

Module 1: THERMAL ENERGY CONVERSION SYSTEM

Content:

Objectives

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Energy Resources
- 1.3 Fuels used for steam generation
- 1.4 Layout of steam power plant
- 1.5 Equipment for burning coal in lump form
- 1.6 Pulverised fuel firing
 - 1.6.1 Pulverised Coal burners
- 1.7 Pulverisers: (Pulverising mills)
 - 1.7.1 Bowl mills
 - 1.7.2 Ball mills
- 1.8 Coal handling
- 1.9 Ash handling
- 1.10 Chimneys
- 1.11 Cooling Towers and Ponds
- 1.12 Accessories for the Steam generators
- 1.13 Question Bank
- 1.14 Outcomes
- 1.15 Further Reading



Objectives

After studying this module, the student should be able to

- Understand the importance of energy resources for the production of electricity.
- Know about the types, preparation and handling of fuel in steam power plant.
- Know about Layout and components of steam power plant.

1.1 Introduction

Cheap and abundant supply of electrical power is essential in the development of country. Next to the food, the fuel and power are the most important items on which economy of country depends. Apart from its use in industrial organisations and domestic purposes, electricity is needed in agriculture for pumping water for irrigation and in defence for improving production methods and other various operations. Our modern life is much dependent on electric power and its per capita consumption is regarded as an index of national standard of living in the present day civilization. Therefore electrical energy is considered as a basic input for any country for keeping the wheels of its economy moving to provide prosperity and standard of living to the people of a nation. Energy exists in various form, e.g. Mechanical, thermal, electrical etc., but has one thing in common. Energy is possessed of the ability to produce a dynamic, vital effect. With the use of suitable arrangements energy can be converted from one form to another. Among other forms of energy, electrical energy has the advantages such as easy transfer with minimum loss, economical in use, and easy conversion to other forms etc., hence electrical energy is preferred over other forms of energy. Power can be defined as the rate at which energy is produced and consumed. Any physical unit of energy when divided by a unit of time becomes unit of power. However, the term 'Power' is generally used in connection with mechanical and electrical forms of energy. It is the rate of flow of energy and a power plant is a unit built for the production and delivery of a flow of mechanical and electrical energy.

1.2 Energy Resources

The various sources of energy are

1. Fuels

- a) Solid fuels; coal, coke, anthracite etc.,
 - b) Liquid fuels; petroleum and its derivatives
 - c) Gases; Natural gas, blast furnace gas etc
2. Energy stored in water or hydraulic energy
 3. Nuclear energy
 4. Wind Power
 5. Solar energy
 6. Tidal energy
 7. Geothermal energy

1.3 Fuels used for steam generation

The various fuels which are commonly used for steam generations in powerplants are; coal, oil and gas. Coal is the oldest fuel and still used in large scale throughout the world for power generation. Coal is a heterogeneous compound and its constituents are always carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, sulphur, nitrogen and certain mineral non combustibles. The phenomenon by which the buried vegetation consisting of wood, grass, shrubs etc., transformed into coal is known as metamorphism. The nature of coal will depend upon the type of vegetation buried, and nature and duration of metamorphism. The classification of coal is based on the physical and chemical composition of the coal and therefore it is required to study the chemical composition of the coal. The proximate and ultimate analysis are the common tests which are used to find the commercial value of the coal. The proximate analysis gives characteristics of the coal such as percentages of moisture, ash and Volatile matter.

Ultimate analysis of coal is used to find out the chemical analysis of coal like carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, sulphur and ash. It also gives an indication about fusion temperature and the heating value of the coal. Each constituent in the coal plays a very important role in adopting type of coal for power plant.

Carbon: Higher percentage of carbon in the coal is an indication of higher heating value and this reduces the size of combustion chamber required.

Hydrogen : In coal, hydrogen exists in combined form with oxygen known as inherent moisture which comes with flue gases without playing any role in the combustion. Higher percentage of free hydrogen is always desirable, as it increases the heating value of the coal.

Oxygen: Coal contains oxygen in combined form with Hydrogen. Always lower percentage of Oxygen is desirable as it reduces percentage of hydrogen available for heating.

Nitrogen: It has no heating value and does not play any role in combustion process.

Sulphur: It exists in coal as pyrites, sulphates, iron sulphides and organic sulphur compounds. It is responsible for clinkering, slagging, corrosion and air pollution. It adds a little heating value.

Ash: It is a residue from combustion. Melting of ash results in the formation of clinkers. Ash contains silica, alumina, ferric oxide, calcium oxide, magnesium oxide and alkalies. It also contains 1-2% of sulphur.

Classification of coals

In the increasing order of heating value, coals are classified into following types.

1. Peat: It is a low grade coal and first stage in the progress of transformation of buried vegetation into coal. It contains huge amount of moisture (90%) and small percentage of volatile matter and carbon. Due to its moisture content, it is not suitable for use in power plants. It is suitable for domestic and other purposes. It is to be dried for about 1 to 2 months in sunlight to remove greater part of moisture before it is put to use.

2. Lignite and brown coals: It is the intermediate stage in the development of coal. It also possesses high content of moisture (30 to 45%) and ash and can be dried just by exposing to air. In comparison with peat, it has high heating value and carbon. It should be stored properly to avoid spontaneous combustion. It can be used as fuel in pulverised form. Lignites are brown in colour and burns with a smoky flame. These are suitable for local use only due to difficulty of easy breaking during the transportation.

3. Bituminous coal: It is most popular form and has low moisture content and non disintegrating properties. It may possess low or high ash contents which varies from 6 to 12%. It has high percentage of volatile matter and the average calorific value is about 31350 kJ / Kg. It may be available in two forms, caking and non caking. When the coal is heated, the volatile matter is driven off, leaving behind pure carbon known as coke. The process is known as caking.

Metallurgical industries uses low volatile matter and high caking coals and high volatile matter and lowcaking coals are suitable for gas making purposes

Sub Bituminuous coal is similar to lignite and contains lessmoisture than lignite. It is used in bliquettes or pulverised.

Semi Bituminuous coal is intermediate between Anthracite and Bituminuous coals and is the highest grade of Bituminuous coals. It releases less smoke, and has high carbon content and heating value. It posses less moisture content, ash, sulphur and volatile matter. It has a tendency of breaking to small sizes during storage or transportation.

4. Anthracite Coals: It is the last stage in the formation of coal and contains highest carboncontent and has the volatile matter of 8%. It has less heating value and ignites slowly unless furnace temperature is high. It has high calorific value in the range of 35500KJ/Kg. It has low ash content, zero caking power and it is difficult to pulverise the Anthracite coal.

Desirable Properties of god fuel

A good coal should posses

1. High calorific value and low ash content.
2. Less sulphur content (less then 1%)
3. Good burning characteristics to ensure complete combustion.
4. High grindability index (Inballmillgrinding)
5. Highweatherability.

Grading of coal can be done on thebasis of i) Size ii)Ash content iii) Sulphercontenti V)

Heating value.

Liquid Fuels:The liquid fuels of powerplant are alwaysby productof petroleum.Crude petroleum oil contains mainly carbonandhydrozenwith small amounts of oxygen, nitrozen and sulphur.The chemical composition of petroleum and its derivatives is; carbon 83-87%, hydrozen-10-14% and various percentages of sulphur, nitrogen, oxygen etc., The hydrozen is present inthe form of hydrocarbon mixtures.The hydrogen andcarbon are combined as hydrocarbons into specialised products like gasoline, fuel oil etc., The liquid fuels havehigher percentage of hydrogen as compared to coal, resulting in increased moisture loss in the flue gases.

Gaseous fuels

The gaseous fuel may either be natural gas or a manufactured gas. The manufactured gas is costly, therefore only natural gas is used in steam generation.

Natural gas is found under the earth's surface and mainly contains methane (CH₄) and Ethane. The calorific value is nearly equal to 21000 KJ/m³ and is colourless and odourless. The manufactured gases are coal gas, coke-oven gas, blast furnace gas, producer gas and water or illuminating gas. First two are produced by carbonizing high volatile bituminous coal. These gases are used in boilers and some times used for commercial purposes. The blast furnace gas is used in steel industry and is the by product of blast furnace. The heating value of this gas is very low. Producer gas is manufactured from the partial oxidation of coal, coke or peat when they are burnt with insufficient quantity of air.

Advantages

1. Better control of combustion
2. Excess air required is less for complete combustion.
3. It is clean, no problem of storage and transportation, as it can be transported through pipe lines
4. It has no ash content in it.
5. These are adaptable to automatic controls.

1.4 Layout of steam power plant

The general layout of a thermal (steam) Power Plant mainly consists of four circuits.

1. Coal and ash circuit
2. Air and gas circuit
3. Feed water and steam circuit
4. Cooling water circuit

1. **Coal and ash circuit:** Coal stored at the storage yard is fed to the boiler through suitable Coal handling equipment for the generation of steam. The combustion of coal produces ash which is collected and removed to ash storage yard through ash handling equipment.

2. **Air and gas circuit:** ED fan or I.D fan or both are used to supply the air to combustion chamber of the boiler through the air preheater. The air preheater is placed in the path of flue gases between combustion chamber and chimney and thus recover the heat of flue gases to preheat the air..



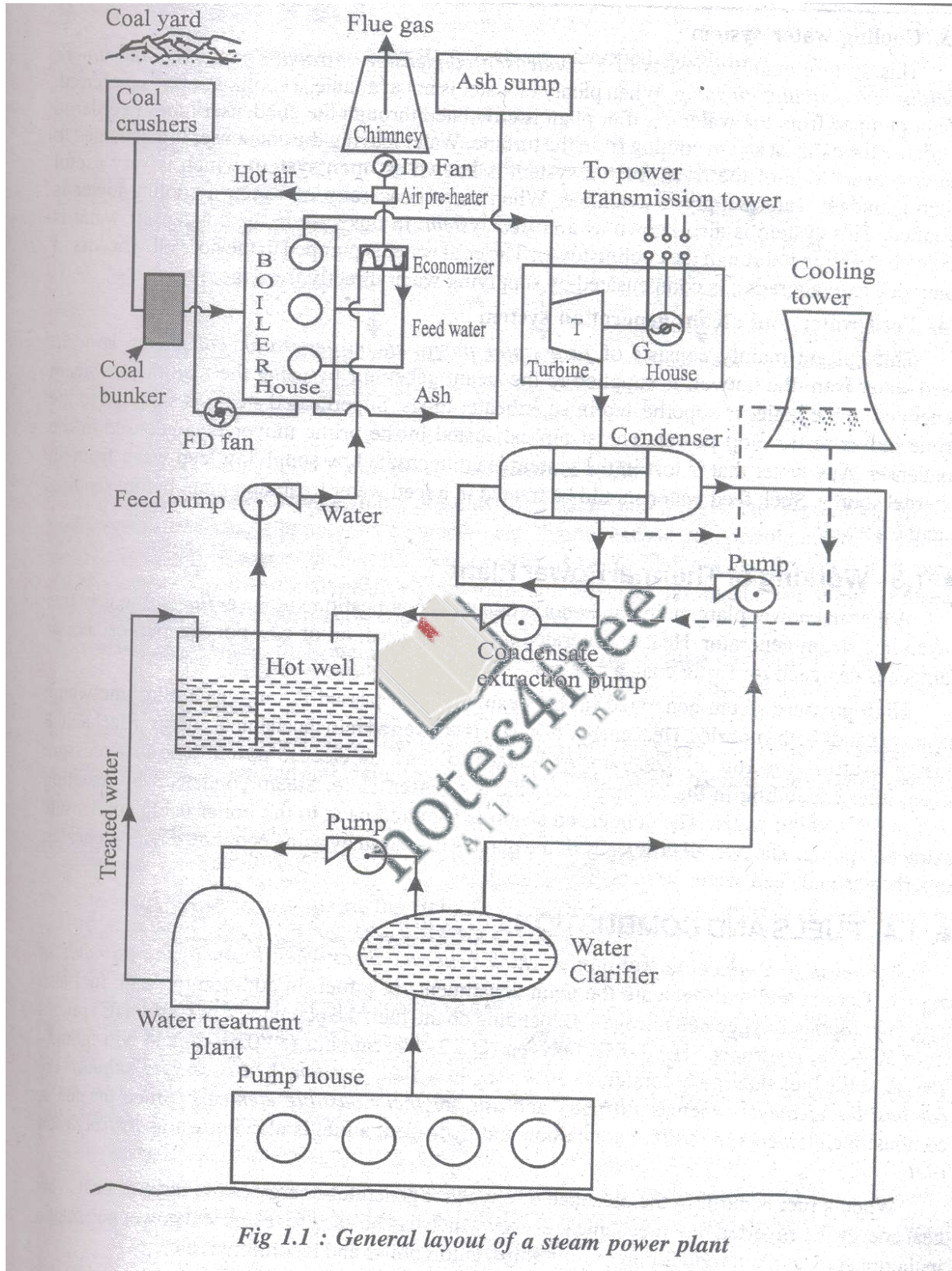


Fig 1.1 : General layout of a steam power plant

3. Feed water and steam circuit: The prime mover develops power by utilizing steam generated in the boiler. Then a condenser is used to condense the steam coming out of prime mover and a pump is used to feed the condensate to the boiler. In the boiler shell and tubes, water circulation is setup due to density difference of water between low and high temperature sections. A super heater is used to super heat the wet steam from boiler drum and is then supplied to the prime movers.

4. Cooling water circuit: In the condenser, quantity of cooling water required to condense of the steam is large and is taken either from lake, river or sea. The cooling water is taken from upper side of the river and then passed through the condenser to condense the steam. The hot water is then discharged to the lower side of the river. This system is known as open system. When water is not available in abundant, then water from the condenser is cooled either river or cooling pond or in cooling tower and the system is known as closed system. .

1.5 Equipment for burning coal in lump form

Early boilers were set very close to the grates and the combustion space was limited and hence resulted in smoke and poor efficiency. Later, furnaces were made larger and the boilers were set at higher level above the grates. A hand fired furnace with large combustion space is used to burn a wide variety of coal.

The following aspects are considered while selecting combustion equipments.

1. Initial cost of the equipment
2. Combustion space available and its ability to withstand high temperature
3. Grate area
4. Operating cost.

The two most commonly used methods for burning of coal in lump form are stoker firing and pulverised fuel firing.

- Stokers
- Solid Fuel Firing
- Chain grate stokers
- Travelling system

The selection of firing method depends upon the following factors.

1. Characteristics of the available coal.
2. Capacity of the power plant.

3. Power plant load factor
4. Loadfluctuations.
5. Reliabilityand efficiency of the various types of combustion equipments used in powerplant.The classification of combustion equipments used for coal burning is as shown below.

1.5.1 Stoker firing

Mechanicalstokers are used to fire almostall kinds of coal.AStokerconsists of a power Feeding mechanism and grate. Stokers are mainly classified in to spreaderstokers,underfeed stokers, Vibrating grate stokers and travelling grate stokers.Among these types,spreaderstokersare receiving the greatest interest and sales effort of any stoker type.

Advantagesof stoker firing

1. Allvarietyof coalscan be fired
2. System is reliable and requires less maintenance.
3. It produces less smoke.
4. A greater flexibilityof operations assured
5. Generally, it requires less bulding space.

Disadvantages

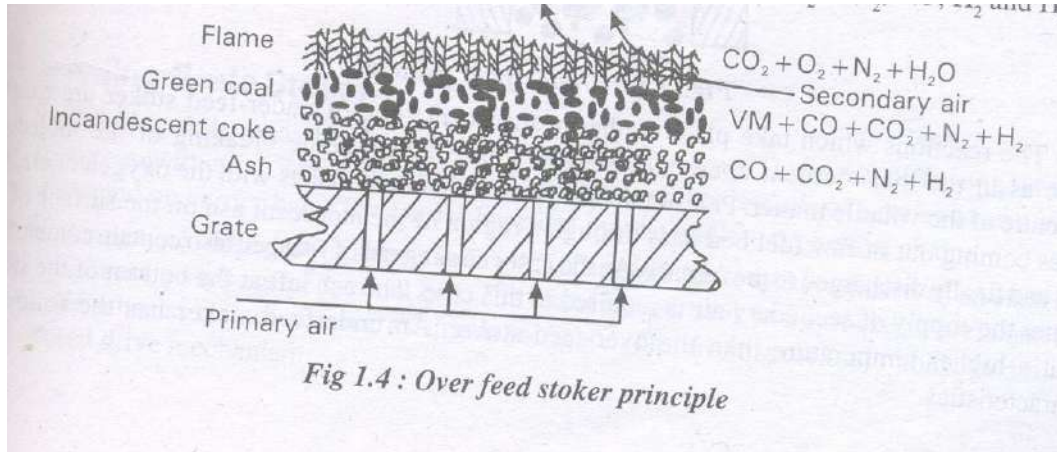
1. Construction is complicated
2. In caseof larger units, the initial cost may be higher than that of pulverised fuel.
3. The system cannot meet any suddenchangesin the steamdemand

1.5.2 Classification of stoker firing

Automatic stokers are classified as

1. Over feed stokers
2. Under feed stokers.

Overfeed stokers:



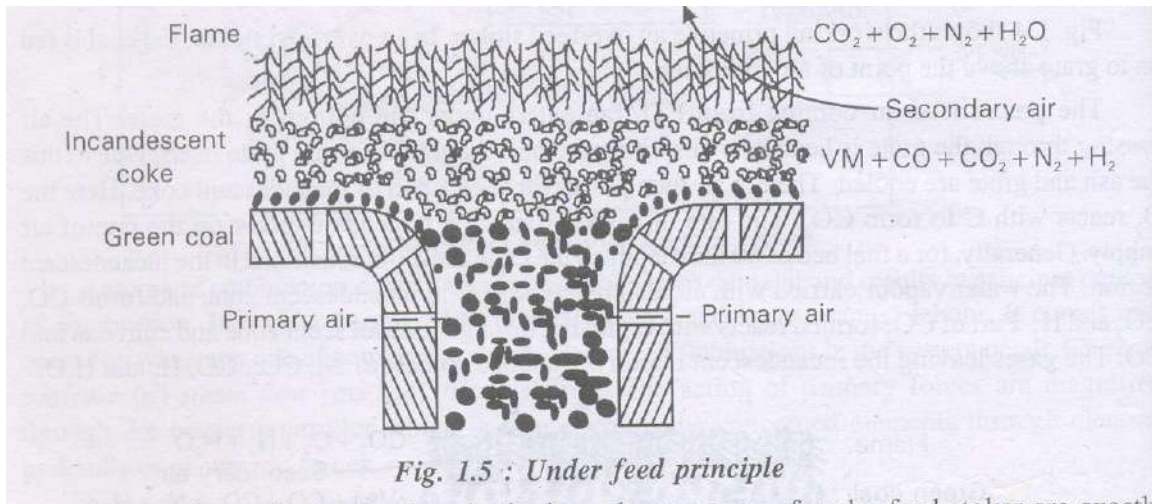
In case of overfeedstokers, the coal is fed in to the grate above the point of air admission. These are used for large capacity boilers where pulverized coal is being used. The mechanism of combustion in overfeed stoker is described below.

1. The air from ED fan with its water vapour content from atmosphere enters the bottom of the grate under pressure. As air passes through the grate, it absorbs heat from ash and grate itself; and thus cools both of them. Then the hot air passes through a bed of incandescent coke, where O_2 reacts with 'C' to form CO_2

(a) Primary air + water vapour (b) Primary air + water vapour

Entirely depends on the rate of air supply. Generally, all the O_2 present in the air disappears in the incandescent region for a fuel bed of 8cm deep. Hence no free oxygen will be present in the gases leaving the incandescent zone. Water vapour entering with air also reacts with carbon to form CO, CO_2 and free H_2 . While travelling through incandescent region, some of the CO_2 reacts with coke.

Underfeed stokers



In this type, the coal is admitted in to the furnace below the point of air admission. i.e., both coal and air moves in the same direction. This type is suitable for burning the semi-bituminous and bituminous coals.

The combustion mechanism in underfeed stoker can be explained as follows.

Air enters through the holes in the grate and meets the green coal. It diffuses through the bed of the green coal and meets volatile matter produced by green coal. The heat for distillation is obtained by conduction from the incandescent coke which exists above the green coal. The air and formed volatile matter mix with each other and enters in to the incandescent zone by passing through the ignition zone.

Principle of underfeed stoker

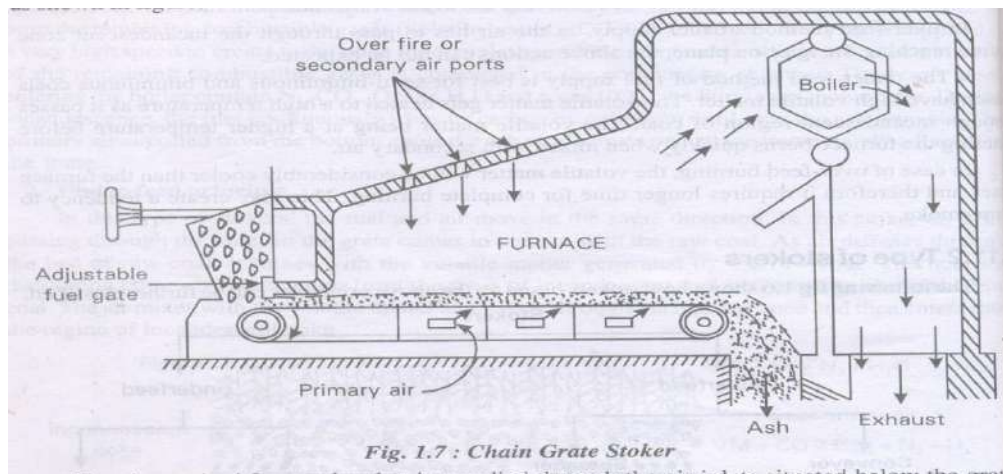
In incandescent zone, the reactions are similar to over feed system except some breaking of the molecular structure of the volatile matter and a portion of this reacts with oxygen present in the air. The gases leaving the green coal bed pass through a region of incandescent ash and are discharged in to the furnace. It contains the constituents similar to overfeed stokers. This secondary air is supplied at a very high speed to create turbulence in order to facilitate complete combustion. At the bottom of the stoker, the ash is at higher temperature than the overfeed system.

1.5.3 Types of over feed strikers

The over feed stokers are of mainly classified in to two types.

1. Travelling grate stoker/ Chain grate stoker
2. Spreader stoker

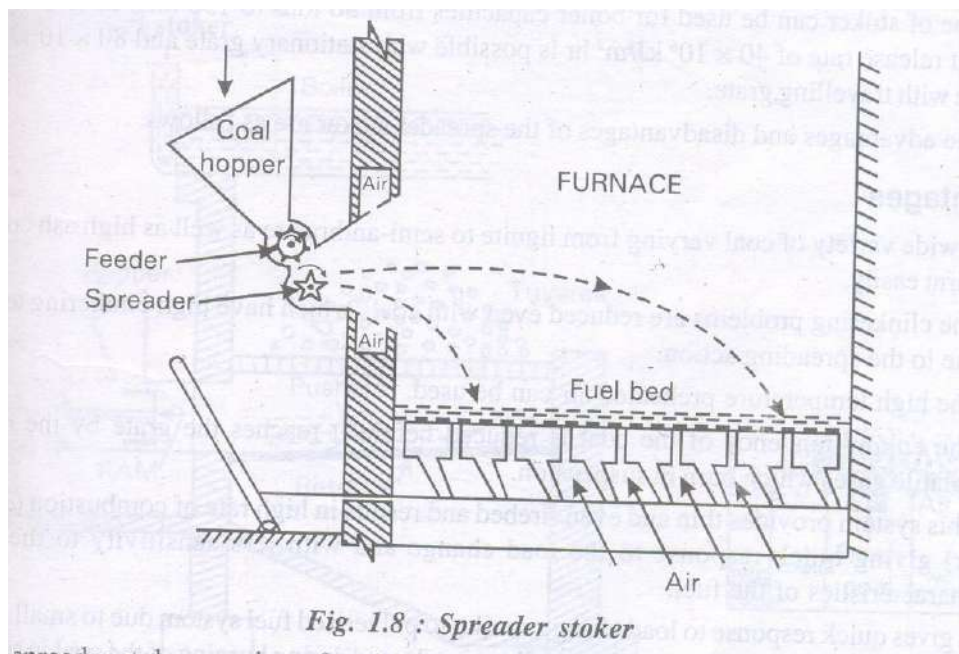
1. Travelling grate stoker:



The travelling grate stoker may be of chain grate type or bargrate type. These two, differ only in the construction of grate. The chain grate stoker employs an endless chain which is constructed to form a support for the fuel bed. The travelling grate stoker consists of grate bars carried by steel chains. In both the cases, the chain travels over two sprockets, one at the front end and other at the rear end of the furnace. The front sprocket is connected to a variable speed driving mechanism. Depending up on the type of the coal burned, the grate has air openings in the range of 20 to 40 percent of the total area. Exhaust A travelling type chain grate stoker is as shown in figure. It consists of an end less chain which forms support for the fuel bed. The two sprockets, one at the front end of the furnace and connected to variable speed driving mechanism and other at the rear end, carries an end less chain as explained earlier. The speed of the stoker is 15cm to 50 cm per minute. Coal is fed by gravity from a hopper located at the front of the stoker. The fuel depth on the grate is regulated by a hand adjusted gate. The fuel bed thickness can be regulated either by adjusting the opening of the fuel gate or by controlling the speed of the stoker driving motor i.e., the grate speed changes the rate of coal feeding in to the furnace. The combustion control automatically regulates the grate speed to maintain steam pressure. The ash with combustible matter is carried over the rear end of the stoker and then disposed in to the ash pit. The air required for combustion is admitted from the under side of the grate and the secondary air is supplied above the grate as shown in figure. Air dampers are used to control the supply of air to various zones. The grate should be saved from being over heated. For this, the coal should have sufficient ash content which will form a layer on the grate. Practically there is no agitation of the fuel bed, non caking coals are best suited for this type of stoker. These can burn about 150kg of

coal per m² per hour with natural draught and from 200 to 300 kg of coal per m² per hour with forced draught.

2 Spreader stoker (Sprinkler stoker)



This type of stoker can burn any type of coal from lignite to semi anthracite. In this type of stoker, the grate is used only to support an ash bed and move it out of the furnace. The coal burns partly in suspension and partly on the grate.

It consists of a variable feeding mechanism which throws the coal uniformly on the grate. The air required for combustion is supplied through the holes in the grate. The spreader distributes coal in the furnace and fine particles of coal burn in suspension and remaining falls on the grate.

Furnace

The FD. fan is used to supply primary air to burn coal on the grate, volatile matter and fine suspended particles of coal. The secondary air or over fire air to create turbulence for proper combustion of fuel is fed through nozzles which are located directly above the ignition arch. The unburnt coal and ash are deposited on the grate and are removed periodically to remove the ash from the grate.

The feeder used in the feeding mechanism may be a reciprocating mm or end less belt which supplies coal to the spreaders in a continuous stream. The feeder speed may be varied to control the combustion as per load on the plant.

Spreader is a rapidly rotating shaft carrying blades on it. The function of the spreader is to distribute the coal uniformly over the grate.

This stoker can be used for boiler capacities from 70000kg to 140000 kg of steam per hour. The coal size used should range between 6 cms to 36 cms.

