

Carbon Sequestration Leadership Forum Technology Roadmap 2013

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Executive Summary

The CSLF has issued Technology Roadmaps (TRM) in 2004, 2009, 2010 and 2011. (The TRM 2011 updated only project and country activities, not technology.) This new TRM is in response to a meeting of the CSLF Technical Group (TG) in Bergen in June 2012. It sets out to answer three questions:

- What is the current status of carbon capture and storage (CCS) technology and deployment, particularly in CSLF member countries?
- Where should CCS be by 2020 and beyond?
- What is needed to get from point a) to point b), while also addressing the different circumstances of developed and developing countries?

The focus is on the third question. The TRM covers CCS in the power generation and industrial sectors. Carbon dioxide (CO₂) utilization, particularly in the near-term, is seen as a means of supporting the early deployment of CCS in certain circumstances and accelerating technology deployment.

The TRM is based on a 'status and gap analysis' document for CCS. The essence of the state-of-the-art summary was used to identify priority-action recommendations.

Key conclusions of the TRM are:

- First generation CO₂ capture technology for power generation applications has been demonstrated on a scale of a few tens of MW (in the order of 100,000 tonnes CO₂/year) and two large demonstration plants in the power generation sector (in Canada and the USA) are currently in the 'project execution' phase. Otherwise, CO₂ capture has been successfully applied in the gas processing and fertilizer industries.
- First generation CO₂ capture technology has a high energy penalty and is expensive to implement.
- There is a need to:
 - gain experience from large demonstration projects in power generation;
 - integrate CO₂ capture in power generation so that operational flexibility is retained;
 - identify and implement CO₂ capture for industrial applications, particularly in steel and cement plants; and
 - develop second and third generation CO₂ capture technologies that are designed to reduce costs and the energy penalty whilst maintaining operational flexibility as part of the effort to make CCS commercially viable.
- CO₂ transport is an established technology and pipelines are frequently utilized to transport CO₂ for Enhanced Oil Recovery (i.e., CO₂-EOR). However, further development and understanding is needed to:
 - optimize the design and operation of pipelines and other transport modes (e.g., improved understanding of thermodynamic, corrosion and other effects of impurities in the CO₂ stream; improve and validate dispersion models to address the case of pipeline failure and leakage; and advance the knowledge regarding CO₂ transport by ship); and
 - design and establish CO₂ collection/distribution hubs or clusters, and network transportation infrastructure.
- CO₂ storage is safe provided that proper planning, operating, closure and post-closure procedures are developed and followed. However, as demonstrated by three large-scale and many smaller-scale projects, the sites display a wide variety of geology and other *in situ*

conditions, and data collection for site characterization, qualification¹ and permitting currently requires a long lead-time (3-10 years). Identified research, development and demonstration (RD&D) actions need to:

- intensify demonstration of sizeable storage in a wide range of national and geological settings, onshore as well as offshore;
 - further test to validate monitoring technologies in large-scale storage projects and qualify and commercialize these technologies for commercial use;
 - develop and validate mitigation and remediation methods for potential leaks and up-scale these to commercial scale;
 - further develop the understanding of fundamental processes to advance the simulation tools regarding the effects and fate of the stored CO₂; and
 - agree upon and develop consistent methods for evaluating CO₂ storage capacity at various scales and produce geographic maps of national and global distribution of this capacity.
- There are no technical challenges per se in converting CO₂-EOR operations to CCS, although issues like availability of high quality CO₂ at an economic cost, infrastructure for transporting CO₂ to oil fields; and legal, regulatory and long-term liability must be addressed for this to happen.
 - There is a broad array of non-EOR CO₂ utilization options that, when taken cumulatively, can provide a mechanism to utilize CO₂ in an economic manner. However, these options are at various levels of technological and market maturity and require:
 - technology development and small-scale tests for less mature technologies;
 - technical, economic, and environmental analyses to better quantify impacts and benefits; and
 - independent tests to verify the performance of any products produced through these other utilization options.
 - Public concern and opposition to pipelines for CO₂ transport and geological storage of CO₂ in some countries is a major concern. Further RD&D on storage that includes the elements above and improves aspects of risk management of CO₂ transport and storage sites will contribute to safe long-term storage and public acceptance. The results should be communicated in plain language.

Priority Actions Recommended for Implementation by Policy Makers

Several priority actions for implementation by policy makers are listed in Chapter 5 of this roadmap. It is strongly recommended that governments and key stakeholders implement the actions outlined there. Below is a summary of the key actions that represent activities necessary during the years up to 2020, as well as the following decade. They are challenging but realistic and are spread across all elements of the CCS chain. They require serious dedication and commitment by governments.

Towards 2020 nations should work together to:

- Maintain and increase commitment to CCS as a viable greenhouse gas (GHG) mitigation option
- Establish international networks, test centres and comprehensive RD&D programmes to verify, qualify and facilitate demonstration of CCS technologies

¹ Qualification means that it meets certain internationally agreed criteria and risk management assessment thresholds that give confidence that a new CO₂ storage site is fit for purpose. It does not guarantee permitting approval.

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- Gain experience with 1st generation CO₂ capture technologies and their integration into power plants
- Encourage and support the first industrial demonstration plants for CO₂ capture
- Develop sizeable pilot-scale projects for storage
- Design large-scale, regional CO₂ transport networks and infrastructure
- Agree on common standards, best practices and specifications for all parts of the CCS chain
- Map regional opportunities for CO₂ utilization, addressing the different priorities, technical developments and needs of developed and developing countries.

Towards 2030 nations should work together to:

- Move 2nd generation CO₂ capture technologies for power generation and industrial applications through demonstration and commercialisation, with possible targets of 30% reduction of energy penalty, normalized capital cost, and normalized operational and maintenance (O&M) costs compared to 1st generation technologies
- Implement large-scale national and international CO₂ transport networks and infrastructure
- Demonstrate safe, large-scale CO₂ storage and monitoring
- Qualify regional, and potentially cross-border, clusters of CO₂ storage reservoirs with sufficient capacity
- Ensure sufficient resource capacity for a large-scale CCS industry
- Scale-up and demonstrate non-EOR CO₂ utilization options.

Towards 2050 nations should work together to:

- Develop and progress to commercialisation 3rd generation CO₂ capture technologies with energy penalties and avoidance costs well below that of 1st generation technologies. Possible targets for 3rd generation CO₂ capture technology for power generation and industrial applications are a 50% reduction from 1st generation levels of each of the following: the energy penalty, capital cost, and O&M costs (fixed and non-fuel variable costs) compared to 2013 first generation technologies costs.

Recommendations for Follow-Up Plans

The CSLF will, through its Projects Interaction and Review Team (PIRT), monitor the progress of CCS in relation to the Recommended Priority Actions by soliciting input with respect to the progress of CCS from all members of the CSLF and report annually to the CSLF Technical Group and biennially, or as required, to the CSLF Ministerial Meetings.

1. Objectives, Scope and Approach of TRM

No single approach is sufficient to stabilize the concentration of greenhouse gases (GHGs) in the atmosphere, especially when the growing global demand for energy and the associated potential increase in GHG emissions are considered. Carbon capture and storage (CCS) is one of the important components of any approach or strategy to address the issue of GHG emissions along with improved energy efficiency, energy conservation, the use of renewable energy and nuclear power, and switching from high-carbon fuels to low-carbon fuels.

The CSLF issued Technology Roadmaps (TRM) in 2004, 2009, 2010 and 2011, fulfilling one of its key objectives being to recommend to governments the technology priorities for successful implementation of CCS in the power and industrial sectors. At the meeting of the CSLF Technical Group (TG) in Bergen in June 2012, it was decided to revise the latest version of the TRM.

