

CEER-X-184

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PROCEEDINGS

(Volume 11)

OF THE

EAST PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON ENERGY

AND

2ND NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON RENEWABLE

ENERGY TECHNOLOGIES

PRESENTED AT THE

XVIT CONFERENCES OF THE

PAN AMERICAN CONFEDERATION OF ENGINEERING ASSOCIATION

(UPADI-82)

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1-7, 1982

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THE CENTER FOR ENERGY AND ENVIRONMENT RESEARCH

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The 17th Convention of the Pan American Association of Engineering Societies (UPADI-82) was held August 1-7, 1982 in San Juan, Puerto Rico under the auspices of the Association of Engineers and Surveyors of Puerto Rico, Included within the Convention's technical program were six (6) Pan American engineering congresses in the following fields: energy, environmental, civil, cost and engineering, economics, oceanic and education. The central, unifying theme of the congresses was "Engineering as the Keystone in the Development of Nations."

The Pan American Congress on Energy, co-sponsored by the Center for Energy and Environment Research of the University of Puerto Rico, was held jointly with the Second National Congress on Renewable Energy Technologies. The high quality of the technical presentation was widely acknowledged and frequently praised by the participants in the UPADI-82 Convention,

In order to make the presentation on the energy congresses available for future use, CEER is publishing these proceedings. It is hoped that the material contained herein will help expand the technical knowledge of the subject and thereby to promote a better understanding among the Latin American engineering community in the true spirit of UPADI's mission and goals.

Juan A. Bonnet, Jr,
Technical Director, UPADI-82
and Director, CEER/UPR

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FOREWORD

by

UPADI-82

Pedro A. Sarkis, P.E.

Energy Congress? Director

These are the Proceedings, Volume I, of the Energy Congress held during UPADI-82 on August 18, 1982 in San Juan, Puerto Rico. The Energy Congress was composed of the Second National Congress on Renewable Energy Technologies and the First Pan American Congress on Energy.

The Energy Congress was divided into nine sessions which included the following topics:

Planning and Economic Studies

Ocean Thermal

Ocean Energy

Hydro Electric

Energy: Trends

A total of 115 papers were presented to some 400 participants. In this Volume 11 are included the sessions on Planning & Economics Studies, Ocean Thermal Conversion, Ocean Energy, Hydro, Energy Conservation,

and others.

The Conclusions and Recommendations from the Energy Congress and also the Puerto Rico National Speakers were published as a courtesy of the Center for Energy and Environment Research of the University of Puerto Rico and can be ordered from them as well as this publication and Volume I of it.

Finally, thanks to all the members of the Energy Congress, the moderators, speakers, and the sponsor and co-sponsors of UPADI-82 who helped make this Congress a success.

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£1 Financiamiento del Sector Enerofa en

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?Arternative Energy Resources and Technologies

for Rural Third World Countries D.K. Sood

?Arrangement according to presentation order at UPAD! 22.

To facilitate the location of papers the following colors have been used for
the front pages of the papers:

Planning and Economie Studies - green; Ocean Themal Conversion, canary; Ocean
Energy, pinks Hydroelectric Enersy, buff; Energy Conservation, blue: Energy:
others, golden rod,

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OCEAN THERMAL CONVERSION

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Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion: Recent

Ocean Engineering Developments in the

United States Jonathan M. Ross

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Zooplankton Daniel Pesante

Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion (OTEC) Heat Donald S. Sasser, Thomas

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man

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Newton 6, wattis

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UPADI 82

?San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1-7, 1982

Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

SUPPLY FUNCTION RELATIONSHIPS FOR RENEWABLE
ENERGY RESOURCES

By

Mindi J. Harber ~ William Steigelmenn

Syneric Resources Corporation

Bale-Cynwyd, PA ~ USA

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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SUPPLY FUNCTION RELATIONSHIPS FOR RENEWABLE
ENERGY RESOURCES: PACIFIC NORTHWEST

Mindi J. Facber*

Willian Steigelmenn, 7.2.**

vpaDI-82

Puerto Rico August 1-7, 1982

apsTRact

Development of wind and solar energy potential does show promise in the Pacific Northwest (PMH). Installations of hydro, geothermal,

wind and solar energy conversion systems may approach 12,000 MW capacity in the PYM by 1995. However, it is more likely that these installations will total 1,800 MW, given the current and forecasted state of

the technologies and a host of factors affecting their development and uses

market penetration in the region. Average capacity (average) provide far better indication of the actual electricity produced by these systems, and are the basis of the supply function relationships developed for each technology. Forecasted prices of electricity in the cost-competitive range are predominantly for hydro and wind energy.

ernooucrtoN

?This paper presents the findings of a recent study of supply function relationships for alternative/renewable technologies done by

?Energy Analyst/Economist.

Service President.

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Synergic Resources Corporation (SRC) for Washington State University.

Supply function relationships have been developed to graphically present

three possible scenarios of development of hydro, geothermal,

wind, photovoltaic and solar thermal electric energy generation potential

to show how the price of a given

product varies as the quantity that is produced changes over time.

In this paper, the "product" is expressed as the average installed

capacity in the PNW. These relationships

© generating capacity (MWave i.e., defined as the product of actual installed capacity and the expected average capacity factor) of five technologies in the PNW, Three distinct five-year time periods for installation of hydro, geothermal, wind, photovoltaic and solar~

shersal

jeray systems have been

Joured to illustrate all changes in

?che situation with c

spect to economic competitiveness and available

supply during the period when MPSS nuclear units 4 and 5 were planned

enter commercial operation. Three scenarios of renewable resource

development are considered: 1) "pessimistic" - high capital costs,

delayed mass production capabilities, poor plant reliability, and sig=

nits

significant institutional/regulatory impediments; 2) ?base ~ capital,

costs, production capabilities, plant reliability, and institutional/regulatory

considerations are based on logical expectations: and 3)

"optimistic" - all factors are somewhat better than the consensus of

predictions

This study commenced with an appraisal of the phenomena, its historical development, and current design alternatives. This comprehensive survey considered recent manufacturers' cost data, requirements for project and manufacturing facility construction lead times, establishment of distribution networks to meet demand, and special finance availability. Resource base assessments included qualitative determination of the environmental, institutional and social aspects involved in development of that potential. Synthesis of project economics with resource base assessments provided the basis for computer determination of supply function relationships for each energy technology. Actual market penetration during the 15-year period was considered for

---Page Break---

Different ownership modes ~ utility/government, residential/rural/commercial, and industry depending upon the system size and application as determined by project economics. Regardless, substantial penetration of renewable energy technologies (other than hydro) is not expected

before the mid-1990's,

As the study is quite voluminous, this paper intends to present

only the salient features of

ne technologies evaluated in the computer

ysis. The renewable energy system chosen for the baseline analysis,

are discussed in general terms. system parameters and costs are pre-

Sented and resource bases are evaluated in light of capacity factors
and environmental/institutional/social barriers to resource development.

A descr

tors of these technologies is provided. The forecasted supply function
relationships and relevant cost of energy are presented in a final
section,

tion of 2

" Financial situation facing potential owners/opera-

FIVE RENEWABLE ENERGY TECHNOLOGIES

Systems considered for PhW are primarily dispersed installations = 5-100 MW facilities connected to/utility grids or facilities with less than 5 MW capacity of which approximately half are isolated installations with minimal storage requirements, Storage facilities are included for wind and solar installations in particular, due to

the intermittent nature of these resources. The actual parameters of the systems chosen are indicative of the present and near-future state-of-the-art technologies as well as the proven reliability and regional penetration of those systems.

eric Ener:

Hydroelectric technology is well developed today and close to obtaining maximum efficiency. Cost reductions have been made through standardization and packaging of all equipment components. Additional

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cost savings may come from using pumps in reverse as turbines

and

power provides the PNW with 120 billion kWh of power annually; most

of the Large-scale hydro projects considered economically feasible and

already accepted in the region have already been developed.^{2/}

^{2/}The Pacific Northwest Energy Policy Project indicated that the PNW

has significant hydroelectric potential, primarily in low-head -

run-of-river technology must be improved, especially

in dam/civil works construction techniques. Conventional hydro-

region has a very large hydroelectric

sites. However,

In terms of reducing the costs of turbine generators for sites with

heads less than 9 feet.

Several comprehensive studies of hydroelectric power potential in

the PM have been recently completed. SRC chose to use the U. S. Army

Corps of Engineers' National hydroelectric study.³ This data base pro-

vides 21 existing dams (to be retrofitted) and new sites which had been

previously identified for potential development in the region. The

Corps' active inventory included

estimates for each site identified. SRC disregarded these numbers for two

capacity, energy and cost calculations.

reasons: 1) the Corps assigned more excess capacity than expected since it subsidized hydro projects by below-market federal rates, and 2) the economic sizing routine employed by the Corps

2 interest

resulted in smaller sites being penalized by excessive land acquisition costs which are not always warranted. SRC did use the hydraulic head and mean flow data, as well as the current status and actual

Inventory prescreening for social/environmental constraints.

Hydroelectric resources in the PAW may be segmented by dam height and flow. Dams less than 60 feet may use bulb, Kaplan or propeller type turbines, ranges for Francis turbines. Above 200 feet, Pelton turbines may be considered. The greater the flow, the longer the time needed to design, procure and install the structure and equipment. Table 1 presents a

ads between 60 and 200 feet are typical operating

watrix of head (feet) ranges and stream flows (cubic feet/second) ,
resulting in the 9 categories used in the PNW analysis, Table 2

---Page Break---

PW RESOURCE BASE SEGMENTATION

; 1

Minimum Development

Py Bead Lead Tine (Years)

« Existing Dame New Dane

eng shan 50040 or tess |

51 to 200

chan \$00 20 o sore
co 1000 | 60 or less |
9 1000 51 co 200
to 1000 201 or nore
or more 50 or lees |
or sere | sito 200 |
|

or more | 201 of more

Table 2

SEWERGIC RESOURCES CORPORATION

?SENERGIC RESOURCES CORPORATION

SAPACITY, ENERGY AND COST ESTIMATES AP EXISTING

SAMS_IN THE ACTIVE IWEWORY

SAMS IM THE ACTIVE mwvEWATORY

Nomen meneayra, | crewman | caprmar,

| Ptow/texo or ?capacrtty ?Bueno cost

SROUPS stmes 60) (or (s wrut-108W

oral 100 rae

Source: Reference 1

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provides SRC's evaluation of all existing dams identified by the Corps

active inventory. The minimum development lead time required for each

project was used to estimate the time frames for hydro deployment in

the 2a. If the economics of 2 particular type of project (e.g., new

dam, sign need, low flow project

ours not take place as shown in this schedule.

) are unfavorable, their development

Geothermal Energy

Geothermal energy provides a heat source of lower temperature

than that used in conventional: station power plants (typically

300°-500°F instead of 950°-1050°r), and as a consequence, more
input per xih electricity generated is required. Geothermal fluids

Jsometiner called ?brines*) differ

eatly in their chemical and phys

cat

acteristics from one resource area to another, and even among

5 within the same areas. Such ¥:

ations make it difficult to pre-

ct corrosion and deposition ("fouling") effects, and to estimate

power plant emissions prior to obtaining site-specific fluid samples by well drilling.

Geothermal resources are normally divided into four broad categories:

1) vapor-dominated hydrothermal convection systems; 2) liquid-dominated hydrothermal convection systems; 3) hot-igneous systems (including both hot-dry rock deposits and magma systems); and 4) geopressured deposits.

The U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) has identified two high-temperature liquid-dominated hydrothermal convection systems in Idaho, eight in Oregon and one in Washington.⁴ Six of these eleven systems have an

estimated electrical potential greater than 50 MWe for 30 years, illustrated by Table 3. Although there are also hot-dry rock geothermal

resources in the region, it has been assumed that these will not be fully developed until the end of the century.

Because the identified geothermal resources suitable for commercial exploitation in the PMW are the liquid-dominated hydrothermal

---Page Break---

Table 3

SUMMARY OF GEOTHERMAL RESOURCES

?DULTMP py REGION SUTTABLE FOR NEAR~TERM

?ELECTRIC POWER APPLICATIONS

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rescurce | et i

| rommrace | "aptct | saguence |

ise ae | | see

\ sauna

me

elas

?regen

eae Ee 2 ;

cee Bot Spgs is » :

SRC hi

geothermal resources.

economic assessnent.

Source: Reference 5.

determined this to be the likely sequence of development of

This is the sequence code employed in the

---Page Break---

type, the power plants are assumed to be either flashed-steam cycle or

binary-cycle plants. A flashed-steam plant uses geothermal steam:

Directly in a turbine to generate electricity. Flashed-steam geothermal power

and the Philippines. Flashing hot water to steam maximizes the electricity generated per unit of vapor/liquid mixture obtained from the production wells, prior to reinjecting the liquid into the ground.

Plants have been operating successfully in Mexico, New Zealand

Sites 1-3 identified in Table 3 will use flashed steam while sites 4=

AE will use binary-cycle. In binary-cycle, the hot brine from the

Production well is used to heat and vaporize a working fluid (i.e.,

refrigerant such as ammonia or isobutane), which is expanded in a turbine to generate electricity. Regardless of specific plant design,

the power plant will be sized smaller than conventional coal

and nuclear~

Small plants: 10-110 MW plants have been found to be the most economic and practical. Each well typically contributes the equivalent of 1-10

MW and should be spaced on the order of one well per 15-30 acres:

Estimates of the installed capital cost of flashed-steam or binary-cycle geothermal plants range from \$800 to \$1500 per installed kW capacity, depending on factors such

unit size, quantity of units at site, etc. (See Table 4).

One of the most significant factors affecting power generation

costs is the temperature of the geothermal resource: the higher the

temperature, the higher the plant's thermal efficiency and the lower the cost.

bar costs. The potential cost is reservoir and resource owner-

ship-specific. In general, the production cost of geothermal fluids, including an "appropriate" risk-adjusted return on investment, is expected to be \$1-4/million Stm. The actual cost will depend on the level of development of geofluids by fuel resource firms and utilities. Substantial development of PNW geothermal resources will depend 4

Upon the availability of Federal lands for exploration and development.

Existing Land management procedures are inefficient.

---Page Break---

?T sovexezoy s902n0s

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Hind Brera

Wind energy is the only solar technology with some actual commer?

ation in the ragion, sostly in the form of 2-10 kW unite

chal pene

for residential/farm applications. Six wind energy conversion systems

(BCS) were chosen to cover the ent:

modes currently existing. The operating characteristics of the WECS

and their forecasted inatalled costs are presented in Tables 5 and 6.

Smal) WECS, denoted as SWECS, include storage at substantial cost a8

re range of sizes and ownership

carta: technologies become commercially available, Portland General

Blectric currently has nine SWECS hooked to its grid and Klickitat

installed 12 SWECS in 2 residential test program. SWECS

produced to date are distributed by ten outlets without strong geo-

County PUD hi

graphic penetration within the PNM. A vast network of distributors is

essential for fur

1ec comercialization since prospective owners do not have the resources to install/maintain their own units or pay for said services by a non-local firm.

Approximately 10 MW of wind energy have been developed in the Paw
?through government programs. Anticipated reductions in Federal wind budget will postpone deployment of both state-of-the-art and advanced cost-effective models. For example, three DO MOD 2 units (2.5 Mi each) erected at Goodnoe Hills, Kashington, are still awaiting operation, The start-up of the MOD 5 é-KW unit depends on the reliable experience of its predecessor. While budget cutbacks effectively delay projects and lessen the chances for achievement of DOE cost goals, testing problems and delayed investigations into mishaps have impeded development of the few large commercial WECS installed in the PWW. Eugene Water and Electric Board, in conjunction with 19 other Oregon utilities Dareious vertical-axis WECS.S/ Pacific Power and Light is testing its WIG Systems 200-KW WECS with substantial difficulty. PuW utilities

, 18 awaiting the maiden run of Lts S00-kW Alcoa

fare considering nore purchases and possible "windfarm" ventures, but
the level of activity in other US regions and poor lead times

---Page Break---

0

200

500

ee

ane

?Table 5

SSTICS OF MBCS USED IN ANALYST:

Rated

Wind Speed | cut in/cut out

Winds (mph) Ownership

a 8/80 Utility/Government (testing)

Residential/Par

23 9/60 Utility/Government (testing)

Residential/Par

cy a/s Residential/Par

30 3/50 Utility/government

Industry

38 aayso Utility/Government

industry

8 yas Utility/Government

Industry

YALL WECS are horizontal-axis WECS except for the S00-kM unit which is a

xis, two-bladed model.

?three-bladed model.

Reference 1.

?ua

The 200-KW model is the only

---Page Break---

table 5

RISTALUED MECS COSTS USED 1M ANALYSIS*

(item [es as

some | 26,20 20,075) | 32,300 assavay | 8,000 2,280)

| soe | 35,500 «42,3781 | 28,000 ¢40,230) | 22,000 (33,580

| ann av | 202,000 259,200 13,480) | 220,000 246,780)

500 ew | 600,000 520,000 (679,130) | 490,000 (582,000)

wees costs used in Scenario II.

108 Leas th

costs in parentheses include storage of S hours for

1985+

19908

19958

Soure

sn these costs.

6,400,000 |. #+480,000

Entertech 20 kWh battery \$1,490.

Entertech 50 kwh battery \$3,755.

Independent Energy Systems 16.96 kWh battery (5 units) \$12,275.

Pumped storage for all WECS in 200 kWh, 500 kW and 2.5 MW at \$245/KH capacity plus \$18/kwh stored for 5 hours.

58 cost deer

See on storage costs in 1985.

108 cost decrease on storage costs in 1985.

Reference 1.

ch ECS.

Scenario 1 costs are 108 more and Scenario 112

---Page Break---

?exaggerating rising costs) have effectively stymied the recent popu-

7 Of this alternative mode of energy production.

esos

availability is affected by regional topography, land

requirements for WECS siting, wind regimes and constraints of wind-

hyer integration for storage purposes. WECS may be sited along ste

de tops and throughout windy plains, provided that the sites are

separable overland. Sufficient spacing of WECS to avoid wind shadow-

At 8 seven rotor diameters in areas with prevailing winds and cen

rotor diameters in areas without prevailing winds. A 3.66-acre pad
say 20 required around each large WECS for safety precaution in poten
S40) the own Blade/toppling incidents. Others include: 1) additional
sights to unobstructed wind flow, 2) purchasing/leasing of Federal and

te lands, 3) zoning issues, and 4) Federal Aviation Administration

requirements, WECS produce no pollution and present no more safety
risks to constructors, users, and owners than those faced by a utility
Lineman,

Wind regimes prevalent in the PNW are illustrated in Figure 1.

Seasonal wind data revealed several promising high wind regions along
the Oregon and Washington coast, in the Columbia Gorge and along
exposed ridges of the Cascades and Rockies. An abundance of sites
located in areas of low population density is supplemented by an
equally great quantity of developed and potential hydro storage faci-
ties. Wind regime data evaluated with ©:

the six WECS used in the analysis result in average annual capacity
factor of 20 to 60 percent.

spect to the parameters of

Photovoltaic systems

Today's photovoltaic (PV) market is dominated by only one technology: silicon monocrystal cells, The price of electricity generated by this system is far from competitive with conventional generating facilities, and the cost of the solar cell array is the dominant factor.

a1.

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*L souaaazeq 90205

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ooe-00z ?osi-001 = tt-we a-r

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CHM) ALISN3G U3MOd ONIM OL LY G3308 GNIM

tONa031

Wor WW Sav Gia Go

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However, as seen in Table 7, the array has the greatest potential for cost reduction and technological improvement while the balance of plant ('30P) is relatively well established. The US photovoltaic manufacturing industry has grown from eight companies in 1976 to the current 15 firms. But PV activity is localized in areas of good insolation.

cee

Federal PV budget cuts will lessen the current momentum, commercial firms are expected to continue in PV manufacture, cost reduction, and development of advanced arrays.

Five sizes of PV systems were considered in the baseline analysis = 10 kW, 30kW, 300kW, 1Mw, 10 MW. However, these sizes represent general modular configurations applicable for the residential/farm sector, primary metals and chemical industries, and utility demonstrations. The potential for eventual PV market penetration in the PNW exists. The major consideration is the technological evolution of PV systems and it is unlikely that manufacturers will begin mass production until 1995, when the flat plate technology will probably mature. PV systems

are oversized for the most part, and an effort to streamline the models and eliminate unnecessary hardware will complement mass production. As for tracking and concentrating PV systems, production economics made these unattractive alternatives for modular flat plate arrays. Basic installation procedures will become less expensive with time once a substantial distribution network is established.

The availability of solar radiation varies significantly by region within the PW. Five climate zones, as determined by the Western SUN Solar and Weather Information Series,⁸ provide the basis for comparison

of regional total horizontal and direct beam normal insolation values (See Tables 8 and 9). Photovoltaic systems require good total horizontal insolation at relatively level sites. Actual land requirements vary in-

vestment:

with insolation values and PV requirements of 4-8 acres/MW may result in conflicts of interest over land use. Legal guarantees of uninterrupted solar access must be made in order to

---Page Break---

table 7

2Y SYSTEM INSTALLED Costs

(1980 \$m)

oar Scenario T Scenario 1 Scenario 11

1985 rid Isolated cid Isolated cria | _teolatea

Array 7,000 7,000 6,000 5,000 5,000 3,000

pop | __3,000 32,000 7,000 10,000 5,000 8,000

Py | ?25,000 15-000 73,000 16,000 Tora00? | T3000

asso |

arcay 4,000 4,000 3,000 3,000 2,500 2,500

pop | _ 3,000 12,000 61\$00 9,500 44/500 7,500

Pv 72,000 15,000 9,500 72,500 7,000 10,000

1995

Array 2,000 2,000 1,400 700 700

BoP. 3,000 10,000 5,000 4,900 7,000

Pv 70,000 12,000 7,400 \$700 7,700

ote

---Page Break---

Table 8

-TOEAL SORTZOWEAL INSOLATON

(Btu/ft²-day)

Table 9

DERECT BEAM NORMAL INSOLATION

(Btu/#e2-aay)

ra l

ss mom eee eal Z|

Zone

}?_??__tore_____|

Puget Sound/Willamette Valley

cascades

Northern Rockies

Columbia Plateau

Great

in

North Pacific Coast

Derived from Reference 8.

1897

2000

1500

---Page Break---

promote PY development. Seasonal variation result in a 25-45-30 per-
cent of total annual energy potential during three hydro seasons:

Capacity factors for PV arrays canged from 15 to 30 percent, while
summer values averaged above 25 percent. Development of PV resource

potential involves minimal dust effects and no pollution. A number of
iasues as vell as other envizon-

safety issues do exist; however, the
sentational/social concerns are not of major consequence since PV is a technology for primarily dispersed applications

Solar Thermal Energy

Solar thermal electric (STE) systems have more critical siting requirements than photovoltaic systems due to their reliance on direct, normal rather than total (direct plus diffuse) insolation on south-facing PV array, lack of geometric flexibility, large construction support requirements and potential environmental impacts, Table 9 provides the seasonal and regional differences in direct beam normal insolation for the PN. All STE technologies require naturally flat siting and total area requirements (which are proportional to plant capacity or rating). A 100-MW STE plant built in the Columbia Basin or in Southern Oregon or Tehaho would require more than 1000 acres of contiguous land at a cost of \$7500-52000 per acre. Land at \$5000 per acre still constitutes only about 3 percent

Of the capital costs of a STE installation, and minor deviations from

terrain in order to minimize siting

ens

mount would have a negligible effect on both capital and bu

bar costs of » ST® plant.2/

STE plants have tremendous water requirements for operation of "wet" cooling towers, collector washing, etc. The oils and salts used in working/storage fluids of STE plants pose a potential threat to the water supply. Other environmental concerns include air cooling of collector field, shading effects of closely sited collectors, conflicts of interest over land use, threat of misdirected solar radiation and

and demographic fluxes due to large-scale construction projects.

---Page Break---

STE systems are still in the R&D stage: outside of the parabolic trough demonstration in Arizona, the Barstow project will be the first

cei sceiver pilot plant and the Shenandoah experiment will be the first parabolic dish power plant in is hindered by Low demand and dizeconoaies of scale. The development of thermal storage systems will have moce leverage on the expansion of the STE market. without storage, direct solar conversion syatens are

an

1¢ US. Production of STE units

Limited to a capacity factor of 20 percent or less in most of the US.

"Shas emerged a2 a promising choice for industeial and intec~

mediate load applications in the southwestern US. While Cheyenne, Washington, is being considered as one of six potential sites for the Small Community Solar Thermal Power Experiment, it is unlikely that

the PNW site will be chosen, However

funded and commercial plants of reliable 30-year Lifetime are not

1, these projects are federally

expected until 1990. The development of competitive STE systems depends on the evolution of designs for collectors, receivers, power conversion units (cycle turbines) and storage options, as well as continued Federal funding. STE systems have 3-4 year lead times.

Although the costs of parabolic dishes are expected to be lower than those of parabolic troughs, there appeared to be no rational basis for distinguishing installed costs between these systems and those of central receivers (See Table 10). The choice of system size also appeared irrelevant since the modular units may be combined into any available insolation and Land

number of possible configurations, given a

EI WANCIAL SITUATION

Renewable energy installations are capital-intensive, posing financial problems for the owner, whether a utility, business or individual.

Individuals and businesses must either make a very large downpayment

OR find an institution willing to make a loan, The banking community

As reluctant to make loans of this type because of perceived high risk.

Banks have very limited experience with financing alternative energy

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devices and are uncectain about systes Lif

a5 an investment (i.e., its cost-offectiveness) and the quality of
workmanship which affects all of the foregoing.

and reliability, ite value

Beisting state and Federal tax credit programs are only slightly

effective in mitigating the downpayment hurdle faced by individuals interested in renewable energy facilities. For instance, the Federal government offers calibrated investment and energy tax credits for Purchases of solar energy equipment (See Te

fe 11). The energy tax

credit is the principal federal tax incentive for privately-owned solar facilities

credits, Public utility solar installations may qualify for 4/7 of the allowable investment tax credit if covenues does not affect the base rates.^{20/} In addition to Federal tax credits, all states in the PNW offer some type of tax incentive for privately-owned renewable

Public utility property does not qualify for energy tax

energy facilities

?The provision for connection to electric utility grid is a key

feature of dispersed alternative energy systems:

interconnection applications will determine, in large part, their penetration in residential, farm and commercial markets, utility buy-back rates, capacity credits and standby charges are powerful determinants of the

economic viability of an installation. At this time, all of the utilities in the PNW have yet to set just buy-back rates for electric power Generated on site, in spite of the 1978 passage of the Federal Public Utility Regulatory Policies Act (PURPA). In fact, interconnection Atself has been very difficult to obtain, one Oregon utility requires & large amount of Liability insurance prior to interconnection. Since

Utility reaction to

WECS are not certified products, each situations effectively prohibit utility interface.

Capacity credits are normally assigned 20 individual generating a

facilities on the basis of the percentage of time the unit is

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[FEDERAL TAX INCENTIVES FOR S72 DEVELOPE

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5-6 years ~ 108

Bed years = 58 |

70 increase to 908 by 1982.

Source: Derived from Reference 10.

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able to produce power during the year. A credit

Per xW per month) is granted to each facility on the basis of the capacity displaced, i.e.) the amount of conventional generating capacity

that may be omitted from the utility's own generation requirements.

Historically, utilities have been quite conservative in assigning capacity

credits to new technologies.

Granted <0 either hydro 2¢ WECS units

date, no such credit has been

in the eM.

FORECASTED SUPPLY FUNCTIONS

on the basis of the

energy systems are for

Forecasting discussion, quantities of renewable

resources to be installed during each five-year

period according to ownership and scenario assumptions. Total installed

capacity is

While total PNW installations may approach 12,000 # under the most

'y in 1995 for each technology is presented in Tab:

optimistic conditions by 1995, ie ie more Likely that their market Penetration will be Limited to 1,800 %f, This is apparent from the Preceding discussion of systems, resource base, and environmental/institutional,/financial conditions affecting deployment of siternative enera y systems. However, installed capacity is not an appropriate indicator of alternative energy resource development, since the intermittent nature of the resource, institutional constraints and less than ideal capacity factors will hinder actual use of atl installed capacity. Average capacity (Mave) takes these factors into account and has been sed as the basic "product tion relationships.

Hiable in determination of supply func

Foree:

ted installation data are complemented by the cost data

Presented earlier and other economic variables (fixed and variable O&M costs, salvage value, lead time, operating Life time, plant availability factors, etc.) The levelized cost of electricity generated from each resource is computed using a present value cost methodology developed by SRC. The salient features of the cost methodology are: 1) a five-percent real discount rate is used, 2) a three-percent real interest

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rate is used for debt and equity for both public and private utilities,

and 2) sunk capital costs are ignored. This cost calculation is

for prioritizing resource

options from a broad regional perspective.

Thus, levelized costs do not necessarily correspond to the rates utilities

might charge.

ani

puted prices of electricity generated by renewable energy systems, quoted in mills/kWh, are plotted against average capacity

1d cumulatively over the fifteen-year period. The resultant

supply function relationships are graphically displayed in Figures 2-6.

Three curves are presented: P= Pessimistic scenario (I); B= Base scenario (I) and O « Optimistic scenario (113). Depending upon the quantity of systems installed and the particular characteristics of

the location and economics of the installation, #

supply function

cises within any pac

volar five-year period. Between each period,
the curve drops vertically to the most cost-effective alternative
?energy increment to be installed in the next time frame.

Hydroelectric energy in both the pessimistic and base scenarios
is cost-effective except for very small projects which would be the

last to be installed at the end of 1990 and 1995, The base and pessi-
stic scenario parallel one another for the first 360 MWave installed
fn 1990; the base scenario then continues for another 300 Mwave in

1990 and 250 Mave in 1995. For the optimistic scenario, hydroelectric
facilities are cost-competitive over almost all of the 1,980 Mwave
installed. the price of hydroelectric power generated in the PAW ranges
from a low of 14 mills/kih in 1985 to a high of 162 mille/kim at the

fend of 1995. Most of the capacity to be installed and operating at a
cost below 60 mills/kWh is considered cost-competitive with other
resources in the PNW.

Geothermal installations are not cost-effective in the PXW ducing

any of the time periods considered, with costs ranging from 240 mills/kWh in the pessimistic scenario (1990) to a low of 125 mills/kWh in the

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some areas : 2250s

operations 0

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financing SRRTTCREN

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optimistic scenario (1995). The poor economics of geothermal-generated electricity in Puw prompted an investigation of geothermal district heating applications in the region

?The lower, temperature resource

was somewhat less expensive, however, that application did not fare much better. Compared to inexpensive hydroelectric generation, no

future for massive development of geothermal

resources is expected.

The price of wind-generated electricity in the PW ranges from a high of 90 mills/kWh in 1990 to a low of 25 mills/KWh in 1995 for the base scenario (11). In the pessimistic scenario, WECS become cost-

competitive only during 1995. Residential WECS are cost-competitive

in 1995 base scenario, while installations by other

become economical until 1995. Both residential and industrial appli-

cations do not

cations of WECS are cost-competitive in 1985 optimistic scenario.

However, industrial WECS become

1995, All WECS installed in the optimistic scenario are quite cost-

effective, averaging 32 mills/kin.

135 cost-competitive over time. ay

PY installations are far less feasible. Cost-competitive ayster

are not installed until 1995 optimistic scenario, with residential/farm

applications as the most viable. The costs displayed in Figure 5 are

levelized since incremental cost increases were too small to be shown

graphically. Even 1995 costs are out of the po:

at 200 mills/kin,

Able range of PNW

owners, with the Love:

Solar thermal installations fare slightly better than photovoltaic systems. Only 54 YW are installed in the optimistic scenario (112) 1995 are cost competitive with other energy resources.

As seen by the supply function relationships, it is unlikely that some of any of the geothermal, photovoltaic and solar thermal energy Potential in the PNW will be developed for electricity production except under the most optimistic of circumstances. However, hydro and wind Resources do show much promise. Approximately 2,000 Mw could be

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generating cost

effective power in the PM by 1995. These figures, serve as a guide to future development, since any changes in the parameters upon which this analysis is based would ©.

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1-7, 1982

Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

ENERGY ALTERNATIVE FOR THE CARIBBEAN

By

Juan A. Bonnet, Jr.

Center for Energy and Environment

University of Puerto Rico

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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ENERGY ALTERNATIVES FOR THE CARIBBEAN

Juan A. Bonnet, Jr., Director

2nd Environment Research

University of Puerto Rico

ABSTRACT

Because 21% of the Caribbean countries except Trinidad and Tobago are petroleum importers, they all have been hurt by the dramatic increases in the price of petroleum during the last decade. Crude oil production has increased significantly in Latin America during the last three years, and the governments of Mexico and Venezuela are attempting to control «sales in the Caribbean» by offering incentives for energy conservation and the development of alternative sources. International agencies such as the World Bank and the United States Agency for International Development are now working with the Caribbean Development Bank and CARICOM to develop alternative energy sources.

Many different energy sources can be developed in the Region. Though solar energy has received the most attention, its use is still limited to crop drying, water purification, heating and distillation. Hydropower is used extensively in Dominica, Haiti and the Dominican Republic and has great potential in others. The use of Sugarcane and other fast-growing plants are biomass @ significant alternative. An experimental farm using the bioconversion of organic wastes is being operated successfully in Puerto Rico, Also Geothermal power and ocean thermal energy conversion (OTEC) are two potential energy sources that are basic to Caribbean geography.

Historically speaking, wind is one of the oldest sources of energy in the Caribbean, and preliminary studies have shown that several Caribbean islands could benefit greatly from this alternative. However, four environmental factors (noise, radio interference, air disturbance and unsightliness) must be addressed before wind energy becomes more widely accepted,

Finally, in view of the perilous dependence on petroleum, conservation is also a potential energy transfer source of significant dimension,

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INTRODUCTION

There was some good news for the developing countries from Geneva at the end of November 1981. The Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) agrees to increase world oil prices to US\$34 a barrel, but it also decided to freeze this basic price until December 1982, thus protecting poorer countries from unexpected and unreasonable price increases,

Yet, unless long range steps are taken soon, the OPEC action may not be enough. Nearly 100 developing countries depend on oil for more than 60 percent of their energy needs. Most of them import four-fifths of their total oil requirements. The price of oil, in inflation-adjusted terms, has quintupled over the past decade, and many analysts predict price increases of three percent annually. This means that the poor countries now spending 50 billion a year for imported oil could be paying \$110 billion a year by 1990.

To offset this economic drain, many countries are turning to the most readily available alternative supply. Forty percent of the developing

world's timber reserves may literally go up in smoke as households and small industry substitute firewood for oil. In a number of Caribbean countries exploitation of wood resources is not in equilibrium with regeneration rates. Wood fuel meets a large part of Haiti's energy requirements and, to a lesser degree, those of countries with forest reserves such as Belize, Dominican Republic, Grenada, Guyana and St. Lucia

While developing countries contain two-thirds of the world's population, they account for only one-seventh of world energy's production. The success that developing countries achieve in reducing their dependence on imported energy will determine, in large measure, the degree of flexibility they will have in managing their economies in the future. Since the Arab OPEC embargo of 1974, the debt of developing countries has more than quadrupled to \$425 billion, causing more of their income to go for debt service at continuously increasing rates of interest.

The World Bank estimates that up to 30 percent of the developing world's energy needs could be eliminated around 1990 by maximizing conservation of

ports and by increasing energy production from fuel sources such as oil, coal, hydropower and renewables. It has outlined ways of reducing those energy needs by 15 percent without sacrificing economic growth during the coming decade.

During 1981 there has been increased discussion of energy. In November 1981 South and North talked about energy at the Cancun, Mexico Summit Meeting. Before this in August there were discussions about renewable energy at the United Nations Conference on New and Renewable Sources of Energy in Nairobi. For months there have been discussions about a World Bank proposal to set up a separate energy affiliate within the Bank, so far no concrete agreements have been reached.

On the other hand, according to the Inter-American Development Bank (IADB) crude oil production is growing faster in Latin America than in any other region of the world. Its 1980 report on economic and social progress in Latin America, 45 stated that oil production in Latin America expanded by

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early 10 percent and the region's share of the world oil production rose

arkedly from 7.7 percent in 1977 to 9.8 percent in 1980, At year end, She
total 01] output oF the vesion reached .123 Dillion barrels (337,530,0z)m°) ,
exceeding consunption ny about 70U mil lign barrels (111,291,106m"),,, ah
increase o* 100 wit1ion barrels (15,898,729n") over 1979, The rate of growth
in production wos the nighust size 19/3, and coupares favorably with the
8.5 percent expansion of .379. Copoired ?production of Mexico and Venezuela
accounted for nearly 75 sercent of the region's crude o*] production from
1975 to 1880. Although ?enezueta's shore fel} fron 53 percent in 1978 to 37
Bercent in 1580, Mexico's sroduction rose fron 18 percent of the region's
Output to 37 vercent during the sane period. Concerning ofl exportation,
?the single nost important event auring the cast five years has been Mexico's
contrigutvon to the regicr's ircreesce sules of crude to externe! markets,
the 1AGS veoert said. Mexican of] exports increased 114 percent. in 1977, 39
vercent im 1978, 47 persen: in 1979 and 89 percent in 1960 when they totaled
about 303 ui titon barre':. Production also expanded in Argentina, Breeil,
Chile, Peru one Suotemale, but eclineo in solivia, end Trinidad ané Tobago?
in Venezueia, rroduction declineg by almost, 8 percent asa result of conser
vation messures enforced by the Government.

The Mexican and Venezuelan governments are implementing an important oil purchasing financing agreement for the Caribbean. The New York Times editorialized recently that the Caribbean is being rediscovered again. The agreement covers up to 2,000 barrels for each country. According to the agreement, 30 percent of the value of the crude purchased by the recipient country will be financed by the Venezuelan Investment Fund and the Central bank of Mexico. The loan will be given for five years at a 4 percent rate of interest. If, however, money is invested in development projects, preferably in energy, the loan will be extended for twenty years and the rate of interest will be lowered to 2 percent.

The World Bank has called for an international research program to improve and broaden the use of renewable energy technologies in developing countries. The Bank, in a recent report, "Mobilizing Renewable Energy Technology in Developing Countries: Strengthening Local Capabilities and Research," particularly emphasizes the role of biomass in the developing countries. Although in some countries up to 90 percent of energy consumption

Comes from biowass, the report concludes that "present research efforts to improve biomass production are inadequate to begin to realize the enormous potential of this resource for the longer term. A well designed and executed biomass research program would improve the productivity of conventional biomass materials such as sugarcane, cassava, and sweet sorghum and identify species that are potentially more productive. the research should be conducted. in forestry and agricultural laboratories located in developing countries".

The second part of the World Bank proposal focuses on the development of technologies for the production of energy from direct solar, wind, small hydro and biomass resources. Because a great deal of research to improve these technologies is already being done in the developed and in the more advanced developing countries, the program would be directed at assisting less developed countries (LOCs) to assess and adapt new technologies for their own national programs. The aim of such an international program would be to develop reliable data on renewable energy technology performance.

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evaluate experiences in different countries with the adoption of the technologies, and make global assessments of future technological developments and their implications for developing countries.

The Latin America Plan for Action for the United Nations Conference on New and Renewable Sources of Energy recommends that priority be given to the following:

1. Reaioval

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2. energy planning

bl defor ation an disseminat ior

cl training

2. integra? Regional Development

- a. hydroelectric

b. Hrewnod and charcoal

CL lique fuel production

2 solar energy,

S vegetable residues

geothermal energy

Btoges

wind power

THE CARIBBEAN REGION

In the Carivbean region the crude petroleum and refined products share of total merchandise imports. increased from tess. than 9 percent in 19/1 to about 4 percent in 1960, Petroleut imports into? the Region. increased during 1972-77 from \$150 million to \$620 million in. 1980, since ail Caribbean countries with the exception of Trinidad-Tobago are net inporters of energy.

?The Caribbean nations share several energy characteristics:7

1) the subcritical size of most national energy systems precludes a choice

of solutions

2) there are no organized markets for indigenous fuels;

3) indigenous fuels have not been able to replace the use of imported petroleum;

4) commercially exploitable indigenous resources are limited;

5) there is a shortage of trained personnel to carry out energy assessments and develop alternative energy programs

6

national governments resist considering regional cooperative efforts

as the best way to approach energy problems.

In the Caribbean, a large proportion of imported petroleum is used by the electric utility companies which have peak capacities that range from less

than ten megawatts to several hundred megawatts (See Table 1 and Figures 1A

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and 18). The commercial sector demands for electric energy in the smaller islands are frequently dominated by the services industries (tourism and

) accounting for up to 80 percent of all the electric

energy consumed in country. Residential electric energy consumption

accounts for approximately 20 percent

To solve the energy problems in the Caribbean Region the first fact that

must be recognized is that there are large amounts of natural energy in the

area which are not being utilized. This situation arises from common geographical

and ecological circumstances. The potential for renewable energy is

only now being recognized by the Region, and some countries are exploring the

possibilities for nonconventional sources through research and demonstrations

A consultant for the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) concluded recently that hydro, geothermal, solar and wind alternatives should be developed with priority in the Caribbean. This recommendation generally agrees with the report on Energy Resources in the Caribbean countries.

9

The Action Plan for the Caribbean Environment Programme is:

1) for:

1) Assessment of major sources of non-conventional energy and their potentials for utilization,

2) Management will involve:

Cooperation and technical assistance in the application of energy accounting systems which may be used as the basis for the formulation and implementation of sound national energy policies and programmes,

S

Reinforcement of regional and subregional integrated non-conventional energy activities with the objective of a fuller exchange and dissemination of all available information and provision of training opportunities.

©) Development of a cooperative programme for the implementation of appropriate technologies and practices for waste disposal with special attention to recycling, energy generation and the special problems of the smaller islands.

Energy sources considered in the Action Plan are geothermal, solar, ocean thermal energy conversion, hydropower, biomass, bioconversion and winds

It is important to mention that the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), with the Caribbean Development Bank (CDB) and CARICOM,

as implementing agencies, is financing since 1979 a \$7.6 million grant for energy development, including energy planning, assessment, design testing and dissemination of alternative energy technologies. Based on the achievements of this exercise, feasibility studies will be prepared in support of further financial assistance from regional, multilateral, bilateral and extraregional sources. USAID is in the process of formulating additional assistance projects totalling about \$20 million for similar activities in the Dominican Republic, Guyana and Jamaica and for 2 follow-up projects for the Caribbean region as a whole. Already a USKIO loan of \$7.5 million has been

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approved to help Jamaica establish an energy program. The goal of the program is to strengthen the island nation's ability to develop and carry out energy projects, expand energy conservation programs and develop alternative energy sources.

Notwithstanding these positive situations of interest and action on aspects of the Caribbean energy question, it may be observed that President Ronald Reagan's Caribbean Basin Initiative proposal did not make significant mention of energy, even though Puerto Rico has proposed that the Center for Energy and Environment Research at the University of Puerto Rico become the Research and Development center for energy in the Caribbean. CEER's twenty five year background of dealing with energy - the lecture five specifically on alternative and renewable energies - are a valuable platform from which many problems may be identified and solved. An encouraging sign may be recent indications of awareness that the CB1 will make impact upon existing energy use patterns within the Caribbean. This may lead to increasing awareness of the need to confront the energy question, not renewable but more importantly renewable, in the Caribbean: more comprehensively.

Geothermal Power

The entire Caribbean region is part of the Caribbean Tectonic Plate which occupies most of the Venezuela and the Colombia basins and moves east relative to both the North America Plate on its northern edge, and the South America Plate on the south (See Figures 2 and 3). The entire area appears to have been extensively intruded by large bodies of basaltic magma which developed deep within the mantle of the Earth and moved upward. Active volcanism around the margins of the sea and constant seismic disturbances result in continuous readjustments of the crust.

Regions of geothermal reservoirs are generally located along the margins of major crustal or tectonic plates; the Lesser Antilles is recognized as one of these zones. A tremendous waste of energy in these areas comes from volcanic eruptions, with large amounts of hot (700°C to 1300°C) magma from the mantle being expelled through the crust (See Figure 3).

Volcanoes exist in the Lesser Antilles. Martinique has the presently inactive Mont Pelee. In Guadeloupe a vein of steam connecting with La Soufriere volcano has been tapped by drilling at Souvillance off the west

coast. This drilling has been capped end, because the pressure is sufficient to operate a geothermal electricity generating station, the necessary plant and equipment has been ordered. Reports of potential geothermal energy resources in Dominica, Montserrat, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Dominican Republic, Grenada, Haiti and Jamaica have been published. St. Lucia is already planning to develop its thermal source of Pouter St Soufriere with 1 to 5 megawatt units. In 1969, a United Nations study indicated in Dominica where the extensive surface manifestations make the geothermal potential quite apparent. In regard to Haiti and Grenada it will be necessary to determine the origin of the hot springs to learn whether they are geothermic or geothermal before any exploratory drilling can be attempted. A feasibility study of geothermal potential is currently underway for generation of electricity in the Dominican Republic.

Geothermal energy has some environmental disadvantages because gases such

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Carbon monoxide and traces of hydrogen sulphide are capable of polluting the atmosphere. However, this problem can be minimized with the appropriate expertise and resources: It is worth emphasizing that at present, few

attempts have been made to utilize geothermal energy for power generation, the major efforts made have been in California, New Zealand, Mexico and Central America

Solar Energy

Solar Energy as an alternative source of energy has received the greatest attention in recent times. Essentially all our energy, except nuclear and geothermal, is derived directly or indirectly from the sun. The solar radiation in the Caribbean Region is on the order of two thousand kilowatt hours per square meter per year. Average air temperature varies from about 60°F in February to 83°F in September. Nearly fifteen times more solar radiation reaches the earth's surface than the total consumption of commercial energy. Presently, solar energy is used on a very limited scale in the Caribbean for crop drying, water purification, heating and distillation, for solar stills have been built by four foreign research institutes, one in Haiti and one in St. Vincent in the eastern Caribbean. These stills have been successfully providing potable water to small rural communities. Solar crop dryers have been built for drying nutmegs in Grenada, chili peppers in Guyana, and sugar cane in Barbados. The application of solar energy for water heating has reached satisfactory levels of development. In Jamaica, Barbados and Puerto Rico,

A survey undertaken in January 1962 by CEER, in conjunction with the Puerto Rico Department of Labor and Human Resources, indicated that there were approximately 18,000 residential hot water heaters in use. The development of solar industrial steam generators and solar air conditioner units is also being pursued by the Center for Energy and Environment, Research (CER) of the University of Puerto Rico. A 1,100 square meter solar air conditioned factory in Canovenas, Puerto Rico, and a new 400 square meter solar air conditioned Post Office in Guayama, Puerto Rico, are examples of commercial installations. In Lagos dei Norte, a 2U3-apartment condominium in Toa Baja, Puerto Rico, 3860sq.ft. of solar collectors were installed, with a 2500 gallon hot water tank to supply the needs of the more than 1000 residents.

In 1961 detailed design for a solar energy system to provide 210°F hot water to the Nestlé-Libby food processing plant at Santa Isabel, FcR. was completed. The final design consisted of a field of sunmaster tube collectors

tors with an active area of 50,600sq.ft. Unattained system simulation Studies predicted the solar array would provide 10⁶ kWh/year to three different Processes, including pasteurization, sanitation and boiler preheat, thus representing an annual saving of approximately 102,000 gallons of #6 fuel

Also in Puerto Rico a 240sq.ft. shallow solar pond system is currently being designed for hot water generation and storage for a high school in Mayaguez by CER which has developed a salt gradient pond computer design. Also in Mayaguez, CEER is currently installing a single stage, cold generator designed to use hot water to reclaim refrigerant to sustain the refrigeration cycle. Over 300 parabolic trough collectors made of fiber

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Glass, using boat technology, have been built, giving promise of great durability. In the Dominican Republic and on the Caribbean island of Anguilla some applications of natural salt-gradient ponds are presently being considered for solar energy storage.

In Garuados passive solar designs have been used, An example is the Technical Energy Unit (TEU) building of the Caribbean Development Bank (COB).

Testing of this passive system is in progress. Also a solar air conditioning system has been installed and is being tested in the new Barbados Government Analyst Laboratory. USAID and the Inter American Organization for Energy Development (OLADE) are financing the design and fabrication of a solar system in total at a total cost of \$5,6 million,

The largest solar hot water system in the Caribbean opened in September 1980 in Jamaica. The project was sponsored by the Energy Corporation.

has almost everything in its favor to make solar industrial energy a success. It has an outstanding availability of direct (concentratable) sunshine; an increasing well-documented insolation data base in Puerto Rico; high energy costs; a large established tourist industry which requires extensive air conditioning, a well established petrochemical industry. In such islands as Trinidad, Curacao, the Virgin Islands and Puerto Rico. If one wants to try out a new idea, one tries it either in the most favorable economic environment, or at the location where one has the greatest control over its operation. The fabrication of inexpensive collectors by unskilled labor is particularly true. Solar hot water heaters are already being fabricated in many of the islands. In Puerto Rico, a flexiglass solar concentrator collector for air conditioning systems has been developed and is being fabricated.

It is my very personal belief that industrial solar energy is economically viable in the Caribbean, if it is not, it probably will not be viable anywhere else in the world.

Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion (OTEC).

As a potential source for commercial supplies of electrical energy, ocean thermo! energy conversion (OTEC) offers another viable answer. It could become one of the most economical sources of energy yet conceived and is abundantly available as a potential source of power for generating electricity. The thermal (including gulf currents) energy potential of the Caribbean is estimated at 182 billion KwHr per year.

Strong ocean surface currents pass through the Caribbean Sea from the Atlantic and continue with increasing speed through the Yucatan channel. The main current flows at an average velocity of about one mile per hour. Also, temperature gradients between the ocean surfaces and 1000 meter depths are more than 22°C (40°F). Great sources of untapped energy exist in these currents and temperature gradients. The maximum depth of the Caribbean Sea is 6,180 meters about 160 kilometers south of Puerto Rico in the Muertos Trough. However, depths of 1000 meters are encountered two kilometers south east of Puerto Rico. CER has been actively working on the development of an OTEC project on the southeast coast of Puerto Rico. Its floating platform laboratory has run longer, continuously, than any other similar data-

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gathering station in the world at presently the best site for this purpose in
the United States!! Jamaica is planning an OTEC demonstration project. in
conjunction with the gov. of Norway and Finland through
the government of Holland has
proposed > a depth of 1,000 meters
can be reached only by the Se. Croix. have

made preliminary evaluation of potential and Sarbados, on its
east coast, of the wave area on its east coast,

Hydropower

Hydropower is important in Jamaica and the Dominican Republic.

Hydropower supplies 90 percent of power generation in Dominica and 27 percent

in the Dumntéan depudtic. It could also play an important role in Guyana
Suriname and Jamaica. Suriname, hydro potential of from 7,200 to 7,600 mega
watts has been identified, and in Suriname a hydro power potential of 3600
megawatts exists. Brazil is interested in this hydro resource. A Colombia
engineering firm is investigating the feasibility of a dam on the Dominté
order to develop the hydro resources." The Centro de Estudios de la Gaviota
in Colombia has some mini hydro technologies suitable for the
region.

Bona:

Broadly defined, bioenergy consists of terrestrial and aquatic vegetation and its residues and wastes, including animal wastes. Bioenergy is essentially a renewable and indirect form of solar energy = sunlight powering the chemical reaction which converts CO₂ and water into solid green biomass and oxygen,

The sub-tropical climate of the Caribbean is ideal for bioenergy and has been recognized for its abundance in producing a major form of biomass in the past, i.e., sugar cane,

Sugarcane is grown in many of the Caribbean?

Locations in Barbados, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Guyana, Haiti, Jamaica, Puerto Rico, St. Kitts-Nevis, Anguilla, Trinidad and Tobago. Sugar factories in Haiti are able to satisfy 100% of their energy requirements from bagasse and 90 percent of their energy requirements in Barbados, considerable use is made of bagasse as fuel for sugarmills in Guyana, Puerto Rico, Jamaica and other countries. Firewood, charcoal and bagasse provide an estimated 80 percent of Haiti's total primary energy supplies.

ean countries and in large quan-

The energy content of dry bagasse is about 8.15 kilowatt hours per kilogram. An extensive program of more than 51.50 million for the development of bagasse and tropical grasses for energy use has been going on since 1978 at the CEER in cooperation with the Agricultural Experiment Station. In this program the alternative use of sugarcane to produce both bagasse and the manufacture of molasses and alcohol has been pursued; also the optimization of tropical grasses for biomass production has been studied. A short ton of "oven-dry" biomass (6% moisture) contains about 15 million BTU of energy. This is the equivalent of two 42 gallon barrels of residual fuel oil. In addition, a significant amount of sugar and high test molasses are also produced. It has been estimated by CEER scientists that 70,000 acres planted in energy cane would produce yields roughly doubling present sugar production,

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eliminate entirely Puerto Rican run industry 80% dependence on imported molasses, and reduce Puerto Rico's petroleum imports by 17%.

Just that costs would) approximate about \$1,000 to 51,100 per acre and yield fiber and molasses product valued in excess of \$3000 per acre. In spite of inflation and rising labor and other costs, it is possible at present to plant energy cane in Puerto Rico and produce it at less than \$2.90 per million STU.

Studies currently su

Puerto Rico is geographically and historically typically Caribbean and well positioned to embark on a biomass energy industry. Located roughly 18° north latitude, its tropical climate can sustain plant growth on a year-round basis. Temperatures rarely drop below 50°F. There are literally thousands of plant species, both woody and herbaceous, capable of utilizing this climate for continuous growth processes. Approximately 80% of the land mass is humid, i.e., it receives abundant rainfall, while irrigation is well developed in the Tensining area regions. There are six distinct ecological life zones. The zones themselves offer varied selection for both research and commercial development. On Puerto Rican soils there are 9 Orders, 27 Sub-orders, 27 Great Groups, 24 Families, and 163 Series. It thus represents nearly all the Caribbean in all its variety.

Stoconversion

Biogas is produced when organic wastes, manure, vegetable matter or human waste are decomposed by bacterial action in anaerobic conditions such as those found in an airtight digester. The biogas produced has a composition of approximately 55 to 65 percent methane (CH₄), 35 to 45 percent carbon dioxide (CO₂), and traces of oxygen, nitrogen and hydrogen sulphide. It is combustible with a calorific value of 20,000 to 25,000 kilojoules per cubic meter, and can be used for cooking, heating and refrigeration. Once the gas production has ceased in the digester, the residue forms an excellent fertilizer which can be used to grow algae and the liquor can be extracted for irrigation.

A 1,200 pig farm is being operated successfully by private enterprise in the south of Puerto Rico. All of the electricity at the farm comes from local biogas production, and also algae is grown as a feed supplement for the pigs. It has been estimated that the manure from one large dairy cow could yield 2.5 cubic meters of biogas per day, roughly equivalent to one-third of a gallon of gasoline. It has been estimated that waste from one thousand Poultry broilers will be capable of producing about 10 cubic meters of methane per day, energy equivalent to one hundred kilowatt hours per day. If one assumes 30 million broilers, the energy potential equivalent to the methane produced will be 3 million kilowatt hours per day.

Jamaica currently has one unit generating methane from animal wastes and has requested \$3.75 million from Kuwait and Iran for a biogas demonstration unit, Barbados has set up three biogas digesters. Puerto Rico is preparing an energy-integrated farm on the semi-arid South Coast. The farm has a current milking herd of 400 registered Holsteins, to be increased to 500 head during 1982. The farm's 1982 average power demand will be about 1,680 kWh/day, and 24.6 tons of raw manure will be produced daily. The proposed energy integration system has two functions: (a) to produce green feed, electricity, and

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high-protein feed substitutes from manure, and (b) to establish a waste Management system in conformance with Puerto Rico's environmental quality regulations. The proposed energy-integration complex consists of eight subsystems. These include components for manure preparation and blending, a biogas generation subsystem, a biogas utilization subsystem, a solids dewatering and drying subsystem, and subsystems for wastewater cleaning and recycling. A monitoring subsystem is included to assure compliance with environmental regulations. From 30 to 40 percent of dairy feed requirements and 60 to 89 percent of farm power needs will be provided by the integrated system. Also in Puerto Rico, the Bacardi Corporation has installed a 3.3 million-gallon anaerobic digester tank to treat their distillery residue:

wastes before dumping them into the oceans

Disposal of municipal wastes becomes an increasingly serious problem every passing year because of continuing urbanization of Caribbean countries. It may be possible for municipal waste to make a substantial contribution to solving both the energy and waste problems by converting the latter to biogas for energy use. San Juan, the capital of Puerto Rico has been investigating the methane potential of its present land disposal site.

Winds

The northeast trade winds prevail over the Caribbean sea. The winds blow consistently from the east or northeast more than 70 percent of the time at mean velocities of about 10 miles per hour. Because of this favorable condition, a 200 kilowatt wind power generator was installed by the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) on the island of Culebra in Puerto Rico. This energy machine has produced 584,990 kWh of energy from 1978 to 1981, despite difficulties to improve blade performance and despite the occurrence of a labor strike. The project is being continued. A salient finding has, however, been the need to involve the community in such projects. In Culebra, although the residents favored wind energy as an alternative, their perception of their own wind mill's performance was largely negative, due to lack of participation and preparation.

Several of the Caribbean Islands show great suitability for the utilization of wind energy. The Caribbean has had long experience in using wind as a source of energy. Boats have been powered by wind for many years. Prior to the introduction of machinery for crushing sugarcane, small factories were situated on elevated land in order to use the available wind for driving windmills to crush the cane. This is true for Jamaica, Antigua, Puerto Rico and Barbados. In Antigua the Rockefeller Foundation has financed a 12 kilowatt

windmill generator. " Also a proposal for two pilot wind generators (50 to 100 kilowatt) has been sent to the United Nations Interim Fund. The Barbados based Caribbean Meteorological Institute is an active participant. in collecting information about wind speeds in the Caribbean Region, "A wind turbine generator factory has been installed in Puerto Rico by the Future Energy. RED Corporation.

Because of its importance, some comments about the environmental effects of windmills are significant. " The impact of wind turbines on the environment can be generally classified in four main areas:

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1) Noise effect. The noise produced by large wind turbine generators is the most objectionable environmental effect. About 1 percent of the time sound amplification or focusing problem raises the noise level to values of up to 77 decibels. This is equivalent to the noise level experienced at a busy metropolitan intersection. Reducing generator speed appreciably solves the problem, Efforts must therefore be

-costable noise levels for these environ=

ts and then to develop adequate computer programs to predict the

noise level of planned wind turbine generators.

2), Radio interference effects. The rotation of wind turbine blades gener:

ates radio frequency noise which may interfere with TV reception.

There are various solutions to this problem depending upon the local situation,

3) Air disturbance and reduction of wind power in nearby private pro

jects. Wind flow is altered by the presence of wind turbine

noise. At optimum operating condition of the turbine the effect

is not felt as far as 15 diameters of the machine rotor, causing

"wing shadow" and uneven flow of air to the blades. For a 300ft, dia

ie they rotor machine the effect would be felt: for a distance of 4500ft

nich could affect the neighbor's wind turbine.

4) Aesthetic effects. Wind turbines can present an objectionable sight when located nearby sophisticated residential areas?

AV] environmental impacts of wind turbine appear to be insignificant when compared with other energy sources. Consequently, more than 100. United States electric utilities are considering wind projects. Southern California Edison is already testing wind machines in the San Geronimo Pass and has signed agreements to purchase as much as 85 megawatts from 56 wind turbines. Hawaii has signed a contract with Wind Farms, Inc. to install 20 megawatt wind turbines on Oahu by 1985. Wind Farms, Inc. has persuaded

Pacific Gas & Electric Co. to buy as much as 350 megawatts of wind | power.

Also three 2.5 megawatt wind turbines (MOD-2) are generating at Goodnoe Hill in Washington for the Bonneville Power Administration with turbine blades. 300 feet long towers 200 feet tall; and the blades rotating at 17.5 rpm. In Germany MAN is engineering and constructing a Growian (grosse wind energieanlage) 3 megawatt wind energy machine.

Wind appears as one of the most promising energy alternatives for the Caribbean Region. Coastal winds could be of significance for meeting local energy demands and thereby reducing investment requirements for transmission and transport of electricity and fuels.

conclusions

This paper briefly discussed the renewable energy technologies, geothermal, Solar, OTEC, hydro, biomass, bioconversion and wind which have the greatest potential for the Caribbean Region. But let us not forget that any activity of man causes some kind of impact on the surroundings. The objective of developing renewable energy technologies is to look for socially desirable, economically viable and ecologically prudent near-nature production systems, paradigmatically inspired by the ecosystem concept, and capable of jointly

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supplying human necessities. Environment appears in this perspective as a resource potential to be harnessed on a sustainable basis and as much as possible, in an ecologically benign manner. The eco development approach for

renewable energy technologies including wind power, hydro, geothermal, solar

< renewable energies development and potentials are summarized in
table 1.1: that these renewable energies be examined in the

Table of current basic forms of energy use, namely: Liquid transport fuels, centralized electric power, decentralized power, and heat. These are outlined in

Table 3, "New and Renewable Energy Technologies and Applications", presented for the United Nations Conference on New and Renewable Sources of Energy. It lists various new and renewable energy technologies, including mini-hydro, small-scale

solar and geothermal, which are already feasible and available for rapid proliferation in a decentralized mode. They can all be used in the Caribbean,

Region. Table 4 summarizes present demonstration projects in renewable energies in the Caribbean Region. More details of some of these projects are given in Energy Resources in the COCC member countries report. © Large scale

hydro, geothermal and to some extent, ocean power will continue to play important roles in centralized networks which principally benefit users in the region. The prospects for biomass and peat technologies such as the production of solid, liquid and gaseous fuels are of considerable interest providing that there are no conflicts with food production. Because of their

great near term potential, Table 5 lists selected Biomass Energy Systems. for

Jaribbean countries. Small-scale solar technologies for water pumping and distillation, low temperature heating, cooking, crop drying, and power generation are available and are expected to play a significant role in the near future. Small and medium-size windmills used in decentralized mode are already cost-competitive in many areas, and medium and large windmills are expected to be attractive enough for autonomous and integrated modes of operation in windy areas such as the Caribbean. For given promising areas, it is important to determine the wind potential and how soon wind will become economically competitive.

Other new and renewable energy technologies such as the ocean thermal energy conversion, Geothermal energy, large-scale solar ponds, tar sands and oil shales are all very promising. With suitable support for research, development and demonstration, these resources could emerge as significant options within short to medium time frames.

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FIG I-A 1-8 ELECTRICITY CAPACITY AND PRODUCTION PER
CAPITA IN SOME ISLANDS AND COUNTRIES IN THE
CARIBBEAN

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Figure 2

PLATE BOUNDARIES OF THE CARIBBEAN REGION

PLATE CONFIGURATION IN EASTERN CARIBBEAN

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACROKYS

alo. Agency for International Development

2. BoD British Development Division of the
Ministry of Overseas Development, U.K.
Government

3. 608 Caribbean Jevelopnent Bank

4. crOk Canadion International Developrent Agency

5. CONACYT Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnologia
Mexico

6. Dor + Department of Eneray (U.S.)

7. EOF European Development Bank

8. EIB + European Investment Bank

9. 1880 + International Bank for Reconstruction
and Development

10, 108 2 Inter American Development Bank

1h, NASA + National Air Space Administration (U.S.)

12. OAS 2 Organization of American States

13. OLADE + Latin American Organization for Energy
Development.

14. PREPA PLR, Electric Power Authority

15. Tey + Technical Energy Unit of COB

16. WW + InterimFund ~ United Nations Interim-Fund

17. UNDP United Nations Development Programme

18. UNICA + Caribbean Universities and Research
Institutes Association

19. UNICEF + United Nations International Childrens
Emergency Fund

20. USAID + United States Agency for International
Development.

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1982

First Pan American Congress on Energy and

Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

ALTERNATIVE ENERGY PLANNING
FOR PUERTO RICO

By

Ronald C. Scott

Puerto Rico Office of Energy

Office of the Governor

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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ALTERNATIVE ENERGY PLANNING FOR PUERTO RICO

1 INTRODUCTION

The Puerto Rico Office of Energy reports directly to me Governor and has the responsibility to coordinate and integrate all energy related programs.

Specifically, the Office formulates policy, monitors petroleum and other energy

and manages an Energy Conservation Program; develops and promotes Alternative Energy Sources and Systems; and, in general, assures the availability of energy for the Island.

Because the Government of Puerto Rico is convinced that alternative energy can make a significant contribution to the long-term solution of the Island's energy Problems, the Government has appropriated almost \$5 million to be made available for the development of alternative energy sources for Puerto Rico.

In order to expend this sum most efficiently, it is important to quantify the potential and the "technology readiness" for commercialization for the various

?Alternative Energy Sources is a term utilized to describe a range of technology options that would diversify the fuel sources for energy production. Traditionally, this has included the "Solar Technologies" which includes all Renewable Energy Sources. For Puerto Rico, alternative energy could be viewed as any source other than petroleum, since 98% of the Island's energy production is derived from this source.

Currently, there is a surplus of oil on the world market. Supplies flow freely and during periods like this, we tend to forget the fragile balance between world supply (production) and demand (consumption).

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?The opportunity exists to begin a steady transition to renewable energy sources over the next decades, and bring on line those technologies which are proven and ready for the marketplace.

ce in the form of wind, hydro,

The Island is blessed with a great solar energy resource in the form of bioenergy, ocean, and direct sunlight. What is not known is the exact magnitude of this resource. One of the first steps that must be undertaken before wide-scale deployment of these technologies by the private sector will be the quantification of the renewable resource potential of Puerto Rico. This is one of the key

activities in the Energy Sources Area this fiscal year

The overall objective of the program is to promote the wide-scale exploi

and utilization of energy sources which are reliable, cost-effective and environ=

mentally acceptable.

Artemelire (2)

The overall strategy of the Energy Sources Program is to create a favor-

able environment for the various technologies such that the private sector (with the cooperation of Government) can develop and deploy (commercialize) their products:

The implementation of this strategy will vary for each technology option.

In some cases it may be policy statements and/or tax incentives for other technologies, it may include research, development and demonstration. In any case,

if the energy source is environmentally acceptable, economically viable and tech-

nology readiness proven;

The purpose of this paper is to describe the methodology we have established

to evaluate the various energy sources and to share some of the early results of

then wide-scale deployment would be expected.

an extended planning activity which will culminate in an "updated" energy policy

statement for Puerto Rico.

---Page Break---

HI, CURRENT ENERGY USE AND PROJECTIONS FOR PUERTO RICO

"To understand the "energy problem" of Puerto Rico, one must understand

that 98.96% of the energy consumed is imported petroleum; however, to obtain a

clear picture, the energy use by sector must be analyzed.

In brief overview, the total energy consumption peaked in Puerto Rico

in 1979 at just over 350×10^{15} BTU per year. It has steadily declined since then

to an overall consumption of 315×10^{15} BTU in 1981. Indications are that a further

reduction to approximately 290×10^{15} BTU can be expected in 1982. Economic

and energy use models predict a continuing decline to around 260×10^{15} BTU in

the 1983 timeframe. For the same years, the relationship between energy consump-

tion and Gross Domestic Product has been declining, e.g. (1979 = 78.3×10^7

BTU/GDPS; 1981 - 68.6; and in 1985, it is projected at 56.6).

[As in every story there is good news and bad news. The good news is that

we are conserving more and becoming more efficient; the bad news is that several

energy intensive industries have closed and perhaps we are not living quite as

well.

We are not alone; in fact, the U.S. recession, coupled with persistently

high interest rates and the overall curtailment of Federal spending is the large driver in the projections.

If we examine the total energy consumption by sector, in Puerto Rico,

we find the following:

?Electricity production accounts for 439%

*Fuels 5%

sBagasse 3%

100%

?This percentage distribution has remained relatively constant over the

last five years,

1nd will probably remain that way through the mid-1980's.

---Page Break---

[An interesting statistic I that the fuels account for 548 of the total consumption, approximately half of which is gasoline. While gasoline consumption

for automobiles declined approximately 12% in the U.S. during fiscal 1981, it declined only 38 in Puerto Rico. Liquid fuel consumption must therefore become a prime target if energy self-sufficiency is to be realized.

[At the same time as the total consumption of energy in the near-term

is projected to decrease, the percentage for

thermal power generation will remain

significant; therefore, another target of opportunity will be reductions in petroleum

usage for electrical power generation.

til, THE PLANNING PROCESS

The hierarchy of planning can be broken down into three levels:

Policy Planning; Formulation of alternative goal patterns of functional objectives for the future--based on alternative future environments--in a (continuous) comparison, selection and feedback process. Policy Planning--being concerned with goals--seldom involves technological considerations in any central way.

2. Strategic Planning: Formulation of a set of goals, together with

1 procedure for systematic comparison and assessment. The strategic options involve significant technological developments, especially when the goals are related to physical (or biological) problems, such as putting a man on the moon, feeding the world's population, cleaning up polluted rivers, developing a defense against ballistic missiles,

or solving the "Energy Problem."

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3. Tactical (or Operational) Planning: Delineating the sequence of actions necessary to implement a particular strategy. Here the well-defined technological (as opposed to functional) objectives would be at the system or subsystem level.

Using these definitions to differentiate the levels of Planning, relating the role

of Forecasting to the Planning Process, does not explicitly provide for Policy

Planning. It is more adaptable to Strategic Forecasting and Planning, making

sion, and then planning in detail at the Tactical level. Herein lies a major

problem, for what most people think of as "planning" is actually at the tactical (operational level). There is nothing wrong with this except the goal is usually a "given goal, and the process of selection is always viewed as a means to an end.

11 we invert our thinking process and view Forecasting as a means to arrive at Alternative Futures from which we can select desirable goals, Planning then becomes the mechanism to achieve the desirable future through an expression of Policy Statements. This inverted thinking process can be translated into a "model" that allows the systematic flow of information in an iterative process, resulting in Policy Statements that reflect the selected goals and the required Planning for implementation of that policy. Figure I reflects such a model.

Let us briefly examine the content of the model. It provides for Forecasting of the various areas by whatever techniques proved most fruitful and allows for synthesis of the Forecasts resulting in an Alternative Futures Forecast. It allows for goal-setting to give visibility to each area (Technology, Economics, Social, Political, etc.) and provides for Planning to achieve the established goals leading to the Alternative Future. This iterative process allows for the establishment

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of Policy Statements which can be implemented, based on detailed plans. The

Performance Evaluation block requires a determination of whether or not the

goals are being a

ieved and provides for corrective feedback into the Planning

block. According to our definition and thinking, everything to the left of the

dashed line becomes Long-Range Planning, and everything to the right becomes

Operational Policy Implementation,

?The Operational Policy Implementation Process is nothing more than com-

mitting resources to the achievement of the established goals according to a de-

tailed plan. A mechanism must be built into the process to measure the effec

tivity of the plans and if substandard performance is detected (Performance

Evaluation), then new Planning must be provided for, and possibly resulting in,

adjustment of the goals. This allows te dynamic process of change and adaptation

to become inherent in the Model.

IV TECHNOLOGICAL FORECASTING, OR "MARKET PENETRATION TAKES TIME?"

The first step in the planning process (Figure 1) involves technological

forecasting. All new technologies encounter a limited initial acceptance in the

marketplace during the years of commercialization. The Technology Utilization

Program created by NASA in the mid-1960's studied over a dozen "innovations"

and found the average time from first discovery to a product in the marketplace

was approximately 15-20 years. Heat pumps introduced in the late 1950's never

really penetrated the marketplace until the 1970's, It could be argued that "Pac-Man".

the electronic game--has violated this law of market acceptance; however, electronic

games have been around a long time and only the low cost micro-chip and marketing.

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ingenuity have provided the recent exponential growth. Historically, the com=

Commercialization process for new products has followed an S-shaped curve typical

to the one shown in Figure 2.

The first phase is characterized by an initial

lag in the marketplace

due to resistance to change and perception of high risk, cost and uncertainty. The second Phase is the "bandwagon" period. The innovation rapidly gains marketplace acceptance coupled with reduced cost; which comes about by the learning curve effect of increased production volume and refinements in the technology. The final phase reflects saturation of the market by the mature version of the initial innovation,

In the case of alternative energy technologies, the time for each phase will vary significantly. There are several reasons for this:

1. First, the resource potential (ultimate market share) will vary.
2. The level of technology can vary significantly (solar hot water heaters vs. photovoltaic systems).
3. The characteristics of the ultimate user (individual, industry, utilities, etc) will affect the rate of market deployment.

In order to develop a methodology for use in technological forecasting of alternative energy market penetration, it is necessary to estimate the manner

in which alternative energy technologies will replace a petroleum-based society.

To accomplish this purpose, three tasks must be performed.

1. The resource potential needs to be analyzed and quantified.

2. The various technologies must be listed and their "technology readi-

ness" assessed.

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3. And finally, the method, time and rate of entry into the marketplace for each technology must be estimated.

With the exception of step functional variations produced by the addition of large centralized energy plants, all technologies are assumed to follow an S-shaped market penetration curves with only the time to market saturation and the percent of the total potential to be anticipated as variables.

The establishment of the limits of these variables, however, is a most diffi-

cult task. Expert opinion and a modified Delphi process may be utilized to establish

?a consensus. With this established, the computer then becomes a servant, allowing
?one to make projections of alternative futures by varying magnitudes of the parameters
and the combinations. The projection becomes not what will be, but what is possible
should policies be adopted and plans implemented to achieve the market goals
in technologically feasible time frames.

The scenario of what is technologically possible must then be subjected

to the larger model of overall planning--the "ESP" of the problem, e.g., the Economic

Social, and Political considerations and analyses.

?The presentation which follows focuses primarily on the technologically

feasible scenario for Puerto Rico. This must await further analysis in the coming

period as the "ESP" part of the equation is investigated in order to allow the proper

establishment of policies in regard to the development.

APPROPRIATE ALTERNATIVE ENERGY TECHNOLOGIES

The following is a listing of alternative energy technologies considered

appropriate for Puerto Rico:

---Page Break---

1, Solar Water Heaters

2 Cogeneration

3. Hydroelectric

4, Electricity from Solid Waste

3. Small Wind

6. Large Wind Machines (Wind Farms)

7. Methane from Animal Waste

8. Alcohol from Sugar Cane

9. Electricity from Bagasse

10. Electricity from Solar Ponds

11. Photovoltaics

12, Synthetic Fuels from Coal

13. oTEC

18. Other

The technologies are rank ordered in terms of their commercial readiness and anticipated acceptance in the marketplace. The first ones listed are technically proven and have demonstrated economic viability. As one descends down the list, more time is required for the technologies readiness to be reached. We are now ready to discuss briefly each of the technology options considered and the basic assumptions which results in the energy savings that might be achieved.

initiate the first iteration which will become the basis for

It is in this way we i

the planning process and the generation of policies that are required.

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1, Solar Hot Water Hee

The use of solar hot water heaters in Puerto Rico, as an alternative to heating water with electricity, is an alternative energy technology which is currently cost-effective, and which shows promise to continue in this status for the rest of this century. Since 1976, the annual installation of units on residences has steadily increased from about 2,000 units per year to an estimated 5,800 units per year in 1981. There are presently about 17,009 units installed in the residential

sector. If the rate of installation is assumed to increase linearly to 12,000 per year in the year 2000, there will be an estimated 187,737 units in place by that time, which represents about 23% of the estimated 800,000-residences which will exist in Puerto Rico at that date.

It is assumed that each collector averages 40-59 sq. ft. in area, and that the average collector efficiency is 40%. It is further assumed that an average of 2000 BTU per sq. ft. per day is available as solar energy which may be collected. Consistent with these assumptions, a plausible commercialization curve for this technology may then be produced. This curve is shown in Figure 3.

One BTU of energy which has been generated by solar hot water systems, and which replaces a BTU which has been generated by an electric heating element, replaces 3.33 times as much energy in the form of imported fuel if an overall conversion efficiency rate for electrical generation and transmission for central fossil fueled power station is taken as 30%, and if it is assumed that the power

plant is operated with imported fossil fuel.

At a rate of 5.8 million BTU per barrel, it is possible to predict the barrels

of imported oil which may be saved by the predicted solar hot water heater

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an

commercialization. This has been done for this case, and the results are as follows,

in terms of fiscal years for the commercialization scenario described:

Year 80 81 82 84 8 BKB 90? 95 2000

Millions 07.20 30.40 50 6S. 90.80 2.20

of BBIs

of oil

savings

2 Cogeneneration

Co-generation technology may be defined as mechanical devices which generate electrical energy at the site of use, and which are designed to provide heat energy to other processes at the same time, thus replacing imported fossil fuel which was formerly used for these processes.

A recent study by Energy Research and Associates estimates that approximately 473 MW co-generation potential now exists in Puerto Rico. Of this total; 150 MW is readily achievable, and could be put in place by 1986. This represents 4×10^{12} BTU per year (energy equivalent of electricity generated at a 90% load factor). A plant efficiency of 60% is assumed, The technology is current state-of-the-art. The rate at which the co-generation will be brought on line is highly dependent upon institutional constraints and how the PURPA legislation is implemented with respect to the tariff (stand-by and payback at avoided cost).

(On the basis of these figures, a plausible commercialization curve for this technology may be developed. This curve is shown in Figure 4, If the BTU per year values are converted into BBIs of oil per year replacements as far as imported fuels are concerned, the increase in plant efficiency, over conventional electrici

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generating methods, allows a credit to be realized. The following savings in imported oil then results, consistent with the described scenario:

Year(FY) 80 81 82 83 84 HBB D8 2000

Millions 0.0 0.0 0.9 0.03 0.86 1.58 3.30 3.78 3.78 3,78

of Bas of

oil savings:

3. Hydroelectric

Hydroelectric alternatives involve the conversion of ponded natural rainfall to electricity through the use of mechanical devices which are designed to function under very small pressure differentials, thus replacing imported fossil fuel which is used to generate electricity.

A recent U.S. Corps of Engineers report estimates 106 MW potential in hydroelectric sources in Puerto Rico. Based on 24 hour per day operation, at a load factor of 100%, the BTU equivalent of this electrical energy is 3.2×10^{12}

BTU/year. The output currently equals 1.9×10^{12}

BTU/year, and may reach the

{full potential in ten (10) years.

Figure 5 plots this estimate over a technologically realistic time frame.

If it is assumed that the energy output from this alternative is

used directly to

replace fossil fuel produced electricity, then a multiplication ratio for saving

on imported oil which is similar to that used for the solar hot water technology

results, The resulting savings in terms of fiscal years for this commercialization scenario are the following:

Year(FY) 80 81 «82885 BKB 80852000

Millions 0.86 0.86 0.86 0.86 0.86 0.89 121 161 184 1.8

of BBIs of
oil savings

---Page Break---

B

Electricity from Solid Waste

Electricity that is generated from steam which is created by burning solid waste represents an alternative energy source.

It is estimated that in the city of San Juan, the first 20 MW increment of solid waste energy conversion will be on-line by 1988. The introduction of additional units is under study at this time, and it is estimated that the success of the San Juan facility will result in another 20 MW increment being added by 1992. The BTU output of these facilities is plotted in Figure 6. If it is assumed that the electricity produced by these plants replaces imported fossil fuel generated

electricity, then a multiplication effect occurs similar to that experienced for the case of solar water heaters. The resulting savings in imported oil, consistent with this scenario, are the following:

Year(FY) \$0 81 82-8488 BE 90952000

Millions 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.34 0.30 0.69 0.68

of BBs of

oil savings

5. Small Wind Machines

Individual small wind electrical generators (2 to 50 kw) to replace imported oil which is used to generate electricity for residences in Puerto Rico, is an attractive alternative energy source. They are marginally cost-effective at this date; however, with the recent passage of tax incentives and the consumers anticipation of rate Increases, this technology is ready for commercialization in Puerto Rico. It is conservatively estimated that the commercialization potential is 1%, or one home in 100. By the year 2000, this represents 8,000 units for an annual energy production equivalent of 0.5×10^{12} BTU/year. Because wind technology uses a free source

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of energy, its rate of deployment could be quite rapid as it becomes more cost-effective. This could change these projections by an order of magnitude, or more, depending on these socio-economic factors. A plot of the BTU output from the conservative 19 acceptance scenario stated above is shown in Figure 7. This produces the following estimates of oil savings, assuming the electricity which

is generalisd replaces fossil fuel generated electricity:

Year(FY) \$0 81-82 88S BE BB 90952000

Millions 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.03 0.06 0.09 0.18 0.17 0.23 0.29

of BBis of

ol savings.

6. Large Wind Machines (Wind Farms)

Large wind machines are an attractive alternative as wind farms or central wind generating plants (greater than 40 MW) to replace imported oil which is used to generate electricity for the residential and industrial sectors of the Puerto Rico energy economy.

The wind resource potential and the site availability for large wind farms is in the process of being evaluated. The third generation large wind machines will not be under test and evaluation until the 1984 time frame. A reasonably conservative scenario suggests that the first 40 MW facility will go on line in Puerto Rico in 1988, with a second one being added in 1991, and two more in 1995, for the combined contribution of 160 MW. This represents a total of 4.8×10^{12}

BTU/year by 1995.

A plot of the probable BTU output of this commercialization scenario is

presented in Figure 8. The 88ls of oll per year savings, as far as replacement

of imported oil is concerned, is listed as follows:

---Page Break---

a

Year(FY) 80 81 82 48S 86 BB 90952000

Millions 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.09 0.00 0.00 0.69 069 2.76 2.76

of BBIs of

oll per year

savings

Obviously, the cost effectiveness and ultimate success of wind farms is

highly dependent on the electricity purchase rates established by the utility in

response to the PURPA legislation.

7. Methane from Animal Waste

Anaerobic digestion of animal waste residues to produce methane gas which

may be used to replace imported fossil fuels in heating and power generation is

an alternative energy technology which is current state-of-the-art, small scale,

and highly dispersed, it is difficult to estimate the potential, but it appears to

be at around 6.7×10^{11} BTU per year. A capture rate of 22% would thus yield

about 1.5×10^{11} BTU per year by the year 2000. A plot of this production rate

is shown in Figure 9. Because the methane that is produced would tend to be

used in applications which directly substitute for imported fossil fuel, the multi-

plication as far as savings in imported fuel is less than that for the solar hot water

technology by about a factor of 3. The estimated savings in imported oil from

this commercialization scenario follows:

Year(FY) 80 81 82 83 84 85 86 87 88 89 90 91 92 93 94 95-2000

Millions 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.02 0.03 0.04 0.08 0.12 0.24 0.26

of BBIs of

oil savings

8. Alcohol from Sugar Cane

The production of commercial grade methanol and ethanol from sugar cane,

for use as a synthetic fuel in gasoline/alcohol blends, thus replacing imported

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{fossil fuels, is an alternative energy technology which may show considerable promise in the decades ahead.

This technology is current state-of-the-art. The significant market is in

substitution for liquid fuels, such as gasoline substitution in producing gasohol

(10% ethanol). Estimates have been received that the first pilot plant could be

operational by 1985 at 1,000 gallons per day for demonstration testing. The production

rate of 8.4×10^6 BTU/year could be reached by 1995. The success of this alternative

is highly dependent upon agricultural policy (land use) and the overall policy

with respect to alcohol production in Puerto Rico (the rum and sugar industries).

Figure 10 plots the BTU production for this scenario. The BBIs of oil per

year savings which may be produced by the application of this technology in this

manner is as follows:

Year(FY) 80 81 82-84 «85H BBS 90952000

Millions 0.00 9.09 0.09 0.00 0.00 0.07 0.28 0.68 1.65 1.52

of BBIs of

oil per year

savings

The technology is current state-of-the-art. Realization requires favorable

agricultural policy, and a conscious decision to divert land use to the production

of sugar and/or energy cane.

Electricity from Bagasse

The burning of bagasse in boilers to produce steam generated electricity

is a form of alternative energy which may be used to replace imported fossil fuels

which are used to generate electricity. Currently the burning of bagasse consumes

10×10^{12} BTU/year which is in the form of electricity and process heat. It is

---Page Break---

v

estimated that 450 MW equivalent potential could be achieved by 1992. This con

verts to a total energy of 26.5×10^{12} BTU/year, of an electrical equivalent of

8.0×10^{12} BTU/year by 1992, at an assumed efficiency of 30%.

Figure 11 plots a plausible commercialization scenario for this technology.

Estimates of the contribution of this technology in savings of imported

oil are the following:

Year(FY) 80 BL 8248S 8G 8B 90952000

Millions 1.72 1.72 1.55 2.01 218 241 295 3.79 5.36 6.03

of BBIs of

ll savings

?As with the alcohol from sugar cane alternative, realization requires favor~

able agric

policy, and a conscious decision to divert land use to the production of sugar cane, and in this case the more prolific bagasse producer, or "energy cane" would need to be instigated. This, however, is fully compatible with requirements for the previous alternative, and in fact they each may go hand-in-hand.

10. Electricity from Solar Ponds

?An additional alternative energy source with potential in Puerto Rico is the shallow salt-water pond collector which produces hot water or electricity to replace imported oil which has been used for industrial process heat or for generating electricity.

Solar ponds are state-of-the-art and are operating in Israel. The potential

in Puerto Rico is inhibited by land values,

and by lack of level terrain, An assumed

region one mile in width surrounding the island, with 296 of this area, or four square miles, being converted by solar pond would produce an electrical energy of 0.8×10^{12} BTU/year by the year 1995. This assumes that the solar pond converts solar energy

to electricity at 1% efficiency.

---Page Break---

1s

A plot of the contribution from this resource in BTU per year is shown in Figure 12. The imported oil which is replaced by this technology, under this commercialization scenario is the following:

Year(FY) 89 81-82-84 «83-8909 2000

Millions 0.00 0.09 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.09 0.17 0.66 0.32

of BBIs of

oil savings.

II, Photovoltaics

Another promising energy alternative from a technological point of view is the use of photovoltaic devices which generate electricity from solar energy to replace imported fossil fuel which has been used to generate electricity.

Photovoltaics is state-of-the-art technology, and has been used widely in space and remote applications, where the economics have proved viable. Should the U.S. program cost goals be achieved (70¢ per peak watt by 1986) then wide-scale utilization of this technology could be expected. It is assumed that commercialization of this technology in Puerto Rico will be initiated in 1988, with its full potential of 1.6×10^9 BTU/year being realized in the year 2000. As was the case with small wind systems, this commercialization potential is highly dependent upon cost factors, and estimates could vary by an order of magnitude.

In preparing the estimates for this technology, an assumed conversion efficiency of 11% was used for an ultimate area of photovoltaic cells which was equal to an average of 200 sq. ft. per home for 100,000 homes.

The forecast for BTU output for this solar energy technology is shown in Figure 13.

The predictions for BBIs of imported oil savings is the following:

---Page Break---

3

Year(FY) 8 81 82-84 «BSB RB 90952000

Millions 0.00 0.09 0,09 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.03 0.11 0.75 092

of BBs of

oil savings.

12, Synthetic Fuels from Coal

If one defines an alternative energy as one which is alternative to the cu

rently imported fuel oil, the conversion from coal into synthetic gaseous and liquid fuels, replacing imported fossil fuels, is a viable alternative which must be considered, in that it will provide a transition toward other forms, and a stability to the imported energy market.

Coal may be used directly or indirectly as a substitution for petroleum in power generation. The degree to which this is achieved may be based entirely on capital cost requirements and on the need for reliable energy sources and the

Desire to reduce cost of production, e.g., economics and security are the key issues.

?Coal may also be gasified and liquified to a synthetic fuel whic

pacts all sectors

of the fossil fuel economy; for instance, transportation, chemical feedstocks, and power generation. It may well be the bridge between the existing energy state and that beyond the year 2000,

11 is assumed that 430 MW equivalent will be produced in electrical generation

by the year 1992, and an additional 450 MW equivalent will be available for absorp

tion into the remaining energy market at that time, The ultimate potential of

900 MW, by the year 2000, will produce 75×10^{12} BTU/year equivalent of energy.

?The energy produced from this alternative is graphed in Figure 14, The

replacement, or savings, of imported oil produced by the introduction of this tech-

nology follows:

---Page Break---

Year(FY) 80 81-82-8485 «8E BB D920

19 0,00 0.00 0.00 0.99 0.00 0.00 8.28 12,93

Millions 0.00 0,

of BBs of

oil savings.

1. TEC

[A developing alternative energy which could have a tremendous potential in Puerto Rico, by virtue of its geographic uniqueness is the conversion of the thermal differences in the tropical ocean to electricity, thus replacing the imported fuel oil which is used to generate electricity.

Unfortunately, Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion is yet to be proven as a viable cost-effective electrical energy producer. Further development needs to be made, but it is assumed that 40 MW may be on-line by 1994, with 80 additional MW being added in 1998, for a total electrical energy equivalent of 3 x 10¹¹ BTU/year by the year 2000.

A graph of the energy contribution from this scenario is given in Figure

15. The contribution in terms of savings of imported oil follows:

Year(FY) 80 8182-84-85 «8E BB 9D.«95-?2000

Mullions 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.57 1.72

of BBIs of

oil savings:

1%. Other

?Other alternative energy technologies which may develop, but which are not presently seen as contributing significantly to the creation of an energy self-

sufficient condition before the turn of the century include the following:

---Page Break---

2

1 Ocean wave energy converters

2 Ocean current energy converters

3. Large solar thermal facilities,

Salinity gradients

?The estimated contribution from these sources is shown in Figure 16.

?The contribution in oil saved is the following:

Year(FY) 80 81 82 83 84 85 86 87 88 89

Millions 0,09 0,0 0,00 0,00 0,09 0,00 0,00 0,00 0,03 0,03

of BBs of

oil savings

VIL ENERGY SEL!

ICIENCY

The previously described technologies, together with others which remain to be identified, each possess the capability of contributing technologically to a 2 degree of energy self-sufficiency for Puerto Rico, as far as freedom from dependency on imported oil is concerned. though it is obvious that variations may exist in the degree and time at which each is commercialized, a summation of the estimates of the contribution does yield useful insights to the composite technological potentials of an alternative energy program.

Figure 17 presents just such a summation for imported fossil fuels which are used in the electric sector, Figure 18 presents the same information for the

non-electric sector,

1nd Figure 19 presents a composite for both. It should be noted that a 1.5 percent per year growth rate in energy consumption is assumed after 1983. This is an assumed value to effect economic growth; however,

it could vary significantly, depending upon continued conservation measures and

?economic policies adopted in future years.

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2

If it is assumed that the forecasts made previously are achievable within all applicable socio-economic and political constraints, then it may be said that a major degree of energy self-sufficiency for Puerto Rico is an idea whose achievement is definitely possible. As a matter of fact, it may be observed that with the introduction of each new alternative energy technology, savings in imported oil tend to accumulate with increasing rapidity. The degree to which this self-sufficiency is realized is obviously dependent, on numerous economic and non-technological factors, but such a forecast provides an excellent first step in the identification of the achievable. The technological forecasts on which this scenario has been based have been intentional, pragmatic and conservative, but the results appear

to be very promising. With sufficient incentives and technological breakthroughs, some of these projections could increase by orders of magnitude, with the result of shortening the date to a more self-sufficient state as far as imported energy

is concerned.

vii, SUMMARY.

The information and data just presented reflect a first projection of what is technologically feasible and has not been subjected to economic and social considerations. The planning model (Ref. Figure 1) is now ready to be exercised with successive iterations which will result in refinements of the energy contributions from each of the technologies considered.

Refinements in the resource potential for wind may indicate that only

certain areas of the Island have wind speeds of sufficient

magnitude and consistency

to warrant deployment of wind machines. This finding would result in a reduced

projection of this technology's energy contribution. Similarly, further analysis

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may indicate that land availability for energy production is limited and

the initial assumption will be modified to reflect the potential contribution of

bagasse and alcohol as fuels.

The capital cost of some of the technologies may remain too intensive and never have an opportunity to compete in the marketplace. An example of this is Photovoltaics. The installed systems' cost may never achieve their cost goals. On the other hand, this particular technology could experience a technological breakthrough in efficiency and cost and our first projections would have to be modified upward significantly.

These examples are shown to indicate the fragility of technology forecasting and Planning itself; however, not to forecast and to plan is to leave the future unattended for the decisions made today determine what path we take into the future.

It is our conclusion that the methodology and the modeling underway that considers all elements of the Economic, Social and Political systems will allow realistic achievable goals to be set and policies adopted which will lead Puerto Rico to a more energy self-sufficient future, and it is to this end that all of

Us are dedicated to serve.

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1-7, 1982

?Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

ENERGY PLANNING FOR PUERTO RICO:

?A?SYSTEMS MODELING APPROACH

By

Jorge Haddock Acevedo

University of Puerto Rico

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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A. INTRODUCTION

es electric utility in Puerto Rico has had many difficulties in determining

the requirements for new electrical generating units (10). This means that

expanding Puerto Rico's electric energy network, as well as promoting decentralized

To day when they become commercially available, will not be an easy task. Today we can consider valid options: oil, coal, biomass, OTEC (Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion), hydroelectric generation, photovoltaics (centralized solar), wind power and decentralized solar energy. Nuclear energy can be given serious consideration, even though it has a few political obstacles.

When the energy crisis struck the world in 1973, the petroleum consumption in the United States accounted for 55% of the total resources consumption for that generation. By that time (as in the present) Puerto Rico depends on petroleum for 95% of its energy needs (see Table 1). All the petroleum in Puerto Rico is imported.

The main objective of the generation planning at the Puerto Rico Electric Power Authority (PREPA) is to determine the generating capacity required to

satisfy the electrical load in a reliable manner during a given period of time.

The traditional criterion used at PREPA in measuring the risk of not being able to

meet the forecast peak demand is the Loss-of-Load Probability (LOLP). The

Authority found it necessary to complement this reliability analysis with an

in-depth evaluation of the actual requirements for reserve capacity to avoid over-

building the system.

The nominal electrical generating capacity of PREPA system is approximately

4200 megawatts. The all-time peak load (September 1978) was 2,057 megawatts. The

Fee eaangin therefore amounts to more than 100 percent of peak Tosd,s margin
fer greater than the 20-30 percent reserve considered adequate in the nator
States to meet system peak demand and accomodate scheduled and unschedules
outages (221,

It is to be expected that an isolated system like that of the PREPA will
qequire a greater reserve margin than a system like most of those inthe wotved

Bo. Tar SeaCamnot, schedule most maintenance, as ?United States utilities customar! iy

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wesology

Hodels developed to the preaont time to study Yony-range generat fon planning

problems are classified by Cvans °25 as:

(1) Large scale (usually linear) optimization models which consider sub-problem areas in addition to the electric generation area. These models require many approximations which do not permit studying the specific area of generation planning. (4) (U2), (13), (C38), (32), (33), (34), (36), (423,646), (49), (72).

(2) Large scale simulation models which:

in addition to the electric generation planning area. These models are capable of outputting many impacts of a proposed energy generation system, but the feasible region of policy alternatives must be small. (11), (58), (59)

can consider other areas

(3) Linear programming, nonlinear programming, and mixed integer programming models which require approximations (in the calculation of reliability and in the variable operating cost of the system) of the real system. 8% (17), (24) (25) (36) (47), (48), (50), (58), (61), (66) >

(4) Hybrid Linear programming/simulation models which do not guarantee convergence to an optimal solution. (14%, (26), (27).

(5) Dynamic programming models which can model the real-world system fairly accurately but are usually computationally infeasible for problems of realistic size. Other models are embedded with specific variations to make them computationally feasible. Many of these models either do not guarantee an optimum or require approximations to the system, Even branch and bound does not present the solution to the "curse of dimensionality" (25) problem in D.P. (9), (18) (24) (25), (41), (43), (56), (60).

(6) Multi-objective models that have been suggested by Ecker, J.6.

{26} and Drews, W.P. (15); "ie have heard that the optimizing models give an'unrealistic simulation of 'real worle?' mechanisms because society does not, in fact, pursue single-mindedly the objective function formulated by the analyst..." (15), These models as the LP, LP, and MIP require some approximations of the real system.? (7)(15), (25), (63)

3. Data

The demand and supply forecasts are from CEER(39 Jand NAS (23). These are gvident on the presentation of results. The electricity generation cost, Table 2, are from CEER. Other relevant costs are presented in Table 3. The coets are gn 1980 dol tars.

---Page Break---

Table 2

Electrivity Generation Costs

Energy Source

Investment Cost

Fuel and O&M Costs

Nuclear Energy

Gas Plant

Biomass Steam

300 MW Plant

Coal

3000 MW Plant

Photovoltaics

250 MW Plant

Hydro

2500 MW Plant

Wind

17 MW Plant

\$ 59,600 x 10³/year

\$ 18,375 x 10³/year

\$ 30,662 x 103/year

\$108,383 x 103/year

\$ 84,382 x 10%/year

\$1,400/%01

18.66 mil1s/Kw-hr.

38.81 miNs/Kw-hr.

50.43 mils/Kw-hr.

7.83 mills /kw-hr.

8.22 mil1s/kw-hr.

37.6/Kw-hr.

94.79 mills/Kwehr.

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Table 3

Other Costs

Energy Source Cost

Gasoline \$ 1.25/gal

Ethanol \$ 2.33/gal

Aviation Fuel \$ 1.70/gal

Propane \$ 1.00/gal

Industrial Water Heating \$15.72/108 gal

Residential Water Heating \$.010/KW-hr.

Industrial Solar Air

Cooling \$ 0.29/Kw-br.

---Page Break---

Figure 1 presents the proposed energy system for Puerto Rico in year 2000.

Two scenarios are considered: VEER scenario and NAS scenario.

4.1 Linear Program for Capacity Utilization

Constraints,

Energy Sources

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i

Where X_i = amount of fuel used (coal, biomass, etc.)

Y_{ij} = amount of energy derived from fuel i

(coal steam electricity, gasoline, etc.)

Conversion Systems,

Vig soy

here V_{ij} = electricity generated from fuel i

C_j = a constant representing plant capacity

Final Demand

$E_{yaj2 0}$,

Brg oy

Where y_{jj} = electricity generated from fuel 4 (base

and peak) and other source of energy to

satisfy demand j.

Balance Equations

There exist balance equations for of] derivatives, for electrici ty

generation, and for base and peak Toad electricity.

Objective Function

Min $\sum_{j=1}^n C_j Y_j$

Where C_j = cost of energy source

Y_j = amount of energy from source j

4.1.1 Results

The original models consider many scenarios. These scenarios are: the NAS optimistic and expected forecasts and CER schedule of proposed electricity

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Table 4

Electricity Generation for LP Node! (10° Bru)

(igh Denand Forecast)

No nuclear | AER"

Nuclear Energy | 26,000,000 - -

Biomass Steen | 13,500,000 33,800,000 | 13,500,000

Coal Steen 25,000,000 25,000,000 | 25,000,000

Protonvatc 13,000,000 - 13,000,000

ore 10,799,685 31,000,000 | 31,000,000

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O17 Stean - - 12,188,363

Objective 4,111.37 4,474.19, 5,052.15

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Soother consideration was a 30% reserve margin required for each alternative, This Paper presents the CEER scenario, but for all other scenarios the reader evuld Pyfer te the orginal study!, Table 4 presents the results for electricity generation in this model.

Studies have shown that bionass is technically feasible for automobile conbus- Hon (ethanol) (1,2 band for electricity generation {39 }. However, a consteaioe dn avetlability exists because the sugcr industry 1s decaying. Ethane] from cugar anes is the only alternative to gasoline for ground transportation, However. ty As not cost competitive. Gasol ine costs \$1.25/galion (on the average) and ethanal Price ranges from \$2.33 to \$2.72. the difference is quite significant.

Electricity generated using biomass Tags behind nuclear energy and hydroelec-

tricity in cost terms. The most important contribution (the least costly) is nuclear energy. However, nuclear energy, although cost-advantageous, is politically unfavorable. Hydroelectric power has great limitations because the plants are obsolete and poorly maintained. There is high uncertainty and disagreement (22,39) regarding the possible contribution of photovoltaics, though favorable results may be achieved (regarding the possible contribution of photovoltaics), photovoltaics should be incorporated in the system. The results of this model show

Oil-fired plants are not cost-competitive, even when these plants are already built and no investment cost is incurred. The fuel cost is so high that building new plants for alternative energy sources presents savings in costs. The only energy alternative more expensive than oil-fired plants is WPS (Wind Power systems). The results show that WPS are not necessary to satisfy the energy demand (it is

The most controversial cost estimates are for the coal and photovoltaics-generated electricity. The difference ($19.33 - 19.21 = \$0.12 / 108 \text{ BTU}$) is not significant given the uncertainty of the photovoltaics technology. This section considers photovoltaics a less costly alternative, but it is important to point out how sensitive it is to changes.

The pumped storage is an alternative, which has not been considered by PREP, to satisfy peak load electricity demand. This model suggests that the use of pumped storage systems is economically feasible only when it is considered. Every consideration should be given to the merits and

prices: "Aigner oil Grices would make ponped storage aystens sare nateasive es
the other alternatives, oi)"rired turoIne: foreavee?pusped storeee seven
Increase the ult tzet ion of the existing baserioadeleceribiey genset tants
gue the gallon coetFictents of the clifivedtarsines ae Rights or oe
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DatTaeSan FASTER aldo HEPRL ENTS Cetera ats cirecty.

Mddock-Acevedo, Jorge, *Eneray Planning for Puerto Rico: A Syst Mo eling
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Liquid petroteun gas (LPG) is the best alternative (considering cost only)
for cooking.? The solution is not very sensitive to changes in LPG costs. In. some
cases, the cost of ethanol would have to increase from \$10.35/108 BTU to \$28.73/108
BTU or 1782 1f electricity were to represent a better alternative economically.

Solar energy 1s cost competitive only for residential water heating when
nuclear energy 15 not considered. Solar energy for industrial air cooling and for
Process heat 1s not economically competitive. Mid-distillates represent a better
alternative than solar process heat, and conventional industrial air cooling is
Jess costly than solar air cooling.? For residential water heating, the opportunity
cost is from -6.24 to \$12.21/1068i. Solar water heating for residential use is

economically advantageous when nuclear energy is not considered and when the demand is high. When nuclear energy is considered, the cost would increase up to \$6.24/108 BTU if residential water heating is forced into the solution. However, when nuclear energy is not present, the total cost would decrease up to \$12.21/108 BTU for each extra unit available of solar residential water heating. For industrial water heating the increase in cost if a higher level is forced would be \$6.36/106 BTU; for industrial air cooling between 43.46 and \$61.91/108 BTU.

The computer program used for these runs was HPOS (Multi-Purpose Optimization System) developed at Northwestern University. The computer time used ranged between 1.5 and 1.9 seconds and cost ranged between \$0.16 and \$0.18.

A common approach in dealing with uncertainty is the use of expected values. These models present uncertainty in demand and in cost. The next model considers uncertainty in demand and cost.

4.2 Capacity Expansion Model

In this section, uncertainty in demand is considered. A Two-Stage Linear Model, or Stochastic Linear Programming Model (73), is formulated. This model is also formulated as a capacity expansion model. The first-stage variables determine how much capacity should be built. The second-stage variables determine how much energy should be supplied when demand is known. Three levels of demand are taken into account; Case A, Case B, the average, and an equal probability of occurrence ($p_1 = p_2 = p_3 = 1/3$) is assumed. No expansion in oil steam plants is also assumed.

For instance, take a smaller problem as an illustration: (see Figure 2):

Demand constraints

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TRANSPORTATION (Dp)

Figure 2. Network Example.

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Eqs Eos and 5 represent the capacity expansion of nucTear plants, biomass

plants) and off-fiPed plants, respectively. State T variables (yt y yd.» jd.)

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represent the amount of eneray produced in the case that demand for electricity

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cost of ietlesttay'h Production splits into two components: the capacity expansion

Cost othe investlent costs. and? the operation, patntanance, and fuel (where

Sppticenie) costs, ?Let Ky epresent the capaci ty expansion cost for source f, and

ePPrepresent the © 8'y ahd fuel cost for source se hen the objective function ts,

Win $Z = c_1x_1 + c_2x_2 + c_3x_3 + c_4x_4 + c_5x_5 + c_6x_6 + c_7x_7 + c_8x_8 + c_9x_9 + c_{10}x_{10} + c_{11}x_{11} + c_{12}x_{12} + c_{13}x_{13} + c_{14}x_{14} + c_{15}x_{15} + c_{16}x_{16} + c_{17}x_{17} + c_{18}x_{18} + c_{19}x_{19} + c_{20}x_{20} + c_{21}x_{21} + c_{22}x_{22} + c_{23}x_{23} + c_{24}x_{24} + c_{25}x_{25} + c_{26}x_{26} + c_{27}x_{27} + c_{28}x_{28} + c_{29}x_{29} + c_{30}x_{30} + c_{31}x_{31} + c_{32}x_{32} + c_{33}x_{33} + c_{34}x_{34} + c_{35}x_{35} + c_{36}x_{36} + c_{37}x_{37} + c_{38}x_{38} + c_{39}x_{39} + c_{40}x_{40} + c_{41}x_{41} + c_{42}x_{42} + c_{43}x_{43} + c_{44}x_{44} + c_{45}x_{45} + c_{46}x_{46} + c_{47}x_{47} + c_{48}x_{48} + c_{49}x_{49} + c_{50}x_{50} + c_{51}x_{51} + c_{52}x_{52} + c_{53}x_{53} + c_{54}x_{54} + c_{55}x_{55} + c_{56}x_{56} + c_{57}x_{57} + c_{58}x_{58} + c_{59}x_{59} + c_{60}x_{60} + c_{61}x_{61} + c_{62}x_{62} + c_{63}x_{63} + c_{64}x_{64} + c_{65}x_{65} + c_{66}x_{66} + c_{67}x_{67} + c_{68}x_{68} + c_{69}x_{69} + c_{70}x_{70} + c_{71}x_{71} + c_{72}x_{72} + c_{73}x_{73} + c_{74}x_{74} + c_{75}x_{75} + c_{76}x_{76} + c_{77}x_{77} + c_{78}x_{78} + c_{79}x_{79} + c_{80}x_{80} + c_{81}x_{81} + c_{82}x_{82} + c_{83}x_{83} + c_{84}x_{84} + c_{85}x_{85} + c_{86}x_{86} + c_{87}x_{87} + c_{88}x_{88} + c_{89}x_{89} + c_{90}x_{90} + c_{91}x_{91} + c_{92}x_{92} + c_{93}x_{93} + c_{94}x_{94} + c_{95}x_{95} + c_{96}x_{96} + c_{97}x_{97} + c_{98}x_{98} + c_{99}x_{99} + c_{100}x_{100}$

$+ c_{101}x_{101} + c_{102}x_{102} + c_{103}x_{103} + c_{104}x_{104} + c_{105}x_{105} + c_{106}x_{106} + c_{107}x_{107} + c_{108}x_{108} + c_{109}x_{109} + c_{110}x_{110} + c_{111}x_{111} + c_{112}x_{112} + c_{113}x_{113} + c_{114}x_{114} + c_{115}x_{115} + c_{116}x_{116} + c_{117}x_{117} + c_{118}x_{118} + c_{119}x_{119} + c_{120}x_{120} + c_{121}x_{121} + c_{122}x_{122} + c_{123}x_{123} + c_{124}x_{124} + c_{125}x_{125} + c_{126}x_{126} + c_{127}x_{127} + c_{128}x_{128} + c_{129}x_{129} + c_{130}x_{130} + c_{131}x_{131} + c_{132}x_{132} + c_{133}x_{133} + c_{134}x_{134} + c_{135}x_{135} + c_{136}x_{136} + c_{137}x_{137} + c_{138}x_{138} + c_{139}x_{139} + c_{140}x_{140} + c_{141}x_{141} + c_{142}x_{142} + c_{143}x_{143} + c_{144}x_{144} + c_{145}x_{145} + c_{146}x_{146} + c_{147}x_{147} + c_{148}x_{148} + c_{149}x_{149} + c_{150}x_{150} + c_{151}x_{151} + c_{152}x_{152} + c_{153}x_{153} + c_{154}x_{154} + c_{155}x_{155} + c_{156}x_{156} + c_{157}x_{157} + c_{158}x_{158} + c_{159}x_{159} + c_{160}x_{160} + c_{161}x_{161} + c_{162}x_{162} + c_{163}x_{163} + c_{164}x_{164} + c_{165}x_{165} + c_{166}x_{166} + c_{167}x_{167} + c_{168}x_{168} + c_{169}x_{169} + c_{170}x_{170} + c_{171}x_{171} + c_{172}x_{172} + c_{173}x_{173} + c_{174}x_{174} + c_{175}x_{175} + c_{176}x_{176} + c_{177}x_{177} + c_{178}x_{178} + c_{179}x_{179} + c_{180}x_{180} + c_{181}x_{181} + c_{182}x_{182} + c_{183}x_{183} + c_{184}x_{184} + c_{185}x_{185} + c_{186}x_{186} + c_{187}x_{187} + c_{188}x_{188} + c_{189}x_{189} + c_{190}x_{190} + c_{191}x_{191} + c_{192}x_{192} + c_{193}x_{193} + c_{194}x_{194} + c_{195}x_{195} + c_{196}x_{196} + c_{197}x_{197} + c_{198}x_{198} + c_{199}x_{199} + c_{200}x_{200}$

$4 K_y E_y t_p E_p + K_y$

Although this model includes 93 equations and 99 variables compared with 30 equations and 30 variables on the previous one, the computer time needed to run this model is not significantly different. The solution for both models is

basically the same, but this second model gives more information for the decision making process.

4.3 Capacity Expansion Model with Shortage Costs

Shortage costs can be introduced to the capacity expansion model. The shortage cost is the price that a customer is willing to pay for a demand which cannot be

---Page Break---

3

This model could be interpreted as meeting the demand which is profitable, These costs are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Shortage costs

Sector Shortage Cost (\$/barrel)

Ethanol and gasoline 8.91

Aviation Fuel 14.13,

Residential Electricity 10.77

Comercial Electricity 1.22

Industrial Electricity 8.62

Se

ine, inclusion F shortage costs are very significant for the model. In this

Paeteyear cases the prices actually charged are so high that these ovis on fet

?Significantly change the previous solution.

4.4 Elasticity of Demand Considered

The demand curve (5) sums up the response of consumer demand to alternative

Prices of a product (see Figure 3).

DEMAND

Figure 3. Demand Curve

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?

It shows the relation between demand and price: in other words, what demand will occur for a certain price. In Figure 2, point A illustrates the demand D_1 that will occur if price p_x is fixed and demand D_2 that will occur if price p_y is fixed.

Elasticity of demand {5} involves measurement of the response in quantity demanded, which can be expected to result from a given change in the price of the commodity.

Price elasticity of demand for item X

$= \frac{\text{percentage change in quantity of X demanded}}{\text{percentage change in the Price of X}}$

$= \frac{\Delta Q}{Q} \div \frac{\Delta P}{P}$

$= \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta P} \cdot \frac{P}{Q}$

PRICE,

DEMAND

Figure 3. Linear Demand Curves

For each of the demand equations, the model considers three demand curves as presented in Figure 3. The previous model includes points 8, D, and & for state T (low demand), state 2 (medium demand), and state 3 (high demand), respectively. Now, for each state of demand the model examines a demand curve and three points for each one (points A, B, and C). Take, for example, demand curve ABC which

---Page Break---

6

relates to the low demand for a particular demand sector: for instance, an equation (for transportation) could be

$$w_{b,tad} = (O_y \sim SB) - (O_5 - O_5 = Sh) - (O-9) - 5! \quad 20$$

ay

$$S\%Grsbesl + 5208 (e01)$$

where:

$$B = O_y + o_y + obs$$

Sa ? shortage for demand level A ($S_q < D_a$)

Sp * shortage for demand level B ($S_p < D_y - dq$)

Se = shortage for demand level C ($S_e < D_e \sim D_y$)

21, Portage cost component of the objective function (the component of Equation

ED1, for instance, is,

$P_1S_a + P_2S_b + P_3S_c$

to ease the model are minimizing cost, the model will drive S_y to 0 before trying to meet the demand for G , $MHS = 15$ because $p_y > p_g > p_r$. This meant that before the model will drive S_b to 0 before trying to minimize S_c . The other two equations for this section are?

ergst tse sda,

igs tsbesdang

Among the drawbacks of this model is the inclusion of 99 additional variables. Grandad and Zs, Yer laBley to, represent the shortages." These variables are added by Enis adding \$9 additional upper limits to the model. The committee they say that the model is not very different, but the extra information may not be recoverable in terms of model size increase and complexity.

4.5 Capacity Expansion Model with Integer Variables

This section discusses a Mixed Integer Program. Integer variables are used in the capacity expansion model with demand elasticities and shortage. In this case, the variables are the central station electric plants of each zone. That is, these variables are defined as integer (O_s), where $|$ represents. This is because the capacity k and at site s is considered and is not continuous. The definition exists because the investment cost depends on the type or (Polatag 2 2artteuler site) and on the capacity of these but is not necessarily

related, Fixed cost must be incurred before any output? takes place?

---Page Break---

6

Conversion Systems

Where x_j = electricity supplied from source

C_j = capacity of plant j

y_j * (0 or 1) variable representing plant J

AN] the previous models are composed of continuous variables only. Unrealistic contributions from electricity generation alternatives could occur (i.e. a contribution of 1.35×10^6 BTU which is equivalent to a 30 Mw plant, a very unlikely plant size). A fixed cost must be incurred (investment cost) before any output could occur. This is not taken into account by continuous variables since the investment costs are linearized. Fuel and O&M are linear costs, but investment costs are not.

Another important consideration can be explained with an example. Suppose that residential solar water heating is less costly than conventional water heating. However, after a plant is built (therefore, investment cost already incurred) . electricity for residential water heating could be less costly (for the entire System, not individual customers) than solar water heating because it is competing

only with fuel and O&M costs (of generation plants). On the other hand, there could be a certain demand sector which represents a more expensive alternative than electricity, for instance, industrial air cooling. If meeting a certain demand which is smaller than the demand for electricity for industrial air cooling means building an electricity generation plant, it could be better to encourage solar industrial air cooling (continuous variables cannot take this into account). In this case, because PREPA is a public corporation, this encouragement could be tax exemptions for installation of industrial air cooling systems. The actual tax exemptions are not presently enough to make this alternative economically competitive (17). In the same way, the impact of different levels of market penetration of residential water heating systems may be assessed. Studies for alternatives, such as pumped storage systems where the entire system is not modeled nor integer variables are considered, could yield erroneous conclusions.

The electricity provided by the TIP node is generally lower than the electricity provided by the LP. This difference corresponds to the fixed costs (i.e. investment cost of the electricity generation plants). The previous models, which are composed of continuous variables, treat the investment cost as function of the output because the investment costs are linearized and added to fuel and O&M costs. In reality, independent of the energy output, the investment cost is based on the plant capacity. Previous models do not consider total investment costs where plants are not used at maximum capacity, making the electricity generation costs lower than the shortage costs. Constraints in non-electrical energy sources are relaxed in the next models.

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v

The gCopPuter program used ϵ s based on Bender's Decomposition Method and developed at Purdue University, The time used is 31.5 sec, and the cost 051,49,

4.6 Multiple Objective Capacity Expansion Model

For the MIP three objectives are considered: cost minimization,

pollution level minimization, and pollution level minimization $f(x)$.

meanings used for the multiple objective decision analysis is the Shival Co. cen

Polietios gee qidtaPtis Masel the shortage costs are not considered (else can

ough imal vector minimizes relative deviation of the criteria (objective

functions) from the feasible ideal points (38).

The solutions of the following k problems

Hint 50)

set.

$(2) < 0,$

$s_i < \text{fed } 2, \text{ cy m}$

are defined as the ideal solutions, $f(x^*), \S 3$

Then, the Global Criterion Method solves the problem given by

3 fil) - FiO)

Aro)

The constraints, $g_3(x)$, are as before,

4.6.1 Objective functions

Cost Minimization

This objective function, $f(x)$, is as before.

Fuel Imports Minimization

$W_m F_{ela}) = P_y Cat + HF MD \gg bef + x_8 \ll x_8) + palxh + x_8 + x)$

where p_i = probability of state i

x_1 = coal, oil, and uranium

Environmental Effects Minimization

ress sede! gives equal consideration to all pollutants. This can be achieved by introducing the following constraints. £0 65 (x)?

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2 + p_a)

$Pripyxy + pom? + pK) + ooo. + ARLE ML + Patt$

where d_j = a slack variable for 1

+8 and P_i = pollutant coefficient.

$hax fala) = d_y + d_o + d_y + d_y + a_5 + d_g 6 4) + d_g$ solves for the minima

amount of pollution given equal weights for all pollutants. Note that because

£308) 15 maximizeé the problem now 13:

2 fd => + fOr) = fo

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5. Trade-Off Analysis

Figure 4 shows the relation between cost and fuel imports, and Figure 5 presents the relation between cost and pollution level (this level is representative of all the pollution factors). Figure 6 presents the relation between imports and pollution. The relation between jobs and cost and jobs and imports is presented in Figure 7 and Figure 8 respectively.

Table 5 presents the optimal solution for each one of the objectives and the other objective function values at these solutions. The difference in cost for

the three scenarios (minimum cost, $f_1(x^*)$, minimum pollution level, $f_2(x^*)$, and minimum importation, $f_3(x^*)$) is enormous. The cost for $f_2(x^*)$ and $f_3(x^*)$ is approximately 300% more than $f_1(x^*)$. The difference for the fuel importation levels and

the pollution levels is also great. The solution for $f_1(x^*)$ is poor in terms of pollution level and fuel importation level.

These solutions could be characterized using the optimal alternatives for electricity generation. As all the other models also indicate, the less costly alternatives for electricity generation are nuclear energy, biomass steam plants, coal steam plants, and photovoltaics. Biomass is also helpful in minimizing fuel importation. Photovoltaics, OTEC, and WPS are both fuel-free and pollution-free (renewable energy sources).

6. The Best Compromise Solution

Table 5 presents the pay-offs for the Global Criteria Method. The pay-off table requires some explanation. The columns under f_1 , f_2 , and f_3 present the objective function values when f_1 , f_2 , and f_3 are optimized, respectively. For instance, the element in column 1 and row 1 (3, 876, 272, 250) is the minimum cost, (F)(2%) the element in the second row in the same column (3975 2465 708) is the amount of imports when cost is optimized; and the elements in the other rows are the pollution level for this solution. The element in row 2 and column 2 is the optimal amount of imports, $f_2(x^*)$ and the other elements in column 2 represent the other objective function values for this solution ($f_1(x)$ and $f_3(x)$).

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?The computer program used for all the iuiti-Criteria analysis is MiPZ

developed at Purdue University. The computer time ranged from 16 seconds ?0 23,

Seconds and the cost from \$.87 to \$1.16. Since MIP is harder to solve. the

difference in computer time is not th? much.

nc us ir

The ten major conclusions are:

1) Biomass (from sugar cane) could help in solving Puerto Rico's energy needs.

(2) Biomass steam plants are cost-competitive and relatively low in pollution level.

(b) Ethanol for automobile combustion, although not economically advantageous, is technologically feasible.

(c) Production of electricity from biomass steam plants creates more direct and indirect jobs than any other alternative.

(4) The use of biomass as an energy source could help the decaying sugar cane industry.

Biomass as an energy source does not require importation. However, a constraint in availability exists.

cons-

2) Coal steam plants could help in providing electricity at relative low cost. In this model, coal-steam plants perform poorly in pollution level and fuel importation, but extra consideration

should be given to these results. Since Puerto Rico is an island, the plants could be placed in such a way that pollution is minimized to the country by diverting the pollutants to the sea. The fuel importation would be from the United States, which means that coal prices will be more stable and the coal availability will not have many political constraints. The coal prices are not expected to rise as sharply as the oil prices. Great uncertainty exists in relation to coal's relative position in cost terms. Controversy could exist as to whether photovoltaics is less costly than coal. The models suggest that, independently of this relative position, both sources could help in providing Puerto Rico's electricity needs.

3) Photovoltaics, if production as expected, is a viable alternative for electricity generation. Although more costly than electricity from biomass steam and nuclear plants, photovoltaics is pollution-free and does not require any fuel importation. It could be cost competitive with coal-steam electricity.

4) Although the island will not be able to fully eliminate the importation of oil, the amount of imported oil could be substantially reduced. Oil will be needed for gasoline, aviation fuels, and electricity production. The only sector where the level of consumption could remain unchanged is in aerial transportation. Electri-

city generation using of7 is economically disadvantageous, and

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5)

6)

7?)

8)

9)

10)

6

ethanol for auto fuel, al though economically disadvantageous as @
Substitute for gasoline, is technically feasible.

Solar energy for decentralized systems such as residential water heating, industrial process heat, and industrial air cooling could be encouraged. There are cases where investnent costs (and other costs) for electrical plants are much higher than investment and

maintenance costs for decentralized solar energy systems. Tax exemptions could be created, or the actual ones modified, to make these systems economically competitive with electricity.

Nuclear energy could be the least costly alternative for electricity generation. However, nuclear energy performed poorly in all the other considerations (pollution, imports, and number of jobs). The multi-criteria model presents nuclear energy in the optimal solution because radiation is treated equally as regarding all the other pollutants,

Pumped storage systems for peak-electricity could be cost-effective, and could help in minimizing fuel importation if these systems displace oil-fired turbines. However, the pollution coefficients of the oil-fired turbines are relatively high. No source of base-load electricity that could be used as input to the pumped storage system is as high in pollutants as oil-fired turbines.

Ocean Thermal Energy (OTEC) is considered by many a promising alternative, It is more costly than many of the alternative

Sources but could be economically advantageous over oil-fired plants. Among its other advantages are: it is pollution-free, it can be operated economically, it requires no fuel, and it uses no land.

Wind Power Systems (WPS) are more costly than oil-fired plants; it not be necessary in order to supply electricity at minimum cost. It is pollution-free and fuel-free, though

Shifting from least costly alternatives, $f(x)$, to more costly alternative will help in minimizing not only the island's dependence on imported fuels, but also the effects on the environment.

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VITA

Jorge Haddock-Acevedo was born in Caguas, Puerto Rico, on August 15, 1955.

He received a B.S. in Civil Engineering from the University of Puerto Rico in May, 1978. He entered Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute as a graduate student

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He is co-author of "The Potential of Solar Energy for Industrial Air Cooling

in Puerto Rico", a research project sponsored by Oak Ridge Associated Universi-

ties at the Center for Energy and Environment Research, U.P.R. (Co-written by

Dr. K.G. Soderstrom). He is currently an assistant professor in the Department
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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?Agosto 1-7, 1982

11 Congreso Nacional de Alternativas Renovables de Energia

ECONOMIA DE ALTERNATIVAS DE ENERGIA PARA,
PUERTO RICO

Por:

Juan A. Bonnet, Jr. - Modesto Iriarte

Centro para Estudios Energéticos y Ambientales

University of Puerto Rico

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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ETRODUCCION

La estrecha interrelación comercial que existe hoy entre los varios pueblos del mundo desenfata considerablemente la independencia socio-económica de las varias regiones y pueblos. La distribución, explotación, disponibilidad y variación de precios de los recursos del planeta no puede analizarse de forma regional. Estos tienen que verse en su contexto global y de interrelación.

