2

# Influence of cooling temperature increase in a Hygroscopic cycle on the performance of the cooling equipment

- 3 Francisco J. Rubio-Serrano<sup>a</sup>, Fernando Soto-Pérez<sup>a</sup>, Antonio J. Gutiérrez-Trashorras<sup>b,\*</sup>
- 4 <sup>a</sup> IMASA, Ingeniería y Proyectos, S.A. Carpinteros 12. 28670 Villaviciosa de Odón (Madrid) Spain

<sup>b</sup> Energy Department, Escuela Politécnica de Ingeniería. Edificio de Energía. Universidad de Oviedo. 33203
 Campus de Viesques. Gijón (Asturias) Spain

7 Abstract

8 Power output of power plant is substantially reduced when cooling is conducted at high ambient 9 temperatures. The problem is also intensified at locations with water scarcity. Hygroscopic cycle is a novel technology that improves Rankine cycle and solve those problems in an effective way. 10 11 Hygroscopic Cycle Technology works with hygroscopic compounds that increase the cooling 12 temperature for each output pressure of the steam turbine and uses dry coolers for refrigeration. As a 13 result, much better cooling conditions are obtained and water consumption is avoided. Higher electrical 14 performance is obtained without the limitation of high ambient temperatures. In this paper, Hygroscopic Cycle is experimentally studied. Results have been obtained in a test plant with a live steam generation 15 16 capacity of 110 kg/h. This article shows cooling temperatures increase obtained for high mass 17 concentrations from 45 to 65% of lithium bromide solution in water at the cooling reflux stream. The 18 increase of the saline concentration in the cooling reflux significantly increase the cooling temperatures 19 by more than 15°C in a Hygroscopic cycle with respect to a Rankine cycle, for the same condensing pressure. Consequently, it reduces the electrical power required by the chosen cooling system, as well 20 as to save all the cooling water consumption needed for cooling towers in other installations. 21

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>\*</sup>Corresponding author. Energy Department, Escuela Politécnica de Ingeniería. Edificio de Energía. Universidad de Oviedo. 33203 Campus de Viesques. Gijón (Asturias) Spain. Tel.: +34 985 18 23 69. E-mail address: gutierrezantonio@uniovi.es.

1	Hygroscopic Cycle with high concentrations is able to increase up to 17.41% the net electrical power	
2	output respect	to Rankine cycle.
3		
4	Keyword	s: Rankine cycle, Hygroscopic cycle, steam absorber, lithium bromide, dry cooler,
5	cooling water	saving, cold sink.
6		
Ū		
7	Nomenclature	
8	$C_i$	LiBr mass concentrations (%)
9	$EP_c$	electrical power consumption of pumps and dry cooler fans (kWe)
10 11	GEPt h <sub>i</sub>	gross electrical power provided by the turbine (kWe) specific enthalpy (kJ/kg)
12	$\dot{m}_i$	mass flow rate (kg/s)
13	NEP	net electrical power (kWe)
14 15	NEP0 NEP%	net electric power output of Rankine cycle (kWe) net electric power output of HCT for different LiBr concentrations (kWe)
16	$q_d$	heat of dilution (kJ/kg)
17	$\dot{Q}_d$	heat transfer rate due to heat of dilution (kW)
18	$\dot{Q}_r$	heat transfer rate dissipated by the dry coolers (kW)
19	Тс	condensing temperature (°C)
20	$T_i$	temperature (°C)
21	Tv	steam saturation temperature (°C)
22 23	$\Delta(NEP)$	net electrical power increase (%)
24	Acronyms	
25	ACC	air-cooled condenser
26	CSP	concentrating solar power
27	НСТ	Hygroscopic Cycle Technology
28	ORC	Organic Rankine Cycle
29	PLC	programmable logic controller
30	SCADA	Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition
31	U.S.	United States
~~		

## 1 *Chemical symbols*

- 2 CaCl<sub>2</sub> calcium chloride 3 LiBr lithium bromide LiCl lithium chloride 4 NaCl sodium chloride 5 NaNO<sub>3</sub> sodium nitrate 6 7 NaOH sodium hydroxide
- 8

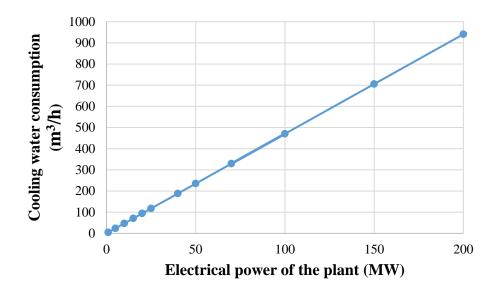
## 9

## 1. **INTRODUCTION**

Climate change poses immediate risks on the supply of fresh water for power generation 10 as water scarcity becomes more frequent and more severe [1]. The growing global energy 11 demand accentuates the decrease in the availability of water resources and leads to a worsening 12 of water quality due to the increase in pollutant emissions [2]. It has been estimated that there 13 would be a 40% increase in energy and a 30% increase in water demand by 2040 [3]. Over 14 40% of the global population live in river basins with severe water shortages, mainly in 15 northern and southern Africa and in Central and South Asia [4]. Seawater desalination is being 16 used to alleviate this problem, but the process is intensive in terms of energy demand and large 17 amount of unwanted brine by-product is obtained. Therefore, efforts to optimize and reduce 18 19 water consumption by power generation facilities is of utmost importance in the face of society 20 and the environment [5]. As United Nations has concluded, addressing water scarcity is one of the greatest challenges of the century [6]. Power plants require water for electricity generation 21 and consequently, decreased water availability limits power generation. Water withdrawal for 22 23 electricity generation in the United States (U.S.) accounts for approximately half the total freshwater withdrawal [7]. The effect of changes in water availability on the U.S. electricity 24 mix using econometric approaches was studied in [8]. According to their results, long-run water 25 scarcity or abundance will affect utility decisions about the construction of new power plants, 26 affecting both the exposure of the electricity mix to water scarcity and the marginal source of 27

electricity generation that will offset displaced generation. Water consumption in 1 thermoelectric plants in China increased from 1.6 billion m<sup>3</sup> to 3.8 billion m<sup>3</sup> from 2002 to 2 2010 [9]. In countries such as China, spatial layout could further aggravate national water 3 scarcity. Fang et al. [10] built an optimization model to adjust the spatial layout of power 4 generation by redistributing China's provincial electricity generation tasks based on provincial 5 6 water scarcity and energy resources. Gu et al. [11] suggested that a cooperative relationship 7 between water and energy conservation efforts should be an important factor in creating policies that encourage simultaneous savings of both resources in China. In Europe, 8 9 thermoelectric power plants generate 74% of total electricity supply [12]. European energy sector therefore strongly depends on the availability of water resources and on the temperatures 10 of water for cooling. 11

12 Thermoelectric power plants that use turbines to generate electricity need to cool the steam passes through the turbine before it can be reused in the steam cycle. Rankine cycle is the basic 13 thermodynamic cycle which is a large consumer of water for the feeding the cycle itself, for 14 cleaning and for the cooling system [13]. Water consumption also depends on the type of 15 technology used, cooling system selected, climate and weather conditions around the power 16 plant and cycle performance. One way to increase the performance of the Rankine cycle is to 17 reduce the temperature of the cold sink. This requires a suitable cooling system that allows 18 condensing the turbine exhaust steam to the lowest possible thermal level. There are multiple 19 20 types of cooling technologies to condense steam, including once-through (or open circuit), 21 evaporative cooling (cooling towers), and air condensers. The amount of water used by each power plant is highly dependent on its cooling technology [3]. Figure 1 reflects the cooling 22 23 water consumption [14] in a high efficiency thermoelectric plant, using cooling towers, based 24 on the power output of the plant.



