

BEFORE THE
ILLINOIS COMMERCE COMMISSION

Illinois Commerce Commission On its Own Motion	:	
v.	:	
	:	
Commonwealth Edison Company	:	Docket No. 14-0384
	:	
Investigation of Commonwealth Edison Company's	:	
Cost of Service for Low-Use Customers In Each	:	
Residential Class	:	

**Direct Testimony of
Scott J. Rubin**

**on Behalf of
the People of the State of Illinois**

AG Exhibit 1.0

December 4, 2014

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Q. Please state your name and business address.

A. My name is Scott J. Rubin. My business address is 333 Oak Lane, Bloomsburg, PA.

Q. By whom are you employed and in what capacity?

A. I am an independent consultant and an attorney. My practice is limited to matters affecting the public utility industry.

Q. What is the purpose of your testimony in this case?

A. I have been asked by the Office of the Attorney General (“AG”) to review the testimony, exhibits, and workpapers filed by Commonwealth Edison Company (“ComEd” or “Company”) in this case.

Q. What are your qualifications to provide this testimony in this case?

A. I have testified as an expert witness before utility commissions or courts in the District of Columbia, the province of Nova Scotia, and the states of Alaska, Arizona, California, Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Mississippi, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia. I also have testified as an expert witness before two committees of the U.S. House of Representatives and one committee of the Pennsylvania House of Representatives. I also have served as a consultant to the staffs of three state utility commissions, as well as to several national utility trade associations, and state and local governments throughout the country. Prior to establishing my own consulting and law practice, I was employed by the Pennsylvania Office of Consumer Advocate from 1983 through January 1994 in increasingly responsible positions. From 1990 until I left state government, I was one of two senior

23 attorneys in that Office. Among my other responsibilities in that position, I had a major
24 role in setting its policy positions on water and electric matters. In addition, I was
25 responsible for supervising the technical staff of that Office. I also testified as an expert
26 witness for that Office on rate design and cost of service issues.

27 Throughout my career, I developed substantial expertise in matters relating to the
28 economic regulation of public utilities. I have published articles, contributed to books,
29 written speeches, and delivered numerous presentations, on both the national and state
30 level, relating to regulatory issues. I have attended numerous continuing education
31 courses involving the utility industry. I also have participated as a faculty member in
32 utility-related educational programs for the Institute for Public Utilities at Michigan State
33 University, the American Water Works Association, and the Pennsylvania Bar Institute.
34 A copy of my curriculum vitae is attached as AG Exhibit 1.1.

35 **Q. Do you have any experience that is particularly relevant to the issues in this case?**

36 A. Yes, I do. I have testified on numerous occasions as a rate design and cost of service
37 expert. Specific to ComEd, I have testified in, or advised the AG about, several ComEd
38 proceedings during the past decade. My work involving ComEd includes testifying in
39 Docket No. 13-0387, the rate design case that gave rise to the current proceeding.

40 **Summary**

41 **Q. What is the primary focus of your direct testimony?**

42 A. My testimony concerns ComEd's conclusions about the demand characteristics, cost to
43 serve, and appropriate rate design for the residential customer classes.

44 **Q. Please summarize your recommendations.**

45 A. My recommendations are summarized as follows:

- 46 • It is not reasonable to draw conclusions from ComEd's hourly demand
47 data from single-family heating customers because of the very low number
48 of customers sampled. ComEd should be directed to revisit that study
49 after AMI meters are more fully deployed to heating customers.
- 50 • ComEd's hourly demand data collected from tens of thousands of
51 residential non-heating customers and multi-family heating customers
52 demonstrate that residential customers' peak demands are almost perfectly
53 proportional to annual energy usage. These data prove the unfairness of
54 straight-fixed variable ("SFV") pricing and, if confirmed in future years,
55 would obviate the need to consider demand rates for residential customers.
- 56 • ComEd's studies show that lower-use customers' demand costs are
57 significantly lower than such costs for higher-use customers. This
58 provides further evidence of the unfairness of SFV-type pricing.
- 59 • ComEd's studies show that the rate design approved by the Commission in
60 Docket No. 13-0387, which takes effect on January 1, 2015, will equitably
61 collect demand-related costs from all residential customers.
- 62 • There is no reason to change the residential rate design ordered in Docket
63 No. 13-0387 or to implement separate rates for lower-use customers.

64 **Overview of ComEd's Load Research Data**

65 **Q. Have you reviewed the load research data ComEd provided?**

66 A. Yes. The data were provided in large Microsoft Excel files for each residential customer
67 class: Single Family No Heat ("SFNH"), Single Family Heating ("SFH"), Multi-Family
68 No Heat ("MFNH"), and Multi-Family Heating ("MFH").

69 **Q. How are the data presented?**

70 A. The data are divided into 20 separate groups based on annual energy consumption,
71 arranged from lowest consumption (the 1st through 5th percentiles) to highest
72 consumption (the 96th through 100th percentiles). Within each group, the group's

73 average energy consumption in kilowatt-hours ("kWh") is calculated for each hour of the
74 year. A kilowatt-hour for one hour is a kilowatt ("kW"), which is the standard measure of
75 electricity demand. Thus, the data provide both energy consumption levels and the
76 ability to calculate peak demand.

77 **Q. Are there enough data in ComEd's sample to draw reasonable conclusions about the**
78 **demand characteristics of different groups of customers within each customer class?**

79 A. Yes, except for the SFH customer class. Table SJR-1 shows the number of customers
80 sampled in each customer class, the total number of customers in the class, and the
81 margin of error at a 95% confidence interval.¹ In statistical analysis, the margin of error
82 at a given confidence interval provides information about the likelihood that the results of
83 a random sample accurately represent the population as a whole.

84 For example, assume that a sample finds that the average age of the population in
85 Chicago is 40 ± 2 years at a 95% confidence interval. This would mean that if 100
86 separate random samples of the population in Chicago were taken, 95 of the samples
87 would report an average age between 38 years and 42 years (40 ± 2 years). That is, the
88 smaller the margin of error and the higher the confidence interval, the more assurance we
89 have that the results of a single sample provide a realistic portrayal of the actual
90 population.

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¹ The margin of error, also known as the confidence interval, is calculated using the sample size calculator at <http://www.nss.gov.au/nss/home.nsf/pages/Sample+size+calculator>.

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Table SJR-1: Summary of ComEd's Sample Data			
Customer Class	No. of Customers	Sample Size	Class Margin of Error at 95% confidence interval
SFNH	2,249,791	67,467	± 0.4%
SFH	35,237	314	± 5.5%
MFNH	1,055,957	46,538	± 0.4%
MFH	161,093	7,836	± 1.1%

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The margins of error in Table SJR-1 are based on the assumption that ComEd is sampling a single group within each customer class to try to determine the characteristics of the average customer in the class. In fact, though, ComEd broke each customer class into 20 separate groups and obtained a separate sample from each group. When the population and sample size are both large (as they are in the SFNH class, for example), then the margins of error would not change significantly when evaluated for each of the 20 subgroups within a class. For example, in the SFNH class each group represents approximately 125,000 customers and ComEd's smallest sample was 1,759 customers. The margin of error for this sample is approximately $\pm 2.3\%$ at a 95% confidence interval. Thus, the least reliable sample within the SFNH class still provides reasonable assurances that the results of the sample reasonably represent the subgroup as a whole.

