

Efficiency of Thermally Assisted Capacitive Mixing and Deionization Systems

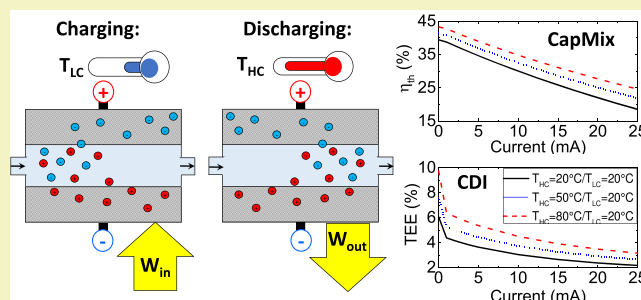
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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: The temperature of an input solution to an environmental technology can vary greatly depending on numerous industrial and environmental factors. For capacitive mixing (CapMix) and deionization (CDI) based technologies which rely on charge storage within an electric double layer (EDL), this temperature dependence affects energy output and energy consumption. Yet, how temperature-dependent EDL properties impact the thermodynamic efficiency for energy conversion and ion separations is less known. Here, we evaluate how isothermal, nonisothermal and variable temperature profiles impact the thermodynamic efficiency of CDI and CapMix cycles operated under both reversible and irreversible (current dependent) conditions. For CapMix ($C_{HC} = 600$ mM, $C_{LC} = 20$ mM, $\phi = 50\%$), reversible system operation resulted in an optimal efficiency of 43% when $T_{HC} \neq T_{LC}$. For CDI ($C_{feed} = 20$ mM, $C_{dilute} = 5$ mM, $\alpha = 50\%$), optimal thermodynamic efficiencies are attained through the use of nonisothermal ($T_{feed} \neq T_{brine}$) or variable temperature operation, and approached 10%. The introduction of current (25 mA) based irreversibilities, however, reduces the maximum attainable CapMix and CDI thermodynamic efficiency to 25% and 3.2% (25 mA).

KEYWORDS: Capacitive deionization, Capacitive mixing, Electric double layer, Thermodynamic efficiency



INTRODUCTION

Capacitive mixing (CapMix) is a technology which generates energy through controlling spontaneous ionic mixing between two solutions (sea and river water). Conversely, capacitive deionization (CDI) is a technology which consumes energy in order to separate ionic species in a feed stream into two streams (dilute and brine/concentration). Both technologies are electrochemical in nature, and use highly porous supercapacitor based electrodes to generate energy or desalinate water. Thus, optimized ion structuring within the electric double layer (EDL) of a supercapacitor is essential for effective desalination from CDI and energy production from CapMix.^{1–5} Extensive investigations have aimed to describe EDL phenomena (desolvation, screening, ion packing) responsible for improving charge storage based processes (electroadsorption/desorption) through theory and experiments.^{6–8} Despite these extensive investigations, much of the current focus on charge storage within the EDLs is limited by the assumption that charge storage occurs isothermally.

It is well-known that numerous factors contribute to thermal fluctuations which produce nonisothermal operations. This in turn alters the ion structuring and by extension charge storage dynamics within the EDL.^{9,10} Thus, the temperature of a CapMix and CDI cell impacts the system performance (energy consumption, energy generation, thermodynamic efficiency). Within energy storage, thermal properties have been intensely

investigated due to the role joule heating plays in materials aging.^{11–16} Additionally, thermal energy harvesting from EDL capacitors has been suggested through leveraging the thermogalvanic effect.^{17,18} The thermogalvanic effect within CapMix systems has been experimentally and theoretically investigated, with performance increasing when the seawater is warm and the river water is cool.^{19,20} This improved performance was attributed to a thermally induced double layer expansion process in concert with the concentration induced double layer expansion. This work was also highlighted as a means to reduce energy consumption in CDI cells.^{19,21} However, prior computational work has emphasized the importance of infinitely slow cycle operation, where irreversibilities are minimal. Accounting for transients could demonstrate variations with temperature due to effects of resistance and diffusion that had not previously been seen.

