

Decarbonisation scenarios of the U.S. electricity system and their costs

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Article

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5 **Abstract**

6 Decarbonising electricity is crucial for climate change mitigation, while understanding its economic
7 implications has been a challenge. Previous analyses primarily rely on levelised cost or single-year op-
8 timization, which fail to account for the complex spatiotemporal dynamics of capacity expansion and
9 dispatch decisions. Here, we present a regionally resolved national model that considers such dynam-
10 ics and quantifies the cost of decarbonising the U.S. electricity system under a set of possible scenar-
11 ios. The result shows that, compared to a business-as-usual scenario, reducing 80% CO₂ emission by
12 2050 relative to 2005 level would incur, depending on the scenarios, \$220~\$490 billion additional
13 costs (present value in 2020 US\$, equivalent to $\phi 0.15\sim\phi 0.34$ kWh⁻¹) to the electric sector during 2020–
14 2050, with regional costs ranging $-\phi 0.08\sim\phi 0.51$ kWh⁻¹. When compared with the mitigated CO₂, these
15 additional costs equal to \$10 and \$37 per tCO₂ reduced, which are well below the social cost of carbon
16 in the literature.

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18

19 **Main**

20 Decarbonisation of the electricity system is crucial for climate change mitigation. To achieve the 2 °C
21 climate target of Paris Agreement, the electric power sector needs to rapidly reduce its greenhouse gas
22 (GHG) emissions to nearly zero by mid-century¹⁻⁴.

23 Literature confirms the technical feasibility of decarbonising the electricity system to a large extent, or
24 even 100%, of variable renewable energy (VRE). However, a stark difference in views persists as to
25 the cost of such a transition. Some studies have shown that high penetration of VRE can substantially
26 increase average cost of electricity⁵⁻¹⁰, as additional investments are needed for reserve capacity and
27 storage¹¹. Other studies found that such a transition will lower the average cost of electricity, due to
28 the declining prices of photovoltaics (PV), wind turbines, and electricity storage systems¹²⁻¹⁷.

29 Previous studies on the cost of decarbonising electricity are, however, based on the simulations for one
30 year or a few continuous years^{5-7,14-17}. As these studies only provide a snapshot of possible future elec-
31 tricity system, they offer limited insights on the dynamics of the system and associated costs along the
32 transition. In addition, previous studies tend to focus on a single region or an entire nation without dis-
33 tinguishing sub-regions, limiting the ability to capture key spatiotemporal dimensions of electricity
34 systems such as transmission capacity and dispatchability.

35 Furthermore, previous studies often estimate the system-wide levelised cost of electricity (LCOE)¹⁴⁻¹⁶,
36 which are calculated by averaging technology LCOEs weighed by annual generation mix. The model-
37 ling approach used in these studies only simulates future electricity mix based on supply-demand bal-
38 ance, but it does not model the capacity expansion, so these studies do not correctly quantify capital
39 investments of the electricity system. In addition, the use of static capacity factors and the lack of a
40 temporal dimension in LCOE calculations fail to capture the system-level costs due to adjustments in
41 actual electricity dispatch and investments in reserve capacity and transmission^{11,18,19}.

42 In this study, we incorporate the future projections of electricity demand and technology costs into a
43 recursive optimization model. The model simulates the least-cost capacity expansion and dispatch of
44 the contiguous U.S. electricity system for each two-year period from 2020 to 2050 using the output of

45 the previous two-year period as an input to subsequent two-year period. The estimated system cost in-
46 cludes both capital and operational costs, which depend on installed capacity and generation output,
47 respectively at each two-year period. The model captures spatiotemporal variability of electricity ca-
48 pacity and generation by maintaining supply-demand balance and operational reliability for 17 intra-
49 annual time slices across 134 balancing areas.

50 To represent a wide range of future electricity pathways, we adopt four electricity scenarios from a
51 previous study²⁰, and further evaluate their cost implications during 2020–2050. BAU (Business-as-
52 usual) scenario assumes the reference projections of electricity demand, technology and fuel costs de-
53 rived from Annual Energy Outlook (AEO) and annual technology baseline (ATB 2016) by the Na-
54 tional Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL)^{21,22}; COAL scenario assumes no retirement of coal
55 power plant before 2050 and lower coal fuel prices; NUC (Nuclear) and REN (Renewable) scenarios
56 both assume 80% CO₂ emission reduction by 2050 relative to 2005, but differs in lifetimes of nuclear
57 plants (NUC scenario assumes all nuclear units remain in service for 80 years) and cost projections for
58 solar and wind technologies (NUC scenario uses ATB high cost projections for wind and solar, while
59 REN scenario uses ATB reference cost projections for solar and wind) to favour nuclear and renewa-
60 ble resources respectively. Although the four electricity scenarios are developed under different tech-
61 nology and fuel costs, we postprocess the model output costs to align with their reference projections
62 in our cost calculation to ensure fair comparisons among scenarios (See Methods). The cost results are
63 expressed as 2020 US dollar following the Consumer Price Index inflation calculation²³.

64 Sensitivities on the adopted electricity scenarios also consider the climate-water impacts on electricity
65 capacity expansion and dispatch by incorporating outputs of climate, hydrological, and thermoelectric
66 power production models. Therefore, we quantify the cost of electricity system using climate projec-
67 tions from five global climate models (GCMs) under four representative concentration pathways
68 (RCPs) [RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5, RCP 6.0, and RCP 8.5]. In addition, two different modelling approaches
69 are used for assessing the climate-water impacts. The one-way approach represents a single-direction
70 application of climate and water resource data in electricity system modelling. The iteration approach,

71 on the other hand, incorporates a feedback mechanism between electricity generation and climate-wa-
 72 ter constraints through iteration between models, so it estimates more viable electricity generation
 73 projections that achieve grid reliability thresholds and also reflects the adaptation of electricity system
 74 to the climate-water impacts²⁰ (See Methods). These scenarios provide a rich data set to assess the in-
 75 cremental effects of climate change on cost calculations.

76 **Average capacity, generation, and CO₂ emission in 2020 and 2050**

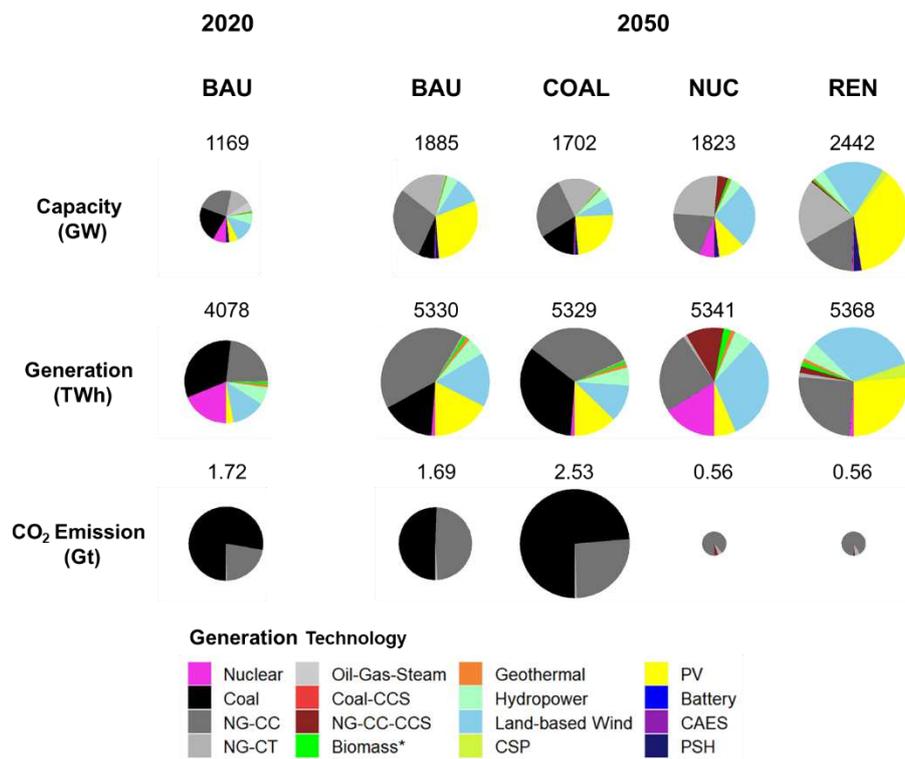


Fig. 1 | Average capacity, generation, and CO₂ emission of the U.S. electricity system in 2020 and 2050. The results of capacity, generation, and CO₂ emission presented here are averaged across the 21 climate scenarios (5 GCMs × 4 RCPs under one-way approach and one RCP 8.5 under iteration approach) due to their minor differences. The capacity numbers of different scenarios include both electricity generation and storage technologies. Electricity generation and storage technologies abbreviations include: CAES: compressed-air energy storage; Coal-CCS: Coal with carbon capture and storage; CSP: Concentrated solar power; NG-CC: Natural gas combined cycle; NG-CC-CCS: Natural gas combined cycle with carbon capture and storage; NG-CT: Natural gas combustion turbine, PSH: Pumped-storage hydropower; PV: Photovoltaic; Biomass* includes Biomass, Municipal Solid Waste and Landfill Gas; Battery: Sodium-sulphur flow battery (12-MW, 7.2-hour). The exact values of capacity, generation, and CO₂ emission at 2020 and 2050 can be found in Supplementary table 1-3. The annual new-installed capacity, total capacity, generation, and CO₂ emission from 2020 to 2050 (even years) can be found in Supplementary Fig. 1-2.

78 The evolution of installed capacities and generation mixes under the four electricity scenarios (average
79 across climate scenarios) explains the underlying cost structures. Under REN scenario, 80% reduction
80 in annual CO₂ emission is achieved by almost quintupling the combined capacity of VRE sources
81 (photovoltaic, concentrated solar power, land-based wind, hydropower, geothermal, and biomass)
82 from 307 GW in 2020 to 1,495 GW in 2050. In contrast, nuclear, oil-gas-steam, and coal capacities
83 decline substantially, as capacity retires while no new capacity is built for these technologies. To reach
84 the same carbon reduction target, the combined capacity of VRE sources under NUC scenario is more
85 than doubled from 307 GW in 2020 to 775 GW, contributing 43% of the total generation capacity in
86 2050. Other low-carbon sources, such as nuclear (108 GW) and natural gas combined cycle with car-
87 bon capture and storage (NG-CC-CCS) (76 GW), together also account for 10% of total generation
88 capacity in 2050. Annual CO₂ emissions from the contiguous U.S. electricity system increase from
89 1.7Gt to 2.5 Gt over the course of 30 years under COAL scenario, mainly due to the stable coal (262
90 GW to 266 GW) and increasing natural gas capacities (407 GW to 753 GW) from 2020 to 2050. The
91 combined capacity of VRE sources is only 638 GW in 2050 under COAL scenario, which is lowest
92 among the four scenarios (Fig. 1).

