



About CCUS

Playing an important and diverse role in meeting global energy and climate goals

Technology report

April 2021

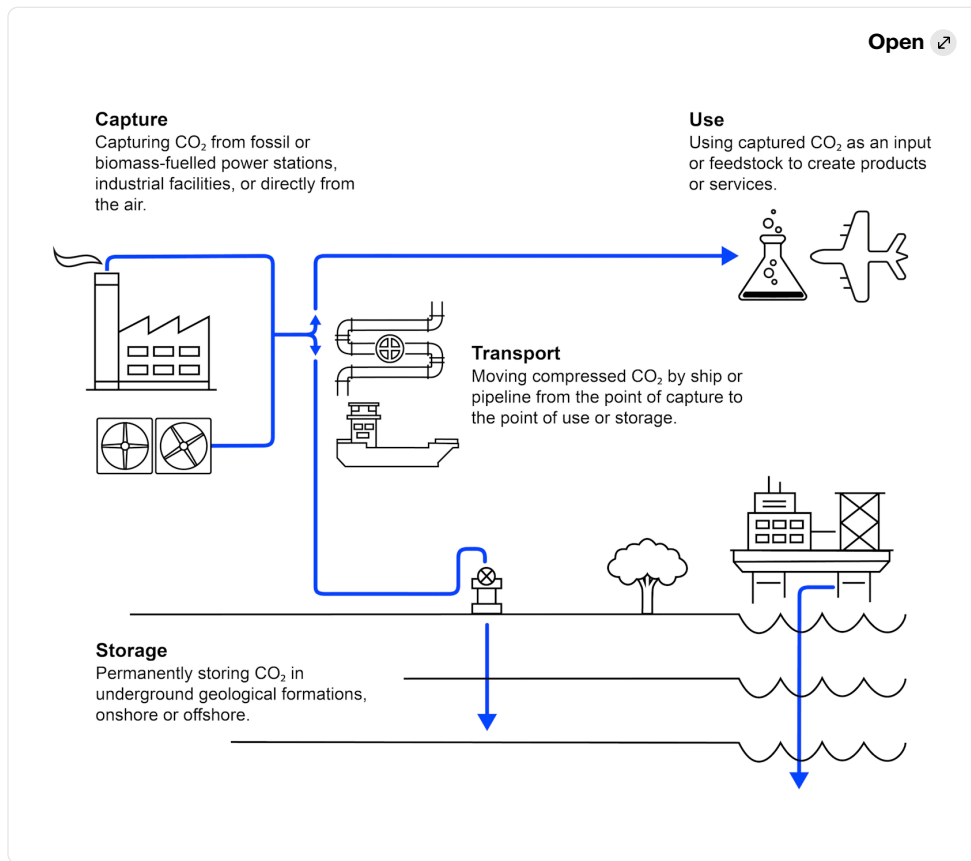
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About this report

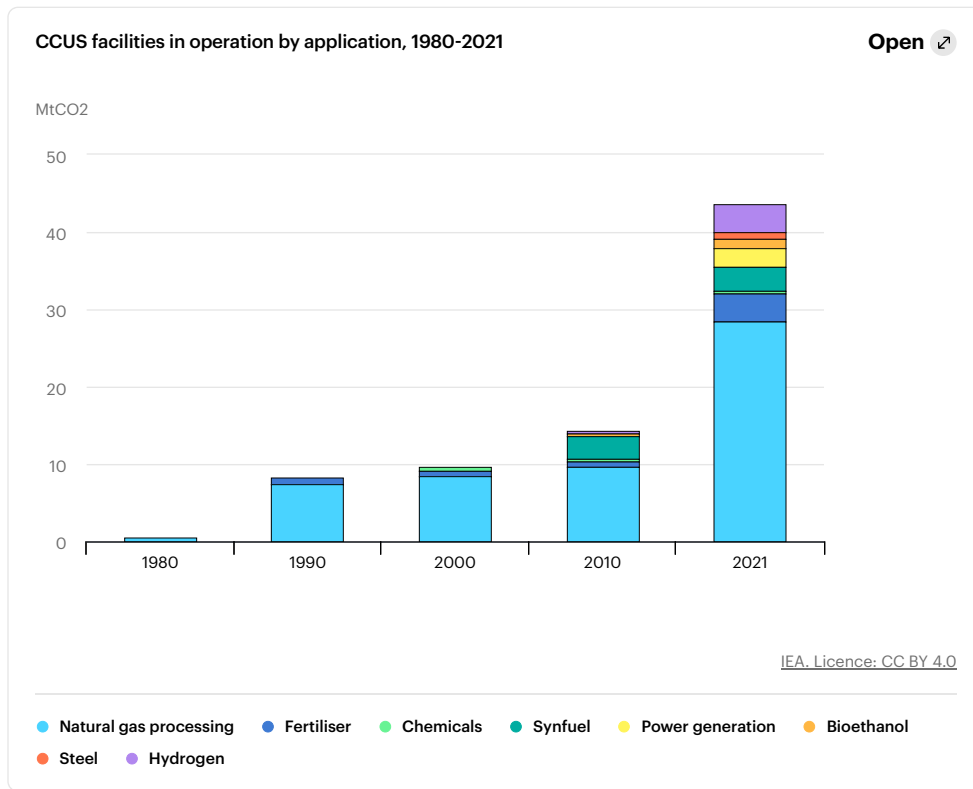
Carbon capture, utilisation and storage (CCUS) refers to a suite of technologies that can play an important and diverse

