



A novel hybrid methodology to evaluate sustainable retrofitting in existing Swedish residential buildings



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ABSTRACT

Energy and environmental issues are increasingly important in existing building service and energy systems around the world. Despite great efforts to implement retrofit techniques in Sweden, no stringent evaluation of the benefits of these techniques or their systematic design has been completed. Traditional evaluations have not taken into account the embodied energy and greenhouse gases emissions of different retrofit options. This omission leads to underestimation of the potential environmental benefits of modern retrofit techniques. In this study a novel hybrid modeling approach to quantify the sustainability of retrofit options is developed to fill these knowledge gaps. The compatibility of environmental and energy-saving modeling of various energy-saving techniques for future transition of Swedish residential building stock is analyzed. Consolis Retro and the life cycle assessment (LCA) techniques are employed and further coupled to simulate retrofit options. The model integrates both energy demand (net operational energy), primary energy (operational energy from energy mix to buildings) into evaluation criteria. Embodied energy (energy required to produce materials of retrofitting options) and embodied greenhouse gas emissions (upstream CO₂ equivalent) are introduced as new measures in the evaluation criteria. The results showed that low-temperature heating retrofitting was the most effective option from both a primary and embodied energy perspective in the studied building types. Combining circulation pump renovations could further contribute to the efficiency of low-temperature heating for energy-demand savings. High operational energy-saving measures may not always lead to larger reduction in both embodied energy and greenhouse gas emissions, particularly for building envelope retrofitting. Neglecting the embodied energy of retrofit options will increase the risk of overrepresenting their energy-saving contributions. The sustainability improvements of retrofitting, particularly large-scale measures, should take into account the embodied energy and greenhouse gas emissions from the material productions.

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1. Introduction

Energy utilization and the mitigation of environmental impacts are increasingly important in building stock around the world. Among all end users, existing residential buildings represent a large part of total energy use and greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. In 2010 to adapt to established climate targets, European Union launched the “20–20–20” sustainability target, representing a decrease in EU GHG emissions to 20% below 1990 levels, and 20%

energy efficiency improvements to be achieved by 2020 and 2050, respectively (Energimyndigheten, 2012).

In response to tightening EU energy and environment directives, Sweden is actively engaged in sustainable transition of national building stock, targeting at least 50% of the total energy use, 49% share of renewable energy sources, and 40% reduction of GHG emissions compared with 1990 levels by 2020 (Energimyndigheten, 2011). Specifically for existing residential buildings, the Swedish government has established the ambitious energy efficiency target of 50% (per heated floor area) by 2050 compared with the 1995 level (Swedish Environmental Protection Agency, 2011). As an effective technique, building industry considers retrofitting an efficient means to accelerate the transition of existing housing stock (Företagen, 2009). In line with these goals, the Swedish Building

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Nomenclatures

Acronyms

| | |
|-----|------------------------------------|
| ACH | air changes rate, h^{-1} |
| AHU | air handling unit |
| BBR | Swedish building regulation |
| CHP | combined heat and power |
| DHW | domestic hot water |
| GHG | greenhouse gas |
| LCA | life cycle assessment |
| LTH | low temperature heating |
| MP | miljonprogrammet (million program) |
| RO | retrofit option |

Symbols

| | |
|------------------------------|--|
| A_h | heated floor area, m^2 |
| A_l | effective air leakage area, m^2 |
| A_{pipe} | pipng area of district heating grids, m^2 |
| C_D | discharge coefficient |
| I_{rad} | average for horizontal radiation |
| f_{PE} | primary energy factor |
| $f_{\text{PE,DH}}$ | primary energy factor for district heating |
| f_{PEI} | primary energy factor for electricity |
| $f_{\text{PH},i}$ | primary energy factor of energy carrier i |
| Δp_r | reference pressure difference, Pa |
| q | flow in the hydraulic system, kg/s |
| $Q_{\text{DH, piping loss}}$ | heat loss through district heating grids |
| t | monthly basis |
| t_g | ground temperature |
| t_r | return temperature of the district heating |
| t_s | supply temperature of the district heating |
| T_{ave} | monthly averages for local outdoor temperature |
| T_e | outside temperature variation |
| U | heat transfer coefficient of building parameter |
| U_{pipe} | heat transfer coefficient of district heating pipes |
| ρ_{air} | air density, kg/m^3 |
| ρ_{material} | density of the building material, kg/m^3 |
| $\Phi_{\text{Delivered}}$ | delivered energy of energy supply systems |
| Φ_{DHW} | energy usage of domestic hot water |
| Φ_{ED} | total net energy demand |
| Φ_{EL} | electricity usage of the building |
| Φ_{H} | energy usage for space heating |
| $\Phi_{\text{H,T}}$ | transmission heat loss through building envelope |
| $\Phi_{\text{I,S}}$ | solar heat gains |
| Φ_{Ven} | ventilation heat loss |
| Φ_{PE} | total operational primary energy usage of the building |
| Φ_{PEI} | cogenerated electricity |
| $\Phi_{\text{PH},i}$ | input heat in energy carrier i |

