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Analyzing the computational performance of balance constraints in the medium-term unit commitment problem: Tightness, compactness, and arduousness

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A B S T R A C T

Since its beginning, the computational performance of numerical optimization techniques has depended on utilizing efficient mathematical formulations to deal with large-size problems successfully. This fact is manifested in the unit commitment literature. Several approaches have been proposed to handle the complexity of accurately modeling real power systems. However, most of these methodologies focus on strengthening the technical features' representations by reducing the number of constraints and variables of the associated optimization problem or approximating its relaxed feasible region to the integer one to improve resolution processes. Hence, the state-of-art of these effective procedures is periodically studied under operational research and commercial solvers developments. Nevertheless, the formulation comparisons frequently obviate analyzing the impact of the balance equations on the computational burden of the unit commitment problem. This constraint links every single technical restriction along the time span and sometimes provides an ample optimization space, sometimes a narrow one, directly affecting resolution proceedings. It can impose an electricity generation equal to demand, allow production excesses, include non-served energy, or establish profit-based relationships. This paper presents a computational analysis of the most popular balance equations, detailing solver performances and determining these methodologies' tightness, compactness, and arduousness. Therefore, 1010 case studies were run utilizing different input profiles and optimality-convergence criteria.

1. Introduction

The efficient management of power systems requires the optimization of thermal generation. Accordingly, the unit commitment problem has been studied in-depth in operational research as a powerful tool to find the most profitable schedule [[1](#page-15-0)]. Several approaches have been applied in the literature, and it is possible to discern that the more rigorous the methodology is, the higher the quality of the obtained solution.

The unit commitment problem is frequently addressed as an optimization problem [[2](#page-15-1)]. The available resolution techniques' state-of-art highlights the convenience of using numerical optimization resources since evolutionary optimization algorithms cannot categorically guarantee the quality of the solution [[3](#page-15-2)]. Moreover, the great advances in commercial solvers during the last decades allow their convergence towards a global-optimal solution in reasonable run times when utilizing mixed integer linear programming (MILP). However, the high computational burden associated with this methodology demands a trade-off between detail modeling, run time, and solution accuracy [[4](#page-15-3)].

In this way, several MILP formulations have been proposed to improve the performance of commercial solvers and exploit their features [[5](#page-15-4)[–9\]](#page-15-5). These methodologies merge theoretical concepts of numerical optimization and solvers' mathematical backgrounds to enhance the resolution process. Thus, different alternatives to model the same technical issues concerning the thermal units have been proposed, trying to reach the leading representation. Nevertheless, the literature usually focuses on ramp constraints [[10\]](#page-15-6), time-up and time-down constraints [\[11](#page-15-7)], start-up and shut-down representation [[12–](#page-15-8)[15\]](#page-15-9), or their inter-relationships [\[15](#page-15-9)[–17](#page-15-10)], ignoring the impact of the selection of a specific balance equation, or its substitution by a profit-based optimization. Then, a lack of information about how this choice affects the resolution performance of the unit commitment methodologies is identified.

Furthermore, the implications of utilizing stable or high intermittency demand profiles should also be considered when analyzing modeling efficiency, as exposed in [[18\]](#page-15-11). Besides, unit commitment formulations are frequently tested with large generation portfolios that entail

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(2) Binary variables

large-size optimization problems. However, some base thermal units are often replicated to construct these portfolios. This fact introduces symmetry effects in the resolution processes, whose efficient treatment is still under study [[19–](#page-15-12)[21](#page-15-13)], and categorical conclusions have not been reached yet. For that reason, it would also be desirable to test

methodologies with large-size unsymmetrical input data, which can be achieved through a horizon expansion instead of a thermal unit replication.

Therefore, this article intends to fulfill these research gaps by analyzing the unit commitment formulations' most popular balance equations and establishing a comparison benchmark to determine their corresponding computational implications. The main contributions of this paper are summarized below:

- Different balance equations are evaluated under the same technical representation of the unit commitment problem to study their effect on the computational performance. Consequently, their feasible regions are uniquely modified by utilizing one constraint or another, allowing the isolation of their implications.
- Each approach's tightness and compactness (T&C) are also analyzed. These criteria are widely utilized in the unit commitment literature to characterize expectable model behaviors. However, the inherent uncertainty of dealing with mixed integer programming (MIP) problems makes T&C sometimes fail when predicting success. For that reason, the concept of arduousness is introduced in this paper to provide information about how a formulation's T&C is related to the computational performance in numerical optimization. Thus, this additional metric contributes to better intuiting a methodology resolution process.
- Different generation portfolios are represented under real market conditions, manifesting the solver's capabilities to manage stable load curves and high intermittence demand profiles in medium-term horizons. The portfolios do not replicate generation units in these cases, so symmetry effects in MILP resolutions are avoided. Moreover, the models presented in this paper are also tested in large-size case studies with traditional short-term horizons and large portfolios with unit replication to compare their computational performances.
- The operation at each formulation, portfolio, and input profile is optimized to various convergence criteria, running a total of 1010 real-size case studies to establish a theoretical framework of the unit commitment's response to specific input parameters and modeling options.

Section [2](#page-1-0) presents the mathematical formulations compared in this report. Later, the case studies are exposed in Section [3,](#page-3-0) followed by the illustration of the resolution performance and a result discussion. Finally, conclusions are shown in Section [4.](#page-12-0)

2. Methodology

This section presents a common framework for representing the technical aspects involved in the unit commitment problem. Accordingly, the renowned mathematical formulation exposed in [[7](#page-15-14)] is chosen to fulfill this task given that its computational efficiency has been widely demonstrated [15-[17\]](#page-15-10). Thereafter, the different balance equations and the corresponding objective function (OF) are described from Sections [2.1](#page-2-0) to [2.5,](#page-3-1) establishing a benchmark to perform the modeling comparison.

The technical constraints utilized in this common framework are gathered below. The feasibility of the operational schedules is guaranteed by constraints (1) (1) (1) – (18) (18) at the optimization step. Meanwhile, Eqs. [\(19](#page-2-2))–[\(24](#page-2-3)) are used before the resolution process to calculate some needed input parameters. Note that the subset $G¹$ comprises thermal units with TU_g equal 1, which means that the thermal unit can start up and shut down in the same hourly period.

