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UNIVERSITÀ DEGLI STUDI DI TORINO

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22 Borehole thermal energy storage (BTES). First results from the injection

- 23 phase of a living lab in Torino (NW Italy).
- 24 N. Giordano¹, C. Comina¹⁻², G. Mandrone¹⁻², A. Cagni³
- 25 ¹ Earth Science Department Torino University, Via Valperga Caluso, 35 10125 Torino (IT)
- 26 ² AG3 srl A Spin Off Company of Torino University, Via Valperga Caluso, 35 10125 Torino (IT)
- 27 ³ EQ Ingegneria Ghibaudo Cagni Zilioli Associati, Strada Dronero, 13/A 12022 Busca (CN, IT)

28 Corresponding Author

- 29 Nicolò Giordano
- 30 Via Valperga Caluso, 35 10125 Torino (IT)
- 31 nicolo.giordano@unito.it
- **32** tel: +39 011-6705325
- **33** fax: +39 011-6705128
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- 43 44
- 45 Abstract

The seasonal storage of thermal energy in the ground is a useful application able to provide H&C and 46 47 DHW demand of commercial or residential buildings. Several examples in Canada and Northern Europe 48 demonstrated the reliability and convenience of these systems in terms of both energy and economic 49 savings, but more demonstration sites are however necessary. The surrounding litho-, hydro- and biosphere are influenced by the plant's activity and a trustworthy supervision of the temperature field would 50 bring advantages to both the environment and the system's efficiency. Usually numerical modeling is 51 52 used to forecast the system behavior but results of simulations can be strongly dependent from assumed 53 material characteristics and should be strictly calibrated on real data. To better understand thermal 54 processes in the ground related to thermal injection and thermal storage, a field scale BTES living lab 55 was build up nearby Torino (Northern Italy) within unsaturated alluvial deposits. Results show that 56 approximately 9.1 GJ were transferred to the ground during the first year, raising the undisturbed 57 temperature by 2°C, and that a correct comparison of monitoring data and numerical simulations can be 58 obtained following a specific site characterization.

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60 Keywords: borehole thermal energy storage; sensible heat; numerical simulation; porous media; Italy

62 **1. INTRODUCTION**

The idea of exploiting the energy provided by renewable sources has been always accompanied by the problem that most of these sources can supply energy when the user's demand is low. The thermal energy storage (TES) is a highly debated concept which was first mentioned in the late 1970s. In recent years several storage technologies have been developed in order to find some valid solutions which can assure criteria of reliability, efficiency and economic sustainability.

One of these solutions consists in generating the heat from the Sun and accumulating it 69 70 in the ground in order to face the day/night and summer/winter alternation in the solar productivity. The system uses the ground as a medium for daily (short term - ST) or seasonally 71 (long term - LT) storing of the heat through borehole heat exchangers (BHEs) which connect 72 73 the heating source and the storage volume. Hence, the ground thermal energy storage falls back 74 in the category of the low enthalpy geothermal systems, which typically exploit the ground as a source using BHEs coupled with heat pumps to cover the thermal energy demand of the 75 buildings. In both cases the ground has an active part in generating thermal energy, but in 76 77 thermal storage applications it plays a double role: on one side it should accumulate as much 78 heat as possible (storage medium), minimizing the losses through the surrounding subsurface 79 and the atmosphere; on the other it has to provide the stored heat as long as necessary (source).

The interaction of such systems with the ground is doubtless non-trivial. Nevertheless, the underground part of the plants is too often modestly debated, minimizing the problem to the number and depth of the BHEs, taking under consideration an average linear productivity value, if specific thermal response tests cannot be carried out. It is conversely necessary to test this part of the plant from multiple points of view in order to construct a system sustainable and perfectly integrated in the litho-, hydro- and bio-sphere. A correct sizing of the plant will benefit not only its efficiency but also the health of the environment.

Hence, the present study arises from the necessity to better understand the ground's 87 behavior when affected by thermal injection, both for the efficiency of the energetic system and 88 for subsurface monitoring. This paper presents the natural consequence of a wider research 89 activity firstly applied at laboratory scale consisting in: i) analogical/numerical modeling of 90 thermal injections in porous media, in order to test the ability to transfer and store the heat as a 91 92 function of the water content [1] and ii) electrical resistivity measurements tested as a monitoring tool for the imaging of the heated plume's distribution [2]. In the light of the 93 94 laboratory's outcomes, a small scale BTES plant was built up near Torino as a monitoring and 95 field scale laboratory site to evaluate the ground's ability to conduct and store the thermal 96 energy. The plant was officially launched on 2014, April 2 and the results of the first operative year are here presented together with numerical simulation outcomes. The geophysical 97 98 methodology applied for the monitoring activity will be discussed in a second paper.

100 2. STATE OF THE ART ON BOREHOLE THERMAL ENERGY STORAGE

The Sun provides an enormous amount of energy, about 3.8 x 10^{18} J (i.e. 1 x 10^{12} kWh y⁻ 101 ¹). Nevertheless, this abundant amount of energy has an intermittent character owing to the 102 day/night alternation and the passing of seasons. This time-dependent supply does not match 103 with the human needs and the misalignment between the source and the demand is one of the 104 longstanding barriers to solar energy technology. The peak demand occurs in the late evening 105 when the solar radiation is no longer available, while the peak supply takes place in the middle 106 of the day when generally both electricity and thermal energy demands are at the daily 107 minimum. The wide solar technology spreading in the last 5 years in Italy and the installation 108 of several small-medium size photovoltaic plants for power production have modified the daily 109 supply curve, lowering the price of the electrical energy at the Stock Exchange at a minimum 110 in the middle of the day. In particular, on 2013 April 14 the electricity price collapsed to almost 111 112 $0 \in MWh^{-1}$ at 3 PM and rose to about $90 \in MWh^{-1}$ just 6 hours later [4]. There is therefore a significant amount of low cost energy available that can be exploited. 113

The solar energy can therefore potentially lead the energetic transition from fossil fuels to renewable sources but storage mechanisms have to be implemented in order to bridge the gap between the energy source and its application to buildings and facilities. The development of several storage technologies able to reduce the time and rate of the supply/demand mismatch and the strong commitment of the leading countries in the efficiency are driving the energy revolution of the present decades, aiming at the increasing sustainability of the human activities.

120 Two key factors in selecting the material for the energy storage are the energy density, 121 defined as the amount of energy accumulated per unit volume or mass, and the operation 122 temperature range ([5]). The amount of thermal energy E [J] stored in a volume of material can 123 be expressed as:

124
$$E = \gamma_b \cdot Cs_b \cdot V \cdot \Delta T$$
[1]

where γ_b [kg m⁻³] and Cs_b [J kg⁻¹ K⁻¹] are the bulk density and the specific heat capacity of the storage medium, V [m³] is the volume and ΔT [°C] is the temperature range of operation.

