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1 OPERATIONAL RESPONSE OF A SOIL-BOREHOLE THERMAL ENERGY 2 STORAGE SYSTEM

3 Tuğçe Başer, M.S.¹, Ning Lu, Ph.D.² and John S. McCartney, Ph.D., P.E.³

4 **ABSTRACT:** This study focuses on an evaluation of the subsurface ground temperature
5 distribution during operation of a Soil-Borehole Thermal Energy Storage (SBTES) system. The
6 system consists of an array of five 9 m-deep geothermal heat exchangers, configured as a central
7 heat exchanger surrounded by four other heat exchangers at a radial spacing of 2.5 m. In addition
8 to monitoring the temperature of the fluid entering and exiting each heat exchanger, 5 thermistor
9 strings were embedded in boreholes inside and outside of the array to monitor changes in ground
10 temperature with depth. After 75 days of heat injection at a constant rate of 20 W/m,
11 corresponding to 11.5 GJ of thermal energy, the average ground temperature in the array
12 increased by 7 °C. However, depending on the storage volume definition, only 2.43 to 4.86 GJ of
13 thermal energy was stored due to heat losses. After a 4-month rest period the heat storage was
14 observed to decrease by 60% due to further heat losses. The trends in subsurface temperatures
15 during heat injection were consistent with results from a simplified heat injection simulation
16 using the system thermal conductivity estimated from a line source analysis. Although the heat
17 injection rate of 20 W/m is smaller than that expected in actual SBTES systems (35-50 W/m), an
18 energy balance analysis indicates the number of boreholes in the array was too few to effectively
19 concentrate the heat injected within the subsurface. Nonetheless, the results provide an
20 experimental reference point between a single borehole and a larger SBTES system.

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21 1. INTRODUCTION

22 Soil-Borehole Thermal Energy Storage (SBTES) systems are used to store heat collected
23 from renewable sources so that it can be used later for heating of buildings (Claesson and
24 Hellström 1981; Sibbitt et al. 2007; Chapuis and Bernier 2009; Sibbitt et al. 2012; Zhang et al.
25 2012; McCartney et al. 2013; Başer and McCartney 2015). They function in a similar way to
26 conventional ground-source heat exchange (GSHE) systems, where heat is transferred from a
27 source to a sink via circulation of fluid through a series of closed-loop heat exchangers. Because
28 SBTES systems are meant to store heat, as opposed to exchanging heat without disturbing the
29 ambient ground temperature, the spacing of the heat exchangers in SBTES systems is closer than
30 that in conventional GSHE systems (Başer and McCartney 2015). They also differ from GSHE
31 systems in that heat is primarily injected from renewable sources such as solar thermal panels
32 during the summer months, and extracted for building heating during the winter months. During
33 operation of SBTES systems using solar thermal panels as the heat source, the temperature of the
34 ground within the array is expected to increase from its ambient temperature (approximately 10-
35 20 °C) to potentially more than 60 °C (Sibbitt et al. 2012; Bjoern 2013), which is much higher
36 than that encountered in conventional GSHE systems. One advantage of storing heat in the
37 subsurface at temperatures around 60 °C is that heat can be transferred to and from the
38 subsurface via direct circulation of fluid through the closed-loop heat exchangers without the aid
39 of a heat pump. However, because Sibbitt et al. (2007) noted that heat losses from SBTES
40 systems can be 60% or more due to the high thermal gradients, Chapuis and Bernier (2009)
41 proposed that the SBTES system store heat at lower temperatures to minimize the thermal
42 gradient but incorporate a heat pump to help extract the heat from the circulating fluid. An
43 additional difference between SBTES and GSHE systems is that the borehole heat exchanger

44 array in a SBTES system is overlain by a hydraulic barrier to retain pore water within the
45 subsurface and an insulation layer to minimize heat losses to the atmosphere.

46 While SBTES systems are gaining popularity throughout the world, a better understanding of
47 their thermal performance is required as their thermal storage capacity and heat loss highly
48 depend on the average soil temperature during a heating or cooling period. Heat injection at
49 temperatures around 30-60 °C may lead to different mechanisms of heat transfer for some soils
50 than those expected under lower temperatures, with the potential onset of convective heat
51 transfer in addition to conductive heat transfer (Lu 2001). The heat storage capacity of an SBTES
52 system depends on the thermal properties of the subsurface and the different modes of heat
53 transfer. Heat loss will occur from any SBTES system (upward, downward and laterally), and is
54 dependent on the spacing of boreholes, number of boreholes, heat injection rate, and heat
55 injection duration, along with the subsurface thermal properties (Başer and McCartney 2015).
56 The primary mode of heat loss from an SBTES system is laterally to the surrounding subsurface.
57 The upward and downward heat losses are not as significant because the area of heated soil
58 around each borehole heat exchanger makes the vertical heat flux values much smaller than the
59 lateral heat flux. Further, the upper surface of an SBTES system is typically insulated. The
60 relative importance of heat losses decreases markedly as the size of the system increases, while it
61 increases with the temperature difference between the storage and undisturbed ground
62 temperature (Nordell and Hellström 2000). This paper investigates a relatively small array of
63 boreholes forming a SBTES system, including a central borehole heat exchanger surrounded by
64 four borehole heat exchangers at the same radial spacing. This provides an important reference
65 point on the scalability of SBTES systems from a single borehole heat exchanger to a larger
66 borehole array such as that at the DLSC site.

67 The operational concept of an SBTES system is shown in Figure 1. Heat is injected at a
68 relatively constant rate during the summer months. During this time, the soil within the array
69 increases in temperature. Heat is injected into the central borehole heat exchanger first, then to
70 the surrounding borehole heat exchangers. Although the heat supply in most SBTES systems is
71 from solar thermal panels that only produce heat for a certain period of time during the day, the
72 heat injection rate is stabilized through the use of an intermediary fluid-filled heat storage tank
73 (Sibbitt et al. 2007). The temperature of the soil increases rapidly due to the high thermal
74 gradient, and the rate of increase in temperature decreases as the soil reaches its storage capacity.
75 During the fall months, heat may continue to be injected into the array depending on the climate
76 setting, or the heat injection may be stopped at the end of the summer. If heat injection is
77 stopped, a rest period may occur, as shown in Figure 1, during which heat may be lost to the
78 surrounding subsurface. After heat extraction in the winter, the system may recover some small
79 amount of heat from the surrounding subsurface before heat is injected again into the array
80 during the next summer.

81 Design parameters of SBTES systems include energy injection and extraction rates, borehole
82 spacing as well as thermal properties of the subsurface. Two commonly used design models
83 available for predicting the heat storage in SBTES arrays for variable injection and extraction
84 rates are the duct storage (DST) model developed by Claesson and Hellström (1981) and
85 Hellström (1989) and the superposition borehole model (SBM) developed by Eskilson (1987).
86 As the borehole array investigated in this study was constructed for research purposes, it was not
87 designed using these models to reach a certain energy storage needed for a building. Claesson
88 and Hellström (1981) also proposed several analytical formulae based on the DST model for
89 selecting the spacing of the boreholes, and found that the optimal spacing between borehole heat

90 exchangers in an SBTES system is 1.5-4.0 m. Başer and McCartney (2015) performed a series of
91 simplified numerical analyses of heat conduction that indicate that soils with lower thermal
92 conductivity have less lateral heat loss, and that arrays with smaller borehole spacing permit
93 more concentrated storage of heat at higher temperatures.

94 The main objective of this study is to evaluate the temperature distribution in the subsurface
95 during a heat injection test on a full-scale SBTES system installed in the vadose zone. Although
96 the modes of heat transfer in the vadose zone are expected to be complex, this study does not
97 focus on an evaluation of the potential coupled heat transfer and water flow within the array.
98 Instead, it focuses on the effectiveness of a relatively small SBTES system in storing heat during
99 a 4-month rest period after a 75-day heat injection period. Although there have been studies on
100 the system thermal properties of the subsurface defined from short-term heat injection tests on
101 single boreholes (Beier and Smith 2002; Gehlin and Spitler 2002; Lamarche et al. 2010;
102 Raymond et al. 2011), the temperature distributions observed during long-term heat injection
103 into multiple boreholes in this study provide an opportunity to evaluate transient interactions
104 between heat exchangers in SBTES systems.

105 **2. BACKGROUND**

106 **2.1. SBTES Systems**

107 Although there have been several successful SBTES systems in Scandinavia since the late
108 1970's (Claesson and Hellström 1981), there are two recent examples of successful community-
109 scale SBTES systems. The Drake Landing Solar Community (DLSC) in Alberta, Canada
110 includes an SBTES system that has been in operation since 2007. This system supplies heat from
111 solar thermal panels to an array of 144 borehole heat exchangers that are 35 m-deep and equally
112 spaced at 2.25 m within a 35 m-wide grid. The SBTES system at this site has provided more than

113 90% of the heating requirements to 52 houses (Sibbit et al. 2012). The heat is transferred via
114 direct of fluid through the borehole heat exchangers. Zhang et al. (2012) performed a numerical
115 simulation of the heat exchange processes at the DLSC site, and found that the efficiency of heat
116 transfer defined as the amount of heat extracted divided by the amount of heat injected is
117 approximately 27%. Although this amount seems low, the thermal energy injected into the
118 SBTES system is obtained freely from a renewable source and the heat extracted was sufficient
119 to meet the needs of the community. Another successful SBTES system is in Braedstrup,
120 Denmark, which also supplies heat from 18,000 m² of solar thermal panels to an array of 50
121 boreholes with a depth of 47-50 m and 3 m apart from each other installed across an area with a
122 width of 15 m (Bjoern 2013). This system provides 14000 homes with 20% of their heat. At both
123 sites, heat is permitted to escape laterally from the SBTES array. The DLSC site includes a
124 hydraulic barrier to minimize evaporation of water from the soil (the groundwater table is 6 m
125 below the ground surface).

