# Environmental Capacity in Industrial Clusters project - Phase 3

# Technical Annex 1 Tees Literature Review

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# <span id="page-5-0"></span>1.0 Literature Review

The aim of this literature review is to assess hydrogen's potential as a sustainable fuel within the energy sector and to explore the expanding role of carbon capture technologies, with a specific focus on their environmental impacts, technological applications, and integration into existing energy systems. This includes evaluating hydrogen's application in processes such as ammonia (NH3) cracking and fuel switching in large combustion plants, while also considering the environmental consequences and the increasing prevalence of carbon capture technology within the Tees.

This will be addressed by:

- Exploring the role of hydrogen in the energy sector to understand its scope and implications across various applications, including NH<sup>3</sup> cracking, fuel switching to 100% hydrogen in peaking plant engines and off-gas engines, as well as in Medium Combustion Plant (MCP) and Large Combustion Plant (LCP) boilers.
- Identifying the range of pollutants of interest and greenhouse gases, such as carbon dioxide  $(CO<sub>2</sub>)$ , and assessing their potential environmental impacts. This involves gathering habitat information, understanding current background levels, and pathway information to evaluate how these pollutants might affect air quality and the broader environment.
- Assessing the potential impacts on air quality associated with the generation, transport, and use of hydrogen as a fuel, as well as those related to carbon capture technology. This includes examining how these technologies might influence air quality, ecology, and climate change, and identifying where current knowledge gaps exist.
- Evaluating the environmental impacts of hydrogen use and carbon capture technology within the Teesside Industrial Cluster context. A particular focus will be on identifying any air quality environmental capacity challenges that could limit development in the area.

To achieve these aims, this literature review will assess current evidence on potential emissions generated by hydrogen production and use. The review will consider:

- The formation of hydrogen, particularly grey and blue hydrogen, and emissions associated with other hydrogen production forms.
- Potential hydrogen leakage rates at various production stages, including steam methane reformation (SMR) with carbon capture, Autothermal Reforming (ATR), coal & bio gasification with carbon capture, and electrolysis.
- Other emissions directly or indirectly associated with hydrogen/carbon capture and storage (CCS), including but not limited to NOx, NO2, PM10, PM2.5, CO, CO2, SO2, NH3, and N-amines.
- <span id="page-5-1"></span>• Identifying gaps in the current evidence that may inform future research directions.

# 2.0 Methodology

This section briefly outlines the methodology used for this study. In developing the methodology for this literature review, we have adopted principles aligned with the approach detailed in the document on the Rapid Evidence Assessments (Collins et al., 2015) [1]. This approach is recognised for its efficiency in synthesizing vast amounts of evidence within constrained timeframes while ensuring the research remains comprehensive, systematic, and unbiased.

Adopting this methodological framework allows for the swift identification of relevant studies, enabling an agile response to emerging questions and the ability to update understandings in light of new evidence. It aligns with our objective to provide a clear, objective, and rigorous synthesis of existing literature on low and zero-carbon technologies, focusing on key findings and gaps in the current research landscape. This methodological stance supports our aim to contribute effectively to the knowledge in the potential effects of hydrogen as a sustainable fuel, ensuring that our review not only encapsulates the breadth of available evidence but also adheres to the highest standards of academic rigour as recommended by Collins et al. (2015) [1] in their foundational guide.

[Figure 1](#page-7-1) describes the procedure that was followed to select the most relevant available articles for the review. Irrespective of any geographical area, all relevant studies have been considered in the literature search. The process begins with an initial screening of literature based on a comprehensive list of terms relevant to the study's focus. This stage involved searching electronic databases that will be described below to retrieve publications that match the predefined search criteria. After the initial screening, there is a selection of relevant data sources, which is based on the examination of abstracts and the conclusions of the initially reviewed documents.

A two-step filtering process was applied with sources first identified for potential relevance through their abstracts, and then further assessed by their conclusions to ensure they provide substantive information for the study's objectives. The third step applied a quality assessment of relevant texts, which involves critically evaluating sources provided on website articles, academic peer-reviewed papers, articles from trusted trade magazines, and operator data. The quality of texts was assessed based on the credibility of the publication/author, the methodology of the study, the relevance to the research aims, and the robustness of the findings. Preference has been given to academic peer-reviewed papers and articles from well-known trustworthy trade magazines.

Data has been mainly collected from the most recognised operators, and information provided by governmental or reputable environmental organisations. The research design and method used are subjected to critical scrutiny to ensure sound scientific practices were followed. Here, we mainly focused on the work that was published within the last 20 years to ensure the relevance and currency of the information and data. Finally, the methodology culminates in a detailed review of sources and summarisation of key findings. This phase involves an in-depth analysis of the selected literature, extracting and synthesizing crucial data and insights relevant to the research aims.

#### <span id="page-7-1"></span>**Figure 1 - Study Methodology Outline**



The source search terms, detailed in [Table 1,](#page-7-2) were used to perform the initial screening of literature related to Net Zero technologies and their associated effects on air quality and ecology. This consisted of a systematic literature review of reports and scientific papers conducted through scientific databases, Google Search, Google Scholar, Scopus, Science Direct and Web of Science. Synonyms and modified versions of those keywords were also utilised. Initially, many of the keywords were used individually in the search and then they were gradually combined (i.e., using 'OR' and 'AND') in rational combinations, to find the most relevant abstracts and websites for review.

#### <span id="page-7-2"></span><span id="page-7-0"></span>**Table 1 - Review Search Terms**





The initial search of the databases yielded 1,376 citations. The first step in refining this pool involved removing duplicates, significantly reducing the number of articles. After removing the duplicates, we conducted a preliminary screening based on titles and abstracts, which led to further exclusion of articles that did not align with the scope of our review. This process resulted in 460 articles identified as potentially relevant and available for full-text retrieval.

During the detailed review of these articles, journal abstracts or website summaries, we applied specific inclusion criteria, leading to further exclusions: 299 articles were excluded for the following reasons:

- 192 articles were excluded due to their focus being outside the scope of Carbon Capture and Hydrogen technologies;
- 10 articles were excluded because they were review articles without original research data; and
- 97 articles were excluded for not providing sufficient detail on the methodologies or outcomes relevant to our study objectives.

Ultimately, 161 articles were retained for our final review, comprising 71 articles related to Carbon Capture, 48 related to Hydrogen, and 42 focusing on both or offering other relevant insights. The following section sets out the findings of the literature review with a detailed summary of the findings, discussions and conclusions of most of the relevant papers/websites presented in [Table 2](#page-40-1) at the end of this appendix.

# <span id="page-9-0"></span>3.0 Low and Zero Carbon Technologies

The transition to low and zero-carbon emission technologies is an essential component of the global effort to reduce  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  emissions and combat climate change. These technologies encompass various forms of hydrogen production, such as green, blue, and grey hydrogen, alongside a wide spectrum of CCS technologies. CCS technologies include post-combustion carbon capture, pre-combustion and direct air capture methods, each playing a critical role in mitigating  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  emissions from combustion and industrial activities, though they come with their own sets of challenges and benefits.

### <span id="page-9-1"></span>3.1 Hydrogen

#### <span id="page-9-2"></span>3.1.1 Hydrogen Use

The use of hydrogen is potentially a significant contributor to reducing reliance on fossil fuels and emissions of CO2. Adding hydrogen to natural gas significantly reduces the level of CO2, and it reduces to zero when pure hydrogen is utilised (Topolski et al., 2022) [2]. CO<sup>2</sup> emissions also decrease with increasing hydrogen load in the fuel mixtures, eventually dropping to zero with pure hydrogen burning.

However, fuels such as hydrogen may help reduce carbon emissions but depending on how they are converted to energy could potentially lead to worsening air quality [3]. Recent investigations into the use of hydrogen as a combustion fuel indicate a complex relationship between hydrogen enrichment and  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  emissions. While hydrogen's higher flame temperatures and laminar flame speeds have the potential to increase  $NO<sub>x</sub>$ emissions significantly when compared to conventional fuels, this effect can be influenced by the type of combustion application and burner design (Dunphy, 2023; Limpsfield, 2023).

Dutka et al. (2016) [4] explored  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  emissions in a partially premixed bluff body burner (PPBB) under various operating conditions and fuel mixtures. The study's experimental setup facilitated the examination of  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  emissions across burner thermal loads ranging from 10 to 25 kW, with chamber wall temperatures measured between 1050°C and 1350 $^{\circ}$ C. Notably, the lowest NO<sub>x</sub> emissions were recorded at a 10 kW power load, producing 55 mg/kWh for methane (CH4) and 102 mg/kWh for hydrogen (H2), both at a dry basis of 3% O2. These results were achieved with a shorter lance position, optimising the flow's momentum and turbulence, which are critical factors influencing  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  formation.

As emission limit values evolve, it is crucial to consider these factors to accurately assess the emissions profile of hydrogen-enriched fuel mixtures (Cellek & Pinarbasi, 2018 [5]; Byworth Boiler, 2023 [6]). The study conducted by Cellek and Pinarbasi (2018) [5] focused on the performance and emission characteristics of an industrial low-swirl burner while burning natural gas, methane, and hydrogen-enriched fuels. Specifically, the study utilised a burner supplied by Termo-Heat Isı San. A.S, which was designed to operate under a constant burner load of 1,085 kW and various cooling conditions in the boiler. The experimental results revealed significant findings regarding  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  emissions across different fuel types. For instance, at lower power loads,  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  emissions were quantified at 55

mg/kWh for methane and 102 mg/kWh for hydrogen, indicating a substantial increase in  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  emissions when transitioning from methane to hydrogen as the fuel source.

Douglas et al, (2022) [7] completed a study on hydrogen methane fuel blends, using correction curves for 100% hydrogen fuel the  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  concentration is predicted to be up to 37% higher compared to traditional methane combustion. C. Douglas et al, stated that a volume-based measurement approach can indicate higher NO<sup>x</sup> emissions for hydrogen blended systems and pure hydrogen required a correction of 36% to 40%. The study mentions that even when the mass production rate of  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  emissions remains the same, higher hydrogen systems will report higher  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  emissions when measured in volumebased metrics (ppmy  $\omega$  15% O<sub>2</sub>) due to higher proportions of H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub> in the combustion products compared to pure methane. This results from the combustion of hydrogen/methane fuel blends producing products with different compositions than those produced by pure methane combustion, leading to a discrepancy in  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  concentration measurements.

