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## Preface

This is my master's thesis for the University of Stavanger's master's programme in Industrial Economics. I would like to thank my fantastic cohabitant, family, friends, and colleagues for their encouragement and support throughout my studies. I would like to thank my supervisor, Knut Erik Bang, and everyone who has consulted with me and helped me identify relevant challenges for the thesis. The work on this thesis has given me a good understanding of how the petroleum industry interacts with politics, which will be valuable in my future work life. Studying such a relevant and rewarding topic has been a privilege.

André Mellemstrand Jarstø

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## Abstract

This thesis aims to answer whether Norway should continue the development of the Norwegian Continental Shelf with power from shore, based on analysis and comprehensive literature study. The world is undergoing a transformation driven by global warming, and the emphasis on sustainable development has never been more prominent. Norway's total reduction in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from 1990 levels was 4,2% in 2020, implying that rapid and significant emission reductions across all sectors are necessary to reach the target. The petroleum industry is Norway's most polluting industry but also the most essential in terms of value creation, government revenues, investments, and export value. Electrification with power from shore is an emission-reducing measure that is critical for Norway to achieve emission reduction targets.

Power from shore to the Norwegian continental shelf will increase energy consumption. Norway is at a crossroads regarding the distribution of surplus zero-emission electricity. The results show that political legislation is the most powerful driver and barrier to electrifying the Norwegian continental shelf with power from shore. The environmental impact analysis shows that electrification will lower Norway's upstream and domestic emissions while increasing downstream emissions that are not included in Norway's national climate targets. The EU Emissions Trading System (EU ETS) implies that electrification has no net environmental impact on CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the 30 member countries if the released gas is used for quota-controlled activities. The net environmental impact outside of Europe depends on several uncertain factors.

The political and economic framework facilitates good conditions for oil and gas companies to electrify the Norwegian continental shelf. The economic sensitivity analysis implies that gas turbine efficiency has the greatest impact on the Norwegian government's decision on whether power from shore should be implemented or not. Oil fields have a limited lifetime, and power from shore reduces the power surplus in Norway, net energy exports to Europe, and increases the electricity prices in Norway.

Based on the findings and results of the three analyses, the thesis concludes that Norway should not continue the development of the Norwegian Continental Shelf with power from shore.

## Abbreviations

PESTL - Political, Economic, Social, Technological, Legal

HVDC – High Voltage Direct Current

AC – Alternating Current

DC – Direct Current

TWh – Terra Watt-hours

LNG – Liquid Natural Gas

NCS – Norwegian Continental Shelf

OECD – Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development

Sm<sup>3</sup> o.e. - Standard Cubic meters of oil equivalents

b.o.e. – Barrel of oil equivalents

Mtoe – Million Tonnes of Oil Equivalents

EEA - The European Economic Area

EU ETS – European Union Emission Trading System

EU - The European Union

UK – The United Kingdom

MPE – Ministry of Petroleum and Energy

MCE - Ministry of Climate and Environment

NPD - Norwegian Petroleum Directorate

NVE - The Norwegian Water Resources and Energy Directorate

PSA - Petroleum Safety Authority Norway

CHP – Combined Heat and Power Plant

FPSO - Floating, production, storage, and offloading vessel

IPPC - Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change

UNFCCC - United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

CAPEX - Capital expenditures

OPEX – Operating Expense

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# 1 Introduction

The world is undergoing a transformation driven by global warming, and the emphasis on sustainable development has never been more prominent (IPCC, 2022a). According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), global warming has increased by 1.0 °C beyond 1990's preindustrial levels and is expected to reach 1.5 °C between 2030 and 2050 if current pollution trends continue (IPCC, 2018). The impacts of global warming can already be witnessed in the deepest parts of the ocean and on the highest mountains. The time is about to run out if we are to save the world as we know it (IPCC, 2022). The planet will likely undergo irreversible climate effects if global warming exceeds 2 °C (IPCC, 2018). Therefore, the world came together in 2015 to try and change the negative trend.

The Paris Agreement was adopted by 193 Parties to prevent irreversible effects through a legally binding international agreement establishing long-term goals to guide nations toward limiting the temperature rise below 2 °C (UNFCCC, 2015). Global emissions must peak between 2020 and 2025 for the world to achieve this target (IPCC, 2022b). The Paris Agreement commits Norway and other member nations to set new and more ambitious CO<sub>2</sub> emission reduction targets every five years (UNFCCC, 2015). Norway enhanced its commitment in 2020. The new target is to reduce emissions by at least 50% up to 55% by 2030 and net-zero by 2050, relative to 1990 levels (UNFCCC, 2020). Norway's total reduction in emissions from 1990 levels was 4,2% in 2020 (SSB, 2021), implying that rapid and significant emission reductions across all sectors are necessary to reach the target (IPCC, 2022b).

The petroleum industry is Norway's most polluting industry but also the most essential in terms of value creation, government revenues, investments, and export value (Meld. St. 13, 2021; SINTEF, 2019), accounting for approximately 27% of Norway's CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in 2020 (SSB, 2021). Oil and gas will play an essential role in the global energy mix for decades to come due to the ever-growing global energy demand. Electrification with power from shore is an emission-reducing measure that is critical for Norway to achieve emission reduction targets (Meld. St. 13, 2021).

Throughout 2021, the conditions for powering the Norwegian continental shelf from the shore changed. Businesses and consumers have been hit hard by all-time high electricity prices due to extraordinary gas prices, precipitation fluctuations, and CO<sub>2</sub> pricing (Nord Pool, 2022;



Statnett, 2022). While many countries are working to make their electricity-generating emission-free, Norway already has renewable electricity production. As a result, the demand for green energy rises as more industries want to connect to the grid or expand their existing outlets (Statnett, 2022). Statnett emphasises in its study «Short-term Market Analysis 2021-2026» that Norway's present power surplus will drop to zero by 2026 if the current expansion trend continues (Statnett, 2021). Power from shore to the Norwegian continental shelf will increase energy consumption. Norway is at a crossroads regarding the distribution of surplus zero-emission electricity. The potentials and consequences of powering the Norwegian continental shelf from shore are unclear, which leads to the investigation of the thesis:

*Should Norway continue the development of the Norwegian Continental Shelf with power from shore?*

Three research questions are formulated to answer the investigation of the thesis:

1. What is the most critical driver and barrier for electrifying the Norwegian continental shelf with power from shore?
2. Does electrification of the Norwegian Continental Shelf reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions?
3. How do political and economic frameworks facilitate power from shore development?

## 1.1 Structure of the thesis

The thesis consists of 8 chapters. Chapter 2 provides theory about the subject before introducing the methods utilised in Chapter 3 to answer the research questions. The analysis is split into three parts:

- PESTL Analysis
- Environmental Impact Analysis
- Economic Sensitivity Analysis

PESTL Analysis is presented in Chapter 3.5, analysed in Chapter 4 and ends with a summary of the PESTL results in Chapter 4.6. PESTL constitutes the theoretical foundation which will be discussed further in Chapter 7. The environmental impact analysis is presented in Chapter 3.6, and the results are presented in Chapter 5.3. Economic Sensitivity Analysis is presented in Chapter 3.7 with results in Chapter 6.1. All findings and results are discussed in Chapter 7, which provides the basis for the conclusion in Chapter 8. The thesis ends with a recommendation for future research that can contribute to developing new topics for future studies.

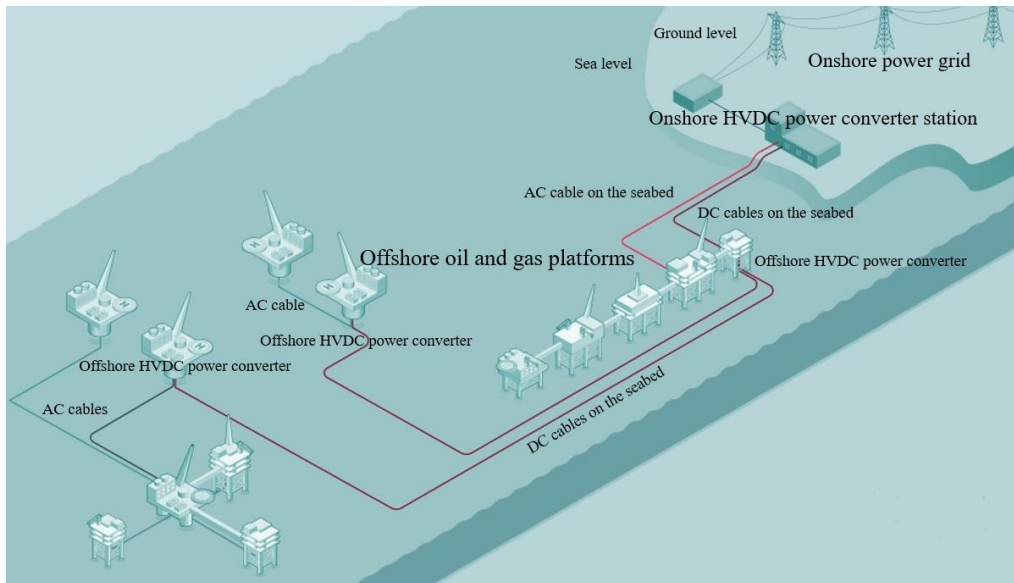
## 1.2 Constraints

The master's thesis is based on information and data until April 2022. Due to time and resource restrictions, limiting the report's scope to a feasible size was necessary.

## 2 Theory

### 2.1 Electrification

"Electrification with power from shore" implies that you cease obtaining electricity from gas combustion (gas turbines) on platforms and instead extend cables to shore and transmit power from there (Osmundsen, 2012). Today, most platforms are powered by gas turbines that run on natural gas extracted offshore. Electrification with power from shore reduces the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from oil and gas extraction since the Norwegian electricity mix is generated from renewable energy (NPD, 2020; OECD, 2022). Using power from shore reduces the amount of gas combusted offshore, allowing a greater volume of gas to get exported to Europe (Riboldi, Völler, Korpås, & Nord, 2019).



*Figure 1 - Illustration of electrification offshore (Equinor, 2012, 2022a).*

Electrification includes transmitting power from the onshore grid and distributing it to various offshore platforms, as illustrated in Figure 1. Power from shore can be transmitted as either direct current (DC) or alternating current (AC). DC is better suited for transmitting large amounts of power over longer distances because the resistance is lower than in AC cable, resulting in less transmission loss (NPD, 2020). However, if electricity is transmitted from shore as DC, it must be converted on land and offshore since both power systems are based on AC. Electricity conversion results in energy loss (Statnett, 2013). High-Voltage Direct Current (HVDC) converter equipment is typically large, heavy, and expensive, resulting in many offshore installations being better suited to AC cables (NPD, 2020).

Existing offshore installations must reconstruct to have access to shore electricity. These are often more costly and complex projects than designing a new installation with power from shore technology (NPD, 2020). Many power from shore projects is being evaluated for connection to existing facilities, typically costing between four and five billion NOK (NPD, 2020). Conversions and expenses vary depending on the existing facility, size, and the amount of equipment to be changed. The available space and weight capacity, distance from land, and installation style, such as fixed or floating platforms, are critical in determining the scope and expense of power from shore conversion (NPD, 2020).

## 2.2 Norway's Emission Status

### 2.2.1 Domestic Emissions Status

Norway's emission level per capita remained below the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) average of 11.3 tonnes CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent in 2019, despite its small population size and significant oil and gas production (OECD, 2022). Norway has a good ranking in terms of emission intensity, calculated by dividing CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by gross domestic product and has grown to be Europe's largest energy exporter (OECD, 2022; Wood, 2016). Norway is energy self-sufficient on average years and has one of the most decarbonised power sectors globally due to its widespread use of renewable electricity, primarily hydropower (Figure 2). It is giving the country the second-largest share of renewables globally, with 51% of its energy mix and 99% of its electricity output (OECD, 2022).

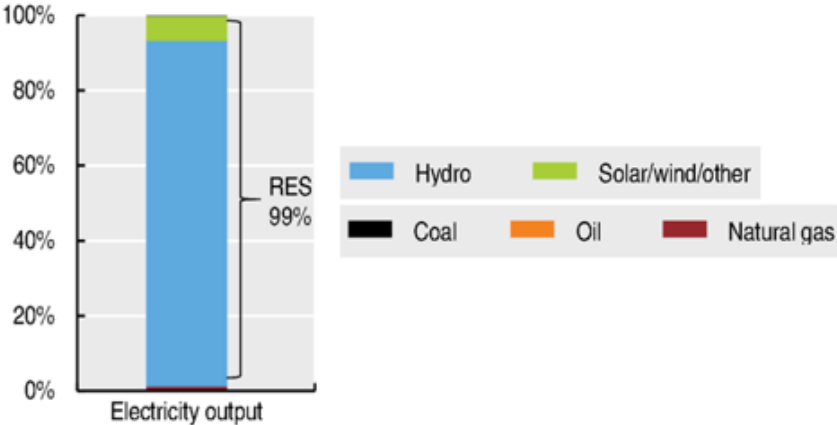


Figure 2 - Norway's electricity generation source (OECD, 2022).

Despite all this, Norway is still far from reaching its enhanced legally binding climate targets through EEA and the Paris Agreement to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by 50% and towards 55% by 2030, compared to 1990 levels. In 2020, they were only 4,2% lower than 1990 levels (SSB, 2021). Norway's low emission reductions result from the country's primary starting point with a renewable electricity mix in 1990, leaving few quick and easy reductions. Figure 3 below illustrates that Norway had a clean electricity output in 1990 and 2018, resulting in the same CO<sub>2</sub> emission intensity of electricity generation.

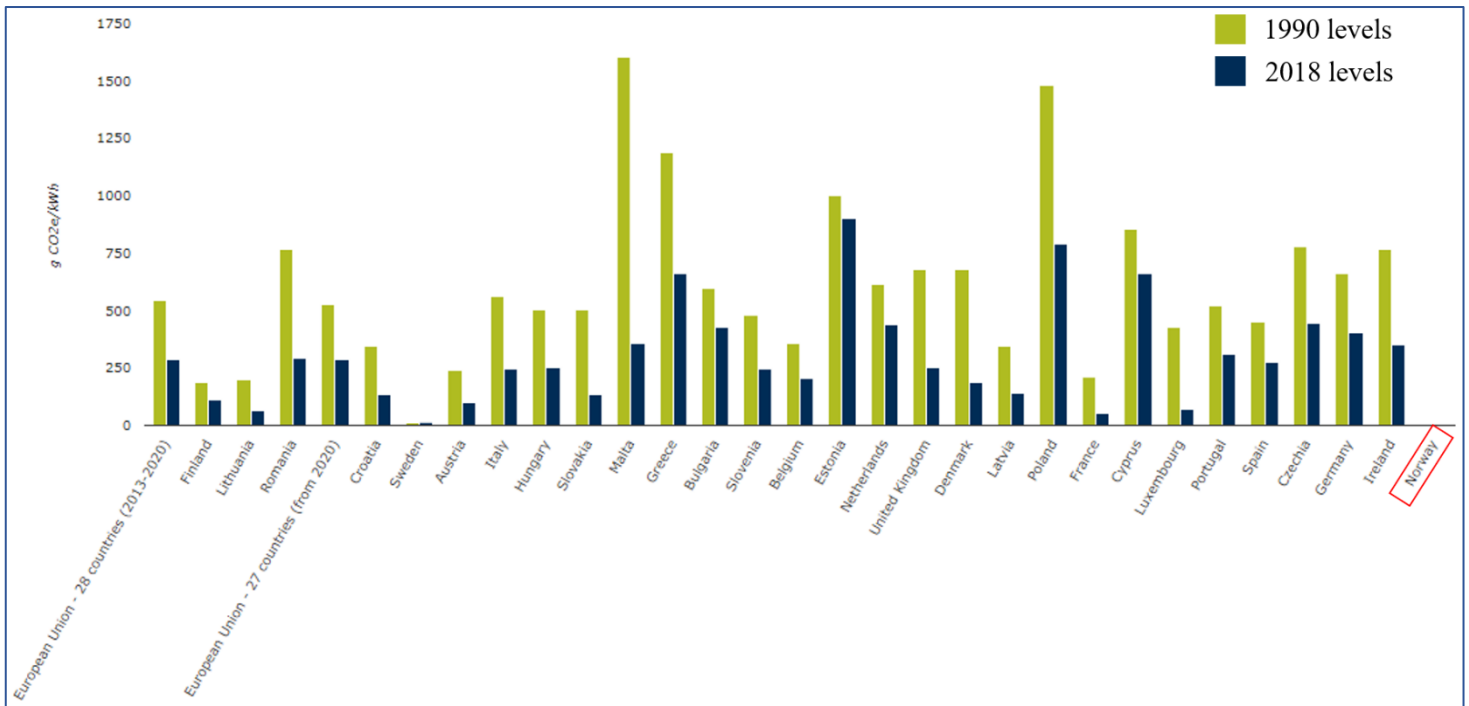


Figure 3 – CO<sub>2</sub> emission intensity of electricity generation by country (EEA, 2020).

Oil and gas extraction dominates Norway’s emissions, representing approximately 13 out of 49 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents, or 27% of Norway's total CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in 2020 (Figure 4). The growth in oil and gas production from 125 to 231 million Sm<sup>3</sup> of oil equivalents has contributed to the poor CO<sub>2</sub> emission reduction from 1990 to 2020 (NPD, 2022d). Despite adding multiple fields to production, petroleum industry emissions have stayed steady over the last decade (SSB, 2021). CO<sub>2</sub> taxes and quota requirements create a financial incentive for oil and gas companies to reduce emissions. The Norwegian petroleum industry has high environmental and climate standards, with one of the world’s lowest carbon footprints for oil and gas extraction (OECD, 2022). Gas turbines account for 82% of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from oil and gas extraction, making electrification of the NCS a very effective emission reduction measure, illustrated in Figure 4 below.

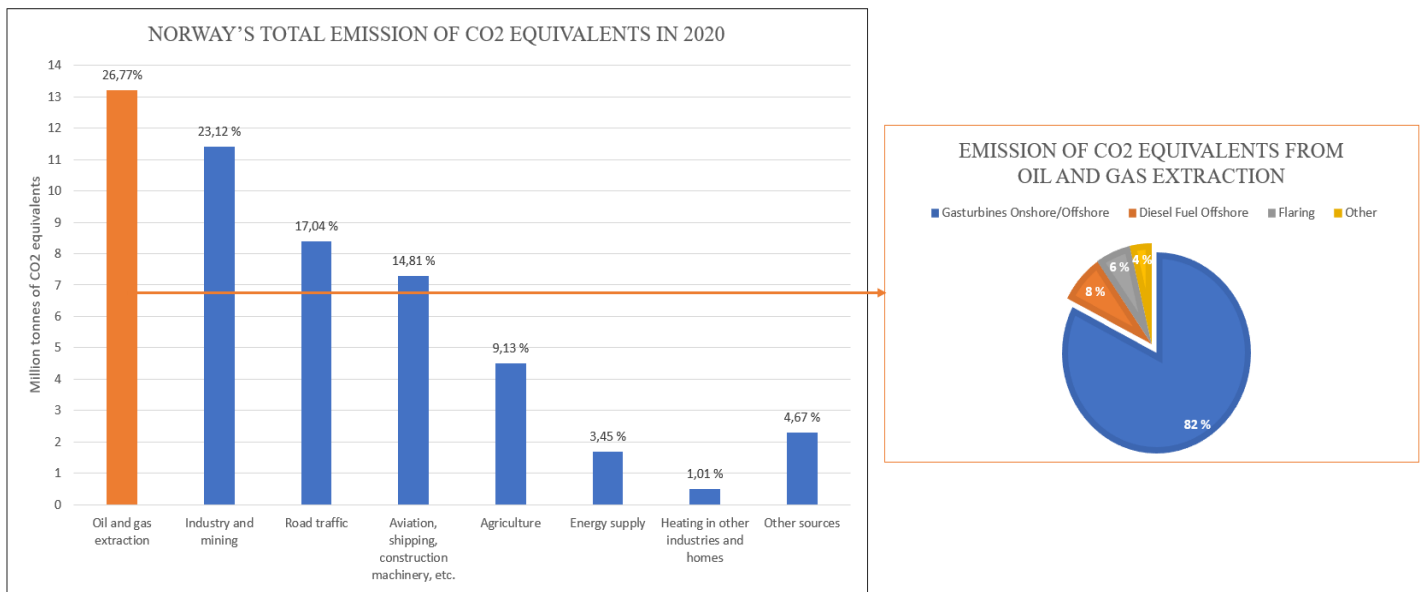


Figure 4 - Norway's total emission of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents in 2020 with the percentage of total CO<sub>2</sub> emission (SSB, 2021).

As of 2022, 16 oil fields are using or have adopted power from shore to be operational by 2023. Then oil fields powered from shore will account for around 45 % of the Norwegian continental shelf's total oil and gas extraction. The fields will save roughly 3.2 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> per year and increase electricity consumption from around 5 TWh in 2020 to around 7.9 TWh in 2024 (NPD, 2020). In addition to the 16 oil fields, six more mature electrification projects have made significant progress in the planning phase. If the projects are authorised, the avoided CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from shore power are expected to rise to roughly 4.9 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> per year. That corresponds to a third of the total emissions from the petroleum sector in 2020 (NPD, 2020; SSB, 2021). The electrification of the entire Norwegian Continental Shelf will require approximately 15 TWh per year, which is approximately 10% of Norway's total yearly electricity consumption (NPD, 2020; Statnett, 2022).

### Norwegian Forest

Norway has large forest areas that capture CO<sub>2</sub> through photosynthesis (Nibio, 2021). Every year between 1955 and 1992, more than 60 million trees were planted each year. In 1990, Norwegian forests captured almost 15 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent, compared to more than 23 million tonnes in 2019 (Figure 5). That corresponds to almost half of Norway's total CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in 2020 (Figure 4). The positive environmental contributions of forests are, per April 2022, not included in Norway's commitment to the EU and Paris Agreement (Hermansen,

Farstad, Kallbekken, & Voigt, 2021). As illustrated in Figure 5, the impact of large-scale afforestation has begun to fade.

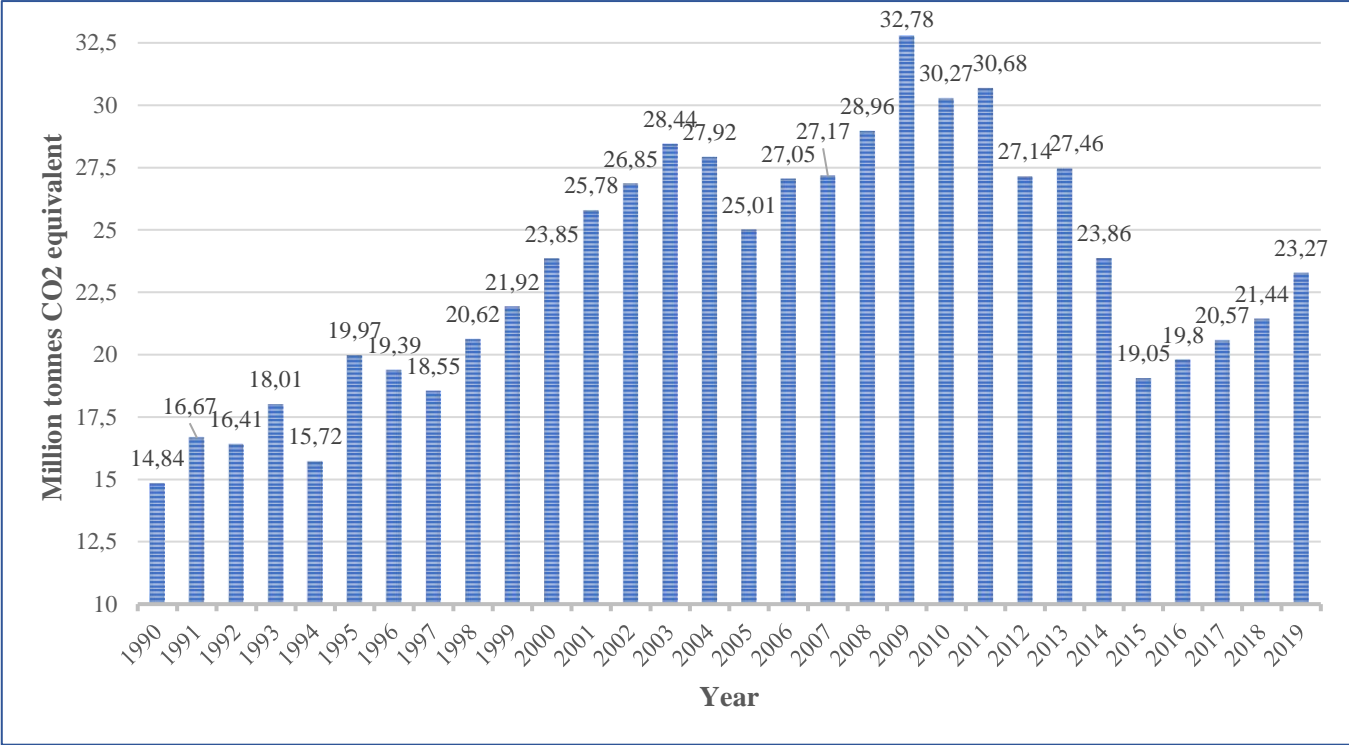


Figure 5 - Annual CO<sub>2</sub> capture by Norwegian forests (Nibio, 2021).

### 2.2.2 International Emissions

Norway is one of the world's largest downstream emitters since almost all of the oil and gas produced on its continental shelf is exported (McKinnon, Mittitt, & Trout, 2017; NPD, 2021). Norway's downstream emissions, also known as indirect emissions, origins from Norway's oil and gas activities, but the emissions occur at sources controlled by another country. In 2020, Norway exported around 66 million Sm<sup>3</sup> of crude oil and over 112 billion Sm<sup>3</sup> of natural gas to foreign nations. The gross energy density in Norwegian natural gas sales alone corresponds to approximately nine times the average Norwegian electricity generation (NPD, 2022a; Statnett, 2022).

Norway’s state-owned and biggest energy supplier, Equinor, operates about 70% of all oil and gas production on the Norwegian continental shelf (Equinor, 2021). They recently published their annual “Sustainability Report” (Equinor, 2022c) that provides insight into the significant difference in upstream and downstream emissions. Equinor delivered approximately 1206 TWh to the market in 2021, of which 4 TWh was from renewables (Equinor, 2022c). In 2021,

Equinor’s downstream emissions were 249 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent, against its upstream emissions of 12.1 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent. That includes all domestic and international activities (Equinor, 2022c). Chapter 3.6 present an analysis of the environmental impact of electrification of the NCS.

### 2.3 Lifecycle of Oil fields

A typical oil field has a production phase that includes a quick build-up to maximum output, followed by a flattening over a few years before production progressively falls (Lake, Johns, Rossen, & Pope, 2014). Future oil and gas production is dependent on investments in current fields, exploration, future discoveries, their size, whether they are permitted to be developed and when they are put into production (NPD, 2022d). Oil output will likely rise in the coming years due to recent shelf development work (NPD, 2022d). In 2021, 231 million barrels of oil equivalents were produced, not far from Norway's peak production of 264.2 million barrels in 2004 (Figure 6). The difference is that we produce significantly more natural gas due to the natural life cycle of a producing field, which includes less oil and lower reservoir pressure (Wei, Jia, Xu, & Fang, 2021).

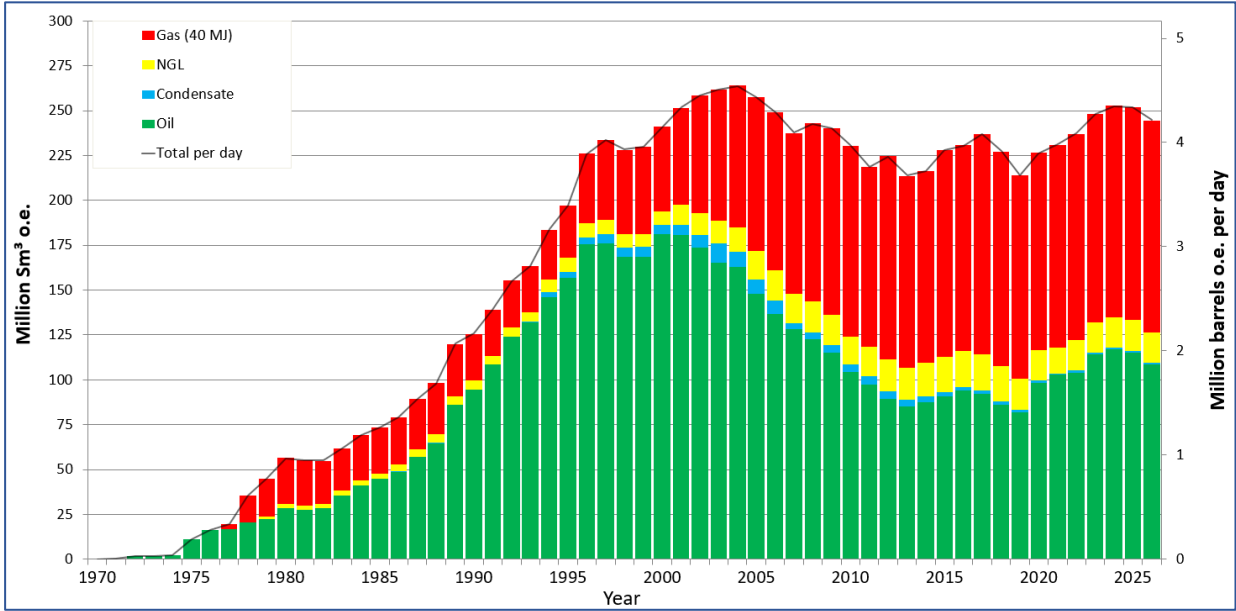


Figure 6 - Historical and expected oil and gas production in Norway, 1970-2026 (NPD, 2022d).

