Feasibility study of a low-temperature geothermal power plant for multiple economic scenarios

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Abstract

Deep-geothermal energy is a renewable energy source which provides a constant heat flux to the earth surface. If this heat is used properly, the geothermal power plant might serve as a baseload plant. However, geothermal well drilling costs are high, so the economic feasibility is not always secured. This is especially the case for low brine temperatures, which are common in NW Europe. In this paper, we will investigate the feasibility of a low-temperature geothermal plant for multiple economic scenarios. Whereas, in the literature, the focus is often on the influence of heat source conditions and environmental parameters, we focus on the economic parameter assumptions (electricity price, discount rate, lifetime, availability factor and well drilling costs). The design of the heat exchangers and the air-cooled condenser are optimized together with the operating conditions based on a thermo-economic optimization algorithm. The net present value (NPV) is the objective function. We find that the same geothermal project might be profitable (NPV=11.63MEUR) or loss-making (NPV=-9.91MEUR), depending on the economic situation. Good economic conditions are an incentive to build a more expensive ORC which generates a high electrical power output, whereas in bad conditions, a cheap ORC must be chosen which produces less electricity. Keywords: feasibility study, low-grade geothermal energy, ORC, thermo-economic optimization

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1. Introduction

Organic Rankine Cycles (ORCs) have widely been studied in the literature. Some recent thermoeconomic studies have been performed by, among others, Imran et al. [1], Garg et al. [2], Zhang et al. [3], Xi et al. [4] and Budisulistyo et al. [5].

⁵ Imran et al. [1] have studied the performance of a basic, a recuperative and a regenerative ORC for a geothermal source temperature of $160^{\circ}C$ and a mass flow rate of 5kg/s. The injection temperature is limited to $70^{\circ}C$. The results have been found by a Pareto-front optimization of the exergy efficiency (maximizing) and the specific investment cost (minimizing). They have concluded that the basic ORC has the lowest specific investment cost for an exergy efficiency smaller than 45%, whereas the regenerative ORC is the most suitable for an exergy efficiency higher than 45%.

Garg et al. [2] have performed a thermo-economic optimization of sub 500kWe ORCs for waste-heat and solar heat sources, considering various working fluids. They have used the specific investment cost as the objective function. The authors have found that, from the 19 investigated fluids, R152a is the most appropriate for waste heat sources, whereas Isopentane is more effective for the solar heat source with temperatures between $125^{\circ}C$ and $275^{\circ}C$.

Zhang et al. [3] have studied the subcritical ORC configuration with different heat exchanger types. In their study, the have investigated plate, shell-and-tube and finned-tube heat exchangers for the evaporator and condenser. The heat source is flue gas with a temperature of $120-200^{\circ}C$ and a flow rate of 10 kg/s. They have considered the electricity production cost (EPC) as the optimization objective and found that the ORC with finned tube bundles with circular fins for the evaporator and

a shell-and-tube condenser is the most cost-effective configuration, with EPC = 0.055 - 0.070 /kWh for the investigated conditions.

Xi et al. [4] have economically investigated an ORC for four mixtures and five pure working fluids, for heat source temperatures of $100-180^{\circ}C$. They have minimized the electricity production cost, using a Genetic Algorithm for the optimization. Their main conclusions are that the mixture

²⁵ using a Genetic Algorithm for the optimization. Their main conclusions are that the n working fluids are economically more efficient, mainly due to a lower evaporator capital cost.

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Budisulistyo et al. [5] have proposed a lifetime design strategy which takes into account heat source degradation of the geothermal source. They have implemented an air-cooled subcritical ORC in Aspen and used SQL for the optimization. The authors have considered the geothermal source

- ³⁰ conditions in years 1, 7, 15 and 30 to design the ORC towards maximal net electrical power output. Initially, the geothermal source has a temperature of $131^{\circ}C$ and a mass flow rate of 200 kg/s. For every ORC design, they have investigated the net present value and the energy return on investment over a lifetime of 30 years, taking into account changing brine and environmental conditions. They have concluded that the design in year 7 has the highest net present value (6,894,615\$).
- ³⁵ We see that multiple economic optimization criteria are used in the literature. However, we prefer using the Net Present Value (NPV) concept since it gives a direct indication whether the project is profitable or not, taking into account all necessary variables. A proper choice of the economic parameter values (e.g. the electricity price – evolution over time –, discount rate and lifetime) is very important since unconsidered assumptions on the economic conditions might result in strong
- ⁴⁰ deviations between the real income and the estimated one. Whereas, in the literature, the focus is often on the influence of heat source conditions and environmental parameters, we focus on the assumptions in the economic calculations. In this paper, we investigate multiple scenarios for the economic situation and discuss the effect on the economic feasibility of a low-temperature geothermal power plant. In the literature, generally, the economic feasibility is evaluated for a fixed
- ⁴⁵ design of the ORC (a fixed physical ORC installation); in this work, however, we optimize the ORC design and operating conditions depending on the assumed economic situation. Hence the physical ORC implementation depends on the economic parameter values.

