

HYDROGEN ENERGY SYSTEMS STUDIES

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Abstract

In this progress report (covering the period May 1998 -September 1998), we summarize results from technical and economic assessments of hydrogen energy systems. Generally, the goal of our research is to illuminate possible pathways leading from present hydrogen markets and technologies toward wide scale use of hydrogen as an energy carrier, highlighting important technologies for RD&D. This work was carried out as part of the systems analysis activity of the US Department of Energy Hydrogen R&D Program under Contract No. DE-FG36-95G010061.

Result from two studies are described. Both were begun in November 1997 and were completed in September 1998.

- Task 1. We assessed potential supplies and demands for hydrogen energy in the New York City/New Jersey area. The goal of this study is to provide useful data and suggest possible implementation strategies for the New York City/New Jersey area, as the Hydrogen Program plans demonstrations of hydrogen vehicles and refueling infrastructure.
- Task 2. We assessed the implications of CO₂ sequestration for hydrogen energy systems. The goals of this work are a) to understand the implications of CO₂ sequestration for hydrogen energy system design; b) to understand the conditions under which CO₂ sequestration might become economically viable; and c) to understand design issues for future low-CO₂ emitting hydrogen energy systems based on fossil fuels.

Introduction

Summary of Approach/Rationale

Since 1986, researchers at Princeton University's Center for Energy and Environmental Studies have carried out technical and economic assessments of hydrogen energy systems. Our approach has been to assess the entire hydrogen energy system from production through end-use from several perspectives (fuel producer, consumer, society) considering technical performance, economics (e.g. capital cost, delivered hydrogen cost, cost of energy services), infrastructure, environmental and resource issues. The goal of our work is to illuminate possible pathways leading from present hydrogen markets and technologies toward wide scale use of hydrogen as an energy carrier, highlighting important technologies for RD&D. This work has been part of the systems analysis activity of the DOE Hydrogen Program since 1991.

Past Results

In the late 1980s and early 1990s we focussed on the long term potential of hydrogen derived from renewables (solar, wind, biomass). These studies suggested that renewable hydrogen used in energy efficient end-use devices (e.g. fuel cells) could become economically competitive, beginning in the next century. More recently we have explored how a transition to large scale use of hydrogen energy might begin, starting with the use of hydrogen from natural gas.

Over the past few years our focus has been on strategies for producing, distributing and using hydrogen as a fuel for zero emission vehicles. We have looked in detail at various near term options available for providing hydrogen transportation fuel to vehicles (production of hydrogen from natural gas or off-peak power). We have also considered longer term options such as gasification of biomass or MSW and hydrogen from wind or solar. In FY '95 and FY '96 we assessed the potential impact of advances in small scale hydrogen production technologies (steam reforming of natural gas, electrolysis using off-peak power) on the cost of hydrogen transportation fuel. In particular, we assessed the possibilities for low cost, small scale hydrogen production from natural gas. During FY'96 (July 1995-July 1996), we completed a case study of developing a hydrogen refueling infrastructure in Southern California.

In FY'97 and FY'98 (July 1996-November 1997), we studied the prospects for using hydrogen as a fuel for fuel cell vehicles, compared to vehicles with onboard reformation of methanol or gasoline. Vehicle performance and cost and refueling infrastructure issues were considered.

In FY'98 (November 1997-September 1998), two projects were completed::

- * an assessment of potential supplies and demands for hydrogen transportation fuel in the New York City/New Jersey area and

- * an assessment of the implications of CO₂ sequestration for the design of hydrogen energy systems.

This progress report summarizes the results of these two studies

Publications

Table 1 and the attached bibliography summarize Princeton CEES work related to hydrogen and fuel cells. Studies supported by the USDOE Hydrogen R&D Program are indicated with a star "*".

Papers on our DOE sponsored work on hydrogen infrastructure and fuel cell vehicle modeling have been presented to a variety of audiences including talks at the Society of Automotive Engineers Topical Technical Conference on Fuel Cell Vehicles (March 1998), two National Hydrogen Association Meetings (March 1997 and March 1998), the '97 World Car Conference (January 1997), the Aspen Energy Forum (July 1997), and the SAE Fall Fuels and Lubricants Meeting (October 1998). Two papers based on our DOE sponsored work have been accepted for publication in peer reviewed journals and will appear in 1999 (one in the International Journal of Hydrogen Energy and one in the Journal of Power Sources).

We have presented talks on our work on Hydrogen Energy Systems and CO₂ Sequestration at the DOE Workshop on Fuels Decarbonization and Carbon Sequestration (July 1997), the 9th National Hydrogen Association Meeting (March 1998), the 12th World Hydrogen Energy Conference (June 1998) and the 10th National Hydrogen Association Meeting (April 1999).

Current Year Results

Task 1: Assessment of Potential Supplies and Demands for Hydrogen Energy in The New York City/New Jersey Area (November 1997-September 1998)

The New York City/New Jersey metropolitan area is a possible candidate for "Clean Cluster" type demonstrations of hydrogen energy technologies. Like California, New York City and New Jersey have severe urban air quality problems and are considering the use of zero and low emission vehicles. Unlike California, relatively little analysis has been done looking into the possibilities for hydrogen and fuel cell vehicles.

As part of this year's research, we carried out a preliminary study of potential hydrogen demands and supplies in the New York City/New Jersey area, similar to our earlier work in Southern California (Ogden 1997, Ogden 1999). This study builds on our previous work on hydrogen infrastructure, and on preliminary studies at CEES on the potential for hydrogen production from municipal solid waste (Larson, Chen and Worrell 1996.).

In particular, we address the following questions:

Task 1.1. What are potential demands for hydrogen for transportation markets in the New York City/New Jersey area. We consider centrally refueled applications such as urban buses, vans and fleet autos, as well as public automobiles.

Task 1.2. What are potential supplies for hydrogen for transportation markets in the New York City/New Jersey area. considering:

- * truck delivered or pipeline delivered merchant hydrogen,
- * hydrogen byproduct from chemical plants and refineries,
- * onsite hydrogen production from steam reforming of natural gas at small scale,
- * electrolytic hydrogen from off-peak power,
- * hydrogen from gasification of municipal solid waste.

Task 1.3 What is the production cost and delivered cost of hydrogen transportation fuel from these various sources.

Summary of Results

Task 1.1: What are potential demands for hydrogen for transportation markets in the New York City/New Jersey area.

- * There is a strong impetus to develop low polluting vehicles in the New York City/New Jersey area, which may present opportunities for hydrogen and fuel cell vehicles. Both the New York City metropolitan area and the state of New Jersey are currently non-attainment areas for ozone, carbon monoxide and particulates. New York state has a zero emission vehicle mandate, similar to the California ZEV regulations, and in August 1997 passed legislation offering tax credits for the incremental cost of alternative fueled vehicles and refueling stations, including hydrogen. New York City has undertaken a variety of efforts to introduce alternative vehicles. New York is probably second only to California in its commitment to alternative vehicles. New Jersey has a smaller but active program in alternative fueled vehicles, and a growing awareness of fuel cells and hydrogen, encouraged by the presence of several fuel cell companies, hydrogen suppliers and large scale hydrogen users such as refineries based in the state. New Jersey recently decided to develop a state Climate Change Action Plan, and has endorsed a National LEV standard.

- * Both the New York City area and New Jersey are potentially large markets for alternative transportation fuels. There are significant numbers of urban transit buses, almost all run on Diesel fuel, a large population of other centrally refueled fleet vehicles, and large, geographically concentrated populations of passenger vehicles. Tables 2 and 3 shows data for buses, centrally refueled fleets and passenger cars in New York and New Jersey. Using assumptions about energy consumption, if these vehicles were converted to run on hydrogen fuel cells, based on earlier studies (Ogden, Kreutz and Steinbugler 1998), the potential hydrogen demand can be estimated.
- * If significant numbers of vehicles in New York City or New Jersey were converted to hydrogen, a large hydrogen demand would develop.
 - o The current light duty vehicle population in New Jersey is about 5.7 vehicles (including 1.0 million light trucks). The average annual mileage is 10,330 miles/yr, and the average fuel economy is 20.3 mpg. Vehicle miles are projected to increase from their 1995 level of 187 million miles/day to 209 million miles/day in 2010. We assume that the average fuel economy of light duty vehicles can be increased by a factor of four over present levels through a combination of lighter weight, more streamlined design (which could improve fuel economy by perhaps a factor of 1.5) and adoption of fuel cells rather than ICEs (which would increase fuel economy by another factor of 2.5). In this case, we find that the statewide average fuel economy would be 80 mpg equivalent. The hydrogen needed would be about 1000 million scf/day to supply all NJ light duty vehicles in 2010.
 - o There are about 5300 buses in New Jersey including commercial and public fleets. Virtually all the buses are centrally refueled. The total energy use by buses in New Jersey in 1990 was estimated to be 5.9 Trillion BTU/yr of Diesel. Assuming that a fuel cell bus would achieve a 50% higher fuel economy than a Diesel, the hydrogen needed to power New Jersey's fuel cell transit buses would be about 33 million H₂/day.
 - o For New York City, the total vehicle miles are estimated to be 19 billion/year for light duty vehicles (or 52 million vehicle miles/day). The energy use is 127 million GJ/yr. Assuming that fuel cell vehicles could improve fuel economy from the current average of 20 mpg to 80 mpg, the corresponding hydrogen use for all NYC light duty vehicles would be about 250 million scf H₂/day.
 - o New York City's 3600 public transit buses log a total of about 90 million bus-miles, requiring perhaps 15 million scf/day of hydrogen, if fuel cell buses were used.

- o State level data on energy consumption in centrally refueled fleets of autos and trucks are not generally available. However, about 220,000 fleet autos and 265,000 fleet trucks are located in New York State and 136,000 fleet autos and 154,000 fleet trucks in New Jersey. Nationally, a sizeable fraction of heavy delivery trucks (65%) and service trucks (44%) are estimated to be centrally refueled, which would facilitate use of an alternative fuel such as hydrogen. Moreover, an estimated 75-80% of large business, government and utility fleets are centrally refueled. Nationally, the average number of vehicles in non-transit fleets is 200, but the median is 33, suggesting that there are a few large fleets and many small ones. Although it is difficult to quantify non-transit fleet markets from the available data, it is possible that on the order of 100,000 cars in the New York/New Jersey region, might be centrally refueled. Since fleet cars tend to be driven about twice as far as non-fleet cars, fueling a fleet of 100,000 cars would require about 20 million scf of hydrogen per day. Fleet trucks would require a larger amount of hydrogen.

Task 1.2: What are potential hydrogen supplies in the New York City/New Jersey area.

- * There are a variety of potential near term hydrogen supplies in the New York City/New Jersey area, which could be used to provide hydrogen transportation fuel. These include truck delivered merchant hydrogen, byproduct hydrogen from refineries and chemical plants, onsite hydrogen production via small scale steam reforming of natural gas, onsite hydrogen production via small scale water electrolysis. In the longer term hydrogen might be produced from large scale steam reforming of natural gas with pipeline distribution or gasification of municipal solid waste.
- * Industrial gas companies in the NYC/NJ area generally meet hydrogen demands in the range needed for refueling stations (0.1-2.0 million scf H₂/day) via truck delivery of either liquid hydrogen or compressed hydrogen gas. The hydrogen is originally produced at distant Chloralkali plants, and trucked into the area, rather than at nearby large steam methane reformers dedicated to merchant hydrogen production, as in Southern California. There are currently no industrial hydrogen pipelines operating in the New York City/New Jersey area, except perhaps within refineries. Several industrial gas companies (Air Products and Chemicals, Praxair, BOC Gases, Air Liquide, MG Gases) serve this area.
- * Excess byproduct hydrogen may be available from refineries and chemical plants located in New Jersey. Several large chemical/refinery complexes are found in New Jersey located in: 1) the Newark area, 2) the Philadelphia/Camden area, 3) the area near the Delaware Memorial Bridge at the NJ/DE border, which

has both refineries and a Chloralkali plant. It appears likely that some hydrogen may be available from such sources, totalling perhaps a few million scf/day, enough for a few hundred buses.

- * There is a significant amount of off-peak power available in New Jersey (total generation capacity is approximately 18,000 MW, and in theory about one third to half this capacity could be available for off-peak power generation), but the price of off-peak power is presently high, on the order of 7 cents/kWh. This may make it difficult for onsite electrolysis to compete as a source of hydrogen. Many analysts believe that the price of off-peak power should eventually go down with deregulation and utility restructuring, although the ultimate price is difficult to predict.
- * In New York City, lower cost off peak power rates (about 3.5 cents/kWh) are available to large industrial or commercial customers. Electrolysis will still be a more costly method than onsite steam reforming of natural gas.
- * Onsite production of hydrogen from natural gas in small steam reformers is another possibility. However, the cost of natural gas is moderately high in the region, as New York and New Jersey are at the "end of the pipeline" bringing gas from the Gulf states. Natural gas costs are about \$4.4/GJ to a large industrial/commercial customer in New York City, and \$4.9/GJ in New Jersey. Moreover, there is little excess capacity in the existing natural gas interstate pipelines serving the New Jersey/New York City area. In the winter, gas delivery is limited by long distance pipeline capacity (rather than local distribution pipelines). Increasing natural gas supplies to the region (for example, to produce enough hydrogen to meet the demands for a large fleet of vehicles) could be costly if it entailed building new interstate natural gas pipeline capacity. Supplying enough natural gas to make hydrogen for all light vehicles in New Jersey (assuming fuel cell vehicles are used) would increase the natural gas flow into the state by perhaps 25%. There are currently plans to expand pipeline capacity into the Northeast for heating.
- * Gasification of municipal solid waste is an intriguing longer term possibility for hydrogen production in the New York City/New Jersey area. (A system for hydrogen production from MSW gasification has not been commercialized although the component technologies are available) This would also help solve the problem of waste disposal, a serious issue in a region where landfill space is virtually exhausted. Preliminary calculations show that if all the non-recycleable waste streams in New York City were used to make hydrogen for fuel cell vehicles about 44% of New York City's estimated 19 billion light duty vehicle miles could be served by this resource alone. Equivalently all of transit buses in New York City could be served by about 16% of the MSW. A similar fraction of LDVs in New Jersey could be served if all New Jersey's municipal solid waste were gasified for hydrogen production. The economics of this approach depend upon the scale of the plant (nominally a MSW to hydrogen

plant might produce 25 million scf H₂/day, enough for a fleet of perhaps 250,000 fuel cell cars, although smaller plants may be possible), and the tipping fee.

- * Because the New York City/New Jersey region has higher energy prices than many regions of the US, onsite small scale hydrogen production may be more expensive than in regions with lower energy costs. For example, projected costs in Southern California are somewhat lower than in New York and New Jersey.
- * Figures 1 and 2 summarize the potential hydrogen supplies and demands in New Jersey. In the near term, refinery excess hydrogen and hydrogen from natural gas would be sufficient to get started. Or hydrogen could be produced via onsite reforming of natural gas. In the longer term gasification of MSW may be an interesting option.

Task 1.3: What is the production cost and delivered cost of hydrogen transportation fuel from these various sources.

The delivered cost of hydrogen transportation fuel depends on energy prices. In Table 5, natural gas and electricity prices are shown for New Jersey and New York. Based on refueling system designs developed in earlier studies (Ogden 1998), we have calculated the delivered cost of hydrogen transportation fuel as a function of refueling station size for a range of supply options including:

- * Centralized production of hydrogen from natural gas with delivery by liquid hydrogen truck
- * Centralized production of hydrogen via steam reforming of natural gas with local gaseous pipeline delivery (shown for low demand density and high demand density cases).
- * Onsite production of hydrogen via small scale reforming of natural gas
- * Onsite production of hydrogen via small scale electrolysis using off-peak power

The estimated cost of hydrogen transportation fuel from various sources is estimated in Figure 3 for energy prices in New York and New Jersey. We see that hydrogen from natural gas offers the lowest delivered transportation fuel cost. Because of the relatively high cost of off-peak power (3.5 cents/kWh in New York and 7 cents/kWh in New Jersey), electrolytic hydrogen is a more expensive alternative.

The delivered cost of hydrogen transportation fuel in New York City/New Jersey area varies from about \$15-40/GJ depending on the station size and the supply option.

Data Sources

Data on vehicle energy use and alternative vehicles were obtained from the New Jersey Board of Public Utilities Energy Department (NJBPU), the New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection (NJDEP), the New Jersey Department of Transportation (NJDOT), and the NJ Office of Sustainability, the New York Power Authority, NYSERDA, the Northeast Alternative Vehicle Consortium and the Northeast Sustainable Energy Association.

For current energy prices in the area, we contacted the individual electric and gas utilities in the area (Public Service Gas and Electric, GPU/Jersey Central Power & Light, Atlantic Electric Company, Rockland Electric, New Jersey Natural Gas, South Jersey Gas, and Elizabethtown Gas, Consolidated Edison, New York Power Authority, Brooklyn Union Gas, Lilco), and using data from annual reports of the NJBPU.

For an understanding of current merchant hydrogen infrastructure in the area, we contacted Air Products, Praxair, and BOC Gases.

For data on hydrogen production in refineries and other chemical plants (Chloralkali, etc.), we collected data from the industrial gas companies, as well as from oil companies (Mobil and Exxon).

For data on the availability and content of municipal solid waste as a feedstock for hydrogen production, we contacted the New Jersey DEP, the New York Power Authority and the NY Department of Sanitation.

For data on fleet vehicles, and vehicle populations we consulted studies by the NJDOT, the NJBPU, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, the American Automobile Manufacturers' Association, and the Federal Highway Administration.

