

Nuclear Power for Greenhouse Gas Mitigation under the Kyoto Protocol: The Clean Development Mechanism (CDM)

Hans-Holger Rogner
Department of Nuclear Energy
International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA)

Background on the Kyoto Protocol and Flexible Mechanisms

The possibility of global climate change resulting from an increase in greenhouse gas (GHG) concentrations in the atmosphere is a major global concern. At the Third Conference of the Parties (CoP 3) to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) held at Kyoto, in December 1997, industrialized countries (i.e., Annex I countries¹) agreed to accept binding commitments that would reduce their collective GHG emissions, in the 2008-2012 commitment period, by at least 5% below 1990 levels². These Annex I countries also agreed to make demonstrable progress towards reducing GHG emissions by 2005.

Because climate change is a global problem, i.e., it does not matter where on the globe GHGs are emitted – they all end up in the same atmosphere, many market economists maintain that mitigation should first occur wherever it is cheapest. Thus Article 12 of the Kyoto Protocol makes provisions by which those signatories who are required to limit emissions can gain credit for financing cost-effective mitigation projects in developing countries, while at the same time promoting sustainable development through the provision of financial and technical assistance. This option is known as the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM).

The CDM could be of particular interest to developing countries, which are not subject to emission limitations in the Kyoto Protocol. For example, the use of capital-intensive nuclear power instead of less costly coal-fired electricity generation would result in a significant reduction in GHG emissions. Because many developing countries may not be able to afford the higher investments associated with a nuclear power project, or because nuclear may simply not be the least-cost generation option for a given country, CDM offers an opportunity for (incremental) capital and technology transfer sponsored by an Annex I country in exchange for GHG emission credits. The benefit to the sponsor would be compliance with the emission limits set out in the Protocol, at a lower cost than if mitigation occurred at home.

¹ Annex I includes the OECD (membership of 1990) plus Belarus, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Rep. Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, the Russian Federation, the Slovak Rep., Slovenia, and Ukraine.

² The individual national emission allowances relative to 1990 are (in percent):

Australia	108	Greece	92	(125)	Norway	101		
Austria	92	(87)	Hungary	94	Poland	94		
Belgium	92	(92.5)	Iceland	11	Portugal	92	(127)	
Bulgaria	92	Ireland	92	(113)	Romania	92		
Canada	94	Italy	92	(93.5)	Russian Federation	100		
Croatia	95	Japan	94	Slovakia	92			
Czech Republic	92	Latvia	92	Slovenia	92			
Denmark	92	(79)	Liechtenstein	92	Spain	92	(115)	
Estonia	92	Lithuania	92	Sweden	92	(104)		
European	92	Luxembourg	92	(72)	Switzerland	92		
Finland	92	(100)	Monaco	92	Ukraine	100		
France	92	(100)	Netherlands	92	(94)	United Kingdom	92	(88.5)
Germany	92	(79)	New Zealand	10	United States of	93		

The figures in parentheses reflect the EU internal reduction agreements (the “EU bubble”). Economies in Transition are allowed to propose base years other than 1990 for calculating their own reductions.

Interpretation of Article 12 of the Kyoto Protocol

CDM is one of four “flexibility” mechanisms for emission reductions that were adopted as part of the Kyoto Protocol³. However, CDM is the only mechanism involving non-Annex I countries (i.e., those that are not subject to emission reduction commitments). The other three can only be used among Annex I countries. CDM differs in a second important way from the other three flexibility mechanisms – under CDM, even certified emission reductions (CERs) prior to 2008 can be applied toward Annex I country reduction requirements in the 2008-2012 commitment period. Finally, a third difference between CDM and the other mechanisms is that CDM is open to private sector involvement.

There are several important aspects of CDM beyond its contribution to the ultimate objective of the Convention, i.e., stabilization of the atmospheric GHG concentration at a “safe” level consistent with sustainable development. For a project to qualify under the CDM, it must provide more than just lower GHG emissions. Specifically, a CDM project should

- provide real, measurable and certifiable emission reductions that are additional to any that would occur in the absence of the project (additionality);
 - assist Annex I countries in complying with their quantified emission limitation and reduction commitments;
 - supplement domestic action in Annex I countries; and
 - benefit non-Annex I countries in terms of technology, capital and know-how transfer.
1. The CDM will be under the authority and guidance of the Parties to the Kyoto Protocol and supervised by an Executive Board, the structure of which has yet to be defined. The certification of emission reductions will be organized by operational entities (also still to be defined) under the Board’s supervision. All CER units will be registered with the Executive Board.

Implementation Criteria of Article 12 of the Kyoto Protocol

There are several prerequisites associated with the determination of a CDM project’s emission reduction levels. These include

- an unambiguous definition of project boundaries;
- the definition of a baseline project against which the CDM project can be evaluated;
- the definition of the CDM project;
- mechanisms to ensure the measurement, verification and certification of actual emission reductions after project implementation; and
- the establishment of an adaptation fund.

³ The other three mechanisms are (a) Emission trading (ET), including trade in “Hot Air” (HA), (b) Bubbles (BU), and (c) Joint Implementation (JI). ET results from the adoption of the least-cost mitigation principle in that a firm or country with relatively low mitigation costs may reduce emissions by more than its committed amount and sell the slack to firms and countries with higher specific mitigation costs. HA refers to a particular form of emission trading involving Annex I countries that have experienced a dramatic decrease in GHG emissions due to the institutional collapse of their formerly planned economies. These countries may emit emissions well below their limits mandated in the Kyoto Protocol. This creates emission reduction credits (“hot air” or “paper tonnes”) that can be traded at a profit. BU is the approach of the EU where the cumulative GHG emissions of the region are reduced (the bubble) in compliance with the Protocol. Individual member states, however, have been allocated differing reduction targets by the EU such that some may even increase their GHG emissions while others must make reductions beyond the 8% assigned in the Protocol to the EU as a whole. JI, roughly speaking, is CDM among Annex I countries.

⁴ All other countries (essentially developing countries) not belonging to Annex I countries and hence not subject to emission reduction commitments.

Project boundaries delineate the physical and temporal boundaries of the current or planned GHG emitting facility (the baseline facility) and should be set to minimize the potential for emission leakage⁵.

The emission baseline is then the estimate of emissions that would occur in the absence of the CDM project, i.e., under business-as-usual practices within the defined boundaries. The emission reductions under a CDM project then are the difference between the baseline emissions and the (actual) emissions of the CDM project after implementation.

The baseline is an important factor for the additionality criterion because the CDM project must demonstrate that it generates real and incremental emission reductions that would not occur otherwise. If the proposed project would have occurred anyway for other reasons – e.g., profitable private sector investments, legal requirements, foreign aid, etc. – it would not satisfy the CDM additionality criterion. Four further “additionalities” have also been discussed in connection with CDM – financial, regulatory, investment and technology additionality – although these are not set out as formal requirements in the Kyoto Protocol. Financial additionality means that project funding would be additional to existing financial commitments of Annex I countries including official development assistance and other systems of cooperation. Regulatory additionality means that the emission reductions exceed existing standards, i.e., they would not have been mandated directly or indirectly by policy or regulation. Investment additionality means that the value of the CERs significantly improves the financial/commercial viability of the project. Technology additionality means that the CDM project involves the best available technology for the host country given local conditions.

There is also a movement within the UNFCCC process to restrict eligible CDM projects to those minimizing the possibility of “leakage” and “hot air” projects, and to establish strict criteria that projects are supplementary to domestic action.

