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THE EUROPEAN WIND ENERGY ASSOCIATION

Wind in power

2013 European statistics

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Contents

Data collection and analysis

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Data sources

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EU-OEA, ocean energy data
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Executive summary

2013 annual installations

- 11,159 MW of wind power capacity (worth between €13 bn and €18 bn) was installed in the EU-28 during 2013, a decrease of 8% compared to 2012 installations.
- EU wind power installations for 2013 show the negative impact of market, regulatory and political uncertainty sweeping across Europe. Destabilised legislative frameworks for wind energy are undermining investments.
- Wind power is the technology which installed the most in 2013: 32% of total 2013 power capacity installations - five percentage points higher than during the previous year.
- Renewable power installations accounted for 72% of new installations during 2013: 25 GW of a total 35 GW of new power capacity, up from 70% the previous year.

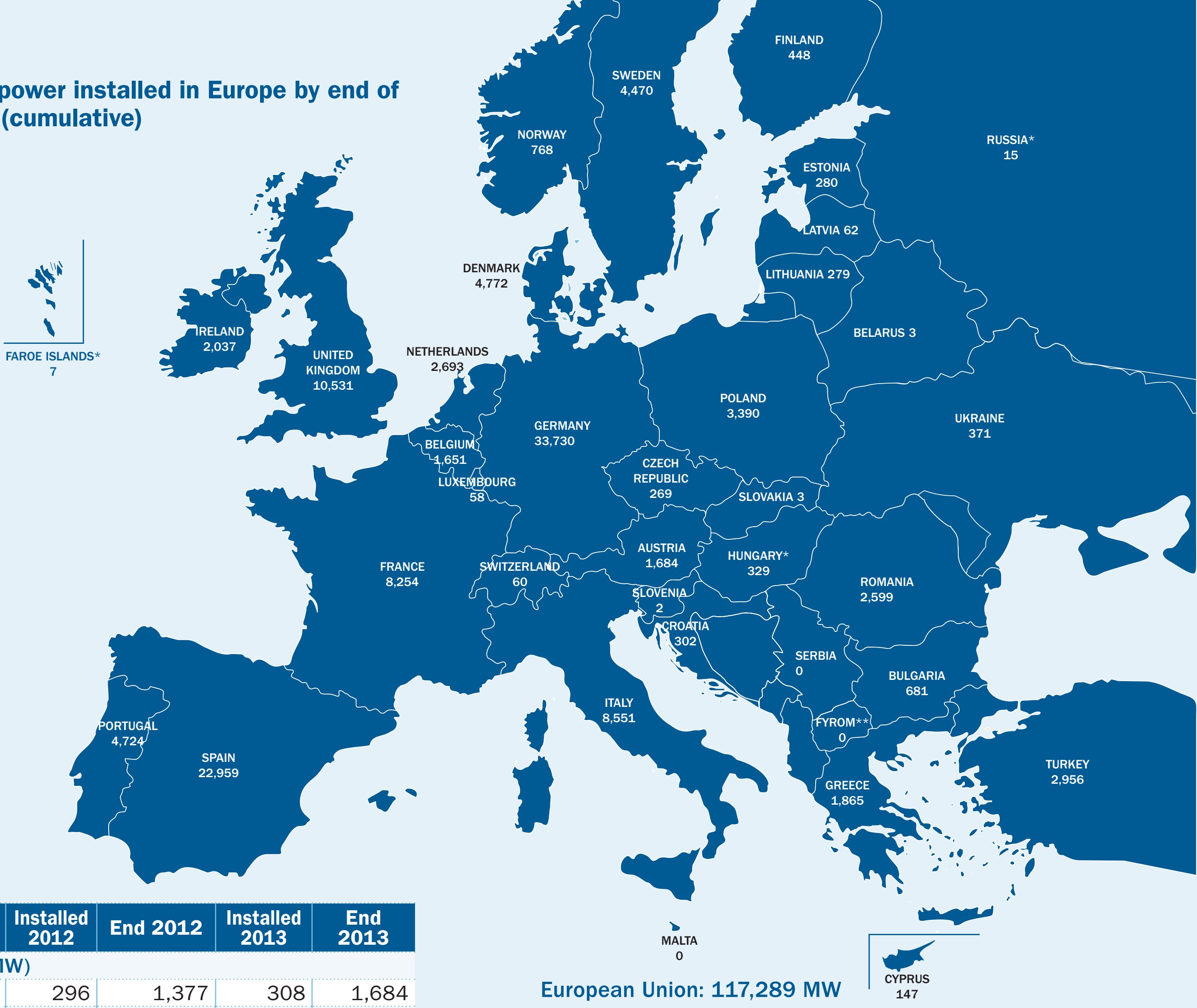
Trends and cumulative installations

- There are now 117.3 GW of installed wind energy capacity in the EU: 110.7 GW onshore and 6.6 GW offshore.
- The EU's total installed power capacity increased by 13 GW net to 900 GW, with wind power increasing by 11.2 GW and reaching a share of total installed generation capacity of 13%, up one percentage point compared to the previous year.
- Since 2000, over 28% of new capacity installed has been wind power, 55% renewables and 92% renewables and gas combined.
- The EU power sector continues its move away from fuel oil and coal with each technology continuing to decommission more than it installs.

Wind power installations

- Annual installations of wind power have increased over the last 13 years, from 3.2 GW in 2000 to 11.2 GW in 2013, a compound annual growth rate of 10%.
- A total of 117.3 GW is now installed in the European Union, an increase in installed cumulative capacity of 10% compared to the previous year.
- Germany remains the EU country with the largest installed capacity followed by Spain, the UK and Italy. Fifteen EU countries have more than 1 GW of installed capacity, including two newer EU countries (Poland and Romania), and eight EU countries have more than 4 GW of installed capacity.
- The volatility across Europe has contributed to 46% of all new installations in 2013 being in just two countries (Germany and the UK), a significant concentration compared to the trend of previous years whereby installations were increasingly spread across healthy European Markets. This is a level of concentration that has not been seen in the EU's wind power market since 2007 when the three wind energy pioneering countries (Denmark, Germany and Spain) together represented 58% of all new installations that year.
- A number of previously healthy markets such as Spain, Italy and France have seen their rate of wind energy installations decrease significantly in 2013, by 84%, 65% and 24% respectively.
- Offshore saw a record growth in 2013 (+1.6 GW); the outlook for 2014 and 2015 is stable, but not growing.
- The wind power capacity installed by the end of 2013 would, in a normal wind year, produce 257 TWh of electricity, enough to cover 8% of the EU's electricity consumption – up from 7% the year before.

Wind power installed in Europe by end of 2013 (cumulative)



European Union: 117,289 MW
Candidate Countries: 2,956 MW
EFTA: 830 MW
Total Europe: 121,474 MW

	Installed 2012	End 2012	Installed 2013	End 2013
EU Capacity (MW)				
Austria	296	1,377	308	1,684
Belgium	297	1,375	276	1,651
Bulgaria	158	674	7.1	681
Croatia	48	180	122	302
Cyprus	13	147	0	147
Czech Republic	44	260	9	269
Denmark	220	4,162	657	4,772
Estonia	86	269	11	280
Finland	89	288	162	448
France	814	7,623	631	8,254
Germany	2,297	30,989	3,238	33,730
Greece	117	1,749	116	1,865
Hungary*	0	329	0	329
Ireland	121	1,749	288	2,037
Italy	1,239	8,118	444	8,551
Latvia	12	60	2	62
Lithuania	60	263	16	279
Luxembourg	14	58	0	58
Malta	0	0	0	0
Netherlands	119	2,391	303	2,693
Poland	880	2,496	894	3,390
Portugal	155	4,529	196	4,724
Romania	923	1,905	695	2,599
Slovakia	0	3	0	3
Slovenia	0	0	2	2
Spain	1,110	22,784	175	22,959
Sweden	846	3,582	724	4,470
United Kingdom	2,064	8,649	1,883	10,531
Total EU-28	**12,102**	**106,454**	**11,159**	**117,289**
Total EU-15	**9,879**	**99,868**	**9,402**	**108,946**
Total EU-13	**2,224**	**6,586**	**1,757**	**8,343**

	Installed 2012	End 2012	Installed 2013	End 2013
Candidate Countries (MW)				
FYROM**	0	0	0	0
Serbia	0	0	0	0
Turkey	506	2,312	646	2,956
Total	**506**	**2,312**	**646**	**2,956**
EFTA (MW)				
Iceland	0	0	1,8	1,8
Liechtenstein	0	0	0	0
Norway	166	703	110	768
Switzerland	4	50	13	60
Total	**170**	**753**	**125**	**830**
Other (MW)				
Belarus	0	3	0	3
Faroe Islands	2	2	5	7
Ukraine	125	276	95	371
Russia*	0	15	0	15
Total	**127**	**297**	**100**	**397**
Total Europe	**12,906**	**109,816**	**120,030**	**121,474**

* Provisional data or estimate.
** Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia
Note: due to previous year adjustments, 372 MW of project de-commissioning, re-powering and rounding of figures, the total 2013 end-of-year cumulative capacity is not exactly equivalent to the sum of the 2012 end-of-year total plus the 2013 additions.

2013 annual installations

Wind power capacity installations

During 2013, 12,030 MW of wind power was installed across Europe, of which 11.159 MW was in the European Union, 8% less than the previous year.

Of the 11,159 MW installed in the EU, 9,592 MW was onshore and 1,567 MW offshore. In 2013, the onshore market decreased in the EU by 12%, whilst offshore installations grew by 34%. Overall, the wind energy market decreased by 8% compared to 2012 installations.

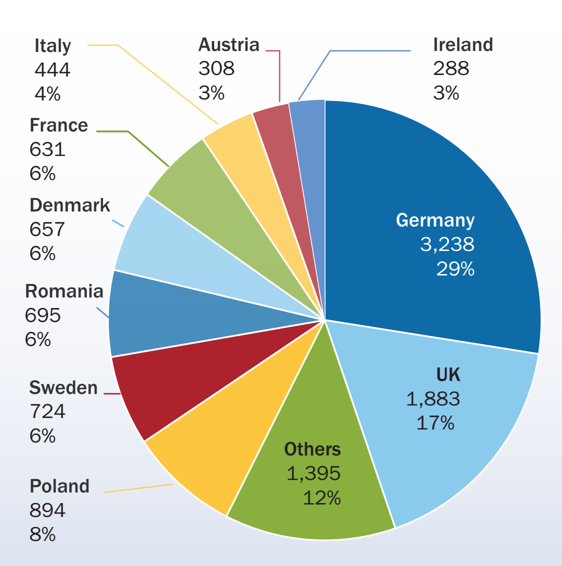
Investment in EU wind farms was between €13 billion (bn) and €18 bn. Onshore wind farms attracted around €8 bn to €12 bn, while offshore wind farms accounted for €4.6 bn to €6.4 bn.

In terms of annual installations, Germany was the largest market in 2013, installing 3,238 MW of new capacity, 240 MW of which (7%) offshore. The UK came in second with 1,883 MW, 733 MW of which (39%) offshore, followed by Poland with 894 MW, Sweden (724 MW), Romania (695 MW), Denmark (657 MW), France (631 MW) and Italy (444 MW).

The emerging markets of central and eastern Europe, including Croatia, installed 1,755 MW, 16% of total installations. In 2013, these countries represent a slightly smaller share of the total EU market than in 2012 (18%).

Moreover, 46% of all new EU installations in 2013 were in just two countries (Germany and the Uk), a significant concentration compared to the trend of previous years when installations were increasingly spread across Europe. This is a level of concentration that has not been seen in the EU's wind power market since 2007 when the three wind energy pioneering countries (Denmark, Germany and Spain) together represented 58% of all new installations that year.

FIGURE 1.1: EU MEMBER STATE MARKET SHARES FOR NEW CAPACITY INSTALLED DURING 2013 IN MW. TOTAL 11,159 MW



A number of previously large markets such as Spain, Italy and France have seen their rate of wind energy installations decrease significantly in 2013, by 84%, 65%, 24% respectively.

Offshore accounted for almost 14% of total EU wind power installations in 2013, four percentage points more than in 2012, further confirming the high level of concentration in annual installations during 2013.

Photo: Kay Ludwig

Power capacity installations

Overall, during 2013, 35 GW of new power generating capacity was installed in the EU, 10 GW less than in 2012.

Wind power accounted for 32% (11.2 GW) of new installations in 2013. Followed by solar PV (31%, 11 GW) and gas (21%, 7.5 GW).

No other technologies compare to wind, PV and gas in terms of new installations. Coal installed 1.9 GW (5% of total installations), biomass 1.4 GW (4%), hydro 1.2 GW (4%), CSP 419 MW (1%), fuel oil 220 MW, waste 180 MW, nuclear 120 MW, geothermal 10 MW and ocean 1 MW.

During 2013, 10 GW of gas capacity was decommissioned, as were 7.7 GW of coal, 2.7 GW of fuel oil and 750 MW of biomass capacity.

FIGURE 1.2: SHARE OF NEW POWER CAPACITY INSTALLATIONS IN EU, TOTAL 35,181 MW

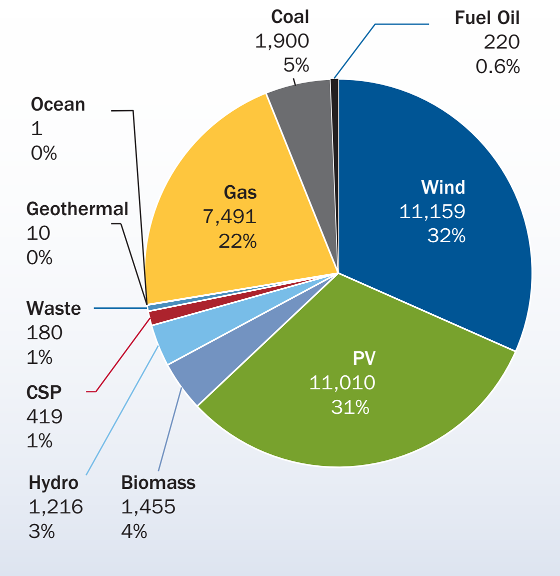
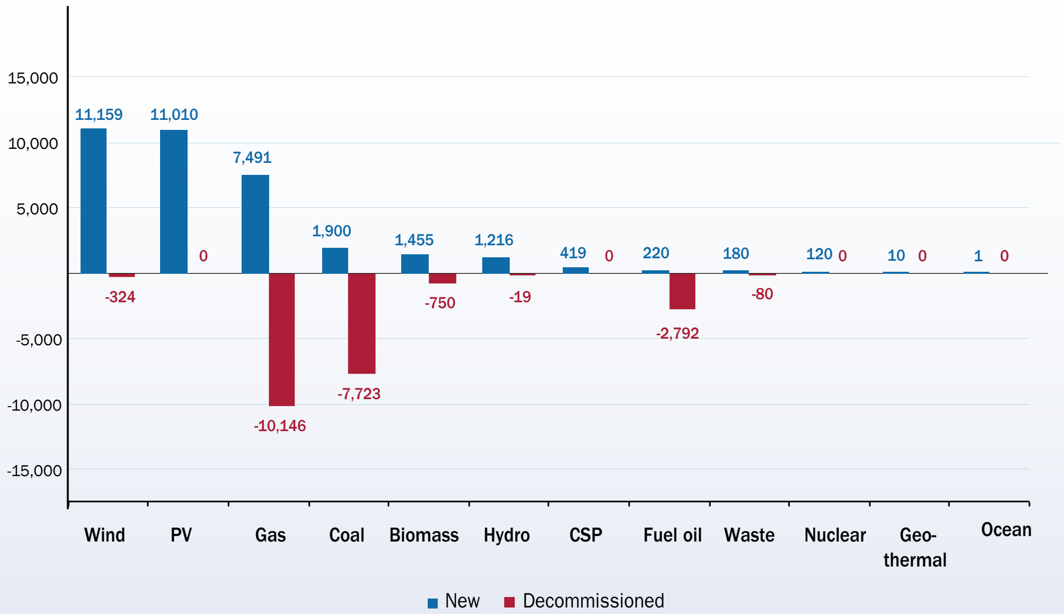


FIGURE 1.3: NEW INSTALLED POWER CAPACITY AND DECOMMISSIONED POWER CAPACITY IN MW

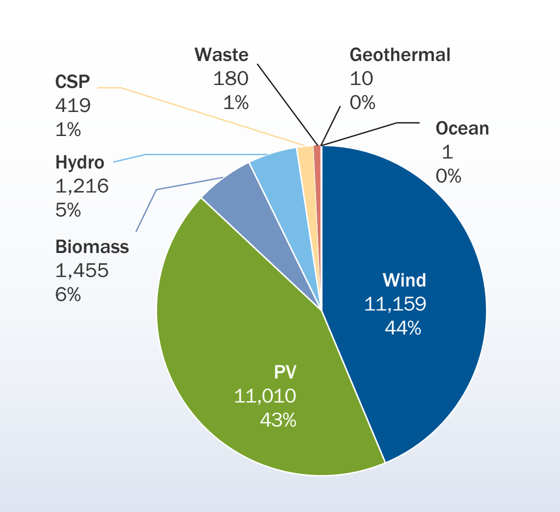


[(1)] Provisional data.

Renewable power capacity installations

In 2013, a total of 25.4 GW of renewable power capacity installations were installed. Over 72% of all new installed capacity in the EU was renewable. It was, furthermore, the sixth year running that over 55% of all new power capacity in the EU was renewable.

FIGURE 1.4: 2013 SHARE OF NEW RENEWABLE POWER CAPACITY INSTALLATIONS IN MW, TOTAL 25,450 MW



Trends & cumulative installations

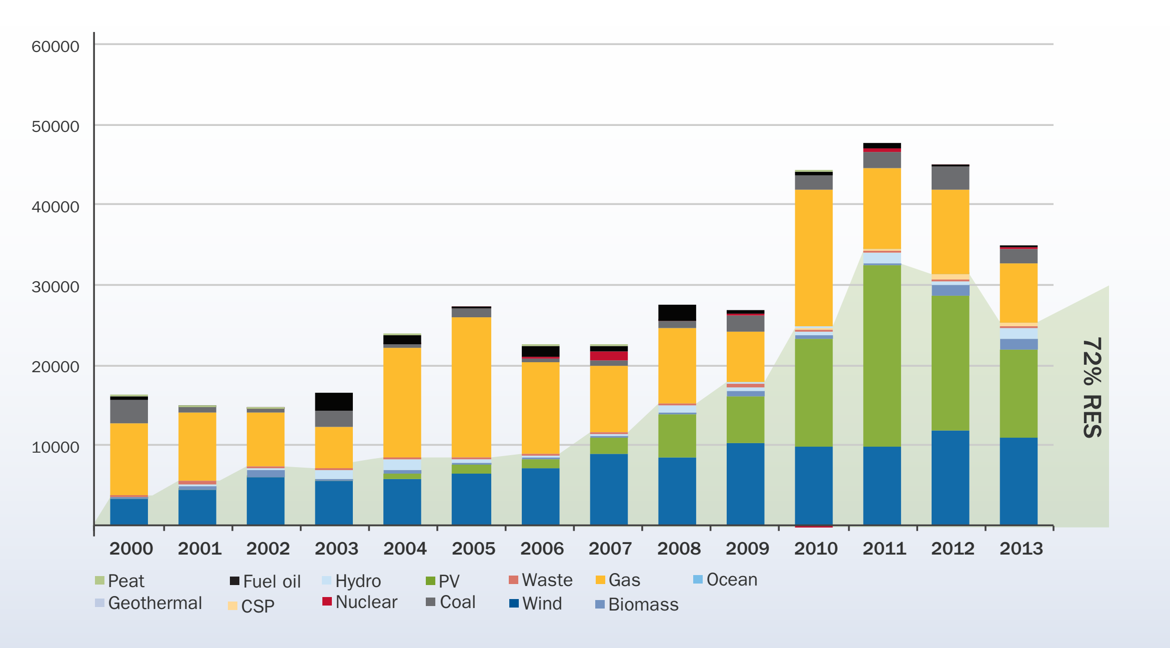
Renewable power capacity installations

In 2000, new renewable power capacity installations totalled a mere 3.6 GW. Since 2010, annual renewable capacity additions have been between 24.7 GW and 35.2 GW, eight to ten times higher than in 2000.

The share of renewables in total new power capacity additions has also grown. In 2000, the 3.6 GW represented 22.4% of new power capacity installations, increasing to 25 GW representing 72% in 2013.

385 GW of new power capacity has been installed in the EU since 2000. Of this, over 28% has been wind power, 55% renewables and 92% renewables and gas combined.

FIGURE 2.1: INSTALLED POWER GENERATING CAPACITY PER YEAR IN MW AND RENEWABLE ENERGY SHARE (%)

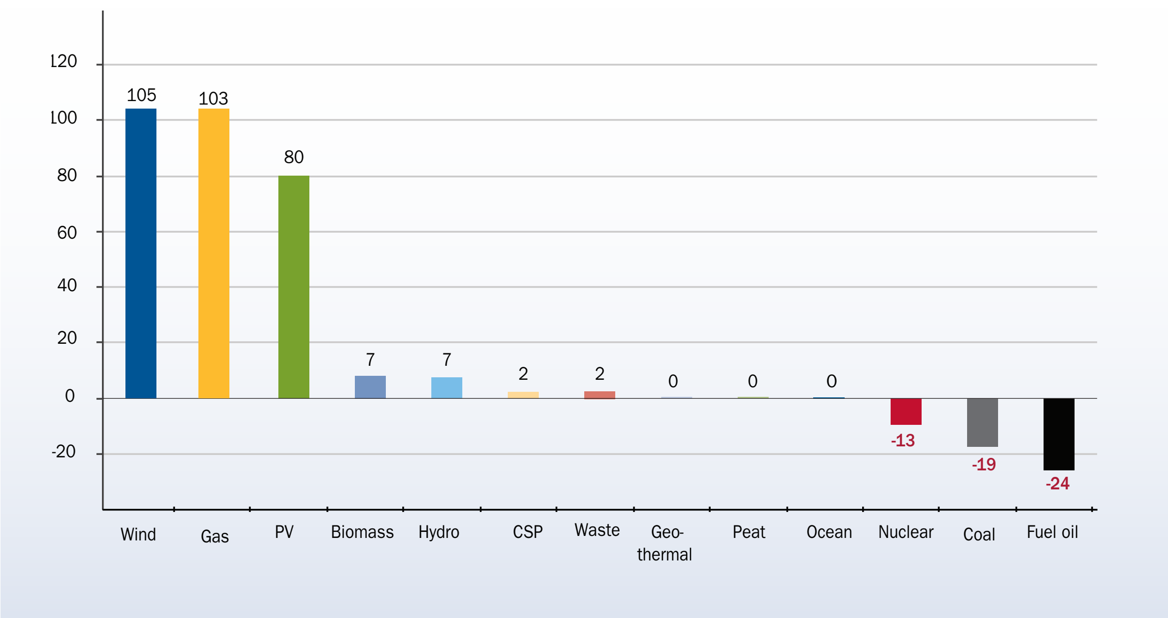


Net changes in EU installed power capacity 2000-2013

The net growth since 2000 of gas power (131.7 GW), wind (115.4 GW) and solar PV (80 GW) was at the expense of fuel oil (down 28.7 GW), coal (down 19 GW) and nuclear (down 9.5 GW). The other renewable technologies (hydro, biomass, waste, CSP, geothermal and ocean energies) have also been increasing their installed capacity over the past 13 years, albeit more slowly than wind and solar PV.

The EU's power sector continues to move away from fuel oil, coal and nuclear while increasing its total installed generating capacity with gas, wind, solar PV and other renewables.

FIGURE 2.2: NET ELECTRICITY GENERATING INSTALLATIONS IN THE EU 2000-2013 (GW)



Total installed power capacity

Wind power's share of total installed power capacity has increased five-fold since 2000; from 2.4% in 2000 to 13% in 2013. Over the same period, renewable capacity increased by 61% from 24.5% of total power capacity in 2000 to 39.6% in 2013.

FIGURE 2.3: EU POWER MIX 2000

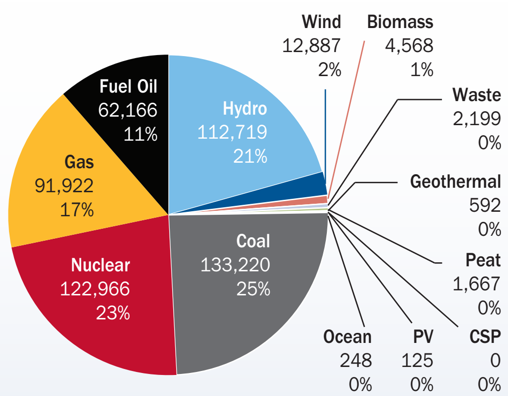
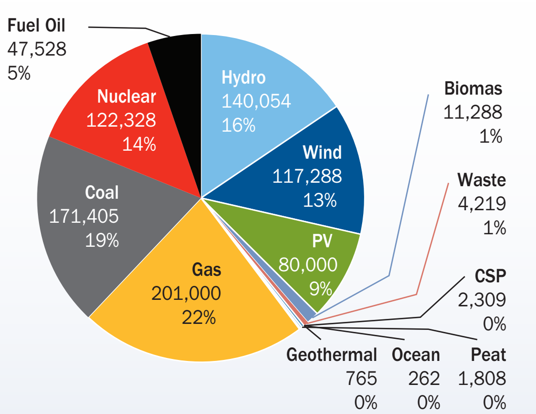


FIGURE 2.4: EU POWER MIX 2013



A closer look at wind power installations

Total installed power capacity

Annual wind power installations in the EU have increased steadily over the past 13 years from 3.2 GW in 2000 to 11 GW in 2013, a compound annual growth rate of over 10%.

FIGURE 3.1: ANNUAL WIND POWER INSTALLATIONS IN EU (GW)

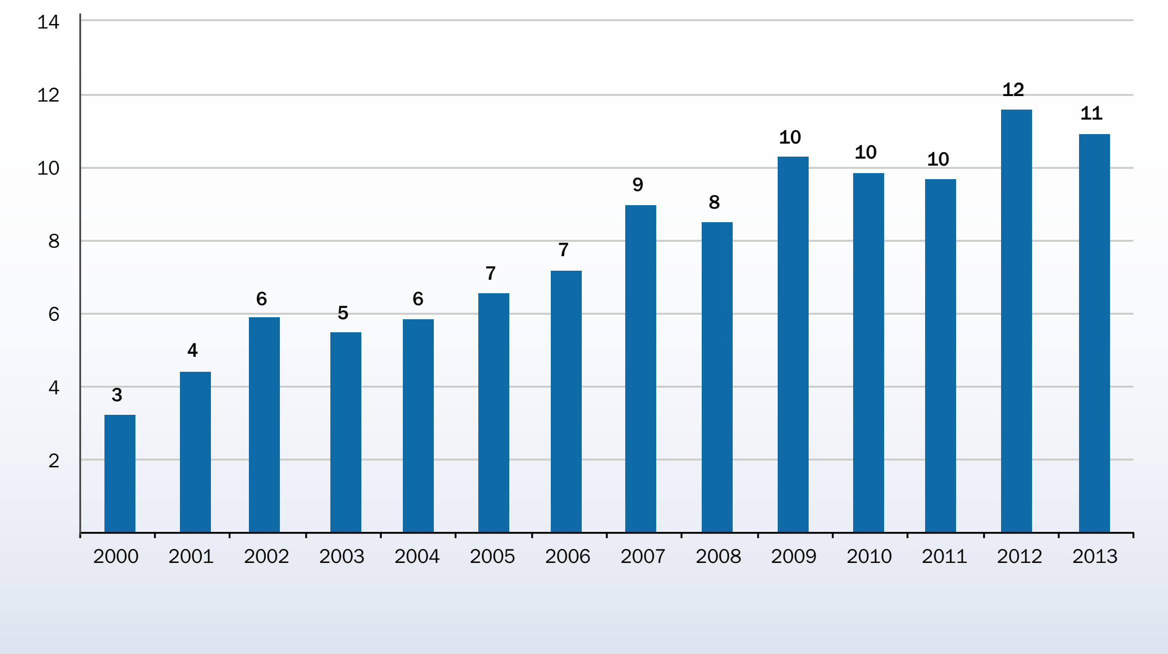


Photo: Joan Sullivan

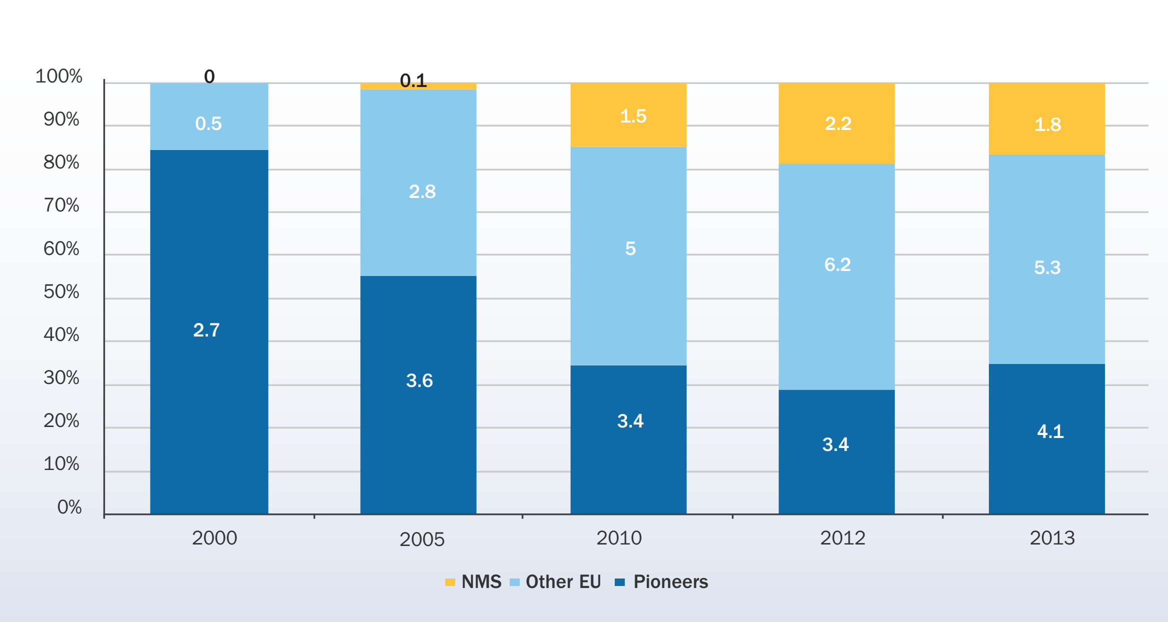
National breakdown of wind power installations

In 2000, the annual wind power installations of the three pioneering countries – Denmark, Germany and Spain – represented 85% of all EU wind capacity additions. By 2012, they represented only 29% of total installations. In 2013, although the Spanish market contracted significantly compared to the previous year (-84%), the German market grew by 36% and installations in the three pioneering countries together represented 36% of the EU market.

Moreover, in 2000, the countries that make up, today, the 13[1] newer EU Member States, had no wind energy, in 2013, they reached 16% of the EU's total market. However, 90% of those installations were in just two countries, Poland and Romania.

This indicates that the renewables policy instability that has affected numerous countries in the EU is leading to increased concentration of wind energy installation in a handful of countries.

FIGURE 3.2 SHARE OF EU WIND POWER MARKET, PIONEERING COUNTRIES, NEWER MEMBER STATES, AND REST OF EU (GW)



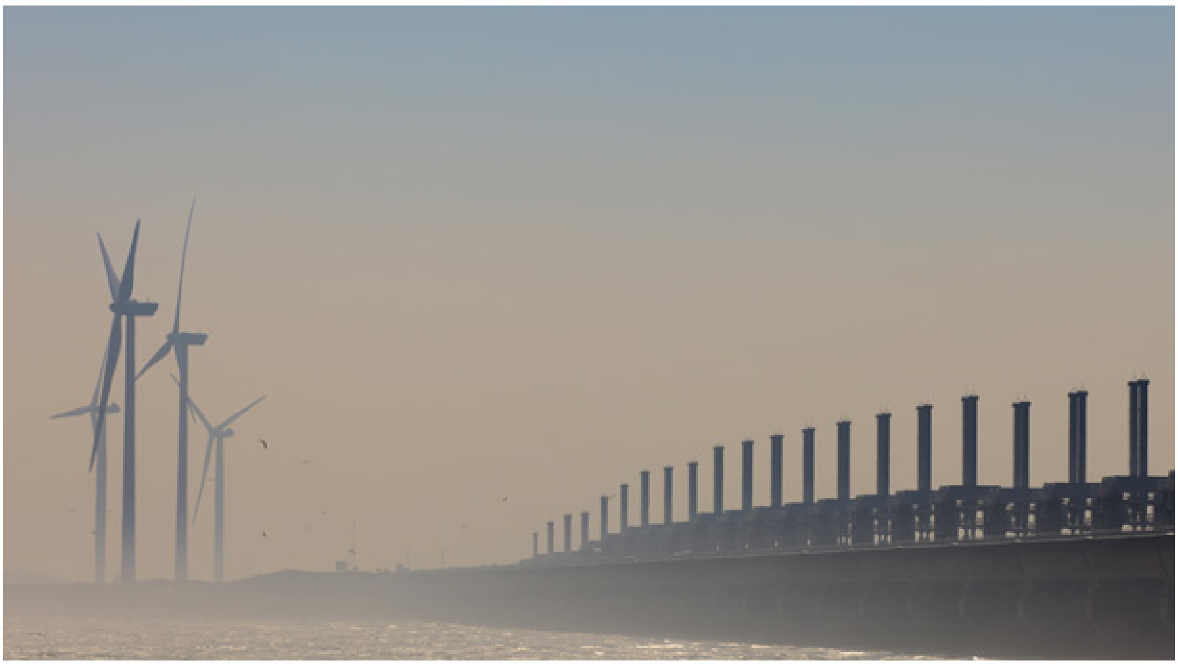


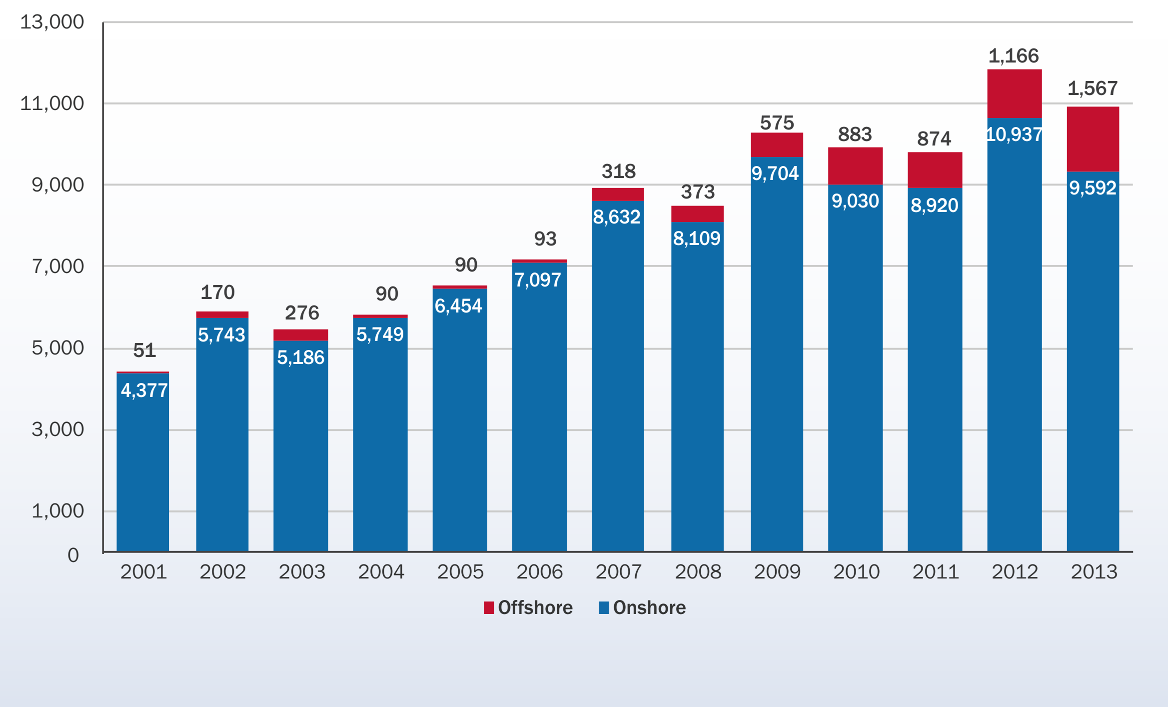
Photo: Arjan de Jager

[1] Bulgaria, Croatia Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia.