For estimates of hydrogen production, distribution and refueling systems, we utilized data collected in earlier studies of hydrogen infrastructure.

Methods Of Analysis

Where necessary, engineering models of hydrogen production, distribution and refueling station equipment are being developed or adapted from our earlier work on hydrogen infrastructure.

The levelized cost of hydrogen production, delivered hydrogen cost and lifecycle costs of transportation are estimated using standard microeconomic techniques.

Interaction With Other Groups/Technology Transfer

Understanding the potential demand for hydrogen vehicles in New York City and New Jersey involved interactions with the state and local governmental groups involved in alternative vehicles and energy, and with local gas and electric utilities.

These include the New Jersey Board of Public Utilities Energy Department, the New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection (NJDEP), which is rapidly developing an interest in hydrogen and fuel cells, and the New Jersey Department of Transportation (NJDOT), which is currently sponsoring H-Power's development of small scale fuel cells as battery replacements for highway warning signs. Governor Whitman of New Jersey has issued an order to develop a statewide "Climate Change Action Plan".

We have had several meetings with New Jersey officials involved in assessing the potential of new technologies to reduce greenhouse gas emissions in New Jersey. One of the most active interchanges thusfar has been with the NJ Department of Environmental Protection. We have given a number of briefings to this group, and to others in the newly created NJ Office of Sustainability and in the New Jersey Science and Technology Group on fuel cell vehicles, hydrogen and CO₂ sequestration. There is a growing interest in hydrogen and fuel cells in New Jersey, that may make it attractive as a potential site for hydrogen vehicle implementation.

Other valuable data were obtained from the New York Power Authority, NYSERDA and the Northeast Alternative Vehicle Consortium.

Task 2. Implications Of CO₂ Sequestration For Hydrogen Energy Systems (November 1997-September 1998)

Recently, it has been proposed that hydrogen could be produced at large scale via steam reforming of natural gas, or gasification of coal or biomass, with low cost separation of CO₂ and permanent sequestration underground, for example in depleted gas wells or in deep aquifers. The basic idea is sketched in Figure 4, showing hydrogen production from hydrocarbon feedstocks, with separation of CO₂ during the process. CO₂ is piped to a site for underground storage. The hydrogen is compressed and transmitted to distant users via high pressure hydrogen pipelines. A hydrogen energy system with sequestration would allow the continued large scale use of fossil fuel resources while greatly reducing CO₂ emissions into the atmosphere.

While CO₂ sequestration is an active research topic, under investigation by the USDOE (USDOE 1997, Socolow 1997) and internationally (Herzog 1997), there has been relatively little work done linking this idea to concepts of hydrogen energy systems. Indeed, CO₂ sequestration raises a host of interesting hydrogen systems questions. These include the following.

- * What is the cost of hydrogen production with CO₂ sequestration compared to other hydrogen production methods? How does it compare to localized hydrogen production from natural gas and to fuel cycles with no net CO₂ emissions (e.g. hydrogen from solar, wind or biomass)? How does the cost vary

with demand? What are the potential impacts of new technologies for steam reforming and CO₂ separation?

- * When would it make sense to start sequestering CO₂? In particular, at what scale of hydrogen production could you begin sequestering CO₂? How large a hydrogen demand must be in place before sequestering CO₂ and distributing hydrogen become economically attractive? Answering this question involves understanding the economies of scale of hydrogen production, CO₂ separation and sequestration, and pipeline transmission.
- * What are plausible scenarios for a transition toward a large scale hydrogen energy system with sequestration? Under what conditions will pipeline hydrogen (produced via large scale steam reforming and transmitted long distances via pipeline) compete with locally produced hydrogen (either at the city scale -- in a single city-sized reformer plant) or onsite (e.g. via small scale steam reforming at a hydrogen refueling station)?

To study these questions we completed the following tasks as part of our work for the Hydrogen R&D Program in FY'98.:

Task 2.1: Understand scale economy issues for hydrogen energy systems with sequestration.

Task 2.1a. What are the scale economies of current and developing technologies for steam methane reforming and CO₂ separation?

Task 2.1b. What are the scale economies of local and long distance hydrogen pipeline transmission? Using pipeline transmission models developed at Princeton, we estimate the cost of hydrogen pipeline transmission as a function of pipeline pressure, flow rate, and pipeline length.

Task 2.1c. What are the scale economies of pipeline transmission and sequestration of CO₂? What determines the rate at which CO₂ can be injected at the sequestration site?

Task 2.1d. How does the cost of hydrogen with CO₂ sequestration vary with the energy demand and the distance of the hydrogen plant and sequestration site from the demand?

Task 2.1e. What is the cost of hydrogen with CO₂ sequestration, compared to other hydrogen supply options (including "carbon-free" options such as renewable hydrogen), as a function of demand?

Task 2.2. Estimate the conditions under which pipeline hydrogen with sequestration will compete with other options. How large must the demand be? How close must the

hydrogen production be to the demand? What are the potential impacts of new steam reforming technologies?

Task 2.3. Sketch possible scenarios for a transition toward a large scale hydrogen energy system employing CO₂ sequestration.

Example: Understanding design issues for natural gas-based hydrogen energy systems with CO₂ sequestration.

As an example, we consider a system with hydrogen production from natural gas and sequestration of CO₂. As shown in Figure 5 there are a number of options for delivering hydrogen to users, and for capturing CO₂. Key questions are

- * "where do you make the hydrogen?" (hydrogen can be made at small scale at the user's site; at city scale with local distribution; or at large scale near the source of natural gas with long distance hydrogen pipeline transmission.)

and

- * "where do you capture the CO₂?" (In theory CO₂ could be captured at small scale and collected, or captured at city scale and piped some distance to a sequestration site, or captured at a hydrogen production facility at the natural gas field and re-injected into gas wells).
- * when does hydrogen from natural gas with CO₂ sequestration compete with other low CO₂ options?

The answers to these questions depend on scale economies in:

- * hydrogen production,
- * CO₂ separation,
- * pipeline transmission of hydrogen, natural gas and CO₂,
- * CO₂ injection at the sequestration site

To size the various components in the system, we first must estimate the potential hydrogen demand and associated CO₂ production.

Hydrogen Demand

Table 5 shows hydrogen flows needed to supply various end-use demands. Projected hydrogen demand varies over a wide range from 0.04 GJ/day for a single fuel cell car to 0.3 million GJ/day if all the cars in the Los Angeles Basin converted to hydrogen fuel cells

to 3 million GJ/day to equal the energy in the current natural gas flow in the Southern California Gas system.

Production of Hydrogen from Natural Gas

Catalytic Steam Reforming

Catalytic steam reforming of natural gas is a well known, commercially available process for hydrogen production (Rostrup-Nielsen 1984, Twigg 1989). Hydrogen production is accomplished in several steps: steam reforming, water gas shift reaction, and hydrogen purification. (Figure 6 shows material flows for a typical hydrogen production plant based on steam reforming of natural gas.)

The steam reforming reaction



is endothermic and is favored at higher temperatures, and lower pressures. Typical reformers operate at anywhere from 3 atm, 700°C to 15-25 atm, 850°C. External heat needed to drive the reaction is often provided by the combustion of about 20% of the incoming natural gas feedstock (purge gases from the hydrogen purification system are often used in addition). Heat transfer to the reactants is accomplished indirectly through a heat exchanger. Methane and steam react in catalyst filled tubes. Typically, the mass ratio of steam-to-carbon is about 3 or more to avoid "coking" or carbon build-up on the catalysts. (At lower steam to carbon ratios, solid carbon can be produced via side reactions.)

After reforming, the resulting syngas is sent to one or more shift reactors, where the hydrogen output is increased via the water-gas shift reaction:



which "converts" CO to H₂. This reaction is favored at temperatures of less than about 600°C, and can take place as low as 200°C, with sufficiently active catalysts. The gas exiting the shift reactor contains mostly H₂ (70-80%) plus CO₂, CH₄, and small quantities of H₂O and CO. For hydrogen production, the shift reaction is often accomplished in two stages. A high temperature shift reactor operating at about 350-475°C accomplishes much of the conversion, followed by a lower temperature (200-250°C) shift reactor which brings the CO concentration down to a few percent by volume or less.

Hydrogen Purification

The gas exiting the shift reactors contains (on a dry basis) about 77% hydrogen, 19% CO₂, 3% CH₄, and 1% CO with traces of N₂. For most hydrogen applications, the gas must be further purified. Since CO₂ is the largest impurity, CO₂ separation is done as part of the hydrogen purification process.

The required degree of purification depends on the application.

For most industrial applications, hydrogen purities exceeding 95% are required. If hydrogen is stored and transported to distant users as a fuel suitable for use in fuel cell vehicles, purities approaching 99.999% are probably desirable.

Until about 10-20 years ago, conventional SMR plants used a chemical or physical absorption step after the shift reactors to remove CO₂ (Steinberg and Cheng 1988). The CO₂-free gas then undergoes a methanation step, converting any remaining CO to CH₄, yielding hydrogen purities of 95-98% (see Figure 6a).

More recently, pressure swing absorption (PSA) systems (Sircar 1988) have come into common use to produce hydrogen at up to 99.999% purity (Figure 6b). In addition to producing a higher purity (and therefore more valuable) product, PSA systems offer lower energy costs than chemical absorption systems, which require significant heat input to regenerate the absorbing solvent, and lower hydrogen production cost (Steinberg and Cheng 1988).

CO₂ removal is a required step in hydrogen production via SMR. Thus, a “base case” hydrogen plant, whether based on SMR/PSA (Figure 6b) or SMR/absorption (Figure 6a) involves CO₂ removal from the hydrogen-rich gas exiting the shift reactor. Along with the CO₂, other impurities such as CH₄, CO, H₂O, and N₂ are removed. For CO₂ sequestration, separation of pure CO₂ from the mix is required, which can involve some additional equipment and energy input.

Cost of Steam Methane Reformers

Steam reformers have been built over a wide range of sizes, from 0.1 million scf H₂/d to several hundred million scf H₂/day. The specific capital cost (\$ per kW of hydrogen output) for various hydrogen production systems is shown as a function of plant size (in million scf H₂/day) in Figure 7. Conventional steam methane reformer technology is shown, as well as advanced small scale reformers based on fuel cell reformer technology (Halvorson and Farris 1997). Estimates for the mass produced capital cost of advanced small scale “fuel cell type” reformers are shown for various levels of cumulative production (1 unit up to 10,000 units), based on recent studies by Directed Technologies, Inc. (Thomas et.al. 1997). We see that the capital cost of small scale steam methane reformers could be significantly reduced with advanced technology.

However, the production cost of hydrogen would still be less for centralized production than for decentralized small scale production, because the feedstock cost will be less at a

large central hydrogen plant than at a refueling station. As shown in Figure 8, feedstock costs dominate the total cost of hydrogen production.

Local Distribution of Hydrogen Transportation Fuel

Of course, centrally produced hydrogen must be distributed to users, which adds distribution costs. The cost of small scale, local gaseous pipeline transmission is shown in Figure 9 as a function of pipeline length and number of fuel cell vehicles served. Costs are lowest for large flow rates and short pipelines (e.g. large, geographically concentrated hydrogen demands). Figure 10 shows local hydrogen pipeline transmission costs including the costs of compressing and storing hydrogen at a large centralized hydrogen production plant and installing a city scale network of 3" diameter pipelines to take hydrogen to refueling stations. The total transmission cost varies with the density of the hydrogen demand, e.g. the number of cars per square mile. Local distribution costs vary from about \$2/GJ H₂ for a dense population of H₂ fuel cell cars (say 3000 cars per square mile, equivalent to assuming that all the cars in downtown Los Angeles or Denver convert to hydrogen) to \$5/GJ or more for a sparser population of cars (e.g. assuming 10% of the vehicle population in downtown urban areas or 100% of vehicles in a suburban area convert to hydrogen). The sparser the demand, the longer the pipeline network must be to reach consumers, and the higher the cost.

Centralized vs. Decentralized Production of Hydrogen from Natural Gas

The delivered cost of hydrogen transportation fuel is shown in Figure 11 including hydrogen production, local pipeline distribution (for centralized production) and refueling stations. We see that decentralized production with advanced reformers can compete with centralized pipeline production, because of pipeline distribution costs. In the early stages of developing a hydrogen infrastructure, small scale onsite steam reforming will be lower cost. As demand increases, the cost of pipeline transmission is reduced, and the cost of centralized production approaches that of decentralized production.

This suggests that a hydrogen infrastructure will build up using onsite production. A large, geographically concentrated demand will be required before centralized production with pipeline distribution can compete.

Technologies for capturing CO₂ during hydrogen production

Let us now assume that we want to sequester CO₂. The first step is separating a pure stream of CO₂ during hydrogen production. The CO₂ is then compressed to 8-10 MPa, transmitted via pipeline to a sequestration site such as an aquifer or depleted gas field, and injected underground.

CO2 separation during hydrogen production

In hydrogen production from natural gas, the gas exiting the shift reactor contains typically 77% hydrogen, 19% CO₂, 3% methane and 1% CO by volume on a dry basis. To purify hydrogen, CO₂ must be removed, along with other contaminants.

Various types of hydrogen purification technologies have been employed including chemical or physical absorption systems and pressure swing adsorption (Sircar 1988). At present, hydrogen producers generally prefer pressure swing adsorption systems (PSA), as they cost less than chemical absorption systems, require less energy input and produce hydrogen at higher purity (up to 99.999% purity as compared to 95-98% purity with absorption systems).

In chemical or physical absorption systems, a pure stream of CO₂ is generated during purification. There is essentially no extra cost for CO₂ separation in this type of system. The drawback is that the hydrogen purity is only 95-98%, with the primary impurities being CH₄ and CO. Moreover, the energy input required to regenerate the absorbing fluid can be substantial especially for chemical absorption systems using solvents such as MEA or DEA. For physical absorption systems such as Selexol, the energy cost is lower than with chemical absorption systems, but the hydrogen purity is in the range 95-98%.

In PSA based systems configured for hydrogen purification, all the impurities CO₂, CO, CH₄, H₂O are removed in a mixture, leaving very pure hydrogen (up to 99.999%). Separating CO₂ from the contaminant mix requires an additional set of PSA beds and a compressor stage to boost the pressure between beds.

The additional cost of separating CO₂ in a SMR/PSA system has been estimated by Moore (Moore 1997) -- see Table 8. Here a vacuum swing adsorption (VSA) CO₂ separation system is retrofitted to a 80 million scf/day steam methane reforming hydrogen plant with a PSA unit. A VSA is similar to a PSA, but operates at less than atmospheric pressure. As shown in Table 8, the extra installed capital cost for the CO₂ separation system is about \$8.4-9.2 million, or about 17-18% of the total capital cost for a plant this size (which would cost about \$50 million installed). In this system about 50% of the carbon in the natural gas feedstock is captured as CO₂.

The VSA compressor requires electrical input of about 106 kWh/tonne CO₂ separated.

The incremental cost of CO₂ separation per tonne of CO₂ separated can be estimated (assuming an annual capital charge rate of 15%)

Incremental cost of CO₂ separation = $0.15 \times \$8.4 \text{ million} / (771 \text{ tonne CO}_2/\text{d} \times 365 \text{ d/y})$
+ $105 \text{ kWh/tonne CO}_2 \times \$0.05/\text{kWh} = \$4.48 + 5.25/\text{tonne CO}_2 = \$9.7/\text{tonne CO}_2$

Given that 35.6 GJ of hydrogen is produced per tonne of CO₂, we find that the incremental cost of CO₂ separation in a VSA system adds

Added H₂ cost for CO₂ separation
= \$9.7/tonne CO₂/(35.6 GJ H₂/tonne CO₂) = \$0.27/GJ H₂.

This is about 5-7% of the cost of hydrogen production in a large SMR plant.

Another estimate of CO₂ separation costs is given by Katofsky (Katofsky 1993, Williams et.al 1995). In Katofsky's design, a PSA with two sets of beds and a recycle compressor is employed to produce a pure stream of CO₂, as well as 99.999% pure hydrogen. Here the PSA system capital cost is about 30% of the total hydrogen plant capital cost (Williams et.al 1995). This compares with a typical PSA capital cost equal to about 10% of the total plant cost, for a PSA without CO₂ separation (Moore 1996). The incremental capital cost of CO₂ separation via added PSA beds is then about 20% of the total plant cost, which is similar to Moore's estimate above.

Katofsky's design captures about 70% of the CO₂ in the natural gas feed. The plant size is 152.5 million scf H₂/day, and 5.5 kg of CO₂ are captured for every kg of hydrogen produced. The daily CO₂ production is 2025 tonnes/d. The installed cost of the hydrogen plant with VSA is estimated to be about \$170 million. Taking 20% of this cost or \$34 million as the incremental cost for CO₂ separation, and a PSA recycle compressor load of 100 kWhe/tonne CO₂, we find a cost of separation of

$0.15 \times \$34 \text{ million} / (2025 \text{ tonnes CO}_2/\text{day} \times 365 \text{ d/y}) + 100 \text{ kwhe/tonne CO}_2 \times \$0.05/\text{kWh}$
= \$6.9/tonne CO₂ + 5.0/tonne CO₂ = \$11.9/tonne CO₂.

The added cost of CO₂ separation per GJ of hydrogen produced is approximately

$\$11.9/\text{tonne CO}_2 \times 5.5 \text{ tonne CO}_2/\text{tonne H}_2 \times 1 \text{ tonne H}_2/142 \text{ GJ} = \$0.46/\text{GJ H}_2$.

This rough estimate is higher than that of Moore, adding 9-10% to the cost of hydrogen production.