What is CCUS?



Where is CCUS happening?

Today, CCUS facilities around the world have the capacity to capture more than 40 MtCO₂ each year. Some of these facilities have been operating since the 1970s and 1980s, when natural gas processing plants in the Val Verde area of Texas began supplying CO₂ to local oil producers for enhanced oil recovery operations.



Since these early projects, CCUS deployment has expanded to more regions and more applications. The first large-scale CO₂ capture and injection project with dedicated CO₂ storage and monitoring was commissioned at the Sleipner offshore gas facility in Norway in 1996. The project has now stored more than 20 MtCO₂ in a deep saline formation located around 1 km under the North Sea.

Current CCUS projects around the world

Click a project for more information



Sources: IEA research and GCCSI (2021), Facilities Database, <https://co2re.co/FacilityData>

Stronger investment incentives and climate targets are building new momentum behind CCUS. The pipeline of planned projects is growing. Many of these plans involve the development of industrial “hubs” which capture CO₂ from a range of facilities with shared CO₂ transport and storage infrastructure. Examples include the Alberta Carbon Trunk Line in Canada, which started operating in 2020, and the planned Longship project in Norway.

CCUS around the world

In addition to the commercial CCUS facilities operating around the world today, there are a large number of CCUS pilot or demonstration projects as well as projects in earlier stages of development. Here we feature some globally-significant CCUS projects to highlight the breadth of activity across applications, sectors and regions.

Jump to CCUS around the world 

How is CO₂ captured?

CO₂ capture is an integral part of several industrial processes and, accordingly, technologies to separate or capture CO₂ from flue gas streams have been commercially available for many decades. The most advanced and widely adopted capture technologies are chemical absorption and physical separation; other technologies include membranes and looping cycles such as chemical looping or calcium looping. The various technologies are described further below.

Principal CO₂ capture technologies

Capture Technology	Overview	Technology status
Chemical absorption	A common process operation based on the reaction between CO ₂ and a chemical solvent (such as compounds of ethanolamine). Chemical absorption using amine-based solvents is the most advanced CO ₂ separation technique.	Widely used for decades and currently applied in a number of small and large-scale projects worldwide in power generation, fuel transformation and industrial production.
Physical separation	Based on either adsorption, absorption, cryogenic separation, or dehydration and compression. Physical adsorption makes use of a solid surface (e.g. activated carbon, alumina, metallic oxides or zeolites), while physical absorption makes use of a liquid solvent (e.g. Selexol or Rectisol). After capture by means of an adsorbent, CO ₂ is released by increasing temperature (temperature swing adsorption) or pressure (pressure swing adsorption or vacuum swing adsorption).	Currently used mainly in natural gas processing and ethanol, methanol and hydrogen production, with nine commercial plants in operation.
Oxy-fuel separation	Involves the combustion of a fuel using nearly pure oxygen and the subsequent capture of the CO ₂ emitted. Because the flue gas is composed almost exclusively of CO ₂ and water vapour, the latter can be removed easily by means of dehydration to obtain a high-purity CO ₂ stream.	Currently at the large prototype/pre-demonstration stage. A number of projects have been completed in coal-based power generation and in cement production.
Membrane separation	Based on polymeric or inorganic devices (membranes) with high CO ₂ selectivity, which let CO ₂ pass through but act as barriers to retain the other gases in the gas stream.	Technology readiness varies according to the fuel and application. In natural gas processing, it is mainly at the demonstration stage. The only