Onshore and offshore annual markets

2013 was a record year for offshore installations, with 1,567 MW of new capacity grid connected. Offshore wind power installations represent over 14% of the annual EU wind energy market, up from 10% in 2012.

FIGURE 3.3: ANNUAL ONSHORE AND OFFSHORE INSTALLATIONS (MW)

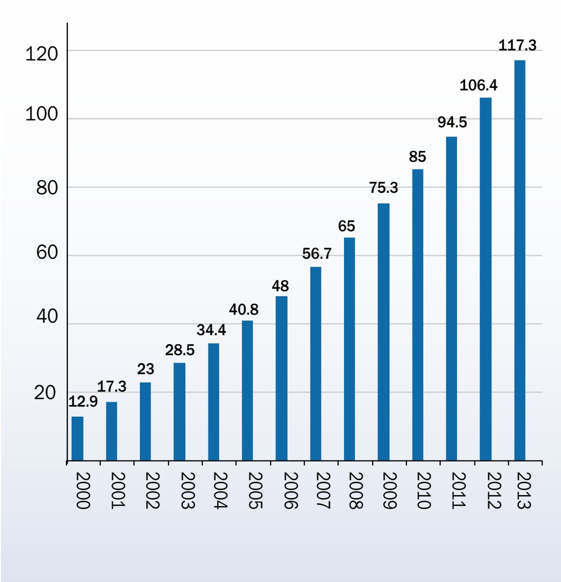


Cumulative wind power installations

A total of 117 GW is now installed in the European Union, a growth of 10% on the previous year and lower to the growth recorded in 2012 (+12% compared to 2011). Germany remains the EU country with the largest installed capacity, followed by Spain, the UK, Italy and France. Eleven other EU countries have over 1 GW of installed capacity: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Greece, Ireland, The Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania and Sweden.

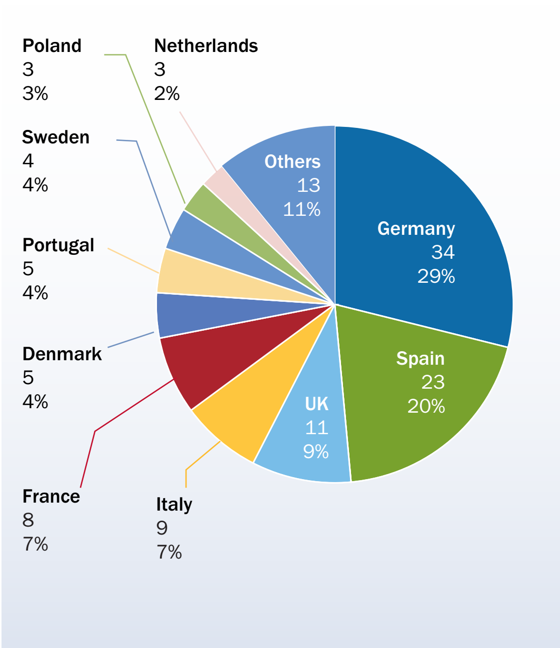
Eight of the latter (Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom), have more than 4 GW of installed wind energy capacity.

FIGURE 3.4: CUMULATIVE WIND POWER INSTALLATIONS IN THE EU (GW)



Germany (34.3 GW) and Spain (23 GW) have the largest cumulative installed wind energy capacity in Europe. Together they represent 49% of total EU capacity. The UK, Italy and France follow with, respectively, 10.5 GW (9% of total EU capacity), 8.6 GW (7%) and 8.3 GW (7%). Amongst the newer Member States, Poland, with 3.4 GW (2.9%) of cumulative capacity, is now in the top 10, in front of the Netherlands (2.7 GW, 2%), and Romania is 11th with 2.6 GW (2%).

FIGURE 3.5: EU MEMBER STATE MARKET SHARES FOR TOTAL INSTALLED CAPACITY (TOTAL 118 GW)



Estimated wind energy production

The wind energy capacity currently installed in the EU would produce in an average wind year 257 TWh of electricity, enough to cover the 8% of the EU's total electricity consumption.

TABLE 1: WIND ENERGY SHARE OF EU ELECTRICITY CONSUMPTION[2]

Total EU electricity consumption	Onshore wind energy production	Offshore wind energy production	Share of EU consumption met by onshore wind	Share of EU consumption met by offshore wind	Share of EU consumption met by wind
3,280 TWh	233 TWh	24 TWh	7.1%	0.7%	7.8%

[2] Wind energy penetration levels are calculated using average capacity factors onshore and offshore and Eurostat electricity consumption figures (2011). Consequently, table 1 indicates approximate share of consumption met by the installed wind energy capacity at end 2013. The figure does not represent real wind energy production over a calendar year.

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Comparative Life-Cycle Air Emissions of Coal, Domestic Natural Gas, LNG, and SNG for Electricity Generation

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The U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) estimates that in the coming decades the United States' natural gas (NG) demand for electricity generation will increase. Estimates also suggest that NG supply will increasingly come from imported liquefied natural gas (LNG). Additional supplies of NG could come domestically from the production of synthetic natural gas (SNG) via coal gasification−methanation. The objective of this study is to compare greenhouse gas (GHG), SO_x, and NO_x life-cycle emissions of electricity generated with NG/LNG/SNG and coal. This life-cycle comparison of air emissions from different fuels can help us better understand the advantages and disadvantages of using coal versus globally sourced NG for electricity generation. Our estimates suggest that with the current fleet of power plants, a mix of domestic NG, LNG, and SNG would have lower GHG emissions than coal. If advanced technologies with carbon capture and sequestration (CCS) are used, however, coal and a mix of domestic NG, LNG, and SNG would have very similar life-cycle GHG emissions. For SO_x and NO_x we find there are significant emissions in the upstream stages of the NG/LNG life-cycles, which contribute to a larger range in SO_x and NO_x emissions for NG/LNG than for coal and SNG.

1. Introduction

Natural gas currently provides 24% of the energy used by United States homes (*1*). It is an important feedstock for the chemical and fertilizer industry. Low wellhead gas prices (less than \$3/thousand cubic feet (Mcf) (*2*)) spurred a surge in construction of natural-gas-fired power plants: between 1992 and 2003, while coal-fired capacity increased only from 309 to 313 GW, natural-gas-fired capacity more than tripled, from 60 to 208 GW (*3*). Adding to this was the Energy Information Agency's (EIA) prediction of continued low natural gas prices (around \$4/Mcf) through 2020 (*4*), lower capital costs, shorter construction times, and generally lower air emissions for natural-gas-fired plants that allowed power generators to meet the clean air standards (*5*). However, instead of remaining near projected levels, the average wellhead price of natural gas peaked at \$11/Mcf in October 2005 (*6*). This price increase made natural gas uneconomical as a feedstock, so most natural-gas-fired plants are operating below capacity (*7*). Despite these trends, natural gas consumption is expected to increase by 20% of 2003 levels by 2030. Demand from electricity generators is projected to grow the fastest. At the same time, natural gas production in the United States and pipeline imports from Canada and Mexico are expected to remain fairly constant (*8*). The gap between North American supply and U.S. demand can only be met with alternative sources of natural gas, such as imported liquefied natural gas (LNG) or synthetic natural gas (SNG) produced from coal. Current projections by EIA estimate that LNG imports will increase to 16% of the total U.S. natural gas supply by 2030 (*8*). Alternatively, Rosenberg et al. call for congress to promote gasification technologies that use coal to produce SNG. This National Gasification Strategy calls for the United States to produce 1.5 trillion cubic feet (tcf) of synthetic natural gas per year within the next 10 years (*7*), equivalent to 5% of expected 2030 demand.

The natural gas system is one of the largest sources of greenhouse gas emissions in the United States, generating around 132 million tons of CO_2 equivalents annually (*1*). Significant emissions of criteria air pollutants also come from upstream combustion life-cycle stages of the gas. Emissions from the emerging LNG life-cycle stages or from the production of SNG have not been studied in detail. If larger percentages of the U.S. supply of natural gas will come from these alternative sources, then LNG or SNG supply chain emissions become an important part of understanding overall natural gas life-cycle emissions. Also, comparisons between coal and natural gas that concentrate only on the emissions at the utility plant may not be adequate. The objective of this study is to perform a life-cycle analysis (*9*, *10*) of natural gas, LNG, and SNG. Direct air emissions from the processes during the life-cycle will be considered, as well as air emissions from the combustion of fuels and electricity used to run the process. A comparison with coal life-cycle air emissions will be presented, in order to have a better understanding of the advantages and disadvantages of using coal versus natural gas for electricity generation.

2. Fuel Life-Cycles

The natural gas life-cycle starts with the production of natural gas and ends at the combustion plant. Natural gas is extracted from wells and sent to processing plants where water, carbon dioxide, sulfur, and other hydrocarbons are removed. The produced natural gas then enters the transmission system. The U.S. transmission system also includes some storage of natural gas in underground facilities such as reconditioned depleted gas reservoirs, aquifers, or salt caverns to meet seasonal and/or sudden short-term demand. From the transmission and storage system, some natural gas goes directly to large-scale consumers, like electric power generators, which is modeled here. The rest goes into local distribution systems that deliver it to residential and commercial consumers via low-pressure, small-diameter pipelines.

The use of liquefied natural gas (LNG) adds three additional life-cycle stages to the natural gas life-cycle described above. Natural gas is produced and processed to remove contaminants and transported by pipeline relatively short distances to be liquefied. In the liquefaction process, natural gas is cooled and pressurized (*11*). Liquefaction plants are generally located in coastal areas of LNG exporting countries and dedicated LNG ocean tankers transport LNG

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to the United States. Upon arriving, the LNG tankers offload their cargo and the LNG is regasified. At this point the regasified LNG enters the U.S. natural gas transmission system.

The coal life-cycle is conceptually simpler than the natural gas life-cycle, consisting of three major steps: coal mining and processing, transportation, and use/combustion.

U.S. coal is produced from surface mines (67%), or underground mines (33%) (*1*). Mined coal is processed to remove impurities. Coal is then transported from the mines to the consumers via rail (84%), barge (11%), and trucks (5%) (*12*). More than 90% of the coal used in the United States is used by the electric power sector, which is modeled here (*8*).

The life-cycle of SNG is a combination of some stages from the coal life-cycle and some stages of the natural gas life-cycle. Coal is mined, processed, and transported, as in the coal life-cycle, to the SNG production plant. At this plant, syngas, a mixture of carbon monoxide (CO) and hydrogen (H_2), is produced by gasification and converted, via methanation, to methane and water. The SNG is then sent to the natural gas transmission system, described above, and on to the electric power generator.

3. Methods for Calculating Life-Cycle Air Emissions

In our study we investigate the life-cycle air emissions from coal, natural gas, LNG, and SNG use. All fossil fuel options are used to produce electricity and combustion emissions are included as a component of the each life-cycle. For GHG, the emissions factors at power plants used are 120 lb CO_2 equiv/MMBtu of natural gas and 205 lb CO_2 equiv/MMBtu of coal. The SO_x and NO_x emissions at power plants are presented in the results section and in the Supporting Information

3.1. Life-Cycle Air Emissions from Natural Gas produced in North America. In 2003, the total consumption of natural gas in the United States was over 27 trillion cubic feet (tcf). Of this, 26.5 tcf were produced in North America (U.S., Canada, and Mexico) (*13*). According to the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), 1.07% of the natural gas produced is lost in its production, processing, transmission, and storage (*14*). Total methane emissions were calculated using the percentage of natural gas lost. It was also assumed that natural gas has an average heat content of 1030 Btu/ft^3 (*13*), and that 96% of the natural gas lost is methane, which has a density of 0.0424 lb/ ft^3 (*14*).

In 1993 the U.S. EPA established the Natural Gas STAR program to reduce methane emissions from the natural gas industry. Data from this program for the reductions in methane lost in the natural gas system, as described in the Supporting Information, were combined with the data described above to develop a range of methane emissions factors for the North American natural gas life-cycle stages.

Carbon dioxide emissions are produced from the combustion of natural gas used during various life-cycle stages and from the production of electricity consumed during transport. EIA provides annual estimates of the amount of natural gas used for the production, processing, and transport of natural gas. In 2003, approximately 1900 billion cubic feet of natural gas were consumed during these stages of the natural gas life-cycle (*13*). Total carbon dioxide emissions were calculated using a carbon content in natural gas of 31.90 lb C/MMBtu and an oxidation fraction of 0.995 (*1*). According to the Transportation Energy Data Book, 3 billion kWh were used for natural gas pipeline transport in 2003 (*15*). The average GHG emission factor from the generation of this electricity is 1400 lb CO_2 equiv/MWh (*16*). These CO_2 emissions were added to methane emissions to obtain the upstream combustion GHG emission factors for North American natural gas.

SO_x and NO_x emissions from the natural gas upstream stages of the life-cycle come from the combustion of the fuels used to produce the energy that runs the system, as given in the Supporting Information. Total emissions from flared gas were calculated using the AP 42 Emission Factors for natural gas boilers (*17*). A range of emissions from the combustion of the natural gas used during the upstream stages of the life-cycle was developed using the AP 42 Emissions Factors for reciprocating engines and for natural gas turbines (*17*). Emissions from generating the electricity used during natural gas pipeline operations were estimated using the most current average emission factors given by EGRID: 6.04 lb SO_2/MWh and 2.96 lb NO_x/MWh (*16*). Note that EGRID reports emissions of SO_2 only. Other references used in this paper report total SO_x emission. For this paper, sulfur emission will be reported in terms of SO_x emissions.

In addition to emissions from the energy used during the life-cycle of natural gas, SO_x emissions are produced in the processing stage of the life-cycle, when hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) is removed from the sour natural gas to meet pipeline requirements. A range of SO_x emissions from this processing of natural gas was developed using the AP 42 emissions factors for natural gas processing and for sulfur recovery (*17*). To use the AP 42 emission factors for sulfur recovery, we found that in 2003 1945 thousand tons of sulfur were recovered from 14.7 trillion cubic feet of natural gas resulting in a calculated average natural gas H_2S mole percentage of 0.0226. This was then used with the AP 42 emission factors for natural gas processing.

3.2. Air Emissions from the LNG Life-Cycle. In 2003, 500 billion cubic feet of natural gas were imported in the form of LNG (*13*). In 2003, 75% of the LNG imported to the United States came from Trinidad and Tobago, but this percentage is expected to decrease as more imports come from Russia, the Middle East, and Southeast Asia (*13*). According to EIA, the LNG tanker world fleet capacity should have reached 890 million cubic feet of liquid (equivalent to 527 billion cubic feet of natural gas) by the end of 2006 (*18*). There are currently 5 LNG terminals in operation in the United States, with a combined base load capacity of 5.3 billion cubic feet per day (about 2 trillion cubic feet per year). In addition to these terminals, there are 45 proposed facilities in North America, 18 of which have already been approved by the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (FERC) (*19*).

Due to unavailability of data for emissions from natural gas production in other countries, it is assumed that natural gas imported to the United States in the form of LNG produces the same emissions from the production and processing life-cycle stages as North American natural gas. Those stages are incorporated for LNG. Most of the natural gas converted to LNG is produced from modern fields developed and operated by multinational oil and gas companies, so they are assumed to be operated in a similar way to those in the United States.

It is expected that transportation of natural gas from the production field to the liquefaction plant would have emissions similar to those of pipeline transport of domestic natural gas. But the emission factor for the U.S. system (which is included in the LNG life-cycle) is based on total pipeline distances of over 200 000 miles (*20*). Because LNG facilities are closely paired with gas fields, it is expected that the average distance from production field to a LNG facility would be much smaller than 200 000 miles. Also, because there were no reliable data for the myriad of fields and facilities and suspected impact on the overall life cycle would be minimal, this transport from the fields to the liquefaction terminals was ignored. This would slightly underestimate the emissions from the LNG life cycle.

Additional emission factors were developed for the liquefaction, transport, and regasification life-cycle stages of LNG. Tamura et al. have reported emission factors for the liquefaction stage in the range of 11−31 lb CO_2 equiv/MMBtu (*21*). The sources of these emissions are outlined in the Supporting Information.

LNG is shipped to the United States via LNG tankers. LNG tankers are the last ship type to use steam turbine technology in their engines. This technology allows for easy use of boil-off gas (BOG) in a gas boiler. Boil-off rates in LNG tankers range between 0.15% and 0.25% per day when loaded (*22*, *23*). When there is not enough BOG available, a fuel oil boiler is used to produce the steam. In addition to this benefit, steam turbines require less maintenance than diesel engines, which is beneficial to these tankers that have to be readily available to leave a terminal in case of emergency (*22*).

Most LNG tankers currently in operation have a capacity to carry between 4.2 and 5.3 million cubic feet of LNG (2.6 and 3.2 billion cubic feet of gas). There are smaller tankers available, but they are not widely used for transoceanic transport. There is also discussion about building larger tankers (8.8 million cubic feet), however none of the current U.S. terminals can handle tankers of this size (*18*).

The rated power of the LNG tankers ranges between 20 and 30 MW, and they operate under this capacity around 75% of the time during a trip (*24*, *25*). The energy required to power this engine is 11.6 MMBtu/MWh (*26*). As previously mentioned, some of this energy is provided by BOG and the rest is provided by fuel oil. A loaded tanker with a rated power of 20 MW, and 0.12% daily boil-off rate would consume 3.88 million cubic feet of gas per day and 4.4 tons of fuel oil per day. The same tanker would consume 115 tons of fuel oil per day on they way back to the exporting country operating under ballast conditions. A loaded tanker with a rated power of 30 MW, and a 0.25% daily boil-off rate would get all its energy from the BOG, with some excess gas being combusted to reduce risks of explosion (*22*). Under ballast conditions, the same tanker would consume 172 tons of fuel oil per day.

For LNG imported in 2003 the average travel distance to the Everett, MA LNG terminal was 2700 nautical miles (*13*, *27*). In the future LNG could travel as far as far as 11 700 nautical miles (the distance between Australia and the Lake Charles, LA LNG terminal (*27*)). This range of distances is representative of distances from LNG countries to U.S. terminals that could be located on either the East or West coasts. To estimate the number of days LNG would travel (at a tanker speed of 20 knots (*22*)), these distances were used. This trip length can then be multiplied by the fuel consumption of the tanker to estimate total trip fuel consumption and emissions, and these can then be divided by the average tanker capacity to obtain a range of emission factors for LNG tanker transport between 2 and 17 lb CO_2 equiv/MMBtu.

Regasification emissions were reported by Tamura et al. to be 0.85 lb CO_2 equiv/MMBtu (*21*). Ruether et al. report an emission factor of 3.75 lb of CO_2 equiv/MMBtu for this stage of the LNG life-cycle by assuming that 3% of the gas is used to run the regasification equipment (*28*). The emission reported by Tamura et al. differs because they assumed only 0.15% of the gas is used to run the regasification terminal, while electricity, which may be generated with cleaner energy sources, provides the additional energy requirements. These values were used as lower and upper bounds of the range of emissions from regasification of LNG.

As done for the carbon emissions, natural gas produced in other countries and imported to the United States in the form of LNG is assumed to have the same SO_x and NO_x emissions in the production, processing, and transmission stages of the life-cycle as for natural gas produced in North America. Emission ranges for the liquefaction and regasification of natural gas were calculated using the AP 42 emission factors for reciprocating engines and natural gas turbines (*17*). It is assumed that 8.8% of natural gas is used in the liquefaction plant (*21*) and 3% is used in the regasification plants (*28*). Emissions of SO_x, and NO_x from transporting the LNG via tanker were calculated using the AP 42 emission factor for natural gas boilers and diesel boilers, as well as the tanker fuel consumption previously described.

3.3. Air Emissions from the Coal Life-Cycle. Greenhouse gas emissions from the mining life-cycle stage were developed from methane releases and from combustion of fuels used at the mines. EPA estimates that methane emissions from coal mines in 1997 were 75 million tons of CO_2 equivalents, of which 63 million tons came from underground mines and 12 million tons came from surface mines (*1*). CO_2 is also emitted from mines through the combustion of the fuels that provide the energy for operation. The U.S. Census Bureau provides fuel consumption data for mines in 1997 (*29*). These data are available in the Supporting Information. Fuel consumption data were converted to GHG emissions using the carbon content and heat content of each fuel and an oxidation fraction given in EPA's Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Sources and Sinks (*1*) (see Supporting Information). Emissions from the generation of the electricity consumed were calculated using an average 1997 emission factor of 1400 lb CO_2 equiv/MWh (*16*). These total emissions were then converted to an emission factor using the amount of coal produced in 1997 and the average heat content of this coal.

Emissions from the transportation of coal were calculated using the EIO-LCA tool developed at Carnegie Mellon University (*30*). To use this tool, economic values for coal transportation were needed. In 1997, the latest year for which the EIO-LCA tool has data, 84% of coal was transported via rail, 11% via barge, and 5% via truck. The cost for rail transport, barge, and truck transport was 13.9, 9.5, and 142.7 mills/ton-mile respectively (*12*). For a million ton-miles of coal transported, EIO-LCA estimates that 43.6 tons of CO_2 equivalents are emitted from rail transportation, 5.89 tons of CO_2 equivalents from water transportation, and 69 tons of CO_2 equivalents from truck transportation (*30*). These emissions were then converted to an emission factor by using the average travel distance of coal in each mode (796, 337, and 38 miles by rail, barge, and truck, respectively), the weighted average U.S. coal heat content of 10 520 Btu/lb (*31*) and the coal production data for 1997 (see Supporting Information).

The energy consumption data used to develop carbon emissions from the mining life-cycle stage were used to develop SO_x and NO_x emission factors for coal. AP 42 emissions factors for off-road vehicles, natural gas turbines, reciprocating engines, light duty gasoline trucks, large stationary diesel engines, and gasoline engines were used to develop this range of emission factors (*17*, *32*). In addition, the average emission factors from electricity generation in 1997 (3.92 lb NO_x/MWh and 7.86 lb SO_2/MWh (*16*)) were used to include the emissions from the electricity used in mines.

SO_x and NO_x emissions for coal transportation were again calculated using EIO-LCA (*30*). EIO-LCA estimates that a million ton-miles of coal transported via rail results in emissions of 0.02 tons of SO_x and 0.4 tons of NO_x. A million ton-miles of coal transported via water would emit 0.07 tons of SO_x, and 0.36 tons of NO_x. Finally, a million ton-miles of coal transported via truck would emit 0.06 tons of SO_x, and 1.42 tons of NO_x (*30*). These data were added to emissions from mines to find the total SO_x and NO_x emission factors for the upstream stages of the coal life-cycle.

3.4. Air Emissions from the SNG Life-Cycle. Performance characteristics for two SNG plants are given in the Supporting Information. These plants have a higher heating value efficiency between 57% and 60% (*33*, *34*). Using these efficiencies, emissions from coal mining, processing, and

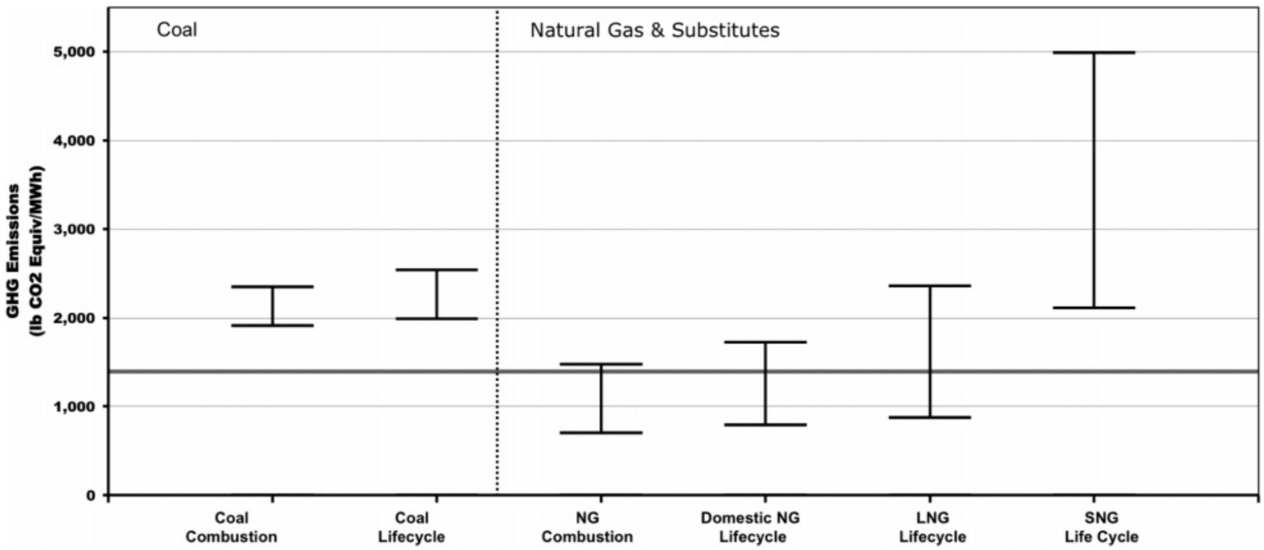

FIGURE 1. Fuel Combustion and Life-Cycle GHG Emissions for Current Power Plants.

transportation previously obtained were converted to pounds of CO_2 equiv/MMBtu of SNG. The data were also used to calculate the emissions at the gasification−methanation plant using a coal carbon content of 0.029 tons/MMBtu and a calculated SNG storage fraction of 37% (*1*). Finally, the emissions from transmission, storage, distribution, and combustion of SNG are the same as those for all other natural gas.

To develop the SO_x and NO_x emissions from the life-cycle of SNG, the emissions from coal mining and transport developed in the previous section in pounds per MMBtu of coal were converted to pounds per MMBtu of SNG using the efficiencies previously discussed. In addition, the emissions from natural gas transmission and storage were assumed to represent emissions from these life-cycle stages of SNG. The emissions from the gasification−methanation plant were taken from emission data for an Integrated Coal Gasification Combine Cycle (IGCC) plant, which operates with a similar process. Bergerson (*35*) reports SO_x emissions factors from IGCC between 0.023 and 0.15 lb/MMBtu coal (0.026−0.17 lb/MMBtu of coal if there is carbon capture), and a NO_x emission factor of 0.0226 lb/MMBtu coal (0.0228 lb/MMBtu of coal if there is carbon capture). These were converted to lb/MMBtu of SNG using the same coal-to-SNG efficiencies previously described.

4. Results

4.1. Comparing Fuel Life-Cycle Emissions for Fuels Used at Currently Operating Power Plants. Emission factors for the fuel life-cycles were calculated as pounds of pollutants per MMBtu of fuel produced, as presented in the Supporting Information. Since coal and natural gas power plants have different efficiencies, 1 MMBtu of coal does not generate the same amount of electricity as 1 MMBtu of natural gas/LNG/SNG. For this reason, emission factors given in Table 10S and Table 11S in the Supporting Information were converted to pounds of pollutant per MWh of electricity generated. This conversion is done using the efficiency of natural gas and coal power plants. According to the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE), currently operating coal power plants have efficiencies ranging from 30% to 37%, while currently operating natural gas power plants have efficiencies ranging from 28% to 58% (*36*). The life-cycle GHG emissions factors of natural gas, LNG, coal, and SNG described in the Supporting Information were converted to a lower and upper bound emission factor from coal and natural gas power plants using these efficiency ranges. Figure 1 shows the final bounds for the emission factors for each fuel cycle. The life-cycle for each fuel use includes fuel combustion at a power plant. The combustion-only emissions for each fuel are shown for comparison. The solid horizontal line shown represents the current average GHG emission factor for U.S. electricity generation: 1400 lb CO_2 equiv/MWh (*16*). Note that in this graph no carbon capture and storage (CCS) is performed at any stage of the life-cycle. CCS is a process by which carbon emissions are separated from other combustion products and injected into underground geologic formations such as saline formations or depleted oil/gas fields. A scenario in which CCS is performed at power plants as well as in gasification−methanation plants will be discussed in the following section.

It can be seen that combustion emissions from coal-fired power plants are higher than those from natural gas: the midpoint between the lower and upper bound emission factors for coal combustion is approximately 2100 lb CO_2 equiv/MWh, while the midpoint for natural gas combustions is approximately 1100 lb CO_2 equiv/MWh. This reflects the known environmental advantages from combustion of natural gas over coal. Figure 1 also shows that the life-cycle GHG emissions of electricity generated with coal are dominated by combustion, and adding the upstream life-cycle stages does not change the emission factor significantly, with the midpoint between the lower and upper bound life-cycle emission factors being 2270 lb CO_2 equiv/MWh. For natural-gas-fired power plants the emissions from the upstream stages of the natural gas life-cycle are more significant, especially if the natural gas used is synthetically produced from coal (SNG). The midpoint life-cycle emission factor for domestic natural gas is 1250 lb CO_2 equiv/MWh; for LNG and SNG it is 1600 lb CO_2 equiv/MWh and 3550 lb CO_2 equiv/MWh, respectively. SNG has much higher emission factors than the other fuels because of efficiency losses throughout the system. It is also interesting to note that the range of life-cycle GHG emissions of electricity generated with LNG is significantly closer to the range of emissions from coal than the life-cycle emissions of natural gas produced in North America. The upper bound life-cycle emission factor for LNG is 2400 lb CO_2 equiv/MWh, while the upper bound life-cycle emission factor for coal is 2550 lb CO_2 equiv/MWh.

To compare emissions of SO_x and NO_x from all life-cycles, the upstream emission factors and the power plant efficiencies from the Supporting Information are used. Emissions of these pollutants from coal and natural gas power plants in operation in 2003 were obtained from EGRID (*37*). Table 1

TABLE 1. SO_x and NO_x Combustion and Life-Cycle Emission Factors for Current Power Plants

fuel		SO_x (lb/MWh)		NO_x (lb/MWh)	
		min	max	min	max
current electricity mix		6.04		2.96	
coal	combustion	1.54	25.5	2.56	9.08
	life-cycle	1.60	25.8	2.83	9.69
natural gas	combustion	0.00	1.13	0.12	5.20
	life-cycle	0.04	1.49	0.17	9.40
LNG	life-cycle	0.094	2.93	0.25	15.4
SNG	life-cycle	0.30	3.88	0.65	8.08

shows life-cycle emissions for each fuel obtained by adding the combustion emissions from EGRID to the transformed upstream emissions. The current average SO_x and NO_x emission factors for electricity generated in the United States are also shown (*16*).

It can be seen that coal has significantly larger SO_x emissions than natural gas, LNG, or SNG. This is expected since the sulfur content of coal is much higher than the sulfur content of other fuels. SNG, which is produced from coal, does not have high sulfur emissions because the sulfur from coal must be removed before the methanation process.

For NO_x, it can be seen that the upstream stages of domestic natural gas, LNG, and even SNG make a significant contribution to the total life-cycle emissions. These upstream NO_x emissions come from the combustion of fuels used to run the natural gas system: for domestic natural gas, production is the largest contributor to these emissions; for LNG most NO_x upstream emissions come from the liquefaction plant; finally, for SNG most upstream NO_x emissions come from the gasification−methanation plant.

4.2. Comparing Fuel Life-Cycle Emissions for Fuels Used with Advanced Technologies. According to the DOE, by 2025 65 GW of inefficient facilities will be retired, while 347 GW of new capacity will be installed (*8*). Advanced pulverized coal (PC), integrated coal gasification combined cycle (IGCC), and natural gas combined cycle (NGCC) power plants could be installed. PC, IGCC, and NGCC plants are generally more efficient (average efficiencies of 39%, 38%, and 50%, respectively (*38*)) than the current fleet of power plants. In addition, CCS could be performed with these newer technologies. Experts believe that sequestration of 90% of the carbon will be technologically and economically feasible in the next 20 years (*5*, *38*). Having CCS at PC, IGCC, and NGCC plants decreases the efficiency of the plants to average of 30%, 33%, and 43%, respectively (*38*).

Figure 2 was developed using the revised efficiencies for advanced technologies and the GHG emission factors (in lb/MMBtu) described in the Supporting Information. This figure represents total life-cycle emissions for electricity generated with each fuel. Notice that emissions are shown with and without CCS. In the case of SNG with CCS, capture is performed at both the gasification−methanation plant and at the power plant. The solid horizontal line shown represents the current average GHG emission factor for electricity generation in the United States (1400 lb CO_2 equiv/MWh) (*16*). The upper and lower bound emissions in this figure are closer together than the upper and lower bounds in Figure 1, because only one power plant efficiency value is used, while for Figure 1 the upper and lower bound efficiency from all currently operating power plants was used (this is especially obvious for the domestic natural gas (NGCC) cases). It can be seen that, in general, life-cycle GHG emissions of electricity generated with the fuels without CCS would decrease slightly compared to emissions from current power plants that use the same fuel (due to efficiency gains). The most efficient natural gas plant currently in operation, however, could have slightly lower emissions than the lower bound for NGCC, LNGG, and SNGCC, due to efficiency differences. Three of the cases, however (PC, IGCC, and SNGCC), would still have higher emissions than the current average emissions from power plants. If CCS were used, however, there would be a significant reduction in emissions for all cases. In addition the midpoints between upper and lower bound emissions from all fuels are closer together, as can be seen in Figure 3. This figure also shows how the upstream from combustion emissions of fuels become significant contributors to the life-cycle emission factors when CCS is used.

Table 2 was developed using the upstream SO_x and NO_x emission factors obtained in this study and the combustion emissions reported by Bergerson (*35*) for PC and IGCC plants and by Rubin et al. for NGCC plants (*38*). These reported combustion emissions can be seen in the Table 12S in the Supporting Information.

