# International Journal of Civil Engineering and Geo-Environmental

Journal homepage:http://ijceg.ump.edu.my ISSN:21802742

# Hydrogen as the Future Sustainable Energy – A Review

Nasrullah Mohd Zulkiflee, Mimi Sakinah, Abd. Syukor Abd Razak, Anwar Ahmad, Zahrizan Zakaria, Zularisam Abd Wahid, Ideris Zakaria

Faculty of Civil Engineering and Earth Resources, Universiti Malaysia Pahang, Malaysia

#### ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Keywords: Hydrogen, Alternative Energy, Energy System, Fossil Fuel Nowadays, worldwide faces problems caused by fossil fuels such as urban air pollution and climate change. Hence, alternative energy sources are being searched in order to replace the fossil fuels. One of these alternative energy sources is coming from hydrogen. Hydrogen is the simplest and most abundant element in the universe and as a matter of fact hydrogen can be produced in variety of ways, including electrolysis of water, thermo catalytic reformation of hydrogen-rich organic compounds, and biological processes. This paper discussed mainly on the way of hydrogen being produced, its economic and environmental impacts to the society. Alternative sources of producing hydrogen as opposed to conventional method were also discussed.

# 1. Introduction

Over millions of years ago, plants covered the earth, converting the energy of sunlight into living tissue, some of which was buried in the depths of the earth to produce deposits of coal, oil and natural gas (Rosen et al., 2008). During the past few decades has found many valuable uses for these complex chemical substances, manufacturing from them plastics, textiles, fertilizers and the various end products of the petrochemical industry (Rosen et al., 2008). Nowadays, global economy, especially development country was highly depending on the fossil fuel. Main sector like transportation, electricity all need the fossil fuel to generate. While global is getting addicted to the fossil fuel, the side effect of it is getting worst fro day by day. Nitrogen oxides (NOx) in combination with volatile organic compounds (VOCs) cause the formation of ground level ozone and smog (Abdeen Mustafa Omer, 2006). This smog may highly effect human health and decrease the function of lung, while carbon monoxide may affect the red blood cell in transferring oxygen in

human body. There is strong scientific evidence that the average temperature of the earth's surface is rising. This was a result of the increased concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> and other GHGs in the atmosphere as released by burning fossil fuels. Therefore, effort has to be made to reduce fossil energy use and to promote green energies, particularly in the building sector. Energy use reductions can be achieved by minimizing the energy demand, by rational energy use, by recovering heat and the use of more green energies. The adoption of green or sustainable approaches to the way in which society is run is seen as an important strategy in finding a solution to the energy problem. The key factors to reducing and controlling CO<sub>2</sub>, which is the major contributor to global warming, are the use of alternative approaches to energy generation and the exploration of how these alternatives are used today and may be used in the future as green energy sources (Abdeen Mustafa Omer, 2006). Considering the benefits of green energy, sustainability of green energy supply and progress is assumed to be a key element in the interactions between nature and society.

Sustainable development requires a supply of energy resources that is sustainable available at reasonable cost and causes no or minimal negative societal impacts (Granovskii et al., 2006). Energy resources are essentially used to satisfy human needs and improve quality of life, but may generally lead to environmental impacts. Reduced  $CO^2$  emissions can be achieved directly via increased efficiency, reductions in the fossil fuel component of the energy mix and the introduction of alternative energy sources (Rosen et al., 2008). Although in the past fossil fuels were prime in meeting the energy needs, the current global picture does not allow any further potential use. So, there is an urgent need to switch to sustainable energy carriers, such as hydrogen (Midilli and Dincer, 1997). Each Country has set up own National Green Technology Policy. The policy includes increase of the research and development activity on green technology, and increase of local production of green technology (Midillia et al., 2005). The establishment of the policy will result in more stable and effective in implement green technology to private and government sector. Worldwide energy policy promotes the development of modern sustainable energy communities (Chen et al., 2007). This policy improves the country's energy autonomy and financial independence from fossil fuels, subsequently forming an environment-friendly, eco-touristic profile (Papadaki et al., 2003).

# 2. Green Energy From Hydrogen

Hydrogen is defined as an attractive energy carrier due to its potentially higher energy efficiency and low generation of pollutants, which can replace conventional fossil fuels in the future. Hydrogen, as a renewable and green alternative energy sources, has been attracted extensive attention worldwide. It can be not only used for machinery with zero emission, but also for high thermal efficient hydrogen fuel cells. It acts in accord with increased regulatory environmental protection policies (Guo et al., 2009). Hydrogen is a non-toxic, clean energy carrier that has a high specific energy on a mass basis (e.g., the energy content of 9.5 kg of hydrogen is equivalent to that of 25 kg of gasoline (Ultanir et al., 1997).) Hydrogen has been identified as a potential alternative fuel as well as an energy carrier for the future energy supply. Hydrogen is clean and, in practice, it can

