

Electricity Demand in a Northern Mexico Metropolitan Economy

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ABSTRACT: Using an error correction framework, this study analyzes the long- and short-run dynamics of electricity demand in Ciudad Juarez, a large metropolitan economy on Mexico's northern border. Demand is decomposed into the total number of electricity accounts and electricity usage per customer, each of which is modeled separately. A two-stage least squares approach is used to estimate the per customer electricity demand equations due to the endogeneity of the average price variable. The results indicate sustained growth in population, employment, and income can be expected to exert substantial upward pressure on regional electric power demand. Furthermore, demand is found to be price-inelastic in this metropolitan area, suggesting that rate increases can help raise the revenues necessary to fund expansion of the electrical grid.

Keywords: Electricity Demand; Urban Economics; Applied Econometrics; Mexico

JEL Classifications: M21; Q41; R15

1. Introduction

Empirical studies of electricity consumption have been conducted for many different regions of the world. This is not surprising because electric energy plays a central role in household, private sector, and public sector production functions. Although economic growth and appliance saturation are increasing electricity consumption in Mexico, there have been relatively few analyses of metropolitan electricity usage for that country.

To complete such a study, a data set is assembled for Ciudad Juarez, a large metropolitan economy near the border with the United States. Annual frequency data from 1990 to 2012 are utilized to develop an error correction framework that sheds light on short- and long-run consumption behavior in this metropolitan economy. The sample data include variables for consumption, price, weather, population, and economic conditions.

The study is organized as follows. The next section summarizes some of the related literature in this area. The subsequent section describes the data, methodology, and theoretical model employed. Finally, the empirical results are discussed, along with policy implications and concluding remarks.

2. Literature Review

To meet increasing regional electricity demand, large investments are required for generation, transmission, and distribution. These are important steps because electricity production costs increase exponentially as maximum generation capacity is reached (Albadi and El-Saadany, 2008). In Mexico, a federal government agency, Comisión Federal de Electricidad (CFE), produces, transmits, and distributes electricity throughout the country.

Information constraints generally make it difficult to gather marginal price data. Taylor (1975) argues that utilizing average prices constitutes a misspecification as marginal price constitutes the appropriate price variable for analyzing demand. That study acknowledges, however, that marginal price is often measured incorrectly, often leading to biased parameter estimates. Shin (1985) provides evidence that consumers do not respond to marginal prices but to ex-post average prices because electricity bills arrive at the end of each month. Consequently, average price is an appropriate measure. Fisher and Kaysen (1962) maintain that either price metric can be employed with no major repercussions on empirical results. Wills (1981) also provides empirical evidence that neglecting to utilize marginal prices does not significantly affect empirical outcomes.

Previous empirical work indicates that long-run own-price elasticities generally range between -0.4 and -2.25 (Espey and Espey, 2004). Because consumers can modify appliance stocks, almost all long-run price responsiveness is due to stock adjustments rather than utilization adjustments (Wills, 1981). Short-run own-price sensitivities are more inelastic, usually ranging between -0.2 and -0.4 (Fisher and Kaysen, 1962; Taylor, 1977; Dubin and McFadden, 1984; Marshall, 2010). There is also some evidence that own-price elasticity decreases as household income increases (Reiss and White, 2005). Electricity demand also appears to be more price-inelastic in the summer than in the winter, probably reflecting a smaller substitution capacity for air conditioning equipment relative to gas heating devices (Filippini, 1999).

Income elasticity estimates appear to be affected by the type of data utilized. Estimates obtained with household data reveal income elasticities of 0.4 and below (Sheinbaum et al., 1996; Wills, 1981; Yoo et al., 2007). Estimates that utilize aggregate data oscillate between 0.5 and 1 (Galindo, 2005). Wilson (1971) and Roth (1981) provide empirical evidence that residential electricity is an "inferior good" whose consumption declines as income grows. These results conflict with most prior research (Espey and Espey, 2004). Wills (1981) corroborates these findings in a study that differentiates between the long-run and the short-run: in the short-run, electricity is found to be a "weakly" normal good that becomes inferior in the long-run. At least three subsequent studies confirm these outcomes also (Berndt and Samaniego, 1984; Contreras et al., 2009; Fullerton et al., 2012).