Here, we investigate how thermal properties can aid in minimizing electrical energy required for CDI or maximizing electrical energy produced through CapMix. In the first scenario, we examine systems where all four stages of the separations and mixing cycles occur on one isotherm ($T = 20$ – 80 °C). Next, we examine the case whereby different cycle

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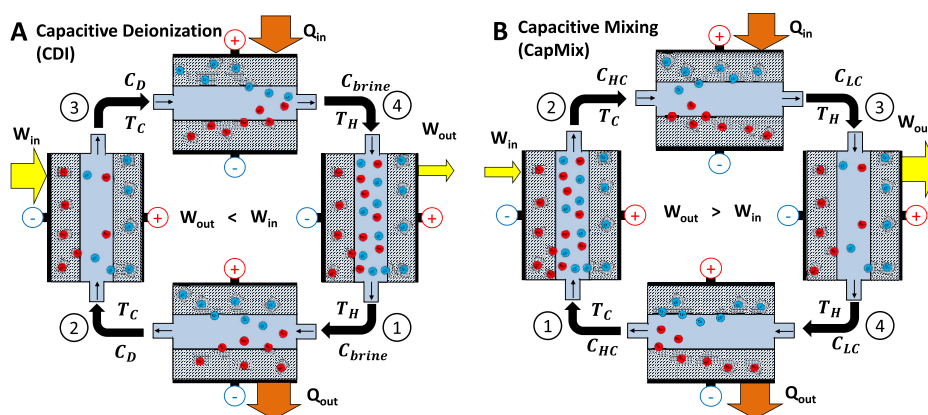


Figure 1. Physical depiction of thermal and electrical energy conversion processes for (a) CDI, and (b) CapMix cycles. Note that both the CapMix and the CDI cycles are operated in a continuous (single-pass) mode during all four stages, and the processes are only depicted in a cyclic manner to demonstrate the energy transfers of work and heat.

stages (charging, discharging, solution switching) are operated on two separate isotherms. Finally, we examine the scenario whereby cycle stages occur with a variable temperature profile (charging, discharging, solution switching). In each case, the desalination and mixing cycle employed is the Carnot-like cycles which operate while maintaining constant chemical potential (iso- μ) during the charging and discharging stages. Each scenario is evaluated in terms of the total electrical energy produced/consumed (CapMix/CDI) and the thermodynamic efficiency.

METHODOLOGY

The investigated CDI cycle consists of four stages and closely resembles experiments where charging and discharging occurs at a constant current (Figure 1A). The first stage (process 1-2) consists of a solution switching stage, where the maximum brine concentration is replaced by a minimum dilute concentration. The second stage (process 2-3) consists of a charging stage where the chemical potential was held constant (mimicking a Carnot-like process). The second stage was complete once a maximum set voltage was reached. Stage two represents the desalination process. The third stage (process 3-4) consists of a constant charging phase (no current). This stage is complete once the concentration reaches the predefined brine concentration. The fourth stage (process 4-1) consists of a discharging stage where the chemical potential was held constant (mimicking a Carnot-like process). The fourth stage was complete once a minimum set voltage was reached. Stage four represents the resalination process.

The CapMix cycle consisted of four stages, which also resembled processes employed experimentally. The four stages were similar to those described above. The main difference was that in CapMix charging occurred in the maximum concentration (i.e., seawater, HC) and discharging occurred in the minimum concentration (i.e., river water, LC) (Figure 1B). The cycle started with a maximum concentration (C_{HC}), and the electrodes were held at a constant chemical potential until the cell reached the maximum charging voltage (process 1-2). Then, the solution was switched to the minimum concentration (C_{LC}). This resulted in an increase in the total cell voltage due to the EDL expansion process (process 2-3). Thus, when discharging (process 3-4), the higher voltages enabled net energy recovery. Finally, the high concentration (C_{HC}) was reintroduced during a constant charge switching stage (process 4-1). Note that, in Figure 1, both the CapMix and the CDI cycles are operated in a continuous (single-pass) mode during all four stages, and the processes are only depicted in a cyclic manner to demonstrate the energy transfers of work and heat.

In order to introduce thermal effects into the aforementioned cycles, we investigated three modes of operation. In the first mode,

the entire cycle was operated under isothermal conditions (stages 1–4). We investigated cycles operated at ($T = 20, 50, 80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$). In the second mode, we investigated cycles where operations occurred on two isotherms. Specifically, we investigated an operational mode where charging took place at $20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, and discharging took place at elevated temperatures ($T = 50$ and $80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$). Applying elevated temperatures during the discharging stage was motivated by previous studies.^{19,21} In the third mode, we investigate thermal effects in a dynamic matter. Here, we apply a variable temperature profile during the charging phase. The temperature profile applied to the cell was chosen to enable constant chemical potential operation during the charging and discharging stage. As was communicated earlier, constant chemical potential ion separations/mixing in a chemical engine is analogous to the isothermal heat addition process in a heat engine. Furthermore, the use of constant chemical potential separations/mixing has been shown to minimize/maximize the work per number of ions.^{19,22}

