

EMERGING SUSTAINABLE TECHNOLOGIES

EDITION 2023



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FROM CLIMATE SCIENCE TO CLIMATE ENGINEERING

Scientists ask the question “what?” and they’ve done a very good job of modelling the climate and pointing out likely scenarios, stated John Anderson, the president of the US National Academy of Engineering’ in an interview in September 2022 (Engineering the Transition to Net-Zero Carbon Emissions | National Academies).

Engineers differ in that they ask the question “how?” Now that we know what the goals are, we have to ask how we can achieve those goals – by what paths can we attain the net-zero carbon emission economy?’, he asked.

The storm is coming, and the time for action is now.

The latest IPCC WGIII report, published in spring 2022, leaves no scientific doubt that the current climate change is man-induced. The sense of urgency increased further over the summer 2022 due to more extreme weather events such as wildfires and floods worldwide, and an exceptionally severe drought in Europe. The challenge lies not so much in developing technologies from scratch as in upscaling what already exists in labs at universities, research centres, start-ups and companies. The ‘industrialisation’ of those technologies poses a great challenge: just showing that a technology works in the lab or small pilot is not sufficiently convincing for a company to take up the technology and deploy it massively.

In many cases, there is a significant ‘business gap’ making the technology unattractive to companies due to the associated high financial risk. But it is not unthinkable that society, due to this heightened sense of urgency, will at some point no longer tolerate the ‘excuse’ of this business gap and force the large-scale deployment of the necessary technologies, despite the financial risks.

This could become the case in particular for sectors like aviation, shipping, the steel and cement industries, long distance transport of (renewable) energy and long-term storage of (renewable) energy. These sectors account for roughly one third of our energy needs. Significant thermodynamic constraints need to be addressed in the search for solutions. But even if we cut emissions now, extreme events – such as floods, droughts, tornadoes and Arctic ice loss – are not going to disappear in the coming years, or even decades. So we will need to adapt whilst continuing to develop at the same time further the many climate actions that we have already identified to reach our objective of a net zero carbon society.

In addition, we need to consider efforts on climate engineering, and have an open and scientific discussion about the risks and benefits of this approach which are not yet fully understood. Our decision to include the (sometimes) taboo topic of geo-engineering in this document is meant as a contribution to that discussion. The topic should absolutely not be considered as a way forward to continue using fossil fuels in future. Afforestation and reforestation, for example, show great potential but, although less controversial than some other ideas, they still need to be carefully evaluated with respect to their impact on the local environment. This also goes for several other climate engineering technologies that seem promising but need to be carefully examined as to their long-term impacts. To be clear, climate engineering should never be seen as a “silver bullet”, a single quick solution to the planet’s problems and certainly not as an excuse to continue our fossil fuel based economy. But as society pushes forward with the fight against climate change, we may have to consider it as a potential solution– and one that may become necessary to reach our climate targets. This is why we need this discussion.

ENGIE, a leader in the world’s energy transition, promotes in-depth collaboration across all sectors and countries, and between companies and industries, to tackle the problems we jointly face and to implement solutions. The challenge ahead is too large for one company, one industry, one country, even one continent, alone. We wrote this document in the hope of inspiring everyone who wants to be part of this transition. It is, in short, a call for global collaboration across all boundaries.

Jan Mertens,

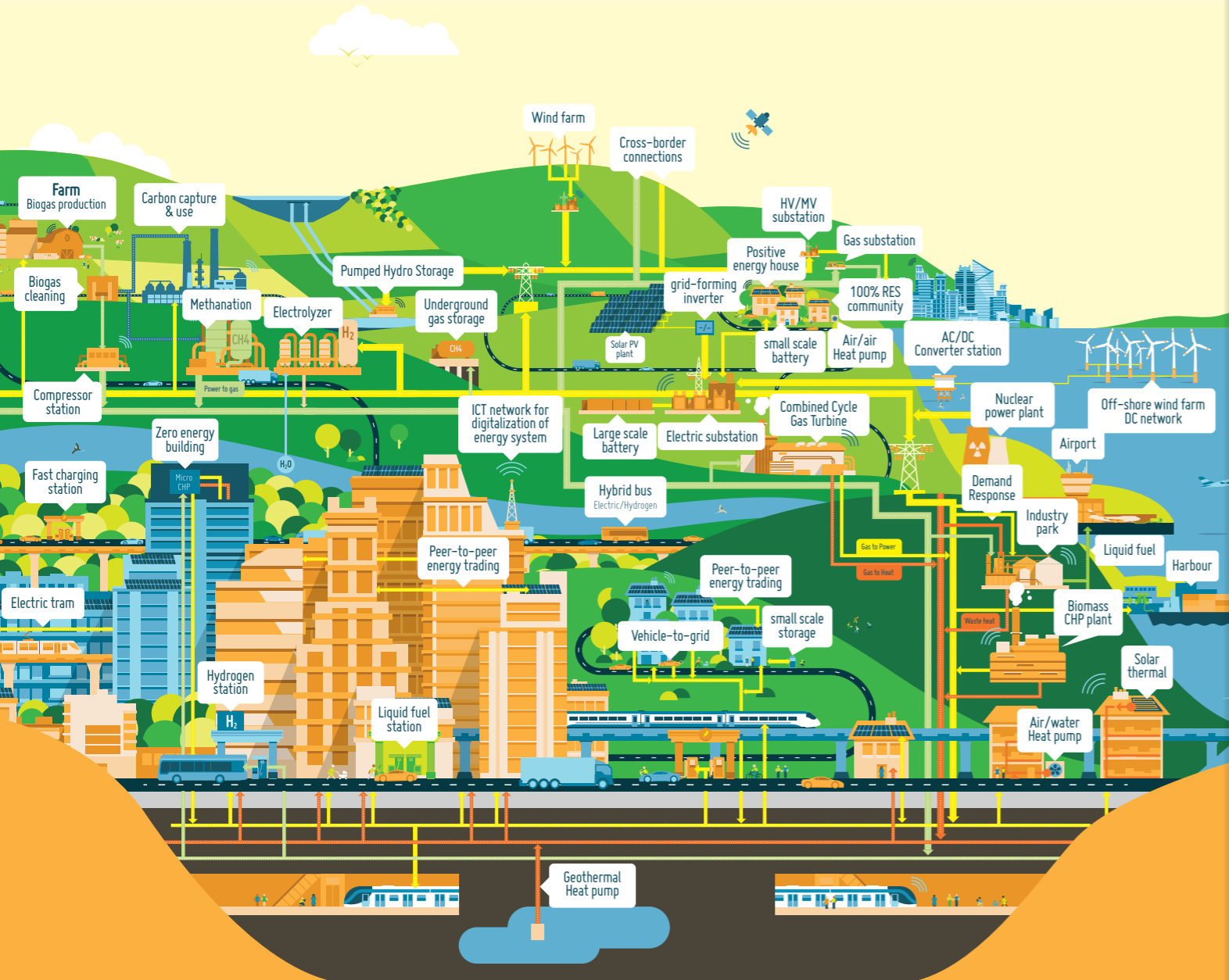
Chief Science Officer ENGIE, Professor at Ghent University

INTRODUCTION

The Energy Transition: an integrated system of systems.

The success of any carbon neutral energy transition requires orchestrating a complex network of different technologies that will all be integrated. In all this, energy efficiency and circularity will remain important, and more thought must be given to how the waste of one industry can serve as input for another. This industrial symbiosis will not only require technical solutions but also non-technical ones such as regulatory frameworks. Biogas is an interesting example of circular thinking, especially using biowaste as a feedstock. No doubt electricity will play a crucial role and a much bigger one than today. It will be integrated not only from a demand-side management point of view: ie. matching consumption with production but it will also be closely linked to the gas grid and vice versa. Molecules, made either from biomass or from renewable electricity, will be required not only for long term renewable energy storage and transport but also for some hard to abate industries (cement, steel, glass,...) and heavy mobility (shipping, aviation,...).

The complex integration of all these technologies and their orchestration is nicely depicted in the ETIP SNET VISION 2050 figure. It shows that major investments for the large-scale deployment of energy conversion and storage devices, the upgrade and extension of the energy networks, and the use of digital solutions will be crucial. In the animated version of ETIP SNET graphic, we positioned our selection of emerging sustainable trends and technologies presented in this document. This reminds us that what we present here in this document is just a (small) part of the entire network of integrated technologies. This interconnection and industrial symbiosis including the connection between electricity and molecules, a concept which we called 'CirculAir' fuels, is explained here in detail.



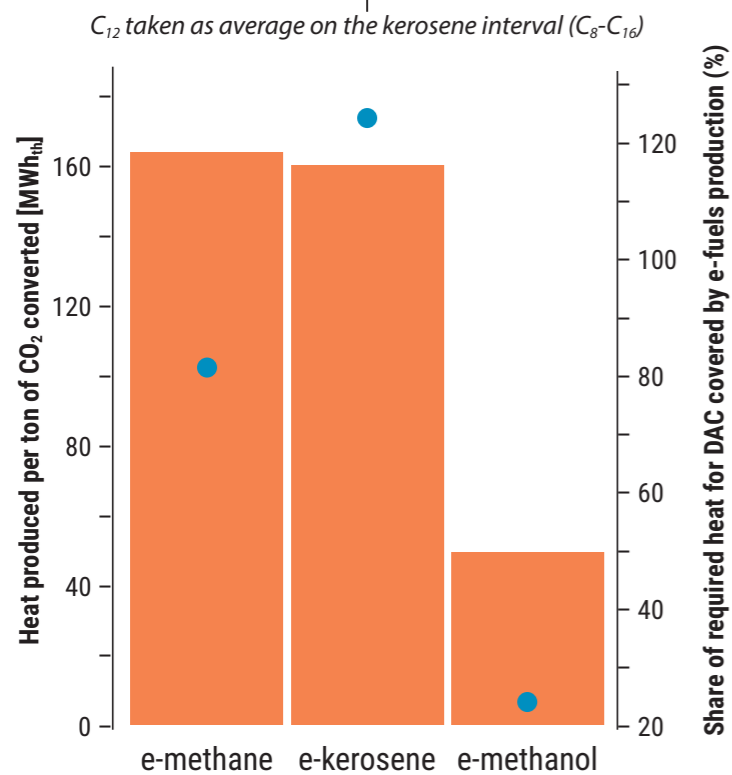
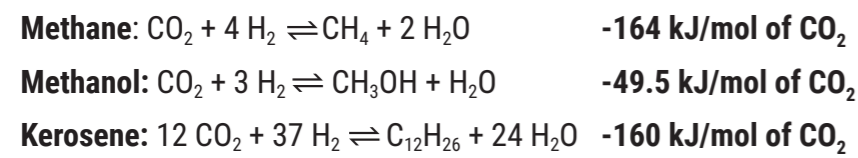
CirculAIR fuels: converting low-carbon electricity to e-fuels in a fully circular manner!

The reaction between CO₂ and H₂ towards e-fuels yields water which can be used to produce H₂. It also produces heat which can be used to capture the CO₂ from the air.



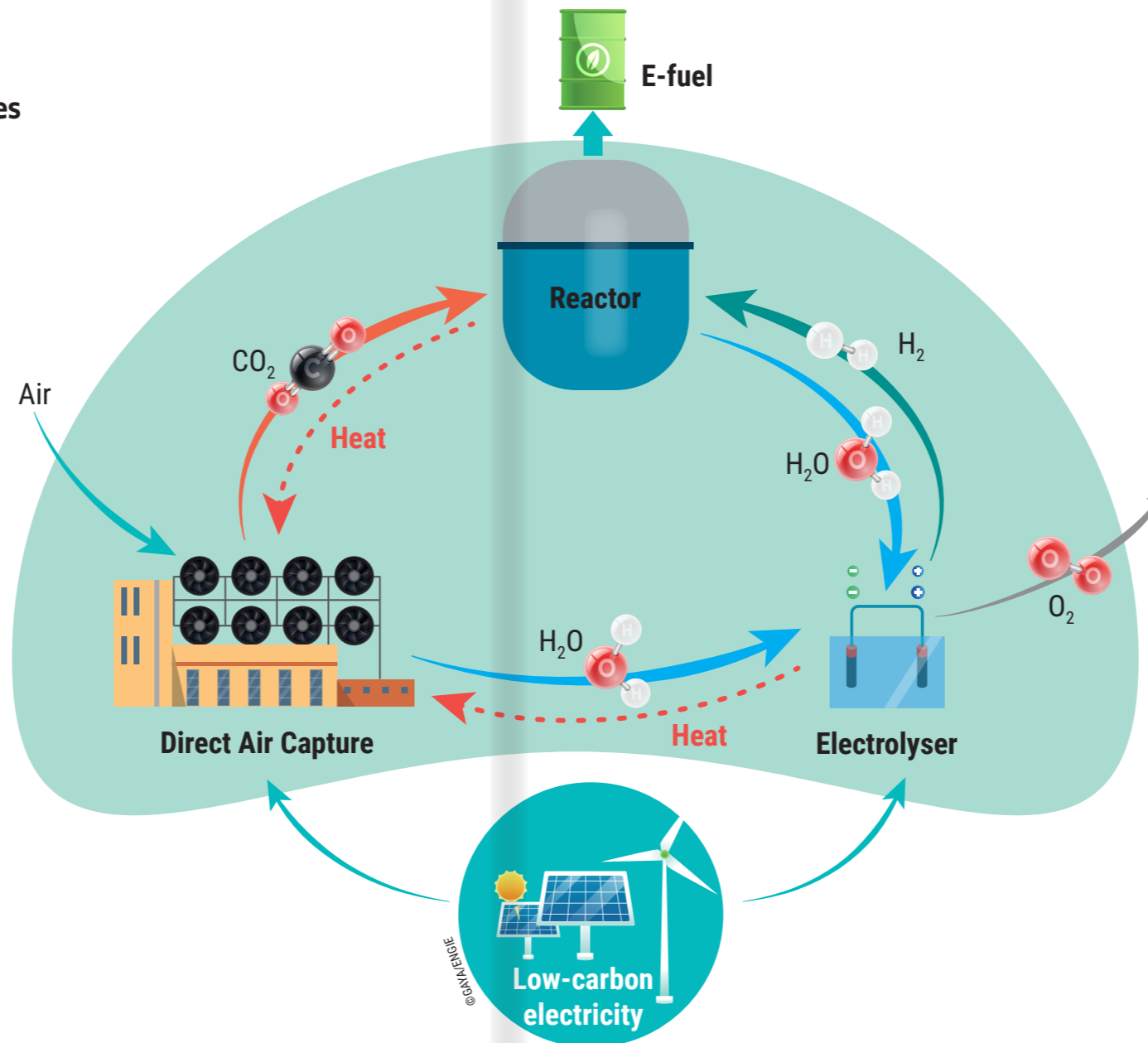
The heat available from the e-fuels synthesis together with heat recovered from the water electrolysis suffices to run the Direct Air Capture (DAC).

E-fuels synthesis is exothermic, producing heat (and water).



● The dot represents the share of heat required for DAC that is covered by the e-fuels production

Share of required heat for DAC covered by e-fuels production (%).

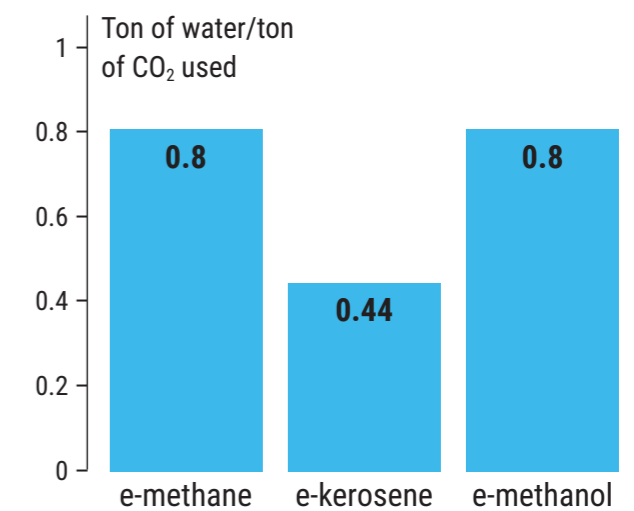
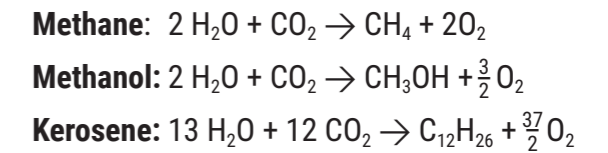


| E-fuels synthesis is exothermic, producing heat (and water). |



The water available from the e-fuels synthesis together with water recovery from DAC suffices to run the water electrolysis for H₂ production.

Despite water production during e-fuels production, the overall water balance is negative due to water required to produce H₂:



Amount of water needed per ton of CO₂ used to produce different e-fuels (in ton water).

What are the advantages of converting low-carbon electricity to e-fuels in a fully circular manner?

First of all, low-temperature DAC solutions can today capture, depending on the climatic conditions, between 0.8 and 2 tons of water ^[1-2-3] per ton of CO₂.

In addition, comparing this to the water requirements (see figure above) shows that there is enough water that can be harvested from the air for the e-fuels production. If required, more water could be harvested from the e-fuel synthesis.

Particularly in arid areas, this is very relevant since access to clean water will be an appealing co-benefit from the pathway to a Power-to-X economy.



What are the challenges to meet circularity?

Much research as well as business challenges remain to be investigated:

- possibility of a slight rise in temperature of the water electrolysis,
- co-capture of water and CO₂ from DAC,
- water recovery and required purity.

Identifying the best process to produce e-fuels: biological versus catalytic methanation of CO₂ and H₂ into e-fuels, co-electrolysis of water of CO₂ into e-fuels...

In term of economics, we need to compare the cost of the CO₂ from DAC versus seawater versus biogenic. The cost of renewable electricity and access to abundant cheap renewable electricity are key as well. Finally, from a market point of view which e-fuel is best suited to which application.

This report focus on technologies emerging currently that could be part of this new system.

Solar space power

Natural-Based Solutions

Turquoise Hydrogen

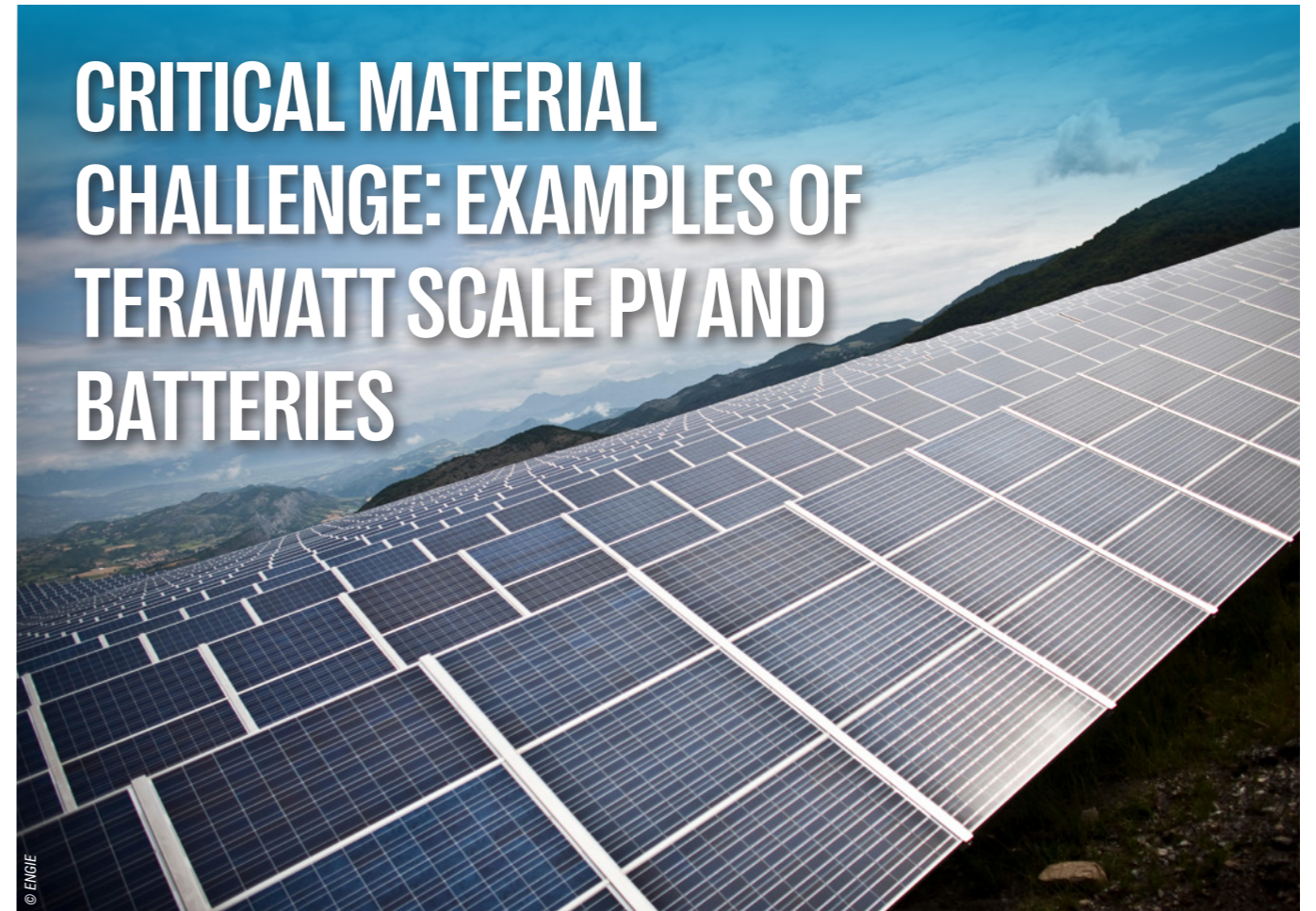
Solar fuels

Geoengineering

Critical material

1

EMERGING TRENDS



CRITICAL MATERIAL CHALLENGE: EXAMPLES OF TERAWATT SCALE PV AND BATTERIES

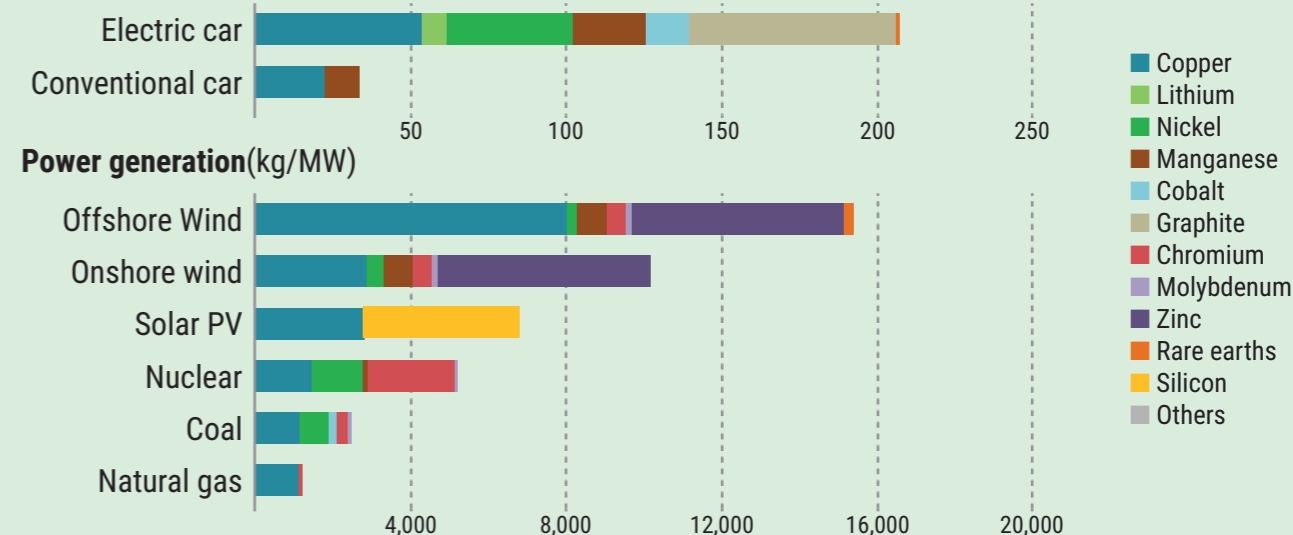


The energy and mobility transition is metal intensive and faces sustainability challenges. Exponential increase of renewables raises critical material issues.



| 2022 Solar power reaches 1 TW milestone. ^[1] |

Transport (kg/vehicle)

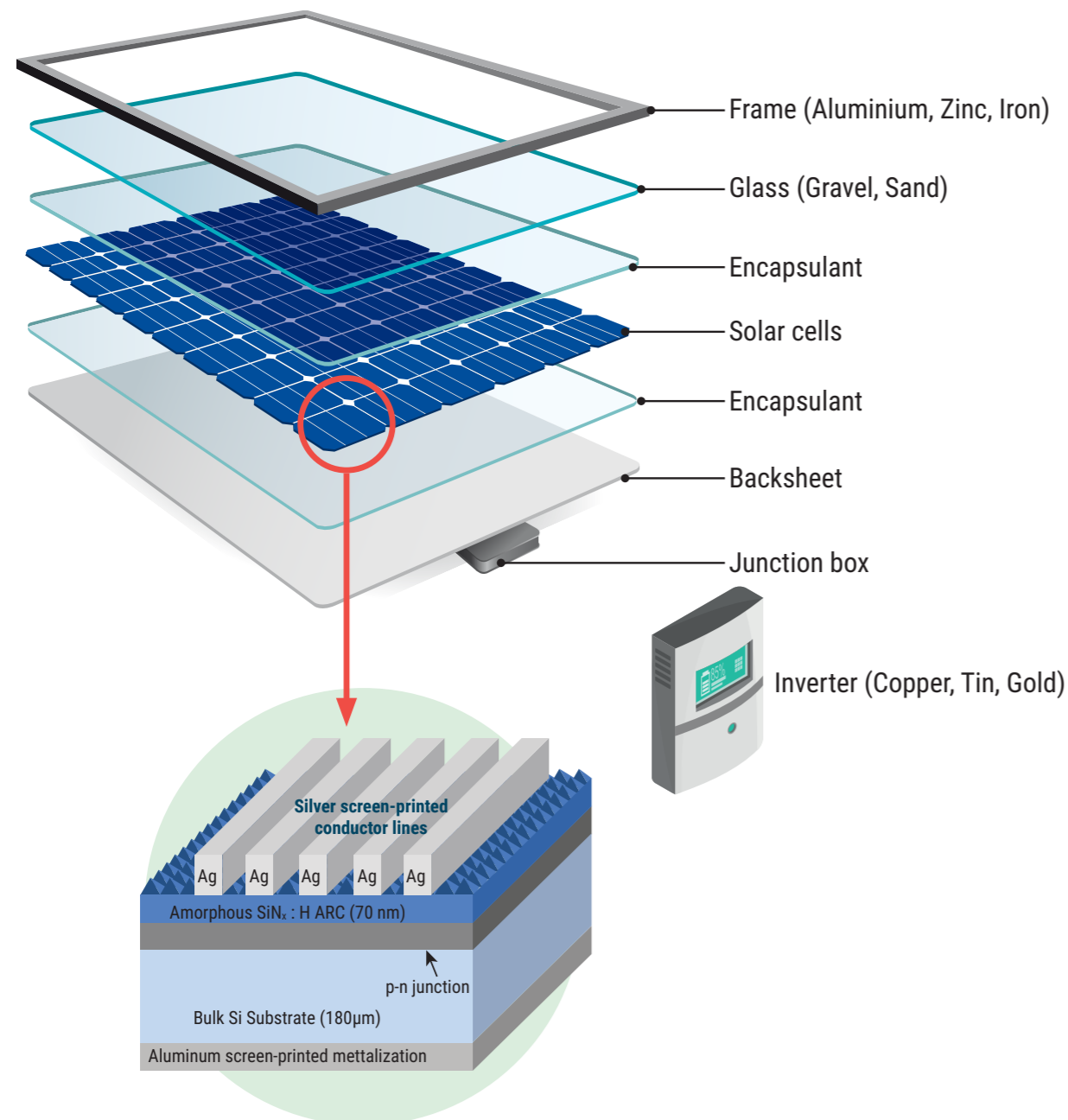


Notes: kg = kilogramme; MW = megawatt. Steel and aluminium not included.

| Minerals used in selected clean energy technologies. ^[2] |

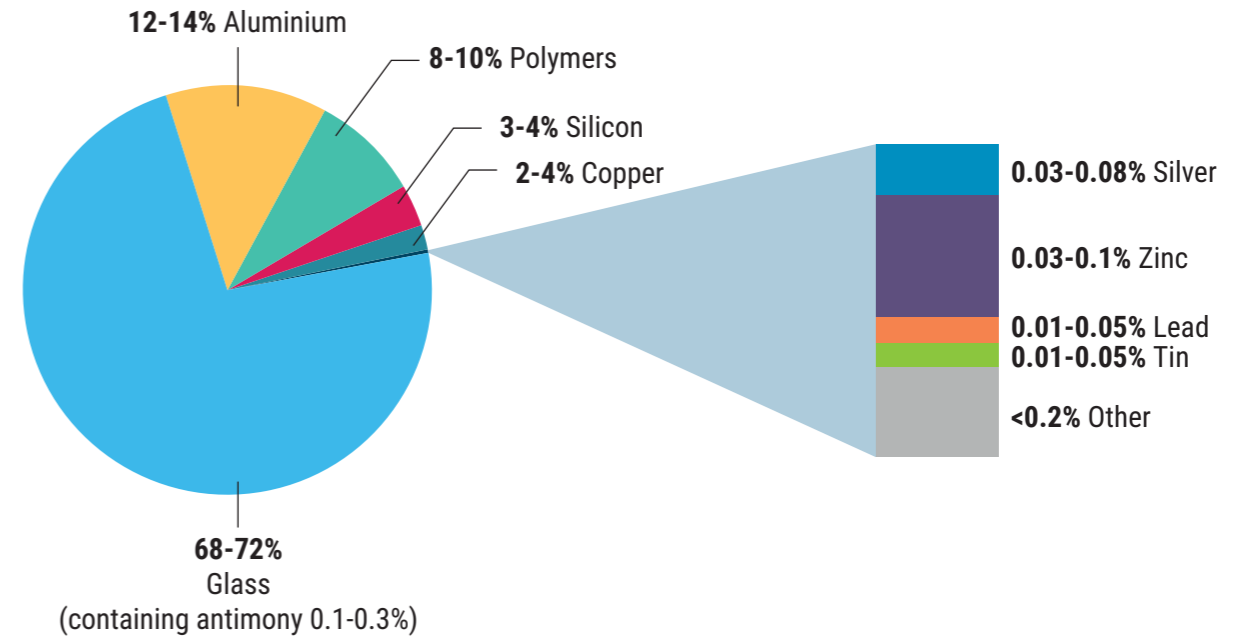
What is inside photovoltaic panels?

