Thermoacoustic Stirling power generation from LNG cold energy and low-temperature waste heat

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6 Abstract

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Recovering the cold energy generated in the regasification process of liquefied natural gas (LNG) can help to improve the energy efficiency of LNG power generation systems, meanwhile, abundant low-grade waste heat can also be exploited from the exhaust gas of gas turbines. This study proposes to apply the thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator to recover LNG cold energy and waste heat simultaneously. A pair of linear alternators is directly coupled with the thermoacoustic loop by replacing the long and bulky resonator completely. Numerical simulation is conducted on the basis of the thermoacoustic theory to characterize and optimize the operations of the system. The effects of the back volumes of linear alternators, feedback tube length and regenerator length on the output performances are investigated. The distributions of key parameters, including pressure, volume flow rate, phase difference, acoustic power and exergy flow, are further studied. One design of the thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator operated with 4 MPa helium gas is capable of generating 2.3 kW electric power with the highest exergy efficiency of 0.253 when the cold and hot ends are mantained at 110 K and 500 K. Performances can be further improved if the conversion efficiency of the linear alternators is further increased.

7 Keywords: Stirling engine, thermoacoustic engine, liquefied natural gas, cold energy,

⁸ waste heat, linear alternator

Preprint submitted to Energy

September 9, 2018

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9 Nomenclature

- A cross sectional area of gas channel, m²
- A_s cross sectional area of solid, m²
- Bl force factor, N/A
- c_p gas heat capacity, $J/(kg \cdot K)$
- f frequency, Hz
- f_{κ} thermal function
- f_{ν} viscous function
- \dot{H}_2 total energy flow, W
- I_1 complex electric current, A
- k gas thermal conductivity, W/(m·K)
- k_s solid thermal conductivity, W/(m·K)
- K spring stiffness, N/m
- L_e winding inductance, H
- L_{fb} length of feedback tube, m
- L_{REG} length of regenerator, m
- M moving mass, kg
- p_1 complex pressure amplitude, Pa
- p_m mean pressure, Pa
- Pr Prandtl number

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- \dot{q} heat flux per unit length, W/m
- Q_c cooling power, W
- Q_h heating power, W
- r_e winding resistance, Ω
- R_l load resistance, Ω
- R_m mechanical resistance, N·s/m
- T_a ambient temperature, K
- T_c cooling temperature, K
- T_h heating temperature, K
- T_m mean temperature, K
- U_1 complex volume flow rate amplitude, m³/s
- V_b back volume of linear alternator, m³
- W_a acoustic power, W
- W_e electric power, W
- x axial coordinate, m
- X_1 piston displacement amplitude, m
- \dot{X}_2 exergy flow, W

	Greek letters		
11	γ	specific heat ratio	
	$\eta_{exe,acoustic}$	exergy efficiency of acoustic power	
	$\eta_{exe,electric}$	exergy efficiency of electric power	
	η_{LA}	efficiency of linear alternator	
	θ	phase difference, rad	
	$ ho_m$	mean density, kg/m^3	
	ω	angular frequency, rad/s	
	Special symbol		
12	i	notation for a imaginary value	
	$\operatorname{Im}[]$	imaginary part of a complex value	
	$\operatorname{Re}[]$	real part of a complex value	
		amplitude of a complex value	
	\sim	conjugate complex	
	Abbreviations		
13	AHX	ambient heat exchanger	
	CHX	cold heat exchanger	
	CTBT	cold thermal buffer tube	
	HHX	hot heat exchanger	
	HTBT	hot thermal buffer tube	
	LNG	liquefied natural gas	

14 **1. Introduction**

Natural gas is becoming an increasingly important source of energy. About one third of natural gas is traded in the form of liquefied natural gas (LNG) [1], which should be regasificated before further use as the fuel for power generations. Abundant cold energy is generated during the regasification process, while it is typically taken away by seawater in the current industries. Various energy conversion systems have been proposed to recover the LNG cold energy in recent years, such as Rankine cycle, Brayton cycle and combined cycle, etc [2–7].

Stirling cycle heat engines operate with a closed thermodynamic cycle that has the 22 same theoretical efficiency of a Carnot cycle if an ideal regenerator is used [8]. Applying 23 Stirling cycle heat engines for recovering LNG cold energy may provide a good 24 perspective for improving the energy efficiencies for power generation systems [9]. 25 Oshima et al. [10] made a conceptual design of a regasification system for liquid hydrogen 26 or LNG. A cryogenic-type Stirling engine operating between room temperature and the 27 temperature of liquid hydrogen or LNG was proposed to generate electricity from the 28 cold energy. Their results indicated that the Stirling power generation system for cold 29 energy recovery was economically viable. Dong et al. [11] discussed the Stirling cycle for 30 power generation from LNG cold energy. The thermodynamic process and the 31 parameters of the power cycle were analyzed. Szczygieł et al. [12] conducted 32 thermodynamic analyses of a Stirling engine driven by the cold energy of LNG. The 33 effects of the heat transfer temperature, compression ratio and dead volumes ratios on 34 the thermodynamic performance were theoretically investigated. Except for the above 35 conceptual designs and theoretical analyses, several small-scale experimental prototype 36 Stirling engines driven by cold energy were also tested [13, 14]. The generated powers 37 were at the levels of hundreds watts. The drawbacks of the traditional Stirling engines for 38 cold energy utilizations lie in the complicated mechanical moving components at 39 non-ambient temperatures, which introduces great challenges for lubrication and seals, 40 causing instabilities for long-term operations. 41

