

# European Electricity Grids May Exhibit Heatwave-induced Capacity Bottlenecks

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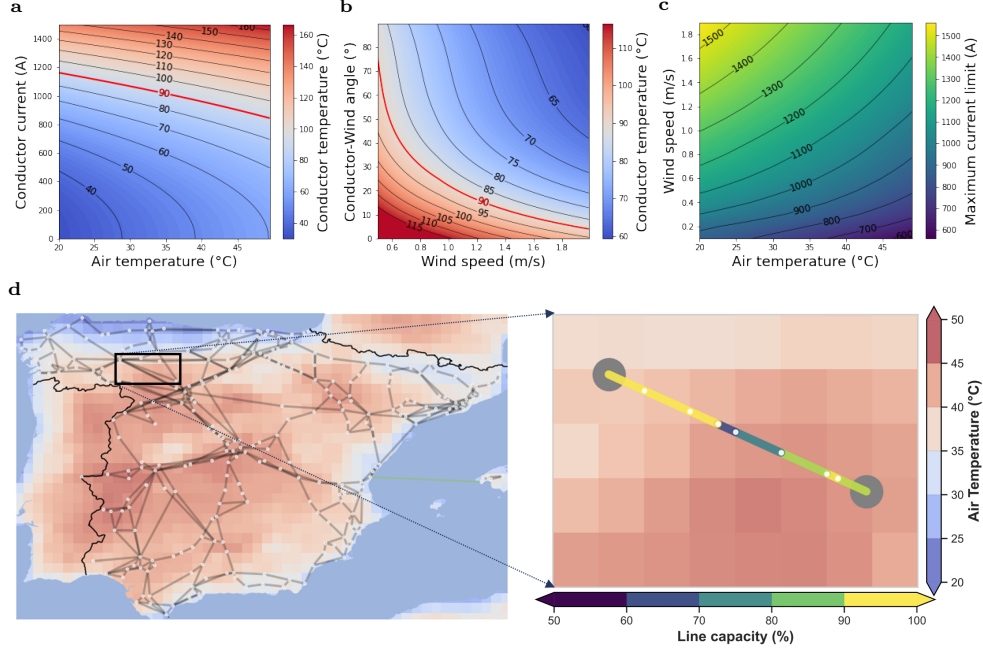
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As climate change increases the frequency, intensity, and duration of heatwaves, understanding their impact on electricity grids is crucial for enhancing societal security and resilience. We study the effects of heatwaves on European electricity grids using several comprehensive real-world datasets. Moreover, noting that conventional modeling of temperature effects on grid operation limits is [insufficient](#) or computationally challenging, we develop a novel [temperature-dependent modeling framework](#) that is both [comprehensive](#) and efficient. We apply this method to evaluate the robustness of several European electricity grids for projected heatwave scenarios for the next 5 years. We identify concerning grid bottlenecks and substantial national differences in vulnerability: for example, while the Spanish grid exhibits temperature-induced capacity bottlenecks that could jeopardize power supply during heatwaves, the German grid shows remarkable resilience. These findings emphasize the need for temperature-aware grid power flow analysis as well as the need for long-range planning to ensure energy security despite climate-change induced future heatwaves.



**Fig. 1: Heatwaves reduce current capacity and induce transmission line bottle-necks.** **a-c** Physical properties of conductors based on IEEE Std 738<sup>TM</sup>-2012 under varying weather conditions [1]. **a** Conductor temperature as a function of air temperature and line current. **b** Conductor temperature variations with different wind speeds and angles. **c** Line current capacity under different air temperatures and wind speeds. **d** Line segment capacity variations along a 130-km transmission line in Northwestern Spain crossing 9 gridded regions, showing localized thermal constraints during heatwaves.

## Introduction

Climate change has led to an increase in average global temperatures, characterized by more frequent, intense, and prolonged heatwaves [2–5]. The escalating frequency and severity of heatwaves impact millions of people worldwide [6] and pose significant challenges to critical infrastructure [7, 8], including electrical power grids [9, 10]. A detailed understanding of these impacts on power grid performance is crucial for evaluating and enhancing societal resilience and energy security.

Heatwaves create a triple threat to electrical grids. First, they substantially increase cooling demand, driving up electricity consumption [4]. Second, they alter power generation capacity through mechanisms such as wind energy shortages [11] and generator capacity derating [12]. Third, they reduce transmission line capacity as conductors approach their thermal limits (see Fig.1a-c). Moreover, regional variations in weather conditions create spatially heterogeneous thermal constraints along long-distance transmission lines, with different segments experiencing different capacity reductions (Fig.1d).

Traditional power flow analyses inadequately capture these heatwave impacts. Existing linearized optimal power flow (OPF) models, even those incorporating weather-dependent dynamic line ratings [13], fail to represent the complex grid dynamics that emerge under heavy cooling loads during extreme heat. More critically, they do not precisely model temperature effects on generator capacity derating and the segment-specific thermal constraints of long transmission lines [14]. This oversight leads to incomplete vulnerability assessments, as our European case studies demonstrate.

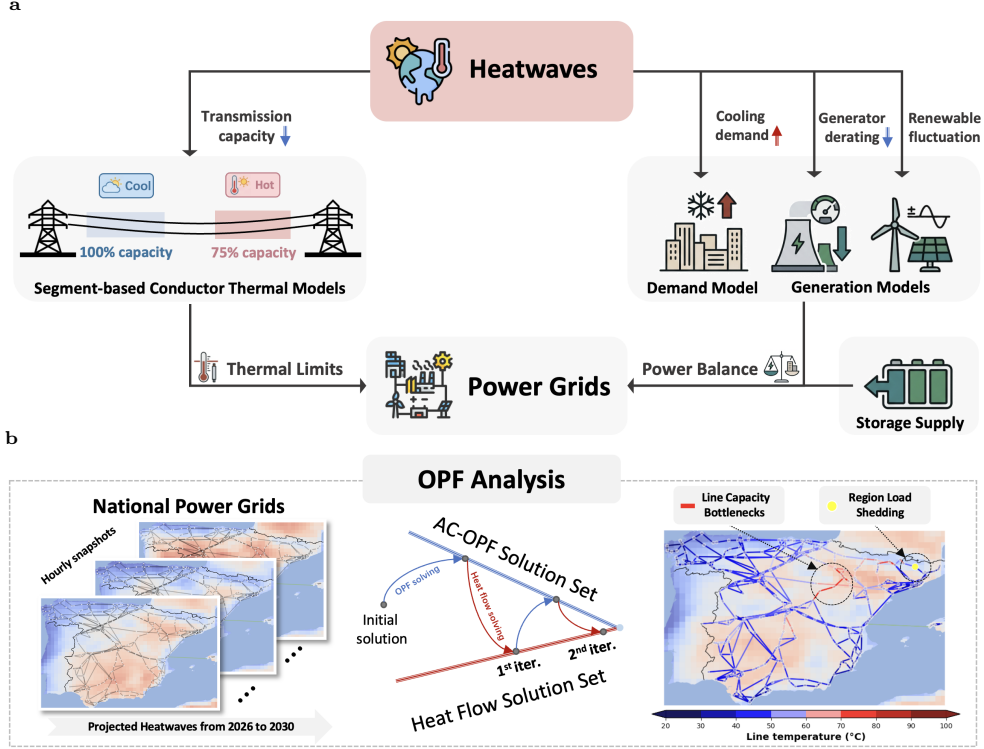
We address these methodological limitations through a novel framework that combines comprehensive heatwave-aware grid modeling approaches (Fig.2a) with an efficient temperature-dependent alternating-current (AC) OPF analysis under future heatwave projections (Fig.2b). Our approach introduces four key innovations: (i) temperature-dependent electricity demand estimation and generation derating modeling, (ii) per-segment conductor heat balance modeling to determine thermal-dependent capacity limits for transmission lines, (iii) probabilistic assessment using hundreds of bias-corrected heatwave projections with geospatially-gridded weather profiles, and (iv) an efficient iterative algorithm for temperature-dependent OPF analysis that enables rapid evaluation of national grid resilience across these numerous scenarios. Applying our framework to European electricity grids using publicly available weather profiles, power demand models, renewable penetration scenarios, and grid parameters, we reveal:

- ▷ We demonstrate that existing grid resilience analyses based on standard AC-OPF approaches fail to adequately capture the combined effects of increased cooling demand and reduced transmission capacity during heatwaves. Even more accurate quadratic approximations for thermal constraints [15] still substantially underestimate transmission line vulnerabilities under extreme heat.