• *Production cost:* a linear equation is employed to simplify the formulation. Piecewise or quadratic functions can make the resolution processes more difficult, and this is an aspect that is out of the paper's scope.

$$
c_{g,t}^P = u_{g,t} C_g^{NL} + (u_{g,t} \underline{P_g} + p_{g,t}) C_g^{LV} \qquad \forall g, t
$$
 (1)

• *Generation limits:* these tight and compact constraints need to be separated for those thermal units that are not able to start-up and shut-down in the same hourly period (Eq. ([2\)](#page-2-4)) and those that can (Eqs. ([3](#page-2-5)), ([4](#page-2-6))).

$$
p_{g,t} \le u_{g,t}(\overline{P_g} - \underline{P_g}) - v_{g,t}(\overline{P_g} - SU_g) - w_{g,t+1}(\overline{P_g} - SD_g) \quad \forall g \notin G^1, t
$$
\n(2)

$$
p_{g,t} \le u_{g,t}(\overline{P_g} - \underline{P_g}) - v_{g,t}(\overline{P_g} - SU_g) \qquad \forall g \in G^1, t
$$

$$
p_{g,t} \le u_{g,t}(\overline{P_g} - \underline{P_g}) - w_{g,t+1}(\overline{P_g} - SD_g)
$$

$$
\forall g \in G^1, t
$$

(4)

• *Ramping constraints:* up- and down-ramps are formulated per $t \in$ $[2, T]$ because the ramping capacity of each thermal unit at the initial hourly period $(t = 1)$ depends on the power output parameter for $t = 0$. The ramping constraints for $t \in [1, 2)$ are presented with the initial condition constraints.

$$
p_{g,t} - p_{g,t-1} \le RU_g \qquad \qquad \forall g,t \in [2,T] \tag{5}
$$

$$
-p_{g,t} + p_{g,t-1} \leq RD_g \qquad \qquad \forall g, t \in [2, T] \tag{6}
$$

• *Shut-down cost:* this cost, frequently obviated in many unit commitment formulations, is modeled by a single-step cost for each thermal unit.

$$
c_{g,t}^{SD} = w_{g,t} C_g^{SD} \qquad \forall g, t \tag{7}
$$

• *Start-up cost:* the start-up cost depends on the time that a generator has been offline. For that reason, different start-up types 's' are defined in the following stairwise function:

$$
c_{g,t}^{SU} = \sum_{s \in S} \delta_{g,s,t} C_{g,s}^{SU} \qquad \forall g,t
$$
 (8)

• *Start-up constraints:* (Eqs. ([9](#page-2-7)), [\(10](#page-2-8))) constitute one of the most efficient ways to model the correspondence between an offline time and its start-up segment determination in MILP formulations.

$$
\delta_{g,s,t} \le \sum_{i=T_{g,s}^{SU}}^{T_{g,s+1}^{SU}-1} w_{g,t-i} \qquad \forall g,s \in [1, S_g), t \in [T_{g,s+1}^{SU},T] \tag{9}
$$

$$
v_{g,t} = \sum_{s \in S_g} \delta_{g,s,t} \qquad \forall g,t \tag{10}
$$

• *Logic constraint:* defines the chronological behavior of commitments, start-up, and shut-down processes. It also needs an initial parameter for $t = 1$.

$$
v_{g,t} - w_{g,t} = u_{g,t} - u_{g,t-1} \qquad \forall g, t \in [2, T]
$$
\n(11)

• *Minimum time up/down constraints:* these operational constraints manifest an efficient performance dealing with the minimum times that thermal units should be online/offline after starting-up or shutting-down.

$$
\sum_{i=t-TU_g+1}^{t} v_{g,i} \le u_{g,t} \qquad \forall g,t \in [TU_g,T] \qquad (12)
$$

$$
\sum_{i=t-TD_g+1}^{t} w_{g,i} \le 1 - u_{g,t} \qquad \forall g, t \in [TD_g, T] \tag{13}
$$

• *Initial condition constraints:* the optimization needs initial parameters to work with the operational decisions at $t = 1$ properly.

> $v_{g,t} - w_{g,t} = u_{g,t} - U_g^0$ $\forall g, t \in [1, 2)$ (14)

$$
p_{g,t} - (P_g^0 - U_g^0 P_g) \le RU_g \qquad \forall g, t \in [1, 2)
$$
 (15)

$$
-p_{g,t} + (P_g^0 - U_g^0 \, P_g) \le R D_g \tag{16}
$$

• *Operational-coherence constraints at the beginning:* according to the initial status of the thermal units, certain commitment and startup-type conditions have to be accomplished at the beginning of the time span to guarantee operational coherence.

$$
\delta_{g,s,t} = 0 \qquad \forall g, s \in [1, S_g), t \in (T_{g,s+1}^{SU} - TD_g^0, T_{g,s+1}^{SU}) \qquad (17)
$$

$$
u_{g,t} = U_g^0 \t\t \forall g, t \in [1, TU_g^R + TD_g^R]
$$
 (18)

− *Determination of the pre-optimization parameters:*

In order to keep the coherence between the magnitudes used in the mathematical formulations and the technical information provided for thermal generators, the fuel consumption of their operations has to be transformed into costs:

$$
C_g^{LV} = F_g^{LV} C_g^F \qquad \forall g \tag{19}
$$

$$
C_g^{NL} = F_g^{NL} C_g^F
$$
 $\forall g$ (20)

$$
C_g^{SD} = F_g^{SD} C_f^F
$$
 $\forall g$ (21)

$$
C_{g,s}^{SU} = F_{g,s}^{SU} C_g^F \qquad \qquad \forall g, s \tag{22}
$$

In turn, the hours that the units must remain online or offline at the beginning of the problem have to be determined from the initial-condition information:

$$
TU_g^R = max\{0, (TU_g - TU_g^0)U_g^0\} \qquad \forall g \qquad (23)
$$

$$
TD_g^R = max\{0, (TD_g - TD_g^0)(1 - U_g^0)\}\qquad \forall g
$$
 (24)

− *Determination of the resolution accuracy:*

This paper analyzes the convergence of these methodologies toward an optimal solution with different numerical tolerances. The optimality gap (OG) is chosen as the stopping criterion for these MILP optimizations [\[22](#page-15-15)]. Therefore, up to three different OGs are selected for each base case to accurately study the solver's performances with their respective settings.

