

European Commission Directorate-General for Transport and Energy

# **Under the Multiple Framework Services Contract for Impact Assessments and Evaluations TREN/A2/143-2007 Lot 1**

**The revision of the trans-European energy network policy (TEN-E)TREN/A2/143-2007/SI2.544824**

**Appendices**

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## **2 Appendix II: Size of Power Transmissions Equipment**



### **3 Appendix III<sup>1</sup> : TradeWind Study Results**

### **Wind power scenarios per country (MW)**

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Source: TradeWind; Integrating Wind, Developing Europe's power market for the large scale integration of wind power, February 2009.

**Annual electricity consumption for power flow and market modelling in TWh;scenario based on Eurprog 2006**



### **Stage 1 branch reinforcements including planned new connections; Internal zones reinforcements are marked with grey colour<sup>2</sup>**

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**<sup>2</sup>** The number after the country code (for example AT-2) indicates the grid zone within the country. Details can be found in the TradeWind WP6 report.

### **4 AppendixIV: TEN-E Projects Eligible for Grants**

### TRANS-FUROPEAN ENFRGY NETWORKS<sup>3</sup>

Axes for priority projects, including sites of projects of European interest, as defined in Articles 7 and 8

The priority projects, including projects of European interest, to be carried out on each axis for priority projects are listed below.

### ELECTRICITY NETWORKS

#### *EL.1. France — Belgium — Netherlands — Germany:*

electricity network reinforcement in order to resolve congestion in electricity flow through the Benelux States.

Including the following projects of European interest:

- Avelin (FR) Avelgem (BE) line
- Moulaine (FR) Aubange (BE) line.

EL.2. Borders of Italy with France, Austria, Slovenia and Switzerland:

increasing electricity interconnection capacities.

Including the following projects of European interest:

- Lienz (AT) Cordignano (IT) line
- New interconnection between Italy and Slovenia
- Udine Ovest (IT) Okroglo (SI) line
- S. Fiorano (IT) Nave (IT) Gorlago (IT) line
- Venezia Nord (IT) Cordignano (IT) line
- St. Peter (AT) Tauern (AT) line
- Südburgenland (AT) Kainachtal (AT) line
- Austria Italy (Thaur-Brixen) interconnection through the Brenner rail tunnel.

EL.3. France — Spain — Portugal:

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increasing electricity interconnection capacities between these countries and for the Iberian peninsula and grid development in island regions.

Including the following projects of European interest:

- Sentmenat (ES) Bescan (ES) Baixas (FR) line
- Valdigem (PT) Douro Internacional (PT) Aldeadávila (ES) line and 'Douro Internacional' facilities.

#### *EL.4. Greece — Balkan countries — UCTE System:*

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>DECISION No 1364/2006/EC OF THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT AND OF THE COUNCIL of 6 September 2006laying down guidelines for trans-European energy networks and repealing Decision 96/391/EC andDecision No 1229/2003/EC.
development of electricity infrastructure to connect Greece to the UCTE System and to enable the development of the south-east European electricity market.

Including the following project of European interest:

• Philippi (EL) — Hamidabad (TR) line.

*EL.5. United Kingdom — continental Europe and northern Europe:*

establishing/increasing electricity interconnection capacities and possible integration of offshore wind energy.

Including the following project of European interest:

• Undersea cable to link England (UK) and the Netherlands.

*EL.6. Ireland — United Kingdom:*

increasing electricity interconnection capacities and possible integration of offshore wind energy.

Including the following project of European interest:

• Undersea cable to link Ireland and Wales (UK).

*EL.7. Denmark — Germany — Baltic Ring (including Norway — Sweden — Finland — Denmark — Germany — Poland — Baltic States — Russia):*

increasing electricity interconnection capacities and possible integration of offshore wind energy.

Including the following projects of European interest:

- Kassø (DK) Hamburg/Dollern (DE) line
- Hamburg/Krümmel (DE) Schwerin (DE) line
- Kassø  $(DK)$  Revsing  $(DK)$  Tjele  $(DK)$  line
- Vester Hassing (DK) Trige (DK) line
- Submarine cable Skagerrak 4: between Denmark and Norway
- Poland Lithuania link, including necessary reinforcement of the Polish electricity network and the Poland-
- Germany profile in order to enable participation in the internal energy market
- Submarine cable Finland Estonia (Estlink)
- Fennoscan submarine cable between Finland and Sweden
- Halle/Saale (DE) Schweinfurt (DE).

*EL.8. Germany — Poland — Czech Republic — Slovakia — Austria — Hungary — Slovenia:*

increasing electricity interconnection capacities.

Including the following projects of European interest:

- Neuenhagen (DE) Vierraden (DE) Krajnik (PL) line
- Dürnrohr (AT) Slav•tice (CZ) line
- New interconnection between Germany and Poland
- Ve•ký Kapušany (SK) Lemešany (SK) Moldava (SK) Sajóivánka (HU) line
- Gab•íkovo (SK) Vel'ký •ur (SK) line
- Stupava (SK) south-east Vienna (AT) line.

#### *EL.9. Mediterranean Member States — Mediterranean Electricity Ring*

increasing electricity interconnection capacities between Mediterranean Member States and Morocco — Algeria

— Tunisia — Libya — Egypt — near eastern countries — Turkey.

Including the following project of European interest:

• Electricity connection to link Tunisia and Italy.



## **5 Appendix V: Literature Review of Electricity Infrastructure Requirements**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

**Overview** This appendix presents a review of the literature of future infrastructure requirements in the electricity sector.

> It should be noted that this analysis was carried out before the publication of the ENTSO-E Ten Year Network Development Plan (TYNDP) and the data are gathered from alternative sources.

> The development of power transmission infrastructures is largely covered by recent studies carried out on behalf of TSO and institutional organizations. The emphasis is usually put on the following issues:

- analysis of current net transfer capacities (NTC) throughout the EU countries, whether they belong to specific organizations
- forecasts of power market evolution in the medium and long term (up to 2030)
- identification of key interconnection projects with specific emphasis on the crossborder capacities
- identification of related investment (in limited cases only)

The compilation and the analysis of available datahighlight several difficulties. Among the most constraining difficulties, we underline the following:

- diverging objectives: technological developments, impact of RES, political issues<sup>4</sup>
- divergence in methodological aspects, especially with regard to calculation processes; some forecasting studies are based on extrapolations, while others are based on the utilization of load flow calculation tools for instance
- divergence in the scope of the analysis: levels of detail, regional aspects, etc

Structure of this So as to address the questions raised by DG Energy, this report covers the following: **chapter**

- 1 The most recent developments in infrastructure plans that are included in the available documentation and, in particular, the most recent reports
- 2 The possibility to reconcile current infrastructure plans with the recent simulations carried out on behalf of the EC with the PRIMES macroeconomic model with a time horizon including 2020 and 2030 respectively
- 3 An estimate of the projected investments related to the expected infrastructure improvements before 2020 and between 2020 and 2030, respectively (see Section 5.8 onwards)

In some cases, missing data have been estimated on the basis of the information that is available (for example the length of additional interconnection lines is estimated as 20% of the distance between the capitals of both countries $5$ ).

<sup>4</sup> For example, the re-connection of Greece to the UCTE grid.

 $^5$  Gross figure mostly used for some long term interconnections which includes the side investments required for reinforcing the cross border interconnection on both sides.

AC, underground DC and sub-sea DC cables have been identified separately, due to their large economic impact in terms of investments.

**Assumptions and limitations of the analysis**

Three possible shortcomings in the analysis must be highlighted:

- 1 The possibility of double counting, which cannot be avoided as various sources have been exploited and, in some cases, projects are not fully specified $6$ .
- 2 The lack of links between the proposed extended transmission capacities and the economic development of the EU27 member states<sup>7</sup>.
- 3 The lack of information regarding the impact of the future developments in the field of renewable energy sources utilization.

#### **5.2 Analysis based on available studies**

The identification of the new projects is detailed in Table I of Appendix I. It summarizes the available data gathered after the consultation of various sources, includingour main sources UCTE, NORDEL,and BALTSO. The table reports the following items:

- countries between which the reinforcement of NTC is envisaged
- project scope
- project description
- project status:
	- − under consideration
	- − planned
	- − design & permitting
	- − etc.
- expected completion date
- comments:
	- − region covered
	- − project driver
	- − project scope (if available)
	- − sources (see above)

For analysis purposes, the table in Appendix I was summarized in the form of a database, in Appendix II (Table II). The emerging results are developed below.

Assessment of new This section and the following section provide a summary of the planned infrastructure developments that are provided by our list of sources. The dimensions we consider are:

- type of infrastructure (ACOHL, DC underground and subsea)
- geographical location
- completion date
- project type (new or upgrade)
- project driver

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6 This was initially the case for the two projects between Austria and Germany as mentioned in Appendix I (reason for which the length of the second projects is assimilated to nil). Another example was the line Vierranden-Krajnik (DE-PL). Identified overlaps, including the above mentioned, have been written off from the table.

<sup>7</sup>Most often, references reported by TSOs and various related studies do not refer explicitly to well-defined and comprehensive economic scenarios.

Disaggregation by Based on the database we have constructed, Table 5.1 indicates that the projects in the field of AC OHL are concentrated mainly in UCTE central East & South regions *region* while DC subsea lines are more likely to be built in other regions.

> A majority of projects envisaged during the next 20 years relate to AC lines (5,979 km) but they are almost matched by DC offshore projects (5,353 km).



Disaggregation by Table 5.2 shows that 2,960 km of AC projects will be built before 2020 (including completion date mid-term), against 1,934 km in the longer run and 1,085 km for which the implementation is still to be determined. It is estimated that 75% of the planned or expected projects with specified end dates should be implemented during the first half of decade<sup>8</sup>.

> The forecasts are more balanced in the field of DC offshore infrastructures where at least 52% of the backlog should be realized before 2020, mainly from 2015 onwards. The ratio of projects for which the implementation planning is not yet defined is important in both cases: 18% in the case of AC lines and 33% for DC offshore line projects. This is consistent with the length of the planning period.

> If we count mid-term projects as ones that will be implemented before 2020, the situation is as follows (see Table 5.3):

- 6,615km (76%) of the total projected length should be realized before 2020 against 2,067km (24%) between 2020 and 2030
- 2,960km (50%)of AC lines should be built by 2020
- 3,577km (67%) of DC offshore lines should be built by 2020



<sup>8</sup>Excluding medium-term projects.

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Disaggregation by However, the indicated lengths do not correspond systematically to the construction of *project type* new infrastructure, except perhaps for DC lines. Various projects address in turn:

- the rehabilitation of existing infrastructures
- the upgrading of transfer capacities
- the installation of phase shift transformers, etc.

Table 5.4 summarises the various European cross-border projects by type. Of the total projected length of new infrastructure projects (11,542 km), 83% is described as new or reinforcement projects. Only four upgrade projects are anticipated and the combined length of these is relatively small. For around 10% of all the cross-border projects it is not known whether they are new, reinforcement or upgrade projects.



*Transmission* Another aspect to consider is the size of transmission equipment. The table in equipment Appendix II indicates, whenever possible, references in this respect. Usually, projects address 400kV lines or above. High voltage is usually justified by the goals of the projects under review, especially when long-distance transportation is envisaged and

in the case of offshore connectors, for which important developments are foreseen in the coming decades (see below). However, data are not available for all of them, especially in the case of investments to be realized after 2020, due to uncertainties impacting on long-term planning. Therefore, special attention was required when the investment projects planned in the long runwere converted to investment values.

Disaggregation by Table 5.5 summarizes the breakdown of length of planned projects expected to be country completed by 2030 between each country<sup>9</sup>.

> If confirmed, these figures indicate that those countries concentrating the crossborders projects are, in terms of interconnection length:

- Austria
- Germany
- Italy

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In the table, European countries are listed as row titles. If the project is between two European countries, the first country listed in the original source is used in the row, and the second one is indicated by the column.

Limitations in the As mentioned at the start of this chapter, these preliminary estimates are taken from analysis several different sources. Besides the risk of double counting, the general coherence is not guaranteed because the results reflect more the sum of investments identified at national level, rather than a global, internally consistent project. Some of the mentioned projects also seem rather questionable, such as the interconnection between Germany and Norway, although in this case it is not the objective of the project itself but the recommended option (DC offshore cable) that could tentatively bypass the logic of the NORDEL market.

> The power dependency of other countries, such as Italy, could also be reassessed in the long run with regard to the implementation of an alternative energy policy at national level. This could tentatively reduce the input of envisaged investments such as the new DC offshore interconnection between Greece and the SouthernItalian peninsula<sup>10</sup>.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Important neighbor countries are also mentioned to specify the country of origin/destination e.g. Ukraine, Turkey or Norway.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> A recent ex-post evaluation carried out on behalf of the EIB indicated that the existing cable was barely reaching half of its NTC and was mainly used for balancing the two markets.