- ▷ We formulate a temperature-dependent AC-OPF problem that simultaneously incorporates temperature-dependent cooling loads, generator derating, and segment-specific thermally-induced capacity limits for transmission lines, using hundreds of heatwave projections with weather profiles at approximately 30km resolution. We develop a novel iterative algorithm that solves this OPF problem more efficiently while capturing critical nonlinear interactions missed by existing methods.

- ▷ Applying our framework to European grids reveals significant heatwave vulnerability. For example, by 2030, up to 4.8% of Spanish transmission lines are projected to drop below 70% of their nominal current-carrying capacity—a typical security constraint margin [16], highlighting the need for heatwave-aware grid management. National-level impacts vary dramatically: the Spanish grid faces substantial load shedding risk under extreme heat, while the German grid demonstrates remarkable resilience. While these findings are based on the best available public data, we caution that further validation with proprietary grid-specific datasets would strengthen these estimations.

These findings underscore the urgent need for grid operators and policymakers to consider the impacts of extreme weather more comprehensively in their planning and management strategies. By doing so, they can enhance the reliability and resilience of electricity supplies in the face of increasing climate change challenges.



**Fig. 2: Framework for analyzing heatwave impacts on national power grids.** **a** Integration of segment-specific conductor thermal modeling, temperature-dependent demand, weather-dependent renewable generation, and heatwave-induced generation derating to capture climate-power system interactions. **b** Proposed iterative algorithm solving temperature-dependent AC optimal power flow under bias-corrected heatwave projections, identifying capacity bottlenecks and potential load shedding regions during extreme heat events.

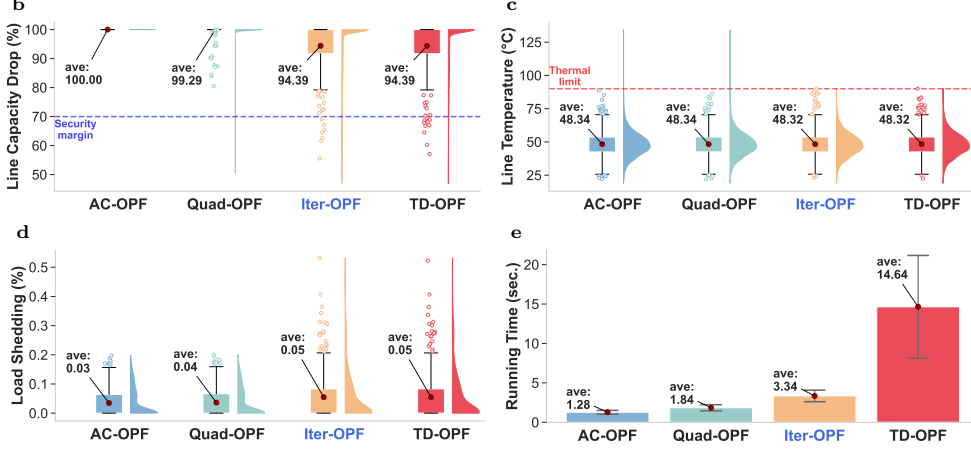
## Results

### Setup

We employ the modeling framework illustrated in Fig. 2a, with data source and detailed methods included in Section 1, to evaluate how heatwaves impact existing grid operations in European countries under projected future heatwave scenarios. We focus our analysis on 2026–2030, a time horizon that reduces uncertainty in both climate projections and grid infrastructure configurations while providing actionable insights for near-term resilience planning and investment decisions. We conduct optimal power flow (OPF) analyses using the proposed iterative algorithms in Fig. 2b, to investigate whether national grids exhibit temperature-induced capacity bottlenecks, indicated by transmission lines approaching their thermal limits and load-shedding regions—that is, buses where power injection fails to meet consumption. Our work also compares the

a

Year	Wind (m/s)	Solar (W/m <sup>2</sup> )	Temp. (°C)	Load (GWh)
2026	2.45 ( $\pm 0.42$ )	801.91 ( $\pm 80.03$ )	38.34 ( $\pm 2.10$ )	37.55 ( $\pm 1.41$ )
2027	2.88 ( $\pm 0.34$ )	777.83 ( $\pm 100.31$ )	39.35 ( $\pm 1.38$ )	38.37 ( $\pm 0.85$ )
2028	2.68 ( $\pm 0.37$ )	747.28 ( $\pm 112.61$ )	39.26 ( $\pm 1.95$ )	38.95 ( $\pm 1.13$ )
2029	2.59 ( $\pm 0.38$ )	799.91 ( $\pm 77.69$ )	39.69 ( $\pm 1.62$ )	39.28 ( $\pm 0.81$ )
2030	2.66 ( $\pm 0.37$ )	781.30 ( $\pm 89.47$ )	39.83 ( $\pm 1.47$ )	39.56 ( $\pm 0.74$ )



**Fig. 3: Comparison of different OPF methods for analyzing the Spanish grid under projected heatwaves.** We compare basic AC-OPF, advanced Quad-OPF, our proposed Iter-OPF, and the most accurate TD-OPF. **a** Weather and load statistics under heatwave projections from 2026 to 2030, with **320** scenarios generated using a bias-correction approach (detailed in Section 1.1). **b–c** Distributions of estimated line capacity reduction compared to nominal conditions and line temperatures (derived from heat balance equations) across different methods. **d** Distributions of load shedding ratios (demand-generation mismatch over total demand). **e** Average per-scenario solving times.

accuracy of existing OPF analysis methods with our proposed approach in identifying these critical bottlenecks while satisfying physical constraints.

## Observations

We find that, as heatwaves simultaneously reduce transmission capacity, cause generator derating, and increase cooling demand, some European national grids, such as Spain, France, and Italy, exhibit capacity bottlenecks in projected heatwave scenarios, subsequently resulting in non-negligible load-shedding and potential human casualties [17, 18]. This alerting observation emphasizes the need for temperature-aware grid analysis and planning to mitigate heatwave risks and ensure energy security. In further detail, we have the following observations:

### Existing OPF models overestimate grid resilience under heatwaves

We compare four OPF-based approaches: the standard alternating current OPF (AC-OPF), a more advanced ACOPF with quadratic approximation of thermal limits (Quad-OPF), our proposed iterative framework (Iter-OPF), and the most accurate fully converged temperature-dependent ACOPF (TD-OPF). Detailed formulations are in Section 1.5 and Supplementary Section 2.

Conventional methods substantially underestimate heatwave risks. AC-OPF neglects thermal limits entirely, while Quad-OPF’s quadratic approximation fails to precisely capture the complex nonlinear relationship between temperature and current-carrying capacity (Fig.3b). Both methods permit line temperatures to exceed the 90°C thermal limit (Fig.3c), overestimating transmission capacity and underestimating load shedding (Fig.3d). Implementing generation plans based on these methods during heatwaves could trigger line shutdowns or even cascading blackouts [17, 18].

Our Iter-OPF framework addresses these limitations. Like TD-OPF, it correctly identifies load shedding regions and maintains safe line temperatures below 90°C. Yet while TD-OPF requires over four times the computational cost of AC-OPF (Fig. 3e), Iter-OPF achieves comparable accuracy at only twice the cost, enabling reliable resilience assessment across hundreds of weather scenarios for comprehensive grid planning.