be produced from water, which is abundant. Hydrogen is also renewable when it is produced from renewable energy sources. When it is converted into useful energy in the form of electricity via a fuel cell, the by-product is harmless water vapor. For comparison among different fuels, hydrogen has the highest energy content. As a result, hydrogen energy is indeed an ideal energy carrier in the future. In the United States, Australia, Germany, Japan, and many other countries, researchers and government officials have realized the vision of hydrogen economy. In Hong Kong, it is essential to evaluate the feasibility of hydrogen economy for better planning for future energy supply. As stated previously, hydrogen is only renewable and clean when it is produced from clean, renewable energy sources. Hydrogen production technologies and useful sources of renewable energy are reviewed for their latest development, followed by an evaluation of their integration for renewable hydrogen production to supply energy in Hong Kong (izumiya et al., 1998). Hydrogen energy is becoming increasingly important as recent technology progress makes hydrogen a realistic energy option. It is a long-term energy option, which means one of "fuels of the future" for buildings, transportation, portable application, vehicles and propellant for space mission, etc. Hydrogen can be used as a storage medium for intermittent and seasonal renewable technologies. It is also used for upgrading many metallurgical processes, as well as a chemical in different kind of industries, like synthesis of ammonia, methanol, oil refinery processes, etc. (Dragica et al., 2003). Its energy density is high, making it a high-efficiency energy source that can be used for transportation, heating and power generation. Hydrogen is also ideal from an environmental standpoint-it burns without emitting air pollutants. Efficient, clean, abundant and renewable— hydrogen is clearly the energy source to power the world. Hydrogen is abundantly present in Nature-nearly 75% of the mass of the Universe and 1% of the earth's crust is made up of hydrogen (Viswanath, 2004). Hydrogen energy is expected to be useful as secondary energy in the near future (for example, (Guo et al., 2009; Gonzalez et al., 2004)), applicable to fuel for vehicle and rocket, chemical use, Ni-H<sub>2</sub> electric cell, thermal engine using hydrogen storage alloys, direct combustion for heat, and so on. In addition, hydrogen energy can be used to build up dispersive energy system together with electric power by using water electrolysis and fuel cell. Use of hydrogen as an alternative fuel is gaining more and more acceptance as the environmental impact of hydrocarbons becomes more evident. Use of wind, hydropower and solar thermal energy for the production of hydrogen are the most environmental benign methods. The benefits and the drawbacks of the competing hydrogen production systems are presented (Koroneos et al., 2004).

# 3. Production of Hydrogen

Hydrogen can be produce in variety ways, including electrolysis of water, thermo catalytic reformation of hydrogen-rich organic compounds, and biological processes. The main fossil-fuel-based processes are steam reforming and catalytic decomposition of natural gas, partial oxidation of heavy oil and coal gasification. The principle non-fossil-fuel-based processes are water electrolysis, thermochemical cycles and photochemical, photoelectrochemical and photobiological processes (Marchetti, 2006), (OECD, 2006). Although steam reforming of natural gas, coal gasification and water electrolysis are the most important industrial processes for hydrogen production today (Bose Malbrunot, 2007), and (Dunn, 2002). thermochemical water decomposition is anticipated to play a significant role in hydrogen production in the future (Petri et al., 2006). Currently, H<sub>2</sub> is produced, almost exclusively, by steam reformation of methane or by water electrolysis. Biological production of  $H_2$ (biohydrogen), using microorganisms, is an area of technology development that offers the potential production of renewable H<sub>2</sub> from biomass. Thermo catalytic processes for H<sub>2</sub> include production steam reforming. "supercritical water" partial oxidation, and gasification. There are still many ways to produce hydrogen, for example Hydrogen fuel for fuel cell vehicles can be produced by using solar electric energy from photovoltaic (PV) modules for the electrolysis of water without emitting carbon dioxide or requiring fossil fuels (Thomas and Nelson, 2008). Solar hydrogen projects have often consisted of power gridtied systems, in which PV modules were connected to an inverter to produce AC current which was then fed to the power grid. Power was taken from the grid through an independent circuit and

converted to DC current to operate an electrolyzer and produce hydrogen.

# 4. Water Electrolysis

Electrolysis is defined as a process where electric current pass through a substance and causes chemical reaction, which will result in gain or loss in electron of the substances. Electrolysis consists of electrode, electrolyte, and electric current. Conventional water electrolysis, such as an alkaline water electrolysis, high-pressure electrolysis, and solid polymer electrolyte water electrolysis, is basically applied to produce hydrogen if a cheap source of electricity is available. In the alkaline water electrolysis, the cells use aqueous solutions of KOH, NaOH or NaCl as the electrolyte. This technology is well developed but the overall hydrogen production efficiency is too small, about 27% (Hefner, 1999). When the electrolysis is conducted at high pressures, the produced hydrogen gas is compressed at around 120-200 Bar (1740-2900 psi) (Youngjoon Shin et al., 2006). By pressurizing the hydrogen in the electrolyze the need for an external hydrogen compressor is eliminated, the average energy consumption for internal compression is around 3% (Ghosh et al., 2003).

