



Water and energy

How energy is used in water cycle operations

How water is used in energy production



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Università Degli Studi di Palermo, 14 March 2014

Content

- **Setting the scene**
- **Energy in water operations**
- **Water in energy operations**
 - Hydraulic fracturing
 - Cooling thermal power plants
 - Hydropower
- **Out of the waterbox**



The global
energy challenge

depends on water!

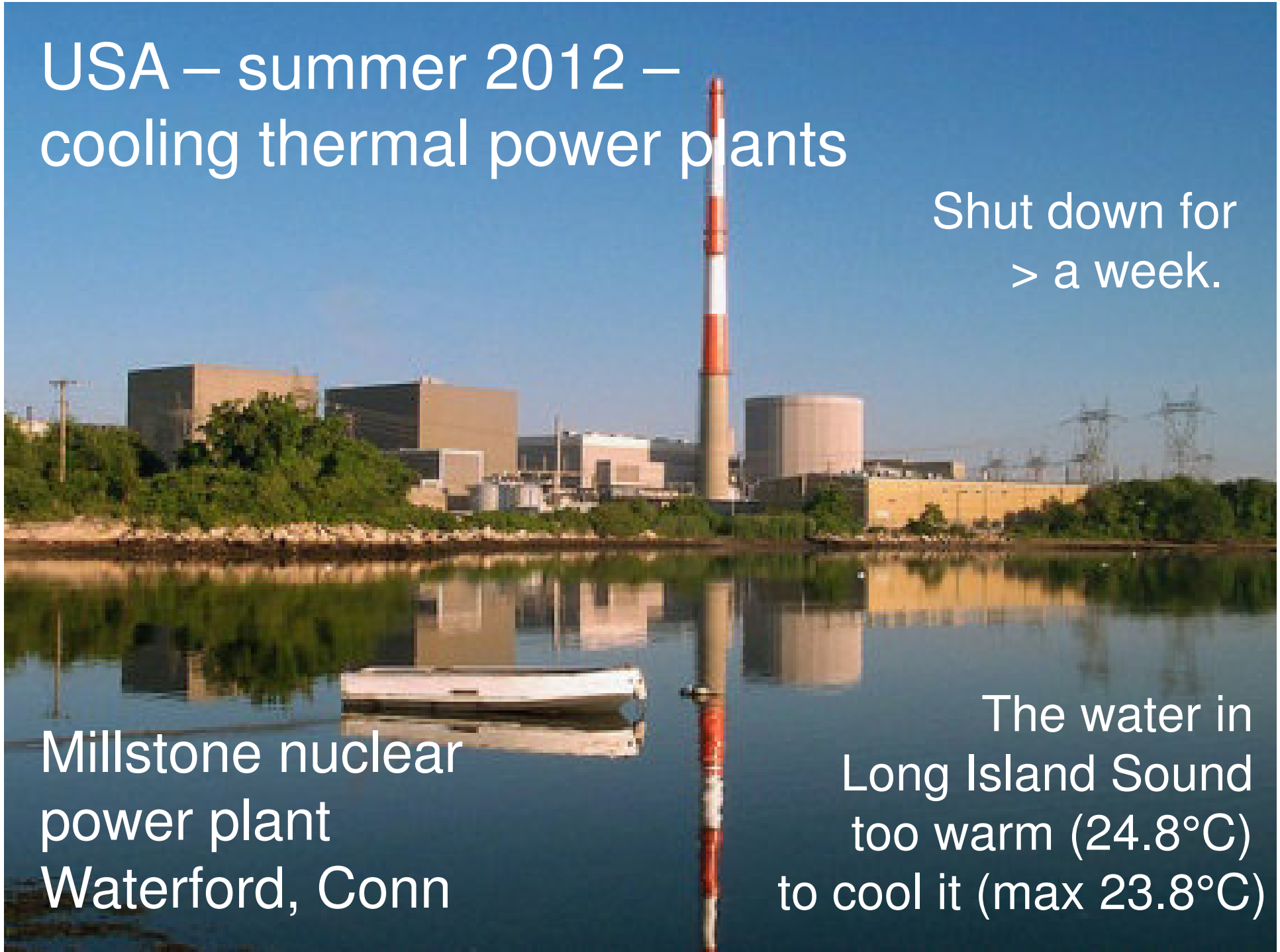


USA – summer 2012 – cooling thermal power plants

Shut down for
> a week.

Millstone nuclear
power plant
Waterford, Conn

The water in
Long Island Sound
too warm (24.8°C)
to cool it (max 23.8°C)



France 2003 – the hot summer

“Nuclear plants forced to cut back were partly responsible for the deaths of over 10,000 people”

Nuclear capacity reduced 7-15% during 5 weeks due to lack of cooling water

**Summer 2012 in USA –
worst drought since the 1950s -
80% of agricultural land was affected.**

Price of corn soared

Corn for ethanol or for food?



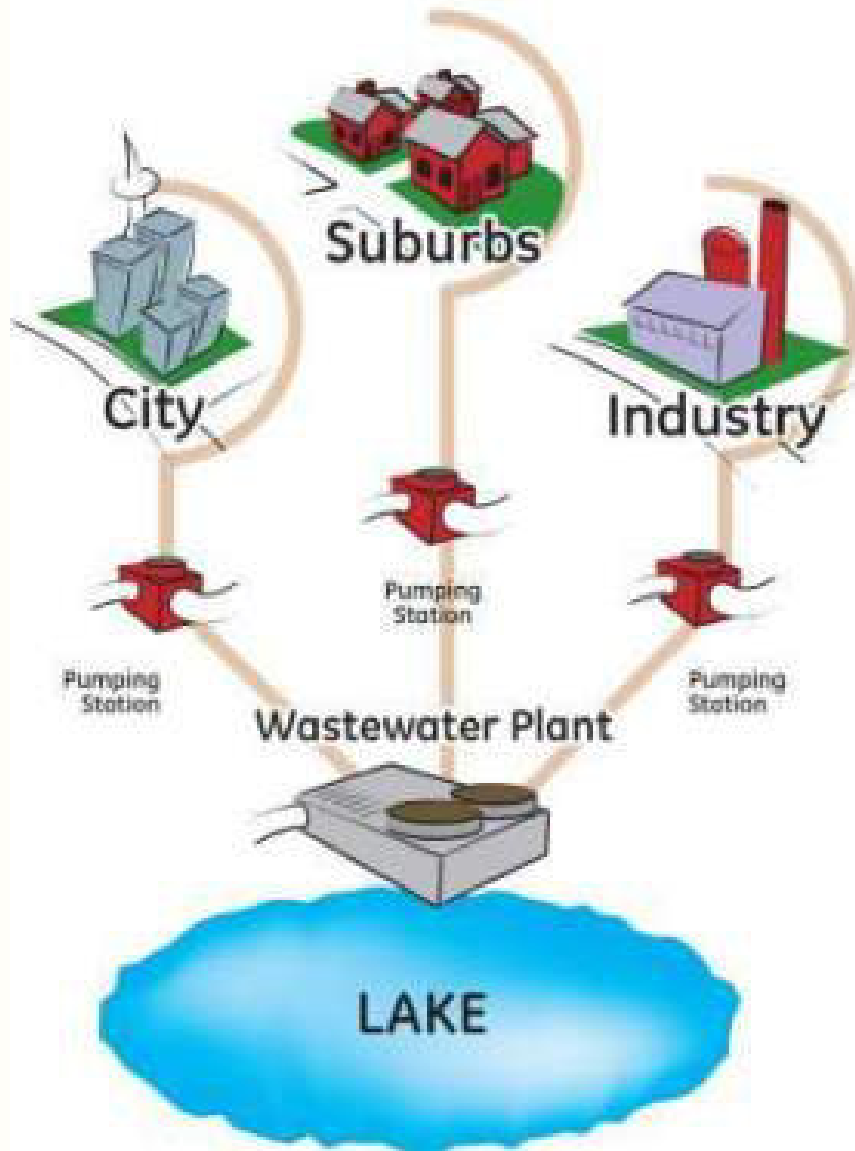
World Energy Outlook 2012

International Energy Agency (IEA)

- *The water need for **energy production** will be increasingly important*
- **15%** of the water use is related to energy production (2010)
- **55-60%** of the water use for energy is related to coal
- Water availability – a **limiting factor** for electric power and for biofuel, for example in **China, USA, Iraq, India and South Africa**



Energy for the urban water cycle



1-3% of a city's energy demand is used to produce, treat & transport water.

