# RENEWABLE HORIZONS: INVESTIGATING FEASIBILITY IN CONSUMPTION TRENDS

https://doi.org/10.47743/jopafl-2024-31-11

## **FILSER Stephan Peter**

Alexandru Ioan Cuza University of Iași, Faculty of Economics and Business Iasi, Romania stephan.filser@oulook.com

Abstract The European Union's ambitious target to achieve zero emissions from passenger cars by 2035 has sparked significant strategic overhauls among European car manufacturers, pushing them towards a 100%electric vehicle fleet. Concurrently, a forthcoming heating law, slated to take effect from 2024 initially in Germany, aims to drastically curtail the installation of gas and oil heating systems in favour of heat exchangers. These legislative shifts are already straining the power grid, necessitating a substantial expansion of renewable energy capacity. Projections indicate an ongoing surge in energy demand, underscoring the imperative of a global transition away from fossil fuels. However, this endeavour poses formidable challenges for nations worldwide. This study delves into the current state of renewable energy and its projected evolution, stressing the imperative of significantly boosting renewable energy deployment to achieve sustainable electrification of passenger vehicles globally. It highlights the need to triple the share of renewable energy sources, quadruple efforts across all transportation sectors, and increase the overall transition away from fossil fuels fifteenfold. While conventional renewables such as solar, wind, hydro, and biofuels remain integral, emerging technologies like nuclear fusion offer promising avenues. Nonetheless, attaining complete independence from fossil fuels may prove elusive, considering non-energy applications of crude oil and other fossil resources. The study also assesses potential ecological ramifications and balances the environmental impacts of these energy transitions.

## Keywords renewable energy, defossilization, nuclear fusion

#### Introduction

The discussions about opportunities to stop carbon dioxide emissions have remained as the most complex topic ever since. While environmental associations stress the fact that the ongoing measures targeting the goal of zero emissions had not been sufficient, companies and societies are struggling with political decisions. On the one hand, sustainable measures seem to be too expensive and inefficient, on the other hand specialists claim that talking about a decarbonization is not enough and that we had had to talk about a defossilization instead (Schlögl, 2019, Kramer, 2019). A global defossilization would remain in a stop of using crude oil, natural gas, and coal, especially for energy means. The usage of fossil fuels differs between economic sectors. While coal is mainly used for industrial purposes (about 84 %) and natural gas is mostly used for residential and commercial/public service purposes (about 43 %), and industrial purposes too (about 38 %), crude oil is used for mobility and transport purposes by about 65 %. The amount of energy associated with this is equivalent to about 25 % (around 36.361 TWh) of the total energy produced from fossil fuels worldwide in 2021 (IEA, 2021).

In the mobility sector most, manufacturers track a full electric strategy, which indicates the end of combustion engines and a future of electronic engines. Especially European OEMs

(Original Equipment Manufacturers) are forced to do so since the European Parliament had decided to reach zero emissions in the fleets of OEMs by 2035 (EU, 2019, EU, 2022).

Besides engines, energy carriers play an even higher role. Accumulators are the mainly used energy carriers in mobility and transportation. Accumulators show a much higher energy efficiency of about 77 % (Archer, 2018), but the production causes environmental damage especially for the sourcing of lithium and cobalt (Cheeseman, 2022, Occhipinti, 2021). Projects for new battery techniques are ongoing to improve range and charging times, whereby the electricity infrastructure is still missing. It is also questionable whether existing electricity networks can withstand the demanded performance and whether the supply can be provided entirely by renewable energies.

Another commercially used energy carrier is hydrogen. In combination with fuel cells this energy carrier shows an overall energy efficiency of about 30 % (Archer, 2018). One major (economic) disadvantage is the high volatility of hydrogen. For a safe transportation of hydrogen very high pressure or a very low temperature is needed. The pressure in tanks increases as the temperature rises and must be reduced, resulting in fuel loss. This property and the high flammability also have major disadvantages for safety.

Direct burning of hydrogen in a combustion engine is possible in principle, but several projects of independent companies in different branches showed that a commercial use would be too expensive for the end-user and therefore not realistic.

## Research methodology, methods, and data collection

The purpose of this paper is to calculate the need of renewable energies to replace fossil energy carriers. The analysis shall show if a corresponding replacement is possible respecting the resulting environmental consequences. Therefore, the paper follows a realistic philosophy and an inductive approach.

Only secondary data is used in this paper. The value of interest is the amount of (electrical) energy gained from fossil energy carriers and renewable energies.

The level of analysis depends on the individual data transparency and the scope of the data. The consumption per category and the needed amounts of renewable energies to replace fossil energy carriers are calculated. Available prognoses are used to enable the calculation of corresponding forecasts.