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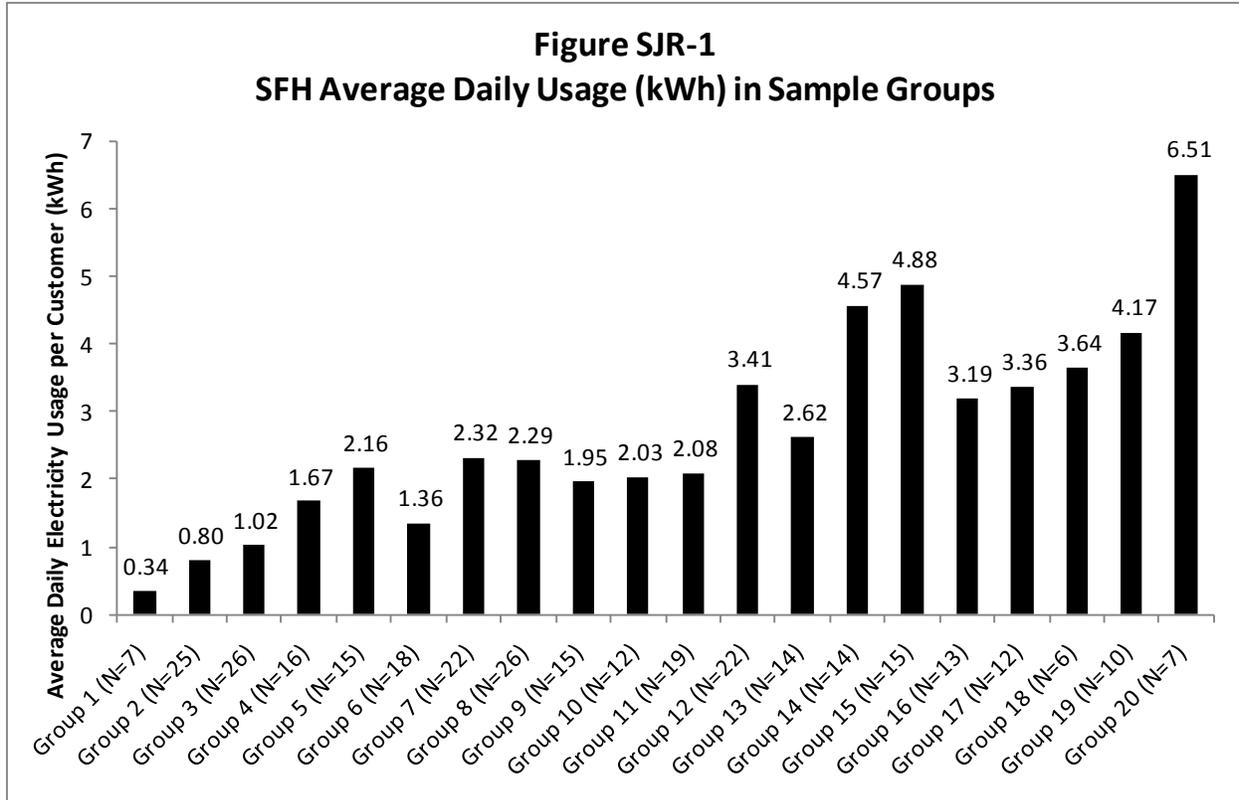
109

The high margin of error and small sample size in the SFH sample, however, indicate that the results of the sample from that customer class might not be representative of the class as a whole, and certainly not when the class is broken into 20 subgroups. Specifically, the samples of particular five-percentile groups within the SFH class have extremely low numbers. Three of the 20 groups within the class have only six

110 or seven meters that were used to represent 1,760 customers.² A sample that small has a
111 margin of error of 40% at a 95% confidence interval. This would mean that if a group
112 showed a peak demand of 4 kW, the actual peak demand could be anywhere from 2.4 kW
113 to 5.6 kW which is a very large difference. In other words, we have no idea what the
114 actual subgroups within the SFH class look like. The sample of that class is too small to
115 provide any meaningful information about the actual electricity consumption of
116 customers in the subgroups during the year.

117 In fact, as one would expect from such small samples, the SFH data do exhibit
118 serious anomalies. Figure SJR-1 shows the average daily consumption per customer in
119 each SFH group. The data are presented in what are supposed to be the lowest to highest
120 usage groups (group 1 is supposed to be the lowest consumption group; group 20 is
121 supposed to be the highest consumption group).

² ComEd Ex. 2.05, Sch. 2a, 14:291 shows that there are 35,237 customers in the SFH class. Each subgroup representing 5% of the customers in the class, therefore, would have 1,762 customers.



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It is readily apparent that the very small sample size (shown as "N=" after each group on the graph) is leading to inaccurate results. Groups 14 and 15 have higher average daily consumption than groups 16 through 19; group 12 has higher average consumption than groups 13, 16, and 17, and so on.

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Q. How large of a sample would be needed to bring the SFH class's results within a reasonable margin of error?

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A. In order to have reliable results for the SFH class -- a margin of error of $\pm 5\%$ for each subgroup -- it would require a sample size of about 315 customers from each subgroup, or about 3,800 customers in total; not the 314 meters actually included in ComEd's sample for the entire class.

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133 **Q. Why do you state that a margin of error of plus or minus 5% is a reasonable figure**
134 **for each subgroup?**

135 A. Plus or minus 5% appears to be a reliable margin of error for an analysis of this type.
136 The difference in average hourly energy usage among the SFH subgroups appears to be
137 0.5 kWh or less, so the margin of error would be about 0.025 kWh above and below the
138 observed average, or about 0.05 kWh (10% of the average) in total. A margin of this size
139 would help ensure that the data accurately represent the subgroup and do not overlap with
140 the adjacent subgroups.

141 **Q. Can you draw any conclusions for SFH residential customers using such a small**
142 **sample size?**

143 A. No. The small sample size and resulting margins of error make it impossible to draw any
144 meaningful conclusions about SFH class usage characteristics. I will not perform any
145 additional analyses using the SFH data because the data do not accurately represent the
146 customer class.

147 **Q. What do you recommend with respect to the SFH customer class?**

148 A. I recommend that, if the Commission finds this type of data and analysis to be useful, that
149 the Commission direct ComEd to perform an additional analysis for the SFH customer
150 class. The data should be collected only when ComEd has deployed enough automated
151 metering infrastructure ("AMI") meters within the SFH class to collect a sufficient
152 amount of data for the results to be reasonably representative of the customer class.

153 **Q. Are the data for the other customer classes sufficient to conduct meaningful**
154 **analyses?**

155 A. Yes, though particular subgroups in the MFH analysis are under-represented in ComEd's
156 sample, leading to margins of error in excess of 10% for two of the subgroups. The
157 remainder of my testimony will discuss ComEd's results for the SFNH, MFNH, and MFH
158 classes.

159 **ComEd's Analysis**

160 **Q. What is your understanding of the analysis ComEd performed for this case?**

161 A. As I understand it, ComEd separated each residential customer class into a "low-use"
162 group (the lowest 25% of customers based on annual consumption) and a second group
163 representing the remaining 75% of customers. (ComEd also performed an analysis that
164 separated a "high-use" group -- the largest 25% of customers based on annual
165 consumption, but neither ComEd nor I found that separation to be particularly
166 meaningful, so I will not discuss it further.) ComEd then performed an embedded cost of
167 service study ("ECOSS") using those groupings.

168 ComEd also developed rate design options based on the low-use class subgroups.
169 Those rate design options include the methodology employed by the Commission in
170 Docket No. 13- 0387 (the methodology I recommended in that case) and a methodology
171 that moves toward SFV pricing (collecting at least 50% of each subgroup's cost of service
172 through fixed charges).

The Flawed Theory of SFV Pricing

173

174 **Q. What is the general theory behind SFV pricing?**

175 A. SFV pricing is based on the notion that a utility should recover its fixed costs through
176 fixed charges. One significant problem with SFV pricing is defining what costs are
177 "fixed." In the field of economics, whether a cost is fixed or variable depends on the time
178 period being evaluated. If one were evaluating what could happen today, nearly all of a
179 utility's costs would be fixed: it would have a certain number of employees, the wires
180 and transformers all exist, it has a certain amount of paper on hand, and so on.

181 If, however, one were evaluating what could happen over the next five years,
182 many of a utility's costs would be variable. The size of transformers could be changed,
183 the number of employees could be increased or decreased, computer systems could be
184 upgraded or consolidated, office space could be expanded or contracted, and so on.

185 **Q. Is there a certain type of cost that is important to understand for SFV pricing?**

186 A. Yes. A utility has three general categories of costs: customer-related, demand-related,
187 and energy-related. Both SFV pricing and traditional utility pricing (the method the
188 Commission adopted in Docket No. 13-0387) usually collect customer-related costs
189 through fixed charges (a customer charge and/or meter charge). Both methods collect
190 energy-related costs through variable (per kWh) charges. The essential difference
191 between the two approaches is the treatment of demand-related costs. SFV pricing treats
192 demand-related costs as "fixed" and attempts to collect them through fixed charges.
193 Traditional pricing treats demand-related costs as related to customer demand (or a proxy

194 for customer demand when demand meters are not available) and recovers demand costs
195 through variable charges.

196 **Q. Do customer demands influence the amount of demand-related costs?**

197 A. Absolutely. ComEd witness Robert Garcia acknowledges this in his testimony. First, he
198 states: "Only if demand rises so much that facility additions are required, or if permanent
199 demand falls so much that equipment can be economically downsized or retired, do these
200 [demand] costs change." ComEd Ex. 1.0, 10:201-203. He then explains that "ComEd
201 determines the capacity of that [distribution] system component based on the projected
202 peak load requirement on that component over the long term. The system is thereby
203 designed and sized to be able to serve long-term peak demands." Id., 10:215-217.

