



History of Solar Energy Use

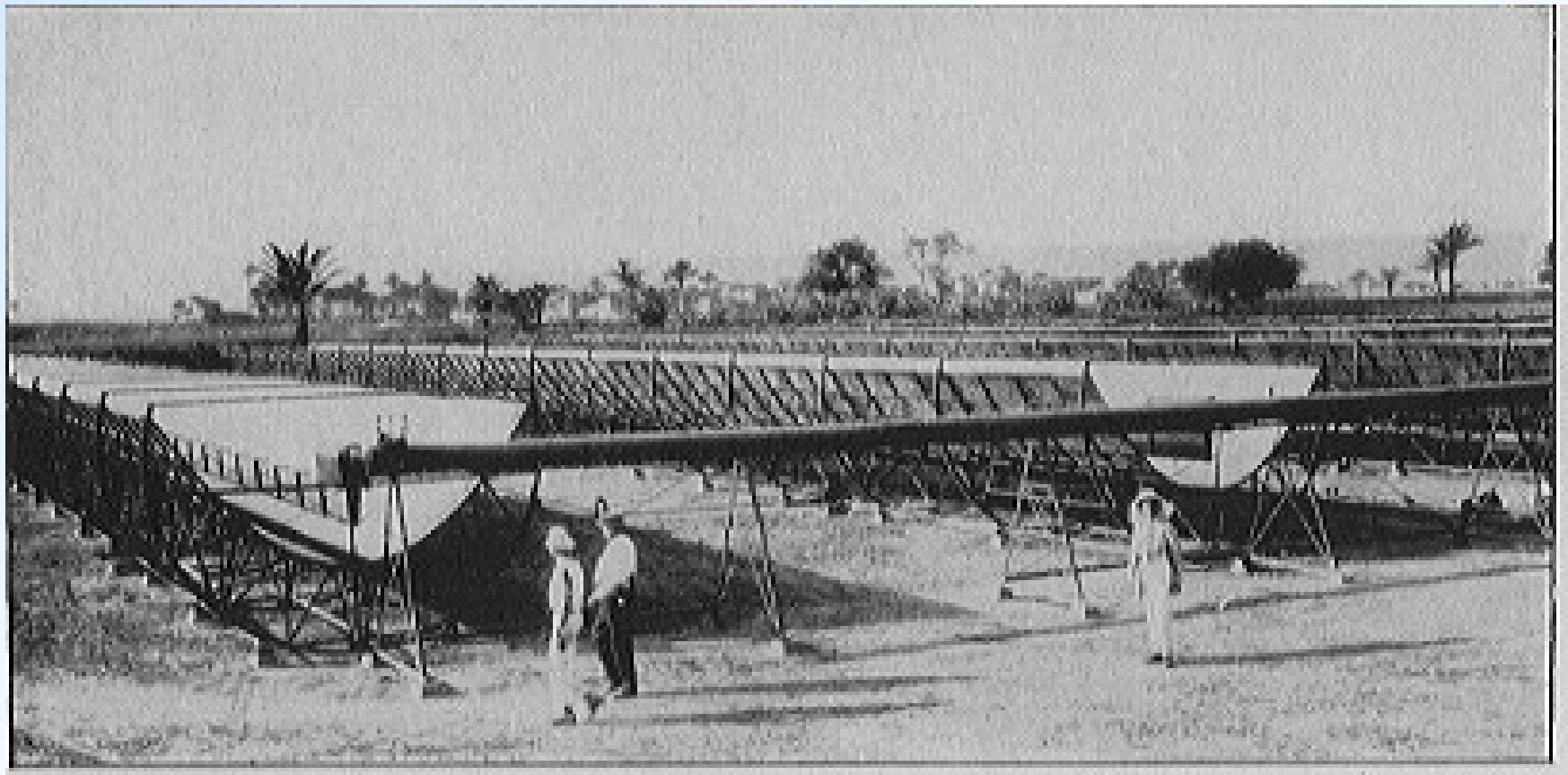
- 1500 BC Egyptian ruler Amenkotep III supposedly had “sounding statues” that emitted a tone when air inside was heated by the sun
- 800 BC Plutarch noted that vestal virgins used metal cones to light ritual fires
- 212 BC Archimedes purportedly used burning mirrors to set fire to ships according to Galen in *De Temperamentis* (see *Mythbusters*)
- ~1700 AD French scientist, George Buffon, made multiple flat mirrors to concentrate light to a point. ~1747, he ignited a wood pile 195 ft away (wood ignites at ~250°C with flux of 4.7 kW/m²)
- ~1760 Swiss de Sanesure made a solar oven that reached 320°F
- 1837 Herschel used a solar oven to cook food at 240°F in South Africa
- ~1860 Bessemer made a solar furnace that melted copper and zinc



- ~1860 Augustin Mouchet built “axicons” (simple cone) to focus on a tube; built steam engines with a 40 ft² reflector
- 1868 John Ericsson built a solar-powered 2.5 HP engine that used a parabolic reflector
- 1878 William Adams built a 2 kW solar water pump near Bombay, India
- 1880 E. Weston suggested a thermocouple for generating electricity
- 1882 Abel Pifre & Mouchot demonstrated a steam engine at Tucleries Garden, Paris, driving a printing press to supply fair visitors with handouts
- 1896 C.G.O. Barr patented an idea to place mirrors on railroad cars, precursor of solar towers
- 1912 Prof. C.V. Boys & Frank Shuman built a 50 HP solar pumping engine at Meadi, Egypt



1913 Maadi, Egypt Solar Engine



See : https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Frank_Shuman



Frank Shuman's plant used parabolic **troughs** to power a 60-70 horsepower engine that pumped 6,000 gallons of water per minute from the Nile River to adjacent cotton fields.



<http://www.thenational.ae/news/uae-news/technology/the-promise-of-solar-power-made-a-century-ago>



2012 Andalusia, Spain
Andasol Solar Power Station



150-megaWatt (MW) solar power station; Europe's first commercial plant to use parabolic troughs with tanks of molten salt as thermal energy storage



Parabolic trough concentrators at Kramer Junction, CA. The system, called the Solar Electricity Generating System (SEGS) installed at Kramer Junction in Mojave desert, California, starting from 1984. The SEGS system is the largest solar electricity generator set on the world. The total capacity is 354 MW.



Two Main Categories:

Solar Thermal



Water heating and cooking

Solar Photovoltaic (PV)



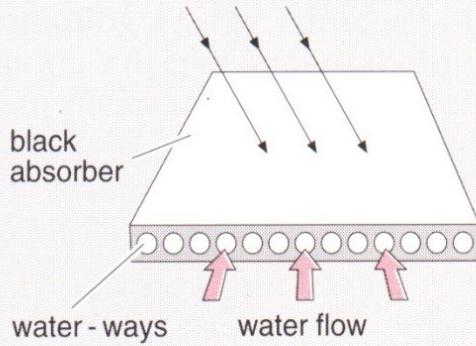
Electricity production



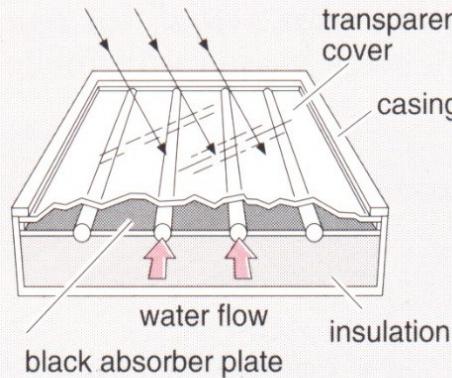
Solar Collectors

Table 3.1. Types of solar thermal collectors and their typical temperature range

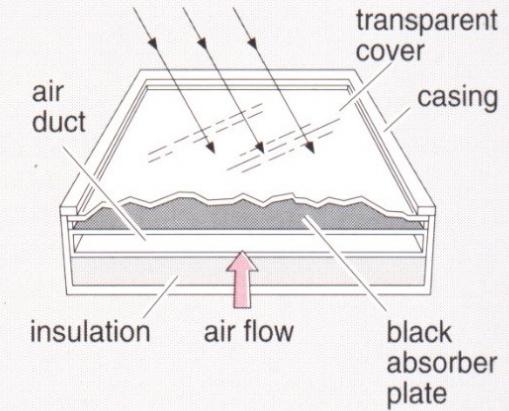
Type of Collector	Concentration Ratio	Typical Working Temperature Range (°C)
Flat plate collector	1	≤70
High efficiency flat plate collector	1	60–120
Fixed concentrator	3–5	100–150
Parabolic trough collector	10–50	150–350
Parabolic dish collector	200–500	250–700
Central receiver	500→>3000	500→>1000