The adaptation fund is used, first, to cover administrative expenses associated with the CDM verification, monitoring and certification process and, second, to assist developing countries that are particularly vulnerable to the adverse impacts of climate change to meet the costs of adaptation. The fund would be financed by a share of the proceeds from the certified CDM projects – i.e., by a quasi-tax on CDM projects.

Key issues related to the possible role of nuclear power as a CDM

1. Industrialized countries view CDM as an additional mechanism for emission reductions based on the concept of Joint Implementation (JI), i.e., the accomplishment of emission reductions elsewhere at lower costs than through domestic action; while developing countries view CDM as a new venue for financial assistance, investments towards sustainable development, technology transfer, and the promotion of equity.
2. As Annex I countries are expected to make demonstratable progress towards reducing GHG emissions by 2005, now is the time to investigate the viability of CDMs in developing countries, particularly in light of the nine percent increase in global carbon emissions since 1990 (see table on next page -- although total CO₂ emissions of Annex I countries have declined by 1.5% since 1990, this is primarily due to the economic collapse of the Economies in Transition (EITs) and not a result of determined greenhouse gas mitigation efforts).
3. The CDM is more contentious than the other flexibility mechanisms as it involves the transfer of credits from countries not subject to emission limitations.
4. To date there has been no formal debate at CoPs on the role of nuclear power as an eligible technology under the flexible mechanism scheme. However, many environmental NGOs are keen

⁵ Leakage occurs when the emission reductions from a particular project directly or indirectly cause an increase in emissions at another location or time. This reduces the emission reduction benefits of the project due to factors beyond the project scope.

to see the nuclear option ruled out, and an earlier submission to UNFCCC by the Alliance of Small Island States (AOSIS) proposed explicitly that nuclear projects be ineligible for CDM status.

Table 1: Regional and global CO₂ emissions from fuel combustion, million tonnes of carbon (Mt C)⁶.

	1990	1996	1998	(98-90)/90
Annex I	3,819	3,715	3,761	-1.5%
USA & Canada	1,446	1,580	1,659	14.7%
OECD-Europe	935	958	985	5.4%
OECD-Pacific	368	413	429	16.5%
EITs	1,069	764	689	-35.6%
Non-Annex I	1,875	2,374	2,381	27.0%
Marine Bunkers	102	113	174	70.6%
World	5,796	6,202	6,316	9.0%

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6. Outstanding details of the Kyoto Protocol, including a decision on which GHG mitigation technologies will qualify under CDM, need to be finalized at CoP 6 to be held in The Hague, 13-24 November 2000.
7. The overall concept and relevance of the CDM is not clearly understood by many developing countries and several have strong reservations about the CDM. There appears to be a lack of awareness and understanding of the opportunities and issues related to the CDM. The need for capacity building around the CDM has been demanded by G77 and China.

The Role of IAEA in the Debate on CDM

- At the 43rd regular session of the IAEA General Conference, Member States requested the IAEA to help countries in assessing nuclear power's role in light of global environmental challenges and energy needs (GC(43)/RES/14). Such assistance should include support for implementing national case studies, and facilitating access to relevant information about nuclear power's role in achieving sustainable development in developing countries and in mitigating GHG emissions.
- The dissemination of information on CDM is of particular importance to developing countries, so as to enable Member States interested in the mechanism to take an active and informed role in the debate regarding the Kyoto Protocol and eligible CDM technologies.
- Therefore, the Secretariat organized a series of information seminars, workshops and training courses for Member States on the Kyoto Protocol, the Clean Development Mechanism, Joint Implementation and Emissions Trading with particular emphasis on the potential role of nuclear power for GHG mitigation.
- On request, the Secretariat also provided training and assistance to several Member States in the preparation of national case studies that explore the potential role of nuclear power as a CDM technology. These case studies will be presented by the respective national study teams during this side event at the 44th IAEA General Conference.

⁶ Sources: *CO₂ Emissions from Fuel Combustion 1971 - 1996 – Highlights*. International Energy Agency, 1998 Edition. Paris, France. Data for 1998 based on IEA energy data converted to carbon emissions using IPCC conversion factors.

- Within the general criteria included in the Kyoto Protocol, the decision on which technologies are eligible for GHG mitigation under the flexibility mechanisms is a sovereign decision of each country.

CHINA - NUCLEAR POWER FOR GHG MITIGATION AND SUSTAINABLE ENERGY DEVELOPMENT

Liu Deshun, Zhao Xiusheng, Zheng Jiantao^ψ

Introduction: Coal-fired power plants are the major source of electricity in China, accounting in 1998 for 73% of total installed capacity. However coal-fired plants create serious air pollution problems, and their fuel transport requirements place a heavy burden on the transportation system. Nuclear power plants (NPPs) are therefore a potentially attractive option for China, particularly in the coastal regions, which are both more economically developed and far from the main coal mines in northern and western China.

Currently, China has no capability to build large-scale nuclear power plants. Nor would nuclear power plants in China be financially competitive with coal-fired plants under fair market conditions. China does have three NPPs currently in operation, built partly with French and British expertise and assistance, and eight more under construction. These have all benefited from a number of favourable government policies – i.e., exemptions from taxes on imported equipment and from value-added taxes, and an electricity purchase agreement at an artificially high price.

The Electric Power System in China and the Potential for Nuclear Energy

Current status: From 1980 to 1998 China's electric power industry grew rapidly. Installed capacity grew at an average of 8.15% annually and electricity generation at an average of 7.83%. In 1997 and 1998, however, there was a drop in electricity demand growth to 4.8% and 2.8% respectively⁷, due to energy efficiency improvements, economic restructuring associated with market reforms, and the Asian financial crisis. At the end of 1998, total installed electricity capacity was 277 GW. Annual electricity generation was 1,158 TWh.

China's electricity generation mix is dominated by coal, which accounts for 73% of total installed capacity. Nuclear capacity is only 2.1 GW, or 0.9% of total power capacity.

Future plans: The long-term planning targets for China's electric power sector for 2010 are 500-550 GW of total installed capacity, with around 20 GW of new capacity added annually. For electricity generation, the 2010 target is 2,500 TWh, with 6% annual growth. For 2020 the target for total installed capacity is 750-800 GW, with around 25 GW of new capacity each year. For electricity generation, the target is 3,200 TWh, with 4% annual growth.

These targets may yet be adjusted downwards. Electricity shortfalls due to tight supplies have declined remarkably in the past few years, given the recent slowdown in electricity demand growth. But even with lower targets, there would remain large opportunities for investors and suppliers in the power sector to provide financing and equipment.

Need for nuclear power: China's existing subsidies for nuclear are motivated by several national interests that would not be reflected in a private economic assessment of nuclear power. These include energy supply security, a cleaner and more efficient energy mix, the promotion of high technology innovation, and stimulating growth and demand in industries related to NPP construction and operation. In addition there are now several environmental concerns that might justify further subsidies, including international subsidies, for nuclear power.

5. Global environmental concerns: The electric power sector in China is a growing significant source of CO₂ emissions.

^ψ Institute of Nuclear Energy Technology (INET), Global Climate Change Institute (GCCCI), Tsinghua University, Beijing, China.

⁷ Source: the State Statistics Bureau, 1999

6. Local environmental concerns: It was estimated by World Bank⁸ that China's economic losses due to air pollution and acid rain were about 37 billion US\$ in 1995, over 5% of overall GDP.
7. National transportation concerns: Long distance transportation of coal from northern and western China, where the principal coal mines are, to eastern and southern coastal areas, where electricity demand is growing fastest, imposes a heavy burden on the national transportation system. This, in turn, exerts upward pressure on the coal price, which reduces the competitiveness of domestic coal against imported coal. In contrast, the burden of nuclear fuel transportation for new NPPs would be almost negligible.

