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## Hydrogen energy stations: along the roadside to the hydrogen economy

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### 1. Overview

Government in the form of leadership, public policy and as the initial market driver is needed to create the vision and set the objectives for innovations such as a hydrogen economy in particular. In order for the hydrogen economy to become a reality, there needs to be government leadership from the very top of the political spectrum with follow through from the administrative bureaucracy. Otherwise, this environmentally sound and clean energy innovation will not be taken seriously. Moreover, it will fail to become a reality. The hydrogen economy demands public leadership through a variety of processes.

One such process is the declaration that the hydrogen economy, for example, is to be national policy, such as Iceland did when its government and Prime Minister in the Spring of 2001 declared, "Iceland would be the world's First Hydrogen Economy". Shortly thereafter, former European Commission President Romano Prodi (2002) made a similar declaration for the European

Union. Then in January 2003, President George W. Bush echoed the same sentiment in his State of the Union Address. One year later, in January 2004, Governor Arnold Schwarzenegger declared California would have a hydrogen highway<sup>2</sup> in his State of the State Address (2004) and subsequent Executive Order (2004).

Of course, none of the political statements were news for those working in the field of hydrogen. Schwarzenegger made it a part of his 2003 campaign for a recall of former Governor Gray Davis with his own election message through supporting working in the area for two years before that. Then in 2003, President Bush announced his FreedomCar program which included the "hydrogen economy". Bush's version of the hydrogen economy which some label as "dirty or black hydrogen" (Rifkin, 2004) rests upon federal program with roots in the US Department of Energy (e.g. clean coal, nuclear and fossil fuels) over decades and hundreds of millions of dollars spent. Clean coal is estimated alone to have cost over \$3 billion in research and development with matching private sector funds as well. However, the Clinton administration tried a new approach with the Partnership for New Generation Vehicles (PNGV) which unfortunately did not consider hydrogen or fuel cells for political pressure reasons. And the list of support for hydrogen goes on. What is significant is that public leaders today have come forward and advocated for a hydrogen economy.

Innovations in general represent incremental changes. But the hydrogen economy is a dramatic "paradigm

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<sup>2</sup> The origin of the term "hydrogen highway" is debatable but credit must be given to Toyota of North America (Torrance, California) for conceiving and investigating the idea in 2001.

60 change”(that is, a significant change in how society views  
61 an issue and empowers its leaders to make dramatic  
62 changes). Now it has been declared worldwide through  
63 public policy and actions. The US Department of Energy  
64 Secretary Spencer Abraham announced awards in the  
65 Spring of 2004, more than USD\$357 million in new  
66 matching funds for the hydrogen economy over the next  
67 five years. While the funds had not been distributed by  
68 the end of the summer of 2004, over 100 partner  
69 companies anticipate and are preparing for the program  
70 implementation by the end of 2004. President Prodi has  
71 declared that over USD\$1.3 billion will be made avail-  
72 able in the EU over the next five years. Project proposals  
73 are actively under consideration. Such high-level gov-  
74 ernment executive decisions lead to attracting companies  
75 to the member states of the EU, thereby creating jobs  
76 and economic development. Similar initiatives are under  
77 way in Japan and mainland China.

78 However, governments can do other things besides  
79 providing funds, tax incentives and other funding  
80 resources. Government can establish “mandates” that  
81 lead to the formation of standards and codes with  
82 protocols set for the innovation (Stuart Energy, July  
83 2003; Hexerberg, 2004). This is being done now in the  
84 area of hydrogen throughout the world. For example,  
85 the European Union has adopted a policy, led by  
86 President Prodi (2002, 2003) moving toward a “clean”  
87 hydrogen economy based primarily on renewable energy  
88 sources (EU, June 2003, 2003a,b,c,d). From that  
89 benchmarks and markers can be derived for measure-  
90 ment of performance and evaluative purposes. Govern-  
91 ments can competitively procure products that are  
92 hydrogen based. In short, governments can become the  
93 “market driver” for the hydrogen economy.