Interpretations about the calculated values are done if applicable. Accordingly, the paper corresponds to archival research in a descriptive manner.

The central questions of this work are: how must the efforts according to the installation of renewable energies be accelerated to address the set goals accordingly and which environmental consequences may result from these efforts?

The scope is defined over types of fossil energy carriers, commercially used renewable energies, and the availability of corresponding data.

#### **Analysis and results**

Collected data and calculation

The distribution of the data is based on an overall consumption of fossil fuels by 11.521 TWh in 2022 in the European Union (Ritchie et al., 2022a):

Natural gas 3.434 TWh Crude oil 6.148 TWh

Coal 1.939 TWh

The generation of electrical energy from renewable energy sources was distributed in 2022 in the European Union as follows (Ritchie et al., 2022b):

 Solar energy
 207 TWh
 (13 %)

 Wind energy
 420 TWh
 (22 %)

 Hydropower
 277 TWh
 (45 %)

 Biofuels
 175 TWh
 (12 %)

 Others
 182 TWh
 (8 %)

For categorization and calculation purposes percentual consumption of fossil fuels per sector data in the following table from 2019 is assumed:

Table 1. Percentual fossil fuel consumption per sector in 2019

| Fossil fuel | ssil fuel Sector                  |        |
|-------------|-----------------------------------|--------|
| Coal        | Iron and steel                    | 34,0 % |
| Coal        | Chemical and petrochemical        | 7,5 %  |
| Coal        | Non-metallic minerals             | 21,7 % |
| Coal        | Other industry                    | 8,9 %  |
| Coal        | Non-specified                     | 12,1 % |
| Coal        | Non-energy use                    | 5,2 %  |
| Coal        | Residential                       | 6,4 %  |
| Coal        | Services, agriculture and fishing | 4,2 %  |
| Gas         | Industry                          | 37,6 % |
| Gas         | Non-energy use                    | 11,9 % |
| Gas         | Residential                       | 29,7 % |
| Gas         | Commercial and public services    | 12,8 % |
| Gas         | Other                             | 0,9 %  |
| Gas         | Transport                         | 7,3 %  |
| Oil         | Industry                          | 7,3 %  |
| Oil         | Non-energy use                    | 16,7 % |
| Oil         | Other                             | 5,4 %  |
| Oil         | Residential                       | 5,3 %  |
| Oil         | Aviation                          | 8,6 %  |
| Oil         | Road                              | 49,2 % |
| Oil         | Rail                              | 0,8 %  |
| Oil         | Navigation                        | 6,7 %  |

(Source: IEA, 2021)

For calculations of necessary installations, following values are assumed:

Solar panels:

Space required per TW: 3.300 km2 (Quaschning, 2018)

Calculated average sun hours per year: 2.296 h (Eglitis, 2022)

Wind turbines:

Average nominal power: 2 MW (onshore and offshore), referenced to ENERCON GmbH which provide over 45% of wind turbines in Germany (IWR, 2022)

Average annual full-load hours:  $\sim 2.900$  h, calculated through different but familiar full-load hours data (Kaltschmitt et al., 2013, Mills et al., 2012, Tafarte, 2014)

Hydropower plants:

An installed cumulative capacity of 1.096 GW results in in an annual production of 4.100 TWh (REN21, 2017)

Biofuels production:

Calculated average equivalent compared to fossil fuels is around 0,79 (FNR, 2023)

Energy contained in 1kg crued oil is around 11,8 kWh (Ritchie et al., 2022a)

Resulting needed space: 27,355 km<sup>2</sup>/TWh (FNR, 2023)

Please note that needed amounts of water and fertilizers are not respected in this paper.

## Categorisation

For analysing purposes, the before presented sectors are categorised as follows:

Table 2. Assigned categories to sectors for analysing purposes

| Sector                             | Assigned category |  |
|------------------------------------|-------------------|--|
| Aviation                           | Transport         |  |
| Chemical and petrochemical         | Industry          |  |
| Commercial and public services     | Other             |  |
| Iron and steel                     | Industry          |  |
| Industry                           | Industry          |  |
| Navigation                         | Transport         |  |
| Non-energy use                     | Non-energy use    |  |
| Non-metallic minerals              | Industry          |  |
| Non-specified                      | Industry          |  |
| Other                              | Other             |  |
| Other industry                     | Industry          |  |
| Rail                               | Transport         |  |
| Residential                        | Other             |  |
| Road                               | Transport         |  |
| Services, agriculture, and fishing | Other             |  |
| Transport                          | Transport         |  |

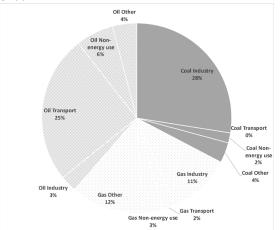
(Source: IEA, 2021)

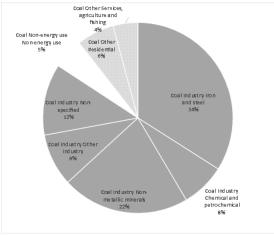
#### Results

Fossil fuels consumption by category

The following charts show overviews of the combination of the percentual consumption by sector and the aligned categorisation.