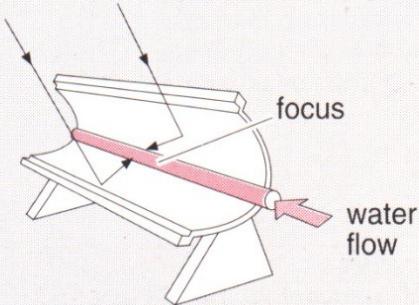
UNGLAZED 0–10 °C RISE



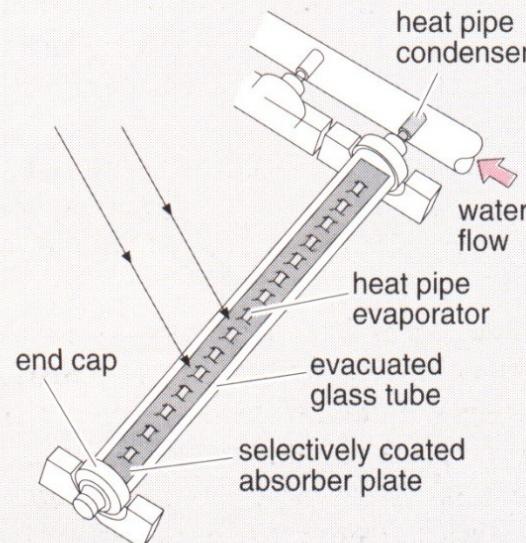
FLAT PLATE (WATER) 0–50 °C RISE



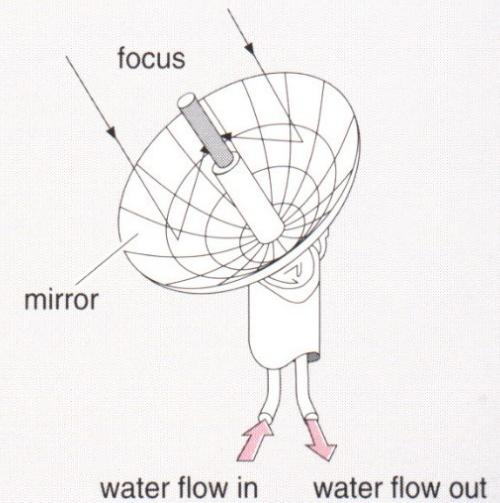
FLAT PLATE (AIR) 0–50 °C RISE



LINE FOCUS 50–150 °C RISE



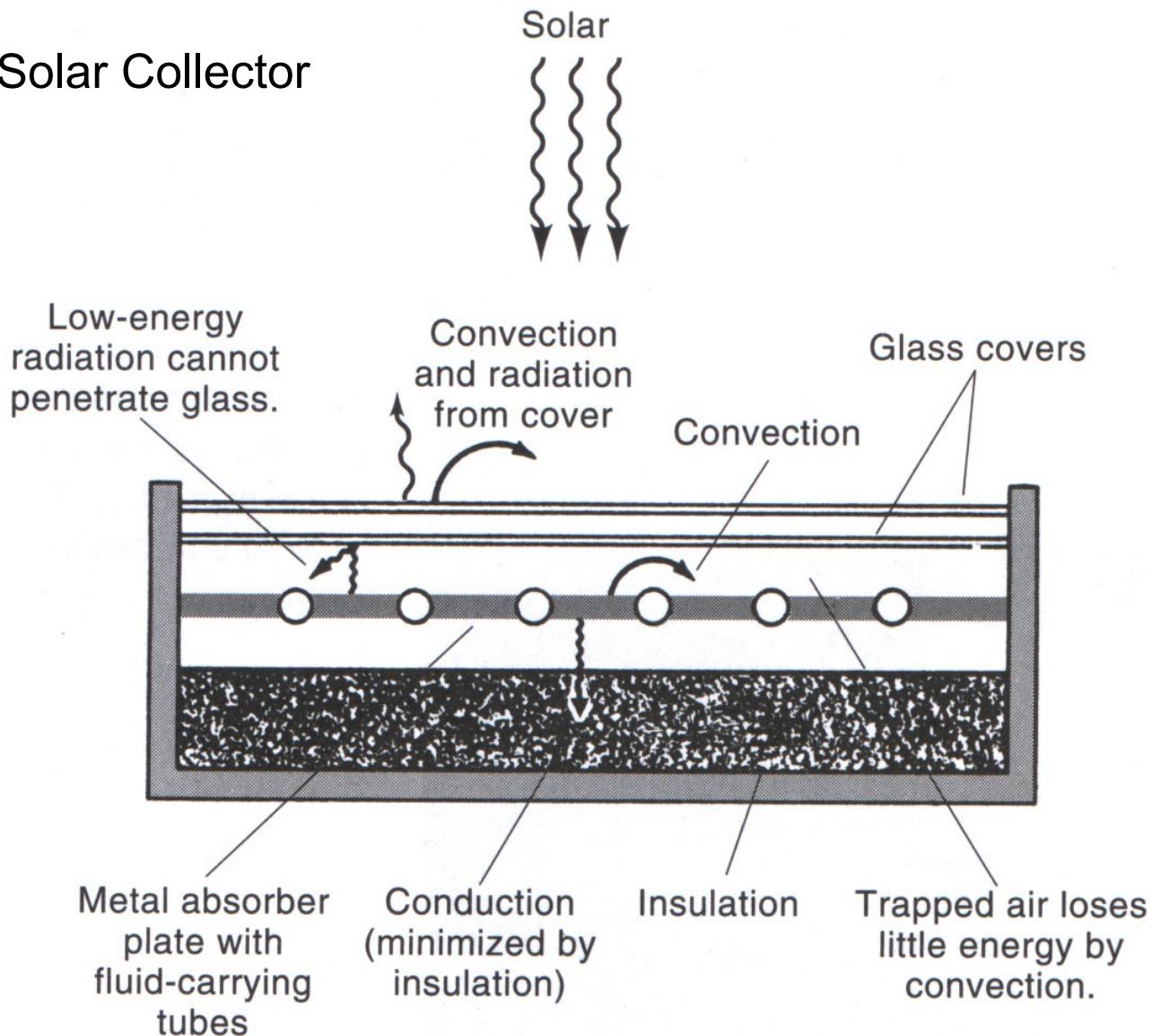
EVACUATED TUBE 10–150 °C RISE



POINT FOCUS >100 °C RISE

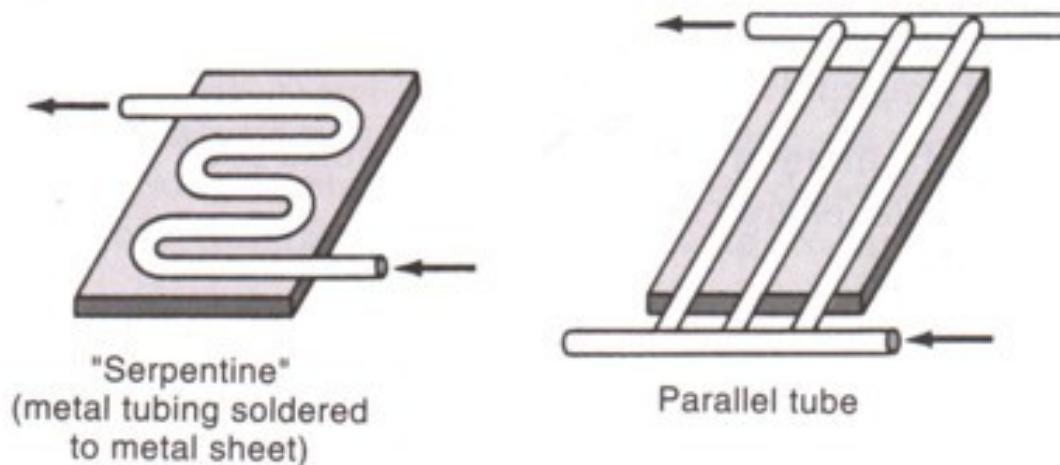


Flat-Plate Solar Collector



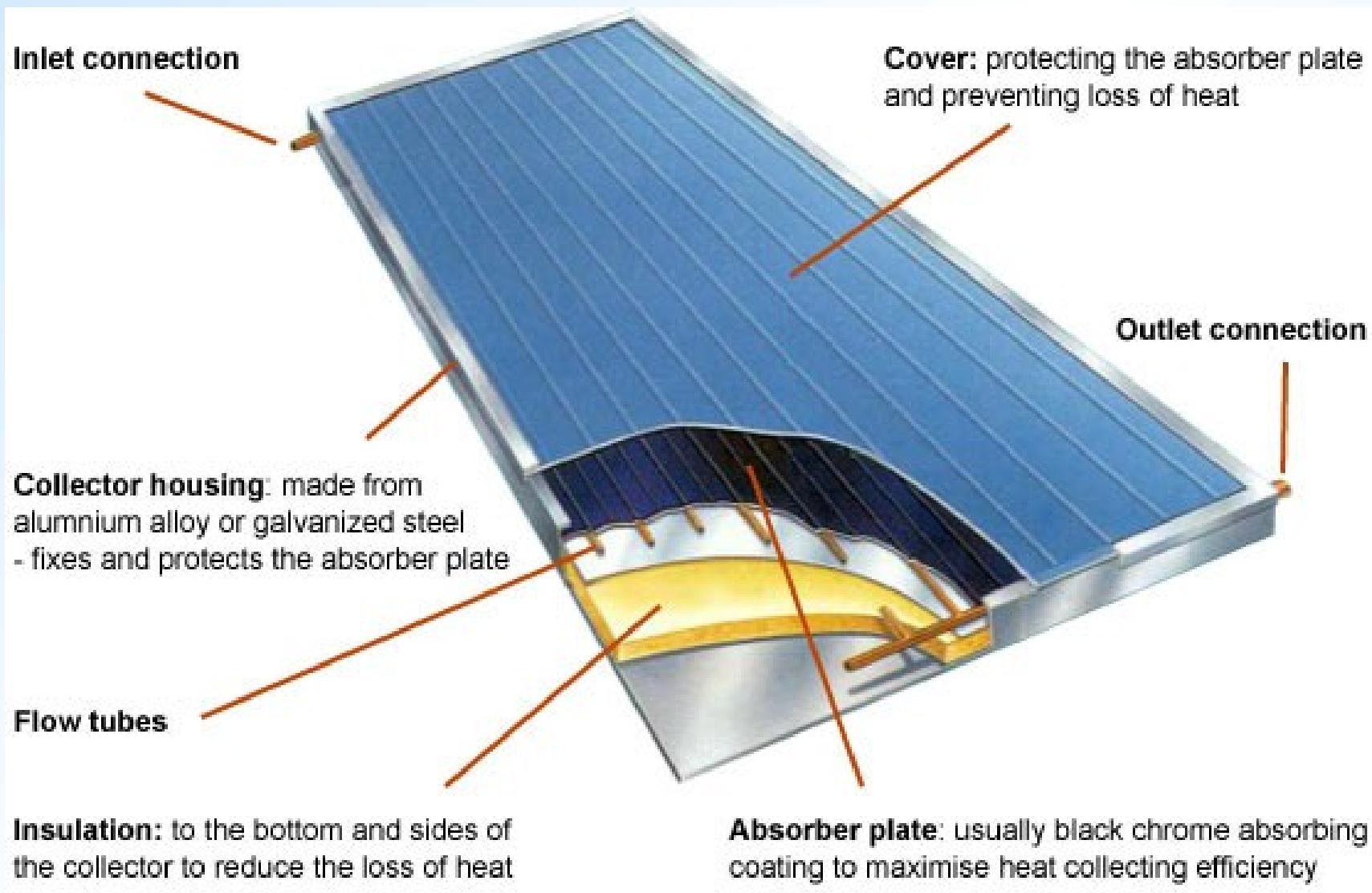


Types of Flat Plate Collectors



Tube formed
in metal sheet

"Trickle-type"
corrugated sheet





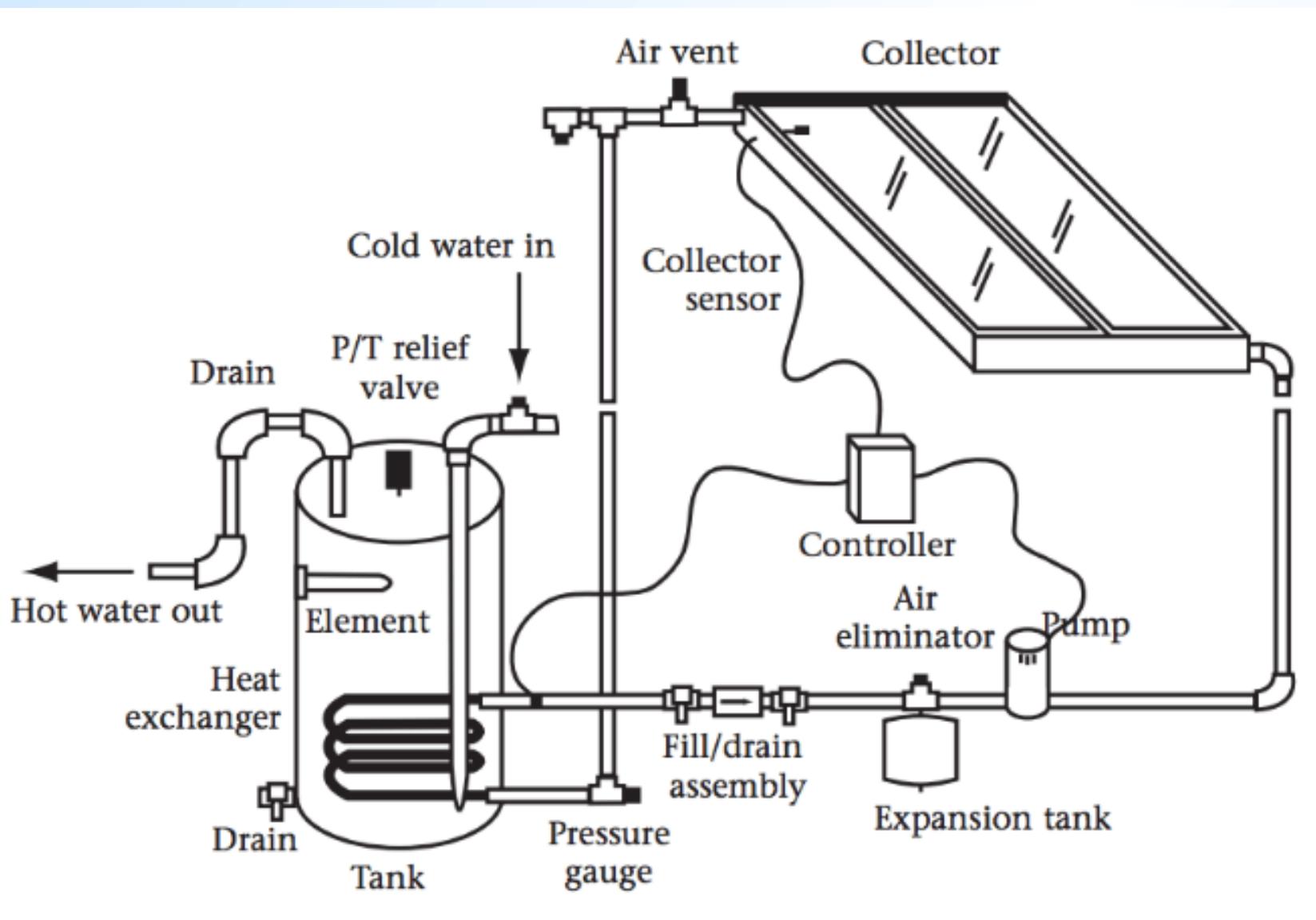
Cover or no cover

Advantages:

- High transmittance for visible light (transparent)
- Very low transmittance for thermal radiation
- Protects against convective heat loss
- Protects against adverse weather conditions (rain, etc.)

Disadvantages:

- Transmittance for visible light is angle dependent (specular)
- Absorbs and reflects part of the insolation
- Additional cost (capital and maintenance)





Components of a solar collector include some or all of the following:

1. A surface (typically a metal sheet) that is black to absorb nearly all the incident solar energy;
2. One or more glazing sheets to transmit insolation readily to the absorber plate while intercepting and reducing thermal radiation and convection heat loss to the environment;
3. Tubes or ducts to transport a fluid through the collector to accumulate the solar heat and transport that heat out of the collector;
4. Structure (basically a box) to hold and protect the components and withstand weather; and
5. Insulation placed on the sides and behind the absorber plate to reduce parasitic heat loss.



Absorbtance, α			
		Solar Irradiance	Infrared radiation
Non-selective		0.97	0.97
Selective	Black Nickel	0.88	0.07
	Black Chromium	0.87	0.09
	Aluminum Grid	0.7	0.07
	Tiyanium Oxide Nitrade	0.95	0.05



Energy Balance (Flat Plate Collector)