The study by Wright and Lewis (2022) [8] undertook a comprehensive meta-analysis of  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  emissions from the combustion of hydrogen and natural gas (H<sub>2</sub>-NG) blends in space heating boilers. It evaluated the impact of incorporating hydrogen into the natural gas network, with a focus on blends up to 20% hydrogen by volume. This approach aligns with the UK's short-term objectives for hydrogen integration and is compatible with existing infrastructure. The findings reveal a wide variability in  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  emissions changes, ranging from a decrease of 12% to an increase of 39% for a 5% hydrogen blend compared to pure natural gas. At the higher end, a 20% hydrogen blend could result in changes ranging from a decrease of 50% to an increase of 154% in  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  emissions. These variations are attributed to differences in appliance types, experimental conditions, and the higher adiabatic flame temperature of hydrogen combustion.

Meziane and Bentebbiche (2019) [9] provided a numerical analysis of  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  emissions from natural gas, hydrogen and blends of each. The key focus is on comparing the results from experimental data and two different numerical simulation schemes regarding NO<sup>x</sup> emissions. They found that a small addition of hydrogen, just 10%, to the natural gas can result in the reduction of NO<sup>2</sup> and CO<sup>2</sup> emissions by 14% and 60%, respectively. To ensure environmental compliance during the transition to hydrogen fuel, the Environment Agency has outlined specific  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  Emission Limit Values (ELVs) for the combustion of hydrogen within the scope of plant covered by the Medium Combustion Plant Directive (MCPD) and the Industrial Emissions Directive (IED) for Large Combustion Plant (LCP). A correction factor of 1.37 is applied to ELVs for the combustion of natural gas to obtain ELVs for the combustion of hydrogen, considering the change in flue gas volume. For instance, gas turbines greater than 50MWth will have a  $NO<sub>x</sub> ELV$  of 68.5 mg/ $Nm<sup>3</sup>$  when using 100% hydrogen fuel. This guidance ensures that the transition to low-carbon fuels does not compromise local air quality (EA, 2024) [10].

This inclusion of specific ELVs for hydrogen combustion reflects the regulatory framework's responsiveness to the evolving energy landscape and underscores the importance of adhering to these standards to minimise the environmental impact as the Tees Industrial Cluster progresses towards its decarbonisation goals.

Lewis (2021) [11] denoted that minimising  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  as a by-product from hydrogen boilers and engines is possible through control of combustion conditions, but this can lead to reduced power output and performance. After-treatment and removal of  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  is possible, but this increases the cost and complexity of appliances. Combustion applications therefore require optimisation and potentially the need for catalytic  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  reduction units to be fitted to combustion plants that currently do not require  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  control to achieve existing emission limits if the greatest air quality benefits from a growth in hydrogen use are to derive.

### <span id="page-11-0"></span>3.1.2 Hydrogen Production

Hydrogen can be generated at an industrial scale in several ways and the resultant hydrogen, while chemically the same, is named differently depending on how it is generated (National Grid, 2023) [12].

- White hydrogen: also known as "natural," "gold," or "geologic" hydrogen, is naturally occurring hydrogen found in the Earth's crust. Its discovery and potential use could play a pivotal role in addressing the climate crisis though large-scale sources of white hydrogen are yet to be identified and any subsequent extraction activities may have their own environmental impacts. Gold hydrogen tends to refer to hydrogen naturally produced by microbial activities in depleted oil wells.
- Green hydrogen: is produced through the electrolysis of water, using electricity generated from a combination of renewable energy sources, including solar, wind, and wave power (Hein et al., 2023) [13]. This process splits water into hydrogen and oxygen without relying on power from combustion, thereby generating hydrogen without any CO<sup>2</sup> emissions. Specifically, within the Tees Industrial Cluster, green hydrogen production is represented by the HyGreen Teesside project, aiming to become one of the UK's largest green hydrogen facilities (HyGreen Teesside), and the Protium project, which proposes green hydrogen production via Proton Exchange Membrane (PEM) electrolysis (Protium). Furthermore, EDF Renewables is developing the Tees Green Hydrogen project to supply local industry with hydrogen produced using green electricity from nearby renewable sources (EDF Renewables – Table 18).

A subset of green hydrogen, referred to as "dark green" hydrogen, emphasises an even stricter adherence to sustainability by ensuring the electrolysis process is powered directly and exclusively by renewable energy sources, not connected to the grid which may include a mix of energy sources (Hassan et al., 2023 [14]; Yacine & Abderrahim, 2023 [15]). This ensures that hydrogen production is not indirectly associated with fossil fuel-derived electricity, enhancing its environmental credentials.

On the other hand, when the electrolysis process is powered solely by solar energy, the produced hydrogen is sometimes specifically termed "yellow hydrogen," highlighting the singular renewable source used in its production. The classification into green, dark green, and yellow hydrogen underscores the varying levels of environmental impact and sustainability associated with the production processes, with "dark green" hydrogen representing an ideal in terms of renewable energy purity and directness (Hassan et al., 2023 [14]; Yacine & Abderrahim, 2023 [15]) This distinction ensures the production process minimises indirect associations with fossil fuel-derived electricity, reflecting the true environmental benefits of green hydrogen production.

• Pink hydrogen: is also generated through the electrolysis of water, however, the electricity comes from nuclear power generation.

- Blue hydrogen: made from natural gas via steam reforming, generates  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  due to fossil fuel use, however, the  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  is captured using carbon capture techniques, making it 'low-carbon' yet not emission-free. Within the Tees Cluster, the bp H2Teesside project aims to become one of the UK's largest blue hydrogen production facilities, with  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ capture and storage capabilities (bp H2Teesside).
- Grey hydrogen is primarily generated from natural gas via steam reforming, but it can also be produced as a by-product in various refineries and chemical processes. Furthermore, steam reforming is not limited to natural gas but can also utilise other light hydrocarbons, such as naphtha (Ingale et al., 2022 [16]; Holladay et al., 2009 [17]). The BOC Seal Sands facility, utilising natural gas through the Steam Methane Reforming (SMR) process, is a relevant example within the Tees Cluster, although it's moving towards capturing CO<sup>2</sup> to enhance sustainability (BOC Seal Sands).
- Turquoise hydrogen: produced via methane pyrolysis, which takes place when a hydrocarbon fuel is thermally cracked into hydrogen and carbon. For example, when methane (CH4) is heated to the required temperature, it spontaneously decomposes into carbon  $(C)$  and hydrogen  $(2H<sub>2</sub>)$ . The determining factor as to the environmental impact of turquoise hydrogen is the source of the heat being used, as well as the need for the carbon to be stored.
- Black and brown hydrogen: derived from black or brown coal (lignite), is an established process used in many industries that converts carbon-rich materials into hydrogen and carbon dioxide  $(CO<sub>2</sub>)$  via coal gasification. If the  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  generated by the process is captured, then the hydrogen produced can be considered to be blue hydrogen. However typically the  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  generated is not captured, making it the most harmful method of generating hydrogen, especially when the emissions from the extraction and transport of coal are considered.

These types, with varying environmental impacts, are crucial for a shift towards cleaner energy and a net-zero future (National Grid, 2023) [12]. Each type has its distinct environmental footprint and technological requirements. For instance, green hydrogen production, which utilises renewable electricity, offers zero direct  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  emissions, setting it apart from its counterparts (Ishaq et al., 2022) [18] but uses significant quantities of water.

The cost of hydrogen production is a significant hurdle, particularly for green hydrogen. Production costs using steam reforming are about three times higher than natural gas per unit of produced energy. Similarly, electrolysis, a method for green hydrogen production, can cost twice as much as natural gas-based methods, depending on electricity prices (Ishaq et al., 2022) [18]. The study also mentions that the inclusion of infrastructure and storage costs, as well as the cost of raw materials such as water, indicates that the overall expenses could be more than twice and closer to four times or even higher in some scenarios.

The environmental impact of green hydrogen production is intricately tied to the electricity source used for powering the electrolysis. This impact becomes particularly pronounced when dealing with intermittent renewable energy sources like wind or solar, which may require adjustments in operating hours to optimise renewable electricity use. The efficiency of the conversion process, the capacity hours when utilising intermittent renewable energy sources, and the crucial requirement for grid inputs—potentially from the closest source, such as a natural gas-fired power station—are identified as critical

factors that significantly affect both the efficiency and the environmental sustainability of green hydrogen production (Vilbergsson et al., 2023) [19].

The production of green hydrogen is notably more electricity-intensive compared to other low CO<sup>2</sup> hydrogen production technologies. Specifically, it requires over three times the green power than turquoise hydrogen (produced via methane pyrolysis) and over 37 times more than the conventional steam methane reforming process when combined with CCS. This high demand for green power places a significant emphasis on the sustainability assessment of green hydrogen production, especially considering the fluctuating availability and potentially high costs of renewable energy sources. Consequently, the cost of producing green hydrogen is generally higher compared to other low CO<sup>2</sup> hydrogen technologies, underlining the need for careful consideration of energy source sustainability and economic factors in its production (Hristescu, 2022) [20].

Liquefaction, storage, and transportation form a significant part of the green hydrogen production process, especially for long-haul transportation. Liquefaction, a process chosen for transporting hydrogen from locations like Iceland, is considered more environmentally friendly than alternatives such as transporting hydrogen as liquid organic hydrogen carriers (LOHC). However, in strategic long-term planning, transporting hydrogen via a gas grid network is viewed as the most economically and environmentally viable method, if feasible (Vilbergsson et al., 2023) [19].

In the future, the production of green hydrogen is expected to grow significantly worldwide. The European Union, for example, aims to produce 40 GW of green hydrogen by 2030. China targets 5 million tonnes of hydrogen per year by 2025, focusing on green hydrogen. Similarly, the United States plans to produce 5 GW of hydrogen by 2030, with a potential market size of up to USD 140 billion per year by 2050. Japan, Australia, and other countries also have ambitious targets and projections for green hydrogen production, driven by policy support, technological advancements, and the availability of renewable energy sources (Marouani et al., 2023) [21].