204 **Q. What time period does ComEd use in its discussion of SFV pricing?**

205 A. ComEd focuses on the very short run. That is, it assumes that all of the physical
206 equipment, people, office supplies, buildings, and other costs cannot be changed. The
207 only "variable" cost in ComEd's view is Illinois Electricity Distribution Tax which is
208 based on the amount of electricity purchased by customers. Specifically, Mr. Garcia
209 states: "A fixed cost for the purpose of this rate design is a cost that does not vary in the
210 short run with the use of electricity by a customer or class of customers" Id., 9:193-
211 194.

212 **Q. Does a short-run analysis make sense for a utility?**

213 A. No. The utility business requires long-term investments in plant, equipment, and people.
214 Those investment decisions are based on expectations about the future: the number of
215 customers to be served, the amount of electricity they will use, and what their electrical

216 demands will be during peak periods. Plant and equipment have useful lives of many
217 years and it takes years to train certain types of employees (such as line workers and
218 substation electricians). A utility makes very few decisions based on the short run and it
219 makes no sense to price utility services based on short-run marginal costs.

220 **Q. Do short-run changes in customer demands cause a change in the cost of service?**

221 A. That is a complex question. An electricity distribution system is designed to serve the
222 anticipated peak demands and energy requirements of all customers. Very little if any of
223 that investment is actually "caused" by a single customer. When we talk about the
224 principle of cost causation, we are actually talking about a fair way to allocate shared
225 costs among customer classes and customers.

226 For example, when a substation is installed in a certain location, it is very unlikely
227 that one customer "caused" that substation to be sized and installed, because the
228 equipment is designed to serve hundreds or thousands of customers. It is the collective
229 peak demands and energy needs of customers that "caused" the equipment to be installed.
230 A change in one customer's usage usually will not "cause" a substation transformer to be
231 made larger or smaller.

232 That obvious statement, however, misses the point. When we allocate costs
233 among customer classes in a cost-of-service study, we recognize the shared nature of
234 these common costs. When done correctly, we allocate those costs to each customer
235 class in a way that is fair to all customers. In the case of most of the common equipment
236 in an electric distribution system, the costs are allocated based on a measure of peak
237 demand. As Mr. Garcia states, approximately 80% of distribution facility costs are

238 allocated among customer classes using coincident peak demand ("CP") (that is, each
239 class's contribution to the system's peak demand), with the remaining 20% of distribution
240 costs based on non-coincident peak demand ("NCP") (that is, a customer class's highest
241 demand at any time during the year). ComEd Ex. 1.0, 24:465-466.

242 That same principle needs to apply when rates are designed. It is illogical and
243 unreasonable to say that the cost of serving residential customers is based, in large part,
244 on demand, but then to design rates using a methodology – SFV --- that ignores demand.

245 **Q. Can you provide an example to illustrate what you mean?**

246 A. Yes, consider this very simple example. Assume we have a utility that has two customer
247 classes, residential and non-residential. Each class has exactly the same peak demand
248 and annual energy consumption: a peak demand of 50 and annual energy use of 1,000
249 (the units don't matter for this illustration), or total system demand of 100 and total
250 system energy usage of 2,000. Also assume that the residential class has 10 customers,
251 each of whom has exactly the same usage profile -- a peak demand of 5 and annual
252 energy use of 100. To simplify the example, we can also assume that each class peaks at
253 the same time, so NCP and CP are the same.

254 Based on a demand allocator, each class would be allocated 50% of the cost of a
255 substation, and each of our 10 residential customers should be responsible for exactly the
256 same amount (one-tenth of the class's costs, or 5% of the overall cost of substations).

257 Now assume that one residential customer decides to buy an electric car, resulting
258 in the customer's annual energy usage and peak demand doubling. So while all other
259 residential customers still have demand of 5 and usage of 100, this one customer has

260 demand of 10 and usage of 200. We can also assume for the sake of this illustration that
261 the utility would not have to install any new equipment to serve this increased demand.

262 What happens as a result of this one customer's change? System demands
263 increase from 100 to 105. System energy usage increases from 2000 to 2100. The
264 residential share of both demand and energy usage has gone from 50% to about 52.4%
265 (55/105 and 1100/2100). So instead of being allocated 50% of the cost of substations, as
266 used to be the case, the residential class would now be allocated 52.4% of the cost -- all
267 because this one customer increased its demand and energy usage. System costs have not
268 changed at all, but the costs allocated to the class -- which are the costs designed to be
269 collected through rates -- have increased.

270 This is where rate design plays such an important role. Under SFV pricing, each
271 residential customer would pay exactly the same amount toward the cost of substations.
272 In our example, the residential class's share of costs increases from 50% to 52.4% (almost
273 a 5% increase), so with SFV rates all residential customers' bills would be increased to
274 collect this additional cost of service.

275 In contrast, under a rate design that mimics the way in which costs are fairly
276 allocated to classes (which is what is meant by cost causation), rates would recognize that
277 the "cost increase" (a shorthand expression for the increase in costs allocated to the class)
278 was caused by just one customer. If substation costs are collected based on a customer's
279 energy consumption or demands, then the customer whose consumption doubled would
280 pay most (or ideally all) of the cost increase. That is exactly what happens under a
281 traditional rate design that collects demand-related costs either through a demand charge

282 (when demand metering is in place) or through an energy charge (when demand-metering
283 is not feasible).

284 In our example, a proper rate design -- a rate design that is consistent with the
285 cost-of-service study's allocation methodology -- provides a result that is fair to all
286 customers. The customer who caused the residential class's cost allocation to increase
287 bears the responsibility for those increased costs. Other customers, whose demands and
288 energy usage did not change, are not asked to subsidize the high-use/high-demand
289 customer.

290 **Q. Have utility economists evaluated the efficacy of short-run pricing?**

291 A. Yes. To the best of my knowledge, there is no support among reputable public utility
292 economists for setting utility rates based on short-run marginal costs. This notion was
293 floated by a few economists during the 1940s and 1950s and quickly was discredited by
294 those who understood the public utility industry. The essential flaw in pricing electricity
295 distribution service based on short-run marginal cost is that the industry exhibits
296 economies of scale (as one would expect from a natural monopoly). This means that the
297 marginal cost declines as more of the product is supplied (at least up to some point). We
298 see this in the price of nearly every component of the distribution system: installing and
299 maintaining a transformer or distribution wire with twice the capacity of a smaller facility
300 does not result in doubling the cost; indeed, the cost increment often is relatively small
301 compared to the increase in capacity. In an industry that exhibits economies of scale (that
302 is, declining marginal costs for at least a portion of the supply curve), setting prices equal
303 to short-run marginal cost results in the firm being unable to recover its costs. In an
304 industry providing an essential public service like electricity distribution, this is simply

305 untenable, as it would force the utility to go out of business, or at least to stop replacing
306 and maintaining its facilities.

307 In the first edition of Professor James Bonbright's seminal work, *Principles of*
308 *Public Utility Rates*, published in 1961, he devotes an entire chapter to the theory of
309 marginal cost pricing. One portion of that chapter (pages 395-399) is a section entitled
310 "Critique of Proposal to Fix Rates at Short-Run Marginal Cost." In his critique,
311 Professor Bonbright explains that pricing based on short-run cost is inconsistent with the
312 long-run time horizon and function of a public utility and the proper setting of utility
313 rates. First, he explains that pricing based on short-run costs would violate consumers'
314 expectations (one of his fundamental principles: rate continuity). Specifically, he writes:

315 By and large, the major influence exercised on consumer demand for
316 utility services by any current rates of charge for these services is an
317 influence based on the expectation that these rates indicate, at least in a
318 general way, the rates that will remain in effect over a considerable period
319 of time. For it is the anticipated, fairly long-run costs of service which a
320 potential consumer wisely takes into account when he faces a decision ...
321 whether to equip his home with an electric range or with electric space
322 heating; or whether to locate his aluminum plant on the St. Lawrence
323 River rather than in the state of Washington. Once having become
324 dependent on the services required for the operation of expensive
325 complementary equipment, the consumer's responsiveness to temporary
326 changes in rates of charge will probably be very limited. In short, the
327 price elasticity of demand for utility services can be expected to be much
328 greater in the fairly long run than in the very short period of time. But if
329 utility rates were to be made as volatile as would be required by the
330 mandate of conformity to short-run marginal costs, they would deprive
331 consumers of those expectations of "reasonable continuity" of rates and of
332 rate relationships on which they must rely in order to make rational
333 advance preparations for the use of service.³

334 Professor Bonbright also explains that short-run marginal cost pricing of utility
335 services (because of the economies of scale) would require some type of payment to the

³ James C. Bonbright, *Principles of Public Utility Rates* (New York, NY 1961), pp. 396-397 (emphasis added).