2 *Figure 1. Cooling water consumption for different electrical power outputs of power plants.* 

In the literature, many investigations to reduce water consumption in thermoelectric power 3 4 cycles have been presented by using different cooling systems. Thermodynamic analysis of the 5 integration of absorption refrigeration systems into Rankine power cycles to reduce water 6 consumption has been done in [15]. The simulation for a 50 MW power plant estimated that 7 the water savings range from 1.33 to  $6.70 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$  per unit steam through the cycle. Also, the water 8 savings range from 1.12 to 5.58 m<sup>3</sup>/MWh. In [16], a mathematical model to study the 9 performance enhancement of combined cycle power plant using inlet air cooling by exhaust 10 heat operated ammonia-water absorption refrigeration system was presented. Energy and exergy analyses performed in that work reveal that with the use of this type of chiller, for the 11 same fuel consumption, the net power output of the plant increases by 2.8%, the thermal 12 efficiency by 1.193% and the exergy efficiency by 1.133% thereby improving the overall 13 14 performance appreciably. According to the author, this method will work very efficiently in Indian atmospheric conditions which are hot in most part of the year, but the required 15 16 investment was not presented in the article. A theoretical analysis on increasing thermal efficiency of Rankine cycles by using refrigeration cycles was done by [17]. Organic Rankine 17 cycle (ORC), Goswami cycle and Kalina cycle are the major cycles that have been developed 18

for the conversion of low grade of heat into electricity. Most of the recent investigations about 1 2 Rankine cycle focus on ORC [18]. ORC uses working fluids with low boiling points, instead 3 of steam, to recover heat from a lower temperature heat source. [19] studied the effect of flow losses in condenser on the performance of ORC. The maximum relative increase of total 4 5 irreversibility is 9.7%, while the maximum relative decrease of net work output, thermal 6 efficiency and exergy efficiency are 16.1%, 17.0% and 16.9%, respectively. Obviously, the 7 influence of the design and operation of the refrigeration device has an important effect on the 8 cycle performance. In [20], Kalina cycle uses absorption condensers for heat discharge, thus 9 makes great temperature difference of work solution in the endothermic process and small 10 temperature difference of basic solution in the exothermic process at the same time. Energy analysis for a Rankine-Kalina combined cycle was performed by Murugan & Subbarao [21]. 11 This cycle produces higher power output and is more efficient than a Rankine steam cycle. 12 Goswami cycle uses binary mixture to produce power and refrigeration simultaneously in one 13 14 loop [22]. A mixture of ammonia and water is pumped from the absorber to high pressure. It is then split into two streams which mixes and enter the desorber after recovering heat. The 15 mixture is partially boiled in the desorber to produce a vapor rich in ammonia and a hot weak-16 17 in-ammonia liquid solution. A rectifier increases the concentration of ammonia in the vapor, from the desorber, by partially condensing water out of it. [23] presents the optimization 18 of the operation of a concentrated solar power plant with dry cooling over a year, evaluating 19 20 the molten salts storage, the power block and the air-cooling system as a function of the climate and atmospheric conditions. The annual production cost of electricity is 0.16 €/kWh and the 21 22 investment required is 265 M $\in$ , both slightly higher than when wet cooling is used, but with 23 negligible water consumption. In [24], different feasible integrated configurations were proposed and thermodynamically evaluated for cogeneration of power and fresh water/cooling, 24 and trigeneration of power, cooling and fresh water. The results showed the configurations that 25

utilize steam extraction with a lower temperature and pressure were more efficient. The ideal 1 2 locations for thermoelectric solar plants, with a high degree of annual sunshine, are 3 encountering barriers due to the limitation of water in the area. These circumstances restrict the 4 electrical production since they demand a greater pressure of condensation [25]. These factors can penalize the performance and, consequently, the success of the plant. Even when the 5 availability of water is affordable, the use of cooling towers brings with it an increase in 6 7 operating costs, water treatment and environmental risks (legionella) that make it difficult or even impossible to install those cycles using wet cooling. Air condensers (condensation of 8 9 water vapor through indirect contact with ambient air) solve the problem partially. Its price, the required space and its electricity consumption make its installation neither profitable nor 10 attractive in most of the cases. In the problems discussed above is where there really is room 11 12 for improvement.

Recently, a new technology that significantly reduces water consumption for cooling was 13 developed by Rubio Serrano [26] and co-workers. That technology is called Hygroscopic Cycle 14 15 Technology (HCT). One of the main problems of Rankine cycles arises when cooling is conducted at high ambient temperatures. In that cases, power output of the power plant is 16 considerably reduced or may even be forced to stop the electrical generation. The problem is 17 also intensified by water scarcity [27] for cooling. HCT overcomes the previously cited cooling 18 19 problems in power plants using steam cycles in a practical and efficient way. It is a power cycle 20 similar to the Rankine cycle and characterized by working with hygroscopic compounds. That 21 compounds optimize the steam condensation of the turbine output. For this purpose, the condensing temperature is increased [28] for a given condensing pressure. HCT can replace or 22 23 be added to a Rankine cycle for any electric power generation plant [29] such as combined cycles, thermoelectric power plants, biomass power plants, thermosolar power plants and 24 nuclear power plants. The new technology is very different to Goswami and Kalina cycles. The 25