Thermoacoustic Stirling engine is a special variant of Stirling engines, which has 42 drawn worldwide interest from both academic and industrial fields in recent years 43 [8, 15–18]. It uses acoustic tubes rather than mechanical pistons to maintain the proper 44 working conditions for the Stirling cycle, resulting in higher reliability, simpler structures 45 and lower costs compared to traditional Stirling engines. One of the promising 46 applications of the thermoacoustic Stirling engine is to generate electricity by coupling 47 acoustic-electric convertors with it. The first thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator 48 was built by Backhaus et al. [19] in 2004, which supplied an electric power of 58 W with 49 a thermal-to-electric efficiency of 15% at the heating temperature of 650 °C. A small 50 thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator with a similar power scale was later developed 51 by Sunpower Inc. [20] by modifying a free-piston Stirling engine. Recently, Wang et al. 52 [21] also developed a small thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator capable of 53

generating 73.31 W. A series of studies were conducted on larger thermoacoustic Stirling 54 electric generators [22–24]. The obtained electric power reached several kilowatts with the 55 highest thermal-to-electric efficiency of about 20% recently. Sun et al. [25] and Wang et 56 [26–28] investigated the output characteristics and coupling mechanisms of al. 57 thermoacoustic Stirling electric generators. The impedance matching between the engine 58 and the linear alternators was found to be critical to the performance. Maximum electric 59 power of about 750 W and a highest thermal-to-electric efficiency of about 16% were 60 reported on an acoustically matched system. A number of thermoacoustic electric 61 generators using low-cost loudspeakers as alternators were built by several other groups 62 and the generated electric powers were within 200 W with efficiencies lower than 5%63 [29, 30].64

All of the above thermoacoustic Stirling electric generators were designed for power 65 generations from high temperature heat sources, i.e. about 400 °C-700 °C. In fact, 66 thermoacoustic Stirling systems are also able to generate useful work at lower 67 temperature ranges. Several thermoacoustic Stirling engines have been successfully 68 developed for generating electricity or cooling power from a low-grade heat at around 100 69 $^{\circ}$ C-300 $^{\circ}$ C recently [31–35]. Among the low-grade heat conversion technologies, organic 70 Rankine cycle systems have been most extensively studied and successfully implemented 71 with powers up to megawatts [36-38]. They have superior efficiencies compared to other 72 technologies for low-grade heat and the ability for scaling up for industrial applications. 73 They require many engineering efforts for the complicated precision moving parts, and 74 therefore are expensive. On the contrary, a recently proposed two-phase thermofluidic 75 oscillator requires little engineering and has few moving parts [39–42]. They have low 76 capital, maintenance and operating costs, however, suffer from low efficiencies. Compared 77 to these technologies, thermoacoustic systems have moderate efficiencies while having the 78 merits of lacking precision mechanical moving components at high temperatures (pistons, 79 turbines, valves, etc.) and the use of inertia working fluids (helium, nitrogen, argon, etc.). 80 They may be a reliable and cost-effective alternative technology for small-scale, 81 distributed applications where the power is at a level of kilowatts. 82

In addition to high-temperature operations, it is also possible to run a thermoacoustic 83 engine at cryogenic temperatures. For example, a type of thermoacoustic oscillation 84 phenomenon, namely Taconis oscillation, occurs when a transfer line for cryogenic liquid 85 has a large temperature gradient between the ambient and cryogenic temperatures 86 [43, 44]. Wang et al. [45] and Qiu et al. [46] have also experimentally demonstrated that 87 a thermoacoustic engine can be driven by the cold energy of liquid nitrogen. Absent of 88 moving components at cryogenic temperatures are particularly attractive since the 89 cryogenic facilities are always challenge and expensive. Therefore, thermoacoustic 90 systems are capable of full-temperature-range operations for energy conversions. 91

In gas turbine power stations with LNG as the fuel, aside from the cold energy from the regasification process of LNG, abundant low-temperature waste heat is also available from the exhaust gas of gas turbines. Applying thermoacoustic Stirling engines for

recovering LNG cold energy and the waste heat may provide a simply, reliable and 95 efficient solution to improve the overall energy efficiency of the LNG power generation 96 In this study, a thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator is presented for system. 97 simultaneously recovering LNG cold energy and low-temperature waste heat for 98 small-scale LNG power generation systems. Different from the configurations of the 99 previous thermoacoustic Stirling electric generators, the long and bulky resonator is 100 completely replaced by a pair of commercial linear alternators in the proposed system. 101 To assess the performances and provide guidance for future designs, numerical analyses 102 based on the linear thermoacoustic theory are conducted. The effects of key parameters 103 on the performances are numerically investigated. The output characteristics of the 104 thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator are finally studied. 105