Por otro lado la disponibilidad de los recursos mundiales afectará en grado sumo las condiciones locales. De ella, dependerá en grado sumo la producción agrícola, la producción industrial, la salud y el bienestar social en general. Los requerimientos energéticos de un pueblo dependen estrechamente

de su nivel de bienestar socioeconómico, Nuestra primer:

terrogantes por lo tanto serán (1) Qué cantidad de recursos se necesitan? (2) Qué fuentes pueden suplirlos adecuadamente? (3)

Cómo nos afectan las condiciones mundiales el suministro de estos recursos? Una planificación adecuada debe dar alguna consideración a estos puntos.

POBLACION

Para predecir la cantidad de recursos (energía) que se requerirán tendremos que comenzar prediciendo la población futura. Con la población futura y los niveles de bienestar socio-económico en términos de ingreso per cápita podemos predecir el pro-

ducto bruto nacional.

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El producto bruto nacional puede correlacionarse con el consumo de energía y esta modificarse con la elasticidad de precio-demanda. El estudio de predicción de cualesquiera de estos parámetros es de por sí una labor compleja. ¿Cuál es el número de habitantes en el mundo y en especial en Puerto Rico para el año 2000? Una simple regresión estadística sobre la población puede predecir esto con aproximación satisfactoria, esto sería cierto si la subestructura socioeconómica y hábitos del área o pueblo en consideración permaneciera inalterable. No obstante este es el problema básico ya que la subestructura socioeconómica de los pueblos y sus hábitos están cambiando rápidamente ante los altos costos de la energía derivada del petróleo. Se requiere por lo tanto desarrollar métodos de predicción poblacional basados en parámetros que se ajusten a los

cambios vislbrados, planificaios 0 futuras polfticas a delinearase.

EL informe titulado "the Global 2000 Report to the President",

Preparado por el Departamento de Estado de IIA y por el Consejo de

Colidad Anbfental contiene quizis 1a Gitina publicaci3n scbre pre-

@icciones de poblaci3n mndial, desglos3ndose por pases y Areas.

1a predicci3n de poblaci3n esta hasada en una funci3n

Poblacion = f(tasa de fertilidad)-£(tasa de defunciones)

+?(migraci3n)

Y 1a cunl ee puede reducir nomalmente a una funci3n de crecimiento

compuesto de 1a formas $x = \ln (P_y/P)/t$

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onde

= tasa de crecimiento anuil prumedio

P, = aumento total de 1a poblaci3n en perfato t

poblaci3n total

Dicho informe predice que para el aiic 2000 1a poblaci3n muriial

habr& aumentado de 4 billones a 6.35 billones de seres. toy dfa la

Poblaci3n mundial auenta a raz3n de 75 mitlones de seres anualmente

¥ para el aio 2000 e1 aumento anual ser3 de cerca de 100 millones de

Personas. La tasa de crecimiento, no obstante, se reducirá de 1.60 anual a 1.70 anal.

Esta modelación de población se presta para introducir la política nacional y los hábitos cambiantes. Siguiendo una modelación similar podríamos predecir la población del país y compararla con los Pronósticos realizados hasta la fecha,

Modelos Boonni coe

BL informe titulado "The Global 2000 Report to the President" contiene análisis de la producción económica (GP), producción agrícola o alimentos, pesquería, necesidades de agua, minerales y combustibles así como proyecciones ambientales de contaminación y efectos en la salud hasta el año 2000. El informe contiene una serie de diferentes modelos socioeconómicos que interrelacionan la energía con los recursos naturales y el ambiente. Tales modelos incluyen:

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a) Modelos mundiales 2 y 3 (alteraciones al modelo 1 del Club de Roma)

») Modelo mundial Hesarovic - Pestel

©) Modelo de Relaciones Internacionales en la Agricultura

oor)

4) Modelo Latinoamericano

©) Modelo de las Naciones Unidas

Para dar un ejemplo de las interrelaciones que estamos hablando

¿en los modelos mencionados observaremos algunos resultados, cualitativamente, que se producen cuando consideramos el primer modelo.

La Fig. Nom. 1-4, tomada directamente del informe San Juan 2000, realizado por el municipio de San Juan, Puerto Rico, nos ilustra gráficamente la situación socioeconómica del mundo.

La Fig. Nim, 1 es el resultado del modelo muestral normal.

Las condiciones iniciadas en la Fig. Nim. 1 concuerdan con los valores históricos de 1900 a 1970 cuando la población mundial aumentó de 1,600 millones en 1900 a 3,500 millones en 1970. A pesar de que los nacimientos se reducen gradualmente, el ritmo de mortalidad declina rápidamente, especialmente después del 1940, y la razón del crecimiento poblacional aumenta exponencialmente. La producción industrial, alimentos y servicios per cápita también aumentan expo-

renctalmente. Los recursos naturales tafavia tienen en 1970 com

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Servicios

1900

Figura Nam. 1 -MODELO MUNDIAL NORMAL

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Recursos No Renovables

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958 del valor de 1900, pero declinarán drásticamente después de
se va con el crecimiento de la población y la producción industrial .
5] El crecimiento del sistema sobrepasa la capacidad de asimilación
del ambiente y finaliza en crisis cuando los recursos no renovables
se agotan. Según los precios de los recursos suben y los depósitos
se agotan, más capital debe usarse para obtener recursos adicionales
y menos capital queda para invertir en el crecimiento futuro. La
inversión no puede mantenerse a la par con la depreciación y la base
industrial hace crisis conjuntamente con los sistemas de servicios y
agrícolas que dependen de la producción industrial. Durante un corto
período de tiempo, la situación se torna muy grave al seguir aumentando
la población con el retraso natural del ajuste social. Finalmente,
la población disminuye cuando la mortalidad aumenta por falta
de alimentos y servicios de salud. Suponiendo que no habrá cambios
mayores en el sistema actual, el modelo indica que el crecimiento
poblacional e industrial del siglo se detendrá durante el próximo
siglo. .

El grupo investigador analizó el modelo con una población es?

table. (Véase Fig. Min. 2). Este análisis mantiene todas las condiciones idénticas al modelo básico, excepto que mantiene la población constante después de 1975 igualando la razón de los nacimientos con la razón de mortalidad. Mientras tanto, el resto de las reacciones positivas en el sistema envuelven el capital industrial

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1900 2000 2100

Figura Nim, 2 - MODELO MUNDIAL CON
POBLACION ESTABLE

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jae cont inds generando un crecimivare exponencial de la producei3n

ndustritl, alimentos y servicios per cavita, FI agotamiento

uventual de los recursos no venovables causa una crisis r3pida

vel sistema industrial y el colanso de 1a economta

po investigador analiz6 el modelo con una poblaci3n

EL grt

el capital estable. (Véase Fig. Num, 3). El crecimiento de

capital se estabilizó manteniendo el capital de inversión igual

P 8

ue 1a depreciación. Cuando el crecimiento exponencial se
Gotiene, una condición temporalmente estable se obtiene, ya que
Los niveles de población y capital no son demasiado altos para
agotar los recursos rápidamente. Como no se han tomado medidas
tecnológicas de conservación de recursos, los recursos eventual-
mente se agotan y la producción industrial se reduce, Aunque

1a base del capital se mantiene al mismo nivel, la eficiencia

del capital baja al requerirse mayor inversión de capital para
buscar más recursos en vez de usarse el capital para producir
productos de mayor utilidad

Al analizar el modelo ahadiéndose a las restricctones de poblacion y capital, medidas tecnológicas de conservaci3n, se obtiene un estado de equilibrio dinámico por largo perfodo de tiempo. (Véase Fig. Nom, 4). Las medidas tecnológicas incluyen la recirculaci3n de recursos, medidas de control de contaminaci3n, aumentos vitalicios de todas las formas de capital métodos para restaurar el suelo fértil y erosionade. Los principales cambios en los valores humanos

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1900 2000 2100

Figura Nim. 3 -MODELO MUNDIAL CON
POBLACION Y CAPITAL ESTABLE

Levevoa

Poblacibn (nm. total de Alimentos pes

er ? (ilgame

Produceibn Industrial per Senicios pet

Chpita (S por personalsho)

Recursos No Renovables

(accion vemanente de

Tas esrat de 1800) Fuente: Limites del Crecimiento

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Prod. tnd.

Poblaciéa

Contaminaciéa ?

seek

1900 2000 2100

Figura Nam.4 -MODELO MUNDIAL

ESTABILIZADO

LEYENDA

Población (año, total de Alimentos per Capita
personas)

{Wilogeame granofpersonalaio

Servicios per Capita
(Spor pertona/ana)

Capita (Spor personals)

Recursos No Renovables

Uaeeion

Contaminación (mili

dl nivel de 1970)

Fuente: Limite del Crecimiento

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Analuyen un aumento en el dfaisis sobre la pioduscién de alimentos servicios en ver de sobre le troducidn industrial. ?1 modes sefiala que an valor estable de ia produccién industrial per e@pita

verfa tres veces el valor del

aredio rurdial del afo 1970.

Siempre ser debatible predecir cuando ser\$ que ocurriré ta crisis mindial, ya que los avarces tecrolégicos han losrado aplazar este momento, Sin embargo, los recursos no renovables se agotarán tarde 0 temprano debido a que el planeta es un sistema finito. Quits 1a falla principal del Modelo Mundial sea haber establecido la cantidad de recursos no renovables basado en las reservas conocidas. Hasta la fecha, la ciencia y 1a tecnolosfa han logrado deseubrir huevos yacimientos aumentando extraordinariamente las reservas d{spo- nibles, Deberi esperarse que la ciencia y 1a tecrologfa sigan aux mentando las cantidades de las reservas conocidas exponencialmente,

En el 1955 se pronosticó que las reservas conocidas de petróleo se agotarían para el año 1975, pero actualmente todavía quedan reservas para 30 años más al ritmo del consumo actual y posiblemente, se descubran 20 ó 30 años más de reservas para el año 2000. Cualquiera es timado de reservas totales del mundo seguirá siendo una especulación hasta que se cuente con técnicas de estimados más precisos.

De suma importancia para los países en América es el Modelo Latinoamericano desarrollado por investigadores en Buenos Aires, detalles del cual se encuentran en el informe aludido, No entraremos por

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1

ahora en más detalles en cuanto a la interrelación de ta

energía como los demás parámetros socioeconómicos No

obstante, este breve análisis de modelaje nos enfatiza

especialmente la importancia de tres factores

2) Crecimiento de la población

5) Productividad del capital

La conservación de recursos representa la alternativa viable y disponible inmediatamente a todos los pueblos. Es imperioso que los recursos no-renovables del planeta y en especial las fuentes agotables de combustibles se conserven. Es imperioso que la imaginación e inventiva del hombre desarrolle la tecnología necesaria para sintetizar recursos agotables. Esto solo puede hacerse económicamente si se dispone de recursos energéticos abundantes y baratos. Estos recursos están representados por fuentes aún no desarrolladas tales como la energía de fusión y fuentes en vías de desarrollo como la energía del reactor nuclear reproductor y por las fuentes renovables de energía hoy en desarrollo tales como la energía solar, geotérmica y otros.

Pero mientras tanto y hasta que se desarrollen plenamente estas nuevas tecnologías el puente inmediato que une el presente con que este futuro no muy distante se llama "Conservación", en

primera instancia y luego seguido por fuentes alternas

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Mode

Energía Leos

Una vez establecidos los criterios de población futura

Producto bruto nacional y política nacional de conservación de recursos, control poblacional. la predicción del consumo de energía puede realizarse bajo ciertas presunciones de pre-

cio de la energía y elasticidad de precios

El informe "Energy in Transition 1985-2010", preparado por el National Research Council (NRC) de la Academia Nacional de Ciencias de E.U. contiene una descripción del modelaje utilizado por un grupo de investigadores de modelajes. El modelo utilizado emplea métodos econométricos que envuelve el efecto del GP, niveles de consumo y varios escenarios de descubrimiento de recursos adicionales

No obstante, para una subestructura poco variable podemos correlacionar directamente el consumo de energía con el producto bruto nacional como lo hemos hecho en el reciente estudio de "Energy Analysis and Socio Economic Considerations for Puerto

Rico"

El estudio de 1a NRC es muy interesante ya que este discute

escenarios con las vari

alternativas de fuentes renovables de

energía como la energía solar

Escenario de Energía

El estudio "Energy Analysis and Socio Economic Considerations

for Puerto Rico" comienza con un análisis de los requerimientos

energéticos de Puerto Rico hasta el año 2020.

---Page Break---

a

análisis se hace a base de una predicción por regresión:

Lineal de la población seguido de una correlación entre la población y el producto bruto nacional. El producto bruto nacional se correlaciona directamente con el consumo de energía eléctrica. Estas simples relaciones presumen que la subestructura del sistema económico no ha cambiado ya que se requieren años para un cambio apreciable y medible, No obstante, los resultados se consideran adecuados para desarrollar escenarios del uso de fuentes alternativas de energía con el propósito de predecir los años en que dichas alternativas pueden ser viables económicamente. Otros combustibles como gasolina y aceite diesel fueron proyectados utilizando una regresión estadística. El cuadro total del consumo de energía fue desarrollado en esta forma hasta el año 2000. Esta información fue utilizada para desarrollar posibles escenarios utilizando diferentes alternativas energéticas, Este es un proceso de planificación el cual debe de reestudiarse, anualmente y quizás bi-anualmente y modificarse en sus proyecciones y escenarios según puedan producirse los cambios en la subestructura del sistema económico, Este primer ejercicio nos dará, con gran probabilidad, una sobreestimación de la demanda por energía.

Para la evaluación de las alternativas viables al presente
el estudio primeramente enfoca sobre los costos de producción

de energía eléctrica en la actualidad utilizando los combustibles

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de (a) Carbon, (b) Uranio y (c) Petroleo. toa vez deter
minados estos costos para centrales eléctricas para las
proximas dos décadas - hasta el año 2000 - estas se utilizan
como base para competir por Las alternativas de fuentes re-
novables que estén al presente en desarrollo y que incluyen-
sistemas fotovoltaicos, sistemas de combustion de biomasa

sistemas ocedno-térmicos y energía eélica

valuaciones Económicas Centrales de Energfa

La Fig. 5 nos flustra esquematicamente el modelaje uti-
lizado por el CEEA para evaluar estas alternativas. Todas
las calculaciones han sido programadas en computadora y re-
sulta sumamente simple realizar estudios de serisitividad. Un

Parámetro que al presente resulta de gran interés son los intereses o costo del dinero. Estudios de sensibilidad para este parámetro y otros se planean para el futuro inmediato

El modelaje de predicción de los costos capitales o de inversión de la alternativa resultan relativamente sencillos para las alternativas que utilizan carbón, uranio o petróleo ya que estos tienen historial acumulado.

Para las alternativas en desarrollo se tiene que presentar una curva de aprendizaje que da la relación de reducción de costos en la fabricación del equipo según se construyen más unidades debido al aprendizaje (desarrollo de técnicas más económicas)

---Page Break---

Figura 8

MODELO C=EA PARA EVALUACION DE COSTOS DE ALTERNATIVAS

=

ENERGETICAS

DATA

2

Modelo de Inve

Copitel Nominal

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Coste Total

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Anual

jo de Intlacion y

Actualización

Total Actuala

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y Termineción

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v

Darenos mayor atención a la central a base de carbon

ya que sabemos que resulta de gran interés

La evaluación de los costos de una central de carbén

recibíé estudio muy detallado y cuidadoso ya? que esta re-

sulta en la alternativa más económica y viable económica y políticamente. La alternativa nuclear resulta en los costos: más bajos pero ésta no es considerada viable desde el punto de vista socio-político.

La Fig. Núm. 6 nos indica el costo básico de inversión en Puerto Rico. Estos costos no incluyen condiciones especiales del sitio tales como carreteras, líneas eléctricas, puerto y sistema de manejo del carbón del puerto a lugar de almacenaje, condiciones especiales del subsuelo, Lagos de almacenaje de efluentes, etc. La central incluye, no obstante, lavadores de gases (Flue gas desulfurization) y precipitadores electrostáticos.

Los costos de lavadores de gas:

8 sulfuroseos pueden evaluarse en términos de dólares de 1978 de la siguiente relación:

\$118 Neto

450 mi 100

856 Mw 85

1232 169 7

La inflación e interés durante la construcción y/o planeamiento de la central debe de tomarse en consideración utilizando fórmulas adecuadas según desarrolladas en el estudio del CEEA.

---Page Break---

ce

Copita

1978-9 /kw Valor de Inversion

rook

Figuro 6

Equación del Valor de Aversión Copita para Centro de Córdón con Geotización de Gases

REFERENCIAS

Unites Engineers and Constructors-Estimados Recientes-

Comunicacion Feb. 1979

Gibbs and Hill- Pout

Je Rienzo Mapa Reunion Marzo 1978

ASME Conference-1979 Oeaitanis ot ol

PREPA-Jose A Marine Comunicación Personal 1979,

EPRI-PS- 866 -SR- June 1978

Fuente. CEEA x-72

zoo 385 700 05 730012000

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Costo Promedie sei nude per Compagnia:

Elects

BTU oe Combustibie

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1972 73 76 78178 tar

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Valor Scj0 2a Promedio I Alto Mmm

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ket

por

(milesimos de dolor

Actualizado

Coste Total

»

19,000 Figura 8 ?

a4 .

4] 450 MWe Central Cordón_ con Sistema de Onsite Station

! Inflation de Copia) 1978-85" 8% /y+ |

| Inflation de Corben "78-85. 71/8 % /y0 |

+ Interen, Duvente. Constraccion: 9% /y†

: Inflation de 686 1978-89. 8% /ye

| Tasa de inversion Costa! Phy. 9 8686 %

Puan CEEA X-72

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at

Los costos de combustible recibieron un detallado estudio

la Fig T nos ilustra los costos promedio del carbón uti-

lizado por la industria eléctrica en Estados Unidos Hemos

estimado que a base de los precios de 1978 el costo del carbón

en Puerto Rico podría ser tan bajo como \$1.82 por millón de BTU

Estos deben de escalarse adecuadamente según la inflación en

costos de equipo utilizado en los mismos, y en la transportación

y según discutido en el estudio

Los costos de operación y mantenimiento de una central de

carbon fueron desarrollados siguiendo una publicación del Laboratorio Nacional de Oak Ridge. Tenn (ORNL/TN-6467 Jan. 1979)

Los costos de operación y mantenimiento se correlacionaron con (a) el número total de personal, (b) el personal adicional para operar el sistema de desulfurización, (c) generación anual en kWh, (d) las toneladas de azufre quemadas anualmente, (e) la capacidad de la central y (£) un cargo fijo

Los costos de operación y mantenimiento deben actualizarse para incluir la inflación en los salarios durante la vida de la planta

La Fig. 8 nos ilustra el costo de la energía eléctrica proveniente de una central de carbón de 450 MW de capacidad con dos valores diferentes de inflación

La ordenada de la gráfica indica el costo actualizado teniendo un promedio de 30 años de vida de la planta y la abscisa nos indica el año en que inicialmente comienza la operación

central,

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doiur por kwh?

Costo Total Actualizado (milesimos de

: Costes Totales Actualizados de Varios

Alternativas pro Produccion de Z|

o Energic Clectrico en RR

Je de Energfe)

© con la Curve

Fuente CEEA x-72

13501835 ?aos aos a a0

Afo oe Arranque

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Figo

DIAGRAMA PARA DETERMINAR COSTOS

Modelo a Produccion

Tierras, Fertilizantes,

Irrigacion, Pesticidas,

Semillas, Combustible

y Lebor

Modelo de Recolección

Inversión Capital en

Mantenimiento, Operación

Operación

?Almacén |

ei

BIOMASA

Fuente

CEEA x-72

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2

Según podemos observar en el período de 15 años entre 1985 a 2000 los costos actualizados de una nueva central puesta en operación en el año 2000 resultan m&s de dos veces de los costos de operación de una central puesta en operación en el año 1985

La gráfica Nim. 9 nos ilustra el resultado de las varias alternativas estudiadas

De esta gráfica observamos, que excluyendo la energía nuclear, la biomasa resulta la más económica seguida por la central de carbón. La central océano-térmica OTEC comienza a competir con carbón para el año 1995 al igual que los sistemas fotovoltaicos. El costo de la biomasa fue determinado a través de una experimentación acompañada con un proyecto piloto @ un

costo de cerca de \$1.5 millones. La Fig. Ndm, 10 nos ilustra el modelo utilizado

La energía del viento aunque resulta atractiva cuando se compara con centrales de petróleo, ésta aparentemente no puede competir favorablemente con las otras alternativas en el esce-

nario de Puerto Rico.

EL analysis para la energía del viento fue basado en observaciones meteorológicas de la estación de Roosevelt Roads (10M) al este de Puerto Rico de donde se obtuvo la distribución de frecuencia. Esta fue integrada con la curva característica de

molinos de 500 kw y 1500 kw,

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25

Los datos presentados en la figura 9 corresponden a molinos de 500 kw ya que estos resultaron más económicos que unidades de 1500 kw, Reconocemos que se requieren mayores estudios meteorológicos para una evaluación más adecuada. A tales efectos el Centro está desarrollando una

red meteorológica y ambiental computarizada y utilizando radiotelemetría para la transmisión de datos. En el estudio de energía procedente de celdas fotovoltaicas se utilizó una insolarción de 5.451 kWh/m²/día correspondiente a observaciones del CBEA en la parte sur de Puerto Rico

En la predicción de los costos futuros de módulos fotovoltaicos se utilizó la información más reciente publicada por la oficina de Energía Federal

Esta esta ilustrada en la Figura 11. Otros datos y for-

matos de estimación del costo total de unidades estén contenidos

en el estudio. Tod:

estas variables pueden someterse a análisis

de sensibilidad ya que están programadas en computador:

Para estimar los costos de inversión, de la alternativa energética OTEC se utilizó un diseño específico para el sitio de Punta de Tuna P.R., realizado por 1a Deep Off Technology Inc. subsidiaria de Fluor Corp. con un costo total estimado de \$5230/kw

(año 1980). Otros

estudios y estimados también fueron considerados

Para predecir el costo de centrales futuras se utilizó una curva de aprendizaje logarítmica que indica saturación luego de un aprendizaje

de construcción de varias plantas

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2

Esta curva es típica de la industria, Para la generación eléctrica se presumió un 23% de energía para auxiliares (comparado con 4% para centrales de aceite y 8% para centrales de carbón)

Los costos de operación y mantenimiento de cada alternativa fue evaluado mediante el establecimiento de un Staff operacional de cada Planta y correlaciones de los varios gastos con la magnitud del grupo operacional de personal y kwhr. generados.

Conociendo los años en que pueden resultar económicas las

alternativas y desarrollando una predicción de las necesidades energéticas hasta el año 2000 según descrito a grandes rasgos anteriormente podemos desarrollar posibles escenarios para satisfacer la demanda, La Tabla I representa un posible escenario para Puerto Rico. La Tabla II presenta los millones de barriles de petróleo a ser desplazados por el escenario propuesto en la Tabla I.

EL impacto en la economía de Puerto Rico de una fracción de este escenario en términos de aumento en producto bruto y número de empleos adicionales se evaluó y está reportado en dicho estudio. El efecto de la instalación de fuentes renovables de energía resultó muy significativo, Este incluye los siguientes resultados

1) Cuando un proyecto de biomasa (una unidad 400 Mw) se introduce la producción agrícola aumenta considerablemente.

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28

Este aumento induce mayores aumentos en la producción y empleo en el sistema equivalente a \$71.8 millones (precios de 1972) y 119 nuevos empleos. En otras palabras por cada millón de dólares en aumento en la producción de biomasa agrícola se crean 119 nuevos empleos y 1.6 millones de aumento en la economía

2. EL establecimiento de dos proyectos uno OTEC y otro biomasa crearán 58,000 nuevos empleos y un aumento en \$1,236.1 millones

Una serie de 6 condiciones adicionales de no menos importancia estén contenidas en el estudio

En resumen el CEEA ha desarrollado los modelos económicos

necesarios los cuales se prestan para estudio de sensibilidad

y modificaciones por implicaciones regionales. El modelo tiene aplicación para los demás países de Latinoamérica y representa

un útil instrumento de planificación energética

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29

maa L

SCENARIO PROPUESTO DE PLANIAS ELECTRICAS A DESARROLLARSE
PASTA EL AÑO 2000

Biomasa _OTSC__?Potovoltaico _ Viento cartén

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30

?TABLA IT

MILLONES DE BARRILES DE PETROLED A SER DESPLAZADOS POR EL. ESCENARIO

Biomasa

198084 ~~

1985

1985

1987

1988

1989

1990

1991

1992

3.285

657

657

657

657

657

6.57

657

657

657

657

6.57

657

657

657

PROPUESTO EN TARIA I

(Centrales a 75% Factor de Capacidad)

ome

438

438

438

27446

58.48

548

822

822

8.22

822

13.70

19.20

19.20

2.74

2.74

5.48

5.48

548

5.48

5.48

5.48

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?Total:

95.265

101.308

38.36

17

(GT PRSSRT ERS 600 FSB

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Energfa calculada del

(e) Presume central OTC

236.103

Viento digno y características de la turbina

¿experimental de los 40's es retirado

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31

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UPADI 82

Sen Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1982

First Pan American Congress on Energy and

Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

ALTERNATIVE ENERGY IN THE CARIBBEAN,

By

Howard P. Harrenstien

Architectural Engineering Program

University of Miami

Coral Gables, Florida - USA

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1982

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The island communities of the Caribbean and their mainland

neighbors, with the exception of the United States and Mexico, are

dependent on the importation of fossil fuels.

the game time, these jurisdictions are blessed with an abundance of inexhaustible natural sources of energy, including solar, hydrothermal, wind, ocean, biomass, and in certain locations, large reserves of geothermal energy. This paper reports on the progress of a project which is currently underway to develop the scientific and engineering capabilities of the universities in the Caribbean

region) and research of alternative energy, under funding provided by the National Science Foundation, the Exxon Educational Foundation, the Caribbean Development Bank, and the Government of

Yanetuela, The project uses a unique human resource, the mechanism

of the network of the Association of Caribbean Universities

and Research Institutes (UNICA) to endorse 3 cooperative research effort aimed at increasing the capability of Caribbean institutions to assist in the introduction of alternative energy solutions into the region. An element of data collection and systems analyses of appropriate energy technology alternatives is included, with results culminating in the preparation of cooperative

research and training programs to assist in the early implementation of the most economically viable alternatives. The research workshop format has been used and provisions have been made

for the active involvement of a representative network of regional research centers. With coordination and leadership being provided by the Center for Energy and Environment Research (CEEK) of

the University of Puerto Rico; the University of Miami, the

Central University of Venezuela, the University of the West

Indies, and the University of Florida are all taking active

roles in the assurance of the success of this activity.

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NEMGY IN

This paper reports on the progress of an ongoing project to develop the scientific and engineering capabilities of the universities and research institutes in the Caribbean, in order that faculty, students, and staff at these institutions may assist in the orderly development of a grass-roots conversion to alternative energy in the region during the decades ahead. The project is funded primarily by the National Science Foundation, under their Science in Developing Countries

program, and by the Exxon Educational Foundation. Additional invaluable assistance has been provided by the Caribbean Development Bank (COB), and by the Venezuelan Government.

33. BACKGROUND AND NEED

Figure 1 shows some of the 51 inhabited islands of the Caribbean archipelago which have a total land area of about 90,000 square miles and a total population of approximately 20 million. Only one of these island-states produces fossil fuels. This is Trinidad, which has 1/45th of the total land area and 1/20th of the total population. The size of its foreign reserves places it among the first six of all the nations in the British Commonwealth. The other 50

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island-communities depend on imported fossil fuels for 99% of their energy requirements

The Caribbean community includes the collection of geographical entities which occur in the vicinity of the Caribbean Sea. This sea is the part of the Atlantic Ocean lying directly east of Central America; north of Panama, Colombia, and Venezuela; west of the Lesser Antilles Islands (i.e., Barbados, Trinidad, and Martinique) and south of Cuba. The Sea is about 1500 miles long, 700 miles wide, and as deep as 22,788 feet. Ships which use the Panama Canal must by necessity pass through the Caribbean Sea, and as a result pass close to many of the Caribbean Islands. Many of these islands form the West Indies, which, according to Adolf A. Berle, former Assistant Secretary of State for Latin American Affairs, is "the most strategically placed, overpopulated, ethnically complex and politically divided archipelago on earth."

Since the 1950's, the Caribbean has made strenuous efforts to diversify its economy by providing more jobs through industrialization and by expanding tourism. As in so many developing countries throughout the world, these early efforts were almost totally based on the use of imported fuels.

By the end of this decade most of the archipelago will

be a disaster area unless the dependence on imported fossil

fuels is reduced and the use of alternative sources of energy

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is greatly increased. Four of the major road-blocks to progress

are (a) Lack of manpower, (b) inadequate research in the use of existing technology and adaptation or modification of the various technologies to the social and physical environment,

(c) the lack of a grass roots cooperative energy program involving the universities and research institutes of the region, and

(d) the lack of investment capital.

A system of cooperation is of great importance in

region whose history has been one of fragmentation and of

dependence on external markets and external authority. The

Project must provide for, and depend upon, the active cooperation

tion of universities and research institutes from the Spanish-speaking, English-speaking, French-speaking and Dutch-speaking Caribbean. The levels of research work will vary, and this requires advanced centers to provide technical assistance to those which are less advanced. In this way the effort to find viable programs for the use of alternative sources of energy may be shared by all the institutions involved.

The long history of elitism and of dependence on external rulers has left among many Caribbean peoples a bitter legacy of resentment, even of hatred. The ideological conflicts that characterize the contemporary Caribbean and the passionate litany of abuse are evidence of this, just as the boat-people from Cuba and Haiti and the illegal immigration into Puerto

Rico from the Dominican Republic are indicators of a growing

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Poverty and discontent, all from the industrialized countries

is important, but it cannot of itself provide & solution.

Caribbean development depends, in the last resort, on the

capability of the Caribbean people to analyze their problems

P:

and, with assistance from others, to find solutions for them,

Cooperative relationships between individual! United states
and Caribbean universities, though valuable in themselves,

do not fully meet the need for transforming donor-recipient
relationships into a large partnership of scholars and scientists.

This is why the project attempts to make full use of a network

of Caribbean institutions, providing a mechanism for training

at appropriate centers within the region, and involving many

Participants in research programs and in the preparation of

@ comprehensive regional program for using alternative sources

Of energy. Through this method, it is contemplated that the quality of science and engineering research will be improved,

and the potential for intellectual stimulation, for technology transfer and for further cooperative efforts will be realized.

?The Caribbean community has a very rich potential in inexhaustible alternative energy sources. In addition to geothermal energy, which is in abundance in locations such as St. Lucia, many feasible inexhaustible solar-related alternative energy sources exist. This is largely due to the fact that the Caribbean, within a latitudinal range of 10°N. to 25°N., has a resulting year-round solar insolation of approximately

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2000 BTU y

Sauare foot po: day (about twice as mich as in

Mashington, D. C.). A few of the more common of the solar related resources are trade winds, ocean waves, moderate ocean currents, extensive ocean thermal masses, year-round biomass production, agriculture, sea food and mariculture, and many sedimental forms of solar thermal and solar electric options.

THIS project focuses on the need for practically all

the countries of the Caribbean archipelago and Guyana to achieve

greater self-sufficiency in energy; on the role that Caribbean

universities and research in,

tutes can play in meeting that

needs and on the fact that the region has a rich potential

4 An inexhaustible alternative energy sources. we believe it

Represents a first indispensable step in using the existing

network of research centers, schools of the natural sciences

and engineering, and other related university departments

4 2 coordinated program to help meet the region's energy

needs, Furthermore, it points the way to an exciting concept

of the region as a laboratory for the development of alternative

sources of energy, in which lessons can be learned and demon

strations carried out that will be of benefit to other countries

that have similar needs.

Because of the urgency of the energy situation in the Caribbean, it is crucial to the orderly economic and cultural development of the region that a degree of energy self-sufficiency be developed at an early date. If this does not occur,

disastrous consequences will result as the prices of imported fuel escalate beyond reach of all but the most well-endowed (or most heavily subsidized) communities, thus forcing them into either a position of complete dependence on those who have oil, or into a position of the deepest poverty, beyond which economic and political survival may become impossible.

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117. UNICA AND THE UNICA FOUNDATION, INC.
The organization under which this project is being conducted is UNICA, which is supported by the UNICA Foundation, Inc. The Principal Investigator, Dr. Juan A. Bonnet, Jr, Director of the Center for Energy and Environment Research at the University of Puerto Rico, and the Co-Principal Investigator, Dr. Howard Harrenstien, Director of Architectural Engineering at the University of Miami, are both members of the UNICA Commission for Science and Technology, with Dr.

Bonnet as Chairman.

In the late 1960s, perceptive Caribbean educators saw the future development of the Caribbean community as a matter of common regional concern. To meet their common needs they created UNICA, a voluntary association of Caribbean universities and research institutes dedicated to positive carefully-directed efforts for Caribbean development. Founded in 1968 by 16 universities located in ten Caribbean countries, the organization now has 45 members representing a constituency of more than 300,000 students and 30,000 faculty. The current list of

UNICA members and officials follows:

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temas de UNICA Unmerad Cates de Pree

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In order to lend: assistance and im

us to the goals

of UNICA, the Association of Caribbean Universities and Kesvarch

Institutes Foundation, Inc., was created. With Dr. Henry

King Stanford, retired President of the University of Miami,
a8 President, the Foundation was established as a non-profit
organization in Florida, It has been granted tax exempt status
a8 a public charity by the Internal Revenue Service and support
to the Foundation is tax deductible under the Internal Revenue
Code. It is significant that the provision for alternative
sources of energy and the improvement of university teaching
and research it

the Caribbean are among the objectives of
this organization, and it is this organization which first
agreed to support this project.

1V. PRELIMINARY RESOURCE ASSESSMENT

Demographic and statistical data for most of the island
communities involved in the Caribbean region are contained

in Table 1.

As may be observed, this table presents data on the language spoken, latitude, longitude, area, population, population density, highest point, length, width, lateral exposure to wind, kwhr per person per year electrical consumption, and millions of barrels of oil per year required to generate electricity. The Table is preliminary in nature, and must not be overestimated as to its accuracy, as its purpose is

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only to allow preliminary assessments to be made. Neverthe)

it is hoped that these data ere found useful to those who

would engage in energy analyses ané projections. 1¢ is the
intention of the author to continually update and expand on
these data; therefore, persons who have additional or conflicting
information are urged to contact hin.

Table 1 estimate

total population among all of the

islands mentioned of 18,137,800. This figure is probably

Somewhat low, in that 1970 statistics were used for some of

the islands. the combined area of all islands is 42,213 square
Miles, and the estimate of combined projected shoreline which

is normal to the prevailing trade winds is 827 miles. It

is estimated that 37,950,000 BBLs of oil per year are imported

by these islands collectively to provide electrical energy

to their population. If the influence of Puerto Rico is subtracted
from these totals, they become 14,961,800 persons, 38,778

Square miles, 737 miles, and 16,079,000 BBLs of oil per year

respectively.

Earlier in this conference, in the paper by Ronald

D. Scott and Howard Harrenstien, a rank ordered list of alterna

tive energy technologies which were deemed technologically

suitable for development in Puerto Rico were presented. If

this list is reviewed for possible application to the remaining

islands in the Caribbean, only slight modifications and additions

need by made. The resulting list, in rank order of estimated

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readiness of the technology, is the following

1, Solar Hot Water

co-generation

hydroelectric

4. Electricity from Solid waste

Small Wind Machines

Large Wind Machines (Windfarms)

7. electricity from Bagasse

Electricity from Solar Ponds

9. Photovoltaics

10. Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion

11. Geothermal Energy Conversion

12. Other

A preliminary estimate of the potential of these technologies as far as replacement of imported fossil fuels is concerned may be produced by assuming (that the islands in the Caribbean have many similarities of character, and that lifestyles will eventually reach similar levels of industrialization and development. One can then take the current estimates of potential

for Puerto Rico and use them in predicting the potential for the remaining islands in the Caribbean. Table 2 computes the values of contribution in BBLs of oil saved per year for each alternative energy technology at the end of full commercialization by the year 2000, using data which is consistent with that presented in the Scote-Harrenstien paper of reference.

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u

It may be observed that the combined contribution from the sources listed totals 154,230,000 BBLs of oil per year saved.

This assumes that the energy produced by the alternatives replaces electrical energy which has been produced by burning imported fuel at 30% efficiency of conversion.

From Table 1, subtracting the contribution from Puerto Rico, the region imports only 16,079,000 BBLs of oil at the present time. If a 5% per year growth rate is assumed from

1980 to the year 2000, this total would grow to 42,662,374

BBLs of oil per y

F. Energy self-sufficiency, then, as far as electrical generation is concerned, is achievable by the year 2000, if the region of reference commercializes only 27.66% of the total potential provided by alternative sources that is estimated in Table 2, as 27.66% of 154,230,000 is precisely 42,660,018.

This is very good news for this region, but @ plan for orderly development and progress must be instigated at the earliest opportunity: to delay is to lose vital capital which is needed for the transition. This capital must not be spent paying for further escalating imported oil purchases, or the energy self-sufficient state may become unachievable.

As may be observed in Table 2, there are two alternatives which show significant promise for making major contributions in the immediate future. These are Wind (Numbers 4 and 5) and Biomass (Number 7). In recognition of this potential,

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the UNICA Commission on Science and Technology selected these

for early emphasis. A progress report on the result of

activity 1s contained in the following session.

y, JGRESS REPORT

The UNICA project being reported here has to date focused its activities on the collection of material related to the current state of affairs in the Caribbean with respect to alternative energy education, training, research, development, and demonstration. In order to collect this material and

Ampact the planning process for the acceleration of the introduction of alternatives into the region, it was decided to ask the universities and research institutes which comprise

UNICA to appoint official contact persons who could represent their institutions, and who could participate in workshops which were designed to stimulate the production of relevant material on the subjects chosen.

2. Wind Workshop

The first opportunity for the contact persons and other invited participants to convene was at Barbados on December

6-9, 1981, A workshop was presented at that time titled "Wind

as an Energy. Alternative for the Caribbean". Some 50 persons

Participated. After hearing background papers on the subject,

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the participants divided into three workehops covering the

following subjects:

* Education and Training ~ dr. Howard Harrenstien, Moderator

* Research and Development - Dr. Edwin Nukez, Moderator

* Demonstration = De. Mudusto Iriarte, Moderator

It is the opinion of UNICA that the Dec. 6-3, 1981,

Barbados Conference on Wind as an Energy Alternative for the Caribbean was a success, when seen from the point of view of evaluation by the participants, and from the point of view of providing an opening in communication links on wind energy in the Caribbean scientific and engineering education and research community, Although the three culminating workshops were conducted independently from one another, recommendations Produced by them had some marked similarities and focus. A generalization of the recommendations and a prioritization results in the following conceptual overall recommendation:

1, A resource assessment should be conducted to determine the existing situation in education and training, manpower, the magnitude of the available wind resource, the avail~

ability of appropriate wind sites, and the existence

of wind demonstration projects in the region.

2, Based on the results of the current ?state of the

art" assessment in priority #1, a plan should be prepared

which would detail the steps (including costs) necessary

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te accomplish an acceptable level of progress toward

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3. Sourcos of fundiny snovld be identified which will

enable the continuance of the program which was initiated
by this conference and which will assure the timely

completion of priorities } and 2.

With the achievement of these three priorities as objectives.

It is predicted that the scientific and engineering capabilities
of the universities and research institutes in the region will

be greatly enhanced, as far as this form of

alternative energy is concerned.

The draft of the proceedings of the Barbados Wind Workshop

has been prepared, and copies may be obtained by writing:

Dr. Thomas Mathews, Secretario General

Asociacion de Universidades e Institutos de Investigacion
de) Caribe

Apartado 11832

Caparra Heights station

San Juan, Puerto Rico C0922

2. Bionass Workshop

?The second opportunity for the UNICA contact persons

to convene and to discuss the alternative energy situation

29, 1982. The

in the Caribbean was in San Juan on April 2

subject was "Biomass as an Energy Alternative for the Caribbean".

he proceedings for this workshop are in the process of being

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Prepared, and when completed they may be obtained from Dr. Mathews, the above source. In the interim, however, copies of some of the papers presented may be obtained directly from:

Dr. Suan A Bonnet, Jr.
Director, Center for Energy and Environment Research
Caparra Heights station
San Juan, Puerto Rico 0935

The papers which are immediately available are listed after the reference section to this paper.

vr. smmmany

Energy consumption patterns for the Caribbean and alternative energy assessments and analyses are a continuing activity by the research staff. Results of some of the early assessments were compiled by Dr. Bonnet, and are included in the material

Which follows the reference section of this paper.

It is clear at this stage that a much more detailed
Resource assessment is needed before a realistic plan for education,
training, and institutional development may be prepared. In
fact, it may be that through the involvement of persons: in

the Caribbean in the as:

assessments and plan development, a substantial level of institutional development will occur by virtue of the grass roots nature of the activity.

What is equally clear, however, is that the Caribbean region is richly blessed with renewable alternative energy sources which are quite capable of providing energy self-sufficiency to the region in the decades ahead. Whether they

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do or whether they don't-is a matter for responsible citizens,
from both within and without the region, who immediately face;

the conversion to alternative energy sources will not happen

without major human and institutional effort, not the least
of which is related to education, training, research, develop-
ment and demonstration.

VIT, REFERENCES

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UNICA WORKSHOP

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Michal Caney, Caribbean Research Institute College of Virginia, St Thomas US

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Caribbean Development Bank

Canadian International Development Agency

Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnologia

México

Department of Energy (U.S.)

European Development Fund

European Investment Bank

International Bank for Reconstruction and
Development (World Bank)

Inter-American Development Bank

National Air Space Administration (U.S.)

Organization of American States

Latin American Organization for Energy
Development.

Puerto Rico Electric Power Authority

Technical Energy Unit

Interim-Fund - United Nations Interim-Fund

United Nations Development Programme

Caribbean Universities and Research

Institutes Association

United Nations International Children's

Emergency Fund

United States Agency for International
Development

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UPADI 62

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1982

| Congreso Panamericano de Alternativas Energéticas y

1 Congreso Nacional de Alternativas Renovables de Energia

ESTRATEGIAS PARA EL DESARROLLO DE LAS FUENTES NUEVAS
Y RENOVABLES DE ENERGIA EN LA REPUBLICA DE PANAMA

Por

Ramin O. Argote

Jefe del Departamento de Energia y Tarifas del IRE

y Secretario Técnico de CONADE

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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INTRODUCCION

Este trabajo es un resumen del estudio de las Estrategias para el Desarrollo de las Fuentes Nuevas y Renovables de Energía en Panamá, que realizó el Instituto de Recursos Hidráulicos y Electricidad (IRHE) y la Comisión Nacional de Energía (CONADE) bajo la asesoría del Instituto de Conversión Energética de la Universidad de Delaware y el Centro de Estudios ambientales y Energéticos de la Universidad de Puerto Rico.

Los objetivos son definir estrategias y brindar recomendaciones para el aprovechamiento de los recursos renovables con miras a sustituir derivados del petróleo y a llevar energía a las áreas rurales en forma eficiente.

Para esto se levantó información preliminar y se realizó el inventario de los recursos biomasa, biogás, solar, viento y mareas..

Este estudio, aunque tomó 17 meses, no pretende ser final, sino solo el primer paso para definir, por primera vez en nuestro país, en forma aproximada la potencialidad de las fuentes renovables y su posible participación sería en el Plan Nacional de Energía que prepara la CONADE.

I SITUACION ENERGETICA EN PANAMA

La crisis de energía mundial repercutió en Panamá no con una escasez de energéticos, sino con un fuerte aumento en los precios de los mismos. Por tal razón se han aumentado los esfuerzos nacionales para aprovechar los recursos locales, esto dentro de una planificación energética integral,

los productos derivados del petróleo representaron durante la década del 70 más del 80% de la oferta global de energía secundaria en la República de Panamá, correspondiendo esto a aproximadamente el 20% del valor de las importaciones de bienes.

Panamá cuenta afortunadamente con considerables recursos hídricos, de biomasa y solares, en los cuales se apoya su política para minimizar su dependencia del petróleo importado, sin descuidar las estrategias para la prospección de hidrocarburos.

En el año 1980, el consumo nacional de energías secundarias fue de 1.5×10^4 Terao sea el equivalente de 17,900 millones de Kwh. De ese total participaron los hidrocarburos con 62.58, la leña con 20.88, la electricidad con 9.48 y el bagazo con 7.38.

En nuestro país no existen actualmente reservas conocidas de gas comercialmente explotables de petróleo. Este se importa en un 100% ya sea como crudo o en forma de derivados, por lo que existe una gran dependencia del petróleo, que como energía secundaria, gradualmente bajó su participación del 67.8% en 1970 al 63.8% en 1980.

El consumo nacional neto de energía subió 41.6% entre 1970 y 1980, a expensas casi exclusivamente de los derivados de petróleo, como el diesel y las gasolinas en el sector transporte y el GLP en el residencial.

Las fuentes autóctonas de energías, leña, bagazo e hidroeléctricas incrementaron su participación en el consumo desde un 29.08% en 1970 al 33.68% en 1980, pero la leña disminuyó su aporte de 26.8% a 21% en la década,

El consumo de energía total del país creció al 3.58% anual durante el período 1970-1980, la energía comercial (hidrocarburos y electricidad) lo hizo al 4.7%, mientras que las fuentes domésticas lo hicieron al 4.4% anual, creciendo a 4%

en 1a década. Las tasas anuales de crecimiento del consumo en los diversos sectores fueron de 1.28 para el residencial, 9% para el comercial, de 7.5% para el industrial y agropecuario y de 5.08 en el transporte.

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Ante esta situación se inició en nuestro país desde 1972 un agresivo programa de aprovechamiento de los recursos hídricos cuyo potencial inventariado asciende a los 2500 Mw: de estos se han desarrollado 250 Mw y están en construcción 300 Mw más con una inversión de más de 8.500 millones. Además a fines de 1979 se comenzaron los estudios para el aprovechamiento de las fuentes sucvas y renovables de energía.

Esta última iniciativa se concretó mediante el Proyecto de Fuentes Alternas ejecutado por el Instituto de Recursos Hídricos y Electrificación y financiado conjuntamente con la Agencia Internacional para el Desarrollo (USAID) +

El Proyecto de Fuentes Alternas con una duración de tres años, cubre dos áreas de actividades:

1, Construcción de proyectos demostrativos de energía solar para calentamiento de agua y aire acondicionado, sistemas fotovoltaicos y producción de biogas.

2. Levantamiento de la información y definición de Estrategias para el Desarrollo de las Fuentes Renovables de Energía a nivel nacional.

Beta Última actividad representa el primer esfuerzo en nuestro país por cuantificar, localizar y planificar el desarrollo y aprovechamiento energético óptimo de recursos de energía renovable como Biomasa, biogas, solar y eólico. Esto se ha llevado a cabo utilizando la información energética y los lineamientos de política energética de la Comisión Nacional de Energía (CONADE).

El estudio para elaborar el documento de Estrategias, se inició en junio de 1980 siendo sus objetivos principales los siguientes:

1. Un análisis de la demanda de energía

2: Un inventario de recursos renovables

3. Una evaluación de tecnologías de aprovechamiento de recursos renovables.

4. Desarrollo de políticas y estrategias para el desarrollo y aprovechamiento de energía renovables.

A nivel global, los resultados encontrados de la oferta de energías nuevas y renovables son los siguientes

1, la oferta global de biomasa en términos de productividad anual asciende a 48×10^4 Tcal con un potencial disponible actualmente de aproximadamente diez veces esa cantidad.

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III

En términos generales, las siguientes estrategias a corto y medio.

plazo de las fuentes:

¿nam?:

los recursos aprovechables para la generación de biogas se estiman entre 900 y 1,800 Tcal.

Estos son desperdicios dispersos pero su aprovechamiento puede tener un impacto significativo en las áreas rurales del país.

Las estimaciones preliminares indican que las microcentrales hidroeléctricas podrían suplir 10.5 megavatios, además de los 25 mw en minicentrales-

Los recursos de energía solar varían de región a región ? inclusive sufren de variaciones estacionales. Panamá cuenta con 2100 horas de insolación promedio anual con niveles de radiación que oscilan entre un mínimo de 194 watts/m² a 500 watts/m².

Se ha confeccionado un mapa preliminar de isoplefas para
estimar la energía eólica pero existen pocos datos,
habiéndose disponible poca instrumentación de medición,

Los recursos energéticos maremotrices o de olas no se
dan en cantidades apreciables; además que su explotación
podría afectar la industria pesquera y el hábitat mari-
no de nuestras costas, los cuales son una importante
fuente de divisas en nuestro país:

ESTRATEGIAS PARA LAS NUEVAS FUENTES RENOVABLES

ESTRATEGIAS PARA LAS NUEVAS FUENTES RENOVABLES

En base a los resultados obtenidos, se pueden definir en

nuevas y renovables de energía en Pa-

Promover a nivel nacional la concientización y la educa-
ción técnica tanto en el uso de las fuentes nuevas y res-
novables como en el uso racional y eficiente de las

fuentes de energía renovables tradicionales.

Completar y detallar el inventario de recursos energéticos renovables.

Ejecutar un programa de desarrollo masivo de biogas a nivel nacional que incluirá la construcción de digestores a nivel residencial y comunitario.

Aumentar la oferta de leña mediante la creación de bosques comunitarios y programas de reforestación para uso en la cocina rural, y promover el uso eficiente de ese recurso.

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Crear servicios de extensión rural para diseminar las tecnologías apropiadas a las zonas más alejadas de las zonas.

Propiciar las inversiones aplicadas, en especial en las zonas de energía solar, normas arquitectónicas pasivas, secado solar y aprovechamiento eólico.

Proveer asistencia técnica en el uso de colectores solares para calentamiento de agua o producción de vapor en usos industriales, comerciales y residenciales,

Hacer ensayos locales de especies de rápido crecimiento para plantaciones forestales.

promover, mediante proyectos demostrativos el uso de la energía para la generación de electricidad y energía mecánica.

Estudiar el uso energético óptimo de residuos que se producen en forma centralizada (basura, cáscara de arroz, rechazos de banano, bagazo, etc.).

Realizar programas de uso integral de energía con fuentes nativas en comunidades aisladas no interconectadas.

Continuar los estudios de geotermia.

Mejorar la capacidad de financiamiento y motivar mediante incentivos o subsidios, las iniciativas a nivel comunitario o industrial para la utilización de la producción de equipamiento para el uso de fuentes renovables de energía.

IV ANALISIS DE LA DEMANDA DE ENERGIA

El primer requisito para evaluar el potencial de aprovechamiento de fuentes renovables de energía en Panamá, es una descripción de sus usos finales para identificar la demanda de energía susceptible de ser cubierta por las diversas tecnologías de aprovechamiento.

Se analizó la información disponible que había sido previamente obtenida y ordenada en el desarrollo de los Balances Nacionales de Energía. Al encontrarse que la información no contenía el grado de detalle y el tipo de ordenamiento para

este estudio, hubo necesidad de diseñar un plan de investigación para generarla.

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Para los propósitos de este estudio se necesitaba una estructura sectorial desagregada donde se pudieran identificar claramente los consumos de energía correspondientes a Sector Residencial, Comercial, Industrial, Público y transporte. Además, se requerían los consumos de energía según uso final en estos factores.

a. Sector Residencial Urbano

Se diseñó y realizó una encuesta para determinar el consumo residencial urbano de energía. Se tomó una muestra de 995 viviendas equivalente al 0.5% de las viviendas particulares ocupadas conectadas a la red de electrificación en las ciudades de Panamá, Colón, Santiago y David.

Se valoró la información obtenida comparando los consumos de energía eléctrica facturados por el IRHE a las viviendas incorporadas a la muestra, con los consumos reportados por los encuestados y con los cálculos elaborados de consumo de energía eléctrica por uso final. Estas comparaciones indicaron que las cifras correspondientes a las distintas indicaciones de energía eléctrica estaban generalmente dentro de un rango de 10% de variación entre ellas, por lo cual se consideró válida.

b. Sector Residencial Rural

Se tomó la información del Balance Energético en donde el consumo de leña en 1980 para el sector residencial fue de 780,000 Toneladas por año.

El promedio de uso de la leña para cocinar es de 3.25 Kg/hab./año.

La participación del consumo de carbón vegetal ha disminuido debido a causas tales como:

(a) La disminución en 1a demanda por 1a reubicación de Poblaciones tradicionalmente consumidoras, como las de Chorrillo y Marañén.

(>) La lejanía del principal centro de producción y los consiguientes aumentos en el flete de transporte.

(c) Los precios no competitivos con el GLP.

Sector Comercial

Una muestra correspondiente al 1% de las empresas comerciales incluidas en la Gran División 7 del Código Internacional Industrial Uniforme (CIIU) se seleccionó aleatoriamente para el Sector Comercial. En total se incluyeron 62 empresas comerciales en 1a muestra.

a. Sector Industrial.

Una muestra similar a la del sector a) 1% de las industrias manufactureras se seleccionó aleatoriamente de la Gran División 3 del CII. Esta muestra consistió en 40 industrias. A partir del Balance Energético se obtuvo un consumo de energía de 73800 Tcn/año en áreas rurales.

Sector Público

La información correspondiente al consumo de energía eléctrica en el Sector Público se tomó de dos encuestas realizadas en 1979 por el IRIE, sobre los usos de la energía.

Los resultados de todas estas investigaciones se presentan en tres formatos diferentes que son:

1. Consumo Total

La participación de los distintos sectores en el consumo de energía para 1980 fue de 29.3% para el Sector Residencial, 4.48 en el Comercial, 27.2% en el Industrial, 26.74 en el transporte, 2.10 en el público y 10.4% en otros (ver Figura 1)»

Consumo Total Anual de Energía Secundaria, por tipo de Uso Final

Más del 56% del consumo total de energía está en las actividades de cocina y transporte. (Cocina con 26.4% y Transporte con el 26.78). Las otras actividades tienen una importancia relativa mucho menor en el consumo. (Ver

Figura 2).

Consumo Total Anual de Energía Secundaria, por Energía Primaria

En este formato resaltan los consumos de leña (bajo el

rubro de Otros) para cocina; de la gasolina y el diesel para el transporte; y de los desechos agrícolas para la Producción de calor de proceso. (Ver Figura 3).

La información así clasificada, permitió la definición

de metas de sustitución a través de la aplicación de tecnologías de aprovechamiento de recursos renovables de energía. También ayudó a identificar tipos particulares de demanda de energía a los cuales deben dirigirse los esfuerzos de conservación de energía, de reordenamiento de los precios relativos de los energéticos o de aplicación de impuestos u otorgamientos de subsidios..

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V EVALUACION DE LOS RECURSOS ENERGETICOS RENOVABLES

Se realizó una evaluación preliminar de los recursos energéticos renovables disponibles, presentándose los resultados en cuatro volúmenes: Biomasa, Biogas, Solar y Oc62no/E61i

Biomasa

Esta investigación se centró en tres objetivos principales: Evaluación de la fitomasa, de su potencial energético y valoración del potencial de los desperdicios, como fuentes alternas de energía provenientes de las plantas.

La estimación del potencial de biomasa, se realizó evaluando métodos distintos con información de varias fuentes.

Se optó por un estudio planimétrico de mapas y fotografía de satélite, conteniendo datos de la zona de vida a nivel nacional. Del estudio se determinaron las grandes áreas de biomasa existentes en el país excluyendo las zonas agrícolas, cuencas hidrográficas, áreas cerca de los depósitos de agua y las áreas pobladas.

Se hizo un listado de las especies existentes más representativas en el país (ver Tabla i) y se determinó su potencial energético.

Tabla N°2

Especies más representativas dentro del País

a. Especies de mayor demanda para Carbón de Lefia en

Panamá en base al estudio de Duke (1972)

Acacia

Brysonia nance?

Prosopis

Manglar

b. Especies m&s usadas como Lefia en base al estudio de

Duke (2972)

Acnistus

Bursera

Diphysa

Erithrina

Spondias

Tabebuia

10.

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c. Especies Secundarias en base al estudio de Tosi

(a971)

Acrocomia sclerocarpa ?Pacora?

Apeiba tiborbou ?cortezo"

Brysonina Crassifolia ?nance?

Cecropia spp. ?guarumo?

Cochio spermim uvifera ?poroporo"

Davilla lucida ?chumico peoro*

Didymopanax morototoni "mangabe"

Guazuma ulmifolia "guas ino"

Ochroma lagopus "balsa"

Trena sp.

Xylopia frutescens "malagueto"

En base al estudio de Porter 1973

Casearia nitida "raspa-lengua"

Cordia alliodora "taurel"

Hasseltia floribunda "raspa-lengua?"

Heliocarpus popayanensis "majagua"

Luehea spectabilis:

Muntingia calabura "Pasito"

Psidium guajava "saguayaba"

?Triplaris cumingiana "vario santo"

Veronica patens "lengua de vaca"

Vismia baccifera "sangre perro"

Vismia latifolia "sangre perro"

Zanthoxylum panamense "sarcabu"

Zanthoxylum setulosum "sarcabu"

La lengua existe pero no es abundante en Panama.

La productividad anual de biomasa se estimó en 484,700 Tm. La biomasa en pie existente representa un potencial de 1,100 millones de Toneladas métricas (Tm) secas, que equivalen a 2,700 millones de barriles de petróleo. Los desechos forestales representan 90,000 Tm secas de madera, equivalentes a 216,000 barriles de petróleo (Ver Tabla 2).

Tabla 2

Potencial disponible de Biomasa

Poente, 10° Tm se teas

Inventario forestal

viv 1,120.00 4,703,517.00

Desechos Forestales 0.09 370.00

Desechos Centralizados

(bagazo, desechos agro-

industriales, etc.) 1.80 7,540.00

Total 3,421.89 Wao

1,121.89 4,711,427.00

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Se considers coe, administredas co: cactamente, tas plane
feciones de energta podrfan rovecr un Cantidad eonscaeree
ble de energfa rencvble. Cuno wedida 2 corto plase so sune~
san probar diferentes espec.es do plantas para lograr el saat
Dor necaesento de biomass pur hect&rea, asf como también pest
dargiuevas especies do rapide crecimiento y de alte contenae
aiérico que pudieran aurentar el potencial de 1a bionasg ae
Panamg, como son las: Albizuia lebbek, Cacuarina equiscesfen
iia, Eucalyptus camalélensis, ueucaena Leucscggheta

La mayoría de los residuos agrícolas e industriales rurales están demasiado dispersos como para ser considerados un combustible utilizables anualmente.

Biogas

Según el potencial de producción de biogas a partir de residuos animales, de plantas, desechos agro-industriales, y otros, tales como la basura: El informe concluye que se pueden producir de 1 a 2 millones de metros cúbicos de biogas al año. Se pueden producir dependiendo de la cantidad de recursos, representando de 894.1 a 1841.1 toneladas. (Ver Tabla 3). Estos cálculos se basan en los recursos considerados recuperables y no en el potencial total disponible. El mayor recurso potencial para la producción de biogas son los residuos animales y desechos agrícolas.

industriales.

En base a la información recabada, se determinó que las mayores existencias de ganado y cerdos están en las provincias de Chiriquí, Chiriquí, Prov. de Panamá y Veraguas. Las provincias de Chiriquí y Coclé tienen las mayores plantaciones de arroz, mientras que Bocas del Toro y Darién producen los mismos volúmenes de bagazo en Chiriquí y Bocas del Toro (bagazo) en Coclé, Chiriquí y Panamá. Estos productos agrícolas son adecuados para el biogás.

Se recomiendan tres tipos de estudios para conocer mejor el potencial nacional para la utilización de esta tecnología:

3+ Un estudio detallado de los recursos disponibles para la producción de biogás y de la demanda susceptible de ser cubierta por estos recursos.

2+ Un estudio de biodegradabilidad, el cual analice las distintas materias primas nacionales susceptibles de ser utilizadas para producir biogás:

3+ Un estudio para la selección de diseños y materiales apropiados para las condiciones locales y la sobrevivencia de digestores.

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TABLA 3

b

PRODUCCION POTENCIAL ANUAL DE BIOGAS DE DESPERDICIOS RESIDUALES

Fuente

Residuos Animales

Plantas Acuáticas

Desperdicios Agro

Industriales

Desperdicios Urbanos y Aguas Negras,

?Total

Porcentaje de Recuperación

9-30

50

80 - 100

70 ~ 100

10° a? ?Teal

Biogas Byuivalente

34.1 ~ 132.3 160,5-698.5

1.3 59.8

103.1 - 181.4 545.6-960.0

20.5 - 34.5 108.5-182.6

169.0 348.2 994.4 eat

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En cuanto a proyectos, se revomsencan la ejecuci?n de tres tipos:

1, Sistemas unifamiliares, que provean de biogas y fertilizante a las familias aisjadas rurales.

2. Sistemas comunales y cooperativos, que provean de energia a varias familiac, o a requefias ompresas e instituciones en areas rurales.

3. Sistemas industriales o gubernamentales que generen suficientes cantidades de biogas para abastecer un volumen apreciable de demanda, ya sea en freas rurales 0 urbanas.

En el informe se presentan los programas y presupuestos para estas actividades.

Las tecnologías de aprovechamiento que se han utilizado en China e India, son susceptibles de adaptarse a las condiciones de Panamá, siendo generalmente tecnologías benignas, que requieren una inversión limitada de capital, poco mantenimiento y no resultan peligrosas para los usuarios, para los recursos naturales, ni para el medio ambiente en el cual se ubican.

Solar, Térmico y Fotovoltaico

Se prepararon dos informes para la evaluación de los recursos de energía solar. El primer informe evalúa el potencial, de radiación solar basándose en los datos de piranómetros en cuatro estaciones meteorológicas con un mínimo de diez años de información. El segundo informe estudia las aplicaciones posibles para este potencial, particularmente para aplicaciones térmicas industriales de baja temperatura.

Se consideró que la calidad de la información disponible y la ubicación de los piranómetros no eran adecuados para una estimación global a nivel nacional del potencial de recursos solares. (Ver Mapa de Estaciones de Medición). El trabajo se orientó entonces a lograr una estimación, utilizando otra información considerada confiable. Como se contaba con series

históricas de datos de precipitación muy confiables, se correlacionó el Índice de nubosidad con el Índice de insolación, y el índice de nubosidad con el de precipitación.

Los resultados mostraron una correlación de aproximadamente 0.64 entre la precipitación y los datos de insolación. Debido al fenómeno de las lluvias estacionales, la correlación fue mayor para los análisis hechos a nivel mensual.

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1s,

Por tanto, los datos de precipitación se pudieron utilizar

para identificar geográficamente las zonas de Sonora SA.

Las zonas con mayor insolación,

Como parte de la evaluación realizada para estudiar posibles aplicaciones para la energía solar se visitaron 16 usuarios que expresaron interés en el uso de la energía solar y que presentaban posibilidades de sustitución. Para

obtener una idea del potencial de aplicación para este recurso, se consideró factible reemplazar por energía solar el 30% del consumo de derivados de petróleo en el sector industrial, con lo cual los ahorros anuales representarían aproximadamente 2.8 millones de galones de diesel, más de 102,000 galones

de bunker y más de 12,000 galones de gas licuado,

Se encontró que en casi todos los lugares de la República es posible encontrar una insolación mínima de aproximadamente 193 W/m^2 . También se efectuó una evaluación preliminar sobre costos de inversión y normas de calidad para la industria de construcción de colectores.

En conclusión, existe un gran potencial para el uso de la energía solar en las empresas visitadas, pero será necesario realizar estudios técnico-económico más detallados para poder recomendar la implementación masiva de sistemas solares.

Tenemos interés en estudiar la posibilidad de producir colectores planos con fines de uso doméstico y otros componentes para las aplicaciones a baja temperatura,

En Panamá, la energía solar tiene su mayor potencial en el Área de calentamiento de agua y Secado de aranceles, ya que por la alta incidencia de nubosidad, la radiación directa se limita a la estación seca, o sea cuatro meses al año. Sin embargo, el uso del agua caliente en el sector residencial

tiene un mercado limitado.

A pesar de esto, hay posibilidades de usar paneles fotovoltaicos para aplicaciones de comunicación en repetidoras remotas, boyas, @ irrigación. Ya se cuenta con un sistema de comunicación remota de 360 vatios de potencia. La extensión del uso de placas fotovoltaicas dependerá de cuán rápido decaiga el costo de la producción de electricidad fotovoltaica y de mejoras en el rendimiento del equipo,

A corto plazo el equipo nacional de fuentes renovables de energía se dedicará a intensificar las campañas de concientización para la sustitución del gas y de la energía eléctrica por energía solar para calentamiento de agua. Además, se continuará la investigación y promoción de otros usos de la energía solar, como el secado de aranos y frutas.

Con la experiencia que se adquiera en la instalación de

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Sistemas de calentamiento y enfriamiento solar, se brindará en forma continuada a usuarios interesados, la asesoría técnica necesaria para el diseño y la instalación de sistemas

de todo tipo. Finalmente, se ampliarán los programas de promoción de energía solar en distintos puntos de la República.

hidroeléctrica

81 conjunto de las instalaciones de las micro-hidroeléctricas constituyen una alternativa para electrificación de zonas remotas en Panamá.

Se han identificado 200 sitios probables y de éstos, 40 devan todos los requisitos que permiten la ejecución de un proyecto micro-hidroeléctrico.

A nivel nacional, se estima que se podrán obtener como mínimo 10.5 megawatts de electricidad de este tipo de instalaciones.

Existen otros sitios con grandes perspectivas, pero éstos aún no han sido identificados.

El IRHE ha construido conjuntamente con la Agencia Internacional de Desarrollo (AID) dos microhidroeléctricas con capacidades instaladas de 10 y 50 kilovatios. Además tiene en construcción cuatro microhidroeléctricas con capacidades de 30, 35, 50 y 60 kilovatios.

Con respecto a las minihidros, se estima que la potencia a nivel nacional puede ascender a 25 MW. Por el momento el IRHE, en una etapa de experimentación, ya ha construido 2 minihidroeléctricas; una de 350 kilovatios y otra de 250 kilovatios. Además, se estudian tres proyectos minihidroeléctricos que tendrán capacidades de 500 Kw, 300 Kw y 200 Kw. (Ver mapas de ubicación de los proyectos).

Energfa Geotérmica

Los estudios para determinar el potencial geotérmico en Panamá están en sus primeras etapas

Se han realizado perforaciones con buenos resultados en el área de Cerro Pando y Cerro Colorado en 1a Provincia de Chiriquí, y El Valle en Coclé. Se están realizando las evaluaciones con apoyo de OLADE; al momento se han estimado potenciales de 400 MW. (Ver ubicación sobre mapa de sitios de perforación). El Banco Mundial ha dispuesto fondos para continuar con los levantamientos geofísicos.

Energfa Océánica

Del estudio de la energía del océano se determinó que hay

16.

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Pequeños cambios de mareas y velocidades de corrientes en la

gosta Atlántica, y lugares apropiados con significantes cambios de mareas sobre el Pacífico, pero estos estén en 0 core
Ga de zonas de pesca, exiaderos de mariscos y rutas hacia el
Canal de Panamá, y son freas costeras de poca profundidad.

Se determinó que hay poco potencial inmediato para la
Conversión energética de gradiente termal crsanice ban esean=
Go Panand en la gona apropiaca para el uss de 1a energta ter=
mal oceinica

El futuro aprovechamiento de 1a energfa del ocegnio en
Panam& dependerd de 1a obtenci6n de costos apropiados de equi-
Pamiento, y la evaluact6n minuciosa de los inpactos ecológi-
cos que puedan suscitar.

Energfa E6lica

El estudio de energfa e6lica resulté más optimista. se
analiz6 la informacion del viento existente y se determiné
que resultaría prometedor generar electricidad del viento Gu-
zante la estación seca en varias regiones de Panam&. La gress
Ge mayor potencial figuran en la costa del Caribe entre colon
¥Portobelo y el fea a lo largo del oriente de 1a Costa
Atlántica al final de la Cordillera Central (Ver mapa de 1s0-
pletas).

Sin embargo, la información analizada debe ser complementada mediante un programa de medición eléctrica a nivel regional, ya que existen pocos datos. A pesar de la falta de información numérica, tenemos a priori criterios que nos permiten considerar la energía eólica como un recurso prometedor para poblaciones aisladas en las tierras altas de Panamá,

Como un paso inicial, se ha iniciado la instalación de cuatro pequeños sistemas de conversión de energía eólica acompañados de anemómetros, en sitios aislados que no disponen de flujo eléctrico.

VI PRONOSTICOS DE USOS Y SUSTITUCION DE FUENTES RENOVABLES

PRONOSTICOS DE USOS Y SUSTITUCION DE FUENTES RENOVABLES

Contando con la evaluación preliminar de los recursos, y conociendo las estructuras de la demanda de energía, se proyectó la demanda a nivel de energía final de 1982 al año 2002 (a los decenios). A su vez, tomando en cuenta los recursos disponibles, se fijaron metas de sustitución alcanzables para el período en mención, bajo un programa de desarrollo extensivo e intensivo de las tecnologías de fuentes renovables. Los parámetros globales para dichas metas son los siguientes?

V.-

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18.-

fio 2002

Demanda Total 29

de Energie 29,618.4 Teal

Sustitución Total 7

de Fuentes Renovs athidteiiiiie

bles de Energeta 6.48

Estas cifras globales de sustitución se trabajaron en detalle para cada uso y fuente de energía renovable, analizando se las sustituciones generales en los sectores residencial, comercial y industrial, y como caso aparte la sustitución de la demanda de electricidad en áreas rurales. Estos resultados se muestran en los dos cuadros siguientes. (NI y N°);

Basado en costo unitarios actuales, dicho programa requeriría la inversión de B/.1,052.1 millones de balboas para financiar el equipamiento necesario sobre el período en mención.

Adicionalmente Panamá podría interesarse a largo plazo en un programa para la sustitución en un 40% de la demanda de electricidad de los sistemas aislados generados por fuentes térmicas, por fuentes nuevas y renovables para el año 2000.

Esto, distribuido en 27% por biomasa, 27% por microcentrales, microhidroeléctricas, 13% por energía eólica, y 33% por energía fotovoltaica significaría generar el equivalente de 24,000 Mwh/año.

Sobre el período de dos decenios esto implicaría invertir B/.15.7 millones para la compra del equipamiento necesario.

Sumando estos dos programas:

el aporte al año 2002 sería de:

el aporte total de cada tecnología

Aporte de las Diversas

Tecnologías = Aog. 2002 Teals Porcentajes

Biogas 582.3

solar 952.7

Biomasa 180.

B6lico 90.0

Minicentrales 9327,

Total 17899-1?

En conclusi6n, Panam& cuenta con abundantes fuentes renovables para satisfacer sus necesidades energ6ticas. En estos momentos, el desarrollo de estas tecnologías cuenta con un compromiso implícito en nuestra polftica energ6tica nacional. De ahf se Geriva que 1a Comisi6n Nacional de Energta

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Gg Panam& ve un futuro en e7 cual, tanto por inieiativa pé-
biigay coma Le priveda, las fuentes nuovas y renovables jos
gardn un papel interesante en la oferta enetgética, para oi-
Yersiticar nuestras fuentes primarias de enersfa, 7 mejorar
la calidad de vida en las areas rurales del pate,

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Ing. Rann O. Argote

Ingeniero Mecánico-Electricista con un Master en Ingeniería

Eléctrica y Sistemas de Control en el Instituto Tecnológico y de

Estudios Superiores de Monterrey, México.

Ha ejercido la profesión desde 1965 en actividades de inspección, diseño, instalación y asesoría de sistemas electromecánicos industriales, Fue Director del Departamento de Ingeniería Eléctrica de la Universidad Tecnológica de Panamá, en donde hoy ejerce como profesor titular de tiempo parcial.

Pasa al IRHE como Jefe del Departamento de Energía y Tarifas en donde participa en la creación de la actual Comisión Nacional de Energía (CONADE) en la cual funge como Secretario Técnico. Dentro de estos organismos ha desarrollado y dirigido estudios

a

Tarifas y Costos de Energía Eléctrica; Balances, Pronósticos
y Auditos Energéticos; Fuentes Renovables de Energía y Planeamiento
Energético global.

Fue Presidente de la Sociedad Panameña de Ingenieros y Arquitectos
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COMMUNITY ISSUES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF RENEWABLE ENERGY
TECHNOLOGIES: THE CULEBRA EXPERIENCE

By

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San Juan, Puerto Rico

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NOLOGIES: THE CULEBRA EXPERIENCE

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AuSTRACT

This paper deals with an evaluation of the response of the Culebra Community to renewable energy resources. The effort was sponsored by the Science for Citizens Program of the National Science Foundation, and undertaken by an interdisciplinary task force of scientists from CEE that included a political scientist, an economist, an engineer, a regional planner and a social anthropologist. Early in the project a Community Energy Committee representing a cross section of the Culebra population was formed. With the help of the task force from CEER this Committee would provide the vital liaison between the task force and community at large needed to accomplish the purpose of the project. To develop the agenda for these workshops, 30 in-depth interviews were made to assess the level of information of the population on energy matters. It was found that there was a low level of information on conventional energy sources. Also evident were misconceptions about the wind turbine experiment taking place in Culebra. With this background information and the perceptions of the Committee and the task force about the Culebra situation, plans were made and six workshops were held dealing with conventional energy technologies, conservation and renewable energy technologies. At the end of the workshop phase, 150 interviews were made to evaluate the results of the workshops. The Community ox.

Pressed their views and preferences about conventional and renewable energy technologies. Through a last workshop with the community the Committee and the task force presented the options available for the Committee to continue to be involved with the community in exploring the possibilities for renewable energy resources. Finally the Committee chose to undertake a wind evaluation to assess the possibilities for the use of the resource. It would also undertake a citizens education program on energy conservation using a slide show to be presented by the Committee to different groups in Culebra.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The principal objective of this paper is to evaluate the response of the Culebra Community to renewable energy resources. This effort was funded by the Science for Citizens Program of the National Science Foundation to undertake "Community Workshops to Consider Prospects for Energy Self-sufficiency for Culebra Island." The reasons for choosing the area for the project were the relative isolation of the place, the amount of insolation available, the wind resource and the fact that there is an experimental windmill in Culebra. Since this was to be a grass roots activity, a Community Energy Committee representing cross section of the Culebra population was formed. The objective of the project would be accomplished by six workshops, with the community about conventional energy technologies, conservation and renewable energy resources. Prior to the workshops thirty in-depth, interviews were made to assess the level of information on energy matters and thus help in the development of the agendas for the workshop. As a final stage of the project 150 interviews would be made to evaluate the results of the workshop. Also the Committee would determine the ways in which it would continue to be involved in the development of renewable energy resources for Culebra.

CULEBRA

Culebra is the smallest of the 78 municipalities in Puerto Rico with an area of 28 square kilometers. Its 1980 population of 1265 inhabitants, represented a population increase of 72.84 during the decade, the largest for Puerto Rico. It is located at 18°18'N latitude and 65°18'W longitude or 31km east of the northeast coast of the main island of Puerto Rico and 41km north of Vieques, another outlying island-municipality, Culebra reaches a peak elevation of 196m in Montestina,

The U.S. Navy occupation of most of Culebra and its use as a target practice, occupies a central place in the history of the island, Colonized in 1881 during the Spanish era, a settlement named San Idelfonso was soon founded. The U.S. annexation of Puerto Rico after the Spanish-American War was later, followed in 1901 by Navy presence on the island. The settlement at San Idelfonso was moved to make place for the Navy, and the Dewey community, named after the U.S. Admiral, was built. A second development, Clark, began in 1944.

U.S. Navy's use of Culebra Island for target practice did not actually begin until 1940, Till the mid~sixties the Island was poor and neglected and did not share in the economic development of the rest of Puerto Rico. Opposition to the Navy presence and maneuvers became a growing concern of Culebra inhabitants and later a major political controversy. This opposition

intensified during the late sixties and early seventies and the *Culebra issue! gained national and even international prominence. This culminated With the cessation of U.S. Navy activities on January 1st, 1975.

Accompanying the concern regarding the U.S. Navy's presence in Culebra was a concern with the socio-economic development of the Island Municipality. Natural resources in Culebra, aside from scenic beauty and limited fisheries are almost non-existent. Average rainfall is rather low, thus accounting for a sparse forest cover and an agricultural sector limited to

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several hundreds heads of cattle. The remainder of the economic base consisted of a small fishing cooperative, government jobs and some commercial activity until Fomento, the Puerto Rico Economic Development Administration, promoted a manufacturing facility, Travencol Laboratories, for Culebra. The large number of jobs generated, both directly and indirectly, have contributed to high income and low unemployment rates by Puerto Rican standards. To meet the demand for workers, an immigration from other areas in Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands has occurred. This has caused a significant housing shortage in Culebra.

A sample of the adult population reveals that 518 have more than 8 grades of Schooling and that 16t have university education. ?The average family income In salaries and wages is approximate \$500 per month. Twenty five percent receive government aid to supplement their income in the form of food stamps fo social security benefits. An estimated 618 of the households own automobiles.

ENERGY PRODUCTION IN CULEBRA

?The U.S. Department of Energy has also taken notice of Culebra and it has undertaken a 200Kw-wind generator demonstration -- one of four sites chosen for the Mod-OA machine. The wind generator was. inaugurated on July 21, 1978. | The NASA/DOE project cost approximately \$1,000,000 and is operated by the Puerto Rico Electric Power Authority, which cost-shared with approximately 208 of the total,

The wind energy demonstration project met with a problem of faulty blade design. This limited the electricity generated to 54,5/0KwHy during its first Year of operation (July 1978-June 1979). After the blades were replaced with wooden ones in March 1981 the system picked up and 65,S50Kwiir were Benerated during the 1979-80 fiscal year. During 1980-81 the machine

generated, 288,150KwHr which resulted in a 47% availability factor. From July 1, 1961 to June 4, 1982 a total of 236,900KwHr were generated. This represents a total of 645,270Kwhir,

Normal supply of electricity is supplied through a submarine Cable 46Kv polyethylene vynil with 13,000Kva capacity three phase operated at 38Kv, The cable stretches from Puerto Rico to Vieques for a total cable length of 2 miles, The electricity generated in Puerto Rico (994) comes from burning imported oil.

Culebra's peak electricity demand is approximately 800Kw. The wind generator therefore supplies approximately one-quarter of the island's? peak demand and if operating, the total electricity load for Sundays. It should be noted that between the date of the inauguration of the project in 1378 and the NSF - sponsored Energy Workshops described below no attempts had been made to inform the community on the progress of the 200Kw demonstra~ fon project. Given the faulty blades, and the subsequent extended down time, 'a widespread view of wind generators as failures and the Culebra Wind machine in particular as @ source of community embarrassment took hold.

The existence of a 200Kw wind generator in Culebra coupled with the then-
Current national energy policy interest in developing renewable energy
technologies got scientists from the Center for Energy and Environment

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Research of the University of Puez
for Island energy self-sufficienc;,.

10 Rico Interested in Culebra as a snodel

CULEBRA ENERGY WoRKSHO

Several years back, the United States Congress and the US Department of
Energy were very interested in promoting the concept of island energy

self-sufficient as a paradigm for the adoption of emerging renewable energy technologies at the national and international scale to reduce dependence of foreign oil imports. Culebra, with its abundant solar insolation and wind resource, its small scale, and isolation, provided adequate physical and climatological conditions to explore the concept of energy self-sufficiency.

At the same time there was a Science for Citizens Program of the National Science Foundation whose objectives were to provide scientific and technical expertise to citizens and citizens groups so that they would better understand and participate in decisions on local or regional policy issues involving science and technology. Thus the situation seemed amenable for further exploration and the Center for Energy and Environment Research submitted Proposal to the National Science Foundation for the undertaking of "Workshops to Consider the Prospects for Energy Self-sufficiency for Culebra Island".

The project obtained \$44,000 in funding covering the period January 15, 1981-April 30, 1982. The primary objective of the project was for CEER to

Provide the community of Culebra with the requisite scientific and technical assistance needed for an understanding of the technological, economic and socio-political issues involved in the use and implementation of renewable energy technologies:

The achievement of this primary objectives was obtained through the following specific goals

(2) To increase the contacts of the citizenry of Culebra with the scientific community in a manner which demonstrates the importance and relevance of the natural and social sciences and of technology to issues of public interest i.e. the reduction of the dependence on imported petroleum through the Adoption of renewable energy technologies.

(2) To provide an experience of interactions between scientists, citizens and policy makers through a discussion of the energy future of Culebra Permitting the different categories of participants to set the views of each other. Such an experience is quite uncommon in Puerto Rico and can be transferred to other communities,

(3) To provide policy makers with information on community goals and needs with respect to the adoption of renewable energy technologies. The survey results and the findings of the final report provide the information needed to meet this goal,

The project consisted of three phases: Planning Phase, Workshop Phase and Project and Policy Evaluation Phase. Five participants from the Center for Energy and Environment Research constituted the task force for the project.

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This interdisciplinary task force consisted of an engineer, an economist, a regional planner, a community anthropologist and a political scientist.

A Community Energy Committee (CE) composed of Culebra citizens was chosen by the community itself. Although the size of the CEC fluctuated throughout the project, on the average there were six members including the Hon. Anastacio Soto, the Mayor, who served ex-officio. Ramón Feliciano, the former Mayor also served on the Committee. The responsibilities of the Community Energy Committee would be to oversee the whole effort. More specifically they were to plan the workshops, to hold a final evaluation, workshop and adopt an independent course of action for future activities of the Committee.

For all these activities the Committee counted on the task force members.

4.1 Planning Phase

During the planning phase of the project the Community Energy Committee was organized. Its duties would be the following: (a) to plan and hold five Workshops to involve the community, scientists, and government: (b) to help ascertain the perceptions of Culebrans about the energy problem and their information level on the subject; (c) to hold the last workshop to evaluate the effectiveness of the project and to formulate recommendations for future action by the Committee.

with the advice of the task

As part of the Planning Phase ~ thirty interviews of Culebra citizens were undertaken to obtain information on the community's energy Use patterns the knowledge about alternative energy technologies and the opinions reger

Strategies most viable for the solution of Culebra's energy pro-

?The main findings of the interviews included:

GQ) High costs were perceived as major problems in the area of electricity and gasoline;

(2) Water shortage took priority over energy problems as areas of community concern;

(3) Limited knowledge and great skepticism over past community efforts to deal with Culebra's problema:

(4) Perception that the government, even though ineffective, has the main responsibility for taking action to solve community probleme

(5) Widespread Knowledge of wind as an electric energy source, even though most interviewed saw it as a failure; ?

(6) Surprisingly little knowledge about conventional energy sources;

(1) Perception of wind and solar energy as the most viable alternate energy ?sources for Culebra

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(8) A substantial majority expressed interest in rece
mation about alternate energy sources;

(2) {two thirds of those interviewed have already taken steps to conserve energy:

(10) Substantial Interest in obtaining techniques.

fore information on energy conserva-

DEEGE, this Knowledge about the perceptions and of the energy problems and the information levels of the citizenry, an assessment was made of the prospects for community action efforts in Culebra. It was found that the socio-political environment within which the project was developed was rather negative. There was a lack of grassroots civic action; & sharp political division, and a distrust of government.

Given background information and the interview findings served as a basis for the development of the agendas and the timing of the workshops,

4.2 Workshop Phase

Designed to fill the knowledge gap on conventional energy sources, the first Workshop has as its theme "Energy Production and Utilisation in Puerto Rico". Materials distributed included diagrams on conventional sources. Sources: also a 30-minute film was shown and three speakers trained need

Convontingefets of energy in Culebra. ?Emphasis was given to explaining ake
SeysMenal enerey technologies. Attencance to this activity averages fren
23 fo 30 Persons, setting the pattern for the attendance to the seen yt ae
Rorkshops. The Community Energy Committee thought that ?the ember ng
Ficassin mains, a8, high, ?by Culebra standards: There ?was ?a lively
Giscussion period and the ?participants expressed a desive? to ?know Oey
about renewable energy techologies, especially about the wind forbs.

dhe moet igh, Gonducted at the workshop revealed that (1) direct mailing was
se cmaat sffective mean of informing the citizens about the sclvitye Gy hine
Tee weted| the ost: (3) a substantial majority found the workstops usciat
and were willing to attend the next ones,

Gog Becend workshop was on wind energy and it included a detailed presenta-
the cdpinstttf member of the Puerto Rico Electric Power Authority Gadisine

Sebcrinea al mature, A. speaker from the Puerto Rico Oifice of Exergy
described the different wind turbines available for ?residectist nec.

sontierity of the participants in this activity had not been to the previous

Bogkghop but they appeared to posses greater prior knowlecge akece whe
subject.

ing {hird workshop was about biomass and bioconversion. The first lecturer
TAS ANE OMREE of a cattle manure digestor who described his experlense ain
Rie sreeke digestion, The fact that he had a scale model greaty fecilitna
durereamentation. "The other lecturer talked about biomass snd decribed tea
Sifferent ways to get energy from it ranging from wood burning to aicofat

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distillation. The fact that there were many sludents among the participants
contributed to an interesting questions anc answers period.

The fourth workshop was devoted to solar energy and to energy conserva~
tion. A lecture wat given on the ?ature of soiar a water heaters and the
steps involved in their construction ?a detailed booklet on the subject was
distributed), The same lecture included the description of a desalting unit,
an artifact in which fresh water is taken out of sea water by evaporation.
On energy conservation there was a conference op pessive cooling of struc=
ture (cooling without mechanical hip) and another conference on energy
conservation in the use of automobiles end home appliances.

The fifth workshop which dealt with the prospect for increased energy self-sufficiency for Culebra was held in a somewhat different format.

Members of the task force explained briefly the changes occurred in the energy self-sufficiency concept, as an expressed policy of the US Congress, the US Department of Energy and changes in the Science for Citizens Program of the National Science Foundation. The results of the 1980 presidential elections brought about a change in energy policy, reducing the government support in the search for renewable energy resources. However, the need for Culebra to press for solutions was emphasized specially now that a ceiling had been put to the subsidy for consumers of less than 425 kilowatt hours of electricity per month. The members of the task force stated that the Center would be willing to help financially to the extent that project funds permitted, and that it would be willing to cooperate with the Committee after the completion of the project.

The task force and the Committee went on to describe to the workshop participants the possible future activities that could be undertaken by the Committee :

(Q) Since energy conservation was a well received topic during the work-

shop and since there is always room for more energy conservation, the Suggestion was put forth to develop a citizens education project. As part of this activity, brochures could be prepared dealing with passive cooling for energy conservation in existing and new structures.

(2) As evinced by the existence of a wind demonstration project in Culebra, the wind regime seems to have potential as an energy source. The suggestion was made to evaluate wind energy potential in various parts of the island.

(3) The availability of substantial amounts of insolation provides favorable conditions for the use of solar water heaters. Thus a workshop on the construction of solar water heaters was suggested.

(4) The scarcity of fresh water in Culebra, coupled with the abundance of insolation lead to the suggestion of an assessment of the potential of solar Desalinationators to produce fresh water through evaporation. If the assessment proved positive, workshop on the construction of desalinationators would be held.

The workshop participants were divided in three groups where the alternatives were discussed at length. Each group reported its preferences back to

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the Committee, which in turn would assess them and hold 2 Gal trillow-wp workshop to lay down the future course of action

4.3, Project and Policy Evaluation Phase

The first phase of the project, included a 130-person survey of the Culebra population and one workshop to discuss subsequent activities of the Community Energy, Committee. | The survey was designed to document the impact of [the] workshops on residents of Culebra and to provide a baseline data for the CEE for WHE JH the Implementation of community based. alternate energy Projects.

A sample of 150 persons was selected from the 1930 Electoral Lists of the Municipality of Culebra. | This source was selected because it provided the

most recent and accessible data, with the information on residence, and kinship patterns, it was then possible to select the sample based on the number of persons per household. This sample represents 180 households of approximately 508 of the total number of residential units as well as the target population,

The principal conclusions of the survey were as follows: (See graphs)

(2) The publicity used was highly effective in reaching 73% of the survey's

sample. In other words, three out of four households knew that alternative energy workshops were offered in Culebra. However, only a little of the target sample attended an average of two workshops. All but one of those that attended positively evaluated the workshop's content,

88% of the total population were interested in attending the next workshop, previous attendance advised caution, concerning these expectations. If future activities are to be planned that require widespread citizen participation, they should be organized mindful of work obligations. It is therefore suggested

that future activities be held in different work settings

(2), The Brest majority of interviewees feel that Culebra has energy-related Problems having to do with electricity, gasoline and propane gas. However, when asked to evaluate the magnitude of these specific problems in terms of cost and inconveniences, gasoline is rated as a very serious problem, Propane gas as a serious one and electricity as not too serious. This changing ranking may be due to two factors. First, large numbers of residents receive subsidies that offset having to pay the full cost of electricity. Second, the installation of the under-water cable has greatly minimized inconveniences and problems related to electricity-

(4) The interviewed population lacks basic information about alternative energy resources. Additional information is principally solicited in the areas of wind energy, oil, coal, and solar energy. Moreover, the interviewees were disappointed in obtaining additional information about energy sources, particularly information dealing with wind, ocean thermal, and solar energy, and responded very positively to having experimental alternate energy projects implemented in Culebra. They are of the opinion that these projects should be financed principally by the Federal government and initiated by government agencies.

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(5) The sample reported as having information about 4 variety of community action groups, but few were informed about the Community Energy Committee. The Committee will have to correct this situation and in addition deal with @ population that possess financial and planning responsibilities for such endeavor in agents or agencies outside the community

(6) Finally, the majority of respondents believe that energy should be conserved, and indicated that they personally have taken steps in this direction. Nonetheless, the overwhelming majority of the sample is interested in additional information about energy-conservation measures

There was a sixth follow-up workshop to discuss and decide upon the future activities in which the Community Energy Committee would be involved.

Even though the concept of energy self-sufficiency was not receiving support from the federal government the Committee decided to try to get support from local agencies towards this end. It was also decided to take the following steps that, although small ones, they would nonetheless constitute

steps in the right direction to try to ameliorate the energy problem.

Whatever the future may hold for wind energy in Culebra, the first step has to be a wind evaluation, which the Committee decided to undertake. CEER would provide two towers with anemometers and odometers; and advice the Committee as to their location for more effective wind speed measurements,

?The Committee also decided to go ahead with a citizen education program on energy conservation. In this respect the task force would prepare a slide show that the Committee would use in presentations to various groups in Culebra.

5. EVALUATION OF THE COMMUNITY'S RESPONSE

To understand the community response, it should be stressed again that Culebra is a relatively small island with a rather dry climate, ?This isa limitation for biomass and for hydroelectric power as energy sources. How= ever, the wind regime seems to be favorable for energy production.

?The formal instruments of the in-depth interviews and the survey question

naire and the informal observations obtained through numerous visits, meetings and workshops held in Culebra permit us to gain an understanding of the community's response to renewable energy. These will be used to evaluate (a) the community's knowledge on wind as an energy alternative (b) their understanding of the purpose of the success of the wind demonstration project and (c) their perception on the further potential of wind energy for Culebra.

The survey questionnaire revealed that 858 of those interviewed were familiar with wind as a source for generating electricity and was tied with solar hot water heaters as the best known alternative energy source. These percentages compared with 908 for oil, 808 for coal, 508 for nuclear, 558 for hydro, 358 for biomass, 35% for biogas, 348 for OTEC and 33% for photovoltaics, it can therefore be surmised that the existence of a wind demonstration project in Culebra had a direct influence in increasing knowledge regarding the potential of wind energy.

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Although the majority of those interviewed (56) identified the principal Purpose of the 200Kw wind generator as experimental rather than to generate additional electricity (298 identified it as such). The in-depth interviews reveals little knowledge on the nature or purpose of the demonstration project.

Given the operational problems with the experimental wind generator and the lack of community awareness efforts, it's not surprising that it was considered as a source of community embarrassment. The view was widespread during the beginning of the project and was ubiquitous in the in-depth interviews. The second workshop on wind energy permitted PREPA officials explaining the purpose and achievements of the demonstration, project to restore a sense of community? price to those citizens and community leaders who were present. Still, during the November 1981 survey, 61% of those surveyed viewed unfavorably the success of the wind generator. The reasons given for this response included (a) the very experimental nature of the Project in that certain technical problems had not yet been resolved (op that the wind generator is defective and simply does not function because it does not generate sufficient electricity for the island's needs

Somewhat paradoxically, given the community's negative evaluation of the success of the 200K wind generator as ENS, we evaluated energy alternative with greatest additional potential for Culebra. Over two-thirds of those interviewed favor it, compared with 50% or less for any other alternative. By. Renewable or otherwise. But there appears to be a loose correlation between the information available to interviewees, on one hand, and

technologies and their evaluation of their potenti

In summary, the community's response to the 200K wind generator appears ambivalent. The very existence of the project provides an indication of the potential of the wind resource for generating electricity,

Performance problems coupled with the lack of adequate public communication. Concerns on the wind generator have led to disappointment

6. RECOMMENDATIONS

The levels of knowledge of the community and its perceptions as to renewable energy resources and the wind experiment has been discussed. There is no doubt that wind is favorably perceived by Culebras. However, an analysis of the response of the Culebra community to the 200K wind generator reveals the need for public awareness programs targeted to explain the progress of similar demonstration projects in surrounding areas. This is particularly true for projects located in

fural areas, such as Culebra. In such cases, the community comes to be identified in the minds of outsiders as the site of the demonstration, Social Acceptability is important to avoid political barriers to further development of unconventional energy technologies.

Eig NSE-sponsored project on "Workshops to Consider the Prospects for Energy Self-Sufficiency for Culebra Island" provided the requisite community awareness program to accompany the wind experiment. Although not even Rational energy policy does not contemplate future solar and renewable demonstration projects, this may change. In this case we recommend that,

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(1) The technical and economic project's progress be

Accompanied by an evaluation of its

social acceptability.

(2) That the inhabitants of the surrounding community be kept well-informed on the goals and progress of the demonstration project.

In more general terms there are other recommendations we would like to make for future efforts dealing with the assessment of community response to renewable energy technologies under similar circumstances:

(Q) The technical aspects of renewable and conventional energy resources are not an easy subject for the average person. Since the level of information of the participants on energy matters is apt to be low and group participation smaller than anticipated, disappointment is likely to develop as the project evolves. A prior knowledge of this possible outcome should enable Project staff to take steps to minimize the effects of such disappointment.

(2) As in other group actions, the prime movers at the community level are always a few persons. To keep up the interest of this group, a systematic follow up is needed. | But care should be exercised so as to maintain the expectations of the local people at reasonable levels.

(3) _In dealing with isolated areas, the logistics for the project become more important. Adequate advance planning, coupled with a flexible attitude in the face of adverse results, are a definite plus.

(4) As soon as trends that may affect project objectives are detected, the local people should be informed.

7. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to acknowledge support from NSF Grant No. OSS-8015825. The authors are solely responsible for the contents of this paper.

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ENERGY RESOURCE ABOUT WHICH ADDITIONAL

1S WANTED

INFORMATION

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RESUME

SALVADOR LUGO

Center for Energy and Environment Kestoreh,

Caparra Heights Station

San Juan, Puerto Rico 00935

Telephone: Office (809) 767-032:

Home (809) 789-49.

BA Industrial Management MA Economics

Inter American University University of Puerto Rico

Master in Regional Planning, Harvard University

AREAS OF CURRENT INTEREST AND EXPERTISE

Regional energy and land use planning; energy demand and accounting:

economic base analysis

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Energy Planner

Energy Assessment and Analysis Program

Center for Energy and Environment Research

University of Puerto Rico

San Juan, Puerto Rico 00935

Director, Office of Institutional Research and Planning

Catholic University of Puerto Rico .

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Technical Director

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Puerto Rico Office of Energy

Santurce, Puerto Rico

Economist

Government Development Bank

San Juan, Puerto Rico

Planning Consultant

Puerto Rico Industrial Development Company

San Juan, Puerto Rico

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T Congreso Panamericano de Energia

PROGRAMA DE TRABAJO SOBRE. FUENTES ALTERNAS
DE ENERGIA DEL COMITE DE ENERGIA, DE LA
FEDERACION MUNDIAL DE ORGANIZACIONES DE INGENIEROS

Por

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Instituto de Investigaciones en Materiales

?Antonio Alonso C.

Instituto de Ingenierfa

Salvador Herrera ϕ .

Unión Mexicana de Asociaciones de Ingenieros

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?Agosto 1982

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PROGRAMA DE TRADATO SUDRE FUENT!'S ALTERNAS DE ENERGIA DEL COMITE
DE ENERGIA DE LA FEDERACION ?MUNDIAL DE ORGANIZACIONES DE INGENTE
ROS.

Dr. Manuel Martínez F.- Institu-o de Investigaciones en Materiales,

UNAY. ~ México

Dr. Antonio Alonso ϕ .~ tnstiwst> de Ingenierfa, &

(AM. = México

Yoxicana de Avociactones de Inge--

~ Mexico

Ing. Salvador Herrers

- ANTECEDENTYS

La Federación Mundial de Organizaciones de Ingenieros (FMOI)-

decidió a fines de 1979 crear en su seno un Comité de Energía para

estudiar la problemática energética a nivel mundial y promover-

el establecimiento

de mecanismos y la ejecución de acciones específicas

que contribuyen a resolver dicha problemática. Después de --

una encuesta entre todos sus miembros, la VIII Asamblea General de

FMOI, reunida en Buenos Aires, Argentina, en Noviembre de 1981, --

otorgó la Sede del Comité a México y eligió como su Presidente al-

Sr. Ing. Rodolfo Domínguez Calzada.

Como una de sus primeras actividades, el Comité de Energía ae
#inié un Plan General de Trabajo para el período 1981 - 1985. La -
estructura del Plan contempla cinco capítulos; los cuatro primeros
relacionados con la situación energética mundial considerada en --
forma global y el quinto dirigido a la definición de estrategias -

generales. En este alt

0 capítulo se definieron una decena de te~
mas que serán objeto de trabajos y estudios del Comité de Energía.

Uno de ellos se refiere al desarrollo de fuentes alternas de ener-

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efía, entre las que se incluyen }as fuentes de energía nuevas y rena
vables.

Por considerar que ésto es uno de los temas de mayor actuali~

{al impacto internacional, el Comité de Energía inició-

¿e inmediato acciones para 4elincar un programa detallado de traba~

Jo, que se presenta a continuación.

1. EwrRopuccron

La comunidad internacional est plenamente consciente y apoya el --

energética, la cual es concebida como el cam

concepto de Transición

bio ordenadgo, progresivo, intecral y justo, de 1a presente economia

internacional basada en el consuno de hidrocarburos a otra que

fan

capaz de aprovechar y disponer en forma creciente de las fuentes de
energfa nuevas y renovables.

B1 problema energético de 1a humanidad podría por lo tanto reducir~
se brevemente a dos dimensiones fundamentales, cada una de las cua~
les abre muchos otros frentes que podrían repercutir en la sociedad
@el futuro, tanto en lo que toca a los aspectos económicos y socia
les como a los estilos de vida.

La primera dimensión está constituida por la necesidad ineludible -
de cambiar el actual balance energético de 1a humanidad, altamente-
dependiente de los hidrocarburos, los cuales, cualesquiera pudieran
ser las hipótesis de reservas y costos asociados, tenderán a agotarse

Se dados los patrones actuales de consumo, que incluyen elementos -

de despilfarro, y las futuras demandas provenientes tanto de los

países desarrollados como de los países en vías de desarrollo.

---Page Break---

3

La segunda dimensión, que incluye también a fuentes cuya aportación
Porcentual en el balance energético puede ser pequeña, es de carácter
mucho más amplio y está relacionada con el concepto mismo de desarrollo,
especialmente con la necesidad de profundos cambios en --

las estructuras económicas futuras, basadas en las nuevas realidades energéticas, tecnológicas, financieras y monetarias enmarcadas dentro del Nuevo Orden Económico Internacional.

Durante los últimos diez años, la mayoría de los países han iniciado o fortalecido actividades dirigidas hacia el desarrollo de estrategias en materia de energía que permitan vislumbrar el futuro de las fuentes de energía nuevas y renovables. La toma de decisión

ha sido complicada por diversos factores, entre otros: la incertidumbre sobre la disponibilidad y los precios de los energéticos.

Esto + el poco conocimiento sobre la oferta energética nacional; la

poca precisión de los datos de demanda energética, tanto presentes como futuros; y la falta de datos técnico-económicos confiables sobre tecnologías relacionadas a estas fuentes.

La utilización generalizada de las Fuentes de Energía Nuevas y Renovables requiere del conocimiento de fuente, uso final y tecnología~

adecuada que los vincule. La determinación de la tecnología adecuada

implica la realización de diversas actividades: investigación, desarrollo y demostración, normalización, estandarización, industria

Lizaci6n, capacitaci6n de personal, distribuci6n comercial y movili

Est

zaci6n de recursos financieros actividades son fuertemente ~

interdependient:

y exigen un alto grado de coordinaci6n para su ~~

puesta en prictica.

a planeaci6n energ6tica deberd tomar en cuenta el costo de todos -

los tipos de energia, tanto convencionales como nuevos y renovables,

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4

También deberé

asi como la rapidez en el cambio de las tecnologías:

estar enmarcada en un enfoque adecuado de la planeación del desarrollo

económico global. Especialmente, deberé contemplar el creciente

costo y escasez relativa de los alimentos, así como el de otros in-

sumos necesarios: financieros:

sumos necesarios: financieros:

Dienes de capital, entre otros.

la planeación que se preocupa sólo de las fuentes que son económicas

03 centralizados puede cometer serios

hoy para los sistemas energéticos

errores de juicio sobre las proyecciones de la energía en el futuro

≠ las necesidades de acción en el presente. La potencialidad debe -
ser comprendida como una interacción entre recursos actuales y futu

ras, y necesidades de energía actua

ros, tecnologías actuales y fx

les y futuras.

El desarrollo, evaluación, transferencia y adaptación de tecnología

basadas en principios de colaboración internacional justa, puede:

ser elementos necesarios para encontrar una solución a la problemática

energética. La Federación Mundial de Organizaciones de Ingenie
ros, a través de su Comité de Energía, tiene un potencial enorme pa

ra ayudar a resolver los problemas planteados.

---Page Break---

IT, Estado Actual y Proyección del Desarrollo de las Fuentes de Energía Nuevas y Renovables.

Con motivo de la preparación de la Conferencia de las Naciones Unidas Sobre Fuentes de Energía Nuevas y Renovables que se celebró en Nairobi, Kenya, en agosto de 1981, se llevó a cabo un gran número de reuniones técnicas de expertos en diferentes especialidades. Como

resultado de este significativo esfuerzo internacional, se elaboraron

informes por cada uno de los grupos técnicos, los cuales a su vez se resumen en un informe de síntesis, el documento A/CONF.100/PC/42 "Synthesis of Technical Panel Reports".

En la continuación se presenta un extracto de este mismo documento, poniéndose de base para que en la FNOT se establezca el estado actual y proyección del desarrollo de las Fuentes de Energía Nuevas y Renovables.

En la primera parte se hace una breve descripción de las fuentes de

energía consideradas, y en la segunda parte se presenta una tabla comparativa de las diferentes tecnologías, sus perspectivas y aplicaciones.

2.1.+ ENERGIA SOLAR

La energía solar está disponible en la mayor parte de la superficie terrestre. La insolación que se recibe en una superficie horizontal es del orden de 1 kW/m² al mediodía, variando de lugar a lugar según la latitud, nubosidad, humedad, etc.

La energía solar es intermitente y variable y está determinada por las condiciones atmosféricas. Debido a estas características, algunas aplicaciones de la energía solar requieren de sistemas de respaldo de almacenamiento de la energía. Comparada con las fuentes convencionales de energía

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energía, pero puede ser concentrada para alcanzar altas temperaturas,

energética, pero puede ser concentrada para alcanzar altas temperaturas.

energía solar presenta una baja densidad

Se han alcanzado hasta 3000°K en hornos solares. Se puede convertir a energía mecánica y eléctrica con eficiencias razonables, del orden de 25% y 20% respectivamente.

La biomasa se define como toda materia orgánica de origen vegetal o animal.

Al considerar a la biomasa como fuente energética se puede indicar que por

medio de la fotosíntesis se fijan en las plantas 80,000 millones de toneladas de carbono por año

que equivale a unas diez veces el uso mundial de energía en la actualidad.

Se puede señalar también que el contenido energético de la biomasa almacenada en la superficie terrestre, es equivalente al de las reservas probadas de combustibles fósiles incluyendo carbón, y que la

energía solar puede convertirse a energía. Como una

» con un contenido de energía que corres

energía total de las reservas estimadas de éstos Glucos, sólo repre,
senta unos 130 años de fotosíntesis neta.

EL uso excesivo de biomasa, especialmente leña, en algunas regiones,
ha resultado en deforestación, erosión, inundaciones y asole de -
corrientes de agua. Algunos métodos empleados para incrementar la
producción de biomasa son por ejemplo las plantaciones de árboles -
de rápido crecimiento, tanto para usarse como leña, como para conver,
tirlos a otros combustibles por procesos termoquímicos.

ENERGÍA EÓLICA

1 de la

atmósfera por el sol, y las irregularidades de la superficie terrestre.

tre. La potencia de los sistemas conversores de energía eólica es -

Proporcional al cubo de la velocidad del viento, por lo que la velo

La energía del viento se deriva del calentamiento diferencial:

---Page Break---

7

La velocidad promedio del viento y su distribución en un sitio dado son factores muy importantes en la economía de los sistemas.

El recurso energético es muy variable tanto en el tiempo como en su localización. Esta variación implica que los sistemas de aprovechamiento de la energía eólica se pueden operar mejor en tres situaciones:

Interconectados con otras plantas de generación, desde una pequeña planta diesel hasta la red de distribución eléctrica.

Utilizados en conjunto con sistemas de almacenamiento de

energía tales como baterías o sistemas de bombeo.

Utilizados en aplicaciones donde el uso de la energía sea

relativamente independiente del tiempo.

A pesar de que la necesidad de sitios con buenos vientos es importante desde el punto de vista económico, no se debe sobre-enfatizar fuera de contexto con las aplicaciones particulares; se podrá requerir de un sitio con vientos fuertes (por ejemplo más de 5 m/s) para competir con la generación eléctrica convencional cerca de una central eléctrica, mientras que para regiones remotas pueden ser adecuados sitios con menores velocidades (por ejemplo 3 m/s).

2

GEOTERMIA

La energía geotérmica proviene del gradiente térmico resultante de las diferencias de temperatura en las profundidades de la tierra (más de 1000°C), y la superficie. En los yacimientos de vapor saturado de agua dominante, estos fluidos son extraídos a través de pozos de hasta 2000 metros de profundidad, y utilizados para accionar turbinas para generación eléctrica en instalaciones aprovechando este tipo de yacimientos.

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Las reservas geotérmicas se estiman en 14.5×10^{25}

lente a 8×10^7 barriles de petróleo, generalmente limitadas a regiones tectónicas, esperándose que para el año 2000 la capacidad instalada en centrales geotermoeléctricas llegue a más de 17,000 MW

Joules, es equivalente-

Existe otro tipo de yacimientos, los de roca seca caliente, localizados a 2.162 km de profundidad, que a pesar de tener la temperatura adecuada para su aprovechamiento en centrales eléctricas, no pueden

ser explotados con la tecnología disponible actualmente, siendo necesario inyectar un fluido para extraer el calor de la roca. Este recurso energético que está disponible:

los yacimientos de vapor seco o de agua caliente, tienen el potencial para generar del orden de 10^9 MW, en el futuro.

Existe en muchos otros sitios que los ya

= ENERGIA HIDRAULICA

1 de energfa renova

La energfa hidrdulica es una fuente convencioz
bale, adecuadanente desarrollada y conercialmente factible en un gran
nGnero de regiones y en una amplia gama de capac?dades, desde las --
muy pequeflas, hasta las muy grandes.

El desarrollo reciente de pequefas turbinas hidr?ulicas ha abierto -
nuevas posibilidades a las mini-centrales hidroel?ctricas, en parti-
cular. en as regiones nontafiosas con corrientes de agua.

Se estima que en estas regiones ?se encuentra un potencial de energia
hidrdulica comparable a1 de los grandes rfos.

Aproximadanente dos tercios de los recursos hidrdulicos mundiales --
t?cnicamente aprovechables para generar energia, se encuentran en -
Africa, Sudane?rica y Asia (excluyendo a la URSS), y sin embargo en -

estas Geas sólo se genera menos de una tercera parte de 1a energía hidroeléctrica del mundo. En general las limitantes para el desarrollo de 1a energía hidrodulica en estas regiones, están relacionados, geológicos, económicos, y de otro tipo, adecuados para llevar cabo proyectos

das con 1a carencia de datos hidrológicos, topográficos:

---Page Break---

9

para el desarrollo Sptino de los recursos hidrodulicos, así como con la falta de personal entrenado y recursos financieros.

Dados? los bajos costos de operación de las centrales hidroeléctricas,

en algunos casos es económicamente factible implementar proyectos de

almacenamiento por rebombeo.

DAS

ESQUISTOS ≠ ARENAS ALQUITR.

Los esquistos se definen como rocas sedimentaria orgánica sólida y combustible, que es prácticamente insoluble en solventes de petróleo. Los depósitos de esquistos se estiman en 47.5 x 10⁹ toneladas, y dado que las exploraciones para su localización son muy recientes, es muy posible que existan depósitos potenciales

S que contienen mate

explotables en muchos países.

A diferencia de los esquistos, la materia orgánica de las arenas alquitranadas sí es soluble en solventes de petróleo, pero dada su alta viscosidad (más de 10,000 centipoises), no fluyen de su reservorio como lo hace el petróleo. Se estima que los depósitos de arenas alquitranadas son por lo menos una y media veces más grandes que los recursos petroleros convencionales, lo que indica su potencial para la producción de crudo sintético.

2.7.- ENERGIA DE LOS OCEANOS

Los recursos del océano que pueden aprovecharse en la generación de energía incluyen los gradientes térmicos, las mareas, las olas y los gradientes de salinidad. Se estima que no pasan de 40 los sitios en el mundo que presentan las características adecuadas para la implantación de plantas para aprovechar las mareas, lo que limitará el impacto de su contribución a la oferta global de energía. La energía de las olas es mayor que la energía de las mareas, pero sólo es de interés en latitudes superiores a los 30°.

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20

Para aprovechar los gradientes térmicos del océano, se requieren sitios con una diferencia de temperaturas de por lo menos 18°C entre las aguas superficiales (0-100 m) y las aguas profundas (900-1100 m), además de

características adecuadas en cuanto a

geomorfológicas y del fondo del mar, etc. La pequeña diferencia de

temperatura implica una eficiencia

de 2 corrientes marinas, condiciones

baja del ciclo hidrológico, con

La consiguiente necesidad de bombear grandes cantidades de agua -

de nar.

8.> ?TURBA

La turba es materia vegetal que empie:

lo que está en la frontera

a convertirse @ carbón, por

re la biomasa y los combustibles fósiles

les. Se encuentra en unos 50 países en todos los continentes. Las

reservas globales de turba se estiman en 7 x 10¹² barriles equivalentes de petróleo, o sea cerca del 50% de las reservas conocidas de gas natural, y su uso actual es el equivalente de 175 millones de barriles de petróleo al año.

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HE. Pstrates fa Apoyar et Bi.

Fuentes de Chergfa Suovus y Renovables.

s Cererates ps Folly ge les

Las fuentes de cacty

son todas las yates y regiones. las condicio

serollo tecnolSsiea, polfticas y culturates de Estas tarhign pres

nuevas y renovables no son ignnte. ate ah

ian wurentas difeceneia,

To, Tus estratesias para el Gera

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pueden ser plinte be gt oleoenta ?ts s wolicas «+

ietales de planificación unergétiva.

Por otra parte, el estado de desarrollo teeno 4

les fuentes tec

Mes no

rsfaouevas y re

. inifece, Tas inver

sinnes necesarias para su aprovechamiento @ificren cn Grdcnes de -

vagnitud, sus ventajas relatives son distintos seytin el aso final,

y los posibles problemas ecológicos, políticos y culturales:

El empleo masivo de energía tiene de sus ventajas. Esto hace muy conveniente

ver de su -

plantear estrategias específicas para cada triada fuente-tecnología-uso final.

La energía es elemento indispensable para el desarrollo económico, y las fuentes convencionales de energía, en particular los hidrocarburos no están geográficamente distribuidos de manera uniforme. Así, las estrategias de desarrollo de las fuentes nuevas y renovables tendrán objetivos diferentes para los países industrializados grandes consumidores de hidrocarburos, los países exportadores de hidrocarburos, y los países en vías de desarrollo importadores de energía. Revisando los programas de energía de

1

energía nuevas y renovables es visto en ellos como un posible mecanismo para la regulación del mercado de los

los países industria

dos, puede conjeturarse que el desarrollo de las fuentes de

rocarburos y que, --

por otra parte, lo consideran potencialmente una manera de reducir

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1s

Ja eregioute presiGa que ejercen los pafees en vTas de desursotto

sobre las energfas convencionates. fn otras palabras, 1c

industrializados consideran que on 1a medida en que se «

teenologfas je

vas y renovables, Jos precios de los hidrocarburos snfrivin menor

presi3n a la alza, y que cn 1a acdida en que sean los ,. Tacs en -

vies de desarrollo 1

sarialten

al aprovechamiento de las fuentes de energía mie-

Se que adopten la explotación de iets Cucates,

foram estos Jos que en bucaa parte pagucn Tos costos de detarrolto

wediante la irportación de tecnología:

fos de desuriotlo, sobretede para los no cypors

nres, as fuentes de caergfa mucias y renovables

Feprescutsn una alternativa, en algunos casos incluso la Gnica, pa-

ra alinear su proceso de desarrollo ccoawico.

Cualquier estrategia nacional, regional @ nuadial para desarrollar el aprovechamiento de tus fucntes de energfa mievas y renovables - debe contemplan Ja evaluacign de 19s recursos y necesidates, 1a cla, boraci6n de progranas de investigaci6n y desarrollo tecnolSgico, - la transferencia, adaptaci6n y aplicaci6n de las tecnologfas econ Micamente viables, la difusi6n de informaciSn, tanto intra sistema se ciencia y tecnologia como hacia 1a sociedad en general, y la formaci6n de recursos humanos mediante progravas de educaci6n y cn-trenamiento. Componentes crfticos adicionales de 1a estrategia deben ser los mecanismos para obtener 1a voluntad politica y los re-- cursos financieros necesarios para desarrollar las fucntes de cner-gfa nuevas y renovables.

La planeaci6n energ6tica debe ser el punto de partida para definir

las estrategia

para el desarrollo de las fuentes de energía nuevas y renovables. Esto no implica que mientras no se cuente con un programa o plan energético deben dejarse de lado el resto de las acciones necesarias para el desarrollo de dichas fuentes. La mayor

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parte de los países no desarrollados, @ incluso un hecho que de los industrializados, no han formulado aún planes y estrategias energéticas, y venos a integrar dichos planes y estrategias globales de desarrollo. Para formular dichos planes es necesario tener en cuenta los recursos, necesidades y tendencias, incluyendo estimaciones del suministro y demanda energética,

necesario preparar inventa

tuales y futuros según el uso final, que permitan identificar fíca

de acción para el corto, mediano y largo plazo.

La investigación y desarrollo serán parte esencial a

analizar los

estrategia para el aprovechamiento de las Fuentes de energía nuevas y

renovables. Típicamente las tei

de maduración largos (10 a 15 años más en adelante)

logfus enerséticas tienen ticzpas

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s acciones on esta

incertidunbre sobve cuál de ts nuevas y reasvables sed pa-

ra-cada país y región 1a más atractiva en el futuro, parece particularmente apropiado enfocar las estrategias de investigación y desarrollo deben estar dirigidos a crear una gama de opciones tecnológicas tan amplia como sea posible, a reducir los costos de las tecnologías disponibles, y a evaluar comparativamente a nivel de prototipo las ventajas y desventajas relativas de cada opción.

El acceso a la información, los mecanismos de regulación de transferencia de tecnología y la selección y adaptación de ésta, son aspectos delicados en los que, dados los distintos intereses económicos de los miembros de la comunidad internacional, será difícil definir estrategias que no sean las de nivel nacional, y 93 gional. Cada país deberá por tanto fijar sus políticas y estrategias en este sentido, aunque los esfuerzos por lograr consenso a nivel internacional no deben abandonarse.

afis de nivel re

La formación de recursos humanos capaces de desarrollar las fuentes de energía nuevas y renovables será factor decisivo del éxito de cualquier estrategia y debe entenderse como un proceso de largo plazo

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22

zo que requiere iniciar acciones inmediatas. Para los países en -

vias de desarrollo 1a formación del recursos humanos alta cate

pacidades es

Pebe, por tonto, recibir nn tra:

undamental y un proble

particularmente critica.

jeato preferencial en sus estra-

tegijs para el desarrollo de las fuentes nuevas y renovables. Los

programas de educación capacit

parte, aquellos en los qu

cin y entrenante son, per otra

lencote pueden evitarse weiter

nes de colaboraci3n regional © jatrncrnacional von nayer fecilidad.

1a voluntad politica es indivyessubte para el desstvello ve lus
fuentes de energfa s

vas y renuedles. Mientras estas favntes no

lones de subsidios, polfticas finan-

ciera, estfnulos fiscates, etc, con las cemenciorsles,

quienes tenan 1

dad de diversificar la base de suninistro eneryético, el desarrollo

de las fuentes nuevas y renovables se verá obstaculizado. Pero la

voluntad polftica no basta. La evalvación de recursos y 1 planea

ci6n, la investigaci3n y el desarrollo, lus proyectos de denostra-

ciGn tecnol3gica y econ3mica, y los programas de educaci3n, requie

Ten para su desarrollo 3xitoso de recursos econ3micos y financie--

ros. E1 nonto de estos recursos serf funci3n de les objetivos que

se persigan y, dado que estardn en competencia con tos requeridos

Para satisfacer otras necesidades, debern ser deter

dosamente y administrados eficaz y eficiente.

compitan en igualdad de cond

ajentras

enes 10 recom

ceesie

an la isverinneia y

ados cuida-

---Page Break---

22

4

Vv. conclustow

B1 estudio del campo de las fuentes alternas de energia como un pa~

quete integral presenta dificultades especiales. Su disponibilidad,

ain no cabalmente evaluada, propicia en términos generales sistenas

de generaci6n de energia de tipo distribufdo.

Las tecnologfas empleadas en su aprovechamiento tienen muy diversos

niveles de madurez; en michos casos, su competencia econ6mica puede

estimarse s61o bajo hip6tesis gruesas, por no contarse con informa~

ei6n suficiente. E1 niimero de opciones tecnol6gicas para cada una ~

de las fuentes es muy grande. Los niveles de inversión mínima requeridos para la explotación de las diferentes fuentes, y aún dentro -

de una misma fuente para cada tecnología, difieren enormemente entre sí. No hay consenso sobre la futura contribución de estas fuentes ~

en el marco de la oferta energética. Existen problemas de aceptación

social y de incompatibilidad entre patrones de desarrollo in-

dustrial seleccionados y requerimientos impuestos por el aprovecha-

miento de lagunas de las fuentes alternas de energía.

El programa de trabajo que el Comité de Energía de la Federación ~

Mundial de Organización

de Ingenieros se propone desarrollar en -

el campo de las fuentes alternas de energía, con la colaboración de

las 76 organizaciones nacionales de Ingenieros de todo el mundo afiliadas a la Federación, se espera contribuir a una mejor compren-

sión y evaluación de los problemas que su explotación conlleva y ~

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1982

Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

EL FINANCIAMIENTO DEL SECTOR ENERGIA EN AMERICA LATINA
PARA EL PERIODO 1980-1990

Por

Pedro Vicien

Consultores Argentinos Asociados, S.A.

Universidad de Buenos Aires

Sen Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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conTeN

TRODUCCION

DEMAND

Enerofa eléctrica

Petrsteo

carbén

Gas natural

Nidroelectricidad

Nucleo electricidag

Energia geotérmics

INVERS LONES

Sector eléctrico

Sector petrolero

Sector gas natural

Sector carbén

Sector alcohol

INVERSIONES ToTALeS

FINANG LAMIENTO

externas

Resumen

---Page Break---

2 san

?ABSTRACT

El autor, basindose en los resultados de

una investigación realizada para el Ban
co Interamericano de Desarrollo, presen
ta los resultados estimados para las ne~

cesidades Financieras del sector energía

de América Latina en el período 1980-90.

The author, based on the results of 2 ~
research made for the Interamerican De

velopment Bank, presents the results of
the financial needs of the energy sector
of Latin America for the period 1980-80.

---Page Break---

INTRODUCCION

[L,Problema del financiamiento del sector energía en América Latina para -
los próximos años (1980-1990) es de singular importancia. La energía
tiene un papel esencial en el desarrollo económico de los países

en desarro

El desarrollo es un problema central para América Latina pues su crecimiento=

demográfico demanda el ingreso en las áreas produc

dad de habitantes; la mayoría de ellos no puede trabajar en? ta

Porque como en la región el agro es en general un sector,

los empleos han de buscarse en industrias ©

Sector Industrial cada puesto de trabajo requiere inversiones que se. precede

lo que hace un promedio de inversión de

US\$/año @ 240 x 109 US\$/año para un nivel de 4.000.000 46 empleos

empleos. | Hay que considerar también que existe un desempleo estructural y

empleo y un franco desempleo en muchas regiones.

América Latina mantendrá en las próximas décadas hasta el fin de siglo, un

ce cheness Cemmarético det 2.65 8 se la población económicamente activa. Esa
fe levada crecimiento incide sobre las necesidades financieras globales =
{ANE para satisfacer las de crecimiento industrial, abastecimiento de sge~
Ecosistemas como para las de tipo no productivo e.g. educación, recreo o
asistencia médica, viviendas, etc,

Restringiendo nuestro análisis al sector energético y en procura de visual =
Zar icibles serán las necesidades de financiamiento vamos? a considerar? or ing
seer" composición de los demands, luego las formas en que dicho demand? pare
Gria ser satisfecha, los costos de inversión para satisfacer \$ fin tanta
Os componentes nacionales © importados y su relación con las exportaciones,

DEMANDA

El análisis de la demanda requiere establecer supuestos de crecimiento económico para el futuro. Las bases del pronóstico fueron elaboradas con los datos oficiales de cada país. Sin embargo, la determinación de la demanda se ha hecho recurriendo a series que tienen en cuenta condiciones mundiales de actividad económica?