93 Total electricity generation increases by about 30% between 2020 and 2050 for all scenarios because
94 they use the same AEO electricity demand growth scenario. Under REN scenario, VRE sources pro-
95 vide as much as 70% of electricity generation in 2050 (3,780 TWh), growing up from 25% in 2020.
96 As for NUC scenario, VREs take about 44% of the annual generation (2,521 TWh) in 2050, with other
97 major low-carbon sources (nuclear and NG-CC-CCS) contributing 27% (1,449 TWh). The generation
98 mix in 2050 under COAL scenario is still fossil-dominated, as coal and natural gas both take about one
99 third (1,829 TWh and 1,770 TWh, respectively) of the annual generation, and VREs and nuclear to-
100 gether account for the last one third (Fig. 1).

101 **Cost dynamics of electricity system**

102 The annual costs under the four electricity scenarios (average across climate scenarios) reflect tem-
103 poral dynamics that are determined by the annual capacity expansion and dispatch of the electricity
104 system. Such dynamics also affect the order of annual costs under the four electricity scenarios. The

105 cumulative costs sum annual costs from the starting year to the target year, but they do not always fol-
 106 low the same order as displayed by annual costs. Our results show that, as the electricity system devel-
 107 ops under the four electricity scenarios, the cumulative costs start to diverge and follow a consistent
 108 order (NUC > REN > BAU > COAL) after around 2030. By 2050, the cumulative costs over the 30
 109 years reach \$7,700 billion, \$7,600 billion, \$6,600 billion, \$6,000 billion for NUC, REN, BAU, and
 110 COAL scenarios, respectively (Fig. 2a). However, the annual costs in the same year show a different
 111 order: REN has the highest annual cost (\$310 billion) in 2050, followed by BAU (\$300 billion), NUC
 112 (\$260 billion), and COAL (\$250 billion) scenarios (Fig 2b). The difference of orders in cumulative
 113 and annual costs indicate the inadequacy of single-year cost estimates in representing the long-term
 114 development of electricity system. Instead, the total cost incurred by the electricity system across the
 115 whole transition period should be applied in the cost comparison of different electricity scenarios.

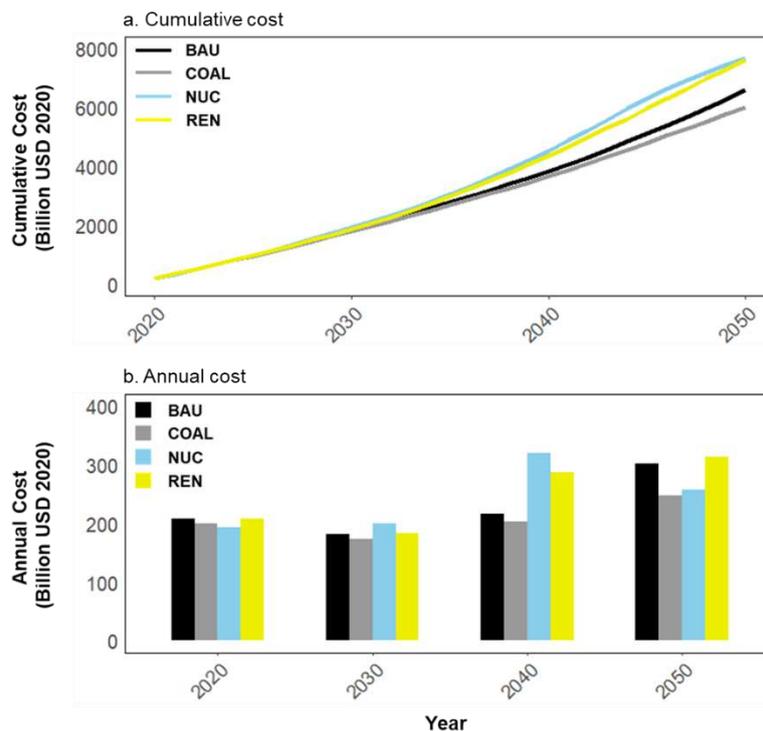


Fig. 2 | Cumulative cost (a) and annual cost (b) of the U.S. electricity system under BAU, COAL, NUC and REN scenarios. The cumulative cost (averaged across climate scenarios) at each year is the sum of annual costs of the current and all previous years (starting from 2020). The annual cost (averaged across climate scenarios) is the sum of capital cost, fixed operational and maintenance (FOM) cost, variable operational and maintenance (VOM) cost, and fuel cost across all generation, storage and transmission technologies incurred at each year. The annual costs of four representative years (2020, 2030, 2040, and 2050) are presented in the figure. Both cumulative cost and annual cost neither take any social discount rates into account nor include any externality costs, such as costs from emissions. The annual cost of each generation, storage, and transmission technology from 2020 to 2050 under the four scenarios are presented in Supplementary Fig. 3-5.

117 **Total cost of electricity system from 2020 to 2050**

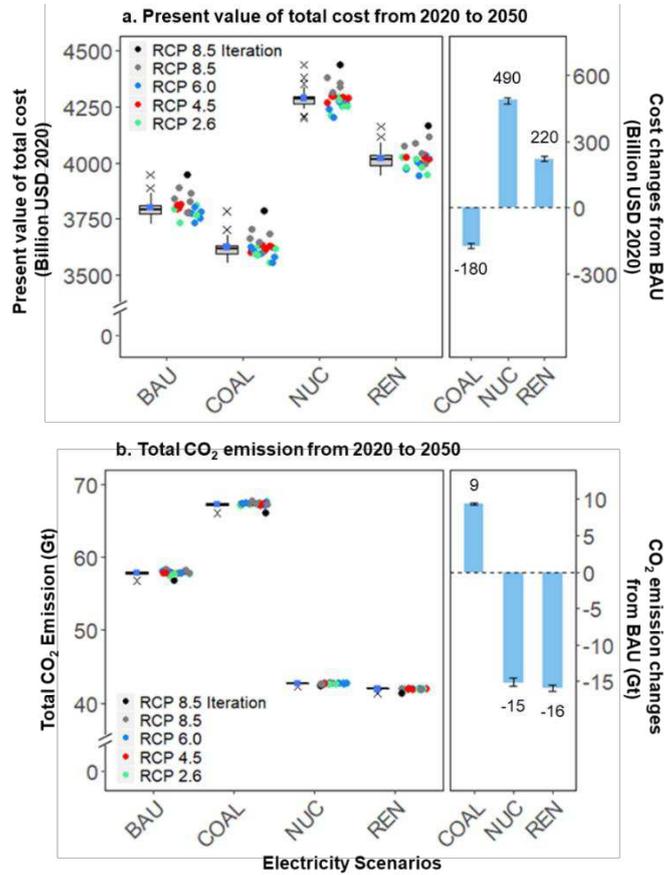


Fig. 3 | Present value of total cost (a) and CO₂ emission (b) of the U.S. electricity system from 2020 to 2050 under four electricity scenarios. The broad panels of each figure represent the present value of total cost (a) and total CO₂ emission (b) under the four electricity scenarios, and the range of each box represents the total costs/total CO₂ emission estimated based on different climate scenarios, which are also shown by the scatter points next to it. The square blue point in the box represents the mean. Different colours of the scatter points represent different RCP scenarios. RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5, RCP 6.0, and RCP 8.5 are results of the one-way approach. Each colour includes five points under each electricity scenario, representing the variability of the five GCM outputs. The RCP 8.5 Iteration is result of the iteration approach, and it has only one point under each electricity scenario, representing the average across five GCM outputs. The right narrow panels represent the changes of costs and CO₂ emissions of COAL, NUC, and REN scenarios from BAU scenario. The error bars in the right narrow panels show the ranges of maximum and minimum values, and the number of each bar represents the average value.

119 We calculate the present value (3% social discount rate (SDR)) of annual costs from 2020 to 2050 and
 120 sum them up to obtain the present value of total cost from 2020 to 2050 for all scenarios (See Meth-
 121 ods). The results (average across climate scenarios) show that the BAU scenario incurs a total cost

122 \$3,800 billion and a total CO₂ emission of 58 billion metric tons (Gt) between 2020 and 2050. Com-
123 pared to BAU scenario, NUC and REN scenarios have higher total costs, which are \$4,300 billion and
124 \$4,000 billion, respectively, but they both only emit around 42 Gt CO₂, saving a total 15–16 Gt CO₂
125 over the course of 30 years. COAL scenario has a lower total cost (\$3,630 billion) than BAU scenario,
126 while generating 67 Gt CO₂ emissions (Fig. 3).

127 Under climate change, higher RCP scenarios tend to increase total cost of the U.S. electricity system
128 by $< \pm 3.0\%$ compared to the mean (Fig. 3). The impacts of climate change on the total cost of electric-
129 ity system is materialized mainly through their effects on electricity demand, because higher average
130 temperature tends to increase cooling demand. This effect is especially impactful during the summer.
131 The climate impacts also affect the generation efficiency of thermal power plants, because under the
132 climate-water constraints, thermal power plants will be operated under the derated efficiency level in
133 order to meet the safety and environmental regulations²⁰, although such effects are found to be rela-
134 tively small.