PV panels mainly rely on the Crystalline Silicon (c-Si) technology. This technology represents around 95% of the market share and is expected to stay the dominant technology in the near future in addition to more emerging ones such as: Cadmium Telluride (CdTe), Copper Indium Gallium Selenide (CIGS), and Perovskite. [3]



| The structure of c-Si solar module: most minerals are used to produce PV cells. [4-5] |

C-Si cells dominate the PV market and glass is the main processed material in terms of weight, while polysilicon and silver are most important in terms of value.

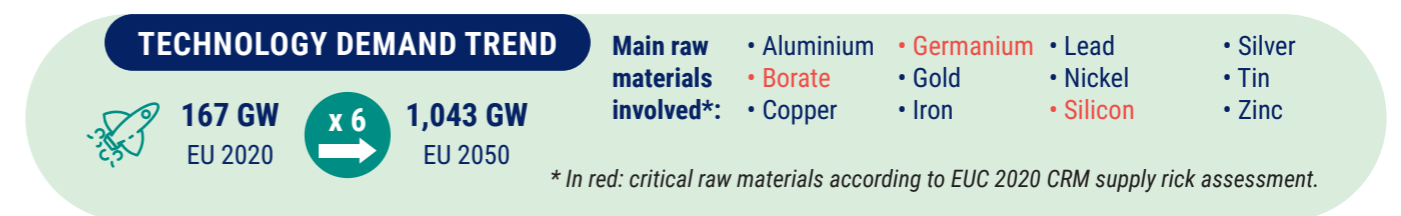


| Typical weighted composition of a c-Si PV module – PERC technology. [6] |

Environmental footprints were reduced by 60-75% since 2011*. [7]

Impact category	Value	Unit	Change since 2011
GHC emissions	42.5	gCO ₂ -eq	-60%
Fossil fuels	0.54	MJ	-55%
Particulate matter	3.63	10 ⁻⁹ disease incidences	-69%
Acidification	0.36	mmol H ⁺ -eq	-63%
Water scarcity	7.49	L water-eq	-75%

| The Life-cycle environmental impacts of 1 kWh AC electricity. [7] |

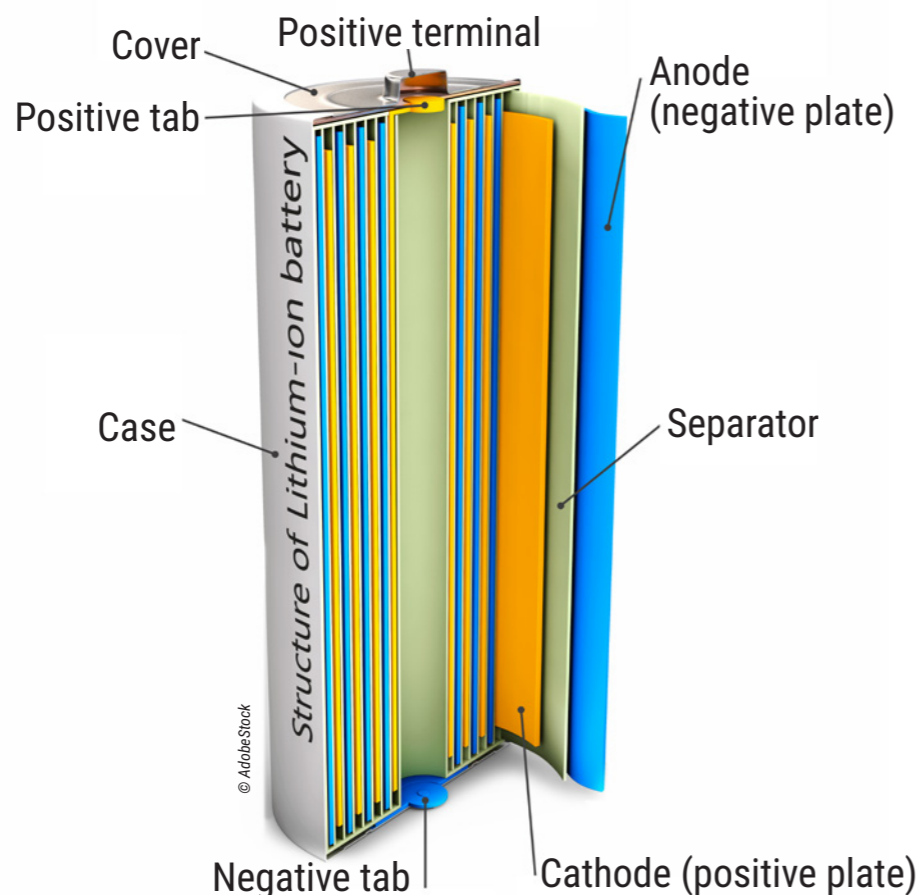


Source [8-9]

*The assessment was based on data from 2017-2019 with a module efficiency of 19.5, an average European annual yield of 975 kWh/kWp, assuming 0.7%/yr linear degradation rate, 30 year lifetime for the panel and 15 year for the inverter. [6]

What is inside a Li-ion battery?

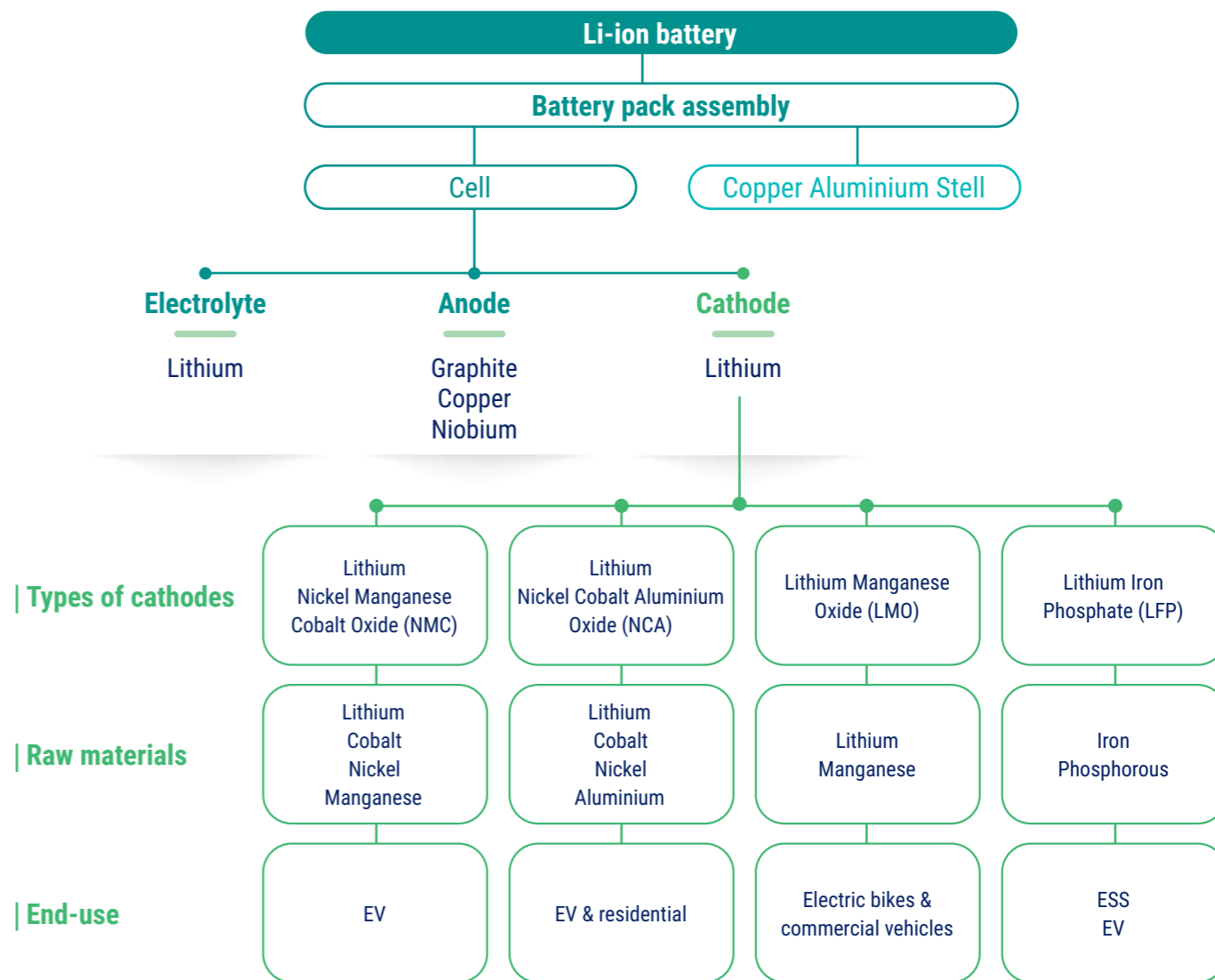
The Li-ion battery is the most versatile battery, continuously evolving, aiming at ever-higher performance while mitigating safety issues and critical material issues.



| Lithium Cell Structure. |

A Li-ion battery is composed of an anode a cathode and a separator in an electrolyte. Different kinds of cathode exist, which allow a different energy density, lifetime, thermal stability and specific power performance for the battery. Hence they are used in different applications.

Cathodes contain most critical materials Lithium, Cobalt and Nickel in different proportions.



| Diagram showing different raw materials involved in Li-ion battery. Inspired by [8] |

TECHNOLOGY DEMAND TREND



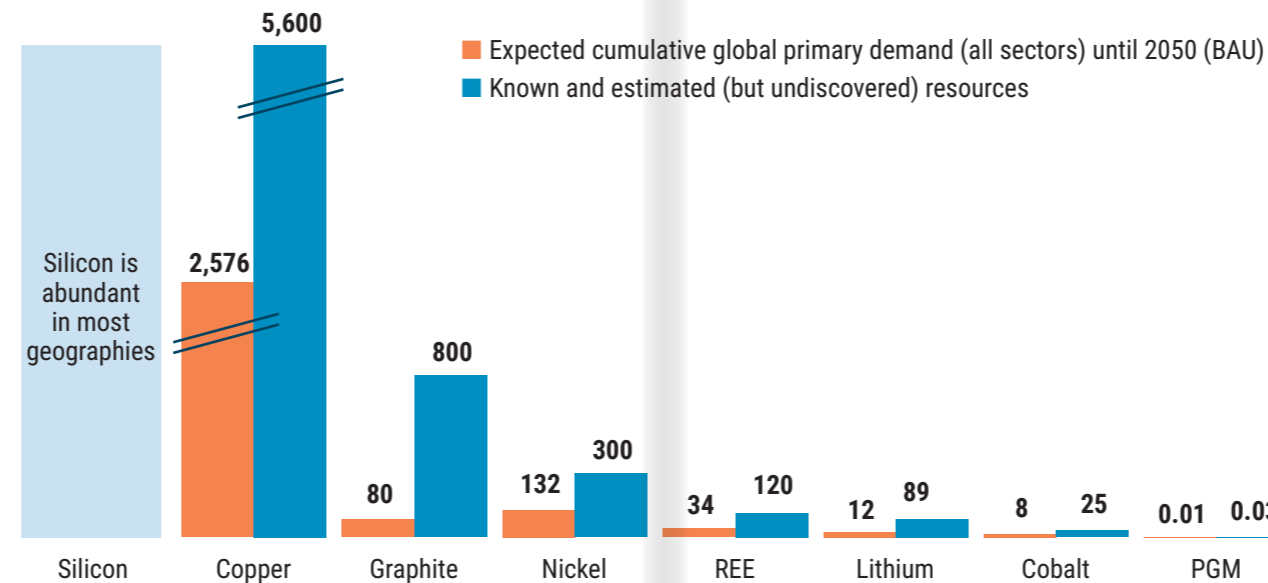
19 GWh EU 2020 **x 37** 700 GWh EU 2050

- Main raw materials involved*:**
- Bauxite
 - Cobalt
 - Copper
 - Fluospar
 - Iron ore
 - Lithium
 - Manganese
 - Natural graphite
 - Nickel
 - Niobium
 - Phosphorus
 - Silicon metal
 - Titanium

* In red: critical raw materials according to EUC 2020 CRM supply risk assessment.

Source [8-9]

Renewable energy solutions rely on metals that are plentiful in earth's crust but bottlenecks might arise from geographical concentration, lack of mining capacity, company concentration as well as geopolitical, environmental and social risks.



| World resources known and undiscovered remaining resources in earth's crust, in metric megatons. [10] |



Challenges for photovoltaic panels

Raw materials

- Borates: 42% of global supply comes from Turkey, 0 % from EU.
- Germanium: 80% of the production from China.
- Indium: China is the top producer.

Processed materials

- China covers about 70% of polysilicon production capacity.
- Europe currently has 26 GW capacity of polysilicon production and it is then exported to China for further processing.
- Shortages and price volatility expected for polysilicon.

Components

- China's role is quasi-monopolistic at this stage: wafer production being the most concentrated, 97% of global capacity is in China.
- Even concentrated within China: 42% of the capacity in one single Chinese province and 14% in one single facility in 2021.
- According to building capacity planned, it is likely to remain as such.

Source [1-2-8-9]

Challenges for Li-ion battery

Raw materials

- **High geographical concentration** of extraction:
 - Niobium: 92% from Brazil,
 - Cobalt: 70% from **Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC)**,
 - Graphite: 71% from China,
 - Lithium: 50% from Australia,
 - Phosphor: 72% of EU demand from Kazakhstan).
- **Resources are sufficient but limited extraction capacity** in the mid-term (especially for Lithium).
- Lithium, Cobalt and Graphite demand is expected to be **90, 18 and 2 times current production**, respectively.

Processed materials

- 50-70% of lithium and cobalt are refined in China with Finland, Canada and Norway being the other top suppliers for cobalt.
- The EU's refining operations are placed in Finland and Belgium supplying 70% of current domestic demand (7).

Components

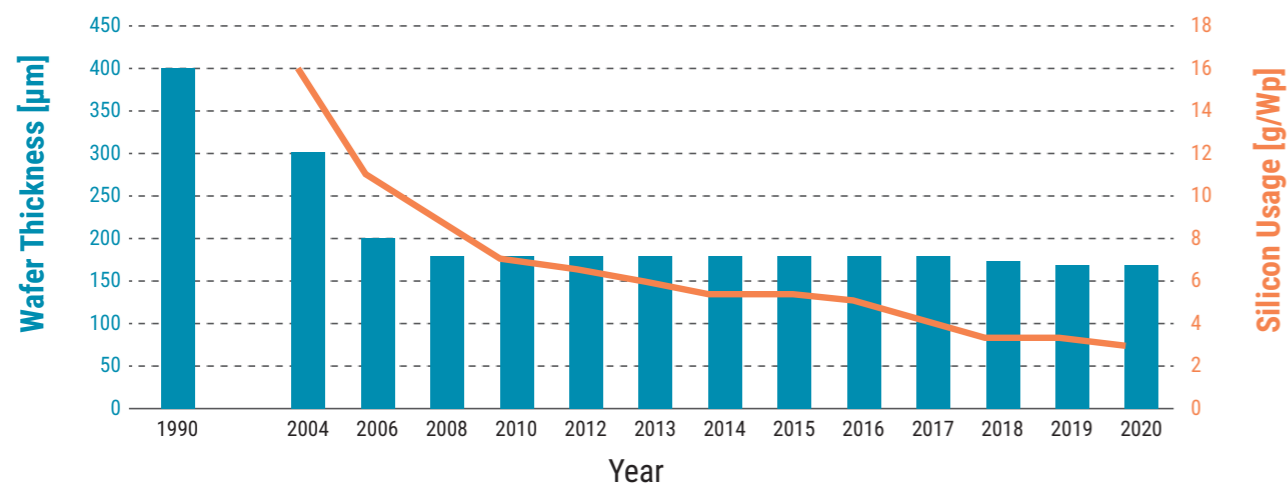
- **China** is home to 70% and 85% of cathodes and anodes production capacity respectively.
- **Korea and Japan** also play a large role.
- **Europe lacks capacity** to produce components.

Source [1-2-8-9]

However, solutions exist to mitigate the material scarcity and hence reduce the risk of shortages.

1. Reduction of material and development of improved and more sustainable design.

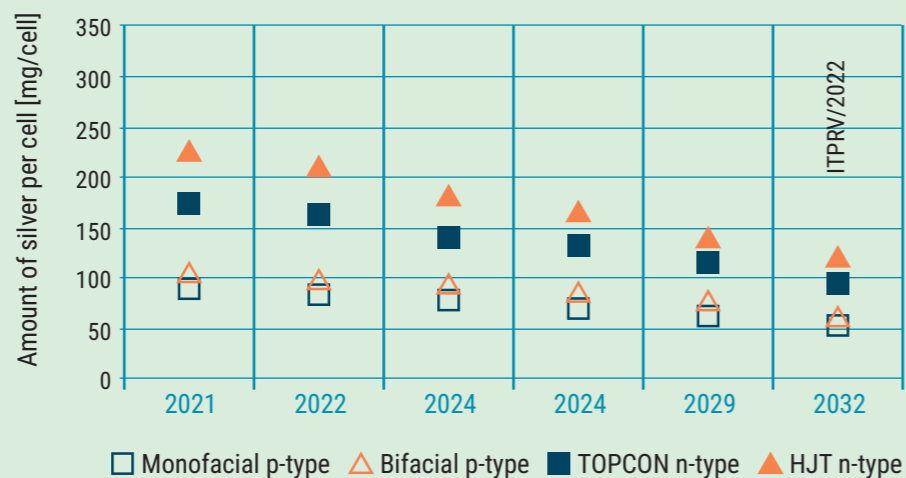
The cost and efficiency of solar panels have improved in recent years and are expected to continue to do so over the next decades. For example, wafer thickness reduction has decreased the raw materials quantity need of silicon and silver.



Wafer thickness (µm) and silicon usage (g/Wp) have drastically decreased all along the years. [3]

The silver amount per cell fell by 80% since 2008 thanks to a better metallization pastes and is expected to further decrease by 25% in 2030.

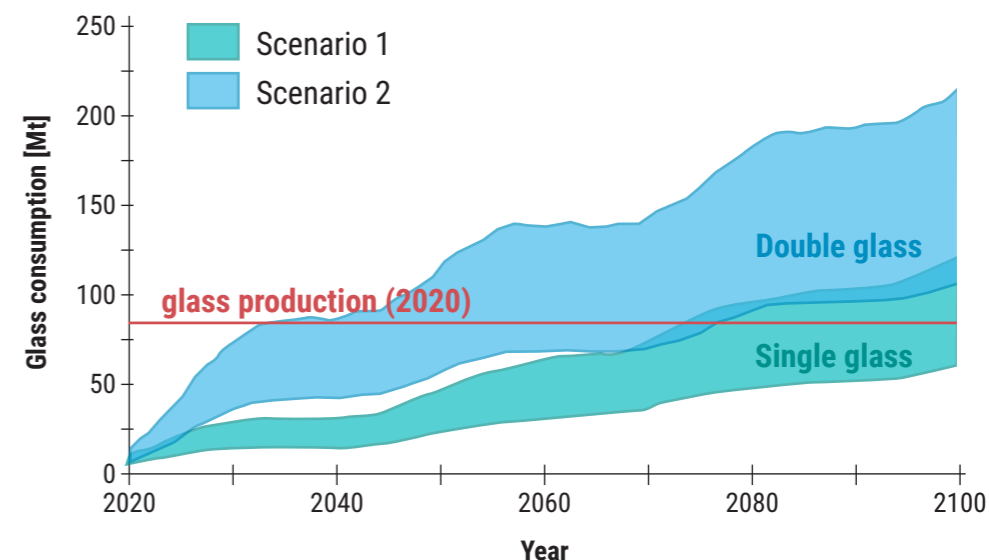
Evolution of the silver amount per cell (mg/cell). [11]



Continued technological progress at current rates would be sufficient to stay within reasonable boundaries for reaching the 20-80 TWP photovoltaics by 2050.

On the one hand, glass demand might still exceed current float glass production. Depending on whether single glass or double glass modules are assumed, current glass demand for PVs is in the same order of magnitude as current global float-glass production or significantly exceeds current production. From a resource perspective, this is probably not critical since sand reserves for glass manufacturing are abundant and widespread and glass can be also be recycled, but it certainly requires a serious expansion of production facilities within the next ten years.

On the other hand, silver consumption could be kept at current levels.



Glass consumption for PV module fabrication. [12]

(calculated with the REMIND model, scenario 1 & 2 describes favorable or not PV deployment with limiting climate change to 1.5 °C; Assumptions: system lifetime of 25 years; single glass = glass/backsheet module; double glass= glass/glass module).



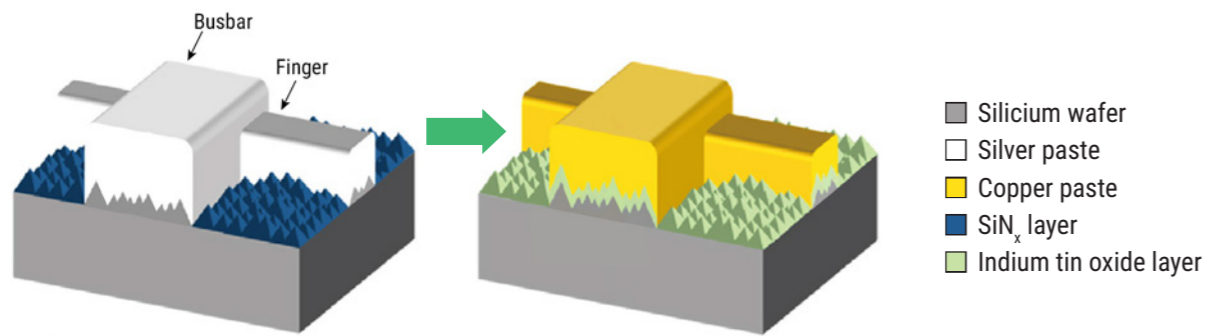
Example of eco-design. New module technology (NICE) without encapsulant, soldering and lamination allowing an increased robustness and a 100% recyclable panel. [13]



2. Materials substitution as an alternative to reduce the resource supply pressure.

Photovoltaic panels

Substitution of silver by copper would lead to direct financial savings and reduce the supplies scarcity, assuming it does not reduce efficiency. [15]

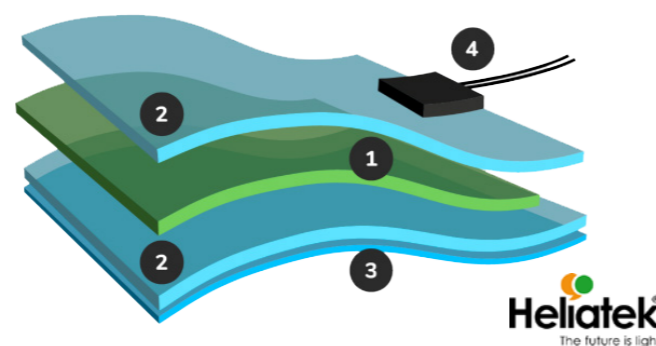


| Substitution of silver by copper during the cell metallization step. [15] |



Heliatek's lightweight PV modules on ENGIE Laborelec's building, Linkebeek, Belgium.

Organic photovoltaics (OPV) uses materials from the field of organic chemistry to convert sunlight into electrical energy.

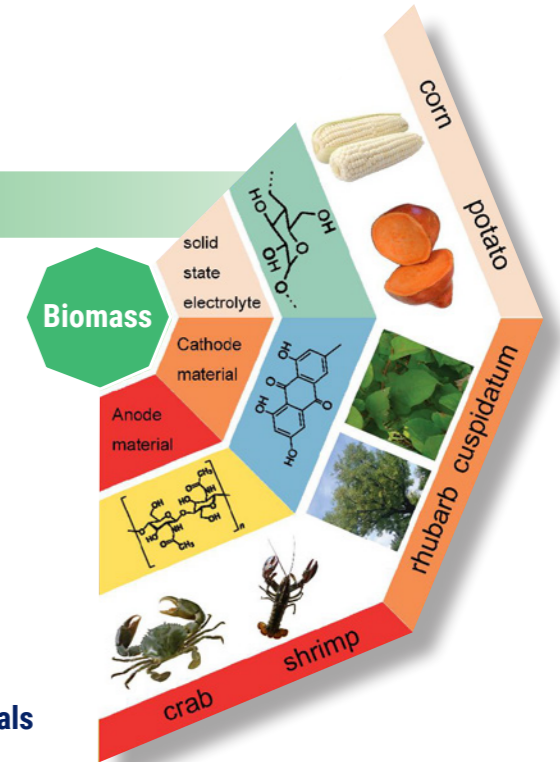


- 1 Carrier film with a vapor deposited organic stack
- 2 Encapsulation to protect the organic stack against environmental influences
- 3 Integrated backside adhesive
- 4 Junction box with cables

Source [16]

Li-ion battery

Biomass based sourcing: Biomass-derived materials that range from inorganic multi-dimensional carbons to renewable organic biomolecules or biopolymers can contribute towards "green battery" systems, serving as sustainable battery components [35]. However, large demand for them could raise environmental and ethical issues if they compete with the feed and food industry.



