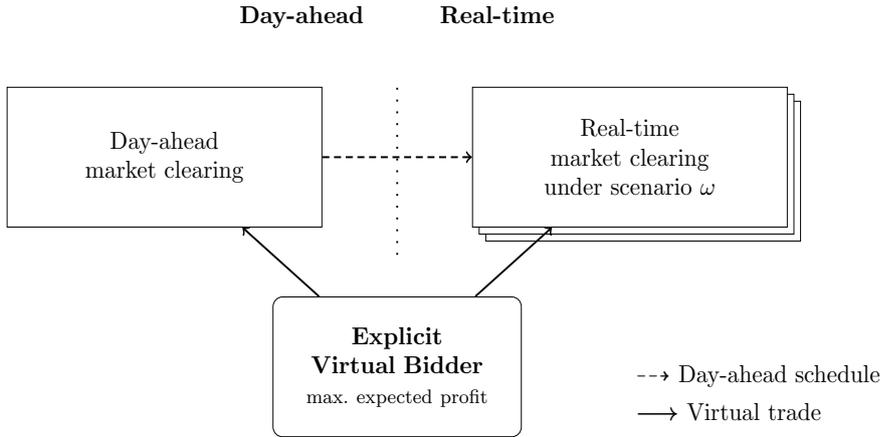


Fig. 2 Explicit virtual bidding by arbitraging electricity between the DA and RT electricity markets (or by arbitraging gas between DA and RT natural gas markets). This type of virtual bidding can enhance temporal coordination between DA and RT markets.

175 dispatch their productions/consumptions themselves outside the market. For
 176 example, assume a gas-fired power plant that has perfect foresight into future
 177 DA and RT power and gas prices, and realizes that her profit is not maxi-
 178 mized when she participates in the deterministic electricity and natural gas
 179 markets. In other words, she has the opportunity to gain a higher expected
 180 profit by self-scheduling outside the market (Sioshansi et al., 2010). Note that
 181 the power production and gas consumption of this unit are exogenous in the
 182 market-clearing problems, while she still pays/is paid based on the market-
 183 clearing prices (Jha and Wolak, 2015; Papavasiliou et al., 2015). An implicit
 184 virtual bidder may benefit from self-scheduling by solving her own stochastic
 185 program with better representation of uncertainty and technical constraints
 186 for a longer time horizon. However, these self-schedulers take on the full risk
 187 of RT price uncertainty. The influence of risk aversion and price volatility on
 188 the decision of generators to do self-scheduling is discussed in (Papavasiliou
 189 et al., 2015; Conejo et al., 2004).

190 2.3 Modeling Framework and Assumptions

191 The market-clearing problems in this paper are sequential and deterministic,
 192 while markets allow the participation of stochastic decision-makers who make
 193 their own dispatch decisions outside the market. Procurement of operating re-
 194 serves is not enforced and there are no reserve products in the markets. Wind
 195 power production is assumed as the only source of uncertainty. Note that the
 196 wind power forecast in DA is a single point (deterministic), however different
 197 scenarios may occur in RT, i.e., we are not sure about the actual outcome of

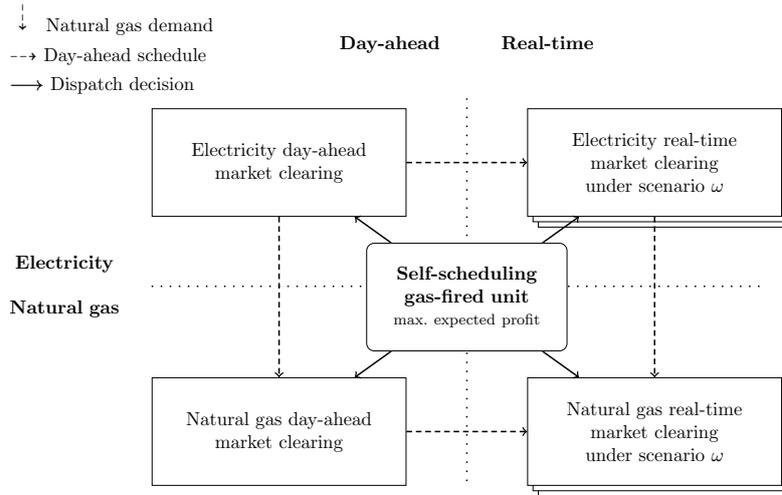


Fig. 3 Implicit virtual bidding by a gas-fired power plant, who is on the interface of electricity and gas systems, and self-schedules her power productions and gas consumptions in DA and RT electricity and natural gas markets. This type of virtual bidding can enhance temporal and sectoral coordination between DA and RT electricity and gas markets.

198 uncertain parameter. We consider two trading floors (DA and RT) only, and
 199 other potential floors, e.g., intra-day adjustment markets, are excluded. Wind
 200 power uncertainty is represented using a finite set of scenarios. The uncertain
 201 parameter is characterized accurately by proper modeling of a realistic range
 202 of potential outcomes and their probability distribution (in the form of sce-
 203 narios). The wind power production cost is zero, and can be spilled at zero
 204 cost. The linking parameters between the electricity and natural gas markets
 205 are natural gas spot price and fuel consumption of gas-fired power plants.
 206 Both electricity and natural gas demands are inelastic to price. All demand
 207 and supply in both energy sectors are assumed to be located at a single node,
 208 neglecting the transmission systems. Trading of natural gas takes place accord-
 209 ing to the entry-exit model (Vazquez and Hallack, 2015). On the power side, a
 210 multi-period unit commitment scheduling model is used. We relax the binary
 211 nature of commitment status of conventional generators to lie within zero and
 212 one, but in a tight manner (Hua and Baldick, 2017). This relaxation ensures
 213 convexity, which is required to solve the equilibrium model as a mixed com-
 214 plementarity problem. The consequences of this kind of relaxation on pricing
 215 are discussed in (Chao, 2019). The production cost of generators is assumed to
 216 be a linear function. We assume all markets players including virtual bidders
 217 (either explicit or implicit) to act competitively, non-strategically, and in a

218 risk-neutral manner when participating in the markets, so they offer at prices
 219 identical to their marginal costs.

220 **Notation:** We denote by \mathbb{R} real numbers and by \mathbb{R}_+ non-negative real
 221 numbers. We use upper case letters for matrices and lower case letters for
 222 vectors where e is the vector of ones. Bold lower case letters denote vectors of
 223 variables. Note that $(\cdot)^\top$ is the transpose operator. Hereafter, we use functions
 224 $h(\cdot)$ and $g(\cdot)$ to show equality and inequality constraints in every optimization
 225 problem, but note that these constraints for different optimization problems
 226 are not necessarily the same.

227 3 Temporal Coordination

228 In this section, we first explore temporal coordination between electricity DA
 229 and RT markets via explicit VB. We then argue such a coordination in DA
 230 and RT natural gas markets. Note that this section ignores self-scheduling
 231 (implicit VB) which brings sectoral coordination – it will be discussed later in
 232 Section 4.

233 3.1 Temporal Coordination Between DA and RT Electricity Markets

234 We present below the optimization problems for explicit electricity virtual
 235 bidder, DA electricity market and RT electricity market, which construct an
 236 equilibrium problem together.

237 3.1.1 Explicit Electricity Virtual Bidder

The expected profit-maximization problem of each explicit electricity virtual
 bidder $r \in \mathcal{R}$ over the time horizon \mathcal{T} writes as

$$\left\{ \max_{\mathbf{v}_r^E, \Delta \mathbf{v}_r^E} \boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA}, E \top} \mathbf{v}_r^E + \left(\sum_{\omega} \pi_{\omega} \boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\omega}^{\text{RT}, E} \right)^{\top} \Delta \mathbf{v}_r^E \quad (1a) \right.$$

$$\left. \text{subject to } \mathbf{v}_r^E + \Delta \mathbf{v}_r^E = 0 \right\} \forall r, \quad (1b)$$

238 i.e., as a linear stochastic program. The virtual bidder decides her DA position
 239 $\mathbf{v}_r^E \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{T}}$ in the electricity markets given the DA electricity prices $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA}, E} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{T}}$
 240 as well as the distribution of RT electricity prices $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\omega}^{\text{RT}, E} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{T}} \forall \omega$ weighted
 241 by probability π_{ω} over the set of scenarios $\omega \in \Omega$. This virtual bidder is a
 242 purely financial player without physical assets, and therefore is obliged to off-
 243 set her DA position by her RT position $\Delta \mathbf{v}_r^E \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{T}}$ in each scenario. Objective
 244 function (1a) maximizes the expected profit of explicit virtual bidder who arbi-
 245 trages between the DA and RT electricity markets. Equation (1b) ensures that
 246 the virtual bidder sells (buys) the same amount back in the RT market that
 247 was bought (sold) in the DA market. One important observation about these

248 explicit virtual bidders is that they yield the convergence of DA and expected
 249 RT electricity prices (Kazempour and Hobbs, 2018). Derived from optimality
 250 conditions of (1), the virtual bidder enforces the DA and the expected RT
 251 electricity prices to be equal, i.e., $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA,E}} = \sum_{\omega} \pi_{\omega} \boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\omega}^{\text{RT,E}}$ (see online appendix
 252 (Schwele et al., 2019b)). Note that the market operators treat the dispatch
 253 decision of the virtual bidders as fixed input into the market clearing problem
 254 presented in the following section.

