

Cross-sector energy system resilience and interdependence in a changing climate

Luo Xu,^{1,2,9,*} Ning Lin,^{1,2} A.T.D. Perera,³ H. Vincent Poor,⁴ Qinglai Guo,⁵ Hongbin Sun,⁵ and Michael Oppenheimer^{6,7,8}

¹Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ, USA

²Center for Policy Research on Energy and the Environment, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ, USA

³Andlinger Center for Energy and the Environment, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ, USA

⁴Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ, USA

⁵Department of Electrical Engineering, Tsinghua University, Beijing, China

⁶School of Public and International Affairs, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ, USA

⁷Department of Geosciences, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ, USA

⁸High Meadows Environmental Institute, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ, USA

⁹Lead contact

*Correspondence: luoxu@princeton.edu

eTOC blurb

Growing cross-sector interdependence during rapid electrification reshapes the resilience of energy systems under intensifying climate extremes by introducing both enhanced flexibility and heightened cascading risks. From the global energy transition to a regional case study in Texas, this study examines how evolving cross-sector interactions affect climate resilience and identifies system-level strategies to support a sustainable energy transition.

SUMMARY

Rapid global electrification is deepening cross-sector interdependence, fundamentally reshaping the resilience of energy systems in the face of intensifying climate extremes. While increased integration across energy generation, transmission, and consumption sectors can significantly enhance operational flexibility, it can also amplify the risk of cross-sector cascading failures under extreme weather events, giving rise to an emerging resilience paradox that remains insufficiently understood. This study examines evolving cross-sector interactions and their implications for climate resilience by analyzing global electrification trends and regional cases in Texas, integrated with global and downscaled projections of climate extremes. By identifying critical vulnerabilities and flexibility associated with increasing sectoral interdependence, this study highlights the necessity of adopting resilience-oriented, system-level strategies for system operators and policymakers to mitigate cross-sector cascading risks and maximize the benefits of electrification in a changing climate.

INTRODUCTION

The global energy system is the largest driver of climate change and a major victim. Energy accounts for over 75% of global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, with growing CO₂ emissions reaching a new record high of 37.4 billion tonnes (Gt) in 2023¹. To achieve net-zero emissions goals and effectively mitigate climate change, a substantial reshaping of the existing fossil fuel-dominant energy sector is essential. This ambitious transformation is driven largely by two key factors: i) the availability of vast amounts of affordable, emission-free electricity by replacing fossil fuels in the energy supply with renewable energy sources such as wind and solar power, and ii) further expansion of the electricity sector to facilitate the decarbonization of transportation, building, and industrial sectors^{2,3}. Limiting global warming to below 2°C above pre-industrial level necessitates a highly electrified future, with electricity supply increasing from the current 20% to 36–47% of final energy consumption by 2050 according to the latest Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Sixth Assessment Report (AR6)⁴.

48 However, reversing climate change is a gradual process during the ongoing decarbonization pathway. In
49 the current changing climate, intensifying climate extremes, such as tropical cyclones, floods, and
50 heatwaves, have already contributed to severe energy infrastructure damage and subsequent power
51 outages. Over the past decade, there has been a 78% increase in weather-related power outages in the
52 U.S. Climate projections under various emission scenarios, using global climate models (GCMs) from the
53 Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP-6), consistently indicate intensifying and
54 compounding extremes, potentially leading to escalating climatic damage through mid-century and
55 beyond, absent large increases in resilience⁵. Meanwhile, rapid electrification is fostering deeper
56 interdependence among energy supply, transmission, and consumption sectors, forming a cross-sector
57 energy system with electricity as the core energy carrier, supplemented by “green” chemicals such as
58 hydrogen, ammonia, and methanol produced through electrochemical processes using clean electricity.
59 Under intensifying climate extremes, the cross-sector interconnections may enhance the operational
60 flexibility of energy systems; paradoxically, it may also enlarge the potential for climatic damage to
61 propagate across sectors due to network and functionality interdependence, triggering multi-sector
62 cascading failures. This dual effect therefore raises a critical question during the rapid energy transition:
63 whether this cross-sector interdependence enhances or impairs the overall system resilience.

64 Despite the advanced insights into challenges and solutions of decarbonizing energy systems^{2,3,6} and
65 building resilient renewable power grids⁷, the emerging paradoxical resilience issues — arising from
66 growing cross-sector interdependence, with potentially enlarged flexibility and heightened interdependent
67 risks — are becoming more pronounced and remain insufficiently understood, particularly in the context of
68 intensifying global climate extremes. Focusing solely on sector-specific risk mitigation and optimization is
69 inadequate for addressing the complexities of an increasingly electrified and interconnected energy
70 landscape. While decarbonization without cross-sector cascading risk management can still support
71 climate change mitigation, it may pose additional challenges to climate change adaptation of energy
72 systems in a changing climate. Therefore, a resilience-oriented cross-sectoral framework and analysis are
73 essential for understanding the interdependent mechanisms, maximizing the benefits of cross-sector
74 interdependence, and mitigating the propagation of risks across sectors. Here, we explore the evolving
75 interactions within cross-sector energy systems, analyze the overlap of projected global electrification and
76 climate change risks at a sub-national scale, and discuss the role of cross-sector interdependence as a
77 key factor affecting climate resilience, exemplified by a Texas case. We also highlight the critical need
78 and promising directions for resilience-oriented system-level optimization strategies and policies to
79 strengthen cross-sector energy systems toward a net-zero emission future.