However, even with its environmental and transportation advantages, nuclear power remains a very capital- and technology-intensive electricity supply option. As is the case in many other developing countries, these financial and technological barriers still hold back the pace of nuclear power development in China.

Current developments are therefore limited to three operating reactors (with a total installed capacity of about 2.1 GW), plus eight NPPs under construction (Table 2). Looking further into the future, China has formulated nuclear power targets for 2010 of 20 GWe of total installed capacity, rising to 40 GWe by 2020. Whether or not these targets can be met will depend on financing, market liberalization, and the evolution of electricity rate structures.

Table 2: Nuclear Power Plants in China

Nuclear power plant	Project Phase	Capacity MWe	Type	Operation time
Qinshan	Phase-I	300×1	PWR	1991
Daya Bay	Phase-I	900×2	PWR	1994
Qinshan	Phase-II	600×2	PWR	2001 and 2002
Qinshan	Phase-III	700×2	CANDU	
Ling' Ao	Phase-I	900×2	PWR	
Lian Yungang	Phase-I	900×2	PWR	
Total		8.3 GWe		

The need for sustainable development in China: China is a large developing country with a very low national income (769 US\$ GDP per capita in 1998) and low energy consumption (1.09 tce, or 0.763 toe, per capita in 1998⁹). Despite rapid economic growth over the past two decades, China still ranks among the low and middle income countries in the world. As indicated in the UNFCCC, the top priorities for non-Annex I, low-income, developing countries such as China are economic and social development and poverty eradication. In full recognition of these priorities, the UNFCCC and Kyoto Protocol do not impose any GHG mitigation commitments upon developing country Parties.

Nonetheless China has devoted substantial attention to the mitigation of GHG emissions and has adopted domestic policies and measures that are compatible with the national sustainable development plan. "*The Agenda for 21 Century Development in China*" is one principal example of China's national strategies to abate GHG emissions and climate change. It puts forward preferential action plans and development projects in various priority areas.

However, China has been constrained by barriers that hinder further development, such as the country's huge population and limited natural resources per capita, its poor ecological environment and its vulnerable capability for mitigating and adapting to climate change. As a result, China very much needs assistance, including the CDM, in pursuing sustainable development options. There is a large

⁸ World Bank : "China in 2020", Sept. 1997

⁹ Source: The State Statistics Yearbook by State Statistics Bureau, 1998. Exchange rate: 1 US\$: 8.29 Yuan RMB

potential in China for CDM projects, including nuclear power, and such assistance is vital for China achieving sustainable development.

Baseline Project – Coal: Coal-fired power is the preferred option for the next generation of investments in China. The capital investment ratio for a nuclear power plant in China relative to a coal-fired power plant of the same capacity is about 2.5 to 1, rather high by the standards of industrialized countries. The fuel costs of nuclear power are also high, due to the high price of domestic nuclear fuel. Table 3 calculates the incremental costs of emission reduction for Ling’Ao’s two 900 MWe nuclear units relative to a comparable coal-fired power plant. The coal-fired plant is assumed to be located in Guangdong Province, a region of high expected electricity demand growth. This is where the Ling’Ao nuclear power plant is located, so that the comparison provides a fair reflection of the incremental cost of emission reduction associated with shifting from a baseline coal-fired alternative to a CDM nuclear power plant of the same size and serving the same market.

Additionality: Table 3 shows that a nuclear power plant would lead to long-term measurable GHG reductions of 2.85 MtC/yr relative to the baseline coal project, thus satisfying the CDM criterion of environmental additionality.

Table 3 shows that the nuclear plant also meets the criterion of financial additionality as it is more expensive than the coal-fired baseline project and thus would not be built under fair market conditions. Indeed without subsidies, tax breaks, or other financial support, the nuclear power plants necessary to meet China’s future targets will not be built. This is partly because electricity pricing in China incorporates social goals as well as purely financial considerations. But it will also be true in an increasingly liberalized electricity market in the future, with coal-fired power plants remaining the most attractive alternative to nuclear.

Nuclear power further satisfies the criterion of technology additionality given, first, China’s current domestic inability to develop large-scale nuclear technology and, second, the reality that electricity generation costs using imported technologies would, in the absence of CDM, be too high relative to coal-fired plants to be justified.

Table 3 shows the resulting mitigation costs, based on the difference in levelized generating costs between the nuclear and coal-fired alternatives. For a CDM nuclear power project to compare favourably economically to the coal-fired baseline, payments from an Annex I partner to cover the difference between nuclear and coal generating costs would be on the order of US \$45/tC (about US \$12/tCO₂).

Concluding Remarks: Because nuclear power is not financially competitive with coal-fired power plants in China, the government has subsidized the initial stages of nuclear development due to national concerns about secure energy supplies, a cleaner and more efficient energy mix, the promotion of high technology innovation, and stimulating growth and demand in industries related to NPP construction and operation. These, plus concerns about the environment and a transportation system overburdened by coal in the absence of imports, have led China to set targets for the expansion of installed nuclear capacity to at least 40 GW by 2020, which would avoid 63 MtC of CO₂ emissions annually.

To meet such targets, however, China will need financial support through the CDM or some other mechanism to cover the difference between nuclear power plants costs and coal-fired power. Assistance through the CDM would assist in meeting the goals of the UNFCCC, would contribute to cost-effective GHG reductions on the part of Annex I countries, would reduce air pollution from coal-fired electricity generation in China, and by increasing the technological and financial resources available to China, would contribute significantly to sustainable development in China.

Table 3: Comparison of baseline and CDM project technologies - China

Characteristics:	Units	Baseline Coal	CDM Nuclear
Technical			
Plant lifetime	year	30	30
Net capacity	MWe	1,800	1,800
Load factor	%	75	75
Net efficiency	% (LHV)	37	35
Sulfur abatement (SO ₂)	%	70	-
Nitrogen oxide abatement (NO _x)	%	0	-
Particulate abatement	%	99.5	-
Economics			
Investment costs	US\$/kW _e	734	1,800
Interest during construction	US\$/kW _e	197	644
Total capital investment ¹⁾	Million US \$	1,676	4,400
Localization rate	%	100	15
Real discount rate	%	10	10
Fix O&M costs	US\$/kW _e .yr	34.24	55.27
Variable O&M	US\$/MWh		
Fuel purchase costs	\$/GJ	2.16	0.416
Total levelized generating costs	mills/kWh	41.26	52.16
Emissions & Wastes			
Ash	g/kWh	50.66	
Sludge from abatement	g/kWh	n.a.	
I & L level radioactive waste ²⁾	m ³ /MWh		1.735 * 10 ⁻⁵
High level radioactive waste	g/kWh		n.a.
Heavy metals	g/kWh	n.a.	
Particulates	g/kWh	0.49	
Sulfur dioxide SO ₂	g/kWh	4.79	
Nitrogen oxides NO _x	g/kWh	3.92	
Carbon monoxide CO	g/kWh	n.a.	
Methane	g/kWh	n.a.	
Nitrous oxide N ₂ O	g/kWh	0.02	
Carbon dioxide CO ₂	g/kWh	241	0
Total GHG emissions	g C/kWh equiv.	n.a.	
GHG abated	g C/kWh equiv.	0	241
Total GHG emissions	Mt C / year	2.85	0.00
Total annual GHG reductions	Mt C / year		2.85
Mitigation costs based on levelized generating costs			
Incremental generating costs	mills/kWh		10.84
Mitigation costs (generation)	US\$/t C		45
Mitigation costs (generation)	US\$/t CO ₂		12.3
Mitigation costs based on levelized capital costs			
Incremental capital costs	Million US \$		2,724
Mitigation costs (capital)	US\$/t C		101.4
Mitigation costs (capital)	US\$/t CO ₂		27.7

¹⁾ Total plant capital investment including interest during construction

²⁾ Intermediate and low level radioactive waste data based on Daya Bay nuclear power station operation report.

