

1 **Pipeline availability limits on the feasibility of global coal-to-** 2 **gas switching in the power sector**

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8 **ABSTRACT**

9 Coal-to-gas switching in the power sector, as happened in the US, has been a key driver of near-
10 term greenhouse gas emissions reductions. Can this success be replicated around the world?
11 Here, we explore the limits of a global, plant-level, coal-to-gas transition arising from pipeline
12 availability constraints. Globally, only 43% of coal capacity is within 14 km of a nearby pipeline,
13 the median distance for recent coal-to-gas conversions. Furthermore, plant-to-pipeline distance
14 distributions vary widely – only 30% of coal capacity in India is within 14 km of a nearby
15 pipeline. Most global coal fleets are in the intermediate space of balancing two competing
16 interests – having a young coal fleet with high “avoided” emissions potential through coal-to-gas
17 switching but without access to low-cost gas resources. A global stocktake based on coal fleet
18 age, pipeline access, and natural gas supply security suggests that a coal-to-gas transition is
19 unlikely to be a universal climate solution.

20 **Keywords:** coal-to-gas switching, gas pipeline, coal power plant, geographical constraints

21 Power sector decarbonization has emerged as a central part of system wide emissions
22 reduction through electrification [1]. At a global level, coal is still the dominant fuel for power
23 generation with a share of 35.2% in 2020 [2]. The share of renewables in power generation rose
24 to record levels in 2020 (11.7%), with the combined share of natural gas-fired power and
25 renewables equaling and soon surpassing coal for the first time [3]. Given the inertia associated
26 with expanding renewable energy infrastructure and the outsized impact of coal-burning on both
27 global GHG emissions as well as air quality, there is a potential benefit to coal-to-gas switching
28 in parallel to the transition to low carbon alternatives [4]. Early opportunities from fuel switching
29 between fossil fuels represent a potential quick win only if avoiding longer-term climate impacts
30 through lock-in is prioritized.

31 Natural gas (NG) has served as a viable bridge away from coal-based generation in the short
32 term, as demonstrated by success in the United States and Europe [5-9]. While there is wide
33 variation in life-cycle emissions across different sources of coal and NG, an estimated 98% of
34 gas consumed today has a lower lifecycle emissions intensity than coal when used for power [4,
35 6, 10-15]. Furthermore, the displacement of coal generation by NG has led to a decrease in
36 pollutants, such as sulfur dioxide, nitrogen oxides, and mercury, particularly from older coal
37 power plants [16]. Yet, effective coal-to-gas switching requires alterations in current
38 technological regimes, infrastructure investments, and supportive energy policies, such as a
39 carbon price [17-19]. Given the rollout of carbon neutrality goals in most countries and the Paris
40 Agreement's 1.5 °C climate target, there is a need to rapidly shift away from unabated coal use.

41 There are three main ways in which NG can substitute for coal in power generation – (1)
42 preferential dispatch of existing gas plants over coal plants, (2) retirement of coal plants and the
43 construction of new NG plants in other locations within an electricity grid, and (3) repowering of
44 existing coal plants by converting the boiler of a coal-fired steam plant to burn NG. In this work,
45 we focus on repowering which reduces capex costs compared with retirement and new
46 construction by making use of existing infrastructure.

47 Coal phaseout and the prioritization of plant retirement in the power sector have been
48 investigated thoroughly based on environmental, economic, regulatory, and technical criteria [4,
49 20-30]. For coal-to-gas switching, there are also a variety of multidimensional factors that need
50 to be considered when choosing to repower, rather than retire or continue to operate a coal-fired
51 unit. Previous repowered coal-fired units seem to share many characteristics with retired units
52 [31]. On average, units selected for retirement or repower were smaller, older, less fuel-efficient,
53 and more likely to operate within a regulated electricity market. One of the most obvious
54 differences between a power plant that repowers versus retires is the need for additional NG
55 infrastructure, which can be one of the most significant costs in a coal-to-gas conversion project.
56 For cost-effective operation, a power plant must receive NG via a pipeline spur from the main
57 transmission line. If a spur does not currently exist, the plant will need to evaluate the costs and
58 activities, including permits and land rights, associated with constructing a new spur [28].
59 Indeed, recent studies suggest that building pipeline infrastructure is one of the biggest costs
60 associated with a potential coal-to-gas transition [32-34]. In many cases, existing coal plants
61 lack sufficient infrastructure for gas delivery which would need to be newly constructed.
62 Intuitively, the clearest case for switching from coal to gas comes when there is a possibility to
63 use pre-existing infrastructure to provide similar energy services but with lower emissions. A
64 significant NG transmission and distribution pipeline system and spare fuel supply-chain
65 capacity must already exist to support the transition while avoiding further high-carbon
66 infrastructure lock-in through the build-out of new pipelines [35, 36]. So, if both the relative

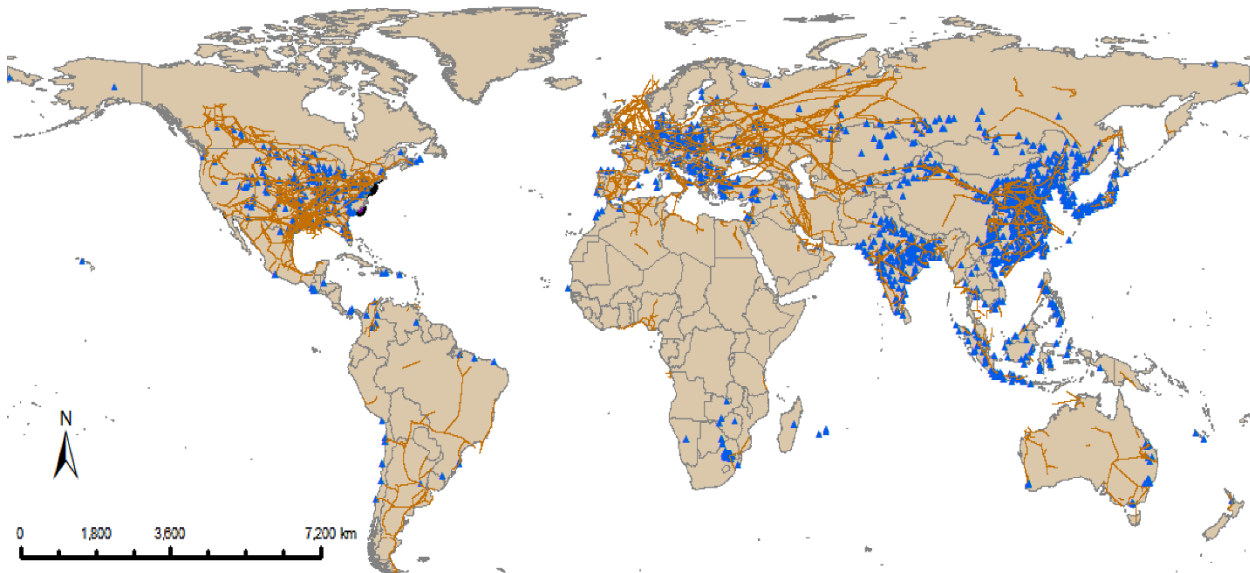
67 price of coal vs NG and regulatory support for switching, then geographical constraint, in the
 68 form of gas pipeline availability, can be critical to the feasibility of coal-to-gas switching and has
 69 never been thoroughly discussed before.