A study by Hauglustaine et al. 2022) [22], calculated the Global Warming Potential (GWP) of hydrogen over different time horizons, indicating significant potential climate impact depending on production and usage Hauglustaine et al. 2022) [22]. The climate impact is heavily dependent on hydrogen production pathways, with green hydrogen showing a beneficial impact, while blue hydrogen can lead to a climate penalty at high leakage rates. The study also highlighted the importance of managing hydrogen leakage rates during production, transport, storage, and use. A green hydrogen economy can significantly abate CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, but mixed scenarios with blue hydrogen, especially at higher leakage rates, reduce these benefits. The study underscores the need for careful consideration in planning and implementing a hydrogen-based energy economy.

Blue hydrogen is increasingly viewed as a transitional energy carrier in the move towards low-carbon economies. The production and environmental impact of blue hydrogen, however, are subject to various factors that influence its overall carbon balance and efficiency. Jane Durling (2021) [23] discusses various technologies associated with blue

hydrogen production and these are summarised below. Each of these technologies is coupled with CCS to reduce CO<sup>2</sup> emissions.

- Steam Methane Reforming (SMR) process uses methane and water to produce hydrogen. The methane is pre-treated, mixed with steam, and reformed.  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ produced in the process is captured post-combustion, compressed, dehydrated, and stored or used elsewhere. The hydrogen is then purified and compressed for distribution.
- Autothermal Reforming (ATR) uses methane, water, and oxygen. It combines reforming with combustion, allowing the process to be autothermal. A CO shift reaction further increases hydrogen yield. The  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  is captured, and the hydrogen is purified and compressed.
- Gas Heated Reforming (GHR) technique involves a two-stage process where methane and steam first enter a gas heated reformer, followed by an autothermal reformer with oxygen input. It's potentially more efficient due to its staged nature and heat recovery.
- Partial Oxidation (POX) methane is partially oxidised with oxygen and steam to produce hydrogen and CO. A CO shift reaction is employed, and the resulting  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  is captured. The hydrogen is then purified and compressed, ready for use.

Zhang et al. (2021) [24] highlighted the importance of integrating CCS in the hydrogen industry, particularly from technical, sustainability, and policy perspectives. It critically reviewed existing CCUS and hydrogen production technologies, discussing the feasibility of integrating CCUS in the hydrogen industry to accelerate carbon emission reduction by 2050. This integration, especially through CCUS+SMR (steam methane reforming), could significantly reduce emissions, pointing towards cleaner hydrogen production methods that mitigate health risks associated with fossil fuel-derived hydrogen.

Oni et al. (2022) [25] also describe the thermal decomposition of natural gas within a carbon capture and storage (NGD-CCS) facility. Natural gas enters a fluidised bed reactor, where it is thermally decomposed in the presence of a catalyst, resulting in the production of hydrogen and solid carbon. The heat from this reaction is captured for efficiency. Solid particles are then removed from the gas stream by cyclones. The remaining gas, primarily hydrogen, is purified through a pressure swing adsorption system. The hydrogen is stored for future use. Concurrently,  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  generated during the process is captured from the flue gases, compressed, and then transported for sequestration, thus reducing the environmental impact of the process.

The carbon balance in blue hydrogen production is closely associated with the consumption of natural gas feedstock, the use of electricity, and the overall efficiency of the CO<sup>2</sup> capture process. The amount of natural gas and electricity consumed significantly influences the environmental sustainability of blue hydrogen. Efficient  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  capture is crucial to minimizing the carbon footprint of this process. Recent studies have highlighted the importance of optimizing CO<sup>2</sup> capture to improve the environmental viability of blue hydrogen, suggesting that high capture efficiencies are necessary to reduce  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ emissions and natural gas consumption effectively (Romano et al., 2022) [26].

Leakage within the natural gas supply chain is another critical concern, as it significantly contributes to greenhouse gas emissions. Howarth and Jacobson (2021) [27] stated that the impact of fugitive methane emissions is critical in determining the overall greenhouse gas footprint of blue hydrogen production and when including the effects of methane leakage, the greenhouse gas footprint of blue hydrogen is over 20% greater than directly using natural gas or coal for heating. However, Romano et al. (2022) [26] point out that the methane leakage rates used by Howarth and Jacobson are higher than what is observed in many countries and can be reduced using existing technologies at low costs and concludes that for blue hydrogen to play a role in transitioning to a decarbonised economy, it must achieve significantly lower greenhouse gas emissions than the direct use of natural gas.

Therefore, minimising methane leakage is imperative to reduce the overall greenhouse gas emissions from blue hydrogen production. Moreover, the choice of metrics for quantifying the climate impact of methane emissions, particularly the Global Warming Potential (GWP), plays a significant role in evaluating the environmental impact. The GWP metric aggregates the impacts over time, requiring the specification of a time horizon, such as 100 years (GWP100) or 20 years (GWP20), for comparison.

In terms of carbon capture rates, technologies like SMR with amine units lead to a 52% CO<sup>2</sup> capture rate (referred to as SMR-52%), while including flue gas capture can increase this rate to 85% (SMR-85%). Autothermal Reactor (ATR) with  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  capture can achieve a 91% capture rate, and Natural Gas Decomposition (NGD) with CO<sub>2</sub> capture reaches a 61% capture rate (Oni et al., 2022 [25]; Bauer et al., 2022 [28]). The different carbon capture rates indicate the efficiency with which  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  is captured and removed from the process stream. A SMR system with an 85% capture rate would be more efficient and as a result, emit less  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  than the one with a 52% capture rate.

These variations highlight the importance of technology and process design in blue hydrogen production. Regarding energy consumption, natural gas and electricity remain the primary energy sources for hydrogen production. For instance, SMR-85% consumes the most natural gas per kg of hydrogen produced, primarily due to its high demand for low-pressure steam in amine regenerators. The consumption pattern of natural gas as feedstock and fuel varies across different technologies, with ATR consuming the least fuel per unit of hydrogen produced due to the heat recovered from the autothermal reactor (Oni et al., 2022 [25]; Bauer et al., 2022 [28]).

Bauer et al. (2022) examined carbon capture configurations in hydrogen production plants, focusing on two configurations described as "CCS-low" and "CCS-high." Both used methyl diethanolamine (MDEA) as the solvent for capturing CO2. The "CCS-low" configuration captured 55% of CO<sup>2</sup> emissions and corresponded to an SMR process with a hightemperature water-gas shift and 90% capture rate from the syngas. The "CCS-high" represented an ATR process that captures up to  $98\%$  of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  from the syngas, leading to a plant-wide capture rate of 93%.

The greenhouse gas emissions associated with blue hydrogen production are also varied. The highest emissions are observed in SMR without CCS, while the lowest are in ATR

with CCS. The on-site emissions from the combustion of natural gas as fuel contribute significantly to the overall carbon emissions, especially in cases without CCS. The application of CCS, while reducing on-site emissions, increases upstream emissions associated with electricity and natural gas required for the amine regenerator.

Wang et al. (2007) [29] explored the air quality impacts of hydrogen production and delivery, particularly through SMR. It compares different hydrogen supply pathways, including onsite production, centralised production with pipeline delivery, and centralised production with liquid truck delivery. The study concludes that all pathways have a low impact on air pollution, with centralised pipeline delivery being the most effective in minimising pollution, followed by on-site hydrogen production (Wang et al., 2008) [30].

However, a key consideration is the impact that hydrogen leakage may have in terms of climate change. While increased hydrogen use could lead to reductions in  $CH_4$ , CO, NO<sub>x</sub>, and VOCs (Warwick et al., 2022) [31] concerns exist about hydrogen leakage regardless of its production method. This is due to the smaller molecule size of hydrogen, in comparison to natural gas, leading to potentially higher leakage rates from pipelines, storage tanks, and connections. Specifically, the challenges posed by hydrogen's molecular properties are pronounced at critical points in the hydrogen infrastructure, such as transportation systems, gaskets, joints, and seals.

Hydrogen leakage is a concern for global warming and could influence the distribution of methane and ozone. Ocko and Hamburg (2022) [32] focused on the indirect greenhouse gas effects of hydrogen, particularly its warming impact. They revealed that hydrogen while being a low-carbon energy source, has indirect warming effects due to leakage into the atmosphere. This study used advanced climate modelling to assess these effects and emphasised the importance of considering hydrogen emissions in climate change mitigation strategies. The study by Van Ruijven et al. (2011) [33] provides a range of hydrogen leakage rates across different components of the hydrogen supply chain (i.e., transport, distribution, and end-use).

Transporting hydrogen over long distances, particularly by sea, can lead to significant energy losses and potential hydrogen emissions to the atmosphere. For example, a 2,400 km sea journey might incur energy losses of around 4.8%, with possible atmospheric emissions of 2-3%. Liquid hydrogen transport by truck or train can suffer from boil-off losses during transfer, typically between 3% and 5%. Pipelines specifically designed for hydrogen can have very low leakage rates, but repurposed natural gas pipelines could see leakage rates escalate dramatically. Storage of hydrogen in liquid form also faces daily boil-off challenges, leading to considerable cumulative losses over time. During usage in fuel cells, operational emissions, though typically small, do occur.

Across the entire hydrogen supply chain, leakage rates vary widely based on system design and operational practices, with overall estimates ranging from a fraction of a percent to as high as 10-20%. These findings emphasise the need for careful system design and operation to minimise hydrogen leakage and maximise efficiency.

The potential hydrogen leakage rates at various stages of hydrogen production, including SMR with carbon capture, coal and bio-gasification with carbon capture, and electrolysis, are important aspects of understanding the environmental impact of hydrogen production. Research suggests that loss rates from electrolysers could be high. Frazer-Nash Consultancy (2022) [34] identified three main hydrogen emission mechanisms for electrolytic hydrogen production: venting at startup and shutdown, venting due to hydrogen cross-over (i.e., the phenomenon where hydrogen molecules pass through the electrolyte from the anode to the cathode side without contributing to the external circuit's current flow), and operational purging as part of the purification process. However, venting during start-up and shutdown can contribute to emissions, ranging from 0.05 to 0.6%. These emissions are influenced by the duration of the start-up/shutdown sequence and the number of such events per year. Additionally, hydrogen crossover, which refers to the venting of oxygen, can lead to emissions of 0.05 to 0.15%, dependent on the minimum production capacity and the proportion of hydrogen that is recombined to produce water.