135 We further break down the average cost changes into technology-specific components (Fig. 4). The
136 capital, fuel, and OM costs of NG-CC are \$330 billion lower in COAL than in BAU, and VREs
137 sources, such as PV and land-based wind, also have lower costs in COAL scenario. The savings more
138 than negate the additional costs from coal electricity (\$260 billion) resulting in \$180 billion net reduc-
139 tion in cost (Fig. 4a). Under NUC scenario, nuclear and land-based wind electricity displace much of
140 the electricity supply from coal power plants, saving as much as \$320 billion from coal by 2050, while
141 that alone does not negate additional costs, most notably from land wind (\$350 billion) leading to
142 \$490 total additional costs (Fig. 4b). Under REN scenario, cost savings are materialized mainly from
143 fossil fuels, such as coal (-\$290 billion) and NG-CC (-\$53 billion), while additional costs are needed
144 for land wind (\$240 billion), PV (\$150 billion) and other sources result in net \$220 billion additional
145 cost compared to BAU (Fig. 4c).

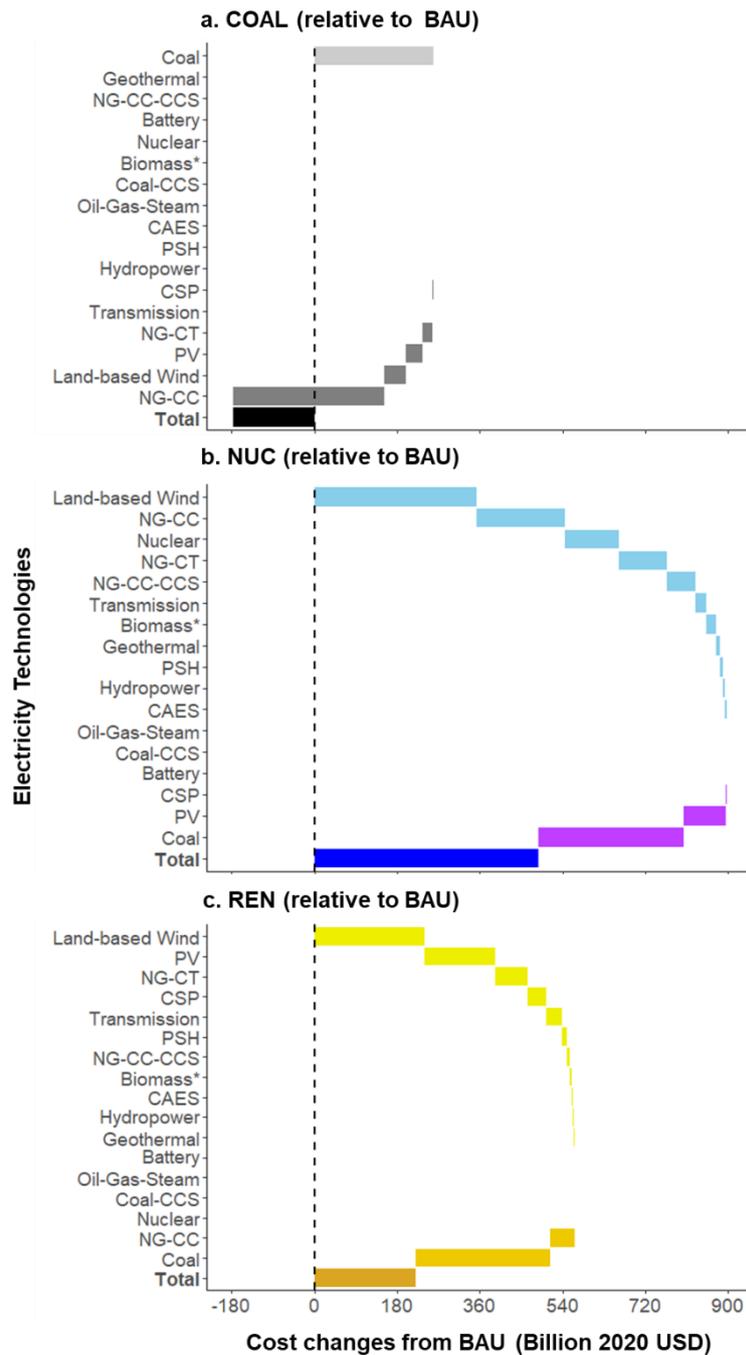


Fig. 4 | The contribution of various generation and transmission technologies to the cost changes (average across climate scenarios) of COAL, NUC, and REN scenarios from BAU scenario. The contribution to the cost changes by cost types can be found in Supplementary Fig. 6.

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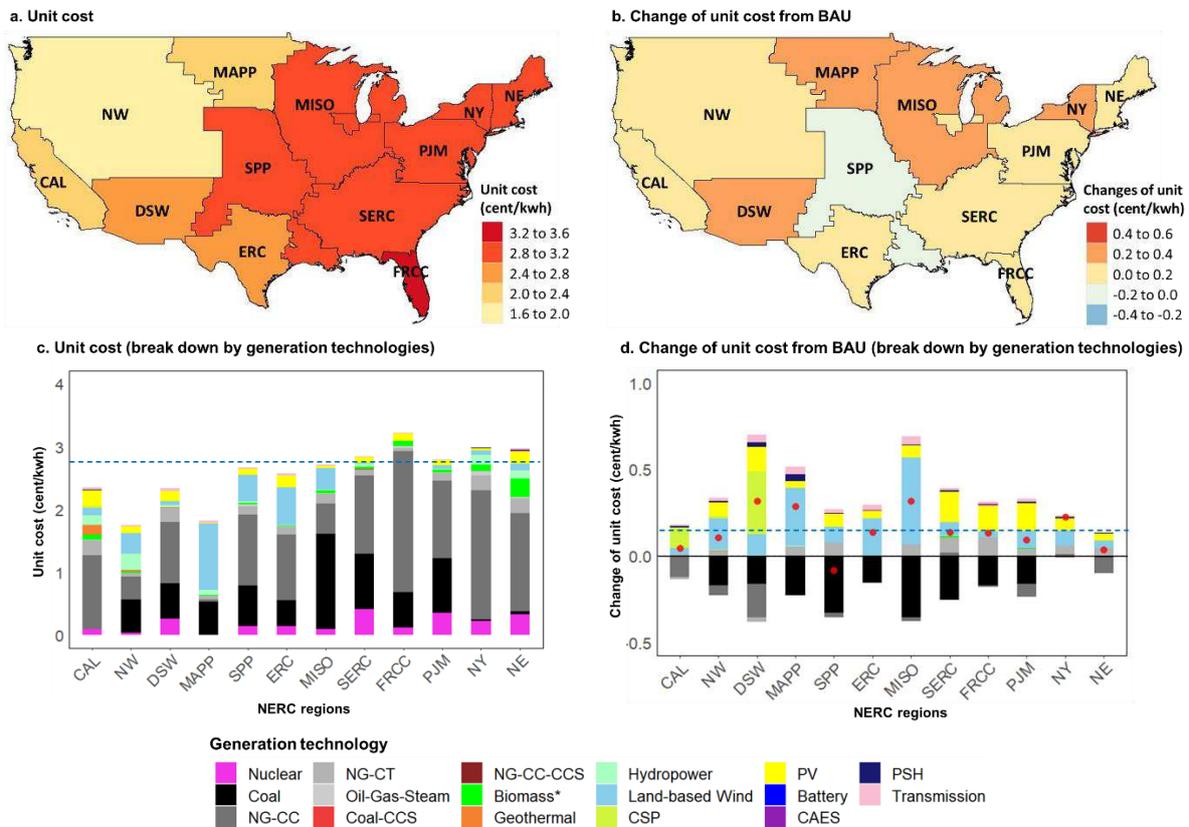


Fig. 5 | The average unit costs of electricity (a, c) under REN scenario and their changes relative to BAU scenario (b, d) at 12 North American Electric Reliability Corporation (NERC) regions across the U.S. The map plots (a, b) show the costs at different regions, and the bar plots (c, d) show the contribution of different technologies to the costs. The dash lines in the bar plots show the average values at the national level. The red dot in plot (d) shows the net additional unit cost at different NERC regions. NERC region: NE = New England; NY = New York; PJM = Pennsylvania-New Jersey-Maryland (covers Mid-Atlantic region); SERC = South-eastern Electric Reliability Council; FRCC = Florida Reliability Coordinating Council; MISO = Midcontinent Independent System Operator; MAPP = Mid-Continent Area Power Pool; SPP = Southwest Power Pool; ERC (ERCOT) = Electric Reliability Council of Texas; DSW = Southwest; NW = Northwest; CAL = California. The cost only includes the capital, FOM, VOM, and fuel cost of the electricity system, but it does not consider the electricity import and export among different NERC regions, therefore the revenue and payment associated with electricity import and export are not included in the cost presented here. The results of BAU, NUC, and COAL scenarios are presented in Supplementary Fig. 7 – Supplementary Fig. 14.

149

150 The average unit costs of electricity are calculated by dividing the present value of total cost by the to-
 151 tal generation (across 2020–2050, all averaged across climate scenarios), and they show regional vari-
 152 ability across 12 North-American Electricity Reliability Corporation (NERC) regions in the contigu-
 153 ous U.S. (See Methods). Under the REN scenario, average national unit cost of electricity (across 30
 154 years) is 2.8 cent/kWh, with a variation between 1.9 cent/kWh in Northwest (NW) to 3.4 cent/kWh in

155 Florida Reliability Coordinating Council (FRCC). In general, the eastern regions, such as New Eng-
156 land (NE, 3.0 cent/kWh), New York (NY, 3.0 cent/kWh), Pennsylvania-New Jersey-Maryland (PJM,
157 2.9 cent/kWh), South-eastern Electric Reliability Council (SERC, 3.0 cent/kWh), and FRCC (3.4
158 cent/kWh), have higher unit costs than regions in the central and western U.S., such as Southwest
159 (DSW, 2.5 cent/kWh), Northwest (NW, 1.9 cent/kWh), California (CAL, 2.4 cent/kWh), and MAPP =
160 Mid-Continent Area Power Pool (MAPP, 2.0 cent/kWh). This is mainly because eastern regions have
161 higher reliance on the fossil fuel resources, such as NG-CC and coal, for the electricity generation,
162 which incurred higher fuel costs, causing higher overall unit costs in these regions (Fig. 5a, Fig. 5c,
163 Supplementary Fig. 15).

