

## **CONTENTS**

1.0. Executive summary	
2.0. Introduction	4
3.0. The role of shipping in CO <sub>2</sub> transport	į
4.0. Estimates of CO <sub>2</sub> transport volumes and costs	8
5.0. Background to the rise in prospects for CO <sub>2</sub> shipping	1
6.0. Advantages of an expanded role for CO <sub>2</sub> shipping	13
7.0. Focus areas to support growth in CO <sub>2</sub> shipping to 2040	1.
8.0. Possible scenarios for CO <sub>2</sub> shipping volumes to 2040	18
9.0. Conclusions and recommendations	2

## 1.0 EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

CO<sub>2</sub> shipping today is a nascent industry with annual volumes of about 0.5 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub>, serving mainly food and drink industries around northern Europe. Pipelines currently dominate CO<sub>2</sub> transport for CCS projects, accounting for over 95% of the global CO<sub>2</sub> transport capacity. The prospects for growth in CO<sub>2</sub> shipping for CCS do, however, look strong; more and larger CO<sub>2</sub> vessels are currently being built and planned, and a significant number of CCS projects in development plan to use shipping-based CO<sub>2</sub> transport. Three scenarios created for this paper suggest CO<sub>2</sub> shipping volumes could reach about 75 Mtpa, 125 Mtpa or over 600 Mtpa by 2040, the latter under highly optimistic conditions of cooperation in trade and climate action. The main regions for CO<sub>2</sub> shipping are the Asia Pacific, Africa and South America.

For non-owners, shipping costs are predominantly operational (or variable) rather than capital (or fixed) in nature; the opposite of pipeline costs. This means shipping should be more cost-competitive for relatively small CCS projects for distances over about 250 km, as well as short-lived projects or those with highly variable capture volumes. There are, however, still legal and regulatory obstacles to the cross-border transport of CO<sub>2</sub> using shipping. Still, these issues are surmountable – if sufficient political will exists.

The pressure and temperature at which cryogenic  $CO_2$  is transported is a critical design choice for  $CO_2$  vessels. Current ships have chosen a medium pressure design to optimise the trade-off between density (and hence cargo volumes) and costs. New ship designs are adapting from that position to allow larger cargoes or extended vessel applications, such as direct injection of  $CO_2$  into the seabed.

There is a healthy development pipeline of  $CO_2$  vessels at present in design, construction or testing. The general scale of activities in the  $CO_2$  shipping value chain is also growing, with the most active players having mostly expanded from large-scale gas transport activities. Current  $CO_2$  shipping activities are concentrated in Europe and the Asia Pacific, which together account for about 90% of emerging CCS projects that rely on shipping for transport.

The anticipated growth in CO<sub>2</sub> shipping will likely mirror growth in the global CCS project development pipeline. That comes from shipping's contribution to the improved commercial and technical feasibility of more CCS projects. Its role in operationalising long-distance CO<sub>2</sub> transport can help address the stranded emissions dilemma facing countries lacking nearby pore space for which CCS would otherwise be a viable industrial emissions mitigation choice.

Prompted by a belief that CO<sub>2</sub> shipping will have a major role to play in future climate management, and especially in situations of stranded emissions where volumes of CO<sub>2</sub> are expected to be most significant, shipping operators appear prepared (even if mostly reactively rather than speculatively) to build (or adapt) more CO<sub>2</sub> vessels. This could lead to the emergence of a large and valuable new maritime business that might initially complement, and ultimately even replace, the global hydrocarbon shipping industry.

## 2.0 INTRODUCTION

Shipping is an increasingly attractive alternative for CO<sub>2</sub> transport, especially for early movers in CCS project planning. It is a flexible transport option without fixed infrastructure (albeit with a need for specialist port facilities), is scalable, versatile, and its economics are less sensitive to fluctuations in the underlying CO<sub>2</sub> capture volumes profile than pipelines. The shipping of CO<sub>2</sub> is, however, still at the very early stages of development, accounting for less than 0.5% of all CO<sub>2</sub> transported globally. This report provides a review of the status of shipping-based CO<sub>2</sub> transport and an assessment of its medium-term prospects over the next 15 years. Based mainly on a literature review, it considers the influences on future CO<sub>2</sub> shipping volumes that include both the technical issues around vessel and port design as well as the key legal and regulatory factors. The report closes with an indicative quantified range of scenario-based regional and global CO<sub>2</sub> shipping volumes.

# 3.0 THE ROLE OF SHIPPING IN CO<sub>2</sub> TRANSPORT

At its most basic, shipping  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  is an alternative form of transport to the orthodox use of pipelines to move liquefied  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  from its source to either a temporary location for consolidation or its ultimate destination for storage or use. Shipping is likely to be employed in CCS projects in preference to pipelines for economic reasons primarily related to the distance over which the  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  needs to be transported and/or the scale of volumes to be managed. The economics of shipping versus pipeline transport will be examined in more detail in Sections 4 and 5 below.

# 3.1 Estimates of current cryogenic gas shipping volumes

Shipping-based  $CO_2$  transport<sup>1</sup> is limited to only four dedicated vessels at present, operating in the North Sea to largely service the food and drink industries – or CCU rather than CCS projects. Analysis for this report estimates total  $CO_2$  volumes of up to 0.5 Mtpa. Relative to the emerging use of vessels for  $CO_2$  transport, other, more mature, gas-based shipping markets exist. An estimate of the scale and average cargo sizes of markets for LPG and LNG are shown below.

Table 1 - Census and description of CO<sub>2</sub>, LPG and LNG vessels (Updated from Brownsort, 2015, slide 8)

	CO <sub>2</sub>	LPG	LNG
Number of ships	ca. 10	ca. 1,700	ca. 800
Capacity	Most <7,500m <sup>3</sup>	Most <80,000m <sup>3</sup>	Most <266,000m <sup>3</sup>
Туре	Semi- pressurised, refrigerated	Pressurised, Semi- pressurised, refrigerated or refrigerated	Refrigerated, atmospheric pressure
Typical Conditions	-30°C, 20 bara	Varied to -55°C, 20 bara	-161°C, 1 bara
Loading/ Unloading	In port	In port, offshore	In port, offshore

## 3.2 Design issues for CO<sub>2</sub> vessels

 ${\rm CO_2}$  carriers are categorised as low, medium, and high pressure. Historically,  ${\rm CO_2}$  has been transported in a liquid state at conditions described as medium pressure (see Figure 1). As shown in the graphic, low, medium and high (or elevated) vessel designs tend to have varying points of balance between pressure and temperature while retaining the  ${\rm CO_2}$  in a liquid phase for maximum efficiency in its transport stage.

The small fleet of existing North Sea  $CO_2$  vessels for the food and drinks industry are designed as medium pressure ships, transporting  $CO_2$  at conditions in the range of 15-20 bara and -20 to -30°C. Their capacity is typically in the range of 1,240 m³ to 2,000 m³, similar to LPG carriers. Most existing  $CO_2$  shipping vessels are operated by Larvik Shipping and were converted from dry-bulk vessels, with retro-fitted  $CO_2$  cargo tanks², and that experience continues to shape the dedicated  $CO_2$  vessels now being built. Norwegian shipping company IM Skaugen specifically designed six larger LPG carriers of 10,000 m³ capacity to be also capable of transporting  $CO_2$ . They have been operating since 2003, although not yet for  $CO_2$  transport.