The TRM sets out to give answers to three questions:

- What is the current status of CCS technology and deployment, particularly in CSLF member countries?
- Where should CCS be by 2020 and beyond?
- What is needed to get from point a) to point b), while also addressing the different circumstances of developed and developing countries?

The focus is on the third question. This TRM will cover CCS in the power generation and industrial sectors. CO₂ utilization, particularly in the near-term, is seen as a means of supporting the early deployment of CCS in certain circumstances and accelerating technology deployment. A CSLF report (CSLF, 2012) divides CO₂ utilization options into three categories:

- Hydrocarbon resource recovery: Applications where CO₂ is used to enhance the production of hydrocarbon resources (such as CO₂-Enhanced Oil Recovery, or CO₂-EOR). This may partly offset the initial cost of CCS and contribute to bridging a gap for the implementation of long-term CO₂ storage in other geological storage media such as deep saline formations.
- Reuse (non-consumptive) applications: Applications where CO₂ is not consumed directly, but re-used or used only once while generating some additional benefit (compared to sequestering the CO₂ stream following its separation). Examples are urea, algal fuel or greenhouse utilization.
- Consumptive applications: These applications involve the formation of minerals, or long-lived compounds from CO₂, which results in carbon sequestration by 'locking-up' carbon.

For a CO₂-usage technology to qualify as CCS for CO₂ storage in e.g. in trading and credit schemes, it should be required that a *net amount of* CO₂ is eventually securely and permanently prevented from re-entering the atmosphere. However, emissions can also be reduced without CO₂ being permanently stored, by the substitution of CO₂ produced for a particular purpose with CO₂ captured from a power or industrial plant, as in, e.g., greenhouses in the Netherlands, where natural gas is burned to increase the CO₂.

Economic, financial and policy issues are outside the scope of this CSLF TRM. However, technology improvements will have positive effects both on economic issues and public perception, and in that sense economic and policy issues are implied.

This document was prepared using the following approach:

1. Producing a 'status and gap analysis' document for CCS, including a dedicated CCS technology status report by SINTEF, Norway (2013).
2. Summarizing the CCS status based on the SINTEF report and other available information, including that provided by the Global CCS Institute (GCCSI, 2012) (Chapter 3).

3. Identifying implementation and RD&D needs (Chapter 4).
4. Producing high-level recommendations (Chapter 5).

Towards the completion of this TRM, a report assembled by CO2CRC for the CSLF Task Force on Technical Gaps Closure became available (Anderson et al., 2013). That report, as well as the report by SINTEF (2013), provides more technological details with respect to the technology status and research needs highlighted in this TRM.

The present TRM has endeavoured to consider recent recommendations of other agencies working towards the deployment of commercial CCS, as the issue cuts across organisational and national boundaries and a concerted informed approach is needed.

There has been communication with the International Energy Agency (IEA) during the development of this TRM as the IEA developed a similar document (IEA, 2013). The IEA CCS Roadmap is focused on policy issues and measures, although it includes detailed technology actions in an appendix. In addition, the European Technology Platform for Zero Emission Fossil Fuel Power Plants (ZEP) has issued recommendations for research in CCS beyond 2020 (ZEP, 2013). The ZEP document only addresses technological aspects of CO₂ capture and it does not address policy issues; its recommendations on CO₂ transport and storage are to be found in the ZEP document (ZEP, 2010)

A Steering Committee comprising members of the CSLF TG and chaired by the TG Chair supervised the work of the TRM editor.

2. Vision and Target - the Importance of CCS

The CSLF Charter, modified at the CSLF Ministerial-level meeting in Beijing in September 2011 to include 'CO₂ utilization', states the following purpose of the organization:

"To accelerate the research, development, demonstration, and commercial deployment of improved cost-effective technologies for the separation and capture of carbon dioxide for its transport and long-term safe storage or utilization; to make these technologies broadly available internationally; and to identify and address wider issues relating to CCS. This could include promoting the appropriate technical, political, economic, and regulatory environments for the research, development, demonstration, and commercial deployment of such technology."

The CSLF has not explicitly stated a vision or specific technology targets. However, according to the IEA Energy Technology Perspectives (ETP) 2012 (IEA, 2012a) the amount of CO₂ captured and stored by 2030 and 2050 will have to be 2.4 and 7.8 GtCO₂/year, respectively, to stay within the '2°C scenario' ('2DS'). The cumulative CO₂ reduction from CCS will need to be 123 GtCO₂ between 2015 and 2050 and the emissions reductions through the application of CCS by 2050 will have to be split almost equally between power generation and industrial applications. Whereas power generation will have alternatives to CCS for emission reductions, many industries will not. The IEA World Energy Outlook (WEO) 2012 (IEA, 2012b) shows similar contributions from CCS in the 450 ppm scenario up to 2035 and the EU Energy Roadmap 2050 (EU, 2012) points out that CCS will play a significant role to reach 80% reduction of carbon emissions by 2050.

The IEA ETP 2012 (IEA, 2012a) states that, in order to reach 0.27 GtCO₂/year captured and stored by 2020, about 120 facilities will be needed. According to views expressed in ETP, *"development and deployment of CCS is seriously off pace"* and *"the scale-up of projects using these technologies over the next decade is critical. CCS could account for up to 20% of cumulative CO₂ reductions in the 2DS"*

by 2050. This requires rapid deployment of CCS and this is a significant challenge since there are no large-scale CCS demonstrations in power generation and few in industry".

The CSLF and its TRM 2013 aspire to play important roles in accelerating the RD&D and commercial deployment of improved, cost-effective technologies for the separation and capture of CO₂, its transport and its long-term safe storage or utilization.

3. Assessment of Present Situation

3.1. Implementation

In January 2013 the Global CCS Institute published its updated report on the Global Status of CCS (GCCSI, 2013). This report identified 72 Large-Scale Integrated CCS Projects (LSIPs)², of which eight were categorized as in the 'operation' stage and nine in the 'execution' stage. These 17 projects together would contribute a CO₂ capture capacity of approximately 0.037 GtCO₂/year by 2020. Thus the capture *capacity* by 2020 will at best be half of the needed *actual long-term storage* according to the 2DS, even when pure CO₂-EOR projects are included³. In this January 2013 update of the 2012 Global Status Report (GCCSI, 2012) the number of projects on the 'execute' list increased by one, whereas the total number of LSIPs went down from 75.

The projects in the 'operation' and 'execution' stages are located in Algeria, Australia, Canada, Norway and the USA. Of the 17 projects in these two categories, six are/will be injecting the CO₂ into deep saline formations, the rest using the CO₂ for EOR operations. So far, the Weyburn-Midale project in Canada is the only CO₂-EOR project that carries out sufficient monitoring to demonstrate permanent storage and has been identified and recognized as a storage project. Two of the 17 projects in the 'operation' and 'execution' stages are in the power generation sector⁴. The other projects capture the CO₂ from sources where the need for additional CO₂ processing before being collected, compressed and transported is limited, such as natural gas processing, synthetic fuel production or fertilizer production. In other industries, projects are in the 'definition' stage (e.g. iron and steel industry in the United Arab Emirates) or the 'evaluation' stage (e.g., cement industry in Norway).

In 2012, there were nine newly identified LSIPs relative to 2011. More than half of these are in China and all will use CO₂ for EOR. Eight LSIPs in the 'definition' or earlier stages were cancelled between 2011 and 2012, due to regulatory issues, public opposition and/or the high investment costs that were not matched by public funding.

3.2. Capture

There are three main routes to capture CO₂: pre-combustion decarbonisation, oxy-combustion and post-combustion CO₂ capture, as presented in Table 1. The table also provides the readiness (High, Medium, Low) of the 1st generation CO₂ capture technologies with reference to power generation

² The definition of a LSIP by the Global CCS Institute is that it involves a complete chain of capture, transport and storage of:

- at least 800,000 tonnes per year for coal-based power plants
- at least 400,000 tonnes per year for other plants, including gas-based power plants.