70 This study focuses on investigating the feasibility of coal-to-gas switching across global coal
 71 power plants from a novel perspective - geographical infrastructure constraints, defined as the
 72 nearest distance of coal power plants to existing gas pipelines. This paper is structured as
 73 follows: we first review the global distribution of coal power plants and their proximity to gas
 74 transmission pipelines. Next, we analyze pipeline availability limits to coal-to-gas switching on
 75 regional and national scales. Then, we discuss how factors such as the age of the coal fleet and
 76 NG supply availability further limit the potential for coal-to-gas transition. We conclude with a
 77 discussion of the implications of global carbon emissions.

78 **Results**

79 **Global coal plants and gas transmission pipelines**

80 Figure 1 shows the network of global coal power plants and gas transmission pipelines
 81 based on data as of August 2021. Coal plants mostly concentrate in East and South Asia, Eastern
 82 Europe, and North America. 1610 GW or about 78% of total global coal generation capacity is
 83 concentrated in just 5 countries: China, the United States, India, Japan, and Germany.
 84 Meanwhile, China, Europe, and North America also have more densely distributed gas pipelines
 85 compared to other regions. Coal plants that have access to nearby gas pipeline infrastructure
 86 have fewer barriers and lower costs in the near-term transition from coal to gas. Recent research
 87 has demonstrated that barriers to new pipeline construction including costs, local opposition, and
 88 regulatory delays can be considerable [37]. Thus, the coal-to-gas transition is likely more
 89 feasible in regions that have more dense gas pipeline networks. Conversely, isolated coal plants
 90 are the most unlikely candidates for coal-to-gas conversion.



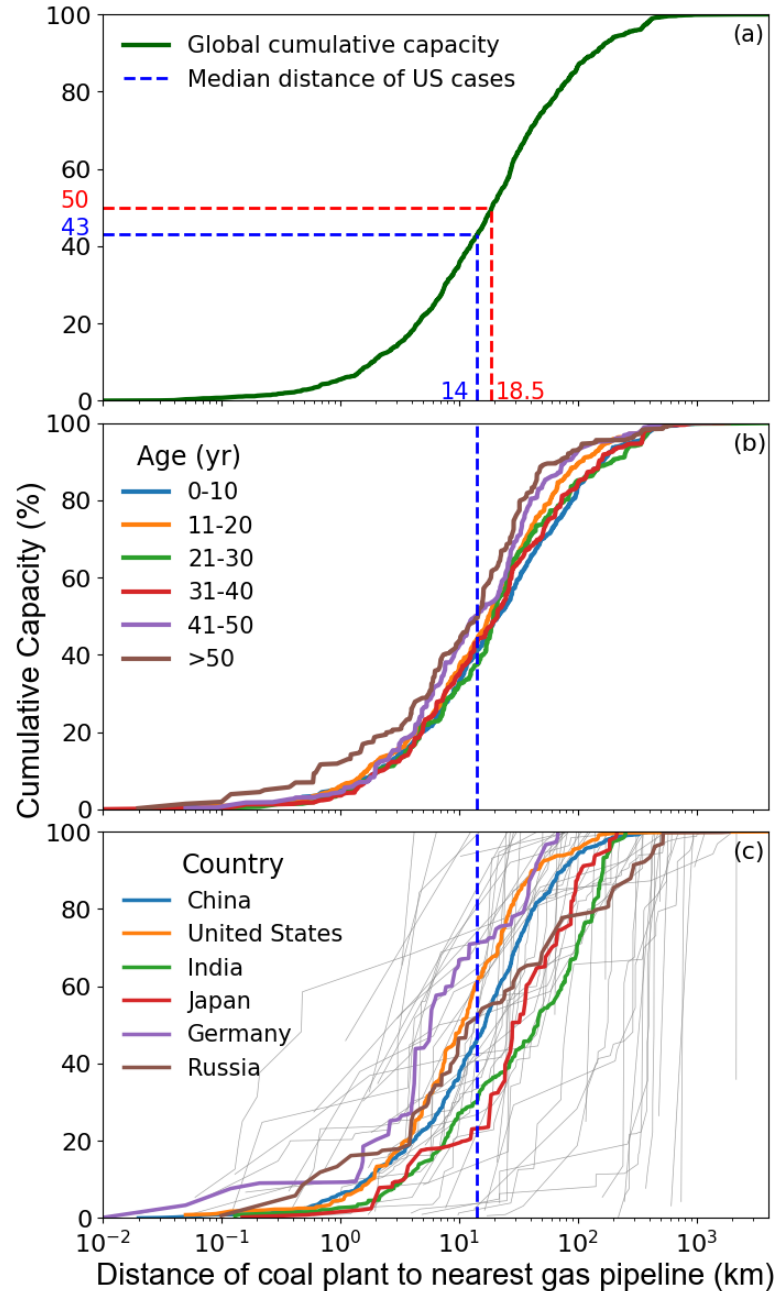
91
 92 *Figure 1. The network of global coal power plants (blue triangles) and gas transmission*
 93 *pipelines (orange lines). India, China, the US, and Eastern Europe represent around 82% of*

94 *total coal power generation capacity. China, Europe, and the US also have dense gas*
95 *transmission networks.*

96 Figure 2(a) shows the cumulative global coal capacity as a function of the distance of coal
97 plant to nearest gas pipeline. Globally, half of the total coal power plant capacity is located
98 within 18.5 km to the nearest gas pipeline. Comparing this to the median US coal-to-gas pipeline
99 distance of 14 km, nearly 43% of global coal-powered capacity will not be constrained by
100 pipeline availability for coal-to-gas switching. However, coal plants where coal-to-gas switching
101 is feasible because of nearby pipeline access, are not uniformly distributed around the world.