1.6 Pulverised fuel firing

The Pulverization of coal is a means of exposing a large surface area of the coal to the action of oxygen and consequently accelerating combustion. The conventional or stoker firing methods were unable to meet the variable loads on the plant and were unsuitable for large capacity plants. Nowadays pulverised fuel firing method is universally used for large capacity plants. It gives higher thermal efficiency, better control as per load on the plant and uses low.

Advantages

1. Since coal is in the powdered form, coal of any grade can be used.
2. Wide variety and low grade coal can be burnt easily.
3. Practically, it is free from slagging and clinkering problems.
4. The rate of coal feed can be regulated properly resulting in fuel economy.
5. The combustion rate is faster due to greater surface area of coal per unit mass of coal. It means more coal surface is exposed to heat and oxygen. This decreases excess air required for complete combustion and also decreases fan power.
6. The external heating surfaces are free from corrosion and fouling.
7. The use of highly preheated secondary air (3500C), results in rapid flame propagation.
8. There are no stand by losses due to banked fires.
9. In the furnace, moving parts are not subjected to high temperature. increases system life.
10. There is an increased rate of evaporation and higher boiler efficiency due to complete combustion of fuel.
11. The system is free from ash handling problems.
12. Greater capacity to meet peak loads.
13. The system works successfully in combination with gas and oil.
14. The flame length is less due to turbulence created by the burners in the furnace. Thus the volume of furnace required is considerably less.

Disadvantages

1. The system requires many additional equipments and also coal preparation plant, thus increasing the capital and operating cost.
2. This system requires skilled operators
3. As coal burns like a gas, there will always be danger of explosions
4. A special equipment is required to start the system.
5. It requires large building space, especially in case of central system.
6. High working temperature causes rapid deterioration of the refractory surface of the furnace.
7. A special care is to be taken while storing coal in powdered form to protect it from fire hazards.

The pulverised coal system may be classified in to two types.

1. Unit system or direct firing system
2. Central system or Bin system (storage system)

Unit system or Direct firing system

Most of the power plants with pulverised coal as the fuel are being installed with unit pulveriser. In this system each burner or a group of burners and the pulveriser constitute a unit. The overhead bunker supplies raw coal by gravity into a feeder where it is dried with the help of hot air. Then the coal passes on to the pulverising mill where it is crushed to the required size (fine powder). The feeder supplies coal to the pulverising mill at a variable rate governed by the combustion requirements of the furnace and steam generating rate required in the boiler. The primary air from the ID fan carries pulverized coal from the mill to the burner through a delivery pipe. In the separator, the big coal particles are separated from the fine dust and the slag again fall down into the mill. Before the fuel enters into the combustion chamber, the secondary air is to be supplied to the burner as shown in figure.

Advantages

1. It has greater simplicity and permits easy operation.
2. It requires less space, less capital and operating costs.
3. It is cheaper than central system
4. It permits direct control of combustion from the pulveriser.
5. In case of replacement of stokers, the old conveyor and bunker equipment may be used.
6. Better fuel feed into the furnace is possible

Disadvantages

1. The power consumption is high per ton of the load at part load. The mill operates at variable load, a condition not conducive to best results.
2. When compared to central system, it has less flexibility.
3. With load factors common in practice, total mill capacity must be higher than for central system.
4. The fan handles air and coal particles and results in excessive wear and tear of the fan blades.
5. In case of failure of auxiliaries of one of the burners, the burners has to put off as there is no reserve capacity.

Central system (Bin system): This system employs a limited number of large capacity pulverisers at a central point to prepare coal for all the burners. The bin system was widely used before pulverising equipment became reliable enough for continuous steady operation. As it consists of many stages of drying, storing, transporting etc, the bin system is subject to fire hazards. Nevertheless, it is still in use in many older plants. The arrangement of the system is as shown in Fig. 1. The crushed coal from the raw coal bunker is passed to the drier by the action of gravity. The coal is dried either by using hot gases, preheated air or bleed steam. Then the feeder supplies coal to the pulveriser. The air supplied from J.D. fan carries pulverized coal from the pulveriser mill and the pulverised coal is separated in the cyclone separator. A fabric bag filter is used to separate and exhaust the moistured air to the atmosphere and discharge the pulverised coal to storage bins (central bunker), through conveyor. This system uses all the equipments as used in unit system with higher capacity of each part. In addition to other equipments, the system also uses storage bins. The pulverised coal is fed to the various burners through separate feeders. The bin may contain from 12 to 24 hours of supply of pulverised.

Advantages

1. The system is more reliable, as the failure of the coal preparation unit does not immediately affect the plant operation.
2. The quantities of fuel and air can be regulated accurately and separately. This leads to greater degree of flexibility.
3. The system offers good control of coal fineness.
4. Due to the presence of storage bin between mill and burner, the pulveriser may work constant load.
5. It requires less labour.
6. It consumes less power per ton of coal handled.

7. The fan handles only air, hence there is no problem of excessive wear and tear of the fan blades.
8. Burners can be operated independent of the operation of coal preparation plant.

Disadvantages

1. The initial cost is high and it occupies a large space
2. The auxiliaries used in the system consume large power.
3. There is possibility of fire hazard of stored pulverised coal.
4. The system uses driers.
5. For the same capacity, operation and maintenance costs are higher than unit system.
6. The coal transportation is much more complex.

1.6.1 Pulverised Coal burners

The function of coal burner is to fire the pulverised coal from the mill, along with the primary air into the furnace. The coal is pulverised in a mill and is carried by the primary air to the furnace and the primary air is only about 20% of the total air required for combustion. Before the coal enters into the furnace, additional air known as secondary air is to be supplied for proper and complete combustion of coal. The secondary air is supplied separately around the burner or elsewhere in the furnace. The proper utilization of pulverised coal depends upon the ability of burners to produce uniform mixing of coal and air and turbulence within the furnace. Ignition takes place: by means of radiation and flame propagation from the fuel, already burning in the furnace. The burner should maintain stable ignition of the mixture and control the shape of flame and its travel in the furnace. The mixture must move away from the burner at the rate of flame front travel.

The pulverized coal burners should satisfy the following requirements.

1. There should be thorough mixing of coal and primary air and the mixture is to be fired in the furnace properly with secondary air.
2. It should create proper turbulence and maintain stable ignition of the mixture in the furnace.
3. It should control the flame shape and its travel in the furnace.
4. The coal and air mixture should move away from the burner at the rate equal to flame travel in order to prevent flash back in the burner.
5. The burner must have adequate protection against over heating, internal fires and excessive abrasive wear. The performance of the pulverised coal burner is depends up on the

characteristics of the coal used, fineness of pulverized coal, geometry of blower, volatile matter, proportions of primary and secondary air, furnace design etc.,

Pulverised coal burners may be classified as follows;

1. Long flame burners
2. Turbulent burners
3. Tangential burners

Long flame burners: These are also known as U flame or stream lined burners. These burners are suitable for furnaces with low volatile coal, and produces a long flame path for slower burning particles. The arrangement of primary air and coal flow and the supply of secondary air is as shown in figure. The supply of tertiary air near the burner forms an envelope around the primary air and fuel and helps in better mixing. The mixture is discharged vertically in one stream from the burner without turbulence and forms a long flame. The supply of secondary air at right angle to the flame helps in better and rapid combustion of the mixture.

Turbulent burners

It is also known as short flame burner. These burners are set in to the furnace walls and horizontally or at some inclination as shown in the figure. The fuel air mixture and secondary hot air arranged to pass through the burner in such a way that there is good mixing and mixture is projected in highly turbulent form in the furnace. Due to this, there is an intense burning of the mixture and combustion is completed in a short distance. In comparison with other burners bituminous coal and a long penetrating flame or short intensely hot flame may be obtained. This burner suitable for high volatile coals and is used in all modern power plants.

Tangential burners

In this case, four burners are arranged at four corners of the furnace and they discharge the fuel air mixture stream tangent to an imaginary circle in the centre of the furnace. The swirling action produces intense turbulence and thorough mixing of fuel and air so that combustion is completed in a short period. This avoids the need

of producing high turbulence at the burner itself. This method of firing gives high heat release rates. Some times the burner tip may be angled through a small vertical arc ($\pm 1:30^\circ$). This arrangement helps to raise or lower position of molten ash in the turbulent combustion region in

the furnace. The gas temperature at the furnace aperture can be controlled with this method, so that a constant super heat temperature of steam can be maintained. The furnace is completely filled with flame by tilting the burners downward. This decreases furnace exit gas temperature and heat given to the superheater. When burners are tilted upward, it increases the heat given to superheaters, of that depending on the load, a constant steam superheat temperature can be maintained.

1.7 Pulverisers: (Pulverising mills)

The function of pulveriser is to grind the raw coal to increase its surface exposure and hence to accelerate the combustion without using large quantities of excess air. It is the most important part of the pulverised coal system. The satisfactory performance of the pulverised fuel system depends up on the performance of the pulverisers. The pulveriser should deliver the rated tonnage of coal, and should consume nominal rate of Power. It should be quiet in operation and should pulverize the fuel to satisfactory fineness over a wider range of capacities. Coals with low volatile contents should be pulverised to a higher degree of fineness than those with higher volatile. It is wasteful of energy to pulverize coal finer than required to obtain satisfactory combustion. The three stages of pulverizing process of coal are i) feeding ii) drying and iii) grinding. The feeding system regulates the fuel feed rate as per load on the plant and required air rate (primary air) for drying and then projects the pulverized fuel and primary air stream in to the combustion chamber through burner. Dryers are the integral part of pulverising unit to remove moisture content of the coal. The air preheater forces hot air at temperature of 350°C in to the pulveriser. Then it mixed with coal as it is being circulated and ground. Pulverisers are the heart of the equipment for preparing pulverized coal. The grinding is performed by impact, attrition, crushing or combination of these. Based on the method of achieving grinding, the pulverisers are classified in to

1. Attrition mills

i. Bowl mills, ii. Ball mills

2. Impact mills

i. Ball mills, ii. Hammer mills,

1.7.1 Bowl mills

The bowl mill is widely used for grinding coal. The pulveriser shown in figure 1.21 has grinding elements consisting of stationary rollers and a power driven bowl in which pulverization and intermediate sizes of coal are picked up from the top by a stream of heated primary air and is carried in to the classifier above for classification. The vanes of the classifier return the coarse particles of coal

through the centre cone of the bowl for further grinding. The coal which has been pulverized to the desired fineness passes out of the mill, through the fan and is carried to the burner. The automatic control changes the coal supply to the bowl of the mill by adjusting feeder speed and the flow of primary air by regulating a damper in the line from the pulveriser to the fan. The heavier coal particles are thrown over the side in to the space below the bowl due to centrifugal force and are discharged to a separate place.

This is also known as a contact mill and it crushes coal between two moving surfaces, balls and races, by attrition. It consists of stationary and power driven elements, which are arranged to obtain a rolling action with respect to each other. The coal passes between the rotating elements gain and again, until it has been pulverized to desired fineness. The grinding pressure is maintained by adjustable springs. The coal is crushed between two moving surfaces namely balls and races. The balls roll in a race running over a surface. The upper race is a stationary one and a worm and gear drive the lower rotating race. The coal is to be fed in to the inner side of the races. The coal crushed to the powdered form between the moving balls and races. The hot air supplied picks the coal dust as it flows between the balls and races, and then enters the classifier. The classifier separates the over sized particles and returns them for further grinding and the coal required size are discharged from the top of the classifier.

The grinding elements of these mills are protected from excessive wear and possible break by heavy foreign objects in the coal. These heavy particles resist the up ward thrust of the stream of primary air and collect in a compartment in the base and are to be removed periodically.

The coal supply to the burner is automatically regulated by the combustion control. Additional coal is required, the flow of primary air is increased and its high velocity in then carries additional coal to the burner.

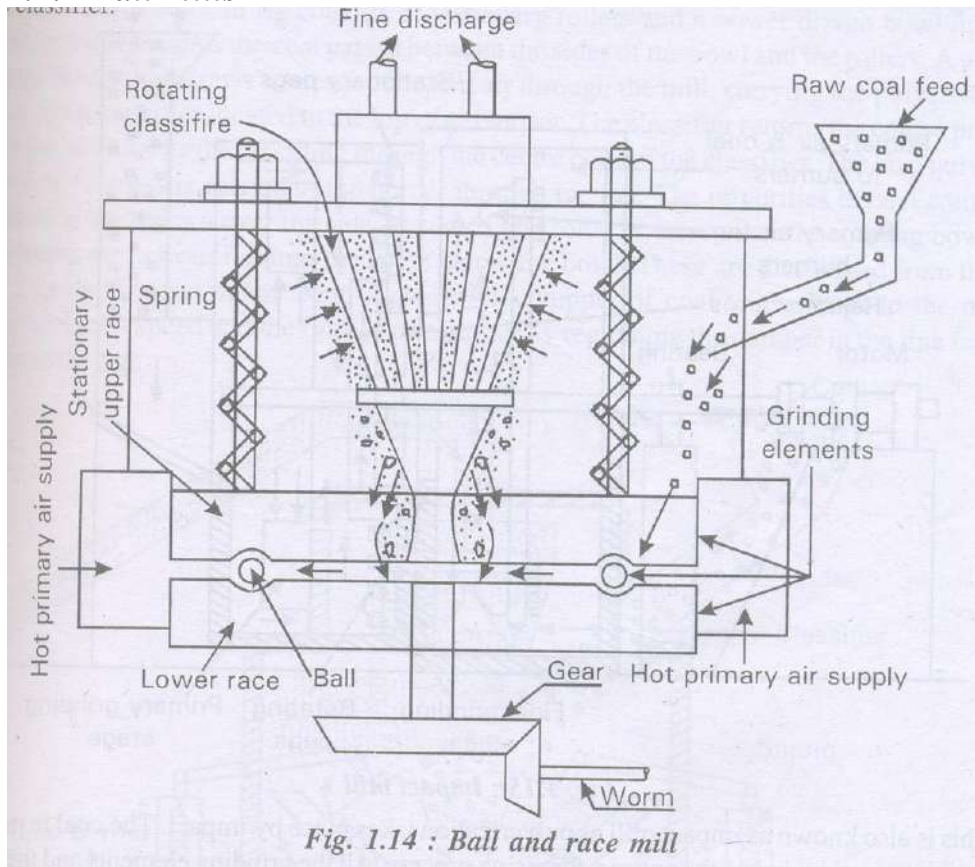
Advantages

1. Lower capital cost
2. Lower power consumption
3. Lesser space required
4. Lower weight.

Disadvantages

1. These mills have greater wear compared to other types.

1.7.2 Ball mills



The diagram of a ball mill using two classifiers is as shown in figure 1.14. It consists of a slowly rotating horizontal cylinder or drum which is partly filled with various sized steel balls. Sizes vary from 2.5 to 5 cm in diameter. The feeders feed the raw coal (6 mm in size) into the classifiers from where it passes over a screw conveyor to move into the cylinder. As the cylinder rotates, the coal mixes with the steel balls and gets pulverised due to the attrition and impact. Hot primary air is blown over it, to carry the pulverised coal to the classifiers, where sharp changes in the direction of the mixture throw out the coarse (oversized) particles for

regrinding. Classifier, coal and air mixture move to the exhaust fan and then supplied to the burners", mill is reliable and requires less maintenance, but it is bulky and heavy in construction. It consumes more power and is not suitable for wet coals due to poor air circulation. In this mill, metal and other foreign matter present in the coal will not affect the grinding elements. The mill contains sufficient quantity of coal, thereby forming a coal reservoir. This prevents fire from occurring due to slight interruption in fuel feed caused by coal clogging in bunkers or spouts. This is suitable for a wide range of coals such as anthracite and bituminous coals, which are difficult to pulverise.

Advantages

1. It may be directly coupled to the motor and hence operates at high speed.
2. The power required to drive the pulveriser is nearly proportional to the coal pulverized over a wide range of rating.
3. It requires minimum floor area as fan is the integral part of mill.

1.8 Coal handling

Coal handling equipment is one of the major components of plant cost. The coal handling equipment should satisfy some of the requirements such as minimum maintenance, reliability, simplicity and should wear less due to abrasive action of coal particles.

The various steps involved in coal handling are as follows.

1. Coal delivery
2. Unloading
3. Preparation
4. Transfer
5. Outdoor storage (dead storage)
6. Covered storage (live storage)
7. In-plant handling
8. Weighing and measuring
9. Feeding the coal to furnace.

1. **Coal delivery:** The coal may be delivered from the supply points by using ships or boats when the power station is situated near the sea or river. The rail or trucks may be used to

deliver the coal when the power station is situated away from the sea or river. The trucks are used, when the railway facilities are not available near the power station.

2. *Unloading:* The type of equipment used to unload the coal in the plant depends upon how the coal is received at the power station. i.e., by road, rail or ship. If trucks are used to deliver the coal, there is no need of unloading device as the same trucks are used to dump the coal to the dead storage. Coal handling becomes easier, if lift trucks with scoop are used. If the coal is handled by railway wagons, ships or boats, unloading may be done by cranes, rotary cardumpers, grab buckets, coal accelerators, portable conveyors, self-unloading boats etc.

3. *Preparation:* When the coal received at the site is in the form of big lumps (not of proper size), it is to be prepared before feeding to the combustion chamber by using the equipments i) Breakers ii) Crushers iii) Sizers iv) Dryers v) Magnetic separators

The coal crushers are used to prepare the coal of required size before supplying to the furnace. The coal which does not require sizing is to be passed. The sizers separate the unsized coal particles and return to the crushers. The driers are used to remove the excess free moisture from the coal by passing hot flue gases through the coal storage. The magnetic separators are used to remove the iron scrap and other foreign particles from the coal, before supplying to the storage hopper.

4. *Transfer:* Transfer of coal includes handling of coal between the unloading point and the storage site. The equipments used for transfer of coal are

- a. Belt conveyors
- b. Screw conveyors
- c. Bucket elevators
- d. Grab bucket elevators
- e. Skip hoists
- f. Flight conveyors.

(a) **Belt conveyors:**

It is a method of transporting large quantities of coal over a large distance and used in medium and large power plants. The figure 1.26 shows a pair of end drums or rollers. The belt is made of rubber, canvas, or balata. The end drums are supported by a series of rollers provided at regular intervals. These conveyors can carry the coal with an inclination up to 20° to

horizontal with an average speed of 60 to 100 m/min. The load carrying capacity of the belt may range from 50 to 100 tonnes/hour. It can transfer the coal over a distance of 400m

(b) **Screw conveyor:**

The screw conveyor consists of an endless helical screw fitted to a shaft. The screw shaft is driven by some mechanism at one end and the other end of which is supported in a bearing. The screw while rotating in a trough or housing, transfers the coal from feed into the discharge end. This conveyor discharges 125 tonnes of coal per hour. The screw diameter ranges from 15 cm to 50 cm and its speed varies from 70 to 120 rpm. This system is suitable to transfer coal over short distance and where there is not enough space for the use of other equipments.

Advantages

1. The initial cost is low
2. It requires minimum space
3. It discharges coal at elevated places

Disadvantages

1. It is not suitable for large capacity stations.
2. It consumes more power
3. There is considerable wear of screw and this reduces life of conveyor

(c) **Bucket elevators:** This elevator is used to carry the coal from bottom to the top. The buckets of the elevator are fixed to a chain which moves over two wheels. It can lift the coal to a maximum height of 30.5m and maximum inclination to the horizontal is 60°. The elevator capacity is about 60 tonnes per hour and the chain speed is limited to 75m / min.

(d) **Grab bucket conveyor:** The purpose of grab bucket elevator is to lift and transfer coal on a single rail or track from one point to the other. It can be used with crane or tower and transfer coal to overhead bunker or storage. It has the capacity of 50 to 100 tonnes/hr. Its use is justified only when no other.

6. Inplant handling

The coal may be brought from dead storage to covered or live storage. It also refers to handling of the coal between final storage and the firing equipment. It includes the equipments such as belt conveyors, screw conveyors, bucket elevators etc.,

7. Weighing and measuring

The methods used to weigh the coal are 1) Mechanical 2) Pneumatic and 3) Electronic. I equipments used to weight the quantity of coal are i) Weight bridge ii) Belt scale iii) Weight lorry.

1.9 Ash handling

All types of coal have some percentage of ash. When the coal is burnt, about 10 to 20% of total quantity of coal produce ash. In modem power stations, huge quantity of coal is used which results in thousand tonnes of ash per year. A 200MW capacity power plant using indian coals The arrangements shown in figure 1.31 and is generally used for low capacity power plant which uses coal as the fuel

1.9.1 Mechanical handling system .

The hot ash released from the boiler furnace is first cooled by passing through water trough and then it is transported to an ash bunker by using belt conveyor. The trucks are used to carry the ash from bunker to the dumping site. The life of this system is 5 to 10 years and maximum

1.9.2 Hydraulic system Advantages

In this system, ash is canied with the flow of water with high velocity through a channel. finally discharged in to the sump. This system is again subdivided in to 2.

- a) Low pressure (low velocity) system 3
- b) High pressure (high velocity) system 4

a) Low pressure system

In this system, ash from the furnace grate, falls into a water trough provided below.

boilers and is made to flow through the trough with low velocity. The water flow in the trough carries ash to pass through a screen where water gets separated from ash. The separated water is again pumped back to the trough for reuse and ash is carried to the sump. This system capacity of 50 tonnes/hr and carries ash over a distance of 500m. Boilers

Advantages of Hydraulic system

1. It is clean and dust less and totally enclosed.
2. The system is also suitable to handle stream of molten ash.
3. Its capacity is large and there fore more suitable for large thermal power plants.

4. The components of the system do not come in contact with ash
5. It can discharge the ash at a large distance from the power plant.

Advantages:

1. It ensures dust less operation as the materials are handled in an enclosed conduit and hence eliminates the dust nuisance while handling flyash and dust.
2. The system is free from spillage and rehandling
3. The materials are handled in the dry state and discharged to the storage bin in the same state. This eliminates the chance of ash freezing or sticking in the storage bin and the material can be discharged freely by gravity.
4. The system is highly flexible.

Disadvantages:

1. Labour and maintenance charges are high due to large amount of wear and tear in the conveying pipe.
2. The operation is noisier than *other* systems.

1.10 Chimneys

The natural draught is obtained by a tall Chimney or a stack. The natural draught is used in boilers of smaller capacities. It is created by the density difference between the atmospheric air and hot gas in the stack, i.e., it is caused by the difference in height of a column of cold atmospheric air and that of a similar column of hot gases in the Chimney. The system is dependent upon Chimney height and average temperature of hot gases in the Chimney. The draught obtained may be insufficient to overcome the losses in the system. A Chimney is a vertical tubular structure of masonry, concrete, brick or steel. It is built to enclose a column of hot gases to produce the draught and carries the products of combustion to such a height which is enough to prevent air pollution. The Chimney draught depends upon the temperature difference of hot gases in the Chimney and cold air outside the chimney. The Chimney mainly serves two purposes (i) It produces the draught and makes the air and gas to flow through the fuel bed, furnace, boiler passes and various other equipments. (ii) It discharges products of combustion to a certain height to prevent air pollution. In modern steam power plants,

Chimney is only used to discharge gases at certain height and is not used for creating draught. The use of Chimney draught increases, the flue gas temperature leaving the combustion chamber and thereby reduces overall efficiency of the power plant. Furnace

Forced Draught

The figure 2.12 shows the arrangement of various components in a forced draught system. It uses a blower or a fan near the base of the boiler to force the air to pass through the furnace, flues, economiser, air preheater and to the stack. As the air pressure throughout the system is above atmospheric, the system is known as positive draught or forced draught system. In this system, Chimney is used only to discharge the flue gases at certain height into the atmosphere to prevent contamination. The draught produced by Chimney is not significant, hence tall Chimney is not required. Most of high rating combustion equipments use forced draught fans for supplying to the furnace. It is used in underfeed stoker which is carrying a thick fuel bed.

Induced Draught System

Induced draught is created by a fan and chimney to cause the air to flow into the furnace and, combustion products to be discharged to the atmosphere. The pressure in the furnace is below that of the atmosphere to induce the flow of combustion air. As the fan is located at the base of the stack, it has to handle hot combustion gases. Hence it requires greater power than the draught fans. In addition, it has to withstand the corrosive action of combustion products and ash.

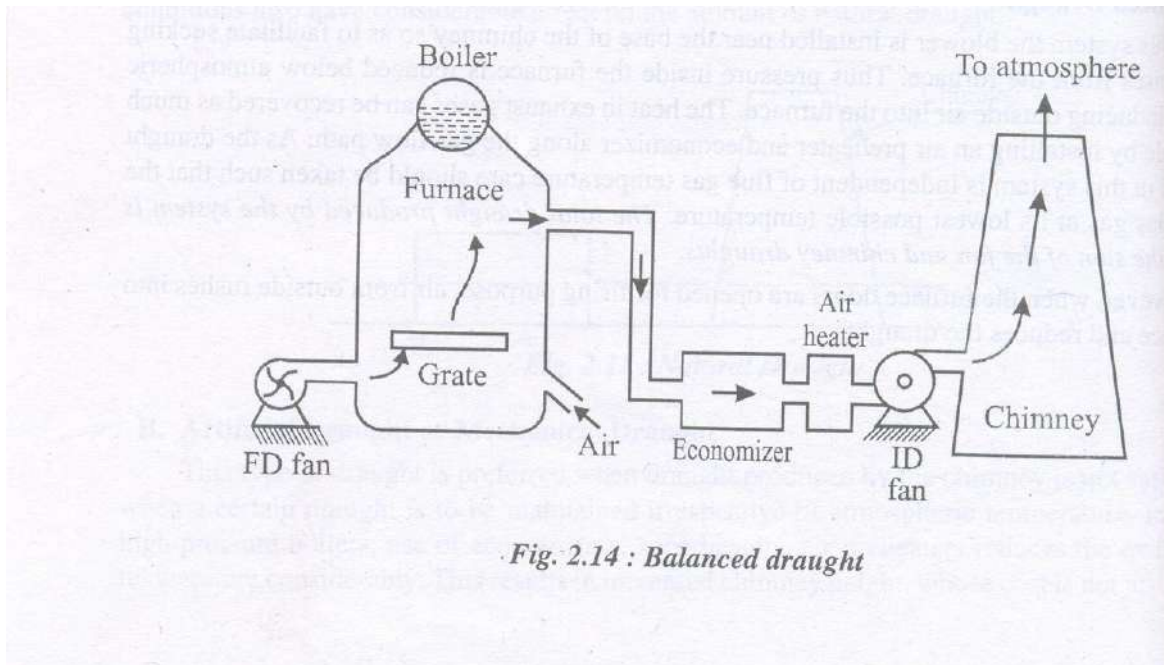
Balanced Draught.

It is a combination of forced and induced or forced and natural draught. The forced fan delivers air to the furnace and an induced draught fan or a chimney produces draught to remove the gases from the unit.

In forced draught system, furnace opening for inspection or firing is not possible, furnace opens, the air inside furnace which is at high pressure, tends to blow out and this causes blowing out of the fire completely and thus the furnace stops.

In induced draught system, the furnace opening for firing or inspection is not possible, as the atmosphere air enters into the furnace due to lower pressure inside the furnace. This reduces effective draught and dilutes the combustion.