According to Pilkington Solar International GmbH [7], any TES system can be classified 127 by storage concept and by storage mechanism. Based on the former, the systems can be active 128 129 if they are characterized by forced convection and the storage medium itself circulates alone (direct or closed loop systems) or different media are used to collect and store the heat (indirect 130 or open loop systems). Conversely, they can be passive if a heat transport medium passes 131 through the storage medium to charge or discharge it by thermal energy. The storage medium 132 can be a liquid, a solid, a phase change material or a chemical reactant. The storage mechanisms, 133 together with the storage materials involved, have been researched intensively in the frame of 134 135 Task 32 [8] and Task 42 [9] of the IEA Solar Heating and Cooling (SHC) programme. Three main categories can be identified on the strength of the storage mechanisms: chemical heat, 136 latent heat and sensible heat, the formers being the ultimate innovative technologies while the 137 138 latter deriving from decades of research and experiments. Details on chemical storage and adopted thermo-chemical materials (TCMs) can be found in Errore. L'origine riferimento non 139 è stata trovata.[10], [11]. In-depth analysis on techniques and phase change materials (PCMs) 140 involved in latent heat storage applications can be conversely found in [14], [15], and [16]. 141

142 The sensible heat, which is among the storage mechanisms the most popular and most practiced in the last decades, is the internal energy of a substance which undergoes a 143 temperature increase without changing its phase. Sensible heat storage technologies are easy to 144 control and mostly environmental friendly, with material costs far lower than latent and 145 chemical applications. Conversely, they need to involve large volumes owing to the low energy 146 density. The huge volumes required on turn influence the self-discharge problems and the high 147 initial investment due to the construction activities. Fig. 1 highlights the differences among the 148 three mentioned storing methodologies by showing volumes needed to store 10 GJ of energy 149 with a temperature range of operation equal to 70°C as proposed by [17] in a report of the IEA 150 SHC Task 32. Comparing the volumes necessary when a porous medium fully (quaternary 151 sediments below the groundwater table) or half saturated (quaternary sediments in the vadose 152 153 zone) by water or a compact granite is used as storage material it is evident that it would need a volume of rock or unsaturated deposits 2 times bigger than a volume of water in order to 154 accumulate the same amount of energy. But a saturated porous medium with an average 155 porosity of 0.35 would require only 25% more volume than what the water needs. Nevertheless, 156 157 there is no comparison between sensible heat storage materials and those involving latent (PCMs) and chemical (TCMs) heat. Apart from the quantity of material, its dimensions are also 158 important, being fundamental a low surface/volume ratio for minimizing the heat losses [5]. 159

Besides density and specific heat of the storage material (energy density), other properties 160 are important for sensible heat storage: the thermal conductivity and diffusivity, the temperature 161 range of operation, the stratification of the storage unit and the heat loss coefficient as a function 162 of the surface areas to volume ratio. Details on stratification concept can be found in [18], [19], 163 [20], [21], [22], [23], [24], and [25]. The most popular material for applying the sensible heat 164 storage is the water, which has noticeable heat capacity $(4.2 \times 10^6 \text{ J m}^{-3} \text{ K}^{-1})$ and it is easy to 165 manage by pumping it. Water is often used alone in artificial tanks ([24], [26], [27], [29], [30]) 166 or from aquifers in open loop systems ([30], [32]), solar ponds ([33], [25]) and underground 167 168 caverns and holes ([35]) sometimes previously used for oil storage. A high thermal conductivity can promote injection and extraction of heat, but at the same time it can cause system's self-169 discharge. Rocks and geological porous media are used as storage material as well, because of 170 their widespread availability and their low heat loss rate compared to water. Rocks have good 171 thermal capacity (2-3 x 10⁶ J m⁻³ K⁻¹) and conductivity (3-5 W m⁻¹ K⁻¹), but they often present 172 a high fracturing state which can lead to self-discharge caused by water flows. The quaternary 173 deposits show rather high heat capacity if saturated by water, but groundwater flow could carry 174 away the heat. Rock bed storage systems consist of volumes of pebbles, gravels or concrete 175 bricks completely saturated by a heat transport fluid (air or water) which circulates through it 176 charging and discharging thermal energy ([15], [19], [30], [36]). 177

Nevertheless, this key factor is related not only to intrinsic characteristics of the material, 178 but also to the environmental conditions of the site. Geological materials are therefore freely 179 available, but several geological conditions need to be analyzed beforehand for their fruitful 180 use ([38]). Geological requirements need to be accounted for in the early stages of the project 181 in order to select the system that can provide the best efficiency and the lowest environmental 182 impact. Research studies in this field have to aim at the optimization of storage temperatures, 183 insulation technologies and material properties. In addition, a real scale simulation and a 184 185 numerical model calibrated on experimental direct or indirect data are essential to understand the ground's behavior and to highlight the affecting factors. Definitely, all these consideration 186 have to be taken into account when choosing the type of system according to available space, 187

geological and hydrogeological conditions, difficulties in the local authority approvalprocedures and final user's requirements.

From an operational point of view, the plant generally consists of a thermal collectors' area (usually on the roofs of the supplied buildings), a ST storage called "buffer storage" (very often simple water tanks), a LT storage and a heat distribution network [**30**]. The purpose of the buffer storage (when present) is to minimize the transients in the energy delivery due to day/night alternation and bad weather days, which can affect energy collection [**7**]. It is very important to transfer heat to the LT storage at a constant temperature throughout the warm season, or at least to have the opportunity to choose which part of the volume to supply.

The underground can be profitably used for storing the thermal energy in a closed-loop 197 system, involving borehole heat exchangers in vertical (Fig. 2) or horizontal disposition (Fig. 198 199 3). In the first type a series of BHEs is drilled in the ground (typically in number of 30-50) down to 40-50 m, which is lower than the classical depth of ground coupled heat pumps 200 (GCHPs). The ratio surface to volume should be always as much low as possible in order to 201 202 minimize the losses towards the surrounding ground. A layer of insulation materials is predisposed on top of the boreholes. The insulation is also applied above the set of pipes linking 203 the storage volume to the buffer storage of the system, because the largest losses occur towards 204 205 the atmosphere. Sometimes the volume is also insulated at the side walls, but the costs are definitely not negligible. Among all the described applications, the closed-loop ground-based 206 storage systems have the lowest energy density with around 15-30 kWh per cubic meter of 207 ground. The water-based storages possess a 60-80 kWh m⁻³ energy density, while the gravel-208 water mixtures and the aquifer systems attest to approximately $30-50 \text{ kWh m}^{-3}$ [40]. 209

210 A common borehole disposition consists of a circular shape with a radius in the range 15-30 m (on the strength of the needed volume) and a spacing of less than 1 m among the heat 211 exchangers. This arrangement permits creating a warmer core in the center of the cylinder and 212 an annular zone around it becoming colder and colder towards the exterior. The hydraulic 213 circuit usually operates in order to transfer the heat first in the central pipes and then in cascade 214 in the external [41]. Indeed, the boreholes are hydraulically connected in series or in parallel. 215 During the charge of thermal energy, the flow direction is from the centre to the boundaries in 216 217 order to achieve high temperature in the core and lower values in the externals. In the cold season flow direction is reversed and heat is first extracted from the boundaries progressing 218 towards the core [30]. This working mode allows achieving several targets: (i) the core is always 219 220 supplied with the warmer thermo-vector fluid and is heated up continuously; (ii) the fluid going out from the central BHEs is still carrying a not negligible amount of heat and this is used for 221 heating up the lateral portions; (iii) the gradient between the core and the undisturbed ground 222 223 is lowered by the temperature in the annular zone, promoting a low self-discharge of the system; (iv) a modular design allows adding supplementary boreholes afterwards, which can be easily 224 connected for the growth of the system. 225

In the following tables, several plants with BTES technology are reported with detailed features for each system. Sweden (**Tab. 1**) and Germany are the countries with the highest experience since the 1980s until the current time, but other nations have contributed to the knowledge as well (**Tab. 2** and **Tab. 3**).