A complete demand function must capture substitute good effects. Natural gas has been utilized in numerous studies as the primary substitute for electricity. Cross-price elasticity estimates between these two goods tend to range between 0 and 0.25, indicating limited substitutability between them (Roth, 1981). Because natural gas is becoming a more popular energy source for cooking and heating in Mexico (Rosas-Flores and Gálvez, 2010), the substitution effect may be more pronounced in Ciudad Juarez.

Electricity demand is also affected by climatic conditions. The impacts of changes in weather conditions on electricity loads can be substantial (Fullerton et al., 2012; EPE, 2013). Commonly used variables include heating degree days and cooling degree days, which measure daily mean temperatures below and above, respectively, 65°F . These proxies are then able to capture the climate effects that shape heating and cooling requirements.

Residential electricity in Mexico is primarily used for lighting and appliance operation, cooking and heating are mainly carried out with liquid petroleum gas and natural gas (Berndt and Samaniego, 1984; Sheinbaum et al., 1996). Electricity for lighting and other appliances is the fastest growing category of energy usage in Mexico (Rosas-Flores and Gálvez, 2010). Electricity tariffs in Mexico are set by the CFE and consist of two rate schedules per region. There is a normal service tariff and a lower tariff. The latter is applied during the six hottest months of the year (CFE, 2013). There is a special higher tariff per region applied to those customers who consume electricity above a specific threshold. For Ciudad Juarez, this threshold is 1,000 kilowatt-hours (KWH) per month (CFE, 2013).

Ciudad Juarez has a population of 1.3 million people. Total usage reached 4,105 gigawatt-hours (GWH) in 2012 (INEGI, 2013a), yielding revenues of \$5.57 billion pesos. From 1988 to 2012, electricity consumption has grown at an average of 5.1% per year. In spite of substantial growth, an econometric analysis of per customer usage and customer base growth for this urban economy has not previously been completed.

3. Theoretical Model

Electricity itself does not generate utility for consumers; it indirectly contributes as an input for activities that do provide utility to individuals (Taylor, 1975). These processes require investments in durable goods. For that reason, it is helpful to differentiate between short- and long-run demand. In the short run, stocks of goods are fixed and the relevant decision is with respect to intensity of use. In the long run, consumers can modify durable good stocks.

Equation (1) is known as the cointegration equation. It represents the long run equilibrium when consumers can optimally adjust electric appliance stocks. Electricity demand per consumer (D) is modeled as a function of average price (P), income per capita (Y), the price of natural gas as a substitute good (PNG), and weather conditions measured by cooling degree days (CDD) and heating degree days (HDD). The data are transformed using natural logarithms, so the α_k parameters represent demand elasticities. The expected signs for the coefficients are included parenthetically below each explanatory variable.

$$\ln(D_t) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln(P_t) + \alpha_2 \ln(Y_t) + \alpha_3 \ln(PNG_t) + \alpha_4 \ln(CDD_t) + \alpha_5 \ln(HDD_t) + u_t \quad (1)$$

$(-)$ $(+)$ $(+)$ $(+)$ $(+)$

Increases in average price are assumed to decrease electricity consumption. The income coefficient is expected to be positive, classifying electricity in Ciudad Juarez as a normal good. If electricity and natural gas are substitutes, increases in the price of the latter should lead to increases in electricity usage. The magnitude of this parameter will indicate the degree of substitutability between the two. Both weather variables are predicted to have positive marginal effects. As temperatures rise above the 65°F baseline, the intensity of use of cooling appliances increases. Similarly, as temperatures fall below 65°F, electricity is used more intensively for heating.

