

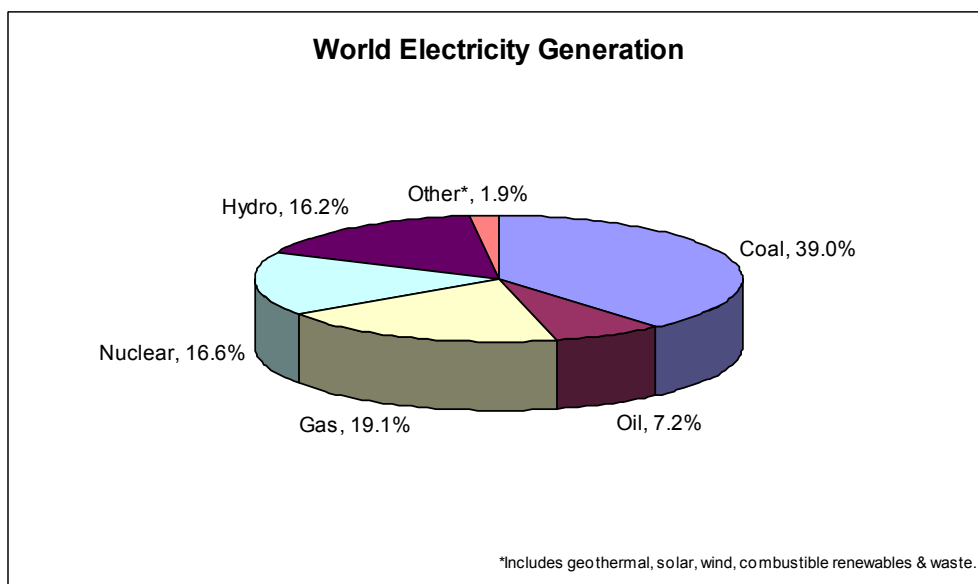
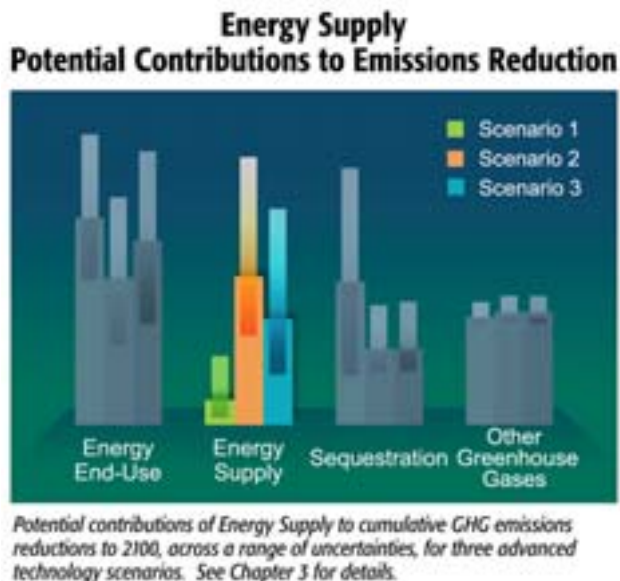
5 Reducing Emissions from Energy Supply

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2 As discussed in Chapters 3 and 4, global energy
 3 demand is projected to grow significantly by the
 4 year 2100. Some projections show energy demand
 5 over the century growing by a factor of 6 or more
 6 (from about 400 exajoules [EJ] in 2000 to 2800 EJ
 7 in 2100), and mid-range scenarios project an
 8 increase of about a factor of 3 or more from
 9 today’s level, even under scenarios in which
 10 energy efficiency is assumed to improve steadily
 11 over time. Of this growth, global demand for
 12 *electricity* is projected to increase faster than direct
 13 use of *fuels* in end-use applications.

14 Today, a range of technologies using fossil fuels,
 15 nuclear power, hydroelectric power, and a
 16 relatively small (but fast-growing) amount of
 17 renewable energy, supplies the world’s electricity
 18 demand. Most of global transportation demand is met with petroleum products (see Figures 5-1 and 5-2).

19 The development of advanced technologies that can significantly reduce emissions of carbon dioxide
 20 (CO₂) from energy supply is a central component of the overall climate change technology strategy.
 21 Many opportunities exist for pursuing technological options for energy supply that are characterized by
 22 low or near-net-zero emissions and whose development can be facilitated by a coordinated Federal R&D
 23 investment plan.



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Figure 5-1. World Electricity Generation

(Source: IEA 2004)

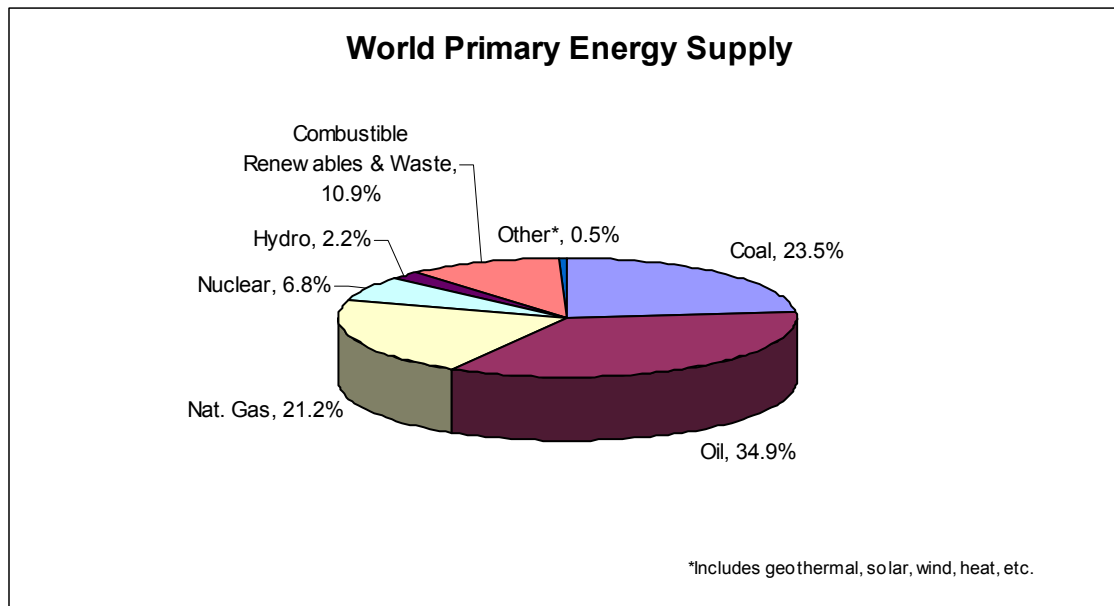


Figure 5-2. World Primary Energy Supply

(Source: IEA 2004)

Some advanced energy supply technologies build on the existing energy infrastructure, which is currently dominated by coal and other fossil fuels. One set of technologies that would allow continued use of coal and other fossil fuels—even under scenarios calling for substantial CO₂ emission limitations—is contained in an advanced coal-based production facility. It is based on coal gasification and production of syngas, which can generate electricity, hydrogen, and other valued fuels and chemicals and would be combined with CO₂ capture and storage and have very low emissions of other pollutants. Some of the emissions-reduction scenarios examined (see Chapter 3) project that if CO₂ capture and storage and improvements in fossil energy conversion efficiencies are achieved, fossil-based energy could continue to supply a large percentage of total energy and electricity in the future (e.g., up to 70 percent of global electricity demand in some scenarios), even under a high carbon constraint. In addition to this mid- to long-term opportunity, lowering CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion in the near term can be achieved by increasing the energy efficiency of combustion technology and by increasing the use of combined heat and power.

Advances in low- and zero-emission technologies have also been identified in a number of scenario analyses as important for reducing GHG emissions. These technologies include advanced forms of: renewable energy, such as wind, photovoltaics, solar thermal applications, and others; biologically based open and closed energy cycles, such as enhanced systems for biomass combustion, biomass conversion to biofuels and other forms of bioenergy; refuse-derived fuels and energy; and various types of nuclear energy, including technologies that employ spent fuel recycling. Variations of these advanced technologies can also be deployed in the production of hydrogen, which may play a big role in reducing emissions from the transportation sector, as well as potentially being used to supply fuel cells for electricity production. Several studies showed that biomass, nuclear, and renewable (solar and wind) energy,

1 combined, would contribute approximately 30 percent of the total reduction in GHG emissions from a
2 “reference case”¹ (see Chapter 3).

3 Novel energy supply technologies, including breakthrough designs in fusion energy that reduce its cost
4 and increase its rate of deployment; advanced fuel cycles based on combinations of nanotechnology and
5 new forms of bio-assisted energy production, using bioengineered molecules for more efficient photo-
6 synthesis; and hydrogen production or photon-water splitting, may also make important contributions
7 toward reduced GHG emissions. Other possibilities include advanced technologies for capturing solar
8 energy in Earth orbit, on the moon, or in the vast desert areas of Earth—enabled, in part, by new energy
9 carriers and/or low-resistance power transmission over long distances. In one scenario (see Chapter 3),
10 these novel forms of energy were projected to lower cumulative CO₂ emissions by more than 100 GtC
11 over the course of 100-year period, under a very high emission-constraint scenario.

12 Because outcomes of various ongoing and planned technology development efforts are not known, a
13 prudent path for science and technology policies in the face of uncertainty is to maintain a diverse R&D
14 portfolio. The current Federal portfolio supports R&D activities important to all three of the general
15 technology areas discussed above. The analysis of the advanced technology scenarios suggests that,
16 through successful development and implementation of these technologies, stabilization trajectories could
17 be met across a wide range of hypothesized concentration levels—and the goal could be accomplished
18 both sooner and at significant cost savings, compared to the case without such dramatic technological
19 advances.

20 This chapter explores energy supply technologies. For each technology area, the chapter examines the
21 potential role for advanced technology; outlines a technology-development strategy for realizing that
22 potential; highlights the current research portfolio, replete with selected technical goals and milestones;
23 and invites public input on considerations for future research directions. The chapter is organized around
24 the following five energy supply technology areas:

- 25 • Low-Emission, Fossil-Based Fuels and Power
- 26 • Hydrogen as an Energy Carrier
- 27 • Renewable Energy and Fuels
- 28
- 28 • Nuclear Fission
- 29 • Fusion Energy

30 In each of these technology sections, there is a sub-section describing the current portfolio, where the
31 technology descriptions include an internet link to the updated version of the CCTP report, *Technology*
32 *Options for the Near and Long Term* (DOE/PI-0002) (CCTP 2003). The updated report is available at
33 <http://www.climatechange.gov/library/2005/tech-options/index.htm>

34 **5.1 Low-Emission, Fossil-Based Fuels and Power**

35 Today, fossil fuels are an integral part of the U.S. and global energy mix. Because of its abundance and
36 current relative low cost, coal now accounts for more than half of the electricity generated in the United
37 States, and it is projected to continue to supply one-half of U.S. electricity demands through the year 2025
38 (EIA 2005). EIA also projects that natural gas will continue to be the “bridge” energy resource, as it
39 offers significant efficiency improvements (and emissions reductions) in both central and distributed
40 electricity generation and combined heat and power (CHP) applications.

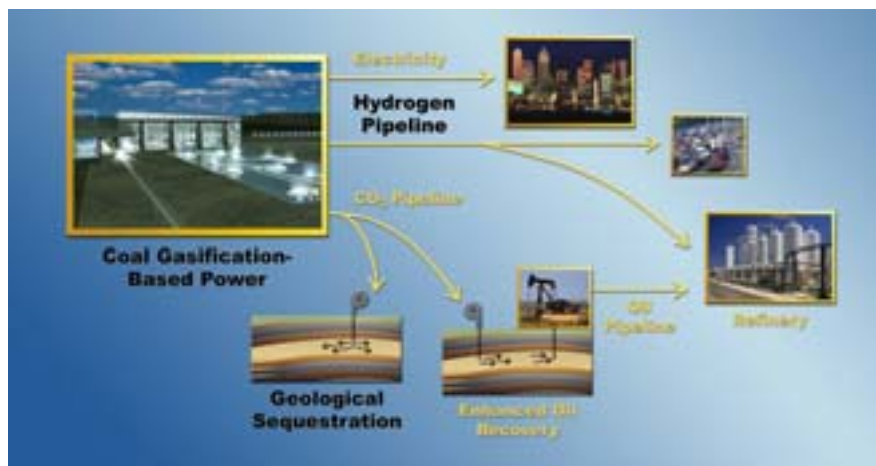
¹ In Chapter 3, the 30 percent value is associated with a hypothesized high emissions constraint.

1 **5.1.1 Potential Role of Technology**

2 Because coal is America’s most plentiful and readily available energy resource, the U.S. Department of
 3 Energy (DOE) has directed a portion of its research and development (R&D) resources toward finding
 4 ways to use coal in a more efficient, cost-effective, and environmentally benign manner, ultimately
 5 leading to near-zero atmospheric emissions. Even small improvements in efficiency of the installed base
 6 of coal-fueled power stations can result in a significant lowering of carbon emissions. For example,
 7 increasing the efficiency of all coal-fired electric-generation capacity in the United States by 1 percentage
 8 point would avoid the emission of 14 million tons of carbon per year.² That reduction is equivalent to
 9 replacing 170 million incandescent light bulbs with fluorescent lights or weatherizing 140 million homes.
 10 New U.S. government-industry collaborative efforts are expected to continue to find ways to improve the
 11 ability to decrease emissions from coal power generation at lower costs. The objective for future power
 12 plant designs is to both increase efficiency and reduce environmental impacts. The focus is on designs
 13 that are compatible with carbon sequestration technology, including the development of coal-based, near-
 14 zero atmospheric emission power plants.

15 **5.1.2 Technology Strategy**

16 The current U.S fossil research portfolio is a fully integrated program with mid- and long-term market-
 17 entry offerings. The principal objective is a zero-emission, coal-based electricity generation plant that has
 18 the ability to coproduce low-cost hydrogen. In the midterm, that goal is expected to be accomplished
 19 through the FutureGen project. This \$1 billion venture, cost-shared with industry, will combine electric-
 20 ity and hydrogen production from a single facility with the elimination of virtually all emissions of air
 21 pollutants, including sulfur dioxide, nitrogen oxides, mercury, and particulates—as well as almost
 22 complete elimination of atmospheric CO₂ emissions, through a combination of efficiency improvements
 23 and carbon capture and storage (called “sequestration” in Figure 5-3). This prototype power plant will



24
 25 **Figure 5-3. Coal-Based Energy Complex**

26 (Source: DOE 2004)

² Avoided carbon emissions were calculated based on current coal consumption and power plant efficiencies from the Energy Information Administration’s *Annual Energy Outlook 2002*. Using the published efficiencies, 0.574 quads of energy were saved with a 1 percent improved efficiency, which would result in 14.8 MMT of carbon avoided.