102 Figure 2(b) shows the cumulative global coal capacity as a function of the distance of coal
103 plant to the nearest gas pipeline disaggregated by age of the plant. The global coal-based
104 generation fleet is young – 50% of global capacity is younger than 13.2 years. However, the
105 plants that are closer to a nearby gas pipeline are generally older. For example, nearly 50% of
106 coal plants older than 50 years are within 14 km of a gas pipeline. However, for plants that are
107 21 – 30 years old, less than 40% have a gas pipeline within the 14 km empirical US-median
108 distance. Thus, the feasibility of coal-to-gas transition based on pipeline availability is higher for
109 coal plants over 40 years than coal plants younger than 30 years. Given that older plants are near
110 the end of their operational lifetimes and may require significant investments to extend their
111 usable lifetimes for NG conversion, it might make more environmental sense to replace them
112 with zero-carbon alternatives, especially in countries with more stringent environmental
113 regulations or ambitious climate targets. Except for plants over 40 years old, the coal plant
114 cohort in the 11 – 20 year age has the next largest percentage, 43.4% of capacity, that are within
115 14 km to the nearest gas pipeline. Coal plants in the 31 – 40, 0 – 10, and 21 – 30 age groups have
116 42.9%, 40.3%, and 37.3%, respectively, of coal capacity located within 14 km of a nearby
117 pipeline.

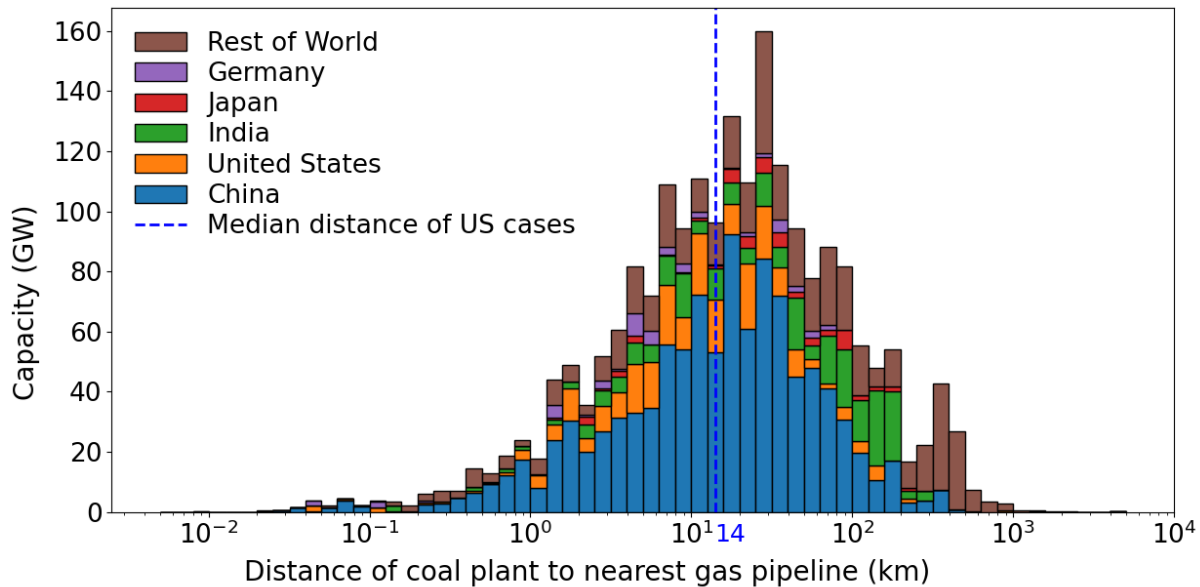
118 Figure 2(c) presents the cumulative capacity of global coal power plants as a function of
119 distance of coal plant to nearest gas pipeline across individual countries. The distribution varies
120 significantly across countries, with implications for the feasibility and cost of coal-to-gas
121 transitions. Countries like India, where only 30% of existing coal capacity is within 14 km of a
122 gas pipeline, have limited potential for a large-scale coal-to-gas transition without major
123 investments in expanding domestic pipeline infrastructure. Conversely, countries where the coal-
124 to-gas transition has successfully reduced power sector carbon emissions like the US, have over
125 60% of existing coal capacity within 14 km of a gas pipeline. Based on total coal fleet capacity,
126 China has the largest potential for coal to gas substitution with 480 GW, followed by the US
127 (146 GW) and India (69 GW).



128
 129 *Figure 2. (a) Cumulative capacity of global coal power plants as a function of distance of coal*
 130 *plant to nearest gas transmission pipeline. The median distance of 43 previous U.S. coal-to-gas*
 131 *conversion projects is 14 km (blue dashed line). (b) Cumulative capacity of global coal power*
 132 *plants as a function of distance of coal plant to gas pipeline, disaggregated by coal plant age*
 133 *cohort. (c) Cumulative capacity of global coal power plants as a function of distance of coal*
 134 *plant to gas pipeline across individual countries. The distributions of several major coal power*
 135 *countries are highlighted – China (blue), the U.S. (orange), India (green), Japan (red), Germany*
 136 *(purple), and Russia (brown). All other countries are shown in grey lines.*

137 Globally, the top 5 countries with the largest coal power capacity are China, the United
 138 States, India, Japan, and Germany. Figure 3 shows the distribution of the distance of coal plant to
 139 gas pipeline by country. Germany and U.S have coal power capacities that are close to gas

140 pipelines with a median nearest pipeline distance of 7 km and 12 km, respectively. However,
 141 most of India's and Japan's coal power plants lack nearby gas pipeline infrastructure with a
 142 median nearest pipeline distance of 35 km and 37 km, respectively. The distribution of coal plant
 143 to pipeline distance in China is spread evenly, with 46% of coal capacity within 14 km of a
 144 nearby pipeline. These distributions provide an indication of the infrastructural feasibility of
 145 coal-to-gas switching in different countries. Globally, China and the U.S. have the top two
 146 largest coal power capacities and pipeline availability is unlikely an obstacle to coal-to-gas
 147 transition for approximately 50% of their total coal capacity. Even though India is the third-
 148 largest coal power country, only 30% of its coal power capacity is a likely candidate for coal-to-
 149 gas substitution based on pipeline availability constraints.



150
 151 *Figure 3. Distribution of the distance of individual coal power plants to nearest gas transmission*
 152 *pipeline in China (blue), the U.S. (orange), India (green), Japan (red), Germany (purple), and*
 153 *other countries (brown).*

154 **Pipeline availability vs. other attributes**

155 All things being equal, coal plants that have nearby access to gas pipelines tend to have a
 156 higher potential for coal-to-gas switching. However, other attributes such as coal plant age,
 157 availability of cheap NG, domestic production, and energy security via increased exports also
 158 factor in decision making. Figure 4 compares the median nearest-pipeline distance for coal plants
 159 in each country with two critical attributes that factor into decision-making about coal-to-gas
 160 switching – the average age of coal plants (Figure 4a) and excess domestic NG production
 161 (Figure 4b).

