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HYDROGEN PRODUCTION & DELIVERY

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ABSTRACT:

Hydrogen is a high-quality energy carrier that has the potential to be produced on a global scale through the thermochemical processing of hydrocarbons such as natural gas, coal, or biomass; or through the electrolysis of water using any source of electricity including renewable sources of electricity such as wind or solar; or through the use of nuclear power. Hydrogen can be produced through any of these methods. As a result of air pollution, a shortage of available energy, and climate change, it is of the highest relevance to investigate cleaner alternatives to existing kinds of transportation fuel. Hydrogen, which is generally regarded as a source of clean energy, has the potential to solve future energy and environmental concerns and is one of the most promising sources of clean energy. As a direct consequence of this, several projects involving hydrogen fuel cell automobiles are now being developed in a wide variety of geographic locations. Fuel cells make it possible to generate electricity and heat from hydrogen in a renewable manner, at high efficiency, and with no emissions from the use of the fuel itself in its ultimate form.

Keywords: Hydrogen, Hydrocarbons, Transportation.

INTRODUCTION:

In a broad variety of transportation, stationary, and portable-power applications, fuel cells may be utilised to generate power and heat in an environmentally friendly and efficient manner. Hydrogen and hydrogen-rich fuels such as natural gas and biogas are examples of fuels that can be used in fuel cells. The widespread deployment of hydrogen and fuel cell technology offers a wide range of benefits for a variety of different stakeholders, including the environment, our energy security, our domestic economy, and end-users. Hydrogen is a clean fuel that may be utilised in the energy industry. It can be used in internal combustion engines (ICEs), in highly efficient fuel cells for transportation and stationary power applications, and as an energy transporter and storage medium in grid modernization and other applications.1 More than 8,000 fuel cell forklifts and more than 5,000 fuel cell backup power units have been put into use in the United States. In addition, light-duty fuel cell electric cars, often known as FCEVs, are increasingly becoming accessible for purchase and leasing.2 Hydrogen is a clean energy carrier that may be generated utilizing a wide variety of domestic resources. Hydrogen can also be used in a wide number of industrial applications.

The development of a cleaner alternative fuel for transportation is of critical relevance as a result of the increasing levels of air pollution, energy shortage, and climate change. The widespread recognition of hydrogen's status as a source of clean energy gives it the potential to sidestep the energy and environmental challenges of the future. As a result, several initiatives involving hydrogen fuel cell cars are now being developed in a variety of geographic

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areas. On a well-to-wheel basis, hydrogen fuel cell cars have the potential to be the most energy-efficient vehicles and to reduce polluting emissions and other hazardous pollutants. In their entirety, the hydrogen energy systems for fuel cell cars are comprised of the following four subsystems: the subsystem for the generation of hydrogen, the subsystem for transportation, the subsystem for hydrogen refueling stations, and the subsystem for the ultimate utilization of hydrogen. Additionally, each component may make use of a wide number of technological approaches; for instance, the production of hydrogen can be accomplished using a wide variety of raw materials, including coal, methane, and water. There are also many different kinds of technologies for storing hydrogen, including as hydrogen that has been cryogenically compressed, high-pressure code gas storage, and metal-organic hydrides. The use of hydrogen in fuel cell cars has the potential to lead to environmentally friendly and economically responsible transportation; nevertheless, the various methods used to produce hydrogen are associated with certain pollutants. Additionally, different methodologies for the creation of hydrogen have varying impacts on the surrounding ecosystem. In a similar vein, the various modes of transportation, storage, and use of hydrogen within the cars will each have their own unique impact on the environment, the economy, and the energy that is available. Because of this, the combination of various technologies in the hydrogen production subsystem, transportation subsystem, hydrogen refueling station subsystem, and final utilization subsystem will result in the generation of distinct hydrogen energy systems for fuel cell vehicles, as well as distinct environmental, economic, and energy performances.