1 serve to demonstrate the most advanced technologies, such as hydrogen fuel cells. See
2 http://www.fossil.energy.gov/programs/powersystems/futuregen/futuregen_report_march_04.pdf.

3 **5.1.3 Current Portfolio**

4 The low-emissions, fossil-based power system portfolio has three focus areas:

- 5 • **Advanced Power Systems:** Advanced coal-fired, power-generation technologies can achieve
6 significant reduction in CO₂ emissions, while providing a reliable, efficient supply of electricity.

7 Significant reductions in atmospheric CO₂ emissions have been demonstrated via efficiency
8 improvements and co-firing of coal with biomass. While current average power plant efficiencies
9 are about 33 percent, increasing efficiencies to 45-50 percent in the midterm, and ultimately to
10 60 percent (with the integration of fuel cell technology), will nearly halve emissions of CO₂ per unit
11 of electricity. Development and deployment of CO₂ capture and storage technology could reduce
12 atmospheric carbon emissions to near-zero levels. Recent R&D activities have focused on integrated
13 gasification, combined-cycle (IGCC) plants. Two U.S. IGCC demonstration plants are in operation.

14 The research program goal in the Advanced Power Systems area is to increase efficiency of new
15 systems to levels ranging from 48-52 percent by 2010, and to more than 60 percent by 2020, while
16 also achieving an overall electricity production cost that is between 75 percent and 90 percent of
17 current pulverized-coal-based power generation. Additionally, emissions of criteria pollutants are
18 targeted to be much less than one-tenth of current new source performance standards. See
19 Section 2.1.2 (CCTP 2005):
20 <http://www.climatechology.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-212.pdf>

- 21 • **Distributed Generation/Fuel Cells:** The fuel cell (FC) program is focused on reducing the cost of
22 fuel cell technology by an order of magnitude.

23 In the near- and midterm, fuel cell cost reductions could enable the widespread deployment of
24 natural-gas-fueled distributed generation in gas-only, combined heat and power, and fuel cell
25 applications. In the midterm to long-term, this technology, along with others being developed as part
26 of the Distributed Generation effort, will also support coal-based FutureGen/central-station applica-
27 tions. The goal is to develop a modular power system with lower cost and significantly lower carbon
28 dioxide emissions than current plants. Examples of current R&D projects in this area include
29 (1) low-cost fuel cell systems development, (2) high-temperature fuel cell scale-up and aggregation
30 for fuel cell turbine (FCT) hybrid application, and (3) hybrid systems and component demonstration.

31 Research program goals in the natural gas fuel cell and hybrid power systems include demonstrating
32 a gas aggregated FC module larger than 250 kW that can run on coal syngas, while also reducing the
33 costs of the Solid-State Energy Conversion Alliance fuel cell power system to \$400/kW by 2010.
34 Additionally, by 2012-2015, the program aims to (1) demonstrate a megawatt-class hybrid system at
35 FutureGen with an overall system efficiency of 50 percent on coal syngas, (2) demonstrate integrated
36 fuel cell and turbine systems achieving efficiencies of 55 percent on coal; and (3) integrate optimized
37 turbine systems into zero-emission power plants. See Section 2.1.3 (CCTP 2005):
38 <http://www.climatechology.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-213.pdf>

- 1 • **Coproduction/Hydrogen:** This research area focuses on developing technology to coproduce
2 electricity and hydrogen from coal and, perhaps, using coal and biomass blends, resulting in very
3 large reductions in CO₂ emissions when compared to present technologies. This technology will use
4 synthesis gas generated from coal gasification to produce hydrogen.

5 Zero-Emission Power and H₂ coproduction research goals target a 10-year demonstration project
6 (FutureGen) to create the world's first coal-based, zero-emissions electricity and hydrogen power
7 plant. The near-term goals of the program are to (1) design, by 2010, a near-term coproduction
8 plant, configured at a size of 275-MW, which would be suitable for commercial deployment;
9 (2) demonstrate pilot-scale reactors using ceramic membranes for oxygen separation and hydrogen
10 recovery; and (3) demonstrate a \$400/kW solid-oxide fuel cell. A longer-term goal, by 2020, is to
11 design a long-term coproduction plant at a scale of 275-MW or larger. See Section 2.1.1
12 (CCTP 2005): <http://www.climatechtechnology.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-211.pdf>

13 Carbon emissions from fossil fuel-based power systems can be reduced in the near term principally
14 by improving process efficiency and, in the longer term, via more advanced system components,
15 such as high-efficiency fuel cells. In both the near and long terms, incorporating CO₂ capture into
16 the systems' processes, accompanied by long-term CO₂ storage, will be required to achieve low or
17 near-zero atmospheric emissions from these energy sources. Current research activities focus on
18 (1) ion transport oxygen separation membranes, (2) hydrogen separation membranes, and (3) early-
19 entrance coproduction plant designs. These activities are discussed in more detail in Chapter 6.

20 **5.1.4 Future Research Directions**

21 The current portfolio supports the main components of the technology development strategy and
22 addresses the highest priority current investment opportunities in this technology area. For the future,
23 CCTP seeks to consider a full array of promising technology options. From diverse sources, suggestions
24 for future research have come to CCTP's attention. Some of these, and others, are currently being
25 explored and under consideration for the future R&D portfolio. These include:

- 26 • Enhancing the hydrogen production technology effort;
- 27 • Adding advanced hybrid gasification/combustion, which offers an alternative path to achieve many
28 of the program goals;
- 29 • Broadening advanced research in materials development, which offers potential benefits in system
30 efficiency, durability, and performance.

31 The public is invited to comment on the current CCTP portfolio, including future research directions, and
32 identify potential gaps or significant opportunities. No assurance can be provided that any suggested
33 concept would meet the criteria for investment. However, CCTP can be assisted by such comments in its
34 desire to consider a full array of promising technology options.

35 **5.2 Hydrogen**

36 As discussed above, in a long-term future characterized by low or near-net-zero emissions of GHGs,
37 global energy primary supply can continue its reliance on fossil fuels, provided there are suitable means

1 for capturing and storing the resulting emissions of CO₂. Alternatively, the world could increase reliance
2 on low-carbon and nonfossil energy sources. These approaches share a need for carbonless energy
3 carriers, such as electricity or some alternative, to store and deliver energy on demand to end users.
4 Electricity is increasingly the carbonless energy carrier of choice for stationary energy consumers, but
5 hydrogen could prove to be an attractive carrier for the transportation sector (e.g., highway vehicles and
6 aircraft), as well as stationary applications. If successful, hydrogen could enable reductions in petroleum
7 use and potentially eliminate concomitant air pollutants and CO₂ emissions on a global scale.

8 Today, hydrogen is used in various chemical processes and is made largely from natural gas, producing
9 CO₂ emissions. However, hydrogen can be produced in a variety of ways that do not emit CO₂, including
10 renewable energy-based electrolysis; various biological and chemical processes; water shift reactions with
11 coal and natural gas, accompanied by CO₂ capture and storage; thermal and electrolytic processes using
12 nuclear energy; and direct photoconversion. Hydrogen can be stored as a pressurized gas or cryogenic
13 liquid, or absorbed within metal hydride powders or physically absorbed onto carbon-based nanostruc-
14 tures. If progress can be made on a number of technical fronts—and costs of producing hydrogen can be
15 reduced—hydrogen could play a valuable, enabling, and synergistic role in heat and power generation,
16 transportation, and energy end use.

17 **5.2.1 Potential Role of Technology**

18 As a major constituent of the world's water, biomass, and fossil hydrocarbons, the element hydrogen (H₂)
19 is ubiquitous. It accounts for 30 percent of the fuel-energy in petroleum, and more than 50 percent of the
20 fuel-energy in natural gas. A fundamental distinction between H₂ and fossil fuels, however, is that the
21 production of H₂, whether from water, methane or other hydrocarbons, is a net-energy consumer. This
22 makes H₂ not an energy source, per se, but a carrier of energy, similar to electricity.

23 Like electricity, the life-cycle GHG emissions associated with H₂ use would vary depending on the
24 method to produce, store, and distribute it. H₂ can be generated at various scales, including central plants,
25 fuel stations, businesses, homes, and perhaps onboard vehicles. In principle, the diversity of scales,
26 methods, and sources of production make H₂ a highly versatile energy carrier, capable of transforming
27 transportation (and potentially other energy services) by enabling compatibility with many primary
28 energy sources. This versatility opens up possibilities for long-term dynamic optimization of CO₂
29 emissions, technology development lead times, economics, and other factors. In a future “hydrogen
30 economy,” H₂ may ultimately serve as a means of linking energy sources to energy uses in ways that are
31 more flexible, secure, reliable, and responsive to consumer demands than today, while also integrating the
32 transportation and electricity markets.

33 While its simple molecular structure makes H₂ an efficient synthetic fuel to produce, use, and/or convert
34 to electricity, the storage and delivery of hydrogen are more challenging than for most fuels. Conse-
35 quently, most H₂ today is produced at or near its point of use, consuming other fuels (e.g., natural gas)
36 that are easier to handle and distribute.

37 Large H₂ demands at petroleum refineries or ammonia (NH₃) synthesis plants can justify investment in
38 dedicated H₂ pipelines, but smaller or variable demands for H₂ are usually met more economically by
39 truck transport of compressed gaseous H₂ or cryogenic and liquefied hydrogen (LH₂) produced by steam
40 methane reforming. These methods have evolved over decades of industrial experience, with H₂ as a
41 niche chemical commodity, produced in amounts (8 billion kg H₂/yr) equivalent to about 1 percent

1 (~1 EJ/yr) of current primary energy use in the United States. For H₂ use to scale up from its current
2 position to a global carbonless energy carrier (alongside electricity), new energetically and economically
3 efficient technical approaches would be required for H₂ delivery, storage, and production.

4 Hydrogen production can be a value-added complement to other advanced climate change technologies,
5 such as those aimed at the use of fossil fuels or biomass with CO₂ capture and storage. As such, hydrogen
6 may be a key and enabling component for full deployment of carbonless electricity technologies
7 (advanced fission, fusion, and/or intermittent renewables).

8 In the near term, initial deployment of H₂ fleet vehicles and distributed power systems may provide early
9 adoption opportunities and demonstrate the capabilities of the existing H₂ delivery and on-site production
10 infrastructure. This will also contribute in other ways, such as improving urban air quality and strength-
11 ening electricity supply reliability. This phase of H₂ use may also serve as a commercial proving ground
12 for advanced distributed H₂ production and conversion technologies using existing storage technology,
13 both stationary and vehicular.

14 In the midterm, light-duty vehicles likely will be the first large mass market (10-15 EJ/yr in the United
15 States) for hydrogen. Fuel cells may be particularly attractive in automobiles, given their efficiency
16 versus load characteristics and typical driving patterns. Hydrogen production for this application could
17 occur either in large centralized plants or using distributed production technologies on a more localized
18 level.

19 In the long term, production technologies must be able to produce H₂ at a price competitive with gasoline
20 for bulk commercial fuel use in automobiles, freight trucks, aircraft, rail, and ships. This would likely
21 require efficient production means and large quantities of reasonable-cost energy supplies, perhaps from
22 coal with CO₂ sequestration, advanced nuclear power (high-efficiency electrolysis and thermochemical
23 decomposition of water), fusion energy, renewables (wind-powered electrolysis, direct conversion of
24 water via sunlight, and high-temperature conversion of water using concentrated solar power), or a variety
25 of methods using biomass. Other important factors in the long term include the cost of H₂ hydrogen
26 storage and transportation. Finally, advances in basic science associated with direct water-splitting and
27 solid-state H₂ storage could possibly permit even lower-cost H₂ production; and safer storage, delivery,
28 and utilization in the context of low or near-net-zero emission futures for transportation and electricity
29 generation.

30 **5.2.2 Technology Strategy**

31 Introducing H₂ into the mix of competitive fuel options and building the foundation for a global hydrogen
32 economy will require a balanced technical approach that not only envisions a plausible commercialization
33 path, but also respects a triad of long-run uncertainties on a global scale: (1) the scale, composition, and
34 energy intensity of future worldwide transportation demand, and potential substitutes; (2) the viability and
35 endurance of CO₂ sequestration; and (3) the long-term economics of carbonless energy sources. The
36 influences of these factors shape the urgency, relative importance, economic status, and ideal end state of
37 a future H₂ infrastructure.

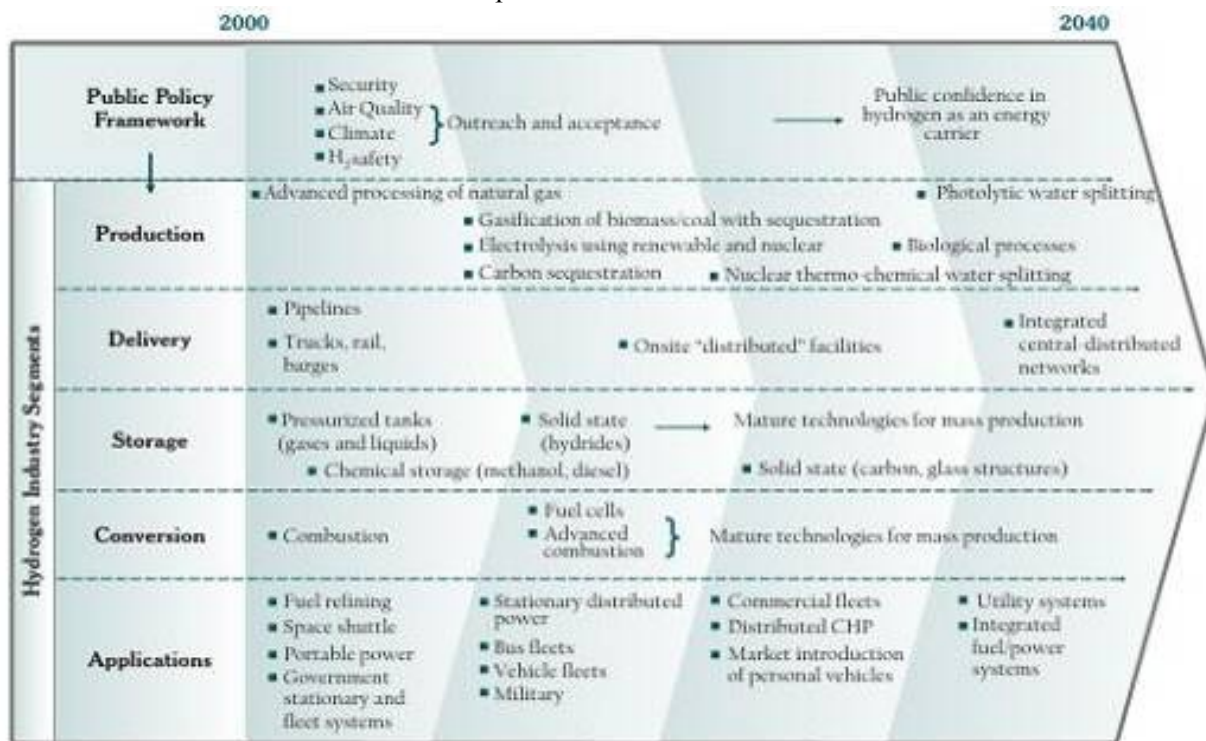
38 The International Partnership for the Hydrogen Economy (IPHE) was formed in November 2003 among
39 15 countries (Australia, India, Brazil, Italy, Canada, Japan, China, Republic of Korea, Norway, France,
40 Russia, Germany, United Kingdom, United States, and Iceland) and the European Commission. The

1 IPHE provides a mechanism to organize, evaluate, and coordinate multinational research, development,
 2 and deployment programs that advance the transition to a global hydrogen economy. The Partnership
 3 leverages limited resources, brings together the world’s best intellectual skills and talents, and develops
 4 interoperable technology standards.

