

Modelling the energy transition: A nexus of energy system and economic models [☆]

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Abstract

Climate change induced policies impose wide-ranging implications throughout the whole energy system and influence various sectors of the economy. To analyse different decarbonization pathways for the energy system, existing models have traditionally focused on specific energy sectors, adopted specific research perspectives, assessed only certain technologies, or studied isolated components and factors of the energy system. However, few efforts have been undertaken to successfully model a broader picture of the energy-economic system. In this conceptual paper, we propose linking top-down and bottom-up models to represent: distributed generation and demand, operations of electricity grids, infrastructure investments and generation dispatch, and macroeconomic interactions. We review existing work on modelling the different dimensions of the energy transition to understand why models tend to focus on certain features or parts of the energy system. We then discuss methodologies for linking different type of models. We describe our integrated modelling framework, and the challenges and opportunities on linking models based on their capabilities and limitations.

1. Introduction

2 The energy transition is pushing the frontiers in energy modelling towards
3 the development of modelling frameworks capable of representing the inter-
4 dependencies between policy making, energy infrastructure expansion, market
5 behaviour, environmental impact and security of supply. Analysing these in-
6 terdependencies requires modelling tools capable to determine, for example,

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7 the backup capacity and reserves required to accommodate increasing shares
8 of renewables (i.e. wind and solar), to assess investments in infrastructure to
9 exchange power with neighbouring regions, to investigate issues of energy and
10 climate policy, and to propose regulatory frameworks for the design of energy
11 markets. In addition to these dimensions, the assessment of the energy tran-
12 sition requires a broader modelling scope to consider the impact of short-term
13 operational aspects of grid stability and energy markets on long term decarbon-
14 isation strategies while considering implications to other domestic and foreign
15 non-energy markets. Individual components, sectors and layers of the energy
16 system should therefore not be analysed in isolation but should be looked at
17 with a broad cross-disciplinary approach capable of capturing system-wide in-
18 terdependencies.

19 Existing energy modelling practices – while manifold – share two main limi-
20 tations that prevent a more comprehensive representation of the energy system.
21 First, they tend to focus on only one or a few layers and/or sectors of the energy
22 system (Fig. 1), choosing to ignore the interconnectedness with all other compo-
23 nents of the energy system. One reason for such a choice is that research groups
24 are frequently composed of researchers from similar areas of expertise (e.g., a
25 focus on gas from an economic perspective, or an emphasis on power grids en-
26 gineering features) or due to the particular research circumstances (i.e., project
27 objectives). In many cases, this is due to the prevalent infrastructure, available
28 resources or strategic orientation in the specific research institutions. Such a
29 narrow focus confines many research projects to the boundaries of a particu-
30 lar area of expertise and can lead to limitations in modelling other features or
31 parts of the energy system. For instance, bound to the specific problem setting
32 in which the research is conducted, each study defines its own modelling assump-
33 tions, boundaries, variables’ characteristics or parameters of choice, and has a
34 large number of *ceteris paribus* assumptions, in which certain variables of inter-
35 est are allowed to vary while keeping others constant. Such modelling practices
36 limit the scope of the analyses and result in different implications when applied
37 in distinct contexts which might lead to inconclusive policy recommendations.
38 Second, model-based analysis is further hampered by a lack of transparency in
39 the documentation of research procedures and models development often turn-
40 ing the analysis into a ‘black box’ (Pfenninger 2017b). This impedes the transfer
41 of knowledge, limits cross-disciplinary cooperation and thus prevents a collec-
42 tive learning process within the energy modelling community (Pfenninger et al.,
43 2017). In summary, current modelling practices do not account for the com-
44 plexity inherent in energy system configurations and are thus of limited use in
45 identifying and analysing effective decarbonisation strategies.