INDIA - NUCLEAR POWER FOR GHG MITIGATION AND SUSTAINABLE ENERGY DEVELOPMENT

A.K. Nema^ψ, B.K. Pathak^φ and R.B. Grover^ζ

Introduction: The increasing use of the earth's resources to improve our quality of life has led to certain deleterious effects on the environment. The increased concentration of greenhouse gases (GHGs) is one such important effect. GHG emissions have come primarily from industrialized countries. Currently industrialized countries emit 11.4¹⁰ tonnes of carbon per year per capita. For India the corresponding figure is 1.0¹¹, and for China it is 2.7¹². We recognize the necessity of both meeting the development needs of all the countries in the South, and ensuring that such development is sustainable. The CDM may have an important role to play, although the positions of a number of countries, including India, with respect to the CDM appear to be still evolving. In any event, nuclear energy should be an important energy option under the CDM, if and when the CDM is ready to be implemented. The present study is an attempt to understand the implications of setting up a nuclear power plant (NPP) in India as a CDM project.

Future Electricity Demand and Baseline Capacity Mix: Table 4 presents India's prospective electricity expansion plans through 2012. The country's total installed capacity in 1997 (excluding Andman, Nicobar and Lakshadweep islands) was 84.5 GWe, excluding 900 MWe from wind power. The projected energy requirements in Table 4 also exclude Andman, Nicobar and Lakshadweep islands.

Table 4: Electricity Expansion Plan for India, installed Capacity, in MWe

Year	1997	2002	2007	2012
Hydro ¹³	21,658	31,474	52,534	75,534
Thermal ¹⁴	60,977	91,384	119,974	150,974
Nuclear ¹⁵	1,840	2,720	3,720	7,600
Total installed capacity	84,475	125,578	176,228	234,108
Total Energy Requirement ¹⁶ in TWh	395	570	782	1,058

Note: The year 1997, for example, refers to the Indian fiscal year ending on March 31, 1997. As of 31 March, 2000, total installed capacity was 97.4 GWe. Energy generated during the year 1999-2000 was 481 TWh.

India's planning is done in terms of five-year blocks. The current five-year plan (April 1997-March 2002) is the ninth such plan, and is referred to hereafter simply as the "9th Plan". Nuclear capacity additions included in the 9th Plan, and in Table 4 through 2007, represent firm commitments. They are planned for locations that are significantly far away from coal pit-heads where nuclear power is an economical option, a point we return to later. In addition, the targets in Table 4 could be revised to

^ψ Nuclear Power Corporation of India Ltd., Department of Atomic Energy, Mumbai 400094, India.

^φ Bhabha Atomic Research Centre, Department of Atomic Energy, Mumbai 400085, India.

^ζ Technical Advisor to Chairman, Atomic Energy Commission, Anushakti Bhavan, Mumbai 400001, India.

¹⁰ Human Development Report 1998, UNDP, p202.

¹¹ Human Development Report 1998, UNDP, p181.

¹² Human Development Report 1998, UNDP, pp180.

¹³ As per Central Electricity Authority's report on Generating Capacity Planning Studies-1998.

¹⁴ Ibid.

¹⁵ As per tentative plan of Nuclear Power Corporation of India Ltd.

¹⁶ 1996-97 generation figure is for public utilities taken from CEA Annual report-1998-99 issue. The other figures are demand projections as per 15th Electric Power Survey report

increase the share of nuclear in the event that appropriate technologies and funding mechanisms become available, including subsidies under CDM.

Energy Resources and the Rationale for Nuclear Power: All forms of energy have their merits and their constraints. India has reasonable coal reserves – more than 200 billion tonnes, of which about 75 billion tonnes are considered mineable reserves. Coal based power stations will therefore continue to play a major role in the energy system for many years to come. However, the difficulty of transporting large quantities of coal across the country and the environmental problems associated with ash disposal and emissions of both greenhouse gases and acid gases are likely to impose future additional constraints on coal use, beyond concerns about resource depletion. The “Fuel Map of India,” published by the Central Electricity Authority in August 1998 recognizes that fuel handling and transportation facilities will have to be expanded to optimize the use of indigenous resources. The report further concludes that indigenous production will not be sufficient to meet projected requirements, and 14-15 million tonnes of coal may have to be imported during the 9th Plan. Estimates of how long India’s coal deposits will last differ, depending on the patterns of usage and postulated growth rates that are assumed, but it appears unlikely that the country’s coal resources will be sufficient even for this century.

Oil is mainly used in the transport, industrial and domestic sectors. Oil and natural gas can only be considered as short-term supplements as India is not endowed with adequate resources, and any substantial long-term oil and gas use will have to be based on imports. India’s hydropower potential should be exploited to the maximum extent possible, taking into account potential population displacements and ecological impacts. Renewables like solar, wind, and the sustainable use of biomass will all play useful roles, although all of these need further technological development before they can be deployed on a commercial scale. Nuclear energy has significant potential and in the long run, the rapid depletion of India’s fossil resources makes the country’s nuclear fuel resources (natural uranium plus large thorium reserves) an important future energy source. In the short term, nuclear power already enjoys a locational advantage in regions that are far from India’s coal-bearing areas.

Economics of Nuclear Power: The comparative economics of nuclear power plants depend on local conditions, discount rates and the cost of other fuels like coal and gas. Wherever fossil fuels are available at reasonable prices, thermal power plants are obvious options for consideration. The issues to be addressed in a comparative techno-economic analysis include the location of coal mines relative to load centres, coal transportation, the availability of railroads for transportation, the sulphur and ash content of the fuel and associated environmental impacts. Among the alternatives that should be considered, hydropower provides low-cost electricity generation associated with large capacities, but the sites available for new large projects are limited and the social costs of submerging large areas are very high. In the case of natural gas, gas prices, which constitute a sizeable fraction of the electricity cost for gas-fired plants, are subject to fluctuations due to market forces. The cost of electricity generated from gas-fired plants can therefore vary substantially depending on market conditions.

An internal study done by the Nuclear Power Corporation of India Ltd. (NPCIL), “Long-Term Cost Effectiveness of Nuclear Energy - 1998”¹⁷, indicates that the competitiveness of nuclear power relative to coal-fired power varies depending on how far away the coal-fired plant is from the mine that supplies its coal. If the coal-fired plant can be located close enough to the pit-head, it will be cheaper than nuclear power. But if, in order to be close to the load centre it serves, the coal-fired plant were more than about 1200 km away from the coal pit-head, then nuclear power is competitive. There are several regions in the country where such distances exist between prospective power plant sites and the mines that would supply coal, should a coal-fired plant be chosen. As shown in Table 5, for sites 1200 km from the pit-head, the “Cost-effectiveness update-2000”¹⁸ of the above study estimates unit energy costs for nuclear and coal-fired power at 49.07 mills/kWh and 50.7 mills/kWh respectively at a

¹⁷ A.K.Nema, "Nuclear Generation Cost in India", Nu-Power, Vol.13, No.1(1999).

¹⁸ A.K.Nema, Unpublished Internal Report.