Furnace



- A- Inlet pressure to forced fan
- B- Outlet pressure to forced fan
- C- Pressure below the Grate
- D- Pressure above the Grate
- E- Inlet pressure of Induced fan
- F - Outlet pressure of Induced fan

The figures 2. 14(a) and 2. 14(b) shows the arrangement of various components in balanced draught system and pressure distribution through the system. The forced draught fan pushes the atmospheric air through the fuel bed on to the top of the grate, thus over comes the resistance of fuel bed. This also provides sufficient air supply to the fuel bed for complete combustion. The induced draught fan sucks in the gases from the furnace and discharge them to the atmosphere through chimney. This maintains a pressure in the furnace just below atmosphere. This prevents blow-off of flames as the air leakage is inwards. In the furnace, the pressure is near to atmospheric and hence there is no chance of blowout of flames. Below the grate, the pressure is greater than atmospheric and it helps for proper and uniform combustion.

Advantages of Mechanical draught over natural draught

1. Easy control of combustion and evaporation.

2. The draught available is independent of the atmospheric temperature.
3. It also uses low grade fuels, as the intensity of draught is high.
4. The regulation of airflow as per requirement is possible by changing the draught pressure.
5. Plant efficiency can be improved.

1.11 Cooling Towers and Ponds

Modern steam power plants reject 10 to 15% of heat input to the atmosphere through boiler chimneys. At least 50% of the heat input is rejected as unavailable energy to a cooling water system through the steam condensers. In nuclear power plants, about 67% to 68% of the heat generated within the reactor is rejected to the water through steam condensers. The main steam condenser serves two purposes, one is to remove the rejected heat from the plant cycle and other is to keep the turbine back pressure at the lowest possible level. It transfers latent heat of the exhaust steam to water, which is exposed to the atmosphere. Therefore, the steam condensers require huge quantity of water for cooling purposes. In an open system, the water requirement is about 5 times the flow of steam to the condenser. Approximately, a condenser uses 50 gallons of water per kWh for cooling and about 5% additional quantity is required for other purposes such as ash quenching, bearing cooling and boiler make-up water etc. The high cost of the water makes it use cooling towers for water cooled condensers. A 1000 MW capacity plant uses about 100 thousand tons of circulating water per day even with the use of cooling towers. Thus, the source of cooling water should supply this huge quantity of cooling water.

The cooling water may be obtained from:

- 1) River or Sea
- 2) Cooling Ponds
- 3) Spray Ponds
- 4) Cooling Towers.

Condenser water cooling systems

Open or once through or River water system: In this system, a pump draws water on the up stream side of the river and delivers it to a condenser. The condenser discharges water at 5 to 10°C greater than inlet temperature, to the down stream side of the river. This system is used, when the plant is located on the bank of river or lake. The inlet and discharge points should be kept as large as one kilometer or even more to avoid recirculation of water, which affects the efficiency of the condensing plant.

Closed system

This system is suitable when adequate quantity of cooling water is not available from river. In this system, the required quantity of water is collected from river during flood or when sufficient water is available. The condenser discharges hot water to a spray pond or cooling tower for cooling purpose and uses same water again and again. Additional water is required from source to compensate evaporation losses and carryover losses in towers.

Cooling ponds

Spray ponds or cooling towers are recommended when the power plant is not located. The simplest type of cooling water system is the pond or spray pond, which relies upon wind that blows across the ponds and cools fine sprays of water by evaporation. The hot water is discharged through a pipeline to a pond, which is a large shallow pool and is exposed to the atmospheric air. The cooling of hot water is effected by the air blowing across the surface of the pond. The hot water dissipates heat to the air by convection and evaporation processes. Some water particles evaporate by absorbing latent heat of vaporization to cool the remaining water. Evaporation and windage loss is about 2 to 3%. The rate of cooling may be increased by increasing the area of the pond. The use of spraying system overcomes such difficulty. The spray system increases the contact of water with atmosphere by spraying the water into the air over pond. A nozzle is used for this purpose and the pond is known as spray pond and a pond without spray or any other cooling device is simply termed as "cooling pond".

Directed flow natural cooling pond:

Design requirements of cooling ponds

1. To obtain maximum cooling, the distance between spray nozzles and water surface about 1 to 2m.
2. The nozzles are arranged in such a way that there is no interference between the sprays produced.
3. The nozzle pressure should be 1.5 bar to obtain better atomization of water.
4. The spacing between the distributing pipes may be 6 to 7m apart.

Spray ponds

A cooling pond is converted into spray pond by locating a series of sprays above the surface of water. The water pressure in the nozzles is from 0.21 to 1.5 bar. The hot water from the condenser is sprayed through the nozzle over a pond of large area. The nozzles break water into a spray. The whirling motion of the nozzles results in better atomization of the water and produces cooling effect, which is mainly due to evaporation from the surface of water. Spray nozzles are placed to 2m

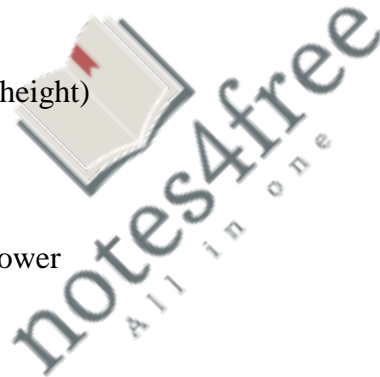
distance between nozzles should be such that, there is no interference between the diffenspraysproducedby nozzles.

Cooling Towers:

The cooling towers are effectively used to cool the condenser water so that the powerstationmay be located near the load centre to meet increased demand of electric power. Thecooling towers are used when positive cont~ol on the temperature of water is required, spaceoccupation is a considerable factor and the power station is located near the load centre andforawayfrom the river. The purpose of cooling towers is to cool the hot water discharged from condenser andfeed the cooled water back to the condenser. They reduce the quantity of cooling water requiredin the power plant.

Thefactorswhichaffectthe coolingof waterin a cooling tower are

- 1) Temperatureof air
- 2) Airhumidity
- 3) Temperatureof hot air
- 4) Dimensionsof the tower (size and height)
- 5) Airvelocity entering the tower
- 6) Platearrangements in towers
- 7) Air accessibility over all parts of tower
- 8) Uniformityin descending water.



Dependingupon design and plant loading, the quantity of cooling water required is 18 x 107Kgperhour.In order to cool such .huge quantity of water, large volumes of air are required. ForExample in, a750MW plant, in order to dissipate the condenser heat 10<¥1th, e air mass flow raterangesfrom38.5x 106kg/hour to 45 x 106kgfhourfor a mechanical draughtcooling tower

natural draught cooling towers: It is further classified into three types:

Natural draught spray filled tower:

In this type, the airflows in thetransverse direction and thecirculation of whichdependson thewind velocity. The water droplets are made to fallandtheflowof airiscrosswiseto theflow of water.BThe water is cooledby air flowingacrossthe tower.Theuse of spray nozzles increases rateof cooling.Thecooledwateris thencollected in a tank below the towerand then supplied to

condenser. These towers are suitable for diesel plants and small capacity power plants. Due to the limitation in the cooling range, suffers from the problems of high windage losses and there is no control over the outlet temperature of water. The capacity of this tower is limited to 50 to 100 liters/min per m^2 of base area and again it depends on the velocity of air.

Packed atmospheric cooling tower

Natural draught packed type tower:

The working of this tower is similar to that of previous one except that the use of packings. The water descends vertically and airflow is cross wise, while descending water is broken into small droplets by packings. These towers are rarely used as the initial and maintenance costs are high.

High Pressure Boilers, Draught Cooling Towers and Accessories:

Disadvantages:

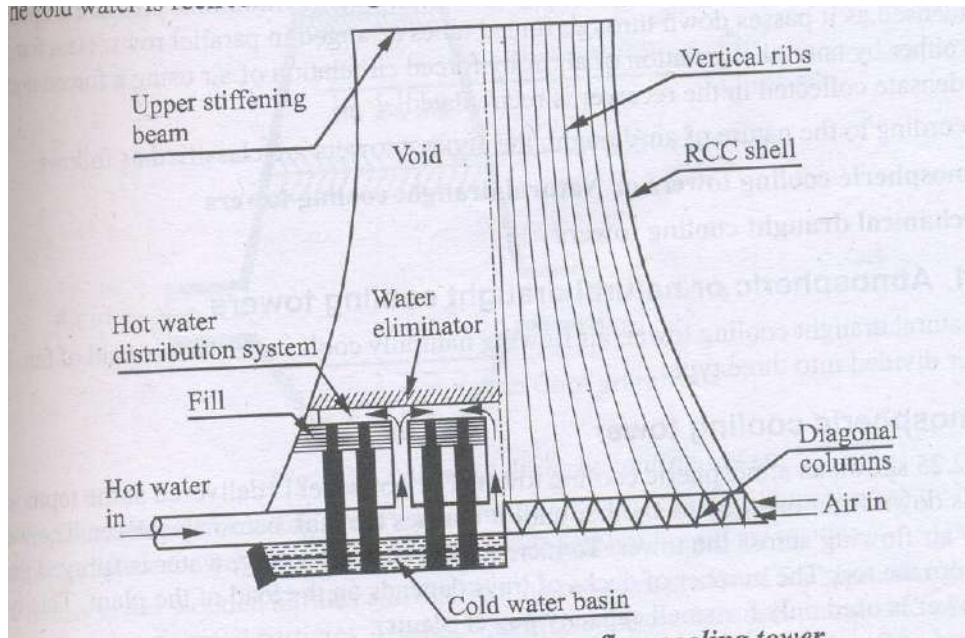
- 1) Its initial cost is high.
- 2) Seasonal changes in DBT and RH of air influence the performance of towers.

The use of this tower is favorable over mechanical towers in terms of saving in fan power, longer life and less maintenance. It is mainly used for large capacity plants.

Mechanical draught cooling towers

In this type, the air is moved by one or more mechanically driven fans. It provides closer approach to WBT, gives higher efficiency, requires less floor area and reduces windage and spray losses. In spite of higher initial and operating cost, the mechanical draught tower boosts up overall plant economy. These towers are constructed in cells or units and the number of cells in the tower decides the capacity of the tower. The mechanical draught towers are independent of natural draught or wind velocity, and airflow is created by fans. The flow of air with high velocity increases efficiency of tower and rate of cooling.

Forced draught towers:



The arrangement of the forced draught tower is the interior structure is similar to natural draught tower, but the sides are closed to form an air and water tight structure. The air enters through an opening, which is water provided at the base of the tower and leaves the tower at the top. The fans provided at the base of the tower create airflow through the descending water in the tower. This type is preferred because the fans would operate on cooler air side and hence consumes less power. The hot water from the condenser enters the Cold Nozzles and is sprayed over the packings as water out shown in figure. The raising air, cools the water and at the top, the draught eliminators remove entrained water from the air.

Induced draught cooling tower (counter flow type)

The forced draught towers have some disadvantages because of air distribution problem leakages, recirculation of hot and moist exit air back to the tower and local fogging at the fan in during winter seasons. Therefore, for utility applications induced draught type towers are used. In this type, the fan is located at the top of the tower where it exhausts the hot humid air to the atmosphere. Air enters the tower from the sides through large openings with low velocity flows through the tower in the upward direction. The hot water from the condenser enters nozzles and is sprayed over the packings as shown in figure. As the air moves up, it cools water and the cooled water is collected in a tank at the bottom of the tower. Water eliminators are provided at the top of the tower to eliminate the water entrained from the air.

The factors, which influence the effective cooling of water are: f

- 1) DBT and WET of atmospheric air
- 2) Inlet temperature of water
- 3) Size and height of tower
- 4) Air velocity and its quantity
- 5) Arrangement of the fill
- 6) Water distribution system

Indirect dry cooling towers

This system is also known as Heller cooling system as it was first presented by Lazlo Heller in 1956.

The arrangement of the components is as shown in fig. 2.31. In this type, the condensation of exhaust steam takes place in a spray condenser by means of circulating water. The condenser discharges a major portion of water to the cooling coils and remaining which is equal to the exhaust steam from the turbine, is supplied to the boiler feed water circuit. A fan induces flow of air in the system as shown in figure cools the hot condensate in the cooling coils. The cooled water is then spread through the nozzle into the condenser. The steam from the turbine is condensed by coming in direct contact with water sprayed through the nozzle. Some of the pressure and elevation head is recovered by using water turbine between cooling coils and condenser. As there is no direct contact between circulating water and cooling air, no evaporation loss occurs in the system.

High Pressure Boilers, Draught Cooling Towers and Accessories

Advantages of Dry cooling towers

1. There is no thermal pollution and evaporation loss of water.
2. It eliminates the necessity of locating the plant near the water source. The plant may be situated near to load centre.
3. The air pollution is reduced to a great extent.
4. It is free from windage loss, fog problem, evaporation loss etc.

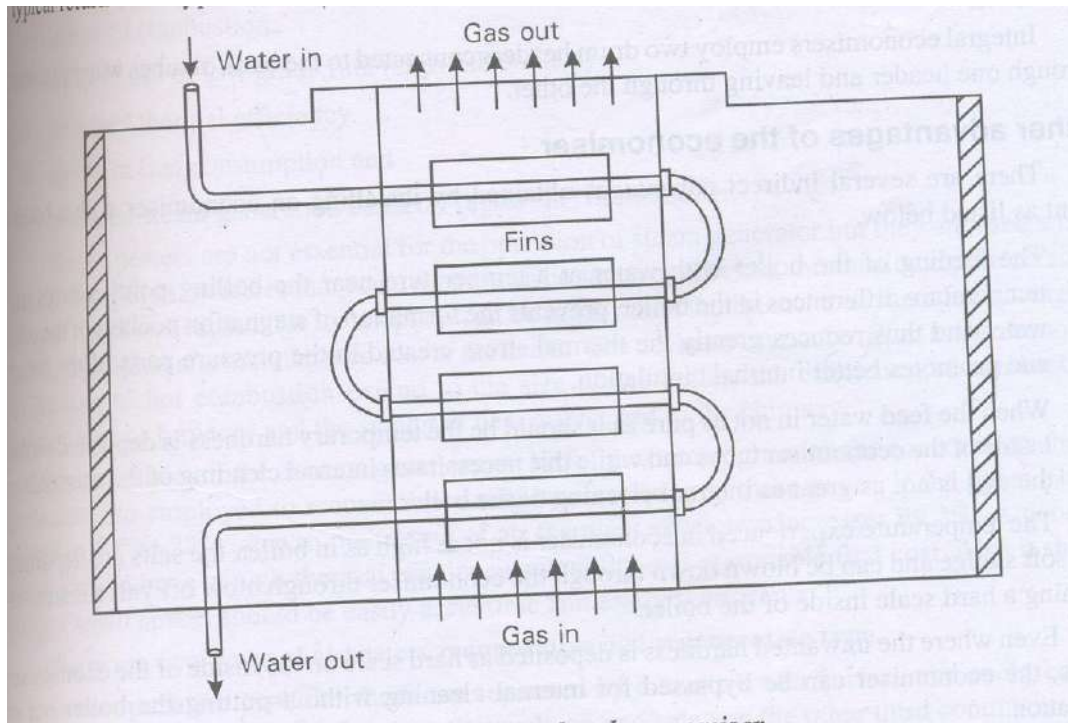
Disadvantages of dry cooling towers

1. It uses large volume of air with large surface areas due to low heat transfer co-efficient

2. At high natural air temperatures, these towers are less effective.
3. The performance of these towers is limited by DBT and hence turbine exhaust temperatures are much higher which leads to loss of turbine efficiency.

1.12 Accessories for the Steam generators

Economizers



The Economizer is a heat exchanger which raises the temperature of feed water by deriving heat from the flue gases discharged from the boiler. It raises feed water temperature to its saturation temperature corresponding to the boiler pressure. The heat is derived from the hot gases the last super heater or reheater at a temperature varying from 370°C to 540°C. The use of an economizer improves the thermal efficiency of the plant and better economy can be achieved. The justifiable cost depends on the total gain in efficiency, which in turn depends upon the exit temperature leaving the boiler and feed water temperature to the boiler. Economizers are introduced before feed water heating. The cost benefits achieved with the use of economic depend upon the boiler size, type of the fuel used and flue gas temperature leaving the boiler. For every 6°C raise in temperature of feed water, 1% of the fuel cost can be saved and saving a maximum of 20% is

possible. In the economizer, the steam formation can be avoided by heating the feed water less than or within 25°C of the temperature corresponding to saturation temperature of the steam.

Economizer tubes are made of steel either smooth or covered with fins. Generally economizer tubes are 45-70 mm in outside diameter and are made in vertical coils of continuous tubes connected between inlet and outlet headers with each section divided into several horizontal paths connected by 180° vertical bends for proper draining. The coils are installed at a pitch of 45 to 50 mm spacing, which depends upon the type of fuel and ash characteristics.

Advantages:

- 1) The temperature range between various parts of the boiler is reduced. This decreases stresses due to unequal expansion.
- 2) The use of economizer prevents the cold water to enter into boiler and hence, prevents chilling of the boiler.
- 3) It reduces the consumption of fuel.
- 4) It reduces heat loss with flue gases thereby, increases thermal efficiency of the plant.
- 5) It increases the evaporation capacity of the boiler.
- 6) A large amount of soot and fly ash is deposited on the economizer tubes and scrapped off into the soot chamber. This reduces the emission of soot and fly ash.

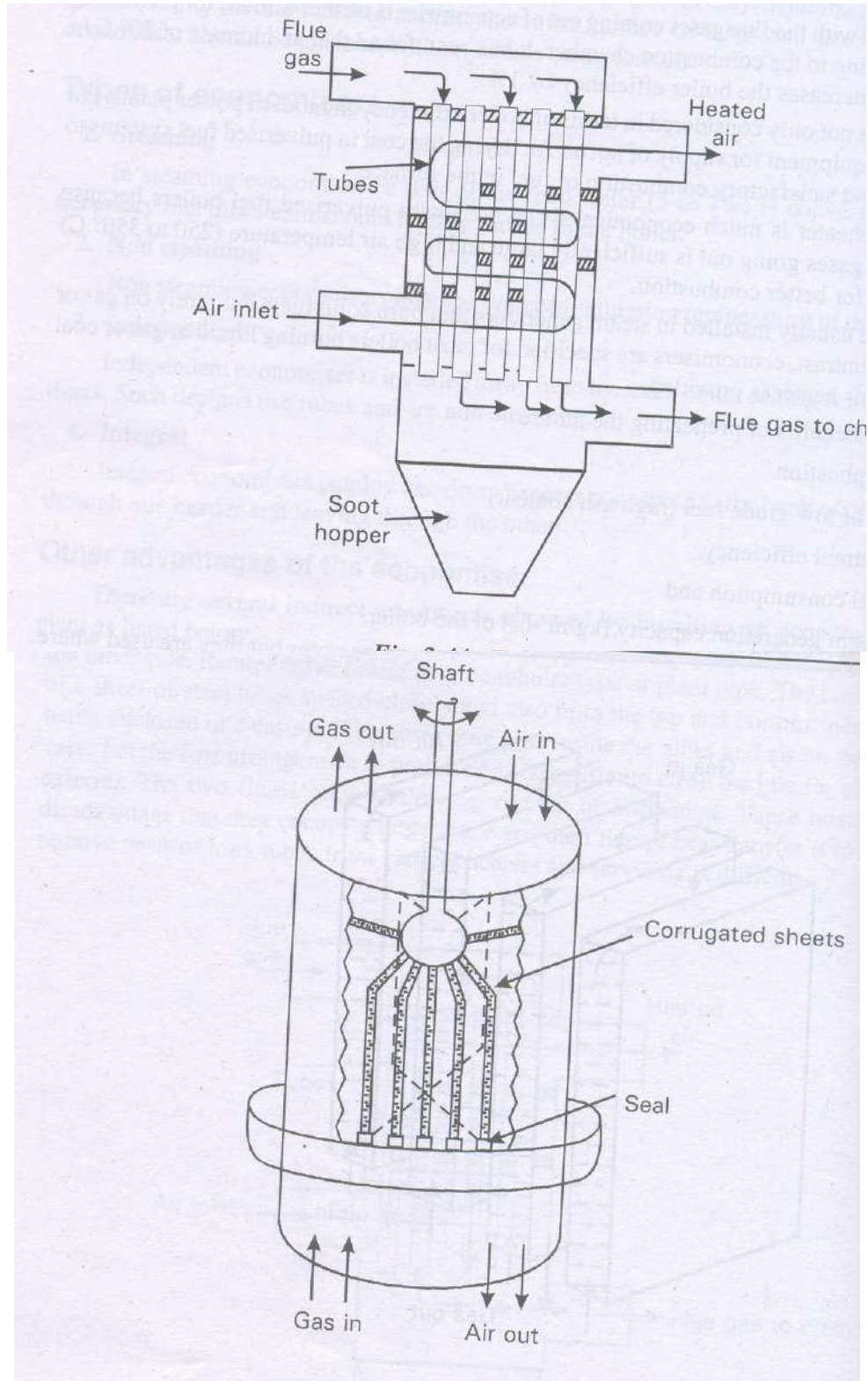
Disadvantages:

- 1) Sometimes installation cost is high.
- 2) It is expensive in terms of maintenance and regular cleaning.
- 3) It uses extra floor space in the boiler. A simplified view of a return bend economizer. It consists of a series of steel tubes through which the feed water flows.

Air preheaters

There are two types of air preheaters: 1) Tubular type 2) Plate Type.

Tubular Type Air Preheater:



It consists of series of tubes through which the combustion gases pass with air passing around the outside of the tubes. The combustion gases transfer heat to the air and heated this preheated air is supplied to the furnace. The baffle plates deflect the direction of

air travels, thereby increasing heat transfer by increasing the time of contact between hot gas and air. Steel tubes of 6 to 8 cm diameter and 3 to 10 meter heights are commonly used. The air preheater may be provided with one or more passes for both air and gas in counter or cross flow, in vertical or horizontal arrangements. The smaller the tube diameter, larger the number of tubes, the greater the surface area for a given overall size. Smaller diameter tubes result in more compact heaters. Tube diameter to be used Super heaters The boiler produces steam in the saturated condition. The steam in this condition should be used in the turbine because, the dryness fraction of the steam decreases due to expansion in the turbine and the resulting moisture content in the steam may corrode the turbine blades. This difficulty is solved by raising the temperature of steam above its saturation temperature and superheaters are used for this purpose. The superheated steam contains more heat than that of saturated steam at the same pressure and the added heat provides more energy for the turbine for conversion to electric power.

Super heaters

The boiler produces steam in the saturated condition. The steam in this condition should not be used in the turbine because, the dryness fraction of the steam decreases due to expansion in the turbine and the resulting moisture content in the steam may corrode the turbine blades. This difficulty is solved by raising the temperature of steam above its saturation temperature and super heaters are used for this purpose. The super heated steam contains more heat than that of saturated steam at the same pressure and the added heat provides more energy for the turbine for conversion to electric power.

The super heater is one type of heat exchanger in which heat is transferred to the saturated steam to increase its temperature sufficiently above the saturation temperature and to remove the last traces of moisture (about 1 to 2%) from the saturated steam. It increases the overall cycle efficiency and prevents blade erosion by avoiding too much condensation in the last stages of the turbine. This also increases internal efficiency of turbine. The moisture is to be removed by using heat of flue gases in the super heaters.

The advantages of using the super heated steam are:

- 1) Reduction in steam consumption in turbine or engine.
- 2) Reduction in condensation losses in the cylinders and steam pipes.
- 3) The use of super heated steam eliminates turbine blade erosion.
- 4) Increases the efficiency of the steam power plant.

In utility boilers, super heater tubes are 50 to 75 mm in outer diameter. The smaller diameter tubes have lower pressure stresses and withstand them better. The pressure drop in the steam flow is lower in larger diameter tubes. The super heater surface has steam on one side and hot gases on the other side. Therefore, the tubes are dry except for the steam which circulates through them. Tubes overheating is prevented by designing the superheater to accommodate the heat transfer required for a given steam velocity based on the desired exit temperature.

Super heaters are referred to as convection, radiant or combined types, depending on how heat is transferred from the hot gases to steam. In convective super heaters, the main mode of heat transfer between combustion gases and the super heater tubes is convection and these are located in convective zone of the furnace, usually ahead of the economizer. The convective super heaters are also referred as "primary super heaters" as the saturated steam from the boiler directly enters into these super heaters. .

1.13 Question Bank

1. List the different types of fuels used in thermal Power plants
2. With the help of a neat sketch explain the furnace for combustion of fine coal.
3. Enumerate and explain the steps involved in the handling of the coal
4. Explain with a neat sketch overfeed and underfeed firing of coal
5. List the requirements of pulverized coal burners.
6. Sketch and explain cyclone burner. State its advantages and Disadvantages
7. Describe the multi retort stoker with a help of a neat sketch
8. With a neat sketch explain the principle of Spreader stoker
9. Draw a line diagram of Pneumatic ash Handling System
10. What are the factors to be considered for the establishment of thermal power plant? Explain them Briefly
11. Draw a general layout of a thermal power plant and explain various circuits
12. Why pulverization is required? Explain any one method with help of a neat sketch.
13. List the various boiler Accessories.
14. Derive an expression to find the height of a chimney for a given Static Draught
15. Determine the height of a chimney to produce a static draught of 20mm of water. The mean flue gas temperature in the chimney is 270°C and atmospheric air temperature is 23°C . Barometer reads 760mm of Hg. The gas constant for air is 287 N-m/kg K and for the chimney gas is 255 N-m/Kg K
16. Explain the working of forced draught and induced draught with help of a neat sketch.
17. What are cooling ponds? Explain the double deck system of cooling pond
18. What are the benefits of air pre heater?

1.14 Outcomes:

Student should be able to understand the

1. Properties of different fuels used for steam generation.
2. Main Components and working of steam power plant

1.15 Further reading:

1. Power Plant Engineering, P. K. Nag Tata McGraw Hill 2nd edn 2001
2. Power Plant Engineering, Domakundawar, Dhanpath Rai sons. 2003
3. <https://cracku.in/blog/list-of-thermal-power-plants-in-india-with-capacity-pdf>



Module 2: DIESEL ENGINE POWER SYSTEM, HYDRO ELECTRIC ENERGY

Structure

Objectives

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Advantages and disadvantages of diesel Power Plants;
- 2.3 Layout of a diesel power plant
- 2.4 Engine Intake system
- 2.5 Engine exhaust system
- 2.6 Fuel System
- 2.7 Cooling System
- 2.8 Lubrication system
- 2.9 Starting System
- 2.10 Introduction to hydro power
- 2.11 Elements of hydro electric power plant
- 2.12 Classification of Hydro Plant
- 2.13 Storage and Pondage
- 2.14 Hydrology
- 2.15 Hydrograph
- 2.16 Flow duration curve
- 2.17 Mass curve
- 2.18 Surge Tank
- 2.19 Gates
- 2.20 Summary
- 2.21 Question bank
- 2.22 Outcomes
- 2.23 Further Reading



Objectives

After studying this unit, student should be able to

- Know about layout diesel engine power plant,
- Understand about cooling and lubricationsystem in diesel engine plant
- Know about intake and exhaust system in diesel engine power plant

2.1 Introduction

We know that, all types of automobiles including tractors, trucks and buses use internal combustion engines. These internal combustion engines can also be used for power generation where the supply of coal and water is not available in abundant quantity. These plants are suitable for small and medium outputs and can be used as stand by plants to hydro electric power plants and thermal power plants. These can also be used to meet peak load demand in some power plants and can be used to supply the seasonal electric loads. Low capacity plants use petrol engines and are meant primarily for emergency service. A large capacity plant uses diesel engines for power generation. The capacity of these plants ranges from 2 to 50 MW and are used as stand by sets in hospitals, cinemas, telephone exchanges, radio stations etc. It is one of the most economic means of generating electricity in a small scale where cheap fuels are not available and load factors are considerably high.