According to the Norwegian Petroleum Directorate’s (NPD) assessments, around two-thirds of Norway's natural gas resources have yet to be extracted (NPD, 2022a). Oil and coal emit significantly more CO<sub>2</sub> than natural gas, which is essential in limiting global warming (IEA, 2019). The NPD considers only four fields on the NCS to be inapplicable for electricity from



shore since they have less than three years of operation remaining. There is insufficient time to build the electrification facilities before they are out of operation. The remaining fields may receive power from shore in the future (NPD, 2020).

### 2.4 Current Electricity Market

Power rates were at their lowest in recent history during the Covid-19 pandemic in 2020, but by the end of 2021, they had risen to their highest level ever (Nord Pool, 2022). The Norwegian electricity year of 2021 has been defined by significant contrasts, with the highest electrical consumption and generation ever, an hourly imports record, and massive pricing variations across the country (Figure 7 & Figure 8).

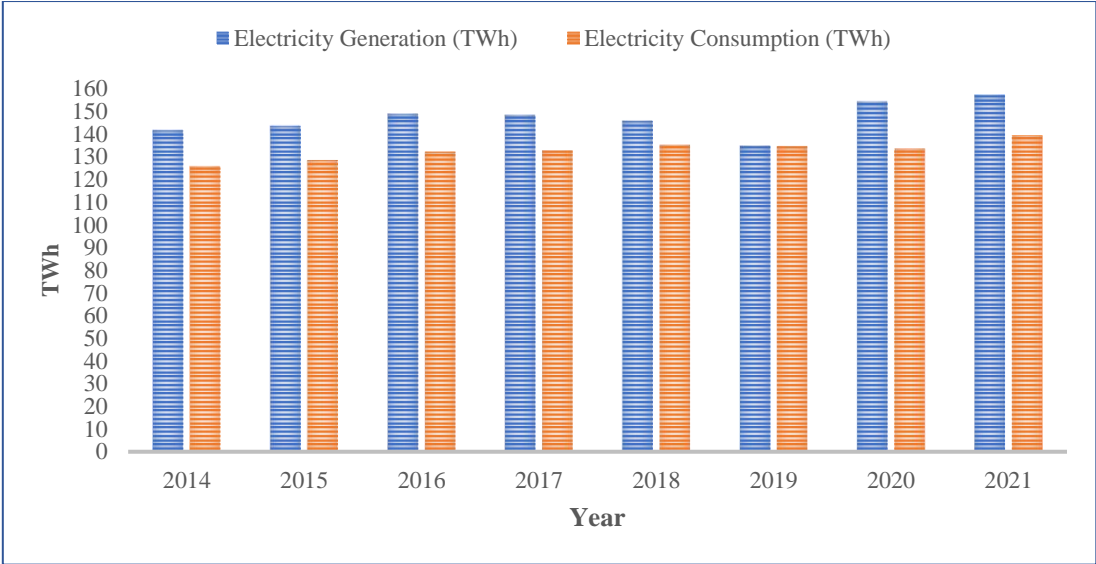


Figure 7 - Norway's electricity generation and consumption, 2014-2021 (Statnett, 2022).

Figure 8 below illustrates Norway's average electricity spot price over the last 15 years. Norway's construction of new power lines to Germany and the United Kingdom (UK) has increased its integration with the European power market (OECD, 2022). The integration, lack of wind and precipitation, record-high gas and coal prices, and a doubling of CO<sub>2</sub> quota fees contributed to the significant increase in Norwegian electricity prices in 2021 (Rystad Energy, 2022).

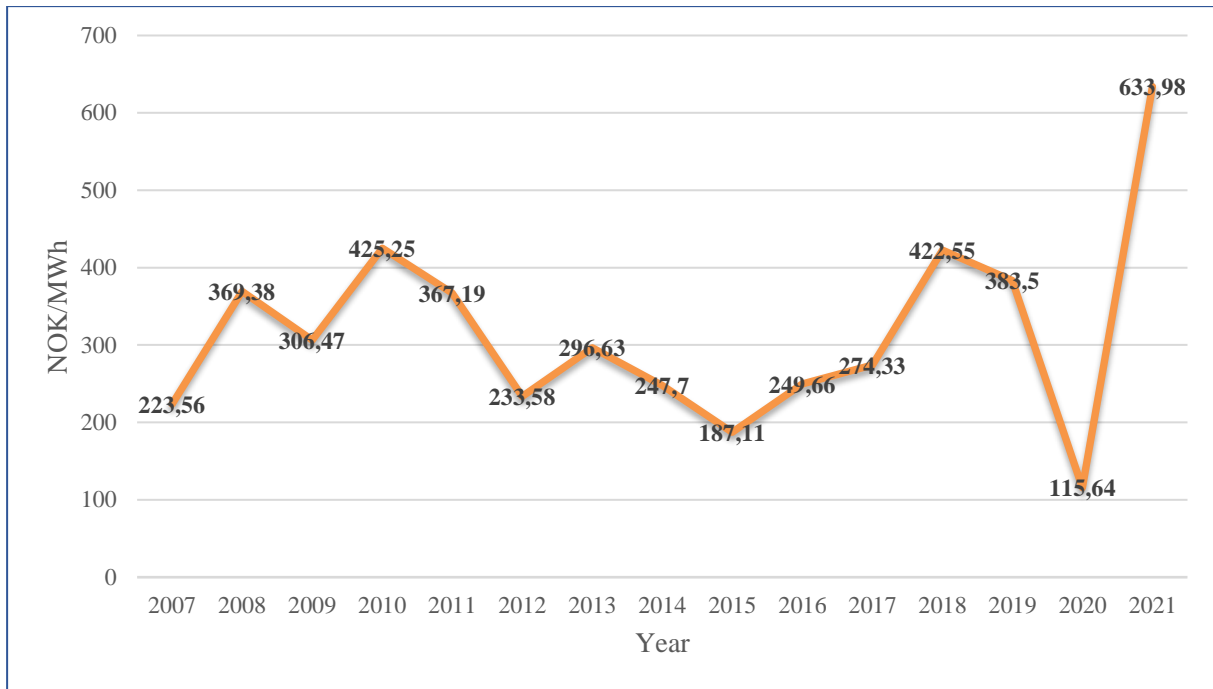


Figure 8 - Norway's average electricity spot price per year (Nord Pool, 2022).

### 3 Method

Theoretical research aims to account for empirical results and combine them to provide information (SNL, 2019). This chapter describes the approach to obtaining information and answering the research questions.

#### 3.1 Qualitative and Quantitative Method

This thesis contains both qualitative and quantitative research to acquire data and information. The qualitative section aims to provide a solid understanding of the topic by presenting information that statistics alone cannot quantify. The PESTL analysis, which deals with data that presents a broad overview of the thesis's topics, employs qualitative approaches (Sammut-bonnici & Galea, 2015). The qualitative method for determining whether Norway should continue expanding power from shore to the NCS does not quantify the problem-related elements exclusively. The quantitative method has been used to quantify information, such as historical CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from oil and gas extraction and future projections of electricity consumption. Historical data make it feasible to give explanations and quantify estimates for potential CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and energy prices are included to conclude the research question.

### 3.2 Inductive versus deductive

This thesis required a deductive technique, comprising accumulating theory and evidence to conclude the research question. The inductive technique involves developing new hypotheses responding to an observable problem (Fredagsvik, 2020). The researcher must analyse the acquisition of empirical data before judging whether papers and studies are trustworthy and valid for data collection, which is a drawback of the deductive technique. Since scientists handle research regularly, research may be biased and retain an impression of the researcher's beliefs and opinions. Maintaining objectivity prevents overlooking critical information that challenges one's ideas and convictions. Validity and dependability are essential for avoiding information and attitude bias (Fredagsvik, 2020; Granstrøm & Brun, 2019).

### 3.3 Reliability and validity

This thesis targets to provide a high level of reliability and validity. Reliability is a measure of the consistency of the research (Samset, 2015). For instance, if the data is consistent across time, the dependability may be determined using a test-retest reliability metric (Fredagsvik, 2020; Granstrøm & Brun, 2019). This is accomplished by repeatedly doing the same study within the same bounds and receiving the same findings. Regardless of who does the study, the research may be considered credible if the data are consistent. Reliable research is objective, and the researcher must maintain objectivity and abstain from personal biases and values when conducting the study. The validity of research is determined by how effectively it explains what it is designed to express (Samset, 2015).

### 3.4 Data collection

The theoretical foundation in the thesis is ideally prepared using primary and secondary data from a wide range of sources to provide different perspectives and opinions. The data collection heavily emphasises trustworthiness and validity based on the chosen authors, content, and publication dates. For factual basis, sources with high reliability and validity from the Norwegian government and large organisations such as the IPCC, IEA, NDP, SINTEF, KonKraft, NVE, Rystad Energy, and SSB were primarily used, with scientific articles and existing research on the relevant topics. These organisations are seen as objective and transparent, having dependable and unbiased viewpoints, while other sources, such as articles, may have more influenced perspectives. Various viewpoints are conducted regarding the research question and electrification of the NCS. Comparisons from other sources have been

performed to ensure data consistency and trustworthiness of the thesis (Fredagsvik, 2020; Granstrøm & Brun, 2019).

The concerns about NCS electrification are changing rapidly. Most of the information and data are based on results in new and recent reports from organisations rather than literary books to assure legitimacy. It has been shown that different studies on the same issue may provide conflicting results because there are numerous opposing viewpoints regarding the electrification of the NCS. There is a greater chance of mixing up data with incorrect, biased, or invalid information from various sources. Obtaining data from reliable organisations and comparing information from several sources have been used to assure consensus and trustworthiness. Information develops from substantial data collection consistent across several reports, forming the foundation for eliminating incorrect material (Fredagsvik, 2020).

### 3.5 PESTL Framework

Extensive knowledge in various areas and critical factors regarding power from shore are required to answer the research questions. PESTL analysis is an effective method for analysing strategic risk and changes affected by the external macro-environment (Granstrøm & Brun, 2019; Sammut-bonnici & Galea, 2015). The PESTL framework examines political, economic, social, technological, and legal factors driving or creating barriers to electrification development.

## 3.6 Environmental Impact Analysis

This analysis will investigate the impact of Norwegian continental shelf electrification on the domestic and international CO<sub>2</sub> emissions.

### 3.6.1 The Environmental Impact of Gas Turbines

The first part of the analysis will look at how much impact offshore gas turbines have on net oil and gas emissions, including downstream emissions. The analysis will provide insight into the emission reduction potential for power from shore because it substitutes gas combustion with electricity. The analysis compares Norway's total oil and gas production, including average emission factors, to total emissions from gas turbines on the NCS. The results were compared with Equinor's annual "Sustainability Report" (Equinor, 2022c) to ensure validity (Appendix 2).

### 3.6.2 The Environmental Impact of the Electricity Mix

The analysis method is inspired by the Cicero report, "Do electrification of platforms on the Norwegian Continental shelf reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emission?" (Torvanger & Ericson, 2013). The analyses research the CO<sub>2</sub> impact of electrifying a platform on the NCS. This is analysed by comparing the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions intensity of shore electricity generation from Norwegian, Nordic, or European electricity mix (El-mix) replacing the offshore gas turbines (BP, 2021; EEA, 2021; KonKraft, 2021). The analysis is split into two parts, domestic- and global environmental impact of electrification. The domestic part includes the environmental impact the electricity generation emissions have on power from shore implementation but excludes combustion of released gas. The global environmental impact includes released gas combustion. The electricity generated by the released gas replaces coal power or the average existing European El-mix. The analysis excludes replacing Norwegian and Nordic electricity mix because the existing El-mix emission intensities are substantially lower than electricity generated by gas combustion, resulting in a significant high net CO<sub>2</sub> emission impact. Power grid- and gaspipe transmission loss impacts the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and the emission intensity to transport released gas through pipes (Torvanger & Ericson, 2013). Chapter 5 provides the data used in the analysis. A complete illustration of the method is in Figure 21, and the complete calculation is found in Appendix 2.

### 3.7 Economic Sensitivity Analysis

An economic sensitivity analysis of the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost was conducted with @Risk in Excel. The cost of CO<sub>2</sub> abatement is the cost of an implementation per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> avoided as a result of the implementation. The analysis's objective is to provide insight into the economic factors the Norwegian Petroleum Directorate (NPD) considers when evaluating power from shore projects for development. The analysis is inspired by the method used by the Norwegian Petroleum Directorate in the “Power from shore to the Norwegian Continental Shelf” report published in 2020 (NPD, 2020). The 2020 report assesses the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost for all fields on the NCS. These calculations range from just under 1,000 NOK to 8,000 NOK per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> prevented (NPD, 2020). An Excel dataset of a fictive power from shore project was made to obtain a CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost base value. The dataset includes investments starting in 2023 and operating costs until 2036. Larger fields have higher capital expenditure (CAPEX) and operating costs (OPEX), preventing emitting greater amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> due to electrification. The equation calculates the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost:

$$\frac{NOK}{\text{Tonne reduced CO}_2 \text{ emissions}} = \frac{NPV(CAPEX+OPEX)_{PFS} - NPV(CAPEX+OPEX)_{APS}}{NPV(CO_2 \text{ emissions})_{APS} - NPV(CO_2 \text{ emissions})_{PFS}} \quad (1)$$

Where: NPV = Net Present Value, PFS = Power from Shore, and APS = Alternative Power Source.

The following parameters are used in the analysis: expected operating years, investment costs (CAPEX), operating costs (OPEX), total lifetime demand for electricity, discount rate, gas turbine efficiency, electricity price, gas price, and CO<sub>2</sub> price. The analyses assume that the NOx price is included in the CO<sub>2</sub> price. The total amount of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoided is dependent on the gas released, which is a variable of the fields' total lifetime electricity demand and gas turbine efficiency. All released gas is assumed to be sold on the open market. The released gas is the product of the electricity demand per year and gas turbine efficiency, divided by the theoretical energy density in natural gas, which has an energy density of 11,111 kWh / Sm<sup>3</sup> (NPD, 2022b). The total amount of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoided is the product of the average gas combustion emissions per 1 Sm<sup>3</sup> natural gas, 2.34 kg CO<sub>2</sub> (SSB, 2017; Torvanger & Ericson, 2013), and the released gas as a result of electrification. The electricity cost per year is the electricity price and electricity demand product. The same method was utilised to calculate CO<sub>2</sub> costs and revenue from gas sales. The Excel command “NPV” calculated the net present value (NPV).

The input variables in the sensitivity analysis are economic factors that may change after the implementation is complete to see which variable has the most significant impact on the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost. The NPD must base implementation decisions on predicted values (NPD, 2020). Sensitivity analysis shows the impact the input variables have on the output number. The CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost is the output number monitored by the "Output" command. The model varies one variable independently and collects the output result. 500 iterations were conducted to ensure convergence of the simulation. To start the sensitivity analysis, press the "simulate" menu and "Advanced Sensitivity analysis", then choose the input cells to be included in the analysis. The changing input parameters are the discount rate, gas turbine efficiency, electricity price, gas price, and CO<sub>2</sub> price. The input has a triangular probability distribution obtained by the command "RiskTriang". @Risk calculates it by changing values from the input variables, one at a time, with a triangular distribution and reporting the output number variation. @Risk then collects the simulation results and how the different parameters affect the abatement cost. Appendix 1 contains the complete Excel model and analysis.

# 4 PESTL Analysis

The elements of the analysis are listed below:

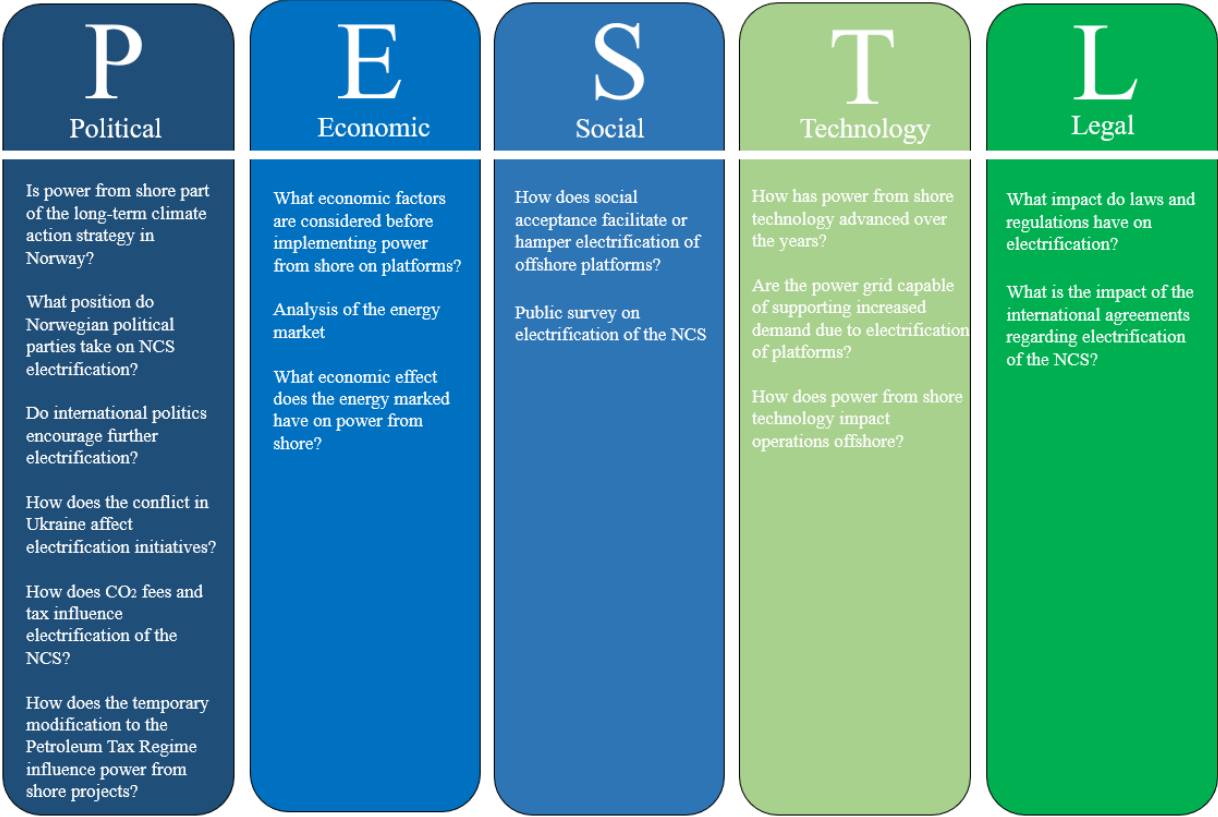


Figure 9 - PESTL Analysis (Granstrøm & Brun, 2019).

## 4.1 Political

In 2021, the political climate for supplying electricity to the Norwegian continental shelf changed. Businesses and consumers have been hard hit by all-time high power prices and war in Europe, prompting speculation about whether electrification of the NCS is the ideal way to utilise surplus green energy. Political conditions and measures are continuously changing, and investments in powering the NCS with power from shore depend on Norwegian and international politics. Political influences include government activities, tax policy, trade policy, political agreements, and conflicts.

### 4.1.1 Politics in Norway

The Norwegian government announced its “Climate plan for 2021-2030” at the start of 2021 to develop a strategy to meet the commitment to the EU and UN’s climate targets (Meld. St. 13, 2021). The EU has revised its 2030 climate target to a net 55% reduction, implying that they



include CO<sub>2</sub> captured by forests through photosynthesis (Hermansen et al., 2021). Norwegian forests absorbed more than 23 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents in 2019, while CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from oil and gas extraction were 13.2 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents in 2020 (Figure 4 and Figure 5). Norway's climate plan excludes forests from the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction equation for the 2030 target. The reason is that Norway began preparing the climate plan in October 2019. Meanwhile, Norway and the EU revised and adjusted their climate targets in 2020. Norway must keep delivering on its current climate strategy until it is renegotiated (Hermansen et al., 2021).

The most critical measure for reducing CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the oil and gas sector is to raise the CO<sub>2</sub> price to the point where the high emission costs provide an incentive for oil and gas companies to conduct power from shore projects (Meld. St. 13, 2021). As much as 82% of Norwegian oil and gas production emissions come from offshore power generation gas turbines (Figure 4). Therefore, electrification is the only solution to achieve adequate emission reductions to meet the oil and gas industry's climate goals (Meld. St. 36, 2021; Tahir, 2022). Power from shore is expected to save up to 6,5 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents annually, according to KonKraft's status report of The Norwegian government's climate plan in Figure 10 below:

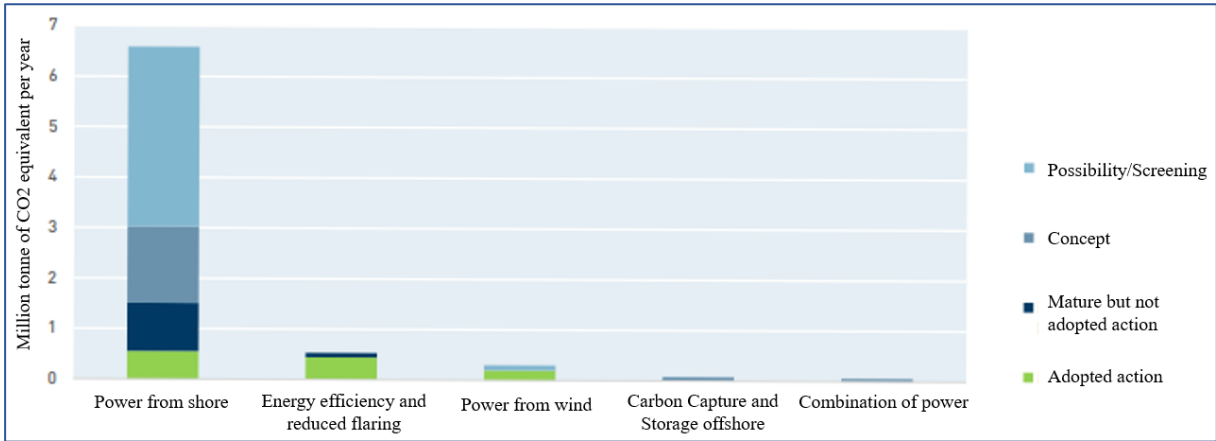


Figure 10 - Overview of climate measure's maturity with expected impact on the oil and gas industry towards 2030 (KonKraft, 2021).

Power from shore accounts for 85 % of the measures required to meet the 2030 CO<sub>2</sub> reduction target. Zero-emission technologies, such as CO<sub>2</sub> capture and storage, hydrogen, and ammonia, are not mature enough to significantly reduce emissions (KonKraft, 2021; Tahir, 2022). The

Figure below shows a forecast for electricity consumption from the NCS, 2020– 2040 (KonKraft, 2021).

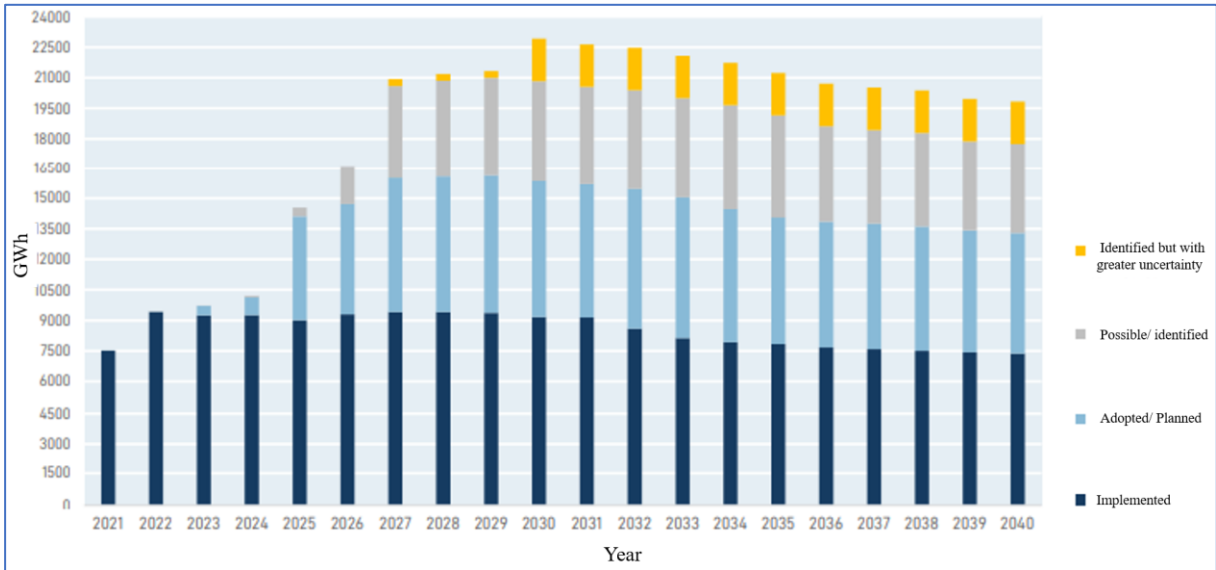


Figure 11 - Basis forecast for electricity consumption from the NCS, 2020 – 2040 (KonKraft, 2021).

Electrification plays a significant role in Norway’s climate plan. However, debates among Norwegian government parties took place early in 2022 due to extraordinary high electricity prices. The political party Fremskrittspartiet proposed to the government to stop the electrification of the NCS, which was voted on and evaluated in March 2022 (Prop. 60 S, 2022). The votes were evident, as the only political parties voting to stop further NCS electrification development were Rødt and Fremskrittspartiet, as illustrated in Figure 12 below:



Figure 12 - Positions of Norwegian political parties on NCS electrification (Prop. 60 S, 2022).

### 4.1.2 International Politics

Norway's engagement and commitment to international climate policy are ambitious and heavily influenced by other countries. The UK has set an ambitious new climate target to reduce emissions by 78% by 2035 (GOV.UK, 2022). The United States' target aims to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by 50-52% by 2030 relative to 2005 levels by 2030, and China adopted a long-term goal of carbon neutrality in 2060 (The White House, 2021; UNFCCC, 2021). The EU decided in the autumn of 2021 to raise its climate target from at least 40% to at least 55% net CO<sub>2</sub> reduction by 2030 and make them legally binding through the European Climate Law (European Commission, 2022b). Norway's government aims to be a leader in global climate initiatives, one of which is to make oil and gas extraction less polluting (The Norwegian Environment Agency, 2021). The EU and the UK import around 92% of their natural gas from five countries; Russia, Norway, Algeria, the USA and Qatar (Rystad Energy, 2022). Norway has the lowest CO<sub>2</sub> emission intensity in natural gas extraction (Figure 13). The low emissions are primarily due to distance, transportation method, and low CO<sub>2</sub> emissions during extraction due to the electrification (Rystad Energy, 2022).

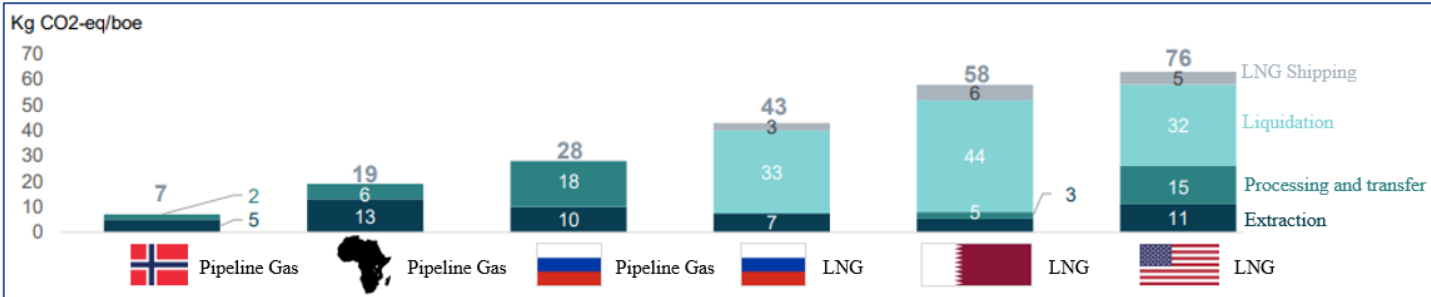


Figure 13 - Emission intensity of gas imported by EU and UK, 2021 (Rystad Energy, 2022).