164 Compared to BAU scenario, REN scenario reduces fuel cost for almost all regions (except for NY),
165 but the incurs higher capital investments due to the new instalment of various renewable capacities.
166 Therefore, almost all regions have net additional unit costs (0.04 cent/kWh in NE to 0.32 cent/kWh in
167 DSW) under REN scenario, except for the Southwest Power Pool (SPP), which saves 0.08 cent/kWh
168 relative to BAU scenario. We also observed the regional variability of investment in low-carbon
169 sources across the NERC regions. For example, the southwestern regions (CA and DSW) will invest
170 mostly in the solar electricity, especially the CSP, which can be attributed to the abundant solar re-
171 sources in these regions. For central regions, such as MAPP, Midcontinent Independent System Oper-
172 ator (MISO) and Electric Reliability Council of Texas (ERC), the investment in wind electricity domi-
173 nate the additional unit costs, which also correspond to the high-quality wind resources in those re-
174 gions (Fig. 5b, Fig. 5d, Supplementary Fig. 16).

175 **CO₂ abatement cost of low-carbon electricity pathways**

176 Compared to BAU scenario, NUC and REN scenarios will incur higher total costs but reduce CO₂
177 emission over the course of 30 years, so we calculated the CO₂ abatement cost by dividing the present
178 value of total additional costs (with four SDRs at 2%, 3%, 5% and 7%) of NUC and REN scenarios by
179 their CO₂ emission savings compared to BAU scenario, and this metric represents the average cost of
180 reducing 1 metric ton (t) CO₂ by pursuing these low-carbon electricity pathways. The CO₂ abatement
181 costs, depending on the SDRs, ranges from \$18–\$37/t CO₂ for the NUC scenario and \$10–\$15/t CO₂

182 for the REN scenario. According to the social cost of carbon (SC-CO₂) estimated by U.S. EPA, the av-
 183 erage SC-CO₂ ranges from \$15 to \$33/t CO₂ under 5% SDR from 2020 to 2050, and this range will
 184 increase to \$79 to \$121/t CO₂ with 2.5% SDR²⁴. In comparison, the CO₂ abatement costs under NUC
 185 and REN scenarios are lower than the reported SC-CO₂ ranges, except for that of NUC scenario under
 186 5% SDR, which falls in the middle of the SC-CO₂ range (Fig. 6a).

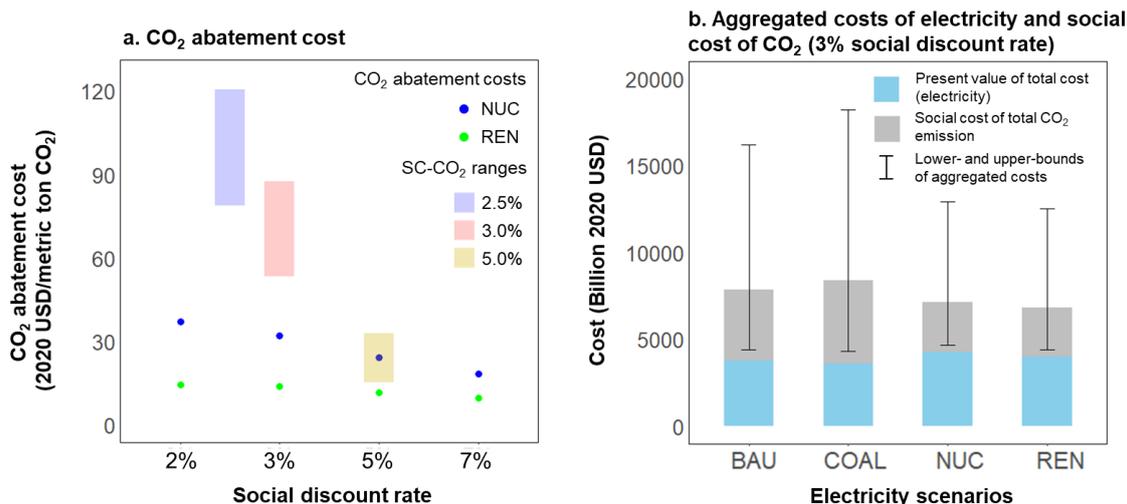


Fig. 6 | The CO₂ abatement cost under NUC and REN scenarios (a) and aggregated cost of electricity and social cost of CO₂ under four electricity scenarios (b). In Fig. 6a, the dots represent the CO₂ abatement costs (averaged across climate scenarios due to negligible differences) of NUC and REN scenarios under different SDRs (2.0%, 3.0%, 5.0%, and 7.0%). The three horizontal bands represent the average SC-CO₂ estimated by U.S. EPA under different SDRs (2.5%, 3.0% and 5.0%). The lower bound of each band represents the average SC-CO₂ in 2020, and upper bound represents the average SC-CO₂ in 2050. The SC-CO₂ was originally estimated based on 2007 US\$, and we converted them to 2020 US\$. In Fig. 6b, both present value of total cost (electricity) and social cost of total CO₂ emission are calculated based on 3% SDR. The pink bars represent the social cost of total CO₂ emission calculated based on average SC-CO₂ (at 3% SDR). The error bars reflect the uncertainty range of SC-CO₂ (at 3% SDR). The lower and upper bounds of error bars represent the aggregated cost results calculated based on 5th and 95th percentile SC-CO₂ (at 3% SDR), respectively.

187

188 Furthermore, we multiply annual SC-CO₂ by annual CO₂ emissions and sum them up across 2020–
 189 2050 to obtain the social cost of total CO₂ emission over the course of 30 years. The results show that
 190 COAL scenario incurs the highest social cost of total CO₂ emission at \$4,890 billion (based on average
 191 SC-CO₂ at 3% SDR), followed by BAU (\$4,060 billion), NUC (\$2,840 billion), and REN (\$2,800 bil-
 192 lion) scenarios. By aggregating the present value of total costs (electricity) and social costs of total

193 CO₂ emission, the results suggest that, despite the higher total costs of electricity, NUC and REN sce-
194 narios have lower aggregated costs due to their lower CO₂ emissions compared to BAU and COAL
195 scenarios (Fig. 6b).

196 **Discussion**

197 In our study, we have shown that achieving 80% of carbon reduction in the U.S. electricity system by
198 2050 incurs \$220–\$490 billion additional costs over a 30-year period under a set of scenarios that tran-
199 sition towards different sources of low-carbon electricity.

200 Our conclusion, in some degree, contradicts with a few other studies which claim that an U.S. energy
201 system relying exclusively on wind, water and solar (100% WWS) will have lower electricity cost
202 than the business-as-usual scenario^{14–16}. First, these studies mainly compare the average unit costs of
203 electricity under different scenarios at a single target year (2050). It is reasonable that a 100% WWS
204 energy system has lower average unit cost of electricity than its business-as-usual counterpart in the
205 year when such a system is available, as these studies shows that the 100% WWS system has no fuel
206 cost and reduces curtailment by deploying storage technologies and creating flexible loads. However,
207 the decarbonisation of electricity system is a long-term process featured by the cumulative instalment
208 of low-carbon sources and retirement of fossil-based sources. The annual system cost depends on an-
209 nual capacity expansion and dispatch, which are influenced by technology cost projection, capacity
210 and generation requirement, and policy assumption. Our study shows that the annual costs under four
211 electricity scenarios in 2050 show different orders compared to those of cumulative costs over the
212 course of 30 years. Therefore, the cost comparison of different electricity scenarios should be based on
213 their cost metrics that covers the whole transition period, instead of the single-year cost estimation,
214 which only captures a snapshot of the transition period.

215 Second, the previous studies estimated the unit cost of electricity in 2050 by averaging technology
216 LCOEs weighed by the 2050 generation mixes. Such a cost estimation does not correctly characterise
217 the capital investment which should be determined by the installed new capacity. In our study, we ap-
218 plied the least-cost optimization model to estimate the costs of electricity system, which, depending on

219 the cost types, are determined by capacity (capital cost and fixed operational and maintenance cost)
220 and generation (variable operational and maintenance cost and fuel cost), respectively. Therefore,
221 compared to LCOE, our cost estimation is a better metric to capture the costs incurred by annual ca-
222 pacity expansion and dispatch of the electricity system.

223 Although our study shows decarbonising the U.S. electricity system incurs additional costs relative to
224 the BAU scenario, they are lower than the social cost of carbon in the literature, indicating that the
225 benefits of avoiding potential climate damage outweighs the abatement cost of decarbonising the elec-
226 tricity system. In addition, the low-carbon transition of electricity system is also shown to reduce
227 health costs (by cutting air pollution) and create more jobs opportunities^{15,16}. Therefore, the overall so-
228 cial benefits highlight the significance of decarbonising the U.S. electricity sector.

229 Furthermore, we also find that the average unit cost of electricity varies across different regions in the
230 U.S. Under NUC and REN scenarios, the eastern regions have higher reliance on the fossil fuel
231 sources, leading to higher unit cost of electricity compared to central and western regions. The addi-
232 tional unit cost (relative to BAU) also ranges from -0.08 cent/kWh (cost saving) to 0.51 cent/kWh
233 across different regions, with the expenditures also varying among different technologies. For exam-
234 ple, under the REN scenario, the additional costs in southwestern regions mostly comes from the solar
235 electricity, while the investment in wind electricity dominates the additional costs in the central re-
236 gions. Such regional heterogeneity of electricity cost provides valuable guidance for implementing re-
237 gional specific policies to support the low-carbon electricity with the consideration of regional re-
238 source and technology availabilities.

239 **Limitations**

240 In this study, NUC and REN scenarios have about 450 GW of NG-CT as peak load generator in 2050,
241 while the total storage capacities (PSH, CAES, and battery) are less than 60 GW, because the cost as-
242 sumptions of storage technologies (Overnight capital cost of PSH is \$3,500/kW and remains constant
243 over time, and overnight capital cost of sodium-sulphur flow battery is assumed to be \$3425/kW in

244 2010 and declines at 0.5% per year^{25,26}) are higher than that of NG-CT (overnight capital cost de-
245 creases from \$850/kw to \$740/kw during the studied period²²). Recent studies have shown that the
246 costs of wind, solar and Li-on battery have been declining substantially to the extent that the combina-
247 tion of renewables with battery storage has become cost competitive to the natural gas peaker
248 plants^{27,28}, so more up-to-date cost data of battery storage technologies need to be used to evaluate the
249 role of storage technologies in future electricity system.