126 **2.2. Heat Injection Tests**

127 Heat transfer in the subsurface has primarily been studied as a time-dependent heat
128 conduction problem due to the complexities involved when considering convection. Heat transfer
129 from a borehole heat exchanger to the subsurface depends on the thermal conductivity of the
130 ground as well as the heat injection rate and the undisturbed ground temperature. Thus, a proper
131 design of a ground source energy system requires a good estimation of the ground thermal
132 properties. The thermal response test (TRT) is routinely used to determine the ground thermal
133 properties as well as the heat-transfer performance between the ground and the heat exchanger
134 (Mogensen 1983; Gehlin and Spitler 2002). In a TRT, heat is injected into a vertical geothermal
135 heat exchanger within a borehole at a constant rate. Specifically, heated fluid is pumped through

136 the heat exchanger tubing and the inlet and outlet fluid temperatures are measured as a function
137 of time, along with the power input to the heater and the fluid flow rate (Gehlin and Spitler
138 2002). The heat injection rate can be calculated from these variables as follows (Carslaw and
139 Jaeger 1959):

$$\dot{Q} = \dot{V}_f \rho_f C_f (T_{in} - T_{out}) \quad (1)$$

140 where \dot{V}_f is the volumetric flow rate of fluid (m^3/s), ρ_f is the fluid density (kg/m^3), C_f is the
141 specific heat capacity of the fluid ($\text{J}/(\text{kgK})$), and T_{in} and T_{out} are the temperatures of the fluid
142 entering and exiting the heat exchanger loops, respectively (K).

143 During a TRT, the average of the inlet and outlet fluid temperatures is plotted as a function of
144 time to evaluate the increase in the ground temperature as a function of time. This data can be
145 interpreted using solutions to Fick's equation considering only heat flow via conduction, such as
146 the infinite line source, finite line source, and cylinder source (Mogensen 1983; Eskilson 1987;
147 Witte et al. 2002; Gehlin and Spitler 2002). The infinite line source equation is the simplest
148 solution, where the thermal conductivity λ of the soil surrounding an infinite source during
149 application of a constant heat injection rate \dot{Q} can be calculated as follows:

$$\lambda = \frac{\dot{Q}}{4\pi L} \left[\frac{dT}{d(\ln t)} \right]^{-1} \quad (2)$$

150 where L is the length of borehole heat exchanger. The term in brackets is the slope of the change
151 in mean fluid temperature versus the logarithm of time. This slope is typically calculated after
152 the slope of the temperature rise curve has stabilized, which typically corresponds with the time
153 that the heat capacity of the heat exchanger and grout is reached. The line source analysis and the
154 others mentioned above assume that the subsurface is homogeneous, and provide a system value
155 of thermal conductivity for the subsurface even if there are multiple strata with different thermal

156 properties. Recently, it has been proposed to also measure temperature variations along the
157 boreholes to determine the thermal properties as a function of depth using the Distributed
158 Thermal Response Test (DTRT) (Acuna and Palm 2013). Another alternative is to use embedded
159 instrumentation in the ground around a heat exchanger to measure the temperature gradient and
160 infer the subsurface thermal properties by assuming the mode of heat transfer (Murphy et al.
161 2014).

162 **3. FIELD TEST**

163 **3.1. Overview**

164 The heat injection test described here was performed on a SBTES system on the Colorado
165 School of Mines campus in Golden, CO (US) between June-September 2014. The SBTES
166 system under investigation consists of an array of five 9 m-deep geothermal heat exchangers
167 installed in vertical boreholes having a diameter of 70 mm (BH-1 to BH-5), configured as a
168 central heat exchanger surrounded by four others at a radial spacing of 2.5 m, as shown in Figure
169 2(a). The array is overlain by a hydraulic barrier, an insulation layer, and a layer of site soil to
170 support vegetation, as shown in Figure 2(b). Thermistor strings were installed in the same holes
171 as the heat exchangers in BH1 and BH2 to observe the temperature changes at the locations of
172 the heat exchangers during the heating and cooling periods (T-A and T-C). Three additional
173 boreholes were drilled at locations inside and outside of the array for installation of thermistor
174 strings to observe changes in ground temperature (T-B, T-D, and T-E).

175 The heat exchange tubing consisted of 25.4 mm-inner diameter cross-linked polyethylene
176 (PEX) tubing having a thermal conductivity of 0.4 W/(m°C), configured in a “U” shape. After
177 placement of the heat exchange tubing or the thermistor string, sand-bentonite grout with a
178 mixture ratio of 4:1 sand to bentonite was backfilled into the space between the U-loop tube and

179 the inner BHE wall. The grout has a thermal conductivity of 1.20 W/(m°C). The top of the
180 system included a 60 mil (1.52 mm)-thick high-density polyethylene geomembrane hydraulic
181 barrier to minimize evaporation from the subsurface, and a 60 mm-thick expanded polystyrene
182 insulation layer to minimize upward heat loss. Before placing the hydraulic barrier and insulation
183 layer, the heat exchanger tubing coming out of the boreholes was wrapped with foam insulation
184 then routed below the surface through a 1-m deep trench to the location of the manifold.

185 **3.2. Subsurface Conditions**

186 The subsurface conditions were assessed during drilling of the first borehole, which was
187 drilled using an air hammer bit. The majority of the subsurface consists of a colluvial deposit of
188 dry, cemented sandy gravel, extending to a depth of 7 m below the surface. Below this a 1 m-
189 thick sand layer was encountered, which was underlain by stiff clay. The water table coincided
190 with the top of the sand layer at a depth of 7 m from the surface. The remaining boreholes were
191 drilled using the slurry method due to the saturated sand layer. The thicknesses of the soil layers
192 observed during drilling of the first borehole are presented in Figure 2(b).

193 **3.3. Instrumentation**

194 Temperature variations in the soil inside and outside of the SBTES system were monitored
195 using five thermistor strings (T-A to T-D) from Geokon Inc. of Lebanon, NH. The thermistor
196 strings consist of a single cable with four thermistors located at different lengths. The thermistor
197 strings were inserted into the boreholes shown in Figure 2(a), after which the boreholes were
198 backfilled with sand-bentonite grout. They were either attached to a metal stinger to hold them in
199 place during grout placement, or were attached to the heat exchanger tubing with tape. One of
200 the thermistor strings was installed in a borehole outside of the insulated array to provide a
201 measure of the surrounding subsurface temperature. Each thermistor string was connected to a

202 MICRO-1000 Data logger that has a 32 channel multiplexer. In addition to the thermistor strings,
203 thermistor pipe plugs (Model TC-J-NPT-G-72 from Omega, Inc.) were used to measure the
204 temperature of the fluid entering and exiting each borehole heat exchanger, as shown in Figure
205 2(b). The manifold shown in Figure 2(b) was insulated, but was not in an enclosed building, so
206 the temperatures measured using the thermistor pipe plugs are slightly affected by daily
207 fluctuations in air temperature. However, the temperature of the heated fluid is much greater than
208 these fluctuations so it did not play a major role in interpretation of the results.

209 **3.4. Field Testing Procedures**

210 A GeocubeTM heating device from Precision Geothermal of Maple Plain, MN was used to
211 inject heat into the SBTES array by heating and circulating a 20% mixture by weight of
212 propylene glycol and water for a total of 75 days during the summer of 2014. The mixture has a
213 density of 1008 kg/m³ and a specific heat capacity of 3267 J/(kg°C). The heating device has a
214 maximum heating capacity of 11 kW through the use of four heating elements in series (2×2500
215 W and 2×3000 W). However, only a single heating element having a capacity of 2500 W was
216 used in this study to avoid high fluid temperatures that would have triggered the overheating
217 sensor in the heating device. The SBTES system in this study has a relatively short heat
218 exchanger length of approximately 100 m (including both legs of the U-tubes) compared to some
219 GSHE systems that can be tested using the heating device. The fluid was first injected into the
220 central borehole (BH-1) at an average flow rate of 500 ml/s, after which the return fluid was split
221 into the other four boreholes at different flow rates, then back into the heating device, as shown
222 in Figure 2(b). The sequence of the flow paths are numbered in the Figure 2(b), showing that
223 flow first goes into the central borehole (1), comes out of the central borehole (2), is split at the
224 location of the manifold into the four surrounding boreholes (3), comes out of the four boreholes

225 (4), then is sent back to the heater (5). The flow rate through each of the five boreholes was
226 controlled using a special ball valve (Model 58A from Apollo, NC) that has a Venturi orifice.
227 The pressure drop across the Venturi orifice can be measured to estimate the flow rate through
228 the valve. A differential pressure gage from Differential Pressure Plus, Inc. (Model 200 DPG)
229 was used to measure the water pressures on either side of the Venturi orifice during testing.
230 Although the ball valves were adjusted with the goal of equally distributing the flow through the
231 four outer boreholes, the fluid temperatures, which will be discussed later, indicate that the flow
232 rate through BH-2 may not have been equal to the others. During the heat injection period, the
233 inlet and outlet temperatures of the heat exchanger fluid for each borehole were continuously
234 monitored using pipe plug thermistors installed within the ball valves on the manifold. After the
235 75 days of heat injection, the ground was left to rest so that the ambient heat loss could be
236 characterized over a period of 4 months. During this time, the ground temperature was monitored
237 using the thermistor strings, and there was no fluid flow through the borehole heat exchangers.

238 **4. RESULTS**

239 **4.1. Flow Rate and Temperatures of the Heat Exchanger Fluid during Heat** 240 **Injection**

241 The actual flow rate supplied as a function of time to the central borehole (BH-1) measured
242 using the heating device is shown in Figure 3(a). A decrease in flow rate was observed over time,
243 potentially due to a reduction in efficiency of the circulating pump as the temperature of the fluid
244 increased. An issue that occurred during the test is that the manifold was rotated 90 degrees
245 while the test was running due to construction at the site not associated with the experiment. This
246 can be observed as a sudden reduction in the flow measurement data after 49 days of operation.

247 The average fluid flow rates before and after the manifold was rotated are summarized in
248 Table 1.

249 As mentioned, the differential pressure gage was inserted into the P-T ports to infer the flow
250 rates through the four outer borehole heat exchangers, and the balancing values were adjusted in
251 an attempt to split the flow exiting from BH-1 evenly between the others. However, the
252 balancing was not perfect and BH-2 ended up receiving less flow than BH-3, BH-4, and BH-5.
253 This was not assessed until the end of the test when physical flow measurements were made for
254 each of the borehole heat exchangers. It is possible that after the manifold orientation was
255 changed that the distribution in flow rate through the four outer boreholes could also have
256 changed, but it is not possible to estimate this quantitatively. Accordingly, the flow rates for BH-
257 2 to BH-5 were assumed to be fractions of BH-1 estimated from the physical flow measurements
258 at the end of the test, as shown in Figure 3(a). Despite the unbalanced flow, the flow rates in the
259 boreholes shown in Figure 3(a) are sufficient to reach turbulent flow conditions (or at least
260 transitional conditions for BH-2), which maximizes convective heat transfer from the circulating
261 fluid into the ground.