- It may be manufactured using a wide variety of sources of energy.
- It meets all need for energy, from transportation to the creation of electric power.
- Because it results in the production of water, it is the least polluting option.
- Because it provides a storage medium for solar energy, it is the ideal media for transporting solar energy.

In a similar vein, hydrogen is the ideal partner for electricity, and the two of them together construct an integrated energy system that is dependent on the generation and consumption of power in scattered areas. In other words, an integrated energy system is built on the foundation of hydrogen and electricity working together. To accomplish the same goal of switching between hydrogen and electricity, either a fuel cell, which transforms hydrogen into electricity, or an electrolyzer, which flips the process around and transforms electricity into hydrogen, can be employed. It is possible for a regenerative fuel cell to turn hydrogen into electricity as well as the other way around, which makes it a flexible source of energy. Both hydrogen and electricity are regarded to be types of energy carriers owing to the fact that, in contrast to naturally occurring hydrocarbon fuels, both forms of energy must be manufactured via the utilisation of primary energy sources in order to be produced. In other words, in order for either form of energy to be utilised, basic energy sources must be utilised. The primary forms of energy that may be employed in the production of hydrogen and electricity are solar power, nuclear power, and fossil fuels. Fossil fuels can also be used to generate electricity. The term "solar energy" refers to the use of all sources of renewable energy, including geothermal, wind, biomass, and even municipal rubbish as a source of power. Timing is a key aspect that plays a considerable influence in determining which resource and technology is the most practicable for the creation of hydrogen as a fuel for vehicles. When it comes to the transportation of the future, timing is a significant component that plays a substantial effect. As a result, the question of where the hydrogen is going to come from in the near future as well as in the distant future needs to be addressed first. This is true both for the short term and the distant future.

Hydrogen Production

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Hydrogen is the most prevalent element in the universe; nonetheless, its concentration in the air is just slightly more than one millionth of a part per million. This is despite the fact that hydrogen is the most basic element. The vast majority of the hydrogen on the earth is contained within the chemical bonds of a variety of different molecules. In light of this fact, hydrogen must first be extracted from sources such as water, coal, natural gas, or organic plant matter before it can be used on a large scale. It cannot be acquired by boring a well or extracting it from an ore deposit like other metals and minerals. Because the process of collecting hydrogen requires a considerable amount of energy, it is more accurate to think of hydrogen not as a source of energy but rather as a carrier of energy. The energy that is released when it is eventually utilised is equal to the energy that is released in the formation of the hydrogen in the first place (minus any losses). In other words, the energy that is released is equivalent to the energy that is released when it is finally used. In the actual world, the production of other types of hydrogen energy may be accomplished through a wide variety of ways, including those listed above.

- Steam reforming is a chemical process that creates hydrogen from a combination of water and a hydrocarbon feedstock, which is often a fossil fuel. Steam reforming is referred to as "steam reforming." Natural gas, which is predominately made up of methane, is the most often used feedstock. A chemical process takes place to transform hydrogen and carbon dioxide into hydrogen and methane when high pressure and temperature are applied to the mixture of steam and methane. The amount of energy contained in the hydrogen that is created is actually greater than that of the natural gas that is used, but because the reformer requires a significant amount of energy to function, the overall conversion efficiency is often only in the range of 65–70%.
- The cleanup of industrial off-gases: After steam reforming, the cleanup of industrial off-gases is currently the second most prevalent source of hydrogen in the world. Refineries, blast furnaces, and various chemical facilities are just a few examples of the types of businesses that emit large percentages of hydrogen in their waste streams. It is frequently possible to reduce costs associated with collecting and purifying these gases. It is improbable that off-gas cleaning could be expanded sufficiently to satisfy the increased demand that would arise from the widespread use of hydrogen as a fuel since the majority of hydrogen off-gas is utilised on-site by the industry that generates it. Despite the fact that off-gas cleanup is an essential aspect of the current market, it appears unlikely that it could be expanded sufficiently to meet the increased demand.