Purging processes to remove impurities represent another significant source of emissions, potentially contributing 0 to 10% of hydrogen emissions. The rate of emissions from purging is affected by the amount of vented hydrogen during operation and the efficiency with which vented hydrogen is recombined into water. Additionally, due to hydrogen's small molecular size, the transportation of hydrogen is likely a major source of leakage. Fluid dynamics theory suggests that hydrogen can leak 1.3 to 3 times faster than methane. The total value-chain emissions depend on the configuration of the pathway from production to end use. Previous studies have estimated hydrogen emissions ranging from 0.3% to 20% for minimum to maximum emissions.

For blue hydrogen production, methane is used both as a feedstock and a heat source. Methane emissions can occur along the supply chain before it is utilised for producing hydrogen. The amount of methane needed for hydrogen production depends on the natural gas composition, the efficiency of the reformer, and the total amount needed for both feedstock and fuel. It can range from 2.5 to 4.5 times the mass of the hydrogen produced. Methane emission estimates include venting, purging, and flaring upstream of hydrogen production. The latest understanding of upstream natural gas leakage suggests a range of 1% (best case) to 3% (worst case) per unit of methane consumed.

According to Esquivel-Elizondo et al. (2023) [35], field measurements of hydrogen emissions from production to end-use, are needed to assess its climate impact accurately. In their study, they found that the estimated emission rates vary depending on the method. For grey hydrogen, emissions range between 0.5% and 1.0%, while for blue hydrogen, they range from 0.0% to 1.5%. Green hydrogen production, often involving electrolysis, can have higher emission rates, ranging from 0.03% to 9.2%, partly due to the higher emissions associated with the electrolysis process compared to other methods like steam methane reforming and biomass gasification. Liquefaction, liquid hydrogen transporting and handling, and refuelling processes have the largest ranges of emission rates, between 0.15% to 10% for liquefaction, 2% to 20% for handling, and 2% to 15% for refuelling. These rates illustrate the variability and potential environmental impact associated with hydrogen infrastructure and logistics (Esquivel-Elizondo et al., 2023) [35]. Overall, total

hydrogen emissions rates across its entire value chain are estimated to be between 0.2% and 20%, underscoring the importance of considering the entire hydrogen lifecycle in environmental impact assessments.

### <span id="page-18-0"></span>3.1.3 Hydrogen's role in a cleaner future

The importance of hydrogen production is reflected by the global shift towards sustainability and reduced carbon emissions that has ushered in an era of innovation and transition in energy systems. Among these, hydrogen emerges as a beacon of hope for decarbonising various sectors, including transportation and industry.

The Tees industrial cluster, a pioneering region in the UK's efforts to embrace low and zero-emission technologies, serves as an exemplary case study in this transformative journey. This analysis delves into the multifaceted aspects of hydrogen technology adoption, from the combustion of hydrogen and its implications for bulk storage, NH<sup>3</sup> cracking at fuel stations, to the distinctions between green and blue hydrogen. It also examines the Tees-wide hydrogen distribution system, hydrogen's role as a raw material for sustainable aviation fuel (SAF), and critically, the emissions resulting from hydrogen fuel cell use. Through a synthesis of current research and numeric results, this paper aims to illuminate the environmental impacts and technological pathways associated with hydrogen's rise as a dominant fuel of the future. As the Tees cluster embarks on this ambitious path, understanding the nuances of hydrogen technology becomes paramount in ensuring that this transition not only meets economic and energy security goals but also aligns with global environmental and sustainability objectives.

### <span id="page-18-1"></span>3.1.4 Hydrogen Technologies Overview

Bulk Hydrogen Storage: NH<sup>3</sup> is recognized as an efficient hydrogen carrier due to its high hydrogen density, facilitating bulk storage. The theoretical hydrogen conversion efficiency from NH<sup>3</sup> is about 90%, making it advantageous for large-scale storage and transportation [36].

NH<sup>3</sup> Cracking at Fuel Stations: Solid-oxide fuel cells can effectively convert NH<sup>3</sup> back to electricity, showcasing NH<sup>3</sup> potential as a sustainable fuel, especially for on-site hydrogen production at fuel stations [37].

Hydrogen Distribution System: The development of a comprehensive hydrogen distribution system, including manifolded distribution networks, is essential for the widescale adoption of hydrogen technologies. Such systems must efficiently transport and distribute hydrogen to various points of use, including industrial applications and fuel stations.

Hydrogen for SAF Production: Utilising hydrogen as a raw material for sustainable aviation fuel (SAF) production presents a promising avenue for reducing aviation sector emissions. This approach involves converting hydrogen, along with captured CO2, into SAF through processes like Fischer-Tropsch synthesis.

### <span id="page-19-0"></span>3.1.5 Emissions from Hydrogen Fuel Cell Use

Hydrogen fuel cells (HFCs) offer a promising path towards decarbonising various sectors, notably transportation. Unlike internal combustion engines, HFCs produce water vapor as their primary byproduct, significantly reducing pollutants such as volatile organic compounds (VOC), carbon monoxide (CO),  $NO<sub>x</sub>$ ,  $PM<sub>10</sub>/PM<sub>2.5</sub>$ , sulphur oxides (SO<sub>x</sub>), and CO2. A potential environmental impact of hydrogen fuel cells is the unintended emission of molecular hydrogen, which can increase the abundance of water vapour in the stratosphere by approximately 1 part per million by volume. This could lead to stratospheric cooling, enhancement of the heterogeneous chemistry that destroys ozone, an increase in noctilucent clouds, and changes in tropospheric chemistry and atmospherebiosphere interactions (Tromp et al., 2003) [38].

A study compared emissions from internal combustion engine vehicles, hybrid vehicles, and fuel cell vehicles using hydrogen in gas or liquid form. It was found that gaseous hydrogen-powered fuel cell vehicles appear to be the best option, reducing  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  emissions significantly compared to liquid hydrogen-powered vehicles and traditional gasoline vehicles. For example, the lowest CO<sub>2</sub> emission values for gaseous hydrogen-powered fuel cell vehicles in 2050 were observed to be 81 g/km, a stark contrast to 416 g/km for liquid hydrogen-powered spark ignition internal combustion engine vehicles in 2010 (Uguru, 2020) [39].

### <span id="page-19-1"></span>3.1.6 Potential Future Impacts

Dillman and Heinonen (2023) [40] raised concerns about climate overshoot, with emissions potentially exceeding the safe space for greenhouse gases by 5.4–8.1 times by 2050. The cumulative carbon budget consumption of the hydrogen economy could be 8– 12%. The study highlights challenges with blue hydrogen, which, despite being cleaner, faces difficulties in reducing emissions effectively. It might become environmentally unviable between 2025 and 2035. Green hydrogen, produced through electrolysis using renewable sources, is cleaner but requires substantial renewable energy and vast quantities of water, impacting land and material use.

The study suggests the importance of demand-side solutions and the need for sciencebased definitions of "clean" hydrogen. It also discusses the implications of green hydrogen on electricity generation and land use, emphasising the need for a comprehensive approach that includes behavioural changes and efficiency improvements.

A study by Sand et al. (2023) [41] showed the 100-year Global Warming Potential (GWP100) of hydrogen to be 11.6  $\pm$  2.8. Hydrogen affects the climate due to its indirect impacts on gases like methane, ozone, and stratospheric water vapour. The major contributors to its GWP100 are changes in methane, ozone, and stratospheric water vapour. The study highlights the importance of reducing hydrogen leakages and addresses uncertainties in estimating the GWP100, particularly concerning soil sink estimates. It suggests that future work should focus on better understanding these uncertainties and exploring the influence of changes in other atmospheric components.

### <span id="page-20-0"></span>3.2 Carbon Capture

Carbon Capture (CC) technologies are one of the pivotal technologies within the Tees Industrial Cluster to help in mitigating CO<sub>2</sub> from a wide variety of industrial processes and power generation. It is one of the significant contributions to decarbonisation ambitions from the cluster. It will be developed on technologies that were originally developed for improving the quality of natural gas but have since evolved to find broader applications and are illustrative of the integrative nature of all processes associated with carbon management in the cluster.

The Tees Cluster has identified a diverse set of processes and projects for CC technology application, including:

- Carbon Capture on Power Generation: As a whole, the focus was laid based on units operating at small to large scales for overall emission.
- Waste tyres to Sustainable Aviation Fuel (SAF): Using CC to reduce the carbon footprint from the process of converting waste tyres to SAF (Wright and Lewis, 2022) [8].
- Existing Grey Hydrogen Production: Grey hydrogen facilities are augmented by the CC to cover the by-product  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  emissions coming from SMR (Dutka et al., 2016) [4].
- Energy from Waste (EfW) Enhancements: Enhancements through retrofitting and integrating CC in both existing and new EfW plants to sequester CO<sub>2</sub> generated from waste combustion.
- Biomass Processing and Conversion: CC technology can be used during the change of use of biomass into energy or other usable products to capture emissions.
- The processes of lithium refinery: adoption of CC in lithium processing to manage emissions, a must for the sustainability of battery production.
- Waste to Alternative Fuels and Biomass to Alternative Fuels: Using CC to convert nonrecyclable waste and biomass into cleaner fuel alternatives.

Operations of electric arc furnace (EAF) steel production: the implementation of carbon capture (CC) technologies significantly minimises the impact of greenhouse gases for the iron and steel industry. However, it is important to note that the pre-heat phase of the EAF processes has been identified as a source of polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) emissions into the air, an environmental concern that requires attention alongside greenhouse gas management.