15-20% to **USE** the water

Source: General Electric



Energy - treating impaired water

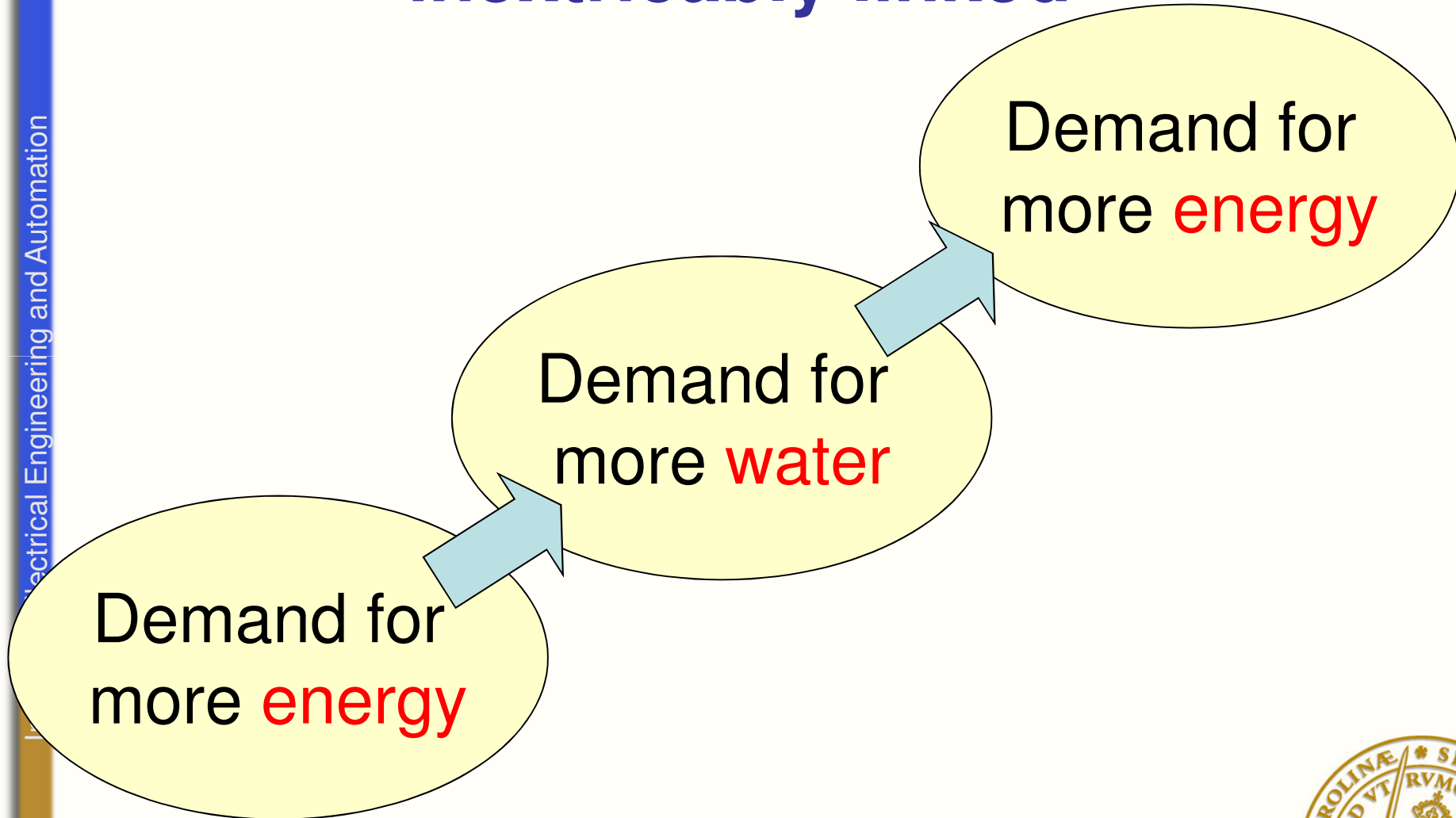


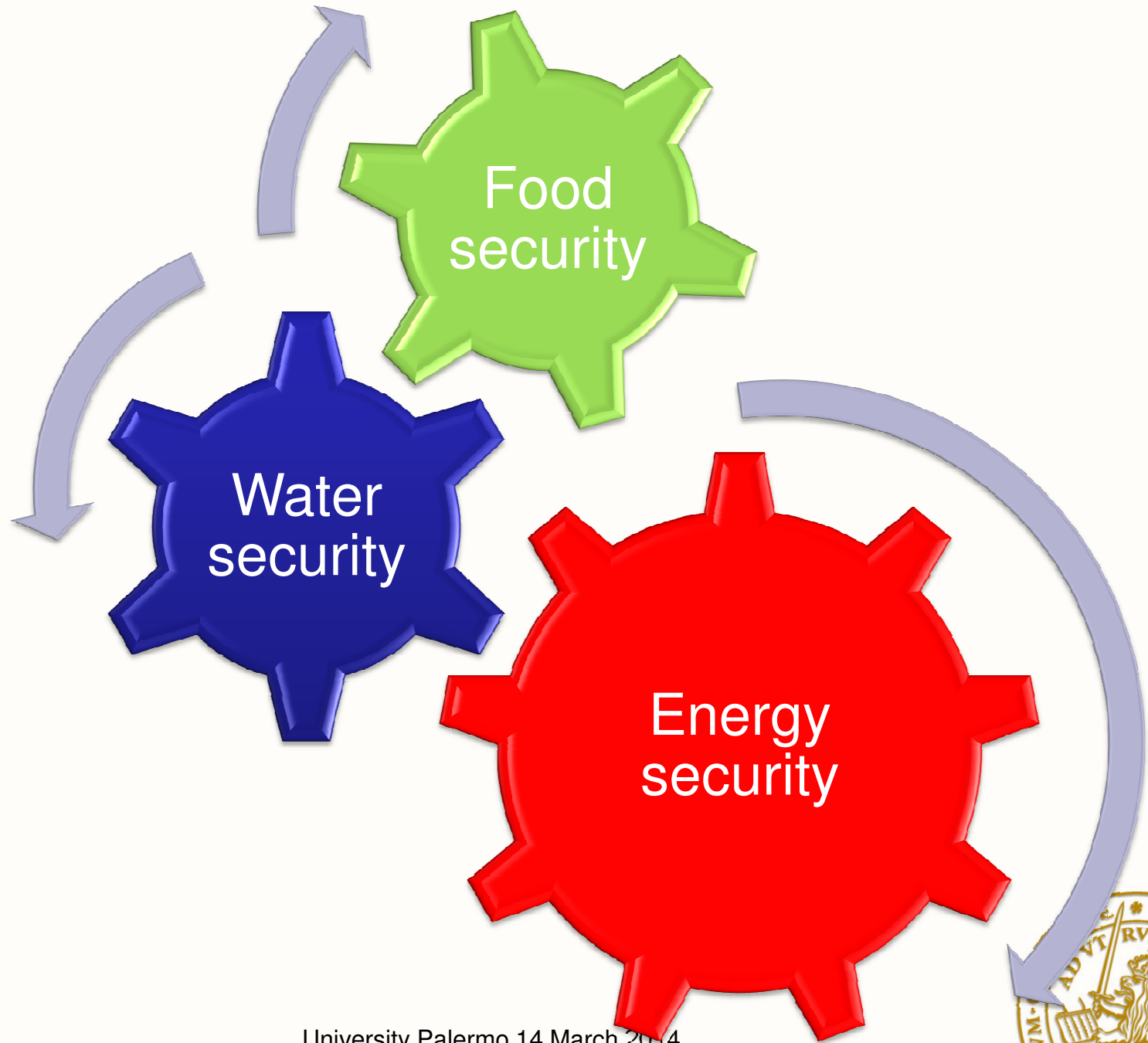
Requires more
advanced technology
and **more energy**