Equation (2) represents short-run electricity demand. All data are differenced once and an error correction term is included. This regressor is a one-period lag of the residuals from Equation (1). The coefficient estimated for it measures the speed at which short-run departures from long-run equilibrium dissipate. It is, accordingly, expected to be negative because deviations from equilibrium will be followed by compensating adjustments in subsequent periods.

$$d\ln(D_t) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 d\ln(P_t) + \beta_2 d\ln(Y_t) + \beta_3 d\ln(PNG_t) + \beta_4 d\ln(CDD_t) + \beta_5 d\ln(HDD_t) + \beta_6 u_{t-1} + v_t \quad (2)$$

$(-)$ $(+)$ $(+)$ $(+)$ $(+)$ $(-)$

Customer base growth requires electric utilities to invest in system expansions. Consequently, this study also models the number of electricity customers in Ciudad Juarez. Equation (3) presents the long-run cointegration equation.

$$\ln(EC_t) = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \ln(POP_t) + \gamma_2 \ln(EMP_t) + e_t \quad (3)$$

$(+)$ $(+)$

As in Fullerton et al. (2012), demographic and economic trends are assumed to drive customer base growth. The specification above includes population (POP) and employment (EMP) as the explanatory variables for electricity customers (EC). Both regressors are expected to be partially correlated with the number of customers.

Equation (4) represents the short-run error-correction equation. The third regressor is a one-period lag of the residuals from Equation (3). Its coefficient quantifies the speed of adjustment subsequent to any disequilibrium shocks.

$$d\ln(EC_t) = \delta_0 + \delta_1 d\ln(POP_t) + \delta_2 d\ln(EMP_t) + \delta_3 e_{t-1} + f_t \quad (4)$$

$(+)$ $(+)$ $(-)$

Annual data from 1990 to 2012 are employed in the study. Consumption data include total electricity consumption and total electricity customers in Ciudad Juarez (GWH and number of meters, respectively). These data are obtained from the national statistics agency (INEGI, 2013a). The real price variable is average revenue per KWH divided by the consumer price index. To account for income effects, a real per capita disposable income variable is included. This series uses national disposable income data obtained from the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2013). These estimates are transformed into metropolitan data by multiplying them by the ratio of Ciudad Juarez employment to Mexico employment.

The real price of natural gas in the area is included to capture substitution effects. These data are obtained from the national petroleum company (PEMEX, 2013a and 2013b). Mexican households often utilize electricity to power air conditioning and heating appliances. Weather affecting electricity consumption is measured using CDD and HDD . These series are constructed using data obtained

from the national weather service (SMN, 2013) by subtracting the base of 65°F from the average daily temperature. The resulting positive numbers for each year were added to obtain each yearly CDD figure; the absolute values of the negative results were added in the same way to form the HDD series. The population and total employment variables are obtained from the national statistics agency (INEGI, 2013b) and the social security institute (IMSS, 2013), respectively. All the price and income variables are deflated using the Mexican consumer price index to express them in real 2010 pesos. Table 1 summarizes this information.

Table 1. Variable Definitions

| Variable | Definition |
|----------|--|
| D | Electricity demand per consumer, kilowatt-hours |
| P | Price per kilowatt-hour, real 2010 Mexican pesos |
| Y | Disposable income per capita, real 2010 Mexican pesos |
| PNG | Price of natural gas, real 2010 Mexican pesos per kilo |
| CDD | Cooling degree days, base temperature = 65°F |
| HDD | Heating degree days, base temperature = 65°F |
| EC | Total electricity customers, number of accounts |
| POP | Population |
| EMP | Total employment covered by IMSS |
| IV1 | CFE total electricity generation capacity, million kilowatts |
| IV2 | Yearly inflation, consumer price index, percentage |

4. Empirical Results

Endogeneity represents a potential concern for this model as one of the exogenous variables, P, is jointly determined with the endogenous variable D in Equation (1). This occurs due to the manner in which these variables are calculated: $D = KWH/POP$ and $P = \text{real revenue}/KWH$. A model that exhibits endogeneity yields biased and inconsistent OLS parameter estimates, so alternative procedures must be utilized. To examine whether endogeneity exists between P and D, a two-step artificial regression test is performed (MacKinnon, 1992). This test will verify whether bi-directional causality exists between the average real price, P, and per customer demand, D.

