

1 **Water use in the US energy system:**

2 **A national assessment and unit process inventory of water consumption and withdrawals**

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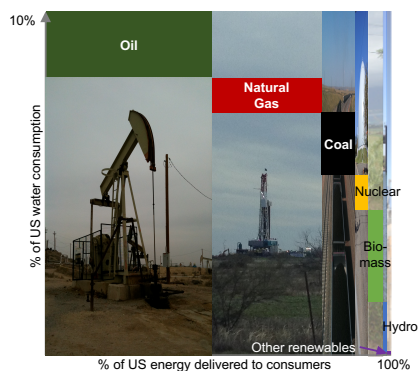
11 **Abstract:** The US energy system is a large water user, but the nature of that use is poorly  
12 understood. To support resource co-management and fill this noted gap in the literature, this  
13 work presents detailed estimates for US-based water consumption and withdrawals for the US  
14 energy system as of 2014, including both intensity values and the first known estimate of total  
15 water consumption and withdrawal by the US energy system. We address 126 unit processes,  
16 many of which are new additions to the literature, differentiated among 17 fuel cycles, five life  
17 cycle stages, three water source categories, and four levels of water quality. Overall coverage is  
18 about 99% of commercially traded US primary energy consumption, with detailed energy flows  
19 by unit process. Energy-related water consumption, or water removed from its source and not  
20 directly returned, accounts for about 10% of both total and freshwater US water consumption.  
21 Major consumers include biofuels (via irrigation), oil (via deep well injection, usually of non-  
22 freshwater), and hydropower (via evaporation and seepage). The US energy system also accounts  
23 for about 40% of both total and freshwater US water withdrawals, i.e., water removed from its  
24 source regardless of fate. About 70% of withdrawals are associated with the once-through  
25 cooling systems of approximately 300 steam cycle power plants that produce about 25% of US  
26 electricity.

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## 29 Table of Contents / Abstract Art:



30

## 31 **Introduction.**

32       The US energy system requires water for primary energy extraction, processing and  
33 refining, conversion to secondary forms, waste disposal, and site remediation<sup>1</sup>. Interlinkages  
34 between water and energy systems, often called the “energy-water nexus,” are well  
35 documented<sup>2-6</sup>, but the energy system’s demand for water has not been comprehensively  
36 quantified with data reflecting major changes to the energy system from the last several decades.  
37 Total energy consumption in the United States is flattening, while the domestic energy supply is  
38 expected to continue to grow<sup>7</sup>. On the supply side, both the US fuel mix and the technologies  
39 used to supply energy to consumers are changing, most significantly via more deployment of  
40 renewable electricity technologies<sup>8-10</sup>; more unconventional oil and natural gas extraction<sup>11-23</sup>;  
41 tighter environmental controls in the power sector, particularly affecting coal; and diversification  
42 of fuel sources in the transportation sector<sup>26-29</sup>. Consequently, one of the major policy concerns  
43 of the energy-water nexus is the effect of this dynamic energy system on volumetric water  
44 resource demands.

45       Energy system transitions are associated with diverse incentives (e.g., economics, policy,  
46 social pressures, etc.) and industries (e.g., oil and gas, power generation, transportation) on  
47 different spatio-temporal scales, making a holistic approach to energy and water co-management  
48 difficult. Efforts to inventory overall water use are hampered by inconsistency, incompleteness,  
49 and age of individual water intensity estimates, which, in many instances, can be traced back to  
50 sources that are many decades old and based on outdated processes. As a result, the overall water  
51 use of the energy system is poorly understood, despite the existence of detailed inventories for  
52 other aspects of the energy sector, including electricity generation and fuel use, air emissions,  
53 and production<sup>30-33</sup>.

54 Co-management of energy and water resources is becoming increasingly important as  
55 challenges such as extended drought, climate change, and population growth add pressure to  
56 freshwater resources, especially in water-constrained regions<sup>34-43</sup>. Recent historic droughts in  
57 California, Texas and other parts of the southwestern US have drawn attention to water  
58 provisioning for energy-related uses, as well as farming and direct human consumption<sup>17,44,45</sup>.  
59 Water constraints have not been limited to drought-prone regions: even relatively water-rich  
60 regions have faced water-related energy curtailments over the past decade.

61 Water concerns are attracting more attention to water resource use prior to and following  
62 energy development. Regulators and the public are explicitly raising concerns about water use at  
63 energy facilities<sup>46,47</sup>, prompting interest in dry cooling and alternative cooling sources<sup>42,48-51</sup>.  
64 Non-traditional water sources are being explored as alternatives to freshwater for oil and gas,  
65 biofuels, and the power sector<sup>49,52-56</sup>. Given growing concerns about seismicity<sup>57-61</sup>, management  
66 costs<sup>12,16,62-64</sup>, and regional drought<sup>22,65</sup>, there is increasing interest in reuse opportunities<sup>22,64,65</sup>  
67 and beneficial uses of produced water<sup>66-68</sup> in regions that withdraw large volumes of water  
68 during oil and gas development, like California, Oklahoma, and Texas.