$$\dot{Q}_u = I A_{ap} \tau_c \alpha - U_L A_{ap} (T_{ap} - T_a) = m \dot{c}_p (T_{out} - T_{in})$$

I: Direct normal insolation, W/m²

A_{ap}: Absorber plate area, m²

τ_c : Effective solar transmittance of the cover

α : Absorptance of the plate

U_L: Overall heat transfer coefficient, W/m².K

T_{ap}: Average plate temperature, °C

T_a: Ambient air temperature, °C

T_{in}, T_{out}: Inlet and outlet temperatures of the

fluid

Cover (glazing):

- Transmits shorter wavelength solar radiation, but blocks longer wavelength from absorbers
- Reduces convective heat transfer losses
- Most common material is glass



Energy Balance (Flat Plate Collector)

$$\dot{Q}_u = I A_{ap} \tau_c \alpha - U_L A_{ap} (T_{ap} - T_a) = m \dot{c}_p (T_{out} - T_{in})$$

$$\dot{Q}_u = F_R [I A_{ap} \tau_c \alpha - U_L A_{ap} (T_{in} - T_a)] = m \dot{c}_p (T_{out} - T_{in})$$

F_R : Empirical heat removal factor

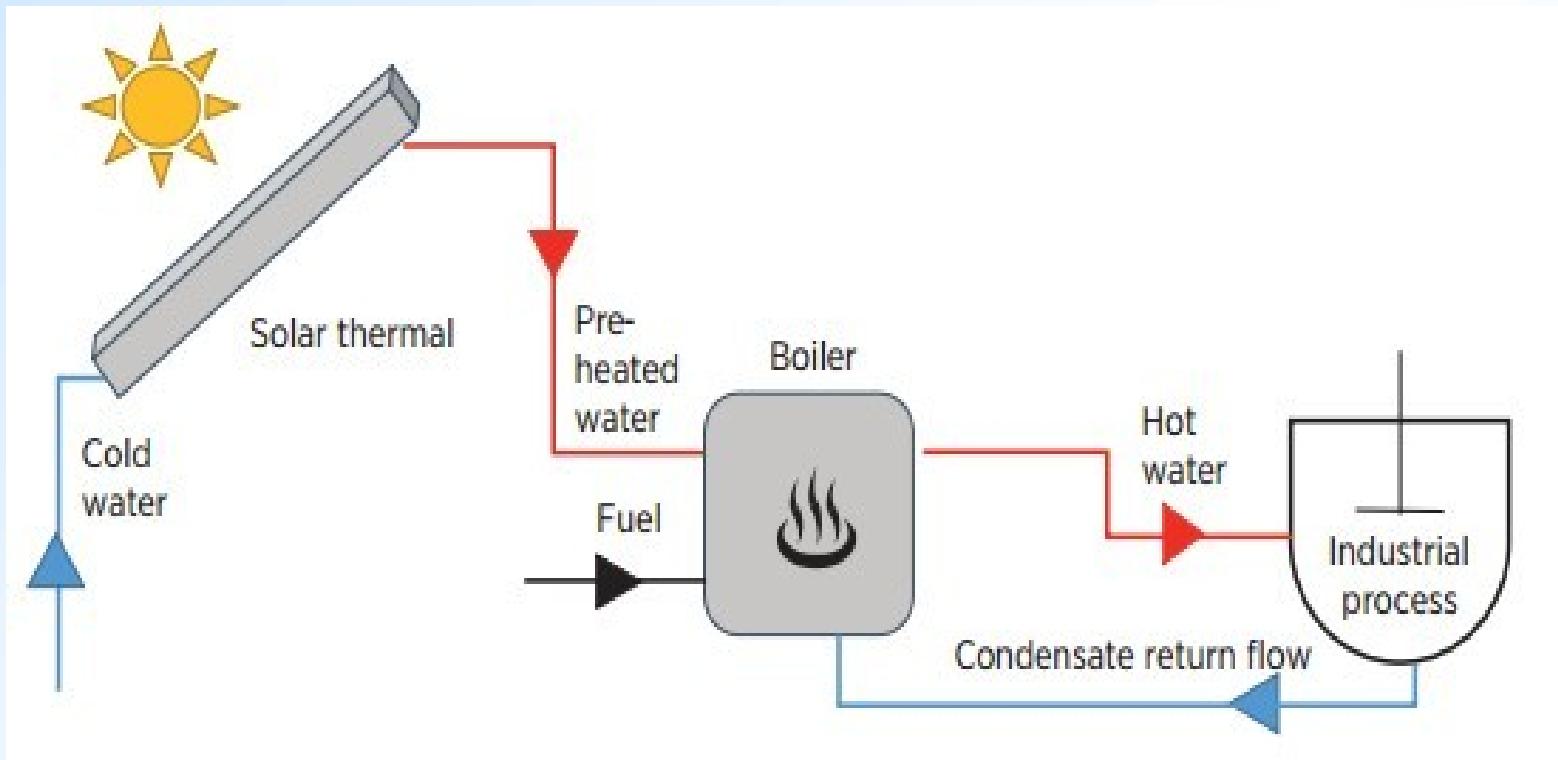
Collector efficiency:

$$\eta = \frac{\text{Useful energy output}}{\text{Total insolation}} = F_R \tau \alpha - \frac{F_R U_L (T_{in} - T_a)}{I}$$



Example 5

At a location of latitude 40 °N, a process heating system employing flat plate collectors, facing south with a slope (tilt angle) of 40°, of area 50 m² has been installed. The collector parameters are $F_R U_L = 2.63 \text{ W/m}^2.\text{K}$ and $F_R (\tau\alpha) = 0.72$. The system is required to supply energy at a minimum temperature of 60 °C at a rate of 12 kW for 12 hours a day. Assume that the ground reflectance is 0.2. What is the necessary radiation level, I , for the month of January if daily average total insolation is $H = 8.6 \text{ MJ/m}^2.\text{day}$, and the average ambient temperature is $T_a = -5 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. The inlet temperature of the water circulating in the collector array is $T_{in} = 10 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$.