2. Thermo-economic model

In this section, the thermo-economic model is discussed. First, the considered ORC set-up is given and the brine and environmental conditions are defined. Second, a short motivation of the working fluid choice is given. Then, the detailed thermodynamic model equations (correlations for pressure drop and heat transfer) and cost functions are given. And finally the optimization problem is stated.

2.1. Basic ORC set-up

⁵⁵ We consider electrical power generation via a basic ORC. A schematic presentation is shown in Figure 1a and the thermodynamic states are indicated. The brine adds heat to the working fluid,



(a) Basic ORC set-up.



(b) Temperature-entropy diagram. Blue: bubble line and dew line of Isobutane, green: working fluid states.

Figure 1: Schematic presentation of the basic ORC with indication of the thermodynamic working fluid states.

which undergoes the energy conversion cycle. The working fluid is pressurized by the pump (state 1 \rightarrow state 2), evaporated (state 2 \rightarrow state 3), expanded in the turbine (state 3 \rightarrow state 4) and thereby generating electricity via the connected generator, and condensed back to state 1. Figure 1b shows the temperature-entropy diagram with the bubble and dew lines for Isobutane and indication of

the working fluid states.

60

For the economizer, evaporator and superheater (named EES on Figure 1a), we consider TEMA E shell&tube-type heat exchangers [6] with one pass on both, the shell and the tube side. Due to the high brine pressure (which is needed to avoid salt sedimentation and to avoid condensable gasses

- to escape), shell&tube heat exchangers are more appropriate than plate-type exchangers [7]. An air-cooled condenser (ACC on Figure 1a) is considered, since it is often implemented and no water has to be available. We opt for an A-framed ACC with flat tubes and corrugated fins because the pressure drop is smaller than for round tubes. The fans are located at the bottom side of the A-frame such that forced-draft cooling is imposed.
- The parameter values for the brine conditions as well as the power of the well pumps, the well costs and costs associated with handling of the brine are based on the first estimates for the Balmatt geothermal site (Mol, Belgium), which is currently under construction [8]. The brine is modeled

_	MW [g/mole]	$T_{crit} \ [^{\circ}C]$	p_{crit} [MPa]	ODP	GWP
Isobutane (R600a)	58.12	134.66	3.63	0	20

Table 1: Thermodynamic and environmental properties of Isobutane [10].

as pure water and the brine production temperature, pressure and flow rate are $T_{b,prod} = 130^{\circ}C$, $p_{b,prod} = 40$ bar(a) and $\dot{m}_b = 194kg/s$, respectively. The well pumps power and the well drilling roots are $\dot{W}_{wells} = 600$ kW and $I_{wells} = 27.5$ MEUR, respectively. The well drilling costs are high due to a low thermal gradient of only $30^{\circ}C/\text{km}$ [9]. Furthermore, the environmental temperature and pressure are $T_{env} = 10.3^{\circ}C$ and $p_{env} = 1.016$ bar(a), respectively.

2.2. Working fluid

The working fluid Isobutane (R600a) is chosen due to its very low environmental impact [10] and a good ORC performance. Furthermore, hydrocarbons are relatively cheap and cost approximately 2.5\$/kg (number for the year 2015) according to Macchi et al. [7]. The thermodynamic parameters as well as the Ozone Depletion Potential (ODP) and Global Warming Potential (GWP) of Isobutane are summarized in Table 1.

2.3. Thermodynamic model equations

- The model equations are based on the work of Walraven et al. [11, 12, 13]. We consider 1 pass/1 pass TEMA E shell&tube heat exchangers. The split-ring floating-head tube bundle is assumed because it is the most appropriate for situation where thermal expansion is required and cleaning on the shell-side is not needed [6]. The brine flows through the tubes and the working fluid flow through the shell.
- ³⁰ The geometrical design variables which are optimized are the shell inner diameter D_{shell} , the tube outer diameter D_{tube} , the pitch between the tubes p_{tube} , the baffle cut length B_c and the baffle spacing L_{bc} . From previous work [11], we know that the 30° tube bundle layout is the most appropriate for the economizer and superheater, whereas the 60° layout shows better performance for the two-phase heat transfer in the evaporator. For the geometrical calculations, we follow the
- general procedure as proposed in the literature [6, 14, 15].