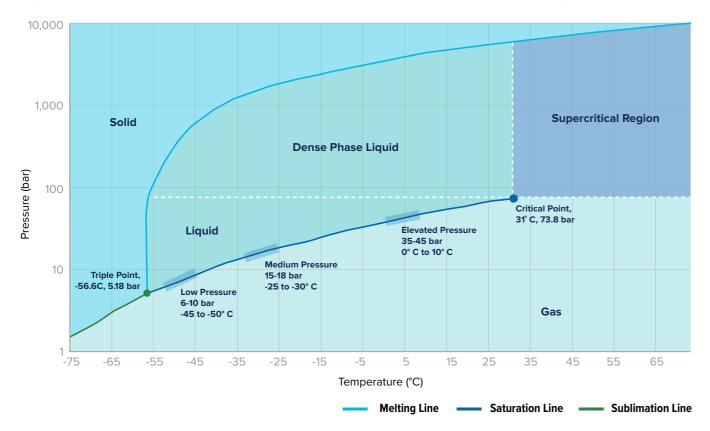
For larger-scale CCS applications, larger ships will be required than are available today. Also, for larger  $CO_2$  vessels, low-pressure (5-9 bara) and low temperature (-55oC) designs are proposed. As the use of  $CO_2$  vessels extends to offer direct offshore injection, more ambitious "ambient temperature" designs might be considered to balance transport and storage conditions. Ambient temperature transport could offer some cost savings due to the lack of need for cryogenic onboard storage, although balancing that benefit may be the extra weight of the thicker tank walls to contain the higher pressure. Considerable research is currently underway on the pressure-temperature requirements of  $CO_2$  vessels.



 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$  This contrasts with ISO-approved gas container transport of CO<sub>2</sub> that, while only capable of much lower volumes, can be managed largely by general cargo vessels and without specialist port-handling facilities. Similarly, there are additional LPG vessels that are capable of transporting CO<sub>2</sub> (see Section 3.2 below) but not yet used for that purpose.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Element Energy, November 2018 (p12)

Figure 1 - Pressure and temperature balance for CO<sub>2</sub> vessels (Advancements in CCS technologies and costs, GCCSI)



## shipping

A CCS supply chain based on shipping CO<sub>2</sub> has other elements to consider besides vessels. Figure 2 shows the typical process stages and associated facilities needed to support CO<sub>2</sub> shipping. CCS projects are typically comprised of an initial industrial CO<sub>2</sub> point source (or direct air capture), transportation and ultimate injection into secure geologic storage or offtake for utilisation. Inclusion of maritime transport consists of some or all of the operational components shown below. Vessels essentially serve as the "midstream" function in the CCS value chain. The ships involved can be loaded from onshore or offshore facilities and, in turn, can offload their CO<sub>2</sub> at one of three locations; an onshore terminal (ship-to-shore), offshore structure (ship-toplatform) or offshore from the vessel to a sub-seabed geological formation (direct injection). There are no CCS current projects in operation (or construction) that use CO<sub>2</sub> shipping for direct offshore injection. Several studies (e.g., Chiyoda, 2011 and CATO, 2016) have, however, shown that to be a practical design option, and the Stella Maris CCS project's development plan is based on direct injection (see Section 6.2).

## 3.3 Supply chain needs for CO<sub>2</sub> 3.4 Northern Lights' supply chain

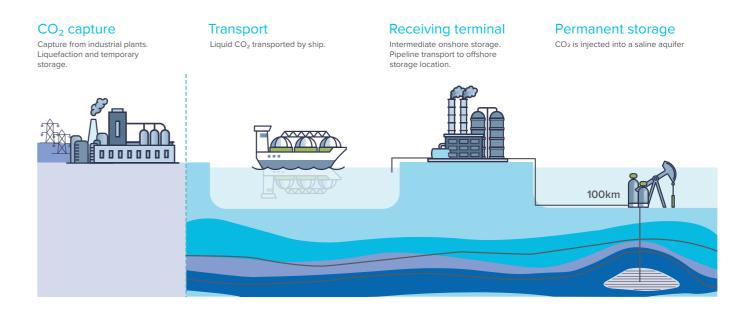
Northern Lights is the transport and storage component of the Norwegian Longship CO<sub>2</sub> network that ships coastal CO2 emissions to an onshore terminal for ultimate offshore storage in the Aurora reservoir via a 100 km pipeline. It opened for business in September 2024 and is the world's first open access cross-border CO<sub>2</sub> transportation and storage facility. The initial capture customers are both Norway based: Heidelberg Cement at Brevik and Hafslund waste-to-energy power plant in Oslo. Two new CO<sub>2</sub> vessels, the Northern Pathfinder and the Northern Pioneer, were delivered in the fourth quarter of 2024. Operations to transport and store the initial 1.5 Mtpa of CO<sub>2</sub> in the Aurora reservoir are scheduled to commence in the second half of 2025. As Figure 3 shows, third-party CO<sub>2</sub> will be consolidated and stored at a new onshore terminal in Oygarden before being piped 100 km offshore.

New capture customers are being added for Northern Lights. Its ambition is to store 30-50 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> by 2035. Vessel transport, perhaps for emitters with more distant transport needs, will be complemented by a later CO<sub>2</sub> pipeline, the "CO<sub>2</sub> Highway Europe", with connections directly into Aurora's injection wells from Northwest Europe.

Figure 2 - Overview of CO<sub>2</sub> shipping configuration options (Opportunities for Shipping to Enable Cross-Border CCUS Initiatives, 2024, GCMD, BCG)



Figure 3 - CO<sub>2</sub> shipping infrastructure for Northern Lights (Equinor website)





# 4.0 ESTIMATES OF CO<sub>2</sub> TRANSPORT VOLUMES AND COSTS

Transportation of  $CO_2$  from emissions sources to storage sinks can be achieved with pipelines, rail, motor carriers and ships. Each mode has different operational requirements and capacities, which impact suitability for a given project. Table 2 shows the most recent data on the relative capacities of  $CO_2$  transport methods.

Pipeline-based  $CO_2$  transport is by far the dominant mature technology and is the preferred method for all commercial CCS facilities. Increasingly, however, shipping is being considered by CCS projects due to its quick deployment, logistical flexibility, resilience, volume versatility, and ease of access to offshore storage sites over pipelines. Rail and road-based  $CO_2$  transport are, and likely to remain, popular only in niche onshore operations for smaller CCS projects or small food and drink applications.