main differences are that HCT is not limited to conversion of low grade of heat into electricity, 1 2 and the binary mixture does not use neither an external heat source nor a desorber to separate 3 the steam from the other fluid. There is only an absorber in which the steam is directly 4 condensed by absorption due to the different concentration of hygroscopic compounds between the stream inlets [30]. Only a few investigations have been published about HCT, because it 5 was recently developed. The Hygroscopic Cycle has been in the state of the art since 2010 as 6 7 "Rankine Cycle with absorption stage using hygroscopic compounds" [31]. In 2015 the installation of a test plant of the Hygroscopic cycle was completed. It was the first pilot plant 8 9 worldwide that reproduces HCT. This plant is located in Gijón (Spain) and is owned by IMASA, INGENIERÍA Y PROYECTOS S.A [32]. The most important elements of HCT are 10 the absorber and the associated cooling system. In the absorber, the condensation of the steam 11 12 coming from the turbine takes place because of the absorption phenomena. It is due to the concentration of hygroscopic compounds in the cooling reflux stream provided by the cooling 13 system. As a result, the cooling temperature in the absorber is higher than to the one of the 14 15 Rankine cycle for a given condensing pressure. Regarding the cooling system, the equipment used in this technology to dissipate the heat of condensation are air coolers, also called dry 16 coolers. Those devices are heat exchangers in which the hot fluid passes through a tube bundle 17 [33] and is cooled by an air stream driven by fans of high electrical efficiency, whose speed is 18 19 regulated based on the ambient temperature [34]. The advantages of dry coolers over cooling 20 towers are that consumption of cooling water is cancelled, as well as the tower purges [35], plumes are removed [36], lower environmental and acoustic impact, less annual electricity 21 consumption and lower operating and maintenance costs [37]. The advantages of dry coolers 22 23 with respect to air cooled condensers [38] are that the former are cheaper, lower anual electricity consumption, smaller size and thus less civil works [39]. The main disadvantage of 24 dry coolers is that they cannot achieve the same cooling temperatures (close to ambient) as in 25

cooling towers (dry bulb temperature). This problem is solved by HCT because the cooling 1 2 temperature is increased by using hygroscopic compounds in the cooling reflux. The benefits 3 of incorporating the innovative HCT to an existing power plant have been published in [30]. It is the first world industrial scale reference that uses HCT. It is a 12.5-MW biomass power plant 4 located in Spain, in which the boiler blow-downs are used as hygroscopic compounds to 5 condense the turbine outlet steam in the absorber. The condensing temperature is increased 6 7 above the saturation temperature of the pure steam for a given pressure. The new technology allows the plant to refrigerate the steam even with high ambient temperatures, increase the net 8 9 electrical efficiency of the plant, as well as saving the cooling tower and therefore, avoiding cooling water consumption [30]. The actual amount of raw water saved in that plant with HCT 10 is 229,200  $m^3$  per year. 11

12 In the literature there are not any studies about the relationship between the different parameters governing the HCT. As it was previously explained, cooling temperature is one of 13 the main parameters of HCT, directly related to the cooling system. The dry cooler has high 14 electric efficiency fans whose speed is regulated based on the ambient temperature. Therefore, 15 depending on the cooling temperature reached, HCT will be able to work under different 16 ambient conditions. Cooling temperature depends on the concentration of the cooling reflux. 17 Consequently, it is very relevant to determine the relationship between cooling temperature 18 19 and hygroscopic compounds concentration in the cooling reflux stream.

The main objective of this paper is to experimentally quantify the benefits of the cooling system used in the HCT, with respect to the classic Rankine refrigeration system. The novelty of the present work is that instead of using only the steam boiler blow-downs, HCT is also studied with a different hygroscopic compound and at higher concentrations in order to increase the effect of raising the cooling temperature. The selected compound was lithium bromide (LiBr), mainly used in absorption refrigeration [40] for cold production, since it is a highly hygroscopic and soluble salt in all working steps of the steam cycle. LiBr shows an increase of
solubility in water as the temperature of the solution is increased [41]. Also, the effect of
increasing LiBr concentration on the energy consumption of the dry coolers and net electrical
power output is experimentally studied in this paper.

5

## 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

6 **2.1 Experimental setup** 

The experimental values used in this article were obtained in an HCT test plant located at
Gijon – Spain (43°32'N 5°42'W). It is the first worldwide test plant reproducing the HCT. The
plant includes the main equipment and materials necessary to analyze HCT. Those equipment
and materials are also available and scalable at industrial level. Figure 2 shows a view of the
HCT test plant.

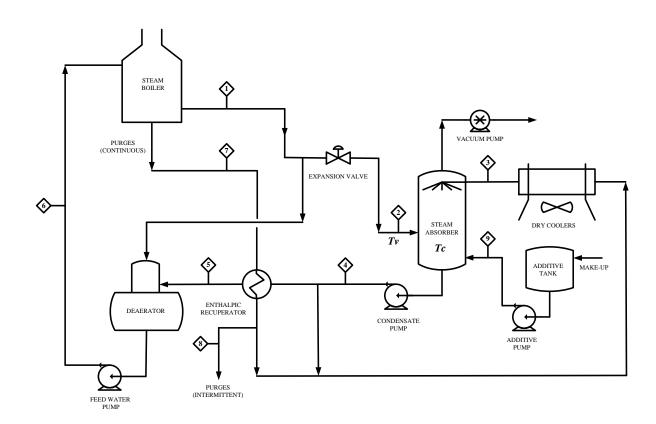


12



Figure 2. HCT test plant with detail of the dry coolers used.

14



2

*Figure 3. Process diagram of the HCT test plant.* 

Figure 3 presents the process diagram of the HCT test plant. The superheated steam (1) is 3 produced in a 100-kW natural gas boiler. It is a pyro-tubular boiler with steam generation 4 capacity of 110 kg/h at 13 barg and maximum temperature of 200°C. The outlet of the boiler 5 6 is equipped with a high efficiency droplet separator to minimize the dragging of salts into the 7 turbine. Instead of a turbine, the test plant uses an expansion valve. It makes the plant cheaper and easier to manage. With this arrangement it is possible to calculate the power output that 8 9 would have produced a steam turbine under test conditions. The isenthalpic expansion produced in the valve is registered in a programmable logic controller (PLC) [42]. It is 10 11 programmed to calculate the instantaneous electrical power provided by a turbine based on the experimental data measured at the outlet of the valve. Also, a Supervisory Control and Data 12 Acquisition (SCADA) system [43] gathers, controls and supervises all data. The scale of the 13 14 plant produce a power output of 30 kWe. The valve exhaust steam (2) is heading for the steam absorber where it is mixed with the condensed liquid stream called cooling reflux (3). This 15

stream is rich in hygroscopic compounds and has a higher salt concentration than the steam. 1 2 The steam absorber is the most characteristic component of HCT. The condensation of the 3 steam coming from the turbine takes place in the steam absorber because of the absorption phenomena. It is due to the concentration of hygroscopic compounds in the cooling reflux 4 stream provided by the cooling system. Due to absorption process, the condensing temperature 5 6 of the vapor in the steam absorber is greater than the saturation temperature of exhaust steam 7 (Tc > Tv in Figure 3), for the same condensing pressure [44]. Vacuum pump extracts air and other non-condensing gases from the steam absorber. According to Figure 3, the condensed 8 9 fluid (4) at the outlet of the steam absorber is divided into two streams. One stream (5) is directed towards the deaerator unit, where non-condensable gases are removed. The other 10 stream is recirculated as cooling reflux (3), flowing through a set of dry coolers where the heat 11 12 of condensation is removed. An air current at ambient conditions is driven by high efficiency electric fans. The air stream cools a copper tube-bundle, through which cooling reflux stream 13 passes. Dry coolers guarantee the cooling temperature of the system. The condensed fluid (6) 14 15 exiting the deaerator is pumped to the boiler. Thermal energy of the boiler blow-down (7) is recovered in a closed heat exchanger. That equipment is called enthalpic recuperator and 16 provides energy to the stream that feeds the deaerator (5). Thermal and chemical recovery of 17 these purges is essential for the right operation and electrical performance of HCT. In order to 18 maintain chemical equilibrium in the cycle, a fraction of the boiler blow-down (8) is 19 20 intermittently removed from the system. In the additive tank (2-m<sup>3</sup> atmospheric tank) the makeup is done. Through this tank both chemical additives and LiBr dissolved in water are 21 introduced into the cycle (Figure 3). It allows control of LiBr concentration of in the cooling 22 23 reflux stream. Additives are a mixture of amines [45] used to avoid formation of scales and protect metallurgy against corrosion due to dissolved gases. 24