69 Despite the escalating importance of sustainable water management, serious data gaps exist,  
70 impeding the holistic management of water resources<sup>37,41,69,70,71</sup>. One of the most consequential  
71 gaps is that national water consumption has not been federally estimated since 1995<sup>72</sup>. Some of  
72 this mismatch is due, in part, to lower requirements for federal water reporting and forecasting  
73 versus energy reporting and forecasting<sup>73</sup>. Although the United States Geological Survey  
74 (USGS) estimates water withdrawals for the entire US economy<sup>74</sup>, estimates are only made every  
75 five years, with a multi-year lag and low resolution on processes and sectors. For example,  
76 "mining" is a single category and does not distinguish between energy and non-energy resources,

77 oil and natural gas versus solid resources, etc. More specific data do exist for some aspects of the  
78 energy and other sectors, but they are often fragmented due to state-level reporting, variable  
79 definitions related to characterizing water quantity and quality, proprietary classifications, and  
80 different vintages<sup>41,68,75</sup>. Policy makers, businesses, and individuals are increasingly called upon  
81 to consider water impacts before making decisions<sup>76</sup>, but no agency is currently empowered to  
82 collect and provide internally consistent data at the temporal and process scales that are needed.  
83 Similarly, water quantity is often excluded from sustainability-oriented decision support tools  
84 like life cycle assessment because of data and definitional challenges<sup>77</sup>, even though water  
85 quantity is a consistently high priority issue for the American public<sup>78</sup>.

86 To the authors' knowledge, there has not been a comprehensive effort to characterize water  
87 consumption and withdrawal for the US energy system since 1980<sup>79</sup>, when the Department of  
88 Energy (DOE) compiled process-level water intensity data for nuclear, coal, petroleum, natural  
89 gas, synthetic fuels, solar energy, geothermal energy, and hydroelectricity. This DOE study is a  
90 major source for the better known Gleick compilation of intensity estimates<sup>80</sup>, which is in turn a  
91 major source for many of the more recent energy-water nexus studies addressing water intensity  
92 of energy systems<sup>81-83</sup>. No overall estimate of the water volumes withdrawn and consumed by  
93 the energy system currently exists.

94 Given the many changes to the energy system over the past several decades, including the  
95 rise of unconventional hydrocarbon development and renewable energy, and given calls for more  
96 integration between energy and water policy<sup>40,41,68,70,75</sup>, both total volume and updated intensity  
97 estimates that reflect current practice in the energy industries are needed. This work provides the  
98 first known estimate of total US water use for energy, covering over 99% of the US energy  
99 system using a base year of 2014, the most recent year for which data were available across the

100 energy system as of this writing. Further, we present detailed data differentiated by water quality,  
101 source, and use type (i.e., consumption or withdrawal) for 126 processes, in many cases based on  
102 new analysis and addressing processes not previously present in the literature (see  
103 Supplementary Information, SI (184 pages), for detailed descriptions). These data are critical to  
104 supporting better decision making about co-management of vital water and energy resources<sup>37</sup>,  
105 both of which are important to societal function and are likely to experience significant  
106 dynamism because of climate and technology change<sup>84</sup>.

107       The goal of this work is twofold and makes several contributions to the energy, water, and  
108 environmental sustainability literatures. First, we provide a high resolution dataset for use in  
109 activities like life cycle assessment, integrated water resources management, and other analytical  
110 processes that can benefit from understanding the implications of energy resource use for water  
111 withdrawals and consumption in the United States. This primary contribution is the publication  
112 of a near-comprehensive set of current values for water withdrawal and consumption for the US  
113 energy system, using consistent assumptions across resources. Unlike other work in this area,  
114 this research develops both absolute numbers and intensity factors for water withdrawals and  
115 consumption. As a result, we provide estimates for the total water withdrawn and consumed for  
116 the US energy system, which do not currently exist in the literature. In addition, this research  
117 presents data differentiated by life cycle stage, water source, and water quality for both  
118 withdrawals and consumption, which similarly are not currently present in the literature for the  
119 whole energy system. Second, we highlight that the current state of data availability and data  
120 precision regarding water used for energy systems is inadequate to support ongoing energy-water  
121 nexus decision making. Resource co-management requires more effort both in data collection  
122 and in the research community's commitment to using consistent and precise definitions.

123

124 **Methods.**

125       This work covers systems accounting for an estimated 99.4% of US primary commercial  
126 energy consumption for 2014 (see Data File S1), where commercial refers to energy that is  
127 bought and sold as a commodity not for use as food, feed, or feedstock, excluding resources like  
128 passive solar, informal biomass, and off-grid applications. We examine the water withdrawn and  
129 consumed for the US energy system across 17 fuel cycles (liquid fuels: conventional oil,  
130 unconventional oil, ethanol, and biodiesel; electricity and industrial fuels: subbituminous coal,  
131 bituminous coal, lignite coal, conventional natural gas, unconventional natural gas, uranium,  
132 hydropower, wind, solid biomass and refuse-derived fuels (RDF), biogas, geothermal, solar  
133 photovoltaic, and solar thermal), using mass transfer-based definitions for water withdrawal and  
134 consumption (see SI, page S9, for complete definitions). Water withdrawals and consumption for  
135 each fuel cycle are investigated across individual processes assigned to one of five life cycle  
136 stages: production (extraction/capture), processing, transport, conversion (power generation and  
137 refining), and post-conversion, with detail for 126 unit processes presented in Data File S1.  
138 Water formed during hydrocarbon combustion<sup>85</sup> is also reported separately in Data File S1 for  
139 reference but, because the ultimate fate of this combustion water is unknown, estimates for  
140 withdrawal and consumption do not include combustion water. Water withdrawals and  
141 consumption are further categorized by water source (surface water, groundwater, or reuse) and  
142 water quality (freshwater, brackish water, saline water, or “not reverse osmosis (RO)  
143 treatable”—water too saline for treatment by reverse osmosis). We include “not RO treatable”  
144 water as its own category because of the practical cost and technological limitations on  
145 management options for these very saline waters.