336 utility to recover the remainder of its revenue requirement. Some economists suggested
337 that a tax payment should be made while others suggested that a large fixed charge could
338 be imposed by the utility (that is, a rate design similar to SFV pricing). Professor
339 Bonbright explained that such a charge or tax would be unfair to those who did not
340 consume the product or who consumed relatively little of it. That unfairness is not just a
341 social welfare concern, but a fundamental economic concern: requiring a non-user (or
342 low user) of a service to subsidize the service for those who use it more does not increase
343 overall economic welfare; rather, it transfers the “consumer surplus” (that is, the benefits
344 of a service in excess of the costs paid for the service) from one group of customers (the
345 low users) to another group (the large users).⁴

346 Professor Robert Harbeson, an economist specializing in utility regulation at the
347 University of Illinois starting in the 1950s (and to whom Bonbright cites) explicitly
348 addressed this concern in a paper published in 1955.⁵ Professor Harbeson discusses
349 proposals to implement a two-part utility tariff consisting of a charge to “assess the
350 portion of the costs which varied with output and would be based on marginal cost” and
351 the second part that would “assess the portion of the costs which were independent of
352 output” – that is, the type of SFV pricing ComEd advocates. Professor Harbeson
353 explains that this type of two-part tariff would be reasonable only on the condition that
354 “the individual’s share of the fixed costs must be arrived at voluntarily on the basis of
355 individual negotiation; only in this way can we be certain that the contributions of the

⁴ *Id.*, p. 397.

⁵ Robert W. Harbeson, A Critique of Marginal Cost Pricing, *Land Economics*, 31:1:54-74 (Feb. 1955).

356 individual users toward the fixed costs do not exceed their respective estimates of the
357 utility of the project to themselves, and hence that there has been an increase in welfare.”⁶

358 Professor Harbeson recognized this would not be possible when there are a large
359 number of users, but he explained that if the fixed-cost component is not individually
360 negotiated, it would have the same economic effect as a tax: transferring consumer
361 welfare from non-users (or low users) to large users of the service.⁷ As he states: “a
362 lump-sum tax is likely to exceed consumers surplus for some individuals and to fall short
363 of consumer surplus for others and no conclusion can be reached as to whether or not
364 welfare has been increased”⁸

365 In short, economists considered and rejected ComEd’s type of pricing proposal
366 more than 50 years ago. SFV pricing lacks any reasoned basis in economic theory. Such
367 a pricing scheme is not more efficient and is not fairer to customers. In fact, exactly the
368 opposite is true: pricing that assumes each customer is responsible for the same amount
369 of demand-related costs is inherently unfair -- it recovers excessive costs from low-
370 demand customers and fails to recover the cost of service from high-demand customers.
371 Economists who have studied this problem concluded that SFV pricing is simply a
372 method of transferring wealth (or consumer surplus) from one group of customers to
373 another. There is no discernible increase in overall societal welfare and no improvement
374 in the efficiency of use of the utility’s service. In fact, such a pricing proposal could lead
375 consumers and utilities to make decisions that are not in their long-run best interests.

⁶ Id., p. 61.

⁷ Id.

⁸ Id., p. 60.

376 Indeed, a critical flaw in the SFV methodology is that it ignores the fact that electricity
377 distribution service is, by its very nature, a long-run service.

378 **Q. Are Professors Bonbright and Harbeson the only utility economists that have**
379 **addressed this issue?**

380 A. No. Professor Charles Phillips also discusses marginal cost pricing in his comprehensive
381 book, *The Regulation of Public Utilities: Theory and Practice*. Professor Phillips writes:

382 On balance, should minimum rates be determined by short-run or long-run
383 marginal costs? Despite the greater difficulty in measurement, most
384 economists would probably favor the long-run. In using the concept of
385 long-run marginal costs, the added costs of providing a service (e.g., the
386 additional operating expenses and the cost of any additional construction,
387 including a full rate of return thereon) would be taken into account. Only
388 when a firm has significant and continuing excess capacity (such as off-
389 peak periods) may short-run marginal costs be a better guide to pricing
390 decisions.

391 It is important to emphasize, however, that marginal costs set the
392 lower boundary – the floor below which rates should not fall. But they
393 should not determine rates, since the upper boundary is set by demand
394 conditions and regulation.⁹

395 **Q. What do you conclude about the reasonableness of using SFV-type pricing; that is,**
396 **setting rates based on short-run marginal costs, as ComEd proposes?**

397 A. The use of short-run marginal cost for utility rate-setting was discredited more than 50
398 years ago and there is no need to resuscitate that proposal today. It simply is not proper
399 to use short-run marginal costs to set utility rates. Moreover, the use of such costs in
400 setting utility rates would require sizeable lump-sum payments from customers (as
401 ComEd is proposing in its SFV-type pricing) that do nothing to promote economic

⁹ Charles F. Phillips, Jr., *The Regulation of Public Utilities: Theory and Practice* (Arlington, VA, 3rd ed. 1993), p. 449 (emphasis added).

402 efficiency and are not consistent with the cost of service. They are simply transfer
403 payments (equivalent to taxes) from low-demand customers to high-demand customers.
404 Not only do such payments have no net effect on social welfare, they can encourage high-
405 use customers to use even more electricity, which is directly contrary to the promotion of
406 energy efficiency.

407 **Residential Energy Consumption as a Proxy for Demand**

408 **Q. Is demand measurement important to determining an appropriate rate design?**

409 A. Yes. As discussed above, the critical difference between SFV rate design and traditional
410 rate design is the treatment of demand-related costs. Pure SFV pricing collects all
411 demand-related costs on a per-customer basis (that is, each customer pays the same
412 amount). Traditional rate design collects demand-related costs through a per-kWh
413 charge, so that customers who use more electricity pay more toward demand-related
414 costs. ComEd's ECOSS shows that more than 50% of ComEd's residential cost of service
415 is demand-related. ComEd Ex. 2.05, Sch. 2a, 13:279:284 (the largest residential class,
416 SFNH, has distribution [or demand] related costs of \$663,649,234 out of a total cost of
417 service of \$1,102,560,002, or 60.0%).

418 **Q. Do most residential customers have demand meters?**

419 A. Historically, no. With the advent of so-called "smart meters," or Advanced Metering
420 Infrastructure (AMI), the capability will exist to measure individual residential customers'
421 demands.

422 **Q. Without demand meters, how are residential customers' demands estimated?**

423 A. Residential class demands are estimated through load research studies. Until this case,
424 however, ComEd has not provided data that would make it possible to estimate individual
425 residential customers' demands.

426 **Q. Without individual customer demand measurements, is there a reasonable way to**
427 **estimate those demands?**

428 A. In the past, I have used monthly billing data to show that peak demand appears to be
429 proportional to annual energy consumption. That is, lower-use customers have peak-
430 month demands that are much lower than the peak-month demands of higher-use
431 customers. Such an analysis is not as precise as demand meters would provide, but it was
432 the best that could be done with the available data.

433 **Q. Has ComEd provided data in this case that shows the relationship between energy**
434 **consumption and peak demand?**

435 A. ComEd has provided data for each of 20 groups of customers within each residential
436 customer class. Each group is a sample that is supposed to represent five percent of the
437 customers in the class, arranged from lowest consumption to highest consumption. As I
438 discussed above, however, some of those samples are much too small to accurately
439 represent 5% of the customers in a class. For the largest customer class, SFNH, each
440 group represents approximately 125,000 customers. ComEd's data provides actual hourly
441 meter readings for an entire year for between 1,700 and 4,000 customers in each group.
442 For the other customer classes, the groups and sample sizes are smaller, as I discuss
443 below.

