

Direct Heat Utilization of Geothermal Resources Worldwide 2005

John W. Lund
Geo-Heat Center
Oregon Institute of Technology
3201 Campus Drive
Klamath Falls, OR 97601 USA
john.lund@oit.edu

SUMMARY

Direct utilization of geothermal energy consists of various forms for heating and cooling instead of converting the energy for electric power generation. The geothermal resources that can be utilized are in the lower temperature range that are more wide-spread than the higher temperature resources used for electricity generation. The major areas of direct utilization are: heating of swimming pools and for balneology; space heating and cooling including district heating; agriculture applications (greenhouse heating and crop drying); aquaculture applications; industrial processing; and geothermal heat pumps. Direct utilization projects are reported in 72 countries with an installed capacity of 28,268 MWt and annual energy use of 273,372 TJ (75,943 GWh) reported in 2005. The equivalent annual savings in fuel oil amounts to 170 million barrels (25.4 million tonnes) and 24 million tonnes in carbon emissions to the atmosphere. Recent trends are to combined geothermal heat and power projects in order to maximize the use of the resource and improve the economics of the project. With the recent increases in fossil fuel prices, it is estimated that direct utilizations will more than double in the next 10 years.

Key words: Geothermal, direct use, balneology, space heating, district heating, greenhouses, aquaculture, industrial processes, heat pumps

INTRODUCTION

Direct or non-electric utilization of geothermal energy refers to the immediate use of the heat energy rather than to its conversion to some other form such as electrical energy. The primary forms of direct use include swimming, bathing and balneology (therapeutic use), space heating and cooling including district heating, agriculture (mainly greenhouse heating, crop drying and some animal husbandry), aquaculture (mainly fish pond and raceway heating), industrial processes, and heat pumps (for both heating and cooling). In general, the geothermal fluid temperatures required for direct heat use are lower than those for economic electric power generation.

Most direct use applications use geothermal fluids in the low-to-moderate temperature range between 50° and 150°C, and in general, the reservoir can be exploited by conventional water well drilling equipment. Low-temperature systems are also more widespread than high-temperature systems (above 150°C); so, they are more likely to be located near potential users. In the U.S., for example, of the 1,350 known or identified geothermal systems, 5% are above 150°C, and 85% are below 90°C (Muffler, 1979). In fact, almost every country

in the world has some low-temperature systems; while, only a few have accessible high-temperature systems.

UTILIZATION

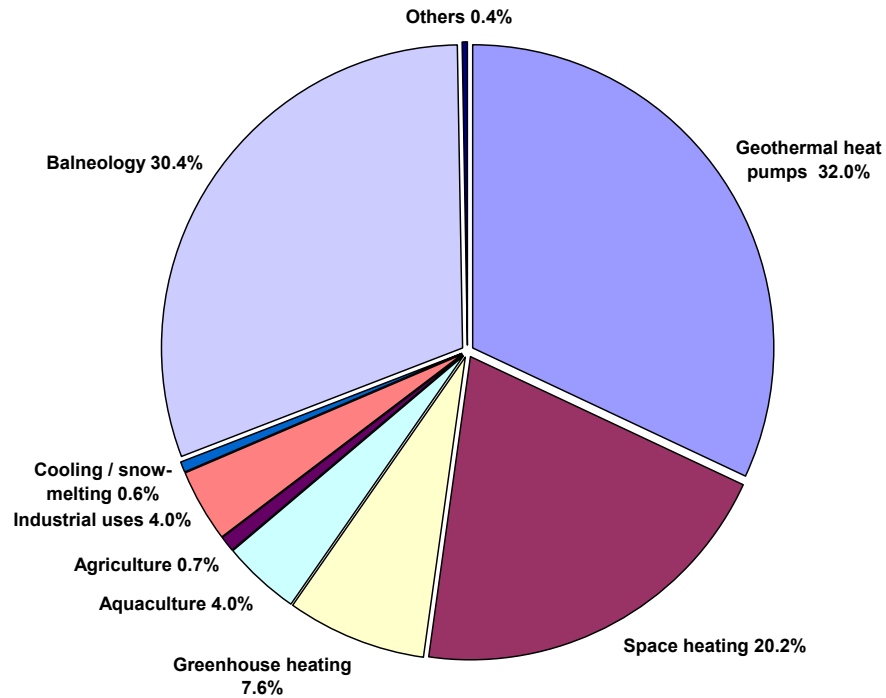
Traditionally, direct use of geothermal energy has been on small scale by individuals. More recent developments involve large-scale projects, such as district heating (Iceland and France), greenhouse complexes (Hungary and Russia), or major industrial use (New Zealand and the U.S.). Heat exchangers are also becoming more efficient and better adapted to geothermal projects, allowing use of lower temperature water and highly saline fluids. Heat pumps utilizing very low-temperature fluids have extended geothermal developments into traditionally non-geothermal countries such as France, Switzerland and Sweden, as well as areas of the mid-western and eastern U.S. Most equipment used in these projects are of standard, off-the-shelf design and need only slight modifications to handle geothermal fluids (Gudmundsson and Lund, 1985, and Geo-Heat Center Quarterly Bulletin, 19(1), 1997).

Worldwide (Lund *et al.*, 2005a), the installed capacity of direct geothermal utilization is 28,268 MWt and the energy use is 273,372 TJ/yr (75,943 GWh/yr) distributed among 72 countries; the leading countries are presented in Table 1. This amounts to saving an equivalent 25.4 million tonnes of fuel oil per year (TOE). The distribution of the energy use among the various types is listed in Table 2 and shown in Figure 1 for the worldwide installed capacity, and Figure 2 for the annual energy use. For comparison, the installed capacity in the U.S. (2005) is 7,817 MWt and the annual energy use is 31,239 TJ (8,678 GWh), saving 4.53 million TOE (Lund *et al.*, 2005b). Internationally, the largest uses are for geothermal heat pumps (32%), and swimming, bathing and balneology (30%); whereas, in the U.S., the largest use is for geothermal heat pumps (71%). In comparison, Iceland's largest geothermal energy use is 73% for district heating 17,900 TJ/yr (4,973 GWh/yr) (Ragnarsson, 2005). As can be seen from Tables 1 and 2, heat pumps have low load factors (USA), whereas industrial uses have high load factors (NZ) due to the more continuous use in industrial processing.

The Lindal diagram (Gudmundsson *et al.*, 1985), named for Baldur Lindal, the Icelandic engineer who first proposed it, indicates the temperature range suitable for various direct use activities (Fig. 3). Typically, the agricultural and aquacultural uses require the lowest temperatures, with values from 25° to 90°C. The amounts and types of chemicals such as arsenic and dissolved gases such as boron, are a major problem with plants and animals; thus, heat exchangers are often necessary. Space heating requires temperatures in the range of 50° to 100°C, with 40°C useful in some marginal cases and ground-source heat pumps extending the range down to 4°C. Cooling

Table 1. The leading direct-use countries.

Country	TJ/yr	GWh/yr	MWt	Capacity Factor	Principal Use
China	45,373	12,605	3,687	0.39	Bathing
Sweden	36,000	10,000	3,840	0.30	Heat Pumps
United States	31,239	8,678	7,817	0.13	Heat Pumps
Turkey	24,840	6,900	1,495	0.53	Bathing/Heating
Iceland	24,500	6,806	1,844	0.42	District Heating
Japan	10,301	2,862	822	0.40	Bathing
Italy	7,554	2,098	607	0.39	Bathing/Spas
Hungary	7,940	2,206	694	0.36	Bathing/Spas
New Zealand	7,086	1,968	308	0.73	Industrial
Brazil	6,622	1,840	360	0.58	Bathing/Spas

**Figure 1. Distribution of installed capacity (MWt) in the world.****Table 2. Summary of geothermal direct use by category (2005)**

Category	Capacity (MWt)	Utilization (TJ/yr)	Utilization (GWh/yr)	Capacity Factor
Geothermal heat pump	15,384	87,503	24,308	0.18
Space heating	4,366	55,256	15,350	0.40
Greenhouse heating	1,404	20,661	5,740	0.47
Aquaculture pond heating	616	10,976	3,050	0.57
Agricultural drying	157	2,013	559	0.41
Industrial uses	484	10,868	3,019	0.71
Bathing and swimming	5,401	83,018	23,062	0.49
Cooling/snow melting	371	2,032	565	0.18
Others	86	1,045	290	0.39
TOTAL	28,269	273,372	75,943	0.31

