



THE UNIVERSITY *of* EDINBURGH

Edinburgh Research Explorer

Last chance for carbon capture and storage

Citation for published version:

Scott, V, Gilfillan, S, Markusson, N, Chalmers, H & Haszeldine, S 2013, 'Last chance for carbon capture and storage' Nature Climate Change, vol 3, pp. 105-111. DOI: 10.1038/nclimate1695

Digital Object Identifier (DOI):

[10.1038/nclimate1695](https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate1695)

Link:

[Link to publication record in Edinburgh Research Explorer](#)

Document Version:

Peer reviewed version

Published In:

Nature Climate Change

Publisher Rights Statement:

The final version of this work was published in Nature Climate Change of the Nature Publishing Group (2013)

General rights

Copyright for the publications made accessible via the Edinburgh Research Explorer is retained by the author(s) and / or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing these publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

Take down policy

The University of Edinburgh has made every reasonable effort to ensure that Edinburgh Research Explorer content complies with UK legislation. If you believe that the public display of this file breaches copyright please contact openaccess@ed.ac.uk providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.



This is the author final draft or 'post-print' version made available through Edinburgh Research Explorer. The final version was published in Nature Climate Change copyright of the Nature Publishing Group (2013) and is available online.

Cite As: Scott, V, Gilfillan, S, Markusson, N, Chalmers, H & Haszeldine, S 2013, 'Last chance for carbon capture and storage' *Nature Climate Change*, vol 3, pp. 105-111.

DOI: 10.1038/nclimate1695

Last chance for Carbon Capture and Storage

Vivian Scott*, Stuart Gilfillan, Nils Markusson, Hannah Chalmers and R. Stuart Haszeldine

Scottish Carbon Capture and Storage, School of GeoSciences, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK

* Corresponding author: vivian.scott@ed.ac.uk

ABSTRACT:

Anthropogenic energy-related CO₂ emissions are higher than ever. With new fossil fuel power plants, growing energy-intensive industries and new sources of fossil fuels in development further emissions increase seems inevitable. The rapid application of carbon capture and storage (CCS) is a much heralded means to tackle emissions from both existing and future sources. However, despite extensive and successful research and development, progress in deploying CCS has stalled. No fossil fuel burning power plants, the greatest source of CO₂ emissions, are currently using CCS, and publicly supported CCS demonstration programmes are struggling to deliver actual projects. Yet, CCS remains a core component of national and global emissions reduction scenarios. Governments have to either increase commitment to CCS through much more active market support and emissions regulation, or accept its failure and recognise that continued expansion of fossil fuel burning energy capacity is a severe threat to attaining climate change mitigation objectives.

Introduction:

Burning fossil fuels is expected to remain the dominant source of energy for decades to come¹ (Fig. 1). Capturing and isolating the CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion could help prevent the rise of atmospheric CO₂ concentrations. As a result, carbon capture and storage (CCS), the selective capture and long-term geological storage of CO₂ from fossil fuelled power plants and large industrial sources is a much heralded and major component of many national and global emission reduction scenarios. For example, the International Energy Agency (IEA) Blue Map scenario² envisages a 19% CO₂ reductions contribution from CCS by 2050. This suggests a need for the construction of hundreds of CCS operations worldwide in the 2020s, rising to thousands in the 2030s and beyond, capturing, transporting and storing over 8Gt of CO₂ per year by 2050 – double the mass of current global annual oil consumption³. To date, the viability of CCS to deliver on anything approaching this scale remains unproven – confirmation or otherwise is essential to inform climate mitigation strategy and to have any hope of limiting atmospheric CO₂ levels to 450ppm⁴.

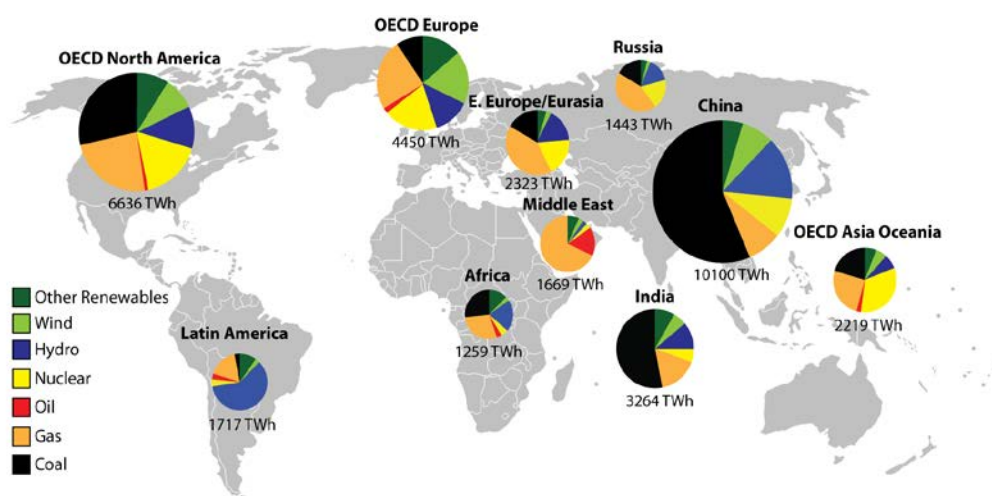


Fig. 1: Projected global electricity sources in 2035. Fossil fuels continue to dominate in many developed and developing economies. CCS is the only technology currently proposed that could enable emissions mitigation with continued fossil fuel use. Data from IEA World Energy Outlook 2011 New Policies Scenario¹.