5 The IPHE has reviewed actions being pursued jointly by participating countries and is identifying
 6 additional actions to advance research, development, and deployment of hydrogen production, storage,
 7 transport, and distribution technologies; fuel cell technologies; common codes and standards for hydrogen
 8 fuel utilization; and coordination of international efforts to develop a global hydrogen economy. More
 9 about the IPHE is available at <http://www.iphe.net>.

10 The Department of Energy’s Hydrogen Fuel Cells and Infrastructure Technologies Program plans to
 11 research, develop, and demonstrate the critical technologies (and implement codes and standards for safe
 12 use) needed for H₂ light-duty vehicles (see Figure 5-4). The program operates in cooperation with
 13 automakers and related parties experienced in refueling infrastructure to develop technology necessary to
 14 enable a commercialization decision by 2015 (DOE 2005). Current research program goals call for
 15 validation by 2015 of technology for:

- 16 • H₂ storage systems enabling minimum 300-mile vehicle range while meeting identified packaging,
 17 cost, and performance requirements.
- 18 • H₂ production to safely and efficiently deliver H₂ to consumers at prices competitive with gasoline
 19 and without adverse environmental impacts.



20
 21 **Figure 5-4. Possible Hydrogen Pathways**
 22 (Source: DOE 2004)

- 1 • Fuel cells to enable engine costs of less than \$50/kW (in high volume production) while meeting
2 performance and durability requirements.

3 DOE requested a study by the National Research Council (NRC) and the National Academy of
4 Engineering (NAE) to assess the current state of technology for hydrogen production and use, and to
5 review and provide feedback on the DOE RD&D hydrogen program, including recommendations for
6 priorities and strategies to develop a hydrogen economy. The resulting report (NRC/NAE 2004)
7 addressed implications for national goals, R&D priorities, and criteria for transition to a hydrogen
8 economy. It provided recommendations in the areas of systems analysis, fuel cell vehicle technology,
9 infrastructure, transition, safety, CO₂-free hydrogen, carbon capture and storage, and DOE's hydrogen
10 RD&D program. In addition to research being conducted within DOE's Hydrogen, Fuel Cells and
11 Infrastructure Program, the NRC report also addressed DOE's programs for hydrogen production from
12 nuclear and fossil energy sources.

13 **5.2.3 Current Portfolio**

14 Within the constraints of available resources, the current Federal hydrogen technology research portfolio
15 balances the emphasis on near-term technologies that will enable a commercialization decision for H₂
16 automobiles by 2015, with the longer-term ultimate development of a mature hydrogen economy founded
17 on advanced H₂ production, storage, and delivery technologies. Elements of the portfolio include

- 18 • **Hydrogen Production From Nuclear Fission and Fusion.** High-efficiency, high-temperature
19 fission power plants are projected to produce H₂ economically without CO₂. Hydrogen would be
20 produced by cyclic thermochemical decomposition of water or high-efficiency electrolysis of high-
21 temperature steam.

22 Hydrogen production from nuclear power RDD&D goals target high-temperature, high-efficiency
23 fission and, when available, fusion power plants to produce electricity to generate hydrogen from
24 water economically and without generation of CO₂. Major research areas include support for the
25 development of high-temperature materials, separation membranes, advanced heat exchangers, and
26 supporting systems relating to hydrogen production using the sulfur-iodine (S-I) thermochemical
27 cycle and high-temperature electrolysis. Alternative processes having significantly more technical
28 risk (because less is known about them) continue to be evaluated because their expected lower
29 temperature requirements and, in some cases, reduced complexity could render them more
30 economical in the longer term. The RDD&D program goal is to reduce thermochemical facility
31 costs by two-thirds by 2030 and high-temperature electrolysis facility costs by 85 percent in the same
32 time frame. Another goal is a decrease in operating costs by three-fourths in 2030 for both
33 technologies, while thermal efficiency would increase from levels as low as 30 to 40 percent to more
34 than 50 percent by 2030. See Section 2.2.1 (CCTP 2005):

35 <http://www.climatechange.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-221.pdf>

- 36 • **Hydrogen Production and Distribution Using Electricity and Fossil/Alternative Energy.**
37 Research and development of small-scale steam reformers, alternative reactor technologies, and
38 hydrogen membrane/separation technologies are aimed at improving the economics of hydrogen
39 production from fossil fuels. Demonstration of on-site electrolysis integrated with renewable
40 electricity and laboratory-scale direct water-splitting by photoelectrochemical and photobiological
41 methods are planned.

1 Near-term research program goals in this area include, by 2006, (1) completion of research of small-
2 scale steam methane reformers with a projected cost of \$3.00/kg hydrogen at the pump; (2) devel-
3 opment of alternative reactors, including auto-thermal reactors; and (3) evaluation of whether renew-
4 able energy—when integrated with hydrogen production by water electrolysis—can achieve
5 64 percent net energy efficiency at a projected cost of \$5.50/kg, delivered at 5,000 psi. Midterm
6 goals call for demonstrating, by 2010, at the pilot-plant scale, (1) membrane separation and reactive
7 membrane separation technology for hydrogen production from coal, and (2) distributed hydrogen
8 production from natural gas with a projected cost of \$2.50/kg hydrogen at the pump. Longer-term
9 goals call for demonstrating, by 2015, at laboratory-bench scale, (1) a photo-electrochemical water-
10 splitting system and (2) a biological system for water-splitting (or other substrates) that shows
11 potential to achieve long-term costs that are competitive with conventional fuels—and reduce the
12 cost of hydrogen distribution to \$1/kg. See Section 2.2.3 (CCTP 2005):

13 <http://www.climatechange.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-223.pdf>

- 14 • **Hydrogen Storage.** Four methods of high-density, energy-efficient storage of hydrogen are being
15 researched: (1) composite pressure vessels, which will contain the hydrogen as a compressed gas or
16 cryogenic vapor, (2) physical absorption on high-surface-area lightweight carbon structures, (3)
17 reversible metal hydrides, and (4) chemical hydrides. Improving hydrogen compression and/or
18 liquefaction equipment—as well as evaluating the compatibility of the existing natural gas pipeline
19 infrastructure for hydrogen distribution—are also planned.

20 The research program goals of hydrogen storage are to, by 2010, develop and verify hydrogen
21 storage systems with 6 weight-percent, 1,500 watt-hrs/liter energy density, and at a cost of \$4/kWh
22 of stored energy; and, by 2015, develop associated technologies and verify hydrogen storage systems
23 with 9 weight-percent, 2,700 watt-hrs/liter energy density, and at a cost of \$2/kWh of stored energy.
24 See Section 2.2.4 (CCTP 2005):

25 <http://www.climatechange.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-224.pdf>

- 26 • **Hydrogen Use.** DOE aims to demonstrate high-efficiency, solid-oxide fuel cell/turbine hybrid-
27 electric generation systems operating on coal with carbon capture and storage, and to develop
28 efficient and durable polymer electrolyte membrane (PEM) fuel cells appropriate for automotive and
29 stationary applications.

30 The research program goals in this area are: (1) by 2010, develop a 60 percent peak-efficient,
31 durable, PEM fuel cell power system for transportation at a cost of \$45/kW; and a distributed
32 generation (50-250 kW) PEM fuel cell system operating on natural gas or propane that achieves
33 40 percent electrical efficiency and 40,000 hours durability at \$400-750/kW; and, (2) by 2015,
34 reduce the cost of PEM fuel cell power systems to \$30/kW for transportation systems. See
35 Section 2.2.5 (CCTP 2005):

36 <http://www.climatechange.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-225.pdf>

- 37 • **Hydrogen Systems Technology Validation.** A systems approach is needed to demonstrate
38 integrated hydrogen production, delivery, and storage, as well as refueling of hydrogen vehicles and
39 use in stationary fuel cells. This could involve providing hydrogen in gaseous and liquid form.

40 The overall goal in this area is to validate, by 2015, integrated hydrogen and fuel cell technologies
41 for transportation, infrastructure, and electric generation in a systems context under real-world

operating conditions. Specific goals include: (1) by 2005, demonstrate that an energy station (coproduction of hydrogen as fuel for a stationary fuel cell and for a fuel-cell vehicle) can produce electricity for 8 cents/kWh and \$3.60/gallon gasoline equivalent; (2) by 2008, demonstrate stationary fuel cells with a durability of 20,000 hours and 32 percent efficiency; (3) by 2009, demonstrate vehicles with greater than 250-mile range and 2,000-hour fuel cell durability; and (4) by 2009, demonstrate hydrogen production at \$3/gallon gasoline equivalent. By 2015, the research program aims to provide critical statistical data that demonstrate that fuel cell vehicles can meet targets of 5,000-hour fuel cell durability, storage systems can efficiently meet 300+ mile range requirements, and H₂ fuel can cost less than \$2.50/gallon gasoline equivalent. The technology-validation effort also provides information in support of technical codes and standards development of infrastructure safety procedures. See Section 2.2.2 (CCTP 2005):

<http://www.climatechtechnology.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-222.pdf>

- **Hydrogen Infrastructure Safety.** The approach to safely expand the hydrogen infrastructure is expected to build on current delivery approaches. DOE is working with the U.S. Department of Transportation (DOT) to test and refine existing hydrogen technologies in compliance with Federal Standards while developing new technologies that can improve hydrogen distribution, as well as reduce or eliminate leaks or other risks.

Hydrogen infrastructure safety goals are to work within the Federal government and with industry to develop, test, and approve new hydrogen storage and monitoring technologies; and conduct a thorough and comprehensive transportation and storage hydrogen infrastructure assessment. This research would address capacity, safety, security, reliability, operations, and environmental compliance, evaluating scenarios for near-term and long-term development and implementation of hydrogen infrastructure including a risk analysis for each technology and application. Additionally, researchers would investigate future systems that offer improved safety, security, reliability, and functionality vs. the current transportation and storage systems. See Section 2.2.6 (CCTP 2005):

<http://www.climatechtechnology.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-226.pdf>

5.2.4 Future Research Directions

The current portfolio supports the main components of the technology development strategy and addresses the highest priority current investment opportunities in this technology area. For the future, CCTP seeks to consider a full array of promising technology options. From diverse sources, suggestions for future research have come to CCTP's attention. Some of these, and others, are currently being explored and under consideration for the future R&D portfolio. These include:

- **Commercial Transportation Modes.** If efficient hydrogen-fueled or hybrid-electric vehicles begin to dominate the light-duty passenger vehicle market (beyond 2025), commercial transportation modes (freight trucks, aircraft, marine, and rail) may become the dominant sources of transportation-related CO₂ emissions later in the 21st century. Therefore, the future CCTP portfolio should aim at reducing the cost of hydrogen production *and* liquefaction of H₂ for these modes and explore the infrastructure implications of H₂ production and/or liquefaction on-site at airports, harbors, rail yards, etc. In the case of hydrogen aircraft, the average length of future flights – and whether significant demand for supersonic passenger aircraft that would use hydrogen develops over the 21st century – will be important in determining the relative fuel economy advantages of hydrogen over

1 conventional jet fuel. Research and development programs that support scenarios that include a
2 worldwide shift toward hydrogen aircraft and substitutes for shorter trips (high speed rail) could be
3 considered.

- 4 • **Integration of Electricity and H₂ Transportation Sectors.** Eventual full deployment for optimal
5 use of solar, wind, biomass, and nuclear electricity may require significant H₂ storage or increased
6 flexibility in electricity demand. Electrolytic coproduction of H₂ for transportation fuel would
7 provide such a demand profile. This important possibility needs to be examined to determine the
8 economic and technical parameters for electricity demand, generation, and storage; and for hydrogen
9 production, storage and use to achieve a synergistic effect between H₂ vehicles and carbonless
10 electricity generation.
- 11 • **Develop Fundamental Understanding of the Physical Limits to Efficiency of the Hydrogen**
12 **Economy.** Finally, the fundamental electrochemistry and material science of electrolyzers, fuel
13 cells, and reversible devices needs to be fully explored. For example, the theoretical limits on
14 electrolyte conductivity bound the power density and efficiency of both fuel cells and electrolyzers.
15 Advancing the knowledge of these limits should allow efficiency gains in the conversion of
16 electricity to hydrogen (and reconversion to electricity) to approach theoretical limits before
17 hydrogen technology is deployed on a global scale.

18 The public is invited to comment on the current CCTP portfolio, including future research directions, and
19 identify potential gaps or significant opportunities. No assurance can be provided that any suggested
20 concept would meet the criteria for investment. However, CCTP can be assisted by such comments in its
21 desire to consider a full array of promising technology options.

22 **5.3 Renewable Energy and Fuels**

23 Renewable sources of energy include the energy of the sun, the kinetic energy of wind, the thermal
24 energy inside the Earth itself, the kinetic energy of flowing water, and the chemical energy of biomass.
25 These sources of energy, available in one or more forms across the globe, are converted and/or delivered
26 to end users as electricity, direct heat, fuels, hydrogen, and useful chemicals and materials. Box 5-1 lists
27 the 11 renewable energy technologies discussed in *Technology Options for the Near and Long Term*. In
28 the United States in 2003, of the 71.42 quads of net energy supply and disposition (98.22 quads total
29 energy consumption), renewable resources contributed 5.89 quads (8 percent of supply, or 6 percent of
30 the total). Of the renewable energy, 2.78 quads came from hydropower, 2.72 quads from burning
31 biomass (wood and waste), 0.28 quads from geothermal energy, and 0.12 quads from solar and wind
32 energy combined. An additional 0.24 quads of ethanol were produced from corn for transportation
33 (EIA 2005).