Biomass-based materials for green lithium secondary batteries. [17]



Use of Lithium Ferrous Phosphate (LiFePO₄ or LFP) at the cathode: Li-ion batteries and LFP batteries both fall under the class of Lithium batteries but LFP have a long life span, requiring fewer battery changes.

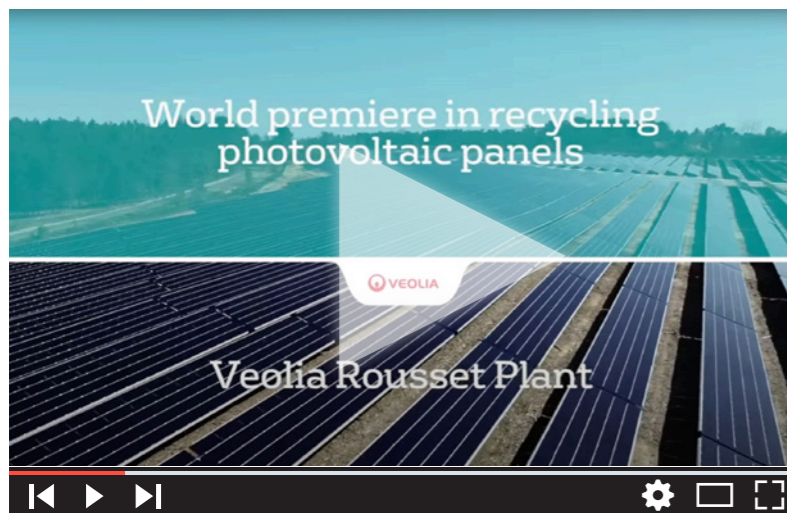
Sodium (Na)-ion battery: A sodium-ion battery is a type of rechargeable battery that uses sodium-ions as its charge carriers. This type of battery is in a developmental phase, but may prove to be a cheaper way to store energy than commonly used lithium-ion batteries. Sodium-ion batteries have been gaining attention thanks to the natural abundance and low toxicity of sodium resources. There are still energy density and safety issues.



3. Circular use of critical raw materials to reduce primary resource use and waste production.

Photovoltaic panels

Presently, most of the recycling processes achieve high recovery of glass and aluminum (around 80%), moderate recovery of copper (around 40%), but do not recover silver and high-purity silicon as it requires a costly and difficult thermal treatment to remove the polymer encapsulant. However, the following pilot project is on track:



Video explaining the new recycling plant of Veolia^[17]. They developed a plant allowing to achieve a 95% recycling efficiency with both recovery of Ag and Si. The PV recycling industry is expected to drastically grow in the future, ensuring a large economy of volume.^[18]

Li-ion battery

Recycling rates of Li-ion batteries will improve thanks to an emerging direct recycling process (does not break down but regenerates the cathode material). Lithium recycling rate as an input is close to 0 today.

Spent EV batteries still have around 80% of their usable capacity, they can be repurposed for less demanding second life applications, typically in stationary storage.

US-based Redwood Materials claims to be able to recycle 95% of the metals used in lithium ion batteries, at lower cost than virgin materials. Volkswagen USA, Toyota, Ford and Volvo are its main sources of supply^[10].



Recycling will be imposed by regulations whatever the element present.

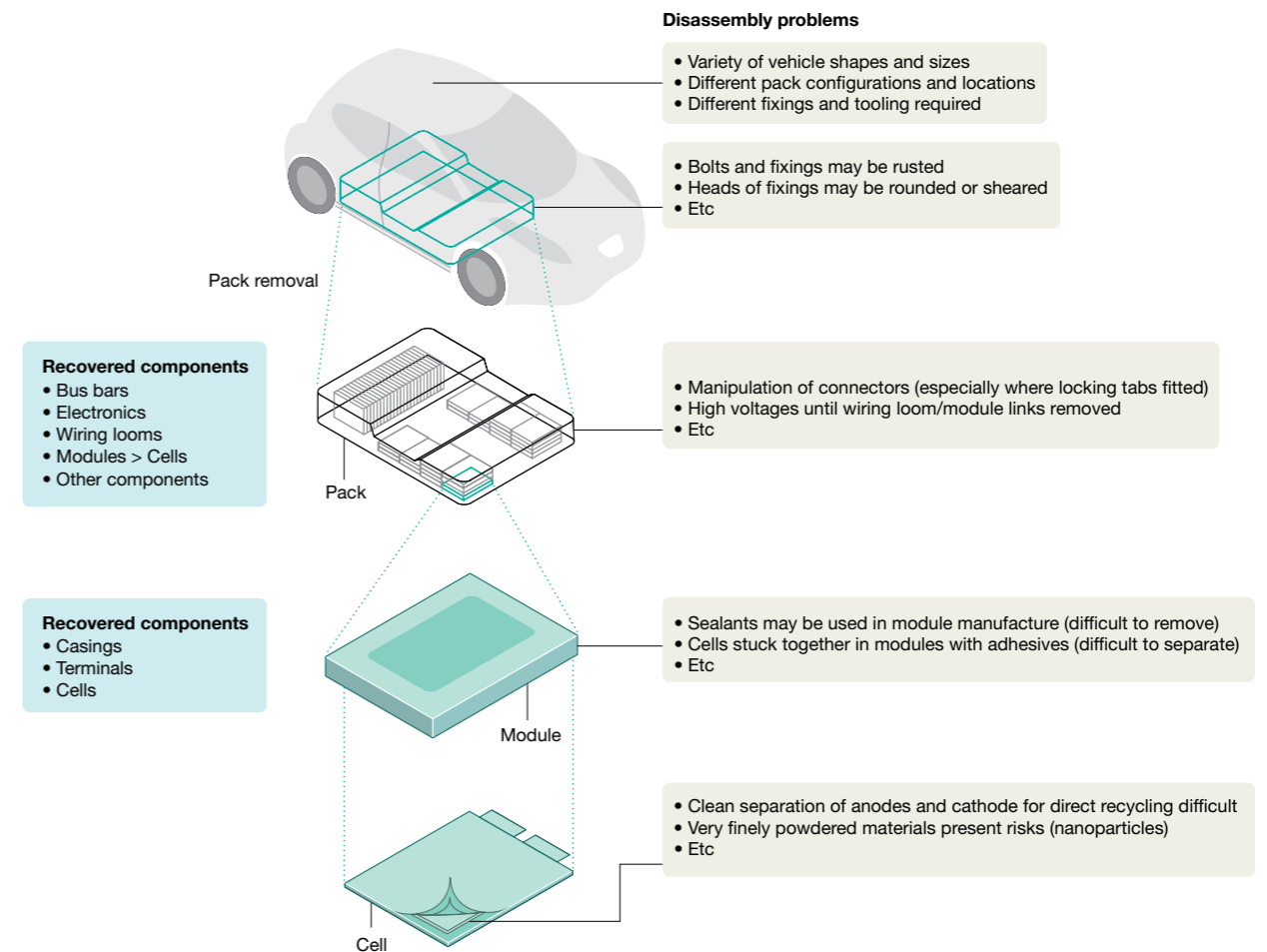
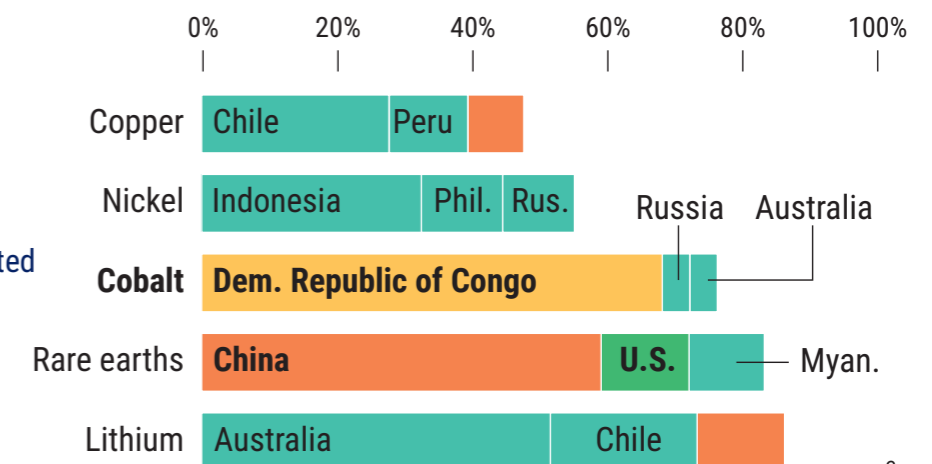


Diagram showing challenges of disassembly at different levels of scale. Inspired by [19]

4. Production of key mineral resources: toward more independence through a worldwide reflection of relocalization.

Where clean energy metals are produced
Production of key mineral resources is highly concentrated today. Charts show top three producers.



Source [20]

GEOENGINEERING FOR CLIMATE CHANGE GAINING TRACTION



© Pixabay

Climate geoengineering solutions to reach the Paris agreement temperature goals is not a taboo anymore.

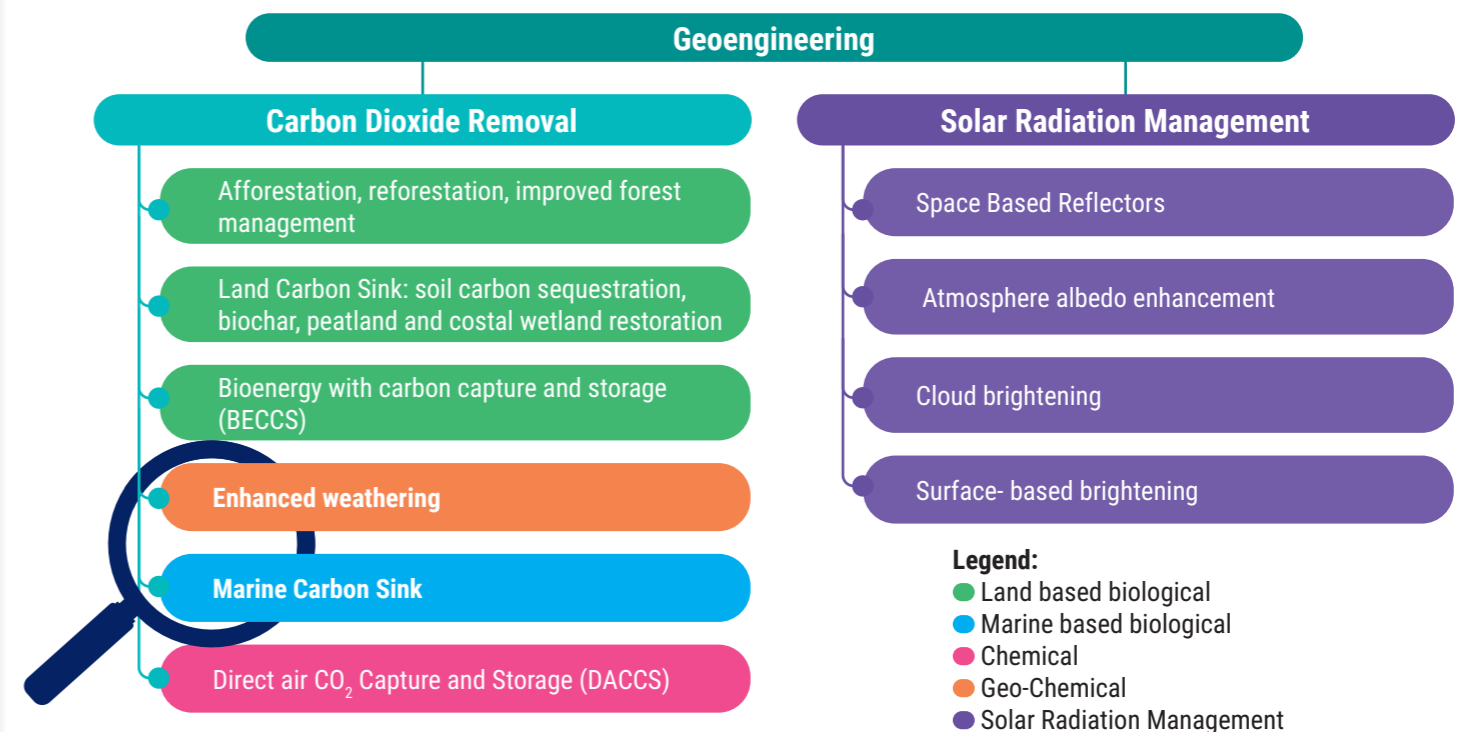
Recognition of the climate change challenge has given increased momentum to often controversial discussions about two additional possible approaches to limiting climate change:

- greenhouse gas removal from the ambient atmosphere, particularly CO₂ as the most important climate forcer called Carbon Dioxide Removal (CDR)
- intentionally reducing or reflecting solar radiation back into space to minimize global warming.

These proposed approaches have been referred to collectively under various names, including geoengineering, climate engineering, and climate interventions. ^[1-2-3-4]

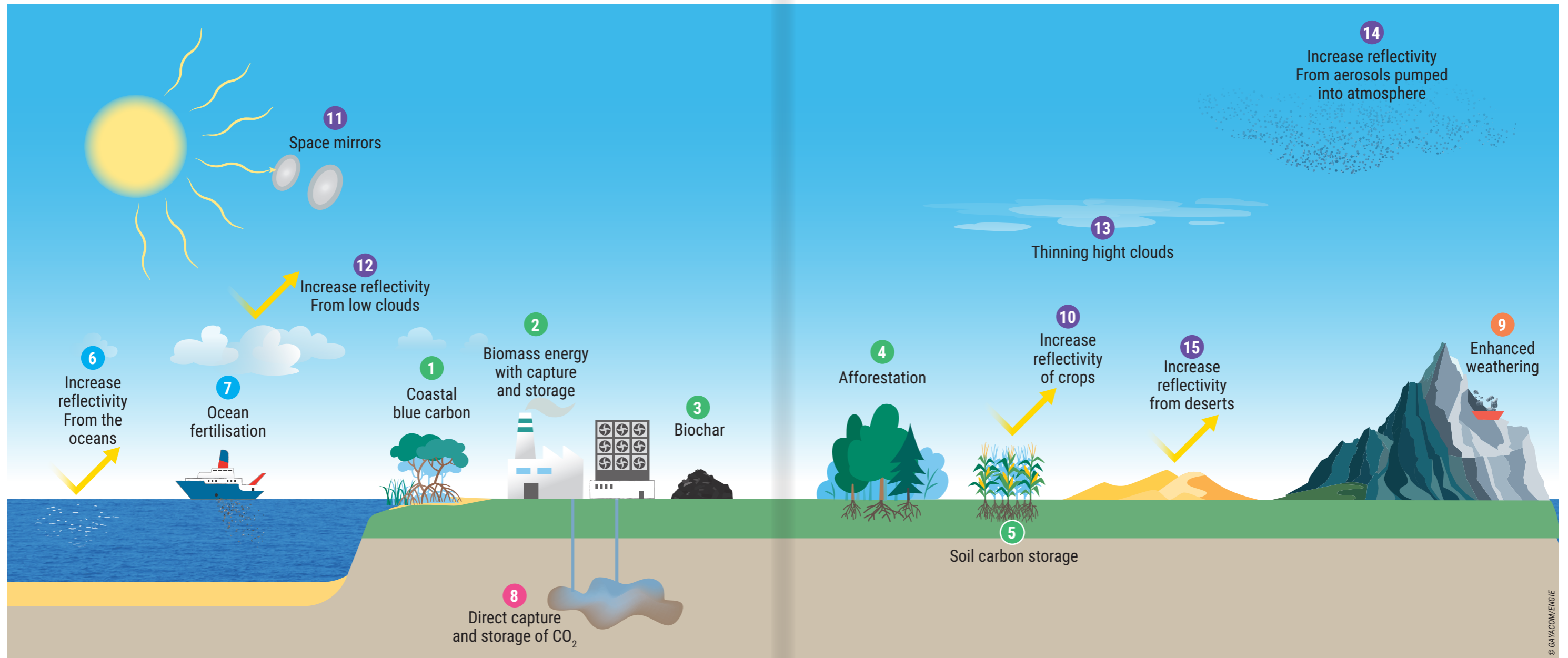
Although none of the proposed techniques exists yet at scales sufficient to affect the global climate, their place in climate change scenarios and policy discussions is increasing (i.e. extensive application of techniques for removing CO₂ from the atmosphere in a scenario of the Intergovernmental Panel for Climate Change (IPCC)).

So geoengineering is a generic word referring to heterogeneous technologies not perceived by the public in the same way. Some are very controversial, others much less so. Risks and benefits of this approach are not yet fully understood by the scientific community and are getting more and more attention.



| Geoengineering techniques overview based on literature review. ^[2] |

Geoengineering proposals.



Inspired by [5-6]

- 1 Coastal blue carbon (Reforestation/ Mangrove restoration)
- 2 Biomass energy with capture and storage (Using biomass for energy and capturing the CO₂)
- 3 Biochar (Carbon-rich charcoal from burnt crops added to soil)
- 4 Afforestation (Planting vast forests)

- 5 Soil carbon storage
- 6 Increase reflectivity from the oceans (Microbubbles increase reflexivity)
- 7 Ocean fertilisation (Increasing population of carbon-absorbing plankton)
- 8 Direct capture and storage of CO₂
- 9 Enhanced weathering

- 10 Increase reflectivity of crops
- 11 Space mirrors
- 12 Increase reflectivity from low clouds (e.g by spraying salt into him)
- 13 Thinning high clouds (Clouds act as a blanket, retaining heat)

- 14 Increase reflectivity from deserts (Using highly reflective materials)
- 15 Increase reflectivity from aerosols pumped into atmosphere

Legend:

- Land based biological
- Marine based biological
- Chemical
- Geo-Chemical
- Solar Radiation Management

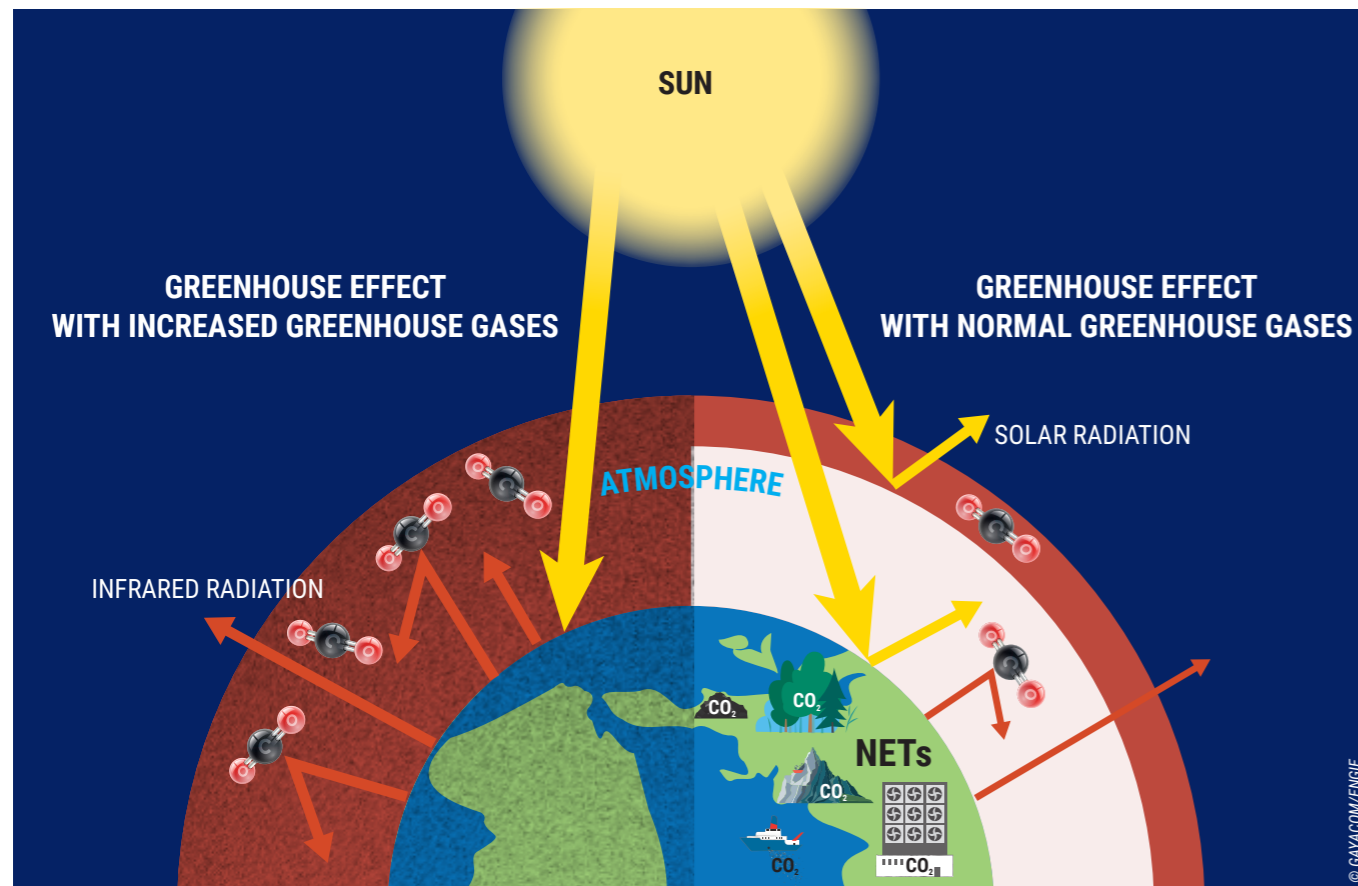
How these approaches work

Carbon Dioxide Removal (CDR)

CDR refers to the process of removing CO₂ from the atmosphere which produces global warming through greenhouse effects. Since this is the opposite of emissions, practices or technologies that remove CO₂ are often described as achieving 'negative emissions'. The process is sometimes referred to more broadly as greenhouse gas removal if it involves removing gases other than CO₂. There are two main types of CDR:

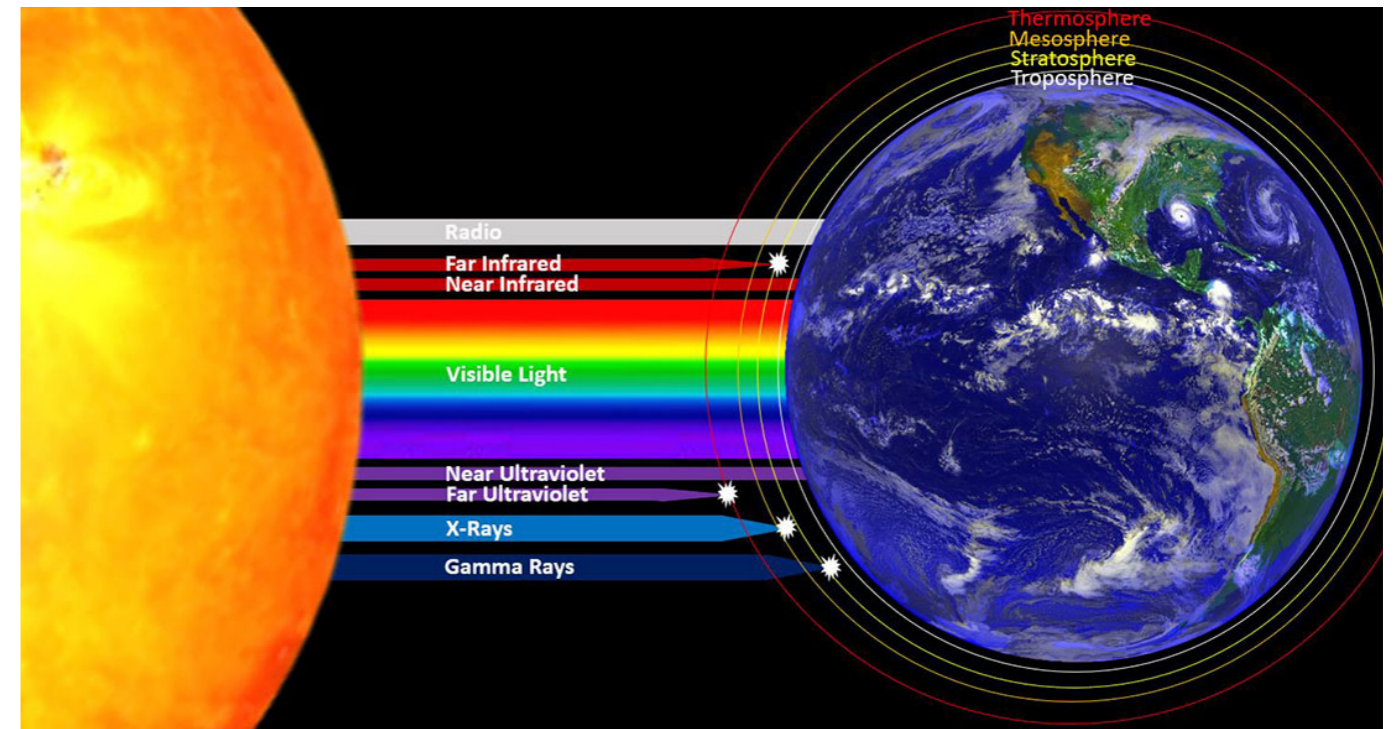
- enhancing existing natural processes that remove carbon from the atmosphere (e.g., by increasing its uptake by trees, soil, or other 'carbon sinks'),
- using chemical processes to, for example, capture CO₂ directly from the ambient air and store it elsewhere (e.g., underground).^[7]

Negative Emissions Technologies (NETs) are technologies involved in CDR processes.



Inspired by [8]

Removing CO₂ from the atmospheric stock through its transfer in the biologic and geologic stock decreases the concentration and consequently the greenhouse effect.



Absorption of solar radiation in the atmosphere^[9] based on NASA.