# 4.1. Hydrogen production by water electrolysis

Production of H<sub>2</sub> by water electrolysis relies on passing an electric current through a conductive electrolyte in water (alkaline or polymeric), which results in splitting water molecules into H<sub>2</sub> and oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>). Hydrogen produced by electrolysis of water is of relatively high quality, as no carbon, sulphur, or nitrogenous compounds are generated in the process. Purification costs for fuel cell grade H<sub>2</sub> are thus much less than for SMR. Electrolysis by itself is emission free, but lifecycle emissions are a direct function of the source of the electricity used in the process (David, 2009). In this context, water electrolysis is envisaged as an important source of zero emission hydrogen in the future (Gonzalez et al., 2004; Kruger, 2005). Why choosing water as sources to produces hydrogen gas? Water is the most promising candidate for hydrogen resource because it contains more hydrogen (111 kg/m3) and it can be regenerated in fuel cell as a result of hydrogen ignition. Generate hydrogen using carbon compounds may recede to the background mainly due to cogeneration of carbon dioxide, a greenhouse gas, as a byproduct. In such a scenario, hydrogen production through water will become a reality. In this hydrogen economy, water is the raw material as well as the end product after converting the hydrogen stored energy into useful work (Viswanath, 2004). Water electrolysis is a very important technology for a large scale of hydrogen production. In such an energy system, water electrolysis will become a key technology, and high performance of water electrolysis should be achieved (Nagaia et al., 2009).

#### 4.2. Hydrogen generation from water electrolysis—possibilities of energy saving

Hydrogen production via electrolysis of water from alkaline aqueous electrolytes is a wellestablished conventional technology. However, due to high energy requirements of about 4.5-5kWh/m3n H<sub>2</sub> in most industrial electrolysers, the cost of hydrogen produced in such a way is high. Two types of activators, both ethylenediamine complexes of cobalt, were used separately or in combination with some molybdates. The activation energies were significantly decreased in the presence of single ionic activators. However, the best results regarding the activation energy reduction were obtained when combinations with the molybdate were used. [18]

# 4.3. A patent for generation of electrolytic hydrogen by a cost effective and cheaper route

Electrolysis of water has been studied using polished platinum as electrodes in a divided electrolytic cell. The cell is divided into two compartments using a chemically treated disc separator. The separator allows only the current to pass through and does not permit the ions to move from one compartment to the other. this set-up it has been demonstrated that water can be split into hydrogen and oxygen at as low a potential as 1:0 volt (Viswanath, 2004).

# 4.4. Types of Water Electrolyzes Available in the Industry

Water electrolysis is currently the most dominant technology used for hydrogen production from renewable sources because of high energy conversion efficiency. Water, used as a feedstock, is split into hydrogen and oxygen by electricity input. There are three types of water electrolyzes available in the industry: (1) alkaline electrolyze, (2) proton exchange membrane (PEM) electrolyzes, and (3) solid oxide electrolyze (Mitsugi et al., 1998; Rosen, 1995; Kreuter and Hofmann, 1998; Srinivasan and Salzano, 1977).

# 4.5. Disadvantage of Electrolytic Hydrogen

The main problem with electrolytic hydrogen is the high cost and energy consumption, which is directly proportional with cell voltage used to operate the electrolyzes. In order to make this technique more efficient and economical, the decreasing of the over potentials of the electrode reactions as well as by selecting inexpensive electrode materials with good electro catalytic activity are needed (Ramazan et al., 2009). Water electrolysis technology has more than one route, viz. conventional alkaline electrolysis, advanced water electrolysis, hot or highelectrolysis temperature and integrated electrolysis using solar or wind power. At present, the cost of hydrogen production increases in the order SRM high-temperature electrolysis electrolysis advanced water conventional electrolysis (Viswanath, 2004).