5% discount rate (assuming constant prices). Given that inflation in India is currently about 6% and that the prevailing interest rate is about 12%, the 5% discount rate is appropriate. For a coal-fired plant located at the pit-head, the unit energy cost is only 31.16 mills/kWh, also shown in Table 5. In addition to the discount rate, many other factors influence the cost of electricity. A sensitivity analysis indicates that the levelised cost is most sensitive to the capacity factor in the case of nuclear power, and to fuel prices in the case of thermal power. Higher capacity factors and higher coal prices would improve the competitiveness of nuclear power.

Baseline Project – Coal: For India the baseline project against which nuclear power should be compared depends on the location of the proposed power plant. Thus the top part of Table 5 compares the technical data for a nuclear power plant against two alternative baselines. First is a coal-fired plant 1200 km away from the pit-head to represent cases where the load centre location requires siting a power plant at least that far from coal mines. Second is a coal-fired plant located at the pit-head to represent cases where the load centre is relatively close to coal mines. As can be seen from Table 5, if a power plant must be at least 1200 km from a pit-head, given the location of the demand center it is meant to serve, nuclear power is economically competitive. But if the coal-fired project can be located near the pit-head, its generation costs drop below those of the nuclear plant. In this case the coal-fired plant becomes the lowest-cost option, and thus the baseline project for CDM purposes against which to compare nuclear power.

Additionality: Additional nuclear capacity is currently foreseen in India's energy development plans because power plant expansion sites exist that are sufficiently far from coal mines to make nuclear power competitive. However, there are also sites closer to coal mines, and in these cases nuclear power plants are economically uncompetitive and would not be built in the absence of CDM. Thus in these cases nuclear power meets the CDM criterion of financial additionality. As shown in the bottom half of Table 5, replacing a coal-fired plant with a nuclear plant reduces GHG emissions by 1.87 million tonnes of carbon (MtC) each year, thus also meeting the criterion of environmental additionality. The total emission offset over the lifetime of the nuclear power plant is 56 MtC. As shown in the table, the mitigation costs, based on levelised generating cost differences, are 57 US\$/tC based on a baseline coal-fired plant located at the pit-head. As one considers sites that are progressively further away from the pit-head, the mitigation costs of nuclear power relative to a coal-fired baseline project decline.

Concluding Remarks: Substantial environmental damage has already been caused by the profligate use of energy by the industrialized countries. In the effort to limit further damage most cost-effectively, it is possible to calculate mitigation costs associated with clean technologies using a mutually agreed framework along the lines of that above. But it must be remembered that any benefits in the form of mitigation cost payments to developing countries that did not cause the damage in the first place, would amount to only token payments falling far short of any plausible level of just compensation.

In that context, any assessment of possible CDM options for India must recognize that while coal-based power plants will continue to play a major role in India for many years to come, research, development and demonstration (RD&D) is needed to solve environmental problems related to the disposal of ash and emissions of greenhouse gases and acid gases. RD&D is also needed to increase the share of non-conventional sources like solar, biomass and wind in the energy mix. Nuclear power is of importance to India because it has a large, well-qualified and potentially unlimited resource base (based on a closed fuel cycle approach), does not emit GHGs, and, depending on location, has potentially favourable economics versus coal. In the long term, if we are to preserve the environment, it will be necessary to tap this source to the maximum extent feasible.

Table 5: Comparison of baseline and CDM project technologies - India

Characteristics	Units	Coal 1200 km from pit head	Coal at pit head	CDM Nuclear at pit head
Technical				
Plant lifetime	year	30	30	30
Net capacity	MWe	1,000	1,000	1,000
Load factor ¹⁾	%	68.5	68.5	68.5
Net efficiency	% (LHV)	30	30	29
Sulfur abatement (SO ₂)	%			-
Nitrogen oxide abatement (NO _x)	%			-
Particulate abatement	%	99.5	99.5	-
Economics				
Investment costs ²⁾	US\$/kWe	1,107	1,107	1,577
Interest during construction	US\$/kWe	134	134	352
Total capital investment ³⁾	Million US \$	1,241	1,241	1,929
Localization rate	%	~100	~100	~100
Real discount rate	%	5	5	5
Fix O&M costs	US\$/kWe.yr	27.7	27.7	93.5
Variable O&M	US\$/MWh	0.00	0.00	0.00
Fuel purchase costs ⁴⁾	\$/GJ	2.41	0.94	0.87
Total levelized generating costs	mills/kWh	50.70	31.17	49.07
Emissions & Wastes				
Ash ⁵⁾	g/kWh	n.a.	n.a.	
Sludge from abatement	g/kWh	n.a.	n.a.	
Intermediate level rad. waste ⁶⁾	g/kWh			0.032
High level radioactive waste	g/kWh			0.0036
Heavy metals	g/kWh	n.a.	n.a.	
Particulates	g/kWh	0.99	0.99	
Sulfur dioxide SO ₂	g/kWh	7.8	7.8	
Nitrogen oxides NO _x	g/kWh	3.35	3.35	
Carbon dioxide CO ₂	g/kWh	312	312	
Total GHG emissions	g C/kWh equiv.	312	312	0
GHG abated	g C/kWh equiv.	0	0	312
Total GHG emissions	Mt C / year	1.87	1.87	0.00
Total annual GHG reductions	Mt C / year		0.00	1.87
Mitigation costs based on levelized generating costs				
Incremental generating costs	mills/kWh			17.90
Mitigation costs (generation)	US\$/t C			57.3
Mitigation costs (generation)	US\$/t CO ₂			15.6
Mitigation costs based on levelized capital costs				
Incremental capital costs	Million US \$		0	687
Mitigation costs (capital)	US\$/t C			23.9
Mitigation costs (capital)	US\$/t CO ₂			6.5

¹⁾ Does not account for decrease of availability during the period of plant refurbishment

²⁾ Including discounted cost of refurbishment, working capital and its pay back at the end of plant life.

³⁾ Total plant capital investment including interest during construction

⁴⁾ Based on gross generation

⁵⁾ While exact data are not available, Indian coals have very high ash content.

VIET NAM - NUCLEAR POWER FOR GHG MITIGATION AND SUSTAINABLE ENERGY DEVELOPMENT

*Le Doan Phac, Nguyen Tien Nguyen, Le Van Hong^f
Nguyen Huu Thanh, Nguyen Anh Tuan^j*

Introduction: The Government of Viet Nam has recently formulated a national energy programme entitled Strategy and Policy of Sustainable Energy Development. Its aim is to define a development policy for the country for the period from 2000 to 2020. The main objectives of the national energy programme are:

8. Increasing energy efficiency and demand side management (DSM)
9. Expanding rural electrification
10. Defining an energy price policy (e.g., pricing such that revenues cover costs)
11. Minimizing environmental impacts
12. Encouraging private investment in the energy and electricity sectors
13. Energy supply security
14. Diversifying energy sources, and
15. Exploring the potential role of nuclear power in Viet Nam

In formulating this programme, one of the objectives has been to minimize environmental impacts, as noted in Item 4, including those caused by the electricity sector. Nevertheless, the shortage of investment capital in Viet Nam and the difficulty of securing favourable financial arrangements are crucial obstacles to the introduction of new technology options to mitigate GHG emissions.

Viet Nam views CDM as an opportunity to find ways to overcome such problems and expects that all GHG mitigating technologies will be considered equally under the CDM.

Current Economic and Electricity Situation: As a result of economic reforms launched in 1986, GDP growth from 1989 to 1997 averaged 7.0% per year. However, because of Asia's financial crisis in late 1997, GDP growth in 1998 and 1999 remained below target. Commercial energy consumption increased about two-fold between 1990 and 1997, but actually decreased in 1998 and 1999 because of the Asian crisis, especially in terms of industrial coal and electricity demands. While Viet Nam is a net energy exporter, it imports refined oil products in order to meet final energy demand. In 1998, energy exports were 2.9 million tons of coal and 12.4 million tons of crude oil, while imports were 6 million tons of oil products.