La ecuación de regresión utilizada es una ecuación tipo:

$$\ln Q_t = k_0 + k_1 \ln Y_t + k_2 \ln P_t + k_3 \ln I_t$$

De Demanda Y= Ingreso P= Precio t= tiempo

ko ki. k2 43 coeficientes de regresión

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los análisis realizados para el período 1960-1978 indican una relación bastante vigorosa entre el consumo de energía y el PBI. Es importante señalar que, los resultados, inducen a pensar en el ingreso per cápita como el activador principal del nivel de los consumos energéticos y a considerar que el precio tiene menos significación. Este hecho confirma la etapa de desarrollo en que se encuentra América Latina. En los últimos años el efecto del precio parece haber perdido alguna mayor influencia; sin embargo, las evidencias muestran que al consumo de energía eléctrica está generalmente vinculado con el ingreso.

Huasticidad-ingrese 1

= ajo aS Buje alto

Paisas inportadores de

petrsleo 138,9 222,6 2760 1,17 Aas

?exportadores de

96,2 211, 230,58 1,00 aon

?tel pera Aetrica

Latins 23541 4341 \$065 113 aan

ida como 1a relación entre el crecini

eneraia y el 0.

Puente: Estimaciones del 31D.

El cuadro 1 indica los resultados obtenidos para la demanda de energía en América Latina y las elasticidades respectivas en sus 408 países. Las cifras indican el consumo total de energía para |

Figura. En 1930 se trata del orden de los 4341 años a los 506,5 mtep comparados con los 235,1 mtep en el año 1978. Los coeficientes de elasticidad histórica de 6,32 para 1960-1978 han sido estimados con un tamaño de muestra de 6,63. Para los países importadores el crecimiento fue proyectado al 4 y 5,92. Los países exportadores tendrán crecimientos

del 6,887 y 7,88 según se refieran al escenario de bajo o alto

El coeficiente relativo

los países exportadores pasará del 41%

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---Page Break---

en 1978 al 45/48 % y los países importadores disminuirán del 59%

en 1978 al 52/55 % en 1990. Guatemala, Haití, Paraguay y la República Dominicana crecerán por encima del promedio de los países importadores, y entre los países exportadores México lo hará a un

Bueno, cifra ésta mayor que la correspondiente al promedio de los

El cuadro 2 muestra un balance consolidado de 19 demandas y suministros de energía para 15 regiones en el período 1980-1990 y las dos hipótesis consideradas.

La elasticidad de la demanda de energía-independiente para el 1980 considerado no se modificó en forma notable. Cuando la elasticidad refiere al producto bruto per cápita se observa que en los países importadores su crecimiento global será del 342% y en los exportadores del 22%, es decir, ligeramente mayor. El consumo total de energía llegará a 1.100 kgep per cápita que representa solo un 25% de aumento referido al promedio de 1978.

La intensidad de energía, es decir el consumo de energía por 1000 US\$ de PIB crecerá en 1990 a 630 kgep/1000 US\$. En 1978 comparado con los 600 kgep/1000 US\$ del año 1978, y los 2000 kgep/1000 US\$ correspondientes al mismo año en los países desarrollados.

Energía eléctrica

Antrica Lavina:

Capacidad (tw) Generación (Gun)

1978 nsw 281.057

1985 Supuesto bajo 113.532 433.502

Supuesto alco 116.980 487.824

1990 Supuesto bajo 255.362 582.178

Supuesto alto viens 743.007

Eestimaciones del 81D.

£1 cuadro 3 representa 1a capacidad de generación y 1a energia -
eléctrica generada en 60s escenarios, Se puede observar que en ?

---Page Break---

el escenario. nfs balp pl crecimiento se haré 2 un rita del 66
envel"nda ates S18, E'e<"eSoparnds SonPe/ScretTafeets MbeBifck
cl"B4 E para el periods 1960°1978, En el priner excenaris, fa ge
neración pasaré de 281.057 Gwh a 582.178 Gwh; en el mis alto lega-
F3'0 753,007 Gxnen 1350. Eleseenatto nis alto correspon 6 igs
Sroectativas enpresadas cficialmente por eade batty eehiens setae

Sintnicas optimisean,

1 coefictente de electrificactén posers de 1,2 en 1978 2 1,39-1,47
fn 1990,. dao que reflese y confirm te cendencts provoninatee ye
Coabién ?el estuerso realizado: en conservacian de encrena,

Desde et punto de vista de los valores de consum eléctrico per ca~
pita, se estime que en 1990 se llegar a 1.308-1.619 kwh part
de 854 kwh en 1978,

iro

satrica Watina: Producei n de energta en 1978

YsstinscTones para 1983 y 1990

(En willones de toneladas de equivalente en petr leo)

1978 1985, 1990

By Ate ajo aS

Peerdieo 24,0 43,6 393,1403,9 480,2

(cas natural 40,3 ?62,0 76,383,599,

carb n 16,6 25.7 30,0 tad

Widroelectricidad 8 40277 Sue ane

Energia geot rmica al 03 0,3 0s ONS.

Energ(a nuclear Bie 188 wa

Alcohol us siz 7k 8a

Total 31.4 463.1 5363 576.6 683,7

Ta Wao de 0,1.

Ruence: Estinaciones det 810.

El cuadro 4 refleja 1a producci n de energia de 'a regi n, proyec-

tada para 1990 segiin os dos escenarios. En su conjunto, la pra >

ducción pasará de 317,2 mtoe en 1978, 2 576,8 y 68,h mtoe en 1590.

Esta producción de energía está estimada para satisfacer:

Secciones de demanda con recursos provenientes de la región

as necesidades

---Page Break---

1.2, Petrdieo

La produeci3n de petr3ter ?endr3 un vigoroso crecimiento en los pa3s, los inportadores de pecevec (Argentina, Brasil, Colombia y Pera) que esperan exceder en mas ce! doole as cifras de 1978. Los paf- Ses exportadores proveer3n el 77% de la producci3n de ia region, Valor inferior al del 80 2 en el afo 1978,? Esta diaminuci3n prosor Clonal Se explica por las limi taciones adoptadas en la. praduec3n de Venezuela, Ecuador y Trinidad Tobaga, M3jico tendr3, por el = Contrario, un crecimiento, insortante

Quadro

Aofrica Latina: Minero acumulativo de potos pertorados a/

Mipseesis hipstesia

baja Bitsy

1973-1980 1981-1990) 1981-1990

Argentina 5.465 12.246 13.200

Bolivia 208 638 00

Brasil 2.097 3.975 6.000

Goleabie 533 2057 21400

Chile 390 767 Lease

Ecuador 26 400 720

Mexico 2.917 7.420 8.600

Pers 1.359 euro 51500

Teiniaad y Tobago 1679 1335 2800

Venezuela 6353 soe 107000

otros 60 ?500 500

eat 19.481 Pretrl 52.470

Promedio sual russ 4.020 4.770

TT HaeTaye pores de produccisn y de exploraci3n.

vent.

World O41 varios nuseros y estinaciones del 810.

Ene! cuadro § se reflejo el esfuerzo de perforaci3n necesario 08.

ra Negor a las metas. Se debers pasar de un pronecio de 2.435

pozos por afo (1978) a 4.030 y 6.770 respect ivanante.

Serd el pats de mayor

Esta tarea de perforaci3n que implica grandes inversiones, parece

---Page Break---

1h

haber inducido a 105 gobiernos a modificar las leyes y reglamentos para promover una mayor participación de recursos privados. Se otorgó a los extranjeros en tareas exploratorias y de producción.

De particular interés son los esfuerzos de Venezuela para desarrollar los hidrocarburos pesados de la faja del Orinoco que necesitó una inversión del orden de 17.000 millones de dólares de 1978,

carbón

La producción de carbón en América Latina pasó de 16,6 mtoe en 1978 a 41,1/44,8 mtoe en 1990. Los mayores aumentos de producción se realizaron en Brasil, Colombia, Venezuela, Perú, México y Chile.

Chile tiene una apreciable riqueza y variedad de calidades, y

que se convirtió en un importante exportador en 1985.

A pesar de la disponibilidad existente y del desarrollo previsto, ~
@I carbén no tendré todavía una participación que refleje esa eit. =
Gunstancia. Otro inconveniente para la utilización del carkéa oF
a falta de familiaridad con su uso,

2s natural

Le mayor producciGn de petrSieo aumentaré las disponibilidades de =
995 asociado con la explotación de petrleo. Dicho disponibil ided
Se verd increnentada en razén de lor esfuerzos para dismimitr el =
95 ventado a la atrisfere. De la cifra de 1978 de 40,3 moe se
Negaré 2 83,5 en 1990 6 9 99,9 mtor segin el escenario tonado en ?

Proporcionalmente el gas aumentaría su producción a una tasa mayor que el petróleo. Existen grandes yacimientos de gas natural = e importancia y Argentina podría pasar de importador de gas natural, = tal exportador neto del fluido » Uruguay, Brasil y Chile o en forma de LNG a otros mercados. México y Bolivia también serían exportadores de cantidades importantes.

Hidroeléctricas

Gran parte de la electricidad consumida en la región provendrá de - Fuentes hidráulicas; de 14,8 mtoe en 1978 llegará a 36,4 y 42,2 mtoe en 1990. En el conjunto su participación pesará del 50 por

1978 al 60 por 100 en 1990. El crecimiento de esta fuente se hará aun ~

citm de 7,6 % y 9,1 % respectivamente, valores estos mayores que los del crecimiento de la electricidad anteriormente mencionados. De esto se infiere que la electricidad de este fuente sunentard a participaci3n relativa.

Todos los pafses con recursos hidricos tienen planes pars desarra, Marlos con preferencia.

2

---Page Break---

1.6.

Sélo Arsentina, Brasil y #jies tienen planes paca e) desarrollo nuclear; Argentine com su l sea de uranio natural, Brasit y Hej ico con uranto enriquecida. ?1 cessrotlo de esta fuente permitirs cubrir el 5,7 4, 5,3? de la yroduceign eléctrica ioeis el aha 1990 habiends partido? ae uns eitra Je 05°"

Energía geotérmica

Esta fuente de enerofa tiers desarrollo, en América Latina, en Méjico y El Salvador. Se espera que Bolivia, Costa Rica, Guatemala y Nicaragua se asocien a ese grupo inicial antes dei tin de la década 90 que en conjunto |ieguen« producir alrededor de 5,500 Gwh o se9 = lin poco wens del | Ede los necesidades de 1a regida.

WVERS1ONES

Las estimaciones deben ser corregidas en forma continua, pues muchas de ellas están basadas sobre datos en moneda local y se actualizan con la inflación en la mayoría de los países. Sin embargo, al expresar todos los valores a dólares de 1978, parte de esa incertidumbre queda anclada, aunque de nuevo aquí se presenta el problema de la propia inflación de la moneda norteamericana.

Otro factor difícil de apreciar es el efecto de la recesión en los precios de algunos bienes de capital que afectan las correlaciones con referencia a la moneda estatal:

Además, prácticamente sólo en el sector eléctrico es posible encontrar planes detallados en la mayor parte de los países. Los otros sectores energéticos no gozan del mismo grado de planeamiento y la información ofrecida es fragmentaria.

Afectos de obtener las cifras de los componentes locales y extranjeros de 1a inversión se estiman, en cada país, la posibilidad de la participación de la industria local en los proyectos. Dada la magnitud de los programas, dicha posibilidad es un objetivo a lograr y presuntamente posible con acuerdos de transferencia de tecnología.

Las inversiones calculadas no incluyen valores para desarrollo de fuentes no convencionales excepto el alcohol. Tanaoco incluyen las necesidades para sustitución de un combustible por otros, ni para conservación de energías. Hay razones para ello, las inversiones antes mencionadas son una parte menor frente al total considerado, su nivel es incierto y no existen referencias confiables.

---Page Break---

Escenario de

?generación, 90

hase

= Teenie

fuadro NY 6

América Latina: Capacidad de potencia eléctrica_y.

fuelle y por oas ϕ inversfones requeridas 1980-1990

N= Wuclear y G = Geotér

alto crecimiento

inversiones

1980-1990.

(106 uss de 1978)

Bs

---Page Break---

Fuente: 810

23100

Inversiones

1980-1990

(308 Uss de 1978)

---Page Break---

snirico Latina: Capacidad de potencia eléctrica_y

?generación, por fuente y por país © inversiones requeridas 1980-1990

Excenario de bsjo ereciniento

Inver

1980-1990

(108 5s de 1978)

fae Ye ew

3 a ?a

1 = Widro; T = Térmics

Fuente: 810

N= Nuc

© = Geotérnica

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cuadro NY 7

Cont inwactéa

1980-1990

(108 ss de 1978)

1/ b= Hidro; T= Térmica; N= Nuclear y G = Geotérmica

Fuente: B10

a1.

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22

2.3.

Sector ?

Las inversiones del sector energía eléctrica son las que ofrecen na
Yor certeza dedido a 13 exser'encia acumlada en el BID y en el Sep
co Mundial, a ta pudlicides de las ti 7

tundiai y a los datos de consultores o fabricantes de equipos Lee

datos 6 y 7 dan las inversiones para las hipótesis de alto y base

crecimiento respectivamente=

Sector petrolero

Las inversiones en el sector petrolero se han dividido en dos amplios

campos: el de la exploración, desarrollo y producción, y el

del transporte, la distribución y la elaboración

Las inversiones en exploración-desarrollo-producción fueron estimadas

estableciendo vetas comparables con las reservas tradicionales

de cada país. A ese efecto se tomó como bases relaciones reservas

Producción del año 1978/75.

Los datos acerca de perforaciones necesarias, profundidad y productividad

fueron tomados de datos históricos. "Se asumió que no podrían

aparecer yacimientos gigantes.

Los costos de perforación fueron estimados para cada país y se encontraron

variaciones de 400.000 US\$ a 3.900.000 US\$ para cada país =

Seos costa afuera. También se estinaron les inversiones pars pros
peceidn y exploraci6n en paises sin recursos pecroleros en los Cu
les debertan realizarse esfuerios mucho mis considerabies,

Las inversiones en claboraci6n reflejan los costos que resultan de
insformar destilerias existentes a eayor conversion, para flex!

Vizar la producei6n de destiledos

Las inversiones en transporte y almacenamtento se aprec
ja base de planes oficiales

ron sobre

Sector gas natural

No se estimaron inversiones en perforaciones para gas natural pues en América Latina, la mayor parte proviene de gas asociado,

\$610 fueron computadas las inversiones correspondientes a plantas = de tratamiento de gas, 2 gasoductos con sus plantas de compresión y

a distribución. La base para las estimaciones del conjunto, fue el

estudio de los proyectos conocidos. Los principales proyectos, fueron los de los gasoductos en Argentina y Bolivia a través de la distribución en este último país no fue computada,

Potencialmente, las inversiones en instalaciones para gas natural ~
podrían ser mucho mayores. No se han tomado en cuenta proyectos, de
gasoductos desde México o América Central, o de gasoductos y plan =

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2.4,

2.5.

tas para la exportación de LNG en Colombia.

Sector carbón

La metodología fue similar a la utilizada para petróleo y gas natu
ral

Sector alcohol

se han considerado sólo cifras correspondientes a Brasil

INVERSIONES.TOTALES

El cuadro 8 da un balance consolidado de todas las inversiones del Sector energía para el período 1980-1990. Dichas inversiones son de 2 261 x 10⁹ US\$ de 1978 para el escenario bajo, y « 282 x 10⁹ US\$ de 1978 para el escenario alto, con una inversión anual promedio de 22 226 x 10⁸ US\$ (1373)

Si esos valores se calculan con un 7.8 de inflación para el período 1980-1990, los valores en dólares corrientes durante el período serían de 2 435 y 525 x 10⁸ dólares corrientes durante el período.

El cuadro 6.4a muestra los valores estimados para la componente externa de 139 x 10⁸ y 164 x 10⁸ US\$ respectivamente, según sea el escenario elegido.

El sector eléctrico absorbe casi el 50% del total, el petróleo el 30% y el gas natural el 15%.

El sector petrolero requiere 98 x 10⁹ y 117 x 10⁹ US\$ (1978) de los cuales 18 x 10⁸ y 18 x 10⁸ US\$ (1978) corresponden a la exploración. Para los países firmantes de los acuerdos, la inversión necesaria es una modesta suma de 562 x 10⁶ US\$ (1978), cifra que muestra la prudencia de las hipótesis de inversión.

EINANCAMLENTO

De acuerdo con estudios realizados por el Banco Mundial para el conjunto de los países de desarrollo, las inversiones del

Sector energético alcanzan alrededor del 10 % de la inversión total.

Asumiendo que esta oscila entre el 15 y el 25 % del PIB, se obtienen para la inversión en energía valores entre el 1,5 y 2,5 %. En el caso de América Latina, este valor llegó a 3,3 % al final de la década. Es de hacer notar, sin embargo, que la inversión anual alcanza valores de 22 y 26 % de la inversión total

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Tw ope

ol

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Conviene volver a recordar que cada kW instalado requiere inversiones adicionales en usuarios del orden de 4 a 10 veces la inversión por potencia instalada. Esta consideración es válida para casos tradicionales de plantas térmicas. En el supuesto de plantas nucleares o hidroeléctricas, la inversión requerida es proporcionalmente

Hay que aclarar que éstos son grandes números y que su uso sin referencias puede conducir a errores.

La necesidad de divisas para importación de equipos es de 12,60 y 14,9 x 10⁹ US\$ (1978). Esta cifra representa más de un tercio de los ingresos de América Latina por financiamiento externo, en 1978. Los valores mencionados exceden los compromisos financieros de ~ fuentes públicas y privadas para proyectos de energía en el conjunto de los países en vías de desarrollo.

Otro aspecto a considerar es la necesidad de divisas

para importaciones de petróleo que pasaron de 9,2 x 10⁹

23,7 x 10⁹ (en US\$ de 1978)

66 8 de! PEN al Final de lo década.

Si acumulamos los valores de 1a import:

componente externa requerida para? | evs

16m de combustible con 1a

adelante los proyectos de

energía, se necesitarán 413 y 467 x 109 (US\$ en 1978).? Esta cifras

es en realidad el 6 % del PBN de la región para el mismo periodo.

El financiamiento de tan altas cifras es en sí mismo un formidable

problema, no sólo por la magnitud de los valores sino por lo que ~

Significa el esfuerzo de movilización de recursos técnicos, econó-

?micos y humanos.

Si el problema del financiamiento presenta dificultades, et no to-
grar tas metas deseadas incidirs en forma negativa tanto en el pro,
Eeso de crecimiento económico com en el bienestar de los pueblos:
Si, por ejemplo, s6lo fueran alcanzadas las metas de producci3n de
Petr3leo, GN y carbn en un 75 % para mantgner la actividad econ3-
mice deseada, se deberian importar 2×10^9 t de petr3leo adiciona.
Tes con un gasto de divisas de 2×10^9 (USS 1978)

Una premise fundamental es la de que el desarrollo de los recursos
fenerg3ticos debe ser pagado por los usuarios de la energia,
Dado el alto nivel de inversi3n requerido es necesario que el sis-
tema genere el mayor ahorro posible y a mayor ve'ocidad que de cos,
tonbres

Tradicionalmente, el sector eléctrico ha sido capaz de crear recur
505 importantes, tanto a través de la tarifa como por medio de suB,
del gobierno. La inf y diversas posiciones por feicas

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faa.

han retrasado la actualización de los precios del servicio, por lo

que no siempre el costo de inversión ha sido suficiente. Este vor

Falta de inversión en el país, pero igualmente existe una creciente comprensión
de la necesidad de obtener fondos genuinos.

En otros sectores, la situación es tal vez peor y los recursos de
Financiamiento han sido, en proporción, menores. Esto vale para el
Sector petrolero, dominado por las empresas oficiales, donde las
tareas esenciales de exploración y desarrollo han sido postergadas
a pesar de su vital necesidad.

Con referencia al endeudamiento aceptable para la empresa es razo-
nable admitir el 50% y en casos de excepción, mayores valores.

Esto muestra la necesidad de poder acceder a fuentes de fi-
nanciamiento externas en la región, en cantidades inusuales.

Las fuentes oficiales de financiamiento internacionales no podrán al-
canzar los niveles requeridos de inversión y deberán ser sustituidas
por el financiamiento privado.

Las inversiones extranjeras privadas podrían concurrir al financiamiento del sector en áreas específicas como la de los hidrocarburos, sobre todo si el país tiene suficiente potencial como para pronosticar exportaciones

La participación de bancos comerciales privados extranjeros tendrá que ser muy activa, especialmente en proyectos bien estudiados y que muestren retornos suficientes para el capital,

2 componente interna de los proyectos deberá ser financiada a través de tarifas y también mediante la creación de mercados internos de capital que pudieran atraer el ahorro de los países,

los países exportadores netos de petróleo se encontrarán en la situación de poder financiar su desarrollo en mejores condiciones.

La inversión en exploración merece un párrafo aparte. Lo mismo
El fin de las pautas legislativas de muchos países ha permitido
atraer inversiones de empresas extranjeras en el campo petrolífero.
Es de esperar que esta política continúe. Países con potencial de
fuerza, tales como Argentina, Barbados, Brasil, Chile, Colombia,
Guatemala y Perú, han tenido éxito al obtener participación
extranjera en su desarrollo. Sería interesante que ello au ©

era originar también la participación de capitales nacionales «

asociados

Para otros países, donde existen posibilidades de hallazgos de pe-

Eréleo, 1a obtención de inversiones en el sector exploración es =
grivica pero, mecanismos de ayuda oficial extranjera, pueden ser
desencadenantes de desarrollos substanciales,

En el desarrollo de la actividad exploratoria se encuentran facto~

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res que tienden a disuadir, tales como

1) Falta de conocimiento geológico de formaciones favorables.

2) Desinterés de las fuentes con recursos financieros y técnicos
para explorar áreas en las que ya hubo trabajos previos no com

3) Políticas restrictivas de gobierno con respecto a participación extranjera e historia pasada desfavorable en las relaciones entre gobierno y compañías petroleras extranjeras.

A estos Factores se agregan actualmente 19 coyunturas de producción mundial, para algunos transitorias. En los últimos tiempos se ha desarrollado una vasta gama de instituciones financieras con programas destinados a ayudar al desarrollo energético, no solo en el área de los proyectos eléctricos sino también en

adversa de ex-

El Banco Mundial, tradicionalmente financiador de proyectos eléctricos,

ha agregado un nuevo programa para el sector energía. A nivel mundial

Dear oooooo eer tat ae ee

Tor que deberfo novilizar Inversiones de 57 x 169 US\$. OPEP het

crear un fondo especial con recursos de hasta 10° US\$ destinado al

desarrollo de recursos energéticos de los países en desarrollo. =

estas líneas de política se aplican inéican que la ayuda principal

HE'pare los países menos desarrollados y más seriamente afectados

En nuestra área, El Salvador, Guatemala, Guayana, Haití y Honduras

han sido seleccionados dentro de la categoría.

Naciones Unidas tiene una propuesta para la creación de un Fondo ~

de Exploración y Pre-inversión destinado a promover estudios de -

producción de petróleo y desarrollo de fuentes alternativas. El

Fondo actuaría en países con un ingreso per cápita menor de 500

US\$.

En 1a región ya existe OLADE, y en la décima reunión de ministros

de ese organismo se aprobó un fondo especial para estudiar

los recursos energéticos, fondo que aún no ha entrado en vigor.

También siguen implementándose programas de asistencia técnica, tales

como los de México para desarrollar actividades en Costa Rica,

y los de Brasil para ayudar a la promoción del uso del alcohol.

México y Venezuela han establecido facilidades de financiamiento

para países de América Central y del Caribe que se destinan al fi-

nanamiento de proyectos energéticos a bajo interés y largo plazo =

Trinidad-Tobago ofrece Facilidades

CARICOM,

financieras 9 los países del -

En Venezuela se estudia un Programa Interamericana de Cooperación

Y Coordinación Energética que sería Financiado con el Fondo Inte

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Interamericano de Energía a ser liderado por los países de América Latina,

USA y España.

Pese a todos estos proyectos y realizaciones, el grado de Financia

miento oficial no ha variado en gran medida y se ha mantenido en

Resumen

Como un resumen de las necesidades de financiamiento se puede obser

var en las Fig. 1 y 2 un gráfico de los valores utilizados. Tales?

lores constituyen un ejercicio que puede ser arbitrario, pero que pretende ser objetivo

Se tienen en cuenta dos escenarios de acuerdo con lo expresado ante

Escenario de bajo crecimiento: P81 crece al 4,7 % por año, la energía al 5,23 por año.

Los requerimientos acumulados de inversión alcanzan $9\,241 \times 10^9$ uss.

(1978) 53×10^9 uss (1978) serán en moneda local y 189×10^9 uss

(1978) en moneda extranjera. De estos Gtines $158,6 \times 10^9$ uss

(1978) serán divisas y $50,7 \times 10^9$ uss (1978) en fondos externos. ~

Existen disponibilidades de 105×10^9 USS (1978) to eval Geja una

suma de 84×10^9 USS (1978) 2 ser Financiada por fuentes desconocidas.

(Fig.1). Se presume que en este escenario las fuentes privadas y oficiales mantienen sus niveles actuales y que el Banco Mundial ~

no duplicará su nivel de 500×10^9 Ss (1978) al doble para 1990.

Si se adopta una posición un poco más optimista y se hace la hipótesis

de un aumento de la capacidad de financiamiento en 2% por año

la disponibilidad será 119×10^9 uss (1978) y la diferencia a financiar

baja 270×10^9 USS (1978). ~

En el escenario optimista, el PBN crece al $6,0\%$ por año y la energía

al $6,6\%$ por año. Las necesidades de inversión serán de $262 \times$

10^9 uss (1978). La componente externa está formada por $163,8 \times 10^9$

US\$ (1978) en divisas y 59,0 x 10⁹ US\$ (1978) en fondos externos,

lo cual hace un total de 232.8 x 10⁹ us\$ (1978). fabrica ahora dis

ponibles 105 x 10⁹ US\$ (1978) y faltarían 118 x 10⁹ US\$ (1978). Si

de nuevo consideramos un escenario optimista, la disponibilidad cre

ce a 119 x 10⁹ US\$ (1978), y el faltante baja a 114 x 10⁹ us\$ (1978)

las cifras puestas a consideración muestran el tremendo esfuerzo

que significaría poder alcanzar las metas propuestas, sobre las cua

les se basan los proyectos de desarrollo económico de Ango

Se pone así en evidencia la necesidad de adoptar políticas

visadas en las políticas [de] explotación de recursos, to

mando a tiempo las medidas propicias para facilitar el desarrollo

de los programas ?conprone!

El esfuerzo necesario para obtener el financiamiento del sector -

---Page Break---

energía de América Latina para el período 1980-1990 excede por su
monto, lo disponible en las fuentes tradicionales. Los gobiernos
de América Latina y los dirigentes de las empresas de energía, de
ben intensificar, en forma constante e imaginativa, la búsqueda
de los recursos necesarios para que el déficit en el crecimiento
del sector no resulte en un retroceso al objetivo de obtener un mayor
bienestar general.

Es necesario también promover el uso racional de la energía y ob
tener reducciones significativas en el empleo de combustibles tra
dicionales.

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Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo. Leonardo Oa Silva.

¿necesidades de inversión para el desarrollo del sector energía y perspectivas de financiamiento para el desarrollo de la energía".

Resolución AG 6/60.

John P. Jankowski, Jr.

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November 22, 1981.

23

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?August 1-7, 1962

Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

ALTERNATE ENERGY RESOURCES AND TECHNOLOGIES,
FOR RURAL THIRD WORLD COUNTRIES

by

D.K. Sood

Sheladia Associates, Inc.

Riverdale, MD - USA

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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ALTERNATE ENERGY RESOURCES AND TECHNOLOGIES

For RURAL THIRDC WORLD CoUNTaE

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Riverdale, MO 20737

ABSTRACT

The development of alternate energy systems is vital for the survival of many developing economies. Conventional, centralized and capital intensive energy systems, because of limited availability and the high price of oil, the pollution associated with the burning of fossil fuels, the tremendous expense, environmental and safety constraints of nuclear power and

a variety of other reasons can no longer be counted to supply the needed energy needs. This is especially true for rural areas, where the majority of the developing population lives and which require such decentralized systems. There are at present many promising, practical, and economically competitive alternate energy options available for rural applications. These are primarily based on energy from the sun, wind, wood, methane gas and pedal power. Each of these options is best suited to a particular application. For example, the best application of wind power is water pumping, because of the intermittent availability of the wind instead of electricity production.

This paper will examine the various alternate energy resources and available technologies to meet the energy needs at the village level.

An analysis of the state of the art of available engineering designs and their limitations with appropriate recommendations for developing countries application will be made.

INTRODUCTION

The energy crisis of 1973 and subsequent price rises in imported oil caused a severe setback or delay to the already meagre and slow social and economic progress in rural areas of developing countries. Up to 70-90% of the population of non-OPEC developing countries estimated to contain 428 of the world's population inhabit these areas. Thus, nowhere, except in developing countries, the energy situation has become a critical problem. In developed countries, the problems have not been that acute, as their economies have continued to grow, albeit at a reduced rate, in the non-OPEC developing countries, the problem has been compounded due to their rapidly growing populations, growing urbanization, high unemployment rate

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and recurring food shortages, with the result that these countries face increasing difficulties resulting from imported energy. Most of these countries are exporters of minerals or agricultural commodities, which unfortunately historically, have seen subject to extreme price instability, making it harder to have a plan with

Firewood, charcoal, crop residues and animal dung account for virtually 21% of the energy used in many rural areas and for about 2 percent of total energy consumption in many developing countries. Africa is most dependent. Asia somewhat less, and Latin America least dependent on such sources.

Some 1.5 billion people, or about 75 percent of the population of the developing countries, presently use traditional fuels for cooking. Most of these people have access to firewoods, but between 0.5 and 1 billion use agricultural and animal wastes to fuel their cooking fires.

Energy for rural areas is very important, especially for agricultural applications, as developing countries are essentially agrarian societies. Agricultural sector is of primary importance in determining economic and social well being of their majority population which resides in these areas. Much of the phenomenal output of sericulture in the US and other major food exporting countries can be traced in large part to the massive application of power and fertilizer to the land.

Most of these developing countries are blessed with plenty of sunshine that can provide alternative sources of energy. For village level applications, there are many very promising existing technologies. These technologies are primarily based upon energy from sun, wind, water, wood, methane gas and pedal power. Being small scale and decentralized, they are ideally suitable for most village and rural applications. This, rather than technical inferiority was the primary reason these technologies were earlier passed over in industrialized countries using large power. Essentially, alternate technologies for rural needs are typically low in cost, relatively simple in construction and maintenance, made of materials available in villages and small towns and involve little or no environmental pollution or destruction. Moreover, in the long term, mankind will have to depend on

Renewable, principally solar energy and photosynthetic processes rather than
for diminishing fossil materials for energy and material needs.

Each of the alternate energy sources is best suited to particular par-
ticular applications. For example, the best application of wind power is
for water pumping or grain grinding because of the intermittent availability
of wind. Water tanks can provide storage for the water, which can be used
when no wind power is available. Solar energy, initially captured in the
form of heat, is increasingly being used for drying fruit, grain and timber.

The technology involved is simple, low cost and effective. The use of

small scale water turbines has provided much of the strength to the develop-
ment of decentralized rural industry and rural electrification as is the
case in China. In much of the rural third world, 80-90% of energy consump-
tion is in the form of cow dung, and wood and crop residues. Several cook-
ing stove designs that can economically save up to 60% of this fuel are

now available. These appear to be the best and lowest cost way to

immediately improve the energy supply situation in many rural areas while
Preventing deforestation. Biogas digesters on the other hand, not only
Provide fuel but also generate fertilizer and other by-products. using
digestion of animal and agricultural residues. Small scale gasifiers,
using wood, agricultural residues, etc., have been developed to supply
Stationary and mobile sources for power for severe applications.

Wind energy and solar crop dryers in India, are getting
a reintroduction, though now at a much broader scale, at the rural scene
Rural power uses human muscle as the most effective way while providing
transportation (the bicycle, rickshaw or pedaled cart), or as easily sovee
able short-term small power source: (threshers, winnowers, grinders, etc.)

Thus, there are a number of small scale, decentralized, low cost, technically and economically feasible renewable energy technologies available for rural areas of the developing world. Among these technologies are cookstoves, biogas, gasification, wind energy, solar crop dryers, and pedal power for the rural areas of developing countries

BIOMASS ENERGY

Biomass is a form of solar energy stored in a wide variety of plant and animal organic matter. It is the oldest and most basic resource for meeting human needs. The key process in creation of biomass = photosynthesis uses sunlight to convert carbon dioxide and water into organic energy products such as carbohydrates and oxygen. Forest materials and residues, grains, crops, animal manures and aquatic plants, and, principally, wood, are the resources of biomass.

Biomass can be transformed into liquid or gaseous fuels and petroleum substitutes, as well as heat, electricity and steam. Several biomass conversion processes are available, with direct combustion of wood being the most common. However, the shortage of wood, especially in rural areas of Africa and Asia, and to prevent rapid deforestation causing severe long term ecological damage, use of wood is being discouraged. In hillside areas, the removal of trees reduces the soil's ability to retain water leading

to ever increasing cycles of flood and drought in the lands below. At the same time, rapid research is underway to develop energy efficient cookstoves, better charcoal production systems, community wood lots and fast growing wood species. For the rural areas, a major emphasis in wood combustion

is on the development of wood stoves primarily for cooking, inefficient cooking methods and a lack of replanting of fuelwood trees, particularly in rural Third World have forced millions of the poor to spend a large part of each day hunting for fuel and carrying it long distances on their backs.

1, Cookstoves The existing wood stoves lose considerable amounts of heat energy during cooking. Several new wood stove designs developed recently, save this heat loss by modifications in combustion chambers, chimney, damper, wall and pot hole design. An efficient, simple, wood burning cookstove should not only confine the flame to the cooking area, but conserve the heat produced by minimizing heat loss to the surrounding

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areas, such as the walls of the fire container itself. Construction materials for this include clay, metal, mud and cement, all considered locally available in rural areas. Fuels include wood, charcoal, rice hull, and other crop residues. In the rural Third world, most of the energy used is in the form of firewood and crop residues gathered and burned in cooking fires.

Low cost, locally built cookstoves can greatly increase the efficiency of cooking, reducing the demand for firewood by up to one half. This would slow the rates of deforestation and tighten the budget of long distance wood hauling.

Matton, ez a1}(197e) surve:

the fellowing inexpensive deste. (13,

dapanese exrthenware? cooker, the fanado, fer use in ri

World, A cookstove consists of five essential components

severa? wood cookstoves and recommended

based on the very efficient ancient

areas of the Third

1) A five-gallon paint can and lid, with vent holes in the lid and the base of the can to contain the grate

2) Two ceramic blocks or stones

to support the grates

3) A ceramic grate to support the fire with holes or air passages to admit air for combustion

4) A ceramic Viner (or shell), to insulate the fire from the can

5) A metal grill or other structure to support the food being cooked

The ceramic components of this cookstove can be easily fabricated. As for this application, they need not be fired in a high temperature kiln.

The five-gallon paint can could be replaced by a simple sheet metal shell which, when rolled, can be used as an open-ended support structure. Many

other ?cookstove designs have been developed and are considered suitable

for domestic use (2,3,4,5). However, such designs have not been widely

assimilated.

2. Biogas Biogas, a mixture of gases containing methane, carbon dioxide, hydrogen sulfide and traces of a few other gases is produced during biological degradation of organic matter such as animal, agricultural and human wastes. Methane, which constitutes about 60 percent of the total gas produced, imparts the property of combustibility to the biogas, thus making it suitable for applications such as cooking, lighting, and running engines. In rural areas, biogas technology reconciles two seemingly conflicting functions = the use of cattle dung and other organic materials, both as fuel and fertilizer needs of rural Third world countries. The

left over sludge retains its nitrogen and both the useful constituents, namely carbon and nitrogen of the original material, are appropriately used, for fuel and fertilizer respectively.

A biogas plant has two main parts: a digester in which material for fermentation mixed with water is introduced and a gas holder in which the generated gas is collected. The digested sludge and the effluents come out at the outlet and collect in a pit. The digested sludge and the effluents can be used as a fertilizer either directly or allowed to drain

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into a drainage pit for later use.

Standard biogas plant designs utilizing concrete tanks, concrete inlet and outlet basins and steel covers serving as floating gas holders, considered suitable for rural areas, have been developed. Among the Third World countries, India is the leader and is carrying out extensive programs

of biogas research and plant construction. During the past 30 years, such institutions as the Indian Agriculture Research Institute (IARI), New Delhi; the Khadi and Village Industries Commission (KVIC), Bombay; the Gobar Gas Research Station, Ajmer; and the Planning Research and Action Institute, Lucknow, have conducted considerable work in biogas technology.

At the same time, known technology to produce biogas to satisfy a significant portion of rural needs is being approached differently in various countries by various organizations (6).

A typical biogas digester designed and developed by IARI, mostly using animal waste is shown in Fig. 2 (7). Available variations include those in biogas plant configurations incorporating design features particularly to suit various types of feedstocks, construction materials available and end uses of by-products that are produced. A more popular one among these is the Chinese design, which replaces the expensive and problem causing steel gas holder with a concrete dome. The methane gas is instead trapped below a ferro-cement cover, displacing the liquid slurry and pressurizing the gas. Moreover, since the unit is built completely underground, savings in land space and improved temperature conditions for fermentation are said to be additional advantages. However, initial studies by KVIC and the Ministry of Agriculture and Irrigation seem to indicate several problems

with the Chinese design. Among them are the lack of provision for breaking
the scum buildup in the tank, the necessity for using manual labor or a
pump for removing slurry from the outlet chamber, the need for periodic
opening of the digester to remove the sludge, fluctuating gas pressures and
occasional shortcircuiting of the feedstocks. In larger-sized digesters,
these problems are said to lower gas production by 30-50 percent.⁽⁸⁾ Even
in China large biogas units are generally said to be rectangular with flat
tops.

Depending upon the requirements of the fuel gas in rural areas and the
availability of animals, the capacity of biogas plants can be chosen.

Popular sizes of plants in operation in India are village model small-size
plants (suitable for a family of five or six), producing about three cum,
(200 cu. ft.) and usually obtained from three to five head of adult cattle;
medium size plants producing about nine cum. (300 cu. ft.) of fuel gas
requiring about 150 kg. of fresh dung/day, usually obtained from 10 to 15
head of cattle; large community-size gas plants producing about 30 cum
(1,000 cu. ft.)/day of gas requiring daily about 500 kg. of fresh dung/day,
usually obtained from 30-40 head of adult cattle. (3).

India has over 500,000 biogas plants of all sizes in operation. A
significant number of these are not in operation, primarily due to the
economics and sometimes due to technical, maintenance, and social difficulties.

Unfortunately, only modest attempts are being made at present to improve

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PULLEYS COUNTERWEIGHTS

SLURRYMIXER f 6 OVERFLOW

CHANNEL

et. I R 7

SPENT SLURRY PIT

BREAKER WATERTRAP

GAS HOLDER

DIGESTER

FIG. 2 BIOGAS PLANT (Indian Agriculture Research

Institute, New Dethi)

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ertorsance ard prospects <# bicgas veneration systers in India.

In order to taprove the prospe:ts for biogas generation in rura) areas

Of the Third Worle and to veatize :: ful potentia?, it 1s imperative that

not only the technical crot jens. ou: s)so the soci? ~conomic and organsza-

tional probles be dealt with ri ently. In Indizy as in severa?

countries elsewnere, there have instances where socio-cultural

factors, acting alone, fave resu'tec in stoppage cr fa! lure of @ biogas

progran?in a rure? area

3. Gasification Gasitre:

. Gasification refers to the thermal conversion of

biomass (or coal or petroleum) into gaseous products for heat, power and

chemical synthesis. The simplest method of this conversion is air gasification,

producing a low energy gas, well suited to direct heat or engine

applications, but unsuitable for pipeline use. Oxygen gasification, on

the other hand, produces a medium energy gas composed primarily of CO and H₂

which can be used in industrial pipelines for applications including power

and heat cogeneration, and chemical synthesis of methanol or ammonia. Steam

for hydrogen gasification are also possible, but external heat and energy

sources are required.

When air is used for biomass gasification, a low energy gas [typically

5,200 kJ/m³ (150 Btu/scf)] results because of nitrogen dilution. Though

suitable for operating engines or close coupling to boilers, it is not

economical to distribute this gas in pipelines. When oxygen is used for

biomass gasification, a "medium energy gas" [typically 10,400 kJ/m³

(300 BTU/scf)] is produced, and this can be distributed in pipelines to

be used for applications such as power turbines or to synthesize chemicals.

In principle, gasifiers can operate on any carbonaceous solid fuel such

as biomass, coal, or lignite. In practice, however, the satisfactory opera-

tion of any particular gasifier will depend on its design relative to the fuels used and, in particular, on the fuel density, moisture content, ash, fusion temperatures, particle size, etc.

The satisfactory operation of a gasifier depends on a free and uniform passage of the gas through the fuel bed. Therefore, satisfactory biomass fuels should be relatively uniform in particle size so that the gases do not form channels. Particle size should be greater than about one-quarter inch

so that there is not too much back pressure, particularly in updraft gasifiers.

Dusts and fines are particularly troublesome. The charcoal which forms

on pyrolysis should have moderate physical integrity to prevent collapse

and plugging of the bed.

For these reasons, wood chips and bark make excellent fuels for the gasifiers. Gasifiers have also been run satisfactorily on shells, pits

and corn cobs. However, other fuels such as sugarcane bagasse, rice hulls, stalks, wood barks, branches, coconut shells, husks, trunks, peanut shells:

Straw, cotton gin trash, food residues, etc., may require densification

(cubing, pelleting, briquetting, extrusion, etc.) in order to be used

satisfactorily in gasifiers.

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Biomass has many attractive features as fuel, including very low sulfur, renewability, low cost in many cases, and no increase in long-term atmospheric CO₂. However, biomass occurs in a wide variety of forms, some of which are often too wet to burn and too bulky to ship. Recently, a number of companies have begun to make aerobically dried biomass fuels, "OBDF," to overcome this handicap and create a uniform commodity fuel (currently selling in the US for \$20 - \$30/ton). The cost of drying and densifying is approximately \$6 to \$15/ton, and must be weighed against the value of the biomass, with and without densification. In the United States, Sweden and France, in particular, a number of gasification tests have been run on pellets and they are found to be quite satisfactory. This process may, however, turn out for many applications, to be uneconomical for rural areas of developing countries.

The research work carried out on biomass gasification has established its technical and economic viability for several rural applications in the Third World countries. Several specialized applications are being commercialized. A good deal of this work is being done in the Philippines where the Farm Systems Development Corporation (FSDC), the government-mandated lead agency in gasification application, is taking into the commercial production of gasifiers for diesel and gasoline driven vehicles for short hauls (up to 120 km) in rural areas. Gasifier equipment is also being commercialized for irrigation and other farm related applications such as electricity generation, and powering rice mills, driers and farm vehicles. FSDC's goals call for self reliance at a reasonable price,

Considerable attention is also being paid in the Philippines to develop biomass-based gas producers for cars, trucks, and buses. Two systems using Producer gas and Hydrogas are being tried. Producer gas is the combination of combustible gases from the partial combustion of dry organic matter like charcoal, wood, coconut husk, rice hull and the like inside a cylindrical reactor. In this model, air is used as the gasifying medium. Dry carbonaceous material is fed into the reactor where it is partially burned, thereby producing the mixture of combustible gases: this gas

mixture then passes through a series of cleaning devices; first, the cyclone Separator where solid particles are taken out, then the gas scrubber (rotary stationary installation) or the condenser (for vehicles) that liquefies and removes the moisture content, and lastly, the wet filter which collects the remaining impurities. The gas is now mixed with filtered air and is fed together with a reduced volume of gasoline vapor. (11)

With gasifiers, Philippine data shows that an equivalent of 1 AN-Hr of energy is made available from one kilogram of coconut charcos!

Producer gas may likewise be used in electric power generation, water supply systems, rice mill and drying operations, and other applications requiring the use of internal combustion engine (12) (Fig. 3),

Hydrogas, on the other hand, is a clean, medium Btu gaseous fuel which can be produced in a gasifier, using charcoal or wood fuels heated to at least 1,000°C. A jet of steam directed into this red hot charcos! bed

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FIG PRODUCER GAS AS A FUEL IN A
GASOLINE ENGINE GENERATOR SET

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its s which reacts with carbon to produce

carbon 16 oxide = Mometr'clusr Se inductee sy the
steam necessary ?0 susia!s ?he endocnerme,
reactior

The sydrovas

production: a cyclor

@ primary Milter ty 4

catsally of a gas! fier for hydrogas

slarate solid inpurities from the gas:

cole part: p)ssed through

the cyclone senareto: anc wet Filte~ unit to coo) down

the a5 while removing condensibe ceses and very Tine selié impurities:

2 fuel air mixing sox to snake the 93. conductible ag -t is sucked into he

engine intake ~anifole; arg s we7%r crein tank assendi. A hand operates

Blower fo~ starting and 9 foo: are hand-operated Bicycve air gump eo

Pressurize the water tanks are two eusantial accessories 10 complete the

hydrogas system.

The system can be used solely, as 102 percent displacement of fuel, in spark ignition engines (gasoline engines). For compression ignition engines (diesel engine), only a minimal amount of diesel to provide the spark and combustion is required,

The system can be used for transport vehicles, irrigation pumps, electric power generation, fishing boats and other marine applications.

WIND ENERGY

its energy from the sun's heating of the atmosphere, has been described as "the greatest terrestrial medium for harvesting, harnessing and conserving solar energy"(13) Wind energy has been used for thousands of years to propel boats and ships and to provide rotary windmill power for applications such as irrigation and to run mills. Evidence indicates that Persians used vertical-axis wind machines to grind grains as early as 3600 BC. Later, Chinese used the horizontal axis winds

MINIs for irrigation and grain grinding. Wind mills in China are currently used for irrigation on small holdings, using wind-driven seogp bucket systems. These, for local use are always constructed of wood and bamboo. With minor modifications, the same device is used to grind beans and rice, and for shelling crops, as well as for pumping.

Wind, often with its intermittent availability, can be practical for water pumping, crop processing and some rural industries because the energy requirements are spread out over a number of days. The word, "wind mill" in a strictly technical sense refers only to a type of machine that drives a mill to grind flour. In a more practical sense, the word is, however, interchangeably used with wind machines.

Wind machines are strongly dependent on the sites furnishing high, reliable winds, Wind speed is very much affected by the topography. The top of a small hill will usually have much more wind energy available than the bottom of a hill. Moreover, the power in a stream of moving air is proportional to the product of the cross sectional area of that stream

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and the cube of 4+ velocity, so the? doubling the wind speed increases

the power eight times, This? means that energy in wind moving at 2 m/s
is eight times as much as that of wind moving at 1 m/s

There are a number of consequences of this peculiarity; one is that

the designer and builder must provide some method of protecting the wind
mill) from tremendous forces of high winds. Three methods are commonly used.

In one case, a "feathering" system for moderately strong winds in which

the angle of the blades is changed so that more of the wind is allowed to
pass through the rotor without affecting it, a system which causes the wind
rotor to turn sideways out of the wind at still higher wind velocities, and
a break and tying down system for very high winds. On the other hand, sails
windmills in developing countries that have severe tropical storms may be

a good choice; the sails can be easily removed, leaving only a skeleton
that is not easily damaged by the wind.

In determining an appropriate configuration of an array of wind mills, it is important to assess the interacting relationship between the relative positions, heights, and the energy produced by a number of wind energy collectors. There would be interference effects, if the individual windmills within an array are placed very close to each other, thereby reducing the average energy of the wind across the array - from the direction of the attack to the opposite end. Within the array, the wakes of the individual windmills can be regions of increased turbulence, where there would be variations in wind intensity. This intensity, compared to original intensity could become substantially lower in some places and higher in others.

However, not all the power in the wind can be extracted. It has been shown that a maximum fraction extracted by a windmill is 59.3 percent. As a practical matter, horizontal axis wind devices achieve less than 70 percent

Of this theoretical maximum; that is, they are able to extract somewhat

less than 42 percent of the power in the wind. (14) Vertical axis machines are significantly less efficient. The useful power produced also depends upon the ability of the user to use it when produced. Otherwise, the usefulness, even of an elegant wind device is severely compromised. These factors,

tong with the capital costs have an important bearing? on the economics of &
vind mi11 whether operating puna, a generator, or used to grind grain or
perform other mechanical tasks.? The cost of a wind system 1s closely linked
to the type end height of the tower on which the machine is mounted, A large
Dart of that cost is the cost of the tower, which is dependent on its design
and materials of construction. For rural areas, to keep the costs low, it
ty be Important to develop desions that ute Tocal materials, for construction
tnd installation,

Many simple, though less efficient "do-it-yourself" wind machine designs
for rural appiestions ave. available. Water pimping wind mills usually have
2 Slowly: turning wheel with many blades. On? the other hane, wind generators
GsvaTiy have two or three narrow Blages which turn at vary high speed.

For wind generators, gearing 1s still necced to multiply the number of Re-
volutions per minute (rea) up to the range required by 9 generetor. For
txomple, awind generator may be charging the batteries at. 200 rom, but only
?if the gearing has multiplied this to at least 800 rpm at the generator.

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This gearing wo" 45 esceet

Vly where #t can dramatically affect

the entire design of Qaelain! guauoee

One wine 233 urce 'n #96 38 wi supe'y plans for severst

types Gt ming ats eattanis foe ceseteelag auuntsiec, "ane ater hve

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Senerator cHeernatar, ?anes! syelt te almoel ec fseaheel, the blades

OF which fearon automat eed incrosse. anes designed

for local fabrication, vations, the et 'se unit will supply

Fron \$00 w to 2 ke: the cost of materials well vary with the value ane

availability of surep eucamobite parts on the Toca? market. ATT Tabor

for fabrication, assembly. and ate?lation can be cunaited locally. Wind

nachines providing less thane Be ines? for use on small ams

of the rural Thre Morte end a ersea sites

DIRECT USES OF SoU

Crop Drying the availability of ample sunshine tn most rural

Ta countrtes favors. the ap2tication o* solar thensal conversion

gies such as solar erop drying. This direct use of solar energy

18 perhaps the most anc?ent and wide spread. The customary cechnique

jnvolves spreading the material to be dried in a thin Taye on the ground,

to expose it co sun and wind. Copra, grain, hay, *ruit and vegetables are

SUIT! dried in this manner in many parts or the world, including the indus

trialized countries.

The technology employs solar collectors to heat air which is then

used to dry crops and food products. Size of the units may range from

small chest-type collectors with a few square meters of the area for use

at the domestic and single farm level, to much larger commercial-scale

units capable of producing several tonnes or tens of tonnes per day of

dried goods. Simple solar dryers generally consist of a wooden rectangular

box covered with glass. Air circulates through vents either by natural or

forced draft. The drying trays are removable. Materials required for dryer

construction are simple-steel, glass, wood, sealants, and galvanized sheet.

Such dryers could be manufactured 100 percent in most rural areas of the

Third World. Larger commercial units may resemble greenhouses,

framed rectangular units with glass roofs. Drying platforms are placed

inside the building and air circulates by either natural or forced draft,

usually exiting through vents at the peak of the roof. If auxiliary fossil

fuel heating is used, as is the case with low temperature and drying operations,

burners are usually placed in rows under the drying trays. The energy

output of such units depends, apart from other things, on the amount and

intensity of solar radiation, design configurations and the type of material

to be dried. (15, 16) Agriculture? crops should be dried to a moisture content of 12-15 percent by weight. The relative humidity of the air ranges from 8-50 percent for fruits, grain and hay to be in equilibrium at that moisture content. The most desirable moisture content for corn and peas is about 60% relative humidity for about 12% moisture content. The corn and pea crops off the field is usually at about 18% moisture content so,

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arying 33 needed <0 avo? degradatic:. Relative humidity, however, can be

adjustes with rather minimal increase in air temperature,? The capital operational and maintenance costs of solar dryers 91s0 show extreme variation, However 2 simple domestic dryer, with careful selection of locally-available material, can be built inexpensively, and can cost as little as \$1-5/m². At the other extreme, expensive and sophisticated collectors may cost as much as \$14-24/m²

Solar crop drying is considered to be the cheapest and simplest way to dry crops in regions having abundant sunshine and where post harvest season is characterized by low relative humidity and little or no rainfall.

Solar crop drying is also one way of reducing wide fluctuations in the

price of food products. In Equatorial, for example, crops and food are dried

in both commercial and domestic/farm scales. About 100,000 tonnes of dried food stuffs are produced commercially each year, mostly by plants of 0.5-10 tonnes/day output capacity. Use of solar drying can reduce fossil fuel consumption by up to 160,000 bbl/year or 25% of current usage in commercial drying (17) and will raise farm income by improvement of quality and reduction of losses in domestic/farm drying

In rural third world countries, solar dryers should be usable by farmers with limited technical skill and capital resources. A simple solar crop dryer can be built with locally available materials and labor. However, because of the short term seasonal use, a crop dryer may have to be designed so that a variety of crops, maturing at different times, can be dried in sequence, by use of the same equipment. Several designs of solar crop dryers (suitable for rural applications) have been developed. These range from the use of solar-heated air in more or less conventional air dryers to a combination of direct drying and air drying by placing the materials in flat plate collector-dryers. They have been designed and used successfully in India, Jamaica and Trinidad. (18, 19, 20, 21, 22)

PEDAL POWER

Bicycling or pedaling is perhaps the most efficient use of the biggest and the strongest thigh muscle (the quadriceps) of the human body. Pedaling enhances the power of the legs which are then relieved of the effort of standing or supporting the body. A person on a bicycle is the most energy efficient moving thing that exists, measured in calories per unit of weight per unit of distance. (23) A man can generate four times more power by pedaling than by hand-cranking. The usual pedaling speed, 60-80 rpm, uses

Jeg muscles at their maximum efficiency and yields sonewhet Tess then?@-1 hp (74.6H). In some cases, professional cyclists have produced up to one hp for short periods of time.

Pedaling continuously at a rate of 4 hp can be done for only short periods (about ten minutes); however, pedaling at half this power (1/8 hp) can be sustained for around sixty minutes. Experts feel that the human energy can be most efficiently harnessed using pedal-powered machines, including, but not limited to the bicycle. Pedal power enables a person to drive devices

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at the same rate as that achieved by hand-cranking, but with far less effort and fatigue (e.g. Flour mill). However, with pedal power, it is possible to drive devices at a faster rate than before (2-9, winnow) and ER. BQHET Devices which would require too much power for hand-cranking. (erg. thresher).

Probably the oldest pedal power application is water pumping. The traditional Chinese square-pellet chain pump for irrigation and the two-man borehole pump capable of lifting water 100 meters, are popular examples in the light category. At the International Rice Research Institute (IRRI) in Los Baños, Laguna, Philippines, a small light weight, inexpensive, pedal-powered pump that lifts large quantities of water serves as a good example. Developed..

Most domestic chores in rural areas require a stationary power source.

The principle behind the Stationary Energy Cycle powered generator is simple. The energy generated by pedaling is transmitted by a sumner. In the conventional chain-and-sprocket is used as the drive chain. The input shaft of the machine or tool to be powered is coupled directly to the power take off shafts,

However, the use of pedal power in such a capacity necessitates overcoming a number of problems, including (1) cycle torque, (2) the need for

2 rigid brace between the driving and the driven sprockets. to take stress
ult of the chain which can be as much as twice the rider's weight,

{3} some provision for adjusting the chain, and (4) the varying lengths of
the Tugs.

A Stationary pedal power unit - Dynapod (Greek for power and foot),
can be adapted to a wide variety of uses in agriculture, small-scale industry,
household processes and electric generation. Dynapods usually consist of a
stationary bicycle frame, seat, handle bars, and pedals which drives series
of chains or belts. The number of revolutions per minute can be changed
by adding or subtracting pulleys or gears. Usually a flywheel is necessary
to smooth out the high and low power output of a person's natural pedaling
cycle. The use of flywheel assures constant speed and power to a device
being driven by the dynapod. | dynapod can be a one person unit. or a two
person unit. A two person unit (Fig. 1) can provide a maximum power of
about 150 watts over an hour; for shorter periods, higher outputs are possible.
The one shown has a frame made of wood and uses wooden bearings. (24): In
addition, six bicycle cranks, two saddle seats, 2 bicycle wheels, a chain
drive gear and two chains are also required. Five other parts require the
use of metal turning lathe, Saddle supports are made of steel tubing and
brackets and require welding. According to the design conditions and end use, many
of these parts can be replaced with wood or simple metal ones. The designer
suggests several applications of the dynapod including (1) a winch capable

in raising one metric ton at about 15 cm/Second or to power a stationery
fan for blowing. The dynamo powers a winch which moves the implement
through the field; 2) 2 water pump capable of raising 230 gallons per
minute (gpm) through a 30 cm distance or 33 gallons per minute: through
three meters distance (11 gpm through 10 meters distance/3.3. gpm? through
three meters); an electrical generator capable of producing 60-200 watts

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?Other applications of dynamo include cassava graters, coffee and grain

hulling, cracking of palm nuts, rolling oatmeal (decorticating fibres = sisal, hemp, etc.) and baling. The Pura} Appropriate Technology Center in Madras, India has designed and tested a number of vehicle powered agricultural implements and small scale equipment. A Bicycle paddy thresher from the initial date is shown to have a capacity of up to 100 kg paddy/hour,

Several new designs of tools that use pedal power especially for rural areas are being developed in many countries. Several of these designs are even said to provide a more reliable source of electric power than wind energy. (25, 26)

(OTHER TECHNOLOGIES.

The renewable technologies discussed earlier are, in general, accessible

20 rural communities in developing countries. However, the Tse "is not comprehensive, There are other renewable nergy technologies, such ts solar hot'water heaters ?that also have proven their technics! anc econome viability in rural areas of develosing ccuntries, though have net been dis- cussed here. Some of these technologies, in mary cases, can be ?mplerented using ?off the shelf? equipment or tn other cases !ght recuire some modi fications, A prime example is Jamaica and Columbia where sclar heated hot water in Sone rural areas is being used primarily to mect the needs of smal] scale industry. ?At the sane time, cther renewable tecnologies,. though highly practical for rural environments, are as yet unavailable primarily because of their economics.

Photovoltaic devices and microbial conversion of biomass to produce Viquié fuels, such as fuel grade alcohols are among the prime examples Potential applications exist for photovoltaic cells in refrigeration and Vighting for renote rural health clinics, in telecommunications, and perhaps in water punping. The Republic of Malt has hag extensive experience with photovoltaic. systems, where several units mainly with French assistance have been instalea

The mcrodial conversion of agriculture waste, spoiles grains, etc.

can provide much needed liquid fuels for numerous rural applications 85

well as protein rich byproduct stillage for feed and fertilizer use.

Direct photovoltaic conversion can be achieved with basically simple devices that involve no moving parts, no additional sources of energy, and little, if any maintenance, and possibility for modular systems at sizes,

from a few watts to megawatts. The operation of these solar cells is based on the photovoltaic effect - the creation of charge carriers within a material by the absorption of energy from incident ionizing radiation.

This occurs best in semiconductor materials, with properties between those

of conductors and insulators. Literally dozens of materials, alone or in combination, possess the semiconductor properties required for high efficiency (greater than .10) conversion of solar radiation to electricity. However,

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for possible commercial application: of photovoltaics, only three - silicon, cadmium sulfide and gallium arsenide, with silicon as the leading material ~

have deer: success?ully sca. Otrors ere in experinantal stages of develop-

In rural areas, the ettractiveness of a photovittiae system will depend
for the econone sianficence of ?he avalication, wher current prices are
considered, critical neecs, such as renote rural clinic refrigeration appear
justifiable, Provision cf refriceretion will allow a wider range of vaccines.
and drugs to be keot. This may ?ive =pecially beneficial effects on infant
mortality rates. If and when photovoltaic celi coszs are radically reduced,
fnore applications will become economically viable, The on-going research

has so far been quite successful in considerably syproving their economies.
The nodular nature of photovoltaic systems permits the users to gain expert-
ence with a relatively srall invastnant, This 1s a crucia? aspect of rapid
Giffusion of an innovation,

Biochemical conversion of biomass, using fermentation has been used, 817 over the world since times tmemorial, to produce s?eane'. Currently, agricultural grains and sugar crops have Deen the feecsocks OF choice, Since they are more easily decorposes. Highly abundant lignin containing cellulosic materials, such as agvicultiural residues and woody crops must undergo expensive pretreatment to sreak the lignocellulosic complex, thus haking the economics of conversion generally unfavorable, At present post developments for cormercial orcdution of alccho! fuels have been achieved mainly in industrialized nations. Considerable work te eliminate fof mitigate constraints including issues such as "ood vs fuel? characteris= ties of rural areas, is required, before this known technology can be. adapted for applications in develning countries.

?conctustow

Renewable energy systems such as bio eneray ranks very high among the possibilities for eventually achieving sustainable supplies of energy for Fura} third world countries. The snail scale technologies for harnessing alternate sources of energy represent more than a possible answer to the dilema posed by depletable and high price of imported of}. It also re= presents an opportunity for the village to regain ite viability through

better economic development and slowing of mass migration to cities.

However, development of renewable energy technologies should be regarded

as a component of rural third world development as a whole rather than

as an end itself. Thus, any options recommended could be fully integrated in-

to the social, economic and physical realities of the rural third world.

Technology at the village level due to needs and resources, essentially,

has to be simple. Rural areas, among other things, lack 1) skilled manpower,

2) inability for capital accumulation, 3) facilities for continued research

and development and 4) ability to take risks.

Thus, in each country, a central organization with a competent development

oriented staff, working through regional research and development institutes,

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entrusted with the capacity to develop new equipment suited to local needs,

sens a necessary first step. The impact of an increased energy supply could be enormous. It can go a long way in achieving increases in agricultural productivity, improved economic growth, increased farm employment and overall improvements in the standard of living for most of the rural population of the Third world

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UPADI 82

Sen. Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1982

Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

CARIBBEAN DEVELOPMENT BANK'S
RENEWABLE ENERGY PROGRAMME

By

JM, Dellimore

Technology and Energy Unit

Caribbean Development Bank

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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Caribbean Development Bank

Canadian International Development Agency

Commonwealth Science Council?

Caribbean Technological Consultancy Services

Caribbean Technological Information Services

Inter-American Development Bank

Integrated Set of Information System

Less Developed Country (of C08 member countries)

Overseas Development Agency

Latinamer

?an Energy Organization

Technology Development Programme

Technology and Energy Unit

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural

United States Agency for International Development

University of the West Indies

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packs? Jno

1. In addition to a worsening balance of payments position attributable, at least in part, to the rising cost of imported fossil fuels, Anglophone Caribbean states face a worsening unemployment problem. In 1979, with financial assistance from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), the Caribbean Development Bank (CDB) responded to this situation by embarking on 3 novel experiments in development banking. In that year, CDB created a Technology Information Unit, within its Project Design and Analysis Division, for the purpose of promoting development, adaptation

and utilization of techniques which are well matched to the needs and
Circumstances of 15 Commonwealth Caribbean member countries. Within a year,
with additional financial assistance from USAID, the Unit was expanded into
the Technology and Energy Unit (TEU), more than doubled in size, and developed
a special focus on renewable energy technology.

2. The Technology Development Programme (TDP) administered by TEU is an

Integral component of other, more traditional forms of development assistance
provided by COB for generating employment and generating or conserving foreign
exchange. TEU functions, essentially, as a project assistance unit and is

active in the Bank, the public sector and the private sector in COB

in project identification, project design and project
implementation. All assistance under the TDP is expected to support development
priorities of the host country and, in addition, satisfy one or more of the

following criteria

1, Reduce the need for imported goods by pursuing opportunities

for =

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in

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(a) more efficient use of oil;

(b) fuel substitution by local energy sources

wherever the opportunity presents itself as

an attractive alternative: and

(c) a deliberate choice of a less energy-intensive

development path in those countries without

abundant commercially-exploitable energy

Reduce the recruitment of new fossil fuel consumers into

the commercial

al energy sub-sector by using development of
alternative local energy sources to stimulate, facilitate

and promote rural development wherever possible.

Assist countries in addressing projected needs by generating

Firm data on the nature, volume and alternative uses of

Indigenous resources which will be needed to sustain and

Increase the Flow of comer:

Hy-ready

vestment projects.

Support strategies and actions of COB member countries for

Improving the quality of life of low-income groups.

Develop mechanisms to organize and mobilize the skilled human resources of the Region to provide greater support for

the technological requirements of using alterna!

fe energy

sources and other techniques which are well! matched to the

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circumsrar an. of (08 somber countries, so as to ensure

speeiy inclarensSSION nd replication of commercial iy=

see appl co tions

3. The Bank's Ronauahle Ereg: °rograme fs an integral part of this

broader Technology Developne: rome TDP)

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disaggregate one From she ot

devause energy use Is an Important

consigeration i oracticatty at! ?2° orjects.

PRoGRAMKE 5

aducing the Need for ingorted i!

4. TDP projects concerned with reducing the nead Tor imported of! are

Vsted at Table 1; 50% of al! TEU projects and studies fall in this

category. Of these projects and studies, approximately 852 are related to fuel substitution with locally-available energy sources (such as wind,

radiation, biomass wastes and hydro-energy), 10% are concerned with more efficient use of oil, and SE with reducing the energy-intensiveness of industry.

5. In the future, greater attention will be given to more efficient

use of oil, as opportunities for energy conservation are identified through country energy needs assessments being conducted by the Energy Unit of the Caribbean Community Secretariat. These assessments are confirming that

anglophone Caribbean countries are almost totally dependent on oil as the primary source of commercial energy and that dependence on fossil fuels is

likely to continue well beyond the end of

century. It is hoped that

---Page Break---

for the basis of average to do the assessment and conduct more detailed energy audits

of the major energy consumers. investment programmes can be initiated in

each country to increase the efficiency of energy utilization. Additional

funds are needed to finance these investment programmes.

Reducing Recruitment of New Fossil Fuel Consumers/Rural Development

6, About 17% of TOP projects are directly concerned with using renewable

energy sources to support rural development or to reduce the demand for fossil fuels or fossil-fuel-derived energy by rural energy consumers.

These projects are listed at Table 2

Assistance to Countries in Addressing Projected Needs

7. All TOP projects may be regarded as fall

ing into this category since

they seek either to promote new investments or to stimulate growth by

eliminating problems associated with exports:

19 Investments, However, about

12% of these projects are primarily concerned with developing an information

base on available resources which can be used for long-term as well as

term energy planning, or generating information on the limitations and

potentialities of applications of local resources which are not yet able to

produce a favourable ra

of return, but have @ good potential for eventual

commercial success. Table 3 lists five such projects.

Support Strategies and Actions for improving the Quality of Life of

Low-income Groups

8. There are a number

Of ways in which activities under the TOP can

1 low-income groups. Two Important ways

---Page Break---

(2) Identification and creation of employment opportunities

For unskilled and semi-skilled workers: and

(9) Identification and provision of low-cost ways and means

of improving or increasing the services available to low-income

groups (0.9. electrification of rural areas, low-cost transportation

systems, Improvements in drinking water supplies, better ways

use available food materials to eliminate wastage, etc.)

9. About NOX of TOP projects are expected to benefit low-income groups

Directly, If they succeed in meeting project objectives,

Organizing and Mobilizing Skilled Human Resources of the Region

10, This aspect of the TOP is the most challenging and, potentially, the

most rewarding dimension of CO8's programme. One of the principal mechanisms

used by TEU to organize and mobilize skilled human resources is networking.

The main purpose of TEU's networking effort is the establishment of mechanisms

for the sharing of information, experiences and skills among groups of

Caribbean specialists as a means of promoting coordinated approaches to problems and maximizing benefits to the Region from the scarce skilled manpower and Financial resources. Networking efforts are mainly concentrated

for the establishment of two permanent regional networks. These are:

CTCS Network - A Caribbean Technological Consultancy Services

Network to serve as a means of providing

technical as:

assistance to enterprises, governments

and technical institutions at affordable prices,

and creating and disseminating the skills and

---Page Break---

CTIS Network = A Caribbean Technol

Remwork to s2rve as a means of creati

19 regular

information Flows between Conmonweal th Caribbean

countries ard institutions with regard to the

application of technology and energy to development

and, 2330, as a means of rapidly transferring

technology and energy Information needed in

particioating countries

11, There are cotential areas of overlap between the activities of the two networks, and the hope is that they can eventually be Integrated. Both networks were started, on a pilot basis, early in 1982. TEU serves as

coordinator for both networks and, in this role, operates as the referral

?stance from the

centre. It also provides Information and technical a

Bank's information and skills base as 2 network members

12, Apart From networking, TEU publishes a quarterly newsletter that seeks

to maintain an awareness of efforts being made to apply technology and
?renewable energy to Caribbean development prablens. The Bank fas also hosted,
OF cooperated with other organisations in hosting, workshops and sentnars
which can upgrade the skills and knowledge of key personnel In its Comorweal th

Caribbean member countries and address eri

eal problems In the development of

renewable energy resources of the Region.

13, Table 4 lists the major activities which have been completed, or are in progress, under this category, There are plans to hold other workshops

and conferences, publish special newsletters and bulletins on Important

developments, and publish select bibliographies and information packages on

---Page Break---

important problem areas. To cope with the increasing complexity of TEU's

data base, it is being computerized. The ISIS Information system developed

by UNESCC has been installed for this purpose.

OVERVIEW OF PROGRESS, P208LENS AND PROSPECTS

14, The ultimate goal of C08's TOP Is to develop capability in Comonweal th Caribbean countries to identify, acquire and apply techniques which are well

snatched to their needs and circumstances, s as to reduce or eli

nate

persistent problems of high unenployment, scarcity of foreign exchange, and

low living standards among the majority of the population.

15, Individual TOP projects, per se, being very small-scale, can have

Jects, per se, being very

very little direct or immediate Impact on employment, foreign exchange

35 of living standards. However, te and

they can be used to Init!

develop programes which can, over tine, transform productive sectors and

increase the utilization of local resources, both human and material. To

achieve this, one must ensure that successful TOP projects lead to investment programmes which exploit the technology to the fullest possible extent, by repeated replication wherever appropriate conditions exist for doing so.

Therefore, CDB's challenge is the creation of a system by which deliberate Progress can be made through the stage of technology development/adaptation for successful widespread practical or commercial application.

16, CDB's role as a major source of investment capital

1 in the smaller

Commonwealth Caribbean countries places it in a unique position to create

and sustain such a system. A strong linkage between TOP and CDB's lending

---Page Break---

programme should go a long way towards

meeting this requirement, Three

basic questions could therefore be asked in evaluating the programme:

What progress has been made towards =

(QL taking individual projects to successful physical

completions

formulating investment programmes and other linkages

with the Bank; and

GAN) developing total capabilities to apply renewable energy

(and other] technology?

Physical Completion of Pro}

17, Today, @ little over two years after the first project was approved under the ToP 1/, the situation is as follows, Of a total of 3h projects

?and studies related to applications of technology, nine have been taken to

Physical completion, seven more are near to physical completion, elght are.

Progressing towards completion, and ten are starting.

18, It has been found that the programe, Involving as It does nunerous

small-scale projects and studies, entails disproportionately high operating

c08tS, presents serious supervision problens, and is prone to operational

Problems and Failures. TEU must act in concert with and through Institutions

in ?08 menber countries In implanenting TOP projects, and the capabittttes

attitudes, absorptive capacity and learning rate of the institutions and

people involved determine, to large extent, how quickly or how slowly

/ One project predated the TOP but has now been incorporated into the
programme:

---Page Break---

projects can be implemented was hoped that complete project proposals

would have been submitted for financing under its programme, However,

in general, TEU has to design and prepare project proposals for
EU approval. It has proved difficult to keep projects on schedule, and the
small TEU technical staff of seven must also spend a considerable amount of

time assisting the majority of project executing agencies In dealing with

implementation problems. It can be argued that these difficulties are in

Inkases with C08 Lending Programme

2. Of nine projects and studies completed, six have been followed-up by

further activity such as replication, development of » commercial operation,

Implementation of recommendations, etc.

two were only recently completed,

and one produced a negative result. However, despite some apparent success,

effective linkages between the lending programme and TOP have not fully

developed. There are nagging problems associated with development of markets

which will have to be solved in many cases before investment programmes can

be formulated. When a technology development project is

9 to physical

completion, the challenge to apply the technology is only just beginning, and development of tools, tactics and skills to deal with this challenge is

now a high priority for TEU.

Development of Local Capabilities

20, To the maximum extent possible, TOP projects are implemented by local

Institutions and Individuals, and a significant process of skill development

has been created in several institutions within the Region as a result of

---Page Break---

- oe

the programme. However, a high staff turnover and a tendency for the few skilled persons available to have too many responsibilities to permit them to concentrate fully on any one area. is working against countries deriving

maximum benefits from project implementation,

Overall, TOP prospects for making a significant impact on the Region are quite good, If the momentum developed so far is to be maintained or increased, a major Injection of additional Financing is needed. By the end of 1982, a1! programe funds are likely to be fully committed.

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TALE 1: COMPLETED, ONGOING AND PLANNED PROJECTS CONCERNED MAINLY WITS REDUCING THE NEED FOR IMPORTED ONL

cost T

(ussraoo) | vocation |__srarus

1 tneray Audits = Grenade [| cremate | ctor

| (0) Fuel substitution | i

i i i

| 3, tev possive solar suiteing i 50 | sarvados | conpteted

4. Enviromental Moni toring of TEU i

Passive Sotar Building 26 | Sartador | Starting

| 5. Wind Power Demonstration Prograrme i

pO ?antigne 270 | Antigua | Starting

| 6 vine turbine Project = Barbados | 70 | Barbados | Starting

7. Grid-Connected MinieMydro Demonstration j :

|S oomintes | 101 | Soninica | Starting

||

| 8. Wind-Powered Chi?) Room 45 | St. Lucia] Starting

9. Field Testing of 200 m? Rod Mud Plastic | :

Digester bag | Starting

10. Testing of Solar Collectors | 16 | sartados jequin. instattes

11. Study of Non-Conventional Water Heating | |

in Tourism Sector 9 | Regional !Near Completion

Production Fron Sawaill ing Wastes 6 core | conten

13. Feasibility Study of the integrated |

nergy Pate Concept for state i

Rural Plantation 33. | Sewvincent} Conpteree

14, Solar Drying of Chilli Peppers 50 | Guyana [reer Completion

15. Recovery of Fuels and Feeds from | i

| 1%" Mrronrdoe processing Wastes 46 | st.vtocent|Near Conptetton

| 16. Rehabtietton Progranse for Existing | |

Wigan ts 55. | Regional { In Preparation

| 17, Pllot Digester for Arromroot Processing | { !

Kastes ; Seven] In Preparation

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Table 1 (cont!

f Cost

[praise Sion | vocation | staue

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TABLE 2: ONGOING AND PLANNED ENFAGY PROJECTS CONCERNED MAINLY WITH
RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND RESOURCING RECRUITMENT OF NEW FOSSIL
FUEL CONSUMERS

[cost

I Provecr {wss-000) |_tocarion sraTus

Streanguaging and Hyérotogica!

?Assessment = Doninea 7 Dominica Starting

Improving Charcoo! Production and

Ueitizatton 20 rontserratt | Starting

Promotion of Simple Oanestic Solar

Food Dryers 10 tegtonat Near Completion

Stand-Alone Hini-Hydro 300 In Preparation

Sanana Transportation by Aerial

Cableway 170 | windward tstands] Melt Advanced

Feasibility Study: Production of Sale 1

?Sy Solar evaporation of See ¥ater 117 | Se, KTeesNevis | Completes

300 - Planned

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TABLE 3: COMPLETED, ONGOING AND PLANNED ENERGY PROJECTS CONCERNED

Wind and Solar Energy Resource |

Testing and Demonstration of |

|

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TABLE bs COMPLETED AO ?_NGOING

PROJECTS CONCERNED MAINLY

NG. ORG NIZING AND MOBILIZING SKILLED HUMAN

" sources

cost

{ PROJECT/ACTIVITY {_(uss*900) LOCATION status

1. TEU Newstecter 55 egionat longotng/Aetive

| 2. caribbean Aopropriate Technology i ij

[OSCR RSET Secs 9 | tostone

| 3. itor Project far Delovelment of |

| > "hachaniees for fetect'se and Soote :

| Dissemination of Information 5 71 | Regionat loncoing/Active

4. caribbean Technological consultancy ? |

1» Geartes Netort Bilas projec? | ton Regionat longoing/Active

| 5. sotar crop orying woreshop (with |

|B Soimromen tts selence tounest} fF tate | caste

| 6. sintaysre Workshep | 17 | omintea | competes |

| 5, caribbean electric usitities conterence) ah | tabacos | conpteted |

| % ust solar Engineering Seminar Ne | rintdat | copiers

| 9, Caribbean Appropriate Technology)

Centre Workshop } 1h | Barbados Completed

10, Regional Vorkshop to Disseminate } |

sporopriave Tecmotony } | se. wucta | cooptetee

11, UCR Seminar on Wind as an Enersy \

Aiterrative. (Poanee for Cot

participants) : roados | Completed

12, WWICA Seminar on Biomass Uti tzatton = | Puerto Rico} Competed

13. Seninar on Finance and Energy (with :

? OLADE and 198) | 5 | Barbados Completed

! i

---Page Break---

TROLE 5: compte?

AND ONGOING NON-ENERGY PROJECTS ADMINISTERED By TEU

sh | freionvtesdes] ser eangtetin

isis je | acim oss

|

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1982

First Pan American Congress on Energy

NUCLEAR POWER IN LATIN AMERICA

By

Marcelo Alonso

Florida Institute of Technology

Florida - USA

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?Agosto 1982

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NUCLEAR POWER TN LATIN AMERICA

Marcelo Alonso

Florida Institute of Technology

?The assessment of nuclear power prospects in Latin America requires the

consideration of three key factors:

in Latin America and the structure of the national electric grids .

2. the availability of primary energy resources to satisfy that demand

3. @ satisfactory arrangement for handling the complete nuclear fuel cycle on a multinational basis

Energy consumption in Latin America is on the average of the order of 1ki/cap,

which although 2a

sr than in che rest of the Third World, is smaller chan the world

average of about 2kW/cap. and auch saaller than in the industrialized countri

which is between 5 and 10 kWh/cap. This situation is compounded by the tremendous

inequalities in energy consumption among the different

sectors of the population;

the contrast is particularly marked between urban (4 to 6 kWh/cap) and rural (less

than 0.1 kWh/cap) populations. In fact about 50% of the population in Latin America

has no access

to electricity and most of it in rural areas. This situation, combined

with a continuous increase in population (330 millions in 1975, 790 million

expected in 2030), an unchecked trend toward urbanization, expected to increase from

the present value of about 40% to the order of 70% in 2030, and increased industrial-

ization, create an important pressure to increase the production of electric power.

Latin America

In fact the total demand for primary energy is expected to quadruple in the next

decade, rising from 10 EJ/y to about 40 EJ/y, and possibly reaching 80 EJ/y by 2030.

20 years. As the case of electric power generation, it is increasing at a rate

larger than 10% in most countries and for the whole region it

expected to increase

from about 96,000 MW in 1980 to about 170,000 MW in 1990.

?Paper presented at the UPADI-82 Conference, San Juan, P.R., August 1-7, 1982.

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The big question then is how to meet that demand for electric power. Until now oil has constituted the most important primary energy source in Latin America,

about 66%, compared with 44% in North America and 46% world

wide. For oil

producing countries this might be an acceptable alternative, but for oil importing

countries (the great majority) other options must be exercised. Coal is not expected

to replace oil to generate electricity in an appreciable amount in Latin America except in four or five countries, particularly Colombia. Presently, hydro accounts only for 12% of the primary energy while in North America it is about 17%.

The hydroenergy potential of Latin America is vast and more or less well distributed among all the countries, but still mostly undeveloped (less than 20% of the total potential has been utilized and in some countries only 3% to 5% has been developed). Hydro-energy accounts only for 12% of the total primary energy in

Latin America comparable with 7% for North America and world wide, but is already

of the order of 50% of the total electric production. Obviously hydro-energy is bound to play an important role in the expansion of energy production in Latin America. This is why most Latin American countries give top priority to hydro-energy in their electric power expansion plans, both in terms of large and small units. However, hydro-energy is not always located close to the consumer centers and therefore in many instances its large scale development may require the construction and/or upgrading of transmission Lines. Even so it is expected that hydro electric power generation capacity in Latin America will increase from about 30,000 MW in 1980 to about 100,000 MW in 1990, representing 60% of the total electric generating capacity.

The above considerations point out that in the next decade nuclear energy

might play an appreciable role in electric power generation in some Latin American countries, although still smaller than of hydro-energy. The availability of uranium (and thorium) is not expected to be a critical factor since both elements are relatively abundant in Latin America. In fact energy could flow freely in Latin America, without geo-

political considerations, the region would

---Page Break---

sufficient for quite a long time (Table 1). Thus the main limiting

factor for the use of nuclear energy

might be the size of the electric grids

in some of the countries, which with the exceptions of a few

tes, all are present?

ese that 1000 Mi. This makes Le difficult for those councries to consider nuclear

plants of the order of 600 Mi, which roushly is the size of auclear power plants

commercially available. Tt is possible shat nuclear power plants in the range

of 300 M8 to 400 MW may become comerct:

'y available in the ?mmediate future,

(fable 2) but even so, those plants are too big for @ good many Latin American

countr?s

Of the eight countries with grids Larger than 1000 Mi, only three countries

(Argentina, Brasil and Mexico) have grids sufficiently large as to justify a

comprehensive nuclear program, which includes the construction of several nuclear power plants in the next few years, as well as all the facilities related

to the complete nuclear fuel cycle such as uranium mining, uranium enrichment,

fuel production, fuel reprocessing and heavy water production. In fact those three countries have adopted quite serious nuclear programs, which are in different stages of development, By 1990 the respective nuclear power capacities are expected

to be: Argentina 1600 MW, Brasil 1200 MW, Mexico 2600 MW. That is a total of

5400 MW or 32% of the total generating capacity for the whole of Latin America. The

Argentine program is based on HWR and the Br

Alien on LiR, The Mexican program is

not yet fully determined. These three programs are described in Appendices

1, 1, and rrr,

For the other five countries, (Chile,

Colombia, Zeuador, Peru, Venezuela) with

grids larger than 1000 Mi the

at that can be expected tn che next decade or so

ight be the construction of one ouclear plant each,vaich does not justify consider-

ing the other aspects of the nuclear fuel cycle. Thus for those countries the

assurance of fuel supply and other suclear services is most ?oportant. Presently

of those countries have under consideration the construction of nuclear power

---Page Break---

Plans, but all of these have reactors in operation or under construction:

However, it is relevant to consider what kind of international cooperation might be desirable should those countries decide to go nuclear.

In the first place the three Latin American nuclear countries

may be prepared

to provide assistance and services to the other countries, in fact Argentina and

Brasil have already helped some countries for establishing nuclear research facilities.

In the second place the United States may reconsider its nuclear policy, as stated (NPA)

in the Nuclear Non-proliferation Act of 1978, and be more flexible in terms of

Providing nuclear services to other countries; Reagan's administration has made some

moves in that direction (Appendix IV), but the fact is that until now the United

States has played a very marginal role in nuclear power developments in Latin

america, (while Germany has been very aggressive). In the third place the multilateral

national instruments have to be reinforced to assure that nuclear weapons are not

produced or introduced in Latin America using nuclear fuel cycle facilities in the

region. The regional organizations that might play a role in this respect are

OPANAL, charged with the application of the Tlatelolco Treaty and the IANEC, within the

the OAS. To these too we must add the IAEA (and its international non-proliferation

Instrument, the NPT). But there are still some concerns about the effectiveness of

such mechanism, Of course in Latin America we have another organization, OLADE,
that deals with energy in general and which might be involved in the development
of nuclear power without proliferation risks.

Perhaps it might be more desirable to organize in Latin America an organization

specifically concerned with nuclear power and the nuclear fuel cycle, similar to
EURATOM in Europe, and that could be designated LATINATOM, under whose control

data has already

all nuclear facilities in the region would be placed. This

idea has been advanced in some Latin American fora but it has not yet been formally explored

At present there are 13 nuclear research reactors in Latin America located in Brazil

(4), Argentina (3), Chile (2), Mexico, Colombia, Venezuela, Peru and Uruguay,

plus those in Cuba

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appendix I, Nuclear Power Program of Argentina

SAGES AEST in

Argentina has the oldest, most comprehensive and more advanced state of

implementation. The program began about

25 years ago with the construction

of a small Argonaut reactor and since then it has progressed steadily as it can be

appreciated in Figures 1 and 2. The body charged with nuclear matters in Argentina

is the National Commission for Atomic Energy (CNEA), which depends directly from

the president of the country. The CNEA has six major R & D programs, as

indicated in Table 3. but for the specific purpose of the construction of nuclear

power plants a company, EXACE, has been established with CNEA holding 75% of the

shares and the German consortium Kvaerner/Siemens the remaining 25% (Table 4)

Argentina nuclear power program is based on the concept

of natural uranium/heavy

water reactors. Argentina has developed a total capability for the nuclear fuel cycle for such types of reactors; the details are given in Table 5, The flow

aa

flow of the CNEA program is shown in Figure 3. In particular the production of

uranium concentrates has

increased appreciably, as shown in Figure 4, The first

nuclear power plant of Argentina, Atucha 1, in the Province of Buenos Aires,

entered into operation in 1974 with a power of 340 MW, and in 1977 it was upgraded

to 368 MW. It has proved to be a very reliable unit. The second unit, in Ezeiza,

Province of Córdoba, is ready to enter into operation, The nuclear power program

of CNEA appears in Table 6 and Figure 5, The program is being carried out mostly

with collaboration of Germany, with a substantial involvement of Argentine engineers

in design, construction and manufacturing. In fact the program has had a very

salucory iapact on Argentina industry and in the development of sitlled sanpover.

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Appendix IE Nuclear Power

?the nuclear energy program Yepas: fa ths Late 53's with tne

construction of a research re:

or 2s San

ule. A nuclear power program was not

initiated until more than a decade later. Even after signing in 1972 an agreement,

of cooperation with the United States, a contract was entered with Westinghouse

for the construction of a PWR nuclear plant of about 600 Mw, at Angra dos Reis

«

xy of the Kings), a most scenic place south of Rio de Janeiro. The reactor

has been finally completed in 1982 but is operating only at 80% of its rated

power until there is complete assurance that the heat exchange system does not

have the same problems found in other similar Westinghouse reactors built in Sweden

fan? Seatn. Ste

Why after, Brazil? decided to develop a rather comprehensive and

ambitious nuclear power program based on the PUR concept, and comprising a 1! aspects

of the nuclear fuel cycle. For this purpose it entered into a broad and encompassing

agreement with Germany, that would provide equipment, know-how and training.

Within this agreement a second nuclear power plant is already under construction

at Angra. However, the nuclear power program has been slowed down a bit because

the parallel development of hydroenergy and more efficient transmission systems

and the reduction in the increase of the demand for electric power.

To carry out the nuclear power program, Brazil has established the

institutional arrangement shown in Chart I and in Table 7 where the functions of each

institution are indicated. The program depends directly from the Minister of

Mines and Energy. For dealing with the nuclear fuel cycle as well as the construct

ion of nuclear plants NUCLEBRAS has established seven subsidiary companies as

shown in Chart 2. In five of them the capital is mixed, with participation of

foreign companies in the proportions indicated. One of these (SISTEP) actually operates in the FRG. Table 5 gives the details of the programs carried out by

NUCLEBRAS. Reprocessing (an aspect that has worried very much past U.S.

administrations) is probably going to be postponed because the reduction in the rate

---Page Break---

of development of the program. Table) gives the schedule of construction of nuclear power plants in Brazil, and Figure 6 the flow diagram of the fuel cycle as shown, Brazil is particularly rich in U and Th. Figure 7 shows the sources of U. The one most actively explored is Pocos de Caldas, like in the case of Argentina, an objective of Brazil is to seek 2 subs

stantial involvement of

Brazilian industry in the nuclear program.

Appendix 3 Nuclear Power Program of Mexico

Although Mexico has excellent research facilities, it has moved into nuclear

power at a much slower pace than Argentina and Brazil. At first sight, in view of

eh

vast petroleum reserves of Mexico, that makes it 4th

energy exporter, one

could think that Mexico does not need to consider such

as an energy

alternative. However, the consideration of the need to manage wisely the oil

resources stretching their life,

as well as other considerations of economic and

political nature, particularly a considerable increase in the demand of electric

power, expected to increase from 15,000 Mw in 1960 to about 80,000 Mw in 2000,

able 109 have convinced Mexican authorities that Mexico should initiate a sound nuclear program. Based on those facts Mexico released in November 1980 an Energy Plan that called for a nuclear generation by 2000 of the order of 20,000 Mw of

23% of the total electric generating capacity. Previous to this plan the Federal Commission of Electricity (CFE) carried out a study in 1967 to appraise the possibilities of nuclear power in Mexico. As a result Mexico contracted with General Electric in 1972 the construction of two BWR, of \$500 million each, in Laguna Verde, Veracruz. Although, the project has suffered several setbacks and delays, it has provided a tremendous experience for Mexican engineers and scientists for the new nuclear program. The first unit of Laguna Verde will enter into operation

in 1984 and the second in 1985.

---Page Break---

The institutional structure

to carry out the Mexican nuclear program is shown

in Chart 3 and the functions of each entity

table 2. ie

authorization to go ahead with the nuclear program was given by the Pres:

On September 4, 1981, and seven nuclear suppliers from four countries were invited to

bid for the first phase corresponding to about 1300 MW a one or two units. The

Program contemplates not only the construction of the nuclear power units but also

an effective transfer of technology, a gradual involvement of Mexican industry

and the eventual development of a complete capability in the nuclear fuel cycle,

Unexpectedly, in May 1982 the new Finance Minister, Mr. J. Silva Herzog,

announced that in view of the economic situation of Mexico and the prospect of zero economic growth in the next 12 months the nuclear program will probably be postponed until the next government, that will be installed in December 1982, has the opportunity to review the program, together with other investment programs.

However, it seems reasonable to expect that the program will not be cancelled

but considerably reduced in scope

Appendix 4 U.S. Policies related to Nuclear

The consideration of nuclear power in Latin America would be incomplete

Power

without examining the nuclear power policies of the United States, which is the

largest user of nuclear power and one of the most important supplier of nuclear

services, materials and technology. Currently, the U.S. has 77 nuclear power

or planned

plants in operation and 67 under construction, with a total power of 147,751

MW. Unfortunately, during recent years the U.S. nuclear power policies, both

domestic and international, have not been

stable, and to a great extent dominated

by one major concern: reduction of the risk of proliferation of nuclear weapons.

This is a very reasonable and sound objective, but the way it has been pushed by

the U.S., especially during Carter's administration, has backfired on American

nuclear industry, to the extent that presently the U.S. industry is in a critical

situation with no new orders for nuclear power plants placed in the last

---Page Break---

two years, and even a few cancellations or indefinite delays!

(The attached

number is 19). This has been aggravated by the fact that the trend in the growth

of demand of electricity in U.S. is smaller than what was forecasted five

of six years ago, resulting most probably from conservation efforts, and by escalating

construction costs as well as interest rates that have increased considerably:

Reagan's Administration has expressed its firm commitment to domestic energy independence, for which it is considered essential the long term expansion of nuclear power and encouraging the health of the U.S. nuclear reactor industry.

In a domestic policy statement in October 3, 1981, the following steps taken by the Administration were stated:

- 1, Improvement of the nuclear regulatory and licensing process reducing its fees

the present 10 to 14 years to about 6 to 8 years

Proceed with the development of nuclear breeder reactor technology. A first step is to complete the CRBR. Congress has approved the additional funds required for this project.

3. Lifting the ban on commercial reprocessing and production of Pu (which had

been established during Carter's administration)

One component of this

Program would be the activation of the Barnwell reprocessing plant. However,

No company has yet expressed interest in taking over Barnwell.

4, Analysis of the obstacles which stand in the way of an expanded use of nuclear power. The report is due before September 30, 1982.

Obviously a reverse, in the positive direction, of the domestic nuclear policy

of the U.S. cannot produce immediate results, and will still be some time before

its effects are detectable

The international nuclear power policy of the U.S. has also suffered several changes in recent years. The frame of reference for U.S. international cooperation on nuclear matters is the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Act (NPT) adopted by the U.S. Congress in 1978. This law was passed in a bit of a haste and many of its original supporters believe it should be revised, but no action has been taken yet

---Page Break---

In that direction, also the NPT has been used to put some pressure on other

reduce

countries to place their nuclear facilities under strict safeguards or to

the scope of their nuclear programs, as was the case of the Carter Administration

with Brazil with no positive results as was to be expected. However, on July

16, 1982, President Reagan made a policy statement for international cooperation in nuclear energy, within the NNPT frame, which is a positive step forward. Its basic elements are the following:

Re-establish the U.S. as a reliable partner for the peaceful use of

nuclear energy

No relaxation in the concern about the need to avert nuclear proliferation

and reduction of proliferation risks.

3, Improve international U.S. cooperation in nuclear power within the SPT/TAEA framework of safeguards.

4, Differentiated treatment of the countries in accordance with their proliferation risk, expediting action on export requests when statutory

requirements are

5. Enhance international competitiveness of U.S. nuclear

F exports.

The effectiveness of this policy will depend on the extent to which it will become established and well supported. We shall review next the status of the cooperation between the U.S. and the three Latin American countries with nuclear Programs.

In the case of Argentina the cooperation is practically nonexistent, but in addition there is no major interest on the Argentina side since they have been able to develop their nuclear program in cooperation with other countries.

In the case of Brazil a bilateral agreement for peaceful cooperation in nuclear energy was signed in 1972. Right after, Brazil contracted with Westinghouse for the construction of the first nuclear power station, Angra I, which has just

---Page Break---

been completed. Also an agreement was signed for the U.S. supply of enrichment

services for Angra T, which include? av naley Af Brazil decided to obtain the
welesr fuel elsewhere, In 1979 Brazil applied for an wxport License for the first
refuel lead. However, due

adffeultos with NWPA requirements, particularly
TASA safeguards, forced the Carter Admin?seratton to de127 anv action, ta spite
of Brazil's protest and insistence chat Lt ¥.S./Brazil cooperation had to abide
strictly by the terms of the 1972 agreeoat. To resolve, ac ?east cenporariiy,
this delfcate steuation the preseat ade?atetration conveyed +9 Brazil the
dectaion that the U.S. would accept the: Brazil obtains

Ne nuclear fue! elsewhere
without any penalty. I think the case of Brazil hows how the U.S. has assed an
opportunity for an effective nuclear cooperation.

tn the case of Mexico, thet o

recently

11) announced an ambitious

nuclear program, the U.S. has been more active, under Reagan Administration polities

to secure a productive cooperation. High level discussions will

Mexican authorities

have been held, to assure that the U.S. is prepared to provide a comprehensive

program to support nuclear export initiatives related to the requirements of the

Mexican nuclear program. Also technical exchanges and joint research are contemplated.

The final decision will depend on the fate of the Mexican program.

We may conclude this brief review of U.S. policies by saying that the U.S. must

Adopt a more stable and flexible policy in nuclear cooperation, and offer stronger

support to the U.S. nuclear industry 1

the U.S. 48 to play an important meaningful

international role in the development of nuclear power.

---Page Break---

---Page Break---

TABLE 1

ESTIMATE OF ENERGY RESOURCES

North Central and Western

America South America Hemisphere

coal /oil/tar

Sands/Shale .

(Quads)* 30,000, 30,090 60,000

Nuclear (Quads)

?Without Breeder $>1,000$ $2 >1,000$

?With Breeder $>100,000$ $t >100,000$

Solar (Quads per year)

?Insolation $\times IZ$ $450 = 830 = 1,300$

?Developable by 2000 $8 = 5$ 16

Cnetuding Wind)

Water Power (Qu

per year) $8 = ru^2 = 15-20$

Biowass (Quads p>

ar)

?Developable by 2000

225 240

Geothermal (Quads

per year)

?Developable by 2000 et 3

1 Quad is the equivalent of: 500,000 barrels of oil per day for one year

10" soute

40 million cont of coal

1 trillion cubic feet of natural gas

293 billion kim of electricity

---Page Break---

TABLE 2

Prospects for Small Nuclear Reactor:

1. ASEA-Atom (Sweden) aut
2. Rrafewerk-Uaton (Germany) SiR (natural circulation)
3. Alathou-Atlaneique (Prance) PAR (cA?)

Britain) PAR

5. Oldbury (Great Britain) GcNU/aagnox

TABLE 3

Prograna of CXEA

1. Nuclear Pover

- 2, Fuel cycie

3. Radioisotopes and Radiations

4. Radiological protection and safety

5. Research and Development

6. Training

TABLE 4

Construction of Nuclear Power P1

near (752)

NACE

KRWU/Stemmens (25)

supervision of construction, industrial architecture,

Preparation of specs for tenders, quality control.

---Page Break---

3

5.

rate 5

Fuel cycle Facilities of CEA

Uranium exploration

30,000 tons of U₀ (aseured)

23

Uranium mining

Five areas presently under exploitation (Cordoba, Mendoza, Neuquen, Chubut, Salta)

Uranium concentration (yellow cake)

Production of U dioxide (Yuclear quality)

4, Palot plant: 3 ton/yr (Argentine technology)

44, Cordoba (150 ton/yr) (under construction, Geraan technology)

(expandable to 700ten/yr in 1989)

44d. Second commercial plant (900 ton/yr, 1996)

Fabrication of fuel elenents

4, PALot plane (Argentine technology, S0z of needs)

44, seize plant (for GUA and NE

441. Special alloys plant (zizcalloy tubes)

tv. Ze sponge (Bariloche) (500 kg/yr)

of 100 ton/yr.

second phase will be plane

¥. Testing of fuel elements (high pressure)

vi, Testing and Assay of spent fuel elements.

Reprocessing

Experimental plant (1982)

Production of Heavy Water

4. Ptoloe Plane (3 ton/yr) (under construction)

44, Planned two more plants, one of 80 ton/yr. and another of 250 ton/yr (Neuquen, with Swiss Engineering (Sulzer)).

---Page Break---

TABLE 6

Nuclear Power Program of Argentina

Plane Location Date of Operation Capacity (MW)

2. Atucha T Prov. 8.4. 1974 340

: 1977 368

2. Babalee cordoba 1982 600

Atucha IT Prov. BuAL 1987 692

4. cuye 1 Mendoza i991

5. Noa Noroeste 1994

6. BAS Prov. B.A./S 1997

Total Nuclear Pover Capacity Planned for Year 1990

1650 Mie) 7.8%

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Figure 1 |

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Figure 2

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Figure 3]

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LeeTaaL Ew ore

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ARGENTINA

EVOLUCION ve LA PRODUCTION DE DE URANIO

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Jy ona) stusture for Nuclear

Powe: in Srasth

PRESIDENT

Defines wuclear Energy

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Mixistry of Mines

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National = Brasilien Brazilian

nuclear Energy | Sietear"Encerprises) electric Power .

Coamisston i (oecceas) company ;

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TANE 7

INSTITUTIONAL FUNCTIONS OF NUCLEAR ENERGY IN BRAZIL

Ministry of Mines and Energy

4. Planning, Execution and Control of national nuclear energy policy.

2. National Nuclear Energy Commission. (CNEX)

1. Sets standards and authorizes Licensing of nuclear installations.

4. Sets standards and norms for safeguards and protection for the construction and operation of nuclear facilities as well as the use of nuclear materials.

iii. Supervises and inspects all nuclear facilities in Brazil.

iv. Carries nuclear research

v. Provides training in nuclear science and engineering.

3. Brazilian Nuclear Enterprises (SUCLEBRAS)

1. Prospecting, mining and processing of uranium mineral:

At] Construction and operation of all facilities related to the nuclear fuel cycle (enrichment, fuel fabrication, reprocessing).

At, controls the trade of nuclear materials.

tv. Construction of nuclear power reactors (engineering, design, construction, financing, as well as promotion of local manufacture of components.)

¥. operation? of the Center for Development of Nuclear Technology (CDTN).

vi. Management of subsidiary companies related to the Nuclear Program (RUCLENON, NUCON, NUCLEN, NUCLEP, NUCLAM, NUCLEI, NUSTEP)

4, Brazilian Electric Power Company (ELECTROSRAS)

4, Planning, siting and construction of nuclear power plants.

44. Operation of nuclear power plants through local subsidiaries.

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table 8

Nuclear Power Programs in Brazil?

Uranium prospecting and exploration

Reserve of 236,000 tons of U_3O_8 , (1980)

Mining and Refining

Picos de Caldas Industrial Complex (CIPC)

1. Mining: 2500 tons of ore/year

2, Refining: yellow cake, 550 tons U_3O_8 /yr

Conversion into Uranium Hexafluoride

Conversion Plant (1984;

500 tons/yr UF_6 ,

)

Enrichment (nozzle process)

Demonstration plant (1984): 24 stage cascade

Expansion to 200,000 SWU/ yr

Buel Element Fabrication

Manufacturing of UO₂ pellets and assembly in fuel elements (1982)

Reprocessing

Pilot plant (Dortmund, FRG)

Training at German Reprocessing Plant, WAC, Karlsruhe

---Page Break---

Table 9

Nuclear Power Plants (Sr:

ALL are 4R, 600 MW)

1. Angra I, Angra dos Reis, completed 1982

2. Angra II, same site, begun 1980

3. Angra ITZ, Ponta Grande, A.d.

+ site approved 1980

+. Nuclear Unit 4, Sours Sao Pauto, site selected 1980

5. Nuclear Unte 5, sane

Two nore units considered to the general plan. Locations not yet decided.

?Total Nuclear Power Capacity Planned for Year 1990

1200 mie) 22

---Page Break---

---Page Break---

wErosns:

TPLANALTO DE POGOS DE

CALDAS / MG 26,800

2 FIGUEIRAS / PA 000

3. QUADANGUÁ -

FERRAS / MG 15.000

4 AMORINÓPOLIS GO 5.000

5. CAMPOS BELOS.

Flo PRETO / GO 1.000

GWATÁ/CE «122.000

T LAGOA REN 14 ~ 8.000

8. ESPINHARAS / PB 10,000

TOTAL = SSSSSSSCSC * C « 00

Figure 7

---Page Break---

CHART 3 INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURE FOR NUCLEAR POWER

lw Mext00

---Page Break---

Thermal

ost

coal

geoth

Hydro

Nuclear

?Total

TABLE 10

STRUCTURE OF FLECYaxe

ENERGY PRODUCTION

TN MEXICO

(oxpressed in Me)

1980

1990

2000

T emw wm | ccm asl

8000 Me (532) |

1000 me (7)

6000 sw (40x)

15,000 69

20,000 88 (son)

4,000 s8ç cao8)

2000 88 (2)

12000 (308)

3,000 (82)

40,000 »2

5 46,000 (3139 |

6,000 (72)

3,000 42) |

33,000 ast}

| 20,000 ø232))

87,000»

---Page Break---

sBLE 1

TONS FC NUCLEAR POWER IN MEXICO

Secretary of Patrinony and Industrial Promotion (SEPAFIM)

i, Definition and Coordination of the National Energy Plan, through the

Director General of Energy.

Coordination of decentralized government institutions dealing with nuclear energy (NIN, URAWX, CMRSN) as well as the CFE in what refers to policies and Amplenontation of the Nuclear Program.

2. Federal Commission of Electricity (CFE)

1, Public company for production and distribution of electricity.

44, Design and specifications of nuclear power plants, through the Director General of Nuclear Engineering, with the advice of INTN.

Aik. The institute for Electric Research advises in matters related to energy in general but is not directly related to the Nuclear Program.

The Programming, Planning and Management Committee participates in the way about the Nuclear Program.

we

7 Institute for Nuclear Research (INDY)

3. National:

R&D related to the Nuclear Program.

9 CFE in design and engineering as well as in the training of human resources.

4. Uranium of Mexico (URAMEX)

Public Company with the monopoly for exploration, mining and production of uranium minerals,

AL, Advises SEPAFIN and CFE in the use of national uranium resources

5. Nuclear Regulatory and Safeguards Commissions (CNRS%)

4, Im charge of nuclear regulatory and safeguards satters,

Ai, Advises users of nuclear materials and systems about regulations, standards and
safeguard:

---Page Break---

UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1-7, 1982

Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

THE RATIONAL USE OF ENERGY AND RENEWABLE ENERGIES
FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES

By

Y. Chevalier

French Agency for the Management of Energy

France

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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= yetaopceron

St emphasized that the last (United Nations Conference on new and renewable sources of energy held in NAIROBI, developing countries are to solve a world energy problem in the forthcoming years

ing dependances

or Gndustey, ceansport

cary 0 develop their

Hy Heading

comencia! energy in the teaditionnal sector

aodest sgricvital productivity and reral

Such » sitvae

in could br greatly endanced through a core rational use

the diverse energies and the development of the large potential that
renewable energies represent.

Nevertheless, it has no energy (whatever solar or classical)

its same in order to achieve & sectoral development

= To be in accordance with the real needs of

for those reasons, we consider that, for any country of the world the

following methodology has to be followed in order to implement a coherent

policy in the field:

= present a complete assessment including both commercial energies

and classical ones) in terms of: supply and demand.

dy be cone for ost oF the Latin-azerican countrie:

Such a work has

by OLADE.

tuation of the realistic potential of

?energy emana reduction

2) energy supply Sy neans of renevable energies technology in terms of realistic teckn'cat, industrial and financial enviroeneent.

For such an approach, al} the concerned actors, from the Ministries of wine end Suergy to che ead users (eechnical Ministries such as Inéustcy, Agriculture, Building, Health, industries, consumers) should be assoc.

fed.

= in function of the priorities

defined previously, development projects on

sete prolecton,

can be drafted and implesenced. Such projects should

From the Beginning the Zegree of possisle appropriation

OF the concerned technology. By appropriate technology, I do not sean a

Stansferable technology, T'rean, first of all, a techaoiozy that will eet

---Page Break---

to its best the actual demand, a technology that will not need lengthy foreign experts visits to work in a satisfactory manner, "hard" dependency (Oil for example) should not be replaced by a "soft" dependency (foreign know-how). To meet these goals, formation of scientists and technicians who will adapt, install and maintain these technologies is crucial.

To conclude this introduction, I would like to emphasize the fact that developing new energy technologies will not lead by itself to a better development, but such progress should be part of well defined sectorial development projects

POTENTIAL OF A BETTER MANAGED ENERGY IN THE CARIBBEAN REGION

The study of the published Caribbean energy balances and statistics

Leads to the following constataions

= Caribbean countries are heavily dependant on oil (up to 91 % of the energy needs of Jamaica in 1980) which is totally imported except for

Trinidad and Tobago.

~ The electrical energy efficiency, i.e., the electricity production/GxP ratio as shown in table | varies from 0.18 in Martinique to 1.18 in Barbados. Although this ratio should only be considered as an indicator ~ it does not take into account neither the total energy consumption nor the structure of the demand = it is significant of large differences in the region. Such a situation leads me to briefly develop, although it is not the theme of this conference, the problem of the rational use of energy (RUE).

1 ~ Rational use of energy

As said previously and shown in table 1, at comparable GNP/capita (Martinique and Puerto Rico), the electrical energy efficiency can be 6 times higher in similar climate conditions. Does it mean that people in Puerto-Rico have living standards 6 times higher than in Martinique? As a matter of fact, the era of cheap energy from oil is gone, and therefore measures to ensure that energy is used judiciously and efficiently should be adopted.

Energy demand management is equally important as energy resource development and management of the supply.

Activid

= Phased reduction in the utilization of petroleum products

to manage energy deaund should focus on +

~ Energy auditing and retrofitting for the purposes of identifying

?energy wastes and increasing energy efficiency in the public and private sectors

= Fiscal measures with the objectives of +

+ rationalizing the pricing and marketing of petroleum products to

?encourage conservation

+ encouraging investment in energy efficient equipment

---Page Break---

?TABLE |

ELECTRICITY CONSUMPTION PER GNP

epee)

sland oF country 5 cnPrc

(GNPPC) (US\$/perton) (evh 088)

anrtcua 950 0.75

AIUMAS 2,620 has

BARBADOS. 1,940 0.6

cuss 810 0.96

(CURACAO-ARUBA

oMENECA 440 0.47

?GRENADA 530

wart, 260

smutea 1,150

MaRTINTQUE 2,900

MOnsERRAT 920

?PUERTO RICO 3,172

DOMENTCAN REPUBLIC 910

St. KITTs-EviS| 660

St. wocra 630

st. vicewt 380

?TRINIDAD & TOBAGO 2,910

Reference i The energy alternatives for the Caribbean - Dr Juan A. Bonnet =
Deceaber 7, 1981.

(1) Energy Production Per Capita,

---Page Break---

= Public education, designed to
educate and ingore the public on energy issues celevant to
government plans and projects

- potivate greater energy s2vings consciousness.

Finally, It should be pointed out that such measures mainly concern the "modern sector" including the heavy consuming industry (cement plants, agro-industry, etc...) transports and energy losses for the production transportation and distribution of electricity.

According to a recent study sponsored by the French Ministry of Research and Technology, table 2 shows what could be the impact of conservation measures for the world commercial energy consumption in developing countries.

TABLE 2 = Developing countries : possible commercial energy conservation in 1990%

(CmTEP/year)

SAVINGS

[estimated

Taxes [Subst icution)

price | T8G* | technica Se>stit Total

poticy| regu- | up-grading| scale | savings

lation econeay

Electricity | 323,7] 5,0 | (9 24,9 5,0 49

Agriculture mrt or fo 5,0 o 5,0

Residential 293,8] 14,9 | 5,0 5,9 19,9 46

Transportation] 373,5] 5,0 | 5,0 29,9 10,0 49,8

Industry 433,31 10,0 | 10,0 54,8 149 89,6

Others 29 | 5.0 | oO o

20,0 | 19,6 49,8 | 2264

4 utilisation rationnelle de "énergie

ARES, CTRED, SEMA ENERGIE, TRANSENERC,

* From "Energies renouvelab!

dans les pays en développement

june 82.

(a) Production, transportation and distribution losses

---Page Break---

As appears that the greatest benefits of a strong conservation policy could be obtained from the industry and residential sectors, Last but not least, RUE should also concern the traditional rural sector which largely depends on renewable energies, In HAITI, firewood, charcoal and bagasse provide an estimated 80 percent of all primary supplies, and they get scarce as population grows, leading to a situation where they could not be "renewable" anymore, I wonder whether developing countries should not consider that RUE is not only a developed countries problem ! Saving energy is the problem of users and consequently of all of us.

~ Renewable energies

"Renewable energies" are already widely used in some Caribbean countries as seen previously in the case of HAITI, Theoretical potential is

considerable : solar energy is - sometimes too much = present everywhere while hydro, biomass, wind or geothermal are available in most countries

2.2.1, Direct solar energy

High solar radiation in the Caribbean region leads presently to high electrical energy consumption for air-conditioning purposes. These contradictory situation appeals the following
Teschke : before using solar, we have to learn, or re-learn,

how to build houses and buildings allowing a good thermal comfort. Western architecture, developed before the energy crisis is definitely not adapted to tropical conditions. Passive solar designs are to be promoted by the rehabilitation of

architects and builders while strict regulations should be implemented.

Active solar energy should mainly aim crop-dryers and solar water heaters in the semi-arid and solar industrial steam generation in the long-term. All these techniques can and have to be developed locally in the frame of regional programmes

Photovoltaics is a different problem. Often considered as an expensive and sophisticated technology, I nevertheless consider that it represents one of the most appropriate renewable energy. Actually, a photovoltaic generator can be considered as the pace maker of rural community in bringing an answer to its fundamental needs (water, health, telecommunication, etc.). Still a large part of the rural areas of the Caribbean countries do not count with electricity. The isolation, the absence of maintenance of a photovoltaic system certainly represents an answer to their problems. Photovoltaic rural electrification should be seriously

considered by public utilities while formation of technicians
able to design, install and maintain such generators should be
developped.

energy

Steady and strong vinds prevail on gost east and northeeast
coasts of Caribbean islands. Windmills and wind-generarors can

a

---Page Break---

supply mechanical power direct; to flour-mills or water-pumps

They should be used as widely as possible under local manufacture. In order to convert this large potential into electricity, most specialises now consider that small is really beautiful in this case. Large machines (2300 kW) have not actually demonstrated to be as cost effective as smaller ones; furthermore they require a high maintenance and technical environment.

Large hydro-power have been used in Caribbean countries up to now (90% of the electrical power generated in Dominica). Mini-hydro-power which is slightly reliable and easily appropriable could play an important role in developing the hilly regions not reached by the electric grid. An accurate inventory of the sites is nevertheless required before planning a generalization of their use.

2.5.

Bagasse is already largely used in Caribbean sugar-cane factories.

A better energy efficiency of these factories could allow them to convert their bagasse excesses into electricity.

The upgrading of plant waste by gasification, production of biogas or ethanol, has already given rise to perfectly competitive technologies. This applies to the production of biogas for heating and lighting, and to the gasification of certain agricultural wastes. Depending on the quantity

of gas, lean-gas

can be used, thus providing mechanical or electrical motive power.

In some Caribbean countries, the scale of wood consumption makes it important to preserve its renewable character. Hence it is necessary to stop the process of degradation of the forest and to assist reforestation.

Geothermal _energy

Constant seismic disturbance and active volcanism is significant of the potential of the region. Nevertheless, excepting the ?Gouillante? plant in Guadeloupe, little has been done in the region up to now. The necessary evaluation of the potential and identification of sites is being performed in most countries.

Whether for electricity generation for power supply networks,

or the use of steam or medium temperature heat for industry or heating, the use of geothermal energy requires large investments but may be an alternative energy form wherever it exists and wherever energy needs are relatively high and concentrated-

---Page Break---

AN EXEMPLE : FAME PROGRAMME WW FRENCH Ai

HLA

Martinique and Guadeloupe are situated in the heart of the Caribbean sea.

The islands are volcanic and volcanic. [In spite of their high density

Of population (180-300 hab/ha²), 50-00 houses are not yet connected to
the grid,

ML the previously described renewable energies are available but little
used while most of the consumed energy comes from oil (280.000 T in 1980
in Martinique) -

3.1 = Consumption and energy needs

The oil consumption is presently 48 follows in the case of Martinique +

- = Road transportation « ast
- = Air transportation Li9e
- = Sea transportation be
- = Electricity production «. seceeseeses DER
- = Industry (wedium and high conperature heat) .. 3
- = others on

This balance does not take inco account the bagasse used in the distilleries which ensures their energy autoonoay. The growth-rate Of the energy desand is around 7 Z/year in Martinique, while it reaches li in Guadeloupe.

taportant sensibilisation campaigns on energy conservation and

renewable energies have been realized in the past years.

various installations already exist +

= Large solar water heaters at the "Club Méditerranée" (800 52)

and-an hospital (350 22).

Tele-detection of voles

generators.

Je activity equipped with photovoltaic

Wind-generators for telecommunications, se:

beaconing.

= The geothermal "La Bouillante" installation.

3.2 = Renewable energies programme

The objective is to substitute 35.000 TEP/year of oil and to electrify 10,000 houses by 1990 in both islands. The main sub-programmes are as follows :

---Page Break---

fed_ingo the gia

A detailed study of the existing sugar-cane factories showed the possibility of producing electricity from bagasse excesses. The expansion of a plant in the island of Reunion which will produce £2 We at the end of the year (one third of the installed capacity in Martinique) shows the importance of such an approach. Other studies concerning the possibilities of OTEC and geothermal are being performed?

3.2.2.

Areas that will not be reached by the grid within the next ten years have been identified. The design of photovoltaic and/or wind generators adapted to the needs of the concerned houses is under development. The first installations will be operational in "la Désirade" island next year,

sional applications in isolated

Utilization of wind and photovoltaic generators will be generalized for all new telecommunications or beaconing equipment,

applications

Suitable existing public buildings will be equipped with solar

water heaters where new ones will be built with solar passive architecture sometimes coupled with an active climate system. Two projects concerning reverse osmosis water desalination powered by photovoltaic and/or wind generators are presently considered.

= Regional (French Antillas) evaluation of the resources

~ Regional evaluation of demand and identification of project.

= Information campaigns,

= Training, in particular for solar water-heaters installer:

conctustoxs

Rational use of energy has been since 1973 in the hands of economic planners while renewable energies were mostly in hands of researchers. It is time for us to act to concretize our papers. Acting needs everybody especially when referring to decentralised energy sources (conservation of energy)

We should spend such more time to prepare what tomorrow can be (1985) than the long term sight be (2000). The energy problem exists now in the Caribbean Region. If it could not be solved in the forthcoming years, many countries will definitely not afford the future promising prospects. We should be aware

---Page Break---

sither for decreasing costs, otbervise they will not ?appen. Funding always exists when good projects, in the brouiue sense of ti teray exist. tee we promote and prepare then

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---Page Break---

UPADI 82

?San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1982

1 Congreso Nacional de Alternativas Renovables de Energia

USO RACIONAL DE ENERGIA EN EL DESARROLLO NACIONAL

Por

Sergio Arkhipenko

UADI - Argentina

Sen Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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USO RACIONAT, D2 ENFROTA FN EL DeSART?

Ingeniero Sergio Arkeiverko = UADY - Argentine

? ?ACIO

Pore contribuir al lena: INGENTSNTA: PIS ORA .

TAR EH EL DESARROLLO D8 10S PUEBLOS ce? eeu Pauamericn=

0: de energia, = reslizarse en Puerts icc os ite ke

fosto 42 1982, el Ingentero Sergio Arkiiven?s dy! vem.te de

de VARI presenta le

Tnergfa en el Desarrollo

arciones eleboredas en el Congreso

ae

Nacional argentine, ¢

Necional

biendo une

Ingenierfa en 1977 en Buenos Aires, 2escr

netoçologfa pare implementar el cumpliniente 4s retus crisnts

des hacte el bienestar de! hombre en e! presente y ene) fae
ture.

Aunque el tema se seserrolle en oo) ares
culares de la Argentina, como se nutre de exsers valver-

val, se espera que su experiencia verndcula ~

6 también para otros países: por semejanz

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© PREPACTC

1 IntRODUceTe:

II MODETC EYERG:

IIT APLICACION

onal y conservaci3n

Polfticu Energstice

Fe y perseverancie

kedios

Comvicei3n

Epoque mltiple

tmo del URE

Semántica energética

Bifequeda

a

NACIONAL

Prfoque euférico

Enfoque erftico

Uso Ractonal de Snergfa

Desgloses

VEL ALGORITNO DEL URE

Forma

Bienestar individual

Premisas del bienestar

Alternativas del modo de uso

Electrificación

Sentido de pertenencia

Referencia no regida

Tirar de la agricultura

<7:2 ¿Energía no convencional?

Venta de combustibles

---Page Break---

IV USO RACIONAL,

V NUEVOS RIEBOS

3.9

4.9

Notelo general

13.9.1 Representación gráficn

9.1.0 Genera?

9-2-1 Alternative &

+3.9.1.2 Alternativa 3

Directives para URE

Pactibilidad de cambio

Balance Alternativa &

Balance Alternativa 3

Conclusiones

ENERGIA ELECTRICA

Importancia de medidas

Diagrama de cargas

Importancia productiva

Desglose y factor de carga

Factor de potencia

Factor de transformación

Despuntamiento

Los factores típicos y e2 URE

-8.1 Factor de carga

+8.2 Factor de potencia

18.3 Factor de transformación

Potencial Nacional de Ahorro Energético

19.1 Factores de generactén y tet:

bucién

19:2 Factores de te uttitsactén protug

Representacidn de? eszuene functone?

de cambio

Ejemplo Argentino

Neces:

Nuevo enfoque

---Page Break---

I. TNtRoDUccION

1.1 Defintetén

Requiere te scción pare lograr e] Uso Racional de Ener-
gfe: "un conjunto conerente de medidas tend?entes ? la utiliza
eign, con el nfnimo de pérdides recursos energéticos, en pos
gel bienestar, le seguridad, la libertad y el progreso del hon,
bra en el preaente y en ei futuro, en un ambiente litre de con
?aminacines nocivas y con la minima aniquiac:én de reservas;
naturales no renovables.?

2.2 Uso zactona? y conservacién

Freferinos ie denominacién de! "uso racional" frente a
da ge Neonservactén?, agociano egte tino término en el "man
tenintento en buen estado" de cardeter casi essdtteo, mientras
que le misma naturelere diadnica de la energie puesta al servi
cio del hortre ze relaciona con su uso.

Le energie debe ser usade en forma juste y ldgica, 0
goa "ractical", pera producir et progress Se la"inilitad dev
Ga" del hombre:

Cbservamos que en algunos paises se trata 2 tena como
"conservast én" eniéndonog al
concepso 3 7 ce ja? conservactén
spor medica artificialmente introducidos- Ge avg que por su
propia navuraleza es imperecedero, cone 10 el Ter.Prin
cipio de la Termodindmica de "Conservactin rata.

El II Principio de la "Irreversibilidad de los procesos naturales", no indica que el flujo energético siempre desanda su calidad al producir los efectos que necesitan (no se puede) bienestar del hombre, por lo que debemos aprovecharlo (y no el tiempo) no a través del camino hacia la mayor entropía o eficiencia. Así que no interesa simplemente perder o conservar algo, sino usarlo adecuadamente para que impulse el desarrollo del bienestar de la comunidad.

La amplitud de conceptos contenidos en la definición del URE requiere un tratamiento muy heterogéneo, no obstante de mantener la misma orientación del progreso del hombre, incluso destinatario de esta acción.

1.3. El URE

Nuestra condición humana, que requiere la ayuda de los medios tecnológicos para coordinar mentalmente a los seres humanos, nos obliga a recurrir a los modelos. Se solo tiene que presentar la realidad real y no la ideal.

En concreto: la problemática de la Energía (cantidad de energía) por su complejidad no permite un enfoque simple, construido en base a una cadencia por la rigidez de la conexión entre causa y efecto de muchos subconjuntos, sino que requiere usar un enfoque universal con relaciones

---Page Break---

en varios planos (Modelo Pestel-Mesarovic) y, ain asi, no podemos ufanarncs de haber podido llegar a la perfección de nu-

esta tarea de construir una imagen de la realidad.

No propiciamos realizar una tarea sencilla y ficticia para captar el cuadro del universo, que jamás se encuentra en estados cuasi-estáticos durante un considerable lapso, sino que cambia continuamente con rumbos de marcado antagonismo, propulsados por "disparatados" criterios.