Scale economies for CO₂ separation

The added capital cost of equipment for CO₂ separation can be assumed to scale approximately with the total plant capital. For large SMR plants, a capital cost scale factor of 0.57 is used (Williams et.al 1995). The cost of electricity for compression will be less sensitive to scale.

CO₂ Compression at the Hydrogen Plant

Once CO₂ is separated it must be compressed to supercritical pressures (about 8 MPa) for pipeline transmission to a sequestration site (Skovholt 1995, Holloway 1996, Hendriks 1994).

The energy requirements for CO₂ compression at the hydrogen plant have been estimated by Hendriks (1994). Compression from 0.1 Mpa (1 atm) to 8 MPa is assumed. The

power requirement for a 5 stage compressor with 85% efficiency is 301 kJ/kg CO₂, or 83.6 kWh/tonne CO₂.

According to Hendriks, the capital cost of a 500 tonne/h CO₂ compressor is about \$17 million or \$407/kWe. The total installed cost of the CO₂ compressor with housing and infrastructure is estimated to be about \$730/kWe.

The CO₂ compression costs at the hydrogen plant are then

$$0.15 \times \$17 \text{ million} / (500 \text{ tonne/h} \times 0.9 \times 8760 \text{ h/y}) + 83.6 \text{ kWh/tonne CO}_2 \times \$0.05/\text{kWh} \\ = 0.65 + 4.18 = \$4.83/\text{tonne CO}_2$$

The added cost of CO₂ compression for Moore's case (where 3.99 kg of CO₂ is produced per kg of H₂) is about

$$\$0.14/\text{GJ H}_2$$

For Katofsky's design the added cost of CO₂ compression is about

$$\$0.19/\text{GJ H}_2.$$

Incremental Costs at the Hydrogen Plant for Separating and Compressing CO₂

The total costs at the hydrogen plant for separating CO₂ and compressing it to pipeline pressure are for the two SMR/PSA cases:

$$\text{For 50\% recovery of carbon from NG feedstock (Moore): } \$0.27/\text{GJ} + \$0.14/\text{GJ} = \\ \$0.41/\text{GJ H}_2 \text{ or } \$14.5/\text{tonne CO}_2 = \$53/\text{tonne Carbon}$$

$$\text{For 70\% recovery of carbon from NG feedstock (Katofsky) : } \$0.46/\text{GJ} + 0.19/\text{GJ} = \\ \$0.65/\text{GJ H}_2 \text{ or } \$16.7/\text{tonne CO}_2 = \$61/\text{tonne Carbon}$$

These costs are less than those for removing CO₂ from power plant flue gases, which are more typically \$30-60/tonne CO₂ for systems using chemical absorption of CO₂ (Hendriks 1994). Moreover, CO₂ capture adds only about 10-15% to the cost of producing hydrogen via SMR as compared to a 60-100% cost increase for electricity when CO₂ is removed from flue gases in a coal-fired power plant [Hendriks 1994]. CO₂ sequestration during hydrogen fuel production is an attractive way of removing CO₂ from the energy system.

Feasibility of CO₂ Capture and Collection from Many Small Steam Reformers

In principle, it would be possible to separate CO₂ at a small hydrogen plant, for example at a hydrogen refueling station with an onsite steam methane reformer. However, the incremental cost of small scale separation and compression would be large, perhaps \$2-3/GJ H₂. Moreover, cost of a CO₂ collection system to a central point for pipeline delivery to a sequestration site would be about the same as a system for distributing hydrogen to users from a central H₂ production plant. If CO₂ sequestration is desired, centralized hydrogen production will always be less costly because of the high cost of capturing and collecting CO₂ from many small dispersed sources. This is shown in Figure 12. But centralized production implies that a large demand has built up for hydrogen -- otherwise onsite reforming would be less costly. Thus, CO₂ sequestration is unlikely to be introduced until a large demand for hydrogen is in place.

Long distance CO₂ pipeline transmission costs

Once hydrogen is produced and CO₂ separated and compressed, the CO₂ must be piped to a sequestration site. The size of the CO₂ transmission pipeline and injection system depends on the amount of CO₂ produced, which in turn depends on the level of hydrogen production required. In Table 8, we relate CO₂ production to the hydrogen demand for various end-uses. We assume the hydrogen plant has the process flow diagram shown in Figure 13 (Katofsky 1993) where 70% of the carbon in the incoming natural gas feed (or 5.5 kg CO₂ per kg H₂) is captured for sequestration.

The cost of CO₂ pipeline transmission has been estimated in a detailed engineering study carried for the Commission of European Communities (Holloway et. al. 1996), for a range of flow rates from 2 million tonnes to 50 million tonnes CO₂ per year. As shown in Table 8, the CO₂ flow rate from a hydrogen energy system would be toward the lower end of this range. For a single hydrogen car, with hydrogen made from natural gas about 0.5 tonnes of CO₂ would be emitted per year. So the CO₂ pipeline systems considered in the CEC study are appropriate for an hydrogen energy system serving 4 million cars at a minimum. In Figure 14, we show the added cost of CO₂ pipelines for various associated hydrogen production rates, and pipeline lengths. (We have extrapolated the CEC results to find pipeline costs at smaller CO₂ flow rates). We see that at large CO₂ flow rates (and large co-produced hydrogen flows) and short pipeline distances, the incremental cost of CO₂ pipeline transmission is small: less than \$1/GJ H₂, assuming that the sequestration site is less than 300 km away from the hydrogen plant, and that the hydrogen demand is equivalent to 10-100% of the cars in the Los Angeles Basin. At small hydrogen demands (less than 100 million scf H₂/day), the cost of CO₂ pipeline transmission rises rapidly.

CO₂ Injection and Storage at the Sequestration Site

Various authors (Hendriks 1994, Holloway et.al 1996) have estimated the cost of CO₂ injection and storage in underground geological formations such as aquifers and depleted gas wells. At sequestration site, pipeline CO₂ is compressed, if needed, prior to injection. Injection wells, typically 1-3 km in depth are drilled into aquifers, or depleted gas or oil wells can be used.

Injection rates for CO₂ depend on the permeability of the underground formation, the thickness of the storage reservoir and the allowable overpressure. Flow rates vary from 2 to 20 Nm³ per second or 340 to 3400 tonnes CO₂ per day per well.

Storage costs in onshore aquifers are estimated to be \$2-8/tonne CO₂. In a large onshore gas field, costs of \$0.5-3/tonne CO₂ are typical. If additional compression is needed at the injection wellhead, this adds up to \$0.5/tonne CO₂.

Figure 15 (adapted from Hendriks 1994) shows the cost of injection as a function of injection flow rate. For reference we show the associated hydrogen energy demand. An injection well which stores CO₂ at a rate of 340 tonnes/d could handle the output of a hydrogen plant producing 25 million scf H₂/day. Even at this modest rate of hydrogen production, the cost of storage are only about \$8/tonne CO₂ or \$0.3/GJ hydrogen. At larger CO₂ flow rates, which would be needed for low CO₂ pipeline costs, storage would add about \$0.1/GJ or less to the cost of hydrogen.

Comparison of the Cost of Long Distance Pipeline Transmission for Hydrogen, Natural Gas and CO₂

The cost of long distance pipeline transmission is shown for hydrogen, natural gas and CO₂ in Figure 16. At large flow rates the cost contribution of long distance hydrogen transmission to the delivered fuel cost is small, perhaps 10-20% of the delivered hydrogen cost. Methane transmission is roughly 1/3 to 1/2 as costly as hydrogen transmission, for the same energy flow rate. The decision to make hydrogen at the gas field depends on the flow rate, and also on the possibility of enhanced gas recovery (Blok et.al. 1997).

Cost for CO₂ Sequestration vs. Hydrogen Demand

The total cost of CO₂ sequestration including CO₂ separation and compression at the hydrogen plant, CO₂ pipelines, and CO₂ injection into an underground aquifer are shown in Figure 17 and Table 9. The hydrogen demand level has a profound impact on the cost of CO₂ sequestration.

- * CO₂ sequestration is well suited to large scale energy systems (greater than 100 million scf H₂/d). At hydrogen production levels of about 1-10 million scf/d, CO₂ pipeline scale economies significantly increase the delivered hydrogen cost. At these scales, other low CO₂ hydrogen options such as hydrogen from renewables may be competitive.
- * CO₂ sequestration requires centralized hydrogen production, which in turn requires a large, geographically concentrated demand to compete with onsite reforming.
- * Collection of CO₂ from many small onsite SMRs is not economically attractive. Central hydrogen production with hydrogen distribution will be less costly.
- * At large scale (1000 million scf H₂/day, an amount that could fuel all the cars in Los Angeles, if they used hydrogen fuel cells), the added cost of CO₂ sequestration is about \$1/GJ, or 20% of the hydrogen production cost). The largest contribution to this cost is CO₂ separation at the hydrogen plant, using a double bed PSA system and compressor. This suggests that innovative CO₂ separation schemes during hydrogen production will be important for hydrogen energy systems with sequestration.

How do scale economies influence the design of energy systems with CO₂ sequestration?

To justify putting a centralized hydrogen production plant and local hydrogen distribution pipeline system in place, a large, geographically concentrated hydrogen demand is needed. If you don't want to collect CO₂, and natural gas is plentiful, you may choose to make hydrogen onsite in advanced small scale reformers. If CO₂ sequestration is desired, the economics will always favor centralized hydrogen production, because of the high cost of separating and collecting CO₂ at small scale. The level of hydrogen demand required to implement a hydrogen energy system with CO₂ sequestration is probably something like 10-100% of cars in Los Angeles.

Large CO₂ flows are needed to make long distance transmission attractive. The associated hydrogen production is equal to that in 1 to 10 large refineries (in terms of chemical markets) or enough hydrogen about 10-100% of the cars in the Los Angeles Basin (in terms of energy markets).

Introduction of CO₂ sequestration requires a large hydrogen demand. If PEM fuel cells are successfully commercialized for vehicles or combined heat and power, this could provide

impetus toward such a market (Williams 1997). In the nearer term (before the build-up of large hydrogen energy markets), one could look for large scale point sources of CO₂ associated with hydrogen production from fossil fuels, which are currently vented, but could be captured at small additional cost and sequestered. Some possibilities are steam methane reformers in oil refineries ("reduced CO₂" gasoline?) or in ammonia manufacture. These may be about the right scale to consider CO₂ sequestration.

Summary of results

- * Engineering/economic models were developed of pipeline transmission for hydrogen, methane and CO₂, and hydrogen production with alternative methods of CO₂ separation.
- * There are strong scale economies in gaseous pipeline transmission, hydrogen production, CO₂ separation and CO₂ injection which influence the design of a hydrogen energy system with CO₂ sequestration.
- * If gases are piped long distances, a large flow rate is required to assure low transmission costs. Because of CO₂ pipeline scale economies, a large flow of CO₂ would be needed to reach low transmission costs, unless sequestration could be done near the site of hydrogen production. Large CO₂ flows imply a large geographically concentrated demand for the co-produced hydrogen would be required, before CO₂ sequestration could be done at low cost. The required hydrogen energy demand would be equivalent to the fuel required for 10%-100% of the cars in the LA Basin (assuming hydrogen fuel cell cars were used), assuming the CO₂ must be piped 300-1000 km to a sequestration site.
- * At large flows, the cost of hydrogen pipeline transmission is small, less than 10% (20%) of the cost of hydrogen production over a distance of 300 km (1000 km). The added cost of long distance CO₂ transmission is less than 5% of the hydrogen production cost for very large flow rates (e.g. for an energy system which could serve half the cars in LA).
- * It is not economically or technically attractive to collect CO₂ from many small dispersed sources. CO₂ sequestration favors large, centralized hydrogen production with local hydrogen pipeline distribution to users.
- * Because of advances in small scale methane reformer technologies, it is likely that onsite production of hydrogen from natural gas (for example at refueling stations) will be economically preferable to centralized production with local hydrogen pipeline distribution until a large demand for hydrogen has developed. Once a large hydrogen demand is in place, pipeline distribution may become competitive.
- * Initially, demand for hydrogen energy would probably be met by onsite production from natural gas. Once a large demand was present, CO₂ sequestration could be considered. When CO₂ sequestration was implemented, a switch to centralized production with local hydrogen distribution would also take place.

- * In the near term, large scale industrial production of hydrogen via steam methane reforming (e.g. in oil refineries or chemical plants) might produce enough byproduct CO₂, for CO₂ sequestration to be considered, if a sequestration site is near enough.

Data Sources

Data on CO₂ separation operations during hydrogen production were obtained via discussions with hydrogen producers and industrial gas companies.

Data on various aspects of CO₂ sequestration were also gathered at the USDOE workshop on Fuels Decarbonization and Carbon Sequestration held in Washington DC in July 1997.

Data on hydrogen pipeline systems were available from our earlier studies for the hydrogen program. Data on CO₂ pipelines were obtained from the literature and from discussions with researchers at Argonne National Laboratory.

Methods Of Analysis

Engineering models of hydrogen production, CO₂ separation, hydrogen and CO₂ pipeline transmission and hydrogen refueling station equipment are being developed.

The levelized cost of hydrogen production, delivered hydrogen cost and lifecycle costs of transportation are estimated using standard microeconomic techniques.

Interaction With Other Groups/Technology Transfer

We have interacted with other researchers at MIT, Argonne National Laboratory, Air Products and Chemicals, and Mobil and benefitted from discussions with analysts at the USDOE, Directed Technologies Inc. and Energetics.

Plans for Future Work

Assessment Of Hydrogen-Fueled Proton Exchange Membrane Fuel Cells For Distributed Generation And Cogeneration

Proton exchange membrane fuel cells (PEMFCs) are highly efficient power generators, achieving up to 50-60% conversion efficiency, even at very small sizes (down to the household level -- 3-5 kW). PEMFCs have zero pollutant emissions when fueled directly with hydrogen, and near zero emissions when coupled to reformers. These attributes make them potentially attractive for a variety of applications including electric vehicles and distributed generation and cogeneration of heat and power in buildings.

Over the past few years, there have been intense efforts worldwide to develop low-cost PEMFC systems. While the primary focus has been on vehicle applications, an equally important application may be combined heat and power generation in commercial and residential buildings. The development of inexpensive PEMFC power systems for automotive applications may have powerful implications for the parallel development of analogous systems for residential-scale generation of distributed electric power and heat.

There are several reasons why PEMFCs might become competitive for buildings applications before they appear in vehicles:

- 1) The cost barrier is lower for PEMFC cogeneration systems than for automotive applications. To compete with internal combustion engines in automobiles, PEMFCs must achieve stringent cost goals of perhaps \$50/kW. Recent studies indicate that significant cogeneration markets in commercial buildings could open for PEMFC stack costs of perhaps \$300-500/kW (corresponding to complete system costs of \$1000-1500/kW) (Arthur D. Little 1995). Residential markets might open at stack costs of \$200-400/kW (O'Sullivan 1998).
- 2) The technical challenges are in many respects less severe for stationary power generation than for vehicles. (Start-up behavior and transient operation is likely to be less of a problem for power generation than for vehicles which are characterized by rapidly varying loads; heat and water management issues should be much easier; weight and volume constraints are less stringent; peak power devices will not be needed; control systems should be simpler; robustness and resistance to mechanical shocks during driving will not be an issue.) In one respect, technical requirements are more demanding for cogeneration applications: a longer operating lifetime (50,000-100,000 hours) would be needed for a stationary power system as compared to perhaps 5000 hours for vehicles.

Over the next year, researchers at Princeton Center for Energy and Environmental Studies will carry out a series of detailed technical and economic assessments with the goal of understanding the prospects for hydrogen fueled PEM fuel cell cogeneration technology for residential applications. We concentrate on hydrogen derived from natural gas, a primary energy source which is widely available today, and is likely to give the lowest hydrogen cost in the near term.

We compare three types of PEM fuel cell cogeneration systems which could provide heat and power to residential users (see Figure 18).

Case 1) a centralized "neighborhood" scale (200-1000 kW) natural gas reformer/PEM fuel cell system which distributes heat (via district heating) and electricity (via wire) to 40-200 residential users. .

Case 2) a centralized "neighborhood" scale natural gas reformer, which produces hydrogen or a hydrogen rich gas for distribution to users. Each house has a small hydrogen fueled (5 kWe) PEM fuel cell providing electricity and heat.

Case 3) individual natural gas reformers coupled to 5 kW PEM fuel cells at each house.

For each case energy storage (in the form of hydrogen storage, hot water storage or electric batteries) could be used to meet time varying energy demands. Connections to the electric utility system could be made at the household or neighborhood level, allowing dispatch of power.

In the proposed work, engineering and economic models of PEM fuel cell based cogeneration systems will be developed. The potential advantages and disadvantages of each configuration will be investigated in terms of overall energy efficiency, performance, economics (capital cost, delivered cost of electricity and heat), and greenhouse gas emissions. PEMFC cogeneration systems will be compared to other alternatives for production of residential heat and power.