230 **3. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

231 **3.1 Geographical, climatic and geological context**

The test site is situated near Torino in the municipality of Grugliasco (geographical coordinates 45° 3' 55'' N, 7° 35' 23'' E). It is located in the north-western portion of the *Pianura Padana*, between the Sangone River on the South, the Po River on the East and the Dora Riparia River on the North. The elevation of the area is 287 m a.s.l., with a difference of approximately 70 m with respect to the Po River level. The site receives a solar radiation which allows producing approximately 1,300 kWh m⁻² per year and is characterized by 2,092 heating degree-days referred to $18^{\circ}C$ (**Tab. 4**).

The first operative year of the system built up in Grugliasco was characterized by a 239 summer period different from what usually expected in North-Western Italy. This can be noted 240 241 from a comparison of the average daily temperature and the monthly rainfalls between the 242 periods April - October 2014 and April - October 2005 - 2013 (Fig. 4). The 2014 data were registered by a weather station placed in the Physics Department [50]; the 2005 - 2013 data 243 belong to Arpa Piemonte [51]. The weather station is located in the Torino city being aware 244 that the air temperature in Grugliasco would be approximately 2°C smaller. Since May to 245 September 2014 the temperature was clearly smaller than the average; in particular, July and 246 August registered values around 21°C, being the average standing approximately at 24°C. In 247 addition, July 2014 was the rainiest among the last ten years together with July 2011. June and 248 September were the second and the first driest months among the considered period while 249 August stood around the average. 250

From the geologic point of view the area consists of abundant Pleistocene-Holocene 251 glacio-fluvial coalescing fans connected to the alluvial plain of the Po River, which on turn lays 252 on the Torino Hill lithological units (Fig. 5). The plain consists of gravelly-sandy materials with 253 254 high permeability in the first 60-70 m below the ground level (Fig. 6). Within these deposits it is common to find layers of compacted gravels or conglomerate (the "Ceppo"), deriving from 255 the cementation of gravels by a carbonatic cement of fluvio-glacial origin. In the test site the 256 257 surficial deposits belong to "Subsintema di Col Giansesco" (Pleistocene Inf. - Holocene) which is part of the "Sintema di Frassinere": in this unit pebbles of quartzite, serpentinite, gneiss, 258 prasinite and calcareous schist were found [52]. Below this unit, there are deposits of a 259 transitional facies between marine and continental environment, being characterized by the 260 alternation of coarse sands and silts due to the progression and regression of the coastal line in 261 the Pliocene Med. - Pleistocene Inf. 262

Drilling activity performed in the site confirmed the overall geological setting and showed 263 30 m of gravels and sands. Sometimes some decimetric layers of compacted gravelly sands 264 265 were encountered. Samples, pertaining to these levels, collected for laboratory analyses, revealed the presence of carbonatic cement in the matrix. Other samples of un-compacted 266 gravels and sands (sampled at 7.5, 21 and 27 m depths) were moreover analyzed for the 267 determination of the grain size distributions (Fig. 7). These samples were also analyzed from a 268 thermal point of view (**Tab. 5**), whereas it was not possible to examine the compacted samples 269 because of the presence of too big pebbles. The devices adopted for thermal characterization 270 271 were the ISOMET 2114 (Applied Precision Ltd., Bratislava, SK) and the KD2 Pro (Decagon Devices Inc., Pullman, WA, USA), which can measure properties of both porous media and 272 rocks. The ISOMET 2114 (ISO) is based on the transient line source method and it applies the 273 dynamic measurement method in order to minimize the measurement time. For the 274 determination of the thermal conductivity of the examined samples the needle probe IPN 1100 275

was used (measurement range $0.015 - 2.0 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$, accuracy 5%). The KD2 Pro device (K2D), based again on the transient line heat source method, applies different algorithms on the strength of the selected probe (dual needle or single needle). The conductivity was measured with the TR-1 single-needle probe (measurement range 0.1 - 4.0 W m⁻¹ K⁻¹, accuracy 10%). Contrary to the ISO, this probe has a larger diameter and provide longer heating time for minimizing the errors related to the contact resistance. In addition, TR-1 heats the sample significantly more than IPN 1100 on the ISO, making possible to measure higher λ values.

From the hydrogeological point of view, a phreatic aquifer is hosted in the shallower unit, while the deeper unit is characterized by a multi-level aquifer. The groundwater in the first unit flows eastward, being in direct connection with the Po River. On the strength of the available data, the water table in the examined area is thought to stand to 35-40 m below the ground level. On the basis of the grain size distributions of the 3 collected samples, the hydraulic conductivity $K \text{ [m s}^{-1}\text{]}$ was calculated with the Kozeny-Carman equation [53]. Values of $K = 2.3 \times 10^{-4}$, 5.6 $\times 10^{-4}$ and 3.5 x 10^{-4} m s⁻¹ were respectively obtained.

290 **3.2 Plant's setup**

In the light of the above described geological conditions and owing to administrative 291 regulations, the plant was set up in the unsaturated zone of the unconfined aquifer. This situation 292 was however a valuable choice in order to test the ability of unsaturated saturated alluvial 293 deposits in storing the heat. Following the evidences of laboratory simulations on similar 294 295 materials [1] intermediate (25 - 50%) water content showed indeed great potentiality in storing the heat. The underground part of the system was located nearby the Topography building of 296 the Department of Agricultural, Forest and Food Sciences of Torino University (Fig. 8). It 297 298 stores the heat in the ground by means four 27 m deep BHEs. The arrangement consists of a double-U piped borehole placed in the center of an equilateral triangle (2 m side), and other 3 299 single-U piped BHEs located at the triangle's vertexes (Fig. 9). A 33 m deep monitoring hole 300 was moreover located 2 m away from the double-U heat exchanger. The top of the BHEs is 301 302 placed at a depth of 1.5 m from the ground level in order to minimize the heat losses towards the atmosphere. The distance between the BHEs and the building is more than 10 m and it was 303 therefore important to cover all the connecting pipes with a 1.5 m thick insulating layer for 304 305 preventing the heat losses.

306 The grout used for guaranteeing a valuable thermal connection between the pipes and the surrounding ground has a nominal thermal conductivity of $\lambda = 2 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$. Two days after the 307 end of the drilling activity, 3 samples of the grout were collected and analyzed with both the 308 ISO and the KD2 (Tab. 6). With the first device, the surface probe IPS 1100 was used 309 (measurement range $0.04 - 6.0 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$, accuracy 10%), while with the second the TR-1 was 310 adopted. In this case the most reliable values should be those measured with the ISO because 311 for compacted and previously smoothed samples the surface probe seemed more appropriate. 312 Measured grout thermal conductivities where notably lower than the nominal one (Tab. 6) and 313 could potentially affect the system behavior for these kind of applications. Nevertheless in the 314 unsaturated deposits at the test site the effective λ of the ground is rather low (see **Tab. 5**) and 315 thus comparable to the grout. The material surrounding the pipes can be therefore considered 316 thermally homogeneous. 317

The remaining part of the system was located in the Topography building. Two solar thermal panels were placed on the roof with a total net surface of 5.0 m^2 with an inclination of approximately 10° (**Fig. 9**). Typically, the solar collectors are installed with an inclination of 30° for guaranteeing a valuable production also in winter, when the Sun's orbit is low and the

delivery daily hours no more than 3-4. Nevertheless, in this case a low inclination arrangement 322 was provided in order to maximize the production in the summer period and in the central part 323 of the day (see **Tab. 4**). The circuit is governed by a 59 W electric hydraulic pump located in 324 the basement of the building, where all the pipes are arranged together. The pump provides the 325 thermo-vector fluid circulation through the whole system at a maximum flow rate of 210 l h⁻¹ 326 327 and a constant pressure of 2.2 bar. The chosen anti-freeze additive is Propylene Glycol at 25% vol. concentration, which prevents the freezing of the thermo-vector fluid up to a temperature 328 329 of -20° C. In addition, a heat sink was added to the system in order to dissipate the heat collected during the warm season for simulating the heating activity of a real BTES plant. 330

As above described, the whole plant was designed with the idea of a high flexibility field scale laboratory. A management system, with a remote control from the Earth Science Department in Torino, was therefore installed to monitor the activity of the plant and to manage it. Several temperature sensors were placed throughout the circuit and within the ground. An energy recorder was moreover installed for the quantification of the energy injected into the ground (produced by the collectors) during the summer and then extracted in the winter period. A website [54] was furthermore set up for the dissemination of the project's results.

