

After examining these results it can be concluded that the highest improvement in the combined-cycle efficiency is obtained with the simplest gas cycle. A combined thermal efficiency of about 47 percent is achieved with a simple gas cycle (no intercooling and no reheat) at a moderate compressor pressure ratio of about 10. At the same pressure ratio, when using one reheat, the combined-cycle efficiency is about 49 percent. The latter, however, could be raised to about 50 percent by increasing the compressor pressure ratio to about 8. Although this is a higher thermal efficiency, it is accompanied by two main disadvantages. First, a helium turbo-machine designed to operate at a pressure ratio of 8 has a relatively large number of stages which may cause design difficulties. Second, reheating the helium with a nuclear reactor is difficult and rather complicated.

An investigation into the effect of other operating parameters on the combined-cycle efficiency, limiting the study to the simple gas cycle as being the most favorable, shows that the combined efficiency increases slightly with increasing Rankine-cycle efficiency. On the other hand, an increase of about 100 F in the maximum gas-cycle temperature produces an average improvement of one point in the combined-cycle efficiency.

Both the gas-cycle thermal efficiency, η_c , and the combined-cycle thermal efficiency, η_{cc} , are represented. The maximum gas-cycle temperature in both arrangements was selected to be 3000 R. Fig. 4 shows the results for the non-reheating arrangement, while Fig. 5 includes the results for single reheating. From these plots the following is evident:

- The thermal efficiency, η_c , is improved appreciably over the individual cycle efficiencies through the addition of the thermal energy in the exhaust before entering the reheat to heat the feedwater in the Rankine cycle.
- The efficiency improvement is higher in the case of no intercooling than either for one or two intercooling stages because the thermal energy in the exhaust gases decreases as the number of intercooling stages increases. For example, the thermal efficiency of a non-reheating combined cycle (Fig. 4) at a compressor pressure ratio of 3 has increased from 38 to 41.5 percent without intercooling, while using one intercooling the efficiency increases only from 38.5 to 42.5 percent. Even less improvement is obtained when two intercooling are used.
- The compressor pressure ratio for maximum efficiency changes to a higher value (around the use of the combined cycle). This shift is smaller in the case of non-reheating (Fig. 4) than with one reheating (Fig. 5) and it decreases upon increasing the number of intercooling.

References

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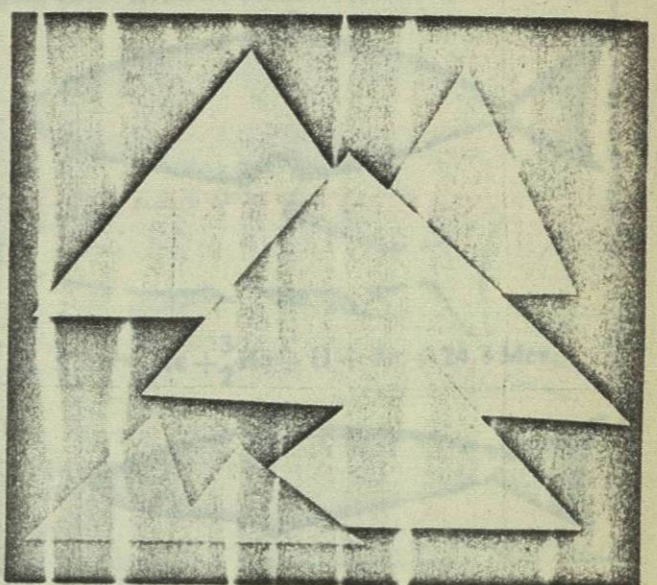
POWER IN THE YEAR 2001

Part 1—Dawn of the Solar Age

Those bounties of nature, our fossil fuels, will be effectively exhausted in 200 or so years. Before this comes to pass, we shall burn the seas and the rocks, or, ultimately, directly tap the sun's heat for our energy needs. This is not a statement of desperation. Technologically, no insuperable problems exist. The core problem is rather one of bias and inertia: the seer is not to evaporate except under the heat of crisis. To place the energy picture of the not-too-distant future into focus, a series is initiated, in this issue, of major and innovative energy systems that have this in common: Any one of them, if fully exploited, could meet our energy needs for many millennia with minimal or no insult to the environment.