## **Complete thermal modeling is essential for accurate resilience assessment under heatwaves**

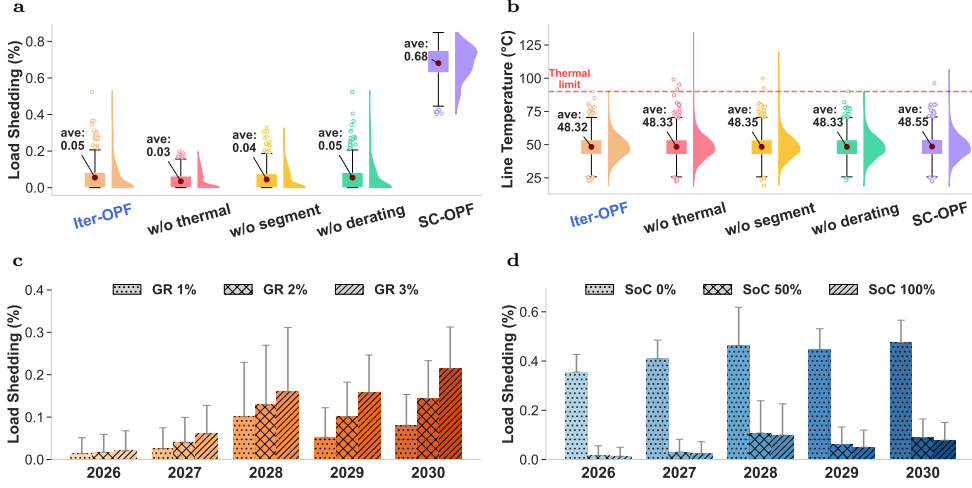
To assess the importance of different modeling components under heatwaves, we conduct an ablation study systematically removing key elements from Iter-OPF: conductor thermal models, segment-based modeling, and generator derating (Fig.4a–b). We also compare these against the widely used 70% security margin SC-OPF approach [16].

Conductor thermal modeling proves most critical. Removing it substantially overestimates grid capacity, while segment-based modeling captures local thermal bottlenecks that uniform approaches miss (Fig. 4a). Generator derating has comparatively smaller impacts on system-level performance.

The 70% security margin approach [16], though commonly used, only partially prevents line overheating (Fig. 4b). This fixed margin cannot avoid thermal violations because it neglects spatial heterogeneity in thermal conditions—actual capacity can drop near 40% of nominal ratings during extreme heatwaves in localized hotspots (Fig.3d). These results demonstrate that explicit temperature-dependent thermal modeling is essential; conservative static margins alone are insufficient for reliable heatwave resilience assessment.

## **Rising demand amplifies grid stress, yet energy storage alone offers limited relief**

We assess grid resilience sensitivity to future demand growth and energy storage availability. With load growth rates from 1% to 3% annually from 2025, reflecting emerging demands from AI infrastructure, electrified heating and cooling, and electric vehicles [19, 20], load shedding increases proportionally with demand (Fig. 4c). This



**Fig. 4: Sensitivity analysis of modeling components and environmental factors on OPF analysis under heatwaves.** **a–b** Impact of removing different modeling components from the Iter-OPF framework on load shedding ratios and line temperatures, compared to the 70% security margin SC-OPF method [16]. **c–d** Load shedding ratios under different load growth rates (GR) and energy storage states (i.e., SoC).

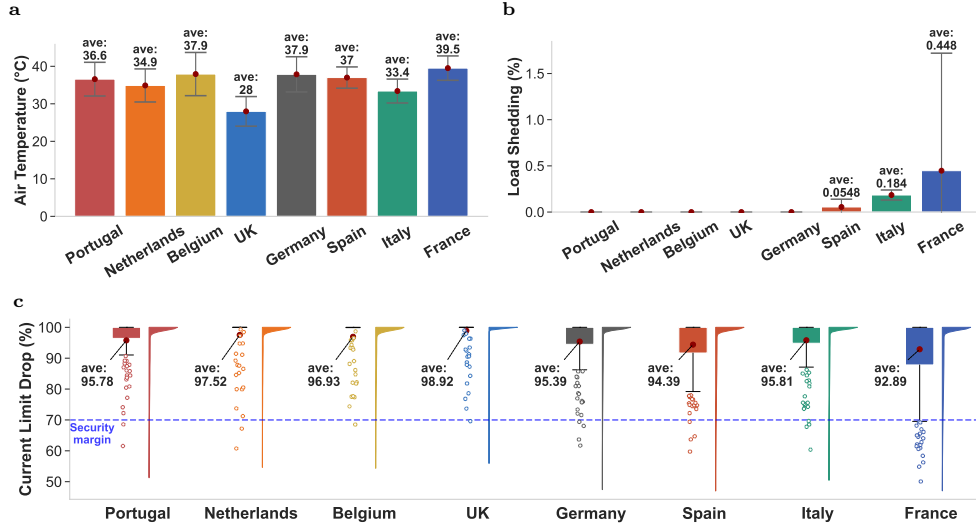
positive relationship reveals that rising consumption patterns will directly amplify grid stress during heatwaves.

On the other hand, varying energy storage state-of-charge (SoC) from 0% to 100% yields only marginal reductions in load shedding (Fig. 4d). This counterintuitive result arises because transmission constraints—not generation capacity—dominate grid vulnerability during extreme heat. Higher storage availability cannot compensate when reduced line capacity prevents power delivery from storage units to demand centers. This finding indicates that expanding the capacity of existing storage infrastructure alone cannot adequately mitigate heatwave impacts. Planning must combine transmission upgrades and distributed flexibility to address thermal constraints directly.

### Grid vulnerability differs by country and cross-border ties are not always helpful

Grid vulnerability to heatwaves varies dramatically across eight Western European countries. French electricity grid shows severe thermal-induced capacity bottlenecks during extreme heat, with average load shedding reaching 2% under projected heatwaves (Fig. 5a), potentially causing widespread power disruptions [17]. In contrast, Germany, the UK, and other northern countries maintain full supply without load shedding under the same projected scenarios (Fig. 5b).

Cross-border interconnections provide asymmetric benefits depending on neighboring grid conditions. France experiences substantial relief from power sharing with less-stressed neighbors—load shedding decreases by about 2% when interconnected



**Fig. 5: National grids in Western Europe, such as France, Italy, and Spain, exhibit substantial load shedding under projected heatwaves, while other countries remain resilient. a** Average air temperature during the hottest hours in projected heatwave periods. **b** Average load shedding across different countries. **c** Distribution of line capacity reduction compared to nominal ratings during heatwaves.

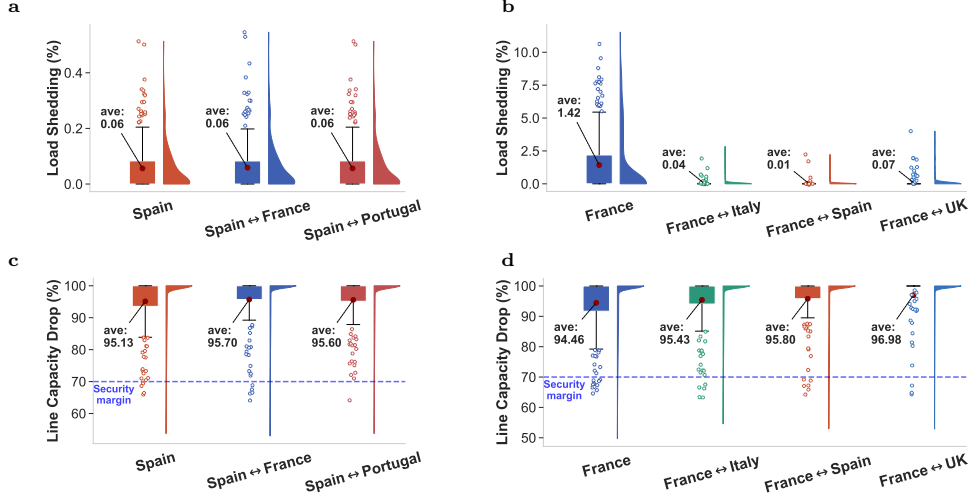
with Italy (Fig. 6b,d). Conversely, joint simulations of Spain with Portugal or France show minimal relief because France faces similar thermal stress during concurrent heatwaves and also because limited transmission capacity constrains power delivery to stress centers (Fig. 6a,c). This disparity arises because interconnection effectiveness depends on the spatial correlation of climate stress, available surplus capacity in neighboring systems, and sufficient transmission infrastructure to deliver power where needed.