255 3.1.2 DA Electricity Market

Consider \mathcal{G} gas-fired generators and \mathcal{C} non gas-fired generators, such that $\mathcal{G} \cup \mathcal{C} = \mathcal{I}$. Besides, consider \mathcal{J} wind power units. For given production cost of non gas-fired generators $\mathbf{C}^{\text{E}} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{\mathcal{C}}$, estimation of natural gas prices $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}^{\text{G}} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{T}}$ to compute the production cost $C(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}^{\text{G}}) \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{T}}$ for gas-fired generators, and fixed dispatch of virtual bidders \mathbf{v}_r^{E} obtained from (1), the electricity market operator clears the market in DA to minimize system costs as

$$\min_{\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{w}} e^{\top} \mathbf{p}^{\text{C}} \mathbf{C}^{\text{E}} + e^{\top} \mathbf{p}^{\text{G}} C(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}^{\text{G}}) e + e^{\top} \mathbf{s} e \quad (2a)$$

$$\text{subject to } h(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v}_r^{\text{E}}) = 0 : \boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA,E}}, \quad (2b)$$

$$g(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{s}) \leq 0, \quad (2c)$$

256 where (2) is a deterministic linear program, and variables $\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{\mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{I}}$ are
 257 the dispatch, commitment status, and start-up cost of conventional generators
 258 in DA, respectively. Note that $\mathbf{p}^{\text{C}} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{\mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{C}}$ and $\mathbf{p}^{\text{G}} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{\mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{G}}$. The commitment
 259 status \mathbf{u} is relaxed to lie within zero and one. These variables associated with
 260 gas-fired and non gas-fired generators are specified by superscripts G and C,
 261 respectively. Besides, $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{\mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{J}}$ refers to the DA dispatch of wind farms,
 262 which is limited by the available deterministic wind power forecast in DA.

263 Objective function (2a) minimizes the total system cost in DA stemming
 264 from the operational and start-up costs of conventional generators. Equality
 265 constraint (2b) enforces the balance between power production and consump-
 266 tion in DA with inelastic demand treating the virtual DA positions \mathbf{v}_r^{E} as given
 267 inputs. The dual variable associated with power balance (2b), i.e., $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA,E}} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{T}}$,
 268 provides the DA electricity price. Recall that this vector of dual variables was
 269 treated as exogenous values in the problem of virtual bidders (1). Inequal-
 270 ity constraints (2c) enforce lower and upper bounds on the DA dispatch of
 271 wind and conventional generation, impose ramping limits of conventional gen-
 272 erators, represent the tight relaxation of unit commitment, and compute the
 273 start-up cost of each generator. The detailed representation of all equality and
 274 inequality constraints is given in the online appendix (Schwele et al., 2019b).

275 3.1.3 RT Electricity Market

The actual wind power production is realized in RT, which might not be nec-
 essarily identical to the deterministic wind power forecast in DA. Therefore,

the electricity market operator clears the RT market to make the necessary adjustments in order to keep the system balanced. The balancing actions are the power adjustment of generators and the two extreme actions, i.e., wind spillage and load shedding. The (relaxed) commitment status of fast-starting conventional generators $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{I}$ and therefore their start-up cost can be updated in RT, while that is not the case for the slow-starting generators $\mathcal{S} \subset \mathcal{I}$. Note that $\mathcal{F} \cup \mathcal{S} = \mathcal{I}$. For given production costs of non gas-fired and gas-fired generators $\mathbf{C}^E \in \mathbb{R}_+^{\mathcal{C}}$ and $C(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}^G) \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{T}}$, load shedding cost $\mathbf{C}^{\text{sh},E} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{\mathcal{T}}$, fixed dispatch of explicit virtual bidders $\Delta \mathbf{v}_r^E$ achieved from (1) and fixed DA electricity market-clearing outcomes \mathbf{p} and \mathbf{u} obtained from (2), the RT electricity market clearing under scenario $\omega \in \Omega$ writes as

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \min_{\substack{\Delta \mathbf{p}_\omega, \Delta \mathbf{u}_\omega, \Delta \mathbf{s}_\omega, \\ \Delta \mathbf{w}_\omega, \Delta \mathbf{d}_\omega^E}} e^\top \Delta \mathbf{p}_\omega^{\mathcal{C}} \mathbf{C}^E + e^\top \Delta \mathbf{p}_\omega^{\mathcal{G}} C(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}^G) e + e^\top \Delta \mathbf{s}_\omega e + \mathbf{C}^{\text{sh},E \top} \Delta \mathbf{d}_\omega^E \end{array} \right. \quad (3a)$$

$$\text{subject to } h(\Delta \mathbf{p}_\omega, \Delta \mathbf{w}_\omega, \Delta \mathbf{d}_\omega^E, \Delta \mathbf{v}_r^E) = 0 : \boldsymbol{\lambda}_\omega^{\text{RT},E}, \quad (3b)$$

$$g(\Delta \mathbf{p}_\omega, \Delta \mathbf{w}_\omega, \Delta \mathbf{d}_\omega^E, \Delta \mathbf{u}_\omega, \Delta \mathbf{s}_\omega, \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{u}) \leq 0, \quad \left. \right\} \forall \omega, \quad (3c)$$

276 where (3), one per scenario, is a deterministic linear program. We denote
 277 $\Delta \mathbf{p}_\omega \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{I}}$ the power adjustment of conventional generators while by
 278 $\Delta \mathbf{u}_\omega \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{F}}$ and $\Delta \mathbf{s}_\omega \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{F}}$ we denote the adjusted relaxed commit-
 279 ment decision and the adjusted start-up cost of fast-starting units. Also, wind
 280 spillage and load shedding actions are denoted as $\Delta \mathbf{w}_\omega \in \mathbb{R}_+^{\mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{J}}$ and $\Delta \mathbf{d}_\omega^E \in$
 281 $\mathbb{R}_+^{\mathcal{T}}$, respectively.

282 Objective function (3a) minimizes balancing costs for underlying scenario
 283 ω . Equality constraint (3b) balances the wind power deviations in RT from the
 284 DA schedule with the position of virtual bidders $\Delta \mathbf{v}_r^E$ as fixed input. The dual
 285 variable vector $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_\omega^{\text{RT},E} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{T}}$ represents the RT electricity prices under scenario
 286 ω . Recall that this vector was exogenous in the problem of virtual bidders
 287 (1). Inequality constraints (3c) enforce lower and upper bounds on the load
 288 shedding and power adjustment of wind farms, conventional slow- and fast-
 289 starting generators, restrict the ramp-rate limits of generators, enforce the
 290 adjusted unit commitment, and calculate the start-up cost for fast-starting
 291 units.

292 3.2 Temporal Coordination within DA and RT Natural Gas Markets

293 Similar to Section 3.1, we present here the optimization problems for explicit
 294 natural gas virtual bidder, and DA and RT natural gas markets, which define
 295 an equilibrium problem together.

3.2.1 Explicit Natural Gas Virtual Bidder

Similarly to the electricity VB, the profit-maximization problem of each explicit natural gas virtual bidder $q \in \mathcal{Q}$ participating in the natural gas DA and RT markets is given as

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \max_{\mathbf{v}_q^G, \Delta \mathbf{v}_q^G} \boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA,G}} \top \mathbf{v}_q^G + \left(\sum_{\omega} \pi_{\omega} \boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\omega}^{\text{RT,G}} \right)^{\top} \Delta \mathbf{v}_q^G \\ \text{subject to } \mathbf{v}_q^G + \Delta \mathbf{v}_q^G = 0 \end{array} \right\} \forall q. \quad (4a)$$

$$\quad \quad \quad (4b)$$

For given DA and RT natural gas market prices $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA,G}} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{T}}$ and $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\omega}^{\text{RT,G}} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{T}} \forall \omega$, the virtual bidder solves stochastic linear program (4), deciding her positions in DA, i.e., $\mathbf{v}_q^G \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{T}}$ and in RT, i.e., $\Delta \mathbf{v}_q^G \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{T}}$, to maximize her expected profit stemming from the price differences of the two settlements. Recall that we assume that the virtual bidder has a perfect foresight into future DA and distribution of RT prices over scenarios. Equality constraint (4b) zeros out the DA and RT trades of the explicit virtual bidder. As an important observation, this explicit virtual bidder enforces the DA and the expected natural gas prices to be equal. This observation can be derived by the KKT optimality conditions of (4) similar to explicit electricity VB.

3.2.2 DA Natural Gas Market

For given scheduled gas consumption of gas-fired generators as a function of \mathbf{p}^G obtained from the DA electricity market (2) and the DA trade of virtual bidders \mathbf{v}_q^G determined in (4), the natural gas market operator clears the DA market with \mathcal{K} gas suppliers as

$$\min_{\mathbf{g}} e^{\top} \mathbf{C}^G \mathbf{g} e \quad (5a)$$

$$\text{subject to } h(\mathbf{g}, \mathbf{p}^G, \mathbf{v}_q^G) = 0 : \boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA,G}} \quad (5b)$$

$$g(\mathbf{g}) \leq 0, \quad (5c)$$

where (5) is a deterministic linear program, and parameters $\mathbf{C}^G \in \mathbb{R}_+^{\mathcal{K}}$ represent the supply cost of gas suppliers, and variables $\mathbf{g} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{\mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{K}}$ are the DA schedule of those suppliers. Objective function (5a) minimizes the total gas supply cost. Equality constraint (5b) represents the DA natural gas supply balance with inelastic demand including given gas demand for power production and virtual trade \mathbf{v}_q^G . The ‘‘actual’’ natural gas prices are derived through dual variables $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA,G}} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{T}}$, which are not necessarily identical to the estimated prices $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}^G$ used in the electricity market-clearing problems (2) and (3). Constraint (5c) enforces the lower and upper bounds on the gas supply.