#### **5.3 Project drivers and the impact of RES**

Project drivers In various cases, projects identified by TSOs fail to elaborate on the reasons for which new interconnectors are needed. However, where possible we have attempted to identify the main drivers of each project. Many of the future electricity interconnection projects address several targets including namely, but not exclusively, the following factors:

- the mitigation of existing congestion on cross-border lines
- the security of national networks in case of possible collapse of one or several generators
- the interoperability of networks in line with the foreseeable development of the electricity market
- the need for additional transport capacity generated by the construction of new generating facilities, such as wind farms or back-to-back thermal stations

Furthermore, some of the projects reported by TSOs do not address direct increase of transmission capacity but the optimization of flows at international grid level, such as the installation of phase-shift transformers.

Table 5.6 summarises the anticipated projects by the driver(s) behind them. It should be noted that there is a significant degree of double counting in this table as many of the projects have more than one driver.

The most commonly cited drivers of the infrastructure projects are to increase general transfer capacities, resolve congestion or constraint problems or to develop the effectiveness of existing energy networks and/or markets. In comparison, as discussed below, the total length of projects explicitly driven by the aim of integrating renewable energy supplies is relatively small.

**TABLE 5.6: BREAKDOWN OF LENGTHS BY PROJECT DRIVER**



Links between In the cases of easing congestion and ensuring security of supply, projects do not *drivers and project* always require the construction of long new lines. Distances can be short and, in scale certain circumstances, the project can be limited to the updating of existing infrastructure.However, when linking different markets or incorporating new RES, the scope of the project can be much larger in terms of distance. In various cases it involves offshore cables.

The average length of projects proposed by TSOs and related studies is 165 km for onshore interconnectors (mostly OHL) while it amounts to 310 km for offshore cables.

- Integration of RES According to Appendix I and Table 5.6, only five projects, with a total length of 1,611km, cite integration of renewables as a project driver. However, it should be noted that integration of RES may implicitly be the driver behind many of the other connections, for example a reported increase in transfer capacities could be due to an increase in generation capacity in a country developing large amounts of renewable sources.
	- The Trade Wind A recent study carried out under the umbrella of Trade Wind<sup>11</sup> provides additional study suggestions of future interconnectors in Europe, driven by the requirements of largescale development and deployment of wind generation technologies. This study is based on forecasts of demand that are comparable to the baseline projections produced by the PRIMES model. It suggests that more than 20 projects will include expansion of international transmission capacities to incorporate more wind power. It is not always possible to consolidate the projects mentioned in the study with those listed in Appendix I but, working on the basis of the report in addition to our mains sources, the number of projects driven by integration of RES increases to 17 and the total length of the projects to 3,038 km.

A summary of outputs from the Trade Wind study is provided in Appendix III.

Other renewable We have not found any documents that explicitly discuss the international infrastructure requirements for integrating non-wind renewable sources. However, the *sources Ten year network development plan 2010-2020* published by ENTSO-E <sup>12</sup> provides details of other projects involving the integration of renewables other than wind energy.

> For example, a project between Norway and Finland aims to connect both wind and small scale hydro power systems to the energy grid to enhance security of supply. Other projects between Norway and the UK, Norway and the Netherlands, and Denmark and Norway are all expected to create connections between hydro and thermal power stations.

> In the longer term, up to 2050, the possibility of connections to north Africa should also be considered, although these projects are at too early a stage to be included in our list of possibilities.

Conclusions Our results show quite a large range for the share of capacity increase that is driven by the development of renewables. Our initial estimate from the main sources used is likely to understate the true extent due to projects having more than one driver, or not explicitly acknowledging the role of RES. On the other hand, the Trade Wind study may provide an overestimate, and it is also not always easy to consolidate the findings from this study with our main sources.

> Apart from wind generation, the infrastructure requirements, at least in terms of international connections, is expected to be limited in the short term, with only some connections related to hydro-electric generation quoted in our main sources. In the

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Source: TradeWind; Integrating Wind, Developing Europe's power market for the large scale integration of wind power, February 2009.

<sup>12</sup> ENTSO-E; Ten-Year Network Development Plan, 2010-20, March 2010.

longer term, however, there is a possibility that imports of electricity generated from solar plants will require large-scale infrastructure developments.

In Table 5.7 we combine the outputs from the Trade Wind study with those from the ENTSO-E report to give a maximum number and length of projects. However, this mainly serves to enforce the view that there is a wide range of estimates available.



Creation of a super Given the analysis above, it is difficult to envisage that the listed projectsabove and in grid? Appendix I can be considered to be part of the super-grid concept: this is for two main reasons:

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- Distances are usually too short to allow one of the targeted effects of super grids, related to the possibility to transfer the variable output of new RES, namely wind energy in the northern countries, over long distances.
- The technology used is still the synchronous HV lines in the range of 220-400 kV which remains more dissipative than higher-voltage (say 700 KV) asynchronous  $lines<sup>13</sup>$ .

The conclusion is that further measures are required at the European level in order to advance the possibility of the development of a European super grid $^{\text{14}}$ .

<sup>14</sup>In current usage, "super grid" has two definitions: the first of being a superstructure layer overlaid or super-imposed upon the existing regional transmission grid or grids, and the second of having some set of superior abilities exceeding those of even the most advanced existing grids. The concept of a super grid dates back to the 1960's and was used to describe the emerging unification of the Great Britain grid. While such grids cover great distances, due to congestion and control issues, the capacity to transmit large volumes of electricity remains limited. The SuperSmart Grid (Europe) and the Unified Smart Grid (US) specify major technological upgrades that proponents claim are necessary to assure the practical operation and promised benefits of such transcontinental mega grids (*source: Wikipedia*).

In practice, supergrids in fact deal with very high voltage transmission lines (> 400 kV). The very high voltage aims at limiting transmission losses over long distances, it is also considered with the use of alternative technologies: asynchronous – DC – instead of synchronous – AC – connections. The rationality of these investments is mainly supported by the ongoing development of RES. Using asynchronous lines facilitates the interconnection with HV offshore cables.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> Offshore DC lines are not considered here, as they are very expensive technologies, more dissipative, and restricted to targeted purposes.

However, the approach is still rather speculative as it would imply very high investments to be compared to the potential benefits. It is worth mentioning that the transportation of power over long distance is very expensive and is accompanied by substantial energy losses. These extra costs must be added to the additional costs of the RES. The concept of supergrids also exists in the gas sector where it targets the possible development of hydrogen pipes.

#### **5.4 Link with TEN-E projects**

The list of TEN-E projects eligible for EC grants is presented in Appendix IV.

From this input, it turns out that:

- There is a *global convergence* between the interconnection projects to be developed by the Transmission Operators. This convergence addresses both onshore and offshore interconnectors under consideration. This is the case, for instance, for the following projects:
	- − Moulaine (FR) Aubange (BE) line; Udine Ovest (IT) Okroglo (SI) line; Neuenhagen (DE) — Vierraden (DE) — Krajnik (PL) line
	- − new interconnection between Germany and Poland; undersea cable to link England (UK) and the Netherlands
	- undersea cable to link Ireland and Wales (UK)
- The scope of *new projects* usually goes beyond the investments identified under the TEN-E umbrella e.g. Halle/Saale (DE) — Schweinfurt (DE); Hamburg/Krümmel (DE) — Schwerin (DE) line; Kassø (DK) — Revsing (DK) — Tjele (DK) line; Vester Hassing (DK) — Trige (DK) line
- Eventually, possible mismatches are likely to occur as priority concerns of EU TSOs address internal links as well as links with close neighbours, while TEN-E encompasses broader projects such as those increasing electricity interconnection capacities between Mediterranean Member States and Morocco — Algeria — Tunisia — Libya — Egypt — and near eastern countries — Turkey.

#### **5.5 Integration of PRIMES projections**

#### **Methodology**

In this section we use the outputs from the PRIMES macroeconomic model and compare these against current supply capacities. The figures used are from the 2010 reference case. One of the outputs from the model addresses the energy balances of each member state which provides our measure of demand. Cross-border flows, where supply meets demand, are then integrated in an input-output matrix.

> The time horizon corresponds to the terms of reference of the present study: 2020 and 2030, respectively. In order to consider the NTC requirements in 2020 and 2030, the available data have been processed including the following:

- 1 Interconnections cover both intra-EU flows and exchanges with foreign countries such as Norway, Switzerland and other non-EU Central European countries. However, for the purpose of the final presentation, external exchanges have been condensed in one item: Total Other.
- 2 The basis of the calculation is 2010: data available for 2008 are inflated<sup>15</sup>.
- 3 NTC are driven from UCTE and related statistical sources (NORDEL, BALTSO), annual reports 2008.
- 4 Cross-border flows are based on the ENTSOE statistical yearbook 2008.
- 5 Flow values in 2020 and 2030 are first estimated on the basis of average flows, and then readjusted for taking account in a second sub-step of the variance originated by peak flows.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> Average rate 1.1% pa.

- 6 Flow data are then extrapolated on the basis of net power import and adjusted for peak flows, driven from PRIMES outputs (2020 and 2030).
- 7 In both 2020 and 2030, the overall grid architecture is provided by the existing infrastructure (2010).

The proposed approach is subject to several limitations among which the most important include, in turn:

- the fact that no reference is done vis-à-vis the load flow which would characterize the utilization of the grid during the peak time
- the utilization of transmission infrastructure is also directly impacted by dispatching centres operating at national level with peak-shaving objectives

Intermediate results corresponding to the various stages of the calculation process are presented in Appendix VI.

Based on the methodology outlined above, the outcome of the computation process is summarized in Tables 9.8 and 9.9. Excess capacity is defined as that which is above current existing capabilities and so requires new infrastructure to be built.

Cross-border Based on the inputs used, the EU27 grid would be characterized by a total increase of excess flows in 4,812 MW corresponding to the peak load in 2020.

**2020**

Computing the needs for new exchanges on the basis of the projections of energy

balances in each country in 2020, the breakdown of excess capacities vis-à-vis the present situation would be as shown in Table 5.8.

Italy appears to be the most constrained country with NTC increases on all of its main borders.



# **2030**

Cross-border Table 5.9 represents the same output, additional transfer capacity required compared excess flows in to the current situation, in 2030 in the form of an input-output matrix.

> The basis of the comparisons in Tables 9.8 and 9.9 is not incremental but compared to the current situation (2010). Taking into account the expected growth of energy

balances driven from the PRIMES model, there would need to be an increase of 8,245 MW for the transfer flows by 2030.

Based on the calculation process, the most loaded interconnections broadly follow the same pattern, with a couple of exceptions. An interconnection is required between Denmark and Sweden by 2030, whereas no extra interconnection, in addition to the requirement by 2020, is required between the UK and France.

These forecasts result directly from the energy balances and assume that the power exchanges are directed on the basis of the present exchange pattern<sup>16</sup>.



In practice, various factors will impact, directly or indirectly, and to a variable extent, on the load flow throughout the EU27 grid. Among those factors, we suggest the following as priorities:

- the grid structure in terms of impedance and impact on the load flows
- the development of new interconnections (especially between 2020 and 2030)
- the impact of national dispatching in the field of peak shaving capacities
- the impact of the RES development, especially on the countries located near seashores
- the impact of energy-saving programmes on power demand, especially in the field of DSM

Following our methodology (see Box 5.1), the reported lengths provide an indication on the investments required on the existing grid "all things the same" to transport excess capacities. But the breakdown between countries is purely indicative as it is not supported by a load flow but only calculated on the basis of energy balances.

These are the figures that are used as the basis for the estimates of the investment requirements that are discussed in Section 5.8.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup>Situation in 2008, which isthe latest available year of data.

#### **Box 5.1: How the excess transmission needs are calculated**

The excess transmission needs are cross-border flows that are additional to those that that existed in the most recent year of data (2008). We provide estimates for 2020 and for 2030.

The methodology to calculate the excess transmission needs is based on data available from ENTSO-E and the projections from the PRIMES model. We illustrate the calculations with an example.

According to the PRIMES projections, Bulgaria is expected to import 208 ktoe of electricity in 2010 and 653 ktoe in 2020. This is equivalent to 2,419 and 7,594 GWh respectively.

From the ENTSO-E report we know that net transfer capacities into Bulgaria were from Greece (150MW) and from Romania (600MW), but figures are only provided for cross-border flows from Romania (3,095 GWh in 2008).

A figure for 2010 is estimated using an assumed growth rate of 1.1% pa. We get 3,163 GWh of flows from Romania to Bulgaria.

This is converted into an available capacity, using the standard conversion factor of 8.76, so the capacity required for average flows is 368MW. This is revised to get a required capacity for peak flows using the load variance from the ENTSO-E Statistical Yearbook. In the case of Bulgaria, it is relatively high, at 0.76, so the required capacity increases to 646 MW.

The same calculations are carried out for 2020, assuming that between, 2010 and 2020, cross-border flows increase at the same rate as net imports from the PRIMES projections. This gives an estimate of required net transfer capacity of 2,028 MW (to meet peak flows).

The excess transmission needs beyond 2008 capabilities are thus (2,028 – 600) MW, giving 1,428 MW. It should be noted that a small part of this requirement could conceivably be met by the connection to Greece but the assumption is that it remains unused.