46 The next challenge lies in linking models by integrating knowledge across
47 disciplines such as economics, system engineering, power system modelling, risk
48 assessment, etc. (Winkel, 2018; Strachan et al., 2016). The ETH Zurich has set
49 out the ambitious goal to develop such a well-documented framework of linked
50 models that will: 1) harmonize data and modelling assumptions, 2) jointly rep-
51 resent (Fig. 1) various layers, sectors, and components of the energy system, 3)
52 integrate existing knowledge to facilitate trans-disciplinary research, and 4) link

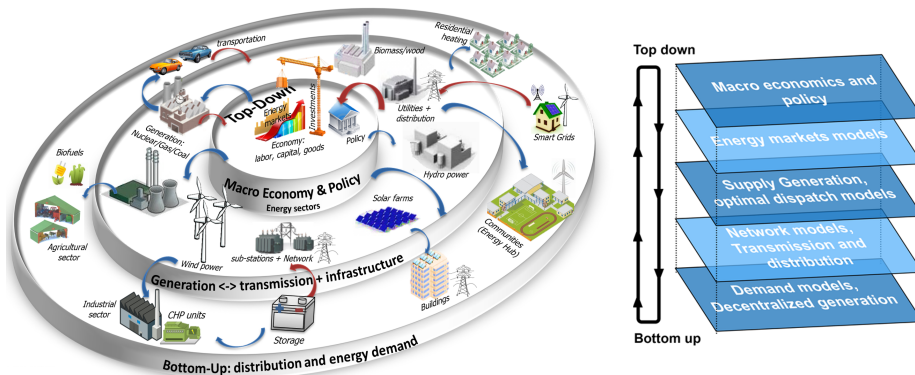


Figure 1: Vision of linking energy sectors and layers of the energy system.

53 tools related to technical and economic aspects of the energy system (bridging
 54 the gap between engineering and economic energy models). As first step, in
 55 this paper, the proposed modelling framework focuses on the electricity sector.
 56 Future work will expand to other sectors and energy carriers.

57 In this conceptual paper, we discuss the opportunities and challenges of
 58 developing a methodology capable of creating a nexus between different energy
 59 models. Figure 1 shows the overall structure of the energy system, and provides
 60 a schematic sketch of the concept: the demand for energy services (e.g., heat,
 61 electricity) is driven by the economy, implemented via a top-down (economic)
 62 perspective that captures the interactions of domestic and international markets
 63 (including energy markets) and other economic sectors. The demand then drives
 64 bottom-up technology choices adopted in the different energy sectors (i.e., the
 65 energy infrastructure), which then again act as input to the economic top-down
 66 decisions. This representation of the energy-economic system raises the question
 67 of what tools are capable of modelling this integrated system of layers and
 68 sectors, and whether existing models can complement each other in such a
 69 system and represent a broader scope of the energy system (Fig. 1).

70 The answers to these questions lie in understanding the capabilities of dif-
 71 ferent modelling approaches and why they incorporate or avoid modelling cer-
 72 tain features of the energy system. In the next section (Sec. 2), we review
 73 the ongoing challenges in linking technology-rich engineering models with eco-
 74 nomic models and discuss their strength and weaknesses. Then, in Section 3,
 75 we propose and discuss the possibility of going one step further by linking 1)
 76 macroeconomic and energy markets, 2) the energy infrastructure (i.e. the wider
 77 power system), and 3) demand sectors and decentralized generation systems.
 78 Section 4 concludes with some remarks about the importance of developing a
 79 comprehensive modelling approach that is in line with the challenges posed by
 80 the energy transition.

81 2. Modelling approaches and existing work

82 There are three main modelling approaches to represent the interactions
83 between the technological details of the energy systems, the economy and the
84 environment: Top-down macroeconomic modelling emphasizes the aggregated
85 economic-wide view and incorporates the energy production technologies with
86 less detail through aggregated functions within a large macroeconomic system.
87 The second, bottom-up, approach, uses models with a technology-rich and de-
88 tailed representation of the energy system but does not include the interactions
89 between the energy system and the broader economic system. The third, hybrid,
90 approach integrates the detailed energy technology representation of bottom-up
91 models into a top-down macroeconomic model (for a recent review and catego-
92 rization, see Hall and Buckley 2016).

