

Organic Flash Cycles: Off-design behavior and control strategies of two different cycle architectures for Waste Heat Recovery applications.

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Abstract

1 Off-design characterization of energy systems has become interesting, especially for waste heat recovery
2 application, where the heat source temperature and mass flow rate can vary over time. Low-grade heat is
3 generally converted into power through ORC modules: the problem of the constant temperature evaporation
4 lead to the definition of alternative architectures, among which organic flash cycles.

5 In this work, the off-design behavior of two different architectures of single-stage Organic Flash Cycles
6 has been analyzed in steady-state condition, for small scale waste heat recovery (WHR) purposes. The main
7 difference between the two architecture is the regeneration: in the first architecture (Single-Stage Organic
8 Flash Cycle SS-OFC), the liquid of the flash evaporator, after lamination is mixed with the vapor from the
9 expander and then sent to the condenser; in the second architecture Single-Stage Organic Flash Regenera-
10 tive Cycle, SS-OFRC, the liquid from the flash evaporator is mixed with the liquid from the condenser, to
11 regenerate the cycle. The most appropriate fluid for the two cycles was selected from a list of sixteen fluids
12 with the objective of minimizing volume flow rates and maximizing the system efficiency and i-Pentane was
13 chosen. For the off-design behavior, a rotary volumetric expander derived from a Wankel engine was con-
14 sidered, taking into account the performance variation of the device at various rotating speed and pressure
15 ratios. Three different control strategies were considered and compared in off-design analysis for both the
16 cycle architectures: sliding-pressure, in which the expander speed was constant and flash pressure varied with
17 the load; sliding-velocity, in which the load was controlled by the speed variation of the expander and flash
18 pressure was retained constant; combined strategy in which the expander speed was varied to drive the flash
19 pressure according to a function which maximized the system efficiency. Results showed that the efficiency of
20 the two cycles was similar in all the operating field whatever was the control strategy considered: SS-OFRC
21 demonstrated a better behavior at low temperatures of the heat source (<170 °C), while SS-OFC had a
22 better efficiency at higher temperature. The maximum absolute efficiency difference in off-design conditions
23 between the two cycles was lower than 0.3%. SS-OFRC however had a wider field of operation than SS-OFC,
24 due to the better flexibility of this type of cycle. As for the control strategy, with both the architectures,

combined strategy maximized the system efficiency and flexibility for every temperature and mass flow rate of the heat source considered.

27

Keywords: Organic Flash Cycle; Waste Heat Recovery; Off-design; Control Strategies; Organic Rankine Cycle; ASPEN HYSYS

1 Introduction

ORCs play a major role in the exploitation of low-temperature heat source, due to the favorable properties of organic fluids, resulting in compact and simple components, reducing system size [1,2] and proved to be one of the most reliable and efficient solutions for low and medium temperature waste heat recovery systems [3]. However, the presence of the constant temperature evaporation in the heat transfer process causes a bad match of the heat transfer curves, which implies exergy destruction. In the case of WHR system, the pinch point at evaporating temperature cause the discharge of the hot stream at a much higher temperature than the lowest temperature of the cycle [4]. To overcome these problems, several authors in the literature have proposed various solutions : Kalina cycles, ORC with zeotropic mixtures, supercritical ORCs, multiple level ORCs, organic trilateral cycles and organic flash cycles.

Kalina cycles have been introduced in the 1980s and work in an analogous way to Rankine cycles, but with a mixture of water and ammonia, to obtain a temperature glide during evaporation and condensation [5]. The main issue of this type of architecture is related to the complicated layout, which involves additional heat exchangers, absorber and desorber, providing however a small gain in efficiency respect to subcritical ORC [6] and operating at high pressure [7].

To obtain the same glide effect of the Kalina cycle, but with a more simple architecture, different zeotropic organic mixtures have been proposed: the use of these type of fluids has been widely studied in the literature, serving various heat source [8–10]. Due to the better match of the exchange curves, the efficiency reached by this type of cycles are higher than those of the simple ORC, however there are still some issues in their practical realization, due to uncertainty in the fluid properties, unknown heat coefficient values, cost effectiveness and above all composition and fractioning of the two fluids [11].

Supercritical ORCs represent another possibility in improving the performance of the system, reducing the entropy production during the heat exchange [12]. Moreover, the high temperature of the cycle allows to achieve a better cycle efficiency than that of subcritical ORC, if a recuperator is employed [13] and to operate with a smaller turbine [14]. The high pressure achieved in the cycle [15] and the lack of a specific design for transcritical turbines however limit the spread of this technology.

Multiple pressure level ORCs, are another solution to improve the heat transfer, by splitting the eva-

57 poration on more than one pressure level. Performance of multiple level ORC are similar to that of other
58 advanced solutions (supercritical ORC and ORC with zeotropic fluids), but with a much larger complexity
59 which limits their use just to large scale applications [16].

60 Trilateral organic cycles were introduced by Smith et al. in 1993 [17,18] with the purpose of developing
61 a thermodynamic cycle which was as close as possible to the Lorentz cycle, which is the cycle with the best
62 recovery efficiency for sensible heat sources and isothermal condensing conditions. The lack of an efficient
63 two phase expander represents a great limit for this type of technology and a practical application has never
64 been developed.

65 Organic Flash Cycle, are a modification of Trilateral Organic Cycle, where the saturated liquid at the
66 end of the heat exchanger is flashed and the vapor from the flash evaporator is expanded in a conventional
67 expander. This type of cycle is widely used in geothermal application where the heat source is composed
68 of superheated water at very high pressure. Ho et al. in [19] hypothesized the use of the flash cycle with
69 organic fluids for high temperature (300° C) waste heat recovery applications: they tested several fluids and
70 concluded that the system second law efficiency was slightly lesser than that obtained with ORC, due to
71 exergy destruction during the lamination process. However, they concluded that with some improvements
72 both in the cycle layout and in the replacement of the throttling valve with a two-phase expander a better
73 efficiency can be reached. This conclusion was validated by the results obtained in further works [20,21]
74 where they demonstrated the superiority of two-stage flash cycles and of single-stage flash cycle with two
75 phase expander respect to ORC. The major issue with this type of cycle is represented by the large exchanging
76 surface required: in fact, in flash cycles, both in single and double-stages, the working fluid is heated from
77 the condensing temperature up to the maximum cycle temperature and exchange curves are parallel. To
78 reduce the heat exchanger area and reduce the costs, a different cycle architecture, with regeneration was
79 designed and proposed in a previous paper [22]. The results indicated that the regenerated cycle has the same
80 thermodynamic performance of the organic flash cycle, but achieved a largely lower specific cost, similar to
81 subcritical ORCs.

82 The results obtained in the previous paper encourages further studies on this technology where an off-
83 design analysis is still lacking.

84 Off-design characterization is important to understand the evolution of many thermodynamic variables as
85 well as of the system production. The off-design behavior of subcritical ORCs has been widely investigated
86 in the literature, both in steady-state and transient conditions: Hu et al. in [23] analyzed the off-design
87 behavior of a small scale ORC for geothermal purposes with radial turbine equipped with Variable Inlet
88 Guided Vanes (VIGV) to evaluate different control strategy and to define the optimal angle of incidence of
89 the VIGV. The analysis was carried in steady-state. Other authors [24–28] analyzed the off-design of various
90 ORC systems in transient condition to define the dynamic behavior and evaluate different control strategies

91 and variables to drive the system.