Solar Radiation Management (SRM)

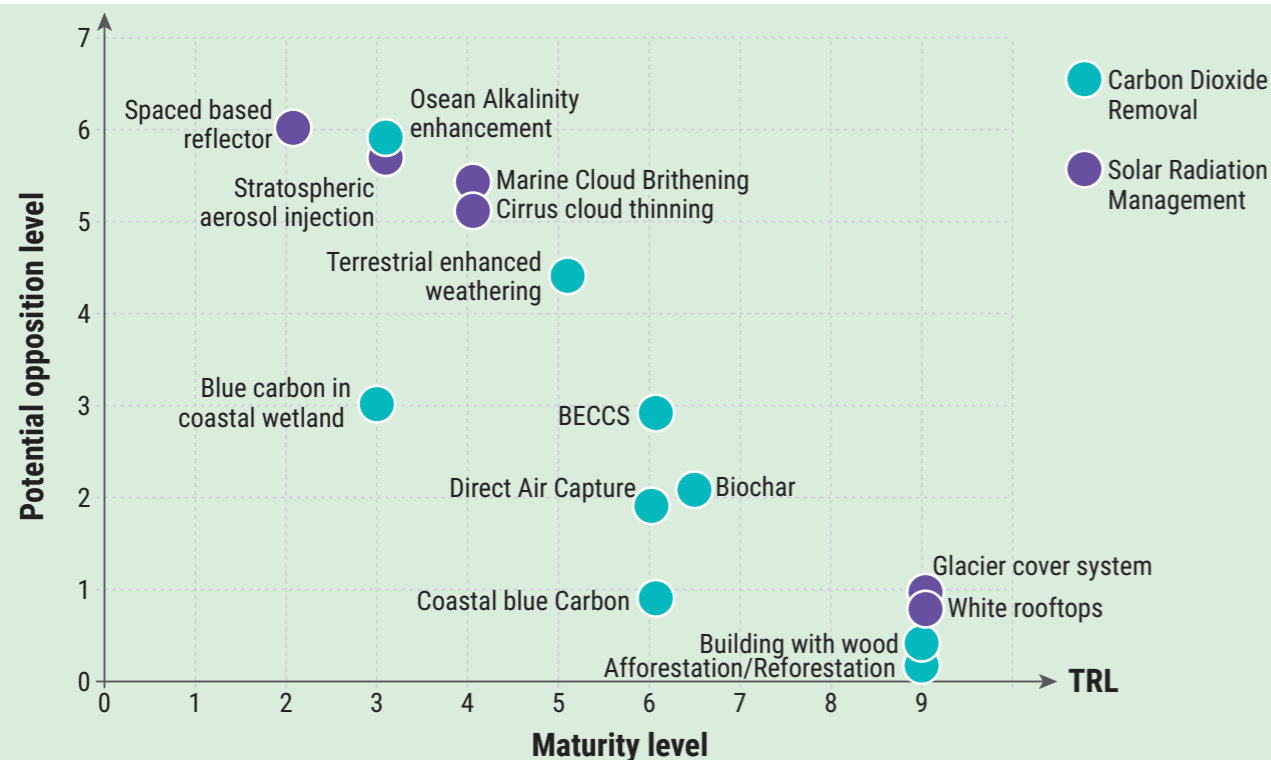
Solar radiation management (SRM) or solar geoengineering (SG) goal is to decrease the amount of absorbed solar radiation through an increase in albedo^{*}^[10]. It aims to reflect away a very small fraction of sunlight back to space to partially offset the energy imbalance caused by accumulating greenhouse gases^[11].

* Albedo is the amount of sunlight (solar radiation) reflected by a surface

	CDR	SRM
BENEFITS PUT FORWARD BY PROPONENTS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CDR is a key element in scenarios that likely limit warming to 2°C or 1.5°C by 2100 (high confidence).^[12] • It offers the potential to slow the growth and reverse the increase of CO₂ concentrations in the atmosphere.^[10] • Bridging technologies to wait for large deployment of low carbon technologies (e.g. DAC, CCUS).^[13] • Some nature-based technologies are better accepted (afforestation and reforestation) and are at a higher stage of maturity. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quickly reduces surface air temperatures, which could reduce or reverse negative impacts of global warming.^[14] • Technology to limit the sea level rise.^[15] • Offers rapid climate change abatement in a world where neither mitigation or adaptation can adequately address climate change.^[16]

Geoengineering should not in any way slow down the carbon neutral energy transition and the deployment of renewable electricity and gases. It should never be used as an excuse to continue using fossil fuels! It is more like an emergency brake we may need to deploy to ensure we reach the 1.5 °C or 2 °C...

For supporters of geoengineering, global change in humans' behavior in the short term is a riskier bet than geoengineering development facing the climate emergency.



The potential opposition level of geoengineering solutions according to their maturity level

(ENGIE inspired by [17])

Carbon geological storage solutions are controversial compared to processes like afforestation, more mature options with a higher level of acceptability.

Low maturity technologies such as the injection of aerosol into the atmosphere, are already controversial despite the fact that they are not well known. This could limit investments to avoid social risks.

At this stage 3 main controversial aspects of geoengineering can be identified.

Social acceptability

Many environmental NGOs advocate for **a transformation of society rather than the development of compensatory technologies**. For example, WWF summarized its position as follows: “Thinking that we will be able to continue on a “business as usual” scenario without changing our behaviors and way of life just relying on geoengineering is a lie. We need to reduce our anthropogenic input to climate change, and not try to fix it using dispendious technologies and spending funding that are crucially needed for both mitigation and adaptation measures [18]. **Some technologies will not have the support of key stakeholders.** This is particularly the case for solar geoengineering and geological storage. **Afforestation avoids this type of criticism.** On the other hand, geoengineering advocates argue that potential short-term human behavior change is a riskier bet than geoengineering, with regard to the climate emergency.

Risk and impact

There are also many controversies among scientists about the **effects of geoengineering and its risks**. Risks include **technological immaturity and impermanence, high financial costs, and environmental destruction for SRM** (air quality and atmospheric pollution [11], on ocean and vegetation [16]).

For CDR, uncertainties are more about the **permeability and stability of non-biobased storages** (risks of leakage, seismic activity, and water contamination) [19-20], while SRM’s uncertainties relate more to the climatic effects globally. To date, these uncertainties do not allow the IPCC to take these technologies fully into account in its scenarios (except for afforestation) [4]. Scientists are not aligned on the benefits of several geoengineering technologies. Therefore, risk of controversy is emphasized by technical debate. It should be noted here **that afforestation and reforestation do not fall under this type of debate** although many scientists warn that they are not a miracle solution and question the idea of a compensatory balance [21].

Policy and governance issues

Finally, **geoengineering also raises issues of policy and governance**. Development of technologies with global impact should require the establishment of an international governance for cooperation and regulation (including experimentation, e.g. injection or spraying of molecules) [14]. For CDR, land use arbitration and mediation is an additional issue: geoengineering technologies vs agriculture, fisheries [10-3] or local economy [10-17]. The measurement and assignment of credit for CO₂ captured could be done unilaterally [10-16].

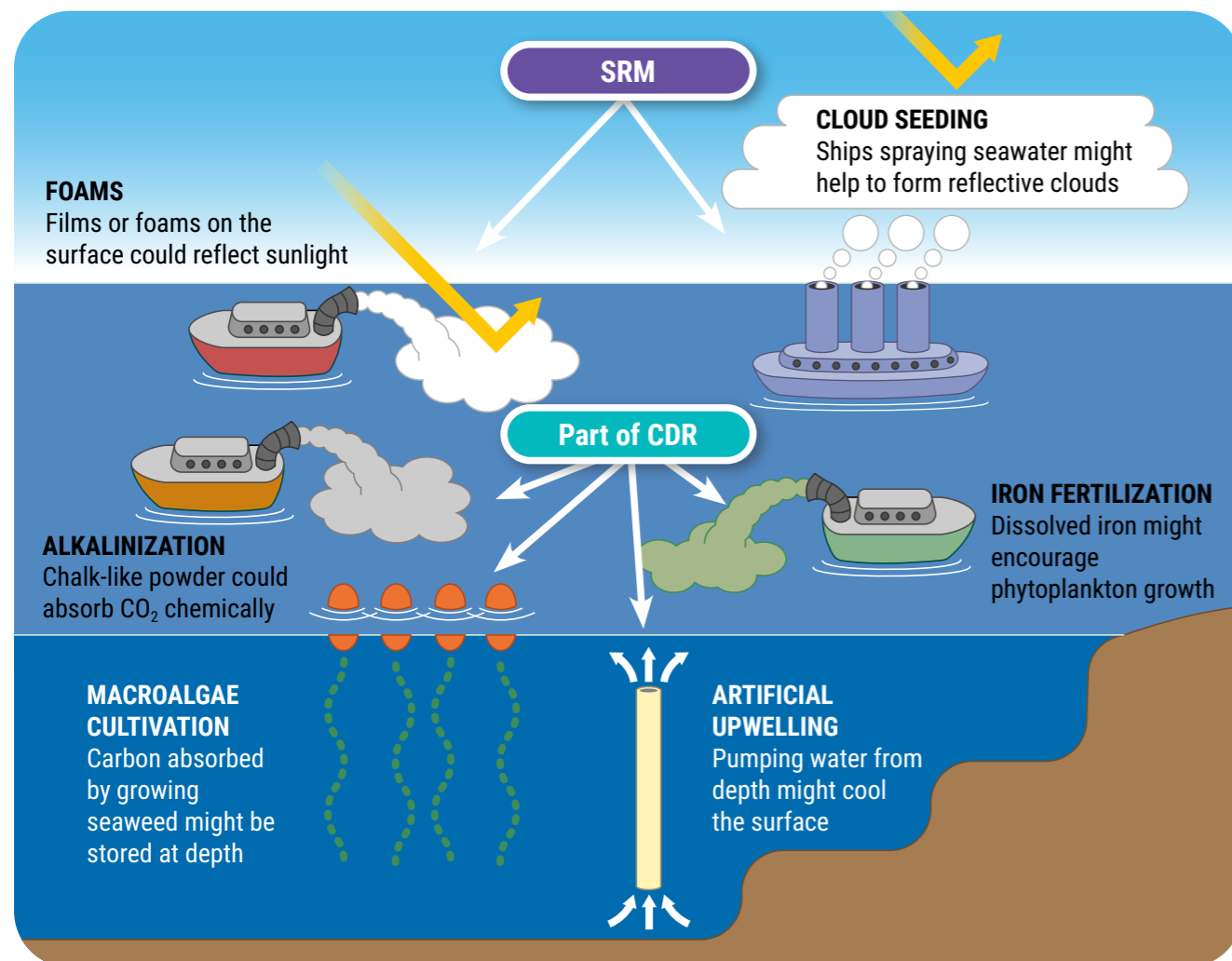
Example of marine carbon sink.

Dozens of marine engineering approaches have been proposed to store CO₂ in or below the oceans, or to alter seas to cool the planet and few scientific tests have been performed on methodology up to now.

Focus on ocean fertilization: Marine **phytoplankton** has a crucial role in the global **carbon cycle**. Its photosynthesis consumes not only CO₂ but also macronutrients (e.g., nitrogen–N–and phosphorus–P) and micronutrients (e.g., iron–Fe). **Ocean fertilization** proposes the addition of nutrients to the ocean surface, which ultimately controls the amount of carbon that is sequestered. Since the

levels of N and P are usually greater than Fe levels, the addition of Fe into the ocean can stimulate photosynthesis and enhance carbon sequestration. [22]

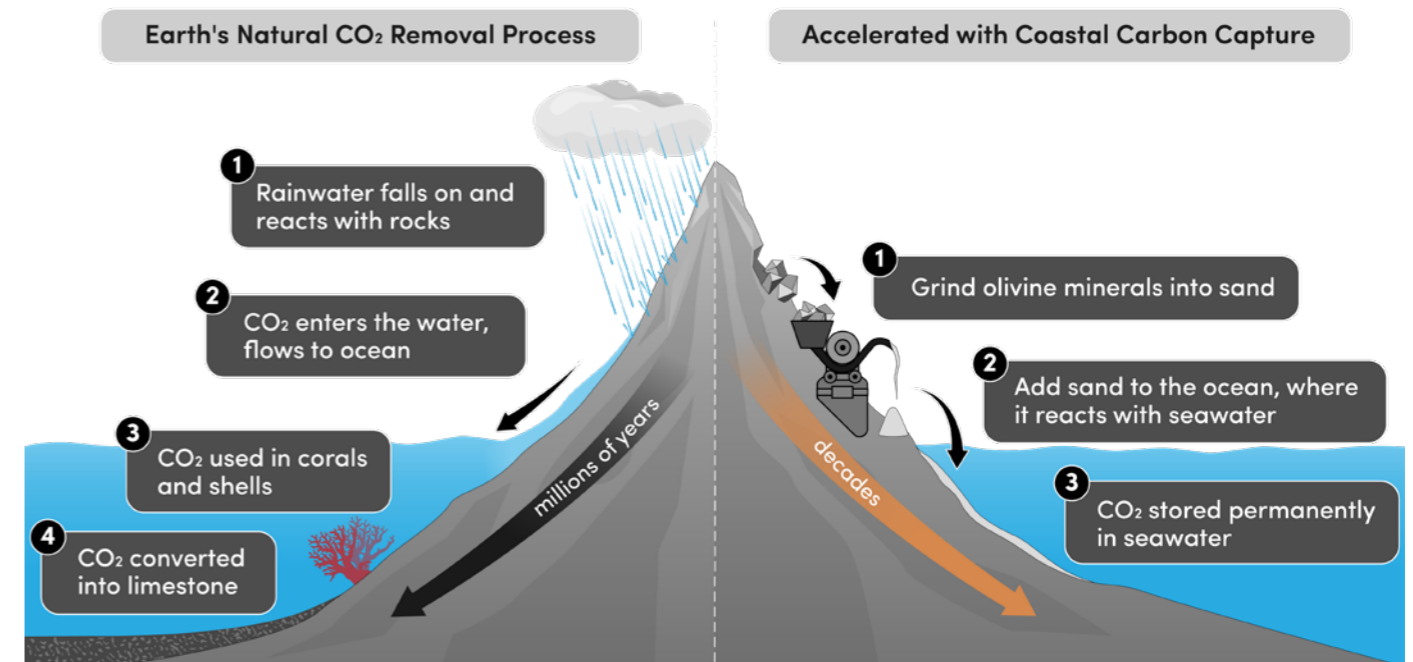
Who gives the authorization to carry out this type of action? The precautionary principle should be applied.



| Panorama of Marine engineering solutions. [23] |

Example of enhanced weathering.

This is a natural process whereby rocks are broken down by rainwater, extreme temperatures or human activity. It takes place over millions of years, constituting an important carbon sink.

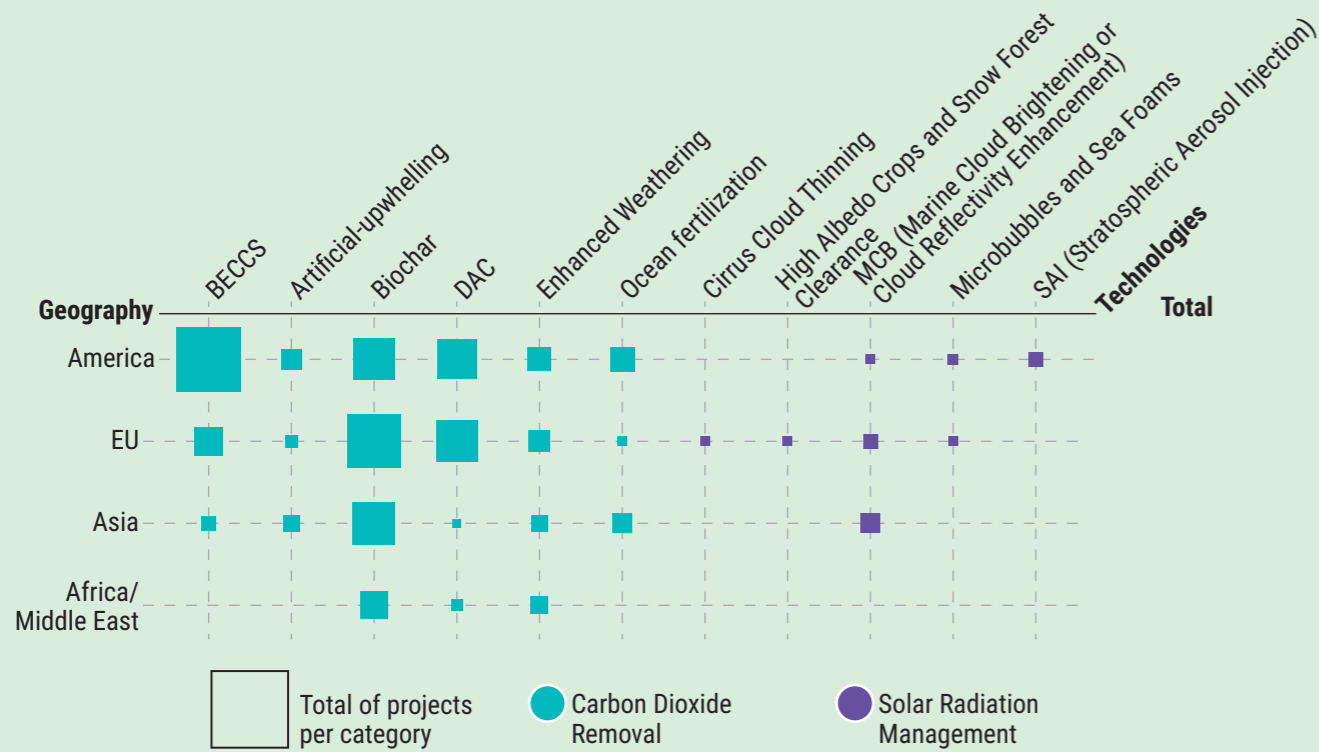


| Description of enhanced mineral weathering. [24] |



| Rocks are ground into fine particles and spread across large spans of land or the ocean to speed up the natural process. [25] |

More than 1,700 projects have been identified all over the world. The USA and Europe are the main developers of CDR to deal with their commitment to carbon neutrality by 2050, followed by Asia.



| Distribution of geoengineering projects (completed, ongoing and planned) over the world. |

Note: To date, there is no exhaustive scientific database listing all the projects that could be considered as geoengineering. So this graph is based on a database of whistleblower organizations: ETC Group and the Heinrich Böll Stiftung (<https://map.geoengineeringmonitor.org>). Even if reforestation and afforestation projects are not mentioned, as they benefit from a greater social acceptability, it gives a controversial technologies overview. The technological categorization is based on stated activities by the project owner.

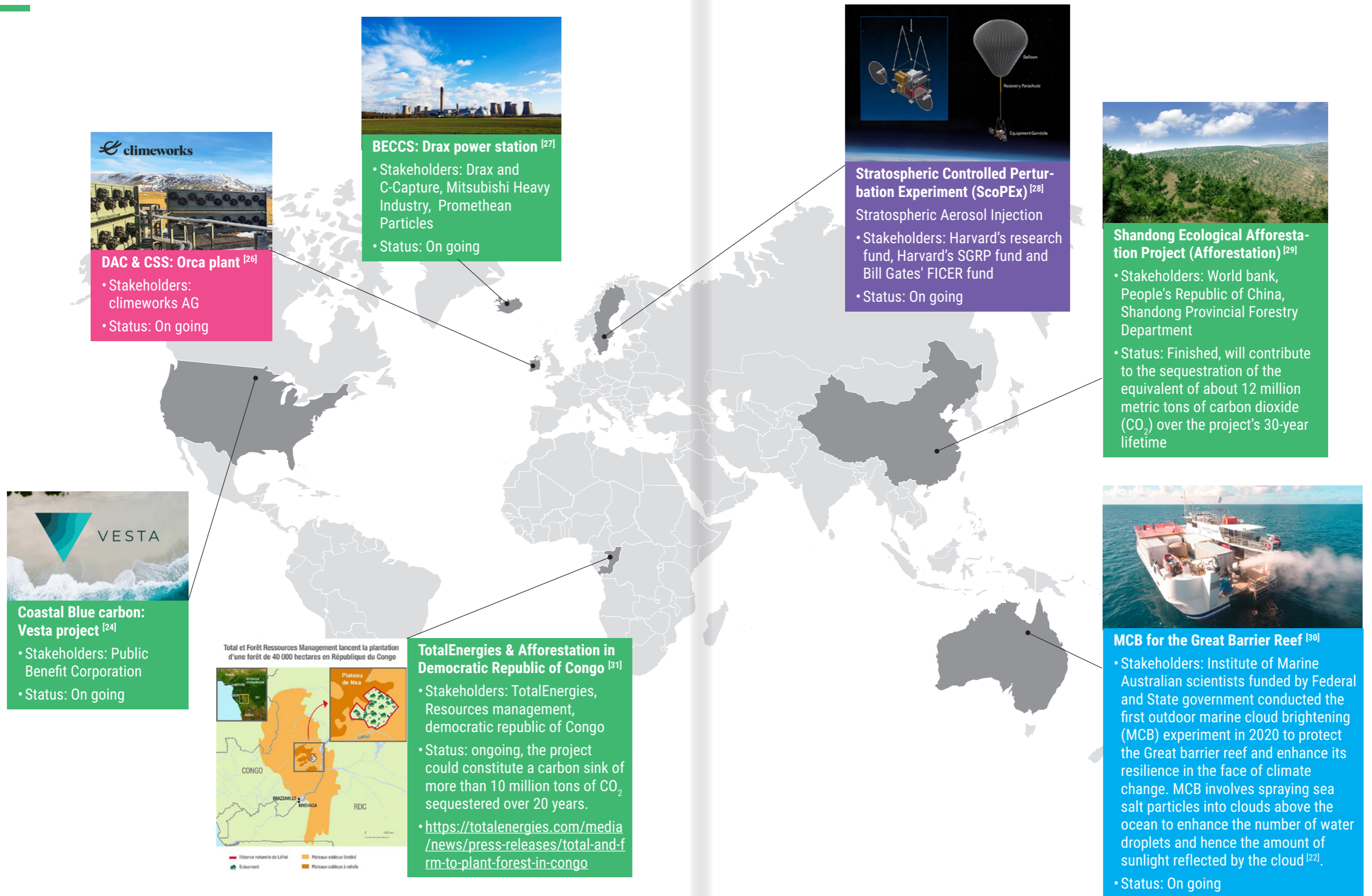


| DAC & CSS: Orca plant. [26] |



| BECCS: Drax power station. [27] |

Main representative geoengineering projects.



climeworks



DAC & CSS: Orca plant [26]

- Stakeholders: climeworks AG
- Status: On going



BECCS: Drax power station [27]

- Stakeholders: Drax and C-Capture, Mitsubishi Heavy Industry, Promethean Particles
- Status: On going



Stratospheric Controlled Perturbation Experiment (ScoPEX) [28]

Stratospheric Aerosol Injection

- Stakeholders: Harvard's research fund, Harvard's SGRP fund and Bill Gates' FICER fund
- Status: On going



Shandong Ecological Afforestation Project (Afforestation) [29]

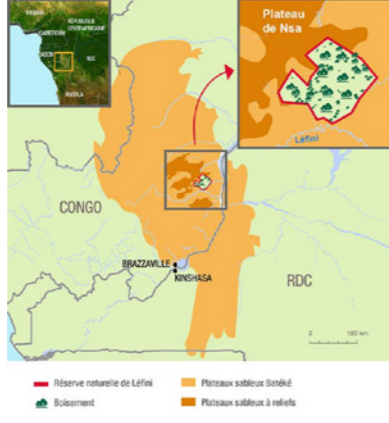
- Stakeholders: World bank, People's Republic of China, Shandong Provincial Forestry Department
- Status: Finished, will contribute to the sequestration of the equivalent of about 12 million metric tons of carbon dioxide (CO₂) over the project's 30-year lifetime



Coastal Blue carbon: Vesta project [24]


- Stakeholders: Public Benefit Corporation
- Status: On going

Total et Forêt Ressources Management lancent la plantation d'une forêt de 40 000 hectares en République du Congo



TotalEnergies & Afforestation in Democratic Republic of Congo [31]

- Stakeholders: TotalEnergies, Resources management, democratic republic of Congo
- Status: ongoing, the project could constitute a carbon sink of more than 10 million tons of CO₂ sequestered over 20 years.
- <https://totalenergies.com/media/news/press-releases/total-and-fm-to-plant-forest-in-congo>



MCB for the Great Barrier Reef [30]

- Stakeholders: Institute of Marine Australian scientists funded by Federal and State government conducted the first outdoor marine cloud brightening (MCB) experiment in 2020 to protect the Great barrier reef and enhance its resilience in the face of climate change. MCB involves spraying sea salt particles into clouds above the ocean to enhance the number of water droplets and hence the amount of sunlight reflected by the cloud [22].
- Status: On going

2

EMERGING TECHNOLOGIES

NATURAL-BASED SOLUTIONS



SOLAR SPACE POWER



PYROLYSIS FOR TURQUOISE HYDROGEN?