94 In many ways, California with its 34 million popu-  
95 lation as the market driver has been the American  
96 testing ground for not only the hydrogen economy but  
97 also for the construction of the hydrogen highway and  
98 the parallel development of hydrogen energy stations.  
99 This paper will draw primarily upon the California  
100 experience in creating the stationary hydrogen energy  
101 “roadside” for power in local communities as the  
102 demand and mass production increases in the next few  
103 years. Along with other American states, the European  
104 Union and now Asian nations are committing to a  
105 hydrogen future. These initial government driven poli-  
106 cies but then market-oriented programs create a clean  
107 and green hydrogen economy for stationary fuel pro-  
108 duction and distribution.

## 109 2. Introduction

110 Today, hydrogen is primarily used as a feedstock, or  
111 as an intermediate chemical and specialty chemical.  
112 However, most industries and academics envision

a robust hydrogen future, in which hydrogen will be 113  
used as an energy carrier for vehicle fuel or, as presented 114  
here, stationary power. 115

Technically, hydrogen is becoming increasingly cost 116  
competitive and plentifully available from the reforming 117  
of natural gas and other fossil fuels. Hydrogen is an 118  
energy carrier that needs to be derived from other fuel 119  
sources. Today the amount of energy produced by 120  
hydrogen per unit weight of fuel is about 3 times the 121  
amount of energy contained in an equal weight of 122  
gasoline, and almost 7 times that of coal (FOET, 2004). 123  
In launching space vehicles, NASA was just as 124  
concerned about the weight of vehicles fighting Earth’s 125  
gravity as it was about power during and after launch. 126

As the FOET White Paper (2004) notes hydrogen 127  
energy density per volume is quite low at standard tem- 128  
perature and pressure. Storing the hydrogen under 129  
increased pressure or storing it at extremely low tem- 130  
peratures as a liquid can increase volumetric energy 131  
density. High-pressure storage and improved vehicle 132  
efficiency enable hydrogen fuel cell vehicles to increase 133  
their payload and range. Commercial companies such as 134  
Quantum, have both the advanced technology needed 135  
and mass market products available for installation at 136  
5000 psi and soon to the consumer market at 10,000 psi. 137

## 3. Infrastructure: creating the mechanisms and 138 systems for the hydrogen highway 139

Central to the entire discussion, however, is the issue 140  
of infrastructures for energy and transportation. Or as 141  
some pundits, economists and policy makers put it, the 142  
“chicken and egg” syndrome: which comes first, the 143  
hydrogen infrastructure or the vehicles? On the other 144  
hand, *The Economist* published an insightful article 145  
called the “Energy Internet” (March 13, 2004) which 146  
compares today’s “conventional energy infrastructure” 147  
to the transformation of energy systems for tomorrow 148  
which will be modeled after the internet. These new 149  
“agile energy systems” as Clark and Bradshaw (2004) 150  
call them combine central grid power systems with 151  
diverse and flexible on-site distributed energy systems 152  
(Isherwood et al., 2000; Clark and Lund, 2002). 153

Installed costs for renewable energy fueling stations 154  
in 2003 ranged from about \$1 million per station. By 155  
mid-2004, the costs have been reduced to approximately 156  
\$700,000 and are rapidly declining. Additionally, 157  
regions in California and elsewhere in the USA are 158  
installing stations today. South Coast Air Quality Man- 159  
agement District (SCAQMD) in Southern California is 160  
one of the world leaders. Norway passed legislation in 161  
2003, creating a hydrogen highway from Oslo to the 162  
west coast. Northern Italy has plans for a similar 163  
roadway and several American States are planning 164  
hydrogen infrastructures. 165

166 Other regions in North America and the EU are  
 167 doing much the same. The EU has issued reports on  
 168 regional innovation, arguing the same point—that local  
 169 and regional creative projects in sustainable develop-  
 170 ment, including hydrogen will propel the hydrogen  
 171 paradigm (EU, 2004). Lipman et al. (2004) completed  
 172 a study for the California Air Resources Board and  
 173 Stationary Fuel Cell Collaborating, concluding that the  
 174 pathway to a hydrogen economy clearly was first to  
 175 have stationary hydrogen for power usage in local  
 176 communities.