93 *Top-down approaches*

94 A well established top-down method to model a consistent macro- and mi-
95 croeconomic behaviour is the application of computable general equilibrium
96 (CGE) models. CGE models are top-down models firmly grounded in neoclassi-
97 cal, microeconomic theory and consist of the agents in an economy (households,
98 producers/firms, government), and the markets for goods and factors.¹ House-
99 holds and government maximize their welfare, and the producers maximize their
100 profits. The agents interact in the markets by either supplying or demanding
101 goods or factors. Market equilibrium is reached by a price mechanism. Prices
102 can adjust to find an equilibrium between supply and demand. Distortions of
103 the price building like taxes can also be incorporated. The strength of CGE
104 models is that they incorporate the interactions between the different agents
105 as well as the feedbacks through the whole economy. The interaction with
106 other economies can either be done using multi-regional models, in which each
107 economy is formulated in full detail or a single-regional model in which the in-
108 teractions with the rest-of-the-world are formulated using a closing rule that
109 relates the exports, imports, and the current-account balance. CGE models can
110 be solved for one time period (usually one year) or solved for several linked time
111 periods. Dynamic CGE models can be of the recursive-dynamic type, in which
112 a static version of the model is solved for one period and outputs of that period
113 (e.g., savings and investments) are used as inputs for the next period. This
114 means that agents do not take into account the past and the foreseeable future.
115 In a Ramsey-setting, it is assumed that economic agents have complete infor-
116 mation over the complete time horizon, and the model is solved for all periods
117 simultaneously. The optimisation assumptions of CGE are consistent with most
118 energy systems models.

119 Another approach is the use of econometric models. Econometric models
120 specify the statistical relationship between the model variables (prices, quanti-
121 ties) and estimate the relevant model parameters. These models are often more

¹For an extensive introduction in CGE, see Hosoe et al. (2010)

122 aggregated than CGE models and can, contrary to CGE models, be used for
123 estimating the future trajectory of the variables. CGE models are typically used
124 for scenario analysis, where different policies are being compared. An example
125 of an econometric model which includes a bottom-up model of the electricity
126 supply industry, being otherwise top-down in approach, is the E3ME model
127 (Cambridge Econometrics, 2014).

128 Weaknesses of the pure CGE and econometric approaches with respect to
129 the energy-economic system are the high level of aggregation and therefore an
130 unrealistic view of the energy sector as well as the high level of time aggrega-
131 tion (usually one-year steps; a finer resolution would be possible at the cost
132 of aggregating the overall structure of the model). Although some CGE mod-
133 els take into account a stylized representation of the energy network structure
134 (see Abrell and Weigt, 2012), CGE models usually refrain from modelling a
135 more technological detailed power system. Moreover, stochastic elements and
136 imperfect competition², essential features of the energy market, are hard to im-
137 plement in these models and are usually only implemented in partial models
138 (for examples and discussion see Gabriel et al. 2013). Another weakness is that
139 CGE models are not very well suited to represent the financial markets (Pollitt
140 and Mercure 2017).

141 *Bottom-up approaches*

142 A well-known example of a bottom-up approach which uses a detailed and
143 technology-rich model without interactions with the rest of the energy system, is
144 the MARKAL model (**MARK**et **AL**location, Lee 2006). It is a popular model
145 for analysing the supply side of the energy system. The most simple version is a
146 bottom-up linear programming model, where a multiple of energy supplies and
147 demands are depicted based on technology costs and technical characteristics
148 (e.g., investments, operating costs, capacity utilization, efficiency of fuel use).
149 The technology mix is the result of minimizing total system cost of energy
150 supply based on a given energy demand, costs of running these technologies
151 as well as costs of investments in additional capacities or new technologies. In
152 its basic form, MARKAL has a number of limitations (Greening and Bataille,
153 2009). For example, the demand for energy is exogenously given and does not
154 adjust if energy prices change. Other important drivers like the impact of GDP
155 or income growth on energy consumption are missing. For these reasons, the
156 MARKAL model has been extended in many directions. Examples include the
157 MARKAL Stochastic, the MARKAL-ED (Elastic Demand), and others (Loulou
158 et al., 2004).

