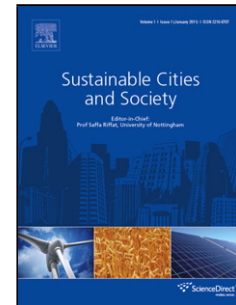


# Journal Pre-proof

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# Improving energy efficiency of commercial buildings by Combined Heat Cooling and Power plants

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## Highlights

- x Combined Heat, Cooling and Power plants are proposed as retrofit solutions for improving energy efficiency of commercial buildings.
- x A big Do It Yourself shop located in the northern part of Italy was assumed as a case study.
- x The analysis is based on real energy consumption data available from energy audits.
- x A flexible profit-oriented management strategy is applied for operating the CHCP plant.
- x Results showed that CHCP systems could help to reduce energy consumptions and greenhouse gas emissions in the commercial sector.

## ABSTRACT

Commercial buildings play a key role in the energy consumption of the building sector. Recent statistics have shown that the number of commercial buildings is continuously increasing and their effect on energy consumption is expected to grow. These buildings are characterized by high energy demand, mainly due to lighting and HVAC requirements. Rooms of energy saving exist by considering that: (i) electricity demands and HVAC requirements occur simultaneously during the day and (ii) both demands are currently satisfied by using separate energy systems. It is apparent that the adoption of polygeneration systems could represent a valid solution to achieve energy savings. To this aim, the paper investigates the profitability of a trigeneration system for commercial buildings, considering a big Do It Yourself shop located in the northern part of Italy, as case study. The analysis was based on (i) energy consumption data collected by energy audits and (ii) a profit-oriented management strategy for the trigeneration systems.

proposed in literature. Results showed that trigeneration represents a profitable energy conversion system thanks to revenues achieved by selling surplus electricity and support of ILQDQFLDO PHK Efficiency Eligibility. In comparison with the currently adopted energy conversion systems, important reductions in energy consumption and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions are observed.

Keywords: Combined Heat Cooling and Power, Commercial building, Energy Saving, Energy systems design and operation

## NOMENCLATURE

a,b	$\frac{1}{4}$ N	D Q G	Constants for linearized cost figures of a component
Capacity	(kW)		Nominal Capacity of Prime Mover or Absorption Chiller
COP	(dimensionless)		Coefficient of Performance
D	(kWh)		Thermal Cooling or Electricity Hourly Demand
E	(kWh)		Electricity produced on yearly basis
F	(kWh)		Energy Supplied to CHP or Auxiliary unit
H	(kWh)		Heat recovered on yearly basis
HLV	(kJ/kg) or (kJ/m <sup>3</sup> )		Heating Low Value
i	(dimensionless)		Interest Rate
MP	(€/kWh or €/m <sup>3</sup> )		Market Price of electricity or Natural Gas
$\eta_{5HI}$	(dimensionless)		Reference efficiency for electricity production
$\eta_{5HI}$	(dimensionless)		Reference efficiency for heat production
RISP	(MWh)		Primary Energy Saved
WhC	(dimensionless)		Number of White Certificates
Z	$\frac{1}{4}$		Cost for equipment purchase

## Subscripts

abs	Referred to Absorption Chiller
buy	Referred to electricity bought from the grid
c	$\eta_{c}$
CHP	$\eta_{CHP}$
comp	$\eta_{comp}$
e	Referred to electricity
hp	$\eta_{hp}$
nonCHP	$\eta_{nonCHP}$
ref	$\eta_{ref}$
sell	Referred to electricity sold to the grid
th	$\eta_{th}$
waste radiator	$\eta_{waste radiator}$

## Greek Symbols

$\eta$	(dimensionless)	Efficiency
$\mu$	(kgco <sub>2</sub> /kWh <sub>e</sub> )	Emission Factor of electricity consumed from the grid

## Acronyms

AHU	Air Handling Unit
CHP	Combined Heat and Power
CHCP	Combined Heat, Cooling and Power
DPBT	Discounted Payback Time

ESFL	Energy Supplied at Full Load
ET	Electricity Tracking mode
HT	Heat Tracking mode
HVAC	Heating, Ventilation and Air Conditioning
ICE	Internal Combustion Engine
LL	load level of a component
NPV	Net Present Value
PES	Primary Energy Saving
PHR	Power to Heat Ratio
RTU	Rooftop Unit
SS	Spark Spread
TSS	Total Supply Spread

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Buildings are responsible of a significant share of the total primary energy demand. In European Union (EU), this sector affects for the 40% of the total energy consumption [1]. In particular, recent statistics on the total primary energy consumption reveal a relevant role of the commercial and public services. In fact, as shown in Figure 1, this sector contributes to the consumption of 288 MTOE in the last available year (i.e. 2017) which represents 14.53 % of the total primary energy consumption in Europe.