The IEA World Energy Outlook 2011¹ forecasts that existing energy facilities will account for four-fifths of the available energy-related emissions budget to 2035 without exceeding 450 ppm atmospheric CO₂ concentration. Without further action the remaining fifth will be built by 2017 (Fig. 1). This predicament presents clear challenges for CCS. Is it technically feasible? If so, how can it be made to deliver? To answer these, we examine the status, prospects and challenges facing CO₂ capture, transport and storage processes, assess current CCS activity and explore necessary actions to enable its effective deployment.

CCS is not perfect but is technically feasible with existing technologies. Current capture processes can remove 85-95% of the CO₂ contained in the waste gases produced by a power plant or industrial process. The capture, transport and storage processes all require energy, so additional fuel needs to be extracted, transported and burnt to produce the same saleable output of electricity or product⁵. However, no alternative yet exists for mitigating emissions from the continued use of fossil fuels for electricity generation, or from high CO₂ emitting industry e.g. steel, cement and fertiliser production.

Capturing CO₂

Industrial scale capture of CO₂ from power plant and other large sources presents a complex technical challenge but is achievable now. Pilot (up to 1/10th scale) testing and development

integrated with commercial sources has proven successful, and major industrial technology vendors are confident in their ability to deliver commercial scale CO₂ capture facilities on power plant, generating low-carbon electricity at a levelised cost comparable to that from renewables and nuclear⁶. CO₂ capture typically takes one of three different approaches: post-combustion - CO₂ removal following normal combustion; pre-combustion - CO₂ removal prior to combustion (e.g. following gasification of solid fuel); and oxyfuel - altering the combustion constituents to produce a highly concentrated CO₂ waste gas. As the single largest source of anthropogenic CO₂, the deployment of CCS on coal power plants is an immediate priority. For coal, there is as yet no clear winner among the close-to-commercial CO₂ capture approaches. Large scale coal power CCS demonstration experience is critical to comparing the merits of the different methods for new coal-burning plant, whereas post-combustion is the simplest approach for retrofitting existing plants.

Continued construction of new fossil generation capacity worldwide requires the development and delivery of retrofit CO₂ capture options. Retrofitting CCS to existing plant presents considerable, though by no means insurmountable, technical challenges. A recent study commissioned for IEAGHG⁷ explored potential approaches to allowing at least some beneficial integration between power plants and retrofitted capture facilities. Measures to encourage easier (and cheaper) subsequent CO₂ capture integration in newly built unabated power plants at relatively marginal upfront cost (typically expected to be no more than around 1% of total capital cost of the plant) - 'capture readiness' - are now included in some jurisdictions (e.g. the EU). The effectiveness of these requirements will depend on how stringently they are implemented and enforced^{8,9}.

Increasing natural gas availability and affordability resulting from the development of unconventional gas extraction (shale gas) has strengthened the need to demonstrate and deliver CO₂ capture on gas. Fuel switching from coal to gas generation can deliver significant and rapid emissions reductions, but gas is still a high CO₂ emitting fuel and the longer-run aim for energy de-carbonisation requires CCS application to both coal and gas. A growing body of work indicates gas with CCS may prove both economically comparable and technically (the impact on overall generation efficiency) advantageous over coal with CCS especially if assessed by cost per unit low carbon electricity (instead of the common but arguably less relevant metric of cost per unit CO₂ abated)¹⁰⁻¹². Post-combustion capture is currently favoured for CCS on gas power plants. The lower flue gas CO₂ concentration makes separation more challenging, but once captured the CO₂ volumes needing transportation and storage per unit electricity produced are around half those of coal. Oxy-combustion options for gas are under development but require significantly more effort to reach commercial viability. Pre-combustion of natural gas is technically feasible but is considered unattractive as there are few advantages in transforming one gaseous fuel to another. With hindsight, CCS demonstration programmes and associated research underway in the developed world are perhaps overly targeted on coal power. The research (and related industry) community needs to also consider how CO₂ capture experience gained on coal could be best adapted to gas.

As a relatively immature technology, considerable opportunity exists to increase capture efficiency and reduce costs¹³. One key challenge is to balance exploration of relatively high risk options that might offer step-change advances, with the development of incremental improvements to established technologies that can more rapidly be applied. For technologies available or close to commercial deployment, details associated with realistic operating environments need to be addressed. In electricity networks with significant renewable generation capacity, flexibility from any fossil-fired power plant with CO₂ capture will be crucial to achieving a reliable low-carbon electricity supply¹⁴. While well acknowledged, capture flexibility has received inadequate attention until recently and is a priority both in terms of delivering low-carbon energy, and in providing investor confidence in the long term viability of CCS in markets where future base-load requirement is uncertain. Lastly, given the increasing

likelihood of CO₂ emissions reduction targets being breached, the CO₂ capture community should also look to developing scientifically robust 'carbon negative' (see Box 1) solutions that might be required to stabilise or reduce atmospheric levels of CO₂.

CO₂ transport

Onshore, CO₂ pipeline technology is well established with thousands of miles of pipeline supplying enhanced oil recovery (EOR) operations in the southern US. Offshore, a small amount of CO₂ pipeline is also in operation. Further research is underway into many aspects including corrosive process prevention – establishing standards for water and other trace chemical content that might result from different source and capture varieties, mechanisms to prevent catastrophic pipeline failure resulting from Joule-Thompson cooling, and understanding CO₂ dispersion in the event of leakage. But knowledge is sufficient to proceed with projects, which will in turn provide invaluable operational experience.

CO₂ shipping, building on experience with Liquefied Natural Gas (LNG), can be used to fill specific niches. Small CO₂ volumes can be shipped at relatively low cost which could prove valuable in early offshore storage development, enabling flexibility and cost-efficient testing of offshore storage sites. Longer term, shipping may remain cost-effective for very long distance transport especially from isolated sources.