25

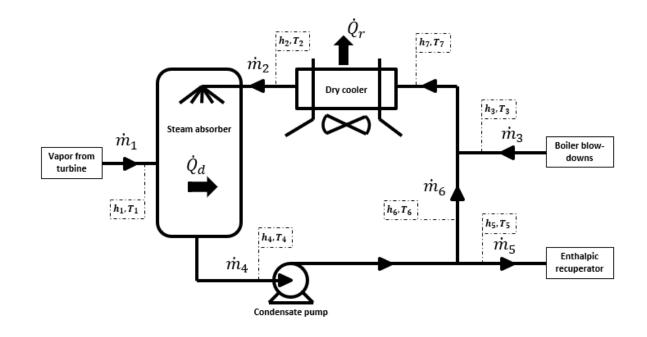
## 2.2 Instrumentation and uncertainties

1 In the test plant, power meters (accuracy  $\pm 0.1\%$ ) were installed at the dry coolers and pumps to measure power consumption. Numerous cooper-constantan thermocouples (T-type, 2 3 with uncertainty  $\pm 0.2^{\circ}$ C) were used to measure temperatures at the inlets and outlets of the main equipment described above. Platinum resistances (Pt100, accuracy ±0.1°C) were located 4 5 at inlets and outlet of the absorber to obtain more accurate temperatures. Pressure sensors 6 (Aplisens PCE-28, accuracy  $\pm 0.5\%$ ) were used to measure pressures at inlets and outlets of 7 the devices. Flowmeters (accuracy  $\pm 0.5\%$ ) were mounted in each stream to measure the all 8 the mass flow rates. Accuracy of the data acquisition equipment used is 0.004%. There are 9 purges in all streams for taking samples of fluid. The samples were used for measuring LiBr concentrations (estimated uncertainty about  $\pm 0.25\%$ ). Calculated electrical powers have an 10 estimated uncertainty of  $\pm 0.15\%$ , based on the accuracy of the direct measuring instruments 11 and data acquisition equipment. 12

13

## 2.3 Mathematical model

Figure 4 shows the steam absorber and the cooling system with the connections with therest of the HCT components.



1	Figure 4. Scheme of steam absorber and cooling system in HCT.		
2	In Figure 4, the following notation is used:		
3	$\dot{m}_i$ : mass flow rates (kg/s) of the different streams. Specifically, $\dot{m}_1$ is the steam mass		
4	flow rate from the turbine and $\dot{m}_2$ is the mass flow rate of the cooling reflux stream.		
5	$h_i$ : specific enthalpy values (kJ/kg) at the different points. They depend on temperature,		
6	pressure and LiBr concentration. $h_1$ is the enthalpy of the turbine steam exhaustion.		
7	$T_i$ : temperature values (°C) at the different points. $T_2$ is the cooling temperature of the		
8	cooling reflux stream.		
9	$\dot{Q}_r$ : heat transfer rate dissipated by the dry cooler (kW).		
10	$\dot{Q}_d$ : heat transfer rate due to heat of dilution (kW).		
11	$q_d$ : heat of dilution (kJ/kg) [46] that is defined as the heat exchanged with the medium		
12	when an additional amount of solvent is added to a solution. This heat depends on the initial		
13	concentration and the amount of solvent added.		
14	For the mathematical development, the following assumptions and simplifications are		
15	considered:		
16	• All the elements (steam absorber, pipes, pumps, etc.) are adiabatic, except for the dry		
17	cooler.		
18	• Kinetic and potential energy changes are negligible.		
19	• Condensate pump power input is the necessary to overcome the pressure losses in		
20	that part of the circuit. That power consumption is very small compared to the other		
21	power terms and it will be neglected.		

Equations (1), (2) and (3) express the mass balances at steady flow conditions of the
 streams in Figure 4.

3 *m* 

4

$$\dot{m}_1 + \dot{m}_2 = \dot{m}_4 \tag{1}$$

$$\dot{m}_4 = \dot{m}_5 + \dot{m}_6 \tag{2}$$

5 
$$\dot{m}_6 + \dot{m}_3 = \dot{m}_2$$
 (3)

6 Energy balance of the steam absorber at steady flow is given by Equation 4.

7 
$$\dot{m}_1 h_1 + \dot{m}_2 h_2 + \dot{Q}_d = \dot{m}_4 h_4$$
 (4)

8 Equation (5) states the energy balance for the single-stream (one-inlet and one-outlet)

9 steady-flow system corresponding to the cooling reflux in the dry cooler.

10 
$$\dot{Q}_r = \dot{m}_2(h_7 - h_2)$$
 (5)

11 Energy balance of the system excluding the steam absorber is given by Equation (6).

12 
$$\dot{m}_3 h_3 + \dot{m}_4 h_4 - \dot{Q}_r = \dot{m}_5 h_5 + \dot{m}_2 h_2$$
 (6)

13 Heat transfer rate due to heat of dilution is calculated by Equation (7).

 $\dot{Q}_d = \dot{m}_2 q_d \tag{7}$ 

15 According to the assumptions above mentioned, it can be considered that:

16  $h_4 \approx h_5 \approx h_6 \text{ and } T_4 \approx T_5 \approx T_6$  (8)

17 LiBr mass balance for the steam absorber is given by Equation (9).

18 
$$\dot{m}_1 C_1 + \dot{m}_2 C_2 = \dot{m}_4 C_4$$
 (9)

19 Where  $C_i$  are the LiBr mass concentrations at the inlets and outlets of the absorber. Note 20 that  $C_1 = 0$  because it is pure steam. The set of equations (1) through (9) provides a theoretical relationship between LiBr
 concentration of the cooling reflux (*C*<sub>2</sub>) and cooling temperature (T<sub>2</sub>) at different condensing
 pressures in the absorber.