159 A next step in the development of bottom-up optimization models is the
160 TIMES model (**T**he **I**ntegrated **MARKAL-EFOM**³ **S**ystem, Loulou and Labriet

²Note that optimization based energy system models also typically pursue a system cost minimization that assumes perfect competition.

³The Energy Flow Optimization Model (EFOM) is the supply part of the energy model complex of the Commission of the European Communities, see (Grohnheit, 1991).

161 2008). The TIMES model extends the MARKAL system in several directions
162 (Greening and Bataille, 2009): It is scalable from local to global, and it allows
163 for vintaging of technologies, flexible time slices (daily load curves), variable
164 forecast horizons, and the distinction between service life and economic life of
165 technologies. Although the MARKAL/TIMES models show a good level of
166 detail and contain many features of the energy-economic system, they mostly
167 lack an explicit treatment of the energy networks and decentralized generation
168 sources, endogenous microeconomic behaviour, feedbacks of the energy system
169 to the macro economy, and detailed system security assessments. Furthermore,
170 several authors (e.g. Kannan and Turton 2013; Delarue and Morris 2015) have
171 questioned the quality of the results because of the simplifications made when
172 representing the high temporal resolution of supply-demand operations. Pina
173 et al. (2013) address this issue by using a combination of the TIMES and En-
174 ergyPLAN (Sustainable Energy Planning Research Group, 1999) model to im-
175 plement an hourly time resolution in the presence of high shares of renewables
176 in the system. However, these extensions might still fall short on analysing the
177 power systems operations, a strength of optimal power flow (OPF) models⁴.
178 In fact, most of existing energy system models (e.g., TIMES, US-REGEN by
179 Young et al. 2015, Calliope by Pfenninger 2017a, OSeMOSYS by Howells et al.
180 2011 and others⁵) use a stylized grid representation (transportation model) that
181 overlooks the insights OPF models offer. For instance, Deane et al. (2012)
182 demonstrate that using a TIMES model compared to an OPF undervalues flex-
183 ibility resources, underestimates wind curtailment and overestimate base-load
184 operation. In contrast, OPF models have a very limited long-term outlook due
185 to the computational tractability of its non-linear optimization. Therefore, gen-
186 eration capacity planning and other long-term decisions have to be exogenously
187 calculated. Meaning that power system models typically provide a more accu-
188 rate assessment of system operations in terms of reliability and stability condi-
189 tions while energy system models strengths are on capacity expansion planning
190 (Howells et al. 2011; Collins et al. 2017). This is further addressed in a hybrid
191 approach by Collins et al. 2017 where a power system model is soft linked to
192 PRIMES (National Technical University of Athens, 2010). Results show that
193 the detailed dispatch model better captures power system flexibility in terms of
194 curtailments, levels of system inertia, and congestions. A similar study by De-
195 sprés et al. (2017) shows the importance of complementing long-term planning
196 perspective with a unit commitment model.

197 Another class of bottom-up models focus on the analysis of the distribution
198 system and its demand sectors. For example, the assessment of smart grids,
199 decentralized generation technologies (e.g. PV systems), demand response and
200 energy efficiency measures (e.g. Crespo del Granado et al. 2016). However,
201 these consumer or demand-side based models do not represent upper layers

⁴OPF models analyses the power balance in the electricity grid at each node considering voltage and line limits. Grid topology and physical components are represented in high detail.

⁵Artelys is an important example of dispatch type model, <https://www.artelys.com>

202 of the energy system. Also, established supply based approaches usually do
203 not integrate decentralized supply options on their national supply assessments
204 (only under aggregation assumptions or by deriving exogenous inputs of demand
205 sectors, e.g. Capros et al. 2014a or PRIMES).