The main challenge for CCS transport infrastructure is planning and coordination. Geographical locations of CO₂ sources and possible storage sites rarely match. Any significant degree of CCS deployment will likely require considerable transport infrastructure with large scale shared networks, e.g. across Western Europe to storage in the North Sea, offering considerable cost-savings over individual developments¹⁵. While logical, developing large CO₂ transport networks presents a classic chicken and egg problem. An existing transport infrastructure, adapted for the connection of new sources and sinks, through for example the over-sizing of pipes, would make deployment of CCS easier, cheaper and thus potentially faster. But, the rewards for investing in such infrastructure can only be reaped in the future after substantial CCS deployment has taken place.

Long-term storage of CO₂

Ultimately, the success of CCS depends on the safe and secure long-term storage of CO₂. Geological storage, where CO₂ is injected into a deep subsurface storage site has emerged as the preferred option. CO₂ has been injected into the subsurface since the 1970s to increase oil production via CO₂-enhanced oil recovery (EOR). While EOR operations currently inject millions of tonnes of CO₂/yr, for CCS to seriously impact on CO₂ emissions the amount injected must increase by orders of magnitude. This requires a fundamental problem to be overcome – the subsurface does not contain any empty space. Injection of CO₂ into either depleted hydrocarbon fields or saline formations will raise the formation pressure causing either displacement or compression of the existing formation fluids.

In a depleted oil or gas field the pressure can be raised to be close to the initial discovery pressure of the field without any detrimental effects on cap rock integrity¹⁶. However, if a depleted oil field has undergone water injection for secondary oil recovery, water will now partially fill the spaces that previously contained oil, maintaining a high reservoir pressure and limiting injection capacity¹⁷, although producing extra oil via EOR can partially overcome this issue.

Saline formations (also known as saline aquifers) offer much larger CO₂ storage potential. Early research suggested that these had the capacity to store hundreds of years of CO₂ emissions⁵. These original estimates have now been downgraded, as they did not accurately take into account the fluid pressure increase which would result from the injected CO₂^{18,19}. For storage security it is essential that the fluid pressure in a saline formation is not significantly raised to

ensure that faults and fractures are not created or reactivated. The increase in fluid pressure is due to two issues. Firstly, a local overpressure effect around the CO₂ injection wells, as a result of high CO₂ velocities created by injection. Increasing the number of injection wells and spacing them appropriately can control this albeit at additional expense¹⁸. Secondly, regional pressure build up from the inefficient displacement of water by the injected CO₂, meaning that the volume of water being displaced is not enough to compensate for the volume of CO₂ injected¹⁶. This cannot be reduced by increasing the number of injection wells and is the key limiting factor in the storage capacity of a given saline formation.

Pressure dissipation in saline formations has recently been hotly debated²⁰⁻²². The debate focuses on whether the pressure induced by CO₂ injection can dissipate laterally, termed an 'open formation', or cannot, a 'closed formation'. As a closed formation will not permit pressure dissipation, CO₂ injection will cause pressure build up, low injectivity, brine displacement and possible CO₂ leakage. In reality natural saline formations are somewhere in the middle of these two scenarios and are 'semi-closed' with respect to single phase flow^{23,24}. This is due to the inherent flow characteristics of the sealing rocks surrounding the formation. For pressure dissipation this includes not just the top seal as conventionally considered, but also side seals and base seal. Rigorous modelling work has shown that there is a range of seal permeabilities which can retain CO₂ and yet transmit pressure to relieve injectivity¹⁹. In the event that pressure build up becomes an issue, it is possible to produce (extract) water from the formation, alleviating pressure build up and creating additional volume into which CO₂ can be injected. Water production is routine in the hydrocarbon industry, with an average of three times more water than oil being produced on a daily basis²⁵.

There are currently three projects injecting in the region of 1Mt CO₂/year apiece into saline formations. Snøhvit (Norway) experienced a significant pressure build up early in the injection phase, but this was remediated by re-perforating the well at a slightly shallower depth, allowing access to a portion of the saline formation with better injectivity²⁶. No such pressure build up problems have been experienced in the In Salah (Algeria) and Utsira (Norway) saline formations, despite a four order of magnitude difference in the injectivity between the formations²⁷. Future injection rates will have to be an order of magnitude larger again and the response of a saline formation to such a large quantity of CO₂ is difficult to simulate. As indicated by the initial injection issues experienced at Snøhvit, the only certain means to identify how a particular formation will respond to dynamic injection of CO₂ is to actually inject CO₂ into it. Evaluation of the response of a formation could be achieved through the test injection of a small amount of CO₂ allowing injectivity issues to be identified before large scale injection begins.

In order to get the greatest learning benefit from early projects, captured CO₂ should both be stored in the best available sites to establish confidence, and also (in smaller quantities) be strategically used to test potential future storage reservoirs. Adopting a phased approach, using a secure closed structure such as a depleted gas field within a saline aquifer for initial storage, would allow CO₂ to be easily injected into the aquifer adjacent to the gas field enabling accurate pressure responses and injectivity to be determined to inform about suitability for further CO₂ storage²⁸. All potential storage sites are to some extent unique. While it is possible to transfer experience from one site to another, there will always be uncertainty that can only be addressed by actually injecting CO₂. Specific injection and monitoring strategies have to be devised for each site but this should not prevent CO₂ storage taking place. At present there are some 30 different CO₂ storage pilot projects operating globally, all of which are successfully injecting CO₂ and demonstrating that it can be traced and accurately monitored. Without doubt, secure storage verification and monitoring remain an area of development and we do not yet have all of the answers, but we do know enough to get started.