Russia launched an invasion of Ukraine on February 24, 2022. In protest of the invasion, the EU and other Western countries implemented tough economic sanctions on the Russian economy. However, Europe's strong reliance on the Russian energy supply is an issue since new gas pipelines take a long time to build (Aanesen et al., 2022; Rystad Energy, 2022). Russia's oil and gas profits contribute significantly to Russia's state budget, which funds the military (Wezeman, 2020). The EU and UK spent 689 million euros per day on Russian gas during the first week of the war (Zachmann, Sgaravatti, & McWilliams, 2022). The International Energy Agency (IEA) launched a 10-Point Plan to Reduce the European Union's Reliance on Russian Natural Gas on March 3 (IEA, 2022). The strategy will assist Europe in

getting independent of Russian fossil fuels before 2030 and may reduce the EU's dependence on Russian gas by two-thirds by the end of the year (McPhie, Parrondo, & Bedini, 2022).

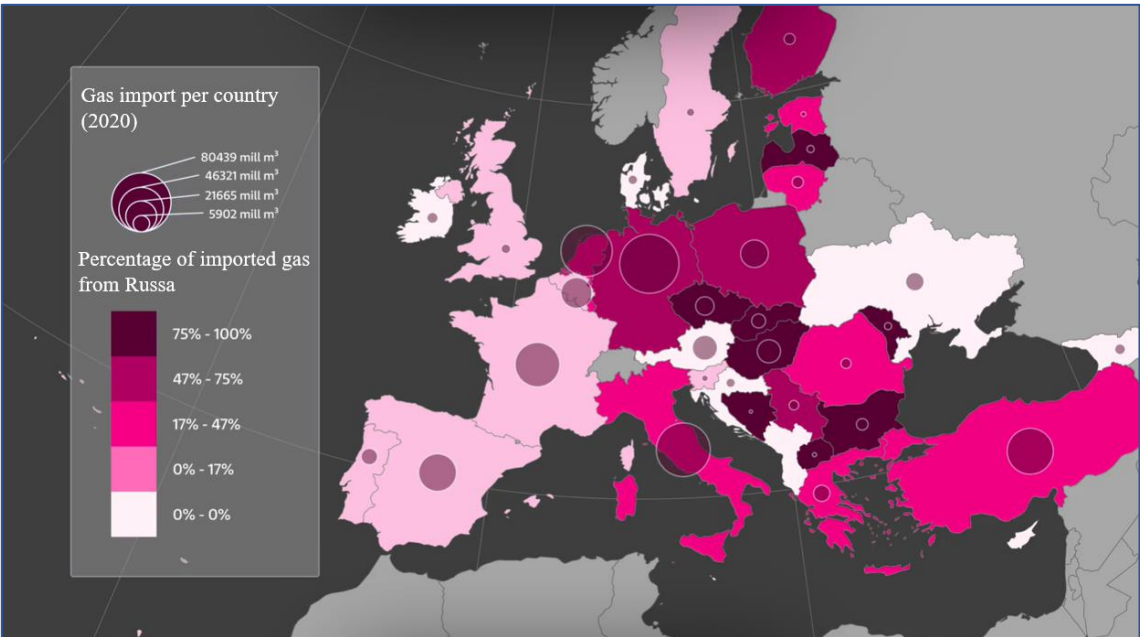


Figure 14 - Russian gas import per country in 2020 (Aanesen et al., 2022).

Since Russia invaded Ukraine, Europe's natural gas imports from Russia have decreased significantly, resulting in Norwegian gas having the largest market share in terms of volume (Rystad Energy, 2022a). Norway's output alone is insufficient to meet the expanding import needs of the EU and UK. Even if they receive all Norwegian natural gas, it will require more than twice as much gas from other sources (Rystad Energy, 2022). Europe strongly relies on natural gas to supply basic needs such as cooking and heating, and there are currently few feasible short-term alternatives (Rystad Energy, 2022). Future energy consumption will require new investments and development of natural gas extraction (Rystad Energy, 2022). Electrification of the Norwegian continental shelf enables more significant natural gas export to Europe.

Norway is a member of the European Economic Area (EEA) and is therefore bound to the EU Emission Trading Scheme (EU ETS) quota system. The EU ETS provides an annual carbon budget for its members, who must report quota and non-quota emissions to meet its obligations (European Commission, 2019, 2022a). Quota-restricted emissions accounted for approximately 95% of all CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the petroleum industry in 2019 (NPD, 2020). The EU ETS quota system includes the petroleum sector and all power generation in Europe. If the released

gas is used for activities covered by the quota system, electrification of the Norwegian continental shelf will not impact CO<sub>2</sub> emissions within EU ETS's 30 member nations. The number of allowed quota emissions is fixed, and companies receive or buy emission allowances, which they can trade as needed (European Commission, 2022). Reduced CO<sub>2</sub> emissions will offset a corresponding increase in emissions in another activity (Torvanger & Ericson, 2013).

#### 4.1.3 CO<sub>2</sub> fees and Petroleum Tax System

The CO<sub>2</sub> fee and EU ETS create a financial incentive for oil and gas companies to reduce their emissions and encourage investment in emission-reducing technologies such as electrification. The CO<sub>2</sub> cost helps explain why petroleum industry emissions have remained steady over the last decade despite adding multiple fields to production (SSB, 2021). The Norwegian government plan to increase the total emission cost (CO<sub>2</sub> tax plus EU ETS quota price) to NOK 2 000 per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> by 2030, measured in fixed 2020 kroner (Meld. St. 13, 2021).

Due to the extraordinary profitability of extracting petroleum resources, oil and gas companies are subject to a special tax. The petroleum tax system is based on the rules of the ordinary corporate tax system but governed by a separate petroleum tax law. The tax rate is 78%, comprised of the standard tax rate of 22% plus a special tax rate of 56% (NPD, 2022c). Only net profits at the company level are taxable rather than in each field. That implies that losses or expenses in a field can be subtracted from the company's overall profits. Oil and gas companies can carry forward deficits and tax-free income to subsequent years with interest compensation. Deductions for all relevant costs include expenditures linked to exploration, research and development, financing, operation, and final disposal of facilities (NPD, 2022c). Even if the projects are costly, it is financially beneficial for oil and gas companies to develop fields with power from shore.

##### 4.1.3.1 Temporary modifications to the Petroleum Tax System

As a result of the Covid-19 epidemic, global oil demand declined dramatically in the first half of 2020. The low oil prices generated temporary liquidity and financial issues and raised concerns about future projects. Therefore, the government authorised a temporary modification to the Petroleum Tax Act in June 2020. The temporary tax modifications were a mitigating action toward investment activity on the Norwegian continental shelf to lower the risk of postponing investment and projects (NPD, 2022c; Rystad Energy, 2021). The modifications

include new regulations for depreciation, tax-free income, and economic loss handling. Full depreciation plus 24 % tax-free income is allowed in the special tax base in the investment year, and companies with losses may demand payment of this amount. The investment return is 73% in the first year. The implementation of negative forward tax implies that companies are paid the tax value of the predicted loss during the fiscal year (NPD, 2022c). The temporary modifications to the petroleum tax system apply to all investments made in 2020 - 2021 and plans for development and operation filed before January 1, 2023, and approved before January 1, 2024 (NPD, 2022c). Assuming that full-scale electrification of the NCS will cost 50 billion NOK, the Norwegian government will pay for 45.72 billion NOK, which corresponds to 91,44% of the cost (NPD, 2022c). The temporary modifications to the petroleum tax system make it highly lucrative for oil and gas companies to conduct new power from shore projects, even if the profits are uncertain.

Shortly after the temporary modifications to the petroleum tax system were implemented, energy prices returned to normal before skyrocketing towards the end of 2021 (NPD, 2022d). The price resulted in a record profit after tax for Norwegian oil companies in 2021 (Aker BP, 2022; Equinor, 2022c; Vår Energi, 2022). Short-term investments in existing fields are substantial due to the opportunity to directly deduct all investment expenses in 2020 and 2021 and investments up to the start of production in development plans submitted before January 1, 2023. The temporary tax package has resulted in a record number of investment decisions. Electrification with power from shore is the primary initiative to reduce emissions among the sustainability projects completed in 2020 and 2021 (Rystad Energy, 2021).

## 4.2 Economics

### 4.2.1 CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost

The Norwegian Petroleum Directorate (NPD) conducts a cost-benefit analysis to see whether the project provides socioeconomic benefits before deciding whether it should be executed (NPD, 2020). CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost is the net socioeconomic cost per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> reduced due to implementing power from shore (NPD, 2020). Chapter 3.7 elaborates on how to calculate the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost, and Figure 14 illustrates the key economic factors:

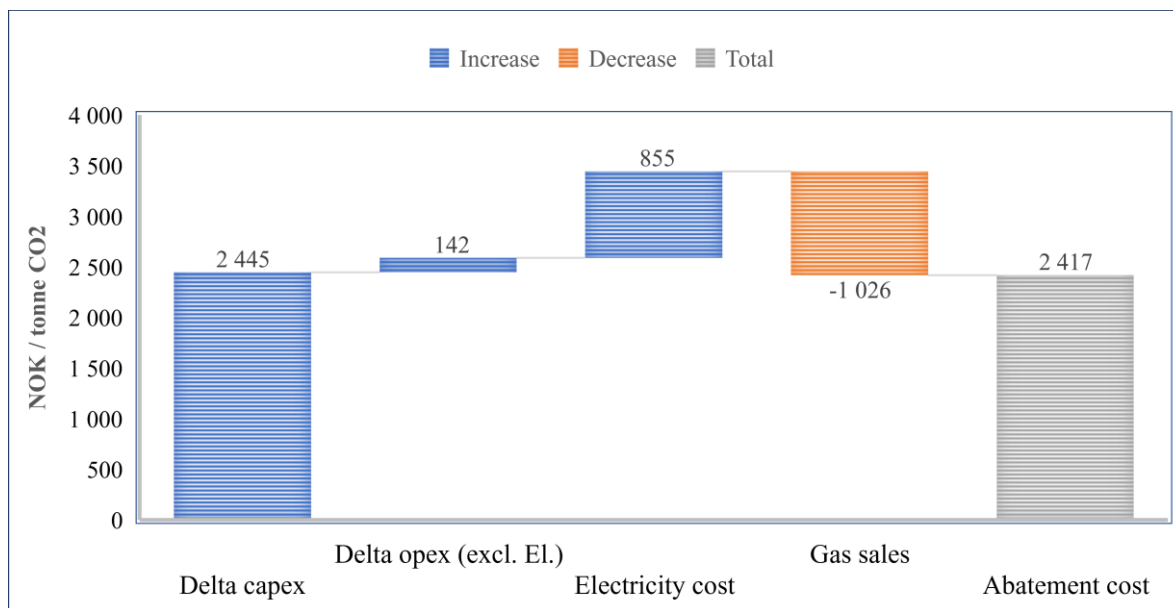


Figure 15 - Illustration of CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost calculation, including economic factors (Appendix 1).

The CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost is affected by volatile factors such as the electricity price, gas price, and the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> released (Figure 15). It is common to believe that the CO<sub>2</sub> pricing level indicates that emission reduction is socioeconomic beneficial. According to the NPD, if the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost is less than the CO<sub>2</sub> price, the implementation is socioeconomically profitable and should be carried out (NPD, 2020). To determine whether Norway should continue electrification development, it is crucial to analyse the energy market to see how CO<sub>2</sub> abatement costs will likely develop. Norway and Europe have been affected by extraordinary high electricity prices since 2021. The following chapters will investigate the driving factors, starting with the CO<sub>2</sub> price.

#### 4.2.1.1 CO<sub>2</sub> Price (EU ETS)

The quota price of one-carbon credit is determined by policy, supply, and demand, resulting in a volatile price (European Commission, 2021b). A market stability reserve was implemented in 2019 to remove excess quotas from the market. When the surplus of allowances surpasses a specific value, the market is reduced by withdrawing available allowances sold and placing them in the market reserve. If the number of allowances in the market reserve exceeds the number of allowances auctioned, the surplus quota is erased permanently in 2023 (European Commission, 2021a). The EU recently amended the market for tradable carbon allowances in 2021. The modifications are conditional on the number of yearly emission permits in segments with a high carbon footprint, such as industry and power generation, being reduced



by an annual rate of 4.2% instead of 2.2%, and total abandonment of free quotas. The new EU ETS will also incorporate buildings and transportation under a separate system that will regulate the fuel supplier rather than the consumer (European Commission, 2021b). This caused the price of CO<sub>2</sub> to skyrocket, as seen in Figure 16 below:

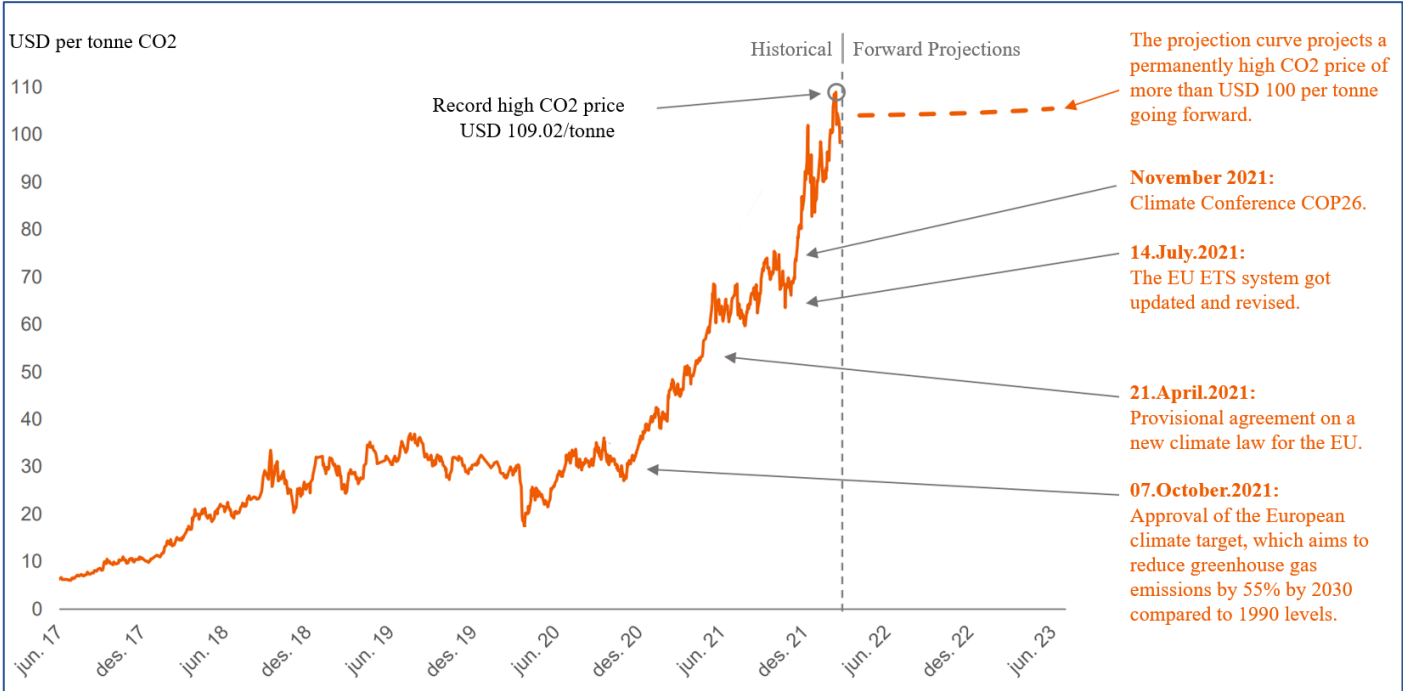


Figure 16 - Historical and projected CO<sub>2</sub> prices, 2017-2023 (Rystad Energy, 2022; Appendix 3).

The CO<sub>2</sub> price dropped to USD 18 when the global outbreak of Covid-19 in May 2020. Since then, the price has risen to over USD 100 per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub>, with projections indicating that this will continue (Rystad Energy, 2022). The total carbon cost that oil and gas companies pay per April 29, 2022, is approximately 1372 NOK per tonne CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent. That includes the Norwegian CO<sub>2</sub> fee of NOK 543 and the European quota price (EU ETS) of NOK 829 per tonne CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent (Ember, 2022; KonKraft, 2021; NPD, 2022c). If the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost exceeds the CO<sub>2</sub> price, the implementation is socioeconomically profitable and should be executed. This high CO<sub>2</sub> price increases the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost limit, making power from shore projects more likely to get approved by the Norwegian Petroleum Directorate. Oil and gas companies are also driven by the high CO<sub>2</sub> price to power fields from shore to hedge against future CO<sub>2</sub> price increases.



#### 4.2.1.2 The natural gas market

The revised EU ETS aims to direct investments toward emissions-cutting technology. Higher CO<sub>2</sub> prices have increased gas demand due to low emission intensity (Rystad Energy, 2022). The European power market strongly relies on natural gas to supply basic needs such as cooking and heating, and there are currently few feasible short-term substitutes. As a result, gas demand is more predictable than oil demand, which dropped significantly during the pandemic (Rystad Energy, 2022). Natural gas production in the EU and the UK has declined in recent years while consumption has remained consistent. Resulting in an import requirement of 84% to meet overall demand in 2021 (Rystad Energy, 2022). The extraordinary demand for natural gas made the price increase significantly. High natural gas prices contribute positively to the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost because the electrification releases gas for sale. The high gas price has led to the re-opening of old coal-fired power plants to cut gas prices and make electricity more affordable. The mitigating action was unsuccessful, as illustrated in Figure 17 below. The gas price will remain high in the coming years due to rising CO<sub>2</sub> prices and the conflict in Ukraine, where the EU will phase out Russian energy.

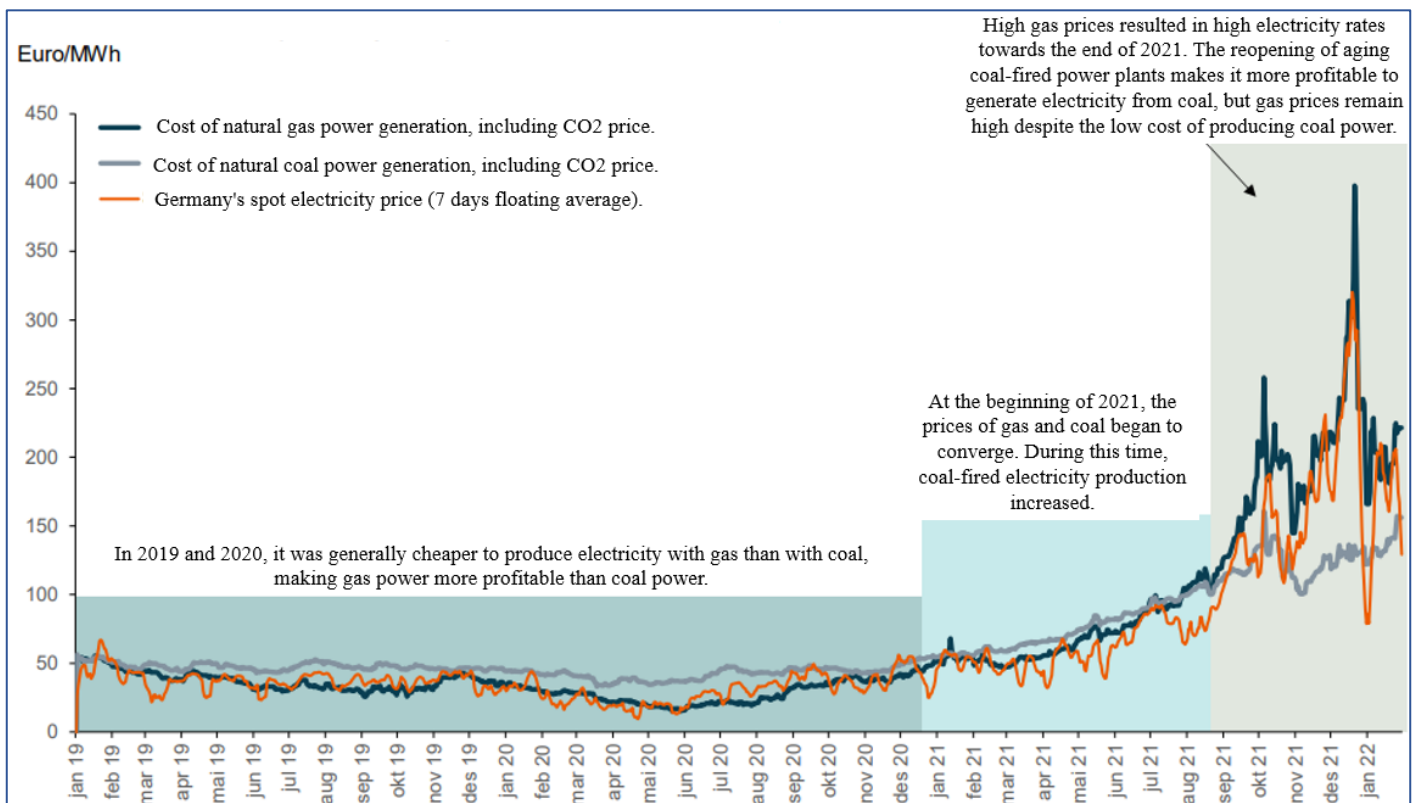


Figure 17 - Costs of gas and coal power generation in Europe, including EU ETS \* (Rystad Energy, 2022)

#### 4.2.1.3 The electricity market

Since the fall of 2021, Norway has been characterised by very high electricity prices, particularly in southern Norway. The increased prices are primarily a consequence of extreme gas prices (NVE, 2022; Rystad Energy, 2022a). The Nordic and European electricity markets have proven to impact Norwegian prices significantly. The energy market in Norway and Europe is rapidly changing as renewable energy sources are replacing fossil fuels, and demand grows due to societal electrification (European Commission, 2022b). Norway has traditionally been an energy-dimensioned system, being over-dimensioned compared to the rest of Europe (NVE, 2022). Norway's construction of new power lines to Germany and the UK has increased its integration with the European power market, influencing Norwegian electricity prices (OECD, 2022). The integration provides considerable power security in import capacity, reducing the risks associated with dry years.

On the other hand, it makes Norway more reliant on electricity imports (NVE, 2022). The Nordic region already has a power shortage, which will worsen by 2030 as they become more weather dependent. The movement of excess electricity from one region to another requires international collaboration. This will likely result in extremely high periodic electricity costs in Norway (NVE, 2022). Further electrification of the NCS will increase power consumption and demand, resulting in a reduced surplus of electricity in Norway and higher electricity prices (NPD, 2020). There are currently no plans for additional electricity generation or energy-saving measures to meet the increased power demand that extensive electrification of the NCS requires (Statnett, 2021).

### 4.3 Social

Social factors such as gender, employment, degree of education, status, age, conventions, values, and other demographic traits all influence how individuals in society view and interpret the world (Baker, 2021). People's concerns about the environment and sustainability have grown in recent years. Population expansion, climate change, and increased awareness have contributed to significant shifts in the public's perception of non-renewable energy sources such as the oil and gas industry. "The Green transition" has developed shifts in societal norms and expectations, particularly among the younger generation. Norwegian universities are forced to close or change the title of petroleum subjects to increase the number of candidates. The number of applications for petroleum courses at the University of Stavanger decreased by 73.5 % between 2015 and 2019 (Søndeland, 2020). Changes in societal standards have led to a

significant tightening of laws and regulations, with several Norwegian oil and gas corporations adopting ambitious climate targets to achieve carbon neutrality (Equinor, 2022b; Vår Energi, 2021). Oil and gas companies must continue electrification development to achieve carbon neutrality and remain social competitive (NPD, 2020).

### 4.3.1 Public Survey

Nettavisen launched a public survey on March 10th, 2022, following the Storting voting results with the proposal that no further electrification of oil and gas installations occur (Figure 18). The Figure below presents the result of 7272 random people’s responses to the public survey “Should Norway power the NCS from shore?”:

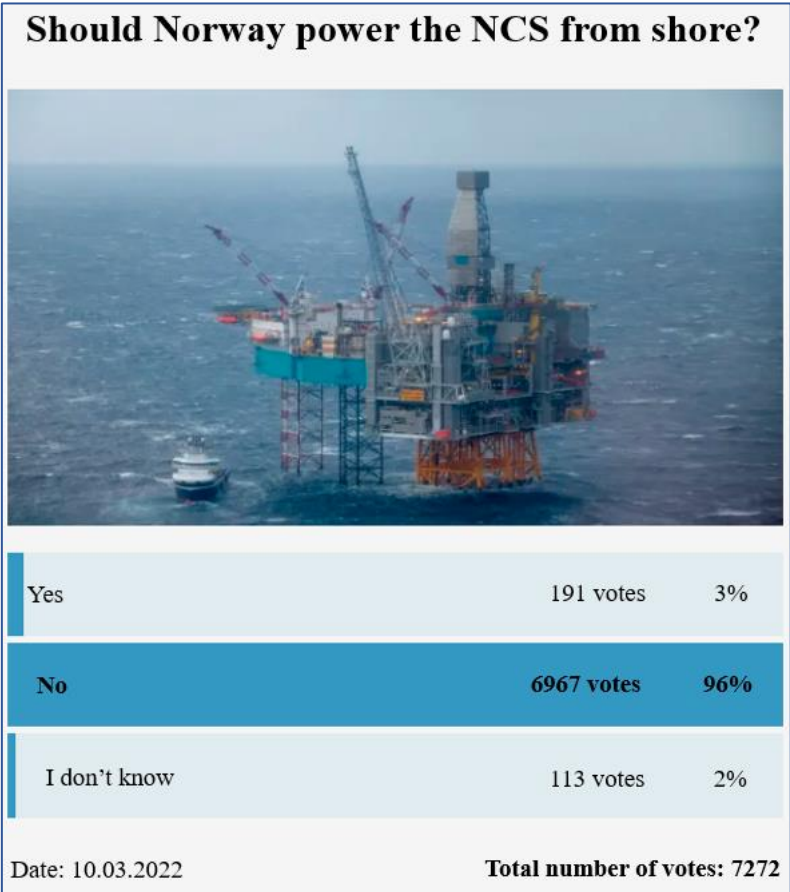


Figure 18 - Public Survey regarding the electrification of the NCS (Heldahl, 2022).

The findings show that 95.8% of the voters are against further electrification of the NCS with power shore, while 2.6% vote in favour. 1.6% voted that they are unsure whether Norway should power the NCS from shore or not (Heldahl, 2022).

## 4.4 Technology

Electrification from shore is a well-established technology that has been under development since its debut on the Troll A platform in 1996 (Equinor, 2022a). The primary objective of development is to make equipment smaller, lighter and transport more power over greater distances at a lower cost (NPD, 2020).

### 4.4.1 Power from shore technology

Power from shore technology has significantly improved, as illustrated in Figure 19 below. The offshore wind sector has contributed significantly to accelerating the development even further in recent years (NPD, 2020). In 2016, The Martin Linge platform achieved the record for the longest high-voltage AC cable in the world (Thibaut & Leforgeais, 2016).

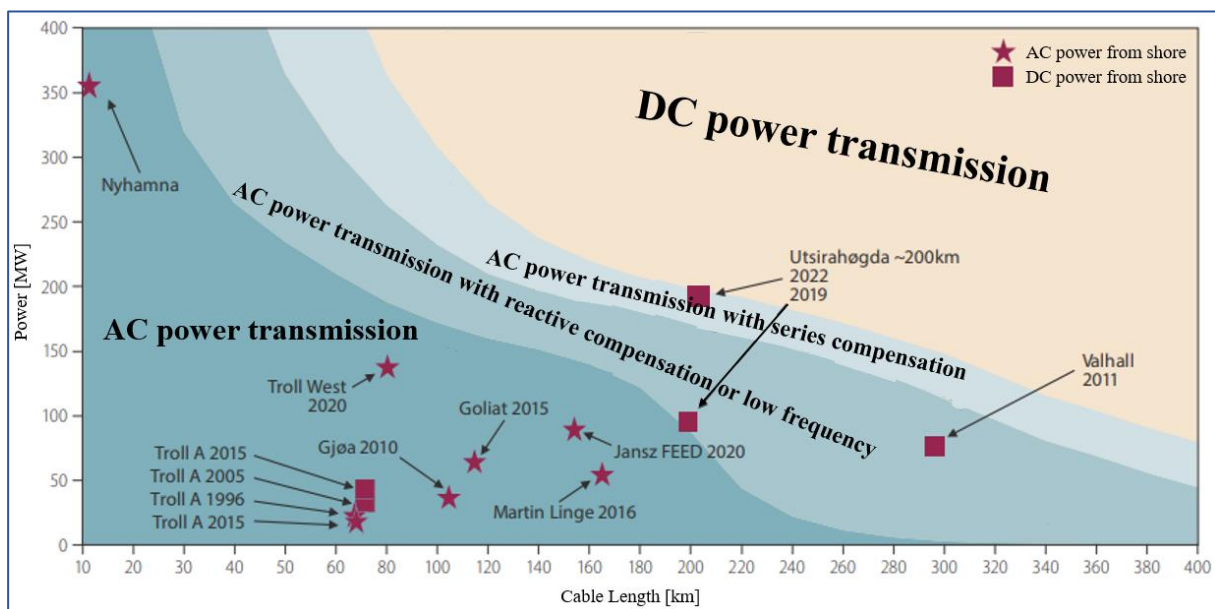


Figure 19 - Transmission technologies for AC and DC electricity as a function of distance and power (NPD, 2020).