³ In general, IEA does not count CO₂-EOR projects

⁴ The Boundary Dam Integrated Carbon Capture and Sequestration Demonstration Project in Canada that applies post-combustion capture and the Kemper County IGCC in the USA that applies pre-combustion. Both are coal-fired power generation plants.

using solid fuels (predominantly coal) and natural gas, as well as the identified development potential on a rather coarse basis (SINTEF, 2013).

Table 2 summarizes the CO₂ treatment in 1st generation CO₂ capture technologies and the challenges for the 2nd and 3rd generation⁵ (SINTEF, 2013). Common challenges – and barriers to implementation – to all capture technologies are the high cost (i.e. capital and operational expenses) and the significant energy penalty associated with the additional equipment. Here we assume 2nd generation technologies will be due for application between 2020 and 2030 and 3rd generation after 2030.

Table 1: Readiness and development potential of main CO₂-capture techniques.

Technology	Readiness for demonstration		Development potential	
	Coal	Natural gas	Coal	Natural gas
IGCC w/CCS*	Medium-High	N/A	High	N/A
Oxy-combustion	Medium-High	Low	High	Medium-High
Post-combustion	High	High	Medium-High	Medium-High

* Integrated Gasification Combined Cycle (IGCC) plant with CCS, i.e. pre-combustion decarbonisation of the power plant.

There are many demonstration and pilot-scale projects for CO₂ capture technologies, particularly for post-combustion capture and oxy-combustion technologies. The scale of these is generally in the order of 20-30MW_{th}, or a capture capacity of up to a few hundred thousand tonnes of CO₂/year. Dedicated test facilities for the capture of CO₂ have been established in, e.g., Canada, China, Norway, the UK and the USA.

In general, post-combustion CO₂ separation technologies can be used in many industrial applications. ULCOS (Ultra-Low CO₂ Steelmaking) is a consortium of 48 European companies and organizations that launched a cooperative RD&D initiative to enable drastic reductions in CO₂ emissions from steel production. The aim of the ULCOS programme is to reduce CO₂ emissions by at least 50 percent. A demonstration plant in France was planned as part of ULCOS II, but was shelved in late 2012, at least temporarily, as a decision was made to close the steel plant. There has been another project for the steel industry - COURSE50 - in Japan. In this project, two small-scale plants have been operated, one for chemical adsorption and the other for physical adsorption. The European cement industry has carried out a feasibility study on the use of post-combustion capture technology to remove CO₂ from a stack where the various flue gases from the kiln are combined.

⁵ Definitions according to the UK Advanced Power Generation Technology Forum (APGTF; 2011):

- 1st generation technologies are technologies that are ready to be demonstrated in 'first-of-a-kind' large-scale projects without the need for further development.
- 2nd generation technologies are systems generally based on 1st generation concepts and equipment with modifications to reduce the energy penalty and CCS costs (e.g. better capture solvents, higher efficiency boilers, better integration) – this may also involve some step-changes to the 'technology blocks'.
- 3rd generation technologies are novel technologies and process options that are distinct from 1st generation technology options and are currently far from commercialisation yet may offer substantial gains when developed.

Table 2: CO₂ treatment in first generation technologies and the challenges facing second and third generations

	CO ₂ treatment 1 st generation	Possible 2 nd and 3 rd generation technology options	Implementation challenges
IGCC with pre-combustion decarbonisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Solvents and solid sorbents Cryogenic air separation unit (ASU) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Membrane separation of oxygen and syngas Turbines for hydrogen-rich gas with low NO_x 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Degree of integration of large IGCC plants versus flexibility Operational availability with coal in base load Lack of commercial guarantees
Oxy-combustion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cryogenic ASU Cryogenic purification of the CO₂ stream prior to compression Recycling of flue gas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> New and more efficient air separation, e.g. membranes Optimized boiler systems Oxy-combustion turbines Chemical looping combustion (CLC) - reactor systems and oxygen carriers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Unit size and capacity combined with energy demand for ASU Peak temperatures versus flue-gas re-circulation NO_x formation Optimisation of overall compressor work (ASU and CO₂ purification unit (CPU) require compression work) Lack of commercial guarantees
Post-combustion capture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Separation of CO₂ from flue gas Chemical absorption or physical absorption (depending on CO₂ concentration) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> New solvents (e.g. amino acids) 2nd & 3rd generation amines requiring less energy for regeneration 2nd & 3rd generation process designs and equipment for new and conventional solvents Solid sorbent technologies Membrane technologies Hydrates Cryogenic technologies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Scale and integration of complete systems for flue gas cleaning Slippage of solvent to the surrounding air (possible health, safety & environmental (HS&E) issues) Carry-over of solvent into the CO₂ stream Flue gas contaminants Energy penalty Water balance (make-up water)

It should be mentioned that the world's largest CO₂ capture plant is a Rectisol process run by Sasol, South Africa, as part of its synfuel/chemical process and captures approximately 25 million tonnes of CO₂ per year.

In short, capturing CO₂ works and there has been significant progress with CO₂ capture from industrial sources with high CO₂ concentration. However, certain challenges remain:

- The cost and energy penalty are high for all 1st generation capture technologies.
- The scale-up and integration of CO₂ capture systems for power generation and industries that do not produce high-purity CO₂ are limited, and may not sufficiently advance for at least the next 5 – 10 years.
- CO₂ capture technologies suited to a range of industrial processes exist, but have not been adopted, demonstrated and validated for specific use. Examples of such industries include cement, iron and steel, petrochemical, aluminium, and pulp and paper.
- Health, safety and environmental assessment must be an integral part of technology and project development. For example, extensive studies have concluded that health and environmental issues connected to amine-based capture technology can be controlled (Maree et al, 2013; Gjernes et al, 2013).

3.3. Transport

Transport of CO₂ in pipelines is a known and established technology, with significant experience gained from more than 6,000 km of CO₂ pipelines onshore in the USA used for transporting CO₂ for EOR operations, mainly across sparsely populated areas. However, there is very limited experience with CO₂ pipelines through heavily populated areas, and the 153km pipeline at Snøhvit is the only offshore CO₂ pipeline. There is also experience of CO₂ transport by ships, albeit in small quantities. These CO₂ streams are almost pure and there is limited experience with CO₂ streams containing impurities.

Standards and best practices on CO₂ transport have emerged (e.g. DNV, 2010). The objectives of further RD&D will be to optimize the design and operation of pipelines and ships and increase the operational reliability in order to reduce costs.

To achieve large-scale implementation, it will also be necessary to think in terms of networks of CO₂ pipelines, ships, railway and road transportation, the latter two particularly in the early stages of a project. Such concepts have been studied at both national and regional levels. Studies have been made around hubs and clusters for CO₂ in the UK, Australia, and in the Dutch ROAD project⁶, as well as in the United Arab Emirates and Alberta, Canada (GCCSI, 2012).

In Europe, where CO₂ pipelines will often have to go through heavily populated areas with many landowners, the permitting process and 'right-of-way' negotiations have led to long lead-times for construction. Another factor that may cause long lead-time and expensive pipelines is the increased global demand for steel and pipes.

3.4. Storage

Deep saline formation (DSF) storage projects have been in operation for more than 15 years and CO₂ has been used for EOR since the early 1970s. The three large-scale DSF projects in operation⁷, as well as some smaller ones (e.g., in Canada, Germany, Japan and the USA) and a gas reservoir storage project (the Netherlands) have been subjected to extensive monitoring programmes that include a range of technologies, such as time-lapse seismic and down-hole pressure and temperature monitoring, time-lapse gravimetry, controlled-source electromagnetic monitoring, passive seismic monitoring, electrical resistivity imaging, geochemical surveys, interferometric synthetic aperture radar (InSAR) detection, groundwater monitoring, soil-gas detection, microbiological surveys, complex wireline logging and other techniques for plume tracking.

