

BECCS potential in Brazil: achieving negative emissions in ethanol and electricity production based on sugar cane bagasse and other residues

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Abstract. Stabilization at concentrations consistent with keeping global warming below 2°C above the pre-industrial level will require drastic cuts in Greenhouse Gas (GHG) emissions during the first half of the century; net negative emissions approaching 2100 are required in the vast majority of current emission scenarios. For negative emissions, the focus has been on bioenergy with carbon capture and storage (BECCS), where carbon-neutral bioenergy would be combined with additional carbon capture thus yielding emissions lower than zero. Different BECCS technologies are considered around the world and one option that deserves special attention applies CCS to ethanol production. It is currently possible to eliminate 27.7 million tonnes (Mt) of CO₂ emissions per year through capture and storage of CO₂ released during fermentation, which is part of sugar cane-based ethanol production in Brazil. Thus, BECCS could reduce the country's emissions from energy production by roughly 5%. Such emissions are additional to those due to the substitution of biomass-based electricity for fossil-fueled power plants. This paper assesses the potential and cost effectiveness of negative emissions in the joint production system of ethanol and electricity based on sugar cane, bagasse, and other residues in Brazil. An important benefit is that CO₂ can be captured twice along the proposed BECCS supply chain (once during fermentation and once during electricity generation). This study only considers BECCS from fermentation because capturing such CO₂ is straightforward, thus potentially representing a cost-effective mitigation option for Brazil compared to other alternatives. The assessment shows that fuel prices would increase by less than 3.5% due to the adoption of BECCS from fermentation, while increasing investors' revenues are sufficient to compensate for the investment required. With appropriate government subsidies, or by sharing BECCS costs between all car fuels and all electricity supplied by hydro and bioelectricity, the increment in ethanol and electricity prices could be less than 1% for the final consumer. Meanwhile it would supply 77.3% of all cars' fuel (private cars) and 17.9% of all electricity in Brazil.

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37 1. Introduction

38 Carbon capture and storage (CCS) projects have been extensively discussed as a relevant strategy
39 for reducing Greenhouse Gas (GHG) emissions. According to the Intergovernmental Panel on
40 Climate Change (Edenhofer et al., 2014), this technology will play a vital role in reaching the
41 required level of emission reductions in the future.¹ In December 2010, the United Nations
42 Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) recognized, during the 16th Conference of the
43 Parties (COP-16,) that CCS constitutes part of a relevant technology strategy for climate change
44 mitigation and decided to include this option as a project activity under the Clean Development
45 Mechanism (CDM) (UNFCCC, 2010). There are currently 55 CCS projects worldwide in progress, of
46 which only 14 are active, as shown by the Global CCS Institute (GCCSI) at March, 2014 (GCCSI, 2014).
47 Compared to fossil CCS, combining CCS with bioenergy (BECCS) has the special advantage of yielding
48 negative emissions. For some biomass feedstocks, life cycle emissions are modest and when
49 cogeneration is part of the process, emissions are quite low (EPA 2010). Adding CO₂ capture to such
50 systems might yield negative emissions.

51 Different technological approaches to BECCS are being considered around the world and one option
52 that deserves special attention is the technology applied to sugar cane-based energy. The benefit of
53 such a technology is that part of the primary energy is converted to ethanol via fermentation, which
54 releases a relatively pure CO₂ stream. Capturing CO₂ at this stage presents a feasible opportunity to
55 achieve negative emissions, making this technology an attractive option for mitigation in Brazil.
56 Section 2 will give an overview of Brazil's national policy on climate change in this context.

57 The study's objective is to analyze the cost effectiveness of the suggested BECCS scheme in order to
58 assess its attractiveness for Brazil's climate change mitigation portfolio, combining technological
59 knowledge with economic costing of the BECCS chain. Section 2 presents the potential role of BECCS
60 in Brazil and beyond. Section 3 analyzes a case study for Brazil, while policy implications will be
61 discussed in Section 4. Section 5 concludes.

62

63 2. The potential role of BECCS in Brazil and beyond

¹Note, however, that an update of their roadmap is pessimistic about the contribution of CCS to large-scale emissions reductions due to the low number of demonstration projects to date and the limited time left to achieve the necessary diffusion of CCS (IEA, 2012).

64 In 2009, Brazil passed a law establishing its National Policy on Climate Change (BRAZIL, 2009) setting
65 non-binding pledges to reduce Greenhouse Gas (GHG) emissions. Recently, more precise mitigation
66 goals were established by the Brazilian Intended Nationally Determined Contribution (INDC). Brazil
67 aims to reduce its emissions by 37% below 2005 levels by 2025, and possibly by 43% below 2005
68 levels by 2030 (UNFCCC 2015), which corresponds to roughly 1 GtCO₂.

69 Brazilian GHG reduction policies envision specific approaches to tackle different sectors, such as
70 energy, forests, transportation, industry and agriculture. The Brazilian Federal Government has
71 been able to accomplish a significant share of emission reductions by decreasing deforestation rates
72 in Amazonia (Observatório do Clima, 2015). As of 2013, the federal government has succeeded in
73 reducing GHG emissions by 76.7% in the Legal Amazon and 60.5% in the Cerrado Savannah. Besides
74 nationwide carbon reduction targets, there are sub-national policies and mitigation goals in several
75 Brazilian States. However, there are very few forests in São Paulo State, and other Southern and
76 Southeastern states, in which most of the Brazilian economic activity takes place, so their potential
77 to contribute to emission reductions through reduced deforestation is limited. Therefore, these
78 regions have to consider other emission sources, and the use of other technologies, especially those
79 related to the energy sector.

80 With over 80% of the electricity supply being renewable (EPE, 2013b), Brazil has one of the cleanest
81 energy systems in the world; roughly 47% is from renewable sources compared to the world
82 average of 19.5% (EPE, 2013a). Nevertheless, recent investments in Pre-Salt oil resource
83 development might cause significant increases in oil and associated natural gas production². Thus,
84 energy is expected to become the major GHG emissions source beyond 2020. The Brazilian national
85 oil and gas company (Petrobras) is investing in capturing the CO₂ that escapes during the extraction
86 process and injecting it for either enhanced oil recovery (EOR) or storage purposes in man-made
87 reservoirs in the saline layer (Colby et al., 2011). This indicates the relevance of CCS as an important
88 technology to reduce the country's GHG emissions in the mid- and long-term. Nevertheless, such
89 projects are not targeting emissions from fossil fuel combustion, but focus on fugitive emissions
90 from oil and gas extraction.

²This scenario is partially driven by the discovery of the Pre-Salt reservoirs, a major oil field that is estimated to contain at least 8 billion barrels of oil equivalent and associated gas, which will drive the country to triple its oil production (EPE, 2013a). The extraction of oil from the Pre-Salt layer is also expected to result in additional GHG emissions, since CO₂ is present in the fluid in high concentration (10-15%).

91 Regarding BECCS, its main benefit for the country would be to take advantage of the Brazilian
92 achievements with ethanol, as the fuel would become the first to provide negative emissions over
93 its life cycle carbon balance (Pacca and Moreira, 2009). Brazil has a successful example of innovative
94 energy policy in the Ethanol Fuel Program. BECCS investments could foster socio-economic
95 development and environmental protection concurrently if incorporating sustainable biomass. For
96 instance, rural economic development of sugar cane producing regions, and lower CO₂ emission on
97 the transportation sector results in better air quality in major cities. The demand for investments in
98 the sugar/ethanol sector is significant, considering the high share of Brazilian sugar in the
99 international market and the potential of ethanol demanded by the continuous increase of the flex-
100 fuel car fleet; and yet, it is unclear whether the sector has the financial capacity to meet demand.
101 Even if the sugar and ethanol demand can be met, it is wise to remember the investment needed
102 for additional bioelectricity. . Sugar cane based bioelectricity generation is already responsible for a
103 significant share of electricity supply in the country (see Figure 1) and is expected to grow 6.7 times
104 between 2010 and 2035 in the state of São Paulo (SAO PAULO, 2011). However electricity
105 generation is investment-intensive and might be an exhausting drain on available resources.
106 Financial resources for sugar cane are allocated in the following order: a) sugar; b) ethanol; c)
107 bioelectricity; d) BECCS. Thus, the question arises whether BECCS can generate sufficient returns for
108 the sugar/ethanol industry. Some possibilities include ethanol exports, e.g. of advanced ethanol to
109 other markets such as the USA and certified ethanol to the European Union. Domestic ethanol
110 demand will require an incentive scheme for BECCS-ethanol, blends, or bio-electricity. Therefore, it
111 would be important to determine the economic impact of BECCS to sugar cane products and users.

112 In addition, the development of demonstration projects for BECCS technologies is still falling
113 behind; a large-scale Brazilian BECCS project has been cancelled due to lack of financial support.
114 This initiative was named “RCCS Project- Capture and Storage of CO₂ deriving from the fermentation
115 process of sugar into ethanol in the State of São Paulo”. The choice of São Paulo was based on its
116 high concentration of ethanol production (roughly 2/3 of the national production). The project was
117 designed to capture and store 1 million tonnes (Mt) CO₂ in a saline aquifer within 10 years, at a cost
118 of US\$ 30 million. Although the Global Environmental Facility (GEF) would have funded 30% of the
119 project, a lack of supplementary domestic financial support meant it did not become financially
120 viable.