250 Our results also show that, at the national level, the climate impact has a relatively minor effect on the
251 total cost of the U.S. electricity system compared to the effect of different electricity scenarios, as the
252 total costs under different climate scenarios only change from their averages by less than $\pm 3.0\%$. In
253 this study, climate change affects the electricity system mainly through increasing the load and reduc-
254 ing the efficiency of thermal power plants. However, several studies have revealed that the climate in-
255 duced changes in temperature, wind and cloud pattern, and water resources availability can also affect
256 the operation of solar²⁹, wind³⁰, and hydropower³¹. These effects should be incorporated into future
257 studies to examine the climate impacts on the operation and costs of electricity system, especially
258 when VREs are at high penetration level. Also, the climate impacts on electricity system is only mod-
259 elled until 2050 in this study, while it is expected that global surface temperature and its associated im-
260 pacts on nature and human systems will become more significant after 2050¹, so evaluating the effects
261 of severer climate scenarios or even extreme climate events on a electricity system is also important
262 for understanding the grid reliability under climate change.

263

264 **Methods**

265 **The electricity optimization model**

266 The Regional Energy Deployment System (ReEDS) model is a capacity expansion and dispatch model
267 for electric power sector of the contiguous U.S. By incorporating grid reliability requirements, tech-
268 nology resource constraints, and policy constraints, the model determines the least-cost mix of tech-
269 nologies that meets regional electricity demand requirements. The cost minimization is performed re-
270 cursively and sequentially by solving a linear program for each two-year period from 2010 to 2050.
271 ReEDS serves load and maintains operational reliability in 17 time-slices within each model year,
272 which includes four seasons (Spring, Summer, Fall, and Winter), and each season has a representative
273 day with four chronological time-slices (overnight, morning, afternoon, and evening), and the 17th
274 time-slice is a “summer peak” representing the top 40 hours of summer load (Supplementary Table.
275 4). In the continuous U.S., ReEDS simulates the generating capacity and balances supply and demand
276 in 134 model balancing areas (BAs), allowing the model to capture the geospatial complexity of re-
277 sources and technology availability across the country³².

278 In this study, the ReEDS model is applied to estimate the capacity expansion, electricity generation,
279 electricity costs, and CO₂ emission in the continuous U.S. The costs include capital cost, fixed and
280 variable operational and maintenance (FOM and VOM) costs, and fuel cost. ReEDS simulates results
281 for the even years of the studied period, and we calculated the results of the odd years by taking the
282 average between the two closest even years to get the completed result for each single year.

283 **The electricity scenarios**

284 The four electricity scenarios we considered in this study were adopted from a previous paper²⁰ with
285 their assumptions showing as follows:

286 *BAU (Business as usual) scenario:* Assuming the reference projections of electricity demand, technol-
287 ogy and fuel costs derived from AEO 2016 and 2016 NREL Annual Technology Baseline (ATB)^{21,22}.

288 *COAL scenario:* 1. Using almost the same reference projections of electricity demand, technology and
289 fuel costs as in BAU scenarios except for fuel cost of coal generation, for which we used the AEO

290 2016 low coal fuel cost projection to allow coal power plant to be more cost-competitive for electricity
291 generation; 2. Assuming no coal-based power plant retirement by 2050.

292 *NUC (Nuclear) scenario*: 1. Using almost the same reference projections of electricity demand, tech-
293 nology and fuel costs as in BAU scenarios except for costs of solar and wind, for which we assumed
294 ATB 2016 high cost projections for solar and wind so that their development will be suppressed and
295 the nuclear power plant will be more cost-competitive for electricity generation; 2. Assuming 80% car-
296 bon dioxide (CO₂) emission reduction by 2050 relative to 2005; 3. Assuming lifetime extension of nu-
297 clear power plant to 80 years for all units.

298 *REN (Renewable) scenario*: 1. Using the same reference projections of electricity demand, technology
299 and fuel costs as in BAU scenarios; 2. Assuming 80% carbon dioxide (CO₂) emission reduction by
300 2050 relative to 2005.

301 In order to represent a wide range of potential electricity pathways in the future, the NUC and COAL
302 scenarios were created based on different cost assumptions compared to those used in BAU and REN
303 scenarios (Technology cost projection data for developing the four scenarios can be found in Supple-
304 mentary Information—Technology Cost Projection Data.xlsx). In the total cost calculation, we ad-
305 justed the cost projections of the NUC (high cost projections for solar and wind) and COAL (low coal
306 fuel cost projection) scenarios by converting them to their reference projections in order to ensure fair
307 cost comparisons among the four electricity scenarios, but the capacity, generation and CO₂ emission
308 that were simulated under the NUC and COAL scenarios (using their original cost assumptions) re-
309 mains the same.

310 **The climate scenarios**

311 To incorporate the climate effect, a one-way and a iteration modelling approaches were applied to ex-
312 amine the effect of climate and water impacts on the electricity system development (Supplementary
313 Fig. 17)²⁰. In the one-way approach, 20 sets of climate data were developed using five global climate
314 model (GCMs) [GFDL-ESM2M, HadGEM2-ES, IPSL-CM5A-LR, MIROC-ESM-CHEM, and
315 NorESM1-M] under four representative concentration pathways (RCP) [RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5, RCP 6.0,
316 and RCP 8.5]. The climate data were then used to derive the heating and cooling degree-day, which

317 can be further applied to adjust the future electricity demand, transmission, as well as the heat-rate and
318 capacity of thermal power plants. The climate data also informed the water balance model (WBM) to
319 project water availability for cooling and operations, which are then used as the water withdraw con-
320 straint in the ReEDS. During the ReEDS simulation, the four electricity scenarios mentioned previ-
321 ously were also incorporated, together with the climate inputs, to estimate the future capacity and gen-
322 eration portfolio of the U.S. across a total 80 climate-electric scenarios (5 GCM \times 4 RCP \times 4 electric-
323 ity scenarios).

324 As for the iteration approach, the ReEDS is firstly executed to produce electricity expansion projection
325 at balancing authority level only accounting for the climate impacts on electricity demand and trans-
326 mission. The ReEDS outputs of electricity capacity and generation, together with climate data, were
327 used in the Water Balance Model and Thermoelectric Power and Thermal Pollution Model (WBM-
328 TP2M) to simulates climate-water impacts on electricity capacity and generation by calculating the
329 adjusted available capacity (AAC) for thermal power plants at plant level³³. The AAC represents the
330 available capacity of a power plant as a percentage to its nameplate capacity by considering the effi-
331 ciency and generation losses due to the changes in air temperature, humidity, and river temperature
332 and flow. Then, the results from ReEDS and WBM-TP2M are compared and evaluated based on a fea-
333 sibility check, which requires the ReEDS output to meet a 14% reserve margin threshold requirement.
334 If this requirement is stratified, the ReEDS output is considered reliable and feasible, otherwise the
335 AAC from the WBM-TP2M needs to be applied to ReEDS to generate new electricity expansion pro-
336 jections. This iteration continues until a feasible solution is found. Compared to the one-way approach,
337 the iteration approach can capture the climate impacts at each thermal power plant (while the one-way
338 approach only reflects the balancing authority level). Moreover, the iteration approach also shows a
339 feedback mechanism between the climate impacts and the electricity system, and it allows the electric-
340 ity system to gradually adapt to the climate impacts through multiple rounds of feasibility check and
341 adjustment. The iteration approach is only conducted for the RCP 8.5 with the five GCMs given it
342 longer computational time compared to the one-way approach. Ultimately, the iteration approach was
343 examined for 20 climate-electric scenarios (5 GCM \times 1 RCP \times 4 electricity scenarios). Given the

344 model capability, this study only considered the climate impacts on thermal power plants, while the
345 climate impacts on hydropower, wind, solar were assumed to be static.

346 **Present value calculation**

347 The ReEDS simulated the annual cost every two years based on least cost optimization from 2020 to
348 2050. The annual cost includes capital cost, FOM cost, VOM cost, and fuel cost for generation, stor-
349 age, and transmission technologies. We converted the cost outputs from ReEDS (expressed as \$2004)
350 to 2020 US dollar (2020\$) following the Consumer Price Index inflation calculation from U.S. Bureau
351 of Labour Statistics²³.

352 The cost outputs from ReEDS do not consider the time value of the investment, so we calculated the
353 present value of costs incurred during 2020 to 2050 for the U.S. electricity system following the
354 method described in 2018 ReEDS documentation³². The initial (base) year t_0 is 2020, and the final
355 year t_f is 2050. We also considered a wide range of discount rates d , which are 2%, 3%, 5%, and 7%,
356 to represent both private and social discount rate. The economic lifetime n , which is defined as the
357 number of years that the capital investment will be paid off, is assumed to be 20 years.