		existing large-scale capture plant based on membrane separation is operated by Petrobras in Brazil. Membranes for CO ₂ removal from syngas and biogas are already commercially available, while membranes for flue gas treatment are currently under development.
Calcium looping	Involves CO ₂ capture at a high temperature using two main reactors. In the first reactor, lime (CaO) is used as a sorbent to capture CO ₂ from a gas stream to form calcium carbonate (CaCO ₃). The CaCO ₃ is subsequently transported to the second reactor where it is regenerated, resulting in lime and a pure stream of CO ₂ . The lime is then looped back to the first reactor.	Currently at a pilot / pre-commercial stage. It has been tested for example in coal-fired fluidised bed combustors and cement manufacture
Chemical looping	Like calcium looping, a two-reactor technology. In the first reactor, small particles of metal (e.g. iron or manganese) are used to bind oxygen from the air to form a metal oxide, which is then transported to the second reactor where it reacts with fuel, producing energy and a concentrated stream of CO ₂ , regenerating the reduced form of the metal. The metal is then looped back to the first reactor.	This technology has been tested through the operation of around 35 pilot projects with coal, gas, oil and biomass combustion.
Direct separation	Involves the capture of CO ₂ process emissions from cement production by indirectly heating the limestone using a special calciner. This technology strips CO ₂ directly from the limestone, without mixing it with other combustion gases, thus considerably reducing energy costs related to gas separation.	Currently being tested at pilot projects such as the Low Emissions Intensity Lime and Cement (LEILAC) pilot plant developed by Calix at the HeidelbergCement plant in Lixhe, Belgium.
Supercritical CO ₂ power cycles	While in conventional thermal power plants, flue gas or steam is used to drive one or multiple turbines, in supercritical CO ₂ power cycles, supercritical CO ₂ (i.e. CO ₂ above its critical temperature and pressure) is used instead. Supercritical CO ₂ turbines typically use nearly pure oxygen to combust the fuel, in order to obtain a flue gas composed of CO ₂ and water vapour only.	Two prototype/demonstration projects with supercritical CO ₂ power cycles are currently in operation: NET Power's Allam cycle and the Trigen Clean Energy Systems (CES) cycle.

The availability of infrastructure to transport CO₂ safely and reliably is essential for deployment of CCUS. The two main options for the large-scale transport of CO₂ are via pipeline and ship, although for short distances and small volumes CO₂ can also be transported by truck or rail, albeit at higher cost per tonne of CO₂.

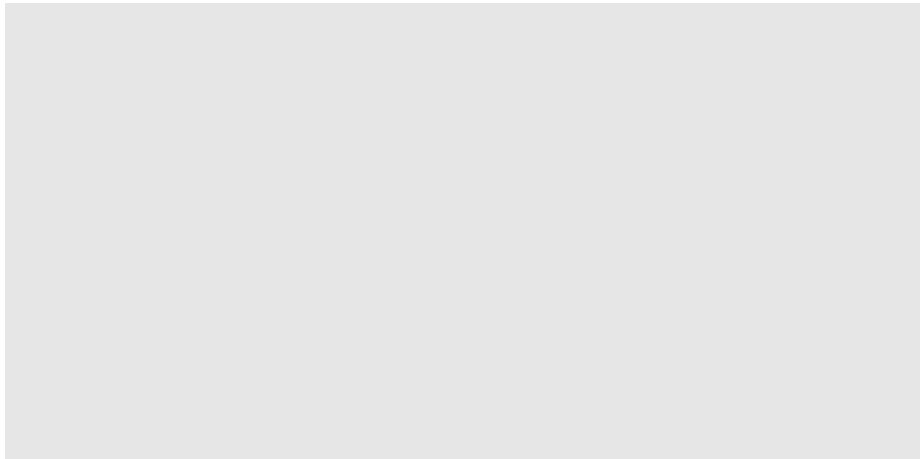
Pipelines are the cheapest way of transporting CO₂ in large quantities onshore and, depending on the distance and volumes, offshore. Transport by pipeline has been practised for many years and is already deployed at large scale. There is an extensive onshore CO₂ pipeline network in North America, with a combined length of more than 8 000 km.

While CO₂ is currently shipped in small quantities for use in the food and beverage industry, large-scale transportation of CO₂ by ship has not yet been demonstrated but would have similarities to the shipping of liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) and liquefied natural gas (LNG). Norway's Longship CCS project will be the first to transport large quantities of CO₂ to an offshore CO₂ storage site.