177 By the spring of 2003, over 100 hydrogen refueling  
 178 stations were operating in the USA. Consider Southern  
 179 California, where according to the South Coast Air  
 180 Quality Management District (SCAQMD, see Attach-  
 181 ment 1), nine hydrogen fueling stations are now being  
 182 installed and more than twice as many are planned.  
 183 These stations, somewhat modeled on the Sunline  
 184 Transit System in Palm Springs, will use technologies  
 185 for reforming for natural gas into hydrogen, but the  
 186 stations are also equipped with electrolyzers for renew-  
 187 able energy sources such as water, solar, bio-gas and  
 188 wind for the future. These stations will also be required  
 189 to be “open to the public” as well as to regional  
 190 government vehicles and contractors.

191 On the hydrogen vehicle side, Los Angeles City  
 192 Government currently has two Honda hydrogen fuel cell  
 193 cars in service. San Francisco also has two Honda  
 194 hydrogen fuel cell cars. Toyota has two hydrogen fuel  
 195 cell demonstration vehicles located at the University of  
 196 California, Irvine and Davis campuses. Air Products has  
 197 provided a portable hydrogen storage unit for refueling  
 198 for the Los Angeles and San Francisco governments  
 199 while Prax Air is installing a refueling station in  
 200 partnership with BP at the Los Angeles International  
 201 Airport.

202 Today, the number of hydrogen fueled cars is so few  
 203 in number that refueling stations for vehicles are  
 204 economically unfeasible. That is why a number of com-  
 205 panies and regions, including SCAQMD, are advocating  
 206 and installing “hydrogen energy stations” first for  
 207 stationary energy storage and off-peak power which  
 208 can supply stored hydrogen supplies to homes and  
 209 business in the local community from renewable re-  
 210 sources until the demand for hydrogen fuel for vehicles  
 211 arrives. The future, however, may well go beyond public  
 212 commercial stations and see hydrogen powered fuel cells  
 213 located in homes for both domestic power and fuel for  
 214 family cars. Furthermore, leveraging existing solar  
 215 powered electric vehicle recharging stations at various  
 216 public parking lots could serve as a key inter-modal  
 217 transportation component to station feasibility.

218 The hydrogen infrastructure issue need not limit the  
 219 evolution of fuel cells and hydrogen technology. Rather,  
 220 many companies are now commercializing “hybrid  
 221 technologies” (Clark, 2004) envisioning a distributed

222 model for hydrogen production and delivery to integrate  
 223 the gas, electricity, building, and mobility infrastruc-  
 224 tures. Instead of building a costly new distribution  
 225 infrastructure for hydrogen, excess existing gas and  
 226 electricity distribution capacity can supply local hydro-  
 227 gen production needs. Only after this decentralized  
 228 approach has built up a large hydrogen market for  
 229 power to buildings and then vehicles later will central  
 230 production merit substantial investment.

#### 4. A “paradigm change”: the hydrogen economy 231

232 A significant paradigm shift is now under way as  
 233 a major change in the way government policy makers  
 234 and industry leaders are looking for clean fuels and  
 235 renewable energy for their own nation-states. Current  
 236 and future markets in fossil fuels subject to volatile  
 237 prices changes (e.g. gasoline and natural gas) as well as  
 238 national and international energy/environmental crises,  
 239 conflicts and now war in the Middle East are combining  
 240 to motivate this dramatic paradigm shift from the fossil  
 241 fuel age to a worldwide hydrogen future. Moreover, the  
 242 international limitations on fossil fuel supplies cause  
 243 more concern not only on the economic, but also on  
 244 domestic and international political levels. The motiva-  
 245 tion, furthermore, is to find new clean sources of fuels to  
 246 convert to hydrogen in both economical and efficient  
 247 ways so that the industrial and developing worlds do not  
 248 become dependent upon “foreign” fossil fuel sources.

