

# Early decarbonisation of the European energy system pays off

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## Abstract

One of the biggest challenges of our generation is how to transition towards a CO<sub>2</sub>-neutral society in a way that is effective, timely, and fair. In a context of increasing public awareness and plummeting costs for wind and solar photovoltaics, discussions on the possibility of increasing CO<sub>2</sub> reduction targets for Europe have started. Here, we model alternative transition paths with equivalent carbon budget for the sector-coupled networked European energy system. We show that realistic costs for wind and solar plus hourly resolution for balancing make climate action with renewables more cost-effective than previously seen. Moreover, we found that ambitious CO<sub>2</sub> reductions in the short term not only trigger a cheaper transition but also incentivise more stable CO<sub>2</sub> prices and build rates for the required new capacities which could be beneficial from the point of view of investors, social acceptance, local economies, and jobs creation.

**Keywords:**

A remaining global carbon budget of 800 Gigatons (Gt) of CO<sub>2</sub> can be emitted from 2018 onwards to limit the anthropogenic warming to 1.75°C relative to preindustrial period with a probability of greater than 66% [1]. Different sharing principles can be used to split the global carbon budget into regions and countries [2]. Considering an equal per-capita distribution translates into a quota of 48 GtCO<sub>2</sub> for Europe. Since the historical quota has been much higher this implies that Europe must be more ambitious than other regions. Assuming that sectoral distribution of emissions within Europe remains at present values, the carbon budget for the generation of electricity and provision of heating in the residential and services sector accounts for approximately 21 GtCO<sub>2</sub>, [3] and Supplementary Note 2. The budget increases to **X GtCO<sub>2</sub> when transport sector is included**. In this work, we investigate alternative transition paths with the same cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and discuss the best way of using the remaining budget.

Committing to certain CO<sub>2</sub> reduction targets is currently the main strategy that Europe is using to drive the transition. Although carbon emissions will most probably curb by 20% in 2020, relative to 1990 [4], it is unclear whether this will be the case for the -40% objective settled for 2030. The national energy plans for the coming decade submitted by member states do not add up the necessary reduction to meet the target [5], while in the context of a *European Green Deal* a more ambitious reduction of -55%

is currently under discussion [6]. At the same time and led by young people [7], society is claiming for more ambitious climate actions.

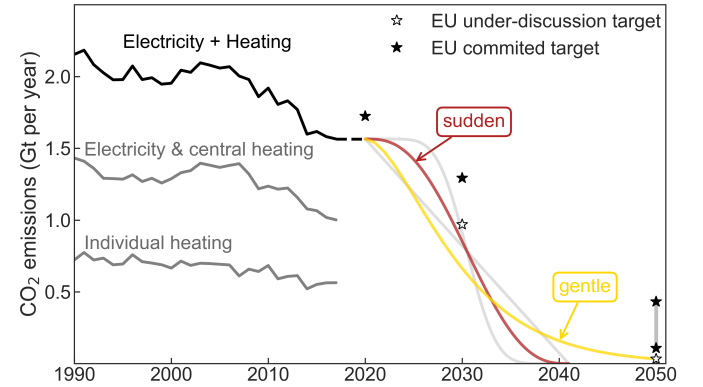


Figure 1: Historical CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the European power system and heating supply in the residential and services sectors [3]. The various future transition paths shown in the figure have the same cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, which correspond to the remaining 21 Gt CO<sub>2</sub> budget to avoid human-induced warming above 1.75°C with a probability of greater than 66%, assuming current sectoral distribution for Europe, and equity sharing principle among regions. Black stars indicate committed EU reduction targets, while white stars mark under-discussion targets.

Electricity generation is expected to spearhead the transition spurred by the dramatic cost reduction of wind [8] and solar photovoltaics (PV) [9, 10]. A vast body of literature shows that a power system based on wind, solar, and hydro generation can supply hourly electricity demand in Europe as long as proper balancing is provided [11–

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14]. This can be done reinforcing interconnections among neighbouring countries [15] to smooth renewable fluctuations by regional aggregation or through temporal balancing using local storage [16–18]. Moreover, coupling the power system with other sectors such as heating or transport could provide additional flexibilities facilitating the system operation and simultaneously helping to abate emissions in those sectors [19–21].

CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from heating in residential and services sector show a more modest historical reduction trend than electricity generation (Fig. 1). Nordic countries have been particularly successful in reducing carbon emissions from the heating sector by using sector-coupling strategies (Supplementary Note 3). Denmark, where more than half of the households are connected to district heating systems [22], has shifted the fuel used in Central Heat and Power (CHP) units from coal to biomass and urban waste incineration [23]. The high penetration of heat pumps in Sweden can be explained by a path-dependence process [22] and it is now supported by high CO<sub>2</sub> prices [24] and low electricity taxes.

Greenfield optimisation of the future European energy system, that is, building the system from scratch, shows that sector-coupling decreases the system cost and reduces the need for extending transmission lines due to the additional local flexibility brought by heating and transport sectors [20]. Sector-coupling allows further CO<sub>2</sub> reductions before large capacities of storage become necessary, providing more time to develop further storage technologies [18]. Greenfield optimisation is useful to investigate the optimal configuration of the fully-decarbonised system, but it does not provide insights on how to transition towards it. Today’s generation fleet and decisions taken in intermediate steps will shape the final configuration. Transition paths for the European power system have been analysed using myopic optimisation, without full foresight over the investment horizon [25–28]. Myopic optimisation results in higher cumulative system cost than optimising the entire transition period with perfect foresight because the former leads to stranded investments [27, 29]. However, the myopic approach is less sensitive to the assumed discount rate and can capture better short-sighted behaviour of political actors and investors.

Here, we use a sector-coupled networked model of the European energy system and myopic optimisation in 5–121 years steps from 2020 to 2050 to investigate the impact of different CO<sub>2</sub> restriction paths with the same carbon budget. In every time step, the expansion of generation, storage and interconnection capacities in every country is allowed if it results cost-effective under the corresponding global emissions constraint. We show that realistic costs for wind and solar plus hourly resolution for balancing make climate action with renewables more cost-effective than previously seen. Furthermore, we found that a transition path with more ambitious short-term CO<sub>2</sub> targets reduces the cumulative system cost and requires more stable CO<sub>2</sub> price and build rates. Our research includes the

coupling with heating and transport sectors, contrary to existing transition paths analyses for the European power system [26–28], as well as realistic cost assumption for wind and solar PV together with hourly resolution, contrary to most Integrated Assessment Models (IAMs) []. By using an open model, we ensure transparency and reproducibility of the results in a discipline with high policy relevance such as it is energy modelling [30, 31].

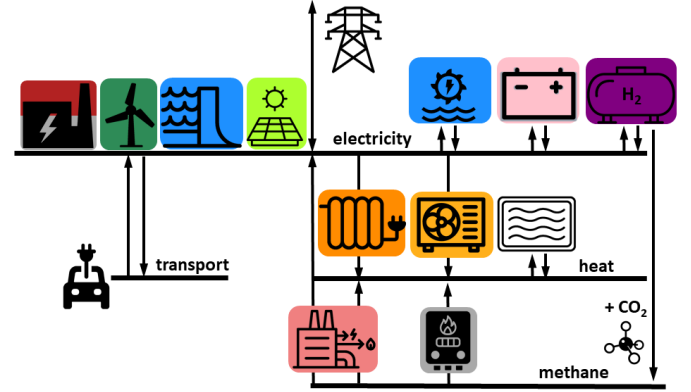


Figure 2: Model diagram representing the main technologies and links in every country.

### Cumulative costs and stranded assets.

Here we investigate the consequences of following two alternative transition paths. The Gentle path represents a cautious approach in which significant emissions reduction are attained in the early years. In the Sudden path, the low initial reduction targets quickly deplete the carbon budget requiring a sharp reduction later. As in Aesop’s fable, making fun of the cautious tortoise, following the hare strategy and delaying climate action requires a later speeding up that will be more expensive and might be unfeasible.