The heat transfer is modeled by the following set of equations:

$$\dot{Q} = UA \ LMTD \tag{1}$$

$$\frac{1}{U} = \frac{1}{h_{tube}} + \frac{\delta}{k} + \frac{1}{h_{shell}} \tag{2}$$

with LMTD the log mean temperature difference, A the heat transfer surface area, and U the total heat transfer coefficient. $\delta = 2.5$ mm is the wall thickness and k = 18 W/mK the thermal conductivity of the wall. h_{tube} and h_{shell} are the convective heat transfer coefficients on the tube side and the shell side, respectively. The heat transfer coefficient on the tube side h_{tube} is calculated according to the correlation of Petukhov and Popov [16]. The frictional coefficient for the tubes is calculated following the correlation of Bhatti and Shah [17]. The shell side calculations are based on the Bell-Delaware

100

method [6, 14, 18]. The convective heat transfer coefficient h_{shell} is calculated from the ideal heat transfer coefficient for cross-flow over a tube bundle, and corrected for the baffle configuration and the baffle leakages. The one-phase heat transfer and pressure drop are calculated following [6], the two-phase (boiling) in the evaporator is modeled following [14]. For more information and the 105 detailed equations, the reader is referred to [11].

The tubes of the A-frame ACC make an angle of 60° with the horizontal. The rectangular tubes have dimensions of 19mm x 200mm and the fin thickness is 0.25mm. The geometrical design parameters which are optimized are the length of the tubes L_{ACC} , the fin height H_{fin} and the fin spacing

 S_{fin} . The air-side calculations are based on the correlation of Yang et al. [19]. For the working 110 fluid on the tube side, the correlation of Petukhov and Popov [16] and the Gnielinski correlation [20] are used for the frictional and heat transfer coefficient calculations of the desuperheater. For the two-phase flow in the condenser, the CISE correlation [21], the correlation of Shah [22] and the Chisholm correlation [23] are used for the calculations of the void fraction, the heat transfer and the pressure drop coefficient, respectively. For more information and the detailed equations, the 115

reader is referred to [12].

Furthermore, we assume constant isentropic pump ($\eta_p = 80\%$) and turbine ($\eta_t = 85\%$) efficiencies, fixed motor ($\eta_m = 98\%$) and generator ($\eta_g = 98\%$) efficiencies as well as a fixed efficiency (mechanical and electrical) of the fan $(\eta_f = 60\%)$.

	capacity measure	size range	cost correlation [\$]	ref
shell&tube HEx	A $[m^2]$	$80-4000m^2$	$3.28 10^4 \left(A/80\right)^{0.68}$	[24]
centr. pump (incl. motor)	\dot{W} [W]	4-700kW	$9.84 \ 10^3 \ \left(\dot{W}/4000\right)^{0.55}$	[24]
turbine	$\dot{W}~[W]$	0.1 -20MW	$-19000 + 820 \left(\dot{W} / 1000 \right)^{0.8}$	[26]
ACC excl. fan	A $[m^2]$	$200-2000m^2$	$1.56 10^5 \left(A/200\right)^{0.89}$	[24]
ACC fan (incl. motor)	\dot{W} $[W]$	50-200kW	$1.23 \ 10^4 \ \left(\dot{W}/50000\right)^{0.76}$	[24]

Table 2: Bare equipment cost correlations. Table is adapted from [12].

120 2.4. Cost functions

The cost functions of the bare equipment costs CBE are summarized in Table 2. Due to the high temperature (> 100°C), the high pressure (>7 bar) and the need for stainless steel, the correction factors $f_T = 1.6$, $f_p = 1.5$, $f_M = 1.6$ are respectively taken into account [24]. Additionally, an installation cost factor of $f_I = 0.6$ [25] is taken into account. The final equipment cost C thus becomes:

$$C = C_{BE} \left(f_T f_P f_M + f_I \right) \tag{3}$$

Finally, the costs are translated to 2016-based values by means of the chemical engineering index and are converted to euro.

2.5. Optimization problem

125

130

The models are implemented in Python [27] using the CasADi [28] optimization framework together with the IpOpt [29] non-linear solver. Fluid properties are called from the REFPROP 8.0 database [30].

