

TECHNICAL ANNEX

Technical Foundations, Sensitivity Analyses, and Implementation Guidelines

Supporting Evidence for the Resilient Energy Transition Framework

John F. Ryder

Drive-In s.r.o., Slovakia

2026

Licence: CC BY-NC-ND 4.0

Acknowledgement

AI systems were used to assist with data synthesis, scenario testing, and drafting; responsibility for all modelling choices and conclusions rests with the author.

Introduction

This annex provides technical grounding for the Resilient Energy Transition Framework (RETF) flagship policy paper and accompanying documents. It expands the stylised comparative model, incorporates 2025–2026 empirical data on technology costs and pilot outcomes, stress-tests key assumptions (especially behavioural uptake), and provides actionable implementation guidelines for the proposed local energy stewards and four-state resilience architecture. All monetary values are in 2024 euros unless noted. References to pillar numbers (Pillar I–IV) follow the RETF framework definition in the flagship paper.

1. Updated Technology Cost Parameters (2025–2026 Benchmark)

Recent market data validates the main model’s cost parameters while confirming continued downward pressure on key components. The table below benchmarks each key technology against 2025–2026 market data.

Technology	Parameter	Range (2025 Benchmark)	Paper Value	Source
Rooftop Solar	€/kW installed	€1,000–1,800/kW (N.Europe €1,200–1,800; S.Europe €1,000–1,400)	€1,200/kW	Fraunhofer ISE 2025; SolarPower Europe 2026
Grid-Scale Batteries (4-hr)	€/kWh all-in	€120–200/kWh (utility-scale); LCOS <€60/MWh	€150/kWh	SolarPower Europe Battery Market Review 2025
Distribution Automation & Smart Controls	€/household	€800–1,400/household (falling with scale)	€1,200/household	VPP pilot reports; national TSO data
Heat Pumps + Thermal Mass Flexibility	% heating load shiftable	30–40% within 4–6 hr window (well-insulated stock)	30%	National TSO reports; Fraunhofer ISE
EV Smart Charging	€/unit installed	€300–600/unit	€400/unit	Ember 2025; national pilot data
Wind (onshore)	€/kW	€850–1,050/kW	€900/kW	IRENA 2023; IEA WEO 2024
Solar (utility)	€/kW	€550–700/kW	€600/kW	IRENA 2023; Fraunhofer ISE 2025

Table 1: RETF Technology Cost Benchmark — 2025–2026 Market Data vs Model Parameters

These trends strengthen the RETF case: falling hardware costs amplify the value of early coordination infrastructure investment. Each percentage point reduction in battery cost at €150/kWh base improves the avoided storage saving in the RETF pathway. The €1,200/kW rooftop solar figure remains a conservative midpoint for northern and central Europe, consistent with 2025–2026 market data from Germany, the Netherlands, and Poland.

Heat pump adoption rates in northern Europe (Norway ~60% of buildings, Sweden and Finland >40%) validate the demand flexibility assumptions used in the model. The 30% shiftable heating load assumption within 4-hour windows is confirmed by TSO operational data from Nordic markets.

2. Model Refinement: Core Structure and Equations

The RETF comparative model is a linear capacity-expansion framework minimising net present value (NPV) of system costs over 20 years subject to reliability constraints. The objective function and key constraints are set out below for transparency and replication.

2.1 Objective Function

Minimise: $\sum [\text{CAPEX}_{\text{gen}} + \text{CAPEX}_{\text{storage}} + \text{CAPEX}_{\text{grid}} + \text{OPEX} + \text{Curtailment}_{\text{penalty}}] - \text{Revenue}_{\text{from flexibility arbitrage}}$

Subject to: LOLP < 0.01; emergency fossil dispatch < 5% of annual generation.

2.2 Demand Constraint

$D_t = G_t + S_t + \text{Flex_shift}_t + \text{Import}_t$ (for each hour t)

Where D_t is demand, G_t is local generation, S_t is storage discharge, Flex_shift_t is demand shifted from another hour, Import_t is grid import.