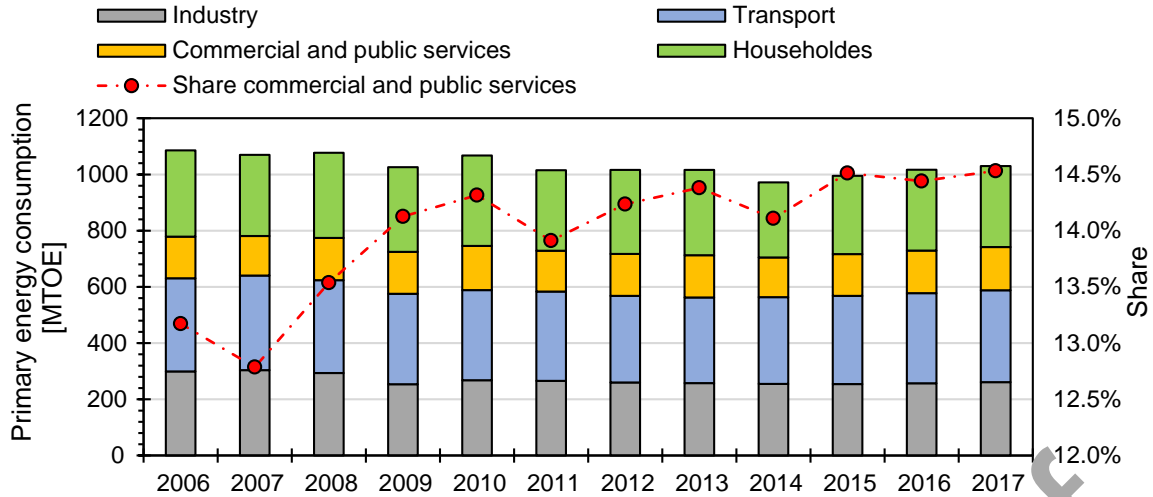


Figure 1. Annual primary energy consumption in Europe by sector and share of the commercial and public services sector

In Figure 2 energy carriers adopted to satisfy the primary energy demand of commercial and public sectors are shown. It is possible to observe an increase of the electricity consumption and the progressive adoption of renewable energy sources as well [2]. Conversely, the use of district heating grid is almost stable whereas the utilization of fossil fuels has a slowly decreasing trend. More specifically according to the last available year (2017) the share of energy carriers was composed by 46.69 % electricity, 29.35 % natural gas, 6.25 % heat, 10.39 % oil and derivatives, 6.39 % renewables and finally 0.79 % other sources.

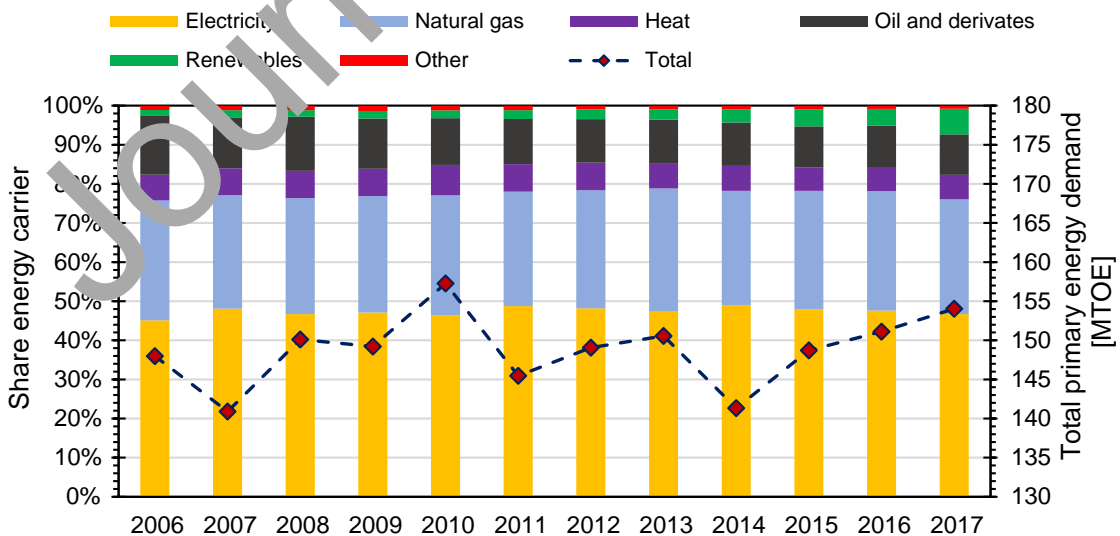


Figure 2. Energy carriers used in commercial and public services sector

In this context, it is interesting to analyze the role played by big shopping centers. It is estimated that the total shopping center floorspace in Europe covers a surface of 166.5 million square meters, with an annual increase rate of 2.3%. Focusing in the Italian context, Figure 3 underlines a growing trend of commercial activities such as malls (shopping centers for all products) and supermarkets (mainly food). The Italian malls and supermarkets cover a surface of 3.58 and 10.12 millions of square meters, respectively, representing altogether the 8.23% of the European total shopping center space [3], [4].