The objective is to maximize the Net Present Value (NPV), which is defined as:

$$NPV = -I_{wells} - I_{ORC} + \sum_{i=1}^{LT} \frac{\dot{W}_{net} p_{el} \left(1 + d_{el}\right)^i \frac{8760}{10^6} N - 0.025 I_{ORC}}{\left(1 + d_r\right)^i} \qquad [MEUR]$$
(4)

Herein are I_{wells} the well drilling costs and I_{ORC} the total ORC investment costs, p_{el} the yearly averaged wholesale electricity price, d_{el} the relative yearly electricity price increase, N the availability factor, dr the discount rate, LT the lifetime and \dot{W}_{net} the net electrical power. According to the IEA [31], the maintenance costs can be estimated by 2.5% of the ORC investment costs.

variables of the optimization process			addi	tional constrain	nts
variable	lower bound	upper bound	constraint	lower bound	upper bound
$T_{cond} \ [^{\circ}C]$	T_{env}	$\min(T_{b,prod}, T_{upper})$	D_{tube}/D_{shell} [-]	0	0.1
$T_{evap} \ [^{\circ}C]$	T_{env}	$\min(T_{b,prod}, T_{upper})$	$T_t - T_{evap} \ [^\circ C]$	0.01	$T_{upper} - T_{env}$
$T_t \ [^\circ C]$	$T_{env} + 10^{\circ}C$	$\min(T_{crit}, T_{upper})$	$T_{evap} - T_{cond} \ [^{\circ}C]$	10	$2(T_{upper} - T_{env})$
\dot{m}_{wf}/\dot{m}_b [-]	0.01	5	$T_{b,inj} \ [^{\circ}C]$	25	$T_{b,prod}$
D_{shell} [m]	0.3	2	$\Delta T_{pinch} \ [^{\circ}C]$	1	100
D_{tube} [mm]	12.7	50.8	L_{ACC} [m]	0	20
p_{tube} [-]	1.25	1.5			
B_c [-]	0.25	0.45			
L_{bc} [m]	0.05	2			
$S_{fin} \; [\mathrm{mm}]$	1.14	3.04			
$H_{fin} \ [\mathrm{mm}]$	14.25	23.75			
$v_{air} \; [\mathrm{m/s}]$	1.5	20			
n_{tube} [-]	500	10000			

Table 3: Lower and upper bounds of the variables of the optimization process and additional constraints.

In our optimization, the operating conditions (condenser T_{cond} , evaporator T_{evap} and turbine T_t temperatures, the working fluid mass flow rate \dot{m}_{wf} and the air flow rate v_{air}) are optimized together with the design of the heat exchangers and the ACC design. The variables and their upper and lower bounds are given on the left hand side of Table 3. The heat exchanger design limits are derived from [11, 32, 33] whereas the limits on the ACC design follow from [12, 19].

Additional constraints are given on the right hand side of Table 3. ΔT_{pinch} is the minimum temperature difference over the heat exchangers, L_{ACC} is the length of a leg of the ACC A-frame. We did not impose a limit on the brine injection temperature $T_{b,inj}$.

3. Optimization results

135

¹⁴⁰ The goal of this work is to study the feasibility of a geothermal project at a specified physical location, for multiple economic scenarios. As such, the brine production state and brine flow rate,

	1	2	high	low	1 - LT25	1—LT20
p_{el} [EUR/MWh]	50	36	80	25	50	50
d_{el} [%/year]	5	1.5	5	1.5	5	5
dr~[%]	4	0.3	0.3	5	4	4
LT [year]	30	30	30	30	25	20
N [%]	98	98	98	98	98	98
I_{wells} [MEUR]	27.5	27.5	27.5	27.5	27.5	27.5

Table 4: Economic parameter values for the different economic scenarios: varying external parameters (electricity price—evolution over time—, discount rate and lifetime). Values based on [37, 38, 39].

as well as the environmental conditions are kept constant.

3.1. Definition of the different scenarios

drilling and production of the brine are studied.

145

For all scenarios, the Chemical Engineering index CE = 557 (March 2016) [34] and the dollar-toeuro conversion factor $f_{-EUR} = 1.11$ /EUR (March 2016) [35] are kept constant. Furthermore, we distinguish internal and external economic parameters. On the one hand, the wholesale electricity price, the electricity price variation over time, the discount rate and the lifetime are the external economic parameters. On the other hand, the well drilling and brine handling costs and the availability factor are the *internal* parameters, which are directly related to the maturity of the drilling and production technology/geothermal gradient/reservoir management and the need 150 for maintenance works (the robustness of the ORC installation).