Valhall and Utsirahøgda were built using DC due to the significant power demand and distance from shore. Technologies such as reactive compensation, low-frequency and series compensation enable AC to be transmitted at similar distances with net corresponding transmission loss (Figure 19). The advancement of power from shore technology has enabled the placement of additional converter equipment on the seabed, saving space and weight on the infrastructure. This technique allows an underwater transformer to power floating, production, storage, and offloading vessels (NPD, 2020).

Although power from shore technology has made advancements, energy loss is expected when converting and transmitting electricity. Reactive power is a crucial issue with AC in general, necessitating the use of coils and capacitors to balance the network. The reactive effect is triggered by frequency and the capacity of the cable. The reactive loss increases as frequency increases (NPD, 2020). Since direct current has no frequency, there is no reactive effect, only active losses due to resistance (Thibaut & Leforgeais, 2016). There are further losses from inverter stations on the ground and inverter stations on the platform. For example, the transmission loss from shore to Johan Sverdrup (Phase 1) is between 11-12 % at maximum output on the transmission, with roughly 5.6 % of the overall loss in the HVDC converter and as transmission loss (Statoil, 2014). Transmission loss varies depending on numerous factors such as heat, distance, technology, and materials. The average loss for the NCS is around 5% transmission loss when transmitting electricity from shore to offshore field via subsea cable (Statnett, 2021; Statoil, 2014; Torvanger & Ericson, 2013). Power consumption on the NCS is expected to be roughly 7.9 TWh in 2024. A 5% transmission loss corresponds to around 0.4 TWh loss, or the yearly consumption of 25 000 average Norwegian homes (SSB, 2018).

#### 4.4.2 The Power Grid

The transfer of electricity from land to the NCS will increase power consumption significantly. A critical requirement for expanding power from shore to the NCS is that the Norwegian power grid can manage the growth in demand without affecting the security of supply for current consumers. Production and grid capacity must be sufficient to meet demand in all areas (Statnett, 2021). Such demand increases may need significant grid improvements in places with insufficient grid capacity or manufacturing capability, which might take a long time to implement. Large new consumption, regardless of where it occurs in Norway, may need some strengthening of the transmission network (NPD, 2020). The power from shore projects already in use has a power requirement of 700 MW and total power consumption of up to 5.1 TWh per year. The predicted power demand is most significant around 2025-2030. Field activity is expected to decline by 2040, resulting in reduced power consumption (NPD, 2020). Table 1 shows the considerable modifications to the power grid that are necessary for the future power from shore projects:

Table 1 - Cost estimates for power grid upgrades required for further electrification of the NCS (NPD, 2020).

Location	Fields	Total cost [BNOK]	Projected year of completion
Northern Norway	Melkøya	4,0 - 6,4	2030
Central Norway	Halten & Draugen	1,9 - 2,7	2028
Western Norway	Troll B & C, Oseberg Field-center & South, East Sleipner	1,0 - 3,0	2030

Northern Norway will have the most significant increase in electricity consumption and the greatest cost impact (Table 1). Hammerfest cannot currently handle the planned electrification projects (NPD, 2020). A new 420 kV cable connecting Skaidi and Hammerfest and new transformer stations at both ends will be required. Furthermore, according to Statnett’s report “*The Power System Study for Finnmark (2020–2036)*”, the transmission network to Western Finnmark has a moderate capacity deficit in the energy and power balance in 2030 (Statnett, 2016). Significant power grid investments are necessary for Norway to achieve large-scale shelf electrification.

#### 4.4.3 Operation

Power from the shore can impact oil field output positively or negatively. Closure and delayed production during the power from shore installation period might result in lost value generation. However, experience indicates that the working regularity of platforms powered by land is generally more significant than that of plants powered by gas turbines (NPD, 2020). As mentioned in Chapter 2.3, procedures are required to sustain optimum resource usage throughout the life of the fields. More gas compression, injection of water or gas for pressure support, or other techniques to improve recovery are examples. The platform may require more power than its initial design. A power from land project increases the quantity of electricity accessible on the infrastructure. As a result, power from shore projects allows investigation of new power-intensive strategies for enhanced oil recovery (NPD, 2020).

## 4.5 Legal

### 4.5.1 The Petroleum Act

The petroleum sector is Norway's most significant industry in terms of Government revenue, investment, and proportion of overall value creation in Norway (KonKraft, 2021). The petroleum law and license system's objective are to ensure that the value generation from petroleum resources benefits the Norwegian population. It is essential that the corporate structure and separation of duties and responsibilities take all significant social concerns into account (NPD, 2022e). Comprehensive rules maintain government administration and control, with licenses and permissions from the appropriate authorities necessary at all stages of petroleum activity. The Petroleum Act provides a general legal framework for effective resource management, including the licensing system that permits companies to perform petroleum operations. The Petroleum Act specifies that Norway owns the oil and gas on the NCS (NPD, 2022e).

### 4.5.2 The Energy Act

The NPD's role is to contribute to creating the highest potential value for society from the oil and gas sector through competent resource management based on safety, emergency readiness, and the external environment (MPE, 2022). All licenses are given according to The Energy Act, such as power lines needed in electrification projects (KonKraft, 2021). The licensing procedure is time-consuming and might take several years to complete, increasing the developer's risk since the basis may change throughout the process. All offshore platform electrification projects must go through this licensing procedure. Licenses are judged after social and environmental interests have been considered societal beneficial. For example, the electricity price may have changed significantly since the development plans application. Political changes may result in new regulations for granting licenses, or companies may be in a poor financial situation due to extended waiting periods (NPD, 2022e).

The Energy Act governs energy production, transformation, transport, sale, distribution, and consumption while rationally protecting private and public interests. All licenses for technical facilities with capacities ranging from 1000/1500 (AC / DC) kV, including all electrification projects on the NCS, must be given according to the Energy Act (MPE, 1990). Before oil and gas companies can carry out electrification projects, the Ministry of Petroleum and Energy must approve the development plan, including how the licensees will develop and operate the field



(NPD, 2020). The outcome of the electrification project is highly reliant on the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost, as stated in Chapter 4.2.1.

### 4.5.3 The Paris Agreement

The Paris Agreement was adopted by 193 Parties to prevent irreversible effects through a legally binding international agreement establishing long-term goals to guide nations toward limiting the temperature rise below 2 °C (UNFCCC, 2015). The Paris Agreement is legally binding and relates to the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and removals covered by Norway's first nationally determined contribution (MCE, 2021). It aims to promote the implementation of Norway's climate targets as part of its transformation into a low-emission society by 2050 (MCE, 2021). Norway is committed to reduce emissions by at least 50% up to 55% by 2030 and net-zero by 2050, relative to 1990 levels (UNFCCC, 2020). The Paris Agreement requires each nation to deliver new and enhanced climate targets every five years, referred to as the "progression principle." The new targets must also reflect the highest possible ambition for the country and are, therefore, a driver for further electrification of the NCS (Hermansen et al., 2021).

### 4.5.4 The European Climate Law

The EEA agreement brings together the EU member states and the three EEA EFTA states, Norway, Iceland, and Liechtenstein, in a market governed by the same rules (UD, 2022). Environmental cooperation is part of the EEA agreement, which means that almost all EU environmental legislation, such as the EU ETS, is implemented in Norwegian law (UD, n.d.). Norway is committed to reducing CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by at least 55% by 2030 compared to 1990 levels and ensuring a fair transition to a low-carbon economy (European Commission, 2022c).



## 4.6 PESTL Results

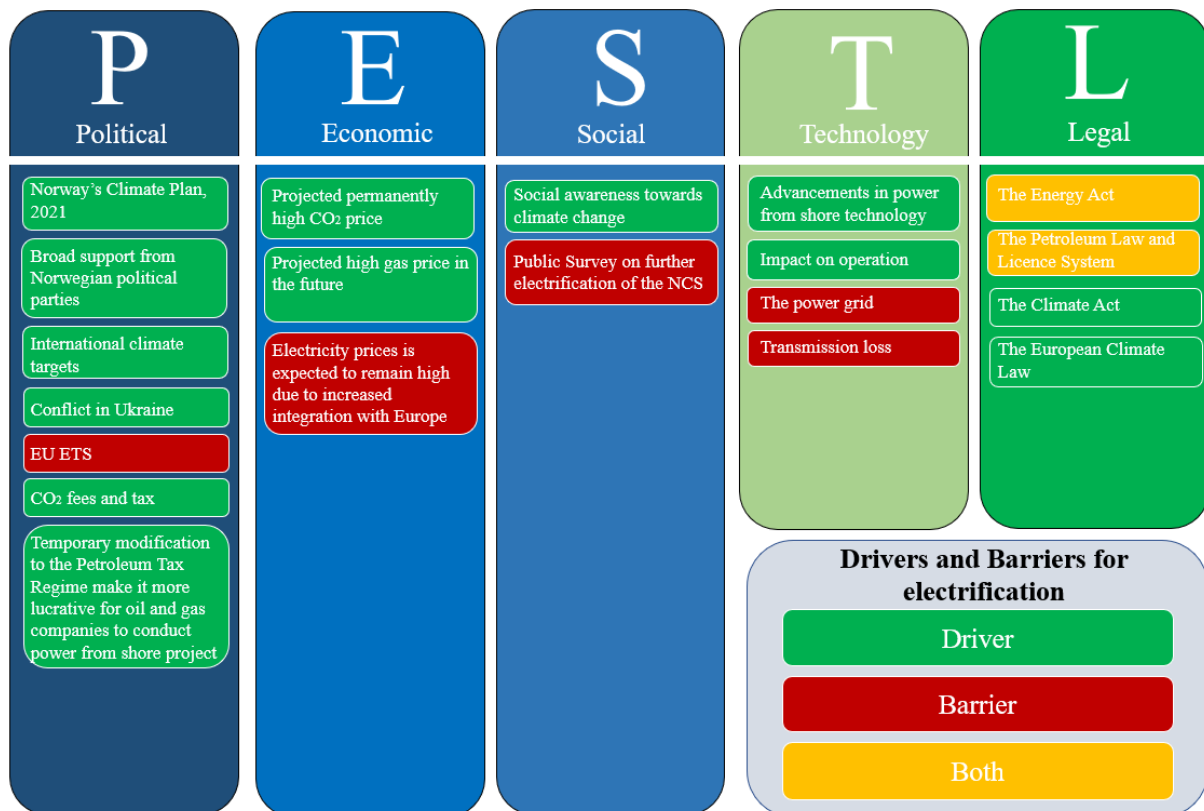


Figure 20 - PESTL Results

## 5 Environmental Impact Analysis Data

### 5.1 The Environmental Impact of Gas Turbines

Find the complete calculation and sources in Appendix 2. The method is presented in Chapter 3.6.1.

In 2021, Norway produced 103 million Sm<sup>3</sup> o.e. of oil and 113 Sm<sup>3</sup> o.e. of gas (Figure 6). The average oil CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from combusted oil are 3,57 kg CO<sub>2</sub> per kg (Gavenas, Rosendahl, & Skjerpen, 2015; SSB, 2017) and 2,34 kg CO<sub>2</sub> per Sm<sup>3</sup> combusted natural gas (SSB, 2017; Torvanger & Ericson, 2013). The emissions from oil and gas extraction equalled 13,2 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent in 2021, with gas turbines accounting for 82% of it (Figure 4).

*Table 2 - Parameters used in the environmental impact of gas turbines (Appendix 2).*

Parameters	#	Unit	Source
1.0 Sm <sup>3</sup> o.e. oil	1	Sm <sup>3</sup> oil	(NPD,2022b)
1.0 Sm <sup>3</sup> o.e. natural gas	1000	Sm <sup>3</sup> natural gas	(NPD,2022b)
1.0 Sm <sup>3</sup> o.e. oil	858	kg	(NPD,2022b)
1 tonnes CO <sub>2</sub> equivalent	1000	kg	
Average CO <sub>2</sub> emissions from 1 Sm <sup>3</sup> combusted natural gas	2,34	kg CO <sub>2</sub>	(Torvanger and Ericson, 2013; SSB, 2017).
Average CO <sub>2</sub> emissions from 1 kg combusted oil	3,57	kg CO <sub>2</sub>	(Gavenas et al., 2015; SSB, 2017)
Norway's total CO <sub>2</sub> emission from gas turbines on the NCS, 2021	10,8	Million tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> equivalent	(SSB, 2021)
Norway's total production of oil, 2021	103	Million Sm <sup>3</sup> o.e.	(NPD, 2022d)
Norway's total production of natural gas, 2021	113,10	Million Sm <sup>3</sup> o.e.	(NPD, 2022d)

### 5.2 The Environmental Impact of the Electricity Mix

Find the complete calculation and sources in Appendix 2. The method is presented in Chapter 3.6.2. Energy loss occurs when transferring electricity and gas. Increased electrification of the NCS reduces net power exports due to transmission losses in cables and gas pipelines (NPD, 2020). The total transmission loss for electricity transmission from Europe to Norway is estimated to be 15%, including losses on transmission from Europe to the Nordic countries, transmission from the Nordic countries to Norway, and transmission through Norway. The estimated transmission loss from Europe to an NCS platform is 20% (Statnett, 2013, 2022; Torvanger & Ericson, 2013). Gas transmission from the NCS to a Nordic country or Europe requires energy that results in an average 5% energy loss of the theoretical energy content of the natural gas (Rystad Energy, 2022; Torvanger & Ericson, 2013). Electrification of the NCS release gas for export, which is the starting point for the amount of energy delivered, as a function of the theoretical energy density in natural gas, which is 11.11 kWh/Sm<sup>3</sup> (NPD,

2022b), and power plant efficiency (Eurostat, 2020; IEA, 2020; Torvanger & Ericson, 2013). Utilizing the same methodology, the emission intensity of coal power was determined.

To determine the emission factors, the theoretical energy content of gas, and the average CO<sub>2</sub> emissions of gas per standard cubic meter (Sm<sup>3</sup>) before compensating for gas utilisation efficiency. Europe's demand for natural gas is high compared to the amount of gas released (Rystad Energy, 2022; Torvanger & Ericson, 2013). Natural gas is also an adequate substitute for coal to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. As a result, it is assumed that the released gas is sold on the open market and adds electricity to the existing El-mix or replaces an electricity source such as coal. The gas is assumed to be utilised in a gas power plant, combined heat and power plant (CHP), or buildings as heating (Torvanger & Ericson, 2013). The efficiency of gas turbines on the NCS ranges from 25 to 35 %, depending on the design, age, and operation of the plant, whereas the efficiency of gas power plants in Europe ranges from 50 to 60% (KonKraft, 2021; Rystad Energy, 2022; Torvanger & Ericson, 2013). The average efficiencies have been utilized in this analysis to obtain the average emission intensities from the different sources. Obtaining data from reliable organisations and comparing information from several sources have been used to assure consensus and trustworthiness.

*Table 3 - Parameters used in the environmental impact analysis of the electricity mix (Appendix 2).*

Parameter	Values	Unit	Sources
Average emission of 1 Sm <sup>3</sup> gas	2,34	kg CO <sub>2</sub>	(Torvanger and Ericson, 2013; SSB, 2017).
Average emission 1 kg coal	2,52	kg CO <sub>2</sub>	(SSB,2017)
The conversion factor of 1 Sm <sup>3</sup> of Natural gas	11,111	kWh	(NPD,2022b)
The conversion factor of 1 kg Coal	6,667	kWh	(Torvanger and Ericson, 2013)
Average emission intensity from turbines on the NCS	0,702	kg CO <sub>2</sub> /kWh	
Average emission intensity Norway	0,026	kg CO <sub>2</sub> /kWh	(BP,2021; EEA,2021)
Average emission intensity in the Nordic countries	0,146	kg CO <sub>2</sub> /kWh	(BP,2021; EEA,2021)
Average emission intensity in Europe	0,278	kg CO <sub>2</sub> /kWh	(BP,2021; EEA,2021)
Emission factor, Coal power plant	0,945	kg CO <sub>2</sub> /kWh	
Emission factor, Natural gas power plant	0,383	kg CO <sub>2</sub> /kWh	(Verified in Rystad Energy, 2022a)
Emission factor, CHP with natural gas	0,248	kg CO <sub>2</sub> /kWh	
Efficiency factor, Coal power plant	0,4	%	(IEA,2020; Rystad Energy 2022a)
Efficiency factor, Natural gas power plant	0,55	%	(IEA,2020; Konkraft, 2021)
Efficiency factor, CHP with natural gas	0,85	%	(IEA,2020; Rystad Energy 2022a)
Efficiency factor, Natural gas turbines on the NCS	0,3	%	(Torvanger and Ericson, 2013; Konkraft, 2021)

Efficiency factor, Heating in buildings	0,9	%	(Konkraft, 2021; Rystad Energy, 2022a)
Energy Transmission loss from shore to NCS	5	%	(Torvanger and Ericson, 2013; Statnett, 2021)
Energy transmission loss in Norway	5	%	(Torvanger and Ericson, 2013; Statnett, 2021)
Energy transmission loss from the Nordic countries	5	%	(Torvanger and Ericson, 2013; Statnett, 2021)
Energy transmission loss through Europe	5	%	(Torvanger and Ericson, 2013; Statnett, 2021)
Energy transmission loss in gas pipeline	5	%	(Torvanger and Ericson, 2013; Rystad Energy, 2022a)

Find a schematic illustration of the data and method in Figure 21 below, and the complete calculation and sources in Appendix 2.

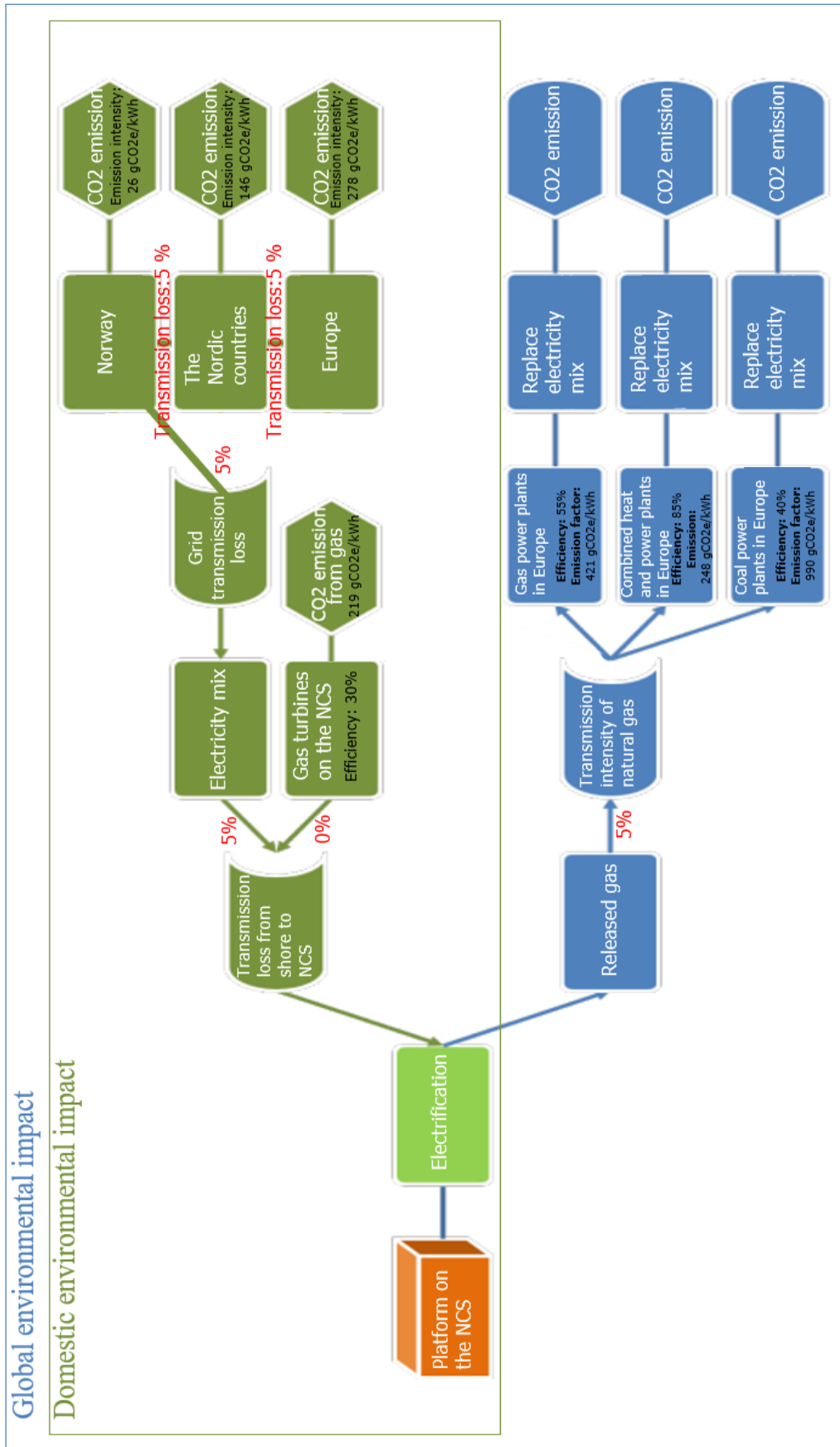


Figure 21 - Schematic illustration of the environmental impact analysis of electrification of the NCS (Appendix 2).

### 5.3 Environmental Impact Results

#### 5.3.1 The Environmental Impact of Gas Turbines

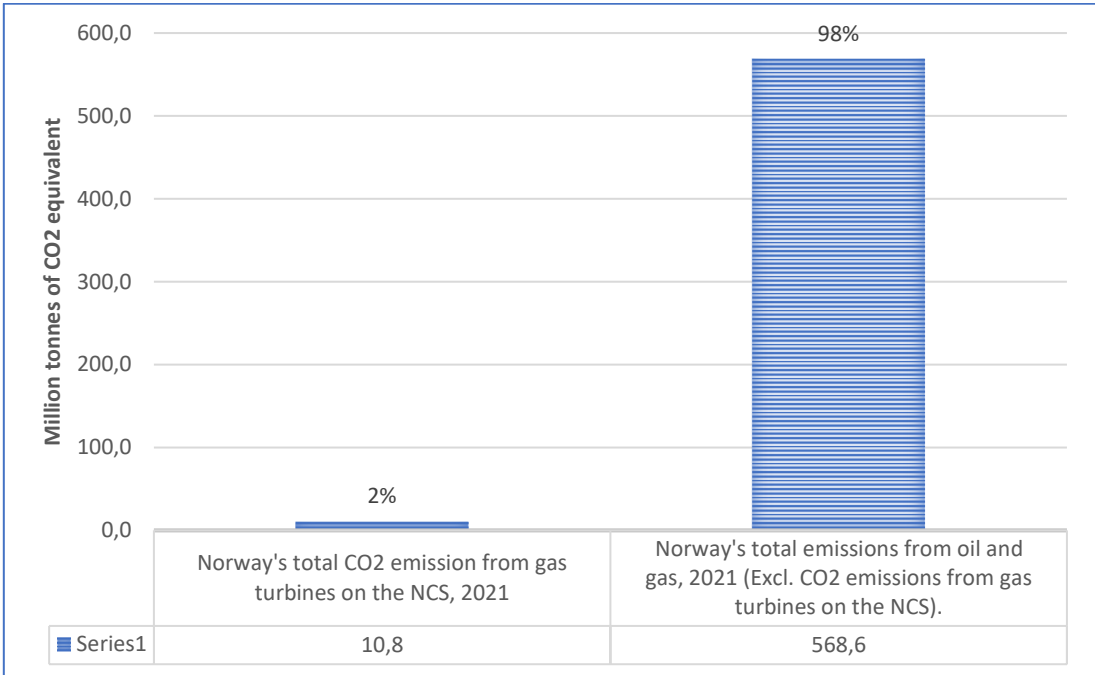


Figure 22 – Norway's net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from oil and gas, including upstream and downstream emissions, 2021 (Appendix 2).

Figure 22 illustrates that 98% of Norway’s CO<sub>2</sub> emissions are not related to electricity generated by gas turbines on the NCS when including upstream and downstream emissions. Gas turbines on the Norwegian continental shelf account for approximately 2% of Norway's net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions related to the petroleum industry. Electrification with power from shore replaces natural gas combustion offshore with electricity generated onshore, reducing upstream and domestic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions while increasing Norway's downstream emissions.

### 5.3.2 The Environmental Impact of the Electricity Mix

#### Domestic Impact

Figure 23 illustrates the domestic emission impact of different electricity mixes transmitted offshore. The released gas due to the power from shore implementation is not combusted. CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from gas turbines on the NCS are normalised to 100 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents. The Norwegian El-mix has the lowest emission intensity and transmission loss due to renewable electricity generation and distance, making it ideal for electrifying the NCS. The best impact is when the power from shore is from the Norwegian El-mix, which results in a 96% reduction in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions compared to offshore gas turbine combustion with a 30% efficiency. When the electricity is imported from a Nordic El-mix, the transmission loss to the NCS is around 15%, resulting in 27 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents instead of 100 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents. Europe has the highest emission intensity when generating electricity and the furthest distance from the NCS. When the electricity is imported from Europe with average European El-mix emission intensity, the reduction is 52% of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions compared to gas combustion offshore. Electricity delivered from a gas power plant in a Nordic country or Europe reduces emissions by approximately 35% since the gas turbine combustion efficiency is better in gas power plants onshore. The net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions increase by at least 56% compared to gas combustion offshore when the electricity is imported from a coal-fired power plant with 40% efficiency. The net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions increase from 100 to 163,6 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents when the electricity from shore is imported from a European coal power plant.

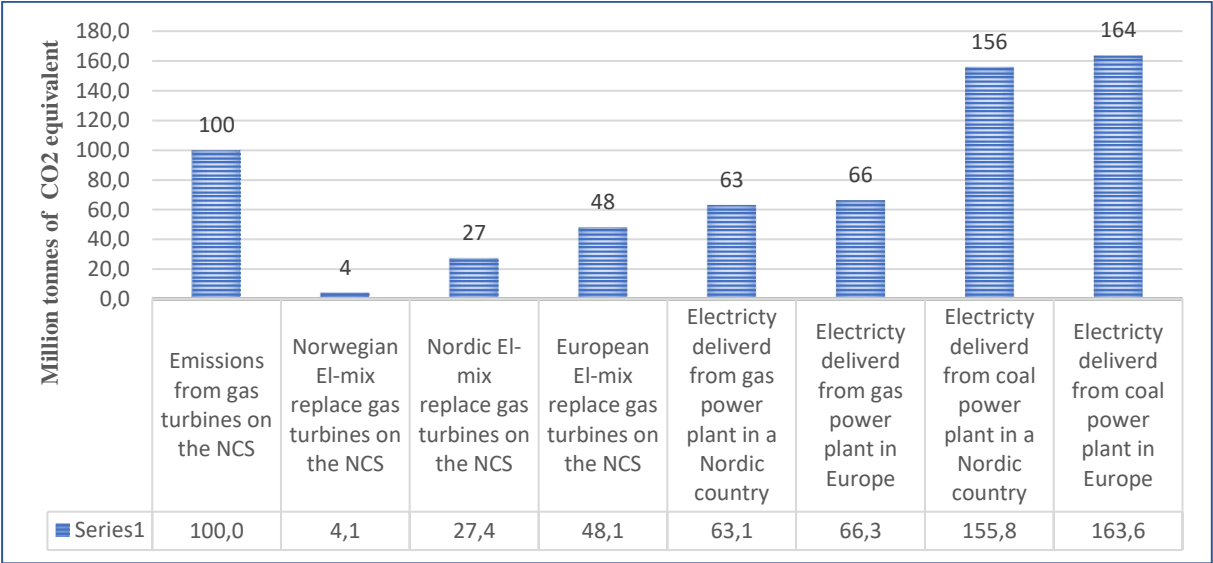


Figure 23 – Net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from offshore electricity import to the NCS that replaces offshore gas combustion. El-mixes with different CO<sub>2</sub> emission intensities compared to offshore gas combustion emissions. The released gas is not combusted (Appendix 2).

### International Impact

Figure 24 illustrates the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions impact of different electricity mixes, and released gas from electrification is transported onshore and combusted. Emissions from gas turbines on the NCS are normalised to 100 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent. Power from the Norwegian El-mix, where the released gas is used in a Combined Heat and Power Plant (CHP), or buildings heating, has the best environmental impact. CHP have 85% energy efficiency, and the gas used in buildings has 90% energy efficiency when combusting gas. When gas released from Norwegian El-mix is used in CHP or buildings, the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction is approximately 60% compared to gas turbines on the NCS. The CO<sub>2</sub> emissions rise by 5% when the power offshore is delivered from European El-mix, and the released gas is combusted in a 55% efficient gas power plant.