CO₂ transportation by ship offers greater flexibility than pipelines, particularly where there is more than one offshore storage facility available to accept CO₂. The flexibility of shipping can also facilitate the initial development of CO₂ capture hubs (regional clusters), which could later be connected or converted into a more permanent pipeline network as CO₂ volumes grow. In some instances, shipping can be a cost-effective transport option, especially for long-distance transport, which might be needed for countries with limited domestic storage resources.

How can CO₂ be used?

CO₂ can be used as an input to a range of products and services. The potential applications for CO₂ use include direct use, where the CO₂ is not chemically altered (non-conversion), and the transformation of CO₂ to a useful product through chemical and biological processes (conversion).

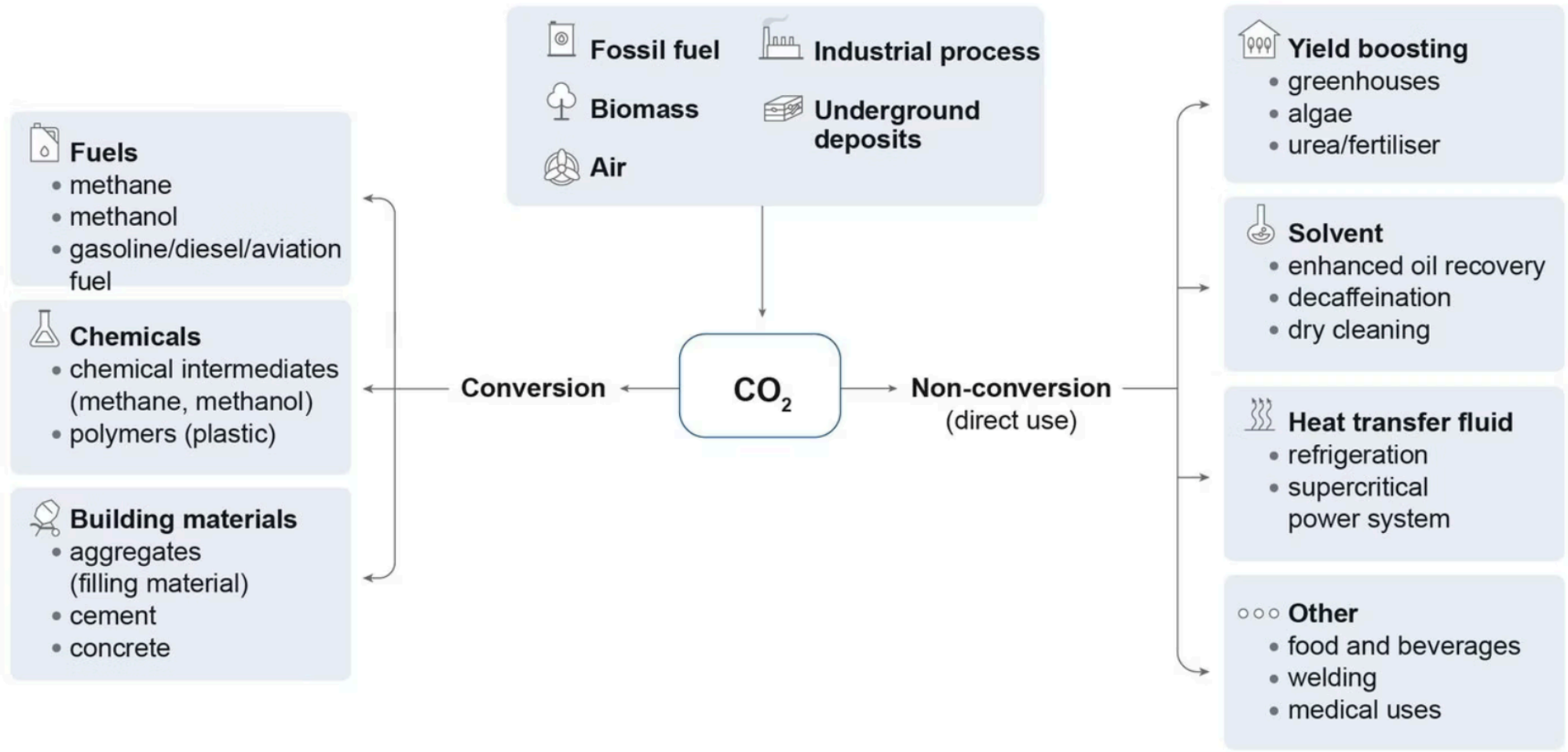
Simple classification of pathways for CO₂ useOpen 

Today around 230 Mt of CO₂ are used globally each year, primarily to produce fertilisers (around 125 Mt/year) and for enhanced oil recovery (around 70-80 Mt/year). Other commercial uses of CO₂ include food and beverage production, cooling, water treatment and greenhouses. New CO₂ use pathways include: **fuels** (using carbon in CO₂ to convert hydrogen into a synthetic hydrocarbon fuel); **chemicals** (using carbon in CO₂ as an alternative to fossil fuels in the production of some chemicals); and **building materials** (using CO₂ in the production of building materials to replace water in concrete or as a raw material in its constituents.) Further detail can be found in the IEA report "[Putting CO₂ to Use](#)".