Given data: $A_{ap} = 50 \text{ m}^2$ $F_R (\tau \alpha) = 0.72$ $F_R U_L = 2.63 \text{ W/m}^2 \cdot \text{K}$

$T_a = -5 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ $T_{out} = 60 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ $H = 8.6 \text{ MJ/m}^2 \cdot \text{day}$

$c_p = 4.186 \text{ kJ/kg.K}$ for water



There are several missing information in the given statement of the problem. We need to make few assumptions.

Thermal energy required = (12 kJ/s) (12 h/day) (3600 s/h) = 518 400 kJ/day

Solar energy available = (8600 kJ/m².day) (50 m²) cos(40°) = 329 400 kJ/day

The missing energy requirement is to be supplied by burning a fuel as shown in the figure.

$$\dot{Q} = I A_{ap} F_R (\tau_c \alpha) - F_R U_L A_{ap} (T_{in} - T_a) \quad I = \frac{\dot{Q} + F_R U_L A_{ap} (T_{in} - T_a)}{A_{ap} F_R (\tau_c \alpha)}$$

The inlet temperature of the water circulating in the solar collector array T_{in} , an Q are not given. One may calculate Q using the total insolation H , but it is not enough.



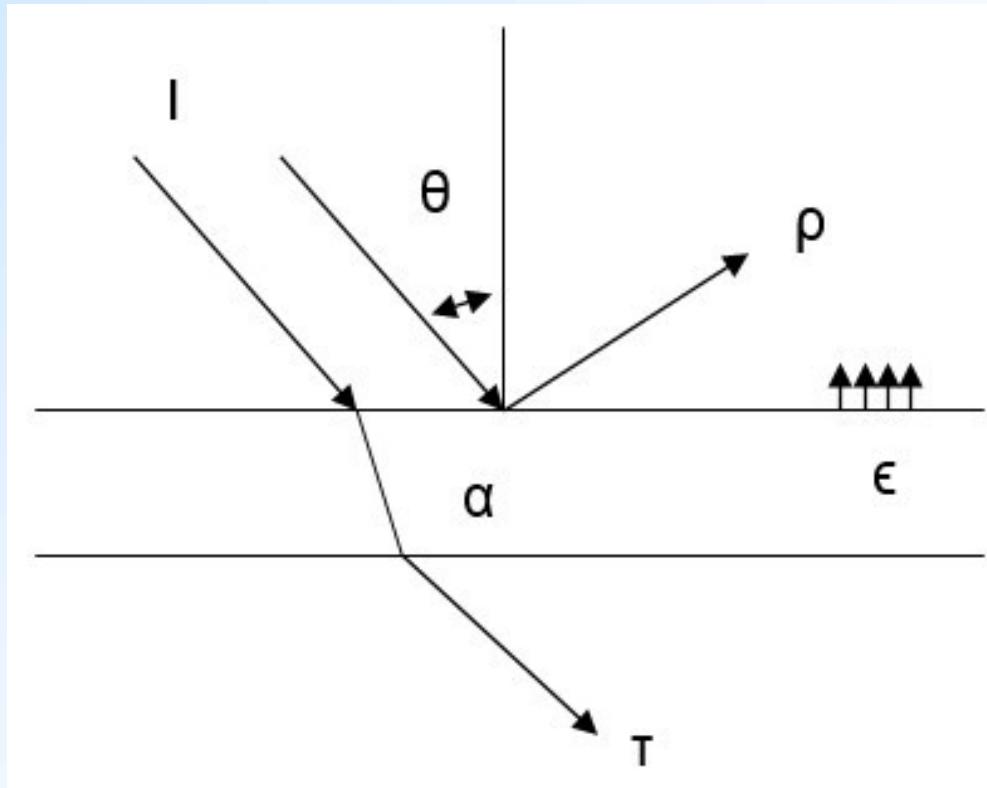
Here are few examples where solar energy is used in industrial processes:

Food Industry	Pasteurization
	Blanching
	Cleaning
Metal and Automotive Industry	Drying
	Electroplating
	Bluing
Oil & Chemical Industry	Injection <u>Moulding</u>
	Distillation
	Enhanced Oil Recovery
Pharmaceutical Industry	Sterilization
	Granulation
	Fermentation
Paper Industry	Bleaching
	Cooking
	Drying
Textile Industry	Dyeing
	Drying
	Washing



Read the article about use of solar energy in industrial processes.

http://www.irena.org/DocumentDownloads/Publications/IRENA_ETSAP_Tech_Brief_E21_Solar_Heat_Industrial_2015.pdf



ρ : Reflectance

τ : Transmittance

α : Absorptance

ϵ : Emittance

These can be all $f(\theta, \lambda)$

specular and **spectral**

ρ can be specular (angle dependent) or diffuse

Emittance, ϵ , is the ratio of radiative emission to that of a black body (ideal black surface).



Distinguish between the terms that end with “*ance*” and those that end with “*ivity*”.

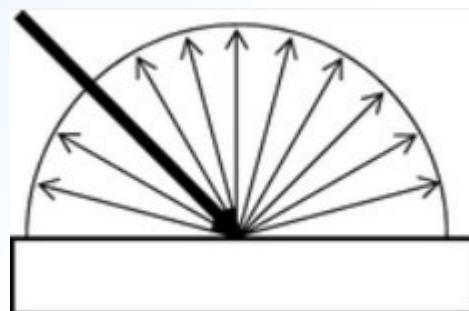
Emittance vs emissivity, Absorptance vs absorptivity, Reflectance vs reflectivity,

Transmittance vs transmissivity. “*Ivities*” are properties of a pure substance.

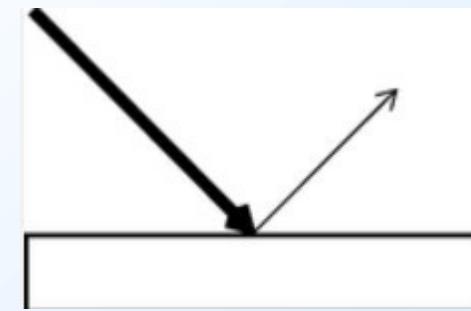
“*Ances*” are the same property for a given object, not necessarily a pure substance.

The adjective “**Spectral**” means wavelength dependent.

The adjective “**Specular**” means «like a mirror». The opposite of “specular” is “**diffuse**”



Diffuse reflection



Specular reflection



Monochromatic (single wavelength) and directional emittance

$$\varepsilon_\lambda(\theta, \phi) = \frac{I_\lambda(\theta, \phi)}{I_{b,\lambda}}$$

} Surface properties

$$\varepsilon = \frac{1}{\sigma T^4} \int_0^\infty \varepsilon_\lambda E_{b,\lambda} d\lambda$$

θ : Azimuthal angle

Φ : Polar angle

Monochromatic (single wavelength) and directional absorptance

$$\alpha_\lambda(\theta, \phi) = \frac{I_{\lambda,a}(\theta, \phi)}{I_{\lambda,i}(\theta, \phi)}$$

} Not just a surface property.
Can design materials which absorbs radiation selectively

$$\alpha(\theta, \phi) = \frac{1}{I_i} \int_0^\infty \alpha_\lambda I_{\lambda,i} d\lambda$$

a: Absorbed radiation

i: Incident radiation

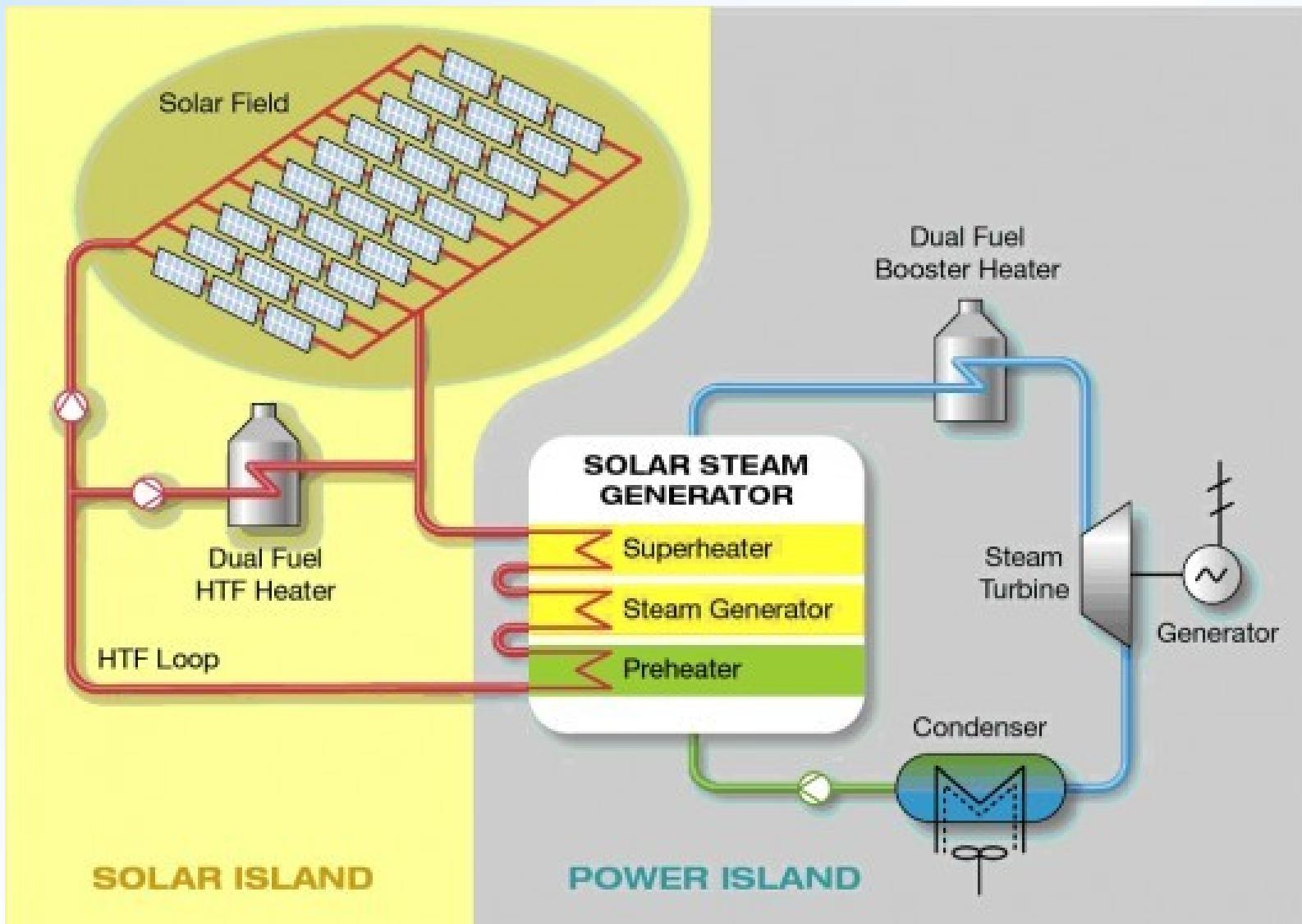


Solar – Thermal Conversion

Solar radiation converted to heat → Low temperature → flat plate → Hot water
→ High temperature → thermal reservoir for
power cycle