444 **Q. Before you discuss the details for each customer class, why are these new data**
445 **important?**

446 A. These data are important because they allow us to see, for the first time, the actual
447 relationship between residential customers' energy consumption and the contribution to
448 class or system-wide peak demand. If, as I estimated in previous cases, customers' peak
449 demands are closely related to energy consumption, then this would confirm the
450 reasonableness of traditional rate design that collects demand-related costs on a per-kWh
451 basis. If, however, customers' contributions to peak demand were largely unrelated to
452 annual energy consumption, then it would lend credence to ComEd's advocacy of SFV-
453 type pricing that collects demand-related costs in roughly equal amounts from each
454 customer.

455 **SFNH**

456 **Q. Have you analyzed the data from ComEd's SFNH class?**

457 A. Yes. The data were provided in ComEd's workpapers in the file-: *ComEd Ex. 2.0 WP 7*
458 *(ComEd Ex 2.04 C23 SFNH AMI Profiles).xlsx*. The data appear on tabs numbered 1
459 through 20, with each tab representing a group of 5% of the class's customers, or
460 approximately 112,000 customers. The sample sizes range from 1,759 customers in
461 group 1 to 4,024 customers in group 4. In total, data were collected from 67,467
462 customers for each hour of the year.¹⁰ The margins of error of the samples within each
463 subgroup range from 1.5% to 2.3% which provide reasonably reliable results.

¹⁰ Technically, ComEd collected data from meters, not customers. If a residence changed ownership during the year, a single meter might represent data from more than one customer, but each for a partial year. For simplicity, I will refer to customers rather than meters.

464 **Q. How did you use these data?**

465 A. I compiled the hourly consumption data for each group into a single data set (or
466 spreadsheet), so the data set consists of 8,760 rows (one for each hour of the year) and 20
467 columns (one for each customer group). The data points (or cells in a spreadsheet) are
468 average electricity consumption in kWh in that hour. ComEd calculated these averages
469 by taking the total consumption from all customers sampled and dividing that figure by
470 the number of customers.

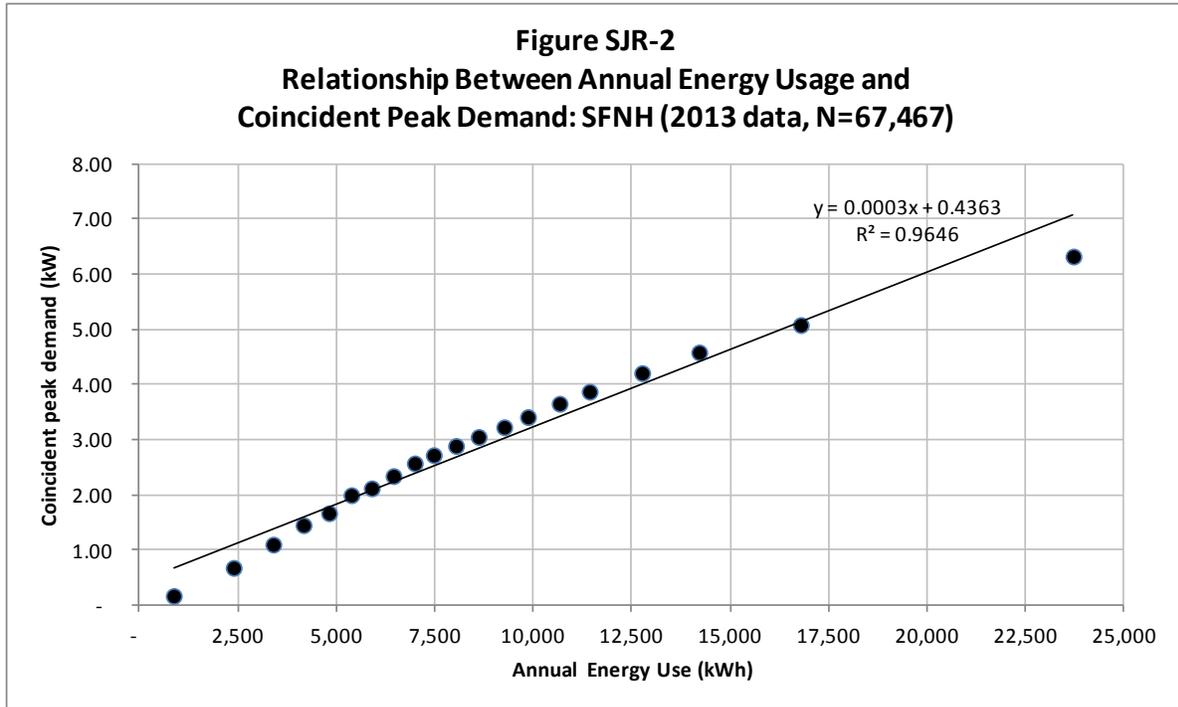
471 I then calculated the total annual energy consumption per customer for each
472 customer group. I also calculated each group's contribution to the system-wide peak (the
473 CP) and the class's peak (the NCP) demands.

474 ComEd's workpapers show that the system coincident peak occurred on July 18 at
475 1800 hours (6:00 p.m.). I calculated from the data set that the SFNH class NCP occurred
476 on July 19 at 1900 hours (7:00 pm).

477 I determined each group's contribution to the system and class peaks, plotted them
478 against annual (per customer) energy consumption, and then plotted a trend line to show
479 the relationship between the two. The trend line is a linear regression analysis. The
480 results of a linear regression show the intercept (the hypothetical demand associated with
481 zero energy consumption), the slope (the amount by which demand changes with each
482 increase of 1 kWh in annual energy consumption), and the R-squared (R^2) which
483 measures the "goodness of fit" or the amount of variance between each data point and the
484 trend line. The higher the R^2 , the closer the line fits the data.

485 **Q. What are the results of your analysis for the SFNH class?**

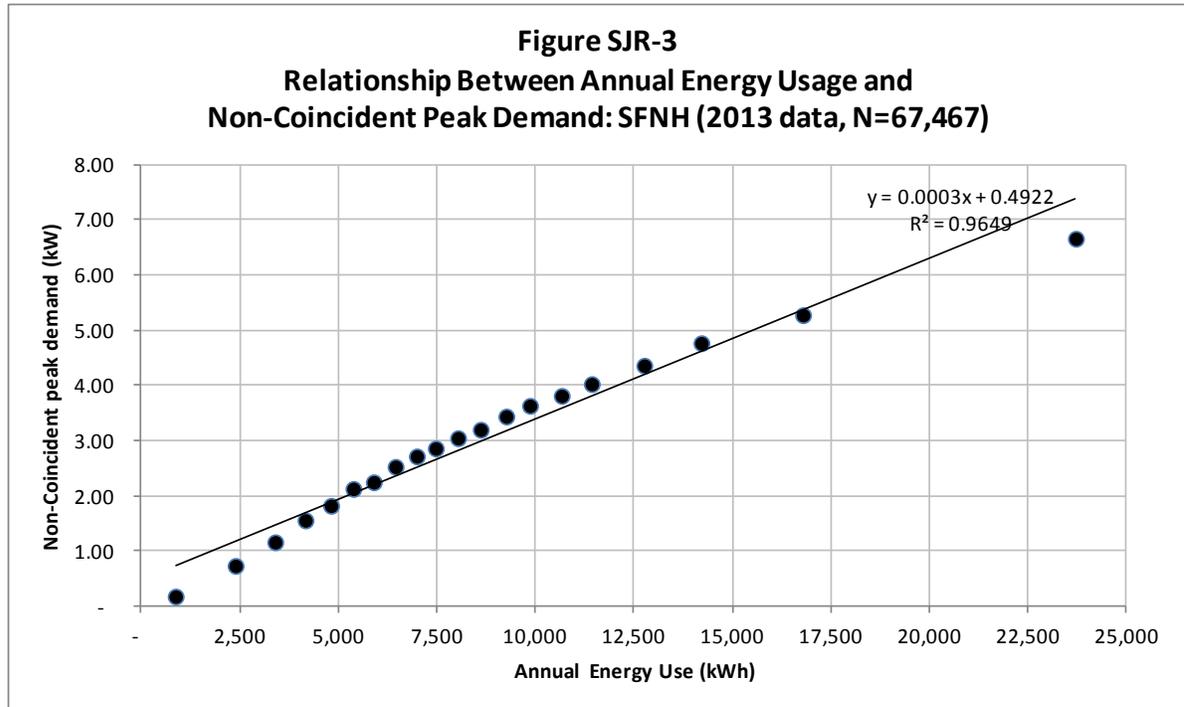
486 A. The results of my analysis for the SFNH class are shown on Figures SJR-2 and SJR-3
487 (CP and NCP, respectively).¹¹



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¹¹ Each of the following graphs shows the sample size in the title ("N=").