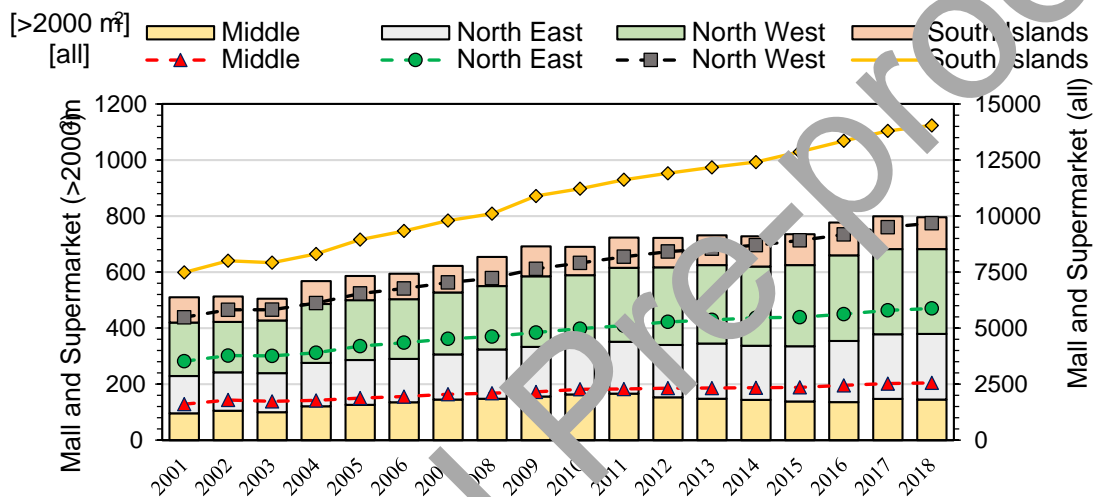


Figure 3. Number of shopping centers over sixteen years in Italy

From previous data, it is apparent that improving the energy performance of commercial building sectors could contribute to the sustainable development of cities. For these reasons, the investigation of energy saving techniques to be implemented is of utmost importance and some studies have been focused to this aim.

In big shopping centers, the energy consumption is mainly due to the lighting systems designed to enhance goods qualities and due to the HVAC systems in order to assure indoor comfort of customers [5], [6]. In order to minimize the primary energy consumption, all plants should be

correctly sized and properly managed. For instance, a little increase of the indoor temperature setpoint during summer reduces considerably the energy demand of the building. However, this aspect should be carefully evaluated for commercial reasons, such as the limitation of the outdoor lighting in malls can dissatisfy the customer [7], [8]. Thus, excluding the potential modulation of the operative conditions of the existing plants, the remaining solutions are related to the adoption of new devices, materials and control systems in order to reduce the primary energy consumption [9]. About lighting plants, LED lamps are currently spreading worldwide, replacing the old lamps (mainly fluorescent and high pressure sodium) thanks to the greater energy efficiency. This technology allows also the modulation of the artificial luminous flux as function of the natural contribution through skylights and windows. Focusing on the indoor temperature and air quality control, several approaches can be adopted to obtain a reduction of the primary energy demand:

- x Install heat exchangers in order to recover the heat from exhaust air
- x Replace the old Air Handling Units (AHU), Roof Top Units (RTU) and chillers with more modern and energy saving ones.

In detail, the energy performance of the building depends on the local climatic conditions. In existing buildings, common techniques adopted are the realization of thermal isolation by the addition of special layers and the replacing of the old windows with the new double and triple glazed windows [13]. In new buildings, the free cooling can be promoted by the realization of a solar chimney [14], [15]. Focusing on HVAC plants, heat exchangers represent nowadays a commercial solution to recover a significant ratio of the sensible heat from the exhaust air. New technologies are also under development in order to recover also a part of the latent heat [16]. In the last years, a significant increase of the energy efficiency of AHU, RTU and chiller has been achieved thanks to the introduction of new control



techniques, such as the adoption of inverters to modulate the thermal power output as function of the real requirements [17].

As previously shown, retrofit interventions in commercial buildings are mostly carried out according to a fragmented approach, which involve: (i) improvement in the energy performance of the envelope (ii) installation of low-consuming energy conversion systems or (iii) adoption of renewable energy based technologies for electricity generation such as photovoltaic panels. However, opportunities of energy savings exist by considering that commercial buildings are usually characterized by simultaneous electric and thermal demands which are usually satisfied by using separate and obsolete systems. With this respect cogeneration (CHP) or trigeneration (CHCP) systems could represent a solution for reducing the energy consumption in this sector.