Reused,
brackish,
sea water



Water and Energy – inextricably linked





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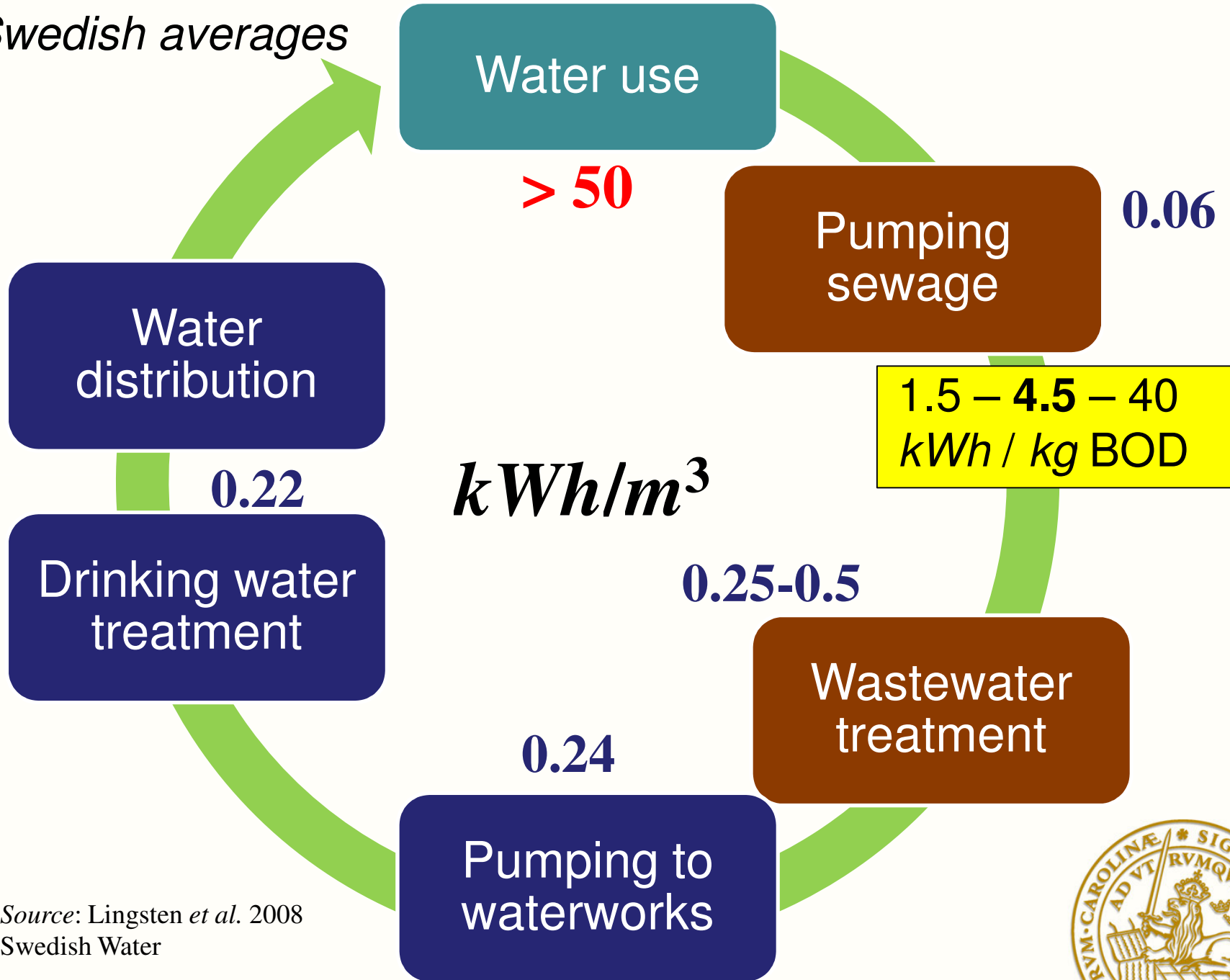


Energy cost to produce cold water

	<i>kWh / m³</i>
Surface water	0.25 - 3
Recycled water	1 - 6
Desalination	4 - 8
Bottled water	1000 - 4000



Swedish averages



Source: Lingsten et al. 2008
Swedish Water



Clean Water Requires Energy!

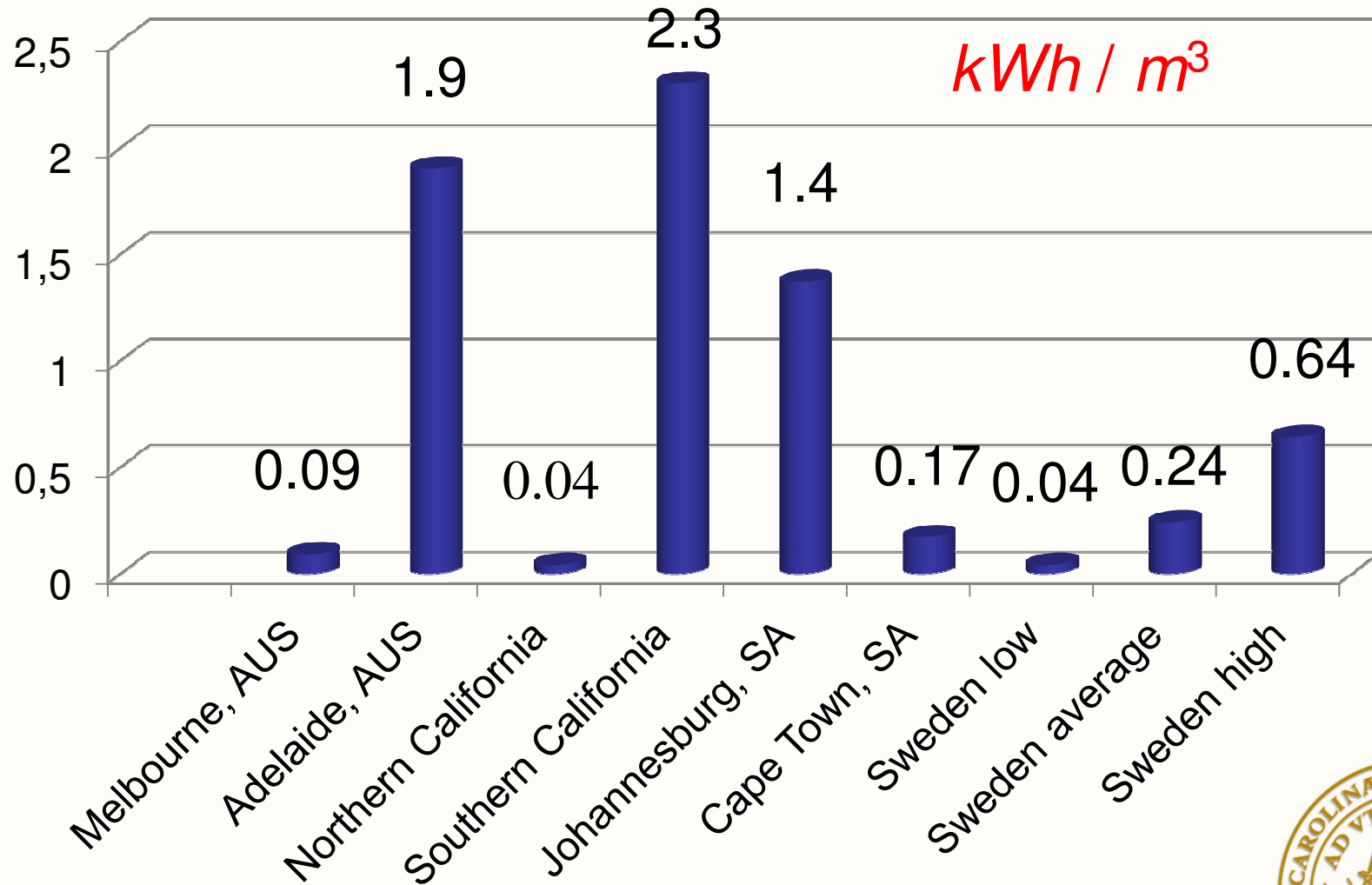
- **Pumping**
 - Having efficient pumps for **adequate** flows
 - Operating at **dynamically** changing flows and pressures
- **Aeration in wastewater treatment**
 - Adequate compressors
 - Controlling the air flow for **variable** loads