# 5. High Temperature Electrolysis

A very high temperature gas-cooled reactor (VHTR) can be effectively used for hydrogen production through several  $CO_2$ -free alternative technologies. High temperature electrolysis offers several advantages, such as:

(1) The amount of thermodynamic

electric energy required could be reduced and (2) The electric current density would be increased due to a relaxation of the activation barriers at the electrolyte surfaces

Operation at high temperature reduces the electrical energy requirement for the electrolysis and also increases the thermal efficiency of the power-generating cycle (Emonts, 2001). Thus, hydrogen generation through high temperature steam electrolysis (HTSE) using solid oxide electrolysis cells (SOEC) has recently received increasingly international interest in the large-scale, highly efficient nuclear hydrogen

production field. In the past three years, the research team mainly focused on preliminary investigation, feasibility study, equipment development and fundamental research (Shin et al., 2007). The high-temperature electrolysis (HTE) of water at 1100–1250K is typically accomplished using yttria-stabilized zirconia (YSZ) as an electrolyte (Yu Bo et al., 2009). The reactions occurring in a HTE process are shown below (Dutta et al., 2009):

Cathode:  $H_2O + 2e^- \rightarrow H_2 + O_2^-(1)$ Anode:  $O_2^- \rightarrow 12O_2 + 2e^-(2)$ 

#### 6. Affect of Electrode to the Electrolysis

The voltage needed to realize water electrolysis consists largely of reversible potential (=1:23 V at 1 atm; 25°C), solution (LeRoy et al., 2009). On purpose to realize good efficiency of water electrolysis, research which are being conducted so far are mainly focusing on the decrease of reversible potential and over voltage by realizing water electrolysis under high temperature and pressure or developing new electrode materials (Abe et al., 1984). However, little attention has been paid to ohmic loss in aqueous solution from hydrodynamic and two-phase Gow point of view. LeRoy et al. (2009) pointed out that the increase of volume fraction of hydrogen or oxygen bubbles between electrodes, i.e. increase of void fraction, and would cause the increase of electric resistance in aqueous solution, resulting in efficiency decrease of water electrolysis. Funk and Thorpe (1969) presented an analytical model of void fraction and current density distributions between electrodes, from view point of two phases Gow. Hine and Sugimoto (2009) obtained detailed information on void fraction, rising velocity and diameter distributions of bubbles. Bongenaar-Schlenter et al. (1985) measured void fraction and current density distributions, and proposed a "bubble diffusion model" for ohmic resistance between electrodes. Janssen and Visser (1991) also measured void fraction, ohmic over voltage on electrodes, and ohmic loss in aqueous there is an optimum condition of hydrogen production in water electrolysis.

#### 6.1. Ionic Liquid as Electrolytes

Electrodes constructed with different electroactive materials such as platinum (Pt), nickel (Ni), 304 stainless steel (SS) and low

carbon steel (LCS) have been tested in water electrolysis using 1-*n*-butyl-3-ethylimidazolium tetrafluoroborate (BMI.BF4). The highest *j* values obtained with Pt, Ni, SS and LCS electrodes were 30, 12, 10 and 42mAcm-2, respectively, and all efficiencies were in the 85– 99% range. Water electrolysis reaction since the LCS electrode gave *j* and efficiencies as high as those observed with platinum electrodes (Roberto et al., 2006).

#### 6.2. Titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>)

Titanium dioxide  $(TiO_2)$  is the most preferred material for the photo-electrode in hydrogen production by photo-electrochemical water-splitting. It is because of its:

- i) high resistance to corrosion and photocorrosion in aqueous media,
- ii) cheap and easy availability,
- iii) environmental friendliness,
- iv) energy band edges which are wellmatched with the redox level of water,
- v) electronic properties that can be varied by just changing the lattice defect chemistry or the oxygen stoichiometry (Bak et al., 2002).

However TiO<sub>2</sub>, having an energy band gap of about 3.2 eV, mostly absorbs the ultraviolet portion of the solar spectrum and only a small amount of visible light (Fujishima, 2008). Thus, efficient photocatalytic activity it is for necessary to extend the photo-response of TiO2 to the visible spectrum by modification of its optical properties. Another problem is the high recombination rate of photo-generated electronhole pairs which can be limited by introducing charge traps for electrons and/or holes, thus prolonging the recombination time. Many methods have been proposed to solve these problems, but doping TiO2 with foreign ions is one of the most promising strategies for sensitizing TiO2 to visible light and also for forming charge traps to keep electron-hole pairs separate.

# 6.3. Proposal for a new system for simultaneous production of hydrogen and hydrogen peroxide by water electrolysis

Experimental apparatus of the system is composed of a hydrogen electrode with platinum meshes, a hydrogen peroxide electrode with carbon material and an electrolyte with NaOH. In this paper, the superiority of the system is outlined, and the experimental results of the electrolytic synthesis of hydrogen and hydrogen peroxide from water are reported. Hydrogen peroxide is synthesized at the high efficiency when some kinds of carbon material are used as the hydrogen peroxide electrode (Andoa and Tanaka, 2009).

### 7. Environmental and Economic Aspects of Hydrogen Production and Utilization in Fuel Cell Vehicles

Three technologies for hydrogen production are considered here: traditional hydrogen production via natural gas reforming, and the use of two renewable technologies (wind and solar electricity generation) to produce hydrogen via water electrolysis, that is shown decrease of environmental impact and more advantageous for mitigating greenhouse gas emissions and traditional natural gas reforming is more favorable for reducing air pollution. (Mikhail Granovskii et al., 2006).