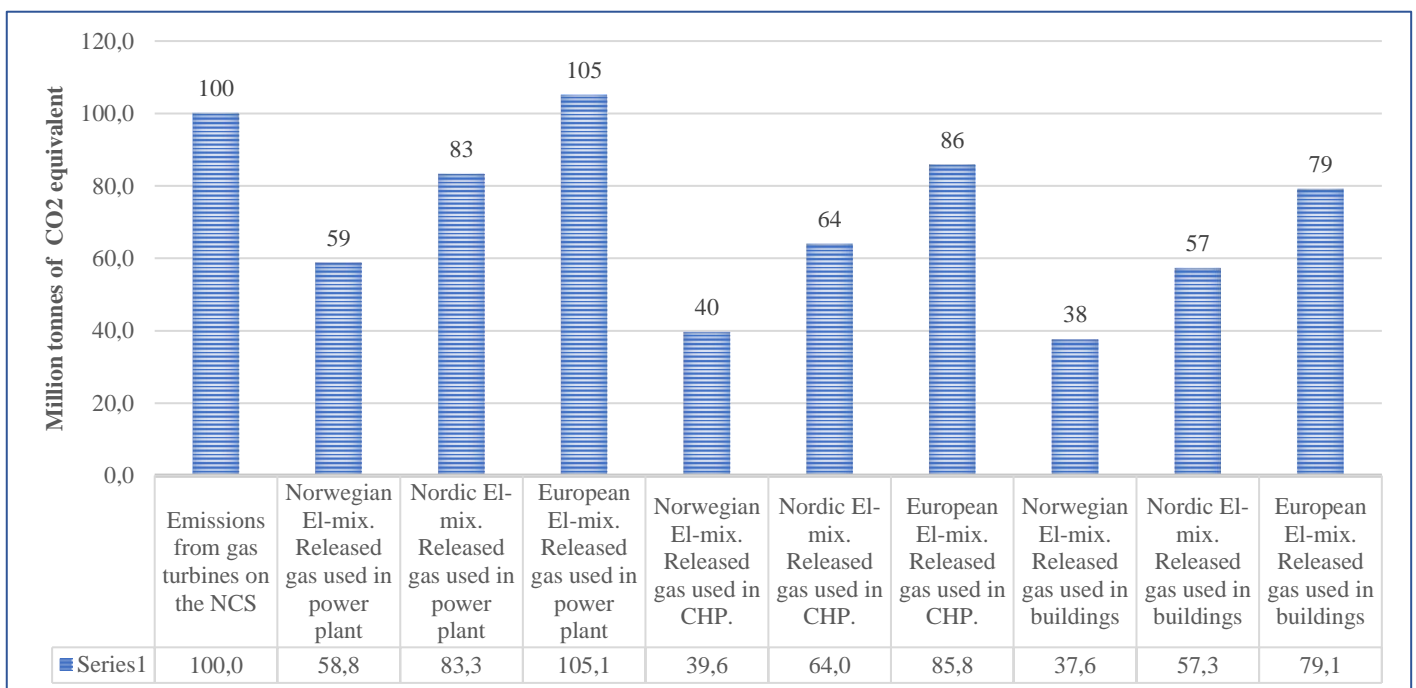


Figure 24 - CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from delivering electricity offshore and released gas are used onshore in a gas power plant, CHP, or building as heat (Appendix 2).



Figure 25 illustrates the international net CO<sub>2</sub> emission impact from importing electricity offshore with different El-mix emission intensities compared to offshore gas turbine emissions. The released gas is used onshore and replaces the existing electricity mix with average emission intensities or electricity generated from coal power. The outcomes are determined by the El-mix delivered offshore, the electricity generating utilisation of the released gas, and the emission intensity of the electricity-generating source the released gas replaces. The best outcome is when Norwegian El-mix releases gas used to generate electricity in CHP, which substitutes electricity from a coal power plant. Gas combustion produces significantly less CO<sub>2</sub> than coal combustion. When Norwegian El-mix released gas is combusted in an onshore gas power plant that replaces coal power electricity, the net CO<sub>2</sub> emission is reduced by 76 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents. The net CO<sub>2</sub> emission is reduced by 71 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents if the El-mix is imported from a Nordic country and released gas is combusted in a CHP that replaces coal electricity. The CO<sub>2</sub> emission impact is more significant when generating electricity in CHP since it is more energy-efficient than a gas power plant. If Norwegian El-mix released gas is used in CHP and replaces the average European El-mix emission intensity, the net CO<sub>2</sub> emission is unchanged. All other replacements of average electricity mixes result in a net CO<sub>2</sub> emission increase. The results show that using the released gas to replace electricity generated by coal power is the most environmentally friendly alternative since the average El-mix emission intensity in Europe is lower than gas combustion.

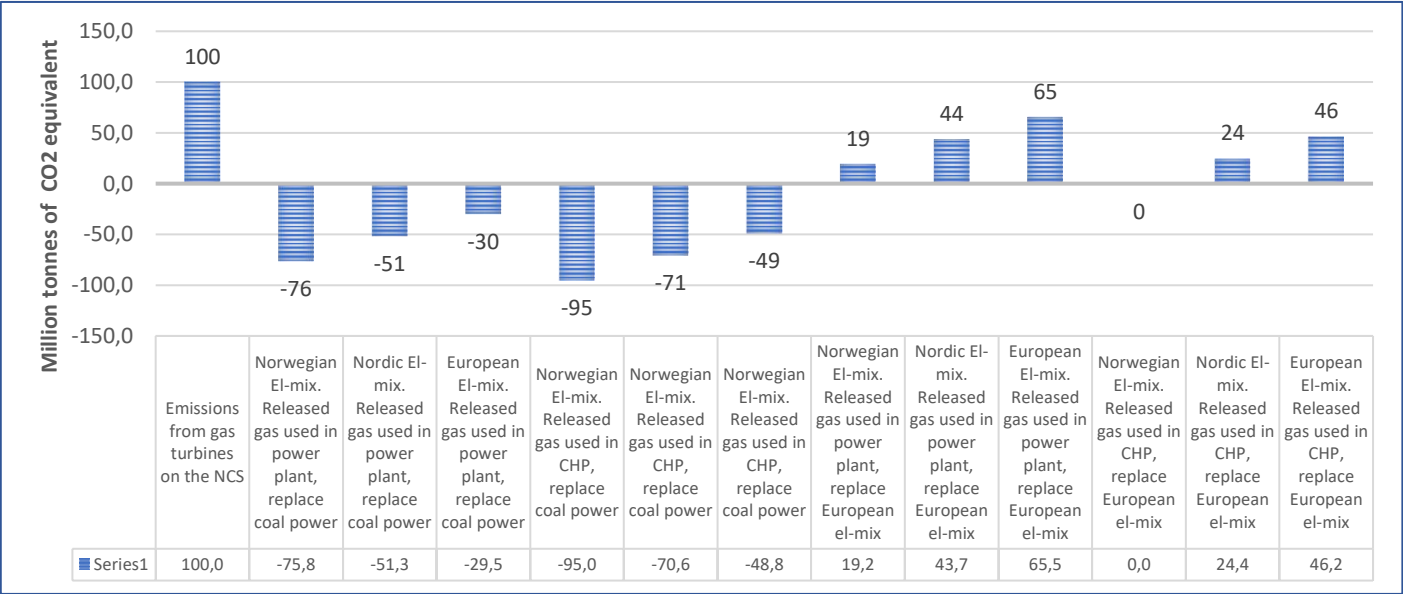


Figure 25 – Net CO<sub>2</sub> impact from importing electricity offshore with different El-mix emission intensities compared to offshore gas turbine emissions. The released gas is used onshore and replaces average European El-mix or electricity generated from coal power (Appendix 2).

## 6 Economic Sensitivity Analysis Data

Find the method overview in Chapter 3.7 and Appendix 1 for the complete dataset. The mean input variables and CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost is shown in Table 4 and Table 5. The data is based on the findings in 2021 energy prices with an implemented margin of error depending on the historical and projected values presented in Chapter 4.2.

*Table 4 - Mean Parameters used in the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost analysis (Appendix 1 – Economic Sensitivity Analysis).*

Parameters	Value	Unit
Discount rate:	7 %	%
Gas turbine efficiency on the platform:	30 %	%
Electricity price (incl. grid rent):	0,6	NOK/kWh
Gas price (incl. tariffs):	2,4	NOK/Sm <sup>3</sup>
CO <sub>2</sub> price:	1600	NOK/tonne
<b>Mean CO<sub>2</sub> Abatement Cost:</b>	<b>2 417</b>	NOK/tonne CO <sub>2</sub>

*Table 5 - Parameter intervals in the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost sensitivity analysis (Appendix 1 – Economic Sensitivity Analysis).*

Parameter	Min Value	Mean value	Max Value	Unit
Electricity price (incl. grid rent):	0,3	0,6	0,9	NOK/MWh
Gas price (incl. tariffs):	1,2	2,4	3,6	NOK/Sm <sup>3</sup>
CO <sub>2</sub> price:	800	1600	2400	NOK/tonne
Gas turbine efficiency	0,25	0,3	0,35	%
Discount rate	0,06	0,07	0,08	%

Energy prices have a large margin of error of  $\pm 50\%$  to hedge uncertainties around future prices. Petroleum investments in connection with the preparation of development plans by the authorities are commonly evaluated at a real interest rate of 7% with a  $\pm 1\%$  margin of error (NPD, 2020). The efficiency of gas turbines on the NCS ranges from 25 to 35 %, depending on the plant's design, age, and operation (KonKraft, 2021; Torvanger & Ericson, 2013). Since the field is hypothetical, the analysis uses a gas turbine's average efficiency on the NCS, with a  $\pm 5\%$  margin of error because efficiency may vary over time (Saravanamuttoo, Rogers, & Cohen, 2001). The mean CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost serves solely as a base value for the sensitivity analysis to determine how much the input affects the cost.

### 6.1 Economic Sensitivity Results

Figure 26 illustrates the sensitivity of the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost to each input variable as they change over their allowed intervals. The figure shows all the input variables in order of their impact on the cost. The gas turbine efficiency has the greatest impact on the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost because it affects the amount of gas released for sale and CO<sub>2</sub> avoided as a result of the implementation. Then the gas price, followed by the electricity price and discount rate. The CO<sub>2</sub> price has no impact on the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost.

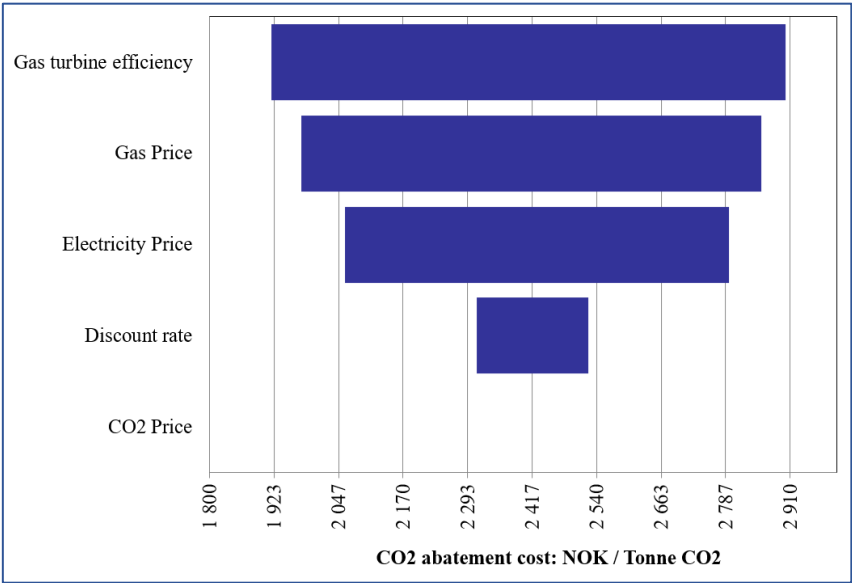


Figure 26 - Sensitivity tornado of the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost (Appendix 3).

Figure 27 shows that the gas turbine efficiency has the steepest line, indicating the most significant impact on the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost. The figure illustrates that when the gas turbine efficiency increases, so do the abatement cost because higher efficiency results in less gas for sale and less CO<sub>2</sub> avoided. The results show an inverse correlation between the prices of electricity and gas. As the price of gas rises, the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost decreases, and vice versa for the price of electricity. An increase in the discount rate results in an increase in abatement cost.

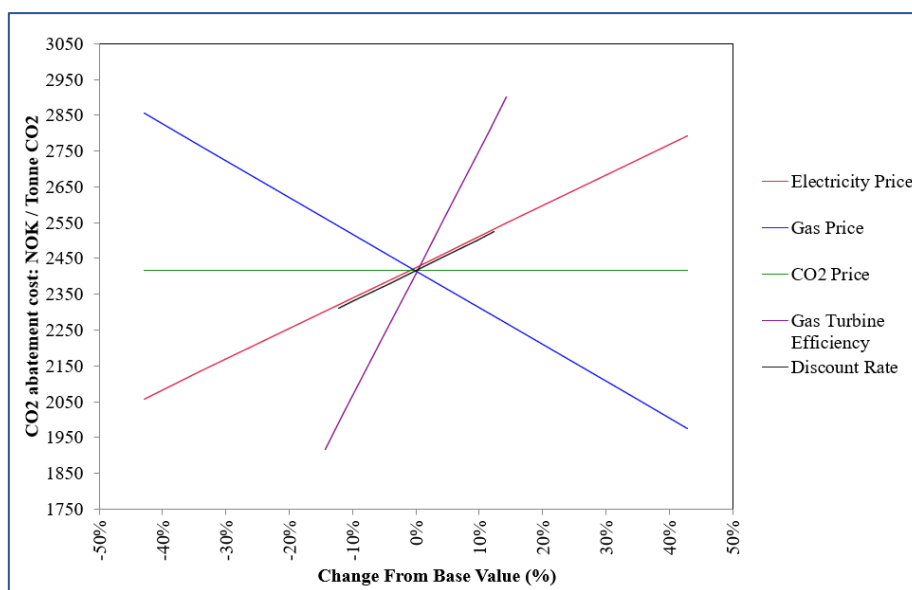


Figure 27 - Spider diagram of the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost (Appendix 3).

## 7 Discussion

International politics are crucial when addressing global warming. Global warming is an international issue that requires cross-national collaboration and that all governments implement emission-reduction measures. The Paris Agreement is an international law that binds governments to deliver new and improved climate targets every five years that reflect the country's highest possible ambition, referred to as the "progression principle" (Chapter 4.5.3). Norway is committed to reduce emissions by at least 50% up to 55% by 2030 and net-zero by 2050, relative to 1990 levels (UNFCCC, 2020). Norway's domestic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions are very low on a global scale due to its small population and 99% renewable electricity output (Figure 2, p. 5). Norway already achieved this extraordinary clean electricity in 1990, which is why it is still far from meeting its binding climate targets, with only a 4.2% reduction in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in 2020 compared to 1990 levels (SSB, 2021).

Norwegian forests captured over 23 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent in 2019, accounting for nearly half of Norway's total CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in 2021. (Figure 4, p. 7). If Norway estimates net CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, forest CO<sub>2</sub> capture counts in the climate equation, raising the emission reduction to 20% compared to 1990 levels (Figure 5, p. 8). Norway has therefore made greater progress towards the net-zero 2050 target than reducing emissions by 50% to 55% by 2030. Norway will break the Paris Agreement under the progression principle since changing the 2030 climate targets to net reduction puts Norway in a better position. According to Chapter 5.3.1-

Environmental Impact of Gas Turbines result, full-scale future electrification will reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in Norway by 10,8 million tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent compared to 2021 levels (Figure 22, p. 39). The findings demonstrate that electrification reduces Norway's upstream emissions while increasing downstream emissions. As a result, electrification's net environmental impact depends on several uncertain factors. Forest CO<sub>2</sub> capture, on the other hand, will be 2.2 times more effective than full-scale electrification of domestic emissions without requiring new investments.

Today, oil and gas extraction has the highest CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in Norway, where electrification provides significant CO<sub>2</sub> reductions that are critical to meeting national climate targets. The environmental impact analysis results suggest that electrification in Norway will lower net domestic emissions by 96 % if the electricity comes from the Norwegian electricity mix instead of a gas turbine (Figure 23, p. 40). If electricity is imported from a coal power station rather than combusted in an offshore gas turbine, net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions increase by at least 55%. Installing offshore electricity cables is expensive, and oil fields have a limited operation time. Increasing CO<sub>2</sub> price has historically been a driving force for further development of electrification on the NCS. This is obvious from a business point of view because oil and gas companies will save billions of NOK. An increase in CO<sub>2</sub> price may result in the opposite outcome of what is intended. The high CO<sub>2</sub> price in 2021 has driven up energy prices, prompting the reopening of new coal-fired power plants as a gas and electricity price-cutting measure (Figure 17, p. 26). Coal power has a high emission intensity, resulting in increased emissions associated with electricity generation in Nordic and European countries (Rystad Energy, 2022). The re-opening of numerous coal power plants in Europe increases Norway's likelihood of importing coal-generated electricity (Figure 17, p. 26).

The EU recently amended the market for tradable CO<sub>2</sub> quotas in 2021. The new EU ETS includes buildings and transportation, making electrification less likely to have a net environmental impact. The electrification of the NCS will have no effect on CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the 30 EU ETS member countries if the released gas is used for quota-controlled activities. Since the amount of allowed quota emissions is fixed, any reduction in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from one activity will be compensated by increasing emissions from another (Torvanger & Ericson, 2013). If the released gas can substitute less efficient energy use in facilities outside the quota system, the net CO<sub>2</sub> would be lower such as through gas exports to countries outside of Europe.

Power from shore technology has advanced significantly since 1996, with smaller and lighter equipment capable of transporting more electricity over greater distances at a lower cost (Chapter 4.4). Power from shore has become more available due to technology improvements, allowing exploration of new power-intensive strategies for increased oil recovery or across market different segments, such as offshore wind. Converter equipment can now be installed on the seafloor, saving space and weight on the infrastructure. The power from shore technology also contributes to reducing electricity transmission losses. The technology advancements are beneficial since significant investments in power grid infrastructure are required for Norway to achieve large-scale electrification of the NCS.

Electricity transmission has become increasingly relevant as Norway integrated more into the European electricity market. The energy market is fast evolving as it becomes increasingly weather-dependent as renewable energy sources replace fossil fuels, and demand rises as a result of societal electrification (Chapter 4.2.1.3). The transfer of excess energy from one region to another requires international cooperation. Norway's integration provides significant power security in import capacity and makes the country more reliant on electricity imports (NVE, 2022). 2021 has shown that Norway's recent improved integration into the European electricity market has resulted in water reservoir depletion and rising electricity prices in Norway. Given that Norway has poor years with little precipitation, the integration improves electrical security; however, if Europe has a poor year with little wind and precipitation, Norway will still be affected by high electricity prices. The results in Chapter 5.3.2 reveal that importing power from a Nordic country or Europe has a bad environmental impact due to a higher average emission intensity of electricity generation and transmission loss. Power from the Norwegian El-mix, where the released gas is used in a Combined Heat and Power Plant (CHP) or building heating, has the greatest impact, with a 60% reduction in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions when replacing offshore gas turbines. CHP has an energy efficiency of 85%, and the gas utilised in buildings has an energy efficiency of 90%. It is a positive result that natural gas combustion in buildings is efficient because it provides basic needs such as cooking and heating, with few feasible short-term substitutes (Rystad Energy, 2022). A weakness of the environmental impact analysis is that it utilises 2021 average emission intensity numbers that change year by year, reducing the validity of the research over time.

Figure 25, p. 42, illustrates the international net CO<sub>2</sub> emission reduction due to power from shore. The results are determined by the El-mix delivered offshore, the use of the released gas, and the subtraction of the emission intensity of the electricity-generating substitute. The results show that replacing electricity generated by a coal power plant results in increased net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. The findings demonstrate that reducing net emissions will be more difficult with power from shore when the Nordic and European El-mixes have lower emission intensity. Due to the released gas must replace electricity generation with higher emission intensity to have a good net environmental impact. The lack of other feasible gas substitutes makes it more logical to use gas in buildings as heat rather than generate electricity. Utilizing released gas in buildings reduces the likelihood of Norway importing electricity, which is unfavourable since the net energy transmission loss from Europe to the NCS is around 20%. According to the analysis findings, electrification results in a lower net energy export due to the lower total transmission loss when exporting electricity rather than natural gas. The green Norwegian electricity mix emits far less than the natural gas combustion and thus has a more significant environmental impact.

The NPD uses the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost to determine whether a power from shore project should get executed if it exceeds the CO<sub>2</sub> price. The Norwegian government plan to increase the CO<sub>2</sub> price as an incentive for oil and gas companies to conduct electrification projects (KonKraft, 2021). The rise in CO<sub>2</sub> price makes it easier for the NPD to justify a power from shore project as socioeconomic beneficial, despite extremely high energy prices. The economic sensitivity analysis results show that the CO<sub>2</sub> price has no direct impact on the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost (Figure 26, p. 44). However, the increased CO<sub>2</sub> price was a driving factor in the significant increase in natural energy prices in 2021 (Figure 17, p. 26). The CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost is affected by natural gas and electricity prices. As a result, an increase in the price of CO<sub>2</sub> has an indirect impact on the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost. The sensitivity analysis shows an inverse correlation between the gas and electricity price that hedges the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost, making it less volatile (Figure 27, p. 45). The purchased electricity releases gas for sale, providing economic security for the investing field operator.

The gas turbine efficiency has the greatest impact on the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost due to the significant impact on the amount of gas released and abatement of CO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 26, p. 44). Improving the efficiency of gas turbines will thus have a significant environmental impact, limiting the improvement potential of power from shore and reducing the likelihood that the

CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost will get evaluated as socioeconomic beneficial. There is nothing specific in NPD's report "Power from Shore to the Norwegian Continental Shelf," which forms the basis of the economic sensitivity analysis, about whether they analyse the efficiency of the gas tubes on the platforms (NPD, 2020). When conducting a cost-benefit analysis of a power from shore project, the NPD should consider the environmental impact and cost of upgrading gas turbines to Combined Heat and Power Plants (CHP). The efficiency then improves dramatically, making power from shore less profitable.

Installing offshore electricity cables is prohibitively expensive, and oil fields have a limited production lifetime. Increasing CO<sub>2</sub> price has historically been a driving force for further development of electrification on the NCS. This is obvious from oil and gas companies' business point of view. The temporary modification of the petroleum tax system has resulted in even better economic conditions, with a 73% investment return in the first year. Assuming that full-scale NCS electrification will cost 50 billion NOK, the Norwegian government will bear 45.72 billion NOK, or 91.44% of the cost (NPD, 2022c). As a result, a record number of plans for developing power from shore are expected to be delivered within 2022 (Rystad Energy, 2021).

Power from shore to the NCS reduces CO<sub>2</sub> emissions related to oil and gas extraction, the green electricity surplus in Norway, net energy exports to Europe, and increases the electricity prices in Norway. Despite the high electricity prices, the development of power from shore receives broad support from Norwegian political parties (Figure 12, p. 19). According to NPD assessments, around two-thirds of Norway's natural gas resources have yet to be extracted. (NPD, 2022a). Further electrification of the NCS contributes positively to reaching Norway's domestic climate target and justifying the continuation of oil and gas extraction. The rationale is that the petroleum industry is the most important source of government revenue (Meld. St. 13, 2021), and they want it to continue for many years. As a result of the conflict in Ukraine, Norway now plays an even more critical role in meeting Europe's energy demand. The petroleum industry is essential to meeting basic human needs and preventing countries from falling into energy poverty. Global energy demand will continue to rise, so oil and gas will remain critical components of the global energy mix for decades (SINTEF, 2019).

Increased public climate awareness has resulted in significant changes in politics and within the petroleum industry. Environmental activists, Norwegian industry, and petroleum employees all



agree that emissions must be reduced and investments in low-carbon solutions are required. When it comes to electrification, however, the statistics are conclusive. According to the public survey results, the Norwegian citizens want to cease further electrification development on the NCS (Figure 19, p. 31). The exact reason for this is uncertain because social knowledge and awareness regarding electrification are both individual and variable. The public may believe that electrification is too costly and that taxpayer funds are more useful when spent elsewhere. Electrification contributes to increased electricity prices, reducing Norwegian citizens' purchasing power. Another reason could be that electrification's environmental impact is not considered worth the investments required.

## 7.1 Discussion: Research questions

### **1. What is the most critical driver and barrier for electrifying the Norwegian continental shelf with power from shore?**

The political legislation is the most powerful driver and barrier to electrifying the Norwegian continental shelf with power from shore. The Paris Agreement and the European Climate Law are crucial drivers for Norway to continue developing power from shore to meet its national climate targets. Global warming is an international issue that requires cross-national collaboration and that all governments implement emission-reduction measures. The Energy Act and the Petroleum Law aim to ensure that the value generated by petroleum resources benefits Norwegian citizens. It is essential that all significant social concerns are taken into account (NPD, 2022e). Before new power from shore projects can be implemented, they must be considered socioeconomically beneficial, and the conclusion may change during the licencing process. Norway has the legal authority to decline and revoke development authorisation for power from shore projects, thereby halting further electrification development of the NCS.

### **2. Does electrification of the Norwegian Continental Shelf reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions?**

The environmental impact analysis shows that electrification will lower Norway's upstream and domestic emissions while increasing downstream emissions that are not included in Norway's national climate targets. The EU Emissions Trading System (EU ETS) implies that electrification has no net environmental impact on CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the 30 member countries if the released gas is used for quota-controlled activities. The number of allowed quota

emissions is fixed, and companies receive or buy emission allowances, which they can trade as needed (European Commission, 2022). Any reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from one activity will be compensated by increasing emissions from another. The environmental impact of power from shore is determined by electricity transmission distance, the emission intensity of the electricity transferred to the Norwegian continental shelf, and the combustion method of the natural gas released. If the released gas can substitute less efficient energy use in facilities outside the quota system, the net CO<sub>2</sub> would be lower such as through gas exports to countries outside of EU ETS. Power from shore has the best environmental impact when the electricity is from the Norwegian electricity mix, and the released gas is used in a CHP or building and substitutes for coal power. The Norwegian El-mix has a lower emission intensity and reduced transmission loss, making it ideal for electrifying the NCS. Power from shore increases net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions when the electricity transmitted offshore is imported from a Nordic and European average electricity mix.

### **3. How do political and economic frameworks facilitate power from shore development?**

According to the Norwegian climate plan, the most important measure is raising the CO<sub>2</sub> price and incentivising the energy companies to reduce emissions by implementing power from shore (KonKraft, 2021). The power from shore implementation is socioeconomically beneficial if the CO<sub>2</sub> price exceeds the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost and should be executed (NPD, 2020). The high CO<sub>2</sub> price increases the cost limit for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction incentives, making power from shore projects more likely to be approved. The Petroleum Tax system provides favourable economic conditions for oil and gas companies to implement power from shore. The temporary modification in the petroleum tax system has resulted in even more lucrative economic conditions, with the Norwegian government bearing 91,44 % of the investment costs (NPD, 2022c), significantly lowering the developer's economic risks. The political and economic framework facilitates good conditions for oil and gas companies to electrify the Norwegian continental shelf.

## 8 Conclusion

The purpose of this thesis is to investigate whether Norway should continue the development of power from shore to the Norwegian continental shelf. The conclusion is based on the three separate analyses and a comprehensive literature study.

Power from shore to the Norwegian continental shelf has a large domestic environmental impact potential, while the international environmental impact is limited and depends on several uncertain factors. The environmental impact analysis shows that electrification will lower Norway's upstream emissions while increasing downstream emissions that are not included in Norway's national climate targets. The recently amended EU Emissions Trading System (EU ETS) implies that electrification has no net environmental impact in the 30 EU ETS member countries if the released gas is used for quota-controlled activities. If the released gas can substitute less efficient energy use in facilities outside the quota system, the net CO<sub>2</sub> would be lower such as through gas exports to countries outside of Europe.

The PESTL analysis studies which factors drive electrification development and which create barriers. The political legislation is the most powerful driver and barrier to electrifying the Norwegian continental shelf with power from shore. The Paris Agreement and the European Climate Law are crucial drivers for Norway to continue developing power from shore to meet its national climate targets. In contrast, the Energy Act and the Petroleum Law aim to ensure that the value generated by petroleum resources benefits Norwegian citizens. Norway has legal permission to decline and revoke development authorisation for power from shore projects, thereby stopping further electrification development of the NCS.

According to the Norwegian climate plan, the most important measure is raising the CO<sub>2</sub> price and incentivising the energy companies to reduce emissions by implementing power from shore. Increased CO<sub>2</sub> price increases the cost limit for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction incentives, making power from shore projects more likely to be approved. The political and economic framework facilitates excellent conditions for oil and gas companies to electrify the Norwegian continental shelf. The economic sensitivity analysis results show that the gas turbine efficiency has the most significant impact on the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement cost. Improving the efficiency of gas turbines will thus have a significant environmental impact, limiting the improvement potential of power from shore.