162 The impact of coal plant age is multidimensional. On one hand, older coal power plants are
 163 approaching the end of their operational lifetimes and have largely recovered capital investment,
 164 thus making it economically feasible to be retrofitted and repowered as a gas plant to continue
 165 operations. Moreover, older plants also have limited or no air quality control systems (AQCS) in
 166 place, and the cost of adding an AQCS to comply with environmental regulations such as the US
 167 Mercury and Air Toxics Standards is high [38]. Thus, compared to retrofitting older coal plants
 168 to comply with environmental regulations, it is likely more cost-effective to convert a coal boiler

169 to fire NG, reducing both air pollutants and GHG emissions. However, this also requires
170 investments in upgrading older and less efficient combustion technologies. On the other hand,
171 newer coal plants are more urgent to switch to gas-based power generation to avoid long
172 lifetimes of coal generation and resultant GHG emissions. Although newer coal plants are likely
173 to have pollution control devices installed, operating them through their designed lifetimes will
174 jeopardize the ability to achieve the goals of the Paris Agreement [39]. Thus, coal-to-gas
175 switching of newer coal plants is likely to have a higher impact on reducing long-term GHG
176 emissions compared to that of older coal plants. Highly polluting older coal plants are better
177 retired and replaced either with efficient combined cycle gas plants or with zero-carbon sources
178 like wind and solar.

179 A key factor in decisions about coal-to-gas switching of coal plants is the availability of NG.
180 Figure 4(b) compares country-level excess NG production – defined as a ratio of domestic
181 production to consumption (‘excess NG production ratio’) - with nearest pipeline distance. When
182 domestic NG production is more than consumption (excess NG production ratio >1), access to
183 NG is readily available at a low cost, making a country more suited to a coal-to-gas transition.
184 The U.S., with an excess production ratio of 1.1, significantly reduced emissions from the power
185 sector in part because of a large-scale coal-to-gas transition [40]. If NG production is less than
186 consumption (excess NG production ratio <1), a country would need to rely on LNG or pipeline
187 imports to achieve a coal-to-gas transition, thereby increasing exposure to volatile markets and
188 supply variability. Japan’s closure of nuclear power plants in the aftermath of Fukushima
189 resulted in significant increases in LNG imports to meet electricity demand. The average price of
190 imported NG in Japan was \$7.9 per mmBtu in 2020, compared to a domestic price of \$2 per
191 mmBtu in the US [41].

192 Thus, the intersecting influences of coal fleet age, pipeline availability, and excess NG
193 production ratio divide the global coal fleet into four regimes based on the availability of nearby
194 pipeline, availability of low-cost NG supplies, and its significance in reducing global GHG
195 emissions. For discussions of the age of the coal fleet, these four regimes can be categorized as –
196 feasible/significant, feasible/insignificant, infeasible/significant, and infeasible/insignificant. For
197 discussions of the availability of domestic NG, the four regimes can be categorized as –
198 feasible/available, infeasible/available, feasible/unavailable, and infeasible/unavailable. By
199 analyzing the position of countries in the context of this matrix, we can determine the most likely
200 candidate countries for a coal-to-gas transition on the basis of the availability of a nearby
201 pipeline, the access to low-cost NG, and the potential for coal-to-gas switching to have a
202 significant impact on reducing GHG emissions. Although other metrics such as costs, national
203 climate policy, or political economy, will be part of the decision to gasify coal plants, physical
204 constraints from the pipeline and NG availability assume primacy. We make a few critical
205 observations.

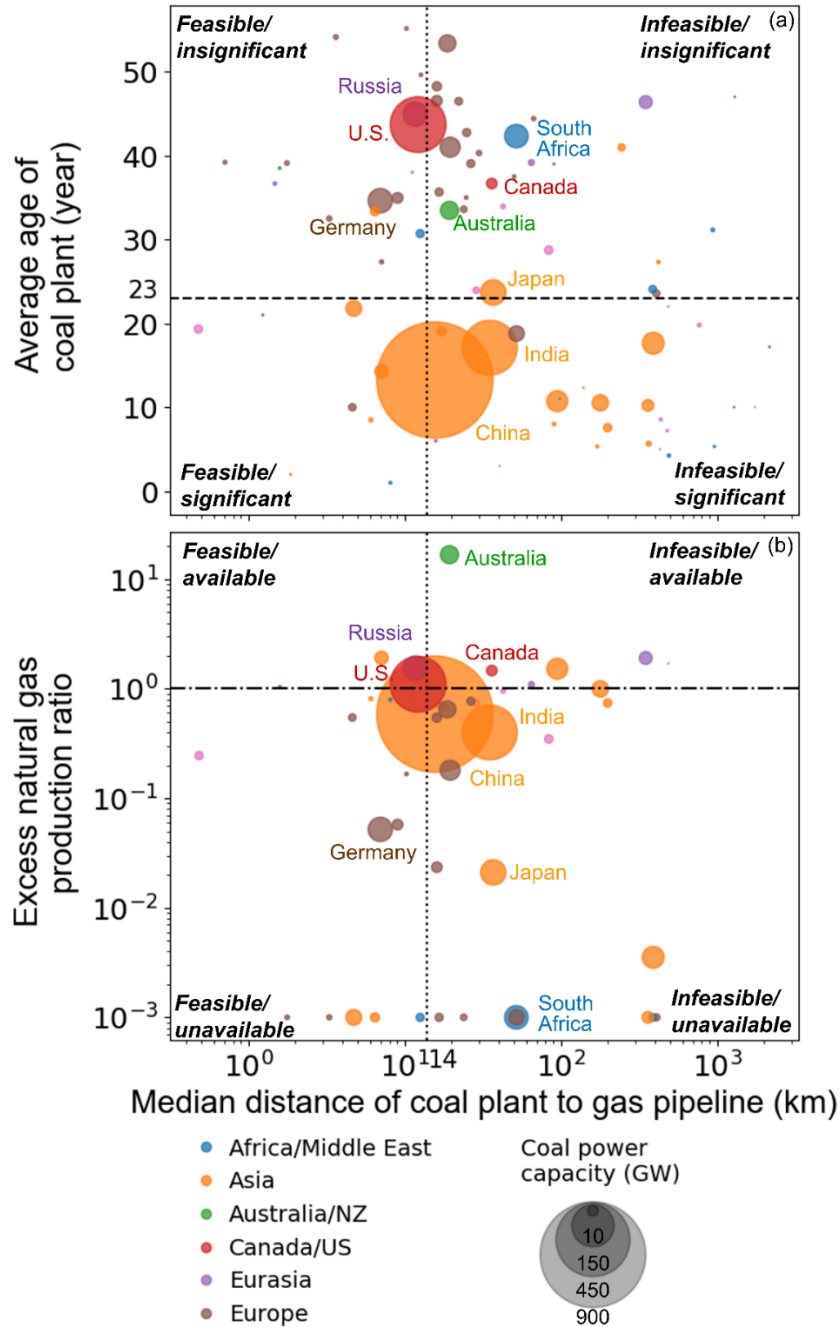
206 First, are the most promising countries for coal-to-gas switching, those that have access to
207 nearby gas pipelines, operate younger coal fleets with significant potential for “avoided”
208 emissions through coal-to-gas switching (feasible/significant quadrant), and produce abundant
209 domestic, low-cost NG (feasible/available quadrant). These countries face the lowest risk in
210 embarking on large-scale coal-to-gas transition projects as an interim step towards sector-wide
211 decarbonization. The shale revolution of the past decade that resulted in the long-term
212 availability of low-cost domestic NG in the U.S. led to widespread coal-to-gas transition
213 projects. Recent studies have demonstrated that this switching was responsible for over a third of
214 emissions reductions observed in this power sector since 2005 [40]. Importantly, the remaining