80 **FUTURE CROSS-SECTOR ENERGY SYSTEMS**

81 Energy systems broadly encompass all the infrastructure and equipment used to produce, transform,
82 transmit, and convert energy to provide energy services to a broad range of societal systems⁴. Energy
83 systems connect primary energy sources to final energy consumption in end-user sectors through various
84 energy carriers, such as electricity, natural and synthetic gas, heat, and biomass. Despite improvements
85 in energy efficiency, global energy demand is still expected to increase markedly over this century². As
86 the largest global GHG emission sector, energy systems are transitioning toward electrification under
87 progressive decarbonization roadmaps. In the pursuit of a net-zero emission future, the deepening cross-
88 sector interdependence within energy systems — driven primarily by electricity and electricity-centric
89 production of green chemicals — is a foreseeable outcome. Such a cross-sector energy system is an
90 integrated framework centered around the bulk electric power system, enabling bidirectional interactions
91 with other energy production and consumption sectors, including buildings, transportation, industry, water,
92 agriculture, green chemicals, and distributed renewable sources (see Figure 1). Through these grid-
93 connected, bidirectional interactions, each sector in future net-zero energy systems evolves into a broadly
94 defined *prosumer* — not only consuming energy but also storing and producing energy or actively
95 contributing to energy management.

96 ***The role of the bulk electric power system***

97 From the booming integration of renewable electricity on the supply side to the deep electrification of
98 energy-intensive services on the demand side, the interconnected bulk electric power grid serves as the
99 backbone of future cross-sector energy systems. The bulk power system primarily consists of utility-scale
100 generation power plants and high-voltage network infrastructure for long-distance electricity transmission.
101 In a net-zero emission energy system with large-scale integration of variable renewable energy (VRE)
102 sources, the bulk power system can significantly enhance the energy system's flexibility and smooth
103 renewable energy variation by connecting diverse energy sources across wide regions with varying
104 environmental conditions. To deliver increasing amounts of electricity generated by distant wind and solar
105 farms to increasingly electrified urban areas, there is a critical need to expand grid infrastructure. For
106 example, the U.S. is projected to require a 2.1- to 2.6-fold expansion of its existing 600,000-plus-mile
107 transmission grid, along with a 1.9- to 3.5-fold increase in interregional transmission capacity to meet
108 future demand growth and reliability needs by 2050⁸.

109 *Evolving cross-sector interactions toward a net-zero emissions future*

110 The transition to a net-zero emissions future is fundamentally reshaping the relationship between the
111 electric power grid and the energy supply and demand sectors, creating bidirectional cross-sector energy
112 flows, as shown in Figure 1. The evolving bidirectional cross-sector flows strengthen the system's
113 interdependence across sectoral operations and infrastructure.

114 Electrical cooling and heating demand in residential and commercial buildings is expected to increase,
115 driven by rising summer temperatures and the shift to electrified heat pumps, including the rapid growth of
116 ground-source heat pumps for geo-exchange systems. The electrification trend in the building sector also
117 enhances demand response capability, where air conditioning or electric heating systems can be
118 incentivized and dynamically controlled to smooth daily demand profiles. The electrification of the
119 transportation system is accelerating with increasing demand on the grid through the higher penetration
120 of electric vehicles (EVs) and the expansion of charging stations. EVs can also act as potential energy
121 sources through vehicle-to-grid (V2G) technology, which allows them to inject stored energy back into
122 energy systems. Electrification in industry is advancing, particularly in energy-intensive services such as
123 data centers and steel manufacturing using electric arc furnaces². On the other hand, in addition to
124 demand response mechanisms similar to those in the building sector, industrial facilities with onsite co-
125 generation plants can also act as energy producers within cross-sector energy systems. The ongoing
126 urbanization trend deepens the power-water nexus, particularly in water treatment, pump, and distribution
127 systems, which rely heavily on electricity. Water resources in turn play a crucial role in energy production,
128 particularly in the direct power generation process of hydropower and green hydrogen and in water
129 systems for firm power plants such as nuclear facilities, which support the reliability of future energy
130 systems dominated by VRE. Electrification in agricultural processes, especially in automation, is driving
131 increased electricity consumption in the agriculture sector. Although its life-cycle carbon savings are
132 highly variable from system to system and contested, biomass produced by some agricultural activities
133 can fuel electricity generation, acting as a firm renewable source that provides stable and controllable
134 power.

135 Green chemicals and distributed renewable systems are considered separate from the bulk power
136 system, as they are typically not directly controlled by the power grid independent system operator (ISO)
137 yet are becoming more deeply interconnected with the electricity sector. In a net-zero electricity-centric
138 energy system, green chemicals — including green hydrogen, ammonia, and methanol — are produced
139 via electrochemical processes using emission-free electricity from the grid². Despite existing challenges
140 with energy conversion efficiency, green chemicals can decarbonize hard-to-electrify heavy industry
141 sectors and offer significant life-cycle carbon reduction benefits due to their ability to store and transport
142 clean energy, especially in a net-zero energy system with high curtailment of renewable generation where
143 a large amount of surplus renewable energy is wasted. These chemicals as important alternative energy
144 carriers can, in turn, supply electricity back to the grid through power generation systems such as fuel
145 cells and gas turbines. Beyond the bulk transmission grid, the large-scale integration of distributed

146 renewable sources, particularly rooftop photovoltaic (PV) systems paired with energy storage, is
147 transforming traditional demand-side consumers into electricity prosumers within cross-sector energy
148 systems.