262 The temperature of the heat exchange fluid entering and exiting each borehole heat
263 exchanger may be different due to differences in the flow rate and local variations in the heat
264 transfer into the ground. The heat exchanger fluid temperatures as a function of time are shown
265 in Figures 3(b) to 3(e) for the five heat exchangers. The difference in the inlet and outlet
266 temperatures, ΔT_{in-out} , is also shown in these figures, which together with the flow rate in Figure
267 3(a) reflects the magnitude of heat exchange following Eq. 1. The positive sign of ΔT_{in-out}
268 confirms that the SBTES system is in heating mode. The highest temperature difference was
269 recorded at BH-2 and the lowest was observed in the center borehole (BH-1). The low

270 temperature difference in BH-1 may be due to the greater flow rate through this heat exchanger
271 that may not have permitted as much residence time for heat transfer into the ground as in the
272 other heat exchangers. Another issue is that the temperature differences started to rise slowly for
273 all of the borehole heat exchangers because of decreasing flow rates after the manifold
274 configuration was changed. Although the trends in the temperature difference changed
275 throughout the test, the average fluid temperatures can be used to characterize the boundary
276 conditions for each borehole heat exchanger throughout the test.

277 For a given flow rate, a higher value of ΔT_{in-out} represents a higher amount of heat injected
278 into the ground. The value of ΔT_{in-out} ranged from 0.2 to 5.3 °C with an average of 1.8 °C. The
279 heat injection rates per unit length (using both the downward and upward lengths of tubing)
280 calculated using Eq. 1 are summarized in Table 1. The average heat injection rate per unit length
281 for all of the boreholes is 20 W/m. Although the heat exchange capacity of a GSHE system
282 depends on the thermal properties of the different materials and geologic strata, groundwater
283 flow, borehole dimensions, heat exchanger configuration, in deep geothermal systems (i.e., 200
284 m), the difference between inlet and outlet fluids is typically 2 °C in most systems (Schiavi
285 2009). This may be higher in SBTES systems, which have a heat injection rate of 35 W/m or
286 greater (Acuna and Palm 2013).

287 **4.2. Surface Air and Ground Temperatures**

288 The maximum, minimum, and average temperatures of the air in Golden, CO during the
289 duration of the heat injection and rest periods are shown in Figure 4(a) for reference. Although
290 there SBTES array is 1 m below the ground surface along with an insulation layer, the air
291 temperature still may have an effect on the subsurface temperatures around the array. The

292 temperature is observed to range from almost 35 °C in the summer to -25 °C in the winter, with a
293 significant temperature drop in November 2014.

294 Time series of the ground temperatures during the test are shown in Figures 4(b) to 4(e).
295 Before the heat injection test, the ground temperatures were monitored for a period of one month
296 to help ensure that the thermistors were in equilibrium with the ambient ground temperature.
297 Despite the insulation layer at the surface of the SBTES, the temperature at different depths in
298 the array still varied between 9 and 13 °C because of the previous seasonal effects on the ground
299 temperature, with greater temperatures near the ground surface due to the spring heating. This
300 temperature range is reflected in the initial temperatures shown in the figures for the different
301 depths.

302 Heat injection led to an increase in ground temperatures measured by the thermistor strings.
303 The horizontal dotted lines in Figure 4 denote the “average initial temperature” with depth in
304 each borehole that was given as a reference line to compare the temperatures with the initial
305 conditions. It should be noted that the background temperature may fluctuate seasonally up to a
306 certain depth (approximately 2 m), which can change the amount of heat storage compared to the
307 ambient ground temperature. The vertical dashed lines denote the end of the heat injection phase.
308 The ground temperature reached a maximum temperature of 32.5 °C at a depth of 9 m at the
309 central borehole BH-1, as shown in Figure 4(a). The temperature at the surrounding borehole
310 heat exchangers increased up to a lesser amount (25 °C) as shown in Figure 4(d) for BH-2. The
311 soil within the array also experienced an increase in temperature, which was between that of
312 BH-1 and BH-2, as shown in Figure 4(c). Further, a clear delay in temperature rise was observed
313 at this location compared to the locations of the borehole heat exchangers. Although T-D was
314 located outside of the array, and was not covered by the insulation layer, it was still affected by

315 the heat injection process, as shown in Figure 4(e). It should be noted that during heat extraction
316 from the SBTES, the borehole heat exchangers might be able to extract heat from the subsurface
317 outside of the array as well. This is one reason that Başer and McCartney (2015) defined the
318 storage volume of the array as 2 radial spacings from the center. Comparing T-D and T-E, which
319 is at the outside edge of the array, the role of the insulation layer and overlap in heating from
320 BH-1 and BH-2 is reflected in the slightly higher temperatures at the location of T-E, as shown
321 in Figure 4(f). Although one of the sensors in thermistor string T-B at depth of 6 m ceased
322 operating after 49 days of operation, there was good survivability of the thermistors in the
323 system.

324 After 75 days of heat injection, the ground was permitted to rest to observe ambient heat loss
325 from the system. Overall, the highest temperature change was observed at a depth of 2.3 m near
326 the ground surface, while the lowest was observed at 9 m. Despite the surface insulation layer
327 (located 1.3 m above the uppermost thermistors), the data from these thermistors indicates that
328 heat loss will still occur upwards due to the very cold air temperatures observed in Figure 3(a).
329 The ground temperature at the locations of the borehole heat exchangers decreased drastically at
330 the start of cooling but stabilized after 60 days in almost all thermistor locations. The same
331 behavior was observed in the temperature distribution from the thermistors installed between
332 heat exchangers, which reflects spreading of the heat throughout the array. Outside of the array,
333 the ground was still on average at least 2.5 °C greater than at the beginning of the heat injection
334 period. Although this increase in temperature is not significant, it still reflects a substantial
335 amount of thermal energy (0.65 GJ) across the volume of the array. A heat pump would likely be
336 necessary to extract this heat efficiently for this small size of array. The SBTES system at DLSC
337 is different, as the large number of boreholes in the array permits the ground to increase in

338 temperature by almost 50 °C above the ambient ground temperature, so only direct circulation is
339 needed to extract the heat.

340 Temperature profiles with depth at different times after the start of heating are shown in
341 Figure 5. Due to the contact between heat exchangers and sensors, the temperatures are more
342 uniform with depth in T-A and T-C. However, the highest temperature increase was observed in
343 the center borehole. The soil throughout the height of the soil layer was observed to increase in
344 temperature steadily over time during heat injection. The highest increases in temperatures were
345 observed near the top of the array. This could be due to the effect of the insulation layer near the
346 surface, but it could also reflect upward vapor flow in the soil layer due to phase change. As the
347 pore water in the soil heats up, it may vaporize and move upwards due to buoyancy, carrying
348 heat through convection. This is a mode of heat transfer in SBTES systems that will be
349 investigated in future studies using advanced numerical simulations.

350 The temperature of the ambient ground outside of the array was not measured, but was
351 predicted using the analytical model presented by Brandl (2006), given as follows:

$$T(z, t) = T_{m, out} + \frac{\Delta T_{out} e^{-z/d}}{\sqrt{1 + 2k + 2k^2}} \cos\left(\omega(t - \varepsilon) - \frac{z}{d}\right) \quad (3)$$

352 where z is the depth from the surface, t is the time, $T_{m, out}$ is the mean yearly air temperature,
353 ΔT_{out} is the amplitude of outside air temperature, ω is the frequency of temperature fluctuations,
354 d is the damping depth of temperature fluctuations, and k is a heat transfer coefficient that
355 depends on the soil-atmosphere interaction coefficient a_s . The parameters of the model are
356 presented in Figure 5(f). The temperature parameters were selected so that the calculated value at
357 the surface $T(0, t)$ matched the air temperature fluctuations shown in Figure 4(a). The predictions
358 shown in Figure 5(f) are consistent with the initial temperatures in the site, and indicate that the
359 temperature should not fluctuate significantly seasonally below a depth of $d = 1.65$ m.

360 Temperatures from thermistor strings T-B through T-D are plotted versus radial distance
361 from the center borehole for 4 different depths are shown in Figure 6. As observed from the
362 evaluation of the time series in Figure 4, the greatest temperature was observed at the center of
363 the array, with a slightly lower temperature at the location of BH-2. The highest increase in
364 temperature was observed at the depth of 2.3 m inside of the array. The increase in temperature
365 is greater at T-B than at T-D, as T-B is in between two heat exchangers. As the test proceeds,
366 while temperatures in the array increase, temperatures outside of the array remain almost
367 constant except closer to the surface. The increase in temperature inside the array ranged from 4
368 to 6 °C at different depths, while it was 1 °C outside of the array at the end of heating. This
369 corresponds to a temperature ratio of about 5 comparing the temperature within the array to the
370 temperature outside of the array. At the end of heat injection, a rapid decrease was observed in
371 T-A and T-C because of the contact between the strings and the heat exchangers. However, the
372 temperature within the array started to become more uniform with radial location from the
373 center.

374 **5. ANALYSIS**

375 **5.1. Evaluation of Subsurface Thermal Properties**

376 Although it is not the primary goal of this paper, the fluid and ground temperature results
377 presented in the previous section permit an assessment of the subsurface thermal properties.
378 First, the mean fluid temperatures of the boreholes versus time were plotted in a semi-
379 logarithmic scale were assessed to calculate the system thermal conductivity using the line
380 source analysis, using Eq. 2. The system thermal conductivity ranged from 0.52 to 0.57
381 W/(m°C), which is relatively low but is consistent with the thermal conductivity dry, sandy
382 gravel conglomerate. As the heating test is longer than a conventional thermal response test,

383 thermal conductivity was calculated for three different time intervals as shown in Table 1, at
384 early times typical of most thermal response tests, at a middle-range of time, and late in the heat
385 injection test after rotation of manifold caused the change in flow rate. At the later times of heat
386 injection, it is possible that interaction between the boreholes starts to violate the assumptions of
387 the line source analysis and affect the thermal properties calculated using this approach. Despite
388 some minor variations, the thermal conductivity of the subsurface was similar and consistent for
389 each of the heat exchangers, and an average value of 0.54 W/(m°C) was assumed to be
390 representative of the system. Although low, Başer and McCartney (2015) found that lower
391 thermal conductivities are desirable for SBTES systems to minimize heat losses from the system.