It should be noted that the input-output matrix used for this calculation is built on the basis of projected energy balances and patterns in existing flows at the end of 2008. For this reason, proposed results are considered as indicative and may diverge from the results computed from a load-flow model at the EU 27 level.

#### **5.6 Emerging corridors**

Background The concept of 'Corridors' is widely used in the oil & gas sector where it has been used for years, based around pipelines. In the electricity sector, however, its reference is rather new. The reason is that until the end of the 1980s at least, electricity markets were national.

> The NTC of cross-border interconnectors has been rather limited to cover a small part of the generating capacity. The purpose of these links was mostly focused on the security of the system in case of loss of one or more power stations.

> However, the logic of long distance transmission is not obvious either. Various studies have been devoted to the comparison of transportation costs with gas pipelines and electric wire lines<sup>17</sup>. They tend to indicate that the electric option is more expensive than the transportation of primary energy over long distances. It could be tentatively the case for gas transportation combined with a gasification process<sup>18</sup>.

> The recent development of RES, especially wind farms and solar power stations<sup>19</sup>, together with the emergence of more competitive technologies in the field of power transmission<sup>20</sup> has stimulated a new enthusiasm for long-distance projects, especially when projects involve partially or globally offshore links.

> So far, long transmission projects remain expensive. One of the issues is that the additional transportation fees are not usually charged to the generating cost.

Grid A recent study<sup>21</sup> analyses the existing situation at EU level as regards the NTC interoperability compared to the generation capacities available in the member states. Part of this study is based on the Trade Wind results that were discussed previously. The current situation is depicted in Figure 5.1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> E.g. Comparing Pipes & Wires: A capital cost analysis of energy transmission via natural gas pipelines and overhead electric wire lines; A Joint Study by the Bonneville Power Administration and the Northwest Gas Association, date not available.

 $18$  Transport or transmit? Should we transport primary energy resources or transmit them as electricity?; Alexandre Oudalov, Muhamad Reza ; ABB Review 1/2008.

<sup>19</sup>Ex. DESERTEC in the Sahara region.

<sup>20</sup>HV DC, onshore or offshore.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> T E N - ENERGY Priority: Corridors for Energy Transmission; Ramboll Oil & Gas & MERCADOS - ENERGY MARKETS INTERNATIONAL S.A.; November 2008.



Figure 5.1: Interconnection capacities vs. peak demand

If a minimum of 10% of NTC vis-à-vis the generation capacity is required to secure the functioning of the power system at national level, the majority of the EU countries are in a rather comfortable situation as their NTC exceeds this threshold or is even above 30%.



Figure 5.2: Impact of RES in generation capacities by 2013

The most delicate situations are faced by Italy, Greece and Romania. Spain, the UK, Ireland, and Poland are in an even worse case as the ratio drops below 5%. However, even for the countries benefiting from strong exchange capacities, this does not mean that no congestion can be observed on one or several borders.

Another approach is to assess the share of RES (other than hydro) in national generating capacities. A recent study carried out by  $UCTE^{22}$  indicates the following results in the medium term (January 2013).

Still from the same source<sup>23</sup>, Figure 5.2 sums up the evolution of Simultaneous Regional Transmission Capacity in 2009 and its forecasted evolution in the next five years based on identified projects.

Beyond this five-year period, too much uncertainty prevents us from assessing any relevant SITC evolution. Uncertainties characterize both generating cross-border capacity development and consumption patterns.



Figure 5.3: Transmission capacities between blocks

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup>UCTE System Adequacy Forecast 2009-2020; Union for the co-ordination of transmission of electricity, UCTE, January 5th 2009 (scenario B).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup> UCTE, see above.

In terms of power exchange capacity, emerging corridors would be, in turn:

- Centre South Block- North Western Block (7100/3190 MW)
- North Western Block North Eastern Block (4700/3000 MW)
- North Western Block South Western Block (2600/2400 MW)
- North Western Block NORDEL (2000/2400 MW).

This is shown in Figure 5.3. France, Germany, Denmark, Austria and Italy play a major role in this architecture.

Market An alternative approach starts form the architecture of energy markets and related organization energy exchanges. Figures issues by the EC outline the situation in 2005<sup>24</sup>; this is shown in Figure 5.4.



Figure 5.4: Power consumption and exchanges between EU regions (2005)

In the described situation, the existing corridors are $^{25}$ :

- France-Italy (41 TWh)
- Czech Republic–Germany (35 TWh)
- Romania-Hungary (18 TWh)
- Spain-Morocco (17 TWh)

- Germany-Denmark (15 TWh)
- France-United Kingdom (12 TWh)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup> EU Energy Networks Policy, Trans-European Networks Energy; Casablanca, 21st March 2008.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup>Divergence can be observed between existing studies in this respect. Part of this divergence is explained by the methodology and, especially, by the study objectives. The situation is different in this respect if we consider exercises in projecting energy flows on the one hand (see input-output projections based on the outputs from the PRIMES model developed in this report), and commercial objectives focused on the creation of an integrated market on the other hand. Other specific sources of divergence could be found in the project scope (such as the EWEA Wind Energy targets 2020/2030).

Important interconnections address also the following links:

- Baltic countries-Northen Europe (11 TWh)
- Italy-Central Eastern Europe (9 TWh)
- Iberian market-Central Western Europe (8 TWh).

#### **5.7 Comments**

Several remarks can be formulated about the identification of transmission corridors and, more broadly speaking, new interconnectors.

- 1 The electric grid is a system. As long as incremental increasesare introduced in the field of either generating or transmission capacities, load flows will be reallocated throughout the entire grid. This can be accompanied with a subsequent reallocation of peak flows on congested borders which implies the need for further investment should be reassessed on a regular basis.
- 2 Some of the identified new transmission routes can tentatively result from the bad functioning of a specific market. For instance, this is the case for the interconnector Algeria – Spain. In present circumstances, there is no need to export power from Algeria to Spain but to Morocco. The latter country is covering more than 15 % of its power needs from Spain through the AC line under the Strait of Gibraltar. The answer to the present shortage in Morocco is found in the recent achievement of the 400 kV $^{26}$  line crossing Maghreb countries.
- 3 With regard to the projected new asynchronous interconnection Greece Italy, the project was evaluated after its completion by the EIB. Based on these findings, it appeared that the initial project was designed to export to the Italian market the energy produced by a CCGT plant to be built in Greece. After the period required for building the interconnector and the preliminary years of the utilization time, it appeared that Greece did not yet have the excess capacity required for  $corresponding$  exports $^{27}$ . The cable was basically used for balancing the two markets in a reverse-flow mode. The construction of a new cable could be reassessed on the basis of this situation, if not changed in the meantime.
- 4 Among the observed emerging trends, we can point out the foreseeable development of offshore interconnections. They materialize the philosophy of back-to-back power stations, especially in the case of the introduction of RES on the grid. Attention should be paid in this respect as, if the technology is now largely available, the option remains expensive in the case of long-range power lines, especially when their development is justified by the construction of large wind farms, for which capital expenses already exceed the investment costs related to traditional energy sources.

Items 2 to 3 are only examples and must be considered at EU 27 level. They do not imply that specific questions of this type are only concentrated in specific regions such as the Mediterranean Basin.

 $26$  Since the Winter 2009-2010.

 $27$  Even if this technology is a priori not appropriate for the reverse flow utilization mode.

#### **5.8 Investment assessment in the electricity sector**

**Estimate of unit** A survey issued in 2002 provides a comprehensive overview of the unit costs incurred costs for the construction of HV lines<sup>28</sup>.

> According to this source, using a double circuit 380kV line as an example, compared to the base case cost of 401,000 €/km, the results suggest that the countries can be classified into five cost groupings, as shown in Table 5.10.



These costs exclude the cost of transformers and of other substation equipment. The most significant items are transformers and busbar bays.

Based on the information provided by TSOs, 400kV transformers cost between €2-4m and 400kV bays between  $€1.5-2.5$ m.<sup>29</sup>

For 220kV, our base assumes that the construction cost is 67% of the cost of a corresponding 380kV line. Costs of 220kV relative to 380kV vary from 40% in Italy to 83% in Switzerland, depending on the number and size of conductors. 400kV DC cables cost between five and eight times the cost of a single 380 kV line $^{30}$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>28</sup>Unit Costs of constructing new transmission assets at 380 kV within the European Union, Norway and Switzerland; Prepared for the DG TREN/European Commission; Study Contract NoTREN/CC/03-2002; ICF Consulting Ltd, Final Report - October 2002.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>29</sup> Excluding compensation payments to local authorities and landowners.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>30</sup> The cost excludes converter stations.

In a more recent study $31$ , the analysis is carried out on the basis of unit costs reported in the latter survey<sup>32</sup> to compute the required investments in new interconnections. Investment costs are in the following range:

- for new AC OH lines: between 220 and 746 €/km/MVA, averaging 465 €/km/MVA
- for DC submarine interconnectors: between 965 and 6,770  $E/km/MVA$ ), averaging 2,880 €/km/MVA

These figures remain subject to two opposing factors:

- inflation, on the one hand, which tends to increase the unit costs at least if the prices of raw materials follows recent trends (copperand aluminium)<sup>33</sup>
- learning effects reflecting the impact of both experience and economies of scale

The last studyprovides the following investment costs of DC technology:

- sea/land cable (supply + laying down + protection):  $\epsilon$ 0.77m/km
- MV sea metallic return cable:  $\epsilon$ 0.15m/km<sup>34</sup>
- DC overhead line: €0.35m/km
- converter stations (both ends): €0.16m/MW
- bay cost: €1.5m/bay

However, these figures seem to underestimate the real cost, especially for DC offshore lines. The same technology and interconnection scheme is assumed for DC interconnectors: LCC $35$  with MV $36$ sea cable return for submarine links. AC OHL is given different values for each country, depending on voltage level, line rating and territory morphology. These unit costs were used in particular for the assessment of the following projects: EstLink2, SwedLit and Ambergate.

Clearly there is a wide range of uncertainty over the actual costs of building the new transmission capabilities, but we are required to make a best estimate in order to calculate total costs. Based on the set of inputs listed above, we will assume the following unit costs for the purpose of the investment appraisal: *Our assumptions on unit costs*

- HV AC OHL (reference 380 kV): €0.6m/km
- HV DC onshore (reference 400 kV): €2.0m/km

<sup>31</sup> Energy Infrastructure Costs and Investments between 1996 and 2013 (medium-term) and further to 2023 (long-term) on the Trans-European Energy Network and its Connection to Neighboring Regions with emphasis on investments on renewable energy sources and their integration into the Trans-European energy networks, including an inventory of the Technical Status of the European Energy-Network for the Year 2003, Contract

n. TREN/04/ADM/S07.38533/ETU/B2-CESI, Issue Date: October 2005, Prepared by: CESI spa (Centro Elettrotecnico Sperimentale Italiano) – Italy, IIT (Instituto de Investigación Tecnológica), – Spain, ME (Mercados Energeticos) – Spain, RAMBØLL A/S – Denmark.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>32</sup> References: "Unit costs of constructing new transmission assets at 380kV within the European Union, Norway and Switzerland", prepared for the E.C.-DG TREN - Contract NoTREN/CC/03-2002. IFC Consulting Ltd.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>33</sup>Copper prices inflated by 160% in \$ terms from Dec 30th 2008 and Jan 12th 2010. During the same period aluminium prices increased by 30% (Source: The Economist, 16/01/10).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>34</sup> In the Multiregional study, when estimating the investment costs different values for the MV return cable have been adopted, in the range between €0.1m/km and €0.2m/km. The value adopted for the estimations presented is the average between the two extremes.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>35</sup> LCC: Line Commutated Converters, technology based on thyristors.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>36</sup> MV: Medium Voltage.

• HV DC offshore (reference 400 kV) $^{37}$ :  $\epsilon$ 4.8m/km

Cost estimates for In Table 5.3 we outlined the total lengths of the planned projects in km. These lengths the proposed are multiplied by the assumed unit costs to give a preliminary estimate of total costs developments (see Table 5.11).

> It should be noted that these figures do not include substations and converters, and do not include indirect costs related to the construction of interconnectors for which no visibility is provided in the available documentation.



Attention must be paid to the fact that:

- 1 Unit costs on which the evaluation process is based remain highly speculative; this is especially the case for offshore interconnectors which represent the largest part of the investment.
- 2 In the case of AC OHL, the situation is also complicated by the fact that only part of the envisaged project covers the construction of new lines; even if this is mostly the case, possible savings can be generated in the case of upgrading of existing lines.

Taking all these issues into consideration, we suggest that a target of €30-40 bn could be tentatively envisaged taking into consideration contingencies and spin-off investments. A total of 85% of the budget is absorbed by new DC lines, especially offshore projects.

*Cost estimates to* In earlier sections of this appendix, we identified a range of proposed developments *cover integration* that are, or may be, driven by the requirement to integrate renewable sources of of renewables generation into electricity grids. Using the same assumptions as above we can estimate the costs associated with these projects. We get a range of:

Minimum: €5,877m (5 projects, 1,611 km)

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Maximum: €19,096m (36 projects, 7,571 km)

As is discussed in earlier sections, the range of outcomes is due to the fact that the different sources used often in conflict as to which projects are explicitly driven by integration of renewables.