Even though CHP or CHCP are not new concepts, for long time they represented a viable option to improve the energy efficiency only in industrial processes where regular load profiles allowed for reducing risks due to high capital expenditures. However, design and operation of CHP/CHCP systems for the building sector is a very complex issue mainly due to the highly variable energy demand on a daily basis. To this regard, design of grid-connected systems covering a variable energy demand cannot be effectively optimized with the optimization of management strategy. Indeed, these two aspects are interrelated and algorithms for the integrated optimization of design and operation have been proposed. For instance in [18], a tool for efficient design and operation of polygeneration based energy microgrids serving a cluster of buildings was proposed and then applied to a case study [19]. Other published papers proposed stochastic optimization of design [20] and operation [21] of cogeneration systems. Furthermore, it is widely recognized that the adoption of this technology should be encouraged by making it more economically attractive, either by increasing the expected returns or decreasing the risks of such investments. From a legislative point of view, EU Directives

2004/8/EC[22] and 2012/27/EU[23] recognized the key role played by cogeneration for decreasing the primary energy consumptions and the related greenhouse gas emissions. Also, in Directive 2004/8/EC W K H F R O H H S W i e R t 1 & + 3 S O a S O W U d e d for those systems which fulfil some precise criteria in terms of energy efficiency and reduction of primary energy consumption[22]. In these cases, CHP/CHCP systems are supported by a financial mechanism aimed to help investors by increasing revenues and reducing risks associated to the investments. Few published papers have been focused on CHP/CHCP systems for commercial buildings. In 2004, Zogg et al. [24] evaluated the benefits of cogeneration for different types of commercial buildings in the United States of America by taking into account the available commercial technologies. For the selected case studies, the authors highlighted that promising primary energy saving could be reached. The high investment required by CHP systems could represent a barrier to their spread. [25], Gonzalez and Nebra considered natural gas fueled CHP systems for industries and commercial sector in Peru. The authors asserted that these plants could be a very promising energy saving solution in Peru, since diesel and coal based technologies are still popular. In [26], Carragher et al. investigated gas turbine based CHP systems for commercial buildings considering the effects of market and climate conditions. Optimal sizes were determined according to different climate conditions. It is relevant to observe that previous studies were mainly focused on the design of CHP systems by relying on energy consumption data from load simulations and not on realistic operation of commercial buildings. Other analyses, conversely, usually assumed hotel buildings as reference case studies. It is interesting to evaluate energy saving potential and profits that could be achieved when CHCP plants are proposed as energy systems for big shopping centres. In fact, these buildings are equipped with plants used with a relevant capacity factor, due to a high number of working

days and operation of plants close to nominal capacities. Therefore, the introduction of more efficient solutions could lead to significant annual energy savings.

Furthermore, the construction of new shopping centres usually involves opening of other activities in same territory like cinemas, restaurants, dental clinic [27]. Thus, the introduction of polygeneration systems in big shopping centres could represent a starting point to plan a small energy district. In this way, different energy carriers can be shared in order to satisfy the total primary energy demand in a more rational way than in cases where the electricity and thermal demands are met by separate plants. For instance, larger CHCP plants may be installed on commercial buildings and serve also a cluster of buildings in a small area nearby, by distributing electricity and heat recovered from the prime mover through networks [28]. At least two benefits could be recognized: (i) CHCP plants could improve the energy sustainability of small areas of cities and (ii) the adoption of larger plants could reduce the risks related to the high investments, since the unitary costs of CHCP plants are usually reduced by the high scale factors in the market.

In this paper, the profitability of CHCP plants is investigated for an existing commercial building in the northern part of Italy, assuming the criterion proposed [29] for design and operation of polygeneration systems. The study was based on real energy consumption data of the case study in order to achieve more robust results. The paper was structured as follows:

- In the second section, some notes on the objective criterion followed for the design and operation of CHCP system are provided. Then, details on the design and eligibility criteria are provided.
- In the third section, a detailed description of the case study is given, focusing on the current energy conversion systems adopted to meet electricity demand and HVAC requirements.

- In the fourth section, details on the CHCP plant proposed for the case study are provided;
- In the last section, results of this analysis are shown and discussed

## 2. NOTES ON THE CRITERION FOR DESIGN AND OPERATION OF CHCP SYSTEMS

Design of cogeneration and trigeneration systems is usually carried out by using the heuristic method as the Energy Supplied at Full Load (ESFL). This method relies on user's duration curve of heat demand for the selection of the size of the prime mover to be installed in the CHP plant. Duration curve relates the heat demand level with the annual number of hours such a demand is observed [30]. This approach selects the size of the prime mover which allows for maximizing the energy supplied by running it at its full capacity. It is apparent that undersize or oversize of the prime movers is avoided, while providing a good compromise between the following requirements (i) the capability to cover a good fraction of annual heat demand by operating the CHP unit at high Load Levels (LL) and (ii) the achievement of satisfactory overall energy conversion efficiency [30].

When considering the design of CHCP systems, the aggregate thermal load (ATL) is used instead of the duration curve of heat demand. As shown in Eq. 1,  $ATL$  represents the total heat load resulting by  $Q_{AC}$  for air conditioning and domestic  $Q_{DH}$   $Q_{CH}$  represents the heat needed to feed an absorption chiller used to satisfy the entire cooling demand.