215 coal plants in the US are significantly older with an average fleet age of 44 years, thus reducing
216 the potential for “avoided” emissions through the coal-to-gas transition. This demonstrates an
217 important dynamic about the nature of this transition – countries that are likely to benefit from
218 such a transition would eventually move to a regime where additional transition is unlikely to
219 provide significant “avoided” emissions benefits. This is because, as younger coal plants switch
220 to using gas as an emissions reduction measure, older coal plants at the end of their lifetimes are
221 more likely to be replaced by low or zero-carbon sources due to limited benefit from “avoided”
222 emissions. Countries in the feasible/insignificant quadrant represent those whose coal fleets are
223 near an existing pipeline, thereby making it easier for a coal-to-gas transition project at a
224 relatively low cost. However, these countries also have old coal fleets (e.g., Russia and the U.S.,
225 with an average fleet age of 45 and 44 years, respectively), and GHG reduction benefits are
226 limited from coal-to-gas switching without significant extension in the life of the plant. In these
227 countries, a direct switch to zero or low-carbon sources of electricity would be the most effective
228 option for decarbonization.

229 Second, there are countries where a coal-to-gas transition is unlikely to be a near-term
230 decarbonization solution. These are countries that do not have access to nearby gas pipelines,
231 operate near end-of-life coal fleets such that “avoided” emissions are low
232 (infeasible/insignificant quadrant), and must rely on imported NG to supply gas power plants
233 (infeasible/unavailable quadrant). South Africa is a prominent example – the aging coal-fleet
234 coupled with a lack of domestic NG is better suited for a transition to zero or low-carbon sources
235 of electricity rather than through an intermediate coal-to-gas switching process. Building
236 significant new NG infrastructure in the countries or new LNG import facilities risks lock-in
237 consumption of NG beyond the period it is compatible with Paris targets [39, 42-44].

238 Third, a majority of global coal fleets are in the intermediate space of balancing two
239 contrasting conditions: on the one hand, the availability of a young coal fleet implies high
240 “avoided” emissions potential through coal-to-gas switching; on the other hand, lack of sufficient
241 domestic NG resources exposes such countries to volatile NG imports. In addition, coal plants in
242 these countries generally lack access to nearby gas pipelines, and new construction of NG gas
243 infrastructure can be expensive and risks creating carbon lock-in. This space is occupied by
244 countries in the infeasible/significant quadrant based on the average age of the coal fleet and the
245 infeasible/unavailable quadrant based on a lack of access to low-cost, domestic NG. Several
246 countries in Asia fall under this category. India, for example, has the second-largest coal fleet in
247 the world with an average age of 17 years – a coal-to-gas transition can contribute to significant
248 power sector emissions reductions. However, the combination of a limited gas pipeline network
249 and high dependence on imported LNG makes a large-scale coal-to-gas transition unlikely. LNG
250 imports are prioritized for other sectors of the economy such as agriculture and industrial use.
251 This is evident in India’s National Electricity Plan which focuses on expanding zero-carbon
252 electricity sources (solar, wind, nuclear, hydro) rather than an expansion of gas-based power
253 generation [45]. By contrast, Japan has relied heavily on LNG imports to operate gas-fired power
254 generation due to recent nuclear plant closures following the Fukushima disaster. Given the
255 small distance between LNG regasification terminals to power plants, the lack of NG pipelines is
256 not a significant factor in the development of gas-fired power generation. However, recent
257 volatility in international gas markets and resulting high prices are likely to make Japan and
258 other countries reliant on LNG imports to re-think national energy security strategy, with a
259 potentially rapid move away from NG [46].

260 Fourth, coal fleets in Europe represent the final category in the coal-to-gas transition. Europe
261 has an extensive gas pipeline network that makes a coal-to-gas transition physically feasible.
262 However, the average age of the coal fleet is 38 years, near the end of their typical lifetime, and
263 has limited potential for “avoided” GHG emissions. Furthermore, European countries also
264 significantly rely on NG imports through pipelines (Russia) and LNG to meet demand. Thus,
265 they occupy the space in the feasible/insignificant quadrant because of the aging coal fleet and
266 the feasible/unavailable quadrant because of a lack of domestic NG supplies. Germany, for
267 example, relies on NG for about a third of its total electricity production. With the recent
268 shutdown of their nuclear fleet, their reliance on imports from Russia has increased over the past
269 decade. European political economy also plays a critical role in this transition. In 2020,
270 renewable energy sources represented the largest source of power generation (23.8%) [3], and
271 the fraction is targeted to reach more than 80% by 2050 [36]. The war between Russia and
272 Ukraine has also forced the EU to consider a significant reduction in imports of NG from Russia
273 in the near term, thereby potentially accelerating the transition to renewable and other domestic
274 sources of power.