Norway should stop the development of the Norwegian Continental Shelf with power from shore to protect Norwegian citizens from an uncertain energy future, based on the Energy Act and the Petroleum Law. The energy market is fast evolving as it becomes increasingly weather-dependent as renewable energy sources replace fossil fuels. Oil fields have a limited lifetime, and power from shore reduces the power surplus in Norway, net energy exports to Europe, and increases the electricity prices in Norway. 2021 has shown that rising CO<sub>2</sub> prices can significantly increase energy prices, reducing Norwegians' purchasing power. The Norwegian government should improve gas turbine efficiency offshore, instead of raising CO<sub>2</sub> prices, and renegotiate the Paris Agreement and the European Climate Law's 2030 targets for net CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Then forest CO<sub>2</sub> capture is included in the climate equation, making Norway well-positioned to meet the 2030 climate target without further electrification development. By aligning 2030 and the 2050 climate targets to net CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, it will secure better long-term investments toward the ultimate net-zero society target.

## Future Research

According to Norway's Climate Plan, power from shore is critical for meeting national climate targets. Investigating if Norway is capable of meeting climate targets without further electrification development will provide valuable information on how Norway can achieve a net-zero society. I recommend including research on the significance of Norwegian forests and their CO<sub>2</sub> capture potential.

The conflict in Ukraine has resulted in heavy sanctions against the Russian economy and energy. Simultaneously, the energy sector is rapidly shifting as it becomes more weather-dependent as renewable energy sources replace fossil fuels. It would be interesting to study how much renewable energy investment is required per year to meet rising energy demand without relying on Russian energy imports by 2030, as the EU intends. In addition, what would happen to Europe if Norway ceased producing oil and gas for export?

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# Appendix 1 – Economic Sensitivity Analysis

## CO2 Abatement cost analysis – Hypothetical petroleum field - Conducted in Excel

Parameters assumptions (You can change the numbers)	Value	Unit	Source
Total life-time electricity demand (TWh)	2	TWh	(NPD,2025b)
Discount rate	7%	%	(NPD,2025b)
Gas turbine efficiency on platform	39	%	
Electricity purchase price (incl. grid cost)	0.6	NOK/kWh	
Gas price (incl. tariffs)	2.4	NOK/Sm <sup>3</sup>	
CO2 price	1600	NOK/tonne	(Tovanger and Eidsen, 2017; SSB,2017)

Other parameters	Value	Unit	Source
1 MW	1000	kWh	
1 Sm <sup>3</sup> gas	11.11	kWh	
1 tonne	1000000	kg	
Average gas combustion emissions, 1 sm <sup>3</sup> gas	2.34	kg CO2	

Results	Value	Unit
CO2 abatement cost	2 417	NOK/tonne CO2
NPV	2 082	MNOK
Cashflow net cost, CO2-cost	-703	MNOK
Cashflow, incl. saved CO2-cost	1 378	MNOK
Total CO2-cost savings	2 417	MNOK

CAPEX Assumptions	Unit	NPV	Sum	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036	2037	2038	2039	2040
Cost Offshore (excl. Cable cost)	MNOK	-634	-710	-60	-250	-250	-150	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cost Onshore	MNOK	-447	-200	-200	-50	-50	-20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cable Cost	MNOK	-1025	-1160	-300	-500	-500	-250	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sum	MNOK	-2106	-2340	-520	-750	-850	-430	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

OPEX Assumptions	Unit	NPV	Sum	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036	2037	2038	2039	2040
Opex with power from shore (excl. electricity cost)	MNOK	-123	-200	0	0	0	-200	-200	-200	-200	-200	-200	-200	-200	-200	-200	0	0	0	0	0
Data opex (excl. electricity cost)	MNOK	-123	-2000	0	0	0	-200	-200	-200	-200	-200	-200	-200	-200	-200	-200	0	0	0	0	0

Electricity demand and extra gas reduced	Unit	NPV	Sum	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036	2037	2038	2039	2040
Electricity demand	MWh/Ar	1 404 716	2 000 000	0	0	0	200 000	200 000	200 000	200 000	200 000	200 000	200 000	200 000	200 000	200 000	0	0	0	0	0
Gas Released (dMM Sm <sup>3</sup> )	MWh/Sm <sup>3</sup> Ar	368	600	0	0	0	600	600	600	600	600	600	600	600	600	600	0	0	0	0	0

Emission Assumptions (Disregards NOx)	Unit	NPV (CO2 emissions)	Sum	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036	2037	2038	2039	2040
CO2 capacity not electrifying	Mt/tonne/yr	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
CO2 emissions vessel turnber	Mt/tonne/yr	0.86	1.40	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Data CO2 emissions	Mt/tonne/yr	0.86	1.40	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Energy Prices	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036	2037	2038	2039	2040
Electricity price (incl. grid cost)	2.40	2.40	2.40	2.40	2.40	2.40	2.40	2.40	2.40	2.40	2.40	2.40	2.40	2.40	2.40	2.40	2.40	2.40
Gas price (incl. tariffs)	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.60
CO2 price:	1600	1600	1600	1600	1600	1600	1600	1600	1600	1600	1600	1600	1600	1600	1600	1600	1600	1600

Parameters	Unit	NPV	Sum	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036	2037	2038	2039	2040
Data capex	MNOK	-2106	-2340	-520	-750	-850	-430	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Data opex (excl. electricity cost)	MNOK	-123	-200	0	0	0	-200	-200	-200	-200	-200	-200	-200	-200	-200	-200	0	0	0	0	0
Gas sales	MNOK	883	1 440	0	0	0	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	0	0	0	0	0
Electricity cost	MNOK	-735	-1 200	0	0	0	-120	-120	-120	-120	-120	-120	-120	-120	-120	-120	0	0	0	0	0
Cashflow net cost	MNOK	2 082	2 300	320	750	850	416	-4	-4	-4	-4	-4	-4	-4	-4	-4	0	0	0	0	0
CO2-cost savings	MNOK	1 378	2 247	0	0	0	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	0	0	0	0	0
Cashflow net cost, included savings CO2-cost	MNOK	703	553	-320	-750	-850	-191	229	229	229	229	229	229	229	229	229	0	0	0	0	0

CO2 abatement cost	Value	Unit
CO2 abatement cost	2 417	NOK/tonne CO2

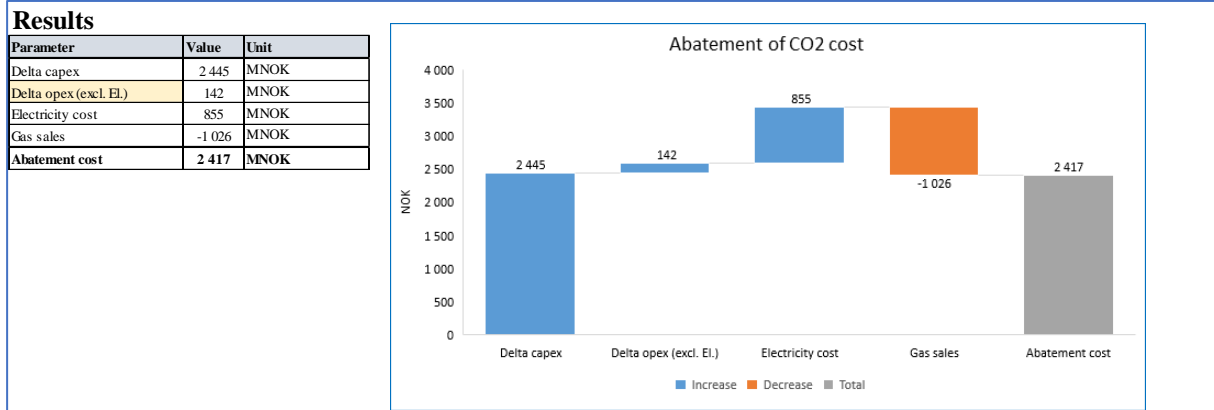
Results	Parameter	Value	Unit
Data capex	2445	MNOK	
Data opex (excl. EI)	142	MNOK	
Electricity cost	855	MNOK	
Gas sales	-1 025	MNOK	
Abatement cost	2 417	MNOK	

# Formulas used in the analysis:

## Formulas used in the analysis:

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L
1	Source: (NPV, 2020)											
2	Parameters assumptions (You can change)	Value	Unit								Source	
3	Total life-time electricity demand (TWh)	2	TWh								(NFC, 2022b)	
4	Discount rate	0.07	%								(NFC, 2022b)	
5	Gas turbine efficiency on platform	0.3	%									
6	Electricity spot-price (incl. grid rent)	0.6	M\$/MWh									
7	Gas price (incl. tariffs)	2.4	M\$/Gnc3									
8	CO2 price	1600	M\$/tonne								(Fouergas and Ersson, 2018; SES, 2017)	
9	Results											
10	CO2 abatement cost	-E03	M\$/tonne CO2									
11	NPV											
12	Cashflow net cost, excl. CO2-cost	-E18										
13	Cashflow, incl. saved CO2-cost	-E19										
14	Total CO2-cost savings	-E20										
15												
16												
17	CAPEX Assumptions	Unit	NPV	Sum								
18	Cost Offshore (incl. Cable cost)	M\$/kW	+NPV(BSMF26AF19)E19	-SUM(E19B)	-E20	-E20	-E20	-E20	-E20	-E20	-E20	-E20
19	Cost Onshore	M\$/kW	+NPV(BSMF26AF20)E20	-SUM(E20B)	-E21	-E21	-E21	-E21	-E21	-E21	-E21	-E21
20	Cable Cost	M\$/kW	+NPV(BSMF26AF21)E21	-SUM(E21B)	-E22	-E22	-E22	-E22	-E22	-E22	-E22	-E22
21	Sum	M\$/kW	+NPV(BSMF26AF22)E22	-SUM(E22B)	-E23	-E23	-E23	-E23	-E23	-E23	-E23	-E23
22												
23	OPEX Assumptions	Unit	NPV	Sum								
24	Open with power from shore (incl. electricity cost)	M\$/kW	+NPV(BSMF26AF23)E23	-SUM(E23B)	-E24	-E24	-E24	-E24	-E24	-E24	-E24	-E24
25	Delta open (incl. electricity cost)	M\$/kW	+NPV(BSMF26AF24)E24	-SUM(E24B)	-E25	-E25	-E25	-E25	-E25	-E25	-E25	-E25
26												
27	Electricity demand and extra gas released	Unit	NPV	Sum								
28	Electricity demand	MWh/a	+NPV(BSMF26AF25)E25	-SUM(E25B)	-E26	-E26	-E26	-E26	-E26	-E26	-E26	-E26
29	Gas Released (40M/Gnc3)	M\$/Sm3/a	+NPV(BSMF26AF26)E26	-SUM(E26B)	-E27	-E27	-E27	-E27	-E27	-E27	-E27	-E27
30												
31	Emission Assumption (Disregards ND)	Unit	NPV (CO2 emissions)	Sum								
32	CO2 usage w/ electrification	M/tonne/a	+NPV(BSMF26AF27)E27	-SUM(E27B)	-E28	-E28	-E28	-E28	-E28	-E28	-E28	-E28
33	CO2-emissions w/ tubular	M/tonne/a	+NPV(BSMF26AF28)E28	-SUM(E28B)	-E29	-E29	-E29	-E29	-E29	-E29	-E29	-E29
34	Delta CO2-emissions	M/tonne/a	+NPV(BSMF26AF29)E29	-SUM(E29B)	-E30	-E30	-E30	-E30	-E30	-E30	-E30	-E30
35												
36	Energy Prices	2023	-E38-1	-E38-1	-E38-1	-E38-1	-E38-1	-E38-1	-E38-1	-E38-1	-E38-1	-E38-1
37	Electricity price (incl. grid rent)	-E37	-E37	-E37	-E37	-E37	-E37	-E37	-E37	-E37	-E37	-E37
38	Gas price (incl. tariffs)	-E38	-E38	-E38	-E38	-E38	-E38	-E38	-E38	-E38	-E38	-E38
39	CO2-price	-E39	-E39	-E39	-E39	-E39	-E39	-E39	-E39	-E39	-E39	-E39
40												
41	Parameters	Unit	NPV	Sum								
42	Delta open	M\$/kW	+NPV(BSMF26AF30)E30	-SUM(E30B)	-E31	-E31	-E31	-E31	-E31	-E31	-E31	-E31
43	Delta open (incl. electricity cost)	M\$/kW	+NPV(BSMF26AF31)E31	-SUM(E31B)	-E32	-E32	-E32	-E32	-E32	-E32	-E32	-E32
44	Gas sales	M\$/kW	+NPV(BSMF26AF32)E32	-SUM(E32B)	-E33	-E33	-E33	-E33	-E33	-E33	-E33	-E33
45	Electricity cost	M\$/kW	+NPV(BSMF26AF33)E33	-SUM(E33B)	-E34	-E34	-E34	-E34	-E34	-E34	-E34	-E34
46												
47	Cashflow net cost	M\$/kW	+NPV(BSMF26AF34)E34	-SUM(E34B)	-E35	-E35	-E35	-E35	-E35	-E35	-E35	-E35
48												
49	CO2-cost savings	M\$/kW	+NPV(BSMF26AF35)E35	-SUM(E35B)	-E36	-E36	-E36	-E36	-E36	-E36	-E36	-E36
50												
51	Cashflow net cost, including savings CO2	M\$/kW	+NPV(BSMF26AF36)E36	-SUM(E36B)	-E37	-E37	-E37	-E37	-E37	-E37	-E37	-E37
52												
53	CO2 abatement cost	M\$/tonne CO2										
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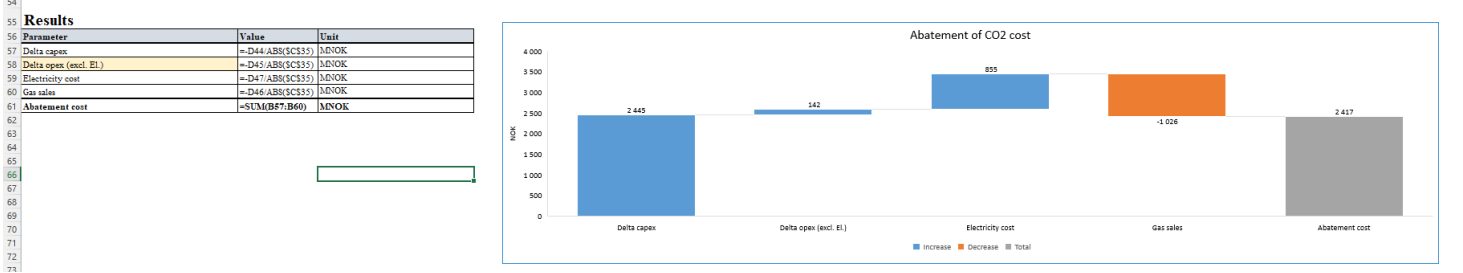
## CO2 abatement cost Figure input:



## CO2 abatement cost Figure formulas:

Parameters	Unit	NPV	Sum	2023	=F43-1	=G43-1	=H43-1	=I43-1
Delta capex	MNOK	=NPV(\$B\$4:G44:AG44)*F44	=SUM(F44:AG44)	=E22	=F22	=G22	=H22	=I22
Delta opex (excl. electricity cost)	MNOK	=NPV(\$B\$4:G45:AG45)*F45	=SUM(F45:AG45)	=E26	=F26	=G26	=H26	=I26
Gas sales	MNOK	=NPV(\$B\$4:G46:AG46)*F46	=SUM(F46:AG46)	=E30	=F30	=G30	=H30	=I30
Electricity cost	MNOK	=NPV(\$B\$4:G47:AG47)*F47	=SUM(F47:AG47)	=E34	=F34	=G34	=H34	=I34
Cashflow net cost	MNOK	=NPV(\$B\$4:G48:AG48)*F48	=SUM(F48:AG48)	=E38	=F38	=G38	=H38	=I38
CO2-cost savings	MNOK	=NPV(\$B\$4:G50:AG50)*F50	=SUM(F50:AG50)	=E42	=F42	=G42	=H42	=I42
Cashflow net cost, included savings CO2-cost	MNOK	=NPV(\$B\$4:G51:AG51)*F51	=SUM(F51:AG51)	=E46	=F46	=G46	=H46	=I46

CO2 abatement cost	NOK/tonne CO2	=DS48/ABS(C535)
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## @Risk Input sheet:

	50 %	100 %	150 %		
	min	most likely	max		function
Electricity price (incl. grid rent):	0,3	0,6	0,9	NOK/MWh	#NAME? RiskTriang function (command to obtain a Triangular probability distribution as input)
Gas price (incl. tariffs):	1,2	2,4	3,6	NOK/Sm <sup>3</sup>	#NAME? RiskTriang function (command to obtain a Triangular probability distribution as input)
CO2 price:	800	1600	2400	NOK/tonn	#NAME? RiskTriang function (command to obtain a Triangular probability distribution as input)
Gas turbine efficiency	25 %	30 %	35 %	%	#NAME? RiskTriang function (command to obtain a Triangular probability distribution as input)
Discount rate	6 %	7 %	8 %	%	#NAME? RiskTriang function (command to obtain a Triangular probability distribution as input)

## Formulas:

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
1		0,5	1	1,5				
2		min	most likely	max		function		
3	Electricity price (incl. grid rent):	=G9*BS1	=G9*CS1	=G9*DS1	NOK/MWh	=@RiskTriang(B3;C3;D3)	RiskTriang function (command to obtain a Triangular probability distribution as input)	
4	Gas price (incl. tariffs):	=G10*BS1	=G10*CS1	=G10*DS1	NOK/Sm <sup>3</sup>	=@RiskTriang(B4;C4;D4)	RiskTriang function (command to obtain a Triangular probability distribution as input)	
5	CO2 price:	=G11*BS1	=G11*CS1	=G11*DS1	NOK/tonn	=@RiskTriang(B5;C5;D5)	RiskTriang function (command to obtain a Triangular probability distribution as input)	
6	Gas turbine efficiency	0,25	0,3	0,35	%	=@RiskTriang(B6;C6;D6)	RiskTriang function (command to obtain a Triangular probability distribution as input)	
7	Discount rate	0,06	0,07	0,08	%	=@RiskTriang(B7;C7;D7)	RiskTriang function (command to obtain a Triangular probability distribution as input)	
8							0,6	
9							2,4	
10							1600	
11								

**@ Risk Output sheet (The entire Excel sheet is found on Page 64):**

	A	B	C	D
1	Source: (NPD,2020)			
2	<b>Parameters</b>	<b>Value</b>	<b>Unit</b>	
3	Total life-time electricity demand (TWh):	2	TWh	
4	Discount rate:	=@Risk input sheet!G7	%	
5	Gas turbine efficiency on platform:	=@Risk input sheet!G6	%	
6	Electricity spot-price (incl. grid rent):	=@Risk input sheet!G3	NOK/kWh	
7	Gas price (incl. tariffs):	=@Risk input sheet!G4	NOK/Sm3	
8	CO2 price:	=@Risk input sheet!G5	NOK/tonne	
9	<b>Results</b>			
11		<b>Value</b>	<b>Unit</b>	
12	CO2 abatement cost:	=@RiskOutput()D54	NOK/tonne CO2	
13		<b>NPV</b>		<b>SUM</b>
14	Cashflow net cost, excl. CO2-cost:	=D48	MNOK	=E48
15	Cashflow, incl. saved CO2-cost:	=D51	MNOK	=E51
16	Total CO2-cost savings:	=D50	MNOK	=E50
18	<b>CAPEX Assumptions</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>NPV</b>	<b>Sum</b>
19	Cost Offshore (excl. Cable cost)	MNOK	=NPV(\$B\$4;F19:AF19)+E19	=+SUM(E19:R19)
20	Cost Onshore	MNOK	=NPV(\$B\$4;F20:AF20)+E20	=+SUM(E20:R20)
21	Cable Cost	MNOK	=NPV(\$B\$4;F21:AF21)+E21	=+SUM(E21:R21)
22	Sum	MNOK	=NPV(\$B\$4;F22:AF22)+E22	=+SUM(E22:R22)
24	<b>OPEX Assumptions</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>NPV</b>	<b>Sum</b>
25	Opex with power from shore (excl. electricity cost)	MNOK	=NPV(\$B\$4;F25:AF25)+E25	=+SUM(E25:AF25)
26	Delta opex (excl. electricity cost)	MNOK	=NPV(\$B\$4;F26:AF26)+E26	=+SUM(E26:AF26)
28	<b>Electricity demand and extra gas released</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>NPV</b>	<b>Sum</b>
29	Electricity demand	MWh/år	=NPV(\$B\$4;F29:AF29)+E29	=B3+H5
30	Gas Released (40MJ/Sm3)	Mill Sm3/år	=NPV(\$B\$4;F30:AF30)+E30	=+SUM(E30:AF30)
32	<b>Emission Assumption (Disregards NOx)</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>NPV (CO2 emissions)</b>	<b>Sum</b>
33	CO2-utslipp ved elektrifisering	Mill tonne/år	=NPV(\$B\$4;F33:AF33)+E33	=+SUM(E33:AF33)
34	CO2-emissions ved turbiner	Mill tonne/år	=NPV(\$B\$4;F34:AF34)+E34	=+SUM(E34:AF34)
35	Delta CO2-emissions	Mill tonne/år	=NPV(\$B\$4;F35:AF35)+E35	=+SUM(E35:AF35)
38	<b>Energy Prices</b>	<b>2023</b>	<b>=B38+1</b>	<b>=C38+1</b>
39	Electricity price (incl. grid rent):	=B\$57	=B\$57	=B\$57
40	Gas price (incl. tariff):	=B\$56	=B\$56	=B\$56
41	CO2 price:	=B\$58	=B\$58	=B\$58
43	<b>Parameters</b>	<b>Unit</b>		<b>NPV</b>
44	Delta capex	MNOK		=NPV(\$B\$4;G44:AG44)+F44
45	Delta opex (excl. electricity cost)	MNOK		=NPV(\$B\$4;G45:AG45)+F45
46	Gas sales	MNOK		=NPV(\$B\$4;G46:AG46)+F46
47	Electricity cost	MNOK		=NPV(\$B\$4;G47:AG47)+F47
48	Cashflow net cost	MNOK		=NPV(\$B\$4;G48:AG48)+F48
50	CO2-cost savings	MNOK		=NPV(\$B\$4;G50:AG50)+F50
51	Cashflow net cost, included savings CO2-cost	MNOK		=NPV(\$B\$4;G51:AG51)+F51
54	Abatement cost	NOK/tonne CO2		=SD\$48/ABS(SC\$35)

# Advanced Sensitivity Analysis Summary Report:

## Advanced Sensitivity Analysis Summary Report

Performed By: Andrië Mellenstrand Jaarso

Date: 30.05.2022 14:32:33

Inputs Analyzed: 5

Simulations: 500

Name	Book	Sheet	Cell	Analysis	Value	Mean	Min	Max	Mode	Median	StdDev	Var	Kurtosis	Skewness	5%	95%
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$58		Perc: 1%	0.3424264	2058,2073	1246,7362	2991,6473	1932,1971	2047,1971	310,58159	96460,927	2,7619322	0,1375982	1556,8215	2596,6115
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$58		Perc: 5%	0.3948683	2133,076	1313,8228	3071,3567	2146,7372	2120,554	314,32555	98900,554	2,7597495	0,1372446	1625,1279	2678,4719
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$58		Perc: 25%	0.5121332	2300,4874	1463,8831	3269,0086	2318,9398	2285,9199	322,84	104225,86	2,7538965	0,1362286	1775,95	2863,2023
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$58		Perc: 50%	0.6	2425,9321	1576,2387	3412,6172	2387,5409	2339,34192	329,34192	108426,11	2,7487558	0,1352884	1890,6778	3003,5524
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$58		Perc: 75%	0.687868	2551,3767	1688,6444	3556,2257	2742,0199	2538,5617	335,94153	112856,11	2,7430811	0,1342177	2008,0583	3138,4473
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$58		Perc: 95%	0.8051317	2718,7882	1838,6546	3747,8777	2674,1605	2702,6354	344,89147	118950,13	2,7348332	0,1326175	2159,8043	3318,5406
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$58		Perc: 99%	0.8575736	2793,6568	1905,7413	3833,5871	2741,7359	2777,1011	348,94375	121761,74	2,7309412	0,1318479	2229,8105	3398,7961
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$59		Perc: 1%	1.1897056	2855,4405	2058,4243	3801,8037	2757,141	2837,1523	297,29984	88387,192	2,6700264	0,1788811	2380,9849	3382,4365
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$59		Perc: 5%	1.5794733	2765,7962	1968,7799	3712,1594	2667,4966	2747,508	297,29984	88387,192	2,6700264	0,1788811	2291,3406	3392,7921
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$59		Perc: 25%	2.0485281	2565,3454	1768,3292	3511,7086	2467,0459	257,0572	297,29984	88387,192	2,6700264	0,1788811	2090,8898	3092,3414
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$59		Perc: 50%	2.4	2415,4437	1618,1275	3361,5069	2316,8442	2396,8556	297,29984	88387,192	2,6700264	0,1788811	1940,6882	2942,1397
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$59		Perc: 75%	2.7514719	2264,9421	1467,9259	3211,3053	2166,6426	2246,6539	297,29984	88387,192	2,6700264	0,1788811	1790,4865	2791,9381
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$59		Perc: 95%	3.2052567	2064,4913	1267,4751	3010,8545	1966,1918	2046,2032	297,29984	88387,192	2,6700264	0,1788811	1590,0357	2591,4873
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$59		Perc: 99%	3.4302944	1974,847	1177,8308	2921,2102	1876,5475	1956,5588	297,29984	88387,192	2,6700264	0,1788811	1500,3914	2501,843
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$510		Perc: 1%	913,13708	2416,7114	1322,4841	3764,169	2421,2814	2400,0195	369,42763	136476,77	2,7287065	0,1922095	1853,0204	3035,3987
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$510		Perc: 5%	1052,9822	2416,7114	1322,4841	3764,169	2421,2814	2400,0195	369,42763	136476,77	2,7287065	0,1922095	1853,0204	3035,3987
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$510		Perc: 25%	1365,6854	2416,7114	1322,4841	3764,169	2421,2814	2400,0195	369,42763	136476,77	2,7287065	0,1922095	1853,0204	3035,3987
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$510		Perc: 50%	1600	2416,7114	1322,4841	3764,169	2421,2814	2400,0195	369,42763	136476,77	2,7287065	0,1922095	1853,0204	3035,3987
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$510		Perc: 75%	1834,3146	2416,7114	1322,4841	3764,169	2421,2814	2400,0195	369,42763	136476,77	2,7287065	0,1922095	1853,0204	3035,3987
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$510		Perc: 95%	2147,0178	2416,7114	1322,4841	3764,169	2421,2814	2400,0195	369,42763	136476,77	2,7287065	0,1922095	1853,0204	3035,3987
Abatement of CO2 cost.xlsx	@Risk input	\$510		Perc: 99%	2286,8629	2416,7114	1322,4841	3764,169	2421,2814	2400,0195	369,42763	136476,77	2,7287065	0,1922095	1853,0204	3035,3987
Gas turbine efficiency/function	@Risk input	\$511		Perc: 1%	0.2570711	1917,9386	1194,6949	2712,2328	2040,2832	1921,6623	263,14304	69344,259	2,7136631	0,0883771	1494,2622	2355,7262
Gas turbine efficiency/function	@Risk input	\$511		Perc: 5%	0.2658114	2017,9659	1280,5176	2824,3915	2073,7411	2023,9855	266,4598	71000,823	2,7193907	0,087479	1588,6575	2461,6816
Gas turbine efficiency/function	@Risk input	\$511		Perc: 25%	0.2853953	2241,6938	1472,4229	3075,186	2267,0703	2251,05	274,11605	75139,607	2,7292509	0,0851622	1797,6599	2698,8408
Gas turbine efficiency/function	@Risk input	\$511		Perc: 50%	0.3	2409,2325	1616,2214	3263,1112	2423,2978	2422,0317	280,0571	78431,978	2,7341656	0,0831987	1953,0805	2876,5488
Gas turbine efficiency/function	@Risk input	\$511		Perc: 75%	0.3146447	2576,8311	1760,0198	3451,0364	2629,9773	2582,6878	286,16091	81888,065	2,7371698	0,0810859	2117,6798	3054,2568
Gas turbine efficiency/function	@Risk input	\$511		Perc: 95%	0.3341886	2800,499	1951,9252	3701,8309	2960,993	2810,0241	294,54269	86755,399	2,7385411	0,0780954	2329,8764	3291,416
Gas turbine efficiency/function	@Risk input	\$511		Perc: 99%	0.3429289	2900,3263	2037,7478	3813,8896	2976,9301	2910,8145	298,37208	89026,494	2,7382879	0,0767122	2422,7438	3399,6975
Discount rate / function	@Risk input	\$512		Perc: 1%	6.14E-02	2311,5604	1294,3999	3571,0237	2406,8699	2259,8989	359,84831	129490,8	2,6961864	0,2044489	1762,3119	2897,9143
Discount rate / function	@Risk input	\$512		Perc: 5%	6.32E-02	2332,7761	1313,2924	3695,0289	1888,867	2322,8742	360,7911	130170,22	2,6953155	0,2043776	1781,5609	2919,4161
Discount rate / function	@Risk input	\$512		Perc: 25%	6.71E-02	2380,6139	1355,8917	3859,1566	2483,8594	2370,1656	362,92966	131717,94	2,6933271	0,2041917	1824,9638	2968,9795
Discount rate / function	@Risk input	\$512		Perc: 50%	0.07	2416,8196	1388,1327	3690,1229	2577,8983	2405,474	364,92966	131717,94	2,6933271	0,2041917	1824,9638	2968,9795
Discount rate / function	@Risk input	\$512		Perc: 75%	7.29E-02	2453,3334	1400,648	3731,4377	2456,174	2440,4399	366,21375	134112,31	2,6902423	0,2038447	1890,9418	3051,3065
Discount rate / function	@Risk input	\$512		Perc: 95%	7.68E-02	2502,2416	1464,4678	3787,1161	2798,39	2485,8896	368,45829	135761,51	2,6881152	0,2035676	1935,3808	3107,02
Discount rate / function	@Risk input	\$512		Perc: 99%	7.86E-02	2524,7253	1484,2222	3812,2166	2690,2917	2505,3499	369,47592	136512,46	2,6871465	0,2034319	1953,9702	3132,1363