SAMUEL WALTERS¹

"ENERGY," said James Clerk Maxwell, nineteenth-century British scientist, "is the go of things." And ever since Watt's engine in the eighteenth century used the chemical energy of wood and coal to power industrial machines, we have been "going" at an accelerated rate. Prior to this, for millennial time, man plodded along, energy-wise, at a donkey walk. But between 1830 and 1860, we broke into a trot. Reaction and impulse turbines for extracting the potential energy of water stored at high heads were developed. On the heels of these developments came Otto, Daimler, and Diesel. Their achievements, between 1874 and 1905, led to practical internal-combustion engines operating on liquid hydrocarbon fuels such as oil, gasoline, and kerosene. At about the same time, Parsons developed the steam turbine and not long after that, at about the



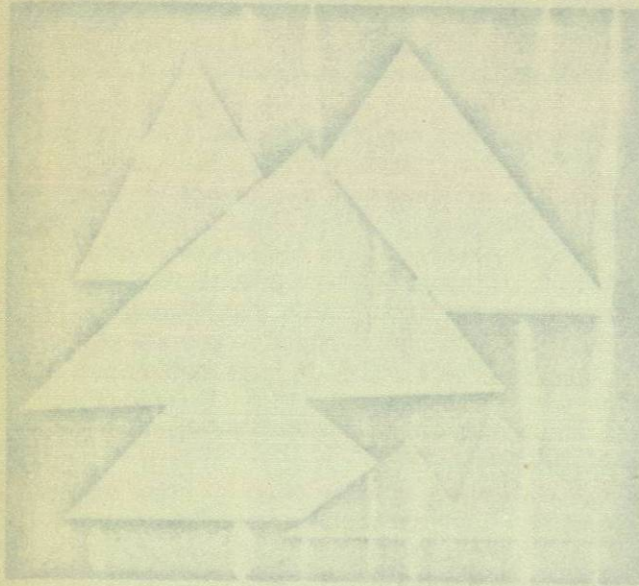
beginning of the twentieth century, the first steam-turbine-driven electric power generating plants went into operation. We broke into a canter. Per capita energy consumption and population soared—together. Until recent times they have always moved together. In fact, curves of population and per capita energy consumption over the past score of millennia are indistinguishable from one another. They plot as a nearly horizontal line just above zero for the entire period of human history until the last thousand years or so. Then a barely perceptible rise begins as the present is approached. Here the curve turns abruptly upward in a nearly vertical rise toward the 1970 world population figure of about 3.6 billions. Curves of energy production from the fossil fuels behave similarly except that in the very recent past they begin at zero [1].²

We are probably now approaching full gallop. In terms of Q units of energy,³ the energy transformation is startling. From the time of Christ until the middle of the last century mankind used about $8Q$. In the last century $4Q$ were consumed, and extrapolating from current trends, the need in the next century will be between 100 and $400Q$. (The United States alone, with only 6 percent of the world's population, consumes 37 percent of the world's energy.) Even if all known marginal and submarginal resources are considered, the problem of diversifying the energy source would not be alleviated. The resources are limited—about $81C$ for the United States and $452Q$ for the entire planet [2].

Since the known recoverable reserves of fossil fuels are limited ($6Q$ for the United States and $23C$ for the entire world) and the supply of uranium-235 will be in short supply within 20 years, the human population

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² Numbers in brackets designate References at end of article.
³ $1Q = 10^{18}$ Btu or 2.93×10^{14} kwh. Recall that the British thermal unit, or Btu, is defined as the heat necessary to raise by 1 deg F the temperature of 1 lb of water. To give a physical idea of the size of the Q it represents the heat liberated by the combustion of 38 billion tons bituminous coal. Another example: If we had 400 million automobiles, each with a 100-hp engine, and ran them at full throttle night and day for an entire year, we would consume an amount of gasoline equivalent to about one Q of energy.