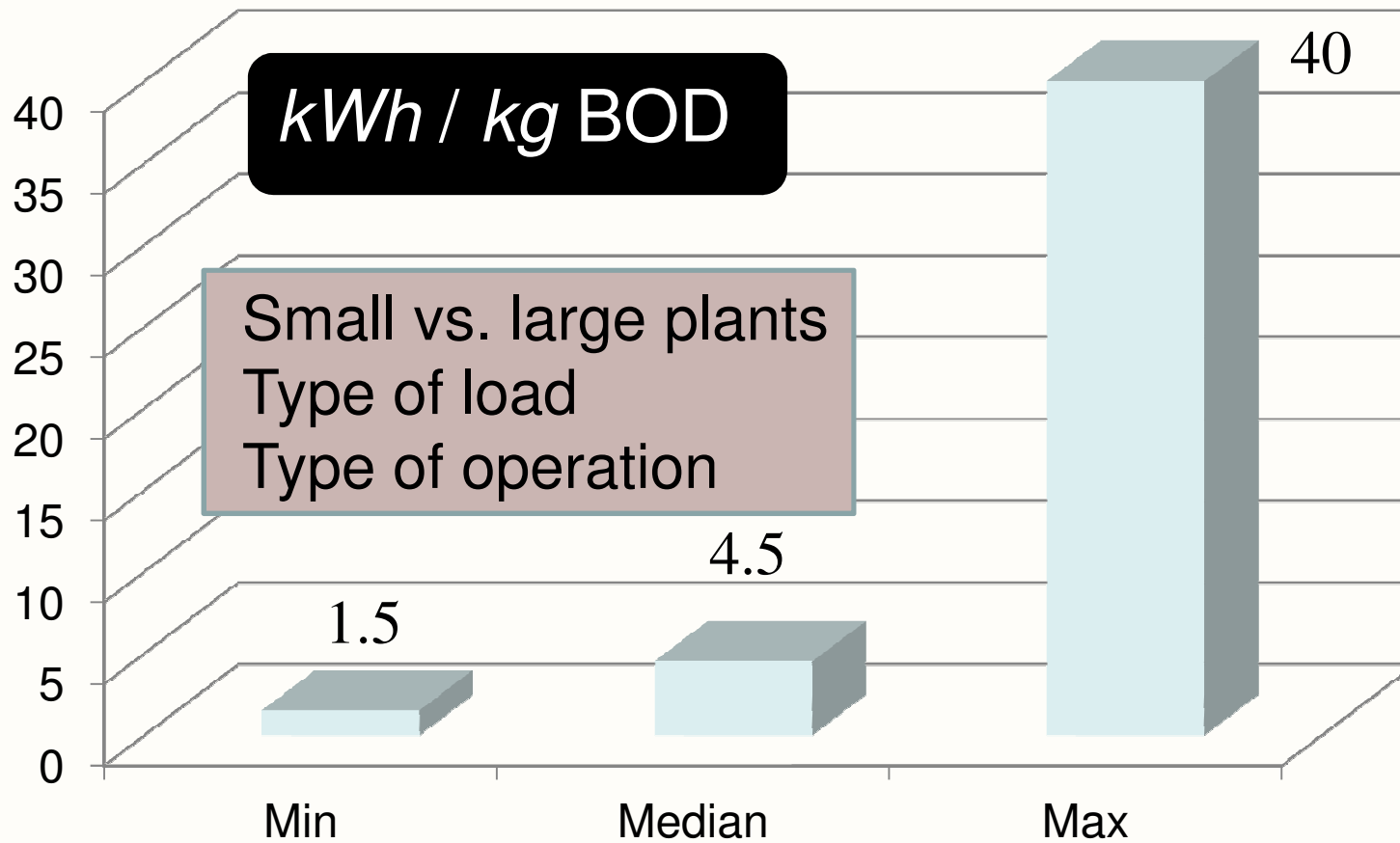
Increase efficiency!

Minimize air flow!

Pumping from source to waterworks



Wastewater treatment Sweden



Source: Lingsten et al. 2008
Swedish Water

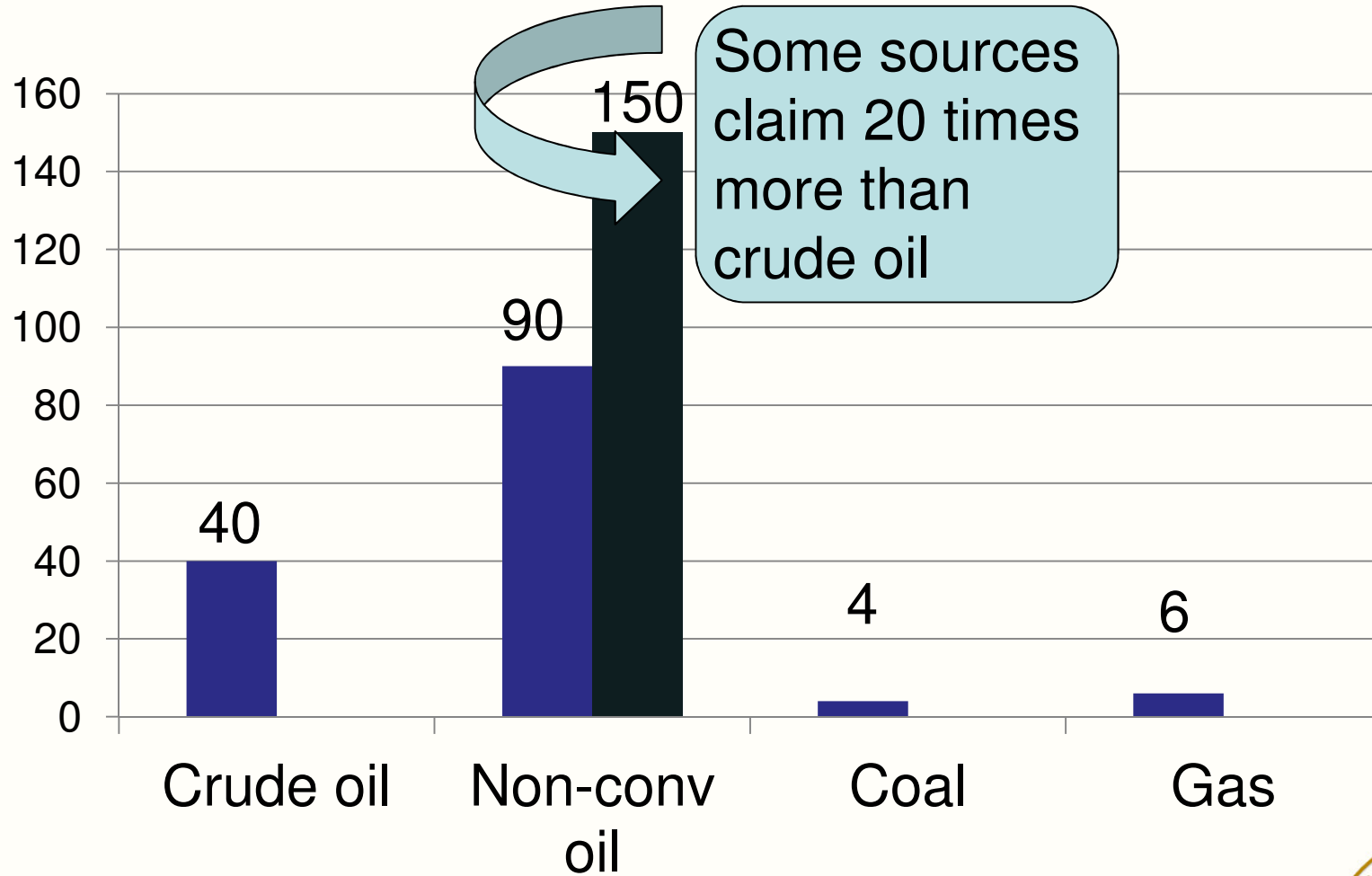


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Water consumption per *liter* or *kg*



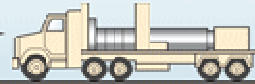
Source: World Energy Council, 2010



Roughly 200 tanker trucks deliver water for the fracturing process.