275
 276 *Figure 4. National median distance of coal plant to gas pipeline vs (a) national average coal*
 277 *power plant age and (b) excess natural gas production ratio expressed as a fraction of natural*
 278 *gas production to consumption in 2020. Different colors represent countries in 7 regions of the*
 279 *world – Africa/Middle East (Blue), Asia (orange), Australia/NZ (green), Canada/US (red),*
 280 *Eurasia (purple), and Europe (Brown). Black dotted line is the median distance of coal plant to*
 281 *gas pipeline (14 km) derived from the U.S. coal-to-gas transition projects. Black dashed line*
 282 *represents the average age of global coal power plants (23 years). Black dashed-dotted line*
 283 *represents a breakeven scenario where domestic natural gas production equals consumption.*
 284 *The area of the circle for different countries corresponds to the total coal power capacity in that*
 285 *country. Some major countries are labeled.*

286 Discussion

287 This study investigates the role of pipeline availability constraints on the feasibility of the
288 global coal-to-gas transition in the power sector. This constraint is a critical factor because of the
289 costs, local opposition, and regulatory hurdles associated with building new gas pipeline
290 infrastructure. Although coal-to-gas transition can significantly reduce global carbon emissions
291 such as in the U.S., their feasibility varies significantly by geography, coal fleet age, and access
292 to low-cost NG. Our results provide insights into regions where such transitions are feasible,
293 contribute to significant “avoided” carbon emissions, and would require minimal infrastructure
294 investments. Our study presents a best-case scenario, given that existing pipelines might already
295 be operating near full capacity to supply gas to other sectors, thus requiring an expansion for
296 supplying power plants.

297 Generally, younger coal plants make up the majority of global coal power capacity, whereas
298 newer plants are farther away from available gas pipelines compared to older plants. Given the
299 operational lifetimes of coal plants and the pipeline availability constraint on the coal-to-gas
300 transition, mid-age coal plants (10- to 30-year) represent the largest capacity of potential
301 candidates for coal-to-gas switching. In total, we find that only 43% of global coal capacity has a
302 gas pipeline within the distance empirically observed in recent coal-to-gas transitions. Pipeline
303 availability is likely not a constraint for this transition in the United States, Canada, Russia, and
304 Europe. More than half of the coal power capacities of Germany, the United States, and Russia
305 are located close to existing gas pipelines to enable switching from coal to gas without
306 significant infrastructure investments. On the other hand, the majority of the coal fleet in India
307 and South Africa do not have nearby gas pipelines and are unlikely to be good candidates for this
308 transition.

309 Besides pipeline availability, the potential for coal-to-gas transition will be impacted by
310 other factors including coal fleet age and the politics of energy security such as import
311 dependence. This study puts emphasis on infrastructure limits to the coal-to-gas transition, given
312 the risk of locking in higher carbon infrastructure. For example, the existence of excess NG
313 production can contribute to coal-to-gas switching to deliver rapid carbon savings. Integrating
314 gas pipeline infrastructure constraints, the age and capacity of coal power plants, and the
315 availability of NG, a high potential for coal-to-gas transition in the power sector exist in
316 countries that have access to nearby gas pipelines, operate younger coal plants with significant
317 potential for the “avoided” GHG emissions, and has access abundant domestic, low-cost NG.
318 However, most global coal fleets are in the intermediate space of balancing two contrasting
319 conditions – having a younger coal fleet with high “avoided” emissions potential through coal-
320 to-gas switching, but not having access to abundant, low-cost, domestic NG resources. Whether
321 a large-scale, coal-to-gas transition can take place (or is even desirable) in such countries is an
322 open question for national governments seeking to balance energy security, climate action, and
323 energy access.

324 That coal to gas transition has reduced carbon emissions from the power sector is not in
325 doubt – the US and the UK are proof of its success. However, it is unclear if the success of that
326 transition can be replicated around the world. The industry consensus is generally in the
327 affirmative. Yet, this work shows that such a transition is likely to be location-specific and
328 depends on several constraints. Of these, the primary constraint remains the availability of a
329 nearby gas transmission pipeline to supply coal power plants. National-level conversations in
330 countries with significant coal-based generation are essential to moving from possibilities to
331 practicalities of a coal-to-gas transition. Indeed, there is significant near-term potential – even

332 converting 40% of global coal plants that have nearby pipeline access to using gas will
333 contribute to emissions reductions. But such transitions are unlikely to be universal without
334 significant investments into expanding NG infrastructure primarily in developing countries.

335 **Methods**

336 **Pipeline availability near global coal power plants**

337 We gathered unit-level data on coal power plants that are in operation as of August 2021
338 from comprehensive global datasets [47, 48]. The compiled dataset covered 2425 operating coal
339 plants, and nearly 6600 individual generators, with a total capacity of 2076 GW. In addition, we
340 also assembled geospatial data associated with each coal plant including operating city and
341 country, capacity, and start year of operation. Gas pipeline data are derived from the global fossil
342 infrastructure tracker database, developed and maintained by the Global Energy Monitor [49].
343 Pipeline routes were gathered from publicly available information and maps from industry, news,
344 and government sources or publications. Pipeline coordinates were determined by geo-
345 referencing route images using QGIS 3.4.12 [50]. More than 1,900,000 km of approximately
346 1700 gas pipelines that are operating, under construction, and idle are included in the analysis.
347 Global NG production and consumption data at the country level are obtained from the U.S.
348 Energy Information Administration (EIA) and BP Statistical Review of Energy 2021 [41, 51].

349 The feasibility of coal-to-gas switching is dependent on the availability of a nearby gas
350 pipeline to supply gas to the coal plant. The nearest distance between a coal plant and a pipeline
351 is calculated using the proximity tool in ArcGIS. Only major NG transmission pipelines that can
352 deliver volume flows necessary to operate an NG-fired power plant are considered. Smaller
353 gathering and distribution pipelines that are typically used for residential and commercial use are
354 not included in this analysis. This is justified because over 90% of power plants are located
355 outside city limits, where major trans-national and interstate pipelines terminate.

356 **Empirical coal plant to gas pipeline distance distribution**

357 In the absence of established industry-wide standard on the economics of adding new
358 pipeline segments to connect coal plants with nearby existing pipelines, we evaluated all prior
359 coal-to-gas conversions in the U.S. between 2010 and 2019. Overall, there were 43 coal-to-gas
360 transitions in the US – analyzing new pipeline capacity built to supply these plants with gas
361 provides us with an empirical estimate of the median coal-to-gas pipeline distance.

362 A two-step approach was used to identify coal plant repowering cases using U.S. EIA form
363 860 which required firms to identify planned changes from the primary energy source used to
364 produce electricity since 2007. In step one, we determine those units that reported “*planned*
365 *energy source 1*” changes indicating the plan to repower from coal to gas. In step two, we cross-
366 referenced these “*planned energy source 1*” changes with the actual listed planned energy source
367 1 in subsequent years of operation to confirm the coal to gas switching. This two-step
368 verification process was critical as several units are listed with planned energy source changes
369 over multiple years that did not occur. We identified 43 coal-fired units that applied and switched
370 from coal to gas fuel between 2010 and 2019. The distance of coal plant to gas pipeline varied
371 between 0.06 and 161.6 km with a median of 14 km and an average of 28 km (see SI section S1).