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Table 1a. Hydrogen and Fuel Cell Related Research at the Center for Energy and Environmental Studies, Princeton University, 1986-Present (* = USDOE Supported Research) -- see attached Bibliography

YEAR	TOPIC	INVESTIGATORS	REF.S
*1985-1991	Design and economics of solar PV/ electrolytic hydrogen systems	J. Ogden, R. Williams	[1-4]
*1991-1993	Renewable hydrogen energy systems studies	J.Ogden	[4-5]
*1991-present	Assessments of hydrogen fuel cell vehicles	M. Delucchi, M. Steinbugler, J. Ogden, T. Kreutz R. Williams, L. Iwan	[8-11,13-16, 24, 25, 31, 34, 47-50]
1991-1993	Production of hydrogen and methanol from biomass	E.Larson, R. Katofsky, R. Williams	[6-8]
*1993-present	Production of hydrogen from municipal solid waste	E. Larson, J. Chen, E. Worrell, R. Williams	[14, 17, 29]
*1993-present	Role of natural gas in a transition to hydrogen	J. Ogden, J. Strohbehn, E.Dennis	[12,13,16]
*1993-present	Assessments of fuels for fuel cell vehicles	R. Williams, J. Ogden, E. Larson, R. Katofsky, J. Chen, M. Steinbugler	[14, 14a, 31]
*1993-1994	Assessment of using the existing natural gas transmission and distribution system w/H2	J. Ogden, J. Strohbehn	[12,16]
*1993-present	Development of refueling infrastructure for hydrogen vehicles	J. Ogden, E. Dennis, K. Montemayor	[12,13,16, 21,22,23,27, 30, 33, 48-50]
*1993-1995	Assessment of PEM fuels cells for residential cogeneration	M. Steinbugler, J. Ogden, K. Kissock, R. Williams, T. Kreutz	[16]
*1994-1996	Assessment of small scale methane reformer technologies	J.Ogden	[22, 26]
*1995- present	Studies of CO2 sequestration	R. Williams, R. Socolow, J. Ogden	[28, 36, 37, 39, 40, 41, 42, 44, 45]
*1996-present	Comparison of hydrogen, methanol and gasoline as fuels for fuel cell vehicles	J. Ogden, T. Kreutz, M. Steinbugler	[24, 25, 31, 38]
*1996-present	Models of onboard fuel processors for fuel cell vehicles	T. Kreutz, J. Ogden, S. Kartha	[25, 31, 32]
*1998-present	Novel methods for producing hydrogen from coal	R. Williams	[42, 45]

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Table 1b. Industrial, Government and Academic Contacts

INDUSTRY**Industrial Gas Suppliers**

Air Products and Chemicals,
Praxair
BOC Gases
MG Gases

Reformer Manufacturers

Howe-Baker Engineering
Hydrochem
Haldor-Topsoe
KTI
Hydrogen Burner

Technology

Electric and Gas Utilities

Public Service Gas
&Elec., Jersey Central Power
&Light, Atlantic Electric
Company, Rockland Electric,
New Jersey Natural Gas,
South Jersey Gas, and
Elizabethtown Gas,
Consolidated Edison, New
York Power Authority,
Brooklyn Union Gas, Lilco

Fuel Cell Developers

Ballard Power Systems
International Fuel Cells
Energy Partners
H-Power

Oil Companies

Exxon
Mobil

Electrolysis Manufacturers

Electrolyser, Inc.
Teledyne

Automotive Companies

Ford
GM
Chrysler
Daimler-Benz
Toyota
Mazda

Engineering/Research Co.

Directed Technologies, Inc.
Arthur D. Little
Xerox/Clean Air Now Project
Gas Research Institute
Glyn Short (consultant)

GOVERNMENT**National Laboratories**

National Renewable Energy
Laboratory
Lawrence Livermore National
Laboratories
Los Alamos National Laboratories
Argonne National Laboratories
Sandia National Laboratories
Oak Ridge National Laboratories

US Department of Energy**South Coast Air Quality
Management District****California Air Resources Board****Los Angeles Metropolitan Transit
Authority****New Jersey Department of
Environmental Protection****New Jersey Department of
Transportation****New Jersey Board of Public
Utilities, Energy Department****New Jersey Transit****NYSERDA****Northeast Alternative Vehicle
Consortium****Federal Highway Administration****ACADEMIC INSTITUTIONS**

University of California at Davis
University of California at Riverside
University of Michigan
TexasA&M
Humboldt State University
Georgetown University
MIT

Table 0. CONVERSION FACTORS AND ECONOMIC ASSUMPTIONS

1 GJ (Gigajoule) = 10^9 Joules = 0.95 Million BTU

1 EJ (Exajoule) = 10^{18} Joules = 0.95 Quadrillion (10^{15}) BTUs

1 million standard cubic feet (scf)

= 26,850 Normal cubic meters (m_N^3)

= 343 GJ (HHV)

1 million scf/day = 2.66 tons/day

= 3.97 MW H_2 (based on the HHV of hydrogen)

1 scf H_2 = 343 kJ (HHV) = 325 BTU (HHV);

1 lb H_2 = 64.4 MJ (HHV) = 61.4 kBTU (HHV)=187.8 scf

1 m_N^3 = 12.8 MJ (HHV);

1 kg H_2 =141.9 MJ (HHV) = 414 scf

\$1/kg H_2 = \$7.05/GJ (HHV)

1 gallon gasoline = 130.8 MJ (HHV);

\$1/gallon gasoline = \$7.67/GJ (HHV)

All costs are given in constant \$1993.

Capital recovery factor for hydrogen production systems, distribution systems and refueling stations = 15%

Table 2. Vehicle Data for New York and New Jersey

TOTAL MOTOR VEHICLE REGISTRATIONS (thousands of vehicles)

	New York	New Jersey
Passenger Cars	7910	4600
Light Trucks	1960	1010
Heavy Trucks	15	21
Commercial Buses	13	5.2
TOTAL	10,274	5910

Source: Motor Vehicle Facts and Figures 1997, American Automobile Manufacturers Association

TRANSIT BUSES

	New York City	New Jersey
Number of Buses	3600	1900
Miles travelled/yr (ave.)	25,000	41,000
Fraction centrally refueled	100%	>90%
# Buses/garage	80-200	80-200
Equiv. fuel economy	3.5 mpg	5.3 mpg

LIGHT DUTY VEHICLES

	New York City	New Jersey
Motor gasoline consumed/yr (billion gallons/y) (trillion BTU/y)	0.95 120	3.2 403
Vehicle miles travelled/yr (billions veh.mi/y)	19	64
Average fuel economy (miles per gallon gasoline)	20	20

FLEET VEHICLES 1997

	New York	New Jersey
Total # Fleets 10+ vehicles	6555	3843
Fleet Autos (% total auto)	224,002 (2.8%)	136,624 (3.0%)
Fleet Trucks Class 1-5 (% tot lt.truck)	265,901 (13.5%)	153,846 (15.1%)
All Fleet Vehicles (incl. Heavy Trucks, Buses) (%all vehicle)	669,401 (6.6%)	407,983 (6.9%)

Source: Motor Vehicle Facts and Figures 1997,
American Automobile Manufacturers Association

Average fleet LDV in US travels about twice as far as average LDV, so fleets use proportionally more energy.

Table 3. Data for Fleet Vehicles

Vehicle Type	% Centrally Refueled
Transit Bus	97%
School Bus	93%
Heavy Delivery Truck	65%
Service Truck	44%
Taxi/Limo	36%
Large Business, Utility or Government fleets	75-80%

For non-transit fleets, average size = 200, median = 33
=> many small fleets, a few very large ones

Table 4. Assumed Characteristics Of Hydrogen Fuel Cell Vehicles

	PEMFC Bus		PEMFC Car
	NYC	NJ	
Miles/yr	25,000	41,000	11,000
Fuel economy (mpeg)	7 mpeg		106 mpeg
Fuel Storage	H2 gas @ 3600 psi		H2 gas @ 5000 psi
H2 Stored onboard	13,000 scf		1550 scf (3.75 kg)
Range (mi)	250		425
Energy use/yr (GJ/yr)	524	859	13.7
Ave. H2 use/day (scf H2/day)	4196	6880	112

Table 5a. Assumed Energy Prices in New York City

Application	Annual Average Electricity Cost (\$/kWh)
Onsite Reforming Station	8.3 cents/kWh
Pipeline Hydrogen Station	
LH2 Station	
Onsite Electrolysis Station (customers in the 0.4-8.0 MW range)	4.7 cents/kWh 3.5 cents/kWh
Continuous Operation	
Off-peak Operation	

Source: Consolidated Edison of New York

Natural Gas Price to Onsite Reforming Station	
General service	\$4.3/GJ (1 million scf H2/d) \$4.4/GJ (0.1 million scf H2/d)
High load factor service	\$2.3/GJ (1 million scf H2/d) \$3.5/GJ (0.1 million scf H2/d)

This is the price of natural gas delivered to a commercial or industrial customer for non-heating loads. Two gas rate schedules are shown one for “general service” and one for high load factor customers (constant demand for gas), and two levels of gas demand: for onsite SMR hydrogen refueling stations dispensing 0.1 and 1.0 million scf H2/d.

Source: Brooklyn Union Gas

Table 5b. Assumed Energy Prices in New Jersey

Application	Annual Average Electricity Cost (\$/kWh)
Onsite Reforming Station	9.5 cents/kWh
Pipeline Hydrogen Station	
LH2 Station	
Onsite Electrolysis Station	9.5 cents/kWh 7.1 cents/kWh
Continuous Operation	
Off-peak Operation	

Natural Gas Price	\$4.9/GJ
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Source: Public Service Gas and Electric, Newark, NJ

Table 6. Hydrogen Demand: Scales Of Interest

DEMAND	H ₂ FLOW (GJ/day)
1 fuel cell car	0.037
1 fuel cell bus	2.4
10 fuel cell buses	24
100 fuel cell buses	240
1% of cars in LA Basin (c. 2010)	3330
All buses in LA	8770
H2 Production at Large Refinery	34,300
10% of cars in LA Basin	33,300
100% of cars in LA Basin	333,000
Energy Flow = NG Flow in LA Basin	3,000,000

Table 7 . Cost of CO₂ Separation During H₂ Production Via Large Scale SMR

Hydrogen Production	80 million scf/day 193 tonnes/day 27,440 GJ/day HHV
CO ₂ Production	850 ton/day (771 tonnes/day) 0.17 scf CO ₂ /scf H ₂ 3.80 kg CO ₂ /kg H ₂
CO ₂ Purity	95%
CO ₂ pressure	1 atm
Power required for VSA Compressor	3400 kW
Equipment Cost of PSA only	\$4-4.5 million
Equipment Cost of VSA only, including compressor	\$6-6.6 million
Added factor for freight, taxes, installation	15%
Owner's costs and engineering	25%
Total installed capital cost for PSA only (no CO ₂ recovery) ^a	\$5.6-6.3 million
Total installed capital cost for PSA + VSA (CO ₂ recovery)	\$14-15.5 million
Incremental installed capital cost for CO ₂ recovery	\$8.4-9.2 million
Incremental Levelized Hydrogen Production Cost for CO₂ Separation^b	
Incremental Capital Cost for VSA	\$0.12-0.13/GJ HHV H ₂ \$0.017-0.019/kg H ₂
Cost for VSA Compressor Power @ 6 cents/kWh	\$0.17/GJ HHV 0.024/kg H ₂
Total Incremental Cost for CO ₂ Separation in PSA	\$0.29-0.30/GJ HHV \$0.041-0.043/kg H ₂
Typical Hydrogen Production Cost in Large SMR	\$5-6/GJ H ₂ , depending on NG price

Source: Bob Moore, Air Products, private communications, May 1997.

a. The total capital cost was obtained by multiplying the equipment cost by 1.40 to account for taxes, freight, installation, owner's costs and engineering.

b. Levelized costs were obtained assuming an annual capital charge factor of 15%.

Table 8. H₂ DEMAND AND CO₂ PRODUCTION VIA SMR

DEMAND	H₂ FLOW (million scf/day)	CO₂ Produced via SMR (million tonnes/yr)
1 fuel cell car	0.000108	5.3×10^{-7}
1 fuel cell bus	0.0071	3.5×10^{-5}
10 fuel cell buses	0.071	3.5×10^{-4}
100 fuel cell buses	0.71	3.5×10^{-3}
1% of cars in LA Basin (c. 2010)	9.7	0.048
All buses in LA	25.6	0.125
H ₂ Production at Large Ref	100	0.49
10% of cars in LA Basin	97.2	0.48
100% of cars in LA Basin	972	4.8
NG Energy Flow in LA Basin	8605	42

For the hydrogen plant design in Figure 13 (Katofsky 1993)

Table 9. Cost of CO2 Sequestration vs. Hydrogen Demand

Hydrogen Demand	1 million scf H2/day	10 million scf H2/d	100 million scf H2/d	1000 million scf H2/d
H2 End-Use	9000 H2 fuel cell cars	90000 H2 fuel cell cars or 1400 H2 fuel cell buses	10% of cars in LA Basin, if H2 fuel cell cars	100% of cars in LA Basin, if H2 fuel cell cars
H2 Supply	Onsite SMR	10 Onsite SMRS	100 million scf H2/d central SMR plant	Ten 100 million scf H2/d central SMR plants
Assoc. CO2 Production	13.3 tonnes CO2/d	133 tonnes CO2/d	1330 tonnes CO2/d	13,300 tonnes CO2/d
Cost of CO2 Separation (\$/GJ H2)	2.5	2.5	0.46	0.46
Cost of CO2 Compression (\$/GJ H2)	included above	included above	0.19	0.19
CO2 Collection System (\$/GJ H2)	n.a.	5	n.a.	0.1
Cost of 300 km CO2 pipeline (\$/GJ H2)	80	8	1	0.3
# Injection wells (at up to 3400 tonnes CO2/d per well)	1	1	1	4
CO2 Injection and Storage in Aquifer	15	1.5	0.15	0.04
TOTAL COST OF SEQUESTR. (\$/GJ H2) (\$/tonne CO2)	98 2530	17 439	1.80 47	1.09 28

FY'99 SUMMARY TABLE

Task Title: Hydrogen Energy Systems Studies; Task 1: Development of Hydrogen Vehicle Refueling Infrastructure in New York City/New Jersey area; Task 2: Implications of CO2 Sequestration for Hydrogen Energy Systems	Contractor: Princeton University	Principal Investigator: Dr. Joan M. Ogden
Objective: Generally, the goal of our work is to illuminate possible pathways leading from present hydrogen markets and technologies toward wide scale use of hydrogen as an energy carrier, highlighting important technologies for RD&D. In particular, the goals of this work are: Task 1: <u>Hydrogen infrastructure in NY/NJ area</u>: to provide useful data and suggest possible implementation strategies as the Hydrogen Program plans demonstrations of hydrogen vehicles and refueling infrastructure. Task 2: <u>Hydrogen Energy systems and CO2 sequestration</u>: to study the implications of CO2 sequestration for future low CO2 emitting hydrogen energy systems based on fossil fuels		
Approach/Rationale: Since 1986, researchers at Princeton University's Center for Energy and Environmental Studies have carried out technical and economic assessments of hydrogen energy systems. Our approach has been to assess the entire hydrogen energy system from production through end-use from several perspectives (fuel producer, consumer, society) considering technical performance, economics (e.g. capital cost, delivered hydrogen cost, cost of energy services), infrastructure, environmental and resource issues.		
Analytic Methods/Assumptions: Where necessary, engineering models of hydrogen production and distribution systems and CO2 sequestration technologies have been developed. The levelized cost of hydrogen production, delivered hydrogen cost and lifecycle costs of transportation are estimated using standard microeconomic techniques.		
Data Sources: A large number of industry, government and academic sources have provided the data needed for our systems studies (see description in text and in Table 2 of attached synopsis for a partial list of data sources.)		
Key Results: <u>Task 1: Study of H2 infrastructure in New York City/New Jersey area.</u> * If hydrogen fuel cell vehicles were widely adopted, there would be a significant demand for hydrogen. If all NJ buses were converted to H2 FCVs, demand would be about 30 million scf H2/day. If all of NJ light duty vehicles were converted to H2 FCVs, the demand would be about 1000 million scf H2/day. In New York City, the total demand for H2 FC buses would be 20 million scf/day, and for all light duty vehicles 250 million scf/day. * There are a variety of near term potential supplies for hydrogen in the NYC/NJ area including: truck delivered merchant hydrogen, byproduct hydrogen from chemical plants and refineries, hydrogen from natural gas, electrolytic hydrogen from off-peak power. In the longer term, hydrogen might be produced from municipal solid waste gasification, a resource which could supply all the bus fuel and a significant fraction of the light duty vehicle fuel needed in NYC/NJ. <u>Task 2: Implications of CO2 Sequestration for Hydrogen Energy Systems</u> *Engineering/economic models of pipeline transmission for hydrogen, methane and CO2 have been developed. *There are strong scale economies in gaseous pipeline transmission, hydrogen production, CO2 separation and CO2 injection which influence the design of a hydrogen energy system with CO2 sequestration. *Because of CO2 pipeline scale economies, a large flow of CO2 would be needed to reach low transmission costs, unless sequestration could be done near the site of hydrogen production. Large CO2 flows imply a large geographically concentrated demand for the co-produced hydrogen would be required, before CO2 sequestration could be done at low cost. The required hydrogen energy demand would be equivalent to the fuel required for 10%-100% of the cars in the LA Basin (assuming hydrogen fuel cell cars were used). *It is not economically or technically attractive to collect CO2 from many small dispersed sources. CO2 sequestration favors large, centralized hydrogen production with local hydrogen pipeline distribution to users. *In the near term, large scale production of hydrogen via steam methane reforming (e.g. in oil refineries or chemical plants) might produce enough byproduct CO2, for CO2 sequestration to be considered, if a sequestration site is near enough.		