121 Although no BECCS demonstration project has yet been implemented in Brazil, the technology is
122 available. For instance, some sugar mills in the Northeastern region have installed a system to
123 capture CO₂ from fermentation to use the gas in industrial applications (Furtado, 2014)³.
124 Technically, this system could be coupled with the technology implemented by Petrobras, which
125 pumps and stores CO₂ underground⁴.

126 With this study, we demonstrate the prospects of a new technology – sugar cane-based ethanol
127 production with electricity generation, where CO₂ vented from fermentation is captured⁵. The
128 mitigation potential thus arising for Brazil is important (a) for those regions within Brazil that cannot
129 realize their emission reduction goals through reduced deforestation and (b) for Brazil's future
130 climate change mitigation strategy that needs to take into account the ever rising portion of the
131 country's GHG emission profile from energy generation. Finally, such a technology is also interesting
132 for application in other parts of the world; this presents another important contribution of the
133 paper. It is estimated that BECCS could reduce CO₂ atmospheric concentrations by 0.5 to 1 ppm/yr,
134 sequestering 8 to 16 GtCO₂/yr⁶ (CI-CDRRS, 2015)

135 3. Case study: achieving negative emissions in sugar cane-based ethanol production and 136 electricity generation

137 3.1 Previous studies

138 Life-cycle GHG balances from ethanol production using sugar cane as feedstock have been
139 published by different authors (Walter et al 2011, Souza, de Avila, and Pacca 2012). One of the most

³ One example is the case of Brazilian bioethanol distilleries equipped with CO₂ recovery systems from the North-American Pentair Haffmans Group, a company that has been selling its technology to breweries (which also generate the gas in the fermentation process and usually reutilize it) and to sugar cane mills in Brazil since 2009. The project relies on the system at the mills that is used for scrubbing ethanol from the vented gas post-fermentation, and adds piping and purification with activated carbon filters. The company has already supplied two systems for facilities in the State of Alagoas (Grupo Usineiro Toledo and Usina Penedo), and in the State of São Paulo (Usina Vale, a mill that produces sugar and alcohol and sells recovered CO₂). The CO₂ recovery system enables the plants to reduce CO₂ emissions and concurrently generates additional income. The first system retrieves an average volume of 70 t/day and the second 35 t/day.

⁴ In 2013 Petrobras initiated a CCS project at commercial scale through CO₂ injection for enhanced oil recovery off the Santos coast to test the carbonate reservoir behavior. The capture process is pre-combustion with direct injection, and the processing plant captures roughly 700,000 tCO₂ per year. Petrobras is also leading a pilot project in Miranga Field for CO₂ separation from natural gas. (GCCSI, 2014).

⁵ This CO₂ is pure. The small amount of water and ethanol dragged by the CO₂ flux is usually removed due to the ethanol's economic value. Essentially, there is no need for specific CO₂ capture technology.

⁶ For the specific BECCS technology described in this paper, essentially CO₂ captured from ethanol fermentation, for each kg of ethanol produced from biological fermentation of sugars, 1 kg of CO₂ is produced and captured. Considering the amount of ethanol commercialized as fuel for transportation by 2014– 93 Mm³/yr (Licht, 2015), as much as 74 Mt of CO₂ could be captured.

140 complete evaluations, considering domestic and global, direct and indirect land use change was
141 performed by the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA, 2010). According to that study,
142 avoided GHG emissions due to gasoline substitution for ethanol in Brazil are 54 gCO₂e/MJ. Using
143 sugar cane bagasse and other sugar cane residues to generate electricity fed into the grid yields
144 even greater values. EPA (2010) finds that the emission of 91 gCO₂/MJ due to the use of liquid fossil
145 fuel can be avoided because ethanol displaces gasoline, and bioelectricity displaces natural gas used
146 in power plants, provided that the sugar mill uses modern efficient steam boilers (100 bar and
147 535°C).

148 Nowadays, the total contribution of bioelectricity is modest when considering the average value of
149 electricity delivered to the grid. Data available for 2012 shows that 20 TWh have been exported to
150 the grid, for a sugar cane availability of 600 Mt (BEN, 2013), yielding 33 kWh/t cane. The potential is
151 greater: a survey carried out in 2011 concluded that the most efficient mills were generating around
152 100 kWh/t cane and exporting 75 kWh/t cane to the grid (CONAB, 2011). In reality, it is possible to
153 generate 110 kWh/t cane using only bagasse and up to 220 kWh/t cane using bagasse and other
154 available sugar cane residues with high pressure and high temperature steam boilers (Olivério,
155 2010). The full utilization of the bioelectricity potential is crucial to achieve negative emissions when
156 BECCS is adopted.

157 3.2 BECCS energy penalty and costs

158 The GHG balance from the joint production and consumption of ethanol and bioelectricity is small
159 (9 gCO₂e/MJ) (EPA, 2010) and could be further reduced to zero or below zero if CO₂, which is
160 released during fermentation and residue combustion, is captured and stored underground. Such
161 an approach has been discussed since 2001, and its cost-effectiveness and CO₂ reduction potential
162 has already been evaluated (Möllersten et al, 2003). Nevertheless, a significant amount of energy is
163 required for CCS, mainly for CO₂ separation of the furnace's flue gas but also partly for CO₂
164 compression.

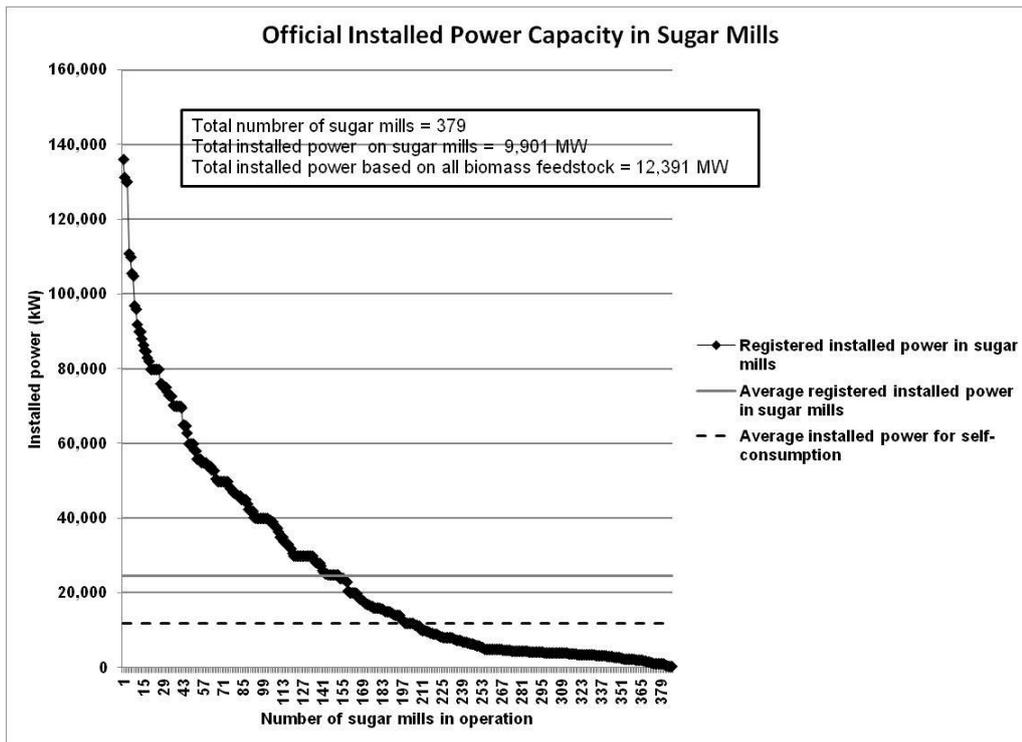
165 Möllersten et al. (2003) conclude that the energy penalty due to CCS in the fermentation process is
166 0.12 kWh/kgCO₂, whereas in the flue gas, from bagasse combustion, it is 0.31 kWh/kgCO₂. The first
167 alternative is less energy intensive because CO₂ from sugar fermentation exits the reactor at
168 atmospheric pressure and temperature around 37°C as a pure gas (99%), free of contamination and
169 proper for food and beverage manufacturing (Gollakota and McDonald, 2014). Thus, the only
170 required treatment is the removal of water from the fumes (because the small amount of ethanol

171 dragged by the released CO₂ is usually separated in most sugar mills due its commercial value). The
172 overall cost of capturing and storing CO₂ from the two sources is US\$ 53/tCO₂, and yet the study
173 concludes that applying CCS to sugar fermentation is the less expensive option.

174 Consequently, we believe that it is worthwhile evaluating the costs of BECCS from fermentation in a
175 typical sugar mill unit in Brazil, which, besides ethanol, also produces electricity from crop residues.
176 This is possibly the most cost competitive BECCS alternative. We have combined technical
177 coefficients from a typical sugar mill with data from a large-scale BECCS pilot project.

178 We assume a sugar mill processing 1,800 tonnes per day (t/d) of sugar cane, but since it operates at
179 90%, its nameplate capacity will be 2,000 t/d. This corresponds to 4.63 Mt of sugar cane processed
180 per year assuming that the harvesting season comprises 208 days per year, of which only 90% of the
181 days are effective⁷. Although sugar mills with such large capacities are rare in Brazil (see Figure 1),
182 this capacity could easily be met by two facilities in the same vicinity. As shown in Figure 1,
183 electricity cogeneration in sugar mills is always used as self-supply, and many mills also sell surplus
184 electricity to the grid. Usually, electricity consumption in the sugar mills is around 30 kWh/t cane
185 and over 100 units have installed capacity able to meet consumption and sell surplus electricity to
186 the grid.