To implement the two-step artificial regression test, instrumental variables (IVs) correlated with the average price of electricity must be identified. These variables are meant to isolate the regressor's variation components that are not likely to be affected by the dependent variable D. For this specification, the instrumental variables selected are yearly inflation in Mexico (as measured by the consumer price index), and CFE total generation capacity (EIA, 2014; BM, 2014). The results of the two-step artificial regression test indicate that endogeneity is present. To obtain unbiased and consistent parameter estimates, fitted values of the average real price variable must be obtained via the IV vector.

$$P_t = \varepsilon_0 + \varepsilon_1 IV1_t + \varepsilon_2 IV2_t + w_t \tag{5}$$

Once Equation (5) is estimated, the fitted values for the average price (PF) are calculated by subtracting the residuals w_t from the original P variable. PF then becomes the real average price measure utilized for estimating the long-run cointegration equation. Equation (6) depicts the modified long-run demand model.

$$\ln(D_t) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln(PF_t) + \alpha_2 \ln(Y_t) + \alpha_3 \ln(PNG_t) + \alpha_4 \ln(CDD_t) + \alpha_5 \ln(HDD_t) + u_t \tag{6}$$

Table 2 displays the estimation results for Equation (6). The coefficient of determination and computed F-statistic indicate a good model fit and all of the coefficient estimates exhibit the expected signs. The Durbin-Watson test for serial correlation is inconclusive. However, an autocorrelation function analysis of the residuals and Q-statistic reveal that serial correlation is not present in the residuals.

The price elasticity, -0.510 , lies toward the lower range of long-run price elasticities reported in prior studies (Espey and Espey, 2004). This implies that there is relatively limited utilization adjustment to price changes in Ciudad Juarez. The result also indicates, however, that raising revenues for infrastructure investment should be feasible for CFE.

The income elasticity in this study is positive and slightly smaller than what is discussed in other studies. The income coefficient in Table 2 indicates that electricity is a normal good in Ciudad Juarez. This result implies that as income increases, usage does, also, and confirms the outcomes documented in a number of prior studies (Espey and Espey, 2004; Labandeira et al., 2006). That outcome is not a given, as empirical evidence for other regions indicates (Acaravci and Ozturk, 2010; Ozturk et al., 2010). The parameter estimate obtained for income is; however, lower than what has been reported in many of those earlier efforts (Jaunky, 2007).

Table 2. Estimates for Electricity Demand per Consumer Long-Run Cointegration Equation

| | | | | |
|---|-------------|--------------------|-------------|----------|
| Dependent Variable: LOG(D) | | | | |
| Method: Two-Stage Least Squares | | | | |
| Sample (adjusted): 1990 2012 | | | | |
| Included observations: 23 after adjustments | | | | |
| Instrument specification: LOG(Y) LOG(PNG) LOG(CDD) LOG(HDD) | | | | |
| LOG(IV1) LOG(IV2) | | | | |
| Constant added to instrument list | | | | |
| Variable | Coefficient | Std. Error | t-Statistic | Prob. |
| C | 1.342267 | 2.998346 | 0.447669 | 0.6600 |
| LOG(P) | -0.510439 | 0.102639 | -4.973144 | 0.0001 |
| LOG(Y) | 0.425599 | 0.193110 | 2.203921 | 0.0416 |
| LOG(PNG) | -0.163634 | 0.027982 | -5.847810 | 0.0000 |
| LOG(CDD) | 0.149925 | 0.126417 | 1.185949 | 0.2520 |
| LOG(HDD) | 0.114097 | 0.148287 | 0.769436 | 0.4522 |
| R-squared | 0.927422 | Mean dependent var | | 7.752004 |
| Adjusted R-squared | 0.906076 | S.D. dependent var | | 0.182123 |
| S.E. of regression | 0.055815 | Sum squared resid | | 0.052961 |
| F-statistic | 44.84120 | Durbin-Watson stat | | 1.420691 |
| Prob(F-statistic) | 0.000000 | Second-Stage SSR | | 0.031231 |
| J-statistic | 0.815224 | Instrument rank | | 7 |
| Prob(J-statistic) | 0.366580 | | | |

The cross-price elasticity coefficient is negative and very close to zero, -0.164 , indicating that natural gas is a weak complement to electricity. This may be attributable to the different ways in which these fuels are employed. Electricity is mainly used for lighting and small appliance operation, while natural gas is primarily utilized for cooking and heating.

The coefficient estimates for the weather variables CDD and HDD are not significant at the 5-percent level. McCloskey and Ziliak (1996) underscore the importance of considering the "economic significance" of a result. In this sense, the parameter signs and magnitudes for CDD and HDD in Table 2 are economically plausible: as temperature rises or falls, the utilization of cooling or heating devices becomes more intensive.