34 The suite of renewable energy technologies is in various states of market readiness. For example, hydro-
35 power is well established, but improvements in the technology could increase its efficiency and widen its
36 applicability. Geothermal technologies are established in some areas and applications, but significant
37 improvements are needed to tap broader resources. The installation of wind energy has been rapidly and
38 steadily expanding during the past several years. In the past decade, the global wind energy capacity has
39 increased tenfold—from 3.5 GW in 1994 to almost 50 GW by the end of 2004. Technology improvements
40 will continue to lower the cost of wind energy onshore and will enable access to the immense wind resources
41 in shallow and deep waters of U.S. coastal areas and the Great Lakes near large energy markets. The next

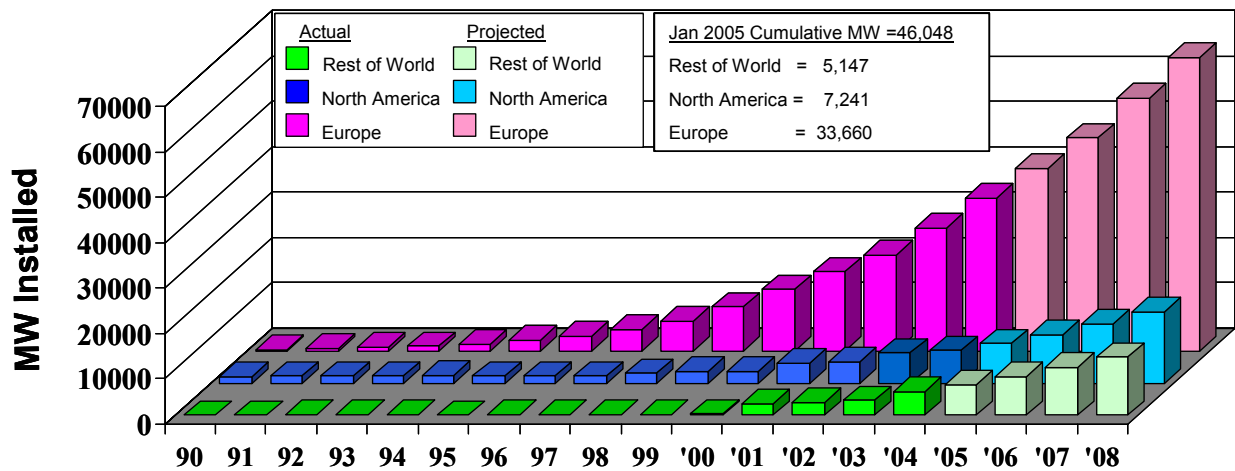
1 generations of solar—with improved performance and lower cost—are in various stages of concept
 2 identification, laboratory research, engineering development, and process scale-up. Also, the
 3 development of integrated and advanced systems involving solar photovoltaics, concentrating solar
 4 power, and solar buildings are still in quite early stages.

6 Biochemical and thermochemical conversion
 8 technologies also range broadly in their stages of
 10 development, from some that need only to be proved
 12 at an industrial scale, to others that need more
 14 research, to others in early stages of scientific
 16 exploration. In the general category of photo-
 18 conversion, most technical ideas are at the earliest
 20 stages of concept development, theoretical
 22 modeling, and laboratory experiment.

24 The energy-production potential and siting of the
 26 various types of renewable energy facilities is
 28 dependent on availability of the applicable natural
 30 resources. Figures 5-5 through 5-9 show availability
 32 of key U.S. renewable resources as estimated by the
 34 National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL) at
 36 the Renewable Resource Data Center (see
 38 <http://rredc.nrel.gov/>).

Box 5-1
Renewable Energy and Fuels Technologies

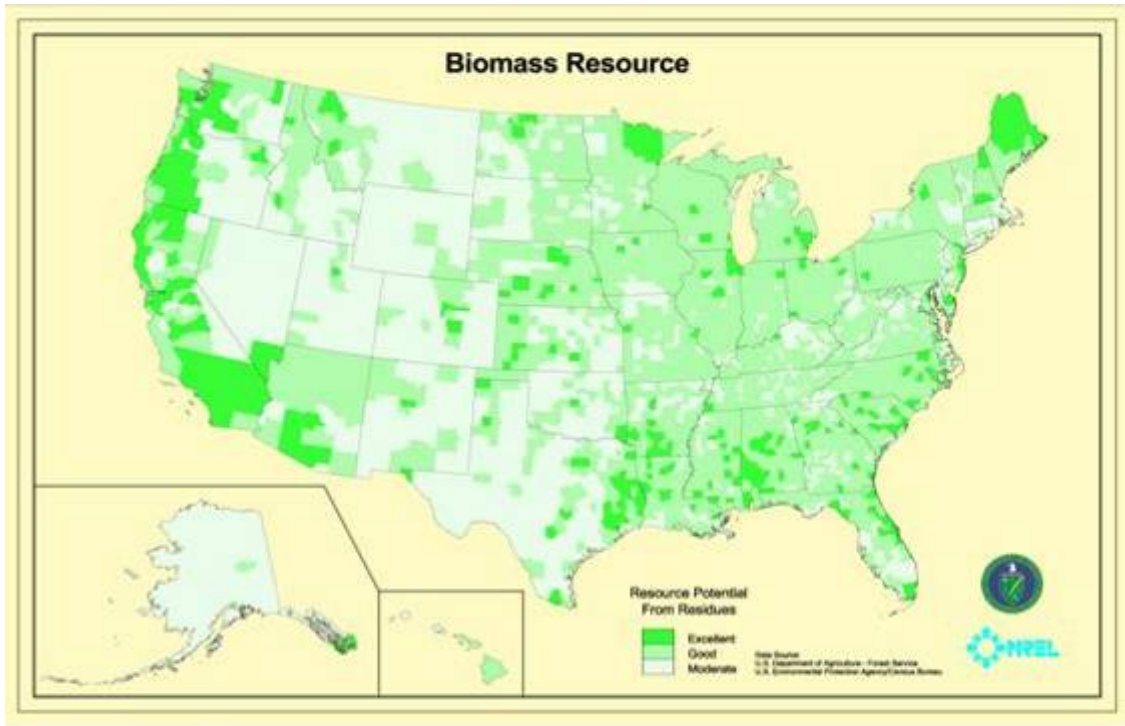
- Wind Energy
- Solar Photovoltaic Power
- Solar Buildings
- Concentrating Solar Power
- Biochemical Conversion of Biomass
- Thermochemical Conversion of Biomass
- Biomass Residues
- Energy Crops
- Photoconversion
- Advanced Hydropower
- Geothermal Energy



Sources: BTM Consult Aps, March 2003
 Windpower Monthly, January 2005
 *NREL Estimate for 2005

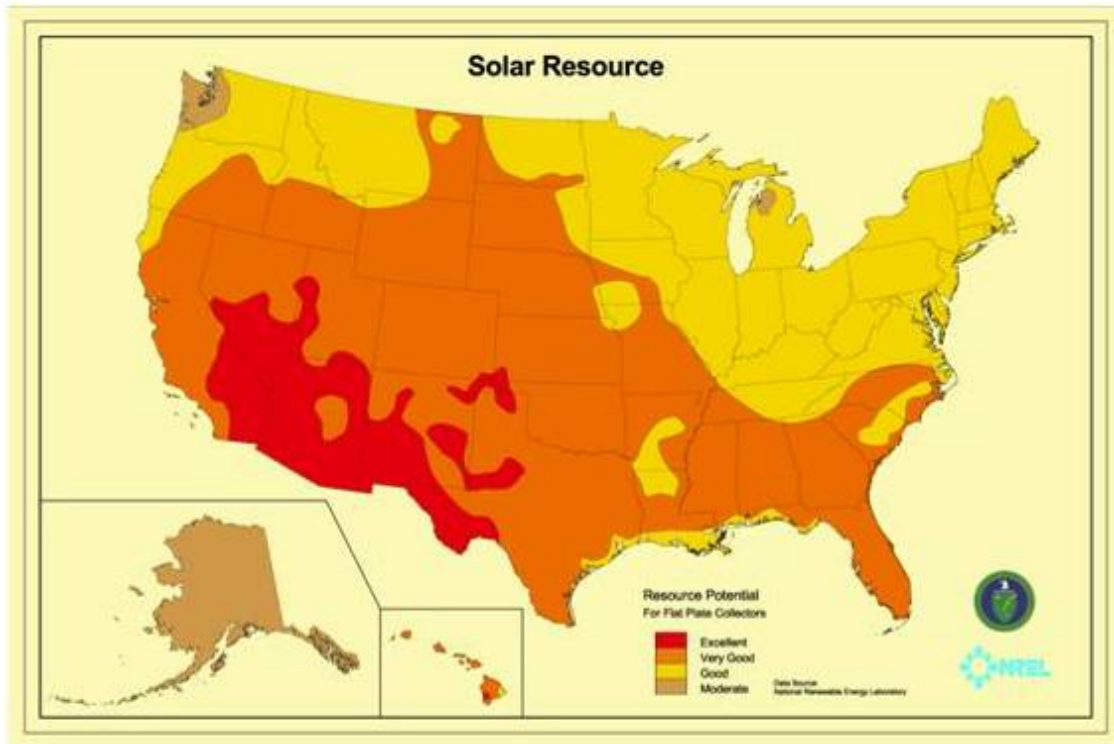
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Figure 5-5. Global Wind Capacity Growth



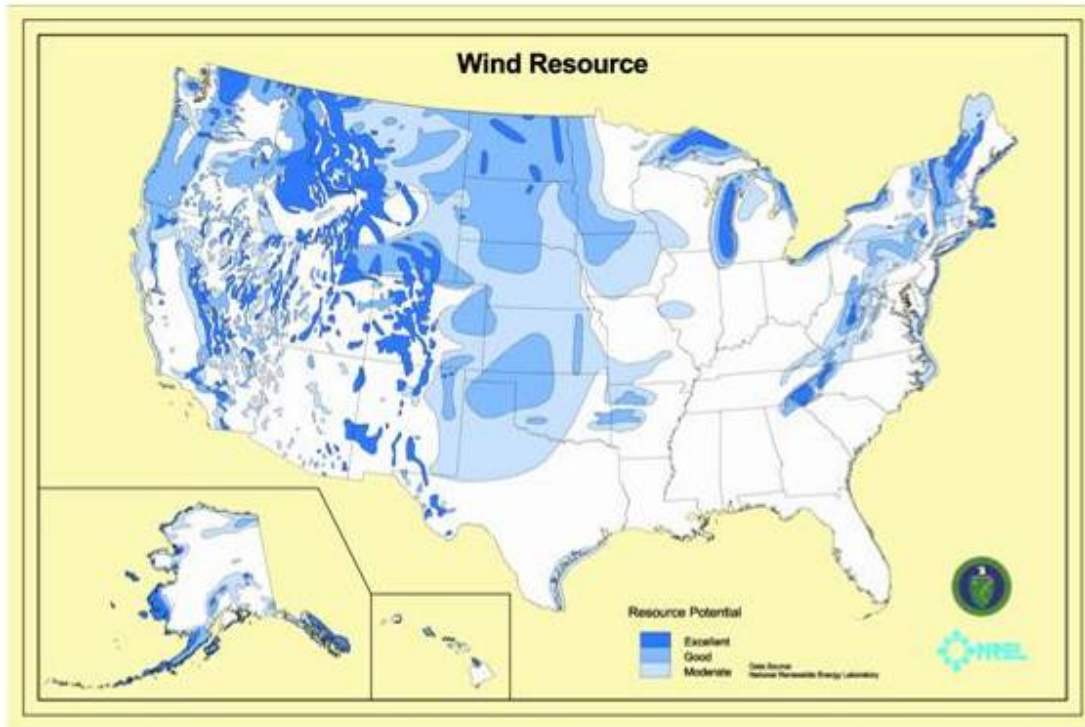
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Figure 5-6. U.S. Biomass Resources
(Source: DOE Office of Energy Efficiency and Renewable Energy)



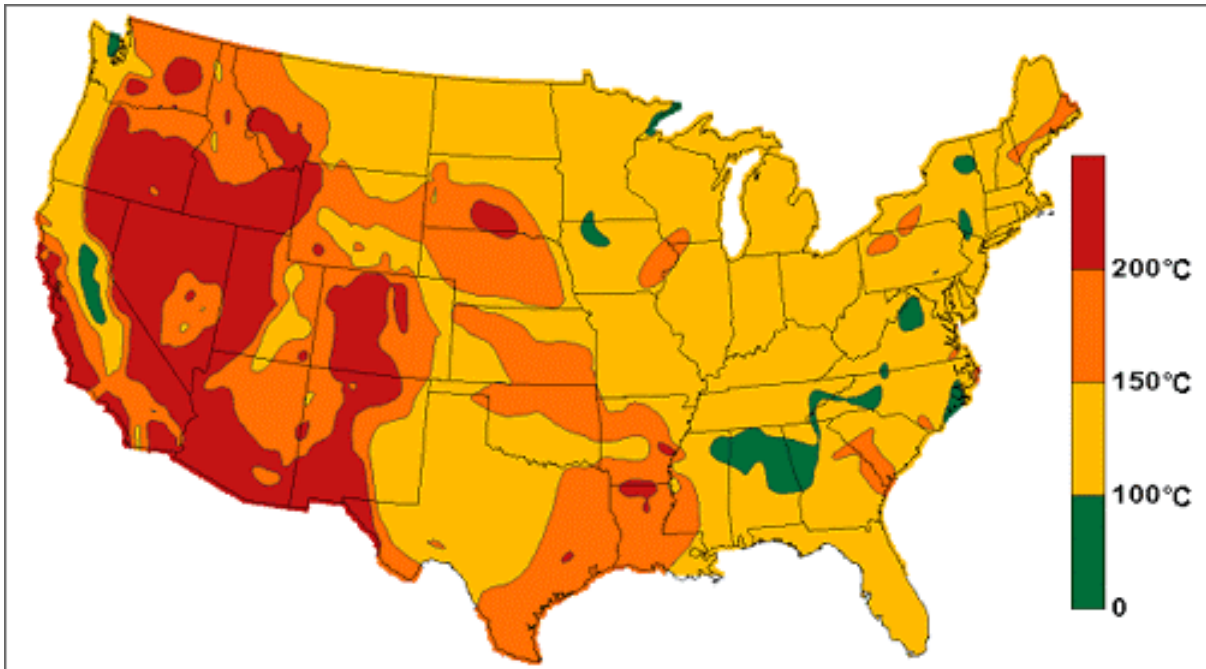
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Figure 5-7. U.S. Solar Resources
(Source: DOE Office of Energy Efficiency and Renewable Energy)



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Figure 5-8. U.S. Onshore Wind Resources
(Source: DOE Office of Energy Efficiency and Renewable Energy)