1.4 Política Energética

El modo de estructurar, como el resultado de una conciencia, es la conducta de la comunidad que aceptamos como una "política", la que es: tanto más definida y estable, como mayor es la "eficiencia" de los conocimientos específicos en las áreas llamadas a asumir la responsabilidad de gobernar. En la política energética juega el rol preponderante la conciencia energética colectiva, dada la importancia de la energía. Se debe tener presente que la comunicación es un factor que es la condición de máxima importancia para el URE.

En nuestro ambiente nacional no se ha formado aún la conciencia energética colectiva por lo que los planes energéticos sectoriales se presentan con poca, o ninguna, coordinación entre sí.

La energía de la Industria, en la Agricultura, es el

?Transporte, en la Defensa, on la Educacidn, on la Salud, etc.

ete. no se'trata con un enfoque integrador, observandose sien
pre mayor, ttinero' de divergencias que colcidencias de tos ort
terios utilizados.

Tas numerosas iniciativas: en forma de proyectos ~nacen por doguier, sin suficiente justificaci3n, pare realizaree so doen contados casos, y estos no siempre en versiones n3e ver tajosas vara el conjinto. Su ejecuci3n, universalnenteracole= cede strasos, muchas veces mayores de lo eanis:bie-

1.5 Fe y perseverencta

Pare indagar sobre las razones de este situaci3n, vie~ ne bien el caso el relato de Herodoto sobre le conatrucei3n Ge le pirdnide de Cheops. Dice este historiacor griego que, para arrastrer las piedras desde las canteras nesta los bor- Bes del Nilo diez veces diezm!] hombres te~daron tres meses pare que, luego, la misma cantidad de hombres eon e) lapse i- gual las'colocata en la pirdmide. Pero previamente durante Lez afios toda dotact3n en conjunto ha preyaraco "oe camsnos para hacer factible el arrastre.

La decisión de construir la pirámide fue basada en la fe de los egipcios en la inmortalidad de los faraones, lo que me llevó a realizar la obra sin vacilaciones y cambios de criterio. La perseverancia se demostró con dedicar innumerables

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para la preparación de la infraestructura sin la cual la obra no podría realizarse.

En nuestros tiempos, muchas veces reclaman la falta de construcción de grandes obras, olvidando que sin la fe y perseverancia ninguna obra, grande o chica, útil o inútil, saludable o maligna, puede llevarse a cabo. Nuestra dificultad es que carecemos de estas condiciones por cuanto, es mucho más complejo motivar a nuestra población a lo que lo fue para los egipcios

Pero si no podemos contar con la fe, no tendremos la perseverancia de la fuerza creadora que necesitamos para ver las montañas.

1.6 Medios

Muchas veces se comenta que la posibilidad de obras "fardnicas" radicaba en el uso brutal de las masas de esclavos en cantidades siderales, Seguramente este hecho no era nada grave y caía tan brutal, como, cuatro mil años después, se observamos en los campos de concentración de nuestra época, pero el esfuerzo muscular que se disponía era 2% tan lejano de lo que nosotros podemos disponer ahora,

Por ejemplo para la construcción de esta pirámide lo que equivale a la energía eléctrica de una central hidroeléctrica de unos 10.000 kilovatios de potencia, la obra para construir cualquier presa gasta más energía que una pirámide.

1:7 Convictén

legamos @ le conclusi3n de que nuestra capacidad de realizar grandes obras no depende tanto de los medios materiales, como de la fe y de la convicci3n que vamos por el camino correcto para llegar al fin que anhelamos.

No bastan las motivaciones econ3micas apoyadas en las f3rmulas matemáticas sofisticadas; el aval moneserio de las mejores instituciones mundiales del crédito; los proyectos perfectamente elaborados por las mejores instituciones de ingenierfa,.. la fe y perseverancia no se fabrican con "rutinas", con procedimientos, por mis avanzados que fucsen.

La fe y la convicci3n aparecen como resultante de otros factores; cuando el sentir del hombre se une a la conciencia colectiva compartida es que la energfa lo protege contra la mseria y lo defiende en los momentos de supervivencias.,

Así aparece la voluntad de actuar y la confianza en
que el camino elegido es el que corresponde, siempre due
Responsables de la conducción, así lo pueden demostrar,

1.8 Enfoque múltiple

He nos fijado la meta de preparar un modelo m

múltiple para,

---Page Break---

a poder reflejar la realidad y tratar de proyectar el futuro.

Nuestro presente tiene su raíz en el pasado, tal como
el futuro se nutre en el presente. El pasado es innegable y
posible de ser modificado, no obstante de que muchos aún así
se insisten! El presente? pasa como una flecha y el futuro
se espera con cierta chance de poder modificarlo.

~,Ai decir del poeta alemán del siglo 19 ~ von Schilles

?tome @1 futuro por tu consejero, pero no como le herramienta

ae tu gcoién; no elijasal fugitive presente por tu amigos ni

al innévii pesado como tu enemtzo"..~

1.9 No lanentarse

Lanentarse frente a la realidad del ps

los responsebles de sue males en el innovi

eva ? nade positive.

gente y buscar

pasado ~ no nos

Mds vale prender 1a vela que lanentar 1a obscuridad"

Hee un viejo proverbio chino que elegimos cono nuestro lena

Con este espíritu hemos orientado la búsqueda de soluciones para el problema que nos ocupa. No aceptamos la simplicidad de los slogans, ni la sofisticación de los procedimientos, no tratamos de justificar a las autoridades, ni apoyar algunos planteos, ni métodos, sino tratar de reunir los esfuerzos del mundo en que vivimos para plasmar un modelo que tenga la mayor probabilidad de simular correctamente los efectos de las acciones que podemos proponer para el logro de la meta del Uso Racional de Energía

1-10 Algoritmo del URE

El mandato contenido en la definición del URE nos obliga a preparar un algoritmo (método y anotación del cálculo) para poder analizar varias alternativas con procedimientos algebraicos.

De esta manera podemos enfocar tanto las medidas operativas para el mejor manejo de las instalaciones existentes, como evaluar las propuestas de cambios estructurales en los equipos y procesos productivos.

También para el planeamiento la posibilidad de simular el futuro con un modelo de razonable confiabilidad tiene un ve

tor nada despreciable.

1.11 Senéntica energética

Para llegar a la efusión de una información coherente y comprensible, concordante con los conceptos que evoca, es de imprescindible necesidad la aplicación correcta de la significación de palabras? o sea de la senéntica-

La confusión, que nace de la indefinición y que favo-

7

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rece al incremento de la entropía (caotización), es solo combatible por la claridad de los conceptos que son especialmente vulnerables en el campo de la energía. In efecto: los energías pueden figurar expresadas en cierto número de unidades

Ssicas (KWh, TEP, etc.) que indican le misma cifra, pero s0-
jo. con ello no significan que estas energies tienen? la miana
calidad en 10 que.a su posibilidad de uso se refiere:-un mi-
ign de kilocelorfás contiene un tangué de agua de 1000 metros
cildicos calentado a 1°C, como los 150 litros de nafta en el
tanque de nuestro auto.Bsto debe ser entendido como una condi,
ción bdsica para la acci3n pro URE "no debenos gastar le ene®
gia de "alta calidaé? en 20 que se puede obtener con la "ba

3 Como ejemplo: no quénar un bosque pare celenter una pa
ya de?agua o hacer funcionar una central eléctrica con 20002
Coén su horno para luego celentar, con la electricidad asf ge
nerada,el-ague para e: bafio a 30°C, 0, como se ha dicho, no
cortar un pan de manteca con un cuchillo eléctrico.

1.12 Bisquece

Gon los conceptos generaies que acabenos de exponer
nos proponenos realizar une busqueda de le metodologfa que

puede ser aplicada al conjunto energético para formar la con
Giencia nacional de la problendtice energética contri buyendo
8] logro del propéaito que nos henos fornuledo: ?elevar el
bienester delhombre de muestra comunidad?.

---Page Break---

Digg.

Banta:

ay le

jescaser?

Jagotamiento?

sexplosign?

---Page Break---

11 MODEIO ENERGHITICO NACICNAL

2.1 Bafoque euférico

Hace algunos pocos silos exiot{a 1a idea de que el mode do energético se obtiene como un conjunto matendtico de muchos batances parcieles de los nprocesos que se realizan en un cone torne nacional y que es tanto mds confiable, cuanto még comple to y detallado se le puede elaborar. Unido a la informatica, cada vez milis sofisticada, ce legaba esf -par io menos en men fe- a la conclusi6n de que cate artificio serfa capag, con so lo formularie alguna pregunta, producir una respuesta ajuetes dea te verdad.

Actualnente le implacable realidad relegé esta idea al mundo de la ciencia-ficcidn al que efectivenente pertenece.

2.2 Enfoque científico

Más se acerca a la realidad la propuesta de los profesores Pestel y Megerovic, de la Universidad de Cleveland y Renover, de usar la representación en "mapas" con el Modelo, {mostrado en el Diagrama 1, con sus principales variables definidas como:

Economía

Población

Energía y

Recursos naturales.

Estas variables se estudian en sus mutuas interrelaciones en diversos planos como ser:

Natural

Económico

Demográfico

Político

Social

Seguridad etc.

Para las situaciones fortuitas se introducen los "catastrofes" que afectan a las principales variables, Inflación a la Economía; Explosión a la Población; Agotamiento a la Energía y Agotamiento

El tratamiento en "multiplanos" con las técnicas de la "programación" permite la eliminación de las alternativas "imposibles" que no pasan la prueba de "restricciones" en cualquiera de los planos asumidos.

Con este criterio se pueden elaborar los modelos más confiables, sin por ello llegar a ser infalibles.

2.3 Uso Racional de Energía

evaluar las medidas propuestas en el Uso Racional de Energía:

el estudio de múltiples planos en forma

iterativa.

06

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Comenzar con el plano económico

alternativas al, por ejemplo

© las mejores resultantes para

o? para trasladar ue al
seguridad social? y 2

natura?)

rar"lae alternativas

panos legem las versiones que me
ae ser aceptables per el conjunto.

chance tienen

Enpeznr por e? plano econcmétriso tiene e) sentido prác
tice de no perder el tiempo con algo irrealizable por falta de

2.4. Deaglo:

Cada una de las principales variables, es a su vez, el
resultado de diferentes componentes. Por ejemplo a la Energía
podemos desglosar de diferentes maneras: por el destino de su
uso: Transportes y Residencial, Comercial y Serv.
Públicos; por la forma bajo la cual se presenta: Calor, Elec-
tricidad: por el proceso de su generación: Sistema Térmico, Apro

que representa a la Economía en su conjunto, se
caracteriza por las actividades productivas que
como por las componentes de la Energía que parti-
cipan en su creación. No se puede pretender el logro de una
perfecta exactitud en este desglose que por lo tanto tiene el

energía orientativo, ya que siempre existe cierta coparticipación entre diferentes formas de la energía, de manera que los indicadores reflejan más que valores absolutos la preponderancia de unos frente al conjunto.

Por ejemplo, vamos a considerar la componente del PIB, derivada de la Energía Eléctrica que indicamos con la "participación W" que alguna forma relacionamos con la "electrificación?"

Para la electrificación hemos usado una relación:

K_e

indicamos su significado.

Los desgloses pueden realizarse también con las restantes variables adquiriendo así el modelo su mayor versatilidad.

1) Se acercan asintóticamente a la realidad - sin alcanzarla

2) Se aproximan

y en un "Modelo General -3,8"

III APLICACION DEL ALGORITMO DEL URE

3.1 Pome

El algoritmo del URE debe permitir la selección de sc-

luciones para obtener con el mínimo consumo de Energía el má-

ximo del Bienestar, cuando se lo formule para el plano econo-

Sirtco.

Lo escribimos con:

\

xin | (PBT)!

sue

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Fara ou empleo debemos considerar que podenes contar con la re
lacion de ?EX PEI) con cierta confiabilidad que puede ser aco:
tada, a le yer que disronenos de "coordinadores" 6 "factres,
ge correcei6n" para ajustar ecta relaci6n a ios estados de.
contexto Bj: tanto nacurales como dependientes de la yolunta6

Gel hombre, de: estado y manejo de equipos ete.

la relaci6n entre ©! conouno de 2a Bnarefa y el Produug

to Bruto Interno (PBI) tiene 1a complejidad que ea imposible

Reconstruir por la integración de todos los procesos inter=

Vingenteg en "las cadenas que tienen como los: necos finales a

la Bnergfa y ϕ : PEI. Con muchos procesos de? Spo input-Output"?

"¿ge sabe como funcionan, pero que no son reproduct bi

en base a la ontosis de sus elementos.

Para este caso siempre se opte por te obs

recta que luego se presenta como

cidad,

tice para

inero de

o. Este es el pro.

ne. valides

la relación que existe entre el consumo de energía

en un conjunto de, al incorporar la energía produ

ta servicios, se cuantifica con el término de) uso

de "energía por unidad del producto" .con kWh/ke,

KWh/ke, kWh/unidad, etc., etc. y se puede considerarlos como la

expresión de los aspectos de los costos de fabricación:

El producto elaborado tiene su "precio" de modo que se

puede referir a la energía requerida por el producto evaluado

con su precio con kWh/\$, kWh/\$ etc. que expresa comúnmente en

energía en el costo "standard" de diferentes actividades pro-

ductivas.

El producto elaborado participa en formar su componente del Producto Bruto Interno, "energía" que requirió para su elaboración, consume el modo y sector de la actividad que representa. Evalúe el PBI en unidades monetarias (normalmente en dólares de 2000 del valor constante) y el consumo energético en unidades que le corresponden (por ejemplo TEP- Toneladas Equivalentes de Petróleo

Gente Entenaidad energétion que se exprece cose:

= pp er otesten ete,

es condiciones do cata contexto y 10 "soecie? Ze pre

ceeon, ofan CSotghe aporte? gus contsslones \$8

posible de

: ?otesis de ce

ign de in ?elasticidad?, cono relucidn de variectones de

Bl) resu? tanto

Spe

PEL

PET

tor y por lo tanto SeK.PBr®

Para ou repres

dodle logaritnices, so

eréficn, usando lac eordenadas

anecribe como:

in Bek +e tn PET

lo que es sunamente convent:

linearidad que adquiere.

3.2 Blenestar inéivicual

Bn le definición det URE eros asumido ge oe requiere ase

gurer el cumpliniento de le meta dei bienesta~ del

que en el vieno econdmico se pondera con 2! Pal por ϕ
fa variable en su valor absciuto no tlene tanto eignificads
como zor su cambio cone! tienps s pares ca uaci3n +
piciel. tretandose de un indicador ?eonpues sc?, dependiente de
condiciones Se cade contorna, lo que: nds es su e~
nue su valor ebsoluro,nara ce !f2
neater individual del pais.

Existe une bestente difundida pr3etica de usar como ϕ ?

Dienester a? Consumo Energ3tico sor cdpita,

@ cone un objetivo del planeamiento de! ?ecarroile,

proceder no pueete ser recomendad>: muchos paises "pobres" sor

baje caliaad de vida al exportar la "enere?a? (venia de come

buptibles) tienen un alto indice de consumo, cas! a nivel

paises "deserrolledos". Por otra parte entre los paises de:

Erollados y con similares "standard" de vide, existen algunos

fnscs altos muy por encima de otros, dedido al uso Mireacte

nal" de energfs, rayano con el "despilfarre?.

Anelizade cuidedovamente, el {ndice del PBT per c3pita

#iene gran importancia para e2 enfoque, siempre que se deri

nen adecvadamente los alcances.

Dede hacerse notar otra nds. B1 valor det

PRI de un conjunto normalmente se exprese en su valor acumi-

lado nnual con dolares de EE UU corresponde:enves al

un determined eflo. Si ae

indicarge el fn3ice de intlacs3: Sos valores a una

ase uniforme, cue en este tra! ea coo USA

Gel afto 1960, "pare tener 1 nparecién ene}

Plan Oficie:'de le Argen'

3 Premises del bienestar

En este trabajo los velores"incipales" se~a

eign B(PET) han sido referidoa a: ato 1980, con ta pr

nte para su renrepresentación ser te

indice

veces or

---Page Break---

---Page Break---

Como promiss

Pat /edptta "inte

clepar

eraio que el

4s se puede calouler e? PBI del ato

in tase denográfica ser neceserio lograr

Lperfod. consigersio.

éel ae

El algratmo dei URE se ubica en el Modelo General(3.8)

dentro de ciertos fsites de eu "factibilidad?, de manera que

enté poaibles de

vazones obviag tene-

Hence considerate

derance cul

det rétoe.

natives que const

nificwtives para una demoatracté

aciona Ja con PET con la e-

0.87 tai como 1o hace e?

lo hace con la elasticidad $e = 0,3$,
seé como un valor "deseado" con 14
posibilidad de alcanzar en base a las
experiencias de otros países.

Pore 22 Alservativa 3 el cambio de le elasticidad de
su valor "inotérico" de $\# = 0,87$ a! "finel? de ex0,) no pued
Tealizarse en forma immediate y esto debe tenerse en cuenta
#1 Racer ?ou edloulon mis exactos. Lag Alternativas A'y 3 eon
leranos cue Gelinitan el sector de "pos: ble" ubicactin de

28 caracteris*.ces, curante el perfodo ce los próximos 20 @~
Rios, © saa: ne "pes: que A? n! ?mejor que B

35 cactén

La relación de la Energía Eléctrica y la Energía Global, que denominamos como "electrificación" pensamos que en nuestro contexto difícilmente podría superar en los próximos 20 años un valor de 40% mientras un valor de 50% puede considerarse como un nivel general, salvo algunas excepciones. Estas son muy particulares.

La importancia de la electrificación se hace presente al observar los datos estadísticos mundiales que muestran un crecimiento constante de la intensidad de la electricidad en los países desarrollados.

sus le electrificienci3n E+ 22 que muestre que con la srectente

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electrificaci3a se generas m3s bienes y servicios por cada uni-
dad energ3tica

3.6 Crecimiento demogr3fico

Para este perfoco fue acumide en 1,67 % anual acumula~
tivo.ta incidencia de in tasa demogr3fica es muy significati-
va por cuanto afecta oi PEI/c3pita y la "olasticidad".En la
Argentina no ea ce tino "expiceivo", lo que sin embargo suce-
Geen muchos otros paises donde requiere una consideraci3n muy
particule:

3.7 Energia no registrada

3.7.1 - Agricultura

La intensidad energética definida como

$n = \frac{E}{P}$ en KWh/ha

Por

y, para la componente del PEI debida a la actividad agro-pecuaria

En Argentina es notablemente baja de manera que la

energía consumida por hectárea es prácticamente nula, 5% producto de

que recibe una insignificante "subsidio energético" de la energía

que se genera se debe principalmente

al uso de la energía eléctrica? 6 sea la que se asorta en forma

de energía natural del sol y los suelos. A su vez, el "efecto invernadero" del

agro es de orden de $\approx 12\%$, de modo que debe ser contemplado

como una característica en su parte económica.

La particular situación de la Argentina merece ser aclarada:

la energía siempre se encuentra presente en todo proceso

productivo y pues sin el aporte de ninguna actividad puede

desarrollarse, pero, en Argentina, la energía necesaria

para el crecimiento y la manipulación de los productos elementales

culos (energía metabolizable) en su mayor parte es proporcionada por la energía solar y los nutrientes fijos. Suele ser de modo que la parte "registrada" (o sea la labor, los pesticidas y fertilizantes) es considerablemente baja con respecto al contenido energético de los bienes producidos en el sector agropecuario.

Esta parte de energía, que se llama el "subsidio energético" es en la Argentina caracterizada por el hecho que por cada kilocaloría del "subsidio" aparece en el producto 5, 5 kilocalorías, en EEUU la relación es de 1: 0,87, en Israel e Inglaterra 22 1: 0,5, en Australia de 2: 2,07, etc. Zeta situa in debe ser tenida en cuenta al querer hacer las comparaciones entre los países por sus parámetros específicos. con el "subsidio" energético muy bajo en la Argentina es posible con los momentos, la elasticidad del precio con valor silo, 10 que por supuesto no sucede en otros países donde la "ingensiva" producción de bienes agrícolas supone muy considerables montos de energía, tanto en el laboreo como en productos elaborados en base a los combustibles como los fertilizantes.

~16-

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tes _y pesticidas, y los elementos de avanzada tecnología que se necesitan para incrementar los rindes. En la Argentina el aporte energético para el riego por bombeo de agua tiene por cierto un significado considerable que corresponde con el desarrollo en los entornos de inversión, pero para el caso con el Santo nacional no es el caso de los países. Lo es para

3.7.2 Energía no convencional

Dentro del concepto de inversión en energía no registrada de alta intensidad (FEI) están todos los recursos de la energía en formas no convencionales o sea las que están figuradas en el inventario de Recursos (combustibles fósiles, nucleares y los tipos de recursos hidroenergéticos). Así, bienes y servicios que se generan en la energía solar térmica, geotérmica, etc. al producir su componente del PEI, no registran la inversión que emplean.

Desde el enfoque económico se comportan como los recursos agrícolas sea bien o prácticamente nula elasticidad y por lo tanto se les optimiza el uso de los recursos, reduciendo el consumo de energía "registrada".

Aunque en estos momentos la incidencia de la "participación" es, en general, no convencional es. prácticamente medible, esto no significa que puede ser ignorada su creciente importancia en el futuro. El reemplazo que se efectúa con la energía solar, de las demandas convencionales para la calefacción y secado es un ejemplo de esta afirmación. Los recursos "no convencionales" participan en la reducción de la elasticidad y por lo tanto responden a la meta de la RZ, que propicie su difusión.

3.8 Venta de combustible:

En el contexto nacional hasta el presente no tuvo la necesidad de contemplar las consecuencias de la venta de combustibles fuera de su contorno, que sin embargo corresponde mencionar por la posibilidad de su ocurrencia en el futuro. Para caracterizar la energía general, la venta de combustibles

cae censo de 12 relación de le Shergfa para 21 uso Directo,
donde los bienes vendidos se cuantifican como 1a Bnergfa R
gistraca, y le "participactdn" en el PEI o cea) como la com
nonente due se produce por tal razón comb

Con diferencia a otros casos de te relectión entre te

snergfa y 21 PSI, donde e1 costo ce energfa censtro del costo
sel produeto representa solo una parte bastante redjeida en

~@.mayorfa de procesos productivor o gen i crsensidad "nes
aia, le venta directa Se Snergfa en forme ce combuss
convencionaies se caracteriza po= Sa inzenc/cad tense
ta, cuanto menor valor egregacs ne requiere-vender e? ?crude?
significa operar con ?n" alta, pero otra s:tuación se estable

---Page Break---

) PBL

Sain 2, PB!

participación ?i

---Page Break---

ce con combustibles refinados 0 de tipo no-convencional como
Peej. nucleares, inclusive transformadce en productos para u-
08 diferenciados, como fertilizantes, pesticidas, etc.

También puede considerarse la venta de la Energía Blé-
trica fuera del contorno nacional?, lo que requiere un análisis
más profundo para establecer su incidencia final sobre el bie-
nestar individual.

Dado el carácter polémico que siempre suscita el tema
de la exportación de combustibles, cabe agregar la siguiente
reflexión:

B1 plano econo

rico, ta: como lo henoe seflalado repe

fidanente, no es una forma catogdricante cecisiva pera fors
gular une'conclusi3n sobre les bondades de medidas propueatae.

Dede ser complementada por eu consideraci3n on otros pianos

donde pres. e] polftico puede impulsar nacie tes soluciones

que no Feeulten convenientes en ϕ 2 econdnico. custamente en eg

te proceder radica la ventaja de "multipiancs?"

Hecemos esta refiexi3n con respecto 2 1

ey a2 fctrica fuere

+ que faciimente puede coneiderarse con =a Gs

gan preparado para satisfacen los intereses ce tipos 3iame=

jralnente opuestos. La ventaja del modelo "maltijerarquico"?

que heros asunico para eate trabajo ae hace expecialenente pro

Yechosa para el andlisis sereno 3e este prob-ema de indudabie

3 nacional

3.9 Mode2o general

Reviste un inter3s especial poder confeccional un Mode

to general de la característica E(PRI) donde pueden tener en
cuenta las relaciones entre las componentes parciales de distin
tos participantes. Un modelo de este tipo permite "simular"

los efectos de las variaciones de (a) de la BE), de
W (debe al ego), de la electrificación ?, elasticidad
de la (2 y 252); "de la electricidad y de la BS ve PEs
de elasticidad parcial y de la ZEv componente parcial
PEI y algunas otras más.

El estudio de este tipo de modelo se desarrolla en los
Seminarios sobre 1m Computación en el Uso actual de Euerere
1 Centro de Estudios de Computación de la Universidad del
Salvador en Buenos Aires, de lo que mencionaremos algunas con

consideraciones de tipo orientativo:

3.9.1 Representación gráfica

3.9.0 General

En el Diagrama 3 en coordenadas doble se muestran,

2) representa un modelo simplificado de la característica BP

B) con premisas siguientes.

-29-

---Page Break---

---Page Break---

(Eecats øotte

---Page Break---

1° la Enefera Global

létrica y ED ca la

29 ta electrifescsén S

neria ©

mite supe-

Her E+ 40s ye

3° La participación Wi indica ?a componente del rue se

x

cen su estado actual de

fede a la SE - Pucce ser expresado como

El coeficiente k depende de la elasticidad,

mas 2) y ademas de la estructura de cada eje

4° Durante esta etapa entre la situación inicial y final?

Las elasticidades parciales se mantienen invariables,

© sea no cambia el "modo" de uso.

5° Las elasticidades parciales ϵ_p y ϵ_g

y ϵ_s

En el Diagrama 3, mientras el PIB crece

5.3g,

y la Energía Global incrementa del 1% a 1.5%

El valor dentro de 2010-2020

8 participarán en

El Diagrama (Diagrama

es).

sus valores límites de máximo

> pag (2)-(5)

componentes

one 12e8ne~

Wt29)

Gono ce yé 1a caracterfstica de la EE (PSI) representa
da con 3- ϕ no ofrece informaciones significativas para su de=
Tinkeiá, sino se indiean loo valores GeWs,) 7 (ye) Dare
un caso determinado, formando caracterfsticas (7)-(16)-(4) de
un caso especffico. Obeérvace que Ja 25 vs FS! vara todos los
casos sienpre serfa la misna?(2)-(6)], aunque encierra todes las

alternativas posibles, de manera que no es una definición sufi-

definitoria

3.9.2.1 Representación de la Alternativa 4

En el Diagrama se representan las características en los puntos "iniciales" y "finales" de la alternativa A y para las premisas del Bienestar 1, II y III.

Para esta representación se asumió el techo de electrificación del 40%.

Con premisas se observa que la elasticidad parcial de la Energía Directa sería cerca del 0,61, mientras que para la Energía Eléctrica su elasticidad parcial sería, variable entre 0,9 a 0,92 para las premisas I a III.

Confirmando ya expresado la elasticidad entre la Energía Eléctrica y el PIB o sea se marca tal que hace evidente suficiente aplicación.

El consumo de la energía eléctrica para la creación

0,5 ¥ et

20-

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III desde si yalorMizicie!@ 6 8,67 ¥T

e1 congumo total acum

ée 1426 UTEP.

sube 4 42,2 KTEP, con

o ds le" energfa gtoba: on? los 20? ahoe:

ie Alterna!)

se encuentrs la renrcsentación de

ouest2 cue

Bn e1 DMegren

la caracterfs:ice sajo ø:

se lograría bajar la elasticidad "e" a 0

En este caso se observa que la Energía Directa ha

mantenido su elasticidad $\epsilon_p = 0.61$, mientras se eg, se encien

tra entre 0,77 @ 0,57 para 9 variables

Para la

ría de 23,4 YTEP/año

energía global acumulada

Se saca la conclusión que, al mantener el mis-

mo modo de consumir = la Energía Directa, se consigue imple-

mentar mayor eficiencia en el uso de la Energía Eléctrica y con

esto podemos ahorrar, a la vez que se quiere decir, el 30%

de la energía global:

10 Directivas para 02 URE

La energía eléctrica "final" se

entre de! 70 alos, cen e: consumo de le

2a de (026 WEP.

Estos dos 2jempioe, que se ubtcan como ciertos extre-
mos, en el Modelo General, 'nes permiten formular ia direct!
ves? para le implementaci3n de medidas "pro 7P=".

Yimos que debe incrementarse: la electri icact3n para
lograr mayor remplazo de} uso de recursos no renovabiesy a
ie vez optimizer el "modo" de emplear la enezgfa el3ctrica con
le dismimuci3n de su elasticidad parcial. Al cunplirse estos
objetives los resultafos serfan Tuy atractivossson In enegra
global pare el mdximo beneficio (Preniea l17'-losrerfamos ba~
jer de SSOOuTEP 2 1000 MPEP pare ei consunc acumslado de 20 a
Ros SIM A7ZOTAR SL PROGRESO Ze] bienestar + ir cesta le

mitad e2 consumo final ée la enersfa eléct=

Ccusesuentemente esto perait:

te les invereicnes ée] capital en las es!

Vig les exizoncias ectuales de? capital er futuro.

Queda le pregunta: ;Podenoa realmente lograr un cambio de elasticidad de ta! magni tua?

3.11 Pecttbiitéad ded cambio

Como en otros países se hen producido los cambios que queremos introducir en e2 \$ro, poderos or Sorma may simple, pero no cen otros tan~

eign le herence

También podenos preguntar:

¥ seguir en adelante cong p-anenzo

breocuparnce por cambiar?

> considerabiemen

lo que el

fence no cambiar

caso,para que

?23+

---Page Break---

osm ortaps soreraeeieog

AL Uli

on a

ee ATEPTUT Sasa

V vValavuianty soNvIVE 9 wR

---Page Break---

BE nn 4

Yrussoaayy |

|

25 LUMI

|
i

---Page Break---

Analicemos rrativa "AT que corresponde a lo pla
neado y tratemos de ectatieccr mu factidilivad y, si este es
negative, tenemos que cert en ?orzosamen:a!

Dos aspecton funtarentaiee cond
ée le Alternativa "4": ta exietencia

ios para asegurar ?+ ofirta y le posto:lidad de ampiier

jetures para la devun!: de ln enery?n . éovrica ce tal

megnitud que puede ser akess>: sa por el ucierio or 10s 20 ales
para esegurer e! desar: Oe

n le factibiliaed

sos energéticos

Aunque no disponemos en estos momentos de suficientes
informaciones sobre la magnitud real del Inventario de Recursos
908, podemos tener la esperanza del descubrimiento de nuevas
fuentes o del cambio coyuntural que inherencia ya provee.

pero si estariamos frente a lo imposible ¿cómo aprovechar
globalmente a la energía eléctrica por medio del "mercado" de
Semafo apropiado la Alternativa "A" pierde o se activa.

En el estudio del balance energético de la Alternativa
NAM que hacemos seguidamente, veremos que

que se requiere de elevar la eficiencia del mercado

eléctrico al tamaño que se requiere

como un imperativo ético:

tes,

3.12 Balance de la Alternative A

Recordemos que desde el consumo "inicial" de 8,67 MEP de la Energía Eléctrica debemos llegar a los 42.2 TEP "finales" dentro de los próximos 20 años. En Diagrama 5 presentamos el Balance Inicial y en Diagrama 7 el Balance Final.

En estos estudios en un trabajo sobre: "Rol de la Energía en el Uso Racional de Energía" llegamos a 12 conclusiones que el crecimiento de la demanda solo será factible si, con respecto a los valores presentes, se incrementan: 1) el sector: R Comercial y Servicios Públicos en 2,5 veces, transporte en 2 veces y de la Industria en casi 5 veces (ver!)-De los actuales 6 UTE de la Energía Eléctrica consumida inicialmente en la Industria: se debe llegar a 30 UTE/año, lo que constituye una meta de tipo "gigantesco" con prácticamente ninguna chance de cumplimiento si no es por la necesidad de llegar a la inversión fuera de nuestras posibilidades.

Por lo tanto sin esta condición no será posible absorber "racionalmente" a los 42.3 TEP/año y por lo tanto debemos buscar otras alternativas:

Baste solo la consideración de que los 20 TWh/año en la Industria equivalen a unos 120 TWh/año en forma de energía eléctrica que, con 4000 horas de utilización, serían absorbidos

gon una denends media de 30 GW (o sea mas de'50 CI inatacados)

Jo que exige facilmente una ?nversign de cerca de 50.000 Muse

Flo tante tebenos, eo

co, lograr un cambio te la carnelert'

---Page Break---

en in ampliación de equin

te ios prdxinos 20 afas,

trinlización de magni tud

Fire veces avperior >.

que no se paste con

Prosegulr con ta

Tacneta adopt ads

2,13 Belence de le Alternative 3

En eota alternative

Enexgfa Biéstrion de Sh,2 Wt

sie dei Balance Fine? con esta alternatives requ

grentos, en todoe los sectore, alrededor de dor veces at

gopemo tical, io que no cerfa"inpoaibiony tends Setuce no

Dlenente se momma ce nuee eretico. Pare oer

factible requiere sin erbargo un notable ease ex ta Cheetieh

Ged total, produotde ccain c2 Deprane § 1 cenblo de le

ectiei2ad parca! ene! uso de fe En éctricas

Cbeervaremos que ei no logrese este cambio de elasti.

due, eeguirenua con ei ge actual, 0 sea con ta corestentetted
gq fa Alternative A-'y sf 2in!tande ef apsrce de ce onereiiice
2éesrsca e ton 23,2 uPEP ei bienearar dete sostactée mess oo
fe 2000 ee mantendrfa a: nivel actual (Presia)

3.24 Conetuszén

Con ins coneideraciones precedentes estenos en condi=
stones de formlar una reconendacién para cocnblecer el cortege
Ze comtno nacke le meta del URS, con el envocue cus recaser ae
objetivo principal: el bienestar Jel hombre.

ZoEs,Png5s"9,cortorne podmen eotableces eiglteghot ae
poder adsorser una cierta "oferta" de ig_enersfe eléctrica en
un determinsdo momento en base a las daiiie sees ee seeeetel on
¥ Gistrimetén y'del iso que pata aque! tense sofente sonsers

Gen esta oferta de 1a Ene~gfa Eléctrice\?eplicando 1a
slasticidad parcial tog factibie de ebtencs, sacontrancs GOg(?)
PRI © nee ie partictpactén on o1 PRE que lp corresponde.

Asumimos cierta electrificacién ? t1 podrfamos lograr
ene} mazento conatderado y por lo tanto encenssarence la fe
rerefa Global que gerfa requeriia en
ee (3-8

E = y por 10 tanto EDWE-BEjcon 1a en 0 see ln
Slastictee péSeta? de? Yeo Directo encontvence el valor des
PEL tote!'y hor lo tanto. nee

De esta manera tendrenos te infornectén sobre e} view
que podrfance eoperar con e! mode ce sen~ vesnesier tee)

227+

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Diagrama 8

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que stspomoe. si

nesorario tenemos que nodiftear

TY USC RACT:

inportenete de nedtée,

Hemos sefaledo 26 tno: erste eobr>

co de la energfe elée:

le argentine øo las fuenses

ane slempre mayor "elecsri fs

Por tet rexén in ace

cha en esto sector lo que, ps

un enfoque muy partiensar:

4.2 Diagrams és Cerca

eléctrice

en e2 moreno de gu ro.

condiciones de "calicec"

(voltase, y frecuencia cone:

tib16 Gon otros fneunos, S. 2 cee

momFectars Se 5) os

el Palnacenamntento?,

ene co20 le postin: sid

presente po> 20 7

ha timportantan

es, merece

cove ger gy

gnizicante-ha-

2° son resgos

3tro Eléctrico

?practi cament:

1 de azrol. oral lo repre

carga, normaines! as "cotencia? ver=

sue ?tiempo?, que merece una ave : ler. Bn el

Diagrama 8 ge carga,

agregenc> un 3 valores de

y enerefas

seat baset y oonia?. con la retncleo

Heéia}, Carga dfzice y Wntne.

4.3, Dnpertaneta srotuative

Bi deeglose nencioneco tiene una si sx12tcgcién para el

ggtudie de ies reiectiones "parcia?es" ze fa e-wvgta eiéeset=

cay ie produceién,

oo sectores det

* Factor de Gar

Za "base" atiente log servicios esone

Suainistro \emptyset el agus, d2 conse~vectén =

(eros y gran partes ce los nrocescs intus?

oras/cfa. Te? "semi dace? co:

rarsportes é> les

mertando o: valor

---Page Break---

claramente qué política de fomento debe seguirse para conformar los propósitos que han sido señalados: mayor suministro de "base" y "senibase" y menos de la "punta"

4.4 Desglose y Factor de Carga

El nomograma del Diagrama 8 indica la relación entre el Factor de Carga y la proporción de la "energía de punta", que por lo expuesto debe tratarse de reducir al mínimo posible, por medidas de "buena" administración tarifaria que lleva a los usuarios al auto control en el requerimiento del uso, reduciendo como el precio la recarga del costo de este servicio, por la mejora de su Factor de Carga.

Para la Demanda mínima de 40% de la Máxima, el aumento del Factor de Carga desde 0.55 a 0.70 reduce la potencia de punta de 40 a 10% de la máxima, y baja la energía de punta desde el 1% de la energía total.

4.5 Factor de Potencia

La energía eléctrica es "autopropulsada" por los conductores de su transmisión y distribución y además posee la condición de transformar su tensión. Estas operaciones generan las pérdidas por el efecto Joule que son inversamente proporcionales al cuadrado del Factor de Potencia que expresa el desajuste

entre la tensión e intensidad del circuit elétrico. Disminuir?

El Factor de Potencia, significa reducir la pérdida entre la energía enviada a la red y consumida por el usuario, lo que

Puede adquirir valores bastante considerable:

4.6 Factor de Transformación

La energía eléctrica por su naturaleza de "exergía", que puede transformarse directamente en el "trabajo" con artefactos apropiados, para su generación en base a la energía contenida en los combustibles, pasa por el estado térmico sufriendo una transformación según el proceso de ciclo y de su manejo operativo. Esta relación conocida como el factor de Transformación es susceptible de mejoras, tanto operativas, como estructurales,

4.7 Sustentable

El proceder lógico es tratar, por todos los medios, transformar la curva de carga hacia menor empuntamiento a lo que reduce la energía generada, sin disminuir su entrega al usuario en forma tal que, consumiendo con menor elasticidad posible, produzca el máximo beneficio

Sin embargo, en algunos casos:

En algunas empresas de "correr detrás" de los acontecimientos y en vez de reprimir la punta, incrementar su oferta con el:

?Gmpuntamionto? de sus plantas generadoras hitroeéctricas Nt
te tamafos gigantescos de su potencig instalace-con sRACTICA~
nente insignificance aporte de energ?a.

© observa la tendencia

=30-

---Page Break---

Son ta: plant

lo pueden cunfniecrar

perfodos Ge tienpe.

Bate s~oceder ves

mente incormovih? »

tal como ne nresente

primir le puate"

cia de punsa?

el valor, so

te pare le "punta" gue so

a2 sistema ep muy cortos

puntaMes un ele-

gue Gebe sem atend!do

punta" y no de "re

oasiderable "poten:

N naUidas eprovidas ge

51 URE demucetra que

gosamente evatunie, =

te tipo de aprovertan

nificativor y evitabie:

4.8 Loe factor

expuntamiento"debe cer cuida-

tna "gobreinversiéa? en es

que caracterizan

hectricastén? con

ra forma, importancia ~relativa

Se estos factores yr: > 2m economía real de: suadre eneredtieo

?aremos una ostina: Dy pere no por ello menos con=

Vincente.

4.8.2 Factor de Corze

Bi Factor ce Cara, cuanto más alto, tanto menos ener-

gia eldctrica fiuye coo ia "punta? 22 bajo efecto productios

¥ por lo tanto a componente de: Pal, serd mayor paca un alswo

Consumo total, gto sigafica ia a'eminucidn de 1a slagidolies

parcial y por ende de a global del confun

Como 22 ejem

9 numérico te cerdeter orientativo, con
gigeranos, conforms 2 2iagrans 4, que requerinos para ia? ef tia
ción "final" los 42.2 WEP en vnensia Eléctrica con te *oartie
sipacidn® de 13,2 x"20/ MUSA en cf PAL y que eate consumo n
TeaHizarfa con ei Factor 42 Caren del 0,6 gue (Diazeana 8) sig
nifice que el 415 % eo la snecvia, por ger de tpunta?s pratt
Gemente no consiituye a! TST. Si'noloremos el Fastus de Cares
© 0,F solo 1% deja ce ser "punta?.

Si asunimos que In enorg/a de
contribuye gl PBI necesiteremos cone:

cnevut le aisme participación de

Bengs_energe eléctrica para

17y 34k 10? HUSA (0 -aen 45,7 MED y ?a elasticidae serelal baja

ria del 0.92 a 0.5. Considerands que pera el Uso Directs seach

Zymog con le misma elasticidad narcial del 0,6 requitarfa que

et consumo de ta energ{a stoma? on arfa cells une? a6:

con que,con la mejora del 2a.

ita precticamente no,

Factor de.Jarga de 0,2

rie CArea del 0.92 0, lopr-

rfemos ina econonfa de 5,7 KTEc/ahc ni Sinal del persoaroe

Fepresenta ei £,4 4 ax el requotimento de ia energia glosel.

---Page Break---

4.8.2 Factor de Potencia

Br eate trabajo imputanos @ las fuentes 4e1 conguno

g toda le nergta *priman/a? ueais gara le generaci3n de la e-

legtricidad. La expresanos scuivalencie", con la re

cidn esumida en les plen.zs 9 de? confunto naciona? en

2,9 unidades térmicas por niga eidetrica generada (a

Sfegada en log boraes de i> central para ger ?enviada e la red")

Esta colaración debs tener conparer los resul,

tados con ciao estinasicn heches con otro

criterio:

Entre le energfa "reneri

gada el usuerio media 12 nércnda

medio ge acume en un 13%,

no se contempla el modo >

1a incidencia de ie aut

Con esta supoeic!4r te nérdide de ln red en eu momen

to "final" con el coneuns de? 42,2 MPEP serfa de 4,9 MTEP en

trariamente que el 50% se debe al

onal al eua~

" ys "consumida" © gen entre

je Te red, cue en su gran pro

fre que es volo orientative pues

duir la energfa, ni tampoco

efecto soul

Seago del

= de Potencia es de

On7 y Logregenon. ser 2 QoS cegutterde gue Se. Stemi-

?ste te pérdida Gel dy 44,0 «2 sstual a-2,i y per

Zo Tanto haere una Aisnisacsts de as en 0,65 SEP/aro,

ae mane: 2 fine Ja ensrefa

a elasticidad parcie? Cz, dajarfa de 0.92 @ 0.91, mi-

entras que el consumo tote! de energfa de 105 MPSP a 102 UTEP

decretendo le electricidad total de 0,87 a 0,82 - la economfa

de 3 MTEP/ato sign 2,85

4.8.3 Pastora de transformaci3n:

El factor $R = 2,2$, obtenido como un indicador en base al promedio del consumo de los centros para la generaci3n de la energa elctrica, en realidad es un resultado de la suma de los resultados de varias fuentes de generaci3n de diferente tipo y de forma del uso. Depende para un conjunto existente de caracterfsticas b3sicas de cada uno de los centros de generaci3n y de su relativo empleo, como el "Despacho Bcondmico de Cuzco

Existen dos posibles maneras de acción: para la optimización del R: por medidas operativas y por los cambios estructurales - ambos son de gran importancia mientras que las apreciaciones universales atribuyen

ambos.

Con las medidas operativas, consistentes en el fortalecimiento del estado y manejo y su permanente actualización.

Todo vigila la experiencia

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ciag en nuestro medio han denostrado 1m posibilidad de una me
del %, por lo que ha-enos 1a eatinecién con uns
"a observer su incidencia.

Para la venta de 37,2 MTEP a los usuarios requerinos
42,2 MTEP como energfa generaia con % = 2,9, asi que con una
reduccién de 4% Im denange seria de 10,5 UTEP para la miam
participacién de 13,3 x 10? Muge que se traducirfa en la dis-
minucién de le elasticidad vercial de 0,92 a 0,90, mientras
que el consumo de la energfa global bajarfa de'105 RIEP & 99,6
MPEP, con la elasticidad de 0,8 en verde! 0,87.

Is econonfa total de? SA uTEP significa el 5.1 4.

4.9 Potencial Fectona! de Ahorre Energétice

4.9 1 = Pactoree ce generacién y distri tuetén

Podemos presenter un cuadro

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le las implicancias de
medidas "pro URE" que
viabilidad. Cave Sa-
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POSTBLES ECONOMIAS EN
GENERACION Y DISTRIBUCION

Energia Global

Ahorro Total: Sin BE

Acción URE Consiste

De Energía Eléctrica

«1 Factor de Carga cambiar de 0,600,7 54% 3.6%

«2 Factor de Potencia " "0,70 0,8 28% 1,6%

+3 Factor de Transformación * "2,98 2,78 5.1% 4,0%

Aplicados simultáneamente a2 podrías estimarse el consumo total de Energía mejoraría en un 15 %o se es ver de gasta 105 MTEP de energía total bajaríamos a 90 en el año 2000.

Para la energía eléctrica se disminuiría la generación en un 9% o sea llegaría a un 38,4 TEP.

. Aunque estos son logros importantes se aun estén bastante alejados a la meta que hemos de?

Diagrama 4 con 58 % a Global y 23,4 NTRP en
ta Bnerafa Eléctrica. Esta brecha debe ser salvada con 1s ac=
46n gosre e2 procs ugtive que debe poder lograr una e=
sonomfa adicional: de orden de? 25 UTEP, ene: c
nergfa eléctrica por el cambio de! mode de utili:
ayor parte en el sector de la Industria.

4.9.2 Factores de la eficiencia productiva

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(4) Investigactén Oneretiva en Serv, Pilbl. de Zlec~

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(5) Un Bnfoque sobre e2 Suministro de Energfa EB1ée+

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Universidad Le Plate 1975

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(8) Reflexiones sobre e! Uso Racional de Enerafa

car 1978

(9) Recursos Hidroeiéctricoe Argentinos

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(10) Empleo de Silogismos en el Uso Racional de

Energía

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(12) Uso Racional de la Energía Eléctrica

Seminario Conservación Ener-

gía Eléctrica - SSEE 1980

(22) Computación en el Uso Racional de Energía

Univ. del Salvador INTER:

(13) Computador en el Control Operativo

Univ. del Salvador I

(14) Ingeniería Energética

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(15) Consideraciones sobre el

Puerto

(16) Energía en procesos produ-

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(27) Aspectos teóricos de Mod!

Seminario:

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1-7, 1982

Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

ENGINEERING: KEYSTONE IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF NATIONS

AN OVERVIEW ON ENERGY AND THE ENVIRONMENT

by

Paul Cho

Health and Environmental Risk Analysis Program

Office of Energy Research

U.S. Department of Energy

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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NOHMENT. By Paul

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Selcel advancenats Anscdated with the deveopasne gf) | 253 |

nations, there are, hovever, many teportant tseuee wuch ae] =o Ses TS

| population, natural resources, f00d, eovironsentel polls | |

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ton and potential health impacts which are identified and

| discussed in this

Engineering case th

Fat individuals, and engi

} continue the application of our engineering ingenuity ?

| the development of nations in an effective and a balanced

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?The Webster's New Loverratton:! DieeLonary [1] defines engtoeering

ss follows: "the actesce oy which the properties of eater and the

sources of energy in nature are mace ureful to man {n structures, machines,

products, systems and processes. Specially, the Landon House College

Dictionary [2] gives engineering the following definition: "the art or science of making practical application of the knowledge of pure sciences, as physics, chemistry, etc., as in the construction of engines, bridges, buildings, mines, chemical plants, and the like.

It is important to distinguish between science

and engineering. Science is "know-why"; the latter is "know-how", which helps engineering to produce wealth.

Science produces knowledge

The material wealth of a country depends on the production of goods and services through the planning, designing, construction, utilization,

efficient management of the available supplies of human effort, capital, and
machines? Just as civilization of the world has
been marked by advances in the arts, literatures, sciences, etc., to the
development of nations is characterized by economic growth and technical
progress which is manifested by making practical application of the art

Economic growth and technical progress, in turn, can stem from
greater production through the use of more resources, and from greater
productivity through the more efficient use of resources. Engineering,
is a keystone to both aspects, through increasing the utility of
resources -- as for example in allowing the productive use of land pre-
viously considered infertile, or by discovering an economic use for
raw material previously thought valueless -- and by productivity improve-
ments through increased skills, better methods, better machines, and
efficient marketing and service infrastructure

The scope of this paper covers a brief historical perspective, using energy development as an example, to illustrate how engineering has helped nations in economic growth and technical progress. It is then followed by a discussion of issues and concerns associated with economic growth and technological development in industrialized nations. Finally, this paper provides recommendations which are based on lessons

Excused previously, to aid engineers and scientists through their
invention and innovations expanding the range of choice open to nations
and their people in the world.

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ELSTORICAL PERSPECTIVES

In looking back the records history, we can see that the evolution
of mankind is replete with effort and struggle. Nature's ele-
ment of simple survival, progressing towards creating and maintaining
an environment suited to man's excellent performance, and the enjoyment
of life.

Our ancestors, motivated by their instinct to survive, moved into caves, built other more permanent shelters, utilized fire, and made tools and weapons. Thence they began to multiply, and replenish the earth, and subdue other living things on the earth. Man's survival rate was enhanced by his primitive engineering ingenuity which set the first Stage of the development of mankind? civilization. The use of energy, for example, his factor to the supply of food, to physical comfort, and to improve the quality of life beyond the rudimentary activities necessary for survival. The utilization of energy depends on two Factors: available resources and the engineering, technical skills to sources of useful heat and work. Hence energy ©

Later, with the advent of agricultural development, men and women in several major regions of the world changed from a primitive hunting-

and-gathering level of existence involving every member of « nomadic group, to an agricultural society where only « part of the population could raise enough food to feed the whole society. A sedentary mode of existence, raising crops and Livestock, presented fewer hazards than the former migratory way of life. Food production through the deployment of tools, irrigation and flood control became more efficient, Water power for irrigation purposes, for example, was developed in about the first century B.C. By the fourth century, the vertical waterwheel had been developed for grinding cereals and similar tasks, By the sixteenth century, the waterwheel was by far the most important prime mover, providing the foundation for the industrialization of western Europe. The windmill first appeared in western Europe in the twelfth century. It was used for grinding grains, for hoisting materials from mines and for pumping water for irrigation purposes. With the development of roads, waterways, bridges, and building, it became a means of distributing food among villages and nations.

drought

?Of those power sources. The development of the steam prime mover is relatively modern compared with the waterwheel and the windmill.

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?not until the middle of the nineteenth century, when the steam engine became

4 principal prime mover to provide bari: mobii?ty, unconstrained by eve
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e United States of ?erica, engeere ant atone its are continuing.

their research and developne": elorta es advance! cuergr technologies

such as coal gacifcozten ans Meo tartiony aweleat ?salons Bapnecee

hytradynantes

Beginning about 3,000 B.C.,

the Sumerians, for example:

(609 B.C. - 400 A.D.) Rome:

> engineers and architects

By the time of the Christian era

they completed the construction of the

stone bridges in Europe and Asia Minor.

In the 3rd century B.C. (8)

Huang TL, who styled himself as the

unifier of China, ordered construction of highways linking the entire country to the capital near Xian. The writing system was standardized, as were weights and measures, coinage and the calendar. Against the

always dangerous nomads to the west, one emperor linked up walls built earlier by the various states into the Great Wall & solid barrier about 1,500 miles (2,400 km) long which stretches from the sea to the desert along the mountain: that marked off China's northern limits, to the west.

Around the 2nd century, Chinese invented papermaking and printing, which were introduced later to other countries when the Arabs began to trade with China. In the 12th century, Chinese discovered the magnetic compass and black powder (gunpowder). These inventions were brought about significant developments in areas germane to the civil engineering and military technologies,

Following the development of more advanced techniques of printing, the revival of science by means of this mode of information transfer took place in 17th and 18th centuries. During this period, significant advances were made in communication and transportation. Canals and locks were built for inland water travel and docks and harbors were improved for ocean commerce. Advances in ship design and improved methods of navigation prevailed » widespread use of navigation

Sed in certain

ia

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because of the development of printing and the improvements in
?area of communication and transportation,

Early in the 18th century, the developments provided an impetus for
further technological discovery, developed by Henry Cort, was the
refining process for machinery, and the other by James Watt was an efficient
steam engine for powerplants to operate the machinery. Meanwhile modern
transportation systems began to develop, both by water and by land, @

network of railroads and highways were built to tie together the major cities in Europe and in the United States. During this period, schools and colleges began to teach more courses in science and engineering. It was the training and education processes that set the stage for an explosion of discovery in the twentieth century.

As the 20th century came into being, a number of inventions emerged that were destined to have far-reaching effects on our civilization. The automobile began to be more widely used. The inventions of Edison and DeForest of electrical equipment and electron tubes started the widespread use of electricity and communication networks. Following the demonstrations by the Wright brothers that man could build a machine that would fly, aeronautic engineering developed rapidly. Within fairly recent times, several engineering developments have produced profound changes in our way of life. These developments are nuclear power, the electronic computer, and aerospace technology.

From the illustrations given previously, it is fair to say that the beginnings of civilization and the beginnings of engineering are coincident. Down through the ages, the engineer has been in the forefront as a maker of history. His accomplishments have had as much impact on world history as political, social and economic developments. Sometimes, his accomplishments have stemmed from the pressures of need from evolving civilization, at other times, his abilities to produce and meet needs have led the way for civilization to advance. In general, the engineers do the thing: required to serve the needs of people and their culture. It is plausible that engineering will continue to play a key role, as it always has since the dawn of our civilization, in applying science to the optimum conversion of the resources of nature to benefit man,

ISSUES ASSOCIATED WITH ENGINEERING DEVELOPMENT

In view of the success which nations have had in applying science and technology to economic development, though not without considerable adverse impacts or side-effects to the industrialized nations, it seems useful to review this experience to see what lessons can be learned which may be of value to developing nations.

---Page Break---

Population: Associate! -dth Cadusrfalieation, medica? knoviedge and public beslth and sent ary pract?ces, the live birth rate has been ved; the death rate decreased siqntfteantly, table T shows birth ratec dp several regions during 2970-1975.

Table 1 BIRTHS AND DEATHS RATES, AREA AND DENSITY

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Source: World Statistical Brief, UN Statistical Pocketbook,

4th Edition, UN Publication, New York, N.Y.

?The unprecedented growth in human population is occurring in

this century, In 1930, the world's population stood at 2 billion, but

by 1975 - only 45 years later = it had doubled to 4 billion, Table

shows population statistics of varfour regions ?= the vorlé during

1965-1878, according to the sane UN publication cited sbove.

Table IT ROMAN POPULATION

(An millions)

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The worldwide rate of population growth has declined from about 2 percent in 1955 to 1969 to something under 2 percent at present. Nevertheless, overall population continues to rise, because most of the population in the world are young and have their childbearing years ahead; therefore, there is a momentum toward population growth. Even if it were possible to obtain within the next few decades a fertility level that would merely replace the parental generation, population would continue to grow for 50 to 70 years thereafter.

The picture is the great disparity between growth rates in developed countries, which average 2.2 to 2.4 percent, and in developing countries. Many have rates well above 5 percent (5). This is a severe drain on resources in developing countries. More-

over, men's burgeoning numbers are not restricted to the Asian and other developing countries of the world. The United States now has some 230 million

people. Phoenix-Tucson area corridor, for example, have been bothered by environmental pollution and other problems attributed to the high density of population living

atural resources - materials and

energy. Viable sources of energy include fossil fuels (coal, petroleum,

oil shale and tar sand), hydro-power, wind, sunlight, geothermal, and

nuclear fission, The bounty of fossil fuels, which are believed to have evolved from buried organic matter over the course of millions

of years through a combination of chemical changes and tectonic pressures from the earth over it, is limited, and not renewable, Once a barrel of oil is burned, it is gone forever.

In 1980, the primary energy production of the world was estimated to be 286.65 quadrillion BT's, Coal falls 27 percent of the budget - a rate of use that would not deplete known quantities. Crude oil supplied about 125.55 quadrillion BT's, a rate that would exhaust present reserves in

of south Asia, and vast interiors of Africa and South
people, are energy starved. The
however, have been little explored yet. The industrialized regions to
the north, rich in coal and uranium, are also comparatively well off in
oil. As energy resources rise in value, they gravitate to the developed
nations, mostly in the ports, where only a quarter of the world's popu-
lation enjoy some 80 percent of its wealth. The growing disparity
between these nations and the poorer ones to the south has created a
"north-south" dichotomy in world politics.

heats 7

the demand of energy consumption, we confront other {1

be discussed next.

consumption of energy is still growing. Associated with

energy = on which will

---Page Break---

ral Resources: As stated previously, engineers #140 use
because of their properties = their strength, dura!
fabrication; their ability to travel

Physical and chemical characteristics.

It is important to recognise that sources of most mineral mater-
are great and with new discoveries, e.g., a lot of ocean nodules,
vastly increase the availability of several metals considered vital to
Industry today. For those materials which are vital and do show so.
In the near future, efforts will focus on recycling, conser-
vation through increased prices, and search for synthetic and substio

foil

people began to recognize both the economic and environmental impact of resource exploitation, engineers and consumers alike have given a great deal of attention to the need for long-term conservation and such as and, forests, water and mineral resources, to provide sustained social and environmental benefit

ver the next 20 years, as human numbers and hence face

rapidly, the energy requirements, the

fresh water, the global state

of the planet and the species that will be affected.

Recent studies, those prepared for the President of the

United States and the other for the United Nations Environment

Programme (UNEP), warned of a decline in the human

quality of life unless action is taken. The

World Commission on Environment and Development, in its

1987 report 'Our Common Future', identified

several of the earth's natural resources as

essential for human survival and development. These

resources are being destroyed or depleted. The

World Commission on Environment and Development, in its

1987 report 'Our Common Future', identified

Food: It appears that the world has adequate land, water and fertiliser to grow food to feed its people. However, inadequate distribution of food has accounted for malnutrition, hunger and famine in many parts

of the world. Regional famine is primarily a problem of resource allocation and public policy. In the chronically food-short countries, with the assistance and cooperation of the developed nations, they should formulate policies that allocate resources to the development of agriculture technology, provide incentives to farmers to increase profes

sion and create an agricultural infrastructure, which includes

transportation, irrigation, education, storage facilities

and credit.

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Environmental Pollution: As a result of rapid growth in human population

See, signs of deteriorated physical environment and

resources have become a grave concern, Environmental

problems of various spatial scale, of different nature and

magnitude have been known for years, On a local community scale, photochemical

smog resulting from hydrocarbons and nitrogen oxides

exhausted by automobiles, and some stationary sources, exacerbated

by frequent and intense sunlight, geography and meteorological factors, has been plaguing many metropolitan areas, e. g., Los Angeles, Mexico City, etc. On a regional scale, the Colorado River system, the largest in the United States, flows mainly in arid regions that have chronic water deficiency for cultivation of crops. In recent years, the pattern of economic growth of the basin has gravitate to mining and manufacturing activities from farming. To the extent that lands are irrigated and drained, or that mining, manufacturing, and municipal wastes are discharged into the streams, the water quality is affected.

Between the Grand Lake in Colorado and the point of last major diversions in the United States, there was a 21-fold increase in the dissolved-solids concentration in the Colorado. Below the mouth of the Gila, the salinity reached unusually high concentrations for several recent years, causing Mexican Government in 1961 to express concern about the deteriorated quality of water being delivered to Mexico.

?an energy-related {sve celled "acté rain", of sore correctly

actd deposition, has exerged recently as a concern of regional scale to United States, Canada, and nations in Scandinavia. The problem of acid deposition, vch encompasses dry as well as wet acidic substances, Starts, most experts agree, with the worldvide burning of fossil fuels.

Az pollutants such as sulfur oxides and nitrogen oxt d g vith other combustion products, are dispersed, transformed, and transported With afr masses that form our weather systems. Governments of the United States of America, Canada and Scandinavia, end research insti- tutions in these countries have launched research programs to Aentify, and evaluate the cause-and-effect relationship between acid deposition and {es potential impacts on biotic (both acquattc and terrestrial),

14 abiotic eystens. Once the cause-and-effect relationship 1s ascer- tained, we need to develop a feasible strategy for mitigating the potential environmental impact,

Another large-scale environmental phenomenon called the "greenhouse Effect". The earth's temperature is determined in part by thermal balance between net incoming solar energy and heat radiated from earth's surface into space at longer wavelengths. Water vapor, ozone, carbon dioxide, and other polyatomic molecules in the atmosphere affect this heat balance by capturing and radiating back some of the long wavelength radiation. Therefore, in the atmosphere carbon

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(CO₂ PRODUCTION AND RESTORED ATMOSPHERIC

CONCENTRATION (BASED ON 1860 ATMOSPHERIC CONCENTRATION = 295ppm)

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Although the global carbon budget (4 poorly understood, 46
Bates et al.) shows a doubling of atmospheric carbon dioxide may
cause an increase in globally averaged temperature by probably 1-5°C
to 3°C, The potential impacts on regional variation of temperature
through a shift in atmospheric circulation patterns, and on food pro-
duction are important issues which require further research.

Nuclear energy may help solve some of our pollution problems

As discussed above, but they also give us new ones. The health, environ-

mental and safety issues of nuclear energy have entered a field of

growing controversy since the 1970s in many countries. Controversy seems

to focus on the possible risk of low levels of radiation exposure

associated with the nuclear fuel cycle (uranium i

over generation, waste management, transportation

ing), the low-probability/high-consequence reactor

threat of hijacking, sabotage, and nuclear blackmail:

opening the world to.

cidente, the

?bat ve are

?The other concerns over frustration resulting from econoste
?and technological developaent in our modern society may include
and econonie eiscore eteming from the gep Setween the tepacts
Of technology on man on the one hand, and the lazsing capacity for the
Society as 4 vhole to astimitate, adjust and control of the use/misuse
Of technology on the other, At the time when so many novelties are
available to serve the material needs of people, sen feels al
Insecure, and overvhelmed by hie technological achtevenents, as tf
trapped on the horns of a dilems, In brief, negative side-effects
of technological changes have posed the menace of personal insecurity
solescence of Knowledge, the rapid devaluation of skills,
on of experience, external diseconomies [12], aod
environmental pollution, ecological disequibrun and dismmenitie:

2,

THE TASKS AHEAD

So far this has discussed the consistent, practical and resourceful role of engineering as keystone in the development of nations and civilizations, and identified major issues and concerns associated with the development in the context of the modern society. Now let us examine some enlightening aspects of the challenging tasks ahead for (1). engineers, whose functions range from research, development, design, construction, production, operation, and management, and;

(1). engineering societies, associations, institutions and organization, to carry out the following responsibilities

(2). For engineers as professional people -

A. To prepare and improve knowledge and skills in specialized fields,

10

---Page Break---

To accept over:

+ To actively participate a

«For engine

. To improve means for utilizing these rei

. To explore means for promoting coos

The future engineer must ethically actences and their

Resources and their conversion, and man and his needs.

professional preparation 4+ Jones usually in a university OF

college, but as in other modern professions where rapid change

in the field, learning must be continuous.

To cultivate a desire for public service, and to
share discoveries for the benefit of others, The mere acquisition of knowledge may make a person a skilled technician or laborer, but knowledge alone does not promote a desire to serve people, In the realm of service, the engineer joins other learned professional groups with a concept of doing always what is honest, and right rather than what is the legal minimum,

To exercise sound discretion and judgment.

. To establish a fiduciary relationship between the engineer and

elt

+ OF the engineer and employer.

2) and specific codes of ethics.

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Sane knowledge.

tone!

?groups An advanc-

Ang professtona? &

ing society as a whole -

fe means of assessing the constantly changing needs of
2 an the technical resources that can, and should be
applied to them. Assessment methodologies mes include Techno
Jogy Assessment [13], and Benefit/Risk Analysis [16].

To encourage engineering research and development, aimed at
discovering and conserving natural resources of materials, and
forces including the human,

es with minimal cost

?and waste, and with maximum useful results.

ration in engineering through

the process of transferring technological know-how from

culture to another, and specifically from industrialized nations

to less developed nations, with a view to aid their fellowen

to examine their nation's needs, its relation to quality of life,

the feasible alternatives for meeting their needs, and the social,

economic and environmental consequences of these options:

n

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1-7, 1982

! Congreso Panamericano de Energia

PROGRAMA BRASILEIRO DE ENERGIA NUCLEAR

Por:

Marisa V. Ballariny

FEBRAE, Brasil

Sen Juan, Puerto Rico

Agosto 1987

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PROGRAMA BRASILEIRO DE

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WAGTA NUCLNAR

8 estudos realizadoy ao fina? de

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varan & previsio da necessari?ws, a

nio da década de 50, te una conlunetacio ese

cente de origen térica nar sotto Cent

desenvotvimento soc

Parativas de viabititate té

fontes primarias Sles. carvac © nuciear, 6

esta Giltima, que vinha sende cxjeto de estu

a década de 50.

Em consequência do estabelecimento de uma estratégia de introdução gradual da energia nuclear, ve modo
Possibilitar simultaneamente a pesquisa de reservas de min

Todos os recursos, a aquisição da tecnologia necessária, © 0

Desenvolvimento de uma indústria nuclear nacional. O programa
Se a construção de usinas nucleares foi iniciada já em 1971 com 7
construção de uma usina de 626 MW com reator tipo
reator de água pressurizada

da) de fabricação e montagem atribuída -
da & empresa americana Westinghouse por concorrência pública
internacional, localizada na costa do estado de J

heiro, município de Angra dos Reis.

Tornando-se, em

0, imprescindível a reestrutura -

organizacional do setor nuclear, foi criada uma companhia

de economia mista, a CAIN (Companhia Brasileira de Tecnologia

Nuclear S/A) depois simplificada para a NUCLEBRAS (Empresas Mu

ltiplas Brasileiras S/A), com a responsabilidade da transfe-

rência de tecnologia e desenvolvimento:

mento da in

tia nuclear.

Em 1975 foi criada no Acorn Brasil?

Federal da Alemanha, estabelecendo sua própria

até o início da década de 90, de

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constru

nas tinas

um total de 19.009 MW, simultaneamente com a transferência
da tecnologia e a implantação.

K por fazenda

O desenvolvimento da indústria

é a construção de centrais hidroelétricas em todas as fases do.

---Page Break---

clo do combustivel, devendo sua execucao levar o Brasil a completa autonomia na geracao de energia nucleo-elétrica.

J no ambito do Acordo, o programa nacional de

centrais nucleares teve prosseguimento com a encomenda.ainda em 1975, de duas unidades de 1.245 MW cada, Localizadas na mesma Area da usina americana, constituindo

as 3 unidades Angra - 1, 2 e 3 a Central Nuclear Almirante Mivaró Alberto. que quando concluída terá potência superior a 3.100MW. As duas unidades, já em fabricacao na Ale-

manha, estão no Brasil em fases respectivamente de construfao civil e estudos de micro-localizacao.

Atualmente estão em fase de encomenda duas novas unidades de 1.245 Mw para serem localizadas na costa do estado de S. Paulo.

© programa de centrais nucleares ? apresenta

atualmente um atraso de cerca de cinco anos devido a problemas técnicos, estando previstas as entradas em operação comercial das usinas Angra 1,2 e 3 para respectivamente o primeiro trimestre de 1981, 1985 e 1986, e das usinas planificadas para 1987 e 1989)

© ritmo em que deverá ter prosseguimento © programa

tem sido bastante controvertido, devido ao aumento do kW instalado, (embora este inclua a transferência de tecnologia), e face as grandes modificações no panorama nacional de energia elétrica, destacando-se o aumento das reservas hidro-elétricas conhecidas, a viabilidade técnico-

econômica da construção de mini-usinas hidro-elétricas e da transmissão de energia elétrica a muito longas distâncias.

Para a implantação do desenvolvimento da indústria nuclear a NUCLEARAS constituiu subsidiárias, algumas associadas a empresas locais como a SUCLEP (NUCLEARAS do Componentes Pesados S/A) NUCLEN (N. de Engenharia S/R) - NUCLEI (N. de Tráfego Tático S/A) MICLAN (Xe Minerado S/A).

Já está em funcionamento a fábrica A

NUCLE

no estado do Rio de Janeiro, que deverá colaborar para o

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Programa brasileiro a partir de 1974 da segunda série

alemã), bem como para a produção

na América Latina.

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inicial -

A industrializa Jo do ciclo vn combustive!

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estado do Rio de Janeiro, iniciou a usina de conversão
concentrado em hexafluoreto de U.) já em projeto, a usina
de enriquecimento, utilizando o processo de alívio de jato-
centrifugo, em fase de construção de fundações devendo ser
operar comercialmente com plena capacidade por volta de 1970,
a Fabrica de elementos combustíveis, com capacidade i-
cial de 100 toneladas/ano, em Fase adiantada de construção
devendo iniciar logo a fase de montagem de componentes, de-
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a primeira recarga da usina Angra-t.

A usina de reprocessamento será

fase mais adiantada do programa

planejada em

A participação crescente da indústria nacional no Programa Nuclear poderá seguir o ritmo previsto inicialmente, dependendo de como for ele conduzido.

No que se refere a reservas minerais para o porte do programa de centrais nucleares, a situação brasileira? muito graças ao esforço concentrado da NUCLINPAS que conta com a colaboração de uma subsidiária associada à indústria alemã (NUCLAT) conseguiu elevar as reservas conhecidas

de urânio de 11.049 toneladas de concentrado equivalente

1975 para 215.000 toneladas em dezembro de '979, das qua

126,000 toneladas medidas © indicadas em, usando a metodologia:

tura da AIFA (Agência Internacional de Energia Atômica),

soavelmente asseguradas © 83.000 toneladas inferidas em esti

mas, o que garante ao país internacionalmente o 5* ? lupar

em reservas de urânio.

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O Brasil conta, ainda, com reservas de monaz,

ta já em exploração para produção de tório © terças tara: des

de a década de 50, hem conn reservas de viries singries ? de

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O ciclo do tério (Th = U-242) que anresenta

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upabr 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

OCEAN THERMAL ENERGY CONVERSION

RECENT OCEAN ENGINEERING

DEVELOPMENTS IN THE

UNITED STATES

BY

JONATHAN M. ROSS

GIANNOTI & ASSOCIATES, INC

ANNAPOLIS, MARYLAND, U.S.A.

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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ABSTRACT

The development of Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion (OTEC) into a practical source of energy is one of the most exciting present day challenges of ocean engineering. OTEC could significantly contribute to the development of @ nation; it would be an attractive source of energy for a number of technical and economic reasons.

The United States is one of several nations actively involved in the technical development of TEC. Of particular importance to the United States, efforts in this field include the OTEC Ocean Engineering Technology Development Program managed by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) under the direction of the Department of Energy. The systems under development by NOAA include the platform, mooring/foundation, cold water pipe and the sea water system.

Recent developments of the platform systems include total designs and model tests of two innovative versions of OTEC Plants: Moored Pipeline Platform and the Shelf-mounted Platform.

Progress in the area of the mooring/foundation system includes studies on anchoring, foundation-soil interaction, mooring system dynamics analysis, mooring line hydrodynamic loading, and inspection, maintenance and repair of mooring systems.

The major cold water pipe works centered around the 1/3 Scale At-Sea Test.

In the area of the sea water system, an analysis of an existing computer code has been accomplished.

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INTRODUCTION

The development of Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion (OTEC) into a practical source of energy is one of the most exciting present day challenges of ocean engineering. In the following pages, recent accomplishments and ongoing projects of one major contributing program will be described. This program is the OTEC Ocean Engineering Technology Development Program.

DEFINITION OF OTEC

OTEC is a means by which energy can be obtained from the ocean by taking advantage of the temperature difference which exists between warm surface water and the cold water at deep depths. This temperature difference is used in a heat engine in which the working fluid is a substance such as

water. The heat engine in turn runs an electric generator, and the resultant electricity is either conducted ashore by means of a power cable or is used on-site to produce an energy-intensive product such as ammonia or aluminum.

RELEVANCE OF OTEC TO DEVELOPING NATIONS

OTEC represents an engineering advance which could significantly contribute to the development of a region which is geographically situated so that it can take advantage of the ocean's temperature differential, OTEC is an attractive opportunity for a number of reasons

© It provides the power needed by developing industries and expanding

communities while reducing their need for imports such as oil)

© The OTEC plant can be constructed where facilities and a trained labor force already exist, then moved to a less-developed site for actual use

© The OTEC plant (floating platform versions) can be moved to a different location as energy needs change

© The source of the energy, the temperature differential, is free, non-polluting, renewable, and plentiful

© Many developing countries can themselves build all or such of the OTEC plant, thus providing employment for their own industry and avoiding the need for foreign imports

Figure 1 (illustrates the extent of the eastern Hemisphere's oceans where sufficient temperature differential exists to support an OTEC plant in the

near future. It is readily apparent that much of the potential for OTEC is located off the coasts of today's developing nations.

THE PRESENT SCOPE OF OTEC DEVELOPMENT

OTEC is fast approaching economic and engineering feasibility, thanks to substantial efforts by many nations, including Japan, France, the Netherlands, and the United States. The focus in these pages will be on work within the United States OTEC program.

---Page Break---

Temperature Differential Between Surface and 3,000 Foot Depth, °C

For the Western Hemisphere

OTEC Thermal Resource

---Page Break---

The vast majority of the United States' OTEC development is carried out through funding from the U.S. Department of Energy. In particular, the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) manages the design, and Research and development projects which together form the OTEC Ocean Engineering Technology Development Program and which are extending the engineering state of the art into the realm of practical applications

STATUS OF THE NOAA OTEC OCEAN ENGINEERING TECHNOLOGY PROGRAM

Scope of NOAA's Involvement

Before defining the exact scope of the NOAA OTEC Ocean Engineering Technology Development Program, it is useful to gain the perspective of the entire OTEC effort as viewed from an engineering standpoint. The OTEC plant is normally thought of as consisting of a number of interactive systems.

Figure 2 shows these major systems for a soored floating OTEC plant and for a shelf-mounted plant. These aystens may be described as follows:

© The Platfors System consists of a hull for the floating verston of ?GHEE, She Telly te fn ehe. shape of 2 ablp, Senaent spars ouase subsersible, or sphere. In the case of the shelf-sounted version, the platfors consists of cupporting structure and enclosures, both above and below the vater. In all cases, the platfora provides support and protection for OTEC machinery and personnel. The platform ay be constructed of steel or concrete, depending on design constraints.

© The Mooring/Foundation systea holds or supports the platfors at its

Hirigned site. and asst Fantion dering have operactonel gon enteses weather conditions. For a floating OTEC plant, the mooring lines may be of wire rope, eynthetic#, chain, or a coubination of these. The sea floor anchors aay be of the drag exbedeent,

deadweight, or pile type. In the case of @ shelf-mounted plane, the supporting structure may be constructed of steel or concrete.

© The Cold Water Pipe (CWP) is a long pipe (or several pipes combined)

Which transports cold water up from deep ocean depths to the ONS platform. The CWP may be free-hanging, as in the case of the moored floating plant, or it may be supported by the ocean floor, as in the case of the shelf-mounted plant. Candidate materials for a CWP include steel, concrete, fiber reinforced plastic, and a number of elastomers,

© The Sea Water System (SWS) is comprised of the piping, pumps and

They are a somewhat of the plant, rare end
plant. The heat exchangers are particularly important, and their
design must ensure an efficient use of the temperature differential
between warm and cold ocean waters.

© The Power Transmission System consists of one or several cables
which transmit the electric power of the GTEC plant to a shore
grid. For the moored floating plant, the cable must withstand the

---Page Break---

5

MOORED FLOATING PLANT

SHELF-MOUNTED PLANT Power System

Figure 2

Major OTEC Systems

---Page Break---

6

dynamic loads induced by waves and currents acting on the platform and directly on the cable.

° Power System includes turbines and electric generators and

?Converts the energy of the rotating shaft into electrical energy

Of these six systems, the first four have been addressed by the NOAA OTEC

Ocean Engineering Technology Development Program over the past five years and

will be discussed in the following sections. Table I summarizes the current

and recently completed projects which are aimed at solving critical technical
unknowns and reducing the technological risk associated with the OTEC system

Platform Systems

Two major design projects involving the platform system have been
recently completed. They were started in the second half of 1981, and were
aimed at investigating specific new concepts for OTEC plants through
combination of design work and model tests. A systems analysis approach was
used in both studies which involved all the major OTEC systems currently under
investigation by NOAA; however, the major innovations involved the platform
system. The first of these OTEC platform concepts is referred to as the
Moored Pipe/Mobile Platform (MP-Squared) and it is a hybrid of a moored
floating plant. The second concept is shelf-mounted platform with discharge
and cold water pipes mounted along the ocean floor slope down to depths of
3,000 feet and at slope angles of more than 30°.

Moored Pipe/Mobile Platform Project

MP-Squared is an OTEC concept in which the CWP is permanently moored at the working site but the platform is mobile and may be disconnected from the GHP during times of severe storm conditions or in order to proceed to a shipyard for maintenance or repair. Two versions of MP-Squared were developed: the platform of one is in the shape of a ship, while the platform of the other is in the form of a semi-submersible catamaran. They are illustrated in Figures 3 and 4 respectively. The former provides an economical Platform, and in large sizes gives good stability; the latter provides excellent stability even at small sizes, albeit at a premium in construction and maintenance costs. A range of platform sizes was considered, as shown in Table II, with overall lengths ranging from 399 to 662 feet for the ship version, and from 369 to 631 feet for the semi-submersible version. Both versions were connected to the GHP by means of a transition platform. The transition platform acts as an interface between the surface platform and the GHP; provides buoyancy to support the CWP when the surface platform is disconnected and off site; and is the platform to which the mooring system is

attached, For the ship-type version, the transition platform was connected directly to the surface platform. For the semi-submersive, a transition was linked to the two platforms. This link was to help isolate the CHP from the surface platform motions, but in practice did not provide significant isolation.

Models of both versions of MP-Squared were tested in an experimental wave facility. They were subjected to operational and 100-year storm wave loadings representative of a Puerto Rico OTEC site. The seas were represented by

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RECENT ACCOMPLISHDANTS AND PRESENT PROJECTS OF TIE NOMA OTEC TECINOLOGY
DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

---Page Break---

leer Cable

Figure 3

Moored Pipe / Mobile Platform (MP-Squared) Ship Version

---Page Break---

10

Discharge

(omer 2° omalitted for clarity

Riser Cable

Figure 4

Moored Pipe/Mobile Platform (MP-Squared)

Semi-Submersible Catamaran Version

---Page Break---

?_??_??

Surface Surface orec Plant

Platfors Platfors Net Electrica?

Dispiacenent Length output

(long Tons) (Feet) (tie)

?___ a

68,200 398 40

136,400 500 100

SRP

220,800 578 265

333,200 662 460

a

75,500 369 4

147,000 465, 100

SEME~SUBMERSIBLE

238,500 549 185

354,100 63 240

Sane

TABLE IT

---Page Break---

12

Bretschneider wave spectra. The models were instrumented to provide measurements of platform motions and mooring line stresses. The test results (References 1,2) indicate that both platform types would survive the storm loadings while moored and while disconnected from the moor. The ship-type platform operated well for large sizes, but in smaller versions its motions were at times too large for OTEC plant operations. The seat-submersible operated well at all sizes tested. In sum, it was concluded that the HP Squared concept holds promise for application to the design of a practical moored OTEC plant.

?Shelf-Mounted Platform Project

?The other major platform system design project involves the shelf-mounted platform (References 3-5). This project had as its goal to review, analyze and compare ocean engineering aspects of past and new conceptual designs applicable to the shelf-mounted type of OTEC platform. Included were considerations of platforms, discussed here, as well as considerations of GWP's, discussed below. The project addressed a generalized site rather than @ specific site, and was concerned with the areas of

design

Construction

Deployment and Installation

Operation

Survivability Loading.

?The study included a comprehensive look at applicable offshore petroleum technology and the development of initial concept designs for eight versions

of shelf-mounted platforms. A model test program is presently planned for the second half of 1982. Plant size is 4) Mia net generating capacity, the size of a small commercial unit.

Examples of current applicable offshore technology, shown in Figure 5,

include designs presently in place or now in the design stages

Conceptual Deepwater Articulated Drilling/Production Platform

Ekofisk O11 Storage Platform

Multiple Tower Production Complex

Condeep Type Gravity Drilling/Production Platform.

The eight initial concept designs of OTEC shelf-mounted platforms were taken through to an equal level of development, including a listing of advantages, disadvantages and applicable water depths. Limited space prohibits discussion of all eight concepts here, so two concepts are presented as representative of the study. The first concept, Multiple Towers with Submerged Power Pack, is shown in Figure 6. For this concept, steel is

used for platform construction. Deployment is in three steps: base structure is launched and set in place with piles; the towers are launched, lowered and connected; the platform is then lifted into place or mated by a submersible barge. The advantages of this concept are:

- © Easiest system to expand capacity
- 2 Smallest water plane loading area
- © Straddled transfer of heat exchangers and supplies

---Page Break---

WATER ARTICULATED

(G/PRODUCT ION PLATFORM)

MULTIPLE TOWER PRODUCTION COMPLEX

Figure 5

Examples of Offshore Technology

Applicable to Shelf-Mounted OTEG Plants

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15

w completely topetce for safety

© Conventent seavater purp changeout

© ?-Méntaus foundation preparation needed.

ages of this approach include:

© Subsea heat exchanger connections

© Long and costly at-sea installation

© Ror relocatable.

?The other representative example is titled Gravity Structure with Yoon
Pool Power Pack and is shown in Figure 7. This version is constructed of
Concrete, towed to the plant site, then flooded, ballasted, and grouted in
Place. ?Advantages of the concept are:

No subsea heat exchanger connections

Heat exchangers and pumps are pulled/inserted

Flow channels are incorporated into the structure

Little at-sea construction

Excellent inspection, maintenance and repair qualities

Jetty wall acts as wave absorber and wave breaker intake,

fed in a protected

?The disadvantages are:

- © Reavy foundation load
- © Extensive foundation preparation may Se necessary
- © Relatively poor adaptability to various sites.

?The Shelf-Mounted Project, {n susmary, gave a engineering state-of-the-art applicable ta OTC aystens; produced a noaber at Posoible concepts for shelf-mounted OTEC planta; and identified avantages and disadvantages of the vartous concepts which were considered, | The ahekte ounted approach is currently considered quite viable sy the ?Departaene of Energy, a8 evidenced by its recent avard of tvo OTEC Pilot Plant comertust design contracts for such a plents

Mooring/Foundation Syste

Recent progress in thie area te represented by several studies dealing With anchor-seaftoor and foundatton-structure interaction;, aoring Line behavior; and inspection, matatenance and Tepaits

spective of the ocean

Anchor-Seafoor and Foundetton-Structure Interaction

In [the area of anchor-seafoor and foundation structure interaction, these studies have been carried out. ?The fLrst was an aeesvaent of anchor holding ?capacity and bottom stability daa (References 6.1). The objective ws to develop an analytical toot to evaluate the certs of vartou anchocs os gystepiag sea floor. Major findings to date indicate that oftchore Ravatt the ost promising anchoring procedure would be drilling and. grouting of piles. Offshore Puerto Rico, gravity eabeduent anchors seauatd of the OTEC Platform could be used in ?deep vater where heavy tedinetation extsces alternatively, drilling and grouting of piles would be required aeeseshae

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?Seale in fast

Figure 7

Gravity Structure With Moon Poo! Power Pack

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v

Riera the Dottos is prinarily vock, Another finding inéteates that the cost!

Setting ety Large gravity anchors aay be essentially che ease cs eee

SRIIZIRE 22 Srouting. "A second study in thie area consists of investieatiog
shelofsounted platform and cold water pipe foundation-sot! interaction ane
objective {3 fo Adentts; 18 and geotechnic da

Fequirenents for deteraining the interaction effects between foundations, he
Geaflocts and sub-botton strata, Included in thie etudy 0 she development of
design procedures, the selection of s viable slope-rounded GP fountariog
Concept. the performance of a prelininary bathymetric eurvey of one candthare
OUEC site, and establishing a model for the interaction becween foundering wea
feafloor. | As of chis writing, the protect is in progress and fiadicne are
expected by the end of 1982, The third area involves the geophysical melyere
Of eight sediment cores obtained near Kahe Point, Oahu, Haweils includes te
an fssensaent of the geophysical properties and the bottom conditions fee
siting floating a shelfmounted OTEC plants. Te analysis ts

fand the final report te in preperation.

Mooring Line Behavior

behavior, two studies are noted. The first

is an analysis and component data base

The study calls for a determination of the capability of the

Engineering Laboratory Deep Sea Ship Mooring Analytical Model to estimate the

dominant response of cored OTEC platforms. In addition a survey and technical

assessment are being performed of candidate OTEC mooring components

equipment, and a data base is being developed to make this information,

available in an orderly and up-to-date manner. A second study is the

study concerned with mooring line hydrodynamic loads analysis. In this study a

method was developed which could be used to predict integrated wave and

current hydrodynamic loading by the ocean on OTEC mooring lines with

particular emphasis on the drag increase due to vortex shedding. It is noted

that, as documented in Reference (8), drag increases that are caused by vortex

induced vibrations can be reasonably estimated,

Inspection, Maintenance and Repair

ebird area of ooring/foundatton eysten technology developaent
favolves inspection, watntenance and repair. Two studies are telated to chic
area. ett, {its study constees of determining undervacer iaavectesy
guldelines, Anstrunentation, equtpaent, aad data retfieval systens whick wllt
be giaguized for inspecting and nonitoring the structural, and operarteast
conditions of OTEC systens. This etudy te vell undervay; a iterators seeney
wereclamPleted. early OTEC studies reviewed, and typical example aysteas
eae eet for evaluation. In a complenentary study, an asscesuent {a belay
gade on tools and techniques which are applicable for tnepection, maletereace
and repair. | These tools and techniques are for underwater use, mal ace
SHEET Presently evatiabile or would be avatable in che aest futures. They
yould be directly applicable to the Inspection, watacenance and repatt ey
large underwater structures, vessels, and work platforas steitar to thene thor
way be used for OTEC systens.

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Sold Water Pipe,

The OTEC CHP is a system which has received a great deal of attention within the SOAK OTEC Program. Both the free-hanging and the shelf-mounted versions have undergone study and continue to be focal points of technology development efforts. Although in past years various types of OWP's have been studied ~ steel, concrete, flexible, and fiber reinforced plastic ~ the recent focus has been on only one ~ a sandwich construction of fiber reinforced plastic version. It is felt that this version holds the best potential for OTEC applications, based on technical and cost considerations.

?The five recent GHP efforts - some still in progress completed - include computer studies, conceptual design materials studies, and the design, construction and deployment of a large scale test pipe.

CHP Laboratory Test Program

?This was a comprehensive program which consisted of an in-depth study of the OTEC ?fiber reinforced plastic OKP. The effort, now complete and documented by References (9-11), obtained information on:

0 Material behavior in an OTEC environment,

© Platform/CiP response

© Towing and deployment procedures.

To obtain information on materials behavior, @ Literature search was conducted and an extensive static and fatigue testing program was initiated. Because of cost difficulties, the full testing was not accomplished; however, information was obtained on resin formulation, core material composition, and

core material structural properties.

Platform/CHP response information was generated through the successful execution of model basin test and data analysis effort. Model CWP tests were conducted using a ship-type moored platform with a suspended CWP in a model basin equipped with a deep sea testing pit. Using an interchangeable internal stiffener arrangement, the pipe's stiffness was changed to model not only the fiber reinforced plastic version, but also a cable reinforced elastomer GiP and an articulated steel shell. Over 183 test runs were performed, and there were 60 instrumentation data channels. Model results were compared to the NOAA/DOE and NOAA/ROTECF frequency domain computer codes and the NOAA/TRW time domain computer code. It was found that the NOAA/ROTECF and NOAA/TRM codes closely predicted the test data; NOAA/DOE was consistently conservative in its prediction by up to several orders of magnitude. Also it was found that the articulated pipe confines most of the motions to within the first pipe section with only slight motions in the lower sections.

Towing and deployment procedures were also investigated by model testing,

this time simulating only the fiber reinforced plastic CP. Data was

regarding stability, towing resistance, heading variations, pipe

maneuvering characteristics, and deployment loads on the pipe

during its swing down at the OTEC site. Three towing depths were tested:

afloat, afloat, and fully submerged. Major findings include:

© Pipe stresses during towing tests followed expected trend:
however, significantly lower peak stresses than predicted were
observed

© Pipe stress levels during coving were highest in the afloat
condition followed by afloat and then fully submerged

© Bending of a positively buoyant pipe results in high bending
stresses at the water surface interface.

Fiber Reinforced Plastic CWP Materials Test Plan

In view of the incomplete material testing from the CHP Laboratory Test

Program, it was decided to

plan and carry out further material testing. The

Final step was the present program, which involved the preparation of a plan for testing fiber reinforced composite material. Reference (12) presents the plans which outlines testing requirements and also points out that fiber reinforced

PI

the sandwich structures

they require cyclic weakening tests in sea water

This effort, coupled with that described in the previous section, leads

Logically to the program presently in progress, which is described directly

below.

The

1/3 Scale At-Sea Test

1/3 Scale At-Sea Test is the largest ongoing effort presently

Supported by the NOAA OTEC Program, The 1/3 Scale At-Sea Test objectives are

The effort is divided into three phases

L

2

© Design, fabricate, and deploy at sea a 1/3-scale fiber

Reinforced plastic? model CWP of a 1,000 foot long, 30 foot

Alameter prototype CHP required for a 10 My OTC plant

© Demonstrate fiber reinforced plastic technology for large scale

o's,

Design the CWP, develop test plans, obtain permits, and conduct materials testing

Deploy and monitor the CWP, suspended from a moored vessel

Deploy and monitor the CHP, installed on a steep underwater slope

Phase 1 has been funded, is in progress, and preliminary reports have been completed (References 13-15). The design of a 10 foot diameter, 1,000 foot

long pipe is well underway; ttt

2 1/3 scale (in diameter) model of a

40 Mw OTEC CWP. This model is shown in Figure 8, and details of the structure are given in Figure 9. The structure is of a "sandwich" type construction, with a syntactic foam core placed between inner and outer layers of fiber reinforced plastic. The fiber reinforced plastic layers provide

strength,

and the foam ensures a constant separation of those layers and a

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UPPER TRANSITION

(STEEL)

Sdamo CIRCUMFERENTIAL

SO FRET (TYP) SPLICE JOINT - WET LAYUP.

20 FEET (TYP)

CIRCUMFERENTIAL

10 FEET (TYP) STIFFENER RINGS (FRP)

FRP SHOULDER (FRP)

BALLAST SYSTEM

STEEL BOX BEAM

WIRE ROPE

CHAIN

BOTTOM WEIGHT

Figure 8

1/3 Scale Cold Water Pipe Model

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Resultant increased bending modulus. Circumferential stiffener rings are placed every 20 feet along the pipe, and the pipe is manufactured in 40 foot segments which are spliced together prior to deployment at sea.

An overview of the suspended at-sea test is shown in Figure 10. For this test, to be conducted off the coast of Oahu, Hawaii, the pipe will be assembled from 40 foot sections on shore, launched as one unit into calan waters, towed (supported by floats) to the mooring site, swung down, and then attached to the supporting barge.

There will be a comprehensive suite of instrumentation to monitor the pipe and the environment while the CWP is being deployed and during testing at sea. Equipment instrumentation will be placed on the pipe, the gimbal, the moor, and the platform; measurements will be made for strain,

acceleration, pressure, deflection, load, and angle. Environmental instrumentation will measure ocean waves and currents, and air temperature, wind velocity and barometric pressure. Monitoring of the critical group of signals (e.g., gimbal load, gimbal angle and pipe axial strain) will take place during operation: ALL instrument data will be recorded for test documentation and analysis, and a certain amount of data analysis will be performed on site between active testing periods. The data acquisition system (recorders, sensors, microcomputer, printer, etc.) will be in an air conditioned van on the barge for the duration of testing.

Findings to date for this program are:

© Material tests indicate that the fiber reinforced plastic laminate strength properties meet or exceed their design values. The flatwise tensile tests produced an average value of 1,087 psi in the laminate ~ a safety factor of 2

© Gore and core-to-face bond provide stability to the laminates up to full face sheet strength capability

© Material tests of Joints indicated that all proposed Joints have

good strength characteristics

Shelf-Mo

Field CUP Study

A significant portion of the Shelf-Mounted Platform Project, described earlier in this paper, concentrated on the CMP, which in this case is itself mounted on the sea floor. In the case of the shelf-mounted platform, direct contributions could be expected from offshore technology advances; however, this is true only to a small extent for the CAP, as types of the required lengths and diameters, installed on slopes of over 20°, have never been attempted. Eight GiP concepts were developed, each with a different foundation design

1. Noncircular Heavy Jointed Pipe Resting on Bottom

2. Flexible Buoyant Pipe With Anchor-Guide Ropes??

3. Segmented Rigid Pipe Supported on Files (deep water installation)
4. Segmented Rigid Pipe on Bottom Track (shallow water installation)
5. Segmented Rigid Pipe on Raised Track

6. Rigid Buoyant Pipe With Anchor-Culde Ratl

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7+ Heavy (single or stockade) Pipe Resting on Botton

Tunnel.

For each of these, consideration was given to construction, deployment, and installation; all were compared by listing their respective advantages and disadvantages. Sketches of the concepts are presented in Figure 11,

Validation of NOAA/TRY Code

This study involved a computer program which is a three dimensional thin shell analytical model for use in analyzing the CHP. The object of the

to validate the code using experimental data obtained from

8 of the CHP Laboratory Test Program, described above. The

NOAA/TRW code was found to be within 10-20% of the experimental data, which is considered acceptable for design applications,

Recent work on the SHS consists of an analysis of the SHS Analytical

Yodel. The SWS analytical model is computer code which solves the OTEC SWS
in steady state and transient conditions, and is design tool for use on
conceptual and existing OTEC plants. Included in the analysis was @

documentation of the theory of the model. Also a partial validation of the
model was carried out by comparing numerical analyses with model predictions
for 11 steady state and 4 transient cases at the component (subsystem)
level. In each case, the model compared well with the numerical
calculations. In addition, the model was applied to the OTEC-I SWS and the
results provided a quantitative picture of that system in operation.

?conclusions,

From the foregoing it can be seen that the NOAA OTEC Technology
Development Program is continuing to contribute in a dynamic and meaningful
way toward OTEC from the concept stage to the realm of technical and economic
practicality. As OTEC matures, it offers a most attractive option for helping
to fulfill the energy needs for the development of suitably-located coastal
nations.

The experimental data, analytical models and design documentation discussed in this paper are available for use by the OTEC community of the United States. Requests for any of this information may be directed to the NOAA Office of Ocean Engineering.

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Figure 11

Shelf-Mounted OTEC CWP Concepts

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1982

Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

DETECTION OF OTEC EFFECTS ON OCEANIC ZOOPLANKTON

By

Paul M. Yoshioka

and

Daniel Pesante

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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ABSTRACT

Zooplankton in the surface waters were sampled at the OTEC
nchnask site off Puerto Kico at binonthly intervals over
fone year period. Zooplankton components analyzed were biomes
najor taxonic groups (copepods, chactognaths, lervaceans). and

four representative copepod species. Sampling variability for specific zooplankton categories ranged from 1-18 fold to 1.00 fold with a median value of 1.56 fold. Power testing indicated that a minimum OTEC effect of 1.25 fold could be detected with the present sampling effort. Further consideration indicated that sampling resolution would be more effectively improved by determining factors underlying microscale dispersion patterns of zooplankton rather than by increasing sampling effort,

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Estimates of the abundance of planktonic organisms represent an important aspect of biological oceanography research. The reliability

the utility of such estimates is often determined by its associated variability. For example, the ability to statistically discriminate temporal or spatial differences in abundance is largely dependent

upon the magnitude of sampling variability. In a more specific case,

an Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion (OTEC) plant has been proposed for the oceanic waters near Punta Tuna, Puerto Rico. The ability to detect the effects of an OTEC plant on the oceanic environment will be dependent upon the magnitude of its effect relative to sampling variability.

During 1980 the Marine Ecology Division of the Center for Energy and Environment Research conducted an intensive physical, chemical, and Biological survey of the oceanic ecosystem off the south coast of Puerto Rico. Biological measurements focused on chlorophyll concentrations, primary productivity, and zooplankton abundance. An important goal of the program was to determine the effect of natural environmental factors on seasonal changes and day/night effects on zooplankton abundance.

In this paper we discuss the implications of this program with

Respect to statistical detection of OTEC effects. Although the qualitative effects of an OTEC plant are largely unknown at present, the sampling variability measures in this program permits an evaluation of the direction and feasibility of future OTEC zooplankton studies. For example, the sampling effort required to detect OTEC effects of given magnitudes can be estimated with conventional power testing techniques. Also, features of an optimal, cost effective sampling program can be determined by examining the role of various factors on the sampling effort required.

METHODS

Zooplankton were sampled by oblique tows from the surface to 100 m with a 75 cm net equipped with 202 μ m mesh. The volume of water filtered was estimated by a digital flowmeter mounted off-center in the net mouth. Tow duration was about 20 min. The OTEC site (17° 51.3'N, 155° 51.5'W) was sampled at bi-monthly intervals in 1980 beginning in January. Three replicate day and night tows were taken during each sampling period.

Zooplankton biomass was measured by volume displacement (Chapra and Thrall, 1963). Counts of the remaining zooplankton categories were based on subsamples obtained with a Stempel pipette. Passer, 1963.

Plankton categories examined were total biomass; total copepods; eoval chactognaths; and the dominant copepod species *Clausocalanus furcatus*,

Qithona plunifera, *Calocalanus parva*, and *Paracalsias parva*.

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Data were analyzed principally by parametric analysis of variance (ANOVA) techniques. major assumptions of ANOVA include normality of distribution and equality of variances within groups. The data were log transformed to conform to these assumptions. In ANOVA total variability (in the form of sums of squares) is partitioned into fixed

or random effects, interaction effects, and error terms. Statistical Significance is based on variance ratios of fixed, random, or interaction effects relative to error. In this study error would be equivalent to sampling variability, fixed effects to day/night and seasonal differences, and interaction to the interrelationship between day/night

and seasonal effects.

Fower testing procedures were bated on the formita given by sokat

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(ag ae t Ep -P)e ee

where n= # of replicate samples

© = sampling variability in standard deviations

& © magnitude of (OTEC) e!

@ = alpha (Typex) error

af = degrees of freedom

(1-P) = power of the test

RESULTS 4

tp Result s of the analysis of variance are given in Table 1. with

?the exception of Paracalanus parvus end Oithona plun: bignly

Significant differences in zooplankton abundance are evident among

cruises suggesting seasonality in the zooplankton community of the 4

Caribbean. ?This conclusion contradicts the classical view of little

Seasonality in tropical habitats. No strong evidence was found for day/night differences indicating that the zooplankton categories examined do not display diurnal vertical migration or have migrations confined to the upper 100 m. Also, no strong evidence for interaction between seasonal and day/night effects is apparent.

Sampling variability expressed as error mean squares ranged from 2.0051 (total copepods) to 0.0905 (*Paracalanus parvus*) with a median value of 0.0373. When transformed to a proportional scale these mean squares (or variances) are equivalent to standard deviations of 1-18 fold to 2.00 fold with a median of 1.56 fold (e.g., 1,18 fold = $\text{antilog } 4 \log_{10}(0.0052) \approx 18$).

Estimates of sampling variability are integral in estimating the number of samples required to detect OTEC effects of given magnitudes: For instance, how many samples are needed to be 90% certain of detecting an OTEC effect of 1.5 fold at the 0.05 level of significance? The 2V 4 probability constitutes the intended power of the test and is detuned

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as 1,0. 8. where B is the beta or Type II error (0.10 in this example).

The 0.05 represents the more familiar Type I or alpha (α) error, likewise, both types of error should be minimized. Under the conditions stated above and with sampling variability of 1.18 fold, 1.56 fold, and 2.10 fold, the number of replicate samples required are 5, 26, and 42 respectively, (Figure 1).

The magnitude of the alpha and beta errors represents subjective criteria chosen by the investigator and will affect the sample size required. For example, in the ecological literature alpha levels are selected for statistical significance usually range between 0.01 and 0.20 with 0.05 as the most commonly chosen value. For instance, given sampling variability of 1.56 fold, an OTS effect of 1.5 fold, and a Power of 90%, the number of replicate samples required for alpha levels of 0.03, 0.05 and 0.10 would be 37, 26, and 21 respectively. Variations in the number of replicate samples required result if the intended power of the test is modified,

an inspection of Figure 1 reveals that the ratio of sampling variability to OTE effect has the greatest impact on sample size.

For instance, for an alpha level of 0.05 and a 2.25 fold effect

Reduction of sampling variability from 2.00 fold to 1.5 fold

to a decrease in sample size requirement from 202 to 03.

Discussion

Processing of zooplankton samples is costly, time consuming, and requires the skills of highly trained personnel. In essence, sample processing traditionally constitutes the limiting factor and bottleneck in zooplankton survey and monitoring studies. For example, each zooplankton sample in the present study represents roughly 30 minutes of

ship and field personnel time and costs about £100 to acquire, in comparison, approximately 3 man-years were spent processing these samples

for an average cost of about \$200 per sample. Thus, an important criterion in designing an optimal sampling program would be to minimize the number of replicate samples required in view of the expertise, time and monetary constraints involved.

sampling strategy wherein sample size

requirements are minimized is largely determined by the relationship between alpha and beta errors, sampling variability, and other effects. OTEC effects represent the unknown element in this analysis and is not subject to alteration by the investigator. Both alpha and beta errors represent criteria chosen by the investigator and have only a

moderate effect on sample size requirements. Thus, the reverse reliability of data interpretation resulting from a relaxation of the standard error would only be accompanied by a moderate decrease in the

sample size requirement. This trade-off is probably ineffective and undesirable.

Alternatively, a reduction of sampling variability represents the most promising means of optimizing sampling strategy. Consequently, it is

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of utmost importance to define the various factors contributing to sampling variability.

When arranged in a hierarchical manner, sampling variability can be decomposed into several components ranging from (1) counting or measuring error, (2) subsampling error, (3) net flow errors, and (4) natural variability (* dispersion pattern). The first three factors

represent the commonly accepted concept of sampling variability as

human or experimental "mistakes". An examination of the laboratory methods used in this study indicated that subsampling and counting

(measuring) error constituted only a small fraction of the observed sampling variability. Thus, concentration of effort in these areas would only result in a moderate and ineffective reduction in the sampling effort required. The role of variations in field techniques (including mechanical difficulties) has been traditionally difficult to determine in biological oceanographic research. However, it should be noted that, the variability observed in this study is comparable to results from other areas with net caught zooplankton (Kiebe, 1971).

The natural dispersion pattern of zooplankton probably constitutes the greatest source of the sampling variability and consequently represents the key to an optimal sampling design. In common with other marine environments almost without exception, the zooplankton off Punta Tuna are dispersed "patchily". Patchiness, in turn, is reflected in high sampling variability. Although patchiness arises from natural environmental processes and is not subject to experimental manipulation, it must be noted that the same is not necessarily true for measurements

(of sampling variability). Measurements of natural sampling variability are the result of an interaction of the scale and intensity of natural dispersion pattern with sampling technique (e.g., tow length, volume filtered, net mouth size, etc.) For instance, it may be possible to minimize sampling variability by taking long tows which "average out" small scale patchiness of zooplankton. The optimal compromise between the number and size of samples would consequently be highly dependent upon the details of zooplankton dispersion pattern. Once such details

are Known, it may be possible to design a sampling strategy optimizing the trade-offs of time, personnel and costs involved

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LIST OF FIGURES

FIG. 1, Effect of sampling error (0), OTEC effect (8), and

alpha (a) error on sanple site requirement. Power of
the test 5 04,

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UPADI 82

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?August 1-7, 1982

?Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

OCEAN THERMAL ENERGY CONVERSION (OTEC) HEAT EXCHANGER
BIOFOULING AT PUNTA TUNA, PUERTO RICO

By

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San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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OCEAN THERMAL ENERGY CONVERSION (OTEC) HEAT EXCHANGER
BIOFOULING AT PUNTA TINA, PUERTO RICO

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ABSTRACT

?The Center for Energy and Environment Research has conducted two in situ studies of biofouling of simulated heat exchangers at a potential OTEC site off the southeast coast of Puerto Rico.

?The first study was of 13 months duration, while the second study was of 6 months duration, On clean surfaces, fouling rates were initially slow, but after a couple months exposure fouling rates were approximately $0.25-0.30 \text{ } \text{ft}^2\text{-hr-}^\circ\text{F/Btu-day}$. Fouling rates were the same for aluminum and titanium tube-and-shell-type heat exchanger elements and for a rectangular cross section element from a compact heat exchanger developed by The Trane Company. During the second deployment, one titanium unit was chlorinated for 28 minutes daily at the level of 0.5 ppm. Fouling resistance of this unit remained near zero for the duration of the experiment. All other units had to be cleaned at 2-4 week intervals in order to maintain the fouling resistance of th

biofouling Layer within acceptable limits. Brush cleaning did not reduce fouling resistance to zero, indicating the development of a hard bottom layer which adhered strongly to the metal surfaces. Fouling resistance of this bottom layer was 0.5-0.9 $\text{ft}^2\text{-hr}/\text{ft}^2\text{-}^\circ\text{F}/\text{atm}$.

INTRODUCTION

Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion (OTEC) is a promising system for using solar energy to generate electricity for countries which lie in the tropical zone of the earth. One of the major difficulties which OTEC technology faces is the reduction of heat exchanger efficiency due to the development of microbial communities on heat exchanger surfaces exposed to Seawater. In order to better understand this phenomenon, the Center for Energy and Environment Research (CEER) of the University of Puerto Rico has undertaken an intensive in situ study of biofouling of simulated heat exchangers at a potential OTEC site 2.1 mi (3.4 km) Off the southeast coast of Puerto Rico (figure 1). "The investigation was conducted on board a modified Landing Craft, Utility (LCU) which was moored at the site. The

LCU was deployed on two occasions: the first deployment began on 29 January 1980 and was terminated on 19 March 1981, and the second deployment ran from 25 May 1981 to 28 November 1981.

Presented here is a summary of the results of experiments to quantify the effect of biofouling on heat transfer in seawater heat exchangers along with results on the effectiveness of some biofouling countermeasures.

MATERIALS AND METHOD:

A schematic of the flow system is given in figure 3S

Seawater was drawn from a depth of 55 ft (17 m), passed at a rate of 6 ft/sec (1.8 m/s) through 4 experimental nodules which simulated tube-and-shell heat exchangers, and was discharged overboard. Modules 1 and 3 tested aluminum and modules 2 and 4 tested titanium. Each experimental module (figure 4) consisted of four parallel flow loops. One loop contained a device for monitoring heat transfer (HTM) (1) mounted on a 1-inch (2.5-cm) i.d. pipe (5052 aluminum or grade 2 titanium), and the remaining 3 loops had sacrificial tubes (1-inch i.d.) of the same metals, which were used for biofouling and corrosion analyses.

For the second deployment, a special heat transfer monitoring device (STM) was mounted on module 3, and an electrolytic chlorinator was installed between the pumps and module 4. The STM monitored heat transfer on a sample, rectangular cross section water passage from a zinc-diffused, 3003 aluminum, compact heat exchanger developed by The Trane Company (2).

Heat transfer in the units was measured at regular intervals. Fouling resistance (R_f) was defined as the normalized inverse heat transfer coefficient ($1/h$) measured on a given day minus the $1/h$ measured on the first day of the experiment ($1/h_0$). A more detailed account of the experimental set-up can be found in an earlier publication (3).

The EM's and STM were cleaned manually with nylon bristle brushes when R_f exceeded 500% Fresh Oryaev. During the first deployment, EM's were cleaned with 40 brush passes in an attempt to reduce R_f to zero, while during the second deployment, four brush passes were used to clean the unit to approximately 1×10^{-3} ft²-hr/°F. Unit 4 was chlorinated for 30 minutes per day at the level of 0.3 ppm during the second deployment, and it was never necessary to brush this unit.

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RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Throughout each deployment, uninterrupted flow through the modules was maintained. Figures 5 and 6 show the results of the fouling resistance (r_f) measurements. In all cases, there was an

initial induction period during

zero. During the first deployment period for the

aluminum units was approximately 4 weeks, and the induction

period for the titanium units was 2 weeks. For the second

deployment, all units had an induction period of about 2 weeks

with that of the titanium unit slightly shorter than the aluminum

units. Shorter induction periods for the second deployment may

reflect the warmer water temperatures beginning of the

second deployment as compared with the first deployment (figure

one

resistances remained near

Following the induction period and following each

R_g increased approximately linearly with time the fouling rate

was lower initially, but after a few cleaning cycles it

stabilized at approximately 0.25 to 0.2 $\text{nr } ^\circ\text{P}/\text{beu-das}$

There was no significant difference between fouling rates on the

rectangular, cross section element from the Tiane seat exchanger

(unit 5, 298 deployrant) and the other un!

Leaning,

Excellent correlation was found between the fouling resistance and the wet thickness of the biofilm found growing on the tube surfaces. The calculated coefficient of thermal conductivity for the film was 0.34 Btu/ft-ne-OF which is, approximately the same as the thermal conductivity of sea water. Thus, the insulating properties of the biofilm appear to be due to stagnant water entrapped by the microorganisms (4,5) +

In late April of the first deployment (between days 80 and 90), Re for all units decreased to a value close to zero. NO intentional cleaning was performed at this time, but there was an inadvertent 50% increase in flow velocity through the ATM's of approximately 30 minutes duration on day 86. This drastic reduction in fouling resistance indicates sloughing of the biofilm which, at that point, was only loosely attached to the Pipe surface. Subsequent tests of the effectiveness of increasing the flow velocity 5y sees (performed

before each brush cleaning during the first deployment and daily on unit 3 for the first 76 days of the second deployment) resulted in only modest reductions of R_r . Though not as pronounced, there was also some evidence of sloughing from the titanium units in late May of the first deployment and, during the second deployment, in mid-September on unit 5 and in early August on unit 2.

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The effectiveness of brush cleaning is illustrated in figures 8 and 9. Two brush passes were sufficient to reduce R_r by two-thirds, and 10 passes reduced R_r by approximately 90% (Figure 6). However, only in the early stages of the experiment was it possible to approach an R_r value of zero by brush cleaning

(figure 9). This suggests that the fouling resistance was caused by two distinct biological layers: an upper layer which was removed easily by brushing, and a hard, bottom layer (possibly extruded polysaccharides) which accumulated slowly and could not be removed by brush cleaning. The thermal resistance of the bottom layer stabilized at between 0.5 and 0.9×10^{-4} $\text{m}^2\text{-hr}/\text{W}$.

Intermittent chlorination proved to be an effective method of biofouling control (figure 10). The R_f value for unit 4 during the entire 5 months of the second deployment remained at essentially zero.

conclusions,

In an in situ study of biofouling of simulated OTEC heat exchangers, the fouling resistance of the exposed surfaces increased at linear rates and stabilized at approximately $0.25 -$

0.30 ft²-hr-°F/Btu-day, Fouling rates on a rectangular cross Section element from a Trane compact heat exchanger were the same as on other units, The insulating properties of the biofilm appear to be due to stagnant water entrapped by microorganisms. As a means of controlling biofouling, intermittent increases in flow velocity were not effective. After brush cleaning, a layer of biofilm remained which had a fouling resistance of 0.5 ~ 0.9 ft²-hr-°F/atu. Chlorination for 28 minutes daily at the level of 0.5 ppm effectively controlled biofouling for the duration of a six month experiment.

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Figure 1, Map of Puerto Rico showing the location of the test site.

EXPERIMENTAL

TUBE MODULES

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INLET AND EXHAUST wena ~ LEAD WEIGHT

Figure 2. Cutaway view of the LCU modified for use as a moored
research platform,

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SUPPORT FRAME

Figure 3, Schematic diagram of the four modular flow loops of the hydraulic system.

cMu HEAT

TRANSFER Hf

MONITORING) COUPON

DEVICE TUBES

Flow

i, METER,

Figure 4

T

eS

PUMPS,

Support frame with one of the flow loop modules in

place.

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Figure 6. Measured fouling resistance for the four unchlorinated heat transfer monitors during the second deployment, May 1981 ~ November 1981.

---Page Break---

= 0 -

30. TEMPERATURE

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© 2nd DEPLOYMENT

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MONTHS

Figure 7. Water temperature during the first and second

Deployment=s.

REDUCTION IN FOULING RESISTANCE

WITH BRUSHING

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0 5 10 15 20 2 30 35 40

BRUSH PASSES

Figure 8. Per cent reduction in thermal resistance by cleaning

with manually operated brushes.

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Figure 9.

FOULING RESISTANCE AFTER CLEANING

he UNITS 1.83 (AL 5052)

F 06:

os UNITS

Roz

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MONTHS

FOULING RESISTANCE AFTER CLEANING

Le UNITS 204 (TITANIUM)

3

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Rpxio'FT?=HR-PF/BTU

o o

MONTHS

Fouling resistance of aluminum and titanium units
after brush cleaning during the first deployment.

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FOULING RESISTANCE

UNIT 4, TL GRADE 2

INTERMITTENT CHLORINATION

2nd DEPLOYMENT

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7

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MONTHS:

Figure 10. Measured fouling resistance for the KTM chlorinated
Suring the second deployment.

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UPADI 62

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1-7, 1987

?Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies:

BIOFOULING AND OCEAN THERMAL ENERGY CONVERSION
IN TROPICAL MARINE SURFACE WATERS

by

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August 1982

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BIOFOULING AND OCEAN THERMAL ENERGY CONVERSION
IN TROPICAL MARINE SURFACE WATERS

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ABSTRACT

The OTEC biofouling study reported here was conducted during the first deployment of the CEER-OTEC facility off the southeast coast of Puerto Rico, from January 1980 through February 1981.

For the first 143 days of the experiment, the initiation and accumulation of microfouling on aluminum and titanium surfaces was studied. Following this, the microfouling on the test surfaces was analyzed during seven cleaning cycles covering an additional 239 days.

Microfouling was assessed by determining the surface residue weight, the organic carbon and nitrogen contents of this residue, and the wet film volume. The increase in thermal resistance (R_g) of the aluminum and titanium heat exchanger tubes during the period of this experiment was correlated with the increase in wet film volume associated with the test surfaces.

There were differences in the microbial populations that colonized the test surfaces. During the second phase of the study (cleaning cycles), there was a marked seasonal variation in the quantity of biomass associated with these surfaces.

While there appeared to be differences in both the processes and the extent of microbial accumulation on aluminum and titanium surfaces, similar increases in thermal resistance (R_c) were observed for both test surfaces during the cleaning cycles.

Thus, it appears that these processes, while different for each metal, both result in the formation of a layer of immobilized water adjacent to the test surfaces, providing an 'insulation' capable of increasing the thermal resistance.

INTRODUCTION

The oceans comprise seventy-one percent of the earth's surface. Eighty-eight percent of the ocean volume is found at depths greater than 1000 m. The average temperature of this subsurface volume is 10°C." At the end of the last decade, the National Academy of Sciences and the National Academy of Engineers reviewed the known resources of the sea but failed to note the abundance of cold water (1,2,3,4). The ocean is a

natural collecting sink for the radiant energy of the sun.

Absorbed heat is circulated and stratified due to the earth's rotation, winds, and the resulting (due to density gradients) ocean currents. ?The result of this stratification is the

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The frozen SR samples were transported to the laboratory (Marine Station of the Department of Marine Sciences at La Parguera, Puerto Rivo). In the laboratory, each ring and its contents ?were thawed and sonicated. The suspension of material obtained in this manner was freeze-dried, and the powdered material recovered and weighed.

III, Isolation of Bacteria from the Test Surfaces

The methods employed to isolate the bacteria associated with the test surfaces have been reported elsewhere (7). A series of tests were performed to classify these bacterial Strains and compare them in terms of numerical taxonomy (8).

RESULTS

Sample Collection

During Phase I (0-143 days), the 12 test surfaces were sampled 11 times. This sampling Schedule is outlined in Table 1. Test surfaces were sampled 9 times during Phase II. The sampling schedule for Phase II appears in Table 2. On 4 October 1980, the tubes were cleaned but no samples were taken.

1. Sample Analysis: Phase 1

2.1 Total surface Residue (SR)

The surface residues associated with 388 samples were determined during the course of this study (Figure 1). In general, the accumulation of material on aluminum was higher than that seen on titanium surfaces. During the first ten days of the experiment, the accumulation on both test surfaces was, Linear with time, the aluminum surfaces gaining material at a

rate of 1.6 ug/em²/day, the titanium at 0.4 ug/em²/day. This

Table 1, Sample Times

Elapsed Time

bate Sample Sample Interval DAYS

January 29 0# = 8:48 9:20 pm 0.00

January 30 01 8:50 pm 0761

February 3 02 4:15 Bx alg3

February 8 03 12:25 pa 3271

February 15 04 10:13 pm 16:63

February 26 05 9:34 pm 27.62

March 7 06 12:13 pn 37.65

March 20 07 9:50 pa 50.62

April 16 08 1100 PR 80.63

May 3 09 9245 Pa 95:59

June 20 10 9:20 Pa 14256

Experiment initiated.

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Table 2. Sample Times

Elapsed Time

Date Sample Sample interval Mean Time DAYS

June 20 10 am = 1:45 pm 0F

July 25 AI 8:32 am - 12:55 pm 35

August 30 12° 9:10 am - 12:30 pm 36

October 4 13 No biological samples 35

November 1 14 9:00 am - 11:00 am 28

December 315 9:35 am 11:35 am 10:35 am 32

January 9 16 9:30 am = 11:00 am 37

January 16 «17-9353 am - 10:53 am 7

January 2316 am = 11:17 am 14s

February 1s 19 am = 11:45 am 10:33 am 36

teleaning cycle experinent initiates

?*experimental tubes samples, and not cleaned

accumulation corresponds with the establishment of measurable

wet films on the test surfaces. Subsequent to this "file

initiation? period, the amount of naterial associated with both

Surfaces decreased. Throughout the remaining period of the

study, the SR increased linearly with time, at a rate of O6

ug/en*/day on aluminum and 0.1 ug/on/day on? titanium. During

a

no

Figure 1. Surface Residue, Phase 1.

---Page Break---

the period of approx mately 17 days through 143 days of exposure

to flowing seawater, the SR on aluminum increased eleven-fold; whereas on titanium, the SR increase was slightly more than double.

2.2 Organic Carbon and Nitrogen Content

Figure 2 illustrates the changes in the organic carbon content of SK during this phase of study. Following the initial period of wet film establishment, the organic carbon content of the SR increased linearly with time at a rate of 0.7 $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2/\text{day}$ on aluminum and 0.3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2/\text{day}$ on titanium surfaces. From approximately 20 through 143 days of exposure, the amount of organic carbon found on aluminum increased nine-fold, and on titanium surfaces it increased approximately seven times. Thus, the extent and rate at which organic carbon and total SR accumulated on the aluminum and titanium surfaces was similar.

2.3 ATP Content

The ATP associated with 300 samples of the test surfaces was determined during the course of this study. The average amount of ATP associated with the test surfaces does not express the frequency with which ATP was found on those surfaces. The average frequency (the average number of rings

per tube that gave significant ATP readings) of ATP occurrence was higher for titanium than aluminum (3). This frequency reflects the patchiness of the microbial biomass on these

?Te (oavs)

Figure 2. Organic Carbon, Phase

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surfaces. Figure 3 shows the average quantity of ATP (μg) in terms of the area of the respective surface times the frequency ($f!$) of ATP occurrence on that surface (log scale) as a function of time of exposure. The expression of surface associated ATP in this exp-time manner correlated well with the determination of viable aerobic heterotrophic bacteria associated with these surfaces.

The amount of ATP associated with the titanium surfaces increased exponentially with respect to time throughout the course of this study. On the aluminum surfaces, there was an exponential increase in ATP through 51 days of exposure.

Following this, there was a sharp decrease in the ATP on the

aluminum surfaces through 96 days of exposure. During the period from 96 through 143 days, there was another sharp increase in the ATP associated with the aluminum surface.

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TIME (pays)

Figure 3. ATP Content, Phase I.

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ALUMINA

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?SAMPLE: BEFORE CLEANING.

Figure 4. Surface Associated Organic Carbon, Phase II.

III. Sample Analysis: Phase II

3:1 Organic Carbon and Nitrogen Content

A total of 382 analyses of the organic carbon and nitrogen contents of the surface associated residue were done during the course of this study. The results of the organic carbon analyses on the test surfaces prior to cleaning are illustrated in Figure 4. The data suggest considerable variability in the carbon contents of the surface associated material from sample to sample. The average interval between the samples taken in the course of this study was 34 +/- 3 (sp) days.

The average amount of carbon associated with the aluminum surfaces prior to cleaning was significantly greater than that

found on titanium. The carbon/nitrogen ratio of the material found on the aluminum surfaces prior to cleaning was significantly greater than that seen on the titanium (Table 3).

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Table 3. organic carbon

Before Cleaning After Cleaning

Organic Carbon

Test Carbon Content

surface $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ C/N

Aluminum 81.4 - 89.9 - 0.5 20.0 - 3.16.2 - 2d

Titanium 55.4 - 7.2 - 0.13 0.83 - 0.08

3.2 ATP Content

The preponderance of carbon on the aluminum surfaces both before and after cleaning as compared to the titanium is the reverse of that seen with regard to the biomass (ATP) associated with these surfaces (Figure 5). During the course of the second phase of the study, the ATP content of 360 samples of the test surfaces were determined (in duplicate). Figure 5 shows the average amount of ATP associated with the test surfaces prior to cleaning on the respective sample dates. These data suggest.

Significant seasonal changes in the biomass associated with the test surfaces. In September and October, the surface associated biomass significantly increased, it is of interest to note that the temperature of the seawater passing through the experimental tubes reached its peak value (29.25°C) during this period of the study. This is also the season when precipitation is at a maximum, which means higher nutrients in coastal waters.

3:3 Bacteria Associated with the Test surfaces

A total of 14 bacterial isolates were originally obtained from the test surfaces on samples 17, 18 and 19. The similarity index indicated that there were five distinct strains of bacteria (848 similarity in test characteristics). Of these five strains, three were exclusively associated with the aluminum surfaces, and one was found only on the titanium. The one bacterial strain which was found associated with both test surfaces differed from the other strains isolated in that it did not form colonies when plated on agar media, instead it spread over the entire surface of the plate. One of the strains found only on aluminum was luminescent.