249 The paradigm change can be construed furthermore  
 250 as a new “mindset” or as “social constructionism”  
 251 which is a European social science term that applies to  
 252 a social-cultural revolution or change in public opinion.  
 253 In spite of ideological or political agendas, the hydrogen  
 254 economy is such a change since it is basically a non-  
 255 political movement supported by science and technology  
 256 that the public wants without any universal vote or  
 257 election. In California, there is very real awareness of the  
 258 effects of pollution in the environment (air and water)  
 259 with our dependency on fossil fuels. The general public  
 260 has become increasingly aware of these issues and now  
 261 polls show consistently that over 80% want governmen-  
 262 tal oversight, protection and dramatic change.

#### 5. The public sectors: local, regional and state governments 263 264

265 The role of governments should be a combination of  
 266 policy making, procurement and transportation plans  
 267 that include collaboration with the private sector in both  
 268 setting standards and lowering prices. The public sector  
 269 leadership, as noted above, must make public announce-  
 270 ments about innovation and promote its implementa-  
 271 tion even if extensive additional funds and financing

272 mechanisms do not exist today. Many government  
273 mechanisms exist already in the form of public policy  
274 but also as standards, codes and procurement programs.  
275 Businesses and local regions need to know that govern-  
276 ment leadership support innovations such as hydrogen.  
277 There must be cooperative work for example, in creating  
278 new standards and codes that fit the chemical properties  
279 of hydrogen. There is an unknown level of risk man-  
280 agement for insuring hydrogen facilities and vehicles.

281 For state or regional government-sponsored support  
282 for hydrogen, a number of issues need to be considered  
283 which can be expedited by the public sectors: (1)  
284 operating hydrogen powered programs set to operate  
285 fleet vehicles; (2) standards, codes and regulations which  
286 are monitored by an air resource committee; (3) imple-  
287 mentation of public polices that are monitored by  
288 state and local districts; (4) procurement of equipment  
289 through competitive bidding process; (5) creation of  
290 master contracts for purchases of hydrogen vehicles; (6)  
291 mechanisms to revise and monitor codes, standards, as  
292 well as fire standards and mitigation and management of  
293 risks; (7) advance research and development resources  
294 for deployment funds and support; (8) create and  
295 leverage finance, bond, procurement and investment  
296 mechanisms; and (9) use insurance programs along with  
297 risk management tools.

298 The public sector plays a number of collateral roles as  
299 well. For example, they can provide safety labeling or  
300 “good housekeeping seals” for hydrogen which is  
301 important for providing consumer confidence given the  
302 historical myths about hydrogen (Lovins, 2003; Lipman,  
303 2003). For local communities resources for job creation,  
304 training and workforce development along with the  
305 involvement of labor unions for new careers can be  
306 created by the hydrogen economy. Education institu-  
307 tions (public schools, colleges and universities) also need  
308 to be created to meet the current and future demands.  
309 One kind of educational focus on hydrogen can be done  
310 by holding a competition of academic school to promote  
311 student design of a hydrogen refueling station. The U.S.  
312 Department of Energy, for example, did just that by  
313 holding a “Hydrogen Station” competition. The winner  
314 in 2004 was the University of Victoria in British  
315 Columbia, Canada. Now corporations, such as Chev-  
316 ronTexaco, are doing the same thing with competitions  
317 for their own private sector hydrogen refueling station  
318 purposes. Hence more competitions are anticipated in  
319 the future.

320 Innovations and advanced technologies emerge his-  
321 torically when national government helps clear the way  
322 for the establishment of mass markets. Edison, for  
323 example, was only able to establish a commercial elec-  
324 tricity company when the costs could first be “supported”  
325 (i.e., paid for) by local governments and then be made  
326 available at reasonable prices to the mass market. Since  
327 the end of the World War II, the industrialized nations

328 have all used government research and development  
329 monies to support the commercialization of everything  
330 from diesel fuels to the internet. In fact, American  
331 government officials traditionally justify the funding of  
332 national labs, NASA and even the U.S. Department  
333 of Defense, based on the “dual use” or “transfer of  
334 technologies.”