146 The underlying analysis for this work draws on over 300 primary and secondary sources, in  
147 addition to contributing new results computed based on physical relationships. Empirical data  
148 collected for the year of study are prioritized when available, followed by compilations of recent  
149 data, direct communication with operators, pre-operational estimates, and finally, calculated  
150 values based on physical relationships. Where necessary, data are converted to the 2014 base  
151 year using scaled proxies chosen based on their correlation with water demand (e.g., re-scaling  
152 estimates for water used for oil well drilling is based on well borehole volume rather than on the  
153 amount of oil produced, as water use volumes are mediated by the volume of the well, not oil  
154 production from the well). Our dataset also provides water use intensity estimates using multiple  
155 bases (i.e., volumetric water usage per unit of energy to which a given process applies versus per  
156 unit of energy delivered to a consumer) and an accounting of the amount of energy associated  
157 with each water-using process, validated against EIA records for 2014<sup>86</sup>.

158 Water withdrawn and consumed within the US for direct, operational needs (i.e., unit  
159 process use) of the commercial energy system is included in the analysis, whether it is used for  
160 imported energy, exported energy, or fully domestic energy. Discharge volumes are not carefully  
161 tracked, though return flows (the portion of water withdrawals returned to the same source) have  
162 been calculated based on consumption estimates. Note that discharges and return flows are not  
163 identical, as discharge can be a consumptive use: for example, groundwater can be discharged to  
164 a surface water body. Any water consumed or withdrawn outside the US is excluded, even for  
165 non-US-origin fuel ultimately consumed in the US (e.g., in the case of imports) or US-origin  
166 fuels consumed outside the US (e.g., in the case of exports). Embodied water is also excluded  
167 from analysis, including water embodied in consumables like proppant (for hydraulic fracturing)

168 or fertilizer (for biofuels). Note that this work does not address quality impacts (thermal,  
169 chemical, or otherwise) related to use.

170 Full numerical results, definitions, assumptions, limitations, and details on calculations are  
171 provided in the SI, which is organized by fuel. We draw attention to several major assumptions  
172 here. This work uses mass transfer-based definitions for withdrawal and consumption, such that  
173 any removal of water from its proximate source is considered a withdrawal and any withdrawal  
174 not returned to that source is consumptive (see also SI, page S9). Though this definition and  
175 minor variants are commonly used in the literature<sup>87</sup>, they are inconsistently applied. For  
176 example, groundwater discharged to surface water or nondiscretionary produced water from oil  
177 wells disposed in deep wells is consumed by definition but is frequently characterized otherwise.  
178 This work also makes several resource-specific assumptions of potential broad interest. Produced  
179 water from fossil resource extraction is treated like any other groundwater abstraction, with the  
180 important implication that produced water used for enhanced oil recovery is withdrawn but not  
181 consumed, as it is returned to its original aquifer. For biofuels and biomass, only irrigation water  
182 is considered a potential withdrawal or consumptive use. That is, biomass fuels are actually more  
183 water intensive than this work reflects due to rainfall and soil moisture contributions to  
184 evapotranspiration. In cases where coproducts are important (namely for biofuels and  
185 hydropower), allocation proceeds based on a principle of additionality: what activity likely  
186 prompted the water use? For biofuels, water is allocated based on financial value (see SI). For  
187 hydropower, water is allocated based on a given reservoir's stated primary purpose, or the major  
188 reason the reservoir was created (see SI and Grubert<sup>88</sup> for an extensive discussion of this choice  
189 and its implications, including sensitivity analysis to other allocation approaches). Hydropower's

190 water consumption is presented net of anticipated groundcover evapotranspiration<sup>88</sup> and includes  
191 losses from both evaporation and seepage.