The British Steel initiative for constructing a new electric arc furnace (EAF) at Lackenby in Redcar, which applied for planning permission in December 2023, represents an important step forward in environmentally conscious industrial advancements. The application aligns with the UK's commitment to modernise traditional industrial practices to meet stringent environmental standards. The benchmark emissions values from EAF activities, as outlined in the Environment Agency's Sector Guidance Note IPPC s2.01 [42], are significant. For instance, primary fume particulate emissions from EAF are benchmarked at 20 g/t LS with existing plants expected to stay under 15 mg/m<sup>3</sup> (daily means) and new plants under 10 mg/m<sup>3</sup> hourly average, as per the UK experience. In terms of gaseous emissions, EAF

operations are listed with benchmarks of 120-240 g/t for  $NO<sub>x</sub>$ , while CO emissions range from 0.74-3.9 kg/t LS. The management of such emissions is critical to minimising the environmental impact of steel production processes [43].

SO<sup>2</sup> emissions from one German EAF plant were reported at 24-130 g/t LS, emphasising the importance of controlling and reducing such emissions in line with best available techniques. Moreover, the guidance addresses the potential release of complex compounds such as polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins and furans (PCDD/F) and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), with the EAF stack emissions for PCDD/F expected to range between 0.07-0.9 µg I-TEQ/t LS, and EAF operations for PAHs benchmarked at 3.5-71 mg Σ EPA16/t LS (IPPC, 2004) [43].

The integration of PCBs emissions from the preheating of scrap steel in EAFs into the UK's Multi-Media Emission Inventory under the Stockholm Convention underlines the complexity and necessity of robust monitoring frameworks for these substances (Shen et al., 2021) [44]. Such emissions must be continuously monitored and managed to ensure compliance with environmental regulations and to safeguard public and ecosystem health.

Anaerobic Digestion (AD) plants promote sustainability in waste management, carbon sequestration and dry AD treatment of organic waste. The environmental profiles of bioethanol and biogas has subsequently been improved using CC.

Similarly, the application of Ensus Plant CC and SABIC's approach to CO<sup>2</sup> capture from hydrogen production off-gas remains an outstanding example of how CC technologies could be applied in practice for the reduction of the carbon footprint from the chemical manufacturing process. Together with the comprehensive list of proposed CC applications, these detailed examples paint a vivid picture of the integrated and comprehensive strategy of the Tees Industrial Cluster for forward-looking carbon management. The cluster would like to be a world leader in the application of CC technologies across its different sectors, from power generation to waste management, steel production, and biofuel creation. The sectors that lead in this ambition would mean not just a substantial reduction in  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  but a way to set real leadership in the world for transitioning into a more sustainable, low-carbon future.

### <span id="page-21-0"></span>3.2.1 Carbon Capture Solvents

Amines, a group of organic derivatives of NH3, are commonly employed in carbon capture  $(CC)$  systems to absorb  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ . This absorption occurs when  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  reacts with amine-based solvents in an absorber, a key unit of the carbon capture process. However, the use of amines also raises concerns about environmental and health risks. Direct emissions of amines and their degradation products can be released into the air during the carbon capture process. Additionally, these substances can react to form harmful compounds such as nitrosamines and nitramines, which have been associated with potential adverse effects on both health and the environment [45] [46] [47]. Amine-based carbon capture technologies are recognised for their critical role in mitigating global warming by capturing  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  emissions from fossil fuel combustion, a major contributor to climate change.

Studies by Puxty et al. (2009) [48] and Sanz-Pérez et al. (2016) [49] highlight the importance of improving the efficiency of amine absorption processes and the potential of amine-based sorbents in direct air capture (DAC) as strategies to significantly reduce greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere, thereby contributing to global climate change mitigation efforts (Puxty et al., 2009 [48]; Sanz-Pérez et al., 2016 [49]).

Amines, when used in carbon capture (CC) processes, are emitted into the atmosphere [50] where they can undergo reactions with radicals, and  $NO<sub>x</sub>$ . These reactions can lead to the production of various compounds, including nitrosamines and nitramines. However, it's important to note that not all amines form stable nitrosamines; for example, MEA is claimed not to form stable nitrosamines in the atmosphere. Additionally, the degradation of solvent systems in CC processes can lead to the release of other amines and solvent degradation products, including nitrosamines, into the air as direct emissions [51].

Given the complex and varied behaviour of different amines, it's crucial to comprehensively assess the emissions and environmental reactions associated with amines as a chemical group. This approach ensures a broader understanding of their potential impacts while acknowledging that individual amines like MEA or Diethanolamine (DEA) may have specific characteristics and effects. By adopting this comprehensive perspective, we avoid the pitfalls of oversimplification and better account for the nuanced environmental interactions of amines.

Amine-based carbon capture technologies, while effective in mitigating climate change through CO<sup>2</sup> emission reduction, present significant environmental and health challenges due to the formation and release of toxic N-amines (i.e., a broad category of nitrogencontaining amines, including nitrosamines and nitramines, known for potential health risks) (Nielsen et al., 2012 [52]; Spietz et al., 2017 [53]; NEA, 2022 [54]; AECOM, 2017 [55]) which are known carcinogens.

NH<sup>3</sup> and other degradation products from amine-based carbon capture technologies not only potentially impact air and water quality but may undergo further transformations in these environments, complicating their ecological and health impacts. These complexities underscore the imperative for meticulous management and monitoring of carbon capture technologies to mitigate their environmental footprint effectively. Amines themselves, rather than their degradation products N-amines, are likely to pose little risk to human health and their emissions potentially contribute to nitrogen deposition and subsequently acid deposition. Main amine photo-oxidation products include nitrosamines, nitramines, aldehydes, and amides. Knusden et al. (2009) [56] mentioned the emissions of aminebased degradation products are of particular concern due to their toxic and carcinogenic properties at extremely low levels. Nitramines, though less potent than nitrosamines, are suspected carcinogens with a suggested longer lifetime in the atmosphere, potentially leading to higher exposure values.

For a full-scale gas-fired power plant capturing 1 million tonnes of CO2 per year, the estimated amine emissions range from 40-160 tonnes per year. This level of emissions necessitates thorough investigation and management to mitigate potential environmental and health impacts.

The Tees Estuary is facing environmental pressures, including excess nitrogen. While exploring carbon capture technologies for environmental benefits, it's vital to ensure they do not add to these challenges (EA, 2023) [57].

The Teesmouth and Cleveland Coast SPA is a critical habitat for a diverse assemblage of bird species and encompasses various sensitive ecosystems like salt marshes, mudflats, and saline lagoons. Nitrogen deposition from amine emissions contributes to acid deposition, which could further deteriorate the SPA's condition, affecting the biological integrity of these habitats. Elevated nutrient levels, particularly nitrogen, can lead to eutrophication - an over-enrichment of water bodies with nutrients-, leading to excessive growth of algae and other aquatic plants. This process can disrupt the balance of ecosystems, leading to oxygen depletion and harm to aquatic life. The SPA/Ramsar site in the Tees area has been assessed as at risk of eutrophication, suggesting that additional nitrogen inputs from amine emissions could pose significant ecological risks.

Addressing these environmental concerns involves regulatory and management strategies that balance industrial activity with ecological preservation. The target for nutrient levels in the Teesmouth and Cleveland Coast SPA emphasises the need for restoring water quality to safe levels. However, achieving this could entail setting stringent permit limits for industrial sites and sewage treatment works, which could be costly and potentially impact industrial activities and future developments in the area.

While studies have shown that emissions of MEA and other amine-based degradation products can be very low under controlled conditions, the sensitive nature of the Tees Estuary ecosystem necessitates stringent monitoring and management. Even low-level emissions could have significant cumulative impacts over time, particularly in terms of contributing to nitrogen levels and exacerbating eutrophication.

Wurtsbaugh, et al. (2019) [58] explored how agricultural, urban, and industrial activities have increased aquatic nitrogen and phosphorus pollution, leading to eutrophication. They discussed the need for dual nutrient control strategies and highlighted the challenges in managing this global environmental problem, emphasising the significant role of low-level nitrogen emissions in eutrophication processes.

Atmospheric dispersion models, including preliminary results from studies conducted at both lab-scale and in operational facilities like the CO<sub>2</sub> Technology Centre Mongstad (TCM DA), demonstrate that amine emissions impact air quality at local and regional scales. These models and empirical studies, covering a range from lab experiments to pilot plant operations, reveal that emissions of monoethanolamine (MEA) are significantly low, measured in parts per billion (ppb). Similarly, emissions of amine-based degradation products, including nitrosamines and nitramines, were found to be below detectable levels in the atmosphere, indicating efficient mitigation strategies at these scales.  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  emissions, however, were detected in the low parts per million (ppm) range in pilot plant studies, suggesting the need for controlled conditions to manage amine emissions effectively [59] [60]. This comprehensive approach, combining modelling with empirical data from facilities like TCM DA and pilot plants using aminoethylethanolamine, underscores the importance of scale in assessing and managing the environmental impacts of amine emissions in

carbon capture processes (Morken et al., 2014 [61]; Spietz et al., 2017 [53]; Buvik et al., 2021 [62]; Pakchotanon et al., 2022 [63]).

While there are some methods and studies related to the monitoring of amines and Namines, particularly nitrosamines and nitramines, there is a global lack of standardised reference methods, especially for stationary source emissions. Instead, various occupational health methods from the U.S. are employed, utilising ThermoSorb/N cartridges for sampling. Studies on nitrosamines in post-combustion carbon capture installations show a lack of uniform methodologies, with most detections near or just above the limit of detection (Ellison et al., 2022 [64]).

The issues surrounding monitoring/measuring amines and N-amines are complex due to the lack of standardised global methodologies. While some countries have initiated specific monitoring practices, there isn't a cohesive, international approach. For instance, Norway's TCM Mongstad and Denmark's Esbjerg Power Station employ advanced techniques like FTIR and PTR-MS (Flo et al. 2017 [65]; Morken et al., 2014 [61]). However, these instances are not indicative of a global standard, and many countries lack routine sampling protocols. This results in a significant gap in baseline data worldwide, hindering a comprehensive understanding of the environmental impact of these emissions. Efforts to develop new methods, like impinger-based and Thermosorb cartridge methods, are underway but not yet standardised (Ellison et al., 2022 [64]).

The use of amine-based technologies in carbon capture presents potential occupational risks, especially since no occupational safety limits have been established for acute or chronic exposure to amines specific to CCS facilities. This lack of established limits highlights significant knowledge gaps in ensuring worker safety and health in CCS facilities. A study conducted by Gentry et al. (2014) [66] identified major risks and hazards associated with amine-based carbon capture at their Kingsnorth coal- and oil-fired power plant, emphasising the potential exposure of workers to amines or amine-degradation byproducts through inhalation and dermal contact.