In 1999, the total installed electric capacity reached 5,765 MW, corresponding to an available capacity of 5,384 MW. Installed capacity was composed of 53% hydropower, 22% coal-fired power, and 25% diesel and gas turbine. Total electricity generation reached 23,739 GWh, of which hydropower, coal-fired, and diesel and gas turbine shares were 58.7%, 22.7%, and 18.6% respectively.

Over the period 1991-1999, electricity generation has increased 2.7 times with an average growth rate of 12% per annum. In the three years 1994-1996 electricity growth reached 17% per year, compared to annual GDP growth of 9% in the same period. Although the GDP growth rate decreased to 4.8% in 1999, electricity generation continued to grow at 9.6%. The share of hydropower in the national electricity supply mix declined from 70.5% in 1996 to 58.7% in 1999 as a result of several new thermal plants coming into operation. In the

^φ Viet Nam Atomic Energy Commission (VAEC)

^φ Institute of Energy (IE) Viet Nam.

interests of electricity supply security, the Government of Viet Nam plans to reduce the hydro share to below 50% by 2003.

Projected Electricity Demand through 2020: Three scenarios of future electricity demand through 2020 have been developed based on past demand growth, indigenous fuel supplies, and electricity import potentials from neighbouring countries. The three demand scenarios reflect three different economic development scenarios. Electricity demand increases by average annual growth rates of 9.5%, 10.2% and 11.0% corresponding to average GDP growth rates of 6.4%, 6.8% and 7.4% respectively.

Base Scenario: The middle scenario of these three is labelled the base scenario. Electricity demand rises to 167 TWh in 2020, requiring total capacity additions on the order of 30 GW, including more than 10 GW hydro, 10 GW gas-fired, 4 GW coal-fired, 100 MW geothermal, 4 GW of imported electricity, and 1.2 GW of nuclear power. The total primary energy demand for electricity generation is estimated to be approximately 20 Mtoe. Table 6 shows the evolution of the electricity supply mix in the base scenario.

Table 6: Installed Capacity by Fuel Types in the Base Scenario (MW)

Year	2000	2005	2007	2009	2010	2015	2020
Hydro	3,234	4,508	5,371	6,141	6,461	10,606	13,794
Coal	640	1,890	2,190	2,640	2,940	3,340	4,840
Gas + Oil	2,252	4,777	5,497	6,217	6,517	8,737	10,857
Geothermal		50	100	100	100	100	200
Nuclear							1,200
Elec. imports			300	600	1,000	2,000	4,000
Total	6,126	11,225	13,458	15,698	17,018	24,783	34,791

CDM - A Mechanism to Assist in Achieving Sustainable Development in the Electric Power Sector : Viet Nam is a country with a low level of economic development. Shortages of both new technologies and capital investment create problems for the implementation of electric power projects.

For reasons of economics, financing and technology availability, Viet Nam's energy policy must give top priority to the use of indigenous primary energy sources. Only when indigenous energy options cannot meet the electricity demand should imports and nuclear power be considered. According to the base scenario of Table 6, this situation could arise as early as 2007, and through 2015 imported electricity and imported coal are the principal supplements to domestic options. In the base scenario nuclear power remains uncompetitive, and beginning around 2010 Viet Nam imports increasing amounts of coal for electricity production. Such imports are expected to create a number of problems. In addition to their implications for energy supply security, they will place increasing burdens both on the environment and on Viet Nam's poor technical infrastructure for coal handling and transportation. By 2020, in the baseline scenario, these burdens are sufficiently costly that nuclear power becomes a small part of the least-cost energy mix. However if, through the CDM, nuclear power could displace enough of the projected expansion in coal-fired capacity to eliminate the need for coal imports through 2020, it would reduce Viet Nam's annual coal demand by up to 13 Mtce, and the country's annual GHG emissions by up to 6.5 million tonnes of carbon (MtC) (24 MtCO₂), as well as reducing local air pollution and regional acidification.

Nuclear power could thus play an active role in sustainable development in Viet Nam and contribute to the mitigation of global GHG emissions. Viet Nam, like other developing countries, expects that nuclear power will be eligible as a CDM technology, and hopes that through the CDM we will find a way, in cooperation with developed countries, to overcome the barriers currently hindering nuclear power development in Viet Nam.

Baseline Project – Coal FGD: In this section we compare nuclear power and other potential CDM options to a baseline coal-fired power plant. For the baseline power plant we use the technology representing the next investment cycle in Viet Nam, i.e., advanced coal flue gas desulfurization (FGD) technology with the

following combustion characteristics: 0.52% sulfur, 28% ash, and 10.5% moisture (all by weight) and a heating value of 21.14 GJ/tonne. As alternatives to this baseline, five potential CDM options are analyzed: a coal-fired integrated gasification combined cycle plant (IGCC), a CANDU-6 nuclear power plant, a fuel oil-fired power plant (FO), a wind generator, and a flat plate solar photovoltaic facility (PV). To facilitate the comparison, all the CDM options have been scaled so that their maximum electricity generation levels are equal.

The data assumptions and results are given in Table 7. The upper portion of the table presents the essential technical data on all six technologies. After adjustments to equate the maximum electricity generation levels of all six, the bottom half of the table calculates GHG mitigation costs, first, based solely on levelized generation cost differences and, second, based on levelized capital cost differences.

Additionality: The results in Table 7 indicate that the nuclear power would reduce GHG emissions by 1.22 MtC/yr compared with the coal baseline project. Because nuclear power is more expensive than coal, the coal baseline project would be the preferred choice on economic grounds alone. Thus nuclear power satisfies the CDM financial additionality criterion. Among the CDM alternatives in Table 7, nuclear power is also the least expensive. Its associated mitigation costs are US \$33.38/tC (US \$9.1/tCO₂). The next closest alternative (wind) is 1.7 times as expensive. Both wind and solar power are intermittent energy sources, however, and are expected to account for only a very small percentage of Viet Nam's main electricity grid in 2020. Their principal niche is expected to be off-grid, for electric power supplies for islands, remote villages, and other small-scale or remote applications.

Thus nuclear technology appears an attractive CDM option for Viet Nam.

- It would contribute to Viet Nam's sustainable development, first, by directly eliminating both the local air pollution and GHG emissions that would be associated with the least-cost baseline alternative, additional coal-fired capacity, and, second, by providing new technology and financial assistance that would help the country proceed more quickly toward its overall development and strategic goals.
- It would help Annex-I investor countries achieve cost-effective compliance with the quantified emission limitations and reduction commitments under Article 3 of the Kyoto Protocol.
- It would contribute directly to global GHG emission reductions.
- It would satisfy the CDM additionality requirement, given its unattractive economics relative to coal in the absence of the CDM.

Concluding Remarks: Viet Nam recognizes the ongoing controversies in a number of developed countries about their own use of nuclear power. We also recognize that some of those opposed to nuclear power in their own countries have extended their opposition to include nuclear power in developing countries if it is proposed as part of a CDM project. Viet Nam believes that such controversies are for nations to deal with domestically. The issue of nuclear power development is one that each country should decide on its own. No country should try to impose its internal choice on other countries, particularly under the guise of the CDM, with its otherwise substantial potential for technology transfer, cost-effective GHG mitigation, and sustainable development. In the common effort of all countries in the world to protect the Earth's atmosphere, each party has the right to choose its preferred clean technologies within the sustainability, development, and efficiency objectives of the CDM.