206 *Frontiers in energy modelling: linking models and hybrid approaches*

207 Recently, there has been a tendency towards developing more comprehensive
208 energy and economic modelling approaches.⁶ The literature describes several
209 approaches for linking existing top-down models with bottom-up models or for
210 having a more multi-model/sector perspective (Mulholland et al., 2017; Capros
211 et al., 2014b; Collins et al., 2017; Deane et al., 2015). A typical example is the
212 MESSAGE-MACRO model (Messner and Schrattenholzer, 2000) that links the
213 MACRO model to the MESSAGE energy supply model. Other examples are de-
214 veloped by Altamirano et al. (2008) who couple the Swiss MARKAL residential
215 model to GEMINI-E3, a global CGE model, or, with a more detailed imple-
216 mentation of the energy sector, the **E**missions **P**rediction, and **P**olicy **A**nalysis
217 (EPPA) model developed at the MIT (Paltsev et al., 2005). The EPPA model
218 is a recursive-dynamic multi-regional general equilibrium model of the world
219 economy designed to develop projections of economic growth. The model in-
220 cludes a wide range of energy supply technologies and is linked to a climate-land
221 ecosystems model.

222 A major drawback of top-down-bottom-up linkage can be the inconsistency
223 in the behavioural assumptions in the used models. To resolve these inconsis-
224 tencies, Schäfer and Jacoby (2005) calibrate the top-down model to the results
225 of the bottom-up model. They adapt the transport sector representation in
226 the EPPA CGE model to be consistent with the technological specification of
227 MARKAL. Alternatively, Pizer et al. (2013) proposes to adjust the elasticities
228 in the CGE model to the ones used in the bottom-up model. Mercure et al. 2016
229 propose a method to include behavioural aspects in environmental policy anal-
230 ysis based on complexity dynamics and agent heterogeneity. The use of CGE
231 models with an integrated aggregated bottom-up energy system is discussed in
232 Tapia-Ahumada et al. (2015).

233 Another approach for linking top-down with bottom-up models aims at in-
234 corporating either a reduced bottom-up model within an existing top-down
235 model or adding some equations coming from a top-down model inside an ex-
236 isting bottom-up model. Böhringer and Rutherford (2008) is an example in
237 which the top-down and bottom-up model are completely integrated using the
238 same modelling format. An example of the integration of a reduced top-down
239 model in a bottom-up model can be found in Sue Wing (2006), who incorpo-
240 rates a bottom-up specification of the electricity sector in a CGE model for the
241 US economy. Loulou et al. (2004) integrate the macroeconomic model ETA-
242 MACRO (Manne, 1979) into the MARKAL model. All in all, these model

⁶For an overview of approaches of the last 10-20 years, see Greening and Bataille (2009) and Herbst et al. (2012).

243 linkage approaches have opened new possibilities to analyse multi-sector cou-
244 pling (Costantini and Martini, 2010). For instance, Deane et al. 2015 soft-links a
245 TIMES model to a power system and a housing stock model to analyse the elec-
246 trification of residential heating. Other multi-sector bottom-up examples are:
247 Csef et al. (2016) who model the interdependencies between gas and electric-
248 ity networks, Schulze and Crespo del Granado (2010) who study decentralized
249 multi-carrier energy systems and the role of storage technologies, and Merven
250 et al. (2012) who look into reciprocal effects between energy demand and the
251 evolution of the transport sector.

252
253 Summarizing, bottom-up and top-down methodologies differ in the treat-
254 ment of temporal resolution, technological detail, aggregation or consideration
255 of energy sectors, regional coverage, and energy system interactions with other
256 external factors and the economy. All in all, existing modelling approaches tend
257 to fall short in at least one of the following features: representing interactions
258 with decentralized generation systems, modelling the details of the power sys-
259 tem and the grid, providing a secure and adequacy assessment of the grid, and
260 studying long-term outlooks along with macroeconomic implications.