(1)

In Eq. 1,  $COP_{CH}$  is the coefficient of performance of an absorption chiller fuelled by the heat recovered from the prime mover of CHP unit.  $D_c$  and  $D_{th}$

and thermal demands. It is evident that the adoption of the ATD curve instead of the heat demand duration curve allows for increasing the number of operating hours of the prime mover during the year since the cooling demand is also satisfied by using a trigeneration setup (CHP unit and absorption chiller) instead of electrically driven systems like chillers or rooftop units. When CHP (or CHCP) systems operate in the field, the amount of electricity and heat produced does not match instantaneously. Two strategies for operating CHP systems are usually adopted, which are indicated as Electric Tracking mode (ET) and Heat Tracking mode (HT). Each one indicates which output of the plant (i.e. electricity or heat) to control the prime mover [31]. It can be shown that the HT mode allows for achieving higher primary energy saving, since no excess heat is produced and the electricity surplus is instantaneously exchanged with the grid. Conversely, when adopting ET mode, a fraction of the heat recovered from the prime mover has to be dissipated during those hours characterized by high electricity demand and moderate heat demand, which eventually affects the primary energy saving achieved [30]. However, some economic benefits could not be exploited when a HT mode is adopted. In fact, during hours characterized by high selling prices of electricity but low thermal demand, the adoption of ET mode obligates the modulation of both thermal and electrical power output in order to meet thermal demand. As stressed in [30], in these hours it could be more profitable to maintain higher power productions in order to avoid the purchase of electricity or even sell the electricity surplus to the local grid. Hence, CHP units should be operated at a level higher than the one resulting from HT mode even though an amount of heat produced by the CHP unit is rejected via an emergency radiator. However, it was proven that this energy loss slightly affects the achieved total primary energy saving [29].

Based on the previous consideration, a profit-oriented management criterion was proposed in [29] and here briefly described. For a sake of clarity, a synthetic diagram is shown in Figure

After the selection of the nominal capacity of the CHCP prime mover according to the ESFL criterion, decisions about the convenience should be made about its operation or shutdown. To this aim, the Total Supply Spread indicator is defined for both cooling and heating periods. In Eq. 2, the thermal Total Supply Spread (TSS<sub>h</sub>) is defined for heating period. This indicator is the ratio between the costs sustained respectively by 'separated' and 'combined' production of 1 kWh electricity and the corresponding amount of heat recovered.

In Eq. 2,  $P_e$  and  $P_h$  are respectively the market prices of fuel and electricity is the reference efficiency for the separate production of heat.  $\eta_{e,ref}$  is the electric nominal efficiency of the CHP plant.  $\eta_{p,ref}$  is the power to heat ratio of the prime mover and  $HLV_{fuel}$  is the low heating value of the fuel used by the plant. A CO<sub>2</sub> factor is introduced due to different energy units adopted in the variables. For example, in case of natural gas, they are:  $MP_e = 1/4 \text{ N : K}$ ,  $MP_{fuel} = 1/4 \text{ P}$ , and  $HLV_{fuel} \text{ (kJ/Sm}^3\text{)}$ .

In Eq. 3 the cooling Total Supply Spread (TSS<sub>c</sub>) is defined to evaluate the profitability achievable when the heat is used to feed an absorption cycle to meet the cooling demand

(3)

In Eq. 3,  $Q_{cool}$  is the cooling demand and fuelled by the heat recovered from the prime mover of the CHP. From previous definitions of TSS, it follows that these indicators are greater than one, costs sustained for operating a separate energy production system are greater than those of a CHCP

system, and so the use of CHCP plant is more convenient. Conversely, when the TSS is lower than one, the CHCP system should be switched as its operation is not more profitable.

Once decided if it is convenient or not to operate the CHCP system, it is necessary to evaluate if it is better to strictly operate the plant in HT mode or in a flexible mode, thus allowing for a surplus heat production.

To this purpose, a  $\mu$  is proposed, which is expressed by Eq. 4.

the introduction of the Spark Spread (SS) indicator as defined in Eq. 4. In detail, SS represents the ratio between the purchasing price of electricity and the cost sustained for its production by using a CHP plant. It is interesting to observe that  $SS < TSS$  by comparing Eq. 4 to Eq. 2 and 3.

$$(4)$$

By combining the aforementioned indicators, three operating scenarios for CHP/CHCP systems can be identified, as shown in Figure. 4. In particular:

- when  $SS > 1$  (and consequently  $TSS > 1$ ) the CHCP unit can be operated at full-load and the surplus heat produced by the CHP unit is dissipated via an emergency radiator. Indeed, in comparison with the selling price of electricity, the fuel price is so low to justify the utilization of CHCP unit as a traditional fossil fuel supplied generator and producing thermal energy as a secondary benefit. Therefore, it is profitable to sell the surplus electricity produced by the CHP plant to the grid.
- when  $SS < 1$  and  $TSS > 1$ , the combined heat and power production is still profitable but the CHCP unit should be operated in tracking mode as no profit is achieved by selling electricity to the grid.