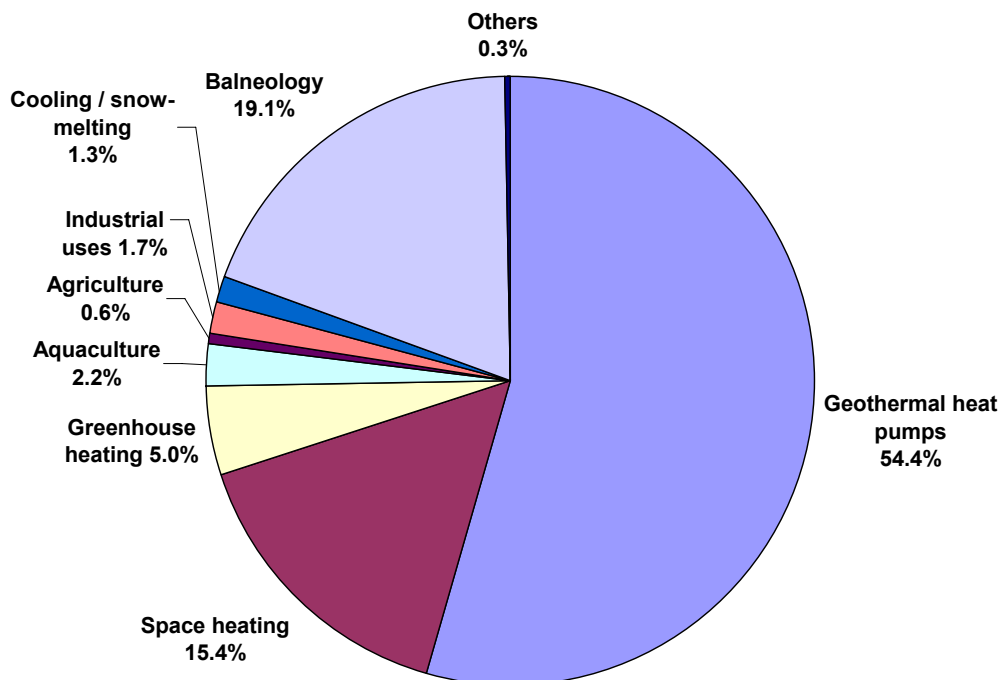


Figure 2. Distribution of annual energy use (TJ/yr) in the world.

and industrial processing normally require temperatures over 100°C. The leading user of geothermal energy, in terms of market penetration, is Iceland, where more than 87% of the population enjoys geothermal heat in their homes from 30 municipal district heating services, and 54% of the country's total energy use is supplied by direct heat and electrical energy derived from geothermal resources (Ragnarsson, 2005).

than 2,200 hot springs resorts in Japan draw 100 million guests every year, and the "return-to-nature" movement in the U.S. has revitalized many hot spring resorts.

The geothermal water at Xiaotangshan Sanitarium, northwest of Beijing, China, has been used for medical purposes for over 500 years. Today, the 50°C water is used to treat high blood pressure, rheumatism, skin disease, diseases of the nervous system, ulcers and generally for recuperation after surgery. In Rotorua, New Zealand at the center of the Taupo Volcanic Zone of North Island, the Queen Elizabeth Hospital was built during World War II for U.S. servicemen and later became the national hospital for the treatment of rheumatic disease. The hospital has 200 beds, and outpatient service, and a cerebral palsy unit. Both acidic and basic heated mud baths treat rheumatic diseases.

In Beppu on the southern island of Kyushu, Japan, the hot water and steam meet many needs: heating, bathing, cooking, industrial operations, agriculture research, physical therapy, recreational bathing, and even a small zoo (Taguchi *et al.*, 1996). The waters are promoted for "digestive system troubles, nervous troubles, and skin troubles." Many sick and crippled people come to Beppu for rehabilitation and physical therapy. There are also eight Jigokus ("burning hells") in town showing various geothermal phenomena, used as tourist attractions.

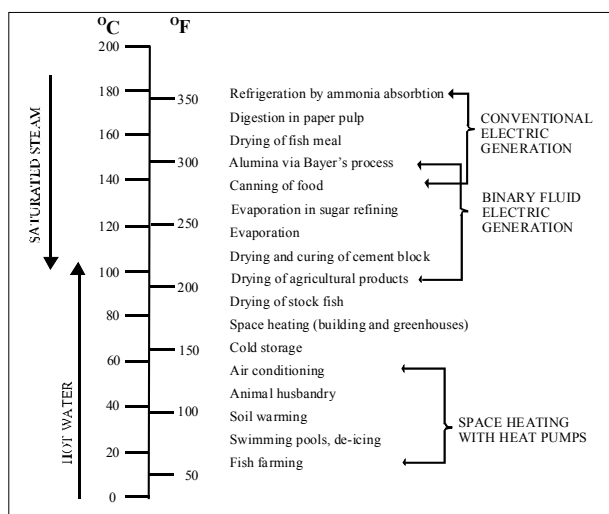


Figure 3. Lindal diagram.

Swimming, Bathing and Balneology

Romans, Chinese, Ottomans, Japanese and central Europeans have bathed in geothermal waters for centuries. Today, more

In the former Czechoslovakia, the use of thermal waters has been traced back before the occupation of the Romans and has had a recorded use of almost 1,000 years. Today, there are 60 spa resorts located mainly in Slovakia, visited by 460,000 patients usually for an average of three weeks each. These spas have old and well-established therapeutic traditions.

Depending on the chemical composition of the mineral waters and spring gas, availability of peat and sulfurous mud, and climatic conditions, each sanitarium is designated for the treatment of specific diseases. The therapeutic successes of these spas are based on centuries of healing tradition (balneology), systematically supplemented by the latest discoveries of modern medical science (Lund, 1990).

Bathing and therapeutic sites in the U.S. included: Saratoga Springs, New York; Warm Springs, Georgia; Hot Springs, Virginia; White Sulfur Springs, West Virginia; Hot Spring, Arkansas; Thermopolis, Wyoming; and Calistoga, California. The original use of these sites was by Indians, where they bathed and recuperated from battle. There are over 115 major geothermal spas in the U.S. with an annual energy use of 1,500 TJ (Lund, 1996b).

Figures for this use are difficult to collect and quantify. Almost every country has spas and resorts that have swimming pools (including balneology), but many allow the water to flow continuously, regardless of use. As a result, the actual usage and capacity figures may be high. Undeveloped natural hot springs have not been included in the data. A total of 60 countries have reported bathing and swimming pool use, amounting to a worldwide installed capacity of 5401 MWt and energy used of 83,018 TJ/yr (2,306 GWh/yr) based on data from country update papers from the World Geothermal Congress 2005 (WGC2005) in Turkey.

Space Conditioning

Space conditioning includes both heating and cooling. Space heating with geothermal energy has widespread application, especially on an individual basis. Buildings heated from individual wells are popular in Klamath Falls, Oregon; Reno, Nevada, USA, and Taupo and Rotorua, New Zealand. Absorption space cooling with geothermal energy has not been popular because of the high temperature requirements and low efficiency. However, newer units recently placed on the market report to use temperatures below 100°C efficiently. Geothermal heat pumps (groundwater and ground-coupled) have become popular in the U.S. and Europe, used for both heating and cooling.

An example of space heating and cooling with low-to-moderate temperature geothermal energy is the Oregon Institute of Technology in Klamath Falls, Oregon (Figure 4). Here, eleven buildings (approximately 62,000 sq. m of floor space) are heated with water from three wells at 89°C. Up to 62 L/s of fluid can be provided to the campus, with the average heat utilization rate over 0.53 MWt and the peak at 5.6 MWt. In addition, a 541 kW (154 tons) chiller requiring up to 38 L/s of geothermal fluid produces 23 L/s of chilled fluid at 7°C to meet the campus cooling base load (recently decommissioned) (Boyd, 1999).

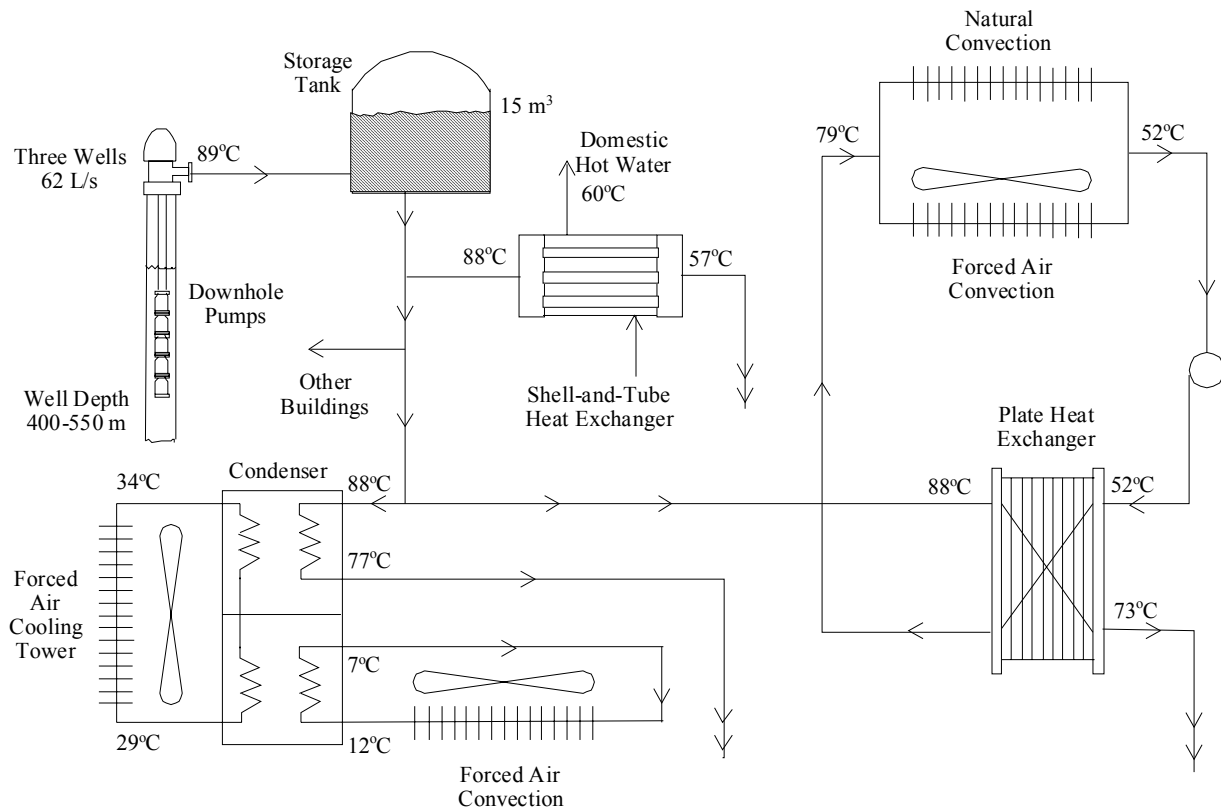


Figure 4. Oregon Institute of Technology heating and cooling system.