⁷ Many factors prevent the sugar cane mill and associated facilities from working all days during the harvesting season. Some of them are as follows: intense precipitation that restricts transportation from the field to the mill, processing equipment failure either in the mill or in the cogeneration plant, and labour shortage in severe weather conditions.



187

188

189 Figure 1. Distribution of cogeneration installed capacity of the 379 registered sugar mills in Brazil by
 190 2014. Prepared by authors based on BIG (2015)

191 The project produces 1,729 tonnes of CO₂ per day because fermentation yields 1 kg of ethanol and
 192 0.96 kg of CO₂ and the specific gravity of hydrous ethanol is 0.809 kg/liter. At this point, it is useful
 193 to note that CO₂ emission from the combustion of sugar cane residues (usually 100% of the bagasse
 194 and 50% of tops and leaves) is another possible candidate for CCS in sugar mills. This option is not
 195 considered in this paper due its greater cost compared to CO₂ from fermentation (Möllersten et al,
 196 2003). Nevertheless, assuming the carbon content of dry biomass to be 50% of its weight, around
 197 0.37 tonnes CO₂ would be produced from the combustion of 1 tonne of harvested cane. This value
 198 can be compared to the CO₂ released from fermentation of 0.070 tCO₂.

199 The parameters of the pumping system required to inject the daily production underground are
 200 based on the Illinois Basin Decatur Project (IBDP) and the Illinois ICCS Project (Jones and McKaskle,
 201 2014; Gollakota and McDonald 2014).

202 The total installed power of the system for handling 2,000 t/day of CO₂ is 12,232 kW. Therefore, the
 203 energy penalty for pumping high pressure (14 Mpa) CO₂ underground is 0.119 kWh/liter of ethanol,
 204 or 0.147 kWh/kg of ethanol.

205 Such electricity can be provided by the sugar mill when processing ethanol, since it is commercially
206 feasible to generate up to 208 kWh/t cane using all available bagasse plus a 50% share of residues
207 (Olivério, 2010). Typical modern sugar mills in the South/Southeast of Brazil are designed to handle
208 between 2 and 3 Mt of cane per year, while a few manage around 6 Mt of cane per year. Whatever
209 their capacity, most of them convert roughly half of the cane to sugar and the other half to ethanol.
210 Assuming a conversion rate of 208 kWh/t cane, the total daily average generated electricity is 4,623
211 MWh, equivalent to an installed power capacity of 238 MW (assuming a 0.9 load factor).
212 With total power generation of 4,623 MWh/day, the compression requirement of 264 MWh/day
213 represents a modest demand of 5.7%. Electricity could be sold to the grid at US\$ 60/MWh, so this
214 amounts to US\$ 3.3 million per year of foregone revenues. Another way to evaluate this cost is to
215 quote it as an abatement cost of US\$ 9.16/tCO₂.

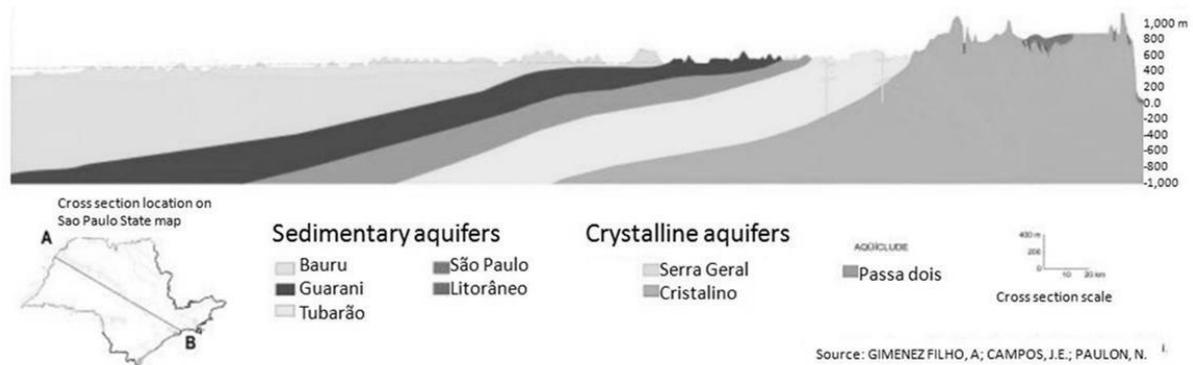
216

217 *3.3 Compression and storage cost*

218 Typically, compressor acquisition and its field installation are responsible for more than 50% of the
219 total capital cost. At the Sleipner project (Torp and Brown, 2004), the total investment is quoted as
220 US\$₁₉₉₆ 96 million, from which US\$ 79 million is for the compressors and US\$ 15 million for the off-
221 shore injection well. For the Weyburn project total investment was US\$₂₀₀₀ 10 million (Torp and
222 Brown, 2004), but a split for each component is not provided. For the IBDP, total investment was
223 US\$ 208 million (Gollakota and McDonald 2014), but, again, the split is not available. A
224 presentation at the 2012 NETL CO₂ Capture Technology Meeting (Koopman 2013) quotes installed
225 cost of high capacity and high pressure compressors as: 10-stage 6000 hp, \$8.0 million at \$1350/hp,
226 pressure ratio 200:1 at 1.70 per stage; 8-stage 20,000 hp –\$15.0 million at \$750/hp and \$23.0
227 million when installed at \$1150/hp, pressure ratio 143:1 at 1.86 per stage, for commercial units. We
228 estimate that the total investment in compressors is US\$ 59.24 million, and the underlying
229 assumptions are provided in the supplementary material.

230 The injection well cost depends on the existence of a proper geological reservoir at least 1,200 m
231 below surface (USDoe, 2010). This requirement matches with information available for a geological
232 formation below the Guarani aquifer. This freshwater reservoir extends continuously from the
233 middle of the state of São Paulo (SP) to the state of Mato Grosso do Sul (MS), Parana and Santa
234 Catarina, reaching parts of Paraguay and Argentina. Its depth is around a few hundred meters in the

235 middle of the state of SP and goes deeper than 1,200 m at the border of SP with MS (see Figure 2).
 236 Its water is exploited by many cities in both states, and due to the number of wells already installed,
 237 the geology of the region is well-known. Furthermore, we must use saline aquifers, which are
 238 known to exist below the Guarani reservoir, such as the Tubarão saline aquifer (see Figure 2).
 239 However, its rock porosity is not yet well studied. The cost of drilling a 1,200 m deep well is
 240 approximately US \$500,000. However, it might be necessary to drill at least 3 wells in order to find a
 241 reservoir with appropriate conditions, such as good rock porosity. Thus, the total cost of finding a
 242 well is \$1,500,000. In addition, in order to avoid contamination of shallower aquifers that are
 243 important drinking water sources (Piramboia and Botucatu) and in order to allow for the injection of
 244 pressurized CO₂, the well must be insulated by a steel casing. This adds 40% to the cost of the
 245 successful well. Consequently, the total well cost is US \$2,100,000 (Hashiro, 2015).



246
 247 Figure 2: Hydrogeological profile of the state of São Paulo

248 Source: Altimetria: cartas do IBGE, escala 1:250.000; Limites geológicos: carta geológica do Brasil ao
 249 milionésimo, folhas Paranapanema (LOPES et al. 2004) e Rio de Janeiro (LEITE et al. 2004)
 250 Transportation cost is evaluated based on the assumption that existing saline aquifers are also
 251 continuously distributed over the same region of the Guarani aquifer. In addition there are around
 252 one hundred sugar mills distributed over an area of 200 X 200 km in the Western part of SP state,
 253 which yields an average density of one per 400 km². Given these two assumptions, a typical length
 254 of 10 km for a CCS pipeline is a reasonable figure. The total cost of a twenty cm diameter pipeline
 255 with 10 km length is US\$ 5 million (Knoope et al, 2013). Table S2 displays all investment costs
 256 considered in our analysis.

257 In our model, taking into account the significant proportion of hydroelectricity in the Brazilian
 258 electricity matrix (90% of the consumption, on average), we assumed that electricity used to power

259 the CCS system will be supplied by the grid, instead of providing it through the sugar mill. This can
260 be justified by: a) the need to avoid double-counting of the CCS cost, since the electricity generated
261 at the mill will be more expensive than the power generated in sugar mills without CCS; b) providing
262 a procedure to reduce the overall CCS cost, given that there is often excess hydroelectricity to
263 guarantee the grid supply security and the CCS project does not need to operate continuously
264 throughout the year or even every year; c) the fact that ethanol and bioelectricity production from
265 sugar cane are not feasible during part of the year, since the sugar cane harvesting season is limited
266 to 208 days per year. Thus, from the total investment cost quoted in Table S2, the value of US\$
267 21.35 million, which is the cost for power generation used in CCS operation, is removed and
268 replaced by an annual operational cost covering the expenses from hydroelectricity acquisition from
269 the grid. Furthermore, it is important to add a value that represents maintenance costs of the
270 complete system in particular compressors, to the operational cost of CCS. This cost is assumed to
271 constitute 5% of the investment cost in compressors, i.e. US\$ 2.96 million/yr. Considering both of
272 these operational costs, and assuming a lifetime of 18 years for the facility, the overnight
273 construction of CCS comprises US\$ 6.65 million/yr and its operational cost is US\$ 3.31 million for
274 annual electricity acquisition, at a unit cost of US\$ 60/MWh⁸. Thus, the total annual cost adds up to
275 US\$ 9.99 million. The electricity acquisition value is discussed in the following subsection. Given all
276 these cost assumptions, and considering that the total amount of CO₂ handled by the CCS system is
277 360,236 tonne/yr, the full overnight CCS cost for the producer is US\$ 27.20/tCO₂. In comparison, a
278 study done in Europe has found equivalent values of between US\$ 44-66/tCO₂ for CCS projects
279 applied to power plants (ZEP, 2015).