Integrating CCS

Integrating CCS components is a challenge in terms of both technical design, and managing the diverse expertise and expectations from the wide range of disciplines and industries involved²⁹. Technical issues include agreeing standards for the CO₂ – pressure, temperature, impurities – as it passes between different components, and managing flexible operation and intermittent flow across the system. System integration has been achieved at pilot scale, but commercial-scale CCS demonstration is crucial to understanding and developing effective large-scale system integration.

Delivering CCS

Four large scale CCS projects are currently in operation – three on facilities scrubbing CO₂ from extracted natural gas, and one storing CO₂ produced from coal gasification. Additionally, a number of natural gas processing operations in the US sell CO₂ for EOR use. In all these cases, the technical novelty and additional expense lies principally in the compression, transport, injection and monitoring of the CO₂ in place of venting it into the atmosphere. In contrast to power plant or energy-intensive industry, the CO₂ capture and its energy requirement and costs are essentially integral to the overall production process, making such projects relatively low hanging fruit in terms of complexity and cost.

However, while these projects capture and store significant volumes of CO₂, they are far from carbon neutral. The products remain high carbon fuels that are subsequently burnt without abatement. We recommend the division of CCS projects into three classes in terms of their overall CO₂ emissions reduction³⁰ – carbon positive (7 projects existing – including EOR storing projects, 5 in construction, 29 in planning – delivery uncertain), near carbon neutral (26 projects in planning – delivery uncertain), and carbon negative (largely speculative)³¹ – see Box 1. This is not to say that carbon positive projects should not be encouraged. They remain beneficial as compared to no abatement, and offer the opportunity to establish CO₂ transport and storage infrastructure relatively cheaply and with relatively minimal policy support.

Box 1: Classes of CCS project

Class 1: ‘carbon positive’ projects where a significant proportion of the carbon in the fuel will still be released to the atmosphere as CO₂. This is because the commercial product still contains significant amounts of carbon which is released when the products are combusted (e.g. natural gas processing, refineries, coal-to-liquids). Projects storing CO₂ as part of enhanced oil recovery (EOR) operations resulting in increased oil production may (or may not) be carbon positive depending on project specifics.

Class 2: ‘near carbon neutral’ projects where the vast majority of the carbon in the fuel is converted to CO₂ that is captured and stored, producing a commercial product which contains no combustible carbon (e.g. electricity, hydrogen, heat).

Class 3: ‘carbon negative’ projects where there is a net reduction of cumulative CO₂ in the atmosphere. This could be achieved by direct removal of CO₂ from the air or by applying CCS to the combustion of biomass to produce electricity (using similar technology to that used for CO₂ capture from coal and gas combustion), so that CO₂ removed from the atmosphere by the biomass growth is not released when it is combusted and more CO₂ is fixed as replacement biomass is grown.

All currently operating large scale CCS projects are class 1, proposed CCS demonstration projects (see main text) are predominantly class 2, and class 3 remains largely speculative at this stage.

Efforts to establish CCS on fossil power plant and industry (Class 2 candidates) are focussed around publicly supported CCS demonstration programmes. Intended to accelerate development by making up the capital funding difference between actual project cost and commercially viable cost, a global total of between US \$ 14 and 20 billion is currently (2012) available to support first

generation large scale CCS demonstration projects³². Funding CCS demonstration programmes has inevitably resulted in debate over the relative merits or otherwise of CCS in climate mitigation. Their primary role is to inform this debate by establishing evidence in three key areas. First, cost-discovery for fully integrated CCS technology at commercial scale and operation; second, by enabling wider exploration of storage viability and availability; third, by testing the stakeholder (government, industry and publics) acceptability of CCS at scale.

At first glance, CCS demonstration programmes and associated research and development activities seem encouraging. In addition to operating commercial projects, sixty-five large scale projects (the vast majority on coal fired power plants) are in some stage of development³¹. Numerous smaller scale pilot projects have successfully tested capture technologies. Storage assessments and some limited testing have identified appropriate storage locations, and regulatory frameworks to permit CO₂ storage are being enacted. However, despite half of the total available funding for CCS demonstration being at least provisionally allocated to projects, actual delivery is, at best, worryingly slow and is falling far short of that required to significantly cut CO₂ emissions in the near future (Fig 2).

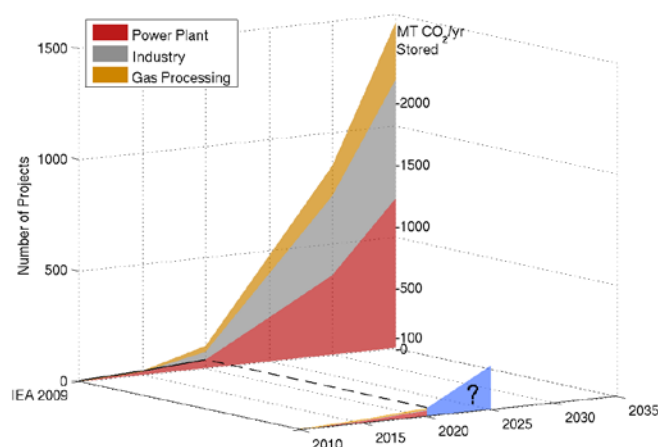


Fig. 2: The IEA 2009 BLUE Map scenario (back) presented an ambitious pathway for CCS deployment contributing to stabilising atmospheric CO₂ concentration at 450ppm². CCS demonstration programmes are suffering delays and setbacks reducing project numbers and pushing delivery for many projects back to 2016-17 and beyond, suggesting that at best by 2020 only half the number of projects envisaged in the BLUE Map might happen (front). Subsequent deployment remains highly uncertain. Data compiled from SCCS global CCS project map³¹.