Space heating is reported in 23 countries with an installed capacity of 774 MWt and annual energy use of 11,976 TJ (3,327 GWh) based on data from country update reports presented at WGC2005 in Turkey.

District Heating

District heating originates from a central location, and supplies hot water or steam through a network of pipes to individual dwellings or blocks of buildings. The heat is used for space heating and cooling, domestic water heating and industrial process heat. A geothermal well field is the primary source of heat; however, depending on the temperature, the district may be a hybrid system, which would include fossil fuel and/or heat pump peaking.

Geothermal district heating systems are in operation in 17 countries, including large installations in Iceland, France, Poland, Hungary, Turkey, Japan, China, Romania and the U.S. The Warm Springs Avenue project in Boise, Idaho, dating back to 1892 and originally heating more than 400 homes, is the earliest formal project in the U.S (Rafferty, 1992). The Reykjavik, Iceland, district heating system (Figure 5) is probably the most famous (Frimannsson 1991 and Lund, 2005c). This system supplies heat for a population of around 190,000 people. The installed capacity of 830 MWt is designed to meet the heating load to about -10°C ; however, during colder periods, the increased load is met by large storage tanks and an oil-fired booster station (Ragnarsson, 2005).

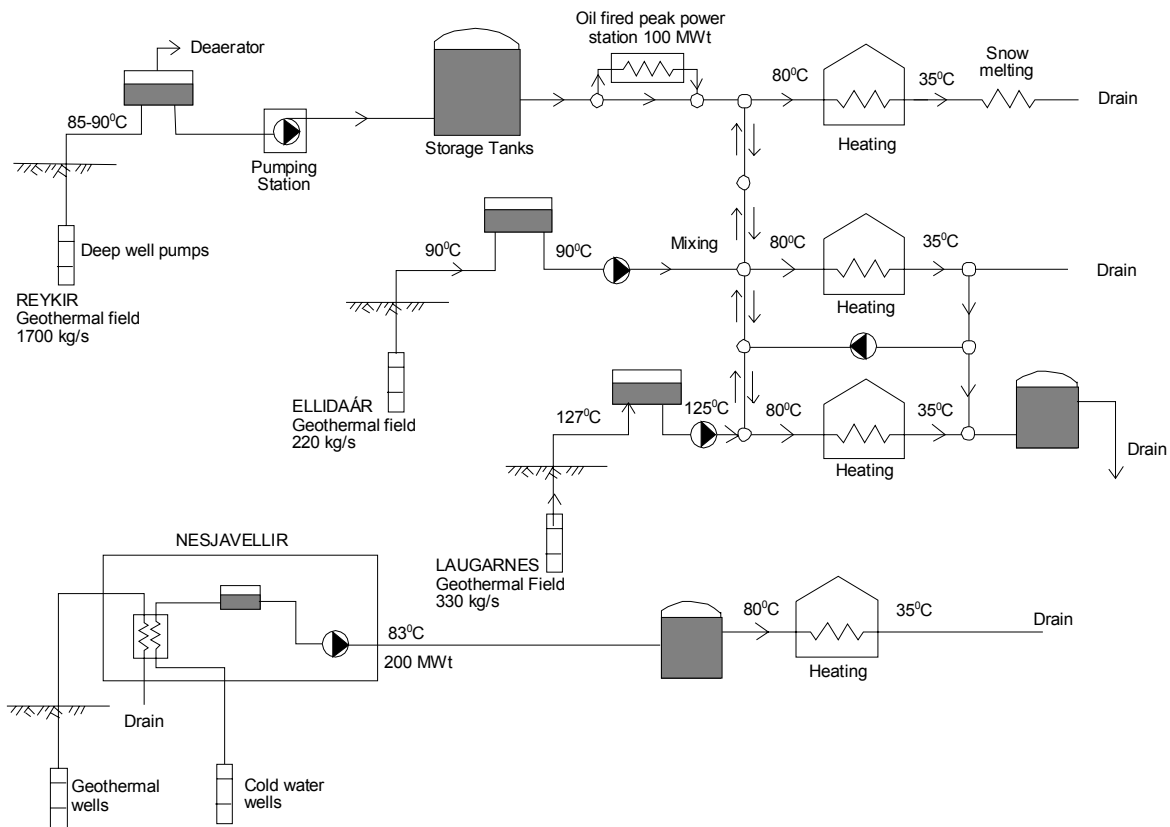


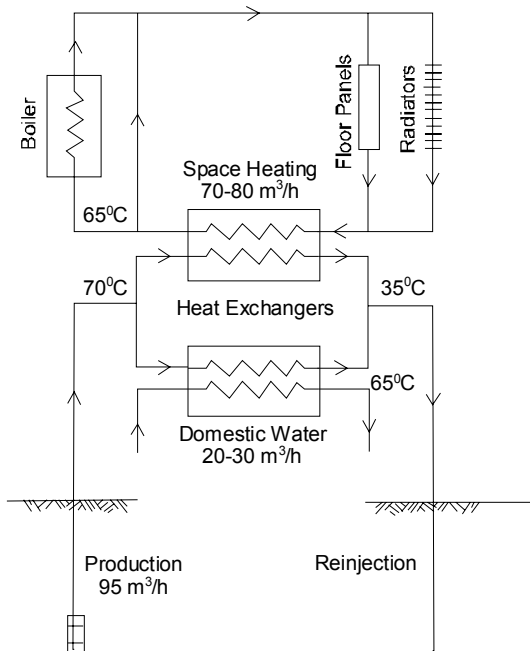
Figure 5. Reykjavik district heating system (prior to the Nesjavellir connection).

In France, production wells in sedimentary basins provide direct heat to more than 500,000 people in 170,000 dwellings from 34 projects with an installed capacity of 243 MWt and annual energy use of 4,030 TJ/yr (Laplaige *et al.*, 2005). These wells provide from 40 to 100°C water from depths of 1,500 to 2,000 m. In the Paris basin, a doublet system (one production and one injection well) provides 70°C water, with the peak load met by heat pumps and conventional fossil fuel burners (Figure 6).

The total installed capacity for the 17 countries is 3,591 MWt and the annual energy use is 43,281 TJ (12,857 GWh) as reported in WGC2005.

Agribusiness Applications

Agribusiness applications (agriculture and aquaculture) are particularly attractive because they require heating at the lower end of the temperature range where there is an abundance of geothermal resources. Use of waste heat or the cascading of geothermal energy also has excellent possibilities. A number of agribusiness applications can be considered: greenhouse heating, aquaculture and animal husbandry, soil warming and irrigation, mushroom culture, and bio-gas generation.



Numerous commercially marketable crops have been raised in geothermally heated greenhouses in Hungary, Russia, New

Figure 6. Melun l'Almont (Paris) doublet heating system.

Zealand, Japan, Iceland, China, Tunisia, and the U.S. These include vegetables, such as cucumbers and tomatoes, flowers (both potted and bedded), house plants, tree seedlings, and cacti. Using geothermal energy for heating reduces operating costs (which can account for up to 35% of the product cost) and allows operation in colder climates where commercial greenhouses would not normally be economical.

The use of geothermal energy for raising catfish, shrimp, tilapia, eels, and tropical fish has produced crops faster than by conventional solar heating. Using geothermal heat allows better control of pond temperatures, thus optimizing growth (Figure 7). Fish breeding has been successful in Japan, China and the U.S. A very successful prawn raising operation, producing 400 tonnes of Giant Malaysian Freshwater Prawns per year at US\$ 17 to 27/kg has been developed near the Wairakei geothermal field in New Zealand (Lund and Klein 1995). The most important factors to consider are the quality of the water and disease. If geothermal water is used directly, concentrations of dissolved heavy metals, fluorides, chlorides, arsenic, and boron must be considered and isolated.