192

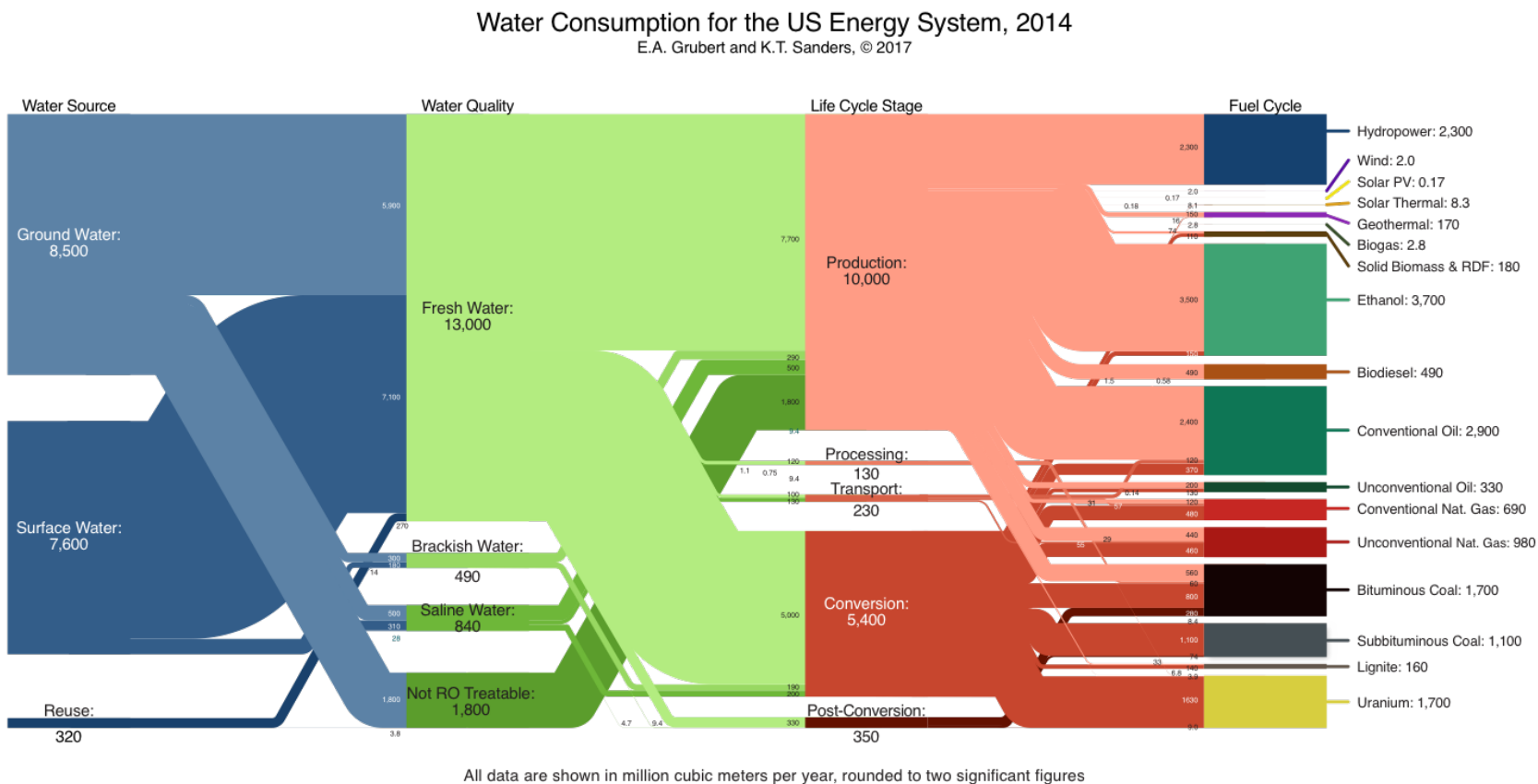
## 193 **Results and Discussion.**

194        Figures 1 and 2 display water consumption and withdrawals for the US energy system in  
195 2014. We find that the energy sector is responsible for approximately 10% ( $1.6 \times 10^{10}$  m<sup>3</sup> per  
196 year) of total US water consumption, with the largest overall consumers being irrigation for corn  
197 used for ethanol (freshwater), produced water from oil extraction (non-freshwater), and  
198 evaporation from hydroelectric reservoirs (freshwater). Note that water abstracted from  
199 groundwater aquifers and not returned is a consumptive use, regardless of aquifer depth or  
200 whether the aquifer is fresh (as for irrigation) or not (as for oil extraction). Specifically, using a  
201 mass transfer-based definition of consumption, groundwater discharge to surface water or to a  
202 different aquifer is a consumptive use, just as surface water transfer to groundwater (e.g., for  
203 agriculture) or hydrologically disconnected surface water basins is. We also find that the energy  
204 sector (excluding nonconsumptive hydropower withdrawals) is responsible for 40% ( $2.2 \times 10^{11}$   
205 m<sup>3</sup> per year) of US water withdrawals (see SI for a discussion of nonconsumptive hydropower  
206 withdrawals, estimated at about  $2 \times 10^{13}$  m<sup>3</sup> per year—100 times all other energy-related  
207 withdrawals combined and thus excluded from Figure 2).

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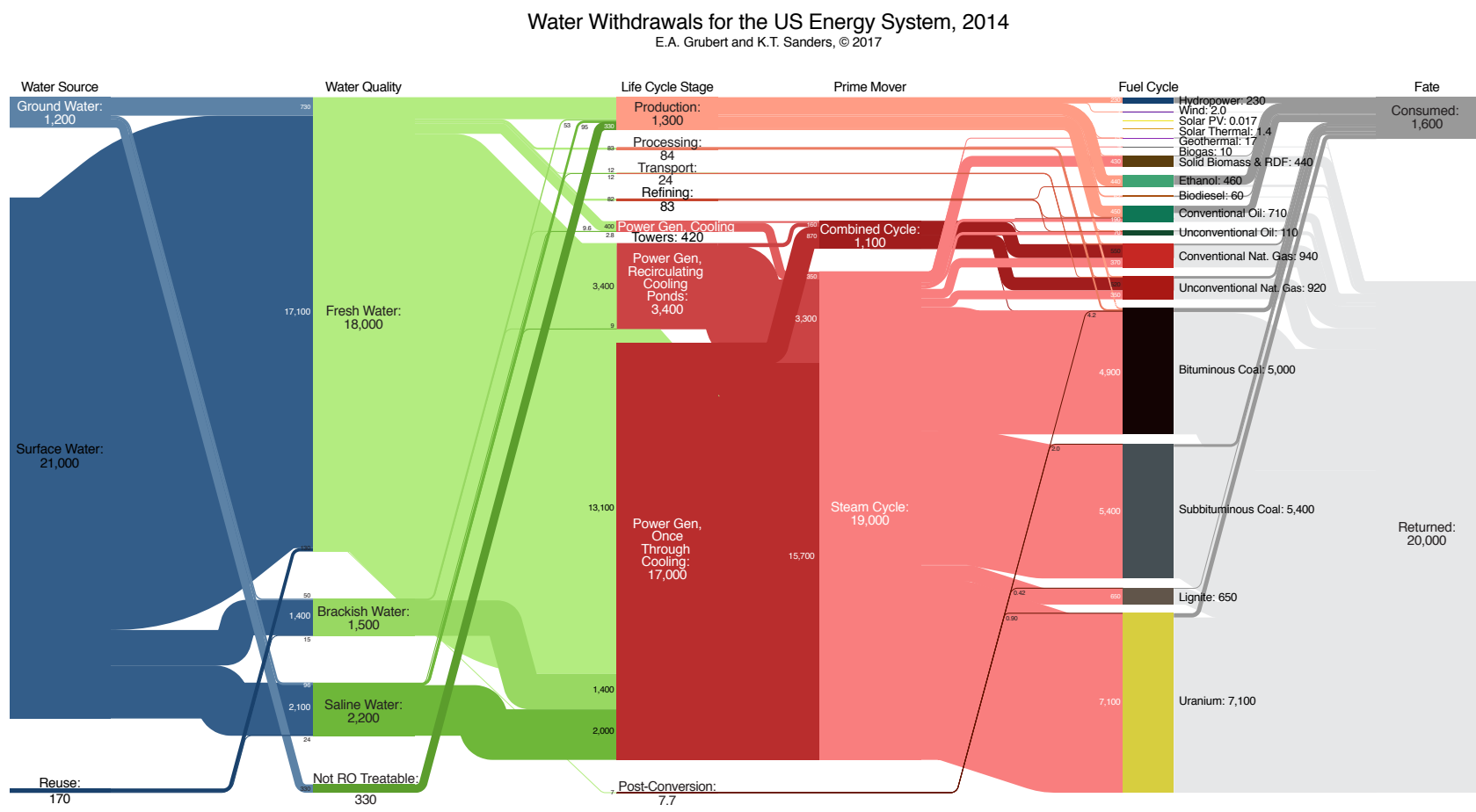
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210 **Fig. 1.** Water consumption for the US energy system, 2014, million cubic meters ( $10^6 \text{ m}^3$ ).