2.3 Peak Reduction

$\text{Peak}_{\text{net}} = \text{Peak}_{\text{base}} \times (1 - \alpha \times \text{Participation})$

Where $\alpha \approx 0.22$ at 70% participation (derived from pilot data); decreasing approximately linearly to $\alpha \approx 0.09$ at 30% participation.

2.4 Demand Flexibility Modulation

$\text{Flex}_{\text{effective}} = \text{Flex}_{\text{max}} \times \min(1, 1.2 \times P)$

With diminishing returns above 60% participation: at $P > 0.6$, additional participants contribute sub-proportionally due to overlapping flexibility windows and asset heterogeneity.

Parameter	Value	Justification
System size (annual demand)	100 TWh/year	Representative northern European economy; calibrated for winter peak analysis
Peak-to-average demand ratio	2.4:1	Consistent with Germanic/Nordic grid profiles under current electrification levels

Parameter	Value	Justification
Modelling horizon	20 years	Standard for infrastructure NPV analysis; captures full asset lifecycle
Discount rate	4% real	Consistent with EU infrastructure investment guidance
Curtailment penalty	Included in OPEX	Sunk cost of curtailed renewable generation at marginal LCOE
LOLP constraint	<1% (0.01)	Standard reliability target; defines storage and backup requirements
Emergency fossil dispatch limit	<5% of annual generation	Transition compatibility test; not a hard constraint—a threshold
Participation modulation	$\text{Flex_eff} = \text{Flex_max} \times \min(1, 1.2 \times P)$	Diminishing returns above 60%; consistent with European pilot data

Table 2: Core Model Parameters and Justification

Demand Category	Flexibility Assumption	Flexibility Window	Basis
Space heating (heat pump + thermal mass)	30% of daily heating load shiftable	4–6 hour windows	Building thermal inertia; well-insulated northern European stock
EV charging	60% of daily EV charging flexible	Within daily cycle	Smart charging pilots; Perez et al. 2021
Other residential demand	20% price-responsive	Spot price spread >€50/MWh	Faruqui & Sergici 2010; EU pilot aggregation
Behavioural uptake (base)	70% opt-in under neutral consumer economics	—	Upper bound of European pilot range; sensitivity tested down to 30%

Table 3: Demand Flexibility Modelling Assumptions

3. Extended Sensitivity Analysis: Behavioural Uptake

The base case 70% opt-in assumption is optimistic relative to many European residential demand response pilots, where enrollment typically achieves 20–50% even with financial incentives. The sensitivity analysis below stress-tests the RETF advantage across a realistic range of participation rates.

Participation Rate	Effective Peak Reduction	RETF Cost (B€)	Savings vs Supply-Led	Savings vs Coord-First	Time-to-Stability
30% (pessimistic)	9–11%	€158–162B	13–15%	3–6%	12–13 years
40% (conservative)	13–15%	€148–152B	18–21%	7–10%	11–12 years
50% (realistic)	16–18%	€142–145B	22–24%	11–13%	10–11 years
70% (base case)	22%	€136.7B	27%	17%	10–11 years

Table 4: RETF Cost and Performance Sensitivity to Participation Rate (20-year NPV, € billion, 4% real discount rate)

Key observations from the sensitivity analysis:

- At 40% participation, the RETF still delivers approximately €35–39B in savings versus supply-led, primarily through reduced overbuild (15–18 GW less renewable capacity) and storage avoidance (€12–14B).
- Curtailment rises modestly to 9–11% at 30% participation but remains well below supply-led levels (18%), preserving the structural advantage.
- The advantage persists at low participation because early coordination creates option value: reversible distributed investments scalable as participation grows, in contrast to supply-led capital that is committed and illiquid.
- Equity sensitivity: subsidising low-income participation to 60% (via €80–120/household/year compensation) restores near-base performance while narrowing energy poverty gaps, consistent with observed outcomes in German and Danish energy community programmes.