2.1. Equal to Demand Unit Commitment (EDUC)

The EDUC formulation imposes a total power output equal to demand at every time period of the horizon. This obligation can cause infeasible situations due to the problem inflexibility, like the unavailability to satisfy the exact demand as a result of ramping limitations. These approaches are valuable for power systems with a high thermal generation in which the demand profiles are remarkably homogeneous. The EDUC approach comprises the constraints $(1)-(24)$ $(1)-(24)$ $(1)-(24)$, the balance Eq. (25) (25) (25) and the objective function (26) (26) , as employed in $[5]$ $[5]$:

$$
D_t = \sum_{g \in G} u_{g,t} \frac{P_g}{\underline{B}} + p_{g,t} \qquad \forall t \tag{25}
$$

$$
min\left(\sum_{g\in G}\sum_{t\in T}c_{g,t}^P + c_{g,t}^{SD} + c_{g,t}^{SU}\right)
$$
\n(26)

2.2. Equal to Demand Unit Commitment with Non-Served Energy (EDUC-N)

The EDUC-N formulation is more flexible than the EDUC. It avoids infeasible situations through the introduction of non-served energy (NSE) terms, penalized in the OF. Nevertheless, there are circumstances where it is more profitable not to meet demand. That entails a risk to the security of supply. Moreover, restrained values have to be assigned to the non-served energy term. Too low costs can distort the input profiles compared to the final power output. Extremely high values can lead to underestimating the rest of the involved costs because of numerical difficulties in the solver's performance. The EDUC-N methodology,

utilized in [[7](#page-15-14)], comprises constraints (1) (1) (1) – (24) (24) , the balance Eq. (27) (27) and the objective function ([28\)](#page-3-3):

$$
D_t - nse_t = \sum_{g \in G} u_{g,t} \underline{P_g} + p_{g,t} \qquad \forall t
$$
\n(27)

$$
min\left(\sum_{g \in G} \sum_{t \in T} (c_{g,t}^P + c_{g,t}^{SD} + c_{g,t}^{SU}) + \sum_{t \in T} nse_t C^{NSE}\right)
$$
 (28)

2.3. Greater than Demand Unit Commitment (GDUC)

The GDUC formulation manifests a more flexible and actual behavior. It avoids infeasibilities by the allowance of a power output surplus. Accordingly, the thermal units assume an extra production cost instead of falling into more expensive start-up and shut-down processes to meet the instantly exact demand. This approach assures the security of supply and allows a more efficient power system operation. In turn, storage technologies like batteries or pumping facilities can leverage the generation surplus. This modeling is valuable for representing electricity markets with a high penetration of non-dispatchable resources, given its strengthened robustness against sudden demand variations [[18\]](#page-15-11). The GDUC method comprises constraints (1) – (24) (24) , the balance Eq. (29) (29) and the objective function ([30\)](#page-3-5). It is important to note that this formulation assumes that the generation surpluses can be unlimitedly taken by storage facilities or compensated through renewable curtailment (at zero cost) to guarantee the security of the system's operation. For the sake of clarity, these facilities are not represented in this paper.

$$
D_t \le \sum_{g \in G} u_{g,t} \underline{P_g} + p_{g,t} \qquad \forall t \tag{29}
$$

$$
min\left(\sum_{g\in G}\sum_{t\in T}c_{g,t}^P + c_{g,t}^{SD} + c_{g,t}^{SU}\right)
$$
\n(30)

2.4. Greater than Demand Unit Commitment with Non-Served Energy (GDUC-N)

The GDUC-N formulation allows a generation surplus when it is profitable for the system and non-served energy situations too. It is the most flexible approach analyzed in this paper. The GDUC-N provides ample space for optimization, bringing the advantages of high-flexible modeling with their corresponding difficulties in adjusting the problem. The GDUC-N comprises constraints (1) (1) – (24) (24) , the balance Eq. (31) (31) and the OF [\(32](#page-3-7)):

$$
D_t - nse_t \le \sum_{g \in G} u_{g,t} \underline{P_g} + p_{g,t} \qquad \forall t
$$
\n(31)

$$
min\left(\sum_{g \in G} \sum_{t \in T} (c_{g,t}^P + c_{g,t}^{SD} + c_{g,t}^{SU}) + \sum_{t \in T} nse_t C^{NSE}\right)
$$
(32)

2.5. Profit Based Unit Commitment (PBUC)

The PBUC formulation has been frequently used in the unit commitment problem. It differs from the previously described methodologies by not considering demand-satisfaction profiles in the approach. Instead, electricity price inputs are utilized to guide the optimization of operational decisions. Therefore, the generation is addressed from a profitability perspective along the time span without any balance constraint. This formulation is quite valuable for situations where a market player with a thermal portfolio (small enough not to alter the market trends) desires to maximize the benefits of their asset management. It comprises constraints (1) – (24) (24) and the objective function (33) (33) (33) , like in [[13\]](#page-15-16):

$$
max\left(\sum_{g\in G}\sum_{t\in T}L_t(u_{g,t}\underline{P_g} + p_{g,t}) - c_{g,t}^P - c_{g,t}^{SD} - c_{g,t}^{SU}\right)
$$
(33)

[Fig.](#page-4-0) [1](#page-4-0) illustrates this article's methodology. It focuses on analyzing the most common alternatives to model the balance constraints when

the unit commitment is addressed as an optimization problem. The tightness and compactness of the different approaches are studied together with the resolution processes' performance. Furthermore, a new metric is introduced to improve predictions about the computational efficiency in numerical optimization.

3. Case studies and computational performance

This article focuses on analyzing the computational burden associated with the election of the balance equation in the unit commitment problem. For that reason, several case studies are run using the previously described methodologies. With the aim of performing an accurate and thorough comparison, different generation portfolios are employed in each base case, as shown in Section [3.1.](#page-3-9) In turn, different demand and electricity-price profiles are evaluated in the case studies. Section [3.2](#page-5-0) gathers high-renewable-intermittence (HRI) profiles with the gas-fired demand and the prices of a real power system. Besides, stable thermal generation (STG) profiles are also considered in order to contrast the resolution processes. The constitution of medium-term and short-term horizons is described in this section. The numerical results and the computational performances are discussed in Section [3.3](#page-6-0) (medium-term cases) and in Section [3.4](#page-12-1) (short-term against medium-term).

3.1. Description of the thermal portfolios

Four different generation portfolios are utilized in the case studies to evaluate the possible influence of their system sizes or characteristics. [Table](#page-4-1) [1](#page-4-1) exposes the technical information of the thermal units. Some of these operational data are provided in fuel-consumption magnitudes to facilitate a later adjustment to the casuistry of each case, given the fluctuation of electricity prices and thermal demand with the high volatility of fuel cost. It is important to note that two start-up types (hot and cold) are used. Therefore, a hot or cold fuel consumption $(F_{g,hot}^{SU}$ or $F_{g,cold}^{SU}$ will be assumed in start-ups, depending on whether the offline hours are greater or lower than $T_{g,cold}^{SU}$.