# 8. Ammonia as a Green Fuel and Hydrogen Source for Vehicular Application

Ammonia, mostly known as a nitrogen feedstock for agriculture or as a refrigerant, has been occasionally used in the past as fuel for internal combustion engines and fuel cells. Because it is a carbon-free substance and has high octane number there is currently a renewed interest for using ammonia as a fuel. The potential benefits and technical advantages of using ammonia as a sustainable fuel for power generation on vehicles are analyzed here based on some performance indicators including the system effectiveness, the driving range, fuel tank compactness and the cost of driving. The cooling effect of ammonia is another advantage and is included in the efficiency calculations. Cooling with ammonia represents up to 20% from the engine's power, being thus a valuable side benefit of ammonia's presence on-board allowing for downsizing of the engine cooling system and obtaining some air conditioning. If the cooling effect is taken into consideration, the system's effectiveness can be improved by ~11%. It is shown that a medium size hydrogen car converted to NH<sub>3</sub> becomes more effective per driving range cost at CN\$3.2/100 km and fuel tank compactness with

18 L/100 km with a cost of ammonia assumed to be CN\$0.3/kg (Zamfirescu et al., 2009). Some advantages of ammonia with respect to hydrogen are less expensive cost per unit of stored energy, higher volumetric energy density that is comparable with that of gasoline, easier production, handling and distribution with the existent infrastructure, and better commercial viability. Here, the possible ways to use ammonia as a sustainable fuel in internal combustion engines and fuelcells are discussed and analysed based on some thermodynamic performance models through efficiency and effectiveness parameters. If the cooling effect is taken into consideration. the system's reaches 46% effectiveness implying that amedium size car ranges over 500 kmwith 50 l fuel at a cost below\$2 per 100 km. The cooling power represents about 7.2% from the engine power, being thus a valuable side benefit of ammonia's presence on-board (Zamfirescu et al., 2008).

# 9. Conclusions

Government and industry, keeping one foot in the hydrocarbon economy, are pursuing an incremental route, using gasoline or methanol as the source of the hydrogen, with the fuel reformed on board vehicles. A cleaner path, deriving hydrogen from natural gas and renewable energy and using the fuel directly on board vehicles, has received significantly less support, in part because the cost of building a hydrogen infrastructure is widely viewed as prohibitively high (Dunn, 2002). Yet a number of recent studies suggest that moving to the direct use of hydrogen may be much cleaner and far less expensive. Just as government played a catalytic role in the creation of the Internet, government will have an essential part in building a hydrogen economy. Research and development, incentives and regulations, and partnerships with industry have sparked isolated initiatives. But stronger public policies and educational efforts are needed to accelerate the process. Choices made today will likely determine which countries and companies seize the enormous political power and economic prizes associated with the hydrogen age now dawning.

#### References

- Abdeen Mustafa Omer, 2006. Green Energies and the Environment, United Kingdom, Elsevier Science Ltd
- Abdeen Mustafa Omer, 2006. Green energies and the environment. United Kingdom, Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews.
- Adnan Midillia, Ibrahim Dincer, Murat Aya., 2005. Green Energy Strategies for Sustainable Development, Canada, Elsevier Science Ltd
- Bak, T., J. Nowotny, M. Rekas and C.C. Sorrell, 2002. Photo-Electrochemical Hydrogen Generation from Water Using Solar Energy. Materials-related aspects, International Journal of Hydrogen Energy 27 (10): 991– 1022.
- Barbarossa, V., S. Brutti, M. Diamanti, S. Sau and G. De Maria, 2006. Catalytic Thermal Decomposition of Sulphuric Acid in Sulphur–Iodine Cycle for Hydrogen Production. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy 31 (7): 883–890
- Beghi, G.E., 1986. A Decade of Research on Thermochemical Hydrogen at the Joint Research Centre, ISPRA. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy 11 (12): 761– 771
- Bose, T. and P. Malbrunot, 2007. Hydrogen: Facing the Energy Challenges of The 21st Century, John Libbey Eurotext, Paris.
- Chen, F., N. Duic, L.M. Alves and M. Da Graça Carvalho, 2007. Renew Islands Renewable Energy Solutions for Islands. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews, 11(8): 1888–902.
- David B. Levin and Richard Chahine, 2009. Challenges for Renewable Hydrogen Production from Biomass. Elsevier Ltd.
- Dragica, L.J., Stojic'a,, Milica P. Marc'etaa, Sofija P. Soviljb and S'c'epan S. Miljanic'c, 2003. Hydrogen Generation from Water Electrolysis - Possibilities of Energy Saving