392 Although the ground temperature data shown in Figure 6 may be used to estimate the thermal
393 gradients to infer the subsurface thermal properties by assuming the mode of heat transfer to be
394 conduction (Murphy et al. 2014), there are two issues that prevented this analysis from being
395 performed in this study. The first is that the temperatures at the monitoring boreholes are affected
396 by multiple heat exchanger arrays. Second, the temperature distribution away from the heat
397 exchanger is expected to be highly nonlinear leading to inaccuracies in the gradient calculated
398 between two observation points within the array. This indicates that numerical simulations are
399 more suited for further evaluation of heat transfer processes within SBTES systems.

400 **5.2. Comparisons with Numerical Simulations**

401 In order to check the magnitudes and trends in ground temperature measured in the field test,
402 a three-dimensional, transient finite element model developed in COMSOL Multiphysics
403 (Version 4.4b) was used to predict the temperature distribution within the borehole array.
404 Although it is possible that phase change and convection occurred in the unsaturated
405 conglomerate layer, performing a conductive-convective heat transfer analysis requires several

406 input parameters outside the scope of this study. Accordingly, heat transfer in the simulation was
407 assumed to be by conduction alone for simplicity. The model considers the geometry of the
408 SBTES system in Figure 2 consisting of five boreholes (one at the center) with a depth of 9 m
409 and with an equal borehole spacing of 2.5 m. The thermal conductivity from line source analysis
410 ($\lambda = 0.54 \text{ W}/(\text{m}^\circ\text{C})$) was used in the simulation, along with the other thermal properties listed in
411 Table 2. The specific heat of the conglomerate was inferred from SH-1 thermal needle probe
412 measurements at the ground surface, although variations were observed due to the
413 nonhomogeneous material. The density of the conglomerate near the surface was estimated using
414 the sand cone test. The thermal properties of the lower layers were assumed based on reasonable
415 ranges for these materials, but they were not found to have a major impact on the results of the
416 analysis.

417 An example of the simulation mesh used in this study was presented in Başer and McCartney
418 (2015). The boundary heat flux applied on the borehole walls as well as the thermally insulated
419 layer at the top of the soil layer that represents the insulation layer in the field. The initial
420 temperature of the system was assumed to be uniform with depth and equal to the average initial
421 reading of the thermistor strings ($12 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$). The temperature distributions at a depth of 7.8 m at the
422 end of 75 days of heating are shown in Figure 7. Although the magnitude of the numerical
423 simulations did not match well with the experimental results in all locations, the trends in the
424 temperature with radial location match those in the experiment. The numerical simulation also
425 reveals the large gradients in temperature that can occur around the borehole heat exchangers,
426 which could not be assessed from the thermistor string data.

427

428 5.3. Heat Storage Analysis

429 The success of a SBTES system depends on the heat stored within the borehole array during
430 the resting period after heat injection stops. The thermal energy stored (J) is equal to the
431 difference between the cumulative amounts of thermal energy injected into the subsurface and
432 the amount of heat lost from the array, which can be expressed as follows:

$$Q_{stored} = Q_{injected} - Q_{lost} \quad (4)$$

433 An energy balance analysis using Equation 4 relies upon estimates of the total thermal energy
434 injected into the subsurface as a function of time (i.e., using Equation 1), along with estimates of
435 the heat loss out of the volume of the array (i.e., upward, downward, and laterally), which require
436 experimental data and some estimate of the volume of the array. The heat loss from an SBTES
437 system is expected to increase over time during heat injection due to the higher thermal gradient
438 between the array and the free-field ground temperature. If it is possible for a SBTES system to
439 reach its thermal storage capacity, the rate of lateral heat loss at this point is expected to
440 approach the rate of heat injection. It is typically assumed that the heat transfer upward and
441 downward are negligible compared to the lateral heat loss in this analysis, mainly due to the
442 relatively small area of heat transfer compared to the lateral heat loss from the system as
443 reflected in the temperature profiles from the COMSOL analysis in Figure 7. Further, the upward
444 heat loss is also assumed to be negligible due to the insulation layer placed on top of the array.
445 Accordingly, the lateral heat loss is assumed to be the primary mode of heat loss from the array.

446 As it may be difficult to estimate the heat losses from the array using the experimental data
447 available in this study, the approach of Claesson and Hellström (1981) can be used to quantify
448 the average total thermal energy storage as follows:

$$Q_{stored} = (T_s - T_a) C_v \pi r^2 H \quad (5)$$

449 where $(T_s - T_a)$ is the temperature difference between storage and surrounding subsurface, C_v is
450 the volumetric heat capacity of the soil (J/m^3K), r is the radius of a cylindrical storage volume
451 (m), and H is the height of the storage volume (m). The challenge of using this approach is that
452 the volumetric heat of the soil may change with time due to changes in the degree of saturation
453 of the soil, and may also differ with depth and radial distance within the array. It is also
454 challenging to define the volume of the array to use in the calculations. Two array volumes were
455 considered in the analysis, 1 radial spacing from the center (2.5 m) where the average
456 temperature within the array was taken as a transient average of the measurements from T-B and
457 T-C, and 2 radial spacings from the center (5.0 m) where the average temperature within the
458 array was taken as a transient average of the measurements from T-B, T-D, and T-E. The second
459 spacing is consistent with Başer and McCartney (2015), who defined the storage volume as 1
460 radial spacing outside of the outermost boreholes (2 radial spacings from the center) because the
461 heat outside of the outermost boreholes may be able to be recovered during heat extraction. The
462 baseline temperature in both calculations was assumed to be the initial ground temperature, and
463 the fluctuations in temperature near the surface observed in Figure 5(f) were not considered. The
464 calculation of the average ground temperatures within the array using the results from T-B, T-D,
465 and T-E is conservative, as it does not consider the high temperatures near the boreholes.

466 The energy balance of the system using this approach is shown in Figure 8. The heat stored
467 as a function of time follows the trend in internal array temperatures observed in Figures 4(c) and
468 4(e). The heat loss during heat injection was observed to be higher than the heat storage, which
469 can be explained by the high gradients. After heat injection stopped, the heat loss still increased,
470 but at a decreasing rate. Approximately 2.43 to 4.86 GJ were available at the end of the heat
471 injection period depending on the array volume assumed, and 0.65 to 1.32 GJ were available

472 after the end of the resting period. For reference, an energy efficient house with a floor area of
473 100 m² has a heat demand of 12 GJ/year (Reuss and Mueller 1999), so for this array to be
474 effective, a greater heat injection rate over a longer period should have been used. Although the
475 heat injection rate evaluated in this study is lower than that expected in actual SBTES systems,
476 the amount of heat stored in the soil at the end of the heat injection period is not negligible,
477 especially considering the fact that solar thermal panels provide an essentially free heat source.

478 The results from the energy balance calculations indicate that the SBTES array evaluated in
479 this study was not able to effectively concentrate heat in the subsurface at the same temperatures
480 encountered in the DLSC site (greater than 60 °C) and counter the effects of lateral heat loss.
481 This observation could have due to the fact that the array did not have a sufficient enough
482 number of boreholes. To evaluate this possibility, simple numerical analyses with conduction as
483 the sole means of heat transfer were performed to assess the impact of the number of heat
484 exchangers on the temperature distribution within an array. The results are shown in Figure 9 for
485 a heat injection rate of 20 W/m for the times after heat injection and after a resting period. The
486 fewer the number of heat exchangers, the greater the amount of heat lost from the array at the
487 edges. Arrays with a greater number of boreholes will reach an average temperature that may be
488 greater than the overlap in temperature between two boreholes, as lateral heat loss only occurs at
489 the edges. The main implication of using an SBTES system with a smaller array is that a heat
490 pump may be needed to extract a sufficient amount of heat to cover the heating demands of a
491 structure. This is in contrast to a large-scale SBTES system such as that at DLSC, where direct
492 circulation of fluid through the heated soil was sufficient to extract heat for heating of buildings
493 (Sibbitt et al. 2012). It should be noted that Zhang et al. (2012) found that the efficiency of heat

494 extraction at DLCS is only 27% due to the heat loss of approximately 60%, even though the
495 system is still able to provide 90% of the heating demands of the community.

496 **6. CONCLUSIONS**

497 This study focused on the temperature response of a soil-borehole thermal energy storage
498 (SBTES) system installed in the vadose zone in Golden, CO. The instrumentation at the site
499 permitted evaluation of the thermal properties of the subsurface as well as the heat storage
500 characteristics of the array as a function of time during a heat injection period and a rest period.
501 The system thermal conductivity estimated from a thermal response test on the group of
502 boreholes in the array was used in numerical simulations of conductive heat transfer to predict
503 the temperature distribution in the borehole array, and a good match was obtained. Although it is
504 possible that combined convective and conductive heat flux may have occurred in the SBTES
505 system in the vadose zone, further research is needed to quantify the different material properties
506 that can be used in advanced numerical simulations that capture all modes of heat transfer. A
507 heat balance analysis performed using the measured field data indicates that a substantial portion
508 of the injected heat left the array due to lateral heat loss, and that a greater heat injection rate
509 would be necessary to meet the thermal demands of a typical residence. The SBTES system
510 evaluated in this study is the next smallest array beyond a single borehole, and the thermal
511 response of this array permitted an evaluation of the scalability of this type of system. Arrays
512 with a greater number of boreholes were found to more effectively concentrate heat and
513 minimize the effects of lateral heat loss.