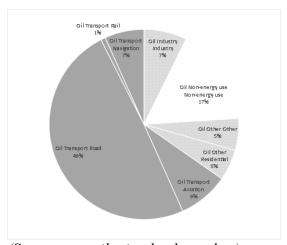
Figure 1. Overview energy consumption by fossil fuel Figure 2. Coal usage for industry purposes: circa 84%

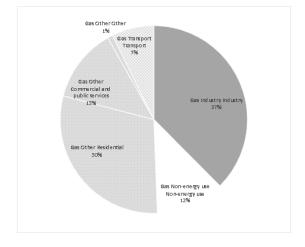




Source: contribution by the author

Figure 3. Oil usage for transport purposes: circa 65% Figure 4. Gas usage for various purposes





(Source: contribution by the author)

In Table 3 the actual consumption is combined with the percentual distribution in the categories.

Table 3. Energy consumption from fossil fuels by assigned categories

| Fossil fuel | Category       | Percentage         | Annual consumption (2022) |
|-------------|----------------|--------------------|---------------------------|
| Coal        | Industry       | stry 14,2% 1.632 T |                           |
|             | Transport      | 0,0%               | 0 TWh                     |
|             | Non-energy use | 0,9%               | 101 TWh                   |
|             | Other          | 1,8%               | 205 TWh                   |
| Natural gas | Industry       | 11,2%              | 1.291 TWh                 |
|             | Transport      | 2,2%               | 251 TWh                   |
|             | Non-energy use | 3,5%               | 409 TWh                   |

|           | Other          | 12,9% | 1.490 TWh |
|-----------|----------------|-------|-----------|
| Crude oil | Industry       | 3,9%  | 449 TWh   |
|           | Transport      | 34,8% | 4.015 TWh |
|           | Non-energy use | 8,9%  | 1.027 TWh |
|           | Other          | 5,7%  | 658 TWh   |

Source: contribution by the authors

The highest consumptions are clearly found in the categories industry and transport. While the "iron and steel" sector plays the most important role in the industry, the "road" sector is the most significant in the transport category.

#### Renewable needs and forecast

In Figure 5 it seems like that the overall consumption of energy in the European Union is decreasing while the linear prognostic graph shows the opposite which is considered more realistic.

The "Road" prognosis was calculated through a forecast of the amount of passenger car vehicles in 2030 and upscaled until 2035 (Statista, 2023). In 2022, the energy consumption in the "Road" sector laid by 3.025 TWh. In 2035, the prognosis shows an energy consumption by 3.358 TWh, respectively.

Therefore, the increase of installations of renewable energies should be set by around 2,7 times, respectively.

To reach the goals of the Paris Agreement, the efforts should be increased by 13 times, respectively, addressing the added forecast according to future energy consumptions in total.

Figure 5. Historical consumption and forecast



Source: contribution by the authors

Addressing the set goals by the European parliament of zero emissions in the fleet by 2035 and the Paris Agreement, the following Table 4 shows the status of the share of renewable energies, the indicators according to resulting amounts (e.g., areas and number of pieces), and future needs, as introduced in chapter 3.1. For calculation the current share of the different renewable energy types is used.

Table 4. Status of renewable energies and future needs

| Renewable energy type | Status                | Overall (13 times)     | "Road" (2,7 times)     |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| Solar                 | 298 km²               | 3.874 km <sup>2</sup>  | 805 km <sup>2</sup>    |
| Wind                  | 72.497 pcs.           | 942.461 pcs.           | 195.742 pcs.           |
| Hydropower            | 74 GW                 | 962 GW                 | 200 GW                 |
| Biofuels              | 4.798 km <sup>2</sup> | 62.374 km <sup>2</sup> | 12.955 km <sup>2</sup> |
| Others                | 182 TWh               | 2.366 TWh              | 491 TWh                |

Source: contribution by the authors

For comparison purposes, the needed space of solar panels and agricultural areas for biofuels for the "Road" goal roughly correspond to 0,33 % of the size of the European Union (compared to 0,12 % today, respectively).