Hydrogen from Renewable Sources

In addition to the reformation of fossil fuels, there are a few more ways that hydrogen can be created. Later on, It will provide a condensed explanation of the methods that are based on biomass (such as gasification, pyrolysis, and aqueous phase reforming), as well as the methods that are used to produce hydrogen from water (such as electrolysis, light electrolysis, and thermochemical water splitting).

Biomass Gasification

It is anticipated that in the not too distant future, biomass will emerge as the most promising organic and sustainable replacement to petroleum. This is due to the fact that biomass can decompose into carbon dioxide and other elements. Biomass may be produced from a wide variety of resources, including but not limited to animal waste, municipal solid waste, crop leftovers, short rotation woody crops, agricultural wastes, sawdust, aquatic plants, short rotation herbaceous species (such as switch grass), waste paper, maize, and many more types of waste products and materials. The process of gasification, which is often used with biomass and coal as fuel sources, has been around for quite some time and is currently being exploited commercially in a wide range of

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operations. It is a subtype of pyrolysis, and as such, it is based on the partial oxidation of the feedstock material into a combination of "producer gas" that includes hydrogen, methane, higher hydrocarbons, carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, and nitrogen. This "producer gas" combination is the end product of the process.

The gasification process is frequently plagued by low levels of thermal efficiency. This is typically the case because the moisture that is present in the biomass needs to be vaporised before the process can continue. It is feasible to carry it out with or without a catalyst and in either a fixed-bed or a fluidized-bed reactor, with the latter sort of reactor having, in most situations, higher performance. It is also conceivable to carry it out in either a fluidized-bed or a fixed-bed reactor. The production of "syngas" with an H2/CO ratio of 2/1 is achieved by the gasification process by adding steam and/or oxygen to the reaction mixture. This "syngas" is then used as fuel in either a Fischer-Tropsch reactor, which produces higher hydrocarbons (synthetic gasoline and diesel), or a WGS reactor, which produces hydrogen. Both of these reactors are used to make higher hydrocarbons.

The process of reforming dry biomass with superheated steam at an approximate temperature of 900 degrees Celsius has been implemented in order to get substantial hydrogen yields. Even when operating in the range of 800–1000 degrees Celsius, the gasification process still creates substantial amounts of "tars," which is a complex mixture of higher aromatic hydrocarbons. Tars are a byproduct of the process. A secondary reactor that makes use of calcined dolomite and/or nickel catalyst is employed for the goal of catalytically cleaning and enhancing the product gas. This is accomplished by using the reactor.

In a perfect world, these gasification facilities would make use of oxygen; nevertheless, the cost of installing an oxygen separation unit is prohibitively expensive for operations on a smaller scale. Because of this, the gasifiers can only function with air, which results in a significant watering down of the product as well as the production of nitrogen oxides. In addition, the gasifiers can only be used inside. In order to carry out this method successfully, you will need oxygen separators that are not only affordable but also quite efficient. In order to increase the hydrogen concentration in preparation for a separation process, which can subsequently be utilised to manufacture pure hydrogen for use in the manufacturing of hydrogen, a WGS approach may be employed. This method can be used to generate pure hydrogen. The majority of the time, gasification reactors are built on an enormous scale and require large amounts of material to be continuously fed into them. Depending on the lower heating value, they have the ability to achieve efficiencies ranging from 35 to 50 percent. These efficiencies can be reached.

One of the drawbacks of the technology in issue is that it necessitates the mobilisation of a significant number of resources, which is required in order to transport enormous amounts of biomass to the facility that is responsible for the initial processing. The high logistical costs involved with gasification facilities and the removal of "tars" to levels that are regarded acceptable for the production of pure hydrogen are currently a barrier to the commercialization of hydrogen generation from biomass. This is because these expenses must be overcome before pure hydrogen can be produced. It is feasible that in the not too distant future, this method will call for the construction of distributed gasification plants that are more compact and high-performing in order to generate hydrogen at a price that is economically viable.