As can be seen from Table 2, if advanced technologies are used there could be a significant reduction of NO_x and SO_x emissions, even if CCS is not available. It is interesting also to note that a PC plant with CCS could have lower life-cycle emissions than an IGCC plant with CCS. In the PC case all sulfur is removed through flue gas desulfurization. The removed sulfur compounds are then solidified and disposed of or sold as gypsum. In an IGCC plant with CCS, sulfur is removed from the syngas before combustion. In these plants, however, instead of solidifying the sulfur compounds removed and disposing them, the elemental sulfur is recovered in a process that generates some additional SO_x emissions (*35*). For NO_x, only LNG has higher life-cycle emissions than the average generated at current power plants.

5. Discussion

Natural gas is an important energy source for the residential, commercial, and industrial sectors. In the 1990s, the surge in demand by electricity generators and relatively constant natural gas production in North America caused prices to increase, so that in 2005 these sectors paid 58 billion dollars more than they would have paid if 2000 prices remained constant. Cumulative additional costs of higher natural gas prices for residential, commercial, and industrial consumers between 2000 and 2005 were calculated to be around 120 billion dollars. LNG has been identified as a source of natural gas that might help reduce prices, but even with an increasing supply of LNG, EIA still projects average delivered natural gas prices above \$6.5/Mcf in the next 25 years. This is higher than the \$4.5 /Mcf average projected price in earlier reports before the natural-gas-fired plant construction boom (*4*).

In addition to LNG, SNG has been proposed as an alternative source to add to the natural gas mix. The decision to follow the path of increased LNG imports or SNG production should be examined in light of more than just economic considerations. In this paper, we analyzed the effects of the additional air emissions from the LNG/SNG life-cycle on the overall emissions from electricity generation in the United States. We found that with current electricity generation technologies, natural gas life-cycle GHG emissions are generally lower than coal life-cycle emissions, even when increased LNG imports are included. However LNG imports decrease the difference between GHG emissions from coal and natural gas. SNG has higher life-cycle GHG emission than coal, domestic natural gas, or LNG. It is also important to note that upstream GHG emissions of NG/LNG/SNG have a higher impact in the total life-cycle emissions than upstream coal emissions. This is a significant point when considering a carbon-constrained future in which combustion emissions are reduced.

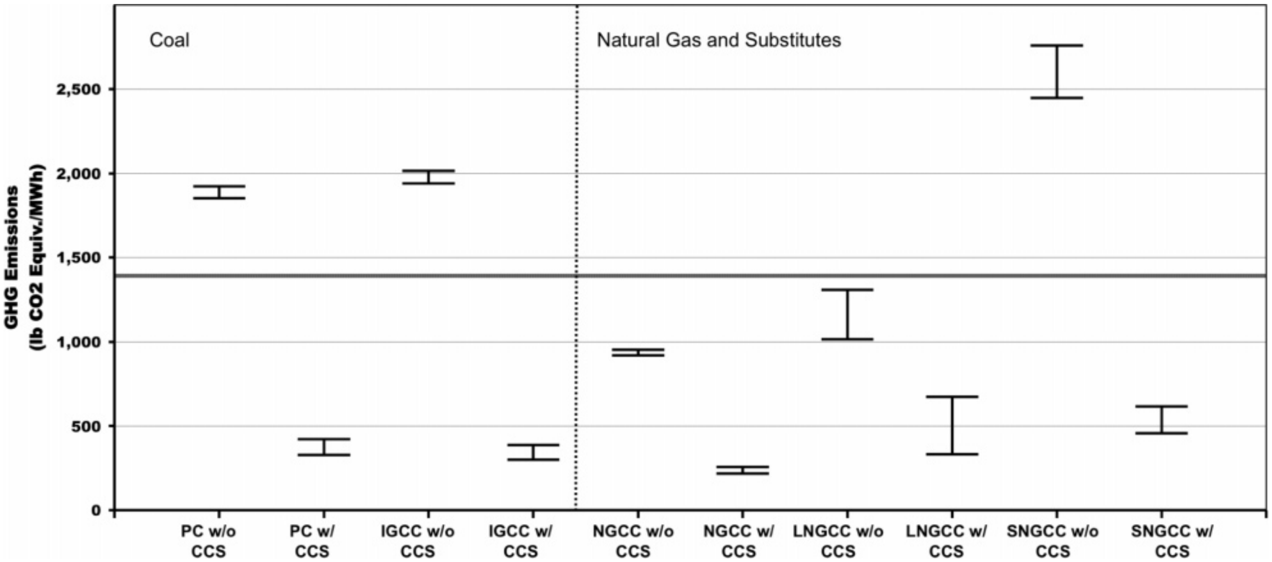

FIGURE 2. Fuel GHG Life-Cycle Emissions Using Advanced Technologies.

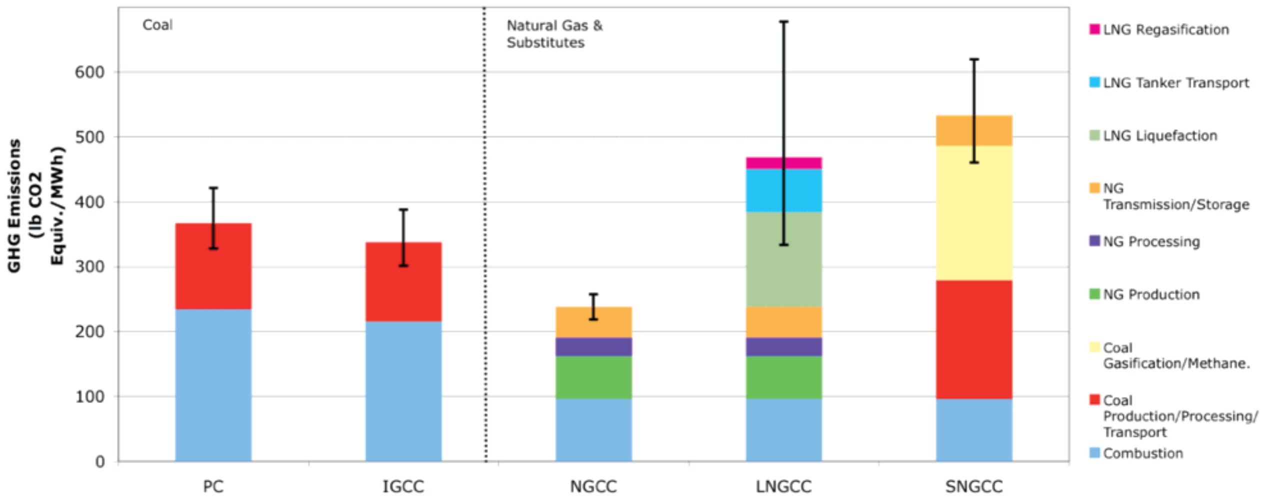

FIGURE 3. Midpoint Life-Cycle GHG Emissions Using Advanced Technologies with CCS.

TABLE 2. SO_x and NO_x Life-Cycle Emission Factors for Advanced Technologies

fuel		SO_x (lb/MWh) min	SO_x (lb/MWh) max	NO_x (lb/MWh) min	NO_x (lb/MWh) max
current electricity mix		6.04		2.96	
coal	PC w/o CCS	0.24	1.54	1.42	2.46
	PC w/ CCS	0.08	0.34	1.90	3.61
	IGCC w/o CCS	0.27	1.57	0.47	0.70
	IGCC w/ CCS	0.32	1.83	0.54	0.78
natural gas	NGCC w/o CCS	0.04	0.20	0.30	2.57
	NGCC w/ CCS	0.05	0.24	0.36	3.01
LNG	NGCC w/o CCS	0.25	1.04	0.39	5.89
	NGCC w/ CCS	0.30	1.23	0.46	6.91
SNG	NGCC w/o CCS	0.35	2.15	0.88	1.85
	NGCC w/ CCS	0.45	2.80	1.03	2.18

For emissions of SO_x, we found that with current electricity generation technologies, coal has significantly higher life-cycle emissions than any other fuel due to very high emissions at current power plants. For NO_x, however, this pattern is different. We find that with current electricity generation technologies, LNG could have the highest life-cycle NO_x emissions (since emissions from liquefaction and regasification are significant), and that even natural gas produced in North America could have life-cycle NO_x emissions very similar to those of coal. It is important to note that while GHG emissions contribute to a global problem, SO_x and NO_x are local pollutants and U.S. policy makers may not give much weight to emissions of these pollutants in other countries.

In the future, as newer generation technologies and CCS are installed, the overall life-cycle GHG emissions from electricity generated with coal, domestic natural gas, LNG, or SNG could be similar. Most important is that all fuels with advanced combustion technologies and CCS have lower life-cycle GHG emission factors than the current average emission factor from electricity generation. For SO_x we found that coal and SNG would have the largest life-cycle emissions, but all fuels have lower life-cycle SO_x emissions than the current average emissions from electricity generation. For NO_x, LNG would have the highest life-cycle emissions and would be the only fuel that could have higher emissions than the current average emission factor from electricity generation, even with advanced power plant design.

We suggest that advanced technologies are important and should be taken into account when examining the possibility of doing major investments in LNG or SNG infrastructure. Power generators hope that the price of natural gas will decrease as alternative sources of natural gas are added to the U.S. mix, so they can recover the investment made in natural gas plants that are currently producing well under capacity. We suggest that these investments should be viewed as sunk costs. Thus, it is important to re-evaluate whether investing billions of dollars in LNG/SNG infrastructure will lock us into an undesirable energy path that could make future energy decisions costlier than ever expected and increase the environmental burden from our energy infrastructure.

Acknowledgments

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Supporting Information Available

Graphical representation of the fuel life-cycles, emissions calculation information, summary of emissions from fuel life-cycles, power plant efficiency information, emissions from advanced technologies, and references, This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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Comparative Life-cycle Air Emissions of Coal, Domestic Natural Gas, LNG, and SNG for Electricity Generation

Supporting Information

1. Graphical Representation of the Fuel Life-cycles

Figure 1S and Figure 2S below, show the life-cycle stages on natural gas used by electric power generators, including the stages from the LNG life-cycle. Notice that local distribution of natural gas falls outside our analysis boundary.

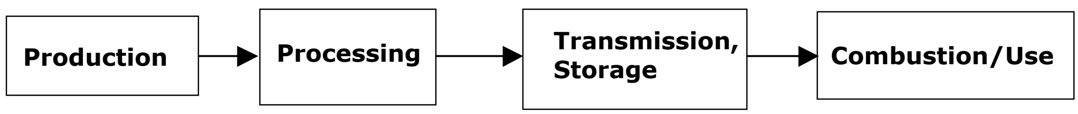

Figure 1S: Domestic Natural Gas Life-cycle.

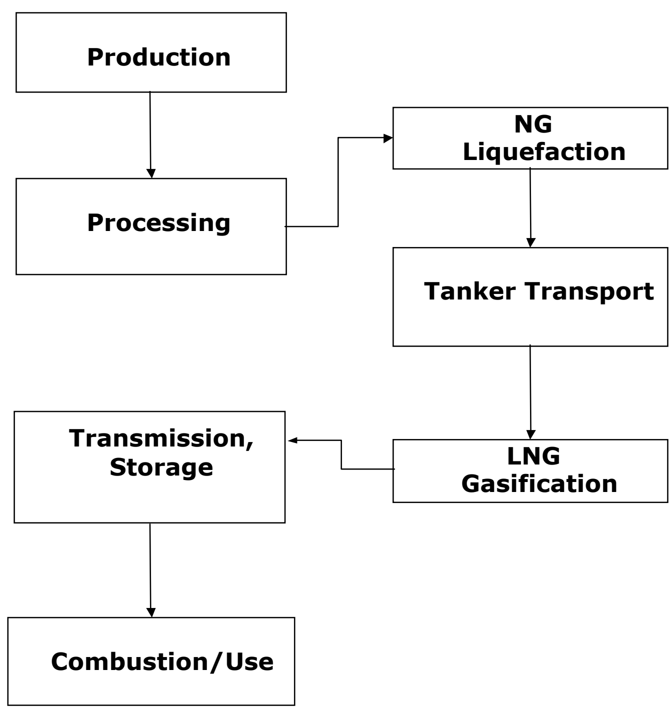

Figure 2S: LNG Life-cycle.

Figure 3S and Figure 4S show the life-cycle of coal and synthetic natural gas (SNG) derived from coal.

Figure 3S: Coal Life-cycle.

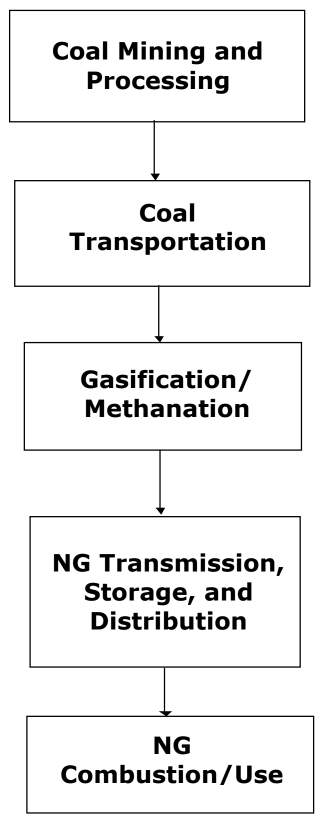

Figure 4S: SNG Life-cycle.

2. Calculating Emissions from the Domestic Natural Gas Life-cycle

During the late 1980s and early 1990s the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) conducted a study to determine methane emissions from the natural gas industry (1). This comprehensive study developed hundreds of activity and emissions factors from all areas of the natural gas industry. These factors were developed using data collected from different sectors of the industry as well as from data collected in field measurements. Methane emissions from the U.S. natural gas system given as a percentage of natural gas produced can be seen in Table 1S. This data was used to develop methane emission factors, as described in the main document. Notice, that Table 1S includes an estimate for natural gas losses in the local distribution system. This estimate is given here for reference, but it was not included in our calculation of emissions of natural gas used to generate electricity.

In addition data from the EPA Natural Gas STAR program was used. The program is a voluntary partnership with the goal of encouraging the natural gas industry to adopt practices that increase efficiency and reduce emissions (for example by reducing natural gas leaks in the pipeline system). Consequently, since 1993, a cumulative total of 338 billion cubic feet of methane emissions have been eliminated. In 2003 alone, 52,900 million cubic feet of methane emissions were eliminated, a 9% reduction over projected emissions for that year without improved practices (2).

Table 1S: Methane Emissions from North American Gas Life-cycle as a Percentage of Natural Gas Produced (1).

Lifecycle Segment	Emissions as a Percentage of Gas Produced
Production	0.38%
Processing	0.16%
Transmission and Storage	0.53%
Distribution	0.35%

Carbon dioxide emissions from the different natural gas life-cycle stages were also calculated. These emissions were calculated using data on the amount of natural gas used to run the processes, as given in Table 2S, as well as an estimated 3 billion KWh of electricity used for pipeline transport. These data were also used to calculate SO_x and NO_x emissions from the life-cycle, as described in the main document. It should be mentioned that the pipeline fuel presented in Table 2S includes fuel used by the transmission system and the local distribution system. As previously described, natural gas used by electricity generators is bought directly from the transmission system, so that emissions from the distribution system are not included in our analysis. Due to data limitations, we were not able to disaggregate pipeline fuel and electricity consumption between the two systems. To deal with this issue, we use a range of emissions. The minimum value assumes that none of this fuel is consumed in the transmission system and the maximum value assumes that all is consumed in the transmission system.

Table 2S: Natural Gas Used During the Natural Gas Life-cycle. (3).

Use (as defined by EIA)	NG Life-cycle Stage	Amount (million ft^3)
Flared Gas	Production	98,000
Lease Fuel	Production	760,000
Pipeline Use	Transmission/Distribution	665,000
Plant Fuel	Processing	365,000

3. Calculating Emissions from the LNG Life-cycle

As mentioned in the main paper, Tamura et al (4) provide GHG emissions for liquefaction plants. Table 3S presents the sources of these emissions.

Table 3S: Liquefaction Emission Factors (Adapted from Tamura et al (4)).

Liquefaction	Emission Factors (lb CO_2 Equivalent/MMBtu)		
	Minimum	Average	Maximum
CO_2 from fuel combustion	11	12	13
CO_2 from flare combustion	0.00	0.77	1.5
CH_4 from vent	0.09	1.3	9.8
CO_2 in raw gas	0.09	4.0	6.6

Table 4S provides the distance from LNG exporting countries to two U.S. LNG terminals and the amount of LNG brought from each country in 2003. These two terminals were chosen because they are two of the largest terminals in the United States and they represent longest and shortest tanker travel distances for which route information is available. In addition, the range of distances provided is also representative of distances LNG would have to travel if a LNG terminal was located in the U.S. West Coast. Figure 5S shows the emission factors for LNG Tanker transport from each country to each of these terminals, obtained using the tanker information given in the main document. Emissions from tanker transport range between 2 and 17 pounds of CO_2 Equivalent per MMBtu of natural gas. These data was also used to calculate the SO_x and NO_x emission factors for tanker transport.

Table 4S: LNG Exporting Countries in 2003.

Exporting Country	Distance to Lake Charles Facility (nautical miles) (5)	Distance to Everett, MA Facility (nautical miles) (5)	2003 US Imports (million cubic feet NG) (3)
Algeria	5,000	3,300	53,000
Australia	12,000	11,000	0
Brunei	12,000	11,000	0
Indonesia	12,000	11,000	0
Malaysia	12,000	11,000	2,700
Nigeria	6,100	5,000	50,000
Oman	8,900	7,500	8,600
Qatar	9,700	8,000	14,000
Trinidad	2,200	2,000	380,000
UAE	9,600	7,959	0
Russia	9,600	11,000	0

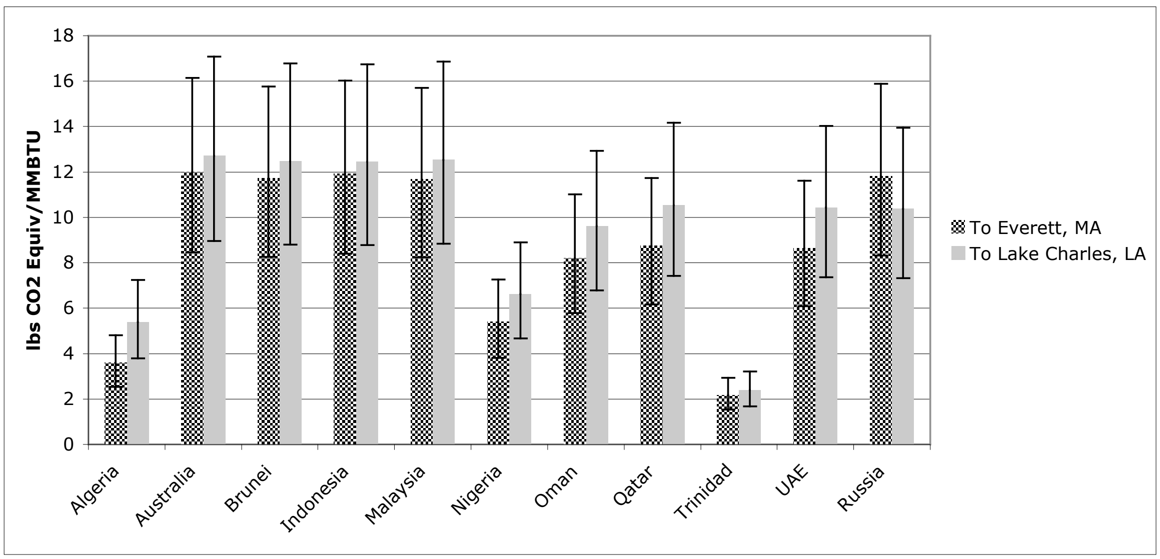

Figure 5S: Tanker Emission Factors from Each Country.

4. Calculating Emissions from the Coal Life-cycle

Table 5S presents fuel consumption data for coal mines in the U.S., and Table 6S presents carbon content, heat content of these fuels. These data was used to calculate GHG emissions factors for coal mines.

Table 5S: 1997 Fuel Consumption at Coal Mines (6)

Mine Type	Fuel Oil (1000 bbl)			Gas (10^9 ft^3)	Gasoline (10^6 gal)	Electricity (10^6 KWh)
	Total	Distillate	Residual			
Surface	8,280	7,524	756	0.7	30	42,474
Underground	801	656	145	0.5	4	7,123

Table 6S: Carbon Content, and Heat Content of Different Fuels (7).

Fuel Type	Carbon Content of Fuel lb/MMBtu Fuel	Heat Content of Fuel (MMBtu/bbl - MMBtu/MMcf)	Fraction Oxidized
Distillate	43.98	5.825	0.99
Residual	47.38	6.287	0.99
Gas	31.90	1,030	0.995
Gasoline	42.66	5.253	0.99

Table 7S: 1997 Coal Production Data (8).

Mine Type	Coal Produced (1000 tons)	Heat Content of Coal (BTU/lb)
Surface	669,273	9,626
Underground	420,657	11,944
Total	1,089,930	10,520

As described in the main document, EIO-LCA was used to estimate emission factors from coal transportation. Table 8S summarizes the emissions resulting from transporting one million ton-miles of coal via each transportation mode.

Table 8S: EIO-LCA GHG Emission Data for a Million Ton-Miles of Coal Transported (9).

Sector	Total GHG Emissions (tons CO_2 Equivalent)	Total SO_x Emissions (tons SO_x)	Total NO_x Emissions (tons NO_x)
Rail Transportation	43.6	0.02	0.40
Water Transportation	5.89	0.07	0.36
Truck Transportation	69.0	0.06	1.42

5. Calculating Emissions from the SNG Life-cycle

In order to calculate air emissions from the SNG life-cycle, the emissions from coal production, processing and transport were converted from pounds per MMBtu of coal used to pounds per MMBtu of SNG produced using the performance characteristics of two SNG plants given in Table 9S. The emissions from SNG transport, storage and use are the same as those from natural gas. The efficiency for the CCS case was obtained assuming an energy penalty of 16% as described for and IGCC plant by Rubin et al (10).

Table 9S: SNG Plant Performance Characteristics

	Case 1 (11)	Case 2 (12)
SNG Output (1. mcf/day and 2. MMBtu/hr)	250	1,739
Efficiency without CCS (HHV)	57%	60%
Efficiency with CCS (HHV)	50%	52%

6. Summary of Emissions from Fuel Life-cycles

Table 10S summarizes GHG emission factors for all fuels. The emission factors presented in this section are the average emission rate relative to units of fuel produced, without considering the efficiency of using these fuels. These emission factors can later be used to develop total inventories of GHG emissions from the annual consumption of each fuel. Allocation of these emissions for each life-cycle stage can be seen in Figure 6S through Figure 8S. Note that there are two different emission factors for SNG. In one case, no carbon capture and sequestration (CCS) is performed at the gasification-methanation stage. When CCS is performed at the gasification-methanation plant, an energy penalty is incurred. It was assumed that the energy penalty observed at IGCC plants with CCS (16%) is representative of the energy penalty at the SNG gasification-methanation plant (10). CCS could also be performed at power plants, as discussed in the main document.

It is also very important to note that the emission factors shown in Table 10**S** (and the emission factors given in Table 11S) are not comparable to each other, since one Btu of coal does not generate the same amount of electricity as one Btu of natural gas or SNG. These emission factors can be transformed to comparable units, namely lbs/MWh of electricity produced, by taking into consideration the efficiency of electricity generation.

Table 10S: Life-cycle GHG Emission Factors

(units: lbs/MMBtu of Fuel Produced)

Life-cycle Stages	North American NG		LNG		Coal		SNG (No CCS at Gasif./Methan. Plant)		SNG (CCS at Gasif./Methan. Plant)	
	Min	**Max**	**Min**	**Max**	**Min**	**Max**	**Min**	**Max**	**Min**	**Max**
Upstream	15.3	20.1	29.6	72.3	8.2	16.4	240	286	45.2	65.2
Combustion (no CCS)	120	120	120	120	205	205	120	120	120	120
Combustion (with CCS)	12	12	12	12	20.5	20.5	12	12	12	12

SO_x and NO_x emission factors for the upstream stages of electricity generation for the fuel life-cycles can be seen in Table 11S. SO_x and NO_x emissions from the combustion of fuel at power plants are very dependent on specific plant characteristics, so it was not possible to transform these power plant emissions (given in lbs/MWh) to the same units as the emissions from the upstream stages of the life-cycle (lbs/MMBtu) by simply using the efficiency of the power plants.

Table 11S: Upstream SO_x and NO_x Emission Factors (units: lbs/MMBtu of Fuel Produced)

Pollutant	North American Natural Gas		LNG		Coal		SNG (No CCS at Gasif./Methan. Plant)		SNG (CCS at Gasif./Methan. Plant)	
	Min	**Max**	**Min**	**Max**	**Min**	**Max**	**Min**	**Max**	**Min**	**Max**
SO_x	0.006	0.030	0.016	0.145	0.007	0.029	0.051	0.316	0.064	0.400
NO_x	0.009	0.342	0.022	0.831	0.030	0.535	0.090	0.234	0.104	0.253

7. GHG Emissions Allocated to Fuel Life-cycle Stages

Figure 6S through Figure 8S show how the GHG emissions reported in Table 10S are allocated among the different life-cycle stages.

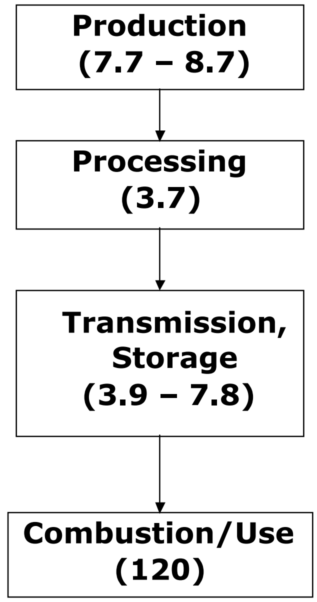

Figure 6S: North American Gas Life-cycle GHG Emission Factors (Units: lbs CO_2 Equivalent/MMBtu).

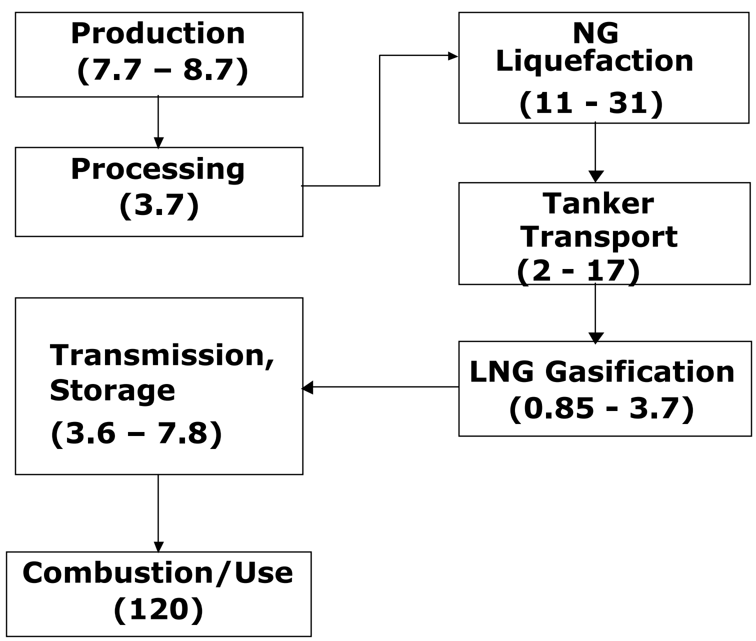

Figure 7S: LNG Life-cycle GHG Emission Factors (Units: lbs CO_2 Equivalent/MMBtu).

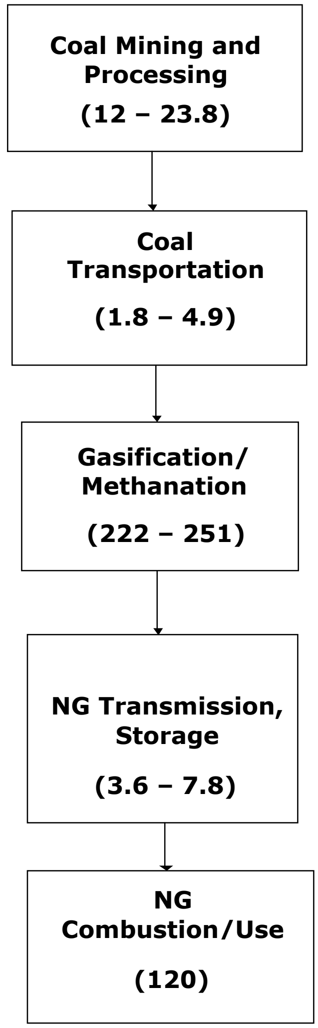

Figure 8S: SNG Life-cycle GHG Emission Factors (Units: lbs CO_2 Equivalent/MMBtu).

8. Efficiencies of Currently Operating Power Plants

Figure 9S shows the distribution of the efficiencies of currently operating power plants, obtained using the cumulative distribution function of EIA 2003 electricity generation data for all utility plants (13). As illustrated in Figure 9S, the median efficiency for natural gas plants is higher than the median efficiency for coal plants. These efficiencies were used to convert the emission factors previously presented (in lbs/ MMBtu of fuel) to lbs/MWh.

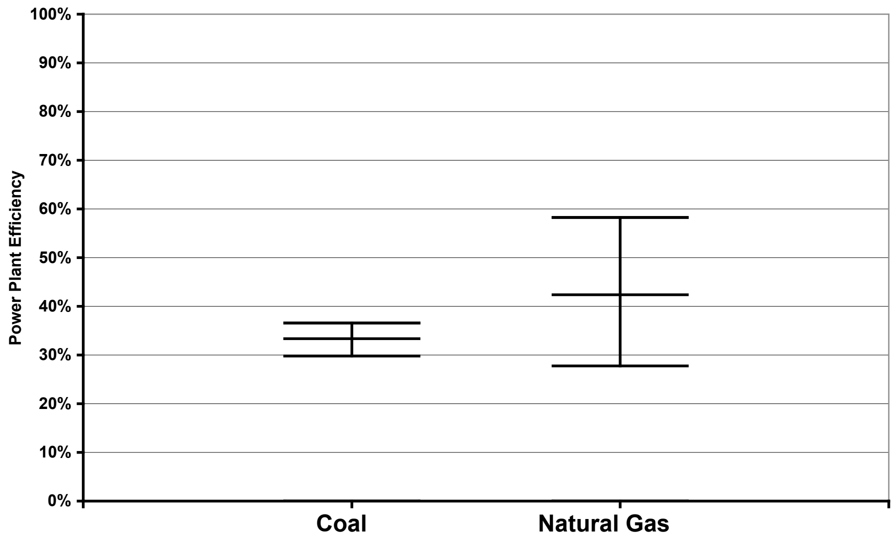

Figure 9S: Efficiencies of Natural Gas and Coal Plants (13).

9. Combustion Emissions from Advance Technologies

Table 12S reports combustion emissions from advanced power plant technologies. The emission factors from PC and IGCC plants were reported Bergerson (14) for PC and IGCC plants. Rubin et al reported the emissions for NGCC plants (10).

Table 12S: Combustion Emissions from Advanced Power Plants.

Fuel/Pollutant	SO_x (lbs/MWh)		NO_x (lbs/MWh)	
	Min	Max	Min	Max
PC w/o CCS	0.17	1.28	1.16	2.00
PC w/ CCS	0.00	0.01	1.56	3.00
IGCC w/o CCS	0.20	1.30	0.20	0.20
IGCC w/ CCS	0.24	1.52	0.20	0.20
NGCC w/o CCS	0.00	0.00	0.24	0.24
NGCC w/ CCS	0.00	0.00	0.29	0.29

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Comparative Life Cycle Carbon Emissions of LNG Versus Coal and Gas for Electricity Generation

Paulina Jaramillo, W. Michael Griffin, H. Scott Matthews

Introduction

Natural gas currently provides 24% of the energy used by homes and businesses in the US (1). It is also an important feedstock for the chemical and fertilizer industry. In the early 1990's the price of natural gas was low (around $3/1000 ft^3) and as a result there was a surge in construction of natural gas plants (2). Today, the Henry Hub price of natural gas is around $15/1000 ft^3 (3), and most of these plants are operating below capacity. However, natural gas consumption is expected to increase 41% by 2025 (to 30 trillion cubic feet), with demand from electricity generators growing the fastest (increasing 90% by 2025). At the same time natural gas production in North America is expected to remain fairly constant at around 24 trillion cubic feet, so that demand of imported liquefied natural gas (LNG) will increase to around 6 trillion cubic feet or 20% of the total supply by 2025 (3).

The natural gas system is the second largest source of greenhouse gas emissions in the US, generating around 132 million tons of CO_2 Equivalents (1). Several studies have performed emission inventories for the natural gas lifecycle from production to distribution. Usually these analyses have been performed for domestic natural gas, so that emissions from the LNG lifecycle stages have been ignored. If, as the DOE estimates suggest, larger percentages of the supply of natural gas will come from these imports, emissions from these steps in the lifecycle could influence the total natural gas lifecycle emissions. Thus, comparisons between coal and natural gas that concentrate only on the emissions at the utility plant may not be adequate. The objective of this study is to perform an analysis of the natural gas lifecycle greenhouse gas emissions taking the emissions from LNG into consideration. Different scenarios for the percentage of natural gas as LNG are analyzed. Moreover, a comparison with the coal fuel cycle greenhouse gas emissions will be presented, in order to have a better understanding of the advantages and disadvantages of using coal versus natural gas for electricity generation.

The Natural Gas Life Cycle

The natural gas life cycle starts with the production of natural gas and ends at the combustion plant. NaturalGas.org has a very detailed description of this life cycle. Readers are encouraged to visit this website if they need more information about the topic.

Geological surveys and seismic studies are used to determine the location of natural gas deposits. After these sites have been identified, wells are constructed. There are two types of well for the extraction of natural gas: oil wells and natural gas wells. Oil wells are drilled primarily to extract oil, but natural gas can also be obtained. Natural gas wells are specifically drilled to extract natural gas.

After natural gas is extracted through the wells, it has to be processed to meet the characteristics of the natural gas used by consumers. Consumer natural gas is composed primarily of methane. However, when natural gas is extracted, it exists with other hydrocarbons such as propane and ethane. In addition, the extracted natural gas contains impurities such as water vapor and carbon dioxide that must be removed. Natural gas processing plants are usually constructed in gas producing regions. The natural gas is transported from the extraction sites to these plants through a system of low-diameter, low-pressure pipelines. At the plant, water vapor is first removed from the gas by using absorption or adsorption methods. Glycol Dehydration is an example of absorption, in which glycol, which has a chemical affinity to water, is used to absorb the vapor. Solid-Desiccant Dehydration is an example of adsorption. In this process the natural gas passes through towers that contain activated alumina or other solid desiccants. As the gas is passed through these towers, the water particles are retained on the surface of the solids.

As previously mentioned, natural gas is extracted with other hydrocarbons that must be removed. The removal of these hydrocarbons, called Natural Gas Liquids (NGL), is done with the absorption method or the cryogenic expander process. The absorption method is similar to the water absorption method, but instead of glycol, absorbing oil is used. The cryogenic expansion method consists of dropping the temperatures of the gas causing the hydrocarbons to condense so that they can be separated from the natural gas. The absorption method is used to remove heavier hydrocarbons, while lighter hydrocarbons are removed using the cryogenic expansion process.