4. RETF Governance Implementation Toolkit: Local Energy Stewards

The three-tier RETF governance architecture (national targets → local stewards → individual veto) draws directly from proven European models. The following implementation guidelines provide a practical template for EU standardisation and Member State adoption.

Governance Element	Specification	Notes / Precedent
Legal form	Public-interest cooperative or municipal foundation (non-profit, asset-holding)	German Stadtwerke; Danish heating cooperatives
Board composition	40% residents (elected), 20% businesses, 15% municipality, 15% environmental/civic, 10% technical experts	Dispute rate <5% in comparable bodies
Compensation model	Regulated return on verified flexibility services (demand	No profit from energy arbitrage; prevents gaming

Governance Element	Specification	Notes / Precedent
	reduction, curtailment avoidance, stability provision); symmetric penalties for non-delivery	
Privacy architecture	Federated learning default; granular data never leaves premises without explicit consent; GDPR-compliant by design	Kairouz et al. 2021
Participant exit rights	Any participant may revert to manual mode on 30 days notice; assets remain community property	Preserves Pillar III individual veto
Funding model	Regulated return on verified services + connection fee (€20–40/household/year)	Self-sustaining at scale; requires REPowerEU seed funding for establishment
Mandate scope	Optimise within national carbon budget and reliability constraints; maintain tested manual fallback protocols; distribute 60% of benefits as bill credits; 40% to system services fund	Annual fallback testing required

Table 5: Local Energy Steward — Governance Specification Template

This governance structure has been demonstrated at scale in existing European models. German Bürgerenergie cooperatives report dispute rates below 5% and sustained participation above 60% over multi-year periods. Danish district heating cooperatives demonstrate that mandatory local governance does not reduce participation; in mature areas it exceeds 80%.

The RETF steward model extends these precedents in two critical directions: first, by integrating AI-mediated optimisation within the cooperative governance structure rather than delegating it to a separate vendor; second, by mandating manual fallback capability as a governance obligation rather than a technical option. Both extensions are operationally necessary for Pillar I (Stability) and Pillar III (Sovereignty) compliance.

5. Four-State Resilience Architecture: Operationalised

The following operationalises the RETF four-state resilience model with concrete scenario specifications for a 5,000-household neighbourhood energy steward facing a coordinated cyber event.

Attack Vector	RETF Countermeasure	Recovery Protocol
IoT controller compromise	Device-level authentication; vendor access audit trails; automatic isolation on anomalous behaviour	State 3 (Manual) activation; cryptographic re-enrolment before State 1 restoration
Supply-chain compromise of optimisation software	Air-gapped fallback rules pre-loaded on separate hardware; software signature verification; annual fallback test confirms independence	State 2/3 activation; full software audit before restoration
False data injection (load/price manipulation)	Cross-validated sensor readings; statistical anomaly detection; human-legible audit logs at steward level	State 2 rule-based override; ACER/ENTSO-E notification; algorithm audit
Ransomware targeting VPP/DER assets	Manual-first design ensures blackout is not a ransomware leverage point; community battery provides autonomy	State 3 operation during recovery; phased reconnection with verification
Communications layer denial-of-service	Local rule execution does not require cloud connectivity; 15-min timeout triggers automatic State 2	Automatic State 2 degradation; manual State 3 if >4 hrs

Table 6: RETF Cyber Resilience — Attack Vector, Countermeasure, and Recovery Protocol

5.1 Illustrative Cyber Scenario: Supply-Chain Compromise

Scenario: Optimisation software for 5,000-household neighbourhood VPP is compromised through vendor update channel. False demand signals are injected, causing systematic over-discharge of community battery assets.

RETF response sequence:

1. State 2 triggered automatically when community battery state-of-charge falls outside expected range by >15% within a 30-minute window.
2. Local rule-based control activates: battery charge/discharge governed by simple price rules pre-loaded on separate hardware. Vendor software isolated from control loop.
3. Steward notified; State 3 (Manual) activated within 60 minutes. Critical loads prioritised: medical equipment, refrigeration, lighting. Discretionary loads shed in rotation. Battery provides 5-hour autonomy.
4. Steward broadcasts status via SMS and local radio. Residents informed of manual mode operation.
5. Software audit completed; clean version verified cryptographically. State 4 (Recovery) initiated. Phased reconnection over 6 hours with manual approval at each stage.
6. State 1 (Normal) restored. Incident report filed with national cybersecurity authority and ACER.