106 2. System configuration

Fig. 1 illustrates the schematics of the thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator for 107 recovering LNG cold energy and low-temperature exhaust heat. It mainly consists of a 108 thermoacoustic loop and a pair of linear alternators. In a traditional thermoacoustic 109 Stirling engine, a long and bulky resonator is typically used to couple with the loop. 110 Acoustic loads, such as linear alternators or thermoacoustic refrigerators, are usually 111 connected at the junction between the loop and the resonator [27, 28]. In the present 112 design, the resonator is completely replaced by the linear alternators, which eliminates 113 the large acoustic losses in the resonator and makes the whole system more compact. 114 Compared to traditional Stirling engines, the thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator 115 has no mechanical moving components at either cryogenic temperature or high 116 temperature, which makes the system much more reliable. The thermoacoustic loop is 117 mainly composed of a feedback tube, a regenerator, two thermal buffer tubes and four 118 heat exchangers. The LNG cold energy and the low-temperature heat are added at the 119 cold heat exchanger (CHX) and the hot heat exchanger (HHX), respectively. The 120 established temperature gradient along the regenerator enables the working gas in the 121 thermoacoustic system to oscillate spontaneously, converting the thermal energies into 122 Since CHX and HHX are both at 123 acoustic power to drive the linear alternators. non-ambient temperatures, a cold thermal buffer buffer (CTBT) and a hot thermal buffer 124 tube (HTBT) are adopted to isolate them from the other components located at the 125 ambient temperature. At the ambient-temperature ends of CTBT and HTBT, ambient 126 heat exchangers (1AHX, 2AHX) are used. In order to block the harmful acoustic 127 streaming around the thermoacoustic loop, an elastic membrane (not shown in Fig. 1) is 128 installed on the top of 1AHX. The main geometric dimensions of the thermoacoustic loop 129 are listed in Table 1. The linear alternators, just like the resonator in a traditional 130 thermoacoustic engine, should be able to provide enough swept volume flow at the typical 131 working frequencies of around 50-80 Hz in order to successfully couple with the loop. A 132 pair of commercial Qdrive 2s297 linear alternators, which meet the above requirements, 133

Table 1: Main geometric dimensions of the thermoacoustic loop.

Component	Length (mm)	Diameter (mm)	Notes
1AHX	20	100	porosity: 0.3
CTBT	50	100	
CHX	50	100	porosity: 0.3
Regenerator	Variable	100	porosity: 0.74, 120# stainless steel screen mesh
HHX	100	100	porosity: 0.4
HTBT	270	100	
2AHX	20	100	porosity: 0.3
Feedback tube	Variable	100	

are therefore adopted. The parameters of each alternator are given in Table 2. The coils
of the linear alternators are connected in series with a variable electric resistance to
extract the electric power.



Fig. 1: Schematics of thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator for recovering LNG cold energy and low-temperature waste heat: (a) 2D sketch; (b) 3D drawing.

137 3. Simulation model

Numerical simulation has been conducted using DeltaEC [47], which is a thermoacoustic simulation platform based on the linear thermoacoustic theory [48]. It has many built-in physical modules for different thermoacoustic components such as ducts, regenerators, heat exchangers and linear alternators, and so on. The physical modules can be arranged and connected in the DeltaEC platform according to the geometric

Table 2: Parameters of the linear alternators (each unit).

Parameter	Value
Winding resistance r_e , Ω	0.5
Winding inductance L_e , mH	12.5
Force factor Bl , N/A	48
Moving mass M , kg	9.307
Spring stiffness K , kN/m	165
Mechanical resistance R_m , N·s/m	50
Piston diameter D, mm	223.3

configuration of the simulated system. The parameters of pressure, volume flow rate, 143 temperature, power, and the others are then numerically calculated after specifying the 144 initial and boundary conditions. DeltaEC has now been widely used for predicting the 145 performances and characteristics of various thermoacoustic systems [29–32, 49–52]. 146 Previous experimental validations of the DeltaEC model for a thermoacoustic Stirling 147 electric generator showed that reasonable accuracies were achieved [26–28]. For example, 148 the relative deviations between simulations and experiments for the electric power 149 typically ranged from 5% to 15% for a thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator with a 150 resonator in Ref. [28]. In Yu et al.'s work about a looped thermoacoustic electric 151 generator [29], the relative deviations were typically in the range of 15%-25%. In the 152 three-stage looped thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator by Bi et al. [24], they were 153 about 30%-55%. The deviations for the thermal-to-electric efficiency were typically 154 around 5% and 8% in Refs. [24] and [28], respectively. The magnitudes of the deviations 155 were influenced by the quality of the developed models and the complexity of the systems. 156 The uncertainties in the present model, which may cause errors of the analyses, result 157 from possibly underestimated or ignored losses from turbulence flow, nonlinear acoustic 158 oscillations, multi-dimensional effects, minor pressure drop, the elastic membrane, heat 159 transfer in the heat exchangers and the regenerator, and so on. Nevertheless, all of the 160 aforementioned work showed that the variation trends of key parameters were well 161 validated, indicating that it is reasonable to identify the critical parameters and provide 162 guidance for future studies on a novel thermoacoustic system based on DeltaEC. 163