261 **3. Nexus modelling framework: an alliance of models**

262 To address the modelling limitations described in the previous section, we
263 propose a modelling framework of interconnected top-down and bottom-up mod-
264 els representing the central layers and sectors of the energy system. This frame-
265 work derives its name “Nexus” from the vision to develop a linkage methodology
266 capable of creating the *nexus* between several energy models and being able to
267 answer research questions beyond the boundaries or assumptions typically es-
268 tablished in each model individually. Figure 2 illustrates the Nexus framework
269 consisting of the four interconnected main modules as there are the top-down
270 CGE model, the generation expansion model, the energy networks, and the de-
271 centralized generation. The energy networks and generation expansion-dispatch
272 module are linked with a system security analysis module.

273 One of Nexus’ main features is that it is open to other modelling approaches:
274 It should be possible to easily replace the module to study differences depending
275 on choice of modelling approaches. The choice of the models for the initial set
276 up of the Nexus modelling framework is to represent the main layers of the
277 power system. The scope and capabilities of these modules are as follows:

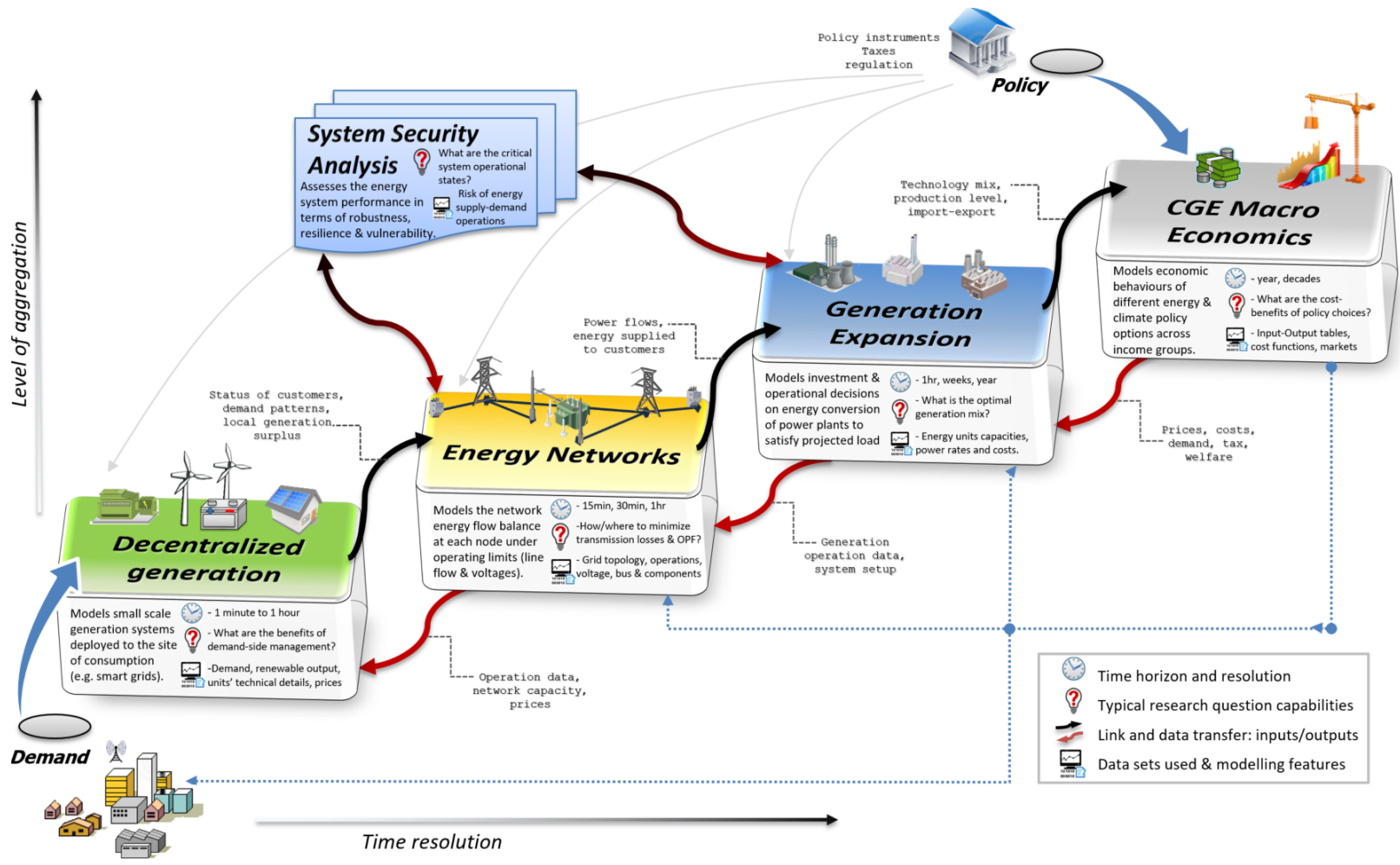


Figure 2: Nexus models representing the central structure of the energy-economic system.

- 278 - The first module is a recursive-dynamic, multi-region, multi-sector CGE
279 model for Switzerland and major European countries. The model assesses,
280 at an aggregated level, the evolution of electricity supply and demand
281 over time in the Swiss economy (overall investments, generation mix by
282 technology, costs, prices), while at the same time allows the analysis of
283 macroeconomic effects under alternative future scenarios of Swiss energy
284 and climate policy.
- 285 - The second module is a generation expansion model (e.g. Conejo et al.
286 2016) which determines capacity investments to meet future demand growth
287 and replace units retirements, by minimizing investment costs, fixed and
288 variable maintenance costs and operation costs (i.e., fuel, start-up and
289 shut-down costs). The model represents technical constraints of conven-
290 tional power plants, hydropower operating constraints, reserve allocation