Table 2 - CO<sub>2</sub> transportation methods. (Al Baroudi et al., 2021; GCCSI)

TRANSPORT METHOD	CONDITIONS	PHASE	CURRENT CAPACITY
Pipelines	48-200 barg, 10 to 34°C	Dense or vapour phase	<ul> <li>Higher capex, lower opex costs</li> <li>Low-pressure system ca.20% more expensive than dense phase transmission</li> <li>Well-established for EOR use</li> </ul>
Ships	7-45 barg, -52 to 10°C	Liquid	Higher opex, lower capex costs     Used in food and drinks industry for smaller quantities
Motor Carriers	17-20 barg, -30 to -20°C	Liquid	<ul><li>2-30 tonnes per batch</li><li>Not economic for large-scale CCS projects</li></ul>
Rail	7-26 barg, -50 to -20°C	Liquid	<ul> <li>No large-scale systems in place</li> <li>Loading/unloading and storage infrastructure required</li> <li>Feasible with existing rail lines</li> <li>More advantages over medium and long distances</li> </ul>

#### 4.1 Costs of CO<sub>2</sub> shipping by vessels

Table 3 summarises the Institute's research data on actual  $CO_2$  shipping costs. As will be examined in Section 5, the influence of distance and  $CO_2$  volumes has an important bearing on those costs, which, based on various project studies, range from \$9/tonne of  $CO_2$  (1 Mtpa over 600 km) to \$50/tonne of  $CO_2$  (5 Mtpa over 1,200km).

Table 3 - Summary of published shipping costs, (GCCSI)

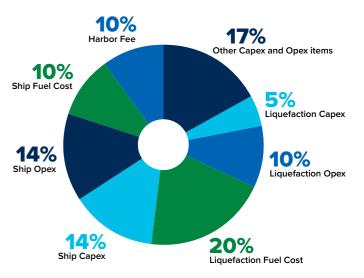
REFERENCE	VOLUME (MTPA)	DISTANCE (KM)	COST (US\$/ TCO <sub>2</sub> )
IEAGHG (2004)	6.2	200-12,000	10-44
Aspelund et al. (2006)	Up to 2	1,500	20-30
Decarre et al. (2010)	1-3	1,000	31-42
ZEP (2011b)	2.5	180-1,500	17-24
Kang et al. (2015)	1-3	530-720	21-33
Kjärstad et al. (2016)	1-20	100-1,100	15-24
CATO (2016)	Up to 4.7	200-1,200	14-36
Element Energy (2018)	1	600	9-15
IEAGHG (2020)	1.8-1.37	1,000	41-44
Roussanaly et al. (2021)	.5-20	100 – 2,000	21-47 <sup>13</sup>
Nogueira et al (2022)	2-5	90 - 1,200	17-50
Barrio et al (2005)	2	n/a	22-28
Norwegian CCS Study* (2020)	0.8-1.5	600-700	42-81

<sup>\*</sup>The Norwegian Full-scale CCS study examines the project that is similar to Langskip (Longship)/Northern Lights. The values are estimates, as the exact capex and opex of the Northern Lights Transport and Storage project have not been publicly released.

An estimate of the breakdown of unitised shipping costs for  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  transport is shown in Figure 4. The bar chart shows operating costs are the largest of the three elements. Liquefaction and ship costs, combining the capital and operational needs, along with fuel, are the biggest cost components of  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  shipping. Overall, shipping costs are dominated by operational costs, unlike pipelines, which are dominated by capital costs.

Figure 4 - Cost breakdown for CO<sub>2</sub> shipping in the UK (Source: Element Energy, 2018)





The same study that produced the cost estimates in Figure 4 found that pipelines showed much higher cost sensitivity to distance and flow rate compared to shipping. Generally,  $CO_2$  shipping is more likely to be favoured on a costs basis over the use of pipelines when flow rates are lower, project lifetimes are shorter, and/or distances are longer. Ultimately, these relative advantages for shipping come from the domination of opex over capex in its economics compared to pipeline-based  $CO_2$  transport.



### 4.2 Main companies involved in the CO<sub>2</sub> shipping supply chain

The strength and depth of CO<sub>2</sub> shipping service industries will develop if or when the underlying volume of traffic grows. Table 4 lists organisations already experienced in CO<sub>2</sub> shipping. Reflecting demand for CO<sub>2</sub> vessels, most companies are in Scandinavia and Asia – although shipbuilding is a more global activity where location reflects competitiveness rather than the need for local services. The list of supply chain participants will undoubtedly grow over the next years. Many organisations, especially from the oil and gas industry, are actively monitoring the CO<sub>2</sub> shipping

market for opportunities, whether for sole investments or partnerships. As with any nascent industry on the threshold of significant growth, there may be firstmover advantages related to accessing the most profitable contracts, routes or partnerships; securing positions with the best-located CO<sub>2</sub> ports and handling facilities; developing optimum fleets of vessels; growing operational experience as well as brand credibility and, finally, gaining influence to shape emerging industry regulation.

Table 4 - Companies currently active in CO<sub>2</sub> shipping (Source: GCCSI)

	SHIPBUILDERS	SHIP OWNERS AND OPERATORS	SHIPPING MERCHANTS
Europe based or focused	<ul><li>Frisian Shipyard</li><li>Royal Wagenborg</li></ul>	<ul> <li>Bernhard Schulte Ship Mgt (BSM)</li> <li>Capital Gas Ship Mgt Co.</li> <li>Knutsen OAS Shipping</li> <li>Larvik Shipping AS</li> <li>Stena Bulk</li> </ul>	<ul><li>Praxair</li><li>Air Liquide</li><li>Air Products</li><li>Linde group</li></ul>
APAC based or focused	<ul> <li>CSSC Jiangnan</li> <li>Dalian Shipbuilding Industry Ltd</li> <li>Hanwha Ocean Co Ltd.</li> <li>HD Hyundai Heavy Industries</li> <li>Mitsubishi Shipbuilding</li> <li>Samsung Heavy Industries (SHI)</li> </ul>	<ul><li>K Line</li><li>Mitsui OSK Lines</li><li>NYK Lines</li><li>Prime Marine</li></ul>	
Other regions			• Ecolog

## 5.0 BACKGROUND TO THE RISE IN PROSPECTS FOR CO2 SHIPPING

The previous section outlined the main conditions for CCS projects preferring shipping for CO<sub>2</sub> transport over pipelines on economic grounds, mainly based on smaller volumes, longer distances and/or shorter duration projects. This section uses those observations to explain the recent rise in the use of (or interest in) CO<sub>2</sub> shipping in CCS projects.

## 5.1 Economics of shipping versus pipelines for CO2 transport

A typical distance versus volume trade-off chart for the use of shipping or pipelines for CO<sub>2</sub> transport is shown in Table 5. These forms of charts are very sensitive to the underlying project characteristics or assumptions. Still, based on this particular GCCSI analysis, the table's decision points range from 100 km, for volumes of less than 1 Mtpa of CO<sub>2</sub>, to 2,000 km for the largest CO<sub>2</sub> volumes, in this case 10 Mtpa. An inference can be drawn that, in general, shipping can be less expensive than pipeline for CO<sub>2</sub> transport for distances over 250 km for small volumes and over 750 km for the largest volumes. Further, one can assume that, to underpin a growth in CO<sub>2</sub> shipping amongst CCS projects, smaller volumes are being moved, or there is typically a growing distance between the source of emissions and the ultimate sink. A review of projects, as summarised in Table 5 in the global CCS development pipeline tends to confirm this belief.