149 **IN-DEPTH INTERDEPENDENCE RAISES A PARADOX FOR SYSTEM RESILIENCE**

150 The in-depth cross-sector interdependence of energy systems highlights both the collaborative benefits
151 and interdependent vulnerabilities in a changing climate. Ongoing global electrification, combined with
152 various intensified climate extremes, may reshape the resilience pattern of existing energy systems. As
153 shown in Figure 2, we present a global map illustrating the sub-national-scale overlap between country-
154 and regional-level electrification, as projected by the Global Change Analysis Model (GCAM), and climate
155 change risks, evaluated independently based on the projections by IPCC AR6, for all climatologically
156 consistent land regions (see Figure S1 and Tables S1–S2).

157 The electrification projections are derived from the GCAM reference scenario by 2050, considering the
158 interactions between energy, water, land, climate, and economic systems⁹. Although GCAM uses an
159 integrated multisector modeling approach with lower spatial and temporal resolution compared to regional
160 sector models that employ sector-specific approaches, it provides consistent global-scale electrification
161 projections by incorporating cross-sector interactions, aligning with our need to explore the global
162 electrification trend as shown in Figure 2. The GCAM model parameters were calibrated by using wide-
163 range historical data, including IEA energy balances for supply and demand, ensuring consistency with
164 global demand data and solving for market equilibrium across historical and future periods⁹.

165 The climate change risks are characterized by composite confidence levels of the projected intensification
166 of climate impact-drivers (CIDs) affecting energy infrastructure across all IPCC AR6 climatologically
167 consistent land regions globally. For each climatologically consistent land region, the risk level is obtained
168 by combining the confidence levels for the intensification of various CIDs in the IPCC AR6 mid-century
169 projections, weighted by Gross Domestic Product (GDP)-adjusted damage losses attributable to each
170 type of CID sourced from World Meteorological Organization (WMO) 1970-2019 climatic damage
171 assessment (see *Supplemental Information Note S1* and Figures S2-S3). For more granular analyses
172 beyond the national or climatologically consistent zone level, we encourage the use of higher-resolution
173 sectoral models and downscaled climate projections. It is important to note that a greater overlap
174 between projected electrification and climate change risk in a specific sub-national region does not
175 necessarily indicate increased vulnerability. Instead, it signals a more significant shift in the existing
176 resilience patterns of future energy systems under climate change risks, emphasizing the need to
177 evaluate how electrification and cross-sector interdependence reshape system stability and adaptation
178 capability to climate extremes.

179 The United States, Central America, and the Caribbean stand out as regions undergoing some of the
180 most significant shifts in resilience patterns, primarily driven by the projected net-zero energy transition
181 and the intensification of tropical cyclones (Gulf of Mexico, the Caribbean, and the U.S. East Coast),
182 wildfires (North Central America and Western North America), and flooding (North America). Eastern and
183 Southern Australia also exhibit significant overlap between projected electrification and climate change
184 risk, primarily due to projected nationwide increases in flooding and wildfires, with a marked intensification
185 of droughts in the country's most densely populated regions. Climate change risks in the East Southern
186 Africa region are largely shaped by the intensification of tropical cyclones and drought. Western and
187 central Europe emerge on the European continent due to the projected intensification of heatwaves,
188 flooding, wildfires, and severe windstorms. Although tropical cyclones in the Indian Ocean are not
189 expected to intensify according to IPCC, India is still projected to face escalating threats from river and
190 coastal flooding risks. China, the world's largest producer of hard-to-decarbonize energy services,
191 commits to achieving net-zero emissions by 2060. However, as we focus on the 2050 scenario, the
192 GCAM model projects a relatively low electrification level in its energy system. Nevertheless, eastern
193 China, along with Southeast Asian countries, is expected to face more intense extreme natural hazards,
194 especially from intensifying tropical cyclones, floodings, and droughts. The shift in their resilience pattern

195 is likely to be more significant as decarbonization efforts progress or when considering more optimistic
196 decarbonization policies.

197 ***Enhanced flexibility and system-wide optimality***

198 Intensifying climate extremes with more compound hazards can pose great challenges to energy security,
199 particularly for electricity-centric net-zero energy systems that have stringent stability requirements for
200 both short-term and long-term balances between energy supply and demand. However, enhanced sector
201 coupling of energy systems provides greater cross-sector flexibility to mitigate energy imbalances during
202 extreme events. Beyond contributing to cost-effective optimization under steady-state operation, demand
203 response through resilience-oriented incentives can result in more flexible demand from highly electrified
204 residential and commercial buildings, which is especially helpful for managing loads during extreme
205 events. Cross-sector interdependence also enables a diverse portfolio of energy storage solutions,
206 ranging from short-term storage, such as V2G-based EVs and household distributed energy storage, to
207 long-term storage, such as pumped-storage hydropower and green chemicals. These complementary
208 forms of energy resources and storage can support future net-zero systems, allowing them to ride
209 through climate extremes that might otherwise cause significant energy shortages, for example, droughts
210 that limit hydropower or tropical cyclones that affect wind and solar generation.