In a steam plant, one or more diesel generating units may be installed to serve as stand by or to supply peak loads of small duration. As stand by, these units may provide for the total residential load of the power plant. In thermal plant, the diesel generators supply power for auxiliaries in case of failure of main working units. In industrial plant where the steam is used for process work, diesel engines supply power during seasons when steam for process work is not required.

2.2 Advantages and disadvantages of diesel Power Plants;

Advantages

1. Very simple in design and easy to install
2. The plant can be located very near to the load centre.
3. The overall capital cost per unit of installed capacity is lesser than thermal or hydro plant.
4. The plant requires lesser operating and supervising staff.
5. Fuel handling is easier and no ash disposal problem.
6. The cooling water requirement is less.
7. It can be quickly installed and commissioned and can be put on load quickly.
8. It can meet sudden changes in the load without much difficulty.

Disadvantages

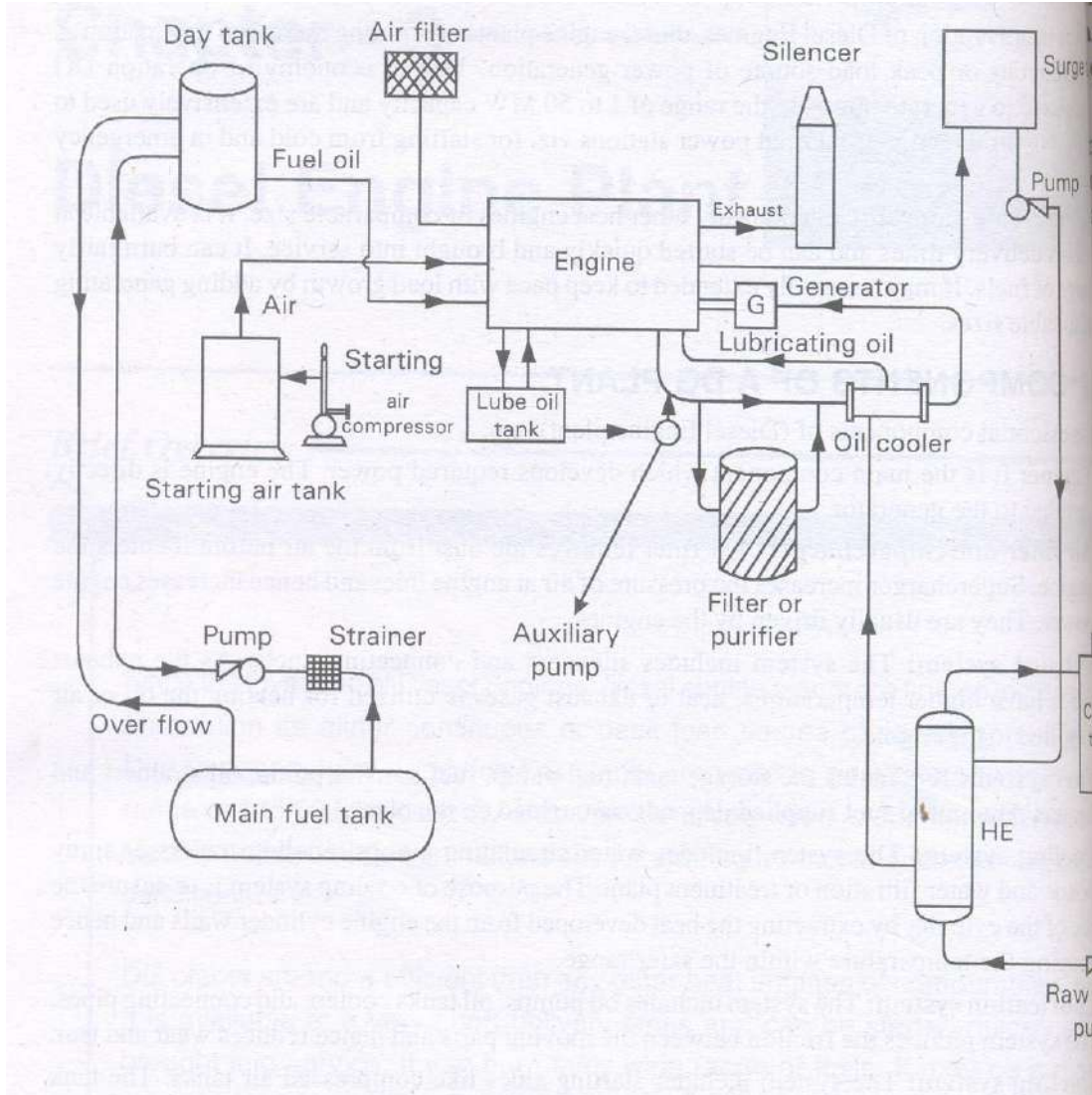
1. The size of the unit is limited and very large capacity plants are not possible.

2. The operating cost is high.
3. Lubricating cost and maintenance costs are high.
4. The plant cost per KW is comparatively more.
5. Noise *from* the exhaust is a serious problem.
6. The life of the plant is limited to 2 to 5 years when compared to thermal plants.

Applications of diesel Power Plants

1. It can be used as peak load *or* stand by unit *for* hydel plants.
2. It can be used as mobile plants *for* temporary *or* emergency purposes (for large civil engineering works etc..)
3. These can be used in emergency cases where power interruption would result in financial loss *or* danger, in key industrial processes, tunnel lighting and operating rooms of hospitals,
4. It can be used as a Nursery station. The plant supplies power to a small town in absence of main grid and can be moved to another area which needs power in a small scale when the main grid is available is known as "Nursery station".
5. It can also be used as starting station. The plant runs the auxiliaries *for* starting the large thermal plants.

2.3 Layout of a diesel power plant



2.4 Engine Intake system

A large diesel engine requires 0.076 to 0.114 m³/min of air per kW of power developed, the air intake system supplies required quantity of air for combustion. The system consists of a pipe line which connects source of fresh air and engine manifold. Filters are provided to remove dust from the air, otherwise dust particles may cause wear and tear of the engine. These filters may be of dry type (made up of cloth, felt, glass, wool etc.,) or oil bath type. Electrostatic Precipitator filters can also be used. In oil bath type of filters the air is swept over or through a bath of oil, so that the dust particles are gets coated. The intake ducts are made up of light weight steel. Some

times, a silencer may be used between the engine and intake since the noise may be transmitted back to the outside air via the air intake system. In the air intake system, pressure loss should be minimum. If pressure loss is high, it reduces engine capacity and increases specific fuel consumption. Therefore in total, the functions of air intake system are:

- i) To clean the air supplied to the engine
- ii) To silence the intake air.
- iii) To supply air for supercharging.

2.5 Engine exhaust system

Engine exhaust system including ducts, mufflers, water heaters, silencers etc.,

The exhaust system is used to convey the exhaust gases to the atmosphere outside the building. It also consists of a silencer to reduce the noise level. A muffler provided in the exhaust pipe reduces the pressure in the exhaust line and reduces the noise. Some times, a device may be used in the path of exhaust gases to recover heat of exhaust gases. The exhaust pipe coming out of buildings should have one or two flexible tubing sections in order to isolate the system from vibration by taking the effect of vibration. Its length should be shorter and should have minimum number of bends. Every engine should be provided with an independent exhaust system.

The points to be considered in the design of exhaust system are;

1. The noise level should be minimum.
2. The system should discharge the exhaust sufficiently above the ground level.
3. The duct should take up effect of expansion and contraction due to temperature variation.
4. As back pressure imposed on the engine reduces engine power, it should be kept minimum
5. The flexible tubing sections are to be used in the exhaust pipe in order to isolate the system from vibration.

2.6 Fuel System

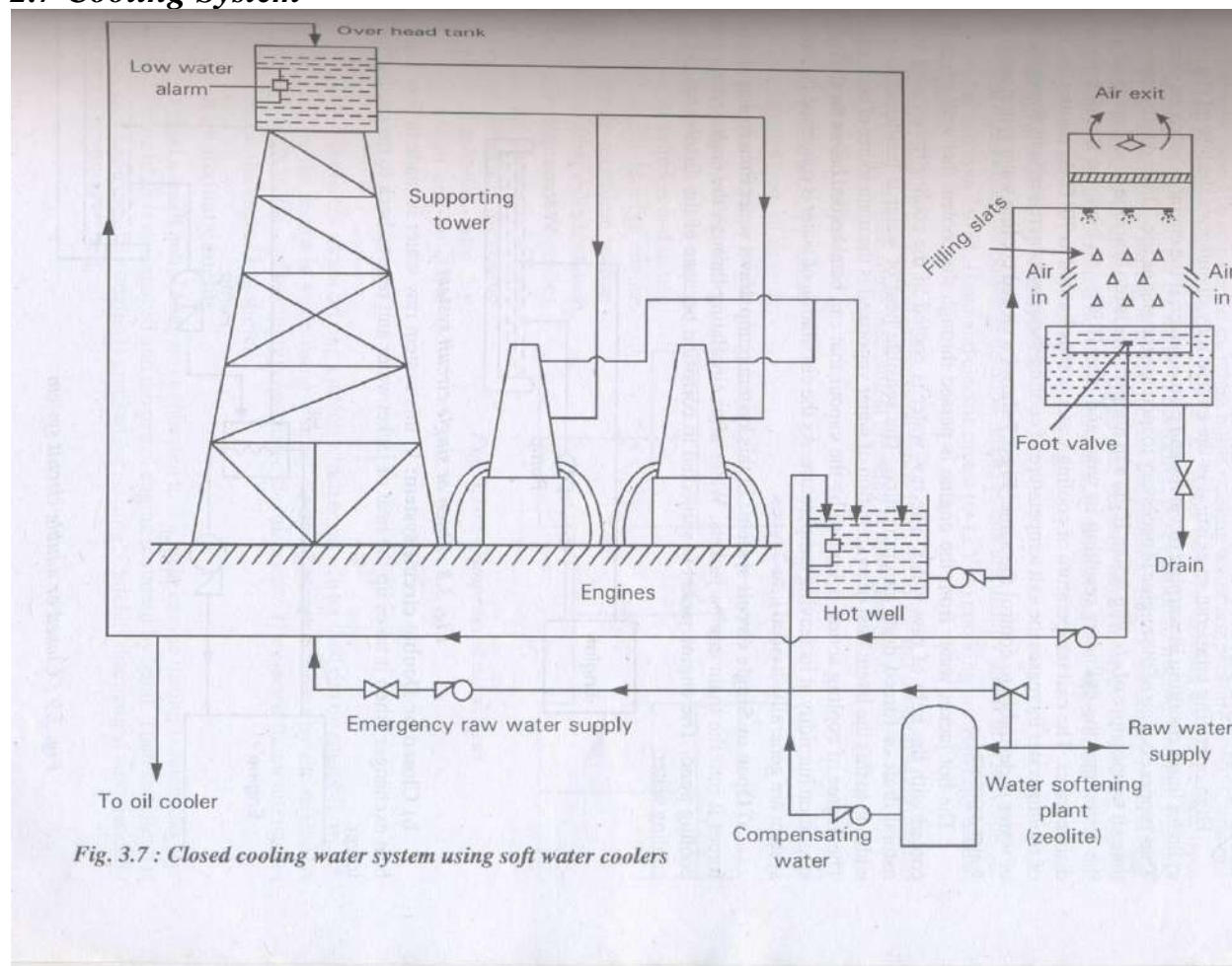
The fuel system includes fuel storage tanks, fuel transfer pumps, strainers, heaters and connecting pipes. The trucks, rail road tank cars, or barge and tankers are used to deliver the fuel oil to the plant site. Then, fuel oil is delivered to main storage tanks through unloading facility. Then the transfer pumps are used to deliver fuel oil to smaller service storage tanks (day tanks). For the main flow, piping arrangement is made with necessary heaters, by-passes, shut offs, drain lines, relief valves, strainers, filters, flow meters, and temperature indicators. The minimum sto

range capacity of maintenance should satisfy at least a month's requirement of oil. But in order to avail the advantage of price fluctuations of the fuel, it is essential to provide storage of few months requirement. The capacity of the daily consumption tank should be at least the 8 hours requirement of the plant. Usually these tanks are located above the engine level so that the oil may flow to the engines under gravity.

The fuel oil supply system has to satisfy certain requirements for its satisfactory working;

1. Provisions should be made for cleaning and changing over of lines during emergency.
2. Tight pipe joints should be used in all suction lines.
3. The oil flushing is done through the piping between filter and engine before being placed in service.
4. High grade filters are to be used to hold water, dirt, metallic chips and other foreign matter.

2.7 Cooling System



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The cooling system in a diesel plant includes coolant pumps, cooling towers or spray ponds, water filtration plant and pipes. The purpose of cooling system is to provide proper circulation of cooling water all around. The engine is kept at a reasonably lower level. If the engine is not cooled properly, the high temperature existing in the engine (cylinder and piston are exposed to high temperature of the order of 1000 to 1500°C) would disintegrate the film of lubricating oil, causes warping of valves, piston etc., The overheating of engine would cause damage to the piston, piston rings, head and cylinder liners. A pump circulates water through cylinder and head jackets to carry away the heat. Some heat is also taken away by the lubricating oil. Same water should be used again and again and hence a method of cooling the cooling water is required. This is achieved by passing water through radiators, evaporative coolers, cooling towers, spray ponds etc., nearly 25% to 35% of total heat of the fuel is removed by the cooling system. The heat taken away by Oil and radiation heat lost accounts to 3% to 5% of total heat supplied.

3.8 Cooling system for diesel engine

The cooling system in a diesel plant includes coolant pumps, cooling towers or spray ponds, water filtration plant and connecting pipes. The function of cooling system is to provide proper circulation of cooling water all around the engines to keep the temperature at safe level. Under cooling raises engine temperature, decreases engine performance and its life. Excessive cooling makes the combustion poor and affects the fuel economy. It increases viscosity of oil due to low temperature and hence increases power loss due to friction. Basically there are two methods of cooling,

i. Air cooling

ii. Liquid cooling

Air cooling: In this method, engine cylinder is directly exposed to atmospheric air which carries the heat from the cylinder. The cylinder is finned, particularly heavily near the exhaust. The use of fins over engine cylinder provides additional heat transfer surfaces, thereby increasing the rate.

Water or Liquid cooling: In this method, the cylinder walls and heads are surrounded with cooling water jackets. The water while circulating through jackets, takes the heat from

cylinder walls by convection and conduction. The heated water itself is cooled by circulating it through air cooled radiator system. In stationary diesel engine plants the water cooling systems are used and areas follows;

i) Open or single circuit system

Water is pumped from cooling pond to the main engine jackets. After circulation, water is returned to the cooling pond by spraying through nozzles. The dissolved gases in the cooling water may corrode the cylinder jackets.

ii) Closed or double circuit cooling system

Double circuit cooling system

In this system, heat exchanger is used in between engine and cooling pond. The water from the pond is pumped through the heat exchanger, where it takes the heat from jacket water and is returned to the cooling pond. The cooled water is again pumped back to the engine side. This method eliminates internal jacket corrosion.

3 Evaporative cooling: In this method, a large surface of the hot water is exposed to an airflow, hereby humidifies the air and cool the remaining water. This can be done by providing cooling towers, evaporative water etc., The cooling action is same in all of them. The atmosphere is a mixture of air and water vapour in proportion and is described by humidity. Proper latent heat of evaporation must be supplied for vapourization of water. The source of heat may be internal energy of the liquid water from which the vapour is being produced. During the process of humidification, some of the warm water goes off into the atmosphere and make up water of 2.5% of water flow must be added to the system.

Atmospheric towers are long and having narrow structures with considerable height. The axis (vertical) of the tower is normal to the prevailing wind and are built to utilize horizontal wind movements. From the top of the towers, waterfalls through the air currents and evaporatively cooled. These towers are not used in diesel power plants. For effective cooling, tower should be sufficiently high. The cooling water is collected and pumped from the bottom of the tower and supplied to the engine for cooling. A fan is provided in

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mechanical draught cooling tower. The use of fan reduces the height of tower. Depending on location, the fan used could be a forced draught type or Induced draught type. The falling water meets the air which is flowing in the opposite direction..

An evaporative cooler is one in which the cooler is constructed from steel including a heat exchanger for cooling the water. This type is not suitable for diesel plants. The evaporative cooling is also known as steam or vapour cooling in which the cooling water temperature reaches to a temperature of 100°C. The cooling of water can be done with minimum of water by using high latent heat of vapourization. The coolant is always in the liquid state, but the steam formed is flashed off in a separate vessel. The fresh water so formed is returned back for cooling. This system is used in many industrial engines. Spray eliminators

Radiator in place of cooling towers, cooling ponds and spray ponds are used. But these are inefficient for bigger power plants.

Lubrication for the diesel engine: As discussed, the role of lubrication system is more important in diesel power plant than any other plant because of very high pressures and small clearances in these engines.

The lubrication system influences the engine life, efficiency and the extent to which the engine is put in continuous service.

In a diesel engine, the following are the main parts which require lubrication,

1. Piston and cylinders.
2. Crankshaft and connecting rod bearings.
3. Gears and other mechanism used for power transmission.
4. Integral injection or scavenging air compressors.

Lubrication may be classified into

1. Full pressure lubrication similar to that used in automobile engines.

2. Mechanical force-feeds lubrication and gravity lubrication from an overhead tank. In a pressure lubrication system, an oil pump is used to deliver the lubricant under pressure to various parts of the engine through a duct system and to the crankshaft and wrist pin bearings by drilled passages in the shaft and rods. For lubrication of cylinder walls, oil mist is blown outward from the connecting rod bearings or splash lubrication method is used. Mechanical force-feed lubrication is used to effect the lubrication of cylinders of large and slow speed engines. The crankcase serves the purpose of oil sump from where the oil may be withdrawn by a pump. The lubricating oil, during its circulation through the lubrication cycle accumulates impurities such as carbon particles, water and metal scrap and is cleaned by settling, centrifuging, filtering or chemical reclaiming. Mechanical filters such as cloth bags, wool felt pads, paper discs and cartridges of porous material are used for cleaning the oil. In centrifugal cleaning, first screen filters are used to clean the oil and then the oil is passed through high speed centrifuges for ultimate cleaning. The oil should be heated, before it enters to the centrifugal cleaner. The oil consumption is in the range of 2.27×10^{-6} to $4.10 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^3$ per kW hour. In chemical reclaiming method, terfiltering, a combination of heat and activated clay are used. In settling method, impurities are made to settle down by allowing the hot oil to enter in to a large tank. Clean oil is then used from the top of the tank. The lubricating oil gets heated due to friction between rubbing surfaces and should be cooled before recirculation. The lubricating oil absorbs about 2.5% of the heat of the fuel. The hot lubricating oil may be cooled with the help of cooling water used for engine cooling. The lubricating oil consumption is about 1% of fuel consumption (3 litres per 1000 kWhr generated at full load conditions).

2.8 Lubrication system

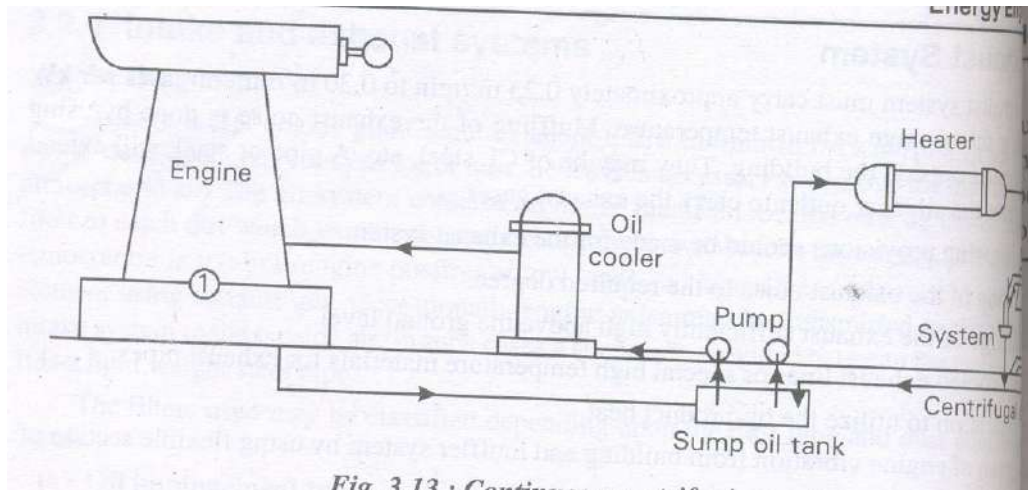


Fig. 3.13 : Continuous centrifuging system

The lubrication system includes oil pumps, oil tanks, filters, coolers, purifiers and connecting pipes. The purpose of lubrication system is to reduce the friction and wear of the rubbing surfaces.

Lubricating oil is used to

1. Lubricate the moving parts
2. Remove heat from cylinder and bearings
3. Carry away solid matter from rubbing moving parts.
4. Absorb the shock between bearings and other parts and consequently reduce noise. Pumps are used to deliver the oil to the engine and the oil is recirculated under pressure.

The lubrication system has to effect the lubrication of following engine parts.

1. Main crank shaft bearings
 - i. Big-end bearing
 - ii. Small end or gudgeon pin bearings
 - iii. Cylinder walls and piston rings
 - iv. Tuning gears.
 - v. Crankshaft and its bearings
 - vi. Valve mechanism
 - vii. Valve guides, valve tappets and rocker arms.

3.9 Lubricating system (continuous centrifuging system)

The lubricating oil in use is subject to changes in operating temperature and results in formation of sludge and varnish. Therefore, it is necessary to use the oil with engine cleaning properties. In order to improve the oil characteristics, additives such as anti oxidants, detergents, corrosion inhibitors are added with straight mineral oils. Anti oxidants are used to prevent chemical reaction with oxygen and due to heating. The addition of detergents keep the engine clean by controlling lacquer and preventing the deposition of carbon, soot, dirt and combustion

products on piston and rings. A protective film is formed on engine parts due to the addition of corrosion inhibitors and this film protects the engine parts from corrosion acids, which is due to the presence of sulphur in the fuel.

Filters and centrifuges

Filters and centrifuges are used to arrest dirt, metallic chips or other foreign substances in the fuel. Filters may be of dry type and made up of cloth, felt, glass, filter paper, some cellulose material wool etc., or oil bath type. In the latter type, the oil is swept over or through an oil bath filter, which retains the oil coated dust particles. The clean fuel oil provides trouble free operation of the engine. The use of bulk storage tanks removes most of the suspended impurities, water dirt etc. from the oil, if it is light and allowed to stand in the storage tank for some time. This method is too effective, if heavy oils are used or if the temperature of oils is below 10°C . Hence cleaning done by filtration and centrifuging when the oil is transferred from bulk storage tanks to the tanks. Filtering means passing the oil through filters which are mostly of absorbent type and retain the oil contaminants and allow clean oil to pass through. The filters can be cleaned and reused and replacement of cartridge is not very frequent. In other type of filters, i.e., in oil impingement type, a frame filled with crimped wire or metal shaving is used. A special oil coated, so that when the air passing through the frame, is broken up into a number of small filaments and these filaments make contact with the oil. The property of oil is to seize and hold any dust particles carried by the air. These filters require periodic cleaning by removing, water and re oiling. Some times, engine noise may be transmitted back to the outside air through the air intake system. In such cases, a silencer is provided between the engine and intake. A typical filter and silencer installation for a diesel engine.

A centrifuge is a device in which the suspended impurities in the oil are removed by giving a rapid whirling motion. This process is known as "centrifuging". This process removes impurities by separating heavier particles from light clean oil. The viscosity of oil is the factor which influences the degree of cleanliness and it can be improved by heating the oil. But when the oil is heated to high temperature, the contaminant water may go into the solution with oil and hence avoid separation. So in order to obtain good results, the oil temperature in the range of 15°C to 38°C is considered to be optimum. The centrifuge requires periodic servicing to ensure cleanliness of oil after centrifuging.

2.9 Starting System

The starting system includes storage battery, self starter, and compressed air supply etc., the automobile engines are generally started by cranking. But in power plants, large capacity engines are used and are started by, i) Using compressed air ii) By using an auxiliary engine iii) By using electric motors or self starters.

Governing System

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The purpose of this system is to regulate the engine speed constant irrespective of load on the plant. Usually, this is done by varying the supply of fuel to the engine according to load.

Engines for power generation

Internal combustion engines are used for power generation, where the supply of coal and water is not available in abundant quantity. An internal combustion engine is one in which combustion of fuel takes place inside a cylinder. A reciprocating piston inside a cylinder develops power. A connecting rod connects piston to the crank shaft and converts reciprocating motion of piston into the rotary motion of the crank shaft.

Petrol engines are used in low capacity plants and are primarily intended for emergency service. Diesel engines are suitable for large capacity plants and these engines are mainly used for power generation. The capacity of diesel plants ranges from 2 to 50 MW and are used as standby units in hospitals, cinema halls, telephone exchanges, radio stations, etc., It is one of the most economic means of generating electricity in a small scale where cheap fuels are not available and load factors are considerably high. ;

The diesel plants are more efficient than any other heat engines of comparable size. It is easy to start and can burn wide variety of fuels. The advantages of diesel engine over petrol engine are

1. At part load and full load, the specific fuel consumption is low.
2. For same cylinder dimensions, high compression ratio yields more power
3. Longer operating life. ,
4. Reduced fire hazards
5. The vibration and balancing problems are not severe at medium speed operation. In an internal combustion engine, the following steps are followed in the production of power.
 1. Air/ Air fuel mixture is drawn into the cylinder through valves/ ports which is referred as suction.
 2. Compression of air/air fuel mixture during the upward movement of piston.
 3. Combustion by fuel injection into the highly compressed air or by producing a spark in the compressed air fuel mixture which initiates the combustion.
 4. Expansion of combustion gases which thrust the piston to perform power stroke.
 5. Exhaust of burnt gases from the engine cylinder.

The diesel engines are more suitable for small and medium output power plants due to the reasons as follows:
Methods of starting the diesel engine

In power plants, large capacity engines are used and are started by the following devices.

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- 1) By compressed air.
- 2) By an auxiliary engine (petrol engine)
- 3) By electric motors.

Compressed air system: Large stationary diesel engines are started with compressed air. In this system compressed air at a pressure of about 17 bar is supplied from an air tank or bottle to the engine inlet valve through the distributor or a trough inlet manifold. Two or more compressed air storage tanks are provided. A small compressor is installed for supply of compressed air to the storage tanks. During starting of a multi-cylinder engine, compressed air is admitted to one or more cylinders and forces the piston to move downward which in turn rotates the engine shaft. The injection or fuel pumps are inoperative while the speed is gained under air power. This power is the same as steam works in a steam engine. The air is turned off and oil injection is started and the engine gains momentum and by supplying fuel, the engine will start running.