The experience from these and other operations has shown that (GCCSI, 2012):

- CO₂ storage is safe with proper planning and operations. However, presently, there is no experience with closure and post-closure procedures for storage projects (terminated and abandoned CO₂-EOR projects are usually not followed up).
- Current storage projects have developed and demonstrated comprehensive and thorough approaches to site characterization, risk management and monitoring.
- All storage sites are different and need individual and proper characterization. Characterization and permitting requires long lead-times (3-10 years).

Monitoring programmes and the data that they have made available have stimulated the advancement of models that simulate the CO₂ behaviour in the underground environment, including

⁶ As of June 2013, the Final Investment Decision (FID) for the ROAD project has not been made but ROAD remains a planned project, close to FID

⁷ In Salah, Algeria; Sleipner, Norway; and Snøhvit, Norway

geochemical and geomechanical processes in addition to flow processes. DSF projects in the 'execution' stage have developed extensive monitoring programmes and have been subjected to risk assessments (e.g., the Gorgon Project in Australia and the Quest Project in Canada) and the experience will be expanded when these become operational.

In addition to the impact on CO₂ transport and injection facilities, impurities in the CO₂ stream can have effects on the storage of CO₂ in deep saline formations. Contaminants such as N₂, O₂, CH₄ and Ar will lead to lower storage efficiency (e.g. Mikunda and de Coninck, 2011; IEAGHG, 2011; and Wildgust et al., 2011), but since they have a correspondingly large impact on CO₂ transport costs (compression and pumping), it will be cost-efficient to lower the concentrations to a level where the impact on CO₂ storage efficiency will be minor. Other impurities (e.g. H₂S and SO₂) can occur in concentrations up to a few percent for CO₂ sources relevant for storage. These are generally more reactive chemically (for pipelines, compressors and wells) and geochemically (for storage) than CO₂ itself. So far, there are no indications that the geochemical reactions will have strong impact on injectivity, porosity, permeability or caprock integrity (Mikunda and de Coninck, 2011; IEAGHG, 2011); however, the geochemical part of the site-qualification work needs to take the presence of such impurities into account. Still, geological injection of 'acid gas' (i.e. CO₂ + H₂S) is considered safe (Bachu and Gunter, 2005), and injection of CO₂ with minor concentrations of H₂S should be even more so.

Impurities may also affect the well materials. Most studies have been laboratory experiments on the effects of pure CO₂ streams (Zhang and Bachu, 2011), but well materials may be affected if water returns to the well after injection has stopped (IEAGHG, 2011).

Countries including Australia, Canada and the USA, as well as international bodies like the European Commission (EC) and the OSPAR and London Convention organisations, have implemented legislation and/or regulations concerning CO₂ storage either at the national/federal level or at the provincial/state level⁸. Standards and recommended practices have been published (CSA, 2012; DNV, 2012), in addition to a range of specialized best practice manuals (e.g. on monitoring and verification, DoE 2009 and 2012a; site screening DoE 2010; risk assessment, DoE, 2011 and DNV, 2013; well integrity DNV 2011 and DoE 2012b). The International Organization for Standardization (ISO) has initiated work on a standard covering the whole CCS chain.

Despite this progress, the Global CCS Institute (GCCSI, 2012) stated that most remaining issues regarding regulations for CCS are storage-related, particularly the issue of long-term liability. All these documents will therefore need future revisions based on experience. As an example, the EC CO₂ storage directive is regarded by industrial stakeholders as a regulation that puts too high a liability burden on storage operators. Furthermore, some modifications are still necessary in international regulations such as the London Protocol.

The last few years have seen increased activity in national and regional assessments of storage capacity with the issuing of CO₂ storage 'atlases' in many countries (e.g. Australia, Brazil, Germany, Italy, Japan, North-American countries, the Scandinavian countries, South Africa and the UK). Methods are available for CO₂ storage capacity estimation and comparisons have been made (Bachu, 2007 and 2008; Bachu et al., 2007a and 2007b; DoE, 2008), but there is no generally used common methodology, although in the CO₂StoP project, funded by the EC, EU Member States geological surveys and institutes will use a common methodology to calculate their CO₂ storage capacities.

⁸ See e.g. <http://www.globalccsinstitute.com/networks/cclp>

There are additional geological candidates to deep saline formations for CO₂ storage, such as abandoned oil and gas reservoirs and un-minable coal seams, but their capacity is much less than that of deep saline formations. More exotic and unproven alternatives include storing CO₂ in basalts, serpentine-/olivine-rich rocks (but one must find ways to reduce by several orders of magnitude the reaction time between the rock and CO₂ and the energy penalty associated with crushing), as well as in organic-rich shale (but here the effect of hydraulic fracturing of the geological formations has to be better understood).

Experience has shown that the major perceived risks of CCS are associated with CO₂ storage and CO₂ transport. Onshore storage projects have been met with adverse public reaction in Europe although a survey found that just under half (49%) of respondents felt well informed about the causes and consequences of climate change (EC, 2011). However, only 10% of respondents had heard of CCS and knew what it was. A workshop summary (University of Nottingham, NCCCS and University of Sheffield, 2012) provides a detailed overview of the public engagement and perception issues and solutions about CCS projects in Europe as well as their presence in the press.

The risk management of geological storage of CO₂ and early and continued engagement of the local community throughout the lifetime of the CO₂ storage project is therefore essential. Further RD&D on storage should include the elements of risk management of CO₂ storage sites that will help provide the technical foundation to communicate that CO₂ storage is safe. This will include tested, validated and efficient monitoring and leak detection technologies, flow simulations and mitigating options. Equally, plain language communication of technical issues at community level is essential.

3.5. Infrastructure and the Integrated CCS Chain

Coping with the large volumes of CO₂ to be collected from future power plants and industrial clusters, pursuant to, e.g., the 2DS, will require new infrastructure to connect CO₂ sources with CO₂ sinks. In the planning of this infrastructure, the amount of collectible CO₂ – from multiple single CO₂ sources and from CO₂ hubs or clusters – and the availability of storage capacity for the CO₂ must be taken into account to balance the volumes of CO₂ entering the system. This will involve integration of CO₂ capture systems with the power or processing plants, considerations regarding the selection of processes, the integration of different systems, understanding the scale-up risks, solutions for intermediate storage as well as seaborne or land transport ('hub and spokes'), understanding the impact of CO₂ impurities on the whole system, as well as having proper storage sites, which may have a long lead time for selection, characterization and permitting and may be project limiting.

Whilst one can start to gain experience from the integration of CO₂ capture systems into power plants⁹, there are presently no CCS clusters and transport networks currently in operation. The closest are EOR systems that inject CO₂ into oil reservoirs as in the Permian basin in the USA, where clusters of oilfields are fed by a network of pipelines. There are initiatives for CO₂ networks, including proposals, in Australia, Canada, Europe (the Netherlands and the UK) and the United Arab Emirates (GCCSI, 2012).

3.6. Utilization

CO₂ for EOR is the most widely used form of CO₂ utilization, with more than 120 operations, mainly in North America. Other specific applications for CO₂-enhanced hydrocarbon recovery include enhanced coal bed methane production (ECBM), enhanced gas recovery (EGR), enhanced gas hydrate recovery (EGHR), hydrocarbon recovery from oil shale and the fracturing of reservoirs to

⁹ http://www.cslforum.org/meetings/workshops/technical_london2011.html

increase oil/gas recovery. However, these other applications are processes still being developed or tested in pilot-scale tests (CSLF; 2012, 2013).