These findings highlight that climate-resilient grid planning requires coordinated European strategies. Countries facing severe thermal constraints need targeted infrastructure upgrades—particularly transmission capacity and cooling systems—while strategic interconnections can provide mutual support where climate impacts are spatially decorrelated.

## Broader Implication

Our findings have immediate implications for European energy policy. Grid operators **should** periodically re-evaluate resilience assessments using temperature-dependent methodologies and the latest climate projections. Policymakers should combine transmission upgrades in thermally vulnerable corridors—particularly in southern Europe—rather than relying solely on storage expansion or demand response. The spatial correlation of climate stress across borders further underscores the need for pan-European coordination; interconnection benefits depend critically on whether neighboring systems face concurrent thermal constraints.





**Fig. 6: Cross-border interconnections enhance grid resilience by enabling mutual support during heatwaves.** We compare single-country analyses with joint multi-country analyses under identical heatwave projections to quantify the effects of cross-border interconnections on grid resilience. **a–b** Distribution of Load shedding ratio in Spain and France across different interconnection scenarios. **c–d** Distribution of Line capacity reduction in Spain and France across different interconnection scenarios.

## Limitations

Whilst concerning, we note that our results rely on publicly available datasets for European grids, which lack the granular detail accessible to grid operators. Additionally, although we use the best currently available locally bias-corrected weather projections [21], these remain subject to revision as climate models improve. Similarly, projecting cooling load patterns involves inherent uncertainties stemming from evolving building efficiency standards, air conditioning adoption rates, and demand response capabilities.

We focus on near-term scenarios (2026–2030) to reduce forecasting uncertainty; longer-term climate impacts and grid vulnerabilities may be more severe. However, future grid evolution—including increased renewable energy penetration, transmission capacity upgrades, energy storage deployment, and other infrastructure improvements—remains uncertain and could substantially alter these vulnerability projections [22]. Our analysis, therefore, represents current grid configurations under near-term climate scenarios rather than a long-term forecast of grid performance.

Our iterative algorithm has been validated against the fully converged TD-OPF model, demonstrating numerical consistency with the underlying physical models. However, the TD-OPF model itself has not been validated against real-world field tests of line temperatures during heatwave events. Errors in the underlying physical model or biased input data will propagate through our analysis.

214 Given these limitations, grid operators should validate our findings against histori-  
215 cal outage records and apply our methodology with their proprietary, higher-resolution  
216 models and real-time operational data for more precise vulnerability assessments.

## 217 Discussion and Conclusion

218 Extreme heat poses a compound threat to electrical grids—simultaneously increasing  
219 cooling demand, reducing generation efficiency, and degrading transmission capacity.  
220 Yet existing assessment methods fail to capture these coupled dynamics or provide the  
221 computational efficiency needed for probabilistic analysis across numerous climate sce-  
222 narios. Current models also overlook the spatially heterogeneous, weather-dependent  
223 thermal limits along individual transmission line segments.

224 We address these gaps with a framework integrating thermal modeling across  
225 demand, generation, and transmission with geospatially-gridded climate projections.  
226 Our iterative algorithm efficiently solves the temperature-dependent optimal power  
227 flow problem while incorporating segment-specific thermal limits, capturing critical  
228 nonlinear interactions that existing methods miss. Applying this framework to West-  
229 ern European grids reveals substantial variation in national resilience: Germany’s  
230 grid can withstand projected extreme heat, while Spain and France face significant  
231 vulnerability to supply disruptions.

232 The heatwave-induced capacity bottlenecks identified by our work can be mit-  
233 igated through three complementary approaches. First, demand response programs  
234 in affected load centers can maintain grid integrity, though at the cost of consumer  
235 inconvenience. Second, reconductoring vulnerable transmission lines—which our anal-  
236 ysis specifically identifies—can increase capacity and resilience, though this requires  
237 capital investment and significant lead time. Third, deploying grid-scale storage at  
238 bottleneck locations could compensate for transmission limits during extreme heat  
239 events, an approach that warrants investigation as storage costs continue to decline.

240 Climate change is accelerating while grid infrastructure evolves slowly. The meth-  
241 ods and findings presented here provide a foundation for prioritizing adaptation  
242 investments before the next extreme heatwave tests grid limits. Future work should  
243 extend our framework to optimize adaptation investments under climate uncertainty,  
244 incorporating cost-benefit analysis and long-term climate trajectories. Our analysis  
245 relies on diverse datasets, not all of which are easy to obtain or process, such as  
246 country-specific calibrated demand models. To support reproducibility and enable  
247 broader application, we openly share our datasets, algorithms, and source code.

## 248 1 Methods

### 249 Data Sources

250 We employed multiple publicly available datasets covering European transmission  
251 infrastructure, climate conditions, power demand, and renewable generation. The  
252 European transmission network topology and parameters were derived from PyPSA-  
253 Eur [16], an open-source model of the European energy system. Algorithm validation

used standardized IEEE power flow benchmarks from PGLIB [23]. Historical climate data were obtained from ERA5 [24], providing hourly meteorological fields at  $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$  resolution from 1940 to present. Future climate projections were sourced from the Copernicus Climate Change Service Energy dataset [25], covering 2005–2100 with temperature, solar irradiance, and wind velocity fields. Historical electricity demand profiles were extracted from ENTSO-E Power Statistics [26]. Weather-dependent demand variations were modeled following Demand.ninja [27]. Renewable generation potentials and time series were computed using Atlite [28].

Comprehensive dataset descriptions are provided in [Supplementary Table 1](#).

## Models and Algorithms

We developed a comprehensive framework to assess transmission grid resilience under extreme heatwaves, integrating heatwave projection, demand modeling, and optimal power flow analysis. As depicted in Fig. 2, the framework comprises:

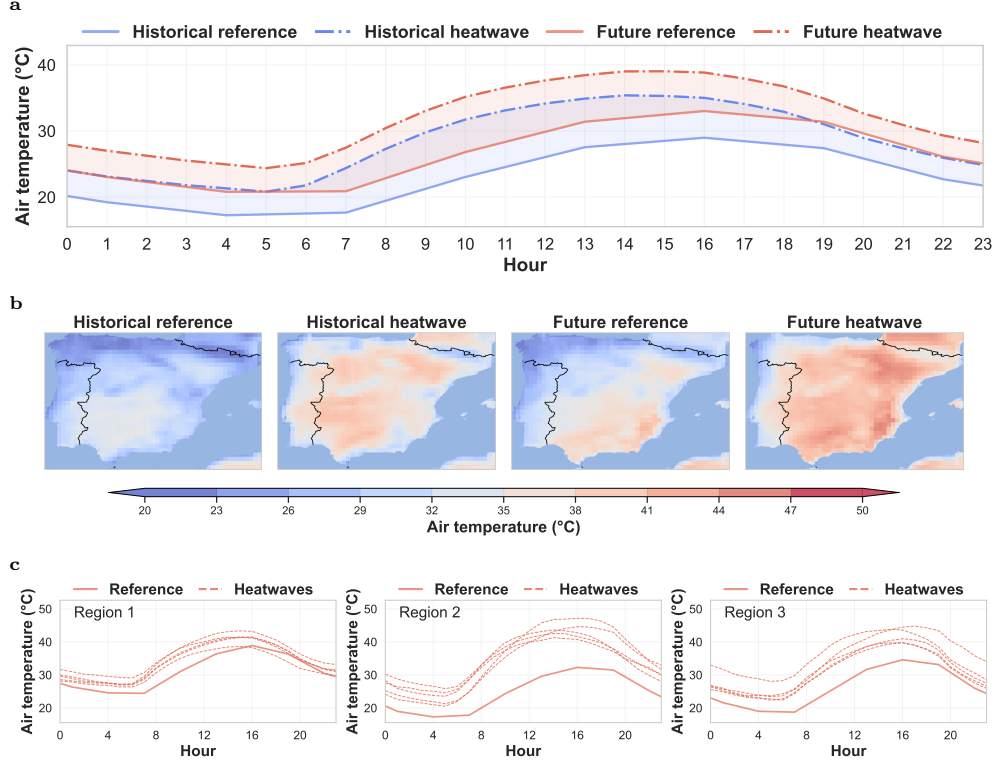
- **Future Heatwave Projection (Sec. 1.1):** Generates [multiple](#) projected heatwave events for 2025–2030 based on historical events from 2019 and 2022.
- **Future Demand Modeling (Sec. 1.2):** Simulates power demand under varying annual growth rates using a weather-dependent model from Demand.ninja [27].
- **Generator Derating Modeling (Sec. 1.3):** Quantifies reduced generator efficiency due to elevated ambient temperatures during heatwaves.
- **Renewable Generation:** Calculates renewable generation potential under projected weather conditions using Atlite [28].
- **Transmission Line Thermal Modeling (Sec. 1.4):** Quantifies temperature effects on conductor properties and thermal limits, [including multi-bundle line derating and segmented analysis to identify localized stress points](#).
- **Optimal Power Flow Analysis (Sec. 1.5):** Integrates these components to simulate grid response under thermal and demand stresses, revealing critical capacity constraints and vulnerability zones.

### 1.1 Future Heatwave Modeling

We adopt future reference climate variables based on the bias-corrected European regional climate model, CORDEX, under the RCP 4.5 scenario for the European domain [25]. However, these reference climate data are averaged over three-hour intervals and lack prediction uncertainty intervals, thus inadequately capturing shorter-duration extreme heat events.

To address this limitation, we apply a “morphing” approach to artificially create future heatwaves based upon historical weather observations [29, 30]. This approach preserves the spatial structure and diurnal patterns of historical heatwaves while shifting the temperature baseline, though it assumes that heatwave dynamics will remain qualitatively similar under future climate conditions. This approach has often been used for the analysis of building energy use or assessing resilience under different future climate scenarios [31].

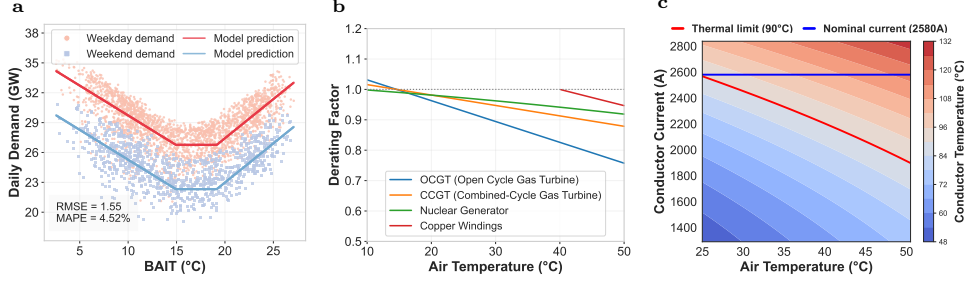
We first select temperature profiles from historical heatwave events in the [hourly](#) ERA5 reanalysis dataset, denoted as  $T_{\text{heat}}^{\text{his}}$ , and the historical reference temperature



**Fig. 7: Projected 2030 heatwaves in Spain derived from 2022 observations.** **a** Morphing approach for projecting future heatwaves. Delta values calculated from a historical heatwave day are applied to a future reference day to generate projected conditions. Temperature values represent spatial averages across regions. **b** Spatial characteristics of generated heatwaves compared to historical events and reference profiles. The morphing approach preserves spatial and temporal patterns from historical events. **c** Generated 2030 heatwaves based on delta values from five historical hottest days in July 2022. Profiles for three areas are shown separately.

296 data,  $T_{\text{ref}}^{\text{his}}$ , on the same historical date. To derive the projected future hourly heat-  
 297 wave scenarios  $T_{\text{heat}}^{\text{fut}}$  from the future reference temperature  $T_{\text{ref}}^{\text{fut}}$ , we calculate it as  
 298  $T_{\text{heat}}^{\text{fut}} = T_{\text{ref}}^{\text{fut}} + (T_{\text{heat}}^{\text{his}} - T_{\text{ref}}^{\text{his}})$ , where the low-resolution 3-hourly reference data is linearly  
 299 interpolated to generate a complete 24-hour time series for this calculation.

300 The projected future heatwave exhibits a similar temperature increase relative  
 301 to the historical reference (Fig 7a) while preserving the spatial features at each  
 302 longitude-latitude grid (Fig 7b). Furthermore, we collect a set of such bias values (i.e.,  
 303  $(T_{\text{heat}}^{\text{his}} - T_{\text{ref}}^{\text{his}})$ ) based on different historical heatwave records, to present a historical  
 304 distribution of extreme weather patterns (Fig 7c). This approach allows us to capture  
 305 the diversity of potential heatwave manifestations while maintaining their inherent  
 306 spatial characteristics in our future projections.



**Fig. 8: Heatwave impacts on load demand, generator efficiency, and transmission capacity.** **a** Calibrated temperature-dependent demand model for Spain following Demand.ninja [27], where BAIT indicates building-adjusted internal temperature depending on multiple weather variables. **b** Generator derating model for various common generators, where higher ambient temperature induces lower generation efficiency due to different mechanisms. **c** Conductor thermal models based on heat balance equations, where the nominal current capacity is determined under thermal limits in ambient conditions; as air temperature increases, the current limits decrease.

## 1.2 Future Demand Modeling

We employ a weather-dependent demand model following Demand.ninja [27] to simulate future daily demand as follows:

$$P^d = P_{\text{base}} + P_{\text{heat}}[T_{\text{heat}} - \text{BAIT}]^+ + P_{\text{cool}}[\text{BAIT} - T_{\text{cool}}]^+ + \alpha W + \beta D + \epsilon,$$

where base load  $P_{\text{base}}$  denotes the base demand (in GW),  $P_{\text{heat}}$  and  $P_{\text{cool}}$  are heating and cooling coefficients (in GW/°C),  $T_{\text{heat}}$  and  $T_{\text{cool}}$  are heating and cooling thresholds (in °C), and BAIT denotes the building-adjusted internal temperature derived from [27], which depends on specific weather conditions such as air temperature, relative humidity, wind speed, and solar radiation.  $\alpha$  is a time-dependent coefficient (in GW), representing the impacts of differences in workdays ( $W = 1$ ) and weekends ( $W = 0$ ),  $\beta$  (in GW/yr) captures the long-term yearly trends in power demand, and  $\epsilon$  is the model error term. After generating daily power demand, we convert it to an hourly resolution based on the historical average hourly demand ratios observed during hot days, following [27].

We follow the methodology [27] to calibrate demand models for EU countries in our case study. For future scenarios, we incorporate varying annual growth rates ( $\beta$ ) to model different load projections. This approach accounts for unprecedented grid challenges from AI technologies, smart homes, and electric vehicles, which will significantly alter historical demand patterns [19, 20]. By adjusting these growth rates, we evaluate grid performance under various electrification scenarios, from moderate to aggressive technology adoption.