The economic parameter values for the different scenarios are given in Table 4 (*external* parameters) and Table 5 (internal parameters). Scenarios 1 and 2 are based on the economic conditions in Belgium in 2013 and 2016, respectively. The high and low scenarios with a high and a low electricity price are expected to have a high and a low NPV, respectively. The scenarios 1-LT25155 and 1-LT20 have the same economic conditions as scenario 1; however the lifetime is 25 and 20 years instead of 30 years. Scenarios 1-N80, 1-N85, 1-N90, 1-N95 and 1-N100 represent a 80, 85, 90, 95 and 100% availability factor [36] and in the scenarios 1-I15 and 1-I0, the costs for

	1	1—N80	1—N85	1—N90	1—N95	1—N100	1—I15	1—I0
p_{el} [EUR/MWh]	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
d_{el} [%/year]	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
dr~[%]	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
LT [year]	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30
N [%]	98	80	85	90	95	100	98	98
I_{wells} [MEUR]	27.5	27.5	27.5	27.5	27.5	27.5	15	0

Table 5: Economic parameter values for the different economic scenarios: varying *internal* parameters (availability factor and well drilling costs).

¹⁶⁰ 3.2. Feasibility under different external economic conditions

165

First, we investigate the effect of the average wholesale electricity price (evolution over time) and the discount rate on the economic feasibility of the power plant. Figure 2 shows the results on the NPV, the ORC cost, the net electrical power output \dot{W}_{net} , the exergetic plant efficiency η_{ex} and the energetic cycle efficiency η_{en} , corresponding to the economic parameter values of Table 4. η_{ex} and η_{en} are defined as: $\eta_{ex} = \dot{W}_{net}/\dot{E}x_b$ and $\eta_{en} = \dot{W}_{net}/\dot{Q}_{ORC}$, with $\dot{E}x_b$ the brine flow exergy referred to the environmental conditions and \dot{Q}_{ORC} the heat addition to the ORC.

When comparing scenarios 1 and 2, we see that scenario 1 is a profitable case whereas scenario 2 is not. Besides, the high electricity price–evolution over time–and the low discount rate in scenario *high* result in a very high NPV whereas the low electricity price and the high discount rate of

- scenario low lead to a low NPV. Furthermore, from Figure 2, we can see that the ORC equipment cost, the net electrical power output, the exergetic plant efficiency and energetic cycle efficiency follow the same trend as the NPV. This can be explained as follows. In scenarios with a high electricity price, a better performing hence more expensive ORC can be afforded; the net electrical power output is higher, the efficiencies are higher but the individual component costs (ACC is the
- ¹⁷⁵ most expensive) are also higher. Because the ORC cost is much smaller than the well drilling costs, the incomes from selling more electricity more than offset the extra ORC component costs. As a result, also the NPV is higher. Remark also the importance of a good cooling system. Lowering the cooling temperature with a few degrees requires huge additional investments in the ACC but returns a higher electrical power output (scenario *high* versus scenario *low*).



Figure 2: Net present value (NPV), cost-breakdown, efficiencies and net electrical power output for the 1, 2, high and low scenarios (defined in Table 4). The well drilling costs is the same for all four scenarios shown.

On the left-hand side of Figure 3, we show the operating temperatures and the brine injection temperature. For scenarios with a high NPV, the brine injection temperature is lower and more heat is transferred to the ORC cycle. This requires larger heat exchangers and is thus more expensive. The turbine inlet temperature and the evaporator temperatures follow the same trend as the brine injection temperature. Note that the turbine inlet temperature equals the evaporator temperature (up to the imposed constraint of 0.01°C from Table 3) since superheating is not favorable in case of a dry working fluid like Isobutane [40, 41]. The condenser temperature also follows the same trend. A lower condenser temperature requires more investments but results in a higher power

output.