Table 7: Comparison of baseline and CDM project technologies – Viet Nam

Characteristics	Units	Baseline Coal	CDM Coal	CDM Fuel Oil	CDM Nuclear	CDM Wind	CDM Solar PV
Technical							
Plant lifetime	year	30	30	25	30	15	15
Net capacity	MWe	300	300	600	672	0.5	10
Load factor	%	70	70	70	75	32	20
Net efficiency	% (LHV)	34	44	34	33	100	100
Sulfur abatement (SO ₂)	%	0	80		-	-	-
Nitrogen oxide abatement (NO _x)	%	0	90		-	-	-
Particulate abatement	%	99.5	99.5		-	-	-
Economics							
Investment costs	US\$/kWe	973	1,577	771	1,562	1,200	6,000
Interest during construction	US\$/kWe	99	253	79	482		
Total capital investment ¹⁾	Million US \$	772	1,318	612	1,374	1,890	15,120
Localization rate	%	50	40	50	15	15	15
Real discount rate	%	10	10	10	10	10	10
Fix O&M costs	US\$/kWe.yr	31.36	35.2	11.5	52.56	20.4	10
Variable O&M	US\$/MWh	2.40	3.60	1.75	1.29	4.05	0
Fuel purchase costs	\$/GJ	1.23	1.23	3.02	0.55		
Total levelized generating costs	mills/kWh	39.08	51.06	50.87	48.29	67.61	455.96
Emissions & Wastes							
Ash	g/kWh	96.3	74.4				
Sludge from abatement	g/kWh				0.016		
I & L level radioactive waste ²⁾	m ³ /GWh				0.074		
High level radioactive waste	g/kWh				n.a.		
Heavy metals	g/kWh	0.038	0.027				
Particulates	g/kWh	0.693	0.433	0.1			
Sulfur dioxide SO ₂	g/kWh	5.08	1.106	0.021			
Nitrogen oxides NO _x	g/kWh	2.99	0.299	0.003			
Carbon monoxide CO	g/kWh	0.13	0.09	0.15			
Methane	g/kWh	0.01	0.0077	0.01			
Nitrous oxide N ₂ O	g/kWh	0.0075	0.0058	0.0039			
Carbon dioxide CO ₂	g C/kWh	275	213	237			
Total GHG emissions	g C/kWh equiv.	276	213	237	0	0	0
GHG abated	g C/kWh equiv.		63	38	276	276	276
Total GHG emissions	Mt C / year	1.22	0.94	1.05	0.00		
Total annual GHG reductions	Mt C / year		0.28	0.17	1.22	1.22	1.22
Mitigation costs based on levelized generating costs							
Incremental generating costs	mills/kWh		11.98	11.79	9.21	28.53	416.88
Mitigation costs (generation)	US\$/t C		191.0	306.5	33.4	103.4	1,511.3
Mitigation costs (generation)	US\$/t CO ₂		52.1	83.6	9.1	28.2	412.2
Mitigation costs based on levelized capital costs							
Incremental capital costs	Million US \$		546	-160	602	1,118	14,348
Mitigation costs (capital)	US\$/t C		209.1	0.0	52.4	120.7	1549.0
Mitigation costs (capital)	US\$/t CO ₂		57.0	0.0	14.3	32.9	422.4

¹⁾ Total plant capital investment including interest during construction

²⁾ Intermediate and low level radioactive waste

PAKISTAN - NUCLEAR POWER FOR GHG MITIGATION AND SUSTAINABLE ENERGY DEVELOPMENT

Mohammad Ahmad, A. I. Jalal, A. Mumtaz and M. Latif

**Applied Systems Analysis Group
Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission**

Introduction: Although Pakistan's contribution to global GHG emissions is very small (currently only 0.3% of world-wide emissions), it shares with the world community the concerns of climate change due to the build-up of GHGs. Pakistan is committed to co-operating with global efforts to avert the potential threat of global warming and is already working towards its own socio-economic development in a sustainable manner. However, due to the country's limited technical and financial capabilities, its efforts are diluted and limited to only high priority areas of national interest. There is a large potential for expanding these efforts, if the necessary technical and financial support can be made available, and such an expansion would contribute significantly to the collective global objective of sustainable development. One such step is the reduction of GHG emissions from Pakistan's power sector by introducing advanced cleaner technologies. Nuclear power is one such technology.

Current Energy and Electricity Situation: The present level of commercial energy and electricity consumption in Pakistan is 0.3 toe/capita and 492 kWh/capita, respectively. These values are about one-fifth of the world average and only one-twentieth of the OECD average. During 1998-99 the total primary energy supply was 41.7 million tons oil equivalent (Mtoe), of which oil represented 42.8%, gas 38.6%, coal 5.2%, LPG 0.4%, hydroelectricity 12.8% and nuclear electricity 0.2%. In addition, about 25 Mtoe of traditional fuels, firewood, crop and animal wastes were used. Pakistan plans to gradually replace these with commercial fuels, which would provide significant social and environmental benefits to the rural population.

The total electricity generation capacity in Pakistan is about 16,916 MW, approximately two thirds of which is based on oil and gas. Hydro capacity is 4,884 MW while coal and nuclear are 162 MW and 137 MW respectively. Over the last five years, thermal capacity has almost doubled including about 4,000 MW from private sector IPPs. An additional 2,285 MW of private power generation capacity will become operational by 2003. These plants will be using furnace oil and gas.

At present, there is a surplus of power generation capacity of about 2,000 MW due to the recent slowdown in economic growth. Nevertheless, this trend will not continue for long. The ongoing efforts to revive the economy will lead to increased economic growth, which will require a rapid expansion of the electricity supply system.

Future Electrical Demand and Capacity Requirements: The average economic growth rate in Pakistan over the last few years (1993-1998) has been 4.5% per year, much lower than the historical average of 6%. This lower economic growth has slowed growth in electricity demand to some 5.0% per year, in contrast to the long-term historical growth rate of about 9.10%. In view of this reality, the Working Group on Energy for the Ninth Five Year Plan (1998-2003) and Perspective Plan (1998-2013) has projected that electricity demand will grow at about 7% per year up to the year 2003, and at 8-9% thereafter. To match these growth rates, very large capacity additions of some 55,000 MW will have to be made over the next 25 years.

Indigenous Energy Resources: At present Pakistan imports about 80% of the oil it consumes. These imports amount to one third of the country's total commercial energy use. This energy import dependence of Pakistan, in spite of its very low level of per capita energy consumption, is a result of its relatively poor fossil fuel reserves. Total proven fossil fuel reserves are 2086 Mtoe, comprising 363 Mtoe of gas, 34 Mtoe of oil and 1689 Mtoe of coal.

Natural gas at present supports about 25% of the power generation capacity. Additional gas commitments for power generation can only be made if new large gas fields are discovered. The largest

fossil fuel resource is the Thar coalfield in Sind province, with estimated measured, indicated, inferred and hypothetical resources of over 175,000 million tonnes. Although, these resources have yet to be investigated in detail for their reserve estimates, mineability and quality of coal, they offer a large potential for future power generation. There is also some 30,000-40,000 MW of hydropower potential, but only 15% of this potential has been exploited so far, while another 1,634 MW of hydro capacity (Ghazi, Barotha and Chashma) is under construction. Future development of hydropower is, however, constrained by a combination of techno-economic, environmental and socio-political factors.