4 2.4 Limitations and experimental validation

5 Results obtained in the test plant have been contrasted by theoretical models for low concentrations of hygroscopic compounds. It is widely known that when the mass 6 7 concentration is less than 1%, the relationship between ebulloscopic increase and concentration 8 is linear [47]. This is also coherent with variation of heat of dilution with low concentrations 9 of LiBr (linear trend and low slope) [46]. At industrial scale, results have been validated in [30] for low concentrations. On the contrary, for actual solutions with high concentrations, the 10 11 increase in boiling point and the decrease in vapor pressure do not follow a linear but a 12 polynomial trend when the concentration of hygroscopic compounds increases. The values obtained in the test plant for the solution of LiBr in water with high concentrations were 13 14 corroborated with the diagrams of Dühring [48]. Mass and energy balances performed in the test plant were verified with the equations in section 2.3 and the tables of properties for LiBr 15 solution in water [49]. Consequently, experimental mass and energy balances are effective for 16 other process conditions and provide a tool for designing any power plant that works with a 17 steam and high concentrations of LiBr. 18

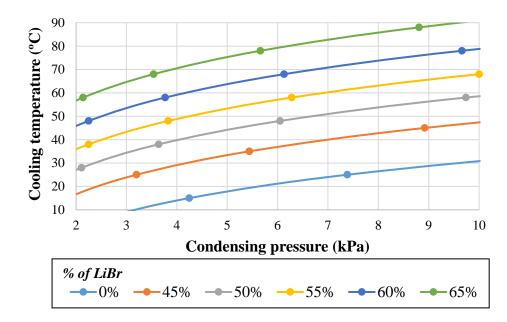
19 Nonetheless, in order to obtain optimized actual values at high concentrations of 20 hygroscopic compounds, some experimental restrictions have to be considered. In the specific 21 case of LiBr, it is experimentally verified that the difference in optimum mass concentrations 22 between the boiler feed stream and the boiler blow-downs current is 5%. With differences in 23 concentration greater than 5%, the thermal energy consumption in the boiler would increase, 24 as well as the thermal energy dissipated in the dry cooler, due to the great increase in heat of dilution. With differences lower than 5%, the mass flow rate of boiler blow-downs is to be
increased and, consequently, the electrical self-consumption of the cycle would be significantly
increased. Besides, for an optimized design, the temperature difference of the cooling reflux
stream between the inlet and outlet of the dry cooler ranges from 7 to 14°C.

5 Maximum temperatures and gauge pressures in the test plant are limited to 200°C and 13 6 barg respectively because of the boiler installed. The steam turbine is simulated with a software 7 that uses the previously mentioned SCADA system, certified by Navantia [50]. For the simulation, superheated steam at 60 bar(a) and 500°C is introduced at turbine inlet. Maximum 8 9 ambient temperature at the location of the plant is 35 °C. Mass concentration of LiBr in water ranges from 45 to 65%. Concentrations lower than 45% correspond to very low values of heat 10 of dilution [46] and consequently, results barely improve respect to the ones obtained with the 11 boiler blow-downs of the Rankine cycle. On the other hand, 65% is the maximum solubility of 12 LiBr in water (saturated solution) for the working temperature range of the test plant [41]. 13 14

15

## 3. **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

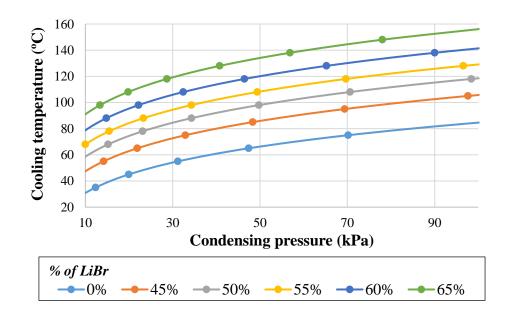
According to the experimental results obtained in the test plant, the concentration of hygroscopic compounds in the cooling reflux stream has a very significant the influence on the cooling temperatures required by the HCT (Figures 5 and 6).



2 Figure 5. Cooling temperatures required for condensing pressures between 2 and 10

3 *kPa(a) for different mass concentrations (%) of LiBr solution in water.* 

4



*Figure 6. Cooling temperatures required for condensing pressures between 10 and 90 kPa(a) for different mass concentrations (%) of LiBr solution in water.*

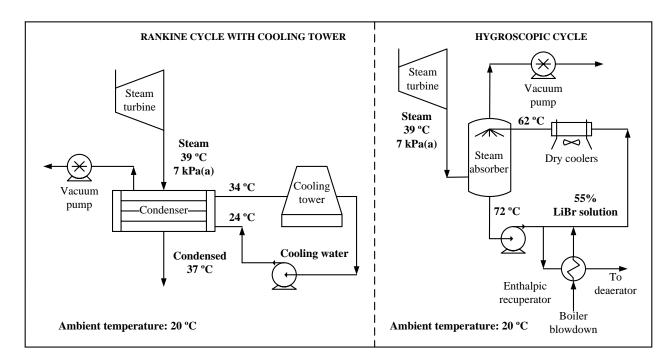
As reflected in Figures 5 and 6, by increasing the mass concentration of the LiBr solution
at the cooling reflux stream (stream 3 of Figure 3), the cooling temperatures required in an
HCT for condensation are higher for a given pressure. These temperatures and pressures have

been measured at the steam absorber. Therefore, given the nonvolatile nature of LiBr salt at
those temperatures, the higher the concentration, the higher the cooling temperature increase
with reference to Rankine cycle (0% LiBr in Figures 5 and 6) for each condensing pressure.

4 According to Figure 3, the outlet steam from the expansion valve (stream 2) is mixed with the cooling reflux (stream 3) in the steam absorber. Due to absorption, condensation takes place 5 6 at a greater temperature than the saturation temperature found in the steam tables, for each 7 pressure. This is a great advantage and novelty of using the present technology in a steam cycle. 8 The cold reservoir temperature limits the condensing temperature and pressure of the turbine 9 outlet steam in a traditional Rankine cycle. On the contrary, due to the significant increase in the actual condensing temperature in the steam absorber, there is not that limitation for the cold 10 reservoir (ambient temperature) with HCT. Because of the condensation conditions of HCT, 11 12 the required cooling temperatures are increased. Figure 5 shows that, for a condensing pressure of 8 kPa(a), the Rankine cycle (0% concentration of LiBr in water) requires a cooling 13 temperature of 26.5°C vs. 62.5°C in HCT with a mass concentration of 55% of LiBr solution 14 15 in water. In that case, the technology increases the cooling temperature by 36°C and high ambient temperatures are tolerable. Figures 5 and 6 also indicate that for the same cooling 16 temperature, the condensing pressure is much lower when increasing the LiBr concentration 17 and therefore, the turbine power output can be increased. These advantages are very significant 18 in the viability of a steam cycle since the HCT allows working with the minimum pressures 19 20 tolerable by current condensing steam turbines. Also, HCT is not limited neither by the ambient conditions (or cold sink temperature) nor the cooling system used. In this HCT, a battery of dry 21 coolers is used, totally avoiding water consumption for cooling. 22

Experimental results presented in Figures 7 through 9 show the differences between Rankine cycle and HCT as regards required power consumption as well as cooling water consumption demanded by the cooling towers. Figure 7 shows that for a condensing pressure of 7 kPa(a), the necessary cooling temperature in a Rankine cycle is 24°C. For that pressure, cooling temperature is 62°C (38 °C higher than Rankine) with HCT and 55% LiBr. For the specified conditions, Rankine cycle would require a cooling tower, with a significant consumption of cooling water. HCT can reach the temperatures detailed in Figure 7 with a dry cooler of high electrical efficiency; even for an ambient temperature over 50 °C. Consequently, HCT is not limited by the cold sink [51] temperature as in Rankine cycle. It provides greater availability to the power plant.