The two alternative paths arrive at a similar system configuration in 2050. Only in the later years, under heavy CO<sub>2</sub> restriction, balancing technologies appear in the system. They include large storage capacities comprising electric batteries and H<sub>2</sub> storage, methanation, and reinforced interconnections. Cumulative cost for the Gentle path represents 7,869 billion euros (B€), while the Sudden path accounts for 8,211 B€. The newly built conventional capacity for electricity generation is very modest in both cases, Fig. 3. Decarbonising the power system has proven to be cheaper than the heating sector [32]. Consequently, although CO<sub>2</sub> allowances differ, the electricity sector gets quickly decarbonised in both paths. More notable differences appear in new conventional heating capacities, Fig. 4. Regarding new renewable generation and power-to-heat capacities, both paths show major differences.

### Stranded assets.

Although conventional electricity generators do not extend significantly, the already existing capacities become

133 stranded assets. Utilisation factors for gas power plants  
 134 drop, Supplementary Note 8, and market revenues are not  
 135 enough to recover costs at any point, Fig 5. This is a con-  
 136 sequence of the large capacity of gas recently installed in  
 137 Europe. Fig. 3 shows that most of the gas capacity in  
 138 Europe was installed less than 25 years ago, part of this  
 139 capacity represents a stranded asset for both transition  
 140 paths. Although, infrautilisation of existing generation ca-  
 141 pacity might be seen as an unnecessary contribution to a  
 142 higher cost of energy it must be remarked that the early re-  
 143 tirement of electricity infrastructure has been identified as  
 144 one of the most cost-effective actions to reduce committed  
 145 emissions and enable a 2°C-compatible future evolution of  
 146 global emissions [33].

#### 147 *Transition smoothness.*

148 A timely transition is challenging yet doable. Decar-  
 149 bonising the electricity and heating sector using wind and  
 150 solar PV would requires duplicating the historical maxi-  
 151 mal build rates, Fig. 3. Consequently, attaining higher  
 152 build rates to also decarbonise transport and industry sec-  
 153 tors seems possible. Wind and solar PV provides 45% and  
 154 40% respectively of the electricity demand in 2050, comple-  
 155 mented by hydro generation. Previously, most IAMs have  
 156 failed to identify this optimal solution due to their unreal-  
 157 istically high PV cost assumptions, see [9? ] and Supple-  
 158 mentary Note 8. During the past decade, several European  
 159 countries have shown sudden increments in the annual  
 160 build rate for solar PV, followed by equivalent decrements  
 161 one or two years later. Italy, Germany, Spain, and UK  
 162 show clear peaks (see Supplementary Note 4) due to the  
 163 combination of a fast cost decrease of the technology and  
 164 unstable regulatory frameworks whose details are country-  
 165 specific. These peaks are lethal for local businesses. The  
 166 sudden shrinkage of annual build capacity results into com-  
 167 panies bankruptcy and job loss. The Gentle transition  
 168 path requires a smoother evolution of build rates which  
 169 could better accommodate the cultural, political, and so-  
 170 cial aspects of the transition [36].

171 CO<sub>2</sub> prices much higher than those historically attained  
 172 in the ETS market are necessary throughout the transi-  
 173 tion, Fig. 6. The Gentle path requires smoother evolution  
 174 of CO<sub>2</sub> price which will have a positive impact on investors.  
 175 Due to its large seasonal variation, decarbonisation of the  
 176 heating sector is known to require higher CO<sub>2</sub> prices than  
 177 the electricity sector, mainly to push into the system high-  
 178 efficiency but capital-expensive technologies such as heat  
 179 pumps [18, 20]. CO<sub>2</sub> price is only an indication of the  
 180 price gap between polluting and clean technologies and  
 181 several policies can be established to fill that gap. Among  
 182 others, sector-specific CO<sub>2</sub> taxes [24], auctions for renew-  
 183 able capacity that reduce the risk, and consequently the  
 184 WACC and LCOE of the technology [37], or regulatory  
 185 frameworks that incentivise the required technologies such  
 186 those promoting rooftop PV installations or ensuring the  
 187 competitiveness of district heating systems.