335 National and local government incentives, tax breaks,  
336 and even procurement are critical to the commercializa-  
337 tion of more advanced technologies, such as hydrogen.  
338 Government assists in the introduction of new technol-  
339 ogies in still another way: regulations and standards.  
340 Today, the advancements of technology to speed  
341 communications and to slow global warming are often  
342 linked to government regulations and oversight. Cal-  
343 ifornia has often helped lead the way in this regard with  
344 its emission controls, environmental laws, and atmo-  
345 spheric regulations. The hydrogen economy is no  
346 different.

347 Appropriate and targeted government regulations can  
348 ease the way for public/private partnerships. Together,  
349 government and the commercial sector can work  
350 collaboratively to create new industries and jobs, as  
351 evidenced by the zero emission vehicle (ZEV) regulations  
352 in California which began in the early 1990s with a focus  
353 on electric battery-powered vehicles (Clark and Paolucci,  
354 1997, 2001). This California standard set the standard  
355 and goals for ZEV for the entire USA and impacted  
356 other nations. More importantly, the size of the  
357 California forced auto-manufacturers to produce  
358 vehicles to meet these standards (see CARB and Fuel  
359 Cell Partnership, 2000, 2001, 2003).

360 California’s progressive regulatory regime has stim-  
361 ulated the market for clean running automobiles as well  
362 as new advanced technologies for the vehicles them-  
363 selves and the infrastructure that serves them. With  
364 regard to regulation or privatization, the international  
365 carmakers have been the driving force for change while  
366 the Detroit carmakers have either stalled or sued the  
367 state of California to stop the regulations from being  
368 implemented. The last of these was only settled in  
369 August 2003 despite the fact that the company had been  
370 heavily invested in research and developed vehicles that  
371 exceeded the California standards (Shnayerson, 1996).

372 Over the years in California, both the California  
373 Public Utility Commission (CPUC, 2003) and the  
374 California Energy Commission (CEC, 2000, 2001) have  
375 funded the development and deployment of renewable  
376 and distributed technologies. The consumers of power  
377 literally funded natural gas and electric vehicle in-  
378 frastructure through rate paying, which exemplifies the  
379 need for state regulators to become more involved in the  
380 initial investment in hydrogen fueling infrastructure. By  
381 utilizing a dedicated account similar to the approach  
382 adopted by the CPUC to fund the low emission vehicle  
383 refueling infrastructure, participating states and nations

384 also will be able to jumpstart the necessary public  
385 investment without constraining their general revenue  
386 budgets, while simultaneously attracting private  
387 investment. For some examples of how larger regions  
388 and diverse nation-states specifically focused on hydro-  
389 gen, see various European Union reports throughout  
390 2003 (EU, 2003a,b,c,d).

## 391 6. The private sector: small and medium 392 size enterprises

393 Small and medium size enterprises (SMEs) need to be  
394 brought into the hydrogen research, development, and  
395 deployment playing field. In California, the combination  
396 of research, development, and implementation for new  
397 advanced technologies by entrepreneurial firms and  
398 SMEs has been one of the key “economic engines” for  
399 stimulating growth over the last few decades. With a  
400 number of world-class universities and national research  
401 labs such as the University of California campuses at  
402 Berkeley, Irvine, and Davis, the transfer of innovation  
403 to the marketplace has been astonishing and has now  
404 fueled the growth of the “Golden State” into its “Next  
405 Economy” (Clark and Feinberg, 2003).

406 The U.S. hydrogen industry currently produces more  
407 than 9 million tons of hydrogen per year (enough to  
408 power 20–40 million cars or 6–12 million homes) for use  
409 in fields such as: fertilizer and chemicals production;  
410 petroleum refining; metals treating; and electrical appli-  
411 cations. Some of these sectors, such as fertilizers have  
412 been electrolyzing hydrogen for over 60–70 years  
413 (Hexerberg, 2004; Stuart Energy, August 2003). Accord-  
414 ing to the U.S. Department of Energy, steam reforming  
415 of methane (natural gas) and oil accounts for 95% of the  
416 hydrogen produced in the U.S. Other methods of hydro-  
417 gen production are gasification of fossil fuels (e.g. coal),  
418 splitting water using electricity (electrolysis), heat or  
419 light, and thermal or biological conversion of biomass.  
420 However, the consensus appears to be that natural gas  
421 reforming is the transition approach to producing  
422 hydrogen. Nonetheless, the definition of time for the  
423 transition period has yet to be settled.