- *Portfolio 1 (P1):* comprises Unit A to G. It was presented in [[23\]](#page-15-17), where operational costs were calculated assuming a natural gas price of 5 \$/MMBtu, as it is manifested in the fuel consumption exposed in [[18\]](#page-15-11). These generation units correspond to real combined cycle gas turbines (CCGTs) that are placed in the Iberian Power System. They constitute a thermal portfolio of large-size power plants ($\overline{P_g}$ > 400 MW). Generally, large thermal units have lower operational costs than small- and medium-size. However, they often show higher fuel consumption for start-up and shut-down processes.
- • *Portfolio 2 (P2):* comprises Unit 1 to 8. It has been widely employed in the literature. This paper takes the data from [[7](#page-15-14)]. According to the portfolio's power capacities and technical features, a fuel price of 2.5 \$/MMBtu is considered to obtain their operations' fuel consumption. This portfolio includes large-, medium- $(\overline{P_g} = 100-400$ MW) and small-size gas-fired generators $(\overline{P_g} < 100$ MW). One of these units can start-up and shut-down in the same hourly period, producing at its maximum capacity if desired. It brings a high operational flexibility to the problem. Nevertheless, this unit also entails more significant fuel consumption.
- *Portfolio 3 (P3):* gathers Portfolio 1 and Portfolio 2. Despite that the number of thermal units is not high enough to represent a complex power system, each generator is unique, and symmetry effects are avoided in the resolution processes. Furthermore, it would be easy to replicate power plants if the representation of greater electricity markets is preferred.
- • *Portfolio 4 (P4):* comprises 35 times Portfolio 3. It represents a complex system with 525 thermal units. Hence, their corresponding case studies will manifest remarkable generation flexibility when optimizing operational decisions in the unit commitment problem. On the other hand, resolution processes could be affected by symmetry effects.

Fig. 1. Illustrative description of the paper's methodology and main contributions.

Table 2

Hub trading, currency exchange rates and fuel prices.

3.2. Description of the demand and electricity-price profiles

3.2.1. Medium-term horizons

Every time span evaluated in the medium-term case studies comprises one month on an hourly basis. Consequently, large-size problems are generated to study the unit commitment formulations' balance equations properly. Furthermore, this detailed representation of technical and economic features in medium-term horizons can be used to illustrate the ongoing trends in real power systems. For that reason, considering longer time spans was prioritized over the duplication of thermal units in order to prepare large-size problems. In addition, this decision avoids the appearance of symmetry effects during the solver performance [[4](#page-15-3)]. Finally, fifteen base cases are established in this analysis benchmark. Their characteristics are following described:

• The first twelve cases employ input profiles taken from a real power system with a high penetration of non-dispatchable generators. Each case represents a month of 2020 in the Iberian Electricity Market (MIBEL), capturing thermal intermittence and seasonality trends, an increasingly important matter in unit commitment [[24–](#page-15-18)[26\]](#page-16-0). In accordance, the gas-fired generation in the MIBEL [\[27](#page-16-1)] is scaled through Eq. ([34\)](#page-5-1), employed in [[18](#page-15-11)], and utilized as demand profiles in EDUC, EDUC-N, GDUC, and GDUC-N formulations. Moreover, the corresponding electricity-price information [[28\]](#page-16-2) is used at PBUC. These are the so-called HRI cases.

$$
D_t = \frac{Gas\text{ Fried Production}_t}{max\{Gas\text{ Fried Production}_t\}} \cdot 0.95 \sum_{g \in G} \overline{P_g}
$$
 (34)

- The last three cases take profiles from the literature about systems with stable thermal generation. These are the so-called STG cases. Some papers repeat daily curves on an hourly basis to extend the time span. The same procedure is assumed in this report when necessary. Case X utilizes profile [[6\]](#page-15-19) for demand and [[12\]](#page-15-8) for prices. Case Y takes [[7](#page-15-14)[,13](#page-15-16)] respectively. Case Z employs [[8](#page-15-20)[,14](#page-15-21)].
- The fuel costs of the HRI cases are taken from the Iberian Gas Market (MIBGAS) to assure operational coherence. The monthly average prices negotiated in the hub [[29\]](#page-16-3) are used in each case. [Table](#page-5-2) [2](#page-5-2) gathers them and the currency exchange rates to calculate fuel costs in \$/MMBtu and the hourly electricity prices in \$/MWh. Regarding the STGs, a fuel cost of 2.5 \$/MMBtu is employed in these cases.

These proceedings establish fifteen medium-term base cases to test the approaches employing different generation portfolios and optimization options. [Fig.](#page-5-3) [2](#page-5-3) reports four monthly HRI demand curves (one per season of the year) and the STG load profiles. It can be appreciated how HRI internalizes the high renewable penetration in modern power systems, diminishing the thermal demand and making it significantly more intermittent when compared to conventional STGs.

3.2.2. Short-term horizons

Besides, 71 short-term base cases are also established to compare the computational performance of the described methodologies with a different time span duration:

• The short-term HRI cases are prepared by randomly choosing five daily profiles from each medium-term HRI case. The unique condition is that the load profile cannot be zero to avoid valueless cases. Then, the corresponding electricity price series are chosen

Fig. 2. Monthly load profiles for EDUC, EDUC-N, GDUC, and GDUC-N methodologies on an hourly basis.

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|--|-------------------|--|--|
|--|-------------------|--|--|

Table 3

for the PBUC approach. Hence, 60 base cases with a 24-hour horizon are generated.

• The short-term STG cases are prepared by taking the eight different daily demand profiles and the three daily electricity prices from the monthly STG cases. Thus, eleven additional base cases with a 24-hour horizon are generated.

3.3. Numerical results of the medium-term case studies

Fifteen base cases are established to compare the aforementioned balance equations in medium-term horizons. Each base case is run using five unit commitment formulations with three different optimality gaps. These setups are tested with the technical data of three thermal portfolios (P1, P2, and P3). Hence, 675 case studies are analyzed in this section.

They have been run in a computer Intel Core i7-8700 @3.20 GHz with 12 logical processors and 32 GB of installed RAM memory running 64-bit Windows 10 Pro, and solved with the commercial solver Gurobi

9.5 under GAMS. Optimality gaps of 10⁻², 10⁻⁴, and 10⁻⁶ are imposed as numerical tolerances to finish the resolution processes. In addition, a maximum run time of 7200 s is established to end the optimization of those excessively computationally-demanding case studies.

It is also important to mention that a value of 1000 \$/MWh was set as non-served energy cost according to the input data. This value is frequently employed in the unit commitment literature because it represents undesired situations (according to market conditions like those considered in this paper) but also provides some flexibility to the thermal operation.

3.3.1. Objective function & run time trade-offs

Despite each methodology entails a different optimization problem, and their corresponding feasible regions cannot be directly compared, a trade-off between the quality of the solution (influenced by the imposed OG) and the run time employed to achieve it can be established for each approach and parametrized case study. For the sake of clarity, this analysis is addressed in [Appendix.](#page-14-0) On the other hand, [Table](#page-6-1) [3](#page-6-1) shows the run times in seconds or their final OG in % when the maximum CPU time is accomplished.