Livestock raising facilities can encourage the growth of domestic animals by a controlled heating and cooling environment. An indoor facility can lower mortality rate of newborn, enhance growth rates, control diseases, increase litter size, make waste management and collection easier, and in most cases improved the quality of the product. Geothermal fluids can also be used for cleaning, sanitizing and drying of animal shelters and waste, as well as assisting in the production of bio-gas from the waste.

Agribusiness uses of geothermal energy are reported in 31 countries with an installed capacity of 2,020 MWt and annual energy use of 31,637 TJ (8,789 GWh) according to WGC2005 reports. Approximately 2/3 of the use is for greenhouse applications, with the remaining in aquaculture production.

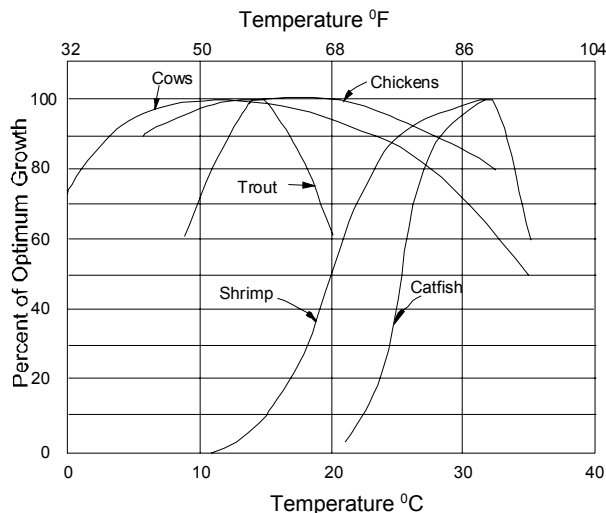


Figure 7. Effect of temperature on animal and fish growth.

Industrial Applications & Agricultural Drying

Although the Lindal diagram (Figure 3) shows many potential industrial and process applications of geothermal energy, the world's uses are relatively few. The oldest industrial use is at Larderello, Italy, where boric acid and other borate compounds have been extracted from geothermal brines since 1790. Today, the two largest industrial uses are the diatomaceous earth drying plant in northern Iceland and a pulp, paper and wood processing plant at Kawerau, New Zealand. Notable U.S. examples are two onion dehydration plants in northern Nevada (Lund 1995), and a sewage digestion facility in San Bernardino, California. Alcohol fuel production has been attempted in the U.S.; however, the economics were marginal and thus this industry has not been successful. With the recent increase in fossil fuel prices, there has been renewed interest in producing ethanol and bio-diesel using geothermal energy.

A new development in the use of geothermal fluids is the enhanced heap leaching of precious metals in Nevada by applying heat to the cyanide process (Trexler *et al.* 1990). Using geothermal energy increases the efficiency of the process and extends the production into the winter months.

Drying and dehydration are important moderate-temperature uses of geothermal energy. Various vegetable and fruit products are feasible with continuous belt conveyors or batch (truck) dryers with air temperatures from 40° to 100°C (Lund and Rangel 1995). Geothermally drying alfalfa, onions, garlic, pears, apples and seaweed are examples of this type of direct use.

An example of a small-scale food dehydrator is one located in northeastern Greece where four tonnes of tomatoes are dried annually, using 59°C geothermal water to dry 14 kg/hour on racks placed in a long tunnel drier. The tomatoes are then placed in olive oil for shipment and sale. The plant is only operated by three employees. At the other end of the spectrum is the large scale onion and garlic drying facilities located in western Nevada, USA employing 75 workers (Lund and Lienau, 1994). These continuous belt drier are fed 3,000 to 4,300 kg/hr of onions at a moisture content of around 85% and after 24 hours produce 500 to 700 kg/hr of dried onions at

moisture contents around 4%. These large belt driers are approximately 3.8 m wide and 60 m long. Figure 8 is a simplified sketch of a continuous belt dryer.

A total of 17 countries reported industrial and agricultural drying applications from WGC2005, with an installed capacity of 484 MWt and annual energy use of 10,868 TJ (3,019 GWh).

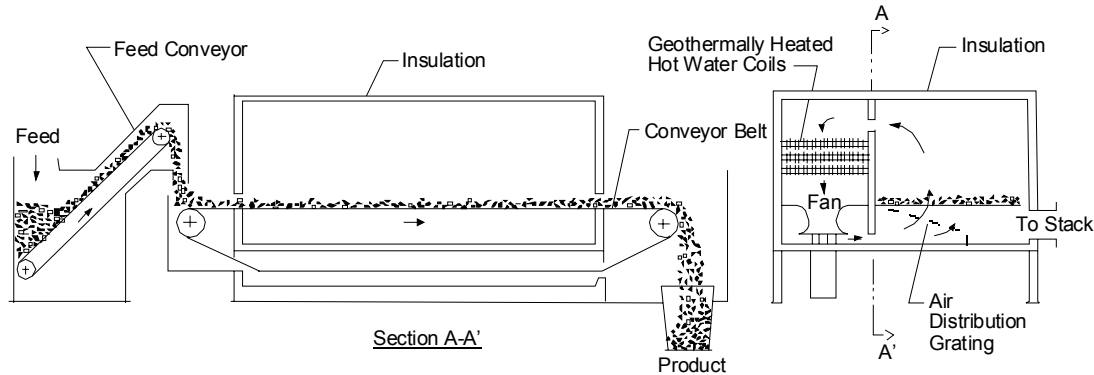


Figure 8. Continuous belt dehydration plant, schematic.

EQUIPMENT

Standard equipment is used in most direct-use projects, provided allowances are made for the nature of geothermal water and steam. Temperature is an important consideration, so is water quality. Corrosion and scaling caused by the sometimes unique chemistry of geothermal fluids, may lead to operating problems with equipment components exposed to flowing water and steam. In many instances, fluid problems can be designed out of the system. One such example concerns dissolved oxygen, which is absent in most geothermal waters, except perhaps the lowest temperature waters. Care should be taken to prevent atmospheric oxygen from entering district heating waters; for example, by proper design of storage tanks. The isolation of geothermal water by installing a heat exchanger may also solve this and similar water quality derived problems. In this case, a clean secondary fluid is then circulated through the used side of the system as shown in Figure 9.

The primary components of most low-temperature direct-use systems are downhole and circulation pumps, transmission and distribution pipelines, peaking or back-up plants, and various forms of heat extraction equipment (Figure 9). Fluid disposal is either surface or subsurface (injection). A peaking system may be necessary to meet maximum load. This can be done by increasing the water temperature or by providing tank storage (such as done in most of the Icelandic district heating systems). Both options mean that fewer wells need to be drilled. When the geothermal water temperature is warm (below 50°C), heat pumps are often used. The equipment used in direct-use projects represents several units of

operations. The major units will now be described in the same order as seen by geothermal waters produced for district heating. Detailed discussion of equipment design and use can be found in Lund *et al.* (1998).

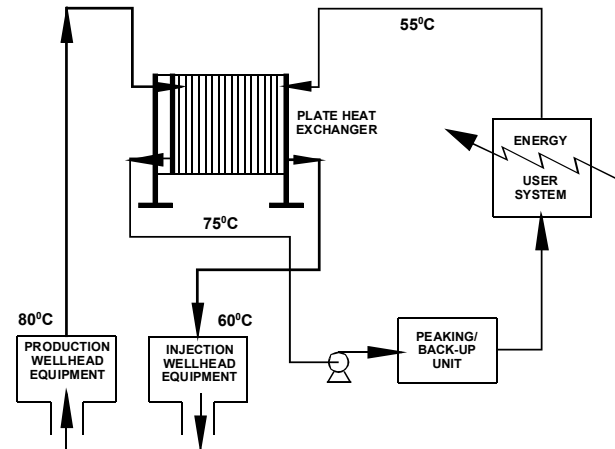


Figure 9. Geothermal direct-utilization system using a heat exchanger.

Downhole Pumps

Unless the well is artesian, downhole pumps are needed, especially in large-scale direct utilization system. Downhole pumps may be installed not only to lift fluid to the surface, but also to prevent the release of gas and the resultant scale

formation. The two most common types are: lineshaft pump systems and submersible pump systems.

The lineshaft pump system (Figure 10) consists of a multi-stage downhole centrifugal pump, a surface mounted motor and a long driveshaft assembly extending from the motor to the pump bowls. Most are enclosed, with the shaft rotating within a lubrication column which is centered in the production tubing. This assembly allows the bearings to be lubricated by oil, as hot water may not provide adequate lubrication. A variable-speed drive set just below the motor on the surface, can be used to regulate flow instead of just turning the pump on and off.

The electric submersible pump system (Figure 11) consists of a multi-stage downhole centrifugal pump, a downhole motor,

a seal section (also called a protector) between the pump and motor, and electric cable extending from the motor to the surface electricity supply.

Both types of downhole pumps have been used for many years for cold water pumping and more recently in geothermal wells (lineshafts have been used on the Oregon Institute of Technology campus in 89°C water for 55 years). If a lineshaft pump is used, special allowances must be made for the thermal expansion of various components and for oil lubrication of the bearings. The lineshaft pumps are preferred over the submersible pump in conventional geothermal applications for two main reasons: the lineshaft pump cost less, and it has a proven track record. However, for setting depths exceeding about 250 m, a submersible pump is required.