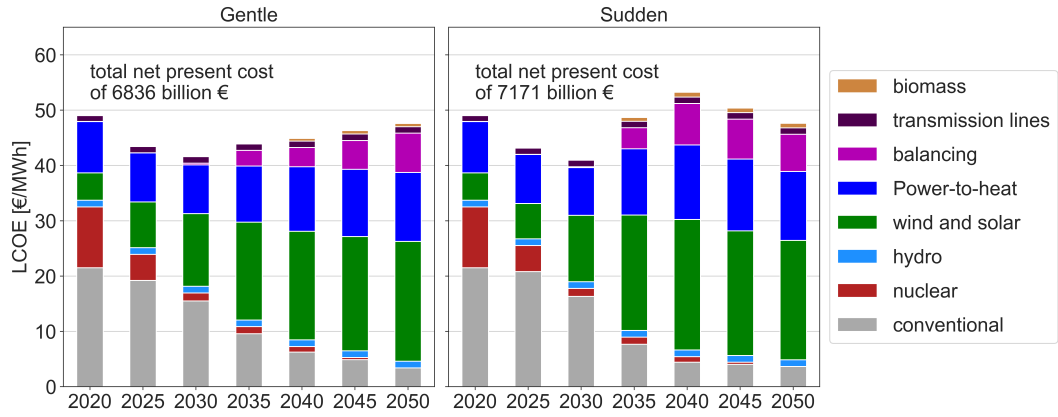


Figure 3: Levelized Cost of Energy (LCOE) for the European electricity and heating system throughout transition paths Gentle and Sudden shown in Fig. 1. Conventional includes costs associated with coal, lignite, and gas power plants producing electricity as well as costs for fossil-fueled boilers and CHP units. Power-to-heat category includes costs associated with heat pumps and heat resistors. Balancing includes cost of electric batteries,  $H_2$  storage, and methanation.