320 *3.2.3 RT Natural Gas Market*

The natural gas operator clears the RT natural gas market to offset the change in fuel consumption of gas-fired generators $\Delta \mathbf{p}_\omega^G$ occurred under scenario ω . This deterministic linear problem writes as

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \min_{\Delta \mathbf{g}_\omega, \Delta \mathbf{d}_\omega^G} e^\top \mathbf{C}^G \Delta \mathbf{g}_\omega e + \mathbf{C}^{\text{sh},G^\top} \Delta \mathbf{d}_\omega^G \end{array} \right. \quad (6a)$$

$$\text{subject to } h(\Delta \mathbf{g}_\omega, \Delta \mathbf{p}_\omega^G, \Delta \mathbf{d}_\omega^G, \Delta \mathbf{v}_q^G) = 0 : \lambda_\omega^{\text{RT},G} \quad (6b)$$

$$g(\Delta \mathbf{g}_\omega, \Delta \mathbf{d}_\omega^G, \mathbf{g}) \leq 0 \quad \left. \vphantom{g} \right\} \forall \omega, \quad (6c)$$

321 where objective function (6a) minimizes the balancing costs. The first balancing
 322 action is gas supply adjustment $\Delta \mathbf{g}_\omega \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{K}}$ whose cost is $\mathbf{C}^G \in \mathbb{R}_+^{\mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{T}}$.
 323 The second but extreme balancing action is the natural gas load shedding
 324 $\Delta \mathbf{d}_\omega^G \in \mathbb{R}_+^{\mathcal{T}}$ at the comparatively high cost of $\mathbf{C}^{\text{sh},G} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{\mathcal{T}}$. Equality con-
 325 straint (6b) balances the gas supply adjustments in RT. The actual natural
 326 gas RT prices under scenario ω are the vector of dual variables $\lambda_\omega^{\text{RT},G} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{T}}$.
 327 Constraints (6c) enforce the lower and upper bounds on gas supply, gas ad-
 328 justments and gas load shedding.

329 *3.3 Analysis of Equilibrium Problems*

330 To achieve temporal coordination in the models in Sections 3.1 and 3.2, the
 331 inclusion of explicit virtual bidders with perfect foresight into DA and distri-
 332 bution of RT prices over scenarios requires solving the DA and RT market-
 333 clearing optimization problems together. However, the virtual bidders do not
 334 link the electricity and natural gas markets – they will be linked later in Sec-
 335 tion 4 with implicit VB. So far, we can identify the following two equilibrium
 336 problems for each sector: (1) $\forall r$, (2), and (3) $\forall \omega$ represent the equilibrium of
 337 electricity markets and (4) $\forall q$, (5), and (6) $\forall \omega$ of natural gas markets.

338 Note that these two equilibrium problems should be solved sequentially,
 339 i.e., one should first solve (1)-(3), and then for given gas demands, (4)-(6) can
 340 be solved.

341 *Remark 1* Each linear optimization problem (2), (3), (5), and (6) can be equiv-
 342 alently reformulated as a pure Nash equilibrium problem of profit maximizing
 343 price-taking agents in a perfectly competitive market.

344 The Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (KKT) optimality conditions of each optimiza-
 345 tion problem (2), (3), (5), and (6) and pure Nash equilibrium problem are
 346 identical – See Appendix A for more details. As explained in Remark 1 and
 347 illustrated in Appendix A, each optimization problem (2), (3), (5), and (6) can
 348 be replaced by a set of optimization problems that constitute the correspond-
 349 ing Nash equilibrium problem. However, solving these problems simultaneously

350 as the equilibrium problems (1)-(3) and (4)-(6) leads to coupled strategy sets
 351 and destroys integrability of the equilibrium (Facchinei and Pang, 2007).

352 *Remark 2* The two equilibrium problems (1) $\forall r$, (2), and (3) $\forall \omega$, and (4) $\forall q$,
 353 (5), and (6) $\forall \omega$ are Generalized Nash Equilibrium (GNE) problems.

354 The feasible set of players depends on the decision of the other players.
 355 For example, decisions of virtual bidders in (1), i.e., \mathbf{v}_r^E and $\Delta \mathbf{v}_r^E$, appear
 356 within the power balance constraints in (2) and (3). Replacing (2) and (3)
 357 with their equivalent Nash equilibrium problems will not change the GNE
 358 nature of the overall problem, as the DA power schedule of generators affects
 359 the feasible set of those generators in their RT problem. This is a challenging
 360 issue, because a GNE problem is formulated as a quasi-variational inequality
 361 (QVI), which is hard to solve and generally admits multiple (or even infinite)
 362 solutions that arise from coupling constraints (Facchinei and Kanzow, 2007).
 363 References (Facchinei and Kanzow, 2007; Harker and Pang, 1990; Harker, 1991;
 364 Schiro et al., 2013; Kulkarni and Shanbhag, 2012) explore a specific class of
 365 GNE problems with *shared constraints*. However, the coupling constraints in
 366 our proposed equilibrium problems, i.e., (1)-(3), and (4)-(6), are not shared
 367 constraints.

368 *Remark 3* Existence of a solution to the GNE problems can be mathematically
 369 proven using (Harker, 1991, Theorem 1) and (Harker, 1991, Theorem 2) when
 370 the feasible set of every agent in the GNE is non-empty, convex and compact.
 371 In our case, this condition will be fulfilled only if we assume bounds on market
 372 prices (i.e., by imposing price floors and caps) and bounds on virtual trades
 373 (e.g., by imposing a budget constraint for each virtual bidder). The investi-
 374 gation of solution uniqueness for these GNE problems is not straightforward
 375 (Harker, 1991).

376 4 Sectoral and Temporal Coordination

377 In the previous section, we described two equilibrium models (one for the
 378 electricity and another for the natural gas sector) with explicit VB for temporal
 379 coordination only. For improving the sectoral coordination between electricity
 380 and natural gas markets, this section extends the model in Section 3 and allows
 381 natural gas-fired generators to act as implicit virtual bidders. In other words,
 382 they are allowed to self-schedule outside the markets to optimally allocate
 383 their operational flexibility in the power market and their fuel consumption
 384 in the natural gas market. Each self-scheduler (i.e., implicit virtual bidder)
 385 maximizes her own expected profit. Similar to the explicit virtual bidders, we
 386 assume that each self-scheduler has a perfect foresight into DA and distribution
 387 of RT prices over scenarios in both electricity and natural gas markets. Note
 388 that having these self-schedulers in the model link the power and natural gas
 389 markets, so that a single equilibrium model is required to solve both electricity
 390 and natural gas markets.

391 We consider both slow- and fast-starting types of gas-fired generators as
 392 potential self-schedulers. The difference between these two types of generators
 393 is that the slow-starting gas-fired units fix their unit commitment status in
 394 DA and cannot change it in the RT, while the fast-start units can.

The expected-profit maximization problem of each self-scheduling slow-starting gas-fired unit $\mathcal{G} \cap \mathcal{S}$ participating in both electricity and natural gas markets is

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{s}, \Delta \mathbf{p}_\omega} & (\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA}, \text{E}} - C(\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA}, \text{G}}))^\top \mathbf{p} - e^\top \mathbf{s} \\ & + \sum_{\omega} \pi_{\omega} \left[(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\omega}^{\text{RT}, \text{E}} - C(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\omega}^{\text{RT}, \text{G}})) \right]^\top \Delta \mathbf{p}_{\omega} \end{aligned} \quad (7a)$$

$$\text{subject to } g(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{s}) \leq 0 : \boldsymbol{\mu}, \quad (7b)$$

$$g(\Delta \mathbf{p}_{\omega}, \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{u}) \leq 0 : \boldsymbol{\nu}_{\omega}, \quad \forall \omega, \quad (7c)$$

395 where (7) is a two-stage stochastic linear program, whose objective function
 396 (7a) maximizes the expected profit of self-scheduling gas-fired generators. Note
 397 that this objective function includes the actual DA and RT gas prices $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA}, \text{G}}$
 398 and $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\omega}^{\text{RT}, \text{G}}$ from models (5) and (6), and not the estimated gas price $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}^{\text{G}}$. This
 399 problem is subject to the DA (7b) and RT operational constraints (7c), so that
 400 the final production of gas-fired units in RT have to lie within their feasible
 401 operational limits.

Similarly, each fast-start self-scheduling gas-fired unit $\mathcal{G} \cap \mathcal{F}$ solves a two-stage stochastic linear program to maximize her expected profit as

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\substack{\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{s}, \Delta \mathbf{p}_{\omega}, \\ \Delta \mathbf{u}_{\omega}, \Delta \mathbf{s}_{\omega}}} & (\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA}, \text{E}} - C(\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA}, \text{G}}))^\top \mathbf{p} - e^\top \mathbf{s} \\ & + \sum_{\omega} \pi_{\omega} \left[(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\omega}^{\text{RT}, \text{E}} - C(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\omega}^{\text{RT}, \text{G}})) \right]^\top \Delta \mathbf{p}_{\omega} + e^\top \Delta \mathbf{s}_{\omega} \end{aligned} \quad (8a)$$

$$\text{subject to } g(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{s}) \leq 0 : \boldsymbol{\mu}, \quad (8b)$$

$$g(\Delta \mathbf{p}_{\omega}, \Delta \mathbf{u}_{\omega}, \Delta \mathbf{s}_{\omega}, \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{u}) \leq 0 : \boldsymbol{\nu}_{\omega}, \quad \forall \omega. \quad (8c)$$

402 The resulting GNE problem is (2), (3) $\forall \omega$, (5), (6) $\forall \omega$, (7) and (8). Note
 403 that in this equilibrium problem, the decisions of self-schedulers \mathbf{p} , and $\Delta \mathbf{p}_{\omega}$
 404 in (7) and (8) are exogenous values within the market-clearing problems (2),
 405 (3), (5) and (6).

406 *Remark 4* In a case including both implicit and explicit VB, if the dispatch
 407 of self-schedulers in DA is restricted by constraint (7b) or (8b), then the equi-
 408 librium problem will be feasible only and only if such DA constraints are
 409 inactive. Any non-zero dual variable corresponding to the DA constraints of
 410 self-schedulers will make the equilibrium problem infeasible.