POWER IN THE YEAR 2001

Part I—Down of the star A

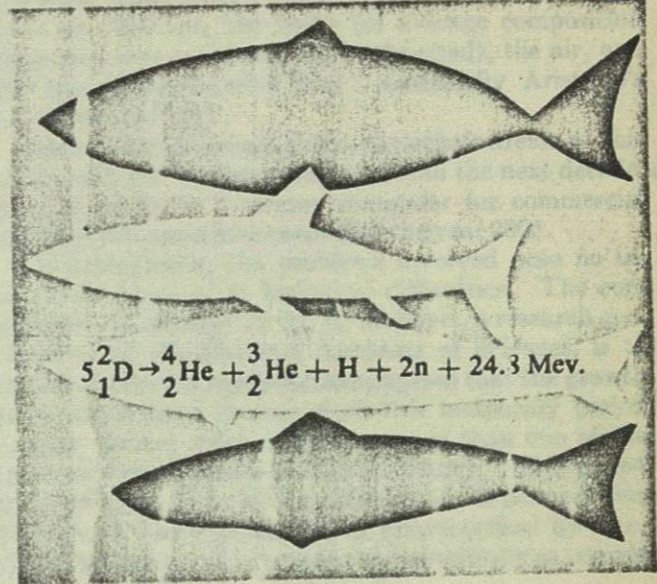
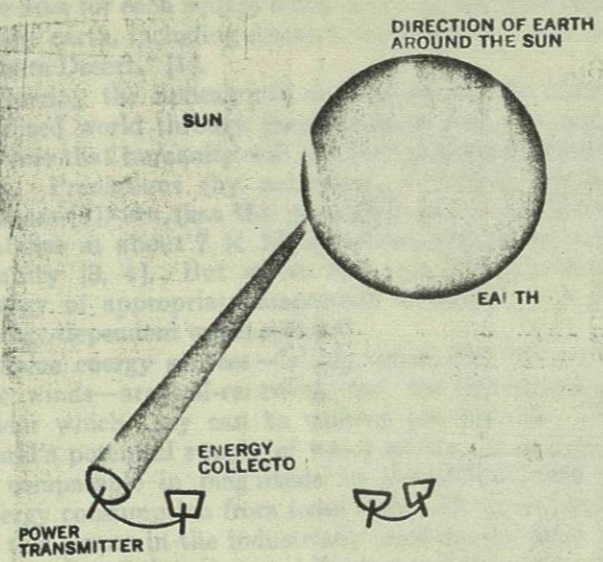
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curve must follow one of three possible courses [1]:

- A continued rise for a brief period followed by a gradual leveling to some stable figure which the world's energy and material resources are capable of supporting for a long period of time.
- An overshoot of any possible stable level and a drop downward to eventually stabilize at some level compatible with the world's resources.
- Resource exhaustion and a general cultural decline. The curve would then reflect a population corresponding to the lowest energy consumption level of a primitive existence.

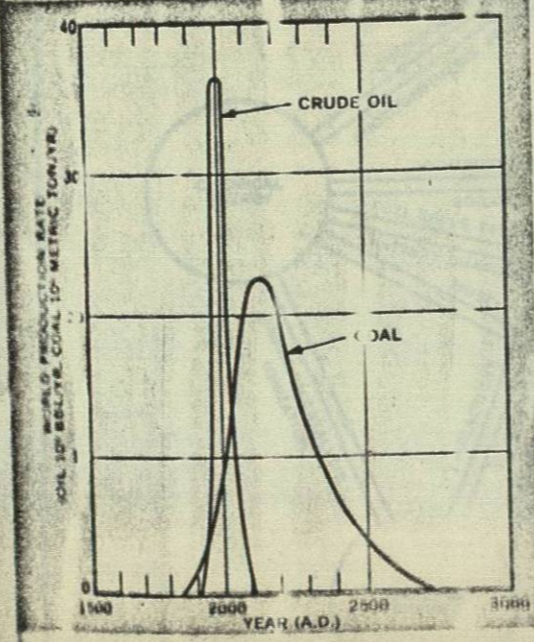
What is not possible is an unlimited population growth. Consider this: If the human doubling time of about 100 years were to persist, then in the year 2970 there would be about 10^{12} persons on earth. In fact, if the present world population were to double