Amines used in CCS, absorbed by oral, dermal, and inhalation routes, generally exhibit low acute systemic toxicity. However, concentrated alkanolamine solutions can cause local eye, respiratory, and skin irritation. MEA and DEA have been identified as skin sensitisers in some instances, particularly following prolonged dermal exposure. Brekke et al. (2012) [67] in their assessment, highlighted that the Human Toxicity Potential is significantly affected by CCS technology, often showing an increase of nearly 200% in systems with CCS. Chronic exposure to amines like MEA and DEA can lead to systemic toxicity, with DEA showing accumulation in selected tissues and potential effects on phospholipid metabolism. Chronic inhalation of MEA vapours at high concentrations has been associated with neurological effects.

Regarding carcinogenicity, extensive research on DEA has shown clear evidence of carcinogenicity in mice, suggesting an epigenetic mode of carcinogenesis involving intracellular choline deficiency (Gentry et al., 2014) [66]. Nitrosamines and nitramines formed in CC plants have been classified by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) as Group 2A (probably carcinogenic to humans) and Group 2B (possibly carcinogenic to humans). These substances are known for their potential carcinogenic and mutagenic properties (Spietz et al., 2017) [53].

A small proportion of amine solvent and degradation products escape from the absorber and are released into the atmosphere along with the cleaned flue gas. This release can cause environmental damage, contaminating soil and groundwater (Spietz et al., 2017 [53]; Jablonka et al., 2023 [68]; Nielsen et al., 2012 [52]; Azzi et al., 2014 [69]). Mist formation in the absorber, caused by fine water droplets, is also a concern for amine emissions (Spietz et al., 2017 [53]). These fine droplets not only complicate emissions monitoring at the stack exit, making compliance with regulatory standards more challenging but also increase carry-over, underlining the importance of effective containment and mitigation strategies. Such challenges and solutions are elaborated within the framework of post-combustion Best Available Techniques Reference Document (BREF) guidelines, which emphasise the necessity of addressing both the environmental impacts of amine emissions and the operational complexities introduced by fine droplet formation to ensure regulatory compliance and minimise environmental risks (European Commission, 2017 [70]).

A comprehensive understanding of these emissions and their impacts is essential for developing effective management and mitigation strategies.

### <span id="page-25-0"></span>3.2.2`Emerging Carbon Capture solvents and innovative approaches

The landscape of CCS technology is rapidly evolving with the development of new solvents and innovative approaches, each offering unique benefits in the quest to mitigate climate change. These advancements, ranging from specialised solvents like CESAR-1 and OASE blue to natural processes such as algae-based bio-fixation, represent the diverse strategies being employed to address the growing concerns of atmospheric CO<sup>2</sup> levels. CESAR-1 and OASE blue, developed through collaborative efforts and extensive research, have demonstrated significant improvements over traditional solvents like MEA in terms of efficiency, energy requirements for regeneration, and reduced degradation rates. On the other hand, the use of algae, particularly microalgae, in CCS presents a more natural approach, due to their efficient bio-fixation capabilities to capture and utilise CO2. These advancements in CCS technology, including the exploration of ionic liquids with their unique properties for  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  capture, reflect the ongoing efforts to find more effective, economical, and environmentally sustainable solutions for reducing global carbon emissions.

To further enhance the efficacy and adoption of these technologies, it is crucial to establish a transparent method for sharing information on solvent CO<sub>2</sub> capture rates, energy efficiency, and water use. This approach will move the industry swiftly towards the Best Practicable Environmental Option (BPEO), ensuring that advancements in CCS technology are effectively contributing to the reduction of global carbon emissions. Standardised reporting on these parameters will facilitate the comparison and evaluation of emerging technologies, promoting best practices in CCS implementation and supporting the global effort to mitigate climate change.

#### CESAR-1

CESAR-1, an innovative solvent for CCS, comprises of 2-amino-2-methyl-propanol (AMP) and piperazine (PZ), offering substantial improvements over the traditional Monoethanolamine (MEA) [71]. Its application in post-combustion  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  capture, particularly in advanced supercritical (ASC) coal power plants, demonstrates significant advantages due to higher CO<sup>2</sup> concentrations in the flue gas. As per Fernandez et al. (2014) [72], CESAR-1 notably reduces the power production penalty in both coal (by 25%) and gasfired (by 12%) plants compared to MEA. Additionally, it exhibits a lower rate of efficiency reduction, indicating better overall performance. Its degradation rates are also favourable; with AMP showing about half the degradation rate of MEA and piperazine noted for its stability, this translates into less frequent solvent replenishment and potentially lower operating costs despite the higher cost of the amines (Manzolini et al., 2015 [73]).

In terms of thermal energy and regeneration, CESAR-1 is more efficient, requiring less energy than MEA, which is crucial for CCS sustainability. According to the 16th International Conference on Greenhouse Gas Control Technologies GHGT-16 (2022) [74] [75], CESAR-1 achieves about 91% CO<sub>2</sub> capture with lower specific reboiler duties. While assessing environmental impact, measures of formaldehyde, acetaldehyde, and acetone emissions were considered, emphasising the environmental safety of CESAR-1. However, its economic viability is challenged by higher operating costs due to the expensive amines, despite the benefits of reduced efficiency penalties and better thermal performance (Fernandez et al., 2014 [72]; Manzolini et al., 2015 [73]). The solvent's higher resistance to degradation could, however, positively influence the overall cost-effectiveness in the long term.

#### OASE Blue

OASE blue solvent, developed by BASF in collaboration with RWE and Linde is characterised by the manufacturers as offering enhanced performance, lower energy requirements for regeneration, reduced degradation rates, and lower capital and operating costs. This technology, aimed at modular carbon capture solutions, is versatile for various flue gas sources, including coal-fired power plants, and focuses on cost savings and sustainability [76].

The solvent has demonstrated efficient  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  capture, with over 55,000 hours of testing under real power plant conditions [77]. Regarding energy consumption, the solvent surpasses the DOE benchmark, consuming 7% less energy for solvent regeneration. Economically, it offers substantial reductions in capital expenditure and is suitable for various scales of CO<sup>2</sup> capture and storage, including Enhanced Oil Recovery (EOR) and smaller-scale applications. Its advanced process concepts and specific energy demand reduction by 20% make it more economically viable across a broad range of applications (4th Post-combustion Capture Conference, 2017 [78]; GHGT-15, 2021 [79]).

#### Algae

Algae-based carbon capture is an emerging approach distinct from traditional methods like CESAR-1 and OASE blue. Unlike conventional CCS methods that store CO<sub>2</sub> underground, algae, particularly microalgae, utilize  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  through bio-fixation. These algae are efficient in capturing  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ , with rates ranging from 159-178 mg/L/day and up to 96%  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ consumption efficiency. This high efficiency is attributed to their ability to thrive in extreme environments and utilise waste gases such as  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ , NO<sub>x</sub>, and SO<sub>x</sub> from flue gas. Algae can be integrated into CCS systems, capturing  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  emissions from industrial sources and using them for growth, effectively removing CO<sup>2</sup> from the atmosphere (Singh and Dhar, 2019 [80]; Beal et al., 2018 [81]).

Algae offers several advantages for sustainability and economic value [82] [83] [84]. They don't require arable land for cultivation, making them an environmentally sustainable option. They can produce various economically valuable products, including bioenergy, animal feed, and bioproducts, surpassing other feedstocks in  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  capture efficiency (Beal et al., 2018 [81]). However, achieving economic viability in algae cultivation is challenging due to high capital costs and the need for efficient resource sourcing. Innovations like integrating algae production with bioenergy carbon capture and storage (BECCS) are promising in reducing costs and increasing efficiency. Algae cultivation not only reduces atmospheric  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  but also produces valuable biomass for various applications, presenting a sustainable method for climate change mitigation and economic benefits. Microcapsules are being explored to deliver  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  more efficiently to algae cultures, potentially saving significant costs in algae cultivation (Ralph and Pernice, 2023 [85]; Beal et al., 2018 [81]).

#### Ionic Liquids

Ionic liquids (ILs) hold the potential for  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  capture (SELCO<sub>2</sub>). There are two types: protic ionic liquids (PILs) that can donate a proton and aprotic ionic liquids (AILs) that cannot. The characteristics of ILs, including their anion properties, free volume, molecular weight, and interactions, determine their effectiveness in CO<sub>2</sub> capture. ILs are generally denser than water but some exceptions exist with densities ranging from 0.90 to 0.97 g/cm $^3\!$ . Increasing temperature tends to decrease the density of ILs. The composition of the flue gas, especially the CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> ratio, significantly affects SELCO<sub>2</sub>. Different ILs have varying selectivity for different gas components (e.g.,  $CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>$ ,  $CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub>$ ) and their performance depends on temperature. The suitability of an IL for  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  capture depends on the specific composition of the gas stream to be treated.

#### C-Capture

The Carbon Capture Solvent Compatibility Unit (CCSCU), in partnership with Singleton Birch, underwent a detailed analysis of its emissions and operational efficiency for the fourth quarter of 2023 (C-Capture, 2024) [86]. This period, spanning from November 2023 to January 2024, highlighted the CCSCU's performance in capturing CO<sup>2</sup> from flue gas emissions. With a focus on the  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  and water vapour concentrations in the flue gas inlet stream from Singleton Birch's Kiln 2, average levels were recorded at 19.18 vol% for  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ and approximately 0.67 vol% for water vapour. These metrics provide a baseline for understanding the gas treatment process and underscore the importance of monitoring

operational variables, such as the kiln's cyclic operations and downtime, which influence CO<sup>2</sup> concentration variability.