The final step in the processing of natural gas is the removal of sulfur and carbon dioxide. Often, natural gas from the wells contains high amounts of these two compounds, and it is called sour gas. Sulfur must be removed from the gas because it is a potentially lethal chemical if breathed. In addition, sour gas can be corrosive for the transmissions and distribution pipelines. The process of removing sulfur and carbon dioxide from the gas is similar to the absorption processes previously described.

After the natural gas is processed it enters the transmission system. In the US, this transmission system is the interstate natural gas pipeline network, which consists of thousands of miles of high-pressure pipelines that transport the gas from producing areas to high demand areas. In addition to the pipes, this pipeline system has compressor stations along the way, usually placed in 40 to 100 mile intervals. These compressor stations use a turbine or an engine to compress the natural gas and maintain the high pressure required in the pipeline. The turbines and engines generally run with a small amount of the gas from the pipeline. In addition to compressor stations, metering stations are also placed along the system to allow companies to better monitor and manage the natural gas in the pipes. Moreover valves can be found through the entire length of the pipelines to regulate flow.

Natural gas can be stored to meet seasonal demand increases or to meet sudden, short-term demand increases. Natural gas is usually stored in underground facilities. Such facilities could be built in reconditioned depleted gas reservoirs, aquifers or salt caverns. According to the Energy Information Administration (EIA), in 2003 the total storage capacity in the United States was 8.2 billion cubic feet. 82% of this capacity was in depleted gas fields, 15% in depleted aquifers, and 3% in salt caverns. Moreover during that year, withdrawals from storage added to 3.1 billion cubic feet while injections totaled 3.3 billion cubic feet (4). It is important to note that some gas injected into underground storage becomes physically unrecoverable gas. This gas is known as base gas.

Distribution is the final step before natural gas is delivered to consumers. Local Distribution Companies transport natural gas from delivery points along the transmission system to local consumers via a low-pressure, small-diameter pipeline system. Natural gas that arrives to a city gate through the transmission system is depressurized, and filtered to remove any moisture or particulate content. In addition, Mercaptan is added to the gas to create the distinctive smell that allows leaks to be detected. Small compressors are used in the distribution system to maintain the pressure required.

When Liquefied Natural Gas (LNG) is added to the mix of natural gas, three additional lifecycle stages are created: liquefaction, tanker transport, and regasification. Figure 1 shows the total life cycle of natural gas including the LNG stages.

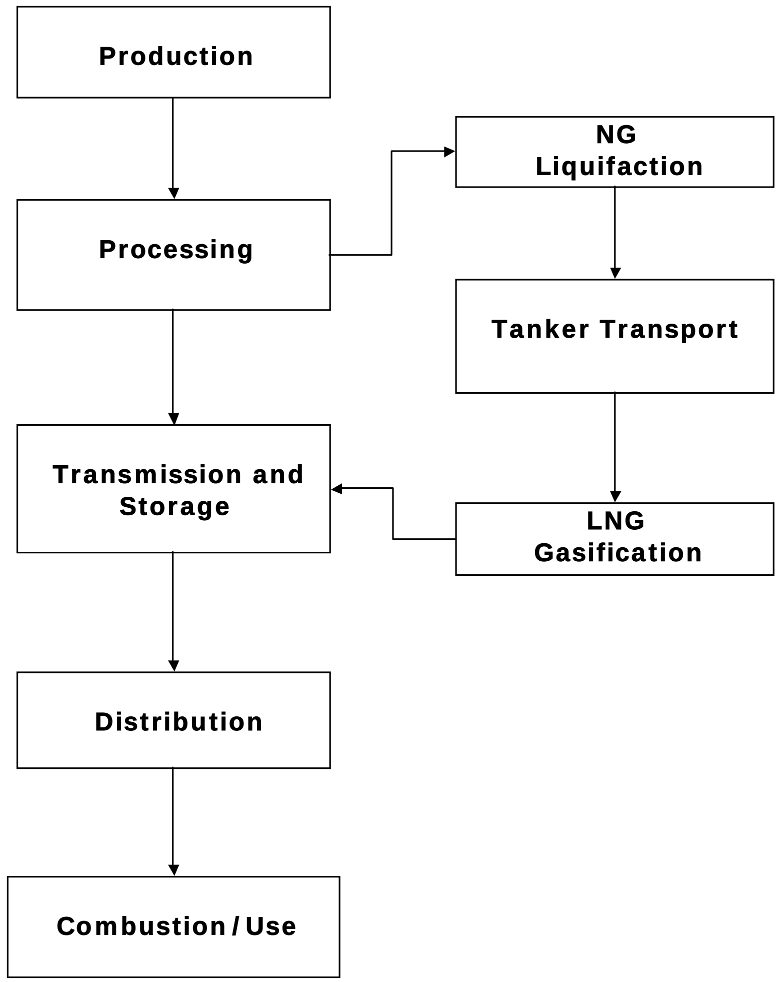

Figure 1: Natural Gas Life Cycle Including LNG.

In the liquefaction process, natural gas is cooled and pressurized to convert it to liquid form, reducing its volume by a factor of 610 (5). These liquefaction plants are generally located in coastal areas of LNG export countries. Currently 75% of the LNG imported to the US comes from Trinidad, but this percentage is expected to decrease as more imports come from Russia, the middle east, and southeast Asia (4). LNG tankers bring this gas to the US. According to EIA, there were 151 LNG tankers in operation worldwide as of October 2003. The majority of these tankers have the capacity to carry more than 120,000 cubic meters of liquefied natural gas (equivalent to 2.59 billion cubic feet of natural gas, enough gas to supply an average of 31,500 residences for a year (4)) and the total fleet capacity is 17.4 million cubic meters of liquid (equivalent to 366 billion cubic feet of natural gas). There are currently fifty-five ships under construction that will increase total fleet capacity to 25.1 million cubic meters of liquid (equivalent to 527 billion cubic feet of natural gas) in 2006 (6).

Regasification facilities are the last step LNG must pass through before going into the US pipeline system. Regasification facilities are LNG marine terminals where LNG tankers unload their gas. These facilities consist of storage tanks and vaporization equipment that warms the LNG to return it to the gaseous state. There are currently 5 LNG terminals in operation in the US: Lake Charles, Louisiana; Elba Island, Georgia; Cove Point, Maryland; Everett, Massachusetts; and a recently opened offshore terminal in the Gulf of Mexico. These terminals have a combined base load capacity of 3.05 billion cubic feet per day (about 1 trillion cubic feet per year). In addition to these there are over fifty proposed facilities for a total proposed capacity of 62 billion cubic feet per day (23 trillion cubic feet per year). Figure 2 shows the proposed location of these facilities (6).

As shown in Figure 1, natural gas combustion is the last stage in the natural gas lifecycle. In the US, natural gas is used for electricity generation, heating, and several industrial processes. Approximately 24% of the electricity generated comes from natural gas (1). Natural gas plants have heat rates that range from 5,800 BTU/kWh to 12,300 BTU/kWh (7).

US Natural Gas Industry in 2003

In 2003, the total supply of natural gas in the US was over 27 trillion cubic feet. Of this, 26.5 trillion cubic feet were produced in North America (US, Canada, and Mexico), and 0.5 trillion cubic feet were imported in the form of LNG. 75% of LNG came from Trinidad and Tobago. Other exporting countries included Algeria, Malaysia, Nigeria, Qatar, and Oman (4). Table 1 shows more detailed statistics about the state of the US natural gas industry in 2003. Numbers may not add up due to rounding.

Table 1: 2003 Natural Gas Industry Statistics (All units in million cubic feet) (4)

Gross Withdrawals	24,000,000
Total Dry Production	19,000,000
Total Supply	27,000,000
Total Consumption	22,500,000
Total Imports	4,000,000
Pipeline Imports	3,500,000
LNG Imports	505,000

Greenhouse gas emissions from Natural Gas produced in North America

During the late 1980’s and early 1990’s the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) conducted a study to determine methane emissions from the natural gas industry. This very comprehensive study developed hundreds of activity and emissions factors from all the areas of the natural industry. These factors were developed using data collected from the different sectors of the industry as well as from data collected in field measurements. Table 2 presents the percentage of produced natural gas that is emitted to the atmosphere during the lifecycle according to the results of the previously described study, as well as the source of these emissions.

Table 2: Methane Emissions from North American Gas Life Cycle as a Percentage of Natural Gas Produced (8).

Lifecycle Segment	Emission Sources	Emissions as a Percentage of Gas Produced
Production	Pneumatic Devices	0.38%
	Fugitive Emissions	
	Underground Pipeline Leaks	
	Blow and Purge	
	Compressor	
	Glycol Dehydrator	
Processing	Fugitive Emissions	0.16%
	Compressor	
	Blow and Purge	
Transmission and Storage	Fugitive Emissions	0.53%
	Blow and Purge	
	Pneumatic Devices	
	Compressor	
Distribution	Underground Pipeline Leaks	0.35%
	Meter and Pressure Stations	
	Costumer Meter	

Based on the statistics presented in Table 1, 26.5 billion cubic feet of natural gas were produced in North America in 2003. Using the percentages of natural gas emitted, an average heat content of 1,030 BTU/ft^3, and the assumption that 100% of the natural gas lost is methane (density 19.23 gr/ ft^3) which may result in a slight overestimate of emissions given that the real percentage of methane in natural gas varies between 94% and 98%; total methane emission were calculated to develop the emission factors shown in Figure 4.

In addition to methane, carbon dioxide emissions are produced from the combustion of natural gas used during the lifecycle stages previously described. The Energy Information Administration maintains records of the amount of natural gas used during the production, processing, transmission, storage, and distribution of natural gas. This data for 2003 can be seen in Table 3. Assuming that 100% of this gas is methane, total carbon dioxide emissions were found using thermodynamic calculations. These emissions were then added to methane emissions to obtain the total emission factors shown in Figure 3.

Table 3: Natural Gas Used During Natural Gas Life Cycle. (All units in million cubic feet) (4).

Flared Gas	98,000
Lease Fuel	760,000
Pipeline and Distribution Use	665,000
Plant Fuel	365,000

In 1993 the Natural Gas STAR program was established by the EPA to reduce methane emissions from the natural gas industry. The program is a voluntary partnership with the goal of encouraging industries to adopt practices that increase efficiency and reduce emissions. Since 1993, 338 billion cubic feet of methane have been eliminated. In 2003, 52,900 million cubic feet of methane emissions were eliminated, a 9% reduction over projected emissions for that year without improved practices (9). This data was used to develop a range of emission factors for the North American natural gas industry. Figure 2 shows the total range of emission factors for the North American natural gas lifecycle. It can be seen that total lifecycle emission for natural gas produced in North America are approximately 140 lbs CO_2/MMBTU, an amount dominated by combustion emissions for natural gas plants currently in operation in the US of an average 120 lbs CO_2/MMBTU (10)

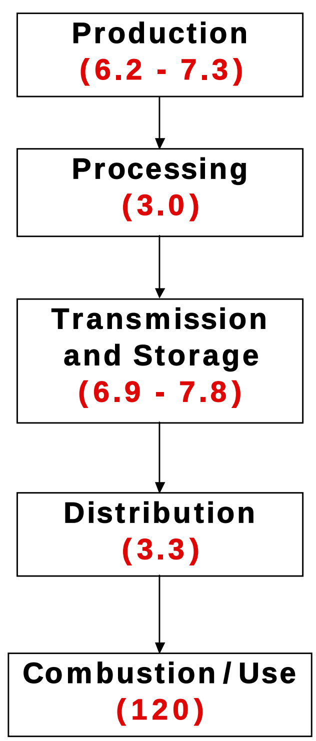

Figure 2: Carbon Dioxide Equivalent Emission Factors from North American Gas Lifecycle (All Units in lbs CO_2/MMBTU).

Greenhouse gas emissions from LNG lifecycle

As shown in Figure 1, the addition of liquefied natural gas (LNG) into the North American gas system introduces three additional stages into the lifecycle of natural gas: liquefaction, tanker transport, and regasification. It is assumed that natural gas produced in other countries and imported to the US in the form of LNG produces the same emissions in the production, processing, transmission, and distribution stages of the lifecycle as if the natural gas were produced in North America. Additional emission factors needed to be developed for the three additional lifecycle stages of LNG. Tamura et-al (11) has reported emission factors for the liquefaction stage in the range of 1.32 to 3,67 gr-C/MJ. Using these results, the emission factors for liquefaction were found in units of pounds of CO_2 per million BTUs, as shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Liquefaction Emission Factors.

Liquefaction	Emission Factors (lb CO_2/MMBTU)		
	Min	Average	Max
CO_2 from fuel combustion	11	12	13
CO_2 from flare combustion	0.00	0.77	1.5
CH_4 from vent	0.09	1.3	9.8
CO_2 in raw gas	0.09	4.0	6.6

Emissions from tanker transport of LNG were calculated using Equation 1.

$$EmissionFactor = \frac{(EF)\sum_x \left[\left(2 \times roundup\left(\frac{LNG_x}{TC} \right) \right) \times \frac{D_x}{TS} \times FC \times \frac{1}{24} \right]}{LNG_T}$$

Equation 1: Tanker Emission Factor.

Where EF is the tanker emission factor of 3,200 kg CO_2/ ton of fuel consumed; 2 is the number of trips each tanker does for every load (one bringing the LNG and one going back empty); LNG_x is the amount of natural gas (in cubic feet) brought from each country; TC is the tanker capacity in cubic feet of natural gas, assumed to be 120,000 cubic meters of LNG (1 m^3 LNG = 21,537 ft^3 NG); Dx is the distance from each country to US LNG facilities; TS is the tanker speed of 14 Knots; FC is a fuel consumption of 41 tons of fuel per day; and 24 is hours per day (12).

Exporting countries, their distances to the LNG facilities at Lake Charles, LA and Everett, MA, and the 2003 US imports can be seen in Table 5.

Table 5: LNG Exporting Countries in 2003 (4).

Exporting Country	Distance to Lake Charles Facility (nautical miles)	Distance to Everett, MA Facility (nautical miles)	2003 US Imports (million cubic feet NG)
Algeria	5,000	3,300	53,000
Australia	12,000	11,000	0
Brunei	12,000	11,000	0
Indonesia	12,000	11,000	0
Malaysia	12,000	11,000	2,700
Nigeria	6,100	5,000	50,000
Oman	8,900	7,500	8,600
Qatar	9,700	8,000	14,000
Trinidad	2,200	2,000	380,000
UAE	9,600	7,959	0
Russia	9,600	11,000	0

Emission factors for tanker transport from each country to both US facilities can be seen in Figure 3.

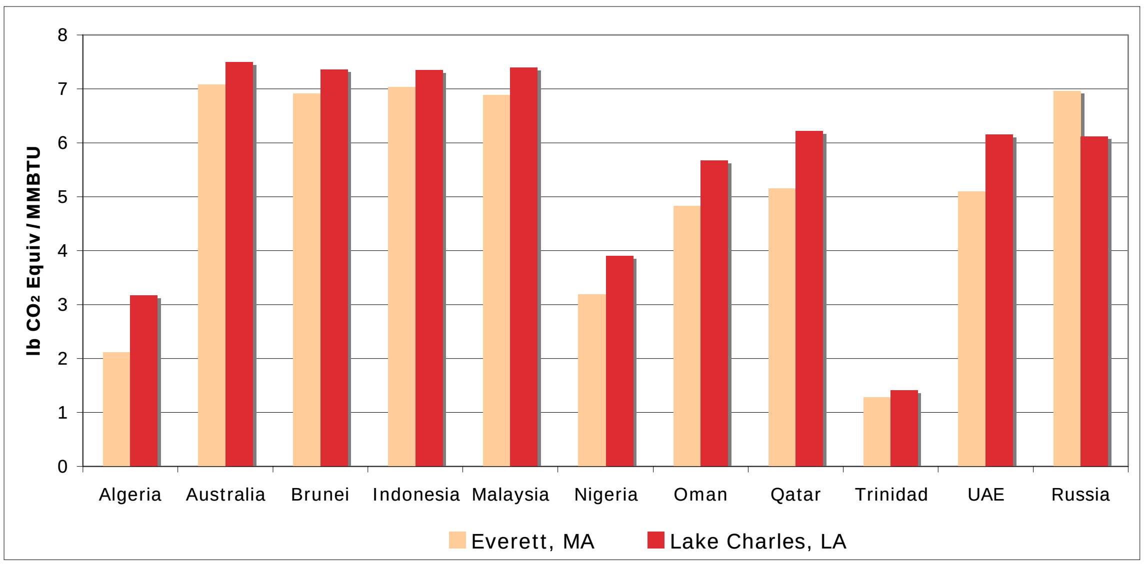

Figure 3: Tanker Emission Factors from Each Country

Since most of the LNG in 2003 was brought from Trinidad, the weighted average emission factor calculated for trips from each country to the Everett, MA facility is considered to be the a lower bound. An upper bound was obtained by assuming that all LNG was brought from Indonesia to the Lake Charles facility, and an average was obtained assuming all LNG was brought from Oman to the Lake Charles, LA facility. These resulting numbers can be seen in Table 6.

Table 6: Tanker Transport Emission Factors.

Emission Factors (lb CO_2/MMBTU)	
Min	1.8
Average	5.7
Max	7.3

Regasification emissions were reported by Tamura et-al to be 0.1 gr C/ MJ (0.85 lb CO_2/MMBTU) (11). Ruether et-al reports an emission factor of 1.6 gr CO_2/MJ (3.75 lb CO_2/MMBTU) for this stage of the LNG lifecycle by assuming that 3% of the gas is used to run the regasification equipment (13). These values were used as the lower and upper bounds of the range of emission from regasification of LNG. Total LNG lifecycle emissions are shown in Figure 4. They range between 154 and 184 lbs CO_2/MMBTU

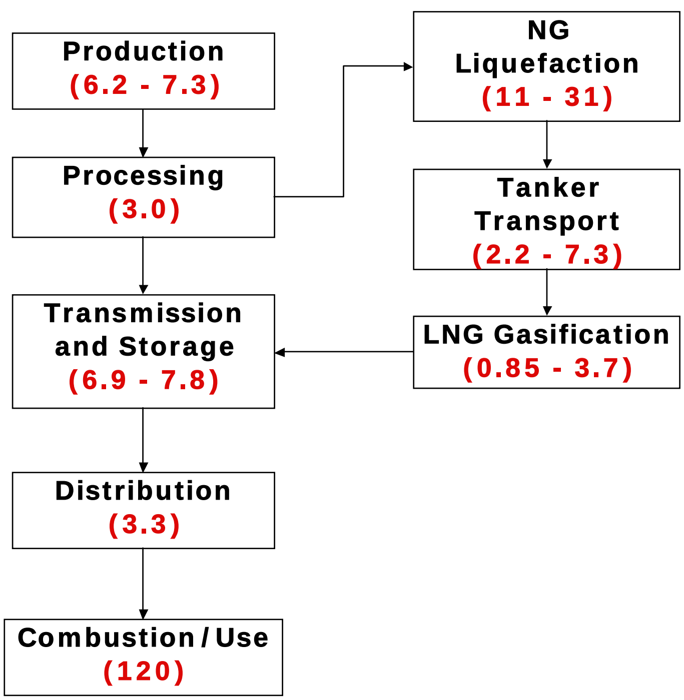

Figure 4: LNG Lifecycle Emission Factors (All Units in lbs CO_2/MMBTU).

Coal Lifecycle and its Greenhouse Gas Emissions for Electricity Generation

The coal lifecycle is conceptually simpler than the natural gas lifecycle, consisting of only three steps, as shown in Figure 5.

Figure 5: Coal Lifecycle.

In the US, 67% of the coal produced is mined in surface mines, while the remaining 33% is extracted from underground mines (1). Mined coal is then processed to remove impurities. Coal is then transported from the mines to the consumers via rail (84%), barge (11%), and trucks (5%) (14). Emissions from these lifecycle steps were calculated using the EIO-LCA tool developed at Carnegie Mellon University. In order to use this tool, economic values for each step of the lifecycle were necessary. In 1997, the year for which the EIO-LCA tool has data, the price of coal was $18.14/ton (15). Moreover, the cost for rail transport, barge, and truck transport was $11.06/ton, $3.2/ton, and $5.47/ton respectively (14). For a million tons of coal the following emission information was obtained using EIO-LCA.

Table 7: EIO-LCA Emission Data for Coal Lifecycle (16).

Sector	Total GHG Emissions (MT CO_2 Equiv)
Mining	75,000
Rail Transportation	36,000
Water Transportation	3,700
Truck Transportation	5,000

Using a weighted average US coal heat content of 10,266 BTU/lb (17) and the data previously discussed, it was found that the average emission factor for coal mining and transport is 11 lb CO_2/MMBTU.

In 1999, the National Renewable Energy Lab published a report on lifecycle emissions for power generation from coal (18). Upstream coal emissions (including transportation) from underground mines are reported to be 15 lbs CO_2/MMBTU, while upstream coal emissions from surface mines is 9.9 lbs CO_2/MMBTU. As previously mentioned, 67% of coal is currently mines in surface mines, while 33% is mined in underground mines (1). Using this information, the current coal upstream emissions average 12 lbs CO_2/MMBTU, which is very close to the emission factor obtained using EIO-LCA. In the future, the distribution of US mines could change, affecting the average emission factor. For this reason, the range of coal upstream emissions from underground and surface mines described above is used for this paper. Moreover, the average emission factors for coal combustion at utility plants used is 205 lb CO_2/MMBTU (10).

Comparing Natural Gas and Coal Lifecycle Emissions

Emissions factors for the natural gas lifecycle and the coal lifecycle were previously reported in pounds of CO_2 per MMBTU of fuel. Coal and natural gas power plants have different efficiencies; thus one million BTU of coal does not generate the same amount of electricity as one million BTU of natural gas. For this reason, emission factors must be converted to units of pounds of CO_2 per kWh of electricity generated. This conversion was done using the heat rates of natural gas and coal plants. Figure 6 shows the distribution of these heat rates, and Figure 7 shows the resulting emission factor distribution for coal and natural gas. These distributions were obtained using the cumulative distribution function of EIA electricity generation data for all utility plants in 2003 (7). The minimum value represents the heat rate at which 5% of the electricity generated with the specific fuel is seen. Similarly the mean and maximum values are the heat rates at which 50% and 95% of the electricity has been generated with each fuel. As seen in Figure 6, the average heat rate for natural gas plants is lower than the average heat rate for coal plants, however the upper range of heat rates for natural gas plants surpasses the heat rates for coal plants.

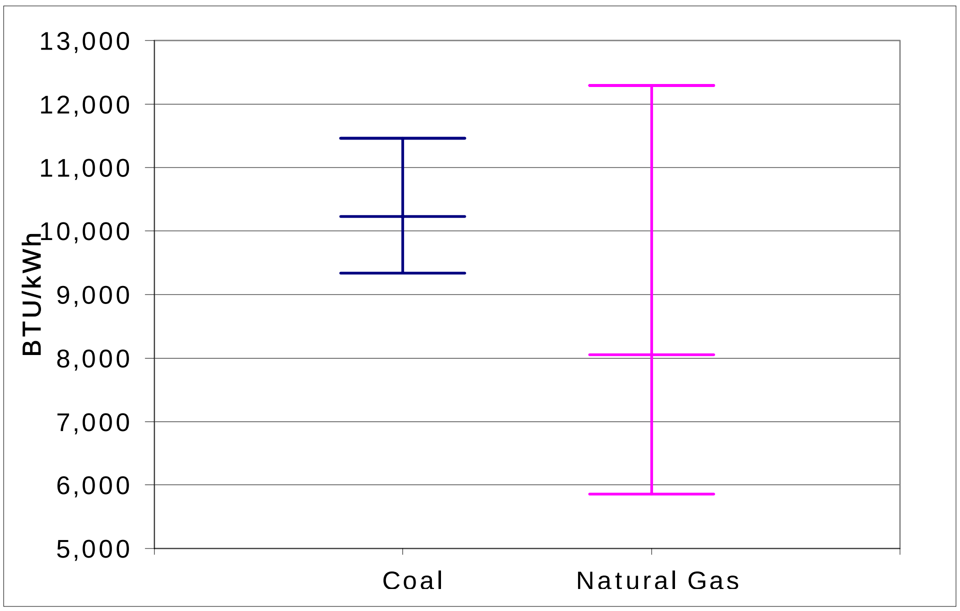

Figure 6: Natural Gas and Coal Plant Heat Rates (7).

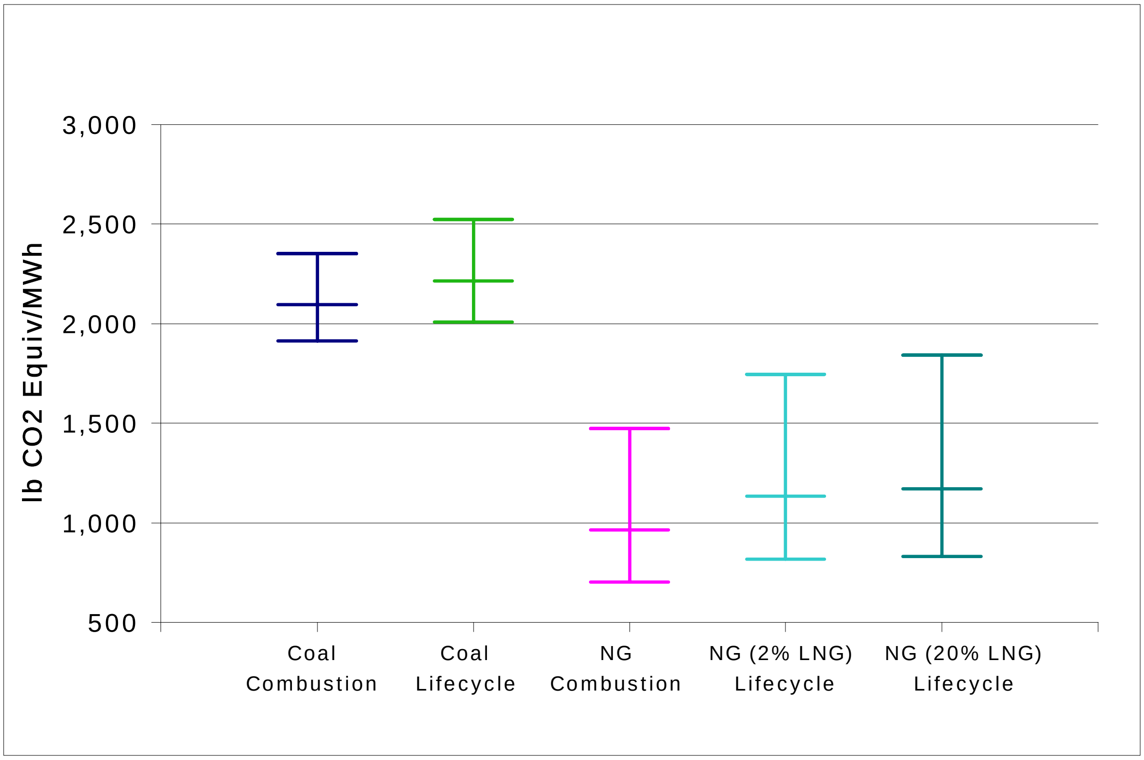

Figure 7: Emission Factors for Coal and Natural Gas Lifecycles.

Note that the average emission factor for coal combustion is higher than the emission factor for natural gas combustion. This does not change too much when the whole lifecycle is considered. More important seems to be the effect that including upstream emissions have in the range of emission factors for natural gas. While the average emission factor for the total coal lifecycle only increases by 5% compared to combustion emissions, the average emission factor for a natural gas mix with 20% LNG is 21% higher than the combustion emissions. Moreover, the maximum emission factor of the natural gas lifecycle gets closer to the minimum coal lifecycle emission factor. These results imply that if emissions at the combustion stage of the lifecycle could be controlled, natural gas would not be a much better alternative to coal in terms of greenhouse gas emissions.

New Generation Capacity

According to the DOE, by 2025 43 GW of inefficient gas and oil fired facilities will be retired, while 281 GW of new capacity will be installed (3). IGGC and NGCC power plants will probably be installed. These plants are generally more efficient than current technologies (average HHV Efficiencies are 37.5% and 50.2% respectively) (19) and thus have lower carbon emissions at the combustion stage. In addition, carbon capture and sequestration (CCS) can be performed more easily with these newer technologies. CCS is a process by which carbon emissions at the power plant are separated from other combustion products, captured and injected into underground geologic formations such as saline formations and depleted oil/gas fields. Experts believe that 90% CCS will be technologically and economically feasible in the future. Having CCS at IGCC and NGCC plants decreases the efficiency of the plants to average HHV efficiencies of 32.4% and 42.8% respectively (19) but overall lifecycle emissions would be greatly reduced and would be essentially the same for coal and natural gas (with 20% LNG). However, the major contributor for coal emissions would be at the combustion stage, while for natural gas the majority of the emissions would come from upstream processes. Figure 8, shows total emissions with CCS for IGCC and NGCC plants using average upstream emission factors of 11.6 lbs CO_2 Equiv/MMBTU and 25.6 lbs CO_2 Equiv/MMBTU for coal and natural gas respectively

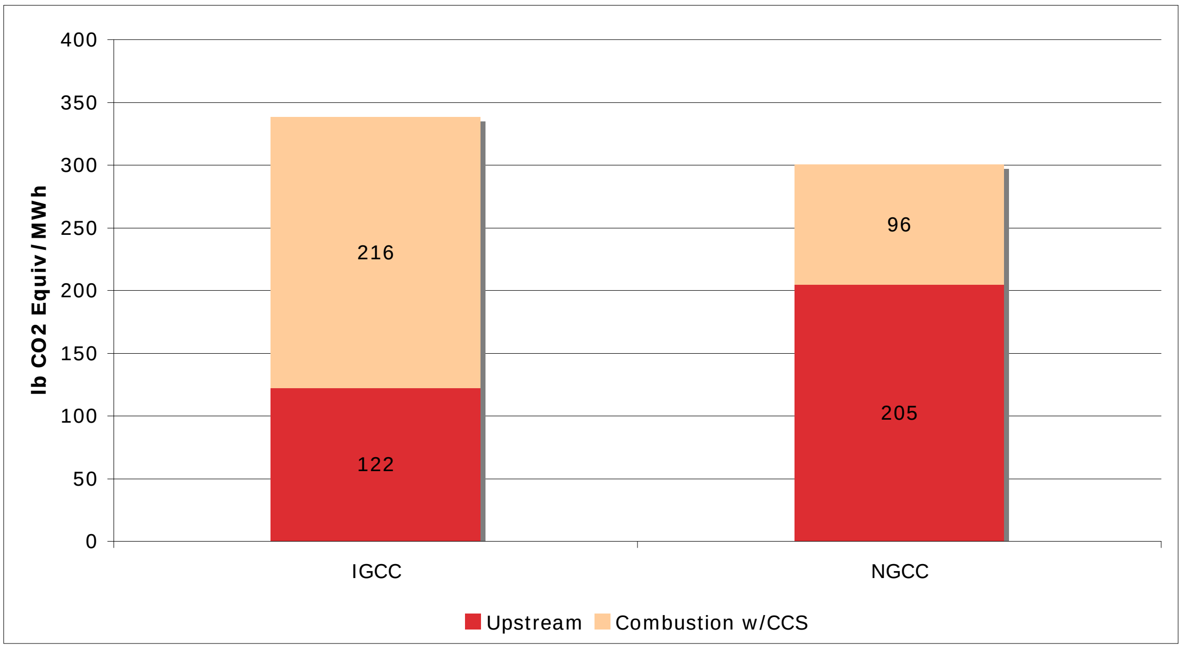

Figure 8: Lifecycle Emission Factors for IGCC and NGCC plants w/ CCS.

Discussion

It has been shown that there is high uncertainty about overall lifecycle carbon emissions for coal and LNG. In the future, as newer generation technologies and CCS are installed, overall emissions from electricity generated with coal and electricity generated with natural gas could be surprisingly similar. There is push right now from power generator to increase import of LNG. They seem to hope that the price of natural gas will decrease with these imports and they will be able to recover the investment they made in natural gas plants that are currently producing under capacity. These investments should be considered sunk costs and it is important to revaluate whether investing billions of dollars in LNG infrastructure will lead us into an energy path that cannot be easily changed as it will be harder to consider these investments as sunk costs once the expected environmental benefits are not achieved.

The analysis presented here only includes carbon emission, and no consideration was given to issues like energy security. Increasingly, LNG will come from areas of the world that are politically unstable. Policymakers should evaluate this increased dependence on foreign fuel before making decisions about future energy investments. In addition, the analysis presented only considers the use of natural gas for electricity generation. Natural gas is an indispensable fuel for many sectors of the US economy. As demand for natural gas from the electric utilities increases, these other sectors will probably be affected by higher natural gas prices. It is important to analyze whether these other sectors constitute a better use for natural gas than electricity generation, which has alternative fuels at its disposal.

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TESTIMONY OF JAMES BRADBURY

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WORLD RESOURCES INSTITUTE

HEARING BEFORE THE U.S. HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES ENERGY AND COMMERCE SUBCOMMITTEE ON ENERGY AND POWER:
"U.S. ENERGY ABUNDANCE:
EXPORTS AND THE CHANGING GLOBAL ENERGY LANDSCAPE"

May 7, 2013

Summary of Key Points:

Liquefied natural gas (LNG) exports present both opportunities and risks. Producing and delivering natural gas to customers is highly energy- and emissions-intensive, particularly when LNG is involved. Research by the World Resources Institute has found that cuts in upstream methane leakage from natural gas systems are among the most important steps the U.S. can take toward meeting our greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions reduction goals by 2020 and beyond.

This testimony focuses on fugitive methane emissions and the many cost-effective solutions available for reducing them. It appears very likely that LNG exports from U.S. terminals would result in increased domestic GHG emissions from both upstream and downstream sources. Policymakers should more actively work to help achieve reductions in GHG emissions from throughout the natural gas value chain, if this valuable fuel and LNG are to be part of the solution to the climate change problem. Taking these actions offer economic, environmental, and geopolitical benefits, both in the U.S. and internationally. To this end, I offer the following policy recommendations:

- Expand applied technology research programs at the U.S. Department of Energy to help reduce the cost of leak-detection and emissions measurement technologies, and to develop new and lower-cost emission reduction strategies.
- Update emissions factors for natural gas systems using robust measurement protocols, public reporting by industry, and independent verification.
- Authorize and appropriate funding for the organization STRONGER (State Review of Oil and Natural Gas Environmental Regulations) to help states with timely development and evaluation of their environmental regulations.
- Support voluntary programs at the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), including Natural Gas STAR and other programs which recognize companies that demonstrate a commitment to best practices.
- Support EPA's efforts to provide technical and regulatory assistance to states with expanding oil and natural gas development, including through the Ozone Advance Program.
- Enact policies to support clean energy and address climate change. A clean energy standard or putting a price on carbon would provide clear signals to energy markets that energy providers and users need to recognize the environmental and social costs as well as the direct economic costs of energy resources.