358 The annual capital cost at year t $C_{cap,t}$ represents the total unannualized cost for building the new ca-
359 pacity of each year. For the annual capital cost incurred during 2020 to 2031, because they will be paid
360 off before the 2050, given the 20-year economic lifetime. The total present value of capital cost during
361 2020 to 2031 $PV_{Cap\ 2020\ to\ 2031}$ is calculated as follow:

$$362 \quad PV_{Cap\ 2020-2031} = \sum_{t=2020}^{2031} C_{cap,t} \times \frac{1}{(1+d)^{t-t_0}}$$

363 For the annual capital cost incurred during 2032 to 2050, we scale the cost at each year to account for
364 the proportion of the cost that will be paid before 2050 by adding a scaling factor S_t . The total present
365 value of capital cost during 2032 to 2050 $PV_{Cap\ 2032\ to\ 2050}$ is calculated as follow:

$$366 \quad PV_{Cap\ 2032-2050} = \sum_{t=2032}^{2050} C_{cap,t} \times S_t \times \frac{1}{(1+d)^{t-t_0}}$$

367 The scale factor S_t is defined as the ratio of the capital recovery factor for the full economic lifetime n
 368 to the capital recovery factor for the number of years that the annual capital investment of a specific
 369 year t will be paid before 2050. The scale factor and capital recovery factor are calculated as follow:

$$370 \quad S_t = \frac{CRF(d, n)}{CRF(d, t_f + 1 - t)}$$

$$371 \quad CRF(d, n) = \frac{d}{1 - \frac{1}{(1 + d)^n}}$$

372 The other cost components, such as FOM, VOM, and fuel costs, are assumed to be paid off in the year
 373 when they are incurred. In the present value calculation, they were all considered as operational cost
 374 $C_{Op,t}$ and discounted as follow:

$$375 \quad PV_{Op, 2020-2050} = \sum_{t=2020}^{2050} C_{Op,t} \times \frac{1}{(1 + d)^{t-t_0}}$$

376 The present value of total cost of the U.S. electricity system from 2020 to 2050 $PV_{Total\ cost, 2020-2050}$
 377 is calculated by summing up the present value of capital cost and operational cost:

$$378 \quad PV_{Total\ cost, 2020-2050} = PV_{Cap, 2020-2031} + PV_{Cap, 2032-2050} + PV_{Op, 2020-2050}$$

379

380 **Geographical analysis**

381 In the cost comparison among the 12 NERC regions. We calculated the unit cost and change of unit
 382 cost from BAU scenario for the 12 NERC regions. The unit cost is calculated by dividing the present
 383 value of total 30-year cost by the total 30-year generation (all averaged across climate scenarios),
 384 which represents an average unit cost of electricity over the 30 years. The change of unit cost from
 385 BAU scenario was calculated by dividing the present value total 30-year cost changes of the three
 386 electricity scenarios (COAL, NUC and REN) relative to BAU scenario by their corresponding total
 387 30-year generation, which indicates the cost change per unit electricity generation for the each region
 388 to transition from BAU scenario to COAL, NUC and REN scenario respectively. The geographical
 389 boundaries of the NERC regions were adopted from the ReEDS model database^{32,20}.

390 **CO₂ abatement cost**

391 Given the fact that NUC and REN will have higher total costs but lower CO₂ emissions compared to
392 BAU scenario, we developed the CO₂ abatement cost (with four SDRs at 2%, 3%, 5% and 7%) to
393 quantify the cost of decarbonising the U.S. electricity system in the context of CO₂ mitigation. This
394 metric represents the average cost of reducing 1 metric ton CO₂ emission by pursuing the low-carbon
395 electricity pathways. The CO₂ abatement cost for NUC and REN scenarios are shown as follows:

396 $CO_2 \text{ Abatement Cost}_{NUC}$
397
$$= \frac{\text{Present value of total 30 year cost}_{NUC} - \text{Present value of total 30 year cost}_{BAU}}{\text{Total 30 year } CO_2 \text{ emission}_{BAU} - \text{Total 30 year } CO_2 \text{ emission}_{NUC}}$$

398 $CO_2 \text{ Abatement Cost}_{REN}$
399
$$= \frac{\text{Present value of total 30 year cost}_{REN} - \text{Present value of total 30 year cost}_{BAU}}{\text{Total 30 year } CO_2 \text{ emission}_{BAU} - \text{Total 30 year } CO_2 \text{ emission}_{REN}}$$

400

401

402 **Competing interests**

403 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

404

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Figures

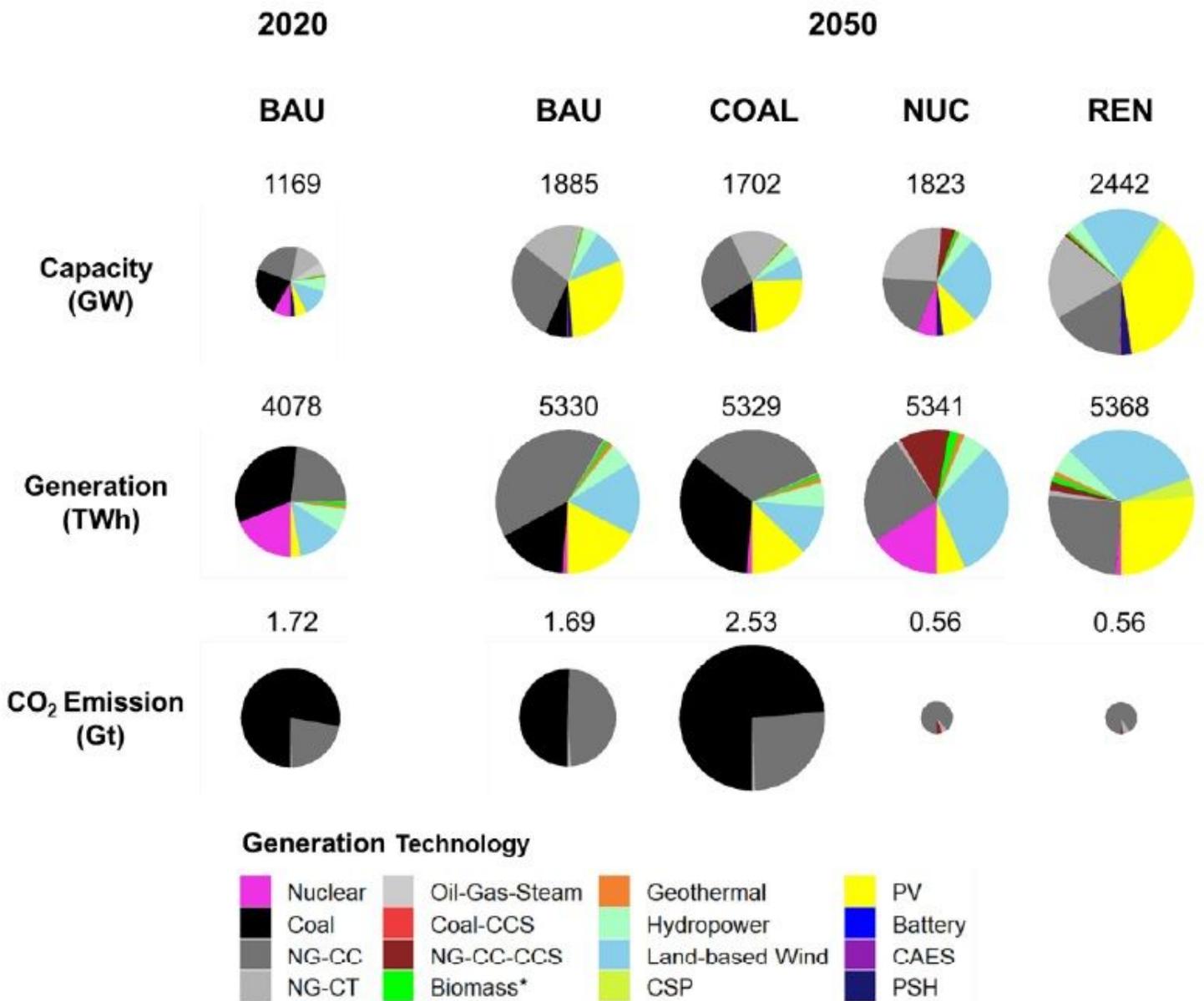


Figure 1

Average capacity, generation, and CO₂ emission of the U.S. electricity system in 2020 and 2050. The results of capacity, generation, and CO₂ emission presented here are averaged across the 21 climate scenarios (5 GCMs × 4 RCPs under one-way approach and one RCP 8.5 under iteration approach) due to their minor differences. The capacity numbers of different scenarios include both electricity generation and storage technologies. Electricity generation and storage technologies abbreviations include: CAES: compressed-air energy storage; Coal-CCS: Coal with carbon capture and storage; CSP: Concentrated solar power; NG-CC: Natural gas combined cycle; NG-CC-CCS: Natural gas combined cycle with carbon capture and storage; NG-CT: Natural gas combustion turbine, PSH: Pumped-storage hydropower; PV:

Photovoltaic; Biomass* includes Biomass, Municipal Solid Waste and Landfill Gas; Battery: Sodium-sulphur flow battery (12-MW, 7.2-hour). The exact values of ca-pacity, generation, and CO2 emission at 2020 and 2050 can be found in Supplementary table 1-3. The annual new-installed capacity, total capacity, generation, and CO2 emission from 2020 to 2050 (even years) can be found in Supplementary Fig. 1-2.