92 This paper aims to fill the gap in the knowledge of the organic flash cycles, by analyzing and comparing the
93 off-design behavior of two different architectures of single stage organic flash cycle: Single-stage Organic Flash
94 Regenerative Cycle (SS-OFRC) and Single-stage Organic Flash Cycle (SS-OFC). OFRCs were introduced and
95 compared in design condition with OFCs from the thermodynamic and economic point of view in a previous
96 paper [22], showing the same thermodynamic performances of OFCs, but a much lower cost. However a off-
97 design analysis of this technology has been still lacking and are the address of this paper. Despite the single
98 flash configuration does not allow to achieve high thermodynamic performance, differently from double flash
99 configuration, the off-design characterization is important to define the control strategies and understand the
100 effect of the regeneration on the system behavior. The results obtained can be considered as a basis in the
101 study of flash cycle configurations and a further analysis on the double stage architecture will be presented in
102 a further paper. Firstly, the most suitable working fluid has been chosen in design condition among a series
103 of organic fluids, and all the main components of the WHR system have been designed. For the off-design
104 analysis, three different control strategies have been analyzed. To the authors knowledge this is the first time
105 that the off-design behavior of Organic Flash Cycles and their variations are analyzed in off-design conditions
106 with different control strategies.

107 **2 Methodology**

108 **2.1 Organic Flash Cycles and Organic Flash Regenerative Cycles**

109 In the Single Stage Organic Flash Cycle (SS-OFC) for WHR applications [19] (fig. 1 A), the working fluid is
110 pumped by a pump and warmed up to the saturation temperature in the main heat exchanger; after the heat
111 exchanger the fluid is laminated through a throttling valve and vapor and liquid phase are separated in the
112 flash evaporator. The vapor is sent to the expansion device, while the liquid is laminated through a second
113 throttling valve and mixed with the vapor from the turbine. The mixture is therefore sent to the condenser
114 and the cycle re-begins. As from the T-s diagram (fig. 1 B), due to the single phase heating, the exchange
115 curves are very close each other, reducing exergy destruction and limiting the exergy loss due to the low
116 temperature of the hot stream discharged. However, the large amount of heat transferred to the cycle and
117 the small medium temperature difference between the exchanging curves, requires large exchange area, thus
118 increasing the cost of the heat exchanger. Moreover, the irreversibility caused by the two throttling valves,
119 reduces the cycle efficiency, increasing the heat rejected to the condenser and requiring large condensing
120 surface. For these reasons an improvement of the cycle architecture is necessary.

121 The enthalpy of the liquid inside the flash evaporator can be exploited to increase the exchanger inlet
122 temperature and to reduce the amount of heat exchanged. In the Single Stage Organic Flash Regenerative

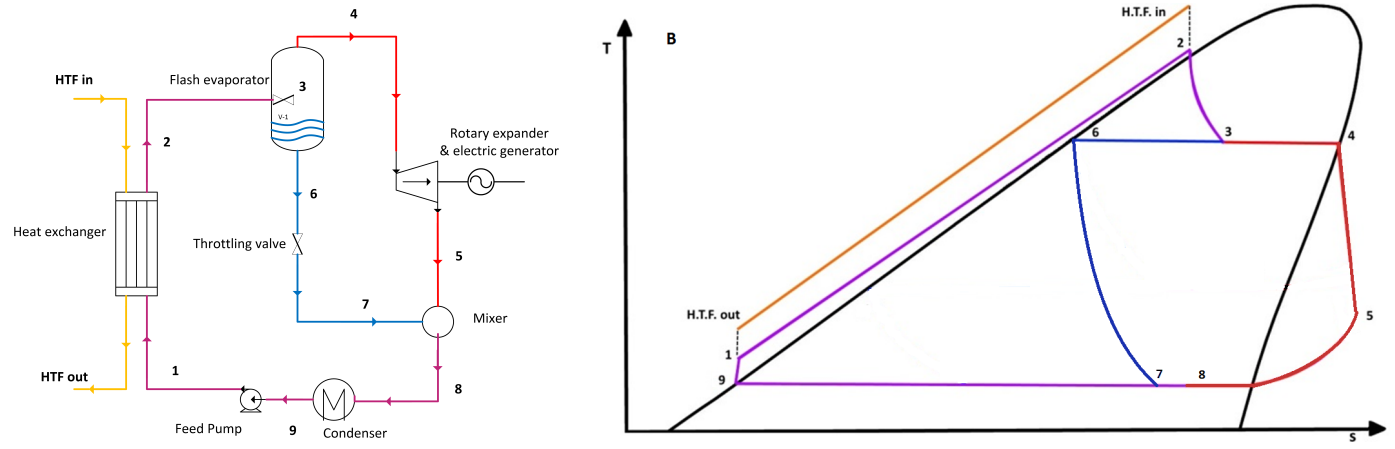


Figure 1: OFC scheme (A) and OFC T-s diagram (B).

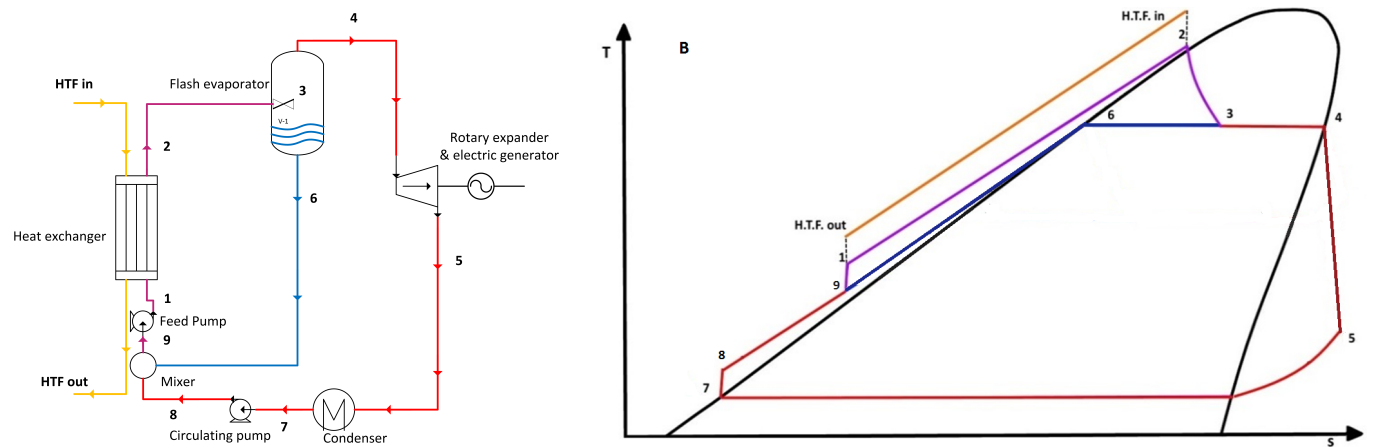


Figure 2: OFRC scheme (A) and OFRC T-s diagram (B).

123 Cycle (SS-OFRC), the working fluid passes through the heat exchanger where is warmed up to the saturation
 124 temperature; after the exchanger, the fluid is laminated by the throttling valve and vapor and liquid phase
 125 are separated. The vapor is expanded and then condensed. In this configuration, the liquid from the flash
 126 evaporator is mixed with the liquid pumped from the condenser outlet and then after the pump is again
 127 sent to the exchanger to restart the cycle (fig. 2). The regeneration, besides limiting the amount of heat
 128 exchanged, increases the cycle efficiency, contributing to limit the heat rejected to the condenser and reducing
 129 the size of this device. The limited heat rejected to the condenser resulted in a lower exchange area for the
 130 condenser of the SS-OFRC than that of SS-OFC: considering also the reduction of the surface of the main
 131 heat exchanger, SS-OFRC required a lower global exchange area than SS-OFC, which can reduce the cost
 132 of the system.

133 In this paper, the heat source at the design point was composed of a stream of 540 kg/h of superheated
 134 water at the temperature of 180°C, resulting in an available heat of about 100 kW.