All five of the isolated bacterial strains were gram negative, oxidase positive, motile, and they oxidized and fermented glucose. All of the strains isolated belong to the family Vibrionaceae. The luminescent vibrios possibly form

the genus *Lucibacterium*. This strain very actively produced

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HyS. Most of the strains were able to grow on inorganic salts with citrate as the only source of carbon.

The distribution and sequence of appearance of these bacterial strains on the test surfaces are illustrated in Table 4. The five strains were arbitrarily designated A, B, C, D & E, with strain D being luminescent and strain E being found on both test surfaces. Bacterial samples were not taken from the titanium surfaces on sample 18. Bacterial strains found on the titanium surfaces on sample 17 were the same as seen on sample 19 at the end of the study. On the aluminum surfaces, there was a qualitative change in the composition of the bacterial population on samples 18 and 19 as compared to 17 (strain E was

Present on both surfaces at all sampling times). Thus, the test
Surfaces differed in the bacteria associated with them, and the
aluminum surfaces showed some type of succession in the
appearance of bacterial populations.

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Lon mL

SAMPLE: BEFORE LEANING

Figure 5. Surface Associated ATP, Phase II

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© Surfaces

Sample ay 18 13

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aL Bs ot made) DE

Strain A only on Titenivs

Strains 8, C, D only on alumn

Strain F on both materials.

During Phase this stue st 143 days) the thermal resistance (R_p) of chs -o1) naterials increased to average values of 10.6 Sn che cluminm. The R_e values did not appear to systematicaily incress= vni.\ approximately 17 days of exposure, following the iniciator of wet fiims and the. first appearance of biomass on the» suriaces, The R_p on the test surfaces increased steadily ftom .; through ?: days of exposures rising to values of between 4 und ?, Arun 20 days of exposure, the R_g Spontaneously fell to values comparable to those seen approximately 25 d Feer tne 1 1itcazion of the experiment.

During the subsequent 90 dye, the x; ir tne aluminum monitors rose to a value of 10.6 and fr tne Vicaniun toa value of SIs

At the termination of phase I 0° cco experiment, approximately

26 days later, the Ry values exceeded those seen at 61 days exposure. The relationship of the biofilms found on these surfaces to their respective wet film volumes also appeared to differ. Following 17 days of exposure, the biomass (ATP) associated with the titanium surface increased exponentially until the units were censored. This increase was unaffected by the decrease in WFTV soon after 96 days of exposure.

The biomass on the aluminum also increased exponentially through 51 days of exposure, decreasing between days 61 and 96 and recovering to a high value by 43 days. The steady increase in the aluminum wet film volume period was unaffected by the cyclic change in the evaporation mass associated with this surface. Thus, while film volume was lost from the titanium surface, the biomass remained. Conversely, on the aluminum surface while WFTV decreased, the quantity of biomass associated with the surface went through a cyclic change.

These data suggest that the microbial populations selected by the test surfaces might vary differently at the onset of the experiment. Changes in relationship of the biomass to film stability during this period might well have determined the increased rate of film development seen between days 96 and 143 of the experiment.

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During Phase 11, the aluminum and titanium test surfaces appear to have been different with respect to the relative proportions of biomass (ATP) and organic carbon associated with them before each cleaning.

?There were peaks in the quantity of biomass associated with the test surfaces during August and October (samples 12 and 14) and then again during the winter months of December and January (samples 16 and 19). These peaks in surface associated ATP correlated well with peak values in total surface residue (Sk) and organic carbon during these periods.

Average ratios of organic carbon/ATP in bacterial cells have been reported to be around 500 (9), Based on this, an average of 518 of the organic carbon on the titanium surfaces prior to cleaning was microbial. These values are to be contrasted with those found on the aluminum surfaces which were 8.4% before cleaning, The quantity of material remaining on both test surfaces after cleaning does not correlate with the observed thermal resistance (Re) of these surfaces. On the test Surfaces prior to cleaning, R_{ϕ} correlated well with the WFV on the aluminum surfaces, and with the biomass (ATP) found on the titanium surfaces. The lack of correlation between properties of the biofilm found on the test surfaces after cleaning might well be related to a patchiness of material on the "clean" Surfaces. The observed Re might have been reduced by the turbulence of the water flow across these roughened surfaces. Such a circumstance would obviate any correlation between the nature of the material left on the "clean" surface and the observed R_g .

There were differences in the bacterial strains associated with the test surfaces. Similar strains were found on the titanium surfaces both at the beginning and at the end of the experimental period. On the aluminum, there appeared to be a succession of bacterial populations, culminating in the appearance of a luminescent bacterial strain that produced #25. Bacteria of this type have been reported to be associated with metallic corrosion processes (9). While the aluminum and titanium test surfaces shared the presence of a non-colony forming bacterial strain, they exhibited differences in the accumulation of biomass (arp) during the cycle period. These differences may well be associated with different bacterial strains found exclusively associated with each material.

?The accumulation of biomass on the titanium and the growth of the wet film on the aluminum surfaces, while representing different processes, may result in the formation of a layer of immobilized water on both the test surfaces. Increases in thermal resistance on the test surfaces during their exposure to flowing seawater have been attributed to this phenomenon (6)

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UPADI 82

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Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

OCEAN THERMAL POWER-THE COMING ENERGY REVOLUTION

By

J. Hilbert Anderson

USA

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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Ocean Thermal Power=The Energy Revolution

by J. Hilbert Anderson

The history of man's desire for energy, from the discovery of fire to the development of modern energy sources, is a story of constant expansion and innovation. The discovery of fire, the invention of the wheel, the development of agriculture, and the discovery of fossil fuels have all played a role in the expansion of human civilization. Today, as we face the challenges of a changing climate and a growing population, the search for new and sustainable energy sources is more important than ever. Ocean thermal power, a technology that harnesses the energy of the ocean, offers a promising solution to our energy needs. This book explores the history of ocean thermal power and its potential to revolutionize the energy industry.

he population has been very closely tied to the ability to harness the forces of

nature, and to utilize those forces for his own and

Therapy 15 probably

the most important factor in man's dominance over wet

First man learned to use fire and burn food. The use of fire permitted him

to keep warm and expand his horizons to cover a large part of the earth's surface.

Eventually, he also learned to use wind to transport him over the oceans and to find

new horizons to conquer. He also learned to use wind to pump water from the ground,

and to enable him to live in many places which otherwise would have been impossible.

With the industrial revolution and the invention of the steam engine in England in

the sixteenth and seventeenth century, he began to use energy on a wider scale, and

soon caused an energy shortage because all of the supplies of wood were being used

up. This was probably the first energy crisis

The next step was to use coal to power the steam engine. This enabled man

to increase his industrial output, and provide many usable #

rs that were previ-

ously manufactured by man, it fostered the iron and steel revolution and became
our modern society.

Along with the industrial revolution and the production of metals, we were
able to develop water power with its many uses on a small scale throughout the world.

The discovery of huge quantities of oil and gas perm

ed us to produce energy

at a much lower cost than ever before. This really promoted our modern 20th Century
society. Now we suddenly realize that oil and gas are not in unlimited supply and
that their period of tremendous use is already almost over. This tells us that we
need a new revolution in energy supply: we must look elsewhere for our next source.

We have developed a huge appetite for energy, and the lack of it would undoubtedly

?Set back our standard of living to much below that which we have all become accustomed

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For 8 fem years we decane enanored with nuclear poner. It was touted by rrary as the answer to all our energy problens. we were told that electricity would becone too cheap to eter. nis perhaps lulled us into a false sense of security about our energy supply, and when the OPEC countries suddenly realized the vietual onopoly that they held over the limited supply of ofl, this shocked us al1 into the

we agein have energy cris*s, and that nuclear power at tne sane tine

realization

has not become too chesp to eter, but 1s actually becoming more costly, and more

dangerous.

where do we go next? Solar enthusiasts tell us that solar energy covers the entire earth and there is plenty of it to go around. Therefore, we should use

solar energy to supply all our energy needs. This sounds good, The energy is

there. Unfortunately, it is there only during the daytime, and it is there in very diffuse amounts. Therefore, by any calculation, it becomes necessary to build

costly collectors, and to use a lot of material and space to collect and utilize

solar energy. If we remember that solar energy in useful amounts is only available for about eight hours a day, and we need energy 24 hours a day, then it becomes obvious that we must collect and store enough energy in the eight hours to supply us

for the 24 hours. This means that if we want 100 kilowatts of power for 24 hours,

we must build one plant that will develop 100 kilowatts during the daylight, and

two plants to supply 100 kilowatts for each of the other two eight hour periods in

the day. The reason we must build two plants instead of one for the other eight

hour periods is simply that the energy must be stored in order to make it usable at night. Since storage devices are only about 50% efficient then we must generate

200 kilowatts to get back 100. This means that any combination of solar energy

plants must use approximately five plants for every one usable unit of energy throughout the 24 hours, They also require the storage facilities. This is obviously very expensive and is the basic reason why direct solar energy is not a very satisfactory source for our huge energy needs, and probably can never be hoped to supply

all of the energy that we would like to have, nor can it supply it at a reasonably

acceptable cost. ☹

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heat, Let us look at the possibilities for geothermal power, or power from

the heat of the earth itself. It can easily be calculated that the earth has enough

heat stored therein to supply us with all of the energy we need for millions of years.

The problem is really not »

Whether the heat is available to generate geothermal power, but whether cooling is available. Every heat engine generates power by using some engine cycle to transfer heat from high temperature source to a low temperature source. In order to generate power we need both the high temperature and the low temperature source. The chart on Fig. 1 shows the relative amounts of heating and cooling needed for different types of power plants. The bars on the left show the amount of heat required to produce 100 units of power output, shown by the center bar. The bars on the right show the amount of heat that must be rejected to the cooling system.

The upper line shows the case for a fossil fuel fired plant, with thermal efficiency of 40%. 250 heat units must be supplied to produce 100 units of power. The remaining 150 units must be rejected to the cooling system. In this case part of the heat is rejected through the flue gas, and approximately 100 units to the cooling system. The heat rejected to

the cooling system is approximately the same as the

useful power output

As we decrease the available temperature difference for the power source and, therefore, decrease the plant efficiency, more heat must be rejected for each unit of power produced. For example, in a typical geothermal plant, roughly six times as much heat output to the cooling system is required as for a highly efficient fossil-fuel plant and more than twice as much as for a nuclear plant. When we realize that it is very difficult to find sufficient cooling water sources to supply our nuclear and fossil-fuel plants, then we begin to see how difficult it would be to create a very large geothermal power industry. The cooling water supply is just simply not there, and particularly it is not generally there in areas which have high geothermal activity.

The problem becomes even worse in trying to use direct solar energy in a solar

<3.

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thermal plant. The solar thermal plant can vary greatly in efficiency depending on the type of concentrated collectors used, but in any event a very large cooling source is required. The 1750 units or 100 units of power might be typical for a solar pond plant.

Now let us turn to the ocean. The ocean covers 70% of the earth's surface and is by far the largest natural solar collector that we have, and we don't have to manufacture it,

In the tropical ocean the water is heated by the sun. When water is heated, it

expands slightly, and raises the level of the ocean slightly. This causes the ocean in effect to overflow toward the poles where the water density is higher and the level is slightly lower. As a result we have the Gulf Stream in the Atlantic flowing north from the tropics. In the polar regions the water is cooled down at the surface. This dense water sinks and flows along the bottom of the ocean back to the tropics. There is a

continual circulation created by solar heating of the vast areas of the tropical ocean

As a result, we have surface water in the tropics much warmer than at the bottom of the ocean. The temperature difference between the surface water and the bottom ocean water can be converted to energy by a heat engine. Typically, the water at the surface in the tropics is approximately 60°F, and the water at depths of 1000 meters and more is

approximately 40°F, This means that we have a temperature difference of about 40°F available for generating energy.

Theoretically, it is possible to convert the energy at a 40° temperature difference into useful electrical power at an efficiency of approximately 78. In actual practice it is possible to do this at an efficiency of slightly more than 32

To show how much power can be generated, we can take a simple example of the Florida Current, which is the portion of the Gulf Stream that flows past the tip of Florida. (Ref. 1) the Florida Current continually carries approximately 28 million cubic meters per second of warm water. A well designed ocean thermal power plant requires

100 cubic meters of warm water to generate 100 megawatts.

approximately 248 cubic meters per second

Based on this the potential generating capacity in the Florida Current alone would be 9.7 million megawatts or more than 20 times the total capacity of the present power

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Generating network in the entire United States. (Ref.2) This gives an estimate of the enormity of the power generation capability in the oceans

Figure 2 shows a map developed by the U.S. Department of Energy showing where

the warm water sources are located throughout the world. It is obvious from this that practically all tropical nations in the world have access to huge quantities of ocean thermal power potential

Not only is the ocean thermal power an enormous source of power, but it is

self-generating, and continuously energy as long as the sun continues to shine.

Given the huge heat source at 80°F and below and a heat sink at 40°F, how can we generate mechanical and electrical power from this? The answer is that this can work on the same principles as most other heat engines. In order to generate power,

you must have the heat flow from the hot source to the

cold source. During the

flow of heat from the hot source to the cold source power can be generated with

suitable mechanism. Ocean thermal power operates no differently than an ordinary steam plant where you heat and boil water to produce steam, which then expands through a turbine or reciprocating steam engine, and condenses in a condenser which operates at lower pressure corresponding to the boiling or condensing pressure of the steam.

An ocean power plant can operate in the same way. The warm water can give up heat to boil a fluid such as an ordinary household refrigerant. The vapor boils

at a pressure corresponding to the saturation temperature, it then flows through a turbine giving up power to drive a generator. and at the condensing end it condenses at low pressure back to a liquid. The liquid can then be pumped back into the boiler and the cycle continues. We can actually do this using the water

boiling fluid- This was actually the first type of ocean thermal power plant that was attempted. Back in the 1920's, George Claude actually built a power plant in which he pulled a vacuum on warm water, it then boiled into vapor, was passed through a turbine, and the exhaust steam was condensed on cold water pumped from deep in the ocean. This is a simple form of an ocean thermal power plant, and is commonly called

the open cycle, because it uses the water itself as a working fluid. Originally

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in 1881 Jacques Arsene D'Arsonval suggested the same basic principle, but proposed to use the warm water to boil ammonia, which would pass through a heat engine to

generate power, and then condense on cold water pumped from deep in the ocean. To

day there are many reasons why the original or closed cycle proposed by O'Arsonval

is the one which appears to be most practical and economic, While this cycle ree

quires heat exchangers to transfer heat from the warm water to heat the working

fluid, and to transfer heat from the condensing vapor to the cooling water, it has

many advantages in being much more compact, and avoiding the need for very large

and costly degassing

and costly turbines. It also eliminates the need

for equipment to remove dissolved gases from the water

A simple form of the closed cycle ocean thermal power plant is shown on Fig. 3

The warm water from the surface of the ocean is pumped through a boiler at the bottom

of the diagram. This boils the liquid into a vapor. A typical liquid is the ordinary

household refrigerant designated R-22. The vapor from the boiler passes up through a

turbine driving generator, and from there passes up to the condenser which is cooled

by cold water pumped from deep in the ocean. The condenser is placed high enough above the boiler so that the liquid will flow by gravity from the condenser back to the boiler, thereby requiring no pump to force the liquid into the boiler, which is at higher pressure than the condenser. This cycle with some variations in detail to improve efficiency is the one that appears most favorable for generating power at the lowest possible cost

Fig. 4 shows picture of an actual demonstration power plant that was first demonstrated by the authors first in 1975, and which works on exactly the same principle shown in the diagram. At the bottom of the plant is a tank of warm water with a boiler submerged in it. The refrigerant, R11, is boiled and passes upward through the pipes to a turbine at the middle of the plant, which in turn drives a small permanent magnet generator and generates approximately 100 watts. The exhaust from the turbine flows vertically upward to the condenser which is submerged in the tank of ice water at the top of the plant, The liquid condensed from the condenser flows

6

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gravity through a small tube returning to the boiler. This plant proved to many

skeptics that power could indeed be generated with temperature differences that are

very small, and the satellite turbine was actually run with temperature difference!

Now as 37.

Since the ocean is by far our greatest resource, it appears logical to think that if we can generate power in the ocean, then this power can in turn be the key to

Utilizing many other potential resources in the ocean. Let us now look at some of

these possibilities.

The first possibility to think about is food production. More and more we

need to turn to the ocean for the food supply for our increasing billions of people

living on this planet. Ocean thermal power provides an important means for doing this.

It is fairly well known that the deep water in the ocean contains a

much higher percentage of nitrates and

osphates than are contained

in the upper warm layers. It has also long been known that where the

cold waters are brought up to the surface by what is called upwelling the fish

Production is greatly increased. As a matter of fact it is reported that 44% of the

fish produced in the world are produced by one-tenth of one percent of the world ocean

area. (Ref.1) The most important fish producing area in the world is off the west

coast of South America where the Humboldt current brings deep water to the surface and supplies the fertilizer to produce millions of tons of fish annually.

Since an ocean thermal power plant necessarily pumps up cold water to be utilized in the plant, and since the process warms this water in the plant, then it is natural to think that we can discharge this nutrient rich water

into the surface zone where sunlight can promote plant growth and the entire chain of marine food production

This has been demonstrated by Roels (Ref.2) and the group of scientists working at St. Croix, where they have demonstrated large increases in shellfish production by

purging water from approximately 800 meters deep to surface ponds where the sun

=?

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Directed algae growth and food for some* Den,

Roels and Laurence have reported that £17,000 pounds of shellfish meat

could be produced from a flow of 1 cubic meter (or second) of cold water. On

this basis a 100 Megawatt power plant requires 136 cubic meters per second of

cold water. It could produce @ yields of 26.62,000 pounds per year of shellfish

meat. At @ nominal price of one dollar per pound this would produce an income of

\$56,862,090 yearly. Waste it is too early to say that the efficiency

of a large scale food production system would equal the efficiency of the small

systems demonstrated on St. Croix. It is still quite apparent that huge production

of food is possible from an ocean thermal power plant. From this we can see that

Food production from ocean thermal plants could be just as important or maybe even

More important than power plants

In addition to food production ocean

have the capability to produce another of man's vital needs, namely

fresh water. The process for producing fresh water from salt water is rather simple

as illustrated on Figure 5. First the gases dissolved in seawater must be removed

by a degassing process. After the gases are removed the water can boil at a very low temperature and high vacuum and produce water vapor. This water vapor can then be condensed on a condensing surface cooled by the cold water leaving the power

plant condensers. This process can produce large quantities of water utilizing the

heat energy in the seawater itself, and with a properly designed plant requires very

Little pumping and compression power. Figure 7 illustrates how much water can be produced per pound of cold water entering the system. Referring to Figure 6, if we have a 30°F temperature difference between the warm seawater and the cold water leaving the power plant, and assume a 3°F temperature difference across the yield of fresh water would be .0227 Tbs./lb. of

each evaporative stage,

cold water. Using the figure of 136 cubic feet/sce. of cold water

-8-

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required for a 100 megawatt power plant and assuming 100% yearly capacity for the Plant then the potential production of fresh water would be 87.6 million cu. feet/year, MCA price of \$1/1000 gal. of 26¢/cu. meter, the yearly value of the fresh water product would be \$42 million. Currently in the Caribbean and other places where fresh water is scarce, the cost of producing fresh water from seawater is as

uch as \$6/1000 ga). or S2/eu. meter. At this crice the value would be S175 Bi1Tion
er year.

Oryer usable and conveniently produced products are those that can

be produced directly from electrolysis of sodtun, chloride water solution.(Ref. 5)

Electrolysis of a sodium chloride solution produces three products, nanely, caustic

soda, chiorine, and hydrogen. AN are in leege derand, and are basic chemicals that arc

requiree throughout the world, these can not only be very useful and profitable

Products from an ocean thermal plant, but also have the advantage that they require

Po production or transmission of electricity for producing these chenicals on land.

The next products which are conveniently produced from an ocean thermal

plant are oxygen, nitrogen, and carbon dioxice. The percentage of oxygen dissolved

?in seawater 1s 355 of the gases, whereas it is only 294 in normal air. This means

that the gases removed by deseration during the fresh water production process contain

2 higher percentage of oxygen than norral air, and thereby become a convenient source

for a gas separation plant which can produce carbon dioxide, oxygen, and nitrogen:
Since power is conveniently available for this process, and cold water is also available
to make the oxygen separation process more efficient, it seems obvious that an ocean
thermal plant would be a logical source for these valuable gases.

Hydrogen and oxygen can be produced from pure water by the electrolysis
process and several industrial processes have been developed for this purpose. For

this reason, an ocean thermal plant is a convenient source of hydrogen, which cannot

only be used as a fuel directly but also can be used in chemical combination for

other useful products.

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The first product that comes to mind using hydrogen is ammonia. The

Demand for ammonia for fertilizer and other uses exists throughout the world, and the need for ammonia fertilizer is particularly important to the tropical

food hungry nations of the world. Ammonia is produced by the direct combination of nitrogen and hydrogen, and many studies have shown that ocean thermal plants are the most logical source for producing ammonia. The Johns Hopkins University Applied Physics Laboratory has done extensive studies of the economics and practicality of

Producing ammonia in an ocean thermal plant. Pf. 6

Once hydrogen and carbon dioxide have been produced from seawater the next

step possible is to combine them in a catalytic process which produces methanol

Methanol is a valuable liquid fuel which can be used directly in automobile engines.

It can be combined with gasoline to produce a fuel commonly known as gasohol.

Further processes are also available which can convert hydrogen and methanol into hydrocarbons. Therefore, hydrocarbon fuels are also a possible product from ocean thermal plants.

Since seawater is really what might be called a chemical soup, it is

possible to extract many other chemicals

from seawater, the key element to producing

these chemicals is the availability of energy. The

is evident from these few examples that ocean thermal power can unlock the doors

toward making the ocean by far the most valuable resource on earth.

If the ocean can be the source of so many important benefits to mankind,

why aren't ocean plants in operation? the answer is simply a combination of human

apathy and natural skepticism. Every new process or product that has ever proposed

is favorably met with disbelief. There are always at least 100 people who say

"it can't be done" for every one who says "it can be done". The story is told about

the first locomotive to be built in England. Many people standing around waiting for the locomotive to start were saying, "it will never run. After the locomotive started rattling down the track, they all said they'll never get her stopped?" It is with

-10-

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ocean thermal power. There are many difficulties both real and fancied, and any one of these difficulties serves to make people disbelieve, and have no confidence in the eventual success of such plants. Let us now carefully analyze the various problems surrounding the building and operation of ocean thermal plants, whether they be real problems or fancied ones.

The first and often quoted objection to these plants is their low efficiency. We are accustomed to thinking of power plants with thermal efficiencies of 30 - 40%. When one proposes a plant with only 3% efficiency, most engineers are shocked, and immediately discard the very idea. This has been made even a worse obstacle by early government sponsored studies which projected estimated efficiencies as low as 1.5%. The truth of the matter is that thermal efficiency is

not a good measure of the value of an ocean thermal

1 power plant. Since the cost of the fuel itself is zero, then thermal efficiency means nothing in terms of the fuel used. The real measure that must be made of the value of a power plant is the capital costs and the time and energy required to build a plant.

To show how ridiculous thermal efficiency can be, let us consider driving a 3,000 lb. automobile up a 12% grade for one mile. The actual theoretical work output to lift the automobile 52.6 ft. is 158,000 ft. lbs. of energy. If we use gasoline

at the rate of 15 miles/gal. then the actual thermal efficiency of driving the auto-

mobile for one mile is 2.4%. Despite this, we are all perfectly willing to drive automobiles in our daily lives.

Up to this time many analyses have been made of the potential cost of ocean thermal plants. Almost without exception, all of these estimates show that these plants do produce sufficient energy output to pay for all of the energy and materials required to build a plant at a much more advantageous rate than is the case with most

other power generation sources. This is clearly brought out in Ref.

Along with low efficiency, pessimists about ocean thermal power plants like to

point out the tremendous quantities of waters that is used by such a plant, Ref. 9.

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mate OUT plete wget reauire wp oweh a 30,900

For exanple, trey point ost

cu. ft/sec., which is stians'y onre rman vane flew of the Susqueranna River.

It sould be pointed out ist 2 weil Gesigres ϕ an tterms) olant should require only
136 cu. neters/sec. of cold water anc 2 ϕ 8 cu. ow ters/sec. of warn water for a 100 Hee

Flant, Ref. 10. Corpared to this on the Suscusninna River the York Haven Power Plant

operates at a head of only 20 ft. or meters and requires five times as much water

thermal plant, Ref. Vi

flon/b generates as the efficiency of the plant

large scale development of ocean thermal power

+ 1s pretty obvious ϕ

But depend on building floating plants in the open ocean. There are relatively few

Places in the world where steep enough slopes are close enough to shore so that they

de Built. while Teng sases slants can potent?aily be quite useful

based plants cc:

land economic on sany islares, tue Tenge toa e chuetoment OF ps

industrial natfons cust depend on Mating eiacts

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ntities of warm water

fing plant nas iorweiate aice:s to large au

and also to large quantities of cold water within 1,000 eter gestne in the ocean.

A floating plant has one disadvantage compared to a land based plant, and that is that

it requires suspended cables leading from the plant to the shore to transmit electricity to the shore. This is not true of process plants, but is true of plants which are designed to furnish electricity to the shore

Floating plants must be seeworthy under all storm conditions,

and must be positioned sufficiently close to a spot so that a cable can be

attached thereto. They also must be capable of deployment from the plant building

site to the operating site in the ocean,

Ref. 12 discusses and evaluates some of the problems in seakeeping behavior

for ocean thermal plants. These problems are very similar to those required of floating

offshore rigs, of which there are today many in service throughout the world, many of

which are in the North Sea, where storms are traditionally the most violent

in the world. Ref. 15 shows that by the year 1972 there were some 319 ocean drilling

sites.

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rigs in service throughout the world, and since that time, many more have gone into service. References 13, 1 and TE describe some specific floating drill rigs of the semi-submersible type which approximate in size that of an ocean thermal plant.

For example, the floating drill rig described in Ref. 14 displaces 28,000 long tons

which is approximately the same size as the 100 Mw plant described in Ref. 10.

Since floating semi-submersible drill rigs are approximately the same construction

as that of a semi-submersible ocean thermal power plant, it becomes obvious that construction of such plants is possible. Transport to the operating site is also possible. It should be pointed out that many submersible drill rigs have been built in the United States and transported as far as Alaska, or to the North Sea, or to sites off the coast of South America.

The cold water pipe for supplying cold water to an ocean thermal plant

from depths of 1,000 meters or more presents a serious engineering challenge. The

problems involve not only the construction of the pipe to resist ocean currents,

to

but also the problems of construction, deployment, and support

Hoating plat

forms. Numerous designs have been proposed for cold water pipe, most of them described in Ref. 19. It appears from that report that a number of designs are feasible for construction, and the problem resolves itself to choosing the most economic and reliable of the designs available. More recently even more effective designs have been proposed so that it appears that the construction of the cold water pipe and its deployment are quite feasible and can be made quite reliable. The attachment or suspension of the cold water pipe from the platform is a difficult problem. Both References 20 and 21 indicate that this support had better be designed to be flexible so that the pipe is not rigidly attached to the platform, but allows the platform to move during storm conditions without the joint between the platform and the pipe being too seriously affected. Designs for such attachment between platform and pipe are already in common use in the

Drilling industry, where drilling pipes must be kept stationary while the platform moves under sea state operating conditions. Similar heave compensation

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devices are possible for use in connecting the 6'4" mooring line to the platforms of an ocean thermal plant.

The underwater power transmission cable presents another series of problems. There are already many power cables under the sea in service in various

locations. The deepest cable is that referred

to in Ref. 22, where a cable for transmission of 250 megawatts in 50 meters water

depth has already been in service for some years. Standard Telefon & Kabelfabrik

211 large power cables to Floating

have assured us that they can manufacture and

plants at sea. Their vast experience in his field seems to assure that this can be done with good reliability

Many papers have been written to point out that the key to economic

success of an ocean thermal power plant lies in the heat transfer equipment. Since the plant is necessarily inefficient, then it requires a large quantity of heat input and output to produce a given amount of power. The heat input and output must also be transferred across a very small temperature difference. Therefore, the heat transfer problem is proportionately much greater in magnitude than in a high temperature power plant.

Much work has been done, and many papers have been written on the subject

of heat transfer for ocean thermal plants. Much progress has

been made. The progress might be summarized by comparing the original work described in Reference 23, in which calculated expected heat transfer coefficients were approximately 200 Btu's/sq. ft./hr./°F for both condensing and boiling surfaces. As compared

to this in the latest development described in Ref. 24, the corresponding heat transfer coefficients have been increased to approximately 2,000 Btu's/sq. ft./he./°F. or 10 times as high as those originally expected. Much other work has been done on heat exchanger development, and the results indicate that heat transfer in an ocean thermal plant can indeed be efficient enough to make such a plant economically and commercially

practical

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Not only must the heat exchangers be highly efficient, but they must be able

to maintain that efficiency over a long period of time. The first problem to think

about is corrosion of the materials in the heat exchangers. Since heat exc

gers

are already being used in almost all of the 105,002 ships at sea, and are maintained

Successfully in those uses, it seems safe to assume that heat exchangers can also be

operated in an ocean thermal plant, The most acceptable material today for resisting

Seawater corrosion in heat exchangers is cupro-nickel. This has withstood the test of
lime and proven itself to be a very satisfactory material for heat exchange surfaces.

Ref. 25. It is not compatible with ammonia, which is one of the working fluids used.

frequently suggested for ocean thermal plants. Moreover, it is quite useable with the

halocarbon materials such as the refrigerant R-22 which can be used in such power plant

Other materials suggested have been aluminum alloys, which appear attractive from

?the standpoint of having very high heat transfer efficiency and having @ fair amount

Of successful applications in marine environments. The low cost of aluminum alloy ex-

changers makes them appear very attractive, but there is some question as to the life

Of such exchangers. There must necessarily be a trade-off between the low cost of

aluminum exchangers and the possibility that the lifetime of such exchangers may be

too short to be practical. However, there is an increasing amount of evidence that

aluminum alloys will be @ satisfactory material for heat exchangers. Ref. 26.

Marine fouling of heat exchanger surfaces is @ problem that must be dealt with

in an ocean thermal plant. There are thousands of heat exchangers already in service

at sea both in ships and in shore installations, and in harbors where water conditions

are almost certainly worse than those that should be encountered in the open sea

environment. However, the important thing to recognize is that a given amount of dirt

on @ high efficiency heat exchanger produces @ greater percentage deterioration in

performance than the same amount of dirt or fouling on a low efficiency heat exchanger:

Therefore, the heat exchangers for ocean thermal plants are more sensitive to fouling

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than those used in other applications at sea

There are two important types of fouling that must be considered in heat ex-

changers. The first is microfouling, which is the result of attachment of larger sea organisms such as barnacles to metal surfaces. In heat exchangers this type of fouling can be controlled normally by maintaining high velocities across surfaces, and also by reducing the oxygen level in the water, which literally deprives such

organisms of their means for living. It does not appear that macrofouling need be

and in general this is a problem

considered a serious problem in heat exchangers.

that has been coped with satisfactorily in marine heat exchangers for many years.

The second type of fouling is microfouling, which generally consists of a Slime that is built up by minute bacterial organisms of many types. This type of fouling has been shown to be removable by mechanical brushing, and more recently by slurry cleaning. Other types of fouling prevention means are the use

Of chlorine injection in the water, or possibly ozone injection. with the Successful development of slurry cleaning it is probable that infection of fouling inhibitors would not be necessary.

Much work has been done at sea on experimental measurements of fouling and the methods of cleaning fouling from the surfaces. Some of this is summarized in References 26 thru 28. The experience shows that fouling should really not be too serious a problem for heat exchangers

?An ocean thermal plant must handle large quantities of water and must pump the water through the heat exchangers at high efficiency so that the parasitic power losses are small. Pumps can be motor driven or turbine driven by turbines operating on the same working fluid that power the turbo generators. Turbine driven Pumps appear to have many advantages in being smaller, lighter, easier to maintain, more flexible in operation, and more efficient than motor driven pumps. the size of

bumps involved in a 100 Mwe plant are well within the range of sizes that already have been built for other purposes, so that pump design does not appear to be a serious obstacle to the design of such plants

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Starting a power plant is a serious process. In order to develop power

from the working fluid, it is necessary to supply warm and cold water to the

boilers and condensers. For this reason, pumps must be started in order to start the plant into operation. If the pumps are electrically driven, then starting

can be accom

plished by providing a large gas turbine or diesel turbine generator

to supply electricity to drive the starting pumps. For turbine driven pumps, it is necessary to provide working fluid to power the pumps during the starting period. This can be done by using a gas turbine to drive a compressor and

supply the working fluid to drive the pumps

Turbine designs and generator designs depend on the working fluid that is used in the cycle. If a high density working fluid such as a halocarbon is

used, then the operation:

conditions for the turbine are such that vary on wheel tip

Speeds are reduced and only one or two operating stages are needed. If a halocarbon is used for the working fluid, then the generator can also be hermetic and cooled by the working fluid itself, so that there are no problems in designing shaft seals to retain the working fluid in the turbine. On the other hand, if ammonia is used as

2 working fluid, then a hermetic generator cannot be used. and it is necessary to use

shaft seals to retain the working fluid

the turbine. Ammonia turbines also gen-

erally require more operating stages than halocarbon turbines. In either case, the small-temperature difference involved produces small available work/10.

Of operating fluid, and the efficiency of the turbine can be quite high, generally higher than that of a conventional steam turbine or gas turbine, The characteristics of the turbines are much like those of water turbines.

A number of

different working fluids have been suggested for ocean thermal

energy and many studies have been made on this subject. ammonia was the original

fluid proposed by O'Neil and was actually the fluid used in the first OTEC plant which operated successfully off the coast of Massachusetts. Various studies have indicated

that ammonia is the best theoretical fluid from the standpoint of thermodynamics.

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Hydrocarbons have also been proposed. Propane was proposed by the authors originally in Ref. 20

More recently the writer has proposed R22, the common household

halocarbon refrigerant, as the most desirable working fluid. The Japanese have

elected to use this working fluid in the land-based plant of a 100 kw capacity

that has recently been started on the island of Nauru, Fig. 30. R22 appears

to have many advantages over ammonia of a practical nature, such as being less

corrosive, environmentally safe, non-explosive, and compatible with copper alloys
fin the turbo generator and heat exchangers. Ref." 10.

From the foregoing discussion it appears that the technical problems for
ocean thermal plants can be overcome. This is confirmed by any different published
reports sponsored by the U.S. Department of Energy. The real question then is: can
actual floating plants be designed and built that can successfully cope with the
technical problems and at the same time be economically competitive with other sources,
of power?

In evaluating a plant design we need to keep certain fundamental objectives
in mind.

1. Survivability. The plant must be built to survive in the ocean environment.
2. Buildability. The design should be such that it can be constructed in existing facilities.
3. Transportability. The plant should be conveniently movable to the operating site.
4. Positionability. The plant should be able to maintain its position without the costly problem of mooring in deep water,
5. Maintainability. Design a plant that can be maintained and repaired at

sea, with equipment that is of convenient size for use at sea.

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6. Flexibility, a standardized plant design, easily adaptable to different operating conditions: such as water temperature or depth is very desirable.

7. Environmental safety. The plant should minimize harmful effects to the environment and to plant operators.

The second set of objectives is to design a cost-efficient plant. The fuel for the power plant is the warm and cold water. Since the water is free, one is tempted to think that efficiency of plant construction doesn't matter much. Nothing could be further from the truth. Since this plant is capital intensive, it is

Important to obtain the highest net power output for the minimum investment by de-

Designing a cost-efficient plant. This is important to assure that the plant will?

be competitive with other sources of power

The following are design objectives for a cost efficient plant

1. Efficient Heat Exchangers. Most agree that heat exchangers are the most costly item in the plant, It is essential to design efficient heat exchangers with maximum surface area, Low friction Losses, and low power required to pump the water thru the exchangers.

2. Minimize water Flow. Water supply accounts for the greatest mass of material in the plant and cost of the parasitic power. Reducing water flow reduces Size of pipes, pumps, and platform, also pumping sewer. Improving plant thermal efficiency decreases water consumption, but it is even more important to use the maximum heat capacity per pound of water:

3. Minimize material. Since the cost of a plant is directly proportional to the amount of material used, it pays to reduce this by efficiency of design.

4, Maximize efficiency. Turbine, generator, and pump efficiencies have a direct effect on plant output and cost per kilowatt.

The effect of several parameters on the output of a plant is illustrated on Fig. 8. The vertical scale is shown as ΔT temperature difference, which is directly proportional to the theoretical power available.

Starting at the left, we assume that the temperature difference across each of

the boilers and each of the condensers

19.

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35 10°, leaving 20° available for heat power conversion, if we assume

that the power conversion efficiency is 50%, then the gross power drops to 15 out

of the available 20. If the parasitic cooling pumps are 1/3 of the gross, rather

typical figure, then the net power is reduced to 10 out of the original 49,

on the second bar we keep the same amount of heat transfer surface but

double the overall transfer coefficient, this reduces the

temperature difference across each

exchanger to 5 instead of 10. we now have 20 of the 40 units available for con-

version. 75: of this Insvos a gross poner of 22.5 compared to 15 on the first bar.

Subtracting the sare perasitic power leaves a nctsoverof 7 5, which is 75% higher

fet output produced by <oubling the heat transfer coefficient

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one

se ronte Li | ty

Figure 7

RELATIVE NET POWER OUTPUT

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On Bar #3 generation efficiency is increased to 90% with other factors

the same as on bar #2. The gross output increases to 27. Subtracting 5 this leaves

a net of 22. Note that a 20% improvement in efficiency has increased net power by

a

On the Yast bar we keep conditions like Bar #2, but have reduced the parasitic

power to 2.5. This increases the net power to 24.5 or 2.48 times as much as shown

on the first bar.

Mile the bar chart is oversimplified, 4% HV illustrates how vitally important it is to improve the efficiency of heat transfer and power conversion, and to reduce

Parasitic losses. Note that in the above examples we assumed the same quantity of

ty of

power flow. or approximately the same 23:0 of the plant. If the plant is the same size
FOE Progress (2.43 Lines as Much power, when the weight? and cost per kw. is used becomes
ST Gh. In actual plant we would not take advantage of these improvements exactly

as shown on the bar chart, It is sure effective to optimize the combination of
individual effects to minimize the cost of the plant. For example, it may be wiser
to reduce the water flow and size of the pumping equipment, and reduce heat transfer
area, rather than reduce the temperature difference across the heat exchangers. In
our design work we optimize the design parameters so as to produce best overall plant
economies. In actual practice it turns out that maximum plant thermal efficiency is
not as important as minimum heat transfer area and minimum water flows, which largely
determine the size and cost of the plant.

The many years of development, analysis, evaluation of the problems, and
experimental work have enabled us to make many improvements in plant design. These

many improvements are incorporated in the latest conceptual design of @ 100 Me plant, shown on Figure 9. This plant incorporates many important features designed to accomplish the objectives outlined above.

The plant shown on Figure 9 operates on the same principles shown in the cycle diagram on Figure 4. These principles are basically the same as proposed in our original paper Ref. 32. However, the many improvements have resulted in a more efficient, more practical, and much lighter weight plant.

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The plant is a semi-submersible design constructed primarily of ordinary shipbuilding materials, such as steel, aluminum, and fiberglass reinforced

con-

plastics. The depth of the platform is 200 feet, and the length

120 meters. The total dead weight, including the meter long cold water pipe, and the working fluid is approximately 28,490 metric tons

The warm water enters through the screen surrounding the plant at the aster

Vine, and some of the vir is removed from the water before it enters the turbine

Given warm water pumps located 10 meters below the sea surface. Removal of some of the air from the water reduces the possibility of biofouling and corrosion:

The warm water is pumped down through the large vertical pipes to a plenum chamber from where it is discharged through the boilers to the open sea

The R-22 working fluid is evaporated in the boilers under 8 pressure that is nearly the same as that of the seawater surrounding the boilers at the bottom of the plant. The vapor flows upward from the boilers to the turbines located slightly above the boilers.

The turbogenerators are a patented hermetic design that operate at extremely high efficiency. The turbogenerator housings are in the open sea; but the working parts are accessible for repair and removal into the generator access room on which they are mounted. Transformers, controls, and accessories are contained in the generator access room.

The exhaust vapor from the turbines flows directly upward to the condensers where it is condensed to liquid by cold sea water pumped thru the condensers to the open sea. The condensers are located at approximately 25 meters below sea level, where the vapor pressure is nearly the same as that in the seawater surrounding them.

The condensed liquid R-22 flows by gravity to the boilers below, so that no

boiler feed pumps are required. Since gravity feed is 100% efficient, whereas

boiler feed pumps are required

Pumps and drivers are not, this feature improves plant efficiency

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The cold water pipe, which may be up to 1200 meters long, is suspended from a flexible spring support in the center well. It is free to swing in any

direction, and free to move up and down on its controlled

ny support system,

The cold water pipe is what may be called a stockade construction, originally described in Reference 53, with numerous improvements later incorporated.

Essentially it consists of a circular ring of hollow tubes, which form the wall of

the large pipe. This provides a thick insulating wall, which provides strength

and stability against collapse, and permits control of buoyancy. This construction

is also easily coded from the platform at sea, since individual pieces are easy to

ship and handle. There is, therefore, no problem in transporting the cold water pipe

from shore to platform

The cold water flows from the top of the pipe into the center closed well,

from where dissolved gases can be removed before the water enters the turbine driven

cold water pumps, which discharge the water downward to the condenser plenum chamber, and out through the condensers to the open sea

Dynamic positioning thrust forces are produced by the water jets issuing from the boilers and condensers through directionally controlled nozzles. These jets produce ample thrust to position the platform during normal operation.

During storms, when additional thrust is required, the turbine driven pumps can be

speeded up, and additional covers can be opened to produce the necessary high

thrust. The auxiliary engine starting system can also provide power to the pumps

for producing thrust when the main power plant is not operating, and for transporting the platform

It is interesting to note in Reference 18, where a very detailed study of

deep water mooring systems was made, that a dynamic positioning system was proposed

as a safety measure, in case the mooring system failed. It is also interesting to

rote that a floating moored of] drill rig in the North Sea mas saved from disaster

ty tugs, when the mooring system broke up. Ref. 24.

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The Semi-submersible plant has west of the structure wet? belon the mater Hine,
tnd @ rather saat] ares at the sea air tetortace, The warm water screen surrounding
the plant at the water Tine scts as e wave domer to reduce the force of the wave
ifDeCL On the marm and cold mater wells. which sass thru the air sea interface.

The exper?ence in the off drilting incustrys and cetiled studies, fet. 12,

have shown that» Sesion for ocean

~suonmrs bles are generaily the ?ost stabi
platforms.

table below. Comparative data

Plant performance data is presented in

4s also presented for our original proposed design, Ref. 23, and for # government

Sponsored study made by Lockheed in 1978, Ref. 55. Data is based on a 199 Mw plant,

design, with data proportioned for

although the Lockheed study was based on 160 Mw plant

00 Mw output

Power Plant Performance Comparison

units SSP Lockheed ss?

1985, 1781881

re difference tc a7 22.2 a2

arn mater flow sec 582 400 ae

Herm water Aon/net hw Ag/iwh 21,826 15,076 9038

Gold water fom Pisec 23a

Cold water flon/net kan Kg/tmn 19,802 15,895

Heat Transfer rea/Net ka-Bo:ter row 7193.28 10s

Heat Trensfer Area/tet kw-Condenser ie 13283 1.16

Overall heat transfer coefficient-Beller ? Ecu/ne ft? °F 220 22309

Overall heat transfer cocfficient-Condenser stu/nr ft? °F ? 200 23 vse

Gross Power oe 10.0 132.8 122.8

het Power ? 100.0 98.0 101.6

Ratio Gross/Net 11.36 1.208

Cold water pipe diameter Meters 8s

Plant weight including cold water pipe Metric tons _ 75.400

Plant weight Metric tons 50280

Working fluid ee Propane mini Re?

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The 5

Things reduction in plant weight that can now be achieved is the

result of many design improvements, the major one: increasing improvements in heat

transfer efficiency, reduction in mater flom, and ancreased turbine, generator, and pump efficiency. It shoule be noted that each reduction in ecuipsent requirement results in 9 reduction in s:ructural size end weight of the platform needed to support the equisnent, and in thrust ferces to keep it on station

The plant design presented above seus to setisty all the objectives outlined

tages which are ?ster nere

above, and hes rany adver

1. The Geep seri-sutrensibie design 4s weil known snd pro

te be highly

successful in surviving violent storms.

2. The smal? area

1 air sea interface with wave damping screens surrounding

the platform contribute: to good stability in storage conditions.

3. On

Sonig is strongly proven to provide good resistance to stores.

4. The semi-transportable type plant made of conventional steel, aluminum, and plastic is constructable at many shipyards all over the world, and the sizes are similar to sizes already being built.

5. Heat exchangers, turbines, and pumps are small enough to be easily transportable

that

they could be manufactured at many facilities?

6. The stociade pipe is corstructatle from the pletferm, ent does not need to be constructed at @ specia) shore facility.

1. The plant is easily transportable to the site, tecause the øyoanic positioning system fs operable without the cold water cipe being attached.

8, Oynanie positioning is well proven in drill ric cperation, and completely eliminates the need for costly deep water moring systems

9. Heat exchangers, being external, are easily accessible for cleaning or reptacenet

10. Pumps are conveniently placed so that they can be lifted tot

eck for repair.

V1, Turbogenerators are small, so that they can easily be handled for repair or

replacenment.

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22,

Intake screens are very accessible and easy to clean and maintain.

Turbine driven pumps are variable speed, making it easy to adjust the design

to different operating temperatures

The high efficiency of heat exchangers contributes greatly to reduction in

Fecuces area

plant size and cost, und to reduce! woter Mon require:

atso contributes to loner friction end suratmy losses.

Multistage neat erchengers increase tne emomt of heat usable from each

Ai lograr of water one recuces the plent aster ?Tow rate

Eftictent ing power, and permits

ign of the mater fae aysten reduces put

<Ahich on ture peraithe the use of &

higher velcities in che cate weter

sealer, lighter, anc chearer pize

Wigh efficioncies of ?urtees, sensrutors, anc sunps azsrecvaply increse

plant effistency and net cutput for 2 9

Elininotion of the ned for botier feed prys increases efficiency end reduces

paintenance requirenonts

R22 working Muid hav many advantages. it 1s non Flenrable, non toخته, and

practicelly non corrosive. It ts also easily separable froo water, requiring

as that required for enenia, tt is

o> complex mater removal syster, such

. ocean, It 4s also

Suswler than watery so thet Tost Tquid wilt sink dn th

congatile with copper alloys, rabing it possisle to use hermetic generators.

and copper alloys for heat exchangers,

Generators, pumps, and heat exchangers are all in multiple, so that repairs and maintenance can be done while plant is in operation. This insures a high plant availability factor

Low water intake velocities cause minimum disturbance to marine life.

Multiple discharge jets from condensers above the boilers insure mixing, 50

that the cold water will remain in the upper photic layers, and supply food

for fish production

26 -

---Page Break---

23. Cold water pipe design is lightweight, strong, and easily

constructed from

the floating platform, It can also be designed to minimize effects of vortex

shedding forces produced by underwater currents

24. External cooling of heat exchangers, vapor piping, and turbines generators contribute to economy and help to reduce size and weight of the plant

25. Oxygen removal from water reduces possibility for corrosion and microfouling

26. Flexible pipe support system reduces interconnection forces, and permits construction of the pipe from the platform

27. Very small size reduces cost, and greatly reduces thrust forces required for station keeping

Economics is the ultimate

the factor that forces the decision as to whether ocean

thermal power is practical is a large scale source of power. It must be competitive with

other available sources of power

A pretty generally accepted formula for power costs is that used in Ref. 9.

in Eq. 6 (com)

FCR is fixed charge rate

MiNTS per kW

where:

in annual percent

of capital investment. This should

include long term costs of debt, insurance, taxes, etc. During the 1870's, 16.

and 17 have been common values for the

\$/MWh capital investment in dollars per MWh. This includes direct

costs and financing charges during

15 the time required to design and build

the plant

F_c is capacity factor

the number of hours actually produced per

year to the total which a plant operated at constant full rated power

could produce in the year.

5760 = hours per year

(CF) is the cost of fuel in mills per kilowatt-hour produced

(COM) is the cost of maintenance in mills per kWh

-ae

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Capacity factors for each of these plants:

8 expected to be quite high,

particularly for the type plants here discussed. The plants need practice

Shutdown, because 211 elements of the plant except the cold water pipe are in multi-

Additional or replacement work can be carried on

multiple units, so that any maintenance,

while the plant is in nearly full operation. The plant produces maximum power

the fuel cost is

in the summer, when electricity demand is greatest. Since

the plants would be over-stressed through the evening and night time periods, when fuel using

plants would preferably be shutdown, for these reasons (capacity factor of 90)

could be expected for ocean thermal plants of this version

Nuclear plants have a theoretical availability

factor of about 68%, because they

must be shutdown for a portion of six weeks

to change fuel rods. They also

are subject to constant risk: shutdowns for many reasons, simply because of the

Concerns of radioactivity. Historically the capacity factor for nuclear plants has

averaged around 55%. This does not include such disasters as Three Mile Island plants,

which now have a zero capacity factor. It is generally desirable to run nuclear plants

as base load plants, because the fuel costs are lower than coal or oil costs

Goal plants currently are expected to have an avail-

ability factor of about 56

according to Ref. 36. The availability factor is the ratio of power that could

be produced per year if the plant generated all the power it was capable of producing.

to the total power it could theoretically produce if operated at full rated power
over the time. Capacity factor will generally be less than availability factor,
particularly for plants which use expensive fuel.

Oil-fired plants would normally have an availability factor higher than that for

coal plants, because the fuel handling and waste handling are much less complex.
However the capacity factor is usually fairly low because fuel costs are very high
and it is therefore imperative to shutdown these plants whenever system loads are
low.

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Hydroelectric plants usually have a rather low availability factor, simply
because water flow varies greatly throughout the year, while availability factors
vary greatly with individual plants, an overall average value is probably about 50%.

Capacity factors should be estimated as availability factors, because the fuel

is free. It should be noted that hydroelectric tidal power plants have a theoretical

availability factor of only 30%

a

of the hours

0 nuclear, fossil fuel, and hydroelectric

generators come:

plants 15 that a1] have lowest generating capacity in the summer, when system power demands are usually the highest, In contrast to the ocean thermal plants can pro=

duce their highest power output in the winter, when consumer demand is highest,

Recent capital costs for nuclear plants vary from \$1551 per kw., estimated

for Electric 1

by the Electric 1 (Ref 27) to \$3037 per kw. and \$3878/kw. (Ref 39)

A large part of the capital costs involves the Financing charges, because construction

times are now approximately 1

years

Coal fired plants are recently estimated to cost about \$2209 per kw (Ref. 40)

More comprehensive cost estimates have recently been made for EPRI (Ref. 41)

Since large oil fired plants are not generally being built today, it is difficult

to obtain recent cost estimates, The cost recent cost estimate is an official

estimate for 2320 Mwe capacity, made by Philadelphia Electric Company for the Public Service Commission of Pennsylvania in 1875. The estimated capital cost was \$564.00 per kw. Based on inflation of 10% annually, the 1981 cost should be \$1100 per kw

The estimated heat rate was 9000 Btu/bwh, or 26.3% (thermal) efficiency.

Hydroelectric plants vary widely in cost. Recent costs have necessarily increased more rapidly than the inflation rate, because most favorable sites have generally been built, and the new plants are forced to use more remote, and more costly sites. A recent estimated cost for the world's largest hydro project in Guere (Ref. 42) is \$1600 per kw. for 10,43 Mw, and has an expected capacity factor of

78%. Based on 10% yearly inflation the 1921 equivalent cost should be \$2340 per kw.

---Page Break---

Steps can be made today for ocean thermal pi

Not accurate estimates, Probably

the best estimate can be made by using t°@ sacks cost per ton of weight that is used

see

for semi-submersible off-shooting rigs. See

submersible ery}? ig fs

considerably more complex than an ocean thermal power plant. At 53005 per netieic

ton and a weight of 250 ton: per kw from Title T the cost would be \$1090 per kilowatt.

Other cost estimates such as: Ref. 7.9, enc 3S estimate costs ranging from £99 to

35 estimates 2 view of 2159 ton

52700 per kw. Since per bw and 2 raxinun

cost of $3702/2150+81720$ per ton it appears reasonable to think that \$1990 per ton

Thermal efficiencies become important for plants which must purchase fuel.

This would include of 1, coal, and nuclear plants. The current price of oil is

approximately \$28.09 per barrel, at \$90 per ton the fuel cost would be \$5.67 per

million Btu of oil is per ton, at \$90 per ton for a coal plant and \$38.00 per

ton for coal the fuel cost would be approximately \$157 per million Btu or 12.3 cents

per kWh. At 10,290 Btu/ton for a nuclear plant and \$42 per pound for uranium fuel,

the fuel cost would be approximately \$1.19 per million Btu or 11.4 cents per kWh.

The following table shows expected power costs for the various power sources

As above, calculated by the formula from Ret. 9

Table 2 Fuel Cost

O11 Coa) hydro. tuetear SSP

Capita Costs W900 2200 238028801000

Fixed charge rate ee) 20

Capacity factor 1% 58S 3880

Cot of eaintenancesmil}s/bw a4 3 ? ?

Cost of fuel-ni Ns /tah 8.123 one °

Fower cos t-ril1s/kwh 65 1076 2 ae

From the above table it is quite epparent tnat ocean them? poner plants
could cost as much as \$5000 per ky and stil? te covvetitive with other sources of

-30-

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Power. It should be point d cut that im rary tslany communities power presently

costs 15 cents or nore per tet.

Another way to evaluate power sources is to compare them on the basis of

total energy required to build the plant. This is done in Ref. 8, and somewhat differently in Ref. 43 and 44. In each case ocean thermal power shows a more favorable energy balance than any other form of power

When we consider the additional production

of food, fresh water, fuel, and

other chemicals, from ocean thermal power, in addition to the power generation

cost, it is clear that ocean thermal power must indeed be the world's best bargain

in energy.

9. Hilbert Anerson

President

Sea Sotar Power, Inc

2422 South Queen St.

York, Pa. 17802

Decenter 8, 1987

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EPRI Jovrnal, October 138), P69 (US. electricity consumption?

Roels,"Fcod, Energy, end Fresh water Fron the deep sea" Mecronicel Engrg.
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GENERATOR:

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THERMAL ENERGY CONVERSION

CLOSED POWER CYCLE

Fig 3

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WATER DESALTING PROCESS

Fig. £

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1982

First Pan American Congress on Energy and

Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

WAVE ENERGY UTILIZATION IN WESTERN AUSTRALIA

By

?Authur Harry Nash

Western Australian Institute of Technology

USA

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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WAVE ENERGY UTILISATION IN WESTERN AUSTRALIA,

ABSTRACT Western Australia is a large State occupying the western third of the Australian continent which approximates the area of the USA,

The State's population is only 8% of Australia's with 70% living near the capital city, Perth. However, there are scattered towns, mainly along the coast, and in the remote North-West large iron ore development projects even spawning new towns some 1500 km from Perth, the major power generating centre. The supply of economical electrical energy to these areas provides.

Over recent years it has provided fast electrical power but with escalating prices of this important commodity a conversion to a nearly 100 percent coal system has occurred. Unlike the remote east coast of Australia which is well endowed with coal supplies, Western Australia's are finite with present reserves lasting until about the end of the century. This, and the fact that Western Australia's electrical energy is relatively expensive, poses problems and the State has shown some interest in developing renewable sources,

Western Australia's coastline extends for some 7000 kms 0 availability to wave energy 18 good.

The author is interested in the possibility of harnessing wave energy and is in contact with leading UK wave energy workers. Preliminary investigations indicate that the Western Australian wave energy density available for such that a considerable portion of the State's energy requirements could be provided by wave energy at economically viable prices, in the relatively near futures

The author has been com energy utilisation in Wee!

oned to prepare a scenario for possible vave

rm Auetrald,

1 urmopucrion

The forces ansocated with waves, albett thetr destructive rather than useful
ature, have been known to man since he first ventured forth on the senses
Suffice to state that these ancients and their aodern successors acknowlesged
(end often suffered from) the vast forces associated with the cease,

There are saall scale devices, such as puaps for eaptying water from anchored
pi which are activated by wave aotion. However, the general

fapression ie that interest in harnessing vave energy to supply large
apounts of electrical pover is very recent stemming from the world energy
crisis, (Indeed to a large sector of the technical and nontechnical petite,
ave pover as a harnessable energy source ie still an unknown quantity), te
te somewhat surprising then to find that Stahl (Ref. 46) presented a guper on
the topic to the American Society of Mechanical Engineere in 1892. He

There was little followup C111 the mid 1960's when Masuda's self powered
Maht-buoy, discussed by McCornick (Ref. 29) was developed commercially. But
he was left to Salter in the UK to kindle, at least amongst a limited group of
technical people, a real interest in the use of wave power for large
scale power generation. In 1974 he described the initial work undertaken by
him at the University of Edinburgh's Department of Mechanical Engineering
(Ref. 42)

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To those interested in harnessing wave energy, Stephen Salter's "nodding duck"
is now well known. But apart from the development of the device itself, the
first large scale attempt to bring the vision of harnessing the wave energy of

the ocean to reality, this was the catalyst that was to generate wide-spread action, Salter's report, which coincided with the dramatic OPEC generated price spiral of 1973, was accepted as being largely responsible for the UK Government rapid growth of interest. The Energy Technology Division of the UK Department of Energy commissioned the National Engineering Laboratory to undertake a study of the economic and technical feasibility of large scale generation of electricity in the UK by ocean waves. Concurrently with this study, which took cognisance of UK work and also that in the USA, Europe and Japan, Salter received a grant from the Department of Industry, later taken over by the Department of Energy, to further his work (Ref- 25, pp+10-11)

The NEL Report (Ref. 25) concerned itself with the need for wave power, data on wave energy available in both the UK and worldwide, possible effects on the environment, devices currently being studied, the most promising devices and estimates of the cost of wave-powered electricity. A point of particular interest to Australians was the information that wave energy levels of Australia would probably be similar to those on most of the UK coast, particularly the south coast, though energy levels in the Atlantic approaches to the British Isles tended to be higher than elsewhere. The report, (Ref-25, +8) noting that the highest wave energy occurs in the North Atlantic, goes on

to say: This, however, does not imply that wave power generation could not be economically viable elsewhere. Countries «with little indigenous source of energy, and shipbuilding and marine engineering capability and a Level of wave energy roughly the same as that around much of the UK coast have considerable incentives to step up their effort on wave power generation =. +

larger than had been

Other points noted: There was more wave power delivered, cost estimates for wave-power generation were not unduly high, the developing trend to offshore activities and associated technologies would help in cost reductions, and wave power appeared the most attractive alternative to nuclear power.

The report further noted that a substantial part of the UK energy needs could be met by wave energy. Specifically, by making certain assumptions, it was deduced that half the 197% energy needs could be supplied by between 600 and 1600 miles of wave harnessing devices. However, because of the relative shortness of the coastline, it is noted that these equipments might cause difficulties with fishing operations as they would occupy a considerable part of the Atlantic coastline.

The final recommendations were for the UK Government to maintain an interest in the field, that Edinburgh and complementary research programs should be adequately that design and development studies should run parallel to research programs, and that environmental studies should be sponsored.

The Third Report from the UK Select Committee on Science and Technology was also concerned with development of alternative energy sources (Ref 10). It

included wave power in its conclusions (Refs 10, pp 22-23, LiLT-11)

This report to the House of Commons left no doubt that wave power offered a considerable potential for large-scale electricity generation if the technical development could proceed to economically viable generation. In noting that this source of alternate energy matches availability closely with demand, the recommendation was made that a development program be instituted such that wave power could contribute a significant component of the electricity supply by 1990. The government's reply (Ref. 10) accepted the recommendations and

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advised that its significant increase in funding indicated the high priority
accorded this work,

In 1978 the Secretary of State for Energy presented an Energy Policy to
Parliament (Ref. 43). This stressed that wave power offered greater potential
than any other alternate energy source for UK power generation with good
chances of success. The investments in the research program were also
justified as insurance against shortage of other conventional fuels even if
the cost of this electrical energy remained higher than for other sources

Thus, from the early work of Sizer's rapid expansion of the UK program
occurred to the point where that country is undoubtedly a world leader in the
field. Smaller programs are conducted in Japan, Scandinavia and the USA,

Meanwhile a limited number of Western Australian workers became interested in
the possibilities of harnessing wave energy. The possibility of devices being
developed to economically harness wave energy was seen against a special
background in Western Australia. Escalating cost of imported oil has forced a
conversion of mainly oil-fired generating stations to coal-fired units.

However, WA coal reserves are limited. There was very strong opposition to the
recent government proposal to establish a nuclear power station, Western

Australia is a large, sparsely populated state with sizeable communities and industries in isolated areas well removed from coal fired stations. They have to use expensive diesel powered electricity. The State has a very long coastline with seemingly considerable potential for wave energy uses. The State is developing technologies in connection with offshore activities and marine affairs.

It was against the general background stated immediately above and the broader comments from the NEL, that the preliminary study discussed in some detail hereafter, was initiated with a view to influencing local authorities, regarding the possibilities of harnessing wave energy in Western Australia.

2 WESTERN AUSTRALIA AND ITS POSITION

2.1 Western Australia

Area-wise Western Australia is a Large State of 2.5 million square kilometres,

4@ third of the area of Australia, with distances of 2500 Kilometres north to south and 1600 kilometres east to west. However, it has a relatively small

2 million population, approximately 6% of the total for Australia, Some 70 percent live within 30 miles of the capital city of Perth but there are several country towns, mainly near the coast, with significant populations

The coast stretches 7000 kilometres. This offers considerable potential for water-based activities. One of the developments of off-shore gas fields. The North Rankin field (Ref. 47) has an estimated reserve of 265 billion cubic metres. A two platform unit to produce 40 million cubic metres of gas @ day is being installed. This field, situated about 130 kilometres off coast from Dampier (1500 kilometres from Perth), lies in up to 130 metres of waters

In addition to these developments the State already has very heavy additional capital and engineering commitments in the Northwest with the iron ore developments in the Pilbara. These are all major engineering operations requiring sizeable electric power

Experience in the development and construction of off-shore rigs also exists. For example, the Ocean Endeavour, an off-shore rig involving \$22 billion #

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Cockburn Sound, including

+ Woodane Point west Perth. The shear zone indicates that the area is suitable for this type of project.

Figure 1 shows some of the above features and scale gives @ relevant size frame in relation to the US & UK. The relative sizes and lengths of coastline of

the UK and Western Australia have significance. These points are discussed in Section 6 as are the unduly scattered remote mining towns.

2.2 THE POWER POSITION

The State Energy Commission of Western Australia is charged with determining the best way fuel, energy and power can be used for the benefit of the people of Western Australia; with implementing fuel, energy and power policies of the Government; with promoting and co-ordinating the development and use of fuel, energy and power in Western Australia and with determining the future demands for fuel and power in the State. It is also required to investigate whether the State can meet this demand and to assess the impact of any fuel and power shortage on developments and to ensure that supplies of suitable fuel and power are available to the public (Ref. 68).

About 98% of the State's population is serviced with Commission electricity. Peak electrical demand recently exceeded 1,000 megawatts and it is estimated that by the year 2000 up to 3,200 megawatts of additional generating facilities may be needed. The escalating oil cost has led to conversion to an almost exclusively coal fired generating system which worsens the position regarding limited coal supplies. The maximum extractable are only expected to provide a further 1,400 megawatts. Plans already exist to install 400 megawatts of this capacity.

Western Australia's high electricity costs could be to the State

At considers introducing wave energy systems

advantage if

Western Australia's remote northern iron ore areas are dependent entirely on expensive diesel electricity plants. Feasibility studies to determine if these supplies can be made cost effective are proceeding. Installed

capacities at these centres ranges from 1 through 4 and 10 to 70MM

Western Australia is also short of fresh water so that any excess electrical generating capacity from waves in heavy weather conditions could be considered for desalinating water which can be stored against demand.

Extra sites for power stations are being investigated and the current political issue revolves around statements of the then Premier that the State would have to look to uranium as a power source in the near future. Indications were that a nuclear power station could be operating before the turn of the century if no other energy source is available. There is and will continue to be considerable debate on this topic.

The State Energy Commission and Solar Energy Research Institute of Western

Australia co-operate in developing and appraising the possibilities of alternate ? Tange from vind turbines, through solar cell arrays back 8, and hybtd unite Linking a 100 KW solar tracking collection ayates with an exieting diesel unite The Solar Energy Research Institute 18 Interested in futher encouraging research ?and has expressed {nterest in wave energy developuents

Thus, because of the high cost of fuel off and the fact that Western Austrlia does not have significant indigenoues of] sources the State has moved to firing,

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existing pover stations ith coals Future exp nsions in this éirection are

Limited because of the limited known reserves. f coal once, al

of energy generation will be required in the future. These

of renewable energy or nuclear energy 2° 8 co=*

these possibilities are already under investigation

consideration its wave energy.

to force

to take the form

of both, and some of

3 COASTAL HOSPITALITY AND SHORE FACILITIES

Before wave energy can be harnessed it is desirable that an adequate

hospitality? regarding facilities should exist, what of the KA coastline in

this respect?

3.1 Weather Condition

Though it will be suggested that wave energy is adequate, the area around Fremantle is generally marked by the absence of violent storms, in fact one or two cyclones have been experienced over the past 80 years their effect has been small in the Perth area. The worst the area normally encounters is depressions with steady rains and gale winds.

The

the area is generally benign and well suited to experimental work.

3.2 The Harbours

The initial Fremantle harbour was the result of work of the prominent engineer CY O'Connor who took the mouth of 2 relatively shallow rivers and converted it into a safe modern harbour to handle passengers and all types of cargo. The

land backed port has a minimum depth of 11 metres. It handles both container

and other cargo. The 80 hectare harbour is safe for ships all the year

Found. Adjacent to it is a large modern fishing fleet harbour and another for prestige pleasure craft.

Because of WA's remoteness and the need to maintain existing vessels and build others for the fishing and allied industries, docking facilities are available where engine overhauls and hull repairs can be performed.

The area around Fremantle has developed as a light and heavy industrial areas. One reason for this is the fact that the coastline is sheltered, yet provides ready access to deep water.

Brief mention should be made of the general marine surrounds of Fremantle.

Off Fremantle's coast are long reefs which form strings of protective islands, the major two being Rottnest and Garden Islands. Rottnest is some 19 kilometres off-shore and Garden Island ranges from about 8 kilometres off to a causeway link with the mainland, these islands providing a protection for the

Of particular interest is the 182 square kilometre outer harbour or Cockburn Sound, between Garden Island and the mainland. This sheltered area has attracted industries, many requiring sea access to the coast. The AP Refinery complex has its own complex. The RIP steel works operate two separate jetties capable of handling both steel products and raw materials.

The Alcoa Jetty is used for loading bulk alumina. Two bulk unloaders form another complex for handling bulk cargoes. These are used by the fertilizer works and others. The large Kwinana bulk wheat storage unit also has its complex of four loaders. The Garden Island Navy Depot with its 13.7 kilometre harbour, residential facilities, workshops and stores is also in the area:

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?Area access to 70,00 teane class shirs is via dredged channelsy

Other large industries in the area using gener. 1 harbour factlittes include the State Electricity Co-atsston power station the alckel refinery, Comonvealth Industrial cases, CS, Aucralis: Shipping Industry and food

processors.

3.3 Allied Tadustries ant works

?The UA economy was largely agriculture based priar te Horld var II. Since then agricultural proninence has been maintained put vast strides have seen made in {industrial development and the State his also become a major producer of minerals including gold, caal, irox ore, Davnite, sickel, mineral sandes Batural gas, Urantun and now diamonds. Minera? roedrces ave widely Aistributed throughout the State with sineral sande, coal and baucive 200 kas

to the south of Perth, gold and nickel 40 kilometres to the east and natural gas, iron ore and diamonds 1,500 - 2,300 kilometres to the north

The new developments in the arid sparsely settled north have flowed from government and private industry. They are supported by an efficient system of ground (road trains), air, and specialised sea transport. The four major foreign groups have multi-million dollar holdings. Few off-shore gas ventures see the expenditure of approximately four thousand million dollars in the next four years or so. Mining groups are also making their contributions

These groups have sponsored the growth of large engineering and allied service in and around Perth so that there is ample manufacturing and servicing capacity.

Mention should also be made of other north west endeavours in the State. More than half of Australia's rainfall reaches the area through the area. One river, the Ord, has been dammed to form the large Lake Argyle used to irrigate the Ord River agriculture project where tropical and sub-tropical crops are being grown. Possibly sugar grown as an energy crop may be very significant. The hydroelectric possibilities of Lake Argyle are also a political consideration.

The north of Western Australia has been likened to an awakening giant. Including the possibilities of harvesting tidal power the state is developing

rapidly = "A State of Excitement? ~ with a rapidly growing appetite for electrical power.

?To any group involved in major engineering operations there must be comfort in knowing adjacent units have interests in common and like needs for servicing facilities. Major units fitting into this category are located in the Perth-Perth and immediate hinterland areas include several shipbuilding organisations and ship slipping facilities, a large fishing industry, a large coal fired power station, a nickel refinery, an oil refinery, a steel mill, aluminium smelting and refining, a large harbour complex, a naval base and shore repair facilities, machinery manufacturing industries, metal manufacturing industries, small specialised electronic industries, building industries and road and rail transport industries.

Several heavy metal industries and support groups experienced in fabricating large metal structures, particularly those associated with the rather inhospitable ocean environment are also in the area

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4% THE WAVE ENERGY ENVIRONMENT OFF THE WESTERN AUSTRALIAN Coast

Wave energy measurements off the coast of Western Australia are fairly limited both in duration and in the geographical spread. However, some observations have been made off Fremantle, the port for the Capital Perth, which is 19 km from it. More recently a considerable amount of work has been undertaken by consultants for Woodside Petroleum Development Pty Ltd in the development of the North West North Rankin offshore gas field.

As the area of immediate interest is that this paper is restricted accordingly

With Perth the observations then

Two sources of data on wave energy are:

Hunan observations of wind driven waves and swells from ships in the offshore area bounded by 30 degrees south, 34 degrees south and 112 degrees east for 1950 to 1957 are in Figure 2 (Refs 5)+

AL, 'Waverider' Bouy measurements at those Figure 2 locations taken during the period 1970 to 1975 (Ref. 26, p.9)+

4.1 Energy Densities Determined from Ship Observations

The fifteen hundred and five observations of wind waves were separated into two categories. Those of wave heights greater than 1.5 metres were tabulated but those less than 1.5 metres were not specifically listed. Rather they were just specified as being less than 1.5 metres (Ref. 3, p.10).

The 641 observations for the bigger waves are as in Figure 3. The power per metre of wave front is calculated from

$P = \rho g c_m a^2$ watts per metre of wavefront,

a

where ρ is the density of sea water taken as 1025 kg/m³

g is the acceleration due to gravity

T is the zero crossing period

H_s is the significant wave height.

The power for each tabulated value of H_s and T was multiplied by the number of observations of waves of that particular height and the total summed to give 10,864 kW per metre.

For smaller waves it is possible to ignore the energy contribution entirely of

those that these waves were of average height ≈ 0.75 metre with period tending to the order of 7 seconds. Using the latter assumption gives an extra wind component of 1927 kW hours per metre and total wind wave power of 13067 kW per metre for 1505 waves studied. Hence:

average wave power density = $13067 / 1505 = 8.68$ kW per metre

505

The 950 smaller observations similarly treated yield a power density of 21250 kW per metre for larger waves, and with assumptions as above, a possible 272 kW

Per metre for smaller waves. This total density spread over 950

2 from Salter (Ref 42, pp.720-1).

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observations gave an average power density of 22.65 kv per aetre, Data for
Jonger vaves fa tn Figure t+

The combined value for vind and svel! i 31.3) kv per setres

?These energy density fisures are obviously subject to some concern
regarding accuracy. The effect of the assumptions regarding vaves of
hhefght less than 1.5 petres can be readily assessed. For example 1f the

Remaining 864 wind wave heights were rather than the assumed «75
entre the total power from 1505 waves would have been 20,864 kw per metre
for an average of 7.2 kw per metre rather than 8.32 Kw per metre. Likewise
the swell figure would be 22.36 rather than 22.65 kw per metre. But there
are other points of concern. The Bureau of Meteorology notes (Ref. 5 ppe

1-2): "The data used was restricted to the extent that ships tend to bait
reports of sea waves and swell when these phenomena are regarded as in
significant?. And again, in relation to swell waves, "the percentage

Frequency of waves of 1.5 metres or greater does not present an accurate
picture because of the omission of insignificant values of swell from the
Synoptic ship reports. whether these omissions tend to bias the percentage
frequency to higher values as might be assumed, could only be established
if reports from a stationary reporting vessel were available?.

Again it is of concern that the number of wind wave observations is not the

sae ax for swell waves. It has been presumed in calculations that the

for the two sets of information were reported simultaneously, If this

10 the number of observations should have been the same. There are two possibilities. The swell waves have been reported over a shorter

for the absence on an observation could mean there was no

observable swell. In this latter case there could be five hundred and

fifty-five occasions when the swell height would have been zero and that would reduce the swell wave component from 22.6 to 14.3 kw per meter

The implications to be drawn are that further wave data and clarifications of those currently available required, and the best estimate of wave energy density off the Western Australian coast near Perth is 31 kw per metre but under the worst conditions of data interpretation this could be reduced to 21.5 kw per metre. However, it might be noted that Hull (Ref. 51, p.59), in estimating several average wave densities through the world identified a figure of 30 kw per metre off the South West WA Coast. Whilst expressing some concern regarding accuracy of the above figures it is noted that the only data initially available to Salter, were from similar human sight observations albeit from fixed location weather ships in the Atlantic.

It is noted that the most likely Western Australian value of 31 kW per metre compares with the maximum UK North Atlantic density of 77 kW per metre and the more typical coastal UK value of 25 kW per metre. Even the lowest expected figure for Western Australia is only slightly below this. Thus whilst accepting the Western Australian figures may be subject to some error, they indicate energy densities of the same order as those off most of the UK coast so that the possibilities of harnessing Western Australian wave energy should be pursued further.

The distribution of energy as a function of wave period, having significance in design work, is plotted in Figure 5 using the Australian Bureau of Meteorology data (Ref.5). The corresponding data for Station India in the North Atlantic is also plotted. It is noted that WA peak energy is available from shorter period waves than is the case for Station India. This may have a bearing on the design of the WA wave energy

extraction devices. (See Section 6).

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The direction of waves an also have cesign s::nlf ice. These are given in

figures 6 to 9, with observations reported at 1/2 intervals. As waves reported as 180° would be moving from south to north it will be noted there is a slight tendency for waves to predominate in this direction in the October to March period with a predominant spectrum from 170° to 230°,

For the remainder of the year wave directions are more variable for a bimodal spectrum of 200 to 280°. The variability in wave direction may have design and device location significance.

4.2 Energy Densities from Waverider Survey Data

This data was collected between 1970-1976. The off-shore location of greatest interest was about 10 kilometres from the coast in water 36.5 metres deep. Various malfunctions meant that calibration, paper tape records were only available from August 1970 to August 1972 and December 1973 to January 1975 with analogue chart information from May 1971 to July 1973 and November 1973 to August 1975. The data is archived and is available for further data analysis. Unfortunately analysis to date is

for yield information in the form enabling the available power to be readily determined. Processing of this data is now proceeding.

The Waverider Bouy gives useful design information regarding the height of 10 year and 100 year waves as in Figure 10. Thus the probability of the significant wave height exceeding 4 metres is one day in 100 years and that for a height exceeding 6.5 metres, 12 one day in 10 Years. Put another way, if design is based on the probability of a hundred year wave occurring in the life of the device, it must be capable of safely withstanding the forces associated with an 8.4 metre wave.

5. THE UNITED KINGDOM CURRENT POSITION

It is, nor would it be appropriate in this paper, to

the United Kingdom projects in detail. It must suffice to mention some in brief, particularly those which may have relevance to the Western Australian scene.

Sel Saleer's Duck

In its early stages the device was to consist of a series of "ducks" on a rigid floating horizontal shaft or spine anchored so that they faced oncoming waves as shown diagrammatically for an early model in Figure 11 (Ref. 29, p.8). As the wave approaches, each "duck" reacts individually raising (rotating) and thus absorbing wave energy. As the wave passes, they drop down again. Typically this oscillating action is converted to a uni-directional action of fluid to drive a turbine alternator. The scheme, tested in all waves, was found to be very efficient in extracting energy for a reasonably wide spectrum of wave periods.

Salter envisaged that there would be twenty to thirty such ducks, having an inside diameter of about ten metres. Because of the transverse nature of wave fronts impinging on individual 'ducks' the whole system was expected to float horizontally approximately parallel to the wave front with individual ducks oscillating up and down. Such proved to be the case with both small scale and one tenth scale testing. However, the latter posed problems. One design problem of such systems in the inhospitable Atlantic is that it has to be designed to withstand severe wave conditions. The

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Figure &

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Figure 7. April ~ September

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PERCENT PROBABILITY OF EXCEEDENCE

have Exceedance Plot - offshore WA.

Figure 10.

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tenth scale Loch Ness costing in éicetes ?t wour | be difficult to mcke

4 syster engineeringly strong and at the nase t se economically viables

Thus Salter changed his approach soneviat using a sophisticated

sleroprocessor controtlec ved tha: it is rigid up to cert

wave heights but collapses £9 a series of non~r gid spines, one per dvch,

with larger waves. In addition to spite modifications the energy conversion systems will be: Sertoux <oneide:

to using pairs of gyroscopes counted {1 the ?duch's deal? generation (Refs. 38, pp.337-2, 39, pp.105-6, 60, pedi le Delieves che current developments will overcome problems.

?The development has received \$812,000 government funding since 1974 wt

contractors John Laing, and Cansuttasts, Scottish Offshore Partnership (ScOPA) joining the team for extensive 1:1 scale design studies from 1978-80 (Ref. Ty 9635) with a configuration of twenty > thirty

ducks would be mounted on a concrete spine. Each duck would be approximately 26 metres wide with a total length in excess of 520 metres. The team currently estimates that a 2 MW will generate power at a cost of 4.5 to 5.8 pence per kWh.

The 'duck's' development is described in Refs. 35 to 42.

5.2 The clean

Coventry Polytechnic's, Dr Bellamy headed the group. Financed to conduct

tenth scale tests on the "duck" referred to above. He saw the inherently weak circular spine as a factor contributing to high construction costs and reasoned that a stronger more economical spine could be obtained by using a rectangular section. But this meant that rotating "ducks" were out.

Thus the "duck" was replaced by a flapping plate hinged at the base of the spine. About the same time Wells developed a turbine with blade configuration such that the direction of rotation was the same irrespective of the direction of air flow. Bags fastened behind Bellamy's flaps sealed to the open front of the spine so that an oncoming wave caused a flap to compress the air in the bag behind it and thus drive that air through Wells turbine into a recovery manifold. On the passing of the wave the flap drops, thus opening the bag and the air passes through the turbine in the reverse direction keeping it rotating. There were about twenty flaps with one turbine and generator per flap. The spine again effectively parallels the oncoming wave.

Studies relating to flaps showed they constituted major cost component,

would present considerable servicing difficulties and would provide a less than ideal interface with the irregular incoming waves. Thus the process of evolution led to the elimination of the hinged plates and their replacement by rubber bags - facing the sea - in the spines

?Though some doubts have been raised regarding turbine efficiency and stability the group believes these are not of great importance at present

Recent contact, work was progressing well, with detailed testing of power take off units and bags proceeding with a view to possible early possible

prototype testing.

?The unit was evolved in 1979 following tenth scale testing on the "duck".

Government funds have only amounted to £187,009. SEA? Lanchester have worked with Bellamy's team in funding the development

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The device would be as a plain concrete structure, have few moving parts, with a closed cycle and hence a relatively corrosion free air treatment system. Ten clams on a three hundred metre spine, 15 actinodes, would generate an average output of W_i at an estimated cost of RM , Figure 12 shows schematic representations of the unit before the deletion

The device is discussed in some detail by Bellamy (Ref. 2), Sovtrill (Ref. 7), Wurdle (Ref. 23) and Raghunathan et al (Refs Bae

5.3 The Lancaster Flexible Bag

Work on this device was initiated by Professor J French at the University of Lancaster in 1977. The device has several variations. Typically, it consists of a spine which can either float or be mounted on the seabed in a direction perpendicular to the wavefront. Along each side of the spine are a series of flexible bags in contact with the sea on one side and communicating via non-return valves to two longitudinal air ducts in the beam. As a wave crest passes down the device air is squeezed out of the bags into the high pressure duct. As the trough of the wave approaches the bag expands drawing air via valves from the low pressure return duct. Individual bags work with different phases relative to each other feed into the common ducts which are joined through conventional single stage air turbines. A diagrammatic configuration is shown in Figure 1 (Refs 31, 289).

Bag design in full scale units is a critical feature. On the one hand it is claimed they contribute to the low cost, but on the other they must also be mechanically strong - typically they would be a reinforced rubber Gtaphrags of corded construction, about the weight and strength of coated fabrics used in the big tyres of earth moving equipment? (Refs 32, 33) e but must be able to collapse smoothly without Sucking onto the backing Support on pressure from the vaver

Wave power limited which was initially established to develop the now defunct Cockerell raft wave harnessing device, joined the project in 1979 to concentrate on engineering design problems. Government funding has amounted to 175,000 The device is relatively cheap and simple to

less stresses associated with it. Because of its relative simplicity it is seen as also having much potential in developing countries (Ref. 32; p3).

The devices which are planned for mass production, would typically be 200 metres long, about 10 metres deep and 4 metres wide with an average output of 2MW. Cost estimations vary around 3.5 to 4.7 pence per kWh. The development of the device is detailed by Cottrill (Ref. 7), Evans (Refs 16 and 17), French (Refs. 19 and 20) and Platts (Refs. 31 and 32) <

5st The National Engineering Laboratory Oscillating Water Coluan

?The UK Department of Industry's National Engineering Laboratory has nearly 4 thousand staff and is the largest UK estabiishaent concerned wick mechanical engineering research and developaent. Interests include flow of fluids, turbines, energy, flutd power, structures and off-shore expertioe. Following the wave-power feasibility study undertaken by the Labeceey (Raf, 25), NEL decided that because of ts interests and enperton fe should develop the oscillating water column principal then under consideration in Japan

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Figure 15.

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The rise and fall of waves in an inverted box, forces air back and forth through an orifice in its top. This air flow is rectified and the resulting unidirectional flow is used to drive an air turbine.

Initial work by Meir (Ref. 42) gave low capture efficiencies. It was realised that a device, whether floating or on land, needed to have an appropriate shape to absorb and not transmit wave energy. Thus one aspect of the work was refining a structure which could be manufactured of concrete or steel, and meet these requirements. Running parallel with this was the refinement of Francis turbine to match the characteristics of the driving air stream ~ high velocity and low inertia. Associated with the development of this robust turbine went the rectifying device converting reciprocating to unidirectional air flow.

Figure 1d shows a diagrammatic version of the device (Ref. 12, pp.18 and 20).

The system has a simple power take off, can lead itself to floating or bottom mounting when it could double as a break water thus effecting further economies, and can be built using existing technologies.

Typically a concrete structure, mounted parallel to the wavefront, would be 35 metres wide, 33 metres deep and 121 metres long with six water columns each with its own turbine and generators to supply about 1 MW (Ref 13, p212). Costs are given in the range \$15 pence per MW (Ref. 7, p37)

NEL is working in conjunction with Roxburgh and Partners who are the

fengiocering design consultants. Detailr of the developaent are given by Elliot & Roxborgh (Refs. 12 and 13) and Meir (Ref. 30).

5.5 The Bristol Oset Mating Cylinder

Dr Evana of the University of Bristol, noted che theory that @ suberged cylinder which was soved to orbit its axis of syaetry in a liquid generated Waves aoving away from the cylinder in one direction only. There was no Bisturbance in the other direction. Evans reasoned that the opposite would flee be true. Waver incident on submerged cylinder would cause At to Totate with co disturbance of the water on the remote side of the

cylinder. That is all the wave energy would be absorbed by the cylinder.

Evans and Shaw began experigental work in 1978 to prove Evans? theory and ?athenatical reasoning to be correct (Ref. 8). Sir Robert McAlpine and Sone Ltd, Hunphreys and Glasgow Led, Merz and McLellan and Hydraulic Analysis Ltd, Joined vith the University of Bristol teas to handle the ?engineering design concepts.

In the device being developed the floating submerged cylinder {s flexibly restrained by moorings vchich thus extend and contract as the cylinder Fotates as in Figure 15 (Ref. 45, p.267).

Tests anticipated that each 12 metre cylinder will be 50 metres long in at least 35 metres of water with its top submerged about 7 metres below the surface of still water for optimum operations: The axis will be parallel to the wavefront. Mooring will be approximately thirty five metres from the cylinder to the anchoring pile cap. The rotating motion of the cylinder thus translates to an almost near reciprocating action in the mooring.

Mooring requirements are severe as they must act as a spring resonant system with the cylinder, must convert the reciprocating motion into a constant for power take off, and must withstand a buoyancy thrust calculated at eight hundred tonnes per mooring (Ref. 45, ap-262-3)-

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Shaw et #1 (Refs 45, pp-

346) considered voas

ty possible methods of

generating electricity from the rec/sricatiae notion and discusses the

Various pros and cons. it Ls concluiud that ø btu aeting rock procating

Seavater punpe {9 the soortngs, ?sec ns seit water to shore based water

turbine generator sors, current?) appes? nie ?rst preposition, As the cost

per KW of hydro-turiine units reduces consieco'ly with increasing capacity

nts] about \$0 MW units are ensnunterut, thts ?5 tho recommended sfze of

leech shore untt to Se fed fy one hanced pues (sreaumabty four per cylinder).

Each cycLinder will generate about 2 Mii ot © cost eetinated at 5 to 10 pence per Kit. Though s late anç rather soshstticated starter, the device hhas received £109,009 goveramest funding use ?+ consigered favourably. AB St ts completely tubnerged tf is cine | si.! mare easily survive storms.

(Bet, 7), Davis et
cet (Rete 45).

Details of the development are

(Ref. 8), Evans et al (see 2

5.6 Other Devices

as they are all well

known in the UK fields

The preceding five devices have been considered
advanced towards prototype testing and are ongoing

There are other workers in the field

though the contributions from them are varied;

does not permit discussion of these

available from several authors (Refs. 1,3,4,;1

in the? Ropes Japan and the USA

2 smaller size. Space

some information is

427,28,33 and 49-51).

5:7 The Future for the UK Mave Progra

The UK program is not of long standing but there have been considerable developments. The initial list of thirty four devices reduced to a few serious contenders, some of these such as the Vickers raft and the Bydravite Research Stations rectifier. By the wayside when Levas Fealleed they could not become economic Sables A recent funding decision saw government direct support for only three devices, the Lancaster lag, Bristol Cylinder and the Oscillating Wave column of NEL. It is understood that funds were available to the Vickers submerged version of the water column. In addition, private funding and funds for generic studies such as for spines, and moorings have sustained the work and workers. Thus there are six devices still in the field. Late 1981 visits with most ceans indicates 2 general awareness that 1982 would

be the year of decision. Most were putting laishinz touches to their presentations which would be used by the Energy Technology Support Unit to Present its case to the Department of Energy regarding the desirability of Otherwise of going to full-scale testing. There was general confidence that at least one, at least, of the devices would be scheduled for a prototype testing program beginning around 1979. There were those who considered that other projects could go to prototype testing with or without government funding. Some suggestions were that the initial operating unit would be about three-quarter scale, at a point of some significance for the Australian as will be seen later.

Recent private correspondence with C. Crove-Paleer, Programme Manager, Wave Energy Of the Energy Technology Support Unit reflects the most recent

position (Ref. 21) Unit analysis for the different devices indicates the Cost of energy from a 2000 MW unit (a combination of a number of individual

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units) would be in the region 5-10 pence per Sift but that further
refinements as large scale work proceeds should bring this down to as low
3-4 pence per Kt. He notes that these costs are based on North
Atlantic wave conditions (high energy levels ~ high destructive forces),
sea bed conditions (rock bottoms giving relatively high anchorage costs)
and the spread of capital plant cost over # large station ~ effectively
mass production of units. He believes there is a strong need for further
experiments in wave tanks and for cross fertilisation of the
innovative ideas which have arisen from the various teams. One of the
problems he sees is the need to assimilate the vast amount of new knowledge
that has been obtained. When this is done (and he does not give a time
scale) we should be able to prepare a functional specification for a
demonstration module of about 2-H capacity to be built at or near full
size". So it seems fairly certain that one unit will be sponsored
at least. But work will begin \$0 1987

In the meantime, others are interested in pushing ahead either in the UK or elsewhere. Thus two groups have prepared prospectuses detailing their systems and pointing out how they can be used in other parts of the world

and the advantages of so doing. They are actively soliciting interested countries to become associated with prototype development. They typically note that they are seeking funds to pursue this work in association with interested countries because much engineering work related to specific local conditions needs to be done before final costs can be established.

However, cost figures in the range 3-5 pence per KWH are anticipated (Refs. 12 and 32).

6 THE POSSIBILITIES IN WESTERN AUSTRALIA

6.1 Western Australia and the UK Systems

This however, does not imply that wave power generation could not be economically viable elsewhere. Countries « - «with little indigenous source of energy, and shipbuilding and marine engineering capabilities and a level of wave energy roughly the same as around much of the UK coast, have considerable incentive to step up their efforts in wave power generation» = 7?

The WA wave energy is probably adequate, the State certainly has limited long term sources of indigenous fuel, and has required industrial and marine capabilities. Thus in terms of the NEL criteria it should be considered becoming involved in a program relating to electricity from waves.

Some further points are relevant. A continuing string of units occupying 129KM of WA's coastline (perhaps 200KM allowing for access between devices)

would generate average power equal to WA's current load. However, the wave devices would not stand alone for obvious reasons. Thus a much smaller percentage of WA's 1000km coastline is required than would be the UK cases

The most recently available cost of generating power into the UK grid, is from about 3.7 pence per kWh which is somewhat higher than the UK base figure from about 3 pence per kWh. Thus economic viability will be easier to achieve in Western Australia,

of exchange, 1 cent Australian = 0.6286 pence

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Place notes that waves in the Trade Wind Zones are much more consistent thus giving higher duty cycles and possibly more energy than the higher density fore damaging waves around the UK (e.g. 32, p.32). He also notes the significance of length of waves as the size of the device is tuned to the predominant wave length which is proportional to period. From Figure 1 most Frenantle energy is associated with 5.5 second waves whilst in the North

Atlantic, the corresponding figure is about 11 seconds. Thus the linear
dimensions of a WA device would be half that for the UK device. Please
note that the structural cost which is more than half the system cost,
is thus reduced by a factor of between 3 and 4. A power rating needed in the
turbine generator and electrical transmission system is also halved + + +
Overall, the advantages again weigh heavily in favour of viability for the WA
unit.

Again it must be noted that the prototype unit to be built in the UK may not
be too far removed in size than the critical size for WA.

Other UK workers, noting that the seabed of WA is sandy, thus facilitating
mooring, comment that this again could reduce the unit costs considerably in
comparison with UK models as would the fact that WA devices would not have to
be built to withstand the fierce North Atlantic conditions.

In remote parts of Western Australia where power loads are relatively small
but production costs are high, two to three wave energy devices could

Currently produce energy at very attractive prices. The units may be even more attractive if they can be incorporated as breakwaters.

6.2 Some possible actions in Western Australia

Fairly apparent actions desirable for Western Australia include the following:

4 Clarify the position re wave data currently available to remove ambiguities if possible.

4.1 Process further wave data currently available.

4.2 Decide what supplementary wave information is required and from

where, and taking immediate steps to obtain this information using wave rider buoys. This will not only involve testing in appropriate geographical locations for heights and directions but also at

Selected distances offshore to assess the effects of distance from

the shore. Consideration should also be given to the need for

Information related to device duty cycle!

fv. Locate suitable device sites. This would take into account such factors as reef locations, water depths, fishing grounds, and navigation requirements,

? Identifying cost factors for current generating costs in remote towns to assist in wave energy viability exercises.

Locate possible sites for units (e.g. setpoint and country areas) and assess likely future electricity loads.

vi. Liaise closely with UK workers so that HA is fully informed regarding current and near future developments +

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vii. Create a nucleus of a skilled workforce for wave energy work in the UK. This could be done by such devices as granting scholarships to encourage post-graduate students to join UK research teams, sending Australian engineers to work in the UK programs and by sponsoring visits by engineers and other appropriate personnel to UK projects

Ax, Initiate discussion mediately with «
possibly the Energy Technolo; © Support Unit) to ascertain what
further {nforsation is needed: if Joint wave energy harnessing
prograas are to be mounted

sropriate Ux seams (and

x Set up machinery to gather the inforaation identified tm ix and to
et up Joint operat tons euturily advantageous which could ove
Western Australia towards ?uroessing wave energy at an econosic levels

xi, Establish an overall long term strategy for harnessing WA wave energy should preliminary investigation prove it a viable source:

7. SUMMARY

In the paper, the wave energy climate in Western Australia has been assessed

to the limit of information available. The particular conditions for WA, as would suggest that wave energy could be economically viable, have been considered and found to suggest that further detailed investigations are justified.

A necessarily brief description of most major WA wave projects has been given and the current position regarding prototype testing, detailed.

It has been concluded that there is sufficient evidence to suggest that the study should be furthered with soae vigour {n Kestern Auseralia and. som appropriate proposals have been detal leds

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?Agosto 1-7, 1982

11 Congreso Nacional de Alternativas Renovables de Energia

ENERGIA DEL OCEANO

Por

Juan A. Bonnet, Jr.

Centro para Estudios Energéticos y Ambientales

Universidad de Puerto Rico

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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ENERGIA DEL OCEANO

Presentada por

Dr. Juan A. Bonnet,

Centro para Estudios Energy

Penencia nacional de Puerto Rico

ante el

Segundo Congreso Panamericano de Ingeniería Ocednica

Celebrado como parte de la

XVI Govenciéa de ls Unién Panemovicena

de Aociaciones de Ingeniería

del 2 al 7 de agosto de 1982

San Juan, Puerto Rico

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PRINCIPIOS DE SOSTENIBILIDAD

En el sistema solar al que pertenece la Tierra, el sol es la fuente de energía principal. En nuestra biosfera no estamos aprovechando a cabalidad la energía que nos provee la radiación que nos llega del sol. La naturaleza aprovecha esta energía por medio de la fotosíntesis, proceso que sirve para energizar la acción vital y liberar el oxígeno necesario para su subsistencia. Además, la energía del sol se almacena en el planeta en diferentes sitios incluyendo los océanos. También la energía del sol ocasiona las corrientes tanto de agua como de aire, dando lugar a los movimientos de los océanos (Figura 1) "y los vientos que mantienen niveles de temperaturas adecuadas para sostener el ciclo de vida, Pero hasta ahora ha sido bien difícil a los seres humanos desarrollar técnicas para concentrar los rayos solares que llegan tan difusos a la superficie de la Tierra y aprovecharlos efectivamente como una fuente de energía-

En la última década, debido a los aumentos tan altos en el precio del petróleo, el combustible principal para producir energía, se ha comenzado a realizar esfuerzos significativos para utilizar los rayos solares como fuente de energía. Estos intentos incluyen entre otros, la utilización de los vientos, energía eólica, de las olas del mar, de los cambios en las mareas o nivel del mar, de la concentración de los rayos solares para calentar agua u otros líquidos y producir agua caliente o vapor, la utilización de la biomasa vegetal como una fuente de energía y muchos otros. Entre estas posibilidades también se ha considerado la utilización de la diferencia en temperatura entre la superficie y las profundidades del mar, esta alternativa la sugirió y la probó por vez primera el francés George Claude en las costas de Cuba en el año 1929. Operando con una diferencia en temperatura de tan solo 14°C el doctor Claude, miembro de la Academia de Ciencias de Francia, logró producir 22 kilovatios de energía con su motor de prueba. La naturaleza, sin embargo, se encargó de vencerlo y un huracán rompió la tubería que traía el agua fría. Desde entonces no se consideró esta alternativa seriamente y se discontinuó su desarrollo hasta la pasada década. El doctor Claude utilizó el ciclo directo de Rankine en sus experimentos.

Bliscuneates ls iden de cimo extreer eata enersia se explica por ol
principio te Carnot que rige el funcicnanionte fo" "Se) cinseotored ase
Ufereacta de cemporature piece: aprovecharee ?pare oovesce emeeee meat
nies os seyou solaves al penetrar ioe primerot etsce ae ia Topo ah
bar tranedieran cu energia al mar. "Bbto causa gus? etre Hodis de
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Seorbidos en lor prineros ?eros ce In cuperice se! seneties eta Tee
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Feduce?a una mayor razon que tn cusiouer? stra wep.Gs. "Cuonse gems

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utilizar la energía térmica contenida en un cuerpo es necesario moverla a un cuerpo de temperatura más baja. Sólo así, parte de la energía térmica trasladada podría convertirse en energía útil, mecánica, eléctrica, etc. La ley fija una eficiencia máxima que es proporcional a la diferencia en temperatura entre los dos cuerpos,

En el concepto de CETO se utiliza el diferencial de temperatura entre el agua del fondo y la superficie del mar. Fundamentalmente, se hace pasar el agua caliente de la superficie por los tubos de un intercambiador de calor. Por cuyo exterior fluye un líquido de bajo punto de ebullición llamado el líquido operacional. El amoníaco es un buen ejemplo. El agua caliente evapora al líquido operacional, digamos amoníaco, el cual al expandirse mueve un turbogenerador eléctrico. El vapor del amoníaco, una vez expandido,

pasa por un condensador que usa el agua fría del fondo del mar como refrigerante. Aquí el vapor del amoníaco se condensa a la forma líquida y se completa el ciclo para un funcionamiento continuo. De esta manera, la máquina CETO puede recobrar grandes cantidades de energía térmica y convertirla en energía útil. Ver la Figura Número 2.

De lo que hemos dicho es evidente que la eficiencia termodinámica de la máquina CETO es bien baja, debido a la estrecha diferencia entre las temperaturas del fondo y la superficie del mar. Sin embargo, el "combustible" es casi ilimitado y gratis, de modo que si se construyen máquinas que puedan procesar grandes cantidades de agua de mar, se podrán generar grandes cantidades de electricidad. En la Tabla 1 podemos apreciar algunos estimados al año 2000. La eficiencia teórica del proceso fluctúa entre un 7 y un 10 por ciento. En la práctica esta quedará entre un 4 y un 5 por ciento. La eficiencia del proceso CETO es muy baja si se compara con la eficiencia de centrales de carbón, petróleo y nuclear en la cual la eficiencia es de aproximadamente 33% en las dos primeras y de aproximadamente 40% en la última.

El concepto descrito arriba es conocido como el ciclo cerrado de CETO, pero también hay un concepto que se denomina ciclo abierto de CETO. En este concepto lo que se utiliza es el agua de la superficie del mar a una temperatura aproximada de 27°C. Esta se lleva a unos envases donde la presión atmosférica se reduce, lo que hace posible crear vapor. Directamente de esta agua para mover la turbina, el vapor de agua expandido se condensa con el agua fría del fondo y se devuelve otra vez al mar-

De la figura número 3, proceso de ciclo abierto de energía oceánico-térmica, podemos darnos cuenta que es necesario conseguir vacíos del orden de 1/2 a 1/30 atmósfera para conseguir que el agua

se convierta en vapor. En otras aplicaciones los gases para conseguir que

se convierta en vapor se le añaden químicos como detergente

que reducen la temperatura de ebullición, esto se conoce como el proceso de espuma de energía oceánico-térmica, la figura número 4 nos demuestra el

proceso de dete, El Centro para Estudios Energéticos y Ambientales de la

Universidad de Puerto Rico en cooperación con Carnegie Mellon University ha

sido pionero en estudios relacionados con el concepto de espuma de CETO,

En el proceso de ciclo abierto de rocío o duchas (list) de energía oceánico

térmica se calienta una caldera de agua de mar a presiones reducidas, para

mover una turbina-generador para producir la electricidad. Al evaporar

el agua de mar y así se vuelve a ebullición y retornar al mar

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PORCENTO DE LA PROYECCION DE NECESIDAD \ ?LECTRICIDAD

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Figura 3 Diagrama Esquematicn

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Diagrama Exquemdtico de un Sisters de Energie

CETO de Espuma

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FS OCEANO-TER"Y

ESTADO ACTUAL DEL.

E] Presidente de los Estados Unidos durante «) 1979 dos leyes relacionadas con el desarrollo de energía térmica. Estas leyes se llaman, La Ley de Investigación, Desarrollo y Construcción de Energía del Océano. Es necesario señalar que «n inglés el concepto de energía oceánica térmica se conoce como "Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion" y se identifica en muchos documentos con las siglas de "OTEC". Aquí hemos usado las siglas CETO correspondientes al español "Conversion de la Energía Térmica del Océano". Esta es la Ley Pública, Número 96-310, del 17 de Julio, de 1980.

La segunda ley se conoce como Ley de Energía Oceánica-Térmica del 1980 y es la Ley Pública Número 96-320 del 3 de agosto de 1980.

La primera de estas leyes señala que se acelere el desarrollo tecnológico de CETO, de tal manera que se puedan conseguir los siguientes objetivos de producción energética:

1, Demostrar para el 1986 por lo menos 100,000 kilovatios eléctricos de producción eléctrica por medio de CETO. Esto equivaldría a) 0.098 % de la demanda de energía de los Estados Unidos de América.

2, Demostrar para el 1989 por lo menos 500,000 kilovatios eléctricos de capacidad de energía oceano-térmica equivalente aproximadamente 40.28 de la demanda de energía en los Estados Unidos de América.

3. Alcanzar para mediados de la década del 1990 costos promedio de producción de electricidad o productos equivalentes energéticos por medio de energía CETO que sean competitivos comercialmente en las regiones de la Costa del Golfo, islas y territorios de los Estados Unidos de América.

Establecer como una meta nacional una capacidad de producción de 10 mil millones de kilovatios de energía eléctrica o en productos, equivalentes por medio de CETO para el año 1999. Esto equivaldría al 38 de la demanda proyectada de energía para los Estados Unidos de América, La figura número 5 resume estas proyecciones en forma gráfica.

La segunda Ley de Energía Oceano-Térmica ordena:

(2) Al administrador de la Administración Nacional de Oceanografía

Atmosférica (NOAA) establecer un régimen estable legal para desarrollar

comercialmente la CETO. Para llevar a cabo esta encomienda ordena (a)

implantar un programa para adquirir licencias de operación; (b) preparar un

documento de impacto ambiental que cubra cada solicitud de licencia, (c)

establecer un programa de rastreo y monitoria en cada programa aprobado y

(d) llevar a cabo todas las investigaciones ambientales necesarias con relación

a los aspectos de la energía oceano-térmica.

(2) 5) Secretario de NOAA debe entre otras cosas: (a) cuidar de la

seguridad de la vida y la propiedad en el mar por medio de iluminación y

otros métodos con relación a las operaciones de futuras plantas de energía

oceano-térmicas, (b) evitar la contaminación del medio ambiente marino, (c)

limpiar cualquier contaminación que pueda ocurrir debido a la operación de

centrales de CETO, (d) prevenir o minimizar todos los impactos adversos que

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puedin ocurrir debide. a la construcci3n . uoperaci3n de centraies de mergia
Dceano-t3rmica, (>) asegurarae yur las Coscarg.» termales de Tas centrales
de CETO no alecten le vide mariiia ui los recursos de estas.

3) El Administrador de NOAA debe compstir responsabilidades para
hacer cumplir las reglas bajo esta Ley con e) Secretario del Departamento de
la Guardia Costanera y

4) El Secretario de Estado en cooperaci3n con el Administrador de NOAA

y el Secretario del Departamento de la Guardia Costanera debe llevar a cabo negociaciones internacionales seg sea necesario para mantener la seguridad de la navegación y resolver cualquier otra cuestión relacionada con esta~
Diseño de centrales de energía oceano-térmica.

5) El Secretario de Energía debe establecer y hacer cumplir las regulaciones y estándares que exijan la construcción y operación segura de cables submarinos para la transmisión eléctrica y cualquier otro equipo que esté asociado con las centrales de energía oceano-térmica.

DESCRIPCIÓN DE ALGUNOS CONCEPTOS DE CENTRALES OCEANO-TERMICAS

DE CICLO CERRADO

Las centrales de energía oceano-térmica de ciclo cerrado pueden consistir de (a) una plataforma flotante en la superficie del mar agarrada por cables; (b) torres descansando sobre el lecho del mar; (c) centrales ubicadas en tierra firme o (d) barcos. Discutiremos brevemente algunos de estos conceptos.

formas flotan'

Las plataformas flotantes agarradas por cables es el concepto que
la industria ha dado, compañías tales como Lockheed, TRI, Sea
Solar Power, han desarrollado descripciones artísticas de sus conceptos los
sustentamos podemos apreciar en las figuras. 0", ¿cómo consisten? de una
plataforma ubicada en un sitio donde la profundidad del mar sea de
de 1,000 metros o donde cuelga una tubería para extraer el agua de mar
fría, en esta plataforma, se recoge el agua caliente del mar cerca de la
superficie y también queda instalado el equipo necesario para producir la
energía. La plataforma se mantiene fija en su inclinación por medio de
un cable anclado (Anchor cable), en el lecho del mar. Es posible producir
energía y otros productos industriales cuya producción consume grandes
cantidades de energía tales como amoníaco, hidrógeno y fertilizantes.

(>) Plataformas localizadas en la superficie

Según se construyen plataformas para extraer petróleo en el mar

es posible utilizar esta tecnología para establecer plataformas a profundidades

de 300 a 490 metros para instalar centrales oceano-térmicas, Se instala una

tubería que baja desde la plataforma hasta el fondo del mar y de ahí sigue

recostada al lecho del mar hasta llegar a los 1,000 metros de profundidad.

Véase figura Número 7.

---Page Break---

Modulos Energéticos Desmontables

Plataforma

Tubería de

Agua Fría

Trapezoidal

Tirante Simple

de Ancicje

Ancie

Fég. 6 Planta CETO Anckada.

Sustens. (156. Siig}

Propuesta por Lockheed Ocean

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Figura DISEMO TIPICO DE TORRE D= DESCANSO EN

LECHO SUBMARINO.

FUENTE: SULLIVAN et al., 1980

---Page Break---

tales ubicadas en tierra

En este caso la central

extiende sus tuberías hasta unos

metros de profundidad para obtener

ilustrado en [la figura número 3,

(e)

ubicadas en la costa y de éstas se

aguan calientes y otras hasta 1,000

© aguas frías. Este arreglo aparece

La central esté construida en un barco. Este sistema permite
Rover Ja central para obtener el gradiente de temperatura, éptino ?en ie
Gomento dado o ir de un sitio a otro. Su uso se adapta veniajona- mente en la
Producción de productos cuya preparaci6n requiere grandes contian- des Go
fRetaia como el hidrógeno o el nitr6geno. El barco erviris pers aiverenee
la producci6n para embarque posterior « tierra,

En la Zabla Número 2 se hace una comparaci6n de los diferentes quidos
gBeracionales que se podrian utilizar en estas centrales occano- tersicese
BaeEuOs Yer que se ha experimentado con amoniaco, {re6n, cloruro de wetio,
SiGvide de mitr6geno, y otros. La tabla resume las caracteriaticas peinee:
pales de estos liquides.

metales de posible

fanio, el aluminio

POTENCIAL TERMICO

En la banda de latitud entre los 10°N y 10°S hay 80 millones de kiléme-

Gee, Gtgdrados de,mar que rggiben más de 215 vatíoe por metre casdeen al día para un total de 1.7×10^9 megavation,

sa NETCE Tespalda Jo que sefalamos en la introducción, esto es, que cernaigstas Gel Caribe ofrecen un gran potencial para la producción de energía oceánica térmica. En adición, encontramos numerosos sitios específicos cercanos a Puerto Rico, Cuba, Jamaica, Islas Virgenes, y Florida donde existe un gran potencial para establecer centrales oceano-térmicas. Las figuras 3 y 4 muestran la profundidad de 1,000 metros o más.

Los últimos informes en las noticias, principalmente en la revista Ocean Energy, son en el sentido de que se ha comenzado un programa de investigación y desarrollo de energía oceánica térmica. En Francia, India, Taiwán, Costa de Marfil, Corea del Sur y evaluaciones de localidades para centrales de CETO. En el Caribe, Ueva muy adelantada su desarrollo de energía, según nuestra información, si el gobierno de la República Dominicana establece un consorcio con firmas suecas y noruegas para el desarrollo de energía oceánica térmica.

---Page Break---

Agua Templada (1Em.)

Descarga de Agua Templada (100m) Descarga de Agua Fria (ino)

[Entrada de Agua Fria(1,000m.)

Figure. Diseño Típico de Base en Tierra

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Aparte de Hawaii, los Estados Unidos tienen sitios apropiados para la instalación de plantas de CETO. La Tabla 4 ofrece un posible escenario para el establecimiento de centrales océano-térmicas para el año 2000 en áreas y territorios de los Estados Unidos. De llevarse esto a cabo para esa fecha se podría alcanzar a nivel mundial un nivel substancial de producción de energía por medio de las centrales océano-térmicas.

ASPECTOS TÉCNICOS DEL DESARROLLO DE CENTRALES PARA CETO

Las dificultades que aparecen en el desarrollo del concepto de las centrales océano-térmicas no requieren nuevos descubrimientos científicos. Básicamente son los problemas de ingeniería que se encuentran al pasar de una escala más pequeña a una escala más grande o comercial. Algunos conceptos ya probados técnicamente en experimentos llevados a cabo en las islas de Hawaii y Puerto Rico. En la isla de Hawaii se instaló una demostración que se conoce como "Mini-OTEC" o "Mini CETO". El "Mini-OTEC" fue señalado por la Sociedad Nacional de Ingenieros Profesionales entre los diez más importantes proyectos base de la ingeniería en el 1979. Este proyecto fue financiado por un consorcio de industrias privadas y el estado de Hawaii.

Se demostró con Mini-OTEC que es viable técnicamente producir energía, utilizando la diferencia de temperatura del mar. Se encontró que a esta escala de producción se produce la degradación de los coeficientes de transferencia de calor debido a la utilización de agua de mar de las profundidades y al crecimiento de vida marina en los tubos de los intercambiadores de calor es bien pequeña, Se produjeron 10 kilovatios hora de electricidad.

Otro proyecto de importancia es el de OTEC-1 o CETO-1 que se desarrolla también en la isla de Hawaii. En Gate se prueban diferentes tipos de intercambiadores de calor como son los tipos convencionales de tubo y shell y de placa verticales. También se han probado diferentes tipos de materiales, Las fotografías número 1 y 2 muestran estos laboratorios.

En Puerto Rico, al Centro para Estudios Energéticos y Ambientales de la Universidad de Puerto Rico posee un laboratorio (ver en foto Número 2) al cual estuvo anclado en el sureste de Puerto Rico « a las 5 y media de la mañana (ver figura Número 12), En Setiembre se llevó a cabo un experimento, de

Bis largo taupe de duración de los 1 probar diferentes eateries y el
Greciniento de vida arina en su ruperticien También se estudie ie eficacie
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caer. Be separa poder nutaar une fobs Ge agun fra durante 082
Para proceder con experinentoe alndlares an ests faberia, pero. Gatos titinoe
Sefuerros ?han sido frustades. por falta de fondos. ?Hasta ahora, ha side
Postble deterninar? las caracteriticas del crecimiento de vida murine y? les
Eiferenter maneree de Unpiariae periedicante:

INCERTIDUMBRES:

De lo apuntado anteriormente, podemos apreciar que las incertidumbres
gon relación a culles son los materiales mis apropiados y cull es al efecto
dal crecimiento de vide marina es motivo de estudio en diferentes sition,
Reclentemente a finales de 1960, al Departamento de Energia de los Ketados
Unides de América solicits propuestas para la construcción de las primeras

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EXPERIMENTAL
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DATA ACQUISITION

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INLET AND EXHAUST HOSES

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dólar (E.U-) por kilovatio hora, lo que representa menos de una cuarta

Parte de lo que se proyecta costaría producir energía eléctrica tiene

Petróleo, | Los costos de instalación de una central de energía oceano-térmica

de 250 megavatios en el año 1990 se estiman en aproximadamente \$71) millones

CONCLUSION

Los países de este hemisferio deben unir esfuerzos en el desarrollo de

las centrales de energía oceano-térmica ya que éstas ofrecen una de las

alternativas de romper la dependencia energética de los países europeos

que tanto daño hace a la economía de esta región

RECONOCIMIENTO

El autor desea expresarle las mas sinceras gracias al Dr. Manuel Garcia Morin y al Dr. Donald Sasscer por ayudar en la preparaci3n y edicion de este trabajo y al Ing. Pedro Sarkis por colaborar las grafices y tabieg inelufdas en este articuio.

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1-7, 1982

Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

ESTUDIO DE LAS CARGAS TERMICAS DEL HABITAT
EN UN CLIMA TROPICAL HUMEDO.

By

M. Dupont

Laboratoire sur TEnergie Solaire

CUAG (Antillas Francesas)

N. Molle

Ecole Centrale de Paris - CNRS GR 14 ~ Fran

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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las construcciones actuales en 128 Antillas Francesas esta why a menudo mal adaptadas a las condiciones climatológicas locales, Lo que Conlleva un consumo energético importante para la climatización, Le meta de nuestro estudio es la de conocer la importancia relativa de los diferentes parámetros del balance térmico de un local,

Concretamente, comparamos dos soluciones arquitecturales locales en Guadalupe : EL habitat tradicional de madera con un techo de zinc, y el habitat moderno, de concreto, con el medio de dos modelos avanzados permitiendo calcular al paso de tiempo de la hora:

x14 carga térmica debida a la insolación cuando la temperatura interior se mantiene constante gracias a un sistema de climatización,

7,34 Temperatura interior alcanzada en el local en ausencia de acondicionamiento de aire.

2 ~ características del clima

El clima en Guadalupe se caracteriza por una fuerte humedad relativa : 80,6 % y una temperatura ambiente promedio de 25,5°C. Las variaciones diurnas y mensuales son débiles, como se muestra en la siguiente tabla.

La insolación es alta (2800 horas/año). El promedio anual de la radiación solar global en un plano horizontal es de 5,0 kWh/a? « día. Este tipo de radiación comporta en valor promedio un 40% de radiación difusa.

En algunas condiciones de insolación (fracción diaria superior & igual a 0,9), esta tasa baja al 20%.

Para no depender, en los modelos, de los datos reales, utilizamos, para las condiciones de buen tiempo, las siguientes fórmulas simplificadas

La radiación global: $G = 1100 (\sin h) \cdot w/e?$

La radiación difusa : $D = 170 (\sin h) \cdot w/e?$

siendo h la altura del sol encima del plano horizontal. La concordancia

cia con los datos experimentales es satisfactoria, aunque se note una
Bran dispersión de los datos medidos de irradiación difusa, debida a
que el cielo nunca es perfectamente despejado en Cuadalupe, Ver en la
Figura 2,

Este estudio de las condiciones climatológicas confirma la importancia
de las cargas debidas a la insolación (directa y difusa) en un clima
tropical húmedo, y justifica el interés de un estudio específicamente
térmico del hábitat,

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fe suele considerar vm local como delimitado por un nore de pare-
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ice x de 1g pared, ϕ el tieapo y "a" La

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Mas Ay ver en ta figura 3.

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T: Promedios aensuales 5 = valor tedrico con cielo despenado

Fig |: Datos climatoldgicos. Estacibn meteorologica del Raizet
(Goadalupe) Fuente : Servicio Nacional de 1a Meteorologta

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veecion con el aie aubiente y por radiacica con la

T_e es 1a tonperatura exterior

DG es ol flujor solar inciden:

sobre la superficie considerada

donde ϵ_1 es la absorptividad de la superficie

Condición de límite interior

donde h_1 es el coeficiente de transferencia de calor por convección

donde h_1 = Factor de convección del aire interior # La temperatura

t_1

q_{r1} = flujo intercambiado por radiación entre la pared considerada

y el resto del recinto,

Para la resolución de (1), (2) y (3), conviene diferenciar dos casos +

») Local acondicionado : Se conoce T_j a cada instante. Se puede

resolver la evacuación del calor en cada pared y calcular el flujo

(« carga térmica») entrando en el local

$Q_j = \sum (k_j A_j (T_{ext} - T_j))$

donde A_j es superficie de la pared j

La carga total es la suma de los Q_j

») Local no acondicionado : T es la incógnita del problema. Se

tiene una ecuación suplementaria o

$\sum (k_j A_j (T - T_{ext})) + 0.3W(T - T_{ext}) = cS(T - T_{ext})$ (4)

La suma de los flujos convectivos (intercambio con las 5 paredes,

y renovación de aire) depende de la temperatura del aire

W en m³/hora es el caudal de ventilación

MC es un termino que da cuenta de 1a capacidad térmica del aire y/o de las masas internas (suelos, pisos...)

Los flujos de calor debidos a ventanas y apertura: se contabilizan en los intercambios radiativos entre las paredes del recinto. Pueden ser importantes en el caso de un vidrio no protegido, pero se pueden reducir gracias a protecciones. Según (2), el factor solar de una ventana, F_{solar} , entre el flujo entrando a dentro del local y el flujo solar incidente, puede tomar los valores indicados en 1a Figura 4

Tomando en cuenta para observación, y en un deseo de simplificación, los factores de corrección al estudio de los efectos opacos de la radiación solar.

4) Resolución simplificada

Utilizamos el método práctico de cálculo de las cargas de climatización (3) elaborado a partir de los trabajos de MACKAY y WRIGHT (4). Supone el régimen periódico establecido y la temperatura interior

El flujo de calor a craves data pared ops'a je express +

5 = GS (Tony TH Ct OD

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IPersiana wetatica n "

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Iproteccion interior

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|coreina opaca 34 45 37

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Fig 4: Factor solar de algunas protecciones (2)

A= superficie ,

K = coeficiente global de perdidas térmicas

Ty = temperatura impuesta a dentro del local

1 feet

Ton = $7g \{E_y T_{si}$, promedio diario de 1a temperatura fictive de insolation de 1a pared.

TE = temperatura fictiva calculada horas mas temprano

= defasaje de 1a pared

= coeficiente de anortizacion de 1a pared

Los valores de m y @ se pueden calcular analitcanente-Son dados por (3)

para materiales corrientes, Ver en la figura 5

mi 1.00.6 0.3

TS2530 4030 cm in

Fig 5 + Defasaje y amortización de algunos materiales (3)

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Nosotros ampliamos este método para obtener una expresión de la temperatura interior, alcanzada en el intervalo de acondicionamiento.

La ecuación (4) puede escribirse:

$$T(t) = T_{\infty} + (T_0 - T_{\infty}) e^{-\lambda t} = T_{\infty} + (T_0 - T_{\infty}) e^{-\frac{hA}{V} t}$$

donde el segundo miembro es una función del tiempo, conocida al paso de tiempo de 1 hora, gracias a los datos de irradiación,

Linearizando esta función entre los dos primeros pasos de tiempo, considerando la ecuación diferencial, se obtiene =

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1 hora, paso de tiempo del cálculo

temperatura interior al paso anterior

temperaturas fictivas calculadas al paso anterior

Aparece una constante de tiempo del local, que toma en cuenta la capacidad térmica interna :

Oy

Cuando t es pequeño frente a At (local vacío), 1ª expresión de T_y se vuelve :

$> \text{oe om tm } (TE - T_{en})j +$

wee mathe fies of tals male

4@ insolacion $T_s; i$

cuando $+$ es grande frente a At (local inerte) se introduce una queva
ponderación

Bets ($Sg AE MAse + alts = ten$); + 0.3 WY

5 - Analisis nodal

Esta descripción del habitat, derivada de un $wStele$ con diferencias finitas y ha sido elaborada en el laboratorio científico de 10s, Mesos).

El sistema físico y su medio ambiente están representados por una red de W nudos, cada cual representando una región del espacio de temperatura uniforme, cada nudo debe tener una capacidad térmica M_y y ser el sitio de una fuente de calor \dot{Q} . Está ligado a los demás nudos por una conductancia térmica E_y de tal modo que el balance térmico en cada nudo

do ae escribe

N

a Sg:

$E_k(i - T_p) + m; \text{esi}$

jot

Disponenos asf de un sistema de N ecuaciones que ce pueden discretisar

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en et tieupo, y resolvenns luego i sfstena lineal, cbtenicndo Las tem-
peraturas en? cada tudo, en funci3n vel teapo

Gono ejenplo, se ha representado en La figura 6 la red utiLizada en

uestro a3telo para un local de georctria miy sencilla, donde se he

discretizado cada pared en 3 naves

??temperatura de superficie externa

= temperatura en el medio de la pared

= temperatura de superficie interna

Siendo Δx el espesor de la pared (aquí $\Delta x =$ donde ten el espesor de la pared), las conductancias a dentro de la pared U_{ext} y U_{int} y las capacidades $M = \rho c A \Delta x$. Una capacidad media \bar{M} ha sido dada? a las fachadas externa? e interna,

Entre las superficies externas (respe, interna) y el ambiente exterior (T_{ext} , h_{ext} interior), se define la conductancia U_{ext} ($U_{ext} = h_{ext}$). Así como, la conductancia supleneteria U_{int} entre T_{int} y T_{ext} se define como $U_{int} = h_{int}$ debido a la ventilación

Las fachadas externas reciben la radiación solar, y pues \dot{Q}_{solar} .

\dot{Q}_{rad} representa el flujo radiativo intercambiado entre la pared considerada y el resto del recinto,

\dot{Q}_{conv} = Reguleases

Couparanos entre si varias soluciones arquitecturales corrientes

en Guadalupe. El local considerado es un cubo de 10x 10 de base, y de
?altura 3 metros.

pared

Norte

pared S pared ?sur

Fig 6 ~ Red utilizada en el analisis nodal.

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EL techo puede ser ho-izontal, Mevar dos 0 cuatro vertientes. Los
materiales utilizados son la mader, e! zin- o el concreto. Rstudiom
mos 1a influencia de un aislamiento del techo 0 de las paredes con
?Sem de lana de vidrio, Enfin, varinnos arbitzarisncnte ta inecia

Interna del local atribuyends wna capacidad c ermica fictiva al aire
del local, o bien sea al piso.