Cost estimates to We now consider the investments required to meet the 'excess' (greater than current) cover excess capacity required by 2030. Our starting point is the European connections outlined in capacity Table 5.9 and we use the same assumptions that are used in that table.

 $37$ Offshore interconnectors represent the bulk of considered projects. This can be regarded as a minimum.

The first step is to convert the capacities in Table 5.9 to lengths. We do this in Table 5.12, making the following three assumptions:

- 1 The basis for our analysis is the excess flows which are estimated from the projections from the PRIMES model and existing interconnections.
- 2 The average distance for each line is 20% of the distance between the capitals of the countries.
- 3 The maximum power capacity per line is 500 MW $^{38}$ .

Given these inputs, we suggest that around2,158 km of new lines will need to be built by 2030. This is lower than the planned length of ACOHL suggested earlier.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>38</sup> This is a conservative assumption.



Based on these lengths, projected investments would be limited to  $\epsilon$ 1.3 bn, including both the price of OHL and externalities. This figure is far below the total investment costs estimated for planned developments but this is due to the fact that it does not include offshore interconnectors which absorb the greatest part of the budget.

In any case, these results remain subject to the various limitations detailed above, especially as regards the breakdown of interconnections. We stress that the total investment for cross-border lines is much lower than the replacement and the upgrading of national grids that will be implemented during the next two decades.<sup>39</sup>

**Investments by** Table 5.13 presents our suggestions of the regional disaggregation for the investments. member state We provide results based on planned projects, and the requirements to meet excess demands in 2030.

> Our mid-central values make the assumption that half of the investment for each interconnector is made in each country. We are aware that there are cases where this is not realistic (for example it is likely that most of the connection between Germany and Luxembourg will lie in Germany), so we also provide maximum values based on the entire cost of the development being borne by a single country (so is double the central value). Our final estimate takes the central value and adds on a fixed factor to take into account the additional costs for substations and converters and related investments.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>39</sup> In 20 years between one third and half of the existing HV lines will be replaced.



#### **TABLE 5.13: INVESTMENT COSTS BY COUNTRY, €m**

#### **5.9 Impact on transmission fees**

Assumptions used The achievement of a fully open market means that two activities are subject to competition: production and commercial activities. In the case of transmission, especially at HV level, the activities are still regulated.

> The economic logic is to charge a transmission fee for the transport capacity of the grid which must be designed, built and maintained to absorb the maximum power flow at peak load<sup>40</sup>. In the case of additional transmission capacities, the impact on tariffs

<sup>40</sup>"Maximum coinciding power".

will depend on the increase of depreciation costs, financial costs and O&M costs. All these items are fixed costs.

Losses amount to an average of 5% on HV grid. This amount should be added to the fixed costs. However, in normal circumstances, it is much lower than other fixed costs and remains limited as long as interconnectors, even sub-sea links, cover a very small proportion of the total grid length which is not normally used at full load.

The basic assumptions are described below:

- $\bullet$  depreciation scheme: 40 years<sup>41</sup>
- cost of capital: 7% (pa; nominal)
- $O&M: 4,- % (pa)$

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- power generation capacity in 2020: 900 GW (EU27)
- power generation capacity in 2030: 950 GW (EU27)
- power generation (2030): 4.400 TWh

Impacts on fees Using these assumptions and the two sets of investment costs derived earlier in this chapter, our estimates of the impacts on transmission fees are outlined in Table 5.14. We have used rough estimates for the investment costs ( $\epsilon$ 35 bn and  $\epsilon$ 5 bn) to reflect the accuracy of the assumptions.



The impact on price inflation will vary depending on the global evolution of prices but also on the pace of the investment process. This would require a detailed analysis based on the investment cash flows (Table 5.14 considers the period up to 2030).

Beyond the scope of the utilization of national grids, cross-border flows can be subject to an auctioning process in case of limited transfer capacity. The marginal costs incurred by the market operators for the utilization of these transfer capacities depend on the supply and demand. These extra costs can be high in the case of severe NTC limitations.Additional interconnections would reduce these costs, and possibly counterbalance the negative cost impact calculated above.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>41</sup>This value exceeds the fiscal amortization but remains well below the reference reported by some sources: 50 years.

The underlying hypothesis is that the implementation of the anticipated investments will gradually decrease the possible impact of these extra costs which can be considered as realistic in 2030.

Another aspect is the relative size of the projects planned up to 2030. We must keep in mind in this respect that the total UCTE grid amounts to 110,000 km of HV lines. Limited to the sole UCTE, the total investment would average 10% of the network length. It will be lower in practice for the EU27.

This figure is likely to be increased on monetary terms as the extensions under review comprise a rather high amount of offshore lines, which are much more expensive. In addition, offshore investments are likely to impact more significantly on maritime countries than the inter-land countries. Compensation mechanisms could therefore be required.

#### **5.10 Conclusions**

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Results from the Various aspects related to the identification of new development projects of crossborder HV lines have been covered by recent studies. However, the approach is fragmented. The studies usually cover part of the EU27 and its Member States while their scope varies in terms of time horizon or modeling emphasis. **literature review**

> Furthermore, these studies are not as recent as the most recent PRIMES projections, which are able to take into account the most recent developments, for example regarding thefinancial and economic crisis.

The review combines two complementary approaches:

- on the one hand, the review of the main output of the most recent developments in the field of grid expansion in the medium and long terms
- on the other hand, an alternative approach based on the assessment of the length of new interconnection facilities that could tentatively be envisaged by 2030

The latter is based on the existing grid architecture and the output of therecent projections based on the PRIMES model $^{42}$ .

Although the approach was limited by various data inconsistencies, the analysis highlights the following findings:

- There is a certain convergence between the interconnection projects to be developed by the Transmission Operators.
- The scope of new projects usually goes beyond the investments identified under the TEN-E umbrella.
- Eventually, possible mismatches are likely to occur as priority concerns of EU TSOs address internal links as well as links with close neighbors, while TEN-E encompasses broader projects.

The baseline projections from the PRIMES model suggest a total increase of 8,245 MW of transfer flow capacity in the EU27 by 2030.

<sup>42</sup>*Energy and Transport; Trends to 2030*, European Commission, Directorate General for Energy and Transport.

## **6 Appendix VI: Data & Calculations for Appendix V**

This is included as a separate spreadsheet file.

## **7 Appendix VII: Background Data to Chapter 4**

#### **7.1 Long Term DemandForecasts**

Figure 7.1.1: ENTSOG Peak Day Demand Scenario<sup>43</sup>



<sup>43</sup> European Ten Year Network Development Plan; 2010 – 2019,December 2009 (Ref. 09ENTSOG).





Figure 7.1.3: Long term natural gas demand projection for the  $EU^{45,46}$ 



<sup>46</sup> EU-27 natural gas demand in 2006 accounted for 545 bcm. There is a high uncertainty about future demand development. Figure 1 compares different forecasts based on varying scenarios, including the updated "European Energy and Transport Trends to 2030" baseline scenario published by the European Commission in 2007. In the mid-term, until 2020, these forecasts remain relatively similar expecting a demand level between 550 and 670 bcm. However, things change in the longer-term. For the period up to 2030, the highest scenario (IEA reference case) and the lowest scenario (WETO carbon constraint case) differ by 200 bcm.



## Figure 7.1.4: Final Energy Consumption by Fuel 2006 (in Mtoe)<sup>47</sup>

<sup>47</sup> Eurostat, December 2008

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#### **7.2 Long Term Supply Forecasts**

Table 7.2.1: Gas imports into the EU-27 countries (in TJ, terajoules)<sup>48</sup>





Notes: Gross calorific value of 1 million cubic meter of Natural Gas can vary between 37.5 and 42.5 terajoule.

<sup>48</sup> Eurostat, December 2008





<sup>49</sup>Natural gas Demand & Supply; Long term Outlook to 2030, Eurogas.

#### **7.3 Pipeline utilization rates**



### Table 7.3: Pipeline Utilization rates<sup>50</sup>

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<sup>50</sup>T E N - ENERGY Priority Corridors for Energy Transmission; Part One: Legislation, Natural Gas and Monitoring; prepared by Ramboll A/S and Mercados SA; November 2008
### **7.4 LNG regazification capacities**





<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>51</sup> Energy Infrastructure Costs and Investments between 1996 and 2013 (medium-term) and further to 2023 (long-term) on the Trans-European Energy Network and its Connection to Neighboring Regions with emphasis on investments on renewable energy sources and their integration into the Trans-European energy networks, including an Inventory of the Technical Status of the European Energy-Network for the; Year 2003; Contract n. TREN/04/ADM/S07.38533/ETU/B2-CESI; Issue Date: October 2005; Prepared by: CESI spa (Centro Elettrotecnico Sperimentale Italiano) – Italy ,IIT (Instituto de Investigación

Tecnológica) – Spain, ME (Mercados Energeticos) – Spain, RAMBØLL A/S – Denmark; October 2005.



(1) 1<sup>st</sup> half of January. Full month only Spain and UK<br>(2) Zeebrugge average load factor is higher because capacity were increased along 2007

1 million metric tons = 1,346 bcm<br>Source: Waterborne Energy

Table 7.4.2: Utilization of LNG terminals in  $EU^{52}$ 

## **7.5 Storage capacities**

Figure 7.5.1: Storage volumes in EU-27<sup>53</sup>



<sup>52</sup> Study on Interoperability of LNG Facilities and Interchangeability of Gas and Advice on the Opportunity to Set-up an Action Plan for the Promotion of LNG Chain Investments, FINAL REPORT, May 2008, DG TREN Framework Contract: TREN/CC/05-2005, lot 3, Technical Assistance in the Fields of Energy and Transport, Contract Awarded to MVV Consulting under the Contract number S07.78755; Contract duration from 02/01/2008 to 30/04/2008.



Figure 7.5.2: Map of depleted field distribution in Europe: future potential<sup>54</sup>

<sup>53</sup>The role of natural gas storage in the changing gas market landscape in the changing gas market landscape; Jean-Marc Leroy, GSE President, CEO of Storengy, 24th World Gas Conference, Argentina, 5-9 October 2009. <sup>54</sup>GSE Storage maps. In DG TREN C1; Study on natural gas storage in the EU, Draft Final Report, October 2008.





<sup>55</sup> GSE, ERDGAS KOHLE 122, Jg. 2006, Heft 11.



Figure 7.5.4: Shares of existing types of storages based on volume capacity<sup>56</sup>

#### **7.6 Network extension forecasts**



Figure 7.6.1: ENTSOG Peak day Potential Supply vs ENTSOG Peak day Demand<sup>57</sup>

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<sup>56</sup>Source ; GSE.

<sup>57</sup>European Ten Year Network Development Plan; 2010 – 2019,December 2009 (Ref. 09ENTSOG).

2005	demand Ξ Increase in (cold winter)	2015 Demand (normal)	year Cold	demand Ξ (cold winter) Increase	Increase in %	2020 Demand (normal)	Cold year	demand Ξ ω (cold wint Increase	ళ ŝ Increase	2030 (norma) Demand	year Cold	demand £. Φ බ wint Increase (cold	Increase in %
North	2.7	31.1	37.6	2.9	8.3	37.6	40.7	3.1	8.2	43.8	47.4	3.6	8.1
South- west	1.2	15.1	17.9	1.3	8.0	17.0	18.4	1.4	8.0	17.4	18.8	1.4	8.0
South- east	2.3	28.4	36.7	2.7	8.0	36.0	38.9	2.9	8.0	38.9	42.0	3.1	8.0
Total	6.2	74.6	92.2	6.9	8.1	90.6	98.0	7.3	8.1	100.1	108.2	8.1	8.1

Table 7.6.3: Cold Winter storage Demand, baseline 2007, bcm<sup>58</sup>

Figure 7.6.4: ENTSOG Annual Potential Supply Scenario split by Potential Supplies fromExisting and FID Infrastructure and Potential Supplies from Mature Projects<sup>59</sup>



<sup>58</sup> In DG TREN C1; Study on natural gas storage in the EU, Draft Final Report, October 2008.

<sup>59</sup>European Ten Year Network Development Plan; 2010 - 2019, December 2009 (Ref. 09ENTSOG).





Figure 7.6.5: Indicative measure for the Development of Interconnection capacities $62$ 



<sup>60</sup>European Ten Year Network Development Plan; 2010 – 2019, December 2009 (Ref. 09ENTSOG). <sup>61</sup>European Ten Year Network Development Plan; 2010 – 2019, December 2009 (Ref. 09ENTSOG).

<sup>62</sup>European Ten Year Network Development Plan; 2010 - 2019, December 2009 (Ref. 09ENTSOG).