Task Title: Hydrogen Energy Systems Studies: Task 1: Development of Hydrogen Vehicle Refueling Infrastructure in New York City/New Jersey area; Task 2: Implications of CO2 Sequestration for Hydrogen Energy Systems	Contractor: Princeton University	Principal Investigator: Dr. Joan M. Ogden
Sensitivity of Key Results to Data, Methodology and Assumptions: Sensitivity studies are included as an important part of our technology assessments. For example, our results on hydrogen production with CO2 sequestration look at the effects of system scale.		
Plans for Future Work: * Assessment of PEM fuel cells for residential cogeneration * Assessment of costs for maintaining/developing new gasoline infrastructure		
Publications/Awards: Recent Publications (Jan. 1998- present) Include: J. Ogden, "Hydrogen Energy Systems and CO2 Sequestration, " presentation at the 9th National Hydrogen Association Meeting, Arlington, VA, March 3-5, 1998 J. Ogden, "Refueling Infrastructure," invited panel presentation, Proceedings of the SAE TOPTEC on Fuel Cell Vehicles, March 17-19, 1998, Cambridge, MA. J. Ogden, M. Steinbugler, T. Kreutz, "Hydrogen Energy System Studies," Proceedings of the USDOE Hydrogen Program Review Meeting, Alexandria, VA, April 28-30, 1998. J. Ogden, "A Technical and Economic Assessment of Hydrogen Energy Systems with CO2 Sequestration," presented at the 12th World Hydrogen Energy Conference, Buenos Aires, Argentina, June 21-June 26, 1998. J. Ogden, "Developing a Refueling Infrastructure for Hydrogen Vehicles: A Southern California Case Study," accepted for publication September 1998, to appear in International Journal of Hydrogen Energy, 1999. J. Ogden, "Hydrogen: A Low Polluting Energy Carrier for the Next Century," Pollution Prevention Review, vol. 8, No. 4, Autumn 1998. J. Ogden, T. Kreutz, and M. Steinbugler, "Fuels for fuel cell vehicles: vehicle design and infrastructure issues," Society of Automotive Engineers Technical paper No. 982500, October 1998. J. Ogden, M. Steinbugler and T. Kreutz, "A Comparison of Hydrogen, Methanol and Gasoline as Fuels for Fuel Cell Vehicles," accepted for publication November 1998, to appear in Journal of Power Sources, 1999. T. Kreutz and J. Ogden, "Transient Effects in Fuel Cell Vehicles with Onboard Fuel Processors," Proceedings of the 1998 Fuel Cell Seminar, Palm Springs, CA, November 16-18, 1998. J. Ogden, "Hydrogen," article in the Oxford Encyclopedia of Global Change, accepted for publication December 1998, to appear in 1999. J. Ogden, "Strategies for Developing Low-Emission Hydrogen Energy Systems: Implications of CO2 Sequestration," to appear in the Proceedings of the 10th National Hydrogen Association Meeting, Arlington, VA, April 7-9, 1999.		
Students Associated With the Program: Bruce Lin M.S. candidate, Department of Mechanical and Aerospace Engineering, Princeton University; Sarah Edwards '00 (B.S. MAE), Anastacia Rohrman '99 (B.S. MAE) Princeton University, Carin Lundquist '99 (B.S. MAE), Princeton University		
Industry Sources: Our work uses data obtained from a variety of industry sources (see Table 2). Companies we have contacted include: Air Products and Chemicals, Inc., Praxair, BOC, Public Service Gas and Electric, Jersey Central Power & Light, Atlantic Electric Company, Rockland Electric, New Jersey Natural Gas, South Jersey Gas, Elizabethtown Gas, Consolidated Edison, New York Power Authority, Brooklyn Union Gas, Exxon, Mobil, Electrolyser, Inc., Teledyne, American Automobile Manufacturers' Association, Directed Technologies, Inc, Arthur D. Little		

Figure 1.
POTENTIAL NEAR TERM H2 DEMANDS
AND SUPPLIES IN NEW JERSEY

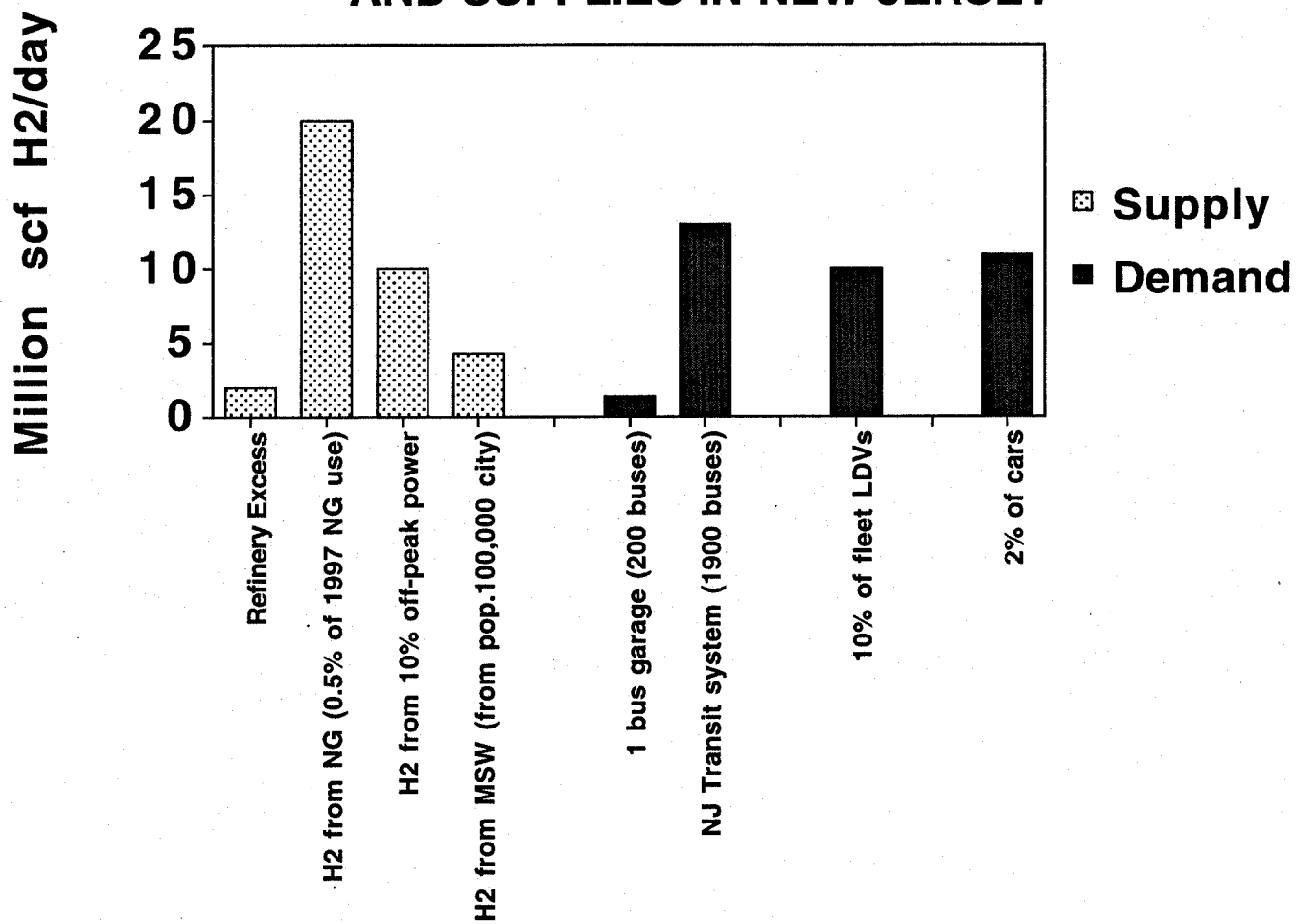


Figure 2.
POTENTIAL LONG TERM H2 DEMANDS
AND SUPPLIES IN NEW JERSEY

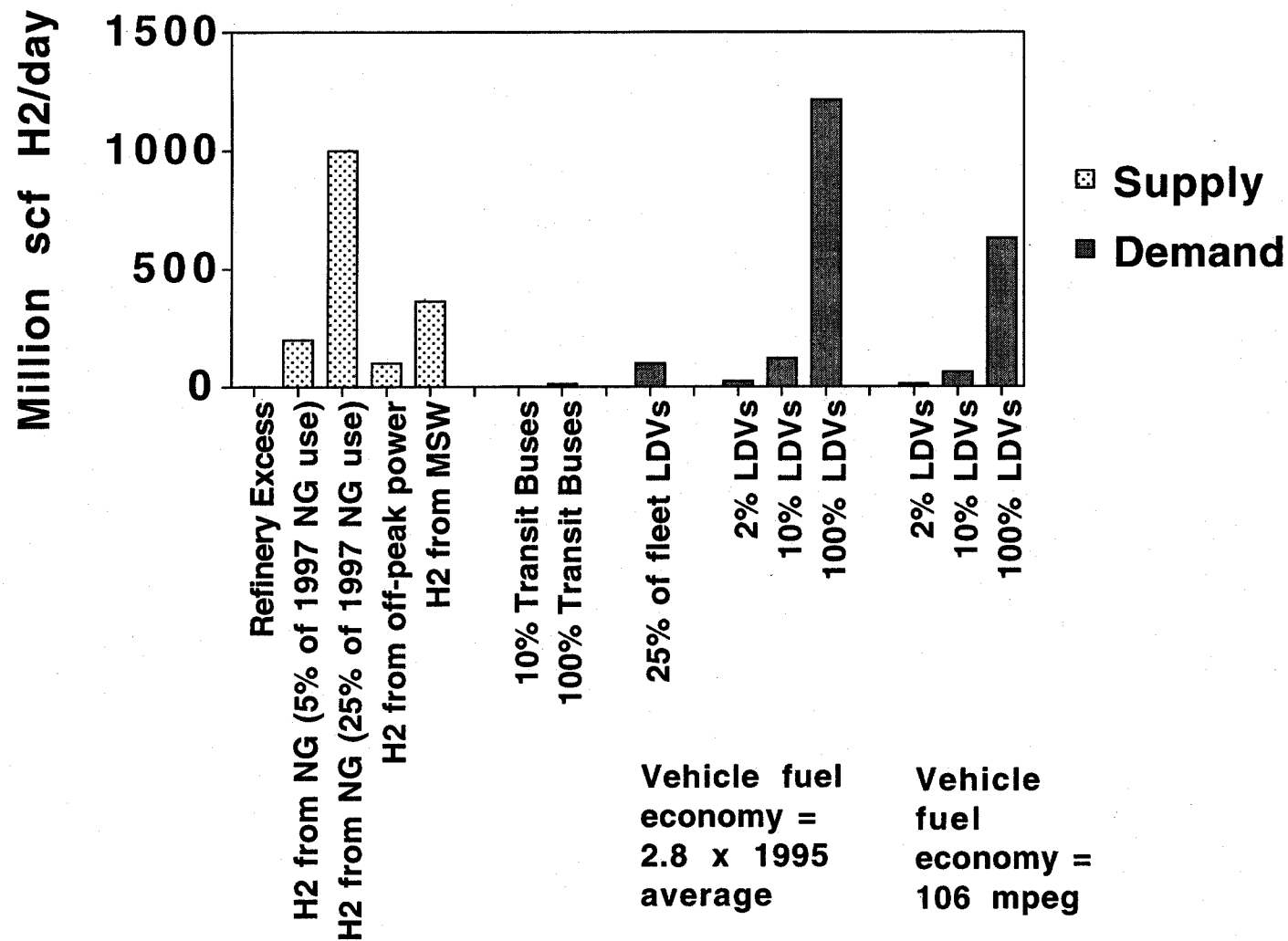
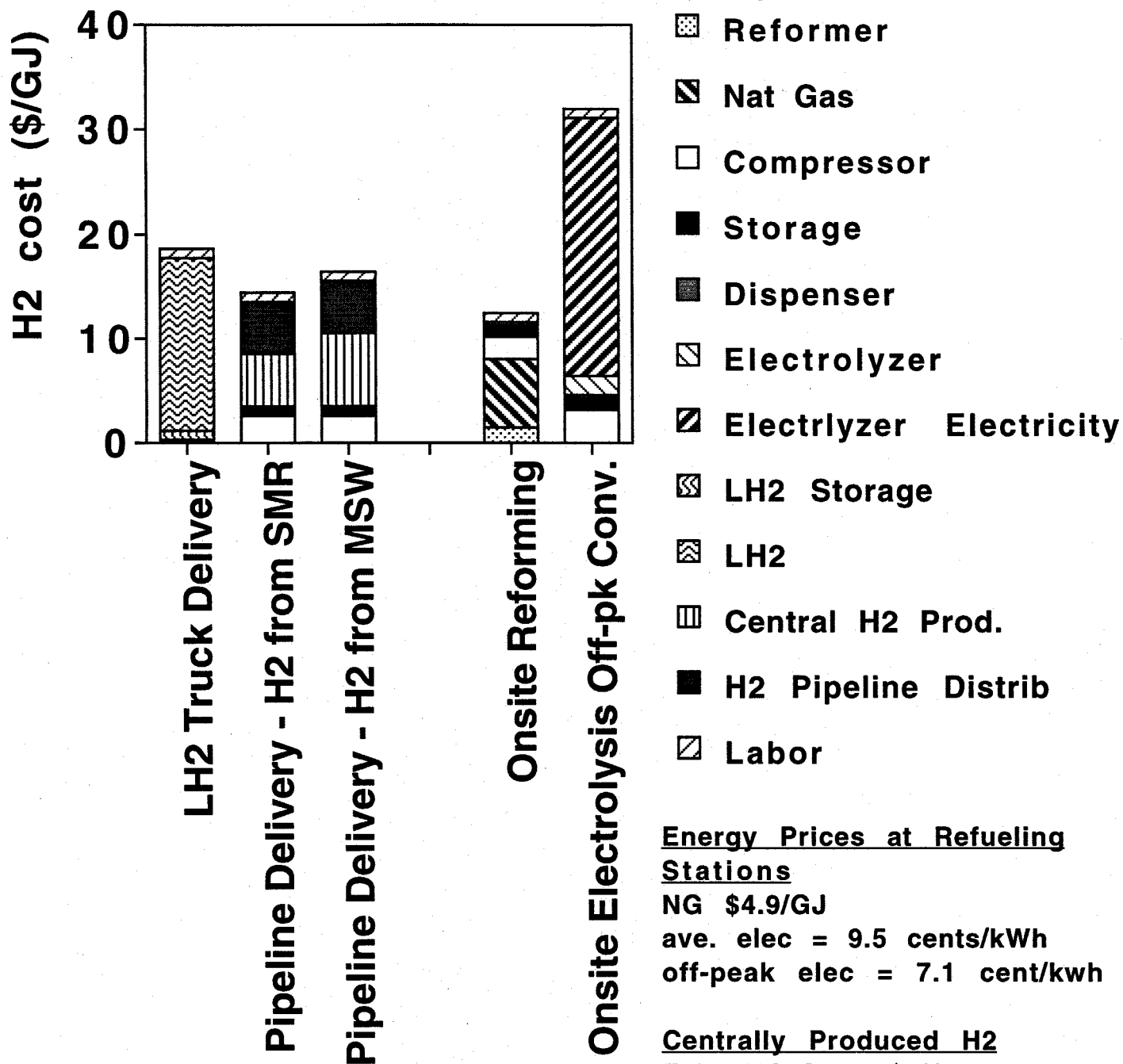


Figure 3.
Delivered Cost of H2 Transportation
Fuel (\$/GJ): NJ Energy Prices



Energy Prices at Refueling Stations

NG \$4.9/GJ

ave. elec = 9.5 cents/kWh

off-peak elec = 7.1 cent/kwh

Centrally Produced H2

From NG SMR \$5/GJ

From MSW Gasif. \$7/GJ

(based on \$50/ton MSW tip fee)

Central H2 Production
w/H2 Distribution

Onsite H2
Production

Figure 4.
Production of H₂ from Hydrocarbons
w/CO₂ Sequestration

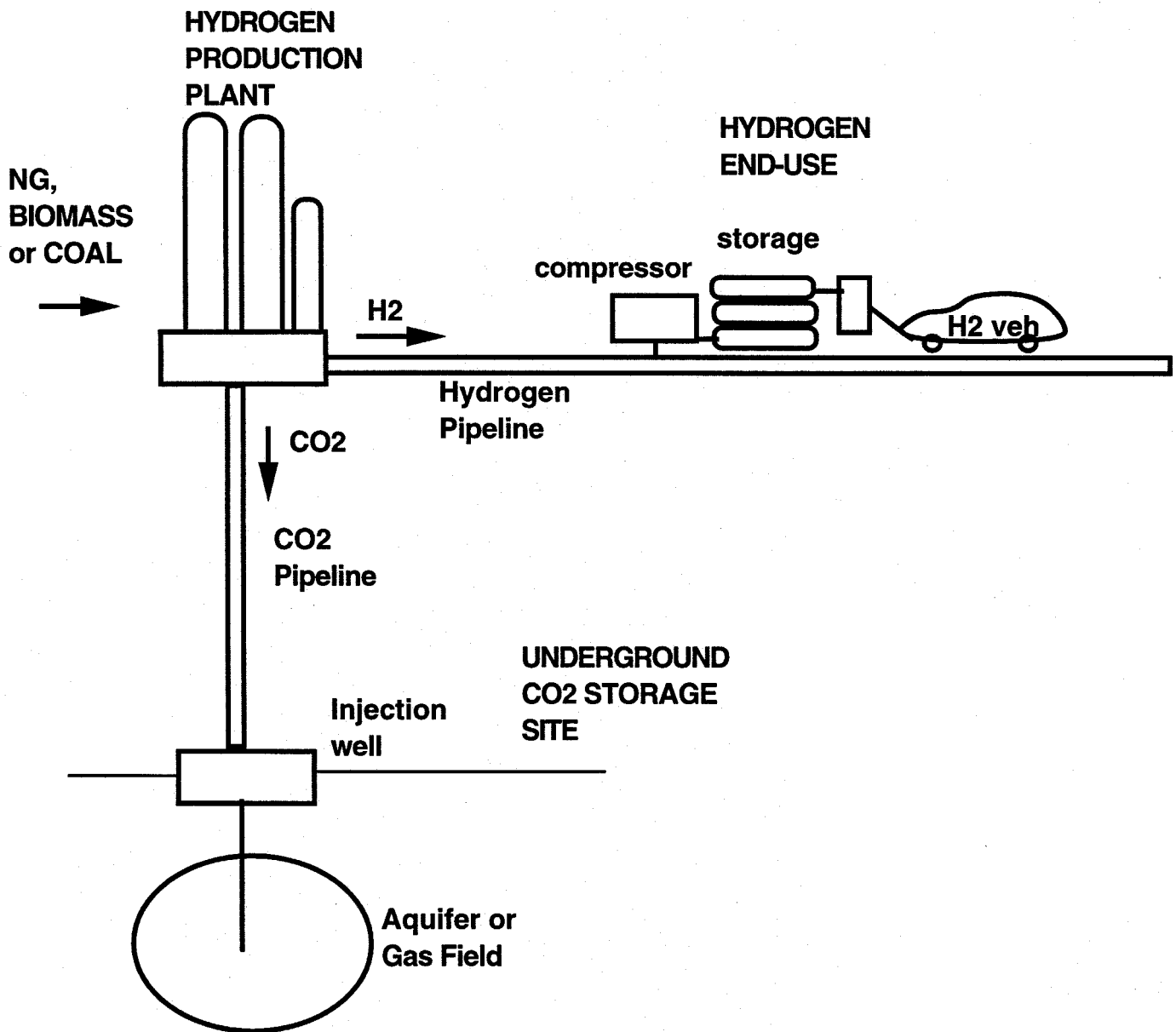


Figure 5. Various Options for Making Hydrogen from Natural Gas with CO2 Sequestration

QUESTIONS:

Where do you make hydrogen?