A pumper truck injects a mix of sand, water and chemicals into the well.



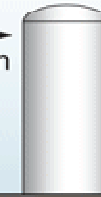
Natural gas flows out of well.

Recovered water is stored in open pits, then taken to a treatment plant.



Storage tanks

Natural gas is piped to market.



0 Feet

Water table

Well

1,000

2,000

3,000

4,000

5,000

6,000

7,000

Hydraulic fracturing

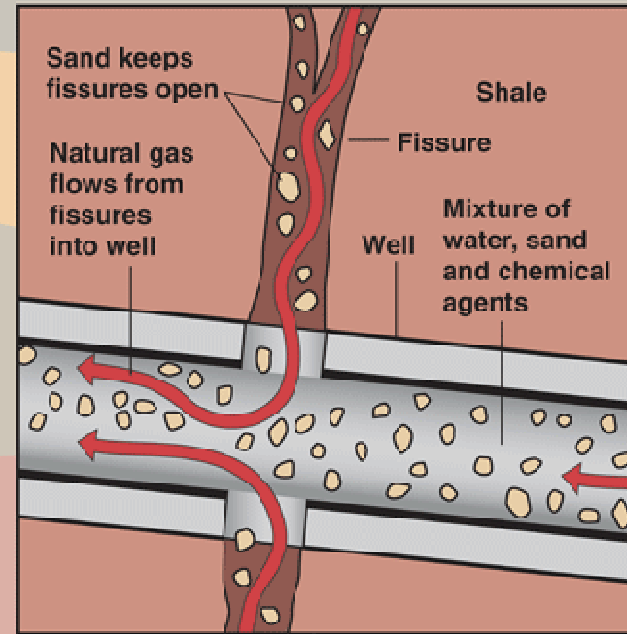
across into horizontally drilled wells as far as 10,000 feet below the surface. The pressurized mixture causes the rock layers in this case the shale to fracture.

≅ 5000 - 8000 m^3 of water

Down to 3000 m

Up to 100 Mpa

Up to 265 liters/s



About 750 chemicals listed as additives

The shale is fractured by the pressure inside the well.



Fracking facts

- **The fracking fluid**
 - **80%** water
 - **19%** proppant – natural quartz + man made ceramics
 - **0.5%** chemicals – additives (many toxic) – to inhibit bacterial growth, minimize friction, increase viscosity
- **Volumes (during a life time of a well)**
 - Up to **8000 m³** water
 - Up to **2000 tons** of proppant
 - **50+ m³ (or 300+ barrels)** of chemicals



Risks in fracking

Water contamination:

- accidental **spills** during truck transportation
- **leakages** through cracked or corroded cement casing of the wells
- **fugitive gas** through the rock fractures

Wastewater (“produced water”) - serious risks:

- **20-40%** will be returned back to the surface

Bringing

- chemicals, traces of oil-laced drilling mud,
- iron, chromium, salt,
- radioactive materials including Radium 226

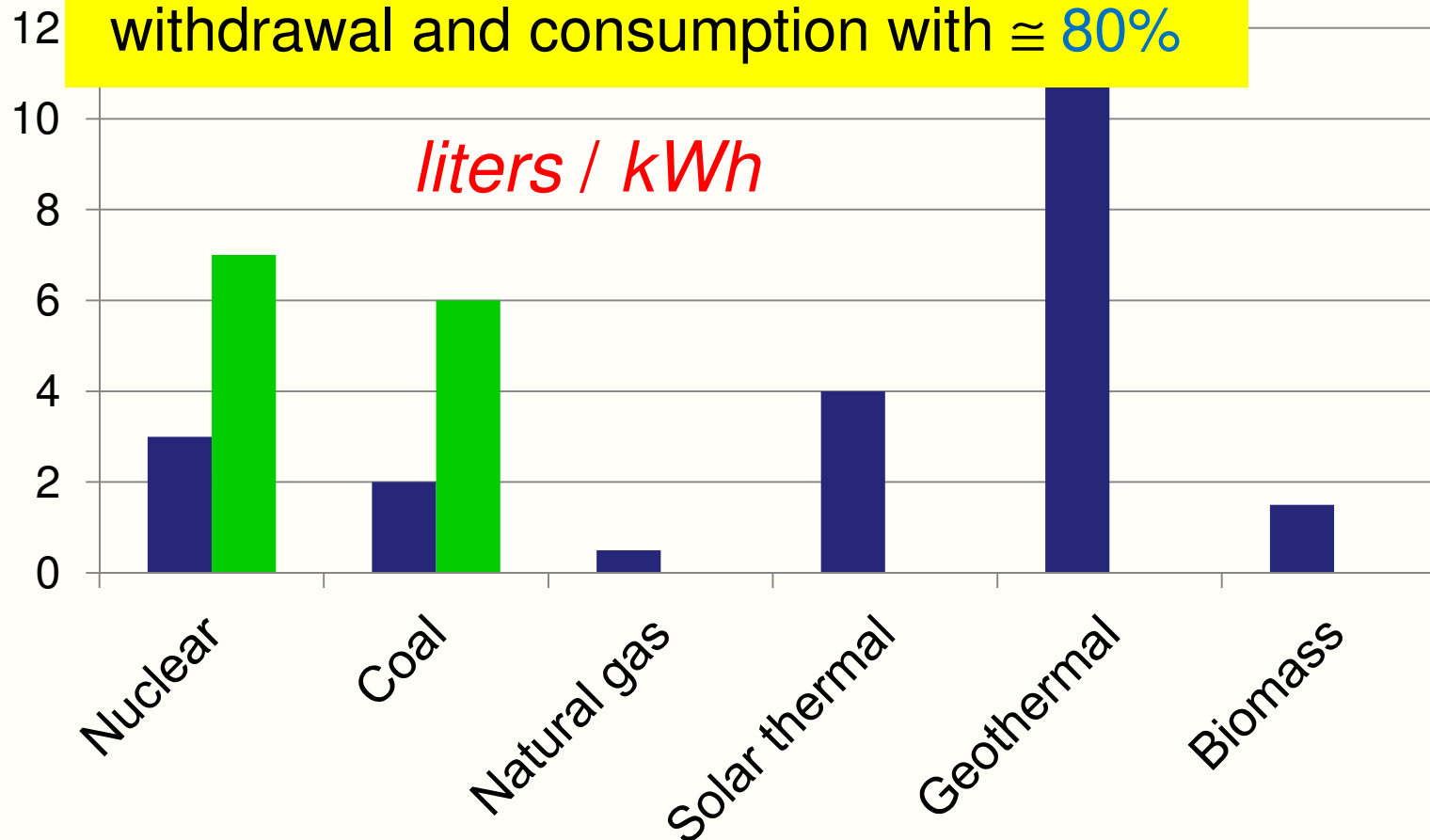


Cooling thermal power plants



Water consumption in electrical generation

Carbon sequestration for fossil energy generation will increase water withdrawal and consumption with $\cong 80\%$