211 Moreover, cross-sector interdependence is beneficial for achieving a system-wide optimal resilient
212 solution for energy systems and even broader social resilience. Coordinated optimization across sectors
213 not only enhances the system-wide energy efficiency but also has the potential to facilitate cost-efficient,
214 resilient, and equitable access to electrical services broadly. Such system-wide optimality is especially
215 important during and in the aftermath of extreme events, for instance, demand response and on-site
216 electricity generation within the industry sector can be incentivized to alleviate energy imbalances for
217 prioritizing critical demands across sectors, including hospitals, public transportation, and municipal water
218 supply.

219 In addition to leveraging the bulk interconnection system for large-scale energy complementarity and
220 exchange, the cross-sector interconnections can enhance the flexibility for the resilient operation of
221 localized energy hubs, particularly during climate extremes. As electrification progresses, the localized
222 energy hubs move beyond traditional microgrid concepts that rely solely on electricity by integrating
223 diverse forms of localized generation, distributed storage, and demand-side flexibility across sectors.
224 From local communities to urban cities, distributed renewable sources, green chemicals, and other
225 flexible resources from traditional demand-side sectors such as transportation and industry collectively
226 enable energy autonomy, which reduces reliance on the bulk energy system and facilitates energy
227 flexibility and mobility (see Figure S4).

228 ***Potential cross-sector cascading failures***

229 Cross-sector cascading failures in interconnected energy infrastructure are not merely a theoretical future
230 risk; they are current realities with profound societal impacts. Recent events have illustrated how such
231 interdependence can amplify the consequences of energy disruptions during extreme weather events.
232 For example, the Texas power crisis during Winter Storm Uri in February 2021 exemplified the cross-
233 sector cascading failure primarily caused by the gas-electric-heat interdependence¹⁰. Large-scale
234 freezing and malfunctions in natural gas infrastructure significantly disabled the generation capacity in
235 Texas, resulting in widespread rolling blackouts. These power outages, in turn, exacerbated the natural
236 gas supply issues. At the same time, electricity demand continued to climb due to increasing heating
237 needs, further enlarging the imbalance between electricity supply and demand. This extreme weather
238 event affected not only gas facilities but also led to a total of 1,045 individual generation units
239 experiencing over 4,000 outages, derates, or failures to start, including thermal power plants, solar and
240 wind farms, and nuclear reactors¹⁰. Notably, malfunctions of water supply systems for power generation
241 during the extreme event affected natural gas and nuclear power plants, further highlighting the
242 cascading failure effect driven by the power-water interdependence.

243 Shenzhen, China — a highly modernized city with 100% electrified public transportation — exemplifies
244 the deep interdependence between the electricity and transportation sectors. The prolonged outage
245 caused by Super Typhoon Mangkhut in 2018 shut down all charging stations, forcing all taxis out of
246 service across the megacity¹¹. As light-duty vehicles become further electrified, a potentially large shift in
247 charging demand to remaining unaffected areas during extreme events could also pose a risk to the
248 regional energy supply-demand balance of an already vulnerable grid. Similarly, the catastrophic blackout
249 in Puerto Rico caused by Hurricane Maria in 2017 severely impacted water distribution and supply, which
250 heavily relied on electricity. As water infrastructure is also crucial for hydropower and green chemical
251 production, such as electrolysis for hydrogen, this power-water interdependence exacerbated social
252 impacts, affecting residential, commercial, and industrial sectors¹².

253 In a future climate, various extreme weather events closely linked to energy infrastructure are expected to
254 intensify. When combined with the strong interdependence in cross-sector energy systems, such extreme
255 events may exacerbate the risk of multi-sector cascading failures, damaging both physical infrastructure
256 and societal systems. For example, a climate-induced prolonged power outage in a fully electrified city
257 can paralyze its transportation system, while the significant amount of unmet EV charging demand would
258 further challenge the energy supply-demand balance during the preparation, evacuation, and initial
259 recovery phases. Moreover, as the compound hazards — such as tropical cyclones causing high winds
260 and extreme rainfall, followed by heatwaves — are expected to increase in this changing climate, more
261 energy infrastructure could be affected by different types of hazards than experienced historically⁴,
262 potentially triggering catastrophic cross-sector cascading failures.

263

264 **ENERGY TRANSITION IN CHANGING CLIMATES: THE TEXAS CASE**

265 Here, we select Texas as an example to investigate the escalating challenges and opportunities for
266 energy resilience in the face of intensifying climate extremes and increasing cross-sector
267 interdependence of energy systems. Located along hurricane-prone US Gulf coast, Texas is a state with
268 abundant renewable energy resources and is experiencing record-breaking electricity demand growth.
269 The clean energy transition with deeper cross-sector interactions in Texas, the largest renewable energy-
270 producing state in the US, driven not only by policy but also by economic and efficiency forces, directly
271 reshapes transformation in energy systems. Meanwhile, the increasing cross-sector coupling in Texas
272 that makes the integrated system more exposed to the environment, can be coupled with intensifying
273 climate risks such as tropical cyclones and heatwaves. However, as we highlighted in the paradox of
274 cross-sector energy system resilience, such cross-sector interconnections can also enhance the system's
275 flexibility and capacity to withstand climate risks. As illustrated in Figure 2, Texas is in a critical region that
276 may face the most significant shift in energy resilience patterns under these evolving conditions, which
277 underscores the urgent need to address the resilience paradox by maximizing the benefits of cross-sector
278 interdependence while mitigating its associated risks under climate risks.