Only two of forty-one currently proposed power plant (class 2) CCS demonstration projects – Kemper County (Mississippi, USA) and Boundary Dam (Saskatchewan, Canada) – are commencing construction. Both have received considerable public capital expenditure funding and tax breaks (around \$700 million apiece), and both will sell captured CO₂ for use in EOR. Worse, well funded and technically advanced flagship projects, e.g. AEP’s Mountaineer (West Virginia, USA), ZeroGen (Queensland, Australia) and Scottish Power’s Longannet (Fife, UK) have been cancelled, and with considerable delays the future of many others is in serious doubt. A degree of attrition is inevitable for any innovative technology, but progress is both much slower than international ambition: ‘to launch 20 CCS projects on power and industry by 2010’ (G8 2008)³³, and inadequate to properly and timely inform policy options.

Making CCS happen

Ultimately progress with CCS hinges on the political will to make it happen, and CCS is facing the challenge of going from talk to action. The on-going global financial crisis is severely constraining both public and private appetite for major investment at a critical moment. Further, with

influential countries and industries (motivated by perceptions of the cost and complexity of climate mitigation) working against progress with climate policy, the will to act on CCS is faltering. It may even be that such actors are keen to talk about CCS to avoid acting on climate policy – the governments expressing the most enthusiasm for CCS are not necessarily the same actors that have the highest ambitions regarding carbon mitigation³⁴⁻³⁶. Assuming there will be a political will to act, there are key policy measures that need to be adopted.

(i) Real incentives required

In the absence of stringent CO₂ emissions regulation (via a high carbon price or otherwise), CCS for electricity generation (class 2) is a costly process with little revenue benefit. This is preventing early deployment and in turn precluding learning and possible cost reductions. Producers of CO₂ perceive little advantage in being first movers in CCS. Public funding to cover the additional capital expenditure of construction is available, but without additional revenue return for CCS-abated low-carbon electricity (or other products), the business case is weak. Technology development involves considerable commercial risk, and only where CCS offers a possible asset-management benefit (e.g. as a long term future for fossil fuel owned by a utility), or reliable revenue through the sale of the CO₂ (e.g. for EOR) can this risk perhaps be justified to, and by, investors. To date, the frameworks created by policy makers have encouraged utilities and industry to examine CCS, but not to seriously commit to investment³⁷. Alternative generation methods, or inactivity, currently have a more credible return.

This problem is well-acknowledged, but efforts to address it are limited. As part of wider electricity market reform, UK Government is including CCS as a low-carbon generation method available to receive an incentive price, but critical specifics are yet (July 2012) to be clarified. In the EU, carbon prices remain far too low and uncertain to act as an incentive, while in the US, although preferential pricing (rate-recovery) for CCS electricity remains in consideration in some states and enabled in Mississippi³⁸, others have rejected it leading to project cancellations.

Carbon pricing offers simplicity, but also uncertainty and vulnerability to external shocks – the EU Emissions Trading Scheme price has plummeted to un-envisioned levels courtesy of over-supply resulting from global recession, increased gas availability and other factors. Either carbon pricing needs significant reform to deliver a high price with long term certainty, or (and) demonstrating CCS, like early wind energy, needs to be made temptingly profitable by attractive tariffs, in the form of a price bonus or a price guarantee³⁹. All low-carbon technologies are required in order to deliver substantive climate mitigation. Ascribing to the principal of ‘let the market decide’, developed governments are reluctant to pick winners among low-carbon technologies. Properly supporting CCS demonstration is about establishing a possibility, not picking a winner.

Almost all the CO₂ that could potentially be captured and stored is currently ‘leaking’ into the atmosphere. Long-term national and regional emissions reduction targets are in place, but there is little clarity as to how they are to be achieved. Exercises to explore potential decarbonisation pathways (e.g. the EU 2050 Energy Roadmap⁴⁰) envision a significant role for CCS, but most (if not all) jurisdictions are yet to develop coherent strategies for its deployment. Yet, we continue to allow construction and operation of fossil power plant and energy intensive industry.

Assuming CCS demonstrations happen and are successful, the question then becomes what do we do next? An approach using mandated emissions reduction timetables (with or without incentives for CCS) would give utilities and industry the choice between investment in CCS or replacing their CO₂ producing capacity with other low-carbon alternatives. Alternatively, the focus could be on the carbon containing fuel. In a carbon constrained world, CCS is the long term future for the fossil fuels industry. Instead of CO₂ storage being a separate (and minor) possible part of the hydrocarbon industries’ activities it could become an integral part of the overall fossil fuel extraction business model. The price for continuing to extract and sell fossil fuels is the

proper disposal of the consequences. Such transformatory changes cannot be introduced at full force overnight, but phasing them in can begin now.

(ii) Ensure regulation does not inhibit CCS development

CO₂ storage must be appropriately regulated to protect the public, but excessive concern, given the minimal health risks⁴¹, has perhaps had a detrimental influence on some early CO₂ storage legislation. The current EU legislation places difficult technical and financial restrictions on potential storage site developers. First, 'permanent' CO₂ storage is required – a scientifically naïve requirement. Second, the potentially very onerous liability arrangements attached to stored CO₂ are inconducive to encouraging investment in early projects.

With respect to 'permanence', a rigorously scientific approach is required. Given that the purpose of CO₂ storage is to mitigate climate, arguably a 1% eventual leakage from a deep geological store is less problematic than 100% immediate leakage from the power station flue stack. Early modelling work shows that even relatively insecure CO₂ storage where a significant proportion (up to 1% per year) of the CO₂ migrates back to the atmosphere could be beneficial to at least medium-term climate mitigation efforts^{42,43}. Further determination of the relationship between long-term leakage and climate would assist in properly informing storage regulation.