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578 **TABLE AND FIGURE CAPTIONS**

579 Table 1. Fluid flow rates, average heat injection rates and system thermal conductivity estimates
580 from the line source analysis

581 Table 2. Thermal properties for the different soil layers used in the numerical simulations

582 Figure 1. Typical operational periods for an SBTES system along with ground temperature
583 trends at the center of the array

584 Figure 2. Schematics of the SBTES system (not to scale): (a) Plan view; (b) Elevation view

585 Figure 3. Temperature boundary conditions during the heat injection test: (a) Flow rates for each
586 BH; (b) Inlet and outlet temperatures of the fluid circulating within the heat exchange
587 loops in borehole BH-1; (c) BH-2; (d) BH-3; (e) BH-4; (f) BH-5

588 Figure 4. Temperature time series: (a) Surface air; (b) T-A; (c) T-B; (d) T-C; (e) T-D; (f) T-E

589 Figure 5. Temperature profiles from thermistors: (a) T-A; (b) T-B; (c) T-C; (d) T-D; (e) T-E;
590 (f) Predicted seasonal ground temperature fluctuations

591 Figure 6. Temperature profiles with radius for different depths from surface: (a) 2.3 m; (b) 6.0 m;
592 (c) 7.8 m; (d) 9.0 m

593 Figure 7. Comparison between radial distributions in ground temperatures measured in the
594 experiment and predicted using the numerical analysis of conductive heat transfer

595 Figure 8. Evaluation of the thermal energy balance in the SBTES during the heat injection and
596 resting phases

597 Figure 9. Examples of heat storage in SBTES systems of different scales after heat injection at a
598 rate of 20 W/m for 90 days and after the end of a 90 day rest period

599 Table 1. Fluid flow rates, average heat injection rates and system thermal conductivity estimates
 600 from the line source analysis at different times

Borehole	Average flow rate (0 to 49 days) (ml/s)	Average flow rate (49 to 75 days)* (ml/s)	Average heat injection rate (W/m)	Thermal conductivity (1-4 days) (W/(m°C))	Thermal conductivity (12-17 days) (W/(m°C))	Thermal conductivity (49-75 days) (W/(m°C))
1	500	300	18.6	0.48	0.52	0.55
2	50	30	18.5	0.45	0.55	0.54
3	150	83	23.1	0.56	0.54	0.66
4	150	83	19.4	0.55	0.57	0.55
5	150	83	19.3	0.54	0.57	0.55

601 *After rotation of manifold

602

603 Table 2. Thermal properties for the different soil layers used in the numerical simulations

Layer	Depth to layer interface from surface (m)	Thermal conductivity (W/(m°C))	Specific heat capacity (J/(kg°C))	Total density (kg/m ³)
Expanded polystyrene insulation	0.8	0.03	900	1005
Colluvial deposit (cemented sandy gravel)	1.0	0.54	1200	1650
Alluvial sand deposit	7.0	1.80*	1200*	1650*
Stiff clay deposit	8.0	1.00*	1400*	1700*

604 *Estimated values

Figure 1
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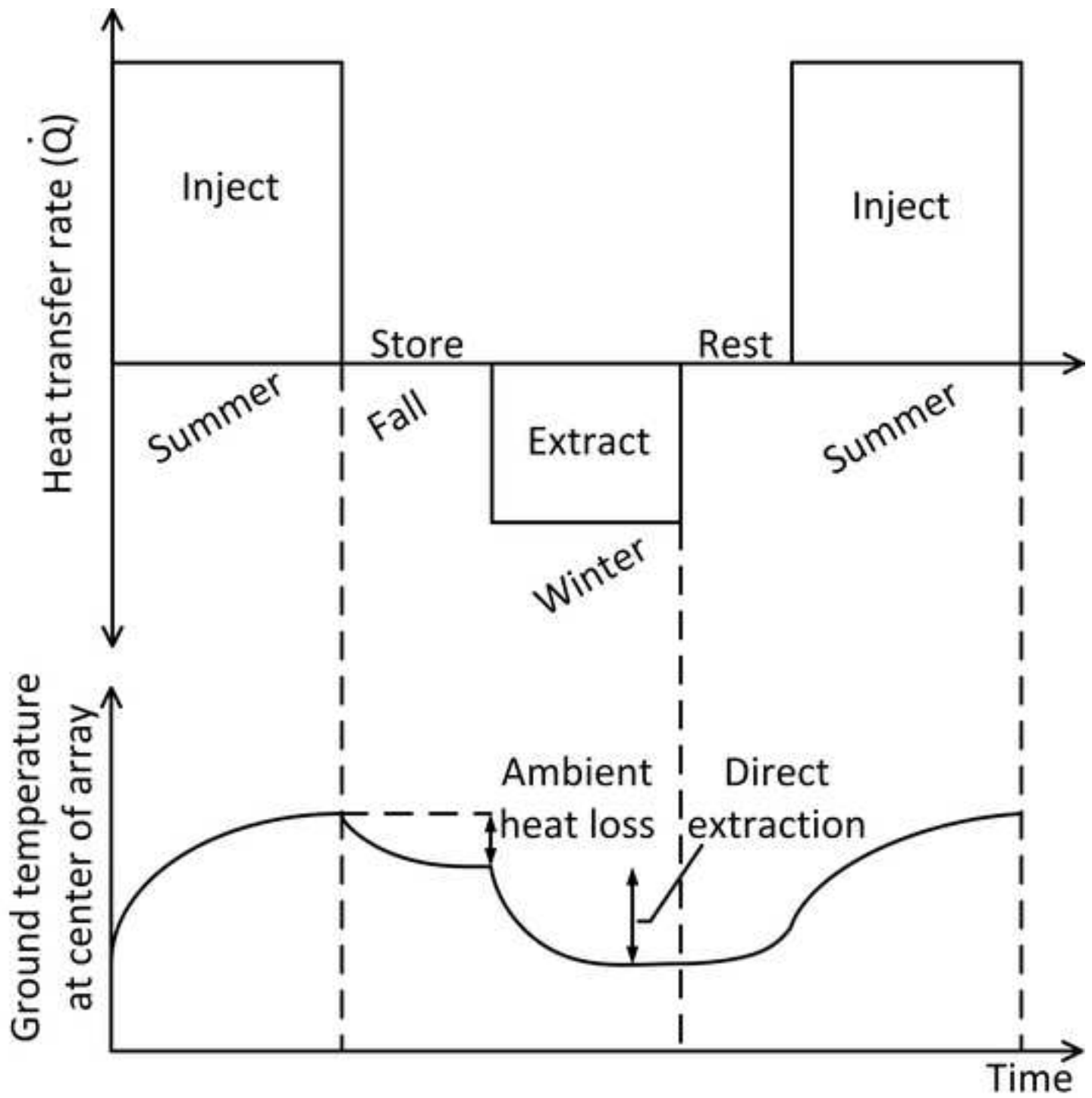
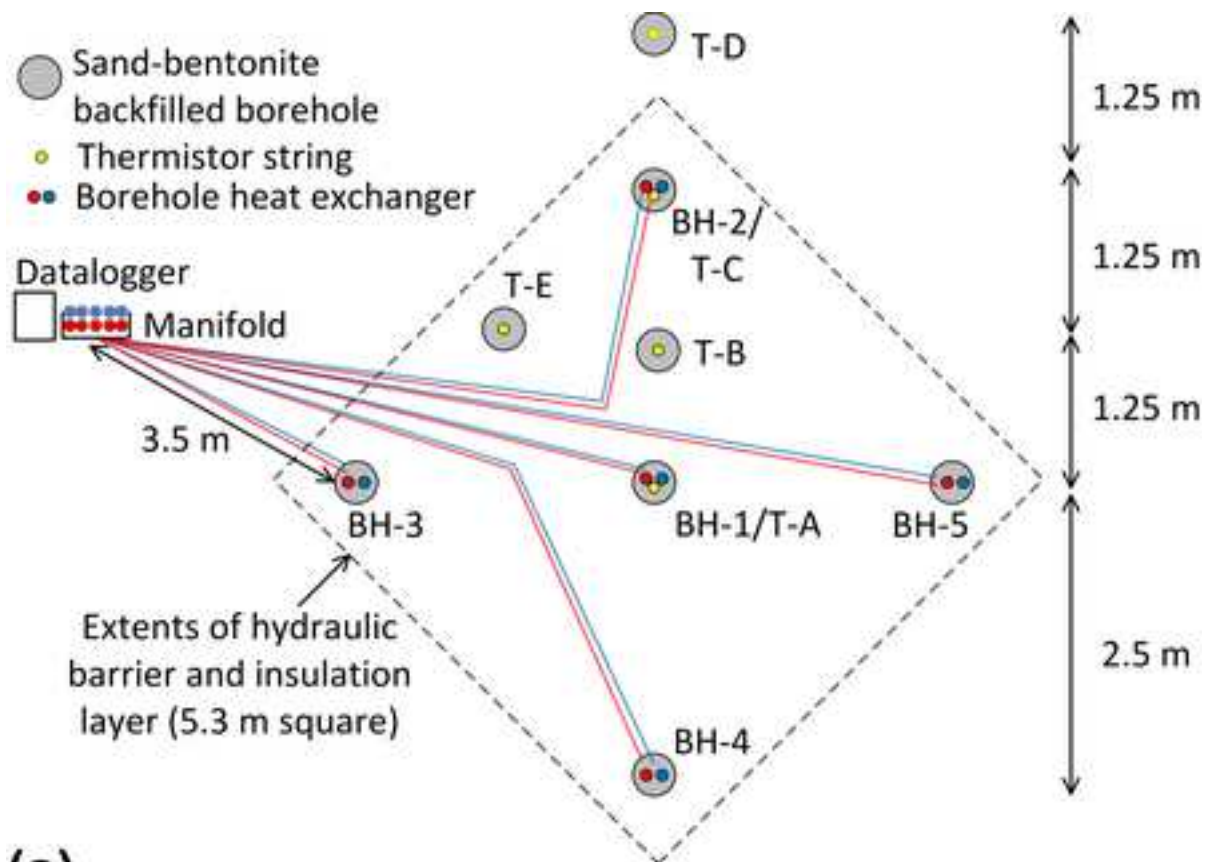
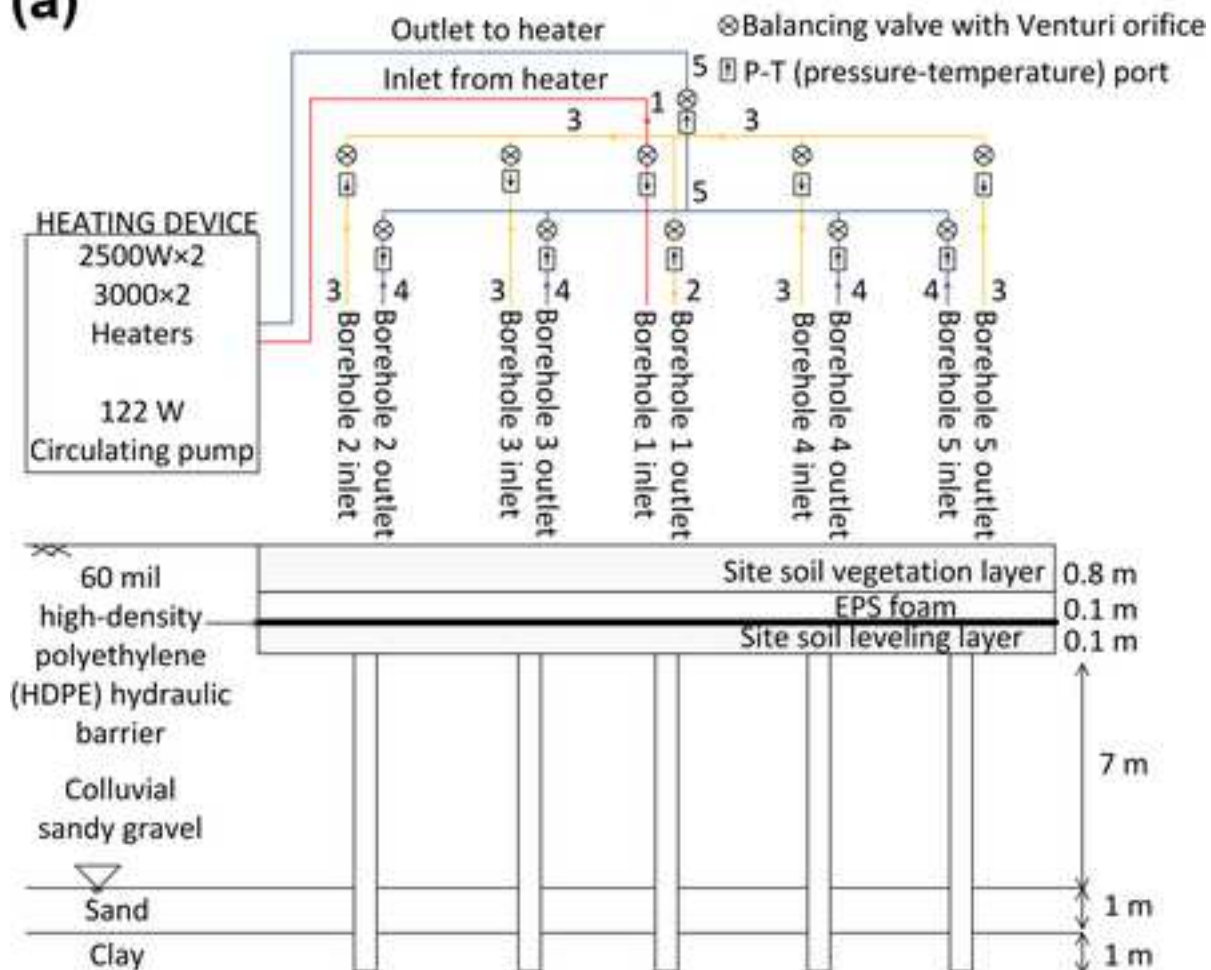