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This analysis shows that there is almost a perfect linear relationship between annual energy consumption and a customer's contribution to either system-wide (CP) or class (NCP) demand. In each instance, the R^2 exceeds 96% which means that the trend line provides an excellent representation of the actual, observed data. Indeed, the equations for both the CP and NCP analyses show that as a customer's annual energy consumption increases by 1 kWh, the customer's contribution to the system's or class's peak demand increases by 0.0003 kW. In more readily understandable terms, for each 1,000 kWh increase in annual consumption, a customer's contribution to peak demand increases by 0.3 kW. So a customer who uses 10,000 kWh annually will have a peak demand that is approximately 1.5 kW higher than a customer who uses only 5,000 kWh annually.

502 **Q. Why is this analysis, which reveals a near-perfect linear relationship between**
503 **annual energy consumption and a customer's contribution to either system-wide**
504 **(CP) or class (NCP) demand, important?**

505 A. This analysis is important because it demonstrates that a customer's annual energy
506 consumption serves as a reasonable proxy for the customer's contribution to peak
507 demand. With a statistical relationship this strong, it may not be necessary to go to the
508 expense (not to mention potential customer confusion) of measuring individual
509 customers' demands and developing residential demand charges. These data show that
510 collecting demand-related costs on a per-kWh basis is fair to customers because those
511 customers who use more electricity on an annual basis contribute more to demand-related
512 costs in a directly proportional manner.

513 This analysis also highlights the fallacy of SFV pricing. As I explained above,
514 SFV pricing is based on the theory that each customer should bear an equal responsibility
515 for demand-related costs. These data conclusively show that customers' demands are
516 nowhere near equivalent because those customers who use more electricity also
517 contribute more to peak demands. SFV pricing is not consistent with principles of cost
518 causation that direct us to collect costs in a manner that bears a reasonable relation to the
519 manner in which they are incurred. Demand-related costs account for more than half of
520 all residential costs, and they are not incurred equally for each customer -- those
521 customers who use more electricity contribute more to peak demands in direct proportion
522 to their increase in energy consumption.

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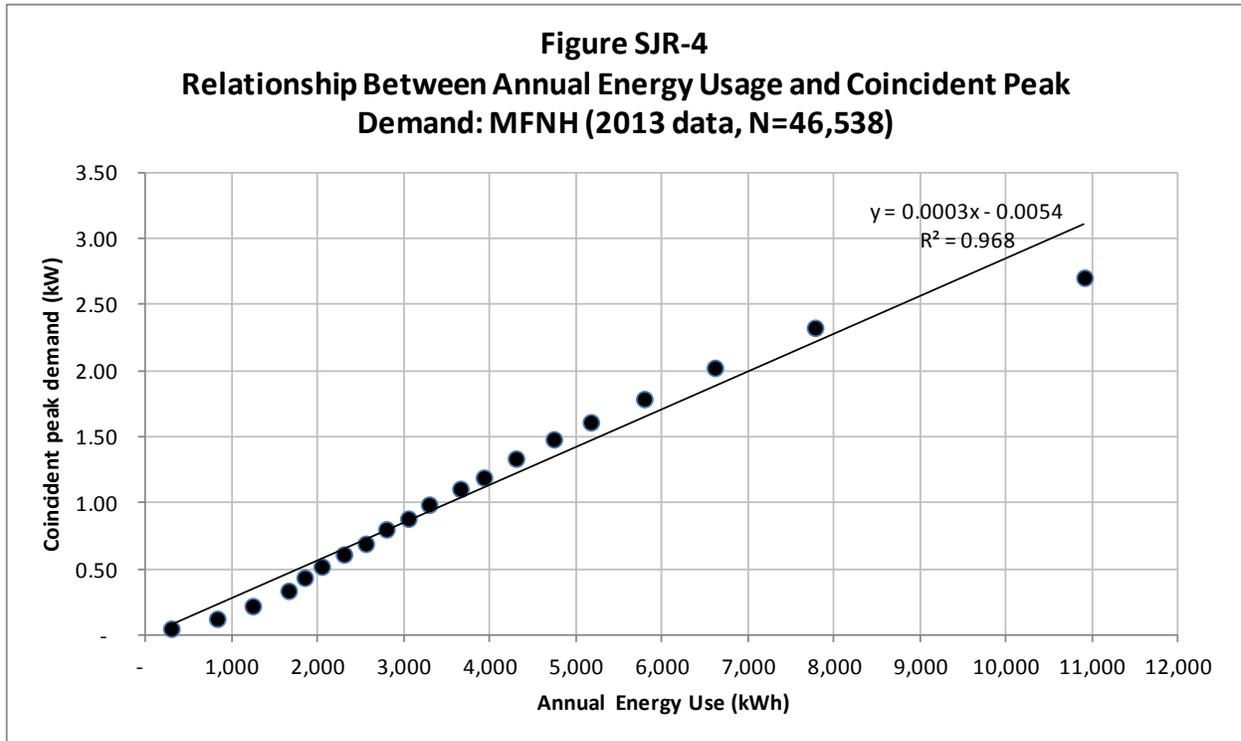
MFNH

524 **Q. Did you perform a similar analysis for the MFNH class?**

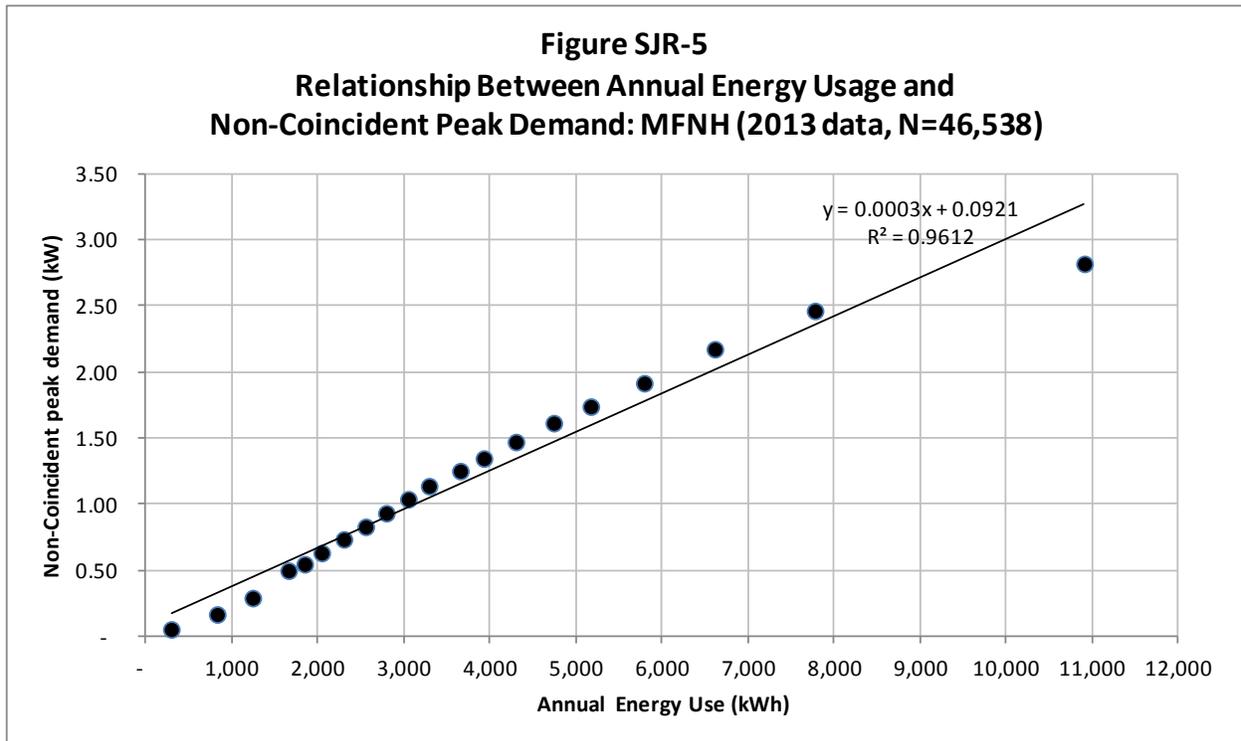
525 A. Yes. I performed the same type of analysis comparing annual energy consumption to
526 peak demand for the MFNH class. I followed the same methodology I explained above.
527 The data were provided in ComEd's workpapers in the file *ComEd Ex. 2.0 WP 8 (ComEd*
528 *Ex 2.04 C24 MFNH AMI Profiles).xlsx*. The data appear on tabs numbered 1 through 20,
529 with each tab representing a group of 5% of the class's customers, or approximately
530 53,000 customers. The sample sizes range from 911 customers in group 1 to 2,959
531 customers in group 14. In total, data were collected from 46,538 customers for each hour
532 of the year. The margins of error of the samples within each subgroup range from 1.8%
533 to 3.2% which provide reasonably reliable results.

