

THE GNCS FACTSHEETS

Carbon Capture and Storage (CCS)

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions from coal-based power generation alone amount to 8.7 billion tons (Gt) – 30% of global CO₂ emissions.¹ As the demand for energy increases, this share is projected to reach 34% in 2030.² The demand for coal is forecast to rise by 53% over the next 20 years,³ faster than any other non-renewable energy source.⁴ This growth is driven primarily by electricity needs in emerging markets: CO₂ emissions from coal-fired plants in China alone will represent one-third of global CO₂ emissions from power generation in 2035.⁵ Carbon capture and storage (CCS) technologies can help mitigate emissions from fossil fuel use in power generation, industry and fuel transformation,⁶ and is particularly critical to allow coal to meet the world's energy needs.⁷ However, the prospects for CCS are dimmed by its high costs, currently prohibitive for market actors in the absence of a carbon price, and by the time constraint, due to the risk of “carbon lock-in” over the next two decades.⁸

Status of Capture Technology

Each stage of CCS, from CO₂ capture and compression from stationary sources to its transportation and geological storage, is technically feasible and in use today.⁹ CCS is already deployed in the oil, gas, and chemical industries, particularly for enhanced oil recovery (EOR). Capture technologies (post-combustion, pre-combustion and oxy-fuel) are energy-intensive: around 10–40% more energy is required with CCS than without. They can theoretically capture around 90% of CO₂

emissions they are applied to.¹⁰ Post-combustion capture using solvent scrubbing is one of the most established technologies.¹¹ CO₂ transport via high-pressure pipelines has been used for decades.¹² Carbon has been sequestered into geological formations,¹³ but this poses safety and leakage risks that require new regulatory frameworks (see [GNCS factsheet on carbon storage](#)).¹⁴

Bottleneck: Large-scale Demonstration

While all the elements of CCS technology are proven and in use, they have yet to be fully integrated into commercial-scale power plants.¹⁵ In 2010, there were 53 CCS demonstration projects underway worldwide (including 17 large-scale¹⁶ projects) and 52 further projects planned.¹⁷ Most of these address just a few elements of the process. There are only nine integrated, operational commercial CCS projects worldwide, most of them linked to EOR and gas production, but none are large-scale.¹⁸ EOR can help early CCS development but has a limited role in the long term.¹⁹ Some 100 additional demonstration projects are needed by 2020 to show that CCS is safe and commercially viable, especially for coal-fired plants, and to bring down costs.²⁰ Funding pledged for large-scale projects has increased sharply in recent years: proposed government support exceeds \$26bn. However, many projects have been delayed or cancelled, due to cost overruns, a lack of funding and regulatory

¹ IEA. (2009a). *World Energy Outlook 2009*. International Energy Agency. Annexes (based on 2007 data), p. 623.

² 13.87 GtCO₂ under business-as-usual assumptions, *Ibid*.

³ World Coal Association (WCA), <http://www.worldcoal.org/>.

⁴ Coal demand is projected to rise at an average annual rate of 1.9% (only modern non-hydro renewables will grow faster); coal currently represents 27% of the world's primary energy demand; IEA (2009a), p. 91.

⁵ 6,737 of 18,931 Mt CO₂; IEA. (2010). *World Energy Outlook 2010*. International Energy Agency. Annexes, p. 621, 673.

⁶ Energy efficiency aside; the targeted energy-intensive industries include: cement, iron and steel, chemicals and pulp and paper.

⁷ MIT. (2007). *The Future of Coal – Options for a Carbon-Constrained World*. Massachusetts Institute of Technology. p. x.

⁸ 40 years or more; IEA. (2009b). *Technology Roadmap: Carbon Capture & Storage*. International Energy Agency.

⁹ *Ibid*.

¹⁰ McKinsey. (2008). *Carbon Capture & Storage: Assessing the Economics*. McKinsey & Co. p. 9; WCA website, “CCS Technologies.”

¹¹ *Ibid*.

¹² IEA (2009b).

¹³ Mineralization and ocean carbon sequestration have limited capacity and are at an early development stage.

¹⁴ IPCC. (2006). *IPCC Guidelines for National GHG Inventories*. Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Ch. 5. “CO₂ Transport, Injection and Geological Storage.” p. 13.

¹⁵ WCA website, “The Role of CCS.”

¹⁶ “Large-scale” is defined by the Global CCS Institute as capturing at least 80% of 1 MtCO₂ per year for coal-fired power plants and at least 80% of 0.5 MtCO₂ per year for gas-fired plants and industrial units.

¹⁷ Cooperative Research Centre for Greenhouse Gas Technologies (CO2CRC), <http://www.co2crc.com.au/>.

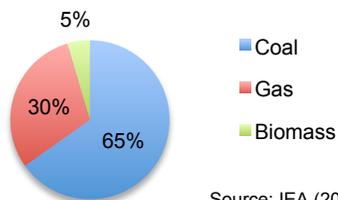
¹⁸ See definition of “large-scale” at fn.16; the largest existing project captures up to 3 MtCO₂ per year at the *Dakota Great Plains syngas plant* in the US, but this is less than 50% of emissions. CSLF. (2010). *CSLF Technology Roadmap*. Carbon Sequestration Leadership Forum. p. 28.