279 To project future climate trends under uncertain patterns of socioeconomic development and policy
280 trajectories, the IPCC AR6 adopted Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs), with SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-
281 8.5 representing moderate and high emissions scenarios, respectively. We illustrate the increasing
282 climate risk that Texas faces, drawing on downscaled tropical cyclone projection datasets¹³ based on an
283 ensemble of six Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6) general circulation models
284 (GCMs) under both scenarios (see Figure 3a and *Supplemental Information* Note S3). Future changes in
285 tropical cyclone frequency remain uncertain and are subject to ongoing scientific debate¹⁴, with divergent
286 predictions from climate models using saturation deficit and convective relative humidity as indicators for
287 tropical cyclone genesis. Nevertheless, there is a broad consensus on the intensification of severe
288 tropical cyclones. Given the uncertainty in frequency projections, we incorporate the 5th–95th percentile
289 range of projected frequency changes from an ensemble of state-of-the-art studies for the North Atlantic
290 basin¹⁴ into the wind intensity return period calculations with the baseline frequency derived from ERA5
291 reanalysis datasets (see Figure 3A and *Supplementary Information*). Accounting for this large uncertainty

292 of frequency change, tropical cyclones associated with return periods shorter than five years may become
293 less intense in Texas. However, since return periods depend not only on tropical cyclone frequency but
294 also on intensity, future projections indicate a significant intensification of severe events even under
295 moderate emission scenario (SSP2-4.5), consistent with previous general findings^{13,14}. For example, a
296 100-year return period storm, currently classified as a Category 3 hurricane (50–58 m/s), is expected to
297 strengthen to Category 4 (58–70 m/s) under future scenarios by the late 21st century. The return period
298 of Category 3 hurricanes could shorten to approximately 20–50 years under future scenarios, indicating
299 an elevated risk of extreme events to the region’s energy infrastructure.

300 Increasing climate risk intersects with the clean energy transition, as the future of cross-sector energy
301 systems depends heavily on emission-free and low-cost electricity from renewable sources. Climate
302 extremes, especially tropical cyclones associated with cumulonimbus clouds and strong winds, have
303 substantial impacts on environment-sensitive renewable generation like solar and wind. For example,
304 even a Category 1 hurricane (Hurricane Beryl) that made landfall in Texas on July 8, 2024, reduced the
305 maximum wind and solar generation potential within the Electric Reliability Council of Texas (ERCOT)¹⁵
306 interconnection by nearly 40% compared to normal conditions, with losses of about 10,000 MW
307 generation at the highest point and 8,000 MW at the lowest point (see Figure 3b). The reduction in solar
308 and wind generation from this event was approximately 15% of ERCOT’s daily average electricity
309 demand. As the penetration of such renewables increases, intensified tropical cyclones are likely to
310 disable larger shares of the energy supply, posing a greater threat to energy resilience. It is noteworthy
311 that, as shown in Figure 3b, although the heat index on the day of Hurricane Beryl’s landfall was within
312 normal ranges, a compound heatwave hazard was observed on the day prior to and following landfall,
313 with heat index values exceeding 100°F (37.8°C, the threshold for a heat advisory). The heatwave
314 exacerbated electricity demand for cooling, particularly in the aftermath of grid disruptions, further
315 intensifying the energy imbalance between supply and demand and amplifying the societal impacts of
316 power outages. Climate change is projected to significantly increase the tropical cyclone-heat compound
317 hazards, with their frequency expected to rise nearly 4-fold from the current rate under a scenario of 2°C
318 global mean temperature increases above the pre-industrial level¹⁶. In addition to the escalation of
319 heatwave and tropical cyclone hazards under climate change, the IPCC AR6 mid-century climate
320 projections also indicate an intensification of various climate extremes affecting energy infrastructure,
321 including river and coastal floods, severe wind storms, and wildfires in the climatologically consistent land
322 region where Texas is located (see Figure S1 and Table S2).

323 The infrastructure damage caused by Hurricane Beryl, which made landfall as a Category 1 storm, was
324 primarily limited to distribution networks due to relatively low wind speeds, yet it still caused outages for
325 2.6 million customers. Although the future frequency of such relatively low-intensity hurricanes remains
326 uncertain, the rapid growth in local electricity demand driven by urbanization and electrification can
327 amplify the potential impacts. Disruptions to growing electricity demand, combined with delayed
328 restoration caused by compound hazards such as the hurricane-heatwave compound hazard observed
329 during this event, may cascade into other critical sectors, including transportation and industry, in a highly
330 electrified and cross-sector coupled energy system. Moreover, as less frequent hurricanes, such as
331 current Category 3 storms, are projected to intensify under future climate scenarios, the resulting
332 infrastructure damage may extend to transmission networks, potentially inducing system-level stability
333 issues and even triggering cross-sector cascading failures due to deeper interdependence within
334 multiplex infrastructure networks. System-level risks originating in one region may also affect
335 interconnected energy systems elsewhere, even in areas not directly impacted by climate extremes.
336 Beyond mitigating system-level risks, the potential cascading risk demonstrates the necessity of
337 developing localized resilient energy hubs, including robust distribution network infrastructure with
338 aggregated distributed energy resources for energy hub formation, as well as mechanisms and
339 optimizations to incentivize cross-sector demand response during extreme events.