When does it make sense to sequester CO2?

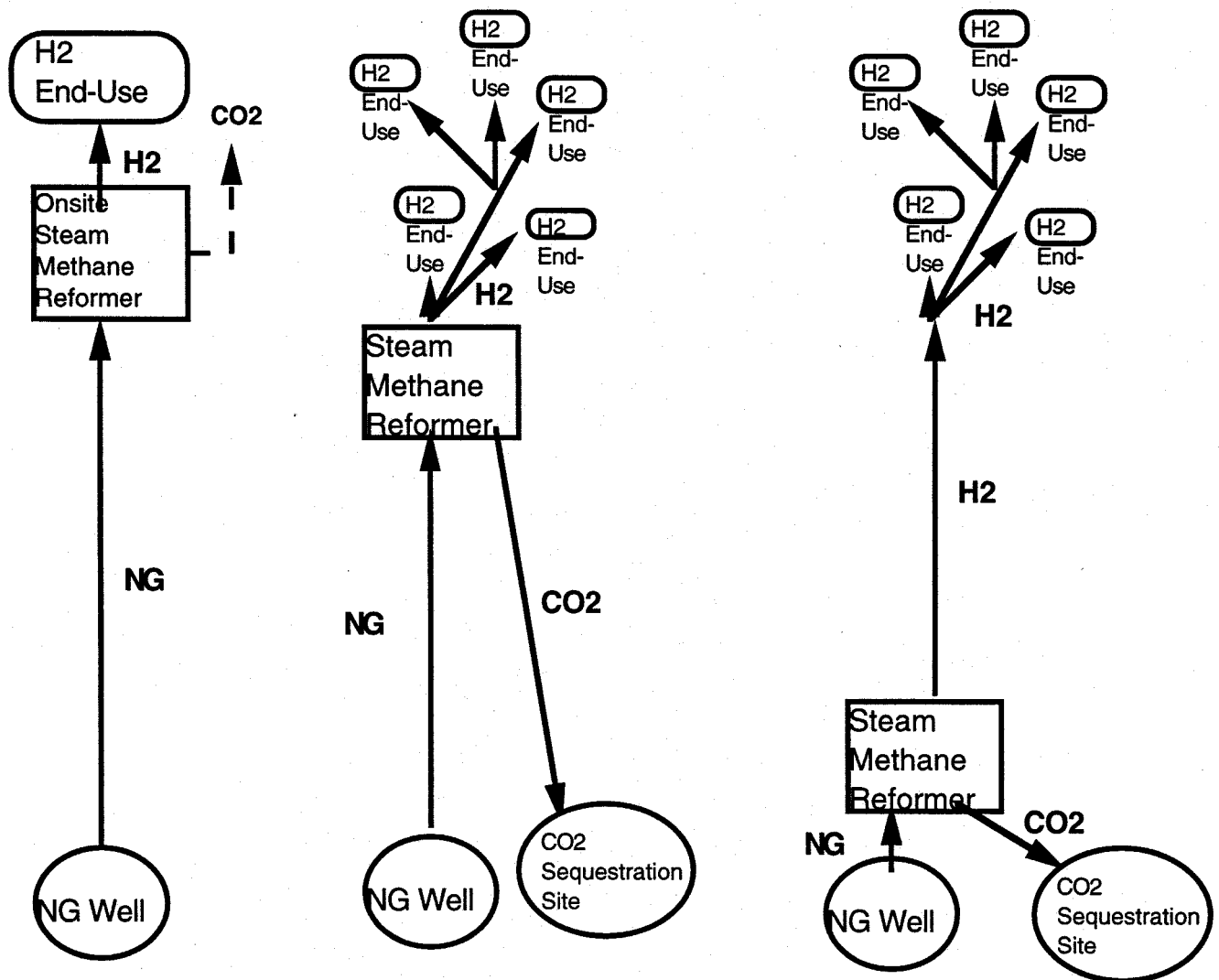
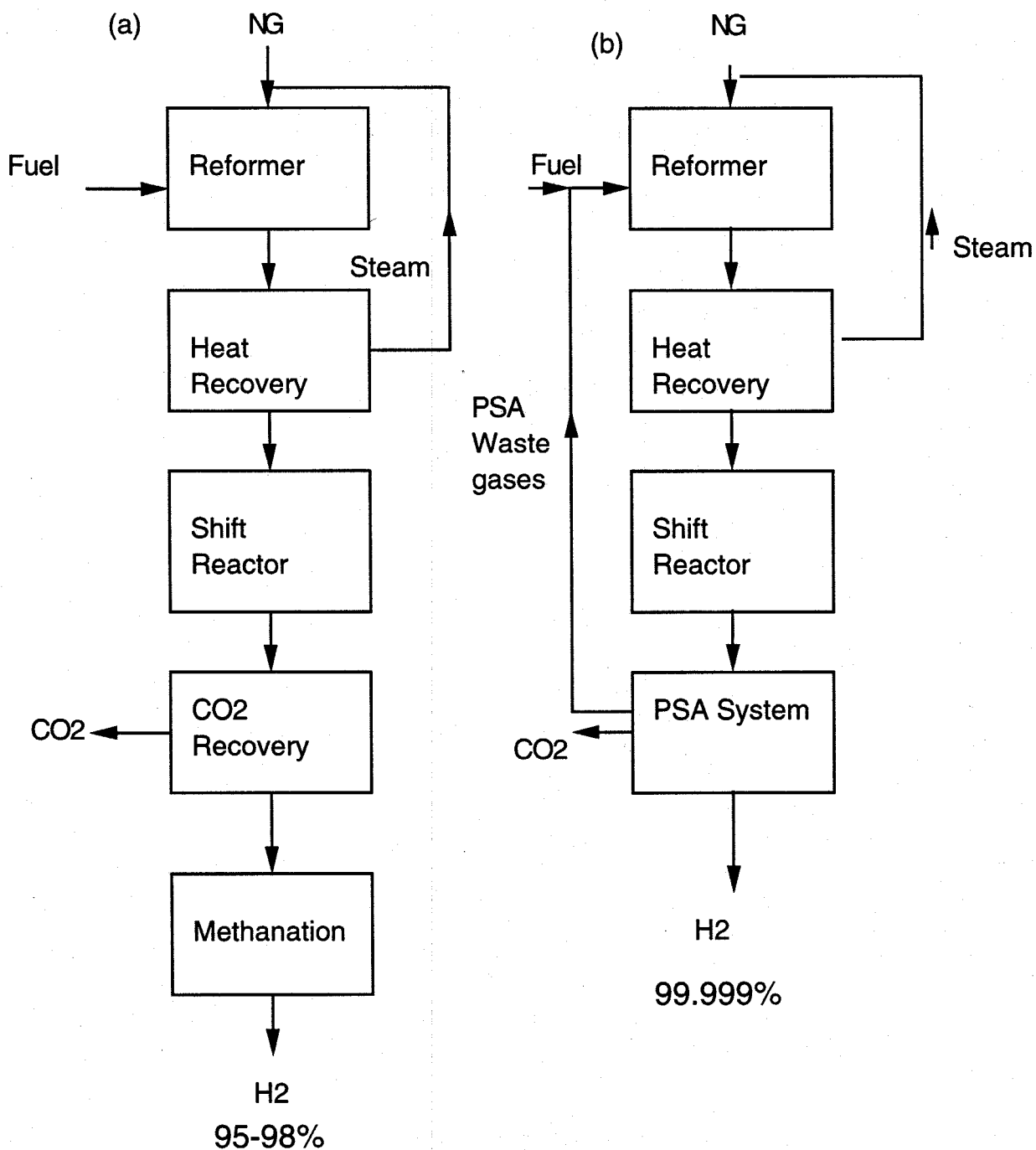


FIGURE 6. Alternative Configurations for Producing Hydrogen and CO₂ from Natural Gas via Steam Methane Reforming:

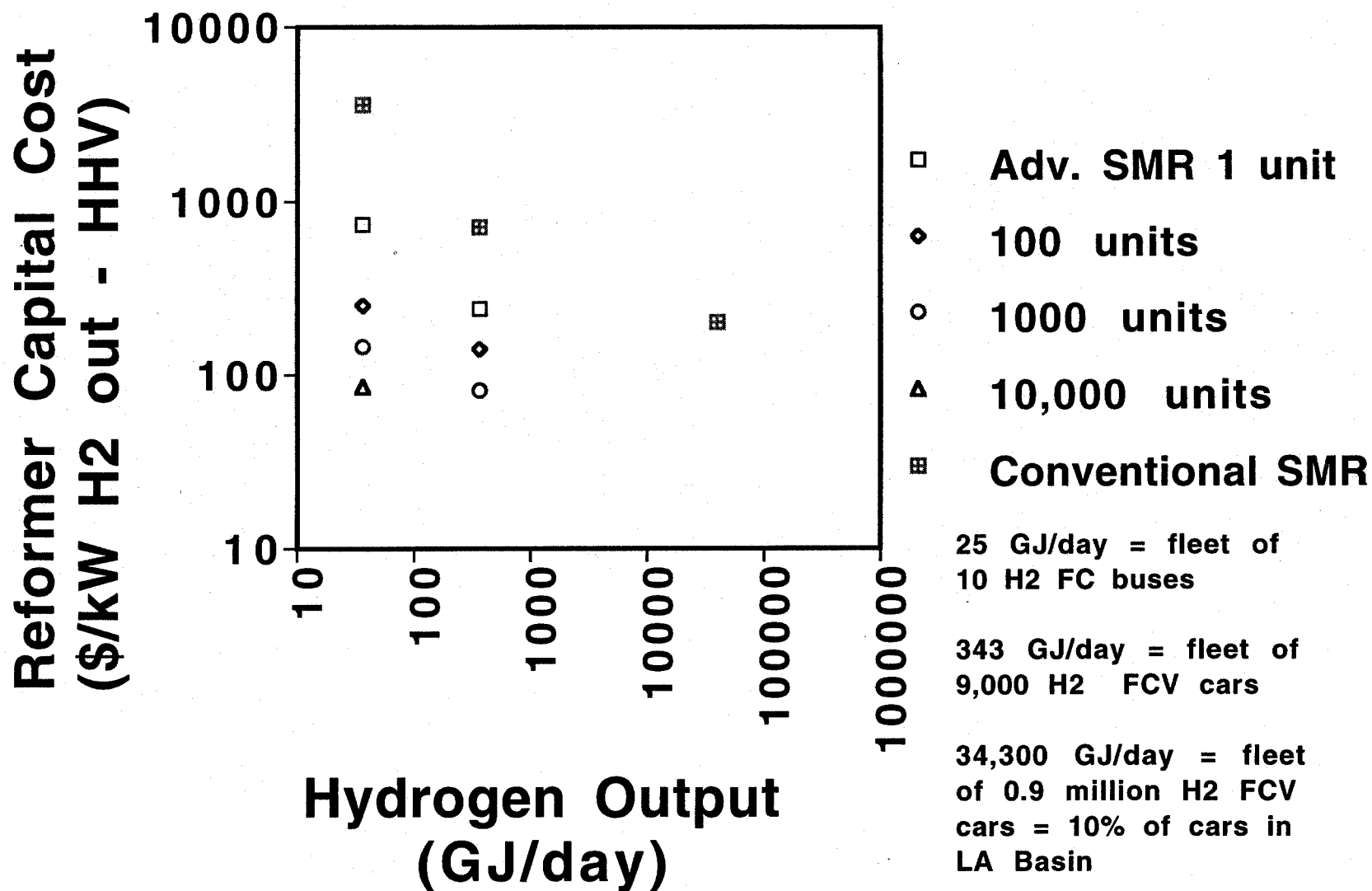
a) with Chemical or Physical Absorption

b) with a Pressure Swing Adsorption System



Adapted from Steinberg and Cheng 1988

Figure 7. Capital Cost of Conventional and Advanced Small Steam Methane Reformers vs. H₂ Output Capacity for Various Levels of Mass Production



**Figure 8. Hydrogen Production Cost in
Small vs. Large Steam Methane
Reformers (\$/GJ)**

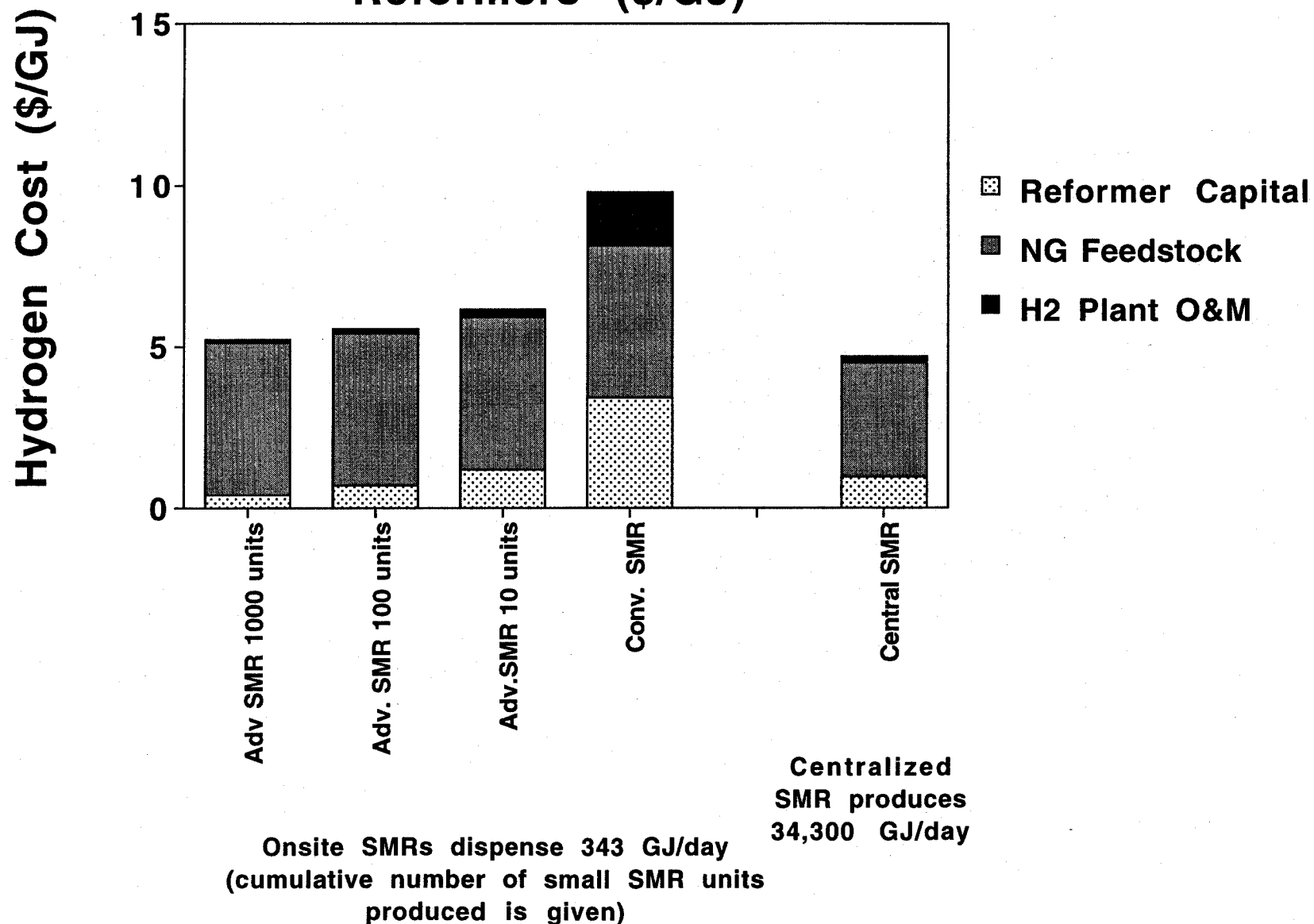
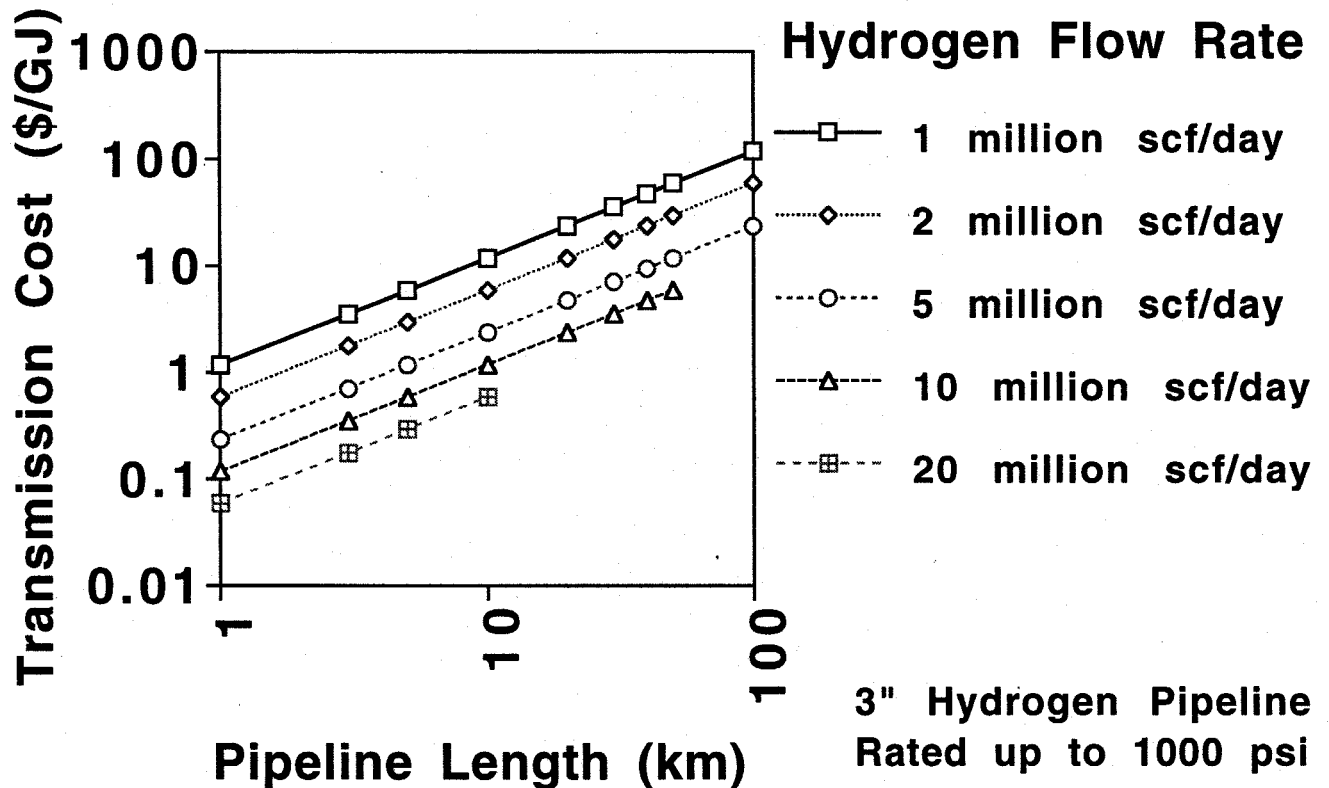