Total outage for critical loads: zero. Total outage for discretionary loads: 4–6 hours during State 3 operation. This outcome is only possible because the manual-first design principle was implemented as an architectural requirement, not a contingency plan.

6. Limitations and Future Extensions

6.1 Modelling Limitations

The stylised model abstracts from several real-world complexities. Geographic and institutional heterogeneity across Member States will produce materially different cost and participation outcomes. The model does not capture cascading failure dynamics, recovery time distributions, or the interaction between multiple simultaneous disruptions. Non-linear grid effects at high penetration levels (reactive power, frequency regulation, voltage stability) require more detailed network modelling than the capacity-expansion framework provides.

6.2 Sectoral Scope

The current model addresses the power-heat-transport nexus. Non-electric sectors (heavy industry, aviation, maritime, agriculture) present fundamentally different coordination challenges. Industrial demand response (electrolysers, data centres, cement production) fits within the local steward architecture and should be incorporated into subsequent modelling. The RETF framework is extensible to these sectors but requires sector-specific demand flexibility characterisation.

6.3 International Coordination

The model treats the national system boundary as closed. In practice, ENTSO-E interconnections mean that RETF coordination in one Member State interacts with grid operations in neighbouring states. Steward bodies can participate in EU-level flexibility markets (day-ahead, intraday, balancing) while retaining local fallback veto—but the market interface design requires additional specification beyond this annex.

6.4 Open Resources

A Python implementation of the linear capacity-expansion and MILP scheduling components of this model is available on request. Empirical validation against real VPP operational data (UK, German, and Dutch pilots) is planned for 2026–2027. Sample steward bylaws and governance templates in RETF-compliant form are available from the author.

7. Conclusion

The RETF hybrid architecture remains robust under realistic behavioural and technological conditions. Cost advantages persist at participation rates as low as 40%. Governance precedents exist and are operational today across northern Europe. Resilience can be engineered through deliberate human-in-the-loop design that treats manual fallback as an architectural requirement rather than an emergency option.

Institutional innovation—embodied in accountable, asset-holding local steward bodies with democratic governance, anti-gaming protections, and explicit fallback authority—is the decisive enabling factor. Technology is necessary but insufficient. The RETF is technically sound, economically superior under conservative assumptions, and institutionally feasible. The pathway is open. The decision is one of governance, not engineering.

Selected References

- Dragos. (2025). ICS/OT Cybersecurity Year in Review 2024.
- Ember. (2025). European Electricity Review 2025.
- Faruqui, A., & Sergici, S. (2010). Household response to dynamic pricing. *Journal of Regulatory Economics*, 38(2), 193–225.
- Fraunhofer ISE. (2025). Current and Future Cost of Photovoltaics.
- IEA. (2024). World Energy Outlook 2024. International Energy Agency, Paris.
- IRENA. (2023). World Energy Transitions Outlook 2023: 1.5°C Pathway.
- Kairouz, P. et al. (2021). Advances and open problems in federated learning. *Foundations and Trends in Machine Learning*, 14(1-2).
- National energy community reports: Germany (BDEW), Denmark (Energinet), Netherlands (Netbeheer Nederland), 2024–2025.
- Perez, K.X. et al. (2021). Integrated HVAC management and optimal scheduling of smart appliances. *Energy and Buildings*, 123, 34–47.
- Schmidt, O. et al. (2019). Projecting the future levelized cost of electricity storage technologies. *Joule*, 3(1), 81–100.
- Sepulveda, N.A. et al. (2021). The design space for long-duration energy storage. *Nature Energy*, 6(5), 506–516.
- SolarPower Europe. (2026). EU Battery Storage Market Review 2025/2026.