Water withdrawal - once-through cooling

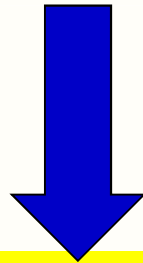
- **Nuclear power plants**
 - Typical temp. increase USA 16.5°C (30°F)
 - 1000 MWe requires **33** m³/s for $\Delta T=15^{\circ}\text{C}$
 - Rule of thumb for 1000 MWe: **25 – 43** m³/s
- **Coal fired plants**
 - Typical temp. increase USA 9.5°C (17°F)
 - 1000 MWe requires **50** m³/s for $\Delta T=10^{\circ}\text{C}$

*Source: Richard Bozek,
Edison Electric Initiative, 2011



Of the $33 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ $\sim 0.5 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$
are consumed (evaporated)

In Sweden we use
some 150 liter/day/person



The evaporated cooling water
could supply water for some
300 000 people



Cooling system tradeoffs

	Water withdrawal	Water consumption	Capital cost	Plant efficiency	Ecological impact
Once-through	80-200	0.8-1.2	good	good	Downstream temp
Evaporative	1.2-2.4	1.2-2.0	ok	good	ok
Dry (direct air)	good	good	3-4 times wet cool	Up to 25% loss	good





Hydropower

University Palermo 14 March 2014

Hydropower operation

No other energy source,
thermal or renewable,
can **start up** or **change** output as quickly as
hydro in response to load demands – or can
store energy on the same level as hydro to
meet upcoming demand

Potentially sustainable



Large dams – impacts to consider 1

- **Flooded area**
 - **Persons requiring resettlement**
 - Number of peoples displaced/MW
 - **Cultural property affected**
 - **Biomass flooded**
 - **Critical natural habitats affected**
 - **Floating aquatic **vegetation****



Large dams – impacts to consider 2

Water loss due to **evaporation**

- **Temperature**
- **Reservoir surface area**
 - Hectares per megawatt (**ha/MW**)
 - Power per area unit (**MW/km²**)



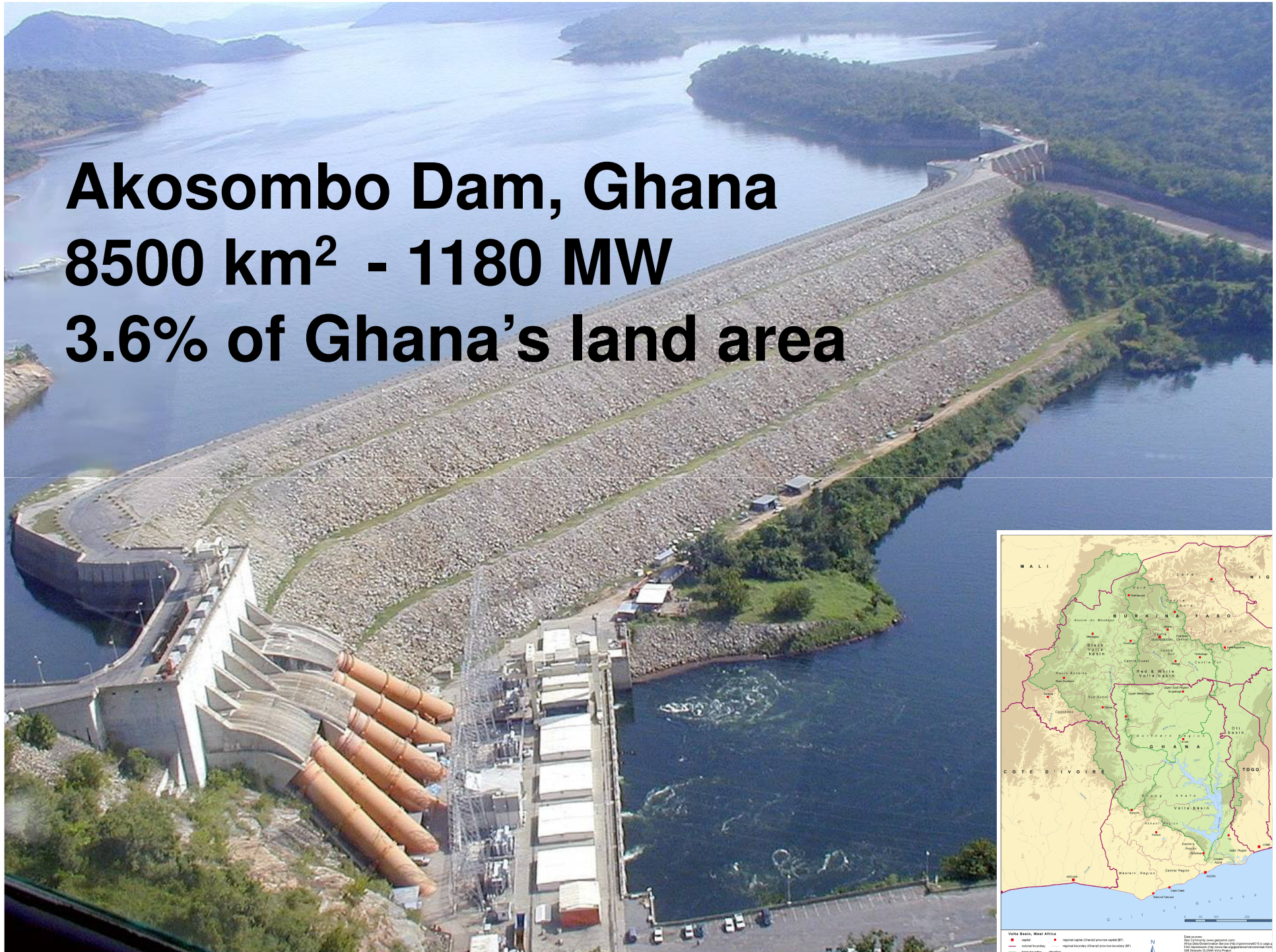
Evaporation

	ha/MW	Evaporation mm/year	Evaporation Gm ³ /year	liters/kWh
Akosombo Ghana	720	2185	19	3000
Sobradinho, Brazil	400	2841	12	1430
Bayano, Panama	233	2156	0.75	1370
Itezhi Tezhi, Zambia	62	2572	0.95	338
Robert Bourossa, Canada	36	586	1.7	30
San Carlos, Colombia	0.26	1726	0.01	1