Regarding liability, it remains unclear how unplanned CO₂ migration would be penalised, and what long-term arrangements would be made for the period following closure of a storage site. Storage from demonstrations must be recognised as experimental, and so if government wishes to explore CCS as an option and make investment forthcoming, it is likely to need to take a large share in the risks. Post-demonstration, the state could take over liability within 20-30 years of successful injection completion. Another approach would be to copy the US Price-Anderson Act arrangement for civil nuclear accident liability which blends mutual company-contributed insurance with commercial insurance and final state liability.

(iii) Encourage CCS in the developing world

Low-carbon technology options need to be rapidly deployed worldwide to mitigate climate change. Considerable CCS research and development activity is already underway in China – as of 2006 the largest emitter of energy-related CO₂. Impressively low capture costs (\$30-35 per tonne CO₂) have been achieved at pilot post-combustion CO₂ capture facilities⁴⁴, and numerous power plant and industry large-scale demonstration facilities exploring all the available technologies are in development, both domestically and in partnership with western technology vendors (see Fig 3). However, CCS research and development activity does not necessarily result in deployment - serious international political action on climate remains critical.

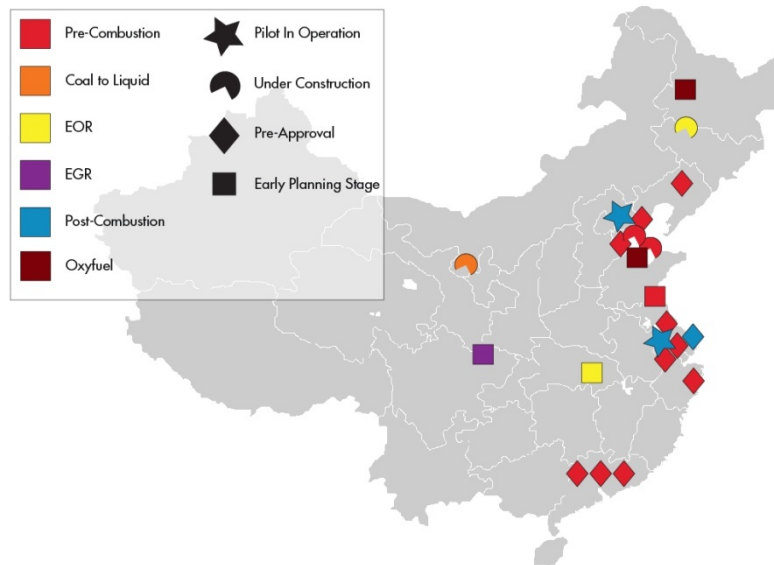


Fig. 3. CCS activity in China. Post combustion pilot capture facilities are in operation on conventional coal power plants. Some IGCC (pre-combustion capture) coal power plants are under construction and others are in the final stages of planning. Oxyfuel coal power plant, capture from industrial facilities and CO₂ EOR and saline formation storage are also in development (Source WRI⁴⁵ and SCCS CCS projects map³¹).

Enabling deployment in developing economies raises two major issues – financing and technology development support. Following many years of negotiation, CCS was formally included in the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) at the Durban 2011 UNFCCC⁴⁶. However, the key issue of long-term liability agreement was avoided by placing it at the discretion of host countries to negotiate with investors. At present, it remains unlikely that the CDM, dependent on the activity of other carbon markets, can realistically supply the finance required. Technology support raises issues around IPR⁴⁷ protection. While a balance that gives some benefit from research investment must be found, it is important to recognise that the market in CCS technology is currently essentially speculative. The overarching priority should be to coordinate and share efforts to help create and establish worldwide deployment of the technology.

Outlook

CCS currently sits at a critical point⁴⁸. The next few years will determine whether the present aspirations attached to it as a technology option for climate mitigation are achievable. The outcome of CCS demonstration remains unclear. Should they prove, in some combination, technically, financially or politically overly challenging, CCS as planned will be shown inadequate and the development of further fossil fuel derived energy capacity must be recognised as making current climate change mitigation objectives unattainable. Alternatively, CCS could prove technically possible, but on balance more costly than alternative (non-fossil fuel) technologies. Limited deployment might take place where CCS is of benefit to managing existing assets, and on industrial emissions where no alternatives exist, but its overall role would be much reduced. Lastly, CCS demonstration could prove successful both technically, in achieving reasonable cost and cost-reduction potential, and in attracting renewed political interest. Significant reductions in CO₂ emissions could then be achieved through rapid worldwide deployment, both as a retrofit to existing facilities and on new power and industrial plants.

Lessons should be learned from history. Governments have to intervene, either by providing money and direct command, or by making the rules of tax, planning, extraction, operation and emission such that de-carbonisation is guaranteed. Development and deployment of early nuclear power technology resulted from direct management by national governments through

programmes lasting multiple decades. By contrast, as a result of the introduction of stringent, ambitious regulation forcing the market to innovate and adapt, flue gas desulphurisation on coal power plant has been largely successfully implemented in participating countries^{29,49} Renewables technologies have also benefited from both legislative and public support. The current stagnation of CCS activity shows that government activity to date has been inadequate. If governments want CCS available, they have to make and sustain a major commitment that makes the market deliver.