The simulations were subject to an initial voltage of 0.1 V, and charged at constant concentration until a final voltage of 1.0 V. A maximum of 1.0 V was chosen to mitigate issues associated with electrolysis (e.g., side reactions). Maintaining the discharge voltage at 0.1 V enabled energy recovery during the cycle which is necessary when looking for optimal thermodynamic efficiency in CapMix and CDI systems. For CDI, the maximum (brine) concentration is determined by the C_{feed} , water recovery α , and minimum (dilute) concentration C_{dilute} :

$$C_{brine} = \frac{C_{feed} - \alpha C_{dilute}}{1 - \alpha} \quad (1)$$

For CDI cycles, the thermodynamic efficiency (TEE) is the ratio of the Gibbs energy of mixing $\Delta G_{mix,CDI}$ to the input cycle work W_{cycle} measured by $\oint V d\sigma$. To equate units with the Gibbs energy of mixing, σ is represented as a volumetric based charge after dividing by $2 \times$ the pore length L_e . The Gibbs energy of mixing and TEE is defined as

$$\Delta G_{mix,CDI} = nRT \left(\frac{C_{feed}}{\alpha} \ln \left(\frac{C_{feed} - \alpha C_{dilute}}{C_{feed}(1 - \alpha)} \right) - C_{dilute} \ln \left(\frac{C_{feed} - \alpha C_{dilute}}{C_{dilute}(1 - \alpha)} \right) \right) \quad (2)$$

$$TEE = \frac{\Delta G_{mix}}{W_{cycle}} \quad (3)$$

where n is the van 't Hoff Factor, which for 1:1 electrolytes assumes a value of 2. For CapMix, an equivalent efficiency is developed. This thermodynamic efficiency considers the maximum work that can be extracted by the cycle $\Delta G_{mix,CapMix}$:

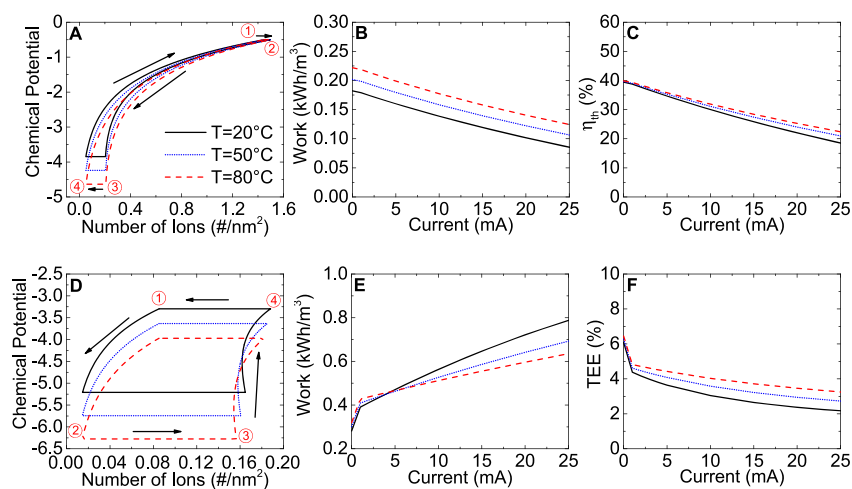


Figure 2. Cycles operated on two isotherms. (A) CapMix μ - N Diagram, (B) CapMix net-work extracted, and (C) CapMix thermodynamic efficiency. (D) CDI μ - N Diagram, (E) CDI net-work consumed, and (F) CDI thermodynamic efficiency. Chemical potential is normalized by RT_0 , where T_0 represents the dead state temperature.

$$\Delta G_{\text{mix, CapMix}} = -2RT \left(\frac{C_{\text{mix}}}{\phi} \ln \left(\frac{C_{\text{mix}}}{C_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}} \right) - (C_{\text{LC}}) \ln \left(\frac{C_{\text{LC}}}{C_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}} \right) - \frac{1-\phi}{\phi} C_{\text{HC}} \ln \left(\frac{C_{\text{HC}}}{C_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}} \right) \right) \quad (4)$$