University of Belgrade. Journal of Power Sources 118: 315–319

- Dunn, S., 2002. Hydrogen Futures: Toward a Sustainable Energy System, International Journal of Hydrogen Energy 27 (3): 235– 264.
- Dunn, S., 2002. Hydrogen Futures: Toward a Sustainable Energy System. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy 27: 235–264
- Dutta, S., J.H. Morehouse and J.A. Khan, 1997. Numerical Analysis of Laminar Flow and Heat Transfer in a High Temperature Electrolyzer. Int J Hydrogen Energy 22: 883–95.
- Emonts, B., 2001. Energy Conversion Technique. Scientific Report.
- Fr'ed'eric Vitse, Matt Cooper and Gerardine G. Botte, 2005. Erratum to "On the use of ammonia electrolysis for hydrogen production". J. Power Sources 142: 18–26.
- Fr'ed'eric Vitse, Matt Cooper and Gerardine G. Botte, 2005. Erratum to "On the use of ammonia electrolysis for hydrogen production". J. Power Sources 152: 311–312
- Fr'ed'eric Vitse, Matt Cooper and Gerardine G. Botte, 2005. On The Use of Ammonia Electrolysis for Hydrogen Production. Journal of Power Sources 142: 18–26
- Frano Barbir, 2004, PEM Electrolysis for Production of Hydrogen from Renewable Energy Sources, United States. Elsevier Science Ltd
- Fujishima, A., X. Zhang and D.A. Tryk, 2008. Tio<sub>2</sub> Photocatalysis and Related Surface Phenomena. Surf Sci Rep 63: 515–582.
- Funk, J.E. and J.F. Thorpe, 1969. Void Fraction and Current Density Distributions in a Water Electrolysis Cell. J. Electrochem Soc 116: 48–54.
- Funk, J.E., 2001. Thermochemical Hydrogen Production: Past and Present. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy 26 (3): 185– 190.

- Ganley, J.C., E.G. Seebauer, R.I. Masel, 2004. Development of a Microreactor for the Production of Hydrogen From Ammonia. Journal of Power Sources 137: 53–61.
- Ghany, N.A.A., N. Kumagai, S. Meguro, K. Asami and K. Hashimoto, 2002. Oxygen Evolution Anodes Composed of Anodically Deposited Mn–Mo–Fe Oxides for Seawater Electrolysis. Electrochim Acta 48 (1): 21–8.
- Ghosh, P.C., B. Emonts, H. Janßen, J. Mergel and D. Stolten, 2003. Ten years of operational experience with a hydrogenbased renewable energy supply system, Juulich, Germany. Elsevier Science Ltd
- Giaconia, A., R. Grena, M. Lanchi, R. Liberatore and P. Tarquini, 2007. Hydrogen/Methanol Production by Sulfur–Iodine Thermochemical Cycle Powered by Combined Solar/Fossil Energy. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy 32 (4): 469– 481.
- Gonzalez, A., E. McKeogh, B.O. Gallachoir, 2004. The Role of Hydrogen in High Wind Energy Penetration Electricity Systems: The Irish Case. Renewable Energy 29: 471–89.
- Grigoriev, S.A., V.I. Porembsky and V.N. Fateev, 2007. Pure Hydrogen Production by PEM Electrolysis for Hydrogen Energy, Moscow, Russia. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy.
- Guo, Y., S.Z. Wang, D.H. Xu, Y.M. Gong, H.H. Ma and X.Y. Tang, 2009. Review of Catalytic Supercritical Water Gasification for Hydrogen Production from Biomass State Key Laboratory of Multiphase Flow in Power Engineering, Xi'an Jiaotong University, Xi'an, Shaanxi 710049, China. Elsevier Ltd.
- Halmann, M. and A. Steinfeld, 2006. Thermoneutral Tri-Reforming of Flue Gases from Coal- And Gas-Fired Power Stations. Catal Today 115: 170–8.
- Harada, H., 1998. Sonophotocatalytic Decomposition of Water Using Tio2 Photocatayst. Proceedings of The Seventh

Annual Meeting of Japan Society of Sonochemistry. Japan Society of Sonochemistry: 13–6.