340 As we noted, deeper sectoral coupling and interdependence on the demand side are driving demand
341 growth. Using the EV charging demand profile projections for Texas based on the Transportation Energy

342 & Mobility Pathway Options (TEMPO) model¹⁷ under its defined high electrification scenario (about 75%
343 of transportation energy consumption from EVs by 2050), we observe that electrification of the
344 transportation sector in Texas can not only add an average of nearly 7,000 MW of daily electricity
345 demand by 2050, representing an increase of over 10% from the current demand level, but also introduce
346 greater demand variability (see Figure 3c). The increasing demand variability requires more fast-response
347 flexible resources like energy storage to maintain real-time energy balance within the system. During
348 extreme weather events, the risk of system imbalances could be further amplified due to significantly
349 impacted generation capacity. However, EVs can also serve as potential flexible resources to the energy
350 system, as they store substantial amounts of electricity in a highly electrified transportation sector. By
351 simply assuming that 10% of off-charging battery EVs in Texas can be incentivized to support the system,
352 their distributed battery storage through V2G technology could supply over 9,000 MW of power even
353 during peak charging times, helping to mitigate energy imbalances (see details in *Supplemental*
354 *Information* Note S4 and Figure S5). This demonstrates the vast potential of sectoral coupling to improve
355 energy system resilience during extreme events, yet this potential remains largely unexplored in practice.

356 PROSPECTS

357 In this rapid energy transition, focusing on climate mitigation while overlooking climate adaption could
358 undermine energy system resilience in the face of intensifying climate extremes. This paper aims to
359 highlight the emerging paradoxical resilience challenges arising from the growing cross-sector
360 interdependence of energy systems in the pursuit of a net-zero future, offering a global perspective that is
361 then downscaled to a regional energy system example. However, rather than opposing sector coupling,
362 which is crucial to decarbonize hard-to-abate sectors via electrification and ensure affordable energy
363 supply, we note that to maximize the benefits of cross-sector interdependence and mitigate associated
364 cascading risks during extreme events, resilience-oriented system-level cooperative optimization
365 strategies and policies are essential.

366 First, policies and market mechanisms should be designed for better incentivizing cross-sectoral demand
367 response and flexible resources. Existing electricity market mechanisms, such as Energy-Only Market¹⁵
368 used by ERCOT in Texas — where power plants are paid only for the electricity they generate — lack
369 incentives for maintaining sufficient reserve capacity to handle extreme weather events. Beyond the
370 concept of virtual power plants, cross-sector energy systems offer greater aggregated energy capacity
371 through distributed renewable generation, green chemicals, transportation, buildings, and other sectors.
372 Meanwhile, they also introduce more complex responses from multi-stakeholders. Microgrid-level
373 research suggests that while self-optimized individual energy storage systems enhance self-sufficiency,
374 they can undermine overall system stability¹⁸. This phenomenon will likely become more pronounced in
375 future energy systems with evolving participants from multiple sectors if appropriate regulations and
376 incentivization mechanisms are not implemented. To fully harness the potential of cross-sector flexibility
377 and maximize overall social welfare, climate-resilient market and policy mechanisms should further
378 support the aggregation of virtual energy hubs with complementary multi-energy forms, enabling system
379 operators to coordinate energy flow and ensure system stability. Additionally, policy and market designs
380 also need to address the associated challenges of data privacy and security arising from the aggregation
381 of diverse stakeholders in cross-sector energy systems.

382 Second, in the context of cross-sector energy system planning, establishing robust rapid-response
383 capabilities through cross-sector energy storage is crucial for enhancing system resilience. Relying on
384 fossil fuel power plants as backup generation in capacity expansion planning is a conservative and cost-
385 intensive approach⁶, as it may result in extremely low capacity factors for these conventional plants,
386 which are maintained solely for emergency supply. Cross-sector energy storage ranges from short-term
387 solutions such as EV batteries to long-term solutions such as chemical and geothermal storage hold
388 substantial potential not only in terms of energy capacity but also mobility, which remains to be further
389 explored. To fully utilize these rapid-response resources, capacity expansion planning should account for

390 cross-sector complementarities and incorporate high-resolution climate-energy risk assessments to better
391 capture the spatiotemporal impacts of extreme events.

392 Third, achieving system-wide optimality of cross-sector energy system resilience requires developing
393 advanced multi-agent optimization strategies for real-time collaborative operation. The role of current grid
394 operators, such as ERCOT for Texas and California Independent System Operators (CAISO) for
395 California, needs to be expanded to encompass interdependent systems with multiplex energy
396 infrastructure. Existing energy management systems (EMS) developed for monitoring, controlling and
397 optimizing electric power grids, are expected to evolve into integrated energy management systems
398 (IEMS) to accommodate cross-sector operations. The various dynamic characteristics of multiple sectors,
399 such as the electromechanical transients in electric power grids (on the millisecond-to-second scale) and
400 the thermal dynamics of heating systems (on the second-to-minute scale) create discrepancies in the
401 definition of steady-state and energy balance within existing optimization methods. Therefore, the
402 optimization frameworks within advanced IEMS should account for heterogeneous dynamic
403 characteristics and balance competing objectives to reach a consensus that ensures system-wide
404 resilience and efficiency.