280 4. Implications for policy support

281 The sugar mill revenue from product sales is estimated to be \$60/MWh (LEILÃO, 2013) and
282 \$0.6/liter⁹. CCS installation generates an additional producer cost of US\$ 30.29/tCO₂, which is a
283 realistic value when the financial costs of the sugar mill with CCS plus the economic return on the

⁸ The average consumers' price of electricity in Brazil by 2012 was US\$ 169.58/ (FIRJAN, 2012). Considering the transmission and distribution prices, and taxes the average electricity sales price at the power plants were US\$ 43.81/MWh (EPE, 2013b; Instituto Acende Brasil, 2011). Considering hydroelectricity supply in 2012 was 415,000 GWh and thermoelectricity 112,000 GWh, the respective producer sales price were US\$ 38.37 and 63.95/MWh. Since the BECCS unit is expected to import mainly hydroelectricity the value assumed in this study is justified.

⁹ The average sales prices of hydrous ethanol and anhydrous ethanol in 2012 at sugar mills without taxes were US\$ 0.567 and US\$ 0.644/liter, respectively (ANP, 2013). This yields an average ethanol sales price of US\$ 0.6015. Since in this study we are anticipating a greater increase in the use of ethanol than in gasoline, and a consequent increase in demand for hydrous, rather than anhydrous ethanol, the assumed value looks reasonable.

284 investment is taken into account. Details on the calculation of the additional CCS cost are presented
285 in the supplementary material.

286 Based on these conditions we have evaluated four policy scenarios.

287 **4.1. Sharing the cost between ethanol fuel and bioelectricity**

288 Given that this cost is shared between both products, one possibility is to increase the bioelectricity
289 production price by US\$ 1.49/MWh and the price of ethanol by US\$ 0.021/liter. These are both sold
290 at the sugar mill gate without taxes¹⁰. Comparing this to the price of ethanol at the pump in
291 producing regions in Brazil (US\$ 0.953 and 1.123/liter for hydrous and anhydrous, respectively
292 (ANP, 2013; PETROBRAS, 2015)) we can identify the value of other trading costs (distribution and
293 retail), and taxes. The average generation sales price of electricity to final consumers represents
294 25.83% of the final price and the average taxes represent 45% of the final price (Institute Acende
295 Brasil, 2011). Considering these costs and taxes occurring between the farm gate and end-users, the
296 additional cost of CCS will be fully paid by ethanol consumers at US\$ 0.0334/liter, increasing its
297 price to US\$ 0.987, or 3.50%. Since a share of the CO₂ cost is also included in the price of
298 bioelectricity, this bioelectricity will be sold at US\$ 138.58/MWh, which means an increase of
299 US\$2.716/MWh to final consumers (see Table 1).

300 **4.2. Sharing the cost between all light vehicles fuel consumers and all electricity consumers**

301 Actually, considering the important contribution of such a project for climate change mitigation, the
302 cost increase might be paid not only by final hydrous ethanol consumers, but by all car users,
303 regardless of fuel. In the country, the amount of gasohol sold represented 80.12% of total fuel used
304 by Otto engines in 2012 (ANP, 2013), while the hydrous ethanol (92% pure) takes the remaining
305 share of 19.88%; no neat gasoline is sold to final consumers. The gasohol is a blend of 20%
306 anhydrous ethanol and 80% gasoline by volume¹¹, at an average consumer price of US\$ 1.366/liter
307 (ANP, 2013). Thus the 49.6 million cubic meters of liquid fuels used for cars are primarily composed
308 of 64.10% gasoline, 19.88% hydrous ethanol (92% pure), and 16.02% anhydrous ethanol (99.3%
309 pure). Sharing the extra cost of US\$ 0.0334/liter of ethanol across all these fuels, we conclude that

¹⁰ The cost added by CCS can be shared between ethanol and bioelectricity sold by the mill. Several combinations of figures are possible, including charging all cost to either one of them. In this discussion, we choose one particular set of extra costs for electricity and ethanol.

¹¹ For many years gasohol has been a blend of 75% gasoline and 25% anhydrous ethanol. In particular, for 2012 the composition was 80% gasoline and 20% anhydrous ethanol.

310 their final consumer prices would rise by US\$ 0.0066, which implies a hydrous ethanol relative price
311 increase of 0.70%. The price increase would be slightly higher for anhydrous ethanol and gasoline,
312 which are sold at a higher price than hydrous ethanol (see car fuel price at Table 1). Our model
313 assumes that BECCS might be adopted by two thirds of Brazilian sugar mills (400 Mt of sugar cane
314 per year), so the share of hydrous ethanol could reach 77.3% of the total fuel used for passenger
315 cars.

316 The increase in bioelectricity price to consumers could also be shared by all electricity consumers
317 supplied by hydro and bioelectricity. Since the hydroelectricity supply is 415,000 GWh and
318 bioelectricity could provide 74,312 GWh per year if 400 Mt cane (two thirds of the total sugar cane
319 harvested in 2012) were processed in BECCS modern sugar mills, the US\$ 2.716/MWh bioelectricity
320 price increase would be distributed equally, in a percent basis, across all final electricity consumers
321 at an average price of US\$ 0.474/MWh (see electricity price at Table 1).

322 **4.3. Government subsidy to bioenergy producers**

323 Another possibility is for a government subsidy or tax reduction to cover the estimated CO₂
324 emission cost to society. By 2014, about 40 countries and over 20 sub-national jurisdictions have
325 put a price on carbon. Assuming Brazil would accept a CO₂ cost of US\$ 10/tCO₂¹², the net CO₂
326 producer cost for BECCS would then be US\$ 19.93 /tCO₂. Under such a scenario, the additional cost
327 of ethanol and bioelectricity at the sugar mill gate would be US\$ 0.0141/liter of hydrous ethanol (or
328 US\$0.0224 for the final consumer and US\$ 0.0044 when the extra cost is also shared with gasohol)
329 and US\$1.819/MWh for bioelectricity consumers (or US\$0.276/MWh when the extra cost is also
330 shared with hydroelectricity consumers), respectively. These last figures correspond to a relative
331 increase in hydrous ethanol and bioelectricity consumer's price of 0.47% and of 0.20% for BECCS
332 (see Table 1).

333 **4.4. Tax moratorium on prices increasing due to BECCS**

334 Another, more plausible, approach would be to negotiate a moratorium with governments on the
335 taxing of price increases in liquid fuels used in passenger cars and bioelectricity sales to the grid due
336 to CCS projects given their relevant and unique contribution to climate change mitigation. Since
337 taxes charged on fuels and electricity are quite significant in Brazil, such an action would impact the

¹² Brazilian government has not shown willingness to provide direct environmental subsidy; therefore, we have adopted a modest value.

338 final price of these energy carriers. To properly evaluate the extra cost of these energy carriers
 339 under this scenario, we have evaluated the market price of liquid car fuels in 2012 taking into
 340 account trading costs, taxes, and their values under the proposed government policy (Table S4).

341 Based on the assessed market values, we conclude that hydrous and anhydrous ethanol, as well as
 342 gasoline excess charges to cover CCS activities must increase on average by US\$ 0.0065/liter relative
 343 to the current cost. This means a price increase for the final consumer of 0.50% for hydrous ethanol
 344 and also for anhydrous and gasoline to cover the CCS deployment cost. It is important to remember
 345 that in our model this cost would be shared with electricity consumers; on top of these fuel price
 346 increases, bioelectricity and hydroelectricity prices for the final consumer must be increased, on
 347 average, by US\$ 0.261/MWh or 0.17% for bio- and slightly more for hydroelectricity, as shown on
 348 Table 1 and Table S5. This implies a cost, for the consumer, of US\$ 31.63/tCO₂ for liquid fuels and
 349 US\$ 2.73/tCO₂ for electricity, which totals US\$ 34.36/tCO₂ (see real BECCS price at Table 1).