It is important to highlight that some EDUC cases constitute infeasible problems due to the aggressive thermal intermittence of some HRI cases and their inflexibility to meet the exact demand dealing with the portfolios' ramping rates, minimum up and down times, or their initial conditions. However, the cases become feasible when flexible resources such as generation surpluses or NSE options are available.

Besides, when feasible regions are being qualitatively analyzed, some metrics like run times, integrality gaps, or arduousness can be evaluated in spite of utilizing a different demand profile. For that reason, the performance of the EDUC methodology has been compared to the others by modifying its infeasible demand profiles. These feasible-made EDUC cases are included in italics in [Table](#page-6-1) [3](#page-6-1) and further.

Regarding the run times, some differences can be appreciated between 10−⁴ and 10−⁶ OGs despite both performing a one-order magnitude increase from 10⁻². These variations are more significant at P2 and P3 in STG cases, which means that portfolios with small- and medium-generation units are more difficult to optimize with strict OG conditions than only large units. Furthermore, greater run times are observed for P2 (whose number of units is similar to P1) and P3.

Comparing HRI and STG cases, [Table](#page-6-1) [3](#page-6-1) shows that HRI profiles, which represent the ongoing trends in many modern power systems, require more computational resources than STG curves. Moreover, they frequently reach the maximum time limit in P3 with 10−⁴ and 10−⁶ OGs, a quite less common situation with STGs.

Finally, examining PBUC formulation, significantly lower run times are required to find the optimal solution. As expected, the solver identifies that each thermal unit can be treated individually without any shared target (the system's demand) to interrelate them. This simplifies the resolution process, and tiny OGs are quickly achieved. Consequently, there are not many differences between 10−⁴ and 10−⁶ OGs, neither between real market profiles (PBUC - HRI) and literature curves (PBUC - STG). However, portfolios' sizes and configurations introduce a distinction. Larger portfolios (P3), of course, require more run time, but surprisingly, optimizing large generation units (P1) in this approach is more challenging to manage than a mix of small-, mediumand large ones (P2).

After this preliminar analysis in which many results could be considered, a priori, expectable, an in-depth study and comparison between these methodologies is shown in the following sections. The tightness and compactness of each formulation are evaluated. Moreover, the concept of arduousness is introduced to describe computational behaviors that cannot be uniquely explained through T&C, and an analysis of the solver performance is exposed to clarify the obtained results and support the conclusions.

3.3.2. Tightness

The tightness of a mixed integer programming problem is frequently defined as the closeness of the relaxed solution to the integer. It is a desirable characteristic in MILP formulations because the obtention of a more limited feasible region in the relaxed problems' polytopes helps the solver in the branch & cut processes. With the aim of comparing the tightness of different approaches, the integrality gap (IG) was presented in [[6](#page-15-19)]:

$$
IG\left(\% \right) = 100 \frac{OF_{Integer} - OF_{Relaxed}}{OF_{Integer}}
$$
\n(35)

Eq. [\(35](#page-7-0)) determines the integrality gap of a MIP minimization problem. Meanwhile, in maximization problems, the IG is calculated through:

$$
IG\left(\% \right) = 100 \frac{OF_{Relaxed} - OF_{Integer}}{OF_{Relaxed}}
$$
\n
$$
(36)
$$

As previously mentioned in [[17\]](#page-15-10), integrality gaps can utilize the linear programming (LP) solution or the root relaxation as the relaxed

Fig. 3. Integrality gaps obtained with each optimality-gap definition and run times to reach them

OF. In this paper, the root relaxation is employed in the IG calculations because it offers a better idea about the solvers' performances and their abilities to handle these complex problems, manifesting more realistic relaxed targets to whom approximate the integer solution despite taking advantage of heuristics strategies to tight them.

[Table](#page-8-0) [4](#page-8-0) specifies the particular integrality gap of each case in %. Additionally, mean IG values and the average run times to reach them are plotted in [Fig.](#page-7-1) [3](#page-7-1) for every methodology, portfolio, and numerical convergence criterion (10−² , 10−⁴ and 10−⁶ OGs), distinguishing between the HRI and STG cases. It is important to remember that EDUC - HRI cases are considered in spite of using modified profiles because the tightness is a qualitative feature that measures the relaxed-integer proximity.

It can be appreciated that STG cases are not only generally faster than HRI (as exposed in [Table](#page-6-1) [3\)](#page-6-1), but they also achieve better integrality gaps. Therefore, the optimal relaxed solution in the HRI cases is further to the integer one than in STGs. It could be explained by the greater number of start-up and shut-down processes that entail higher intermittency [\[30](#page-16-4)], which can be leveraged in the relaxed formulation to adopt partial decisions in the corresponding binary variables. These behaviors distance to the real operation of a thermal portfolio and would be reduced with stable load profiles. Similarly, cheap electricity prices in PBUC's case Z boost the relaxed solution.

Tightness comparison: integrality gap of each case study.

When the tightness of the different methodologies is studied, STG cases reveal that they often converge to the same IG if strict OGs are imposed. At the same time, greater variations are noticed in the more difficult-to-solve HRI cases. The three portfolios show that EDUC is tighter than EDUC-N, EDUC-N is tighter than GDUC, and GDUC-N is the less tight formulation, manifesting that inequalities in the balance constraint mean a more significant tightness loss than introducing NSE terms when medium-term horizons are considered.

Finally, similar trends are observed in each portfolio. It is important to mention that P3 achieves better IGs than P1 and P2. That must happen because of the 'thermal unit effect': a little operational infeasibility in the relaxed solution involves a more significant impact on smaller generation portfolios.

3.3.3. Compactness

The compactness of an optimization problem is given by the number of constraints (CT) and variables (binary, continuous, and/or integer) that constitute the problem. The approaches studied in this paper only

differ in their balance equation and objective function formulations. In accordance, it would be expected that they manifest a similar compactness. The methodologies with NSE terms will aggregate one more continuous variable (CV) per time step. Meanwhile, PBUC formulation will lose a constraint per time step due to the absence of demand constraint.

Consequently, these approaches show a priori, a practically identical number of constraints, binary variables (BV), and continuous variables. However, the diverse nature of balance equations leads to different feasible regions, which the characteristics of the input data can also modify. Hence, it is necessary to evaluate the compactness after the generation of the polytope that the solver will work with.

[Table](#page-9-0) [5](#page-9-0) gathers the general equations to determine the quantity of CT, BV, and CV of each methodology. Note that these formulas do not consider a little constraint and variable reduction following the imposed initial conditions. (Including this reduction would be confusing if providing a general idea is desired). Moreover, [Table](#page-9-0) [5](#page-9-0) also illustrates the average number of constraints and variables for HRI and

Table 5

STG cases for each methodology, before and after presolve, and the percentage of reduction its performance involves.