Other potential utilization options of CO₂ that will lead to secure long-term storage are the use of CO₂ as the heat-transfer agent in geothermal energy systems, carbonate mineralization, concrete curing, bauxite residue and some algae cultivation. Mixing CO₂ with bauxite residue ('red mud') is being demonstrated in Australia (GCCSI, 2011). In addition, there are several forms of re-use of CO₂ already in use or being explored, including in urea production, utilization in greenhouses, polymers, methanol and formic acid production, and the cultivation of algae as a pathway to bio-energy and other products. These will not lead to permanent storage but may contribute to the reduced production of CO₂ or other CO₂ emitting substances. Also, there may be other related benefits: as an example, the utilization of waste CO₂ in greenhouses in the Netherlands already leads to a better business case for renewable heating and a rapid growth of geothermal energy use in the sector. Finally, the public opinion on CCS as a whole may become more positive when utilization options are part of the portfolio.

For many of the utilization options of CO₂ the total amount that can be permanently stored is, for all practical and economic purposes, limited for the moment. However, in some countries utilization provides early opportunities to catalyse the implementation of CCS. In this way, the CO₂ utilization pathways can form niche markets and solutions as one of the routes to commercial CCS before reaching their own large-scale industrial deployment. This applies not only to oil producing countries but also to regions with evolved energy systems that will allow the implementation of feasible CO₂ business cases.

Recent reviews of utilization of CO₂ are CSLF (2012, 2013), GCCSI (2011), ADEME (2010), Styring (2011), Dijkstra (2012), Tomski (2012) and Markewitz et al. (2012). In April 2013 The Journal of CO₂ Utilization was launched, providing a multi-disciplinary platform for the exchange of novel research in the field of CO₂ re-use pathways.

4. Identified Technology Needs

4.1. Capture

The main drawbacks of applying first generation CCS technologies to power generation are the increased capital and operational costs that result in higher cost of electricity to the end-user. One cause is the increased fuel demand (typically 30%) due to the efficiency penalty (typically around 10-12%-points in power generation).

Hence, in pursuing 2nd generation technologies, efforts should be made to reduce the energy penalty. This especially applies to:

- CO₂ separation work;
- CO₂ compression work; and,
- to a smaller extent, auxiliary equipment like blower fans and pumps.

The first two components represent the most significant gaps that need improvement in the future.

First generation CO₂ capture technologies have limitations in terms of the energy required for separation work, typically in the range of 3.0–3.5GJ/tCO₂. The theoretical minimum varies with the CO₂ partial pressure, as shown in Figure 1, and is generally below 0.20GJ/tCO₂ for post- and pre-combustion systems. Although this does not include the total energy penalty of a technology, since heat and power are sacrificed in other parts of the process, it indicates that there is a potential for 2nd and 3rd generation capture technologies to reduce the energy penalty by, say, a factor of two.

Note, however, that Figure 1 does not determine which system is best; only a complete analysis of the full systems can tell which case is the better one.

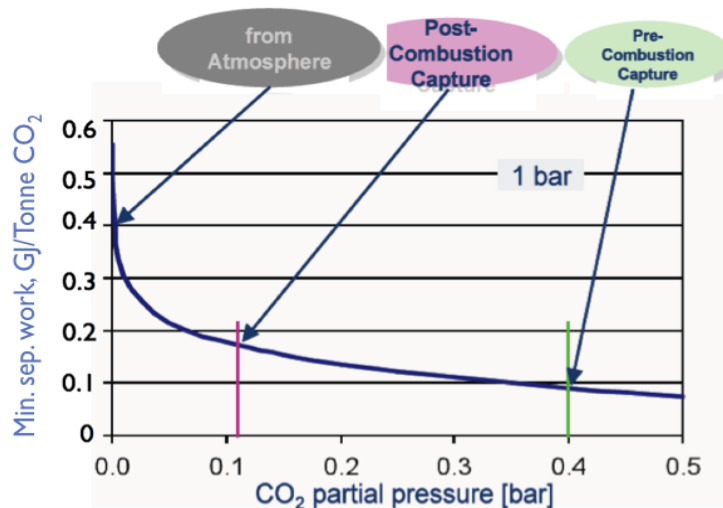


Figure 1: Theoretical minimum separation work of CO₂ from a flue gas depending on the partial pressure of CO₂ [modified from Bolland et al., 2006]

A state-of-the-art, four-stage CO₂ compressor train with inter-cooling requires 0.335GJ/tCO₂ and has a theoretical minimum of about half this value. Hence, it seems that only marginal improvements can be made in compressor development. However, in considering new power generation cycles, process integration is an important aspect. The integration should strive at reducing the overall compression work. In this context, pressurised power cycles should be looked at, especially oxy-combustion cycles and gasification technologies.

History suggests that a successful energy technology requires typically 30 years from the stage it is deemed available to reaching a sufficient market share (typically 1% of the global energy mix). With CCS, in order to have the desired impact on climate change (i.e. the IEA's '2DS'), this transition period must be reduced to just one decade. This requires targeted research with the ambitious goal that 2nd generation CCS technologies will be ready for commercial operations as early as possible between 2020 and 2030, and 3rd generation technologies to be enabled very soon after 2030. Cost reductions will also come from 'learning-by-doing', hence there will be a need for increased installed capacity.

Bio-energy with CO₂ capture and storage ('BECCS') offers permanent net removal of CO₂ from the atmosphere (IEA; 2011, 2013). How 'negative' the emissions may be will depend on several factors, including the sustainability of the biomass used.

The RD&D needs in the CO₂ capture area include:

- Gaining knowledge and experience from 1st generation CO₂ capture technologies.
- Identifying and developing 2nd and 3rd generation CO₂ capture technologies.
- Scaling-up systems for power generation.
- Adapting and scaling-up for industrial applications.
- Integrating a CO₂ capture system with the power or processing plant. Considerations will have to be made regarding process selection, heat integration, other environmental control systems (SO_x, NO_x), part-load operation and daily cycling flexibility, impacts of CO₂ composition and impurities, for 'new-build' plants as well as for retrofits.

- Health, safety and environmental assessment as an integral part of technology and project development, including BECCS; in particular identifying and mitigating/eliminating negative environmental aspects of candidate CO₂ capture technologies.
- Identifying specific cases to demonstrate and validate CO₂ capture technologies suited for a range of industry processes (e.g., cement, iron and steel, petrochemical, and pulp and paper).

4.1.1. Recommendation 1: CO₂ Capture Technologies in Power Generation

Towards 2020: Implement a sufficient number of large-scale capture plants and sizeable pilots to:

- Increase understanding of the scale-up risks. Lessons learned will be used to generate new understanding and concepts complying with 2nd generation CCS.
- Gain experience in the integration of CO₂ capture systems with the power or processing plant, including heat integration and other environmental control systems (SO_x, NO_x).
- Gain experience in part-load operations and daily cycling flexibility, as well as in the impacts of CO₂ composition and impurities.
- Gain experience in the integration of power plants with CCS into electricity grids utilizing renewable energy sources.

Towards 2030:

- Develop 2nd generation CO₂ capture technologies with energy penalties and avoidance costs well below that of 1st generation technologies. Possible targets for 2nd generation capture technology for power generation and industrial applications are a 30% reduction of each of the following: the energy penalty, normalized capital cost, and normalized operational and maintenance (O&M) costs (fixed and non-fuel variable costs) compared to 1st generation technologies^{10,11}.

Towards 2050:

- Possible targets for 3rd generation CO₂ capture technology for power generation and industrial applications are a 50% reduction of each of the following: the energy penalty, normalized capital cost, and normalized O&M costs (fixed and non-fuel variable costs) compared to 1st generation technologies¹².