411 **Proposition 1** *Self-scheduling in (7) and (8) respecting both DA and RT*
 412 *operational constraints and explicit VB according to (1) and (4) are mutually*
 413 *exclusive, i.e. cannot coincide or exist together.*

414 *Proof.* The KKT optimality conditions of the problem of each virtual bidder
 415 (1) and (4) enforce DA and expected RT prices to be equal, i.e., $\lambda^{\text{DA,E}} =$
 416 $\sum_{\omega} \pi_{\omega} \lambda_{\omega}^{\text{RT,E}}$ and $\lambda^{\text{DA,G}} = \sum_{\omega} \pi_{\omega} \lambda_{\omega}^{\text{RT,G}}$. The KKT optimality conditions of
 417 each self-scheduler if her DA dispatch is restricted enforce $C(\lambda^{\text{DA,G}}) - \lambda^{\text{DA,E}} +$
 418 $\mu + \sum_{\omega} \nu_{\omega} = 0$ and $C(\lambda_{\omega}^{\text{RT,G}}) - \lambda_{\omega}^{\text{RT,E}} + \nu_{\omega} = 0, \forall \omega$. Then these KKTs enforce
 419 that $\lambda^{\text{DA,E}} + \mu = \sum_{\omega} \lambda_{\omega}^{\text{RT,E}}$, so that if both explicit virtual bidders and self-
 420 schedulers are included at the same time, the problem is feasible only if $\mu = 0$,
 421 which means that DA constraints of self-schedulers are inactive (see online
 422 appendix (Schwele et al., 2019b)). \square

423 Including explicit and implicit VB requires solving (1)-(8) as a GNE prob-
 424 lem neglecting the operational bounds of self-schedulers in DA (7b) and (8b).
 425 Thus, self-schedulers can submit physical and virtual bids as long as their po-
 426 sitions in RT adhere to their feasible operational limits, thus acting as implicit
 427 virtual bidders and not as self-schedulers.

428 5 Ideal Benchmark

We compare the proposed “soft” market-based mechanisms for power and gas
 coordination with new market players including explicit and implicit virtual
 bidders to the ideal benchmark of a fully stochastic integrated energy mar-
 ket clearing. This ideal benchmark is indeed a disruptive solution to achieve
 a full temporal and sectoral coordination, which ignores the current market
 sequences. It is a single two-stage (DA and RT) stochastic linear optimiza-
 tion problem, including both power and natural gas systems. Assuming that
 the given set of scenarios represents well the probability distribution of uncer-
 tainty, the stochastic market clearing efficiently makes informed DA decisions
 by anticipating the potential recourse actions in RT (Pritchard et al., 2010).
 In this benchmark, the integrated power and gas system is co-optimized un-
 der complete exchange of operational information. This two-stage stochastic
 program aiming to minimize the total expected system cost writes as

$$\min_{\substack{\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{g}, \Delta \mathbf{p}_{\omega}, \\ \Delta \mathbf{u}_{\omega}, \Delta \mathbf{s}_{\omega}, \Delta \mathbf{w}_{\omega}, \\ \Delta \mathbf{d}_{\omega}^{\text{E}}, \Delta \mathbf{g}_{\omega}, \Delta \mathbf{d}_{\omega}^{\text{G}}}} e^{\top} \mathbf{p}^{\text{C}} \mathbf{C}^{\text{E}} + e^{\top} \mathbf{s} e + e^{\top} \mathbf{C}^{\text{G}} \mathbf{g} e + \sum_{\omega} \pi_{\omega} \left(e^{\top} \Delta \mathbf{p}_{\omega} \mathbf{C}^{\text{E}} + e^{\top} \Delta \mathbf{s}_{\omega} e \right. \\ \left. + \mathbf{C}^{\text{sh,E}\top} \Delta \mathbf{d}_{\omega}^{\text{E}} + e^{\top} \mathbf{C}^{\text{G}} \Delta \mathbf{g}_{\omega} e + \mathbf{C}^{\text{sh,G}\top} \Delta \mathbf{d}_{\omega}^{\text{G}} \right) \quad (9\text{a})$$

$$\text{subject to (2b), (2c), (5b), (5c),} \quad (9\text{b})$$

$$(3\text{b}), (3\text{c}), (6\text{b}), (6\text{c}), \quad \forall \omega. \quad (9\text{c})$$

429 Objective function (9a) minimizes the total DA system cost for power pro-
 430 duction and gas supply as well as the expected RT balancing costs in both
 431 sectors, while respecting the operational constraints in DA (9b) and in RT
 432 (9c) for each scenario. The stochastic optimization problem (9) can be equiva-
 433 lently reformulated as a pure Nash equilibrium problem, in which each market
 434 player is a stochastic decision-maker, who maximizes her expected profit with

435 respect to DA and RT operational constraints with perfect information re-
 436 garding prices and uncertainty about both sectors.

437 *Remark 5* The GNE problem (1)-(8) defined in Section 4 including explicit
 438 and implicit VB is not necessarily equal to the ideal benchmark (9), since
 439 their KKTs are different.

440 Recall that the GNE problem enforces convergence of DA and expected
 441 RT prices in both power and gas sectors through the optimality conditions of
 442 explicit virtual bidders. On contrary, in the stochastic market clearing problem
 443 (9), the DA and RT prices converge in expectation *only if* all DA operational
 444 inequalities are non-binding, i.e., every market player acts as an unrestrained
 445 arbitrager between DA and RT markets. This can be easily explored by check-
 446 ing the KKT optimality conditions of (9).

447 The co-optimization of power and gas system correctly accounts for the
 448 impact of natural gas prices on the electricity merit order, i.e., placing the
 449 power plants with an ascending order of marginal costs. Allowing all gas-fired
 450 units to self-schedule in the sequential setup with perfect knowledge over both
 451 gas and electricity prices approximates system integration. This is further
 452 explored in the following proposition.

453 **Proposition 2** *If DA operational bounds on $\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{g}$ in the stochastic opti-*
 454 *mization problem (9) are non-binding, the DA and the RT prices converge in*
 455 *expectation (i.e., $\lambda^{E,DA} = \sum_{\omega} \pi_{\omega} \lambda_{\omega}^{E,RT}$ and $\lambda^{G,DA} = \sum_{\omega} \pi_{\omega} \lambda_{\omega}^{G,RT}$) and the*
 456 *outcomes of (9) are equal to the GNE problem (1)-(8) when all gas-fired units*
 457 *are implicit virtual bidders.*

458 *Proof.* This is proven by demonstrating that the KKT optimality conditions
 459 of the two problems above under the conditions mentioned are identical – See
 460 online appendix (Schwele et al., 2019b) for more details. \square

461 Table 1 summarizes all models introduced. Note that while sequential and
 462 ideal benchmark can be solved as linear programs (LP), all other models are
 463 recast as mixed complementarity problems (MCP) by collecting the KKT con-
 464 ditions of the respective optimization models.

465 6 Numerical Results

466 This section provides a case study to analyze and compare the proposed market
 467 setups presented in Sections 3, 4 and 5, which are summarized in Table 1.
 468 We solve all models using an Intel Core™ i7-7820HQ with four processors
 469 clocking at 2.70 GHz and 16 GB of RAM in GAMS using PATH and CPLEX
 470 solver for MCP and LP models, respectively. The CPU time for LP models is
 471 below 1 second, while that time for different MCPs varies between 1 and 500
 472 seconds. See online appendix (Schwele et al., 2019b) for further details.

Market setup	Name	Model	Optimization	Equilibrium	Model type
Sequential	<i>Seq</i>	(2)	✓	—*	LP
		(5)	✓	—*	LP
		(3) $\forall \omega$	✓	—*	LPs
		(6) $\forall \omega$	✓	—*	LPs
Sequential with explicit virtual bidding	<i>Seq+eVB</i>	(1) $\forall r$, (2), (3) $\forall \omega$	—	GNE	MCP
		(4) $\forall q$, (5), (6) $\forall \omega$	—	GNE	MCP
Sequential with self-scheduling	<i>Seq+SS</i>	(2), (3) $\forall \omega$, (5), (6) $\forall \omega$, (7), (8)	—	GNE	MCP
Sequential with both explicit and implicit virtual bidding	<i>Seq+VB</i>	(1) $\forall r$, (2), (3) $\forall \omega$, (4) $\forall q$, (5), (6) $\forall \omega$, (7a), (7c), (8a), (8c)	—	GNE	MCP
Ideal benchmark	<i>Ideal</i>	(9)	✓	—*	LP

Table 1 Summary of market setup models.

*There exists a pure Nash equilibrium (NE) which is equivalent to the optimization problem, see Appendix A.

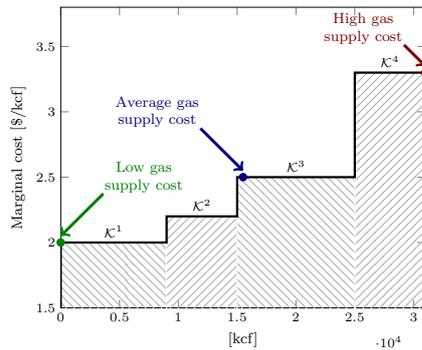


Fig. 4 Natural gas supply function

473 6.1 Input Data

474 This case study contains a power system with 6 non gas-fired generators
475 (namely, \mathcal{C}^1 to \mathcal{C}^6) and 4 gas-fired generators (namely, \mathcal{G}^1 to \mathcal{G}^4). These gas-
476 fired generators connect the power system to a natural gas system with four
477 gas suppliers, namely \mathcal{K}^1 to \mathcal{K}^4 . We consider a 24-hour time horizon. All tech-
478 nical details of generators and gas suppliers are provided in Appendix B. The
479 natural gas supply curve is shown in Fig. 4, which is the same throughout all
480 24 hours. Fig. 5 illustrates the shifting of the electricity merit order curve due
481 to a potential change in the natural gas price. The reason for this shift is that
482 the gas price affects the marginal production cost of the gas-fired generators.
483 Since in both DA and RT stages, the electricity market is cleared before the
484 natural gas market, the electricity market operator needs an estimation of the
485 gas price. In the following, we assume that the electricity market operator
486 uses the average gas supply cost, i.e., \$2.5/kcf, as a deterministic and static
487 estimation of the natural gas prices in both DA and RT. The value of lost load
488 in the electricity and natural gas sectors are set to \$600/MWh and \$100/kcf,
489 respectively.