## 5.2 Regulatory and legislative barriers to CO<sub>2</sub> shipping

There are three areas of regulation specific to the undertaking of CCS, and therefore CO2 shipping, that have a material economic impact on the commercial viability of CCS projects. These are the regulation of geological storage of CO<sub>2</sub>, the transboundary shipment of CO2, and the recognition and monetisation of abatement delivered by CCS.

It is very difficult to develop CCS projects in jurisdictions without clear and predictable regulations covering the geological storage of CO2, unless authorised under petroleum exploration and production legislation. The absence of clear regulation creates an unmanageable compliance risk for the project developer and fails to provide the developer with clear property rights to use storage resources. Clear regulation of CO2 storage is a critical requirement of all CO<sub>2</sub> value chains, including those designed around shipping-based CO<sub>2</sub> transport.

International marine legal agreements aimed at protecting the world's oceans are central to the legality of offshore CCS operations. The 1972 London Convention and its 1996 Protocol, which seek to protect the marine environment from the unauthorised disposal of wastes, was an initial obstacle to CCS activities by excluding CO2 from the list of substances that could be 'dumped' at sea or stored in the seabed. In 2006, during the first meeting of the Contracting Parties to the London Protocol, an amendment was adopted to include "CO2 streams from CO2 capture process for sequestration"

Table 5 - Indicative preferred CO<sub>2</sub> transport based on capacity and distance (Internal JCCS, table 39)

DISTANCE (KM)	FLOW 1 MTPA	FLOW 2.5 MTPA	FLOW 5 MTPA	FLOW 7.5 MTPA	FLOW 10 MTPA
100km					
250km					
500km					
750km					
1000km					
1500km					
2000km					











within the categories of wastes which may be considered for dumping. The amendment provides a legal basis for offshore  $CO_2$  storage operations that include CCS activities. Another amendment was proposed to Article 6 of the Protocol that previously prevented the transboundary transport of  $CO_2$  for geological storage. That was adopted in 2009 to allow "... the export of  $CO_2$  streams for disposal ... provided that an agreement or arrangement has been entered into by the countries concerned". Any such agreement must ensure that the permitting, risk assessment and environmental protection standards of the Protocol are fully met.

The 2009 amendment will enter into force only after two-thirds of the signatories have ratified it. Currently, however, ratification has only occurred in Austria, Australia, Belgium, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Iran, the Netherlands, Norway, South Korea, Sweden, Switzerland and the UK. Countries not signatory to the London Protocol are able to transport CO<sub>2</sub> across their borders if both are not signatories. The transboundary shipment of CO<sub>2</sub> across the borders of parties to the London Protocol, however, requires them to provide a declaration of provisional application and notification of any arrangements or agreements to the IMO. This is not a trivial process, demanding significant government-to-government cooperation and agreements.

Business models for CCS value chains rely upon the value created through capturing and storing  $CO_2$  rather than emitting it to the atmosphere. Carbon accounting, and schemes that attach a financial value to  $CO_2$ , must recognise the abatement provided by CCS to underwrite CCS project developers' business case. Until recently, this was not the case for shipping of  $CO_2$  under the EU ETS. Monitoring and reporting regulations meant it was unlikely that  $CO_2$  moved by ship would count as "verified transported" and would instead be treated as "emitted" and the obligation to surrender allowances for that  $CO_2$  would remain. However, effective January 2025, the

EC revised the EU ETS to include the maritime sector by effectively recognising all means of  $CO_2$  transport, where that is for the purpose of geological storage. The UK ETS is still in the process of making similar revisions to recognise  $CO_2$  shipping for CCS projects. Although the UK ETS changes are still in consultation (as of July 2025), there could be a key difference from the EU approach. In Europe, liability for surrendering EU ETS allowances is transferred at each stage of the CCS value chain (i.e., capture, transport and storage). By contrast, the UK has expressed a preference for having the emitter retain liability for the  $CO_2$  until it reaches its storage site.

Another point of conflict between the UK ETS and EU ETS is that, at present, the EU does not recognise EU emissions as securely stored if exported to UK pore space. In those cases, a European emitter still needs to surrender allowances if, for example, its CCS project ships the  $CO_2$  to a UK-based reservoir or aquifer. Improved coordination of ETS (or tax) regimes will be needed across countries exporting and importing  $CO_2$  to avoid regulatory blockers to cross-border CCS schemes.

## 5.3 Current CCS projects based on CO<sub>2</sub> shipping

Northern Lights is the only CCS project at present that ships  $CO_2$ . In September 2022, however, another nine CCS projects, in the early or late stages of development, had identified shipping as their planned  $CO_2$  transport method. That number grew more than five-fold to 48 by July 2024. Around 70% of those are in Europe and 20% are in the Asia Pacific. Early development is defined as having at least started a Feasibility or Pre-Feasibility study.

# 6.0 ADVANTAGES OF AN EXPANDED ROLE FOR CO<sub>2</sub> SHIPPING

The ultimate main societal benefit of a significant growth in shipping-based  $CO_2$  transport is likely to be a complementary rise in the number of CCS projects and proportionate reduction in emissions. This section examines how a rise in  $CO_2$  shipping to that growth in CCS project numbers.

rather than pipelines. Research on this topic for CCS projects is limited but, as an analogue, decommissioning costs for offshore oil and gas fields can account for around 5% to 15% of total lifetime project costs<sup>5</sup>.

### 6.1 Lower CO<sub>2</sub> transport costs

As discussed in Section 5.1, for CCS projects with lower, short-lived and/or variable  $CO_2$  volumes, and with longer distances to their sinks, shipping should be a less expensive form of transport than pipelines. The implied typical savings for a 2.5 Mtpa flow rate of US\$12 (for 500 km) to US\$40 (for 1,500 km) per tonne³ of  $CO_2$  could help make more CCS projects economic. Current estimates⁴ are that transport accounts for between about 10% and 20% of total CCS costs, depending on variables such as the underlying emitting activity (specifically its  $CO_2$  density), the distance to the sink and the characteristics of that reservoir or aquifer. The larger the importance of the transport activity to a project's total CCS costs, the greater is the potential contribution to its business case from an expansion in  $CO_2$  shipping.

Besides reducing transport (and thus overall) costs for stand-alone CCS projects, reduced  $CO_2$  transport costs from shipping can also improve the business case for offshore  $CO_2$  storage networks, sometimes referred to as "CCS hub and clusters". An expanded  $CO_2$  shipping capacity extends the potential customer capture area for network operators and, with associated economies of scale from larger  $CO_2$  vessel capacities, could help reduce the transport rates offered to emitters.