Finally, on the right-hand side of Figure 3 we show the LCOE (Levelized Cost of Electricity) values which correspond to the NPV-optimized scenarios. The LCOE is the fictitious average price of electricity during the entire lifetime which would result in a break-even for the investor/operator



Figure 3: Left-hand side: Operating temperatures (turbine inlet temperature T_t , evaporator temperature t_{evap} and condenser temperature T_{cond}) and brine injection temperature $T_{b,inj}$ for the 1, 2, high and low scenarios (defined in Table 4). Right-hand side: Levelized Cost of Electricity (LCOE) for the 1, 2, high and low scenarios (defined in Table 4).

of the plant. The trend of the LCOE is different from the trend of the NPV. This follows directly from the LCOE definition:

$$LCOE = \frac{I_{wells} + I_{ORC} + \sum_{i=1}^{LT} \frac{0.025I_{ORC}}{(1+dr)^i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{LT} \frac{\dot{W}_{net}N\frac{8760}{106}}{(1+dr)^i}} \qquad [EUR/MWh]$$
(5)

190

Based on the very high NPV-value of the *high* scenario, we would expect this scenario to have the lowest LCOE. However, this is not the case: the net electrical power output is higher but also the investment costs are very high. This still results in a relatively high value of the LCOE. A more detailed elaboration on the NPV and the LCOE as optimization objectives is given in Section 3.4.

We conclude that the *high* scenario has the highest NPV, followed by scenario 1, 2 and *low*. The ¹⁹⁵ payback time of scenario *high* and 1 are 14 and 25 years, respectively. The net electrical power output and the ORC cost are the highest for the *high* scenario, followed by scenarios 1, 2 and *low*. However, the LCOE shows a different trend. The *high* scenario does not result in the lowest LCOE due to the very high investment costs.

Last, consider the effect of the assumed lifetime on scenario 1. The results, corresponding to the input values of Table 4, are summarized in Table 6. For a lifetime of 30 years, the project is profitable with NPV = 11.63MEUR. However, for a smaller expected lifetime of 25 or 20 years,

	1	1—LT25	1-LT20
NPV [MEUR ₂₀₁₆]	11.63	-0.26	-10.74
\dot{W}_{net} [MW]	4.65	4.41	4.08
$T_{b,inj} \ [^{\circ}C]$	68.03	70.29	73.51
η_{ex} [%]	27.45	26.10	24.06
$\eta_{en}~[\%]$	11.59	11.52	11.40

Table 6: Influence of the lifetime on the plant feasibility for scenario 1 (defined in Table 4).

the project is not profitable. For a lower lifetime, fewer expenses can be afforded and less effort is made to extract heat from the brine. As a result, the brine injection temperature is higher. Also less effort is done on the cooling side and a cheaper ACC is installed. Both effects have a negative impact on the net electrical power output and the efficiencies are lower.

3.3. Feasibility under different internal economic conditions

In this section, we investigate the effect of the internal economic conditions—the availability factor and the well drilling costs—on scenario 1, corresponding to the input parameters of Table 5.

First, we discuss the results for six values of the availability factor: N=80%, N=85%, N=90%, N=95%, N=98% and N=100%. The assumption of 100% availability means that the ORC would run during the entire year which is unrealistic but it is taken as a reference for comparison. Table 7 summarizes the results. We see that the NPV increases with the availability factor. The ORC operates more hours during the year hence the income is higher. This goes furthermore hand in hand with a more expensive and more efficient ORC, hence a lower brine injection temperature,

- ²¹⁵ higher energetic cycle efficiency and higher exergetic plant efficiency. The higher ORC cost is mainly due to the higher cooling system costs. So, as a summary, the higher the availability factor the better the economic feasibility, as we could expect. Considering the ORC installation only, the availability factor might be higher than 98%. However, accounting for issues related to the brine composition (such as fouling of the brine heat exchangers) and the well productivity, the availability
- factor may go down to only 80%. This has a big impact on the NPV. For availability factors higher than 95%, the NPV value is higher than 9.5MEUR. However, if the availability factor would be only

	1—N100	1	1 - N95	1—N90	1 - N85	1—N80
NPV [MEUR ₂₀₁₆]	13.05	11.63	9.51	6.01	2.57	-0.81
I_{ORC} [MEUR ₂₀₁₆]	21.60	21.33	20.92	20.21	19.48	18.73
\dot{W}_{net} [MW]	4.67	4.65	4.61	4.54	4.46	4.37
$T_{b,inj} \ [^{\circ}C]$	67.79	68.03	68.40	69.07	69.81	70.63
$\eta_{ex}~[\%]$	27.60	27.45	27.21	26.79	26.33	25.83
η_{en} [%]	11.60	11.59	11.58	11.56	11.53	11.51

Table 7: Influence of the availability factor on the scenario 1 feasibility (input values are defined in Table 5).

80%, the project becomes economically unfeasible for the considered brine and economic conditions (NPV < 0).