## 1.3 Generator Derating Modeling

Heatwave-induced high temperatures also derate generator capacity. For renewable generators, such as solar generation, the Atlite package [28] is employed to convert weather data into renewable power generation profiles. For Gas Turbines (GT)

and Combined-Cycle Gas Turbines (CCGT), the density of input air decreases with increasing ambient temperature, resulting in more fuel needed to compress the same amount of air mass [12]. Nuclear power generators experience capacity decreases at high temperatures due to their reliance on water cooling systems to prevent overheating [32]. For Electric Generators with copper windings, elevated temperatures increase winding resistance, inducing Joule heating and reducing efficiency [33]. We then summarize the capacity derating factor  $\eta \leq 1$  for some conventional generators under ambient temperatures  $T_{\text{amb}}$  using:

$$\text{Generator derating } \eta = \begin{cases} (-0.6854T_{\text{amb}} + 110)/100 & (\text{GT}) \\ (-0.3427T_{\text{amb}} + 105)/100 & (\text{CCGT}) \\ (101.3042 - 0.1387T_{\text{amb}} - 0.0010T_{\text{amb}}^2)/100 & (\text{Nuclear}) \\ \sqrt{\frac{(180 - T_{\text{amb}})[1 + 0.0039(40 - 20)]}{(180 - 40)[1 + 0.0039(T_{\text{amb}} - 20)]}} & (\forall T_{\text{amb}} \geq 40) \text{ (Copper windings)} \end{cases}$$

These coefficients of derating curves depend on the detailed manufacturing configurations of different generators and can be adjusted under different real-world systems [12, 32, 33].

## 1.4 Conductor Thermal Modeling

Heatwaves also reduce transmission capacity in power grids by affecting the thermal behavior of overhead conductors. This physical phenomenon can be modeled by the steady-state heat balance equation, which accounts for the equilibrium between heat generated by electrical current and solar radiation, and heat lost through convection, radiation, and conduction.

### Heat Balance Equations

The standard steady-state heat balance equation according to IEEE Std 738<sup>TM</sup>-2012 [1] used in our study is as follows:

$$\underbrace{H_C + H_R}_{\text{heat loss}} = \underbrace{H_S + H_J}_{\text{heat gain}} \quad [\text{W/m}], \quad (1)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} H_C &= \max \begin{cases} 3.645\rho_f^{0.5}D^{0.75}(T - T_{\text{amb}})^{1.25}, & (\text{zero wind speed}); \\ K_\phi \left[ 1.01 + 1.35N_{\text{Re}}^{0.52} \right] \lambda_f (T - T_{\text{amb}}), & (\text{low wind speed}); \\ 0.754K_\phi N_{\text{Re}}^{0.6} \lambda_f (T - T_{\text{amb}}), & (\text{high wind speed}); \end{cases} \\ H_R &= \pi \sigma_B D \alpha_{\text{emi}} \left[ (T + 273)^4 - (T_{\text{amb}} + 273)^4 \right] \\ H_S &= \alpha_{\text{abs}} D S \\ H_J &= I^2 R(T) = I^2 R_{\text{ref}} (1 + \alpha_r (T - T_{\text{ref}})) \end{aligned}$$

Here, given the conductor physical properties (conductor diameter  $D$ , emissivity factor  $\alpha_{\text{emi}}$ , absorptivity factor  $\alpha_{\text{abs}}$ , resistance coefficient  $\alpha_r$ , unit reference resistance  $R_{\text{ref}}$ ) and environmental variables (conductor temperature  $T$ , ambient temperature  $T_{\text{amb}}$ , air density  $\rho_f$ , air thermal conductivity  $\lambda_f$ , wind angle factor  $K_\phi$ , Reynolds number  $N_{\text{Re}}$ , solar radiation  $S$ , and constant  $\delta_B$ ), the heat balance equation solves for the equilibrium conductor temperature that balances heat inflow and outflow.

The heat transfer components include convective heat loss  $H_C$ , radiative heat loss  $H_R$  driven by temperature difference, solar heat gain  $H_S$ , and Joule heat gain  $H_J$  from conductor current  $I$  and temperature-dependent unit resistance  $R(T)$ . Detailed parameter definitions are provided in [Supplementary Table 7](#).

For simplicity, we denote the implicit mapping from conductor current to equilibrium conductor temperature as  $T = \mathcal{H}(I, \mathcal{W})$ , where  $\mathcal{W}$  includes all environmental variables shown above, such as air temperature and wind speed. We remark that the mapping from current to equilibrium temperature is a single-variable monotonic mapping, i.e., higher current leads to higher conductor temperature given identical weather variables. Thus, it can be efficiently solved using the bisection or Newton’s method.

## Multi-Bundle Modeling

In practice, multi-bundle transmission lines are commonly used for high-voltage transmission grids, which complicates thermal modeling due to mutual interactions between conductor bundles. Conductors within a bundle experience reduced cooling when positioned in the wake of neighbors, with finite-element simulations showing temperature variations of 5–25°C between individual bundles in common four-bundle transmission lines [34]. Two simplified modeling approaches are commonly used. Individual conductor modeling treats each bundle independently, overestimating capacity by neglecting mutual thermal shielding [16]. Merged conductor modeling combines bundles into a single equivalent line, underestimating capacity by ignoring inter-bundle convective cooling.

Following finite-element analysis results showing 5–25°C temperature elevations in shielded conductors within four-bundle configurations [34], we apply a reduction factor of 0.8 to convective and radiative cooling terms as  $0.8(H_C + H_R) = H_S + H_J$ . Specifically, under worst-case ambient conditions (0.6 m/s wind, 900 W/m<sup>2</sup> solar irradiance) [35], this predicts the 90°C thermal limit at 25°C ambient temperature, falling between the two simplified approaches with approximately 15°C difference from the optimistic individual conductor model, consistent with finite-element simulations showing temperature variations of 5–25°C [34]. This approximation captures inter-bundle thermal shielding effects without requiring computationally expensive finite-element simulations for each line segment.

## Multi-Segment Modeling

Heatwaves further induce spatially heterogeneous effects on grid transmission capacity, especially for long-distance transmission lines. To capture these varied impacts, we compute the intersection of transmission lines with grid lines embedded in weather datasets such as ERA5 (see Fig. 1b). Segments within a single grid cell share the power flow and current, but have different resistances due to thermal effects under various local weather conditions, such as wind speed and solar radiation. For each link, the multi-segment model satisfies the following equations:

$$\text{Heat balance equations} \quad T_{l,s} = \mathcal{H}(I_l, \mathcal{W}_{l,s}), \quad \forall s \in \mathcal{S}_l \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Conductor thermal limits} \quad T_{l,s} \leq T^{\max}, \quad \forall s \in \mathcal{S}_l \quad (3)$$

$$\text{Transmission line resistance} \quad R_l = \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}_l} d_{l,s} \cdot R(T_{l,s}), \quad (4)$$

The conductor temperature for each segment  $s \in \mathcal{S}_l$  from line  $l$  in Equation (2) is derived from the heat balance equation (Equations (1)) based on local weather conditions. Segment temperature  $T_{l,s}$  is constrained by the transmission line’s thermal limit  $T^{\max}$  (e.g., 90°C for ACSR conductors) in Equation (3). The total line resistance equals the sum of segment resistances as shown in Equation (4), where  $d_{l,s}$  is the segment’s length and  $R(T)$  is the temperature-dependent unit resistance. Consequently, branch flow is limited by the segment with the highest temperature. This approach is compatible with any gridded weather dataset, allowing our segmented transmission model to automatically improve in accuracy as weather data becomes more fine-grained.

The comprehensive formulations and discussions for the above thermal models are included in [Supplementary Section 4.4](#).

## 1.5 Optimal Power Flow Analysis

The Optimal Power Flow (OPF) problem is a fundamental component in electricity grid operations and vulnerability analysis. It aims to determine the most efficient operating conditions for an electrical power system, ensuring that power generation meets the demand while minimizing operational costs and adhering to system constraints.

For different planning horizons, power grid optimization can be categorized into three types: (1) planning problem, which addresses long-term infrastructure development decisions over years to decades; (2) short-term set-point dispatching, which focuses on day-ahead to hour-ahead scheduling of generation resources; and (3) real-time control, which manages immediate system adjustments within minutes to maintain stability and reliability. Each timescale presents distinct objectives, constraints, and computational requirements while sharing the fundamental goal of optimal resource allocation.