291 constraints and power exchanges between countries.
- 292 - The third module is the energy network model. It is an optimal power flow
293 model (e.g., Zimmerman et al. 2011) that includes electricity flow balance
294 at each node by fully modelling the main transmission grid under operating
295 limits (e.g., line flow and voltages). This detailed representation of the
296 power system operation complements the generation expansion model as
297 it is crucial to assess the operational flexibility needed when the power
298 system has a considerable share of renewable generation.
- 299 - The decentralized generation model is the fourth module based on a
300 stochastic dispatch optimization of aggregated decentralized energy re-
301 sources (DER) in the distribution grid (e.g., Crespo Del Granado et al.
302 2015). It considers DER participation in electricity markets (e.g. day-
303 ahead and balancing markets). The DER represented are storage units,
304 flexible load profiles, wind and solar systems, and other local energy sys-
305 tems (e.g. prosumers). Sources of short-term uncertainty are electricity
306 prices and renewable variable generation.
- 307 - The fifth module, the system security model, assesses the security of the
308 supply by testing the capability of a power system with a large share of
309 intermediate generators to withstand sudden changes like loss of power
310 line or loss of generating units (e.g., Sansavini et al. 2014). This module
311 provides insights for the adequacy of the capacity of the transmission
312 system and the system critical states based on generation supply options.

313 For the connections between the different modules, interfaces are being devel-
314 oped that allow for the automatic exchange of information and data between the
315 models. The automatic linkages will use a versatile programming like Python
316 (Python Core Team, 2017). In the first phase of the Nexus project, the focus
317 will be on electricity supply and demand, and future work will focus on including
318 other sectors and energy carriers. One of the main points of the Nexus project is
319 that the different research groups can use their own modelling tools. The Nexus

320 framework is flexible and modular: In the future the models will be replicable
321 and the framework can be extended with new modules (e.g., transportation,
322 energy efficiency, or other energy markets).