211

212 **Fig. 2.** Water withdrawals for the US energy system excluding nonconsumptive hydropower withdrawals, 2014, ten-million cubic  
 213 meters ( $10^7 \text{ m}^3$ ).



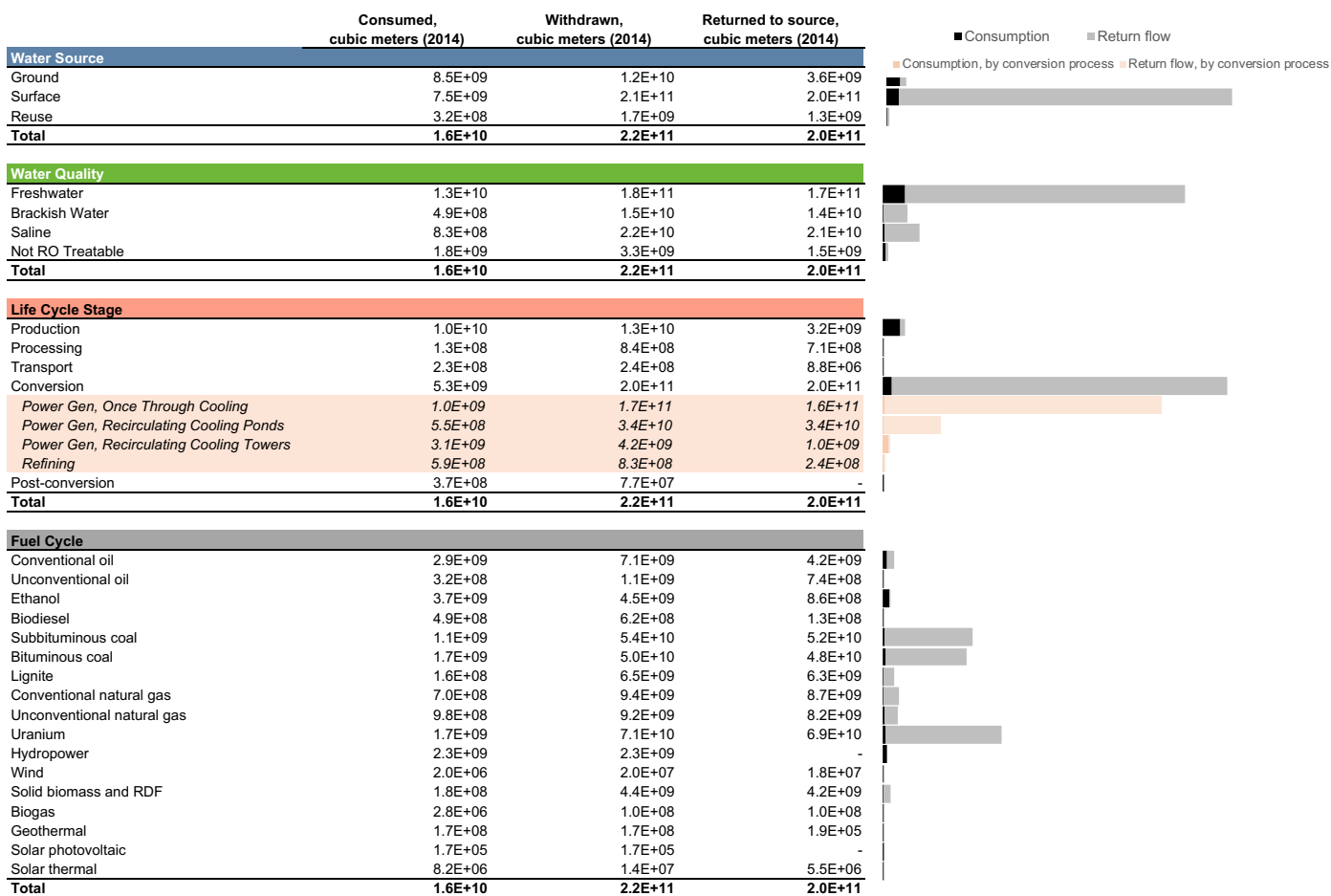
All data are shown in 10 million cubic meters per year, rounded to two significant figures