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May 7, 2013

Good morning, and thank you for the opportunity to contribute to the deliberations of this Subcommittee. My name is James Bradbury, and I am a senior associate in the Climate and Energy Program at the World Resources Institute (WRI). WRI is a non-profit, non-partisan think tank that focuses on the intersection of the environment and socio-economic development. We go beyond research to put ideas into action, working globally with governments, business, and civil society to build transformative solutions that protect the earth and improve people's lives. We operate globally because today's problems know no boundaries. We provide innovative paths to a sustainable planet through work that is accurate, fair, and independent.

Summary

I am pleased to be here today to offer WRI's perspective on the climate implications of U.S. liquefied natural gas (LNG) exports. I encourage this committee to weigh a complete consideration of the associated economic and geopolitical opportunities next to the potential risks, neither of which have been fully considered in the public debate. In particular, it appears very likely that LNG exports from U.S. terminals would result in increased domestic greenhouse

gas (GHG) emissions. For example, analysis by the Energy Information Administration (EIA)[1] concluded that any scenario of LNG exports would trigger an increase in domestic carbon dioxide (CO_2) emissions, due to an increase in coal-fired electricity and use of natural gas for the energy-intensive liquefaction process at LNG terminals. The EIA also projected an increase in natural gas production from shale wells. Though not considered in the EIA study, an inevitable consequence would be greater upstream air emissions from natural gas infrastructure – that is, emissions that occur prior to fuel combustion – including fugitive methane, which is a potent global warming pollutant. While LNG exports from the U.S. are widely expected to marginally reduce global CO_2 emissions, modeling to date suggests that the scale of these reductions is less than ten percent of the total levels of global fugitive methane emissions from natural gas and oil systems.

These facts should raise the bar for policymakers and advocates for LNG exports to more actively work to achieve continuous improvement in GHG emissions from all life cycle stages (from extraction to use), if natural gas and LNG are to be part of the solution to our climate change problem. Furthermore, to the extent that substantial LNG exports from the U.S. move forward, our national policy objectives should be broader than simply improving our balance of trade vis-à-vis fossil fuel exports to increase our economic and geopolitical standing. We also have an important – indeed urgent – opportunity to improve our economic and geopolitical standing by showing leadership in addressing global climate change. We can do through policies

[1] See: http://www.fossil.energy.gov/programs/gasregulation/reports/fe_eia_lng.pdf

that promote the development, deployment, and export of low-carbon products and services[2] to help enable global GHG emissions reductions from all sectors, including through technologies and practices that allow the cleaner production and more efficient end-use of natural gas.

Today I will focus in particular on fugitive methane emissions[3] and the cost-effective solutions available for reducing them.[4] The case for policy action is particularly strong considering that recent research shows that climate change is happening faster than expected. In addition, the projected expansion in domestic oil and natural gas production increases the risk of higher GHG emissions if proper protections are not in place.

- Methane is the primary component of natural gas and also a potent greenhouse gas. Methane leaked from natural gas systems (i.e., fugitive methane) represent lost product and reduced revenue for companies and governments, with negative consequences for air quality and the environment.
- Fugitive methane emissions from natural gas systems represent roughly 3 percent of global warming pollution in the U.S. Reductions in methane emissions are urgently needed as part of the broader effort to slow the rate of global temperature rise.
- Although natural gas burns much cleaner than coal or oil, fugitive methane emissions significantly reduce this relative advantage, from a climate standpoint; therefore, cutting

[2] For more information on low-carbon market opportunities, see Jennifer Morgan's testimony, here: http://www.wri.org/publication/testimony-american-energy-security-and-innovation-assessment-of-energy-resources

[3] While this testimony focuses on greenhouse gas emissions – and methane emissions from natural gas systems, in particular – WRI is committed to minimizing the full scope of impacts cause by energy production and use. It is critical for U.S. energy policies to be developed with consideration to a broad range of risks and benefits.

[4] For more detailed analysis and discussion of this topic, see WRI's recent working paper, "Clearing the Air: Reducing Upstream Greenhouse Gas Emissions from U.S. Natural Gas Systems." Available at: http://www.wri.org/publication/clearing-the-air

fugitive emissions from natural gas systems would ensure that the climate impacts of natural gas are much lower than coal or diesel fuel over any time horizon.

- Recent emissions standards from the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) will substantially reduce leakage from natural gas systems, but to help slow the rate of global warming pollution and improve air quality, further action by states and federal agencies should directly address fugitive methane from new and existing wells and equipment.
- Fortunately, most strategies for reducing fugitive methane emissions are cost-effective, with payback periods of three years or less. A recent WRI report found that cuts in methane leakage from natural gas systems are among the most important steps the U.S. can take toward meeting our GHG emissions reduction goals.[5]
- The process of liquefaction, transport, and regasification of LNG is highly emissions-intensive, increasing by 15 percent the total life cycle GHG emissions associated with exported U.S. natural gas, compared to natural gas that is produced and consumed domestically. These added upstream emissions also significantly reduce the relative advantage that natural gas would have over higher-emitting fuels, like coal and oil.
- The following policy actions by Congress would help reduce methane emissions as cost-effectively and quickly as possible:
    - Expand applied technology research programs at the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) to help reduce the cost of leak-detection and emissions measurement technologies, and to develop new and lower-cost emission reduction strategies.

[5] See: "Can the U.S. Get There from Here? Using Existing Federal Laws and State Actions to Reduce Greenhouse Gas Emissions," available at: http://www.wri.org/publication/can-us-get-there-from-here.

    - Update emissions factors for natural gas systems using robust measurement protocols, public reporting by industry, and independent verification.
    - Authorize and appropriate funding for the organization STRONGER (State Review of Oil and Natural Gas Environmental Regulations) to help states with timely development and evaluation of their environmental regulations.
    - Support voluntary programs at EPA, including Natural Gas STAR and other programs which recognize companies that demonstrate a commitment to best practices.
    - Support EPA's efforts to provide technical and regulatory assistance to states with expanding oil and natural gas development, including through the Ozone Advance Program.
- Broader action on policies supporting clean energy and addressing climate change should also be on the table. A clean energy standard or putting a price on carbon would provide clear signals to energy markets that energy providers and users need to recognize the environmental and social costs as well as the direct economic costs of energy resources.

Finally, every day that we take no policy action on climate change, we make the policy choice to let climate change run its course. This ignores the overwhelming consensus of climate scientists who have been warning for decades that rising GHG emissions will cause the planet to warm, sea levels to rise, and weather to become more extreme. It is indisputable that these climate changes are happening today, in many cases much more quickly than expected. Action is urgently needed.

LNG Exports, the Public Interest, and Climate Change

When reviewing grant applications for LNG export authorizations, DOE is required to determine if proposed exports “will not be consistent with the public interest." In making this finding, DOE is considering a range of factors, including economic, energy security, and environmental impacts.[6] The climate change implications of LNG exports touches on each of these factors and therefore deserves more careful consideration by Congress and DOE.

The January 2012 study by EIA included a useful but limited assessment of the climate change implications of LNG exports, while the NERA Economic Consulting report (December 2012) was more narrowly focused on macroeconomic considerations.[7] This testimony focuses particular attention to how LNG exports – and increased production of natural gas more broadly – could affect domestic and international GHG emissions, which is clearly a question of relevance to the public interest.

There is no doubt that our climate is already changing in ways that are increasingly risky, difficult to manage, and harmful to public health and the environment.[8] Recent science assessments – including by the U.S. National Academy of Sciences and the U.S. Global Change Research Program[9] – agree that GHG emissions are very likely causing higher global temperatures, rising sea levels, and more frequent extreme weather events. National science

[6] See: http://www.fossil.energy.gov/programs/gasregulation/LNGStudy.html
[7] Both reports are available here: http://www.fossil.energy.gov/programs/gasregulation/LNGStudy.html
[8] National Academies, Committee on Climate Choices, Final Report, 2011. http://dels.nas.edu/Report/America-Climate-Choices-2011/12781
[9] http://ncadac.globalchange.gov/download/NCAJan11-2013-publicreviewdraft-fulldraft.pdf

academies from over a dozen countries, including the U.S., have expressly urged governments to take urgent action to curb these harmful emissions.[10]

The current U.S. commitment to the international community is to reduce GHG emissions below 2005 levels by 17 percent in 2020 and 83 percent in 2050.[11] While a shift in electric generation to natural gas from coal has played a significant role in recent reductions in U.S. carbon dioxide emissions, this market-driven trend in the power sector has reversed somewhat in recent months, as natural gas prices have been increasing.[12] Furthermore, GHG emissions from all major sources will need to be addressed for the U.S. to help achieve climate stabilization at 2° Celsius, which the international community has agreed to be an appropriate and relatively safe target. A recent report by the World Bank[13] found that the world is on track for at least a 4° Celsius increase in global temperatures, which would be extremely damaging to global development goals and be "marked by extreme heat-waves, declining global food stocks, loss of ecosystems and biodiversity, and life-threatening sea level rise." However, the World Bank also concluded that there is still time to enact policies that would help avoid this outcome.

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[10] G8+5 Academies' joint statement: Climate change and the transformation of energy technologies for a low carbon future. http://www.nationalacademies.org/includes/G8+5energy-climate09.pdf

[11] See: http://unfccc.int/files/meetings/cop_15/copenhagen_accord/application/pdf/unitedstatescphaccord_app.1.pdf

[12] See: http://insights.wri.org/news/2013/03/new-data-reveals-rising-coal-use

[13] See: http://climatechange.worldbank.org/content/climate-change-report-warns-dramatically-warmer-world-century

Concerns about the environmental impacts of shale gas development

Natural gas production in the United States has increased rapidly in recent years, growing by 23 percent from 2007 to 2012.[14] This development has significantly changed projections of the future energy mix in the U.S. The shale gas phenomenon has also helped reduce energy prices, directly and indirectly supporting growth for many sectors of the U.S. economy, including manufacturing. The EIA projects that the United States will begin exporting LNG within 5 years and that the country will be a net natural gas exporter by the year 2020.[15]

Shale gas development has also triggered divisive debates over the near- and long-term environmental implications of developing and using these resources, including concerns about water resources, air quality, and land and community impacts.[16] Like all forms of energy, including conventional natural gas, there are public health and environmental risks associated with shale gas development. Chief among public concerns are drinking water contamination resulting from improper wastewater management, chemical spills, and underground methane migration into groundwater. There are also concerns regarding air emissions, and land-related impacts including habitat fragmentation and soil erosion. Other common concerns involve community impacts related to industrial development and extensive truck traffic. In 2011, the Secretary of Energy Advisory Board's Natural Gas Subcommittee warned[17] that "disciplined attention must be devoted to reducing the environmental impact" of shale gas development in the

[14] See: http://www.eia.gov/forecasts/aeo/index.cfm

[15] ibid

[16] For more detailed discussions of the broader environmental impacts of natural gas development, see: http://www.gao.gov/products/GAO-12-732; and http://www.rff.org/Documents/RFF-Rpt-PathwaystoDialogue_FullReport.pdf

[17] http://www.shalegas.energy.gov/resources/111811_final_report.pdf

face of its expected continued rapid growth, with as many as 100,000 more wells expected over the next few decades.

Of particular concern are the air emissions and climate change implications of shale gas development, including fugitive methane emissions, which reduce the net climate benefits of using lower-carbon natural gas as a substitute for coal and oil for electricity generation and transportation, respectively. Other air emissions from the natural gas sector include CO_2, volatile organic compounds (VOCs, which are chemicals that contribute to ground-level ozone and smog), and hazardous air pollutants (HAPs). In 2012, EPA finalized air pollution standards for VOCs and HAPs from the oil and natural gas sector. These rules will improve air quality and have the co-benefit of reducing methane emissions. As discussed below (see p. 18, "Progress is Being Made but There is More Work to Be Done"), these standards should be complemented by additional actions to further reduce methane emissions, which will help slow the rate of global temperature rise in the coming decades.

From the standpoint of CO_2 emissions, shale gas development and lower natural gas prices have contributed to recent emissions reductions in the U.S. However, GHG emissions are projected to rise, and market forces and voluntary actions alone will not enable an effective response to climate change. Thus broad policy action will be needed. For example, analysis by the International Energy Agency (IEA)[18] found that a significant global increase in use of natural gas over the coming decades could have some net climate benefits compared to scenarios in which oil and coal play more prominent roles. However, the IEA's "Golden Rules Case" scenario

[18] International Energy Agency, "Golden Rules for a Golden Age of Gas." Available at: http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/media/weowebsite/2012/goldenrules/weo2012_goldenrulesreport.pdf

would result in CO_2 concentrations in the atmosphere of 650 parts per million (ppm) and a global temperature rise of 3.5° Celsius, almost twice the internationally accepted 2° Celsius target. Economic modeling conducted by researchers at MIT[19] and Resources for the Future[20] have also found that while greater use of natural gas may offer some climate benefits, climate and energy policies will be needed to reduce CO_2 emissions by anywhere near our 83 percent target by mid-century. While natural gas will likely play an essential bridging role in this transition, this will require both reducing the upstream GHGs produced during the extraction process, and ─ if gas-fired power plants are to be a part of a longer-term energy future ─ using carbon capture and storage (CCS) technology.

Why Focus on Methane Emissions?

Though methane accounted for only 10 percent of the U.S. greenhouse gas emissions inventory in 2010 (Figure 1),[21] it represents one of the most important opportunities for reducing GHG emissions in the U.S.[22] In addition to the scale and cost-effectiveness of the reduction opportunities, climate research scientists have concluded that cutting methane emissions in the near term could slow the rate of global temperature rise over the next several decades.[23]

[19] See: http://globalchange.mit.edu/research/publications/2229

[20] See: http://www.rff.org/RFF/Documents/RFF-IB-09-11.pdf

[21] Note: all GHG inventory numbers referred to in this testimony were adjusted to reflect a more current global warming potential (GWP) for methane of 25 (IPCC 2007). This is necessary because when EPA converts methane to carbon dioxide equivalents they use an out-of-date GWP for methane of 21 (IPCC 1995), for the sake of consistency with UNFCCC reporting guidelines.

[22] See: "Can the U.S. Get There from Here? Using Existing Federal Laws and State Actions to Reduce Greenhouse Gas Emissions," available at: http://www.wri.org/publication/can-us-get-there-from-here.

[23] National Research Council, 2011. "Climate Stabilization Targets: Emissions, Concentrations, and Impacts over Decades to Millennia," ISBN: 0-309-15177-5, 298 pages. http://www.nap.edu/catalog/12877.html

Rising methane concentrations in the atmosphere have a potent, near-term warming effect because this greenhouse gas has a relatively high global warming potential and short atmospheric lifetime (IPCC 2007). Global warming potential (GWP) is a measure of the total energy that a gas absorbs over a particular period of time (usually 100 years), compared to carbon dioxide. Key factors affecting the GWP of any given gas include its average atmospheric lifetime and the ability of that molecule to trap heat. By mass, the same amount of methane emissions is 25 times more potent than carbon dioxide emissions over a 100-year time horizon (IPCC 2007). In the 20-year time frame, studies estimate that methane's GWP is at least 72 times greater than that of carbon dioxide.

Scientists at the National Research Council of the U.S. National Academy of Sciences have concluded that global CO_2 emissions need to be reduced in the coming decades by at least 80 percent to stabilize atmospheric CO_2 concentrations and thereby avoid the worst impacts of global climate change.[24] However, given the slow pace of progress in the U.S. in this regard, it is valuable and important for policymakers to consider cost-effective mitigation strategies – such as cutting methane emissions – that would have a disproportionate short-term impact.

How Emissions-Intensive is U.S. Natural Gas?

EPA estimates that total emissions from the development, transmission, and use of natural gas in the U.S. made up roughly a quarter of the total U.S. GHG inventory in 2011.[25] While natural gas emits about half as much carbon dioxide as coal at the point of combustion, the picture is more

[24] Ibid.
[25] Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990-2011 (April 2013). http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/ghgemissions/usinventoryreport.html

complicated from a life cycle perspective. Three percent of the U.S. inventory is the result of fugitive methane emissions from natural gas systems[26] – i.e., natural gas lost to the atmosphere through venting and systemic leaks, prior to the point of combustion. To put this in perspective, in 2011, these methane leaks resulted in more GHG emissions[27] than all of the direct and indirect GHG emissions from U.S. iron and steel, cement, and aluminum manufacturing combined.[28]

EPA's 2013 GHG inventory implies a methane leakage rate of less than 2 percent of total natural gas production. Meanwhile, recent research[29] has shown that at less than a 3 percent leakage rate, natural gas produces fewer GHG emissions than coal over any time horizon. Additionally, reducing the methane leakage rate to below 1 percent would ensure that heavy-duty vehicles fueled by natural gas, like buses and long-haul trucks, would provide an immediate climate benefit over similar vehicles fueled by diesel. Thus, reducing total methane leakage to less than 1 percent of natural gas production is a sensible performance standard for the sector; an achievable benchmark that has not yet been reached.

Accurate estimates of the total leakage rate from the natural gas sector require reliable data for a broad range of industry activities and emissions factors associated with those activities. While EPA has recently updated industry activity data, most of the emissions factors rely on assumed emissions factors – as opposed to direct measurements, which are generally rare and often

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[26] The GHG inventory estimates 6.9 million metric tons of fugitive methane from natural gas systems in 2011.

[27] This estimate is based on an assumed global warming potential for methane of 25, which is the convention when considering the climate implications of methane compared to carbon dioxide, integrated over a 100-year time frame (IPCC, 2007).

[28] See: http://www.energetics.com/resourcecenter/products/roadmaps/Pages/USManufacturingEnergyUseandGreenhouseGasEmissionsAnalysis.aspx

[29] See: http:// www.pnas.org/content/109/17/6435

outdated. Some recently published research suggests that emissions levels may be higher than EPA estimates; this, coupled with high ground-level ozone levels in Colorado and Texas and rural parts of Utah and Wyoming (i.e., smog that is attributed to shale gas production activities), suggests that the emissions problem may be worse than we think, and certainly subject to regional variations.[30]

With hundreds of thousands of wells and thousands of natural gas producers operating in the U.S., the data quality issue will likely remain an active debate, even as forthcoming data from EPA and other sources in the coming months aims to clarify these questions.[31] In its November 2011 final report, the Secretary of Energy Advisory Board recommended that natural gas companies measure and disclose air emissions from shale wells.[32] Indeed, what remains lacking is a valid system for direct measurement and independent verification of emissions data reported by this sector.[33]

Nevertheless, while uncertainties remain regarding exact methane leakage rates, the weight of evidence suggests that significant leakage occurs during every life cycle stage of U.S. natural gas systems and much more can be done to reduce these emissions cost-effectively. A recent expert

[30] Recent research based on field measurements of ambient air near natural gas well-fields in Colorado and Utah suggest that more than 4 percent of well production may be leaking into the atmosphere at some production-stage operations. For more discussion of questions regarding the quality and availability of methane emissions data, see Appendix 3 of "Clearing the Air," here: http://www.wri.org/publication/clearing-the-air.

[31] For example, independent researchers at the University of Texas at Austin are teaming up with the Environmental Defense Fund and several industry partners to directly measure methane emissions from several key sources. When results are published in 2013 and 2014, these data will provide valuable points of reference to help inform this important discussion.

[32] See: http://www.shalegas.energy.gov/

[33] Such systems and protocols have been developed for tracking emissions from other sources. For example, see: http://www.epa.gov/etv/vt-ams.html

survey by Resources for the Future[34] identified methane emissions as a “consensus environmental risk” that should be addressed through government and industry actions.

How Will LNG Exports Affect Greenhouse Gas Emissions?

To the extent that it is displacing higher-carbon fuels such as coal and oil, natural gas has the potential to help reduce total greenhouse gas emissions. This is particularly true as long as upstream emissions associated with natural gas are minimized and ideally methane leakage is kept below 1 percent of total production, as discussed above.

That said, the potential for LNG exports raises three primary concerns from a climate perspective.

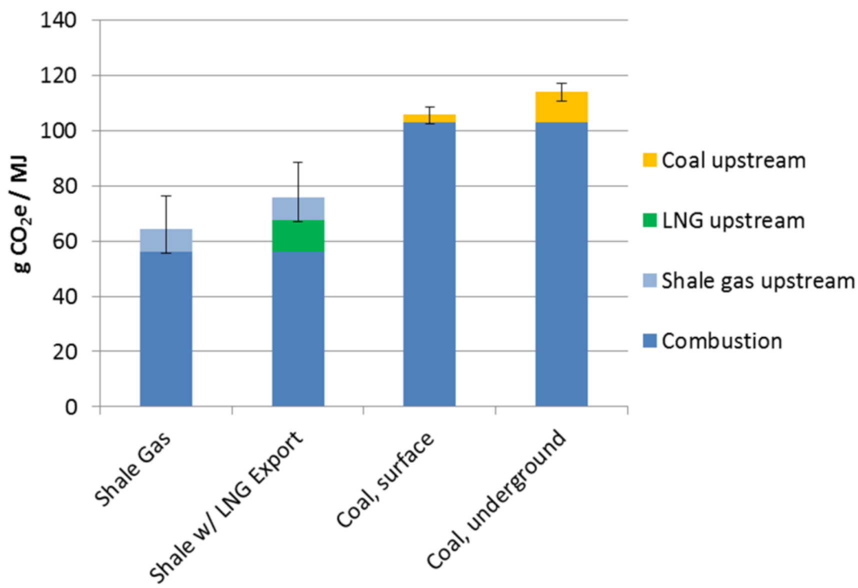
1) The first area of concern involves upstream GHG emissions associated with increased onshore natural gas production. EIA projects that LNG exports would result in increased domestic production of natural gas, with roughly three quarters of this from shale sources. As shown in Figure 1, there are significant upstream GHG emissions (both CO_2 and methane) associated with shale gas production in the U.S. Given continued uncertainty around the actual level of methane emissions over the lifetime of both conventional and unconventional gas wells,[35] this projected market response could result in substantially higher levels of GHG emissions from throughout U.S. natural gas systems. The good news is that there are many ways to cost-effectively reduce upstream methane emissions; we encourage government and industry to do more to realize this

[34] See: http://www.rff.org/Documents/RFF-Rpt-PathwaystoDialogue_FullReport.pdf

[35] Most studies estimate that upstream GHG emissions from conventional and unconventional gas sources are roughly comparable, within the margin of error.

opportunity (see p. 20 below, “Further Potential to Reduce Fugitive Methane Emissions”).

Figure 1: Estimated Life Cycle Greenhouse Gas Emissions from U.S. Shale Gas, LNG Exports, and Coal



Sources: Bradbury et al. 2013; Weber and Clavin, 2012; NETL, 2012; Burnham et al. 2011

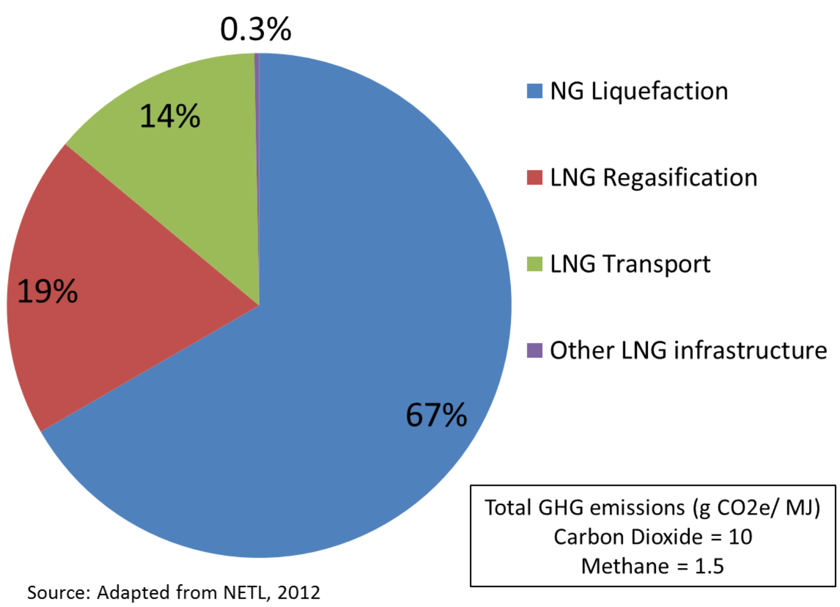
2) The second area of concern is with respect to the liquefaction, transport, and regasification of LNG exports. According to a 2012 Natural Gas Technology Assessment by the National Energy Technology Lab (NETL),[36] these energy- and emissions-intensive processes would add roughly 15 percent[37] to total life cycle GHG emissions associated with U.S. onshore natural gas production (see Figure 1, above, “LNG upstream”). These added upstream emissions significantly reduce the relative advantage that natural gas

[36] NETL (National Energy Technology Laboratory). 2012. Role of Alternative Energy Sources: Natural Gas Technology Assessment. National Energy Technology Laboratory, U.S. Department of Energy. Available at: http://www.netl.doe.gov/energy-analyses/refshelf/PubDetails.aspx?Action=View&PubId=435

[37] Based on data provided in Appendix B of the NETL (2012) report, we calculate 11.5 grams of CO_2 equivalent per megajoule (g CO2e/MJ) of natural gas exported, which we added to estimated life cycle emissions associated with shale gas production, after the recent EPA rule takes effect (8.25 g CO2e/MJ), and typical estimate of final combustion of natural gas (56 g CO2e/MJ).

would have over higher-emitting fuels like coal.[38] The chart below illustrates the relative contributions of each process to total GHGs associated with LNG exports; liquefaction is the most emissions-intensive process, followed by regasification and transport. It is also worth noting that natural gas liquefaction emissions would occur at domestic LNG terminals, adding to total U.S. GHG emissions.

Figure 2: Life Cycle GHG Emissions from LNG Terminals, Transport, and Infrastructure



3) The third area of concern is the indirect domestic and international energy market implications of U.S. LNG exports. EIA's 2012 report to DOE found that LNG exports would raise domestic prices for natural gas, making natural gas relatively less competitive compared to other energy sources in the U.S., resulting in greater use of coal

[38] Note that the data presented in Figure 1 show life cycle emissions estimates for the domestic production of natural gas and coal, with upstream LNG numbers assuming LNG exported from Trinidad and Tobago and imported in Louisiana. Ideally, this figure would offer a direct comparison between life cycle emissions from domestic shale gas production and export versus coal or fuel oil in the country of import. However, such data are not readily available at this time.

and higher levels of GHG emissions under all LNG export scenarios.[39] The global GHG implications of LNG exports from the U.S. is harder to assess, but the basic picture is that more gas would be sold into international markets, which would help reduce carbon dioxide emissions as long as it displaced higher-carbon fuel sources. Given the extensive scale of planned coal-fired power plants around the world[40] and accounting for the prevalence of energy-efficient technologies available for natural gas combustion,[41] this is a reasonable assumption. On the other hand, a greater abundance of lower-priced natural gas in global energy markets (supported by U.S. LNG exports) is also expected to increase total energy use and displace some lower-carbon renewable and nuclear energy sources, which will increase GHG emissions in markets where lower-carbon technologies have become relatively cost-effective. Taking all of these factors into consideration, IEA projections[42, 43] find that greater supplies of natural gas would lead to net annual reductions in global CO_2 emissions of 0.5 percent by 2035.[44] The report concludes that "while a greater role for natural gas in the global energy mix does bring environmental benefits where it substitutes for other fossil fuels, natural gas cannot on its own provide the answer to the challenge of climate change."

[39] The EIA estimates increases in U.S. CO_2 emissions between 9 and 75 MMt per year, from 2015 to 2035.
[40] See: http://www.wri.org/publication/global-coal-risk-assessment
[41] See: http://www.c2es.org/technology/factsheet/natural-gas
[42] See: http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/goldenageofgas/
[43] See: http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/media/weowebsite/2011/WEO2011_GoldenAgeofGasReport.pdf
[44] In their 2011 special report on natural gas, the IEA estimated that the GAS Scenario would lead to 35.3 gigatonnes (Gt) energy-related CO_2 emissions in 2035, with annual reduction of 160 million metric tons (MMt), in that year (compared to their "New Policies Scenario"). In their 2012 special report, the IEA reached a similar conclusion, estimating 184 MMt of annual reductions in global energy-related CO_2 emissions in 2035 with their "Golden Rules Case" (compared to a baseline), with global emissions rising to 36.8 gigatonnes (Gt) in the same year.

In summary, available evidence suggests that LNG exports from the U.S. would marginally reduce global CO_2 emissions, although the scale of these estimated GHG emissions savings is an order of magnitude lower than the total projected levels of global methane emissions from natural gas and oil systems.[45] Meanwhile, it appears very likely that LNG exports from U.S. terminals would result in increased domestic GHG emissions from both upstream and downstream sources.

These expected outcomes should raise the bar for policymakers and industry to more actively work to achieve continuous improvement in GHG emissions from all life cycle stages of natural gas development and use. Our research shows that reducing fugitive methane can be highly cost-effective – beneficial to customers and companies alike – and it is necessary if natural gas and LNG exports are to be part of the solution to our climate change problem, both in the U.S. and internationally.

Progress is Being Made but There is More Work to Be Done

Now for the good news. Increased attention to the air emissions issue has resulted in significant recent progress toward reducing air pollution from natural gas systems.

In April 2012 EPA finalized regulations for New Source Performance Standards (NSPS) and National Emissions Standards for Hazardous Air Pollutants (NESHAP) that primarily target

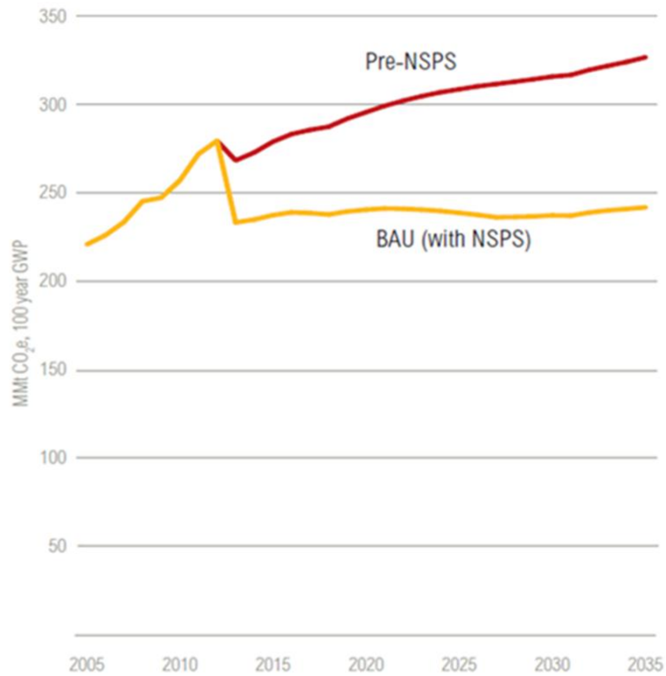
[45] By way of comparison, the EPA estimates that global annual fugitive methane emissions from natural gas and oil systems in 2030 will exceed 2,500 MMT carbon dioxide equivalent (CO_2e), assuming a GWP of 25, over a 100 year time frame (see: http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/EPAactivities/economics/nonco2projections.html). The U.S. GHG inventory estimates that fugitive methane emissions from U.S. natural gas systems in 2011 were just over 170 MMT CO2e.

VOCs and air toxics emissions but will have the co-benefit of reducing methane emissions. The new EPA rules require "green completions," which reduce emissions during the flow-back stage of all hydraulic fracturing operations at new and re-stimulated natural gas wells. The rules will also reduce leakage rates for compressors, controllers, and storage tanks.

EPA should be applauded for establishing these public health protections. Minimum federal standards for environmental performance are a necessary and appropriate framework for addressing cross-boundary pollution issues like air emissions. Federal Clean Air Act regulations are generally developed in close consultation with industry and state regulators and are often implemented by states. This framework allows adequate flexibility to enable state policy leadership and continuous improvement in environmental protection over time.

In our recent working paper, WRI estimated that these new rules will reduce methane emissions enough to cut all upstream GHG emissions from natural gas systems (including shale gas) by 13 percent in 2015 and 25 percent by 2035. As can be seen in Figure 3 below, the NSPS/NESHAP rules will make a big difference by helping to avoid a rise in upstream GHG emissions that would otherwise be likely given the projected growth in domestic natural gas production. The figure also shows that upstream carbon dioxide and methane emissions will remain a significant problem without further action.

Figure 3: Upstream GHG Emissions from All Natural Gas Systems, 2006 to 2035



Notes: Upstream GHG emissions before and after application of the EPA NSPS rule, for all natural gas systems

Source: Bradbury et al., 2013 (WRI)

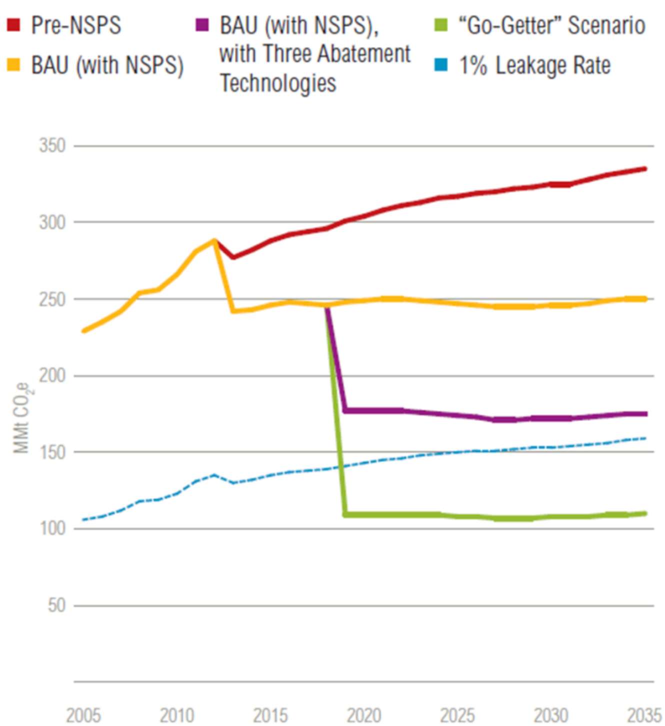
Further Potential to Reduce Fugitive Methane Emissions

WRI estimates that by implementing just three technologies that capture or avoid fugitive methane emissions, upstream methane emissions across all natural gas systems could be cost-effectively cut by up to an additional 30 percent (see Figure 4, below). The technologies include (a) fugitive methane leak monitoring and repair at new and existing well sites, processing plants, and compressor stations; (b) replacing existing high-bleed pneumatic devices with low-bleed equivalents throughout natural gas systems; and (c) use of plunger lift systems[46] at new and existing wells during liquids unloading operations. By our estimation, these three steps would

[46] Note: new data from the most recent EPA emissions inventory suggests that these technologies are much more widely used than previously thought. See: http://insights.wri.org/news/2013/05/5-reasons-why-its-still-important-reduce-fugitive-methane-emissions

bring down the total life cycle leakage rate across all natural gas systems to just above 1 percent of total production. Through adoption of five additional abatement measures that each address smaller emissions sources (i.e., a "Go-Getter" Scenario), the 1 percent goal would be readily achieved. All eight of these technologies could be implemented cost-effectively with payback periods of three years or less.