- $TSS < 1$  (and consequently also  $SS < 1$ ), no profit is achieved by using a CHP system with respect to a separate production system, therefore the prime mover should be switched off.

It should be stressed that the proposed criteria also account for technically feasible CHP operation like the minimum partload operation ( $L_{min}$ ) of the prime mover. For instance, for a reciprocating internal combustion engine (ICE), the minimum-partload operation ranges among 30%–40% of the nominal capacity. In order to account for this limit, those hours characterized by demands which require the CHP unit to operate below the minimum partload operation ( $L_{min}$ ) value, are excluded from the analysis.

Figure 4. Flexible profit-oriented CHP management strategy: summarizing scheme

## 2.1 Notes on High-Efficient Eligibility of CHP plant according to Italian legislative framework

One of the most important concepts introduced by the Directive 2004/8/EC is the eligibility of CHP systems as High Efficient cogeneration plant [22].

Before evaluating the high-efficient eligibility, it is necessary to understand if the total amount of electrical power produced by the CHP plant can be considered



cogenerative mode or not. To this aim, it is first required to calculate the total energy efficiency of the CHP plant as shown in Eq.5.

$$(5)$$

where  $E_{\text{plant}}$  and  $F_{\text{plant}}$  represent respectively the total amount of gross electricity produced and fuel consumed by the plant and  $H_{\text{CHP}}$  is the useful heat recovered. According to legislative requirements [22],  $\eta_{\text{total}}$  must be compared with a threshold efficiency, whose value for gas turbines and internal combustion heat engines is fixed at 0.75 by law.

To this regard, two situations may occur:

1. The total efficiency of the plant is equal or higher than the corresponding threshold. In this case the total amounts of electricity production and fuel consumption are assessed

$$E_{\text{plant}} = E_{\text{CHP}} \text{ and } F_{\text{plant}} = F_{\text{CHP}}$$

2. The total efficiency of the plant is lower than the corresponding threshold. In this case the plant is virtually divided into two sub-units: one related to electricity production and fuel consumption are consequently split into two fractions,

$$E_{\text{plant}} = E_{\text{CHP}} \text{ and } F_{\text{plant}} = F_{\text{CHP}}$$

$$E_{\text{plant}} = E_{\text{CHP}} \text{ and } F_{\text{plant}} = F_{\text{CHP}}$$

Once calculated  $H_{\text{CHP}}$ ,  $E_{\text{CHP}}$  and  $F_{\text{CHP}}$ , in order to verify whether the plant should be assessed

High efficiency & + 3' RES (Primary Energy Saving) index must be calculated, as shown in Eq. 6.

$$(6)$$

In Eq. 6,  $\eta_{CHP}$  and  $\eta_{CHPE}$  are respectively calculated as  $\frac{E_{CHP}}{F_{CHP}}$  and  $\frac{E_{CHP}}{F_{CHP}}$ , while  $\eta_{Ref+}$  and  $\eta_{Ref-}$  represent the reference efficiencies used for units producing separately heat and electricity. These efficiencies are fixed depending on the fuel consumed and the year of construction of the CHP plant. As concerns the heat recovery, reference efficiency values for heat production depends on the stream used as heat transfer medium (i.e. direct use of combustion gases or production of steam or hot water). As regards the reference electrical efficiency, it depends also on the average air temperature of the country where the plant is installed, and the electrical power output voltage of the CHP system. In order to be assessed as 'High-Efficient & +3' the Directive 2004/8/EC indicates as efficient cogeneration any CHP plant fulfilling the following conditions: any plant with an installed capacity above 1 MW<sub>e</sub> must achieve PES = 10%, and any positive value for small and micro-CHP. Respectively below 1 MW<sub>e</sub> and 50 kW<sub>e</sub> [22].

2. Q. F. H. Y. H. U. L. I. L. H. E. F. F. I. C. I. E. N. T. H. H. O. L. L. U. K. E. L. I. N. I. V. E. S. T. I. G. A. T. I. O. N. I. N. A. C. C. O. R. D. I. N. C. E. A. C. T. I. O. N. E. U. R. O. P. E. A. N. D. I. T. I. S. P. O. S. S. I. B. L. E. T. O. Q. U. A. N. T. I. F. Y. T. H. E. E. C. O. N. O. M. I. C. R. E. V. E. N. U. E. S. O. B. T. A. I. N. A. B. L. E. B. Y. T. H. E. N. A. T. I. O. N. A. L. V. X. S. S. R. U. W. P. H. F. K. D. Q. L. V. P. Y. K. U. L. Q. V. W. D. Q. F. H. L. Q. , W. D. O. \- W. K. H. D. F. E. I. I. L. F. L. H. Q. W. ' & +3 S. O. D. O. W. D. U. H. F. D. O. S. F. K. S. D. O. W. H. (C. E. S. I. D. I. R. E. S. 7) W. L. R. Q. D. C. [32], which quantifies the energy saving (measured in MWh) by the adoption of the CHCP system in comparison with the separate production. This indicator considers thermal and electrical efficiency of the reference separate energy conversion systems, denoted as  $\eta_{Ref+}$  and  $\eta_{Ref-}$  in Eq. 7, which are calculated according to the legislative framework provided [22], and which are different from the ones used in Eq. 6