372

373 **Data availability statement**

374 All data that support the findings of this study are publicly available.

375 **Acknowledgments**

376 The authors acknowledge funding from Harrisburg University of Science and Technology.

377 **Author contributions**

378 A.P.R. and S.H.S. conceived the study. S.Y. compiled and verified the data underlying this study
 379 and developed the technical analyzes. S.Y., A.P.R., and S.H.S. discussed and interpreted the results.
 380 All authors contributed to writing the paper.

381 **Competing interests**

382 The authors declare no competing interests

383 **Supporting Information**

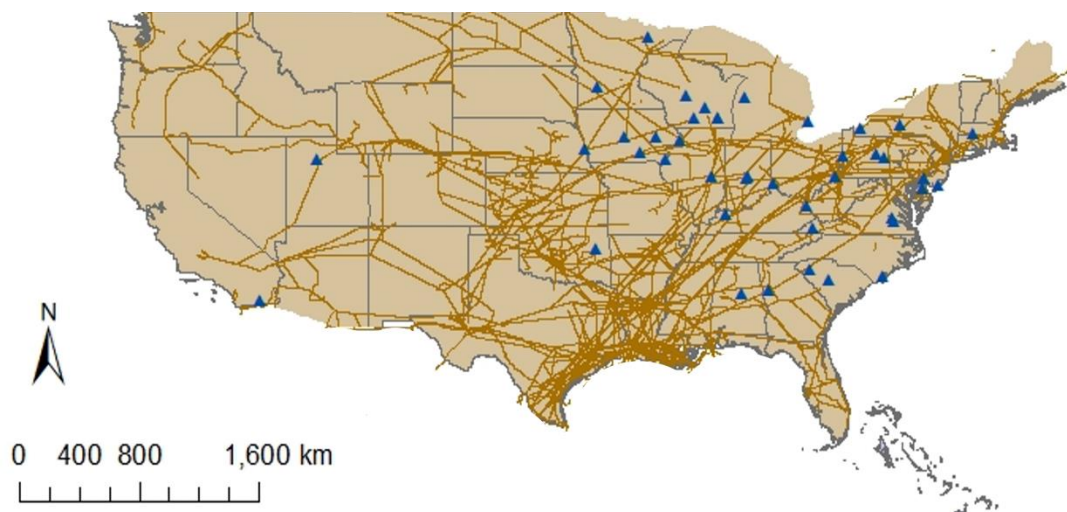
384 **S1. Data sources**

385 Table S1 summarizes the data sources used in this study.

386 **Table S1** *Summary of data sources*

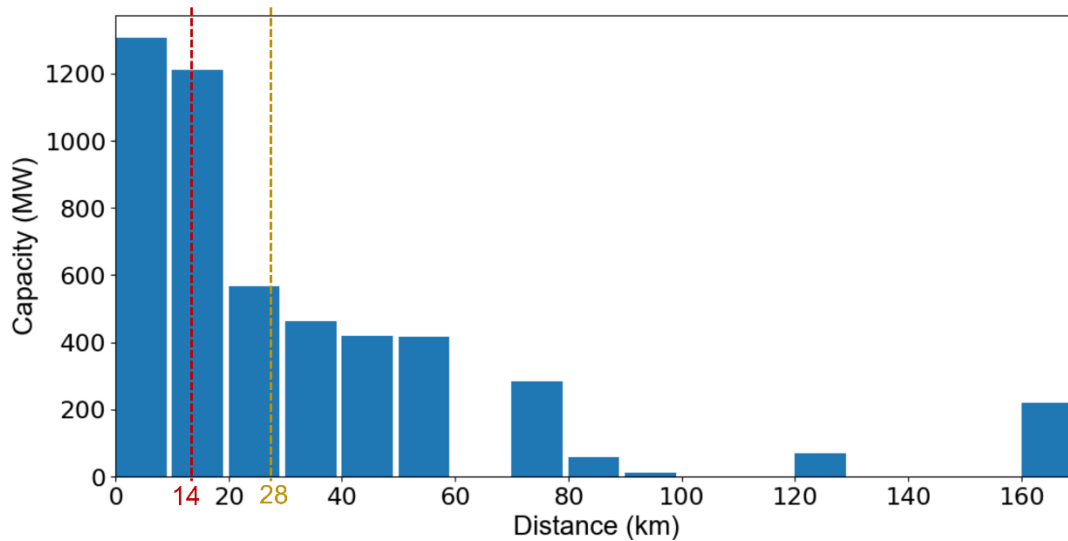
Dataset	Source	Feature
Global coal power plant	World Resources Institute [47]	Plant-level, operating plants
	Global Coal Plant Tracker [48]	Unit-level, include all status
US previous conversion cases	EIA-860 form [52]	Plant-level, energy sources
Global gas pipelines	Global Fossil Project Tracker [49]	Operating, under-construction, and idle
NG production and consumption	EIA and BP Statistical Review	Data of 2021

387 Figure S1 shows the locations of all prior coal-to-gas conversions in the US power sector
 388 between 2010 and 2019. 43 coal-fired units that applied to switch from coal to gas fuel are
 389 identified. Most of the plants had nearby gas pipelines to facilitate the coal to gas switching.



390
 391 **Figure S1.** *The locations of all U.S coal power plants with coal-to-gas conversions between*
 392 *2010 and 2019 (blue triangles) and the network of the national gas transmission pipelines*
 393 *(orange lines).*

394 Figure S2 shows the distribution of the distance of coal power plant to gas pipeline in all
 395 prior coal-to-gas conversions in the U.S. between 2010 and 2019. A large proportion of coal
 396 power capacity (~80%) that switched to using gas as primary fuel had access to a gas pipeline
 397 that was less than 40 km away. The distance of coal plant to nearby gas pipeline varied
 398 between 0.056 km and 161.64 km with a median of 14 km and an average of 28 km. This
 399 statistical analysis provides us with an empirical estimate of median coal-to-gas pipeline
 400 distance that is feasible in the absence of an industry-wide standard. While it is possible that
 401 longer pipelines could be built with additional investment, the example of the US coal-to-gas
 402 conversions represents a best-case scenario where low-cost natural gas became abundantly
 403 available.