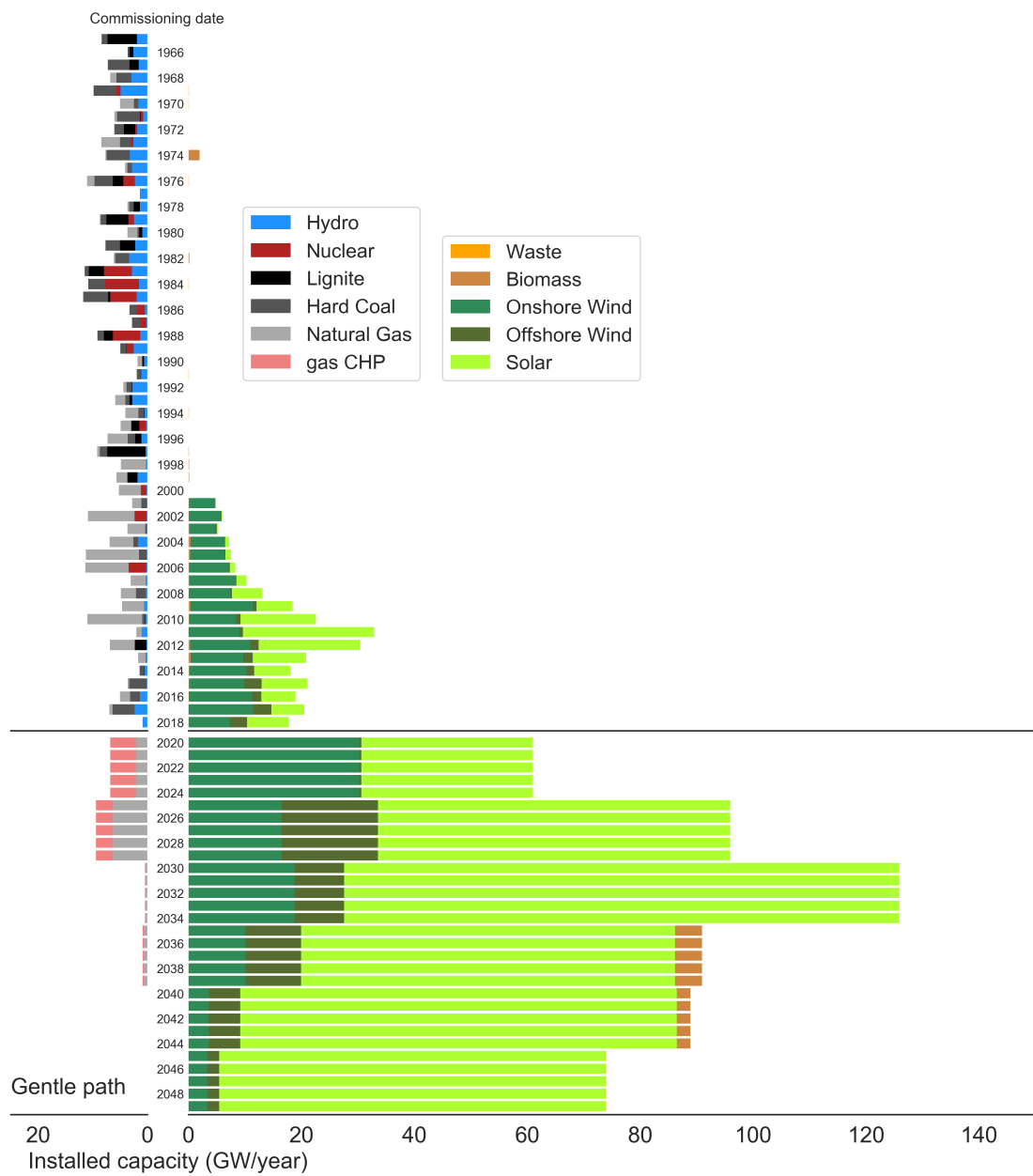


Figure 4: Age distribution of European power plants in operation [34, 35] and required annual installation in both paths.