- Harada, H., 2000. Sonophotocatalytic Decomposition of Water Using TiO<sub>2</sub>. Ultrason Sonochem; in press.
- Harada, H., 2000. Sonophotocatalytic Reaction of Sodium Chloride Solution: Comparison of Reaction Products from Sodium Chloride Solution with Those from Pure Water and Influence of Insoluble Photocatalyst on Sonochemical Reaction. Japanese J Appl Phys 39(5B): 2974–7.
- Hefner, R.A., G.H.K. Company, 2000. The age of energy gases (Fig. 1). Adapted from Presentation at the 10<sup>th</sup> Repsol-Harvard Seminar on Energy Policy, Madrid, Spain, 3 June 1999. Oklahoma City, OK, 1999; Ausubel JH. Where is energy going? Ind Phys: 16–19.
- Hine, F., T. Sugimoto, 1980. Gas Void Fraction in Electrolytic Cell. Soda to Enso 131: 347– 62.
- Izumiya, K., E. Akiyama, H. Habazaki, N. Kumagai, A. Kawashima and K. Hashimoto, 1998. Anodically Deposited Manganese Oxide and Manganese-Tungsten Oxide Electrodes for Oxygen Evolution from Seawater. Electrochim Acta 43 (21–22): 3303–12.
- Janssen L.J.J. and G.J. Visser, 1991. Distribution of Void Fraction, Ohmic Resistance and Current in A Tall Vertical Gas-Evolving Cell. Proc Electrochem Cell Des Optim 123: 361–85.
- John W. Halloran, 2007. Carbon-Neutral Economy with Fossil Fuel-Based Hydrogen Energy and Carbon Materials. Energy Policy 35: 4839–4846
- Kado, Y., M. Atobe and T. Nonaka, 1998.
  Ultrasonic Effects on Electroorganic Processes X II. Oxidation of 2-Propanol on A Tio2 Photocatalyst. DENKI KAGAKU(Electrochemistry) 66 (7): 760– 762.

- Koroneos, C., A. Dompros, G. Roumbas, N. Moussiopoulos, 2004. Life cycle assessment of hydrogen fuel production processes. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy 29: 1443 – 1450
- Kreuter, W., H. Hofmann, 1998. Electrolysis: The Important Energy Transformer in a World of Sustainable Energy. Int J Hydrogen Energy 23(8): 661–6.
- Kruger, P., 2005. Electric Power Required in the World by 2050 with Hydrogen Fuel Production—Revised. Int J Hydrogen Energy 30: 1515–22.
- LeRoy, R.L., M.B.I. Janjua, R. Renaud and U. Leuenberger, 1979. Analysis of Time-Variation E/Ects in Water Electrolyzers. J Electrochem Soc 126: 1674–82.
- Marchetti, C., 2006. Long-Term Global Vision of Nuclear-Produced Hydrogen. Int Journal Nuclear Hydrogen Production Appl, 1 (1): 13–19
- Mason, T.J., 1992. Sonochemistry: Current Trends and Future Prospects. In: Price GJ editor. Current Trends in Sonochemistry. Cambridge: The Royal Society of Chemistry: 168–78.
- Meng Ni, Dennis Y.C. Leung and Michael K.H. Leung, 2007. A Review on Reforming Bio-Ethanol for Hydrogen Production. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy 32: 3238 – 3247.
- Meng Ni, Michael K.H. Leung, K. Sumathy and Dennis Y.C. Leung, 2005. Potential of Renewable Hydrogen Production for Energy Supply in Hongkong. Elsevier Ltd.
- Midilli, A. and I. Dincer, 2007. Key Strategies of Hydrogen Energy Systems for Sustainability. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy, 32 (5): 511–24
- Mikhail Granovskii, Ibrahim Dincer, A.M. Rosen, 2006. Environmental and Economic Aspects of Hydrogen Production and Utilization in Fuel Cell Vehicles. Journal of Power Sources 157: 411–421

- Mikhail Granovskii, Ibrahim Dincer, Marc A. Rosen., 2006. Air Pollution Reduction Via Use of Green Energy Sources for Electricity and Hydrogen Production, Canada, Elsevier Science Ltd
- Mitsugi, C., A. Harumi and F. Kenzo, 1998. WE-NET: Japanese Hydrogen Program. Int J Hydrogen Energy 23 (3): 159–65.
- Nagaia, N., M. Takeuchia, T. Kimurab and T. Okaa, 2009. Japan Existence of Optimum Space between Electrodes on Hydrogen Production by Water Electrolysis. Elsevier Ltd.
- Pahomov, V.P., V.N. Fateev, 1990. Electrolysis of Water with Solid Polymer Electrolyte. RRC "Kurchatov Institute", Preprint, in Russian.
- Papadaki, M., E. Andonidakis, T. Tsoutsos and E. Maria, 2003. A Multicriteria Decision Making Methodology for Sustainable Energy Development. Fresenius Environmental Bulletin, 12(5): 426–30.
- Petri, M.C., B. Yildiz and A.E. Klickman, 2006. US Work on Technical and Economic Aspects of Electrolytic, Thermochemical, and Hybrid Processes for Hydrogen Production at Temperatures Below 550 °C, International Journal Nuclear Hydrogen Production Appl 1 (1): 79–91.
- Ramazan Solmaz, Ali Do<sup>°</sup>ner and Gu<sup>°</sup> Ifeza Kardasx, 2009. The Stability of Hydrogen Evolution Activity and Corrosion Behavior of Nicu Coatings with Long-Term Electrolysis in Alkaline Solution. Elsevier Ltd.
- Roberto F. de Souza, Janine C. Padilha, Reinaldo S. Gonc切Llves and Joe<sup>--</sup>lle Rault-Berthelot, 2006. Dialkylimidazolium Ionic Liquids as Electrolytes for Hydrogen Production from Water Lectrolysis. Electrochemistry Communications 8: 211–216
- Rosen, M.A., 1995. Energy and Exergy Analysis of Electrolytic Hydrogen Production. Int J Hydrogen Energy 20(7): 547–53.