404

405 **Figure S2.** *Distribution of the distance of coal power plant to gas pipeline of the U.S. previous*
 406 *conversion cases. Red and yellow dashed lines represent the median of 14 km and the average*
 407 *of 28 km, respectively.*

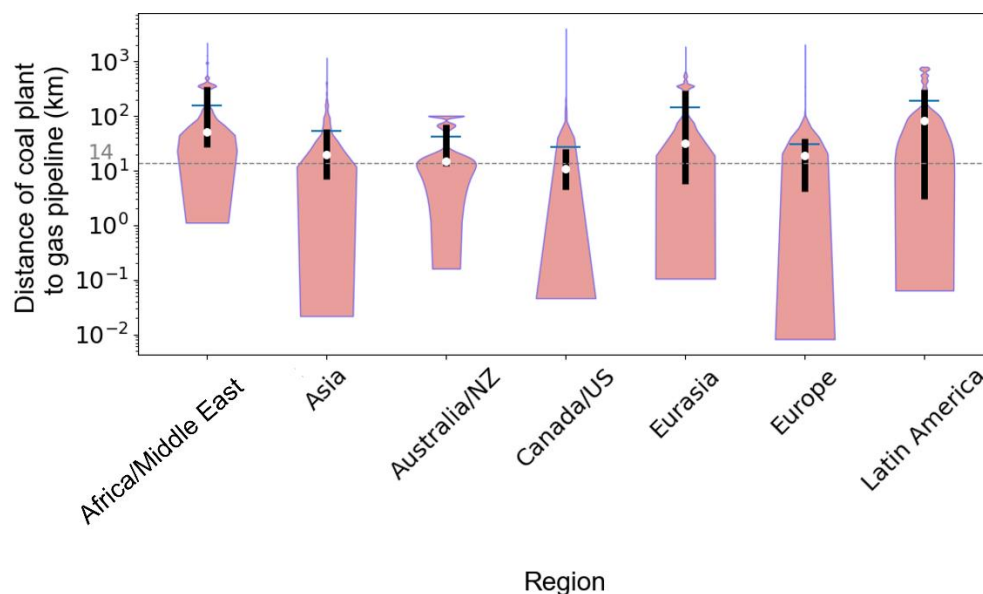
408 **S2. Gas pipeline availability in different regions**

409 The infrastructure availability of gas pipelines varies significantly across different regions.
 410 Figure S3 depicts the distribution of the distance of coal plant to gas pipeline for regions using
 411 density curves of coal power capacity (violin plots). The width of each curve corresponds with
 412 the frequency (the magnitude of coal power capacity) at a given distance to a nearby pipeline in
 413 each region. We note two critical insights.

414 First, there are three types of curve shapes: wider bottoms, wider tops, and equal tops and
 415 bottoms, all with a small number of outliers. Curves with wider bottoms and narrower tops
 416 indicate that there is less coal power capacity that is subject to pipeline availability constraints;
 417 shapes with narrower bottoms and wider tops reflect the lack of available gas pipelines near a
 418 majority of coal power plants in that region; the shapes with a similar width from top to bottom
 419 indicate an even distribution of the distance of coal plant to gas pipeline. Notably, the curves of
 420 Canada/US and Europe belong to type one where the geographical constraint is not a key factor
 421 in the feasibility of coal-to-gas transition in the power sector. Asia, Africa and the Middle East,
 422 and Australia/NZ are characterized by the second type— where pipeline availability places limits
 423 on a widespread coal-to-gas transition. However, there are also significant differences within
 424 regions (see Figure 2 in the main text) – for example, China has an extensive gas pipeline

425 network and therefore potential for coal-to-gas switching while only 30% of India's coal
 426 capacity is within 14 km of a nearby pipeline.

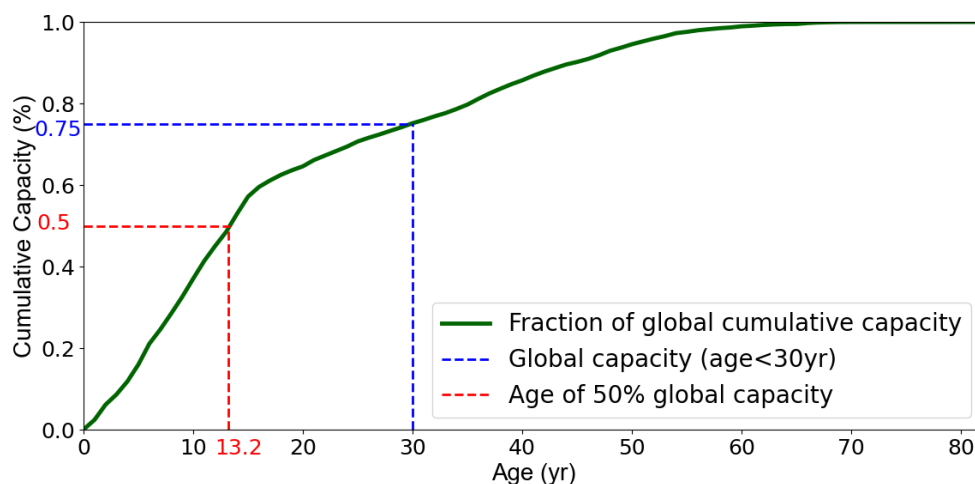
427 Second, the average distances of coal plant to gas pipeline in all the regions are larger than
 428 the empirical distance of 14 km. Whereas the median of the distance of Canada/US (12.5 km) is
 429 slightly smaller than the threshold, and Asia, Europe, and Australia/NZ are just slightly over the
 430 threshold, which are 19.4 km, 19.2 km, and 18 km, respectively. Combined with the shape of the
 431 curves, these results suggest that a coal-to-gas transition is more likely to happen in Canada/US
 432 and Europe than in Africa or Asia.



433
 434 **Figure S3.** Violin plot of nearest distance between coal plants and gas pipelines for regions in
 435 the world. The shape shows the distribution (probability density of generation capacity) of
 436 distance, white dot indicates the regional median distance, blue segment depicts the average
 437 distance, the edge of black vertical segment indicates 25th and 75th percentile, grey dotted
 438 line is the median pipeline distance derived from US previous coal-to-gas conversion projects.

439 **S3. Distribution of the age of global coal power capacity**

440 The distribution of the age of global coal power capacity is shown in Figure S4. Globally,
 441 half of the global coal power plant capacities are younger than 13.2 years. 75% of global coal
 442 power capacity is younger than the typical designed lifetime of coal power plants of 30 years.
 443 Younger coal plants make up the majority of global coal power capacity.



444

445 **Figure S4.** Cumulative capacity as a function of the age of global coal power plants

446

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