The basic governing equations for the momentum, continuity, and energy in linear thermoacoustic theory are written as follows [48],

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}p_1}{\mathrm{d}x} = -\frac{\mathrm{i}\omega\rho_m}{\left(1 - f_\nu\right)A}U_1\tag{1}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}U_1}{\mathrm{d}x} = -\frac{\mathrm{i}\omega A}{\gamma p_m} \left[1 + (\gamma - 1)f_\kappa\right] p_1 + \frac{f_\kappa - f_\nu}{(1 - f_\nu)(1 - \mathrm{Pr})} \frac{U_1}{T_m} \frac{\mathrm{d}T_m}{\mathrm{d}x} \tag{2}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\dot{H}_2}{\mathrm{d}x} = \dot{q} \tag{3}$$

166 where

$$\dot{H}_{2} = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Re} \left[p_{1} \tilde{U}_{1} \left(1 - \frac{f_{\kappa} - \tilde{f}_{\nu}}{(1 + \operatorname{Pr}) \left(1 - \tilde{f}_{\nu} \right)} \right) \right] + \frac{\rho_{m} c_{p} |U_{1}|^{2}}{2A\omega \left(1 - \operatorname{Pr}^{2} \right) |1 - f_{\nu}|^{2}} \operatorname{Im} \left(f_{\kappa} + \operatorname{Pr} \tilde{f}_{\nu} \right) \frac{\mathrm{d}T_{m}}{\mathrm{d}x} - \left(Ak + A_{s} k_{s} \right) \frac{\mathrm{d}T_{m}}{\mathrm{d}x}$$

$$(4)$$

¹⁶⁷ The governing equations for a linear alternator are listed as follows,

$$Bl \cdot \frac{U_1}{A} = I_1 \left(R_l + r_e + i\omega L_e \right) \tag{5}$$

$$p_1 A = Bl \cdot I_1 + \left(i\omega M + R_m - i\frac{K}{\omega} - i\frac{\gamma p_m A^2}{\omega V_b}\right) \frac{U_1}{A}$$
(6)

¹⁶⁸ The IESPEAKER module is used for the linear alternators in the DeltaEC model.

The exergy flow, X_2 , is calculated by,

$$\dot{X}_{2} = \frac{T_{a}}{T_{m}} \frac{1}{2} |p_{1}|| U_{1} |\cos\theta + \left(1 - \frac{T_{a}}{T_{m}}\right) \dot{H}_{2}$$
(7)

where θ is the phase difference between p_1 and U_1 .

The acoustic power, W_a , is defined as,

$$W_a = \frac{1}{2}|p_1||U_1|\cos\theta \tag{8}$$

The output electric power, W_e , is calculated based on the Joule heating power of the load resistance.

$$W_e = \frac{1}{2} |I_1|^2 R_l \tag{9}$$

It should be noted that the electric current, I_1 , is the value when the two linear alternators are connected in series with a load resistance, R_l .

As both cold energy and low-temperature heat are utilized simultaneously in the presented system, the exergy efficiency is more appropriate for evaluating the system efficiency. The exergy efficiency corresponded to the output electric power, $\eta_{exe,electric}$, is calculated by,

$$\eta_{exe,electric} = \frac{W_e}{Q_h \left(1 - \frac{T_a}{T_h}\right) + Q_c \left(\frac{T_a}{T_c} - 1\right)} \tag{10}$$

where Q_h and Q_c are the heating and cooling powers at HHX and CHX, respectively; T_h and T_c are the temperatures of HHX and CHX, respectively. The exergy efficiency corresponded to the extracted acoustic power into the linear alternators from the thermoacoustic loop, $\eta_{exe,acoustic}$, is defined by,

$$\eta_{exe,acoustic} = \frac{W_a}{Q_h \left(1 - \frac{T_a}{T_h}\right) + Q_c \left(\frac{T_a}{T_c} - 1\right)}$$
(11)

The efficiency of the linear alternators, η_{LA} , is calculated using,

$$\eta_{LA} = \frac{\eta_{exe,electric}}{\eta_{exe,acoustic}} = \frac{W_e}{W_a} \tag{12}$$