Nuclear power technology was introduced in Pakistan by building a 137 MW CANDU-type plant in 1971. The second nuclear power plant, a 325 MW PWR unit at Chashma, has recently been completed and connected to the national grid, and will shortly start commercial operation. Nuclear power has always had a great potential in Pakistan, but this potential has remained largely untapped due to financial difficulties and a lack of adequate technical capabilities. If technical and financial support is available, nuclear power can play a more significant role in the coming decades.

Policy Guidelines for the Medium- to Long-Term Development of the Power Sector: The power sector in Pakistan, like other countries, is undergoing restructuring. Independent power producers were introduced in the early 1990s, and the public utility is being unbundled. It has been decided that all future plants will be built by the private sector, with two exceptions: large hydropower plants and, although they have not been specifically mentioned in government policies, nuclear power plants. For the medium term all capacity additions will be based on indigenous coal and hydropower. Imports of natural gas are also being planned, a portion of which will be allocated to the power sector, partly for fuel-switching at existing oil-fired power plants and partly for new combined cycle gas-fired plants. A modest nuclear power programme will also be pursued in the public sector.

Baseline Electricity Scenario: Consistent with formal policy guidelines, the principal possible supply options are hydropower, indigenous coal, imported gas and nuclear. Because all these options have fuel supply or capacity addition limits, oil-fired power plants are also included as a possible option to fill future gaps between demand and supply.

The baseline electricity projection in Table 8 includes the introduction of advanced high-efficiency technologies. Specifically, an advanced steam cycle technology for coal-based plants with a 40% efficiency (compared to 37% for conventional coal plants) is assumed to be available in Pakistan after 2010, as are high-efficiency (55%) combined cycle plants.

Fuel prices for oil, gas, coal and uranium are assumed to remain constant in real terms over the planning horizon. The capital cost assumptions for various technologies are derived from historical experience in the country and the latest information available on experience in other countries. An interest/discount rate of 10% has been used for this analysis. All technological options considered for future expansion are assumed to satisfy Pakistan's current National Environmental Quality Standards (NEQS) for particulates, SO₂ and NO_x emissions.

Using these assumptions and the government's policy guidelines, a least-cost expansion plan for electricity generation was developed using WASP-IV. The total power capacity additions required over the next 25 years are on the order of 55,000 MW. The capacity additions of various technologies are shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Baseline Electricity Generation Capacity Mix (MW)

Year	2000	2005	2010	2015	2020	2025
Hydro	4,884	6,518	8,518	12,878	15,662	16,502
Coal	162	150	1,350	3,150	12,150	16,150
Oil	6,400	6,356	6,356	8,270	12,534	27,464
Gas	5,333	7,140	10,161	13,148	11,704	11,494

Nuclear	137	462	462	325	325	325
Total	16,916	20,626	26,847	37,771	52,375	71,935

Under conservative cost assumptions for nuclear power plants (US \$ 2000/kW capital cost, seven-year construction period and no increases in the prices of alternative fuels) they are not part of the least-cost expansion plan. However, for an overnight capital cost of about US \$ 1800/kW, and a construction period of six years, nuclear units would become part of the least-cost solution.

Baseline Project – Coal: A large amount of coal-fired capacity is part of the least-cost expansion plan that is shown in Table 8. In assessing nuclear power as a CDM option, we therefore use as a baseline alternative a 600 MW coal-fired unit with the characteristics shown in Table 9.

Additionality – Nuclear: Nuclear power technology offers long-term measurable GHG reductions if it can replace technologies, like coal, that emit GHGs. As shown in Table 9, assuming a discount rate of 10% and a capacity factor of 70%, replacing a 600 MW coal-fired unit with a nuclear power plant avoids about 0.9 million tonnes of carbon (MtC) annually (3.6 MtCO₂) at a cost of US \$26.4/tC. GHG mitigation based on an alternative option, wind, would cost US \$89.3/tC equivalent.

Nuclear power satisfies financial additionality given that, absent CDM, the coal baseline project shown in Table 9 would be the economically preferred alternative. A simplified financial analysis shows that to recoup the cost differential between nuclear power and the coal baseline in only 15 years, instead of 30, would require selling CO₂ credits at US \$33/tC, instead of the US \$26.4/tC shown above and in Table 9. This price compares very favourably with the estimated marginal costs of GHG emission reductions in many Annex I countries, which range from about US \$120 to 580/tC assuming only domestic measures are available for meeting Kyoto commitments.

Concluding Remarks: This case study has shown that nuclear power is a cost-effective CDM option for Pakistan. Nuclear power satisfies the CDM’s additionality criterion, as new coal-fired plants will be built instead of nuclear power in the absence of CDM, and a nuclear plant would reduce GHG emissions 0.89 MtC/yr relative to a 600 MW coal-fired baseline alternative. Nuclear power would provide additional tangible environmental benefits through reductions in SO₂, NO_x, particulates, and other emissions. Further benefits of using this technology in Pakistan include securing a reliable supply of electricity and enhancing the technological capabilities of the country. All these will add to Pakistan’s sustainable socio-economic development.

Table 9: Comparison of baseline and CDM project technologies – Pakistan

Characteristics: Pakistan	Units	Baseline Coal	CDM Nuclear	CDM Wind
Technical				
Plant lifetime	year	30	30	20
Net capacity	MWe	600	600	14
Load factor	%	70	70	26
Net efficiency	% (LHV)	37	33	100
Sulfur abatement (SO ₂)	%	60	-	-
Nitrogen oxide abatement (NO _x)	%	40	-	-
Particulate abatement	%	99.5	-	-
Economics				
Investment costs	US\$/kWe	1,250	2,000	1,100
Interest during construction	US\$/kWe	232	703	97
Total capital investment ¹⁾	Million US \$	889	1,622	1,934
Localization rate	%	25	20	20
Real discount rate	%	10	10	10
Fix O&M costs	US\$/kWe.yr	24	33.96	25.92
Variable O&M	US\$/MWh	3.50	0.56	
Fuel purchase costs	\$/GJ	1.89	0.458	0
Total levelized generating costs	mills/kWh	51.48	57.85	73.11
Emissions & Wastes				
Ash	g/kWh	69.3	-	-
Sludge from abatement	g/kWh	n.a.	-	-
I & L level radioactive waste ²⁾	g/kWh		0.0652	-
High level radioactive waste	g/kWh		0.0046	-
Heavy metals	g/kWh	n.a.	-	-
Particulates	g/kWh	0.4	-	-
Sulfur dioxide SO ₂	g/kWh	7.6	-	-
Nitrogen oxides NO _x	g/kWh	3.7	-	-
Carbon monoxide CO	g/kWh	n.a.	-	-
Methane	g/kWh	0.01	-	-
Nitrous oxide N ₂ O	g/kWh	0.014	-	-
Carbon dioxide CO ₂	g/kWh	237	-	-
Total GHG emissions	g C/kWh equiv.	242	0	0
GHG abated	g C/kWh equiv.		242	242
Total GHG emissions	Mt C / year	0.89	0.00	0.00
Total annual GHG reductions	Mt C / year		0.89	0.89
Mitigation Costs based on levelized generating costs				
Incremental generating costs	mills/kWh	0	6.38	21.63
Mitigation costs (generation)	US\$/t C		26.3	89.4
Mitigation costs (generation)	US\$/t CO ₂		7.2	24.4
Mitigation Costs based on levelized capital costs				
Incremental capital costs	Million US \$	0	733	1,044
Mitigation costs (capital)	US\$/t C		87.3	137.8
Mitigation costs (capital)	US\$/t CO ₂		23.8	37.6

¹⁾ Total plant capital investment including interest during construction

²⁾ Intermediate and low-level radioactive waste.