215

216 Overall, both energy-related water consumption and withdrawals are primarily  
217 freshwater. Energy-related water consumption is primarily groundwater and related to  
218 production-stage activities, while withdrawals are primarily surface water and related to  
219 conversion-stage activities, mainly power plants (Fig. 3). Consistent with previous findings<sup>74</sup>, we  
220 find that thermoelectric power plants represent the main demand for water withdrawals. Our  
221 analysis further shows that these withdrawals are dominated (~75% of power plant withdrawals  
222 and ~70% of total energy-related withdrawals) by once-through cooling systems at about 300  
223 steam turbine-based thermoelectric power plants that generate about 25% of US electricity.  
224 Regulations targeting this relatively small population of power plants are therefore likely to have  
225 a large impact on the overall withdrawal intensity of the US energy system.

226

227 **Fig. 3.** Quantitative summary of total water consumption and withdrawals for US energy system,  
 228 excluding nonconsumptive hydropower withdrawals, 2014 (see also Data File 1 in the  
 229 Supplementary Information)



230

231 We also draw attention to the fact that low carbon fuels vary dramatically in water

232 intensity. Wind and solar photovoltaic electricity demand almost no water. Geothermal,

233 hydropower, and solar thermal electricity are over an order of magnitude more consumptively

234 water intensive than natural gas-fired electricity, and liquid biofuels are over an order of

235 magnitude more consumptively water intensive than oil-derived fuels (Fig. 4). For withdrawals,

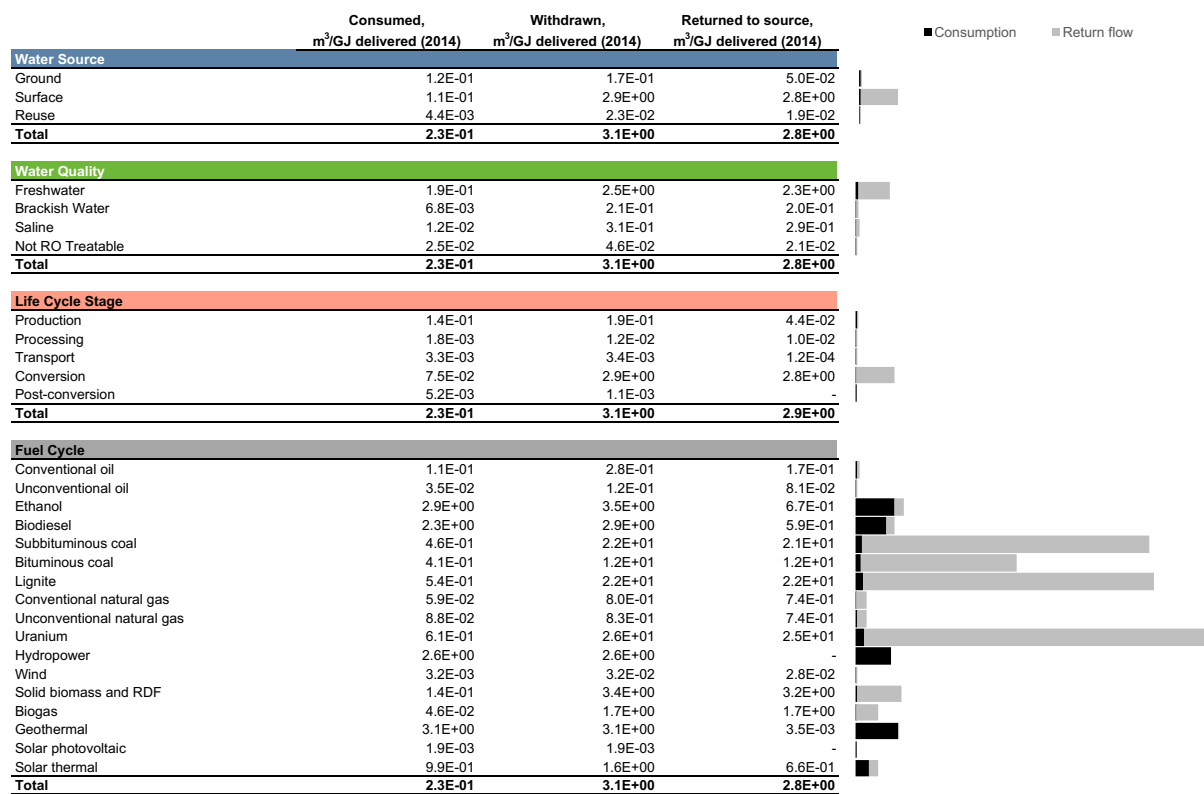
236 similarly, some low-carbon resources withdraw almost no water, while nuclear plants are  
237 extremely withdrawal-intensive. Indeed, delivered energy from coal and uranium is an order of  
238 magnitude more water intensive than any other resource, largely because of their use in power  
239 plants with once-through cooling systems. We note further that although this work does not  
240 consider important questions about local system stresses and contamination risks,  
241 unconventional oil and natural gas each have relatively low water intensity per unit of delivered  
242 energy compared to other fuel cycles (Figure 4). Current US energy trends suggest that  
243 volumetric water use for the energy system is likely to decrease, given expectations that wind,  
244 solar, and unconventional natural gas are likely to continue gaining market share<sup>7</sup>.