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

- 1. To propose For the efficient use and administration of the hybrid system, fuel cell-based systems with adjustable hybridization structures are recommended.
- 2. To explore fuel cell stack ultra capacitor size with appropriate performance metrics

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Pyrolysis and copyrolysis are two alternate techniques of creating hydrogen that both have the potential to be productive in the near future. Raw organic material is heated at temperatures ranging from 0.1 to 0.5 megapascals and pressures ranging from 0.1 to 0.5 megapascals, and then it is gasified. Temperatures can range from 500 to 900 degrees Celsius. Because the process is carried out in an area that is devoid of oxygen and air, it is extremely unlikely that any quantity of dioxins would be formed in any way. Because there is no water or air present, there is no creation of carbon oxides (such as CO or CO2), which removes the need for secondary reactors (such as WGS, PrOx, etc.). This results in a reduction in the amount of time needed to complete the reaction. This approach brings to a significant reduction in emissions as a direct consequence of the aforementioned factor. However, significant COx emissions will be produced if there is air or water present (and the materials have not been dried), as the presence of any of these indicates that the materials have not been dried. This process offers a number of advantages, such as adaptability in terms of the fuel that it utilises, relative ease and compactness, the creation of pure carbon byproducts, and a reduction in the amount of COx emissions. The following chemical equation can be utilised in order to offer a generalised explanation of the reaction.

 C_nH_m + heat $\longrightarrow nC + 0.5 m H_2$

Depending on the temperature range, pyrolysis operations may be broken down into low temperatures (up to 500 degrees Celsius), medium temperatures (500–800 degrees Celsius), and high temperatures (above 800 degrees Celsius). One of the most recent technologies for transforming organic material into products with a greater energy content is called fast pyrolysis. The results of rapid pyrolysis may be found in all three phases that are produced: the solid, the liquid, and the gas. The possibility for clogging caused by the carbon that is generated is one of the difficulties associated with this method; however, proponents suggest that this difficulty may be mitigated by adequate design. Pyrolysis may play a large role in the future because it has the ability to produce reduced CO and CO₂ emissions, it may be operated in such a manner as to recover a considerable quantity of solid carbon, and it can be readily sequestered. These are all reasons why pyrolysis may play a role. The application of the copyrolysis of a combination of coal with organic wastes has lately attracted an interest in industrially advanced nations, as it should limit and lighten the burden of wastes in waste disposal (waste and pure plastics, rubber, cellulose, paper, textiles, and wood). This is due to the fact that it should limit and lighten the weight of wastes in waste disposal. Both pyrolysis and copyrolysis are mature techniques that have the potential to be used on a commercial scale..

Aqueous Phase Reforming

As can be seen in Figure 4, the procedure that is being referred to as aqueous phase reformation (APR) is currently in the process of being developed. The production of hydrogen will be accomplished via the use of this technology and will include the processing of oxygenated hydrocarbons or carbohydrates that are produced from renewable biomass sources. The temperatures necessary for the APR reactions, which range from 220 to 270 degrees Celsius, are much lower when compared to the temperatures required for the typical alkane steam reforming, which are around 600 degrees Celsius. Normally, undesirable chemical reactions will take occur when carbohydrates are heated to temperatures over their melting points. The low temperatures at which aqueous-phase reforming activities take place, on the other hand, keep these reactions to a minimum. Because the water-gas shift reaction (WGS) is advantageous at the same temperatures as in APR reactions, it is possible to synthesize H₂ and CO₂ in a single reactor with minimum quantities of CO. This is made possible by the fact that APR reactions take place at the same temperatures. This is due to the fact that the WGS is advantageous at temperatures that are also favorable for APR reactions. On the other hand, conventional methods of steam reforming require either a multistage process or a large number of reactors in order to obtain the outcomes that are wanted.:

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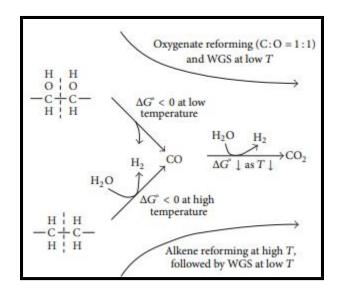


Figure 1: Oxygenated hydrocarbon-water interactions during APR produce H₂.