323 *First Prototype*

324 A first Nexus prototype has been constructed and is now being tested for
325 analysing a nuclear phase-out scenario for Switzerland. It links the two of the
326 main modules using scripts to exchange the information between the models.
327 The prototype consists of the top-down CGE model and the bottom-up genera-
328 tion expansion model (GEP). In order to cope with the increased computational
329 issues caused by the detailed unit commitment constraints within the GEP, the
330 examined year is reduced to four representative weeks, one per season, resulting
331 in 672 hours. Consistency between the modules is secured by using the decom-
332 position technique as described in Böhringer et al. (2009). With this technique
333 the energy supply of the CGE model is taken from the bottom-up models. Prices
334 for energy, maintenance, operation and investment costs are calculated in the
335 top-down model and automatically sent back to the GEP. Investments in en-
336 ergy supply are calculated in the GEP-model while the prices for the investment
337 goods are taken from the CGE model. The models are solved within a loop and
338 the process continues until convergence between the models is reached. The top-
339 down model is programmed in Gams (GAMS Development Corporation, 2017).
340 All other models and the linkages are developed in Matlab (The MathWorks,
341 Inc., 2017). Figure 2 describes the qualitative features of the inputs-outputs ex-
342 change between modules and the type of information/decisions that are linking
343 them.

344 **4. Conclusions and future research**

345 In this conceptual paper, we introduce the Nexus modelling framework that
346 will provide an approach for linking models, representing a broader scope of the
347 energy system, and will allow to investigate added-value insights from modelling
348 the interactions between the main layers, sectors, and components of the energy-
349 economic system. Nexus, will, in a first stage, concentrate on the electricity
350 sector. Future research in this area will, for example, look the addition of other
351 energy carriers. As the Nexus framework is modular, it can be extended in the
352 future with other models (e.g., transportation sector, environmental) and other
353 energy markets (e.g., gas). Once the linking among the models is complete, we
354 aim to set up a platform allowing to interact with other researchers in the field.
355 In a future stage, this platform would allow other modelling groups to either
356 add new modules or test their own versions of existing Nexus modules.

357 The Nexus modelling framework will address interdisciplinary research and
358 policy questions of the overall economy-energy system by linking a set of highly
359 specialized models. Typical topics that can be researched in more detail are,
360 for example, changes in the future Swiss energy policy (energy and CO2 tax
361 or subsidy regime, complete liberalisation of the electricity market), or new

362 developments in energy supply and grid infrastructure. With this framework,
363 our future research includes the assessment of research questions that are only
364 possible under a broader modelling framework of the energy system, examples
365 of these are⁷:

- 366 - What are the needs with respect to flexibility options in a scenario with
367 high RES deployment? Are decentralized flexibility providers (e.g., bat-
368 tery storage and demand-side management) an alternative to hydro stor-
369 age?
- 370 - What are the parameters influencing the investment decisions for hydro
371 storage vs. decentralized flexibility providers? What is the optimal mix of
372 flexibility providers when assessing different policy designs (e.g., impact
373 of subsidies)?

374 Addressing these questions and analysing the multiple dimensions of the
375 energy transition for the EU requires close cooperation between specialists of
376 different fields. This conceptual paper aims to contribute to the discussion
377 on the value of inter-disciplinary research and the need for more transparency
378 in energy modelling. Our experience has shown that this generates benefits
379 compared to non-interdisciplinary work on more comprehensive modelling. Re-
380 searchers can concentrate on and improve their own models instead of trying to
381 link models from other fields themselves. Work on the Nexus prototype shows,
382 however, that groups of linked modules should have also detailed knowledge of
383 the other modules when working on the linkages. Furthermore, reaching a com-
384 mon understanding of the synergies among models often takes more time than
385 expected. The linkage between the top-down and bottom-up model also forced
386 us to reconsider the assumptions underlying our own models. In this regard, a
387 critical challenge for our modelling framework is to continue harmonizing model
388 assumptions by addressing deeper questions surrounding the energy transition.
389 These questions might be: How do policies (e.g. energy efficiency measures
390 in industry and buildings, carbon prices for bulk generation, renewables sup-
391 port for prosumers) complement each other to achieve the EUs 2030 and 2050
392 emission targets?

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⁷We are implementing the Nexus models to analyse decarbonization pathways of the Swiss energy system with a strong focus on the role of flexibility providers

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