350 Table 1- Impacts on the cost and prices of BECCS and in fuel and electricity due different
 351 government policies*

	No Carbon Tax			With Carbon Tax @ US\$ 10/tCO ₂			With Tax Moratorium	
	Producer cost increase	Consumer price increase	Shared Consumer price increase ^{a)}	Producer cost increase	Consumer price increase	Shared Consumer price increase ^{a)}	Consumer price increase	Shared Consumer price increase
Overnight BECCS cost (US\$/tCO ₂)	27.200			17.200				
Real BECCS price (US\$/tCO ₂)	30.293	47.908	47.908	19.930	32.094	32.094	34.364	34.364
Bioelectricity (US\$/MWh)	1.494	2.716	0.412	1.001	1.819	0.276	1.494	0.227
Ethanol (US\$/liter)	0.0210	0.0334	0.0066	0.0141	0.0224	0.0044	0.0246	0.0048
Bioelectricity (%)	5.91%	2.00%	0.30%	3.96%	1.07%	0.20%	1.10%	0.17%
Ethanol (%)	3.50%	3.50%	0.70%	1.48%	2.35%	0.47%	2.58%	0.50%
Electricity (US\$/MWh)			0.474			0.317		0.261
Car fuel (US\$/liter)			0.0088			0.0059		0.0065
Electricity (%)			0.30%			0.20%		0.17%
Car fuel (%)			0.70%			0.47%		0.50%

352

^{a)}CO₂ cost for electricity shared between bio and hydroelectricity supply; CO₂ cost for ethanol shared between all cars'fuels

* Figures calculated by authors considering: ethanol w/ BECCS consumer price = US\$ 0.621/liter, financing interest rate = 2%, equity share = 20%, IRR on equity = 6%

353 4.5. Consequences for society

354 Another way to put BECCS into perspective is by comparing its cost to other mitigation alternatives
 355 in the country. In a recent assessment, the cost of emission reductions due to the production of
 356 ethanol through cellulose hydrolysis was 37.64 US\$/tCO₂, whereas the cost of emission reductions

357 due to new cogeneration projects that yield surplus electricity was 27.9 US\$/t CO₂ (Schaeffer, Szklo,
358 de Gouvello, 2010). These values are comparable to the ones presented in our assessment.

359 We must realize that the construction of the first BECCS installations will probably involve extra
360 costs, firstly because our assessment has not included some project items such as CO₂ dewatering¹³,
361 environmental licensing, project monitoring, geological site feasibility studies, etc. and secondly
362 because the first-of-a kind project always carries some learning costs. Regarding the first point, it is
363 reasonable to add some contingency reserves of about 20% of the evaluated cost shown in Table
364 S2. As this is essentially an R&D process, a case can be made for these costs to be borne by society.

365 Once successful, the BECCS project could be enlarged to take advantage of the existing ethanol
366 producing logistics in Brazil. As discussed above, a significant share of investment expenditures are
367 due to CO₂ compression; the larger the volume of CO₂ produced within the proximity of the storage
368 site, the lower the investment costs. Indeed, compressor cost is strongly dependent on capacity.

369 Finally, a typical car using hydrous ethanol has an annual consumption of 1,650 liters of ethanol.
370 Assuming a long term optimistic consumer cost of only US\$ 20/tCO₂, either by policies and/or
371 technological improvement, instead of our calculated value (US\$ 47.91/tCO₂ – see Table 1)
372 consumers, when using a BECCS facility similar to the one modelled in our case study (producing
373 2,225 m³ of ethanol/day, sequestering 1.729 tCO₂/day), bear an annual expense of US\$ 6.24/car, if
374 BECCS cost is shared between all cars fuels. Regarding the bioelectricity price impact on consumers,
375 it is necessary to note that average monthly electricity consumption by household is around 160
376 kWh. Due this CCS cost increase, consumers pay an electricity premium of US\$ 0.152/MWh, with
377 annual impact of US\$ 0.297. Since residential consumption represents roughly a third of total
378 consumption in the country, final direct and indirect annual cost of electricity to consumers total
379 US\$ 0.963 per household. Looking at both the cost of liquid fuels and electricity, total annual
380 expenses for carrying out this CCS program in Brazil would amount to US\$ 7.21 per household.

381 It is worthwhile noting that with this extra expense, 27.7 MtCO₂ would be removed from the
382 atmosphere every year compared to the current baseline scenario. Assuming that a long-term cost

¹³Pipeline construction and operation costs are assumed to be small. According to Möllersten et al (2003), for a flow of 125 t/hr and a 50 km pipeline, the cost is US\$ 7-10/tCO₂. For this project, the flow is 100 t/hr, but the pipeline is assumed to measure less than 10 km (see Jones and McKaskle, 2014). Furthermore, the energy required for CO₂ transportation and equipment (low pressure compressor) has already been included in our cost calculation as shown in Table S2. Thus, even considering US dollar inflation in the period 2003/2013, the transportation cost is similar to the value estimated by Möllersten et al. (2003).

383 of US\$ 20/tCO₂ is achievable, this represents US\$ 554 million/yr. According to the IPCC's Fifth
384 Assessment Report (Edenhofer et al., 2014) the achievement of CO₂ atmospheric concentration
385 stabilization at 550 ppm requires emission reductions between 50 and 15 GtCO₂/yr from 2010 to
386 2100. The cost of achieving this is 0.04% of World GDP (US\$ 70 trillion). Put differently, the
387 reduction must be 1.3%/yr or 650 MtCO₂/yr in the initial years, at a cost of US\$ 28 billion/yr or US\$
388 43.1/tCO₂. Putting the results of this study roughly into context, if all mitigation was based on
389 ethanol CO₂ fermentation CCS, the cost would be US\$ 13.0 billion/yr or less than 50% of the IPCC
390 estimates.

391 5. Conclusion

392 This paper has presented a case study on a BECCS scheme, where CCS is applied to CO₂ vented from
393 a Brazilian ethanol fermentation installation using ethanol by-products (bagasse and other sugar
394 cane residues). The by-products are used for the production of heat and bioelectricity self-
395 consumption, as well as for third parties users through the electric grid. Ethanol produced from
396 such a BECCS plant must be sold to final consumers at US\$ 0.0334/liter above the regular ethanol
397 price, which translates into a price increase of 3.50%. Bioelectricity price also increases by US\$
398 2.716/MWh, which corresponds to a 2.00% increase in the current market price.

399 Alternatively, the extra cost of the ethanol could be charged to the gasoline blend rather than the
400 ethanol alone. Blended gasoline is one part ethanol and five parts gasoline, and consumers would
401 pay an extra charge of US\$ 0.066/liter to compensate the BECCS ethanol producer. This is found to
402 be sufficient for the BECCS investor to be attracted to the BECCS system investment. An increase of
403 US\$ 0.066/liter represents a 0.70% increase in the price of hydrous ethanol and a little more in the
404 blended gasoline price. Similarly, the bioelectricity incremental cost due to BECCS could be
405 distributed across electricity supplied through hydropower, which is the cheapest electricity source
406 in the country. This would generate an average increase in bio- and hydroelectricity prices of US\$
407 0.412/MWh (see Table 1) representing a relative increase of 0.30% for bioelectricity and slightly
408 more price increase for hydroelectricity.

409 In addition, we discussed the possibility of government subsidies. One option is for a US\$ 10/tCO₂
410 premium to be paid to the mill owner and the other is a government moratorium on taxing
411 additional costs of ethanol and bioelectricity from a BECCS sugar mill. Both options imply a small
412 final price increase to the consumer, with the latter option being the most favorable one. Ethanol
413 prices would be increased by US\$0.048/liter or 0.50%, while the electricity price would show an

414 increase of US\$0.261/MWh (0.17 %). This translates into an additional annual cost of US\$12.38 per
415 household in Brazil. In conclusion, the proposed technology, where CO₂ is captured from
416 fermentation alone, is not far from being economical, and further research into this area is
417 warranted. Capturing the CO₂ released from the sugar mill furnaces should also be examined as,
418 with a CCS efficiency of 100%, this could capture 628% more CO₂ than the amount calculated in this
419 study. In this way negative emissions could be pushed even further.

420

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567 **Supplementary material**

568 **Technical details of the CO₂ compression system:**

569 The CO₂ compression at the Illinois Basin Decatur Project (IBDP) consists of a centrifugal
 570 booster blower, four parallel 4-stage reciprocating compressors, a dehydration unit, and a
 571 centrifugal pump (Jones and McKaskle 2014). Table S1 shows the technical characteristics of
 572 the CO₂ compression system.

573 **TABLE S1: Technical characteristics of IBDP CO₂ compression system**

	Initial pressure	Initial temperature	Enthalpy	Final pressure	Final temperature	Enthalpy	Power	Capacity
	MPa	°C	kJ/kg	Mpa	°C	kJ/kg	kW	tCO ₂
Gas blower - 4 stages	0.1	37.8	516.81	0.24	93.3	565.32	2238	2,000
Compressor 2, 1st stage	0.24	35	513.17	0.52	145	612.64	2424	500
Compressor 2, 2nd stage	0.52	35	510.72	1.71	156	617.99		
Compressor 2, 3rd stage	1.71	35	499.38	4.10	123	572.04		
Compressor 2, 4th stage	4.1	35	472.16	9.80	133	550.05		
Centrif. Booster	9.8	35	295.84	15.80			298	2000

574 Source: Prepared by authors based on Gollakota, S and McDonald, S ,2014; Jones and
 575 McKaskle, 2014

576 **Cost assumptions for the compression system:**

- 577 1) A scale factor of 0.55 was adopted for the compression system;
 578 2) Installation cost adds US\$ 400/hp to the 20,000 hp compressor, which is 53% of the
 579 compressor cost, and might be higher for smaller units.

580 Considering this project’s CO₂ injection rate (1,729 tCO₂/day) and the compressor
 581 configuration used in the IBDP project, it makes sense to use 4 four-stage 3,250 hp high
 582 pressure compressors, 1 gas blower of 3,000 hp for the low pressure compressor and 1
 583 centrifugal booster for final compression, with 400 hp.

