



Flexible energy harvesting from natural gas distribution networks through line-bagging



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HIGHLIGHTS

- A novel method enabling flexible energy harvesting from natural gas distribution networks.
- Load shifting becomes possible without employing electrical storage.
- Gas bagging enables overnight charging of electric vehicles.
- Hazardous operations are avoided by employing model predictive control.
- A daily operational cost reduction of about 10% is achieved.

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Energy harvesting
Natural gas
Turbo expander
Gas bagging
Electric vehicles
Night charging

ABSTRACT

In a swirling dynamic interaction, technological changes, environment and anthropological evolution are swiftly shaping the smart grid scenario. Integration is the key word in this emergent picture characterized by a low carbon footprint. Between the wide range of key actions currently pursued by European municipalities, the possibility of harvesting energy from natural gas distribution is being established in this context. Load matching is crucial for local energy exploitation and integration of renewable resources. In this paper, the authors introduce a novel management method to increase the flexibility of the energy harvesting process from gas distribution networks. This method, called gas bagging, enables one to shift energy production schedules by properly manipulating the downstream pressure of the pipeline system. The emerging system dynamics in gas bagging must be managed using a proper system control architecture. This is fundamental to avoid system-safety-constraint violations. From a relevant case scenario, the authors demonstrate that the energy load can be totally shifted to night hours without violating system-safety constraints. For this purpose, the implementation of model predictive control has revealed to be a strategic measure. In fact, this ensures safe and cost-effective operations enabling up to a 10% daily operational cost reduction. Results reveal gas bagging to be a strategic tool for energy production flexibility and carbon emission reduction using natural gas distribution networks integrated into a smart grid.

Nomenclature

| | | | |
|--------------------|---|------------------------|--|
| D | pipeline, diameter (m) | c_p | hydraulic circuit, water specific heat capacity (J/kg K) |
| C_{\min} | heat exchanger, minimum fluid heat capacity (J/kg K) | k | turbo-expander, natural gas heat specific ratio |
| C_{steel} | boiler, stainless steel specific heat capacity (J/kg K) | L | pipeline, length (km) |
| C_w | boiler, water specific heat capacity (J/kg K) | \dot{L}_s | hydraulic circuit, gas preheating thermal load (W) |
| C_r | heat exchanger, heat capacity ratio | m | hydraulic circuit, water mass (kg) |
| D_{plug} | Joule-Thomson valve, plug diameter (m) | \dot{m}_{in} | users, natural gas inlet mass flow rate (kg/s) |
| K_G | Joule-Thomson valve, flow coefficient (kg/s Pa) | \dot{m}_i | header, i -th water stream mass flow rate (kg/s) |
| | | \dot{m}_{out} | users, natural gas outlet mass flow rate (kg/s) |
| | | \dot{m}_w | boiler, water mass flow rate (kg/s) |

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|--------------------|--|----------------------|---|
| \dot{m}_{TE} | turbo-expander, natural gas flow rate (kg/s) | W_{TE} | turbo-expander, mechanical power output (W) |
| \dot{m}_{tot} | user, natural gas total demand (kg/s) | V_p | pipeline, total volume (m ³) |
| M_{steel} | boiler, steel mass (kg) | \dot{V}_{in} | natural gas volumetric flow rate (m ³ /h) |
| M_w | boiler, water mass (kg) | <i>Greek letters</i> | |
| P_{in} | Joule-Thomson valve, natural gas inlet pressure (Pa) | ΔT_{HE} | pre-heating heat exchanger (HE1), temperature difference (K) |
| P_{out} | Joule-Thomson valve, natural gas outlet pressure (Pa) | ε | heat exchanger, effectiveness |
| P^* | Joule-Thomson valve, natural gas pressure at reference conditions (Pa) | κ | time instant |
| P_i | pipeline, inlet pressure (Pa) | ρ^* | Joule-Thomson valve, natural gas density at reference conditions (kg/m ³) |
| P_o | pipeline, outlet pressure (Pa) | η_b | boiler thermal efficiency |
| $P_{out,TE}$ | turbo-expander, outlet pressure (Pa) | τ | time (s) |
| q | Joule-Thomson valve, natural gas flow rate (kg/s) | ρ | natural gas relative density (kg/m ³) |
| \dot{Q}_b | boiler, thermal power output (W) | ζ | scaling factor |
| \dot{Q} | heat exchanger, power exchanged (W) | <i>Abbreviations</i> | |
| Q_{aux} | hydraulic circuit, auxiliary heat gain (W) | BO | boiler |
| R | gas constant (J/kg K) | HE | heat exchanger |
| s | Joule-Thomson valve, plug area (m ²) | HP | high pressure |
| T_a | hydraulic circuit, ambient temperature (K) | LP | low pressure |
| $T_{c,i}$ | heat exchanger, cold fluid inlet temperature (K) | LPR | low pressure regulator |
| T_{del} | natural gas, delivery temperature at station level (K) | MP | medium pressure |
| $T_{h,i}$ | heat exchanger, hot fluid inlet temperature (K) | MPC | model predictive control |
| T_{in} | boiler, water inlet temperature (K) | NG | natural gas |
| T_{out} | boiler, water outlet temperature (K) | TE | turbo-expander |
| T_{out}^{header} | header, water outlet temperature (K) | VIGV | variable inlet guide vanes |
| $T_{out,TE}$ | turbo-expander, natural gas outlet temperature (K) | NTU | number of transfer units |
| T_i | header, <i>i</i> -th water stream temperature (K) | P | pump |
| $T_{i,p}$ | pipeline, average downstream temperature (K) | PID | proportional, derivative, integral |
| $T_{in,TE}$ | turbo-expander, natural gas inlet temperature (K) | | |
| T_s | hydraulic-circuit water temperature (K) | | |
| T^* | Joule-Thomson valve, natural gas temperature at reference conditions (K) | | |
| T_1 | Joule-Thomson valve, natural gas reference inlet temperature (K) | | |
| y | Joule-Thomson valve, actuator position (m) | | |