(7)

For example in 2005 [33] a specific instrument was introduced in Italy to certify the energy saving achieved in an energy system after carrying out some actions aimed at improving its energy performance. This tool is usually known as "Energy Saving Certificate" or equivalently "White Tag" or "White Certificate":  $K$ . In detail, 1 WhC is equal to 1 ton of equivalent oil (TOE) of primary energy saved and issued by the Italian agency  $3 \cdot H \cdot V \cdot W \cdot R \cdot U \cdot H \cdot G \cdot H \cdot L \cdot 6 \cdot H \cdot U$  (QHUIJHVW). In particular, once quantified the RISP achieved according to Eq. 7, the number of White Certificates obtainable equal to:

In Eq. 8, the factor 0.086 is used to convert MWh in TOE. The coefficient  $K$  is a function of CHP plant size and the corresponding values are reported [62], it is important to observe that once qualified as "High Efficient" plants, CHCP systems are supported by this mechanism only for 10 years from the beginning of its operation [64].

### 3. DESCRIPTION OF THE CASE STUDY

As previously mentioned, the case study is a big Do It Yourself (DIY) shop located in Milan, in the Northern part of Italy (latitude 45.5°N, longitude 9.36°E). The sale area has a gross surface of about 6830 m<sup>2</sup> with an average height of 7.8 m. The warehouse and the offices cover respectively a surface of 90 m<sup>2</sup> and 410 m<sup>2</sup>. The following systems are currently installed to satisfy the HVAC demands:

- The sale area of the shopping centre is equipped with rooftop units (RTUs), having the technical specific provided in Table 1. During winter, two boilers fuelled by natural gas (740 kW thermal nominal capacity each) are used to satisfy air conditioning demand. Indeed in addition to the refrigerant circuit all RTUs are equipped with a water battery which is supplied by the hot water produced by boilers.

- Boilers are used also to supply the warehouse and the office. In particular, eight heaters are installed inside the warehouse, of which two with a rated power equal to 31.2 kW (0.4 kW electricity, 5500 m<sup>3</sup>/h) and the other 21.33 kW (0.3 kW, 3300 m<sup>3</sup>/h).

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Table 1. Technical features of rooftop units currently installed in the investigated DIY shop

	Number of units	Rated Air flow rate [m <sup>3</sup> /h]	Refrigerant	Cooling Mode* [kW]	Heating Mode* [kW]	Electric Power Consumption [kW]
RTU <sub>1</sub>	1	40000	R407C	226.3	240.0	80
RTU <sub>2</sub>	2	27000	R407C	169.5	165.0	64
RTU <sub>3</sub>	2	21000	R407C	136.4	165.0	42
RTU <sub>4</sub>	1	6000	R407C	37.3	30.0	15

\* Reference conditions (a) cooling mode: External temperature 35°C, RH 45%; Internal temperature 26°C HR 50% (b) heating mode: External temperature 5°C; Internal temperature 20°C, water temperature 70/55°C

### 3.1 Energy audit of the case study: results

In order to reduce the risk related to the high investment cost of polygeneration systems, accurate energy audits are usually performed. With this regard, thermal, electrical and cooling demands are usually determined by analysing the energy bills (i.e. gas and electricity) and by carrying out interviews at S O D Q W. In Figure 5, for the case study, monthly electricity and gas consumptions are shown and calculated based on electricity bills provided by the owner. About the total electricity demand, the shopping centre started a measuring campaign few years ago, in order to monitor the energy consumption from which it was possible to identify irregularities in the operation of plants and plan promptly extraordinary maintenance interventions. Therefore, hourly data on the total electricity consumption are also available.

First of all, natural gas (represented by the dashed purple line in Figure 5) is consumed during wintertime and it is only used by the boilers to produce hot water in order to supply the air heating coils installed within each RTU. Then, the orange line in Figure 5 shows the overall monthly electricity consumption and it encompasses electricity uses mainly for the HVAC systems and for lighting. Indeed, the electricity consumption for HVAC plants was evaluated in the following way:

- x Lighting plants were characterized by step function operating profiles; therefore it was possible to evaluate the electricity consumption by the knowledge of the installed power the number of working days and data on solar radiation (only for the outdoor lighting);
- x Some electrical loads were assumed to be constant during all year, as an example the electricity consumption for the air exchange of technical rooms;
- x Other loads were related to the working hours, like the electricity consumptions for elevators, cash registers and other machines;
- x Therefore, the difference between the hourly total electricity consumption and the sum of all the other loads profile is due to HVAC plants.