Figure 2
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(a)



(b)

Figure 3
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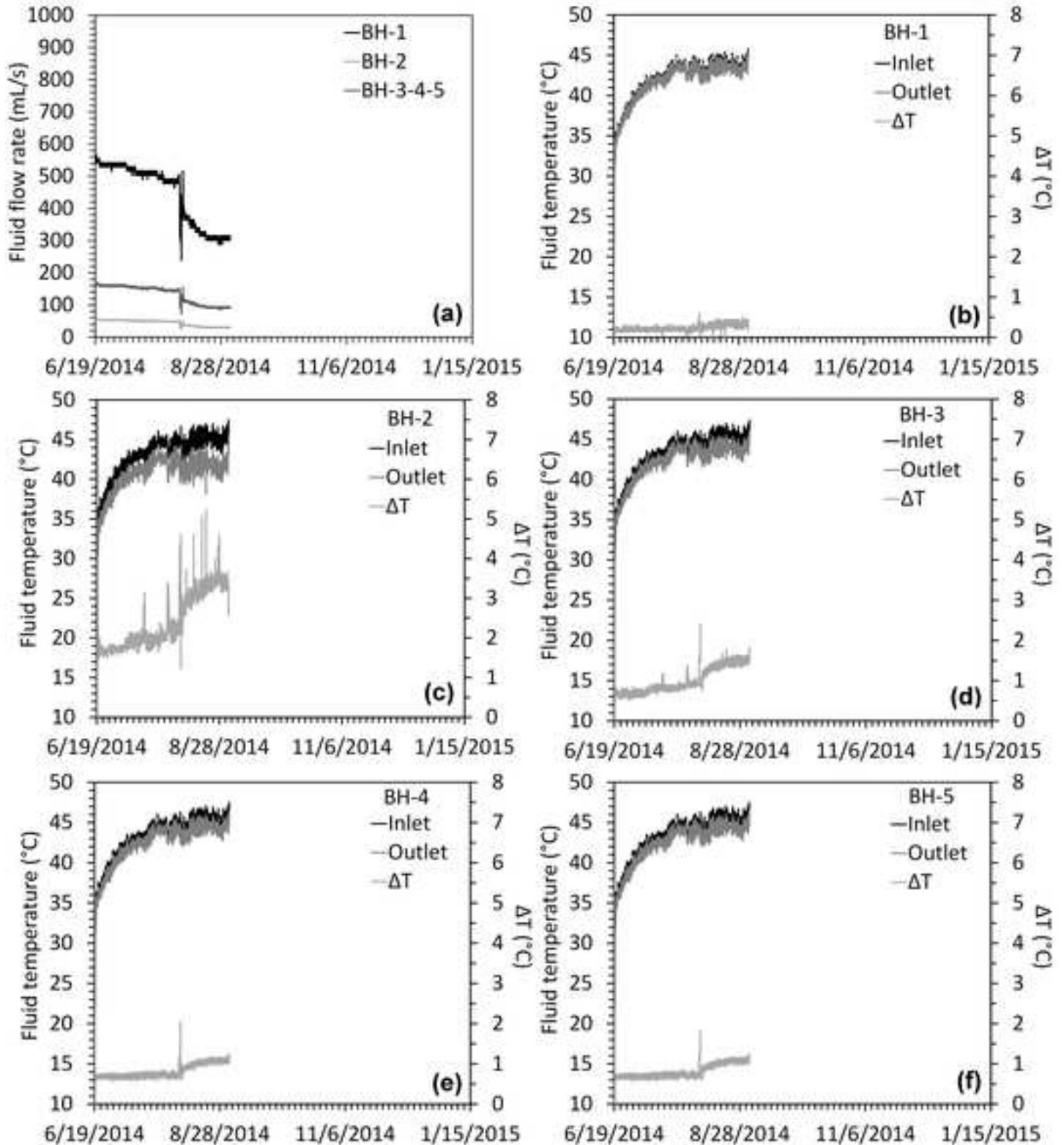


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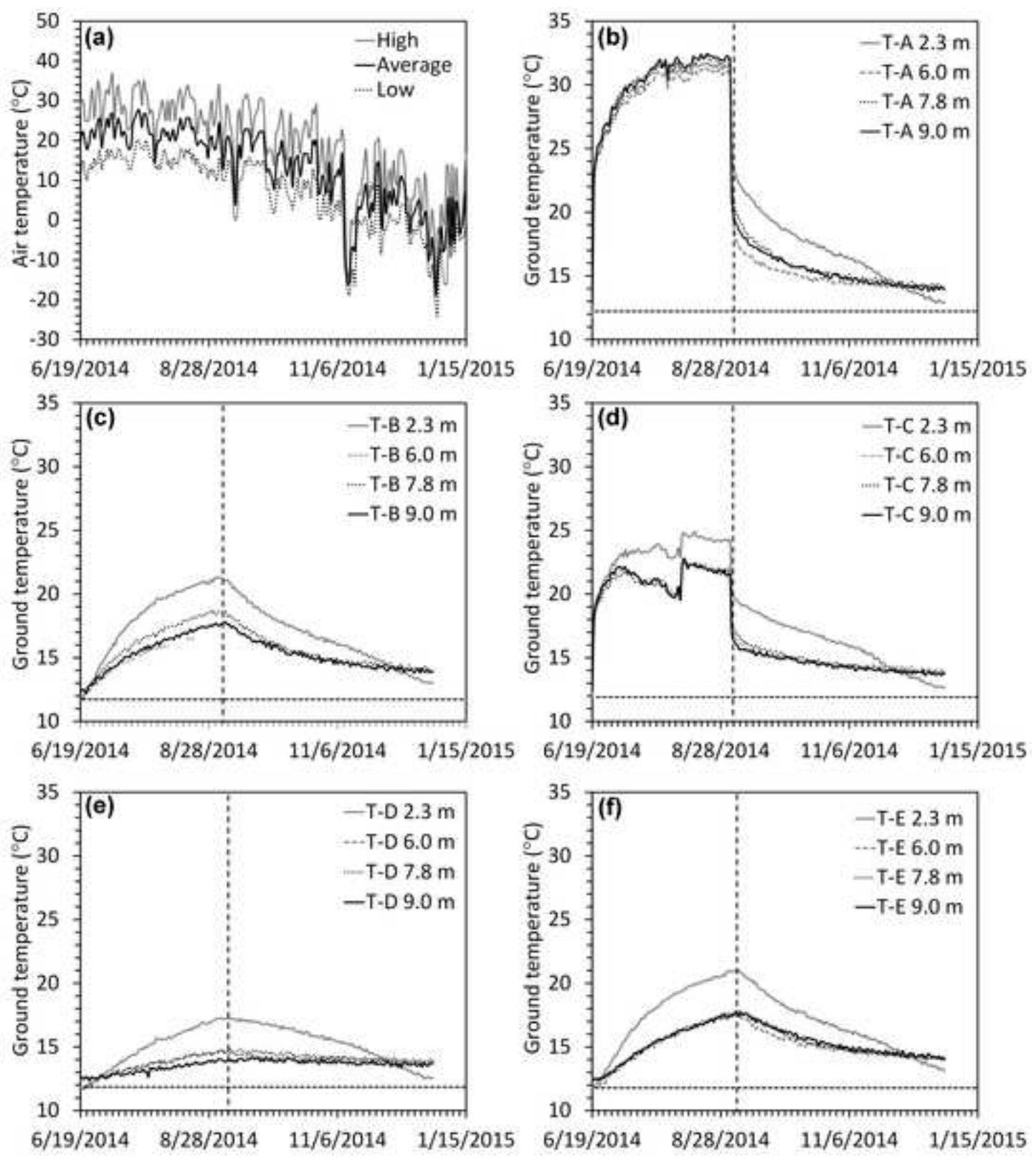