4.1.2. Recommendation 2: CO₂ Capture in the Industrial Sector

Towards 2020:

- Further develop CO₂ capture technologies for industrial applications and implement pilot-plants and demonstrations for these.

Towards 2030:

- Implement the full-scale CCS chain in cement, iron and steel and other industrial plants.

The road map for CO₂ capture technology is illustrated in Figure 2.

¹⁰ Energy penalty = (Power output (state-of-the-art plant w/o CCS) - Power output(state-of-the-art plant w/CCS)) / Energy input (state-of-the-art plant w/o CCS)

Normalized cost = (Cost (state-of-the-art plant w/CCS) – cost (state-of-the-art plant w/o CCS)) / Cost (state-of-the-art plant w/o CCS) E.g. if the energy penalty is 10% in 2013, the penalty should be 7% in 2030.

¹¹ The target is supported by the UK Carbon Capture and Storage Cost Reduction Task Force of the Department of Energy and Climate Change (DECC, 2013), which states that a reduction of 20% is deemed possible by 2020 and significant further reductions in generation and capture costs are possible by the late 2020s and beyond.

¹² The US Department of Energy/National Energy Technology Laboratory (DOE/NETL, 2011) has a research target of 55% for reduction of the overall economic penalty imparted by current carbon capture technology. DOE/NETL does not attach a date to the target, but state it is aggressive but achievable.

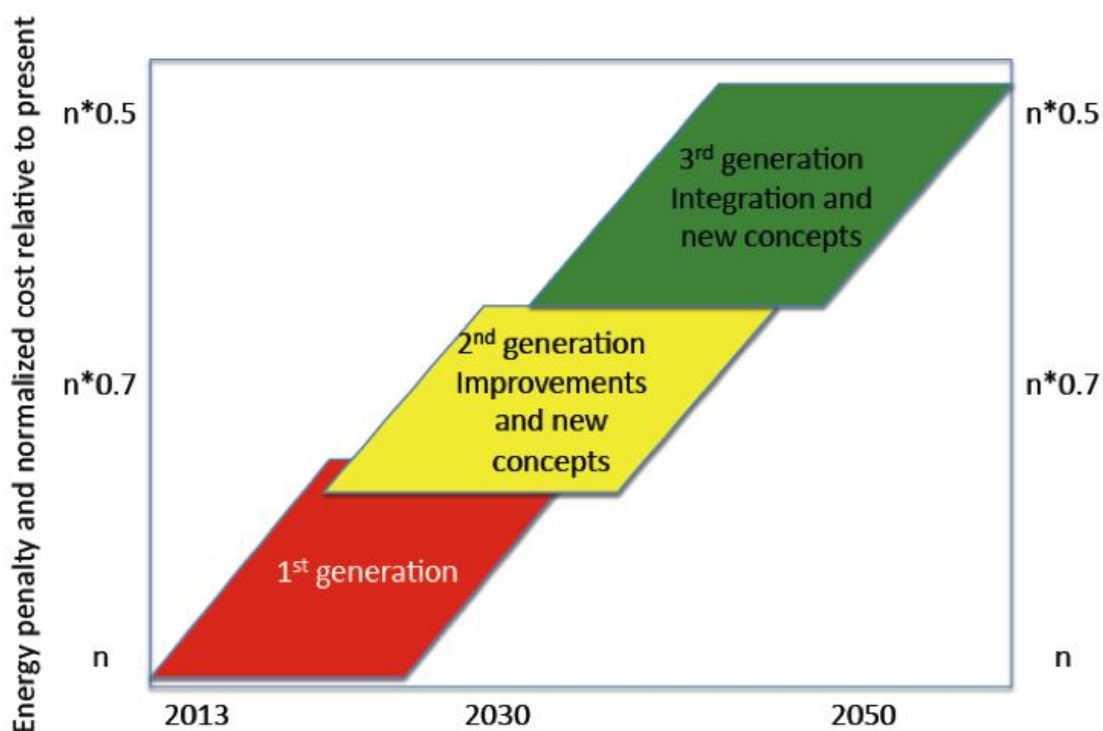


Figure 2: Priorities for CCS technology development. The energy penalty and normalized costs are shown in relation to the present level (n), i.e. equivalent to reduction by 30% in 2030 and 50% towards 2050.

4.2. Transport

RD&D will contribute to optimizing systems for CO₂ transport, thereby increasing operational reliability and reducing costs. The needs include improved understanding and modelling capabilities of properties and the behaviour of CO₂ streams, e.g., the impact of impurities on phase equilibria and equations-of-state of complex CO₂ mixtures, as well as of flow-related phenomena. Other RD&D needs are improved leakage detection and establishment and validation of impact models for the assessment of incidents pursuant to leakage of piped CO₂, the identification and qualification of materials or material combinations that will reduce capital and/or operational costs (including improved understanding of the chemical effect of impurities in the CO₂ stream on pipeline materials, including seals, valves etc.) and the adoption/adaptation of technology elements known from ship transport of other gases to CO₂ transport by ship.

4.2.1. Recommendation 3: CO₂ Transport

Towards 2020:

- Acquire data for, and understand the effects of, impurities on the thermodynamics of CO₂ streams and on pipeline materials, and establish and validate flow models that include such effects.
- Establish and validate dispersion models for the impact assessment of incidents pursuant to leakage of CO₂ from the CO₂ transport system (pipelines, ships, rail and trucks).
- Develop common specifications for pipelines and the CO₂ stream and its components.
- Qualify pipeline materials for use in CO₂ pipes with impurities.

4.3. Storage

Of the three DSF storage projects in operation, two are located offshore and the third one is located in a desert environment. Also the DSF projects currently in the 'execution' stage will be in sparsely populated areas. When attempts have been made to implement CO₂ storage in more heavily populated areas, e.g. in Germany and the Netherlands, they have met considerable public and political opposition that led to project cancellation. A strong reason that the Barendrecht project in the Netherlands did not get approval from the authorities was that CCS is a new technology and is not proven. The public questioned why it should be subjected to the risks of CCS (Spence, 2012; see also Feenstra et al. 2010). The public concerns of risks associated with CCS seem to be mainly around CO₂ storage and this is also where most remaining issues concerning regulations are found, particularly the long-term liability, despite the fact that some countries and sub-national bodies have issued the first versions of CO₂ storage regulations already.

Risk assessment, communication and management are essential activities to ensure qualification of a site for safe, long-term storage of CO₂ by, e.g., a third party and the subsequent approval and permitting by regulatory authorities. However, such qualification does not automatically lead to permission. The risk assessment must include induced seismic activity and ground motion, as well as leakage of CO₂ from the storage unit to the air or groundwater.

Although the effects of impurities in the CO₂ stream on the storage capacity and the integrity of the storage site and wells due to geochemical effects on reservoir and caprock begin to be theoretically understood, there is still need for experimental verification, particularly focussed on site-specific areas. These effects represent risks to storage and need to be better studied and understood.

Geology varies and no two storage sites will be exactly the same, thus CO₂ storage risks are highly site-specific. However, there are many general issues where RD&D is needed to reduce the perceived risks of CO₂ storage and to reduce costs, including risk management.

Elements of risk management where continued and intensified RD&D is needed include:

- Development of methods and protocols for the characterization of the proposed CO₂ storage site that will convince the regulatory agency and the public that storage is secure and safe.
- Development of a unified approach to estimating CO₂ storage capacity.
- Development, validation and commercialization of monitoring methods and tools that are tested and validated for the respective site conditions.
- Improvement of the understanding and modelling of fundamental reservoir and overburden processes, including hydrodynamic, thermal, mechanical and chemical processes.
- Development of good well and reservoir technologies and management procedures.
- Development of tested and verified mitigation measures.
- Identification of where CO₂ storage conflicts with/impacts on other uses and/or resource extraction and inclusion in resource management plans.
- Improvement of understanding and verification of the effects of impurities in the CO₂ stream on all aspects of CO₂ storage.
- Acquisition experience with closure and post-closure procedures for CO₂ storage projects (currently totally lacking).