Cumulating these hourly data the monthly trend for the HVAC system (shown by yellow rectangles in Figure 5) was evaluated in the year. It is worth noting that the electricity consumed for air conditioning purposes during winter time due to the RTU fans which are used to supply air flow to the heating coils.

In Figure 6, daily profile for electricity consumption are compared for two days in winter and summer. As shown in the graph most part of the energy demand is limited during the day both cases, and the great difference in values is due to the RTU operation during summer.

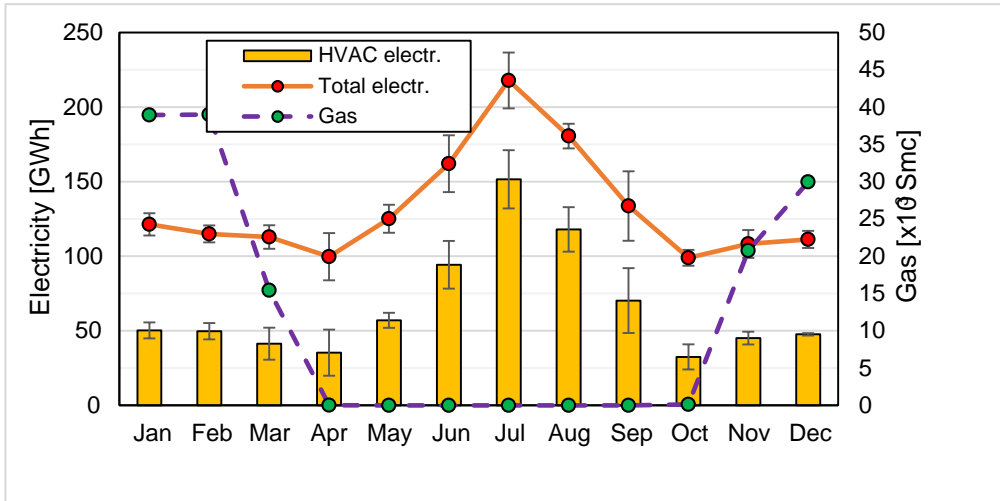


Figure 5. Monthly Gas and Electricity Consumption of the case study

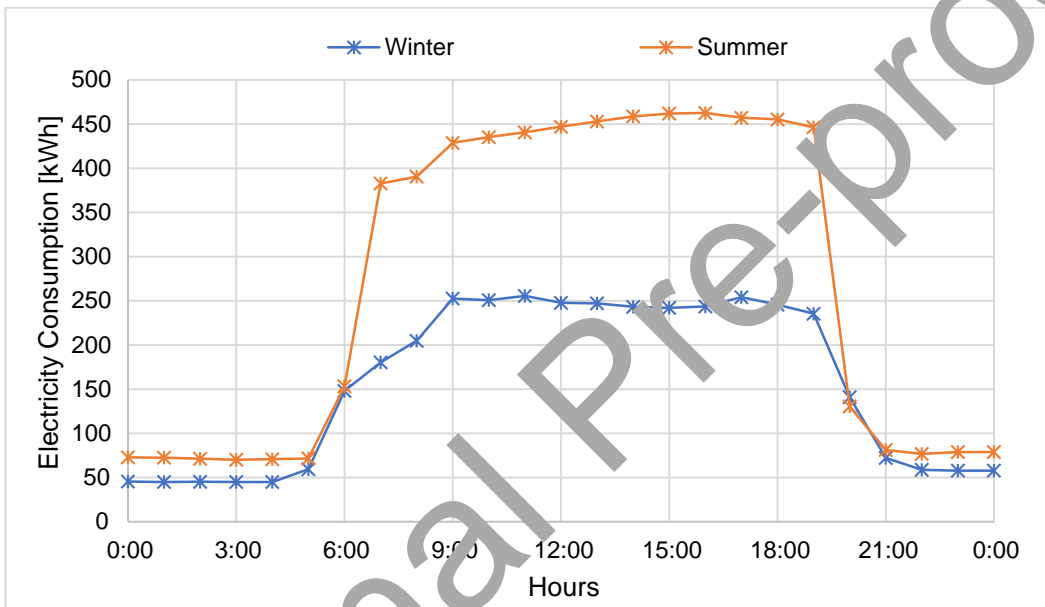


Figure 6. Electricity Consumption (HVAC plus other uses) typical summer and winter days

In Figure 7-c, the yearly heating, cooling and electricity demands are shown. The maximum thermal demand (Figure 7a) is observed during December and January, which corresponds to nearly 1200 kW. Conversely, as shown in Figure 7b the maximum value of cooling demand is around 800 kW and it occurs during August, when the maximum request for air conditioning is observed. As concerns electricity demand profile shown in Figure 7c, this trend accounts only for the lighting system consumption.













