On a lifecycle basis,  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  shipping has several advantages over pipelines when a CCS project ends and the associated infrastructure needs to be decommissioned. As well as the relative speed and ease of restoring the associated subsurface facilities to their previous state compared to pipelines, ships have the subsequent advantage of re-deployment potential, including to LPG operations. The  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  vessels serving one CCS project can be quickly reallocated to other operating projects. This feature reduces the post-closure cost implications of storage operations served by ships

## 6.2 Expansion of CO<sub>2</sub> shipping role to include direct injection

There is a general aspiration for CO<sub>2</sub> shipping to ultimately operate in CCS projects without the need for a complementary pipeline from shore, often a port, to the injection well. That both reduces costs and enhances flexibility. Studies have suggested this is a practical solution<sup>6</sup>. The two main configurations are either direct injection from the vessel or via unloading to a fixed platform, or a secondary vessel, where intermediate storage and injection equipment are located. While the preference for a continuous injection flow favours the platform-related option, direct injection is likely to be less expensive, given the additional expense of building and maintaining an operational platform7. A major Joint Industry Project (JIP) is underway in 2025 to establish common appraisal practices, as well as best practices and knowledge gaps, to help progress direct CO2 injection projects. Partners involved in this JIP are Shell. Aker BP, Total, Harbour Energy, Woodside, K-Line and Mitsui OSK Lines8.

The most advanced development plan to test shipbased CO<sub>2</sub> injection is underway in Norway. Yinson Production acquired the Stella Maris venture in February 2025, which is developing a large-scale floating solution for the direct injection of CCS-related CO2 into the seabed. Many of the same FPSO technologies are being applied for injection rather than extraction purposes. Under the previous (Altera) leadership, Stella Maris was provisionally awarded EUR22.5 million from the EU Innovation Fund in October 2024 that, together with grant support from Gassnova, will be used to develop the breakthrough concept. Phase 1 of the outline plans is to inject up to 10 Mtpa of CO<sub>2</sub> into the Havstjevne in Norwegian waters by shuttling batches of about 50,000 m<sup>3</sup> of CO<sub>2</sub> from multiple industrial sources to the floating injection system.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> 7FP costs report 2011

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> GCCSI research, 2020

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Median value (or P50 case) is 8.8%. From TSB Offshore, Inc., 2014

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Chiyoda, 2011, and TNO CATO, 2016

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Chivoda, 2011

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Described in DNV bulletin, 2024 – *link here* 

## 6.3 Increased flexibility for CCS 6.4 Helps manage stranded projects

Due to its lower need for subsea capital infrastructure, shipping-based CCS projects have the potential to be more guickly designed and built than those relying on pipelines for CO<sub>2</sub> transport. Even CCS projects planning to redeploy retired oil and gas pipelines still have work to refurbish and prepare those for reverse flows of CO<sub>2</sub>. Assuming excess CO<sub>2</sub> shipping capacity (which is likely in a growing market), transport can be arranged relatively quickly. As well as helping shorten overall CCS project development timelines, the use of shipping over pipelines likewise probably reduces delay risks in the construction and testing phases.

The inherent versatility of the marine industry and its traffic management offers several advantages to CCS project developers and operators using CO<sub>2</sub> shipping. Changes, and especially increases, in the underlying emissions profile, both in the short-term due to unforeseen operational needs or long-term growth in underlying industrial production, can be accommodated more easily and quickly with vessels rather than pipelines. Besides the natural redundancy margin with multiple vessels, changes in the size and/or number of CO<sub>2</sub> ships serving the emitter can be more quickly organised, especially as the overall size of the CO<sub>2</sub> fleet expands.

Again, CO<sub>2</sub> storage network operators can benefit from the versatility of shipping. The ability of a range of (themselves variable) CO<sub>2</sub> volumes to be managed, in terms of both varied vessel cargoes and traditional maritime scheduling practices, expands the potential customer base. Supply routes can be actively altered, adjusted and overall optimised as the volumes of CO<sub>2</sub> grows. The capacity of complementary intermediate onshore CO<sub>2</sub> storage facilities (as shown in Figure 2 in Section 3.3) can likewise be adjusted to reflect ongoing changes to networks' supply routes.

Overall, the flexibility in CO2 transport afforded using shipping, which increases in line with the size of the global CO2 vessel fleet, helps both the economic and technical feasibility of prospective CCS projects. The latter issue is especially relevant as distances between emission sources and their sinks increases, sometimes rendering CCS ambitions technically unachievable. Extreme situations, where local storage options are absent or CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines are impractical, can even lead to the phenomenon of "stranded emissions". That issue is examined in the next section.

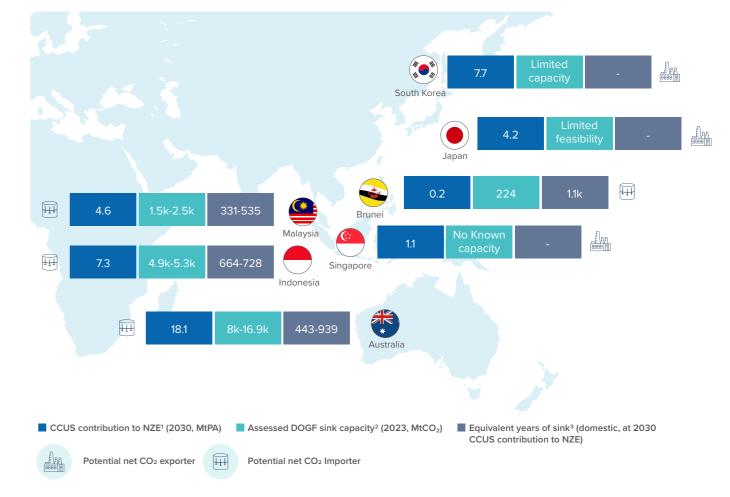
## emissions

There are regions of the world that host industrial operations with significant CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and for whom CCS is unavailable as a mitigation option due to the absence or unsuitability of nearby pore space for safe storage of its CO<sub>2</sub>. The most often used examples of such locations include Japan, South Korea, Singapore and some regions in Russia and China9. Regional and, at times, national geological characteristics mean that CCS had traditionally been considered as technically unfeasible due to excessive CO2 transport needs (and costs) to reach suitable storage resources, and for which pipelines are an impractical solution.

Several countries in the Asia Pacific region are actively investigating the use of CO<sub>2</sub> shipping to manage stranded emissions. Figure 5 shows the degree of challenge faced by Japan, South Korea and Singapore, with the potentially balancing capabilities of Indonesia, Malaysia, Brunei and Australia to store those surplus CO<sub>2</sub> volumes in future, enabled by CO<sub>2</sub> shipping. It is, of course, no coincidence that the region's potential net importers of CO<sub>2</sub> are those with a traditional offshore oil and gas industry that allows subsequent access to redundant reservoirs or natural aquifers.

Still, at this stage, without more impactful climate legislation, CCS lacks a sufficient economic incentive across most of the Asia Pacific region to drive private sector investment. In April 2024, for example, the net "carbon price" (the regulatory cost of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions), where it existed at all, ranged from around US\$1 per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> in Indonesia to US\$22 per tonne in Australia<sup>10</sup>. Meanwhile, the comparable cost of building transboundary regional export capacity for CO<sub>2</sub> ranged from US\$140 to US\$290 per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub><sup>11</sup>. That leaves a significant value gap. Nevertheless, in anticipation of the need to manage their stranded emissions in the future, several pilot CCS projects and CO<sub>2</sub> shipping trials are already underway in net-export countries.