In the gas that was produced as a result, only trace amounts of CO were discovered. When compared to traditional techniques of steam reformation that take place in the vapour phase, the APR method's lack of the necessity to vaporise water leads in a large reduction in the amount of energy that is required to finish the operation. This difference may be attributed to the fact that the APR method does not take place in the vapour phase. The majority of the research that has been done up to this point has been on supported Group VIII catalysts, and the materials that include the most platinum have shown to have the highest levels of catalytic activity. Despite the fact that nickel-based catalysts have lower activity, research into these catalysts has been conducted since nickel has a price that is comparably lower than that of other metals.

When compared to other technologies, the proponents of this method claim that it is more conducive to efficiently and selectively converting biomass feedstock into hydrogen. This is in contrast to the situation that exists with competing technologies. Glucose and glycol concentrations in aqueous feed have been reported to range anywhere from 10 to 60 weight percent, according to various sources. It is vital to pick the catalyst in order to prevent methanation, as the Fischer-Tropsch reaction results in products that are thermodynamically favourable to others, such as propane, butane, and hexane. This reaction yields these Fischer-Tropsch products. Rozmiarek recently published an aqueous phase reformer-based approach that attained an efficiency of more than 55% with a feed consisting of 60 weight% glucose in water. This method was successful in obtaining this result. He was successful in doing so because he utilised an aqueous phase reformer.

On the other hand, when the catalyst was put through long-term testing (on stream for a total of 200 days), it did not exhibit stability. In conclusion, due to the fact that nuclear reactors generate significant quantities of space and time, their dimensions are frequently on the large side. By increasing the catalytic activity and longevity of catalysts, it is feasible to make significant headway in this area of research. The next phase in the process is called electrolysis, and it is step number 3.4. In the not-too-distant future, the electrolysis of water may offer a chance to create hydrogen. This technique accounts for around 4% of the world's total hydrogen generation at the moment, which is a rather small share of the total. Electrolysis, also known as the process of separating water into its component elements hydrogen and oxygen, is a well-known technique that was first put to commercial use in the year 1890. It is commonly known as the process of breaking down water into its component parts. Electrolysis is a procedure that requires a direct current to be transferred between two electrodes while they are submerged in

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a water solution. Because of this, the chemical connections that hold the water molecule together are shattered, which leads to the production of hydrogen and oxygen.:

Cathode: $2H_2O(l) + 2e^- \longrightarrow H_2(g) + 2OH^-(aq)$ Anode: $4OH^-(aq) \longrightarrow O_2(g) + 2H_2O(l) + 4e^-$ Overall: $2H_2O \longrightarrow 2H_2 + O_2$

Throughout the electrolysis process, the temperature of the chamber is carefully controlled and preserved. During the process of electrolyzing water, sulfuric acid is frequently utilised as an electrolyte. Platinum, which does not contain sulphur, ensures that the electrodes do not react when exposed to sulfuric acid. These electrodes are constructed of platinum (Pt). Because this procedure does not result in the emission of greenhouse gases, there is no negative influence on the surrounding environment. Additionally, the oxygen that is generated may be reused in several other manufacturing procedures. On the other hand, in contrast to the methods that have been described up until this point, electrolysis is a process that calls for a large quantity of energy to be carried out. In practise, the electrolysis of water achieves an energy efficiency that ranges between 50 and 70 percent (calculated in terms of the quantity of chemical energy recovered in comparison to the amount of electrical energy supplied). It all comes down to converting electrical energy into chemical energy in the form of hydrogen, with oxygen created as a byproduct that may be put to useful use. This process is known as electrolysis. However, as a feasible alternative to the alkaline-based electrolysis technology that is now the industry standard, proton exchange membrane (PEM) and solid oxide electrolysis cells (SOEC) have been developed. Both of these technologies are abbreviated as PEM and SOEC. The SOEC electrolyzer is the electrolyzer with the lowest level of development but the best level of electrical efficiency. Some of the challenges that are linked with SOEC technology include corrosion and sealing issues, temperature cycling issues, and chrome migration. PEM electrolyzers are more efficient than alkaline systems, and unlike SOEC, they do not have the same problems with corrosion or sealing that afflict SOEC. PEM electrolyzers, on the other hand, tend to have a higher price tag than alkaline systems. The alkaline system is the one that has seen the most improvement recently and requires the least amount of money to get started with. They have the lowest efficiency, which causes them to have the highest cost for the amount of electrical energy that they consume.