## **Environmental consequences**

Respecting the potentially needed areas to reach a corresponding portion of renewables in the energy mix, possible environmental consequences must be considered. Each type of renewable energies includes certain consequences for local circumstances or whole ecosystems. Solar energy plants might have significant influence in local soil ratios and therefore humidity and temperature. The long-term consequences are hard to derive and need to be evaluated (Matthew et al., 2018, Hernandez et al., 2014). Also wind power engines help to reduce emissions but warm surface temperatures and might have impact on natural streams which are crucial for the global climate (Miller and Keith, 2018). Biofuels have negative effects on food security, water supply, and biodiversity (Tirado et al., 2010, Brinkman et al., 2020, Gasparatos et al., 2011, German et al., 2011). The most significant disruptive effect might have tidal power plants. Overuse of this technique could cause the moon to move away from Earth little by little until it eventually leaves the orbit. According to calculations, this could be the case in as early as 1.000 years. One can expect that the consequences will be experienced much earlier. For the current scope it must be mentioned that these calculations have had a global approach (Liu, 2019).

#### Conclusion

Besides the enormous efforts according to the electrification of the fleets of European OEMs, even higher efforts in renewable energies and a corresponding infrastructure are still necessary to reach zero emissions. The European Investment Bank provided 19 BEUR for energy-related projects and explicitly 7,2 BEUR for renewable energies in 2022 (EIB, 2023). The investments result in an increase of 1% in renewable energies in the corresponding year. According to the provided calculations, an annual increase of 9,4% would be necessary to reach introduced targets and therefore investments should be set by 67 to 68 BEUR for the acceleration of renewable energies.

Facing the mentioned environmental consequences, new technologies and inventions must be part of the investments. As the most future-oriented and sustainable solution, nuclear core fusion projects like ITER should be supported financially as strong as possible. Running since 2005, 4,4 BEUR have been invested, resulting in nearly 8 BEUR of assets until 2022, respectively. It is planned to finish assembling until the end of 2025. Testing until readiness for commercial use as a blueprint is not planned yet. Therefore, at least the same amount, about 5 BEUR, should be provided to ensure success and prevent wastefulness (ITER, 2023a, ITER, 2023b).

Nuclear core fusion is just one example of many opportunities to make new kinds of renewable energies commercially useable. Besides technical innovations, research especially according to environmental consequences of each of these solutions need also be considered. The so called "energy mix" must not contain fossil energy carriers but each kind of renewables. Environmental as well as social consequences over the whole lifecycles need to be analysed to derive bearable dimensions on a global scale, not EU scale only. In general, from a current point of view, it is possible to reach the goals for 2035 and even 2050, from a European perspective. But it will only be possible in combination with necessary investments. It is a whole different discussion on a global perspective.

#### References

- Schlögl, R. 2019. Synthetic Fuels A Contribution of Chemistry to Sustainable Energy Systems. In: MAUS, W. (ed.) Zukünftige Kraftstoffe - Energiewende des Transports als weltweites Klimaziel. Fritz-Haber-Institut der Max-Planck-Gesellschaft, Berlin, Germany & Max Planck Institute for Chemical Energy Conversion, Mülheim/Ruhr, Germany, Germany: Springer-Verlag GmbH Deutschland.
- 2. Kramer, U. 2019. Defossilizing the Transportation Sector Options and Requirements for Germany. In: MAUS, W. (ed.) Zukünftige Kraftstoffe Energiewende des Transports als ein weltweites Klimaziel. Ford-Werke GmbH, Research Association for Combustion Engines, Frankfurt/M., Germany: Springer-Verlag GmbH Deutschland.
- 3. IEA 2021. Key World Energy Statistics 2021. International Energy Agency.
- 4. EU 2019. Regulation (EU) 2019/631 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 17 April 2019 setting CO2 emission performance standards for new passenger cars and for new light commercial vehicles, and repealing Regulations (EC) No 443/2009 and (EU) No 510/2011 European Parliament and the Council.
- 5. EU 2022. PV-9-2022-06-08-VOT EN. European Parliament and the Council.
- 6. Archer, Tejpccag. 2018. Roadmap to decarbonising European cars. Brussels (Belgium).
- 7. Cheeseman, Ceihssccr. 2022. Environmental Sustainability and Supply Resilience of Cobalt. Sustainability, 14. https://doi.org/10.3390/su14074124
- 8. Occhipinti, Epscl. 2021. A Life Cycle Environmental Impact Comparison between Traditional, Hybrid, and Electric Vehicles in the European Context. Sustainability, 13.
- 9. Ritchie, H., Roser, M. & Rosado, P. 2022a. Fossil Fuels. Our World in Data, 2022.
- 10. Ritchie, H., Roser, M. & Rosado, P. 2022b. Renewable Energy. Our World in Data.
- 11. Quaschning, V. 2018. Erneuerbare Energien und Klimaschutz: Hintergründe Techniken und Planung Ökonomie und Ökologie Energiewende, Hanser.
- 12. Eglitis, L. 2022. Laenderdaten.info. eglitis-media.
- 13. IWR. 2022. Windenergie-Hersteller Ranking [Online]. windbranche.de: Internationales Wirtschaftsforum Regenerative Energien (IWR) / IWR.de GmbH. Available: https://www.windbranche.de/wirtschaft/unternehmen/hersteller-ranking [Accessed 2022].
- 14. Kaltschmitt, M., Streicher, W. & Wiese, A. 2013. Erneuerbare Energien. Systemtechnik, Wirtschaftlichkeit, Umweltaspekte, 819.