Figure 4: Upstream GHG Emissions from All Natural Gas Systems; with Additional Abatement Scenarios



Source: Bradbury et al., 2013

Policy Recommendations

New public policies will be needed to reduce methane emissions from both new and existing equipment throughout U.S. natural gas systems. WRI research has found that market conditions alone are not sufficient to compel industry to adequately or quickly adopt available best practices. To the members of this committee, I recommend the following actions to help EPA and states cost-effectively reduce air emissions from natural gas systems.

Expand applied technology research. Efforts to reduce upstream GHG emissions from natural gas systems could be aided by applied technology research at DOE. Such research should be expanded, with a focus on advancement of technologies to reduce the cost of leak detection, improve emissions measurements, and develop new and lower-cost methane emission reduction strategies.

Update emissions factors for key processes. To help resolve questions regarding the scale of methane emissions from U.S. natural gas infrastructure and operations – and to inform critical domestic and international climate and energy policy decisions – the oil and gas sector should be required to directly measure and report their emissions, with results subject to independent verification and public disclosure.

Assist with environmental regulations. With more funding, the organization STRONGER (State Review of Oil and Natural Gas Environmental Regulations) could provide more states with timely assistance in developing and evaluating environmental regulations, including (but not limited to) those designed to reduce air pollution.

Support best practices. With more funding, EPA could do more through Natural Gas STAR and other programs to recognize companies that demonstrate a commitment to best practices. This program could further encourage voluntary industry actions by maintaining a clearinghouse for technologies and practices that reduce all types of air emissions from the oil and natural gas sector.[47]

Provide technical and regulatory assistance. Recognizing the central role of state governments in achieving federal National Ambient Air Quality Standards, with more funding EPA could provide targeted technical and regulatory assistance to states with expanding oil and natural gas development. One example of a successful model that could be expanded is EPA's Ozone Advance Program. States concerned about smog and other air quality problems associated with oil and gas development voluntarily engage with this program, resulting in the co-benefit of reduced methane emissions.

Reduce carbon dioxide emissions. Broader action is also needed on policies supporting clean energy and addressing climate change. A clean energy standard or putting a price on carbon would provide clear signals to energy markets that energy providers and users need to recognize the environmental and social costs as well as the direct economic costs of energy resources.

Conclusions

Some advocate for a free-market approach to managing energy production, transmission, and use. While I agree with the general virtues of free markets, I would also caution that there is no free lunch. The National Research Council has identified very significant costs associated with

[47] An example of one existing clearinghouse can be found here: http://cfpub.epa.gov/RBLC/

fossil energy use that are hidden to most U.S. consumers.[48] Society pays when our health-care premiums rise due to harmful health effects caused by high ozone levels and other air pollution; taxpayers pick up the tab for climate change when the frequency and intensity of extreme weather events causes increasing damage to our communities and critical infrastructure.

Others highlight the energy and national security benefits of natural gas exports, which may reduce the political and economic influence of countries that do not share common interests with the U.S. and our allies. While such geopolitical benefits may be realized, LNG exports will do little to help avoid dangerous levels of climate change. We could also improve our geopolitical standing by demonstrating leadership in achieving greenhouse gas emissions reductions, much of which can be accomplished cost-effectively and with net benefits to the economy – starting with the policy actions recommended above. Meanwhile, the more we invest in fossil energy resources and infrastructure while delaying policy actions to significantly reduce GHG pollution, the more we expose ourselves and our allies to the destabilizing effects of climate change. In its 2010 Quadrennial Defense Review, the Department of Defense found that "climate change could have significant geopolitical impacts around the world." The same report concludes that climate change could further weaken fragile governments and contribute to food scarcity, spread of disease, and mass migration. Meanwhile, 30 military installations already face elevated risk from sea-level rise.

[48] NRC (National Research Council). 2010."Hidden Costs of Energy: Unpriced Consequences of Energy Production and Use." Washington, DC: The National Academies Press. Available at: http://www.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=12794.

Every day that we take no policy action on climate change, we make the policy choice to let climate change run its course. This ignores the overwhelming consensus of climate scientists who have been warning for decades that rising GHG emissions will cause the planet to warm, sea levels to rise, and weather to become more extreme. It is indisputable that these climate changes are happening today, and in many cases much more quickly than expected. Action is urgently needed.

Climatic Change
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LETTER

Coal to gas: the influence of methane leakage

Tom M. L. Wigley

Received: 19 May 2011 / Accepted: 10 August 2011

Abstract Carbon dioxide (CO_2) emissions from fossil fuel combustion may be reduced by using natural gas rather than coal to produce energy. Gas produces approximately half the amount of CO_2 per unit of primary energy compared with coal. Here we consider a scenario where a fraction of coal usage is replaced by natural gas (i.e., methane, CH_4) over a given time period, and where a percentage of the gas production is assumed to leak into the atmosphere. The additional CH_4 from leakage adds to the radiative forcing of the climate system, offsetting the reduction in CO_2 forcing that accompanies the transition from coal to gas. We also consider the effects of: methane leakage from coal mining; changes in radiative forcing due to changes in the emissions of sulfur dioxide and carbonaceous aerosols; and differences in the efficiency of electricity production between coal- and gas-fired power generation. On balance, these factors more than offset the reduction in warming due to reduced CO_2 emissions. When gas replaces coal there is additional warming out to 2,050 with an assumed leakage rate of 0%, and out to 2,140 if the leakage rate is as high as 10%. The overall effects on global-mean temperature over the 21st century, however, are small.

Hayhoe et al. (2002) have comprehensively assessed the coal-to-gas issue. What has changed since then is the possibility of substantial methane production by high volume hydraulic fracturing of shale beds ("fracking") and/or exploitation of methane reservoirs in near-shore ocean sediments. Fracking, in particular, may be associated with an increase in the amount of attendant gas leakage compared with other means of gas production (Howarth et al. 2011). In Hayhoe et al., the direct effects on global-mean temperature of differential gas leakage between coal and gas production are very small (see their Fig. 4). Their estimates of gas

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leakage, however, are less than more recent estimates. Here, we extend and update the analysis of Hayhoe et al. to examine the potential effects of gas leakage on the climate, and on uncertainties arising from uncertainties in leakage percentages.

We begin with a standard "no-climate-policy" baseline emissions scenario, viz. the MiniCAM Reference scenario (MINREF below) from the CCSP2.1a report (Clarke et al. 2007). (Hayhoe et al. used the MiniCAM A1B scenario, Nakićenović and Swart 2000.) We chose MINREF partly because it is a more recent "no-policy" scenario, but also because there is an extended version of MINREF that runs beyond 2,100 out to 2,300 (Wigley et al. 2009). The longer time horizon is important because of the long timescales involved in the carbon cycle where changes to CO_2 emissions made in the 21st century can have effects extending well into the 22nd century. (A second baseline scenario, the MERGE Reference scenario from the CCSP2.1a report, is considered in the Electronic Supplementary Material).

In MINREF, coal combustion provides from 38% (in 2010) to 51% (in 2100) of the emissions of CO_2 from fossil fuels. (The corresponding percentages for gas are 19 to 21%, and for oil are 43 to 28%.) For our coal-to-gas scenario we start with their contributions to energy. It is important here to distinguish between primary energy (i.e., the energy content of the resource) and final energy (the amount of energy delivered to the user at the point of production). For a transition from coal to gas, we assume that there is no change in final energy. As electricity generation from gas is more efficient than coal-fired generation, the increase in primary energy from gas will be less than the decrease in primary energy from coal — the differential depends on the relative efficiencies with which energy is produced.

To calculate the change in fossil CO_2 emissions for any transition scenario we use the following relationship relating CO_2 emissions to primary energy (P)…

$$\mathrm{ECO2} = \mathrm{A\ Pcoal} + \mathrm{B\ Poil} + \mathrm{C\ Pgas} \tag{1}$$

where A, B and C are representative emissions factors (emissions per unit of primary energy) for coal, oil and gas. The emissions factors relative to coal that we use are 0.75 for oil and 0.56 for gas, based on information in EPA's AP-42 Report (EPA 2005). Using the MINREF emissions for CO_2 and the published primary energy data give a best fit emissions factor for coal of 0.027 GtC/exajoule, well within the uncertainty range for this term.

To determine the change in CO_2 emissions in moving from coal to gas under the constraint of no change in final energy we use the equivalent of Eq. (1) expressed in terms of final energy (F). This requires knowing the efficiencies for energy production from coal, oil and gas (i.e., final energy/primary energy). If F=P×(efficiency), then we have

$$\mathrm{ECO2} = (\mathrm{A/a})\mathrm{Fcoal} + (\mathrm{B/b})\mathrm{Foil} + (\mathrm{C/c})\mathrm{Fgas} \tag{2}$$

where a, b and c are the efficiencies for energy production from coal, oil and gas. For changes in final energy (ΔF) in the coal-to-gas case, ΔFoil is necessarily zero. To keep final energy unchanged, therefore, we must have ΔFgas = −ΔFcoal. Hence, from Eq. (2) …

$$\Delta\mathrm{ECO2} = (\Delta\mathrm{Fcoal})(\mathrm{A/a} - \mathrm{C/c}) \tag{3}$$

or …

$$\Delta\mathrm{ECO2} = \mathrm{A}\ \Delta\mathrm{Pcoal}[1 - (\mathrm{C/A})/(\mathrm{c/a})] \tag{4}$$

As ΔPcoal is negative, the first term here is the reduction in CO_2 emissions from the reduction in coal use, while the second term is the partially compensating increase in CO_2

emissions from the increase in gas use. Our best-fit value for A is 0.027 GtC/exajoule, and C/A=0.56. To apply Eq. (4) we need to determine a reasonable value for the relative gas-to-coal efficiency ratio (c/a), which we assume does not change appreciably over time. For electricity generation, the primary sector for coal-to-gas substitution, Hayhoe et al. (2002, Table 2) give representative efficiencies of 32% for coal and 60% for gas. Using these values, Eq. (4) becomes …

$$\Delta ECO2 = 0.027\ \Delta Pcoal[1 - 0.299] \quad (5)$$

for ΔECO2 in GtC and ΔP in exajoules. Thus, for a unit reduction in coal emissions, there is an increase in emissions from gas combustion of about 0.3 units.

To complete our calculations, we need to estimate the changes in methane, sulfur dioxide and black carbon emissions that would follow the coal-to-gas conversion. Consider methane first. Methane is emitted to the atmosphere as a by-product of coal mining and gas production. Although these fugitive emissions are relatively small, they are important because methane is a far more powerful forcing agent per unit mass than CO_2.

For coal mining we use information from Spath et al. (1999; Figs. C1 and C4). A typical US coal-fired power plant emits 1,100 gCO2/kWh, with an attendant release of methane of 2.18 gCH4/kWh, almost entirely from mining. Thus, for each GtC of CO_2 emitted from a coal-fired power plant, 7.27 TgCH4 are emitted from mining. Spath et al. give other information that can used to check the above result. They give values of 1.91 gCH4 released per ton of coal mined from surface mines, and 4.23 gCH4 per ton from deep mines. As 65% of coal comes from deep mines, the weighted average release is 3.42 gCH4/ton. Since 1 ton of coal, when burned, typically produces 1.83 kgCO2, the amount of fugitive methane per GtC of CO_2 emissions from coal-fired power plants is 6.85 TgCH4/GtC, consistent with the previous result. For our calculations we use the average of these two results, 7.06 TgCH4/GtC; i.e., if CO_2 emissions from coal-fired power generation are reduced by 1 GtC, we assume a concomitant decrease in CH_4 emissions of 7.06 TgCH4. We assume that this value for the USA is applicable for other countries.

For leakage associated with gas extraction and transport we note that every kg of gas burned produces 12/16 kgC of CO_2. If the leakage rate is "p" percent, then, for any given increase in CO_2 emissions from gas combustion, the amount of fugitive methane released is (p/100) (16/12) 1000=13.33 (p) TgCH4/GtC. For a leakage rate of 2.5%, for example (roughly the present leakage rate for conventional gas extraction), this is 33.3 TgCH4/GtC. Because the CO_2 emissions change from gas combustion is much less than that for coal (about 30%; see Eq. (5)), for the 2.5% leakage case this would make the coal mining and gas leakage effects on CH_4 quite similar (but of opposite sign), in accord with Hayhoe et al. (2002, Table 1).

SO_2 emissions are important because coal combustion produces substantial SO_2, whereas SO_2 emissions from gas combustion are negligible. Reducing energy production from coal has compensating effects — reduced CO_2 emissions leads to reduced warming in the long term, but this is offset by the effects of reduced SO_2 emissions which lead to lower aerosol loadings in the atmosphere and an attendant warming (Wigley 1991). For CO_2 and SO_2, emissions factors for coal (from Hayhoe et al. 2002, Table 1) are 25 kgC/GJ and 0.24 kgS/GJ. For each GtC of CO_2 produced from coal combustion, therefore, there will be 19.2 TgS of SO_2 emitted. We can check this using emissions factors from Spath et al. (1999, Figs. C1 and C2). For a typical coal-fired power plant these are 7.3 gSO2/kWh and 1,100 gCO2/kWh. Hence, for each GtC of CO_2 produced from coal combustion, SO_2 emissions will be 12.17 TgS. Effective global emissions factors can also be obtained from published emissions scenarios. For example, for changes over 2000 to 2010 in the MINREF scenario, the emissions factor for coal combustion is approximately 11.6 TgS/GtC.

From these different estimates it is clear that there is considerable uncertainty in the SO_2 emissions factor, echoing in part the widely varying sulfur contents in coal. Furthermore, for future emissions from coal combustion the SO_2 emissions factor is likely to decrease markedly due to the imposition of SO_2 pollution controls (as explained, for example, in Nakićenović and Swart 2000). It is difficult to quantify this effect, a difficulty highlighted, for example, by the fact that, in the second half of the 21st century, many published scenarios show increasing CO_2 emissions, but decreasing SO_2 emissions — with large differences between scenarios in the relative changes.

For the coal-to-gas transition, it is not at all clear how to account for the effects that SO_2 pollution controls, that will likely go on in parallel with any transition from coal to gas, will have on the SO_2 emissions factor. However, future coal-fired plants will certainly employ such controls, so emissions factors for SO_2 will decrease over time. To account for this we assume a value of 12 TgS/GtC for the present (2010) declining linearly to 2 TgS/GtC by 2,060 and remaining at this level thereafter. This limit and the attainment date are consistent with the fact that many of the SRES scenarios tend to stabilize SO_2 emissions at a finite, non-zero value at around this time.

For black carbon (BC) aerosol emissions we use the relationship between BC and SO_2 emissions noted by Hayhoe et al. (2002, p. 125) and make BC forcing proportional to SO_2 emissions. Using best-estimate forcings from the IPCC Fourth Assessment Report, this means that the increase in sulfate aerosol forcing changes due to SO_2 emissions reductions are reduced by approximately 30% by the attendant changes in BC emissions. This is a larger BC effect than in Hayhoe et al. However, compared with the large overall uncertainty in aerosol forcing, the difference between what we obtain here and the results of Hayhoe et al. are relatively small.

For our coal-to-gas emissions scenario we assume that primary energy from coal is reduced linearly (in percentage terms) by 50% over 2010 to 2050 (1.25%/yr), and that the reduction in final energy is made up by extra energy from gas combustion. (A second, more extreme scenario is considered in the Electronic Supplementary Material). In this way, there are no differences in final energy between the MINREF baseline scenario and the coal-to-gas perturbation scenario. Hayhoe et al. consider scenarios where coal production reduces by 0.4, 1.0 and 2.0%/yr over 2000 to 2025. After 2050 we assume no further percentage reduction in coal-based energy (i.e., the reduction in emissions from coal relative to the baseline scenario remains at 50%). This is an idealized scenario, but it is sufficiently realistic to be able to assess the relative importance of different gas leakage rates. We consider leakage rates of zero to 10%,

Baseline and perturbed (coal to gas) primary energy scenarios for coal and gas are shown in Fig. 1, together with the corresponding fossil-fuel CO_2 emissions. The changes in primary energy breakdown are large: e.g., in 2100, primary energy from coal is 37% more than from gas in the baseline case, but 50% less than gas in the perturbed case. The corresponding reduction in emissions is less striking. In the perturbed case, 2100 emissions are reduced only by 19%. (Cases where there are larger emissions reductions are considered in the Electronic Supplementary Material).

To determine the consequences of the coal-to-gas scenario we use the MAGICC coupled gas-cycle/upwelling-diffusion climate model (Wigley et al. 2009; Meinshausen et al. 2011). These are full calculations from emissions through concentrations and radiative forcing to global-mean temperature consequences. We do not make use of Global Warming Potentials (as in Howarth et al. 2011, for example), which are a poor substitute for a full calculation

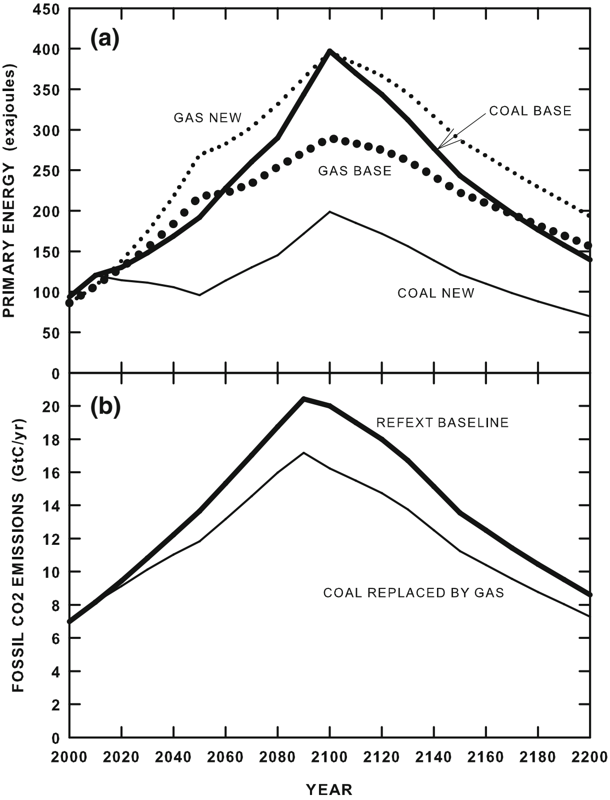

Fig. 1 **a** Primary energy scenarios. Baseline data to 2100 are from the CCSP2.1a MiniCAM Reference scenario. After 2100, baseline primary energy data have been constructed to be consistent with emissions data in the extended MiniCAM Reference scenario (Wigley et al. 2009 — REFEXT). Full lines are for coal, dotted lines are for gas. "NEW" data correspond to the coal-to-gas scenario. Under the final energy constraint that ΔFgas = −ΔFcoal, ΔPgas = −(a/c) ΔPcoal = −0.533 ΔPcoal. **b** Corresponding fossil CO_2 emissions data

(see, e,g., Smith and Wigley 2000a, b). MAGICC considers all important radiative forcing factors, and has a carbon cycle model that includes climate feedbacks on the carbon cycle. Methane lifetime is affected by atmospheric loadings on methane, carbon monoxide, nitrogen oxides (NOx) and volatile organic compounds. The effects of methane on tropospheric ozone and stratospheric water vapor are considered directly. For component forcing values we use central estimates as given in the IPCC Fourth Assessment Report (IPCC 2007, p.4). We also assume a central value for the climate sensitivity of 3°C equilibrium warming for a CO_2 doubling. (A second case using a higher sensitivity is considered in the Electronic Supplementary Material).

Figure 2 shows the relative and total effects of the coal-to-gas transition for a leakage rate of 5%. This is within the estimated leakage rate range (1.7–6.0%; Howarth et al. 2011) for conventional methane production (the effects of well site leakage, liquid uploading and gas processing, and transport, storage and processing). For methane from shale, Howarth et al. estimate an additional leakage of 1.9% (their Table 2) with a range of 0.6–3.2% (their Table 1). The zero to 10.0% leakage rate range considered here spans these estimates — although we note that the high estimates of Howarth et al. have been criticized (Ridley 2011, p. 30).

The top panel of Fig. 2 shows that the effects of CH_4 leakage and reduced aerosol loadings that go with the transition from coal to gas can appreciably offset the effect of reduced CO_2 concentrations, potentially (see Fig. 3) until well into the 22nd century. For the leakage rate ranges considered here, however, the overall effects of the coal to gas transition on global-mean temperature are very small throughout the 21st century, both in absolute and relative terms (see Fig. 2a). This is primarily due to the relatively small reduction in CO_2 emissions that is effected by the transition away from coal (see Fig. 1b). Cases where the CO_2 emissions reductions are larger (due to a more extreme substitution scenario, or a different baseline) are considered in the Electronic Supplementary Material. The relative contributions to temperature change are similar, but the magnitudes of temperature change scale roughly with the overall reduction in CO_2 emissions.

Figure 3 shows the sensitivity of the temperature differential to the assumed leakage rate. The CO_2 and aerosol terms are independent of the assumed leakage rate, so we only show the methane and total-effect results. These results are qualitatively similar to those of Hayhoe et al. who considered only a single leakage rate case (corresponding approximately to our 2.5% leakage case). For leakage rates of more than 2%, the methane leakage contribution is positive (i.e., replacing coal by gas produces higher methane concentrations) — see the "CH4 COMPONENT" curves in Fig. 3. Depending on leakage rate, replacing coal by gas leads, not to cooling, but to additional warming out to between 2,050 and 2,140. Initially, this is due mainly to the influence of SO_2 emissions changes, with the effects of CH_4 leakage becoming more important over time. Even with zero leakage from gas production, however, the cooling that eventually arises from the coal-to-gas transition is only a few tenths of a degC (greater for greater climate sensitivity — see Electronic Supplementary Material). Using climate amelioration as an argument for the

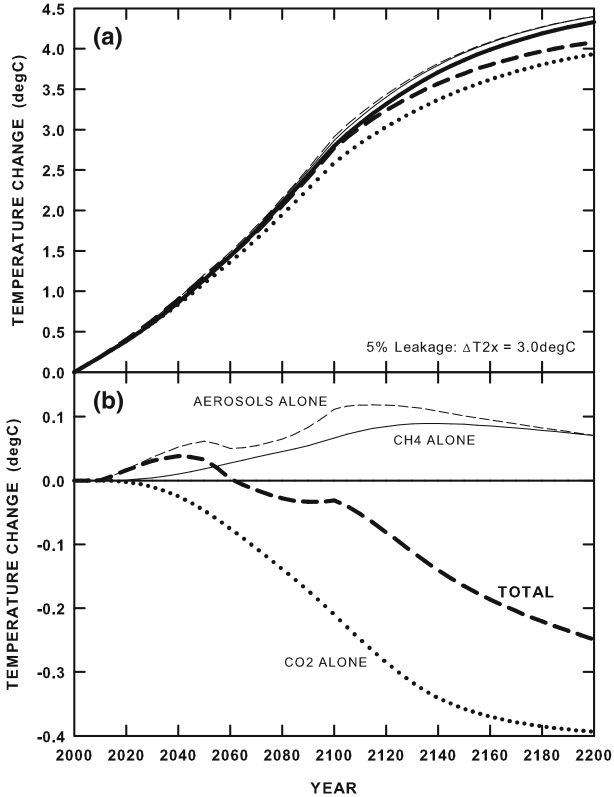

Fig. 2 **a** Baseline global-mean warming (*solid bold line*) from the extended CCSP2.1a Mini-CAM reference scenario together with the individual and total contributions due to reduced CO_2 concentrations, reduced aerosol loadings and increased methane emissions for the case of 5% methane leakage. The *bold dashed line* gives the result for all three components, the *dotted line* shows the effect of CO_2 alone. The *top two thin lines* show the CH_4 and aerosol components. **b** Detail showing differences from the baseline

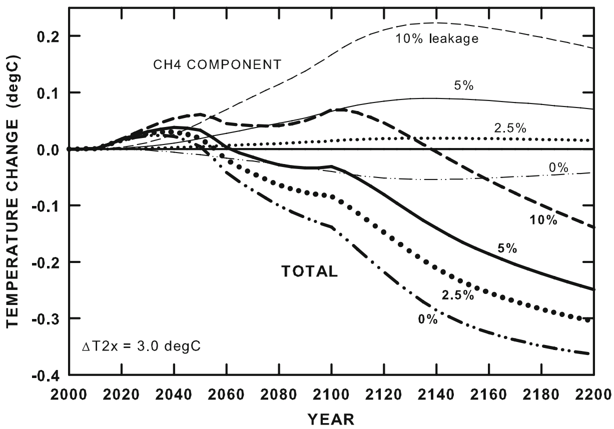

Fig. 3 The effects of different methane leakage rates on global-mean temperature. The *top four curves* (CH4 COMPONENT) show the effects of methane concentration changes, while the *bottom four curves* (TOTAL) show the total effects of methane changes, aerosol changes and CO_2 concentration changes. The latter two effects are independent of the leakage rate, and are shown in Fig. 2. Results here are for a climate sensitivity of 3.0°C

transition is, at best, a very weak argument, as noted by Hayhoe et al. (2002), Howarth et al. (2011) and others.

In summary, our results show that the substitution of gas for coal as an energy source results in increased rather than decreased global warming for many decades — out to the mid 22nd century for the 10% leakage case. This is in accord with Hayhoe et al. (2002) and with the less well established claims of Howarth et al. (2011) who base their analysis on Global Warming Potentials rather than direct modeling of the climate. Our results are critically sensitive to the assumed leakage rate. In our analysis, the warming results from two effects: the reduction in SO_2 emissions that occurs due to reduced coal combustion; and the potentially greater leakage of methane that accompanies new gas production relative to coal. The first effect is in accord with Hayhoe et al. In Hayhoe et al., however, the methane effect is in the opposite direction to our result (albeit very small). This is because our analyses use more recent information on gas leakage from coal mines and gas production, with greater leakage from the latter. The effect of methane leakage from gas production in our analyses is, nevertheless, small and less than implied by Howarth et al.

Our coal-to-gas scenario assumes a linear decrease in coal use from zero in 2010 to 50% reduction in 2050, continuing at 50% after that. Hayhoe et al. consider linear decreases from zero in 2000 to 10, 25 and 50% reductions in 2025. If these authors assumed constant reduction percentages after 2025, then their high scenario is very similar to our scenario.

In our analyses, the temperature differences between the baseline and coal-to-gas scenarios are small (less than 0.1°C) out to at least 2100. The most important result, however, in accord with the above authors, is that, unless leakage rates for new methane can be kept below 2%, substituting gas for coal is not an effective means for reducing the magnitude of future climate change. This is contrary to claims such as that by Ridley (2011) who states (p. 5), with regard to the exploitation of shale gas, that it will "accelerate the decarbonisation of the world economy". The key point here is that it is not decarbonisation *per se* that is the goal, but the attendant reduction of climate change. Indeed, the shorter-term effects are in the opposite direction. Given the small climate differences between the baseline and the coal-to-gas scenarios, decisions regarding further exploitation of gas reserves should be based on resource availability (both gas and water), the economics of extraction, and environmental impacts unrelated to climate change.

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Greenhouse gases, climate change and the transition from coal to low-carbon electricity

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Greenhouse gases, climate change and the transition from coal to low-carbon electricity

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Abstract
A transition from the global system of coal-based electricity generation to low-greenhouse-gas-emission energy technologies is required to mitigate climate change in the long term. The use of current infrastructure to build this new low-emission system necessitates additional emissions of greenhouse gases, and the coal-based infrastructure will continue to emit substantial amounts of greenhouse gases as it is phased out. Furthermore, ocean thermal inertia delays the climate benefits of emissions reductions. By constructing a quantitative model of energy system transitions that includes life-cycle emissions and the central physics of greenhouse warming, we estimate the global warming expected to occur as a result of build-outs of new energy technologies ranging from 100 GW_e to 10 TW_e in size and 1–100 yr in duration. We show that rapid deployment of low-emission energy systems can do little to diminish the climate impacts in the first half of this century. Conservation, wind, solar, nuclear power, and possibly carbon capture and storage appear to be able to achieve substantial climate benefits in the second half of this century; however, natural gas cannot.

Keywords: climate change, bulk electricity supply, central-station greenhouse gas emissions, electricity, climate

S Online supplementary data available from stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia

1. Introduction

Hoffert *et al* [1] estimated that if economic growth continues as it has in the past, 10–30 TW of carbon-neutral primary power must be deployed by 2050 to meet global energy demand while stabilizing CO_2 concentrations at 450 ppmv, and that even more rapid deployment of new technologies would need to occur in the second half of this century. Pacala and Socolow [2] have suggested that a broad portfolio of existing technologies could put us on a trajectory toward stabilization in the first half of this century. No previous study, however, has predicted the climate effects of energy system transitions.

Fossil fuels, such as coal and natural gas, emit greenhouse gases when burned in conventional power plants. Concern about climate change has motivated the deployment of lower-GHG-emission (LGE) power plants, including wind, solar photovoltaics (PV), nuclear, solar thermal, hydroelectric, carbon capture and storage, natural gas and other energy technologies with low GHG emissions. Electricity generation accounts for approximately 39% of anthropogenic carbon dioxide emissions [3, 4].

Because LGE power plants have lower operating emissions, cumulative emissions over the lifetime of the plants are lower than for conventional fossil-fueled plants of equivalent capacity. LGE power plants typically require greater upfront emissions to build, however. Consequently, rapid deployment of a fleet of LGE power plants could initially increase cumulative emissions and global mean surface temperatures over what would occur if the same net electrical output were generated by conventional coal-fired plants. Our results show that most of the climate benefit of a transition to LGE energy systems will appear only after the transition is complete. This substantial delay has implications for policy aimed at moderating climate impacts of the electricity generation sector.

2. Models of LGE energy system build-outs

To make our assumptions clear and explicit, we used simple mathematical models to investigate the transient effects of energy system transitions on GHG concentrations, radiative forcing and global mean temperature changes. We represent an electric power plant's life in two phases: construction and operation. Our model assumes that each plant produces a constant annual rate of GHG emissions as it is constructed and a different constant emission rate as it operates. Emission rates were taken from the literature (see table S1 in the supplementary online material (SOM) available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia). IPCC-published formulas for the atmospheric lifetime of GHGs [5] are used to model increases in atmospheric GHG concentrations that result from the construction and operation of each power plant (see SOM text SE1 for details). Radiative forcing as a function of time, $\Delta F(t)$, follows directly from GHG concentration using expressions from the IPCC [5].

We estimated the change in surface temperature, ΔT by using a simple energy-balance model. The radiative forcing ΔF supplies additional energy into the system. Radiative losses to space are determined by a climate feedback parameter, λ. We used $\lambda = 1.25$ W m^2 K^{-1} [6–8], which yields an equilibrium warming of 3.18 K resulting from the radiative forcing that follows a doubling of atmospheric CO_2 from 280 to 560 ppmv. The approach to equilibrium warming is delayed by the thermal inertia of the oceans. We represented the oceans as a 4 km thick, diffusive slab with a vertical thermal diffusivity $k_v = 10^{-4}$ m^2 s^{-1} [8]. Other parameter choices are possible, but variations within reason would not change our qualitative results, and this approach is supported by recent tests with three-dimensional models of the global climate response to periodic forcing [9]. Our simple climate model treats direct thermal heating in the same way as radiative heating; heat either mixes downward into the ocean or radiates outward to space. To isolate the effects of a transition to LGE energy systems, we consider GHG emissions from only the power plant transition studied. Initial, steady-state atmospheric GHG concentrations are set to $P_{CO_2} = 400$ ppmv, $P_{CH_4} = 1800$ ppbv, and $P_{N_2O} = 320$ ppbv, at which $\Delta F = \Delta T = 0$. (Use of other background concentrations for GHGs would not alter our qualitative results (SOM text SE1.3 available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia)).

Although life-cycle estimates of emissions from individual power plants (SOM table S1 available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia) vary, they show a consistent pattern at both the low and high ends of the range, as seen in figures 1(A) and (B). For renewable plants, peak emissions occur during plant construction. For fossil-fueled plants, in contrast, operating emissions dominate; typically $<1\%$ of lifetime plant emissions are attributable to construction. For nuclear plants, both construction and fueling for ongoing operation make substantial contributions to lifetime GHG emissions, although these emissions are far lower than the emissions from coal-fired power plants. The primary GHG emission from hydroelectric plants is methane (CH_4) produced by anaerobic decay of organic matter that is inundated as the reservoir fills [10–12]; the amount emitted varies with local conditions.

To provide a stable supply of electricity, a new power plant must be built as each old power plant nears the end of its useful life. As shown in figures 1(C) and (D), fossil-fueled plants produce a comparatively smooth increase in atmospheric GHG concentrations because emissions during construction are small compared to those from operations. In contrast, the larger contribution during construction of nuclear and renewable power plants produces increased emissions each time a plant of this kind is replaced, yielding a sawtooth trend in atmospheric GHG concentrations for a constant output of electricity.

Construction and operation of a new power plant of any technology modeled here will produce higher atmospheric CO_2 concentrations than would have occurred if no new generating capacity were added. Carbon dioxide poses a special concern because of its long lifetime in the atmosphere. With the exception of dams, carbon dioxide emissions dominate the GHG radiative forcing from power plants. Radiative forcing due to CH_4 and N_2O at any point in time accounts for $<1\%$ of the total GHG forcing from wind, solar and nuclear power plants; $<5\%$ for coal-fired plants; and $<10\%$ for natural gas plants. CH_4 dominates only in the case of hydroelectric power, for which it contributes $\sim 95\%$ of the radiative forcing in the first 20 yr, declining monotonically to $\sim 50\%$ at 70 yr after construction.

We contrasted LGE energy technologies with a high-GHG-emission (HGE) energy technology, namely conventional coal-based electricity production. We define 'HGE warming' to mean the increase in global mean surface temperature that would have been produced by the continued operation of the coal-based HGE energy system. This warming is additional to any temperature increases occurring as a result of past or concurrent emissions from outside the 1 TW_e energy system considered here.