A significant portion of the report is dedicated to the emissions analysis of acetaldehyde and formaldehyde, which are byproducts of the carbon capture process. Given their potential health impacts, the EALs for these compounds are stringently set at 5  $\mu$ g/m $^3$  for formaldehyde and 370  $\mu$ g/m $^3$  for acetaldehyde. The trial's findings revealed that the concentrations of these aldehydes were substantially below the EALs, indicating minimal health risks. Specifically, formaldehyde and acetaldehyde concentrations at the absorber outlet averaged at 0.1ppm (0.132 mg/m $^3$ ) and 1.5ppm (2.91 mg/m $^3$ ), respectively. These values, when considering the flue gas flow rate and atmospheric dilution factors, translate to expected atmospheric concentrations of 9.61 ppt for formaldehyde and 0.14 ppb for acetaldehyde. The total emissions were estimated at 408.54 mg of formaldehyde and 9 g of acetaldehyde over the trial period.

The C-Capture CCSCU EA Q4 2023 Emissions Report SB-CCL Trial concludes that the emissions of formaldehyde and acetaldehyde from the CCSCU operation are significantly below harmful levels, posing little to no risk to human health. This analysis reinforces the environmental safety of the CCSCU process and supports the ongoing development and implementation of carbon capture technologies.

### <span id="page-28-0"></span>3.2.3 Infrastructure for CCS and Hydrogen Distribution

In addition to the discussed benefits and challenges of hydrogen production, it is essential to consider the infrastructure required for CO<sup>2</sup> and H<sup>2</sup> management. This includes the necessity for on-site polishing of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  to meet new pipeline specifications, ensuring compatibility with storage and transport requirements. There is, therefore, the possibility of concentrated CO<sup>2</sup> to be vented during start-up and shutdown operations, especially if operating as dispatchable plants, and maintenance periods. These cases are illustrative of the required firm relevance of undertaking strength in both maintenance procedures of the CO<sup>2</sup> pipelines and emergency response strategies.

Further, concerning the allocation of such space within the pipeline CO<sub>2</sub> network, often on a 'first come, first served' basis, the matter does raise concerns in the light of potentially blocking new projects in the future. In other words, this should equally comprise an equitable and strategic plan to ensure that pipeline infrastructure for  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  capture and storage projects of today and tomorrow is adequate.

There is the potential for  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  and hydrogen emissions from transportation [87] and storage [88]. Further, in any case of spill or leakage, the heavier-than-air property of liquid CO<sup>2</sup> would, therefore, require proper risk assessment and mitigation strategies for not only avoiding but also controlling CO<sup>2</sup> ponding. With the above, therefore, the Tees-wide hydrogen distribution pipeline development becomes very instrumental in allowing the support to the differentiated needs of green and blue hydrogen markets.

This could, therefore, reflect market dynamics, whereby select consumers could even be willing to pay a premium for green hydrogen, allowing separate pipelines of green and blue H<sub>2</sub> to be available to provide certainty of the source to the consumer to be able to select the type fitting his needs.

Bulk storage of hydrogen comes along with a set of challenges, including flaring, fugitive emissions, and venting, and the environmental impacts of hydrogen, e.g. is ability to act as a secondary greenhouse gas [89, 90]. These require that there be quality metering points and monitoring standards to meet hydrogen pipeline tripartite challenges of safety, efficiency, and environmental compliance. These developments in infrastructure may duly address stakeholders for integrating efficiently side by side with carbon capture and storage technologies into the wide scale of energy and environment.

### <span id="page-29-0"></span>3.2.4 Impact of climate on Carbon Capture technologies

The various climate conditions, especially temperature and humidity, have the potential to affect the performance of solvent-based systems, including CC technologies. The CO<sup>2</sup> capture rate is significantly influenced by air temperature and relative humidity. Capture efficiency varies greatly depending on these conditions.

A study by An et al. (2022) [91] found that high  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  capture rates (up to 85%) are achievable in hot and humid climate conditions, whereas the capture rate drops dramatically in cooler and drier conditions. For instance, a  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  capture rate of 75% is only possible above 17°C and 90% relative humidity. Consequently, the energy demand and the cost of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  removal are strongly impacted by varying  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  capture rates, which are influenced by climate conditions. The study observed that the overall energy demand decreases as the CO<sup>2</sup> capture rate increases. It also noted that the cost of capture could vary significantly based on climate conditions, being more sensitive to temperature than to relative humidity. Moreover, water demand depends on the relative rates of water evaporation and generation in the air contactor, which are also influenced by climate conditions. They found that net water loss is higher in hot and dry conditions, which could impact the deployment of liquid solvent-based DAC in such geographical locations. Conversely, in cold and dry locations where temperatures drop well below 0°C, net water loss is lower, but CO<sub>2</sub> capture rates also decrease, potentially increasing energy demand. The studies emphasised the need for deployment strategies to consider specific climate conditions, as they greatly influence the system's efficiency and operational costs, suggesting that this is crucial for optimising the efficiency and cost-effectiveness of these systems in different climatic environments.

In combustion plants, higher ambient temperatures can affect the cooling efficiency of the plant. Cooling systems, which are essential for maintaining optimal operating temperatures, become less efficient in warmer conditions. Petrakopoulou et al. (2020) [92] investigated how rising ambient temperatures affect the performance and water use of natural gas and coal power plants and highlighted that higher ambient temperatures led to increased pressure at the steam turbine outlet, and thus decreasing plant efficiency.

With regard to the impact on amine regeneration in CC technologies, warmer weather can present challenges as well. Amine regeneration, the process of releasing absorbed CO<sup>2</sup> from the amine solvent, is typically an energy-intensive thermal process. Increased ambient temperatures can influence the thermal dynamics of the regeneration process. Furthermore, the implementation of environmental regulations, such as the European Eel Regulation, is increasingly restricting the extraction of cooling water from estuaries or the

sea, impacting the availability of a critical resource for managing temperatures in the amine regeneration process (European Commission, 2007) [93]. The thermal degradation of amines is an important factor in limiting the temperature and pressure in amine regeneration. By understanding the different degradation processes, amine regeneration could be optimised, balancing operational temperatures to minimise degradation while maintaining efficiency (Rochelle et al., 2012) [94]. Hong et al. (2020) [95] examined how different amines (MEA, DEA, MDEA, AMP) behave under various temperatures and provided insights into optimising amine regeneration at lower temperatures.

The changing climate increases the likelihood of droughts and hot weather, the impacts of this include water resources drought, reducing the amount of available water for abstraction for water supply. Global warming affects water sources by changing weather patterns (impacting annual rainfall), rising sea levels (causing flooding and operational disruptions) and decreasing water quality. The impacts of this on industry may reduce the available water supply to plants for process use.

### <span id="page-30-0"></span>3.2.5 Human Health Effects

The health and environmental impacts of carbon capture (CC) technologies, particularly those involving amine-based scrubbing solvents, as well as the potential effects of hydrogen use, have been the subject of various studies. These impacts are critical to understand as the adoption of these technologies increases in efforts to mitigate climate change. The HECC report [108] underlines that air pollution, significantly driven by fossil fuel combustion, is a leading environmental risk to public health in the UK, contributing to numerous deaths annually due to respiratory and cardiovascular diseases. It emphasises the health benefits of transitioning to low-carbon energy sources, like green hydrogen, which can lead to improvements in air quality and, consequently, public health outcomes. Specifically, it notes the potential health benefits of reducing  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$  and  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  exposure through climate change mitigation measures and the transition to renewable energy sources, including the implications of such transitions for reducing greenhouse gas emissions and enhancing public health [96].

Zoback and Smit (2023) [97] in their study, explored the environmental and health impacts of large-scale CC and hydrogen production, suggesting that the safest and most practical strategy for dramatically increasing  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  storage in the subsurface is to focus on regions with multiple partially depleted oil and gas reservoirs. This approach, coupled with largescale hydrogen production, presents an economically viable strategy for reducing greenhouse gas emissions. The study suggests that understanding and mitigating any potential health risks from such large-scale operations are crucial for ensuring the safety and health of populations in oil- and gas-producing countries.

While amine-based carbon capture technologies show promise for reducing CO<sub>2</sub> emissions [98] [99] [48] [99], they also present potential risks to human health and the environment, primarily due to the emissions of amines and their degradation products, including nitrosamines and nitramines [100]. The SCOPE project report (Lathouri et al., 2022) [101] delves into the health risks posed by nitrosamines and nitramines, emphasising their carcinogenic potential. It covers toxicological data, environmental

guidelines, and the necessity of stringent safety measures to mitigate risks from these compounds. Special attention is given to sensitive populations like children, highlighting their increased vulnerability to these substances. The document advocates for the use of Quantitative Structure Activity Relationship (QSAR) models for hazard prediction and emphasises comprehensive monitoring and control measures to manage exposure via air, water, or occupational contact. Crucially, it provides specific numerical results for the Estimated Lifetime Cancer Risks (ELCRs) associated with exposure to NDMA, NDEA, and NPIP. For instance, the ELCR values for NDMA and NDEA underscore a significant risk, with the total ELCR for NDMA at 1.61 x 10<sup>-7</sup> and for NDEA at 4.83 x 10<sup>-5</sup>, indicating the substantial health risks involved. These findings underscore the importance of rigorous safety standards and continuous monitoring to protect public health around PCC facilities, particularly for vulnerable groups like children, who face a higher risk of cancer from exposure to these chemicals.

Chen et al. (2018) [102] in their comprehensive review, stated that the potential formation of nitrosamines and nitramines during amine degradation processes in CC technologies raises concerns due to their suspected carcinogenicity. These compounds may be emitted into the environment as by-products of the  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  capture process, posing risks to human health and ecosystems. The environmental and health impacts of these compounds are associated with high uncertainties, requiring further research to evaluate their significance and develop mitigation strategies.

#### <span id="page-31-0"></span>3.2.6 Environmental Impacts

The hydrogenation of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  not only aims at reducing  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  buildup but also produces fuels and chemicals, offering opportunities for sustainable development in energy and the environment. Despite the potential benefits, the environmental impacts associated with hydrogen production, especially from blue hydrogen (natural gas-based with carbon capture), may vary widely and depend on key parameters like the methane emission rate of the natural gas supply chain, the  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  removal rate at the production plant, and the warming metrics applied (Bauer et al., 2022) [28]. Furthermore, the production of green hydrogen, especially from low-carbon energy sources, has been linked to potential health benefits. A study conducted by Raouf (2023) [103] suggests that the production and use of green hydrogen not only contributes to environmental sustainability but also have positive implications for public health financing and outcomes. Reducing CO<sub>2</sub> emissions through increased use of hydrogen energy can help countries allocate more resources to public health, highlighting the interconnectedness of energy policy, environmental health, and public health expenditure (Raouf, 2023) [103].