Como se enseña en la Figura 7, la concordancia entre los dos modelos es muy satisfactoria en el caso de construcciones livianas. Las diferencias observadas en construcciones pesadas se explican por la dificultad de tomar en cuenta las masas internas.

Estamos llevando a cabo una experimentación sobre un local existente para averiguar la precisión de los resultados. A priori, el análisis Rodal se acerca más a la realidad física, mientras que el método simplificado permite aprehender fácilmente cualquier tipo de geometría.

Los modelos han permitido despejar los parámetros importantes del balance térmico del habitáculo en un clima tropical húmedo. En particular, conviene diferenciar los locales acondicionados de los que no lo son. En el primer caso, las cargas son proporcionales al coeficiente global de pérdidas térmicas, a las superficies, y a las temperaturas fictivas de insolación (cf ecuación (5)). El único parámetro importante en el segundo caso es la temperatura fictiva de insolación (cf ecuación

(6))» la cual es más elevada en el techo que en las paredes verticales.

Dadas estas observaciones, se deducen las siguientes conclusiones

a) Protección interna:

Es muy importante evitar la absorción de la irradiación solar por las paredes, las cargas a $T_j \sim T_{ext}$, y el calentamiento ($T_i - T_e$)
Sea proporcional a α . Ver en 1a figura 8.

Pues, pinturas reflectivas son preferibles-

En el caso de los muros, se pueden utilizar parasoles horizontales protegiendo de la irradiación directa, y cuya eficiencia es del orden de 60 a 80%. Esta es la solución utilizada en el hábitat tradicional de Guadalupe con las verandas.

») Aislamiento

El aislamiento es eficiente solamente en locales acondicionados, pues reduce las cargas. En el caso de un local no acondicionado, el aislamiento del techo permite disminuir en la expresión de T_{1a} la importancia relativa de la temperatura fictiva de insolación del techo. Sin embargo se destruye este efecto al querer aislar de la misma manera todas las fachadas.

Estas conclusiones están dibujadas en la figura 9, donde se comparan las temperaturas alcanzadas dentro de un local de madera, con techo de tipo de cuatro vertientes.

En el caso de locales acondicionados, y en régimen periódico establecido, la inercia aparece en la amortización y el desfase (ω , ϕ) ocasionados en la transmisión del flujo a través de las paredes exteriores. En régimen transitorio (puesta en marcha del sistema de

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climatización), y en el caso de locales no acondicionados, la constante de tiempo definida en (7) juega un papel también,

Si el efecto de la inercia es beneficioso en locales acondicionados de tipo permanente (dependencia de la amplitud de las cargas), se observa

un calentamiento incómodo en la tarde y la noche, en las

construcciones pesadas (de concreto). Ver en la Figura

En conclusión, construcciones ocupadas en el día, tal como las oficinas pueden tener una cierta inercia, mientras que las casas deben absolutamente estar lo menos intermite posible.

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Fig 9. Eficiencia coaparada de algunas protecciones

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

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First Pan American Congress on Energy and

Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

WORK FROM STEAM EXPANDED TO LOW

QUALITY LEVELS

By

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August 1982

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QUALITY LEVELS

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To improve the efficiency of steam turbines, engineers and designers resorted to larger temperature differences between the heat source and the heat sink.

The efficiency of the expansion cycle in the usual, typical boiler-steam-turbine installations is limited by the steam temperature which is itself limited by the temperature that the steam piping is allowed to withstand in the boiler. Since the first phase transition temperature of carbon steel occurs at 4333°P , for corrosion and structural reasons, the temperature of the surface of the steam pipes in the boilers and superheaters is restricted to app. 1100°P which limits the maximum steam temperature to app. 900°P , allowing for 200°F temperature

difference for heat transfer purposes-

?The heat sink is limited by the temperature of the environment.

It is also limited to a large extent by mechanical limitations

when using modern turbines, for example, the moisture level to

which the steam is expanded. Because of the close dimensional

tolerances together with the inability to simultaneously remove

(separate) the condensate, modern steam turbines are restricted

to expansion cycles from Super-heat to steam qualities of app.

95% (5% moisture). Very large losses of efficiency and catastro-

phic results are experienced when expanding to lower steam

qualities in modern steam turbines. These limitations and

improved efficiency of the expansion cycles, led to the develop-

ment of modern reheat cycles which use multiple super-heating

steps with turbines after each one. These high pressure cycles

yield efficiencies approaching 39% vs. cycle efficiencies ranging

up to app. 33% previously. Of course, re-heat cycles are more

expensive and require a higher investment than simple super heat

cycles.

?This paper presents the potential of extending the expansion

of superheated steam beyond the saturated vapor line down to

steam qualities of approximately 70%, ?The concept is especially

applicable when using cellulosic fuels because of the lower

super-heats achievable. The need of reciprocating steam engines

As strongly indicated.

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WORK FROM STEAM EXPANDED TO

EW QUALITY LEVELS

INTRODUCTION

To improve the efficiency of steam engines (turbines), engineers and designers resorted to larger temperature differences between the heat source and the heat sink.

The efficiency of the expansion cycle in the usual, typical boiler-steam-turbine installations is limited by the steam temperature which is itself limited by the temperature that

the steam piping is allowed to withstand in the boiler. Since

the first phase transition temperature of carbon steel occurs

at 1333°F, for corrosion and structural reasons, the temperature of the surface of the steam pipes in the boilers and super heaters

4s restricted to app. 1100°? which limits the maximum steam temperature to app. 900°F, allowing for 200°F temperature difference between the pipes and the steam for heat transfer purposes.

?The heat sink is limited by the temperature of the environment.

It is also limited to a large extent by mechanical limitations when using modern turbines, for example, the moisture level to which the steam is expanded. Because of the close dimensional tolerances together with the inability to simultaneously remove (separate) the condensate, modern steam turbines are restricted to expansion cycles from Super-heat to steam qualities of app. 95% (5% moisture). Very large losses of efficiency and catastrophic results are experienced when expanding to lower steam qualities in modern steam turbines. These limitations and improved efficiency of the expansion cycles, led to the development of modern reheat cycles which use multiple super-heating steps with turbines after each one. These high pressure cycles yield efficiencies approaching 39% vs. cycle efficiencies ranging up to app. 33% previously. Of course, re-heat cycles are much more expensive and require a higher investment than simple super heat cycles,

Reciprocating steam engines overcome the above limitations.

They do not require to re-heat the steam after it is expanded to 95% quality and can continue the expansion to much lower steam quality levels.

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PREVIOUS WORK AND JUSTIFICATION

THE CONCEPT ?

Expansion cycles starting from relatively low degrees of super-heats will be valuable for the developing countries (tropical) where the climate is amiable for the production of certain crops at high productivities per acre. The high moisture

content of these fuels, ranging from 15% wat. for air-dried woody matter to 525 wat. for "as-is" sugar cane bagasse will have a large effect in depressing their temperatures (1), (2) of combustion to levels lower than 300°? (Figure 1) vs. combustion temperatures higher than 3500°F for the fossil fuels. The lower temperature of combustion of the cellulose fuels will result in superheated steam temperatures lower than approximately 650°F vs. superheated steam temperatures approximately higher than 308° for fossil fuels. (5).

Woody matter dried to 15% wet. moisture burns at a flame temperature of approximately 2900°F (1) with 20% excess air, while bituminous coal burns at temperatures higher than 3200°R. The case of bagasse is notorious. Sugar cane is crushed to moisture levels of approximately 50%. The fiber burns at flame temperatures of approximately 2000°F (1) under adiabatic conditions. No wonder bagasse boilers are erratic in maintaining a flame! Boilers that burn bagasse should consist of two chambers, one to conduct the combustion in a strictly adiabatic fashion from which the hot gases would then pass into a second chamber containing the water pipes for the steam. Undried bagasse yield steam temperatures of approximately 525°? (7) The use of fuels as bagasse require steam

expansion processes into the low quality levels to achieve desirable work recoveries as electricity.

Figure 4 shows what can be considered a modern typical expansion cycle with one re-heat step. Super-heated steam at 900°F and 100 psia, easily achievable with fossil fuels, is expanded in an impulse turbine to approximately 5% moisture and 90 psia. At 1s then conducted through appropriate piping from the turbine through a second super-heater in which it is re-heated to approximately 600°F at 75 psia and expanded again in a second turbine to approximately 100°F and 1.0 psia, condensed and returned to the boiler. The cycle yields an efficiency of approximately 38%. The moisture condensed (formed) when expanding from 1-2 is engaged from the steam and removed from the system before re-heating from 2-3. The super-heat levels of this cycle are easily achieved with fossil fuels.

Figure 4 also shows cycle 1-2-5 which can be accomplished as follows. Super-heated steam at 900°F and 1400 psia is expanded in an impulse turbine to approximately 5% moisture and 90 psia (or preferably to the saturation line only) and then expanded further in a steam engine to approximately 100°F at 1 psi

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(23% moisture) condensed and returned to the boiler. This cycle also yields efficiencies as high as the previous one. This cycle is similar to the presently called "co-generation cycle" (3) but we want to use it to generate electricity from point 1 to point 5.

Figure 5 shows what could be considered an expansion cycle with two re-heat steps. The initial steam temperature of 700°R

at 1500 psia approaches the highest levels achievable with "woody" cellulosic fuels (15% moisture). The diagram shows the conditions necessary to perform the expansion in a modern impulse turbine, cycle 1-2-3-6. The figure also shows cycle 1-2-7 which would need a steam engine to expand the steam to 100°R at 1 psia (28%

moisture.) The efficiencies of both cycles are comparable, but cycle 1-2-3-4-5-6 seems more expensive since it requires two re-heat steps.

Figure 6 shows still another manner of performing the expansion from 70°F at 1500 psia to 100°F at 1 psia with moisture removal without re-heating. Cycle 1-2-3-4 yields efficiencies equivalent to the cycles on Figure 5 with the added advantage of lower moisture levels which might help the operation of the steam engine.

Figure 7 attempts to present the case when using cellulose fuels yielding steam temperatures of 600°F at 1250 psia. The T-s diagram corroborates the desirability to perform the expansion down to lower steam qualities (32% moisture). The efficiencies of the three expansion routes are essentially the same, but the efficiency of Cycle 1-2-3-4-5-6-7-8, the re-heat cycle, could be

Significantly lower because of the moisture removal before each
reheat step.

⑥ could be alternatives to the

The processes shown on Figure
of two percentage points in

ones shown on Figure 7 but at 2 1
the efficiencies.

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SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

?The use of ligno-cellulosic fuels to generate steam for the production of electricity appear to be a sound route for developing countries lacking fossil fuel resources. Because of the relatively high moisture content of the ligno-cellulosic fuels the steam temperatures will be restricted to approximately 700°F at 1500 psia and will require steam expansion processes down into gveaa quality levels of 70% as indicated in the Mollier diagram, Modern turbines do not appear to be economically suited for expanding the steam. The expansion processes make strong points for the use of reciprocating steam engines because of their ability to handle the high moisture levels of the steam during the expansion steps.

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FIGUES 3

RADIANT SECTICY #2

Flue gas tedperature over
bridge wall - OF

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?Agosto 1-7, 1987

1 Congreso Panamericano de Energia y

1 Congreso Nacional de Aiternativas Renovables de Energia

EL VEHICULO ELECTRICO EN LA REPUBLICA DOMINICANA

by

José A. Vanderhorst

Corporación Dominicana de Electricidad

Republica Dominicana

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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INTRODUCTION.

La potencial escasez de combustibles fósiles refinados nos obliga a buscar soluciones a los problemas de transporte para extender el período de transición hacia el desarrollo de nuevas fuentes de energía, en esta reunión, sobre lo ingeniería como piedra angular en el desarrollo de los pueblos, vamos a tocar la alternativa de usar la energía eléctrica como medio de propulsión al transporte en la República Dominicana. Cabe recordar la alta interdependencia que existe entre el transporte, la industrialización y el desarrollo

Desde los albores de la energía eléctrica se ha estudiado el uso de vehículos eléctricos como medio de transporte terrestre, siendo el gran problema el rendimiento de las baterías (1). Grandes cantidades de recursos se dedican hoy día a la investigación y desarrollo de mejores baterías (2,2). Debemos estar al tanto de ese progreso. En aplicaciones de baja velocidad o de gran número de paradas por distancia recorrida, como los servicios de distribución de leche y correo, se ha puesto en evidencia la ventaja del vehículo eléctrico sobre el de combustión interna (3).

El propósito de este trabajo es el de examinar el impacto del vehículo eléctrico en la República Dominicana poniendo especial interés en aprovechar esa coyuntura para mejorar las condiciones de operación del sistema eléctrico nacional. No es el objetivo de este trabajo entrar en discusiones estériles sobre comparaciones de largo plazo con los motores de combustión interna, pues es conocido que hoy estos últimos son, en la gran mayoría de los casos, más económicos y nos hace falta una bola de cristal para extrapolarnos hacia el futuro. Es más, los eléctricos de hoy tienen limitaciones que dificultan el viaje de emergencia e imposibilitan los viajes largos (5). Lo mismo es cierto por falta de la infraestructura apropiada como veremos más adelante.

Las economías de alimentar vehículos con propulsión eléc-

trica esta fundamentada en la posible capacidad ociosa que poseen

Los sistemas eléctricos en determinadas horas de cada día. Este

capacidad puede posponer inversiones en refinerías e infraestructura de transporte de combustibles. Para poder palpar en su justa magnitud, la realidad de esa capacidad sobrante, es necesario

incursionar en la operación de un sistema eléctrico como el de la República Dominicana. Por esta razón hemos incluido en un anexo

bien resumido, información sobre la operación de sistemas eléctricos de 800 de potencia como un intento de señalar que las reservas de generación

1) deben siempre estar presente,

2) no se pueden determinar a priori, o lo que es lo mismo, tanto faltan como sobran en términos horarios dificultando la operación segura y económica.

3) Pudieran ser mejor controladas con la introducción de

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un elemento amortiguador como una varilla interrumpible.

Le recomendamos al lector ver el anexo i si no posee la vi

vencia necesaria para aceptar los señalamientos anteriores. Por otro lado, el desarrollo de este trabajo ha incluido la siguiente Secuencia: antecedentes sobre vehículos eléctricos, descripción simple de un carro eléctrico, el suministro eléctrico, las baterías, la administración de carga, luego una propuesta y las conclusiones.

EL VEHICULO ELECT

El vehículo eléctrico ha sido encontrado económico en aplicaciones que requieren paradas regulares y distancias cortas (1,3, 4). Al principio: del siglo la tercera parte de todos los carros y camiones en los Estados Unidos eran propulsados por baterías de plomo-ácido (6). No cabe duda que el vehículo eléctrico es una alternativa importante a los problemas del transporte. Por lo tanto, hay factores que pueden cambiar el panorama y dar paso al uso de vehículos eléctricos en la República Dominicana. Estos eventos son, si se demuestra que contaminan menos, si no hay suficiente suministro de gasolina y si el carro se vuelve más barato (7). Esa entrada debe ser estudiada y comparada con las otras alternativas disponibles e

fneluirle en Yos esconarios de planificaci3n econdmica.

Para ubicarnos, veamos primere el tena de? vehSculo perso~
nal en 1a RepGblica Dominicana. Hay excesos ea la cantidad relati,
va de carros. Pasar por alto ia posibilidad de renovar con vehicu
los el3ctricos parte de esa flote serfa una omisi3n peligrosa. La
flota de carros ests estimada en 90,000 unidedes. Suponiendo que
el vehiculo promedio recorra 16,000 'kms. anuales, y consuma 12 xilH
diarios (8), seria necesario disponer d3 una central de 50 NW en
forma exclusiva para satisfacer esa demanda. Esto equivale al 17%
de la energia total y al 11% de la denanda maxima experimentada en
1961 por le Corporaci3n Dominicana de Electricidad.

UN CARRO ELECTRICO.

Una idea simple de un carro el3ctrico y su uso es la si-
guiente: el vehfculo es similar al de combustiGn interna, En vez
de un tanque de gasolina tiene un conjunto de baterfas. En ver de
un motor de combustion interna tiene un notor cl3ctrico. E) vehicu
Vo tiene tambi3n un sistema cargador que acepta clectricidad alter

may la convierte 2 1a electricidad directa necesaria para cargar las baterías, Para cargar las baterías, el usuario se conecta en 1g madrugada por un número definido de horas, pagando a la compañía eléctrica tarifas reducidas. En el día también puede hacer uso, pero debe pagar una tarifa prohibitiva. Para manejarlo se conecta el motor de la batería "y a correr se ha dicho". A continuación discutiremos los problemas técnicos intrínsecos 2 una aplicación en la República Dominicana.

SUMINISTRO_ELECTRICO.

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Esta posibilidad, de la descripción anterior, 1a posibilidad de aprovechar exceso de capacidad del sistema eléctrico y en especial de las horas de baja demanda. Sin embargo, en la realidad como puede verse en el Anexo I, la disponibilidad de servicio es ociosa, solo puede determinarse con el método preciso en que se usa la energía eléctrica.

Esta capacidad se ev 12 diferencias entre las reservas reales y las reservas programadas. La operación de resta puede ser negativa, en cuyo caso se debe desconectar usuarios o bajar

La confiabilidad del suministro. Esto puede presentar inconvenientes al usuario, o a la compañía eléctrica. Si se deja conectar el carro a cualquier hora, peor aún, el suministro de energía a precios prohibitivos genera la necesidad de ampliación de capacidad de generación en el sistema eléctrico, en consecuencia, el usuario puede ser limitado, en el número de horas de carga, para sus necesidades de transporte solo por problema de coordinación en el horario, creando un desprecio por el servicio.

BATERIAS.

Es bien conocido que la batería es el cuello de botella del vehículo eléctrico. En realidad, la potencia y energía por unidad de peso, su costo y vida útil son los problemas. La variable más susceptible de control local es la temperatura. En términos generales la vida de una batería es función de su diseño. Para un diseño determinado la variable clave es su operación y mantenimiento. Baterías en manos de expertos pueden durar dos o tres veces más que con un usuario común. Lo anterior no incluye los peligros de explosiones asociados con descuidos al sobrecargar baterías de plomo-ácido o derrames de ácido sulfúrico, pero incluye los daños a baterías asociadas a sobrecargas, descargas excesivas, tratamiento de celdas defectuosas a tiempo, inactividad y exceso de temperatura (9).

ADMINISTR:

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ARG

La administración de Te carga ha sido definida por un Grupo de Trabajo (10) del TECE que se dedica a este tema como: "Es el control o influencia deliberada de la carga de? consumidor para trasladar el tiempo y la cantidad usada de potencia y energía eléctrica. Los principales objetivos de la administración de carga son reducir el costo de la energía eléctrica, mejorar en general el fac

tor de carga, reducir la necesidad de generación y trasladando consumo pico fuera del pico y mejorar la eficiencia del sistema? reduciendo 12 parte proporcional de energía eléctrica que suman "estas unidades menos eficientes".

El aporte central del uso del vehículo eléctrico debe estar de acuerdo con tres de estos objetivos. En el mismo documento anterior (10) se definen tres clases de administración de carga. Solo dos: control directo y control voluntario de carga nos aplican y el tercero: uso de almacenamiento térmico, no corresponde a nuestras condiciones climáticas.

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En la descripción del carro eléctrico hicimos mención indirecta del control voluntario de carga cuando hicimos referencia a tarifas de uso en el tiempo de día. Más adelante haremos mención de control directo».

jo (10) Los impactos de la administración de carga no se entienden tan simples como las características y costos. En realidad, el comportamiento mismo de las cargas produce efectos más o menos pronunciados los cuales no pueden depender mucho del operador en casos de emergencia.

De acuerdo al grupo de Trabajo!

La aplicabilidad del automóvil eléctrico en los EUA ha sido reconocida en un reporte voluminoso (8). El reporte indica que los consumidores residenciales, residentes en viviendas unifamiliares, serán los que más pronto usarán esta facilidad. El usuario co

re'con muy pocos gastos para poder recargar las baterías del vehículo de su propiedad. Se supone entonces que al cargar las baterías

de un vehículo en las horas de madrugada, se aprovecha la capacidad disponible por el usuario, Sin embargo, la correlación que existe

entre un individuo capaz de poseer un vehículo eléctrico y aire acondicionado en la República Dominicana debe ser alta. En conclusión, es probable que el usuario tenga que incurrir en costos adicionales.

PUESTA

La administración de carga, para usuarios dispersos (en sus hogares), no es la solución al problema total, ya que quedan otros problemas pendientes de solución con relación a las baterías. La eficiencia de un sistema eléctrico es susceptible de ser mejorada mediante el control directo de cargas un poco más grande y mejor definidas. Haciendo referencia de nuevo al Anexo 1, las reservas programadas en la operación de un sistema eléctrico sin interconexiones importantes, distan por lo regular bastante de las reservas reales y es aquí donde juegan un papel importante estas cargas de bloque. Nuestra propuesta va dirigida a la concepción de cargas como esas a través de lo que denominamos una Operadora de Baterías.

Una Operadora de Baterías, entre otras cosas, podría ser un lugar dedicado a la recarga de baterías. Esta idea es complementada con lo que expresamos anteriormente de dar el manejo de las baterías a expertos. El reporte anterior comenta sobre provisiones

para recargar baterías: ¿una posibilidad final sería intercambiar

Yas baterías en una estación de servicio. Con un diseño apropiado una batería de propulsión puede ser reemplazada en dos o tres minutos

tos. El efecto es como llenar el tanque de un vehículo convencional. Si las estaciones de intercambio fueran tan comunes como las estaciones de gasolina, la limitación de alcance del vehículo eléctrico fuera inconsecuente? (8). Estas estaciones de servicios podrían ser las Operadoras de Baterías.

En relación a esta idea, en Inglaterra se examinaron los

costos correspondientes al establecimiento de estaciones de intercambio de baterías y se encontró que los costos duplican los de un servicio similar de estaciones de gasolina (8). Este costo adicional

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mal de servicio al cliente es solo aminorado con los ahorros que se obtienen con la extensión de la vida de las baterías.

La diferencia fundamental

entre una estructura competitiva,
un mismo servicio con el mismo

precio, de un vehículo de

combustión interna y un vehículo « eléctrico radica entre el costo

inicial (mayor para el eléctrico) y el 2.º operación (mayor para el
de combustión interna}. Uno puede evitar este dilema
es separar el usuario de? costo \$5 que este alquiler

dicho servicio de 12 meses

que serviría de infraestructura

los eléctricos.

ja Overadora de Ba-

ode 10s vehicu

Pare que un negocio do

cesario normalizar los baterfas. ?ve ext

dar lugar a consideraciones ce

panorama, un monopolio

pueda subsistir es ng

fe Ja idea podrta

condo 20n mas el

er de baterfas debe

Vamos a revisar impticac

un vehiculo con celdes intercard

tema de servicio mencionado arri

tes de 1a adopei3n de

establecimiento del sis

SEGURIDAD,

ABASTECIE

S{ bien es cierto que los sistemas eldctricos pasan por Epa
cas dificiles de abastecimiento, no es monos cierto que disponer de
un transporte eficaz en esos momen:os es contradictorio, pugs e!
trabajo se ve impedido por la fait de Enc

denis, es estrat3gico disponer de vehfculos elsciricos por la rela-
tiva Independencia de} combustible liquida,

CONSIDERACIONES LEGALES

Dado que en nuestro país no se han establecido todavía ninguna clase importante de vehículos eléctricos es de suponer que no hay intereses creados. En consecuencia la legislación sobre esta materia puede proceder de acuerdo a los mejores intereses del país. De esa forma la Operadora puede ser un negocio regulado.

Aspectos

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La etapa social que vive nuestro país dentro de un mundo tan cambiante nos hace suponer que no existirían vehículos que se carguen en las residencias, estos serían fuente de fraudes en los servicios. La situación de hoy nos indica la necesidad de entrenar personal que pueda mantener y reparar las decenas de los vehículos. El aumento del transporte colectivo en la ciudad es una parte de la necesidad y más adelante veremos la posibilidad de sustituir parcialmente el transporte colectivo. Por otro lado, la tarifa de servicio residencial eléctrico en la República Dominicana ha sido diseñada para promover poco uso de energía eléctrica por usuario. Es decir, subsidiando a los consumidores con escasos recursos y penali-

zando con una tarifa exponencial! 2. Los Jendos, y por lo tanto, el
costo de energía para cargar baterías sería prohibitivo o crearía
problemas sociales. El control directo que puede ejercer la com-
pañía eléctrica sobre la Operadora de Servicios, hacen de esta
energía más barata que se puede vender en un sistema eléctrico co-
mo el de la República Dominicana, impidiendo la facilidad al trans-
porte terrestre, a lo que se crea empleos.

IMPLICACIONES!

Aparte de los comentarios en el punto anterior, sobre la
vida de las baterías y el uso de tarifas más bajas, el desarrollo
de Operadoras de Servicios puede resultar económico para el con-
sumidor de vehículos que no tiene que pagar por las baterías. La eco-
nomía puede hasta aprovechar el reciclaje de ciertos componentes

de las baterías.. Esto sin embargo, crea una situación financiera

difícil para la Operadora de Seterías, ya que inicialmente el número

de baterías es por lo menos el doble del necesario. La solución

es que se den facilidades especiales a la inversión. Una posibilidad

ya ha sido mencionada y es la creación de un monopolio.

IMPLICACIONES:

TECNOLOGÍAS.

Es atractivo salir al frente @ formar parte de un desarrollo

tecnológico completo, pero las inversiones en líneas de producción

y la capacidad tecnológica estén fuera de nuestro alcance.

No hay dudas de que existen aplicaciones rentables de vehículos eléctricos.

Estas aplicaciones se deben fomentar en pequeña escala

para ir entendiendo la tecnología que es viable y de acuerdo

al plan que persiga mejorar nuestra capacidad de compras de inversión:

modestas a otras, cada vez más cuantiosas.

CONTAMINACION AMBIENTAL.

El uso de centrales hidroeléctricas para eliminar la red eléctrica que suministra potencia a las Operadoras es la mejor opción. Sin embargo, la opción ejecutable puede ser a base de centrales calderas a carbón. En este caso estaríamos transfiriendo un problema de contaminación distribuida a uno de contaminación concentrada.

PLAN PILORO.

El Gobierno Dominicano ha tomado varias medidas para limitar la importación de vehículos y así enfrentar los problemas de balanzas de pagos. Si la recesión que se vive hoy continúa a este mismo ritmo, la posibilidad de poseer vehículos privados se irá limitando y será necesario disponer de mejor tránsito colectivo. El transporte terrestre es vital para el desarrollo de la industria.

A esos efectos se constituyó la Oficina Nacional de Transporte Terrestre (ONATRATE).

Dicha oficina brinda un servicio con una flota de autobuses

---Page Break---

de 26 pasajeros y no cubre la demanda todavía. La velocidad promedio por rutas incluyendo todas las paradas es de 18 km/hr, 10 que nos hace suponer la existencia de nuevas o rutas factibles ecológicamente para tránsito de vehículos eléctricos. Por ejemplo, la zona colonial de Santo Domingo es bien conocida por la gran densidad de tránsito en horas comerciales, En este caso sería posible que se pretenda mejorar las condiciones del ambiente y así conjugar dos problemas. Se puede lograr cerrando al tráfico normal ciertas calles como la Calle Central (calle central de la Zona Colonial).

Según comenta Schwartz de i NASA sobre el consorcio GES
alendn *Ellos creen que el transporte urbano (vehículos de reparto
y autobuses) es el primer rol típico yore esos vehículos" (3). A
manera de ejemplo, el servicio postal de los Estados Unidos ha ob-
tenido costos promedios anuales de operación en sus vehículos de
Departamento de correspondencia de \$1369 para los eléctricos y \$1,528
para los convencionales (3). Estos datos nos permiten expresar
una generalización.

* dadas ciertas condiciones de tráfico (que puedan ser satis-
fechas por los eléctricos de hoy),

© dado un costo inicial de un vehículo,

© dado un costo de operación y mantenimiento,

© entonces debe existir un espacio recorrido anual para el

cual los costos de un vehicula convencional y un eléctrico se igualen.

En vista de que el costo inicial de un vehfculo eléctrico es mayor, solo es necesario tener un coste de operación y mantenimiento menor. Teoricamente este problema es la intersección de dos rectas, sin embargo, es necesario comprobar la posibilidad de recorrer físicamente las distancias que resulten de la solución matemática.

A esos efectos podemos citar a Hamilton (8) "Para el vehículo eléctrico de corto alcance: (100 kms.) con baterías plomo-ácido y el vehículo eléctrico avanzado, el precio actual de la gasolina hace que el subcomponento consencionat sea mas caro". La comparación de vehículos de cuatro pasajeros es calculada on base a un costo de 4¢/Kuh y 50.7¢/aall6n do casotins, si suponemos los costos de energía eléctrica (10¢/Kult) y gasolina (\$2.80/gal6n) vigente en la República Dominicana, el panorama se hace mas favorable al eléctrico. En este momento no debemos llevar por el resultado anterior porque podríamos llegar a conclusiones falsas. Primero el precio de la gasolina en la República Dominicana es posiblemente mas elevado de lo que realmente debe ser, segundo el precio de la energía eléctrica suele ser menor a su vez y ter-

cero hay que tener en cuenta las limitaciones aceptadas al vehicu
Yo eléctrico. Sin embargo, 12 generalización hecha mas arriba es
válida,

---Page Break---

Si concentremos ahora nuestra atención en vehículos de
transporte colectivo y recordamos que el límite de velocidad v
permite en zonas residenciales es de 35 Km/hr, si tomamos en cuenta
el ancho de esas vías y el estado de los pavimentos, podemos
llegar a la conclusión de que existen condiciones que se ajustan
a las limitaciones de los vehículos eléctricos. Por lo tanto, de
be existir una distancia recorrida para la cual se consiga el pun
to de equilibrio económico, Esa distancia a su vez depende de las
necesidades de transporte, de las dimensiones y capacidad de los

Vehículos. Un análisis de esos detalles tan importantes para la factibilidad de un proyecto de transporte colectivo puede ser objeto de otro trabajo.

Con el propósito de ir adquiriendo tecnología y experiencia administrativa en estos monesteres recomendamos la creación de un plan piloto de tránsito terrestre, a base de una Operadora de Baterías, cuyas inversiones sean por sí rentables. Ese plan puede ser establecido en las zonas más densas del transporte de la ciudad capital. El plan piloto se puede crear con una flota reducida de vehículos. El diseño de los vehículos no debe presentar mayores inconvenientes, pues el diseño aerodinámico realmente no cuenta mucho para velocidades bajas. Se debe investigar la posibilidad de acuerdo con fabricantes de baterías de propulsión, negociando acuerdos de licencias para fabricación controlada.

Hay que reconocer que la única forma de disminuir la canti

dad de vehículos privados es haciendo inversiones cuantiosas en el transporte colectivo. En ese sentido se debe brindar un servicio en que la seguridad, el estatus social y la comodidad del vehículo personal no sean degradadas y un límite, que junto a la pérdida de privacidad inherente al transporte colectivo, bloqueen la transferencia del uso de vehículos privados al transporte colectivo. En consecuencia vemos importante penetrar más a las zonas residenciales, esto es acercarse más al cliente. Una combinación de vehículos eléctricos que sirvan en una ruta local y vehículos convencionales con paradas más distantes (hoy tienen 250 m. entre paradas) es un compromiso que se debe formalizar como una etapa posterior al plan piloto. Aquí los resultados del plan piloto sirven para encontrar los parámetros principales del diseño.

Un dato que puede surtir efecto es el siguiente; ONATRATE usa sus vehículos de 6000 a 11000 km. al mes. Si suponemos una velocidad promedio de servicio para los vehículos eléctricos igual a la mitad, además así obtendríamos un uso anual de 36,000 Kms. Esta combinación de baja velocidad de servicio y una considerable distancia recorrida nos hace concluir con una alta probabilidad de rentabilidad al transporte terrestre eléctrico.

CONCLUSIONES.

En vista de que el sistema de potencia de la República Dominicana no posee suficientes interconexiones es deseable fomentar la regulación del servicio a vehículos eléctricos. Esta regulación persigue que las cargas eléctricas provenientes de recargar baterías

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deben ser controladas. Para ello es necesario prohibir el uso personal de la energía eléctrica para cargar baterías de propulsión vehicular. El uso de la energía eléctrica para el fin anterior deberá ser manejado por estaciones de servicio, denominadas Operadoras de Baterías, cuyas funciones fundamentales son poseer, mantener, recargar, alquilar e instalar dichas baterías en todos los vehículos con autorización para transitar a base de propulsión eléctrica.

Se recomienda a su vez poner en vigencia un plan piloto con características económicas rentables para generar una vivencia administrativa, un quehacer científico y un quehacer® (know-how) tecnológico particular en nuestro país que disminuya las erogaciones que por este concepto se han en el futuro.

TRICOS

LA DEMANDA.

La demanda total de un sistema eléctrico es la resultante de las demandas particulares en la red. Por el carácter aleatorio de las demandas particulares hora a hora, día a día y año a año estas siguen patrones a base de ciclos diarios, semanales y anuales. Por lo anterior, y despreciando por el momento el crecimiento neto de la demanda total, podemos considerarla como un proceso aleatorio. Con esta simplificación podemos representar una curva típica diaria como se muestra en la Fig. 1 (una función continua del tiempo) y del mismo modo la demanda a una hora particular a través del tiempo como se muestra en la Fig. 2 (una variable aleatoria).

LA GENERACION.

Todos los sistemas eléctricos están compuestos, además de la red y sus demandas, por una serie de generadores. Satisfacer la demanda significa: 1) producir la energía en los generadores de forma que se cubran las pérdidas en la red en adición a las demandas par-

ticulares; 2) que la división de la carga entre los generadores sea la más económica y en cantidades tales como sea requerida en forma continua y 3) con una calidad tal que cada usuario no tenga impedimento en usarla (11).

Los generadores particulares tienen una disponibilidad de servicio cercana al 90% y es imposible dar un servicio continuo sin disponer de reservas suficientes.

PROGRAMACION Y DESPACHO ECONOMICO.

Los diferentes tipos de generación son generalmente adquiridos en los sistemas eléctricos en vista de la cambiante naturaleza diaria, semanal y anual de la demanda.

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Te TTT 30 sa

SYSOH Uod HALEIS TE0 CYHAVH EvOUVD

GVOIONLOTT3 20 VRVOININOG NO!VUOduOD

Fig. 1

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tore?

SoLLvAvoaH

Fig. 2

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E} problema general de programación y despacho puede ser

sub-dividido en tres sub-problemas (12)

- 1) programación anual con aplicación semanal
- 2) programación semanal con aplicación horaria
- 3) programación horaria con uso momentáneo.

El primero es típico de la programación del mantenimiento,

e} segundo es el compromiso de unidades y el tercero el despacho

económico de carga.

Cinco reglas que representan el compromiso de unidades fueron usadas en un reporte de la General Electric (13) estas son:

1) estar en servicio todo el tiempo excepto cuando esté en mantenimiento,

2) Si se debe usar en hora pico debe ser usada por toda una semana.,

3) si se debe usar en hora pico, debe ser usada todos los días laborables,

4) si se necesita para la hora pico debe usarse todo el día

5) solo usarse por el tiempo necesario.

Como regla general, el orden indicado corresponde a las unidades con un costo inicial más alto y costos de producción más bajos para el orden inverso.

RESERVAS E INTERCONEXI

Por la naturaleza aleatoria de las demandas, el compromiso de unidades puede llevar a usar estimaciones conservadoras de la generación. Por la naturaleza especial de la República Dominicana las interconexiones con otros sistemas eléctricos han sido muy reducidas. Las reservas por lo tanto, constituyen un gran problema técnico-económico. Las reservas definen la confiabilidad del servicio.

Esto nos ha llevado a considerar técnicas de administración de carga con el objeto de mejorar la operación del sistema. En vista de que tanto las demandas como la generación son afectadas por condiciones externas, es de esperarse que las reservas programadas disten de las reservas reales a cada momento del suministro. Los efectos positivos y negativos en las reservas pueden ser aprovechados si existen cargas interrumpibles a discreción del operador en sistemas que no disponen de suficientes interconexiones, de esta forma la operación de despacho se alivia enormemente.

La experiencia en programar intercambios es una práctica muy bien conocida en empresas eléctricas de sistemas interconectados. Para una carga interrumpible hay que hacer compromisos de una sola dirección y su programación por lo tanto es factible.

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En consecuencia, las fluctuaciones de las reservas se podrán controlar mejor en la medida que aumenten las cargas interrumpibles.

pibles. En el caso especial de transición, cuando entran o salen de servicio las unidades generadoras comprometidas, es importante tener cargas de ese tipo para estabilizar la operación.

Gracias a la Corporación Dominicana de Electricidad por permitir el uso de recursos a mi disponibilidad en la elaboración de este trabajo, a los Ing. Francisco Pérez Polanco y Lic. M.N. Encarnación de la Oficina Nacional del Transporte Terrestre, a mis compañeros de trabajo Ingenieros E. González, J. Bonilla y F. Maldonado por la revisión y comentario al borrador y finalmente a mi familia a quienes reduje la atención para cumplir con esta encomienda del Colegio de Ingenieros, Arquitectos y Agrimensores.

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?Agosto 1-7, 1982

First Pan American Congress on Energy

RE-ASSESSMENT OF TRANSMISSION PRACTICES IN BELIZE

By

Robert J. Hatch

Burns & Roe, inc.

Sergio Brull

Belize Electricity Board

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?Agosto 1982

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(PRODUCTION

?The growth patterns of Belize have resulted 1

the

formation of several isolated population centers, surrounded

by rural areas of very low population density. Due to the

relatively slight electrical demand for

individual popu

sion centers, and the sometimes substantial distances between

centers, each population center developed as an independent

Generation and distribution district. Distribution from

each district generally extended only several miles from the

Population center and, therefore, served only those rural

ion centers.

areas on the immediate fringe of the popula!

As development continued, and population centers expanded, distribution was also extended. In the case of Belize City and Ladyville, this expansion resulted in the interconnection of two population centers via distribution Lines, Although the benefits of linking isolated generation

districts is obvious from a x

Liability, expansion and operating cost point of view, utilization of distribution circuits, in this case 22 kv for interconnection has serious impact on the future capability of the combined districts.

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Assuming that the 22 kv circuits were initially constructed with sufficient capacity to handle expected line flows within the limits of acceptable losses and voltage

regulation, load growth in either district. without the

prscussrox

cost Basis

Dhis paper presents an evaluation of several trans-

mission line voltages and structure configurations.

Eatimated transmission Line co:

aze based on local

supply of treated wood or reinforced concrete poles for line

structures and importing tvansmission 1

materials,

hardware, conductors and other fabricated materials

for the construction of the lines is considered to be
Belizian labor. However, when unit labor cost factors and
productivity are considered, local labor costs are equivalent
to those of the United States.

Substation estimated costs are based on local supply of
masonry for equipment foundations and of treated wood or
reinforced concrete poles for dead end structures. Estimated
costs for transformers, oil circuit breakers, buswork
and other fabricated equipment are based on importing these
items.

All equipment and material costs are based on delivery

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Egy costs for evalui

based on a 42 fuel o: of \$928 per bi

sel with enezsy

cal dieset

content of 6x19° ary per barrel. With a ty
engine generator efficiency 2ç 29%, fuel costs vere cal-

culated to be \$0.182 per kWh. Tt was es!

mated that this

cost would escalate at a rate of 10% annually

Economic factors utilized for cost evaluations in this

paper are 108 annual inflation and 128 annual vo!

capital. Insurance and maintenance costs vere assessed to

be 28 and S¥ per year respectively.

Since right-of-way for all lines

Presently owned by

e utility, no right-of-way costs are included.

Preliminary Design Factor!

The preliminary Line designs presented are based on evaluation of several structure configurations and their relative cost impact on the overall budget. Various transmission voltages were also evaluated for maximum power flow, voltage regulation and power loss considerations in order that an accurate comparison could be made.

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Preliminary evaluation

ns 2f required

cture embedment

depth were made based on typical soil conditions for Belize.

?This assumption has a relatively slight impact on overall

budget estimates since poorer

conditions than the

typical would require only a moderate increase in pole

length. It is assumed that line erection will be performed

during the dry season in areas which may preclude the use of

ase!

nd pole setting equipment during the rainy season

where annual line Losses in kWh are presented in che

paper th

Je values are deri

from an assumed daily load

profile of @ hours of peak load operation and 16 hours of

308 of peak load operation. This profile results in a loss

ctor (ratio of average to peak losses) of S08.

the extreme wind condition used for mechanical design was 150 mph, as winds of this velocity have occurred in

Belize under hurricane conditions.

Load growth

cima:

by the Belize Electricity Board

considered 108 annual growth in demand and consumption.

In this evaluation, consideration of higher voltages

for Belize focused primarily on the 34.5 kV and 69 kV levels.

---Page Break---

138 kV was not considered in depth, due to

Line lengths, low power transfer requirements:

1 cost increases for line construction and

equipment:

For example,

transformer: unit costs in:

ease by approxi-

mately 248 when the high voltage winding is

based from

24.5 RY to 69 KV. A subsequent unit cost increase of 878 is

Jd when increasing the high voltage winding from 69 kv

to 138 kV. The relative price increases for o

circuit

breakers (OCB) at 34.5,, 69 and 138 kV are even more extreme

with the cost of a 69 kV OCB being 278 higher

in that of a

34.5 KV OCB; and a 138 KY OCB approximately 2008 higher than that of a 69 kV OCB. Reduction in conductor size would not be sufficient to offset the above higher costs. Due to increased conductor clearances, taller structure heights and increased insulator costs, 138 kV Line construction would, in fact, be substantially higher.

in order to evaluate various transmission voltages, preliminary conductor selections and span calculations were performed for several voltage leve

and line flows. For

example

234.5 kV line carrying 10 MVA for 12 miles would require 2 266.8 kemil, ACSR, code work "Waxwing" conductor based on sun without wind. Minimum vertical clearance above

roads, streets or other areas traversed by vehicles is 22

---Page Break---

feet for open supply conduct. + 2¢ allowance,

conductor min: above

grade.

For equivalent transfer

environmental conditions, a 9 kV transmission Line would

require only a #2 ANG, ACSR conductor, code word "Sparrow".

However, preliminary estimates of radio noise generated by

1 #2 ANG conductors indicated low signal

the relatively smi

to noise ratio ranges during wet weather which would result

in radio reception near the line being just understandable

in the city and unintelligible in rural areas based on

conventional rural and city signal strengths. Estimated

radio noise performance of a 3/0 ACSR conductor indicates somewhat higher wet weather signal to noise ratios providing satisfactory reception with some background noise near the Line within the city with reception remaining unintelligible within several hundred feet of the line in rural areas.

However, rural reception in dry weather would be under-standable at distances 100 feet or more from the line. The 3/0, ACSR conductor also offers additional advantages due to

its lower losses, higher capacity and greater mechanical

proper: rance and

4. In order to minimize radio inte:

improve mechanical strength, a minimum conductor size of

---Page Break---

3/0, ACSR, code work ?Pigeon? was recone:

Feo ky

3 conductor size +

shad the additional benefit

of accommodating fusure leas growth co 29 MYA.

A subsequent increase in conductor size was not recom-

mended to further improve radio inte-

ference due to

the increased line costs resulting from

losses generated by

hurricane winds against the larger conductors.

Minimum vertical clearance above streets, roads or

other areas traversed by vehicles is 24 feet:

the 69 kv

line. Using similar a sag allowance (2'0"), minimum conductor attachment point for 69 kV would be 26 feet above

grade.

Since the maximum allowable span for all line configurations would be based on pole ground line moments due

to 160 mph hurricane winds on th

overhead conductors and

ground wire, the governing criteria for span was conductor

height and exposed conductor surface to the wind. Based on

preliminary evaluation, assuming similar configurations, the

34.5 KV circuit, with its larger exposed conductor area, had

a maximum allowable span of only 86% of that of the 69 kV line with "Pigeon" conductor when strung on similar strength

poles. However, due to probable differences in 4.5 kV and

---Page Break---

69 kV configurations and the slightly 24 pol

ight

required for 69 kv, structures costs per mile were approxi-

36.5 RY, "Waxwing"

mately

equivalent. conductor:

were approximately 258 high

than those for 59 kV ?Pigeon?

resulting in a cost increase of approximately 33,100 per

mile.

Conductor st:

ing costs were also

Substations, as mentioned

by transmission vol!

age. For 69 kV primary voltage, sub-

station transformer and oil circuit breaker costs

typical substation was approximately 264 higher than that of

equivalent 34.5 kv equipment (an approximate bud-

get

of \$110,000 per substation). However, a substantial

difference existed in the voltage regulation performance of

the 34.5 and 69 kV lines. The 34.5 line, with "Waxwing"

conductor, delivering 16 MVA at 0.80 power factor had a

voltage regulation of approximately 14% for a 12 mile circuit. This value would require the use of automatic voltage regulators or load tap changers at the receiving end of the line, The 69 kV line with "Pigeon" conductors would have a voltage regulation better than 8% while delivering 19 MVA at 0.80 power factor over a 12 mile line. In light of its better performance, neither voltage regulators nor load

tap changing will be required for the 69 kV alternative,

10

---Page Break---

resulting in a subst: 2 savings of approximate!

\$76,000 per substation.

increased insulator costs for 69 kV were offset by

increased striz:

ing costs for 34.5 kV (both items were a

relatively small portion of project cost), the cost increase

for a 12 mile, 69 kV installation over chat of a 34.5 kV

installation was approximately \$31,000B. This figure is

more than offset

yn tha increased line losses of 34.5 kV

vs 69 KV and the additional maintenance and repair costs of

automatic voltage regulators or load tap changers are

considered. Evaluation of losses for the 34.5 kV and 69 kv

lines indicates that at 10 NVA line losses on the 34.5 KV

circuit will be approximately 114 vs 34 for the 69 kV Line.

Relative kWh losses per year are 5,000,000 kWh vs 1,500,000

kWh for the 34.5 and 69 kV circuits respectively. Present

value of these losses would be \$630,000 per year. Therefore,

for the 12 mile, 10 MVA case, 69 kV would be the preferred

transmission voltage.

Similar evaluations were performed for other line flows

and distances. These analyses revealed the following:

© 34.8 kV crossarm structures with conductors 1/0 and

smaller are desirable in shor: interconnections

a

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relatively Licht

1 flows not anticizaced to exceed

40 wa. aur:

their service life

© Conductors Larger

yan 1/0 on 34.5 KY cir:

es a

competitive on a performance or cost basis wi

69 kv

wot:

With selection of 69 KY for bulk transmission, an

analysis of various structures was made.

Single Pole with Wood Davit Arms

Initial evaluation of structure types focused on single pole construction with fabricated, bolt-on, wood, davit arms

sion insulators.

and clevis or ball and socket type susp

This structure offered the advantage that the 69 kV circuit could be strung on one side of the pole with a second

circuit installed on the opposite side at some future date.

Due to the requirement that cl

rance between phase con~

ductors be obtained vertically for this configuration, pole

length was required to be 55 feet, including the embedded

section.

12

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Analysis of the 55 foot pole ground line moments

indicated that the maximum load of a davit arm, Class HI

structure, with the installed, would

be only 197

fet. This rather short spsn is due to the substan!

ground line moment generates by 160 mph hurricane winds

against the 3/0, ACSR phase conductors and the overhead

Ground wire. Additional factors limiting this span were
moments generated by extreme winds against the pole struc-
ture and the moment due to locating the conductors several

feet outboard of the centerline of the 5

scture (spacing

necessary to prot

fe for insulator swing and for clearance

between first and future circuits).

The moment due to conductor offset ϕ pole centerline would be eliminated upon installation of a

second, identical circuit. However, this component of the total pole ground line moment is relatively small in com

parison to the moment generated by extreme winds on overhead

conductors. For installation of a second 3/0, ACSR circuit on the same structure, maximum span would be limited to only

112 feet using Class HI poles.

When considering the extremely short span dictated by

double circuit construction, and the higher capacity avail-

able from the 3/0 conductor which was selected for mechanical

b

---Page Break---

and radio interferences, it was recommended the

69 kV line be of single circuit design. when dictated by

future load requirements, a 59 Y Line could be

constructed along 2 separate right-o

-way offering increased

reliability due to physical separation of

With the selection of single circuit for 69 KV con

onfigurations vere evaluated

struction severa? additional

determine maximum spans under extreme

8 conditions and

relative cost.

Single Pole with Double Crossarms

?The single pole with crossarms was selected for evalua~

tion due to its ability to provide horizontal phase con-

ductor clearances thereby reducing structure groundline

moments by reducing conductor heights. due to the relatively large clearances required for 69 kV construction, only two conductors can be supported by a single crossarm. A second

crossarm:

7m located above the lower arm is required for support of the third phase conductor. All conductors are supported

by ball and socket or clevis type suspension

insulators

attached to the crossarms. Bracing is required for

---Page Break---

The double crossarm construction

line moments due to conductor offset

locating conductors on both sides

Moments of two of the phase conductors cancel and only the

upper phase generates a ground!

1 moment due to its weight.

Groundline moment due to extreme wind pressure on conductors

is also reduced due to the decreased conductor heights above the ground. Based on these above moment reductions, maximum

span for a Class Hi pole was approximately 220 feet.

Single Poles with Lin

Post Insulators

Although the single pole with line post insulators results in a slightly higher conductor profile than does the double crossarm construction, it was selected for evaluation due to its simplicity of construction and typically lower installation cost. This construction replaces davit arms and crossarms with rigid, post type insulators secured directly to the pole structure.

The Line post structure configuration also results in smaller conductor offset moments due to locating conductors on either side of the pole. the resultant offset moment is less than that of the crossarm structure since conductors

may be located close to the pole centerline as insulator

swing is not a concern.

1s

---Page Break---

ce clearance between conductors is $o\} \text{hos}$

zontally as well as vertically with line posts, conductor

heights are reduced over that of 4a

= arm conser

jection, but

are slightly higher than that of crossarm construction. In actuality, pole heights for line post construction are no larger than those for crossarm construction, with the one foot additional height above ground supplied by allowable

Gigterent embednent depths.

Although the higher profile of the line post structure

results in a wind moment approximately 58 greater than chat

of the crossarn structure, the lower moment due to smaller conductor offet and the slightly larger ground line radius due to shallower embednent, more than cancels this effect.

Maximum span for line post structures with 3/0 ACSR, Pigeon phase conductors and 3/8 inch strength steel, overhead

ground wire was 226 feet.

Due to its slightly longer maximum span, simplified construction procedures and nore aesthetic appearance, Line post structures were recommended for the 69 kV line.

Figure No. 1 is an elevation of the selected Line post, tangent structure using Class HI wood soles. Figure No. 2 is an elevation of the single Class Hi pole structure

reconmended for light angle structures.

16

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Maximum Span Calculation

A computer analysis was zerformed in orée:

the maximum span under 160 mph extreme wind

nditions for

each structure configuration discussed. fach analysis was

performed for various pole classes ranging Class HI to

class 3.

The results of the maximum span analysis are included

as Table Nos. 1, 2, 3 and 4.

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34.5 kV circuits c

le

when compared with a 69 kV circuit of equi?

ent, or slightly

greater than

significantly higher substation costs for

uits may be offset by the elimination of voltage

regulating transformers or automatic load tap changing

equipment. Comparison of differential line losses and sheiz

associated cost results in 69 KV transmission being pregerzed

where line capacity is anticipated to exceed 40 MVA - miles.

Future expansion in Belize, which may exceed 250 HVA -

5 should include a detailed evaluation of voltages

greater than 69 kV.

Preferred structure type for 9 kV transmission

single pole with horizontal line post insulators. In addition

to low installed cost, this structure offers a clean,

aesthetic appearance. Structures will be treated wood or

reinforced concrete. Selection of pole material will be

determined based on economic and technical evaluation of

competitive bid

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United States Department of Agri

Rural Elecsrification Adminis

- Bulletin 62-5 - Design Manual for #

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UPADI 82

San, Juan, Puerto Rico

?Agosto? 1-7, 1982

| Congreso Panamericano de Energia

IMPLANTACAO DE PEQUERAS CENTRAIS HIDRELETRICAS.

EN PAISES EM DESENVOLVIMENTO

By

Zuley de Souze

DE ITAJUBA - MINAS GERAIS - BRASIL

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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RESUMO DO CURRICULUM VITAE

Engenheiro Civil - Universidade Federal do Para

nd - 1957, Mestre em Ciências em Engenharia Mecânica - Escola

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FEI - 1973. Cursos de Especialização: Ensaios de Motores. Die

sel de grande potência, Cálculo de Vibrações de Motores a Pis

to, Cálculo de Projeto de Instalações de Produção com Turbinas

de gás em circuito aberto - SULZER FRERES S/A - WINTHERTUR, Suíça

1958 - 1963. Curso sobre turbinas a vapor e gás, ITA - 1972 e

1975, Professor Titular da FEI, Faculdade de Engenharia Civil

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Brasileira de Normas Técnicas (ABNT) para Itajubá desde 1966.

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RESUMO

© Trabalho se propSe a descrever as vantagens

sociais, econémicas, ecolégicas e de seguranga das PCI! em pat

ses do ITI Mundo,

Apresenta,em seguida,una classificagio das

PCH um prograna de implantacio destas centrais de modo que

possa haver un resultado técnico, econémico e social, benefi

ciando a inddstria do pais, mclhorando as condigdes de vida

principalmente do pessoal do campo, sem que haja _necessidade

de contribuigdo externa de qualquer natureza.

Finaliza com apresentagio de tipos _ compactos

de PCH fabricadas om varios pafses do mundo.

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empreiteiras con equipamento pesado de porte, para que no Fi
que o pais na dependência estrangeira, o quc ird fatalmente o
Rerar sua balanga de pagamento com reflexos internos insuporta
veis.

Por outro lado, a maicria dos pafses das Anéri
cas centraliza sua econdmia na agricultura, a qual é desenvol
vida em propriedades quase sempre distante dos grandes centros
© agrupadas em pequenos niicleos populacionais, os quais neces
sitam de pequenas nassas: energéticas. Tais massas para seren re
tiradas de un grande sistema implica em fatores tecnológicos
econdnicos no disponfveis ou que ndo competen com aqueles ne
ces:

?ios @ geragio local. Também, deve ser levado em conta

que a chamada eletrificacao rural através de linhas de trans

missGo, além de ter que ser subsidiada e estar ligada a tarifas, traz consigo problemas a comercialização dos produtos agrícolas devido à falta de estabilidade do insumo de energia. Este insumo cresce de importância à proporção que a agricultura se desenvolve e o padrão sócio-económico do agricultor cresce.

De um modo geral as PCH apresentam vantagens

sob os quatro aspectos básicos considerados na sequência:

ECOLÓGICO: ~

As PCH permitem o aproveitamento dos rios em cascata com reservatórios de pequena área. Como tais centrais, preferencialmente, deve estar próximas aos centros urbanos e rurais,

as perdas de terreno de alto valor imobiliário e fértil, são

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IMPLANTAGAO DE PEQUENAS CENTAATS HENEELTERICAS

EM PATSES FM DESENVOLVIMEWTO

Uma PCH nio & ta miniatura de um GCH

1 - INTRODUGEO

De un modo geral, todos os pafses desenvolvidos

© en vias de desenvolvimento, em escala de pro

duto de energia hidrelétrica, partiram senpre dos grandes apro

veitamentos hidrdulicos para os pequenos.

Uma excegdo neste panorama foi dada pela China

que estruturou sua produgdo energética a partir

de pequenos aproveitamentos hidráulicos, associado a um amplo

programa de energia de biomassa.

Nas Américas, ricas em energia hidráulica,

tanto seus países desenvolvidos como os em de

desenvolvimento e mesmo os subdesenvolvidos têm dado preferência,

inicialmente, aos grandes aproveitamentos tendo por base os fatores

de menor custo da energia gerada por unidade de potência e

2 obtenção concentrada de grande massa energética. Porém, considerando

que o estudo e o projeto, bem como a fabricação do equipamento,

construção e operação de uma central hidrelétrica de

grande potência exigem a existência nos países de grandes empresas

de consultoria e projeto, bem como, também, indústrias de

equipamentos hidráulicos e elétricos de grande porte, e ainda

---Page Break---

Pequenas, Um aproveitamento do rio em cascata regulariza a vazante

2Bo e estabiliza o nível freático

?o recuzinds substancialmente

4 erosio laminar que em muitos pafses alcanca milhares de tone

ladas anuais consumindo terreno altamente fértil. A estabiliz,

slo do lensol fredtico aumenta a drea fértil em torno da cen

tral methorando as condigées ecoldgicas da fauna e flora.

ECONOMICO:

© menor investimento inicial para construcio das PCH

poderd permitir a utilizagdo de recursos locais com geréncia

municipal ou por cooperatives. Um tal sistena altamente indi

cado na maioria dos paises das Anéricas que lutan con proble

mas de inflagio ϕ de balanca de paganentos.

© dominio pelo pais de todo processo de geragio e uti

lizagao da energia gerada pelas PCH @ possfvel com um mfnimo

de fatores econdnicos © tecnológicos, quase sempre dispons

veis. Os fatores tecnoldgicos com 0 tempo perniten nio sé a fa

bricagdo em série das PCH cono também contribuen para o apro
Veitanento de potências maiores sen o disvirtuamento da nacio
nalidade industrial. Por outro lado, as PCH apresentam um cus
to operacional menor © para muitos locais é 0 sistena de forne
cimento de energia a menor custo em relacio ao obtido através

de sistemas ?interligados.

SOCTAL:~

A eriagio de cooperativas no nunicfpio ou @ administra

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so municipal traz consigo una utilizayao mais racional dos re
cursos humanos normalmente existentes, além do criar una boa
expectativa para a juventude o que. contribuire para reduzir a
caminhada deste pessoal para os grandes centros, fato muito co
mum em todos os pafses da Anérica.

No ambito nacional, a ampliaco da indistria eletro-me
canica aumentard substancialmente 0 niinero de empregos em to
dos os niveis. Estes fatores fatalmente melhorarfo a distribui

Gio de renda tio desigual na msioria dos pafses da Anérica.

SEGURANG)

Evidentemente, centrais menores em maior número, com menores Linhas de transmissão são muito menos vulneráveis que as grandes centrais em menor número com grandes linhas de transmissão. Sob este aspecto a China continental com mais de 70000 instalações hidrelétricas de pequeno porte ? muito menos vulnerável que um país como os Estados Unidos com 915 instalações hidroelétricas de grande porte.

Enfatizamos que um programa nacional de PCH somente tem sentido se o mesmo é planejado e executado com recursos industriais gerados no país.

2 - CLASSIFICAÇÃO DAS PCH

Não existe um consenso mundial sobre o que se

entende por PCH, porém a OLADE ~ Organização Latino Americana

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de Energia, entidade criada e financiada por quase todos os

?países Latino-Americanos, adotou 2 classificações apresentadas

Pelo engenheiro Enrique Indicaciones Reiz de Socomurcio, a qual

se baseia nas potências instaladas e nas quedas de projeto com

forme QUADRO 1.

QUADRO 1 - CLASSIFICAÇÃO DA OLADE PARA AS PCH

QuEDAs of en03ec0tn)

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A BLETROSRAS, centrais E1étricas Brasiteivas

S/A, no Manual de PCH, propoe

Qquapro 2.

classificagio

contida no

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QUADRO 2 - CLASSIFICACAO DA_ELETROBRAS PARA_AS PCH

QUEDA Df PROJETO(m)

CLASSIFICACAD PoT.InsTALaciathw] sarKa [meora | ALTA

MICRO CENTRATS IneNos oe| Mars DE

HIORELETRICAS ATE 100 as as aso] 50

MINT CENTRATS NOS OE nars oe

HIORELETRICAS 100 A 1000 20 20 100] 100

PEQUENAS CENTRATS Irenos oe! InAIS 0?

HIORELETRICAS 1000 4 19000 25__ | 25 2 130 | 130

Neste mesmo Manual a FLETROBRAS observa:

" Assim as Micro Centrais Hidrelétricas pode

ro ser consideradas de até 100 kif, potência que se pode consi

derar como limite superior para centrais hidrelétricas no meio
tural brasileiro, pelo menos no momento.

Ja as Pequenas Centrais Hidrelétricas, propria
mente ditas, terdo seu limite superior de 10.000 ki, igual ao
limite inferior adotado no trabalho bisico de definigao do po
tencial hidrelétrico brasileiro, ou seja, © inventério clabors
do pela CANAMBRA na década de 60. Como para uma usina dese
porte ? conveniente prever-se unidades de no maximo 5.000 kW

ndo apenas uma de 10.000 kW, ficar-se- tanbén dentro do 1imi
te superior de capacidade de fabricagio dos pequenos fabrican
tes nacionais de turbinas e geradores.

---Page Break---

E muito importante cheaar a ateng3o para o fa

to de que os pardmetros QUEDA DE PROJETO © DESCARGA DE PROSE

TO, apesar de juntos definirem a POTENCIA INSTALADA, necessitam ser sempre, analisados também separadamente, porque cada um deles, por si só, pode condicionar a obras civis e a equipamentos de porte inferior condizente com o custo da PCH, o que a poderia tornar economicamente desaconselhável.

Em outras palavras: uma central hidroelétrica pode ser classificada como PEQUENA (pequena potência instalada) sem que isso implique a que ela seja de PEQUENO PORTE (quanto a obras civis e equipamentos) ou de PEQUENO CUSTO."

3 ~ IMPLANTAGRO DE PROGRAMA DE PCH

Conforme afirmamos, uma PCH não é uma miniatura

de uma CGH, isto porque não são os parâmetros que a definem

como também outros ligados estudos, projeto, obras e operação:

slo muito se afastan daqueles relativos as GCH.

Assim, um programa de PCH deve ser iniciado

com una definigdo bastante clara de todos os elementos qué.

irdo caracterizar a PCI, partindo de fluxogramas de atividades

Para os estudos © projetos, passando por metocologias © rotei

ros de c&lculo, financianento, para terninar na legislagio. Pa

Falelamente a esta definigio devon ser tonadas providências 1i

gadas @ mercado, familia-padrio, preparo de pessoal, desenvol

vimento de produto, normalizacio © controle de qualidade.

---Page Break---

Para caracteri ago dvs PCH deven ser convoca

Li

dos as entidades do pats liga? s a0 setor de cnergia hidi

ca que atuam nas varias area, sejam governamentais ou particula

's, de consultoria, estudos, projetos, fabricag3o, fesquisa,
legislasio, financianento ç outros.

Através de representantes e sob uma coordena
so geral deve ser elaborado un documento que caracterize as
PCH.

No Brasil, sob a coordenação da ELETROBRAS

foi elaborado o Manual de PCH ~ Inventario-Estudios-Projetos, 0

qual esti sendo tonado cono marco inicial para que © programa

equacionado e implantado. Esta implantagdo, provavelmen-
te, sera iniciada no meio rural brasileiro.

Relativamente o mercado & fundamental em levan
tanentos do potencial hidrico do pats para PCH, das necessida
des de consuno rural ç urbana, dos fabricantes nativos de equi
panentos hidromecnicos © eldtricos. Destes levantamentos 0
mais importante na fase inicial 0 relative a potencialidade

dos fabricantes nativos.

O estabelecimento das famílias-padrão importante para que seja a fabricação nativa garantida e protegida sob todos os aspectos.

Para uso do documento que caracteriza as PCH ,
@ para que o programa possa chegar com sucesso aos interessados &
indispensável o preparo de pessoal em todos os níveis, bem como

Ro documentação complementar que entenda a nível do usuário

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rio.

° Este preparo deve ser regional utilizando em
Princípio, a rede de ensino superior técnico existente no
país.

Um dos grandes problemas industriais em países

subdesenvolvidos e em desenvolvimento das Américas, ? a limitação

técnica de suas indústrias devido ao elevado custo

da engenharia de produto, que exige equipes de alto nível e 1,

laboratórios de pesquisa e de homologação. No caso das PCH este Problema pode ser resolvido utilizando a potencialidade normalmente existente nas instituições de ensino e pesquisa do governo. Neste caso @ possível, sob a responsabilidade governamental para uso pelo fabricante nativo a preço de custo, 3 consti!

tuído de equipe de engenharia de produto, laboratório de pes

quisa e laboratório de homologação. A esta tríade caberia dar

a cobertura tecnológica aos fabricantes nativos, melhorando os seus produtos, desenvolvendo pacotes de PCH para fabricação em série e também fornecendo certificados de garantia.

Evidentemente, normas e controle de qualidade

para PCH devem diferir bastante das relativas às GCH, princi

palmente partindo-se da hipótese que o programa deve ser imple

mentado dentro dos recursos existentes no país.

Estas linhas gerais de implantação de um programa de PCH, devem sofrer adaptações dentro das condições ?8

cio-econômicas ,técnicas ? políticas de cada país.

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- 10 -

4 ~ CARACTERÍSTICAS DE PCH

Nas figuras 1,2,3,4.© 5, apresentamos caracte

ísticas de PCH fabricadas em série em países diferentes.

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FRANCIS FABRICADA PELA
DREES - ALEMANHA

FIGURA 3 - MICROCENTRAL

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FIGURA 4 - MINT GRUPO TURBINA FRANGIS-GERADOR FABRICANO

PELA SORUMSAND VERKSTED A/S - NORUEGA

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UPADI 62

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?Agosto 1-7, 1982

| Congreso Panamericano de Energia

CENTRALES HIDROELECTRICAS: ALTERNATIVA ENERGETICA
PRIORITARIA PARA LATINOAMERICA

Por

Medardo Torres Ochoa

Sociedad de Ingenieros de! Ecuador

cuenca - Ecuador

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1982

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Medardo Torret Ocho

Nacido en Cuenca ? Ecuador el 23 de abril de 1927

Titulos académicos: Universidad de Cuerica: Topógrafo en 1951. Ingeniero Civil en 1953.

jas comple

Ingeniería de

Costos, Análisis Financiero, Administración de Empresas, Evaluación de Proyectos. Universidad de Göttingen y Escuela Superior de Trier ~ Alemania Federal: Observación y familiarización en los Gabinetes de Física y construcciones hidráulicas,

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Amplio ejercicio profesional en asesoramiento, fiscalización, dirección y construcción de obras de infraestructura y desarrollo,

Delegado principal, ponente y conferencista en varios congresos y seminarios nacionales e internacionales y de docencia universitaria.

Internacionales de Ingeniería

Distinciones: Premio Gil Ramírez Divalos de la 1. Municipalidad de Cuenca. Nombramiento de Vicerrector Honorario de la Universidad de Cuenca. Acuerdos de la Municipalidad de Loja y de la Municipalidad de Azogues ~ Ecuador.

a de Ingeniero del Fevador.

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?CENTRALES HIDROELECTRICAS: ALTERNATIVA ENERGETICA PRIORITARIA

PARA LATINOAMERICA?

Medardo Torres Ochoa

Sociedad de Ingenieros del Ecuador

?Cuenca ~ Ecuador

La Organización Latinoamericana de Energía (OLADE), fundada el 2 de noviembre con sede en Quito ? Ecuador, se ha constituido en el instrumento público regional llamado OLADE que coordina las actividades energéticas de los 25 países miembros y desarrollar programas de acción a corto, mediano y largo plazo,

El autor de esta ponencia, recoge los trabajos de esta organización y los hace trascendentes en coincidencia con sus propias inquietudes y experiencias. De entre ellos, destacan los relacionados con las posibilidades hidroeléctricas y que las hace prioritarias. Esto, en atención al hecho de estar subutilizadas por contribuir tan sólo en un 15 por ciento al consumo energético no obstante representar más de un 70 por ciento de los recursos energéticos de la región.

Las cuencas geográficas en Latinoamérica, con recursos hídricos de variada magnitud y a los mismos niveles del mundo, ofrecen una gama de explotación y consiguiente con respecto a la solución del problema, fomentando desde luego de los conocimientos que se

én de todas las rainas de i

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a

CENEALES HIDROELECTRICAS. ALTERNATIVA ENERGETICA PRIORITARIA

PARA LATINOAMERICA

Es evidente la crisis eneapética que se hace presente en el Mundo. Ella esti definida por dos sspectos contradictorios y muy distanciados .ene si. Por un lado las naciones desarrolladas {que se desenruclven en un contexto de derroche enéigético con voras agotamiento de recursos primordialmente hidrocarburiferos con la secuela de ?contaminación ambiental en el agoa, Sierra y aire, Una succion desenfrenads de los recurron de paises subdesarrolados » quienes xe Jes impone los bajos precios de compra y 2 quienes 1c les impone los altos precios de venea de los articulos industrializados, le mayor parte de los cules no les hace falta para su bienestar sino mis bien para la savsfaccibn de un deformado starus de superacin en base a alienances mbtodos propagandisticos que abientan al consumism. La disciplina del derroche infamante

para la humanidad es la una cara de la moneda cuya cara opuesta es la disciplina de la austeridad eradicada en intemperie y hambre.

La técnica que diseñemos para el bienestar de la humanidad no debe ser fría y egoísta que sólo pueda medirse en cuantificación económica independiente del beneficio social que puede generar. Ella debe ayudar a reestablecer el equilibrio justo en los recursos naturales, en su explotación, consumo, y distribución. Sólo así, la Ingeniería podrá ser verdadera y no sólo apomeiarse al bienestar humano. Podría ayudar a reestablecer la armonía ambiental de este planeta respetando su ecología. Podría hacer un hábitat racional para el hombre sin encadenarlo a una presión de asfixiante marcha,

Si la distribución de recursos, es rorslmente injusta comparando los países desarrollados con los subdesarrollados o más comedidamente llamados en vías de desarrollo, más grave aún en las fronteras adentro de estos propios países llamados también del tercer mundo. El "per edpi-1a de suyo bajo es un simple cociente que no trasluce el promedio realizado entre las rentas de opotencia con las rentas de miseria. El drama encuentra su expresión en el éxodo rural cada vez creciente, hacia las ciudades. El abandono del campo dejando indefensa la tierra a la

crisis de haber sido desprovista de su equilibrio ecológico

sp a

El hacinamiento en las ciudades transformadas de la noche a la mañana en macrociudades
acostumbradas de miseria, promiscuidad y desesperación, son estas, incluidas consideraciones
socioeconómicas como premisa a las soluciones técnicas científicas y entre ellas la racionalización

energética, diversificación y distribución energética

Latinoamérica, ha tomado conciencia de esto y ha dado origen a la formación de la Organización
Latinoamericana de Energía (OLADE).

Fue creada el 2 de noviembre de 1973, en el comercio de Lima y que vino a ser aprobada
y puesta en vigor desde el 18 de diciembre de 1974

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Los miembros de la OLADE son 25, 22 saber: Barbados, Bolivia, Brasil, Colombia,
Costa Rica, Cuba, Chile, Ecuador, El Salvador, Grenada, Guatemala, Guyana, Haití, Hon

duras Jaimaica, México, Nicaragua, Panamá, Paraguay, Perú, República Dominicana, Surinam, Trinidad y Tobago, Uruguay y Venezuela

La Sede se encuentra en la ciudad de Quito, República del Ecuador. Los principales idiomas oficiales son: Castellano, Inglés, Portugués y Francés.

La OLADE es una entidad pública internacional de cooperación, coordinación y asesoría que tiene como propósito fundamental la integración, protección, conservación, aprovechamiento racional, comercialización y defensa de los recursos energéticos de la región.

Los principales objetivos y funciones son:

1. Promover la solidaridad de acciones entre los Países Miembros para aprovechar y defender los recursos naturales de sus respectivos países y de la región en su conjunto, utilizando en la forma en que cada uno lo estime más apropiado a sus intereses nacionales

2. Propiciar un desarrollo independiente de los recursos y capacidades energéticos de los países miembros.

3. Promover una política efectiva y racional para la exploración, explotación, mane:

formación y comercialización de los recursos energéticos

4. ? Preservar los recursos energéticos de la Región, mediante su racional utilización.

5 Propiciar la adecuada preservación de los recursos energéticos de la región mediante racional utilización.

6. ? Promover la creación de un organismo financiero para la realización de proyectos energéticos y proyectos relacionados con la energía de la Región.

7. ~ Estimular la ejecución de proyectos energéticos de interés común,

8 Promover la industrialización de recursos energéticos y expansión de industrias {que permitan la producción de energía

~ impulsar el desarrollo de políticas energéticas como factor de integración regional,

10.- Promover la creación de un mercado latinoamericano de energía fomentado por políticas de precios que permitan una mejor participación de todos los países miembros,

M1.- Conducirse negociaciones directas entre los países miembros, para asegurar el suministro

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3

mmistro esable y suficiente de la energia neccsare pars mi desarrollo y difusion de teenologias, en las actividades relacionadas con la enesgia

14. Propiciar las formas que permisan asopucar y faciliar a lor paises mediterrineos del rea, en situaciones no reguladas por tratzdod y convenios, e! libre trinsico y uso de Tos diferentes medios de wansporte de recursos exergéticos asi como de las facilidades conexas, a través de los terrtorios de los Paises Miembros

15.?Impulsar ls adopcibn de medidas para impedir la coutaminacion ambiental

FUENTES DE ENERGIA,

BIOMASA,

Aprovecha del sembrado y cultivo de vannedades de rapido crecimiento para uso como combustible. i bien. no requiere dificil tcenologia, no obstante es de esperarse una optimiza ion de su desarrollo, La biomasa, producto de éulcivo o de gencración expontinea, ha venido siendo vtalizada desde que el hombre descubrid e! fvege. Es una alter vale bs pena admitir que la biomasa de generacion espontinea, ha venido reduciéadose en for.

una situación alarmante con una grave alteración ecológica como resultado. La biomasa producto de cultivo, trae el inconveniente de la imitación de plagas agronómicas, podrían no solo evitar, sino a la vez que aprovechar la biomasa para generar

energía inagotable, Pero

4c Las áreas con destino alimentario, aunque tienen

una gran capacidad de generación de energía, utilízala también, con sentido renovable, como un apoyo en sus formas, cortinas de protección al viento, cordones de infiltración pluvial. regulación hidrotopográfica y construcción de terrazas antierosivas. Los digestores de materia orgánica, incluye excrementos,

capaces de generar gas metano de conversión en diferente tipo de energía: eléctrica

térmica, etc. viene resultando una interesante alternativa, en limitadas circunstancias, En este tipo, entrarían también el alcohol resultante de la destilación de fermentos líquidos entre los que se destacan la caña de azúcar. Viene resultando sino un sustituto, en cambio un elemento, de apoyo para combustibles petrolíferos. Brasil que ha debido sufrir elevadas pérdidas por la imposición de petróleo, al no ser autosuficiente en su producción, da un buen ejemplo de ello al haber producido su gasolina con un alíquotado mayor al 10% en la gasolina pura, No obstante esto representa grandes inconvenientes: por un lado, está obligado a aumentar los motores de explosión de los vehículos, y otros aspectos que el parque automotor particular, y, congestionando y contaminando las ciudades, con un

no colectivo, esta sobre dimensión

negativo saldo de resultados socioeconómicos, Por otra parte, el cultivo de la caña de azúcar,
1 9 un gran factor para solucionar los requerimientos alimentarios del hombre y los animales,

Fes, por el azúcar y la melaza que produce, tiene además una desventaja que es el alcoholismo,
de! alcoholismo, cual es el caso de inversión en transporte a granel que se haga a
expensas de las de inversión en fertilización, Justamente, en Brasil se cultiva un ejemplo de

que se quiere poner en evidencia la reducción de los productos A cultivos de productos a

tierras, para dedicarlas a la caña de azúcar. La intensidad de la explotación de las tierras de

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Para el autoconsumo, para dedicarlas al monocultivo de caña, ha producido ya, especialmente
en el campo brasileño, escenas de angustia y miseria.

SOLAR

El sol, generando desde hace millones de años, ingentes cantidades de energía hacia la Tierra, podemos decir, es el origen de todas las otras fuentes de energía.

La energía solar está siendo captada con éxito para su transformación en energía mediante células fotovoltaicas, de manera especial para alimentar delicados instrumentos de circuitos integrados. Aquí están sus aplicaciones casi insustituibles en los aparatos de sondeo espacial. Actualmente se aplica incluso en aparatos de escritorio que van desde los simples domos con un botillo hasta computadoras. Los hornos solares son ya un sistema difundido para la calefacción. Como aplicaciones tenemos la desalinización del agua con sus múltiples beneficios de carácter doméstico, agrícola industrial a generación eléctrica, etc.

EOLICA

El viento es para muchos casos, una alternativa económica para el bombeo y desplazamiento de líquidos, sus aplicaciones históricas, encuentran en el viento que hinchaba las velas de los navíos, su factor determinante.

GEOTERMAL

Telia, es quiad ep

grotcrmales para captarlas y mover turbinas gencradoras de clecricidad. El hecho de scr um
ais voleinco le da esa oportunidad como una pequets compensacion alos desastres afsmicor,
?Ansériea, que tiene en sus entrafas gran parte del eirulo o anilo de fuego, podria utilizar ests
cnergia, Las tdenicas de extraccion no han aleanzado aim el desarrollo que puede experate.

(que mis adelantado esti en el aprovechamiento de las fuentes

MAREMOTRIZ,

Las grandes masas de agua en su oleaje de vaivén pueden yenetar fuerza mows tradu
cible en cleetricidad. Francia es quird el pa
una Facnte hidrocdiica,

{que mejor ha aprovechado de ésto. Viene a ser

ATOMICA

Los grandes adelantos científicos en casi todos los órdenes fueron incontrolados por el

econ hu

Hes

vdewo Movado a fa prictics, de des

mediante ly verra, Este exe orien de las

Cemtriles simicas 0 Resctores much

una gran eoperanva de salaciim a la erie

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energética aunque ahora, tiene y con rarán muchos detractores que ven en ella un peligro

ecológico y una amenaza de la más peligrosa contaminación ambiental. Los basureros atómi-

08, son al momento, el gran problema de los desechos. Como quiera que sea, hoy existen

grandes centrales generadoras de electricidad. La energía atómica, propulsa transportes navieros con efectividad espectacular, tal el caso de los submarinos nucleares. Hay que admitir que la espectacularidad es tanto más grande, cuanto que estamos en los albores de su aplicación.

HIDROCARBURÍFERA

Tiene su expresión en el carbón, petróleo y gas.

El carbón hizo la prosperidad y determinó la hegemonía de grandes países como Ale.

Francia, EE. UU. Su importancia, fue desplazada con rapidez, con el surgimiento del

petróleo, A su gran poder energético habría que añadir su fácil manejo y transporte, la enorme capacidad de almacenamiento. En resumen su utilización con el más óptimo rendimiento

fama de sus derivados, su comercialización.

¿Por qué? Pero esto justamente, determinó la embriaguez de petróleo asumida por los países industrializados y su consiguiente derroche energético, cuya posesión, los transformó en amos del mundo, El surgimiento de las transnacionales que se erigieron en entes más poderosos que

las naciones dominantes y dominadas a x3) punto que sus gobiernos resultaron inermes a sus designios, fue el comienzo del drama cuyo epíteto esa fragilidad económica de un poder cimentado en el abuso. Es fácil comprobar este aserto cuando se piensa que por el barril de petróleo en 1970, se pagaba \$ 2,00 (USA) para llegar en 1930 hasta \$ 40.00, y estar en esta fecha, 1982 a \$ 52.00. Pero dentro de este juego de cifras, hay que reparar, que hace decenas de años. el

bani en el mejor de los casos para los países subdesarrollados, estaba a centavos de dólar, no siendo raro, hace 50 años que países como Ecuador y Perú, vieron desaparecer el petróleo de que

de evanescerse ahora, solo legítimamente = poco: difícilmente se produce rentable. Dato interesante, es saber que las otras fuentes de energía, se pondrían en términos de competencia económica con el petróleo sólo si éste subiera de \$60.00 el barril. Estamos hablando en 194

tuna de las corrientes de la OPEP (Organización de Países exportadores de petróleo), es no subir el precio del barril, pese al agotamiento de las reservas y al estímulo por inflación, para no incentivar la búsqueda de otras fuentes de energía:

especialmente de aquellos que como Arabia Saudita,

sements en el petróleo, May críticos disímiles sobre «! pronóstico de esta fuente de energía, pero el más generalizado es el que admite el rápido consumo de los reservas, a tal punto que patero típico, 20 años, pasarían a agotarse

las costas del Pacífico, sin haberse enterado de su magnitud y apenas recibiendo regal

¿que deprimirían la economía de los países petro-

exportadores como Ecuador y aun Venezuela

res Va suceder con Colombia, Datos estos increíbles para países que te la cante eae

¿que hemos comenzado a desmantelarlos

El gas, antes subsidiado y aun desperdiciado con el procedimiento de gomas este

Práctico primario en la explotación del petróleo y sus derivados, Baste decir de eso

gasoductos en proceso, entre los que desta

UU. de Bolivia a Argentina Cuambos goso tucson my soa por they eficantes pose el

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transporte y consumo, se procede a su embotellamiento,

IDRAULICA

La generacion de energis hidratlica se base en dos factores de wabajo: fuerea por di
tancia. Si este wajo lo referimos 2 la unidad de siempo, tenemos el concepto de potencia ex-
Presable en HP o en KW si se traduce a energia eléccrica. La masa liquids con x4 peso, consti
tye el factor fuerza: mientras que el desmivel 0 caida constiruye el factor distancia En Lat.
roaméries, tenemos la mis generasa provision en el mundo de estos dos Factores. sso eldte.
ita hidrogrifico del Amazonas constiruye el 25 o/o de los recursos hidrailicos ain no contami:
?nadeos del mando, Los Andes, sblo son superados por los Himalayas en altura De la gran eade
ra andins, nacen y discurren los ros hacia las diversas cuencas de toda magnitud. Estos gene-
ros0s recutios,estin subutiizados aportando como mivimo un 15 of del consumo energético

no obstante representar más de un 70% de los recursos convencionales de la región, Estadísticas, son deducidas de los informes de OLADE, como resultado de los balances energéticos realizados en los diversos países. No obstante, estamos lejos de tener un verdadero inventario.

Es prioritaria esta alternativa energética por muchas razones

L. = Por la abundancia de estos recursos.

2. Por la claridad de su utilización variando la magnitud de los factores según la ubicación de las Centrales,

J. Por su condición de renovable y no contaminante

4? por los beneficios colaterales de riego, uso doméstico, regulación sanitaria y transporte navegable

Por el estímulo a la conservación e incremento de la masa vegetal que opera como es-

«Ponja reguladora de las entregas hidroeléctricas» a cuenca dando como resultado de balan-

ce, a defensa ecológica. Decimos «de balance?», porque estamos conscientes de que la

presencia de las Centrales pueden y de hecho lo tienen un impacto ecológico negativo,

que desde luego no solo se compensa sino que se minimiza por la otra consideración.

Por la gama de magnitudes de las centrales a obtener según disponibilidad de recursos y demandas, .

Por relativamente fácil transmisión y aplicación de la energía obtenida,

Por el ahorro de divisas al sustituir los recursos energéticos importados,

Por el ejemplo repr

tos institutos técnicos educativos, constituyendo un práctico Laboratorio de capaci

ntativos de insets

9 y mejora de conocimientos provenientes de

IBM 3 todos los niveles

10.~Por la mano de obra y materiales necesarios demandados para su construcción con su

efecto económico multiplicador y su impacto al nivel de los países en desarrollo

Es un recurso energético

o p

simultáneamente de los países

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En América Latina, actualmente hay la tendencia sin excepción de países, a formar

grandes concentraciones urbanas con abandono del campo carente de los más elementales servicios de energía y sanitarios. Aun así, la población se encuentra hoy día dispersa y localizada en pequeños núcleos rurales que en término medio significan el 50% del total con una tendencia a disminuir rápidamente por las actuales circunstancias. Es tan cierto eso, cuanto que el crecimiento de la población rural, a nivel de región, oscila alrededor del 1%/año. La diferencia de porcentajes encuentra su explicación en que el uno es mayor que el otro. Para la política energética que nos proponemos sugerir, es también valioso el dato de que el grado de dispersión de la población rural es el del 75%, lo que hace difícil la incorporación de todos los pequeños sectores rurales, a los sistemas de electrificación nacionales.

Estos pequeños sectores rurales, viven en general del autoconsumo con un mínimo acceso al circulante monetario, en base a la artesanía. Desde luego que esto, contrariamente a lo sostenido por algunos teóricos parciales de la Economía, es una circunstancia más aceptable que transformarlos en un simple mercado de consumo o en mano de obra de falsas industrias.

ESTADÍSTICAS ENERGÉTICAS EN LATINOAMÉRICA

Si nos referimos a los estudios hechos por la Fundación Bariloche. Rep. Argentina. on

Enero de 1979, tenemos:

Las reservas energéticas totales de América Latina constituyen el 6% de la mundial, y 54% como representa el 4,5%.

En relación con el comercio internacional de energía, América Latina participa en el 11,5% de las exportaciones y en el 8,8% de las importaciones. El pequeño porcentaje del 2,7% a favor de las exportaciones se explica por los países con antecedentes de petróleo para la exportación y que a la fecha son: Venezuela, Ecuador, Trinidad y Tobago y Perú.

Los niveles de consumo de energía primaria de origen comercial por habitante, representan un 22% de los valores medios europeos. Este indicador está deformado negativamente, si se considera que el resto del mundo participa de él en forma muy disminuida,

Para América Latina, los hidrocarburos aportan en términos relativos el 80% de la producción de energía y el 65% del consumo, lo que muestra que sus ventajas en esta faceta son desde el 20%

Los recursos hidroclíctricos están sobervaluados en México con el 13%
del consumo energético y el 10% de la inversión en energía eléctrica
1170 millones de dólares de los recursos energéticos de la región. Li aprecia que se OPADE en base

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¿una metodología para la elaboración de balances energéticos acogida y realizada por los países
miembros.

En los datos estadísticos, desde luego, no podemos tomarlos como cifras exactas in-
formales, sea por la cambiante realidad, sea por la forma como han sido realizadas implicando
desviaciones difíciles de desentrañar; pero, no podemos subestimarlas en cuanto nos dan una
visión panorámica de lo que está aconteciendo en nuestra región en el orden energético,

POLITICA DE IMPLEMENTACION HIDROELECTRICA

+ Es indudable que el montaje de las grandes centrales hidroeléctricas, tienen la capacidad
de modificar el panorama energético de los países latinoamericanos, multiplicando su potencial
de forma espectacular. La prueba más contundente de lo aseverado es el caso del Paraguay, que
de poseedor de una incipiente energía adquirida en buena parte en base a importaciones de
petróleo con gran sacrificio de su economía, pasará a ser el más rico en términos de energía
al compartir con el Brasil la represa Itaipu, la más grande del mundo, que generará 1.600.000
KW. Esto, sin contar con los nuevos y grandiosos proyectos como los de Yacyreté y Corpus

4 compartir con Argentina, Ecuador, país petrolero, miembro de la OPEP que en 20 años agotadas sus reservas petrolíferas de no descubrirse nuevas fuentes, tiene una política de compensación de este recurso percible y de ampliación de su base energética, mediante el montaje de centrales hidroeléctricas. La Represa Daniel Palacios, en el Paute, río eiburario de] Amazonas con nacimiento en los Andes, generará en su primera etapa 1.000.000 KW y- mis que duplicará la incipiente actual potencia energética del país

a de los países Latinos.

americano, cual es el de la captación y utilización de sus cuantiosos recursos hídricos, Pero planteamos una pregunta: los pequeños poblados rurales tendrán fácil acceso al producto de las grandes centrales hidroeléctricas? La respuesta es simplemente no, Todos estos pequeños y dispersos poblados, muchos de ellos carecen del más elemental camino viable. Llevar una línea de derivación desde las grandes centrales es problemático; peor pensar en un sistema, interconectado. Los grandes conglomerados urbanos con sus exigencias industriales y domésticas

it. El servicio a los pequeños y dispersos poblados

no es solución económica drenando a las grandes centrales, Entonces cabe pensar en la implementación de pequeñas centrales hidroeléctricas que, si bien no merecerían la atención estatal en su manejo administrativo, si podrían ser explotadas por este y liberadas a la administración

Así podríamos dar ejemplos de acierto en política energética

28 absorberían todo y al fin acusarían de

CONCLUSIONES

En forma integral, desde los pequeños recursos hi
rrdusos como Tor de YFAUPU y los

ome Tos de 19

mayors que és, come los de | secticate annardnies,

a epuesto, débese aproved

aces de gencrar dasde Tos 50 KW he sa lus g

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OLADE, ha propuesto y creemos acertado, una política de reducidas centrales hidroeléctricas para este tipo de servicios, clasificándolas según potencias y salios de esta manera:

TIPOS DECENTRALES POTENCIA SALTO ETM,
HIDROELECTRICAS EN KW BAJO MEDIO. -ELEVADO

MICRO Hasta 50 Menos 15-50 Mis

de 15 de 50

MINI 50-500 Menos 20-100 Mis

de 20 de 100

PEQUEÑAS 500-5.000 Menos 25-130 Mis

de 25, de 130

Esto sería un gran solución para estos pequeños y abandonados poblados que verían en este recurso el apoyo para su permanencia en su suelo accediendo así a la comodidad doméstica, al apoyo a la agroindustria y refuerzo a la artesanía.

Con este sistema, el horizonte energético en Latinoamérica se ampliaría mucho más allá de lo previsto en estadísticas, contribuyendo así a solucionar, por lo menos a atenuar grandemente el problema socioeconómico que la afecta.

Contribuyendo así a solucionar, por lo menos a atenuar grandemente el problema socioeconómico que la afecta.

Esto, de ninguna manera constituye un pronunciamiento para que no sigan desarrollándose, las Centrales hidroeléctricas de mayor magnitud, sino más bien en apoyo a ellas para que sus recursos sean mejor racionalizados,

Creemos así, haber demostrado que a Latinoamérica le conviene prioritariamente aprovechar sus recursos hidrotopográficos para generar electricidad, mediante el montaje de centrales que abarquen desde 50 KW hasta las más grandes del mundo,

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de Tague

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1982

?Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

FEASIBILITY ANALYSIS OF A DISTILLATION COLUMN
COLUMN WITH VAPOR RECOMPRESSION

By

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San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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neSTRACT

The conventional distillation system owes its existence to its simplicity=

Ly; low investment and inexpensive energy. Inexpensive energy is something

that belongs to the past, Therefore, vapor recompression has indeed become more attractive despite the more complex flow arrangements

In this research, a steady state model was developed to study the effect of different variables on the feasibility of heat pump installations. As expected, the heat pump system favored the close boiling mixture against the wide boiling mixture. A relationship between the savings and the thermodynamic availability of the mixture was devised. The savings were also found to be very sensitive to the relative cost of steam and electricity. A possible way of predicting the pressure effect on the heat pump feasibility based on the Antoine equation for the vapor pressure of the key components was also devised.

Vapor recompression is a feasible way of economizing energy on a distillation unit. The outlook for the use of the heat pump concept has now induced process engineers to consider its applications.

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INTRODUCTION

Most of the interest and attention in recent studies is being devoted to energy conservation. During the past decade the price of oil has increased

considerably. Two reasons for the sharp increase in the price of oil were: the Arab embargo in 1973, and the Iran crisis in 1979, which made the U.S. to look for alternate sources of energy and for energy conservation. Consequently, distillation became a focal point of many studies because:

1, Distillation is the most widely used unit operation for separating

components in a mixture.

2, Distillation is a heavy consumer of energy.

To have an idea of how much energy is consumed in a distillation process in 1976 the U.S. distillation energy consumption was estimated to be nearly 3% of the entire national energy consumption, about 10% of the energy used in distillation is saved, energy consumption could be reduced by nearly 100,000 Btu/day of oil which represents about 0.75% of the entire national production (Fox, Buckley and Weinberg, 1978). This is one of the reasons distillation has been the subject of continuous research, Figure 1 shows a typical distillation column,

The purpose of this work was to investigate the feasibility, dynamics, and control of a distillation column when it is integrated for energy conservation with special interest on heat pump installations.

Basically, energy integration is divided in two major categories: multiple effect systems and vapor recompression, Figure 2 shows an example of a multiple effect system applied to a distillation column. The multiple effect distillation is analogous to the multiple effect evaporation. The multiple effect system presented in Figure 2 is called the single source, single load system (Buckley, 1978), The source column is the one that supplies the energy to the system, The load column is the one that removes the heat from the system. In this scheme the bottom stream of the source column is the feed stream to the load column. The top stream of the source column serves to drive the reboiler of the load column, There are a wide variety of multiple effect arrangements besides the one described above.

Figure 3 shows an example of a vapor recompression system also applied to a distillation column, The system is commonly referred to as a heat pump system. This is the most simple heat pump arrangement, It uses an external refrigerant for heating and cooling, The column condenser is cooled with evaporating refrigerant at relatively low pressure and the column reboiler is heated with condensing refrigerant at relatively high pressure, This system is highly recommended when the column fluid is highly corrosive and it cannot be used as a working fluid, :

Another type of heat pump system is shown in Figure 4. This is a heat pump system with reboiler liquid flashing. In this system, the reboiler is eliminated by flashing the reboiler liquid across an expansion valve. This arrangement eliminates the use of a reboiler.

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Figure 5 shows another example of a heat pump system. This is a heat pump system with compression of overhead vapor. This scheme is appropriate when the column fluid is itself a fairly good refrigerant and it is not highly corrosive. This particular scheme eliminates the use of the overhead condenser. The vapor from the top of the column is compressed in order to drive the reboiler of the same column. A trim cooler is normally used to remove the excess energy developed in the system. This heat pump arrangement is the one being studied throughout this research.

The heat pump principle involves the use of a compressor to recycle the latent heat in the vapor from the top of the tower at conditions suitable enough to drive the reboiler at the bottom of the tower. Some of the key variables in analyzing a heat pump installation on a distillation column include the pressure difference between the top and the bottom of the tower,

the absolute pressure level of the tower, which affects both the relative volatility and the compression ratio, the temperature difference in the reboiler vs the horse power to provide it, and the size of the duty involved,

There are several factors that must be considered regardless of the scheme under study. These are:

1, Reserve capacities which may be required

Extra heating capacity

Extra cooling capacity

Extra process equipment capacity

Interactions--elaborated heat recovery schemes are often highly interactive.

Overall material balance--How to maintain it?

Overall heat balance--How to maintain it?

Economics--Is it feasible?

One of the most relevant work done in this area, is the work done by Quagri (1981). He wrote two papers dealing with process design and process optimization of a heat pump installation with particular reference to Propylene-propene splitters. In part 1 he discussed alternative process Schemes and a computer oriented calculation method for the design optimization of heat pump splitters. The computer calculation method was so general enough to be applicable to rectification cases other than propylene-propane.

The design optimization was performed case by case. In part 2, the results of the optimization obtained by applying the calculation method to an industrial Propylene-propane splitter were illustrated and the instrument control systems were discussed based on data and experience from the design and early operation of a similar unit by the author. Finally, the economics of the heat pump rectification was compared against alternative systems.

The work done by Null (1976) included the study of some of the variables that affect the heat pump installations of distillation columns. In his work he studied different overhead condensation temperatures, different reboiler temperatures, the temperature driving force for heat transfer and different cooling media. His work involved an economic evaluation by comparing the available capital resulting from utility savings with that required to install a heat pump system. The definition of available capital depends on the type of installation, and on the utilities capital allocation policy of the company. According to Hull, in a new installation, where neither a heat pump

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If nor a conventional design has been previously selected, the available capital is to be applied to the difference between the cost of the heat exchangers for

?the heat pump system plus the compressor and the heat exchangers for the conventional column. In a replacement situation, the conventional column has already been built, Therefore, the available capital is applied toward the total cost of the exchangers and the compressor for the heat pump system, He described the methods used and the results obtained in a study conducted to develop guidelines to conditions under which heat pump systems might be economical substitute for conventional distillation processes, He concluded that heat pumps have extensive applicability to distillation specially in new process design. The range of applications is diminished in replacement situations.

Additional work was done by Danziger (1979). His work dealt primarily with vapor recompression as applied to a pilot plant distillation column. He performed an energy and economic analysis for both the conventional and the heat integrated column as applied to pilot plants, He was able to come up with savings of over 80% for a system of cis/trans decalin,

This research program which was initiated by this work was not an exhaustive study on heat pump installations. The ultimate goal of this research program is the completion of a definitive study on heat integration systems for energy conservation, in order to evaluate its feasibility, operation and control problems. This study was considered the first step in a complete research program on heat integration on distillation columns, laying the groundwork for future studies.

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EFFECT OF COLUMN VARIABLES ON HEAT PUMP INSTALLATIONS

As mentioned before among the most important variables that affect the heat pump installations are:

1. Pressure drop across the column
- 2) Absolute pressure of the tower
- 3: Approach temperature in the reboiler/condenser

The purpose in this part is to develop the necessary tools needed to perform the above mentioned Studies. Among the tool's needed are:

1. A design program to estimate number of trays, reflux ratio and feed tray location of a distillation column for a given separation based on shortcut calculation methods. A mechanical design of the column with the heat pump system is also needed.
2. A steady state distillation routine to perform distillation calculations.
3. A steady state routine for the heat pump system.

The purpose of the design program is to come up with a reasonable design of a distillation column based on shortcut methods

The steady state routine for the distillation column is based on the well known Thiele-Seddes method. This method is chosen because of its simplicity allowing more computer time for the heat pump system, and because our prime interest is to evaluate the heat pump installation and not to perform rigorous studies on distillation which are well known,

The steady state routine for the heat pump system models the compression of the vapor at the top of the column which is used to drive the reboiler of the column. In this process a considerable amount of energy in the reboiler can be saved, but a more expensive electrical energy is used in the compressor. Only economics dictate its feasibility. The economics of heat pump installations are discussed later on.

The location of the trim condenser was decided based on economic considerations. Preliminary economic calculations said that it is more economical to have the trim condenser before the compressor rather than having it after the compressor (See Figure 6). The reason for this is that at higher pressure, for the same heat load, the temperature driving force is larger compared with that at lower pressure. This means that if the overall heat transfer coefficient does not change significantly the high pressure system requires a smaller heat exchanger than at a lower pressure. However, the capital savings obtained in the trim condenser by locating it after the compressor does not compensate for the extra energy consumption of having a higher flow. The

the compressor. For this reason, in this particular arrangement, it is more economical to have the trim condenser before the compressor rather than after the compressor. The trim condenser condensates part of the top vapor in order to close the overall energy balance.

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In order to make comparison studies, the product conditions of the column with heat pump should be the same as the product conditions of the conventional column. To accomplish this, the reflux rate was modified in such a way to keep column products the same as the base case column products. The base case conditions are shown in Tables 1 and 2. All comparisons are made based on these column conditions as reference points.

In this part of the research, two binary systems were tested: Benzene-Toluene and Methanol-Ethanol. These two binary mixtures were chosen because they behave fairly ideal and also because one mixture is a close boiling mixture while the other is a relatively wide boiling mixture. The boiling range for the Methanol-Ethanol mixture is about 14 K while for the Benzene-Toluene system, the boiling range is about 30 K. Scientists have claimed that heat pump installations are more suitable for close boiling mixtures than for wide boiling mixtures. Therefore it is expected to save more energy with the Methanol-Ethanol mixture than with the Benzene-Toluene mixture,

It was mentioned before that the electric cost is more expensive than the steam (689.5 KPA) cost per unit energy basis. In order to account for this fact, a cost factor was developed based on the cost of electricity and steam, This factor is the ratio between the electric cost and the steam Gost.? According to the literature (Peters and Tinmerheus, 1980), it was found that this ratio varies from 3.52 to 5,34 for self generated electric= ity and from 5.86 to 10.42 for purchased electricity. Only self generated electricity was considered in this research. The same aprosch followed for the self generated electricity alternative can be used when the purchased electricity alternative 1s consicered,

Savings were estimated in the following fashion:

$$4\% \text{ Savings} = (1 - (\text{Factor})^{-1}) * 100 \text{ a)}$$

where:

Ke = compressor work

Q > Reboiler load .

Factor * cost ratio of eleciricity to stcan

If this factor is greater than 0.4, then the heat pump system is not

economically feasible under the state conditions. A cost factor greater

than one means that the electrical energy costs more than steam energy.

Therefore, reducing the amount of savings. The higher this factor is the

more infeasible becomes the heat pump installation. This study did not con-

sider any capital cost needed to implement the heat pump installation. The

study considering capital cost associated with the implementation of the heat

pump system is discussed later on,

Loluan Press

The column pressure effect on the energy savings, column differential

temperature between the top and the bottom of the column, reboiler load and

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TABLE 1

BENZENE-TOLUENE COLUMN SPECIFICATIONS

FOR THE STEADY STATE MODEL

Number of Stages

Feed Tray Location

Feed Rate

Feed Rate Composition

Quality of Feed

Distillate Rate

Distillate Composition

Quality of Distillate

5

9

1000 g-moles/min.

50% Benzene, 50% Toluene

Saturated liquid

500 g-moles/min,

94.2% Benzene, 5.8% Toluene

Saturated liquid

Bottoms rate == 500 g-moles/min,

Bottoms Composition <2 5.82 Benzene, 94.2% Toluene

External Reflux Ratio = 12

Top Pressure == 101.3 KPA (1 atm)

Pressure Drop per Tray a)

Steam Pressure => 689.5 KPA (100 psig)

Cooling Water Inlet

Temperature ~ 299.8 K (80 F)

Cooling Water Temperature

Rise n+ 22.2 K (40 F)

Polytropic Efficiency of 78%

Approach Temperature on

Reboiler/Condenser -- 5.0K (9 F)

TABLE 2

METHANOL-ETHANOL COLUMN SPECIFICATIONS

FOR THE STEADY STATE MODEL

Number of Stages 15

Feed Tray Location 9

Feed Rate = 1000 g-moles/min,

Feed Rate Composition =

Quality of Feed -

Distillate Rate == 100 g-moles/min.

Distillate Composition == 98,72 Methanol, 5.

Quality of Distillate 2 Saturated Liquid

Bottoms Rate 22 500. g-moles/min,

= 5.38 Methanol, 94.2% Ethanol

= 4.5

102.3 KPA (1 atm)

Bottoms Composition

External Reflux Ratio

Top Pressure

Pressure Drop per Tray

Steam Pressure

Cooling Water Inlet

689.5 KPA (100 psig)

Temperature --299,8 K (80 F)

Cooling Water Temperature

Rise + 22,0 K (40 F)

Polytrope Efficiency aera

Approach Teperature on

Rebotler/Condenser -- 5.00 (98)

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the compressor work were studied for both mixtures. In order to keep product specifications the same as the base case, the reflux rate was adjusted as the column pressure was increased,

Figure 7a shows the effect in the energy savings when the column pressure was increased from 101.3 KPA (1 atm) to 506.5 KPA (5 atn) for the system Benzene-Toluene. Curve No. 1 represents the savings when a factor of 1 1s used. Curve No. 2 represents the savings when the lower limit cost factor of 3.92 was applied. Curve No. 3 represents the savings when the upper limit

cost factor of 5.34 was applied.

As noticed, savings of over 80% can be achieved by implementing a heat pump system. Once the cost factor is applied, the savings drop drastically but they are still in the feasible region. Cooling water savings were considered negligible compared to the savings in steam. In the case where a refrigerant is used as a cooling media, the savings in cooling can become significant.

The Benzene-Toluene system appears to favor a lower operating pressure as shown on Figure 7a. On the other hand, Methanol-Ethanol system appears to favor a higher operating pressure as shown on Figure 7b. This is caused by the effect of the pressure on the saturation temperature of the components involved. For the Benzene-Toluene system, the saturation temperature of Benzene and Toluene tends to get further apart as the pressure of the system is increased. On the other hand, for Methanol-Ethanol system, the saturation temperature of Methanol and Ethanol tends to get closer as the pressure of the system is increased. This effect can also be noticed on Figure 7c where the column differential temperature between the top and bottom of the column for the Benzene-Toluene system increases as the column pressure is increased, Figure 7d shows the opposite behavior for the Methanol-Ethanol system as the column pressure is increased. A theoretical explanation was derived to explain this behavior.

If the Antoine equation is re-arranged to solve for the saturation temperature, the following expression is obtained:

$$T_s = \frac{B_s}{A_s - \ln P_s} - C_s$$

where:

A_s, B_s, C_s = Antoine Equation Constants

P_s = saturation Pressure (mm hg)

T_s = Saturation Temperature (K)

Taking the difference between the saturation temperature of the two key components yields:

$$\Delta T = \frac{B_2}{A_2 - \ln P} - \frac{B_1}{A_1 - \ln P} - (C_2 - C_1)$$

where:

ΔT = Saturation temperature difference between the heavy component (2) and the light component (1) ($T_2 = T_1$)

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ΔC = Difference between the C constants ($C_2 = C_1$)

Differentiate equation 3 with respect to pressure and rearrange,

$$P \left(\frac{d \ln P}{d T} \right) = \frac{A_1 - T_1 \ln P_1}{A_2 - T_2 \ln P_2} \quad (a)$$

Therefore, substituting the Antoine constants in equation 4 gives you the slope of the Curve of saturation temperature difference vs pressure as a function of pressure. By using the above equations, it might be possible to predict beforehand the pressure effect on the heat pump feasibility for a particular binary system,

Tray pressure drop

The tray pressure drop effect on the energy savings were studied for both systems. Figure 8a shows the effect in the energy savings when the tray pressure drop is increased from 0 to 1.333 KPA (0,013 atm) for the Benzene-Toluene system, It shows that the energy savings decreases somewhat linearly when the tray pressure drop is increased. The same happens for the Methanol -Ethanol system as shown on Figure 8b, This means that heat pump systems are favored by low pressure drop trays. The reboiler load and the compressor work behaved the same way as in the column pressure studies.

Approach Temperature in Reboiler/Condenser

Figure 9a and 9b show the effect of the reboiler/condenser approach temperature to the Benzene-Toluene system and for the Methanol-Ethanol system respectively. This variable appears to be the one that has the largest effect on the energy savings than the one previously studied, In this study, the

approach temperature of the reboiler/condenser was increased from 5 K to 50 K.

The figures show that the energy savings dropped drastically as the approach temperature is increased. This is a result of having to increase the work in the compressor for the same reboiler load. A large temperature approach will require a small heat transfer area, but a large compressor capacity. Since the approach temperature is the variable having the largest effect on the heat pump economics, a complete economic analysis including capital investment is performed in the next part to find out the return on capital investment.

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ECONOMIC EVALUATION OF A DISTILLATION COLUMN WITH A HEAT PUMP INSTALLATION

No project is complete unless some kind of economic evaluation is made.

It was found in the previous chapter that of the variables studied the one having the largest effect on the heat pump system being studied was the approach temperature of the reboiler/condenser. Therefore, the purpose in this chapter is to come up with a more detailed economic evaluation of the

heat pump system when the approach temperature of the reboiler/condenser is increased,

To compare the cost of a column with a heat pump system against a conventional column, the amount of new capital needed to implement the heat pump system needs to be determined and compared against the savings in utility costs. The extra capital needed to implement the heat pump system is determined by the difference between the capital investment in a distillation column with heat pump and that in a conventional column. The net result is the capital needed to be invested in compression and heat transfer equipment for the heat pump installation. It was assumed that other design changes are negligible compared to the one previously mentioned,

A zero allocation credit in utilities capital was considered. This means that although credit for utilities not used can be claimed, the fact is that the utilities capital has already been spent and the heat pump installation will not reduce it. However, if this release of capacity in steam and cooling water is needed elsewhere in the plant, its allocation should be properly credited to the heat pump system,

Energy tax credit was not considered in this research, because of the different variations in which this credit is applied. However, if a project is feasible without the tax credit being considered, then it may become more feasible once the tax credit is applied. On the other hand, if a project is not

feasible considering @ zero tax credit, it may become feasible once the tax credit is applied.

According to Pavone and Patrick (1981) in order to qualify for the energy tax credit, capital projects must meet the criteria written into the Tax.

Eligible investments are limited to:

1. Alternative energy property, solar or wind energy
2. Specially defined energy property
3. Recycling equipment

42 Shale-oil producing equipment

The alternative energy property includes combustion equipment plus the auxiliary pollution control hardware necessary for firing fuels other than oil and gas or their derivatives. Facilities for producing geothermal energy, and certain hydroelectric generating equipment. .

Specially defined energy property refers to equipment used for increasing the energy efficiency of an existing facility such as waste heat boiler, economizers as well as heat pump systems, etc

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Recycling equipment is limited to facilities for sorting, preparing and recycling solid waste for conversion into energy.

Shale-oil producing equipment is defined to include production and extraction equipment but exclude equipment for downstream processing such as refining,

Most chemical-process industries investments are entitled to a standard 10% tax credit. Facilities satisfying the Energy Tax Act and Windfall Profit, Tax Act definitions (except for public utilities facilities) are entitled to an additional 10% credit or a total of 20%.

The economic evaluation was performed by doing a rate of return analysis.

Kurt's (1980) cost estimation and economic evaluation programs were used for this study. The compressor costs were obtained from Peters and Timmerhaus (1980). The feasibility was determined by the alternative having the largest rate of return, This analysis differs slightly from Null's (1976) analysis

where the rate of return was already fixed and the availability of capital was determined based on that,

In this evaluation, the steam and cooling water savings were considered our main products, with the power spent in the compressor as fixed operating costs. The difference in capital investment between the column with heat pump and the conventional column is the capital investment needed to implement the heat pump installation. Table 3 Shows a summary of the economic factors assumed.

Table 4 shows a summary of the heat transfer and compression requirements for the conventional column system. The cost of the column itself is not included in the economic evaluation because it is assumed to be the same for both the conventional case and the heat pump case. The reboiler is assumed to be a partial thermosyphon reboiler using steam of 689.5 KPA (100 psig). The condenser is assumed to be a total condenser using cooling water at 299.8 K (80 F) with a temperature rise of 22.2 K (40 F).

Tables 5a and Table 5b show a summary of the compression and heat transfer requirements for the heat pump installation under study for both binary systems. The heat transfer requirements for the reboiler/condenser decreases while the heat transfer requirements for the trim cooler increases as the reboiler/condenser approach temperature is increased for the Benzene-Toluene mixture. For the Methanol-Ethanol mixture, the heat transfer re-

requirements in the reboiler/condenser decreases, then after 15 K the reboiler/condenser heat transfer requirements is constant. On the other hand the compression requirements increases with the reboiler/condenser approach temperature for both mixture,

Table 62 and Gb show the saving: and costs incurred by implementing the heat pump installation for both systems. The total exchanger cost decreases and compressor cost increases when the approach temperature is, increased, The net savings in steam and cooling water decreases as approach temperature is increased, Electric cost increases with approach temperature.

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TABLE 3

ECONOMIC FACTORS ASSUMED

Cost Reference vate + January 1981

Cost of 689.5 KPA Steam

(100 psig steam)

Cost of Power

Cost of Cooling Water

Running Hours per Year

Depreciation Factor

(Straight Tine),

Salvage Value

\$0.007 J kw-hr

\$0,034 / kwehe

\$0,032 / metric ton

8000

10% of differential

capital investnent

10E of differential

capital investment.

50r

10%

Income Tax Rate

Inflation Rate

TABLE 4

CONVENTIONAL COLUMN HEAT TRANSFER REQUIREMENTS.

Reboiler Condenser Water | Steam

Area Area Required {Required

2

Ko/ne Ko/he

Methanol

Ethanol

n

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TABLE 5a

HEAT PUMP SYSTEM HEAT TRANSFER AREA AND COMPRESSION

REQUIREMENTS FOR BENZENE-TOLUENE SYSTEM

Reb/Cond,

?Area

Trim Cooter

?Area

2

Compressor

Power

we

wi watts

TABLE 5b

HEAT PUMP SYSTEM HEAT TRANSFER AREA AND COMPRESSION
REQUIREMENTS FOR METHANOL-ETHANOL SYSTEM

Reb. /Cond., Red/Cond. { | Trim Cooler { Compressor } Cooling

Appr. Temp. Area area} Power water

wi

2

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TABLE 6

HEAT PUMP SYSTEM SAVINGS AND COSTS
FOR BENZENE-TOLUENE SYSTEM

i tlectric | Compressor

i for. finch | cost | Costs Exchangers

{Temp Sten : Cost

i wet se Eg

1 \$48,930 \$17,890 \$186,230 \$81,030

f 2 f \$35;s10 518,560 \$188,730 \$66,220,

f 3 f \$361880 \$19,230 sistj3s0 fg

\$4 f S36te60 \$19,910 gissjzca tg

5 f \$36,830 | \$20,590, \$196,500} \$45/630,

30} \$36,710 ©} seafofo?F \$209}600 «= | \$23,420

1S \$36,890 | \$27,520 f Sazztaza =} \$8230

2 ft \$36,460 § \$his0} \$236,760 =} 5281370

TABLE 6

HEAT PUMP SYSTEM SAVINGS AND COSTS

FOR HETHANOL-ETHANOL SYSTEM:

Savings Electric | Compressor Heat pump.

in ch Cost £ ?costs Exchangers.

Steam : Cost

K sive sive i s \$

1 \$115,210, \$25,970} \$216,550 0

i 2 \$115,240 \$27,850 f \$2241070 \$58,950

3 \$115,060 S2sieso?} S231;640 io |

ia \$14,960 | gaijeto | \$239/220

ios s1910 | 240 \$246,820 :

1 10 \$114,550 1030 \$285,530 \$39,240.

15 \$113,170 \$324,240 \$38,610

2 \$113,790 | \$362,950 \$40,160

3

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Table 7 shows the heat pump economic evaluation summary for both binary systems. The internal rate of return is tabulated against the reboiler/

Condenser approach temperature. The optimum region was found to lie at

lower reboiler/condenser approach temperatures for both mixtures. For the

Methanol-Ethanol system a 13.9% rate of return is obtained for an approach

temperature of 1K. The rate of return decreases as the approach temperature

is increased in both systems. This is because the increase in compressor

costs are more significant than the decrease in heat transfer costs. Also

the electric costs increase more than the savings in steam and cooling water,

In summary, the heat pump feasibility strongly depends on the thermo-

dynamic availability of the mixture and on the relative cost between steam

and electricity. The overall temperature driving force that the compressor has to overcome is a combination of the saturation temperature difference between the key components, the temperature difference caused by the pressure drop on the trays and the approach temperature on the reboiler/condenser. As expected, the heat pump installation favored the closed boiling mixture against the wide boiling mixture.

TABLE 7

HEAT PUMP ECONOMIC EVALUATION

Benzene-Toluene Methanol -Ethanol

i -Reb/cond => Internat Reb/cons | Internal

{Approach | Rate of Approach | Rate of

Temp. => Return Temp. = | Return

$x_i + K_i F_i$

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3 £12160 :

4 f illee i

5 £ 10:99 i

10 i 6.70

15 i 2126

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SUMMARY

The primary purpose of this research was to investigate the feasibility, dynamics and control of distillation columns with heat pump installations, A steady state model of a distillation column with 2 heat pump was developed to study the economic feasibility of heat pumps in distillation columns, This model was used to study the effect of different variables to the heat pump feasibility. The effect of column pressure, tray pressure drop, and reboiler/Condenser approach temperature to heat pump installations was investigated, It was found that the heat pump feasibility strongly depends on the thermodynamic availability of the mixture end on the relative cost between steam and electricity. The overall temperature driving force that the compressor has to overcome was found to be @ combination of the saturation temperature difference between the key components, the temperature difference caused by the pressure drop on the trays and the approach temperature on the reboiler/condenser.

A possible way of predicting the pressure effect on the heat pump feasibility was also devised based on the Antoine equation for vapor pressure. Therefore, the pressure effect on heat pump installations can be predicted beforehand by using the Antoine constants without having to do rigorous

calculations.

It was found that of the variables studied, the reboiler/condenser approach temperature was the one that have the largest effect on heat pump installations feasibility. This is because the increase in compressor cost are more significant than the decrease in the heat transfer requirements. Also, electric costs increases more than the savings in steam and cooling water, As expected, the heat pump installations favored the closed boiling mixture against the wide boiling mixture. Therefore, for very difficult separations where a considerable amount of energy is used in the reboiler, the heat pump concept might be @ feasible way of reducing the energy consumption considerably.

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BENZENE-TOLUENE STSTEX

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METHANOL-ETHANOL SYSTEM

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HYDRO AND GEOTHERMAL ELECTRICITY AS AN ALTERNATIVE FOR
INDUSTRIAL PETROLEUM CONSUMPTION IN COSTA RICA

by

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August 1982

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ABSTRACT

This paper reports the results of an assessment of the potential for substitution of electricity for petroleum in the industrial/agro-industrial sector of Costa Rica.

After a preliminary estimate of the industrial process energy needs and a survey of the principal petroleum con-

the paper assesses the electrical technologies appropriate for substitution and their economic competitiveness against petroleum fired

The electric technologies include industrial electric boilers, hot water generators, electric heaters, electric heat pumps, and microwave systems.

The report shows that fifty two percent of the current and projected industrial petroleum consumption in Costa Rica can be replaced with electric energy from hydro and geothermal resources available within the country.

Based on current consumption patterns, this substitution

Would result in a 14 percent reduction in petroleum imports to Costa Rica. The additional electric energy required can be obtained by an acceleration of the current hydro electric expansion program.

The Key to the success of the Costa Rican program for substitution of electricity for petroleum in industry rests in energy pricing policy. The report shows that if Costa Rica Bunker C prices are increased to compare equitably with Caribbean Bunker C prices, and increase at 3 percent per annum relative to the special industrial electricity rate structure, the entire substitution program, including both industrial and national electric investment, would be cost effective. The definition of these pricing structures and their potential impacts need to be assessed in depth:

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?As with all of the countries of Central America, Costa Rica suffers from the serious economic penalties resulting from energy dependence on high priced imported petroleum. The approximately 200 million dollar petroleum import bill for Costa Rica in 1979 represents 13 percent of the value of imports and 16 percent of the value of exports in that year (IDB, 1981). Clearly, an effective technique to reduce Costa Rica's dependence on foreign oil would significantly improve this serious financial drain on the Costa Rican economy.

Although Costa Rica has no known petroleum resources, the country is endowed with numerous indigenous energy resources:

hydro, geothermal, biomass, wind and other solar resources, as well as 48 potential resources of newly discovered coal. Reduction of foreign oil imports requires that these indigenous energy resources be introduced as substitutes for current uses of petroleum.

Hydro potential stands foremost in Costa Rica's energy resources. More than 8500 Mw of hydroelectric potential yielding nearly 37,000 Gwh of electric energy have been identified (2 the country Republica de Costa Rica, 1981). Only 445 MW of this potential capacity are currently developed providing about 98 percent of the 1843 Gwh of electricity demand for the country in 1980 (BID, 1960)+

On a much smaller scale, geothermal energy for electric generation is also a promising indigenous energy resource for Costa Rica. A total of 80 Mw of installed geothermal generation capacity is scheduled for completion in 1986 at the Miravalles site in south:

west Costa Rica. Although the total national geothermal potential is not known, a preliminary estimate has been placed at 720 MW (Bois, 1973).

The question immediately evident is how the large hydro potential might be used effectively to substitute for the many energy end-use needs in Costa Rica now being satisfied by petroleum.

Table 1 below describes direct petroleum consumption by sector in Costa Rica in 1979:

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TABLE 1

SECTORAL PETROLEUM CONSUMPTION IN COSTA RICA (1979)

Percent of Total National

National Sectoral

Petroleum Energy

Sector Energy (TJ) Consumption

Residential/Comercial 3 ? 7

?Transportation 9310 66 100

Industrial and Agro~Industrial 7109, 24 4

other 1088 4 34

370 0

ref: (Reptilia de Costa Rica, 1980)

Although the transportation sector is the largest consumer of petroleum the technology for substitution of electricity for petroleum in other than rail and urban transit systems is not yet adequate.

The second highest petroleum consuming sector, the industrial and agro-industrial sector, and the target of this paper, does present opportunities for substitution of electricity for petroleum. In 1979, electricity accounted for 16 percent while petroleum accounted for 44 percent of the energy consumption in this sector. Electric, powered industrial technologies are available on the market today and in many cases can be substituted directly for oil or diesel fired industrial heating systems. This paper investigates to what extent these industrial technologies can be applied in a cost-effective way in Costa Rica.

INDUSTRIAL/AGRO-INDUSTRIAL STRUCTURE AND ENERGY USE

?The food products industry dominates the industrial sector

of Costa Rica. This sector consisting primarily of coffee, meat, dairy, grain, and sugar production, accounted for over 50 percent of the gross value of industrial production in 1977. The contribution of the remaining sectors is well distributed with no single sector exceeding five percent of the gross value of industrial production. Heading this list are textiles and clothing, followed by chemicals, food products, and petroleum refining.

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?The agro-industrial sector is also an important sector of the

Costa Rican economy accounting for 18 percent of GDP. The major agromindustries are: coffee beneficiation, banana and fresh fruit crop irrigation and packing, sugar processing, rice and grain milling, cattle and related activities, fishing and crop spraying-

To identify primary opportunities for substitution of electricity for petroleum use in Costa Rica's industrial sector it was necessary to make an initial assessment of the magnitude and purpose (i.e., process energy need) of petroleum use in each of these industrial sectors of Costa Rica.

Energy Use in the Industrial Sector

Table 2 presents the 1980 industrial petroleum consumption for Costa Rica- In 1980, as in the past, the major petroleum product

in the industrial sector was Bunker C. Bunker C consumption reached 740.8×10^6 BBL in 1980, equivalent to 68 percent of the total industrial petroleum consumption. Diesel consumption was the next highest at 266.8×10^6 BBL. Only 9 percent of industrial petroleum consumption was made up by gasoline, kerosene, Jet fuel and asphalt.

The other non-metallic mineral products sector is the largest petroleum consuming industrial sub-sector accounting for 348.6 x 10⁹ BBL or equivalently 32 percent of the 1980 industrial petroleum consumption. This sub-sector is dominated by two cement industries which account for 96 percent of the total consumption. As seen, this sector is by far the largest consumer of Bunker C

sector is the second largest petroleum consuming sub-sector accounting for 186.4 x 10⁹ BBL or 17 percent of 1980 industrial consumption. The dairy products industry is the largest energy consumer within this sub-sector accounting for 42 percent of the petroleum consumption. The meat products, grain mill products and fishery products industries are also major energy consumers. Like the non-metallic mineral products industry, a few large consumers dominate the food products industry. The five largest

Petroleum consumers account for 65 percent of the sub-sector consumption. The remaining petroleum is consumed by approximately

45 smaller industries

The next three largest petroleum consuming sectors are construction and mining, other chemicals, dominated by the fertilizer industry, and glass products. Of the 169.5×10^9 BBL of petroleum used in construction and mining, 50×10^9 BBL of this consumption are asphalts with no practical energy value. In addition, diesel

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TABLE 2

1980 INDUSTRIAL SECTOR PETROLEUM CONSUMPTION

(IN BBL)

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E represents 64 percent of its total petrolous consuspion, much of which ts used to operate heavy transport, construction and nining equipaent. Both the fertilizer and glass products industries are ?ajor consusers of Bunker C.