158

159 where ϕ is the volume fraction of low concentration water used
160 during the CapMix process. C_{mix} is the mixture solution, and the
161 volume fraction is fixed at $\phi = 0.5$. This indicates that the same
162 amount of water is mixed during both of the switching stages. We
163 have also assumed activity coefficients as unity values. Thus, the
164 thermodynamic efficiency for CapMix is

$$\eta_{\text{th}} = \frac{W_{\text{cycle}}}{\Delta G_{\text{mix, CapMix}}} \quad (5)$$

165

166 The detailed development and analysis for ΔG_{mix} at alternating
167 temperatures is discussed in the Supporting Information (Figure S11).
168 Chemical potential in chemical systems is the analog to
169 temperature in thermal energy systems, and is represented by

$$\mu = RT \ln \left(\frac{C}{C_{\text{ref}}} \right) \quad (6)$$

170

171 where T is temperature, R is the universal gas constant, and C_{ref}
172 represents a reference concentration for the dead/surrounding
173 environment state, taken as 1 M.²³ It can be seen that chemical
174 potential varies as a function of both temperature and concentration.
175 Thus, if the CapMix/CDI cycle operation is isothermal, then a
176 constant concentration process will result in the desired constant
177 chemical potential. If CapMix/CDI cycle operation is nonisothermal,
178 in order to maintain constant chemical potential with variable
179 temperature the concentration must be varied.

180 We also consider the effects of temperature changes during the
181 charging/discharging stages as well as during switching stages. Here,
182 constant chemical potential is enabled through varying temperature
183 and concentration.^{23,24} Operating cycles under variable temperature
184 conditions may provide insight into more realistic means to achieved
185 constant chemical potential operations in experiments. During
186 variable temperature operation, the temperature was limited to 0 to
187 100 °C.

188 Changes in the number of ions in the cell (N) are indicated by the
189 following:

$$N = \Gamma + \text{CL}_e N_{\text{av}} \quad (7)$$

190

where Γ is the buildup of ions in the cell from charging, and $\text{CL}_e N_{\text{av}}$ is
191 ions directly in the body of the cell (see Supporting Information).
192 When this number of ions in transport is reduced, cycles can operate
193 under conditions closer to Carnot operation.²³ We will explore the
194 ideal steady-state conditions (infinitely slow reversible cycles), then
195 consider the transient mode to simulate more realistic operation.
196

It is important to note that these reversible cycles are only
197 theoretical, and transient transport limitations still need to be
198 considered. For instance, the infinitely slow model neglects all cell
199 ohmic resistances since current magnitude is assumed negligible. In
200 actuality, the cell exhibits concentration-dependent internal resistances,
201 along with a constant external resistance. The internal resistance
202 within the electrolyte channel is inversely related to the cell
203 conductivity, which depends on both concentration of electrolyte
204 and temperature (Figure S12A). Additionally, effects of diffusion will
205 also influence transport when current is considered. Temperature
206 strongly influences diffusion (Figure S12B) due to the increase in
207 thermal vibrations within the electrolyte at higher temperatures,
208 which can further aid in effective ion transport. For all other
209 important operational parameters for the transient analysis, such as
210 properties and geometries, see Table S11.
211

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

212

CDI and CapMix Cycles Operated with Isothermal Input Streams. To evaluate the effect input solution
213 temperature has on system level performance (energy
214 production, consumption, and thermodynamic efficiency), we
215 initially investigated CDI and CapMix cycles which occur
216 under infinitely slow conditions. Through neglecting kinetic
217 effects, we can evaluate the impact of solution temperature
218 under theoretically ideal (reversible) system operation (Figure
219 2A). For CapMix operation, the high concentration (C_{HC}) is
220 600 mM, the low concentration (C_{LC}) is 20 mM, and the
221 volume ratio is fixed at $\phi = 50\%$. For CDI, the inlet feed
222 concentration is 20 mM (C_{feed}), the diluate concentration is 5
223 mM (C_{diluate}), and the water recovery is fixed at $\alpha = 50\%$. The
224 voltage limit in all cases is 0.1 to 1 V. We also expand the GCS
225 CDI model to evaluate kinetic and ohmic based irreversibilities
226 (Figure 2B,C).
227
228

During the reversible and isothermal CapMix cycles,
229 increasing the cell temperature (from 20 to 80 °C) results in
230 a decrease in the accumulated surface charge (from 0.24 to
231 0.22 $\#/\text{nm}^2$) at fixed voltage ($V = 1$ V). Despite this slight
232 reduction in the maximum charge obtained, the cell discharge
233