1. Introduction

In the world's transition to a sustainable energy scenario, natural gas will keep playing a key role for residential and commercial sectors for most countries [1]. This issue has also been highlighted by Dieckhöner et al. in [2]. After being gathered and processed, the main phases for natural gas are transportation, storage, and distribution. Normally, the natural gas pressure is raised to 70 bars by means of compressor stations for a proper transportation through the transnational and national pipelines until the distribution nodes. At this stage, so-called pressure reduction stations are responsible for metering and reducing the gas pressure to the desired set-point for distribution purposes. Here, the natural gas pressure drop is normally induced by employing Joule-Thomson valves, thus, dissipating the gas energy. To prevent methane hydrates from being formed [3], the natural gas is normally preheated to temperatures that range between 40 °C and 60 °C depending on system operating conditions and the natural gas composition. In order to obtain a more sustainable process, a smart technological solution consists of the use of a turbo-expander (TE) instead of the Joule-Thomson valves, where the aim of the TE is to harvest energy from the gas pressure drop. In fact, Kostowski et al. analyzed the possibility of generating energy with a TE in [4] showing the engineering feasibility of such technology. Alparslan et al. presented an energy and exergy analysis of a pressure reduction station equipped with a TE in [5]. Furthermore, Borelli et al. presented a case study where a pressure reduction station is effectively integrated with other processes and users within the same district [6]. The performance analysis of the TE technology was conducted also in [7,8] where, in both cases, the energy sustainability of TE technology was demonstrated. In this case, for a given gas flow rate, the thermal energy required to prevent methane

hydrate formation would be up to 5 times higher than for the Joule-Thomson valve [9] because of the work extraction. This issue has stimulated researchers to seek for smart possibilities to reduce the carbon emissions linked to the energy-harvesting process. In fact, Kostowski et al. analyze the economic feasibility of cogeneration units in [10]. According to this study, the use of cogeneration units represents a good advantage compared with the use of boilers but low temperature heat sources might be required for gas pre-heating. In [11] an investigation of the performance of a hybrid turboexpander-fuel-cell system for power recovery at natural gas pressure reduction stations was presented. This is an interesting configuration but, economically speaking, the required initial investment might lead to a non-sustainable retrofit intervention. Other system configurations have been presented, such as in [12], where a comparative study between a pressure reduction station integrated with an internal combustion engine and an organic Rankine cycle was presented. In [13] a pressure reduction station integrated with a cogeneration system has been presented. Here, a new sizing optimization method was based on economic and thermal analysis as well. Similarly, in [14] the authors presented a novel optimization model for the optimal retrofitting of natural gas pressure reduction stations. According to this research, the use of cogeneration units tends to be economically not justifiable when the design and thus, the investment cost, is not properly defined. For this purpose, in [15], the technical criterion for economic justification of the use of cogeneration units in natural gas pressure reduction stations was presented. The authors demonstrated how only one of the eight case studies presented was suitable for cogeneration ensuring a payback period of less than eight years (which is a reasonable time length for an industrial project). Furthermore, with reference to the possibility reducing of fuel consumption for natural gas preheating by integration with renewable

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