¹⁹ MIT (2007), p. xii; IEA (2009b), p. 24.

²⁰ Interagency Task Force on Carbon Capture and Storage. (2010). *Executive Summary: Report of the Interagency Task Force on Carbon Capture and Storage*. US EPA & DOE. p. 3; IEA (2009b), p. 8.

framework, and low public acceptance.²¹ Most projects are located in North America, Australia and the EU.²²

CCS potential in the power sector by 2050 (1140 GW installed)



Source: IEA (2009b)

Abatement Potential

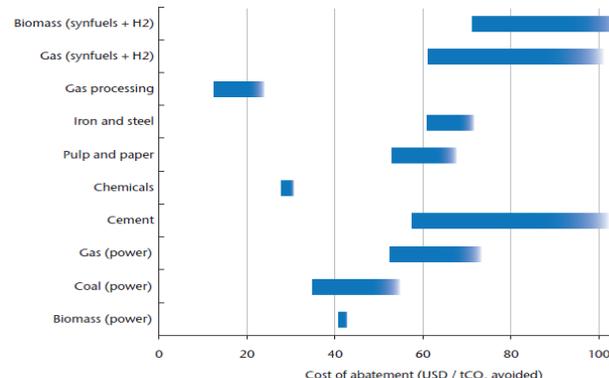
CCS could potentially abate between 1.4 and 4 GtCO₂ equivalent emissions globally by 2030.²³ Plentiful storage potential exists but exploration programs are urgently required to locate storage sites.²⁴ Although CCS can be applied to multiple CO₂ stationary sources, its application to integrated gasification combined cycle coal-fired power plants in North America and emerging markets, especially China, offer the greatest potential.²⁵ By 2050, coal-fired power plants could represent 65% of CCS deployment in the power sector, and one-third overall.²⁶ Other low-cost opportunities include sectors such as natural gas combined cycle power plants, gas processing, iron and steel, and biomass production.²⁷ Building new plants “capture-ready” poses a challenge due to the added space required for equipment.²⁸ Retrofitting existing plants is more expensive than building new ones.²⁹ The current decade is a key “make or break” period: without CCS, emissions will be “locked-in” during the operational life of the new fossil fuel plants built to meet emerging markets’ electricity needs.³⁰

Costs of CCS

As capture technologies require high capital costs and are energy-intensive,³¹ capture and compression account

for 70–90% of the overall cost.³² CCS deployment in chemicals and enhanced oil and gas recovery represent early, low-cost capture opportunities.³³ The current incremental cost of CCS in new US coal-fired plants is \$60–95/tCO₂ avoided.³⁴ Projections of abatement costs up to 2050 range between \$35–50/tCO₂ avoided (including \$30–40 for CO₂ capture) in large coal-fired power plants, against \$53–66/tCO₂ avoided for gas-fired plants.³⁵ CO₂ capture from power plants, without transport and storage, is estimated to add at least 1.5 US cents per kilowatt-hour (kWh) to the cost of electricity generation.³⁶ For CCS to contribute 20% of emissions reductions, the IEA estimates that investment of \$2.5–3 trillion is needed by 2050 to deploy some 3,400 CCS projects.³⁷ Without a carbon price, commercial plants and industrial facilities have no incentives to invest in CCS, as it reduces efficiency and energy output and raises cost.³⁸

Ranges of CCS abatement costs



Source: IEA (2009b)

Only integrated demonstration projects can prove CCS’ long-term viability. Another key barrier to deployment is the lack of regulatory framework. The transport and storage of CO₂ pose regulatory and public acceptance risks (see the GNCS factsheet on carbon storage).³⁹

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Further resources are available at www.theGNCS.org

²¹ CSLF (2010), p. 30.

²² Global CCS Institute (2011) offers a comprehensive project database.

²³ McKinsey (2008: 12) cite estimates of 1.4 Gt (Stern, 2004), 3.5 Gt (McKinsey & Vattenfall, 2007) and 4 Gt (IEA, 2007).

²⁴ IEA (2009b), p. 32.

²⁵ Interagency Task Force (2010).

²⁶ IEA (2009b).

²⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 17-20.

²⁸ *Ibid.*

²⁹ IPCC. (2005). *Special Report on Carbon Dioxide Capture and Storage*. Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. p. 152.

³⁰ 40 years or more; *Ibid.*

³¹ Interagency Task Force (2010), p. 4; IEA (2009b), p. 9.

³² CSLF (2010), p. 15; Interagency Task Force (2010), p. 3.

³³ IEA (2009b), p. 22.

³⁴ Compared to new conventional coal-fired plants; NETL. (2010). *Cost and Performance Baseline for Fossil Energy Plants*. Vol. 1. “Bituminous Coal and Natural Gas to Electricity.” National Energy Technology Laboratory, US Dept of Energy (DOE).

³⁵ *Ibid.*

³⁶ IEA GHG. (n.d.). *CO₂ Capture in Power Generation*. IEA Greenhouse Gas R&D Programme. p. 2.

³⁷ According to the IEA *Energy Technology Perspectives 2008* (ETP); in IEA (2009b), p. 5, 21.

³⁸ IEA (2009b).

³⁹ *Ibid.*