Solar – Thermal central receiver systems

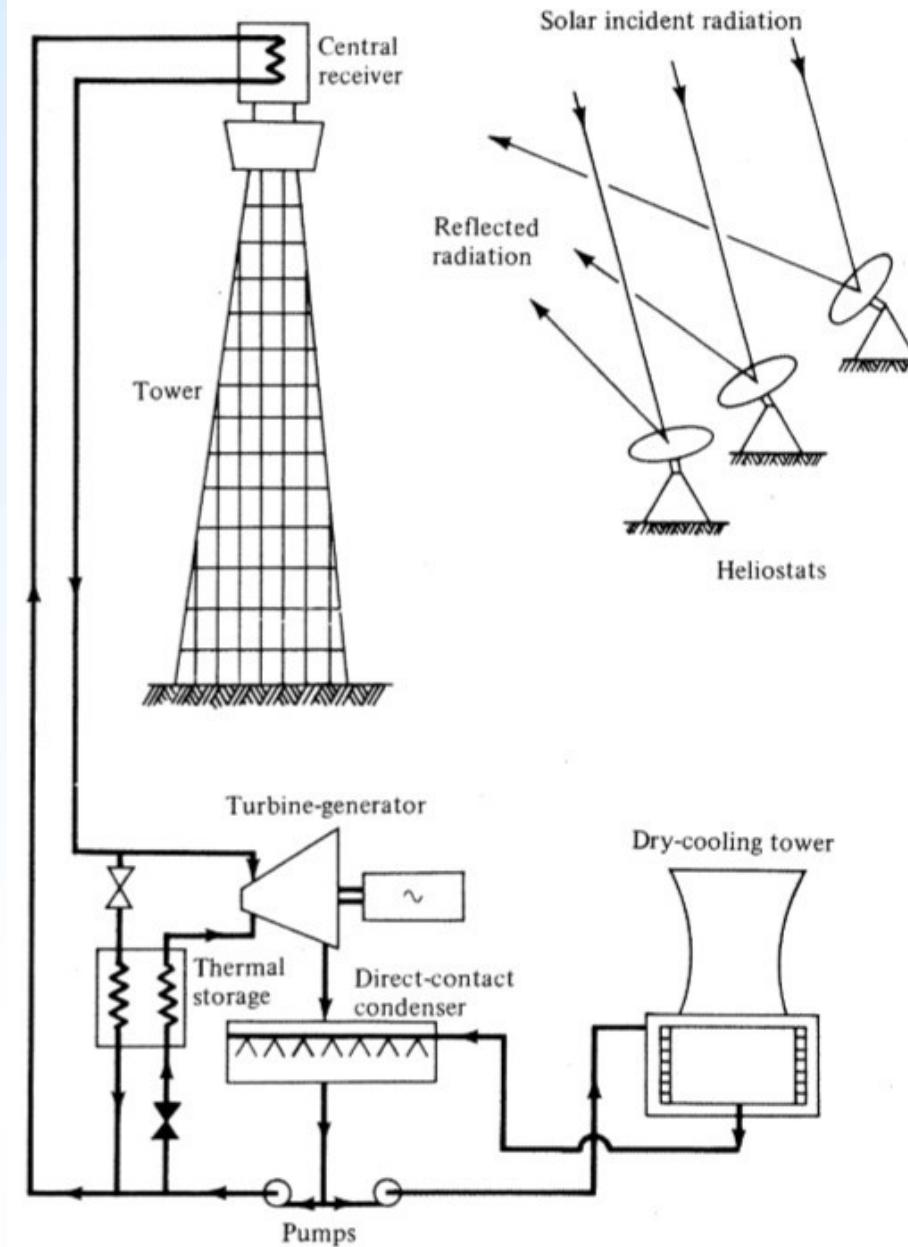
- Large field of heliostats (reflecting mirrors) → Redirect solar energy flux to a central receiver
- Heliostats individually controlled to follow the sun
- Typically has storage for night time and cloudy periods
- High peak power (excess power) bypassed to thermal storage







Heliostat - Solucar Solar Plant, Seville, Spain





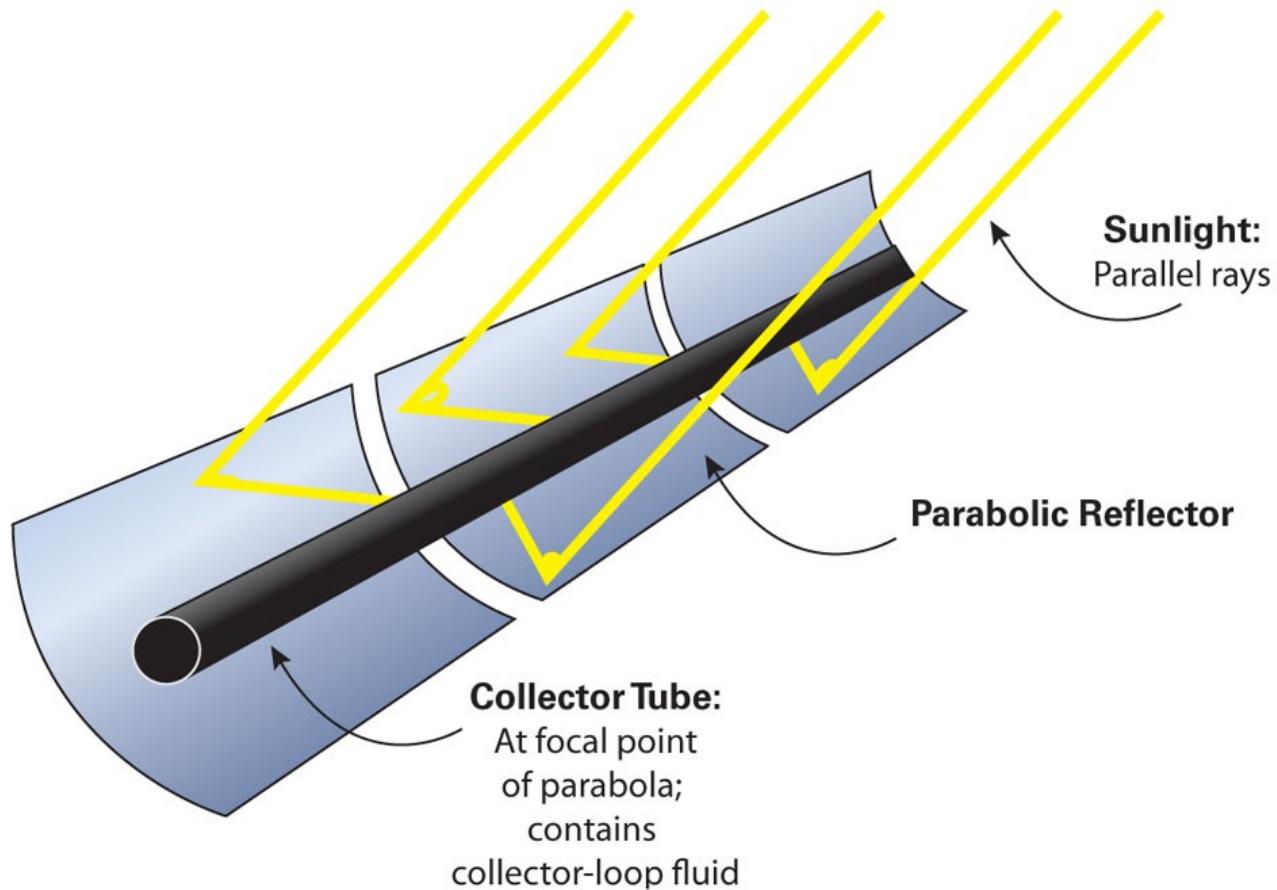
Read about **Ivanpah Solar Electric Generating System**