CCS has much to offer. While eventual aspirations for a low-carbon future should rightly focus on demand reduction, renewable energy technologies and energy efficiency, it seems highly unlikely that these options can be scaled quickly enough to meet our seemingly ever-growing demand for energy. Considerable research effort and progress on all the constituent processes strongly indicates that CCS can provide an effective and rapidly deployable technology playing a major role in preventing disastrous climate change. A number of scientific challenges undoubtedly remain, and linking the research agenda with priorities in the real world is crucial, but we know enough to get started. For CCS to realise its potential in reducing CO₂ emissions it is imperative that fully integrated large scale CCS projects are delivered as soon as possible. This is essential to allow learning by doing, facilitating the possibility of rapid, widespread and effective global roll-out. To this end, the key decisions remain in the hands of government. CCS is technically deliverable, but will it be delivered before it is too late?

Acknowledgements:

We acknowledge support from Scottish Funding Council (V.S., R.S.H), UK Natural Environment Research Council (S.G.), UK Energy Research Centre (N.M.). We thank colleagues at the Scottish Carbon Capture and Storage centre www.sccs.org.uk for discussions and suggestions, and the two anonymous reviewers for their comments and advice.

Author contributions:

All authors contributed extensively to the work and text presented in this paper, with V. Scott being the lead author.

References:

- 1 International Energy Agency. *World Energy Outlook*, <<http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/>> (2011).
- 2 IEA. Technology Roadmap: Carbon capture and storage. www.iea.org (Paris, 2009).
- 3 BP. *Statistical Review of World Energy 2011*, <<http://www.bp.com/sectionbodycopy.do?categoryId=7500&contentId=7068481>> (2011).
- 4 Calvin, K. *et al.* 2.6: Limiting climate change to 450 ppm CO₂ equivalent in the 21st century. *Energy Economics* **31**, **Supplement 2**, S107-S120, doi:10.1016/j.eneco.2009.06.006 (2009).
- 5 IPCC. *IPCC Special Report on Carbon Dioxide Capture and Storage*. (Cambridge University Press, 2005).
- 6 ZEP. The costs of CO₂ Capture, Transport and Storage. (2011).
- 7 Gibbins, J. *et al.* Retrofitting CO₂ capture to existing power plants, IEAGHG Report 2011/02,. (2011).
- 8 Markusson, N. & Haszeldine, R. S. 'Capture ready' regulation of fossil fuel power plants – Betting the UK's carbon emissions on promises of future technology. *Energy Policy* **38**, 6695–6702, doi:10.1016/j.enpol.2010.06.039 (2010).

- 9 Bellona. *CCS readiness at Šoštanj: Ticking boxes or preparing for the future?*,
 <http://bellona.org/ccs/uploads/media/Ticking_boxes_or_preparing_for_the_future.pdf
 > (2011).
- 10 Rubin, E. S. & Zhai, H. The Cost of Carbon Capture and Storage for Natural Gas Combined
 Cycle Power Plants. *Environmental Science & Technology* **46**, 3076-3084,
 doi:10.1021/es204514f (2012).
- 11 NETL. Cost and Performance Baseline for Fossil Energy Plants, Volume 1: Bituminous
 Coal and Natural Gas to Electricity. (2010).
- 12 IEA Greenhouse Gas Programme. Improvement in Power Generation with Post-
 Combustion Capture of CO₂. (2004).
- 13 Usher, W. & Strachan, N. *UK MARKAL Modelling - Examining Decarbonisation Pathways
 in the 2020s on the Way to Meeting the 2050 Emissions Target - Final Report for the
 Committee on Climate Change (CCC)*,
 <[http://downloads.theccc.org.uk.s3.amazonaws.com/4th%20Budget/CCC%20MARKAL%
 20Final%20Report%20-%20UCL%20Nov10.pdf](http://downloads.theccc.org.uk.s3.amazonaws.com/4th%20Budget/CCC%20MARKAL%20Final%20Report%20-%20UCL%20Nov10.pdf)> (2010).
- 14 Chalmers, H., Gibbins, J. & Leach, M. Valuing power plant flexibility with CCS: the case of
 post-combustion capture retrofits. *Mitigation and Adaptation Strategies for Global
 Change*, 1-29.
- 15 ARUP & Scottish Carbon Capture and Storage. *Feasibility study for Europe-wide CO₂
 infrastructures*,
 <[http://www.sccs.org.uk/Arup_SCCS_Feasibility_study_for_Europe_wide_co2_infrastru
 ctures.pdf](http://www.sccs.org.uk/Arup_SCCS_Feasibility_study_for_Europe_wide_co2_infrastructures.pdf)> (2010).
- 16 Haszeldine, R. S. Carbon Capture and Storage: How Green Can Black Be? *Science* **325**,
 1647-1652 (2009).
- 17 Scottish Carbon Capture and Storage. Progressing Scotland's CO₂ Storage Opportunities.
 (2011).
- 18 Thibeau, S. & Mucha, V. Have we overestimated saline aquifer CO₂ storage capacities?
Oil & Gas Science And Technology-Revue De L Institut Francais Du Petrole **66**, 81-92,
 doi:10.2516/ogst/2011004 (2011).
- 19 Cavanagh, A. & Wildgust, N. Pressurization and brine displacement issues for deep saline
 formation CO₂ storage. *Energy Procedia* **4**, 4814-4821 (2011).
- 20 Ehlig-Economides, C. & Economides, M. J. Sequestering carbon dioxide in a closed
 underground volume. *Journal of Petroleum Science and Engineering* **70**, 123-130 (2010).
- 21 Cavanagh, A. J., Haszeldine, R. S. & Blunt, M. J. Open or closed? A discussion of the
 mistaken assumptions in the Economides pressure analysis of carbon sequestration.
Journal of Petroleum Science and Engineering **74**, 107-110,
 doi:10.1016/j.petrol.2010.08.017 (2010).
- 22 Ehlig-Economides, C. A. & Economides, M. J. Reply to: Open or closed? A discussion of
 the mistaken assumptions in the Economides analysis of carbon sequestration. *Journal
 of Petroleum Science and Engineering* **74**, 111-112 (2010).
- 23 Zhou, Q., Birkholzer, J. T., Tsang, C.-F. & Rutqvist, J. A method for quick assessment of
 CO₂ storage capacity in closed and semi-closed saline formations. *International Journal
 of Greenhouse Gas Control* **2**, 626-639 (2008).
- 24 Le Gallo, Y. Post-closure migration for CO₂ geological storage and regional pressure
 inferences. *Energy Procedia* **1**, 3259-3266 (2009).
- 25 Bailey, W. *et al.* Water Control. *Oilfield Review, Schlumberger* **12**, 30-51 (2000).
- 26 Rae, M. & Helgesen, O. K. *Snøhvit-CO₂ sprenger reservoaret*, <[http://www.tu.no/olje-
 gass/article286534.ece](http://www.tu.no/olje-gass/article286534.ece)> (2011).
- 27 Hosa, A., Esentia, M., Stewart, J. & Haszeldine, S. Injection of CO₂ into saline formations:
 Benchmarking worldwide projects. *Chemical Engineering Research and Design* **89**, 1855-
 1864, doi:10.1016/j.cherd.2011.04.003 (2011).
- 28 Smith, M., Campbell, D., Mackay, E. & Polson, D. CO₂ Aquifer Storage Site Evaluation and
 Monitoring (CASSEM). (2011).
- 29 Watson, J. e. *et al.* Carbon Capture and Storage: Realising the potential? , (UKERC, 2012).