Table 3 summarizes the estimation results for the short-run error correction equation. The short-run own-price sensitivity is -0.297 , which stands around the middle of the -0.2 to -0.4 range that prior studies report (Fisher and Kaysen, 1962; Taylor, 1977; Dubin and McFadden, 1984; Marshall, 2010). The coefficient does not, however, satisfy the 5-percent significance criterion.

The short-run income elasticity for Ciudad Juarez indicates that electricity is a normal good. The estimated income coefficient, 0.253 , is substantially lower than estimates reported in previous research utilizing aggregate data (Galindo, 2005). It is not, however, exceptionally low. Wills (1981) finds that in the short-run, electricity is a "weakly" normal good with an income elasticity of 0.05 in Massachusetts. More recently, Tewathia (2014) reports similar income elasticity estimates using residential survey data for Delhi. Ultimately, the result obtained in this effort implies that income variations do not affect short-run electricity consumption very noticeably in Ciudad Juarez.

The short-run coefficient for PNG is negative. This suggests that electricity and natural gas are complements in the short-run. The coefficient estimate is quite small, -0.037 , indicating a limited complementary relationship between the two. This interpretation is supported by the fact that this estimate is not significant at the 5-percent level.

Table 3. Electricity Demand per Consumer Short-Run Error Correction Equation

| | | | | |
|---|-------------|--------------------|-------------|--------|
| Dependent Variable: DLOG(D) | | | | |
| Method: Two-Stage Least Squares | | | | |
| Sample (adjusted): 1991 2012 | | | | |
| Included observations: 22 after adjustments | | | | |
| Instrument specification: DLOG(Y) DLOG(PNG) DLOG(CDD) DLOG(HDD) | | | | |
| E(-1) DLOG(IV1) DLOG(IV2) | | | | |
| Constant added to instrument list | | | | |
| Variable | Coefficient | Std. Error | t-Statistic | Prob. |
| C | 0.024431 | 0.014804 | 1.650335 | 0.1197 |
| DLOG(P) | -0.297125 | 0.302276 | -0.982959 | 0.3412 |
| DLOG(Y) | 0.252855 | 0.128449 | 1.968520 | 0.0678 |
| DLOG(PNG) | -0.036580 | 0.094617 | -0.386608 | 0.7045 |
| DLOG(CDD) | 0.118632 | 0.083508 | 1.420601 | 0.1759 |
| DLOG(HDD) | 0.089192 | 0.066199 | 1.347330 | 0.1979 |
| U(-1) | -0.153090 | 0.374391 | -0.408904 | 0.6884 |
| R-squared | 0.471248 | Mean dependent var | 0.024854 | |
| Adjusted R-squared | 0.259748 | S.D. dependent var | 0.041600 | |
| S.E. of regression | 0.035792 | Sum squared resid | 0.019216 | |
| F-statistic | 2.506804 | Durbin-Watson stat | 1.413556 | |
| Prob(F-statistic) | 0.069695 | Second-Stage SSR | 0.017074 | |
| J-statistic | 1.917636 | Instrument rank | 8 | |
| Prob(J-statistic) | 0.166117 | | | |

The CDD coefficient indicates limited short-run warm weather effects on electricity demand in Ciudad Juarez. Moreover, the estimate is not significant at the 5-percent level. This result is unusual as temperature for this city rises well above 90°F from April to October of any typical year (SMN, 2013). In places with predominantly warm weather, a more intensive use of cooling devices during spring and summer months typically represents an important factor of short-run electricity demand.

The parameter estimate for HDD is very small and statistically insignificant. Fullerton et al. (2012) states that this regressor is better utilized to analyze markets with generally cooler weather. In Ciudad Juarez, utilization adjustments due to cold temperatures do not appear to constitute a significant factor in determining short-run electricity demand.

As hypothesized, the error correction term is negative. Its magnitude is -0.153 , indicating that short-run deviations from the long-term consumption equilibrium will require 6.529 years to fully dissipate. This result is similar to those reported in other research (Fullerton et al., 2012).

Because the overall diagnostics shown in Table 3 are not very strong, the results should be interpreted with some caution. In particular, the computed F-statistic is fairly low. The aspects of short-term consumption included in this study are difficult to assess at this point in time.