Photoelectrolysis

One of the environmentally friendly approaches to generate hydrogen is the process of photoelectrolysis, which is currently in the research and development stage. Despite the fact that it is still in the process of being created, it shows promising results in terms of both its efficiency and its costs. At the time, this method of producing hydrogen from renewable resources is the one that is not only the most effective but also the one that incurs the smallest amount of financial cost. The photoelectrode is a semiconducting device that operates by collecting solar energy while at the same time creating the requisite voltage for the direct breakdown of water molecules into oxygen and hydrogen.

This process is called photoelectrocatalysis. A photoelectrochemical (PEC) light collecting device is utilized in the process of photoelectrolysis. This device is responsible for the generation of the electrical current that electrolyzes water. In the presence of light from the sun, a semiconductor photoelectrode that is submerged in an aqueous electrolyte will generate an amount of electrical energy that is adequate to maintain the processes that make hydrogen and oxygen. This energy will be sufficient to sustain the processes. In contrast to the generation of hydrogen, which results in the release of electrons into the electrolyte, the synthesis of oxygen requires the

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existence of electrons that are not bound to a molecule. A current density ranging from 10 to 30 mA/cm2 is created as a result of the reaction, which is influenced by the kind of semiconductor material as well as the intensity of the sunlight. When current densities of this magnitude are present, electrolysis requires a voltage of around 1.35 volts. The photoelectrode is composed of alternating layers of photovoltaic material (semiconductors), catalytic material, and protective material; each of these layers may be modeled independently. The efficiency of the photoelectrochemical system as a whole is impacted by the performance of each layer separately. The materials that make up the photovoltaic layer are semiconductors, so they can take in light and convert it into electricity. The quantity of light that a semiconductor material can take in is directly related to the performance of the photoelectrode, which has a relationship that is directly proportional to this connection. Semiconductors with wide frequency bands have the ability to provide the requisite voltage for the splitting of water. Additionally, the catalytic layers of the photoelectrochemical cell have an influence on the efficacy of the electrolysis and need the employment of proper catalysts for the process of water splitting. This is because the catalytic layers are responsible for the reduction of electrons to protons during the electrolysis process. The enclosing layer is yet another important component of the photoelectrode. Its primary function is to shield the semiconductor from the corrosive action of the aqueous electrolyte. A high degree of transparency is required of this layer in order for it to be able to let the greatest possible quantity of solar energy pass through to the layer below it, which is where the photovoltaic semiconducting material is located. It is generally knowledge that at a temperature of 2500 degrees Celsius, water will begin to break down. On the other hand, materials that are stable at this temperature and sources of heat that do not rapidly exhaust themselves are not easily accessible. As a consequence of this, the use of chemical reagents as a method for lowering the temperature has been proposed, and the scientific literature has cited more than 300 distinct water-splitting cycles. Despite the fact that the working temperature in all of the processes has been significantly reduced to a value that is lower than 2500 degrees Celsius, greater pressures are frequently required. However, it is anticipated that expanding the size of the processes would result in higher thermal efficiency, hence removing one of the most major obstacles that this technology has to overcome. In addition, a more in-depth understanding of the connection between the cost of capital, the losses brought on by thermodynamic processes, and the thermal efficiency of the process might lead to a reduction in the expenses associated with the production of hydrogen.