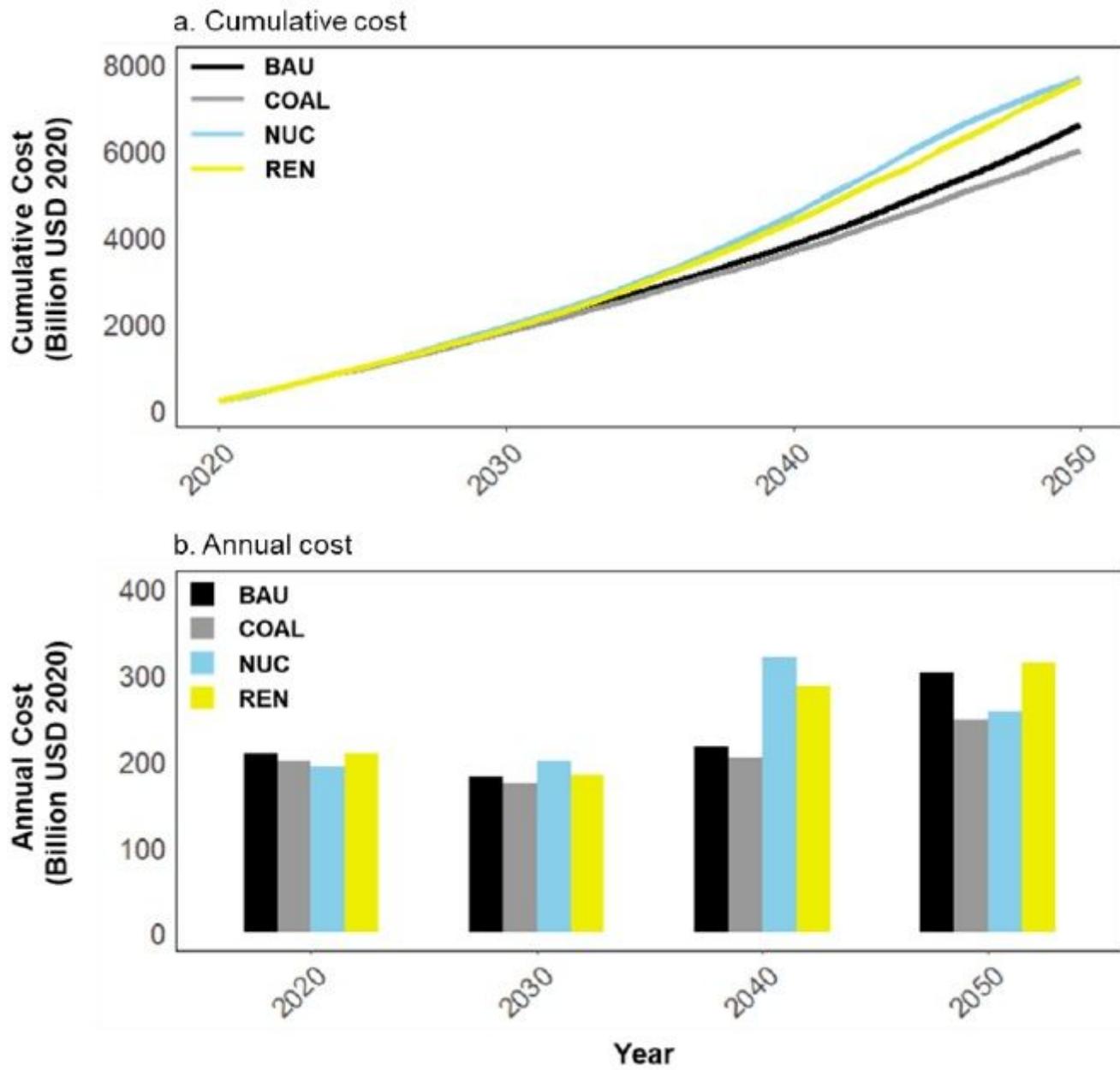


Figure 2

Cumulative cost (a) and annual cost (b) of the U.S. electricity system under BAU, COAL, NUC and REN scenarios. The cumulative cost (averaged across climate scenarios) at each year is the sum of annual costs of the current and all previous years (starting from 2020). The annual cost (averaged across climate scenarios) is the sum of capital cost, fixed operational and maintenance (FOM) cost, variable

operational and maintenance (VOM) cost, and fuel cost across all generation, storage and transmission technologies incurred at each year. The annual costs of four representative years (2020, 2030, 2040, and 2050) are presented in the figure. Both cumulative cost and annual cost neither take any social discount rates into account nor include any externality costs, such as costs from emissions. The annual cost of each generation, storage, and transmission technology from 2020 to 2050 under the four scenarios are presented in Supplementary Fig. 3-5.

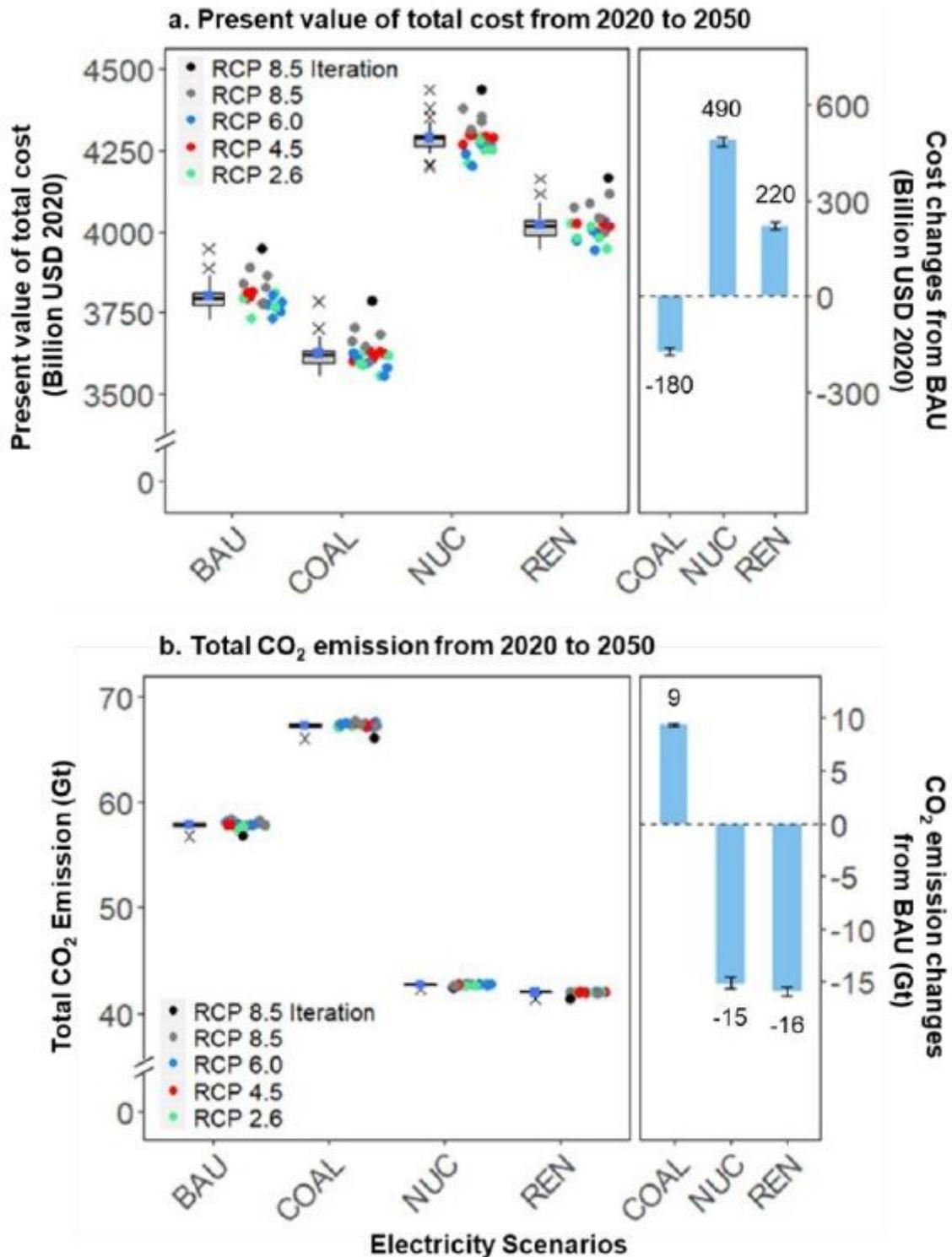


Figure 3

Present value of total cost (a) and CO₂ emission (b) of the U.S. electricity system from 2020 to 2050 under four electricity scenarios. The broad panels of each figure represent the pre-sent value of total cost (a) and total CO₂ emission (b) under the four electricity scenarios, and the range of each box represents the total costs/total CO₂ emission estimated based on different climate scenarios, which are also shown by the scatter points next to it. The square blue point in the box represents the mean. Different colours of the scatter points represent different RCP scenarios. RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5, RCP 6.0, and RCP 8.5 are results of the one-way approach. Each colour includes five points under each electricity scenario, representing the variability of the five GCM outputs. The RCP 8.5 iteration is result of the iteration approach, and it has only one point under each electricity scenario, representing the average across five GCM outputs. The right narrow panels represent the changes of costs and CO₂ emissions of COAL, NUC, and REN scenarios from BAU scenario. The error bars in the right narrow panels show the ranges of maximum and minimum values, and the number of each bar represents the average value.

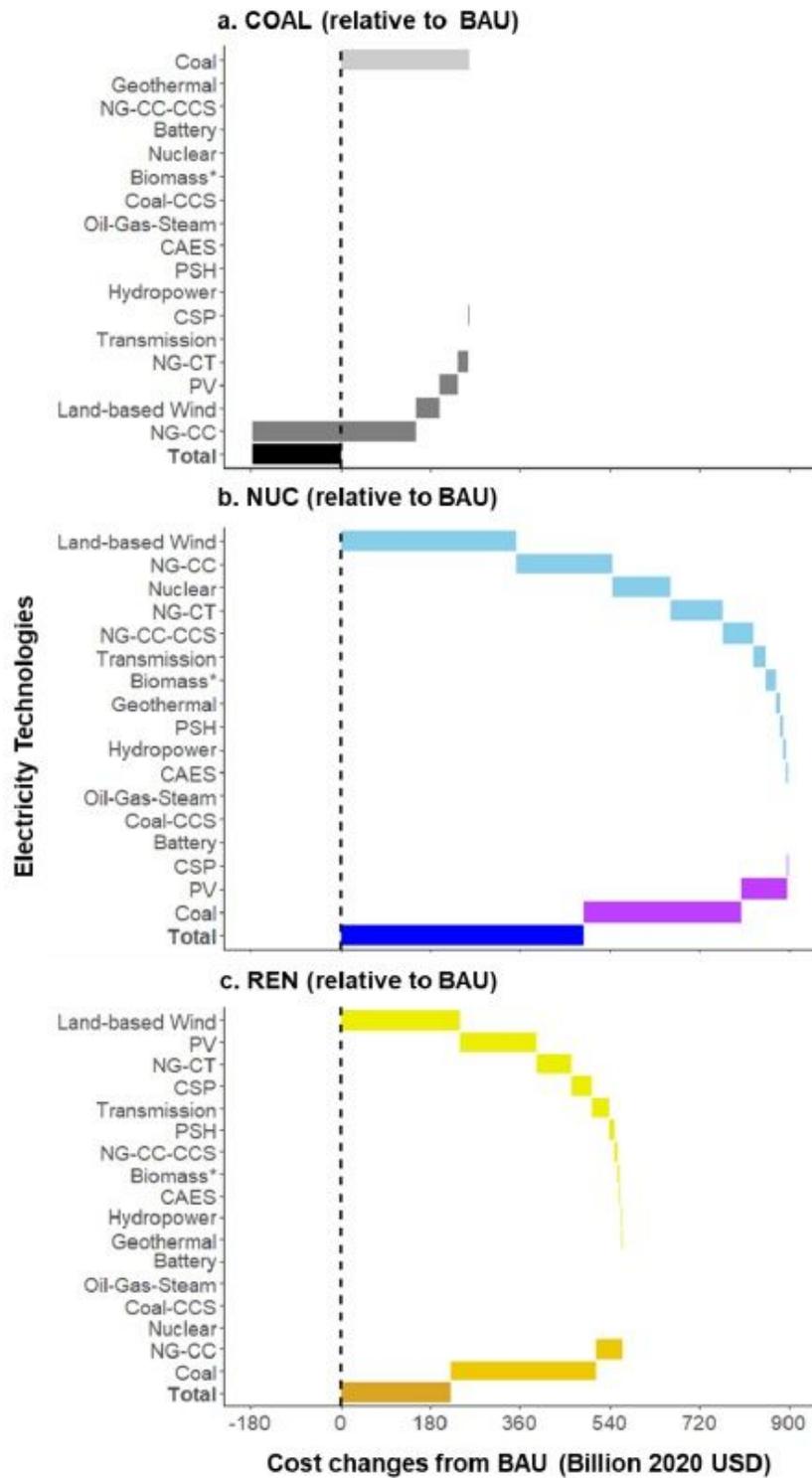


Figure 4

The contribution of various generation and transmission technologies to the cost changes (average across climate scenarios) of COAL, NUC, and REN scenarios from BAU scenario. The contribution to the cost changes by cost types can be found in Supplementary Fig. 6.