To illustrate the consequences of rapid deployments of new energy systems, we considered emissions from a variety of linear energy system transitions, each of which replaces 1 TW_e of coal-based electricity by bringing new LGE power plants online at a constant rate over a 40 yr period. (1 TW_e is the order of magnitude of the global electrical output currently generated from coal [10].) Existing coal-fired generators were assumed to be new at the onset of the transition, to be replaced with equivalent plants at the end of their lifetime, and to be retired at the rate of new plant additions in order to maintain constant annual output of electricity. Lifetimes

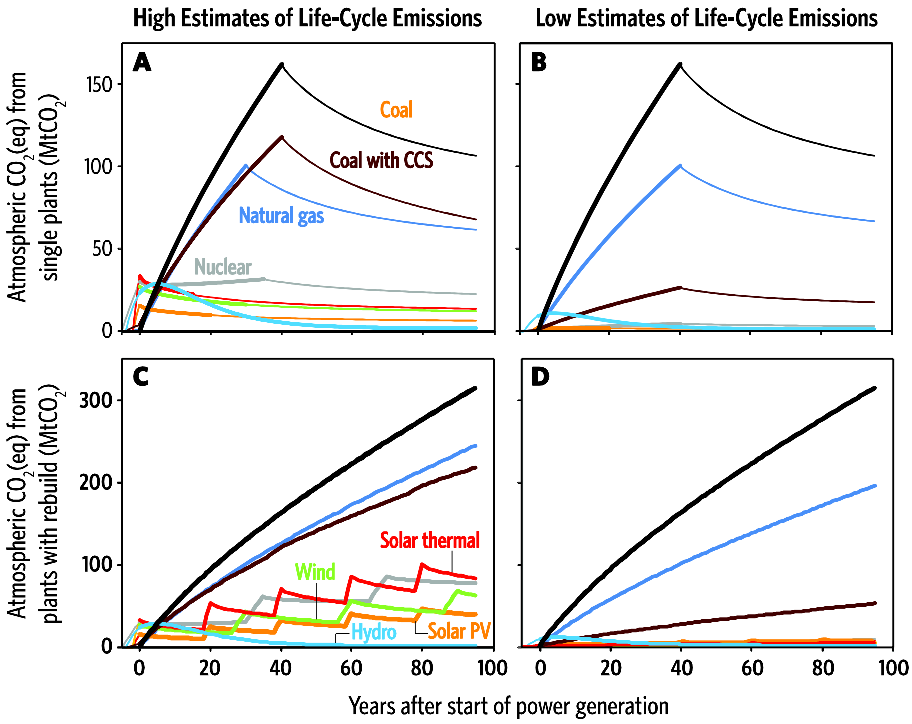

Figure 1. The time evolution of atmospheric CO_2(eq) concentrations resulting from the construction and operation of a 1 GW_e electric power plant varies widely depending on the type of plant. (A), (B) Atmospheric CO_2(eq) concentrations from single power plants of different types based on high (A) and low (B) estimates of life-cycle power plant emissions. Renewable technologies have higher emissions in the construction phase (thin lines prior to year zero); conventional fossil technologies have higher emissions while operating (thick lines); emitted gases persist in the atmosphere even after cessation of operation (thin lines after year zero). The operating life of plants varies by plant type. (C), (D) Atmospheric CO_2(eq) concentrations from the construction of series of power plants built to maintain 1 GW_e output. For high estimates of life-cycle emissions, periodic replacement of aging plants produces pulses of emissions resulting in substantial, step-like change in atmospheric concentrations. However, in all cases except hydroelectric, continued electricity production results in increasing trends of atmospheric CO_2(eq) concentrations.

and thermal efficiencies of the coal plants were taken from the life-cycle analysis (LCA) literature, as were the additional emissions associated with constructing power plants (SOM table S1 available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia). Using GHG emission data from this literature, we calculated time series for emissions, radiative forcing, and temperature for build-outs of eight LGE energy technologies, for a range of rollout durations (SOM text SN3 available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia) including, as a lower bound, the unrealistic case in which all plants are built simultaneously in a single year. Climate consequences of a portfolio of technologies can be approximated by a linear combination of our results for each technology taken individually. For each technology, we examine low and high emission estimates from the LCA literature, and label these 'Low' and 'High'. The time evolution of emissions and temperature increases resulting from an example transition, from coal to natural gas, is illustrated in SOM table S4 (available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia).

We investigated transitions from an HGE energy system to various LGE options for a wide range of transition rates (figure 4). Building on previous life-cycle analyses (SOM table S1 available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia), we estimated the magnitude of most direct and indirect GHG emissions from the construction and operation of the power plants, including GHG emissions associated with long-distance electricity transmission and thermal emissions attributable to power generation and use (SOM text SN2 available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia). During this transition, GHG emissions attributed to the fleet include both those due to construction or operation of the new technology and those due to coal-fired generators that have not yet been replaced. Various energy system transitions could be imagined. Delaying the transition delays long-term climate benefits of LGE energy. Accelerating the transition decreases total fleet emissions from burning coal, but increases the rate of emissions produced by new construction (figure 4(C)). Qualitatively similar results hold for exponential and logistic growth trajectories (SOM text SD1 and figures S10–12 available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia).

3. Delayed benefits from energy system transitions

By the time any new power plant begins generating electricity, it has incurred an 'emissions debt' equal to the GHGs released to the atmosphere during its construction. The size of this debt varies from one LGE technology to another, as does the operating time required to reach a break-even point at which emissions avoided by displacing power from an HGE plant equal the emissions debt. All transitions from coal to other energy technologies thus show higher GHG concentrations

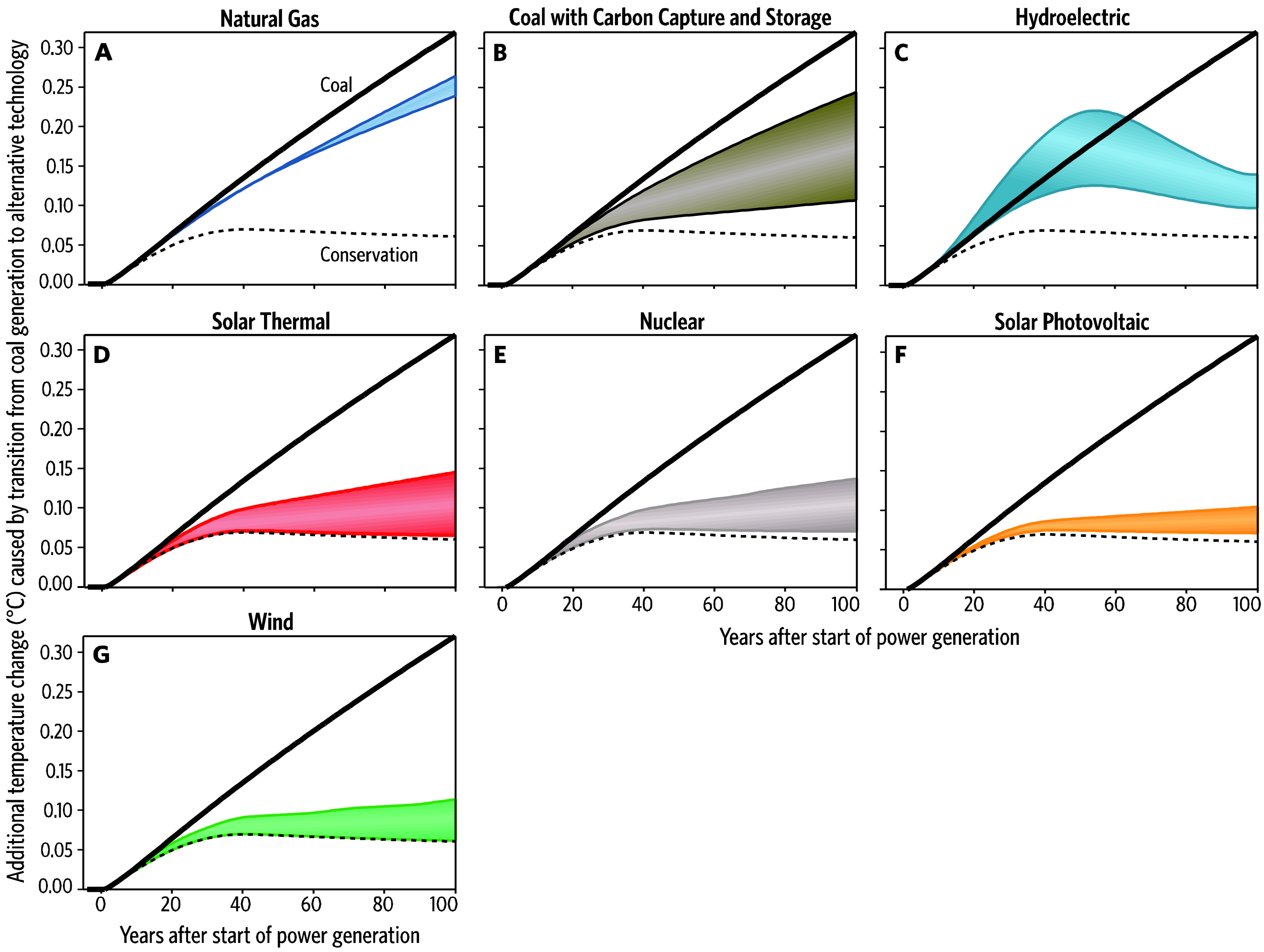

Figure 2. Many decades may pass before a transition from coal-based electricity to alternative generation technologies yields substantial temperature benefits. Panels above show the temperature increases predicted to occur during a 40 yr transition of 1 TW_e of generating capacity. Warming resulting from continued coal use with no alternative technology sets an upper bound (solid black lines), and the temperature increase predicted to occur even if coal were replaced by idealized conservation with zero CO_2 emissions (dashed lines) represents a lower bound. The colored bands represent the range of warming outcomes spanned by high and low life-cycle estimates for the energy technologies illustrated: (A) natural gas, (B) coal with carbon capture and storage, (C) hydroelectric, (D) solar thermal, (E) nuclear, (F) solar photovoltaic and (G) wind.

and temperatures at the outset than would have occurred in the absence of a transition to a new energy system. We calculated, for each technology, the number of years following the start of electricity generation until the transition starts reducing HGE warming, as well as the times at which the transition has reduced HGE warming by 25% or 50%.

Our results (figure 2 and SOM tables S3 and S4 available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia) illustrate the general finding that emerges from our results: energy system transitions cause reductions in HGE warming only once they are well underway, and it takes much longer still for any new system to deliver substantial climate benefits over a conventional coal-based system. It is instructive to examine idealized energy conservation, considered here as a technology that produces electricity with zero GHG emissions. Conservation is thus equivalent to phasing out 1 TW_e of coal power over 40 yr without any replacement technology. Even in this case, GHGs (particularly CO_2) emitted by coal during the phaseout linger in the atmosphere for many years; in addition, ocean thermal inertia causes temperature changes to lag radiative forcing changes. Consequently, conservation takes 20 yr to achieve a 25% reduction in HGE warming and 40 yr to achieve a 50% reduction.

This idealized rollout of conservation that displaces 1 TW_e of conventional coal power sets a lower bound to the temperature reductions attainable by any technology that does not actively withdraw GHGs from the atmosphere. This lower bound is approached most closely by wind, solar thermal, solar PV and nuclear, using the low LCA estimates; these cases yield temperature increases that exceed the idealized conservation case by only a fraction of a degree, and the time to a 50% reduction in HGE warming is delayed by only a few years. Differences among these same technologies appear, however, if high LCA estimates are used (figure 3). When using the complete range of LCA estimates, for example, our model projects that a 40 yr, linear transition from coal to solar PV would cause a 1.4–6.9 yr period with greater warming than

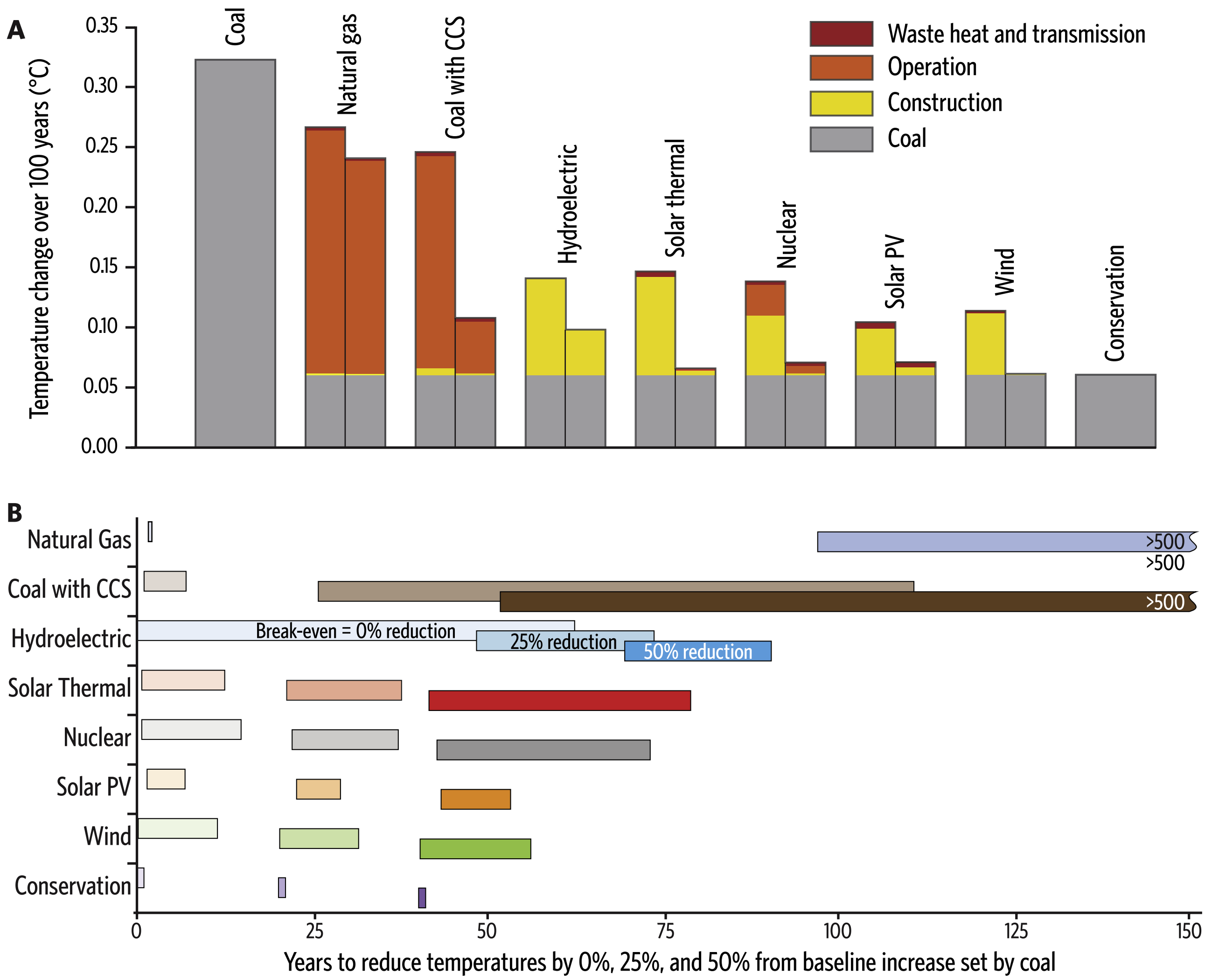

Figure 3. Transitions of 1 TW_e of coal-based electricity generation to lower-emitting energy technologies produces modest reductions in the amount of global warming from GHG emissions; if the transition takes 40 yr to complete, only the lowest-emission technologies can offset more than half of the coal-induced warming in less than a century. (A) Increases in global mean surface temperature attributable to the 1 TW_e energy system 100 yr after the start of a 40 yr transition to the alternative technology. Even if the coal-based system were phased out without being replaced by new power plants of any kind, GHGs released by the existing coal-fired plants during the phaseout would continue to add to global warming (rightmost column). Split columns reflect temperature changes calculated using both high and low emissions estimates from a range of life-cycle analyses, as described in the text and SOM text SN2 (available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia). (B) Time required from the start of power generation by an alternative technology to achieve break-even, warming equal to what would have occurred without the transition from coal (lightest shading); a 25% reduction in warming (medium shading); and a reduction by half (darkest shading) as a result of the transition. The bars span the range between results derived using the lowest and highest LCA estimates of emissions. For numeric values, see SOM table S3 (available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia).

had the transition not been undertaken, and that the transition would take 23–29 yr to produce a 25% reduction in HGE warming and 43–53 yr to avoid half of the HGE warming.

Natural gas plants emit about half the GHGs emitted by coal plants of the same capacity, yet a transition to natural gas would require a century or longer to attain even a 25% reduction in HGE warming (SOM table S3 available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia). Natural gas substitution thus may not be as beneficial in the near or medium term as extrapolation from 'raw' annual GHG emissions might suggest.

Carbon capture and storage (CCS) also slows HGE warming only very gradually. Although CCS systems are estimated to have raw GHG emissions of ∼17%–∼27% that of unmodified coal plants, replacement of a fleet of conventional coal plants by coal-fired CCS plants reduces HGE warming by 25% only after 26–110 yr. This transition delivers a 50% reduction in 52 years under optimistic assumptions and several centuries or more under pessimistic assumptions.

More generally, any electricity-generating technology that reduces GHG emissions versus coal plants by only a factor of two to five appears to require century-long times to accrue substantial temperature reductions. Comparison of 1 TW_e, 40 yr transitions from coal to a wide range of LGE energy technologies reveals little difference in warming produced by the various technologies until the transition is complete (figures 2(A)–(G)). Although it takes many decades

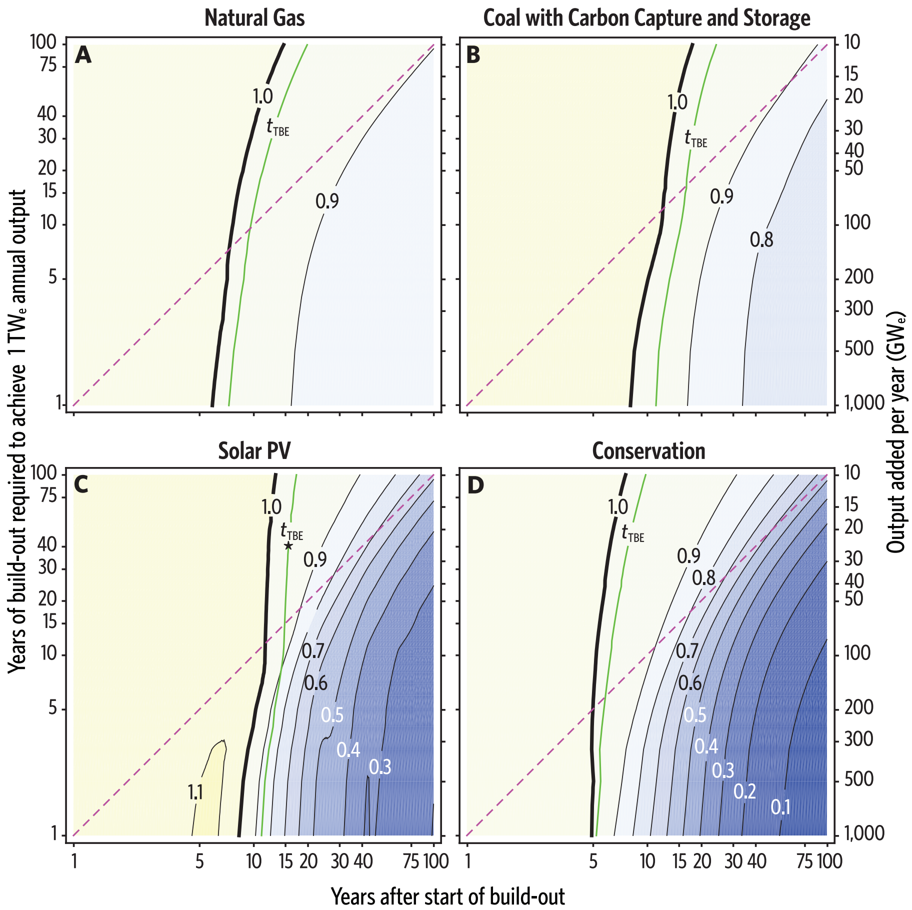

Figure 4. Analysis of a wide range of energy transition rates, scales, and technologies finds that replacement of coal-fired power plants requires many years to deliver climate benefits. For a given alternative energy technology and transition scale, the range of simulation results can be summarized by a contour plot; those above show results for 1 TW_e, linear transitions to (A) natural gas, (B) coal with CCS, (C) solar PV and (D) conservation; high emission estimates from LCA studies were used in each case. For plots of other technologies, transition scales, and build-out trajectories, see SOM figures S10 and S11 (available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia). In these plots, the vertical axis represents the duration of the build-out; results span build-out durations from 1 to 100 yr, which corresponds to annual additions of output ranging from 10 to 1000 GW_e. Contour lines plot the ratio $\Delta T_{new}/\Delta T_{coal}$, where ΔT_{new} is the increase in global mean surface temperature projected to result from the transition to the lower-emission technology. Contour lines thus represent the time to achieve reductions in warming ranging from 10% (a ratio of 0.9) to 90% (a ratio of 0.1). Whereas the progress of the build-out (horizontal axis) is measured from the start of power generation in figure 3, here time is measured from the start of construction, which we assume lasts five years before each new plant begins generating. (For ease of comparison, conservation is treated similarly.) Dashed magenta lines indicate the completion of construction of the last plant in the build-outs. The instantaneous break-even point at which $\Delta T_{new} = \Delta T_{coal}$ is indicated by thick black curves. A better metric of the break-even time, however, is where the time-averaged integral of ΔT_{new} equals that of ΔT_{coal} (t_{TBE}, green curves). A 40 yr deployment of 1 TW_e of solar PV, for example, would not reach t_{TBE} until year 15 of the build-out (asterisked point).

to achieve substantial benefits from a phaseout of coal-based power plants, instantaneously turning coal plants off without replacing the generating capacity would yield a 50% reduction in HGE warming in 11 yr, as shown in figure 4(D), which plots the reduction in temperature increases to be expected in any given year from elimination of 1 TW_e of coal capacity by build-outs ranging in duration from 1 to 100 yr.

We selected coal-fired plants as the basis for comparison because this energy technology emits the most GHGs per unit electricity generated; replacing plants of this kind thus delivers the greatest climate benefits. If the new technology were instead to replace natural gas plants, then even less CO_2 emission would be avoided, and the times to achieve reductions in warming relative to a natural gas baseline would be even longer than projected here.

4. Effects of scale, duration, technological improvement and bootstrapping

Although we focus here on 40 yr, linear transitions of a 1 TW_e energy system, we examined a far broader range of cases; none of these cases altered our central conclusions. Figure 4, for example, illustrates the HGE warming caused by transitions to several LGE energy technologies that range in duration from 1 to 100 yr. We have simulated transitions ranging from 0.1 to 10 TW_e. In addition to the linear transition presented here, we examined exponential and logistic transitions (SOM texts SD1–SD3 and figures S8, S11–S14 available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia). We also analyzed plausible effects of technological improvement by reducing the emission per unit energy generation over time by various exponential rates, an approach that effectively forces each technology under study to approach the zero emission case of conservation asymptotically (SOM text SD3 and figure S14 available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia). The analysis reveals that the long timescale required for energy system transitions to reduce temperatures substantially is not sensitive to technological improvement. High rates of technological improvement could alter, however, the relative rank of energy technologies in their abilities to mitigate future warming.

Finally, we examined 'bootstrapping' transitions. The exponential, linear and logistic models all assume that generated electricity is used to displace coal and thus lower emissions. A very different strategy is to use a low-GHG-emitting technology to bootstrap itself. This strategy is particularly interesting for wind and solar PV because each of them require substantial amounts of electricity in the manufacturing of key components.

A bootstrapping transition uses electricity from the first plant built to manufacture more plants of the same kind, which in turn provide energy to build new plants, and so on exponentially (SOM text SD2 and figure S13 available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia). In this approach, however, no electricity is turned over to the grid—and thus no coal is replaced—until the build-out goal has been installed and brought online, at which point the coal is displaced all at once. The effect of bootstrapping is thus equivalent to distributing the electrons from PV systems and using coal-generated electrons to construct the PV arrays.

Emissions estimates from the LCA studies we use in our principal analysis, in contrast, assume carbon intensities lower than that of coal-based electricity and thus lower emissions than would occur with either bootstrapping or coal as the source of energy for new plant construction. For both wind and solar, bootstrapping produces higher temperatures during the first 70–100 yr than would occur if the plants were constructed using power from the existing grid. For transitions lasting longer than 100 yr, bootstrapping does yield lower GHG emissions for plant construction and, eventually, lower temperatures than grid-connected build-outs. On this extended time scale, however, emissions for grid-connected models are likely to fall substantially as well, due to changes in the mix of electricity generation.

Figure 3(A) shows that, for fossil fuel plants, emissions from plant operation are the predominant source of life-cycle emissions, and they are responsible for the majority of the global temperature increase produced. Conservation yields the largest temperature reductions. In transitions to wind, solar, and nuclear technologies, temperature increases caused by emissions during plant construction exceed those due to plant operation; the resulting temperature increases are dwarfed, however, by those caused by emissions from coal plants as they are being phased out.

Temperature increases due to transmission and waste heat are small but can amount to a substantial fraction of the total temperature increase associated with the lowest emission technologies.

5. Sources of uncertainty

Our central result is that transitions from coal to energy technologies having lower carbon emissions will not substantially influence global climate until more than half a century passes, and that even large transitions are likely to produce modest reductions in future temperatures. These fundamental qualitative conclusions are robust, but our quantitative calculations incorporate important sources of uncertainty in representations of both the energy system and the physical climate system.

We characterize uncertainty in energy system properties by presenting both high and low estimates from life-cycle analyses (e.g., figures 1–3). Our model of the physical climate system is affected by uncertainties both in the relationship between greenhouse gas emissions and atmospheric concentrations and in the relationship between atmospheric concentrations and the resulting climate change. The IPCC [5] states that equilibrium climate sensitivity to a doubling of atmospheric CO_2 content 'is likely to lie between 2 and 4.5 °C with a most likely value of approximately 3 °C.' Our model yields a climate sensitivity of 3.18 °C per CO_2-doubling. Physical climate system uncertainties could thus potentially halve or double our quantitative results. The impact of most of these uncertainties would apply equally to all technologies, however, so relative amounts of warming resulting from different technology choices are likely to be insensitive to uncertainties about the climate system.

6. Conclusions

Here, we have examined energy system transitions on the scale of the existing electricity sector, which generates ~1 TW_e primarily from approximately 3 TW thermal energy from fossil fuels [3]. It has been estimated, however, that 10–30 TW of carbon-neutral thermal energy must be provisioned by mid-century to meet global demand on a trajectory that stabilizes the climate with continued economic growth [1].

It appears that there is no quick fix; energy system transitions are intrinsically slow [13]. During a transition, energy is used both to create new infrastructure and to satisfy other energy demands, resulting in additional emissions. These emissions have a long legacy due to the long lifetime of CO_2 in the atmosphere and the thermal inertia of the oceans. Despite the lengthy time lags involved, delaying rollouts of low-carbon-emission energy technologies risks even greater environmental harm in the second half of this century and beyond. This underscores the urgency in developing realistic plans for the rapid deployment of the lowest-GHG-emission electricity generation technologies. Technologies that offer only modest reductions in emissions, such as natural gas and—if the highest estimates from the life-cycle analyses (SOM table S1 available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/7/014019/mmedia) are correct—carbon capture storage, cannot yield substantial temperature reductions this century. Achieving substantial reductions in temperatures relative to the coal-based system will take the better part of a century, and will depend on rapid and massive deployment of some mix of conservation, wind, solar, and nuclear, and possibly carbon capture and storage.

Acknowledgments

The authors are grateful to W Gibbs, L Wood and A Modoran for helpful comments on the manuscript.

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Japan's Kansai to buy U.S. Cameron LNG from Mitsui

TOKYO, April 1 Mon Mar 31, 2014 9:23pm EDT

(Reuters) - Japan's second-biggest utility, Kansai Electric Power Co, said it had signed a 20-year contract to buy 400,000 tonnes per year of U.S. Cameron liquefied natural gas (LNG) from trader Mitsui & Co at U.S. Henry Hub-linked prices.

The Osaka-based firm said it would buy for 20 years from the project's planned launch, scheduled for late 2017.

LNG imports by Japan, the world's top buyer of the super-cooled fuel, have jumped since the Fukushima nuclear disaster, with utilities looking to boost supplies from North America to diversify supply sources and lower prices.

The deal marks Kansai's second purchase of U.S. shale gas. It has agreed to buy 800,000 tonnes per year from the U.S. Cove Point export plant in Maryland.

The U.S. Energy Department in February approved exports from Sempra Energy's Cameron LNG project as the Obama administration moves forward with its goal of expanding the global market for the fuel. (Reporting by Osamu Tsukimori; Editing by Joseph Radford)

- **UPDATE 4-Pipe explodes at Williams LNG facility in Washington state** | *31 Mar*

30-Year Fixed Jumbo	4.75%	4.35%

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CHENIERE

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700 Milam Street, Suite 800
Houston, Texas 77002
phone: 713.375.5000
fax: 713.375.6000

March 20, 2014

Ms. Kimberly D. Bose, Secretary
Federal Energy Regulatory Commission
888 First Street, N.E.
Washington, D.C. 20426

Re: Sabine Pass LNG, L.P. and Sabine Pass Liquefaction, LLC
Monthly Construction Progress Report for Sabine Pass Liquefaction Project
Docket Nos. CP11-72-000 & CP13-2-000

Dear Ms. Bose:

On April 16, 2012, the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission ("FERC") issued an Order Granting Authorization under Section 3(a) of the Natural Gas Act ("April 16 Order") in the above-captioned docket. The Order authorizes Sabine Pass LNG, L.P. and Sabine Pass Liquefaction, LLC ("Sabine Pass") to site, construct, and operate the Sabine Pass Liquefaction Project at the Sabine Pass LNG Terminal, located in Cameron Parish, Louisiana. On August 2, 2013, the FERC issued an Order Amending Section 3 Authorization ("August 2 Order") for the Sabine Pass Modification Project.

Pursuant to Condition 7 in Appendix D of the April 16 Order, and Condition 7 of the August 2 Order, Sabine Pass is herein submitting its monthly construction progress report for February 2014.

Should you have any questions about this filing, please feel free to contact the undersigned at (713) 375-5000.

Thank you,

/s/ *Karri Mahmoud*

Karri Mahmoud
Sabine Pass LNG, L.P.
Sabine Pass Liquefaction, LLC

cc: Ms. Sentho White, Federal Energy Regulatory Commission
Ms. Karla Bathrick, Federal Energy Regulatory Commission
Ms. Magdalene Suter, Federal Energy Regulatory Commission
Mr. Stephen Kusy, Federal Energy Regulatory Commission

SABINE PASS LIQUEFACTION PROJECT

Cameron Parish, Louisiana

Monthly Progress Report
February 2014

Table of Contents

1.0 Executive Summary

This report covers activities of the SPL Stage 1 and SPL Stage 2 projects occurring during the month of February 2014. Stage 1 Engineering is 94.4% complete, Procurement is 91.4%, and Subcontract and direct hire Construction work are 37.1% and 18.6% complete, respectively, for the period. Stage 1 overall project completion is 60.8% against the plan of 63.6%.

Stage 2 Engineering is now 48.1% complete, Procurement is 38.1%, and Subcontract and direct hire Construction work are 12.0% and 0.4% complete, respectively. Overall project completion for Stage 2 is 23.3% against the plan of 22.3%.

Actual project progress and current recovery plans continues to support the achievement of the scheduled Substantial Completion Dates for Trains 1 and 2, which remain as February 2016 and June 2016, respectively. Trains 3 and 4 Substantial Completion Dates are April 2017 and August 2017.

2.0 Project Highlights

In February, Stage 1 engineering is complete and is in punch list mode. For Stage 2, engineering completed the IFC of all Train 3 ISOs.

The Train 1 heavy wall vessels and the propane substation building have arrived at Site. The 1st set of refrigeration compressors are in transit and will arrive in March, as will the BOG compressors and the first shipments of air coolers for the Train 1 cryo rack. First structural steel for Train 3 was delivered to site in February. Procurement continues to support construction activities at the jobsite through delivery of piping and structural items.

During the month of February, Subcontracts managed the following major subcontracts for Trains 1 and 2: soil improvement, field erected tanks, onsite concrete batch plant, offsite equipment insulation, permanent telecommunications, and fire/gas detection. The electric heat tracing subcontract was awarded. For Trains 3 and 4, Subcontracts managed efforts for pile fabrication and installation, field erected tanks, and busing.

Construction in Train 1 continued in structural and paving concrete, structural steel erection, and installation of underground and aboveground piping, electrical grounding, cable tray and mechanical equipment. Train 2 work continued in structural and paving concrete, structural steel erection, electrical grounding, and installation of underground and aboveground pipe. Construction in the OSBL area continued with structural and paving concrete, structural steel erection, electrical grounding, installation of underground and aboveground pipe, and mechanical equipment installation. The Revamp area continued in structural concrete, structural steel erection, underground and aboveground piping, and electrical cable.

Construction in Train 3 continues with concrete works in area 233N01 and Train 3 underground piping. Seal slabs have been poured in area 233A01 and 233D01 and excavation was done for the hot oil sump.

3.0 Environmental, Safety & Health Progress

During the month of February, the project had 34 first aid, 18 near misses, and 1 OSHA recordable.

	Near Miss Cases		First Aid		OSHA Cases		LWDC Cases	
	Month	ITD[1]	Month	ITD[1]	Month	ITD[1]	Month	ITD[1]
Bechtel	18	106	34	267	1	8	0	0
Subcontractors	0	26	0	20	0	5	0	0
Total	**18**	**132**	**34**	**287**	**1**	**13**	**0**	**0**

[1.] ITD = Project totals reflect inception to date and are combined for Stage 1 & 2.

4.0 Schedule

Overall, Train 1 & 2 project progress is 60.8% complete against a plan of 63.6%. Overall Train 3 & 4 project progress is 23.3% complete against a plan of 22.3% complete.

5.0 Construction

Area	Comments	Planned Work for Next Reporting Period
Liquefaction Stage 1 Area – Train 1	• Continued constructing foundations, erecting structural steel and installing above ground and underground piping. • Continued installing mechanical equipment. • Continued installing electrical cable tray in the propane condenser rack.	• Continue activities to support Train 1 construction.
Liquefaction Stage 1 Area – Train 2	• Continued constructing foundations, erecting structural steel and installing above ground and underground piping. • Installing mechanical equipment	• Continue activities to support Train 2 construction.
Liquefaction Stage 2 Area – Train 3	• Placement of the seal slab in the Train 3 propane Area. • Train 3 piles reached substantial completion. • Started placement of structural concrete. • Started excavation for the hot oil sump. • Started underground piping installation in the Train 3 area.	• Continue soil stabilization. • Continue pile driving. • Continue activities to support Train 3 construction.
Liquefaction Stage 2 Area – Trains 4	• Soil Stabilization • Continue pile driving activities within Train 4 and OSBL.	• Continue soil stabilization. • Continue pile driving.

Area	Comments	Planned Work for Next Reporting Period
OSBL	• Constructing pipe racks in the LNG Tank 3 and 5 areas. • Constructing the marine flare. • Continued constructing foundations and erecting structural steel.	• Continue activities to support OSBL construction.
Support Buildings Area	• Continued construction of the warehouse and control room. • Continued constructing pipe racks in the Tank 3 and 5 areas. • Continued constructing the marine flare.	• Continue warehouse and control room work.
Access Roads, Waterline	• Water trucks were operated for dust control, as necessary.	• Dust control will continue.
Laydown, Staging Areas	• Continued mixing for soil stabilization and began laying rock in the area north of Trains 3 and 4.	• Contractors will continue to mobilize personnel and equipment.
Construction Dock (Ro-Ro)	• Received and offload pile barges at the construction dock. • Receiving and offloading heavy equipment at the Ro-Ro. • Dredging occurred this period.	• Continue to receive pile barges.