135 2.2 Fluid selection

136 As for ORCs, the selection of the proper working fluid for SS-OFC and SS-OFRC has a strong influence
 137 on the operating conditions of the cycle. Many criteria can lead to the choice of the best fluid, such as
 138 thermodynamic performance, heat exchanger area, maximum pressure of the plant, type of expander, feed
 139 pump power consumption, environmental impact and cost.

140 In this work, a small scale WHR was considered with a volumetric rotary expander derived from a
 141 Wankel engine, whose prototype has been built and experimented at the University of Pisa. For this reason
 142 the priority was given first of all to the value of the volume flow rate through the expander and the condenser.
 143 Overall efficiency and environmental impact (zero ozone depleting potential fluids) were also considered in
 144 this work. Global efficiency was evaluated as:

$$\eta = \frac{\dot{Q}_{exch}}{\dot{Q}_{av}} \cdot \frac{\dot{W}_{NET}}{\dot{Q}_{exch}} = \varepsilon \cdot \eta_{cyc} = \frac{\dot{W}_{NET}}{\dot{Q}_{av}}$$

145

146 Where \dot{Q}_{exch} is the exchanged heat, \dot{Q}_{av} is the available heat, defined as the maximum heat which can be
 147 exchanged, leading the heat source to the ambient conditions (i.e. $\dot{Q}_{av} = \dot{m}(h_{in} - h_0)$), \dot{W}_{NET} is the net
 148 power output, ε is the recovery efficiency, η_{cyc} is the cycle efficiency and h_0 is the enthalpy of the HTF at
 149 ambient conditions (20° C and 1.01 bar).

150 Overall efficiency obtained with SS-OFC at the design point ($T_{HTF}=180^\circ\text{C}$ and $m_{HTF}=520$ kg/h) for
 151 various fluids are summarized in the graph of fig. 3 and in table 1, considering a constant isentropic efficiency
 152 of 0.7 for the expander. The trend obtained in the case of SS-OFRC is similar and not reported for the

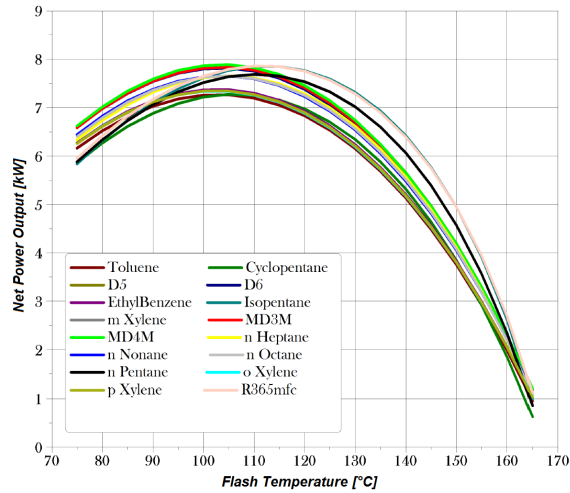


Figure 3: Efficiency of SS-OFC for various flash temperature at $T_{HTF}=180^{\circ}C$.

153 sake of brevity. The overall efficiency is maximized by a unique flash temperature for each fluid. I-Pentane
 154 provided the best efficiency value among the tested fluids, a low flow rate across the expander and the highest
 155 value of the figure of merit $\Delta h/v_g$. This last figure of merit was firstly introduced in [29] and used in the
 156 economic analysis carried on double-stage flash cycles, published in a previous paper [22], since it provides
 157 preliminary information about the condenser size. In fact, being the ratio between the condensing heat and
 158 the volume flow rate, it represents the amount of heat exchanged for unit hardware cost: in other words, the
 159 higher is the value of the figure of merit, the larger is the heat exchanged for a given volume and smaller
 160 is the condenser. As an example, for syloxanes (D5, D6, MD3M and MD4M), which are characterized by a
 161 relatively low specific condensing heat and have a very large specific volume at condensing pressure, present
 162 a low value of the figure of merit and will require a large condenser. Conversely, N-Pentane and I-Pentane
 163 have a high vapor density which reduces the value of the figure of merit and therefore the size requested for
 164 the condenser. Due to the favorable characteristics of i-Pentane, which led to high efficiency and aimed to
 165 reduce the size of both expander and condenser, this fluid was selected as working fluid for the off design
 166 analysis of the SS-OFC and SS-OFRC.

167 It is worth to notice that differently from [19], where the heat source was a constant stream at $300^{\circ}C$, single
 168 stage organic flash cycle can be competitive respect to ORC in some particular heat source conditions (fig. 4,
 169 obtained with i-Pentane as working fluid and with a constant isentropic efficiency of 0.7 for the expander). In
 170 fact, when the heat source temperature is near the critical point, the quantity of vapor separated by the flash
 171 evaporator increases (the two phase region is narrow) and the flash cycle can provide a higher output power
 172 than the ORC. From the analysis of the figure, it is evident that the regenerative solution always provide the
 173 lowest overall efficiency, if compared with the non regenerated cycle. This result however was obtained with
 174 a fixed isentropic efficiency. For lower values of isentropic efficiency the regenerative cycle can reach a better
 175 thermodynamic performance than SS-OFRC.

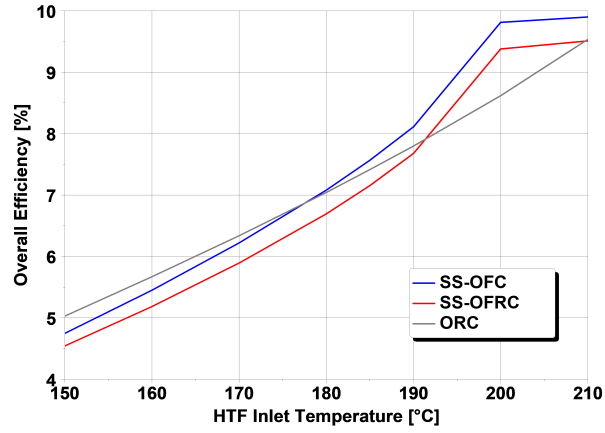


Figure 4: Overall efficiency comparison for SS-OFC, SS-OFRC and ORC with a fixed turbine isentropic efficiency and *i*-Pentane as working fluid.

	Critical Temperature [°C]	$\frac{\Delta h}{v_g}$ [kJ/m ³]	Volume flow rate [m ³ /h]	Overall Efficiency
<i>Toluene</i>	319	73.67	91.3	7.20
<i>Ethylbenzene</i>	344	28.24	173.1	7.30
<i>o-Xylene</i>	357	20.50	214.1	7.26
<i>m-Xylene</i>	344	25.02	186.9	7.27
<i>p-Xylene</i>	343	26.13	186.9	7.27
<i>MD4M</i>	380	0.05	183.1	7.83
<i>MD3M</i>	355	0.28	8232.6	7.78
<i>D5</i>	346	0.85	2762.3	7.81
<i>D6</i>	373	0.15	1480.4	7.75
<i>n-Nonane</i>	321	14.49	4382.5	7.59
<i>n-Octane</i>	296	40.29	253.1	7.60
<i>n-Heptane</i>	267	112.88	121.4	7.62
<i>Cyclopentane</i>	239	588.76	67.6	7.26
<i>n-Pentane</i>	197	884.33	15.7	7.69
<i>i-Pentane</i>	187	1119.45	23.5	7.85
<i>R365mfc</i>	187	813.17	17.8	7.86

Table 1: System efficiency, expander volume flow rate and figure of merit value for various fluids.