How is CO₂ stored – and is it safe?

Simple classification of pathways for CO₂ use

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Storing CO₂ involves the injection of captured CO₂ into a deep underground geological reservoir of porous rock overlaid by an impermeable layer of rocks, which seals the reservoir and prevents the upward migration or “leakage” of CO₂ to the atmosphere. There are several types of reservoir suitable for CO₂ storage, with deep saline formations and depleted oil and gas reservoirs having the largest capacity. Deep saline formations are layers of porous and permeable rocks saturated with salty water (brine), which are widespread in both onshore and offshore sedimentary basins. Depleted oil and gas reservoirs are porous rock formations that have trapped crude oil or gas for millions of years before being extracted and which can similarly trap injected CO₂.

When CO₂ is injected into a reservoir, it flows through it, filling the pore space. The gas is usually compressed first to increase its density and the reservoir typically must be at depths greater than 800 metres to retain the CO₂ in a dense liquid-like state. The CO₂ is permanently trapped in the reservoir through several mechanisms: structural trapping by the seal, solubility trapping where the CO₂ dissolves in the brine water, residual trapping where the CO₂ remains trapped in pore spaces between rocks, and mineral trapping where the CO₂ reacts with the reservoir rocks to form carbonate minerals (mineralisation). The nature and the type of the trapping mechanisms for reliable and effective CO₂ storage, which vary within and across the life of a site depending on geological conditions, are well-understood thanks to decades of experience in injecting CO₂ for EOR and dedicated storage.

CO₂ storage in basalts (igneous rocks) that have high concentrations of reactive chemicals is also possible, but is in an early stage of development. The injected CO₂ reacts with the chemical components to form stable minerals, trapping the CO₂.

Global CO₂ storage resources are considered to be well in excess of likely future requirements. In many regions, however, significant further assessment work is required to convert theoretical storage capacity into “bankable” storage to support CCUS investment.

How does CCUS support carbon removal?

CCUS technologies can provide a means of removing CO₂ from the atmosphere, i.e. “negative emissions”, to offset emissions from sectors where reaching zero emissions may not be economically or technically feasible. There are two principal approaches:

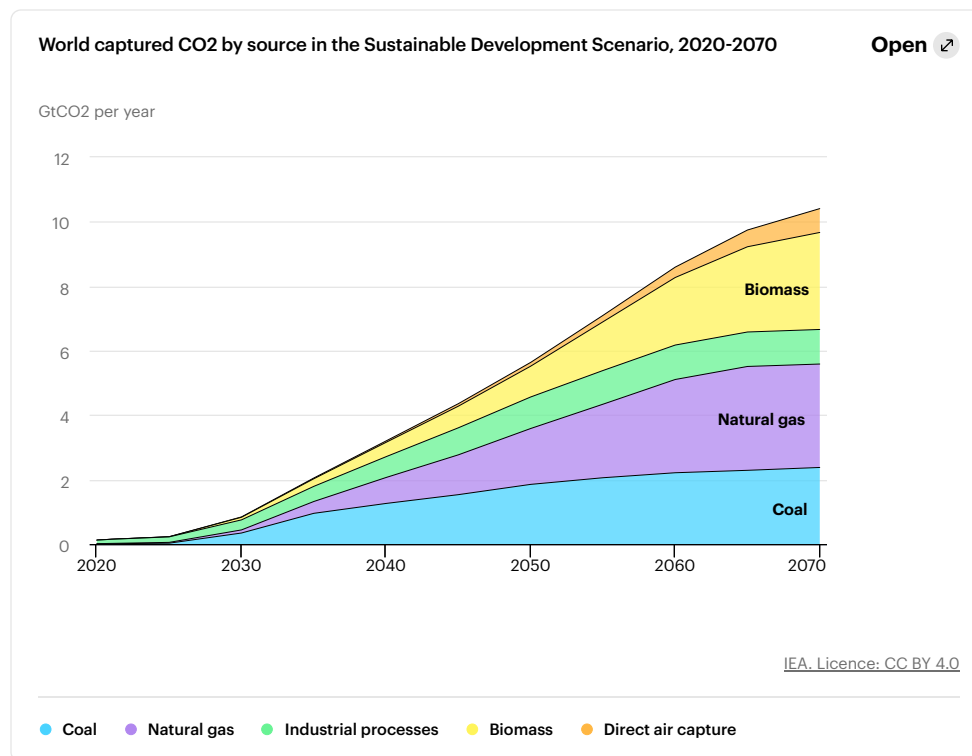
Bioenergy with carbon capture and storage, or BECCS, involves capturing and permanently storing CO₂ from processes where biomass (which extracts CO₂ from the atmosphere as it grows) is burned to generate energy. A power station fuelled with biomass and equipped with CCUS is a type of BECCS technology, as are facilities that process biomass into biofuels, if the resulting CO₂ is captured and stored.