By an auxiliary engine: In this method, a small petrol engine is mounted close to the main engine and is connected to it through clutch and gear arrangements. Firstly the clutch is to be disengaged and the petrol engine can be easily started by manual operations. When it has warmed up, the clutch is to be gradually engaged to transmit power to the main engine i.e., the main engine is cranked for starting. The clutch of auxiliary engine automatically disengages after the main engine has started. The capacity of auxiliary engine is just sufficient to overcome the friction of the main engine.

By electric motors or self starters: Electric motors or self starters are employed for small gasoline and diesel engines. The engine consists of an electric motor which is used for starting purpose. A storage battery of 12 to 36 volts is used to supply power to an electric motor which drives a pinion which engages a toothed rim on engine fly wheel. A small electric generator, driven by engine may also be used to drive the motor. The motor is engaged continuously for about 30 seconds only, after which it is required to cool off for a minute and then re engaged.

This is to be continued till the engine starts up. After the engine has started, the electric motor automatically disengages. This method is more simple and effective than other method.

Method of starting or starting procedure

Before starting the engine, it is necessary to go through all precautions supplied by manufacturers.

The process of starting the engine is different for various engines. Some common steps are as listed here;

1. Before starting the engine, it is necessary to check air pressure and any possible air leakage in the air system. In case of electric motor starting, the battery conditions should be checked regularly.
2. It is necessary to check fuel system, lubricating system and cooling water system.
3. The engine is cranked after ensuring no load on the engine and decompression device is used.
4. By running the engine at slow speed, the working of fuel pump is to be checked. The inspection is to be made for fuel and oil pressures, lubricating oil system etc.,



HYDRO-ELECTRIC ENERGY

2.10 Introduction to hydro power

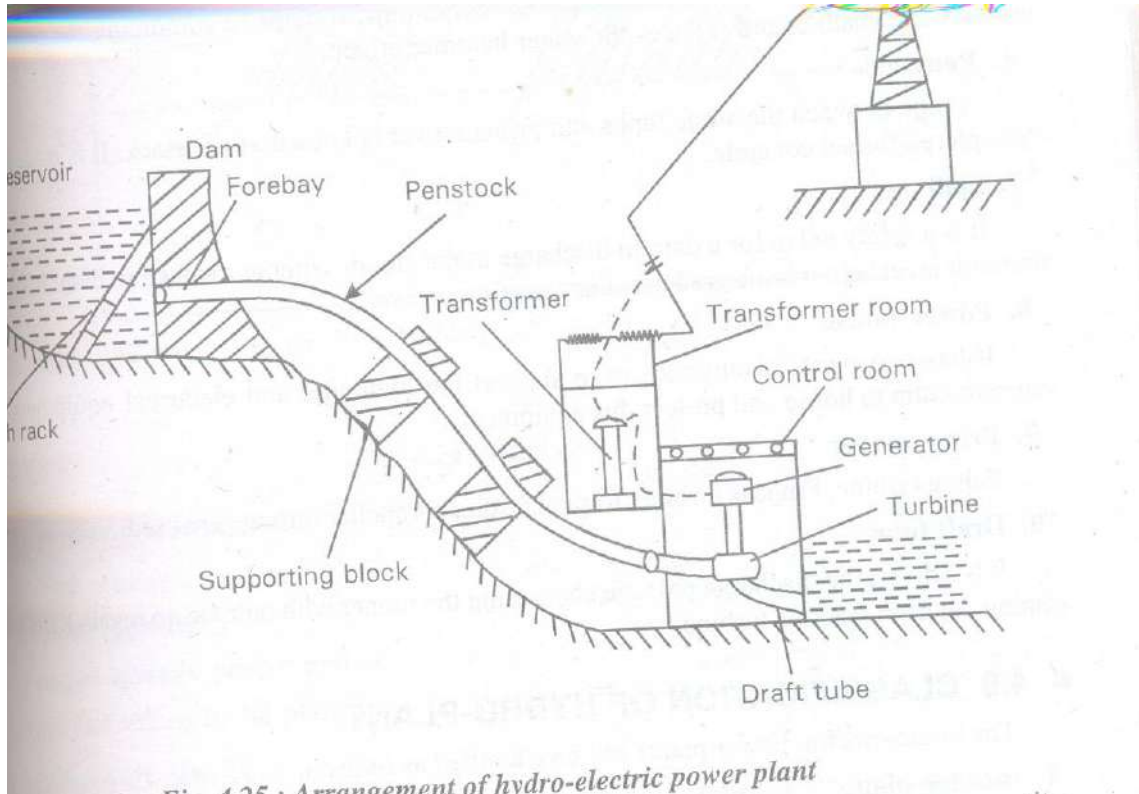
Water is the cheapest source of power. In the earlier days, it was used to run the waterwheels generate electric power. The power generation by hydro electric plant is nothing but the utilization of the part of hydrological cycle. These plants utilize the energy of water to drive the turbine which in turn run the electric generators. In 1882, the first hydro-electric station was started in America. In India, these plants contribute nearly half of the total power requirement and play a very important role in the development of country. In India, a hydro electric power

station was initiated with run of river scheme near Darjeling and the first major hydro electric plant was developed near Mysore in 1902 (Siva Samudram of 4.5 MW capacity). The potential energy of

rain falling on earth's surface, relative to the ocean is converted into Mechanical energy by using suitable prime movers i.e., hydraulic turbines. In hydro power generation, the kinetic or potential energy of water may be used. The kinetic energy of water is its energy in motion and is a function of mass and velocity. The potential energy is nothing but the difference of water level between two points i.e., head. In both the cases, water should be available continuously and in ample quantity. The past history of the place of location of the plant must be known to estimate minimum and maximum quantity of water which is available for power generation. The water from natural lakes and reservoirs at high altitudes may be used or storage reservoirs may be constructed to store the water during peak periods and utilise the same during off peak periods. The dams constructed across the flowing stream serves this purpose. A significant amount of rain falls in the form of direct evaporation and a major portion of rain falls into the soil to form the under ground storage. The remaining small portion of rainfall is utilised for power generation.

Hydro or water power is a conventional renewable source of energy. This energy source is clean, pollution free and environmental friendly. The hydro projects control floods in the rivers, store the water for irrigation and for drinking purpose. The capital cost of the plant is high. As the plants are situated in hilly areas, away from the load centre, the erection and transmission costs are also high. Hence, the cost of power generation is also high in comparison with steam, oil or gas plants. But in spite of these factors, a number of advantages favour the use of hydro projects.

2.11 Main Elements of hydro electric power plant



The hydroelectric power plant essentially consists of hydraulic structures, power plant etc. In the plant, hydraulic structure means dams, spillways, head work, diversion works, forebays or surge tanks, penstocks and conduits. The essential elements of water power plant are

- i) Catchment area
- ii) Reservoir
- iii) Dam
- iv) Spillways
- v) Conduits
- vi) Surge tanks
- vii) Prime movers
- viii) Draft tubes
- ix) Power house and equipments.

Catchment area: The catchment area is the whole area behind the dam which is built across a river at a suitable place.

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Reservoir: It is the basic requirement of a hydro-electric power plant and the one of which is to collect and store whole of the water available from the catchment area behind the dam. The stored water is used on multiple turbines to produce electric power and yields uniform power output throughout the year. A reservoir may be natural types such as a lake or an artificial one which is built by erecting a dam across the river. Water held in an upstream reservoir is called storage and water behind the dam, at the plant is called pondage.

Dam: The dam is the most important element of the water power plant. It is a barrier built across the river to increase the height of water level behind it (to increase the reservoir capacity) and creates the necessary head to be utilized in the water turbines. Economy and safety are the basic requirements of the dam. The dam should resist water pressure and should be stable under conditions. In hydro-electric plants, several types of dams are used such as concrete or stone masonry, earth and/or rock fill and timber. Timber and steel are used for dams of height 6m to 12m only. Earth dams are constructed up to about 100m. The foundation must provide stability under different forces and has to support the weight. It must be impervious to prevent seepage of water under the dam.

Forebay: It acts as a sort of regulating reservoir temporarily store the water when the load on the plant is reduced and there is withdrawal of water from it when load is increased. The river water is diverted away from the main stream. The enlarged portion at the end of canal forms the forebay.

Trash rack: It is provided on the way of water from the dam or from the fore bay to prevent the entry of debris which might damage the wicket gates and turbine runners or may choke up the nozzles of the impulse turbine. Manual or mechanical cleaning may be done to remove

Spill ways: It is a safety device for the dam, discharges the surplus water from the storage reservoir into the river on the downstream side of the dam. It is arranged in the dam or near the dam or on the periphery of the reservoir basin. This should provide structural stability to the dam under all conditions of floods. There are several designs of spill ways such as simple spillway, side channel spillway, saddle spillway, siphon spillway, solid gravity spillway, chute or trough spill way, emergency spill way etc.

Conduits: Inlet water way or head race is the passage of water from dam to the turbines and tail race (outer water way) is the passage of water from the wheels. The inlet waterway consists of tunnels, canals, flumes, fore bays, penstocks and surge tanks. The tunnels are made by cutting the mountains where topography prevents the use of

canal or pipeline. Headwork includes, gates valves and trash rack etc.. The conduit may be open (canals and flumes) or closed one (tunnels, pipe lines and penstocks).

Pen stock: A penstock is a closed pressure pipe (supplying water under pressure) made of reinforced concrete or steel, used to supply water to the turbines. It is a pipe of shorter length used to connect turbine and main water way. The penstocks are used where the slope is too great for a canal, especially where the land pitches steeply to the power house. As the working pressure or head of water increases, the thickness required in the penstock also increases,

A penstock of larger diameter, gives lesser frictional loss. The flow of water through the penstock decides the diameter, and the product of discharge and head gives the horse power which the penstock can carry. It indicates strength of the penstock. In the location of a penstock, economical shortest route is always desired. It is desirable to locate the penstock always sloping towards the power house, but the extent of slope may be varied to suit the topography. In order to provide adequate water seal under all conditions, especially at low water, at the dam or fore bay. The intake of penstock should be at a lower level. Generally penstocks are not covered, because exposed pipes are cheaper and maintenance and repair becomes very easy. Covered penstocks are used in the places where there is a chance of sliding of snow, rock and earth etc. In the penstock, velocity of water ranges from 2 to 6 m/sec. If the water velocity increases, size of the penstock required decreases and consequently its cost also reduces, but frictional losses increase. The life of the penstock may be increased by using a protective corrosion resistant coating on the steel penstock. Penstocks may be buried or supported on the piers and cradles.

2.12 Classification of Hydro Plant

The hydro electric power plants are classified according to Head of water available

a) Low head Plants:

These power plants are also known as canal power plants. In these plants, the water head available is less than 30 metres. The necessary water head is created by constructing a dam across the river and the water is diverted into a canal which allows the water to

Energy Engineering (15ME71)

flow in a forebay, from where the water is made to flow through turbines. Then the water is discharged into the river through a tail race. The power house is located near the dam itself and does not require a surge tank. This plant uses vertical shaft Francis turbine or Kaplan turbine.

(b): Medium Head Plants:

In these plants, the operating head of water ranges from 30m to 100 metres. The forebay is provided at the beginning of penstock, serves as water reservoir and conveys water to the turbines through penstocks. Open canals are used to carry the water from main reservoir to the forebay which itself acts as a surge tank. Forebay also stores the rejected water when the load on the turbine decreases. Francis turbines are used in these type of plants. Factor is less than one. Therefore, for satisfactory working of the plant, it is to be designed for average load and this type is known as base load plant. A small plant known as peak load plant is used to satisfy the load which is coming above the mean load.

c) High head plants

When the available water head for power generation exceeds 100 metre, the plant is known as high head plant. During rainy season, usually the water is stored in lakes or high mountains. From these reservoirs, water is passed through tunnels which distribute the water to penstock through which the water is conveyed to the turbines. A surge tank is attached to the penstock to reduce the water hammer effect on the penstock. Water flow is regulated by head gates at the tunnel intake, butterfly valves at the entry to the penstocks and gate valves at the turbines. These plants are usually provided with Pelton turbines for power generation.

d) Peak load plants

These plants are mainly intended to supply power during peak loads. Some peak plants, deliver power during average and also peak load as and when it is there. Run of plants with pondage and pumped storage plants are used as peak load plants. In the first it uses a large pond which provides extensive seasonal storage. These work on relatively high heads and load factor is considerably low.

According to quantity of water available for power generation

(a) : Run of River plant without pondage

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This type of plant has no control over the river flow. The plant does not store water and uses the water as it comes. During low load and high flood conditions, water will be wasted by over the dam spill ways. During dry seasons, the low flow of water reduces the plant capacity. These plants are usually used to supply peak load. The non-uniformity of supply makes its utility very less in comparison with other type of plants.

(b) : Run of river plant with pondage

In the plant, addition of a pond increases the usefulness of the run off river plant. The water is stored behind a dam and this increases the stream capacity for a short period. The conditions at the tail race should be such that the water level in the tail race should not be increased during floods as it decreases the effective head of the plant. This plant can be used as base load or peak load plant. This plant is more reliable and its generating capacity is not fully dependent on the water flow rates available.

(c): Storage type plants

This type of plant stores the water during rainy season in the reservoir and it is released during dry season. The reservoir incorporated is of a sufficiently large size to allow carry over storage from the wet season to dry season. The power generation in dry seasons will not be affected.

According to nature of load

The load on the power plant varies depending on seasons and every hour in a day. Consider a load curve as shown in figure 4.9 for an industrial town. The peak load is the plant capacity to satisfy the demand. If the plant is designed for peak load capacity, then the working of the plant is not economical as most of the time the plant is working under low load conditions and the load affects the plant. It can be used as base load plant as well as peak load plant as water is available with controls required. Most of the hydro-electric plants in India as well as in the world are. Generally, these plants are used to supply the peak load for the base load power plants and to supply the sudden peak load for a short duration i.e., a few hours or few days in a year. These are used in the places where the water is not available in sufficient quantity for power generation.

In this plant, an open stock connects the headwater pond and tail water pond. The generating Pumping plant is located on the lower side as shown. The baseload plant, generates some surplus electric energy during off peak hours. This energy is being used to pump the water from tail water pond to the headwater pond and this energy will be stored there. During peak load time, this energy will be released by allowing water to flow from head water pond through the turbine of the pumped storage plant.

Pumped storage plant is a special type of hydroelectric plant works in combination with plant to improve the overall efficiency of the combined system. The plant uses very little Rate for its operation and hence decreases the operating cost of the thermal plant.

2.13 Storage and pondage

Storage means, collection of water in the upstream reservoirs to increase the capacity stream over an extended period of several months. The water is stored in a reservoir for continuous generation of power through out the year and the power generation is not affected by the variation in the rainfall during the year. The excess water is stored in the reservoir during rainy season and it is released during run off (dry) periods. Storage plants may work satisfactorily as baseload and peak load plants. Maximum storage should be provided with economic expenditure. There are two types of storage.

- i) The storage of water is provided for one year only (considering losses also), so that there is no carry over water for the next season.
- ii) The water is stored, so as to be useful even during the worst dry periods.

Pondage means, collection of water behind a dam at the plant and increases the stream capacity for a short period, i.e., for a week. The generating capacity of the plant is less dependent on the flow rates of water available and the plant with pondage is more reliable than that without pondage. A run of river plant without pondage uses water just as it comes, without storing. There is no control on flow of water so that water is wasted during high floods or low loads. The plant capacity is reduced during low run off period. The capacity of pondage should be such that, it should take care of hour to hour fluctuations in load on the plant through out the period.

2.14 Hydrology

Hydrology is the science that deals with the depletion and replenishment of water resources on and beneath the surface of earth. It is the natural science in which rain fall and run off can be analysed and studied and occurrence and availability of water can be studied. It also deals with various forms of water, i.e., solid, liquid and vapour. The study of hydrology provides information about transportation of water from one place to another, and from one form to another. The science of hydrology is very important in the design of irrigation structures, planning and construction of bridges and flood control works etc.

Hydrologic cycle

We know that, the clouds are formed due to evaporation of water from plants, rivers and oceans and the evaporated water is carried with air in the form of vapour. In the atmosphere, the vapour falls in the form of water or snow depending on atmospheric temperature, when these are cooled below the dew point temperature. This evaporation (water lost in atmosphere as vapour) and precipitation (vapour condensed back in the form of rain, snow, hail, dew, sleet or frost) continues for ever and thereby maintains a balance between these two. This is known as "Hydrologic cycle".

The Hydrological cycle involves various processes such as transfer of moisture from the sea to the land and back to the sea again. The hydrologic equation is expressed as evaporation

$$P = R + E$$

P = Precipitation

R = Runoff

E = Evaporation

Precipitation (Rain fall); It includes all the water that falls from atmosphere to the earth surface, i.e., vapour condensed in the form of rain, snow, hail, dew, sleet, or frost. It consists of i) Liquid

precipitation (rain fall) and ii) Solid precipitation (snow, hail etc).

Runoff and surface run off: The portion of rain fall or precipitation, flows through the catchment area on the surface of the earth known as runoff or discharge or stream flow. It includes all the water flowing in the stream channel at any given section. The remaining portion of the rainfall is directly evaporated by the sun, taken by the vegetation and growing crops and some percolates into the ground. Run off occurs when the rate of precipitation exceeds the rate at which

water infiltrates into the soil. The factors which influence the rate and volume of runoff are duration, intensity and distribution of rain fall.

The surface runoff means the water that reaches the stream channel without first percolating down to the water table (WT).

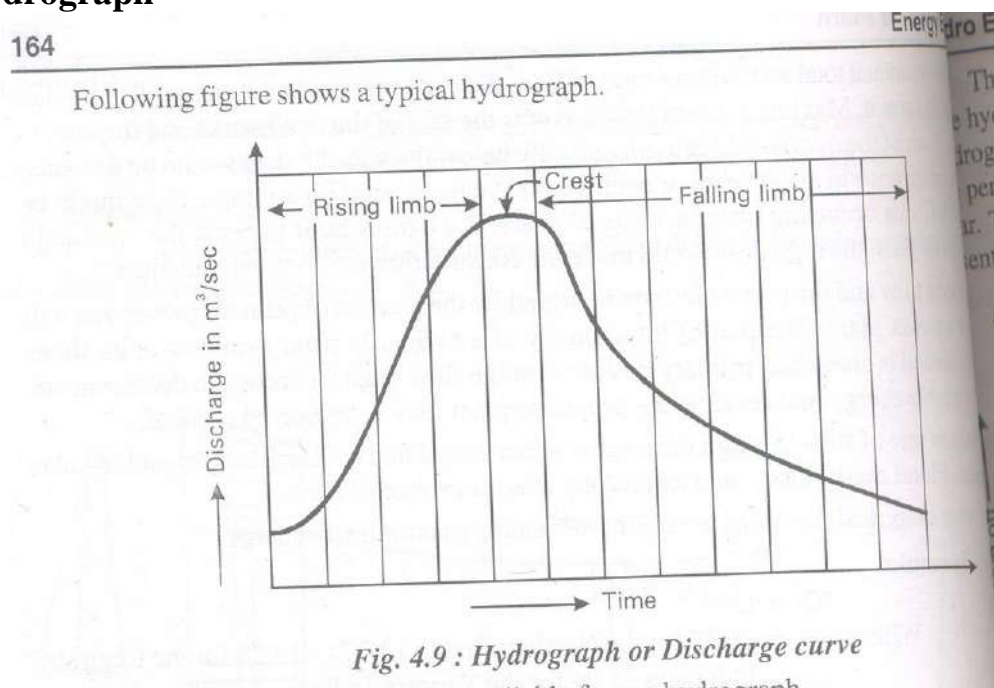
Evaporation: The change of phase of water from liquid to vapour state is called evaporation

Transpiration: It is the process by which the plant releases water to the atmosphere.

Run off can be measured daily, monthly seasonally or annually by using the following methods

- i) From rain fall records
- ii) By using empirical equations
- iii) By using runoff curves and tables
- iv) Discharge observation method.

2.15 Hydrograph



A hydrograph is a graphical representation showing discharge (run off) of flowing water with respect to time for a specified time. It indicates variation of flow or discharge with time. A hydrograph may be plotted for hours, days, weeks or several months. It is plotted with flow as the ordinate (in m³/sec) and time interval as abscissas (in hours, days etc). Besides the variation of flow, indicated by a hydrograph, it also indicates the power available from the stream at different times of the day, week or year. A hydrograph also indicates extreme conditions of flow and helps in

analyzing the effect of storage on flow. The characteristics of the catchment and precipitation over it, will effect the nature of hydrograph of stream of river. Flood flow of the rivers can also be assessed and hence for a given storm, anticipated hydrograph of the given river could be drawn.

A hydrograph is used to determine

1. Flow rate at any instant during the duration period.
2. As area under hydrograph gives volume of water in a particular duration, the total volume of flow during that period can be determined.
3. The mean annual runoff or mean runoff for each month of the year.
4. The maximum and minimum runoff for the year and for each month.
5. Flood duration and frequency and maximum rate of runoff during the floods.

The peak flow shows only a momentary value. Therefore it is required to analyze the full Hydrograph of flow and the concept of

unit hydrograph has been introduced. i.e., The two identical storms produce same hydrographs for the runoff. Usually identical storms rarely occur and generally rainfall varies in duration. Hence for the basin, a typical hydrograph is to be constructed which could be used as a unit of measurement of runoff. A unit hydrograph is one which represents unit runoff resulted from an intense rain fall of unit duration and specific areal distribution.

2.16 Flow duration curve

Curves show the relation between flows, plotted as the ordinate and length they are available and plotted on abscissa. This curve represents the runoff time in the another form and is obtained from a hydrograph. The flow duration between flow available during a period and the fraction of time. If the potential flow is plotted on the ordinate, then the curve is known as "Power duration useful to analyse development of water power. The flow duration curve gives at the site, and may be used to find maximum and minimum flow conditions. drawn by using hydrograph from the available runoff data and it is required to time during which certain flows are available. This information is obtained either from hydrograph and is tabulated. Then the flow duration curve can be 0% time on the x axis and runoff on Y axis. Duration curve is the graphical representation of its flow arranged in the descending mean monthly discharge at a site as shown. Draw the hydrograph curve by taking time in months on abscissa ordinate. From this draw flow duration curve by finding lengths of time

Uses of flow duration curve

- i) Useful for comparison between streams
- ii) Useful for preliminary studies
- iii) It evaluates low level flows.
- iv) It helps in planning and design of water resource projects.
- v) It helps in designing drainage systems and in flood control studies.

Disadvantages of flow duration curve

- i) It does not present the flows in natural sequence of occurrence
- ii) The curve will not give any idea whether the lowest flows occurred in consecutive periods or were scattered through out the considered period.

2.17 Mass curve

In a hydrostation the capacity of the reservoir is computed by using a plot known as "mass curve". This plot gives the storage requirement that is needed to produce a certain dependable

flow from fluctuating discharge of a river by a reservoir. A mass curve is defined as a graph of cumulative volumes of water that can be stored from stream flow against time in days, weeks or months. The integral curve of the hydrograph leads to mass curve and this expresses the area under hydrograph from one time to another. In the mass curve at any point, the curve slope represents the change of volume per change of time or the flow rate at that moment. Hence, when the flow of the river is large, the curve is steep and when the flow is small, it gives flat curve. By storage for the same mass flow, the plant generating capacity can be increased by modifying the water flow as per plant requirements.

Advantages

1. The peak load capacity of the plant is increased at a comparatively low capital cost.
2. The operating efficiency is high
3. The plant is partly independent of stream flow conditions.
4. The plant load factor is improved.

5. Load on the hydroelectric plant remains uniform.
6. There is an overall gain in the pumped storage plant as the energy available during peak load duration is higher than that of during off-peak load duration.

2.18 Surge tanks

A surge tank is an additional storage reservoir fitted to the penstock, as near as possible to the turbine. Usually surge tanks are provided in high head or medium head plants when there is a considerable distance between the water source and turbine, necessitating a long penstock. It reduces the distance between free water surface and turbine and hence reduces the effect of water hammer on penstock of turbine. Therefore the surge tank furnishes the following functions.

- 1) It stores the water during load rejection by the turbine and provides additional water during additional load on the turbine.
- 2) During sudden changes in the conditions of water flow, it relieves the water hammer pressures within the penstock. Thus it regulates the water flow to relieve water hammer pressures and to improve the performance of the machines by providing better speed regulation.
- 3) It reduces the distance between free water surface of the reservoir and turbine and thus reduces the effect of water hammer.

During governing of the turbine, when load on turbine decreases, the governor closes the gates of the turbine partly to adjust water flow rate in order to maintain constant speed of the runner. Under this condition, water moving to the turbine has to move backward and is stored in the surge tank. In absence of surge tank, this backward movement of water may result in sudden pressure rise in the penstock resulting in water hammer phenomenon. The strength of the penstock to be increased, otherwise penstock may burst.

Water hammer: It is defined as the change in pressure rapidly above or below normal pressure caused by sudden changes in the rate of water flow through the pipe according to demand of turbine. It occurs at all the points in the penstock between forebay or surge tank and turbines. During turbine governing, the gates (valves) supplying water to the turbines are suddenly closed when the load on turbine decreases. This sudden retardation of the flow in the penstock results in sudden pressure rise. Its fluctuations in the penstock during reduction of load on turbine is known as

Water hammer When the load on the turbine

increases, it needs more water and hence the turbine gate suddenly opens causing a rush of water through the pipe. This creates a vacuum in the pipe carrying water.

Types of surge tanks: At the top, the surge tanks may be opened or closed. In case of open type, it should be lower than the level of water in the reservoir. The various types of surge tanks are

(a) *Simple surge tank:* A simple surge tank is a plain cylindrical tank connected by a vertical branch of pipe to the penstock. In this type, if overflow is allowed, it eliminates rise of pressure in the pipe, but overflow surge tank is uneconomical. Surge tanks are built in large size, so that even during full load condition on turbine, water cannot overflow. Usually surge tank is located on ground surface, above the penstock line. This type of tank is more expensive and uneconomical due to its large size and hence rarely used when compared to other types. The effective water surface is inclined at an angle ' θ ' to the horizontal. This reduces size of the tank required. i.e. in case of inclined surge tanks, height of surge tank can be reduced for the same diameter or diameter of the tank can be reduced for the same height. But this type is more costly than other types due to difficulty in construction and is also rarely used unless the topographical conditions are in favour.

(c) *Expansion chamber and gallery type surge tank*

Expansion chamber and gallery - Expansion chamber surge tank

This type of tank consists of an expansion tank at the top and expansion chamber at the bottom to limit the extreme surges. The expansion chamber absorbs rising surges, and lower gallery reserves the water for starting the turbine or to meet increasing load on the turbine. The upper one must be above the maximum reservoir level and lower one must be below the lowest steady running level in the surge tank.

(d) *Restricted orifice or throttled surge tanks*

The simple surge tanks are not suitable for medium and large head plants. Therefore some modifications are incorporated in the restricted orifice surge tank.

In this type, a restricted orifice is provided between the conduit and the tank. A considerable amount of friction loss is created when the water flows in and out of the tank through the orifice.