The presented thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator is intended for recovering the 185 cold energy of LNG and the low-temperature waste heat from the exhaust gas of a gas 186 turbine. In the numerical simulations, the solid temperatures of CHX, HHX, AHXs are 187 fixed at 110 K, 500 K and 300 K, respectively. High pressure helium gas is used as the 188 working fluid. The diameter of the thermoacoustic loop is designed uniformly as 100 189 mm throughout the thermoacoustic loop to minimize the pressure losses related to cross-190 sectional area changes. In a practical system, the acoustic streaming around the loop is 191 totally blocked by using an elastic membrane. Therefore, it's not necessary to include 192 the acoustic streaming in the model. For simplicity, the loss caused by membrane is 193 ignored here. In the following sections, the effects of the key parameters, including the 194 back volume of linear alternators, feedback tube length and regenerator length, on the 195 operations of the system are investigated. The parametric analyses are conducted in a step-196 by-step way while considering the parametric interactions and practical restrictions. The 197 distributions of pressure, volume flow and acoustic power, and the output characteristics 198 are then analyzed. 199

200 4. Results and discussion

201 4.1. Effect of back volume

In a traditional thermoacoustic Stirling engine, the long resonator serves as an acoustic 202 inertance, coupling with the loop which behaves as an acoustic compliance. In other words, 203 the resonator is more or less like a moving mass while the loop is similar to a spring. The 204 resonance between the resonator and the loop creates the required acoustic field for the 205 acoustic oscillations and the energy conversions. In the thermoacoustic Stirling electric 206 generator proposed in this study, a pair of linear alternators is coupled with the loop 207 directly. The required acoustic inertance to match the loop is all supplied from the linear 208 alternators. In order to be in the inertance state, the resonant frequency of the linear 209 alternators should be lower than the resulting working frequency of the coupled system. 210 The resonant frequency is mainly determined by the moving mass M, spring stiffness 211 K, and back volume V_b , with the relation of $f = \sqrt{(K + \gamma p_m A^2/V_b)/M/(2\pi)}$. For the 212 adopted linear alternators, the resonant frequency ranges from 44.3 Hz to 54.5 Hz at 3-5 213

MPa with the standard back volume of 13.78 L. Since the gas spring is comparable with the
mechanical spring in the adopted linear alternators, the resonant frequency can be largely
reduced by increasing the back volume. For example, if the back volume is increased to 80
L, the resonant frequency can be reduced to only around 26.6-29.7 Hz.



Fig. 2: Effect of back volume V_b on (a) electric power W_e ; and (b) exergy efficiency of electric power $\eta_{exe, electric}$.

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Fig. 2 shows the effects of the back volume on the electric power and the corresponding exergy efficiency at different feedback tube lengths when the regenerator length is 60 mm. It indicates that both the electric power and the exergy efficiency can be largely increased when the back volume is increased from the standard value to 110 L for any feedback tube length. The influence of the back volume on the performances at larger volumes are relatively weaker compared to those at smaller ones. Besides, it also demonstrates that

the feedback tube length has great effects on the performance of the system, and should 224 be optimized. When the feedback tube length is 2 m, the maximum output electric power 225 and the corresponding exergy efficiency reach 2.8 kW and 0.246 respectively with the back 226 volume of 110 L. The same conclusions about the effects of back volume and feedback 227 tube length can be drawn for other regenerator lengths. For simplicity, only the results 228 for the length of 60 mm are shown here. The corresponding displacements of the linear 229 alternators are shown in Fig. 3. The displacement increases with the load resistance for 230 all the feedback tube lengths and back volumes. However, the linear alternators has to be 231 operated within the displacement limit of 13 mm, as denoted by the horizontal dash line 232 in Fig. 3. Therefore, the load resistance should be carefully adjusted to ensure that the 233 displacements are within the safe range. As shown in Figs. 2 and 3, the electric power 234 reaches the maximum value at the displacement of 13 mm when taking the displacement 235 limitation into consideration.



Fig. 3: Effect of back volume V_b on the displacement of linear alternators.

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237 4.2. Effect of feedback tube length

The length of the feedback tube affects the distribution of the acoustic field as well as the phase relation in the regenerator. It is therefore critical for the energy conversion and the dissipations in the thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator. Fig. 4 illustrates the effects of the feedback tube length on the electric power and the exergy efficiency at different back volumes. In the simulations, in order to get the full output capability, the displacement is fixed at the value of 13 mm by adjusting the load resistance, as analyzed in the above section.

It is shown that the feedback tube length has different optimal values for the electric power and the exergy efficiency. The optimal length for the exergy efficiency is slightly lower than that for the electric power. For example, when the back volume is 80 L, the optimal lengths for the electric power and exergy efficiency are 1.73 m and 1.54 m, respectively. The optimal feedback tube lengths are almost the same for different back volumes, showing the weak effects of the back volume on the optimal values. Similar trends are also found for other regenerator lengths.



Fig. 4: Effect of feedback tube length L_{fb} on (a) electric power W_e ; and (b) exergy efficiency of electric power $\eta_{exe,electric}$.