534 **Q. What are the results of your analysis for the MFNH class?**

535 A. The results of my analysis for the MFNH class are shown on Figures SJR-4 and SJR-5
536 (CP and NCP, respectively). For reference, the time of the system peak (CP) is the same
537 for all classes (July 18 at 1800 hours); based on the data set, the MFNH class NCP
538 occurred on the same day four hours later (2200 hours).



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The results for the MFNH class are almost identical to those for the SFNH class

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analysis. There is almost a perfect linear relationship between annual energy consumption

543 and a customer's contribution to either system-wide (CP) or class (NCP) demand. In each
544 instance, the R^2 exceeds 96% which means that the trend line provides an excellent
545 representation of the actual, observed data. Indeed, the equations for both the CP and
546 NCP analyses show that as a customer's annual energy consumption increases by 1 kWh,
547 the customer's contribution to the system's or class's peak demand increases by 0.0003
548 kW (a customer whose annual energy consumption increases by 1,000 kWh will see an
549 increase in peak demand of 0.3 kW).

550 Thus, like the results in the SFNH class, these data conclusively show that (1)
551 customers' demands are nowhere near equivalent because those customers who use more
552 electricity also contribute more to peak demands; and (2) a customer's annual energy
553 consumption serves as a reasonable proxy for the customer's contribution to peak
554 demand.

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MFH

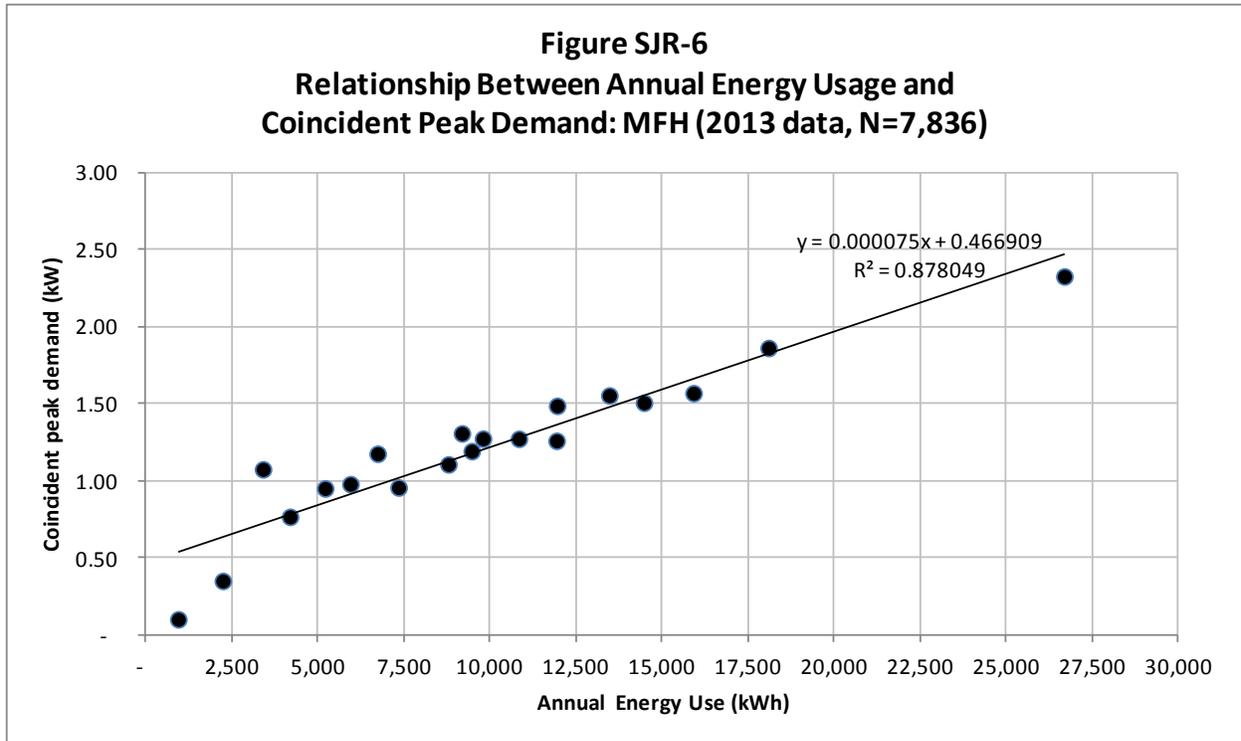
556 **Q. Did you perform a similar analysis for the MFH class?**

557 A. Yes. I performed the same type of analysis comparing annual energy consumption to
558 peak demand for the MFH class. I followed the same methodology I explained above.
559 The data were provided in ComEd's workpapers in the file *ComEd Ex. 2.0 WP 10*
560 *(ComEd Ex 2.04 C26 MFH AMI Profiles).xlsx*. The data appear on tabs numbered 1
561 through 20, with each tab representing a group of 5% of the class's customers, or
562 approximately 8,000 customers. The sample sizes range from 58 customers in group 1 to
563 3,851 customers in group 3, with most groups having a sample between 175 and 250
564 customers. In total, data were collected from 7,836 customers for each hour of the year.

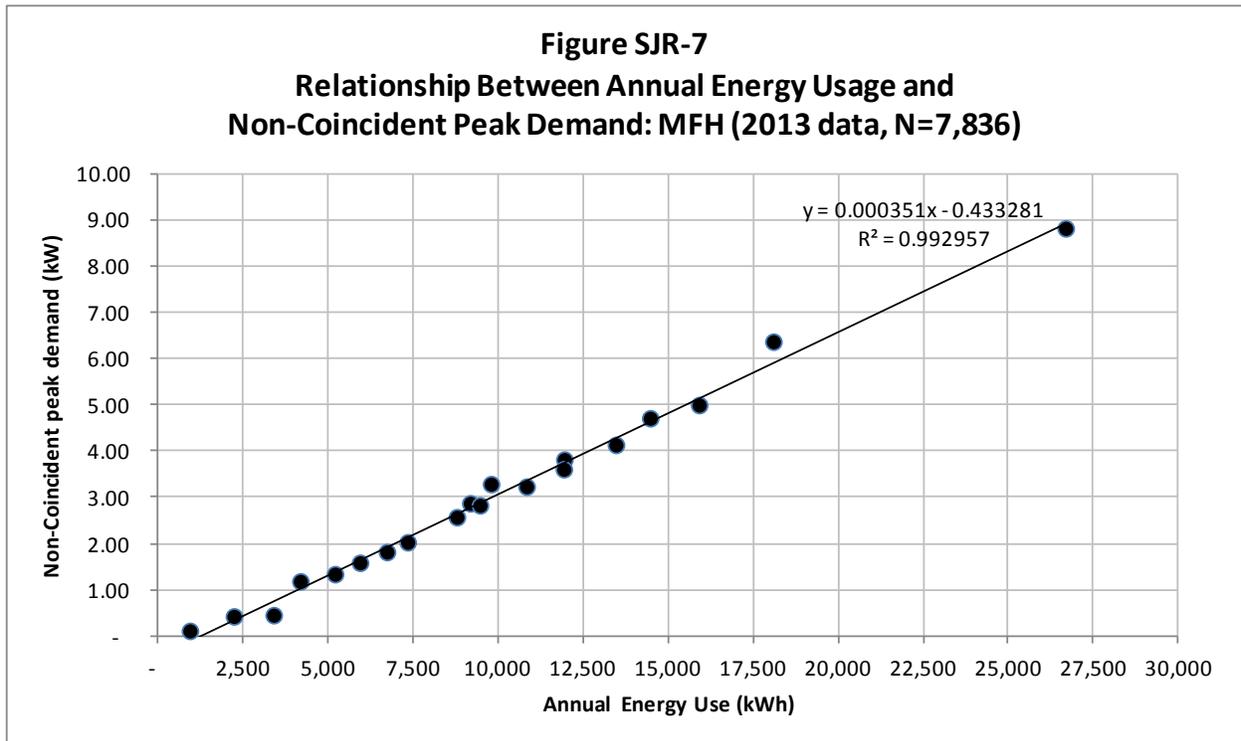
565 The margins of error of the samples within each subgroup range from 1.1% to 12.9%,
566 with most of the subgroups' margins of errors in the 6% to 7% range. I will discuss the
567 results of my analysis of ComEd's data for the MFH class, but I am concerned about the
568 reliability of some of the data given the relatively small sample sizes and higher margins
569 of error. If the Commission finds this type of analysis useful and would want to see it
570 replicated in future cases, then ComEd should be directed to provide data from a larger
571 sample of customers within the subgroups in the MFH class.