		OFC	OFRC
<i>Geometry type</i>		BFM	BFM
<i>Tube numbers</i>		100*	168
<i>Tube Outer Diameter</i>	[mm]	12.7	12.7
<i>Tube Length</i>	[m]	7.90	6.09
<i>Shell Diameter</i>	[mm]	219	273
<i>Effective Exchange Area</i>	[m ²]	77.7	41.3
<i>UA in Design Conditions</i>	[kW/K]	13.95	9.37
<i>Pressure Drop in design conditions (working fluid)</i>	[kPa]	7.9	3.8
<i>Pressure Drop in design conditions (HTF)</i>	[kPa]	1.9	0.9
<i>Exchanger Cost</i>	\$	23100	19500

*Lowfin Tubes

Table 2: *Exchanger geometry for the OFC and OFRC.*

		OFC	OFRC
<i>Geometry type</i>		BEM	BFM
<i>Tube numbers</i>		183	247
<i>Tube Outer Diameter</i>	[mm]	12.7	12.7
<i>Tube Length</i>	[m]	2.55	1.80
<i>Shell Diameter</i>	[mm]	273	323
<i>Effective Exchange Area</i>	[m ²]	18.6	17.5
<i>UA in Design Conditions</i>	[kW/K]	16.0	7.8
<i>Pressure Drop in design conditions (working fluid)</i>	[kPa]	1.79	0.69
<i>Pressure Drop in design conditions (HTF)</i>	[kPa]	0.19	0.325
<i>Exchanger Cost</i>	\$	13900	13000

Table 3: *Condenser geometry for the OFC and OFRC*

2.3 System Design

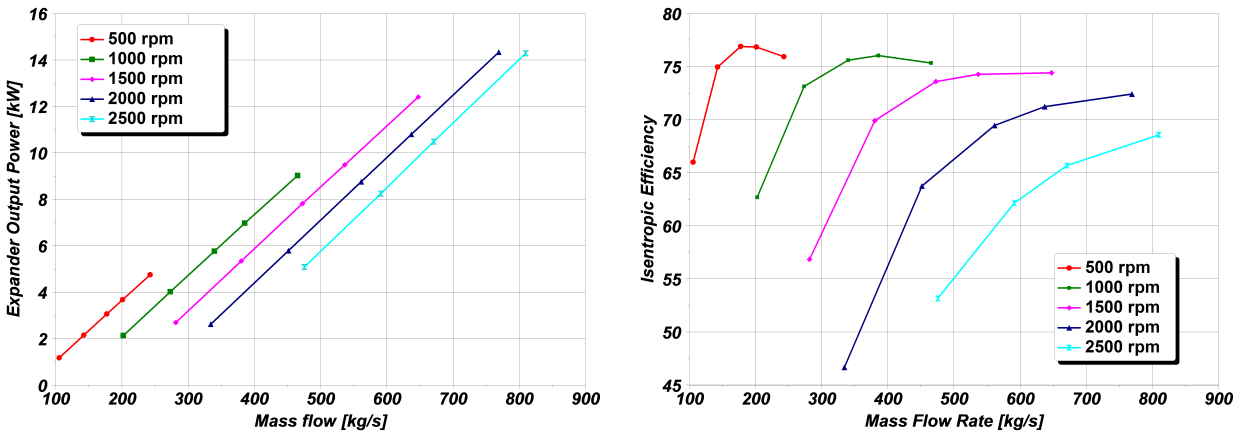
2.3.1 Heat exchangers

The main heat exchanger and condenser were designed with a pinch point of 10°C and an approach point of 12°C, in ASPEN EDR (Exchanger Design and Rating). The actual geometry was evaluated by minimizing the exchanger cost. The obtained geometry was then transferred to ASPEN HYSYS which for each variation of the mass flow rate and temperature of the two streams evaluated the value of the product $U \cdot A$ and therefore the exchanged heat. The detailed geometry of both the exchanger and condenser is reported in tables 2 and 3 for both the SS-OFC and the SS-OFRC. As for the condenser, cooling water at 15°C was considered with a thermal gradient of 15°C across the condenser.

From the design process, the exchanger and the condenser of the SS-OFC were much larger than those of the SS-OFRC. The larger exchanged area results in higher equipment cost for the SS-OFC respect to the SS-OFRC (tab. 2 and 3).

2.3.2 Expander

Concerning the expander, a rotary volumetric expander derived from Wankel engine was supposed to be used. A prototype of this expander was developed at the University of Pisa and in previous papers a numerical

Figure 5: *Expander Maps*

191 model was modeled and calibrated with experimental data, carried out using both steam and air. [30,31].
 192 Flux and effectiveness of the expander are two important variables which affects the global behavior of the
 193 system and therefore cannot be considered constant in the off-design analysis. To this purpose, the numerical
 194 model of the expander was used to extrapolate the operating curves of the expander for different pressure
 195 ratio and rotating speed (fig. 5). From the simulation the optimal results in terms of isentropic efficiency
 196 were reached with a cut-off of 0.15. In a volumetric expander, the cut-off is the ratio between the equivalent
 197 volume swept with the intake valve opened and the equivalent displacement of the device: this parameter has
 198 a direct influence on the expansion ratio and therefore on the value of the pressure in the expander chamber
 199 at the exhaust valve opening. The optimal equivalent displacement of the rotary expander for both the two
 200 cycle was 800 cm^3 , to limit the rotating speed in the range 500-2500 rpm, typical of this expander.

201 2.3.3 Pumps

202 Centrifugal pumps were considered for both the cycles. Similarly to the expander, the variation of effecti-
 203 veness and of the flow of the device should be considered when analyzing the off-design. The pumps were
 204 designed by defining the nominal conditions in ASPEN HYSYS and generating the off-design curves. HYSYS
 205 automatically generates a set of curves based on different speeds and pump loads as reported in [32].

206 2.4 Control strategies

207 When operating in off-design conditions, the choice of a proper control strategy is a key factor. In this paper
 208 the Waste Heat Recovery system is analyzed supposing the FWH (Following the Waste Heat) operation,
 209 i.e. the thermal power transferred to the power unit is not controlled ,conversely to the FEL (Following
 210 the Electric Load), where the thermal power transferred to the cycle is regulated by a by-pass valve on the
 211 heat exchanger to follow the electric load. In the case of FWH systems, the single stage organic flash cycles,
 212 similarly to subcritical ORCs, can operate according three different control strategies:

- in a first strategy, the output power varies due to flash pressure variation, and the expander rotates at constant speed: analogously to the ORCs, this control strategy is defined sliding-pressure and is the simplest control strategy that can be achieved, since the expander speed is constant;
- in a second control strategy, the output power is controlled by the expander speed variation, which varies to keep the flash pressure to a constant set-point value: similarly to the ORCs, this control strategy is defined sliding-velocity;
- in the third control strategy, both the pressure and the expander speed are varied: the flash pressure is regulated by the expander speed according to a proper function to optimize a system variable (such as maximization of the system efficiency, as in the case of this paper, or minimization of the cost of energy etc.): this control strategy is a combination of both sliding-pressure and sliding-velocity.

The upper temperature of both the two cycles, with any control strategy, is regulated by the working fluid mass flow rate through the heat exchanger, and therefore by the pump speed. The maximum pressure of the cycles instead is controlled by the throttling valve in the first flash evaporator. The condensing pressure and the subcooling instead, once established the working fluid mass flow rate were controlled by the mass flow rate of the coolant. Since the two cycles were simulated in steady-state conditions, the values of these variables were evaluated, for each simulation and with any control strategy, by an optimization algorithm, in order to evaluate the maximum cycle temperature, pressure and cooling water mass flow rate which maximized the output power of the two cycles, with the constraint of keeping the stream in single phase. Regarding the condensing pressure, due to the limited variation expected (the inlet temperature of the cooling water was constant), a constant value of 1.09 bar was adopted, to reduce the optimizer calculation time.

2.5 Aspen HYSYS model

As stated in the previous lines, the model of the recovery system with the two types of working cycle, was developed in Aspen HYSYS. This software is a process simulator that can perform design and part-load analysis of various plants, and allows to optimize processes: several optimization algorithm are available within the code.