245

246



247 **Fig. 4.** Quantitative summary of water consumption and withdrawal intensity per unit of  
 248 delivered energy for US energy system, excluding nonconsumptive hydropower withdrawals,  
 249 2014 (see also Data File 1)



250  
 251  
 252 This work's finding that about 10% of US water consumption is attributable to the energy  
 253 sector (not including embodied water in the materials used to support it) is difficult to  
 254 contextualize given the dearth of previous overall estimates, but it appears to be substantially  
 255 higher than has been previously articulated. Given the dominance of power plant cooling systems  
 256 for energy-related withdrawals, which are subject to mandatory annual federal reporting to the  
 257 Energy Information Administration, withdrawals have historically been better understood. This  
 258 work's withdrawal estimate is similar to the thermoelectric-only estimate made by USGS<sup>74</sup>. No

259 studies known to the authors explicitly estimate the amount of water consumed by the US energy  
260 sector, but one recent study includes a limited subset of energy-related water-consuming  
261 activities that account for about 5% of its estimated total<sup>70</sup>. Thus, in addition to the much higher  
262 detail on national water consumption and withdrawal published in this study versus earlier  
263 efforts, this work suggests that water consumption for energy is higher than has been previously  
264 articulated. As is discussed further in the SI, however, the known limitation with the greatest  
265 influence on the estimate of the proportion of water dedicated to the energy system is that the  
266 total volume of water withdrawn and consumed in the United States as of 2014 is not precisely  
267 known.

268        Though this new set of estimates about water consumption and withdrawal for the energy  
269 system is an improvement over frequently old or nonexistent estimates, uncertainty remains  
270 inherently high given the lack of consistent water quantity reporting, definitions, and unit  
271 specification. In general, this work's absolute volume estimates are expected to be more reliable  
272 than its intensity numbers, for example because the denominators of the intensity estimates are  
273 not completely known (i.e., for total US water consumption) and because this single-year  
274 snapshot captures a static estimate for total water consumption that, in many cases, might not be  
275 a good reflection of intensities over time. For example, water withdrawals and consumption are  
276 not independent of precipitation, geology, market conditions, and other factors. Total volumes  
277 are expected to be more accurate than subtotals, particularly given that allocations across water  
278 source and water quality are often made based on general assumptions about the US water  
279 system. When water quality is not evident, this work conservatively overestimates freshwater  
280 contributions: given that use of non-freshwater resources is usually clearly identified, the default  
281 assumption that water is fresh is likely accurate. Specific uncertainties and assumptions

282 associated with quantifying water withdrawal and consumption for the 126 processes included in  
283 Data File S1 can be found in the SI.

284 Future work will address some of the implications of this work's findings for water and  
285 energy co-management, regional differences, and planning, but the extreme challenge associated  
286 with generating even a single year snapshot of water use for energy warrants discussion of  
287 several fundamental sources of uncertainty and possible approaches to mitigating these  
288 uncertainties. That is, while this study improves understanding of the water-energy nexus as a  
289 major data update, it will itself become outdated, with limited ability to update or further refine  
290 values without redoing the study. This inability to continually reflect the energy system's water  
291 use is a major and pressing challenge for resource managers.

292 We specifically highlight three major challenges that contribute to uncertainty in  
293 understanding energy-related water use in the US: data collection and maintenance, definitions,  
294 and ambiguous units. These challenges are the roots of the most significant limitations to this  
295 work, namely data availability and confidence in the data that do exist.

296 **Data collection and maintenance.** The most serious challenge to a thorough  
297 understanding of water demands for the US energy system is a lack of consistently collected and  
298 maintained data. The energy industry includes vast numbers of facilities that, with a few  
299 important exceptions (e.g., thermal power plant operators), are not required to report water usage  
300 to any publicly available centralized repository. Outreach to operators for this work demonstrates  
301 that in many cases, operators do not measure or understand their own water demands, in some  
302 cases because they are not required to meter their water. As a result, any available existing data  
303 are frequently re-cited and transformed as "better-than-nothing," which obscures their age,  
304 context, assumptions, and applicability. For example, widely cited publications<sup>3,81,83,89</sup> rely

305 heavily on an earlier compendium<sup>80</sup> that is itself largely based on a 1980 effort by the  
306 Department of Energy<sup>79</sup>. Even in 1980, the authors acknowledged weaknesses like data age, use  
307 of single-plant examples, and reliance on pre-operational estimates. Use of whatever data are  
308 available can be relatively unproblematic for thermodynamically driven processes like cooling or  
309 evaporation, where the relationship between known inputs and water use is well understood. In  
310 other cases, however, as with geologically-driven water demands at mines and wells, values vary  
311 dramatically by region and production method, even for similar fuels. Further, when industrial  
312 processes change, older estimates rapidly become obsolete.

313 To address this issue, we call for the creation of a standardized public repository of water  
314 data. We recommend that all major water users report at least annual water withdrawals and  
315 consumption to the federal government, as power plants and farms already do<sup>30,90</sup>. There are  
316 multiple potential approaches to creation of such a repository. For example, dedicated water data  
317 collection could proceed through an Energy Information Administration analog for water<sup>91</sup> or  
318 through an expanded USGS effort with metrics other than withdrawal, more frequent data  
319 collection, and higher industrial resolution. Alternatively, sector-specific organizations like the  
320 Department of Energy, the US Department of Agriculture, and others could collect centrally  
321 standardized data for their specific sectors by adding water resources questions to existing data  
322 collection efforts, and these data could be centrally aggregated by a cross-sector agency. Though  
323 a non-governmental organization could also maintain such a repository, we suggest that a federal  
324 effort would be preferred for three main reasons: to reduce data collection burdens on respondent  
325 facilities, given that they already provide other data to the government; to improve internal  
326 consistency with other major data products; and to provide higher assurance of longevity,  
327 archiving, and public access. The federal government maintains a wide variety of datasets on

328 natural resources and the economy, recognizing their broad value, and we argue that existing  
329 information on water resources is insufficiently detailed.