- Rosen, M.A., I. Dincer and M. Kanoglu, 2008. Role of Exergy in Increasing Efficiency and Sustainability and Reducing Environmental Impact. Energy Policy, 36: 128–37.
- Rosen, M.A., I. Dincer, M. Kanoglu, 2008. Role of Exergy in Increasing Efficiency and Sustainability and Reducing Environmental Impact. Energy Policy 36: 128–37.
- Sandstede G. Status of technology and development in water electrolysis. Dechema Monographien 1992;125:329–55.
- ShengWang and ShudongWang, 2006. Exergy Analysis and Optimization of Methanol Generating Hydrogen System for PEMFC. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy 31: 1747 – 1755.
- Shin,Y., W. Parka, J. Changa and J. Park, 2007. Evaluation of the High Temperature Electrolysis of Steam to Produce Hydrogen. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy.
- Song, C., 2001. A New Process for Reducing CO<sub>2</sub> Emissions. Chem Innovat 31: 21–6.
- Srinivasan, S. and F.J. Salzano, 1977. Prospects for Hydrogen Production by Water Electrolysis to Be Competitive With Conventional Methods. Int J Hydrogen Energy 2(1): 53–9.
- Thomas L. Gibson and Nelson A. Kelly, 2008. Optimization of Solar Powered Hydrogen Production Using Photovoltaic Electrolysis Devices. USA, International Journal of Hydrogen.
- Ultanir, M.O., 1997. Hidrojenin yakit olarak kullanimi ve o" zellikleri. C, evre-Enerji Kongresi, TMMOB Makine Mu"hendisleri Odasi, 295–315.
- Viswanath, R.P., 2004. A Patent for Generation of Electrolytic Hydrogen by a Cost E'ective and Cheaper Route. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy 29: 1191 – 1194
- Viswanath, R.P., 2004. A Patent For Generation of Electrolytic Hydrogen by a Cost E'ective and Cheaper Route. Department of

Chemistry, Indian Institute of Technology Madras, Chennai 600 036, India.

- Wakeford, C.A., R. Blackburn and P.D. Lickiss, 1999. Effect of Ionic Strength on the Acoustic Generation of Nitrite, Nitrate And Hydrogen Peroxide. Ultrason Sonochem 6: 141–148.
- Wong, B., R.T. Buckingham, L.C. Brown, B.E. Russ, G.E. Besenbruch and A. Kaiparambil, 2007. Construction Materials Development in Sulfur–Iodine Thermochemical Water-Splitting Process for Hydrogen Production. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy 32 (4): 497–504.
- Yalcin, S., 1989. A Review of Nuclear Hydrogen Production. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy 4 (8): 551–561.
- Yina S.F., B.Q. Xub, X.P. Zhouc and C.T. Aua, 2004. A Mini-Review on Ammonia Ecomposition Catalysts for On-Site Generation of Hydrogen for Fuel Cell Applications. Applied Catalysis A: General 277: 1–9
- Youngjoon Shin, Wonseok Park, Jonghwa Chang and Jongkuen Park, 2006. Evaluation of the High Temperature Electrolysis of Steam to Produce Hydrogen, Republic of Korea. Elsevier Science Ltd
- Yu Bo, Zhang Wenqiang, Xu Jingming andChen Jing, 2009. Status and Research of Highly Efficient Hydrogen Production through High Temperature Steam Electrolysis at INET, Beijing China. Elsevier Science Ltd
- Yuji Andoa and Tadayoshi Tanaka, 2004.
  Proposal for a New System for Simultaneous Production of Hydrogen and Hydrogen Peroxide by Water Electrolysis. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy 29: 1349 – 1354.
- Zamfirescu, C. and I. Dincer, 2008. Using Ammonia as a Sustainable Fuel. Journal of Power Sources 185: 459–465
- Zamfirescu, C., I. Dincer, 2009. Ammonia as a Green Fuel and Hydrogen Source for Vehicular Applications. Fuel Processing Technology 90: 729–737

Zong Cheng Yan, Chen Li and Wang Hong Lin. 2009. Hydrogen Generation by Glow Discharge Plasma Electrolysis of Methanol Solutions. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy 34: 48 - 55