Regulations (BBR) was recast in May 2011 to accelerate the transition of existing housing stock nationwide. The revised building code mandates that existing buildings implement more efficient retrofitting measures for space heating, domestic hot water (DHW), and electricity usage (Boverket, 2012).

Despite the urgent need, little research is currently being done for the primary purpose of improving retrofitting efficiency through energy and GHG emission reductions. Most often retrofit options are driven by commercial or operational necessity: through conventional energy-demand savings, reducing operational costs, occupier fit-outs, or the replacement of installations at the end of their service life (Mjörnell & Werner, 2010). Based on pilot retrofitting projects, retrofitting can directly address decreased

operational energy targets as evaluated by net energy demand to the end users (Cellura, Guarino, Longo, & Mistretta, 2014).

However, conserving energy demand is not the only reason for retrofitting existing buildings. More complete evaluation methods also should be investigated, such as operational primary energy that considers the energy involved in the whole supply chain from the sources/energy mix. More importantly, retrofit options that mitigate operational energy will simultaneously increase the embodied energy attributed to the energy-saving measures, as constituted in the building envelope, heating and ventilation equipment, and corresponding building installations (Famuyibo, Duffy, & Strachan, 2013). In other words, the more operational energy saved by retrofitting, the more embodied energy will be involved.

If the net-zero building concept can be achieved through future holistic housing refurbishments, the embodied energy will be a major factor to consider in a retrofitting project. Therefore, sustainable retrofitting, which is defined as considering both energy demand/primary energy savings and corresponding embodied energy/GHG emissions of different retrofit options, are critically evaluated in this study on a long lease term.

1.1. Previous studies

Specific to Swedish residential buildings, the Energy Europe TABULA project (TABULA, 2009) performed a sustainable retrofitting guideline based on 44 typology categories of existing Swedish residential buildings for simplified operational energy savings and corresponding GHG estimations. Brown, Olsson, and Malmqvist (2014) and Toller, Wadeskog, Finnveden, Malmqvist, and Carlsson (2011) assessed several retrofitting measures in relation to the reduction of embodied GHG emission, 50% of the operational energy savings was in line with the Swedish national energy-saving directive (Swedish Environmental Protection Agency, 2011). Mata, Kalagasidis, and Johnsson (2013) developed a bottom-up model in Simulink with plug-in models to assess several technical and nontechnical measures for improving the sustainability of Swedish building stock. Considering four major types of Swedish energy supply systems, Gustavsson et al. (Gustavsson, Dodoo, Truong, & Danielski, 2011; Truong, Dodoo, & Gustavsson, 2014) modeled the combined effects of energy supply and demand renovation. They found that the primary energy savings and CO_2 efficiencies through energy retrofitting largely dominated by the heat-producing systems and the capacities to reduce the energy supply peak loads. Paiho, Abdurafikov, and Hoang (2015) developed three strategic retrofitting concepts to implement building installation system renovations (considering both energy demand and supply) for typical Russian apartment stock and residential districts in Baltic region. This retrofitting concept was further extended to cost-effectiveness analysis over a 20-years period. Dixit et al. (Dixit, Fernández-Solís, Lavy, & Culp, 2010; Dixit, Fernández-Solís, Lavy, & Culp, 2012) reviewed the current benchmarks and methodologies to assess the environmental impacts in the building sector, and concluded that an investigation of both operational energy and embodied energy had growing significance. However, the approach is plagued by incomplete data and the lack of standardized modeling guidelines and simplified protocols from archetype perspectives. Other possible software and modeling techniques that have been employed or coupled to evaluate the benefits of operational energy and environmental contributions include IDA ICE, Design Builder/EnergyPlus, Transys, eQuest®, Simapro, GaBi LCA, and Athena Impact Estimator (Ardenete, Beccali, Cellura, & Mistretta, 2011; Chen, Burnett, & Chau, 2001; Hasan, Kurnitski, & Jokiranta, 2009; Ouyang, Wang, Li, & Hokao, 2011; Russell-Smith, Lepech, Fruchter, & Meyer, 2015). These models are capable of providing relatively accurate single- or multi-zone energy demand simulations before and

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