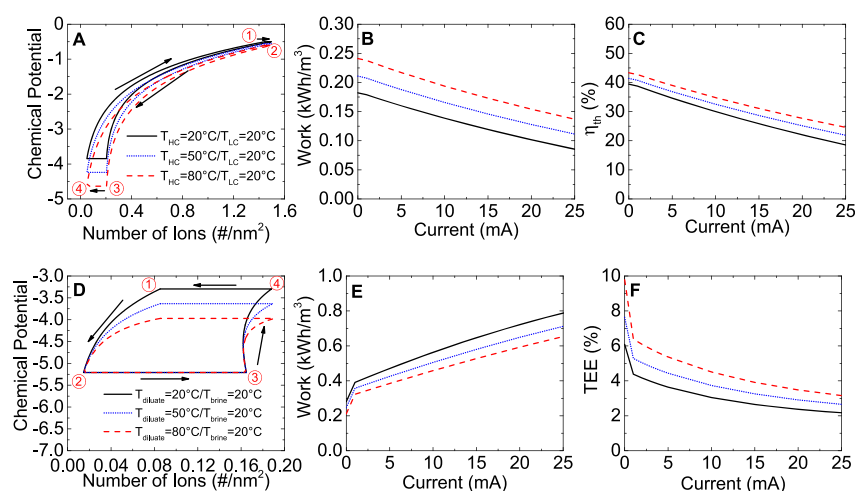


Figure 3. Cycles operated on two isotherms. (A) CapMix μ - N Diagram, (B) CapMix net-work extracted, and (C) CapMix thermodynamic efficiency. (D) CDI μ - N Diagram, (E) CDI net-work consumed, and (F) CDI thermodynamic efficiency. Chemical potential is normalized by RT_0 , where T_0 represents the dead state temperature.

234 voltage rises due to a 5 mV jump in the thermal voltage from
235 20 to 80 °C. As a result, the net-work extracted from the
236 CapMix cycle increases from 0.18 to 0.27 kWh per m³ of
237 solution mixed, as temperature increases from 20 to 80 °C.
238 Graphically, the greater electrical energy generation is
239 represented by an increase in the area of the chemical
240 potential–number of ions (μ - N) diagram (Figure 2A) and
241 charge–voltage (σ - V) diagrams (Figure S13A). Thus, the
242 increase in net-work equates to 1.0 Wh per m³ per °C of mixed
243 solution. The theoretical cycle thermodynamic efficiency also
244 increased from 39 to 43%. We note that reversible net-work
245 and thermodynamic efficiency correspond to a cell operated at
246 zero current (Figure 2B,C).

247 During the reversible and isothermal CDI cycles, increasing
248 the cell temperature (from 20 to 80 °C) again results in an
249 increase in the surface charge during charging (from 0.19 to
250 0.21 #/nm²) at fixed voltage ($V = 1$ V). Again, the increase in
251 surface charge results in an increase in net-work, indicated by
252 the larger area on both μ - N (Figure 2D) and V - σ diagrams
253 (Figure S13B). However, this net-work is consumed by the cell,
254 rather than produced. Thus, the work input for the same
255 separations increased from 0.28 to 0.32 kWh per m³ of solution
256 separated, as the solution temperature increased from 20 to 80
257 °C (Figure 2E). This results in an increase energy which
258 corresponds to 0.65 Wh per m³ per °C. Despite the increase in
259 energy consumed for the separation process, higher temper-
260 atures also increase the Gibbs energy of mixing. As a result, the
261 cycle thermodynamic efficiency actually increased slightly from
262 6.1 and 6.4% as the cell temperature increased to 80 °C
263 (Figure 2F, current = 0 mA).

264 When the CDI and CapMix cycles are operated irreversibly,
265 the performance (net-work and thermodynamic efficiency) is
266 dependent on the cell operating current. Ideally, CapMix cycles
267 need to operate under conditions which minimize resistive
268 losses. When comparing irreversible cycles directly with
269 reversible cycles, a voltage discontinuity exists during solution
270 switching (Figure S14A–C). This abrupt transition increases
271 the cell voltage due to changes in the structure of the EDL
272 (Debye Length). As the switching stage proceeds the voltage
273 spike decreases as the effluent cell concentration approaches
274 that of the recently introduced dilute stream. This spike has
275 been observed experimentally.^{4,24} As the operating current

increases, the net-work generated from the mixing process 276
decreases due to resistance based irreversibilities. Nevertheless, 277
at all current values, the net-work for CapMix increases with 278
temperature. At the maximum value of 25 mA, the net-work 279
output was 0.09, 0.11, and 0.12 kWh per m³ for 20, 50, and 80 280
°C. This corresponded to thermodynamic efficiency values of 281
19, 21, and 22% (Figure 2C). We attribute the increase in the 282
 η_{th} with temperature due to the gradually nonlinear increase in 283
the net cycle work output (Figure S15). 284