During low load conditions of the turbine, the surplus water passes through the restricted orifice and immediately a retarding head, equal to the loss due to restricted orifice, is built up in

the conduit. The size of the restricted head can be designed for any desired retarding and accelerating heads. If the area of restricted orifice is equal to or greater than conduit area, the tank is said to be a simple tank and retarding head is negligible. If an infinitely small restricted orifice is used, then the retarding head becomes equal to the water hammer in the conduit without the size of the restricted orifice selected in such a way that the initial retarding head is equal to the rise of water surface in the tank during rejection of full load by the turbine. This type is more efficient and economical than simple tank, but the main disadvantage is that the considerable portion of water hammer pressure is directly transmitted to the low pressure conduit and also induces sudden fluctuations of head on the turbine.

(e) Differential surge tank

This type of surge tank is the compromise between simple and restricted orifice surge tank. In this type, an internal riser whose area equal to that of conduit is provided in the cylindrical chamber. An outer chamber connects the riser at its base through ports. When the load changes, the water level in the riser also changes rapidly and produces sudden deceleration or acceleration of the conduit flow. In the outer chamber, water level moves more slowly and thus lags behind that in the riser. In differential surge tank, even though the action is very rapid, it gives reasonably low pressure rises and surges of flow amplitude.

2.19 Gates

i) Vertical lift gate: cross section of vertical lift gate. On the crest of the dam, vertical guides on pairs provide path for sliding motion of steel gates. These steel gates are used for small power plants. The gate lifting mechanism must be able to overcome high frictional losses developed in the guides due to high hydro static force on the gate. A gate of 5m² area weighs 150 tonnes and has to withstand 2000 tonnes of water load.

ii) Radial gate: cross section of a radial or tainter gate. A steel framework supports the gate which is in the form of a segment of a cylinder as shown in figure. The frame is pivoted on trunnions. The gate is also attached with hoisting cables and other end of cables are attached to the winches on the platform above the gate. A motor drives the winches for the sliding gate and for the same size of sliding gates, the hoist load is also much less.

iii) RoUingate: cross section of rolling gate. It consists of cylindrical drum made of steel. The lower portion of gate is a cylindrical segment and touches ~ spill way crest. The rolling cylinder rolls on the rack provided, with the help of hoist cable. These are preferred for long spans and moderate height. .

iv)Drum gate: The figure 4.17(d) shows cross section of drum gate. It is also suitable for long spans. The gate is a segment of a cylinder which can fit in the recess provided in the top of the spillway. When water enters under force to the recess, the hollow drum gate rises up to the closed position flap gate. The lower edge of the flap is hinged to the upstream part of the dam and the upper edge position by chains or screwed rods supported by an overhead bridge. The flood water is passed over crest of the size openings.

2.20 Advantages and disadvantages of hydro electric plants

Advantages

- 1.
2. The operating cost including auxiliaries is considerably low (RS 120 per KW at 100% load factor).
3. Maintenance and running cost of the plant is low.
4. No nuisance of smoke, exhaust gases, soot etc., and hence the atmosphere is not polluted.
5. No ash disposal problem.
6. In addition to electric power generation, plants are also used for irrigation and flood control.
7. These plants are more economical than other type of plants as it involves no fuel charges.
8. The plant life is more and plant efficiency does not change with age of plant.
9. No fuel transportation problem.
10. There are no standby losses.
11. The plants are located away from developed areas, and hence the cost of land is not a major problem.
12. The plant requires less skilled operators.
13. These plants can meet sudden changes of load without loss of efficiency.

Disadvantages

1. The initial cost of the plant is high, as it includes construction of dam
2. The power generation depends only on the quantity of water available which in turn depends upon rainfall.
3. These plants are usually located away from the load centres and use long transmission lines. Therefore, the cost of transmission lines and losses in them are more.
4. Plant erection time is more.

2.21 Question bank

1. What are the applications of Diesel power plant?
2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of air cooling System
3. For a diesel power station briefly describe the Lubrication system
4. Draw the general schematic of Diesel power plant
5. Why cooling of diesel engine is necessary?
6. Sketch and briefly explain the working of Exhaust System
7. Give any four important applications of Lubrication System
8. List six advantages and Disadvantages of Diesel power plant
9. Draw the general layout of Diesel power plant and Explain the working of different systems
10. With the help of a neat diagram explain (i) thermostat cooling and (ii) thermosyphon cooling
11. State the important factors considered while selecting a site for hydro-electric power plant
12. Draw a neat flow sheet diagram of a hydro electric power plant indicating the essential elements
13. At a particular site the mean discharge of a river (in millions of m^3) in 12 months from January to December are 30, 25, 20, 0, 10, 50, 80, 100, 110, 65, 45 and 30 respectively. Draw the flow duration curve on a graph sheet. Also estimate the power developed in MW if the available head is 90m and the overall efficiency of generation is 87.4%. Assume each month of 30 days.
14. Define hydrograph and unit hydro graph and explain its importance in the design of storage in the hydro electric power plant
15. Explain the working of hydro electric power plant with the help of a neat sketch
16. With the help of a neat sketch explain pumped storage plant

2.22 Outcomes:

Student should be able to understand the

1. Main Components and working of diesel engine power plant.
2. Basic concepts, working and applications of hydro electric power plant

2.23 Further reading:

1. Non Conventional Energy sources, G D Rai, Khanna Publishers.
2. Non Conventional Resources, B H Khan, TMH – 2007
3. http://www.indiawris.nrsc.gov.in/wrpinfo/index.php?title=Hydro_Electric_ojects_in_Karnataka
4. <http://indianpowersector.com/wp-content/uploads/2010/09/diesel-gas-engine-power-plants-in-india1.pdf>



Structure

3.1 Introduction

Objectives

3.2 Solar radiation at the Earth's surface

3.3 Solar Radiation Measurement

3.4 Pyrheliometers

3.1 Introduction :

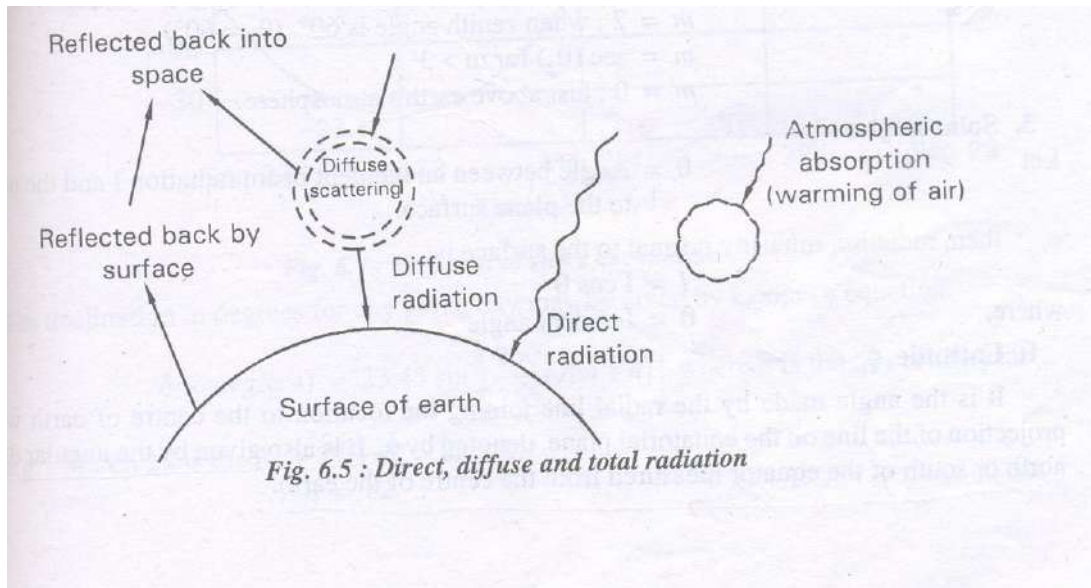
Through out the world, the energy consumption has been growing with advance civilization. Today, energy consumption is directly related to the standard of living of the people of nation and degree of Industrialization of the country. The existing energy sources of fossil fuels may not be adequate to meet the ever increasing energy demands. These energy resources are also depleting in nature and may be exhausted in a short time. Thus, a necessary exists to look for other form of energy sources i.e., non-conventional energy sources such as geothermal, ocean tides, wind, solar, etc. Among all these energy sources, solar energy is the most promising alternative energy source which will meet considerable part of energy demand. The solar energy has its own advantages such as its availability at free of cost, inexhaustible, free from pollution, available almost all parts of the world, and is available in abundance. Solar water heaters, space heaters, solar cookers, solar photo-voltaic cells, solar refrigerators and solar thermal power plants are used for various purposes and in all these devices, solar energy is used either for the purpose of water heating, space heating or cooling or for conversion to other form of energy. The energy comes from the sun, keeps the temperature of the earth higher, causes current in the atmosphere and ocean. The differential heating of the earth's surface by the sun produces the wind and energy of the wind may be used to run wind mills which in turn drives a generator to produce electricity. Solar energy is a renewable resource and cannot be depleted. It has the greatest potential of all renewable energy sources. The sun constantly delivers 1.36 kW (1360 joules/see) of energy per square meter to the earth. It is one of the promising alternative energy source and its nature and magnitude available on earth's surface varies depending on the location and weather conditions.

The earth's surface receives 106 watts of solar power which is 1000 times more than the actual power needed through out the world. The 5 percent utilization of solar energy will be 50 times what the world will require.

The applications of solar energy are:

- i. Space heating or cooling for residential building.
- ii. Solar water heating
- iii. Solar cookers
- iv. Solar distillation on a small scale
- v. Drying of agricultural and animal products by suitable solar driers.
- vi. Food refrigeration
- vii. Electric power generation
- viii. Solar ponds
- ix. Direct conversion of solar energy into electricity by using photo-voltaic cells
- x. Bio-conversion and wind energy, which are indirect source of solar energy

Solar radiation outside the earth's atmosphere



The sun is considered as a large sphere of diameter 1.39×10^6 km, consisting of very hot gases. The earth's diameter is 1.27×10^4 km and the average distance between the earth and sun is 1.496×10^8 km. The earth receives beam radiation from the sun, almost parallel, because of very large distance between the sun and the earth. Even though sun's brightness varies from centre to its edge, we assume that the brightness is uniform all over the solar disc. It is to be noted that the radiation coming from the sun is almost equal to that of radiation coming from a black surface which is at 5762 K. The energy flux radiated from the sun outside the earth's atmosphere is considered to be constant and this yields the definition of solar constant. Solar constant is the rate at which solar energy reaches at the top of the atmosphere and is denoted by I_{sc} . This is the amount of energy received from the sun in unit time on a unit area perpendicular to the sun's direction and at the mean distance of the earth from the sun. The distance between the earth and the sun varies as earth revolves around the sun in an elliptical orbit with a small eccentricity and sun at one of the foci. This changes the solar radiation and hence the energy flux reaching the earth's atmosphere.

Thus the solar constant value obtained is the average one and a standard value of 1353 W/m^2 was adopted in 1971. Later, the solar constant value was revised to 1367 W/m^2 , through measurements. The variation in the extra terrestrial flux, outside the earth's atmosphere due to change in distance between earth and the sun produces a sinusoidal variation in the intensity of solar radiation that reaches the earth. The value of this extra terrestrial flux on any day of the year can be obtained by using the equation

The figure 6.1 shows the spectral distribution of extra terrestrial solar radiation. It is seen from the figure that the spectral beam radiation first increases shortly with wave length and reaches a maximum value of 2074 W/m^2 at $0.48 \mu\text{m}$ wave length and then decreases. It is to be noted that, up to a wave length of $4 \mu\text{m}$, 99 percent of sun's radiation is obtained.

3.2 Solar radiation at the Earth's surface

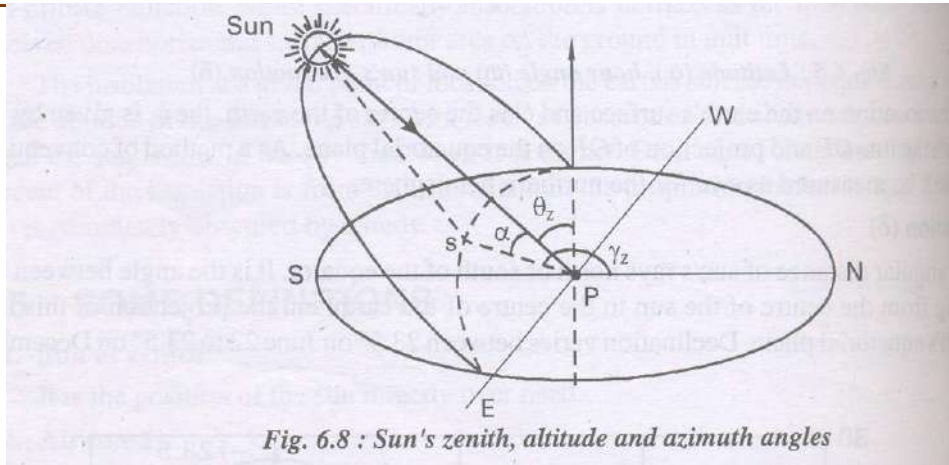


Fig. 6.8 : Sun's zenith, altitude and azimuth angles

The solar energy received at the earth's surface depends on the time of day, the time of year, local latitude and amount of cloud cover, amount of atmospheric pollution etc. The solar radiation received at the earth's surface is attenuated and is composed of beam and diffuse radiation, scattered component and the reflected short wavelength radiation from the surrounding terrestrial surfaces after subjected to the mechanisms of absorption and scattering during its travel through the earth's atmosphere. The ozone, water vapour and to some extent other gases (like CO₂, N₂O, CO, O₂ and CH₄) and particulate matter, absorb all the ultraviolet solar radiation and energy in the infrared range. This absorption of solar radiation by the atmosphere increases its presence of all gaseous molecules and particulate matter or dust particles in the atmosphere, scatters the solar radiation i.e., changes its direction. The scattered radiation is redistributed in all the directions, a portion of which goes back in to the space and remaining reaches the earth's surface as diffuse radiation. Thus the radiation finally reach the earth's surface consists partly of beam radiation and it is obvious that the solar radiation received at earth's surface is maximum when the atmosphere is not covered or partly covered with cloud. However, the mechanisms of absorption and scattering are similar under the conditions of cloudless sky or atmosphere with clouds. Solar radiation which is not scattered or absorbed and reaches the earth's surface directly from the sun without changing its direction is called "Beam or Direct radiation". The solar radiation received at the earth's surface after scattering absorption and reflection by the atmosphere is called "Diffuse radiation". It is the radiation at the earth's surface from all parts of the sky's hemisphere and its direction has been changed by scattering, absorption and reflection. Therefore the total radiation received at the earth's surface is the sum of beam and diffuse radiation and is known as total or global radiation. Reflected radiation

The intensity of diffuse radiation is not isotropic in nature, but it changes with respect to latitude, time of the year, time of the day, content in the atmosphere and many other factors.

A term called air mass (AM) is often used to indicate the distance travelled by beam radiation through the atmosphere to reach a location on the surface of the earth. The air mass (AM) is the term represents the ratio of atmospheric mass through which beam radiation passes to the mass of the atmosphere, if the position of the sun is directly overhead (i.e., at its zenith).

3.3 Solar Radiation Measurement

It is necessary to measure solar radiation because of use of solar heating and cooling devices and the results of the measurements are used to predict the performance of the devices. The instrument used for measurement of solar radiation includes measurement of direct solar radiation and diffuse solar radiation or

total solar radiation. The instruments used for measurement of solar radiation include measurement of direct solar radiation and diffuse solar radiation or total solar radiation. The instruments which are commonly used for measuring the solar radiation are

1. *Pyrheliometer*: An instrument which measures beam radiation intensity as a function of incident angle, and
2. *Pyranometer*: An instrument used to measure total solar radiation.

3.4 Pyrheliometers

This instrument is used to measure beam radiation and operates on the photovoltaic effect. The instrument consists of a tube whose axis is aligned with the direction of sun's rays by using two axis tracking mechanism and alignment indicator. The tube contains a sensor disc at its base. The arrangement is made such that the diffuse radiation is blocked from the sensor surface and hence the device measures only Beam radiation. The use of shading ring also gives measurement of direct solar radiation, the value of which is obtained by subtracting the shaded (diffuse) reading from the unshaded (global) reading. .

The pyrheliometers which are commonly used are

- i) Angstrom compensation pyrheliometer
- ii) Abbot silver disk pyrheliometer and
- iii) Eppley pyrheliometer

Questions

1. Explain briefly the application of Solar pond
2. Draw the sketch and label the parts (i) Horizontal wind mill (ii) Vertical wind mill
3. Define terms: (i) solar radiation (ii) diffused radiation (iii) Direct radiation and (iv) Extra terrestrial radiation.
4. Classify solar radiation measuring instruments. Explain any one instrument with Sketch
5. With the help of a neat sketch describe the photovoltaic cell
6. With a neat sketch explain the flat plate solar collector.
7. List the problem associated with solar power

Module 4: WIND ENERGY & TIDAL POWER

Wind energy is another potential source of energy. Winds are the motion of air caused by un- even heating of the earth's surface by the sun and rotation of the earth. It generates due to various global phenomena such as air-temperature difference associated with different rates of solar heating. Since the earth's surface is made up of land, desert, water, and forest areas, the surface absorbs the sun's radiation differently. Locally, the strong winds are created by sharp temperature difference between the land and the sea. Wind resources in India are tremendous. They are mainly located near the sea coasts. Its potential in India is estimated to be of 25×10^3 MW. According to a news release from American Wind Energy Association the installed wind capacity in India in the year 2000 was 1167 MW and the wind energy production was 2.33×10^6 MWh. This is 0.6% of the total electricity production.

Availability of wind energy in India

The development of wind power in India began in the 1990s, and has significantly increased in the last few years. Although a relative newcomer to the wind industry compared with Denmark or the United States, India has the fifth largest installed wind power capacity in the world. In 2009- 10 India's growth rate was highest among the other top four countries.

As of 31 Jan 2013 the installed capacity of wind power in India was 19051.5MW, mainly spread across Tamil Nadu (7154 MW), Gujarat (3,093 MW), Maharashtra (2976 MW), Karnataka(2113 MW), Rajasthan (2355 MW), Madhya Pradesh (386 MW), Andhra Pradesh (435 MW), Kerala (35.1 MW), Orissa (2MW), West Bengal (1.1 MW) and other states (3.20 MW) It is estimated that 6,000 MW of additional wind power capacity will be installed in India by 2012. Wind power accounts for 8.5% of India's total installed power capacity, and it generates 1.6% of the country's power. India's wind atlas is available.

Forces on the Blades. There are two types of forces operating on the blades of a propeller-type wind turbine. They are the circumferential forces in the direction of wheel rotation that provide the torque and the axial forces in the direction of the wind stream that provide an axial thrust that must be counteracted by proper mechanical design.

The circumferential force, or torque, T is obtained from

$$T = \frac{P}{\omega}$$

where T = torque, N or lb,

ω = angular velocity of turbine

wheel, m/s D = diameter of turbine

wheel = $\sqrt{4} A/\pi$, m

N = wheel revolutions per unit time, s-1

For a turbine operating at power P, the torque is given by

$$T = \eta \frac{1}{8g_c} \frac{\rho D V_1^3}{N}$$

For a turbine operating at maximum efficiency $\eta_{\max} = 16/27$, the torque is given by T_{\max} ,

$$T_{\max} = \frac{2}{27g_c} \frac{P D V_1^3}{N}$$

The axial force, or axial thrust, is

$$F_a = \frac{1}{2g_c} \rho A (V_1^2 - V_2^2) = \frac{\pi}{8g_c} \rho D^2 (V_1^2 - V_2^2)$$

The axial force on a turbine wheel operating at maximum efficiency where $V_e = 1/3$; V_i is given by

$$F_{a, \max} = \frac{4}{9g_c} \rho A V_1^2 = \frac{\pi}{9g_c} \rho D^2 V_1^2$$

The axial forces are proportional to the square of the diameter of the turbine wheel which makes them difficult to cope with in extremely large-diameter machines. There is thus an upper limit of diameter that must be determined by design and economic considerations

The performance of a wind mill rotor stated as coefficient of performance is expressed as:

$$C_p = A/P_{\max} \\ = A / (1/2 \rho V^3)$$

where ρ = Density of air
 A = Swept area
 V = Velocity of the wind

Further the tip speed ratio being the function of speed at the tip of the rotor to the windspeed, i.e. U/V and in most of the parts of India, the wind velocity being low (through the wind energy average around 3 kWh/m² day) The exploitation of wind mills in India is feasible. Depending upon the survey of velocity in a region the appropriate value of design parameter may be computed

Wind Turbine Classification

Horizontal Axis Machines: Machines with rotors that move in a plane perpendicular to the direction of the wind.

A farmer's windmill, for example.

Vertical Axis Machines: Machines that have the working surfaces traveling in the direction of the wind.

Horizontal axis type wind mill

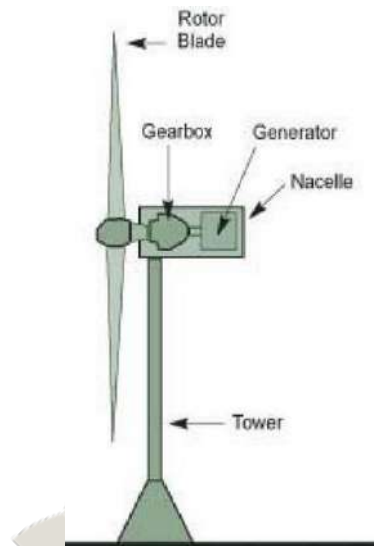


Fig: Horizontal-axis wind turbines

Horizontal-axis wind turbines (HAWT) have the main rotor shaft and electrical generator at the top of a tower, and must be pointed into the wind. Small turbines are pointed by a simple wind vane, while large turbines generally use a wind sensor coupled with a servo motor. Most have a gearbox, which turns the slow rotation of the blades into a quicker rotation that is more suitable to drive an electrical generator. Since a tower produces turbulence behind it, the turbine is usually positioned upwind of its supporting tower. Turbine blades are made stiff to prevent the blades from being pushed into the tower by high winds. Additionally, the blades are placed a considerable distance in front of the tower and are sometimes tilted forward into the wind a small amount. Downwind machines have been built, despite the problem of turbulence (mast wake), because they don't need an additional mechanism for keeping them in line with the wind, and because in high winds the blades can be allowed to bend which reduces their swept area and thus their wind resistance. Since cyclical (that is repetitive) turbulence may lead to fatigue failures, most HAWTs are of upwind design.

Vertical Axis wind mill

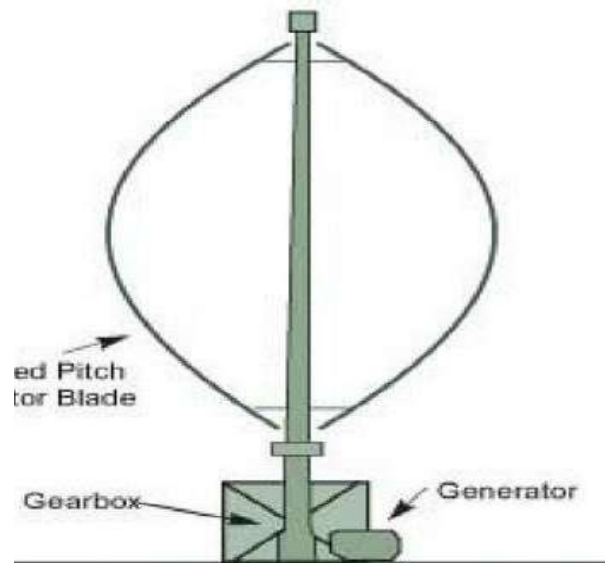


Fig: Vertical-axis wind turbine

Vertical-axis wind turbines (or VAWTs) have the main rotor shaft arranged vertically. Key advantages of this arrangement are that the turbine does not need to be pointed into the wind to be effective. This is an advantage on sites where the wind direction is highly variable, for example when integrated into buildings. The key disadvantages include the low rotational speed with the consequential higher torque and hence higher cost of the drive train, the inherently lower power coefficient, the 360 degree rotation of the aerofoil within the wind flow during each cycle and hence the highly dynamic loading on the blade, the pulsating torque generated by some rotor designs on the drive train, and the difficulty of modelling the wind flow accurately and hence the challenges of analysing and designing the rotor prior to fabricating a prototype.

With a vertical axis, the generator and gearbox can be placed near the ground, using a direct drive from the rotor assembly to the ground-based gearbox, hence improving accessibility for maintenance.

When a turbine is mounted on a rooftop, the building generally redirects wind over the roof and these can double the wind speed at the turbine. If the height of the roof top mounted turbine tower is approximately 50% of the building height, this is near the optimum for maximum wind energy and minimum wind turbulence.

COEFFICIENT PERFORMANCE OF WIND MILL ROTOR

As WECS is a capital intensive technology it is desirable for the overall wind electric plant to have the highest efficiency possible optimally utilizing capital resources and minimizing the electric energy cost.

$$\eta = \frac{\text{Useful output power}}{\text{Wind power input}}$$

This eqn is an application of cascaded energy conversion, where in overall efficiency will be strongly determined by the lowest efficiency convertor in the cascade. For the aerogenerator this is the aeroturbine; the efficiency of the remaining three elements can be made quite high but less than 100%

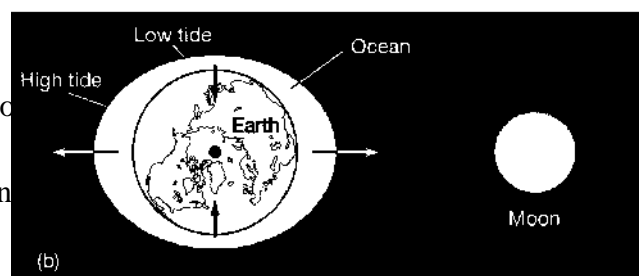
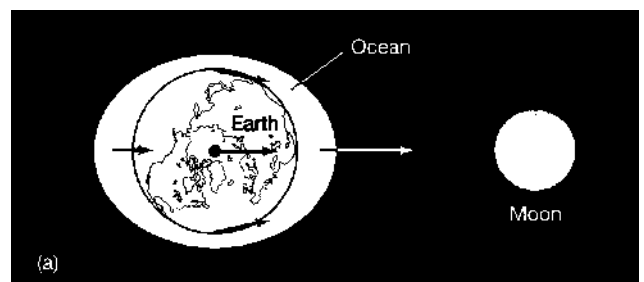
TIDAL POWER

TIDAL POWER PLANT

- The periodic rise and fall of the water level of sea which are carried away by the gravitational action of sun and moon is called tide.
- The energy generated by these tides is called tidal energy.
- To harness the tidal energy, the difference in water surface elevations at high tide and low tide is utilized to operate a hydraulic turbine.
- A generator is attached to the turbine to generate electricity.
- The rising water or high tides are called floods and low tides are called ebbs.