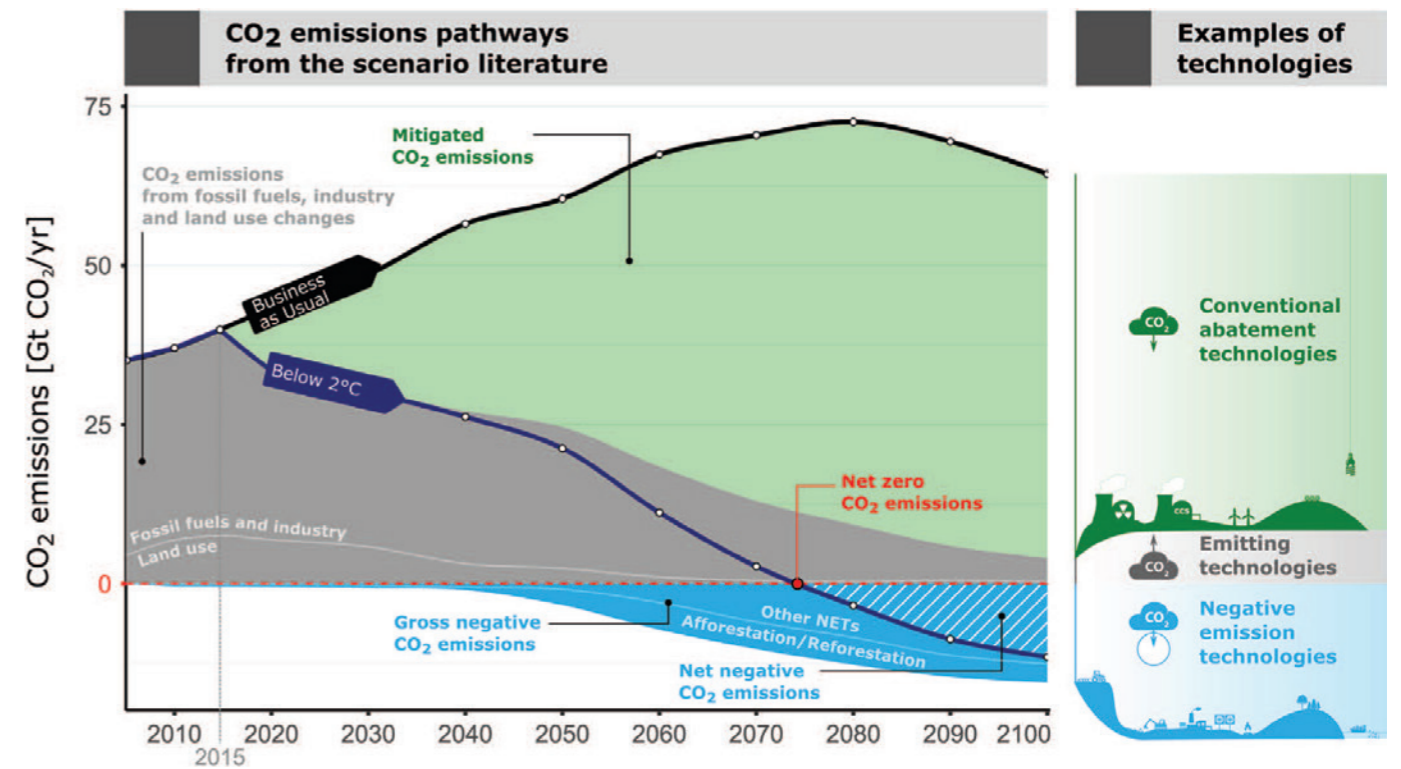
LIGHT-DRIVEN CHEMISTRY TO SOLAR FUELS PRODUCTION



NATURAL BASED SOLUTIONS



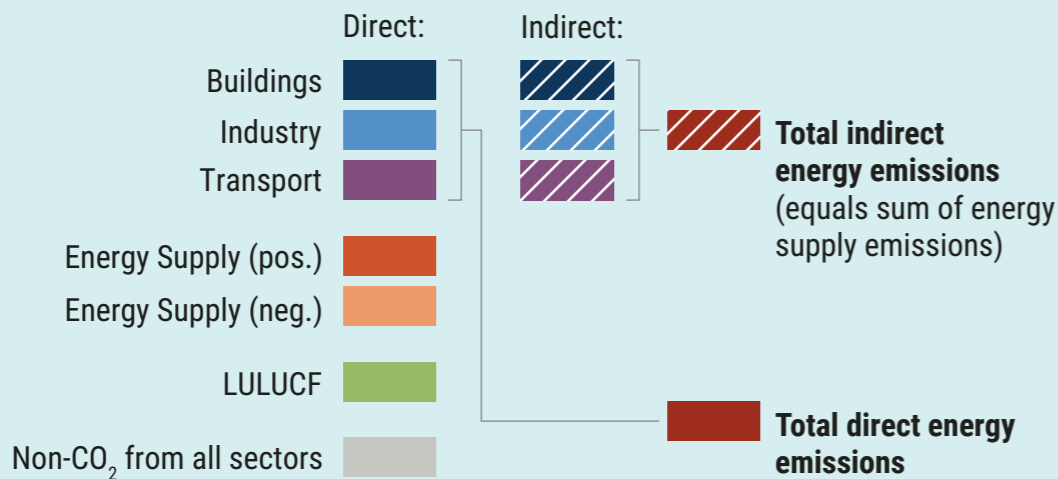
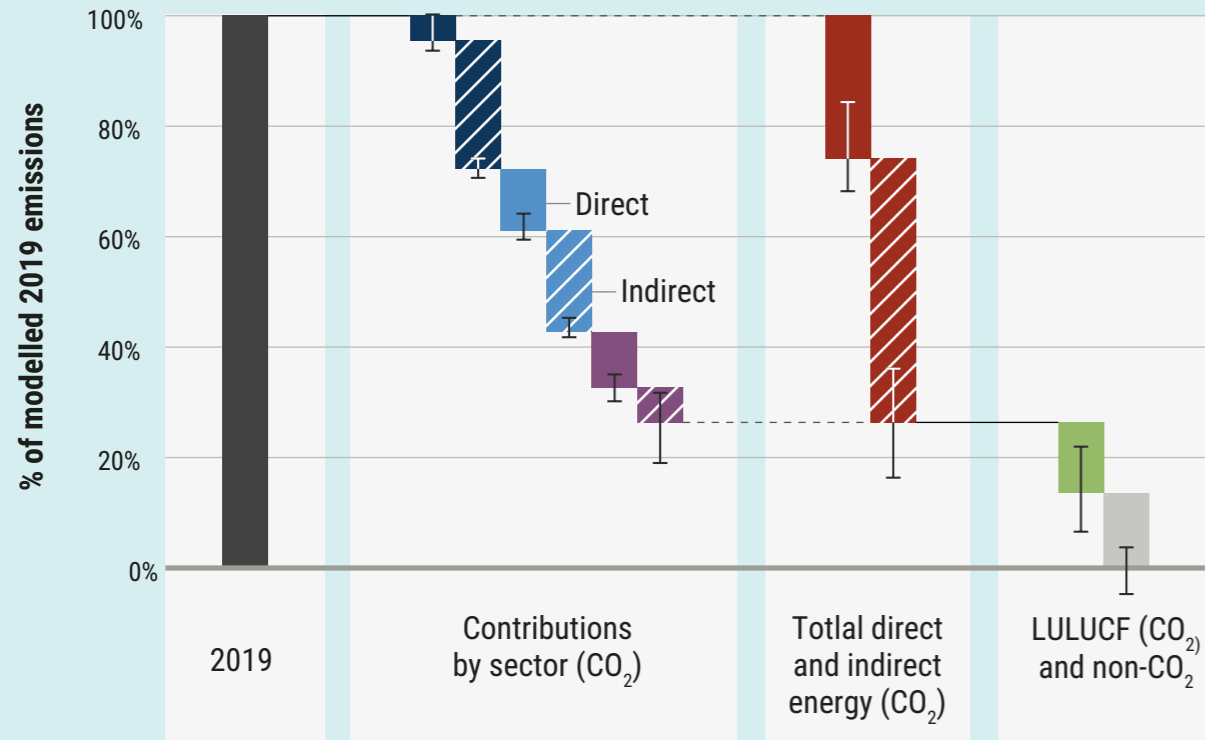
Recently recognized by the IPCC and IEA as necessary to offset hard-to-abate emissions and eventually, to go beyond net-zero, Negative Emissions Technologies will play a main role but Natural-Based Solutions (NBS) even more.



“Global emission levels turn net negative towards (hatched blue area) the end of the century to compensate for earlier carbon budget overshoot. Cumulative gross negative emissions represented by the entire blue area. The exemplary scenarios ‘business as usual’ and ‘below 2 °C’ were constructed using data from the LIMITS database (<https://tntcat.iiasa.ac.at/LIMITSDB/>). Gross positive and negative CO₂ emissions from land-use changes labelled as ‘land use’ (bottom grey shaded area) and ‘afforestation/ reforestation’ (bottom blue shaded area) were inferred from net land-use changes emissions to account for current afforestation and reforestation efforts and differentiate between negative emissions from land-use changes and other NETs.”

| CO₂ net emissions over time, involving both reduction (green) and removal (blue).^[1] |

13% of CO₂ mitigation options should come from Natural-Based Solutions to reach global net zero GHG emissions.



Direct = demand-side; Indirect =supply-side CO₂ emissions reductions.
 LULUCF: Land Use, Land-Use Change, Forest, encompass removals mainly from forests, but also from cropland, grasslands, wetlands, settlements and other lands.

Contributions to reaching net zero GHG emissions (for all scenarios reaching net-zero GHGs).^[2]

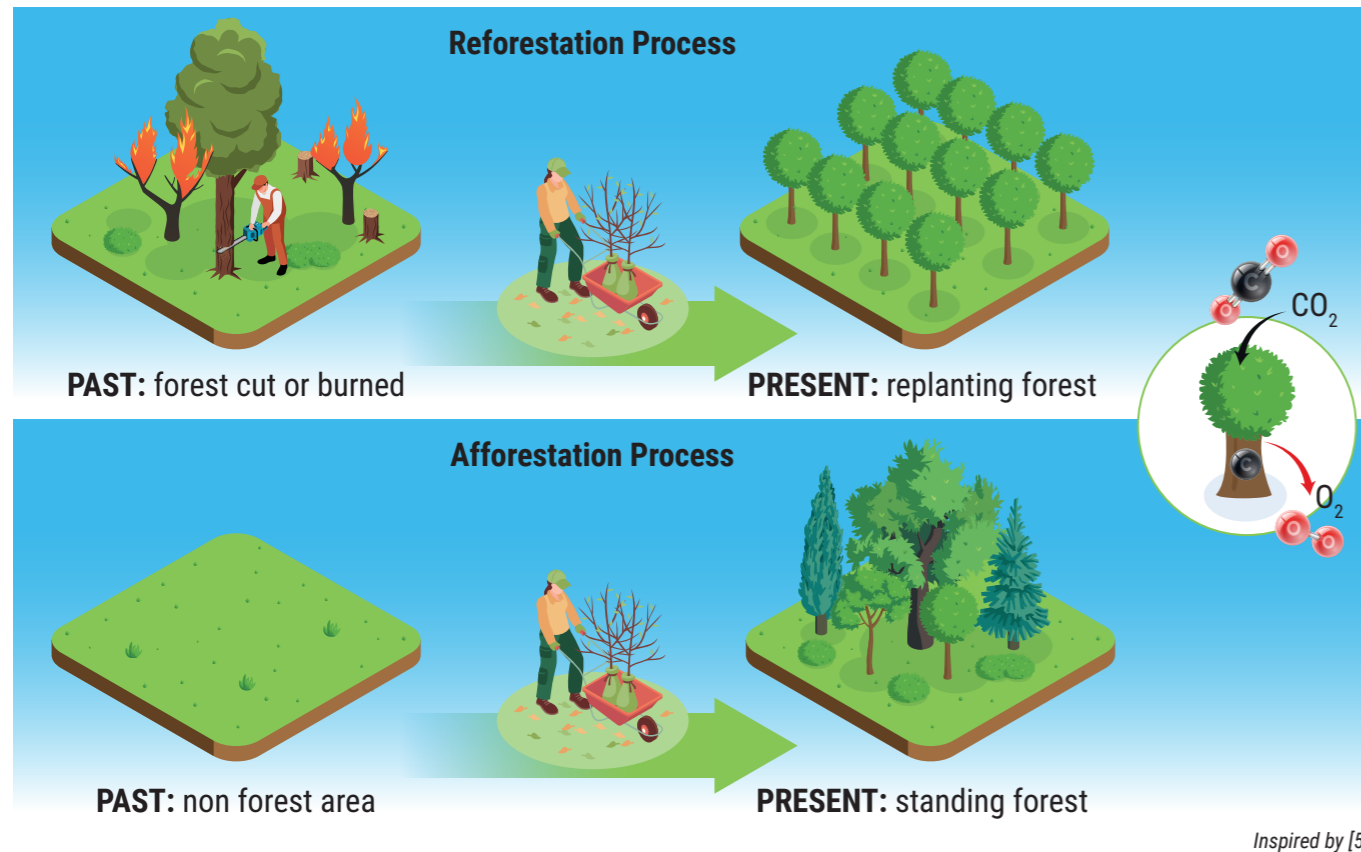


NATURE is the forgotten solution representing 37% of the climate solution. Inspired by [3-4]

Afforestation/Reforestation (A/R)

A/R has a big potential that is limited by the suitable area for tree plantation, taking into account the albedo issue and competition with food production.

TRL 8-9



Reforestation consists of land-use and management practices within forests, i.e. planting new or extending existing forests to increase the total inventory of carbon in this forest. There are two types of reforestation:

- Urban reforestation = tree planting in developed areas. The purpose depends on the city's needs: modify the climate, improve air quality, provide more shady areas or enhance the appearance of the environment.
- Rural reforestation = Huge numbers of trees planted in areas that have suffered deforestation, places which were once forests, jungles or covered with semi-arid vegetation. [5]

Afforestation consists of planting trees in non-forest areas.

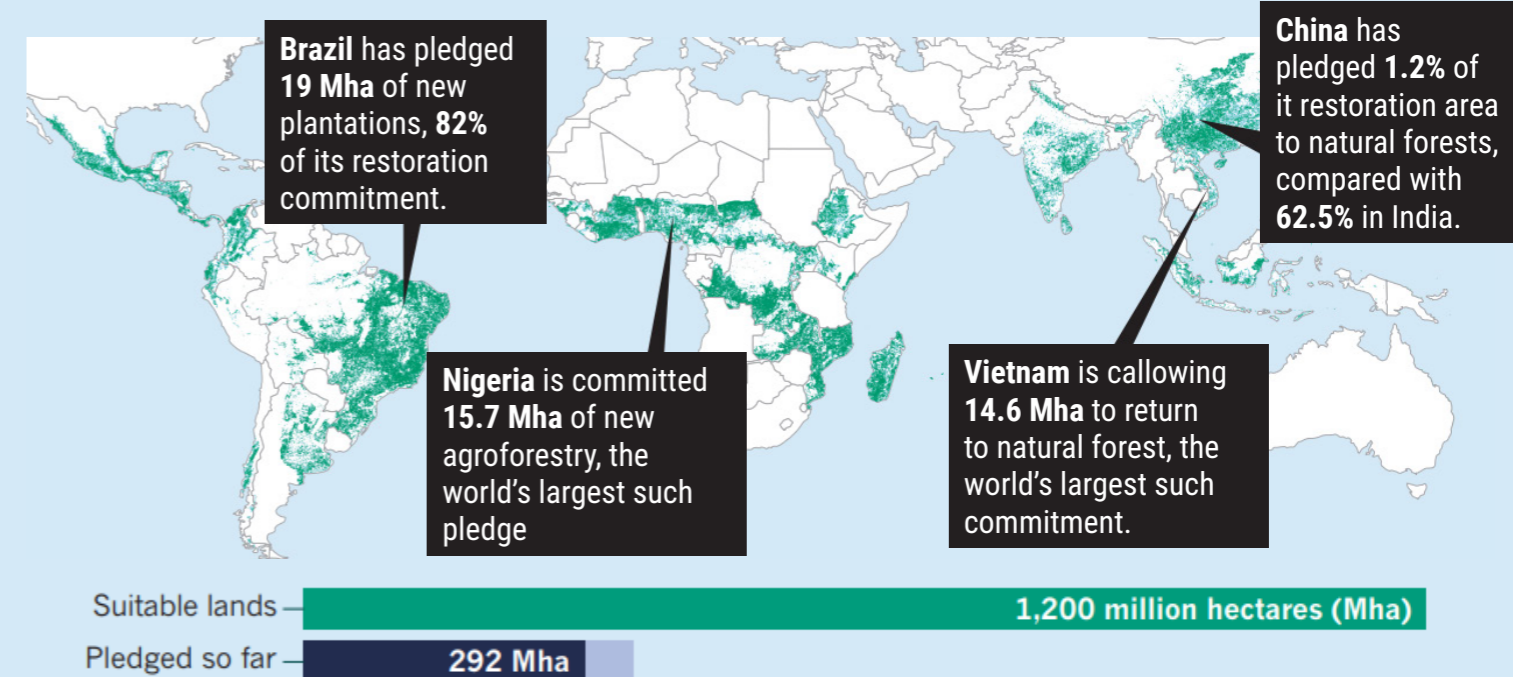
POTENTIAL:
 3-10 Gt CO₂/year by 2030

ADVANTAGES

- Enhanced employment and local livelihoods, improved biodiversity.
- Improved renewable wood products provision.
- Soil carbon and nutrient cycling. Possibly less pressure on primary forest.

CHALLENGES

- Reversal of carbon removal through wildfire, disease, pests may occur. Reduced catchment water yield and lower groundwater level if species and biome are inappropriate.
- Inappropriate deployment at large scale can lead to competition for land with biodiversity conservation and food production. [2]



| Overview of high potential regions for A/R. [7] |



Forest experts develop new business supported by financial actors to provide carbon removal solutions based on afforestation/reforestation projects.

“AXA IM Alts, ENGIE and The Shared Wood Company join forces to develop nature-based solutions project.

The newly incorporated French company The Shared Wood Company (SWC), which was created by experienced forestry experts, develops nature-based solutions projects primarily located in Africa, Latin America and Europe. SWC will benefit from AXA IM Alts’ impact investing and project finance capabilities and ENGIE’s expertise in carbon markets and risk management.” [8]

[PRESS RELEASE HERE](#)

“Gabon: TotalEnergies and Compagnie des Bois du Gabon Join Forces to Develop a New Forest Management Model Combining Wood Production and Carbon Sinks.” [9]

[PRESS RELEASE HERE](#)

How can building with timber help us to achieve our net zero goals?

According to the UK Green Building Council, the built environment accounts for 40% of all the UK’s carbon emissions. [10] Wood has a role to play in helping to decarbonise the structural fabric of new and existing homes and the construction industry as a whole.



Biochar

The new black gold for the climate that makes industries dream of decarbonization?

TRL 6-7

Biochar is formed by recalcitrant (i.e., very stable) organic carbon obtained from pyrolysis, which, applied to soil, can increase soil carbon sequestration leading to improved soil fertility properties. Permanence depends on soil type and biochar production temperatures, varying between a few decades and several centuries [11].

Biochar is obtained from wood residues (natural or industrial residues from

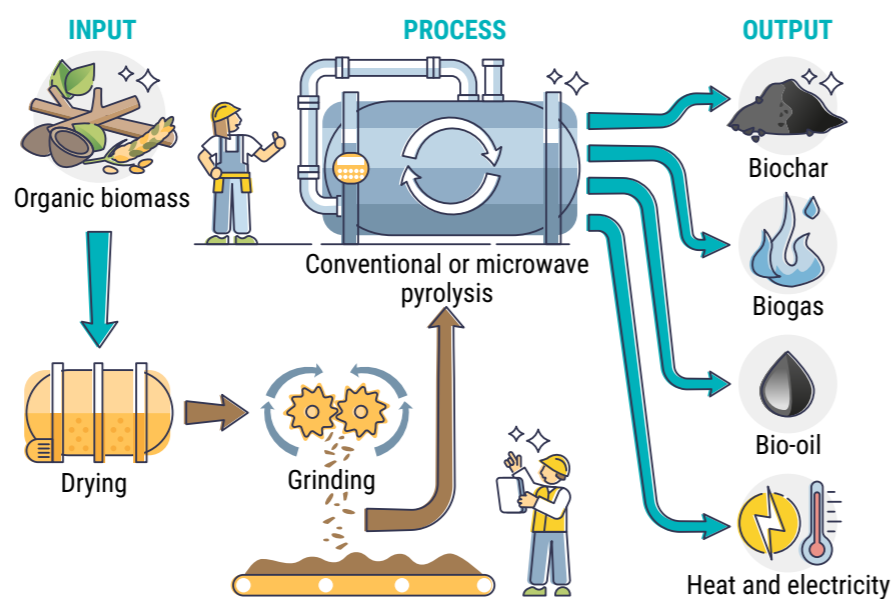
POTENTIAL OF CARBON REMOVAL:

0,2 to ~1 Gt CO₂/year by 2030

the maintenance of forests, agriculture or the wood industry, such as bark, harvest wood or straw) or residues of dry crops (such as the hulls of coffee beans for example). They are heated to approximately 500 degrees, in the absence of oxygen, in order to avoid their combustion which would reduce them to ashes [12].



Biochar takes the form of a black powder.



Example of pyrolysis technology, an autothermal technology. [13]

ADVANTAGES

- Increased crop yields and reduced non-CO₂ emissions from soil and resilience to drought.

CHALLENGES

- Potential estimation considering limitations in biomass availability and uncertainties due to a lack of large-scale trials of biochar application to agricultural soils under field conditions.

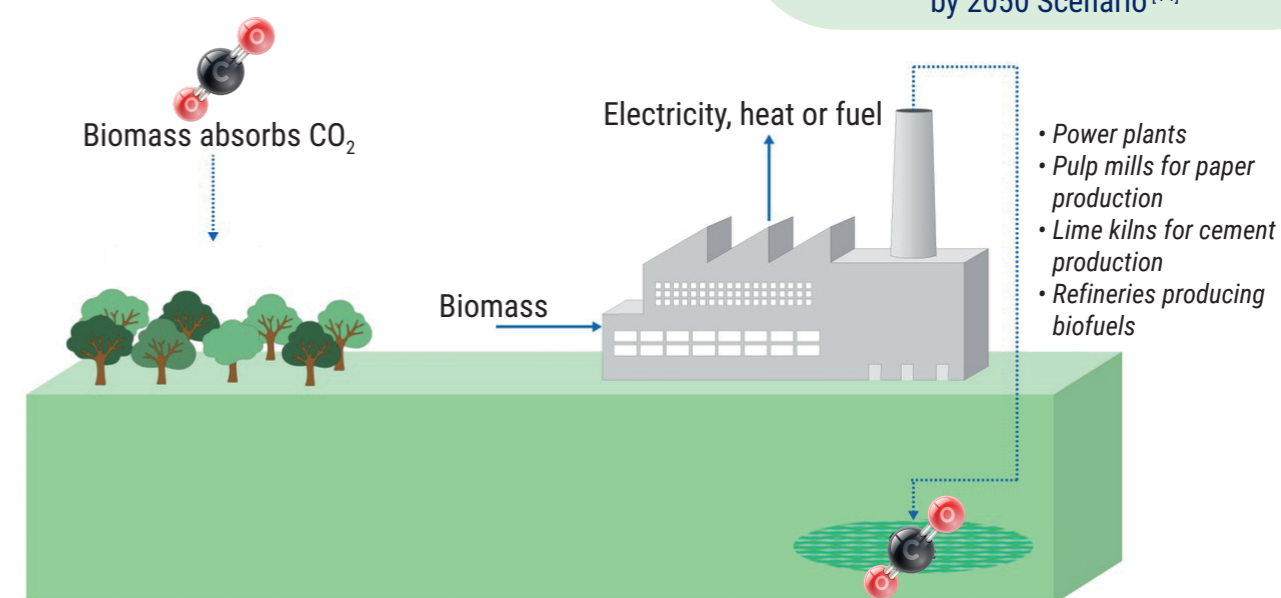
BioEnergy Carbon Capture and Storage (BECCS)

Primarily developed for ethanol production with large infrastructures, BECCS has an interesting potential that is limited by the production of sustainable biomass.

TRL 8-9

POTENTIAL OF CARBON REMOVAL:

~250 Mt CO₂/year by 2030 in the Net Zero Emissions by 2050 Scenario [14]



Example of BECCS process. [15]

BECCS consists in the capture of CO₂ that is co-produced from biomass transformation into an energy vector, not the CO₂ produced from the utilisation of the energy vector. This encompasses various processes (combustion, fermentation, carbonisation, liquefaction, gasification, etc.). The CO₂ is then treated to be injected into an underground storage.

Many energy vectors can be produced through biomass processing but those that are most relevant for NETs are fermentation (to bioethanol or biomethane) and combustion based (to heat/electricity). [15]

ADVANTAGES

- Reduction of air pollutants; fuel security, optimal use of residues, additional income, health benefits and if implemented well can enhance biodiversity.

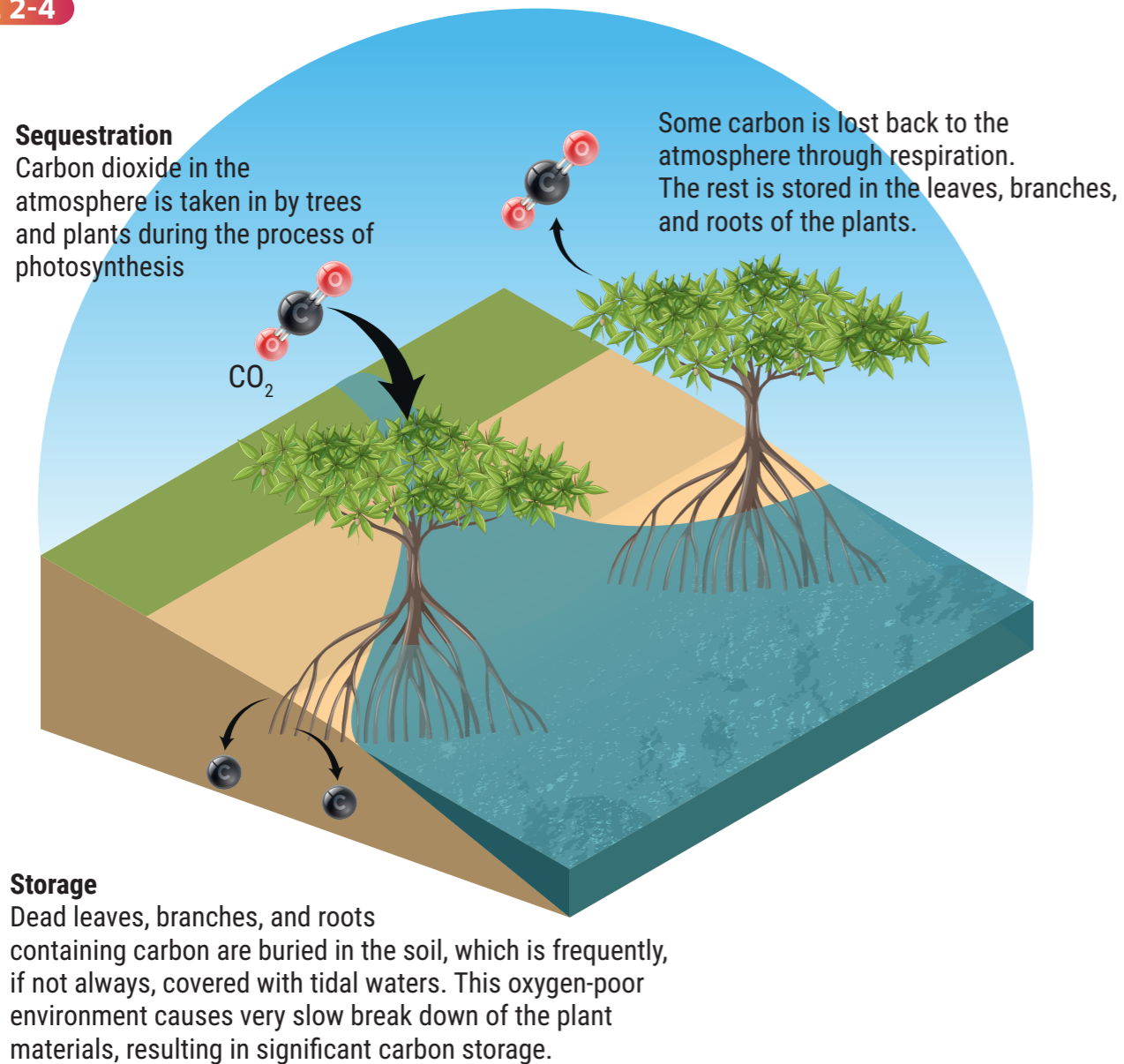
CHALLENGES

- Inappropriate deployment on a large scale leads to additional land and water use to grow biomass feedstock. [2]

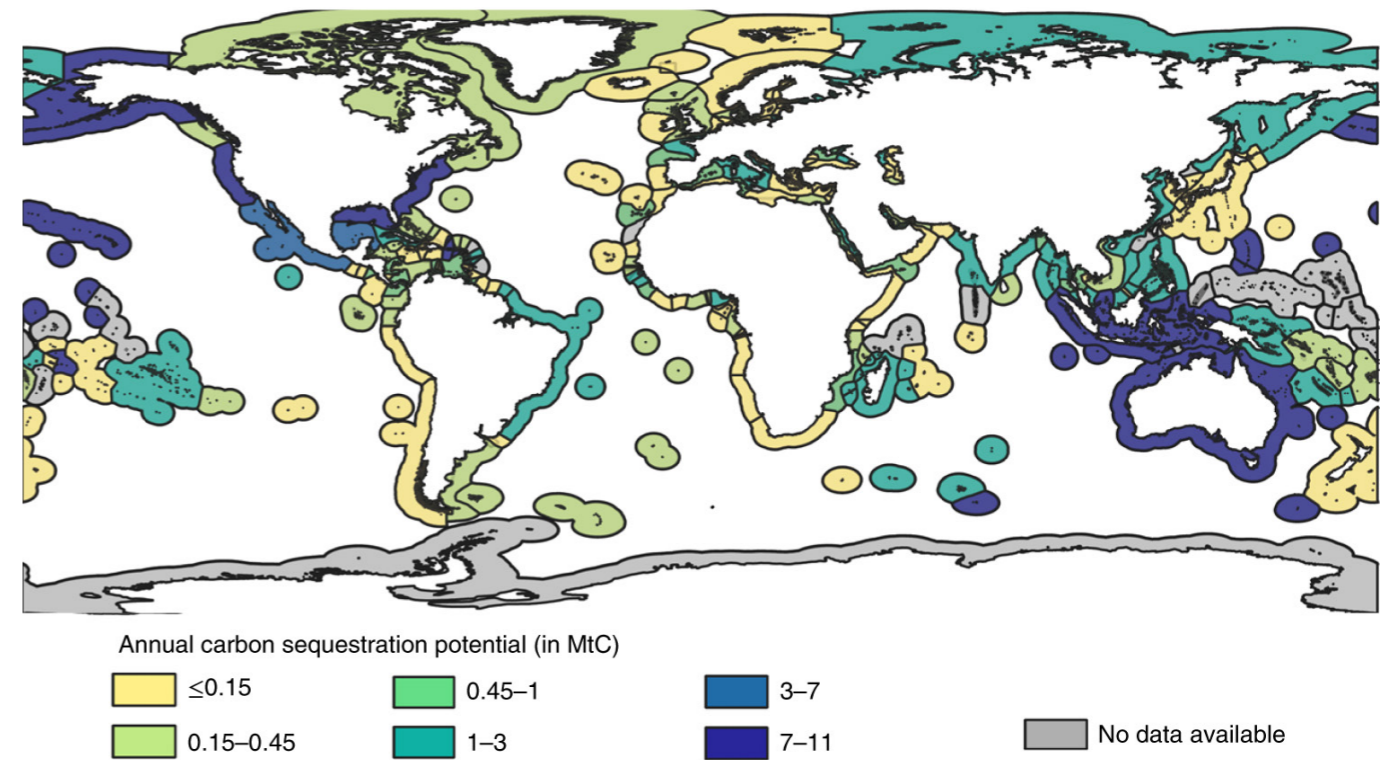
Coastal blue carbon

This is the carbon captured by living coastal and marine organisms and stored in coastal ecosystems such as mangroves, seagrass beds, salt marshes.