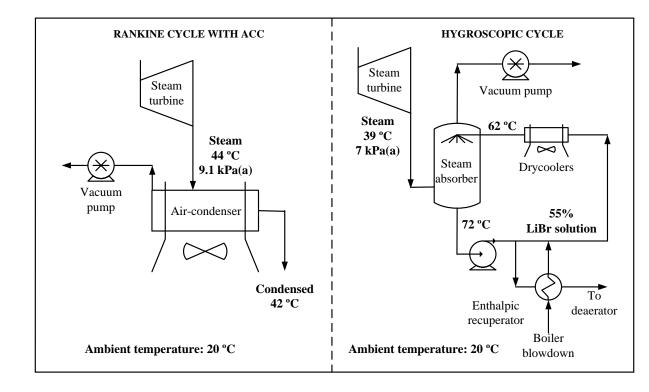
8



9

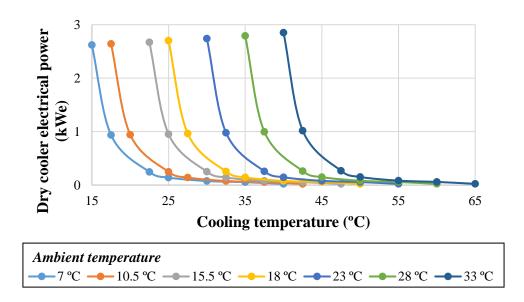
Figure 7. Cooling temperature increase on a Hygroscopic cycle with respect to a Rankine
cycle with cooling towers for Rankine cycle at the same condensing pressure.

Experimental results presented in Figures 7 and 8 indicate that for an ambient temperature of 20°C, condensing pressures of 7 kPa(a) can be achieved with HCT. Those values cannot be reached by means by means of a traditional air-cooled condenser (ACC), or at least not in an economical way [52]. Electricity consumption of the fans in HCT are much lower than those required by cooling tower fans of Figure 7, and further less than those of an ACC detailed in Figure 8. That power consumption depends on the required cooling temperature and the
 ambient temperature.



4 Figure 8. Cooling temperature increase in Hygroscopic Cycle with respect to a Rankine cycle

5 with air cooled condenser (ACC) at the same ambient temperature.



6

3

7 Figure 9. Electrical consumption of dry coolers for the cooling temperatures required at

8 *different ambient temperatures.* 

1 Figure 9 shows the power consumption of the dry coolers of the test plant detailed in 2 section 2, for the cooling temperature required (stream 3 at Figure 3). For a given ambient 3 temperature, electricity consumption of the dry cooler fans decreases exponentially when increasing cooling temperature. Therefore, the increase in the cooling temperature required by 4 the dry coolers of HCT reduces the electrical power demand of the cooling equipment, as 5 opposed to the Rankine cycle, whose cooling temperature for the same condensing pressure is 6 7 always lower. The overall consequence is an increase in the net electrical power output of the power plant, by reducing self-consumption. 8

9 Power output provided by the turbine can be increased by lowering the condensing pressure at the same cooling temperature. According to Figure 5, for a cooling temperature of 10 30°C, condensing pressure is 9.7 kPa(a) in Rankine cycle (0% LiBr) and 4.3 kPa(a) in HCT 11 (45% LiBr). Steam turbine is simulated under the following conditions: steam inlet at 6 MPa(a) 12 and 500°C; mass flow rate 100 kg/h; isentropic efficiency 82% and electrical efficiency 97%. 13 The electrical power output of the simulated turbine is 27.55 kWe for the Rankine cycle and 14 29.65 kWe for HCT (45% LiBr). Therefore, for cooling temperature of 30°C, HCT provides a 15 gross output electrical power 7.6% greater than Rankine. From figures 5 and 6, it can be 16 generalized that gross electrical power (GEP) provided by HCT is greater than GEP provided 17 by Rankine cycle for the same cooling temperature. Also, the greater the concentration of LiBr, 18 the greater the GEP output. 19

20

Net electrical powers are given by Equation (10).

where: 22

23 *NEP* is the net electrical power (kWe)

 $GEP_t$  is the gross electrical power provided by the turbine (kWe) 24

25  $EP_c$  is the electrical power consumption of pumps and dry cooler fans (kWe).

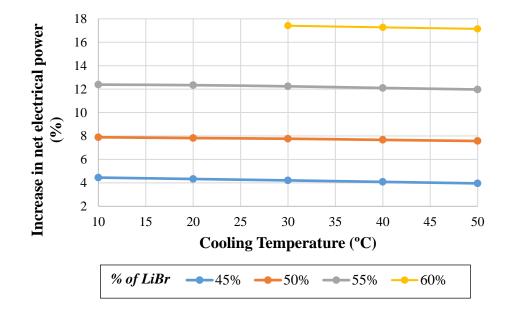
Increase in net electrical power output of HCT respect to Rankine cycle (%) at the same 26 cooling temperature can be obtained by Equation 11. 27

 $NEP = GEP_t - EP_c$ 

(10)

$$\Delta(NEP) = \frac{NEP_{\%} - NEP_0}{NEP_0} \times 100 \tag{11}$$

- 2 where:
- 3  $\Delta(NEP)$  is the net electrical power increase (%).
- 4 *NEP*% is the net electric power (kWe) output of HCT for different mass concentrations of
- 5 LiBr in water
- 6 *NEP*<sup>0</sup> is the net electric power (kWe) output of Rankine cycle
- 7



9 Figure 10. Increase in net electrical power output of HCT respect to Rankine cycle vs. cooling

10 *temperature at different LiBr concentrations.* 

Figure 10 presents the results obtained for the increase in NEP output of HCT respect to Rankine cycle for each cooling temperature, at different LiBr concentrations. It shows that  $\Delta$ (NEP) is greater as the mass concentration of LiBr in water in the cooling reflux stream increases. Nonetheless, for each LiBr mass concentration,  $\Delta$ (NEP) is lower as the cooling temperatures increase. For instance, with 60% mass concentrations of LiBr in the cooling reflux stream, at cooling temperatures of 30 °C and 40 °C,  $\Delta$ (NEP) is 17.41% and 17.27% respectively.