424 In terms of the transportation sector, the cost of 1 kg  
425 of hydrogen production can be compared to that of  
426 1 gallon of gasoline, the energy content of which is  
427 roughly equivalent to 1 kg of hydrogen. Typically, a  
428 gasoline internal combustion engine (ICE) with a me-  
429 chanical drive train is 15–20% efficient, while a hydrogen  
430 ICE is about 25% efficient. Hydrogen fuel cell vehicles  
431 with electric hybrid drive trains can be up to 55%  
432 efficient—about 3 times better than today’s gasoline  
433 fueled engines.

434 Because the production of hydrogen, by steam refor-  
435 mation of natural gas or electrolysis of water, is ex-  
436 pected to be about 75–85% efficient, the net energy

efficiency of hydrogen fuel cell vehicles will still be better 437  
than twice that of gasoline ICE vehicles. Hydrogen, 438  
today, at a delivered price of \$3.00 per kg (or gallon 439  
gasoline equivalent) would be on a par with \$1.50/gallon 440  
gasoline in a fuel cell automobile. The bottom line is that 441  
the costs of hydrogen for the transportation sector 442  
provide an economic model for hydrogen energy 443  
stations. 444

## 7. Renewable energy: on-site hydrogen generation 445

446 Hydrogen can be produced from renewable resour- 446  
ces, such as biomass—however, the process emits some 447  
carbon dioxide. Hydrogen can also be derived by using 448  
wind, hydroelectric, or solar power, to electrolyze water. 449  
Today electrolysis is still expensive, but companies like 450  
Stuart Energy (August 2003) in Toronto and Norsk 451  
Hydro (2003) in Norway see the costs rapidly declining. 452  
Others like Proton (now listed as Distributed Energy 453  
Systems Corporation, DESC on Nasdaq) integrate 454  
hydrogen systems for stationary power supply to reduce 455  
costs even more. The key for renewable hydrogen energy 456  
stations is to provide base load or constant energy 457  
supply for consumers. Renewables by themselves are 458  
intermittent and hence need to be integrated with other 459  
technologies in order to be economic. Power purchase 460  
agreements for stationary energy generation can do just 461  
that with long term contracts for energy on a 24-h and 462  
seven day a week basis. 463

464 The energy required to produce hydrogen via elec- 464  
trolysis is about 48 kWh/kg. At 5 cents/kWh, electro- 465  
lytic hydrogen contains about \$2.50 worth of electricity 466  
in one-gallon gasoline equivalent. Wind electricity at 467  
utility scales is now 4.5–6.5 cents/kWh and in some 468  
locations even less. These costs have been reduced by 469  
a factor of two in the last five years alone, and further 470  
reductions in production costs through lower cost 471  
electrolyzers, and the use of low-cost, off-peak renew- 472  
able electricity could dramatically reduce the future cost 473  
of electrolytic hydrogen. 474

475 Higher public policy priority must be placed on 475  
renewable sources of energy in the creation of “clean” 476  
hydrogen. Clearly, one of the key factors in “driving” or 477  
creating a market for new clean technologies is the 478  
ability to set benchmarks or standards, both voluntary 479  
and mandatory. Renewable portfolio standards should 480  
emphasize government and the private sector working 481  
together. Such a partnership is called the “civic 482  
markets” (Clark and Lund, 2001) approach rather than 483  
the extremes of government regulatory versus the 484  
market privatization. 485

486 California and Texas, among a growing list of other 486  
states, have done this successfully by developing renew- 487  
able portfolio standards (RPS) and other states and 488  
nations are following their lead. California has enacted 489

490 a 20% RPS by 2017 but according to most estimates,  
 491 and the current governor, 2010 is seen as being the  
 492 actual date for achieving that benchmark. California  
 493 Governor Schwarzenegger has issued an Executive  
 494 Order to set even higher standards of 30% by 2017.  
 495 The same benchmarks are being discussed for the  
 496 transition to a sustainable hydrogen economy. Califor-  
 497 nia and several other states also have enacted renewable  
 498 investment programs through system benefits or public  
 499 goods charges, which have played a significant role in  
 500 improving energy efficiency and reducing the cost of  
 501 deploying commercially viable renewable products and  
 502 systems.