In the case of this paper, and for both the cycles, the system was optimized in design conditions, taking into account the behavior of the expander. Heat exchangers were then directly designed inside the simulation environment, by using the tool ASPEN Exchanger Design and Rating: commercial heat exchanger were chosen, applying the criterion of minimizing the exchange area. In a similar manner, both pumps and flash separators were designed and sized. Once that the geometry was defined, the software allowed to simulate the off-design conditions. The software discretizes the heat exchangers in various nodes and in each node evaluates the heat exchange coefficient and therefore the thermal exchange. According to the expander maps,

245 reported in fig. 5, and to the expander boundary conditions, the software manages establishing the rotating
246 speed of the expander. The software iterates the calculations on the various devices of the cycle to balance
247 both mass and energy conservation equations.

248 **3 Results and discussion**

249 As reported above, simulations were carried in steady-state conditions for both the cycles. The BOX opti-
250 mization algorithm was adopted to find the variables which maximized the net power output, which, with
251 the exception of the maximum cycle temperature and pressure, are different from control strategy to control
252 strategy.

253 **3.1 Sliding-Pressure**

254 For the sliding-pressure control strategy, a constant expander speed was used as a constraint for the opti-
255 mizer, while flash pressure was evaluated by the optimization algorithm, together with the maximum cycle
256 temperature and pressure. The mass flow of cooling water was also evaluated in the optimization process.

257 Keeping the HTF mass flow rate constant at the design point, the overall efficiency increased with the
258 HTF temperature (fig. 6): SS-OFRC had a better efficiency at low values of HTF temperature, while OFC
259 became slightly more efficient at higher temperatures (170-180°C). This behavior depends on the different
260 trend of the cycle efficiency and recovery efficiency of the two cycles at different heat source temperatures:
261 the recovery ratio of the SS-OFRC, in fact, decreased with HTF temperature, causing a reduction in the
262 increase of the cycle efficiency with the heat source temperature. At a first look, this result might seem to
263 be inconsistent with that showed in fig. 4, where the overall efficiency of the SS-OFC was always higher
264 than that of SS-OFRC. However, it is worth to notice that the results of fig. 4 were obtained keeping the
265 isentropic efficiency of the expander and the pinch and approach point constant. The real performance of
266 the two cycles in off-design conditions, is influenced by the behavior of both the heat exchangers and of the
267 expansion device.

268 For both the two cycles, the rotating speed of the expander which maximized the system efficiency was
269 comprised between 1000 and 1500 rpm. Higher velocity caused a decrease of the flash pressure (fig. 7) which
270 reduced the output power. It is worth to notice that, in the case of SS-OFRC and with a rotating speed
271 of the expander of 1000 rpm, the operating field of the system is extended up to the HTF temperature
272 of 210°C, with the design equipment. In this condition the approach point and the pinch point of the heat
273 exchanger largely increased to allow the heat transfer through the heat exchangers, thus reducing the increase
274 in overall efficiency with the HTF temperature (fig. 6, right). The high flash pressure, however granted a high
275 regeneration temperature, thus limiting the heat exchanged and keeping the cycle efficiency at a high value,

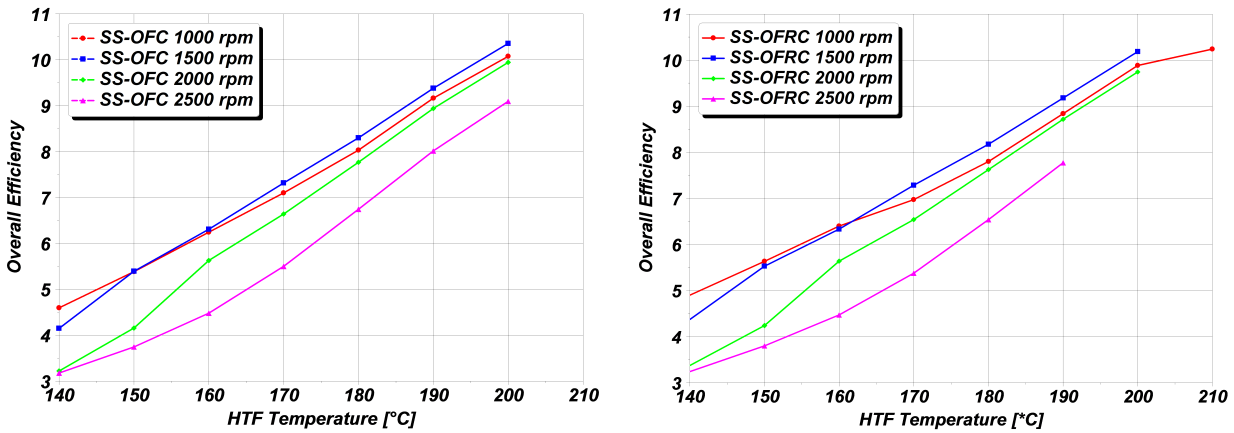


Figure 6: Overall Efficiency for SS-OFC (left) and SS-OFRC (right), for a variation of the HTF temperature: sliding-pressure.

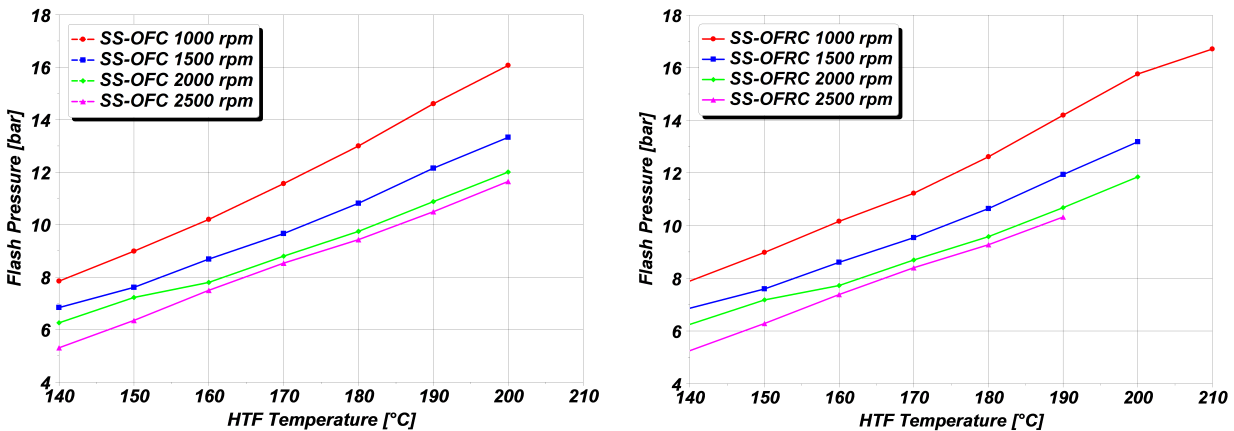


Figure 7: Flash pressure for SS-OFC (left) and SS-OFRC (right), for a variation of the HTF temperature: sliding-pressure.

276 allowing the complete condensation of the working fluid in the condenser. This working point has never been
 277 achieved with SS-OFC, due to the lack of regeneration: in fact, in this condition, pinch and approach point
 278 were higher than those of SS-OFRC, resulting in a lower value of the maximum cycle temperature; this fact,
 279 coupled with the absence of regeneration, reduced the efficiency of the cycle. In this condition, furthermore,
 280 the condenser resulted to be undersized and therefore unable to exchange the condensing heat. A further
 281 sizing of the heat exchanger and of condenser would have been necessary to make SS-OFC working at this
 282 temperature. A similar behavior was found for the SS-OFRC when operating at the fixed velocity of 2500
 283 rpm: in this case the maximum operative HTF temperature was found to be 190°C: in these conditions, in
 284 fact, the flash pressure was so low (fig. 7) to cause a reduction in the regeneration process and therefore in
 285 the cycle efficiency which led to the condenser failure. Also in this case a re-size of this device would solve
 286 the problem.