Direct air capture (DAC) involves the capture of CO₂ directly from ambient air (as opposed to a point source). The CO₂ can be used, for example as a climate-neutral CO₂ feedstock in synthetic fuels, or it can be permanently stored for carbon removal.

These technology-based approaches for carbon removal can complement and supplement nature-based solutions, such as afforestation and reforestation.

The role of CCUS in net-zero pathways

In the IEA [Sustainable Development Scenario](#), in which global CO₂ emissions from the energy sector fall to zero on a net basis by 2070, CCUS accounts for nearly 15% of the cumulative reduction in emissions compared with the Stated Policies Scenario. The contribution of CCUS grows over time **and extends to almost all parts of the global energy system.**

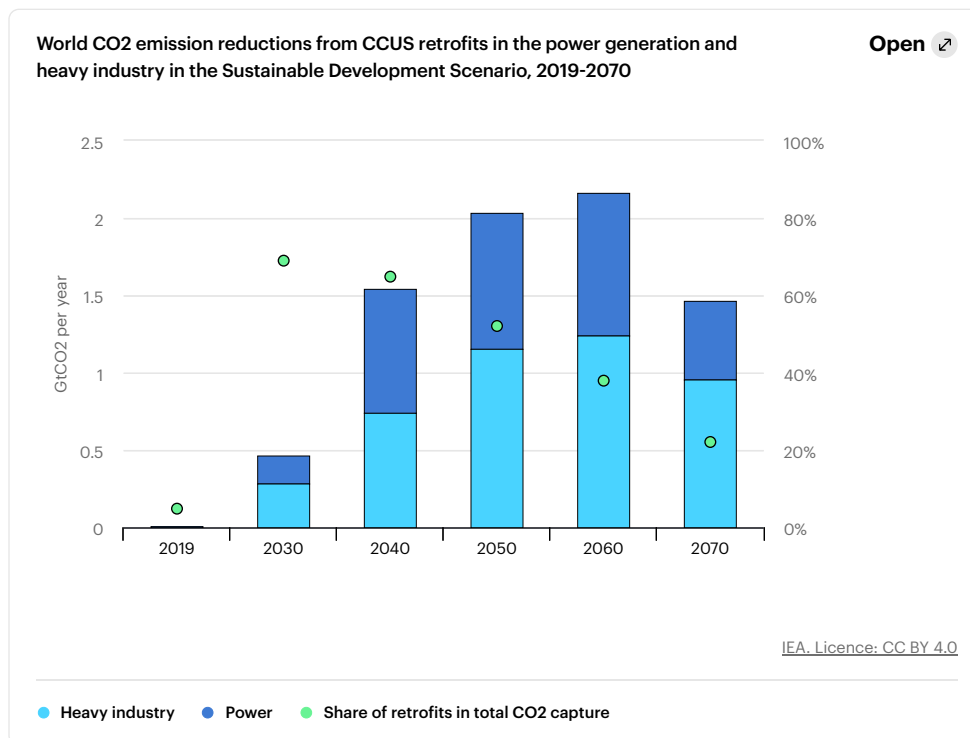


CCUS technologies play four strategic roles in the transition to net zero

1) Tackling emissions from existing infrastructure

CCUS can be retrofitted to existing power and industrial plants that could otherwise emit 600 billion tonnes of CO₂ over the next five decades – almost 17 years’ worth of current annual emissions.