Ene

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tae Sector

Table 3 presents the 1980 petroleum consumption data for the major sub-sector (industries in the agro-industrial sector. Eight sub-sector industries are identified. The largest petroleum consuming sub-sector in the agro-industrial sector is the banana and fresh fruit producers. Total consumption for this sub-sector accounted for 137.8×10^6 BBL or 54 percent of the total sector consumption. The majority of petroleum consumed was diesel used for powering electric generators. Many of the banana and fresh fruit producers are located in remote areas of the country not presently serviced by the electricity grid. They require electricity for irrigation, washing and packing operations and for employee residential consumption:

Coffee benefictators and sugar producers each consused ap-
Proximately 42×10^9 BBL of petroleum. Again, the majority of
this consyapeion was for diesel fuel. A significant portion

(4.5×10^7 BBL) of aviation fuel was also consused in 1980 fn

the agrowindustrial sector for crop spraying activities. Grain
milling, cattle raising, fishing agd other agro-industrial related
ictivities accounted for 27.1×10^9 BBL or approximately 11 per-
cent of the agro-industrial sector consunption in 1980.

Industrial/Agro~Industrial Fuel Use by Process Need

Table 4 provides 9 breakdown of the energy requirements of the
Andustrial/agro~industrial sector in Costa Rica by energy process
requirement

The conversion to high temperature process heat represents the largest consumption of petroleum fuels accounting for 36303 x 10 BBL or 42 percent of the energy value of the petroleum fuel consumed in the sector. Approximately 90 percent of the petroleum used to generate this high temperature process heat is Bunker C, the majority of which is used by the cement industry in Costa Rica.

Steam raising for industrial processes represents the second largest consumption of petroleum in the industrial and agricultural sector (23 percent of the total). Again, Bunker C accounts for the majority (approximately 80 percent) of the total energy value of petroleum used to generate steam

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Approxtaately 11 percent of the petroleus purchased {9 used
for transportation purposes. This included 26 percent of the total
diesel purchases in the sector and all of ite gasoline and jet fuel
Purchases. Over 9 percent of the sector's petroleun consumption 1

used to generate electricity almost exclusively by the use of diesel. Of the remaining petroleum consumption in industry, 5 percent is used for low temperature process heat, another 5 percent for primary mechanical energy, 2 percent for generating hot water and approximately 4 percent for non-energy feed materials such as asphalt.

(CONVENTIONAL INDUSTRIAL /AGRO-INDUSTRIAL TECHNOLOGIES AND THEIR ELECTRIFICATION)

The industrial petroleum based technologies most commonly observed in Costa Rica, can be grouped as follows

© Bunker C and diesel off-fired boilers for steam and hot

© Bunker C, diesel and kerosene off-fired combustors for low and high temperature process heat

© Diesel off-fired internal combustion engines for on-site mechanical power and/or electricity

The petroleum-based industrial energy technologies may be substituted by several different electric technologies: The electric technologies may be classified as direct substitutes (i.e., providing the same energy product and requiring no change to the process or the serial process or indirect substitutes (i.e. replacing both the energy product on system and the existing industrial process):

The direct electric substitutes applicable to industry in Costa Rica are:

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The indirect substitutes most applicable to industry in Costa Rica are:

A conversion matrix relating the potential technical substitution of the existing petroleum-based technologies with appropriate substitute electric technologies is shown in Table 5.

THE KEY INDUSTRIES AND ENERGY PROCESSES WITH POTENTIALLY CONVERTIBLE PETROLEUM CONSUMPTION

By matching the electric technologies available against the industrial/agro-industrial process energy needs by fuel type as just shown in Table 4, it was determined that the maximum technically substitutable potential (i.e., not taking economics, institutional or site specific factors into consideration) is about 52 percent of the total 1980 industrial and agro-industrial petroleum consumption or 14 percent of the total 1980 national petroleum consumption. This maximum substitution potential is shown in Table 6 which subdivides each entry in Table 4 into a substitutable portion (underlined) and unsubstitutable portion. The technologies that represent this 52 percent conversion potential are steam and hot water boilers, low and high temperature process heaters and diesel electric generators. Steam and hot water boilers account for the largest portion or 47 percent of the total conversion potential of 693,400 BBL. Of

the 693,400 BBL of petroleum, 424,300 BBL is Bunker C, 243,900 BBL is diesel and 17,200 BBL is kerosene-

Table 7 Lists seven key industries which represent 65 percent (or 448,000 BBL) of the total convertible petroleum consumptions. Within these seven industries, 60 percent of the petroleum consumption is used to generate steam or hot water, 23 percent to generate electricity and 17 percent to provide low or high temperature. pro-

ECONOMIC POTENTIAL FOR ELECTRIC SUBSTITUTION

To determine the economic potential for converting industrial petroleum consumption to electricity in Costa Rica, six generic case studies were defined which compare the economics of existing petro-

lua based technologies against potential alternative electric technologies. These case studies are:

© Petroleum versus high-voltage electrode 800 EP etean boilers.

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TABLE 5

TECHNOLOGY CONVERSION MATRIX

Direct Hsctrte Subecteuten ?_Jaddrece Hlacerte Substtivtee

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TABLE 7

KEY INDUSTRIES WITH POTENTIALLY CONVERTIBLE
PETROLEUM CONSUMPTION

Percent of .

Total Industrial

Convertible Convertible

Petroleum Petroleum

Industry Consumption Consumption

© Food products? 1s 23

© Fresh fruit producer®* 108 as

fe Beverages 49 7 -

© Paper products a 6

© Textiles a ?

© Coffee benefictatore*** 3 5 -

© Rubber producta 19 3

us s

Fille Key energy consuming industries within the food products tn-
dustries are: dairy products; meat products; grain mill products
and coffee processing.

?**Dtesel for electricity generation 1s the prisary source of petro-
leun consuaption by fresh fruit producers.

?**Petroleun {9 presently used by coffee beneficiators primarily to
dry coffee beans and in some cases generate electricity. With -
Fegard to érying coffee beans, electric resistance heaters are a
technical possibility.

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© Petroleum versus low-voltage resistance 250 UP steam boilers.

2-11 63 (2.0 toescu)/ur petroleum versus electric resistance
low teaperature process heaters.

© 2.11 63 (2.0 msBeu)/ir petroleum versus low-voltage
Fesistance and electric heat puape hot vater boilers.

© 2.11 G3 (2.0 méBtu)/hr petroleum versus electric aicrovave
food ovenmirter aysten-

¢ 1M petroteus electric generator versus purchased grid elec-
ertetty-

Buel Price:

?The economic competitiveness of petroleum vs- electric tech
nologies is heavily based on the relative prices of petroleum and
electric fuels. The fugl prices in Costa Rica as of May 1981 are
given below in Table 8.

TABLE 8

COSTA RICA MAY 1981 FUEL PRICES

TH electricity \$.035/eim

T-10 electricity \$-010/4imh (ttme-of-day price)

Bunker © \$1132/11e0r

Diesel \$1365 /1ie0r

Kerosene \$2423/1se0r

of Electricity

The current standard industrial 1-4 tariff for electricity is based on both a demand charge on the maximum peak power that the industry requires and a kWh charge for electricity. The T-4 cost is five times above that based on the energy charge plus the demand charge averaged over the number of hours of electricity used in a week. Monthly electricity use is assumed to be 356 hr/yr. The T-10 tariff has just recently been instituted which provides industries a significant savings in electricity charges for the months May through

January if they are willing to use electricity only during off-peak

?Wosts Ta this paper are given tn May 1961 dollars. Costa Rican

curreacy exchange is based on 18.9 colones to the U.S. dollar in effect at that tine.

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hours (all hours except 10:00 to 12:30 and 16:30 to 20:00). During the dey months of January through May the T-10 tariff reverts to the 6 tarttee

4s seen, the T-10 tariff represents about a 70 percent discount to the standard T-4 industrial tariff for electricity. In this anal? ysts, the T-10 tariff vas applied as a potential future electricity price, not so much representing a tine-of-day price, but rather as

4 benchaark for a lover electricity price that would encourage tn- dustrial conversion to electricity. The extent to which a TA10 type price discount is financially feastble on a large scale is not eval- vated and represents an teportant potential constraint to the tmple? Bentatioa of an industrial electrification program-

Goat of Bunker C

The present low price of Bunker C in Costa Rica is a result of government subsidization and recent currency devaluation: In May

of 1981, bulk prices for Bunker C in the Caribbean market were posted about 36 percent higher than the delivered price to industry in Costa Rica. Consistent with the low cost of Bunker C in Costa Rica, however, the excess supply of that fuel produced by the Costa Rica RECOPE refinery. This excess supply is currently being re-exported to Caribbean markets. RECOPE is now planning to upgrade the refinery to produce less residuals.

Feononic Comparts

The Life cycle costs of obtaining the desired end-use process energy were calculated and compared for each of the six technology Pairs listed above. These costs were based on the most recent vendor capital and operating and maintenance cost estimates and the fuel prices just listed. In the case an electric option was less costly on a Life cycle basis, then the total petroleum product use in Costa Rica industry/agro-industry to which that technology applied was considered to be substitutable with electricity. Total national potential was estimated by repeating this calculation for each combination of petroleum products and end-use energy pairs as was done previously in Table 6

Table 9 summarizes the analysis of the economic potential for substitution of electricity for petroleum in the industrial sector. For each of five cases of petroleum and electricity prices and price growth rates, the table presents the industrial /agro-industrial Petroleum energy consumption that could be converted to electricity on a cost effective basis. Two substitution options are considered-

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In the first, only conversions from petroleum to electricity are cos

Pared. The Second option peraits, tn addition, conversion of diesel

and kerosene systems to Bunker Cif Bunker C12 acre econoaical than

electricity.

The results shown in the table are summarized below:

If present petroleum and electricity price relationships continue in the future, the economic potential for substitution is estimated at between 13 to 19 percent of industrial and agro-industrial use. (Case 1)

© If present industrial electricity tariffs are discounted by about 70 percent (as is representative of the restricted THO tariff), then the economic potential for electricity substitution for petroleum ranges between 14 to 52 percent. This range is dependent on the annual real price increase of petroleum products relative to the discounted electricity price.

~ A constant price ratio between petroleum and electricity results in a 14 to 19 percent substitution potential. (Case 2)

= A three percent annual increase in petroleum prices

reruite {n'a substitution goteatial in the range of

19'to 23 percoat (ease 35

4.20 percent annval tnecrease {n petroleum prices or

a rise in the dosestic petroleum prices to May 1981

Caribbean spot prices with a three percent annual

Petroleun price increase achieves the saxinun tech-

Bical substitution potential of 52 percent. (Case &

and 5)

Clearly, the tvo key factors that will tapact an fadustrial

electricity substitution program are future increases in petroleun

Prices and the extent to which electricity price discounts can be

extended to the industrial sector without undersdaing the finan=

ctal viability of the electricity sector. The T-10 tariff which

represents a 70 percent discount over gormal industrial electricity

tariffs is presently avatlable ona limited tine-of day basis eed

entially represents excess pover during off-peak periods- The

ent to which this or sintlar tariffs ate feasible within the

Present and future financial structure of the Costa Rican electric~

Aty sector has not been addressed in this papers Ary coualtment to

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A significant industrial electricity substitution program must first carefully evaluate the financial viability of petroleum and electric utility pricing structures relative to the health of both the national petroleum and electricity companies as well as to the Costa Rican national economy-

ADDITIONAL ELECTRICITY REQUIRED FOR MAXIMUM SUBSTITUTION

Under the Case \$ scenario, the maximum substitution of electricity for 52 percent of the industrial/agro-industrial petroleum consumption could be obtained by 1987. Based on industrial growth, of 9-1 percent per year, the 52 percent of the projected 2239×10^6 BBL of petroleum consumption accounts to 1164×10^6 BBL of petroleum savings in that year. Based on relative efficiencies of petroleum and electricity use, the electric energy equivalent of this 181526 GJ. This additional electricity demand implies a 314 % increase in national electric power requirements from 723 MW to 1037 MW. By 1995, the requirement increases to 624 MW measured from the base case of 1343 MW to the case of maximum industrial

electrification of 1967 Mi.

The additional electric capacity requirement to 1995 can be obtained by a one to three year acceleration of the hydroelectric Projects in the current hydroelectric expansion plans.

(GOST/BENEFIT ANALYSIS)

For the purpose of an initial trial test of the potential economic viability of an industrial electrification program in Costa Rica, MIRE performed 4 national cost/benefit analysis for the Case 5 scenario presented in Table 9. Case 5 was selected, not as a most likely case, but rather as a test case to see if under the energy price conditions which permit maximum substitution, the entire investment required, both for industrial conversions and for increased hydroelectric capacity would be cost effective. Assuming only the primary benefit of savings in imported petroleum, the internal rate of return for the total industrial and hydroelectric investment was estimated to be approximately 13 percent. At this rate of return, for the period 1963-1995, discounted benefits of petroleum savings of \$220 million would exceed the additional hydroelectric and industrial investment costs of \$202 million and \$18 million, respectively. Between them, the industrial costs constitute only 8 percent of the total investment required.

Of interest to note is that by extending the cost/benefit stream from 1995 through 2015, the internal rate of return increases to approximately 20 percent:

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Relative to the guidelines of a minimum of 12 percent rate of return for national development programs, an industrial electrification program based on Case 5 conditions is cost effective. This analysis leaves unanswered whether a relative petroleum and electricity pricing structure equivalent to the Case 5 conditions is a potential reality for Costa Rica.

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This paper has shown that it is technically possible to substitute approximately 52 percent of the total industrial /agro-industrial petroleum consumption in Costa Rica with electricity that comes from hydro and geothermal resources within the country. The hydro and geothermal resources are more than adequate and the electric technologies for industrial conversion are readily available. The key

to the success and recommendability of a large scale electrification program in industry in Costa Rica lies in energy pricing. If price subsidies on Bunker C fuel can be eliminated and special industrial, electricity rate structures such as the T-10 tariff can be effectively and widely implemented, then an electric substitution program could be effective. It is important to remember the implementation of an accelerated hydro-geothermal electric generation program will require significant amounts of capital. Finally, other non-petroleum alternatives such as industrial /agro-industrial use of biomass fuels in some cases might be more cost effective than electric substitution. What is needed at this point is an assessment of both national energy pricing alternatives in Costa Rica and an integrated evaluation of all non-petroleum fuel substitutes for the Costa Rican industrial sector-

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1982

First Pan American Congress on Energy

MATERIALS, ENERGY, AND THE

U.S. NATIONAL MATERIALS ADVISORY BOARD

By

Donald G. Groves

National Materials Advisory Board

Washington, D.C.

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1982

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MATERIALS, ENERGY, AND THE
U.S. NATIONAL MATERIALS ADVISORY BOARD

Donald G. Groves

Staff Scientist

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Washington, D.C. 20418

U.S.A.

Abstract

Advances in technology are based upon corresponding advances in the ability to utilize the proper available materials and/or to evolve appropriate new ones for design applications. History is replete with examples that dramatically illustrate this point.

Today, many of the technologies for energy production and conservation are materials limited. Hence, "idealized" design concepts and accompanying prototypes for such technologies cannot be successfully translated to practice.

ly needed new technolo-

This paper outlines several aspects of materials science and engineering that pertain to this national interest problem. It also delineates the important role the National Materials advisory Board (of the National Academy of Sciences-National Research Council) plays in recommending viable solutions to the present materials-energy-environment dilemma.

To be presented at the XVIT Convention of the Pan American Federation of Engineering Societies, San Juan, Puerto Rico, August 1-7, 1982, by Donald G. Groves, U.S. Delegate to the Convention.

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Introduction

A material can be defined as anything that is formed of matter and has substance. Therefore, there are a countless number of materials. However, it has been estimated that something considerably less than 10,000 kinds of organic and inorganic engineering materials exist. These are the very ones with which man with the application of his attitudes, objectives, and technical abilities can use to turn into products for their welfare,

If one examines the pattern of history through the course

there is no question that all advances in technology are determined by corresponding advances in our ability to utilize effectively materials from this reservoir of 10,000.

In a sense, this is not surprising since basically there are but two predominant technological entities in this world of ours--Composition (or Materials) and Configuration (or Design). Thus, everything--machines, instruments, tools, etc. and even humans--depend on these two "C's."

A detailed recitation here of the many substantiating aspects of this long and fascinating history of the technology= materials relationship is, of course, beyond the scope of this Paper. However, briefly, such a history dates from the very early advances based upon accidental discoveries by craftsmen, who, for example, found that by impacting suitably together cleverly permitted the shaping of cutting arrowheads. Later, during the "bronze age" and periods, achievements were also gained by the exercise of empiricism or a trial-and-error methodology. In the 17th century chemistry came into its own and many species of atoms were discovered as were the laws under which they combined to form compounds. Several significant subsequent events, from those times to the present, form the basis of our present-day work in the field of materials science and engineering.

Today, materials science and engineering can be thought of as a coherent system of scientific and engineering disciplines that combine the search for expanded knowledge into materials with the resulting knowledge applied to society's

Reeds. Still, it is only within the past two or three decades that the materials scientist started to comprehensively delve into the nature and capabilities of materials. This scientific progress has been aided very tangibly by such present-day analytical tools as Auger spectroscopy, scanning transmission electron microscopy, computers, et al. plus the techniques available for optimizing their uses

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However, at the present time, there is a growing concern over what appears to be a decline in the emphasis on needed materials research, and especially in the innovative application of the results of such research. If an erosion of this effort is, indeed, taking place, and from all indications it probably is due to various present-day economic factors and the general public's lack of awareness and support of materials science and engineering, it is most unfortunate. The field will be stymied in putting forth its full and potential capability in meeting

the many required materials needs of the present and future.

These needs are certainly matters of concern to the
fation, Materials are basic to our lives and to our mode of
living. Their supply is of critical importance as is the manner
by which they can be most efficiently processed into useable
forms for engineering hardware, Then, 200, there is the para
mount question of how to best dispose of certain materials
(e.g., radioactive wastes) and various materials of consi
tion when the hardware no longer interests us. Also, and
perhaps in the long run one of the most important considerations
Of all, is the urgent need for a much better scientific knowl-
edge of how materials "hang together." By this, I mean to say,
a better in-depth understanding of the atomistic character
(composition, structure, and defects) of many engineering
(especially polycrystalline) materials. Armed with such infor-
mation, the task then is to correlate these atomistic parameters
to the properties and behavior that the materials exhibit in
engineering usage. As shown in Figure 1, the primary knowledge
barrier is not within the inner or outer world of materials or
the techniques used for probing into these worlds. It lies

between the two and separates them. This is unfortunate since the character features of materials are basic and form the real basis of how materials perform. Admittedly, the removal of

this barrier represents a rough, tough problem. However, it is only by such a correlation of the property-character relationship that we can be predictive and make materials so that they are reliable, uniform, and reproducible. As yet, materials science has not reached this mature stage of materials understanding and development.

Energy and Materials

The life blood of industry--materials--interact dramatically with energy at virtually every point in what has been termed the materials cycle. Shown here, in Figure 2, this physical concept, the materials cycle, is driven by societal demand and the life cycle in this analytical framework is closed. However, throughout there is a total systems technology which includes a number of interacting subsystems involving

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roves aad sadariatan, malar proparty meuuremeas ae for he ment prt aden asd well

Wcaaiques for charscarsng catenas Cope mistmcapen vay seaaoe tod dees eo,

eee, Hanan, Sau} wet coesissy, pouaropassy, tecros a Teaaansn, jeaeer Fee!

i

Seton and any others are los sagas? Wed Howere the prcnary Seowiedge barvas s aot widen Oe
oat ot

iar world of ?achniquen Tt Uy berveen the wo snd separaim ?be tre Th i inlrvanste net Oa toaracar
fae

Sut of wateraiy are oar an ?al tals oo Sow ?uterus periorm Witwow the Toowiedge of tae

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cannot be preccive and talor make now materaix with aay Gage of Fer

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The total economics and with societal impact present at each step. The application and use portion can be called the Consumers Circle since it is a subsystem as indicated by the input arrows. The Producer Circle is another subsystem; for example R&D done early in this cycle should take into consideration the disposal and reclamation part of the Producers cycle. The Public sector circle brings into play the societal impact and social forces that may impinge from time to time on the materials life cycle,

The cycle conceptually is independent of the rates of materials flow but is intertwined with the lines of supply and

Gemand. ?the flow of materials can be disturbed radically around the loop by unpredictable evants outside of tne materials worlas
However, steps can be taken within the cycle to prepare for
Such contingencies (e.g., stockpiling, recycling, and the substitution of one material for anothe). Materials in the cycle
flow through it in essentially five stages

© Extraction of raw materials: ores and minerals,
rock, sand, timoer, crude rubber

© Processing of raw materials into bulk materials:
metals, chemicals, cerent, lumber, fibers, pulp,
rubber, electronic crystals

© Processing of bulk materials into engineering materials: alloys, ceramics and glass, dielectrics and
Semiconductors, plastics and elastomers, concrete,
building board, paper, composites

© Manufacture of engineering materials into structures,
Machines, devices, and other products

© ? Recycling discarded products (materials) to the system or disposing of them by ground burial:

Via Figure 2, some perspective of the materials, energy, and environment interaction can be obtained if we first start with a natural resource such as, for example, bauxite as a source of aluminum. This natural resource is processed to the elemental material, aluminum, and this processing requires energy and most likely creates pollution. Next, the aluminum is processed into a usable form such as an aluminum casting. Again energy is required and again pollution may be involved. Finally, the material is converted to its engineering application. Subsequently, it serves its purpose and then the disposal problem is faced, with additional energy required and possibly more pollution. Disposal, depending upon the material, can take the form of recycling or some other reclamation.

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process returning the material directly to the elemental state or useable form as a supplement to the natural resource. Disposal can also be more of a challenge just as it is in the case of radioactive wastes.

In this materials-energy life cycle relationship, the industrial sector of the U.S. currently accounts for about 37 percent of the nation's energy consumption and the industrial share is projected to increase to 50 percent by 1990. In size reduction operations of raw materials (e.g., ores and minerals, etc.) alone, U.S. industries use about 32 billion kWh of electrical energy per annum. This amount of energy is approximately 2 percent of our total electric power production nationally.

More than half of the size-reduction energy is consumed in the crushing and grinding of minerals, one quarter in the production of cement, one eighth in the preparation and utilization of coal, and one eighth in the processing of agricultural products.

However, current comminution technology is both energy-intensive and notoriously inefficient. Most of this blame can be attributed to improper selection of materials and poor design of equipment.

Thus, materials are not only crucial in situations like this but they are of pivotal importance in making energy available in the first place. At present, it is fair to say that inadequacies in the performance of materials are the principal constraint on the efficiency, reliability, cost-effectiveness, and even the actual realization of most of our advanced energy-conversion technologies such as gas turbines, nuclear reactors, high energy density batteries, fuel cells, magnetohydrodynamics, coal conversion, and solar-energy conversion.

The National Materials Advisory Board

upon many of the foregoing facts rests the case for the need of the National Materials Advisory Board (NMAB)

This Board, a part of the National Academy of Sciences, the National Academy of Engineering, and the National Research Council, was established in January 1969 as successor to the

Materials Advisory Board, which was formed in 1954.

The NMAB is uniquely involved in the world of materials.

It is concerned with the entire life cycle of materials, and it

Provides a national forum that focuses on a wide spectrum of

Scientific and technical problems. The modus operandi of the

NMAB is essentially the same as that of its predecessor, the

Materials Advisory Board. Briefly, the objectives in the

national interest are to: provide advice and assistance to

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government, industry, and academe; bring attention to the

Materials aspects of national problems and opportunities and

Suggest possible solutions to the problems; identify materials

Problems interacting with other technologies and recommend

Solutions; cooperate appropriately in the development of

advanced educational approaches; promote cooperation among

materials-oriented professional societies; maintain an aware

ness of trends and advances in materials science and engineering, call attention to opportunities, and promote applications of advanced concepts.

In the execution of its various study projects, which are funded primarily by U.S. Government agencies, "Committees are established. Members of the committees are chosen for their objectivity and expertise in their professional fields. These Members serve without pay and are reimbursed only for their travel and incidental expenses. At any one time there are about 300 people serving on these committees that are engaged in as many as 30 different study areas. .

One such NKA study, "Materials Technology in the Near-Term Energy Program," which was carried out in 1974, was largely responsible for the initiation of several subsequent NKA materials-energy studies. This particular study of the near-term energy program (1985) in the United States identified several specific areas where materials technology plays an important role. In this regard the principal areas so identified include (a) pressure vessels in nuclear power plants, (s) oil shale, (c) coal liquefaction, (d) fuel and materials recycling from

municipal and agricultural waste, (e) coal gasification, (f) high-temperature turbines, and (g) hot water geothermal. Other areas, which were considered but judged to have less impact on the energy supply/demand balance in 1985 were: solar heating, extractive metallurgy processing, fuel cells, U₂₃₅ separation, and batteries for energy storage.

Four of the most recently issued representative NMAS studies deal in depth with some of these above-mentioned areas. Two of these (Reports NNAB-375 and NNAS-344) treat with the materials needs for efficient utilization of geothermal energy in the U.S. Another, NNAB-364, addresses the energy consumption problems in the comminution (crushing and grinding) of materials such as mineral ores, cement, coal, etc. Also, the study en-

"The Academy of Science, incidentally, is a private organization established in 1863 with a Congressional mandate to advise the government on matters of science and technology in the

national interest.

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titled "Reliability of ceramics for Heat Engine Applications"

(Report NMAB-357) outlined the potential as well as the problem areas for the use of monolithic ceramics in heat engines. Such

Presents an attractive possibility for significant improvement in engine durability, efficiency, and multi-fuel capability.

In the geothermal energy area it may be safely stated that the extraction and conversion of heat present in the earth's core to useful forms poses many problems of a technical and institutional nature. First, the use of geothermal fluids for electric power production and other purposes causes difficulties not normally encountered when fresh water is used for such purposes. Many of these technical problems must be iden-

tified and some means developed to overcome them. Due largely to these factors and the lack of knowledge regarding the technical and economic feasibility of developing geothermal energy resources, such resources have been underutilized.

In view of this background, the U.S. Department of Energy in 1978 requested that the National Materials Advisory Board convene a study effort to detail the important physical and chemical properties which characterize geothermal brines (in liquid-dominated fields) and the instrumentation which can be used in situ to measure such properties. Geothermal brines are heavily loaded with a variety of chemical species which can precipitate out in the well causing fouling, decreased flow rates, gas formation, and other undesirable effects. Hence

the characterization of geothermal fluids in experimental or operating geothermal fields, now and in the future, is of vital importance to the development of this energy resource. Instruments are required in geothermal wells in order to perform this

characterization and to monitor changes in the brine characteristics as a function of time.

The NMAB committee assigned to study this problem made several recommendations, which were persuasively argued and substantiated in their report. These included the development of specific ion electrodes, CO₂ sensors, standard reference electrodes, cable protection, and electrical insulation materials, as well as other items.

In 1980, the U.S. Department of Energy requested that the WMAB do an additional study specifically on the "Materials Needs for the Utilization of Geothermal Energy." In response to this request a committee was formed and in March 1981 their report (SMAB-375) was issued. In this report it was concluded that geothermal systems designed using existing materials are capable

Of withstanding conditions in dry geothermal resources and in wet geothermal resources with temperatures up to 240°C and

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jected Geothermal Electrical Generating

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total dissolved solids (TDS) less than 28,000 ppm. In more
Severe wet geothermal resources, more expensive materials or
More frequent replacement of less expensive, less durable mate-
rials is required. Major materials problems that will limit
design and operation of geothermal energy systems until the
year 2000 were identified and recommendations for solutions to
the problems are presented in the report in detail. Table 1 is
an adapted listing of problems associated with drilling and
completion while Table II presents similar data for operations
related to production, utilization and reinjection.

The committee recommended that the federal government
Support the development of the less hostile geothermal re-
sources, as well as R&D on novel, resistant, strong materials
that are cost-effective for use in the harsher geothermal envi

ronments. To that end, it was recommended that the Department of Energy and national nonprofit laboratories, colleges and universities, drilling and completion contractors, equipment and service Suppliers, and geothermal energy system operators, Work in a coordinated and cooperative effort to speed development of materials for geothermal energy utilization (see Figures 3 and 4).

In regard to the study on Comminution (sponsored by the U.S. Bureau of Mines, the Department of Energy, and the National Science Foundation), several detailed recommendations of the NYAS Committee on Comminution and Energy Consumption were evolved in their study of the problem. These cover more than 15 topical areas involved in the fundamental and practical aspects of comminution. Five specific areas (classification device design, comminution device design, control, grinding additives, and materials for liners and media) were identified as areas to focus on to achieve large, short-term (less than five years) savings in energy. Further, it was estimated that the implementation of recommendations in only two of the areas, classification and automatic control, could result in savings of 6 billion kWh per year. Also, this committee reported that a decrease of only 10 Percent of the energy consumed in comminution could save \$160 Million annually. The implementation of recommendations in both the short and long term requires the support of fundamental studies in a number of areas, including fragmentation science,

particle-fluid and particle-particle dynamics, particle characterization, surface science, and materials science. It is apparent that a high level of interdisciplinary effort is necessary to carry out the required fundamental work. Even with the small amount of research being currently conducted in this field, it is estimated that considerable duplication of research exists in the efforts of government and individual industrial companies. Such an observation has triggered off some current 1942 initial efforts directed to more cooperative

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TABLE I. Some Systems and Components in Geothermal Drilling
and Completion Whose Performance is Constrained by Materials

Problems/Needs

System of Components

Drill pipe and tool joints

Rock bits and drilling tools:

Seals for rock bits and
drilling tools

Elastomer seal for rotating
head

Lubricants for rock bits
and drilling tools

Downhole Motors

Cement

Insulation for logging tool:

High wear rates. New materials,
hardfacing, or surface treatments
needed. Corrosion and corrosion
fatigue, sulfide embrittlement

\$ High wear rate of carbide insert
and hardfacing materials

Degradation of elastomers at
elevated temperatures. Need
high temperature (300%)
elastomer

High temperature elastomer
(200°C) needed

? Thermal and chemical decomposition
of conventional lubricant
fluids/greases,

Seal and bearing life limits time
between overhauls for turpodrills

Flow properties at elevated
temperatures (350°C). Setting
characteristics and strength
after prolonged exposure to
heating in production are
unsatisfactory

3 Degradation at elevated
temperatures (350°C)

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TABLE II. Some Materials Proplens/:

leads in Geothermal Energy

Production, Utilization, and Reinjection

?System_or Component "trodes or ea?

Downhole pump motor

and cable

Downhole pump hydraulic or

gas turbine impellers

Pump rotating shaft seals

Downhole Lineshaft pump

bearings

Hot brine (350°C) trans-

Port pump

Brine reinjection pump

Cements

Gas separator seal, bearing life,
and insulation limit life of
motor cable covering. Connection
seals limit life of electric
cable. High temperature elas-
tomers needed for motor and cable
insulation

Lowest cost of service material
needed to prolong life of high
speed rotating components

High temperature elastomers and
corrosion resistant alloys needed

Erosion and corrosion resistant
materials need to be determined
for this type pump

Materials resistant to the
mechanics of cavitation required
when two-phase brine enters the
pump

Precipitation of solids
(carbonates and silicates)
requires materials resistant to
corrosive and erosive attack

Longer service life during
production

-a2-

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industry-government organized research in continuation, thereby
making it more productive for the future

On still another subject, a mention of the recent NMAB
study on Reliability of Ceramics for Heat Engine Applications
(Report NMAB-357) is merited. Basically, this Department of
Defense-sponsored effort was initiated in view of the well-known
fact that significant improvements in efficiencies can be
obtained by operating heat engines at temperatures above those
that can be attained with high-temperature metals and super-

alloys. This fact combined with the recent advances in the high-temperature capabilities of ceramics including their improved mechanical properties and resistance to chemical attack, make certain ceramic materials attractive candidates

for heat-engine components. However, the structural use of these ceramics introduces problems arising from lack of experience, which require resolution by design techniques, materials, and methods of materials processing.

In a study, the principal gaps in knowledge in failure origins, nondestructive testing, life prediction, and proof testing--were identified. Additionally, an outline as to how a more rigorous understanding of

this class of materials can be used in the production of reliable component parts for heat-engine applications was evolved.

At present, we have several ongoing and just completed representative study efforts including those relating to (a)

the materials problems of aqueous and nonaqueous battery systems (to be used principally in electric vehicles and electric utility load-levelling applications), (b) an assessment of the energy considerations that play a role in determining the nature of materials for the national stockpile (in this report, assessments of current energy costs versus those projected into the future, as well as current energy availability versus availability in time of a national emergency, will be made), (c) a critical examination of the current materials technology being applied in the research and development of selected fuel cell propulsion systems and subsystems for vehicular transportation, and (d) an assessment of the Industrial Energy Conservation Program.

It is expected that the reports on these subjects will provide valuable road maps in the necessary materials development for increased application of these energy systems.

-a3-

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= About the Author -

staff scientist of the National Materials

Advisory Board of the U.S. National Academy of Sciences, has worked with some 50 Academy committees on Materials Science and Engineering convened in the national interest. Before joining the staff of the Academy in January 1962, he served as a U.S. Naval officer (Reserve) on active duty during the Korean Conflict. Subsequently, he was employed in industry as an electrical design engineer, an engineer in advanced materials engineering, and as a systems specialist in Oceanography and Ocean Engineering.

A member of several professional technical and scientific societies, Groves is a three-time awardee of the Freedom Foundation Honor Medal, an honorary citizen of Key West and the Florida Keys, and a fellow of the Washington Academy of Sciences. He is the author of two books on Science and Technology, a contributor of chapters to several others, and has published over 200 articles in various national and international journals and magazines.

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1962

First Pan American Congress on Energy

ENERGIA NUCLEAR. LA EXPERIENCIA ARGENTINA

Por

Mario Eduardo Bancora

Argentina

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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ENERGIA WUCLEAR, LA EXPERIENCIA ARGENTINA, Ings Karl 5 8fncor

En Física el parámetro Energía se define como la capacidad de efectuar trabajo. Es evidente que esta capacidad es absolutamente necesaria para

que una Nación esté en condiciones de mejorar su futuro y conseguir elevar el nivel de vida de sus habitantes.

Existe, en efecto, una relación directa entre el consumo de energía y el grado de desarrollo económico y social. Esta es la razón por la cual el Índice de consumo per cápita resulta uno de los más fehacientes para medir el nivel de progreso de un país,

La creciente demanda surge no solamente de las físicas expectativas de

los habitantes de los países subdesarrollados por mejorar sus condiciones de vida, sino también por los efectos de la explosión demográfica que se manifiesta o se critica en estas naciones y que va incrementando la población del mundo a razón de un millón y medio por semana,

El tiempo de cubrir adecuadamente la demanda de energía adquiere hoy características de urgencia pero ha sido una constante en toda la historia de la Humanidad,

El hombre, que usó originalmente su propia fuerza, comenzó a destacarse sobre los demás cuando descubrió la enorme ventaja de explotar la energía de otros.

Progresaron aquellos que pudieran disponer del mayor número de animales y esclavos para efectuar las tareas diarias y por consiguiente tuvieron más tiempo para pensar e innovar. La Antigua Grecia, sobresalió en su cultura, en artes y en ciencias impulsada por Atenas.

No es un hecho muy conocido que los 20,000 patricios atenienses tenían a su disposición casi 400,000 esclavos.

Desde el punto de vista energético esta fuente es muy precaria, una potencia superior a 100 W no puede suministrarse muscularmente ni que, por cortos intervalos. No es posible, por ejemplo, suministrar por vía

individual la potencia eléctrica que necesita una persona de casa para planchar la ropa. Si esta persona es una habitante de los Estados Unidos, estadísticamente tiene a su disposición 10,000 W instalados, y puede compararse con una energía superior a la que a veces podrían proporcionar

Esto ilustra la situación y el privilegio de esos países que con sólo el 6% de la población mundial consume el 30% del total de la energía producida. En el otro extremo hay países que apenas superan los 100 W instalados por habitantes. No es irreal esperar que el consumo de los EE.UU. disminuya o que el consumo de los subdesarrollados se mantenga en los niveles pauperizados actuales.

Es indispensable recurrir a todas las fuentes disponibles para cubrir la demanda, pero el desarrollarlas requiere grandes inversiones.

Se crea así un espectro de círculos viciosos: Sin energía no es posible /
Progresar pero el costo de obtenerla requiere recursos que difícilmente
están disponibles en una comunidad empobrecida, Si no se rompe este ciclo
con medidas energéticas y oportunas la humanidad se encaminará hacia
un precolapso

India ha dado un ejemplo desarrollando con vigor un programa energético
que incluye la fuente nuclear, Su filosofía de base ha sido sintetizada
en la siguiente frase por el ex-Presidente de su Comisión Atómica

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Dr. Hommit Babha: "no hay energía sin que no tener energía"

Stun pats pretende salir de su estado de subdesarrollo debe como condi
?l8m necesaria impulsar la explotaci?n de todos sus recursos energeticdb

En las últimas décadas el petróleo ha sido el recurso más utilizado, pe
Fo el fenomenal incremento de sus precios de 10 años a esta parte (307
veces) he planteado problemas económicos que exigen buscar otras fuentes
para suplimentar su uso,

Si bien la OPEB ha sido el instrumento que he provocado esa multipl tea
elGn de precios, el hecho era previsible a largo plazo, por a éisminu=
cl de las reservas y por el obvio incremento de la demanda, No son 8
tos sin embargo los principales factores. Se ha estudiado la evolución de 7 ,
los combustibles 9 través de la historia Megindose a la conclusión /
que Estos cumplen un ciclo en las cifras de su consumo relativo, que es
susceptible de ser expresado matemáticamente,

Así el combustible primitivo que era la madera fue desplazado luego por
el carbón mineral, que a su vez fue postergado por el petróleo, Este pro
sumiblemente alcanzará el fin de su ciclo y será gradualmente sustituido
todo por fuentes no convencionales. Lo notable es que ninguna fuente ha
perdido importancia por haber agotado sus reservas, sino simplemente por ha
ber aparecido otras fuentes cuyo empleo resultaba más práctico (Por e)
Plo, la mencionada madera, recurso renovable que hoy está casi descartado,
podría reemplazando los bosques existentes- sustituir la energía que
se obtiene quemando combustibles fósiles (Potencial estimado 25 Tw-año) «

Otro tanto ha sucedido con el carbón que ha sido sustituido en gran parte por los combustibles líquidos y gaseosos, a pesar de tener considerables reservas.

Estos a su vez deben ser suplementados inevitablemente por otros nuevos

La única fuente no convencional que está en condiciones de aportar ese /
suplemento, es la energía nuclear, que se encuentra en estos momentos, en
la parte final de su ciclo de utilización. Existen en efecto al

de febrero de 1982 doscientos cincuenta y tres Reactores de potencia enorme
operando

Se trata también de la fuente que la oposición ha provocado, al punto /?
que algunos partidos políticos incluyen en sus respectivas plataformas,
la prohibición de su empleo.

Es lógico entonces, que los países en desarrollo que tienen tantos pro-
blemas primarios que resolver, se pregunten si tiene sentido embarcarse,
en un programa de energía atómica,

Como tantos otros interrogantes no existe una respuesta universal. Sin embargo con tal valentía puede afirmarse, que ningún país puede permitirse el ignorar, ya sean los posibles inconvenientes de este tipo. Ello significa que como programas mínimos debería pronunciarse a favor de recursos humanos a los efectos de mantener actualizada la información. Y postibilitar que se tomen en el futuro las decisiones que sean necesarias

Flas sin éepender enteramente det azesoreniento externos

Argentina dio efectlvamente tos prireros pasos en su programa de fnergfa Nuclear fundado en la local ided de San Carlos de Bariloche un Centro ee formacifn espectallzada, donde los profesores y alumnos en un rfginen de tlempo completo conviven en un campus universitario cuyo acceso se lz0

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3.

facttble @ todos tos estudiantes del pats, mediante un sistena de beces, Hoy da al denominado Instituto Balze'ro len honenale @ av pelece Bieese tor) es un Centro de excelencia reconocldo 2 nivel Internactonaly

1a de su actividad, te sido por supuesto 1 Comi

AtBakca pero no existe Universidad Argentine 7

jorte de tos egresados del Inst itutor

La principal beneficiaria,
In Nacional de Energ
?que no haya recibido el

Un programa de energía atómica, aunque sea mínimo, tiene como Importan=

te subproducto el de promover el desarrollo científico y técnico general

Por tratarse de una tecnología de punta, requiere el desarrollo de to-
das las áreas.

En Argentina el Consejo Nacional de Energía Atómica fue fundado en el año 1954

y constituye el primer organismo no universitario de investigación que
precedió en seis años al Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones y a los Ins-
titutos Nacionales de Tecnología Industrial y Aeroespacial. Realizó así-
mismo una labor pionera en materia de trabajo científico por equipos

Un segundo paso en un programa de Energía Atómica, que complementa prefe-
rentemente al primero consiste en equiparlos para trabajar con

por, Aparte de tratarse de una herramienta valiosa de diagnóstico;
rápida, resulta difícil encontrar alguna actividad vecinal
el uso de radiotopos no produce resultados precisos

En Argentina se decidió encarar su producción local y para ello se comenzó
con la instalación de aceleradores de partículas en 1955 y se construyó
el primer reactor experimental en 1958,

Se construyeron además, las facilidades necesarias para el fraccionamiento,
y conservación de radioisótopos.

Las aplicaciones industriales se ampliaron con la instalación de una planta
de irradiación de alta intensidad mediante cobalto 60. La cantidad de
usuarios de radioisótopos ha crecido en forma notable y hoy se brindan

con ellos un servicio de indudable inter: sociale

EL tercer paso, que es en realidad el primero en 1a direceia de un pro
grana energBtico, consiste en realizar la exploraci&n uranfferas 1 cone
cer los recursos ?no solanente en materia de rant, sino tambi&n de coon)
bustitls f8slles es un requerimiento obvio para poder encarar los planes
rnacionales ?de enerota. ?\$

El problema es que se trata de actividades que requieren Inversiones sig
Bifteatives y cuyo Exito no est8 de manera alguna garantizado, Por ello
Ro constituyen una proposiei&n faci! de sdoptar.

Extsten dos soluctones: a) el pats encers por su cuenta le prospecct&n y
fen ese caso tiene que formar y/o contratar personal idfnco y dedicat. ree
cursos rentas generales para? impulsar las tareas neceseriae que inclos
yen la actividad privada & b) entrega a Empresas forfneas le explorsel&a
& canblo de concesiones en caso de obtener Exitos Se trata de una dect=
S1En polftica al ns alto nivel, dence Influyen una serie de factores./

no téenteos que conplican su adopcitn, Se debe sopesar 13 desventaja de
hipotecar el futuro a! compreneter reservar, con la necesidad de eaters
Binar la cifra de las misnas en un tienps razonebles

Lo que ctertanente no se deberfa hacer, es postergor la toma de decisior
nes por el compromiso que inporta una efiniciBns tn ef cose particuter
de un plan de energfa nuclear hace un mundo de diferencia e! tener 0 no
Ve rateria prina en el territorio nacional, sobre todo cuando se deba a
doptar una determinads lfnea de reactores.

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Argentina se decidi6, desde los comienzos de su plan nucleo!

Mas opctones que le permiti:ier-an aicanzar su avtosuficiente

En.funci6n dedlo se dot6 a te Conisitn de Energfa At6mica de los pre-

Supuestos necesarios para que realicars ia prospecei6n urantfera del. te

Fritorio nacional, formora ios én con neceserios y consteuyera Inclus,
sive el Instrumental de prospec. Se promilg6 una ley que estimulaba
1a bOsqueda por prospectores privacis, brindSdoles privilegios en a ex
Plotactén de los eventualer yacimienrcs. ~

por aque-

Gono resultado se localizaron nuserosas manifestactones en distintos /
Puntos de! pats, se conen26 la explotaciin de aquellos mis promtsortas

Y 38 Instalaron?dos fibricas ce concentra:iGn y purificacién en las pro *
Vinelas de CSrdoba y Mendoza. <

\$1 blen Ta exploract&s cubri6 una pequens parte det territorio con post
Bitidades uranfferas 10: resultados abtenidos permitieron determinar ee
?yas suficientes para alinentar unas seis Centreles Nucleoeléctricas>

fe 600 Mile dur? + Ello fue base suficiente para poder de

Fintr una lfnea de reactores que provorctona-S las mayores garantfos 7

contra la dependencia exterior en materia de suministro energética.

En efecto, tomada la decisión de usar la energía de origen nuclear, el próximo dilema consiste en la adopción de la 'Ley de Recursos Comunes' /
5 sabido existen dos líneas bien prospectadas para producir tal energía en forma económicamente competitiva. La primera usa el uranio. de composte
Isótopo normal, es decir 'la wisra con que se lo encuentra en es mic

En este caso las condiciones físicas para que la reacción concatenada /
tenga lugar exigen la presencia de un moderador de los cuales el más eficaz ha probado ser el Oxígeno de ²uterio (Agua pesada)

La segunda línea usa agua común como moderador pero en tal caso la reacción concatenada no procede a menos que se altere la composición isotópica del uranio aumentando la proporción de ²³⁵U en relación al ²³⁸U

En resumen, la opción es enriquecer el combustible enriqueciendo el modo de +
Fador, alterando por medios físicos la proporción natural de ^{235}U , (s6to~
pos.

Las dificultades técnicas y económicas para alterar la concentración de ^{235}U de
Eplee del uranio de ninguna manera son equiparables a las de obtener el ^{235}U ,
agua pesada, Es bien conocida la falta de esfuerzos y la inversión
que debieron realizar los países durante la segunda guerra
mundial para lograr las altas concentraciones de ^{235}U necesarias para
la bomba atómica del Secreto que se vio a través de los Estados Unidos
pero esto se superó por medio de una planta de separación por difu-
sión gaseosa, que es el método usado por varias potencias nucleares para
obtener el uranio enriquecido, cuando fuera de las posibilidades econó-
micas de un país en desarrollo.

onente accestsle, tanto /

En cambio una planta de agua pesada

co. India lo ha denos-/

desde el punto de vista económic

trado al poner en operación = se debe tomar en

consideración el hecho que el uranio es un material de consumo y como /

tal debe ser renovado continuamente, como cualquier combustible? ?atene/

tras el agua pesada es un material) Ge stock, que actúa por presencia y

requiere solamente la reposición de sus pérdidas. Con esto el grado, de

urgente en la provisión continúa fundamentalmente, todas estas consideraciones

---Page Break---

clones son pertinentes cuando uno de los parámetros fundamentales en la elección de la línea de reactores, es la autosuficiencia energética, Cuan-
do por razones técnicas como no disponer de yacimientos o por razones / >
Políticas no sea posible obtener tal suficiencia las razones expuestas /
El nivel relativo validez y en cambio cobran importancia las consideracio-
nes económicas. Un reactor de uranio enriquecido tiene menor costo unita-
rio que uno de uranio natural de igual potencia debido al precio del

uranio pesada y al menor volumen de su núcleo. Ofrece además mayor flexi-
bilidad operativa y estos factores justifican su mayor popularidad,

En contraposición el costo del ciclo de combustible es bastante menor / con uranio natural debido a que no se requiere el enriquecimiento y & que hay menor penalidad económica por no reprocesar los elementos irradiados. Los reactores actuales utilizan apenas el 1% del potencial energético de su combustible, Ello se debe a la acumulación de los productos resultantes de la fisión del uranio que van disminuyendo la reactividad y terminan por hacer imposible la prosecución de la reacción en cadena, Cuando ello sucede hay que cambiar los elementos combustibles. En el caso de elementos con uranio natural no hay mayores problemas económicos en descartarlos. Cuando se trata con uranio enriquecido su valor residual impone la conveniencia de reprocesarlos para recuperar el uranio enriquecido y el plutonio. Las dificultades de trabajar con elementos irradiados, con actividades de megacuries e inclusive de transportarlos, hacen que el reprocesamiento sea una actividad difícil

Y ciertamente poco accesible aun para países avanzados que en general / prefieren diferirla, La penalidad económica en que incurren por ello es del orden de diez millones de dólares por año para un reactor de 1000 MW eléctricos, sin contar el potencial energético desperdiciado

Como se mencionó, desde los comienzos de su programa nuclear, Argentina decidió que si bien no tener energía es muy caro, el disponer de ella 7

\$2 condiciones precarias representa un precio inaceptablemente alto. Y se la dispone sólo precariamente si la fuente de suministro puede ser / interrumpida o retaceada a voluntad por una potencia extranjera

Aún sin mala voluntad del proveedor de combustible enriquecido, la proliferación de reactores de esa línea llevará inevitablemente a saturar las instalaciones existentes y en tal caso habrá que esperar turnos para ser aprovisionado, con los problemas que es fácil imaginar.

La Meca de uranio natural ofrece un seguro contra tales eventualidades. En primer lugar si se dispone de yacimientos y en segundo lugar por existir muchos proveedores posibles de uranio, En nuestro concepto bien vale la pena pagar la prima de ese seguro, que a la postre no resulta tan onerosa por el menor costo del combustible, por la menor inversión entre las instalaciones de procesamiento del mineral y porque se puede prescindir del reprocesamiento de los elementos irradiados

Es necesario, sin embargo, dar pasos adicionales para que el objetivo de autosuficiencia energética sea efectivamente alcanzado. Representan

tuna cadena a cuya totalidad de eslabones es necesario forjar dentro del país, Debe dominarse así la tecnología de la fabricación de los elementos combustibles, Esta abarca desde la obtención de concentrado de uranio enriquecido hasta la producción de pastillas sinterizadas de UO₂, hasta la fabricación de las vainas de Zircaloy, Se trata de una tecnología basada

en zirconio cuya existencia en el territorio nacional también fue verificada, La fabricación de los elementos combustibles se encuentra

ya en operación,

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La operación local de esta fábrica es la más importante por el carácter consumible de los elementos pero además hay que tomar las previsiones necesarias para maximizar el suministro nacional y como mínimo posibilitar

el "service" de los distintos sistemas de la Central sin tener que recurrir al exterior,

For supuesto es imposible fabricar todas las piezas y accesorios de la Planta en el país, For consiguiente en e) contrato de provisión respectivo deben incluirse cláusulas que garanticen junto con la formación de Personal capaz de efectuar mantenimiento, y la adecuada transferencia de tecnología, la provisión de los repuestos más críticos. Es fundamental promover la participación creciente de la industria nacional en la provisión de partes,

Como todo lo que represente una contribución a la Independencia, esto tiene un costo, que resulta tanto más importante cuando mayor sea aquella participación.

Los proveedores extranjeros pueden dar créditos para adquirir los equipos de su fabricación, pero salvo casos especiales no se puede esperar que estos créditos cubran la provisión nacional. Además esta última, por razones de "derecho de piso" resulta necesariamente más cara y menos confiable en sus primeras versiones, que la importada. Las diferencias deben cubrirse en el país, como parte de su programas para autoabastecerse.

Para inducir a la industria nacional a equiparse es importante definir un tipo de reactor y un módulo de potencia que se repita en el futuro. El programa nuclear debe ser formulado con vistas a ofrecer una amortización razonable a las inversiones que efectúe y es poco probable que ello se logre con solo un prototipo.

Las mayores dificultades a vencer no son, sin embargo, de origen técnico. Económico, son de naturaleza política. La gestión de un país en procura de su autosuficiencia no puede realizarse sin afectar los intereses de potenciales proveedores. Sus intereses por supuesto no confesables, recurren a maniobras bajo otros rúbricos que promueven simultáneamente en los frentes internos y externos.

Internamente toman la forma de movimientos que colocan por sobre todo factibles consideraciones de carácter económico ya veces de carácter ecológico,

Externamente se levantan temas.

claros.

oderas de Ta no proliferactén de armas nu=

Las grandes potencias que son las responsables del desarrollo de armas nucleares no han podido ponerse de acuerdo en la limitación de sus arsenales. Finalmente concordaron, en cambio, en limitar el de las demás. En Julio de 1968 se firmó Simultáneamente en Washington, Londres y Moscú el Tratado de No proliferación de Armas Nucleares (TAN). Se establecen en él dos clases de Estados: los poseedores de armas nucleares (Nuclear Weapon States) y los no poseedores. A estos últimos se les prohíbe no solamente fabricar o recibir armas, sino equipos, materiales e informaciones que puedan ser usados en la producción de material fisionómico, si previamente no han acordado un sistema de inspección Internacional que cubra todas las actividades nucleares. Este denominado de "salvaguardias" se extiende hasta el infinito en el caso del combustible irradiado. Los Estados No Nucleares no tienen siquiera la garantía, por parte de los Nucleares, que este tipo de armas no serán usados en su contra.

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En 1974, India, país no firmante del tratado, denunció que por sus propios medios podía fabricar un explosivo nuclear.

Los Estados Nucleares, en lugar de incorporar India a su grupo demostraron una asimetría de tratamiento aplicándole sanciones y reforzando para los demás países 21 sistemas restrictivos mediante lo que se conoce como "NEI Club de Londres" cuyos miembros originales fueron las cuatro potencias nucleares más Canadá, Alemania y Japón.

En teoría, un país dedicado exclusivamente a actividades pacíficas, no debería tener problemas en un sistema de Inspección a las mismas. En la práctica las cosas suceden de otra manera sobre todo si uno de los fundamentos del programa nuclear es alcanzar la independencia de las presiones externas. Para lograrla existe el evidente requerimiento que todos los eslabones de la cadena queden bajo control nacional, Ello entra en colisión con la teoría de salvaguardias que sostiene que el control de la proliferación es evitar que existan Instal

clones denominadas "sensitivas" bajo ese control (Plantas de enriquecimiento, Plantas de reprocesamiento y an Plantas de Agua Pesada)..

Argentina aceptó la aplicación de salvaguardias para toda instalación /

instalada por otros países. Ha rehusado en cambio someterse

a las disposiciones discriminatorias que establece el Tratado de No Pro-

hibición, Resulta difícil explicar a la opinión pública la aceptación

de cláusulas que los países que originaron el problema no estén dispues-

tos a aplicarse a sí mismos.

Esta posición le ha traído y le continúa trayendo dificultades en el desarrollo en su programa nuclear. Como parte fundamental de un programa de esa naturaleza es necesario prepararse para afrontarlas.

En el caso argentino, se considera unánimemente que, en beneficio de las futuras generaciones, la Nación debe estar dispuesta a pagar el sobreprecio que esa preparación representa,

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UPADI 82

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?August 1-7, 1982

First Pen American Congress on Energy

SOME VIEWS ON ECONOMICS OF POWER COGENERATION

by

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August 1982

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INTRODUCTION.

The importance of economical energy can hardly be over emphasized, when we are geared to high energy consumption. There will be a continuing increase in the use of electricity in spite of various conservation measures, environmental restrictions and alternative energy sources. The average cost of producing one kilowatt hour of electricity by nuclear or coal is relatively cheaper than oil. Solar and other type alternate energy sources are more expensive at the present level of technology and economically unfeasible at least for a few years to come. Approximately 39% of the U.S. electric power is presently generated by burning coal; 17.5% by burning oil; 12% by gas, 11% by hydroelectric, 0.5% by pumped storage, 2.1% and geothermal 1%. This

Paper (refer to Tables 1, 2, 3 and 4) reviews literature and discusses the analyses of various studies and data. These analyses indicated that nuclear generation has an economic advantage over coal generation at the present time and will continue to be so in the future. The past, present and future trends in the costs, prices, supply and relative economies are analysed and discussed.

AXD_RESULTS_OF ANALYSIS

Number of parameters should be considered in such analysis to compare the costs of various sources. These include:

- 1, Capital and generation costs,

Dual supply and these costs,

Nuclear Regulatory Commission (NRC) Regulations.

Results of analyses performed using these, are presented in the following sections.

Generation and Capital Costs

Data presented in Table 5 clearly indicates that it is possible to determine generation costs for these plants according to regions. Nuclear costs are, however, cheaper than coal costs in practically all cases. The nuclear generation is economically more favorable than fossil generation at the present time and it is believed that this trend will continue up to the next few years,

The capital cost for coal generating plants in the North East region as

analyzed by various reports is relatively higher than that for other regions,

it is expected to be a continuing (Table 1 and 2) trend and will make it more

feasible, as an economic choice, to replace the existing operating nuclear

aeration plant by new fossil/coal generation plant, Because of the advances indicated in Tables 3 and 5 and Figures 1 and 2,

Uranium Supply and their Costs

There is an abundant supply of coal and uranium according to various sources resulting in sufficient supply of readily available uranium for the

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existing and future power generation plants. The cost of uranium is at \$40 per pound (1978) to fuel Light water reactors through this century and perhaps up to \$70 per pound well into the next century. (Fig. 3) Geological and mining activities for uranium are in general geared to the existing demand, supply and marketing conditions and economic interests, ERDA has for this purpose initiated the National Uranium Resources Evaluation Program (NURE) to complete the comprehensive uranium resource estimates for the United States. This and the International Uranium Resource Evaluation program (IUREP) has concentrated on new types of deposits and low grade resources.

It is probable that more uranium will be discovered in the years ahead which would further extend the availability of uranium as fuel. However, several factors will affect the actual uranium demand based on the overall

demand for electricity, the number of nuclear plants to come on line, the economics of other energy sources and 4 political, social, economic and? environmental considerations.

The enrichment process, which produces slightly enriched uranium and leaves a stream of depleted uranium known as "tails" can be adjusted to vary the amount of uranium feed required to produce a desired amount of nuclear fuel. Reduction in the tail assay at which the plant operates will result in a decrease in the amount of natural uranium required. Reprocessing of spent fuel to recover and recycle the unused uranium would also reduce new natural uranium requirements. Similarly, recycling of the plutonium which is created as the uranium is consumed in the reactor, will further reduce natural uranium requirements. Further to this, the liquid metal fast breeder reactors (LMFR) are now under development. Since a breeder reactor generates more fissionable fuel than it consumes while converting uranium to plutonium, the LMFR will be able to utilize the stockpile of uranium tails discussed earlier in the enrichment process:

The costs for fuels in different regions are different. Cost for coal fuel in North East region is relatively higher. In spite of recent higher prices, the uranium cost per million Btu remains comparative to the coal cost. The projected fuel costs over next two decades shown in Figure 1 clearly indicate this trend,

The curve in Figure 1, shows how the price of U_{30g} in 1986 will affect the total generation cost of a nuclear plant. The total cost of owning and operating a nuclear plant is relatively insensitive to the cost of the fuel source; a 50 percent increase in the assumed cost of U_{30g} increases the total generation cost by only 7 percent. Figure 1 shows the 1986 price of U_{30g} required before the nuclear and coal alternatives have equal total generation costs. It means that the uranium price will have to be \$162 per pound to

make the nuclear/coal choice equal. Clearly, the cost of U_{30g} would have to grossly exceed the industry's expectations to abandon nuclear power as the preferred method of generating electricity. In contrast to this, the total

generation cost of a coal plant is very sensitive to the cost of the fuel

sed. A 50 percent increase in the price of the coal for a plant located in
t Increases the total busbar cost by over 20 percent !.e. approxizately

8 the impact of a nuclear plant on the total power cost. (Table 3).

In a particular study the relative costs between the coal and nuclear

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generating plant during the period 1985-2025 have been examined, which indicated that the nuclear fuel cost will be at approximately half the cost of coal even when baseline nuclear fuels are estimated at \$75 and 2150 per pound for U₃O₈ and SWU, respectively.

Nuclear Regulatory Commission Regulations for

These regulations are designed to ensure safe operation and offer adequate protection to the public and environment. They are continuously modified based on the new experiences and problems and the environmental and safety requirements. The cost incurred under this item according to some studies, for both fossil and nuclear plants, are significant and of the same magnitude. It is understood and anticipated that there will be an increased cost to meet the new requirements, including those for retrofitting to satisfy the new regulations and requirements, (Table 4) However, the impact will not jeopardize seriously the economics of power generation, (See Fig. 4)

The operating License is issued according to the period requested by the licensee with a maximum of 40 years for commercial nuclear power plant unless the Commission estimates the useful life to be less. The license may be renewed according to 10CFR 50. Basis of licensing is the design of these

plants. This has been a major issue in rate increase cases before the state Public Utility Commissions in determining the useful life of power plants for depreciation and valuation costs.

AS EXAMPLE OF COST CURRENT

08 IN PENNSYLVANIA

An economic comparison of nuclear versus coal base load generation for the 1,000 MW capacity has been made using the available cost estimates. Oil-fired base capacity is not considered an acceptable alternative in keeping up with new national goal of no oil-fired base capacity by 1980. The results show that nuclear is the proper economic choice, based on 1978-79 costs.

A comparison was made between a nuclear unit and a new coal unit for Doherty City 3 located in PA. The current construction budget cost for TMI 2 plus nuclear fuel initial investment are considered in this analysis. The nuclear fuel cost is taken as \$2.63/MWHR (1978). The nuclear fixed and

variable operation and maintenance (06%) costs reflect current experience in escalation at 8% per year.

The coal unit investment cost of the currently budgeted for the 650 Mw
Homer City Unit. This cost includes sulfur dioxide scrubbing investment. The
fixed end variable 06M costs for the coal unit include estimates for opera-
ting the scrubbing equipment. The present (1978) delivered cost of coal is
about \$25/ton approximately.

Results are shown in Fig. 5 in terms of the total yearly costs for nuclear
vs coal units as a function of the number of hours of operation per year.

Even on 7,000 hours/year load operation, the nuclear unit has an economic
advantage of \$37.7 million/year for a unit size of 850 Mw. This differential
is likely to increase in the future because nuclear fuel is expected to in-
crease at a somewhat slower rate than coal.

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OTHER ENERGY RESOURCES

Other sources, such as Magnetohydrodynamics (MHD), solar energy, fuel cells, wind power, tidal energy, etc., were considered but found to be impractical! These sources require additional research and development efforts for their practical implementation and large commitments of land to achieve the Power production level of a commercial nuclear unit. However, brief discussion on some of these follows:

Practical conversion of solar energy is limited to space applications or other unique applications based on the technology available today. It is estimated that nine square miles of photocells would be required to generate the same power as of a commercial nuclear unit. This power production level will be realized only four hours per day during sunny weather.

Practical applications utilizing geothermal energy are limited to areas in the western United States where a large source of steam or hot water can be tapped by drilling up to 6,000 to 10,000 feet. It has been estimated that the similar potential in the Eastern region will be tapped by drilling up to depths of approximately 25,000 feet and extracting heat by pushing water from the surface through hot rocks at that depth to generate steam. Drilling up to 200,000 to 150,000 ft. through the earth's mantle may make it possible to utilize geothermal energy sources almost anywhere on earth. However, a practical recovery of geothermal energy at present is not a suitable alternative due to technical difficulties expected to be encountered during deep drilling greater than about 25,000 ft.

Thermonuclear fusion presents very attractive long-range possibilities for central station power generation. Fusion is attractive because it can supply an almost unlimited compared with nuclear and fossil fuel processes. The fuel used is Deuterium extracted from seawater. Fuel transportation would, therefore, not be a constraint in station siting. It has been estimated that there is enough Deuterium in seawater to last ten billion years at the present rate of energy consumption. Fusion is not considered a suitable energy source since, one of the major problems is that of containing the reaction, which takes place at 500,000,000°F. An interesting possible out group

th of fusion technology, which at the present time is largely in the discussion stage, is the use of fusion energy to extract hydrogen from water: Hydrogen would be a clean fuel for many uses as its only product of combustion is water vapors

1h. The nuclear generation is economical at the present time and will remain so in the near future.

There is enough evidence to show that uranium supply will be available and will continue to remain as an economically competitive fuel source

7. The best kind of generating stations for the far future will be nuclear. Increasingly, nuclear is and will be the economic choice as a practical solution to the energy problem.

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The opinions expressed are the authars owns

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(Extensive references were used as source material for this paper. Because of
their number they vere not identified in the text.)

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Table 1 Break-up of Energy Generation (1970)

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Appalachian Power

Baltzore Gas and Electric

Cleveland Electric

Commonwealth Edison

Consumers Power

Detroit Edison

Florida Power

Georgia Power

Midwest States

Indiana Power

Jersey Central

Long Beach Lighting

Louisiana Power

Magnum Mohawk

Ohio Edison

Ohio Power

Pennsylvania Power

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Table 2 Break-up of Energy Generation (1979)

Company,

vepeo

Carolina Power & Light Co.

Duke Power Company

?Alabama Power Company

Appalachian Power Co.

Baltimore Gas & Elec.

Cleveland Electric

Connnonsealth Edison Co.

Consumers Power Co.

Detreit Edison Co

Florida Fower & Light co.

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Table 3 Various Plant Energy Production Expenses (Hills/kim)

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Florida Power & Light Company 20.65 26.28 - = 5.38 5.89

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Pennsylvania Power & Light Co. 24.22 34.01 - -

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Table 4 Cost and Benefit Comparison Between

?@ Nuclear and a Coal-Fired Power Station

Aspect Coal-Fired Plant Nuclear Plant

Gaseous Discharge

Liquid Discharge

Aesthetics and Land

cost (80% Capacity

Factor)

Use of Irrecoverable

safety

SO₂ discharge - 172 tons/day

NO_x discharge ~ 115 tons/day

Ash sluice water runoff from
coal storage and ash deposi

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and ash sluicing areas

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Use of coal - supply limited

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natural background)

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ulation exposure - 0.7

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---Page Break---

Table 5 Average Costs of Energy Production (1986)

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Region Goat Yuclear Coat Nuclear

Northeast 698.50 829.00 48.10 41.60

Southeast 369.00 m1.50 4.25 37.69

Fast Central 663.00 787.00 46.85 40.20

West Central 654.00 754.50 42.55 39.10

South Central 649.50 734.00 41.05 38.75

west 718.00 823.00 46.20 41.30

National 666.00 791.00 45.15 40.20

NOTE: Capital cost estimates were developed for the Electric Power Research

Institute by the Bochtel Pover Corporation for coal-fired generating

plants and by United Engineers and Constructors for nuclear generating

plant:

---Page Break---

COAL PLANT

---Page Break---

LEVELIZED PLANT GENERATION COST(MILLS KWH)

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2 COAL PRICES AND BREAKEVEN ECONOMICS

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FIG.: 3

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CAPITAL COST AND OPERATING COST- #//KW YR

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ANNUAL HOURS OF OPERATION

AVERAGE PENNSYLVANIA

FIG.5 COMPARATIVE ANNUAL COSTS OF
NUCLEAR VS. COAL BASE- LOAD GENERATION

12

---Page Break---

UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1-7, 1987

Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

THE GEOTHERMAL ENERGY POTENTIAL OF DOMINICA

?A CASE STUDY FOR DEVELOPING NATIONS-

By

William B. Taylor

4001 Belle Rive Terrace

Alexandria, Virginia ~ USA

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

---Page Break---

---Page Break---

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ABSTRACT

The Commonwealth of Dominica, in the Windward Islands of the Caribbean, is of volcanic origin and is near a boundary of the earth's tectonic plate system. Therefore, geologically, Dominica should have a reasonable probability of owning a geothermal source capable of producing cheap energy. Surface manifestations in the form of steam geysers and fumaroles in three areas of southern Dominica do, in fact, indicate the presence of geothermally heated water trapped at unknown depths below the surface.

c

This paper will analyze results from geotechnical surveys by

several independent geologists representing several nations who were invited by the Government of Dominica to conduct such surveys during the period from 1969 through 1980. The paper will outline the exploratory effort necessary to measure and locate the geothermal source adequately to attract investors for the development of a geothermal power system on Dominica. Assuming that measurements confirm the 1965-80 experts' opinions, the paper will outline a Program of geothermal resource development for Dominica, The first Phase of the program, constructing and operating a small power Plant, would meet the near term domestic power needs of Dominica and would provide engineering and cost data for the later development of the geothermal field's full potential on a schedule comparable with the ability of the Dominican economy to absorb it. The paper will examine options for developing the geothermal energy and for marketing any energy which may be excess to Dominica's needs.

The proposed program for Dominica will be used to define more generalized guidelines which other developing nations can use in planning the beneficial use of their natural resources to meet their national needs. These guidelines will consider various combinations of international aid, investment and trade, phased over varying periods of time, as may be best suited to the individual nation's situation.

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Introduction

The Commonwealth of Dominica, a newly independent nation in the Eastern Caribbean region, is struggling to achieve economic self-sufficiency. Faced with growing unemployment, a dwindling agricultural economy, and a balance of trade deficit which is growing each year, Dominica has one potentially valuable natural resource--geothermal energy--which may be the key to realizing her full potential as an emerging and productive member of the Caribbean Basin group of nations. This paper will analyze the results of several reconnaissance surveys of Dominica's geothermal resource and outline a strategy for developing that resource at a pace consistent with the fragile national economy's ability to absorb industrial growth. From the predicted results of Dominica's development, the paper will outline a set of principles which other developing nations can apply in their efforts to achieve their national goals.

Dominica

From the viewpoint of a geologist, Dominica is a superb example of an elaborately dissected, composite, volcanic island, located on the margin of a pair of the earth's crustal tectonic plates (1).* As depicted on Slide 1, Dominica is 27 miles long, north and south, and 12 miles wide, with a land area of 290 square miles dominated by mountains rising from the sea to an altitude of 4,747 feet. An average annual rainfall of approximately 160 inches fills high altitude lakes feeding numerous streams and rivers. The soil, being of volcanic origin and with heavy erosion due to large rainfall, is not particularly fertile. However, it supports luxuriant natural vegetation and such crops as bananas, coconuts, and limes. The population of Dominica is approximately 80,000, of which about 16,000 live in the capital city, Roseau.

Because of its rugged, mountainous, defensible terrain, Dominica was a stronghold of the Carib Indians which inhabited most of the Eastern Caribbean islands prior to their discovery by European explorers in the 15th century. The last Carib settlement in the Caribbean region survives today in the hills of Dominica, but the majority of the island's population are descendants of Europeans and Africans transplanted there over 300 years ago. Under French rule briefly during the 18th century, traces of a French patois still remain in the Dominicans' speech. But the culture is essentially British colonial in form and substance. After almost two decades of semi-autonomous rule under British protection, Dominica

was granted full independence in 1978.

The economy of Dominica is essential.

representing the predominant (7

s refer to sources Listed in the Bi

the text.

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small industries produce such products as coconut oil and soap for

Profitable export. The gross domestic product is about US\$50

million, or under \$625 per capita. The British-style school system

is compulsory for children between the ages of 5 and 15,

resulting in a high (80%) literacy rate. However, the 20% overall

unemployment is unacceptably high, and it approaches 40% for young people. Agricultural productivity is declining, leading to increased trade deficits resulting from the need to import food. There is thus a strong motivation, reflected in the Government's national plan, to improve the infrastructure (roads, power, ports, etc.) so as to attract foreign investment in industries to provide jobs and to stimulate agricultural revival. A 1979 project for the reconstruction of bridges in Dominica (3) was deferred by the devastating Hurricane David, from which recovery was still not complete in mid-1982.

Dominica's Energy Resources

Energy, in the form of either electricity or process heat, is an essential element of the infrastructure which a developing nation needs to develop domestically and to attract internationally the industries which can provide jobs and revenues to stimulate economic self-sufficiency. Dominica's geographic and geologic situation provides an energy potential in at least two forms, hydroelectric and geothermal, which can be developed to meet all the domestic needs for growth over the next two decades and can also provide excess energy roughly twenty times the domestic needs for export in the form of manufactured products, or other forms of stored energy, to provide jobs and economic independence,

Dominica's mountainous terrain and tropical rainfall combine to form a hydropower potential which is approximately three times the current electrical demand of the island's 80,000 people and small industrial base. Two small hydroelectric stations of Scottish design presently provide approximately 2,500 kilowatts of electric generating capacity, or roughly 40% of the island's total installed generating capacity of 6,600 kilowatts (4). However, the hydroelectric stations provide over 90% of the island's 37 million kilowatt-hours per year, with the balance being provided by diesel engine driven generators used to meet peak demands and to back up the hydro units when the river flow is low. Studies during the past decade of Dominica's hydro potential have concluded that three principal rivers on the island could be harnessed to provide as much as 17 megawatts of hydroelectric power to the island, which would allow reasonable domestic growth with

some new, small industries during the next twenty years {§}." ho
Dominican government, with financial backing from the Caribbean
Development Bank and the U.S. Agency for International Development
(AID) has begun a project to increase the existing hydroelectric
generating capacity by a factor of up to two, which
meet the projected growth in domestic energy demand through
1980's. Referring again to Slide 1, this project is intended
to realize the full hydroelectric potential of the Roseau River by
doubling the capacity of the Trafalgar generating station and by

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building a new station higher in the mountains at Titot. The feasibility of this addition has been studied by Scottish, French, and Canadian engineers in separate efforts during the past 10 years. The concept depends on increasing the hydraulic head of the upper Roseau River by raising the banks of Fresh Water Lake, high in the mountains, by approximately 20 feet.

Near the southern end of Dominica are three areas of steam geysers which indicate the possible presence of a significant geothermal resource. These three possible geothermal fields, known as Boiling Lake, Wotten Waven, and Soufriere, have been known for years, and some attempts have been made to use the sulphur deposited by the steam eruptions for making matches. In the late 1960's the Government of Dominica requested the United Nations Development Programme to send a survey team to Dominica to evaluate Dominica's natural resources--particularly the geothermal resource.

Before examining the results of the UNDP and subsequent reconnaissance surveys of Dominica's geothermal potential, we should examine the basic principle of extracting useful energy from a geothermal resource. Slide 2 depicts in simplified form the type of geothermal energy system which appears to be possible in Dominica. The volcanic nature of the island and its location near the boundary of the earth's tectonic plates creates the likelihood

that entrapped water, heated by the molten magma of the earth, could underlie relatively large areas in the southern portion of Dominica, where many steam geysers are evidence of potential energy below. If so, the hot water might be flashed to steam which could, in turn, drive steam turbines to generate electricity. The exhaust steam from the turbines could be re-injected into the ground to replenish the source.

The geysers have been observed and measured by several independent experts. In 1969, the UNDP sent a team including Dr. James McNitt, a geologist experienced in geothermal exploration, in response to Dominica's request (6). Dr. McNitt sampled the s

from a few of the geysers and had them analyzed. As summarized in Slide 3, Dr. McNitt concluded that the probabilities are high that hot, dry steam exists in a large, shallow heat source which might be tapped to provide power more cheaply than anywhere else in the Caribbean Region. In 1981, Dr. McNitt re-confirmed his tentative conclusions but noted that new techniques for sampling and analysis are now available which should be used for a more modern and extensive survey than he conducted for the UNDP in 1969 (7).

In 1978, the United States Geological Survey responded to a request from the Government of Dominica by sending Mr. James E. Case to conduct a month-long survey of the island's natural resources (9). Case identifies the existence of materials which might form the basis of industrial development, such as 1!

and clay for manufacturing cement, provided sufficient energy sources were available. Case also noted the major hydro and geothermal potential, and he recommended a comparative study be made of the costs of developing these two sources

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In early 1980, at the request of the newly independent Government of Dominica, the French Government sent an experienced geologist, M. Jacques Varet, to assess the Dominican geothermal fields (a). Varet's conclusions, summarized on Slide 5; were that the

Dominican fields are significantly stronger than those being developed by the French on the neighboring island of Guadeloupe (10). Varet estimated that the three Dominican fields might have a potential of approximately 300 megawatts of electric power. He recommended a thorough geotechnical measurement program, including exploratory drillings, to obtain quantitative data on the porosity, depth, chemical composition, and energy content of the fields at Boiling Lake, Wotten Waven, and Soufriere. If these measurements confirm his and the previous estimates, Varet recommended development of a pilot plant to generate up to 5 MW of electricity, in order to provide hard engineering and cost data needed to design and justify the investment for full scale plants which could realize Dominica's full geothermal energy potential.

Required Exploration Program

Slide 6 summarizes the geothermal exploration program which these international experts recommend be undertaken to provide the hard data necessary to convince financiers that the Dominican power Potential could yield an attractive return on their investments. A Measurement Phase of approximately one year's duration would include in-depth geotechnical exploration to provide measured data and laboratory analysis on the geology, the chemistry, and the physical characteristics of the three areas of geothermal surface manifestations. Assuming the preliminary results are positive, the

Source. The estimated cost of the Measurement Phase is \$660,000.

Assuming the measured results confirm the experts' prediction that dry steam of approximately 500°F is at depths of approximately 2,500 feet, the project should move into its Pilot Plant phase,

The objective here would be to drill at least one production well at the best location determined by the Measurement Phase. It may require drilling up to three wells to achieve one high production well, at which would be installed a well-head steam-turbine generator unit. This type unit, factory-assembled on a skid which can be transported by truck or helicopter to the wellhead, is manufactured commercially by several U.S. firms from essentially off-the-shelf components of the rugged types found in ship-board use. Such a wellhead generator unit can be purchased for a few hundred thousand dollars with ratings up to 5 megawatts electrical power output. The Pilot Plant phase would continue with operation of the well-head unit for several years, to provide data applicable to

the design, operation, and economics of full scale geothermal power Plants in those fields at some future date. The estimated cost of the Pilot Plant phase, including one year's operation, is \$4 million.

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The current price of electricity in Dominica is more than 10 cents (U.S.) per kilowatt-hour. If the 5 MW output of the Pilot Plant were connected into the local utility grid, it would provide for the entire growth in consumption of electrical energy projected during the 1980's. If this Pilot Plant's electricity were sold to Dominican customers at 6 cents per kilowatt-hour (that is, at 60% of the current price), and if the Pilot Plant operated on a year-round average of 50% of its rated capacity, the revenues produced could pay off the entire cost of the Measurement and Pilot Plant Phases in approximately 3 years. The Caribbean Projects Development Facility of the World Bank's International Finance Corporation (IFC) has advised that Dominica seek a grant for the Measurement Phase, since that phase will not produce revenues, per se, which could pay off a loan. If results are favorable, as assumed above, then IFC suggests that a Dominican company be formed to raise up to 40% of the cost of the Pilot Plant phase through equity

financing from local and foreign private investors. With this demonstration of commitment by the private sector, IFC is confident that the remaining 60% of the Pilot Plant phase cost could be obtained as loans on favorable terms from international financial sources.

As of this writing, the Government of Dominica has discussed, with representatives of France and the United States, the possibility of grants for the geothermal exploration effort, and they have accepted a French offer of 2 million francs to start the Measurement Phase of the program.

Concept of a Dominican Geothermal
Development

Slide 7 outlines a concept for the ultimate development of the Dominican geothermal energy potential, assuming that the Pilot Plant has operated successfully long enough for the Dominicans to develop confidence and competence in the system. If the ultimate capacity of the three fields does, in fact, total 300 MW, the conservative concept shown here would include three separate electric power plants, each rated at 100 MW. It is possible that the three Dominican fields: Boiling Lake, Wotten Waven, and Soufriere--all represent surface manifestations of a single large steam source. Thus, the exploration

program might indicate the attractiveness of a single, large plant of 300 Mw. On the other hand, since the economies of scale for geothermal steam power plants level off at about 50 Mw electrical capacity, it might be preferable to develop a larger number--perhaps as many as six each catering to a different market.

And, of course, if the processes being catered for require steam instead of or in addition to the plants could be

designed to provide a variety of mixes of steam and electric power.

For simplicity and conserva!

three 100 ttf electric power

duction wells and 10 ro-injection

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well, on the average, would produce steam equivalent to 4 MW of electric output, which is 20¢ less than the lower end of the range estimated by the French survey in 1920 (12).

Of the energy-intensive industries listed as examples on Slide 7, the manufacture of ammonia by electrolysis of desalinated Seawater to obtain hydrogen and by extraction of nitrogen from air is particularly attractive, because of both the almost limitless supply of essentially free raw materials and the ready market for ammonia for agricultural fertilizer and industrial chemicals in the Caribbean Region and the U.S. Another strong possibility is the reduction of Caribbean-produced alumina to aluminum for world markets.

Slide @ summarizes cost estimates for a 100 Mi electric power

plant constructed at one of the Dominican geothermal fields, assuming the exploration phase finds 500°F dry steam at depths of 1,500 feet. The capital cost of the steam collection and power generating system is estimated at \$900 per kilowatt, based on current experience with two 50 MW additions to the Geysers complex in California, and it includes an amount to cover contingencies which could arise from local conditions in Dominica. The estimate of \$1 million per production well represents a conservative extrapolation, inflated as necessary, from recent experience with geothermal drilling in Central America-

Over an assumed 30-year plant life, it is estimated that 35 additional wells will be required to account for depletion of the initial field. Operation and maintenance of the plant is estimated to cost \$100,000 per year. With these budgetary cost estimates, with provisions for inflation and debt service, and assuming an average capacity factor of 70%, the cost of generating energy with this plant is estimated at an average of 12-2 mills per kilowatt-hour, or less than one-eighth the current price of electricity in Dominica. This cost is well below the competitive price of electricity being paid by the large aluminum manufacturers at their 300-400 Mw smelters in the United States, where electricity prices in the range of 20 to 30 mills per kilowatt-hour prevail today.

Phased Development Program

Slide 9 outlines a six-phase program for full development of Dominica's geothermal resources (13). This proposal was made to the Prime Minister of Dominica in December of 1981, and the program got underway essentially as proposed here, in the Spring of 1982. Phases 1 and 2 could actually be carried out in parallel, since neither requires the results from the other in order to begin. Studies to accomplish the objectives of Phase 1 are being conducted in the United States, and the Government of Dominica has accepted an offer by the French Government to begin the exploration of the geothermal fields at Soufriere, Wotten Wharf Boiling Lake, as noted above

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If the results of the exploration are positive, then the Pilot Plant phases 3 and 4 can be expected to produce revenues through the sale of electricity fed into the existing Dominican grid. As suggested by the World Bank's International Finance Corporation, discussions have begun on the possibility of equity and loan financing for the Pilot Plant phase, perhaps by reviving a Dominican corporation chartered in the mid-70's during a previous, unsuccessful attempt to initiate the development of Dominica's geothermal potential (14). If equity financing of approximately 40% of the estimated cost can be obtained from private investors, IEC is confident that the remaining 60% could be obtained from international banking sources to carry out the Phases 3 and 4 indicated on this slide.

On this slide Phase 4, Operation of the Pilot Plant, is shown as continuing for four years: 1985 through 1989. This is probably the minimum amount of time required to prove out the resource for long-term operation of full scale plants and to permit Dominica to become comfortable with operating and financing of a geothermal power system on a private sector, free enterprise basis. Actually, Phase 4 can be somewhat open-ended and could continue indefinitely at the option of the Dominican owners. The assumed 5 Mw capacity of the Pilot Plant, added to the existing 6.6 Mw combined hydro and diesel capacity, would be ample to meet expanding requirements of residential customers as well as those for new, small, agricultural based industries which Dominica's Industrial Development Corporation is actively attempting to attract to the island.

Again assuming favorable results from the exploration program, and using hard geotechnical and engineering data developed by operation of the Pilot Plant, the Phase 5 design of full scale geothermal power plants could begin as early as 1985. The choice of

plant capacities and location would be influenced by the results from Phase 1, which should have identified several energy-intensive industries having requirements for electricity, process heat, or a combination of both which might be met by the predicted 300 Mw equivalent electrical capacity from the three fields tapping the predicted source of 500°F dry steam. The choice shown here of three 300 Mw electric power plants probably represents the most expensive option for converting Dominica's geothermal resource to useful energy. Such a complex could power an aluminum smelter capable of producing approximately 150,000 tons of aluminum per year from 300,000 tons of alumina, which could be shipped to Dominica from Jamaica, St. Croix, or Guyana. Other possible uses of the 300 Mw potential could be the production of approximately 300,000 metric tons of liquid ammonia per year hydrogen and nitrogen extracted electrically and air, or 15 million tons per year of cement from 26 million tons of limestone, gypsum, and clay plus 2 million tons (one ship per week) of cement imported to provide the 2,200°F hot gases for the roasting kiln required in cement manufacture. Many of these industries would require power, if the location of the island's industries is as shown under Phase 1.

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§; the owners of the Dominican geothermal power system could rea~

lize gross profits in excess of \$10 million per year during the assumed thirty-year plant life, which would represent a 208 increase in Grease over the current Gross Domestic Product. In addition, and perhaps of even greater importance to Dominica, the power complex and its industrial customers would become major employers, with hundreds of jobs covering a wide range of skills which Dominica's Bppish schooled population could master with effective training

Summary of Current status

Slide 10 summarizes the findings presented in this paper!

As mentioned earlier, the Government of Dominica has placed geothermal energy development high on its list of priorities and has accepted the French Government's offer to begin geotechnical exploration of the island's three geothermal fields. The Prime Minister of Dominica told the 6th Annual Miami Conference of Caribbean and Central American nations last December to mark their calendars for 1983, as an important year in Dominica's development of geothermal energy. If her program goes as planned, she should by then have the results of the exploration program and be well into the planning of a Pilot Plant, to be developed by the private sector.

Guidelines for other Developing Countries

This analysis of the deliberate, step-wise study, planning, and development of Dominica's geothermal resource provides a basis for the following guidelines which other developing nations can use to realize the full potential of their natural resources,

First: The Government should analyze the country's natural resources, based on local observations and history.

Second: The Government should request professional appraisals of its natural resources by appropriate international agencies, Such as the United Nations Development Programme, and such national agencies as the United States Geological Survey, the North of Scotland Hydroelectric Board, and the French Bureau de Recherches Géologiques et Minières.

Third: Results of the professional appraisals of the country's natural resources should be analyzed with a view to designing feasible and cost-effective options for the development of those resources and to developing a program plan with national

priorities for that development.

Fourth: As soon as reliable technical data on the natural resources is available, the Government should encourage the private investors at home and abroad to invest in a phased program to develop.

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the nation's resources. If adequate technical data are not available, the Government should seek grants from developed nations to conduct the efforts necessary to obtain data adequate to support engineering and economic analyses capable of attracting international venture capital.

Fifth: Private investors and entrepreneurs in the nation should form a corporation and raise local and foreign private equity financing for the pilot phase of the ultimate development effort, whose objective should be (1) to demonstrate the technical and economic feasibility of the ultimate development; (2) to generate sufficient revenue to pay off any loans and to pay dividends to the investors; and (3) to provide local experience and data adequate to support detailed engineering and economic financial plans for the full scale development.

Dominica is pioneering in this joint public-private sector concept for achieving the full potential benefits of a developing nation's natural resources, leading to ultimate economic independence for a free society. Others can follow Dominica's example to their mutual benefit:

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1982

First Pan American Congress on Energy

RECOVERY OF ENGHALPY AS WORK FROM
?THERMAL EFFLUENTS

By

ALE. Molini

Department of Chemical Engineering

University of Puerto Rico

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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RECOVERY OF ENTHALPY AS WORK FROM
HOT EFFLUENTS

Professor of Chemical Engineering

Mayaguez Campus, UPR

Abstract

It is commercially feasible to recover enthalpy as work from hot industrial effluents by the controlled expansion of liquids through convergent-divergent nozzles using liquid turbines. For hot liquid effluent, the effluent itself serves as the working-fluid. For gaseous effluents, a high boiling stable liquid is heated by direct contact with the gas in a scrubbing tower and then the liquid is expanded as the working fluid. If the effluents contain undesirable levels of particulate pollutants, the hot liquid is cleaned before it is expanded.

Lower quality fuels can be used when the process is coupled to fossil-electric power plants because the flue gases are discharged to the atmosphere cleaner and cooler than they would otherwise. Expansion cycle efficiencies are high as

26% are possible. Recoveries as high as 37 NW, valued at approximately \$17 millions per year seem possible from the flue gases of a 500 MW, fossil-electric utility discharging flue gases at 500%,

Results predicted when using work-fluids as glycerol, tricresyl phosphate, biphenyls and silicone oils are presented.

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Mayaguez Campus, UPR, Mayaguez, Puerto Rico, 90703.

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RECOVERY OF ENTHALPY AS WORK FROM

CO₂ REFRIGERANTS?

INTRODUCTION

We do not have to go into the details of how much the increases in the prices of petroleum fuels are affecting our economy. It is sufficient to say that the deficits are huge. In Puerto Rico, it runs at more than \$2.5 billions every year. Comparing this deficit to our gross national product of approximately \$13 billions gives a clear picture of the economic squeeze that the aspirations of our people have suffered. Just imagine what we could do with this amount of money for the betterment of life if we could keep it in the island, plowing it back into our economy year after year! Unfortunately we do not have such a source of energy and we must satisfy ourselves with improvements in the way we use or convert the fuels that we purchase.

Those of us who at one time or another in our educational process dealt with the second law of thermodynamics remember the typical problem assigned to every student to calculate the fraction of liquid and the fraction of vapor resulting from an isentropic expansion of a liquid. We learned how to solve the problem but somehow we missed sight of the fact that the expansion of a liquid also provides a route to convert a portion of the liquid enthalpy into mechanical energy like a rotating shaft, which is by far the most useful form. If we extend the principle and perform it in a controlled fashion through Laval nozzles, the much increased kinetic energy of the expanded mixture can be used to drive liquid turbines coupled -

to electric generators. Commercial application of the principle requires the most effective fluids. The liquid must be thermally and chemically stable at the temperatures at which it will be in direct contact with the hot flue gases. Direct contact in a scrubbing tower will make the enthalpy transfer from the gases to the liquid most economical. Since the thermal efficiency of the expansion step is dependent upon the temperature difference between the initial and final temperatures of the expansion, the liquid must be stable at the highest possible temperature. At present this is limited to about $550^{\circ}\text{F} = 650^{\circ}\text{F}$. To close the work cycle it will be necessary to return the work fluid to the scrubbing tower thus the flashed mixture needs to be condensed. The most effective and economical manner of doing it is in a direct contact spray barometric leg condenser. This requires that the work fluid also be insoluble in water. The spray water is cooled in a cooling tower. All the heat transfer steps are performed in the most effective manner, by direct contact -

?The process presents also a more environmentally attractive means of producing electricity.

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PREVIOUS WORK AND JUSTIFICATION

5S

Fossil-electric power plants are notorious for their

low efficiency in converting the thermal energy from the combustion of fuels into electric power. (Exhibit =). They are also notorious as pollution sources, specially of the atmosphere which receives their combustion gases. Bodies of water or the atmosphere receive the waste heat from the turbine condensers. The temperature of the flue gases and their enthalpy is related to the sulfur content of the fuel. The higher sulfur fuels will require discharging the flue gases at higher temperatures to prevent the condensation of Sulfuric acid on the metal surfaces of the flue gas handling system. Failure to do so will have catastrophic effects.

The proposed process will reduce the pollution level of

the combustion gases by scrubbing then wntie simultaneously
Fecovering a large portion of their enthalpy. Serubeing of
the gases with high boiling poins fluids give us the opportunity
to clean the flue gases berore discharging then to the atmoss
phere. The particulate pollutants will be washed from the gases.
Removal of the sulfur compounds 1s poceibie by incorporating
trapping agents in the scrubbing fluid to react with the suifur
gompounds and remove then with the fluid to the bottom of the
tower, where they will be removed from the system,

?The scrubbing operation 1s well known in the chemteal
Process industries. Sufficient expertence in the design and
Qperation of scrubbing units has deen accumuliated during he
last few decades which factittate the application of the prin
ciple. The gases will leave the tower at temperatures somewhat
bigher than 160°F to make certain that all of the moisture
originally present in the gases will leave the tower and not
accumilate in tt. The vaporization of the high bolling liquid
used in the scrubbing operation will be almost nil if'not aero.

The technology for the design of scrubbing or packed
towers is readily available (9), There 1s 2 large selection of
packings in terms of materials, efficiency and cost (esnioie V)
We do not expect problens with? this step with reference to the
scrubbing mechanism and the direct contact heat transfer mechs
anism.The proposed enthalpy recovery system connere/aily

feasible to recover significant amounts of thermal energy from the flue gases of fossil-electric power plants. For example, approximately 400,000 Btu, valued at more than \$17 million can be recovered from the gaseous effluents of a 500 MW fossil-electric utility discharging flue gases at 50°F. Recovery of this energy through the use of the usual tubular heat exchange equipment would be prohibitive.

The isentropic expansion of liquids is well known and extensively used in the chemical process industries. The technology of flashing liquids as a route to separate low boiling compounds from mixtures is very common in the petroleum industry. To control the expansion we propose to

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through convergent-divergent nozzles. This is a well known technology. We do not expect major difficulties in its application.

The controlled isentropic expansion of surface seawater is the basis for the proposal of Zener and Fetkovich (1) to recover electric power from the temperature range of the ocean. Their FOAM OTEC concept takes advantage of the temperature difference existing between the surface waters and deep ocean waters. In their open cycle FOAM OTEC approach Zener and Fetkovich (1) expand warm surface water at approximately 79°F through a multiplicity of orifices to generate a well behaved uniform foam at approximately 50°F. As originally envisioned, their process is a low power-density process. Their flashing rates amount to approximately 2 Gals. of water / sq.ft.-sec. Nolini and Zener (3) used the principles for the design of jet based FOAM OTSC plants for bottoming cycles. Our present approach envisions using temperature differences as high as 50°F. when expanding working fluid from 60°F (Exhibit V11) to a condenser operating at 100°F. Under these conditions the flashing rates approach values of 275 Gals./sq.ft.-sec. The hot high temperature fluid serves as the working fluid to drive Liquid impulse turbines. (Saxsbee XI)

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Present day knowledge show that it is commercially feasible to embody a low cost process to recover enthalpy as work from hot industrial effluents by the controlled expansion of liquids through convergent-divergent nozzles using Yiguid Impulse turbines. Direct contact heat transfer between hot gases and high boiling stable liquids followed by the isentropic expansion of the hot liquid is the basis for a low cost process to recover enthalpy as work from hot gaseous effluents. The direct contact heat exchange is performed in an atmospheric pressure scrubbing tower. The cleaned gases leave the tower at approximately 160°F. For hot liquid effluents, the effluent itself serves as the work-fluid. The hot work-fluids are cleaned before the expansion step to remove undesirable levels of particulate

pollutants.

Lower quality (cost) fuels may be used when the process
4s coupled to a fossil-electric power plant because cooler and
cleaner flue gases are discharged to the atmosphere. The process
4s an environmentally attractive way of producing electricity.

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BwIBIT OT

UTILIZATION OF FUEL BY Fossil

POWER PLANTS

Electricity ~~sessssesereseeses~~ 500 Me,

Flue gases, + 250 My

Cooling water . = 930 My,

Heating value of fuel used .. 1680 Nw,

+ Work-cycle efficiency ..

Boiler efficiency ...

Flue gas temperature .

35%

seeees 500 OF

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VALUE OF FLUE GAS ENTHALPY

Total flue gas enthalpy .

Enthalpy recoverable by scrubbing fluid .

Power recovered from work-fluid

Cost of fuel ot No. 6 ++ \$30.00 / bor.

Fuel cost / KW

+ 90,0546 / Ki

Value of flue gas enthalpy \$ 17-69 millions/ yr.

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COMPARATIVE COSTS OP HEAT TRANSFER SURFACES

Heat load $\ll s+ 583.62 E6 BDUAlr .. 272 Mi,$

Gas 7, = 50°F Work-fluid Ty, 100°F

Gas Toy? 160°F Work-fluid Tugs 480°?

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TUBULAR EAT EXCHANGER

Meat transfer coefficient = 10 BIU/ he-tt?-°P :

Area required = 1.6 £6 Pt.

=§ 12.00/tt? = \$ 16 Mi21L0ne

PACKED TOWER - Direct contact host transfer

Meat transfer coefficient $\ll 7 BTU/ nr-tt2°F$

wat mag r07/ 2) q

Packed volume = 198,250 £t?

Purchased cost of packing raterial = ¥ 7.00/ ft?

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TEVPERATURE = ENTROPY DIAGRAM

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| A Diethytene et: ot

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900

Liquid phase

800

R

Liquid-Vapor

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Temperature

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TEMPERATURE = ENTROPY DIAG!

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Temperature

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Source of vapor p:csaure datas Perry, John li,, * Chesteat
Engineers! Hand: 2%", McGraw-Hill Book Co. ied. Ee. 1950

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1987

?Second National Conference on Renewable Energy Technologies

CLIMATISATION SOLAIRE PAR ADSORPTION SOLIDE
EN CLIMAT TROPICAL

By

P. Brandon

CETAIT ~ 69000 - Villeurbanne

B. Celestine - M. Dupont - J.B. Monier

CUAG = B.P. 592 ~ 97167

Pointe-a-Pitre Cedex - Antillas Francesas

?San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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ouverts par adsorption solide ont été plus particulièrement analysés dans les conditions climatiques des pays tropicaux, Dans une première partie les caractéristiques des dessiccants ne sont pas pris en compte. On a étudié la faisabilité de systèmes de dessiccation en mettant l'accent sur l'influence des échangeurs de chaleur et des humidificateurs sur la performance, dans le cas du Lit adiabatique et du Lit refroidi,

Dans une seconde partie on développe la modélisation du comporte-

sent de L'adsorbant avec un godble simplifiç basé sur 1'identification
du Lit 3 un échangeur de masse. L'efficacité de l'échangeur est Le rap
port de 1s masse réelle d'eau cyclée et de la valeur maximin pour un
fycle infiniment Long.

Plusieurs cycles sont analysés et comparés. Le modèle est calculé
sur des mesures effectuées sur un bane d'essai pernetean pour un lit
Fixe adiabatique et pour un lit refroidi de fixer les caractéristiques
de Mair,

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I = Introduction

Plusieurs travaux ont montré que l'utilisation d'un cycle ouvert & adsorption solide pouvait être une alternative intéressante pour le conditionnement de l'air (5,7 hla certain nombre de produits actuellement commercialisés ont des capacités de sorption suffisantes dans des écarts de températures de l'ordre de 50°C entre les phases. "adsorption et de désorption. Ces écarts sont accessibles avec la technologie des capteurs solaires plans

Nous développons dans ce travail une étude de système de dessiccation à lits fixes cyclés entre l'étape de séchage et la régénération. Généralement les capteurs solaires à air sont conseillés car ils évitent la mise en place d'échangeur entre l'air et un fluide caloporteur. Nous analyserons cependant un système à 2 eau en plaçant l'échangeur dans le lit dessicant ce qui permet alors successivement de le chauffer au de le refroidir 3 volontés.

II ~ Description des systèmes § air et A eau,

La figure 1 schématise les différents composants des systèmes étu-
 igs, L'air du local est traité à chaque cycle, Le lit fixe est forme
 de deux compartiments alternativement en adsorption puis en desorption,
 La figure la est relative au systiue adiabatique, 1a figure tb a ays
 tase a eau avec Lit refroidi. Les cycles correspondants sont représen=
 Cés sur le diagramme psychroaétrique (fig 2). L'air laissant le local
 (1) est wélangé avec l'air extérieur. On appellera "a" le taux de re-
 nouvellement d'air. L'air pareiellenent renouvelé est desséché en tf:
 versant le Lit (N)"(£ig.1)'. L'air sec et chaud est présablement ren
 froidi & travers un échangeur de chaleur e)(P) avant d'ztre rehusidi-
 £i? adisbatiquement dans le laveur de clinitisation e,(5). Site lit
 est refroidi par une circulation d'eay issue d'une toor de refroidis-
 senent e,, en lininant partiellement La chaleur d'adsorption on est
 conduit directement 2 un point proche de P (figlt). Entre § et T on
 uodifie les caractéristiques de L'air 3 cause de leffet simltant
 @'une charge calorifique dans le local sous forme sensible et latente.

La régénération du lit s'effectue avec l'ait extérieur E. Cet ait
 est préalablement refroidi par Evaporation dans un laveur e, de Cason
 3 abaisser 1a température d'entrée (G) dans 1'échangeur de thalear ey
 indispensable au fonctionneant de 1a machine. Un. second échangeur de
 chaleur e, permet de récupérer des calories de l'air chau! a ia sore
 He de la?régénération, avant d'entrer dans le captesr a air (D)-Enere
 Le point F (sortie du Capreur) et le point ϕ s'etfectue le oéchege du
 Hie, Le point # caractérise les conditions de sortie de 1'échangeut ep.

Si on effectue le chauffage du Lit 4 Laide d'un échangeur chaud te
par l'eau pouvant provenir de capteurs solaires, on passe direct erent

Ge D2G (ig 18)

TIT ~ Analyse thernodynamique

a) Coefficient de performance

La eapacité frigorifique de ces systines et le coefficient de
perforsance thermique COP est caleulé & l'aide du diagramme psychroné=

trique. Le COP se définit par

cor = SE = Sanacfts Sgr st i a

---Page Break---

?vee $Q_e = (h_y - h_g)$ o

e? =H, ($h_y = h_y$) ese 1 énergie calorifique utile provenant des cap-
eure & air.

Dans Te cas de aystdne & eau

$Q_s = 8, \text{ ty TD ?}$

) bilan dans Les différentes parties de 1a aachine

les equations de conservation de masse et d'énergie sont écrites pour chaque partie du cycle.

1) Local

La composition de aire du local est modifiée entre § et Ta cause de la présence d'une charge sensible

$P = 8, c(t; - 7) \text{ ©}$

dune charge Tatente

$P_y \text{ yee} \sim$

2) Renouvellement d'air

RD) o

Sia est le taux de renouvellement d'air le bilan de masse a 1a sortie du local s*éerit

$B_y = a_k e + C_e a) R_p a$

De mine a partir dy bilan chaleur

$T_y \text{ tet, + =) } T_e \text{ @)}$

que celles du local D_y et P_g . I en résulte qc plur un taut a conseant

uous

3) Adsorption

Se mayne qi fu copliiares de dnaetonat ok dn Ves eet Ue 0

$$r_{ab}(B_M = B_y) = B_{ao} (y=)$$

~ pol 18 tit'retroidi 1a chatellr a'adsorption e'evacue dans 1'air

ee Lea

AL Gy ~ RY = He et + Ayo -7,) o>

Une équation suppléaentaire apparatt avec l'efficacité de 1" ?chan-
geur placé 2 1'intérieur du lit défini en tenant compte seulement de
tenpératures de l'air et de l'eau.

hoy

et poet ao")

On a nécessairement eg 1

om caractérise 1a source froide par une efficacité $\epsilon = \frac{T_c - T_f}{T_c}$)

4) Echangeurs de chaleur

Pour ϵ ; on a deux équations, L'efficacité

---Page Break---

$h = 4,$

$\epsilon = \frac{T_p - T_c}{T_h - T_c}$

$4 - \text{fle } G_0$

VRS

et La conservation de la chaleur sensible de l'air

$T_{y0} - T_p = T_e - T_y$

avec $\epsilon < 1$ donc $T_p > T_e$ et $T_y > T_c$

Pour ϵ , L'efficacité et l'équation de conservation s'écrivent

e) $\epsilon = \frac{T_p - T_c}{T_h - T_c}$

avec $T_y = T_c$ puis

$T_p - T_e = T_h - T_c$

donc $T_p > T_c$

Dans le cas du système

les points 8D GH

5) Levene

eau on a deux Equations analogues entre

Pour écrire les équations du laveur on va admettre que celui-ci maintient l'eau à la température humide T^* du point considéré, Pour le laveur de climatisation, on définit l'efficacité par

BES a0

On admet ensuite que toute l'enthalpie de vaporisation est utilisée au refroidissement de l'air

te BS $h_y - m_y) = E_{coy} \sim 7) \llcorner s)$

our Le Laveur dans le circuit de régénération

est

«ER a

ee $By \sim BD = ELC \ GH \sim Ty) \text{ an}$

6) Désorption

Pendant la désorption on retrouve trois relations analogues à (9)

pour le Le adiabatique et 3 (9") (10°) pour te systine teas

Pour le aystae 3 air 1'absorption de chaleur dans Le processus
endothermique de désorption gire le refroidissement simultane du dessi-

cant et de Lair,

ag by Ry) = BC (pete) «as

Avec Le système A eau on 2 simultanément échauffant (relation 4) et
eésorption.

By Gy TY ~ A MR +8,ca-1y) ae

Comme en (10") on caractérise 1"échangour intégré ou Lit deasicant par
e,- Tee 19")

7 tp g

7) Rapport de mélange

Le passage de l'air dans les échangeurs de chaleur ne se fait pas

---Page Break---

Le rapport de mélange. On trouve

a aa

RR sage my (20)

By an

Dravtre gart, il faut que la nasse desu cyclée soit la même dans les

hance d'adsorption et de désorption #

Roo Beh By en

L'ensemble de ces équations permet de caractériser Ty et By en chacun

des points de fonctionnement. En effet pour le cycle adiabatique à air

on dispose de 18 inconnues

Ty RS GS Te Ty My Tyfas Tyalys Toker TyoteeTye Tye Tp

et 15 équations (2.18 et 2)

On sait donc s'en servir pour résoudre le système et fixer trois paramètres

comme, par exemple, la température de l'air entrant, la température de l'air sortant ou le rapport de mélange

netalton ty'at'la Conpératace minide 8 l'enliée do Teeel Md

Pour le systime a eau on 3 come inconnues suppléaentaires les
températures d'eau T_1 , T_2 , T_j et T_y - Au total 16 équarions et 20 incon
ues (les points C et F alexiscent plus dans le cycle). Comme précé-
dement on fixe T_p , T_s et T_y et T les tengératures d'entrée dans Le
Lit,d'eau froide et d'edu chiude respectivenent. On peut done résoudre
Je bysténe d'équations Lingaires et mettre en évidence l?intlucne des
lénents de la machine : Laveurs, échangeurs de chaleur, renouv.
air,

IV ~ Résultats

Le comportement des deux systèmes 2 air et 3 eau sera décrit dans les conditions climatiques les plus chaudes possibles dans la région,

A savoir $T_a = 35^\circ\text{C}$ $R_{y,a} = 20 \text{ g/kg air sec.}$ Le local sera maintenu entre $15 \leq T_{int} \leq 22^\circ\text{C}$ $e_{t,a} = 30^\circ\text{C}$ pour une charge calorifique, sensible de $P_{s,5} = 5 \text{ Sk}$ et latente $P_{l,5} = 70,5 \text{ kw.}$ Le débit d'air $\dot{V}_a = 2000 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ est compatible avec un volume de local d'habitation de l'ordre de 300 m^3 (6). La température de régénération, sortie des capteurs & air $T_{p,ou} = T_{ent,Ge}$ d'eau chaude dans le lit T est fixée à 60°C avec un débit d'eau $\dot{V}_{e,2000} @ 3/\text{h}$. On fixe également le débit d'eau froide $\dot{V}_f = \dot{V}_c$. Les chaleurs latentes de vaporisation et de sorption sont respectivement $L_v = 2450 \text{ kJ/kg}$ et

$L_s = 2600 \text{ kJ/kg.}$

On maintiendra dans le local des rapports de mélange de l'air compris entre 10 et 15 g/kg air sec.

1) Laveur

Les caractéristiques du laveur de climatisation e , permet de définir hier le rapport entre les charges sensible et latente? du local sans changer le COP. Par contre lorsqu'on augmente la performance du laveur eq du circuit de régénération on observe une réduction sensible de la

masse d'eau 3 cycler (fig 3) et une légère augmentation du COP. Avec
fe, of augmente Le rapport de mélange au début de la desorption (point
Fu aystime a air ou D du systéne 4 eau). Si les capacites de sorption
varient peu avec le rapport de mélange pour une mine tenpérature Te, it
apparaît que pour un fonctionnement donné de 1a machine (débit d'air et

---Page Break---

a'eau, période du cycle, etc) l'anélioration de la performance de ce

laveur permet d'eavisager une diminution de 1a quantité d'eau a eye

cler et par voie de conséquence de 1a sasse d'adsorbant 3 utiliser,

2) Echangeurs de chaleur

La figure 4 met en évidence le rôle important de l'échangeur 6 dans le système 3 air : augmentation notable du COP et diminution de l'eau 2 cyclée.

L'échangeur 6 permet dans les deux systèmes d'améliorer le COP sans changer la masse d'eau 1 cyclée (fig 5 et fig.6).

3) Renouvellement d'air

Les figures 7 et 8 montrent qu'il est préférable d'utiliser l'eau de renouvellement d'air la plus faible possible pour ne pas augmenter considérablement la quantité d'eau 1 cyclée.

4) Source froide

La figure 9 traduit un résultat attendu. On obtient un meilleur refroidissement du lit dessicant lorsque la source froide est plus performante. Le COP augmente avec elle, et la quantité d'eau 3 cyclée diminue.

5) Echangeur de chaleur dans le dessicane.

Le jeu a un rôle capital dans le fonctionnement du système à eau, La figure 10 montre que la quantité d'eau 3 cycles diminue très rapidement avec l'amélioration de la qualité de l'échangeur e,

©) Conclusion

Ces résultats confirment la faisabilité du cycle ouvert à adsorption solide dans un climat très chaud et très humide, Le niveau de température de régénération est accessible avec la technologie des capteurs plans. On obtient un coefficient de performance thermique de l'ordre de 0,5 avec des valeurs des efficacités pour les échangeurs de chaleur compatibles avec celles données par les fabricants.

On a mis en évidence l'intérêt d'un système à eau à lit refroidi en utilisant toutefois une expression simplifiée de l'efficacité de l'échangeur intégré à l'adsorbant mettant en jeu des échanges de chaleur entre trois composants : eau-air-adsorbant. Il sera donc nécessaire de mieux définir cet échangeur et d'introduire, ce sera l'objet de la suite de ce travail, en plus de la chaleur de sorption des paramètres spécifiques du matériau dessiccant permettant de mieux décrire son comportement.

V~ Approche numérique du comportement du dessicant.

Deux approches sont proposées. Un modèle simple permet d'obtenir des réponses informatiques rapides pour faire une analyse prospective de divers produits et de divers agencements des Échangeurs et Laveurs. Une méthode plus exacte est élaborée pour simuler le comportement des systèmes en régime transitoire

a) Méthode simplifiée

Le Lit adsorbant est le siège des échanges de masse et de chaleur.

On admet par analogie avec l'échangeur de chaleur que le Lit adsorbant

oa or

0.20 ~s ~ ~ ~

DUNKLE 0.3 TT ? is

oe 0.35 6 a 7

xp 3 2

wemmation | gap} % 7

ox 7 x

te eof Tew % 7

crt 0.30 o 7 1 is

vO |-e 5 7 7

BES ep 0,8, 05 7 [_ a

Tables 1

Résultats comparatifs de Tn wodéLTsation du cycle avec une "efficacité

"change de aasse? constant

Données. du calcul

$T_y = 26^\circ\text{C}$ et $R_y = 1, 13, 15 \text{ g/kg}$

$25 = 47.5 \text{ ey} = 0,95 \&) = \text{ey} = 0,85 \text{ aH } 05 = 04?$

Ty By conditton déentréd dand ie tie'a 1'adsorption,

cUaafeions extérieures : $T_y = 30^\circ\text{C}$ $R_p = 22 \text{ g/ke}$.

On détermine donc N_{og} et y_e 4 partir de ces données et des conditions d'entrée dans le ?{7t'a l'asorption et a 1a desorption. Lorsque est fixé 1a quantité d'eau cyclée réellenent est déverminge par 1a relation (23). Les caractéristiques de l'air resteat inconnues. Une méthode ginilaire 2 celle présentée précédement, c'est-s-dire la résolution d'un eystime é'équations Linésires permet de les calculer . La non

---Page Break---

Linéarité associée aux courbes TTquilibre n'intervient que dans les coefficients de ces équations. Surtout pour le cycle de OUNe (35 leers leque) les valeurs à l'équilibre entrent dans le spotted evasion résolues. On opte alors par substitutions successives de la température de la solution,

Le tableau I donne quelques résultats comparatifs de plusieurs cycles 2' sur permettant de voir l'influence des coefficients de conduction dans TELE (à type de absorption sur Le 20" et les géométries attendues)

On a une température de sortie du local à $T_{\phi} = 265$ et on constate plusieurs points dans la zone de confort! (6) $E_{\phi} = 0,11$ 0018 à 815 e/g sur sec

b) Approche numérique en régime transitoire.

Pour ce faire on utilise la méthode des différences finies en considérant un réseau de pas Δt , Δx pour le temps t et la position x dans le Lit. On traite alors les quatre équations couplées qui gouvernent le comportement du dessicant : 1) transfert et 2) conservation de masse 3) transfert et 4) conservation de chaleur. On utilise les coefficients de transfert proposés par WONGEN et MAXSHALL (4) entre les particules du Lit compacté et l'air.

On peut alors suivre en fonction du temps et de la profondeur du Lit le comportement dynamique du Lit. Actuellement la mise au point du programme s'effectue par comparaison avec les résultats de BULLOCK et THREISELD (1) et avec les données d'une boucle expérimentale en cours de essai.

Dans le travail deux objectifs ont été poursuivis..

L'étude de faisabilité de système de climatisation par adsorption solide a été développée dans les conditions des climats chauds et humides. En maintenant une contrainte sur les températures de régénération compatible avec les capteurs plans,

On a ais en Evidence l'importance relative des composants pour un cycle adiabatique à air et un cycle à eau, On constate que l'élimination de la chaleur d'adsorption nécessite considérablement la masse d'eau à cycliser donc la masse d'adsorbant.

On a introduit ensuite les caractéristiques du produit dessicant dans la modélisation du cycle d'abord par une méthode simplifiée en considérant qu'une fraction seulement de la variation de la teneur en eau à l'équilibre est cyclée. Une description plus précise est en cours de réalisation.

On utilisera la méthode des différences finies. Elle permet d'envisager une étude détaillée des caractéristiques des produits : grain de l'adsorbant

Profondeur du lit, perte de charges et des conditions de fonctionnement +

Conclusion

Nous avons montré dans ce travail que les cycles ouverts & adsorption solide présentent un intérêt pour le conditionnement de l'air dans des conditions climatiques difficiles. Une étude de faisabilité a été développée pour un système à air et un système à air refroidi. Cette étude a permis de mettre en évidence dans les deux cas l'importance relative des différents composants : échangeur de chaleur, laveur.

On cherche ensuite à introduire les caractéristiques des dessiccants solides en proposant une méthode simplifiée dans laquelle on considère une fraction seulement de la différence de teneur en eau à l'équilibre est réétalonnée cyclée, puis en développant une description, placée en régime transitoire en utilisant la méthode des différences finies,

Capacité calorifique de l'air

Enthalpie de l'air humide au point i

Notations

T = Température sèche au point i

R_j = Rapport de mélange au point j

T_{hy} = Température humide au point i

m_{gs} = Débit d'air sec

a_y = Débit d'eau froide

==

PL + Charge sensible du local

P] = Gharge latente du local

e; = Efficacité des échangeurs et laveurs

Lb = Chaleur Latente de vaporisation de l'eau

Ls chaleur de sorption

Gy = Capacité calorifique de Leas

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|

cae nell L

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cor

0,52

0,48 0,49 0,50 0,51

0,47

0.0 0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8 1.0

efficacité %

Fig 3 - Influence du laveur de régénération sur le
COP et la masse d'eau cyclée,

(0.98 aTe 81/8) aat919 av

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cor

Ot

\$.

é co

Sos 3 OT 0.8

EFFICACITE e,

Fig 4 ~ Influence de 1"échangeur de chaleur e, sur

Ye CoP et 1a masse d'eau cyclée par 12

systiae a air,

34/8 aaTOKD ava

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0 (02 04 06 08 10

EFFICACITE e,

Pig 5 - Influence de 1"échangeur de chaleur

fe, sur le COP et 1a aasse d'eau cyclée

pour le aystime 3 ea

84/8 a31919 va

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cor

0.65

's

L

st

é 1 L L ~

° 76 Ba B

?TAK de RENOUVELLEMENT 4*ATR a

Fig 7 ~ Influence du renouvellement "air sur

Le COP et la masse d'eau cyclée dans le

système à air

4/8 gXT19 ava

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cop

0,50

0,48

3 g

° 2

5

3

So 0.05 0,1 01502025

TAUK de RENOUELEMENT D'AIR a

Fig 8 - Influence du renouvellement d'air sur le

CoP et la masse d'eau cyclée dans le

aystime 3 eau

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COP

0.36 0.38 0.4

0.34

0.5 0.6 0.7 0.8 0.9 1.0

EFFICACITE DE L'ECHANGEUR DE LA SOURCE FROIDE ϵ .

Fig 9 - Influence de ϵ sur le

COP et la masse d'eau cyclée dans le

système

5

oF

84/8 ay1910 ava

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cor

0,55

0,50

0,45

84/2 agtDKo ava

0,40,

0435

30

so 0,2 0 06 oe 1,0

EPFICACITE DE L'ECHANGEUR DE CHALEUR DANS LE LIT

DESSICANT e,

fig 10 ~ Influence de l'échangeur de chaleur ϕ ,

permettant Le chauffage et le refroidissement

Guyane

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1982

First Pan American Congress on Energy

ENERGY STRATEGY FOR GUYANA

By

Melvyn Sankies

Faculty of Technology

University of Guyana

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1982

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fursquerzon

The present economic crisis in Guyana is due mainly to the high cost of oil, the chief source of energy. In 1971, Guyana imported (US\$) \$3 million worth of oil, in 1977 (US\$) \$74 million and by the end of 1981 imports had risen to approximately (US\$) \$135 million,

Guyana has a land area of 216,000 km², with agriculture, mining and manufacture together contributing approximately 50% of the gross domestic product. The three economic sectors also account for 80% of the total energy consumption in Guyana. The economic activity of Guyana is based on bauxite, sugar, rice and

to be a balance so as to maintain a steady ecological system, the use of development must therefore take into account the environmental and consequences of the use of energy.

In Guyana have to spend more time deciding how to allocate

Sur scarce resources for the development of energy technologies and choosing those that are cost-effective for the situation. Priorities will have to be established so as to avoid a renewed foreign dependency situation as exists with petroleum. Our eventual success will depend on whether we can find local solutions for our problem. Some interesting facts on the use of energy in the U.S.A." are a guide for Guyana to avoid certain pitfalls.

"They have shown to procure a can of sweet corn, 270 calories value food in the USA on requires 2,150 calories. Only 200 out of this 2,790 = used in growing corn, fertilizer, tractor use, etc, processing and canning take 1,200, transportation taking another 700 calories, cooking and distribution make up the balance, 1,130, to obtain the same 270 calories from meat the production figure soars to over 21,000 calories. There is evident a similar vastage in the distribution of energy in various sectors of the U.S. economy. Transportation for instance, accounts for 20 ~ 25 percent of the total energy consumption, which is 85% automobile and only 14% freight. The poor nations cannot afford this energy intensive way of life not only because it is wasteful but because there are inherent constraints to it- For which reason the rate of energy consumption has got to slow down and settle into a steady state,"

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-3-

THE PRESENT ENERGY SITUATION

A preliminary Natural Energy Assessment of Guyana was carried out by CARICOM as a first step towards improving the energy situations

2

Table (1) shows energy consumption for 1979,

Expenditure on petroleum imports in 1979 was 23% of total imports of goods and services and 26% of total export earnings

The main energy sources and their uses are as follows:

(a) Hydropower used for generating electricity for domestic lighting, sawmilling and works at Tumatumari, which is approximately 272 km from Georgetown. The energy installed at Tumatumari is 2 x 0.75 MW of which only 200 kW is used at Present.

(b) Guyana Electricity Corporation which supplies electricity to most of the country.

Table (2) gives the installed capacity of the Guyana Electricity Corporation.

Steam (Busker ϕ) 36

Diesel 7

Gas Turbine (cetane 47) _20

3

(©) Gasolene and Dieseline are also used for transportation.

In fact transportation accounted for 20 percent of {vel
used in Gable (3), the country as a whole.

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FIG. 1

Map of Guyana showing

HYDROPOWER SITE

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secron

?Agriculture

Mining

Industry

Services

Transportation

Hlectricity

Residential

-5-

TABLE 3

SECTOR USE OF IMPORTED PETROLEUM FUELS (1979 BASE)

PERCENTAGE ryees

DEFINITION INCLUDES OF FUEL USD oF

Sugar, Rice, Fishing,

Forestry, Livestock,

other Agriculture 5 Diesel

wuxite, Gold, Diamond,

Quarrying, Other 45.

Sugar Milling, Rice

Milling, Manufacturing,

Food Processing, etc. 6 Bunker 'C' Diesel.

Government Services,

Comerce, Hotels,

Other services, 3 Diesel, Lee

Goods and Passenger Diesel, Casolene,

Transport (Land, water Kerosene, Aviation

and Air) and Communi- Fuel

cations 2

GEC, Cuyaine, Other

Generation of Electricity Bunker 'c* Diesel.

Households LPG, Kerosene

Other Local energy sources are:

@

©

©

®

)

Bagasse - a by-product of the sugar industry used mainly for generating electricity and steam. In fact the sugar industry provides most of its on electricity by biomass and soall anounts of diesel.

Wood-cooking and industrial heating.

Charcoal ~ cooking.

Rice Chaff - used in the rice industry for generating steam.

Coconut Shell ~ industrial heating.

There are also small private wind power units for pumping and generation of electricity.

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-6-

ENERGY ALTERNATIVES

The Guyana Government has been looking at hydropower since the early 60's. A survey was carried out by the UNDP of all potential hydroelectric sites which had a potential of over 6 megawatts. Recent studies of such sites as TIBOKU, UPPER MAZARUNI, KAMARIA has shown that the UPPER MAZARINI as the most advantageous

The estimated hydropower potential of Guyana is 2000 Mw.

Since 1976 the Government has been actively exploring the

economic possibility of an hydropower plant on the upper Mazaruni,

As a first stage, the total capacity of the plant was expected

to be 700 MW to cater for a proposed ~ Aluminum smelter of at

Least 152,400 per year capacity, Asontun Nitrate Fertiliser,

50,800 per year capacity.

?The possibility of obtaining the funds for the project has become

remote with the present world economic situation. Consideration

is therefore being given to smaller hydropower projects such as

upgrading Tunatusari to installed capacity of 50 MW.

Biomass

Ferrous Alcohol was first produced in Guyana in the 1920's but

Production ceased around 1932, In 1976 the Government of Guyana

?owned Guyana Liquor Corporation reviewed work in a corporation with

Brazil on the production of Ethyl alcohol for use as a fuel for

Sea. engines.

As late as 1979, molasses was earning badly netted foreign

exchange; Table 4 shows production over the past five years and

Table 5 shows molasses exports over the past five years. The general trend is decline in overseas purchases and decline in foreign exchange earnings. Table 6 shows production of industrial alcohol.

TABLE 4

SUGAR PRODUCTION (LONG TONS)

SOURCE ~ GUYANA SUGAR CORPORATION 17D

Date ESTIMA soTvat

1977 21,527

1978 356,801 324,805

1979 329,884 298,268

1980 214,637 269,634

1981 310,000 300,790

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DESTINATION

U.S.A.