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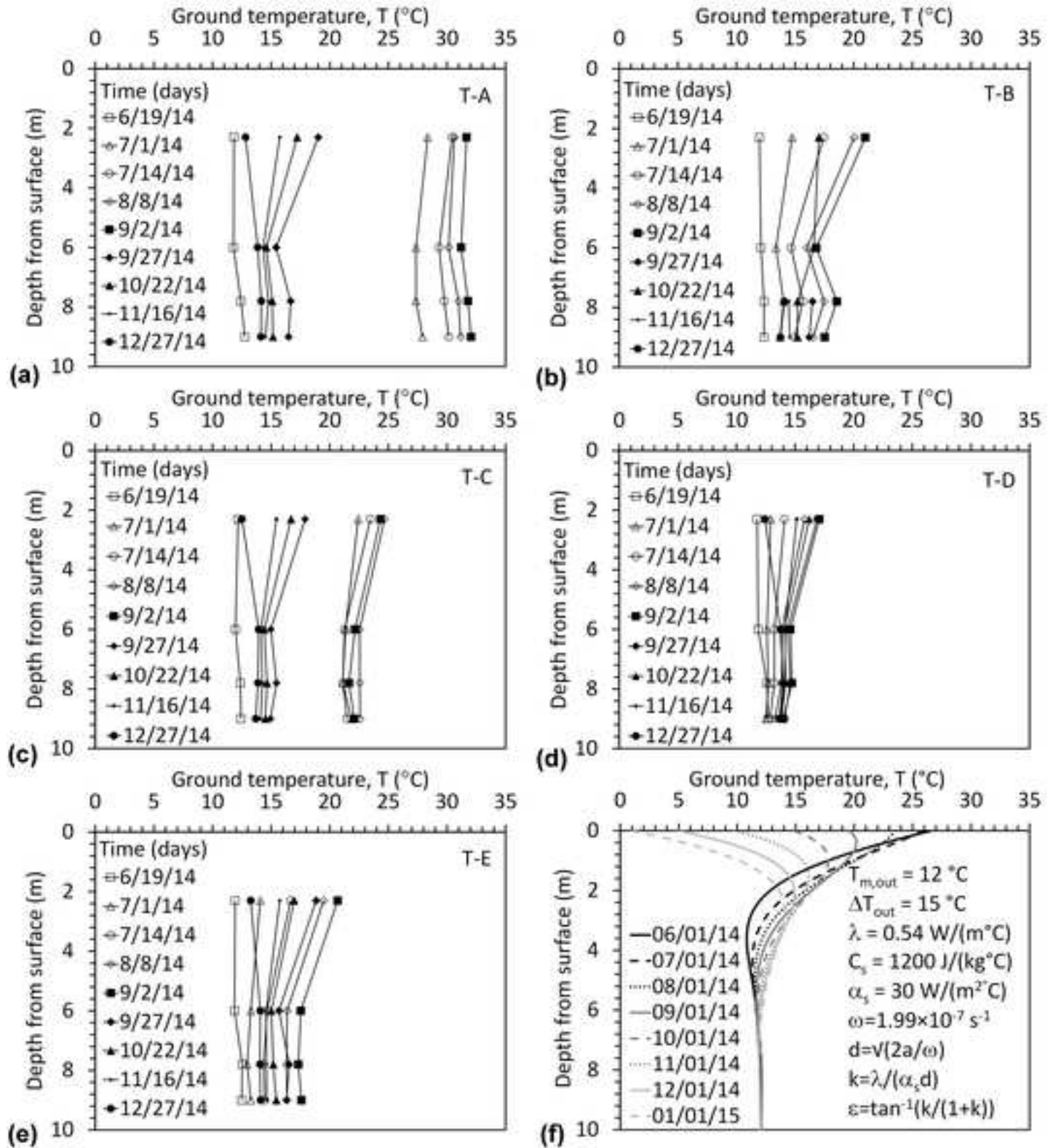


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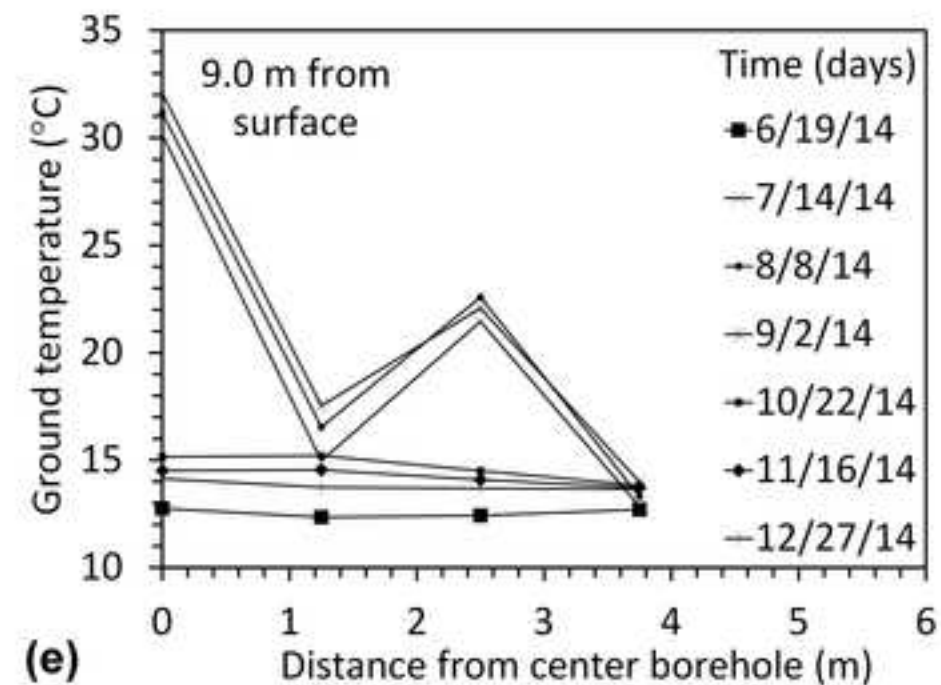
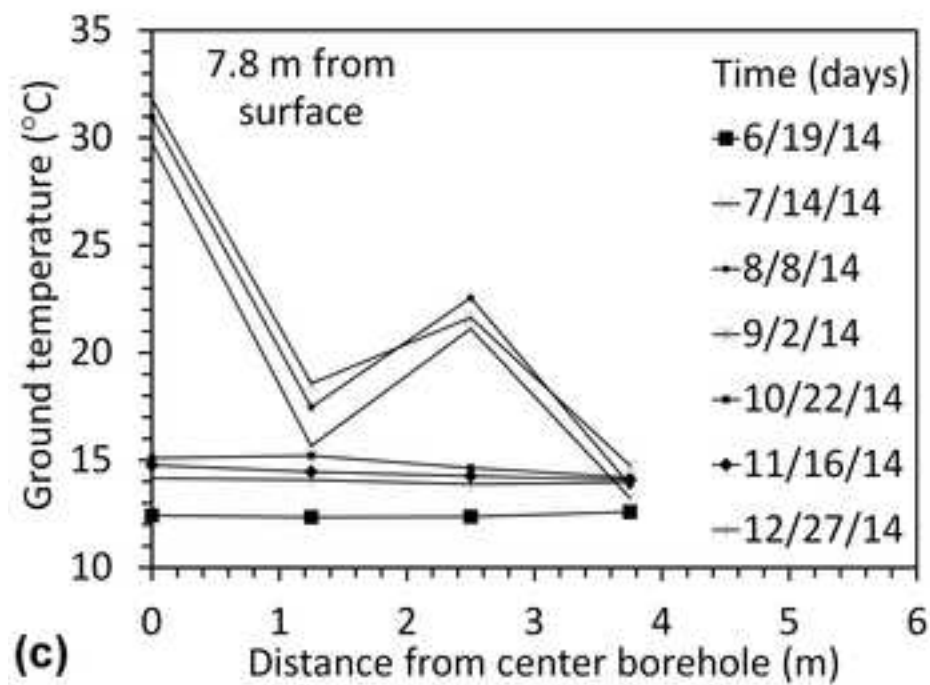
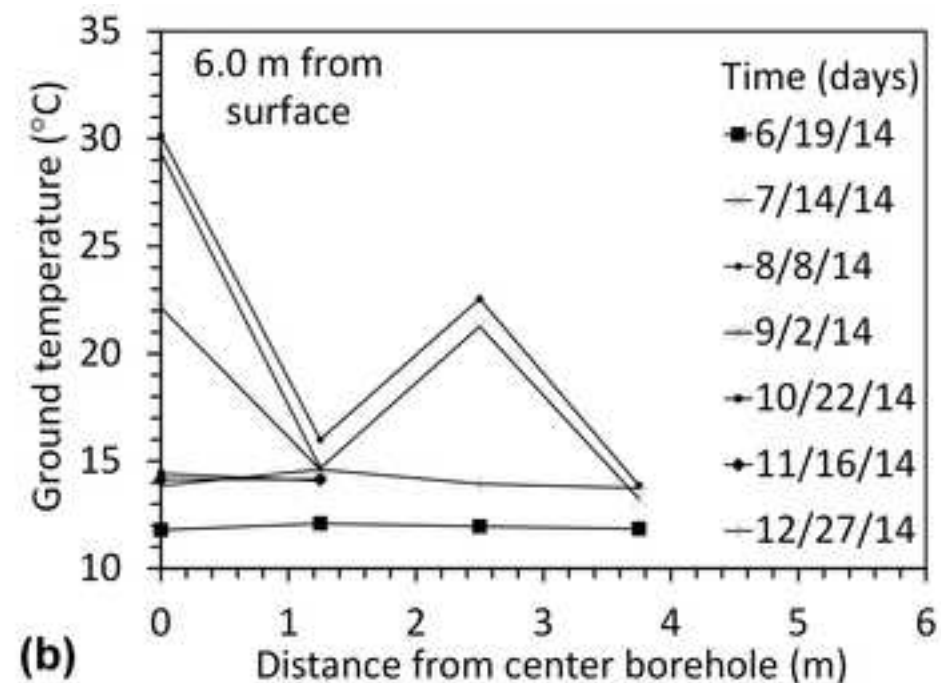
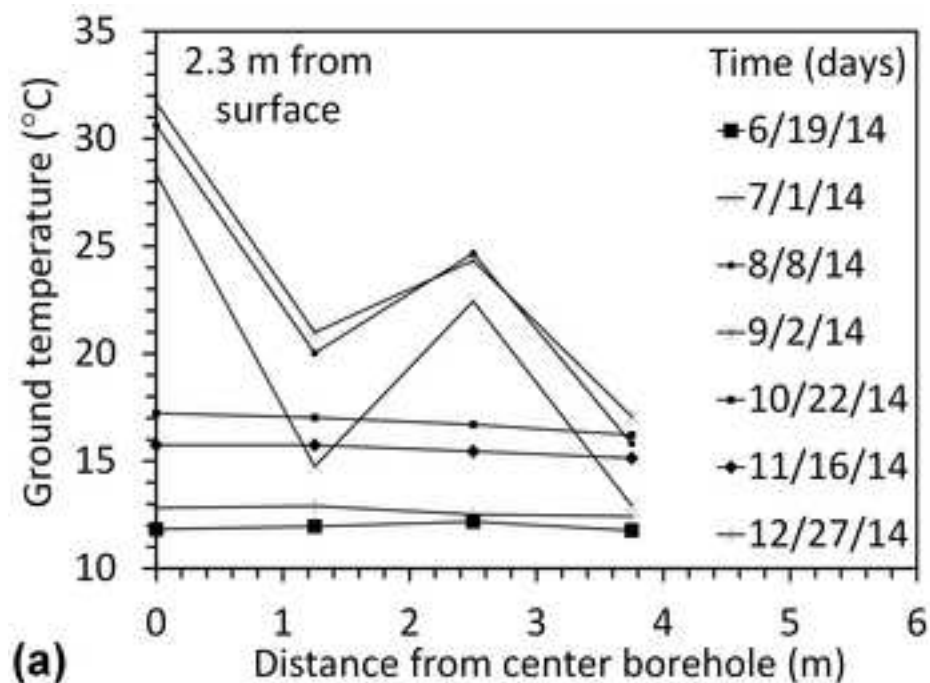