Figure 5 - Mismatch of CCS ambitions and storage capacities in Asia Pacific (GCMD, 2024, p23)



## 6.5 Possible inland waterway CO<sub>2</sub> routes in Europe

A practical extension of CO<sub>2</sub> shipping would be to connect contiguous national and international waterways with major ports capable of accommodating CO<sub>2</sub> tanker vessels. Thinking on this multi-modal transport model is most developed in Europe. There, the existing network of international canals and rivers could be used to develop a feeder system of barges to export consolidated CO<sub>2</sub> from, for example, Antwerp or Rotterdam. This would be akin to a secondary CO<sub>2</sub> collection network, even using small-scale trucks, trains or pipes from industrial CO<sub>2</sub> capture points to waterside locations.

ZEP developed a provisional model for a European waterways CO<sub>2</sub> transport system in its 2024 paper<sup>12</sup>. It identified 26 practical CCS capture locations along the European rivers and canals network that could ultimately collect 50 Mtpa of CO<sub>2</sub>, using 10-20 vessels. Its modelling was based on exporting about 1 Mtpa of CO<sub>2</sub> for every 20,000 tonne vessels on weekly round trips.

The ZEP work identified several areas of work needed to realise its multi-modal CO<sub>2</sub> transport model. Besides having sufficient CO<sub>2</sub> vessel capacity, it recommended that all European signatories to the London Protocol deposit a notice to the IMO to apply the Article 6 Amendment, also signing bilateral agreements where needed. CCS subsidy schemes have to be amended to avoid any prejudice to CO<sub>2</sub> shipping and standardisation is needed for CO<sub>2</sub> specification in shipping, liquefaction and onshore storage. Finally, the paper suggests public authorities create new mechanisms to incentivise investment in both CO2 vessels and appropriate portside handling facilities.

The European inland waterways CO<sub>2</sub> network concept extends the application of CO<sub>2</sub> shipping to landbound countries that might otherwise face the issue of stranded emissions discussed previously (see Section 6.4). The same model could have other applications in, for instance, Africa or North America. By extending the technical feasibility of CO<sub>2</sub> transport and storage, CO<sub>2</sub> shipping can further support the global development rate of CCS projects.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Based on countries' "carbon ratios", comparing national pore space and emissions, ABS, 2023 (p103)

<sup>10</sup> GCMD, 2024 (p38)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> GCMD, 2024 (p32)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> ZEP and CCSA - "Achieving a European Market for CO2 Transport by Ship", January 2024

# A JOINT PUBLIC-PRIVATE APPROACH IS **NEEDED TO ENCOURAGE COUNTRIES** WITH SURPLUS PORE SPACE TO DEVELOP NEW CO2 NETWORKS.

# 7.0 FOCUS AREAS TO SUPPORT GROWTH IN CO<sub>2</sub> SHIPPING TO 2040

This section consolidates this paper's main observations to suggest points of leverage for policy or commercial efforts to underwrite or accelerate the prevailing, already positive, outlook for the use of  $CO_2$  shipping in CCS projects. The force field graphic in Figure 6 consolidates the key actions on developments influencing the rate of growth in  $CO_2$  shipping. There are many co-dependencies and interrelationships across the highlighted variables, not least in that all the other factors will affect the ultimate growth rate in general CCS projects – the top listed enabler.

The separate listing of influences reveals several insights. Most blockers, for example, are intangibles, based on the constraints created by the absence of legislation and regulation that is accommodating to both national and international movements of  $CO_2$  by ship. By contrast, enablers are mostly tangible, such as vessel capacities and fleet sizes, port-handling facilities and  $CO_2$  networks. These generally imply significant investment costs and lead times. Thus, removing blockers could act as a quicker acting stimulant to  $CO_2$  shipping prospects than the physical building of scale. Of course, ideally, removing (or reducing) blockers and creating (or growing) enablers should be done in parallel.

The different mechanisms by which blockers and enablers work in practice is itself revealing. Some of the possible actions listed above have a universal stimulating effect on all CCS projects. This will help  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  shipping on the principle that "a rising tide raises all boats". Others, such as building port facilities,  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  networks or developing marine-focused  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  regulations, extend the technical feasibility for vessel-based  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  transport. The final class improves the overall cost base, and ultimately competitiveness, of  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  shipping in CCS projects and so covers  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  vessel capacities, fleet sizes and general maritime experience.

A proactive use of the force field summary would be to derive recommendations for governments and the general  $CO_2$  shipping supply chain. Thus industry focus areas are improved  $CO_2$  vessel designs and extending the number of ports installing  $CO_2$  handling facilities. Government policy could be directed at ensuring adequate  $CO_2$  regulations for vessel transport and, at a macro scale, easing the international movement of  $CO_2$  cargoes for storage. A joint public-private approach is needed to encourage countries with surplus pore space to develop new  $CO_2$  networks. The associated demand for long-distance  $CO_2$  transport of stranded emissions will stimulate growth in  $CO_2$  shipping.

Figure 6 - 'Force field' behind potential growth in CO<sub>2</sub> shipping (Source: GCCSI)

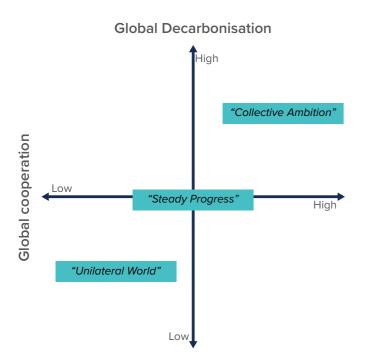




# 8.0 POSSIBLE SCENARIOS FOR CO<sub>2</sub> SHIPPING VOLUMES TO 2040

Scenarios are often preferred as a basis for quantifying future industry growth rates over straightforward forecasts, or projections, in situations of high uncertainty. Work for this paper suggests the two most critical ultimate uncertainties affecting CO<sub>2</sub> shipping are the levels of global decarbonisation efforts and the extent of international cooperation on marine legislation and general trading. That assumption shaped three scenarios that, by employing GENZO, the Global CCS Institute's proprietary Global Emissions and Net Zero Optimisation model<sup>13</sup>, produced a range of future CO<sub>2</sub> shipping volumes. Derivation of the three scenarios is shown schematically in Figure 7.

Figure 7 - Three scenarios for future growth in global CO<sub>2</sub> shipping (Source: GCCSI)



#### 8.1 Scenario narratives

The next stage in scenario development is to create a plausible narrative to help understand how such futures might develop in practice and to associate that description to the applied implications, in this case for  $CO_2$  shipping. This stage is summarised below for each of the three emerging scenarios.

**Collective Ambition** – A series of highly destructive climate events (e.g., storms, floods, droughts) drives

an urgent and focused series of actions on CO<sub>2</sub> management. Targeted pressure builds on the top tier of emitting countries to more immediately reduce their emissions. The UNFCCC is strengthened to become an effective coordinator of global cooperation to accelerate programs to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. A revised objective to achieve net zero by 2050 is widely supported and endorsed. The overall rate of CCS project development increases, even showing signs of closing the CCS deployment gap in the ambitious IEA Net Zero scenario. Significant short-term increases in prevailing carbon prices also kick-start CCS in countries lacking national pore space. Some countries with significant CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity surpluses develop new or expanded CO<sub>2</sub> networks. A larger, more sophisticated CO<sub>2</sub> vessel fleet emerges to service a material international CO2 transport sector.