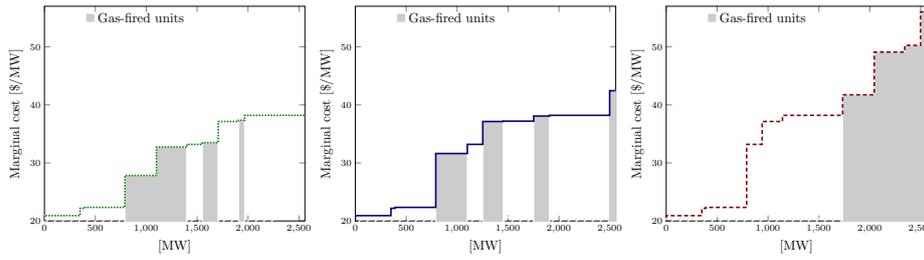


Fig. 5 Electricity merit order depending on natural gas price. The plots on the left-hand, middle, and right-hand sides show the merit order corresponding to the low, average and high prices for natural gas (as illustrated in Fig. 4), respectively.

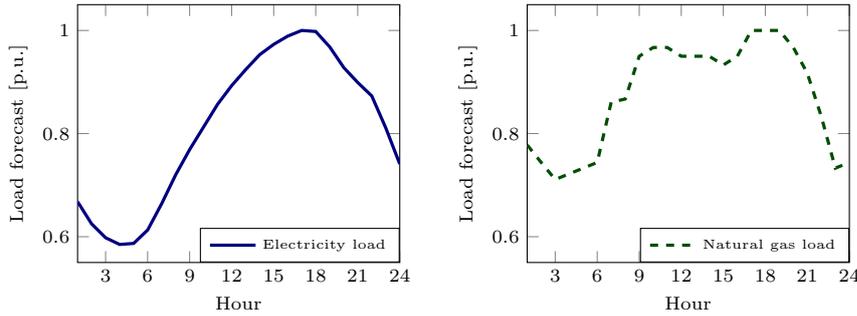


Fig. 6 Electricity and natural gas demand. The plots on the left- and right-hand sides show the total hourly demand for power and natural gas, respectively.

490 The total hourly demand in both power and natural gas sectors is shown in
 491 Fig. 6. Note that the demand in both sectors is certain, and the only source of
 492 uncertainty is assumed to be the wind power. The profile of deterministic wind
 493 power forecast (in per-unit) in DA is illustrated by a solid curve in the upper
 494 plot of Fig. 7, while the lower plot provides the five equiprobable wind scenarios
 495 that may realize in RT. Due to potential forecast error in DA, observe that
 496 the DA deterministic forecast (solid curve in the upper plot) is not necessarily
 497 identical to the expected wind power realization in RT (dashed curve in the
 498 same plot). In this case, the DA wind forecast underestimates the available
 499 wind power production during hours 1 to 6 and 19 to 23, while overestimates it
 500 from hour 7 to 18. The wind power penetration, i.e., total wind power capacity
 501 installed divided by the total electricity demand, is 34%. The next subsections
 502 provide the market outcomes obtained from different setups.

503 6.2 Main Results: Total Expected System Cost

504 The total expected cost of electricity and natural gas systems achieved under
 505 different market setups is shown in Fig. 8. As expected, the highest system
 506 cost corresponds to the sequential setup *Seq* (first bar in Fig. 8), which is
 507 a fully uncoordinated model. On the other hand, the fully coordinated ideal

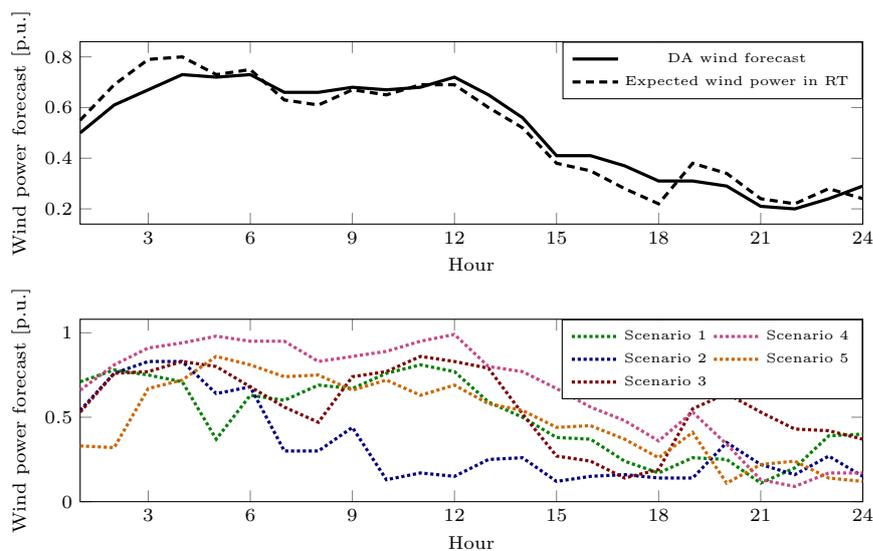


Fig. 7 Wind power forecast in DA and potential scenarios in RT: The upper plot shows the deterministic wind power forecast in DA and the expected value of five wind power scenarios in RT. These five equiprobable scenarios in RT are depicted in the lower plot.

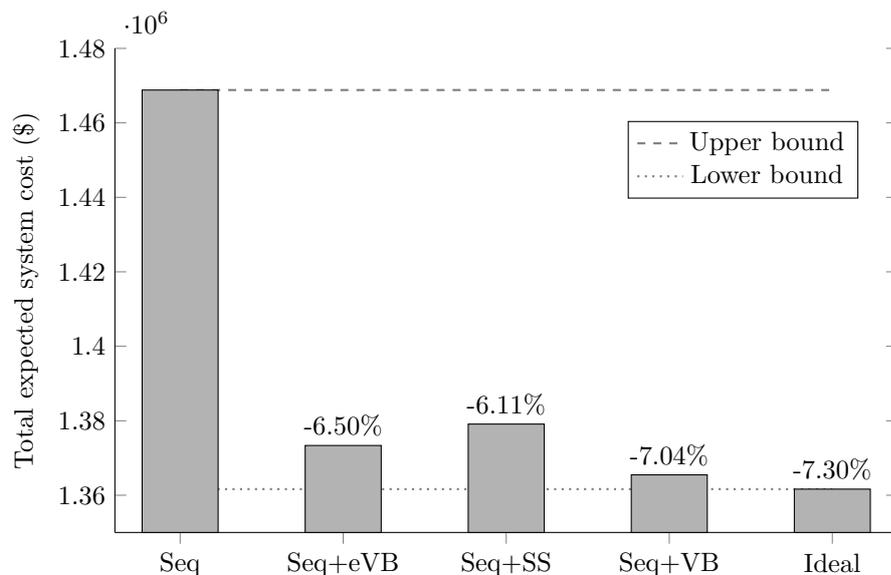


Fig. 8 Total expected cost of the electricity and natural gas systems calculated by (9a) under different market setups. The percentages show the reduction in the total expected system cost compared to that cost in the fully uncoordinated sequential setup (first bar).

508 model (i.e., last bar in Fig. 8) yields the lowest cost. In this case study, the
 509 full temporal and sectoral coordination results in a 7.30% cost reduction. The

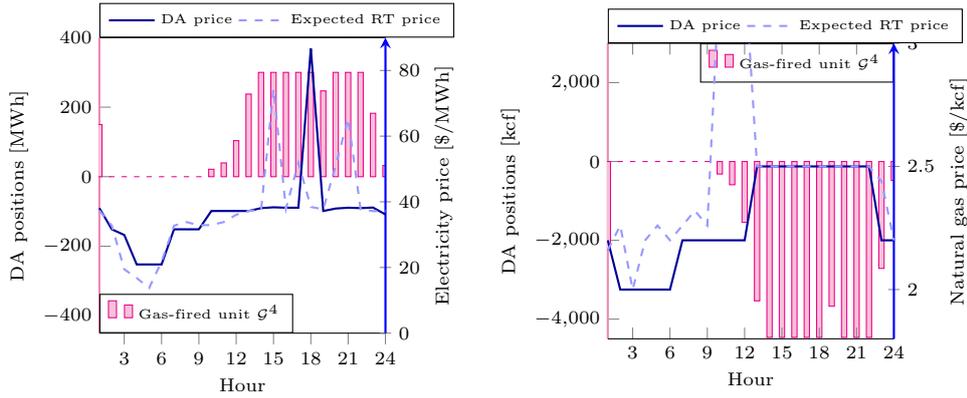


Fig. 9 Hourly DA schedule of slow-start gas-fired generator \mathcal{G}^4 as well as DA and expected RT market-clearing prices obtained from fully uncoordinated sequential market setup *Seq*. The left- and right-hand side plots correspond to the electricity and natural gas market outcomes, respectively.

510 three proposed setups *Seq+eVB*, *Seq+SS* and *Seq+VB* provide partial coordi-
 511 nation, and therefore, the system cost achieved in those setups is between
 512 the upper and lower bounds. Among these three market setups, *Seq+VB* with
 513 both implicit and explicit VB yields the highest cost saving, which is 7.04%
 514 (fourth bar in Fig. 8). In the following three subsections, we discuss in details
 515 how each market setup impacts the DA schedules. For clarity, we focus on DA
 516 dispatch of one of the slow-start gas-fired generators, i.e., \mathcal{G}^4 , and analyze how
 517 each market setup affects her dispatch, and therefore her individual expected
 518 profit.