A total of 20 RTD 4wire Pt100 (measurement range $-50 - 180^{\circ}$ C, accuracy 5%) were placed every 5 m down-hole in 3 of the 4 BHEs and in the monitoring hole. In addition, 10 temperature sensors of the same type were placed throughout the circuit and on the thermal panels. An ultrasonic flow meter was placed on the pipes for providing flow rate data. Thus, on the strength of temperature *T* [°C] and flow rate *q* [m³ s⁻¹], an energy calculator registers the energy produced by the thermal collectors, by first calculating the instantaneous power *P* [W] by means of the volumetric heat capacity Cv_w [J m⁻³ K⁻¹]:

345
$$P = Cv_w \cdot (T_{out} - T_{in}) \cdot q$$

[2]

and then the energy E [Wh] by multiplying it for the working hours. All the sensors were connected to a data logger which continuously collects the data, providing a 0.5 h sample interval.

With the remote control it is possible to visualize and register the temperature sensors' 349 values throughout the circuit and within the ground, selecting and modifying the working modes 350 as well. The operative mode of the system was decided in the light of the several already 351 working plants, where a core volume benefits from the hottest carrier fluid and an annular 352 353 volume is powered by the same fluid carrying a lower amount of heat. Therefore, the central BHE was used as the warmer core and the externals as a thermal barrier towards the undisturbed 354 ground. During the summer period, the thermo-vector fluid warmed by solar energy is driven 355 down into the central BHE, then out to the hydraulic pump and re-pumped down into the 356 external BHEs afterwards. This is called the "Charge Phase" in which the ground is charged by 357 the thermal energy provided by the Sun and collected by the panels. The system is able to decide 358 359 whether to circulate the fluid or not, because a temperature difference constraint has been imposed. If the difference between the collectors' and the average ground's temperature is more 360 than 5°C the system works and the ground is charged by solar thermal energy. Conversely, if 361 $\Delta T < 5^{\circ}$ C the circulation is stopped in order to prevent the cooling of the ground. During the 362 winter, the system's circulation is inverted and the "Discharge Phase" occurs. The carrier fluid 363 extracts the heat stored in the ground and brings the energy to the heat sink. The energy 364 calculator placed in the circuit measures the amount of energy injected in the first and extracted 365 in the second phase. The described operative mode has been chosen for the first year of 366 operation (2014). 367

The plant has been officially launched on April 2 with the charge phase and stopped on October 20. In the first year of operation the discharge phase was not adopted immediately in order to observe the natural cooling of the ground. The decision was led by the fact that the summer 2014 was rather cool with respect to a typical one in these geographical and climatic conditions. Nevertheless, this particular situation will be used for describing the natural discharge and comparing it with the laboratory case study data.

374 **3.3 Numerical model's setup**

The numerical simulation of the Grugliasco site was performed with the aim of predicting 375 the extension of the thermal plume through the ground. In this case, all the data collected during 376 the drilling activity and the laboratory analysis, together with information from Arpa Piemonte 377 [51] and the available literature, were used as input values for the model in order to carry out 378 an as much as possible accurate simulations. The modeling was performed with OpenGeoSys 379 380 (OGS) code, an open-source initiative for the numerical simulation of thermo-hydro-381 mechanical/chemical processes. OGS is a flexible numerical framework based on the finite 382 element method, provided to solve multifield problems in porous and fractured media for several geological and hydrological applications. In the numerical environment, a 3D 383 384 quadrilateral 50 x 50 x 50 m model was developed. A triangular prismatic mesh of about 140,000 elements was set up with Gmesh [56] in order to be finer in the center of the model 385 and progressively coarser laterally. The adopted physical properties for the ground are 386 presented in Tab. 7. 387

The numerical model was first calibrated on the experimental data of the first year of 388 389 operation (2014). The adopted boundary conditions were then used for a long-term simulation aiming at the prediction of the plant's behaviour in the next five years, featuring a 6 month 390 alternation between heat injection and extraction. During the warm season each day should be 391 simulated by an injection at about 40°C for 8 h and at 20°C for the remaining 16 h [57]. 392 Nevertheless, this kind of discretization would need excessive computation time. In order to 393 speed up the simulations, a weighted average inlet temperature was therefore chosen: 33°C in 394 the central BHE and 25°C in the externals. During the winter period, an inlet constant 395 396 temperature of 10°C was adopted. After several comparative tests about time discretization, the whole simulation time was divided in 18,250 steps of 0.1 day each. 397

399 **4. RESULTS**

400 4.1 Plant's monitoring

A brief report of the registered plant's parameters is reported and commented in the 401 present paper. For a more detailed description please refer to [58] and the webpage of the living 402 lab [54]. During the first part of the injection period the plant was set to provide the highest 403 possible temperature to the working fluid. The system was therefore set to have a maximum 404 flow rate of 80 - 90 l h^{-1} , which is approximately the 40% of the nominal rate of the pump. On 405 July 10, the working mode was changed by setting the system to optimize the flow rate, with 406 resulting lower fluid temperatures. A lower flow rate allows both the thermo-vector fluid 407 reaching high temperatures and increasing the time of heat release in the ground. In Fig. 10A 408 409 and Fig. 10B, data from the sensors placed in the boreholes are reported from April 9 to September 30. Generally, an average increasing temperature trend was observed and heat up 410 rates of 0.4-0.5 °C month⁻¹ were registered; data from BHE show however to be strongly 411 412 influenced during each day by the temperature of the circulating fluid. In the second part of September (from day 140 to the end of the monitored period), several bad weather days 413 influenced the ground temperature, lowering the recorded data in the central borehole (DU) and 414 in one of the externals (A); the monitoring hole (MH) tended to equilibrium. At the end of the 415 whole charging phase, the ground temperature rose approximately to a rather homogeneous 416 value of 16.3-16.4 °C up to 2 m from the central BHE. 417