In the context of grid vulnerability analysis, we employ hourly single-snapshot OPF simulations to systematically identify grid bottlenecks during extreme weather events. By solving the OPF problem at each hour during extreme periods, we can pinpoint transmission lines, generators, and other components that consistently reach their operational limits, representing critical vulnerabilities in the system. This temporal granularity allows us to capture the dynamic nature of both electricity demand patterns and environmental impacts, particularly during heatwaves when thermal constraints become increasingly binding.

We first introduce the standard single-snapshot alternating-current OPF (AC-OPF) problem in Sec. 1.5 and extend to include conductor thermal modeling in Sec. 1.5, contingency security constraints in Sec. 1.5, and optimization with storage units in Sec. 1.5.

**Baseline OPF Methods.** To our knowledge, the most standard OPF formulation based on the Alternating Current (AC) model is AC Optimal Power Flow (AC-OPF) [36]. It is a non-linear, constrained optimization problem that incorporates both the physical laws governing power flow and the operational limits of the grid components. Given hourly load demand  $\{\mathbf{P}^d, \mathbf{Q}^d\}$  and grid parameters, we solve the power generation  $\{\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{Q}\}$  and complex-form voltage  $\{\mathbf{V}\}$  as follows:

$$\text{AC-OPF: } \min \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}} \sum_{k \in \mathcal{G}_i} c_{i,k} \cdot P_{i,k}, \quad (5)$$



s.t.

$$\text{Power flow balance} \quad \begin{cases} \sum_{k \in \mathcal{G}_i} P_{i,k} - P_i^d = \text{re} \left( V_i (\sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}} Y_{ij} V_j)^* \right) \\ \sum_{k \in \mathcal{G}_i} Q_{i,k} - Q_i^d = \text{im} \left( V_i (\sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}} Y_{ij} V_j)^* \right) \end{cases}, \quad \forall i \in \mathcal{N}, \quad (6)$$

$$\text{Line power flow limits} \quad |V_i ((V_i - V_j) Y_{ij})^*| \leq S_{ij}^{\max}, \quad \forall (i, j) \in \mathcal{L}, \quad (7)$$

$$\text{Generations limits} \quad P_{i,k} \in [P_{i,k}^{\min}, P_{i,k}^{\max}], Q_{i,k} \in [Q_{i,k}^{\min}, Q_{i,k}^{\max}], \quad \forall i \in \mathcal{N}, \quad \forall k \in \mathcal{G}_i, \quad (8)$$

$$\text{Voltage limits} \quad |V_i| \in [V_m^{\min}, V_m^{\max}], |\angle V_{ij}| \leq V_a^{\max}, \quad \forall i \in \mathcal{N}, \quad \forall (i, j) \in \mathcal{L}, \quad (9)$$

var.  $\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{Q}$ , and  $\mathbf{V}$ .

439 The objective function in (5) represents total generation cost, calculated as a linear  
 440 function of power generation and individual generator costs ( $c_{i,k}$ ). The non-linear  
 441 power flow balance constraints in (6) ensure power injection and load are balanced at  
 442 each bus, where  $Y_{ij}$  is the transmission line admittance. The line flow limits ( $S_{ij}^{\max}$ ) in  
 443 (7) enforce thermal limits of transmission lines under static conditions. Operating limits  
 444 for power generation ( $P_{i,k}^{\min}, P_{i,k}^{\max}, Q_{i,k}^{\min}, Q_{i,k}^{\max}$ ), voltage magnitude ( $V_m^{\min}, V_m^{\max}$ ),  
 445 and voltage angles ( $V_a^{\max}$ ) are specified in (8)–(9).

446 Compared with Linear or DC-OPF formulations [37], which neglect temperature-  
 447 dependent resistance and Joule heating losses in transmission lines, AC-OPF more  
 448 accurately captures the physical behavior of power transmission systems [38] and  
 449 enables the incorporation of heat flow analysis.

450 **OPF under Heatwaves.** Standard AC-OPF neither incorporates the impact of  
 451 weather on the electrical network's parameters, such as resistance, nor the dynamic  
 452 thermal limits of transmission lines. Temperature-Dependent AC Optimal Power Flow  
 453 (TD-OPF) [14, 38, 39] extends it by incorporating heat flow equations and temperature  
 454 constraints in Sec. 1.4. AC-based TD-OPF is formulated as follows:

$$\text{TD-OPF:} \quad \min \quad (5)$$

s.t.

$$\text{ACOPF constraints} \quad (6) - (9),$$

$$\text{Heat flow constraints} \quad (2) - (4), \quad \forall l = (i, j) \in \mathcal{L},$$

$$\text{Line current flow} \quad I_l = |(V_i - V_j) Y_{ij}|, \quad \forall l = (i, j) \in \mathcal{L}, \quad (10)$$

$$\text{Line admittance} \quad Y_l = 1/(R_l + j \cdot X_l), \quad \forall l = (i, j) \in \mathcal{L}, \quad (11)$$

var.  $\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{Q}$ , and  $\mathbf{V}$ .

455 In this formulation, standard AC-OPF constraints and heat flow constraints are  
 456 coupled through line current magnitude in (10) and temperature-dependent line admittance  
 457 in (11), where  $R_l$  is the line resistance and  $X_l$  is the line reactance. The current  
 458 flow generates Joule heating  $H_J$ , which increases conductor temperatures. The constraints  
 459 from (2) to (4) model heat transfer in individual transmission line segments  
 460 under varying local weather conditions, ensuring permissible steady-state conductor  
 461 temperatures that determine line current-carrying capacities. The interdependence of  
 462 electrical and thermal constraints in the TD-OPF model more accurately captures  
 463 physical grid behavior than linearized models during heatwaves.

464 **Load Shedding Analysis.** We implement all operational constraints as hard constraints  
 465 in our optimization formulation, ensuring that transmission line flows cannot  
 466 exceed the specified limits (whether 70% or 100% of thermal capacity). To assess grid

bottlenecks under safety operation conditions, we introduce slack variables representing load shedding in the power balance equations and add a large penalty term for load shedding in the objective function. This approach allows the model to identify when and where the grid cannot meet demand while respecting security constraints, providing quantitative measures of grid vulnerability during heatwave events.

**Security Contingency Analysis.** Beyond modeling weather-induced thermal limits in AC-based TD-OPF, N-1 security constraints are widely implemented to enhance grid operation robustness by ensuring system stability following any single line outage [40]. These constraints require that all operational limits remain satisfied in both the base case and all post-contingency states. The base case and post-contingency states are coupled through generator ramping constraints: preventive formulations fix real power generation dispatch across all states, while corrective formulations permit decision variables to adjust within prescribed ranges following contingency occurrence.

Computational complexity scales linearly with the number of contingencies, motivating research into simplified security constraint formulations. Two common approaches prevail in the literature. The first applies a fixed percentage reduction (e.g., 70%) to thermal limits within AC-OPF models, establishing implicit safety margins without explicit contingency enumeration [37]. The second integrates linearized security constraints based on Line Outage Distribution Factors (LODFs) to approximate contingency impacts within DC-OPF frameworks [41].

We adopt different approaches depending on system scale and data availability. For the IEEE 30-bus test system (Supplementary Section 3), we implement standard N-1 preventive security-constrained AC-OPF under heatwave conditions, leveraging its complete topology and system parameters while maintaining computational feasibility. For larger-scale European country-level analysis, we adopt the established 70% fixed security margin approach from PyPSA-Eur [37]. This choice reflects two practical constraints: network clustering introduces an incomplete topology that precludes rigorous contingency definition, and explicit contingency modeling at a continental scale imposes a prohibitive computational burden for AC-based formulations.