For irreversible CDI cycles, higher temperature increased 285
the work required up to a 3–5 mA threshold; however, the 286
thermodynamic efficiency also increased with temperature 287
(Figure 2E and F). Increasing current decreased the maximum 288
attainable thermodynamic efficiency due to a greater amount 289
of irreversibilities (ohmic resistance) present at high current. 290
Therefore, while increasing the temperature during isothermal 291
operation does augmented system performance for CapMix 292
(increased energy recovery), it degraded system performance 293
for CDI (increased energy consumed). This indicates that if 294
system operation is to occur at a fixed temperature with 295
minimal charging current, elevated temperatures are preferred 296
for CapMix whereas low temperatures are preferred for CDI. 297

CDI and CapMix Cycles Operated with Nonisothermal Input Streams. In addition to cycles operated 299
isothermally, cycles whereby individual processes occur at 300
different or varying temperatures are possible. Here, we 301
investigate cycles where charging occurs on one isotherm, 302
and discharging occurs on a second isotherm. Practically 303
speaking, this is relevant in cases where the inputs (C_{feed} , C_{brine} , 304
 C_{HC} , C_{LC}) are sent through a heat exchanger prior to the CDI 305
or CapMix system. Additionally, the individual input streams 306
may originate at different temperatures due to industrial or 307
environmental setting. As outlined for cycles operated on a 308
single isotherm, we evaluate the cycle performance in terms of 309
the energy production/consumption and thermodynamic 310
efficiency. For both CapMix and CDI, we employ the same 311
voltage, concentration, and operating conditions described 312
above. In addition, we performed simulations which mimicked 313
reversible (Figure 3A) and irreversible system operation 314
(Figure 3B,C). 315

For CapMix cycles, isothermal charging of the cell occurred 316
at 20 °C, and isothermal discharging now occurred at 20, 50, 317

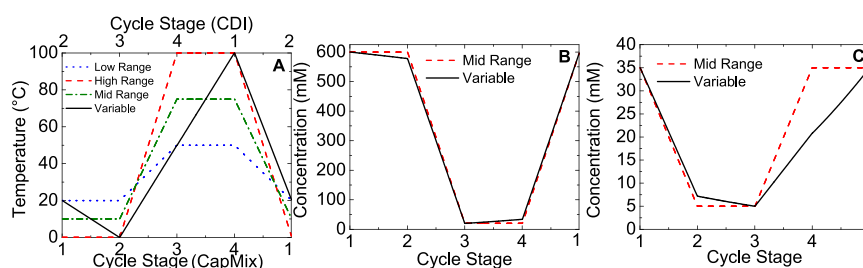


Figure 4. (A) Variable temperature profiles applied to CDI/CapMix cycles. Resulting concentration profiles for (B) CapMix and (C) CDI cycle.

and 80 °C. Since charging temperature is held constant, surface charge remains constant during the charging phase. For the reversible case, the net-work output was 0.18, 0.21, and 0.24 kWh per m³ of solution mixed, for isothermal discharging at 20, 50, and 80 °C. This resulted in a cycle thermodynamic efficiency of 39%, 41%, and 43% (Figure 3B). This change is only marginally noticeable on a μ - N diagram (Figure 3A), as a fixed chemical potential during charging limits the swept area. However, the σ - V plot clearly delineates the increase in the cell discharge voltage (Figure S13C), increasing the area for the output work. Thus, the net-work improved by 10% when the cycle was operated between the two isotherms ($T_{\text{HC}} = 20$ and $T_{\text{LC}} = 80$ °C) when compared with isothermal operation at 20 °C. The maximum cycle net work improved by 9% when only the discharging stage operated at elevated temperatures, indicating the benefit of maintaining the low temperature during the charging stage.