Steady Progress – Climate policies continue to grow at a relatively incremental pace. Continued growth and expansion (in terms of new applications) of CCS projects drives a reduction in unit costs. That saving is due to both economies of scale as well as ongoing technology and process innovation. Short-term impediments to global climate efforts continue, driven by either political changes or economic cycles. Regardless, the long-term climate trend continues to suggest global achievement of net zero, albeit maybe in the first half of the 2100s. The majority of CCS projects in the current development pipeline will reach operational status. Beyond that, the "feed rate" of new CCS proposals increases as cost reductions improve general CCS project economics. The steady trend towards increasing carbon prices across the world gives a later "second boost" to the underlying CCS growth rate. Expansion in the use of Cross-Border Adjustment Mechanism (CBAM) CO<sub>2</sub> policies drives industrialised countries to pursue CCS opportunities, even when that needs significant CO<sub>2</sub> exports.

**Unilateral World** – A trend towards populism drives an era of political unilateralism. Levels of international cooperation reduce as countries seek more independence in policy and trade. Action on climate change is reduced, suspended or even abandoned in favour of undiluted industrial growth in domestic economies. Increasing numbers of countries withdraw from the UNFCCC or significantly reduce ambition in their NDCs. Experts forecast that the net zero goal is unlikely to be achieved by the end of the century. CCS projects in the early stages of development suffer a high (>25%) attrition rate. Those already under construction continue to reach actual operation. CBAM CO<sub>2</sub> regimes gain traction and are used to protect industrial competitiveness as well as to manage national CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Negotiations to reduce cross-border legislative and regulatory trade barriers falter.

#### 8.2 Scenario results

The Institute's GENZO CCS optimisation model was used to further operationalise the scenario descriptions by interpreting the implications for the model's key parameters. A series of simulations were then run to quantify the scenarios' impact on regional and global  $CO_2$  shipping volumes, measured in Mtpa, through to 2040. The key results, in terms of average annual global shipping volumes, are shown in Table 6.

Table 6 - Scenario-based projections of annual CO<sub>2</sub> shipping volumes (Source: GENZO, GCCSI)

	Average Mtpa of global CO <sub>2</sub> shipped during five year periods*			
	2025-2030	2030-2035	2035-2040	
Steady Progress	15	60	75	
Unilateral World	20	65	125	
Collective Action	25	145	625	

<sup>\*</sup> All figures rounded

The suggested range of annual volumes of CO<sub>2</sub> shipped globally by GENZO is between 75 Mtpa and 625 Mtpa by 2035 to 2040. Either end of that range represents a substantial increase on the estimated 0.5 Mtpa of CO<sub>2</sub> transported in 2024. Although it was not designed as such, the Collective Action scenario produces CCS activity that gets close to levels seen in the IEA Net Zero scenario. On that basis, and perhaps unsurprisingly, given the underlying levels of global commitment and cooperation, Collective Action implies more than eighttimes the shipping volumes than Steady Progress. More surprising, perhaps, is the relatively large scale of CO<sub>2</sub> shipping under Unilateral World. Closer examination of the GENZO model output explains this anomaly by its emphasis on domestic industrial competitiveness that encourages industrial CCS to avoid export-market CBAM policies, as well as the development of CO2 networks to build new export markets for third-party CO<sub>2</sub> management.

Corresponding GENZO-generated  $CO_2$  vessel numbers in 2040 ranged from about 100 in Steady Progress to around 1,000 under Collective Action. The latter estimate coincidentally calibrates with other projections, such as the ZEP figure<sup>14</sup> of 600  $CO_2$  ships needed to service European  $CO_2$  shipping needs in 2050 to accommodate the IEA Net Zero scenario. A review of GENZO's projections of pipeline-based global  $CO_2$  transport under the three scenarios shows similar growth to  $CO_2$  shipping, with a range of 100 Mtpa under Steady Progress to 450 Mtpa in Collective Action. Looking at the comparison of  $CO_2$  shipping to  $CO_2$  pipeline volumes, Collective Action has the highest proportion of ship-based movements, at around 60%

 $<sup>^{14}</sup>$  EU Zero Emissions Technology and Innovation Platform Study Estimates", 2018



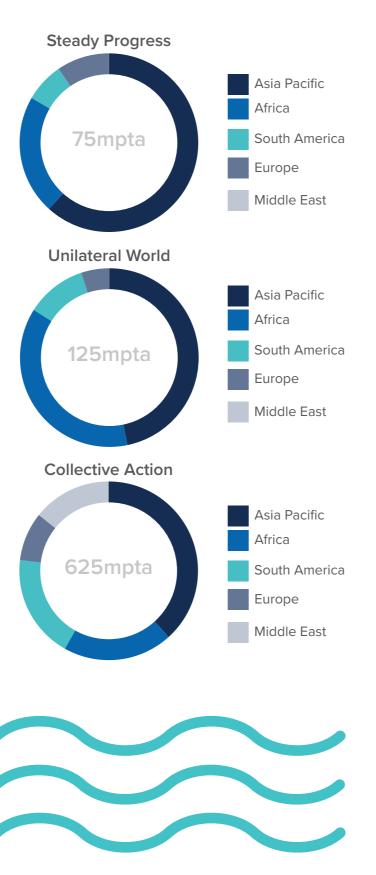
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> Details of the GENZO model are available via this link.

and Steady Progress has the lowest proportion at about 40%. The explanation for the domination of shipping over pipelines for  $CO_2$  transport in Collective Action relates to the large scale of (mostly very long-distance) movements to manage stranded emissions, for which pipelines are inappropriate. Indeed, closer examination of the GENZO results shows that, even under that scenario, pipelines remain more important than shipping in Europe, some regions of South-East Asia and in North America

A comparison of the regional breakdown of the global  $CO_2$  shipping volumes by each of the three scenarios in 2040 is shown in Figure 8. In all three cases, Asia Pacific dominates global  $CO_2$  shipping activities, accounting for 40-60% of trade across the three scenarios, followed by Africa, based on most  $CO_2$  traffic arising from the future management of stranded emissions. The Middle East appears as a significant maritime exporter of  $CO_2$  only under Collective Action, when global mitigation activities — as well as underlying carbon prices — are at their highest levels.

Although this paper has followed a scenario-based approach to generating medium term  $CO_2$  shipping volumes, rather than a more incremental forecasting model, the implications of the GENZO model output are important and insightful. It appears that  $CO_2$  shipping is likely to grow by at least 75 Mtpa, and maybe, under admittedly extreme conditions, to 625 Mtpa, by 2040. Either end of that range represents impressive growth. One can understand others reading similar market signals and now building (or adapting) more  $CO_2$  vessels, expanding the number of ports equipped to manage  $CO_2$  tankers, and developing more CCS projects that use vessels for their  $CO_2$  transport needs.