Akosombo Dam, Ghana

8500 km² - 1180 MW
3.6% of Ghana's land area

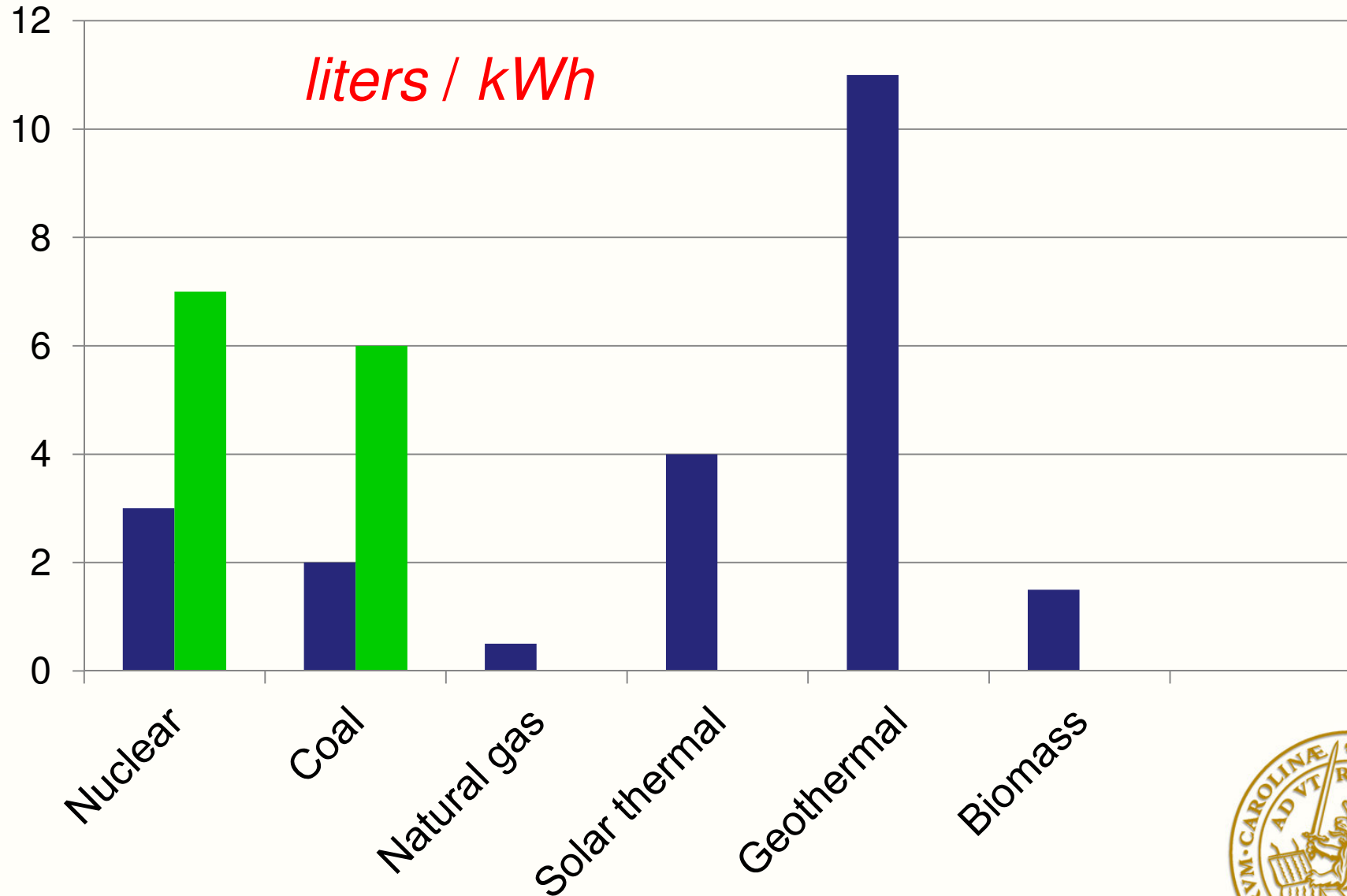


Range of evaporation

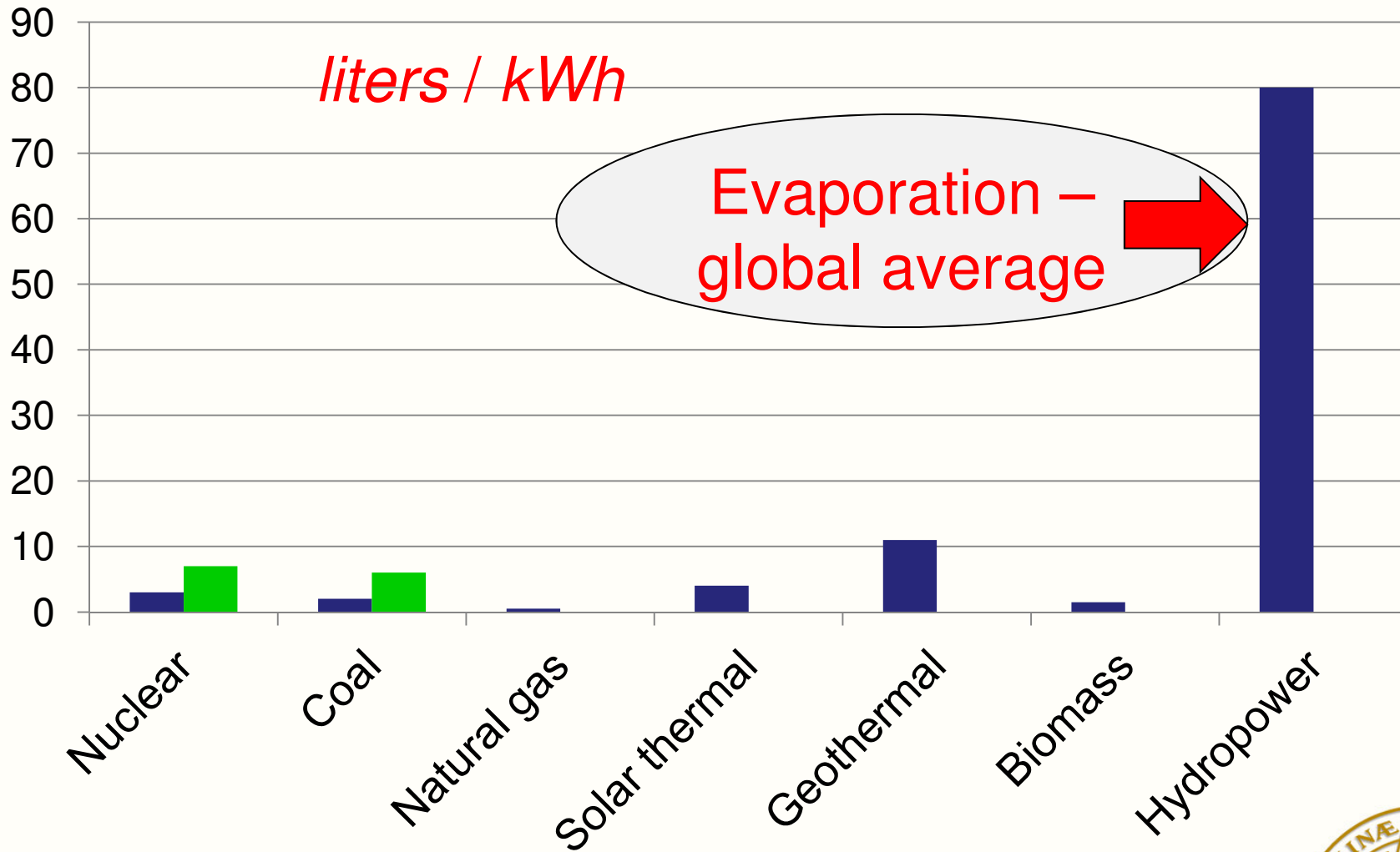
Locations	Range liters/kWh	Average liters/kWh	Reference
Selected 35 plants globally	1-3000	240	Mekonnen-Hoekstra 2012
New Zealand	3 – 115		Herath <i>et al.</i> 2011
California	0.04 – 200	5.4	Gleick (1993) DOE (2006)
USA, Switzerland, Tanzania	1 – 610		Pfister <i>et al.</i> 2011
USA average	---	17	Atlantic Council 2011
Estimated global average	---	80	Gerbens-Leenes 2009



Water use in electrical generation



Water use in electrical generation



Large dams – impacts to consider 3

- **Reservoir sedimentation**
 - Useful reservoir life - before "dead storage" is filled
 - Reduction in sedimentation reaching the mouth
 - A growing risk of landslides and reservoir induced seismicity



Large dams – impacts to consider 4

- **Water quality**
 - Temperature increase
 - Public health – water related **diseases**
 - Fish species diversity and endemism
 - **Greenhouse** gases
 - Deterioration of **water quality**