519 6.3 Upper Bound: Sequential Market Setup (*Seq*)

520 The corresponding market-clearing outcomes of the fully uncoordinated se-
 521 quential market setup *Seq* are given in Fig. 9. The DA schedules in this setup
 522 have no foresight into uncertainty in RT and sectoral interactions. Thus, the
 523 DA and expected RT prices can largely differ – see, for example, the electricity
 524 market prices during hours 14 to 21 in the left-hand side plot and the natural
 525 gas market prices during hours 4 to 12 in the right-hand side plot of Fig. 9.
 526 The slow-start gas-fired generator \mathcal{G}^4 is dispatched in the DA electricity mar-
 527 ket myopically, without considering the volatility of the actual hourly natural
 528 gas price and the need for flexibility provided by \mathcal{G}^4 in RT. This generator
 529 is scheduled in hours 10 to 13 relying on the comparatively low estimated
 530 gas price, while her real production cost is higher due to comparatively high
 531 natural gas market prices. When power system flexibility is required, which
 532 is evident from the high expected RT electricity prices in hours 14 and 20,
 533 generator \mathcal{G}^4 is unable to provide upward adjustment since she is already dis-
 534 patched at full capacity in DA. Apart from the high expected system cost, this

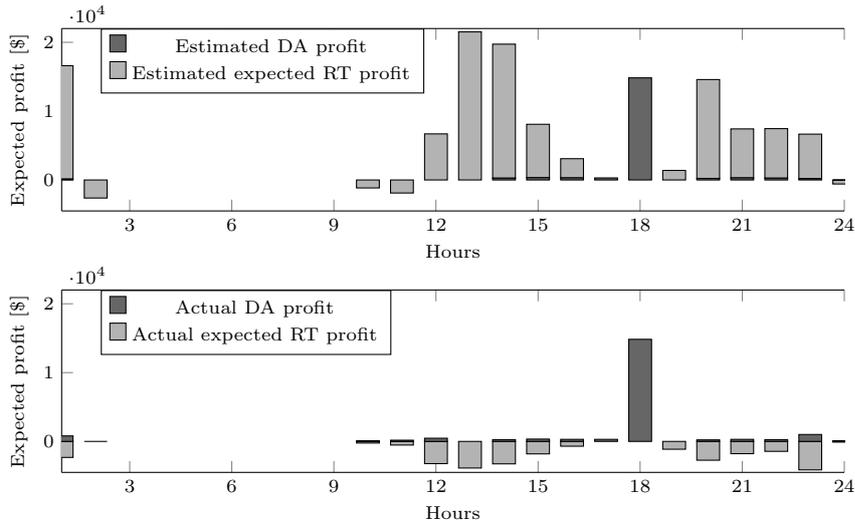


Fig. 10 Hourly profit in DA and in expectation in RT of slow-start gas-fired generator \mathcal{G}^4 obtained from fully uncoordinated sequential market setup *Seq*. The upper plot shows the estimated profits using natural gas price estimations while the actual profits for realized natural gas prices are depicted in the lower plot.

	<i>Seq</i>	<i>Seq+eVB</i>	<i>Seq+SS</i> (self-scheduling by \mathcal{G}^4)	<i>Seq+VB</i> (implicit VB by \mathcal{G}^4)	<i>Ideal</i>
\mathcal{C}^1	14,078	13,693	13,641	13,350	12,350
\mathcal{C}^2	18,713	18,180	18,557	17,881	16,600
\mathcal{C}^3	26,029	8,673	11,901	10,924	8,673
\mathcal{C}^4	12,422	13,892	13,037	14,327	13,638
\mathcal{C}^5	134,062	126,703	129,883	123,140	115,148
\mathcal{C}^6	124,068	119,296	118,614	116,865	110,248
\mathcal{G}^1	-2,003	-38,601	14,882	9,327	8,745
\mathcal{G}^2	1,317	0	130	0	0
\mathcal{G}^3	48,826	22,945	59,707	42,625	46,876
\mathcal{G}^4	-7,801	-70,093	33,186	10,911	18,643

Table 2 Expected profit of each generator under different market setups

535 inefficient DA dispatch results in a negative expected profit (-\$7,801) for \mathcal{G}^4 , as
 536 given in Table 2. The faulty estimation of natural gas prices by the electricity
 537 markets leads to underrating power generation costs and overestimating the
 538 profits of \mathcal{G}^4 in RT, such that \mathcal{G}^4 actually operates at negative profits in RT,
 539 see Fig. 10. This illustrates the need for market coordination, and specifically
 540 the potential for this generator to be scheduled in DA more efficiently.

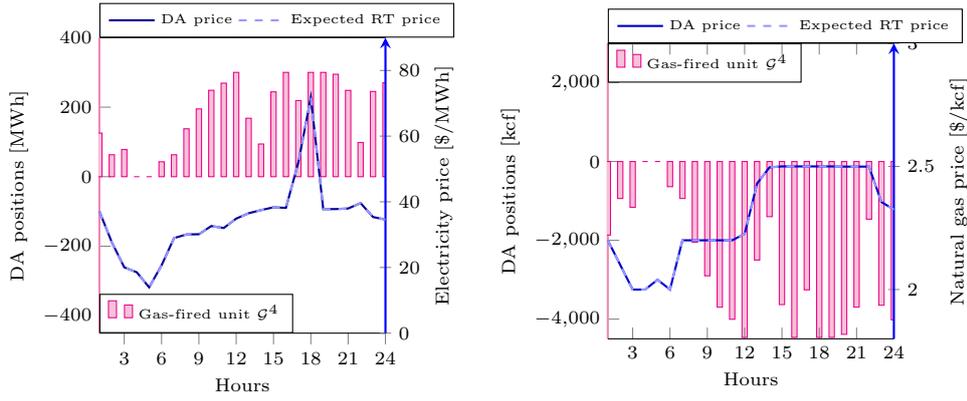


Fig. 11 Hourly DA schedule of slow-start gas-fired generator \mathcal{G}^4 as well as DA and expected RT market-clearing prices obtained from fully coordinated market setup *Ideal*. The left- and right-hand side plots correspond to the electricity and natural gas market outcomes, respectively.

541 6.4 Lower Bound: Ideal Benchmark (*Ideal*)

542 In this ideal stochastic co-optimization model, the DA decisions are made while
 543 perfectly foreseeing uncertainty in RT as well as the sectoral interdependencies.
 544 As given in Fig. 11, the DA and expected RT prices are converged in both
 545 power and natural gas sectors. The fully efficient DA dispatch in this ideal
 546 market setup ends up to a non-negative expected profit for all generators (see
 547 Table 2), including \mathcal{G}^4 whose expected profit is \$18,643.

548 6.5 Temporal Coordination: *Seq+eVB*

549 Recall that the market setup *Seq+eVB* provides the DA-RT temporal (but not
 550 sectoral) coordination by allowing explicit VB in both electricity and natural gas
 551 markets. Note that it is sufficient to consider a single explicit virtual bidder
 552 only in each sector since the transmission network is not considered. The hourly
 553 amount of DA virtual bids in both sectors is shown in Fig. 12. The virtual
 554 bidders act as either buyers or sellers over the 24 hours in the DA market.
 555 For example, the virtual bidder in DA electricity market acts as a seller in
 556 hours 2-5, 10, 11 and 20, while as a buyer in the rest of hours (the left-hand
 557 plot of Fig. 12). The DA positions of this player are going to be zeroed out
 558 by her RT actions: every MW the virtual bidder sells in DA in hours 2-5,
 559 10, 11 and 20 will be bought back in the same hours in RT. The right-hand
 560 plot of Fig. 12 shows that in the DA natural gas market, the virtual bidder
 561 acts as a supplier in most of hours. She behaves as a natural gas consumer
 562 in hours 5, 10, 11 and 24 only. Note that allowing explicit VB achieves full
 563 convergence of DA and expected RT prices in both power and gas markets.
 564 Explicit VB also impacts the DA dispatch of generators. For example, the

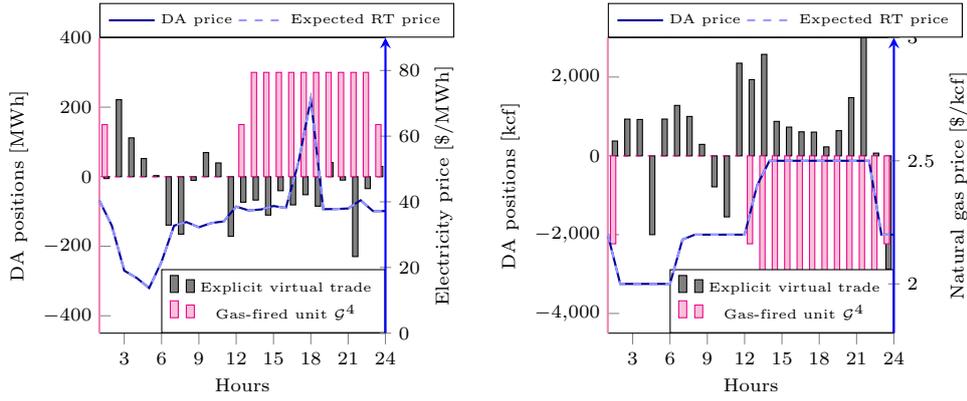


Fig. 12 Hourly DA schedule of explicit virtual bidder (i.e., the purely financial player) and slow-start gas-fired generator \mathcal{G}^4 as well as DA and expected RT market-clearing prices obtained from market setup *Seq+eVB*. The left- and right-hand side plots correspond to the electricity and natural gas market outcomes, respectively.

565 slow-start gas-fired generator \mathcal{G}^4 is no longer dispatched between hours 2 and
 566 11, while she is fully dispatched in hours 13 to 22. Explicit VB alone decreases
 567 the total expected system cost, but to the disadvantage of several individual
 568 generators. For example, the expected profit of \mathcal{G}^4 is $-\$70,093$, which is even
 569 worse than her expected profit in the fully uncoordinated sequential model
 570 ($-\$7,801$). Fig. 13 shows the discrepancy between \mathcal{G}^4 's estimated (upper plot)
 571 and actual (lower plot) profit. The misestimation of natural gas prices leads
 572 to negative profits in RT. In hour 12 gas load shedding occurs in one scenario
 573 and the actual expected natural gas price in RT is higher than the estimated
 574 price, resulting in expected RT loss for \mathcal{G}^4 .