- 584 3) For the high pressure compressor (3250 hp) cost is US\$ 11.06 million, including
 585 installation work, whereas only the compressor costs US\$ 6.15 million and installation
 586 costs US\$ 4.91 million.

- 587 4) For the low pressure compressor, with a capacity of 3,000 hp, the cost is obtained in the
 588 same way as the previous one, yielding a total compressor cost of US\$ 5.93 million plus
 589 4.74 millions for installation – totaling US\$ 10.67 million.

- 590 5) For the centrifugal booster with a capacity of 400 hp, the same approach is used, yielding
 591 total costs of US\$ 4.31 (2.39 and 1.92) million.

592 Total compression system cost is US\$ 59.24 million (4X11.06+1X10.67+1X4.31).

593 Table S2 shows a complete cost of the CCS system considered in our analysis, including data
 594 already presented on the main text.

595 **TABLE S2 –BECCS system costs in sugar mills in Brazil**

Equipment	Investment (Million US ₂₀₁₂ \$)	Cost share
Compressors	59.24	67.56%
Power generation for CCS	21.35	24.35%
Injection well preparation	2.10	2.39%
Pipelines	5.00	5.70%
Total	87.69	100.00%

596 Source: Prepared by authors

597 **Real CCS cost to society**

598 In the main text, we have calculated overnight mitigation cost of CO₂ due to a BECCS system
599 implemented in an efficient sugar cane mill, which collects and stores CO₂ from sugar
600 fermentation. Nevertheless, society has to pay for the project cost and its revenue, because no
601 investor would be interested in the installation and operation of the proposed BECCS system.
602 In order to consider these aspects, plus the fact that the installation of modern sugar mills
603 entails the construction of an efficient electric plant that is able to produce and sell high
604 amounts of electricity to the grid while mitigating CO₂ emissions from sugar fermentation, a
605 financial model was used.

606 The model considers the facility composed by: 1) a sugar mill without energy (heat and
607 power) supply; 2) an electric power plant producing heat and power through cogeneration,
608 which is the standard in all mills in Brazil; 3) the CCS system.

609 For the sugar mill, the investment cost is evaluated considering a value of US\$ 80 per tonne
610 of cane processed per year (Marques, 2008)¹⁴, and 80% of the value is financed at 2% interest
611 rate, over 16 years, with constant amortization values throughout the period.

612 For the modern electric power plant the investment cost is US\$ 1,756 per kW installed for a
613 60 MW plant¹⁵, and 80% is financed at the same conditions of the sugar mill. For the CCS
614 system, total cost is quantified on Table S2 (except the US\$ 21.35 million that, as discussed in
615 the main text, is unnecessary since electricity supply for CCS is acquired from the grid), and
616 financed under the same conditions already discussed for the sugar mill and electric power
617 plant.

618 Inflation is neglected and due to lack of regulation, installation depreciation cost is not
619 accounted for. Revenues are accounted separately from ethanol sales, electricity sales, and,
620 eventually, from the value attributable to CCS's CO₂. Ethanol sales price at the sugar gate is
621 assumed as US\$ 0.60/liter (ANP, 2013) without taxes; electricity sales price is assumed as
622 US\$ 60.00/MWh, without taxes, for the facility operating without the CCS installation.; CO₂
623 might be remunerated through carbon credit (typically, US\$ 10 to 20/tCO₂, or another kind of
624 subsidy discussed on the main text).

625 The model calculates Project's Internal Rate of Return (IRR) and Equity's IRR, assuming no
626 inflation on values. Thus, real IRRs must be evaluated considering the calculated IRRs plus
627 inflation. Therefore, interest rates for financing are low, while equity's IRR around 6% is
628 considered attractive to investors.

629 The main parameters considered in the model are summarized on Table S3.

630

¹⁴ This source concludes that the average investment cost for sugar cane mills ranges from 57 to 86 US\$/t cane in 2008. Considering all economic figures are quoted in US\$ 2012, we select values near the top of the range. Sensitivity evaluations were carried out for values of US\$ 75 to 85/t cane, without any significant impact on our main conclusions.

¹⁵ For other power capacity, an economic scaling factor of 0.75 is used to account for the cost per kW.

631 Table S3: Economic - financial model assumptions (All monetary values in 2012 US\$)

Sugar mill investment cost (US\$/t cane processed)	80
Sugar mill financed investment (%)	80.00
Sugar mill financed interest (%)	2.00
Sugar mill financed grace period (year)	2
Sugar cane financed period (years)	16
Sugar mill construction time (years)	2
Ethanol sales price at sugar mill gate (US\$/litre)	0.60
Sugar cane cost (% of ethanol sales price)	50
Sugar cane processing cost (% of ethanol sales price)	32
Sugar cane to hydrous ethanol (92%) yield (litres)	90
Sugar cane yield (tonnes/ha)	100
Electricity plant investment (US\$/MW)	1756
Electricity plant financed interest (%)	2.00
Electricity plant financed cost share (%)	80
Electricity plant financed grace period (years)	4
Electricity plant financed period (year)	16
Electricity plant construction time (years)	2
Acquired electricity cost for the CCS system (US\$/MWh)	60

632

633 Table S4: Price profile due commercialization without BECCS and with BECCS cost shared
 634 with all liquid fuels used in cars -moratorium taxation scenario

Car fuel type	Values for year 2012 ^{a)} (US\$/liter)			BECCS cost shared with all car fuels ^{a)} (US\$/liter)		
	Hydrated eth.	Anhydrous eth.	Gasoline A	Hydrated eth.	Anhydrous eth.	Gasoline A
Consumption share ^{b)}	19.880%	16.024%	64.096%			
Fuel price at mill/refinery	0.6000	0.6443	0.8183	0.6044	0.6488	0.8239
Distribution margin ^{c)}	4.54%	8.00%	17.00%	4.54%	8.00%	17.00%
Service station margin ^{c)}	5.00%	7.00%		5.00%	7.00%	
Disrt&Service stat. price	0.0910	0.1685	0.2425	0.0916	0.1697	0.2442
Taxes share ^{c)}	27.54%	27.64%	25.64%	27.54%	27.64%	25.64%
Taxes value	0.2626	0.3105	0.3658	0.2644	0.3126	0.3683
Fuel for consumers ^{c)}	0.9536	1.1233	1.4266	0.9602	1.1311	1.4362
increase ^{d)}				0.0066	0.0078	0.0096
BECCS fuels overtaxes				0.0018	0.0022	0.0025
BECCS fuels taxes return				0.0018	0.0022	0.0025
BECCS fuel real price increase				0.0048	0.0057	0.0072
BECCS fuels relative price increase				0.50%	0.50%	0.50%
Average BECCS price increase				0.0065		
Average BECCS relative price increase				0.50%		
Average BECCS price (US\$/tCO ₂) ^{d)}				31.11		

635

Car fuel type	Values for year 2012 ^{a)} (US\$/liter)			Values with BECCS applied to all car fuels ^{a)} (US\$/liter)		
	Hydrated eth.	Anhydrous eth.	Gasoline A	Hydrated eth.	Anhydrous eth.	Gasoline A
Consumption share ^{b)}	19.880%	16.024%	64.096%			
Fuel price at mill/refinery	0.5670	0.6443	0.8183	0.5729	0.6500	0.8240
Distribution margin ^{c)}	7.00%	8.00%	17.00%	7.00%	8.00%	17.00%
Service station margin ^{c)}	6.00%	7.00%		6.00%	7.00%	
Disrt&Service stat. price	0.1240	0.2041	0.2420	0.1253	0.1700	0.2442
Taxes share ^{c)}	27.54%	27.64%	25.64%	27.54%	27.64%	25.64%
Taxes value	0.2626	0.3105	0.3658	0.2654	0.3133	0.3684
Fuel for consumers ^{c)}	0.9536	1.1233	1.4266	0.9636	1.1333	1.4366
increase ^{d)}				0.0100	0.0100	0.0100
BECCS fuels overtaxes				0.0028	0.0028	0.0026
BECCS fuels taxes return				0.0028	0.0028	0.0026
BECCS fuel real price increase				0.0073	0.0073	0.0075
BECCS fuels relative price increase				0.76%	0.65%	0.52%
Average BECCS price increase				0.0074		

636

637

^{a)} Values in US\$/liter when no unit shown; ^{b)} ANP, 2013; ^{c)} PETROBRAS, 2015;

^{d)} Calculated with model described in text for BECCS hydrous ethanol producer price @ US\$ 0.621/liter, interest on financing share of 2%/yr, 20% equity share, and 6% internal rate of return on equity.

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Source: Prepared by authors based in ANP, 2013 and PETROBRAS, 2015 data

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Table S5 displays typical average prices for commercial electricity sales, including transmission, distribution costs, and taxes.

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644 Table S5: Average cost composition of electricity to final consumers.