252 4.3. Effect of regenerator length

The thermoacoustic energy conversion in the thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator is closely related to the temperature gradient along the regenerator, as indicated mathematically by the temperature gradient terms in Eqs. (2) and (4). As the

working temperatures are fixed at 110 K and 500 K, the temperature gradient of the 256 regenerator is determined by the length of the regenerator. As analyzed in Section 4.1, it 257 is beneficial to have a large back volume. The back volume is chosen as 80 L in the 258 following simulations by making a compromise between the performance and the 259 compactness. Optimal exergy efficiency and electric power are obtained by optimizing the 260 feedback tube lengths while fixing the displacement at 13 mm, as analyzed in Section 4.2. 261 The displacement target is reached by adjusting the load resistance accordingly. Fig. 5 262 shows the optimized exergy efficiency, $\eta_{exe,electric}$, and the corresponding electric power at 263 different regenerator lengths and mean pressures. The output electric power increases 264 when decreasing the regenerator length due to the enlarged temperature gradient. The



Fig. 5: Effect of regenerator length L_{REG} on (a) electric power W_e ; and (b) exergy efficiency of electric power $\eta_{exe,electric}$.

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regenerator length should be optimized to get the optimal $\eta_{exe,electric}$. It is beneficial for the output electric power if the mean pressure is increased, while it is basically harmful for $\eta_{exe,electric}$. When the regenerator length is 60 mm with the mean pressure of 3 MPa, the calculated electric power and exergy efficiency are 1.64 kW and 0.254, respectively. When the mean pressure is increased to 5 MPa, the electric power is increased to 3.39 kW, while the exergy efficiency has a slight decrease reaching 0.22.



Fig. 6: Effect of regenerator length L_{REG} on (a) output acoustic power W_a ; and (b) exergy efficiency of acoustic power $\eta_{exe,acoustic}$.

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Fig. 6 illustrates the acoustic power extracted by the linear alternators and the corresponding exergy efficiency, $\eta_{exe,acoustic}$. The acoustic power has similar trends as the electric power. $\eta_{exe,acoustic}$ increases with the regenerator length at the range of interest, and reaches the maximum values at 120 mm. The highest $\eta_{exe,acoustic}$ reaches more than 276 0.46, showing the good acoustic matching between the thermoacoustic loop and the linear 277 alternators. The obtained $\eta_{exe,acoustic}$ is much higher than $\eta_{exe,electric}$. The reason is that 278 the conversion efficiency of the linear alternators is relatively low mainly due to the large 279 mechanical resistance, as shown in Fig. 7. The highest efficiency of the linear alternators 280 is less than 0.65, and is largely degraded when increasing the regenerator length. If the 281 efficiency of the linear alternators is improved to 0.75, $\eta_{exe,electric}$ is able to reach more 282 than 0.31 at the regenerator length of 60 mm.



Fig. 7: Effect of regenerator length L_{REG} on efficiency of linear alternators η_{LA} .

The required load resistance and feedback tube length to achieve the optimal $\eta_{exe,electric}$ 283 are given in Fig. 8. The thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator requires larger load 284 resistance to reach the displacement of 13 mm with a longer regenerator. The required load 285 resistance ranges from about 30 Ω to 80 Ω , with smaller values at higher mean pressures. 286 The optimal feedback tube length also increases with the regenerator length. The feedback 287 tube length decreases with the mean pressure for a given regenerator length, resulting in 288 higher working frequencies. The working frequency is at the ranges of 68.2-58.4 Hz for 5 289 MPa, 61.4-52.5 Hz for 4 MPa, and 53.6-45.6 Hz for 3 MPa respectively when increasing 290 the regenerator length from 30 mm to 120 mm. 291

292 4.4. Distributions of key parameters

The distributions of the key parameters along the thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator, including the pressure amplitude, volume flow rate, phase difference, acoustic power and exergy flow, are further investigated to reveal the working characteristics. Fig. 9 shows the distributions of pressure amplitude and volume flow rate when the regenerator length is 70 mm. The mean pressure is set as 4 MPa in the simulation. The feedback tube and the load resistance are optimized to be 1.46 m and 38.6 Ω respectively,

as demonstrated in Fig. 8. The working frequency is 56.4 Hz with the given dimensions. 299 The coordinator in Fig. 9 starts from the position O above 1AHX to the tee junction 300 denoted by A, and then back to the position O through the feedback tube, as displayed in 301 Fig. 1(a). The total length of the thermoacoustic loop is 2.12 m. As shown in Fig. 9, the 302 position for the regenerator is highlighted by the gray shadow. The pressure amplitude in 303 the loop ranges from about 0.319 MPa to 0.372 MPa. It has a sharp decrease from 0.372304 MPa to 0.328 MPa through the regenerator due to the high viscous resistance. The 305 pressure amplitude reaches the minimum of 0.319 MPa at the tee junction where the 306 linear alternators are connected. With the effect of the acoustic transferring of the 307 feedback tube, the pressure amplitude is then reversed back up to near 0.37 MPa to



Fig. 8: (a) Optimized load resistance R_l and (b) feedback tube length L_{fb} corresponding to the optimal exergy efficiencies $\eta_{exe,electric}$.