Figure 9. Levelized Cost of Hydrogen Pipeline Transmission vs. Pipeline Length and Flow Rate

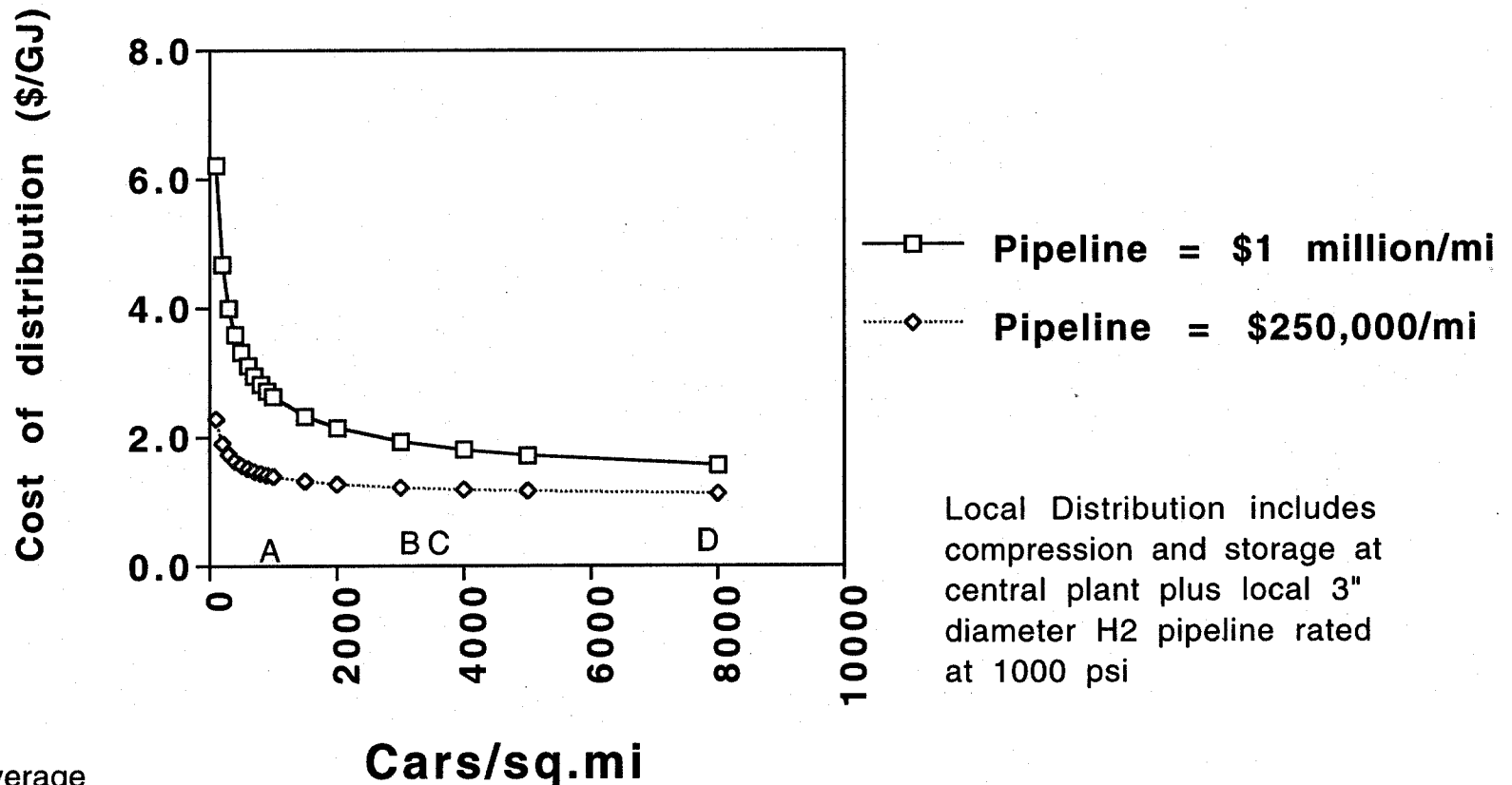


Pipeline cost =
\$1 million/mile

Inlet Pressure = 1000 psia
Outlet Pressure > 200 psia

1 million scf/day serves a fleet of 9200 Fuel Cell Cars
or 140 Fuel Cell Buses

**Figure 10. Levelized Cost of Local
Distribution of Hydrogen Transportation
Fuel vs. Density of Cars**



- A = NJ average
- B = Downtown Denver
- C = Downtown Los Angeles
- D = Downtown Newark, NJ

Radial spoke distribution pattern from central plant producing 100 million scf H₂/day. Ten spokes, 10 refueling stations on each spoke. Central compression to 1000 psi and 1/2 day's storage

**Figure 11. Delivered Cost of Hydrogen
Transportation Fuel: Onsite vs.
Centralized Production in SMRs**

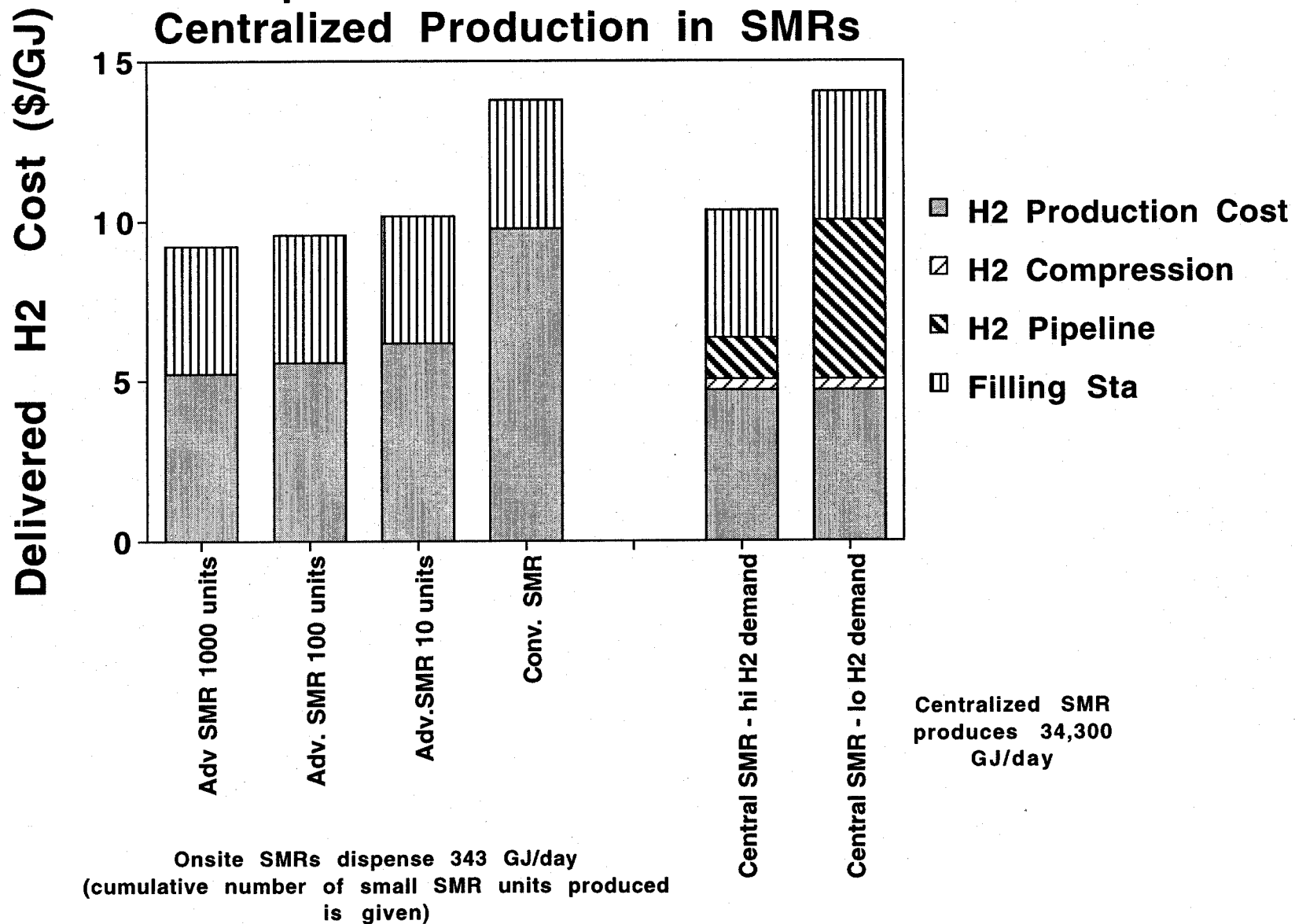
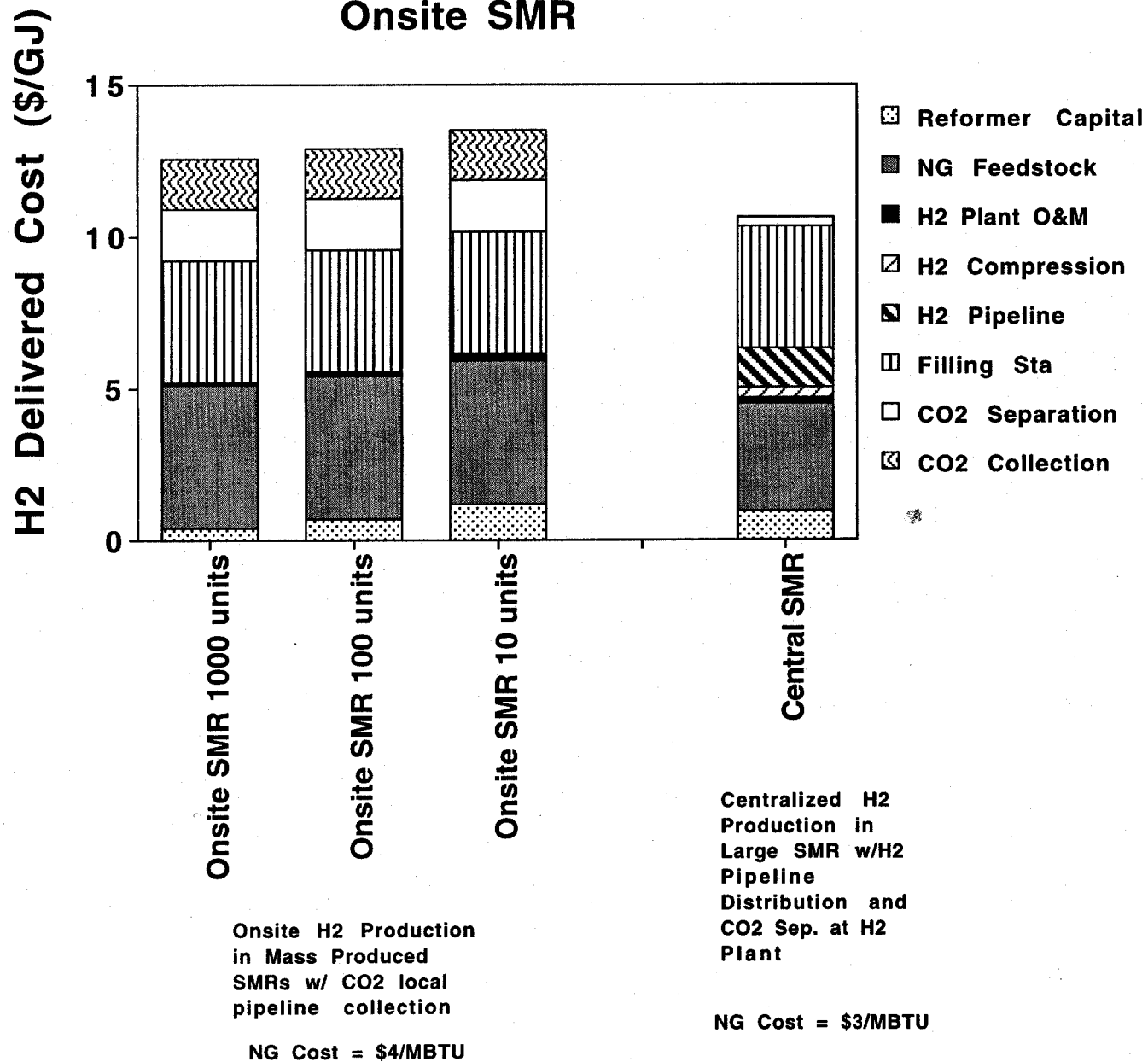
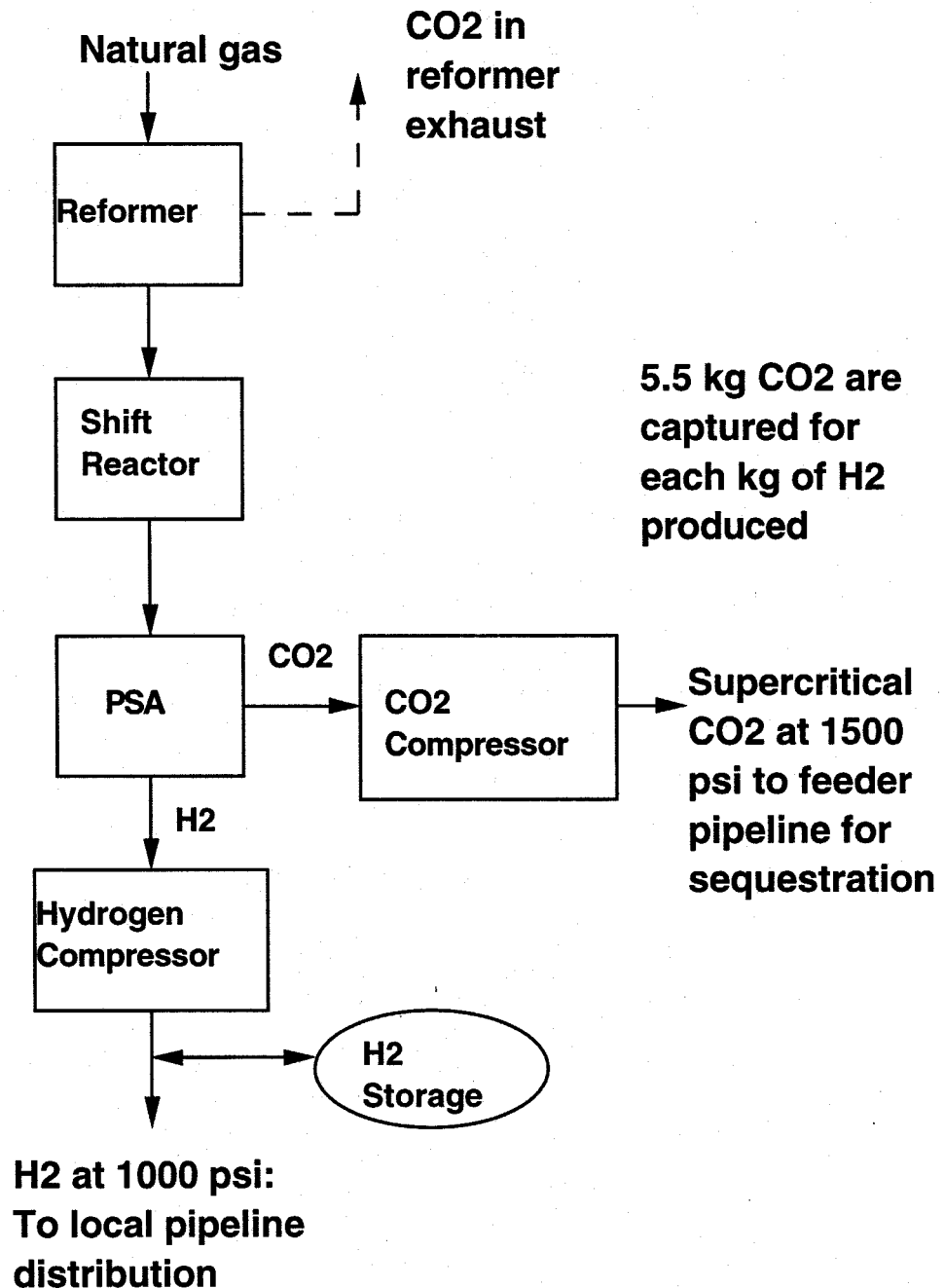