Second, we discuss the effect of the well drilling costs on the optimal plant layout for scenario 1. We find that the operating conditions, the optimal design and hence the component costs are 225 independent of the well drilling costs and equal to the results of scenario 1. Referring to Eq. (4), which gives the definition of the NPV, we see that I_{wells} has a fixed value and is independent of the optimization variables. Therefore, the well costs have no influence on the optimized variables (the values of the variables which were given in Table 3). However, the well costs do influence the

230

value of the NPV itself. NPV = 11.63MEUR, NPV = 24.13MEUR and NPV = 39.13MEUR for scenarios 1, 1-15 and 1-10, respectively. The difference in the NPV values is purely caused by the difference in the well costs. The payback time decreases from 25 years for $I_{wells} = 27.5 \text{MEUR}$ to 12 years in case of no well costs ($I_{wells} = 0$ MEUR).

3.4. Discussion: NPV as optimization objective

- From the last section, we know that the well drilling and brine handling costs do not influence the 235 optimal design and operating conditions of the ORC. Also the ORC cost is the same for different values of I_{wells} . However, we expect that for higher costs for drilling and production of the brine, also higher investments in the ORC equipment might be justified in order to get a higher income from the electricity production.
- To take into account this phenomenon, we optimize scenarios 1, 1-I15 and 1-I0 yet using the 240 LCOE (defined in Eq. (5)) as the optimization objective to be minimized instead of the NPV



Figure 4: Comparison of the ORC cost and the net electrical power output of the NPV-optimized (blue) and LCOEoptimized (red) results for scenarios 1, 1—I15 and 1—I0 (defined in Table 5).

	NPV optimization			LCOE optimization		
	1	1—I15	1—I0	1	1—I15	1—I0
NPV [MEUR ₂₀₁₆]	11.63	24.13	39.13	11.29	21.90	24.00
$LCOE [EUR_{2016}/MWh]$	84.11	66.00	44.27	83.66	63.56	33.18

Table 8: Comparison of the NPV and the LCOE values of the NPV-optimized and LCOE-optimized results for scenarios 1, 1-I15 and 1-I0 (defined in Table 5).

(defined in Eq. (4)) which was to be maximized. The economic parameter values were given in Table 5; however, for the LCOE optimization we do not impose any value for the electricity price (evolution over time). The results are summarized in Figure 4 and Table 8.

- As been said before, for the NPV optimization, the difference between the values of the NPV is 245 purely caused by the well costs (left-hand side of Table 8). The total ORC cost is the same for every scenario (left-hand side of Figure 4). When we compare the LCOE-optimized results with the NPV-optimized results, we see that the optimal design and operating conditions are different, hence the ORC costs are also different (left-hand side of Figure 4). The net power generation in
- 250
- the LCOE-optimized case is smaller than for the NPV-optimized results (right-hand side of Figure 4), which is mainly the result of a higher brine injection temperature. From Table 8, we see that the results of the NPV-optimization and the LCOE-optimization are in good agreement in case of high well drilling costs (scenario 1). However, for low costs for drilling and production of the brine, the results are significantly different.

Note that, in our optimization, we optimize the operating conditions and the design of the ORC towards the best value of the objective function. Depending on the choice of the objective function, the optimal design-and hence the physical implementation of the ORC-is different.

Furthermore, considering the LCOE-optimized results only, the optimal values of the variables are different for different scenarios (different well costs), which is in contrast to the NPV-optimized values. For higher well drilling costs, the ORC is more expensive (left-hand side of Figure 4) and

has a higher net electrical power output (right-hand side of Figure 4).

Depending on the involved party, either the NPV or the LCOE might be the most interesting performance indicator. The three main differences are:

- 1. The NPV gives a direct indication whether the project is profitable or loss-making, whereas the LCOE does not.
- 2. The NPV-calculation requires assumptions for a lot of *external* economic parameters which are very hard to predict. No assumptions regarding electricity pricing are needed in case of the LCOE-calculation.
- 3. The well costs are not taken into account in case of the NPV-optimization and the same ORC would be built independent of the well costs. The LCOE is a better way of comparing the cost of the wells and the extra cost of a better-performing ORC, with the additional electrical power output.

4. Conclusions

In this work, we have studied the feasibility of a binary geothermal power plant for multiple economic scenarios. In our thermo-economic optimization, we maximize the NPV and the design of the heat exchangers and the ACC and the operating conditions are optimized together.