A focus on July is reported in **Fig. 11**. The temperature data from sensors in the BHEs 418 and MH are displayed in graph A. The average temperature in BHEs and MH is then compared 419 with those recorded on the collectors (graph B). The inlet and outlet temperature to the BHE 420 421 field are plotted in comparison with weather data in graph C. Graph D displays the working parameters of the plant (flow rate and instant power) together with the thermal energy 422 progressively produced and injected into the ground. Since July 10, as a consequence of the 423 different operative mode, the flow rate reached values of 200 l h⁻¹ (**Fig. 11D**) and immediately 424 425 some variations of the other parameters were observed. The difference between the inlet 426 temperatures in the DU and in the external BHEs decreased to an average value of 10-15 °C 427 (Fig. 11C). The amplitude of the average temperatures in the BHE field increased, with peaks of 21°C (Fig. 11B). It is clear in Fig. 11A that the amplitude of A and B after this change in 428 flow rate were doubled with respect to the previous condition, whereas the temperature 429 430 registered in DU remained approximately unchanged. Moreover, it is interesting to note that the MH registered the highest increasing rate in the period since July 20 to 31. This was a late 431 response affected by the high energy production occurred since 8 to 18. Together with June, 432 433 July was the most productive month among all, with 514 kWh of thermal energy transferred to the ground. It is important to note that this increase in production was registered although the 434 first and the final days of the month saw bad weather conditions with several rainfalls. 435

In summary, the thermal energy monthly transferred to the ground amounted to 367, 457, 528, 514, 498, 353 and 100 kWh since April to October respectively. On the whole 2,830 kWh (about 10.1 GJ) were injected in seven months. In the light of **Tab. 4**, the total energy which can be potentially produced by the collectors in horizontal position since April to October would be approximately 4.2 MWh (considering 82% efficiency of the *Viotosol* collectors). This divergence should firstly be related to the effective inclination of the collectors on site and secondly to the lower amount of solar radiation received during the 2014 summer.

443 To estimate the energy transferred to the ground E_T , the total energy produced should be 444 lowered accounting for the losses which occur throughout the circuit, assumed to be

445 approximately 5 - 10%. Therefore, a reference value of $E_T = 9.1$ GJ can be precautionary 446 accepted. If all the domain influenced by the heat storage is assumed to be affected by a constant 447 temperature increase of 1°C, the ground volume affected by the thermal injection would result 448 in:

449
$$V = \frac{E_T}{\Delta T * C v_b} = \frac{9,100}{1 * 2.1} = 4,300 \ m^3$$

450 This amount corresponds to a cylinder with a radius of 7 m and a depth of 28 m.

The energy injected, and effectively still present in a volume of cylindrical shape with a 2 m radius (the distance between the monitoring hole and the central BHE), can be estimated by observing the temperature registered in the ground at the end of the injection period. On October 22, the equilibrium temperatures were 16.2°C in the MH, 16.4°C and 16.6°C in the external BHEs, 16.4°C in the central. Therefore, the amount of thermal energy collected E_C is in the range 1.6 - 2.0 GJ, with the two end members corresponding to $\Delta T = 2$ °C or 2.5°C respectively.

With the data referring only to the first charge phase, the efficiency of the storage can be estimated to 17 - 22%. A correct estimation of the system's efficiency would be obtained after a complete discharge phase, as the inverted cycle would bring energy to the heat sink. The ratio between injected and extracted energy would output the efficiency of the whole system. It is nevertheless preliminary clear the necessity of an insulation aside the BHEs in order to prevent the dispersion of the heat injected, to improve the storage potential and to facilitate the extraction during the winter season.

465 **4.2 Numerical results**

The temperatures registered by the acquisition system were assigned as BC in the model 466 with a discretization equal to the sampling interval (0.5 hours). This input datum is rather heavy 467 from the computational point of view. The comparison between experimental and numerical 468 data is reported in Fig. 12 (for a simplified visualization one datum per day is reported, 469 averaging the 48 data available for each day). A valid estimation of the real system behavior 470 has been obtained by the numerical simulation. Since July 10, the numerical results show 471 472 smaller temperature variations (particularly clear in DU) because we changed the inlet 473 temperature by modifying the working mode of the plant. This is also evident in MH, where after a first period with a valid superposition of numerical and experimental data the 474 temperature reached at the end of the simulation is 0.3°C lower than that observed in the field. 475 476 Obviously, the thermal energy input provided by the plant in the field was the same because a lower temperature is a consequence of a higher flow rate. The monitoring data were therefore 477 not affected by the low inlet temperature. Nevertheless, generally speaking, the values 478 479 registered in the field are valuably simulated by the code: average errors of 1.54%, 3.36% and 0.64% were achieved for external A, central DU and MH respectively. 480

The numerical simulation was also adopted to forecast the temperature distribution within 481 the ground in the next years. The weighted average inlet temperature adopted in the charge 482 phase were 24.5°C and 20.3°C in the central and the external BHEs respectively. The outlet 483 temperature in the discharge phase was 10°C in both the borehole types. The simulation 484 outputted a stationary situation during the 5 years, with a very limited ground influence. After 485 the last injection period, the isotherm +2°C shows an extension not bigger than the BHE field 486 and the isotherm $+1^{\circ}$ C stands at approximately 5 m from the central BHE. The temperature-487 time prediction's curves in the central BHE and in the MH describe a stationary situation. The 488

489 ground temperature at the end of each charge-discharge cycle recovers approximately the 490 original temperature with a limited divergence of 0.4 - 0.5 °C.

491 **5. DISCUSSION**

492 **5.1 General discussion**

The temperature monitoring showed that the sensors placed in the BHE grout are very sensitive to the circulation of the thermo-vector fluid. They registered the day/night alternation and a bad weather period is immediately observable in the data recordings. Conversely, the sensors placed in the MH presented a constant temperature increase since April to the end of September. A standalone sensor chain in an independent borehole should be of primary importance in order to correctly monitor the effect of the heating in the ground without the influence of the plant itself.

The different working modes adopted in the injection period revealed different behaviors in the ground. The low flow rate mode, provided until July 10, allowed reaching a high temperature in the circulating fluid, but the amount of heat was almost completely transferred into the ground during the passage in the central BHE. The high flow rate mode, adopted since July 10, provided a lower temperature in the circulating fluid, but the high flow rate guaranteed a more distributed energy transfer among the BHEs.

Periods of about 10 days were compared, two before and two after July 10. As an average, the inlet temperature in the central BHE was clearly bigger during the low flow rate mode, except for isolated peaks influenced by fast-changing conditions. The external inlet temperature was conversely higher after July 10. The energy produced in these four periods was 144, 123, 192 and 130 kWh respectively. The differences seem to be firstly related to the weather conditions and secondarily to the working mode, which did not drastically affect the energy production.

513 Nevertheless, the high flow rate mode allowed reaching higher temperatures in the external BHEs and thus having a lower thermal gradient between the center of the storage 514 volume and the surrounding environment. In the energy storage applications this is a key factor 515 because the stratification is fundamental for the optimization of the system. In a bigger plant it 516 is crucial to decide whether to have the core dramatically warmer than the annulus or to 517 distribute the heat in a more homogeneous way. In the first case the ground volume could be 518 charged more in the external portions, but at the same time the high thermal gradient would 519 520 cause high heat transfer within the storage volume and heat losses towards the surrounding (in case of no proper side insulation). In the last case the heat propagation within the storage 521 522 volume would be minimized, but it would be also difficult to progressively charge the ground.

The numerical simulation was useful to predict the behavior of the ground in the next years of operation of the Grugliasco plant. After the calibration with the monitoring data, a 5 year simulation showed the limited impact of the BHE field in the surrounding environment thanks to the alternating charge/discharge cycle in two different periods of the year. The 10°C inlet temperature during the cold season would cool down the ground in few days, but it would not lower the temperature below the undisturbed ground's value too much.

529 5.2 Improvement proposals

530 In the light of the first operative year of the plant,-some possible implementations of the 531 plant can be defined in order to improve its activity.