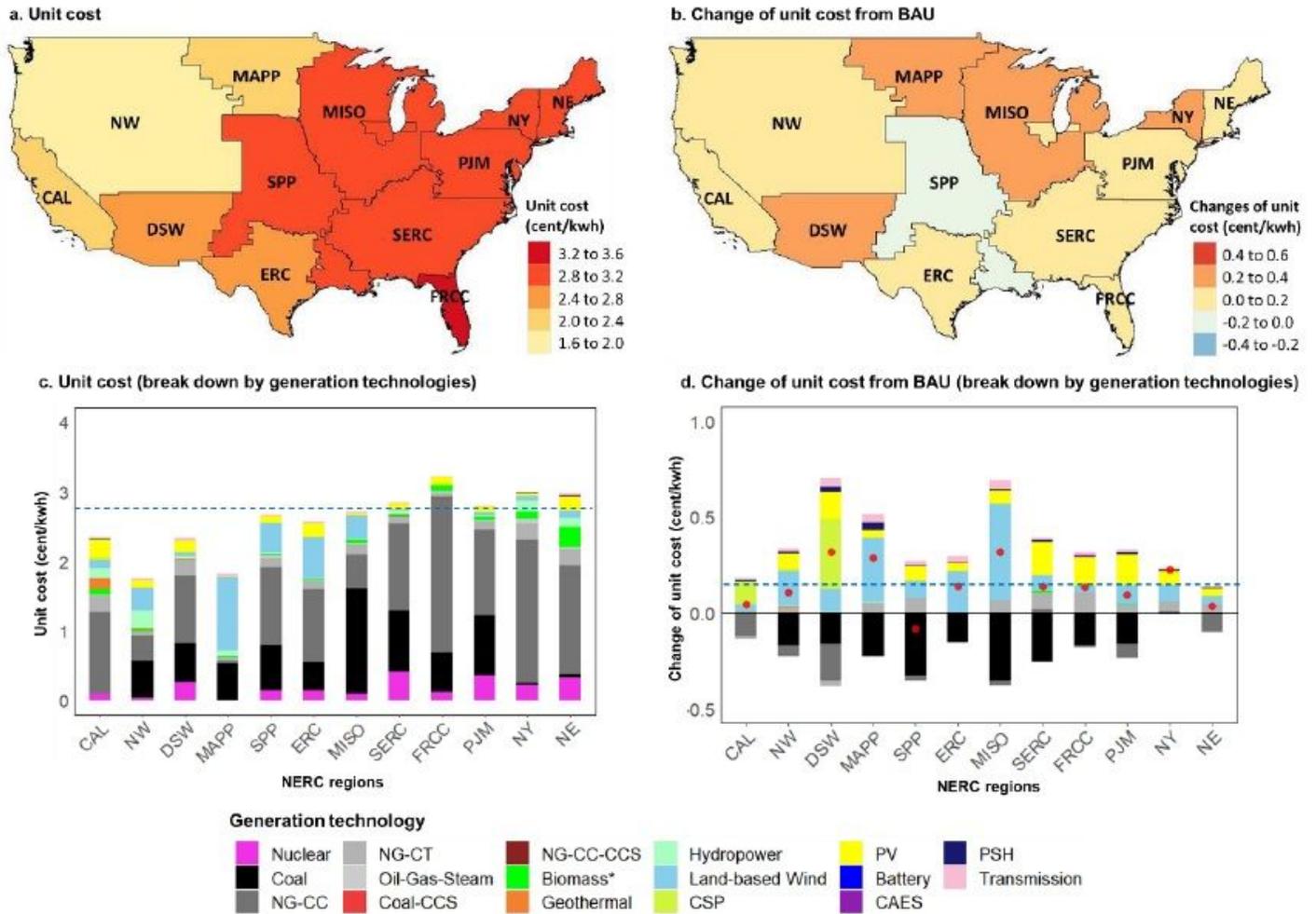


Figure 5

The average unit costs of electricity (a, c) under REN scenario and their changes relative to BAU scenario (b, d) at 12 North American Electric Reliability Corporation (NERC) regions across the U.S. The map plots (a, b) show the costs at different regions, and the bar plots (c, d) show the contribution of different technologies to the costs. The dash lines in the bar plots show the average values at the national level. The red dot in plot (d) shows the net additional unit cost at different NERC regions. NERC region: NE = New England; NY = New York; PJM = Pennsylvania-New Jersey-Maryland (covers Mid-Atlantic region); SERC = South-eastern Electric Reliability Council; FRCC = Florida Reliability Coordinating Council; MISO = Midcontinent Independent System Operator; MAPP = Mid-Continent Area Power Pool; SPP = Southwest Power Pool; ERC (ERCOT) = Electric Reliability Council of Texas; DSW = Southwest; NW = Northwest; CAL = California. The cost only includes the capital, FOM, VOM, and fuel cost of the electricity system, but it does not consider the electricity import and export among different NERC regions, therefore the revenue and payment associated with electricity import and export are not included in the cost presented here. The results of BAU, NUC, and COAL scenarios are presented in Supplementary Fig. 7 – Supplementary Fig. 14.

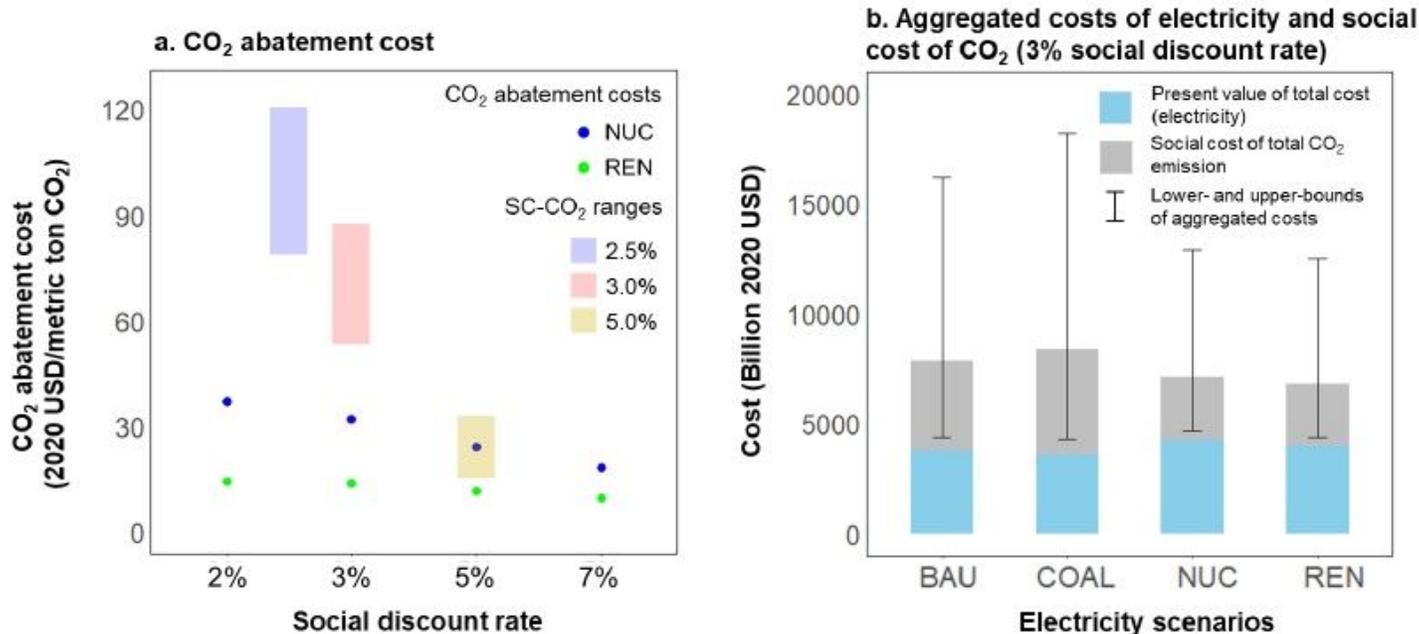


Figure 6

The CO₂ abatement cost under NUC and REN scenarios (a) and aggregated cost of electricity and social cost of CO₂ under four electricity scenarios (b). In Fig. 6a, the dots represent the CO₂ abatement costs (averaged across climate scenarios due to negligible differences) of NUC and REN scenarios under different SDRs (2.0%, 3.0%, 5.0%, and 7.0%). The three horizontal bands represent the average SC-CO₂ estimated by U.S. EPA under different SDRs (2.5%, 3.0% and 5.0%). The lower bound of each band represents the average SC-CO₂ in 2020, and upper bound represents the average SC-CO₂ in 2050. The SC-CO₂ was originally estimated based on 2007 US\$, and we converted them to 2020 US\$. In Fig. 6b, both present value of total cost (electricity) and social cost of total CO₂ emission are calculated based on 3% SDR. The pink bars represent the social cost of total CO₂ emission calculated based on average SC-CO₂ (at 3% SDR). The error bars reflect the uncertainty range of SC-CO₂ (at 3% SDR). The lower and upper bounds of error bars represent the aggregated cost results calculated based on 5th and 95th percentile SC-CO₂ (at 3% SDR), respectively.

Supplementary Files

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