Regarding the *external* economic parameters, we conclude that the highest NPV is reached for a high value of the electricity price, a high price evolution over time and a low discount rate. For these economic conditions, a better performing ORC can be justified: the net electrical power output is

higher, the efficiencies are higher but also the component costs are higher (the ACC is responsible for a large share of the ORC costs, up to 86% for the investigated scenarios). We find that the same

265

270

geothermal project might be profitable for scenario 1 with $NPV = 11.63MEUR_{2016}$ or loss-making for scenario 2 with $NPV = -9.91MEUR_{2016}$, only depending on the economic situation. In case of a lower lifetime, fewer expenses can be afforded and a cheaper ORC is installed which results in a lower NPV of the project. The NPV changes from $11.63MEUR_{2016}$ for a lifetime of 30 years to

²⁸⁵ a lower NPV of the project. The NPV changes from $11.63MEUR_{2016}$ for a lifetime of 30 y the loss-making value of $-10.74MEUR_{2016}$ for a lifetime of only 20 years.

Furthermore, the *internal* economic parameters were studied. For a higher availability factor, more electricity can be sold for nearly the same ORC cost and the NPV is higher. The availability factor might have a big impact on the plant feasibility. Whereas $NPV = 11.63MEUR_{2016}$ for a 98%

- plant availability, the project might become unfeasible $(NPV = -0.81MEUR_{2016})$ for an 80% plant availability. The well drilling and brine handling costs do not influence the NPV-optimized results since they do not depend on the variables of the optimization procedure. The value of the NPV, however, does directly depend on the well drilling and brine handling costs. For well drilling and brine handling costs which are x MEUR higher, the NPV decreases with x MEUR.
- Besides this last finding, we also found that the project with the highest NPV does not correspond with the project with the lowest LCOE value. The optimal design-and hence the physical implementation of the ORC-depends on the assumptions of the economic parameters on the one hand, but also on the choice of the optimization objective (maximization of the NPV or minimization of the LCOE) on the other hand. Whereas the NPV gives an indication whether the project is profitable or loss-making, the LCOE accounts for the well costs and does not need assumptions
- regarding the electricity pricing over time. Depending on the involved party, either the NPV or the LCOE might be the most interesting performance indicator.

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Nomenclature

Symbols and abbreviations

symbol	description
\$	US dollar
$A \ [m^2]$	heat transfer surface area
ACC	Air-Cooled Condenser
B_c [-]	baffle cut length
C [EUR]	capital cost
$D \ [\mathrm{m}]$	diameter
d_{el} [%/year]	electricity price increase
dr~[%]	discount rate
EES	economizer, evaporator and superheater
\dot{Ex} [MW]	flow exergy
f	correction factor
GWP	Global Warming Potential
$H \; [mm]$	height
$h \; [W/m^2 K]$	convective heat transfer coefficient
I [MEUR]	investment cost
$k \; [W/mK]$	conductive heat transfer coefficient
$L \ [m]$	length
L_{bc} [m]	baffle spacing
LCOE [EUR/MWh]	Levelized Cost Of Electricity
$LMTD \ [^{\circ}C]$	Log Mean Temperature Difference
LT [year]	LifeTime
$\dot{m} \; [m kg/s]$	mass flow rate
MW [g/mole]	molecular weight
N~[%]	availability factor
n_{tube} [-]	number of tubes ACC
NPV [MEUR]	Net Present Value
ODP	Ozone Depletion Potential
ORC	Organic Rankine Cycle
p [bar]	pressure

p_{el} [EUR/MWh]	electricity price
p_{tube} [-]	pitch of tube bundle
$\dot{Q} [{ m MW}]$	thermal power
$S \; [mm]$	spacing
$T \ [^{\circ}C]$	temperature
$U \; [W/m^2 K]$	overall heat transfer coefficient
$v [{ m m/s}]$	velocity
\dot{W} [MW]	electrical power
$\delta~[{ m m}]$	tube thickness
$\eta \ [\%]$	efficiency

$Subscripts\ {\it C}\ superscripts$

symbol	description
1	wf state at pump inlet
2	wf state at pump outlet
3	wf state at turbine inlet
4	wf state at turbine outlet
air	air
b	brine/geothermal water
BE	bare equipment
CE	Chemical Engineering index
cond	condenser
crit	critical point
en	energetic
env	environment
evap	evaporator
ex	exergetic
f	fan of ACC

fin	fin of ACC
g	generator
Ι	installation
inj	injection state
M	material
m	motor
net	net
p	pump
pinch	pinch point
prod	production state
shell	shell of heat exchanger
t	turbine
tube	tube of heat exchanger
wells	wells
wf	working fluid

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