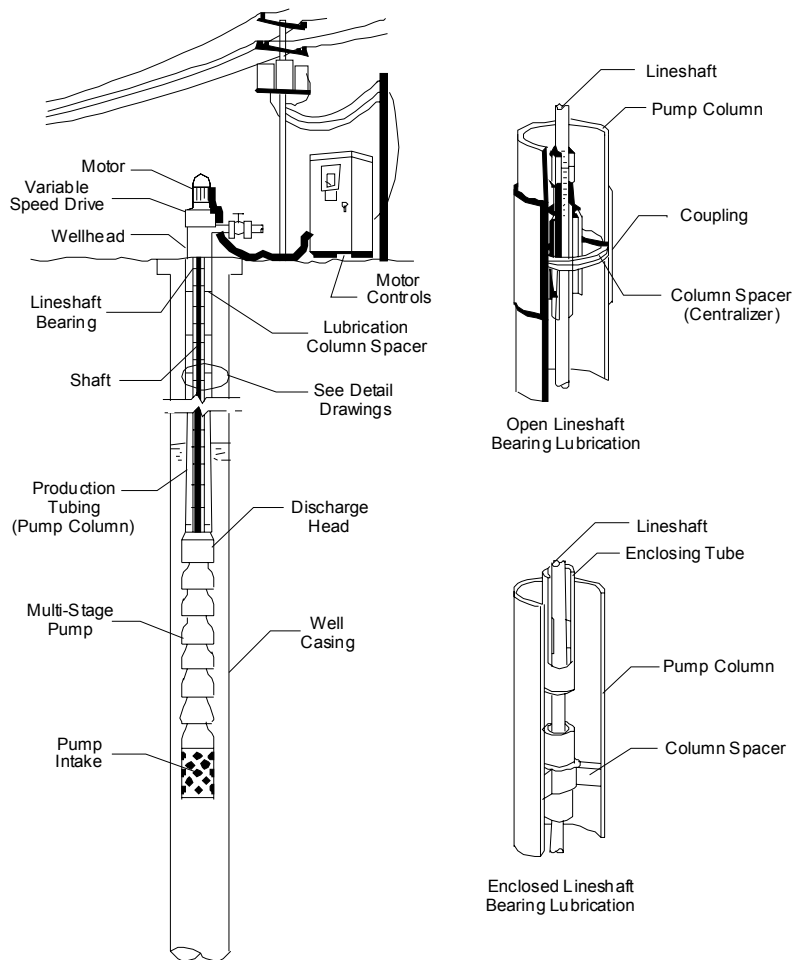


Figure 10. Lineshaft pump.

Piping

The fluid state in transmission lines of direct-use projects can be liquid water, steam vapor or a two-phase mixture. These pipelines carry fluids from the wellhead to either a site of application, or a steam-water separator. Thermal expansion of

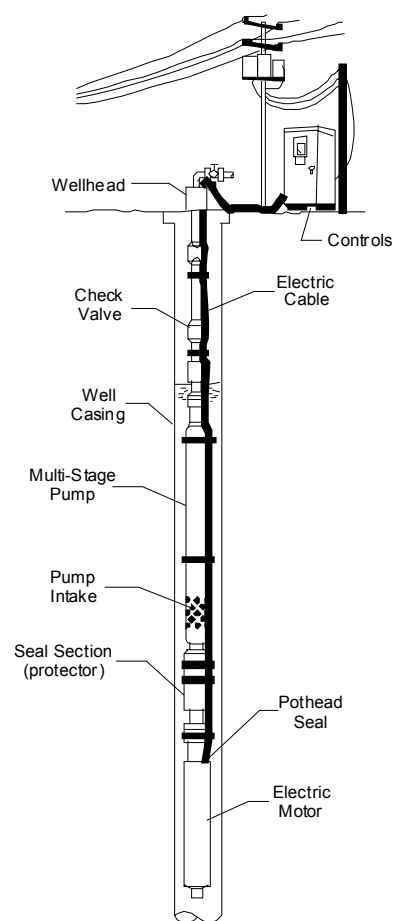


Figure 11. Submersible pump.

metallic pipelines heated rapidly from ambient to geothermal fluid temperatures (which could vary from 50 to 200°C) causes stress that must be accommodated by careful engineering design.

The cost of transmission lines and the distribution networks in direct-use projects is significant. This is especially true when

the geothermal resource is located at great distance from the main load center; however, transmission distances of up to 60 km have proven economical for hot water (i.e., the Akranes project in Iceland—Ragnarsson and Hrólfsson, 1998), where asbestos cement covered with earth has been successful (see Figure 13 later).

Carbon steel is now the most widely used material for geothermal transmission lines and distribution networks; especially if the fluid temperature is over 100°C. Other common types of piping material are fiberglass reinforced plastic (FRP) and asbestos cement (AC). The latter material, used widely in the past, cannot be used in many systems today due to environmental concerns; thus, it is no longer available in many locations. Polyvinyl chloride (PVC) piping is often used for the distribution network, and for uninsulated waste disposal lines where temperatures are well below 100°C. Cross-linked polyethylen pipe (PEX) have become popular in recent years as they can tolerate temperatures up to 100°C and still take pressures up to 550 kPa. However, PEX pipe is currently only available in sizes less than 5 cm in diameter. Conventional steel piping requires expansion provisions, either bellows arrangements or by loops. A typical piping installation would have fixed points and expansion points about every 100 m. In addition, the piping would have to be placed on rollers or slip plates between points. When hot water metallic pipelines are buried, they can be subjected to external corrosion from groundwater and electrolysis. They must be protected by coatings and wrappings. Concrete tunnels or trenches have been used to protect steel pipes in many geothermal district heating systems. Although expensive (generally over U.S.\$300 per meter of length), tunnels and trenches have the advantage of easing future expansion, providing access for maintenance and a corridor for other utilities such as domestic water, waste water, electrical cables, phone lines, etc.

Supply and distribution systems can consist of either a single-pipe or a two-pipe system. The single-pipe is a once-through system where the fluid is disposed of after use. This distribution system is generally preferred when the geothermal energy is abundant and the water is pure enough to be circulated through the distribution system. In a two-pipe system, the fluid is recirculated so the fluid and residual heat are conserved. A two-pipe system must be used when mixing of spent fluids is called for, and when the spent cold fluids need to be injected into the reservoir. Two-pipe distribution systems cost typically 20 to 30 percent more than single-piped systems.

The quantity of thermal insulation of transmission lines and distribution networks will depend on many factors. In addition to minimize the heat loss of the fluid, the insulation must be waterproof and water tight. Moisture can destroy the value of any thermal insulation, and cause rapid external corrosion. Aboveground and overhead pipeline installations can be considered in special cases. Considerable insulation is achieved by burying hot water pipelines. For example, burying bare steel pipe results in a reduction in heat loss of about one-third as compared to aboveground in still air. If the soil around the buried pipe can be kept dry, then the insulation value can be retained. Carbon steel piping can be insulated

with polyurethane foam, rock wool or fiberglass. Below ground, such pipes should be protected with polyvinyl chloride (PVC) jacket; aboveground, aluminium can be used. Generally, 2.5 to 10 cm of insulation is adequate. In two-pipe systems, the supply and return lines are usually insulated; whereas, in single-pipe systems, only the supply line is insulated.

At flowing conditions, the temperature loss in insulated pipelines is in the range of 0.1 to 1.0°C/km, and in uninsulated lines, the loss is 2 to 5°C/km (in the approximate range of 5 to 15 L/s flow for 15-cm diameter pipe) (Ryan 1981). It is less for larger diameter pipes. For example, less than 2°C loss is experienced in the new aboveground 29 km long and 80 and 90 cm diameter line (with 10 cm of rock wool insulation) from Nesjavellir to Reykjavik in Iceland. The flow rate is around 560 L/s and takes seven hours to cover the distance. Uninsulated pipe costs about half of insulated pipe, and thus, is used where temperature loss is not critical. Pipe material does not have a significant effect on heat loss; however, the flow rate does. At low flow rates (off peak), the heat loss is higher than as greater flows. Figure 12 shows fluid temperatures, as a function of distance, in a 45-cm diameter pipeline, insulated with 50 cm of urethane foam.