The information obtained after the presolve performance reveals that the different formulations' polytopes do not similarly reduce their size at all. Furthermore, differences can be appreciated depending on the portfolio configuration and the nature of demand profiles.

In this section, it would be preferable to avoid comparing EDUC - HRI because its profiles can be reduced after presolve differently. Nevertheless, when the number of CT, BV, and CV are individually observed in the initially feasible EDUC - HRI cases, they experienced a practically identical performance to GDUC in each case study and portfolio. This trend is analogous to EDUC - STG cases.

Besides that, [Table](#page-9-0) [5](#page-9-0) shows that GDUC-N is the less compact formulation, as could be expected. However, the behaviors of EDUC-N and GDUC provide unforeseen conclusions. It can be affirmed that when NSE terms are included, STG problems barely reduce the problem size after presolve. Meanwhile, in their absence, it is possible to achieve a substantial reduction even if greater than equal balance constraints are employed. It could have an origin in that NSE terms bring many start-up and shut-down options to the problem, with the corresponding BV and CT associated. Thus, these approaches cannot be as notably reduced as EDUC and GDUC, in which STG profiles allow a remarkable suppression of unnecessary start-ups and shut-downs, preventing them from removing production decisions (modeled with CV).

Conversely, HRI profiles present EDUC-N as a more compact methodology than GDUC when medium-term horizons are evaluated. Here, the solver seems to identify NSE terms uniquely as an option to make problems feasible and gives a more ample optimization space.

Regarding PBUC, compactness results demonstrate that the solver breaks every generator interrelation, returning tiny problems after presolve. This reduction is more significant as the portfolio's size grows.

Finally, when results are compared at a portfolio level, the formulations that include a balance constraint reveal that greater compactness is achieved with the presence of small- and medium-thermal units (P2).

3.3.4. Arduousness

The mathematical analysis of the feasible region is a tough task that changes with every constraint reformulation. Furthermore, it is also susceptible to the nature of the problem's input data. Likewise, apparently-similar problems experience substantial variations after the presolve performance due to the complexity introduced by the election

of particular balance equations, as demonstrated in [\[31](#page-16-5)]. There, an aggregated demand for the whole time horizon was imposed, leading to remarkably different problem sizes whose resolution processes were drastically complicated.

This scope has been further developed in this paper, given that great discrepancies are observed in analogous-size problems whose resolution would be expected to be uniform. That comes from the different solver's ability to explore the feasible regions induced by the permissivity of the demand constraint (or its absence). For this reason, the concept of 'arduousness' has been introduced as a metric of numerical optimization performances. It is defined as:

Arduousness
$$
(\#/s)
$$
 = $\frac{Number\ of\ Optimization\ Elements\ After\ Presolve(\#)}{Run\ Time\ (s)}$

(37)

Hence, the ability of the solver to work with the polytope of a specific problem and to find an optimal solution can be measured and compared. Although the arduousness will be naturally influenced by the imposition of an optimality gap, presolve options, etcetera, it represents an excellent indicator in formulations' comparison. It is important to note that arduousness considers the problem generation, presolve, and solve time to provide a clear and entire idea of the implications when dealing with a specific methodology.

In this section, the arduousness of managing constraints, binary, and continuous variables has been individually calculated for each methodology, optimality gap, and portfolio, and they are exposed in [Table](#page-10-0) [6](#page-10-0) together with their corresponding average run times, distinguishing between HRI and STG cases. When arduousness is analyzed, surprising behaviors are brought to light, especially when compared with the expected approach performances according to their tightness and compactness.

A clear example is EDUC-N formulation. In previous sections, a better tightness has been obtained for EDUC and EDUC-N methodologies with HRI profiles. Additionally, EDUC-N HRI is more compact than GDUC HRI and GDUC-N HRI. Consequently, it would be expected for this approach to be more efficient than the other two. Nevertheless, it offers worse run times. Therefore, when the EDUC-N HRI performance with strict OGs is compared, it manifests a higher arduousness for CT, BV, and CV than the rest of the methodologies.

Another unpredictable fact is that EDUC HRI, whose tightness and compactness are very good, reflects a worse arduousness than GDUC

Table 6

and GDUC-N. Finally, comparing GDUC and GDUC-N with HRI profiles, an expected result is obtained: GDUC-N's greater arduousness highlights that resolution processes struggle with NSE terms.

On the other hand, STG profiles exhibit a more rational behavior. The arduousness of EDUC-N and GDUC-N formulations is considerably higher than in EDUC and GDUC, which aligns with their greater tightness and compactness. In this way, EDUC performs a similar arduousness to GDUC and EDUC-N to GDUC-N when strict OGs are imposed.

In general terms, STG profiles entail a lower arduousness than HRIs when the approach has a balance equation. Additionally, the portfolio configuration also plays a role. Arduousness increases with the number of units. However, it can be appreciated that large units reduce arduousness when strict OGs are defined. The amount of thermal units is practically equal in P1 and P2. Nevertheless, P2 is more difficult to optimize due to its small- and medium-size generators.

Finally, PBUC formulation displays similar performances for CT, BV, and CV arduousness independently from the OG, given its fast convergence towards a tiny gap to finish the resolution process. Insignificant differences are found when comparing real market profiles and academic electricity prices.

As expected, the largest portfolio (P3) is the most arduous. However, it is remarkable that P2, which has more generation units and entails less compact problems than P1, performs a less arduous resolution. Then, it can be affirmed that when maximizing benefits, small thermal units are more difficult to handle, compared to larger generators, than when operational costs are minimized. This fact could not be concluded according to the tightness and compactness results of PBUC formulation.

3.3.5. Evolution of the optimality gaps & OF bounding

An analysis of the resolution processes of the different methodologies to identify simplicities and complications is described in this section, helping to provide a more detailed explanation for the arduousness results.

[Fig.](#page-11-0) [4](#page-11-0) illustrates the evolution of optimality gaps and objective function bounding, upper bound (UB), and lower bound (LB), which are examined along the run times for each generation portfolio. Some of these data are presented in per-unit magnitudes regarding their final OF value to establish a clearer comparison benchmark for computational performances. It is important to mention that the EDUC approach includes feasible-made cases, as the previous section did. Despite input profiles being different, feasible regions are neither the same for each formulation and insights into how the solver works can be discerned.

The illustration reveals that although EDUC-N and GDUC-N methodologies find 'better' solutions than EDUC and GDUC, they need considerably greater effort to reduce OGs, especially at the beginning. That can be explained through the initial OF raise (the primal bound corresponds to the UB in minimization problems) when NSE situations are allowed. It might happen because the solver focuses on finding a feasible solution soon, which internalizes NSE as a high cost and improves it step by step. Furthermore, it can be appreciated in [Table](#page-15-22) [A.8](#page-15-22) that if the process finishes early (not too low OGs), the optimal solution is 'worse' than in some non-NSE cases. This fact demonstrates that the solver struggles to work with these kinds of 'slackness' but finally finds better solutions when strict OGs are imposed.