BASIC PRINCIPLE OF TIDAL POWER

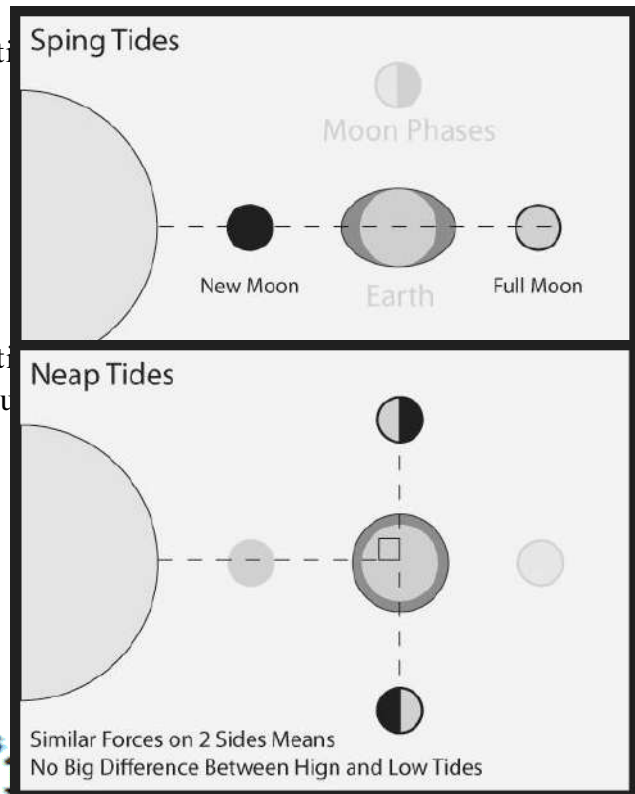
- The gravitational attraction of moon and the sun on the water present on the earth produces tides.
- The magnitude of attraction depends on the mass and its distance.
- This is given by Newton's law of gravitation
- It states that "every object in the universe attracts the other object with a force"
- The gravitational force of attraction is proportional to the product of their masses.
- The gravitational force of attraction between two objects is inversely proportional to the square of the distance between their centers.
- Though the moon has less mass compared to the sun, the moon has greater effect of attraction than sun because the distance between the moon and earth is very less.



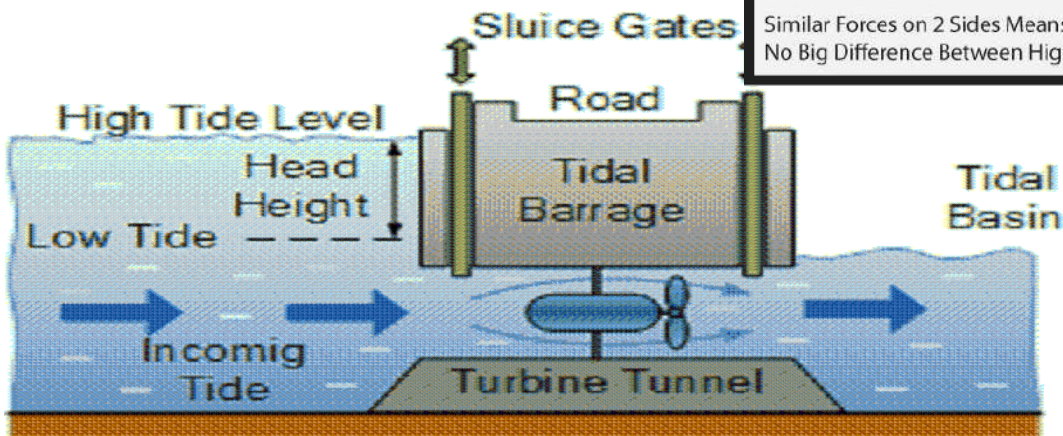
- The gravitational force of the moon causes the oceans to bulge along an axis pointing directly at the moon as shown in the figure.

When the sun and the moon are in line, their gravitational attraction on the earth combine and cause a spring tide.

When the sun and moon are at 90°, their gravitational attraction each pulls water in different directions and cause neap tide.



HARNESSING TIDAL ENERGY



The major components of tidal power plant are:

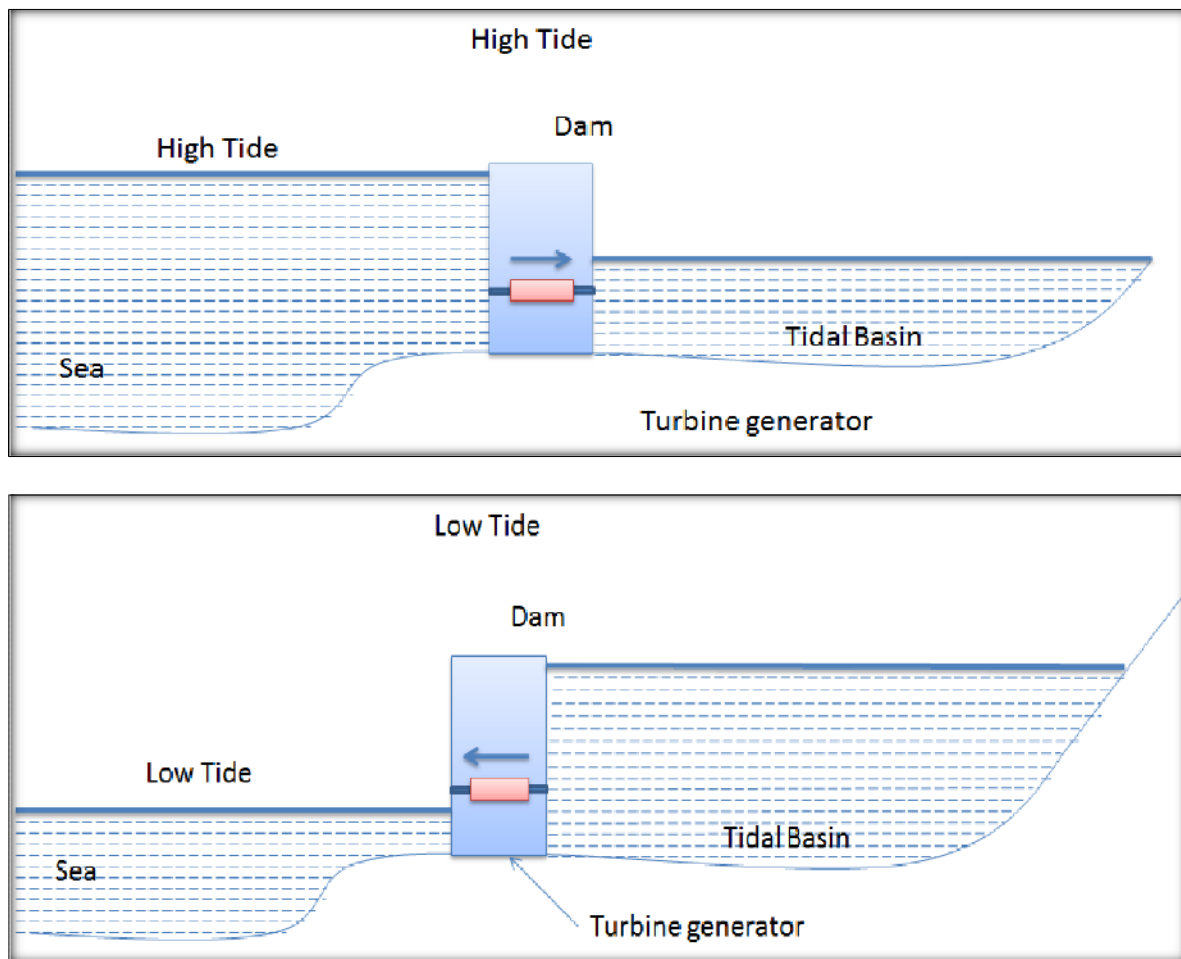
1. Power house- It has turbines, electric generators and other auxiliary equipments.
2. The dam or barrage- The function is to form barrier between sea and basin or between two basins.
3. Sluice ways- The function is to fill basin during high tides and empty basin during low tides.

CLASSIFICATION OF TIDAL POWER PLANT

- Single basin arrangement

- Double basin arrangement

SINGLE BASIN ARRANGEMENT



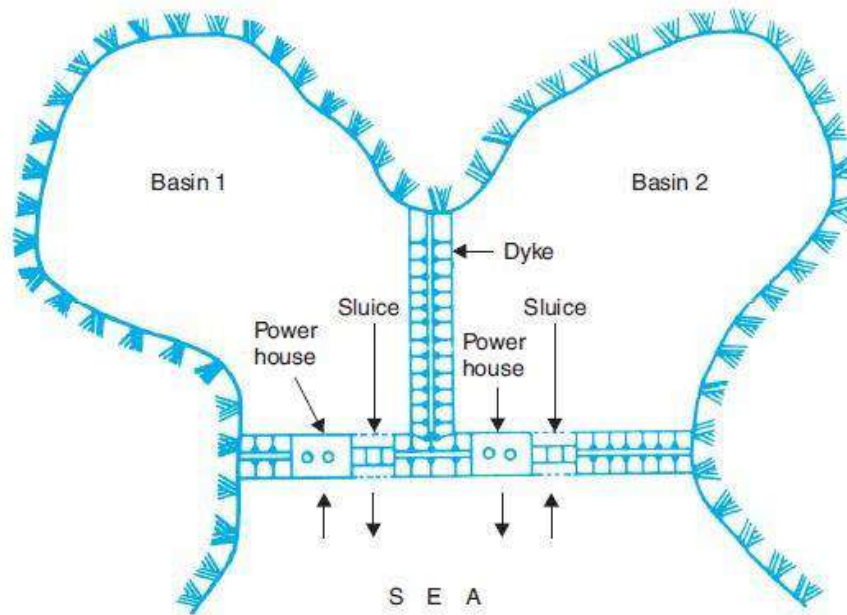
- The general arrangement of a single basin system is shown above.
- Since only one basin interacts with the sea, power can be generated at regular intervals.
- A dam separates basin and sea. The power house is installed inside the dam.
- During High Tide, i.e., when the sea level rises, the turbine valves are opened and the sea water flows into the basin through the turbine generating power.
- The power is generated till the level of sea water and basin is equal.
- The water is allowed to pass into the basin, till the level reaches its maximum position.
- During low tide, the level of basin is more than the level of seawater.
- After attaining sufficient head, the turbine valves are opened and water flows from basin to sea through the turbine generating power.
- Tidal power plants normally use reversible water turbines, such that power is generated in both the directions.

A Single basin arrangement system can be classified as:

- 1) *Single-ebb system*: Water is stored during High tide in the basin and power is generated only during low tide.
- 2) *Single-Tide system*: Power is generated only during High tide and it fills the basin. The water is drained out during low tide.
- 3) *Double cycle system*: Power is generated during both high tide and low tide as explained above.

DOUBLE BASIN ARRANGEMENT

Two Basin system



- Figure above shows a schematic diagram of two-basinsystem.
- In the system, the two basins close to each other operatealternatively.
- One basin generates power when the tide is rising (basin getting filled up) and the other basin generates power while the tide is falling (basin getting emptied).
- The two basins may have a common power house or may have separate power house for eachbasin.
- In both the cases, the power can be generatedcontinuously.

ADVANTAGES OF TIDAL POWER PLANT

- It is independent of rain, and inexhaustible.
- Large area of valuable land is notrequired.
- When a tidal power plant works in combination with thermal or hydro-electric power plant, peak power demand can be meteffectively.
- Free frompollution.

DISADVANTAGES OF TIDAL POWER PLANT

- Power generation is not uniform.
- Life of turbines reduces due to corrosive seawater.
- Construction of dams in sea is difficult.
- The power transmission cost is high as it is located away from load centres.
- The plant efficiency is not uniform.
- Sedimentation and siltation of basins.



Module 5: BIOMASS & GREEN ENERGY

Biomass is biological material derived from living, or recently living organisms. It most often refers to plants or plant-derived materials which are specifically called biomass. As a renewable energy source, biomass can either be used directly via combustion to produce heat, or indirectly after converting it to various forms of biofuel. Conversion of biomass to biofuel can be achieved by different methods which are broadly classified into: thermal, chemical, and biochemical methods.

5.1 Benefits of Using Biomass

- 1) Biomass used as a fuel reduces need for fossil fuels for the production of heat, steam, and electricity for residential, industrial and agricultural use.
- 2) Biomass is always available and can be produced as a renewable resource.
- 3) Biomass fuel from agriculture wastes may be a secondary product that adds value to agricultural crop.
- 4) Growing Biomass crops produce oxygen and use up carbon dioxide.
- 5) The use of waste materials reduce landfill disposal and makes more space for everything else.
- 6) Carbon Dioxide which is released when Biomass fuel is burned, is taken in by plants.
- 7) Less money spent on foreign oil.

5.2 Biofuels

A biofuel is a fuel that uses energy from a carbon fixation. These fuels are produced from living organisms. Examples of this carbon fixation are plants and microalgae. These fuels are made from a biomass conversion.

This biomass conversion can be in solid, liquid, or gas form. This new biomass can be used for bio fuels. Bio fuels have increased in popularity because of the rising oil prices and need for energy security.

Bio ethanol is an alcohol made by fermentation, mostly from carbohydrates produced in sugar or starch crops such as corn or sugarcane. Cellulosic, derived from non-food sources, such as trees and grasses, is also being developed as a feedstock for ethanol production. Ethanol can be used as a fuel for vehicles in its pure form, but it is usually used as a gasoline additive to increase octane and improve vehicle emissions.

Biodiesel is made from vegetable oils and animal fats. Biodiesel can be used as a fuel for vehicles in its pure form, but it is usually used as a diesel additive to reduce levels of particulates, carbon monoxide, and hydrocarbons from diesel-powered vehicles. Biodiesel is produced from oils or fats using transesterification.

5.3 Biopower

Biopower, or biomass power, is the use of biomass to generate electricity. Biopower system technologies include direct-firing, cofiring, gasification, pyrolysis, and anaerobic digestion.

Most biopower plants use direct-fired systems. They burn bioenergy feedstocks directly to produce steam. This steam drives a turbine, which turns a generator that converts the power into electricity. In some biomass industries, the spent steam from the power plant is also used for manufacturing processes or to heat buildings. Such combined heat and power systems greatly increase overall

energy efficiency. Paper mills, the largest current producers of biomass power, generate electricity or process heat as part of the process for recovering pulping chemicals.

Co-firing refers to mixing biomass with fossil fuels in conventional power plants. Coal-fired power plants can use co-firing systems to significantly reduce emissions, especially sulfur dioxide emissions. Gasification systems use high temperatures and an oxygen-starved environment to convert biomass into synthesis gas, a mixture of hydrogen and carbon monoxide. The synthesis gas, or "syngas," can then be chemically converted into other fuels or products, burned in a conventional boiler, or used instead of natural gas in a gas turbine. Gas turbines are very much like jet engines,

only they turn electric generators instead of propelling a jet. High-efficiency to begin with, they can be made to operate in a "combined cycle," in which their exhaust gases are used to boil water for steam, a second round of power generation, and even higher efficiency.

Using a similar thermochemical process but different conditions (totally excluding rather than limiting oxygen, in a simplified sense) will pyrolyze biomass to a liquid rather than gasify it. As with syngas, pyrolysis oil can be burned to generate electricity or used as a chemical source for making fuels, plastics, adhesives, or other bioproducts.

Bio products

The processes are similar. The petrochemical industry breaks oil and natural gas down to base chemicals and then builds desired products from them. Biochemical conversion technology breaks biomass down to component sugars, and thermochemical conversion technology breaks biomass down to carbon monoxide and hydrogen. Fermentation, chemical catalysis, and other processes can then be used to create new products.

Bioproducts that can be made from sugars include antifreeze, plastics, glues, artificial sweeteners, and gel for toothpaste. Bioproducts that can be made from carbon monoxide and hydrogen of syngas include plastics and acids, which can be used to make photographic films, textiles, and synthetic fabrics. Bioproducts that can be made from phenol, one possible extraction from pyrolysis oil, include wood adhesives, molded plastic, and foam insulation.

5.4 Photosynthesis

Photosynthesis is the process by which plants, some bacteria, and some protists use the energy from sunlight to produce sugar, which cellular respiration converts into ATP, the "fuel" used by all living things. The conversion of unusable sunlight energy into usable chemical energy, is associated with the actions of the green pigment chlorophyll. Most of the time, the photosynthetic process uses water and releases the oxygen that we absolutely must have to stay alive. Oh yes, we need the food as well!

We can write the overall reaction of this process as:

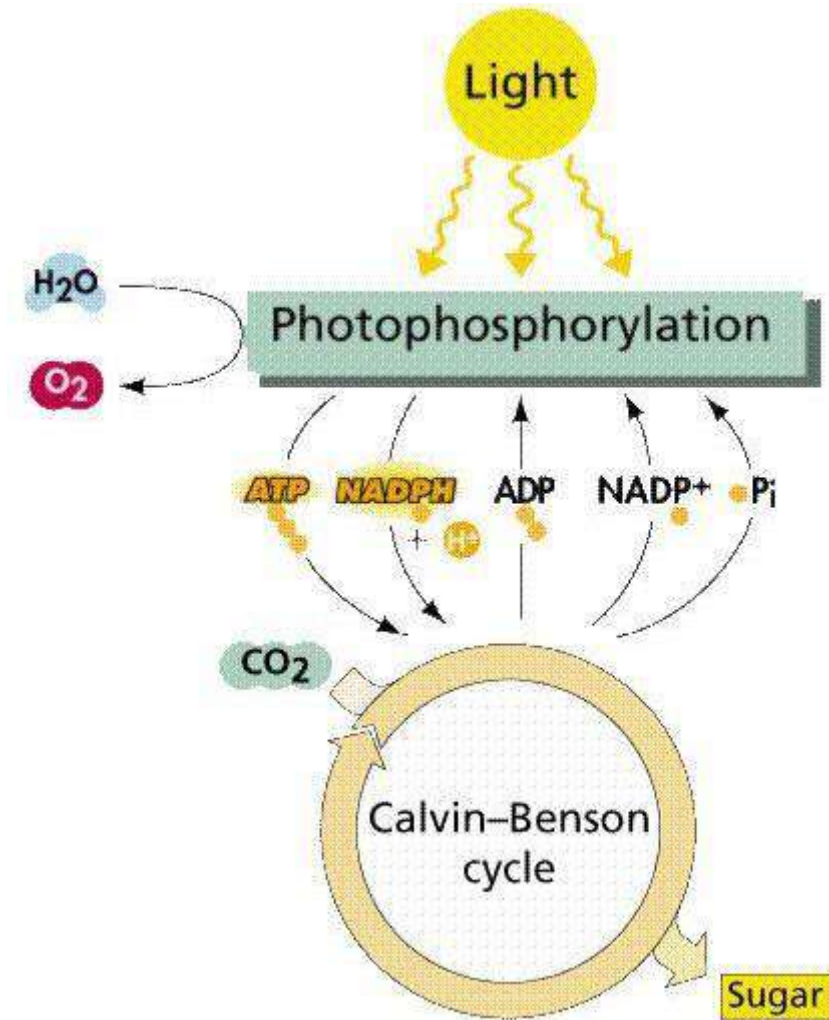


six molecules of water plus six molecules of carbon dioxide produce one molecule of sugar plus six molecules of oxygen

Photosynthetic Oxygen production

Photosynthesis is a two stage process. The first process is the Light Dependent Process (Light Reactions), requires the direct energy of light to make energy carrier molecules that are used

in the second process. The Light Independent Process (or Dark Reactions) occurs when the products of the Light Reaction are used to form C-C covalent bonds of carbohydrates. The Dark Reactions can usually occur in the dark, if the energy carriers from the light process are present. Recent evidence suggests that a major enzyme of the Dark Reaction is indirectly stimulated by light, thus the term Dark Reaction is somewhat of a misnomer. The Light Reactions occur in the grana and the Dark Reactions take place in the stroma of the chloroplasts.



Light Reactions

In the Light Dependent Processes (Light Reactions) light strikes chlorophyll a in such a way as to excite electrons to a higher energy state. In a series of reactions the energy is converted (along an electron transport process) into ATP and NADPH. Water is split in the process, releasing oxygen as a by-product of the reaction. The ATP and NADPH are used to make C-C bonds in the Light Independent Process (Dark Reactions).

Energy Plantation:

The need to grow Energy Plantations to meet fuel wood needs without affecting agricultural lands is a pressing priority. Energy plantations on waste lands is one of the most economic and versatile ways of harnessing solar energy through the photosynthetic process. In addition to making fuel wood availability, it can also improve the fertility of degraded lands. Gujarat has over 67 lakh hectares of wastelands (almost 10% of the 63 million hectares of waste land in the country) which could be productively used to grow energy plantations. GEDA had taken up energy plantation programme in 1985-86 and continued till 1998-99 linking to energy supply, food & fodder, soil regeneration, ecological development, and employment generation through efficient utilisation of wasted, unproductive and neglected lands in Abdasa Taluka of Kutch District.

Decomposition process

The process of decomposition — the breakdown of raw organic materials to a finished compost — is a gradual complex process, one in which both chemical and biological processes must occur in order for organic matter to change into compost.

there are two processes that yield compost:

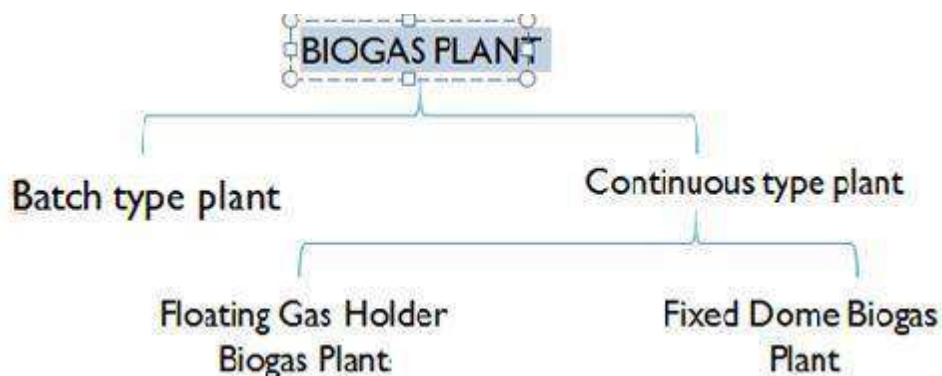
ANAEROBIC (without oxygen)

decomposition. AEROBIC (with oxygen) decomposition

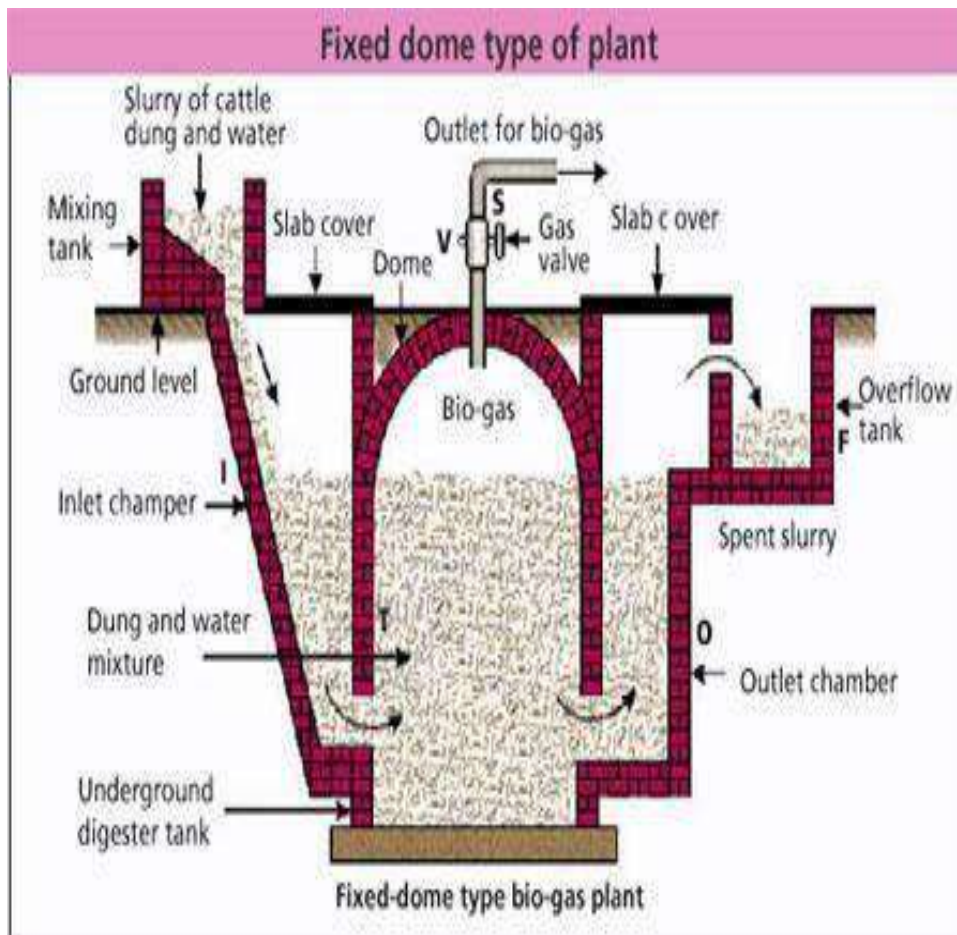
and stabilization.

In these processes, bacteria, fungi, molds, protozoa, actinomycetes, and other saprophytic organisms feed upon decaying organic materials initially, while in the later stages of decomposition mites, millipedes, centipedes, springtails, beetles and earthworms further breakdown and enrich the composting materials. The organisms will vary in the pile due to temperature conditions, but the goal in composting is to create the most favorable environment possible for the desired organisms. Differences between aerobic and anaerobic composting are discussed below.

5.5 CLASSIFICATION OF BIO GAS PLANTS



Fixed dome type of biogas plant



Raw materials required

Forms of biomass listed below may be used along with water.

- Animal dung
- Poultrywastes
- Plant wastes (Husk, grass, weedsetc.)
- Humanexcreta
- Industrial wastes(Saw dust, wastes from food processingindustries)
- Domestic wastes (Vegetable peels, waste foodmaterials)

Principle

Biogas is produced as a result of anaerobic decomposition of biomass in the presence of water.