572 **Q. What are the results of your analysis for the MFH class?**

573 A. The results of my analysis for the MFH class are shown on Figures SJR-6 and SJR-7 (CP
574 and NCP, respectively). The time of the system peak (CP) is a summer peak that is the
575 same for all classes (July 18 at 1800 hours); based on the data set, the MFH class NCP
576 occurred during the winter (January 22 at 800 hours).



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As was the case with the SFNH class and the MFNH class analyses, the analysis

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for the MFH class shows that there is an excellent linear relationship between annual

581 energy consumption and a customer's contribution to either system-wide (CP) or class
582 (NCP) demand. Because the MFH class is a winter-peaking class, the relationship
583 between annual energy consumption and the system peak (which occurred in the
584 summer) is less strong, but still quite robust with an R^2 of approximately 88%. The
585 relationship between annual energy usage and the class NCP is almost perfect with an R^2
586 exceeding 99%.

587 The equation for the CP analysis shows that an increase in a customer's annual
588 energy consumption of 1,000 kWh would increase the customer's contribution to the
589 summer peak demand by about 0.07 kW. A similar increase of 1,000 kWh in annual
590 energy usage would increase the customer's contribution to the winter NCP by
591 approximately 0.35 kW.

592 Thus, like the results in the SFNH and MFNH classes, these data show that (1)
593 customers' demands are nowhere near equivalent because those customers who use more
594 electricity also contribute more to peak demands; and (2) a customer's annual energy
595 consumption serves as a reasonable proxy for the customer's contribution to peak
596 demand.

597

598 ***Summary of Demand Analyses***

599 **Q. What do you conclude from the analyses of data for the SFNH, MFNH, and MFH**
600 **customer classes?**

601 A. The analyses show that there is an excellent linear relationship between annual energy
602 consumption and a customer's contribution to either system-wide (CP) or class (NCP)

603 demand for each customer class. For the non-heating classes, the changes in contribution
604 to both system peak (CP) and class peak (NCP) are similar: a 1,000 kWh increase in
605 annual energy consumption is associated with a 0.3 kW increase in the customer's
606 contribution to demand. For the heating class, a similar relationship holds for the class
607 NCP, but the contribution to the summer system peak is lower (only about 0.07 kW per
608 1,000 kWh increase in annual energy usage).

609 Importantly, the analyses demonstrate that a customer's annual energy
610 consumption serves as an excellent proxy for the customer's contribution to peak demand.
611 In each of these customer classes, therefore, it is reasonable to collect demand-related
612 costs on a per-kWh basis. Doing so will result in cost-based rates that are fair to all
613 customers -- those who use more electricity on an annual basis cause more demand-
614 related costs on the distribution system. The relationship is linear and quite strong.

615 Finally, as I explained above, these analyses highlight the inherent fallacy of SFV
616 pricing. SFV pricing assumes that each customer should bear an equal responsibility for
617 demand-related costs. These data show that customers' demands are nowhere near
618 equivalent. Customers who use more electricity contribute more to peak demands. SFV
619 pricing, is not consistent with principles of cost causation that direct us to collect costs in
620 a manner that bears a reasonable relation to the manner in which they are caused.
621 Demand-related costs account for more than half of all residential costs, and they are not
622 incurred equally for each customer -- customers who use more electricity contribute more
623 to peak demands in almost direct proportion to their increase in energy consumption.

624

ComEd's ECOSS Analyses

625 **Q. Did you review ComEd's ECOSS analyses?**

626 A. Yes, I did. Those analyses are sponsored by Mr. Tenorio as ComEd Exhibits 2.05, 2.06,
627 and 2.08.

628 **Q. How are those studies organized?**

629 A. ComEd Exhibit 2.05 is the base ECOSS, meaning that it is based on the current customer
630 class structure of four residential classes (SFNH, SFH, MFNH, SFH), with all customers
631 within a class being on the same rate schedule. ComEd Exhibit 2.06 illustrates the
632 changes that would occur if a low-use subgroup were established in each residential class,
633 meaning that there would be eight residential classes and rate schedules. ComEd Exhibit
634 2.08 illustrates what would happen if each rate schedule were broken into three parts: a
635 low-use group, a high-use group, and the remaining customers. This option would result
636 in 12 residential classes and rate schedules.

637 **Q. Based on your findings about the relationship between energy consumption and
638 demand, is there any reason to subdivide the residential classes into smaller groups?**

639 A. No. My analysis shows that because of the very strong relationship between annual
640 energy consumption and contribution to class and system-wide peak demands, there is no
641 reason to separate low-use from higher-use customers within a customer class. The
642 differences in the cost of serving those types of customers are almost exclusively
643 demand-related. Because of the direct linear relationship between annual energy use and
644 demand, collecting demand-related costs on a per-kWh basis is fair to all customers,
645 regardless of usage, and will result in cost-based rates for all customers. There is no need

646 to complicate the ratemaking process, develop multiple rates schedules within each class,
647 or move customers from one rate schedule to another based on their annual consumption.
648 If demand-related costs are collected on a per-kWh basis -- as they will be starting
649 January 1, 2015, under the rate design ordered by the Commission in Docket No.
650 13-0387 -- rates will reasonably reflect the cost of serving each residential customer.

651 **Q. Does ComEd's two-group ECOSS provide data to support your approach?**

652 A. Yes. ComEd's two-group ECOSS (ComEd Ex. 2.06) shows that demand-related costs for
653 low-use customers in each rate class are much lower than demand-related costs for
654 higher-use customers in the class, and are proportional to energy consumption.

655 For example, under the two-group ECOSS analysis the SFNH class would be
656 divided into two groups. The low-use group would have 561,948 customers, while the
657 remaining group would have 1,685,843 customers. ComEd Ex. 2.06, Sch. 2a, 19:291.
658 That is, the low-use group accounts for approximately 25% of the SFNH customers.

659 Those low-use customers, however, have total demand-related costs of only
660 \$54,517,110, while the other customers have demand-related costs of \$609,140,769. Id.,
661 Sch. 2a, 19:282. That is, 25% of the customers are responsible for only 8.2% of demand-
662 related costs.

663 Similarly, those low-use customers use only 7.6% of the electricity in the SFNH
664 class (1,562,766,875 kWh for the low-use customers; 18,999,955,171 kWh for the
665 remaining 75% of customers). Id., Sch. 2a, 19:289.

666 In other words, the proportion of demand-related costs allocated to the low-use
667 customers is nearly the same as the proportion of the class's electricity (kWh) used by the
668 low-use customers. Collecting demand-related costs on a per-kWh basis makes sense
669 and is consistent with cost-causation principles.

670 In contrast, SFV pricing would have collected 25% of demand-related costs from
671 the 25% of customers placed in the low-use group. The ECOSS demonstrates, however,
672 that those customers should be responsible for only 8% of those demand-related costs, as
673 noted above. As economists have stated for more than 50 years, setting rates based on
674 short-run variable costs would greatly over-collect costs from low-use customers and
675 under-collect costs from higher-use customers. Such subsidies are not consistent with
676 either economic theory or sound ratemaking practices.

677 **Conclusion**

678 **Q. What is your conclusion?**

679 A. I conclude that the Commission need not create a separate low-usage class nor change
680 the residential rate design ordered in Docket No. 13-0387. That rate design is based on
681 sound cost-of-service and ratemaking principles. As noted above, ComEd's own ECOSS
682 and low-use customer study reveal the near-perfect linear relationship between usage and
683 contribution to peak demand. The new data provided by ComEd in this case confirm and
684 highlight the wisdom of the Commission's decision to reject SFV-type pricing.

685 **Q. Does this conclude your direct testimony?**

686 A. Yes, it does.