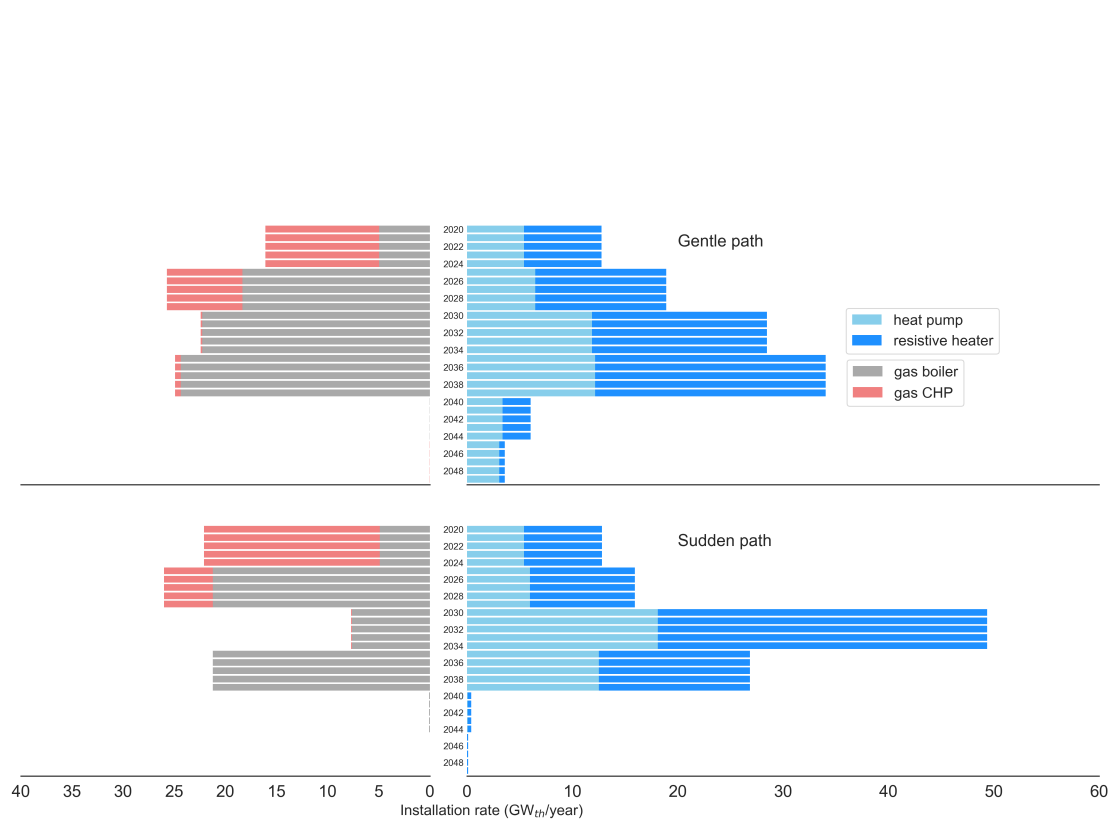


Figure 5: Required heating capacities expansion in both paths.

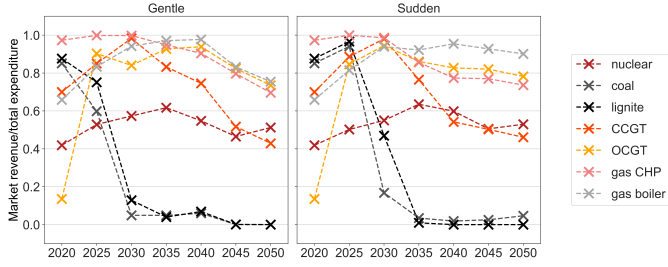


Figure 6: Ratio of market revenues to total expenditure for lignite, coal, gas, and nuclear power plants throughout transition paths shown in Fig. 1.

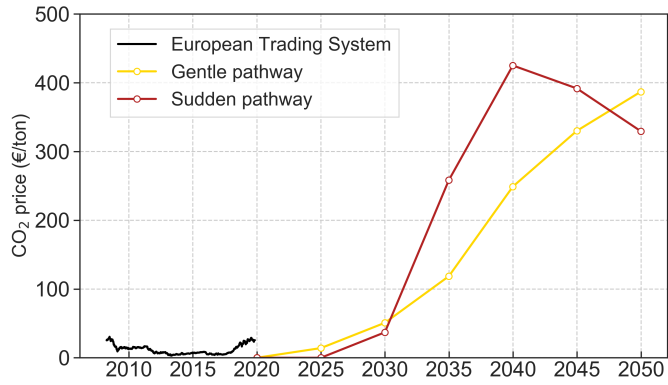


Figure 7: Historical evolution of CO<sub>2</sub> price in the European Trading System [38] and required CO<sub>2</sub> price obtained from the model throughout transition paths shown in Fig. 1

### Balancing renewable generation, time resolution.

Integrated Assessment Models (IAMs) with similar spatial resolution than our model, i.e., one node per country, have also been used to investigate the sector-coupled decarbonisation of Europe [9, 39, 40]. However, IAMs typically use a much lower time resolution, *e.g.*, using a few time slices to represent a full year [28, 40–43] or considering the residual load duration curve [9, 44]. The hourly resolution in our model unveils several effects that are critical to the operation of highly renewable systems, such as the solar and wind non-correlations smoothed by the grid, the role of long-term storage, and the system operation during cold spells, *i.e.* a cold week with low wind and solar generation.

For countries and time steps in which large solar PV capacities are deployed, it is also cost-effective to install large battery capacities to smooth the strong daily solar generation pattern. Conversely, onshore and offshore wind capacities require H<sub>2</sub> storage and reinforced interconnections to balance wind synoptic fluctuations [12, 15, 16, 18]. This can also be appreciated by looking at the dominant dispatch frequencies exposed by the Fourier power spectra of the dispatch time series, Fig. 7. The optimal renewable mix in every country depends on the local resources and the already existing capacities, see Fig. 14 in Supplementary Note 8. Nevertheless, it should be remarked that the analysis of near-optimal solutions has recently shown that country-specific mixes can vary significantly while keeping the total system cost only slightly higher than the minimum [45].