Construction

The biogas plant is a brick and cement structure having the following five sections:

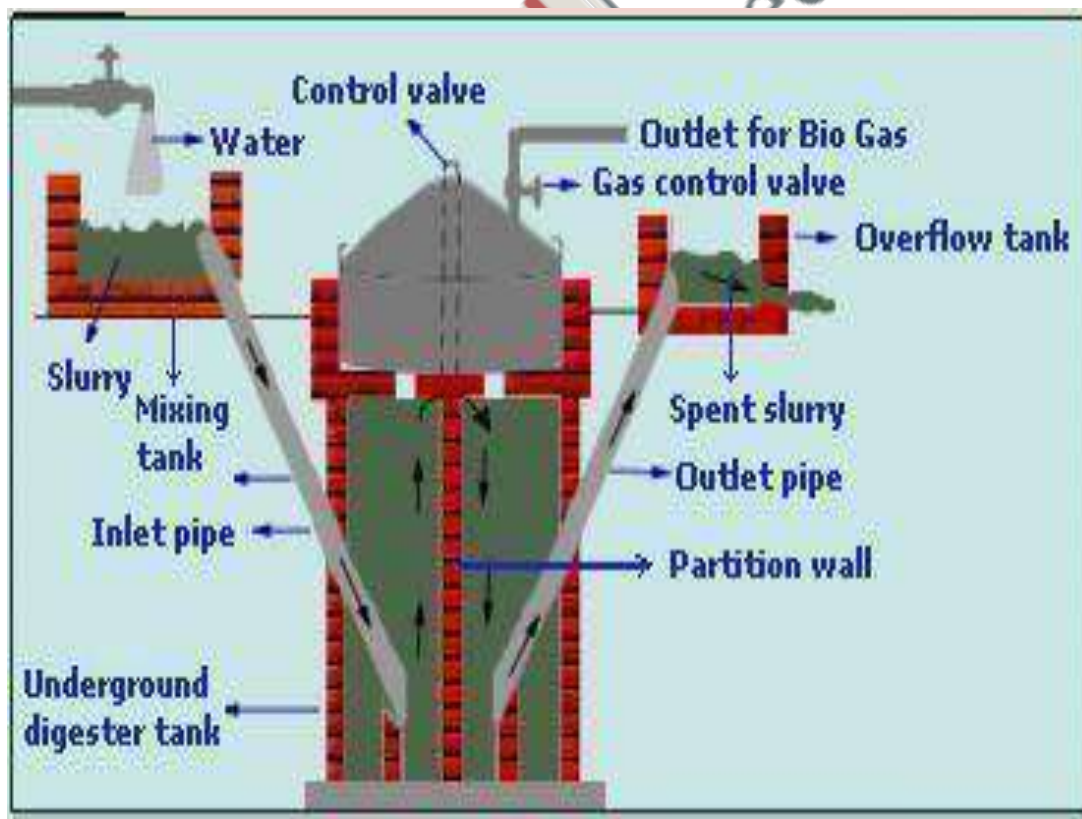
- Mixing tank present above the groundlevel.
- Inlet chamber: The mixing tank opens underground into a sloping inletchamber.
- Digester: The inlet chamber opens from below into the digester which is a huge tank with a dome like ceiling. The ceiling of the digester has an outlet with a valve for the supply ofbiogas.

- Outlet chamber: The digester opens from below into an outlet chamber.
- Overflow tank: The outlet chamber opens from the top into a small overflow tank

Working

- The various forms of biomass are mixed with an equal quantity of water in the mixing tank. This forms the slurry.
- The slurry is fed into the digester through the inlet chamber.
- When the digester is partially filled with the slurry, the introduction of slurry is stopped and the plant is left unused for about two months.
- During these two months, anaerobic bacteria present in the slurry decomposes or ferments the biomass in the presence of water.
- As a result of anaerobic decomposition, biogas is formed, which starts collecting in the dome of the digester.
- As more and more biogas starts collecting, the pressure exerted by the biogas forces the spent slurry into the outlet chamber.
- From the outlet chamber, the spent slurry overflows into the overflow tank.
- The spent slurry is manually removed from the overflow tank and used as manure for plants.
- The gas valve connected to a system of pipelines is opened when a supply of biogas is required.

Floating gas holder type of biogas plant



The raw materials used and the principle involved are common to both the types of biogas plants.

Construction

- The floating gas holder type of biogas plant has the following chambers/sections:
- Mixing Tank - present above the groundlevel.
- Digester tank - Deep underground well-like structure. It is divided into two chambers by a partition wall inbetween.
- It has two long cementpipes:
 - i) Inlet pipe opening into the inlet chamber for introduction of slurry.
 - ii) Outlet pipe opening into the overflow tank for removal of spent slurry.
- Gas holder - an inverted steel drum resting above the digester. The drum can move up and down i.e., float over the digester. The gas holder has an outlet at the top which could be connected to gas stoves.
- Over flow tank - Present above the groundlevel.

Working

- Slurry (mixture of equal quantities of biomass and water) is prepared in the mixing tank.
- The prepared slurry is fed into the inlet chamber of the digester through the inlet pipe.
- The plant is left unused for about two months and introduction of more slurry is stopped.
- During this period, anaerobic fermentation of biomass takes place in the presence of water and produces biogas in the digester.
- Biogas being lighter rises up and starts collecting in the gas holder. The gas holder now starts moving up.
- The gas holder cannot rise up beyond a certain level. As more and more gas starts collecting, more pressure begins to be exerted on the slurry.
- The spent slurry is now forced into the outlet chamber from the top of the inlet chamber.
- When the outlet chamber gets filled with the spent slurry, the excess is forced out through the outlet pipe into the overflow tank. This is later used as manure for plants.
- The gas valve of the gas outlet is opened to get a supply of biogas.
- Once the production of biogas begins, a continuous supply of gas can be ensured by regular removal of spent slurry and introduction of fresh slurry.

Thermochemical conversion on biomass

There is increasing recognition that low-cost, high capacity processes for the conversion of biomass into fuels and chemicals are essential for expanding the utilization of carbon neutral processes, reducing dependency on fossil fuel resources, and increasing rural income. While much attention has focused on the use of biomass to produce ethanol via fermentation, high capacity processes are also required for the production of hydrocarbon fuels and chemicals from lignocellulosic biomass.

5.6 Types of Gasifiers

Up draught or counter current gasifier

The oldest and simplest type of gasifier is the counter current or updraught gasifier shown schematically in Fig

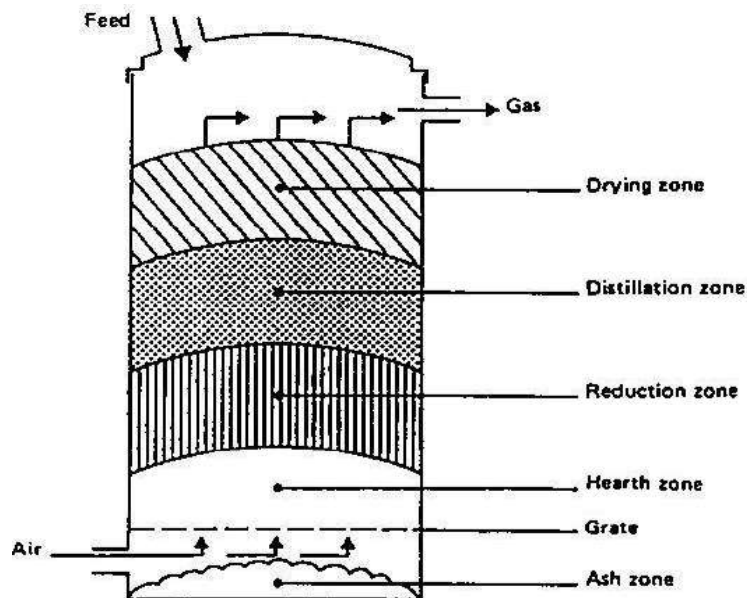


Fig:Updraught or counter current gasifier

The air intake is at the bottom and the gas leaves at the top. Near the grate at the bottom the combustion reactions occur, which are followed by reduction reactions somewhat higher up in the gasifier. In the upper part of the gasifier, heating and pyrolysis of the feedstock occur as a result of heat transfer by forced convection and radiation from the lower zones. The tars and volatiles produced during this process will be carried in the gas stream. Ashes are removed from the bottom of the gasifier.

The major advantages of this type of gasifier are its simplicity, high charcoal burn-out and internal heat exchange leading to low gas exit temperatures and high equipment efficiency, as well as the possibility of operation with many types of feedstock (sawdust, cereal hulls, etc.) .

Major drawbacks result from the possibility of "channelling" in the equipment, which can lead to oxygen break-through and dangerous, explosive situations and the necessity to install automatic moving grates, as well as from the problems associated with disposal of the tar-containing condensates that result from the gas cleaning operations. The latter is of minor importance if the gas is used for direct heat applications, in which case the tars are simply burnt.

Downdraught or co-current gasifiers

A solution to the problem of tar entrainment in the gas stream has been found by designing co-current or downdraught gasifiers, in which primary gasification air is introduced at or above the oxidation zone in the gasifier. The producer gas is removed at the bottom of the apparatus, so that fuel and gas move in the same direction, as schematically shown in Fig.

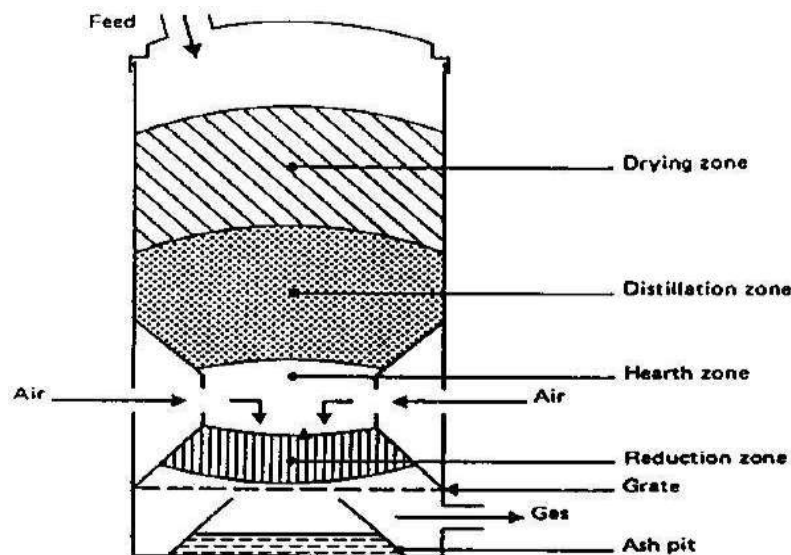


Fig: Downdraught or co-current gasifier

On their way down the acid and tarry distillation products from the fuel must pass through a glowing bed of charcoal and therefore are converted into permanent gases hydrogen, carbon dioxide, carbon monoxide and methane.

Depending on the temperature of the hot zone and the residence time of the tarry vapours, a more or less complete breakdown of the tars is achieved.

The main advantage of downdraught gasifiers lies in the possibility of producing a tar-free gas suitable for engine applications.

In practice, however, a tar-free gas is seldom if ever achieved over the whole operating range of the equipment: tar-free operating turn-down ratios of a factor 3 are considered standard; a factor 5-6 is considered excellent.

Because of the lower level of organic components in the condensate, downdraught gasifiers suffer less from environmental objections than updraught gasifiers.

A major drawback of downdraught equipment lies in its inability to operate on a number of unprocessed fuels. In particular, fluffy, low density materials give rise to flow problems and excessive pressure drop, and the solid fuel must be pelletized or briquetted before use. Downdraught gasifiers also suffer from the problems associated with high ash content fuels (slagging) to a larger extent than updraught gasifiers.

Minor drawbacks of the downdraught system, as compared to updraught, are somewhat lower efficiency resulting from the lack of internal heat exchange as well as the lower heating value of the gas. Besides this, the necessity to maintain uniform high temperatures over a given cross-sectional area makes impractical the use of downdraught gasifiers in a power range above about 350 kW (shaft power).

Cross-draught gasifier

Cross-draught gasifiers, schematically illustrated in Figure 2.9 are an adaptation for the use of charcoal. Charcoal gasification results in very high temperatures (1500 °C and higher) in the

oxidation zone which can lead to material problems. In cross draught gasifiers insulation against these high temperatures is provided by the fuel (charcoal) itself.

Advantages of the system lie in the very small scale at which it can be operated. Installations below 10 kW (shaft power) can under certain conditions be economically feasible. The reason is the very simple gas-cleaning train (only a cyclone and a hot filter) which can be employed when using this type of gasifier in conjunction with small engines.

A disadvantage of cross-draught gasifiers is their minimal tar-converting capabilities and the consequent need for high quality (low volatile content) charcoal.

It is because of the uncertainty of charcoal quality that a number of charcoal gasifiers employ the downdraught principle, in order to maintain at least a minimal tar-cracking capability.

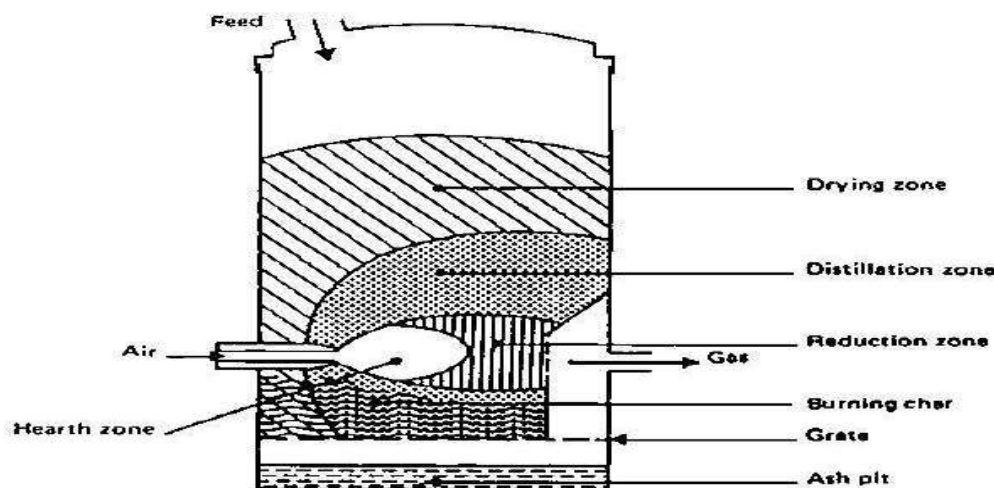


Fig: Cross draught gasifier

Fluidized bed gasifier

The operation of both up and downdraught gasifiers is influenced by the morphological, physical and chemical properties of the fuel. Problems commonly encountered are: lack of bunkerflow, slugging and extreme pressure drop over the gasifier

A design approach aiming at the removal of the above difficulties is the fluidized bed gasifier illustrated schematically in Fig

Air is blown through a bed of solid particles at a sufficient velocity to keep these in a state of suspension. The bed is originally externally heated and the feedstock is introduced as soon as a sufficiently high temperature is reached. The fuel particles are introduced at the bottom of the reactor, very quickly mixed with the bed material and almost instantaneously heated up to the bed temperature. As a result of this treatment the fuel is pyrolysed very fast, resulting in a component mix with a relatively large amount of gaseous materials. Further gasification and tar-conversion reactions occur in the gas phase. Most systems are equipped with an internal cyclone in order to minimize char blow-out as much as possible. Ash particles are also carried over the top of the reactor and have to be removed from the gas stream if the gas is used in engine applications.

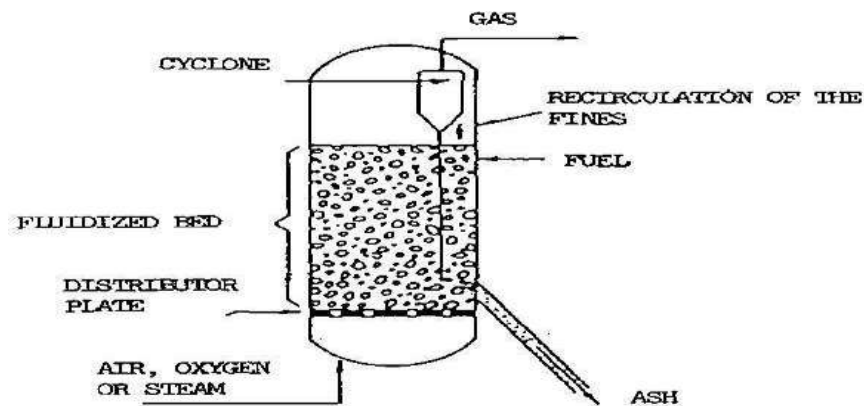


Fig ; Fluidized bed gasifier

The major advantages of fluidized bed gasifiers, as reported by Van der Aarsen (44) and others, stem from their feedstock flexibility resulting from easy control of temperature, which can be kept below the melting or fusion point of the ash (rice husks), and their ability to deal with fluffy and fine grained materials (sawdust etc.) without the need of pre-processing. Problems with feeding, instability of the bed and fly-ash sintering in the gas channels can occur with some biomass fuels.

Other drawbacks of the fluidized bed gasifier lie in the rather high tar content of the product gas (up to 500 mg/m³ gas), the incomplete carbon burn-out, and poor response to load changes.

Particularly because of the control equipment needed to cater for the latter difficulty, very small fluidized bed gasifiers are not foreseen and the application range must be tentatively set at above 500 kW (shaft power).

5.7 Ocean Thermal Energy

Principle of OTEC

Ocean Thermal Energy (OTE) has its main source in the oceans, which in turn is originated from the sun. Absorption of solar energy at the surface of the ocean creates a relatively warm layer of water (27 to 29°C) that remains above the colder (4 to 7°C), more dense water layer in the lower depths of the ocean. Rotation of the earth causes the cold water coming from the direction of the poles to flow slowly along the ocean base towards the tropics. In the tropical region, the cold

water density decreases. The water warmed in this manner, flows at the surface in another current toward the polar regions. The cycle is repeated as the water cools and starts a return trip towards the tropics. These broad currents of water carry great amounts of thermal energy. The temperature difference between the two streams is of the order of 20 to 25°C, which is an attractive and potential source for the generation of electric power. This thermal energy is used for running a turbine (using open or closed cycle) and generate electric energy.

These broad currents of water carry great amounts of thermal energy and represent potential sources of electric power. The feasibility of converting ocean thermal energy into electrical energy is dependent upon the existence of two broad currents of water, one warm and the other cold, flowing in close proximity to each other. There are numerous such locations near tropical waters, such as Caribbean sea and the gulf stream

OTE Power Plant Development

In 1882, D'Arsonval suggested that it is possible generate power based on the ocean thermal energy, by utilising the energy in the warm surface water of the ocean and rejecting heat to the colder water of the lower layer.

The first attempt to utilize the GTE was made in 1926 by G. Claude, a French scientist. He constructed a 40 kW land-based GTEC power plant near Cuba. In his plant, a part of the warm surface water was converted into steam in a low-pressure flash evaporator operating at a high vacuum. In the flash evaporating process, sensible (heat) energy in the water gets converted into latent energy. The steam produced in the evaporator was expanded in a turbine and subsequently condensed by direct contact with the cold sea water piped from the lower layer in the ocean.

However, Claude's system to utilize the GTE for power generation was not successful, mainly due to reasons like corrosive nature of the sea water (corrosion resistance materials were expensive), the pressure was low as water was evaporated at low temperature, high pumping work required for operations, requirement of very large turbine, and conveying the cold seawater to the power plant over a long distance.

Thus, Claude's experiment demonstrated that the GTE power plant will inherently require large components, have a relatively low power output, and operate at a high vacuum when the working fluid is water.

Problems Encountered in Harnessing OTEC

- 1) The sea water is more corrosive, thus the life of the plant is less.
- 2) The water can be evaporated (in a flash evaporator) at low temperatures only, thus the corresponding pressure is low, thus only smaller outputs are possible.
- 3) Much pumping work is required to remove the non- condensable gases.
- 4) The specific volume is more due to low pressure and temperature. This necessitates a large turbine.
- 5) The plants have to be based at lands, some distance away from the GTE source.

This requires long pipelines to convey cold sea water to the power plant. 6) Due to low output and large components the cost of the GTE power plant is high. 7) The plant requires expensive and large size structures for installation and operation.generator to generate electric energy. In this fashion, ocean thermal energy is converted into electric energy in open OTEC system.

5.8 Geo-thermal Energy

Geothermal energy is the thermal energy stored in under ground deposits as steam, hot water and hot dry rock. The inner core of the earth is highly radioactive, and as a consequence a natural flow of heat occurs from the core to the surface of earth, which can be harnessed into useful energy.

Geothermal energy is normally found in two basic forms, namely, in subterranean hot water or hot dry rock. In some locations, the vapour phase of the hot water is predominant, hence the geothermal energy source is described as steam. Where the hot water is entirely in the liquid phase, the term geo-hydrothermal or geo-pressurized, is applied. .

Utilization of Geothermal Energy (GTE)

Among the nonconventional energy sources, today the utilization of GTE is being investigated through a number of research and development programs. Like the solar and wind energy, GTE is quantitatively significant, but the extraction of this energy from the ground and subsequent conversion to electrical energy is not cost free and not without certain operating problems. But, geothermal energy generation is not subject to interruptions that are inherent in solar and wind power generation. The Geothermal power plant is capable of continuous operation, provided that the generating capability properly matches the energy supply.

At the Geysers, the turbines operate with inlet steam pressures of 450 and 690 kPa. Boilers There are many locations in the world where geothermal steam and water (hot) are utilized for heating buildings. Even it can be used for industrial processing.

Geothermal Power Plant Operation - General Discussions

The geothermal power plant operates on a simple, low-pressure steam power cycle. and fuel handling' equipment are not required. Also, since there is no need to conserve the condensate, a direct-contact condenser can be used

The geothermal steam discharged from a well contains a quantity of non-condensable gases that can cause operating difficulties, including corrosion in the condensing system. These gases are removed from the steam in the condenser by the vacuum pump, usually a steam jet ejector, and expelled into the atmosphere.

Most of the wells drilled for geothermal power production discharge a mixture of steam and water. If the hydrostatic pressure is sufficiently high at the bottom of the well, the water will flow, unaided to the surface. Hot water rising in the well and subjected to reduced pressure, partially flashes into vapour. At the well head the water is mechanically removed from the mixture in cyclone separators, and the relatively dry steam is transported to the power station.

The steam and water mixture flowing from the geothermal wells contains dissolved solids that are particularly troublesome. It ranges from 1 to 20 gm per kg of water. In addition to the dissolved solids some wells may give out the mixture containing some acids. In general, the dissolved solids and acids in geothermal water cause scaling and corrosion. Scale formation can be particularly severe in the outflow pipeline in which the discarded water is carried away from the separator.

Geothermal power production causes air and water pollution in operation. Ear splitting noise caused by escaping steam and the escape of radioactive gases are other objectionable characteristics that have been observed.

Advantages & Disadvantages of GTE

Advantages

- 1) GTE is available free of cost, in large quantities.
- 2) There are no interruptions in GTE conversion as in solar and wind energy conversions.

- 3) It is capable of continuous operation.
- 4) Boiler and Fuel handling equipment are not required.
- 5) There is no need to conserve the condensate, thus a direct contact condensate can be used.
- 6) Operation and maintenance costs are less.

Dis.advantages

- 1) Such plants will always be located far away from the load centres.
- 2) Erection and installation costs are high.
- 3) It causes air, water, thermal and noise pollution. Ear-splitting noise caused by the escaping steam causes noise pollution.
- 4) The hot water geothermal sources have higher mineral contents and their disposal is a problem.
- 5) Seismic activities are caused, if water is injected into hot rocks to recover the thermal energy.

SOURCES OF GEOTHERMAL ENERGY

The various sources of geothermal energy are as follows

- 1) *Hydrothermal systems*: In these, water is heated by contact with hot-rock in the earth's crust. The temperature of the steam raised by this is in the range of 150 to 200°C.
- 2) *Geopressure system*: These sources are similar to hydrothermal systems, and are reservoirs of high temperature water under high pressures (50 to 100 MPa).
- 3) *Hot dry rocks (HDR)*: Also termed *petrothermal systems*, are very hot solid rocks available in the earth's crust at medium depths (2 to 5 km). The temperature is of the order of 300°C.
- 4) *Magma source*: These are molten rocks with temperature much above 750°C, available in deep earth's crust.

Presently, the hydrothermal systems and hot dry rocks are more feasible for geothermal energy harnessing.

Hydrothermal Systems

In these, water is heated by contact with hot-rock in the earth's crust. These are two types of hydrothermal systems:

a) *Steam dominated systems*

In this type of geothermal system, water is vaporised into steam at the lower level in the earth's crust. The steam rises to the earth's surface in a dry state (about 200°C and more than 2 MPa pressure). This dry steam can be used conveniently and directly to run steam turbines and generate electric power. The schematic of such a system is illustrated

b) *Water dominated systems*

In this type of geothermal system, hot water slightly above 150°C under high pressure available under the earth's crust is utilised. Since the water is under pressure, it does not boil even above 100°C. When trapped by wells, the water rises to the surface and loses

(5) *Subsidence*

The removal of huge quantities of underground water causes land subsidence (collapse of ground layers, and *ialln .tb2.f}IOJ.JDO~*). *Subsidence* causes stre~C\f, pij:>effnes and ~joJhe...w~ e#~ccm 6e great(y reduced by reinjection of *the used water*. (6) *Seismic Activity*

It is also possible that earth quakes may take place, if continuous underground water exploitation is done. One cause could be the large underground land subsidence. Even the reinjection of used water may cause seismic activity due to high temperature difference.

(7) *Fog due to escaping steam*

The entry of steam from the cooling towers, separators into the environment may lead to the formation of dense fog which may drift to the nearby busy living areas and cause problems. Also the temperature of the environment may increase leading to thermal pollution and cause discomfort in the surrounding areas due to increases in humidity.

(8) *Sand & other solid particles*

The high pressure water from the geothermal system usually carries sand and other solid particles. These cause separation problem, erosion and scaling problems in the equipments. This causes a lot of maintenance problems for the plant and loss of efficiency.

then extracted by circulating water to produce steam and then run turbines

Problems in Geothermal Conversion Systems

To generate the power the heat energy of the magma has to be tapped by drilling holes close to the magma chamber, where the temperature is around 1800°C. The energy
There are a number problems associated with the operation of geothermal systems.

Some of the major problems are discussed here.

(1) *Solid particles and non-condensable Gases*

The steam/water from hydrothermal reservoirs contain solid particles and non: condensable gases. The solid particles ar~ removed using centrifugal separators at the well exit and by strainers before the turbine entry. This leads to pressure and temperature loss and hence loss of the thermal efficiency of the complete system.

The main non-condensable gases in the geothermal sources are CO₂ (70 to 80%) and small amounts of methane, H₂, N₂, NH₃ and H₂S. These gases along with the fluid enter equipments and also escape to the atmosphere through condenser, ejectors and cooling towers. These gases in the equipments cause corrosion and scaling problems. The gases, particularly H₂S (a poisonous gas), are also harmful to the living beings.

(2) *Discharge of Used Water*

Discharging large quantities of used water from the geothermal systems to rivers and seas will cause water pollution (both thermal and chemical). This may make the water toxic and becomes hazardous to the animals and users. A possible solution to this problem is to reinject the used water into the well so that land subsidence can be minimised and also avoid environmental pollution.

(3) *Noise Pollution*

In geothermal systems noise pollution is also a major problem. Exhaust~, blow down and centrifugal separators work always with high noise, which is hazardous to the working people. The noise can be minimised by using silencers and its effect on working people can be reduced by using noise protective devices.

4) *Atmospheric Pollution*

The harmful gases in the geothermal water after use will escape (from the cooling tower, separator, etc.) and cause atmospheric pollution. Hydrogen sulphide (H₂S) is highly toxic and harmful to the living beings.

Air pollution is severe due to the emission of heavy radioactive gases and hydrogen sulphide gas from the wells. Due to its poor steam condition, geothermal plant discharges. more thermal

energy into environment (3 times that of a conventional thermal plant) causing thermal pollution. The steam-water from well brings many corrosive substances which when mixed with atmospheric water, cause water pollution.

5.9 Summary

Tidal turbines are a new technology that can be used in many tidal areas. They are basically wind turbines that can be located anywhere there is strong tidal flow. Because water is about 800 times denser than air, tidal turbines will have to be much sturdier than wind turbines. They will be heavier and more expensive to build but will be able to capture more energy.

5.10 Question bank

1. With the sketch Explain the open cycle OTEC system
2. Enlist the different geothermal resources
3. With the help of a sketch explain the “Hot dry Rock” geothermal plant
4. List any six advantages and disadvantages of Geothermal Energy