287 With respect to mass variations (fig. 8), the optimal speed which maximized the overall efficiency with

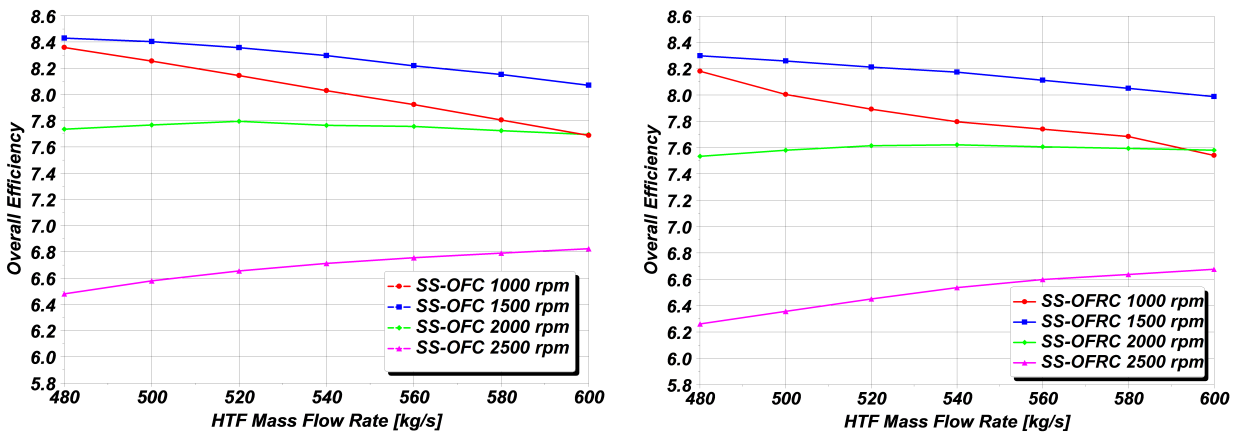


Figure 8: Overall Efficiency for SS-OFC (left) and SS-OFRC (right), for a variation of the HTF mass flow rate: sliding-pressure.

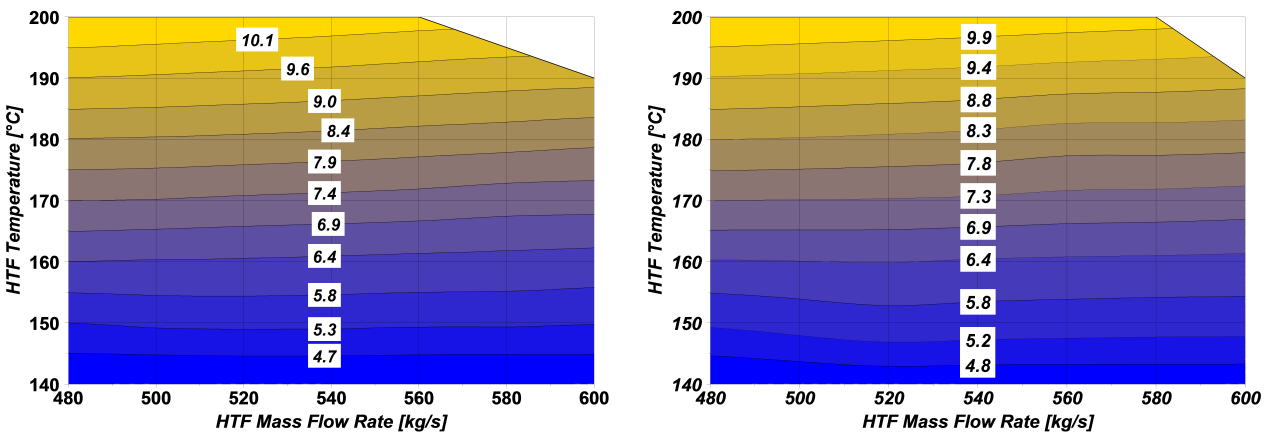


Figure 9: Maps of global efficiency for sliding-pressure control strategy: SS-OFC (left), SS-OFRC (right).

288 this type of control strategy was always in the range between 1000 and 1500 rpm, with the HTF temperature
 289 at the design value (180°C): this is the result of the trade-off between the work increase, due to the increase of
 290 the working fluid mass flow rate and to the reduction of the flash pressure, which reduces the cycle efficiency.
 291 At this temperature the efficiency of the SS-OFC was slightly higher than that of SS-OFRC. From the analysis
 292 of efficiency maps, reported for a rotating speed of 1500 rpm (fig. 9), the efficiency of the SS-OFC was often
 293 slightly higher than that of SS-OFRC with the sliding-pressure control strategy. This last however provided
 294 a wider field of operation due to the large number of degrees of freedom of the regenerative architecture.

295 3.2 Sliding-velocity

296 In the case of the sliding-velocity control strategy, the flash-pressure is kept constant by the vapor volume
 297 flow rate, through the variation of the expander speed. In ASPEN HYSYS, the flash pressure was imposed
 298 and the expander speed was evaluated by the code. The optimization algorithm evaluated the values of
 299 maximum temperature and pressure of the cycle and the mass flow rate of the cooling water at the condenser

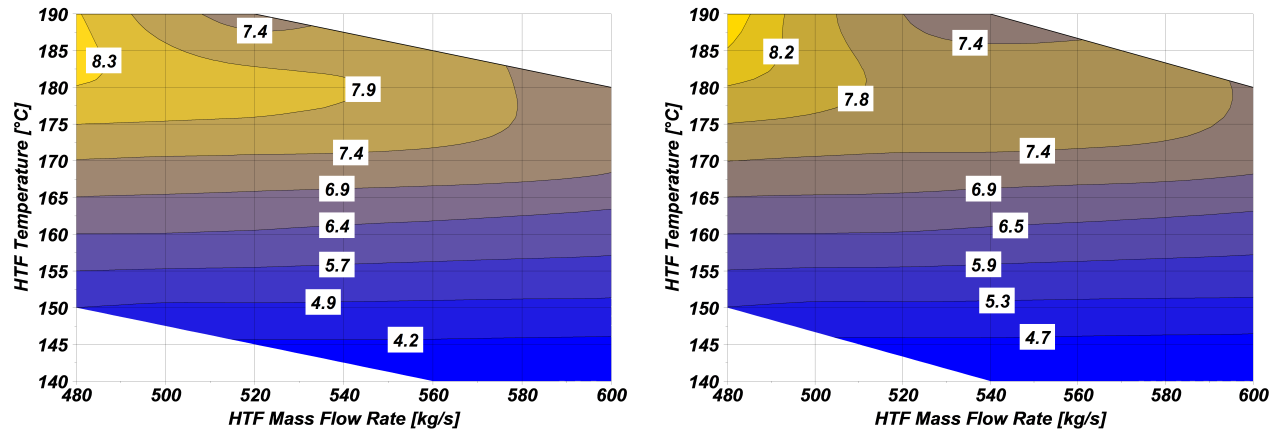


Figure 10: Maps of global efficiency for sliding-velocity control strategy: SS-OFC (left), SS-OFRC (right).

which maximizes the system efficiency. With this control strategy, the expander speed was limited in the range 500-2500 rpm. In fact below 500 rpm the delivered power was very low (fig. 5) while above 2500 rpm the isentropic efficiency of the expander sharply decreased. Within this range of expander speed, both the two systems presented a limited operation capacity. The widest operation field for both the two cycle architectures was between 8 and 10 bar. In fig. 10 the maps of operation for both the cycles with the sliding-velocity control strategy are reported for the flash pressure of 10 bar.