6.0 Permitting and Environmental

None.

Summary of Problems, Non-Compliances, and Corrective Actions.

Date	Description
None.	

Agency Contacts/Inspections

Agency	Name	Date	Location/Activity

Proposed Changes to Schedule or Scope:
None.

7.0 Progress Pictures

Train 1 131G02 (inlet gas-seal slab for paving) (24-Feb-2014)

Train 1 131K01 (dehydration mercury removal) (24-Feb-2014)

Train 1 131N01 (propane rack accumulator set) (20-Feb-2014)

Train 1 131N02 (propane substation) (24-Feb-2014)

Train 1 131N01 (set accumulator) (24-Feb-2014)

Train 2 132A01 (compressor methane tabletop) (27-Feb-2014)

Train 2 132A02 (compressor substation) (27-Feb-2014)

Train 2 132B01 (amine storage area and thermal oxidizer) (24-Feb-2014)

Train 2 131M01 (heavies removal unit paving) (13-Feb-2014)

OSBL 135F01 (water treatment area) (24-Feb-2014)

Certificate of Service

I hereby certify that I have this day served the foregoing document upon each person designated on the official service list compiled by the Secretary in this proceeding.

Dated at Houston, Texas this 20th day of March 2014.

/s/ *Karri Mahmoud*
Karri Mahmoud
Sabine Pass LNG, L.P.
Sabine Pass Liquefaction, LLC

Document Content(s)

DOE approves Dominion Cove Point LNG exports to non-FTA countries

WASHINGTON, DC, Sept. 11
09/11/2013
By Nick Snow
OGJ Washington Editor

The US Department of Energy approved Dominion Cove Point LP's application to export LNG from its terminal in Calvert County, Md., to countries that do not have a free-trade agreement with the US.

Subject to environmental review and final regulatory approval, the facility on Chesapeake Bay received conditional authorization to export as much as 0.77 bcfd for of 20 years, DOE said on Sept. 11. The installation previously received clearance to export LNG to non-FTA countries on Oct. 7, 2011, it noted.

"We agree with DOE's decision that exports are expected to bring economic benefits to the country," said Thomas F. Farrell II, chief executive of parent Dominion Resources Inc. "It is good news on many fronts, including the thousands of jobs that will be created, the boost in government revenues that will result, and the support it provides to allied nations."

Dominion Cove Point's proposed liquefaction and export operations are expected to cost $3.4-3.8 billion. The company sought approval for them in March from the US Federal Energy Regulatory Commission. Pending receipt of regulatory approval and permits, construction is scheduled to begin in 2014, with a 2017 in-service date.

The installation already has robust infrastructure, including connections to the pipeline grid, LNG storage capacity, and an updated pier. Construction will chiefly entail adding liquefaction capability, Dominion said.

It said the facility's capacity is fully subscribed, with signed 20-year terminal service agreements. Pacific Summit Energy LLC, a US affiliate of Japanese trading company Sumitomo Corp., and GAIL Global (USA) LNG LLC, a US affiliate of GAIL (India) Ltd., each have contracted for half of the marketed capacity.

Under amendments to the 1920 Natural Gas Act, DOE is required to determine if an applicant's request to export LNG to a non-FTA country is in the national interest. In Dominion Cove Point's case, it said it considered the economic, energy security, and environmental impacts, as well as public comments for and against the application and nearly 200,000 public comments related to the associated analysis of the cumulative impacts of increased LNG exports.

Dominion Cove Point is the fourth US LNG terminal to gain DOE approval of exports to non-FTA nations. Sabine Pass Liquefaction LLC, Freeport LNG Expansion LLC, and Lake Charles Exports LLC's applications were approved earlier. DOE has another 19 non-FTA LNG export applications under review.

Contact Nick Snow at nicks@pennwell.com.

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FACTBOX-North America natural gas export plans

Fri, Mar 14 2014

March 14 (Reuters) - Freeport LNG's proposed liquefied natural gas export terminal in Texas inched closer to approval by the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission with the release of a draft report on Friday finding the project would not cause significant environmental harm.

Companies need approval from both the U.S. Department of Energy, which determines whether the proposed exports would be in the public interest, and FERC, which assesses safety and environmental effects of the projects' construction and operation.

Freeport is one of four companies waiting for a decision from FERC after receiving permission from the DOE for exports to countries without free trade agreements with the United States.

Cheniere Energy Inc's Sabine Pass project in Louisiana is the only terminal that has received permission from both agencies so far.

FERC typically sets a schedule for carrying out its environmental review of each project, with decisions on licenses usually issued 30 to 90 days after the assessments are completed.

Below is a table showing the proposed and potential LNG export plants in North America according to FERC and the release dates set for the commission's environmental reviews so far. Capacity is in billion cubic feet per day (*indicates project has received DOE, non-free trade agreement approval).

Approved by FERC

Project	State	Company	Start Up	Capacity
*Sabine Pass	Louisiana	Cheniere Energy	2015	2.6

Proposed to FERC

Project	State	Company	Start Up	Capacity
*Freeport LNG	Texas	Freeport LNG/FLNG Liquefaction	2015	1.8
*Lake Charles	Louisiana	Southern Union-Trunkline LNG	TBD	2
*Cove Point	Maryland	Dominion	2016	0.77
*Hackberry	Louisiana	Sempra-Cameron LNG	2018	1.7
Coos Bay	Oregon	Jordan Cove Energy Project	2017	0.9
Elba Island	Georgia	Southern LNG Company	TBD	0.35
Lavaca LNG	Texas	Excelerate Liquefaction	2017	1.38
Magnolia LNG	Louisiana	LNG Limited	2017	1.07
Sabine Pass, TX	Texas	ExxonMobil-Golden Pass	2018	2.1
Corpus Christi	Texas	Cheniere Energy	2017	2.1
Plaquemines Parish	Louisiana	CE FLNG	2018	1.07
Astoria	Oregon	Oregon LNG	2017	1.3
Sabine Pass, LA	Louisiana	Sabine Pass Liquefaction (expansion)	2017	1.3

Final environmental reviews scheduled by FERC

Freeport LNG	June 16, 2014
Cove Point	May 15, 2014
Hackberry (Cameron LNG)	April 30, 2014
Corpus Christi	Oct. 8, 2014

Potential U.S. Project Sites

Project	State	Company	Start-up	Capacity
Cameron Parish	Louisiana	Gasfin Development	TBD	0.2
Brownsville	Texas	Gulf Coast LNG Export	TBD	2.8
Pascagoula	Mississippi	Gulf LNG Liquefaction	TBD	1.5

Cameron Parish	Louisiana	Venture Global	TBD	0.7
Cameron Parish	Louisiana	Waller LNG Services	TBD	0.16
Ingleside	Texas	Pangea LNG	2018	1.09

Proposed Canadian Sites

Kitimat	British Columbia	Apache Canada	2015	0.7
Douglas Island	British Columbia	BC LNG Export Cooperative	2014	0.25
Kitimat	British Columbia	LNG Canada	2020	3.2

Potential Canadian Project Sites

Prince Rupert Island	British Columbia	BG Group	2021	4.2
Goldboro LNG	Nova Scotia	Pieridae Energy Canada	2020	0.7
Melford	Nova Scotia	H-Energy	2020	1.8
Prince Rupert Island	British Columbia	Pacific Northwest LNG	TBD	2.5
Prince Rupert Island	British Columbia	ExxonMobil-Imperial	TBD	3.8
Squamish	British Columbia	Woodfibre LNG Export	TBD	0.3

(Reporting by Ayesha Rascoe; Editing by Marguerita Choy)

MAGNOLIA LNG fact sheet

PROJECT	Magnolia LNG, LLC, proposes to construct, own and operate a mid-scale liquefied natural gas (LNG) export facility that will use a thermally efficient LNG process technology.
LOCATION	108 acres of industrial land on Industrial Canal South Shore (PLC Tract 475), through a long-term lease with the Lake Charles Harbor and Terminal District (Port of Lake Charles). The Project site is located on an existing LNG shipping channel and the facility will be accessible by road, near the intersection of Henry Pugh Boulevard and Big Lake Road (Conceptual Layout and Site Map on reverse side).
PROCESS	It is proposed that the Project will receive natural gas via an existing pipeline. The natural gas will be treated, liquefied, and stored onsite. The LNG will be loaded onto LNG vessels for delivery to domestic and export markets and into trucks for domestic distribution in Louisiana and surrounding states.
CAPACITY	At full plant capacity, the Project will consist of four LNG trains (gas liquefaction units), each with a nominal LNG production capacity of 2 million tonnes per annum (mtpa).
TECHNOLOGY	Optimized Single Mixed Refrigerant (OSMR®) liquefaction process has the following main features, which contribute to its high efficiency and 30% less emissions: • Aeroderivative gas turbines and efficient compressors. • Combined heat and power plant, which minimizes plant fuel gas use. • Steam-driven ammonia refrigeration system. OSMR® is 100% developed and owned by Magnolia LNG, LLC's parent company, Liquefied Natural Gas Limited.
OWNER	Magnolia LNG, LLC, a wholly owned subsidiary of Liquefied Natural Gas Limited (www.lnglimited.com.au), GPO Box 920, West Perth WA 6872 Australia
INITIAL INVESTMENT	$2.2 billion, for Phase 1 of the Project comprising two LNG Trains, each of 2 mtpa LNG production capacity.
JOBS	Based on estimates by Magnolia LNG, LLC and the Louisiana Department of Economic Development Phase 1 of the Project will generate approximately 1,000 construction jobs, 45 permanent direct jobs and an additional 175 indirect jobs, and provide significant economic benefits for the State of Louisiana and the United States of America.
SCHEDULE	Magnolia LNG, LLC, is targeting commencement of construction in 2015 and initial start-up of operations in late 2017.

CONTACT

Ernie Megginson
VP–Project Management
Magnolia LNG, LLC

Email: emegginson@lnglimited.com.au

616 Broad Street | Lake Charles, LA 70601


MAGNOLIA
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L
MAGNOLIA LNG PROJECT
CONCEPTUAL LAYOUT - 8 MTPA

MAGNOLIA LNG

PROJECT OVERVIEW

Total Capital Cost (Phase 1)
US$ 2.2 Billion

Estimated Construction Jobs **1,000**

Estimated Direct Employment **45**

Estimated Indirect Employment **175**

Phase 1 (4 mtpa) focused on Domestic and FTA Markets

Construction Start
Mid-2015

Operations Start
Late 2017

MAGNOLIA**LNG**.COM

MAGNOLIA LNG

FREQUENTLY ASKED QUESTIONS

What is LNG?

- Liquefied natural gas (LNG) is natural gas in its liquid form.
- Cooled to –260°F, LNG is a clear, colorless, odorless, non-corrosive, non-toxic liquid.
- Primarily methane, with low concentrations of other hydrocarbons, water, carbon dioxide, nitrogen and some sulphur compounds.
- Sometimes confused with LPG (liquefied petroleum gas), which is used for domestic and commercial applications. LPG is kept liquid by confining under high pressure; LNG is kept liquid at normal atmospheric pressure by maintaining a very low temperature.

How is LNG used?

- Before LNG can be used, it must be converted back into a gas (regasification).
- After regasification, supplied to households, power stations and other industrial consumers through pipelines.
- LNG in liquid form used as cleaner alternative transportation fuel.

Why use LNG?

- Natural gas is the cleanest-burning fossil fuel, producing less emissions and pollutants than coal or oil.
- Occupies only 1/600th of the volume of natural gas; more economical to transport; can be stored in larger quantities.

How is LNG stored?

- Stored in large insulated tanks consisting of an inner tank and outer tank, with a special insulating layer between.

How is LNG transported?

- Transported in double-hulled ships designed specifically to handle the low temperature of LNG.
- LNG weighs less than half the weight of water so it will float if spilled on water, quickly boiling off and dissipating into the atmosphere, leaving no residue. No environmental clean-up is needed for an LNG spill on water.

Is LNG flammable?

- As a liquid, LNG is not flammable. Vaporized LNG is only flammable if its concentration is within 5%–15% natural gas with air.

Is LNG explosive?

- As a liquid, LNG is not explosive. LNG vapors (methane) mixed with air are not explosive in an unconfined environment. LNG vapor will explode only if in a confined space, and only if within the flammable range of 5% to 15% natural gas with air.

How safe are LNG ships and LNG terminals?

- The LNG industry has an excellent safety record thanks to the safe properties of LNG and the stringent enforcement of standards, codes and guidelines applying to LNG.
- To date there have been more than 50,000 transported shipments by LNG tankers, covering more than 70 million nautical miles, without a single significant accident or safety problem, neither in a port nor at sea.

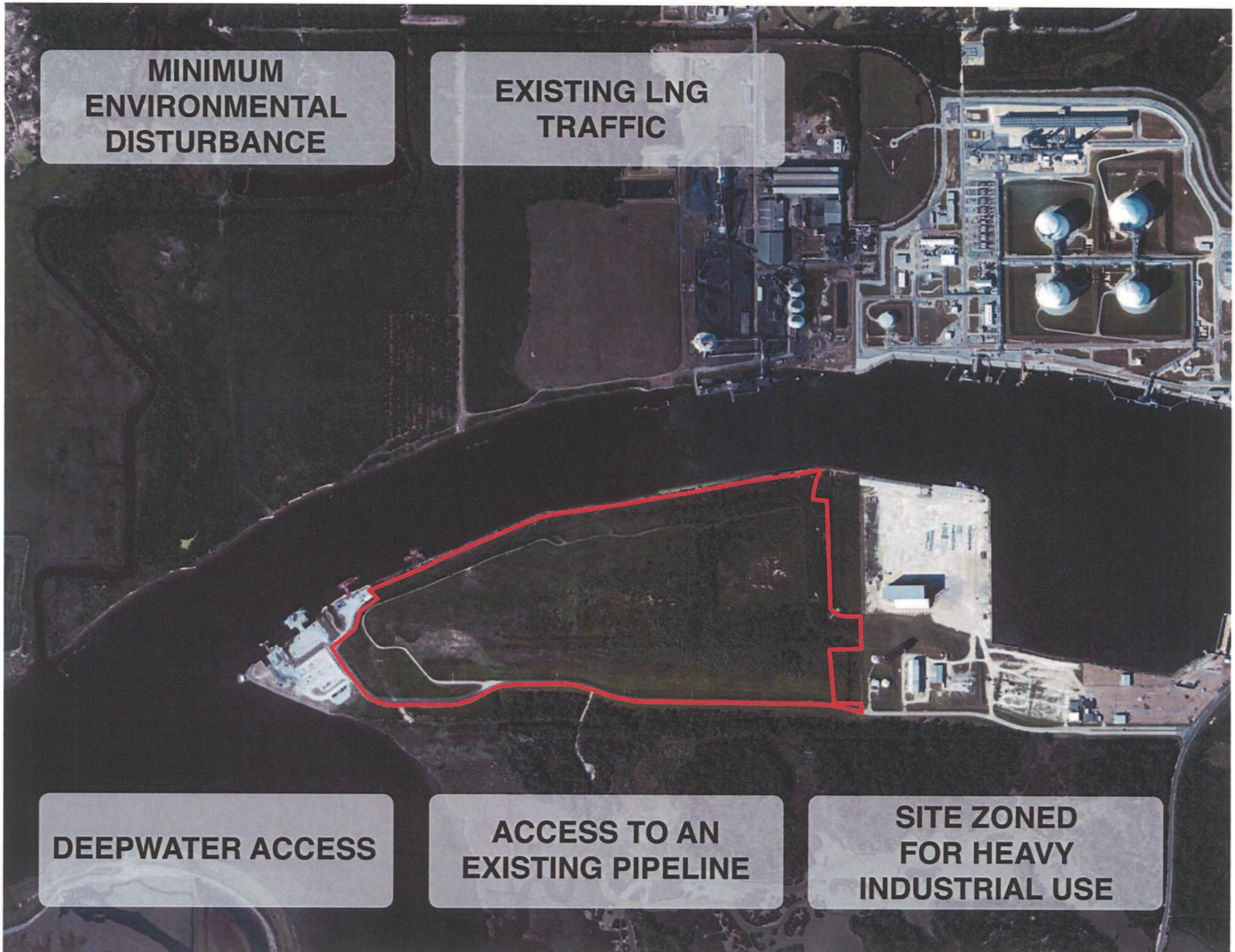
How secure are LNG ships and LNG facilities?

- The LNG industry adheres to stringent security procedures for its ships and facilities. The industry carefully follows requirements set forth by the International Maritime Organization, Federal Energy Regulatory Commission, Department of Transportation, and the U.S. Coast Guard and works closely with the Department of Homeland Security to ensure that its operations are safe and secure.

Source: www.LNGFacts.org

The LNG Industry in General

- This industry has an excellent safety record spanning many decades.
- LNG terminals (export and import) are located all over the world.
- There are over 80 LNG reception terminals and approximately 30 LNG liquefaction plants in operation worldwide, with over 40 planned new and expanded LNG terminals, and more than 30 planned liquefaction plants and expansions.


MINIMUM
ENVIRONMENTAL
DISTURBANCE
EXISTING LNG
TRAFFIC
DEEPWATER ACCESS
ACCESS TO AN
EXISTING PIPELINE
SITE ZONED
FOR HEAVY
INDUSTRIAL USE

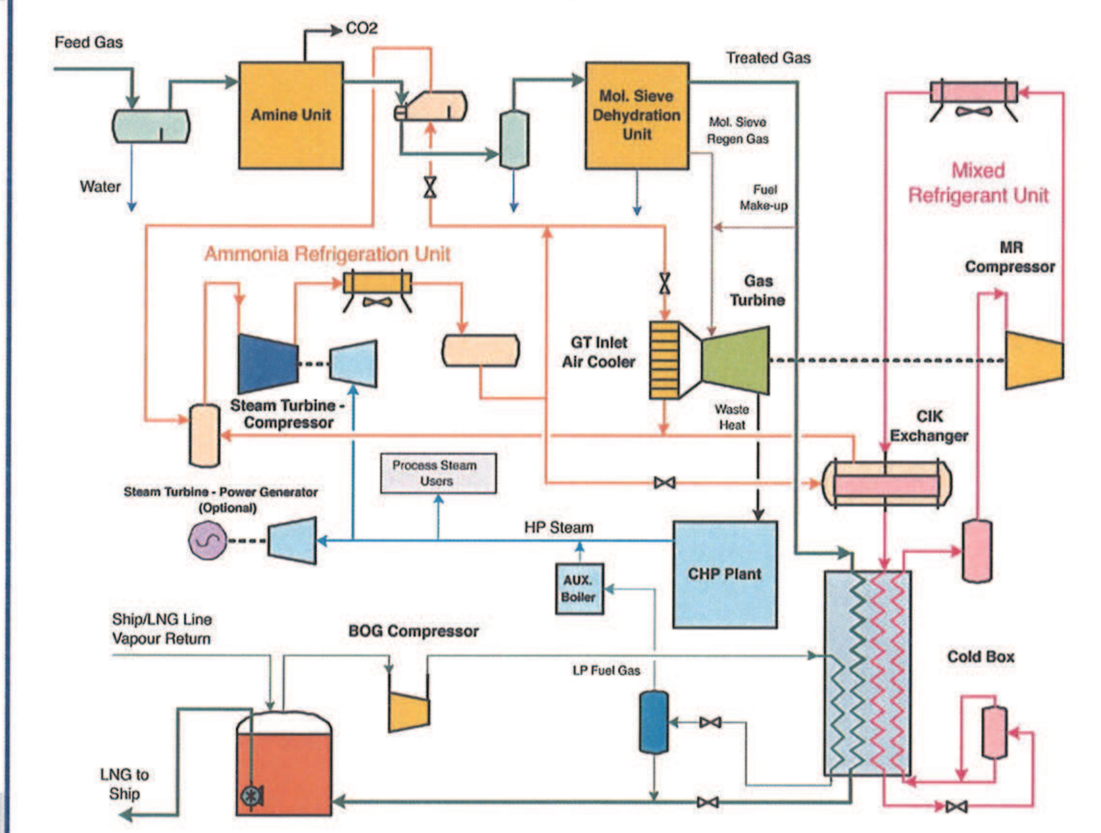
LIQUEFACTION TECHNOLOGIES

Large Scale Liquefaction Technology (>3 mtpa)
ConocoPhillips – Cascade Process
API – C3MR Process
Shell – Dual MR

Medium Scale Liquefaction Technology (1-3 mpta)
LNG Limited – OSMR® Process

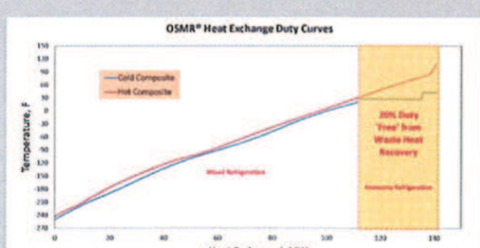
Small Scale Liquefaction Technology (< 1 mtpa)
Black & Veatch – PRICO – SMR Process
Hamworthy – N2 Expansion

OSMR® PROCESS SCHEMATIC



MAGNOLIA LNG

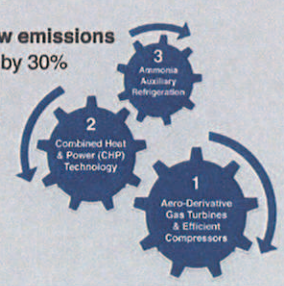
OSMR® COOLING CURVE



OSMR® BENEFITS

Simplicity in design, construction and operation
- Faster construction
- Proven technology
- Reduced capital requirement
- Location flexibility
- Less footprint required
- Simple start-up & operation
- Low turndown

High efficiency and low emissions
- Improved efficiency by 30%
- Better economics
- Reduced emissions



MAGNOLIA LNG

PARTIAL LIST OF SUBJECTS IN ENVIRONMENTAL STUDY

AIR EMISSIONS

WATER DISCHARGES

WATER USE

WATER QUALITY

STORM WATER RUN OFF

WETLANDS IMPACTS

DREDGING AND SPOIL PLACEMENT

WILDLIFE AND PROTECTED SPECIES

FISHERIES

LAND USE, RECREATION, AND AESTHETICS

CULTURAL RESOURCES AND HISTORIC PRESERVATION

SOCIAL AND SOCIOECONOMIC IMPACTS

SOILS AND GEOLOGY

SEISMIC ACTIVITY

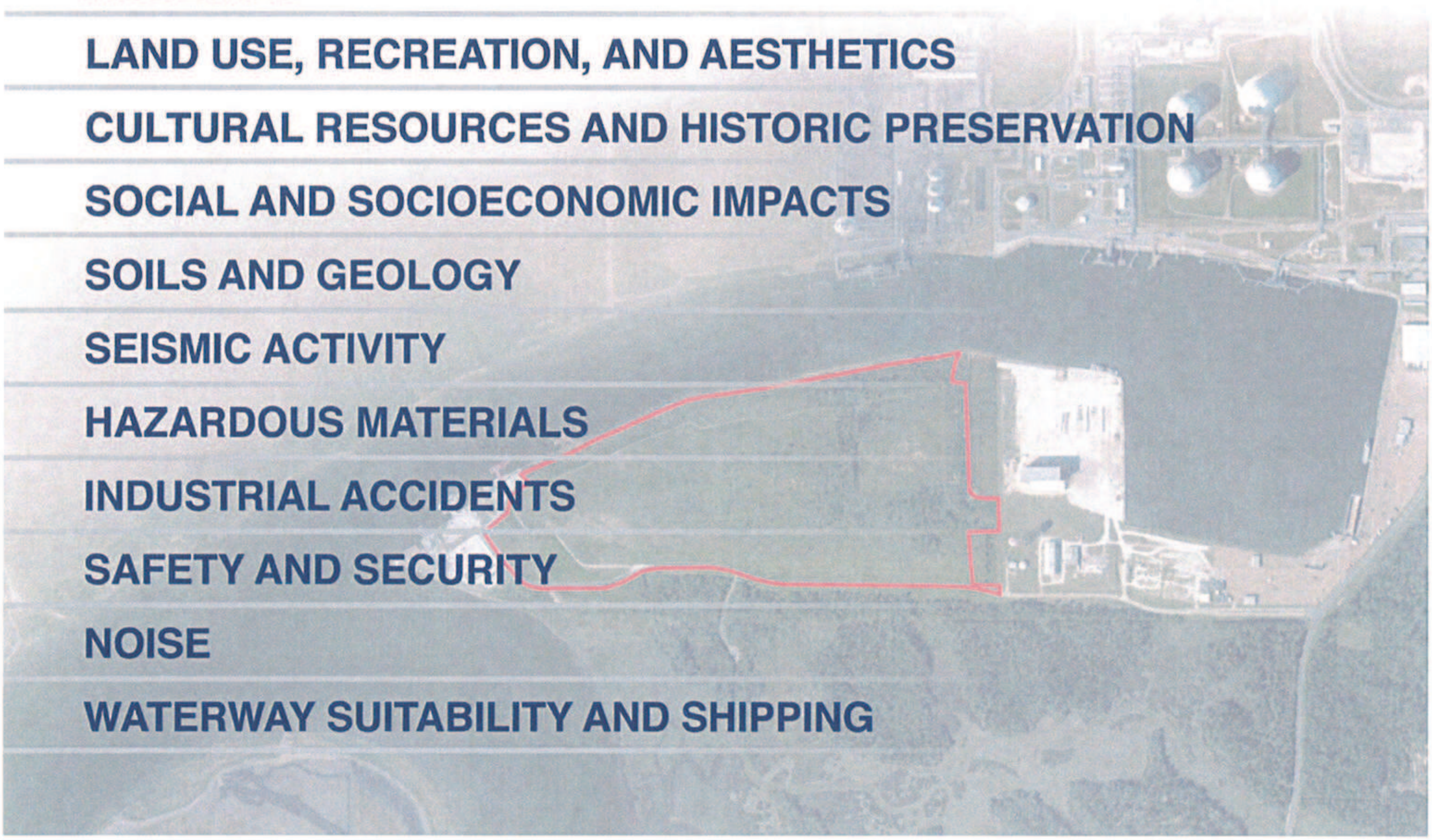
HAZARDOUS MATERIALS

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS

SAFETY AND SECURITY

NOISE

WATERWAY SUITABILITY AND SHIPPING



MAGNOLIA LNG

MAJOR AGENCY ROLES IN ENVIRONMENTAL AND SAFETY REVIEW

FEDERAL AGENCIES

Federal Energy Regulatory Commission
Order Granting Section 3 Authorization

National Oceanic & Atmospheric Administration: National Marine Fisheries Service
Consultation on essential fish habitat, sea turtles in the water, marine mammals, marine fisheries and other protected marine species under agency jurisdiction

U.S. Army Corps of Engineers
Section 10/404 Dredge and Fill Permit

U.S. Coast Guard
Letter of Recommendation for suitability of waterway for LNG marine traffic

U.S. Department of Interior, Fish and Wildlife Service
Consultation on migratory birds, bald and golden eagles, sea turtles on the beach, and other protected species under agency jurisdiction

U.S. Department of Transportation: Pipeline and Hazardous Materials Safety Administration
Applies and enforces federal safety regulations related to LNG facilities

STATE AGENCIES

Louisiana Department of Environmental Quality
Process air emissions permits, water discharge permits, storm water control permits

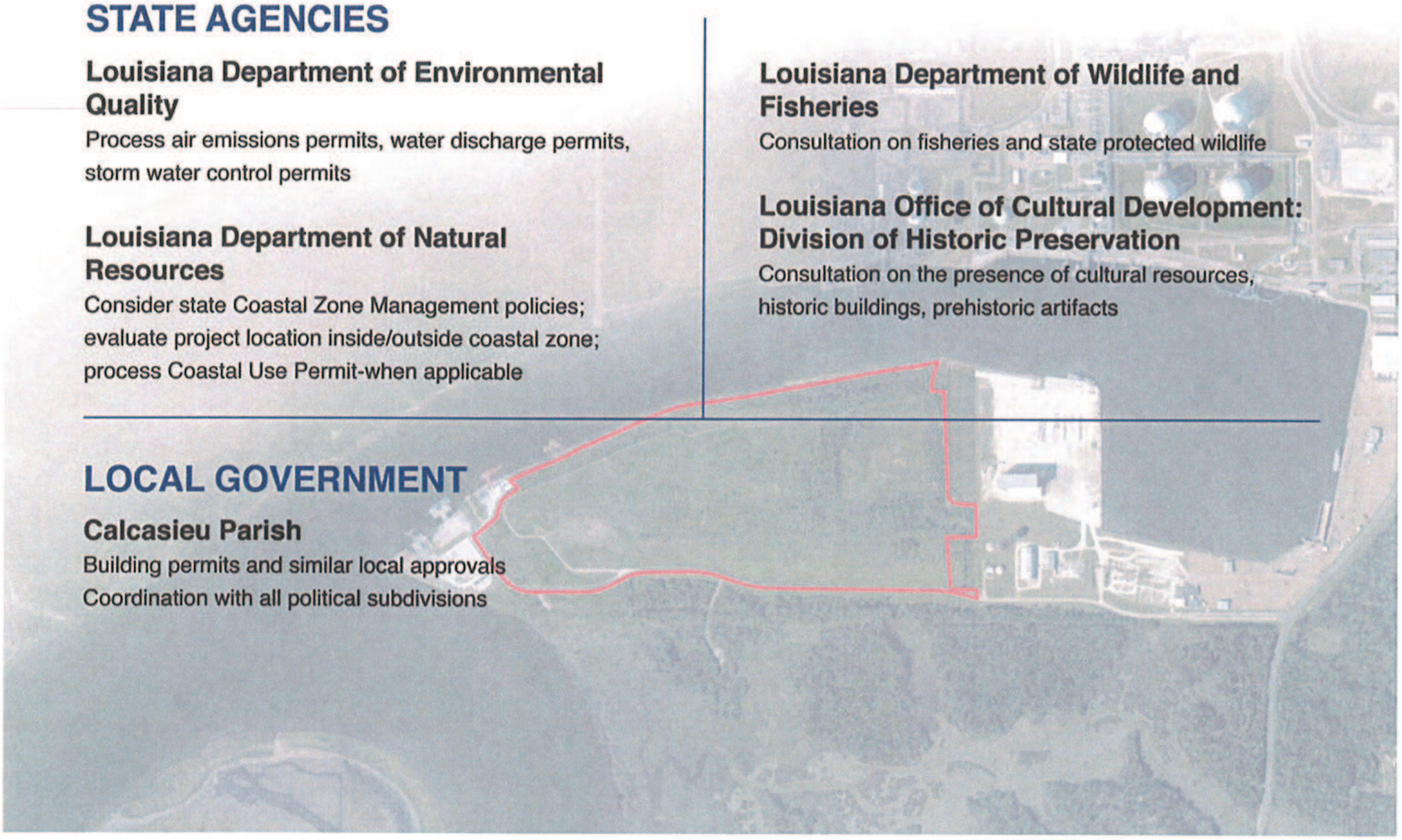
Louisiana Department of Natural Resources
Consider state Coastal Zone Management policies; evaluate project location inside/outside coastal zone; process Coastal Use Permit-when applicable

Louisiana Department of Wildlife and Fisheries
Consultation on fisheries and state protected wildlife

Louisiana Office of Cultural Development: Division of Historic Preservation
Consultation on the presence of cultural resources, historic buildings, prehistoric artifacts

LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Calcasieu Parish
Building permits and similar local approvals
Coordination with all political subdivisions



Endesa Buys More LNG from Cheniere

Posted on Apr 8th, 2014 with tags Buys, Cheniere, Endesa, LNG, News .

Cheniere Energy's unit Corpus Christi Liquefaction has entered into an LNG sale and purchase agreement with Endesa under which the Spanish company has agreed to purchase approximately 0.75 million tonnes per annum of LNG. The SPA is in addition to the previously signed SPA under which Endesa will purchase approximately 1.5 mtpa of LNG, bringing the total quantity of LNG sold to Endesa under the two agreements to approximately 2.25 mtpa.

The Corpus Christi Liquefaction project is being designed and permitted for up to three trains, with aggregate design production capacity of 13.5 mtpa of LNG.

Under the SPA, Endesa will purchase LNG on an FOB basis for a purchase price indexed to the monthly Henry Hub price plus a fixed component. LNG will be loaded onto Endesa's vessels. The SPA has a term of twenty years commencing upon the date of first commercial delivery and an extension option of up to ten years. Deliveries are expected to occur as early as 2018.

"Endesa has agreed to purchase an additional 0.75 mtpa from the Corpus Christi Liquefaction Project for use by their Italian parent company Enel," said **Charif Souki, Chairman and CEO.** "*We have now entered into a total of approximately 3 mtpa of SPAs at the project, completing the SPAs for Train 1. We continue to work towards finalizing additional agreements and expect*

to complete all necessary steps to reach a final investment decision and begin construction by early 2015."

Press Release, April 08, 2014; Image: Cheniere

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THE GLOBE AND MAIL

March 24, 2014

U.S. approves Veresen's LNG project in Oregon

By BRENT JANG

Terminal in Oregon will be supplied with Canadian natural gas to ship to Asia

The U.S. Department of Energy has approved an application to export liquefied natural gas from a proposed Oregon terminal that would tap into resources that originate in Canada.

The Jordan Cove LNG project, owned by an arm of Calgary-based Veresen Inc., will rely heavily on natural gas supplies to be transported through an existing pipeline network from Western Canada to Oregon.

Plans also call for building the 370-kilometre Pacific Connector feeder pipeline, co-owned by Veresen and Williams Companies Inc. of Tulsa, Okla., in an effort to bring in natural gas from suppliers in Wyoming and Colorado.

Veresen wants to export LNG to Asian customers in a fierce energy race on North America's West Coast. Rivals include one other U.S. Pacific Northwest project, Oregon LNG Marketing Co. LLC, and at least 14 B.C. LNG proposals. There is also global competition to export LNG to Asia, including from Qatar, Australia and Nigeria.

So far, Cheniere Energy Inc.'s Sabine Pass LNG project in Louisiana is the only LNG export project under construction in North America. Jordan Cove and five other U.S. proposals are awaiting approval from the U.S. Federal Energy Regulatory Commission.

Several B.C. LNG projects have been spending millions of dollars on site preparation and other costly preliminary planning, but none of the proponents have made final investment decisions.

Environmentalists and local residents oppose the Jordan Cove project in southern Oregon, but its backers point to economic benefits. Veresen chief executive officer Don Althoff said Monday that Jordan Cove will generate much-needed jobs and provide tax revenue to the Oregon government.

Last month, Canada's National Energy Board approved Jordan Cove's 25-year licence application to export up to 1.55 billion cubic feet a day of natural gas from Western Canada to the U.S.

Veresen said the Canadian natural gas will help supply the Oregon terminal to be constructed at Coos Bay. The LNG production launch is slated for early 2019.

The U.S. Department of Energy's 20-year authorization allows Jordan Cove to export nearly six million tonnes annually of LNG, subject to final regulatory approval. The department said it "considered the economic, energy security and environmental impacts" before giving its blessing Monday for Jordan Cove to export LNG to countries that do not have free-trade agreements with the United States. Jordan Cove needs to secure Asian customers to take delivery of LNG.