- 15. Mills, A., Wisera, R. & Porter, K. 2012. The cost of transmission for wind energy in the United States: A review of transmission planning studies. In: Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews 16, 1, 1–19. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rser.2011.07.131
- 16. Tafarte, P. 2014. Small adaptations, big impacts: Options for an optimized mix of variable renewable energy sources, Energy, 72, 80–92. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/j.energy.2014.04.094">https://doi.org/10.1016/j.energy.2014.04.094</a>
- 17. REN21 2017. Renewables 2017 Global Status Report. Paris: REN21 Secretariat.
- 18. FNR. 2023. Bioenergie [Online]. Fachagentur Nachwachsende Rohstoffe e.V. Available: https://basisdaten.fnr.de/bioenergie/biokraftstoffe [Accessed 22.01.2023 2023].
- 19. Statista 2023. Anzahl der Personenkraftwagen in Europa nach Region von 2011 bis 2019 und Prognose bis 2030 [Online]. Statista. Available: https://de.statista.com/statistik/daten/studie/1246758/umfrage/pkw-bestand-in-europa-nach-region/ [Accessed 03.11.2023].
- 20. Matthew, I. I., Ikem, A. I., Paschal, A. U., Savour, E. O. & Assam, T. A. 2018. Environmental Consequences of Solar Energy Development and other Sources of Energy. Journal of Energy Technologies and Policy, 8, 8-11.
- 21. Hernandez, R.R., Easter, S.B., Murphy-Mariscal, M.L., Maestre, F.T., Tavassoli, M., Allen, E.B., Barrows, C.W., Belnap, J., Ochoa-Hueso, R., Ravi, S. & Allen, M.F. 2014. Environmental impacts of utility-scale solar energy. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews, 29, 766-779. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rser.2013.08.041">https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rser.2013.08.041</a>
- 22. Miller, L.M. & Keith, D.W. 2018. Climatic Impacts of Wind Power. Joule, 2, 2618-2632. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joule.2018.09.009
- 23. Tirado, M.C., Cohen, M.J., Aberman, N., Meerman, J. & Thompson, B. 2010. Addressing the challenges of climate change and biofuel production for food and nutrition security. Food Research International, 43, 1729-1744. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2010.03.010">https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2010.03.010</a>
- 24. Brinkman, M., Levin-Koopman, J., Wicke, B., Shutes, L., Kuiper, M., Faaij, A. & van Der Hilst, F. 2020. The distribution of food security impacts of biofuels, a Ghana case study. Biomass and Bioenergy, 141, 105695. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biombioe.2020.105695
- 25. Gasparatos, A., Stromberg, P. & Takeuchi, K. 2011. Biofuels, ecosystem services and human wellbeing: Putting biofuels in the ecosystem services narrative. Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment, 142, 111-128. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2011.04.020
- German, L., Schoneveld, G.C. & Pacheco, P. 2011. Local Social and Environmental Impacts of Biofuels, Global Comparative Assessment and Implications for Governance. Ecology and Society, 16. https://www.jstor.org/stable/26268981
- 27. Liu, J. Z. 2019. Destroying the Earth by Using Tidal Energy. In: UNIVERSITY, S. (ed.). arXiv.org.
- 28. EIB 2023. Energy overview 2023. European Investment Bank.
- 29. ITER 2023a. Financial Report 2022.
- 30. ITER. 2023b. ITER Timeline [Online]. ITER Organization. Available: https://www.iter.org/proj/inafewlines#6 [Accessed 29.11.2023 2023].

This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution - Non Commercial - No Derivatives 4.0 International License.