4
5
6

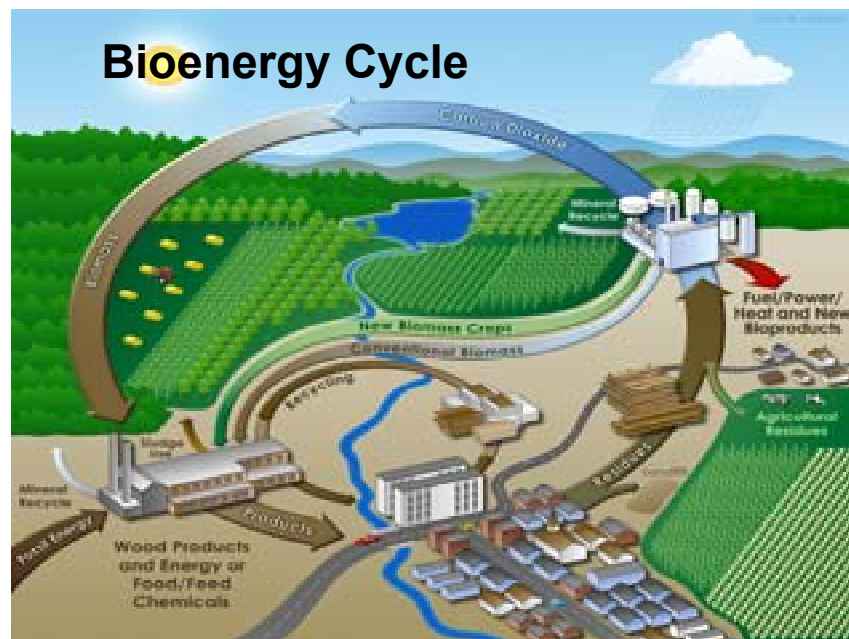
Figure 5-9. U.S. Geothermal Resources
(Source: DOE Office of Energy Efficiency and Renewable Energy)

1 **5.3.1 Potential Role of Technology**

2 Renewable energy technologies are generally modular and can be used to help meet the energy needs of a
 3 stand-alone application or building, an industrial plant or community, or the larger needs of a national
 4 electrical grid or fuel network. Renewable energy technologies can also be used in various
 5 combinations—including hybrids with fossil-fuel based energy sources and with advanced storage
 6 systems—to improve renewable resource availability. Because of this flexibility, technologies and
 7 standards to safely and reliably interconnect individual renewable electric technologies, individual loads
 8 or buildings, and the electric grid are very important.

9 In addition, the diversity of renewable energy sources offers a broad array of technology choices that can
 10 reduce CO₂ emissions. The generation of electricity from solar, wind, geothermal, or hydropower sources
 11 contributes no CO₂ or other GHGs directly to the atmosphere. Increasing the contribution of renewables
 12 to the Nation's energy portfolio will directly lower GHG intensity (GHGs emitted per unit of economic
 13 activity) in proportion to the amount of carbon-emitting energy sources displaced.

14 Analogous to crude oil, biomass can be converted to heat, electrical power, fuels, hydrogen, chemicals,
 15 and intermediates. Biomass refers to both biomass residues (agricultural wastes such as corn stover and
 16 rice hulls, forest residues, pulp and paper wastes, animal wastes, etc.) and to fast-growing “energy crops,”
 17 chosen specifically for their efficiency in being converted to electricity, fuels, etc. The CO₂ consumed
 18 when the biomass is grown essentially offsets the CO₂ released during combustion or processing.
 19 Biomass systems actually represent a net sink for GHG emissions when biomass residues are used,
 20 because this avoids methane emissions that result from landfilling unused biomass (see Figures 5-10
 21 and 5-11). Biorefineries of the future could produce value-added chemicals and materials together with
 22 fuels and/or power from nonconventional, lower-cost feedstocks (such as agricultural and forest residues
 23 and specially grown crops) with no net CO₂ emissions.



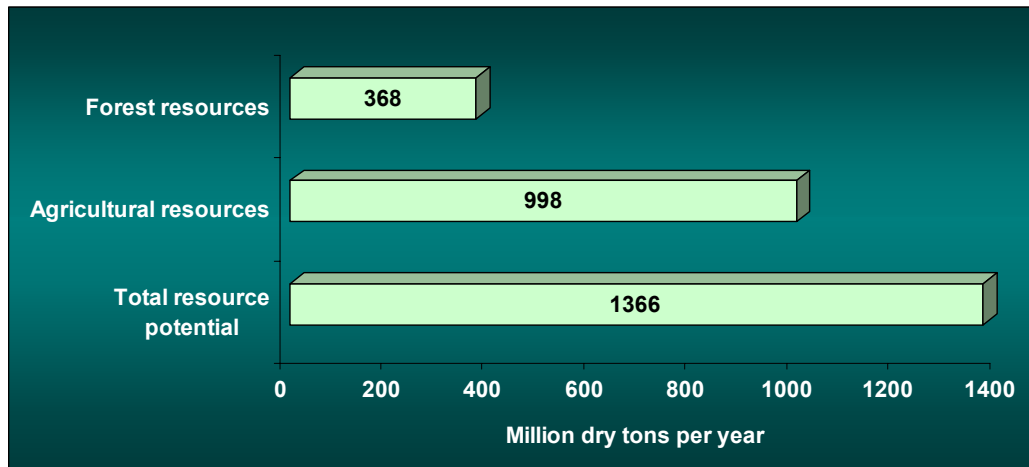
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Figure 5-10. Bioenergy Cycle

(Source: Oak Ridge National Laboratory internal document)



1
2 **Figure 5-11. Biomass as Feedstock for a Bioenergy and Bioproducts Industry**

3 (Source: Oak Ridge National Laboratory http://feedstockreview.ornl.gov/pdf/billion_ton_vision.pdf)

4 **5.3.2 Technology Strategy**

5 Given the diversity of the stages of development of the technologies, impacts on different economic
6 sectors, and geographic dispersion of renewable energy sources, it is likely that a portfolio of renewable
7 energy technologies—not just one—will contribute to lowering CO₂ emissions. The composition of this
8 portfolio will change as R&D continues and markets change. Appropriately balancing investments in
9 developing this portfolio will be important to maximizing the effect of renewable energy technologies on
10 GHG emissions in the future.

11 Transitioning from today's reliance on fossil fuels to a global energy portfolio that includes significant
12 renewable energy sources will require continued improvements in cost and performance of renewable
13 technologies. This transition would also require shifts in the energy infrastructure to allow a more diverse
14 mix of technologies to be delivered efficiently to consumers in forms they can readily use.

15 In general, as performance continues to improve and costs continue to decline, improved new generations
16 of technologies will replace today's renewable technologies. Combinations of renewable and conven-
17 tional technologies and systems—and, therefore, integration and interconnection issues—will grow in
18 importance.

19 The transition from today's energy mix to a state of GHG stabilization can be projected as an interweav-
20 ing of individual renewable energy technologies with other energy technologies, as well as market
21 developments through the upcoming decades. Today, grid-connected wind energy, geothermal, solar
22 energy, and biopower systems are well established. Demand for these systems is growing in some parts
23 of the world. Solar hot-water technologies are reasonably established, although improvements continue.
24 Markets are growing for small, high-value or remote applications of solar photovoltaics; wind energy;
25 biomass-based CHP; certain types of hydropower; and integrated systems that usually include natural gas
26 or diesel generators. Other technologies and applications today are in various stages of research,
27 development, and demonstration. Possible near-, mid-, and long-term scenarios for renewable energy are
28 as follows:

1 In the near term, as system costs continue to decrease, the penetration of off-grid systems could continue
2 to increase rapidly, including integration of renewable systems such as photovoltaics into buildings. As
3 interconnection issues are resolved, the number of grid-connected renewable systems could increase quite
4 rapidly, meeting local energy needs such as uninterruptible power, community power, or peak shaving.
5 Wind energy may expand most rapidly among grid-connected applications, with solar expanding as
6 system costs are reduced, and geothermal expanding as research reduces costs and extends access to
7 resources. Environment-friendly hydropower systems could be developed. The use of utility-scale wind
8 technology is likely to continue to expand onshore and is targeted to become competitive in select
9 offshore locations between 5 and 50 nautical miles from shore and in water depths 30 meters or less.
10 Small wind turbines are on the verge of operating cost-effectively in most of the rural areas of the United
11 States, and more than 15 million homes have the potential to generate electricity with small wind
12 turbines.³ With a further maturing of the market, costs will be lowered to compete directly with retail
13 rates for homeowners, farmers, small businesses, and community-based projects.

14 The biomass near-term strategy includes increasing the production of corn-based ethanol (already
15 produced at nearly 4 billion gallons) by making the process more efficient. This will be demonstrated by
16 increasing the quantity of ethanol through residual starch conversion, and conversion of fiber already
17 collected and present at the operating facilities. The inclusion of biochemicals as byproducts will serve to
18 secure the economics, making this a more sustainable industry. Demonstrations of biorefinery concepts
19 could begin in the near term, producing one or more products (bioethanol, bioproducts, electricity, CHP,
20 etc.) from one plant using local waste and residues as the feedstock. Biodiesel use may continue to grow,
21 replacing fossil-fuel-derived diesel fuel.

22 In the midterm, offshore wind energy could begin to expand significantly. Technology development may
23 focus on turbine-support structures suitable for deeper water depths, and reducing turbine system and
24 balance of plant costs to offset increased distance from shore, decreased accessibility, and more stringent
25 environmental conditions. Onshore use of wind turbines is also likely to expand for large and small
26 turbines as the costs for these systems continue to decrease. Small turbines may be used to harness wind
27 to provide pumping for farm irrigation, help alleviate water-availability problems, and provide a viable
28 source of clean and renewable hydrogen production.⁴ Reductions in cost could encourage penetration by
29 solar technologies into large-scale markets, first in distributed markets such as commercial buildings and
30 communities, and later in utility-scale systems. Solar-cooling systems could become cost-effective in
31 new construction. The first geothermal plants using engineered geothermal systems technology could
32 come online, greatly extending access to geothermal resources. Hydropower may benefit from full
33 acceptance of new turbines and operational improvements that enhance environmental performance,
34 lowering barriers to new development. Biorefineries could begin using both waste products and energy
35 crops as primary feedstocks. Bioethanol and biodiesel could make substantial market penetration,
36 beginning to lower U.S. dependence on imported petroleum.

37 In the long term, hydrogen from solar, wind, and possibly geothermal energy could be the backbone of
38 the economy, powering vehicles and stationary fuel cells. Solar technologies could also be providing
39 electricity and heat for commercial buildings, industrial plants, and entire communities in major sections

³ U.S. Small Wind Turbine Industry Roadmap, NREL Report No. BK-500-31958; DOE/GO-102002-1598, 2002
<http://www.nrel.gov/docs/gen/fy02/31958.pdf>.

⁴ National Academy of Science, The Hydrogen Economy: Opportunities, Costs, Barriers, and R&D Needs
<http://www4.nationalacademies.org/news/nsf/isbn/0309091632?OpenDocument>.

1 of the country, and most residential and commercial buildings could generate their own energy on-site.
2 Wind energy could be the lowest-cost option for electricity generation in favorable wind areas for grid
3 power, and offshore systems could become prevalent in many countries by achieving a commercially
4 viable cost by using floating platforms technologies. Geothermal systems could be a major source of
5 base-load electricity for large regions. Biorefineries could be providing a wide range of cost-effective
6 products as rural areas embrace the economic advantages of widespread demand for energy crops.
7 Vehicle fuels could be powered by a combination of hydrogen fuel cells, with some bioethanol and
8 biodiesel in significant markets.

9 **5.3.3 Current Portfolio**

10 The current Federal portfolio of renewable energy supply technologies encompasses 11 areas, described
11 below:

- 12 • **Wind Energy.** Generating electricity from wind energy focuses on using aerodynamically designed
13 blades to drive generators that produce electric power in proportion to wind speed. Utility-scale
14 turbines can be several megawatts and produce energy at between 4-6¢/kWh depending on the wind
15 resource. Smaller turbines (under 100 kilowatts) serve a range of distributed, remote, and stand-
16 alone power applications, producing energy between 13-19¢/kWh. Research activities include wind
17 characteristics and forecasting, aerodynamics, structural dynamics and fatigue, control systems,
18 design and testing of new onshore and offshore prototypes, component and system testing, power
19 systems integration, and standards development.

20
21 Research program goals in this area vary by application. For distributed wind turbines under
22 100 kw, the goal is to achieve a power production cost of 10-15¢/kWh in Class 3 winds by 2007.
23 For larger systems greater than 100 kw, the goal is to achieve a power production cost of 3¢/kWh for
24 onshore at sites with average wind speeds of 13 mph (wind Class 4), and 5¢/kWh at offshore sites
25 with average wind speeds of 13 mph (wind Class 4) by 2012. See Section 2.3.1 (CCTP 2005):
26 <http://www.climatechology.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-231.pdf>

- 27 • **Solar Photovoltaic Power.** Generating electricity from solar energy focuses on using semiconduc-
28 tor devices to convert sunlight directly to electricity. A variety of semiconductor materials can be
29 used, varying in conversion efficiency and cost. Today's commercial modules are 13 percent
30 to 18 percent efficient, and grid-tied photovoltaic (PV) systems generate electricity for about 17-
31 22¢/kWh. Efficiencies of experimental cells range from 12 percent to 19 percent for low-cost thin-
32 film amorphous and polycrystalline materials, and 25 percent to 37 percent for higher-cost III-V
33 multijunction cells. Research activities, conducted with strong partnerships between the Federal
34 laboratories and the private sector, include the fundamental understanding and optimization of
35 photovoltaic materials, process, and devices; module validation and testing; process research to
36 lower costs and scale up production; and technical issues with inverters and batteries. The
37 photovoltaics industry is growing rapidly, with 1,200 MW produced worldwide in 2004.

38 Research program goals in this area focus on scaling up laboratory-sized PV cells to much larger
39 sizes suitable for product markets; validation of new module technologies for outdoors use to achieve
40 30-year outdoor warrantable lifetimes; and addressing of substantial technical issues associated with
41 high-yield, first-time, and large-scale (greater than 100 MW/yr) manufacturing for advanced
42 technologies. The long-term cost goal for electricity from PV cells for residential PV applications is

1 \$0.06/kWh, compared to costs ranging from \$0.18 to \$0.23/kWh in 2004. The interim cost goal is to
2 reduce the 30-year user cost for PV electric energy to a range of \$0.14 to \$0.19/kWh by 2010. See
3 Section 2.3.2 (CCTP 2005):

4 <http://www.climatechtechnology.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-232.pdf>

- 5 • **Solar Heating and Lighting.** Solar heating and lighting technologies being developed for buildings
6 applications include solar water heating and hybrid solar lighting. The near-term solar water heating
7 research goal is to use polymer materials and manufacturing enhancements to reduce the cost of solar
8 water heating systems to 4.5¢/kWh from their current cost of 8¢/kWh. Near-term solar lighting
9 research goals are to demonstrate the second generation of the lighting system, coupled with an
10 enhanced control system, and determine the market potential of the technology. See Section 2.3.3
11 (CCTP 2005):

12 <http://www.climatechtechnology.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-233.pdf>

- 13 • **Concentrating Solar Power.** Concentrating solar power (CSP) technology involves concentrating
14 solar energy 50 to 5,000 times to produce high-temperature thermal energy, which is then used to
15 produce electricity. Parabolic trough systems (1-100 MWe) that can generate electricity for a power
16 cost of 12 to 14¢/kWh have been demonstrated commercially. Large-scale systems employing
17 power towers (30-200 MWe) have been demonstrated. Prototype dish/Stirling engine systems
18 (2 kWe-10 MWe) are operating in several states.