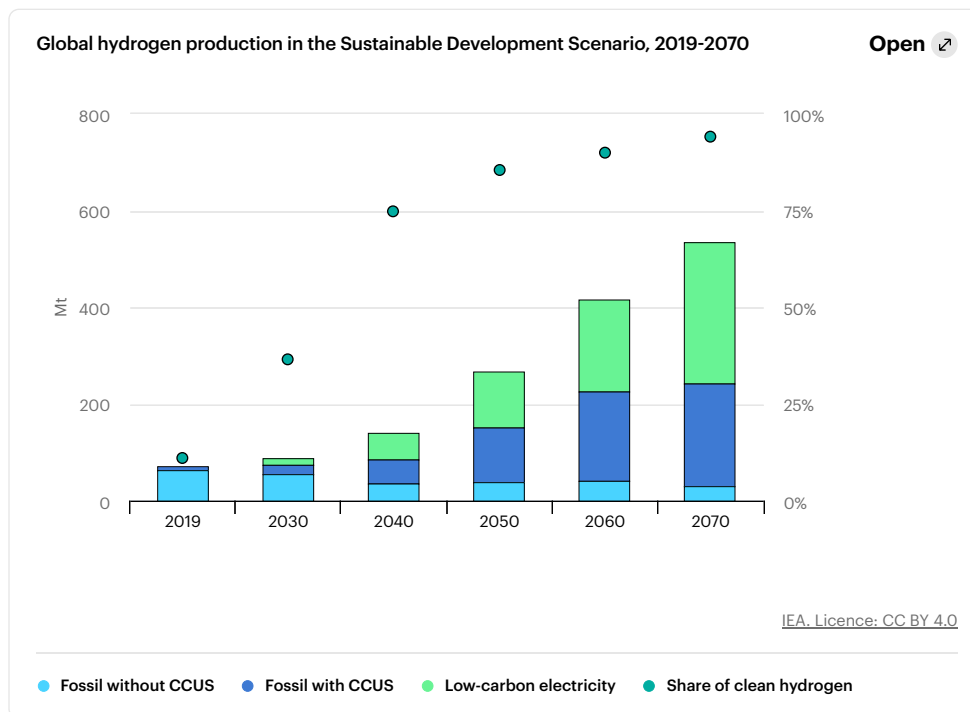
In the Sustainable Development Scenario an initial focus of CCUS is on retrofitting fossil fuel-based power and industrial plants. By 2030, more than half of the CO₂ captured is from retrofitted existing assets.



2) A cost-effective pathway for low-carbon hydrogen production

CCUS can support a rapid scaling up of low-carbon hydrogen production to meet current and future demand from new applications in transport, industry and buildings. CCUS is one of the two main ways to produce low-carbon hydrogen.

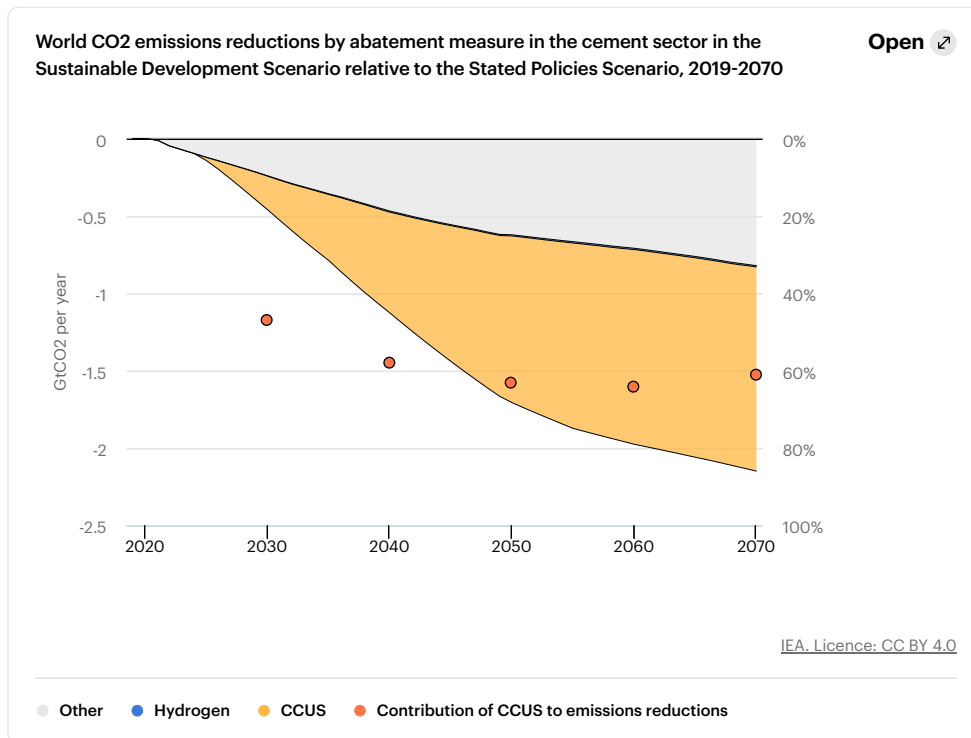
Global hydrogen use in the Sustainable Development Scenario increases sevenfold to 520 megatonnes (Mt) by 2070. The majority of the growth in low-carbon hydrogen production is from water electrolysis using clean electricity, supported by 3 300 gigawatts (GW) of electrolysers (from less than 0.2 GW today). The remaining 40% of low-carbon hydrogen comes from fossil-based production that is equipped with CCUS, particularly in regions with access to low-cost fossil fuels and CO₂ storage.