The trend of the overall efficiency is quite similar for both the two cycles: as for the sliding-pressure control strategy, the SS-OFRC presented higher efficiency at low temperatures of the heat source, while SS-OFC was more efficient at high temperature. From the comparison with sliding-pressure control strategy, the sliding-velocity control strategy provided lower values of overall efficiency for both the two cycles in all the operating field at the flash pressure of 10 bar which maximized the system efficiency. Due to the lower efficiency and to the smaller operating field obtained with this control strategy, it is possible to conclude that these type of cycles should not be controlled with this type of strategy.

3.3 Combined strategy

The combined strategy is a control strategy that combines both sliding-pressure and sliding-velocity control strategy, increasing the degrees of freedom of the control system. In this control strategy, the expander controls the flash pressure, as in the case of the sliding-velocity but, differently from this last, the flash pressure varies according to a suitable function. This function, as an example, can aim to maximize the global efficiency of the system or the economic profit or to minimize the levelized cost of energy. In this work, the maximization of the system efficiency has been considered. The optimal values of flash pressure, expander speed, maximum cycle pressure and temperature and cooling-water mass flow rate were evaluated by the optimization algorithm for each working point.

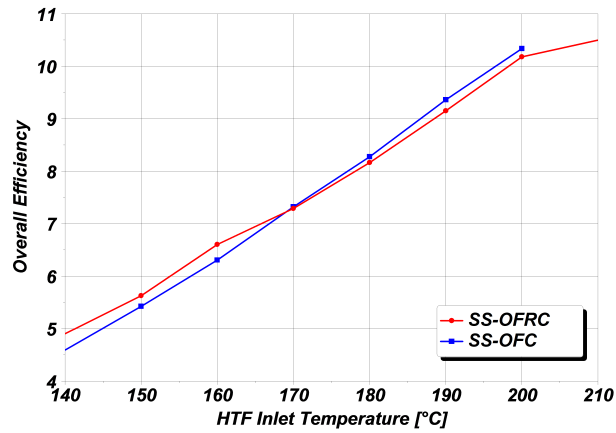


Figure 11: Overall efficiency for OFC and OFRC at design HTF mass flow rate.

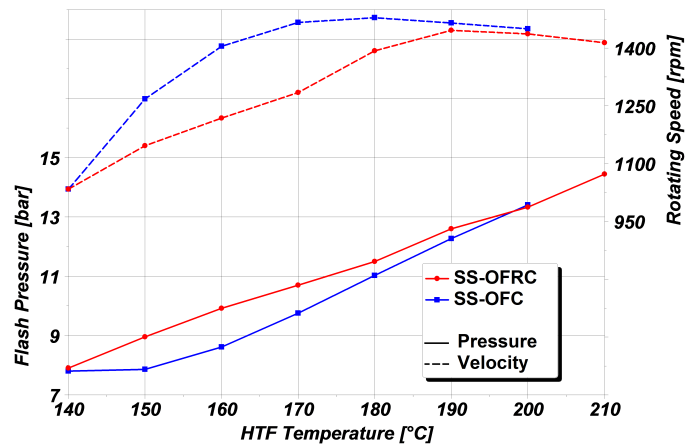


Figure 12: Flash pressure and expander rotating speed for SS-ORC and SS-OFRC with combined control strategy: HTF temperature variation.

322 Keeping the HTF mass flow at a constant value, the efficiency increased with the HTF temperature for
 323 both the two cycles (fig. 11), in a similar way to the other control strategies. The overall efficiency was
 324 higher, for each configuration than that obtained with the other two control strategies, due to the increase
 325 of the degrees of freedom, with the variation of both expander speed and flash pressure (fig. 12). The overall
 326 efficiency of both the two cycles (fig. 11) assumed almost the same value in all the operating range: SS-OFC
 327 provided higher performances at high HTF temperature, while SS-OFRC had better performances at low
 328 temperature. The maximum absolute difference between the two cycles, at the design mass flow rate was
 329 however lower than 0.3%.

330 As from fig. 11, the operative field of the SS-OFRC was wider than that of SS-OFC, being this type of
 331 cycle able to work to a maximum HTF temperature of 210°C: in fact, with the combined control strategy,
 332 the combination of rotating speed and flash pressure allowed not only to follow the load variation, but also
 333 to vary the temperature of the regeneration, thus increasing the temperature at the exchanger inlet (fig. 13
 334 left) and reducing the heat exchanged and therefore the thermal load on the heat exchanger. In this way

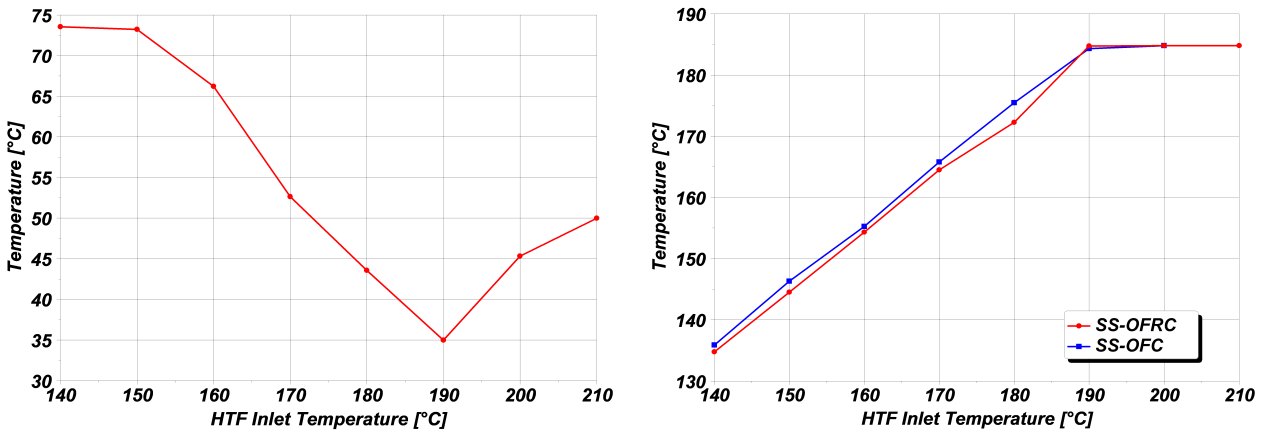


Figure 13: Temperature of the working fluid at the heat exchanger inlet for the SS-OFRC (right) and maximum cycle temperature for SS-OFRC and SS-OFC (left).

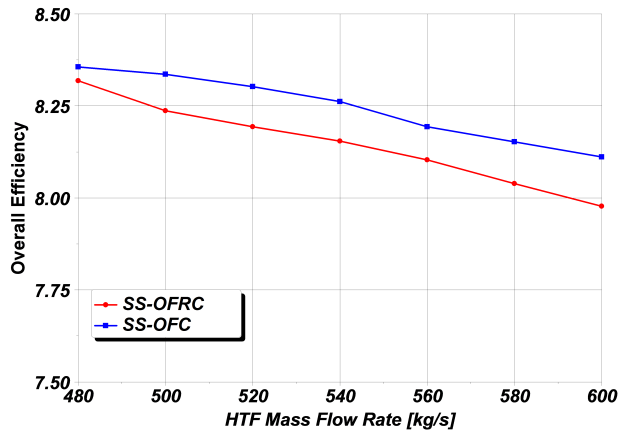


Figure 14: Overall efficiency for OFC and OFRC at design HTF mass flow rate.

335 the SS-OFRC had one more degree of freedom than SS-OFC, which allowed the operation to higher HTF
 336 temperature. The maximum temperature of the cycle, controlled by the mass flow rate (and therefore by the
 337 pump) growth with the HTF inlet temperature for both the two cycles, with the exception of the highest
 338 temperature, to avoid the operation at supercritical conditions.