	Average electricity cost ^{a)}	Hydro elec. ^{b)}	Hydro elect.	Bio elect ^{d)}	Bio elect w/o BECCS	Bioelect w/ BECCS	Bioelect w/ BECCS w/ tax return	Bioelect w/ BECCS sharing cost ^{f)}	Bioelect w/ BECCS sharing cost and taxes return ^{f)}	Hydroelec w/ BECCS sharing cost and taxes return ^{f)}
	(US\$/MWh)	(GWh/yr)	(US\$/MWh)	(GWh/yr)	(US\$/MWh)	(US\$/MWh)	(US\$/MWh)	(US\$/MWh)	(US\$/MWh)	(US\$/MWh)
Generation	43.809	415,000	38.372 ^{c)}	74,312	25.265 ^{e)}	26.759 ^{e)}	26.759 ^{e)}	25.492 ^{e)}	25.492 ^{e)}	38.638 ^{e)}
Transmission	8.479		8.479		8.479	8.479	8.479	8.479	8.479	8.479
Distribution	40.983		40.983		40.983	40.983	40.983	40.983	40.983	40.983
Sub-total	93.271		87.834		74.727	76.221	76.221	74.954	74.954	88.100
Taxes	76.312		71.864		61.141	62.363	62.363	61.326	61.326	72.082
Consumer cost	169.583		159.698		135.868	138.584	138.584	136.280	136.280	160.182
Price increase due BECCS						2.716	2.716	0.412	0.412	0.485
Overtaxes						1.222	1.222		0.186	0.218
Overtaxes return						0.000	1.222	0.000	0.186	0.218
Consumer price w/ tax return						138.584	137.362	136.280	136.095	159.964
Price increase due BECCS						2.716	1.494	0.412	0.227	0.267
Relative final price increase						2.00%	1.10%	0.30%	0.17%	0.17%

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	Average electricity		Hydro elec. ^{c)}	Hydro elec. ^{d)}	Bio elect ^{e)}	Bio elect ^{a) f)}	Bioelect w/ BECCS ^{f)}	Bioelect w/ BECCS w/ tax return ^{f)}	Bioelect w/ BECCS sharing cost ^{f)}	Hydroelec w/ BECCS sharing	Bioelect w/ BECCS and taxes return ^{f)}	Hydroelec w/ BECCS taxes return ^{f)}
Item	Cost share ^{a)}	Cost ^{b)} (US\$/MWh)	(GWh/yr)	(US\$/MWh)	(GWh/yr)	(US\$/MWh)	(US\$/MWh)	(US\$/MWh)	(US\$/MWh)	(US\$/MWh)	(US\$/MWh)	(US\$/MWh)
Generation	25.83%	43.809	415,000	38.372	74,312	37.708	45.703	45.703	38.922	39.586	38.376	39,040
Transmission	5.00%	8.479		8.479		8.479	8.479	8.479	8.479	8.479	8.479	8.479
Distribution	24.17%	40.983		40.983		40.983	40.983	40.983	40.983	40.983	40.983	40.983
Sub-total	55.00%	93.271		87.834		87.170	95.165	95.165	88.384	89.048	87.837	88.502
Taxes	45.00%	76.312		71.864		71.321	77.862	77.862	72.314	72.857	71.867	72.410
Consumer cost	100.00%	169.583		159.698		158.490	173.028	173.028	160.698	161.905	159.704	160.912
Price increase due BECCS							14.537	14.537	2.208	2.208	1.214	1.214
Overtaxes							6.542	6.542				
Overtaxes return							0.000	6.542				
Consumer price w/ tax return							173.028	166.486	160.698	161.905	159.704	160.912
Price increase due BECCS							14.537	7.996	2.208	2.208	1.214	1.214
Sharing price increase w/ hydro ^{g)}							2.208	1.214				
Relative final price increase							9.17%	5.04%	1.39%	1.38%	0.77%	0.76%

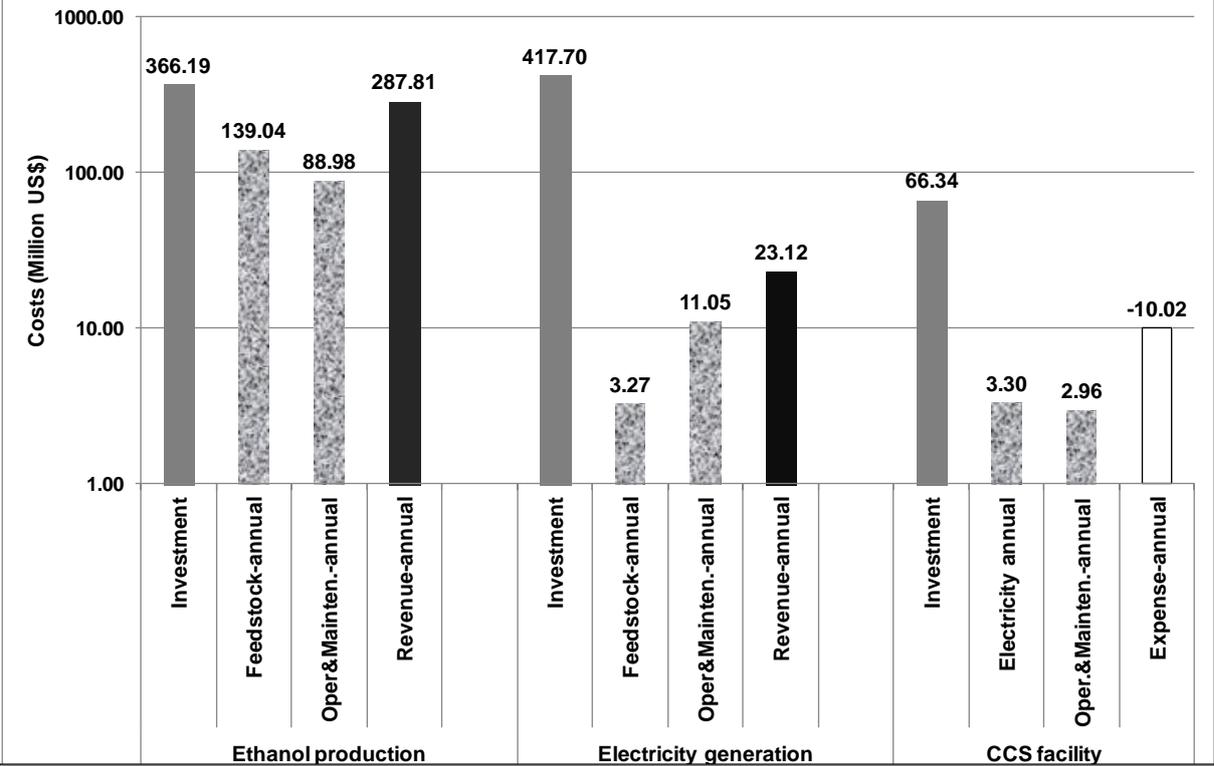
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^{a)} Calculated based in average electricity price (FIRJAN, 2012; Instituto Acende Brasil, 2011) and average bidding hydroelectricity price (MME, 2012), as well as the share of hydro (415 TWh) and thermal power (132 TWh) in Brazil (EPE, 2013); ^{b)} EPE, 2013; ^{c)} Price from 2012 bidding (MME, 2012); ^{d)} Authors assumption based in the installation of 86 BECCS mills processing 400 Mt of sugar cane/yr; ^{e)} Generation cost evaluated from authors' model discussed in the paper; when the BECCS is shared with ethanol priced at US\$ 0621/l for the consumer; ^{f)} Part of the BECCS cost paid by hydrous, anhydrous, and gasohol fuel users, and the other part shared by all users of bio (74.3 TWh) and hydroelectricity (415 TWh). Source: Compiled by authors.

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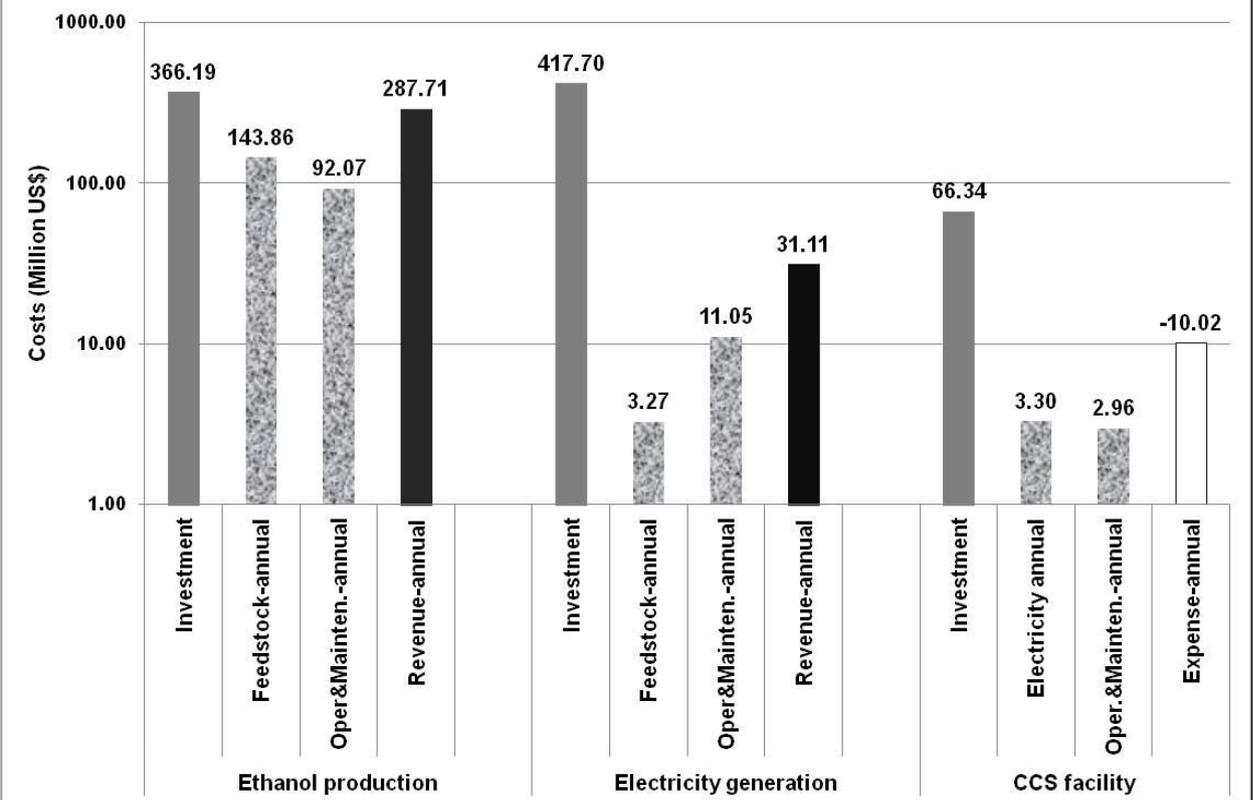
Figure S1 synthesizes some results from our model.