### Advanced Sensitivity Analysis Tornado

Performed By: André Mellenstrand Jarstø

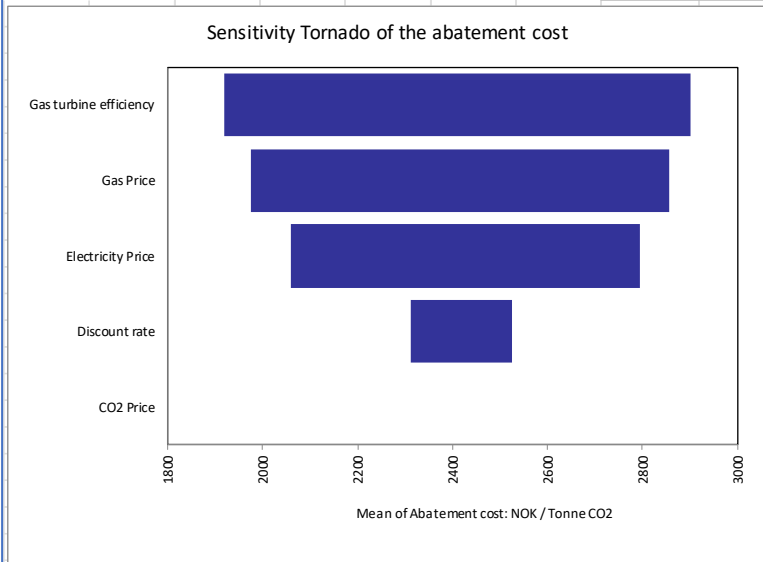
Date: 30.05.2022 14:32:33

Output: Abatement cost: / Value

Inputs Analyzed: 5

Simulations: 500

2416,711396	2416,711396	0	CO2 Price
2311,560407	2524,725269	213,1648623	Discount rate
2058,2073	2793,656845	735,4495447	Electricity Price
1974,846996	2855,440476	880,5934808	Gas Price
1917,938616	2900,526302	982,587686	Gas turbine efficiency



### Advanced Sensitivity Percent Change Graph

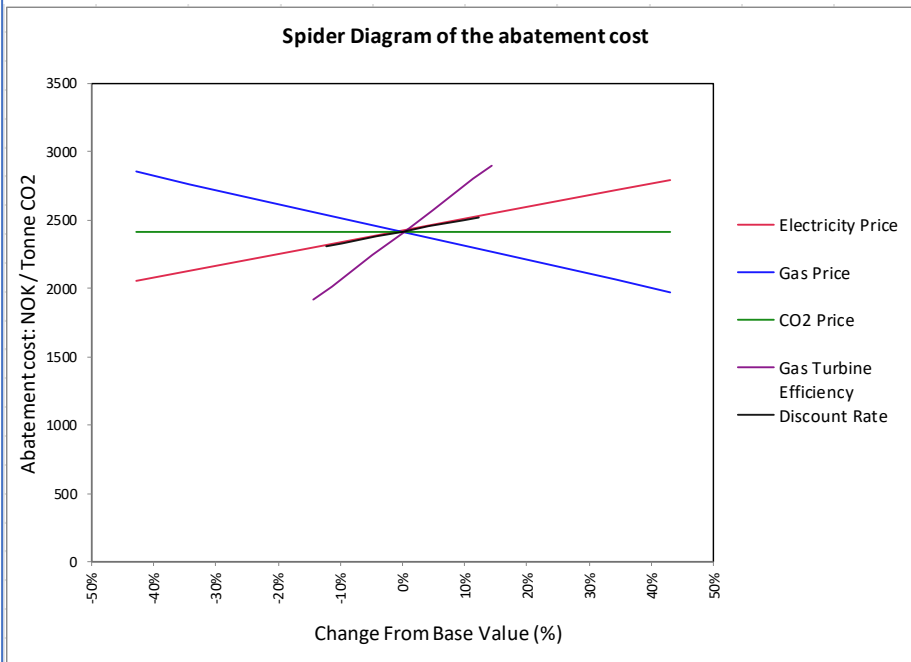
Performed By: André Mellenstrand Jarstø

Date: 30.05.2022 14:32:33

Output: Abatement cost: / Value

Inputs Analyzed: 5

Simulations: 500





## Appendix 2 – Environmental Impact Analysis

Conducted in Excel.

### Environmental Impact of Gas Turbines, Including upstream and downstream emissions:

Parameters	Value	Unit	Source
1.0 Sm <sup>3</sup> o.e. oil		1 Sm <sup>3</sup> oil	(NPD,2022b)
1.0 Sm <sup>3</sup> o.e. gas		1000 Sm <sup>3</sup> gas	(NPD,2022b)
1.0 Sm <sup>3</sup> o.e. oil		858 kg	(NPD,2022b)
1 tonnes CO <sub>2</sub> equivalent		1000 kg	
Average emission 1 Sm <sup>3</sup> gas	2,34	kg CO <sub>2</sub>	(Torvanger and Ericson, 2013; SSB, 2017).
Average emission oil	3,57	kg CO <sub>2</sub>	(Gavenas, Rosendahl, & Skjerpén, 2015)
Norway's total CO <sub>2</sub> emission from gas turbines on the NCS, 2021	10,8	Million tonnes CO <sub>2</sub> equivalent	(SSB, 2021b)
Norway's total production of oil, 2021	103	Million Sm <sup>3</sup> o.e.	(NPD, 2022d)
Norway's total production of natural gas, 2021	113,10	Million Sm <sup>3</sup> o.e.	(NPD, 2022d)
<b>Results</b>	Value	Unit	
Emissions from oil, 2021	315	Million tonnes CO <sub>2</sub> equivalent	
Total emissions from natural gas, 2021	265	Million tonnes CO <sub>2</sub> equivalent	
<b>Sum</b>	<b>579</b>	Million tonnes CO <sub>2</sub> equivalent	
<b>Table input</b>			
Norway's total CO <sub>2</sub> emission from gas turbines on the NCS, 2021	10,8	Million tonnes CO <sub>2</sub> equivalent	
Norway's total emissions from oil and gas, 2021 (Excl. CO <sub>2</sub> emissions from gas turbines on the NCS).	568,6	Million tonnes CO <sub>2</sub> equivalent	
Ratio:	52,5		2 %

Category	Value	Percentage
Norway's total CO <sub>2</sub> emission from gas turbines on the NCS, 2021	10,8	2%
Norway's total emissions from oil and gas, 2021 (Excl. CO <sub>2</sub> emissions from gas turbines on the NCS).	568,6	98%

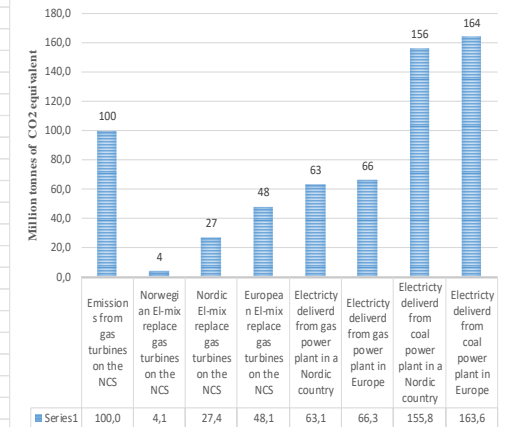
### Formulas used in the analysis:

A	B	C	D	E
1	<b>Parameters</b>	<b>Value</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Source</b>
2	1.0 Sm <sup>3</sup> o.e. oil	1	Sm <sup>3</sup> oil	(NPD,2022b)
3	1.0 Sm <sup>3</sup> o.e. gas	1000	Sm <sup>3</sup> gas	(NPD,2022b)
4	1.0 Sm <sup>3</sup> o.e. oil	858	kg	(NPD,2022b)
5	1 tonnes CO <sub>2</sub> equivalent	1000	kg	
6	Average emission 1 Sm <sup>3</sup> gas	2,34	kg CO <sub>2</sub>	(Torvanger and Ericson, 2013; SSB, 2017).
7	Average emission oil	3,57142857142857	kg CO <sub>2</sub>	(Gavenas et al., 2015)
8	Norway's total CO <sub>2</sub> emission from gas turbines on the NCS, 2021	=13,2*0,82	Million tonnes CO <sub>2</sub> equivalent	(SSB, 2021b)
9	Norway's total production of oil, 2021	102,73	Million Sm <sup>3</sup> o.e.	(NPD, 2022d)
10	Norway's total production of natural gas, 2021	113,1	Million Sm <sup>3</sup> o.e.	(NPD, 2022d)
11				
12	<b>Results</b>	Value	Unit	
13	Emissions from oil, 2021	=(C7*C9*C4)/C5	Million tonnes CO <sub>2</sub> equivalent	
14	Total emissions from natural gas, 2021	=(C10*C3*C6)/C5	Million tonnes CO <sub>2</sub> equivalent	
15	<b>Sum</b>	<b>=SUM(C13:C14)</b>	Million tonnes CO <sub>2</sub> equivalent	
16				
17	<b>Table input</b>			
18	Norway's total CO <sub>2</sub> emission from gas turbines on the NCS, 2021	=C8	Million tonnes CO <sub>2</sub> equivalent	
19	Norway's total emissions from oil and gas, 2021 (Excl. CO <sub>2</sub> emissions from gas turbines on the NCS).	=C15-C18	Million tonnes CO <sub>2</sub> equivalent	
20				
21	Ratio:	=C19/C18	=C18/C19	



# Environmental impact of the electricity mix and source:

Parameter	Values	Unit	Sources
Average emission 1 Sm3 gas	2,34	kg CO2	(Torvanger and Ericson, 2013; SSB, 2017).
Average emission 1 kg coal	2,52	kg CO2	(SSB,2017)
Conversion factor of 1 Sm3 of Natural gas	11,111	kWh	(NPD,2022b)
Conversion factor of 1 kg Coal	6,667	kWh	(Theoretical)
Average emission intensity from turbines on the NCS	0,702	kg CO2/kWh	
Average emission intensity Norway	0,026	kg CO2/kWh	(BP,2021; EEA, 2021)
Average emission intensity in the Nordic countries	0,146	kg CO2/kWh	(BP,2021; EEA, 2021)
Average emission intensity in Europe	0,278	kg CO2/kWh	(BP,2021; EEA, 2021)
Emission factor, Coal power plant	0,945	kg CO2/kWh	
Emission factor, Natural gas power plant	0,383	kg CO2/kWh	(Verified in Rystad Energy, 2022a)
Emission factor, CHP with natural gas	0,248	kg CO2/kWh	
Efficiency factor, Coal power plant	0,4	%	(IEA,2020)
Efficiency factor, Natural gas power plant	0,55	%	(IEA,2020; Konkraft, 2021)
Efficiency factor, CHP with natural gas	0,85	%	(IEA,2020)
Efficiency factor, Natural gas turbines on the NCS	0,3	%	(Torvanger and Ericson, 2013; Konkraft, 2021)
Efficiency factor, Heating in buildings	0,9	%	(Konkraft, 2021; Rystad Energy, 2022a)
Energy Transmission loss from shore to NCS	1,05	%	(Statnett, 2021)
Energy transmission loss in Norway	1,05	%	(Statnett, 2021)
Energy transmission loss from the Nordic countries	1,05	%	(Statnett, 2021)
Energy transmission loss through Europe	1,05	%	(Statnett, 2021)
Energy transmission loss in gas pipeline	1,05	%	(Torvanger and Ericson, 2013;Rystad Energy, 2022a)



## Analysis below:

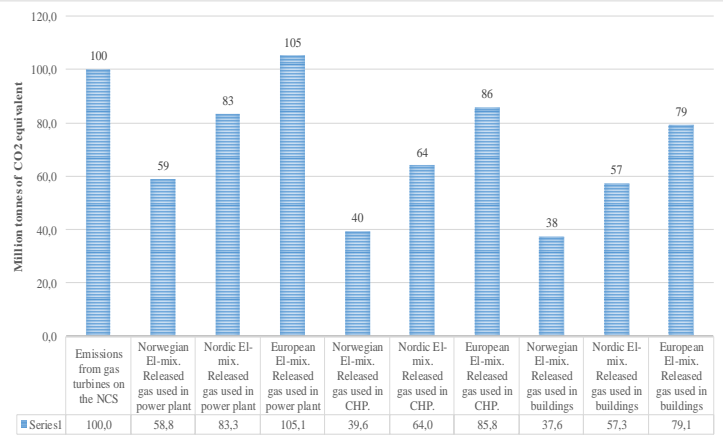
Required power offshore to emit 100 kg CO2: 142 kWh

### Domestic impact

Emissions from gas turbines on the NCS	100,0	kg CO2
Norwegian El-mix replace gas turbines on the NCS	4,1	kg CO2
Nordic El-mix replace gas turbines on the NCS	27,4	kg CO2
European El-mix replace gas turbines on the NCS	48,1	kg CO2
Electricity delivered from gas power plant in a Nordic country	63,1	kg CO2
Electricity delivered from gas power plant in Europe	66,3	kg CO2
Electricity delivered from coal power plant in a Nordic country	155,8	kg CO2
Electricity delivered from coal power plant in Europe	163,6	kg CO2

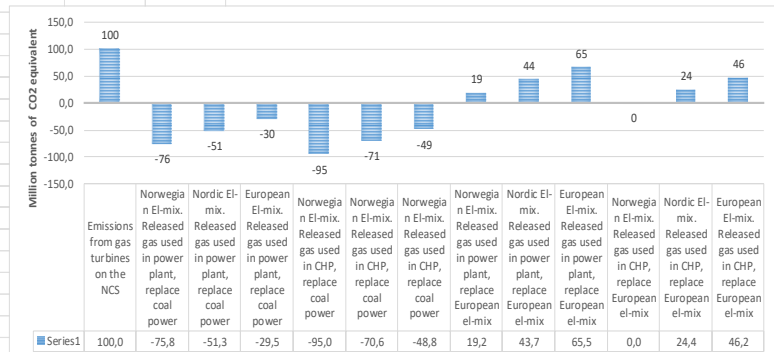
### International impact

Nor taking replacement into consideration		
Emissions from gas turbines on the NCS	100,0	kg CO2
Norwegian El-mix. Released gas used in power plant	58,8	kg CO2
Nordic El-mix. Released gas used in power plant	83,3	kg CO2
European El-mix. Released gas used in power plant	105,1	kg CO2
Norwegian El-mix. Released gas used in CHP.	39,6	kg CO2
Nordic El-mix. Released gas used in CHP.	64,0	kg CO2
European El-mix. Released gas used in CHP.	85,8	kg CO2
Norwegian El-mix. Released gas used in buildings	37,6	kg CO2
Nordic El-mix. Released gas used in buildings	57,3	kg CO2
European El-mix. Released gas used in buildings	79,1	kg CO2



### Taking replacement into consideration

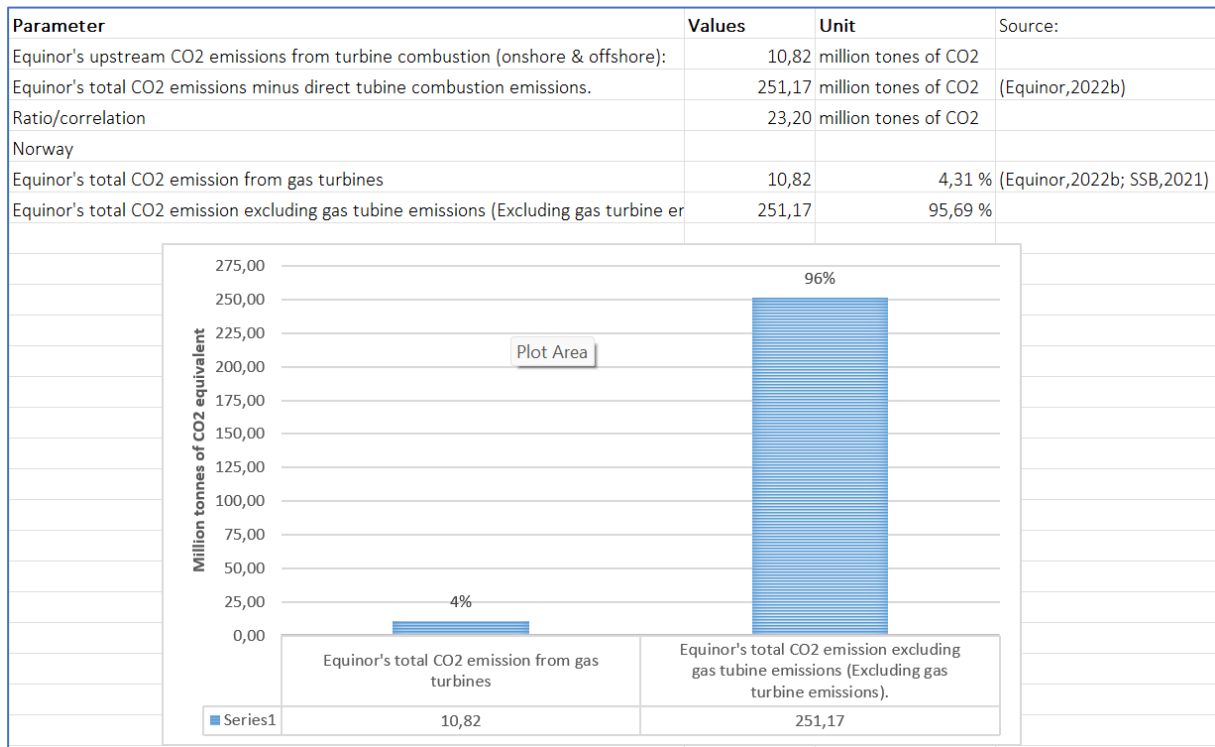
Emissions from gas turbines on the NCS	100,0	kg CO2
Norwegian El-mix. Released gas used in power plant, replace coal power	-75,8	kg CO2
Nordic El-mix. Released gas used in power plant, replace coal power	-51,3	kg CO2
European El-mix. Released gas used in power plant, replace coal power	-29,5	kg CO2
Norwegian El-mix. Released gas used in CHP, replace coal power	-95,0	kg CO2
Nordic El-mix. Released gas used in CHP, replace coal power	-70,6	kg CO2
European El-mix. Released gas used in CHP, replace coal power	-48,8	kg CO2
Norwegian El-mix. Released gas used in power plant, replace European el-mix	19,2	kg CO2
Nordic El-mix. Released gas used in power plant, replace European el-mix	43,7	kg CO2
European El-mix. Released gas used in power plant, replace European el-mix	65,5	kg CO2
Norwegian El-mix. Released gas used in CHP, replace European el-mix	0,0	kg CO2
Nordic El-mix. Released gas used in CHP, replace European el-mix	24,4	kg CO2
European El-mix. Released gas used in CHP, replace European el-mix	46,2	kg CO2



## Formulas used in the analysis:

	A	B	C	D
1	<b>Parameter</b>	<b>Values</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Sources</b>
2	Average emission 1 Sm3 gas	2,34	kg CO2	(Torvanger and Ericson, 2013; SSB, 2017).
3	Average emission 1 kg coal	2,52	kg CO2	(SSB,2017)
4	Conversion factor of 1 Sm3 of Natural gas	11,111	kWh	(NPD,2022b)
5	Conversion factor of 1 kg Coal	6,667	kWh	(Theoretical)
6	Average emission intensity from turbines on the NCS	=B\$2/(B4*B16)	kg CO2/kWh	
7	Average emission intensity Norway	0,026	kg CO2/kWh	(BP,2021; EEA,2021)
8	Average emission intensity in the Nordic countries	0,146	kg CO2/kWh	(BP,2021; EEA,2021)
9	Average emission intensity in Europe	0,278	kg CO2/kWh	(BP,2021; EEA,2021)
10	Emission factor, Coal power plant	=B3/(B13*B5)	kg CO2/kWh	
11	Emission factor, Natural gas power plant	=B\$2/(B\$4*B14)	kg CO2/kWh	(Verified in Rystad Energy, 2022a)
12	Emission factor, CHP with natural gas	=B\$2/(B\$4*B15)	kg CO2/kWh	
13	Efficiency factor, Coal power plant	0,4	%	(IEA,2020)
14	Efficiency factor, Natural gas power plant	0,55	%	(IEA,2020; Konkraft, 2021)
15	Efficiency factor, CHP with natural gas	0,85	%	(IEA,2020)
16	Efficiency factor, Natural gas turbines on the NCS	0,3	%	(Torvanger and Ericson, 2013; Konkraft, 2021)
17	Efficiency factor, Heating in buildings	0,9	%	(Konkraft, 2021; Rystad Energy, 2022a)
18	Energy Transmission loss from shore to NCS	1,05	%	(Statnett, 2021)
19	Energy transmission loss in Norway	1,05	%	(Statnett, 2021)
20	Energy transmission loss from the Nordic countries	1,05	%	(Statnett, 2021)
21	Energy transmission loss through Europe	1,05	%	(Statnett, 2021)
22	Energy transmission loss in gas pipeline	1,05	%	(Torvanger and Ericson, 2013;Rystad Energy, 2022a)
23				
24	<b>Analysis below:</b>			
25	Required power offshore to emit 100 kg CO2	=B24	kWh	
26	<b>Domestic impact</b>			
27	Emissions from gas turbines on the NCS	=B6*B\$25	kg CO2	
28	Norwegian El-mix replace gas turbines on the NCS	=B7*B19*B18*B\$25	kg CO2	
29	Nordic El-mix replace gas turbines on the NCS	=B\$25*0,166*B20*B18*B19	kg CO2	
30	European El-mix replace gas turbines on the NCS	=B\$25*B\$9*B\$21*B\$19*B\$20*B18	kg CO2	
31	Electricity delivered from gas power plant in a Nordic country	=B\$25*B\$11*B\$19*B\$20*B\$18	kg CO2	
32	Electricity delivered from gas power plant in Europe	=B\$25*B\$11*B19*B\$19*B\$20*B\$18	kg CO2	
33	Electricity delivered from coal power plant in a Nordic country	=B\$25*B\$10*B\$19*B\$20*B\$18	kg CO2	
34	Electricity delivered from coal power plant in Europe	=B\$25*B\$10*B21*B\$19*B\$20*B\$18	kg CO2	
35	<b>International impact</b>			
36	Not taking replacement into consideration			
37	Emissions from gas turbines on the NCS	100	kg CO2	
38	Norwegian El-mix. Released gas used in power plant	=(B28*B\$22)-(B\$11*B\$25)	kg CO2	
39	Nordic El-mix. Released gas used in power plant	=(B29*B\$22)-(B\$11*B\$25)	kg CO2	
40	European El-mix. Released gas used in power plant	=(B30*B\$22)-(B\$11*B\$25)	kg CO2	
41	Norwegian El-mix. Released gas used in CHP.	=(B28*B\$22)-(B\$12*B\$25)	kg CO2	
42	Nordic El-mix. Released gas used in CHP.	=(B29*B\$22)-(B\$12*B\$25)	kg CO2	
43	European El-mix. Released gas used in CHP.	=(B30*B\$22)-(B\$12*B\$25)	kg CO2	
44	Norwegian El-mix. Released gas used in buildings	=(B28*B\$22)-(B\$2/((B\$4*B17))*B\$25)	kg CO2	
45	Nordic El-mix. Released gas used in buildings	=(B29*B\$22)-(B\$2/((B\$4*B18))*B\$25)	kg CO2	
46	European El-mix. Released gas used in buildings	=(B30*B\$22)-(B\$2/((B\$4*B19))*B\$25)	kg CO2	
47				
48	Taking replacement into consideration			
49	Emissions from gas turbines on the NCS	100	kg CO2	
50	Norwegian El-mix. Released gas used in power plant, replace coal power	=B38-(B\$25*B\$10)	kg CO2	
51	Nordic El-mix. Released gas used in power plant, replace coal power	=B39-(B\$25*B\$10)	kg CO2	
52	European El-mix. Released gas used in power plant, replace coal power	=B40-(B\$25*B\$10)	kg CO2	
53	Norwegian El-mix. Released gas used in CHP, replace coal power	=B41-(B\$25*B\$10)	kg CO2	
54	Norwegian El-mix. Released gas used in CHP, replace coal power	=B42-(B\$25*B\$10)	kg CO2	
55	Norwegian El-mix. Released gas used in CHP, replace coal power	=B43-(B\$25*B\$10)	kg CO2	
56	Norwegian El-mix. Released gas used in power plant, replace European el-mix	=B38-(B\$9*B\$25)	kg CO2	
57	Nordic El-mix. Released gas used in power plant, replace European el-mix	=B39-(B\$9*B\$25)	kg CO2	
58	European El-mix. Released gas used in power plant, replace European el-mix	=B40-(B\$9*B\$25)	kg CO2	
59	Norwegian El-mix. Released gas used in CHP, replace European el-mix	=B41-(B\$9*B\$25)	kg CO2	
60	Nordic El-mix. Released gas used in CHP, replace European el-mix	=B42-(B\$9*B\$25)	kg CO2	
61	European El-mix. Released gas used in CHP, replace European el-mix	=B43-(B\$9*B\$25)	kg CO2	

## Equinor's upstream and downstream emissions (Includes domestic and international emissions):



## Formulas:

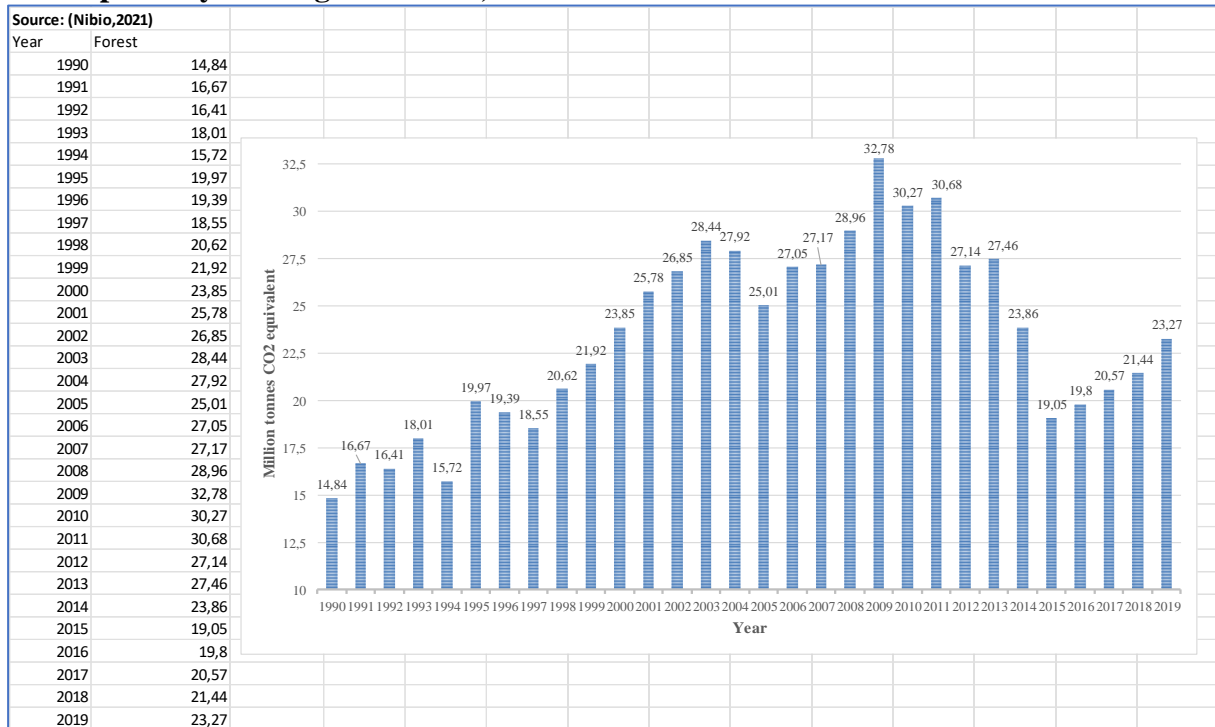
Parameter	Values	Unit	Source:
Equinor's upstream CO2 emissions from turbine combustion (onshore & offshore):	=B7	million tones of CO2	
Equinor's total CO2 emissions minus direct turbine combustion emissions.	=249+(12,1-9,93)	million tones of CO2	(Equinor,2022b)
Ratio/correlation	=B4/B3	million tones of CO2	
Norway			
Equinor's total CO2 emission from gas turbines	=13,2*0,82	=B7/\$B\$8	(Equinor,2022b; SSB,2021)
Equinor's total CO2 emission excluding gas turbine emissions (Excluding gas turbine emissions).	=B5*B7	=1-C7	