Figure 7.6.6: Increase in import demand and current transmission capacity<sup>63</sup>

Figure 7.6.7.a: Gasification terminals in EU: existing plans & projects<sup>64</sup>



<b>Country</b>	<b>Status</b>	<b>Location</b>	<b>Operators</b>	<b>Start-up</b>	Send-out	<b>Storage</b>	#Tanks
<b>BE</b>	Existing	Zeebrugge	<b>Fluxys LNG</b>	1987	9,0	380000	$\overline{4}$
<b>DE</b>	Proposed	Wilhelmshafen	dftg (e.on)	N/A	10,8	N/A	N/A
DE.	Proposed	Wilhelmshafen 2	Excelerate, RWE	2010	N/A	N/A	N/A
DE.	Proposed	Rostock	Vopak, Gasunie, VNG	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
<b>ES</b>	Existing	Barcelona	Enagas	1968	14,5	540000	$5\overline{)}$
<b>ES</b>	Existing after extension	Barcelona (ext.)	Enagas	2009	17,0	680000	6
<b>ES</b>	Existing	Huelva	Enagas	1988	11,8	460000	$\overline{4}$
<b>ES</b>	Existing after extension	Huelva (ext.)	Enagas	2015	11,8	760000	6
<b>ES</b>	Existing	Cartagena	Enagas	1989	10,5	437000	$\overline{4}$
<b>ES</b>	Existing after extension	Cartagena (ext.)	Enagas	2014	14,5	590000	5
<b>ES</b>	Existing	<b>Bilbao</b>	Bahia de Bizkaia (BBG)	2003	7,0	300000	$\overline{2}$
<b>ES</b>	Existing after extension	Bilbao (ext.)	Bahia de Bizkaia (BBG)	2011	12,3	600000	4
<b>ES</b>	Existing	Sagunto	Saggas	2006	7,0	300000	$\overline{2}$
<b>ES</b>	Existing after extension	Sagunto (ext.)	Saggas	2014	14,0	750000	5
<b>ES</b>	Existing	El Ferrol	Reganosa	2007	3,6	300000	$\overline{2}$
<b>ES</b>	After extension	El Ferrol (ext.)	Reganosa	2013	7,3	300000	$\overline{2}$
<b>ES</b>	Under construction	Gijón (Musel)	Enagas	2011	10,5	600000	$\overline{4}$
<b>ES</b>	Under construction	Gran Canaria (Arinaga)	Gascan	2012	2,0	3000000	$\overline{2}$
<b>ES</b>	Under construction	Tenerife (Arico-Granadilla)	Gascan	2011	2,0	3000000	$\overline{2}$
<b>FR</b>	Existing	Montoir de Bretagne	Elengy	1980	10,0	360000	3
<b>FR</b>	Existing after extension	Montoir de Bretagne (ext.)	Elengy	N/A	16,5	360000	$\mathbf{3}$
<b>FR</b>	Existing	Fos Tonkin	Elengy	1972	7,0	150000	3
<b>FR</b>	Under construction	Fos Cavaou	<b>STFMC</b>	2009	8,3	330000	3
<b>FR</b>	Proposed	Dunkerque	Dunkerque LNG	2014	10-13 bcm/y	N/A	N/A
<b>FR</b>	Proposed	Fos Faster	Shell	2015	8,0	N/A	N/A
<b>FR</b>	Proposed	Le Havre - Antifer	Gaz de Normandie	2014	9,0	N/A	N/A

Figure 7.6.7.b: Gasification terminals in EU: existing plans & projects<sup>65</sup>

<sup>65</sup> GLE, LNG Map, www.gie.eu.

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# Table 7.6.8: Storage projects under consideration or development<sup>66</sup>

<sup>66</sup>GSE STORAGE INVESTMENT DATABASE; February2009.

















	Project	Goal	<b>Capacity</b> created in reverse flow	Capital expenditure S	<b>Countries</b> involved	Project maturity	<b>Funds</b> breakdown	<b>Commenceme</b> nt of operations
<b>Czech</b> <b>Republic</b>	2. Interconnector Czech Republic-Poland	Create interconnection between Poland and Czech Republic on high pressure leve; Increased safety of supply in Poland, region North Silesia; Development of North- South connection.	500 mcm/a $CZ \ll P L$	$7M\epsilon$	Czech, Poland	Construction in 2010	Pipeline: 6 $mio \in$ ; Engineering: 1 $mio \in$	2010
<b>Austria</b>	OMV Gas: $1 -$ Upgrading the Baumgarten metering and compressor station for bi-directional use	Availability of gas transport from Austrian storages to the CEE countries	1,0 mcm/hat 50 bar	4,0 M€	Slovakia, CEE countries	Basic design	2009-2011	first half of 2011 Upgrading
<b>Austria</b>	$OMV$ Gas : $2 -$ Upgrading the WAG metering and compressor station in Baumgarten for bi- directional use on behalf of BOG GmbH	Availability of gas transport from Austrian storages and from Western European sources to the CEE countries	1800 000Nm <sup>3</sup> /hat 71 bara	3,767 M€	<b>CEE</b> countries	Basic design	16 months	déc-10

Table 7.6.9 : Reverse flow projects under consideration or implementation<sup>67</sup>

<sup>67</sup>GTE; Reverse Flow Study, Technical solutions, 21 July 2009.

















#### **7.7 Investments**

 $\overline{a}$ 

Fig.  $7.7.1$ : EU 30 historic investments in EU gas transmission<sup>68</sup>



<sup>68</sup> Energy Infrastructure Costs and Investments between 1996 and 2013 (medium-term) and further to 2023 (long-term) on the Trans-European Energy Network and its Connection to Neighbouring Regions with emphasis on investments on renewable energy sources and their integration into the Trans-European energy networks, including an Inventory of the Technical Status of the European Energy-Network for the; Year 2003; Contract n. TREN/04/ADM/S07.38533/ETU/B2-CESI; Issue Date: October 2005; Prepared by: CESI spa (Centro Elettrotecnico Sperimentale Italiano) – Italy ,IIT (Instituto de Investigación Tecnológica) – Spain, ME (Mercados Energeticos) – Spain, RAMBØLL A/S – Denmark; October 2005; (data were missing, and therefore estimated according to the length of the

transmission system, for Luxemburg, Czech Republic, Austria, Bulgaria, Slovakia, three TSOs from Germany and partly for Spain). The data has been adjusted.





<sup>69</sup> Energy Infrastructure Costs and Investments between 1996 and 2013 (medium-term) and further to 2023 (long-term) on the Trans-European Energy Network and its Connection to Neighbouring Regions with emphasis on investments on renewable energy sources and their integration into the Trans-European energy networks, including an Inventory of the Technical Status of the European Energy-Network for the; Year 2003; Contract n.

TREN/04/ADM/S07.38533/ETU/B2-CESI; Issue Date: October 2005; Prepared by: CESI spa (Centro Elettrotecnico Sperimentale Italiano) – Italy, IIT (Instituto de Investigación Tecnológica) – Spain, ME (Mercados Energeticos) – Spain, RAMBØLL A/S – Denmark; October 2005.



Figure 7.7.3 : Network investments to  $2020^{70}$ 

Tab. 7.7.4 : Gas pipeline supply routes $^{71}$ 



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>70</sup> Energy center of the Netherlands, www.ecn.nl: http://www.ecn.nl/fileadmin/ecn/units/bs/INDES/indespc2\_paper.pdf (21/02/10).

<sup>71</sup> Energy Infrastructure Costs and Investments between 1996 and 2013 (medium-term) and further to 2023 (long-term) on the Trans-European Energy Network and its Connection to Neighbouring Regions with emphasis on investments on renewable energy sources and their integration into the Trans-European energy networks, including an Inventory of the Technical Status of the European Energy-Network for the; Year 2003; Contract n.

TREN/04/ADM/S07.38533/ETU/B2-CESI; Issue Date: October 2005; Prepared by: CESI spa (Centro Elettrotecnico Sperimentale Italiano) – Italy ,IIT (Instituto de Investigación Tecnológica) – Spain, ME (Mercados Energeticos) – Spain, RAMBØLL A/S – Denmark; October 2005.

		11 J				
Location/Entry	Exit point	Capacity	Total length	Estimated	Starting	Starting operation
point in EU	(EU)	(bcm/yr)	(km)	budget ( $M \bigoplus$	project date	(estimated)
Lithuania	Poland	5				2014
			300	300		
<b>Denmark</b>	Germany	3				2006
			200	225		
<b>Norway</b>	Poland	$\overline{3}$			2001	2011
			260	350		
<b>Finland</b>	Estonia	$\overline{c}$				2011
			80	100		
<b>Algeria</b>	Italy	$\,8\,$	900			2010
<b>Turkey</b>	Greece	8		1.200		2012
			600	450		
<b>Norway</b>	United	22				2007
	Kingdom		1.200	1.200		
<b>Algeria</b>	Spain	8			2001	2009
			210	1.437		
Romania	Austria	31			2002	2014
			3.300	7.900		
<b>Russia</b>	Germany	55				2010
			1.220	6.000		
<b>Greece</b>	Italy	$\,8\,$			2004	2012
	Romania	32	210	500		2016
Georgia			1.238	2.500		

Table 7.7.5 : Gas pipeline supply routes: Analysis<sup>72</sup>

<sup>72</sup> Energy Infrastructure Costs and Investments between 1996 and 2013 (medium-term) and further to 2023 (long-term) on the Trans-European Energy Network and its Connection to Neighbouring Regions with emphasis on investments on renewable energy sources and their integration into the Trans-European energy networks, including an Inventory of the Technical Status of the European Energy-Network for the; Year 2003; Contract n. TREN/04/ADM/S07.38533/ETU/B2-CESI; Issue Date: October 2005; Prepared by: CESI spa (Centro Elettrotecnico Sperimentale Italiano) – Italy, IIT (Instituto de Investigación

Tecnológica) – Spain, ME (Mercados Energeticos) – Spain, RAMBØLL A/S – Denmark;

October 2005.; Various sources including projects presentations and web sites www.nabuccopipeline.com, www.nord-stream.com, www.igi-poseidon.com; own calculation.

LNG Receiving terminal	Type of Work	Storage m	Capacity bcm/year	Estimated co: M EUR
Zeebrugge (Belgium)	Extending the LNG receiving capacit 210 000		10	100
Fos-sur-Mer (France)	Extending the LNG receiving capacity		8	365
Mugardos (Galicia) (Spain)	New terminal	300 000	2	320
Tuscany region (Italy)	New terminal	320000	6	600
North Adriatic coast (Italy)	New terminal	500000	8	1200
New LNG terminal France	New terminal		9	520
Total			43	3105

Table7.7.6: Investments in new import capacity<sup>73</sup>

Energy Infrastructure Costs and Investments between 1996 and 2013(medium-term) and further to 2023 (long-term) on the Trans-EuropeanEnergy Network and its Connection to Neighboring Regions withemphasis on investments on renewable energy sources and their integration into the Trans-European energy networks, including anInventory of the Technical Status of the European Energy-Network for the; Year 2003; Contract n. TREN/04/ADM/S07.38533/ETU/B2-CESI; Issue Date: October 2005; Prepared by: CESI spa (Centro Elettrotecnico Sperimentale Italiano) – Italy

,IIT (Instituto de Investigación Tecnológica) – Spain, ME (Mercados Energeticos) – Spain, RAMBØLL A/S – Denmark; October 2005.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>73</sup> Energy Infrastructure Costs and Investments between 1996 and 2013 (medium-term) and further to 2023 (long-term) on the Trans-European Energy Network and its Connection to Neighbouring Regions with emphasis on investments on renewable energy sources and their integration into the Trans-European energy networks, including an Inventory of the Technical Status of the European Energy-Network for the; Year 2003; Contract n.

TREN/04/ADM/S07.38533/ETU/B2-CESI; Issue Date: October 2005; Prepared by: CESI spa (Centro Elettrotecnico Sperimentale Italiano) – Italy ,IIT (Instituto de Investigación Tecnológica) – Spain, ME (Mercados Energeticos) – Spain, RAMBØLL A/S – Denmark; October 2005.





<sup>74</sup> Energy Infrastructure Costs and Investments between 1996 and 2013 (medium-term) and further to 2023 (long-term) on the Trans-European Energy Network and its Connection to Neighbouring Regions with emphasis on investments on renewable energy sources and their integration into the Trans-European energy networks, including an Inventory of the Technical Status of the European Energy-Network for the; Year 2003; Contract n.

TREN/04/ADM/S07.38533/ETU/B2-CESI; Issue Date: October 2005; Prepared by: CESI spa (Centro Elettrotecnico Sperimentale Italiano) – Italy

<sup>,</sup>IIT (Instituto de Investigación Tecnológica) – Spain, ME (Mercados Energeticos) – Spain, RAMBØLL A/S – Denmark; October 2005.



Fig. 7.7.8: The development of investment needs in new import routes only<sup>75</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>75</sup> Energy Infrastructure Costs and Investments between 1996 and 2013 (medium-term) and further to 2023 (long-term) on the Trans-European Energy Network and its Connection to Neighboring Regions with emphasis on investments on renewable energy sources and their integration into the Trans-European energy networks, including an Inventory of the Technical Status of the European Energy-Network for the; Year 2003; Contract n. TREN/04/ADM/S07.38533/ETU/B2-CESI; Issue Date: October 2005; Prepared by: CESI spa (Centro Elettrotecnico Sperimentale Italiano) – Italy ,IIT (Instituto de Investigación

Tecnológica) – Spain, ME (Mercados Energeticos) – Spain, RAMBØLL A/S – Denmark; October 2005.