In order to maintain adequate generation, transmission, and distribution capacity, CFE needs to monitor the customer base in Ciudad Juarez. Equation (3) models the metropolitan customer base as a function of population and employment. The estimation results are shown in Table 4. At first glance, these estimation results exhibit desirable statistical characteristics. However, the Durbin-Watson statistic reveals that positive, first-order serial correlation is present.

Serial correlation is sometimes caused by omitted variables. Therefore, the specification in Table 5 adds real disposable income as an additional economic variable. The Durbin-Watson statistic for that specification yields inconclusive results regarding the presence of serial correlation. An analysis of the residuals correlogram and Q-statistics, not shown below, reveals that serial correlation is not a problem for this augmented specification. All coefficients in Table 5 are significant at the 5-percent level. All parameter estimates display the expected positive signs: as population, employment, and income increase, new electricity accounts also expand in this northern metropolitan economy. These results corroborate and extend those obtained for municipal water demand in Ciudad Juarez (Fullerton et al., 2006).

Table 4. Initial Estimates for Customer Base Long-Run Equation

| Dependent Variable: LOG(EC) | | | | |
|---|-------------|-----------------------|-------------|-----------|
| Method: Least Squares | | | | |
| Sample (adjusted): 1990 2012 | | | | |
| Included observations: 23 after adjustments | | | | |
| Variable | Coefficient | Std. Error | t-Statistic | Prob. |
| C | -7.865177 | 1.051729 | -7.478328 | 0.0000 |
| LOG(POP) | 2.226555 | 0.153911 | 14.46654 | 0.0000 |
| LOG(EMP) | 0.837562 | 0.145038 | 5.774796 | 0.0000 |
| R-squared | 0.952919 | Mean dependent var | | 12.62320 |
| Adjusted R-squared | 0.948211 | S.D. dependent var | | 0.281597 |
| S.E. of regression | 0.064083 | Akaike info criterion | | -2.536154 |
| Sum squared resid | 0.082134 | Schwarz criterion | | -2.388046 |
| Log likelihood | 32.16577 | Hannan-Quinn criter. | | -2.498905 |
| F-statistic | 202.4018 | Durbin-Watson stat | | 0.664333 |
| Prob(F-statistic) | 0.000000 | | | |

Of particular interest is the coefficient estimate for population due to its magnitude. Immigration into the city not only creates new households, but also fosters the establishment of new businesses, schools, recreation centers, churches, etc. These, of course, for the most part represent new customer accounts in CFE's records. Moreover, the creation of the maquiladora industry in the late 1960s in Ciudad Juarez helped accelerate migratory flows from other regions of Mexico. Subsequently, a deficit in residential electricity coverage emerged, eventually leaving about 14 percent of the population with no access to electricity. Substantial government investments during the late 1990s and early 2000s have partially closed this gap. CFE analysts suggest that this phenomenon may be reflected in the coefficient estimate for population in this equation.

Table 5. Estimates for Revised Customer Base Long-Run Cointegration Equation

| Dependent Variable: LOG(EC) | | | | |
|---|-------------|-----------------------|-------------|-----------|
| Method: Least Squares | | | | |
| Sample (adjusted): 1990 2012 | | | | |
| Included observations: 23 after adjustments | | | | |
| Variable | Coefficient | Std. Error | t-Statistic | Prob. |
| C | -14.15447 | 1.222652 | -11.57686 | 0.0000 |
| LOG(POP) | 2.326938 | 0.094167 | 24.71088 | 0.0000 |
| LOG(EMP) | 1.282342 | 0.114444 | 11.20493 | 0.0000 |
| LOG(Y) | 0.944264 | 0.157024 | 6.013499 | 0.0000 |
| R-squared | 0.983784 | Mean dependent var | | 12.62320 |
| Adjusted R-squared | 0.981223 | S.D. dependent var | | 0.281597 |
| S.E. of regression | 0.038587 | Akaike info criterion | | -3.515035 |
| Sum squared resid | 0.028290 | Schwarz criterion | | -3.317558 |
| Log likelihood | 44.42291 | Hannan-Quinn criter. | | -3.465370 |
| F-statistic | 384.2182 | Durbin-Watson stat | | 1.044798 |
| Prob(F-statistic) | 0.000000 | | | |