18

## 4. CONCLUSIONS

One of the main difficulties of thermoelectrical power generation arises when cooling is conducted in locations with high ambient temperatures and water scarcity. HCT is a new technology that overcomes those cooling problems in a practical and efficient way. Cooling temperature is increased by using hygroscopic compounds in the cooling reflux. HCT has been experimentally studied in a test plant with the hygroscopic salt LiBr at high mass concentrations ranging from 45 to 65%.

8 Experimental results show that a high concentration of LiBr in the cooling reflux stream 9 of a Hygroscopic cycle increases by over 15 °C the cooling temperature required for a given 10 condensing pressure, with respect to a Rankine cycle. For instance, cooling temperature 11 increases by 36°C in HCT with a mass concentration of 55% of LiBr solution in water. 12 Experimental results demonstrate that as cooling temperature is increased, electricity 13 consumption of the dry cooler fans decreases exponentially, for a given ambient temperature.

HCT translates into better cooling conditions since power consumption of the cooling system is significantly reduced and it saves the entire consumption of cooling water, without limited ambient temperature (cold sink) to reach the minimum condensing pressure tolerable by commercial condensing steam turbines. It also increases the availability of the power plant, even under extreme ambient conditions.

HCT with high concentrations of LiBr considerably contributes to improve the net electrical power output of the steam cycles (up to an increase of 17.41% respect to Rankine net electrical power). It solves the great problem of high electrical efficiency power plants that require cooling water in order to reach the lowest possible temperatures and pressures at condensation.

Hygroscopic cycle is applicable to new power plants and can be incorporated to existing
plants that use Rankine or combined cycles. Potential applications of HCT are also any

industrial processes that condense vapor with the aim of improve condensing and cooling 1 2 conditions and take advantage of the associated benefits. It implies the use of salt mixtures and 3 the increase in cooling temperature will depend on the concentration of these solutions. The choice of these compounds must ensure that in addition to being less volatile than water, they 4 have to be soluble in all the steam cycle operation points in order to avoid the formation of 5 6 precipitates that would increase scale and corrosion in the equipment. Therefore, great potential 7 is opened here for the future investigations of HCT with different hygroscopic compounds such as sodium chloride (NaCl), calcium chloride (CaCl<sub>2</sub>), sodium hydroxide (NaOH) or lithium 8 9 chloride (LiCl). Some salts show an endothermic effect when they are diluted, such as sodium nitrate (NaNO<sub>3</sub>). This means the condensation heat decreases in the absorber. This effect can 10 be of particular interest for concentrating solar power (CSP) plants, because the performance 11 of the turbine could be kept high even on very hot days. 12

## 13 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors acknowledge the contribution of the company IMASA, INGENIERÍA Y
PROYECTOS, S.A, owner of the Hygroscopic cycle test plant, and the process engineer
Federico C. Dueñas.

## **17 REFERENCES**

[3] Nouri, N., Balali, F., Nasiri, A., Seifoddini, H., & Otieno, W. (2019). Water withdrawal and consumption reduction for electrical energy generation systems. Applied Energy, 248, 196-206.

[4] Mekonnen, M. M., & Hoekstra, A. Y. (2016). Four billion people facing severe water scarcity. Science advances, 2(2), e1500323.

Schewe, J., Heinke, J., Gerten, D., Haddeland, I., Arnell, N. W., Clark, D. B. & Gosling, S. N. (2014).
 Multimodel assessment of water scarcity under climate change. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 111(9), 3245-3250.

<sup>[2]</sup> Rubio Serrano, F.J. (2016). Saving water in power plants. Power Engineering International 24 (6). <u>https://www.powerengineeringint.com/articles/print/volume-24/issue-6.html</u> [Accessed on August 2019].

[5] Kılkış, Ş., Krajačić, G., Duić, N., & Rosen, M. A. (2018). Advancements in sustainable development of energy, water and environment systems. Energy Conversion and Management 176, 164-183

[6] Cooley, H., Ajami, N., Ha, M. L., Srinivasan, V., Morrison, J., Donnelly, K., & Christian-Smith, J. (2014). Global water governance in the twenty-first century. In The world's water (pp. 1-18). Island Press, Washington, DC.

[7] Liu, L., Hejazi, M., Patel, P., Kyle, P., Davies, E., Zhou, Y. & Edmonds, J. (2015). Water demands for electricity generation in the US: Modeling different scenarios for the water–energy nexus. Technological Forecasting and Social Change, 94, 318-334.

[8] Eyer, J., & Wichman, C. J. (2018). Does water scarcity shift the electricity generation mix toward fossil fuels? Empirical evidence from the United States. Journal of Environmental Economics and Management, 87, 224-241.

[9] Liao, X., Zhao, X., Hall, J. W., & Guan, D. (2018). Categorising virtual water transfers through China's electric power sector. Applied energy, 226, 252-260.

[10] Fang, J., Wang, S., Zhang, Y., & Chen, B. (2019). Optimization of electricity generation pattern in China from perspective of water scarcity. Energy Procedia, 158, 3872-3877.

[11] Gu, A., Teng, F., & Wang, Y. (2014). China energy-water nexus: Assessing the water-saving synergy effects of energy-saving policies during the eleventh Five-year Plan. Energy conversion and management, 85, 630-637.

[12] Van Vliet, M. T., Vögele, S., & Rübbelke, D. (2013). Water constraints on European power supply under climate change: impacts on electricity prices. Environmental Research Letters, 8(3), 035010.

[13] Torcellini, P. A., Long, N., & Judkoff, R. (2003). Consumptive water use for US power production. National Renewable Energy Lab., Golden, CO (US).

[14] Feeley, T. J., Skone, T. J., Stiegel, G. J., McNemar, A., Nemeth, M., Schimmoller, B. & Manfredo, L. (2008).Water: A critical resource in the thermoelectric power industry. Energy, 33(1), 1-11.

[15] Salgado, R., Belmonte, J. F., Almendros-Ibáñez, J. A., & Molina, A. E. (2017). Integration of absorption refrigeration systems into Rankine power cycles to reduce water consumption: A thermodynamic analysis. Energy, 119, 1084-1097.

[16] Singh, O. K. (2016). Performance enhancement of combined cycle power plant using inlet air cooling by exhaust heat operated ammonia-water absorption refrigeration system. Applied energy, 180, 867-879.

[17] Sarr, J. A. R., & Mathieu-Potvin, F. (2016). Increasing thermal efficiency of Rankine cycles by using refrigeration cycles: a theoretical analysis. Energy Conversion and Management, 121, 358-379.

[18] Karimi, M. N., Dutta, A., Kaushik, A., Bansal, H., & Haque, S. Z. (2015). A Review of Organic Rankine, Kalina and Goswami Cycle ". International Journal of Engineering Technology, Management and Applied Sciences.