19 The program goals in this area are focused on CSP. The long-term goal is to achieve a power cost of
20 between \$0.035/kWh and \$0.062/kWh, compared to the cost of between \$0.12-\$0.14/kWh in 2004.
21 The interim goal is to reduce the cost of large-scale CSP power plants in the U.S. Southwest, where
22 solar conditions are most favorable, to \$0.09-\$0.11/kWh by 2010.. See Section 2.3.4 (CCTP 2005):

23 <http://www.climatechtechnology.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-234.pdf>

- 24 • **Biochemical Conversion of Biomass.** Biochemical technology can be used to convert the cellulose
25 and hemicellulose polymers in biomass (agricultural crops and residues, wood residues, trees and
26 forest residues, grasses, and municipal waste) to their building blocks, such as sugars and glycerides.
27 Using either acid hydrolysis (well-established) or enzymatic hydrolysis (being developed), sugars
28 can then be converted to liquid fuels, such as ethanol, chemical intermediates and other products,
29 such as lactic acid and hydrogen. Glycerides can be converted to a bio-based alternative for diesel
30 fuel and other products. Producing multiple products from biomass feedstocks in a biorefinery could
31 ultimately resemble today's oil refinery.

32
33 Program goals in this area focus on the research and design of biorefinery processes that convert
34 biomass feedstocks into valuable bio-based chemicals and fuels. By 2010, the goal is to finalize a
35 process flow diagram with material and energy balances for an integrated biorefinery with the
36 potential for three bio-based chemicals or materials. By 2012, the goal is to complete a system-level
37 demonstration with corn kernels' fiber and recalcitrant starch aiming at 5 percent to 20 percent
38 increase in ethanol yield from ethanol plants. Also by 2012, the goal is to reduce the estimated cost
39 for producing a mixed, dilute sugar stream suitable for fermentation to ethanol to \$0.10/lb, compared
40 to the cost of \$0.15/lb in 2003. If successful, this cost goal would correspond to \$1.75 per gallon of
41 ethanol, assuming a cost of \$45 per dry ton of corn stover. See Section 2.3.5 (CCTP 2005):

42 <http://www.climatechtechnology.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-235.pdf>

- 1 • **Thermochemical Conversion of Biomass.** Thermochemical technology uses heat to convert
2 biomass into a wide variety of products. Pyrolysis or gasification of biomass produces an oil-rich
3 vapor or synthesis gas, which can be used to generate heat, electricity, liquid fuels, and chemicals.
4 Combustion of biomass (or combinations of biomass and coal) generates steam for electricity
5 production and/or space, water, or process heat, occurring today in the wood products industry and
6 biomass power plants. Analogous to an oil refinery, a biorefinery can use one or more of these
7 methods to convert a variety of biomass feedstocks into multiple products. See Section 2.3.6 (CCTP
8 2005): <http://www.climatechtechnology.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-236.pdf>

- 9 • **Biomass Residues.** Biomass residues include agricultural residues, wood residues, trees and forest
10 residues, animal wastes, pulp, and paper waste. These must be harvested, stored, and transported on
11 a large scale to be used in a biorefinery. Research activities include improving and adapting the
12 existing harvest collection, densification, storage, transportation, and information technologies to
13 bioenergy supply systems—and developing robust machines for multiple applications.

14
15 The long-term research program goal in this area is to develop fully integrated crop and residue
16 harvesting, storage, and transportation systems for food, feed, energy, and industrial applications by
17 2020. Interim goals toward this end include, by 2006, measurable cost reductions in corn-stover
18 supply systems with modifications of current technology. By 2007, the goal is to develop whole-
19 crop harvest systems for supplying biorefineries of multiple products and, by 2010, enhancements to
20 the whole-crop harvest systems that include fractionation for maximum economic return, including
21 returns to soil for maximum productivity and conservation practices. By 2015, the goal is to develop
22 an integrated system for pretreatment of residues near harvest locations and a means of collecting
23 and transporting partially treated substrates to a central processing operation. See Section 2.3.7
24 (CCTP 2005):

25 <http://www.climatechtechnology.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-237.pdf>

- 26 • **Energy Crops.** Energy crops are fast-growing, often genetically improved trees and grasses grown
27 under sustainable conditions to provide feedstocks that can be converted to heat, electricity, fuels
28 such as ethanol, and chemicals and intermediates. Research activities include genetic improvement,
29 pest and disease management, and harvest equipment development to maximize yields and
30 sustainability.

31
32 The overall research goal of this program is to advance the concept of energy crops contributing
33 strongly to meet biomass power and biofuels production goals by 2020. Interim goals include, by
34 2006, to develop feedstock crops with experimentally demonstrated yield potential of 6-8 dry
35 ton/acre/year and accompanying cost-effective, energy-efficient, environmentally sound harvest
36 methods. By 2010, the goal is to identify genes that control growth and characteristics important to
37 conversion processes in few model energy crops and achieve low-cost, “no-touch” harvest/
38 processing/transport of biomass to process facility. By 2020, the goal is to increase yield of useful
39 biomass per acre by a factor of 2 or more compared with year 2000 yields. See Section 2.3.8
40 (CCTP 2005):

41 <http://www.climatechtechnology.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-238.pdf>

- 42 • **Photoconversion.** Photoconversion processes use solar photons to drive a variety of quantum
43 conversion processes other than solid-state photovoltaics. These processes can produce electrical

1 power or fuels, materials, and chemicals directly from simple renewable substrates such as water,
2 carbon dioxide, and nitrogen. Photoconversion processes that mimic nature (termed “bio-inspired”)
3 can also convert CO₂ into liquid and gaseous fuels. Most of these technologies are at early stages of
4 research where technical feasibility must be demonstrated, but a few (such as dye-sensitized solar
5 cells) are at the developmental level.
6

7 The research program in this area is still in an exploratory stage. In the near term, research will
8 focus on applications related to electrical power and high-value fuels and chemicals, where
9 commercial potential may be expected during the next 5 to 10 years. If successful, larger-scale
10 applications of photoconversion technologies may follow in the period from 2010 to 2015, with
11 materials and fuels production beginning in the period 2015 to 2020, and commodity chemicals
12 production in the period from 2020 to 2030. See Section 2.3.9 (CCTP 2005):

13 <http://www.climatechange.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-239.pdf>

- 14 • **Advanced Hydropower.** The goal of advanced hydropower technology is to maximize the use of
15 water for generation of electricity, while eliminating harmful environmental side effects. Represent-
16 tative technologies include new turbine designs that improve survivability of fish passing through the
17 power plant and increase dissolved oxygen in downstream discharges, new assessment methods to
18 optimize operation of reservoir system, and advanced instrumentation and control systems that
19 modify turbine operation to maximize environmental benefits and energy production.
20

21 The research program goals in this area include, by 2006, the completion of testing of hydroelectric
22 turbine technology capable of reducing the rate of fish mortality to 2 percent, which would equal or
23 better other methods of fish passage (e.g., spillways or fishways). Also in the near term, the goal is
24 to complete the development of the Advanced Hydro Turbine Technology in support of maintaining
25 hydroelectric-generation capacity due for relicensing between 2010 and 2020. See Section 2.3.10
26 (CCTP 2005):

27 <http://www.climatechange.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-2310.pdf>

- 28 • **Geothermal Energy.** Geothermal sources of energy include hot rock masses, highly pressured hot
29 fluids, hot hydrothermal systems, and shallow warm groundwater. Exploration techniques locate
30 resources to drill; well fields and distribution systems allow the hot fluids to move to the point of
31 use; and utilization systems apply the heat directly or convert it to electricity. Geothermal heat
32 pumps use the shallow earth as a heat source and heat sink for heating and cooling applications. The
33 U.S.-installed capacity for geothermal electrical generation is currently about 2 gigawatts; but,
34 with improved technology, the U.S. geothermal resource could be capable of producing up to
35 100 gigawatts of electricity at an estimated cost of less than 5¢/kWh.
36

37 The research program goals in this area focus on reducing the cost of geothermal energy. For
38 “flash” power systems, the goal is to reduce the levelized cost of power generated by conventional
39 (hydrothermal) geothermal resources from 6.1 cents per kWh in 2000 to 4.3 cents per kWh by 2010.
40 For “binary” power systems, the goal is to reduce this cost from 8.7 cents per kWh in 2000, to
41 6.1 cents per kWh by 2010. See Section 2.3.11 (CCTP 2005):

42 <http://www.climatechange.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-2311.pdf>

1 **5.3.4 Future Research Directions**

2 The current portfolio supports the main components of the technology development strategy and
3 addresses the highest priority current investment opportunities in this technology area. For the future,
4 CCTP seeks to consider a full array of promising technology options. From diverse sources, suggestions
5 for future research have come to CCTP's attention. Some of these, and others, are currently being
6 explored and under consideration for the future R&D portfolio. These include:

- 7 • **Wind Energy.** Research challenges include developing wind technology that will be economically
8 competitive at low-wind-speed sites without a production tax credit, developing offshore wind
9 technology to take advantage of the immense wind resources in U.S. coastal areas and the Great
10 Lakes, and exploring the role of wind turbines in emerging applications such as electrolytic hydrogen
11 production, water purification, and irrigation.
- 12 • **Solar Photovoltaic Power.** Research would be required to lower the cost of solar electricity further.
13 This can occur through developing “third-generation” materials such as quantum dots and nanostruc-
14 tures for ultra-high efficiencies or lower-cost organic or polymer materials; solving complex inte-
15 grated processing problems to lower the cost of large-scale production of thin-film polycrystalline
16 devices; optimizing cells and optical systems using concentrated sunlight; and improving the
17 reliability and lowering the cost of inverters and batteries.
- 18 • **Solar Buildings.** Future research could include reducing cost and improving reliability of
19 components and systems, optimizing energy efficiency and renewable energy combinations,
20 integrating solar technologies into building designs, and incorporating solar technologies into
21 building codes and standards.
- 22 • **Concentrating Solar Power.** Future challenges requiring RD&D include reducing cost and
23 improving reliability; demonstrating Stirling engine performance in the field; and developing
24 technology to produce hydrogen from concentrated sunlight and water.
- 25 • **Biochemical Conversion of Biomass.** Research is required to gain a better understanding of
26 genomes, proteins, and their functions; the enzymes used for hydrolyzing pretreated biomass into
27 fermentable sugars; the micro-organisms used in fermentation; and new tools of discovery such as
28 bio-informatics, high-throughput screening of biodiversity, directed enzyme development and
29 evolution, and gene shuffling. Research must focus on improving the cost, yield, and equipment
30 reliability for harvesting, collecting, and transporting biomass; pretreating biomass before
31 conversion; lowering the cost of the genetically engineered cellulose enzymes needed to hydrolyze
32 biomass; developing and improving fermentation organisms; and developing integrated processing
33 applicable to a large, continuous-production commercial facility.
- 34 • **Thermochemical Conversion of Biomass.** Research is needed to improve the production,
35 preparation, and handling of biomass; improve the operational reliability of thermochemical
36 biorefineries; remove contaminants from synthesis gas and develop cost-competitive catalysts and
37 processes for converting synthesis gases to chemicals, fuels, or electricity. All the processes in the
38 entire conversion system must be integrated to maximize efficiency and reduce costs.

- 1 • **Biomass Residues.** Research challenges include developing sustainable agriculture and forest-
2 management systems that provide biomass residues; developing cost-effective drying, densification,
3 and transportation techniques to create more standard feedstock from various residues; developing
4 whole-crop harvest and fractionation systems; and developing methods for pretreatment of residues
5 at harvest locations.

- 6 • **Energy Crops.** Future crop research needs include identifying genes that control growth and
7 characteristics important to conversion processes, developing gene maps, understanding functional
8 genomics in model crops, and applying advanced management systems and enhanced cultural
9 practices to optimize sustainable energy crop production.

- 10 • **Photoconversion.** Photoconversion research requires developing the fundamental scientific
11 understanding of photolytic processes through multidisciplinary approaches involving theory,
12 mechanisms, kinetics, biological pathways and molecular genetics, natural photosynthesis, materials
13 science, catalysts, and catalytic cycles.

- 14 • **Geothermal Energy.** Future research needs include developing improved methodologies for
15 predicting reservoir performance and lifetime; finding and characterizing underground fracture
16 permeability; developing low-cost innovative drilling technologies; reducing the cost and improving
17 the efficiency of conversion systems; and developing engineered geothermal systems that will allow
18 the use of geothermal areas that are deeper, less permeable, or drier than those currently considered
19 as reserves.

20 The public is invited to comment on the current CCTP portfolio, including future research directions, and
21 identify potential gaps or significant opportunities. No assurance can be provided that any suggested
22 concept would meet the criteria for investment. However, CCTP can be assisted by such comments in its
23 desire to consider a full array of promising technology options.

24 **5.4 Nuclear Fission**

25 Currently, there are 440 nuclear power plants operating in 31 nations that generate 17 percent of the
26 world's electricity (see Figure 5-1) and provide nearly 7 percent of total world energy (see Figure 5-2).
27 Because they emit no GHGs, today's nuclear power plants avoid the CO₂ emissions associated with
28 combustion of coal or other fossil fuels.

29 During the past 30 years, operators of U.S. nuclear power plants have steadily improved economic
30 performance through reduced costs for maintenance and operations and improved power plant
31 availability, while operating reliably and safely. In addition, science and technology for the safe storage
32 and ultimate disposal of nuclear waste have been advanced. Waste from nuclear energy must be isolated
33 from the environment. High-level nuclear wastes from fission reactors (used fuel assemblies) are stored
34 in contained, reinforced concrete steel-lined pools or in robust dry casks at limited-access reactor sites,
35 until a deep geologic repository is ready to accept and isolate the spent fuel from the environment. Used
36 nuclear fuel contains a substantial quantity of fissionable materials, and advanced technologies may be
37 able to recover energy from this spent fuel and reduce required repository space and the radiotoxicity of
38 the disposed waste.