All these topics require sufficient access to CO₂ storage sites of varying sizes for testing and verification *in situ* and acquisition of data to verify all sorts of models (flow, geomechanical, geochemical etc).

Other issues that need RD&D are:

- Development of a uniform, internationally accepted methodology to estimate CO₂ storage capacity at various scales.
- Proving safe and economic CO₂ storage in alternative geological media such as basalts, serpentine-/olivine-rich rocks and organic-rich shale.

In addition, although not a general RD&D activity but rather a site-specific one, RD&D is needed in:

- Characterizing CO₂ storage sites – this needs to begin as early as possible in any CCS project. There is no shortcut to site characterization.

4.3.1. Recommendation 4: Large-Scale CO₂ Storage

Towards 2020:

- Demonstrate CO₂ storage in a wide range of sizes and geological settings, including deep saline formations, depleted oil and gas fields and producing oil and gas fields (EOR and EGR) around the world.
- Improve the understanding of the effects of impurities in the CO₂ stream, including their phase behaviour, on the capacity and integrity of the CO₂ storage site, with emphasis on well facilities.

Towards 2030:

- Qualify CO₂ storage sites for safe and long-term storage in the scale of tens of millions of tonnes of CO₂ annually per storage site from clusters of CO₂ transport systems.

Towards 2050:

- Have stored over 120 GtCO₂ in geological storage sites around the world.

4.3.2. Recommendation 5: Monitoring and Mitigation/Remediation

Towards 2020:

- Further testing, validation and commercialization of monitoring technologies in large-scale CO₂ storage projects, onshore and offshore, to prove that monitoring works and leaks can be prevented or detected, and to make monitoring cost-efficient.
- Develop mitigation and remediation methods for leakage, including well leakage, and test in small-scale, controlled settings.
- Validate mitigation technologies on a large scale, including well leakage.
- Demonstrate safe and long-term CO₂ storage.

Towards 2030:

- Develop a complete set of monitoring and mitigation technologies to commercial availability.

4.3.3 Recommendation 6: Understanding the Storage Reservoirs

Towards 2020:

- Further advance the simulation tools.
- Develop and agree on consistent methods for determining CO₂ storage capacity reserves at various scales (as opposed to storage resources) and global distribution of this capacity (important for policy makers).

4.4. Infrastructure and the Integrated CCS Chain

Building the infrastructure needed to handle large volumes of CO₂ requires that one moves on from the studies and projects mentioned in Section 3.5. Some of the needed technology activities are mentioned above, such as the integration of a CO₂ capture system with the power or processing plant and understanding the scale-up risks.

Other RD&D needs include:

- Designing a CO₂ transport system that involves pipelines, solutions for intermediate CO₂ storage and seaborne or land transport (hub and spokes).
- Developing systems that collect CO₂ from multiple sources and distribute it to multiple sinks.
- Characterizing and selecting qualified CO₂ storage sites, which have a long lead-time and may be project limiting. Several sites must be characterized, as a given site will not be able to receive a constant flow of CO₂ over time and flexibility with respect to site must be secured.
- Safety and environmental risk assessments for the whole chain, including life-cycle analysis (LCA).

In addition to these technology challenges, there are non-technical risks that include the cooperation of different industries across the CCS value-chain, the lack of project-on-project confidence, the completion of projects on cost and on schedule, operational availability and reliability, financing and political aspects. These risks are outside the scope of the CSLF TRM 2013.

4.4.1. Recommendation 7: Infrastructure

Towards 2020:

- Design large-scale CO₂ transport networks that integrate capture, transport and storage, including matching of sources and sinks, particularly in non-OECD countries.
- Map the competing demands for steel and pipes and secure the manufacturing capacity for the required pipe volumes and other transport items.
- Develop systems for metering and monitoring CO₂ from different sources with varying purity and composition that feed into a common collection and distribution system.
- Start the identification, characterization and qualification of CO₂ storage sites for the large-scale systems.

Towards 2030:

- Implement large-scale CO₂ transport networks that integrate CO₂ capture, transport and storage, including matching of sources and sinks, particularly in non-OECD countries.

4.5. Utilization

There are technical and policy reasons to further examine the technical challenges of the utilization of CO₂. The recent reviews of utilization by CSLF (2012, 2013), GCCSI (2011) and Styring (2011) all point to several possible topics requiring RD&D, including:

- Improving the understanding of how to increase and prove the permanent storage of CO₂ in CO₂-EOR operations. A recent CSLF Task Force Report (Bachu et al., 2013) points out the similarities and differences between CO₂-EOR and CO₂ injected for storage. One conclusion from this report is that there are no technical challenges per se in converting CO₂-EOR operations to CCS, although issues like availability of high quality CO₂ at an economic cost, infrastructure for transporting CO₂ to oil fields; and legal, regulatory and long-term liability must be addressed.
- Improving the understanding of how to increase and prove the permanent storage of CO₂ in EGR, ECBM, EGHR, enhanced shale gas recovery and other geological applications of CO₂.
- Developing and applying carbonation approaches (i.e. for the production of secondary construction materials).
- Developing large-scale, algae-based production of fuels.
- Improving and extending the utilization of CO₂ in greenhouses, urea production and other reuse options.

CO₂-EOR has the largest potential of the various CO₂ utilization options described previously, and has not been sufficiently explored to date as a long-term CO₂ storage option. So far only the CO₂-EOR

Weyburn-Midale project in Canada has performed extensive monitoring and verification of CO₂ stored in EOR operations.

4.5.1. Recommendation 8: CO₂ Utilization

Towards 2020:

- Resolve technical challenges for the transition from CO₂-EOR operations to CO₂ storage operations.
- Establish methods and standards that will increase and prove the permanent storage of CO₂ in EGR, ECBM, EGHR and other geological applications if CO₂ injection becomes more prevalent in these applications.
- Research, evaluate and demonstrate carbonation approaches, in particular for mining residue carbonation and concrete curing, but also other carbonate mineralization that may lead to useful products (e.g. secondary construction materials), including environmental barriers such as the consequences of large mining operations and the disposal of carbonates.
- Map opportunities, conduct technology readiness assessments and resolve main barriers for the implementation of the CO₂ utilization family of technologies including life-cycle assessments and CO₂ and energy balances.
- Increase the understanding of CO₂ energy balances for each potential CO₂ re-use pathways and the energy requirement of each technology using technological modelling.
- Address policy and regulatory issues related to CO₂ utilization, particularly in enhanced hydrocarbon recovery.

5. Priority Actions Recommended for Implementation by Policy Makers

Towards 2020 nations should work together to:

- Maintain and increase commitment to CCS as a viable GHG mitigation option, building upon the global progress to date.
- Establish international networks of laboratories (like the European Carbon Dioxide Capture and Storage Laboratory Infrastructure, ECCSEL) and test centres, as well as comprehensive RD&D programmes to:
 - verify and qualify 1st generation CO₂ capture technologies;
 - continue development of 2nd and 3rd generation CO₂ capture technologies; and
 - share knowledge and experience.
- Implement large-scale demonstration projects in power generation in a sufficient number to gain experience with 1st generation CO₂ capture technologies and their integration into the power plant;
- Encourage and support the first demonstration plants for CO₂ capture in other industries than the power sector and gas processing and reforming, particularly in the cement and iron and steel industries.
- Develop common specifications for impurities in the CO₂ stream for the transport and storage of CO₂
- Establish R&D programmes and international collaborations that facilitate the demonstration and qualification of CO₂ storage sites.
- Develop internationally agreed common standards or best practices for establishing CO₂ storage capacity in geological formations.
- Develop sizeable pilot-scale projects for CO₂ storage that can provide greater understanding of the storage medium, establish networks of such projects to share the knowledge and experience for various geological and environmental settings, jurisdictions and regions of the world, including monitoring programmes.