Figure 12. Delivered H2 Cost with CO2 Separation and Collection Central vs. Onsite SMR

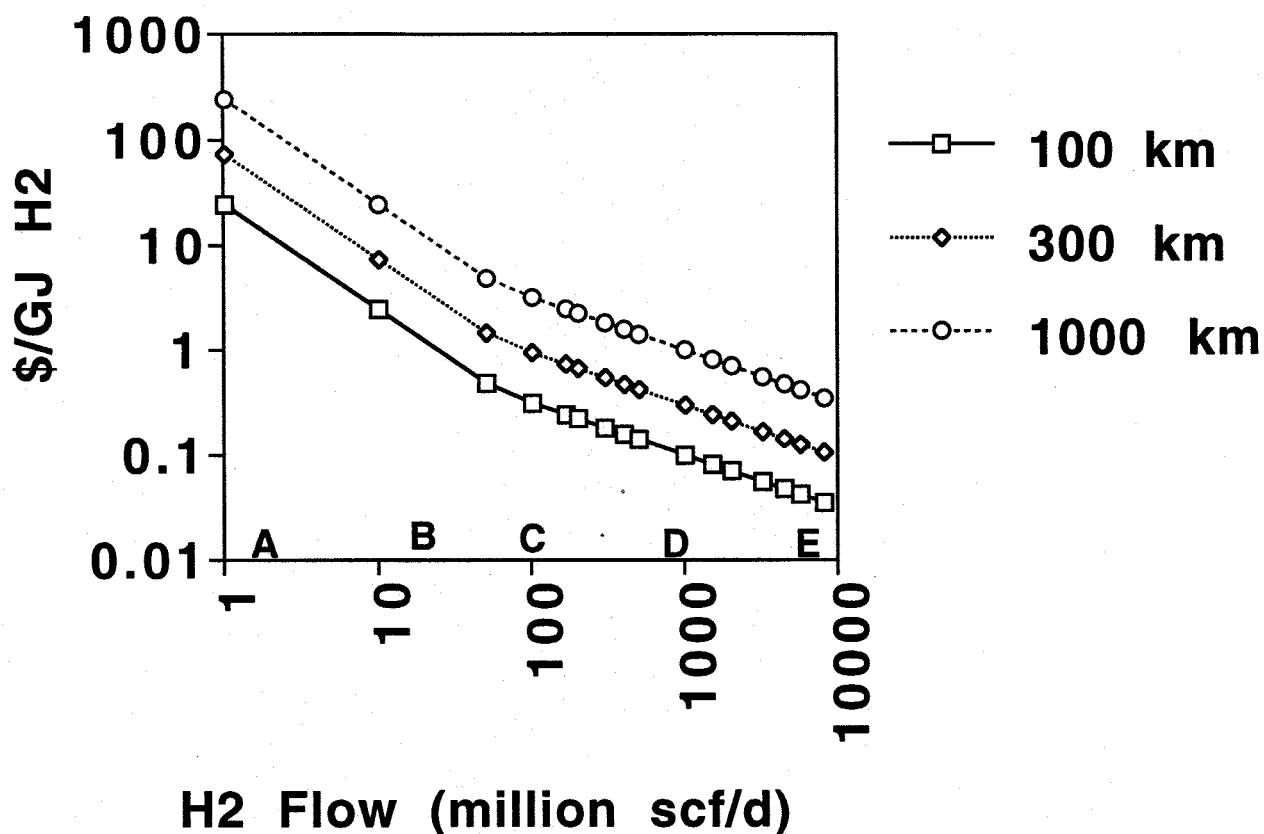


**Figure 13. PRODUCTION OF HYDROGEN
VIA STEAM REFORMING OF NATURAL
GAS WITH SEPARATION AND
COMPRESSION OF CO₂ BYPRODUCT**



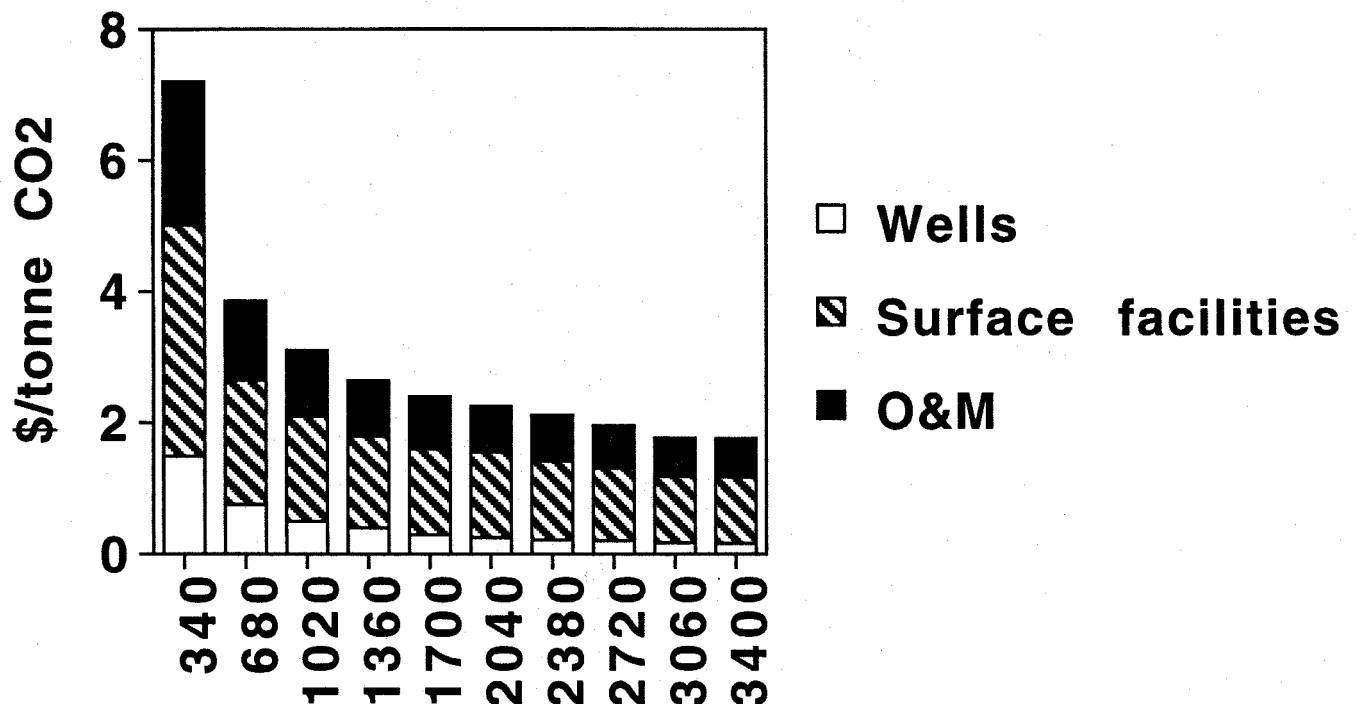
70% of the Carbon in the natural gas feedstock is captured for sequestration; the remaining 30% is emitted with reformer exhaust gases

Figure 14.
Added Cost of CO₂ Pipeline
Transmission in \$/GJ of
Co-produced Hydrogen



- A = 1 refueling station (9000 car fleet)
- B = All buses in LA Basin
- C = 10% of cars in LA Basin
- D = 100% of cars in LA Basin
- E = 50% of cars in US

Figure 15. Cost of CO₂ Injection and Storage in Underground Aquifer vs. CO₂ injection rate per well



Flow rate per well (tonnes CO₂/d)

Adapted from Hendriks 1994

\$25.6/tonne CO₂
 =\$1/GJ H₂

assuming flows in Figure 13

1000 tonnes CO₂/day is
 equiv. to byproduct CO₂ from
 a H₂ plant producing 75
 million scf H₂/day

Figure 16.
Cost of Gas Transmission
300 km for H2, NG, CO2

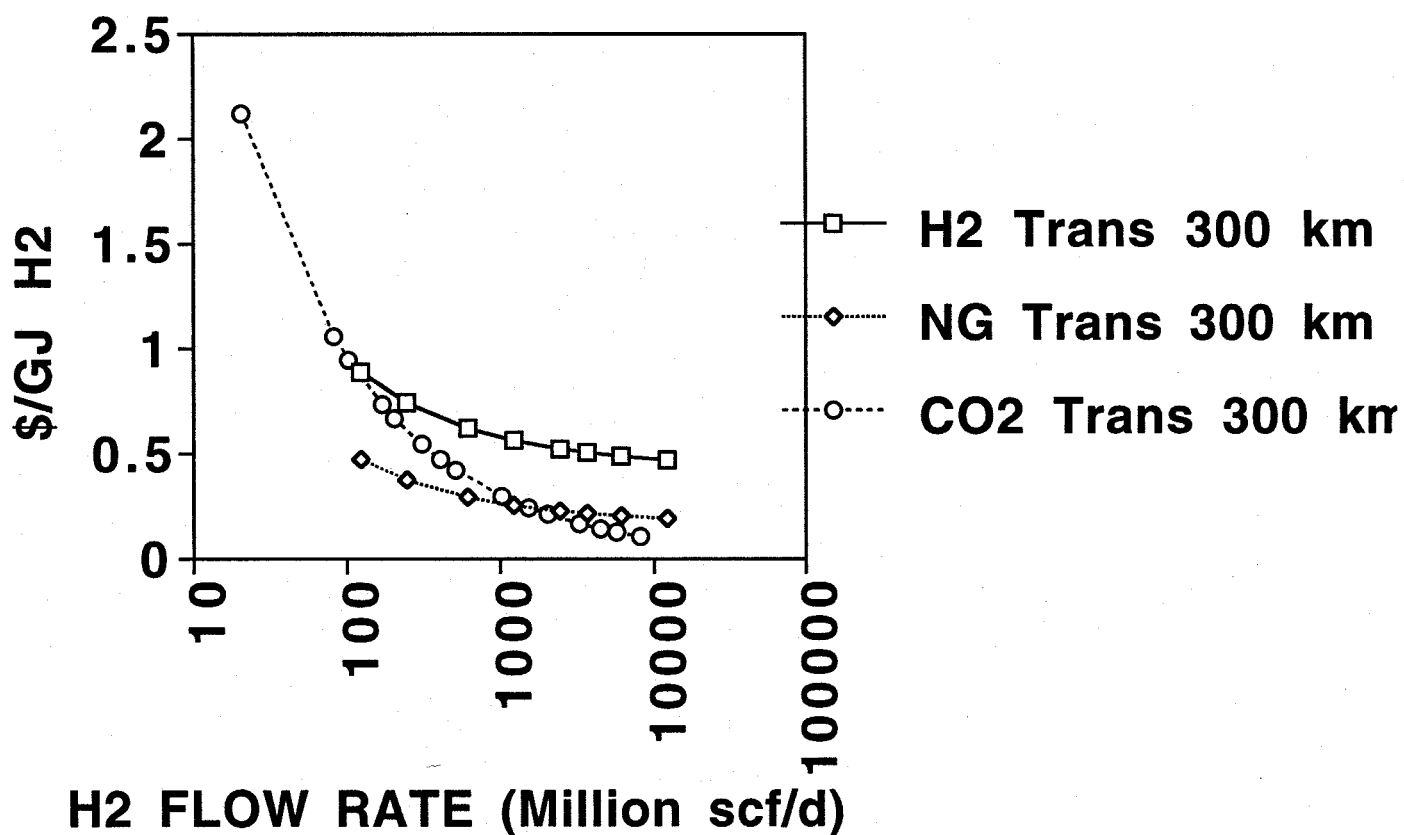
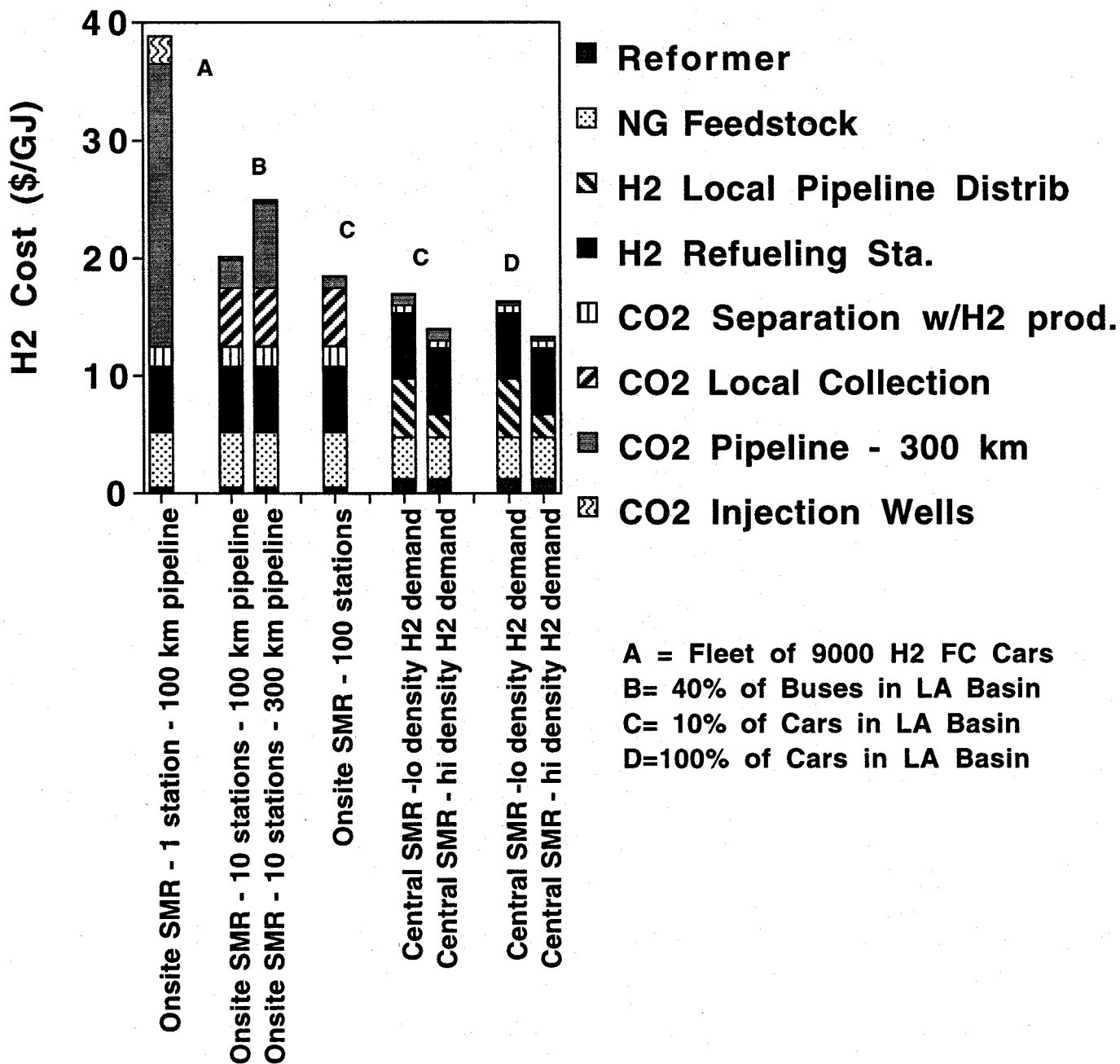


Figure 17.
Hydrogen from Nat Gas w/CO2
Sequestration: Delivered Cost of H2
Transportation Fuel



A = Fleet of 9000 H2 FC Cars
 B= 40% of Buses in LA Basin
 C= 10% of Cars in LA Basin
 D=100% of Cars in LA Basin

\$1/GJ H2
 = \$25.6/tonne CO2
 = \$94/tonne Carbon

Figure 18. CONFIGURATIONS FOR PEMFC COGENERATION FOR RESIDENTIAL USERS