405 Lastly, building decentralized or localized resilient energy hubs can help prevent cascading failure
406 propagations in the bulk interconnected energy system during extreme events and facilitate the rapid
407 recovery of local communities afterward^{7,12}. Compared to traditional electricity-based microgrids,
408 decentralized cross-sector energy hubs offer greater flexibility and synergies but also impose higher
409 requirements on localized energy infrastructure to support these prosumer interactions. These
410 requirements include bidirectional-capable charging stations, distributed green chemical storage,
411 transportation, and generation facilities, along with a resilient, multiplex infrastructure network designed
412 for self-healing and standardized plug-and-play interfaces for distributed resources. Additionally, within
413 such energy hubs, enhanced information and communication technologies, combined with efficient multi-
414 agent distributed algorithms, are essential for ensuring reliable coordination and management across
415 multiple stakeholders.

416 **Data and code availability**

417 Data and code are publicly available on a GitHub repository ([https://github.com/LuoXu-THU/Cross-sector-
418 energy-system-resilience-and-interdependence-in-a-changing-climate](https://github.com/LuoXu-THU/Cross-sector-energy-system-resilience-and-interdependence-in-a-changing-climate)).

419

420

421 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

422 L.X. and N.L. were supported in part by the US National Science Foundation under Grant 2103754 (as part of
423 the Megalopolitan Coastal Transformation Hub), and the Princeton University Metropolis Project. H.V.P was
424 supported by grants from the Princeton School of Engineering and Applied Science and Princeton's Andlinger
425 Center for Energy and the Environment.

426

427 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

428 Conceptualization, L.X. and N.L.; methodology, L.X., and A.T.D.P.; investigation, L.X., H.V.P., Q. G., and H. S.;
429 writing—original draft, L.X. and N.L.; writing—review & editing, A.T.D.P., H.V.P., Q.G., H.S., and M.O.; funding
430 acquisition, N.L. and H.V.P.; resources, L.X., N.L. and A.T.D.P.; supervision, N.L., H.V.P., and M.O.

431

432 **DECLARATION OF INTERESTS**

433 The authors declare no competing interests.

434

435 **SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION**

436 **Document S1. Notes S1–S4, Figures S1–S5, and Table S1–S2**

437

438

439 **FIGURE TITLES AND LEGENDS**

440

441 **Figure 1. Cross-sector interdependence in a highly electrified energy system**

442 The bulk electric power grid (center) is the backbone of future net-zero energy systems, facilitating
443 bidirectional energy exchanges with other sectors. Arrows extending from the electricity grid to other sectors
444 illustrate the flow of energy from the grid as an input to these sectors, and vice versa. The accompanying
445 text specifies the mechanisms of these cross-sector energy interactions.

446

447 **Figure 2. Global electrification and intensifying climate change risks at the sub-national scale**

448 A bivariate map illustrating the intersection between future electrification trends and climate change
449 impacts across sub-national regions. These color-code regions are defined by the electrification levels for
450 2050 in various countries projected by GCAM v7.1⁹, as well as the IPCC AR6 composite confidence
451 levels of intensification of energy infrastructure-related climate extremes, weighted by GDP-adjusted
452 damage losses linked to the specific climate extremes.

453

454 **Figure 3. Escalating challenges to energy resilience in Texas**

455 (A) Projections for tropical cyclone intensity in Texas under the current climate scenario (green), moderate
456 emission scenario (SSP2-4.5, blue), and high emission scenario (SSP5-8.5, red) by the late 21st century.
457 Wind intensity is calculated at Galveston, Texas. Colored scatter points represent individual samples of the
458 wind intensity (m/s) for each synthetic tropical cyclone that makes landfall in Texas under each scenario,
459 corresponding to the median projected frequency change of tropical cyclones in the North Atlantic basin¹⁴.
460 The solid curves show the statistical fitting using the Generalized Pareto Distribution (GPD) for extreme
461 wind intensities (90th percentile) in each scenario. Shaded areas for future scenarios indicate uncertainty
462 ranges of projected storm intensity levels, accounting for variations associated with the 5th-95th percentile
463 range (approximately -34.5% to +29%, with a median of -14%) of projected tropical cyclone frequency
464 changes in the North Atlantic basin¹⁴. The shaded area for the current climate indicates the uncertainty
465 range derived from GPD fitting under the current tropical cyclone frequency. Each climate scenario presents
466 synthetic tropical cyclones¹³ projected by downscaling the ensemble of six Coupled Model Intercomparison
467 Project Phase 6 (CMIP6) general circulation models (GCMs), including CanESM5, CNRM-CM6-1, EC-
468 Earth3, IPSL-CM6A-LR, MIROC6, and UKESM1-0-LL.

469 (B) Maximum potential of wind and solar generation and the associated heat index in Texas during
470 Hurricane Beryl from July 7th to July 17th, 2024. The maximum generation potential for renewables is
471 recorded hourly by the Electric Reliability Council of Texas¹⁵. The heat index is calculated using air
472 temperature and dew point temperature data recorded by the Houston Ellington AFB station, sourced from
473 NOAA's Global Hourly Integrated Surface Database (<https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/land-based-station/integrated-surface-database>).