575 6.6 Temporal and Sectoral Coordination: *Seq+SS* and *Seq+VB*

576 The efficient dispatch of market players operating on the interface of electricity
 577 and natural gas sectors can enhance the sectoral coordination. A foresighted
 578 schedule of gas-fired generators in the DA electricity market may improve not
 579 only the temporal coordination with the RT electricity market, but also the
 580 sectoral coordination with the DA natural gas market. We analyze below the
 581 two market setups *Seq+SS* and *Seq+VB* separately.

582 6.6.1 Self-scheduling Gas-fired Generators: *Seq+SS*

583 As realized in the previous subsections, the DA dispatch of gas-fired generator
 584 \mathcal{G}^4 in both setups *Seq* and *Seq+eVB* is inefficient, such that she ends up to a
 585 negative expected profit. This shows the significant potential for this genera-
 586 tor to do self-schedule, rather than participating in the markets relied upon
 587 a deterministic sequential clearing procedure. Fig. 14 shows the DA dispatch

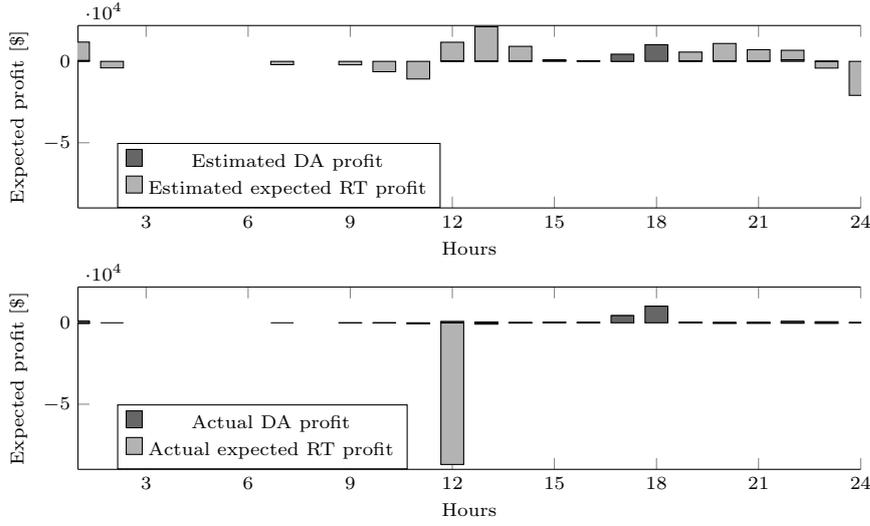


Fig. 13 Hourly profit in DA and in expectation in RT of slow-start gas-fired generator \mathcal{G}^4 obtained from temporally coordinated sequential market setup $Seq+eVB$ including explicit VB. The upper plot shows the estimated profits using natural gas price estimations while the actual profits for realized natural gas prices are depicted in the lower plot.

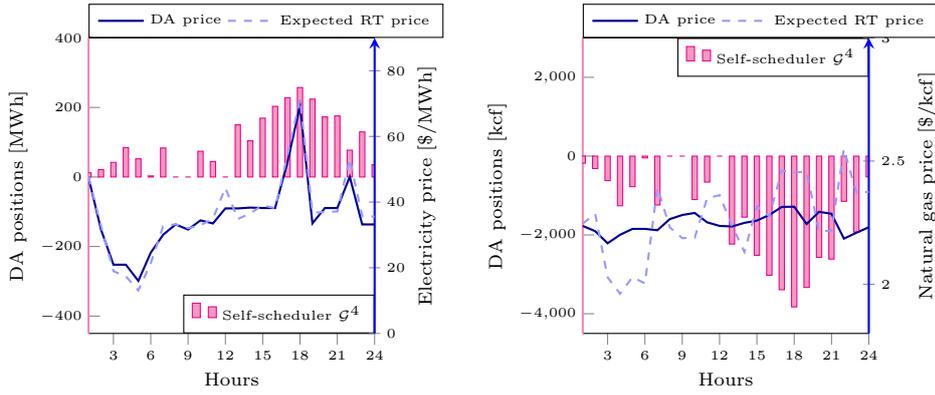


Fig. 14 Hourly DA schedule of slow-start gas-fired generator \mathcal{G}^4 as well as DA and expected RT market-clearing prices obtained from market setup $Seq+SS$. Generator \mathcal{G}^4 does self-scheduling. The left- and right-hand side plots correspond to the electricity and natural gas market outcomes, respectively.

588 and market outcomes when generator \mathcal{G}^4 does self-scheduling. Note that in
 589 this setup, the self-scheduling generator has to still respect her operational
 590 constraints in both DA and RT stages, i.e., she does not behave as a temporal
 591 arbitrager between DA and RT markets. This restriction will be relaxed later
 592 in setup $Seq+VB$. According to Fig. 14, generator \mathcal{G}^4 increases her production
 593 during hours 1 to 13 when the actual natural gas price is comparatively low,
 594 whereas she reduces her power production and consequently natural gas con-

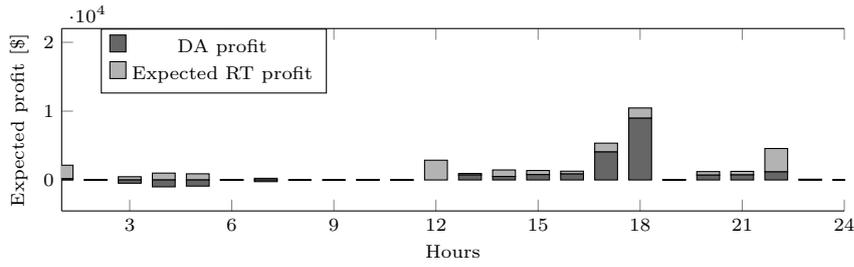


Fig. 15 Hourly profit in DA and in expectation in RT of slow-start gas-fired generator \mathcal{G}^4 self-scheduling in the sequential market setup *Seq+SS*.

595 sumption when the gas price is comparatively high in hours 14 to 24. Allowing
 596 this gas-fired generator to self-schedule alone increases not only her expected
 597 profit to \$33,186 (see Fig. 15), but also improves the total social welfare in
 598 terms of non-negative expected profit for other generators and 6.11% cost re-
 599 duction of total expected system cost (third bar in Fig. 8). Another important
 600 observation is that the self-scheduling by \mathcal{G}^4 causes shrinking the price spread
 601 between DA and expected RT prices in both power and gas sectors.

602 6.6.2 Explicit and Implicit Virtual Bidding: *Seq+VB*

603 This setup allows explicit VB by purely financial players and implicit VB by
 604 gas-fired generator \mathcal{G}^4 . Fig. 16 shows that the explicit and implicit VBs to-
 605 gether achieve full price convergence in expectation in both power and natural
 606 gas markets. When generator \mathcal{G}^4 is allowed to submit virtual bids in electricity
 607 and natural gas markets, the amount of explicit virtual trade decreases in the
 608 power market and drastically in the natural gas market compared to Fig. 12.
 609 Note that \mathcal{G}^4 extends her bidding behaviour in the DA electricity and natural
 610 gas markets beyond her operational constraints acting as an implicit virtual
 611 bidder. This generator submits virtual bids to act as an electricity consumer
 612 and natural gas producer in the DA markets, e.g., in hours 7 and 8. She bids
 613 in DA below her operational capacity in hours 7 and 8 and above her capacity
 614 in hours 14-16, 18, 20 and 21. The convergence of DA and expected RT prices
 615 indicates the full temporal coordination. Besides, the additional system cost
 616 reduction compared to the case with explicit VB only (see second and fourth
 617 bars in Fig. 8) suggests improved sectoral coordination. All generators can
 618 expect a non-negative expected profit in this market setup with both implicit
 619 and explicit VB. The implicit virtual bidder \mathcal{G}^4 expects to earn \$10,911. Al-
 620 though this generator can extend her bidding activity beyond her operational
 621 constraints in DA, her expected profit is lower than that in a case when \mathcal{G}^4
 622 is the only self-scheduler in the market setup without explicit VB (*Seq+SS*).
 623 However, when explicit VB is allowed (*Seq+SS* and *Seq+VB*), generator \mathcal{G}^4 is
 624 better off submitting virtual bids, see Table 2.

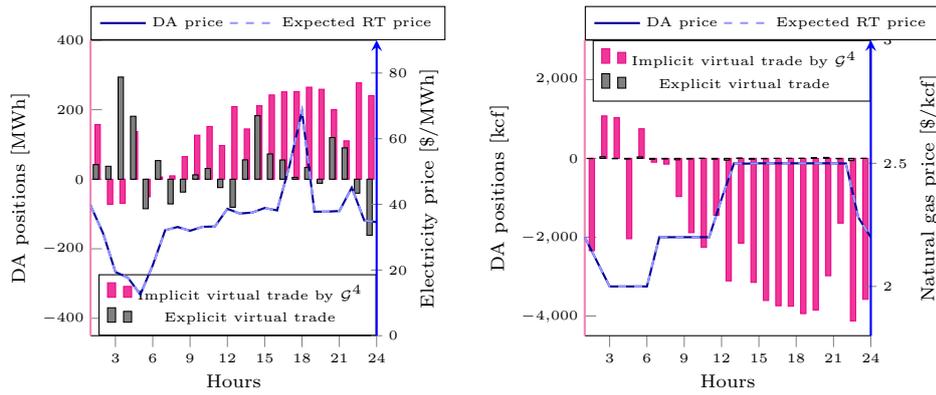


Fig. 16 Hourly DA schedule of explicit (i.e., purely financial player) and implicit virtual bidder (i.e., generator \mathcal{G}^4) as well as DA and expected RT market-clearing prices obtained from market setup *Seq+VB*. The left- and right-hand side plots correspond to the electricity and natural gas market outcomes, respectively.