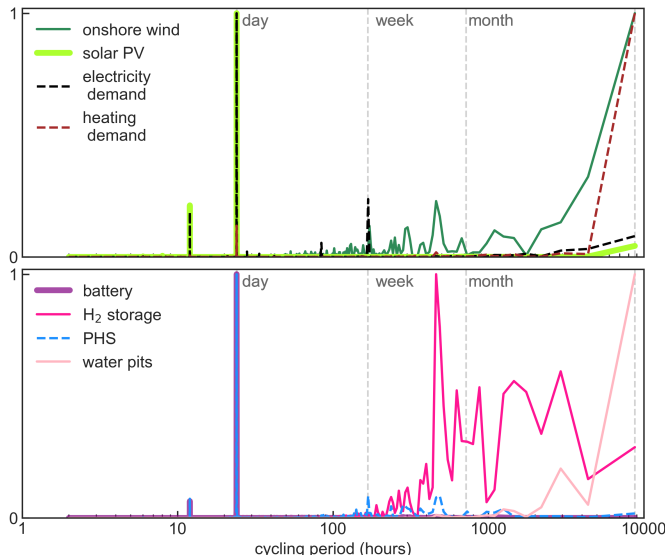


Figure 8: Fourier power spectra of wind and solar PV generation, electricity and heating demand, as well as storage technologies dispatch time series.

### The challenging decarbonisation of the heating sector.

District heating has proven to be extremely useful to decarbonise the heating sector. It allows cheaper cen-

tralised technologies such as heat pumps and CHP units, and makes possible a fast conversion because it is easier to substitute one central heating unit than a myriad of individual domestic systems. On top of that, district heating enables long-term thermal energy storage, via cheap large water pits, Fig. 7, that help to balance the large seasonal variation of heating demand, Supplementary Note 6. Previously, district heating penetration in every country was kept fixed at its value in 2015 [46] throughout the entire paths. When district heating is assumed to expand linearly so that in 2050 it covers the entire urban heat demand in every country, cumulative system cost for the Gentle path reduces by 13 B€. Although the additional cost of extending and maintaining the required district heating networks can be estimated in 10 B€/year [20] including in the calculation the avoided expansion of gas distribution networks when district heating is deployed, makes this option certainly cheaper.

### Impact of building retrofitting.

Retrofitting building stock at a rate of 2% have been observed in the past [47]. Assuming a 2% reduction of space heating per year and neglecting any rebound effect, this will translate into an approximately decrease of 40% of heating demand in 2050. Cumulative system cost decreases by X € compared to the paths with constant heating demand.

### Transitioning without grid expansion.

When the model is allowed to optimised transmission capacities after 2030 together with the generation and storage assets, the optimal configuration in at the end of the paths includes transmission volume approximately three times larger than that of 2030. Although the cumulative system cost is 84 B€ lower, it is unclear that it compensates the social acceptance issues associated with increasing transmission. A reinforced network favours the penetration of onshore and offshore wind whose capacities can increase in regions where the resource is high. Wind generation can be easily transported and smoothed by the grid. Lower hydrogen storage capacities are also needed due to the network contribution to wind balancing.

### Coupling the transport sector.

Finally, Gentle and Sudden paths are run again including the coupling of transport sector, which includes the model of road and rail transport as described in the Supplementary Note 6. For every transition path and time step, the electrification of the transport sector is assumed to be equal to the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions reduction relative to 2020. In this way, emissions in the transport sector curb parallel to those of heating and electricity sectors. At every moment, a quarter of the Electric Vehicles available are assumed to provide vehicle-to-grid services. **TODO:** Add a couple of lines discussing the results of this run.



## 1. Methods

The system configuration is optimised by minimising annualised system cost in every time step (one every 5 years), under the global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions cap imposed by the transition path under analysis (Fig. 1). This can be considered a myopic approach since the optimisation has no information about the future. The cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> emissions for all the different transition paths is equal to a carbon budget of 21 GtCO<sub>2</sub>. In every time step, generation, storage, and transmission capacities in every country are optimised assuming perfect competition and foresight as well as long-term market equilibrium. Besides the global CO<sub>2</sub> emission cap, other constraints such as the demand-supply balance in every node, and the maximum power flowing through the links are imposed to ensure the feasibility of the solution, see Supplementary Note 6.