- 30 Chalmers, H. & Gibbins, J. Carbon capture and storage: More energy or less carbon? *Journal of Renewable and Sustainable Energy* **2**, 031006 (2010).
- 31 Scottish Carbon Capture and Storage. *Global CCS Projects Map*, <<http://www.sccs.org.uk/map.html>> (2012).
- 32 Global Carbon Carbon Capture and Storage Institute. *The Global Status of CCS*, <http://cdn.globalccsinstitute.com/sites/default/files/the_global_status_ccs_2011.pdf> (2011).
- 33 G8. *G8 Hokkaido Toyako Summit Leaders Declaration*, <http://www.mofa.go.jp/policy/economy/summit/2008/doc/doc080714_en.html> (2008).
- 34 Meadowcroft, J. & Langhelle, O. in *Caching the Carbon: The Politics and Policy of Carbon Capture and Storage* (eds J. Meadowcroft & O. Langhelle) 267-296 (Edward Elgar, 2009).
- 35 Pollak, M. F., Johnson, J. A. & Wilson, E. J. The geography of CCS regulatory development in the U.S. *Energy Procedia* **1**, 4543-4550, doi:10.1016/j.egypro.2009.02.273 (2009).
- 36 Pollak, M., Phillips, S. J. & Vajjhala, S. Carbon capture and storage policy in the United States: A new coalition endeavors to change existing policy. *Global Environmental Change* **21**, 313-323, doi:10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2011.01.009 (2011).
- 37 IEA. *Energy Technology Perspectives 2012*. (2012).
- 38 Fairley, P. *Cleaner Coal Faces an Uncertain Future*, <http://m.technologyreview.com/read_article.aspx?id=38091&sr=true&srtype=73> (2011).
- 39 von Stechow, C., Watson, J. & Praetorius, B. Policy incentives for carbon capture and storage technologies in Europe: A qualitative multi-criteria analysis. *Global Environmental Change* **21**, 346-357, doi:10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2011.01.011 (2011).
- 40 European Commission. *Energy Roadmap 2050*, <http://ec.europa.eu/energy/energy2020/roadmap/index_en.htm> (2011).
- 41 Roberts, J. J., Wood, R. A. & Haszeldine, R. S. Assessing the health risks of natural CO₂ seeps in Italy. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **108**, 16545-16548, doi:10.1073/pnas.1018590108 (2011).
- 42 Stone, E. J., Lowe, J. A. & Shine, K. P. The impact of carbon capture and storage on climate. *Energy & Environmental Science* **2**, 81-91 (2009).
- 43 Gerlagh, R. & van der Zwaan, B. Evaluating Uncertain CO₂ Abatement over the Very Long Term. *Environmental Modeling and Assessment*, 1-12 (2011).
- 44 Tollefson, J. Low-cost carbon-capture project sparks interest. *Nature* **469**, 276-277, doi:10.1038/469276a (2011).
- 45 Seligsohn, D., Liu, Y., Forbes, S., Dongjie, Z. & West, L. CCS in China: Toward an Environmental, Health, and Safety Regulatory Framework. *World Resources Institute - Issue Brief* (2010).
- 46 United Nations Climate Change Secretariat. *Durban conference delivers breakthrough in international community's response to climate change* <http://unfccc.int/files/press/press_releases_advisories/application/pdf/pr20111112cop17final.pdf> (2011).
- 47 De Conick, H., Stephens, J. C. & Metz, B. Global learning on carbon capture and storage: A call for strong international cooperation on CCS demonstration. *Energy Policy* **37**, 2161-2165, doi:10.1016/j.enpol.2009.01.020 (2009).
- 48 Markusson, N., Shackley, S. & Evar, B. *The Social Dynamics of Carbon Capture and Storage*. (Routledge, 2012).
- 49 Rai, V., Victor, D. G. & Thurber, M. C. Carbon capture and storage at scale: Lessons from the growth of analogous energy technologies. *Energy Policy* **38**, 4089-4098 (2010).