1 While the current application of nuclear energy is the production of electricity, other applications are
2 possible, such as cogeneration of process heat, the generation of hydrogen from water or from methane
3 (with carbon capture or integration with other materials production or manufacturing), and desalination.

4 **5.4.1 Potential Role of Technology**

5 The currently operating 103 U.S. nuclear-reactor units are saving as much as 600 million metric tons of
6 carbon dioxide emissions every year. Through the summer of 2005, 33 of these units have received
7 approval to extend their operating licenses for an additional 20 years; 16 others have applications under
8 review. All of the remaining units most likely will follow suit. Such carbon dioxide emission mitigation
9 can be increased if new nuclear capacity were to be brought online.

10 To the extent the financial risks of new nuclear construction can be addressed and with improvement from
11 new technologies in the longer term, the nuclear option can continue to be an important, growing part of a
12 GHG-emissions-free energy portfolio. Design and demonstration efforts on near-term advanced reactor
13 concepts—in combination with Federal financial risk mitigation tools—will enable power companies to
14 build and operate new reactors that are economical and competitive with other generation technologies,
15 supporting energy security and diversity of supply.

16 Evolutionary light-water reactors of standardized design (having received U.S. Nuclear Regulatory
17 Commission design certification and having been constructed on schedule in Japan and South Korea) are
18 demonstrated and available now for construction in the United States. Other newer designs should be
19 reviewed and certified over the next several years, making them also available. However, more advanced
20 nuclear energy systems for the longer term have the potential to offer significant advances in the areas of
21 sustainability, proliferation resistance and physical protection, safety, and economics. These advanced
22 nuclear energy systems—described as Generation IV reactors—could replace or add to existing light-
23 water reactor capacity.

24 **5.4.2 Technology Strategy**

25 U.S. leadership is essential to the expansion of nuclear capacity in markets other than Asia and Eastern
26 Europe (see Figure 5-12), through deployment of advanced nuclear power plants in the relatively near
27 term. The untested Federal regulatory and licensing processes for the siting, construction, and operation
28 of new nuclear plants must be demonstrated. In addition, other major obstacles must be addressed,
29 including the initial high capital costs of the first few plants and the business risks resulting from both the
30 costs and the regulatory uncertainty.

31 In the longer term, advanced nuclear energy systems could serve a vital role in both diversifying the
32 Nation's energy supply and reducing GHG emissions. By successfully addressing the fundamental
33 research and development issues of system concepts that excel in safety, sustainability, cost-effectiveness,
34 and proliferation resistance, the systems could attract future private-sector sponsorship and ultimate
35 commercialization by the private sector. Advanced nuclear fission-reactor systems aim to extract the full
36 energy potential of the spent nuclear fuel from current fission reactors, while reducing or eliminating the
37 potential for proliferation of nuclear materials and technologies, and reducing both the radiotoxicity and
38 total amount of waste produced.

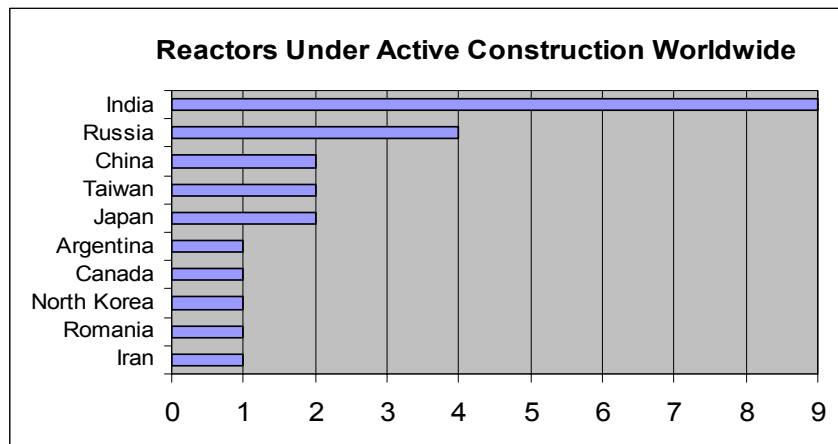


Figure 5-12. Nuclear Reactors Under Construction

(Source: World Nuclear Association http://www.world-nuclear.org/info/printable_information_papers/reactorsprint.htm)

A key objective of nuclear energy research and development is to enhance the basic technology; and, through advanced civilian technology research, chart the way toward the next leap in technology. From these efforts, and those of industry and overseas partners, nuclear energy may continue to fulfill its promise as a safe, advanced, inexpensive, and emission-free approach to providing reliable energy throughout the world.

5.4.3 Current Portfolio

The current Federal portfolio focuses on three areas:

- Research on **Nuclear Power Plant Technologies for Near-Term Deployment** is focused on advanced fission reactor designs that are currently available or could be made available with limited additional work to complete design development and deployment in the 2010 time frame.

A Roadmap to Deploy New Nuclear Power Plants in the United States by 2010, issued in October 2001 (DOE 2001), advises DOE on actions and resource requirements needed to put the country on a path to bringing new nuclear power plants online by 2010. The primary purposes of the roadmap are to identify the generic and design-specific prerequisites to near-term deployment, to identify those designs that best promise to meet the needs of the marketplace, and to propose recommended actions that would support deployment. These include, but are not limited to, actions to achieve economic competitiveness and timely regulatory approvals.

The Nuclear Power 2010 Program is a joint government/industry cost-shared effort. The program is designed to pave the way for an industry decision to order at least one new nuclear power plant by the end of the decade. Activities under this program support cost-shared demonstration of the Early Site Permit (ESP) and combined Construction and Operating License (COL) processes to reduce licensing uncertainties and minimize the attendant financial risks to the licensee. In addition, the program includes technology research and development to finalize and license a standardized advanced reactor design, which U.S. power-generation companies will find to be more competitive in the deregulated electricity market. The economics and business case for building new nuclear

1 power plants has been evaluated as part of the Nuclear Power 2010 program to identify the necessary
2 financial conditions under which power-generation companies would add new nuclear capacity.

3 The research program goals in this area are focused on successfully demonstrating the untested
4 regulatory processes for Early Site Permit (ESP) and combined Construction and Operating License
5 (COL) processes, and on the regulatory acceptance (certification) and completion of first-of-a-kind
6 engineering and design. Specific goals include an industry decision to order a new nuclear power
7 plant by 2008 and deployment of one or more new nuclear power plants in the 2010 time frame. See
8 Section 2.4.2 (CCTP 2005):

9 <http://www.climatechange.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-242.pdf>

- 10 • Research under the **Generation IV Nuclear Energy Systems Initiative** will lead to advanced
11 nuclear energy systems that offer significant advances in the areas of sustainability, proliferation-
12 resistance and physical protection, safety, and economics. These newer nuclear energy systems will
13 replace or add to existing light-water reactor capacity and should be available between 2020 and
14 2030. To develop these advanced reactor systems, DOE manages the Generation IV Nuclear Energy
15 Systems Initiative.

16 Development of next-generation nuclear energy systems is being pursued by the Generation IV
17 International Forum (GIF), a group of 10 leading nuclear nations (Argentina, Brazil, Canada, France,
18 Japan, the Republic of Korea, the Republic of South Africa, Switzerland, the United Kingdom, and
19 the United States) plus the European Atomic Energy Community (Euratom). The GIF has selected
20 six promising technologies as candidates for advanced nuclear energy systems concepts. The
21 Generation IV (Gen IV) Nuclear Energy Systems Initiative addresses the fundamental research and
22 development issues necessary to establish the viability of next-generation nuclear energy system
23 concepts. By successfully addressing the fundamental research and development issues of system
24 concepts that excel in safety, sustainability, cost-effectiveness, and proliferation resistance, the
25 systems are highly likely to attract future private-sector sponsorship and ultimate commercialization
26 by the private sector.

27 The primary focus of these Gen IV systems will be to generate electricity in a safe, economic, and
28 secure manner; other possible benefits include the production of hydrogen, desalinated water, and
29 process heat (see Figure 5-13). The GIF and the DOE's Nuclear Energy Research Advisory
30 Committee (NERAC) issued a report on its two-year effort to develop a technology roadmap for
31 future nuclear energy systems (GIF-NERAC 2002). The technology roadmap defines and plans the
32 necessary R&D to support the advanced nuclear energy systems known as Generation IV. The DOE
33 also prepared a report to the U.S. Congress regarding how it intends to carry out the results of the
34 Generation IV Roadmap (DOE-NE 2003a).

35 Goals for next-generation fission energy systems (Generation IV) research are focused on the design
36 of reactors and fuel cycles that are safer, more economically competitive, more resistant to
37 proliferation, produce less waste, and make better use of the energy content in uranium, in accord
38 with the abovementioned reports and roadmaps. See Section 2.4.1 (CCTP 2005):

39 <http://www.climatechange.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-241.pdf>

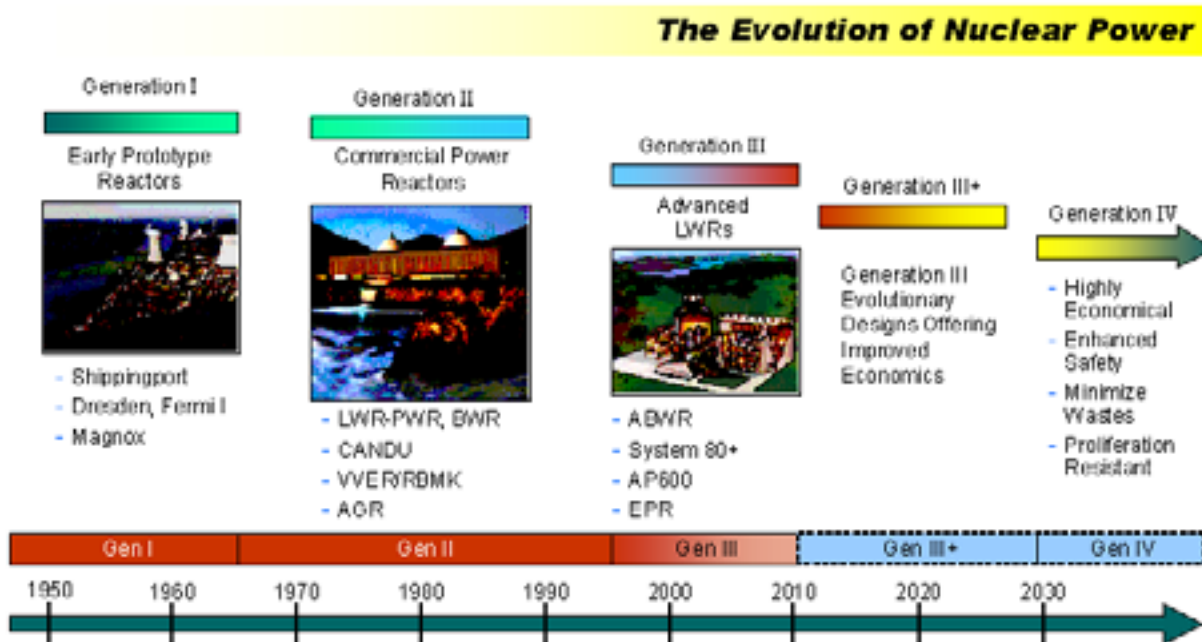


Figure 5-13. Future Nuclear Power Concepts

(Source: DOE, Office of Nuclear Energy, Science and Technology internal document)

- **The Advanced Fuel Cycle Initiative (AFCI)**, under the leadership of DOE, is focused on developing advanced fuel-cycle technologies, which include spent fuel treatment, advanced fuels, and transmutation technologies, for application to current operating commercial reactors and next-generation reactors; and to inform a recommendation by the Secretary of Energy in the 2007-2010 time frame on the need for a second geologic repository.

The AFCI program will develop technologies to address intermediate and long-term issues associated with spent nuclear fuel. The intermediate-term issues are the reduction of the volume and heat generation of material requiring geologic disposal. The program will develop proliferation-resistant processes and fuels for application to current light-water reactor systems and Generation IV reactor systems to enable the energy value of these materials to be recovered, while destroying significant quantities of plutonium. This work provides the opportunity to optimize use of the Nation's first repository and reduce the technical need for an additional repository. The longer-term issues to be addressed by the AFCI program are the development of fuel-cycle technologies to destroy minor actinides, which would greatly reduce the long-term radiotoxicity and heat load of high-level waste sent to a geologic repository. This will be accomplished through the development of Gen IV fast reactor fuel-cycle technologies and possibly accelerator-driven systems (DOE-NE 2003b).

Goals for advanced nuclear fuel-cycle research focus on proving design principles of spent-fuel treatment and transmutation technologies, demonstrating the fuel and separation technologies for waste transmutation, and deploying Generation IV advanced fast spectrum reactors that can transmute nuclear waste. See Section 2.4.3 (CCTP 2005):

<http://www.climatechange.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-243.pdf>

1 **5.4.4 Future Research Directions**

2 The current portfolio supports the main components of the technology development strategy and
3 addresses the highest priority current investment opportunities in this technology area. For the future,
4 CCTP seeks to consider a full array of promising technology options. From diverse sources, suggestions
5 for future research have come to CCTP's attention. Some of these, and others, are currently being
6 explored and under consideration for the future R&D portfolio. These include:

- 7 • Provide for development and demonstration of advanced technologies to reduce construction time
8 for new nuclear power plants and to minimize schedule uncertainties and associated costs for
9 construction
- 10 • Support operational safety, proliferation-resistant, fuel-cycle concepts; minimization of wastes; and
11 economy of both capital, and operation and maintenance (O&M).

12 Additional R&D work that could be undertaken for near-term deployment options relate to advanced
13 light-water and gas reactors, including fuel development, characterization, manufacture, testing, and
14 regulatory acceptance; power conversion-system design and testing, including resolution of uncertainties
15 regarding materials, reliability, and maintainability; and fission reactor internal design and verification.

16 Of the other challenges that must be addressed to enable a future expansion in the use of nuclear energy in
17 the United States and worldwide, none is more important—nor more difficult—than that of dealing
18 effectively with spent nuclear fuel. Compared to other industrial waste, the spent nuclear fuel generated
19 during the production of electricity is relatively small in quantity. However, it is highly radioactive for
20 many thousands of years, and its disposal requires resolution of many political, societal, technical, and
21 regulatory issues. While these issues are being addressed in the license application for the Yucca
22 Mountain repository in Nevada, several countries worldwide have pursued advanced technologies that
23 could treat and transmute spent nuclear fuel from nuclear power plants. These technologies have the
24 potential to dramatically reduce the quantity and toxicity of waste requiring geologic disposal. During the
25 past four years, the United States has joined this international effort and found considerable merit in this
26 area of joint advanced research.

27 The public is invited to comment on the current CCTP portfolio, including future research directions, and
28 identify potential gaps or significant opportunities. No assurance can be provided that any suggested
29 concept would meet the criteria for investment. However, CCTP can be assisted by such comments in its
30 desire to consider a full array of promising technology options.