**Impact of Storage and State of Charge.** The expanding deployment of distributed energy storage offers potential for mitigating local capacity constraints and absorbing renewable generation variability through strategic charging and discharging. However, directly incorporating these temporal dynamics into AC-based TD-OPF presents significant methodological challenges: Solutions become dependent on state-of-charge initialization, require extended time horizons spanning days to years to capture storage behavior under variable weather conditions, and substantially increase computational complexity.

To balance analytical rigor with computational tractability, we adopt a simplified approach. Using existing storage infrastructure configurations from PyPSA-Eur-derived grid data (see Supplementary Table 5 for details), we implement a baseline scenario assuming 50% initial state of charge—a moderate assumption representing typical operational conditions. We complement this baseline with comprehensive sensitivity analyses across the full range of storage states (0%–100%) to characterize how storage availability affects system vulnerability. Results show that even at 100% state

of charge, storage provides only marginal relief from load shedding (Fig. 4d), indicating that transmission constraints—not storage capacity—dominate grid vulnerability during extreme heat. Under this framework, storage units function as dispatchable generators in our single-snapshot analysis of extreme heatwave conditions.

The comprehensive problem formulations for different OPF problems are included in Supplementary Section 2.

## 1.6 Algorithm Design

For standard AC-OPF, Interior Point Methods (IPMs) have demonstrated effectiveness across various IEEE test scenarios [23, 42]. Extending these methods to solve AC-based TD-OPF markedly increases complexity due to the interdependence of electrical and thermal constraints.

### Existing Algorithms

Existing studies adopt different approximation methods to solve AC-based TD-OPF

- Linear approximation (DC-OPF and TD-DC-OPF): This approach linearizes the nonlinear constraints in AC-OPF and incorporates weather-dependent dynamic line ratings [13, 14, 43]. However, it generally overlooks the interactions between heat flow and power flow, leading to substantial inaccuracies in the resolved power flows.
- Quadratic approximation (Quad-OPF): It uses a quadratic function to estimate steady-state conductor temperature [15], expressed as  $T_c \approx \beta_0 + \beta_1 I^2 + \beta_2 I^4$  with weather-dependent coefficients  $\{\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2\}$ . This simplified version of the heat balance equation is then integrated into the standard AC-OPF model.

While these approximations enhance computational efficiency, they often fail to fully satisfy physical constraints on heat and power balance equations, particularly under stringent temperature-induced thermal constraints. These methods frequently overlook potential capacity constraints, resulting in inaccuracies when evaluating grid performance under extreme weather scenarios.

Despite these advancements, developing an efficient algorithm capable of solving AC-based TD-OPF models while satisfying all physical constraints has been a significant gap that we address in this work.

### Proposed Iterative Analysis (Iter-OPF)

In this work, we propose a novel iterative framework for efficiently solving AC-based TD-OPF. As illustrated in Figure 2b and detailed in Algorithm 1, this algorithm employs two key steps that improve computational efficiency and solution accuracy.

- First, we convert steady-state conductor temperature constraints into equivalent conductor current constraints based on local segment weather conditions [13, 43]:

$$I_{l,s}^{\max} = \sqrt{(H_C + H_R - H_S)/(R(T^{\max}))}, \forall l = (i, j) \in \mathcal{L}, \forall s \in \mathcal{S}_l \quad (12)$$

$$I_l = |(V_i - V_j)Y_{ij}| \leq \min_{s \in \mathcal{S}_l} \{I_{l,s}^{\max}\}, \forall l = (i, j) \in \mathcal{L} \quad (13)$$

---

**Algorithm 1** Iter-OPF Analysis

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**Data:** Weather data, conductor thermal model, and power grid model.

**Result:** Grid operational states under heatwaves.

- 1 For each segment, given the gridded weather data, transform the temperature limit to the current constraint as Equation (12).
  - 2 For each line, select the minimum current limit among segments as the line current constraint as Equation (13).
  - 3 **while** *conductor temperature not converge* **do**
  - 4     Update temperature-dependent admittance for every segment as Equation (11).
  - 5     Aggregate segment admittance into line admittance as Equation (4).
  - 6     Solve AC-OPF with updated admittance and current constraints (13) via IPOPT.
  - 7     Update the line current derived from the OPF analysis as Equation (10).
  - 8     Solve heat flow equations in (1) for all segments via Bisection methods.
  - 9     Update the segment temperature derived from heat flow equations.
  - 10 **end**
- 

This strictly enforces line thermal limits under temperature conditions while eliminating explicit steady-state temperature expressions, effectively decoupling heat and power balance equations.

- inspired by decoupling approaches for TD power flow equations [38, 44], we develop an alternating update mechanism where (i) AC-OPF is solved with additional current constraints from (13) and (ii) heat balance calculations are conducted in parallel for each segment. Empirical evaluations indicate that two iterations typically achieve results within 0.1% of fully converged solutions for both load shedding and line temperature metrics.

By decoupling heat and power balance constraints, our algorithm enables flexible and precise assessment of grid conditions under diverse thermal and electrical properties. This approach fills a critical gap in OPF studies by efficiently solving AC-based TD-OPF while maintaining physical accuracy, thereby enabling rigorous grid analysis for policy decisions during extreme weather events. As climate variability increasingly threatens grid stability, such tools become essential for utilities to predict and mitigate thermal stress on transmission systems.

## European Simulation Overview

To investigate European electricity grid resilience under projected future heatwaves, we integrate grid and weather data using our modeling framework to conduct OPF analysis for Western Europe, with detailed settings in [Supplementary Section 4](#).

We focus on eight Western European countries (Spain, Portugal, France, Italy, Germany, Belgium, the Netherlands, and the UK) impacted by historically recorded heatwaves in 2019 and 2022 ([Supplementary Table 3](#)). Using the PyPSA-Eur framework, we derive the power grid configurations detailed in [Supplementary Table 4](#) and [Supplementary Table 5](#).

For network resolution, we adopt a clustered grid that merges nearby buses and lines to mitigate local modeling inaccuracies, such as mis-assignment of loads and

under-representation of underground cabling, reducing error-induced bottlenecks [16]. All under-construction lines are included to enhance grid connectivity and provide a more optimistic assessment of capacity under stress [16]. We standardize transmission lines to “Al/St 240/40 4-bundle 380.0” (Aluminium/Steel cross-section 240/40 mm<sup>2</sup>, 4-bundle configuration at 380 kV) [16, 45]. Thermal limits are set at 90°C for Aluminum-type conductors, within the typical 80–120°C operating range [15, 35, 46–49].

Since PyPSA-Eur data are designed for DC/linear dispatch models, we augment them for OPF simulations. Voltage magnitude is constrained to  $0.95 \leq V_m \leq 1.05$  following grid standards [23]. Reactive power demand is set proportional to active power ( $Q_d = 0.15 \cdot P_d$ ) following EnerPol recommendations [50]. We relax other AC-OPF constraints, such as reactive generation capacity and branch phase angle limits, as this information is not available in existing generator profiles [13].

In summary, our model adopts a conservative approach by using an aggregated network topology with relaxed constraints, enabling exploration of upper limits of grid performance and identification of potential bottlenecks under extreme conditions. These insights pinpoint areas requiring more stringent controls under actual operation. Our framework can also incorporate additional constraints with realistic data for more accurate evaluations, as demonstrated by exact solutions for the IEEE 30-bus benchmark (Supplementary Section 3) alongside the EU analysis.

## Author contributions

S.K. and M.C. conceived the study. E.L. collected the data for motivation and experiments. E.L., M.C., and S.K. developed the formulation. E.L. developed the algorithm. E.L. conducted the experiments. E.L., M.C., and S.K. analyzed the algorithm performance and experimental results. E.L., M.C., and S.K. wrote and improved the manuscript.

## Data availability

The results from the model that support the findings of this study are presented in the main text and Supplementary Information. The data used for validation are publicly available from the sources in Supplementary Table 1.

## Code availability

The Iter-OPF algorithm developed in this study is available in the GitHub repository (<https://emliang.github.io/HEAT-GRID/webpage/>). The code is implemented in Python and can be accessed for replication and further research.

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