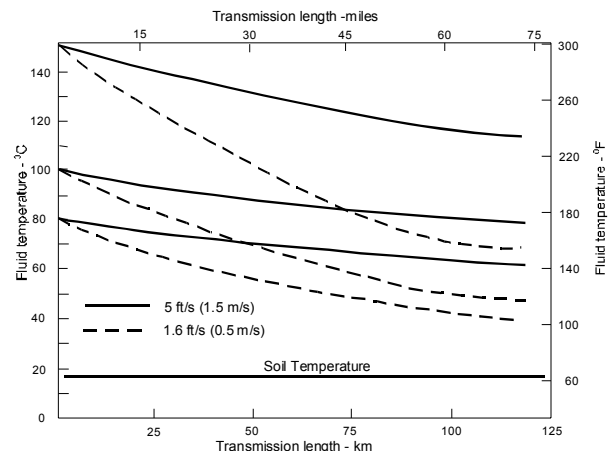


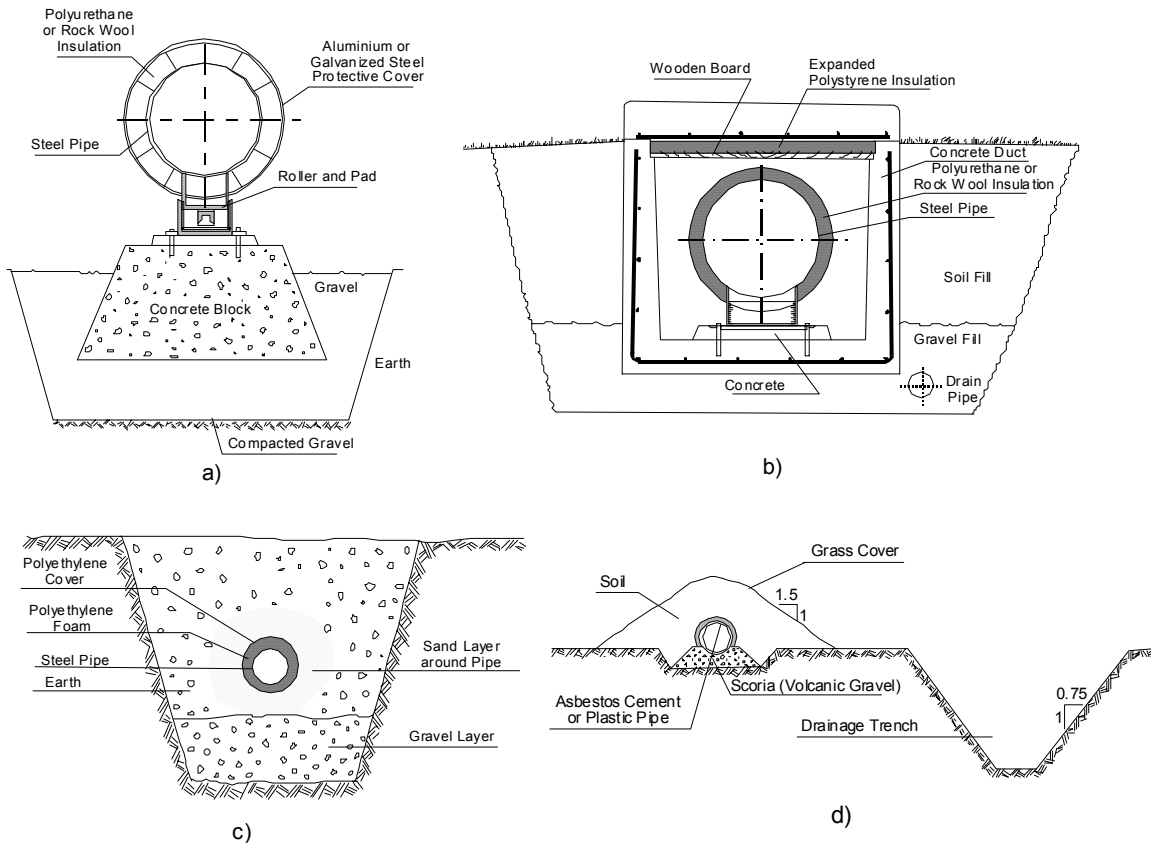
Figure 12. Temperature drop in hot water transmission line.

Several examples of aboveground and buried pipeline installations are shown in Figure 13.

Steel piping is shown in most case, but FRP or PVC can be used in low-temperature applications. Aboveground pipelines have been used extensively in Iceland, where excavation in lava rock is expensive and difficult; however, in the USA, below ground installations are more common to protect the line from vandalism and to eliminate traffic barriers. A detailed discussion of these various installations can be found in Gudmundsson and Lund (1985).

Heat Exchangers

The principal heat exchangers used in geothermal systems are the plate, shell-and-tube, and downhole types. The plate heat exchanger consists of a series of plates with gaskets held in a frame by clamping rods (Figure 14). The counter-current flow



and high turbulence achieved in plate heat exchangers, provide for efficient thermal exchange in a small volume. In **Figure 13. Examples of above and below ground pipelines: a) aboveground pipeline with sheet metal cover, b) steel pipe in concrete tunnels, c) steel pipe with polyurethane insulation and polyethylene cover and d) asbestos cement pipe with earth and grass cover.**

addition, they have the advantage when compared to shell-and-tube exchangers, of occupying less space, can easily be

expanded when addition load is added, and cost 40% less. The plates are usually made of stainless steel; although, titanium is used when the fluids are especially corrosive. Plate heat exchangers are commonly used in geothermal heating situations worldwide.

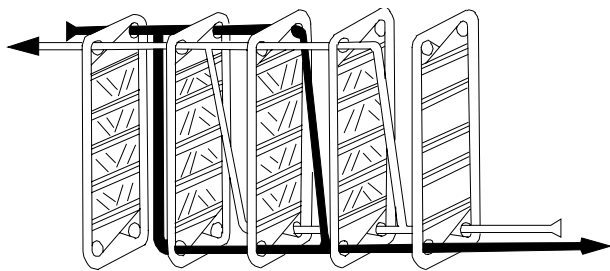


Figure 14. Plate heat exchanger.

Shell-and-tube heat exchangers may be used for geothermal applications, but are less popular due to problems with fouling, greater approach temperature (difference between incoming and outgoing fluid temperature), and the larger size.

Downhole heat exchangers eliminate the problem of disposal of geothermal fluid, since only heat is taken from the well. However, their use is limited to small heating loads such as

the heating of individual homes, a small apartment house or business. The exchanger consists of a system of pipes or tubes

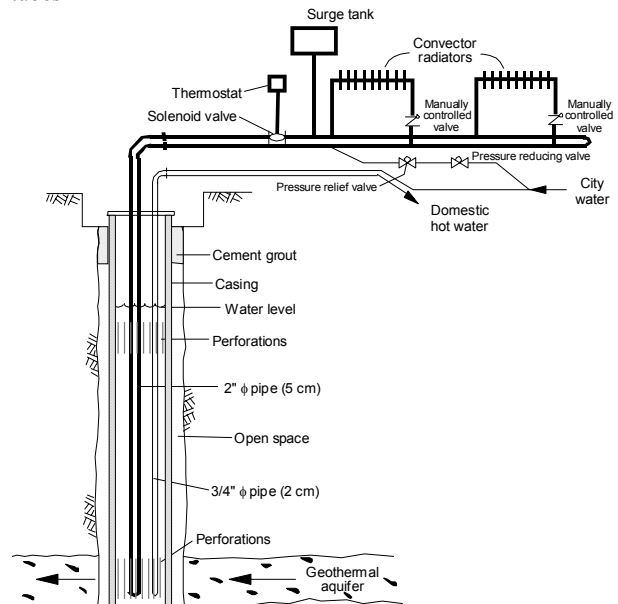


Figure 15. Downhole heat exchanger (typical of Klamath Falls, Oregon).

suspended in the well through which secondary water is pumped or allowed to circulate by natural convection (Figure 15). In order to obtain maximum output, the well must be designed to have an open annulus between the wellbore and casing, and perforations above and below the heat exchanger surface. Natural convection circulates the water down inside the casing, through the lower perforations, up in the annulus and back inside the casing through the upper perforations (Culver and Reistad 1978; GHC Quarterly Bulletin, Vol. 20, No. 3, 1999). The use of a separate pipe or promoter, has proven successful in older wells in New Zealand to increase the vertical circulation (Dunstall and Freeston 1990).

Heat Pumps

At the present time, ground-coupled and groundwater (often called ground-source or geothermal) heat pump systems are being installed in great numbers in the United States, Switzerland, Sweden, Austria and Germany (Kavanaugh and Rafferty 1997; Curtis, et al., 2005). Groundwater aquifers and soil temperatures in the range of 5 to 30°C are being used in these systems. Geothermal heat pumps (GHP) utilize groundwater in wells or by direct ground coupling with vertical heat exchangers (Figure 16). Just about every state in the USA, especially in the mid-western and eastern states are utilizing these systems in part subsidized by public and private utilities. It is estimated that over 1.3 million units (12 kW) are installed in 33 countries worldwide, with half in the United States. Annual growth rates are around 20%, the fastest of all the direct-use applications.

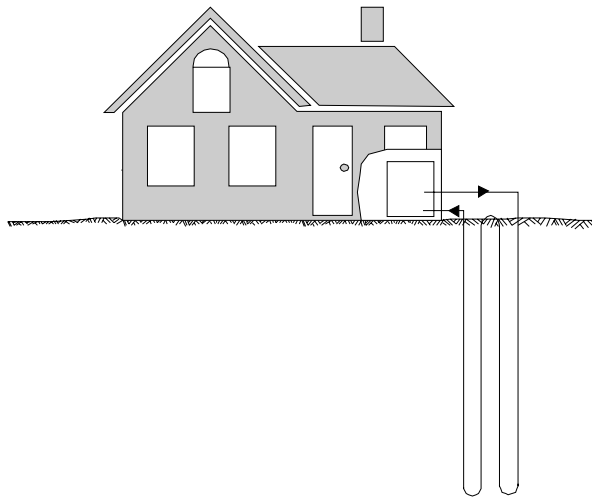


Figure 16. Typical ground-source heat pump installation.