31 **5.5 Fusion Energy**

32 Fusion energy holds the possibility of an almost inexhaustible supply of zero-GHG electricity. Fusion is
33 the power source of the sun and the stars. Lighter elements are “fused” together in the core of the sun,
34 producing heavier elements and prodigious amounts of energy. On Earth, fusion energy has been
35 demonstrated in the laboratory at powers of 5 to 15 million watts, with pulse lengths in the range of 1 to 5
36 seconds. The goal is for fusion power to eventually be produced at much larger scales.

37 Fusion power generation offers a number of advantageous features. The basic sources of fusion fuel,
38 deuterium and tritium, are actually heavy forms of hydrogen. Deuterium is abundantly available because

1 it occurs naturally in water; and tritium can be derived from lithium, a light metal found in the earth's
2 crust. Tritium is radioactive, but the quantities in use at any given time are quite modest and can be safely
3 handled. There are no chemical pollutants or carbon dioxide emissions from the fusion process. With
4 appropriate advances in materials, the radioactivity of the fusion byproducts would be relatively short-
5 lived, thereby obviating the need for extensive waste management measures.

6 From a safety perspective, the fusion process poses little radiation risk to anyone outside the facility.
7 Also, since only a small quantity of fuel is in the fusion system at any given time, there is no risk of a
8 critical accident or meltdown, and little after-heat to be managed in the event of an accident. The
9 potential usefulness of fusion systems is great, but many scientific and technical challenges remain.

10 **5.5.1 Potential Role of Technology**

11 Fusion energy is an attractive option to consider for long-term sustainable energy generation. It would be
12 particularly suited for base-load electricity supply, but could also be used for hydrogen production. With
13 the growth of world population expected to occur in cities and megacities, concentrated energy sources
14 that can be located near population centers (such as fusion energy) may be particularly attractive. In addi-
15 tion, the fusion process does not produce GHGs and has well-attested and attractive inherent safety and
16 environmental characteristics that could help gain public acceptance.

17 Energy scenarios imposing reasonable constraints on nonsustainable energy sources show that fusion
18 energy could contribute significantly to large-scale electricity production during the second half of the
19 21st century. Also, the cost of fusion electricity could be comparable to other environmentally friendly
20 sources of electricity generation.

21 Making fusion energy a part of the future energy solution is among the most ambitious scientific and
22 engineering challenges of our era. The following are some of the major scientific questions that need to
23 be answered:

- 24 • Can burning plasma that shares the characteristic intensity and power of the sun be successfully
25 produced and sustained?
- 26 • To what extent can models be used to simulate and predict the behavior of the burning, self-sustained
27 fuel required for fusion applications?
- 28 • How can new materials that can survive the fusion environment (which are needed for fusion power
29 to be commercially viable) be developed?

30 Answering these questions requires understanding and control of complex and dynamic phenomena
31 occurring across a broad range of temporal and spatial scales. The experiments required for a
32 commercially viable fusion power technology constitute a complex scientific and engineering enterprise
33 that must be sustained over several decades.

34 **5.5.2 Technology Strategy**

35 Given the substantial scientific and technological uncertainties that now exist, the U.S. Government will
36 continue to employ a portfolio strategy that explores a variety of magnetic confinement approaches and

1 leads to the most promising commercial fusion concept. Advanced computational modeling will be
2 central to testing the agreement between theory and experiment, simulating experiments that cannot be
3 readily investigated in the laboratory, and exploring innovative designs for fusion plants. To ensure the
4 highest possible scientific return, the DOE's Fusion Energy Sciences program will extensively engage
5 with and leverage other DOE programs and international programs in areas such as magnetic confinement
6 physics, materials science, ion beam physics, and high energy density physics. Large-scale experimental
7 facilities will likely be necessary, and the rewards, risks, and costs of these major facilities will need to be
8 shared through international collaborations. The target physics aspect of inertial fusion is being conducted
9 now through the National Nuclear Security Administration's (NNSA) stockpile stewardship program.
10 The overall Fusion Energy Sciences effort will be organized around a set of four broad goals.

11 *Fusion Energy Sciences Goal #1:* Demonstrate with burning plasmas the scientific and technological
12 feasibility of fusion energy. The goal is to demonstrate a sustained, self-heated fusion plasma, in which
13 the plasma is maintained at fusion temperatures by the reaction products, a critical step to practical fusion
14 power. The strategy includes the following area of emphasis:

- 15 • Participate in the international magnetic fusion experiment, ITER (Latin for "the way") project, with
16 the European Union, Japan, Russia, China, South Korea, and perhaps others, as partners.

17 *Fusion Energy Sciences Goal #2:* Develop a fundamental understanding of plasma behavior sufficient to
18 provide a reliable predictive capability for fusion energy systems. Basic research is required in turbulence
19 and transport, nonlinear behavior and overall stability of confined plasmas, interactions of waves and
20 particles in plasmas, the physics occurring at the wall-plasma interface, and the physics of intense ion
21 beam plasmas and high energy density plasmas. The strategy includes the following areas of emphasis:

- 22 • Conduct fusion science research through individual-investigator and research-team experimental,
23 computational, and theoretical investigations
- 24 • Advance the state-of-the-art computational modeling and simulation of plasma behavior in
25 partnership with the Advanced Scientific Computing Research program in DOE's Office of Science
- 26 • Support basic plasma science, partly with the National Science Foundation, connecting both
27 experiments and theory with related disciplines such as astrophysics.

28 *Fusion Energy Sciences Goal #3:* Determine the most promising approaches and configurations to
29 confining hot plasmas for practical fusion energy systems. The strategy includes experiments and
30 advanced simulation and modeling; innovative magnetic confinement configurations, such as the National
31 Spherical Torus Experiment (NSTX); and a planned compact stellarator experiment, the National
32 Compact Stellarator Experiment (NCSX) at Princeton Plasma Physics Laboratory (PPPL); as well as
33 smaller experiments at multiple sites.

34 *Fusion Energy Sciences Goal #4:* Develop the new materials, components, and technologies necessary to
35 make fusion energy a reality. The environment created in a fusion reactor poses great challenges to
36 materials and components. Materials must be able to withstand high fluxes of high-energy neutrons and
37 endure high temperatures and high thermal gradients, with minimal degradation. The strategy includes
38 the following areas of emphasis:

- 1 • Design materials at the molecular scale to create new materials that possess the necessary high-
2 performance properties, leveraging investments in fusion energy research with investments in basic
3 materials research
- 4 • Explore “liquid first-wall” materials to ameliorate first-wall requirements for advanced fusion energy
5 concepts.

6 **5.5.3 Current Portfolio**

7 The current Fusion Energy Sciences (FES) program, within DOE’s Office of Science, is a program of
8 fundamental research into the nature of fusion plasmas and the means for confining plasma to yield
9 energy. This includes: (1) exploring basic issues in plasma science; (2) developing the scientific basis
10 and computational tools to predict the behavior of magnetically confined plasmas; (3) using the advances
11 in tokamak⁵ research to enable the initiation of the burning plasma physics phase of the FES program;
12 (4) exploring innovative confinement options that offer the potential of more attractive fusion energy
13 sources in the long term; (5) developing the cutting-edge technologies that enable fusion facilities to
14 achieve their scientific goals; and (6) advancing the science base for innovative materials to establish the
15 economic feasibility and environmental quality of fusion energy.

16 The overall effort requires operation of a set of unique and diversified experimental facilities, ranging
17 from smaller-scale university programs to several large national facilities that require extensive collabo-
18 ration. These facilities provide scientists with the means to test and extend theoretical understanding and
19 computer models, leading ultimately to an improved predictive capability for fusion science.

20 The two major tokamak experiments, DIII-D at General Atomics and the Alcator C-Mod at MIT, are
21 extensively equipped with sophisticated diagnostics that allow for very detailed measurements in time and
22 spatial dimensions as they continuously push the frontiers of tokamak plasma confinement. They each
23 involve an array of national and international collaborators on the scientific programs.

24 Similarly, the NSTX at PPPL is also a well-diagnosed and highly collaborative experiment on an
25 innovative confinement approach that seems likely to lead to improved understanding of toroidal⁶
26 confinement systems.

27 An additional innovative concept, the National Compact Stellarator Experiment, is currently being
28 fabricated at PPPL with first operation scheduled for 2009. This machine is a product of new
29 computational capabilities that have optimized the 3-dimensional toroidal magnetic geometry for
30 improved confinement and stability in a compact form.

31 In addition to these major experiments, there are a larger number of smaller magnetic confinement
32 experiments with more specialized missions. These are generally at universities and provide an
33 opportunity for student training.

⁵ Tokamak (Acronym created from the Russian words, “TOroidalnaya KAmera ee MAgnitnaya Katushka,” or “Toroidal Chamber and Magnetic Coil”): The tokamak is the most common research machine for magnetic confinement fusion today.

⁶ Toroidal: in the shape of a torus, or doughnut. Toroidal is a general term that refers to toruses as opposed to other geometries (e.g., tokamaks and stellarators are examples of toroidal devices).

1 A modest-scale high energy density physics program is also underway, with an emphasis on using heavy
 2 ion drivers to explore plasma/beam dynamics and warm dense matter with potential applications to future
 3 inertial energy systems. This program also explores innovative approaches to improving inertial fusion
 4 energy such as the fast-ignition experiments. In addition, the FES program benefits from existing
 5 experimental programs conducted elsewhere for NNSA’s stockpile stewardship program and the
 6 Department of Defense (DoD). Both the “Z” experiment at Sandia National Laboratories and the
 7 OMEGA experiment at the University of Rochester, for example, offer opportunities for improving
 8 understanding of high energy density physics.

9 Theory and computing are key parts of the present program, as they provide the intellectual framework
 10 for the overall approach to fusion energy, as well as the computer codes, which attempt to systematically
 11 rationalize the understanding of fusion plasmas. See Section 2.5.1 (CCTP 2005):

12 <http://www.climatechange.gov/library/2005/tech-options/tor2005-251.pdf>

13 5.5.4 Future Research Directions

14 The current portfolio supports the main components of the technology development strategy and
 15 addresses the highest priority current investment opportunities in this technology area. For the future,
 16 CCTP seeks to consider a full array of promising technology options. From diverse sources, suggestions
 17 for future research have come to CCTP’s attention. Some of these, and others, are currently being
 18 explored and under consideration for the future R&D portfolio. These include:

19 Burning plasmas represents the next major science and technology frontier for fusion research. In the
 20 major international effort mentioned above (ITER), the United States, Europe, Japan, China, Russia, and
 21 the Republic of Korea are negotiating an agreement to construct a magnetic fusion burning plasma
 22 science and engineering test facility. The ITER international magnetic fusion experiment is a key part of
 24 the U.S. strategy to investigate the underlying
 26 science for magnetic confinement fusion
 28 energy (see Figure 5-14). Additional
 30 investments in fusion materials, components,
 32 and technologies for MFE are contingent upon
 34 favorable results from ITER.

36 Prior to the anticipated operation of ITER
 38 around 2014, experiments on a wide range of
 40 plasma-confinement systems worldwide will
 42 continue physics research in preparation for
 44 ITER operations. These experiments will
 46 include detailed simulations of ITER behavior
 48 as well as innovative new ways of operating
 50 fusion systems to optimize efficiency. Because
 52 of the sophisticated measurement techniques
 54 employed on modern fusion experiments,
 56 detailed data are already available to validate
 58 computer models.⁷ Work will also continue on

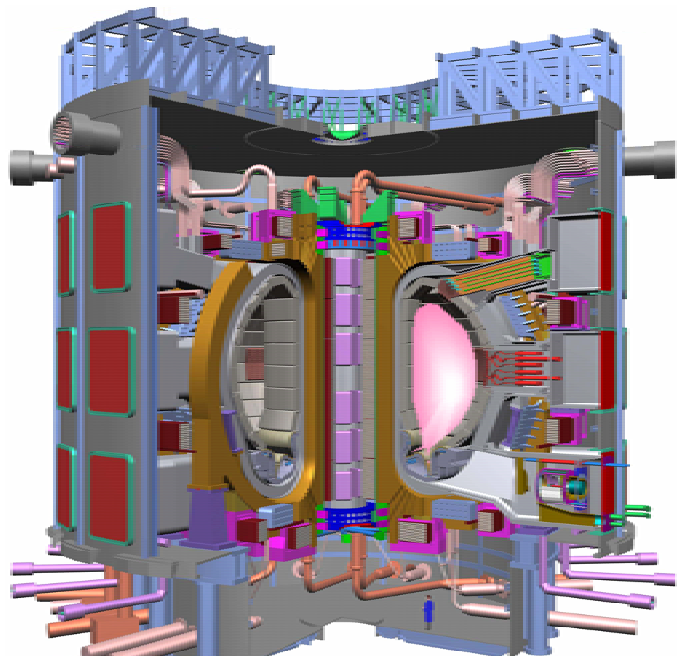


Figure 5-13. ITER Schematic

Source: <http://www.iter.org/>

⁷ For additional information about ITER, see <http://www.iter.org/>.

1 confinement configuration optimization that would allow better understanding or improve the
2 confinement approach for future power systems.

3 In other efforts, the United States is proceeding with high energy density physics, the science base for
4 inertial fusion, through the development of NNSA's National Ignition Facility (NIF) and other fusion
5 energy work, including driver, target fabrication, and chamber technologies. The drivers include lasers
6 and pulsed power-driven z-pinchs in the NNSA program and heavy ion accelerators. Efforts to explore
7 the understanding and predictability of high energy density plasma physics, including the ramifications
8 for energy-producing applications, are also underway.⁸ However, any additional investment in the inertial
9 fusion energy approach awaits successful demonstration of ignition and gain in the NIF.

10 The public is invited to comment on the current CCTP portfolio, including future research directions, and
11 identify potential gaps or significant opportunities. No assurance can be provided that any suggested
12 concept would meet the criteria for investment. However, CCTP can be assisted by such comments in its
13 desire to consider a full array of promising technology options.

14 **5.6 Conclusions**

15 Among the many thrusts for addressing climate change with the aid of technology, improved energy
16 efficiency, CO₂ capture and sequestration, and reduced emissions of non-CO₂ GHGs, soot, and aerosols
17 are all important, if not essential, to goal attainment. Large quantities of energy supplied by low or near-
18 net-zero emissions technology, however, form the core of any long-term technology component of the
19 overall strategy. Just meeting the expected growth in world energy demand over the span of the 21st
20 century will likely be challenging enough. Meeting such demand, while simultaneously reducing
21 emissions and maintaining economic prosperity, will be doubly challenging. Advanced technology as
22 outlined in this chapter on energy supply can facilitate progress in that direction.

23 **5.7 References**

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