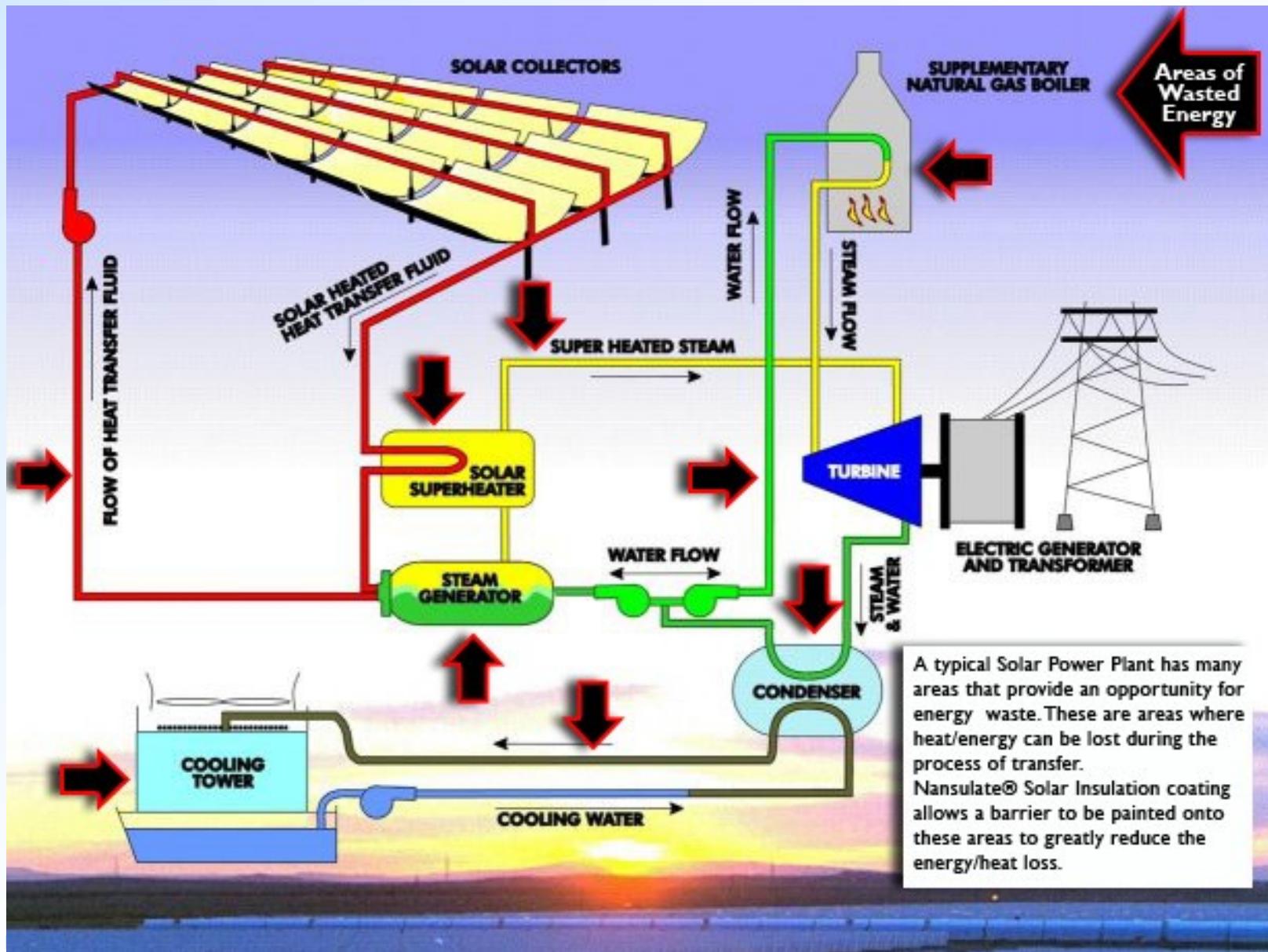
It is located in the USA between Nevada and California, and with more than 300,000 installed heliostats .This plant, that began operating in 2014, has 3 towers and a nominal capacity of 400 MW (enough power to supply around 140,000 homes).

Read about **Odeillo Solar Furnace**

It is situated in Font-Romeu-Odeillo-Via, in the department of Pyrénées-Orientales, in the south of France. It is 54 meters high and 48 meters wide, and includes 63 heliostats. It was built between 1962 and 1968, started operating in 1969, and has a power of one megawatt.

Parabolic Trough Reflector







Direct conversion of solar energy to electricity – Photovoltaic Effect

Albert Einstein, regarded as the most important physicist of the 20th century, was awarded the Nobel Prize in Physics precisely for his explanation of the photoelectric effect (and not for his most well-known contribution, his theory of relativity.)

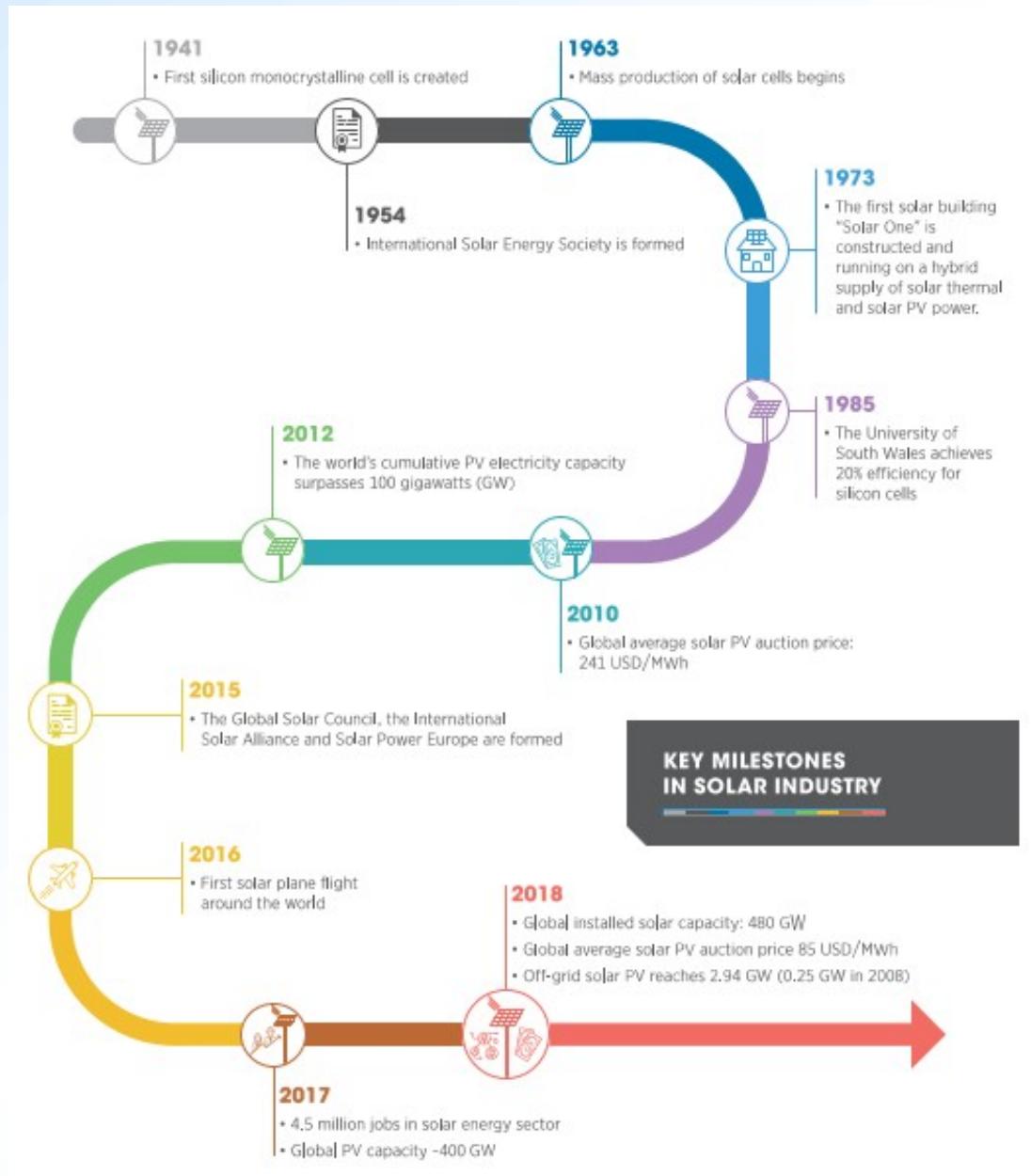
History of PV (Photovoltaic) Cells

- 1839: Becquerel discovers photovoltaic effect in electrochemical cells
- 1904: Albert Einstein published his first paper on the photoelectric effect
- 1954: Chapin, Fuller & Pearson develop first efficient solar cell
- Late 1950s: first non-laboratory use of PV cells
 - Telephone relay station in rural Georgia
 - Power for NASA's Vanguard I satellite



Vanguard-I was the 4th satellite ever launched. This was the very first time that PV technology was used for a real application. 6 solar panels (0.5 W each), allowed the satellite to send data about the composition of the atmosphere back to Earth during 6 years.

See OdtuClass: “Solar_Energy_v1.1_Udelft.pdf” for PV technology.





Overview of PV Function

How PV cells work:

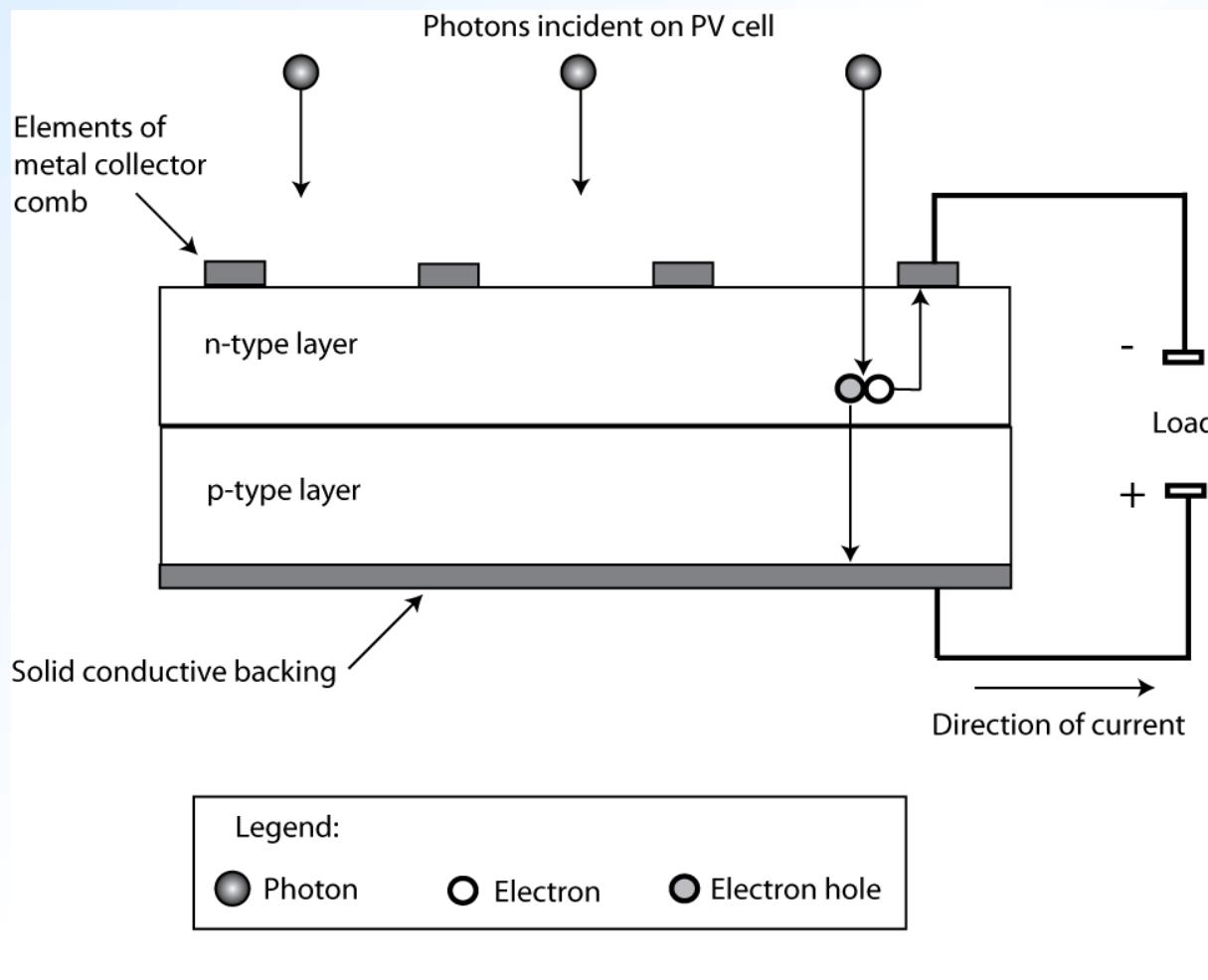
- incoming photon breaks bond
- electron is free to roam lattice
- vacancy left by electron is also able to move in lattice
- Structure of PV cell controls movement of electrons & vacancies so as to create useful current in an external circuit