[19] Sun, H., Qin, J., Hung, T. C., Huang, H., Yan, P., & Lin, C. H. (2019). Effect of flow losses in heat exchangers on the performance of organic Rankine cycle. Energy, 172, 391-400. Page 26 of 29 [20] Zhang, Z., Guo, Z., Chen, Y., Wu, J., & Hua, J. (2015). Power generation and heating performances of integrated system of ammonia–water Kalina–Rankine cycle. Energy conversion and management, 92, 517-522.

[21] Murugan, R. S., & Subbarao, P. M. V. (2008). Thermodynamic analysis of Rankine-Kalina combined cycle. International Journal of Thermodynamics, 11(3), 133-141.

[22] Ayou, D. S., Bruno, J. C., Saravanan, R., & Coronas, A. (2013). An overview of combined absorption power and cooling cycles. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews, 21, 728-748.

[23] Martín, M. (2015). Optimal annual operation of the dry cooling system of a concentrated solar energy plant in the south of Spain. Energy, 84, 774-782.

[24] Mohammadi, K., & McGowan, J. G. (2018). Thermodynamic analysis of hybrid cycles based on a regenerative steam Rankine cycle for cogeneration and trigeneration. ]Energy conversion and management, 158, 460-475.

[25] Karthick, K., Suresh, S., Hussain, M. M. M., Ali, H. M., & Kumar, C. S. (2019). Evaluation of solar thermal system configurations for thermoelectric generator applications: A critical review. Solar Energy, 188, 111-142.

[26] Rubio Serrano, F.J., Soto Pérez, F., Gutiérrez Trashorras, A.J., Ausin Abad, G. (2018). Comparison between existing Rankine Cycle refrigeration systems and Hygroscopic Cycle Technology. International Research Conference on Sustainable Energy, Engineering, Materials and Environment 2018, 25-27. Mieres, Asturias, Spain.

[27] Macknick, J., Newmark, R., Heath, G., & Hallett, K. C. (2011). Review of Operational Water Consumption and Withdrawal Factors for Electricity Generating Technologies (No. NREL/TP-6A20-50900). National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL), Golden, CO.

[28] Hygroscopic cycle. www.hygroscopiccycle.com. [Accessed on August 2019].

[29] Rubio Serrano, F.J. (2013). An evolution in profitability and efficiency. Power Engineering International 21
(9). <u>https://www.powerengineeringint.com/articles/print/volume-21/issue-9.html</u> [Accessed on August 2019].

[30] Rubio-Serrano, F. J., Gutiérrez-Trashorras, A. J., Soto-Pérez, F., Álvarez-Álvarez, E., & Blanco-Marigorta,
E. (2018). Advantages of incorporating Hygroscopic Cycle Technology to a 12.5-MW biomass power plant.
Applied Thermal Engineering, 131, 320-327.

[31] F.J. Rubio Serrano (2010). Rankine Cycle with Absorption Step Using Hygroscopic Compounds, Publication No. WO2010133726 A1. Switzerland, World Intellectual Property Organization.

[32] Imasa Ingeniería y Proyectos S.A. www.imasa.com. [Accessed on August 2019].

[33] Hooman, K. (2010). Dry cooling towers as condensers for geothermal power plants. International Communications in Heat and Mass Transfer, 37(9), 1215-1220.

[34] Alhazmy, M. M., & Najjar, Y. S. H. (2004). Augmentation of gas turbine performance using air coolers. Applied Thermal Engineering, 24(2), 415-429.

[35] Ayoub, A., Gjorgiev, B., & Sansavini, G. (2018). Cooling towers performance in a changing climate: Technoeconomic modeling and design optimization. Energy, 160, 1133-1143.

[36] Olmo Duarte, V. D. (2013). Diseño y simulación de torres de refrigeración húmedas.

[37] Wood, A. J., & Wollenberg, B. F. (2012). Power generation, operation, and control. John Wiley & Sons.

[38] Petchers, N. (2003). Combined heating, cooling & power handbook: Technologies & applications: An integrated approach to energy resource optimization. The Fairmont Press, Inc.

[39] Kehlhofer, R., Hannemann, F., Rukes, B., & Stirnimann, F. (2009). Combined-cycle gas & steam turbine power plants. Pennwell Books.

[40] Herold, K. E., Radermacher, R., & Klein, S. A. (2016). Absorption chillers and heat pumps. CRC press.

[41] Boryta, D. A. (1970). Solubility of lithium bromide in water between-50. deg. and+ 100. deg. (45 to 70% lithium bromide). Journal of Chemical and Engineering Data, 15(1), 142-144.

[42] Acosta Rivadeneira, G. O., & Gualotuña Villavicencio, A. M. (2014). Diseño e implementación de un sistema scada, supervisado por el software Intouch y controlado por un plc simatic S7, vía interfaz ethernet. para la Unidad Educativa" Gonzalo Cordero Crespo"(Quito).

[43] Pramod, T. C., Boroojeni, K. G., Amini, M. H., Sunitha, N. R., & Iyengar, S. S. (2019). Key pre-distribution scheme with join leave support for SCADA systems. International Journal of Critical Infrastructure Protection, 24, 111-125.

[44] Rubio Serrano, F.J. (2013). The Hygroscopic cycle for CSP. Renewable Energy Focus, 14 (3), 8.

[45] Pensini, E., van Lier, R., Cuoq, F., Hater, W., & Halthur, T. (2018). Enhanced corrosion resistance of metal surfaces by film forming amines: A comparative study between cyclohexanamine and 2-(diethylamino) ethanolbased formulations. Water resources and industry, 20, 93-106.

[46] Asfand, F., & Bourouis, M. (2016). Estimation of differential heat of dilution for aqueous lithium (bromide, iodide, nitrate, chloride) solution and aqueous (lithium, potassium, sodium) nitrate solution used in absorption cooling systems. International Journal of Refrigeration, 71, 18-25.

[47] Donate, M., Rodriguez, L., De Lucas, A., & Rodríguez, J. F. (2006). Thermodynamic evaluation of new absorbent mixtures of lithium bromide and organic salts for absorption refrigeration machines. International journal of refrigeration, 29(1), 30-35.

[48] Wang, K., Abdelaziz, O., Kisari, P., & Vineyard, E. A. (2011). State-of-the-art review on crystallization control technologies for water/LiBr absorption heat pumps. International Journal of Refrigeration, 34(6), 1325-1337.

[49] Somers, C., Mortazavi, A., Hwang, Y., Radermacher, R., Rodgers, P., & Al-Hashimi, S. (2011). Modeling water/lithium bromide absorption chillers in ASPEN Plus. Applied Energy, 88(11), 4197-4205.

[50] Navantia. www.navantia.es. [Accessed on August 2019].

[51] Pauluis, O. (2011). Water vapor and mechanical work: A comparison of Carnot and steam cycles. Journal of the Atmospheric Sciences, 68(1), 91-102.

[52] Briesch, M. S., & McLaurin, K. B. (2012). U.S. Patent No. 8,286,431. Washington, DC: U.S. Patent and Trademark Office.