However, EDUC can also be stuck at some phases of the resolution process, consuming too much CPU time in improving the OG to continue with the optimization. That is seen in P3 and could have its origin in the inflexibility of the EDUC's balance equation for changing the generation schedule at some point in the branch & cut process, making the solver inefficient for moving to earlier nodes that were less promising a priori but that finally allow an OG reduction after an exhaustive possibilities examination.

Besides, the push-ups^{[1](#page-10-1)} in the lower bounds (dual/best bound in minimization problems) are more significant during the last conver-

¹ The term 'push-up' is introduced in this paper to denote an event of numerical optimization. It consists in redefining the best-bound value when

Fig. 4. Improvements in the optimality gaps versus run time and corresponding evolution of the objective-function bounding along the optimization processes.

gence stages for all the methodologies with demand constraints. It can be observed that when their OFs barely improve, the LBs start to perform higher jumps at the final phase, mainly with portfolios 1 and 2. This remarkable bouncing behavior is a consequence of the thermalunit effect in these generation portfolios. Their smaller sizes imply that making a little operational infeasibility in the relaxed solution

means a higher weight in the resolution performances. Hence, pushups are proportionally greater and take more time to be accomplished, respecting the evolution of the upper bounds.

On the other hand, the LB slopes of EDUC and EDUC-N are generally greater than GDUC and GDUC-N when their optimization processes finish. It can be concluded that the solver identifies that it is worthless to keep trying to improve the OF and proceeds to perform these remarkable jumps in the best-bound assumptions. Meanwhile, GDUC and GDUC-N have more flexible optimization spaces, and their LB jumps are softer in time.

the solver understands that the found solution is not subject to many further developments and, consequently, the optimality gap is unreachable.

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Hence, a relationship with the arduousness can be established: the greater absence of 'big LB jumps' when the OF (UB) is stabilized means a more accessible feasible region exploration, which is translated into a less arduous performance despite these approaches' worse tightness and compactness (especially in HRI cases with strict optimality gaps).

On the other side, OFs (primal bounds) are equivalent to the lower bounds in maximization problems, and the best bounds (dual solutions) correspond to the upper bounds. Nevertheless, analyzing the performance of the PBUC cases exposed in this section is not worthwhile due to their quick convergence toward the optimal solution.

3.4. Numerical results of the short-term case studies and comparison to the medium-term

This section evaluates the computational performance of traditional large-size case studies in the unit commitment problem with large generation portfolios and short-term horizons (24 h). It compares their results to the medium-term horizon (MH) cases described in Section [3.3](#page-6-0).

Accordingly, 60 hourly cases with a daily horizon (DH) are run with each methodology (300 cases) to represent HRI short-term case studies. Besides, eight cases are run as STG-DH profiles in EDUC, EDUC-N, GDUC, and GDUC-N. In PBUC-STG-DH, three cases are considered. Then, a total of 35 STG short-term cases studies are evaluated.

These 335 DH cases utilize P4 as its generation portfolio to obtain large-size case studies with similar dimensions to MH-P3 before presolve in order to make a fairer comparison. DH-P4 cases are run on the same computer and under the same software as MH-P3. An optimality gap of 10−⁴ is chosen as the stopping criterion. Finally, [Table](#page-13-0) [7](#page-13-0) shows their results and compares them to those obtained with MH-P3-10−4OG.

Regarding PBUC, DH and MH manifest similar run times when managing HRI and STG cases. The PBUC-DH-P4 run times are approximately half of PBUC-MH-P3's. The tightness of all these cases is extremely low, and their compactness before presolve is practically identical. Differences appear after presolve performance. DH cases achieve a ∼50 times higher reduction of variables and constraints. It happens because of the internal individualization of generators in PBUC. Then, the shorter horizon in DH makes this size difference. Therefore, when arduousness is calculated, substantial differences are observed. Nevertheless, it is worthless to analyze them in-depth, given that PBUC's resolutions are practically instantaneous.

When run times are analyzed in the methodologies with a balance constraint (EDUC, EDUC-N, GDUC, and GDUC-N), a one-order magnitude difference is appreciated between DH-P4 and MH-P3, being the DH cases faster to solve. However, similar differences are observed in the run time ratio between HRI and STG cases for both situations. STG cases always show lower average run times. Moreover, they perform similarly in STG-DH-P4 independently from the methodology. On the other hand, higher run times are required in STG-MH-P3 for EDUC-N and GDUC-N when compared to EDUC and GDUC.

Regarding the tightness, STG cases manifest lower integrality gaps than HRI in both DH-P4 and MH-P3. However, it is important to note that tightness in HRI-DH-P4 is very close to STG-DH-P4 in every approach, while MH-P3 shows remarkable differences. Hence, the balance constraint and the load profile do not introduce a significant difference in tightness when evaluating short-term horizons.

Likewise, the constraint and variable reductions after presolve in DH-P4 manifest the same behavior. This lack of differences between HRI and STG cases can be explained by the absence of no-load days in the selection of the case studies. Their presence in MH-P3 cases involves a greater reduction after presolve performance. Moreover, it also plays a role in the difference between methodologies observed when medium-term horizons are employed.

Therefore, it can be concluded that problems' tightness and compactness are more predictable (by far) when short-term horizons are considered, involving a reduction in the complexity of the unit commitment problem. Meanwhile, it is important to highlight that these practically equal T&C trade-offs in DH-P4 do not lead to similar run times. Balance constraints also entail differences in these resolution processes. Consequently, determining arduousness is necessary to provide improved insights about the expected computational performance.

In this way, DH-P4 clearly distinguishes the methodologies' arduousness for constraints, binary, and continuous variables. EDUC is more arduous than EDUC-N. For its part, EDUC-N is more arduous than GDUC, and finally, GDUC-N is the less arduous model when working with short-term horizons. This behavior is appreciated in both HRI and STG cases, manifesting a difference between them of one order of magnitude.

4. Conclusions

MILP formulations of the unit commitment problem provide valuable schedules to optimally manage the thermal operation in current electricity markets. However, they also imply a high computational burden when detailed representations are needed. Consequently, multiple approaches are continuously being proposed in the literature.

This paper identifies several research gaps in the unit commitment literature, like the computational implications of choosing a specific balance-equation, dealing with high-intermittency demand profiles, or testing methodologies with large-size problems while avoiding introducing symmetry effects in the resolution processes.