TRL 2-4



| Coastal Blue Carbon process for carbon storage. ^[16] |



| Mean annual blue carbon sequestration potentials. ^[17] |

“Globally, coastal ecosystems contribute a mean ± s.e.m. of US\$190.67 ± 30 bn yr⁻¹ to blue carbon wealth. The three countries generating the largest positive net blue wealth contribution for other countries are Australia, Indonesia and Cuba, with Australia alone generating a positive net benefit of US\$22.8 ± 3.8 bn yr⁻¹ for the rest of the world through coastal ecosystem carbon sequestration and storage in its territory.” ^[17]



ADVANTAGES

- 726 tonnes of coal are offset by one hectare of mangrove.
- Every year, coastal wetlands sequester enough CO₂ to offset the burning of over 1 billion barrel of oils.
- In some areas, one hectare of seagrass can store 2 times the carbon captured by an average terrestrial forest.
- Although covering less than 1% of the ocean they store over 50% of the seabed’s rich carbon reserves. ^[18]



CHALLENGES

- If degraded or lost, coastal blue carbon ecosystems are expected to release most of their carbon back to the atmosphere.
- Risk of increased CH₄ emissions.
- Effect of shoreline modifications on sediment redeposition and natural marsh accretion.

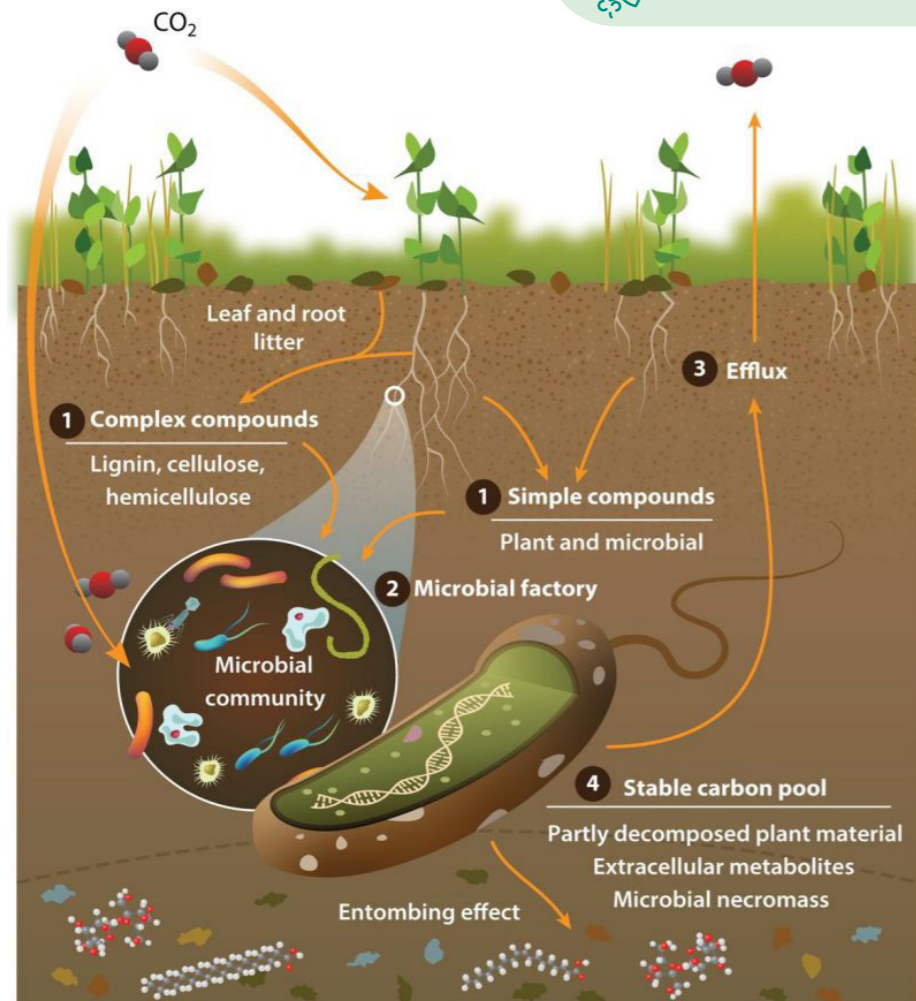
Soil Carbon Storage (SCS)

This refers to the increase of soil organic matter through specific agricultural management practices: reduced tillage, use of cover crops, agro-forestry, use of compost, etc.

In development TRL 8-9

POTENTIAL OF CARBON REMOVAL:

: 0,6 to mor than 3 Gt CO₂/year



Source [19]



ADVANTAGES

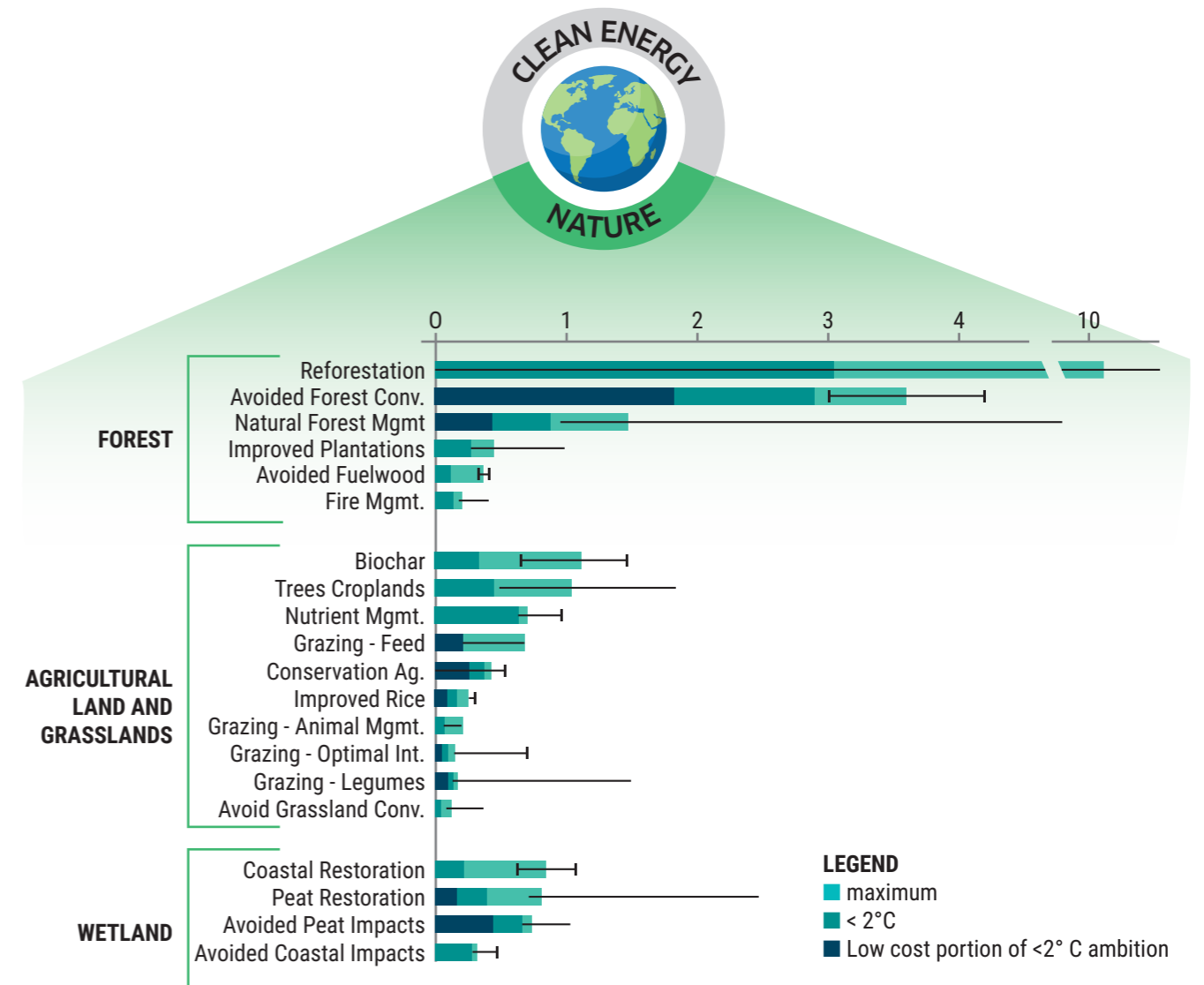
- Improved soil quality, resilience and agricultural productivity.



CHALLENGES

- Risk of increased nitrous oxide emissions due to higher levels of organic nitrogen in the soil; risk of reversal of carbon sequestration.

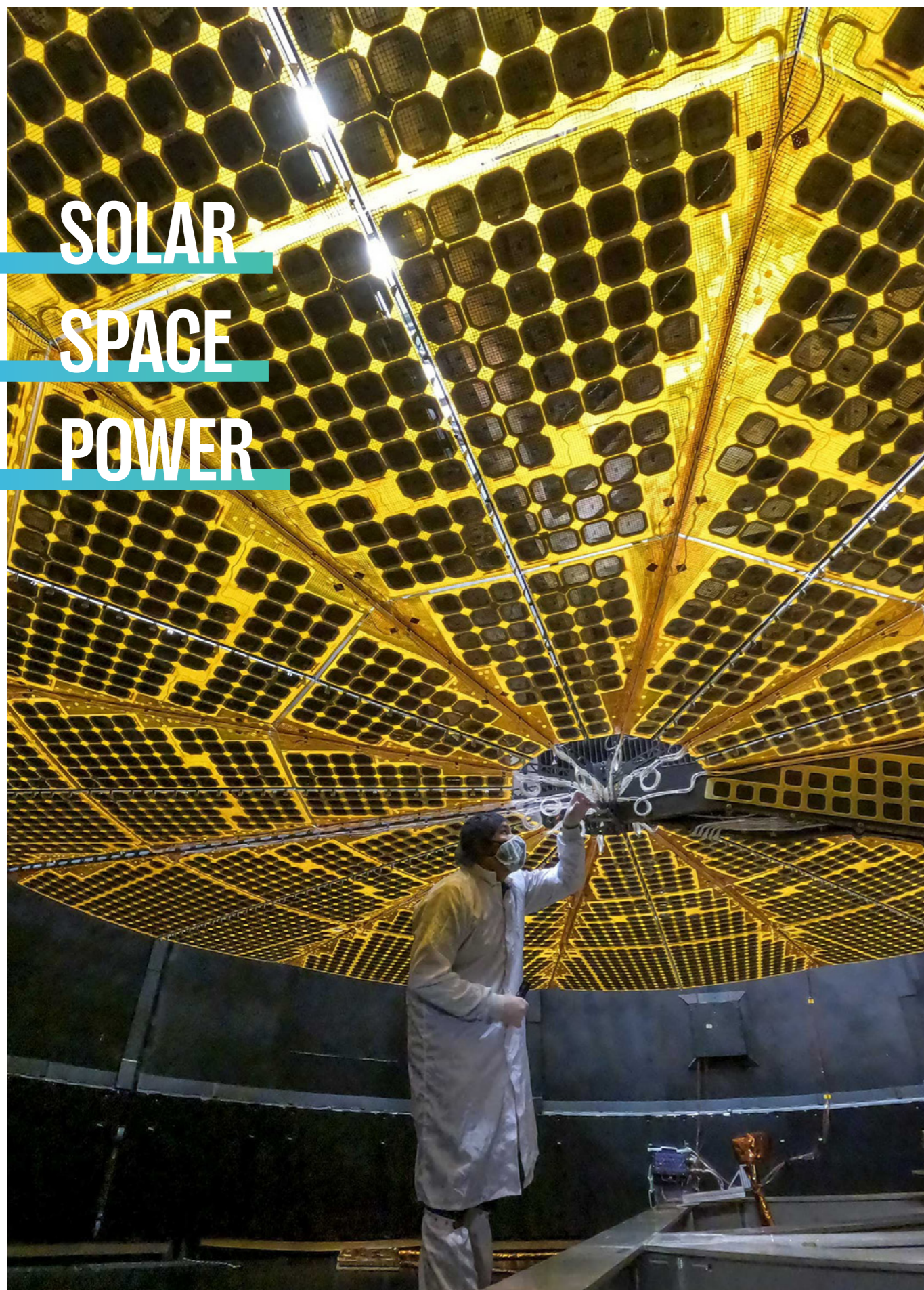
As they conserve or expand ecosystems, NBS protect biodiversity against both climate change and habitat loss. On a 2030 horizon forests represent the best solution to store carbon massively.



| Natural climate solutions: climate mitigation potential in 2030 (Gt CO₂e). Adapted from [20-21] |

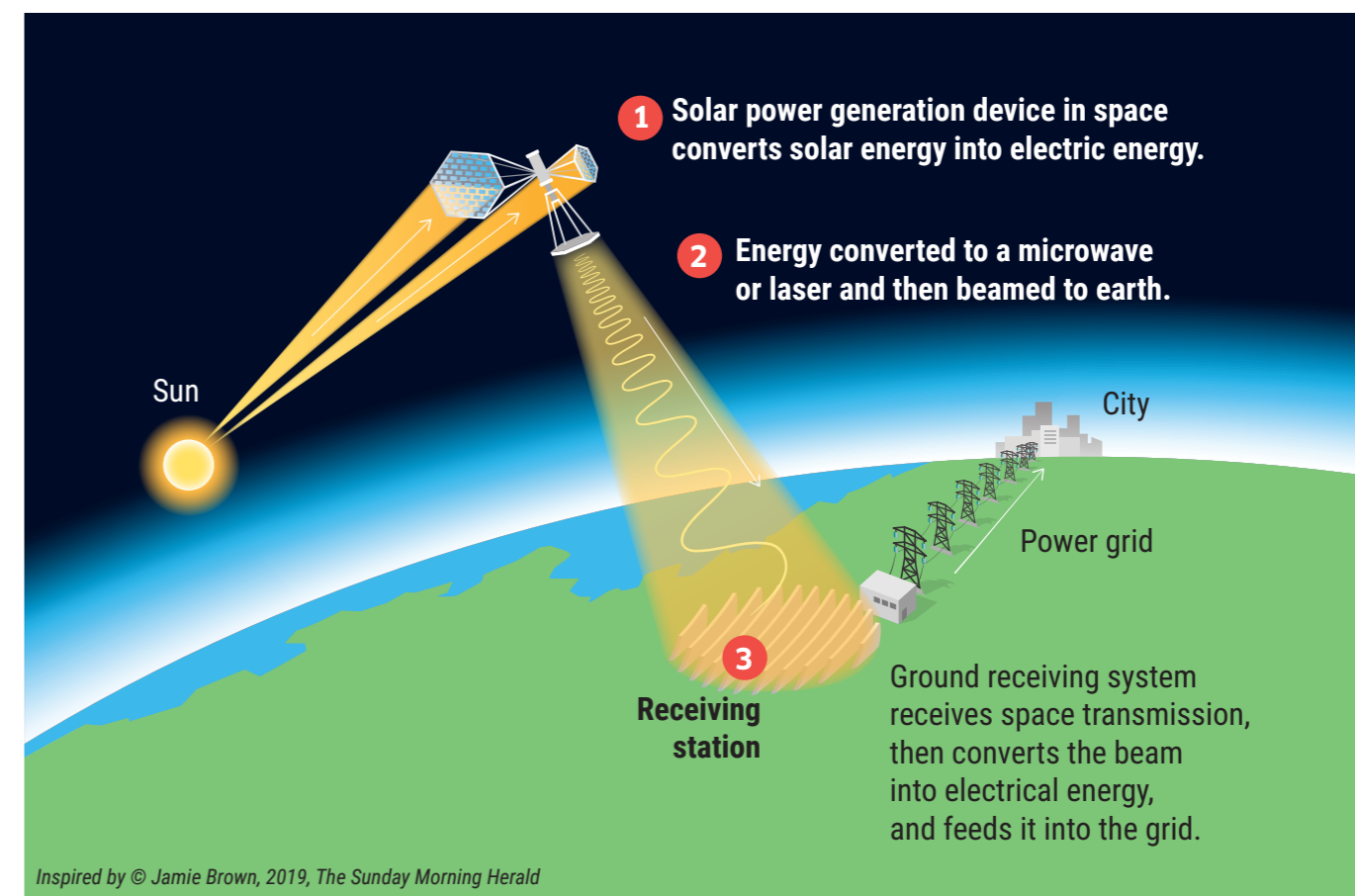
The removal and storage of CO₂ through vegetation and soil management can be reversed by human or natural disturbances; it is also prone to climate change impacts. In comparison, CO₂ stored in geological and ocean reservoirs (via BECCS, DACCS, ocean alkalisation) and as carbon in biochar is less prone to reversal. [2]

SOLAR SPACE POWER



Can we use Solar Power in Space to supply energy for Earth's consumption?

The concept of Space Based Solar Power (SSP) systems is to collect solar power in high earth orbits* and then transmit it wirelessly to Earth.



1

Solar power is collected by a solar power satellite which converts solar rays into electric energy.

2

The electric energy is then converted into another form of energy (such as microwaves (MPT) or laser (LPT)) which can be transmitted wirelessly through the atmosphere by antennas.

3

The ground-based receiving antennas, called rectennas, will convert the energy back into electrical energy before feeding it into the grid.

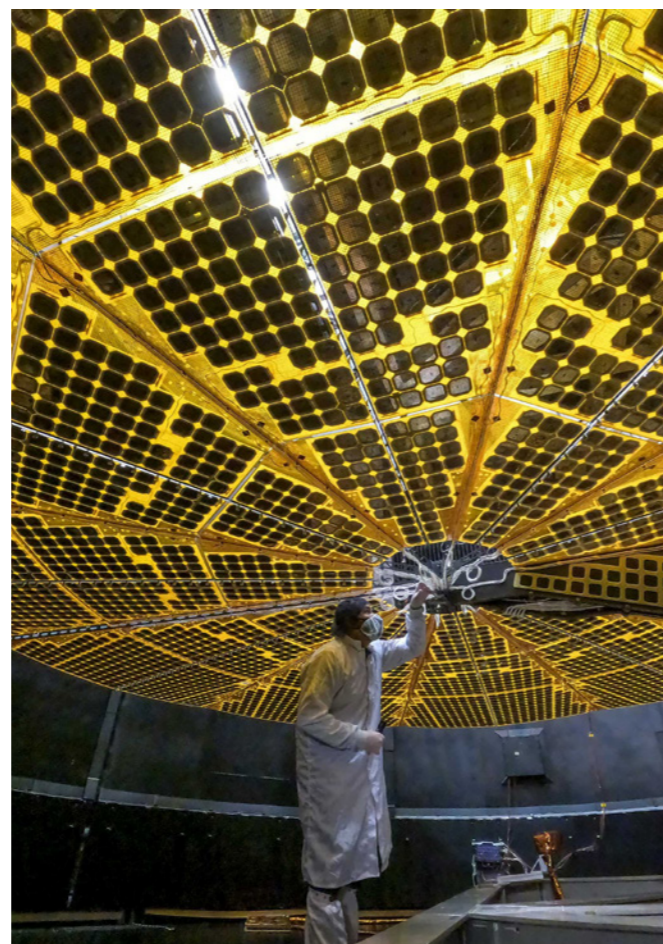
* Geostationary Earth Orbit (GEO) or Low Earth Orbit (LEO).

Over the past decade, advances within the space industry make SSP systems technically feasible, and potentially before 2050 [1] due to:

- **Decrease of space launch costs** thanks to ground-breaking commercial space firms like SpaceX or Blue Origin. Launch costs have already been reduced by 90% [1] and space hardware costs by 99%. [2-3]
- **Emerging technologies:** space robotics, more efficient PV technologies, lighter solar power satellites and others hold promise for the cost-effective manufacturing and deployment of exceptionally large space structures in the near term. [2]
- **Increase of strategic interests:** “Other nations may see strategic advantages and global influence in being able to develop a source of abundant affordable energy which could potentially be beamed anywhere in the world.” [1]



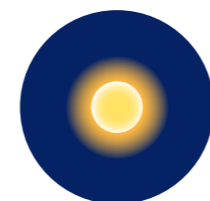
SpaceX Falcon 9 Reusable launch vehicle [SpaceX].



Deployable solar panels developed by NASA [NASA].

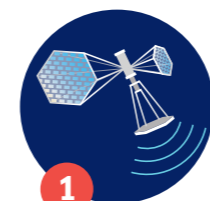


Different concepts of SSP are being developed but they all rely on the same building blocks.



The Sun

The Sun has the power to supply 2,880 trillion light bulbs [7] for billions of years. There is 100 times more solar energy available from a narrow strip around the earth at GEO, than the forecast global energy demands of humanity in 2050 [1].



Space-based solar panels

Enormous structures composed of solar reflectors allow the consistent reflection of sunlight onto solar panel arrays to maximise the produced electrical energy.

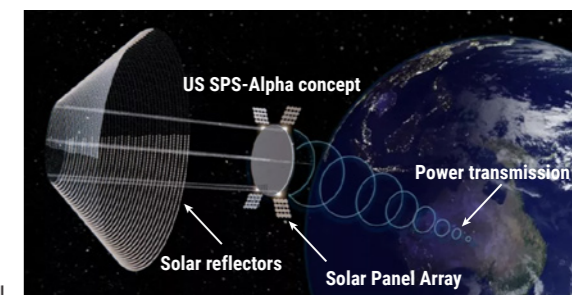


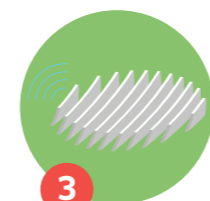
Illustration of the SPS-ALPHA («Solar Power Satellite by means of Arbitrarily Large Phased Array») system beaming energy to Australia. (Image credit: John Mankins/Artemis Innovation Management Solutions)



Microwave energy transfer

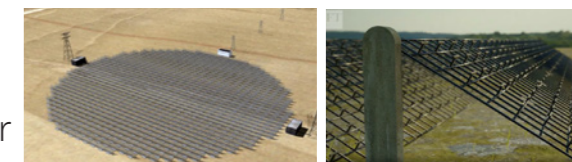
The electrical energy is converted into a high frequency radio-wave that will allow the transfer of energy to Earth using transmitting antennas:

- Specific frequency to be used,
- Safe as the intensity of the beam will be reasonable,
- Negligible absorption / heating inducing no heating in the atmosphere. [2]



Ground station

The radio-wave captured by a ground station of rectennas. This will need to have a diameter of several kms to capture the complete wave.



Ground station [2]

Rectennae [5]

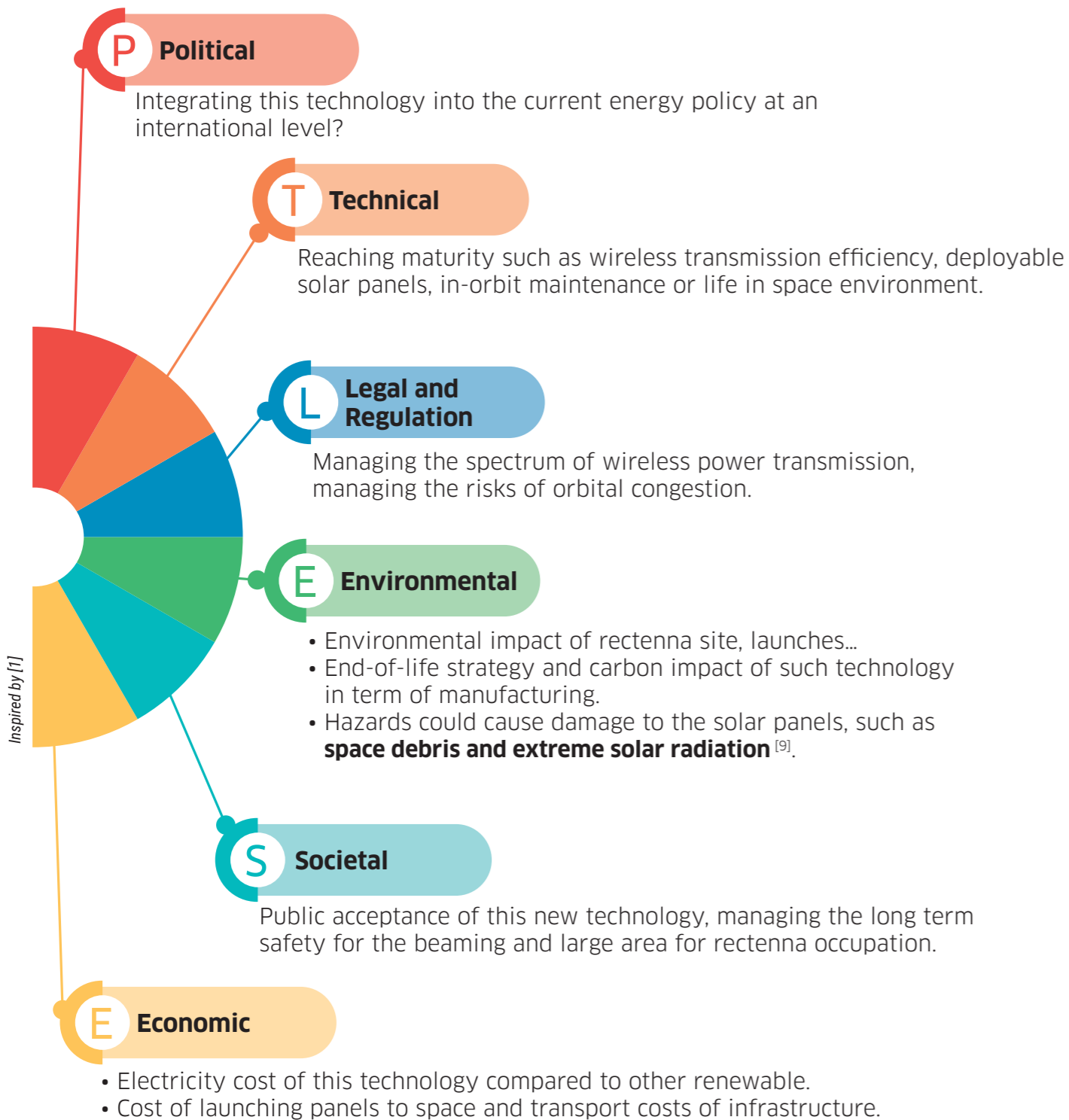


Existing infrastructure & Homes and businesses

The energy is then shared into the existing electric infrastructure leading to homes and businesses. Direct Current or Alternative Current is fed into the local grid. [2]

The technology's maturity is progressively increasing but still faces multiple challenges.