For reversible CDI cycles, increasing the temperature during the discharging stage reduced the cycle net-work. The energy consumption was 0.28, 0.24, and 0.21 kWh per m³ of solution separated, for isothermal discharging at 20, 50, and 80 °C. This resulted in a thermodynamic efficiency of 6.1, 7.6, and 9.8% (Figure 3E, current = 0 mA) for temperatures of 20, 50, and 80 °C. Thus, the net-work decreased by 25% when the cycle was operated between the two isotherms ($T_{\text{HC}} = 20$ and $T_{\text{LC}} = 80$ °C) when compared isothermal operation at 20 °C. In addition, the net-work was 34% less than isothermal testing conducted at 80 °C, indicating that operating between two isotherms is preferable for CDI.

Irreversible CapMix cycles operated on two isotherms displayed similar trends to CapMix operated on one isotherm. Specifically, increasing current decreased net-work from CapMix (Figure 3B). This is anticipated due to ohmic and kinetic based irreversibilities. The net-work output, however, increased with increasing discharge temperature. Opposite to the isothermal case, the net-work consumed for CDI decreased with increasing discharge temperature. In addition, thermodynamic efficiency decreased with current and increased with temperature (Figure 3C-F).

CDI and CapMix Cycles Operated with Input Streams with Varying Temperatures. Finally, for both CapMix and CDI cycles, we consider the performance of a cycle where charging and discharging occur with a variable temperature profile. Like the previously investigated cycles, charging and discharging occurs while chemical potential is fixed (iso- μ), resembling the Carnot-like ion separations/mixing.²⁵ However, in order to maintain a constant chemical potential while temperature is varied, here the concentration profile must also vary (eq 6). Note that the cycle also maintains a constant number of ions (iso- N) during solution switching.

For the CapMix system, we start by charging (process 1-2) at room temperature (20 °C), and cool the stream to a minimum temperature of 0 °C (Figure 4A, black line). During the switching stage (process 2-3), the cell is gradually heated to a temperature of 50 °C. During the discharging stage (process 3-4), the cell will continue to be gradually heated to a maximum temperature of 100 °C. Finally, in the switching stage (process 4-1), the reactor is cooled and returns to the temperature of 20 °C. Note that this operation is both a cycle with respect to the chemical engine, and with respect to the heat engine. The temperature profiles described and graphically shown in Figure 4 are the same for the CDI cell; however, the stages are different (Figure 4, top x-axis).

To compare this unique mode of temperature based operation illustratively, three alternative cases are considered in which temperature changes occur in the switching stage only while the charge/discharge processes are isothermal (Figure 4A). The lowest temperature range assumes that $T_{\text{charge}} = 20$ °C and $T_{\text{discharge}} = 50$ °C ($\Delta T = 30$ °C, $T_{\text{avg}} = 35$ °C). The high range assumes the $T_{\text{charge}} = 0$ °C and $T_{\text{discharge}} = 100$ °C ($\Delta T = 100$ °C and $T_{\text{avg}} = 50$ °C). A third case considers the averaged temperatures between the high range and low range $T_{\text{charge}} = 75$ °C, $T_{\text{discharge}} = 10$ °C ($\Delta T = 65$ °C and $T_{\text{avg}} = 42.5$ °C). For the mid range, we show the corresponding cycle variations in concentration, which also coincides with the high and low temperature ranges. When the variable temperature cycle is compared to the cycles with temperature changes in the switch stage only, concentration changes in the CapMix cycles vary only by up to 25 mM, or 5% of C_{HC} (Figure 4B). The switching stage only requires recovery to the initial concentration, and during discharging, the concentration is returned to brine (Figure 4C). For these iso-chemical potential studies, we only consider the reversible cycle.

The quantitative effect of the variable temperature based operation is illustrated on σ - V and μ - N diagrams. For CapMix, the variable temperature does not increase the cycle output work (Figure 5A,B). For each of the cycles studied, the overall cycle work is 0.21 kWh/m³ for the low range, 0.27 kWh/m³ for the high range, 0.24 kWh/m³ for the mid range, and 0.21 kWh/m³ for the variable temperature. Subsequently, the efficiencies for each of the cycles are 41.4% (low range), 43.5% (high range), 45.6% (mid range), and 41.3% (variable temperature). Additionally, the work output per number of ions exchanged values were 0.15 (low range), 0.19 (high range), 0.17 (mid range), and 0.15 (variable temperature) kWh/m³/#/nm². Thus, for CapMix, maximizing the temperature range between charge and discharge improved performance, while employing variable temperatures offered minimal overall benefit for the cycle. This is despite the fact that the variable temperature is more Carnot-like.