United Kingdom

Conada

Trinidad

Martinique

St. Vincent

St. tucta

aruba

Antigua

Puerto Rico

St. Maarten

Suriname

TOTAL. n345245,220__ .12.372,640, 154

LONG TONS

(160)

7

4

1977

1978

1979

1980

1981

-7-

TABLE 5

MOLASSES EXPORTS

SOURCE ~ GUYANA LIQUOR CORPORATION

1977

1979 1980 2981

198,560 10,910,240 8,759,000 7,161,920 4,641,920

866,400 3,609,920 2,341,600 3,084,480 4,994,560

937,460 1,998,080 2,818,080 2,127,520 233,920

160,160 407,690 - 1,759,840

94,5600 = 7 - 7

84,800 - - - -

276,000 307,680 359,520 561,120 293,920

598,400 643,360 300,000 ? 446,880

- 316,800 352,960 164,260 443,520

- 913,440 = - -

- 465,400 = - -

98,852 122,329 93,911 75,495 80,091

TARE 6

PRODUCTION OF INDUSTRIAL ALCOHOL

SOURCE - CUYANA LIQUOR CORPORATION

MOLASSES LITRES OF ALCOHOL

fin tonnes)

43,674.54 432,313

89,610.60 354,858

46,435.72 292,917

66,611.53 412,923

54,445.63, 370,633

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-8-

At this stare with the sugar market being depressed for a nusber
of years due to the challenges of high fructose corn syrup and bect sugar,

we have to consider alternative uses for our sugar factories.

It is possible to produce per ton of sugar cane the following:

49.28 Litres of dehydrated alcohol

51.04 Litres of 96% alcohol.

Based on the assumption that 63,140,000 Litres of gasoline were used in 1979/80 and assuming 30.5 tonnes cane per acre, the projected area for the cultivation of cane sugar would be 48,000 acres inclusive of the 6,100 acres for yearly rehabilitation. The estimated operational cost per tonne of cane is \$36.95 ~ 6544.20 and the operational costs per one gallon (4.54 Litres) of absolute alcohol is expected to be \$3.30 to \$3.95, We therefore have carefully considered what are the economic trade-offs in sugar and molasses to be exported and percentage to be converted to Ethyl alcohol. A factory constructed to produce alcohol directly by fermenting cane Juice, will

produce surplus bagasse of approximately 100 kg of bagasse/ton of processed

For the excess bagasse to be produced from the projected 48,000 acres to be cultivated will result in 6.72 million kilowatts of electricity Power available to the national grid.

Ethanol should be considered in any energy plan that is conceived.

Ethanol is used in the production of solvents, cosmetics, printing inks and plastics. In mixtures of 15 - 20% with gasoline, ethanol can be used in automobile engines with essentially no carburetion modifications necessary.

An air-cooled straight ethanol-fueled engine has been developed and is presently being tested as the result of a cooperative research program between Volkswagen do Brasil and Volkswagen Research in Germany.

CHARCOAL

Charcoal until the late fifties was used primarily for cooking.

In 1965 production was 2,460t, by 1974 this had declined to 21t. The main reason for the decline was the use of petroleum based products for cooking such as gas or kerosene and also electricity generated by fossil fuels. Once again charcoal has become important for cooking because of increasing costs of LPG, kerosene and electricity.

---Page Break---

One important consideration as regards charcoal is its improvement in design of the coal pot so that its efficiency could be improved. Another consideration is the preservation of our forest resources. The use of forests for the production of charcoal could soon have an effect on the ecosystem,

forests being denuded at a high rate. The coastland

of Guyana is abundant with rice waste, coconut husks, some of the raw materials used to make "green charcoal". About 60 million coconuts are produced yearly representing a total of 10,600t of shells (based on an average fresh weight of 180 g per each shell). It is estimated that carbonization of the 10,600t shell would yield 20,320t of charcoal.

Nos: of the forests in Guyana are of the Tropical Rain Forest type.

These trees are mixed broad leaf tropical hardwoods. The woods vary in density from about 400 kg/m³ (STMARUPA) to as high as about 1000 kg/m³ (WAMARA).

Practically all the woods in Guyana can be used as fuel. Generally, fuelwood can be derived from:

(i) Trees that are defected;

(48) Stems left over from Logging operations;

(441) Trees cut in the process of clearing land for agriculture;

(Gv) Sawmill wastes.

In 1981, 0.155 million m³ of wood was estimated to have been produced in Guyana. Also in 1981, 0.062 million m³ of board was produced. The wastes from these sawmills are about 0.011 million m³ of wood.

Firewood is used mainly for cooking (households and bakeries), and for generating steam at some of the sawmills.

AGRICULTURAL WASTES

In Guyana, there are many sources of agricultural wastes for the production of fuel gas, among these are the following:

(Rice straw

(43) Bagasse:

(i) Manure;

(iv) Water Hyacinth,

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~~

In 1980, OLADE, the Latin American Energy Organization, set up an
operational Pilce Project to help develop BIOGK® as an Alternative Baer.)
Sourcet®). Guyana entered into agreement with OLADE to construct nine (9)
Biogas Pilot Plants, based on the CHINESE, GUATEMALAN and MEXICAN types of
BIOGAS DIGESTORS. These are now being assessed and evaluated so as to
determine their feasibility in the Guyanese socio-cultural environment.

Work with water hyacinth is also being pursued at the University
of Guyana. A pilot plant has been built and the data will be available in
July when the second stage of the project is completed. It is estimated
that the wood waste and coconut husks could provide heat and electricity by
co-generation or gasification for sawmilling operations and surrounding

communities. Large scale use of wood would require energy plantations and thus the development of new skills. There is no intention in this part of the paper to present the case for ecological balance in developing any new energy mechanism. To quote from Georgescu = Roegen's

History affords us ample proofs that the price mechanism cannot defend our ecological interests. The savage deforestation which at one time menaced all the woods in the world was the result of the fact that the prices were "right". And it was not brought to a halt by the price mechanism but only by the introduction of some quantitative restrictive rules. It was precisely because the prices of coal and oil were right after World War I that the automobile industry turned to producing mannoth gasolene guzzlers while coal technology lagged behind and poverty spread in Appaluchia.

ECONOMIC CONSTD ERATIONS

Guyana's present economic situation makes it difficult to predict what our energy needs would be in the next ten years or more. What can be said is that the present energy supply is unreliable, cannot meet demands and so affects production. The lack of spare parts because of the foreign

exchange problem, and the high price of oil aggravates the problem.

What then should be the energy strategy for Guyana to provide economic development? In developing any energy strategy we must make sure that our energy environment is not dependent on petroleum, points out the myths surrounding energy alternatives.

Georgescu-Roegen!

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-u-

What happens today is that the solar collectors,

2 are produced with the help of some energy

other than solar radiation -- primarily, with

the energy of fossil fuels. Consequently, at

Present, all direct uses of solar radiation

represent parasites of the fossil fuel

technology. That is not all. If y denotes

the fossil fuel energy consumed in the

Production of X_j solar collectors, we are

confronted with three alternatives: y, y_1, y_2

$< 0 = 0$, or > 0 . In view of the

Asmense propaganda for the solar heated homes,

we must hope that $X_1 - Y_j < 0$ is not true

But the case must rest here; data must
decide which alternative is actually true.

Guyana's development of any energy alternative must be the saving
of foreign exchange. In the case of sugar it may be more convenient to
convert a few factories to produce ethanol as a mixture for use in automobiles
and produce enough molasses to meet the export market,

Kendall has developed an energy strategy for Guyana based on its
fragile economic environment. He used the Linder criterion of efficiency for
EIOEE substitution as means of saving foreign exchange. His ranking of
energy alternatives is given in Table 6,

TAME 6

RANKING OF ENERGY ALTERNATIVES

cost | Prorie- | wee tevet | oppor- | cope per | coat

per | ability | Foreign of | tunity | 10° pens | per

UE | index? | exchanges | tmp. | cost of | (1980) in | kan

Subs, Gsm 6§) | subs. | tp.? | Gs & rate | year

Subs. | of snfla~

tion.

mro | 2 1 3 2 1 a 2

?wooo 2 2 1 1 2 2 1

Avcouo, | 3 3 2 a fa 3 3

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- ae

?The strategy proposed by Kendall involves -

- Hydropower as a replacement for all fossil fuel based electricity;

? Charcoal as an export commodity and not as an import substitute;

w= Restructuring of the transport sector to utilise alcohol.

In the long term it is obvious that Guyana's main energy base will have to be hydropower to promote economic development with biomass playing a subsidiary role. The majority of the population live in the rural and hinterland areas and they will have to make use of biomass as their main energy source. With our present social and economic problems we have to be careful how scarce resources are allocated for the develop-

ment of energy technologies. We choose those that are most cost effective for their situation. Our priorities have to be clearly defined,

LONG-RANGE. ENERGY PLANNING

To arrive at any Long-term energy plan for Guyana the following action is necessary:

Analysis of the energy situation, to a great extent this has started,

w= Analysis of future trends in the energy supply.

== Selection of the method of investigation,

Preparing an energy model to handle the problem.

= Working the alternative long-term energy paths, condition, consequences etc.

?= Evaluation of strategies and conclusions.

A systematic methodology is needed for demand supply situation and optimization of the investments being planned for the energy sector would be determined from information provided by the planning commission. Information provided would include production targets in physical units in various sectors of the economy

A macro-energy model would have to include energy demand forecasting models, energy supply sector models. The macro-energy should have as its main objectives, generation of economic scenarios and over-economy forecasts for the next twenty (20) years.

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-be

ECONOMIC MODULE FOR THE GUYANESE ECONOMY

POONOWIC MODULE FOR THE GUYANESE ECONOMY

denand

oeray demaal forecasting | ?Er"., | Energy surly sector

module fora. | module

pee Jee

1, industriat Baerey Hlectricity production &

jv Tedustrial Boersy |

2. Resident int poe trangntssion model Hydropover

3+ Transport deaand soe | <Btises | yo. cowerciat roneuante

t = Sources, wood Charcoal

?4. Agricultural demand ona

vegetable and aniaal vastes,

odet

Hogas, solar & vind.

||

Energy Consusption Energy input in the Energy

conversion process (Investment
needs)

ENVIRONMENTAL MODULE

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ue

consumption%

To make any energy plan successful and hence achieve development we must tap our human resources. We must develop researchers with a broad range of skills who will have a basic understanding of the problem. In the final analysis we ask ourselves several questions.

= Does the energy technology match the particular need? .

== Can the technology survive in the national economy or local economy on its own merits without external support.

?The people must have confidence in the potential of the new

technologies. Support must be given so that the technologies reach the rural and hinterland areas.

?There is urgent need for the generation of new energy technologies to improve the lives of the people in Guyana. To achieve this the politicians WILL have to work closely with the Engineers and Scientists in the Guyanese community.

120000000000

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1 ven

2 ben

2 bb

2 bn

2 bor

1 bb

1 ben

1 metric

1 metric

1 metric

2 metric

1 metric

-15-

APPENDIX

(CONVERSION TABLE

PETROLEUM PRODUCTS

Reconstituted crude

we

Casolene/aviation gas

Kerosene/Jet fuel

Gas oil/Diesel

Fuel

Leo.

ton

ton

ofl /Bunker C

= 192.5 bs of Lec

cont.

= 24.0 x 10⁷ joules

ccnanconn,

= 28.0 x 10⁷ joules

Woon

= 16.0 x 10⁹ joules

BAGASSE

7 7.9 x 10⁹ joules

0.967

0.691

0.905

0.977

1.004

1.083

3.92

4.48

2.29

1.29

doe

doe

boe

boe

doe

doe.

doe

boo

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Boergy Scemrios for the future - hard choices for
countries

~ GW. Srivastava, International Energy Studies
?ediiid by RK. Pachawel.

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= August 28, 1981.

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~ Progranne

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Vanderbilt University.

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University of Guyana

October 1981.

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1982

First Pan American Congress on Energy

CALIDAD Y CONTAMINACION AMBIENTAL,

DE LOS SUELOS DE PUERTO RICO

Por

Juan A. Bonnet, padre

Centro para Estudios Energéticos y Ambientales

Universidad de Puerto Rico

San Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1982

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CCONTENIOO

CALIDAD Y CONTAMINACION AMBIENTAL DE LOS SUELOS DE PUERTO RICO*

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EL AIRE DEL sueto 2

EL AGUA DEL suELO 3

LA CONSTITUCION MINERAL OE LOS suELos

ETEORIZACION

LA MATERIA ORGANTCA DEL suELO

L0S COLOIDES DEL SUELO

Intercambio de cationes de los suelos

PROCESOS DINAMICOS DEL SUELO RELACIONADOS CON EL AMBIENTE

Reacciones biológicas

Las tres siglas 800, 00, ToC

CONTAMINACION DEL SUELO APLICADA A PUERTO RICO

La quena anual de la caña de azúcar

La erosión del suelo

Efectos de las sales, minerales y metales

de los suelos 10

Efecto ecológico y físico

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EL NUEVO SURVEY DE Los SUELOS DE PUERTO RICO

YSU CLASTFICACION TAKONOMICA 18

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FIGURAS 1,2,3,4

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CALIDAD ≠ CONTAMINACION AMBLENTAL

DE LOS SUELOS DE PUERTO RICO

Por

Or. Quan A. Bonnet, padre*

EXTRACTO

El ambiente de tos suelos consiste de aire, agua, sólidos minerales y orgEnicos y microorganismos. £1 oxígeno, el biéxido de carbono, el moviniento de las aguas, los particulados: arena, Timo, arcillas las reacciones bioquinicas de las bacterias, la acidez, 1a alcalinidad, y 1a erosién juegan un papel importante en el ambiente de Ta calidad de los suelos y en su sistema dinémico.

El impacto del hombre en el manejo deficiente del suelo y su so como cementerio de los desperdicios sólidos tóxicos de las industrias y poblacién y de aguas contaminadas contribuyen a su

contaminación.

Los suelos de Puerto Rico se han clasificado ahora bajo un nuevo Sistema Taxonómico que facilita su mejor evaluación y diagnóstico de sus limitaciones como sigue: Orden, Suborden, Gran Grupo, Subgrupo, Familia, Series, Las 163 Series de Suelos localizadas en 311 mapas de suelos, escala 1:20,000 se evalúan ahora sobre la base de las cualificaciones y características de las cinco Categorías superiores y se reducen a nueve Ordenes: Alfisol, Entisol, Histosol, Inceptisol, Mollisol, Oxisol, Spodosol, Ultisol, Vertisol. Es más fácil discutir este tema a base de 9 Ordenes en vez de 163 Series de Suelos.

*Profesor @ Investigador Emérito, Recinto Universitario de Mayagüez
Contribuyente del Centro para Estudios Energéticos y Ambientales de
la Universidad de Puerto Rico,

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INTRODUCCION

El suelo es un sistema o recurso natural dinámico que consiste físicamente de una mezcla porosa con un promedio mitad sólido y otra mitad en partes iguales de aire o atmósfera y agua; la parte sólida consiste de un promedio de 45% de materia mineral y de 55% de materia orgánica muerta y microorganismo vivos y activos: hongos, actinomicetos, bacteria, algas, protozoarios, lombrices y entre todos (Fig. 1).

EL AIRE DEL SUELO

El oxígeno del aire del suelo es indispensable para el proceso de respiración de las raíces de las plantas y los microorganismos. El oxígeno se toma; una parte del aire y otra del que está soluble en el agua. La mayoría de las plantas requieren para su crecimiento normal una zona radical oxidante rica en oxígeno, no una zona reductora pobre o carente en oxígeno.

La composición del aire de los suelos porosos con los arenosos puede subir igual al de la atmósfera; 20.97% de oxígeno y 78.09% de nitrógeno; generalmente tiene 0.25% de dióxido de carbono; ocho veces mayor que el de la atmósfera y concentraciones algo más altas de metano y de sulfuro de hidrógeno producto de la

descomposición de la materia orgánica por los microorganismos. El contenido de oxígeno baja considerablemente a 10%; a veces @ 2%; en algunos suelos que tienen mala aeración causada por un bloqueo de la difusión gaseosa producida por las micelas. El contenido de dióxido de carbono del aire del suelo puede subir de 1 a 5% en un clima templado y hasta 10% en el trópico en un suelo orgánico durante el verano. El aire del suelo es más rico en humedad que el de la atmósfera; la humedad disuelve pequeñas cantidades de varios gases. Los coloides del suelo retienen por absorción en su superficie cantidades de ciertos gases. La composición física del aire

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del suelo no es constante en su perfil o corte vertical; es afectada por el espacio poroso aprovechable, las reacciones bioquímicas, el intercambio gaseoso, las inundaciones y las fluctuaciones del nivel freático. Podemos decir que hay una relación inversa entre los contenidos de oxígeno y dióxido de carbono en el aire del suelo; el oxígeno disminuye cuando aumenta el dióxido de carbono.

EL_AGUA DEL SUELO

El agua del suelo se divide físicamente en cuatro grupos:

(1) Higroscópica -- Es el agua de la atmósfera absorbida por los coloides del suelo; es retenida energéticamente y no es absorbida por las plantas porque no se mueve.

(2) Capilar No-absorbida -- Llena los espacios micro-porosos del suelo; circula con dificultad en el suelo porque también es retenida energéticamente y no es absorbida por las plantas.

(3) Capilar absorbida -- Es el agua retenida por el suelo en tiempo de sequía por los poros de tamaño intermedio del suelo; se mueve por difusión capilar y es absorbida por las plantas.

(4) De gravedad -- Es el agua que llena momentáneamente los poros grandes del suelo después de las lluvias que es removida por el drenaje.

El drenaje o exceso de agua se renueva de dos maneras por:

(1) Desague -- Escurrimiento superficial.

(2) Percolación -- Movimiento descendente que libera la humedad

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superflua en la superficie del suelo y parte superior del subsuelo,

La percolación produce normalmente pérdida de sales solubles por lixiviación en los suelos que puede agotar ciertos nutrientes. Las pérdidas por desague incluyen no sólo el agua y los nutrientes sino también cantidades apreciables del suelo por erosión.

La solubilidad del oxígeno y del dióxido de carbono en las soluciones del suelo se caracterizan por una concentración mucho más alta de oxígeno y una más alta del dióxido de carbono que en la atmósfera del suelo. La cantidad máxima de oxígeno en la solución del suelo es 6 milímetros por litro a 20°C y mucho menos en aguas estancadas que no se renuevan y son ricas en materia orgánica reductora; a temperaturas altas del trópico pueden reducirse a cero, inversamente; las aguas frías, renovables pobres en materia orgánica pueden contener una cantidad de oxígeno soluble mayor de 6 mililitros por litro,

LA CONSTITUCION MINERAL DE LOS SUELOS

La porción mineral de los suelos es variable en dimensión y composición; consiste por su tamaño en una combinación de tres partículas: Gruesas como la arena con diámetro de, .05 a 2.01 mm; finas como el limo, de .002 a .05 mm; y muy fina como la arcilla, menos de .002 mm. Existen doce clases de textura en los suelos según la proporción de arena, limo y arcilla.

METEORIZACION

Las partículas se producen por la descomposición o meteorización ayudada por la temperatura, la lluvia, la nieve y el viento de las rocas ígneas con el granito, la diorita, el basalto, y la andesita; las rocas sedimentarias con la arenisca, la piedra

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caliza, la cuarzita, la pizarra, y el mirmol. Las partículas se componen de minerales primarios y secundarios que contienen silicio, hierro y aluminio con o sin bases: calcio, magnesio, potasio,

Sodio y otros minerales secundarios como la calcita, la dolomita, el óxido de hierro y de aluminio. La fracción fina de la arcilla se compone de minerales importantes como la Montmorillonita, las Micas, la Caolinita, y una Mezcla de minerales residuales, en proporciones variables que resultan de un proceso de meteorización más o menos activo.

LA MATERIA ORGÁNICA DEL SUELO

La materia orgánica del suelo se forma de los residuos que dejan las plantas, los animales, y los microorganismos, al morir y desintegrarse. Tanto los tejidos de los vegetales como la de los animales están constituidos por un 50%, en promedio: de carbono, que incluye el almidón, los azúcares, la celulosa, la hemicelulosa, los ácidos orgánicos que contienen algo menos del 40%, y las grasas y ceras con más del 60%. Los procesos químicos como la reacción del carbonato cálcico con los ácidos de suelo y la exudación en el proceso de respiración de las plantas y sus raíces contribuyen también a la liberación del gas anhídrido carbónico, CO_2 pero la cantidad es inferior a la liberada por los organismos del suelo al descomponer la materia orgánica fresca. El humus es la materia orgánica descompuesta; más o menos estable, que le da al suelo un color oscuro; a veces, negro y un mayor potencial de fertilidad.

LOS COLOIDES DEL SUELO

Hay dos grandes tipos de coloides en los suelos según su carga eléctrica

(1) Coloides electropositivos o basoides -- Tienen carga positiva

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son los hidratos de hierro y aluminio o sesquioxidos compuestos de bases débiles; se dispersan en medio ácido y flocculan en medio alcalino.

(2) Coloides electronegativos o acidoides -- Tienen carga negativa

son los más abundantes en los suelos; son las arcillas mineralógicas, los geles minerales complejos y los ácidos húmicos; tienen propiedades ácidas débiles. Se dispersan en medio alcalino y se flocculan en

medio ácido.

Algunos coloides del suelo son anfotéricos; cambian de signo un pH @ punto isoeléctrico determinado. Ejemplo; el mineral Caolinita en la fracción arcilla cuando se electrolisa @ un pH 7.0 neutral, tiene carga negativa; a pH 4.0, su punto isoeléctrico, cambia de signo y 2 menos de 4.0 es positivo,

Intercambio de Cationes de los Suelos

Los cationes electronegativos del suelo y el humus retienen alrededor de sus moléculas los iones de hidrógeno H^+ y los cationes catiónicos: Calcio Ca^{++} , Magnesio Mg^{++} , Potasio K^+ , Sodio Na^+ y cantidades débiles de otros iones: Anión NH_4^+ , Manganeso Mn^{++} , Cobre Cu^{++} , Zinc Zn^{++} ; y el Aluminio Al^{++} que es abundante en los Suelos Ácidos. Todos estos iones tienen el poder de intercambios pueden participar en un proceso de intercambio reversible con los iones positivos que existen en la solución del suelo existe un equilibrio entre los iones intercambiables retenidos por el complejo absorbente y los iones en la solución del suelo. Este equilibrio no es estático es cinético.

PROCESOS DINÁMICOS DEL SUELO RELACIONADOS

VADOS CON SU AMBIENTE

Los procesos dinámicos de1 suelo relacionados con 12 calidad

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de su ambiente envuelven reacciones químicas, físico-químicas, y biológicas. Las reacciones químicas son tres: (1) solución de minerales y sales en el agua del suelo; (2) oxidación o combinación del oxígeno con otra sustancia en el suelo y (3) reducción o liberación de oxígeno de una sustancia en el suelo. Las reacciones físico-químicas importantes son el Intercambio de Cationes y la de los Coloides del suelo como se ha explicado.

Reacciones Biológicas

Las reacciones biológicas en los suelos son producto de una

combinación de enzimas y microorganismos del suelo que se clasifican en dos grupos: (1) Autótrofos, como las algas y ciertas bacterias que producen su propio alimento igual que las plantas obteniendo la energía oxidando una sustancia específica y (2) Heterótrofos, que no poseen la facultad de nutrirse a sí mismo, sino que toman sus nutrientes y energía de los residuos orgánicos. Hay algunas bacterias que son facultativas autótrofas que pertenecen a ambos grupos.

Las bacterias autótrofas específicas pertenecen a seis Grupos: nitrificantes, sulfoxidantes, ferroxidantes, hidrógenooxidantes, metanooxidantes y manganesoxidantes. Las bacterias heterótrofas fijan el nitrógeno del aire y descomponen las proteínas y compuestos orgánicos nitrogenados a 1 grupo amino, NH_2 ; al gas amoníaco, NH_3 ; por los procesos de aminización y amonificación respectivamente. Desnitrificación es el proceso por el cual ciertas bacterias específicas reducen el nitrato, NO_3^- o el nitrito, NO_2^- a el nitrógeno molecular que se pierde como gas N_2 , en condiciones anaerobias o sea, ausencia de oxígeno. De igual modo ciertas bacterias específicas reducen los sulfatos, sulfuros y fosfatos al gas H_2S , sulfuro de hidrógeno.

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Las Tres Siglas BOD, DO, TOC.

Estas tres siglas representan respectivamente tres palabras en inglés: Biological Oxygen Demand, Dissolved Oxygen, Total Organic Carbon. Los procesos que degradan y convierten las sustancias solubles en las aguas polutas del suelo y en los desperdicios orgánicos lanzados como basura a los suelos son extremadamente complicados. Tiene que haber suficiente oxígeno en el aire y la solución del suelo para reaccionar químicamente con el carbón total de los desperdicios orgánicos y completar la liberación del gas dióxido de carbono. La zona radical aerobia de la atmósfera del suelo se convierte en una anaerobia debido al agotamiento del oxígeno en su ambiente, produce asfixia y muerte de las plantas.

CONTAMINACION DEL SUELO APLICADA A PUERTO RICO

La contaminación ambiental es algo muy antiguo que viene causando malos efectos a los suelos y las plantas desde hace millones de años con más o menos intensidad. Muchas especies de plantas, animales, aves y peces han desaparecido o disminuido en número por efectos ecológicos que han acelerado la erosión de

extensas Greas terrestres. Los desperdicios sólidos minerales y orgánicos lanzados por el hombre y los animales, las industrias y construcciones han contribuido a la contaminación de los suelos. Sales acumuladas por procesos naturales y polvo fino volados por los vientos en zonas desérticas han producido infertilidad en muchos suelos. La parte mineral del suelo es materia muerta; pero la orgánica incluye microorganismos que tienen vida. La reacción de algunas plantas a los efectos indeseables de la contaminación ambiental es un buen índice que señala que el suelo puede haber sido también afectado. Muchas cosechas y variedades de plantas son dañadas cuando crecen en un suelo contaminado, otras son afectadas en menor grado por ser más tolerantes a los efectos tóxicos de la

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contaminación. Cómo se contamina el aire del suelo, cuándo el suelo está contaminado y cuándo actúa como descontaminante son temas de interés,

La Quema Anual de la Paja de Cana de

En Puerto Rico se viene quemando parcialmente la paja residual antes de la cosecha de caña desde 1950 y en su totalidad en la última década. Una tonelada de caña produce aproximadamente un promedio de 25% de paja en cosechas normales. En la zafra del 1978 se molieron 2.84 millones de toneladas cortas de caña, se quemó alrededor de 710,000 toneladas de paja. En los años anteriores la producción fue de 22 a 10 veces mayor. El aire se contamina anualmente en Puerto Rico durante la zafra de azúcar con enormes cantidades de los gases bióxido de carbono, monóxido de carbono, óxidos de nitrógeno y azufre que se liberan en la quema de los campos pre-cosechados. Los procesos biológicos del suelo que influyen en las relaciones normales de carbono-nitrógeno y de nitrógeno-azufre son afectados por la quema anual; el humus del suelo se destruye y se reduce su fertilidad,

La Erosión del Suelo

Los sedimentos que provienen principalmente de la erosión de los campos cultivados, de las construcciones de caminos, carreteras, urbanizaciones, derrumbes, etc, llenan y obstruyen los lagos, embalses, ríos y canales, aumentan el costo de la purificación de las aguas para consumo, interfieren en los procesos manufactureros,

destruyen las cosechas en tiempo de inundaciones, reducen la vida de los peces, ensucian las playas y los balnearios y absorben fósforo, plaguicidas y agentes químicos indeseables. La rapidez del movimiento de los sedimentos por erosión depende de la topografía, el declive, la lluvia, su intensidad y la velocidad del flujo de las aguas. La cantidad de sedimentos liberados depende de

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la propiedad erosiva de las series de suelos en las cuencas hidrográficas. La erosión de los suelos se divide en dos tipos principales: la erosión laminar que ocurre cuando se pierden las capas superficiales del suelo o subsuelo y la erosión por cárcavas que ocurre cuando se forman zanjas profundas o barrancos.

El fósforo traído por los sedimentos y los nitratos remanentes de los fertilizantes añadidos al suelo para alimentar la cosecha contribuyen al mayor crecimiento de las algas, los jacintos y otras plantas acuáticas y producen la eutrofización o muerte de los peces. El US Geological Survey informó en noviembre de 1981 que con la excepción de la Laguna Tortuguero y el Lago Guaja-

taca las estaciones monitoras establecidas en las corrientes

Fluviales de Puerto Rico exceden la concentración máxima establecida de 0.01 miligramo por litro de fósforo total que evita la eutrofización (Fig. Z).

Efectos de las Sales, Minerales y Metales de los Suelos

Las sales comunes, los ácidos, las sales de los metales pesados, los cianuros y el gas apestoso, sulfuro de hidrógeno, contaminan los suelos. Se originan de depósitos naturales, del drenaje de aguas ácidas de las minas, de los procesos industriales, de las aguas negras y las aguas de riego. Tienen efectos dañinos en las cosechas, pueden ser tóxicos a los humanos, los animales y las aves, producen malos olores y sabores en las aguas y pueden corroer el equipo mecánico y las tuberías metálicas de agua y drenaje. La agricultura sobrevive en una zona rida bajo riego si se establece un balance favorable de las sales disueltas que entran y salen en el drenaje.

Bonnet? explica en su libro: "Efectos de los suelos

Selinos y sódicos", publicado en 1960, el efecto de las sales en

los suelos. Bonnet y Brenes? informaron en 1988 que en la zona

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Semidrida del Valle de Lajas al suroeste de Puerto Rico hay 8,835 acres de suelos contaminados con sales en el Distrito de Riego que cubre 19,769 acres. Esto se debió a sales del mar atrapadas en el subsuelo por efecto de cambios geológicos. . Bonnet y Roberts? informaron en el 1967 que hay 5,756 acres contaminadas con sales en el área de suelos orgánicos en el Cano Tiburones en Arecibo, al norte de Puerto Rico. La contaminación se debe a filtración del agua del mar debido a la topografía baja y al manejo inadecuado de la hidrología de la región. Los metales pesados como el cobre, mercurio, cadmio y plomo son nocivos a los seres humanos, las plantas y los peces pero no hay suficientes pruebas para sostener que contaminan los suelos.

Efecto Ecológico y Físico

Estudios hechos por Bonnet y Roberts? en 1968 de las fincas Propiedad de la Autoridad de Tierras de Puerto Rico en Río Grande-Lotza, revelaron un cambio ecológico de una serie de suelo a otra debido a contaminación del agua del mar. Un área de 92 acres en la finca Blasina clasificada en la década del 1940 como el tipo de suelo, Coloso franco-limo arcilloso, que era productivo, cambió a otro tipo improductivo clasificado como, Pihones franco-limoso contaminado con sales. El suelo, Coloso, estuvo sembrado con caña

de azucar hasta 1952, protegido por un sistema continuo de bombeo y un dique de arcilla para evitar las filtraciones del agua de mar durante el alza de las mareas. La bomba dejó de funcionar después de 1952. El cambio ecológico ocurrió en un período de 10 años.

La vegetación natural cambió a una tolerante a la sal y a unos árboles de mangle. Una fotografía tomada en 1952 comparada con otra tomada en 1962 revela el cambio ecológico.

El cambio físico se observó en un área del tipo de suelo, Coloso franco lino arcilloso, de dicha finca Blasina sembrada de

Pastos. Las huellas de las pesuías y el peso del ganado y 10

one

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compacto que estaba el suelo debido a su estado húmedo excesivo hizo más impermeable. El suelo sufrió una alteración o contaminación de su estructura normal superficial. La nivelación, el arado y el uso de maquinaria para roturar los suelos deben hacerse con cuidado para no afectar su estructura.

En los trópicos húmedos el corte de los bosques para dedicar el área a cultivos de cosechas productivas produce cambios de textura y estructura en los suelos debido al impacto de las gotas de lluvia que humedecen el suelo al cesar la estación seca.

Efecto de las Construcciones

Las estadísticas sin publicar del Servicio de Conservación de Suelos de los Estados Unidos en Puerto Rico revelan que entre 1958 y 1967 se dedicaron 17,698 acres de suelos a construcciones un promedio de 1770 por acre. Estimo que hasta 1961 la cifra debe haber subido sobre un mínimo de 42,478 acres. En cada acre se pueden establecer entre 6 y 9 edificios para residencias; cada uno se lleva aproximadamente cinco yardas cúbicas de hormigón que pesan 100 toneladas cada una. En las 42,478 acres se han depositado aproximadamente de 25 a 38 millones de toneladas de hormigón. Estas construcciones yacen sobre muchas de las mejores tierras agrícolas planas o con poco declive y están contaminadas irreversiblemente con concreto como se puede apreciar en las Vanuras costeras e interiores. Este planificado inadecuado ha afectado nuestra producción agrícola y producido cambios en la hidrología de la región que han contribuido a las inundaciones de los sitios bajos en los períodos intensivos de lluvias. Por consecuencia ha subido el nivel freático lo que ha afectado en muchos sitios la buena aereación produciendo agotamiento de oxígeno en la zona radical, afectando la calidad de la cosecha y el rendimiento de la caña. La construcción de algunas partes elevadas de carreteras en Puerto Rico han cortado el drenaje natural de varias

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fincas productivas afectando su hidrología y reduciendo su potencial agrícola y productivo.

Desperdicios sólidos

En 1972 la Junta de Calidad Ambiental informó que se recogía un promedio de 5.7 millones de libras de basura; un promedio de dos libras por persona. En 1982 el promedio se estima entre 4 y 5 libras por persona. En 1972 en 75 municipios se quemaba más de 60% de la basura en 65 vertederos abiertos, pequeños, que cubrían en su mayor parte 5 acres o menos; hay uno de 19 acres. El mayor es el de San Juan, cubría 163 acres. En el caso de San Cristóbal, un paisaje natural muy atractivo, se usaba como vertedero de basura en los municipios de Aibonito, Barranquitas y Orocoquis. Había 18 vertederos a lo largo de los ríos. Un censo realizado en 1969 demostró de 1,344 puntos basureros a lo largo de las carreteras principales, terrenos solares yermos y otros sitios vulnerables al fuego; son focos de moscas y ratas que contribuyen a contaminar las aguas fluviales. La quema de estos desperdicios contamina el aire. El Departamento de Salud considera que estos vertederos abiertos son fuentes que contaminan la salud.

La Junta de Calidad Ambiental ha establecido un sistema de relleno sanitario para la basura bien planificado enterrándola en capas finas dentro de un hoyo; cada capa se afirma con máquina hasta llegar a una altura de diez pies; se cubre después con una capa de tierra firme también apisonada; la capa superficial se cubre con 2 o 3 pies de tierra bien apisonada. Un relleno sanitario hecho a la medida no tiene problemas de olores, moscas y ratas. El nuevo relleno sanitario de San Juan comenzó en 1958; los de Bayamón y Aguadilla en 1969, los de Caguas, Cidra y Cayey en 1970, En 1982 hay 50 vertederos establecidos en Puerto Rico; 36 adyacentes a las fuentes fluviales de los 46 ríos y 9 en Tescuencas hidrográficas (Fig. 3).

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El US Geological Survey® preparó en cooperación con la Junta de Calidad Ambiental de Puerto Rico y publicó en 1962 los resultados obtenidos en un estudio hecho en 1977 sobre los 50 vertederos

sanitarios establecidos: se basa en el efecto potencial sobre la degradación de los recursos de agua. La lluvia es abundante; excede 1,500mm por año en 40 vertederos. Se tomaron muestras de aguas para análisis químico y físico cerca de 26 vertederos localizados en los pueblos de Aguada, Aguas Buenas, Aibonito, Barranquitas, Bayanén, Caguas, Ceiba, Fajardo, Guayama, Guaynabo, Gurabo, Humacao, Jayuya, Juncos, Maricao, Mayaguez, Naguabo, Naranjito, Grocvis, San Germin, San Lorenzo, San Sebastián, Santa Isabel, Utuado y Villalba. Las muestras de aguas se tomaron en la parte alta del río con agua fresca y en la parte baja que recibió los lavados de los vertederos. Los parámetros químicos analizados que fueron significativos en la determinación de la contaminación de las aguas superficiales y los acuíferos son nueve: Bicarbonato, Calcio, Cloruro, Oxígeno Disuelto (O₂), Magnesio, pH, Potasio, Sodio y Sulfato. Los parámetros físicos determinados son tres: Temperatura, Conductancia Específica y Descarga.

Veinte y cinco vertederos indican un potencial significativo de filtración contaminante y 21 son relativamente permeables. Los resultados indican que el parámetro de Conductancia Específica es el mejor indicador de filtración de sales solubles de los vertederos a las fuentes fluviales; mide la habilidad de la solución en conducir una corriente eléctrica; su valor aumenta con el aumento de la concentración de los iones en solución y está relacionado con

Va concentraci6n de 10s s6lidos solubles. Las fuentes fluviales frescas, no contaminadas en Puerto Rico, tienen un valor de Conductancia Espectfca de 400 micromhos por centimetro, Estas investigaciones continan @ largo plazo.

Los contaminantes lixiviados pueden incluir netales t6xicos, fenoles, pat6genos, etc; pero estos anlisis son algo nas compli-

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cados y no deben incluirse en un programa rutinario de monitorta.

Estos anlisis y los records de descarga pueden hacerse cuando los anlisis rutinarios indican las estaciones que pierden s6lidos solubles por filtracton - lixiviaci6n.

En 1979 las petroquimicas © industrias Quinicas Aliadas y las farmacelticas eran las m6s importantes en Puerto Rico. La mayorta de estas industrias est6n localizadas en las reas Manati-Sarceloneta, Humacao-Yabucoa, y en 1a Costa Sur, Cada area est afectada or sustanctas t6xicas mayores que afectan la salud piblica y 1a calidad del ambiente. La Junta de Calidad Ambiental de Puerto Rico inform: ?En 1970 en el area de Guayanilla en la Costa Sur, el Cloro liberado de un complejo quimico, 1a soda c6ustica, el glyco?

etileno y el cloruro de vinilo? causaron problemas de contaminación,
En 1973, en Bahía Sucia de Cabo Rojo, residuos de aceite derramados
Por un barco petrolero destruyeron mucha de la flora y fauna de la
Playa que causaron problemas y gastos serios de limpieza. En
1978-79, la Quebrada Corozo de Hunacá se contaminó con mercurio
exudado por una industria química; se produjeron altos niveles de
mercurio en sus aguas y murieron 20 vacas. En Dorado, algunos
empleados que trabajaban con hormonas y píldoras para el control de
la natalidad fueron afectados por cambios en sus actividades
sexuales. En Juncos, algunos empleados se contaminaron con el
mercurio perdido en la preparación de termómetros que al romperse
se echaban en un basurero lavado por las lluvias que contaminaron
las aguas de una quebrada adyacente. En Bayamón y Baranquitas, 10
litros de una tubería que conducía gasolina se lanzaron y contaminaron
las corrientes de aguas adyacentes",

Los desperdicios industriales generados por las industrias
azucareras de Puerto Rico: Cachoza, producto de los filtros de
Prensas Siclos y soda cáustica usados para limpiar las incrustaciones
de las tuberías de los tachos y evaporadores; las mieles y

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Jos guarapos fermentados han destruido gran parte de los mangles que han protegido las costas de la erosión marina y servido como refugio de ostiones comestibles. Muchos árboles de mangles han muerto por asfixia o falta de oxígeno; esta especie igual que la planta de arroz tienen la propiedad específica de que el oxígeno atmosférico circula de las hojas por los tallos hacia las raíces y proveen oxígeno para la respiración del sistema radical que crece en suelos encharcados o en ambientes anaerobios agotados de oxígeno. La descomposición de los desperdicios orgánicos por los microorganismos anaerobios de los suelos se detiene porque la materia orgánica al descomponerse compete con las raíces de estas plantas en el uso del oxígeno disponible disuelto en las aguas del suelo y en el de su atmósfera, La Autoridad de Energía Eléctrica de Puerto Rico informó en 1972 que quedaban aproximadamente 16,500 acres de mangles de las 65,000 que habían originalmente,

El Estado Libre Asociado de Puerto Rico a tenor con la Ley Federal Núm. 94-580 (RCRA), según enmendada y la Ley Núm. 9, Ley Política Ambiental, según enmendada, se propone actualizar el Plan Comprensivo para el Manejo de los Desperdicios Sólidos aprobado en el año 1973.

El plan estatal está diseñado para considerar todos los desperdicios no peligrosos y peligrosos que se generen en Puerto Rico y que presente efectos adversos potenciales a la salud pública y el ambiente; la planificación será a corto y largo plazo de

conservación y recuperación de recursos.

Plaguicidas Persistentes y Agentes Infecciosos de los Suelos

Los plaguicidas más persistentes son los insecticidas del tipo de hidrocarburos clorinados como el DDT, aldrin, dieldrin, heptaclor, lindano, etc. Los insecticidas fosforados como el malatión, parathion, etc. y los del tipo carbamato, se descomponen

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rápida. La mayoría son descompuestos por los microorganismos del suelo; algunos son muy persistentes. Los plaguicidas persisten mayor tiempo en los suelos que tienen un alto contenido de materia orgánica que en los suelos minerales y arenosos. Un plaguicida es menos efectivo en un suelo orgánico y "muck" con alrededor de 50% de materia orgánica que en un suelo arenoso. Los factores que afectan la acumulación de los plaguicidas en los suelos son: el tipo de plaguicida, su concentración y método de aplicación, el tipo de suelo, la humedad, la temperatura, el cultivo, los microorganismos, el movimiento del aire y del viento y las cosechas que cubren el suelo. Los residuos de los plaguicidas persistentes permanecen muchos años en los suelos, contaminan los microorganismos-

MOS» pasan a la cosecha y a la cadena de alimentos. Su larga
Persistencia en los suelos es motivo de preocupación pues se
acumulan en las lombrices en concentraciones de una parte por
millón, en los peces y en los tejidos grasos de los animales y
de las personas.

Los plaguicidas son importantes para defender las cosechas de
los ataques de insectos, de las enfermedades y de la competencia de
las malas yerbas, No deben eliminarse pero su aplicación debe
controlarse para evitar su concentración en los alimentos que
producen las cosechas. Dubey informó que los fungicidas: maneb,
Binab, y de cobre tribásico, aplicados a una cosecha de tomates
sembrada en una finca de la Central Aguirre al sur de Puerto Rico
en 1968, contaminó al suelo. Una próxima cosecha de caña de azúcar
creció con mucha dificultad, se marchitó y murió,

Los agentes infecciosos que habitan los suelos: los virus,
las bacterias y los hongos, tienen su origen en las aguas negras,
en las cosechas enfermas y en los desperdicios de animales, mata
eros y tenerías.

EL SUELO COMO DESCONTAMINANTE

Weber² ha informado que los suelos bien drenados ofrecen condiciones favorables e los microorganismos si se mantienen húmedos para que estos degraden biológicamente de 280 2 336k9 de oxígeno por hectárea igual a 250-300lb por acre, durante el tiempo que dura una cosecha. Un volumen promedio de 473,000lbs de aguas negras; es decir 125,000 galones, 403 metros cúbicos o 0.8 de acre-pie, contienen 136.2kg o 300 libras de oxígeno. Parisek y otros³ informaron en 1967 que los excelentes estudios realizados en la Universidad de Pennsylvania demostraron que los afluentes de aguas negras contaminadas son beneficiosas cuando se usan para el riego de cosechas en suelos bien drenados,

EL NUEVO SURVEY DE SUELOS DE PUERTO RICO Y SU CLASIFICACION TAXONOMICA

Un Nuevo Survey de los Suelos de Puerto Rico se ha terminado. Se han clasificado 163 series de suelos distribuidas en 311 mapas escala 1:20,000. Los suelos se han reclasificado en seis categorías taxonómicas: Orden, Suborden, Gran Grupo, Subgrupo, Familia y Series. La categoría Superior: Orden, se divide en 9 grupos:

Alfisol, Entisol, Histosol, Inceptisol, Mollisol, Oxisol, Spodosol ,
Ultisol y Vertisol. Las letras subrayadas identifican las Ordenes
en las tres categorías inferiores, La nomenclatura usada para las
Categorías y sus divisiones taxonómicas se describen en mi trabajo:
"Evaluación de la Nueva Clasificación Taxonómica de los Suelos de
Puerto Rico", sometida para publicación al Colegio de Ciencias
Agrícolas Recinto Universitario de Mayagüez.

Las Series clasificadas en las Ordenes: Inceptisol y Ultisol
con declives entre 20-60° son afectadas por la erosión. Las Series
Clasificadas en los Subórdenes: Aqualls, Aquents, Aquepts, Aquolls
y Aquults tienen problemas de drenaje como lo indica el prefijo

nie.

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Agu, que significa agua. Las Series clasificadas en los Gran
Grupos: Calciaquolls y Calciustolls son excepcionalmente calcáreas;
se reduce la absorción del hierro por las plantas que sufren y
debilitan su crecimiento por el efecto de la clorosis por contami-
nación del calcio.

Los 311 mapas de suelos publicados donde estén distribuidas
Tas 163 Series de suelos clasificadas deben ser usados en un
estudio planificado relacionado con la Calidad y Contaminación
Ambiental. Los mapas indican el declive y el estado de erosión de
las Series. El Boletín 245 del Colegio de Ciencias Agrícolas del
Colegio Universitario, Recinto de Mayaguez, publicado en Junio de
1976, en inglés, por el Or. M.A. Lugo Lopez y Luis H. Riveram, bajo
el título: "Taxonomic Classification of the Soils of Puerto Rico,
1975", debe de usarse para la conversión de las Series de Suelos en
las Categorías Taxonómicas Superiores: Familia, Subgrupo, Gran
Grupo, Suborden, y Orden.

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COMBUSTIBLES NUCLEARES Y DE CARBON

LA ALTERNATIVA A CORTO PLAZO PARA PUERTO RICO

Por

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Universidad de Puerto Rico

?San Juan, Puerto Rico

?Agosto 1982

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COMBUSTIBLES NUCLEARES Y DE CARBÓN

LA ALTERNATIVA A CORTO PLAZO PARA PUERTO RICO

By

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Centro Para Estudios Energéticos y Ambientales

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TurnoDuccrON

EL programa federal para desarrollo de las fuentes alternas de energía tales como la energía solar, la energía oceanotérmica, eólica y otras ha sido reduciéndose gradualmente, el gobierno federal espera que la empresa privada sea la responsable

por el des:

rollo de estas alternativas y ha reducido drásticamente los fondos federales pa

derales pa

el desarrollo e investigación de estas alternativas. No obstante, cree:

an si se hubiese continuado un programa vigoroso de investigación y desarrollo por el gobierno federal en el campo de las alternativas energéticas mencionadas, lo sería hasta de aquí al próximo siglo cuando podríamos contar con una industria

privada altamente de:

desarrollada y competitiva en el campo de las fuentes alternativas de

energía. En esta magnitud con que las fuentes alternativas de energía vendrían a te

nar las ne

necesidades de demandas por energía en el caso específico de Puerto Rico

es bastante pequeña comparada con los requerimientos totales. Al presente Puerto Rico utiliza anualmente sobre 60 millones de barriles de petróleo para sus necesidades energéticas.

Si esta cantidad fuera producida por la energía solar directa y presumiendo aproximadamente 5-1/2 kWh/a por ft² de insolación promedio (valor típico para el sur de Puerto Rico) y si presunimos una eficiencia de recolección de 10% y un espacio de 3:1 para la localización de colectores solares (9 ft² total por cada pie cuadrado efectivo de área colectora) se requerirían aproximadamente 400,000 acres de terreno, Si esta energía

fuera a recolectarse por biomasa

con una eficiencia de aproximadamente 3-4% cual es

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Representativo del proceso de fotosíntesis el área sería 2-3 veces mayor. Toda planificación energética razonable para el uso de fuentes alternativas de energía deberá

Límite

figurar quizás entre 10-15% a las fuentes alternas. Queda por lo tanto

la probabilidad de generar el grueso de nuestra energía, o sea, entre el 85-90% del total, Para subsistir a corto plazo el grueso de nuestro consumo de petróleo solo

existen dos

alternativas económicamente viables, a saber

1. carbón
2. Energía Nuclear.

RECURSOS MUNDIALES DE CARBÓN Y URANIO

Las alternativas energéticas utilizando carbón o combustible U-238 representan

el 85% de los recursos de combustibles del planeta para uso comercial inmediato. La figura 1 muestra una distribución de los recursos y consumo relativo a nivel mundial de combustibles fósiles y nucleares (fusión). La figura 2 nos muestra el cuadro de

los recursos energéticos mundiales incluyendo el uso de uranio 238 (reactor reproduc-

tivo) y energía de fusión. La energía solar representa una buena porción de los re-

recursos disponibles, pero su uso a gran esca-

la como hemos apuntado presenta dificulta-

des debido a su baja intensidad.

Para la sustitución inmediata del petróleo que consumimos debemos pues enfocar
nuestros esfuerzos a la energía nuclear y la energía del carbón. Creemos que ninguna

de las dos alternativas debe cerrarse.

El estudio internacional llamado "World Coal Study" MOCOL realizado con represen-

tantes de unas 17 naciones con un staff de 80 técnicos e ingenieros por un período de

18 meses y publicado hace un año incluye información detallada de los recursos de
carbón en el mundo, pronósticos de la demanda bajo varios escenarios de crecimiento,

aspectos ambientales @ interre

iciones de precio~demanda. Les figuras 1 y2 de

artfeulo armonitan con el estudio OC.

---Page Break---

INVERSION CAPITAL-UN_OBSTACULO

En el estudio titulado "Energy Analysis

snd Socioeconomic Considerations for

Puerto Rico? de mayo de 1980 del CEEA denostramos que ?1 costo de generaciGn de ener-

fa eléctrica en una central de carbén convencional resulta on costos de menos de 1a

idad que los de una central equivalente a base de petróleo o aceite combustible Bunker .

Iguaimente denostranos que los costos de generaciGn de una central nuclear resultaben

fen menos de 1a mitad de los costos de una central de carbén. La figura 3 nos ilustra

108 costos en milts/ewhr como funciGn del aio en que se conienza s operat 1a central.

Los costos son valores actualizados durante 1a vida de ta central.

Este andlisis fue realizado para centrales nuevas y afin es vélido.

Anbas alternativas, nuclear 6 carbén, representan cuantiosos fondos de inversiéa

fen 1a construcci6n de 1a central. Para el caso de 1a central de carbén de 400MM estina~

luna central nuclear de 600M aproximadanente \$950

millones. Es

inversiones en una época de escasez de dinero y de reducciéa én 1a

demanda por energía eléctrica son eficaces de justificar « pesar del rendimiento económico que estas produzcan al substituir el aceite combustible como venos de 1a con Paración económica presentada en 1a figura 3.

Se requiere por lo tanto una solución intermedia que resulte en los costos adecuados de inversión capital para substituir el petróleo utilizando carbón. La alternativa que proponemos va dirigida a la mínima inversión posible para cambios en la

calderas existentes en una compañía eléctrica que esté localizada lejana a las fuentes

de abastecimiento de carbón.

Esta alternativa consiste en mirar al carbón como si fuera una forma líquida. Le

denominamos MAC (Mezcla de agua y carbón).

---Page Break---

SISTEMA MAC

sua y Carbéa)

En un sistema MAC todo flujo de carbén se realiza en una suspensión acuosa.

Conociendo por 12 transportación desde un punto seleccionado de embarque en el país

de origen, el carbén se pulveriza a especificaciones deseadas, se mezcla con agua

y se ha

fluir a tanqueros de transportes aéreos en su forma líquida. El proceso

de almacenamiento en el tanquero involucra una etapa de recirculación y extracción del

agua de forma tal que el carbén a transportarse no está en forma líquida y más bien

húmedo. Al llegar al puerto de destino

se inyecta agua nuevamente al tanquero

para hacer fluir el carbén en forma líquida por tuberías hacia los tanques de almacenamiento.

cenamiento. No se requiere un puerto especial, ni sistemas de acarreo especial

(conveyors)

De los tanques de almacenamiento pasar a los tanques de servicio don-

de

se tendrá una mezcla de 40% agua y 60% carbón pulverizado que se utilizará para alimentar la caldera directamente.

EXPERIMENTOS MAC

Una serie de experimentos exitosos ya se han realizado con mezclas de agua y carbón en el Pittsburgh Energy Technology Center (PETC). Se ha encontrado que la temperatura de combustión de una mezcla de agua y carbón al 40/60% resulta considerablemente estable si el aire de combustión sobrepasa 25°F. El aire de combustión de una caldera convencional de central eléctrica normalmente sobrepasa los 500°F.

Rendimientos de conversión de carbón a calor en el proceso de combustión de una

mezcla de

este tipo alcanzaron valores de

96.1% sin realizar esfuerzos de optimización.

Estos experimentos fueron realizados en una pequeña caldera de 700HP generando 24,000 libras por hora de vapor saturado a 175 psig y una liberación de calor

47,100 Btu/lb.

La granulación del carbón pulverizado se varió en el experimento. Un valor eficiente

fue 89% menor que 200 "mesh". (200 divisiones por pulgada)

Cuando se queman sólidos en suspensión es esencial que la mezcla de aire-combustible

---Page Break---

debe contener una cantidad apreciable de partículas extremadamente finas para

gurar una combustión Por otro lado para obtener la eficiencia mixta de com

combustión es necesario que se mantenga a un mínimo el número de partículas de gruesas,
Un 3-5% de partículas más gruesas que 50 μm pueden producir condiciones indesea-
bles de "slagging" y pérdidas de eficiencia a pesar de que puedan existir las mejores
condiciones para quemar las partículas finas.

La figura 4 nos presenta una distribución de tamaño-partículas del carbón uti-

Lis

fo en el experimento, el carbón utilizado fue Pittsburgh Seam Coal con el and-

Lisis indicado en la Tabla 1.

La reducción en eficiencia debido a la cantidad de agua envuelta es de alrede-

dor de 5-62. El carbón pulverizado se mantiene en suspensión « era

de agitadores

necesarios apropiados y recirculación en los tanques. Se ha encontrado que es una condición deseable que se mantenga el carbón lo más posible para una flama estable y uniforme. Esta condición se consigue manteniendo la mezcla almacenada por varios días o acelerando el proceso por medio de la adición de agentes humedecedores,

La adición de 0.5% del compuesto Lonar D actúa como agente reductor de viscosidad logrando el efecto humecedor del carbón, En el caso que proponemos para Puerto Rico resulta ventajoso los varios días de transporte del carbón en tanqueros ya humedecidos.

Otras fases del experimento concentraron en la determinación ambiental y distribución de cenizas, El escape de cenizas hacia los supercalentadores de la caldera puede controlarse variando el efecto de "ciclón" de la combustión, Mientras mayor el efecto de ciclón menor fue el arrastre de cenizas hacia la chimenea en los experimentos de PETC. Otro parámetro importante que controla el arrastre de ceniza al exterior

terior

4a granulaciGn del carbén pulverizado. Controlando estos factores puede

mininizarse 1a

rosin y depdsito en los tubos del supercaientador de una caldera.

Tgualmente se han realizado experinentos de flujo para determinar las cafdas de

Presign y capacidades de bombeo. Coeficientes de friccién y ninero de Reynolds para

---Page Break---

6

?flujo laminar han sido detersinados en PETC. Actualmente se est proce-

diendo con experimentacién en flujo de turbulencia (atimero de Reyold mayor de 7100). -

Bh finel uso de carbén en forma de MAC representa un reto para Puerto Rico que

debenos investigar para uso a corto plazo.

ENERGIA NUCLEAR -

La energía nuclear representa la otra alternativa económicamente viable para Puerto Rico ya la cual no debe cerrarse las puertas.

Eric Jeffers y otros han reconocido que los problemas de la energía nuclear son de naturaleza política y psicológica. Un grupo de élite anti-nuclear políticamente activado y encubriendo sus motivaciones con el manto de la ecología y utilizando como

?

aporte Las palabras Claves de conservación y fuentes renovables ha tenido éxito considerable en combatir las plantas nucleares. Este éxito continúa diciendo Jeffers ha

sido ayudado en gran parte por los efectos de la recesión económica mundial que ellos mismos han ayudado a acelerar y que ha reducido grandemente la demanda por electricidad = a extremo que muchos países se encuentran hoy con un exceso de generación.

Hoy cada país tiene su movimiento o facción política anti-nuclear. En Suecia es

el Partido Central, la principal facción de la fuerza gobernante, en Francia es una

facción de los Socialistas

los del nuevo partido de gobierno. Igualmente en la República

Federativa Alemana es una facción del Partido Demócrata Social, en Inglaterra es el Partido

Liberal que tuvo influencia hasta 1979. 4

En E. U. conocemos como los grupos anti-nucleares se han organizado efectivamente

para oponerse al establecimiento de centrales nucleares. Este éxito de oposición al desa-

rrrollo de centrales nucleares podemos verlo de la Tabla 2. Fata nos apunta hacia la

cifra de 115,666 MW que no pudieron entrar en operación para 1981 según planeados. Aun-

que algunas de estas proposiciones pueden explicarse debido a revisiones en pronósticos

de carga, estos son quizás menores.

?Faaceat, Vol 3, Wo. Z. 1982.

---Page Break---

Otro éxito que podemos anotarle a los activi:

anticnucleares puede observarse

con la reducida actividad nuclear que ha llevado al cierre de Laboratorio, de consorcios de diseño, consultoras, etc. Como resultado vemos ahora a los antiguos ingenieros nucleares envueltos en actividades de energía solar y alternativas energéticas

renovables.

renovables.

No obstante, la situación vivida en estos últimos años comienza a dar muestras

de que esto va a cambiar. Los pueblos están despertando debido a la severidad con la que les están impactando los altos costos de energía. En Austria, luego de haberse aprobado la legislación anti-nuclear, el Canciller Kretsky presionado por nuevos grupos industriales y ciudadanos están planeando repeler la legislación anti-nuclear de

1978. En Alemania, ahora el Gobierno Federal después de haber caído en una moratoria en la construcción de centrales nucleares está planificando un programa para poner en servicio 25,000 MW para 1990,

en Francia, el nuevo gobierno socialista de Mitterand que como promesa de can

había prometido eliminar el programa nuclear está procediendo con pasos cautelosos
¥ Procediendo a transferir el proceso decisorio del gobierno central en estos asuntos

los gobiernos regionales, Cinco sitios para centrales nucleares paralizadas en 1981

ahora estén siendo reevaluados y si el nuevo consenso es favorable Estas proseguirán,

Recientemente tres nuevos sitios fueron aprobados para centrales nucleares francesas.

En Bélgica, el programa nuclear se ha visto envuelto en controversia con el repro-
cesamiento y utilización de Plutonio como combustible y se espera que esta controversia

sea debatida prontamente y que el Gobierno tenga que acceder a contratos previamente

establecidos.

En Bélgica, la información suministrada indica que el sondeo pr

ate de 1a opinión

Pública es que existe un reciente endoso para las centrales nucleares y hasta conside=

Factores de substitución de calefacción urbana centralizada por sistemas nucleares como medio

de eliminar el consumo de petróleo.

---Page Break---

En E. U., la Administración del Presidente Reagan ha dado un viraje a la política

antinuclear establecida por su predecesor y varios escritores han comenzado a poner

en su correcta perspectiva:

el accidente de Three Mile Island, accidente que fue explotado muy eficientemente por los grupos anti-nucleares.

Quizás, quizá:

un poco lento, el movimiento hacia una activación del programa nuclear a nivel mundial está comenzando a tomar cuerpo. Es conveniente que aquí en Puerto Rico estemos atentos y listos a considerar la alternativa nuclear tan pronto se despeje el panorama de licenciamiento de centrales nucleares. El Presidente Reagan ha indicado que su administración acelerará y facilitará los procedimientos

Licenciamiento.

(COSTOS DE GENERACION NUCLEAR EN PUERTO RICO)

Los costos de generación nuclear en Puerto Rico han sido motivo de examen detallado en CEEA. La figura muestra la función de costos de inversión en \$ por MW contra el tamaño de una central. La curva de regresión utilizada para satisfacer los datos tiene un coeficiente de correlación de 1002. La Figura 5 ilustra en forma de bloque el costo de combustible y la Tabla 3 muestra un resumen de varias predicciones de los elementos de costos.

Un promedio de los costos más altos fue utilizado dando un valor escalado para 1985 de \$1.86 por MW.

Los costos de operación y mantenimiento fueron correlacionados con el número de

empleados de operación y mantenimiento y con la generación total

El análisis indica que el costo de generación nuclear resulta en el más bajo de todas las alternativas estudiadas.

Una central nuclear economizará en promedio durante la vida de una central térmica

\$900 millones de dólares anuales en forma

actualizada comparada con una central

de aceite. Cuando se compara una central nuclear con una de carbón el ahorro resultante

es del orden de \$350 millones anuales, en forma actualizada.

---Page Break---

?48 on economías que se pasarían directamente a los consumidores y tendrían un serio impacto en la industrialización y el comercio.

No es necesario discutir en esta ponencia los varios temas controversiales en contra de las centrales nucleares, ya que este ha sido tema de varias ponencias anteriores,

Como resumen creemos que, ambos combustibles, carbón y centrales nucleares, pueden

venir al rescate de los precios inflados de la energía eléctrica produciendo un nuevo

y

Eludable panorama industrial en Puerto Rico,

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CUADRO ENERGIA MUNDIAL

e+ 10" Bru

FUENTES NO RENOVABLES

FOSILES 213 @

U- 235 70

283 Q

U-238(REPRODUCTORES): 420,000

FUSION (D2): 10,000,000,000 9

GEOTERMICA.: .009 @

FUENTES RENOVABLES

SOLAR : 5190 @/ANO

AEOLICA: 003 a@/aANo

MAREAS : 09 Q/ANO

FUENTE: WESTINGHOUSE 41P4

FIGURA 2

---Page Break---

1o20, Fiera 3

a Costos Totales Actualizados de Varios

: Alternativos para Producción de

4 Energía Eléctrica en PR.

= Inflación SUD

é

é

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Costo Tote

K Alternative Ge Viento (Sin Almacenaje de Energfa)

Inicedo pore Propositos Comparotive con ta Curve

Ge Componente de Aceite Combustible

Fuente CEEA x-72

Alo de Arronque

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X de Volumen

100

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T Acwmulative por Volimen menor al tanaio indicade

[>= Jo

° 20 40 60 180 100 120 140

ae 3 um) mw

Figure 4, Distribuciga de Tanaio de Partfculas Carbén en MAC.

---Page Break---

Figura 5

THE NUCLEAR FUEL CYCLE

| minine

H Reactor

swu FUEL

FABRICATION

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aa--L.

INTERIM

SPENT FUEL

STORAGE

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PERMANENT

wasres _ WASTE

DISPOSAL

---Page Break---

15

TABLA 1 ~ ANALISTS DEL CARBON

1

vousest 36,

Carbén Fijo 50.

Cenizas 10.

Hide6geno)

Carbono.

Nitrégeno

sulfuro

Oxigeno

Ceniza

Valores Celorfficos (Btu/1b) = Sin Hunedad

Temperatura Inicial de Deformaci3a (°F) 2350

Temperatura de Ablandamiento (°F) 2400

Temperatura Fase Liquide 2580

Composici3n de 1a ceniza (%)

Sioy 52.69

A103, 22.82

e203, i5!67

110), 1.22

cao 140

MgO ona

a0 one

K0 85,

sb, 0.95

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- Exploratory Coal

18

REPERE

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+ Energy Analysis and Socioeconomic Considerations for

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1982

First Pan American Congress on Energy

1S A NUCLEAR POWER PLANT SAFE?

ey

Néstor Azziz

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Agosto 1987

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TS A NUCLEAR POWER PLANT SAFE?

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Abstract,

In this paper we review some main issues regarding the safety aspects of a nuclear power plant. Special consideration is given to the possible case of a nuclear reactor being installed in Puerto Rico.

---Page Break---

which are of the order of 2000/year, with a power plant nearby, this will increase to $PON + 0,26$ (with N.C.] per year). See Table 7

2, Fuel Management: Reprocessing and Disposal

This is one of the problems which has worried most nuclear power industry as well as several nuclear agencies. Its solution is as good as one may choose, ANL denotes an amount of investment is allocated for the fuel management, but, as a summary, we may mention that the National Academy of Science, Committee on Nuclear and Alternative Energy Systems (1979), has expressed: The technical problems of waste disposal are not considered major, There is an existing solution which affords storage at reasonable cost and acceptable risk.. Recently,

2 F111 Sas gone through Senate which establishes 2 Public Tocetten in the lint
tee States for the disposal of nuclear este, These sites will he maintained

by tnerasing ?,001/¥U {n taxes. In the spectral case of Puerto co the mole
protle= fs of na?cencern, because tn the case cf having a rower plant, we rautd
Feceive the frech fuel fron the Continent anç the burned one (after A'nonths or

® jeer fror. its Instaltatton) should go tack to the mainland for sts renreceseing
ant ?snesal. Thus, the entire problen af reprocessing and dtepesal fe, fe our
eases @ protien nf the country whitch supplies the fuel, ke rev, lwwevery ast
burselvct wnat tind of risks exist during the trensnortation of the furl to the
Plant and from the plant back to the country supplier, In this recard we ney

Say that casks butlt for the transnortatton (Fig.l) are such that they cnuld stand
?the nest abused treatrent, For instance, the truck which transports the cask,
between the plant end the? ship, may strtfte, at 69 miles/tour a concrete wall, and
a5 Mt vas expertrentally verified, no darage occurr to the cask, The cask will
Sonsist of a thick steel cavity ont a nuch thicker lead shelving sn destanes

25 to withstand the most severe accidents and heat from fire without allouing
escape of raitoactive catertaly

3, Thermal Discharge from a Nuclear Plant.

Any power plant releases heat, and we must deal with this, every time we are

generate power. Thus, we have heat from a coal or oil plant, from a car engine,

a human body, etc. "The heat rejected from a nuclear power plant is in the form

of warm water (about 70°F) and its environmental effect may be good", or bad, of

course, according to the way we use it. For instance, a nice amount of

warm water (about 50 gals for a 1000 kw electric power plant) could be extra

useful to grow algae in a pond or to use in large greenhouses which could gene-

rate direct current for peripheral activities of the plant. We should point out

that while all the heat rejected from a nuclear plant is in the form of warm

water, for other power plants like coal or oil plants the heat is also sent to

the atmosphere throughout the snake stacket alone with contustton products. Me.
oxtdes of cerion, nftrocen, and sulphur, net of thom vary Yaretul to the human,
health,

4, Securtty of tuclear Power Plants

There are two types of possttle acctuents that ray accur at a Nuclear Plant:

- 1) fue to external causes, Tike earthnuates, war, ote,

- 2) Cue to an interna? mstfunctton

---Page Break---

The only example of som relevance In the last categnry, without any dnuht
45 the Three tes slant Accitent. Let us focus our attention on thts vent
anil postpone the first pofnt for later consideration, ?Thr Tiree Miles Island
Heetdont has taught us a few things, (2)

1, That in spite of the lack of knowledge of operators, engineers, and Supervisors, the nuclear design is safe. The five safety barriers designed to prevent radioactivity from coming in contact with the public have worked out in the best way that one can expect.

Let us first review the meaning of these five barriers: The worst accident that could happen is the meltdown of the core because the temperature has reached the melting point of uranium dioxide (ceramic fuel) (3900°C). Normally, this ceramic fuel pellet, about $1/2$ " x 1 " in size, is enough to retain most of the fission products. About 1% may escape from the pellet. The second barrier is then the cladding, or long hollow stainless steel tubes, sealed in both ends, which protect the pellets. The third barrier is the closed Cooling Loop used in the PWR and BWR to remove the heat from the core. This primary coolant is filtered and purified so that the seal is free of radioactive material that leaks throughout the cladding is retained in those filters. The fourth barrier is the pressure vessel of the reactor, made of stainless steel, six to eight inches thick. The fifth barrier is the reinforced concrete structure which contains the whole reactor. It is a structure of 1 to 4 feet thick walls, which have an interior steel lining.

This cladding has also a powerful spray system, to reduce the pressure of the steam in case of a break in the High pressure coolant system, and to shield and cut radioactive fission from the containment atmosphere. Due to the effectiveness of these two last barriers, at the TMI accident only 17 curies of radioactive fission were released from the plant. About 7.5 million curies were retained in

the cooling system and 10,? million in the containment bitline,

If we analyze the sequence of errors before and during the accident we may understand why the nuclear industry is one of the safest, and those who set the power,

In fact, at 4:09 am on March 28, 1979, TH1= was operating at normal power (2790 1" Wests thermal energy were converted by the core). The primary coolant was 300°F and 2200 psia. This primary coolant generated steam which drove the turbines which in turn drove a generator 1000 MW electric output. At this very same moment the pump P tripped and the water in the secondary system started to overheat, and the heat in the primary system could not be removed properly. (See Fig. ?)

The series of auxiliary pumps that were supposed to start when this just happened could not operate because the valves V were closed (they were supposed to be open at the time). In about 18 seconds the steam was just dry and the primary temperature and pressure started to rise so that the pressure relief valve P opened.

The pressure then dropped to a point where the relief valve P was supposed to be closed again, but it did not close and a leakage in the primary system occurred. The emergency pumps E's into the system to supply the loss of primary coolant. At about 4 hours, 15 minutes, the closed valves V's were discovered and they were opened. This could have been enough to stop the accident, but the relief valve R was not detected open until 7 hours and 7 minutes past & after the

the problem was now going to the primary system since in the secondary's things

---Page Break---

care to be normal, The pumps C's were supplying water and the valve @ opened,
Thus, we were having a system with much lower pressure and water coming in,

This situation created steam pockets in the primary system which produced the
effect of an increasing level of water in the reactor, This confused the operators
such, In the assumption that too much water from C's was supplied

Gen actually there was a need for more), they decided to close F's. And
That was it. Before this, to make things worse, the operators opened a high
pressure system to drain even more water out of the primary system throughout,
the "bleed-off line", The pumps C started then to cavitate @ due to the large
amount of gas which got in the upper part of the core, Trapping the fuel element
in over, The temperature rose so high that the cladding material zirconium

Could react with the steam to produce hydrogen and zirconium oxides. These

for condensable gases accumulated at the top of the core halting the recirculation

Very difficult. At this stage some fuel cladding exploded releasing some radioactive

material which escaped through the relief valve to the drain tank which

later overflowed into the containment buildings. The sump pump then carried this

material into the storage tanks of the auxiliary building, which also overflowed

onto the floor of these buildings. About 1:30 pm there was an explosion

of a hydrogen pocket, with no serious consequences at all. Circulation in the

primary system was reestablished about 4 hours after the accident and the core was

then already damaged,

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Rico would he saving about 3 cents/Ky (aout 27°),

3) tuerfcan and Yocal investors would he willtna to finance the pragect.

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4) Puerto Rico could pay the back by means of its normal consumption, so no government investment would be needed. Thus, at the same time that the consumer would be saving 3 cents/Mi, Puerto Rico could own the plant from about 10 years after the construction has been finished,

5) The plant could be constructed within 7 years. During this period a hundred of workers and Puerto Rican engineers will be needed,

f) Puerto Rico could start its independence from foreign oil exporters.

7) Puerto Rican industries would be able to compete with those in the United States by paying a reasonable price per MWhrs

8) The nuclear energy source is less polluting than oil and coal.

9) The disposal of the nuclear waste is not a Puerto Rican problem since after it is burned it will be shipped back to the homeland,

Many developed countries and some others under the process of development use nuclear power to generate electricity, and

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A third lesson from this acctuent ts that uti} tfes cannot work with the sane personnel that run traditfonal plants, A nuclear plant requires ski17 personnel, which salary should be as large as those of comercial atrnlatn, pilots or?atr-port: traffic controllers, From the technicel point of view rore detailed Information on the syster should be avallable to the operator el!

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University of Uruguay 1950-1956 Profess tonal

University of Puerto Rico
School of Nuclear Engineering

State University 1961-1962 Ph. D. Theoretical Physics

English: read, write, speak

French: read, write, speak

Spanish: read, write, speak

Italian: read

Portuguese:

With major in the following areas

Electric power, motors, generators, turbines)

systems for lightning

"Sy power Vines, and clectrie

2, Internal contustion engines,

3. Air conditioning snd heating

4, Theory of elusticiyy and structure analysts,

5, Engineering econowy

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Curriculum Vitae ~ Dr. Néstor Azziz (cont.)

3. EMPLOYMENT AND ASSIGNMENTS

Present - 1971 University of Puerto Rico

Duties: Teaching, Research, and Administration

The Administrative Duties are related to:

1) Office of Research Coordination, director (10%0-present); 7) Member of a Task Force for the feasibility of nuclear Plants in Puerto Rico (107m Present); 3) Member of the Committee for the development of Technology at various Campus to Help Government Actions; #) Member of the Committee for the Development of Graduate Studies sponsored by SF; 5) Graduate School Representative 6) Energy Coordinator for Energy Affairs of the School of Arts and Sciences,

1979 - 1982 - Westinghouse Atomic Power Division, Fellow Physicist, Main Party: Nuclear Reactor Design -

1951 ~ 1959 President of a Private Engineering Enterprise: Air conditioning, radiant heating, etc.

PUBLICATIONS: 40 publications in Physics and Engineering. They are in the field of energy alternatives, nuclear reactor design, and on nuclear and atomic models,

SOME ENGINEERING PROJECTS DIFFERENT FROM NUCLEAR:

a) Design of a Steam Turbine; b) Design of a Solar Heater and Solar Towers

?) Air Conditioning and Radiant Heating Neston; J) Solar House Resign, =

EHEMCUTP OF SCIENTIFIC SOCIETIES

a) Member of the New York Academy of Science; b) Member of the American Physical Society

7. GRANTS - Several federal grants have been obtained since 1975,

2. LECTURER ABROAD ~ Since 1968 to 1977 have been invited to @ different universities in several parts of the world.

8. PATENTS -

Thermostat (Patent in Uruguay 1971; House Heater (Patent in Uruguay 1971;

Semiconductor High Temperature Detector (patent in Uruguay 1971)

16. PERSONAL DATA

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UPADI 82

Sen Juan, Puerto Rico

August 1-7, 1982

First Pan American Congress on Energy

ENGINEERING FOR ECONOMIC DESIGN IN ENHANCED OIL RECOVERY

By

Charles W. Perry

Department of Energy

Washington, D. C.

Robert M. Jimison

Consultant

Washington, D.C.

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?Agosto 1982

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ABSTRACT

ENGINEERING FOR ECONOMIC DESIGN IN ENHANCED OIL RECOVERY

Charles H. erry

U.S. Department of Energy

Washington, Dc

and

Robert M. Jimeson

Consuitant,

Washington, DC

One of the most active engineering functions in the United States is the sophisticated pooling of disciplines required for the economic design of enhanced oil recovery(EOR) field projects.

The technology is not complete, and the design engineers must make decisions under uncertainty. There are about 300 sizeable EOR pilot tests. The knowledge gaps are thus gradually being filled. Field projects cannot be undertaken, without varying amounts of risks

The stepwise evaluation of scientific and engineering data leading to the best practical geophysical and geochemical definition of the reservoir project area is described. Concurrently OF subsequently the EOR process design must be undertaken. The engineering skills involved in each step are also described. In the multiplicity of BOR pilot field tests in the U.S. the purpose is most often to develop design data for expansion to commercial scale. The two key factors in an economic design must always be the determination of the oil in place (original or remaining), and how much can be recovered by the chosen EOR process over what period of time.

The three major categories of GOR processes, i.e. thermal, chemical and miscible gas are briefly described, together with their subcategories. The basic reservoir criteria for each process are reviewed. A discussion of engineering problems encountered in some of the U.S. Department of Energy cost-shared field tests since 1975 follows

Finally, a review of some BOR economic case histories is
Presented to help focus engineering design on the major cost
factors.

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ENGINEERING FOR ECONOMIC DESIGN IN ENHANCED OIL RECOVERY

by

Charles W. Perry

U.S. Department of Energy

Washington, Dc

and

Robertson

?Consultant.

Washington, Dc

?roduction

in mature oil producing and consuming nations such as the United States the depleting reservoirs will at their economic production limit still hold from one half to two thirds of the original oil in place. of the 450 billion barrels of recoverable oil discovered in the 50 U.S. states (excluding tar sands), roughly 140 billion barrels remain as the target for enhanced oil recovery (EOR). As the technology of EOR matures in the U.S., it becomes one of its more viable energy alternatives.

It has been found in the decade since 1972 that EOR, using expensive fluids and methods, demands a far more sophisticated technology than conventional primary and secondary production. Thus concurrent with the growing sophistication in finding new reservoirs and defining them, EOR requires a team of scientists and engineers applying a larger effort over several years for a project to be successful. The pooling of such engineering skills and the approaches to EOR field testing leading to commercialization is the subject of this paper. It will be related to the Department of Energy EOR program for the years 1975-1989.

Where We Are--The U.S. Potential

As stated above, the target in the U.S. is roughly 300 billion

barrels» and perhaps 30 billion barrels additional of tar sand

The technology is not complete. With major research efforts under-

way in Private companies, universities and government laboratories

however, together with over 300 sizeable field tests the confidence

is increasing. Thus the technical constraints are gradually

being overcome so that economics then becomes a deciding

Before proceeding further, a brief review of the several

Process variations for EOR is desirable. For each candidate EOR

Environment there will be usually one optimum process to be deter-

mined by intensive investigation, The three broad categories

Of Processes are 1. thermal, 2, miscible gas, and 3. chemicals

we will consider here only the continuous processes, although

intermittent or cyclical methods are possible,

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2

A brief reference can be made to the simplified improved water

floods using polymer water solutions to improve sweep efficiency

for remaining mobile oil (after waterflooding) and alkalies to

lower surface tensions, passivate clays and create crude surfact-

ants in situ. Both recover only a few percent of the remaining oil in place.

?Thermal Processes for Heavy Oils

?The viscosity of heavy oils in place in their depositional environment often requires heat in some form to improve flow induced by natural energy or artificial pressure differentials. The most common method is to inject high pressure steam into a normal or inverted five spot pattern and force oil plus condensate toward the producing wells. Usually about one barrel in three of the crude produced must be burned to raise steam. Efficiency is not high, but in the primary or secondary mode as much as 50% of the oil in place may be recovered. Surfactant additives may help.

This process is commercial in California.

Steam flooding is economic only to about 900 meters depth, and attention is being given to insulated tubing and downhole steam generation. The alternative thermal method is fireflooding or partial in situ combustion. Compressed air is injected into the appropriate pattern and partial combustion preferentially burns the heavy ends of the crude, creating heat, combustion gases, and a lighter crude. The pressure differential forces these products toward producing wells. The gases and light ends must be separated

from the crude oil on the surface.

?This process is difficult to control, and in the U.S. there have been more failures than successes. Nevertheless, it remains a viable candidate, especially in combination with steam or water ?as wet combustion. There have been several successes.

2s Miscible Gas Processes for Light Oil

A common secondary process for decades has been reinjection of associated natural gas and light hydrocarbons produced with crude oil back into the formation. This may be done for simple Pressure maintenance, but more often as a continuous flooding process. In travelling through the oil sand, crude oil is dissolved, reduced in density and viscosity and entrained so it will flow to producing wells.

In recent years, natural gas and light hydrocarbons have become too valuable when produced, Hence miscible hydrocarbon gas processing has given way to the rapidly developing commercialization of carbon dioxide flooding. The effort is based largely on transporting large quantities of natural carbon dioxide via pipeline to the carbonate reservoirs of West Texas

Carbon dioxide behaves similarly to natural gas, and its mobility (leading to viscous fingering) is a problem. It is controlled by alternating carbon dioxide injection cyclically with water injection. This permits reduction of carbon dioxide use

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3

gown to 6 or 7 thousand standard cubic feet per barrel net, including recycle. This process is becoming commercially active in the US.

3 Chemical Flooding--Light and Medium 042;

?The preferred method for this process is to first inject perhaps a 10% pore volume of a surfactant slug. This slug is most often a complex microemulsion of a surfactant such as petroleum sulfonates, a cosurfactant such as a higher alcohol, hydrocarbon oil and water or brine. This serves to mobilize or "bank" the residual oil by solubilization, lowering of interfacial tension, coalescence and release of oil from pores. The banked oil is then moved toward producing wells by injection of several pore volume of a 100-centipoise dilute polymer solution using polyacrylamides and other carefully screened polymers. Finally conventional water flooding finishes the EOR treatment

The chemical flooding process is one of the most versatile for light and medium oils. It suffers at this time from high chemical costs, such as 10-15 pounds of surfactant and 1-2 pounds of polymer per barrel,

Technical Constraints to EoR

Before proceeding with the engineering of EOR field projects, a brief look at the major technical constraints to successful EOR projects by process is desirable. These are summarized in Figure 1.

In the thermal processes, heat inefficiencies and poor sweep efficiencies vertically and horizontally are principal problems. It has been found that insulated tubing will reduce heat losses such that depths greater than 900 meters is economic. The downhole steam generator and its offspring appear promising. Gravity override of uncondensed steam also subduces efficiency and often leaves the center part of the oil sand between wells untouched. Surfactant additives are helpful in this respect.

In in situ combustion the greatest problem is first trying to

control it. It is thought that dipping formations are best? gone
Progress in developing new instruments to help with this problem
is underway.

With miscible gas, mobility control or prevention of viscous
fingering is the major problem. The water-alternating gas process
can help greatly in this respect. Interesting research is
being sponsored by DOE in using surfactants and/or polymers as
CO₂ additives as an alternate way to control mobility. CO₂ supply
has been solved at least for the very large West Texas carbonate
fields, where two thirds of the U.S. production will take place, by
tapping large natural CO₂ deposits in Colorado and New Mexico,

The greatest amount of remaining research needed is in chemical
flooding. Workable surfactant fluids are in hand, but chemical
efficiency is low for many reasons. The chemicals will react or
absorb on clays and reservoir rocks. The viscosity of polymers

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4 -

can be destroyed by divalent ions. The chemicals must be directed

to the residual oil. Bacteria can destroy chemical effectiveness:

Figure 2 shows the DOE estimates of recoverable BOR in billions of barrels from the processes just discussed. The bottom

portion in each process bar is the estimated recovery by today's technology. The top part is the added increment using advanced technology now under development or on the horizon. Several innovations were briefly mentioned under process descriptions above.

The summary bar on the chart shows our belief that by today's technology roughly 18 billion barrels of incremental EOR oil can be recovered in the U.S. and by the sum of today's plus advanced technology up to 52 billion barrels is possible. This chart does not show when this will take place, and Figure 3 will help in this respect. This figure suggests that much of the Figure 2 potential can be recovered by the year 2000. This leaves 250 billion barrels as a target for future technologies, perhaps microbial. Figure 4 shows U.S. EOR production as of 1980.

Predictability in Design

At different stages in the development of a commercial EOR

field project, the design team consisting of geophysicists, geologists,

chemists, reservoir engineers, geotechnical, mechanical and electrical engineers will need mathematical or modeling predictions,

to determine its technical or economic feasibility. Early in the development, empirical short-cut models such as developed by Lewin?

or Intercomp may be useful, using averaged field data. These will

give useful approximations. As more information develops the

larger 2D and 3D simulation models will be used.

The history of accuracy of predictions by large simulation models has not been very good for several of the DOE cost-shared field tests. An example is given in Figure 3 for the completed Phillips micellar-polymer flood in the North Burbank Unit in Oklahoma. Admittedly, this exercise is a few years old, and progress has been made since. Simulation is not yet an exact Science, however. It is under these circumstances of residual uncertainty that the EOR field project design team must operate.

The Sources of BOR Uncertainty

The great advances in geology, geophysics and reservoir engineering have not eliminated all areas of ignorance in EOR. There must be concluded that not all reservoirs are EOR candidates, even if all of the necessary or desirable information is available. A major source of uncertainty often is the distribution of residual oil in place. It cannot be assumed to be uniform, and bypassed areas will often be present.

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The degree of heterogeneity between injector and producer wells will always be incompletely known, in spite of the best efforts from coring, logging, pressure fall-off tests, high resolution seismography etc. Beginning efforts are underway to apply statistical and probability methods to these problems,

Faults must be located. Large channels must be blocked,

and injected fluids must be contained in the target areas. Finally not all is known about the chemistry and physics of injected fluids and the reservoir components of oil, gas, brine, rock and clays,

In spite of this, a competent design team, given adequate design information, can proceed with certainty. It seldom does it happen that no oil is recovered.

of BOR Eieid projec

Figure 6 presents the normal logical approach to the conceptive design of a commercial EOR field project. Once having chosen a reservoir, or part of one, as a candidate, a first step will be to screen the possible processes by applying known core data to known reservoir facts. In the majority of cases primary and/or secondary production will have taken place in the reservoir and much will be known about it. It will not be unusual and averaging of data will constitute a hazard. A good data base is essential. The biggest single factor in the technical and economic success of an EOR field project will be the accurate distribution of residual oil in place. Extra coring and logging will be indicated.

The laboratory data must include core flooding, PVP phase equilibria, rock/fluid interactions, and choice of stimulating fluids. The laboratory test phase will take one or two years and can include the design of a mini-field test. Following this an intensive field pilot test will take two to five years. During the latter part of the pilot test the design of a field expansion can begin, if the prognosis is positive.

A more detailed stepwise and specific procedure is given in

Figure 7. This was a prescription provided by a leading petroleum service laboratory, Core Laboratories, Inc. of Dallas, Texas, for a proposed project in a specific Wyoming field. All of the Professional disciplines previously mentioned are involved in the Steps, including the preliminary laboratory evaluation,

The pooling of engineers and scientists during the same sequential Phase for FOR, but applied more generally to evaluating any new planned oil reservoir operation is shown in Figure 8.

In the 25 approximately DOE cost-shared field tests tabulated in Figure 10, the approaches to design described above were followed.

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6 -

These were contracted in the period 1975-1979, and generally the best available data and methods were followed. In spite of this

there were failures as well as successes. Some of the principal lessons learned are tabulated in Figure 11.

BOR Economics

As stated above, the rate of progress in developing EOR tech-

nology in the U.S. is rapid. It is an evolutionary process which

has been gathering momentum particularly in the last decade, and

it will take another decade to more fully mature. Nevertheless, -

stimulated by over 300 active field tests, as shown in Figure 12,

commercialization is progressing.

EOR application is currently slowed by World Oil pricing, As

shown in Figure 13, the approximate estimated cost ranges for

EOR recovery from three good U.S. candidate reservoirs for each of

five processes are generally borderline, especially at the high

ends. Another way of saying this is that, except for California

steam flooding, and except for the best candidate reservoirs for

other processes, EOR is generally not economic today. This will

change as the world price for crude oil increases, and as EOR

process efficiencies improve with experience gained from today's

Research and development.

conclusions

1. EOR requires much more scientific and engineering sophis-

tication than primary or secondary oil productions -

2. The U.S. EOR potential is large and known to be available.

3. The three principle processes of thermal, miscible gas and chemical all have technical constraints remaining:

4, ?The U.S. EOR potential for production by the year 2000 is 18 to 52 billion barrels out of 300 in place.

5. The accuracy of prediction by mathematical modeling is not precise, and adds to the uncertainty under which a design team operates. 4

6. The logical steps for developing a conservative design for an BOR project requires a team of geologists, geophysicists and reservoir engineers supported by chemists and other engineers, working together for several years.

7, Sources of uncertainty are many and must be recognized.

8. Many valuable lessons have been learned from the 25 DOE cost shared field tests.

9. EOR economics are favorable for the best fields. 7

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1982

First Pan American Congress on Energy

GASIFICATION OF COAL IN PUERTO RICO

ey

Donald A. Huber

Burns and Roe

Hamilton 6 Glasgow Synthetic Fuels, Inc.

?San Juan, Puerto Rico

Agosto 1982

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ABSTRACT

"GASIFICATION OF COAL IN PUERTO RICO!

DONALD A. HUBER

BUS AO ROE-MIPHREYS §GLAScOW STHTHETIC FUELS, INC

BRIG:

Puerto Rico possesses no proven resources of oil, gas, or coal, and only modest resources of water power. Since Puerto Rico currently depends almost totally on imported oil to meet its energy requirements, the impact of sharply higher oil prices has, and will, present difficult problems for the continued industrial development of the island.

One means of circumventing the situation is the importation and conversion of coal to a medium Btu gas in a centrally located facility. The medium Btu gas can then be utilized on-site or off-site to yield electricity, steam, liquid fuels and/or chemical feedstocks depending upon market needs and conditions. Coal is a cheaper source of energy than oil, and its gasification is a viable technology which produces fuel that can be utilized directly in industrial boilers without down-rating and in an environmentally acceptable manner.

BRHG has studied the technology and economics of producing this medium Btu gas in plants with capacities ranging from 20 to 40 billion Btu per year (1000-2000 tons of coal) for distribution to industrial users within a range of 100 miles from a centrally located gasification facility. The study indicates that medium Btu gas could be produced at approximately \$.50 to \$.80 per million Btu. This compares with current oil prices of \$4.60 to \$5.70 per million Btu. In the future, oil prices are expected to escalate more rapidly than coal prices, thus resulting in the cost advantages of medium Btu gasification.

Sensitivity analyses were also performed during the study to indicate

the influence of the price of coal, capital cost growth, load factor, transmission distance, and the degree of gas treatment required to satisfy clean air regulations on the cost of producing medium Btu gas.

This paper discusses the concept of central gasification, gasification technology, boiler modifications, and possible economic scenarios related to the island of Puerto Rico,

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INTRODUCTION

The energy outlook for Puerto Rico is not the most promising. It possesses no proven resources of oil, gas, or coal, and only modest resources of water power. Since Puerto Rico currently depends, almost totally on imported oil to meet its energy requirements, the impact of sharply higher oil prices has, and will, present difficult problems for the continued industrial development of the island. Today, there is an immediate need to find innovative and environmentally acceptable ways to use the western hemisphere's most abundant energy source = coal. The District Gasification concept provides such an innovative response for an alternative energy resource to lessen Puerto Rico's reliance on imported oil,

In a centrally located facility, integrated to make the most efficient use of energy inputs and waste heat, coal is converted into gaseous form. It can then be utilized on-site or off-site or processed to yield electricity, liquid fuels, or chemical feedstocks, depending upon market needs and conditions. This paper concentrates primarily on the production of intermediate or medium Btu fuel gas manufactured from coal. However,

Some comparisons are made to coal derived low Btu gas.

THE CONCEPT

The District Gasification concept consists of a centrally located facility integrated to make the most efficient use of energy inputs and waste heat. By gasifying coal in a central location, the economies of scale makes the project more financially attractive when compared to diverse small units. In addition, load following capability will be provided on a large unit supplying a wide variety of industrial customers

Residue from the gasification process will be recovered as nonleachable vitreous slag, while sulfur will be recovered in its elemental form,

Both the vitreous slag and elemental sulfur are expected to have some commercial value. Sulfur recovery values of 99% and higher are achievable using commercially available processes. Figure 1 illustrates the basic concept.

The first step is coal preparation to achieve an acceptable particle size as well as drying or slurring the coal depending upon the gasification process.

Crushing coal to a desired particle size is a critical step in the gasification process, which involves crushing coal to a size suitable for the gasifier. This is often done by drying or slurring the coal depending on the gasification process.

Particle size can range from 200 mesh (2.5 μm) for entrained bed gasifiers, up to over one-inch for fixed bed gasifiers. Gasification can be accomplished in a variety of units which are discussed in more detail later. Gasifier temperatures can range from 1500°F (815°C) for fluidized bed units to over 3000°F (1650°C) for units where the ash is removed as molten slag. Operating pressures can range from near atmospheric to

1500 psig (102.5 MPa) depending upon the process.

Following gasification, the hot gas is generally quenched and treated to remove fines, tars, and sulfur compounds. In most systems, the byproduct heat is recovered in a waste heat recovery boiler.

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From the treatment system, the gas can be piped to combined cycle power plants, to steam generators, to industries for chemical feedstocks for other industries dependent upon clean gaseous fuel. These industries include metal treating, glass manufacture, food processing, cement plants, etc. Facility byproducts may also be used on-site. These include low pressure steam or hot water for space heating.

GASIFICATION AND GAS CLEANUP SELECTION

The production of gas from coal has been practiced in various countries of the world for more than 150 years. The principles of coal gasification are relatively simple. When coal is heated in the absence of air, it undergoes decomposition (pyrolysis) into a mixture of gaseous, liquid, and solid components. The gaseous components consist mainly of methane, hydrogen, carbon monoxide, hydrogen sulfide, ammonia, and nitrogen. The liquid components are vaporized at the temperature of the pyrolysis, but condense, when cooled, to yield a mixture of light and heavy hydrocarbons. The solid components known as coke, or char, consist of the original ash in the coal together with unreacted carbon. In traditional gas-making processes, coke (char) was discharged from the pyrolysis retort, cooled, and then conveyed to a further process vessel known as a producer where it was subjected, alternatively, to currents of air and steam.

This converted the unreacted carbon in the coke to a mixture of hydrogen and carbon monoxide which, together with the original nitrogen in the air, formed a mixture known as producer gas which could be used for heating the pyrolysis retort, or alternatively, for blending with the pyrolysis gas, to give a final mixture known as town gas which had a higher heating value (they range between 300° and 500° Btu/ScF {12 and: 20°MI/Rd). The ash from the coal was discharged continuously from the base of the producer:

After 1920, considerable effort was devoted to improving the efficiency and simplifying coal gasification. Modern coal gasification processes employ the same principles as the traditional process, but in most cases, gasification of char and pyrolysis takes place within the same reaction system, often within the same reactor vessel. The modern coal gasification process requires a balance of the endothermic and exothermic reactions so that the external application of heat, other than that contained in the gasification steam, is not necessary. In general, the more air or oxygen consumed per ton of coal gasified, the greater will be the heat released and the higher will be the gasification temperature. The higher temperature leads to fewer oils and tars in the effluent gases. However, the more oxidant consumed, a greater amount of the heating value of the original coal appears as "sensible"

heat in the product gas, resulting in lower overall thermal efficiency. If

this "sensible" heat can be utilized to generate steam for use in the gasification process or for other purposes, the efficiency will be improved.

The composition of the product gas varies with the type of gasification

Process as well as with the steam and oxidant consumed. The principal difference among gasifiers is the way coal is contacted with the steam/oxidant mixture. The basic types of gasifiers are the fixed bed type, the fluidized bed type, and the entrained bed type. These are illustrated in Figure 2

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The choice of oxidant, air or oxygen, also has a significant effect

on the composition of the product gas. Since nitrogen in air passes through the gasifier as an inert gas, it will dilute the product, it is difficult

to obtain a product gas of WHV greater than 160 Btu/SCF (6.4 MJ/Mo)

after tar and sulfur removal with air as an oxidant, in contrast, heating

values for cold clean gas in excess of 350 Btu/SCF (14 MJ/MS) can be obtained

Using oxygen.

Table 1 illustrates some of the proprietary commercial and near-commercial

gasification processes which have been developed. Although certain of the noner

gasification processes have been mentioned for illustrative purposes, there

are several other competitive second and third generation technologies under

development which show equal promise.

For application as boiler or gas turbine fuel, the principal characteristics affecting gasifier selection are the HAV and pressure of the clean fuel gas. For other applications (e.g., petrochemical feedstocks), the chemical composition, particularly the hydrogen/cO ratio, and the content of CO₂, methane, and nitrogen also have a significant effect on gasification process selection.

In addition to the differing characteristics of various gasification processes in respect to the gas composition, pressure, and overall thermal efficiency, the various processes also have significantly different characteristics in regard to the energy configuration of the total gasification system. For example, the Lurgi gasifier has a very high process steam demand, relatively high oxygen demand, and minimum heat available for steam generation. By contrast, the Texaco Process has a high oxygen demand, zero steam requirement and a large availability of waste heat from which high pressure steam can be generated.

The complete coal gasification system, from receipt of coal to discharge of cold clean fuel gas consists of a number of important subsystems including coal preparation, gas cleaning and tar recycle, sulfur removal or recovery, air separation, and primary effluent treatment. Gas cleaning and tar recycle subsystems are usually supplied on a proprietary basis integral with the gasification process. The other subsystems are generally based on technology which is well proven in other applications and is directly transferable:

BOILER CONVERSION/RETROFIT CONSIDERATIONS

The centralized District Gasification concept represents the simplest option where boiler conversion or new coal fired facilities are not feasible. The major considerations in the conversion of boilers designed for cost of Oil to gas firing are listed in Table 2

Table 3 shows some of the principal parameters relating to the combustion of Oil and gaseous fuels. As indicated by Table 3, the medium Btu fuel gas flame temperature would be expected to be as hot or hotter than that of either natural gas or fuel oil. It would, therefore, be expected that radiant heat transfer would not be reduced if a boiler is fired with medium Btu fuel gas.

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Heat transfer in the convective section of a boiler is dependent upon its inlet temperature and the flow of combustion products. Although the inlet temperature may be comparable, Table 3 shows that the products of combustion flow may be slightly higher. It, therefore, appears that with medium Btu gas firing, the heat transfer in the convective section should be comparable with natural gas or oil firing,

Table 4 shows the potential boiler modifications or replacements required to burn Low or medium Btu gas in a boiler originally designed to burn Oil, natural gas, or coal

Larger fuel gas headers and associated piping would be required to retrofit a natural gas boiler for medium Btu fuel gas. Natural gas burners may be satisfactory for medium Btu gas firing, although this should be reviewed with the burner manufacturer. For coal and oil fired boilers, medium Btu fuel gas burners, headers, and piping have to be added. Controls and protective equipment may also have to be modified.

In contrast to medium Btu fuel gas, low Btu fuel gas retrofits could require extensive modifications. Careful review with the manufacturers of the boiler and main auxiliary equipment is needed before low Btu fuel gas retrofit is considered.

Medium Btu fuel gas retrofit of natural gas and oil fired boilers would not be expected to require more than a minor derating (of the order of 5-10%) of the boilers, if any. Necessary plant modifications would be minor.

In contrast, retrofitting for low Btu fuel gas presents a number of serious problems including derating the boiler and the need for extensive modifications to the boiler and main auxiliary equipment.

Economics

As stated earlier, the Puerto Rico's situation is particularly troublesome because of dependence on imports. The supply and price of

imported of 1 fs not only controlled by market conditions, but by OPEC, consequently, political considerations tend to play an important role

Future coal prices can be expected to reflect market conditions and be based upon production costs and those market conditions. Preliminary economic and engineering investigations indicate that the prices of medium Stu gas will be highly competitive on a Btu basis with prices projected for imported of

fn the late 1980s.

Table 5 presents capital cost estimates in 1980 dollars for gasification plants with inputs of 1000 and 2000 tons/0 (908-1818 M^2/D) of coal located near San Juan Harbour.

Table 6 presents the production costs of a medium Stu gas from a 2000 ton/day (1818 Mo/D) gasification plant including an estimate for the dedicated transmission and distribution network (in 1987 dollars) necessary to deliver the gas 20 potential customers. The Levelized cost of medium gas in the late '98's (see Table 6) was estimated to be \$8.62/108 Btu (85-52/100 M^2/D)

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The cost of coal is the major factor in the cost of producing gas.

In Table 6, coal priced at \$67/ton (\$.066/Ma) contributed approximately 60% of the cost of the product gas. For a change of \$1/ton (\$.001/Ma) in the Price of coal, the cost of gas changes approximately \$0.7/108 Btu (\$-7/108 M^2/D)

Other factors affecting the cost of product gas are capacity factor of the gasifier plant and plant size. Reducing the capacity factor from 80 to 50% increases the cost by approximately 15-20%. There is a substantial drop in gas cost as the plant size increases which levels out as the plant approaches 100 Billion Btu/D (106 trillion MJ/o) capacity,

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, although it is apparent that the production of clean fuel gas from coal will not be inexpensive, preliminary economic and engineering investigations indicate that the prices of medium Btu gas can be slightly competitive on a heat content basis with prices from imported oil and offers a means of energy independence. In addition, a reliable source of fuel gas can foster economic expansion into other areas via the direct gasification concept.

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FIGURE 1 ~ DISTRICT COAL GASIFICATION

ANN PLANT CONCEPT

GASIFICATION

PLANT

of

PREPARATION

F

COMPRESSION

Hy and CO | Medium Btu Gas

Pipeline up to | 100 miles (161 Km)

LOCAL DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM

Electricity. Petro- METALS OTHER

UTILITY REFINERIES CHEMICALS (ALUMINUM INDUSTRY

~STEEL)

PROCESSING

(Fuet) (Hy, Fuel) (H,00, Fuel) (Fue1) (Fuel)

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TABLE 2 - CONSIDERATIONS IN CONVERSION TO GAS FIRING

~ LOAD FOLLOWING ABILITY OF GASIFICATION SYSTEM

= COMBUSTION CHARACTERISTICS OF THE GAS

= BOILER EFFICIENCY AND PERFORMANCE

= BOILER RATING WITH LOW AND MEDIUM GAS

= BOILER MODIFICATIONS AND OUTAGE TIME

~ SITE ADAPTATION

= OPERATING SAFETY OF GASIFICATION & POWER PLANTS

~ ENVIRONMENTAL CONSIDERA

KS,

= CAPITAL AND OPERATING COSTS

= ECONOMIC EVALUATION

= REGULATORY AND FINANCIAL ASPECTS

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TABLE 4 - COAL GASIFICATION - BOILER RETROFIT

BOILER MODIFICATIONS

MINOR MODIFICATIONS

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MAJOR MODIFICATIONS

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FUEL PIPING/FEED SYSTEM

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TABLE § - COAL GASIFICATION PLANT -

CAPITAL COST ESTIMATES

(1982 Dotiars)

Plant Size

Tons /Day (Ng/0)

000 (7820) 1000 (910

x 1000 x 1000

A) Gasification Plant

Gasifier, Heat Recovery, Gas Scrubbing 34,800. 23,200

Air Separation 32,500 18,700

Acid Gas Removal 113600

Sulfur Recovery 9,300

Coal Grinding & Slurry 8,100

Plant Water, Cooling Tower, 15,100

Wastewater Treatment

?Sub-Total T400

8) Support Facilities

Coal Handling Facility 4,000

Utility Piping - Potable Water, +400 140

Demineralized Water, Cooling Tower

Make-up Water

Gas Piping 130 130

Piles no value

Access Road 0 30

Electrical Feeders 520 300

Storage Ash Bins, Pneumatic Conveyor 950 550

Effluent, Foundations

Mineralizer with Tank 50 500

Sub-Total T50 5760

Total 121,030 74,460

Contingency @ 15% 18,200 11,200

Grand Total 139,200 85,660

Does not include costs of Tand interest during
Construction, royalty allowances, startup, or
working capital estimates.

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TABLE 6 - ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF COAL GASIFICATION
FOR INDUSTRIAL SALES

2000 T/D (1820 Mg/O) GASIFIER AT SAN JUAN, PUERTO RICO

LEVELIZED ANNUAL 1987-2009 COSTS AT 1982 PRESENT WORTH

(AIT Costs are in \$x10%)

GASIFICATION PLANT

CAPACITY FACTOR 80%

Capital Costs: Gasification Plant - Installed Cost, 1987 \$ 209,600,

AFDC (165 CIF), 1987 \$

Total investment, 1987 \$

Annual Carrying Charge (13.22), 1982 \$ 14,700

Distribution Pipelines - Installed Cost, 1987 \$ 30,000

AFDC (.165 CCIF), 1987 \$ 3,600

Total investment, 1987 \$ 35,600

Annual Carrying Charge (13.24), 1982 \$ 1,980

Total Annual Carrying Charges, 1982 \$ 16,680

Operating and Maintenance Costs

Gasification Plant

Fuel

Labor

Materia?

Total

Total Annual Project Costs, 1982 \$ 61,990

Annual Gas Production, 106 Btu's (109 MJ's) = 10,640 (11,225)

Levelized Annual Cost of Gas Produced, \$/108 Btu (\$/103 Md) =

83 (5.52)

AFDC - Allowance for funds during construction.

CCIF = Construction Compound Interest Factor.

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UPADI 82

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1-7, 1982

First Pan American Congress on Energy

FEASIBILITY STUDY FOR AN ATMOSPHERIC FLUIDIZED
BED COMBUSTION COAL FIRED POWER PLANT IN BRAZIL

by

William J. Bradley

Burns & Roe, Inc.

Newton G. Watts

Foster Wheeler ?Boller Corp.

San Juan, Puerto Rico

?August 1982

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FEASIBILITY STUDY FOR AN
ATMOSPHERIC FLUIDIZED BED COMBUSTION
COAL FIRED POWER PLANT IN BRAZIL

W. J. Bradley, Burns and Roe, Inc.

N. G. Wattis, Foster Wheeler Boiler Corp.

ABSTRACT

The feasibility of retrofitting one of three, existing oil fired boilers to a coal fired atmospheric fluidized bed combustion (AFBC) system is currently being assessed by a team of engineers from Burns and Roe, Inc., Foster Wheeler Boiler Corp., and Engenharia Internacional S/A. This study is being managed by the U.S. Department of Energy on behalf of the U.S. Trade and Development Program,

The study assesses the technical and economic feasibility of converting one of three 88,000 lbs/hr steam boilers located at the NUTEPA Power Station in Porto Alegre, Brazil.

This paper presents the engineering, environmental and economic

gyigerta and design considerations used in this study, preliminary results of combustion tests performed on three Brazilian coals, and preliminary plant modification schemes.

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FEASIBILITY STUDY FOR AN
ATMOSPHERIC FLUIDIZED BED COMBUSTION
COAL FIRED POWER PLANT IN BRAZIL

W. J. Bradley, Burns and Roe, Inc.

N. G. Wattis, Foster Wheeler Boiler Corp.

reproduction

The objective of this study is to assess the technical and economic feasibility of retrofitting one of three existing oil fired boilers to a coal fired AFBC system. The boilers are each 88,000 bhp units in the NUTEPA power plant located in the industrial district of Porto Alegre, Brazil. The study consists of an inspection of the existing equipment and a feasibility engineering and cost estimate for the retrofit and demonstration.

Successful operation of this demonstration plant could lead to retrofit of the two remaining boilers, installation of a new fourth unit, as well as additional industrial and utility fluidized bed steam generators in Brazil.

Fluidized Bed Combustion

A fluidized bed is defined as a gas-solids system composed of granular particles supported by an upward flow gas, with sufficient velocity to separate and suspend the particles above a gas distribution grid. This highly agitated material behaves like a fluid, hence the name fluidized bed (see Figure 1).

The fluidized bed combustion process offers a feasible and effective solution for burning high sulfur fuels and low quality fuels with high ash content, while maintaining SO₂ and NO_x stack emissions within the environmental pollution limits. Sulfur firing

the SO₂ emissions will be controlled without the need for a large, expensive flue gas scrubbing system. NO_x emissions are greatly

reduced by virtue of the low combustion temperature (about 1600°C) associated with the fluidized bed combustion process. The potential for slagging, gas side tube fouling and corrosion problems are also reduced since the combustion temperature is less than the ash fusion temperature of most fuels.

The study reviews the possibility for incorporating the fluidized bed method of combustion of the Brazilian coals and retrofitting an existing unit to demonstrate the unique system,

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site

The site under consideration is the NUTEPA oil fired power plant located in an industrial center of Porto Alegre, the capital of the State of Rio Grande do sul, Brazil (see Figure 2). This plant contains three inactive boilers which are capable of being fired on oil, The boilers are about 12 years old and were operated on 041 until about two years ago. Presently, power is purchased from other grids to make up for the shortage from this plant. The three boilers are located inside a building, side-by-side with good spacing. A bay is available for a future fourth unit.

The power plant is suitable for coal use as it has installed cement bunkers and about 12 feet of open space available below

the boilers for ash removal systems. The boiler size of 88,000 lb/hr is about right for utilization of existing U.S. PBC designs with a minimum of retrofit. The plant is located on a river and has a wharf which could be used for coal barge unloading. Sufficient space is available at the site for ground storage and handling

Coal and Limestone Res

The following fuels are evaluated in this study:

- (4) Run of mine coal from the Leao Mine (57% ash)
- (i) Washed coal from the Leao Mine (40% ash)
- (id) Run of mine coal from the Charqueadas Mine (53% ash)

The proposed limestone assessed in this study will be obtained from a local mine

Scope of Work

This study is being performed by a team composed of Burns and Roe, Inc., as prime contractor, and Foster Wheeler Boiler Corporation (Fwsc) and Internacional de Engenharia S/A (IESA), as Subcontractors. The following tasks are being performed:

I. Technology Selection

1. site/oiler Retrofit Analysis
2. Brazilian Coal and Limestone Test Program Planning
3. Combustion Testing
4. Assess Test Results

II, Preliminary Design Engineering

1. Process Design
- 2, Facility Design
3. Environmental Considerations

3

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III, Project Costs and Economic Assessment

1. Preliminary Cost Estimate
2. Economic Assessment
3. Sensitivity Analysis

IV. Project Management Plan

V. Institutional issues

VI. Documentation

1. Monthly Letter Reports
2. ?Interim Report (Test Results),
- 3: Presentation of Study Results
4. Final Report

This paper presents the results of Tasks T and 17
date.

performed to-

STUDY APPROACH

Burns and Roe, Foster wheeler and Internacional visited the NUTEPA
Plant, inspected the existing equipment and space avarlabi lity,
Feceived copies of general arrangement drawings, and discoseey the
study with Companhia Estadual de Energia Electrica (CEEE) personnel.
Qn the basis of this site visit and these discussions, the following
study approach was adopted:

¢ An environmental analysis to determine soz and particulate

capture requirements will be performed on the basis of

Resulting ground level concentration (Le)

% Samples of the three coals and one limestone to be con-
sidered in this study will be shipped to the Foster Wheeler
FEC test facility where analyses and combustion tests will
be performed

© Proposed boiler and plant modifications will be presented
in an Interim Report and discussed with CREE. The Interim
Report will also present the proposed methodology for
determining project capital and operating costs

© Upon CREE's concurrence of the Interim Report, the pro-
ject costs, economic assessment, environmental assessment,
Project management plan, institutional issues and final
report will be prepared.

ENVIRONMENTAL CONSIDERATIONS

Environmental pollution control standards utilize two types of
criteria

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(4) Impact criteria, i.e. the ground level concentration resulting from the operation of a facility

(44) Performance standards, i.e. emission limitations based on the size of the facility, such as allowable pounds of pollutant per million Btu heat input~

Based on discussions with CEEE, it was agreed to utilize impact criteria as the basis for environmental pollution control for

this study. Specifically, the U.S. EPA 3-hour Class II Prevention of Significant Deterioration (PSD) allowable increment (Ref. 1) will be utilized to determine SO₂ capture requirements. This criteria specifies that the amount of increased SO₂ concentration at ground level during any 3-hour period may not exceed 512 milligrams/cubic meter (µg/m³) .

The operation of the NUTEPA Plant Unit 3 boiler (88,000 lbs/hr)

will not produce any significant pollution quantities per se.

However, in order that the conversion of this unit provide operating @ata applicable to larger units, emission control standards suitable for such large units will be observed. For this purpose, a 150 Me plant firing 255,000 lbs/hr of coal was considered.

Dispersion Modelling

It should be recognized that a detailed dispersion analysis requires site-specific meteorological data taken over an extended period of time. For the purpose of this preliminary estimate the methodology used is based on a simple technique for determining the maximum ground level concentration of an elevated gaseous release (Ref. 2).

The parameters used in this analysis and the results obtained are presented in Table 1. The analysis was performed for coals with various percent sulfur content and for both 400 and 500 foot stacks. The resulting ground level concentrations (GLC) and sulfur capture requirements are also presented in Table 1.

on the basis of these results, a 60% sulfur capture requirement has been specified for the base case analysis for this study.

COAL AND LIMESTONE TESTING

Preliminary Laboratory Analysis

Samples of the Leao No. 1 Mine run-of-mine (ROM) coal, Leao No. 1 Mine washed coal, and Charqueades Mine ROM coal were analyzed. Tables 2, 3 and 4 present a partial listing of this analysis, including proximate analysis, ultimate analysis, calorific value, Hardgrove grindability index and ash fusion temperature, for these

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No unusual characteristics were encountered in reviewing the coal analyses. The ash fusion temperature appears very high (1780°C) thereby indicating that ash agglomeration should present no problem in the fluidised bed,

Crucible ashing tests were performed on the three coals to determine the physical characteristics of the coal ash. All three samples produced ashes which contained significant quantities of unburnt type residue. The results of this test suggested that the residue should be crushed to small sizes prior to reednege, the bed because of the potential for oversize ash accumulation in the steam generator bed.

Combustion Tests

S Were crushed prior to testing to approximately

Kr 2,0; Initially molochite, an inert fired clay sremeine

Raterial, was used for the fluidized starter bed, ?This material

was cglected for its attrition integrity and chemically sacse

RrgPertios. Tests had to be haltes after several hours, however,

gue to severe bed agcioneration. examination of the etinnen

formed in the bed revealed eutectic melts which occurred between

ERE Molochite and the coal ash. Substitution of quasts send fon

the molochite in subsequent tests eliminated the frobiom®

?The coals appear to burn well at 2 bed temperature of 1600°F

(870°),

PROPOSED BOILER MODIFICATIONS

he NS basis of the combustion tests and the environmental criteria,
the following design features were determined:

© the basic criteria in establishing plant modifications
is to minimize the costs of system changes yet maintain
full load capacity. Alternative system modifications
may be considered if increased boiler turndown and final
steam temperature control range are desired,

© Automatic in-bed fuel feed system will be utilized to
minimize the elutriation of unburned fuel from the boiler
and to enhance sulfur capture performance. The fuel
will be crushed to 1/4" x 0.

¢ A Limestone (dolomite) over-bed feed system will be
provided to achieve sulfur capture performance.

2, High efficiency dust collector and/or a fabric filter baghouse
will be provided to achieve particulate capture requirements.
Rents.

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Existing Boiler

Figure 3 presents a schematic of the existing NUTEPA oil fired boiler.

Air from the forced draft fan flows across two passes in the lower air heater, across one pass in the upper air heater and out to the burners for combustion air.

Combustion gases from the oil burners travel downward between the front waterwall and the partition wall. The gas flow then reverses and travels upward between the partition wall and the rear wall. The gases leave the furnace enclosure through the rear wall screen and travel across the superheater enclosure, turn downward and continue across the upper economizer, through the upper air heater, across the lower economizer and through the air heater. (In the air heaters the gases flow inside the tubes). From the lower air heater the combustion gases enter the induced draft fan and then to the stack.

Feedwater enters the unit at the inlet of the lower economizer and after passing through the upper economizer, the heater feedwater enters the steam drum to replenish the boiler system,

Boiling occurs in the waterwalls and partition wall of the furnace enclosure by radiant heat transfer between the combustion gases and the walls. The boiler system is a natural Circulation loop.

?The superheater tubing forms its own gas pass enclosure roof

and floor. Steam temperature control is achieved using @ sub-

Merged attenuator, which is located the lower drum.

Attenuation occurs between the and finishing super stages.

Boiler Modifications

?two design alternatives for modifying the furnace for FBC combustion were considered:

© Alternate 1 - with recycle of flyash

@ Alternate 2 - without recycle of flyash

Both design alternates are based on using the Leao No. 1 Mine OM coal operated to achieve 60% sulfur capture. The furnace would be modified to accept the operation of @ one cell fluid bed with all the gases in the furnace flowing in an upward

direction. The 4.5 ft high fluidized bed would be supported by an air distributor grid properly attached to the furnace

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The first design alternative (with recycle of flyash) is to locate the fluid bed in the area bounded by the front wall, the two side walls, the furnace partition wall, and the plan area of the fluid bed is 28-3 ft x 170 ft (46 m²). The fluidizing velocity is determined by the amount of gases required to achieve maximum continuous rating (MCR) output of 82,000 lb/hr of steam at 522 PSig. This results in a fluidizing velocity of 2.2 ft/sec. Fines recirculation was used to give a combustion efficiency of 97% at a bed temperature of 1600°F. A calcium to sulfur ratio (Ca/S) of 1.71 is required to achieve 90% sulfur capture and an excess combustion air of 224 was used in the evaluation.

The analysis of Alternate 2 results in a boiler efficiency of

£2-8%^{1,2} fuel feed rate of 20,369 lb/hr and a limestone feed rate
Of 4,748 W/hr. The ratio of recirculated fines to combustion
air is nearly 0.7 which is considered too high. An excessive
Quantity of combustion air would be diverted from drying

Size of flyash to convey the flyash. In addition, the flyash
was found to contain 75% ash which is considered too high
justifying recirculation to achieve improved carbon and limestone
utilization.

The second design alternative (without recycle of flyash) is to
expand the plan area of the fluid bed by removing the furnace

wall and extending the bed to the rear wall of the furnace, The,
plan area of the fluid bed is 17.5 ft x 15.3 ft or 270 ft² (25 92).

The resulting fluidizing velocity is 7 ft/sec (2 m/sec) and the
C₂/8 mole ratio is 2. In order to improve the carbon conversion
efficiency on a one pass basis through the bed, the bed temperature
is raised to 1650°F (700°C) -

he analysis of alternative 2 results in a boiler efficiency of 76.5%, a fuel feed rate of 22,084 lb/hr and a limestone feed rate of 6,027 lb/hr. The lower boiler efficiency is primarily due to an increase in unburned carbon losses from 38 to 94%

The results of these analyses are summarized in Table 5. Although the recycle alternative has economic advantages in terms of boiler efficiency (and subsequent fuel and waste disposal savings) the high dust loading resulting from the recycle of such high ash fuel makes this alternative prohibitive.

PROPOSED PLANT MODIFICATIONS

Primary analysis indicates the following equipment changes and

Modifications will be required to convert the NUTSPA Plant to

FBC firing:

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© Forced draft fan

@ Induced draft fan

Flues and ducts

© Tubular airheater

© coal feed system

@ Limestone feed system

?© Spent bed material removal system

© cyclones and/or baghouse filters

'¢ Coal handling and storage system

@ Limestone handling and storage system

¢ Waste disposal system

Electrical and instrumentation

A brief description of some of these modifications is presented below.

Forced Draft Fan

The forced draft fan and motor drive will have to be replaced due to the higher static discharge pressure required to overcome the air distributor and bed pressure drop in this system.

Induced Draft Fan

Although the induced draft fan may be marginally acceptable under the new operating conditions, it is recommended that the fan and motor be replaced to insure reliable performance for start-up and full load operation.

Coal Feed system

An in-bed pneumatic coal feed system will be added with multiple feed points being investigated.

Limestone Feed system

A single over-bed feed point will be utilized for limestone feed.

The limestone feed rate is regulated as a ratio of the coal rate with the ratio adjusted by the automatic control system to control SO₂ emissions at the stack.

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tA

Spent Bed Material and cooling system

single seamaterial wild be withdrawn from the fluidized bed at a
Fron fesgoe? bites the material leaving the bad aust be socted
Sram, ESOC? £0 & temperature at which it can be hannitd ens with-
SERED St 2 zate to match the inslux of material 1ereteejteY a
Tensval cued ScFew can be used to reguiace the bed sarreins
3o0cr. | ?*t* 8 Well as to cool the material to approxiestely
3000P.

Gyclones and/or Baghouse Filters

ceniee eeesenELY Feviewine the need for a mechanical cyclone dust
SRIrPSEL aE the outlet of the boiler for ehe pasere SE collecting
system So Gust Particles entrained with the five oes oceuteream
WET be receeton, fO,date indicates that 9 fabric Fleeer Lerhourt

will be recommended for the retccrit?

NESE RtepOses Bod tications will be presented in the project

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report pees management plan, institutional issues asa sinet

report being prepared.

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TABLE 1

ENVIRONMENT:

ASSESSMENT.

Plant Size - 150 swe

Fuel Fired ~ 255,000 lbs/hr

Flue Gas Flow Rate - 1,991,000 tbs/hr

Flue Gas Temperature - 25°F.

Flue Gas Velocity - 60 ft/sec

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TABLE 2

LABORATORY [UCL ANALYSIS

SAMPLE DESCRIPTION: Leae No. 1 Run of Mine Coal

Sample total moisture prior to shipment to U.S. ~ 11.0%

ALR ORY LOSS 5: 5.28

EQUILIBRIA MOISTURE Sz 20-1

AROGROVE ?INDE n

AS RECEIVED ey,

PROXIMATE ANALYSIS

Fixed Carbon 23.00 25.17

Vol. Hatter wn 29.60)

Ash 50.48 55.23,

Moisture 8.61

Total 100.00 100.00

ULTIRATE ANAL StS,

Carbon 34.24 37.47

Hydrogen 2.79 3.05

Oxygen 0.37 0.42

?trogen, ot 0.66

Sulfur 230 3.7

asi 50.08, 99.23

Moisture 8.61

Total 100.00 100.00

HoH. Vey Btu/2b, 6,236 6,023

ASH FUSION TEMPERATURE Doo. F

Reducing Dxidizing

Inatial Deformation 2800+ 2800+

Soft Tenp Spherical 2800+ 28006

Soft Temp Hemisphericeel 2800+ 000+

Fluid Tenp 2800+ 20006

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TABLE 3

LABORATORY FUEL ANALYSIS

SAIPLE DESCRIPTION: Levo No. 1 Mine Washed Coal

Sample total moisture prior to shipment to U.S. - 17.50%

AIP ORY LOSS ?i: 6.18

Cour iariu riorstuRe ss 11.50

HaROGROVE INDEX: 3

aS AECEWED pay

PRORINATE_ ANAL YSIS

Fixed Carbon 29.41 32.88

Vol. Netter 22.43 25.09

Ash 37.58 42.03

10.58

Total 100.00 100.00

Carbon 36.72 41.07

Hydrogen 2.58 2.08

Oxygen 10.79 12.08

Nitrogen 0.68 0.77

Sulfur 1.07 1.20

sh 37.58 42.03

Moisture 10.58)

Total 100.00 100.00,

He He Vey Btusab 6,970 2,995

ASH FUSION TEMPERATURE Deg

Reducing Oxidizing

Initial Deformation 2000+ 28006

Soft Teap Spherical 2800+ 2800+

Soft Temp Hemicpherical 2800 2800+

Fluid Teap 2600+ 2000+

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TABLE

LABORATORY FUEL ANALYSIS

TABLE 5

COMPARISON OF ALTERNATE

Description

ca/s .

Bed Temperature, °F

Fluidizing Velocity, fps

Excess Air, *

Combustion Efficiency, &

Boiler Efficiency, ¥

Fuel Feed Rate, 1bs/nr

Limestone Feed Rate, ibs/hr

Alternative 1

with recycle

an

1600

10.5

2

97

22.9

20,369

4,785

Alternative 2

without recycle

2.0

1650

7.0

22

8

76.5

22,084

6,017

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