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match the acoustic field above 1AHX. The volume flow rate is maintained at a relatively 309 low value of less than $0.05 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ at the regenerator. The achieved low volume flow rate 310 through the regenerator is critical for the high performance of a thermoacoustic Stirling 311 system, since the viscous loss in the regenerator is positively related to the volume flow. 312 The volume flow is branched into three distributaries at the tee junction. The volume flow 313 to the linear alternators is denoted by C. The volume flows into the feedback tube and the 314 energy conversion portion are indicated by B and A, respectively. It indicates that the sum 315 of the volume flows from the loop equals to the one into the linear alternators. Therefore, 316 a large swept volume of the pistons is required for the linear alternators to match the 317 thermoacoustic loop. 318



Fig. 9: Distribution of pressure amplitude and volume flow rate along the thermoacoustic loop.

The distributions of the phase difference and the energy flows along the 319 thermoacoustic loop can be seen in Fig. 10. The phase difference ranges from -11.2° to 320 25.3° from the cold to hot ends. Zero phase difference, i.e. traveling-wave phase, is thus 321 obtained somewhere in the regenerator, which is a good acoustic condition for the Stirling 322 cycle energy conversion. As indicated by C, the phase difference at the tee junction for 323 connecting the linear alternators is 85.5° , which is near a standing-wave phase. This is 324 similar to the acoustic field achieved in the thermoacoustic Stirling engines with long 325 acoustic resonators. The near standing-wave phase results in the requirement of a large 326 volume flow rate for the linear alternators, as analyzed in Fig. 9. A phase reversal 327 changing from a positive value to a negative one occurs at the tee junction. This is 328 because the tee junction is a pressure node and a volume flow antinode. The phase 329 difference along the feedback tube is mainly close to -90° , with a rapid increase to about 330 -48° at the end near 1AHX. 331

The distribution of the acoustic power clearly shows that it is remarkably amplified by the regenerator. The acoustic power of 2.2 kW flows into the cold end of the regenerator



Fig. 10: Distribution of phase difference, acoustic power and exergy flow along the thermoacoustic loop.

and is then amplified to 6.6 kW at the hot end. A large portion of the amplified acoustic 334 power flows into the linear alternators and the rest feeds back into the regenerator through 335 the feedback tube. The large drop of the acoustic power at the tee junction shown in Fig. 10 336 represents the acoustic power absorbed by the linear alternators, i.e. 3.9 kW, corresponding 337 to 89% of the total generated net acoustic power by the regenerator. By comparison, the 338 power delivered to linear alternators was only about 40% of the total generated acoustic 339 power, while near 35% was dissipated in the resonator in the traditional thermoacoustic 340 Stirling electric generator developed by Wang et al. [27]. 341

The distribution of the exergy flow shows that the exergy is increased in both CHX and HHX due to the added cryogenic exergy of LNG and the exergy of the low-temperarature waste heat, respectively. This is quite different from a thermoacoustic Stirling engine operating between the room temperature and a high temperature, where the exergy flow is only increased at HHX.

347 4.5. Output characteristics

The output characteristics of the thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator are further 348 analyzed. The geometric and operating parameters are the same as those presented in 349 Section 4.4. Fig. 11 presents the dependencies of the displacement and the working 350 frequency of the system on the load resistance. Similar to the trends in Fig. 3, the 351 displacement increases with the load resistance, and reaches the limit of 13 mm at 38.6 Ω . 352 Therefore, the load resistance should be adjusted within 38.6 Ω for the safety concerns. 353 The curve for the working frequency shows that the system operates almost constantly 354 around 56-57 Hz, which is close to the nominal operating frequency for the linear 355 alternators. 356



Fig. 11: Displacement and frequency versus load resistance R_l .

The output performances of the thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator with respect 357 to the load resistance are given in Fig. 12. Both the output electric power and acoustic 358 power increase with the load resistance. Considering the limits of the displacement, the 359 adjusting range should be lower than 38.6 Ω , as indicated by the shadow area in Fig. 12. 360 The maximum electric power and acoustic power are 2.3 kW and 3.78 kW, respectively. 361 The exergy efficiencies corresponding to the electric and acoustic powers show that both 362 of them have optimal values. $\eta_{exe,electric}$ reaches the maximum of 0.253 at 30 Ω . The 363 efficiency of the linear alternators demonstrates that it ranges from 0.73 to 0.59 at the 364 operating range, with larger values at lower load resistances. 365



Fig. 12: Output acoustic power W_a , electric power W_e and exergy efficiencies $\eta_{exe,acoustic}$, $\eta_{exe,electric}$ versus load resistance R_l .