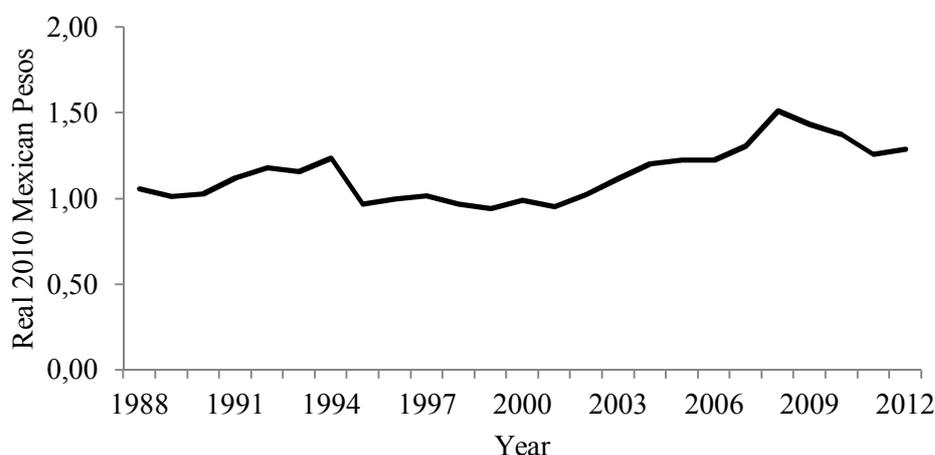
The short-run error correction estimates for the customer base are shown in Table 6. Even though the signs of the coefficient estimates are all positive, only the constant term is statistically significant at the 5-percent level. This implies that short-run changes in the customer base related to demographic or economic indicators are not statistically precise. The positive constant term implies that the number of electricity accounts in Ciudad Juarez is increasing steadily at 3.264 percent per year. The error correction term is less than zero, and indicates that short-run deviations from the long-run equilibrium customer base will dissipate in 10.811 years. That is a fairly long adjustment period and may reflect the extended catch-up game that CFE is forced to play throughout Mexico due to resource limitations. Similar constraints also affect water utilities in Mexico (Fullerton et al., 2006).

Table 6. Estimates for Customer Base Short-Run Error Correction Equation

| Dependent Variable: DLOG(EC) | | | | |
|---|-------------|-----------------------|-------------|-----------|
| Method: Least Squares | | | | |
| Sample (adjusted): 1991 2012 | | | | |
| Included observations: 22 after adjustments | | | | |
| Variable | Coefficient | Std. Error | t-Statistic | Prob. |
| C | 0.032643 | 0.007042 | 4.635537 | 0.0002 |
| DLOG(POP) | 0.431350 | 0.311061 | 1.386705 | 0.1834 |
| DLOG(EMP) | 0.285999 | 0.192803 | 1.483375 | 0.1563 |
| DLOG(Y) | 0.214751 | 0.155451 | 1.381471 | 0.1850 |
| E(-1) | -0.092490 | 0.162551 | -0.568991 | 0.5768 |
| R-squared | 0.123549 | Mean dependent var | | 0.038567 |
| Adjusted R-squared | -0.082675 | S.D. dependent var | | 0.019772 |
| S.E. of regression | 0.020573 | Akaike info criterion | | -4.732976 |
| Sum squared resid | 0.007195 | Schwarz criterion | | -4.485012 |
| Log likelihood | 57.06274 | Hannan-Quinn criter. | | -4.674563 |
| F-statistic | 0.599102 | Durbin-Watson stat | | 2.083303 |
| Prob(F-statistic) | 0.668304 | | | |

These results have several policy implications. Table 2 shows that the own-price elasticity of electricity in Ciudad Juarez is -0.510 . That implies that at least a portion of the CFE revenue limitations can be overcome by using rate increases. That would also reinforce usage efficiency objectives. In a market where electricity is a normal good, and where there is no close substitute, energy conservation efforts will have to involve rate increases. However, as shown in Figure 1, the average real price per KWH has remained fairly constant during the last 25 years. Because usage is rate inelastic, meeting ambitious conservation goals would probably also require publicity campaigns to raise environmental awareness (Olmstead and Stavins, 2009; Renwick and Green, 2000). In the absence of rate increases, per capita electricity consumption in Ciudad Juarez is likely to continue to increase and grid coverage in the greater metropolitan area will remain substantially incomplete.