The direct coupling between the solar panels and the BHE field provided a day/night alternation in the thermal injection. The management system was set up with several conditions which compare the temperature of the carrier fluid in the collectors and the temperature distribution in the BHEs. This prevented the plant to cool down the ground during the night and

bad weather days. Nevertheless, a buffer storage could be added to the system in order to limit 536 the alternation and provide the thermal energy at a constant temperature during the warm 537 season. For instance, some other ground thermal energy storage working plants have a short 538 term water tank in order to apply this concept. The collectors warm the fluid up in the tank and 539 this transfers the thermal energy to different portions of the BHE field depending on the 540 temperature of the thermo-vector fluid. As a matter of fact, the energy collected by the 541 Grugliasco plant would increase thanks to a more continuous injection and to lower heat 542 dispersions. 543

With the calibrated numerical model set up for the simulations, some hypotheses in order 544 545 to enhance the efficiency of the system can be made. The numerical simulation gives indeed 546 the opportunity to predict what would happen if an insulation was provided around the BHEs. The presence of a ring of insulating material was therefore simulated in order to create a storage 547 volume of cylindrical shape with a radius of 3 m from the central borehole. A thermal 548 549 conductivity of 0.15 W m⁻¹ K⁻¹ and a specific capacity of 1,300 J kg⁻¹ K⁻¹ were assigned to this material, which correspond to the thermal properties of clay. The thickness of this clay barrier 550 is 0.2 m. A similar simulation was therefore carried out and the results are reported in Fig. 13. 551 The clay prevents the dispersion of the heat allowing the storage volume to increase the 552 temperature more than in the real case (without the insulation). The temperature reached at 2 m 553 554 from the source is 18.6°C, with an increase of 2.3° C with respect to the situation without the 555 insulation.

556 With the numerical data the thermal energy collected by the defined cylindrical volume was therefore calculated. Each element in the cross section was multiplied for the volumetric 557 558 capacity of the ground in order to obtain the thermal energy collected with that specific temperature increase. If the X-Z slice drawn in Fig. 13 is assumed to have a thickness of 1 m, 559 the total volume would amount to 180 m³. The summation of the elements gave as output a 560 561 stored energy equal to 0.95 GJ which can be correlated to the entire volume (790 m³) by 562 multiplying it for 790/180 = 4.4. The total E_C in the cylindrical volume surrounded by the clay ring amounts to 4.16 GJ. This value corresponds to the 46% of the total energy produced by the 563 564 solar collectors (9.1 GJ) and it is clearly higher than the efficiency estimated at field scale without insulation (17%). 565

It turned out that an insulation ring around the BHEs would guarantee a higher amount of stored energy by doubling that stored without insulation. As a conclusion it can be stated that a thin insulation layer can clearly enhance the storage ability of the ground. The clay has a λ lower than the surrounding ground, but thinking about other materials with even lower thermal properties, it is possible to raise more the collected energy. The role of the insulation would be moreover double, because it would also allow to minimize the environmental impact of the plant.

574 6. CONCLUSIONS

The study derived from a previous laboratory study encompassing analogical, numerical 575 modeling and geophysical surveys aiming at the thermal characterization of geologic porous 576 media towards their utilization for sensible heat storage ([1], [2]). In the light of these laboratory 577 observations, a real field scale system which follows the concept of the ground thermal energy 578 storage was therefore designed. The idea was that of building up a laboratory at field scale in 579 order to assess the ability of the ground to store the heat, to evaluate the influence on the 580 581 environment of the induced thermal difference. The field scale laboratory provided some fruitful information in the first year of operation. Even though the 2014 warm season did not 582 provide the expected solar energy production, 9.1 GJ of thermal energy were transferred to the 583 584 unsaturated gravelly-sandy ground since April to the middle of October. In these 7 months, the ground was able to collect approximately the 17% of the total E_T . The main conclusions can be 585 synthesized as follows: 586

- 587 (i) The unsaturated alluvial deposits of the Po Plain revealed to be able to host a BTES plant,
 588 showing interesting information about heat storage and transfer concepts already in the
 589 first operative year; the Grugliasco plant will be useful to test several methodology for
 590 improving the systems' efficiency and their monitoring activity.
- (ii) As expected, the direct coupling of the BHEs and the solar panels is not useful for the
 energy collection. A short term storage could enhance the efficiency of the system by
 providing thermal energy at a constant temperature.
- (iii) Thanks to the numerical simulation, the influence of the Grugliasco plant was predicted.
 It turned out that the double cycle operative mode (charge + discharge phase) lowers the
 thermal impact in the surrounding ground. In addition, an insulation ring around the BHE
 field could enhance the collection efficiency by doubling it.
- 598 On the whole, it can be stated that the first charge phase of the Grugliasco plant allowed 599 making numerous observations on several key aspects of the ground thermal energy storage 600 systems. Obviously, these will be taken under consideration when there will be the opportunity 601 to implement the plant or to design and set up a real plant, with its management system and 602 monitoring equipment.

The future research on the Grugliasco plant will focus on the implementation of the BHE field, the evaluation of a possible insulation ring around it and a buffer tank as STS to enhance the energy collection efficiency. Moreover, the implementation of the monitoring equipment will be undertaken, placing temperature sensors down in standalone boreholes and possibly water content sensors.

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730 Captions

- **Fig. 1** Volume needed to store 10 GJ with different storage mechanisms with a ΔT of 70°C (modified from [17]).
- **Fig. 2** Vertical BHEs linked together to exploit the ground as a storage volume in a closed-loop system. The core
- 733 presents higher temperatures than those in the annular zone in order to minimize the heat losses towards the surrounding undisturbed ground.
- Fig. 3 Horizontal closed-loop system constructed in Vaulruz, CH (modified from [39]).
- Fig. 4 Comparison between the 2014 daily temperatures and monthly rainfalls and the average values for the past years (2005-2013).
- **Fig. 5** Geographical and geological test site location.
- **Fig. 6** Stratigraphic section of the examined area (data from [51]).
- **Fig. 7** Grain size distribution of the 3 collected samples.
- Fig. 8 Pictures of the living lab. Drilling activity in front of the Topography department (A-B); temperature
 sensors placed throughout the circuit (C); ultrasonic flow meter (D); hydraulic circuit of the plant (E); underground
 section of the remote control system (F).
- **Fig. 9** Satellite image **[51]** of the test site area. The arrangement of the BHEs and the monitoring hole are reported
- rig. 9 Sate into image [51] of the test site area. The arrangement of the Bries and the monitoring note are reported
 with the indication of the boreholes equipped with temperature sensors. The green roof is that of the Topography
 building where the solar collectors are placed.
- Fig. 10 Whole registration period (April 8 October 20). DU, A, B = central and external BHEs. MH =
 monitoring hole. Uppermost graph: temperature data from the central borehole (green) with the regression curve
 referred to the daily minimum (orange). Lowermost graph: temperature data from the A borehole (blue) and the
 MH (violet) with the regression curves, referred to the daily minimum (red) for A.
- **Fig. 11** July data. DU, A, B = central and external BHEs. MH = monitoring hole. IN, OUT = inlet and outlet temperature to the BHE field. SR = daily max solar radiation. Description about each graph are reported in the text.
- **Fig. 12** Comparison between the field data monitored by the system ("exp") and the numerical results of the simulation ("num") in external BHE (A), central BHE (DU) and monitoring hole (MH). The data are daily averages.
- Fig. 13 Results of the simulation with the clay ring as insulation technique. The X-Y plan view (left) and the X-758
 Z cross section (right) are reported.
- 759