475 (C) EV charging demand projections from 2024 to 2050 in Texas. Each boxplot represents the projections
476 of hourly light-duty passenger electric vehicle charging profiles in Texas during hurricane season (June to
477 November) for the corresponding year, derived from the Transportation Energy & Mobility Pathway Options
478 (TEMPO) model¹⁷ under a high electrification scenario. The median is represented by the line within the
479 box, the box edges show the interquartile range (25th to 75th percentiles), the whiskers extend to the 5th
480 and 95th percentiles, and the white dot inside the box represents the mean value.

481

482 **REFERENCES**

- 483 1. International Energy Agency. Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Energy Data Explorer.
484 [https://www.iea.org/data-and-statistics/data-tools/greenhouse-gas-emissions-from-energy-data-](https://www.iea.org/data-and-statistics/data-tools/greenhouse-gas-emissions-from-energy-data-explorer)
485 [explorer](https://www.iea.org/data-and-statistics/data-tools/greenhouse-gas-emissions-from-energy-data-explorer).
- 486 2. Davis, S. J. et al. (2018). Net-zero emissions energy systems. *Science* 360, eaas9793.
487 <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aas9793>.
- 488 3. Jenkins, J. D., Mayfield, E. N., Larson, E. D., Pacala, S. W., and Greig, C. (2021). Mission net-zero
489 America: The nation-building path to a prosperous, net-zero emissions economy. *Joule* 5, 2755–2761.
490 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joule.2021.10.016>.
- 491 4. Clarke, L., et al. (2022). Energy systems. In *Climate Change 2022: Mitigation of Climate Change*.
492 Working Group III Contribution to the IPCC Sixth Assessment Report.
493 <https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg3/chapter/chapter-6/>.
- 494 5. Kotz, M., Levermann, A., and Wenz, L. (2024). The economic commitment of climate change. *Nature*
495 628, 551–557. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-024-07219-0>.
- 496 6. Gøtske, E. K., Andresen, G. B., Neumann, F., and Victoria, M. (2024). Designing a sector-coupled
497 European energy system robust to 60 years of historical weather data. *Nat. Commun.* 15, 1–12.
498 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-024-54853-3>.
- 499 7. Xu, L., Feng, K., Lin, N., Perera, A.T.D., Poor, H. V., Xie, L., Ji, C., Sun, X. A., Guo, Q., O'Malley M.
500 (2024). Resilience of renewable power systems under climate risks. *Nat. Rev. Electr. Eng.*, 1, 53–66.
501 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s44287-023-00003-8>.
- 502 8. U.S. Department of Energy, Grid Deployment Office. (2024). The National Transmission Planning
503 Study. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Energy. [https://www.energy.gov/gdo/national-](https://www.energy.gov/gdo/national-transmission-planning-study)
504 [transmission-planning-study](https://www.energy.gov/gdo/national-transmission-planning-study).
- 505 9. Pacific Northwest National Laboratory. (2024). GCAM: Global Change Analysis Model v7.1.
506 <https://gcims.pnnl.gov/modeling/gcam-global-change-analysis-model>.
- 507 10. FERC, NERC and Regional Entity. (2021). The February 2021 Cold Weather Outages in Texas
508 and the South Central United States. [https://ferc.gov/media/february-2021-cold-weather-outages-](https://ferc.gov/media/february-2021-cold-weather-outages-texas-and-south-central-united-states-ferc-nerc-and)
509 [texas-and-south-central-united-states-ferc-nerc-and](https://ferc.gov/media/february-2021-cold-weather-outages-texas-and-south-central-united-states-ferc-nerc-and).
- 510 11. Wang, Y., Xu, Y., He, J., and Lee, S. J. (2022). Overview of collaborative response between the
511 power distribution network and urban transportation network coupled by electric vehicle cluster under
512 unconventional events. *Energy Convers. Econ.* 3, 360–367. <https://doi.org/10.1049/enc2.12074>.
- 513 12. Montoya-Rincon, J. P., Mejia-Manrique, S. A., Azad, S., Ghandehari, M., Harmsen, E. W.,
514 Khanbilvardi, R., and Gonzalez-Cruz, J. E. (2023). A socio-technical approach for the assessment of
515 critical infrastructure system vulnerability in extreme weather events. *Nat. Energy* 8, 1002–1012.
516 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41560-023-01315-7>.
- 517 13. Xi, D., Lin, N., and Gori, A. (2023). Increasing sequential tropical cyclone hazards along the US
518 East and Gulf coasts. *Nat. Clim. Change* 13, 258–265. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-023-01595-7>.
- 519 14. Knutson, T. et al. (2020). Tropical cyclones and climate change assessment: Part II: Projected
520 response to anthropogenic warming. *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society*.
521 <https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-18-0194.1>.
- 522 15. Electric Reliability Council of Texas. (2024). Grid and Market Conditions.
523 <https://www.ercot.com/gridmktinfo/dashboards>.
- 524 16. Matthews, T., Wilby, R. L., and Murphy, C. (2019). An emerging tropical cyclone–deadly heat
525 compound hazard. *Nat. Clim. Change* 9, 602–606. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-019-0525-6>.
- 526 17. National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL). (2022). TEMPO: Transportation Energy &
527 Mobility Pathway Options Model. <https://www.nrel.gov/transportation/tempo-model.html>.

528 18. Smith, O., Cattell, O., Farcot, E., O'Dea, R. D., and Hopcraft, K. I. (2022). The effect of renewable
529 energy incorporation on power grid stability and resilience. *Sci. Adv.* 8, eabj6734.
530 <https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.abj6734>.