Fig. 7.7.9: EU 30 current gas transmission system showing age, pipelinemissing for several  $TSOs$ <sup>76</sup>

<sup>76</sup> Energy Infrastructure Costs and Investments between 1996 and 2013 (medium-term) and further to 2023 (long-term) on the Trans-European Energy Network and its Connection to Neighbouring Regions with emphasis on investments on renewable energy sources and their integration into the Trans-European energy networks, including an Inventory of the Technical Status of the European Energy-Network for the; Year 2003; Contract n. TREN/04/ADM/S07.38533/ETU/B2-CESI; Issue Date: October 2005; Prepared by: CESI spa

<sup>(</sup>Centro Elettrotecnico Sperimentale Italiano) – Italy,IIT (Instituto de Investigación Tecnológica) – Spain, ME (Mercados Energeticos) – Spain, RAMBØLL A/S – Denmark; October 2005.



Figure 7.7.10: Cost of underground gas storage as function of working gas capacity $^{77}$ 

Figure 7.7.11: Investment cost EUR/m<sup>3</sup> for different volume storages<sup>78</sup>



<sup>77</sup> In DG TREN C1; Study on natural gas storage in the EU, Draft Final Report, October 2008.

<sup>78</sup> DG TREN C1; Study on natural gas storage in the EU, Draft Final Report, October 2008.





 $^{79}$  COMMISSION STAFF WORKING DOCUMENT; Annex to the REPORT FROM THE COMMISSION TO THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT, THE COUNCIL, THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COMMITTEE AND THE COMMITTEE OF THE REGIONS ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE GUIDELINES FOR TRANS-EUROPEAN ENERGY NETWORKS IN THE PERIOD 2002 –2004; Pursuant to Article 11 of Decision 1229/2003/EC; {COM(2006) 443 final}; 7.8.2006.

#### **7.8 Link with Primes**

<b>Country</b>	<b>Item</b>	2010	2020	2030
<b>Austria</b>	Net Imports			
		7.070	9.573	9.232
Austria	Gross Inland Consumption	8.517	9.973	9.232
<b>Belgium</b>	Net Imports			
		14.491	16.833	17.861
<b>Belgium</b>	Gross Inland Consumption			
		14.491	16.833	17.861
<b>Bulgaria</b>	Net Imports	2.549	2.710	3.692
<b>Bulgaria</b>	Gross Inland Consumption			
		2.785	2.879	3.814
<b>Cyprius</b>	Net Imports			
<b>Cyprius</b>	Gross Inland Consumption	195	602	805
		195	602	805
<b>Czech Republic</b>	Net Imports			
		7.788	8.269	8.786
<b>Czech Republic</b>	Gross Inland Consumption			
<b>Denmark</b>	Net Imports	7.947 $-4.298$	8.438 $-2.568$	8.965 $-2.171$
<b>Denmark</b>	Gross Inland Consumption			
		4.702	2.809	2.829
<b>Estonia</b>	Net Imports			
<b>Estonia</b>	Gross Inland Consumption	973	798	867
		973	798	867
<b>Finland</b>	Net Imports			
		4.163	4.675	4.188
<b>Finland</b>	Gross Inland Consumption			
<b>France</b>	Net Imports	4.163	4.675	4.188
		42.901	43.488	44.465
<b>France</b>	Gross Inland Consumption			
		42.901	43.488	44.465
<b>Germany</b>	Net Imports	68.153	75.578	81.499
<b>Germany</b>	Gross Inland Consumption			
		81.653	86.578	89.999
<b>Greece</b>	Net Imports			
		4.320	5.750	6.485

Table: 7.8.1: PRIMES forecasts till 20020 and 2030 (in ktoe)<sup>80</sup>

 $^{80}\rm{E}$  DROPEAN ENERGY AND TRANSPORT TRENDS TO 2030 — UPDATE 2007; EU-27 ENERGY BASELINE SCENARIO TO 2030; European Commission: Directorate-General for Energy and Transport; April 2008.



<b>Slovenia</b>	Net Imports			
		1.156	1.367	1.588
<b>Slovenia</b>	Gross Inland Consumption			
		1.161	1.367	1.588
<b>Spain</b>	Net Imports			
		35.008	38.360	33.285
<b>Spain</b>	Gross Inland Consumption			
		35.138	38.360	33.285
<b>Sweden</b>	Net Imports			
		1.382	2.767	2.853
<b>Sweden</b>	Gross Inland Consumption			
		1.382	2.767	2.853
<b>United Kingdom</b>	Net Imports			
		10.783	53.897	54.820
<b>United Kingdom</b>	Gross Inland Consumption			
		73.783	77.897	69.820

Figure 7.8.2: Break-even of LNG and pipeline transportation<sup>81</sup>



Note: Numbers in brackets show gas delivery capability in BCM

<sup>81</sup>Jensen (2004); in: Advice on the Opportunity to Set up an Action Plan for the Promotion of LNG Chain Investments-Economic, Market, and Financial Point of View -FINAL REPORT, Chair of Energy Economics and Public Sector Management, Dresden University of Technology; Prof. Dr. Christian von Hirschhausen, Dr. Anne Neumann, Dipl.- Wi.-Ing. Sophia Ruester, Danny Auerswald, Study for the European Commission, DG-TREN, Contracting party: MVV Consulting; Dresden, May 2008.

## **8 Appendix VIII: Chapter 4 Tables Expressed in Mtoe**







the; Year 2003; Contract n. TREN/04/ADM/S07.38533/ETU/B2-CESI; Issue Date: October 2005; Prepared by: CESI spa (Centro Elettrotecnico Sperimentale Italiano) – Italy, IIT (Instituto de Investigación Tecnológica) – Spain, ME (Mercados Energeticos) – Spain, RAMBØLL A/S – Denmark; October 2005.; Various sources including projects presentations and web sites www.nabuccopipeline.com, www.nord-stream.com, www.igi-poseidon.com; own calculation.

#### **TABLE 8.4 (4.6): BREAKDOWN OF NEW LNG PROJECTS STATUS**





#### **TABLE 8.6 (5.15): GAS PIPELINE PROJECTS PLANNED BEFORE 2020**



Source(s): Energy Infrastructure Costs and Investments between 1996 and 2013(medium-term) and further to 2023 (long-term) on the Trans-EuropeanEnergy Network and its Connection to Neighbouring Regions withemphasis on investments on renewable energy sources and their integration into the Trans-European energy networks, including anInventory of the Technical Status of the European Energy-Network for the; Year 2003; Contract n. TREN/04/ADM/S07.38533/ETU/B2-CESI; Issue Date: October 2005; Prepared by: CESI spa (Centro Elettrotecnico Sperimentale Italiano) – Italy, IIT (Instituto de Investigación Tecnológica) – Spain, ME (Mercados Energeticos) – Spain, RAMBØLL A/S – Denmark; October 2005; Various sources including projects presentations and web sites www.nabucco-pipeline.com, www.nord-stream.com, www.igi-poseidon.com; own calculation.

## **9 Appendix IX: E3ME and KEMA Model Descriptions**

#### **9.1 Introduction to E3ME**

E3ME is a computer-based model of Europe's economic and energy systems and the environment. It was originally developed through the European Commission's research framework programmes and is now widely used in Europe for policy assessment, for forecasting and for research purposes.

E3ME's structure The structure of E3ME is based on the system of national accounts, as defined by ESA95 (European Commission, 1996), with further linkages to energy demand and environmental emissions. The labour market is also covered in detail, with estimated sets of equations for labour demand, supply, wages and working hours. In total there are 33 sets of econometrically estimated equations, also including the components of GDP (consumption, investment, international trade), prices, energy demand and materials demand. Each equation set is disaggregated by country and by sector.

> E3ME's historical database covers the period 1970-2008 and the model projects forward annually to  $2050^{82}$ . The main data sources are Eurostat, DG Ecfin's AMECO database and the IEA, supplemented by the OECD's STAN database and other sources where appropriate. Gaps in the data are estimated using customised software algorithms.

The main The other main dimensions of the model are:

**dimensions of the model**

- 29 countries (the EU27 member states plus Norway and Switzerland)
- 42 economic sectors, including disaggregation of the energy sectors and 16 service sectors
- 43 categories of household expenditure
- 19 different users of 12 different fuel types
- 14 types of air-borne emission (where data are available) including the six greenhouse gases monitored under the Kyoto protocol.
- 13 types of household, including income quintiles and socio-economic groups such as the unemployed, inactive and retired, plus an urban/rural split

Typical outputs from the model include GDP and sectoral output, household expenditure, investment, international trade, inflation, employment and unemployment, energy demand and CO2 emissions. Each of these is available at national and EU level, and most are also defined by economic sector.

The econometric specification of E3ME gives the model a strong empirical grounding and means it is not reliant on the assumptions common to Computable General Equilibrium (CGE) models, such as perfect competition or rational expectations. E3ME uses a system of error correction, allowing short-term dynamic (or transition) outcomes, moving towards a long-term trend. The dynamic specification is important when considering short and medium-term analysis (eg up to 2020) and rebound effects<sup>83</sup>, which are included as standard in the model's results.

<sup>82</sup> See Chewpreecha and Pollitt (2009).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>83</sup> Where an initial increase in efficiency reduces demand, but this is negated in the long run as greater efficiency lowers the relative cost and increases consumption. See Barker et al (2009).

**E3ME's key** In summary the key strengths of E3ME lie in three different areas:

- **strengths**
- the close integration of the economy, energy systems and the environment, with two-way linkages between each component
- the detailed sectoral disaggregation in the model's classifications, allowing for the analysis of similarly detailed scenarios
- the econometric specification of the model, making it suitable for short and medium-term assessment, as well as longer-term trends

A longer description of E3ME is provided in the next chapter. For further details, the reader is referred to the model manual available online from www.e3me.com.

#### **9.2 A brief history of E3ME**

E3ME was originally intended to meet an expressed need of researchers and policy **Quantifying the**  short and long- makers for a framework for analysing the long-term implications of Energyterm effects of E3 Environment-Economy (E3) policies, especially those concerning R&D and policies environmental taxation and regulation. The model is also capable of addressing the short-term and medium-term economic effects as well as, more broadly, the long-term effects of such policies, such as those from the supply side of the labour market.

The European The first version of the E3ME model wasbuilt by an international European team contribution under a succession of contracts in the JOULE/THERMIE and EC research programmes. The projects 'Completion and Extension of E3ME'<sup>84</sup> and 'Applications of E3ME<sup>'85</sup>, were completed in 1999. The 2001 contract, 'Sectoral Economic Analysis and Forecasts<sup>, 86</sup> generated an update of the E3ME industry output, product and investment classifications to bring the model into compliance with the European System of Accounts, ESA 95. This led to a significant disaggregation of the service sector. The 2003 contract, Tipmac<sup>87</sup>, led to a full development of the E3ME transport module to include detailed country models for several modes of passenger and freight transport and Seamate (2003/2004)<sup>88</sup>resulted in the improvement of the E3ME technology indices. The COMETR<sup>89</sup> (2005-07), Matisse<sup>90</sup> (2005-08) and CEDEFOP<sup>91</sup> (2007-2010) projects allowed the expansion of E3ME to cover 29 European countries, including the twelve accession countries. More recently the model has been used to contribute to European Impact Assessments, including reviews of the EU ETS, Energy Taxation Directive and TEN-E infrastructure policy. E3ME is now applied at the national, as well as European, level.

> A full list of recent projects involving E3ME, and references from related publications, is available from the model website.

> E3ME is the latest in a succession of models developed for energy-economy and, later, E3 (energy-environment-economy) interactions in Europe, starting with

<sup>84</sup>European Commission contract no. JOS3-CT95-0011

<sup>85</sup>European Commission contract no. JOS3-CT97-0019

<sup>86</sup>European Commission contract no. B2000/A7050/001

<sup>87</sup>European Commission contractno. GRD1/2000/25347-SI2.316061

<sup>88</sup>European Commission contractno. IST-2000-31104

<sup>89</sup> European Commission contract no. 501993 (SCS8)

<sup>90</sup> European Commission contract no. 004059 (GOCE)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>91</sup>European Commission project no. 2007-0089/AO/AZU/Skillsnet-Supply/010/07 and European Commission project no. 2006/S 125-132790

EXPLOR, built in the 1970s, then HERMES in the 1980s. Each model has required substantial resources from international teams and has learned from earlier problems and developed new techniques. E3ME is now firmly established as a tool for policy analysis in Europe. The current version is closely linked to the global  $E3MG<sup>92</sup>$  model, which is similar in structure and dimensions.