Figure 8 - Scenario-based CO<sub>2</sub> shipping volumes from and within regions in 2040 (Source: GENZO, GCCSI)



## 9.0 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

CO<sub>2</sub> shipping today is a nascent industry with current annual volumes transported of about 0.5 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub>, serving mainly food and drink industries around northern Europe. Pipelines presently have overwhelming domination in CO<sub>2</sub> transport for CCS projects. They currently account for over 95% of global CO<sub>2</sub> transport capacity. The prospects for growth in CO2 shipping for CCS do, however, look strong; more and larger CO<sub>2</sub> vessels are currently being built and planned, and a significant number of CCS projects in development already plan to use shipping-based CO<sub>2</sub> transport. Three scenarios created for this paper suggest CO2 shipping volumes could reach about 75 Mtpa, 125 Mtpa or over 600 Mtpa by 2040, the latter under highly optimistic conditions of cooperation in trade and climate action. The main regions for CO<sub>2</sub> shipping are Asia Pacific, Africa and South America.

For non-owners, shipping costs are predominantly operational (or variable) rather than capital (or fixed) in nature, the opposite of pipeline costs, meaning shipping should be more cost-competitive for relatively small CCS projects for distances over about 250 km, as well as short-lived or highly variable capture volumes. There are, however, still legal and regulatory obstacles to the cross-border transport of  $\text{CO}_2$  conducive to shipping. Still, these issues are surmountable – if sufficient political will exists.

The pressure and temperature at which cryogenic  $CO_2$  is transported is a critical design choice for  $CO_2$  vessels. Current ships have chosen a medium-pressure design to optimise the trade-off between density (and hence volumes) and costs. New ship designs are adapting from that position to allow larger cargoes or extended vessel applications, such as direct bed injection of  $CO_2$  into the sea.

There is a healthy development pipeline of  $CO_2$  vessels at present in design, construction or testing. The general scale of activities in the  $CO_2$  shipping value chain is also growing, with the most active players having expanded from large-scale gas transport activities. Current  $CO_2$  shipping activities are concentrated in Europe and the Asia Pacific, which together account for about 90% of the emerging CCS projects that rely on shipping for transport.

The anticipated growth in CO<sub>2</sub> shipping will likely mirror growth in the global CCS project development pipeline. That comes from shipping's contribution to the improved commercial and technical feasibility of more CCS projects. Its role in operationalising long-distance CO<sub>2</sub> transport can help address the stranded emissions dilemma facing countries lacking nearby pore space, for which CCS would otherwise be a viable industrial emissions mitigation choice.

Prompted by a belief that  $CO_2$  shipping will have a major role to play in future climate management, and especially in situations of stranded emissions where volumes of  $CO_2$  are expected to be most significant, shipping operators appear prepared (mostly reactively rather than speculatively) to build (or adapt) more  $CO_2$  vessels. That could lead to the emergence of a large and valuable new maritime business that might initially complement, and ultimately even replace, the global hydrocarbon shipping industry.

A series of recommendations to underwrite and accelerate the rate of growth in  $CO_2$  shipping emerges from this paper, which are categorised below by the most relevant action parties.

#### **Shipping industry efforts are best directed towards:**

- Continued work on improved CO<sub>2</sub> vessel designs, both for larger capacities and for extended CCS applications, such as direct injection activities.
- An associated expansion in the size of the CO<sub>2</sub> fleet and experience in their traffic management and development of handling facilities for CO<sub>2</sub> tankers at more ports.

#### Government policy actions are best targeted at:

- Ratification of London Protocol amendments and negotiation of bilateral agreements between CO<sub>2</sub> exporting and importing nations.
- Revision of existing and planned CCS regulatory regimes (from monitoring and reporting to emission trading schemes) to recognise non-pipeline CO<sub>2</sub> transport.

## Joint industry and government efforts are most productive in:

- Development of international CO<sub>2</sub> networks, and associated business models, in countries and regions with suitable surplus CO<sub>2</sub> storage space.
- Planning (even contingency) work on CO<sub>2</sub> export practices and routes for industrialised countries that lack accessible pore space, but for whom CCS is a practical mitigation mechanism.

Prompted by a belief that  $CO_2$  shipping will have a major role to play in future climate management, and especially in situations of stranded emissions where volumes of  $CO_2$  are expected to be most significant, shipping operators are already building (or adapting)  $CO_2$  vessels. That could lead to the emergence of a large and valuable new maritime business that might initially complement, and ultimately perhaps even replace, the global hydrocarbon shipping industry.



#### **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

- 1. ABS "View of the Emerging Energy Value Chains", 2023
- 2. Al Baroudi "Review of Large-Scale CO<sub>2</sub> Shipping and Marine Emissions Management for CCUS", 2021
- 3. Brownsort "Ship Transport of CO2", Presentation to UK-CCSRC, April 2015
- 4. Chiyoda Corporation "CO<sub>2</sub> Carriers for Ship-Based CCS With Unmanned Offshore Facilities", 2012
- 5. Element Energy "Shipping CO<sub>2</sub>, UK Cost Estimation Study for BEIS", 2018
- 6. Global Centre for Marine Decarbonisation "Opportunities for Shipping to Enable Cross-Border CCUS Initiatives", 2024
- 7. IEAGHG "The Status and Challenges of CO2 Shipping Infrastructure", October 2020
- 8. Mitsubishi Heavy Industries Technical Review Volume 61, Number 2, June 2024
- Roussanaly "Techno-Economic Evaluation of CO₂ Transport for a Lignite-Fired IGCC Plant in the Czech Republic", 2017
- 10. TSB Offshore Inc. (D.C Byrd, D.J Miller, S.M Wiese)— "Cost Estimating for Offshore Oil and Gas Decommissioning", 2014
- 11. TNO CATO "Transportation and Unloading of CO<sub>2</sub> by Ship", 2016
- 12. US DOE "US-Japan CO2 Shipping Feasibility Study Screening Assessment", December 2024
- 13. ZEP-CCSA "Guidance for CO<sub>2</sub> Transport by Ship", March 2022
- 14. ZEP "Zero Emissions Technology and Innovation Platform Study Estimates", 2018
- 15. ZEP "The Costs of CO<sub>2</sub> Capture, Transport and Storage", 2011



Global CCS Institute Level 23, Tower 5, 727 Collins Street Docklands VIC 3008 Australia

alobalcosinstitute com

#### Copyright © 2025 Global CCS Institute

The Global CCS Institute and the authors believe that this document represents a fair representation of the current state of law in the key areas and jurisdictions considered, however its content should not be construed as, or substituted for, professional legal advice. The Global CCS Institute has tried to make information in this publication as accurate as possible. However, it does not guarantee that the information in this publication is totally reliable, accurate or complete. Therefore, the information in this publication should not be relied upon when making investment or commercial decisions or provided to any third party without the written permission of the Global CCS Institute.

The Global CCS Institute has no responsibility for the persistence or accuracy of URLs to any external or third-party internet websites referred to in this publication and does not guarantee that any content on such websites is, or will remain, accurate or appropriate. To the maximum extent permitted, the Global CCS Institute, its employees and advisers accept no liability (including for negligence) for any use or reliance on the information in this publication, including any commercial or investment decisions made on the basis of information provided in this publication.