Economic Aspects on Hydrogen Production

At the moment, the steam reforming of methane (also known as natural gas) is the technique of producing hydrogen that is both the most common and the least expensive. The price of hydrogen using this method is around 7 USD per GJ, and it accounts for almost half of the world's total hydrogen production. The partial oxidation of hydrocarbons results in a price for hydrogen that is comparable to that price. Nevertheless, the greenhouse gases produced by thermochemical processes need to be caught and stored; hence, a 25–30% increase in the price of hydrogen needs to be taken into consideration. Gasification and pyrolysis of biomass are two examples of additional thermochemical processes that are utilized. The cost of the hydrogen that may be acquired in this manner is approximately three times more than the cost of the hydrogen that can be obtained using the SR technique. As a result, these procedures are not often regarded to be cost competitive when compared to steam reforming. The cost of generating hydrogen by gasification of

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Technology	Feedstock	Efficiency	Maturity
Steam reforming	Hydrocarbons	70-85%	Commercial
Partial oxidation	Hydrocarbons	60–75%	Commercial
Autothermal reforming	Hydrocarbons	60-75%	Near term
Plasma reforming	Hydrocarbons	9-85%*	Long term
Biomass gasification	Biomass	35–50%	Commercial
Aqueous phase reforming	Carbohydrates	35-55%	Med. term
Electrolysis	H2O + electricity	50-70%	Commercial
Photolysis	H2O + sunlight	0.5%*	Long term
Thermochemical water splitting	H2O + heat	NA	Long term

Table 1: A rundown of the methods used in the creation of hydrogen.

Hydrogen purification is not included.

The cost of producing one unit of energy by pyrolysis may vary anywhere from 8.9 to 15.5 dollars, whereas the cost of producing one unit of energy through biomass can range anywhere from 10 to 14 dollars. It is contingent upon the machinery, the amount that is available, as well as the cost of the feedstock .The electrolysis of water is one of the most basic processes known for producing hydrogen without any waste products, and it is also one of the most used methods. It is possible to classify the electrolytic processes as being among the most effective they are. The ultimate price of the hydrogen that is generated is significantly influenced by the relatively high cost of the power that is used in the process. On the other hand, the cost of the power that is used in the process is very costly. By the year 2030, the most frequent and successful methods for the production of hydrogen will be steam reforming of natural gas and rapid gasification of biomass. Both of these processes use steam to convert natural gas into hydrogen. The electrolysis process and the coal gasification process will both be employed, although on a far smaller scale. The conditions that have been mentioned make it difficult to determine whether or not solar electricity can be employed in that setting; nonetheless, it is not completely out of the question. It is expected that by the year 2050, solar energy will play a more major role than it does today.

CONCLUSION

The application of fuel cells has the potential to promote both the diversification of energy sources as well as the transition to the usage of sources of energy that are renewable. It is possible to find direct applications for hydrogen, which is the element that may be found in the highest quantity on our planet. Fuel cells are able to use any type of fuel, including methanol, ethanol, natural gas, and even gasoline or diesel fuel, as long as the fuel

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contains hydrogen. Fuel cells may also use fuel that contains hydrogen. Examples of renewable energy sources include biomass, wind, solar, and hydropower, amongst others. Alternative energy sources also fall under this category. In today's market, fuel cells are able to function on a broad variety of fuels, including gas generated from landfills and wastewater treatment plants. These are just two examples. Fuel cells are also good candidates for the rising technique of distributed power production, which has been gaining popularity over the past several years. This approach was first introduced in the 1970s. The many different approaches of producing hydrogen were dissected in depth in this article. The obstacles that are now being encountered in the process of the development of these technologies were discussed, along with topics such as fuel cells, the many types of fuel cells, hydrogen storage, hydrogen transportation, the hydrogen economy, and more. As a consequence of our study, we are able to state that the hydrogen fuel cell technology is generally acknowledged as a source of clean energy that contains the ability to escape the energy and environmental difficulties of the foreseeable future. This is something that we can say with confidence since our findings have led us to this conclusion. As a direct consequence of this, multiple initiatives involving hydrogen fuel cell automobiles have been kicked out in a variety of locations across the globe.

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