### **9.3 The theoretical background to E3ME**

Economic activity undertaken by persons, households, firms and other groups in society has effects on other groups after a time lag, and the effects persist into future generations, although many of the effects soon become so small as to be negligible. But there are many actors, and the effects, both beneficial and damaging, accumulate in economic and physical stocks. The effects are transmitted through the environment (with externalities such as greenhouse gas emissions contributing to global warming), through the economy and the price and money system (via the markets for labour and commodities), and through the global transport and information networks. The markets transmit effects in three main ways: through the level of activity creating demand for inputs of materials, fuels and labour; through wages and prices affecting incomes; and through incomes leading in turn to further demands for goods and services. These interdependencies suggest that an E3 model should be comprehensive, and include many linkages between different parts of the economic and energy systems.

These economic and energy systems have the following characteristics: economies and diseconomies of scale in both production and consumption; markets with different degrees of competition; the prevalence of institutional behaviour whose aim may be maximisation, but may also be the satisfaction of more restricted objectives; and rapid and uneven changes in technology and consumer preferences, certainly within the time scale of greenhouse gas mitigation policy. Labour markets in particular may be characterised by long-term unemployment. An E3 model capable of representing these features must therefore be flexible, capable of embodying a variety of behaviours and of simulating a dynamic system. This approach can be contrasted with that adopted by general equilibrium models: they typically assume constant returns to scale; perfect competition in all markets; maximisation of social welfare measured by total discounted private consumption; no involuntary unemployment; and exogenous technical progress following a constant time trend (see Barker, 1998, for a more detailed discussion).

#### **9.4 E3ME as an E3 model**

The E3ME model comprises:

- the accounting balances for commodities from input-output tables, for energy carriers from energy balances and for institutional incomes and expenditures from the national accounts
- environmental emission flows
- 33 sets of time-series econometric equations (aggregate energy demands, fuel substitution equations for coal, heavy oil, gas and electricity; intra-EU and extra-EU commodity exports and imports; total consumers' expenditure; disaggregated

<sup>92</sup> See www.e3mgmodel.com

consumers' expenditure; industrial fixed investment; industrial employment; industrial hours worked; labour participation; industrial prices; export and import prices; industrial wage rates; residual incomes; investment in dwellings; normal output equations and physical demand for seven types of materials)

Energy supplies and population stocks and flows are treated as exogenous.

Figure 9.1 shows how the three components (modules) of the model - energy, **The E3**  environment and economy - fit together. Each component is shown in its own box with its own units of account and sources of data. Each data set has been constructed by statistical offices to conform with accounting conventions. Exogenous factors coming from outside the modelling framework are shown on the outside edge of the chart as inputs into each component. For the EU economy, these factors are economic activity and prices in non-EU world areas and economic policy (including tax rates, growth in government expenditures, interest rates and exchange rates). For the energy system, the outside factors are the world oil prices and energy policy (including regulation of energy industries). For the environment component, exogenous factors include policies such as reduction in SO2 emissions by means of end-of-pipe filters from large combustion plants. The linkages between the components of the model are shown explicitly by the arrows that indicate which values are transmitted between components. **interactions**



Figure 9.1

The economy module provides measures of economic activity and general price levels to the energy module; the energy module provides measures of emissions of the main air pollutants to the environment module, which in turn gives measures of damage to health and buildings (estimated using the most recent  $\text{Extern}E^{93}$  coefficients). The

<sup>93&</sup>lt;sub>http://www.externe.info/tools.html</sub>

energy module provides detailed price levels for energy carriers distinguished in the economy module and the overall price of energy as well as energy use in the economy.

#### **9.5 The E3ME regional econometric input-output model**

Figure 9.2 shows how the economic module is solved as an integrated EU regional model. Most of the economic variables shown in the chart are at a 42-industry level. The whole system is solved simultaneously for all industries and all 29 countries, although single-country solutions are also possible. The chart shows interactions at three spatial levels: the outermost area is the rest of the world; the next level is the European Union outside the country in question; and finally, the inside level contains the relationships within the country.



Figure 9.2

The chart shows three loops or circuits of economic interdependence, which are described in some detail below. These are the export loop, the output-investment loop and the income loop.

The export loop runs from the EU transport and distribution network to the region's exports, then to total demand. The region's imports feed into other EU regions' exports and output and finally to these other regions' demand from the EU pool and back to the exports of the region in question. **The export loop**

An important part of the modelling concerns international trade. The basic *Treatment of*  assumption is that, for most commodities, there is a European 'pool' into which each region supplies part of its production and from which each region satisfies part of its demand. *This might be compared to national electricity supplies and demands: each power plant supplies to the national grid and each user draws power from the grid and it is not possible or necessary to link a particular supply to a particular demand. international trade*

The demand for a region's exports of a commodity is related to three factors:

- domestic demand for the commodity in all the other EU regions, weighted by their economic distance from the region in question
- activity in the main external EU export markets, as measured by GDP or industrial production
- relative prices, including the effects of exchange rate changes.

Economic distance Economic distance is measured by a special distance variable. For a given region, this variable is normalised tobe 1 for the home region and values less than one for external regions. The economic distance to other regions is inversely proportional to trade between the regions. In E3ME regional imports are determined for the demand and relative prices by commodity and region. In addition, measures of innovation (including spending on R&D) have been introduced into the trade equations to pick up an important long-term dynamic effect on economic development.

The output- The output-investment loop includes industrial demand for goods and services and investment loop runs from total demand to output and then to investment and back to total demand. For each region, total demand for the gross output of goods and services is formed from industrial demand, consumers' expenditure, government consumption, investment (fixed domestic capital formation and stockbuilding) and exports. These totals are divided between imports and output depending on relative prices, levels of activity and utilisation of capacity. Industrial demand represents the inputs of goods and services from other industries required for current production, and is calculated using input-output coefficients. The coefficients are calculated as inputs of commodities from whatever source, including imports, per unit of gross industrial output.

Determination of Forecast changes in output are important determinants of investment in the model. Investment in new equipment and new buildings is one of the ways in which companies adjust to the new challenges introduced by energy and environmental policies. Consequently, the quality of the data and the way data are modelled are of great importance to the performance of the whole model. Regional investment by the investing industry is determined in the model as intertemporal choices depending on capacity output and investment prices. When investment by user industry is determined, it is converted, using coefficients derived from input-output tables, into demands on the industries producing the investment goods and services, mainly engineering and construction. These demands then constitute one of the components of total demand. *investment demand*

> In this project the investments are in specific equipment (mainly transmission lines and pipelines) so a larger share of investment costs are absorbed by the construction industry than would be the case, for example, in building new plant where more design is required.

- Accumulation of Gross fixed investment, enhanced by R&D expenditure in constant prices, is knowledge and accumulated to provide a measure of the technological capital stock. This avoids problems with the usual definition of the capital stock and lack of data on economic scrapping. The accumulation measure is designed to get round the worst of these problems. Investment is central to the determination of long-term growth and the model embodies endogenous technical change and a theory of endogenous growth which underlies the long-term behaviour of the trade and employment equations. *technology*
- The income loop In the income loop, industrial output generates employment and incomes, which leads to further consumers' expenditure, adding to total demand. Changes in output are

used to determine changes in employment, along with changes in real wage costs, interest rates and energy costs. With wage rates explained by price levels and conditions in the labour market, the wage and salary payments by industry can be calculated from the industrial employment levels. These are some of the largest payments to the personal sector, but not the only ones. There are also payments of interest and dividends, transfers from government in the form of state pensions, unemployment benefits and other social security benefits. Payments made by the personal sector include mortgage interest payments and personal income taxes. Personal disposable income is calculated from these accounts, and deflated by the consumer price index to give real personal disposable income.

Determination of Totals of consumer spending by region are derived from consumption functions consumers' estimated from time-series data (this is a similar treatment to that adopted in the These equations relate consumption to regional personal disposable income, a measure of wealth for the personal sector, inflation and interest rates. Sets of equations have been estimated from time-series data for each of the 43 consumption categories reported by Eurostat in each country. demand **HERMES** model).

#### **9.6 Energy-Environment links**

E3ME is intended to be an integrated top-down, bottom-up model of E3 interaction. **Top-down and**  bottom-up In particular, the model includes a detailed engineering-based treatment of the methodologies electricity supply industry (ESI). Demand for energy by the other fuel-user groups is top-down, but it is important to be aware of the comparative strengths and weaknesses of the two approaches. Top-down economic analyses and bottom-up engineering analyses of changes in the pattern of energy consumption possess distinct intellectual origins and distinct strengths and weaknesses (see Barker, Ekins and Johnstone, 1995).

A top-down The energy submodel in E3ME is constructed, estimated and solved for 19 fuel users, submodel of 12 energy carriers (termed fuels for convenience below) and 29 countries. Figure 9.3 energy use shows the inputs from the economy and the environment into the components of the submodel and Figure 9.4 shows the feedback from the submodel to the rest of the economy.

Determination of Aggregate energy demand, shown at the top of Figure 9.3, is determined by a set of fuel demand co-integrating equations<sup>94</sup>, whose the main explanatory variables are:

• economic activity in each of the 19 fuel users

- average energy prices by the fuel users relative to the overall price levels
- technological variables, represented by investment and R&D expenditure, and spillovers in key industries producing energy-using equipment and vehicles

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>94</sup> Cointegration is an econometric technique that defines a long-run relationship between two variables resulting in a form of 'equilibrium'. For instance, if income and consumption are cointegrated, then any shock (expected or unexpected) affecting temporary these two variables is gradually absorbed since in the long-run they return to their 'equilibrium' levels. Note that a cointegration relationship is much stronger relationship than a simple correlation: two variables can show similar patterns simply because they are driven by some common factors but without necessarily being involved in a long-run relationship.





- Fuel substitution Fuel use equations are estimated for four fuels coal, heavy oils, gas and electricity and the four sets of equations are estimated for the fuel users in each region. These equations are intended to allow substitution between these energy carriers by users on the basis of relative prices, although overall fuel use and the technological variables are allowed to affect the choice. Since the substitution equations cover only four of the twelve fuels, the remaining fuels are determined as fixed ratios to similar fuels or to aggregate energy use. The final set of fuels used must then be scaled to ensure that it adds up to the aggregate energy demand (for each fuel user and each region).
	- Emissions The emissions submodel calculates air pollution generated from end-use of different submodel fuels and from primary use of fuels in the energy industries themselves, particularly electricity generation. Provision is made for emissions to the atmosphere of carbon dioxide (CO2), sulphur dioxide (SO2), nitrogen oxides (NOx), carbon monoxide (CO), methane (CH4), black smoke (PM10), volatile organic compounds (VOC), nuclear emissions to air, lead emissions to air, chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) and the other four greenhouse gases: nitrous oxide (N2O), hydrofluorocarbons (HFC), perfluorocarbons (PFC), sulphur hexafluoride (SF6). These four gases together with CO2 and CH4 constitute the six greenhouse gases (GHGs) monitored under the Kyoto protocol. Using estimated (ExternE) damage coefficients, E3ME may also estimate ancillary benefits relating to reduction in associated emissions eg PM10, SO2, NOx.
	- Emissions data for CO2 are available for fuel users of solid fuels, oil products and gas separately. The energy submodel estimates of fuel by fuel user are aggregated into these groups (solid, oil and gas) and emission coefficients (tonnes of carbon in CO2 emitted per toe) are calculated and stored. The coefficients are calculated for each year when data are available, then used at their last historical values to project future *CO2 emissions*

emissions. Other emissions data are available at various levels of disaggregation from a number of sources and have been constructed carefully to ensure consistency.

Feedback to the Figure 9.4 shows the main feedbacks from the energy submodel to the rest of the rest of the economy. Changes in consumers' expenditures on fuels and petrol are formed from economy changes in fuel use estimated in the energy submodel, although the levels are calibrated on historical time-series data. The model software provides an option for choosing either the consumers' expenditure equation solution, or the energy equation solution. Whichever option is chosen, total consumer demand in constant values matches the results of the aggregate consumption function, with any residual held in the unallocated category of consumers' expenditure. The other feedbacks all affect industrial, including electricity, demand via changes in the input-output coefficients.





#### **9.7 Parameter estimation**

The econometric modelhas a complete specification of the long-term solution in the form of an estimated equation that has long-term restrictions imposed on its parameters. Economic theory, for example the recent theories of endogenous growth, informs the specification of the long-term equations and hence properties of the model; dynamic equations that embody these long-term properties are estimated by econometric methods to allow the model to provide forecasts. The method utilises developments in time-series econometrics, in which dynamic relationships are specified in terms of error correction models (ECM) that allow dynamic convergence to a long-term outcome. The specific functional form of the equations is based on the econometric techniques of cointegration and error-correction, particularly as promoted by Engle and Granger (1987) and Hendry et al (1984).

#### **9.8 Introduction to the KEMA/ICL model**

The KEMA/ICL modelling framework contains a number of modules that together provide a coherent methodology for estimating the additional generation and network investment requirements and the power system operation costs of alternative generation mix scenarios. It is a computer-based multi-node model of regional electricity system. The modelling framework consists of two main elements:

- an applied power systems analysis framework<sup>95</sup> (APS model) to evaluate costoptimal regional interconnection and generation capacity requirements for system security purposes, and the annual operating costs of the system
- a cost estimation tool for the calculation of the cost of integration of offshore wind

It was originally developed for the European Climate Foundation Roadmap 2050 project and the version being used here is a development of that model providing greater granularity. It also has an enhanced ability to implement pre-defined generation capacity factors (e.g. those obtained from PRIMES model's output for PRIMES specific scenarios) of various generation plants in the system.