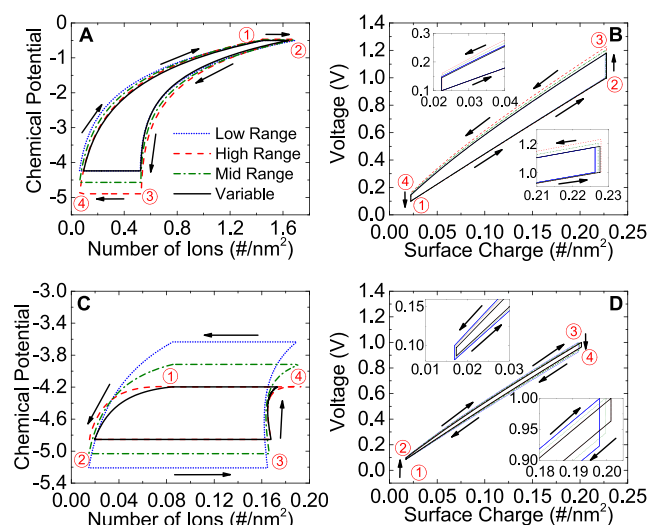


Figure 5. Variable temperature profile operation (A) μ - N diagram for CapMix, (B) σ - V diagram for CapMix, (C) μ - N diagram for CDI, (D) σ - V diagram for CDI.

Specifically, by charging in a low temperature feed, and discharging in a high temperature brine, we show that thermodynamic efficiencies can exceed 9%. This is in contrast to isothermal operation which only obtains maximum thermodynamic efficiencies of $\sim 6\%$. We note that thermodynamic efficiency, in addition to being dependent on temperature, is also dependent on the feed concentration and percent of salt removed. Finally, a variable temperature profile is explored as a means to operate a CDI and CapMix cycle with Carnot-like electrosorption behavior ($\text{iso-}\mu$). Again, performance improvements did not result in benefits for CapMix, but CDI performance increased with temperature up to almost 10% for the conditions tested. Ion mixing and separation based technologies provide new approaches toward harvesting energy and performing ionic separations using only electrical energy input. However, system performance improvements must occur in order for implementation to take place. Through gaining an understanding regarding the role various system level properties play, one can begin to design system level operational modes which most closely mimic theoretical optimal performance.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acssuschemeng.9b00859.

Additional calculations, derivations, and parameters derived from experiments (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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For CDI, the variable temperature did aid in decreasing the net-work consumed by the cycle (Figure 5C,D). The cycle net-work is only 0.14 kWh/m³ for the variable cycle operation, whereas the temperature-averaged mid range was 0.20 kWh/m³, the maximum temperature range 0.15 kWh/m³, and the low range 0.20 kWh/m³. The cycle TEE comparison follows with values of 7.6%, 14.9%, 10.3%, and 10.0% for the tested temperature ranges of low, high, mid, and variable. Furthermore, the range in the number of ions was the smallest (0.15 #/nm²) for the variable range of all cycles (Figure 5C). With 0.17, 0.18, and 0.18 #/nm² reported for the cycles operated with a high, low, and mid temperature ranges. The nearly 0.02 #/nm² over the cycle may appear small, but is a nearly 15% reduction in total the number of ions. Furthermore, the change in number of ions during this switching process is nearly four times less than those of all of the other temperature cases, suggesting that the variable temperature operation may be valuable in future applications for simulating Carnot conditions experimentally. While savings do exist from operating at elevated temperatures, the energy benefits are small compared to the quantity of the thermal energy input to the system (Tables SI2 and SI3). Thus, increased temperature during isothermal processes must be achieved through waste-heat. The maximum energy savings relative to the maximum theoretical Carnot cycle efficiency is 2.37%, which occurs for irreversible cycles at 50 °C and 25 mA (Table SI3).

CONCLUSIONS

We show how tuning the temperature of the input solutions to a CapMix and CDI system can enhance system performance (energy production, energy consumed, and thermodynamic efficiency). When operating CapMix and CDI isothermally, increasing the operating temperature aids in maximizing the net-work output from the CapMix system by up to 50%. Conversely, increasing the operating temperatures has an adverse effect on CDI operation, increasing energy consumption by $\sim 15\%$. Additional cycles whereby input solution temperature is individually varied (e.g., $T_{\text{HC}} \neq T_{\text{LC}}$ and $T_{\text{diluate}} \neq T_{\text{brine}}$), resulted in enhanced CDI performance. However, CapMix performance never exceeded that attained under high temperatures with isothermal ($T_{\text{HC}} = T_{\text{LC}} = T_{\text{high temp}}$).

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