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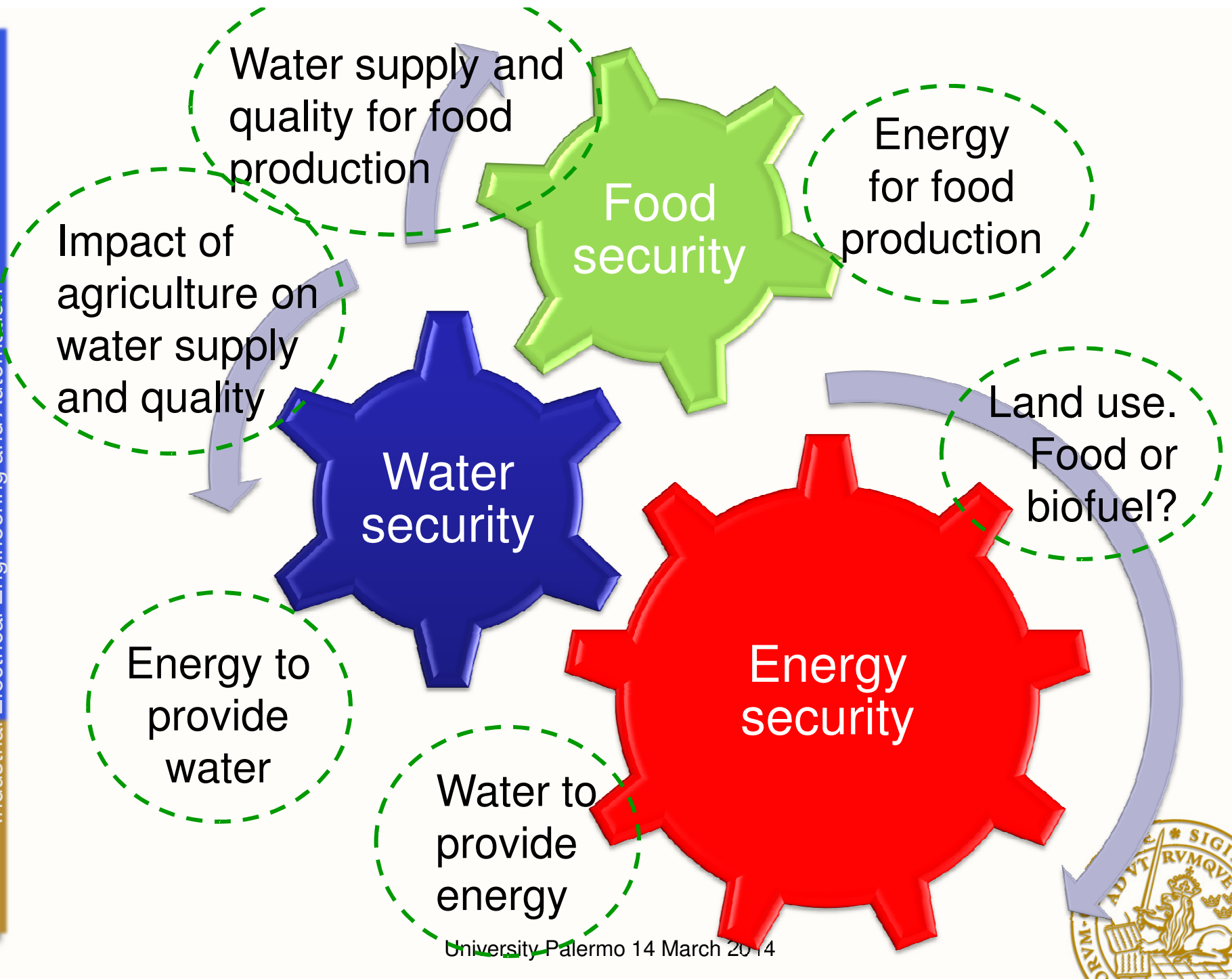
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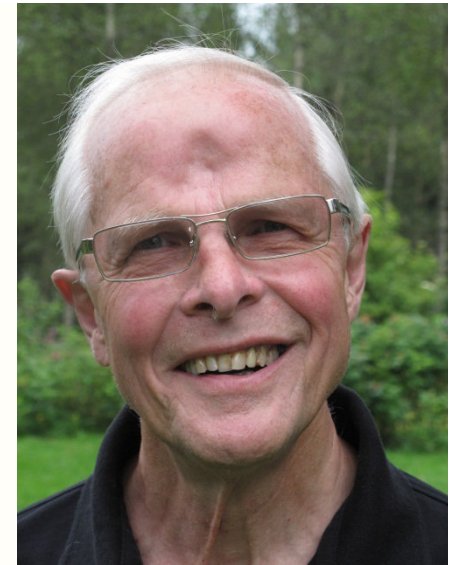
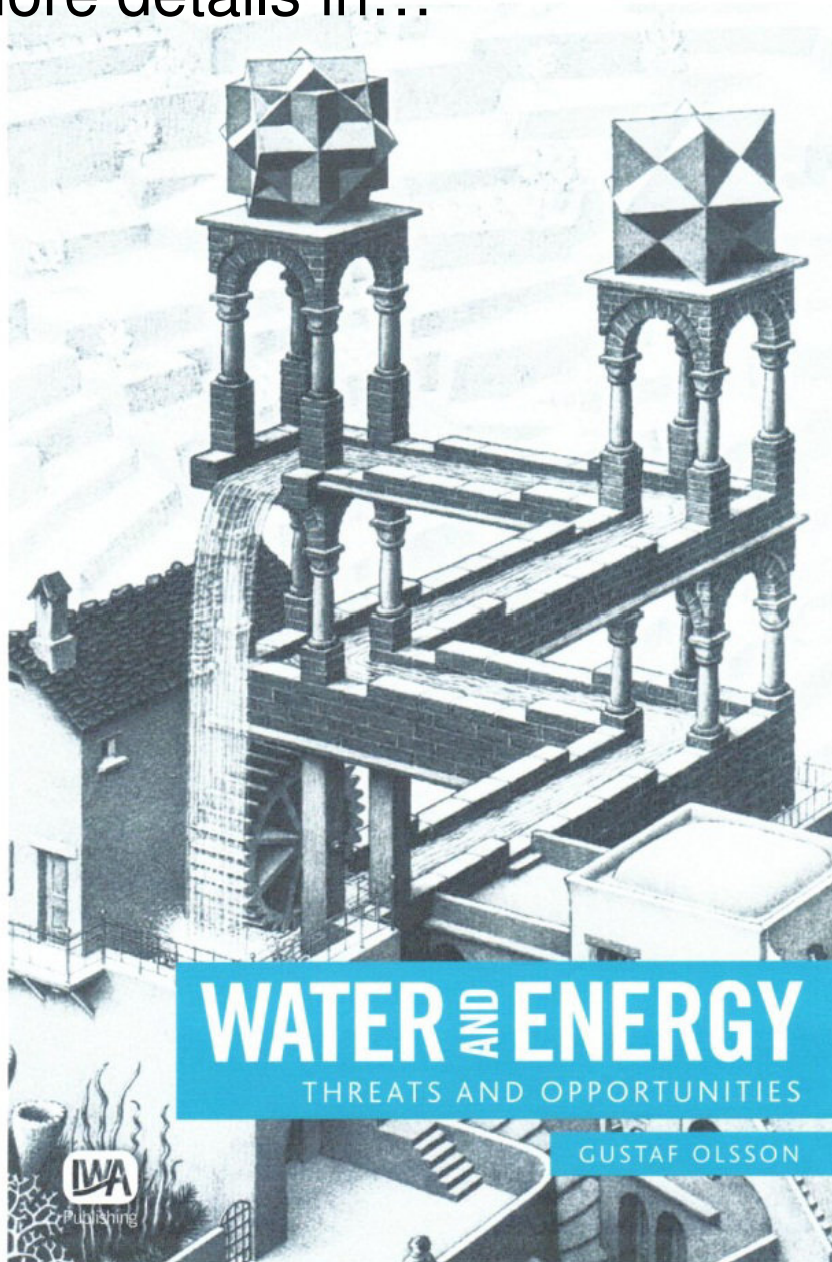
Saving water

- **Save energy**
- **Fracking methods need to be transparent**
- **Increase wind & solar** to reduce thermoelectric withdrawal and consumption
- **Eliminate once-through cooling**
 - (will decrease withdrawal but may not decrease consumption)
- **Review operation of hydro dams**
- **What would happen if the water will have a cost ("opportunity cost", "society cost")?**





More details in...



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Thank you!

IWA Publishing
2012