3) A solution for the most challenging emissions

Heavy industries account for almost 20% of global CO₂ emissions today. CCUS is virtually the only technology solution for deep emissions reductions from cement production. It is also the most cost-effective approach in many regions to curb emissions in iron and steel and chemicals manufacturing. Captured CO₂ is a critical part of the supply chain for synthetic fuels from CO₂ and hydrogen – one of a limited number of low-carbon options for long-distance transport, particularly aviation.

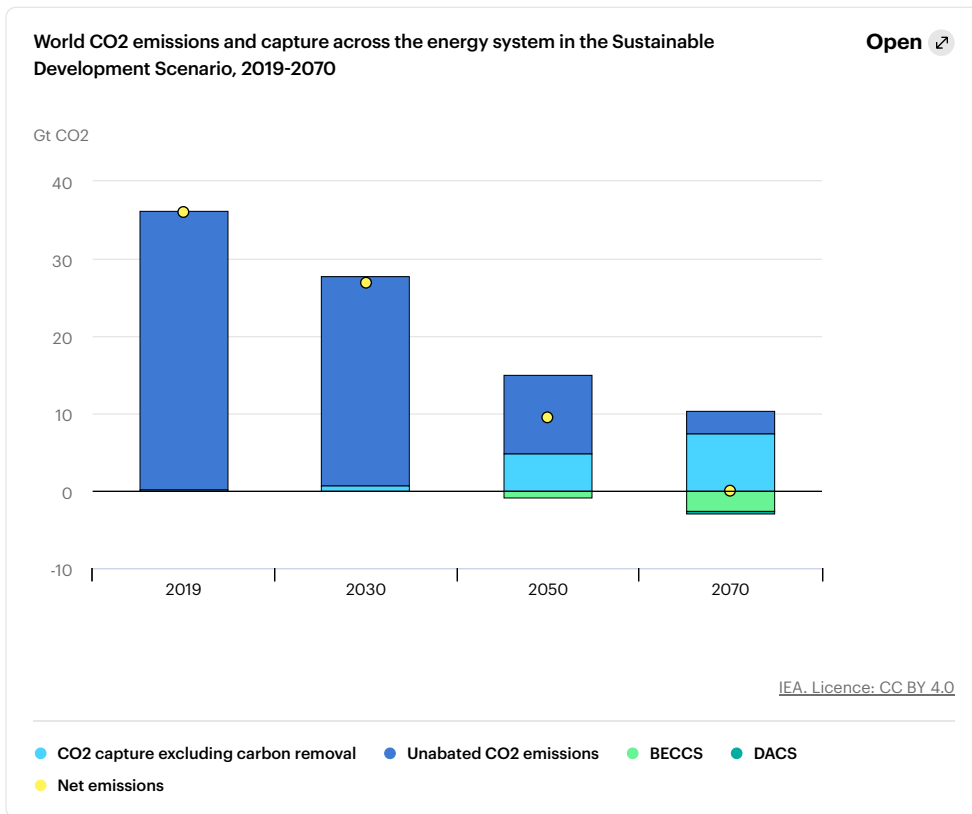
In the IEA's Sustainable Development Scenario, CCUS accounts for between one quarter and two-thirds of the cumulative emissions reductions in heavy industry (cement, steel and chemicals production). By 2070, nearly half of global energy demand for aviation is met by synthetic fuels, requiring the capture of around 830 Mt of CO₂ for use as feedstock.



4) Removing carbon from the atmosphere

For emissions that cannot be avoided or reduced directly, CCUS underpins an important technological approach for removing carbon and delivering a net-zero energy system.

When net-zero emissions is reached in the Sustainable Development Scenario, 2.9 gigatonnes (Gt) of emissions remain, notably in the transport and industry sectors. These lingering emissions are offset by capturing CO₂ from bioenergy and the air and storing it.



The Energy Mix

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