TABLE
Reserves in Fossil Fuels

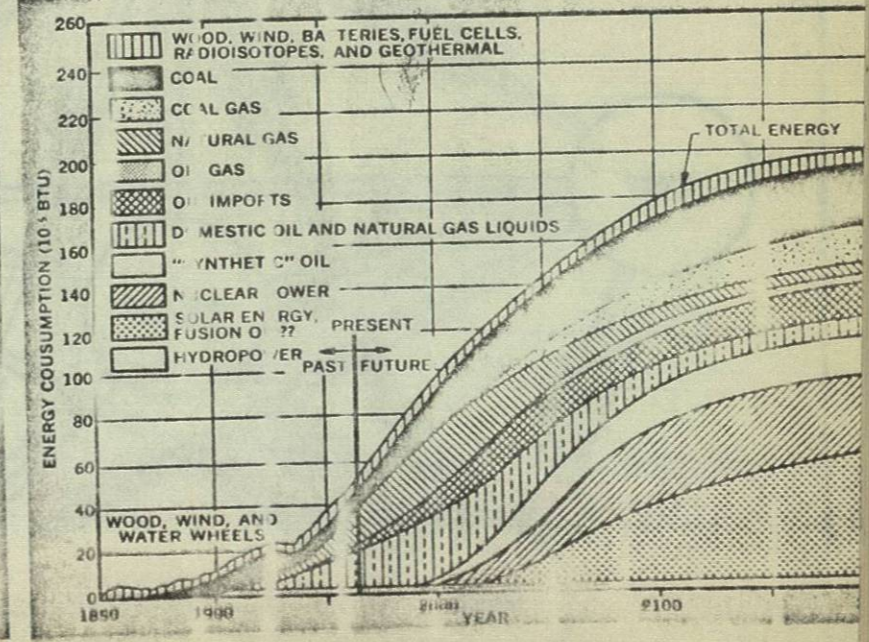
Fuel	U.S., Q	World, Q
Coal	4.600	18.00
Natural gas	0.310	2.11
Petroleum	0.278	1.70
Oil	0.298	1.70
Total	5.486	22.91

(From Duncan and McKelvey, U.S. Geological Survey, 1964 [5]).

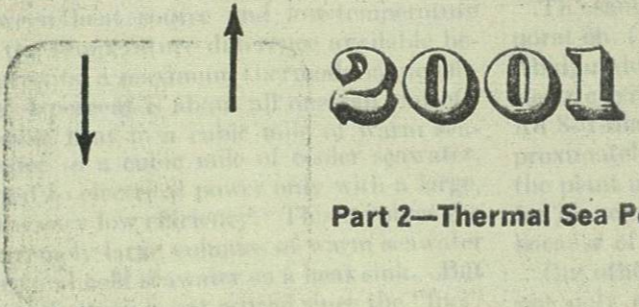
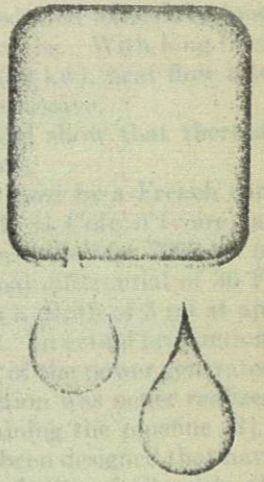
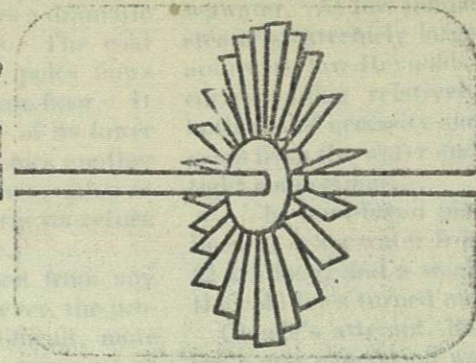
World fossil fuel utilization rate. (From Ralph [6]).



Energy consumption in the United States, past, present, and future. (From Gaucher [7]).