6.7 Main Observations

Based on the above results, allowing market players to arbitrage seems to enhance the coordination of sectors and trading floors. The explicit VB helps to better reflect the uncertainties inherent in the RT stages of the systems through better price signals. These price signals improve DA schedules so that the existing flexibility is allocated and utilized more efficiently. The VB improves the temporal coordination of the sequential DA and RT markets in the electricity and natural gas sectors. The self-scheduling gas-fired generator strengthens the temporal coordination of DA and RT markets by decreasing the price spread and the sectoral coordination by making use of her superior information of natural gas prices. In the same manner, the implicit VB by gas-fired generators helps sectoral coordination between the electricity and natural gas markets and improves the temporal coordination between DA and RT markets. The gas-fired generator is able to arbitrage not only over the trading floors but also between the sectors by submitting virtual bids in both electricity and natural gas markets. This updates the information exchange between the sectors and fosters coordination. Better price signals and improved DA schedules help allocate and utilize the existing flexibility more efficiently. The DA schedules are improved through bidding activities to better reflect the uncertainties inherent in the systems and account for the interactions of power and gas sectors.

7 Conclusion

This work explores the capability of VB either by purely financial players (explicit VB) or by physical players like gas-fired generators (implicit VB) in improving the temporal and sectoral coordination in two-stage (DA and

RT) electricity and natural gas markets under uncertainty. We use two models as benchmarks: a fully uncoordinated sequential model which achieves an upper bound for the total expected system cost, and a stochastic ideal co-optimization which provides a full temporal and sectoral coordination and yields a lower bound for the total expected system cost. The resulting models including VB are equilibrium problems, including deterministic market-clearing problems in DA and RT in both power and gas sectors, and two-stage stochastic optimization problems of virtual bidders, who maximize their expected profit.

Our results reveal that competitive virtual bidders who have perfect insight into the probability distribution of RT prices in power and natural gas markets increase the efficiency of deterministic sequential markets, such that the resulting total expected system cost is between the lower and upper bounds – it is even very close to the lower bound in our case study. In particular, the explicit VB provides DA-RT temporal coordination in power and natural gas markets. In addition, self-scheduling and implicit VB by gas-fired generators bring both temporal and sectoral coordination. This implies that the sequential market with VB may approximate the stochastic ideal integrated energy system, and help reveal and exploit the existing flexibility in the systems more efficiently.

The main policy implication is that a disruptive market re-design to a stochastic and integrated energy market might not be necessarily crucial for unlocking the existing flexibility. Instead, this can be done to some extent by allowing VB, while preserving the current sequential market-clearing setup.

As potential future works, it is of high interest to relax the assumption that self-schedulers as well as explicit and implicit virtual bidders have perfect knowledge of the probability distribution of real-time prices. This requires modeling the potential information asymmetry in the equilibrium model (Lo Prete et al., 2019). It is also important to analyze the cases where virtual bidders behave as strategic and/or risk-averse players. The proposed equilibrium may become computationally hard to solve if more players and scenarios are considered, and thus more efficient solution techniques might be required. One potential solution can be distributed optimization by solving the problem as an iterative Walrasian auction (e.g., similar to the methods used in (Mays et al., 2019; Höschle et al., 2018)), but the GNE nature of the model may bring some computational challenges. The other potential extension is to include network, especially in the natural gas sector as it allows modeling linepack (stored gas in the pipelines), however it will need either approximation (Correa-Posada and Sánchez-Martín, 2015; Ordoudis et al., 2019) or relaxation (Schwele et al., 2019a) methods to convexify the linepack model.

A Appendix

The linear optimization problem (2) can be equivalently reformulated as a pure Nash equilibrium problem of profit maximizing agents, namely (10). For given market prices $\lambda^{\text{DA,E}}$,

each non gas-fired generator \mathcal{C} maximizes her DA profit with respect to her operational constraints as

$$\max_{\mathbf{p}^{\mathcal{C}}, \mathbf{u}^{\mathcal{C}}, \mathbf{s}^{\mathcal{C}}} \left(\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA}, \text{E}} - \mathbf{C}^{\text{E}} \right)^{\top} \mathbf{p}^{\mathcal{C}} - e^{\top} \mathbf{s}^{\mathcal{C}} \quad (10\text{a})$$

$$\text{subject to } g(\mathbf{p}^{\mathcal{C}}, \mathbf{u}^{\mathcal{C}}, \mathbf{s}^{\mathcal{C}}) \leq 0. \quad (10\text{b})$$

Similarly, each gas-fired generator \mathcal{G} maximizes her DA profit as:

$$\max_{\mathbf{p}^{\mathcal{G}}, \mathbf{u}^{\mathcal{G}}, \mathbf{s}^{\mathcal{G}}} \left(\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA}, \text{E}} - C(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}^{\mathcal{G}}) \right)^{\top} \mathbf{p}^{\mathcal{G}} - e^{\top} \mathbf{s}^{\mathcal{G}} \quad (10\text{c})$$

$$\text{subject to } g(\mathbf{p}^{\mathcal{G}}, \mathbf{u}^{\mathcal{G}}, \mathbf{s}^{\mathcal{G}}) \leq 0. \quad (10\text{d})$$

Likewise, each wind farm \mathcal{J} maximizes her DA profit limited by her deterministic wind forecast in DA as

$$\max_{\mathbf{w}} \boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA}, \text{E}\top} \mathbf{w} \quad (10\text{e})$$

$$\text{subject to } g(\mathbf{w}) \leq 0, \quad (10\text{f})$$

and eventually, for given production decisions of conventional and wind generators and dispatch of virtual bidders, a price-setting agent determines the DA electricity price $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA}, \text{E}}$ as

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA}, \text{E}}} \boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\text{DA}, \text{E}\top} h(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v}_r^{\text{E}}). \quad (10\text{g})$$

691 The Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (KKT) optimality conditions of optimization problem (2)
692 and pure Nash equilibrium problem (10) are identical – See online appendix (Schwele et al.,
693 2019b) for more details.

In the same manner, the RT market-clearing optimization problem (3) under scenario ω can be equivalently reformulated as a pure Nash equilibrium problem. Note that in such an equilibrium problem, each agent's DA schedule is fixed. For example, the slow-starting non gas-fired generators $\mathcal{C} \cap \mathcal{S}$ maximize their profit in RT with respect to their DA commitment decisions as

$$\left\{ \max_{\Delta \mathbf{p}_{\omega}^{\mathcal{C}}} \left(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\omega}^{\text{RT}, \text{E}} - \mathbf{C}^{\text{E}} \right)^{\top} \Delta \mathbf{p}_{\omega}^{\mathcal{C}} \quad (11\text{a}) \right.$$

$$\left. \text{subject to } g(\Delta \mathbf{p}_{\omega}^{\mathcal{C}}, \mathbf{p}^{\mathcal{C}}, \mathbf{u}^{\mathcal{C}}) \leq 0, \right\} \forall \omega. \quad (11\text{b})$$

694 Optimization problems (5) and (6) can also be equivalently reformulated as pure Nash
695 equilibrium problems, in which every agent maximizes her own profit and a price-setter
696 agent determines the price, similar to Proposition 1 – see online appendix (Schwele et al.,
697 2019b) for more details.

698 B Appendix

699 Table 3 gives the technical characteristics of power generators, whose columns one to ten
700 show the unit name, minimum power production (P_i^{min}), capacity (P_i^{max}), ramp rate (R_i),
701 start-up cost (C_i^{SU}), initial commitment status at the beginning of time horizon (U_i^{ini}), initial
702 dispatch (P_i^{ini}), type, production cost for non gas-fired generators (C_i^{E}), and gas-to-power
703 conversion ratio for gas-fired generators (ϕ_i), respectively. In addition, Table 4 provides
704 the technical characteristics of four gas suppliers, including minimum and maximum gas
705 capacity (G_k^{min} and G_k^{max}), ramp rate (G_k^{adj}), and supply cost (C_k^{G}).

Unit	P_i^{\min} [MW]	P_i^{\max} [MW]	R_i [MW/h]	C_i^{SU} [\$]	U_i^{ini} [0/1]	P_i^{ini} [MWh]	Type	C_i^{E} [\$/MWh]	ϕ_i [kcf/MWh]
\mathcal{C}^1	0	40	20	17,462	1	40	non gas-fired	22.18	-
\mathcal{C}^2	0	152	50	13,207	1	100	non gas-fired	33.2	-
\mathcal{C}^3	0	300	195	22,313	0	0	non gas-fired	37.14	-
\mathcal{C}^4	100	591	230	28,272	0	0	non gas-fired	38.2	-
\mathcal{C}^5	400	400	400	50,000	1	400	non gas-fired	22.34	-
\mathcal{C}^6	0	350	80	33,921	0	0	non gas-fired	20.92	-
\mathcal{G}^1	0	155	100	21,450	1	100	gas-fired	-	15.23
\mathcal{G}^2	0	60	60	10,721	0	0	gas-fired	-	16.98
\mathcal{G}^3	0	310	200	42,900	0	0	gas-fired	-	12.65
\mathcal{G}^4	0	300	150	10,000	0	0	gas-fired	-	14.88

Table 3 Technical characteristics of power generators

Supplier	G_k^{\min} [kcf]	G_k^{\max} [kcf]	G_k^{adj} [kcf/h]	C_k^{G} [\$/kcf]
\mathcal{K}^1	0	9,000	2,000	2
\mathcal{K}^2	0	6,000	1,000	2.2
\mathcal{K}^3	0	15,000	3,000	2.5
\mathcal{K}^4	0	15,000	1,000	3.3

Table 4 Technical characteristics of gas suppliers

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