Like refrigerators, heat pumps operate on the basic principle that fluid absorbs heat when it evaporates into a gas, and likewise gives off heat when it condenses back into a liquid. A geothermal heat pump system can be used for both heating and cooling. The types of heat pumps that are adaptable to geothermal energy are the water-to-air and the water-to-water. Heat pumps are available with heating capacities of less than 3 kW to over 1,500 kW.

Convectors

Heating of individual rooms and buildings is achieved by passing geothermal water (or a heated secondary fluid) through heat convectors (or emitters) located in each room. The method is similar to that used in conventional space heating systems. Three major types of heat convectors are used for space heating: 1) forced air, 2) natural air flow using hot water or finned tube radiators, and 3) radiant panels (Figure 17). All these can be adapted directly to geothermal energy or converted by retrofitting existing systems.

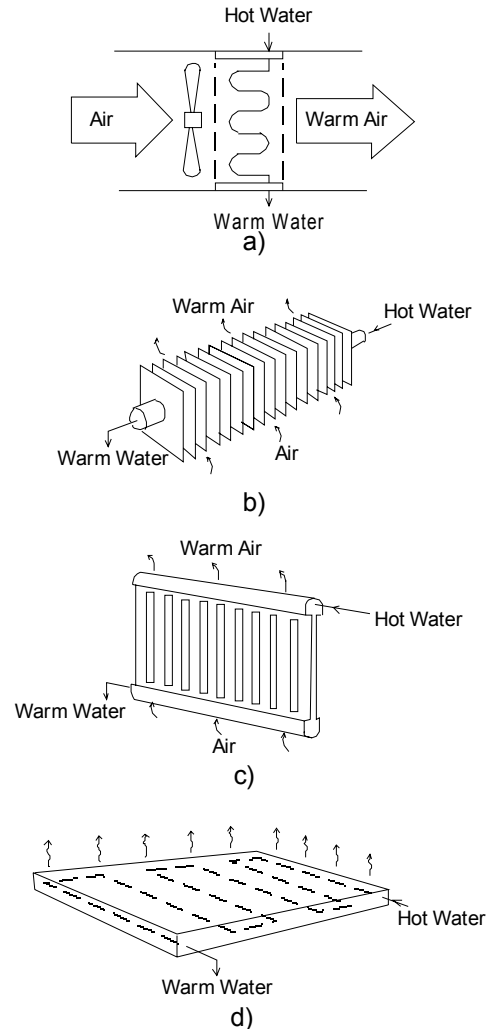


Figure 17. Convectors: a) forced air, b) material convection (finned tube), c) natural convection (radiator), and d) floor panel.

Refrigeration

Cooling can be accomplished from geothermal energy using lithium bromide and ammonia absorption refrigeration systems (Rafferty, 1983; Lund et al., 1998, chapter 13). The lithium bromide system is the most common because it uses water as the refrigerant. However, it is limited to cooling

above the freezing point of water. The major application of lithium bromide units is for the supply of chilled water for space and process cooling. They may be either one- or two-stage units. The two-stage units require higher temperatures (about 160°C); but, they also have high efficiency. The single-stage units can be driven with hot water at temperatures as low as 77°C (such as at Oregon Institute of Technology - see Figure 4). The lower the temperature of the geothermal water, the higher the flow rate required and the lower the efficiency. Generally, a condensing (cooling) tower is required, which will add to the cost and space requirements. For geothermally-driven refrigeration below the freezing point of water, the ammonia absorption system must be considered. However, these systems are normally applied in very large capacities and have seen limited use. For the lower temperature refrigeration, the driving temperature must be at or above about 120°C for a reasonable performance. Figure 18 illustrates how the geothermal absorption process works.

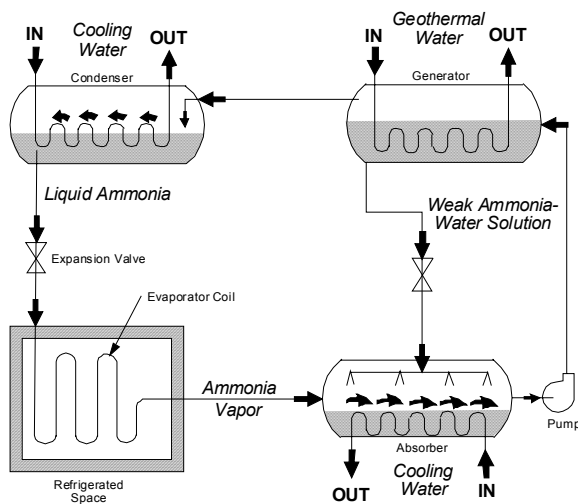


Figure 18. Geothermal absorption refrigeration cycle.

ECONOMIC CONSIDERATIONS

Geothermal projects require a relatively large initial capital investment, with small annual operating costs thereafter. Thus, a district heating project, including production wells,

pipelines, heat exchangers, and injection wells, may cost several million dollars. By contrast, the initial investment in a fossil fuel system includes only the cost of a central boiler and distribution lines. The annual operation and maintenance costs for the two systems are similar, except that the fossil fuel system may continue to pay for fuel at an every-increasing rate; while, the cost of the geothermal fuel is stable. The two systems, one with a high initial capital cost and the other with high annual costs, must be compared. Table 3 is an attempt to quantify the cost of various direct use types based on experiences in the United States.

Geothermal resources fill many needs: power generation, space heating, greenhouse heating, industrial processing, and bathing to name a few. Considered individually, however, some of the uses may not promise an attractive return on investment because of the high initial capital cost. Thus, we may have to consider using a geothermal fluid several times to maximize benefits. This multistage utilization, where lower and lower water temperatures are used in successive steps, is called cascading or waste heat utilization. A simple form of cascading employs waste heat from a power plant for direct use projects referred to as a combined heat and power application. (Figure 19) (See Geo-Heat Center Quarterly Bulletin, Vol. 26, No. 2, 2005).

Geothermal cascading has been proposed and successfully attempted on a limited scale throughout the world. In Rotorua, New Zealand, for example, after geothermal water and steam heat a home, the owner will often use the waste heat for a backyard swimming pool and steam cooker. At the Otake geothermal power plant in Japan, about 165 tonnes per hour of hot water flows to downstream communities for space heating, greenhouses, baths and cooking. In Sapporo, Hokkaido, Japan, the waste water from the pavement snow melting system is retained at 65°C and reused for bathing. An examples of combined heat and power installation using geothermal waters down to 100°C are installed in Germany and Austria. At Neustadt Glewe in northern Germany 98°C water from a 2,300 m-deep well at 1,700 L/s provides 11 MW (thermal) for a district heating network and 210 kW (electric) from a binary power plant meeting the electricity demands for 500 households (Lund, 2005d).

Table 3. Gives some average costs of direct use systems in the United States for 2005.

Application	Capital \$/kW	Cost/year \$/kWyr	O&M \$/kWyr	Total \$/kWyr	Capacity Factor	Unit Cost cents/kWh
Residential Space Heating*	800	71.1	7.1	78.2	0.29	3.08
Comm./Inst. Space Heating*	500	44.4	4.4	48.8	0.25	2.23
District Heating	650	57.7	5.8	63.5	0.30	2.42
Greenhouse Heating	250	22.2	2.2	24.4	0.25	1.11
Aquaculture Pond Heating	200	17.8	1.8	19.6	0.69	0.32
Geothermal Heat Pumps**	850	75.5	7.6	83.1	0.12	6.78

Note: Based on 30 year life at 8.0% interest and O&M at 10% of capital cost

The above costs includes a shallow well (<300 m) and no retrofit costs; however cost can vary by as much as 100% depending on the local geology, hydrology, building construction and infrastructure

* Assumes one production and one injection well for a single building

** Heat pump figures are considered only for the heating mode and the capacity factor is a nation-wide average

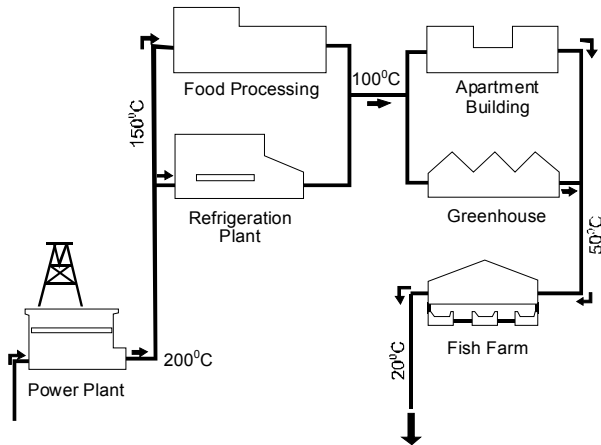


Figure 19. An example of cascading.

ENERGY SAVINGS

Geothermal, a domestic source of energy, could replace other forms of energy, especially fossil fuels. For many countries, geothermal energy could lead to a reduction in their dependence on imported fuels, and for all countries, it means the elimination of pollutants such as particulates and greenhouse gases. An attempt is made here to quantify the fossil fuel savings, using a 0.35 efficiency factor if the competing energy is used to generate electricity and 0.70 if it is used directly to produce heat, such as in a furnace.