The technology currently faces multiples challenges on different aspects that will need to be solved for future implementation.



A broad number of companies have drawn up development roadmaps with the most ambitious ones aiming at an industrial application in the coming decade while the general understanding is to have full capacity systems by 2050.

2020-2030	2030-2040	2040-2050
DEVELOPMENT STAGE		
De-risk system demonstrator	Low Earth Orbit (LEO) demonstrator	Geostationary Earth Orbit (GEO) demonstrator systems
TECHNOLOGICAL FOCUSES		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wireless Power Transmission performance study • Effective power conversion techniques • Architecture optimization 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Testing of power transmitted from orbit to Earth • Viability of demonstrator • Study of atmospheric effect on Wireless Power Transmission 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Full-scale demonstrator of operational system • Industrialisation of SPS with manufacturing and launching • Connection to grid

Inspired by the developpement programms from [1-3-6-7-8]

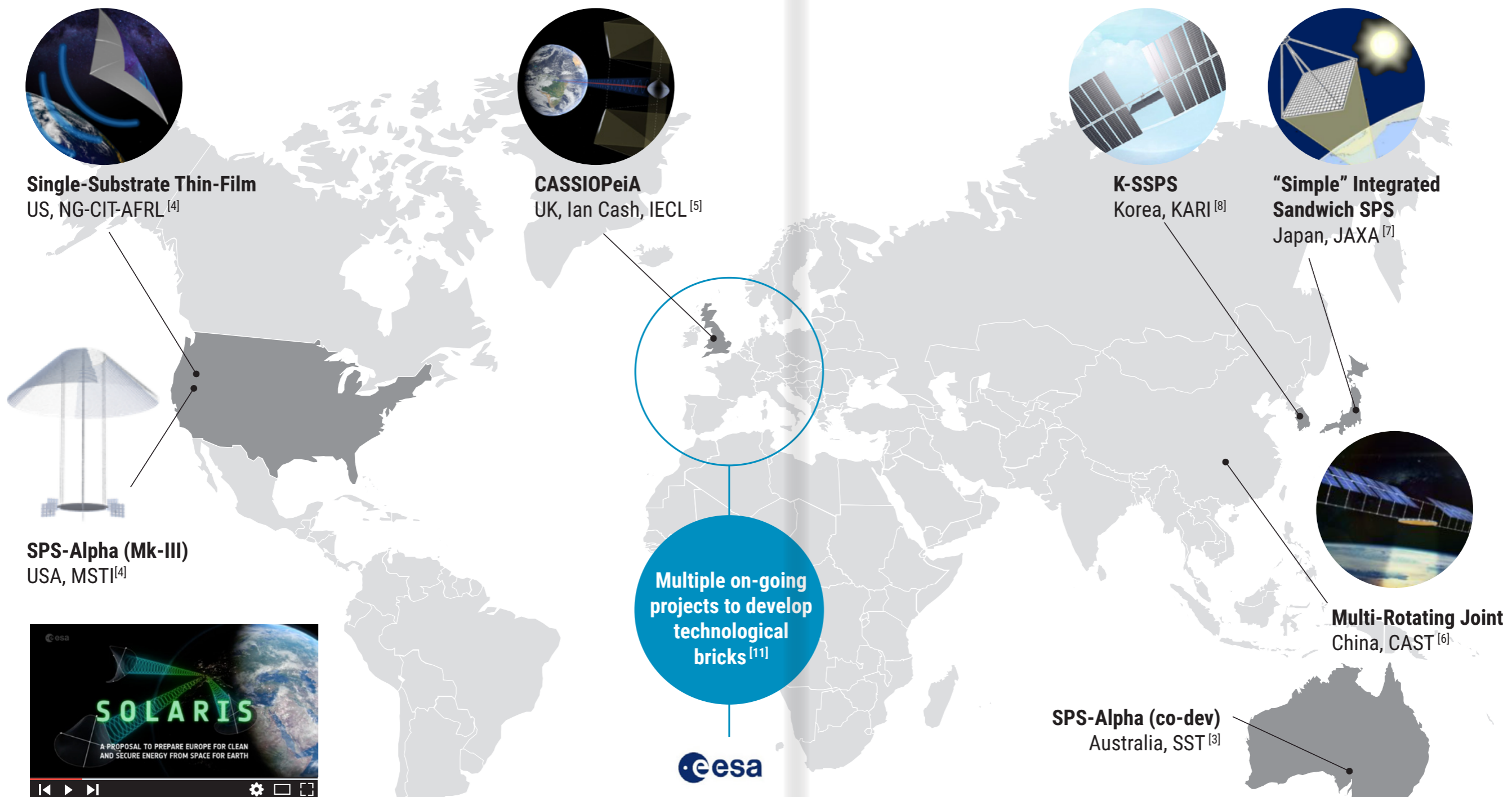
Continuous green energy production with no GHG emissions make SSP a credible candidate in the carbon neutrality race.



ADVANTAGES

- **Low carbon payback period:** The space-based solar power will generate 0% greenhouse gas emissions on Earth during its operation. [1-7-9]
- **No intermittency :** This technology can generate continuous electricity, 24 hours a day as, unlike Earth, the space environment does not have night and day, and the satellites are in the Earth's shadow for only a maximum of 72 minutes per night. [1-9-10]
- **Competitive energy production:** The efficiency of solar panels will also be much higher than Earth's applications, and have a favourable estimated LCOE compared to current technologies used on Earth. [1-9]

Different concepts of SSP are currently being developed over the world.



Testing technical, political and programmatic viability of SSP for terrestrial needs

SOLARIS

End of Life Management



Receiver Concept & Wireless Power Transfer



Photovoltaic Technology



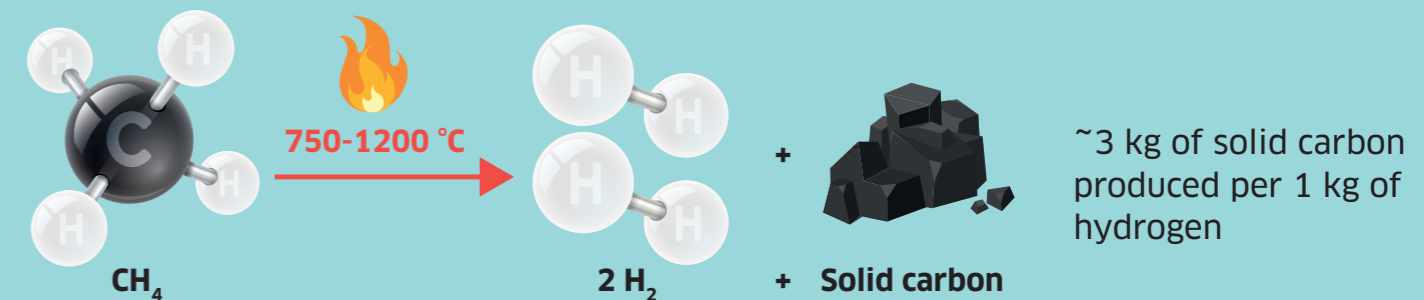
In-space manufacturing & assembly



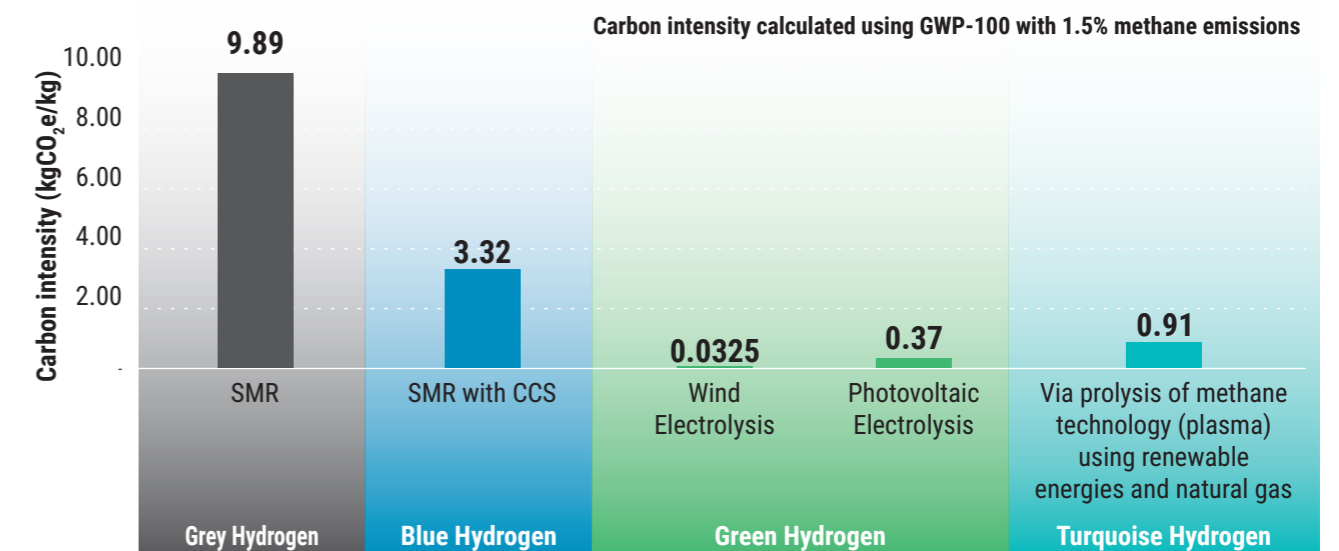
PYROLYSIS FOR TURQUOISE HYDROGEN?

Methane pyrolysis is a set of emerging technologies that allow hydrogen production while avoiding CO₂ emissions. Carbon is stored in a solid form.

Commonly named "Turquoise hydrogen", methane pyrolysis is the conversion of natural gas into hydrogen and solid carbon.



Methane pyrolysis could present an alternative way to produce low-carbon hydrogen, while benefiting from existing gas natural infrastructure and perpetuating its usage.



| Comparison of grey, blue, green and turquoise hydrogen carbon intensity. Adapted from source [1] |

Using fossil natural gas, turquoise hydrogen performs significantly better than both grey and blue hydrogen, but less than wind electrolysis having almost negligible production emissions. Variability of carbon intensity for pyrolysis processes will depend a lot on up-stream emissions from natural gas supply chain and down-stream emissions from solid carbon valorisation.

Several technology families allow turquoise hydrogen production all based on the same challenge: how to control reactions at high temperature?

	1 Plasma Pyrolysis	2 Thermal Pyrolysis	3 Catalytic Pyrolysis
Description	Electric power ignites a plasma in CH ₄ gas generating H ₂ and solid C	Molten media (salts or metals) baths to decompose CH ₄ into H ₂ and solid C	Catalytic decomposition of CH ₄ in a fluidized or fix bed
Development status	Commercial demonstrator	Lab scale	Demonstrator
TRL	TRL 5-9	TRL 3-5	TRL 4-7
Current max H ₂ capacity	≈ 104 kg H ₂ / day (MONOLITH)	≈ 10 kg H ₂ / day (Lab scale - C-ZERO)	≈ 103 kg H ₂ / day (HAZER)
Conversion rate (NG to H ₂)	~ 85%	~ 75%	~ 85%
Electrical consumption (kWh/ kg H ₂)	>10	Unknown	> 10 (HAZER)
Stakeholders			

Source [2]

2 Thermal Pyrolysis

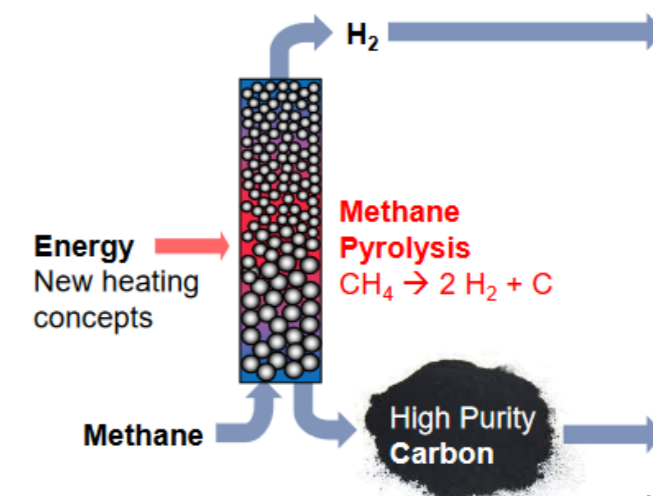


Source [3-5]

Uses molten media reactors (salt and or metal) which enhances the heat transfer between the gas bubbled and the molten media.

Operating temperature is around 1000°C.

3 Catalytic Pyrolysis

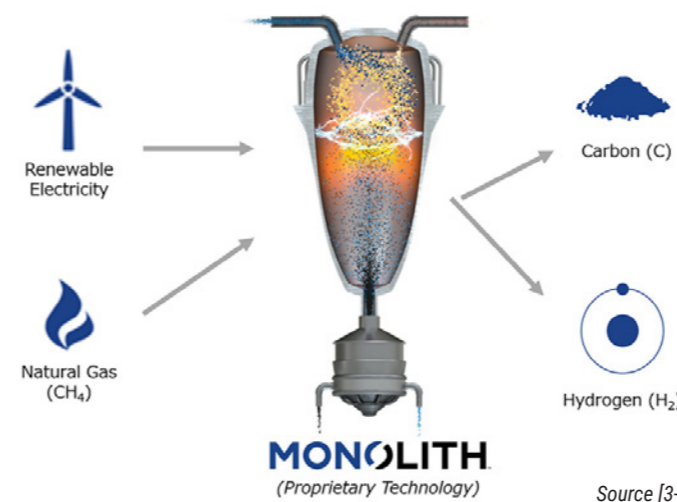


Source [3-6]

Methane breaks down into hydrogen and carbon over a carbon or metal catalyst (nickel- or iron-based) at a temperature between 650-1100°C.



1 Plasma Pyrolysis



Source [3-4]

Utilized a plasma torch where methane pyrolyzes at 1000°C (cold plasma) - 2000°C (hot plasma).

Cold plasma leads to conversions less than 50% without the presence of catalysts while hot plasma results in conversion over 90%.

Depending on carbon quality, several carbon valorisation paths are possible.

Currently, carbon is mainly used as activated carbon or for batteries.



“Activated carbon is used to purify liquids and gases in a variety of applications, including municipal drinking water, food and beverage processing, odor removal, industrial pollution control.” [7]

The addition of carbon black or graphite is optional at the anode, but mandatory at the cathode. Carbon black is used for its conductivity and corrosion resistance.

Carbon Disruptive applications will be necessary to expand a solid carbon market in the future if H₂ demand is satisfied by methane pyrolysis. Indeed, the current carbon markets are either small or not mature.



Reinforce mine shafts to prevent sinkholes in mines in Germany.



Reinforce asphalt providing higher resistance to mechanical and thermal distresses.



As a filler in concrete, after validation in pilots.



Sequestered in open pit mines.

Why is methane pyrolysis attractive?



ADVANTAGES

- No direct CO₂ created in the process - carbon captured as solid carbon.
- Competitive solution requiring less energy than Steam Methane Reforming (SMR).
- Production on site (limited land footprint, no added infrastructure, no water use).
- Technology under development to target commercial scale by 2026.
- A complement to green H₂ when renewable energy is not affordable/available and natural gas accessible at a good price.



CHALLENGES

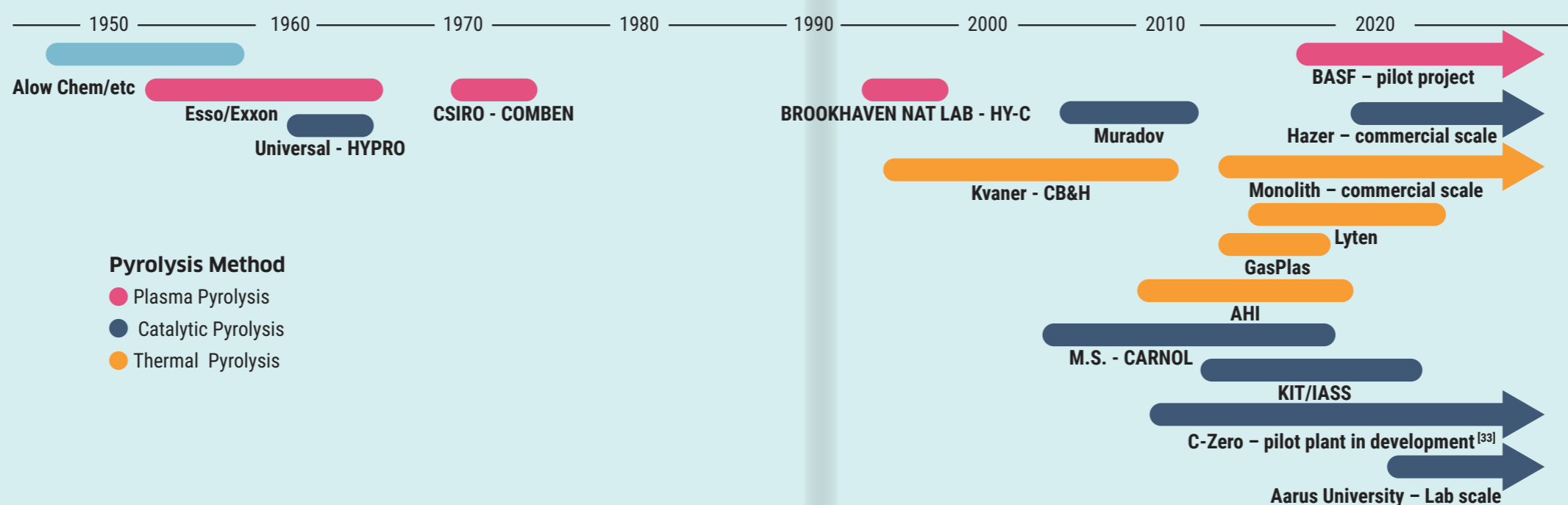
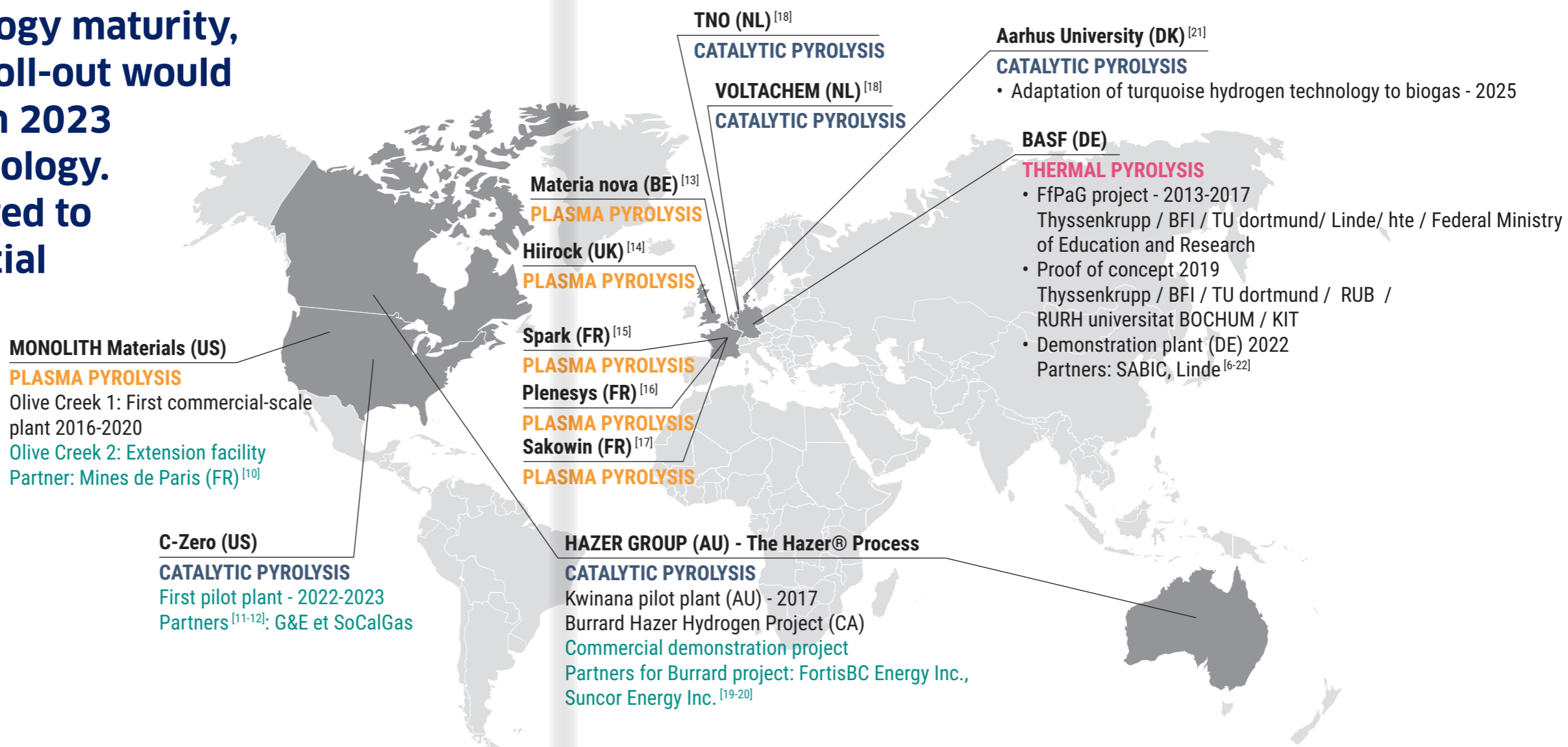
- Manage CH₄ emissions along the supply chain and during conversion.
- Still use of fossil energy.
- Deal with carbon valorization.
- Optimize energy integration .
- Maximise energy efficiency in a high temperature process (750 - 1200°C).
- Manage carbon storage? Size & quality issues.
- Plasma technologies require electricity thus presenting less interest to complement electrolysis in regions lacking affordable renewable electricity.

Sources [3-4-5-6-8-9]

Using biomethane or e-methane will lead to a negative hydrogen carbon-intensity making turquoise hydrogen a game-changer for the energy transition

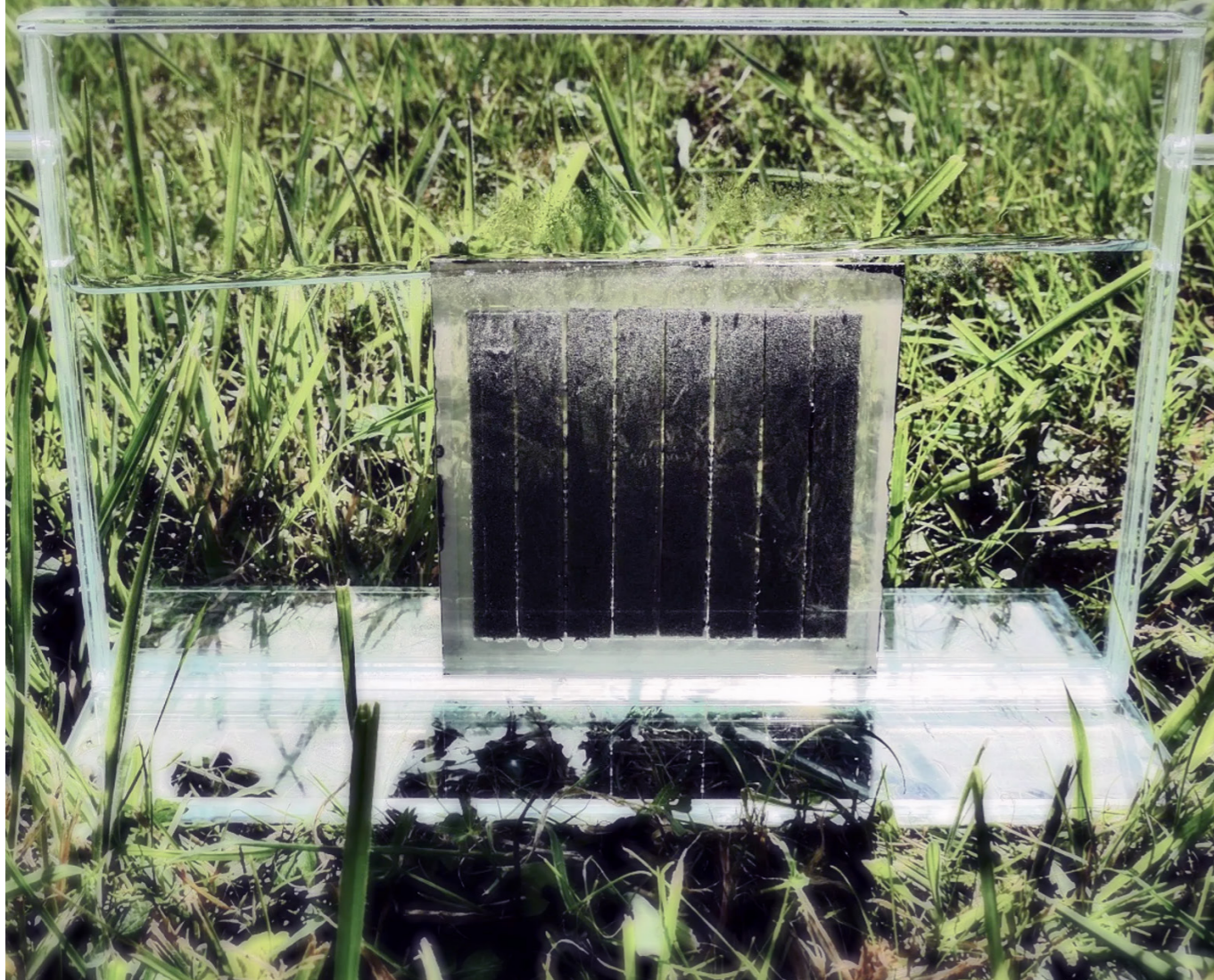
“Using renewable-natural-gas with a feedstock percentage as low as 8-18% leads to a negative hydrogen carbon-intensity (reaching -4.09 to -10.40 kg CO₂ eq/kg H₂ at 100% renewable natural gas), the lowest compared to grey, blue, and green hydrogen.” [1]

Given current technology maturity, the first commercial roll-out would be expected to start in 2023 for the catalytic technology. Other ones are expected to be built on a commercial scale between 2025 and 2035.



Updated from [6]

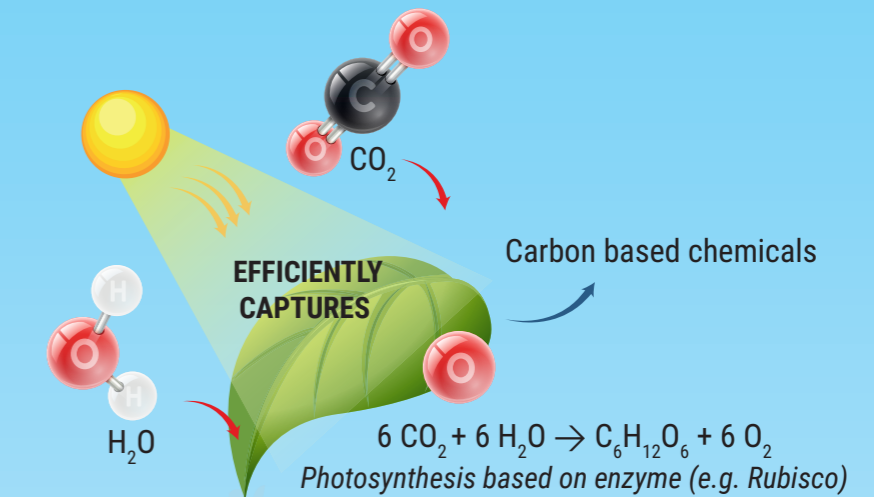
LIGHT-DRIVEN CHEMISTRY TO SOLAR FUELS PRODUCTION



Light-driven chemical synthesis.