760 LIST OF SYMBOLS

761 GENERIC SYMBOLS

| 762 | Symbol | Description | <u>Unit of measure</u> |
|-----|--------|-----------------------------------|---|
| 763 | Cs_b | bulk specific heat capacity | [J kg ⁻¹ K ⁻¹] |
| 764 | Cv_w | water volumetric heat capacity | [J m ⁻³ K ⁻¹] |
| 765 | d_0 | mean diameter of spherical grains | [mm] |
| 766 | E | energy | [J] or [Wh] |
| 767 | E_C | energy collected by the ground | [J] or [Wh] |
| 768 | E_T | energy transferred to the ground | [J] or [Wh] |
| 769 | Р | instantaneous power | [W] |
| 770 | q | flow rate | $[1 \text{ s}^{-1}] \text{ or } [m^3 \text{ s}^{-1}]$ |
| | | 1 | 9 |

| 771 | q' | energy input | [W m ⁻¹] |
|------------|----------------|--|--|
| 772 | SR | solar radiation | [W m ⁻²] |
| 773 | t | time | [s] |
| 774 | Т | temperature | [°C] or [°K] |
| 775 | V | volume domain | [m ³] |
| 776 | | | |
| 777 | GREEK SYMB | ROLS | |
| 778 | Symbol | Description | Unit of measure |
| 779 | γ _b | bulk density | $[kg m^{-3}]$ |
| 780 | ΔT | temperature difference | [°C] or [°K] |
| 781 | λ | thermal conductivity | $[W m^{-1} K^{-1}]$ |
| 782 | | , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , | |
| 783 | ACRONYMS | | |
| 784 | A. B | Single U piped BHEs | |
| 785 | ÁŤ | Austria | |
| 786 | BHEs | Borehole Heat Exchangers | |
| 787 | BTES | Borehole Thermal Energy Storage | |
| /88 | CH | Switzerland | |
| 789 | DHW | Double II piped BHE | |
| 791 | ENEA | Italian agency for new technologies, energy | y and sustainable economic development |
| 792 | FTP | File Transfer Protocol | |
| 793 | GCHPs | Ground Source Heat Pumps | |
| 794 | H&C | Heating and Cooling | |
| 795 | IEA | International Energy Agency | |
| 790 797 | ISO IT | Isomet 2114 device | |
| 798 | K2D | K2D Pro device | |
| 799 | LT | Long Term | |
| 800 | MH | Monitoring hole | |
| 801 | NL | The Netherlands | |
| 802 | OGS | OpenGeoSys Dhaga Changa Materiala | |
| 803 804 | PCMS | Phase Change Materials Renewable Energy Sources | |
| 805 | SE | Sweden | |
| 806 | SHC | Solar Heating Cooling programme | |
| 807 | ST | Short Term | |
| 808 | STES | Seasonal Thermal Energy Storage | |
| 809 | TCMs | Thermo-Chemical Materials | |
| 810 811 | 1E5 | Thermai Energy Storage | |
| Q17 | | | |
| 012 | | | |
| 013 | | | |
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Fig. 1 - Volume needed to store 10 GJ with different storage mechanisms with a ΔT of 70°C (modified from [17]).



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828 Fig. 2 - Vertical BHEs linked together to exploit the ground as a storage volume in a closed-loop system. The core

829 presents higher temperatures than those in the annular zone in order to minimize the heat losses towards the 830 surrounding undisturbed ground.



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Fig. 4 – Comparison between the 2014 daily temperatures and monthly rainfalls and the average values for the
 past years (2005-2013).





Fig. 5 - Geographical and geological test site location.



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Fig. 6 - Stratigraphic section of the examined area (data from [51]).

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Fig. 8 – Pictures of the living lab. Drilling activity in front of the Topography department (A-B); temperature sensors placed throughout the circuit (C); ultrasonic flow meter (D); hydraulic circuit of the plant (E); underground section of the remote control system (F).



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Fig. 9 - Satellite image [51] of the test site area. The arrangement of the BHEs and the monitoring hole are reported
with the indication of the boreholes equipped with temperature sensors. The green roof is that of the Topography
building where the solar collectors are placed.



857

Fig. 10 – Whole registration period (April 8 – October 20). DU, A, B = central and external BHEs. MH =
monitoring hole. Uppermost graph: temperature data from the central borehole (green) with the regression curve
referred to the daily minimum (orange). Lowermost graph: temperature data from the A borehole (blue) and the
MH (violet) with the regression curves, referred to the daily minimum (red) for A.



Fig. 11 July data. DU, A, B = central and external BHEs. MH = monitoring hole. IN, OUT = inlet and outlet temperature to the BHE field. SR = daily max solar radiation. Description about each graph are reported in the text.



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Fig. 12 – Comparison between the field data monitored by the system ("exp") and the numerical results of the simulation ("num") in external BHE (A), central BHE (DU) and monitoring hole (MH). The data are daily averages.

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Fig. 13 – Results of the simulation with the clay ring as insulation technique. The X-Y plan view (left) and the X Z cross section (right) are reported

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| 875 | Tab. 1 – Borehole thermal energy storage (BTES) projects constructed in Sweden ([42], [43]). | |
|-----|--|--|
| | | |

| Site | - | Kungsbacka, SE | Store Skuggan, SE | Södertuna, SE | Luleå, SE | Danderyd, SE | Emmaboda, SE ⁽¹⁾ |
|---|---------------------|----------------|--|---------------|----------------------------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|
| Start-up | year | 1980 | 1982 | 1982 | 1983 | 2002 | 2010 |
| Housing area | - | 1 school | - | 525 houses | 1 university building | 50 houses | Factory building |
| Global irradiation (Hz) | kWh m ⁻² | 940 | - | 370 | - | - | - |
| Heating degree-days (ref. 20°C) | °C | - | 5,000 | - | 6,250 | - | - |
| Heated living area | m^2 | - | - | - | - | 6,000 | - |
| Total heat demand | MWh y ⁻¹ | 1,100 | 500 | 6,390 | - | 550 | - |
| Solar collector area | m ² | 1,500 | 2,200 | 30,000 | (no solar energy but waste heat) | 2,400 | (no solar energy but waste heat) |
| Heat storage volume | m ³ | 85,000 (BTES) | 180,000 + 1,000 (BTES + hot-water STS) | 105,000 | 120,000 | 60,000 | 200,000 |
| Geologic material | - | Clay | Gneiss and granite | Granite | Gneiss | Granite | Gneiss |
| Extracted heat from BTES | MWh y ⁻¹ | 710 | 430 | 4,160 | 1,100 | 385 | 3,000 |
| Solar fraction | % | 65 | 85 | 65 | - | 70 | - |
| Cost of the system (solar + storage) | M€ ⁽²⁾ | 0.17 | 1.03 | 2.7 | 0.85 | 0.54 | - |

⁽¹⁾ Data from **[44]**

⁽²⁾ Currency conversion functions from [45]

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Tab. 2 – Borehole thermal energy storage (BTES) projects until 1990 ([26], [42]).