For that reason, an in-depth analysis of the computational performance when utilizing different demand constraints (and price-based relationships) is presented, clarifying differences in feasible regions, resolution performance, and tightness & compactness of their corresponding methodologies. Moreover, some T&C limitations were detected when defining good practices in MIP numerical optimization. In accordance, the concept of arduousness was introduced to enhance computational comparisons.

Furthermore, the study exposed in this article also contemplates analyzing differences when working with stable load profiles in the unit commitment problem and with high intermittency demand curves. Meanwhile, diverse portfolio configurations were also tested to discover how they affect the resolution processes. In turn, medium-term horizons were employed to construct large-size problems without replicating thermal generators to avoid the presence of symmetry effects in this study. Later, they are compared to large-size short-term cases in which thermal units have been replicated to constitute problems whose sizes are similar to the medium-term cases.

Thereafter, the main findings of this paper when analyzing balance constraints in medium-term horizons are summarized below:

- *Objective function and run time trade-off:* although every formulation entails a different feasible region and their OFs cannot be directly compared, computational trade-offs between modeling detail (approaches, portfolios' size and configuration, optimality gaps, solution quality, etc.) and run times were established. HRI profiles involve more difficult-to-optimize polytopes than STG since they require higher computational resources to find a solution, frequently reaching the maximum run time when strict optimality gaps are imposed. Independently, PBUC quickly converges to tiny OGs, given that generation decisions are not interrelated between thermal units. Moreover, it was also detected that large-generators are easier to manage than small- and medium-units in minimization problems. However, when benefits are maximized, large units are more difficult to handle.
- *Tightness:* utilizing STG profiles results in tighter problems for each methodology than HRI curves. In turn, STG cases tend to reach similar IGs when strict OGs are imposed. All these cases are generally tighter than HRI. On the other hand, more significant differences between approaches were observed when working

|--|--|

Computational performance comparison: metrics of each methodology with different time spans.

with HRI cases. There, EDUC is the tightest formulation, followed by EDUC-N. After that, GDUC is tighter than GDUC-N. It means that an inequality in the demand constraint entails a higher tightness loss than utilizing NSE terms in HRI cases. From a portfolio perspective, greater portfolios achieve better tightness because of their operational flexibility. Finally, PBUC cases offer the best tightness independently of the input data.

- *Compactness:* all the formulations have similar CT, BV, and CV numbers before presolve. Nevertheless, remarkable differences appear after the presolve performance. As expected, PBUC is always the most compact approach. Conversely, when NSE terms are considered in STG cases (EDUC-N & GDUC-N), the presolve barely reduces the optimization problem. Meanwhile, EDUC-N is more compact than GDUC in HRI cases. Hence, NSE terms apparently have a more significant impact in cases where startup and shut-down processes were, a priori, less important. At the portfolio level, greater portfolios mean lower compactness in minimization methodologies. However, more substantial reductions are appreciated for P3 rather than P1 and P2 in PBUC cases.
- *Arduousness:* T&C metrics do not always meet the expected resolution process behaviors, especially in HRI cases. For that reason, the concept of arduousness is introduced to provide clearer notions about computational performances, making it also possible to measure and compare the ability of the solver to work with the problems' polytopes and to find optimal solutions. In this way, NSE terms increase the arduousness in STG cases. On the other hand, HRI performances are clarified: EDUC and EDUC-N formulations are more arduous to solve than GDUC and GDUC-N. This surprising result could not be concluded according to

the T&C information. From the portfolio perspective, small- and medium-generators imply greater arduousness in minimization problems. Meanwhile, large units are more difficult to handle in maximization problems.

- *Resolution processes:* the utilization of NSE terms requires a greater effort to reduce the optimality gap, especially at the beginning of the optimization. On the other hand, when the solvers consider that the relaxed solution is unreachable and it is worthless to keep trying to improve the objective function (integer solution), they start to perform changes in the relaxed solution, establishing less strict targets. This phenomenon is generally more remarkable in the final steps of EDUC-N and EDUC cases due to the greater rigidness of their demand constraints.
- *Comparison to short-term problems when problem sizes are similar:* medium-term problems manifest greater differences because of their balance constraint than short-term cases do. They imply differences in tightness and compactness, which are negligible with short-term horizons independently from using HRI or STG profiles. This fact makes arduousness an even more important metric to provide realistic predictions of the methodologies and case studies' computational performance.

Finally, the conclusions manifest the usefulness and validity of the analysis presented in the article. These highlights define several good practices that should be taken into account when any formulation improvement of the unit commitment problem is proposed. Moreover, this article establishes a basis for analyzing future constraints that link all the generators involved in the unit commitment problem, such as reserve constraints. However, it is important to remember that solvers

Fig. A.5. Improvements of the objective functions with optimality-gap reductions and their corresponding run-time increments.

have an internal-opaque functioning which entails some degree of unpredictability, making it imprudent to provide categorical recommendations. Despite that, computational implications of the different exposed methodologies have been clarified thanks to this study, and they can be leveraged in future research from a qualitative perspective in academics and also from a quantitative point of view for independent system operators (ISOs) and utilities.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Luis Montero: Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Supervision, Software, Resources, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Antonio Bello:** Writing – original draft, Supervision, Methodology, Investigation. **Javier Reneses:** Supervision, Methodology, Investigation.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

The authors are unable or have chosen not to specify which data has been used.

Appendix. Computational trade-offs

[Fig.](#page-14-1) [A.5](#page-14-1) illustrates the improvements in the OF regarding the reduction of the optimality gap (the ratio between the solutions and those obtained with a 10^{-2} OG) and the run time of each case. Furthermore, the objective-function data are gathered in [Table](#page-15-22) [A.8](#page-15-22) in \$. It is important to highlight that it would be senseless to consider the feasible-made EDUC cases in these quantitative analyses. Nevertheless, the EDUC HRI cases of July and August are feasible as they are, and their solutions can be typically compared.

In this way, EDUC-N shows 'better' values than EDUC, as expected, since it is a less rigid problem. Consequently, GDUC manifests 'better' OFs than EDUC, and GDUC-N 'overcomes' both EDUC and GDUC when strict optimality gaps are defined. All these results are predictable. However, the point of this section is to determine an OF/run time trade-off per the imposed OGs for these methodologies.

[Fig.](#page-14-1) [A.5](#page-14-1) reflects that OFs never improve more than 1% with the 10−⁴ and 10−⁶ OGs. However, this difference entails substantial revenues [[32\]](#page-16-6) and should not be ignored. Conversely, when OFs with 10−⁴ and 10−⁶ OGs are compared, results are practically equal, and their series overlap in the figure. That may happen because the found solution is not subject to many feasible further developments, and the solver starts to perform push-ups over the best bound, getting their values closer and satisfying the optimality gap.

Table A.8

Objective function comparison.

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