“Photosynthesis efficiently captures solar energy, but its subsequent conversion into chemical energy in the form of biomass is limited in terms of efficiency in the range between 1 to 4%. Re-routing of photosynthetic electron transport and reducing power directly into desired pathways offers a sustainable production of high-value products.”^[1]

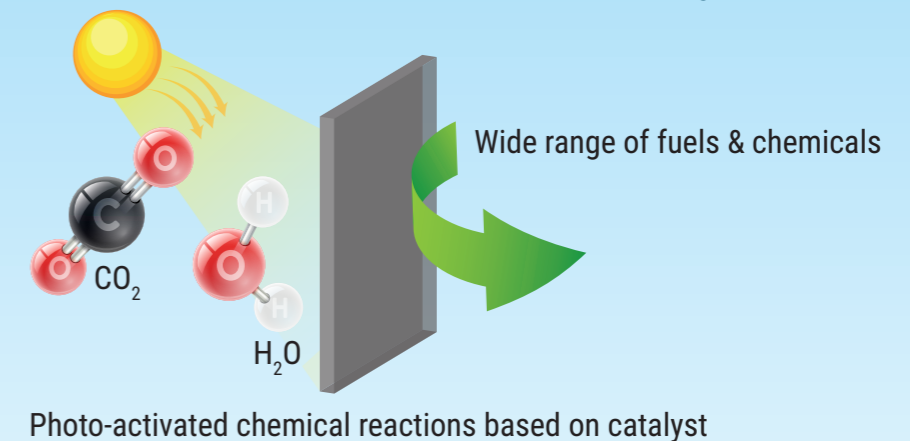
Light driven processes involved in natural photosynthesis



R&D
development



Artificialisation of the process thanks to catalysts



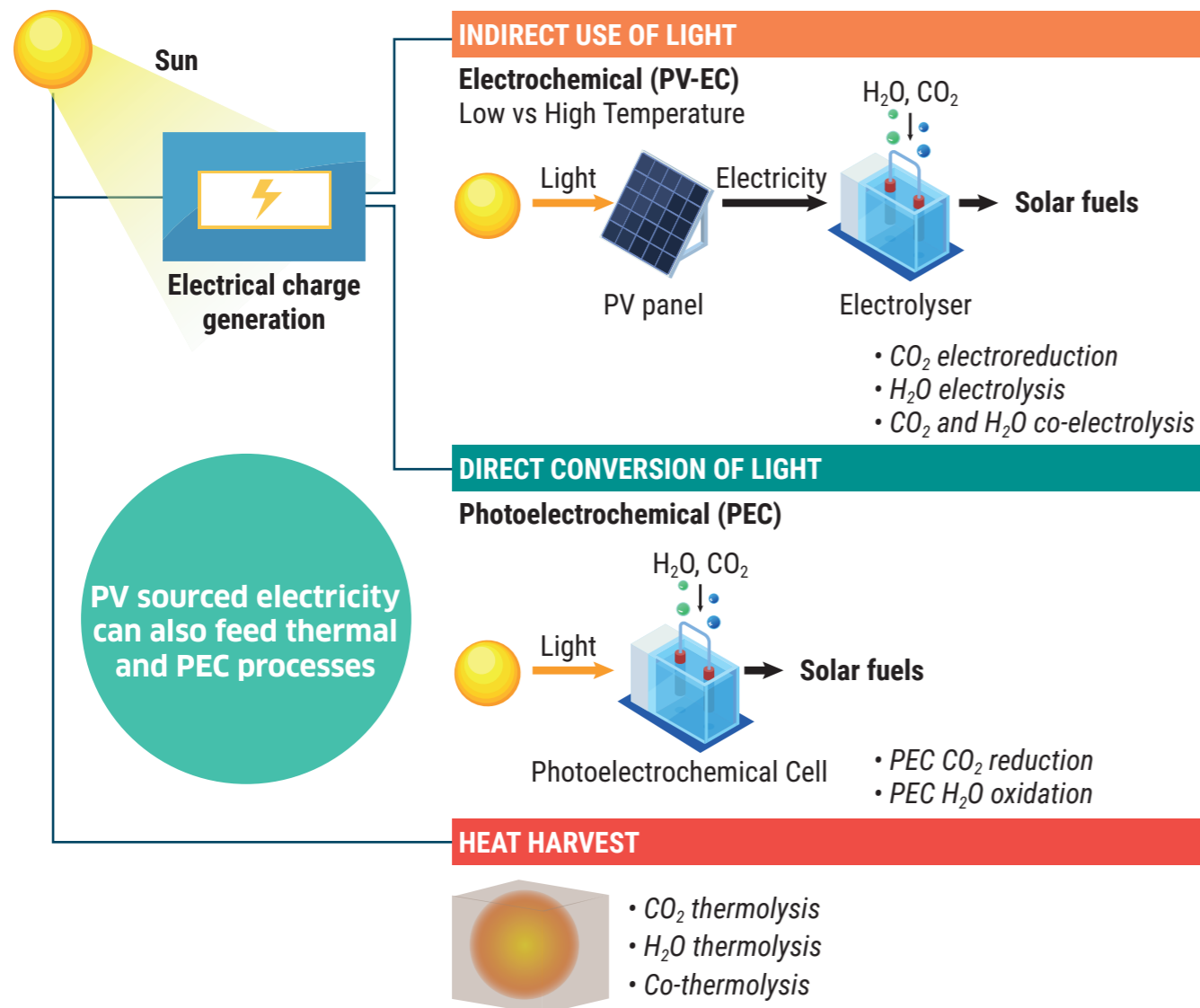
Source [1]

What does it mean?

“Solar fuels are fuels made from common substances like water and carbon dioxide using the energy of sunlight. Solar energy can be used through heat harvesting or electrical charge generation.” [2]

Solar fuels =

- Hydrogen from H₂O
- Syngas, methane/methanol, formic acid, C₂ + liquid fuels... from CO₂ / CO₂ + H₂O



3 main solar splitting processes to produce H₂.

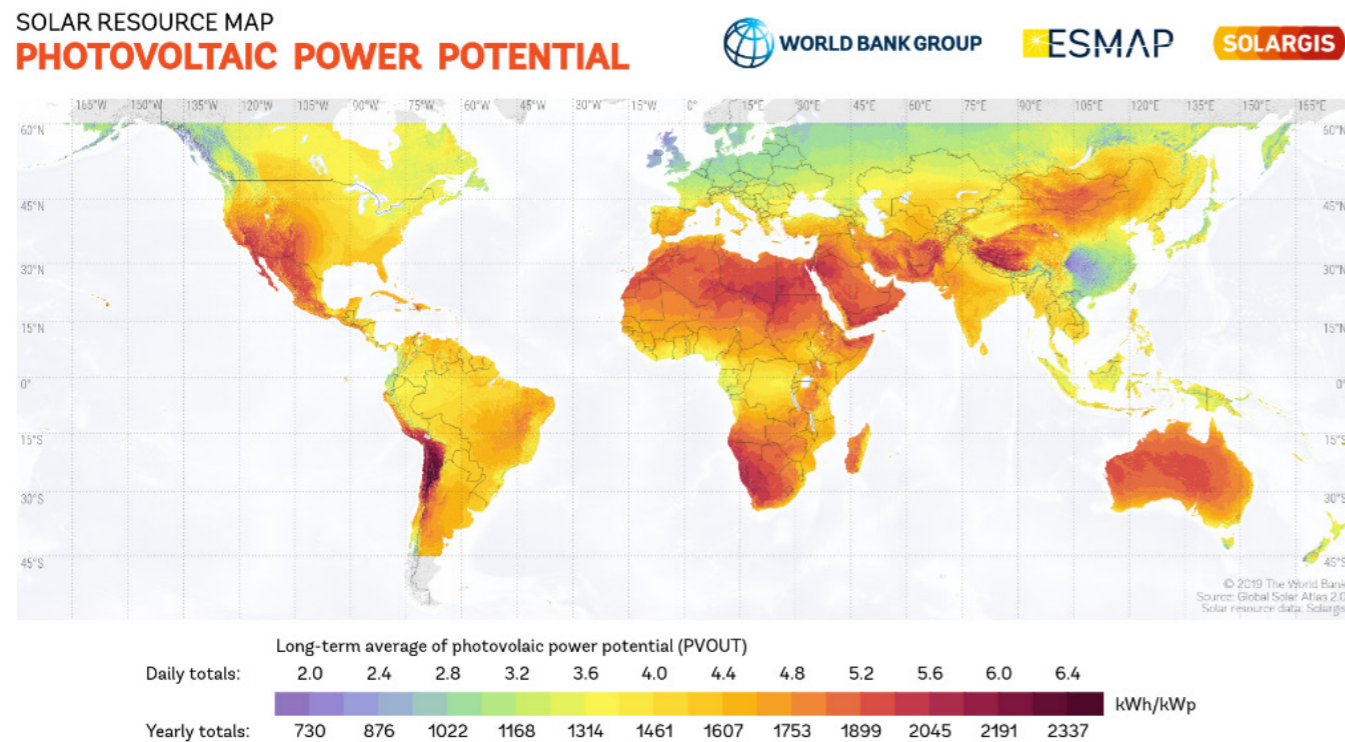
Photovoltaic-electrochemical (PV-EC) system	Photoelectrochemical (PEC) system	Photocatalytic (PC) particulate system
Mature technology	In development	Innovation
PV apparatus absorbs photons and generates power, which is transmitted to the EC cell, where electrodes perform redox reaction	Contains one or two photoelectrodes. Hence the light absorption and the redox reactions take place at the same location.	High specific surface photocatalyst
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 👍 PV device is a relatively mature technology 👍 Light absorber can be outside of the aqueous solution, so no photo-corrosion issues 👍 2-compartment cell: easy chemical separation 👍 PV and EC systems can be freely modulated 👍 PV and EC systems can be freely modulated 👍 Two-step process: larger footprint, more raw material needed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 👍 Integrated one-step process: lighter footprint/lower raw material needs 👍 2-compartment cell: easy chemical separation 👍 PV and EC systems can be freely modulated ⚠️ Light absorber in contact with solution: photocorrosion issues 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 👍 Simplest system: no electrical circuit involved, no electrolyte needed 👍 Both reduction and oxidation reactions take place at the surface of particles, so the distance between the two sites is very limited, which favors efficiency and allows functioning without additional electrolyte ⚠️ Chemical separator is needed (H₂ and O₂ recombination is explosive!)

Source [3]

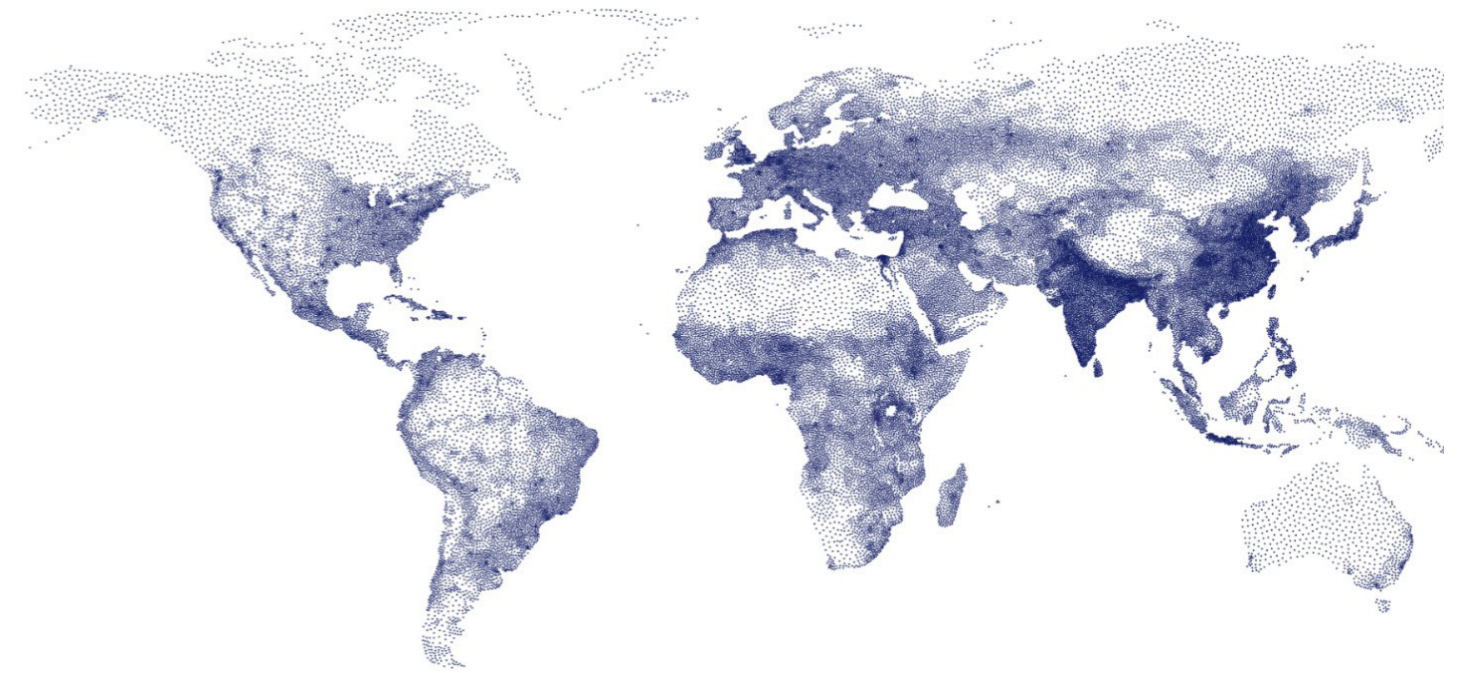
Long-term storage and long-distance transport of intermittent solar energy.

Even if large scale electrification is part of most decarbonisation roadmaps, deployment of solar fuels technologies will still be needed for long-term storage and long-distance transport of intermittent solar energy into molecules.

Indeed, world distribution of solar radiation does not match the population density distribution. Fuels become necessary for storage and long-distance transport of the harvested energy.



Solar resource map: photovoltaic power potential.
© 2020 The World Bank, Source: Global Solar Atlas 2.0, Solar resource data: Solargis.



Population density map.^[4]

Taking advantage of unlimited and free solar energy is one of the primary goals of solar fuels.

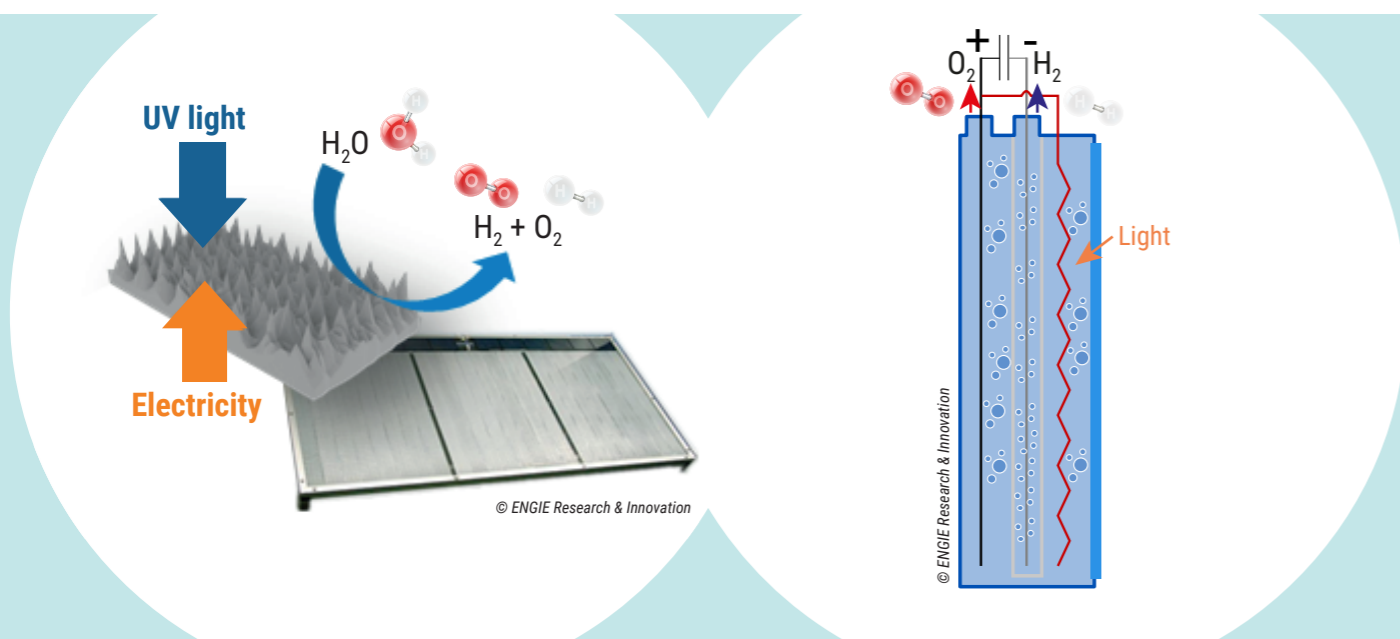
Areas receiving the greatest solar illumination are often not the most densely populated ones. Therefore, harvesting solar energy through solar fuels becomes essential.

Electrochemical CO₂ reduction technologies are not yet available on the market: while few large technology providers dominate the market on high-temperature electrolysis, **a surge of start-ups and R&D centers are positioning themselves on low-temperature electrolysis.**

NanoH₂

ENGIE Research & Innovation works on solar-assisted electrolysis of hydrogen technology that allows the reduction of electrical cost of hydrogen by direct use of sunlight.

With a much lower TRL, **CO₂-based PEC solar fuels are today mainly developed at prototype scale** by academics even if growing interest is observed from some industrial players, already positioned in H₂ production by PE.



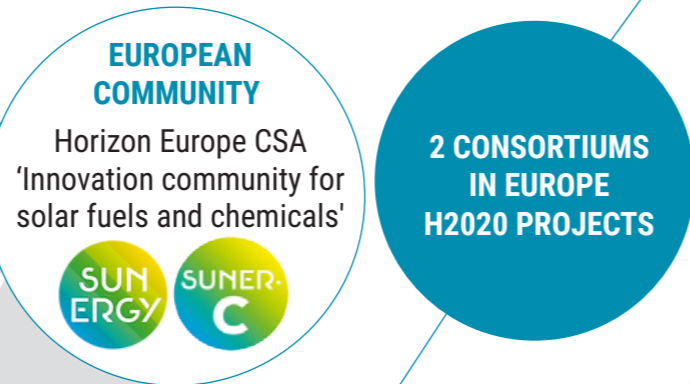
Technological disruptions:

- **High scalability:**
Panel design allows to precisely scale production capacity to customer needs.
- **High modularity:**
Adding and removing panels to adjust the production capacity to customer needs.
- **Ease production of green hydrogen:**
Green hydrogen production does not rely only on electrical mix.
- **Steppingstone:**
Engineering solutions developed can be applied to fully photocatalytic systems once their durability and efficiency reaches industrial standards.



Today, solar fuels solution are trusted by a European consortium while an increasing number of industrial players launch PEC H₂ production.

- **SUNER-C** an EU project for the coordination and the support action to accelerate the transition of technologies for the generation of solar fuels and chemicals^[5]
- Members of the **SUNERGY** Community



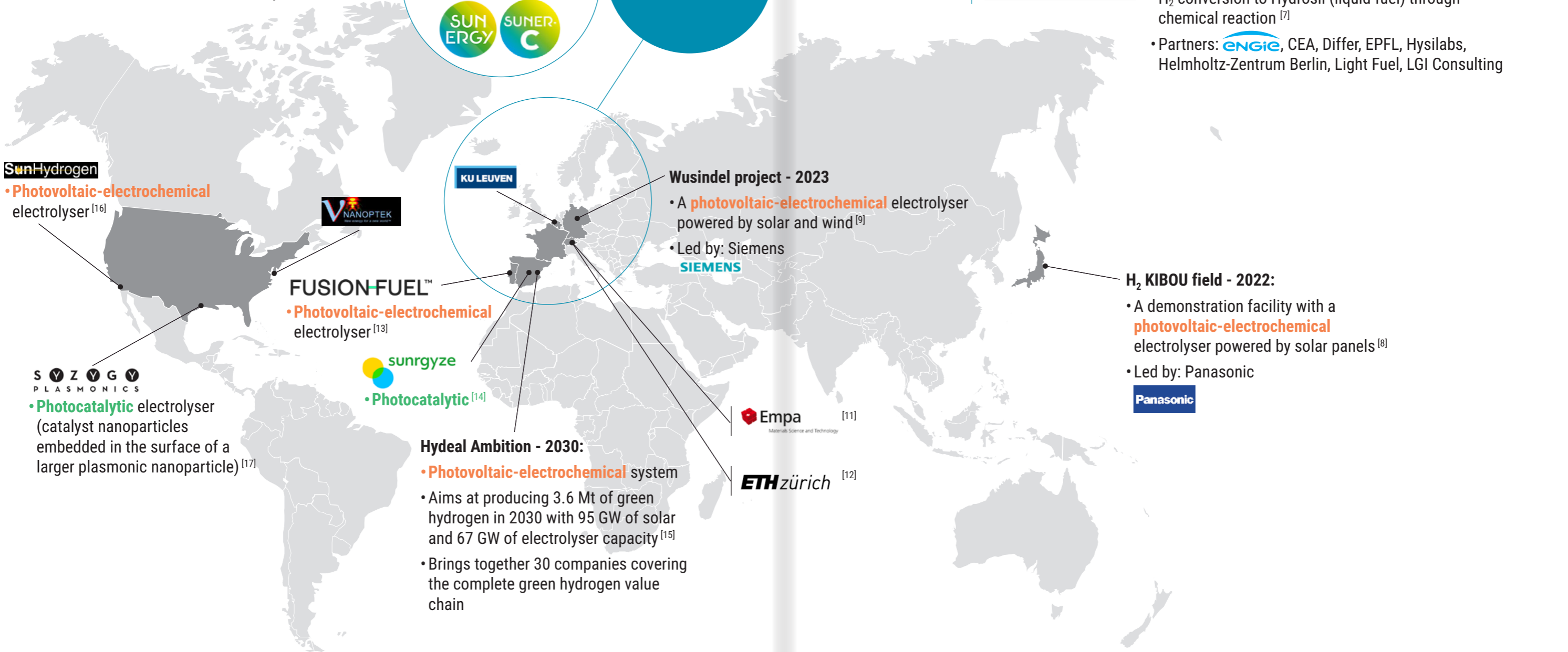
Technology:

- Flow photoelectrochemical cell for the production of H₂ and CO (syngas) and biomass valorisation
- **Photocatalytic** reactor for the conversion of syngas (produced in compartment 1) into fuel (CH₃OH or DME)^[6]
- Partners: **ENGIE**, University of Bologne, Catalan inst. for chemical research, national research council of Italy, Utrecht University, University of Ferrara, Hygear, Amires, The University of Carolina at Chapel Hill



Technology:

- **Photoelectrochemical** process to produce H₂
- H₂ conversion to Hydrosil (liquid fuel) through chemical reaction^[7]
- Partners: **ENGIE**, CEA, Differ, EPFL, Hysilabs, Helmholtz-Zentrum Berlin, Light Fuel, LGI Consulting



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CRITICAL MATERIAL CHALLENGE: EXAMPLES OF TERA-WATT SCALE PV AND BATTERIES

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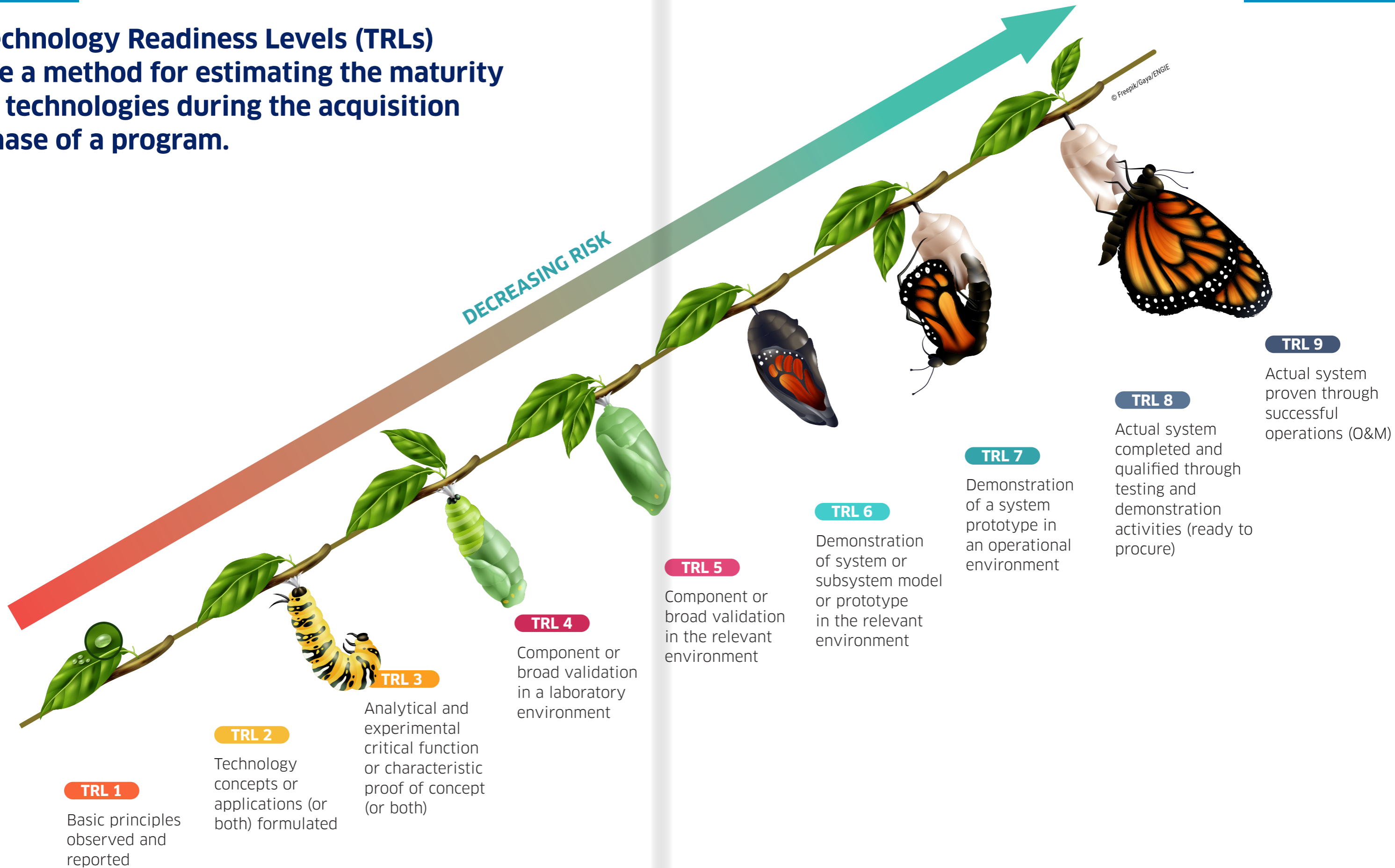
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Technology Readiness Levels (TRLs) are a method for estimating the maturity of technologies during the acquisition phase of a program.



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