2013 CSLF Technology Roadmap

- Develop common standards or best practices for the screening, qualification and selection of CO₂ storage sites in order to reduce lead-time and have the sites ready for permitting between 2020 and 2025, including CO₂-enhanced oil recovery (CO₂-EOR) sites.
- Design large-scale, regional CO₂ transport networks and infrastructure that integrate CO₂ capture from power generation as well as other industries, CO₂ transport and storage, with due consideration to:
 - competition with other resources and access;
 - matching of sources and sinks, particularly in non-OECD countries;
 - competing demands for steel and pipes and securing the necessary manufacturing capacity; and
 - lead-times for qualification and permitting of CO₂ storage sites and planning and approval of pipeline routes.
- Conduct regional (nationally as well as internationally) impact assessments of large-scale CCS implementation as part of an energy mix with renewables and fossil fuels.
- Map regional opportunities for CO₂ utilization and start implementing projects.
- Continue R&D and small-scale testing of promising non-EOR CO₂ utilization options.
- Address the different priorities, technical developments and needs of developed and developing countries.

Towards 2030 nations should work together to:

- Move 2nd generation CO₂ capture technologies for power generation and industrial applications through demonstration and commercialisation. Compared to 1st generation technologies possible targets for 2nd generation capture technology for power generation and industrial applications are a 30% reduction of each of the following: the energy penalty, normalized capital cost, and normalized operational and maintenance (O&M) costs (fixed and non-fuel variable costs) compared to 1st generation technologies.
- Implement large-scale regional CO₂ transport networks and infrastructure, nationally as well as internationally.
- Demonstrate safe, large-scale CO₂ storage and monitoring
- Qualify regional, and potentially cross-border, clusters of CO₂ storage sites with sufficient capacity.
- Ensure sufficient resource capacity for a large-scale CCS industry.
- Scale-up and demonstrate non-EOR CO₂ utilization options.

Towards 2050 nations should work together to:

- Develop and progress to commercialisation 3rd generation CO₂ capture technologies with energy penalties and avoidance costs well below that of 1st generation technologies. Possible targets for 3rd generation capture technology for power generation and industrial applications are a 50% reduction from 1st generation levels of each of the following: the energy penalty, capital cost, and O&M costs (fixed and non-fuel variable costs) compared to first generation technologies.

6. Summary and Follow-Up Plans

Since the last full update of the CSLF TRM in 2010, there have been advances and positive developments in CCS, although at a lower rate than is necessary to achieve earlier objectives. R&D of CO₂ capture technologies progresses, new Large-Scale Integrated Projects (LSIPs) are under construction or have been decided, legislation has been put in place in many OECD-countries and several nations have mapped potential CO₂ storage sites and their capacities. An important next step will be to develop projects that expand the range of CO₂ capture technologies for power and industrial plants to demonstration at a large scale. This will provide much-needed experience at a

scale approaching or matching commercial scale and the integration of capture technologies with the rest of the plant, paving the way for subsequent cost reductions. There is also a need to get experience from a wider range of CO₂ transport means, as well as of CO₂ of different qualities. Furthermore, there are only a limited number of large-scale CO₂ storage projects, and experience is needed from a large number of geological settings and monitoring schemes under commercial conditions.

A rapid increase of the demonstration of all the 'links' in the CCS 'chain', in power generation and industrial plants, as well as continued and comprehensive RD&D will be essential to reach, e.g., the '2DS' emission target. The CSLF will need to monitor progress in light of the Priority Actions suggested above, report the findings at the Ministerial meetings and suggest adjustments and updates of the TRM. The CSLF can then be a platform for an international coordinated effort to commercialize CCS technology.

Several bodies monitor the progress of CCS nationally and internationally, the most prominent probably being the Global CCS Institute through its annual Global Status of CCS reports. However, the CSLF will need to have these status reports condensed in order to advise Ministerial meetings in a concise and consistent way. To this end, it is recommended that the CSLF will, through its Projects Interaction and Review Team (PIRT), monitor the progress in CCS in relation to the Recommended Priority Actions.

Through the CSLF Secretariat, the PIRT will:

- solicit input with respect to progress of CCS from all members of the CSLF;
- gather information from a wide range of sources on the global progress of CCS;
- prepare a simple reporting template that relates the progress of the Priority Actions;
- report annually to the CSLF TG; and
- report biennially, or as required, to the CSLF Ministerial Meetings.

The PIRT should be given the responsibility to prepare plans for and be responsible for future updates of the CSLF TRM.

Acknowledgements

This TRM was prepared for the CSLF TG by the Research Council of Norway (RCN). Trygve Riis, Chair of the CSLF TG, provided invaluable leadership and inspiration throughout the project. The other members of the CSLF Steering Committee, Mark Ackiewicz, Richard Aldous, Stefan Bachu, Clinton Foster and Tony Surridge, as well as the CSLF Secretariat, represented by Richard Lynch and John Panek, contributed with significant input and support. Colleagues at RCN, Åse Slagtern and Aage Stangeland, have provided important comments and suggestions. A strong project team at SINTEF, led by Øyvind Langørgen, produced a very valuable background document and commented on a number of draft versions of this TRM. Several TG delegates took the time and effort to supply corrections and suggestions for improvement. Finally, the lead author, Lars Ingolf Eide, RCN, wants to thank the IEA Carbon Capture and Storage Unit, and in particular Ellina Levina, for the opportunity to coordinate the TRMs on CCS that were prepared more or less in parallel by the IEA and the CSLF.

Abbreviations and Acronyms

2DS	IEA ETP 2012 2°C scenario
ACTL	Alberta Carbon Trunk Line
APGTF	Advanced Power Generation Technology Forum (UK)
ASU	air separation unit
BECCS	bio-energy with carbon capture and storage
CCS	carbon capture and storage
CO ₂ -EOR	enhanced oil recovery using CO ₂
CSLF	Carbon Sequestration Leadership Forum
CSA	Canadian Standards Association
CSU	CO ₂ purification unit
DECC	Department of Energy and Climate Change (United Kingdom)
DOE	Department of Energy (USA)
DSF	deep saline formation
EC	European Commission
ECBM	enhanced coal bed methane recovery
ECCSEL	European Carbon Dioxide Capture and Storage Laboratory Infrastructure
EGHR	enhanced gas hydrate recovery
EGR	enhanced gas recovery
EOR	enhanced oil recovery
ETP	Energy Technology Perspectives (of the IEA)
EU	European Union
GCCSI	Global CCS Institute
HS&E	health, safety and environmental
IEA	International Energy Agency
IEAGHG	IEA Greenhouse Gas Research and Development Programme
IGCC	integrated gasification combined cycle
InSAR	interferometric synthetic aperture radar
ISO	International Organization for Standardization
LCA	life-cycle assessment
LSIP	large-scale integrated project
NCCCS	Nottingham Centre for Carbon Capture and Storage
NETL	National Energy Technology Laboratory (USA)
O&M	operation and maintenance
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
OSPAR	Oslo and Paris Conventions
RD&D	research, development and demonstration
ROAD	Rotterdam Opslag en Afvang Demonstratieproject (Rotterdam Capture and Storage Demonstration Project)
TG	Technical Group (of the CSLF)
TRM	Technology Roadmap
WEO	World Energy Outlook (of the IEA)
UK	United Kingdom
ULCOS	Ultra-low CO ₂ Steelmaking consortium
USA	United States of America
ZEP	European Technology Platform for Zero Emission Fossil Fuel Power Plants

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