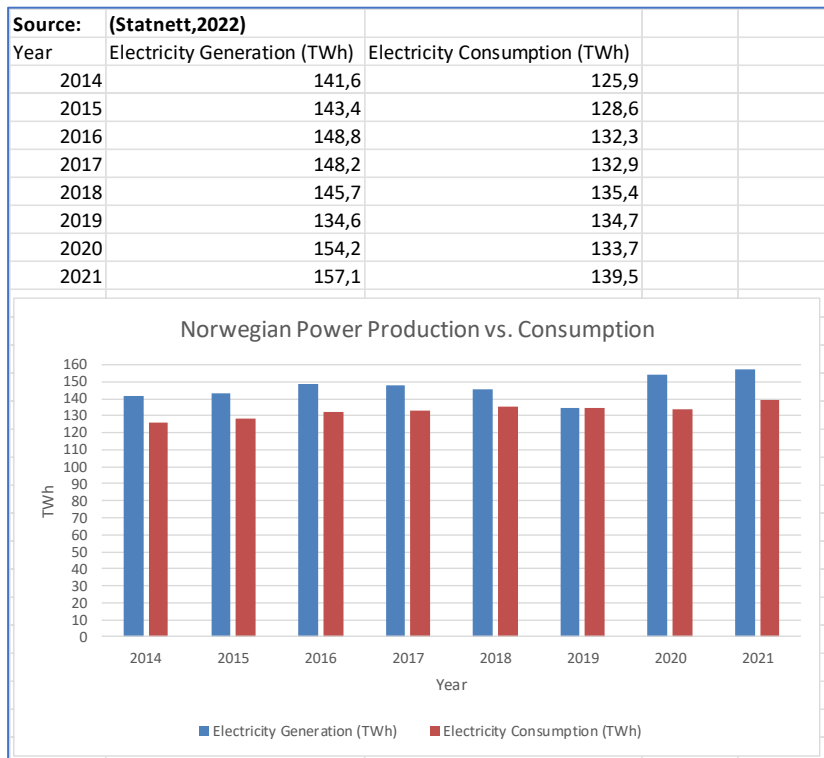
Category	Value (Million tonnes of CO2 equivalent)	Percentage
Equinor's total CO2 emission from gas turbines	10,82	4%
Equinor's total CO2 emission excluding gas turbine emissions (Excluding gas turbine emissions).	251,17	96%

## Appendix 3 - Other

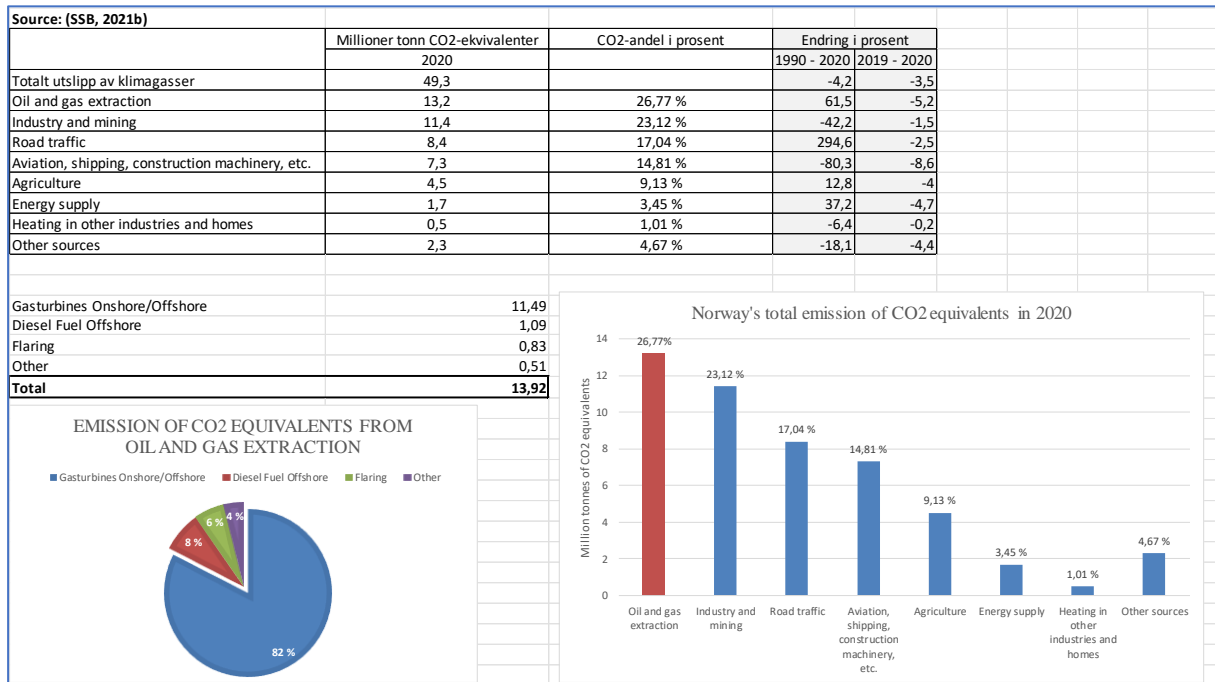
### CO<sub>2</sub> capture by Norwegian Forests, 1990-2021:



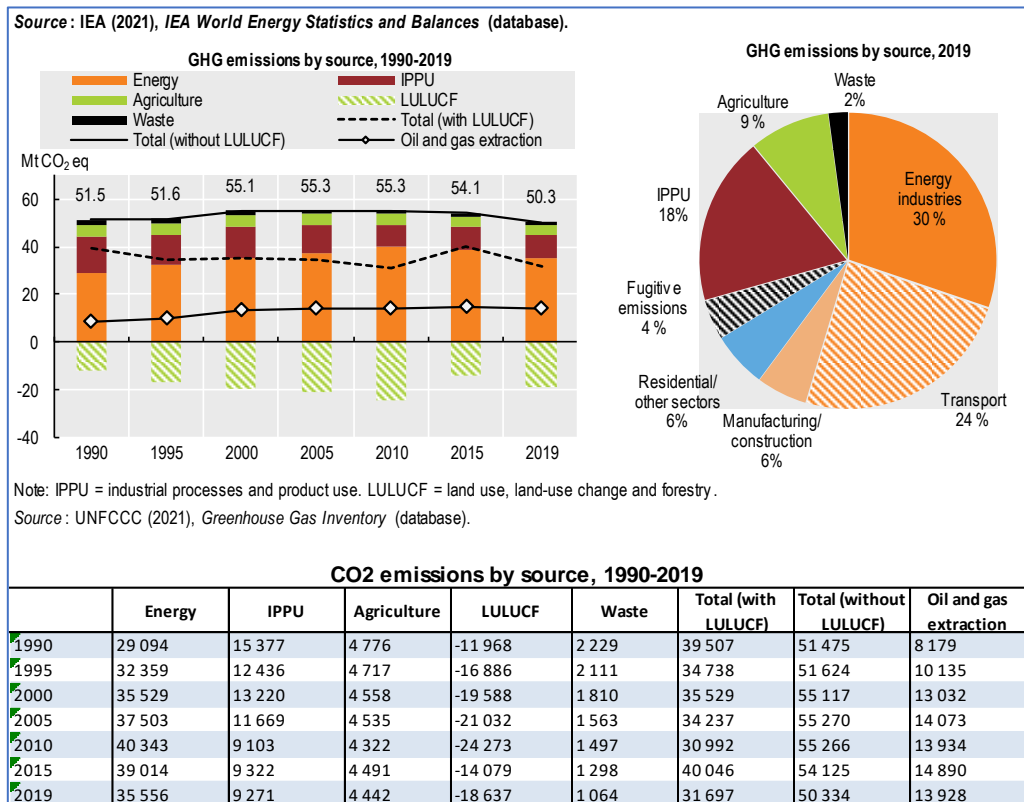
### Norwegian Power production and consumption:



## Norway's total CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in 2020 and Emissions from oil and gas extraction:



## Norway's CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by source, 1990-2019:



**Input to Figure 6 - Historical and expected oil and gas production in Norway, 1970-2026 (NPD, 2022d).**

Source: (NPD, 2022d)							
Million Sm <sup>3</sup> o.e.							
Million barrels o.e. per day							
Year	Oil	Condensate	NGL	Gas (40 MJ)	Total	Total liquids	Natural gas per day
1970	0,00				0,00	0,00	0,00
1971	0,36	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,36	0,36	0,00
1972	1,93	0,00	0,00	0,00	1,93	1,93	0,00
1973	1,87	0,00	0,00	0,00	1,87	1,87	0,00
1974	2,01	0,00	0,00	0,00	2,01	2,01	0,00
1975	11,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	11,00	11,00	0,00
1976	16,23	0,00	0,00	0,00	16,23	16,23	0,00
1977	16,64	0,00	0,00	2,72	19,36	16,64	0,05
1978	20,64	0,02	0,00	14,62	35,28	20,66	0,25
1979	22,48	0,04	1,13	21,11	44,76	23,65	0,36
1980	28,22	0,05	2,44	25,64	56,35	30,71	0,44
1981	27,48	0,05	2,17	25,28	54,98	29,70	0,44
1982	28,53	0,04	2,29	24,06	54,92	30,86	0,41
1983	35,65	0,04	2,68	23,17	61,54	38,37	0,40
1984	41,09	0,06	2,64	25,63	69,42	43,79	0,44
1985	44,76	0,08	2,97	25,51	73,32	47,81	0,44
1986	48,77	0,06	3,85	26,15	78,83	52,68	0,45
1987	56,96	0,05	4,12	28,40	89,53	61,13	0,49
1988	64,72	0,05	4,85	28,58	98,20	69,62	0,49
1989	85,98	0,05	4,90	29,08	120,01	90,93	0,50
1990	94,54	0,05	5,01	25,99	125,59	99,60	0,45
1991	108,51	0,06	4,90	25,56	139,03	113,47	0,44
1992	124,00	0,05	4,96	26,50	155,51	129,01	0,46
1993	131,84	0,47	5,52	25,56	163,39	137,83	0,44
1994	146,28	2,40	7,12	27,88	183,68	155,80	0,48
1995	156,78	3,18	7,94	29,07	196,97	167,90	0,50
1996	175,50	3,78	8,23	38,75	226,26	187,51	0,67
1997	175,91	5,38	8,07	44,36	233,72	189,36	0,76
1998	168,74	5,05	7,39	47,06	228,24	181,18	0,81
1999	168,69	5,51	6,99	48,70	229,89	181,19	0,84
2000	181,18	5,41	7,23	47,43	241,25	193,82	0,82
2001	180,88	5,67	10,92	54,15	251,62	197,47	0,93
2002	173,65	7,32	11,80	65,53	258,30	192,77	1,13
2003	165,48	10,34	12,93	72,93	261,68	188,75	1,26
2004	162,78	8,67	13,64	79,10	264,19	185,09	1,36
2005	148,14	7,95	15,81	85,67	257,57	171,90	1,48
2006	136,58	7,63	16,70	88,23	249,14	160,91	1,52
2007	128,28	3,13	16,63	89,51	237,55	148,04	1,54
2008	122,66	3,92	16,94	99,46	242,98	143,52	1,71
2009	114,94	4,44	16,96	103,68	240,02	136,34	1,79
2010	104,39	4,17	15,55	106,53	230,64	124,11	1,84
2011	97,46	4,58	16,31	100,30	218,65	118,35	1,73
2012	89,20	4,58	17,80	113,06	224,64	111,58	1,94
2013	84,94	3,99	17,72	107,05	213,70	106,65	1,84
2014	87,70	2,91	18,95	106,80	216,36	109,56	1,84
2015	90,85	2,47	19,60	114,92	227,84	112,92	1,98
2016	93,90	1,93	20,18	114,65	230,66	116,01	1,97
2017	92,28	1,71	20,39	122,37	236,75	114,38	2,11
2018	86,27	1,71	19,46	119,89	227,33	107,44	2,07
2019	81,73	1,66	17,37	113,23	213,99	100,76	1,95
2020	98,39	1,28	16,77	110,09	226,53	116,44	1,89
2021	102,73	0,71	14,43	113,10	230,97	117,87	1,95
2022	104,09	1,12	16,82	115,02	237,05	122,03	1,98
2023	114,13	1,19	16,50	116,29	248,11	131,82	2,00
2024	117,01	1,03	16,88	118,14	253,06	134,92	2,03
2025	115,19	0,93	17,06	118,66	251,84	133,18	2,04
2026	108,61	0,89	16,68	118,51	244,69	126,18	2,04

## Projected energy and CO<sub>2</sub> prices:

Source: (Statnett, 2021)

### Brensels- og CO<sub>2</sub>-priser

			2022			2023			2024			2025			2026		
			Lav	Basis	Høy	Lav	Basis	Høy	Lav	Basis	Høy	Lav	Basis	Høy	Lav	Basis	Høy
KMA2021	Gass	€/MWh	35	55	75	20	35	50	15	25	37	15	20	31	15	20	30
	Kull	\$/ton	120	140	165	110	130	155	80	100	130	70	90	110	70	90	110
	CO <sub>2</sub> EU ETS	€/ton	50	57	65	50	59	70	50	60	74	50	61	75	50	62	77
	CO <sub>2</sub> UK	€/ton	70	77	85	70	79	90	70	80	94	70	81	95	70	82	97

## Projected Nordic electricity prices:

Source: (Statnett, 2021)

### Average electricity prices [€/MWh]

Reelle 2021 verdier

		2022	2023	2024	2025	2026
Sør-Norge	Basis	70	64	58	54	55
Midt-Norge	Basis	38	32	28	27	27
Nord-Norge	Basis	30	25	22	22	22
Nord-Sverige	Basis	36	30	26	24	23
Sør-Sverige	Basis	54	42	39	34	35
Danmark	Basis	80	67	58	51	53

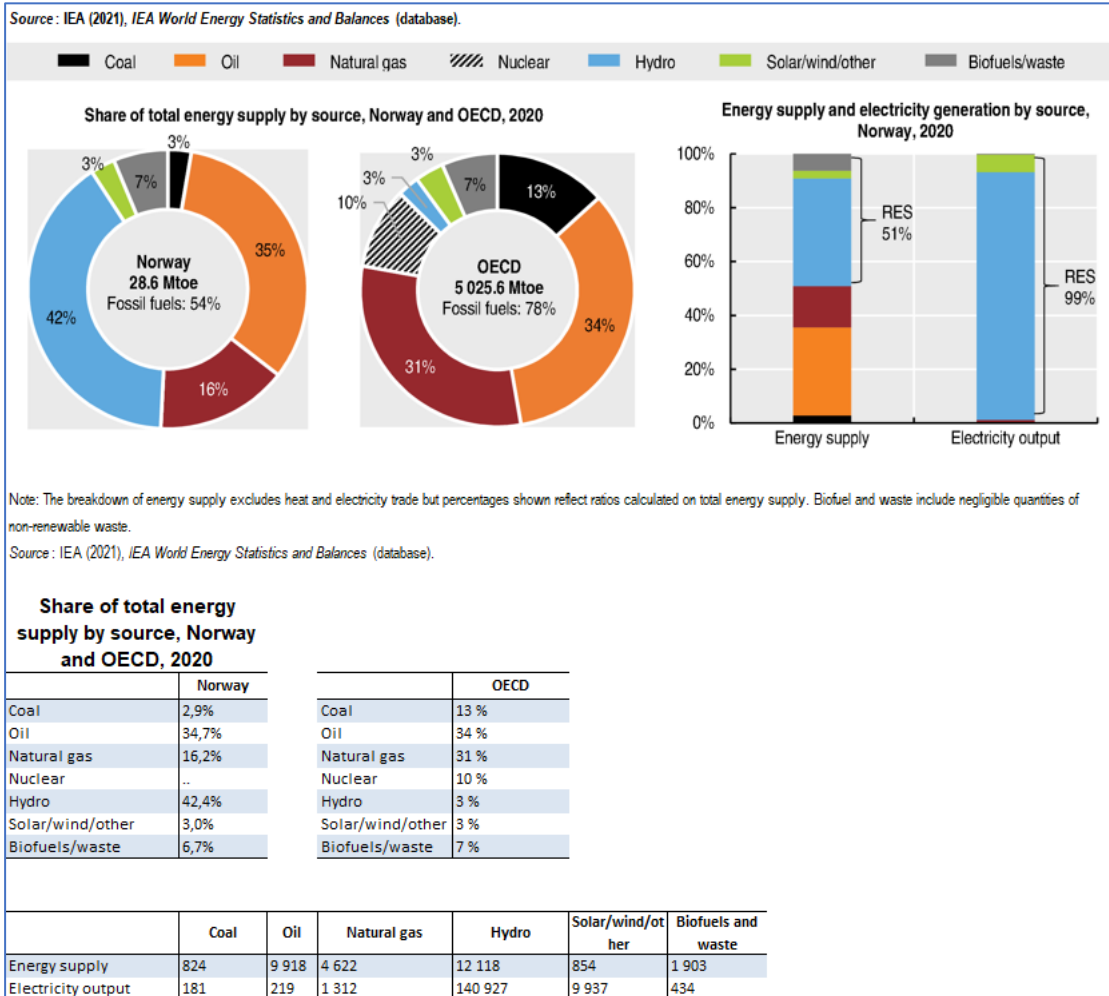
## Projected European electricity prices:

Source: (Statnett, 2021)

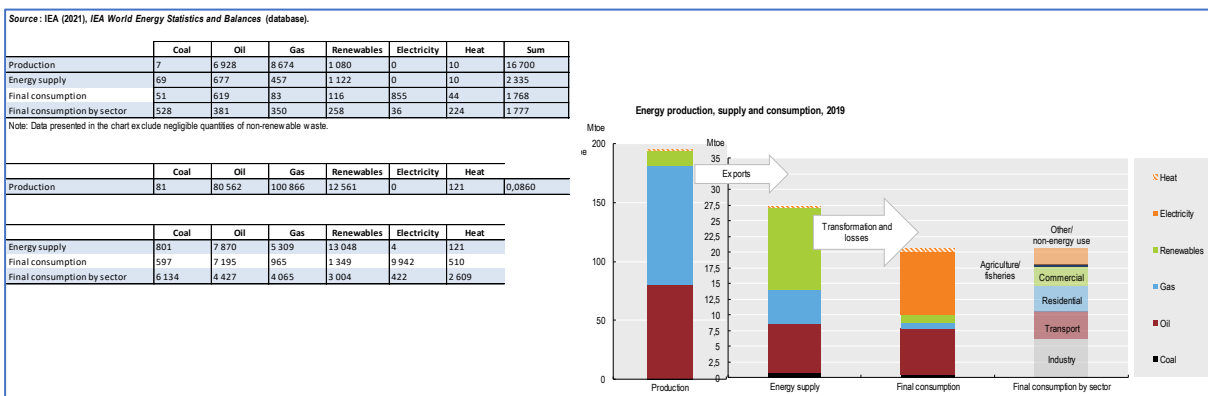
### Projected European electricity prices

		2022	2023	2024	2025	2026
Frankrike	Basis	88	71	59	51	52
Tyskland	Basis	90	77	67	59	62
Storbritannia	Basis	103	79	66	58	55
Nederland	Basis	91	76	64	56	60
Polen	Basis	89	84	77	73	75

## Norway's energy and electricity generation overview:

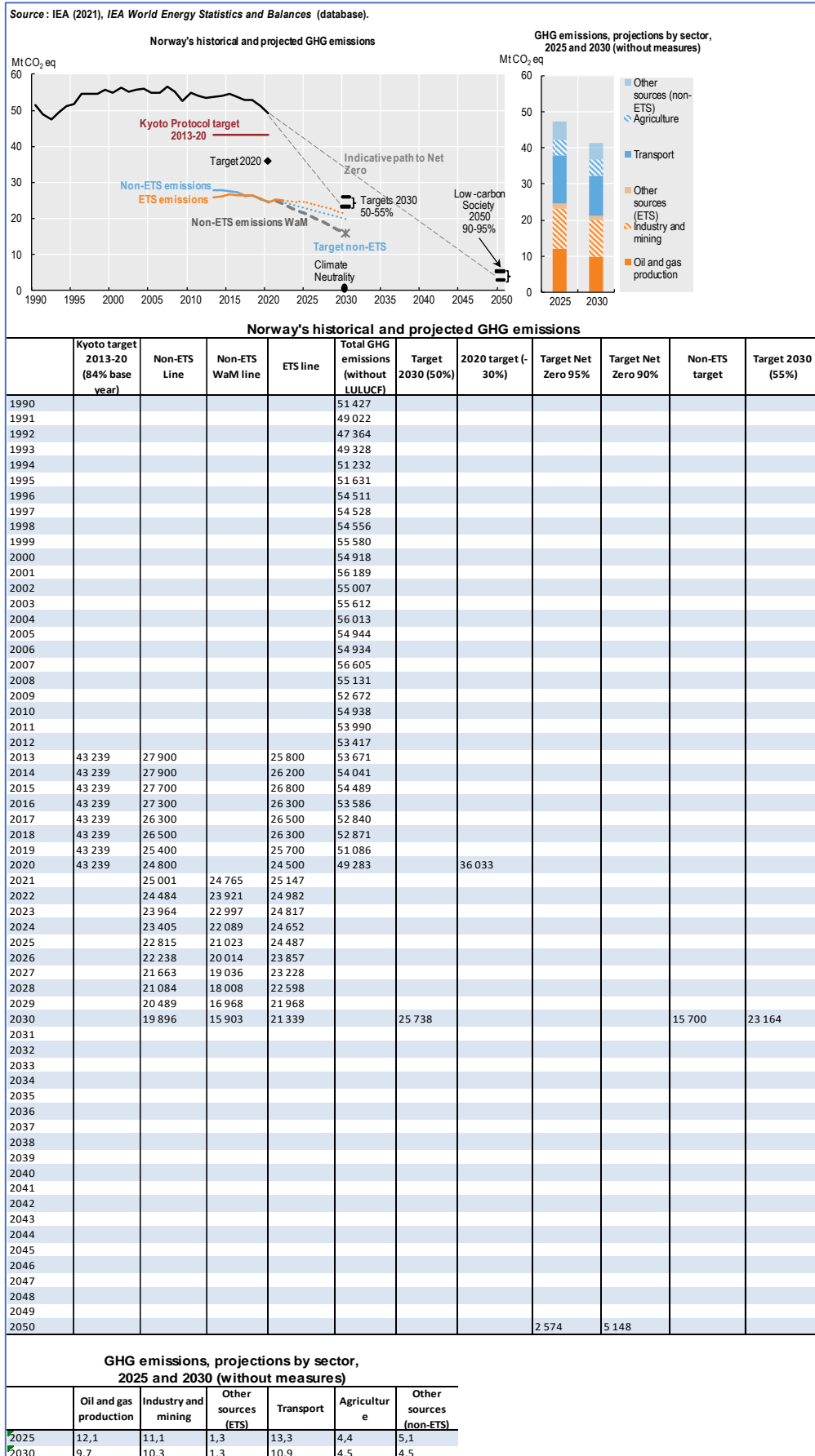


## Norway's Energy production, supply and consumption in 2019:





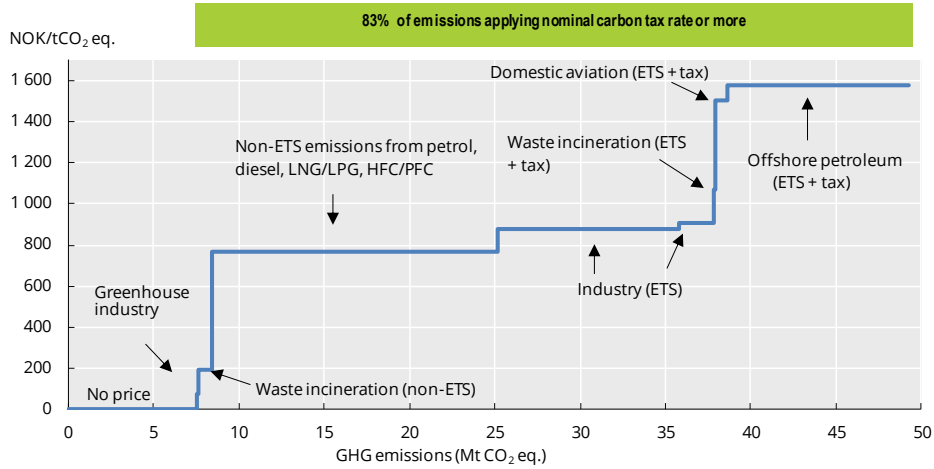
# Norway's historical and projected CO<sub>2</sub> emissions:



## Norwegian CO<sub>2</sub> prices per source in 2022:

Source: IEA (2021), IEA World Energy Statistics and Balances (database).

Prices of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in 2022

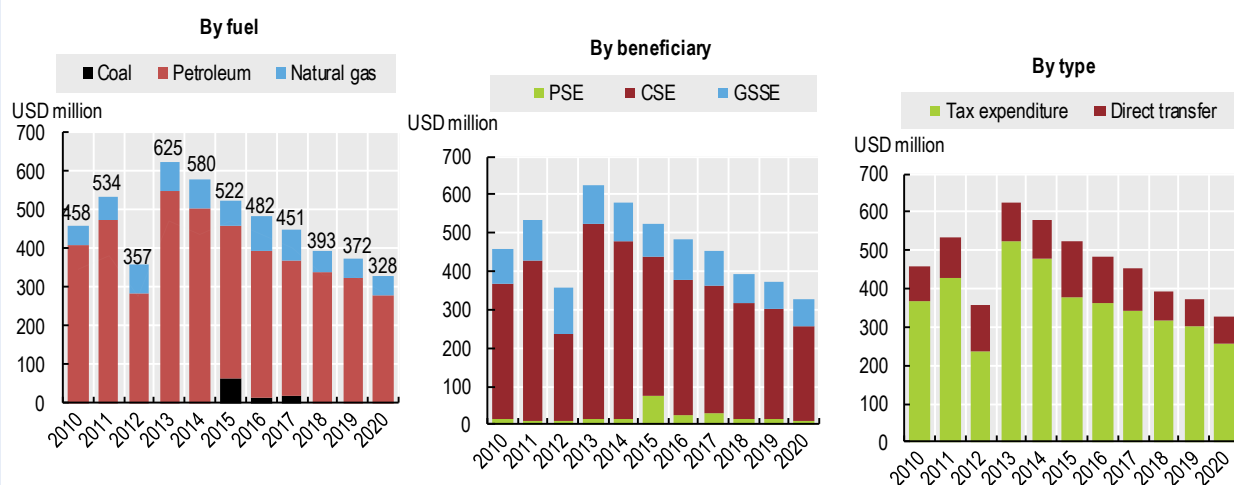


	Carbon price
49,28	1 579,27
38,68	1 579,27
38,68	1 505,27
37,96	1 505,27
37,96	1 067,27
37,84	1 067,27
37,84	907,27
35,83	907,27
35,83	874,27
25,41	874,27
25,31	874,27
25,15	874,27
25,15	769,00
23,09	769,00
23,09	770,00
18,13	770,00
18,13	767,00
17,26	767,00
17,26	770,00
16,42	770,00
16,42	768,00
16,33	768,00
16,33	765,50
16,10	765,50
16,099	770,000
9,683	770,000
9,683	770,000
9,636	770,000
9,636	766,000
9,430	766,000
9,430	766,000
8,620	766,000
8,620	770,000
8,462	770,000
8,462	193,000
7,624	193,000
7,624	76,000
7,576	76,000
7,576	2,000
7,527	2,000
7,527	2,000
7,456	2,000
7,456	2,000
6,810	2,000
2,304	2,000
0,074	2,000
0,074	2,000
0,074	2,000
0,000	2,000

## Combustion of fossil fuel support, 2010-2020:

Source: OECD (2021), "Fossil Fuel Support", *OECD Environmental Indicators* (database).

Composition of fossil fuel support, 2010-20



Source: OECD (2021), "Fossil Fuel Support", *OECD Environmental Indicators* (database).

### By beneficiary

	PSE	CSE	GSSE
2010	13	355	90
2011	12	415	107
2012	8	230	119
2013	14	510	101
2014	15	464	101
2015	73	365	85
2016	26	351	105
2017	32	328	91
2018	14	302	76
2019	12	288	71
2020	12	243	73

### By fuel

	Coal	Petroleum	Natural gas	
2010	0	408	50	346
2011	0	476	58	384
2012	0	283	75	278
2013	0	550	75	471
2014	0	505	75	437
2015	62	397	63	470
2016	13	382	87	436
2017	17	350	84	400
2018	0	340	53	333
2019	0	323	49	332
2020	0	278	49	288

### By type

	Tax expenditure	Direct transfer
2010	368	90
2011	427	107
2012	238	119
2013	525	101
2014	479	101
2015	375	147
2016	364	118
2017	343	108
2018	317	76
2019	301	71
2020	255	73