Figure 1. Historical Average Price per KWH



Income has grown steadily in Ciudad Juarez, placing additional upward pressures on electricity demand. The results in Table 2 indicate that electricity is a normal good in this city. When per capita income increases by 1 percent, electricity usage swells by 0.426 percent. Ongoing income expansion will likely force the CFE to invest in additional generation, transmission, and distribution capacities for this dynamic urban economy where electricity is a normal good (Fullerton and Walke, 2013).

Table 2 reveals that a 1 percent increase in CDD in Ciudad Juarez increases per customer electricity consumption by 0.150 percent. This creates at least some concern as climate change in northern Mexico may lead to longer, warmer, and drier springs and summers (Polley et al., 2013). Such developments would likely cause electricity customers in the area to use cooling appliances more

intensively for longer periods of time. The need to increase electricity generation capacity may intensify if climate change becomes a long-term issue that substantially increases electricity demand in Ciudad Juarez.

CFE faces additional pressure from the expanding customer base in Ciudad Juarez. Table 5 sheds light on the long-run forces behind this growth: all of the explanatory variables affect the city's customer base in a positive manner. The population coefficient indicates that a 1 percent increase in population precipitates 2.3 percent growth in electricity accounts. The parameter estimate for employment in Table 5 indicates a 1.282 percent increase in electricity accounts following a 1 percent employment increase. Both population and employment are expected to grow in coming years (Fullerton and Walke, 2013).

Finally, as noted above, the Ciudad Juarez metropolitan economy is growing. This not only affects per-customer electricity consumption, it also affects the size of the consumer base. CFE is likely to face fairly intense pressure to rapidly extend the distribution network as a consequence of these changes.

5. Conclusion

This study analyzes electricity demand in Ciudad Juarez. The explanatory variables for this study include the average real price of electricity, real income, and the real price of natural gas, population, employment, and heating and cooling degree days. Error correction models are estimated for per customer electricity consumption and for the customer base. A two-step artificial regression reveals that endogeneity exists in the per customer consumption equation. Fitted price values obtained using two instrumental variables substitute for the original average price variable in the long- and short-run demand equations.

In both demand equations, all of the coefficient estimates exhibit the expected signs except for the price of natural gas. A coefficient that is less than zero for the cross price variable indicates that electricity and natural gas are complements in this market. In both the long- and the short-run, the cross-price elasticity between these goods is very close to zero, implying that natural gas is a weak complement to electricity in this urban economy.

The long-run own-price elasticity is -0.510 . That estimate is comparable to those reported in prior studies. In the short run, the own-price elasticity estimate is -0.297 , which is also consistent with most previous estimates. However, the parameter is not significant at the 5-percent level, indicating that price variations do not exercise reliable effects on electricity demand in Ciudad Juarez in the short run.

Short-run per customer usage is highly variable in this urban economy. The estimated coefficients exhibit reasonable signs and magnitudes, but do not satisfy the 5-percent significance criterion. The results indicate that summer time peak load capacity will, for the foreseeable future, require substantial generation capacity or access to off-system on-demand energy sources. Fortunately, Ciudad Juarez has both domestic and international transmission lines already in place.

With respect to the customer base, population, employment, and income exercise positive and statistically significant impacts on the demand for electricity hook-ups. This outcome is consistent with previous public utility research for Ciudad Juarez. In the short run, changes in the customer base are very pronounced and deterministic in nature.

The CFE faces substantial pressure to expand local generation, transmission, and distribution capacity. Because the real price of electricity has remained fairly flat over the last 25 years, there is at least some flexibility for rate increases that exceed the rate of inflation in Ciudad Juarez. The price inelasticity of demand means that any rate increases will be net revenue generators and those resources can be used for grid expansion. Better usage efficiency will probably require public awareness campaigns.

These results are interesting and align well with prior international research. Whether these outcomes are unique to Ciudad Juarez is unknown at this juncture. Additional research for other metropolitan economies in Mexico and Latin America appears warranted.

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