# <span id="page-31-1"></span>4.0 Review Limitations

The deliverables and scope of this project were limited by time and cost, therefore whilst every effort has been made to cover the key research questions, it is possible that additional information is available that has not been considered within this study. Only a comprehensive literature review could resolve this.

# <span id="page-32-0"></span>5.0 Challenges, Gaps and Future Research

The effective implementation and impact of CC technologies include several challenges that require a comprehensive and coordinated approach: Technological limitations are at the forefront of these challenges. Current CC systems, particularly amine-based ones, often struggle with efficiency in capturing and treating emissions. An integral part of addressing these challenges involves robust monitoring, both on-site to ensure the systems are functioning efficiently and ambient monitoring off-site to assess the environmental impact accurately and ensure compliance with environmental standards. Managing the degradation of amine solvents and the formation of harmful byproducts like nitrosamines and nitramines is a significant hurdle. Advancements in technology are required to overcome these limitations and enhance the effectiveness of CC systems.

Economic viability poses another major challenge. The high costs and energy-intensive nature of CC technologies, especially those involving amine-based processes, hinder their widespread adoption. Additionally, the introduction of these technologies often leads to new water demand, further complicating their implementation in water-scarce areas. Moreover, as new hydrogen production processes are integrated with carbon capture to create a more sustainable energy system, the economic considerations become even more complex, balancing the cost of innovative production methods against their environmental benefits. The energy penalty associated with CO<sub>2</sub> removal and increased capital and operating costs are key factors that need addressing to make these technologies more financially feasible. These challenges may hinder the development and implementation of CC, detracting from the potential financial benefits of innovative hydrogen and energy generation development in this area.

Environmental impacts of carbon capture (CC) technologies and nitrogen (N) deposition are significant concerns, particularly in ecosystems sensitive to nitrogen and acid deposition. A global assessment reveals nitrogen accumulation as a primary driver altering species composition across various ecosystems due to direct toxicity, soil acidification, and susceptibility to secondary stress factors (Bobbink et al., 2010) [104]. Despite decreases in nitrogen deposition, studies have observed limited responses in soil solution nitrate concentrations, understory vegetation, tree growth, or vitality, indicating that further reductions in nitrogen deposition alone might not lead to significant ecosystem recovery. This necessitates a broader approach considering accumulated nitrogen loads, climate change, and forest management (Schmitz et al., 2019 [105]; Dirnböck et al., 2018 [106]). The form of nitrogen deposition (reduced vs. oxidized) has been shown to differentially impact vegetation across habitat types, with acid and mesotrophic grasslands more sensitive to reduced nitrogen, and calcareous grasslands and woodlands more responsive to oxidised nitrogen, illustrating the complexity of nitrogen deposition impacts on biodiversity (Van den Van de Berg et al., 2016 [107]).

Challenges in mitigating the impacts of CC technologies and nitrogen deposition on ecosystems, particularly in protected habitats, include addressing the direct and indirect emissions from these systems and developing effective strategies to manage their broader ecological footprint. The complexity of ecosystem responses to nitrogen and acid

deposition, the need for stringent emission reductions, and the implementation of comprehensive management strategies represent significant challenges in preserving biodiversity and ecosystem health.

Monitoring and compliance are integral to ensuring that CC technologies adhere to permitted emissions. Establishing robust monitoring systems and effective enforcement mechanisms is a complex task that involves both technical and regulatory aspects. The nature of the Tees Industrial Cluster increases the importance of stack monitoring and ambient air monitoring at sensitive human health and ecological receptors due to the potential number of CC technologies.

Finally, integrating CC technologies with existing industrial and power generation infrastructure presents its own set of technical and logistical challenges. Retrofitting old plants and ensuring compatibility with various operational settings are essential for the seamless adoption of these technologies.

Furthermore, the downstream utilisation of captured  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  underscores a pivotal challenge in ensuring that these efforts genuinely contribute to the reduction of total global emissions. The imperative to prevent the re-release of captured  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  into the atmosphere necessitates stringent regulatory oversight. This is particularly relevant in sectors like food and drink, as well as emerging Sustainable Aviation Fuel (SAF) production businesses, where the use of industrially captured  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ , combined with green  $H<sub>2</sub>$  for manufacturing purposes, may lead to its subsequent re-emission. For instance, a proposed project aiming to utilise captured  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  alongside green  $H<sub>2</sub>$  for SAF production could inadvertently cycle CO<sup>2</sup> back into the atmosphere upon fuel use. Such scenarios highlight the critical need for regulations that not only promote the capture and utilisation of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  but also ensure its permanent removal from the atmospheric cycle, thereby contributing to the overarching goal of reducing total global emissions.

Through cluster-scale mutual collaboration, several key challenges posed in hydrogen projects and carbon capture technologies can be addressed, besides taking the regulatory issues into consideration. For example, in the Tees area, current approaches to the funding of hydrogen projects, from source through distribution to the end-user, have led to plans for the construction of three separate hydrogen pipelines by three large  $H_2$  projects. The consolidated approach, where a single H<sup>2</sup> distribution network serves as a BPEO, may rationalise infrastructure development and overcome space-induced challenges in some critical zones, e.g., river crossing tunnel pipelines. Further, such a partnership may stretch from mere sharing of infrastructure to collaborative programs for ambient air quality monitoring in ecological sites. This would give full-scale possibility toward new solvent emission degradation products and PCBs of EAF for comprehensive analysis, allowing their comprehensive indications of significance toward environmental concerns. Meanwhile, collaborative efforts on such a scale can optimally utilise resources with resourcefulness, improve the measures of environmental protection, and contribute to regional industrial capability development sustainably.

# <span id="page-34-0"></span>6.0 Conclusions and Recommendations

The review highlights significant concerns regarding the impact of air pollutants such as  $NO<sub>x</sub>$ , PM<sub>10</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub> and amines on the region, emphasising the need for effective strategies to mitigate these effects. The transition towards hydrogen-based technologies and carbon capture utilisation and storage is recognised as a promising approach to reducing the carbon footprint of industrial activities. However, this transition must be managed with an acute awareness of the potential impacts on human health and sensitive ecological areas. These areas require particular attention to manage changes in nitrogen deposition, primarily due to increased  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  generation from hydrogen combustion and ammonia/amine emissions from CC plant. The implementation of carbon capture technologies should be pursued with diligence to ensure that the ecological integrity of these regions is not compromised. Additionally, the recommendations call for a robust environmental monitoring framework. This framework should ensure that industrial activities comply with environmental regulations and standards to protect the region's ecological balance. The development of sustainable industrial practices is also emphasised, aiming to balance industrial growth with the preservation and improvement of the natural environment.

Overall, while CC and hydrogen generation technologies represent pathways toward reducing greenhouse gas emissions and transitioning to a low-carbon economy, their adoption must be navigated with awareness of the significant environmental and human health impacts they may entail. It is imperative to not only optimise these technologies to minimise direct emissions but also to ensure the environmental integrity of the entire process from the purity of captured CO<sup>2</sup> and produced hydrogen to a thorough assessment of their life cycle and the indirect effects on the atmosphere and ecosystems. This comprehensive approach is essential for ensuring that these technologies truly contribute to sustainability goals without adverse side effects.

These conclusions and recommendations denote the need for a coordinated approach that integrates environmental protection with industrial development, ensuring that low carbon technology deployment progresses sustainably and responsibly.

# <span id="page-35-0"></span>7.0 References

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Hydrogen Generation

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os://www.sciencedirect.co cience/article/pii/S016727 3800004525 Hydrogen **Generation** s://doi.org/10.1038/s4324 7-023-00857-8 Hydrogen Generation / Hydrogen Use

[Global environmental](https://agage.mit.edu/publications/global-environmental-impacts-hydrogen-economy#:~:text=Hydrogen%20is%20therefore%20an%20indirect,a%20100%2Dyear%20time%20horizon.)  npacts of the hydrogen **enomy | Advanced Global Atmospheric Gases** [Experiment \(mit.edu\)](https://agage.mit.edu/publications/global-environmental-impacts-hydrogen-economy#:~:text=Hydrogen%20is%20therefore%20an%20indirect,a%20100%2Dyear%20time%20horizon.)



[Hydrogen blending will raise](https://www.rechargenews.com/energy-transition/hydrogen-blending-will-raise-consumer-costs-and-risk-public-health-while-barely-reducing-emissions-us-think-tank/2-1-1193416)  [consumer costs and risk](https://www.rechargenews.com/energy-transition/hydrogen-blending-will-raise-consumer-costs-and-risk-public-health-while-barely-reducing-emissions-us-think-tank/2-1-1193416)  ublic health while barely educing emissions: US [think-tank | Recharge](https://www.rechargenews.com/energy-transition/hydrogen-blending-will-raise-consumer-costs-and-risk-public-health-while-barely-reducing-emissions-us-think-tank/2-1-1193416)  [\(rechargenews.com\)](https://www.rechargenews.com/energy-transition/hydrogen-blending-will-raise-consumer-costs-and-risk-public-health-while-barely-reducing-emissions-us-think-tank/2-1-1193416)

Hydrogen Generation / Hydrogen Use

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Carbon Capture - Amine-Based Technologies / Hydrogen Generation

Carbon Capture / Hydrogen Generation

Carbon Capture / Hydrogen Generation

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**Vew research shows how** carbon capture technology **n** trap almost all emissions **Imperial News | Imperial** [College London](https://www.imperial.ac.uk/news/227653/new-research-shows-carbon-capture-technology/)

Carbon Capture

**[MergedFile \(defra.gov.uk\)](https://uk-air.defra.gov.uk/assets/documents/reports/cat09/2006240802_Impacts_of_Net_Zero_pathways_on_future_air_quality_in_the_UK.pdf) Carbon Capture** 

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Carbon Capture

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tps://ntnuopen.ntnu.no/ntnu

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Allam Cycle

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Carbon Capture / Allam Cycle

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Allam Cycle

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General

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General

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General (Decarbonisation)

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