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# Impact of a future H<sub>2</sub> transportation on atmospheric pollution in Europe



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#### HIGHLIGHTS

- European air quality improves in the future due to emission regulations.
- When road traffic is converted to H<sub>2</sub>, air quality improves further.
- H<sub>2</sub> leaked into the atmosphere does not have a large negative impact on air quality.

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#### ABSTRACT

Hydrogen  $(H_2)$  is being explored as a fuel for passenger vehicles; it can be used in fuel cells to power electric motors or burned in internal combustion engines. In order to evaluate the potential influence of a future  $H_2$ -based road transportation on the regional air quality in Europe, we implemented  $H_2$  in the atmospheric transport and chemistry model LOTOS-EUROS. We simulated the present and future (2020) air quality, using emission scenarios with different proportions of  $H_2$  vehicles and different  $H_2$  leakage rates. The reference future scenario does not include  $H_2$  vehicles, and assumes that all present and planned European regulations for emissions are fully implemented.

We find that, in general, the air quality in 2020 is significantly improved compared to the current situation in all scenarios, with and without  $H_2$  cars. In the future scenario without  $H_2$  cars, the pollution is reduced due to the strict European regulations: annually averaged CO,  $NO_x$  and PM2.5 over the model domain decrease by 15%, 30% and 20% respectively. The additional improvement brought by replacing 50% or 100% of traditionally-fueled vehicles by  $H_2$  vehicles is smaller in absolute terms. If 50% of vehicles are using  $H_2$ , the CO,  $NO_x$  and PM2.5 decrease by 1%, 10% and 1% respectively, compared to the future scenario without  $H_2$  cars. When all vehicles run on  $H_2$ , then additional decreases in CO,  $NO_x$  and PM2.5 are 5%, 40%, and 5% relative to the no- $H_2$  cars future scenario. Our study shows that  $H_2$  vehicles may be an effective pathway to fulfill the strict future EU air quality regulations.

 $O_3$  has a more complicated behavior — its annual average decreases in background areas, but increases in the high- $NO_x$  area in western Europe, with the decrease in  $NO_x$ . A more detailed analysis shows that the population exposure to high  $O_3$  levels decreases nevertheless.

In all future scenarios, traffic emissions account for only a small proportion of the total anthropogenic emissions, thus it becomes more important to better regulate emissions of non-traffic sectors.

Although atmospheric  $H_2$  increases significantly in the high-leakage scenarios considered, the additional  $H_2$  added into the atmosphere does not have a significant effect on the ground level air pollution in Europe.

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#### 1. Introduction

Road traffic is a major source of greenhouse gases and pollutants. Greenhouse gases affect the earth system globally, leading to global warming and ocean acidification. Pollution affects human health and ecosystems in particular in densely populated areas. Fine particulate matter (PM2.5) enters the lungs and enhances allergies, asthma, lung infections and long term lung diseases, PM2.5 is recognized as one of the main pollutants reducing life expectancy in Europe (EEA, 2013); recent studies show that PM2.5 affects health already at levels much lower than present European air quality limits (Beelen et al., 2014). NO<sub>x</sub> contributes to acid rain formation; it is a precursor for tropospheric ozone, aerosols and other toxic chemicals, and affects human health, especially the respiratory system (EEA, 2013; WHO, 2013). CO is a precursor for tropospheric ozone, participates in atmospheric chemistry, and is a toxic gas, affecting blood ability to transport oxygen. Tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> is not emitted directly but formed under influence of NO<sub>x</sub> and volatile organic compound (VOC) emissions. It is one of the major components of photochemical smog; it affects human health, ecosystems and causes important crop losses (EEA, 2013; WHO, 2006, 2008).

In Europe (EU 28), emissions from road traffic were responsible for about 25% of the total CO emissions, 39% of  $NO_x$  and 15% of the primary PM2.5 in 2012 (EEA, 2014). Road transport was responsible for 26% of  $O_3$  precursor emissions in Europe in 2007 (EEA, 2010).

Replacing fossil fuels by  $H_2$  in a potential future "hydrogen economy" is attractive, in the context of reducing availability of fossil fuels and increased awareness on the problems of pollution and climate change. When using fuel cell technology,  $H_2$  burning emits only water, thus using  $H_2$  as a fuel would avoid direct emissions of both anthropogenic greenhouse gases and pollutants.

Regarding H<sub>2</sub> safety, it is often thought that H<sub>2</sub> would be a dangerous fuel quickly leading to explosions. However, with adequate handling, H<sub>2</sub> can be a safer fuel than e.g. gasoline or methanol: because of its high buoyancy it does not accumulate around leak points, reducing the risk of explosions; also, a H<sub>2</sub> fire causes fewer toxic emissions and less severe radiant heat damage (Adamson and Pearson, 2000; Veziroglu and Barbir, 1992).