We use a one-node-per-country network, including 30 countries corresponding to the 28 European Union member states as of 2018 excluding Malta and Cyprus but including Norway, Switzerland, Bosnia-Herzegovina, and Serbia (Fig. 12 in Supplementary Note 8). Countries are connected by High Voltage Direct Current (HVDC) links whose capacities can be expanded if it is cost-effective. In the power sector, electricity can be supplied by onshore and offshore wind, solar photovoltaics (PV), hydroelectricity, Open Cycle Gas Turbines (OCGT), Combined Cycle Gas Turbines (CCGT), Coal, Lignite, and Nuclear power plants, and Combined Heat and Power (CHP) units using gas, coal or biomass. Electricity can be stored using Pumped Hydro Storage (PHS), static electric batteries, and hydrogen storage. Hydrogen is produced via electrolyzers and converted back into electricity using fuel cells. Methane can be produced by combining Direct Air Captured (DAC) CO<sub>2</sub> and electrolysed-H<sub>2</sub> in the Sabatier reaction. Heating demand is split into urban heating, corresponding to regions whose population density allows centralised solution, and rural heating where only individual solutions are allowed. Heating can be supplied via central heat pumps, heat resistors, gas boilers, solar collectors, and CHP units for urban regions, while only individual heat pumps, electric boilers, and gas boilers can be used in rural areas. Centralised and individual thermal energy storage can also be installed. A detailed description of all the sector is provided in the Supplementary Note 6.

Costs assumed for the different technologies depend on time (Supplementary Note 7) but not on the cumulative installed capacity since we assume that they will be influenced by the forecast global installation rates and learning curves. The financial discount rate applied to annualise costs is equal to 7% for every technology and country. Although it can be strongly impacted by the maturity of a technology, including the country-specific experience of it, and the rating of a country [48], we assumed European countries to be similar enough to use a constant discount rate. For decentral solutions, such as rooftop PV, heat resistors and gas boilers, a discount rate equal to 4% is

assumed. The already installed capacities, *i.e.* existing capacities in 2020 or capacities installed in a previous year whose lifetime has not concluded, are exogenously included in the model. For every time step, the total system cost includes two components. First, the costs of newly installed assets, which exactly recover their investment by market revenues. Second, the stranded costs for the exogenously fixed capacities. They are determined as the difference between the annualised costs and the revenues that those assets get from the market. To estimate the cumulative cost of every transition path, the annualised cost for all year are added assuming a social discount rate of 2%. This rate represents the value at which we, as European society, discount investments in far-future years when comparing them with present investments. We have selected a social discount rate of 2%, which is similar to the inflation rate in the European Union, that averaged 2.4% in the past 20 years. It is worth remarking that the cumulative cost remains lower for the last-minute path provided that discount rates lower than 11% are assumed. The CO<sub>2</sub> price is not an input to the model, but a result that is obtained via the Lagrange/Karush-Kuhn-Tucker multiplier associated with the global CO<sub>2</sub> constrain.

## 2. Data availability and code availability

The model is implemented in the open-source framework Python for Power System Analysis (PyPSA) [49]. The model and data used in this paper can be retrieved from XXX

## 3. Authors contribution

M. Victoria designed the analysis, drafted the manuscript and contributed to the data acquisition, analysis and interpretation of data. K. Zhu contributed to the data acquisition, modelling, analysis and interpretation of data. T. Brown, G. B. Andresen and M. Greiner made substantial revisions of the manuscript.

## 4. Acknowledgements

M. Victoria, K. Zhu, G. B. Andresen and M. Greiner are fully or partially funded by the RE-INVEST project, which is supported by the Innovation Fund Denmark under grant number 6154-00022B. T.B. acknowledges funding from the Helmholtz Association under grant no. VH-NG-1352. The responsibility for the contents lies solely with the authors.

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