Overview of the The APS model minimizes the total system costs composed of additional generating APS model capacity cost and additional inter-regional transmission network capacity cost, together with annual electricity production cost from a real-time simulation of hourly dispatch while maintaining the required level of system reliability and respecting multiple operating constraints. This cost minimization process considers the tradeoffs between the cost of additional generating capacity (additional generation backup), additional transmission infrastructure, and renewable energy curtailment and the transmission constraint cost associated with network congestion management. The model is not a market model, and assumes that the electricity system would be optimised as a whole, within the limits of the available and economic new build resources.

The APS model follows two main steps:

- First, the required additional generation and interconnection transmission capacity is determined by minimizing the infrastructure investment costs and hourly system operation costs across the time horizon of a year, while delivering specified(historical) levels of security of supply. The model takes into account the trade-off between the generation capacity and interconnection investments and the potential benefits of storage in reducing the need for additional generating capacity and inter-regional transmission. The impact of extreme conditions of low output of renewable generation and extreme peak demands on both generation and network capacity requirements are also examined.
- Second, the operation of the system is optimized throughout the year. Using a stochastic framework that captures multiple possible realizations of renewable generation outputs, the daily production costs are minimized while allocating adequate resources needed for the management of uncertainties in demand, conventional generation and intermittent renewablesoutput. The model incorporates a range of dynamic technical constraints and cost characteristics of various generating technologies in the system (such as stable generation levels, ramp rates, minimum up/down times, start up and no load costs, etc) together with

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>95</sup>Developed by Imperial College London

characteristics of energy storage (reservoir capacities and efficiency losses). While maintaining the required levels of short and long term reserves, based on the existing ENTSO-E's rules, the model takes into account the benefits of diversity in renewable generation production, diversity in demand and resource sharing across different regions enabled by the regional transmission network.

A simplified representation of the APS model is depicted in Figure 9.5 below.





### **Adjustment in the APS model for PRIMES studies**

In order to evaluate the interconnector and additional generating capacity infrastructure requirements for PRIMES model based studies, the energy production from generation technologies in respective countries were harmonized with those obtained from the PRIMES model. This was accomplished by an alteration in the model formulation that would match the generation capacity factor of various plants inline with PRIMES outputs as the first priority, before minimizing the overall system costs.

The main dimensions of the model are: **The main** 

**dimensions of the APS model**

- 29 countries (the EU27 member states plus Norway and Switzerland)
- 203 thermal generator groups across 6 fuel types (nuclear, coal, gas, oil, biomass, and geothermal)
- 4 types of hydro generation (hydro reservoir, run of river, a combination of hydro reservoir and pumped storage, pure pumped storage) for each country
- 2 types of wind generation (offshore and onshore) for individual countries where available
- 2 types of solar generation (Photovoltaic (PV) and Concentrated Solar Power (CSP)) for individual countries where available
- 54 interconnection possibilities among 29 modelled countries
- simulation of hourly system operation across one year period

#### Key inputs to the APS model include a time series of hourly electricity demand profiles and regional hourly profiles for the available renewable energy sources (wind and solar), seasonal availability of hydro energy for both 'run of river' and hydro with **Key modelling inputs**

reservoir. Initial levels of installed capacity (generation and transmission), dynamic characteristics and operating costs of various generation technologies, investment cost of additional generating capacity in each region, network topology and network reinforcement cost.

Furthermore, the required system reliability constraint is also defined in the form of Loss of Load Expectation  $(LOLE)^{96}$ .

**the model**

Typical outputs of Typical outputs from the APS model include:

- additional generation capacity requirements (to satisfy a predefined level of security and system balancing requirement) and associated costs
- additional transmission investment and associated costs
- annual operating costs
- hourly allocation of operating reserves
- renewable energy curtailment
- transmission flows

 $\overline{a}$ 

- Annual utilisation of
	- generating plants and storage in the system
	- each interconnector in the system

**KEMA/ICL key** The modelling framework provides an *integrated assessment of the electricity generation and transmission capacity investment requirements* that is both; cost (investment and operating) optimal and secure under defined system security standards. **strengths**

> The *system operation simulation is modelled in a stochastic framework* . In order to take into account of the uncertainties associated with the availability (and output variation) of the intermittent renewables a number of renewable output realizations are considered for each hour looking forward upto 36 hours. The supply resources as well as responsive demand in each region are simultaneously scheduled in order to cover multiple renewable generation outputs while maintaining the network constraints.

> Both the system investments and operating requirements, and associated costs are based on *concurrent operation of the electricity system in each country*taking into account the optimal transmission flows through the interconnections.

Offshore and solar The second element of the modeling framework estimates the investment requirements CSP integration for energy transport and integration of offshore wind parks and solar CSP parks. These generation sources are assumed to connect at the fringes of the transmission networks and therefore investments are required to integrate them into the main network, creating new within Member State transmission investment. The approach assumes that the full installed capacity of the wind or solar park has to be carried to the notional centre of gravity of the country. This approach results in significant transmission investments and serve as a proxy for a range of reinforcements within the Member State transmission system to relieve local congestion. Exhibit X illustrates these various elements.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>96</sup> LOLE represents the expected number of hours per year when demand may exceed available generation.

#### **9.9 Modelling approach**

A conservative approach has been followed throughout the grid integration modeling. This is manifested through a range of prudent modeling assumptions adopted, such as higher levels of short term forecasting errors of renewable generation (based on persistence forecasting techniques); the fact that load curtailments are not considered as an option for the provision of backup; exclusion of frequency responsive loads (e.g. refrigeration) in the provision of frequency regulation services and incorporatingextremely low outside temperatures in winter peak demands.

Additionally the effects of low availability of intermittent (wind) generation during peak demand periods that is coincident with a dry hydro year is also considered.

Assessment and In order to deal with the uncertainties associated with conventional generation allocation of availability, demand fluctuations and variability of output of (variable) renewable operating reserve generation two types of operating reserve are modelled:

- short-term reserve (for seconds to few minutes time periods) for automatic frequency regulation requirements
- long-term reserve (from few minutes to few hours time periods) to mitigate unforeseen imbalances between demand and supply over longer time horizons in each region

The determination of the amount of reserve requirements is based on ENTSO-E's rules. As mentioned above, the contribution of any frequency sensitive loads towards frequency regulation (for example smart refrigerators) is not modelled. A key modelling assumption is that short term reserves will be managed within each Member State while long-term reserve can be shared across regions taking into account the limitations of the transmission network.

The stochastic modelling of intermittent renewable generation results in an optimal allocation of long-term operating reserve between standing reserve and synchronised spinning reserve plant to maintain supply/demand balance. Longer term reserve allocation between these two categories is optimised dynamically, taking into account the system situation in each instance, in order to enhance the ability of the system to absorb renewable output. Any inadequacy in terms of the ability of the system to meet the demand given the need for reserve is managed by appropriate augmentation of generation capacity.

Generation and The scheduling of reserves imposes further constraints on system operation for the following reasons. Reserve scheduling causes generation output deviations from the optimal generation schedule in order to provide sufficient flexibility for generation output to either be increased or decreased in response to variations in demand and/or supply. The operating characteristics of reserve generation introduce additional constraints including reducing the generation capacity available to supply demand and imposing limits on the lowest output to be delivered from flexible generation. The first effect can lead to requirements for greater generation capacity within the system either within each region or via interconnecting transmission. The second effect can lead to increased curtailment of variable renewable generation as the system must maintain adequate reserves, which will require flexible plant to be readily dispatchable. Where reserve generation is constrained by minimum stable operating limits, this can displace renewable generation unless sufficient transmission capacity **reserve scheduling** 

is available to facilitate exports outside the region or sufficient storage is available within the region.

The detailed production and reserve optimisation model, is set up within a stochastic optimisation framework. The dynamic scheduling process is modelled looking ahead over a 36 hour period at the demand profile to be met and associated reserve requirements. The model then schedules generation, storage and demand response for each 24 hour time horizon to meet these requirements. The actual day-ahead is varied by the stochastic modelling of the energy output from the renewable generation sources. The stochastic framework allows a number of renewable output realizations to be evaluated for each hour looking forward 36 hours. The generation and responsive demand resources in each region are simultaneously scheduled in order to consider multiple renewable generation output conditions for a prescribed set of network constraints. The model takes account of losses and costs incurred through the use of demand response and storage resources. The system operation model for scheduling generation and operating reserves in each region exploits the diversity of demand and renewable outputs across Europe to minimize operating costs while significantly enhancing the ability of the system to accommodate the output of variable renewable generation sources.

Impact of low Following the earlier mentioned conservative approach, the results are evaluated availability of considering the low availability of wind generation during peak demand periods in renewables and Northern Europe that my coincide with a dry hydro year across Europe. The modelled dry hydro input assumptions in this regard include:

- extreme weather conditions, 5 days with 50% lower wind for Northern Europe **conditions** compared to forecast
	- dry hydrological year, with 20% less than average available energy from European hydro resources
	- higher peak demand driven by an assumed fuel switch to meet higher electrical heating load (5% in 2020 and 10% in 2030)

#### Inter-regional The transmission investment model divides the EU-27 countries plus Norway and transmission Switzerland into twenty nine regions. Today's congestion within the member state regions associated with the existing networks is not considered and is assumed to be addressed in the ENTSO-E TYNDP.

Each member state region has a "centre of gravity", which functions as the point from and to which transmission capacity will be required. The scope of the transmission system analysis is focused on incremental capacity requirements between the regions for each of the scenario pathway relative to the current 2010 baseline, but respecting the 2020 capacity expectations within the ENTSO-E TYNDP, i.e. all investments in the ENTSO-E TYNDP are assumed to happen in all scenarios.

The model does not assess the investment requirements for growing demand connections or investment in the distribution network.

Off-shore The overlap of offshore wind farm and solar CSP transmission integration costs and transmission the way in which expansion factors and unit costs for interconnection transmission expansion have been set drive an investment cost that seeks to on average provide sufficient investment to provide secure capacity and include within-member state region internal reinforcement requirements. Further explanation of the assumptions regarding transmission expansion factors can be found in section 9.10 below.

More detailed transmission studies will be needed in the future to support more granular decision-making. These studies would ideally be undertaken with ENTSO-E coordination as part of the SET Plan's European Electricity Grid Initiative.

Figure 9.6



## Transmission investment has four elements

#### **9.10 Transmission cost assumptions**

The modelling approach adopted relies on a cost estimation methodology. It seeks to provide a reasonable indication of the capital costs associated with expanding the transmission capacity between regions to maintain a power system with security characteristics similar to those experienced today. The costs are estimated based on an assumption that they will be able to deliver a secure network (N-1), i.e. providing sufficient network redundancy such that a single circuit fault would not cause the transfer capacity to be reduced.

The transmission costs estimations include several elements. The costs of sub sea cables for the offshore wind farms (A in Figure 9.6) are estimated based on a typical distance from the shore and a single unit cost of  $\bigoplus$  million per GWkm.

The connection of increased demand (Part D) is excluded from the transmission modelling. This is because the increased demand to be met in all of the scenarios is the same and therefore it is assumed that the costs to meet these demand increases will appear in each case.

The transmission network investment cost modelling undertaken addresses elements B and C in Figure 9.6, however, the methodology adopted to estimate the capacity and costs is different for each element.

Part B transmission capacity is calculated by evenly distributing the total assumed offshore wind farm capacity along the available coastline of the region. This requires the total offshore wind capacity to be divided into wind parks. These are limited to a maximum of 1.5GW capacity, which reflects a conservative assumption for a typical circuit capacity. From each of the landing points distributed evenly along the regional shoreline, it is assumed that transmission capacity is required to move the power to the centre of gravity, before it can be transmitted more widely. Transmission capacity costs have been estimated based on the Standard cost assumption. This methodology has also been adopted to reflect the likely concentration of solar CSP in southern Spain. It has been assumed that 75% of the solar CSP parks are connected to the south of the centre of gravity.

The detailed modelling work focuses on the Part C investments, in Figure 9.6. The costs of the Part C investments are integrated within the wider APS framework which is described in details in sections 9.8 and 9.9 above. The modelling frameworkuses the composite cost assumptions shown in Figure 9.6 to undertake a cost optimisation.

The model trades off the various investment elements and optimises based upon input cost assumptions. For the transmission investment three composite costs were created to represent the costs of expansion between Member States. These costs were biased to recognise that different interconnections that are likely to have varying compositions of technologies. It is not intended to provide specific costs for a particular routing of a line to form the indicated transmission capacity.

#### Figure 9.7

# Transmission cost assumptions



KEMA

#### **WORKING DRAFT**

The composite cost assumed a balanced approach to technology selection based on experience of network developments. Each international interconnector is allocated one of the three composite costs, (standard, subsea or tough terrain) based on a general analysis of the terrain the would be encountered between the centres of gravity.