Using the 273,372 TJ/year of energy consumed in direct geothermal applications in 2005 (Table 2), and estimating that a barrel of fuel oil contains 6.06×10^9 J, and that the fuel is used to produce replacement electricity, the savings would be 128.9 million barrels of oil or 19.2 million tonnes of oil annually. If the oil were used directly to produce energy by burning, then these savings would be halved. The actual savings are most likely somewhere in between these two values.

The carbon savings would be 17 million tonnes and the CO₂ emission savings would be 62 million tons based on using oil to produce electricity. If the savings in the cooling mode of geothermal heat pumps is considered, then this is equivalent to an additional annual savings of 41.2 million barrels (6.2 million tonnes) of fuel oil, or 7 million tonnes of carbon pollution from burning fuel oil. See Lund, *et al.*, 2005a for more details. The total of 170 million barrels corresponds to almost three days of worldwide oil consumption.

FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS

There appears to be a large potential for the development of low-to-moderate enthalpy geothermal direct use across the world which is not currently being exploited due to financial constraints and the low price of competing energy sources. Given the right environment, and as gas and oil supplies dwindle and with recent price increases, the use of

geothermal energy will provide a competitive, viable and economic alternative source of renewable energy.

Future development will most likely occur under the following conditions:

1. Collocated resource and uses (within 10 km apart),
2. Sites with high heat and cooling load density (>36 MWt/sq. km).
3. Food and grain dehydration (especially in tropical countries where spoilage is common),
4. Greenhouses in colder climates,
5. Aquaculture to optimize growth--even in warm climates, and
6. Ground-coupled and groundwater heat pump installation (both for heating and cooling).
7. Combined heat and power installation using low temperature resources in a binary power plant.

Direct use has grown at an almost 10% annual rate over the past ten years, and geothermal heat pumps alone has grown at a 20% annual rate over the same period Lund *et al.*, 2005a). The recent rise in the cost of oil and natural gas has made geothermal energy more competitive, and along with the environmental benefits associated with this renewable energy, development of this natural "heat from the earth" should accelerate in the future. At the 10% annual growth rate, the geothermal energy use should more than double over the next 10 years.

REFERENCES

- Boyd, T. L., 1999. The Oregon Institute of Technology Geothermal Heating System - Then and Now, *Geo-Heat Center Quarterly Bulletin*, Vol. 20, No. 1, Klamath Falls, OR, pp. 10-13.
- Culver, G. G. and G. M. Reistad, 1978. Evaluation and Design of Downhole Heat Exchangers for Direct Applications, Geo-Heat Center, Klamath Falls, OR.
- Curtis, R., Lund, J., Sanner, B., Rybach, L., and G. Hellström, 2005. Ground Source Heat Pumps - Geothermal Energy for Anyone, Anywhere: Current Worldwide Activity, *Proc. World Geothermal Congress, 2005*, (CD-ROM), International Geothermal Association.
- Dunstall, M. G. and D. M. Freeston, 1990. U-Tube Downhole Heat Exchanger Performance in a 4-in. Well, Rotorua, New Zealand, *Proceedings of the 12th New Zealand Geothermal Workshop*, Auckland, New Zealand, pp. 229-232.
- Frimannsson, H., 1991. Hitaveita Reykjavíkur After 60 Years of Operation - Development and Benefits, *Geo-Heat Center Quarterly Bulletin*, Vol. 13(4), Klamath Falls, OR, pp. 1-7.

- Geo-Heat Center, 1997. *Quarterly Bulletin*, 19(1), Geothermal Direct-Use Equipment: Klamath Falls, OR, 38 p. (<http://geoheat.oit.edu/bulletin/bull19-1/bull19-1.pdf>)
- Geo-Heat Center, 1999. Downhole Heat Exchangers, *Geo-Heat Center Quarterly Bulletin*, Vol. 20, No. 3 (September), Klamath Falls, OR, 28 p. (<http://geoheat.oit.edu/bulletin/bull20-3/bull20-3.pdf>)
- Geo-Heat Center, 2005. Combined Heat & Power Plant, *Quarterly Bulletin*, 26(3), Klamath Falls, OR, 36 p. (<http://geoheat.oit.edu/bulletin/bull26-3/bull26-3.pdf>)
- Gudmundsson, J. S.; Freeston, D. H. and P. J. Lienau, 1985. The Lindal Diagram, *Geothermal Resources Council Transaction*, 9(1), Davis, CA, pp. 15 -19.
- Gudmundsson, J. S. and J. W. Lund, 1985. Direct Uses of Earth Heat, *International Journal of Energy Research*, 9, John Wiley & Sons, NY, pp. 345-375.
- Kavanaugh, S. and K. Rafferty, 1997. Ground-Source Design of Geothermal Systems for Commercial and Institutional Buildings, ASHRAE, Atlanta, GA, 167 p.
- Laplaige, P.; Lemale, J.; Decottegnie, S.; Desplan, A.; Goyeneche, O.; and G. Delobelle, 2005. Geothermal Resources in France – Current Situation and Prospects, *Proceedings of the World Geothermal Congress 2005*, (CD-ROM), International Geothermal Association.
- Lund, J. W., 1990. Geothermal Spas in Czechoslovakia, *Geo-Heat Center Quarterly Bulletin*, 12(2); Klamath Falls, OR, pp. 20-24.
- Lund, J. W. and P. J. Lienau, 1994. Onion Dehydration, *Geo-Heat Center Quarterly Bulletin*, 15(4), Klamath Falls, OR, pp. 15-18.
- Lund, J. W., 1995. Onion Dehydration, *Geothermal Resources Council Transaction*, 19, Davis, CA, pp. 69-74.
- Lund, J. W. and R. Klein, 1995. Prawn Park - Taupo, New Zealand, *Geo-Heat Center Quarterly Bulletin*, 16(4), Klamath Falls, OR, pp. 27-29.
- Lund, J. W. and M. A. Rangel, 1995. Pilot Fruit Drier for the Los Azufres Geothermal Field, Mexico, *Proc. of the World Geothermal Congress 1995*, pp. 2335-2338.
- Lund, J. W., 1996b. Balneological Use of Thermal and Mineral Waters in the USA, *Geothermics*, 25(1), Elsevier, UK, pp. 103-148.
- Lund, J. W.; Lienau, P. J. and B. C. Lunis (editors), 1998. *Geothermal Direct-Use Engineering and Design Guidebook*, Geo-Heat Center, Klamath Falls, OR; 470 p.
- Lund, J. W., Bloomquist, R. G., Boyd, T. L., and J. Renner, 2005b. The United States of America Country Update, *Proceedings of the World Geothermal Congress 2005*, (CD-ROM), International Geothermal Association.
- Lund, J. W., Freeston, D. H. and T. L. Boyd, 2005a. Direct Application of Geothermal Energy: 2005 Worldwide Review, *Geothermics Vol. 34*, Elsevier, UK; pp. 691-727.
- Lund, J. W., 2005c. Hitaveita Reykjavíkur and the Nesjavellir Geothermal Co-Generation Power Plant, *Geo-Heat Center Quarterly Bulletin*, 26(2), Klamath Falls, OR, pp. 19-24.
- Lund, J.W. (compiled by), 2005d. Combined Heat and Power Plant, Neustadt-Glewe, Germany. Geo-Heat Center Quarterly Bulletin, 26(2), Klamath Falls, OR, pp. 31-34.
- Muffler, L. P. J., editor, 1979. Assessment of Geothermal Resources of the United States - 1978, *USGS Circular 790*, Arlington, VA.
- Rafferty, K., 1983. Absorption Refrigeration: Cooling with Hot Water, *Geo-Heat Center Quarterly Bulletin*, Vol. 8(1), Klamath Falls, OR, pp. 17-20.
- Rafferty, K., 1992. A Century of Service: The Boise Warm Springs Water District System, *Geo-Heat Center Quarterly Bulletin*, Vol. 14(2), Klamath Falls, OR, pp. 1-5.
- Ragnarsson, A., 2005. Iceland Country Update, *Proc. of the World Geothermal Congress 2005*, (CD-ROM), International Geothermal Association .
- Ragnarsson, A. and I. Hrolfsson, 1998. Akranes and Borgarfjörður District Heating System, *Geo-Heat Center Quarterly Bulletin*, Vol. 19(4), Klamath Falls, OR, pp. 10-13.
- Ryan, G. P., 1981. Equipment Used in Direct Heat Projects, *Geothermal Resources Council Transactions*, 5, Davis, CA, pp. 483-485.
- Taguchi, S.; Itoi, R. and Y. Ysa, 1996. Beppu Hot Springs, *Geo-Heat Center Quarterly Bulletin*, (17(2), Klamath Falls, OR, pp. 1-6.
- Trexler, D. T.; Flynn, T. and J. W. Hendrix, 1990. Heat Leaching, *Geo-Heat Center Quarterly Bulletin*, 12(4), Klamath Falls, OR, pp. 1-4.