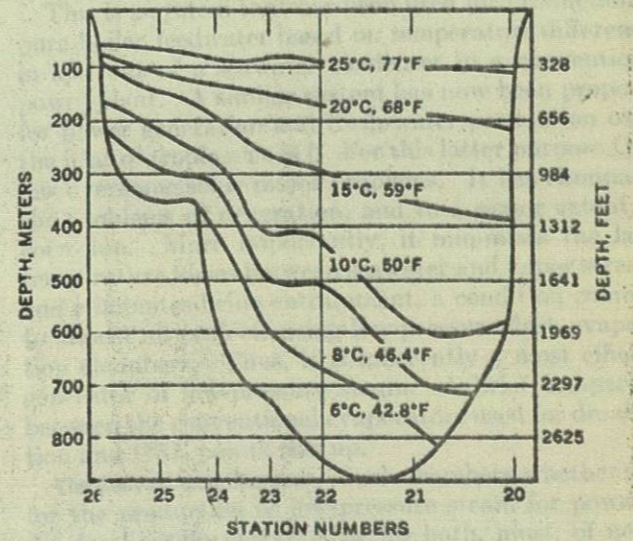
POWER IN THE YEAR



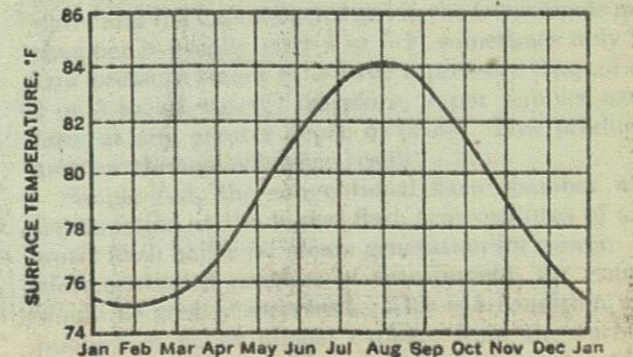
Part 2—Thermal Sea Power

Advances in underwater technology can now realize the old idea of generating power from temperature differences between tropical surface waters and colder currents flowing directly beneath. Such a tantalizing project is now underway in the Caribbean in combination with two other projects—mariculture and fresh-water production.

Underwater temperatures in the straits of Florida, 30 miles from Miami. At 400 meters (1312 ft) the temperature is 43 F.



Surface temperatures vary with the season, but an average of 80F seems reasonable figure for making power plant calculation



SAMUEL WALTERS¹

THE OCEANS, particularly the tropical seas, are built-in collectors of the sun's heat. Just one cubic mile of warm seawater has absorbed trillions of Btu's. The Gulf Stream alone, it is estimated, carries northward heat sufficient to generate over 75 times the total power production of the United States [1].²

To extract this thermal power one condition is indispensable: the existence of two broad currents of water—one warm, one cold—in close proximity to each other. Such juxtapositions are, fortunately, not uncommon. There are, in fact, many places within a few miles of land in and near tropical waters such as the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf Stream where ocean currents of vast magnitude run within 2000 to 3000 ft of each other. Their temperature differential is a constant 35 to 45 F (surface layer 80 to 85 F, lower layer 40 to 45 F).

This paradox of nature occurs somewhat as follows: Heat from the sun is absorbed in the surface water which, on heating, expands to a lower density and stays above the colder, heavier water below. This action, in collaboration with the sluggish influence of the rotation of

¹ Staff Editor, MECHANICAL ENGINEERING.
² Numbers in brackets designate References at end of article.

one man for each square meter on all of the land areas of the earth, including Antarctica, Greenland, and the Sahara Desert." [1].
 Barring the apocalyptic destruction of the industrial world through thermonuclear war, one must assume that humanity will opt for the second alternative. Predictions (by consensus of leading demographers [2]) are that the population of the earth will stabilize at about 7 X 10⁹ sometime within the next century [3, 4]. But where then are the sources of energy of appropriate magnitude to sustain a high-energy-dependent world?

Some energy sources—falling water, the tides, and the winds—are self-renewing but the circumstances under which they can be utilized are limited. The world's potential supply of water power, for example, is comparable in magnitude to the present rate of energy consumption from fossil fuels. However, most of this occurs in the industrially undeveloped areas of Africa, South America, and Southeast Asia, and could only be utilized by a parallel industrialization of these areas. In addition, although water power is capable of continuing for periods of geologic time, a practical limit in the case of large dams and reservoirs is set by the period of a few centuries required for the reservoirs to fill with sediments.

Geothermal and tidal energy are now being exploited in a few suitable sites around the world, but the ultimate amount of power from these sources does not promise to be larger than a small fraction of the world's present requirements. This leaves us with nuclear energy, rock burning (fusion) and sea burning (fusion), solar radiation, and the thermal heat of the oceans. As

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