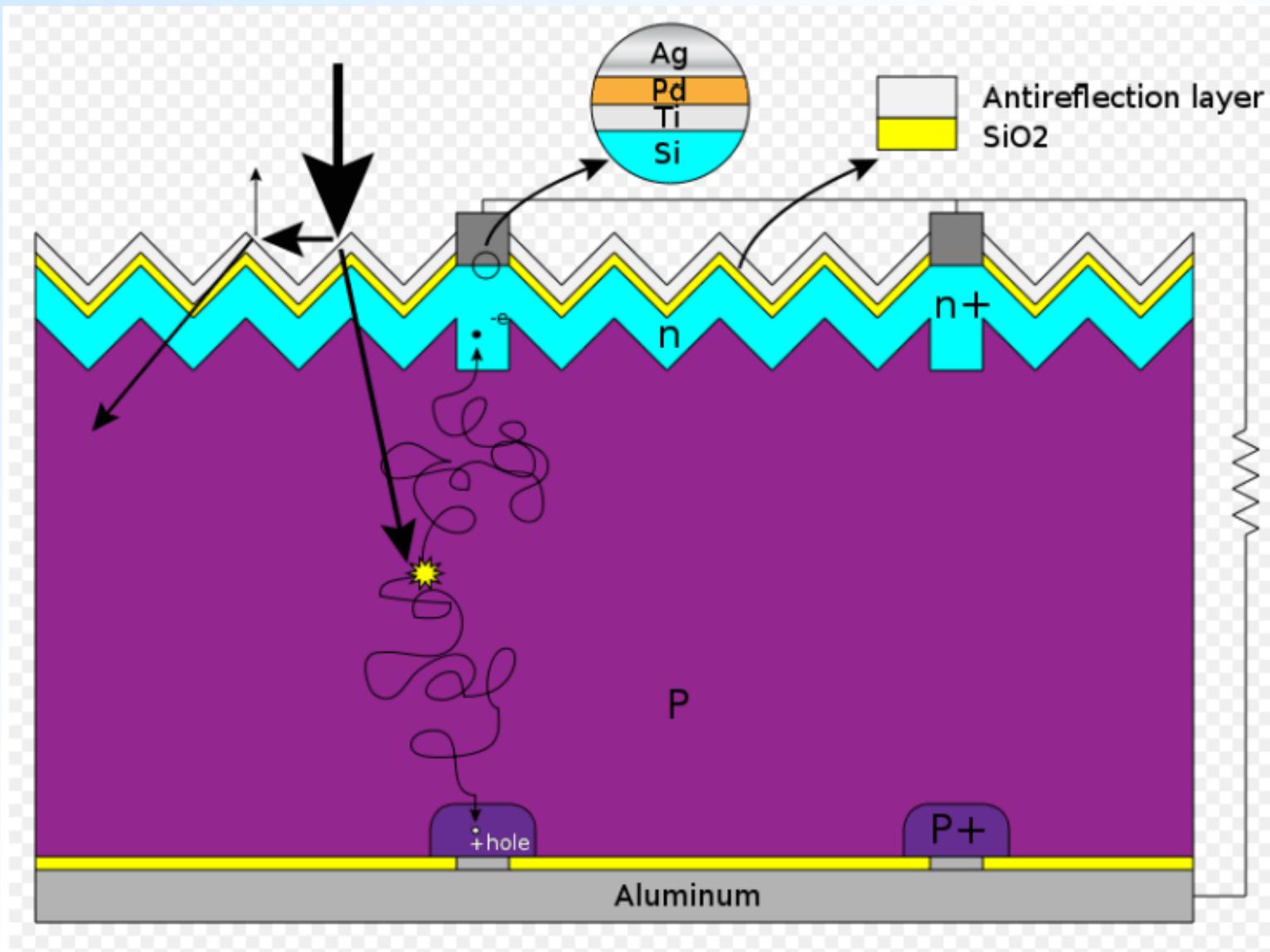
Practical PV cells: case of silicon semiconductor

- n-type region doped with Phosphorus (5 valence electrons)
- p-type region doped with Boron (3 valence electrons)
- Difference in concentration across “p-n junction” causes permanent electric field from n to p



Cross section of PV cell







PV Power Plant at METU North Cyprus Campus

- 1000 kW: Total installed capacity (average electrical energy requirement of 540 houses with 4-person occupancy)
- 16,500 m²: Total land area (About 2 football fields)
- 1,640,000 kWh: Estimated annual energy production
- 85%: Estimated annual performance ratio
- 20%: Fraction of the annual energy requirement of the campus met by the plant
- 40%: Fraction of the annual average energy requirement of the campus during sunshine hours met by the plant
- 4000: Number of PV modules (capacity 250 W, reference efficiency 15.37 %)
- 40: Number of inverters (capacity 25 kW)
- 30 degrees: Tilt angle of the modules with respect to the ground
- 70 tons: Mass of the galvanized steel mounting system
- 6.5 - 7 years: Estimated payback period

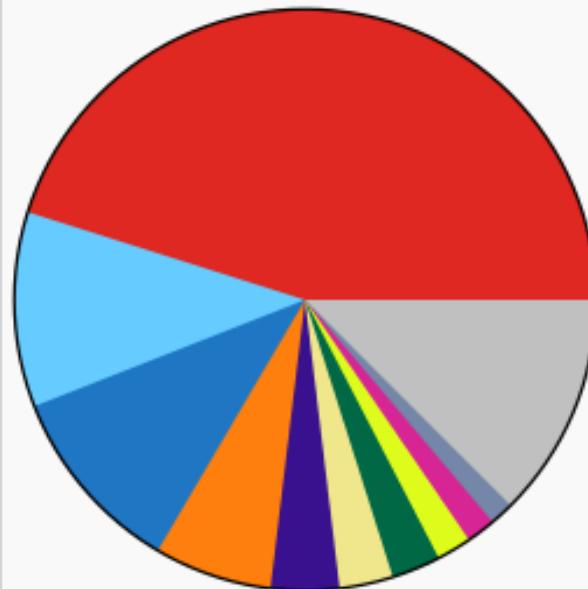


Example of Large-Scale PV Application: Muehlhausen, Germany, 10 MW

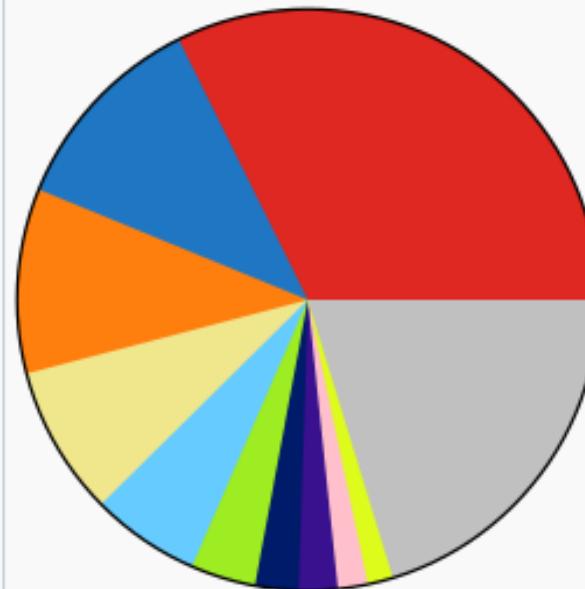




Top 10 countries by added solar PV capacity in 2018^[7]



Top 10 countries by cumulative solar PV capacity in 2018^[8]





See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_solar_thermal_power_stations for a list of solar thermal power stations.

Global renewable energy consumption: See
<https://ourworldindata.org/renewable-energy>

Top 10 Solar Companies in the World:
<https://blog.technavio.com/blog/top-10-solar-energy-companies>