| Site | - | Innsbruck, AT | Groeningen, NL | Vaulruz, CH | Ispra, IT | Treviglio, IT |
|---|---------------------|---|--|--|--|------------------|
| Start-up | year | 1980 | 1982 | 1982 | 1982 | 1985 |
| Housing area | - | 1 airport | 96 houses | 1 maintenance centre | 1 JRC building | residential area |
| Global irradiation (Hz) | kWh m ⁻² | 1,090 | 910 | 1,180 | 1,160 | 1,200 (1) |
| Heating degree-days (ref. 18°C) | °C | 3,235 (2) | 3,000 | 3,886 | 2,500 (3) | |
| Heated living area | m^2 | - | - | - | - | |
| Total heat demand | MWh y ⁻¹ | 1,220 | 1,140 | 340 | 80 | |
| Solar collector area | m ² | 400 | 2,400 | 510 | | 2,727 |
| Heat storage volume | m ³ | 60,000 + 40 (BTES + hot-water STS tank) | 23,000 + 100 (BTES + hot-water STS tank) | 3,500 (BTES with horizontal pipes) | 2,250 + 80 (BTES + hot-water STS tank) | 43,000 |
| Geologic material | - | Gravel | Saturated sand with clay and peat layers | Sandy gravel with clay | Clay | |
| Heat delivery of the solar system | MWh y ⁻¹ | 640 | 760 | 220 | 64 | |
| Solar fraction | % | 52 | 67 | 65 | 80 | 70 |
| Cost of the system (solar + storage) | M€ ⁽⁴⁾ | - | 0.71 | 0.31 | - | |

⁽¹⁾Deduced from [46] ⁽³⁾ Reference value 15 °C

⁽²⁾ Reference value 12 °C

⁽⁴⁾ Currency conversion functions from [45]

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883 Tab. 3 – Borehole thermal energy storage (BTES) projects from 1990 up to now.

| Site | | Neckarsulm, DE Phase I (Phase II) ⁽¹⁾ | Attenckirchen, DE ⁽¹⁾ | Crailsheim, DE Phase I ⁽²⁾ | Okotoks, CA ⁽³⁾ | Braedstrup, DK ⁽⁴⁾ |
|---|---------------------|---|---|--|--|--|
| Start-up | year | 1996 | 1999 | 2006 | 2006 | 2012 |
| Housing area | - | 6 multi-family houses, commercial centre, school | 30 apartments in single-family houses | 260 apartments, 1 school and 1 sports hall | 52 apartments in single-family houses | District heating plant, 1,500 consumers |
| Global irradiation (Hz) | kWh m ⁻² | 1,100 (5) | 1,100 (5) | 1,100 (5) | 1,510 | 1,100 ⁽⁵⁾ |
| Heating degree-days (ref. 18°C) | °C | - | - | - | 4,910 | - |
| Heated living area | m ² | 20,000 | 6,200 | 40,000 | 6,800 | - |
| Total heat demand | MWh y ⁻¹ | 1,663 | 487 | 4,100 | 790 | 3,600 |
| Solar collector area | m ² | 2,700 (5,000) | 800 | 7,300 | 2,300 | 18,600 |
| Heat storage volume | m ³ | 20,000 (63,400) (BTES) | 9,350 + 500 (BTES + hot water STS tank) | 37,500 + 580 (BTES + hot-water STS tank) | 35,600 + 240 (BTES + hot water STS tank) | 19,000 + 7,500 (BTES + 2 hot water tanks) |
| Geologic material | - | - | - | Limestones | - | Clay till and sands and gravels |
| Heat delivery of the solar system | MWh y ⁻¹ | 832 | 415 | 2,050 | 682 | 7,000 |
| Solar fraction | % | 50 | 55 | 50 | 86 | 20 |
| Cost of the system (solar + storage) | M€ ⁽⁶⁾ | 1.5 | 0.26 | 4.5 | 2.3 | 4.3 |

884 885 886 ⁽¹⁾ Data from [**30**] ⁽²⁾ Data from [**47**] ⁽⁴⁾ Data from [**48**] ⁽⁵⁾ Deduced from [**46**] ⁽³⁾ Data from 2011 annual report [41]

⁽⁶⁾ Currency conversion functions from [45]

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| 000 |
|-----|
|-----|

 Tab. 4 – Solar energy data of the Grugliasco area with the indication of the optimal inclination of a collector aiming at the maximum production ([49]).

| Month | Global irradiation (Hz) [Wh m ⁻² day ⁻¹] | Optimal inclination [°] | Average air temperature [°C] | Heating degree- days [°C] |
|-------|---|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Jan | 1,520 | 66 | 3.9 | 410 |
| Feb | 2,070 | 57 | 5.6 | 328 |
| Mar | 3,520 | 46 | 9.1 | 221 |
| Apr | 4,390 | 30 | 12.0 | 112 |
| May | 5,090 | 17 | 17.0 | 12 |
| Jun | 6,040 | 12 | 20.9 | 0 |
| Jul | 6,310 | 15 | 22.9 | 0 |
| Aug | 5,480 | 26 | 22.5 | 1 |
| Sep | 4,060 | 41 | 18.5 | 42 |
| Oct | 2,590 | 53 | 14.3 | 184 |
| Nov | 1,590 | 63 | 8.4 | 352 |
| Dec | 1,220 | 67 | 4.8 | 430 |
| Year | 3,670 | 37 | 13.3 | 2,092 |

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Tab. 5 – Thermal conductivity measurements on the ground's samples.

| Samples' | Thermal Condu | ictivity [W m ⁻¹ K ⁻¹] | D . |
|--------------|---------------|---|-------------|
| depth [m] | dry | water saturated | Device |
| 7.5 | 0.47±0.02 | 2.55±0.04 | ISOMET 2114 |
| 21 | 0.55±0.02 | 2.52 ± 0.05 | ISOMET 2114 |
| 27 | 0.45±0.03 | 2.31±0.07 | KD2 Pro |
| | | | |

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Tab. 6 – Thermal conductivity measurements on the grout's samples.

| Samplas | Thermal Cond | Device | |
|---------|-----------------|-----------------|-------------|
| Samples | dry | water saturated | Device |
| 1 | 0.77±0.03 | 0.93±0.01 | ISOMET 2114 |
| 2 | 0.69 ± 0.09 | 0.84 ± 0.04 | ISOMET 2114 |
| 3 | 0.67±0.01 | 0.83±0.01 | ISOMET 2114 |
| 4 | 0.64±0.01 | - | ISOMET 2114 |
| 5 | 0.73±0.01 | 0.62±0.12 | ISOMET 2114 |
| 6 | 0.40 ± 0.01 | 0.78 ± 0.00 | ISOMET 2114 |
| 7 | 0.31±0.08 | - | KD2 Pro |
| 8 | 0.27±0.05 | - | KD2 Pro |

893 894

Tab. 7 – Numerical model properties adopted in the OGS simulation.

| Undisturbed $T[^{\circ}C]$ | | 14.2 |
|----------------------------|----|------|
| Porosity | | 0.3 |
| | 33 | |

| Water content [%] | 50 |
|--|-------|
| Water density [kg m ⁻³] | 1,000 |
| Water specific heat capacity [J kg ⁻¹ K ⁻¹] | 4,190 |
| Water thermal conductivity[W m ⁻¹ K ⁻¹] | 0.6 |
| Air density [kg m ⁻³] | 1.2 |
| Air specific heat capacity [J kg ⁻¹ K ⁻¹] | 1,010 |
| Air thermal conductivity[W m ⁻¹ K ⁻¹] | 0.024 |
| Solid density [kg m ⁻³] | 2,700 |
| Solid specific heat capacity [J kg ⁻¹ K ⁻¹] | 800 |
| Solid thermal conductivity[W m ⁻¹ K ⁻¹] | 3.0 |
| Grout thermal conductivity [W m ⁻¹ K ⁻¹] | 0.45 |