503 Since hydrogen is a paradigm change of enormous  
 504 magnitude, the need for a robust and well thought out  
 505 transition is critical. In order to accelerate both the  
 506 timely development and installation of the hydrogen  
 507 economy, the use of natural gas needs to be seen as  
 508 merely a transition fuel for producing hydrogen. The  
 509 key will be to ensure that the expenditures for reforming  
 510 natural gas are coupled with the electrolyzing of  
 511 renewable electricity sources into hydrogen. As *The*  
 512 *Economist* (May, 2004) indicated in “The Energy  
 513 Internet” it would be a financial and environmental  
 514 disaster to delay this paradigmatic revolution 30–50  
 515 years, if large investments were made solely in the  
 516 central electric grid and natural gas or liquefied natural  
 517 gas infrastructure rather than devoting the necessary  
 518 funds to lowering the costs spent on renewable pro-  
 519 duction of hydrogen. Such investments, and at lower  
 520 numbers, in the billions of dollars could be better spent  
 521 on renewable energy hydrogen generation.

522 In the short-term, most hydrogen will come from  
 523 distributed production using natural gas (steam reform-  
 524 ation) and/or electricity (electrolysis). The ability of  
 525 the central utility grid to provide affordable, reliable,  
 526 and stable power will be enhanced through a greater  
 527 reliance on more distributed and regional power  
 528 generation, including “on-site” generation from renew-  
 529 able energy technologies and from the cogeneration of  
 530 combined heat and power. Some major manufacturing  
 531 companies, such as auto-makers, Honda and Toyota in  
 532 California at their North American Headquarters, have  
 533 started to lead this effort. Those in public policy and  
 534 industrial planning should take advantage and leverage  
 535 such short to mid-term transition phases, and plan  
 536 capital investment strategies accordingly.

537 The economic advantages of distributed energy  
 538 resources are diverse and compelling, although realizing  
 539 these benefits requires further regulatory market reform.  
 540 Moreover, the application of distributed fuel cell  
 541 cogeneration can save enough natural gas in displaced  
 542 power plants, furnaces, and boilers to compensate for  
 543 much of the gas needed to fuel hydrogen vehicles. In  
 544 addition, because the generation of energy will be far  
 545 more dispersed and clean, end users will be less

546 dependent on centralized grid operated fossil-fueled  
 547 power plants and the transmission of electrons over long  
 548 distances. The analogy by *The Economist* (May 2004) to  
 549 the “internet” is very significant and a good working  
 550 model to consider. Clark and Bradshaw (2004) argue in  
 551 their book, “Agile Energy Systems” for a very similar  
 552 idea whereby the analogy with the internet means rather  
 553 than one central grid or computer center, there are  
 554 dispersed sources of energy generation. Hence like the  
 555 internet, energy needs to be a mix of local on-site and  
 556 central grid generation. Herein is both the real economic  
 557 and market competition as well as the secure and diverse  
 558 sources of power.

559 Currently, hydrogen is transported by pipeline (more  
 560 than 400 miles in the U.S. today) or by road via cylin-  
 561 ders, tube trailers, and cryogenic tankers, with a small  
 562 amount shipped by rail or barge. Pipelines, which are  
 563 owned by merchant hydrogen producers, are limited to  
 564 a few areas in the U.S. where large hydrogen refineries  
 565 and chemical plants are concentrated, such as Indiana,  
 566 California, Texas, and Louisiana. Hydrogen distribu-  
 567 tion via high-pressure cylinders and tube trailers has  
 568 a range of 100–200 miles from the production facility.  
 569 For longer distances of up to 1000 miles, hydrogen is  
 570 usually transported as a liquid in super-insulated, cryo-  
 571 genic, over-the-road tankers, railcars, or barges, and  
 572 then vaporized for use at the customer site.