However, it is important to consider all potential effects. In 2000s, several studies (Prather, 2003; Schultz et al., 2003; Tromp et al., 2003; Warwick et al., 2004) drew attention to the fact that a hydrogen economy would be associated with an increase in atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> due to leakage, and this additional atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> could have negative effects on the atmosphere. Additional H<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere could enhance the stratospheric ozone hole (Tromp et al., 2003), and could indirectly increase the radiative forcing by influencing the greenhouse gases methane and tropospheric ozone (Prather, 2003). Later, more detailed studies showed that these negative effects are much smaller than feared initially, and small compared to the potential benefits (Derwent et al., 2006; Jacobson, 2008; Vogel et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2013b; Warwick et al., 2004).

The benefits of a hydrogen economy can be significant, especially regarding air quality. All studies to date reported considerable improvements in air quality, if (part of) the economy or transportation were switched to  $H_2$  as an energy carrier. The first studies on this subject considered the present (~2000) situation and assumed an immediate transition to a  $H_2$  economy.

In their modeling study, Schultz et al. (2003) considered a conversion to  $H_2$  of 50% of the total economy (which is roughly equivalent to 100% conversion of the transportation sector). This resulted in decreases in simulated  $NO_X$  (30%), CO (3%) and  $O_3$  (5%)

mole fractions. They also found that in polluted areas in Western Europe, China and Eastern US the average surface  $O_3$  would increase; however, even in these areas, the peak  $O_3$  values were predicted to decrease, which would result in fewer violations of air quality limits. Another finding of this study was a decrease in oxidizing power of the troposphere, because the decrease in  $NO_X$  leads to less OH.

In a similar study, Warwick et al. (2004) assumed a complete replacement of the fossil fuel economy, and found reductions in tropospheric  $O_3$  (2.2%) and OH (5%).

Jacobson et al. (2005) assumed a conversion of all US vehicles to  $H_2$ , and compared the effects on air quality, health and climate for several  $H_2$  production options. Unlike the other studies, they also took into account the emissions associated to the production of  $H_2$ . The results showed that using  $H_2$  produced from wind energy offers the largest benefits for health and climate. For all  $H_2$  production methods, significant reductions were found for CO,  $O_3$ ,  $NO_x$ , black carbon, and other tropospheric pollutants.

Jacobson (2008) estimated the effects of converting the global vehicle fleet to  $H_2$  produced by wind-powered electrolysis, and found reductions over 10 years in tropospheric CO (5%),  $NO_x$  (5–13%),  $O_3$  (6%) and OH (4%).

The recent study of Wang et al. (2013a), which estimated the effects of converting the global transportation to H2, is the first one to place the simulations in the future (2050). The study is global, and includes higher resolution simulations with focus on the US territory. Their baseline (no H<sub>2</sub> cars) emission scenarios are based on the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Special Report on Emission Scenarios (SRES) growth scenarios A1F1 and B1 (Nakicenovic et al., 2000), combined with present-day fossil fuel burning emission factors. A1F1 and B1 are the highest and lowest emission SRES scenarios. Both assume a large population increases and a world integrated economically; the A1F1 scenario assumes rapid economic growth and intensive use of fossil fuels, while in B1 the economy becomes more information oriented and less material intensive, and employs more clean and resource efficient technologies. The simulations using these baseline scenarios predict significantly increased air pollution in 2050 compared to present. The pollution decreases then significantly compared to the baseline when switching all the road traffic to H<sub>2</sub>. The largest improvements are found in most polluted, highly populated areas. Wang et al. assume no emissions of air pollutants are associated with H2 production.

In the present study we investigate the effects on air quality in Europe of a future (2020)  $\rm H_2$  -based road transportation sector, using the chemistry transport model LOTOS-EUROS. We compare future emission scenarios in which 50% or 100% vehicles are converted to  $\rm H_2$ , with a future "baseline" scenario without  $\rm H_2$  vehicles. Our baseline emission scenario assumes that the current and planned European legislation concerning emissions of air pollutants is fully implemented. We account for  $\rm NO_x$  emissions associated to the production of  $\rm H_2$  for vehicle use.

### 2. Methods

#### 2.1. Model

LOTOS-EUROS is an Eulerian 3D chemistry transport model designed to simulate air pollution in the lower troposphere in Europe (Schaap et al., 2008). The model has been used to simulate for example ozone (Vautard et al., 2006; Schaap et al., 2008), particulate matter (Manders et al., 2009), secondary inorganic aerosol (Schaap et al., 2004a; Erisman and Schaap, 2004), black carbon

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