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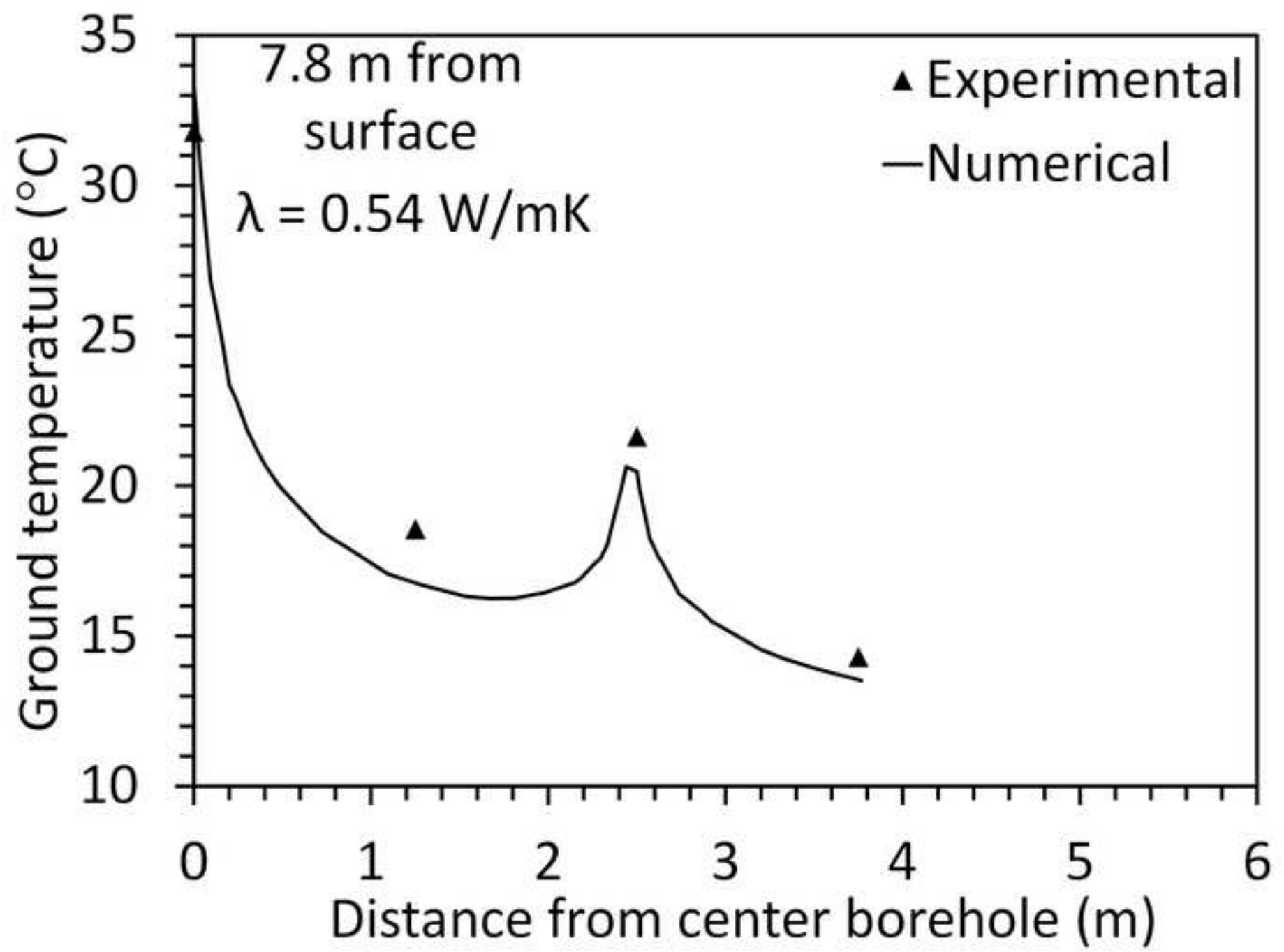


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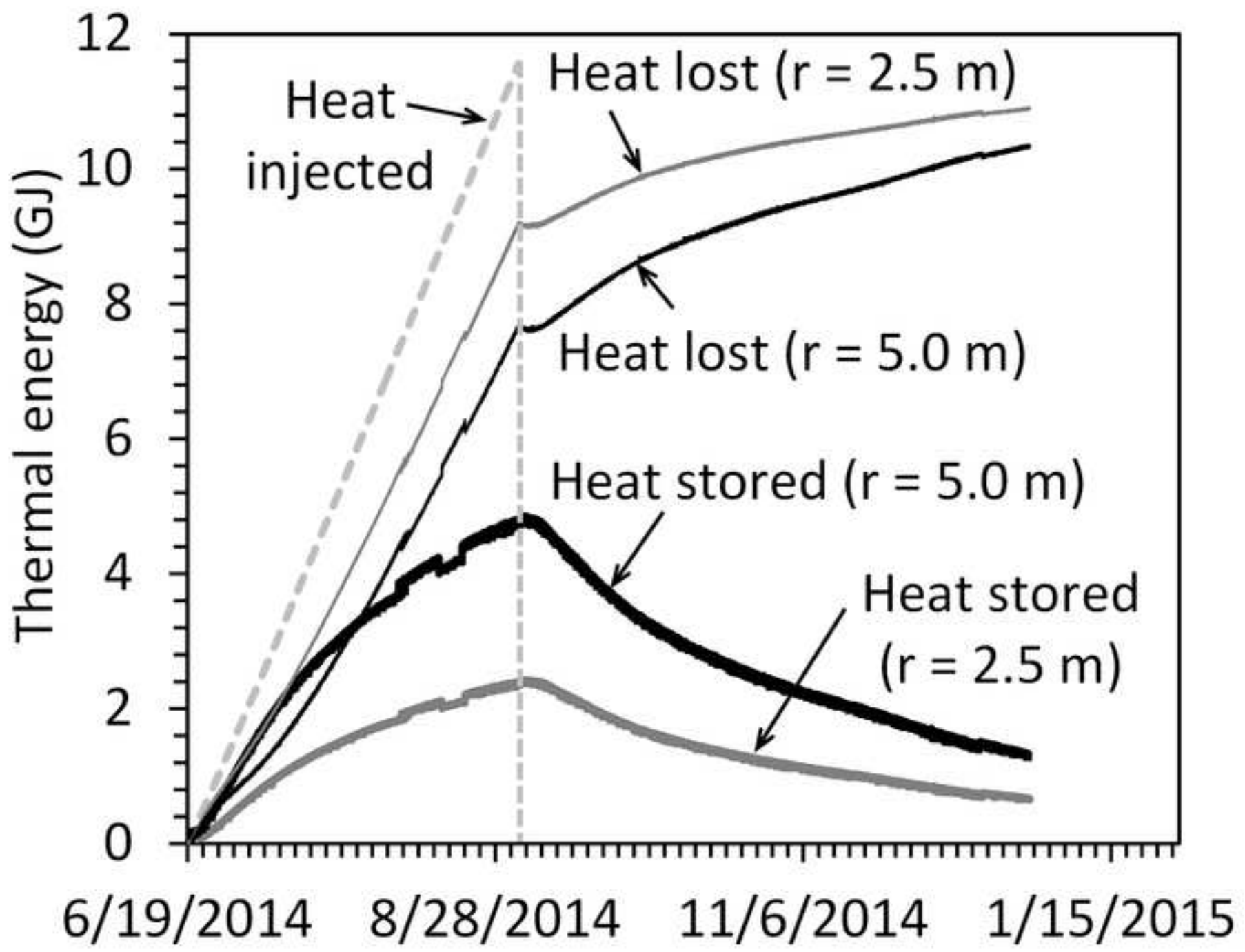


Figure 9

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