573 Hydrogen would be better controlled, stored and less  
 574 costly if produced locally from renewable energy sources  
 575 and used for hydrogen power generation as well as  
 576 refueling vehicles. Hydrogen can be stored as a com-  
 577 pressed gas or liquid, or in a chemical compound. The  
 578 key issue today is not to have stranded or sunk costs  
 579 made in the conventional infrastructures for natural gas  
 580 or other methods converting fossil fuels into hydrogen.  
 581 The same, and even cheaper, costs can be invested in  
 582 renewable energy production that is converted into  
 583 hydrogen.

## 8. Agile energy systems: on-site hydrogen power generation 584 585

586 Public buildings in California are using the Leader-  
 587 ship in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED)  
 588 standards for construction whereby new and recycled  
 589 materials are saving energy costs and providing a cleaner  
 590 atmosphere. Soon, the LEED standard may include fuel  
 591 cells as well as hydrogen powered fuel cells. Cost  
 592 analyses are changing as well, providing a far more  
 593 accurate accounting of the life cycle analysis of products  
 594 and externalities such as the negative impact of mobile  
 595 and stationary sources of pollution on the health and  
 596 safety of citizens. These “environmental justice” issues  
 597 are critical to preventing global warming as well as local  
 598 air and environment pollution.

Hydrogen technology will complement, rather than compete with, energy efficiency, especially in vehicles. Highly efficient vehicles (ultra-light, ultra-low-drag, highly integrated design) will soon greatly accelerate market capture by hydrogen fuel cells. Indeed, there are strong engineering synergies between highly efficient vehicle designs and fuel cells in cars, and these advancements are under development throughout the industry and are in the current and next generation gasoline hybrid electric vehicles. Markets are rapidly developing in the public sector and within 3–5 years will be available to mass market consumers according to some industry analysts and companies. In the auto industry, hybrid vehicles have already begun the transition.

Hydrogen fuel cells need to be more highly leveraged at the state and federal levels. Stationary fuel cells have moved from research uncertainty into the marketplace. In the spring of 2001, partly in reaction to the California energy crisis, another model of civic market was formed with a government–industry partnership, known as the California Stationary Fuel Cell Collaborative (CSFCC), with leadership from the Chairman of the California Air Resources Board (CARB), The National Fuel Cell Center at the University of California, Irvine and the California’s Governor’s Office (CSFCC, 2004). For stationary applications, the Collaborative was able to mobilize and leverage resources from the public sector and gather support from the growing fuel cell industry. Part of its mission is also to seek opportunities for fuel cell deployment in public buildings while encouraging businesses to locate in the state.

Based on the success of that initiative, several states and nations now have similar programs. The micro fuel cell industry stands ready to be the leading edge of large-scale profitability for the rest of the industry. It is leveraging public funds in small and large companies. In northern Italy, for example, ASM (the Piedmont Region energy supplier) in partnership with Pianeta (private company) have designed and created such hydrogen energy stations for on-site local power and transportation refueling. The capital generated could exceed the expectations of the most ambitious public programs, similar to the leading growth edge of the microcomputer industry. Once profitable, the fuel cell and allied hydrogen and renewable industries will evolve in a self-sustaining way, more effectively solving the technical challenges that lead us to the large-scale sustainable energy economy.

As fuel cell system costs decline, the economics of fuel cells—supported by the public sector through buy-downs and tax breaks—will gradually be able to be transformed into more demand-driven business and consumer markets. This process should be aided by the multiple economic benefits of distributed stationary on-site generation and fuel cell vehicles. Importantly, there presently are hindrances to these benefits being included

in project planning assessments that need to be addressed, such as valuing the full fuel cycle emissions of various vehicle types and the valuation of stationary fuel cell systems and other DG/CHP in distributed generation networks, particularly where they are supplying important services to the grid as well as power to the local loads.

## 9. Summary and conclusion

Clean energy and a healthy environment are the concerns of all citizens. Our children are depending on us. Aggressive improvement in energy efficiency, along with well thought out and executed transitional strategies, are essential to enable the growth of renewable energy production and the development of technologies, markets, and infrastructure to support a green hydrogen economy.

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