**Investment, annual operation cost and revenue (positive and negative)
of the complex Sugar Mill+ Electricity Plant+ CCS Facility**



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**Investment, annual operation cost and revenue (positive and negative)
of the complex Sugar Mill+ Electricity Plant+ CCS Facility**



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659 Figure S1 - Results from the financial model used in the calculation. Note: the value
660 “Expense-annual” for CCS refers to a negative figure. Since the chart is displayed in
661 logarithmic scale the value is presented as positive figure, but in blank color.

662 A calculation based on Table S3 parameters, in which a benchmark rate of return on
663 equity of 6% above inflation is assumed for the investor, shows that the cost of CO₂ CCS
664 is US\$ 30.29/tCO₂.

665 In order to compensate the investor for this CO₂ cost, ethanol has to be sold at the sugar
666 mill gate at US\$ 0.621, and bioelectricity sold to the grid¹⁶ at a price US\$ 26.76/MWh
667 without accounting for taxes. As noted, comparing to the cost calculated at section 3.3, the
668 CO₂ value is 11.3% higher, even considering the modest interest rate on the loan, which is
669 available for infrastructure projects, in Brazil, through the National Development Bank
670 (BNDES).

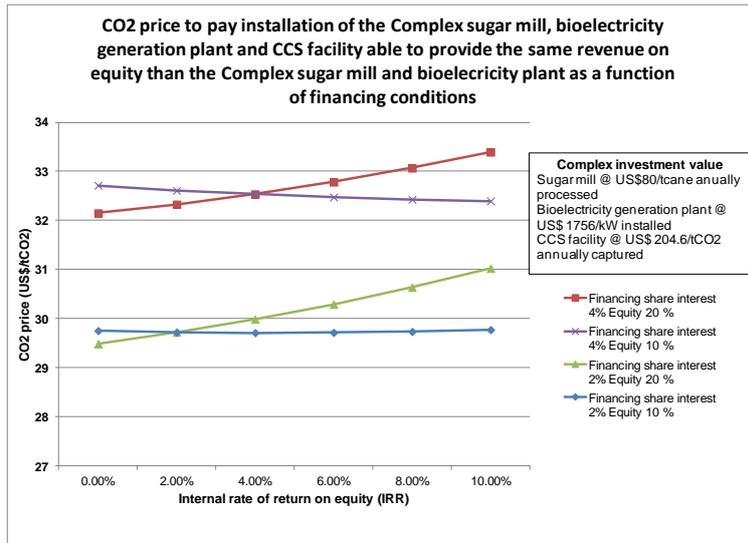
671 This calculated CO₂ cost is significant when compared to CO₂ market price. In US, prices
672 around US\$ 40/tCO₂ are being considered by the government, but presently around US\$
673 12.00 are accounted for in some projects (EIA, 2015). During part of the Kyoto Protocol
674 agreement, projects were supported with CO₂ shadow prices near US\$ 40/tCO₂, but most
675 of the time the price was around or even below US\$ 20. Thus, it is very clear that even
676 this BECCS technology, in which the CO₂ capture cost is almost zero, requires regulation
677 or support, as already discussed in the main text, thus affecting the ethanol and/or
678 bioelectricity final sales price.

679 **Sensitivity Analysis**

680 Figures S2 and S3 provide information regarding the sensitivity of our results with respect
681 to 3 parameters of our model: a) financing interest rate; b) equity share on the investment;
682 and c) expected rate of return on equity, essentially the project’s degree of attractiveness
683 for the investor. Figure S2 shows the value that has to be paid to the investor in order to
684 install and operate the CCS facility while receiving the same revenue when the CCS
685 facility doesn’t exist.
686

¹⁶ In reality, from the 208 kWh/tcane generated in the complex sugar mill/bioelectricity plant, 40 kWh is used on site. Thus, only 168 kWh/tcane is commercialized through the grid. In our model electricity self generated is not overpriced to pay for CCS costs.

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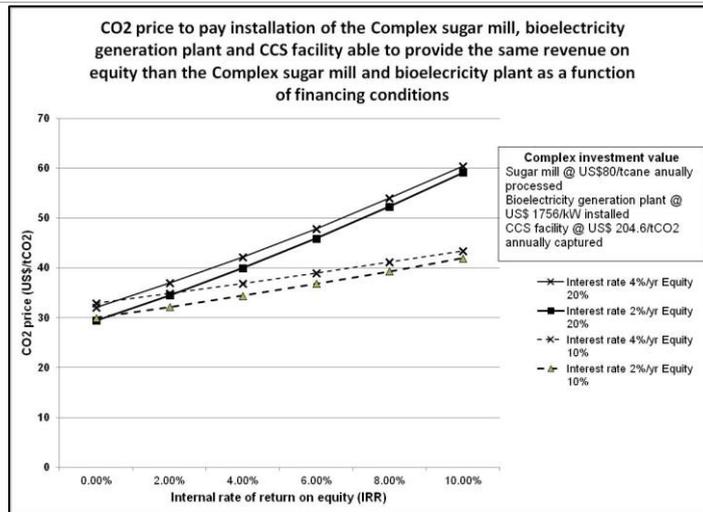


Figure S2 – CO₂ breakeven price to match the BECCS scheme given finance variable interest rates and equity shares. Source: Prepared by authors

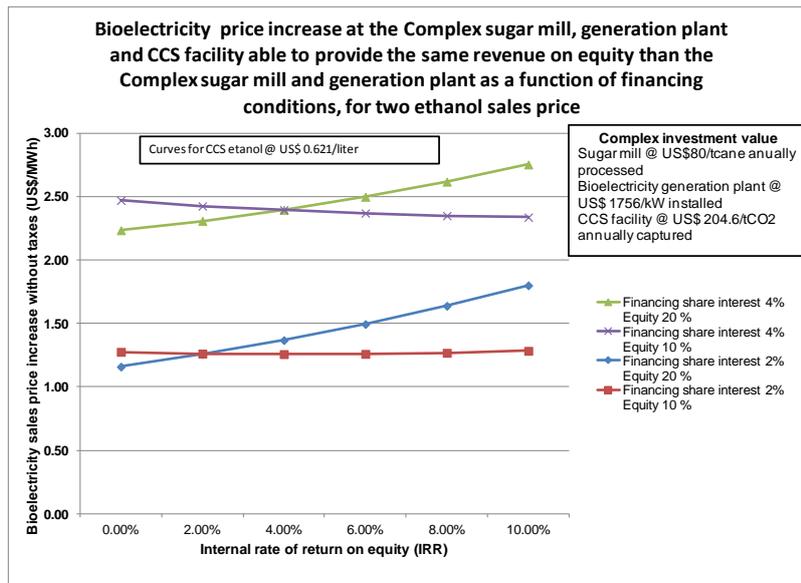
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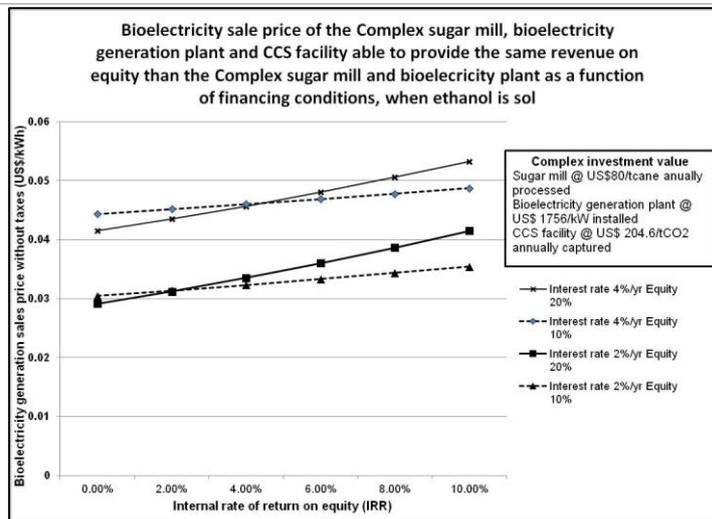
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Figure S3 shows bioelectricity sales price, at the electricity plant gate, without any taxes, for the investor recovering the CCS costs through sales of electricity and ethanol. This last product is sold at US\$ 0.621, instead of the regular market price of US\$ 0.60.



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Figure S3 – Bioelectricity sales price given variable interest rates and equity shares

Source: Prepared by authors

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