339 The variation of the efficiency with the mass flow rate at the design point is reported in fig. 14 for both the
 340 cycles. The mass flow rate of the working fluid increased with the HTF mass flow rate, causing an increase
 341 of the expander speed and leading to a reduction of the isentropic efficiency of the expander, which assumed
 342 its maximum value for low values of the rotating speed (500-1000 rpm, fig. 5). Moreover, the increase of the
 343 mass flow rate cause an increase of the pressure drop through the heat exchangers. Hence, the decrease of the
 344 overall efficiency for both the two cycles with the increase in mass flow rate. The efficiency of the SS-OFC
 345 (fig. 14) was slightly higher than that of the SS-OFRC at this HTF temperature for all the HTF mass flow
 346 rate tested.

347 Regarding the operating range, SS-OFRC showed a wider operating map than SS-OFC (fig. 16), which

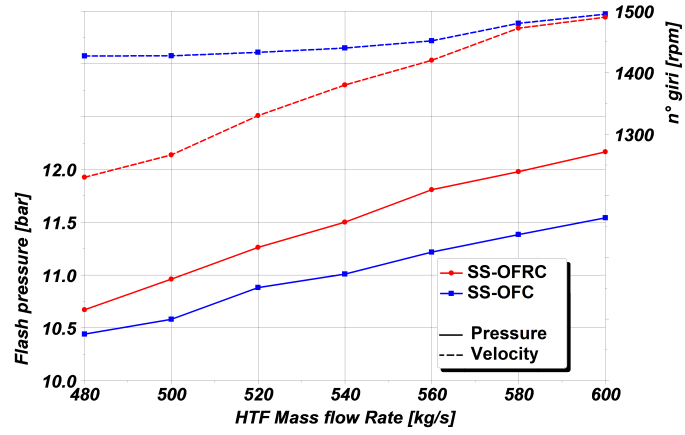


Figure 15: Flash pressure and expander rotating speed for SS-ORC and SS-OFRC with combined control strategy: HTF mass flow variation.

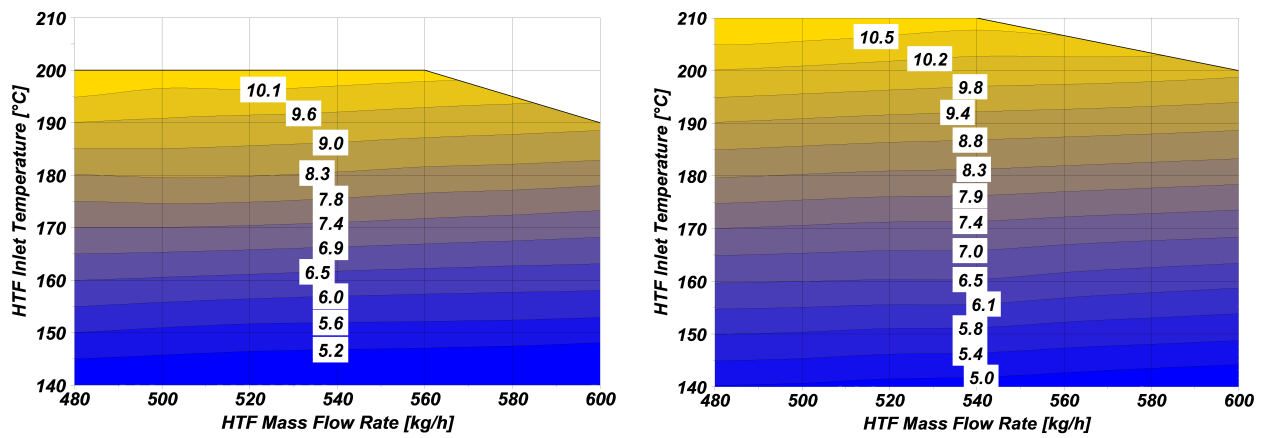


Figure 16: Working Maps for OFC (left) and OFRC (right) with combined control strategy.

348 allowed to run the cycle with a temperature of the HTF fluid up to 210°C. As stated before, in the case
349 of SS-OFRC, the possibility of varying the flash pressure, also allowed to control the regeneration with two
350 beneficial effects:

- 351 • increasing the heat exchanger inlet temperature, with a reduction of the heat transferred in the main
352 heat exchanger and allowing the heat exchange of the working fluid up to high temperature;
- 353 • keeping a high cycle efficiency, which allowed to limit the heat rejected to the condenser.

354 In the case of SS-OFC, instead the variation of the flash pressure had no influence on the main exchanger
355 inlet temperature, where the working fluid is always heated from the condensing temperature up to the
356 maximum cycle temperature. In this case, the only way to reduce the heat exchanged amount at high HTF
357 temperature was to increase the approach and pinch point. However, the reduction of the approach point led
358 to a reduction of the maximum cycle temperature and therefore to a reduction of the cycle efficiency with
359 an increase of the heat rejected by the condenser. For this reason SS-OFC were unable to operate with the
360 same high temperature of the SS-OFRC.

361 Among the three strategies proposed, the combined one provided the best results in terms of both efficiency
362 and flexibility, due to the larger number of degrees of freedom than the other control strategies. The sliding-
363 velocity control strategy, due to the limitations on the expander speed, provided low flexibility and small
364 efficiency, and resulted to be not suitable for those systems. The sliding-pressure is the simplest control
365 strategy, however the values of efficiency and system flexibility were a function of the choice of the expander
366 speed, and might cause a decrease of the system performance in all those case where the cycles work far from
367 the design point.

368 In general, SS-OFRC allowed better performances at low HTF temperature than SS-OFC and demon-
369 strated a wider flexibility, which makes their use really advantageous with variable heat sources: the better
370 behavior in off-design conditions, together with the lower costs of the heat exchangers (tab. 2 and 3) and
371 in general of the equipment [22], makes the SS-OFRC an interesting technology for low temperature WHR
372 applications.

373 Conclusion

374 In this paper the off-design behavior of two different type of organic flash cycle architectures for WHR
375 applications has been discussed and analyzed: the major difference between this type of architectures is the
376 presence of a regeneration of the working fluid at the inlet of the main heat exchanger, with the liquid of the
377 flash evaporator. I-Pentane has been selected as working fluid, due to the good efficiency provided and to the
378 low vapor flow rate which allowed to reduce the size of both the condenser and of the expansion device. The

Nomenclature		Subscripts	
\dot{Q}	Thermal Power, kW	<i>av</i>	Available
\dot{W}	Mechanical or Electrical Power, kW	<i>exch</i>	Exchanged
h	Specific Enthalpy, kJ/kg	<i>NET</i>	Net
\dot{m}	Mass flow rate, kg/s	<i>in</i>	Exchanger inlet
v_g	Specific volume, m^3/kg	0	Ambient conditions
Greeks			
ϵ	Recovery Efficiency		
η_c	Cycle Efficiency		
η	Overall Efficiency		

379 off-design evaluation of these cycles represents the basis for the analysis of the two-stage configurations which
380 allow to achieve high efficiency. For the off-design behavior evaluation, a fixed geometry was imposed to the
381 heat exchangers and the behavior of a rotary expander derived from a Wankel engine has been considered.
382 Three different control strategy were analyzed: sliding-pressure, sliding-velocity and a combined strategy.
383 The results highlighted that, whatever the control strategy adopted, SS-OFC achieved a higher efficiency
384 than SS-OFRC at high HTF temperature, but a lower efficiency at low HTF temperature. Moreover, the
385 operating field of SS-OFRC was larger than that of SS-OFC, due to the wider flexibility of this cycle. Among
386 the tested control strategies the combined strategy provided the best results for both the cycles in terms of
387 thermodynamic efficiency and flexibility, due to the larger number of control variables.

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