The dependencies of the performances on the mean pressure with the displacement at 366 its full load are illustrated in Fig. 13. It shows that the acoustic power and the electric 367 power are both linearly proportional to the mean pressure. When the mean pressure is 368 5 MPa, the electric power can be increased to more than 3 kW. The obtained $\eta_{exe,electric}$ 369 firstly increases, and then decreases slightly with the mean pressure. $\eta_{exe,acoustic}$, is at 370 the range of 0.41-0.48 when the mean pressure is less than 4 MPa, showing the good 371 energy conversion efficiency of the thermoacoustic engine. The large deviations between 372 the two exergy efficiencies, $\eta_{exe,electric}$ and $\eta_{exe,acoustic}$, are resulted from the low conversion 373 efficiency of the adopted linear alternators since they are originally designed as compressors 374 for cryocoolers. The conversion efficiency of linear alternators can be up to 0.90 provided 375 that they are specifically designed for power generation. In this case, the exergy efficiency of 376 electric power $\eta_{exe,electric}$ of the thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator can be increased 377 to be near 0.40. 378



Fig. 13: Output acoustic power W_a , electric power W_e and exergy efficiencies $\eta_{exe,acoustic}$, $\eta_{exe,electric}$ versus mean pressure p_m .

379 4.6. Comparisons with similar technologies

Compared to traditional thermoacoustic Stirling engines, the proposed thermoacoustic 380 electric generator is much more compact since the long bulky resonator is eliminated. For 381 example, the dimensions of the 1 kW scale traditional thermoacoustic Stirling electric 382 generators developed by Wu et al. [22] and Wang et al. [28] were both about 5 m \times 1 m \times 1 383 m (length×width×height), while it is only about $1 \text{ m} \times 1.5 \text{ m} \times 1$ m for the 2-3 kW system in 384 this work. In the aspect of exergy efficiency, the traditional thermoacoustic Stirling electric 385 generators reached 0.20-0.30 at the heating temperatures of around 650 °C [22, 27]. No 386 work has ever been done on thermoacoustic Stirling electric generators for simultaneously 387 recovering cryogenic cold energy and low-grade heat before. For a fair comparison, when a 388

traditional thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator with a resonator is designed for the same application purpose as that in this study, the predicted exergy efficiency is only 0.17 for the output power of 2 kW based on the similar model, which is much lower than that of the proposed system as analyzed before. This is reasonable, since the resonator dissipates a large portion of the generated acoustic power.

Many large-scale thermodynamic cycles were previously proposed for recovering relative 394 low-temperature waste heat and LNG cold energy. Most of them are based on Rankine 395 cycle or combined cycle, which are usually targeting for providing powers up to megawatts. 396 However, there are also abundant waste heat and cold energy distributed in much smaller 397 scales. The proposed thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator is orientated for these 398 small-scale or portable applications. Compared to the large-scale thermodynamic cycles, 399 the thermoacoustic system is still competitive in the aspect of efficiency. For example, a 400 combined Rankine cycle using LNG cold energy and a heat source at 200 °C reached an 401 exergy of 0.25 [2]. Another combined cycle utilizing LNG and solar energy had an exergy of 402 about 0.23 with the temperature of the collector at 44 $^{\circ}C$ [36]. Mosaffa et al. showed that 403 a combined organic Rankine cycle for geothermal heat and LNG cold energy had an exergy 404 efficiency of 0.35 at the temperature of 175 °C [37]. In addition to its competitive energy 405 conversion efficiency, the absence of non-ambient temperature moving components and 406 the use of non-corrosive environmentally friendly working fluids make the thermoacoustic 407 Stirling electric generator very reliable and cost-effective for small-scale energy utilization 408 applications. 409

410 5. Conclusions

A thermoacoustic Stirling electric generator was proposed for dual-utilizations of LNG 411 cold energy and low-grade waste heat in this work. The system was designed with a 412 compact configuration that the thermoacoustic loop was directly coupled with a pair of 413 linear alternators, totally eliminating the long and bulky resonator in traditional systems. 414 Simulations using DeltaEC software were then conducted to characterize the operations 415 of the system working between 110 K and 500 K. The back volume of the linear 416 alternators and the feedback tube length were critical to the output performances. 417 Increasing the back volume from the standard value of 13.78 L to 80 L was beneficial for 418 both the electric power and the exergy efficiency. The feedback tube length had a great 419 effect on the performances and was optimized. With the regenerator length of 70 mm and 420 the feedback tube length of 1.46 m, the distribution of the acoustic field showed that zero 421 phase difference between pressure and volume flow was achieved in the regenerator. 422 Analysis of the exergy flow indicated that both the cryogenic exergy of LNG and the 423 exergy from low-grade heat were the driving sources for the thermoacoustic Stirling 424 system. The optimized system was able to reach an output electric power of 2.3 kW with 425 the highest exergy efficiency of 0.253 at 4 MPa helium gas. The electric power can be 426 further increased to more than 3 kW by increasing the mean pressure to 5 MPa. This 427

work provides constructive guidelines for designing such thermoacoustic Stirling electric generators. In the near future, an experimental setup for recovering LNG cold energy and exhaust heat from a gas turbine will be built to verify the concept and the predictions.

431 6. Acknowledgments

The work was funded under the Energy Innovation Research Programme (EIRP, Award No. NRF2013EWT-EIRP001-017), administrated by the Energy Market Authority (EMA). EIRP is a competitive grant call initiative driven by the Energy Innovation Programme Office, and funded by the National Research Foundation (NRF).

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