330       **Definitions.** A second challenge is that core concepts related to water quantity  
331 assessments are inconsistent (and inconsistently applied) in the literature, in part because major  
332 organizations and standards disagree<sup>74,87</sup>. For example, “consumption” sometimes includes all  
333 water that is removed from its original source and not returned (as in this work), but sometimes  
334 specific processes such as interbasin transfer for water supply, discharge of groundwater to  
335 surface water, or coal mine dewatering are excluded. Similarly, “water” can mean freshwater or  
336 all water, and “use” is not always defined.

337       We recommend that academics, agencies, and other research organizations focus on  
338 harmonizing water usage terminology, with a focus not only on consistency but on representation  
339 of physical realities. Existing choices often seem to be justified by conflating concerns about  
340 water quantity and water quality, as when produced water volumes are excluded from assessment  
341 because the water is salty. Similarly, both hydropower and water-cooled thermoelectric power  
342 require removing water from a river, passing it through a pipe, and returning it, but  
343 thermoelectric withdrawals (which create thermal pollution) are tracked, and hydropower  
344 withdrawals are rarely defined as such (even in this work, we estimate hydropower withdrawals  
345 in the SI but refrain from including them in our overall estimate because of the way that national  
346 estimates are produced—including them would suggest that the US energy system accounts for  
347 4000% of US water withdrawals, and quantifying the entire nation's water withdrawals to ensure  
348 definitional consistency is out of this work's scope). Consistent use of terminology reduces  
349 uncertainty when research draws on the literature, ultimately reducing the need for additional  
350 data collection and analysis.

351           **Ambiguous units.** A third challenge is that the research community frequently generates  
352 and publishes data with ambiguous units. Most difficult to overcome are the non-energy energy  
353 units commonly used in US settings, like “tons of coal” and “cubic feet of natural gas,” which  
354 are problematic given that energy density varies even within fuel categories. When energy  
355 density is not specified, it is extremely difficult to re-analyze data in energy terms. Further,  
356 reports commonly fail to precisely define intensity units. For example, using units of cubic  
357 meters per gigajoule ( $\text{m}^3/\text{GJ}$ ) requires careful explication of precisely which gigajoule is intended  
358 (e.g., primary versus secondary; produced versus delivered) and how the energy content is  
359 measured. This problem must be addressed to enable compatible reporting, but it is likely  
360 solvable without additional data collection, unlike the data collection and maintenance challenge.

361           Here, we recommend that academics, agencies, and other research organizations report  
362 energy units unambiguously. For example, research should rarely use unqualified energy units: a  
363 megawatt-hour at a power plant is not the same unit as a megawatt-hour sold to a residential  
364 user. Volume or mass units like million cubic feet or tons should not be reported without  
365 including energy densities.

366

### 367 **Acknowledgments.**

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376

### 377 **Supplementary Information.**

378 Supplementary text (184 pages) describing methods by resource. Tables S1 to S15. Data file 1,  
379 including unit process data for 126 unit processes.

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599 **Figure legends.**

600 **Fig 1.** As of 2014, the US commercial energy system consumed an estimated  $1.6 \times 10^{10}$  m<sup>3</sup> of  
601 water per year, approximately 10% of total US water consumption. Figure shows water flows by  
602 water source (blues, at left), water quality (greens), life cycle stage (reds), and fuel cycle (color  
603 coded by energy resource per common industry practice) for 17 US fuel cycles. Flow widths are  
604 proportional to flows, and vertical widths sum to  $1.6 \times 10^{10}$  m<sup>3</sup> (i.e., total energy-related water  
605 consumption) across the figure. See SI for underlying data and more detail.

606 **Fig 2.** As of 2014, the US commercial energy system withdrew an estimated  $2.2 \times 10^{11}$  m<sup>3</sup> of  
607 water per year, approximately 40% of total US water consumption. This value excludes  
608 nonconsumptive hydropower withdrawals, estimated at  $2 \times 10^{13}$  m<sup>3</sup> (see SI for hydropower  
609 characterization). Figure shows water flows by water source (blues, at left), water quality  
610 (greens), life cycle stage (reds), and fuel cycle (color coded by energy resource per common  
611 industry practice) for 17 US fuel cycles. Flow widths are proportional to flows, and vertical  
612 widths sum to  $2.2 \times 10^{11}$  m<sup>3</sup> (i.e., total energy-related water withdrawals) across the figure. See  
613 SI for underlying data and more detail.

614 **Fig 3.** Absolute volumes for water consumption and withdrawal are depicted by water source,  
615 water quality, life cycle stage, and fuel cycle as described in this study. Nonconsumptive  
616 hydropower withdrawals are not included on the chart. Consumption plus return flow equals

617 withdrawal. Pink bars under “conversion” represent subtypes of conversion activities and sum to  
618 the primary conversion values.

619 **Fig 4.** Intensity of water consumption and withdrawal per unit of energy delivered to the  
620 consumer (e.g., a kilowatt-hour in a home or a gallon of gasoline at a gas station) is depicted by  
621 water source, water quality, life cycle stage, and fuel cycle as described in this study.  
622 Nonconsumptive hydropower withdrawals are not included on the chart. Consumption plus  
623 return flow equals withdrawal. Data File 1 in the SI also includes intensities per unit of energy  
624 involved in a given process rather than per unit of delivered energy.

625

626