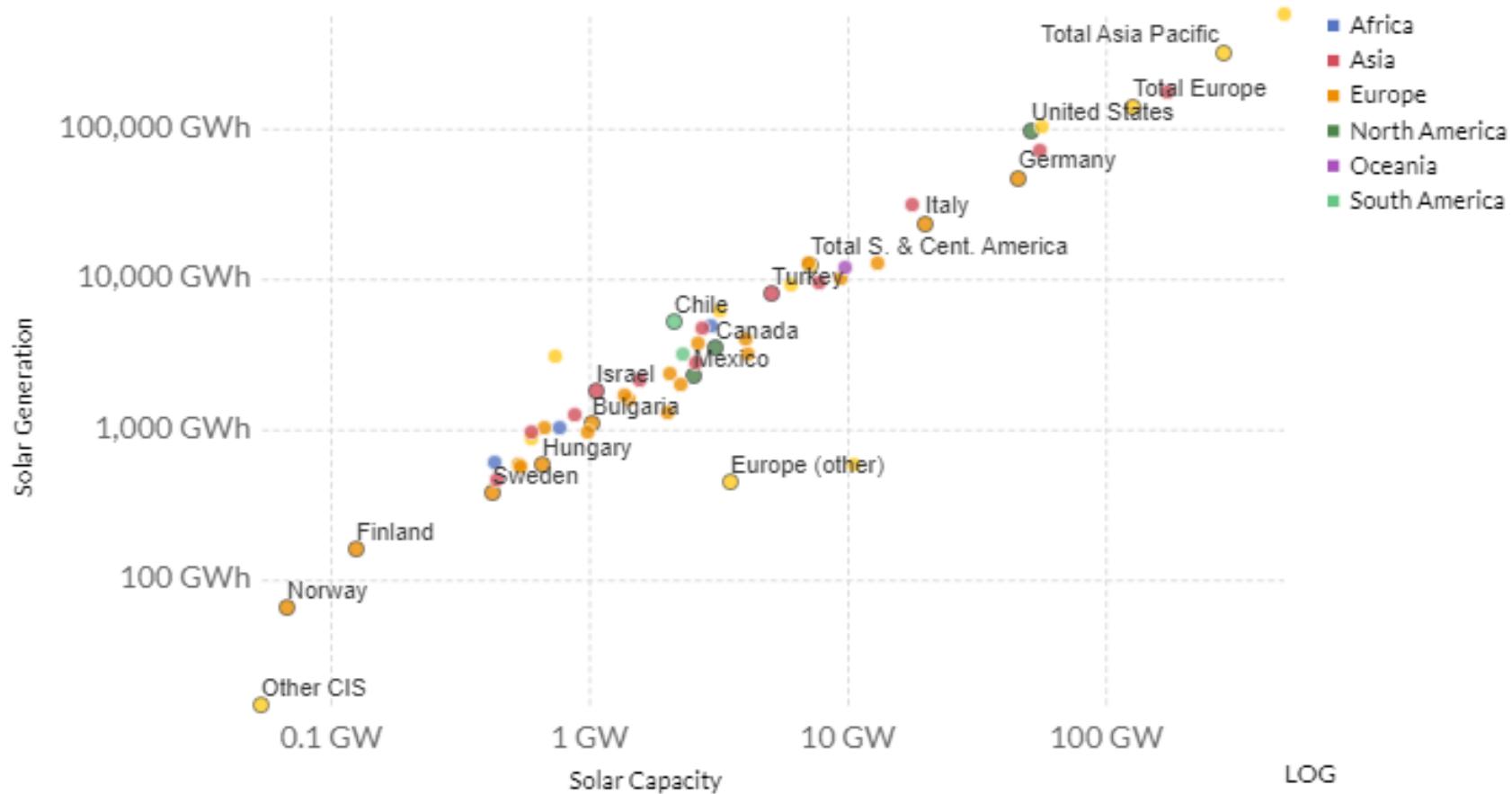


Solar energy generation vs. capacity, 2018

Solar energy generation, measured in gigawatt-hours (GWh) versus installed solar capacity, measured in gigawatts (GW).

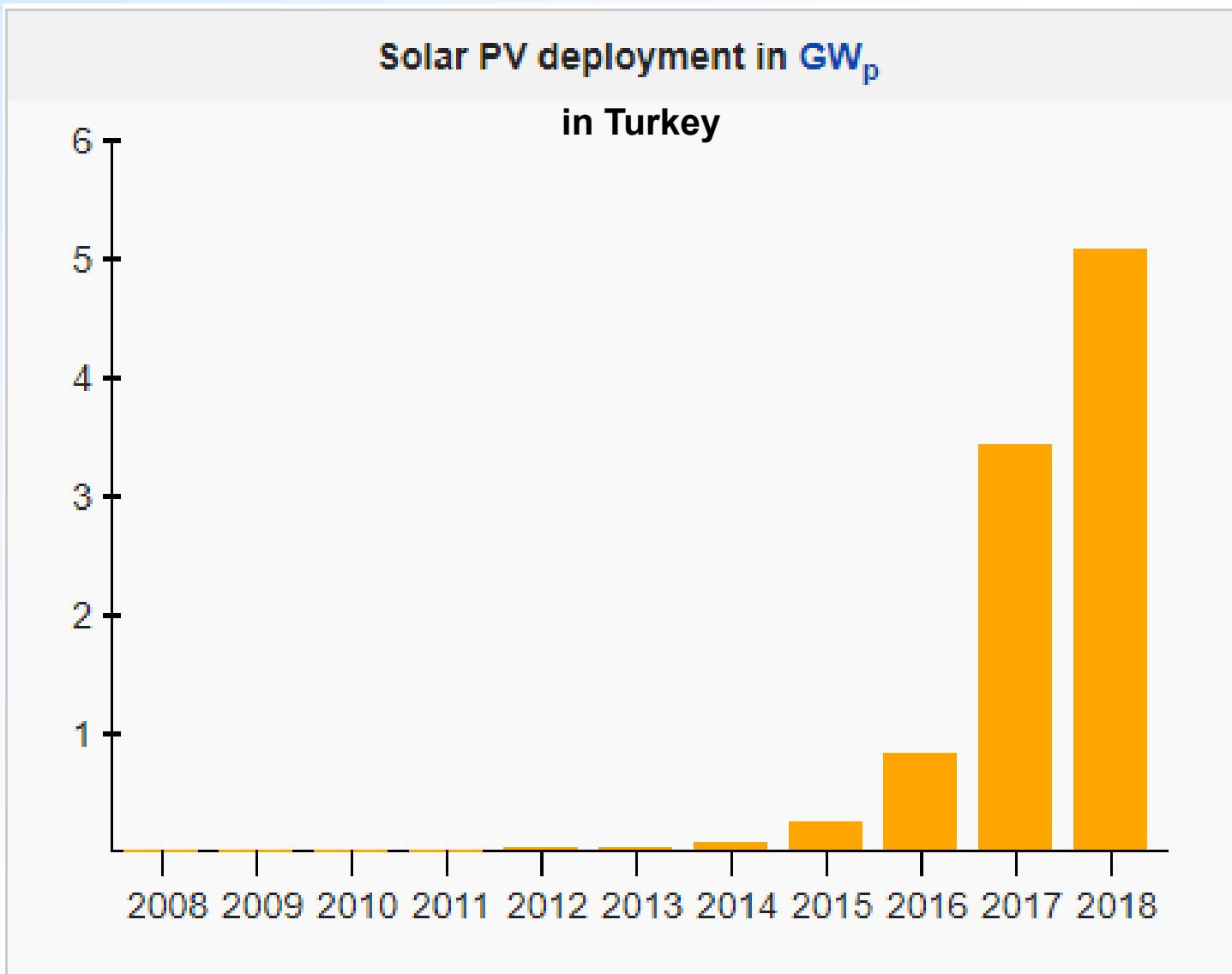
Our World
in Data

LOG

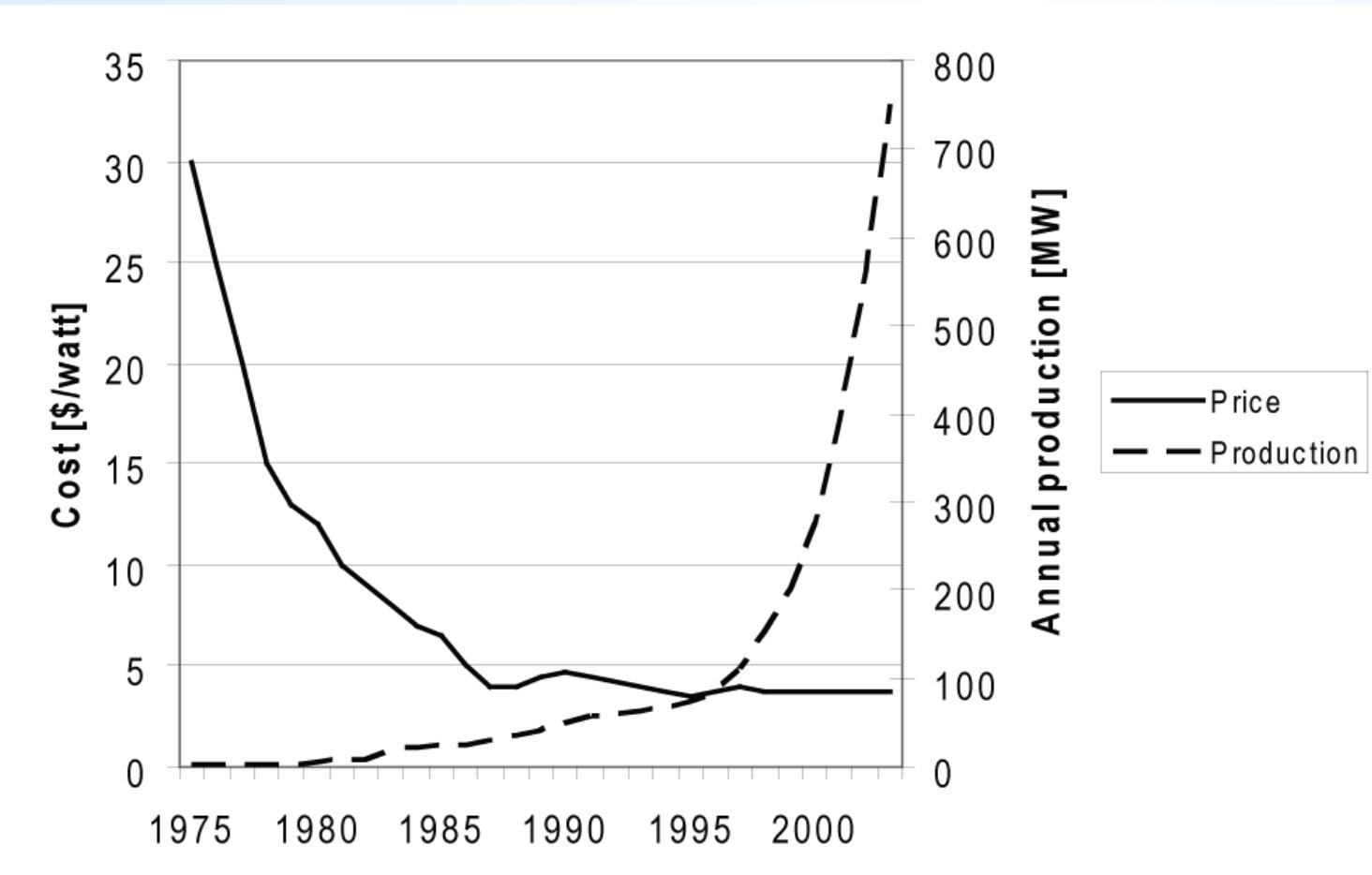


Source: BP Statistical Review of Global Energy (2019)

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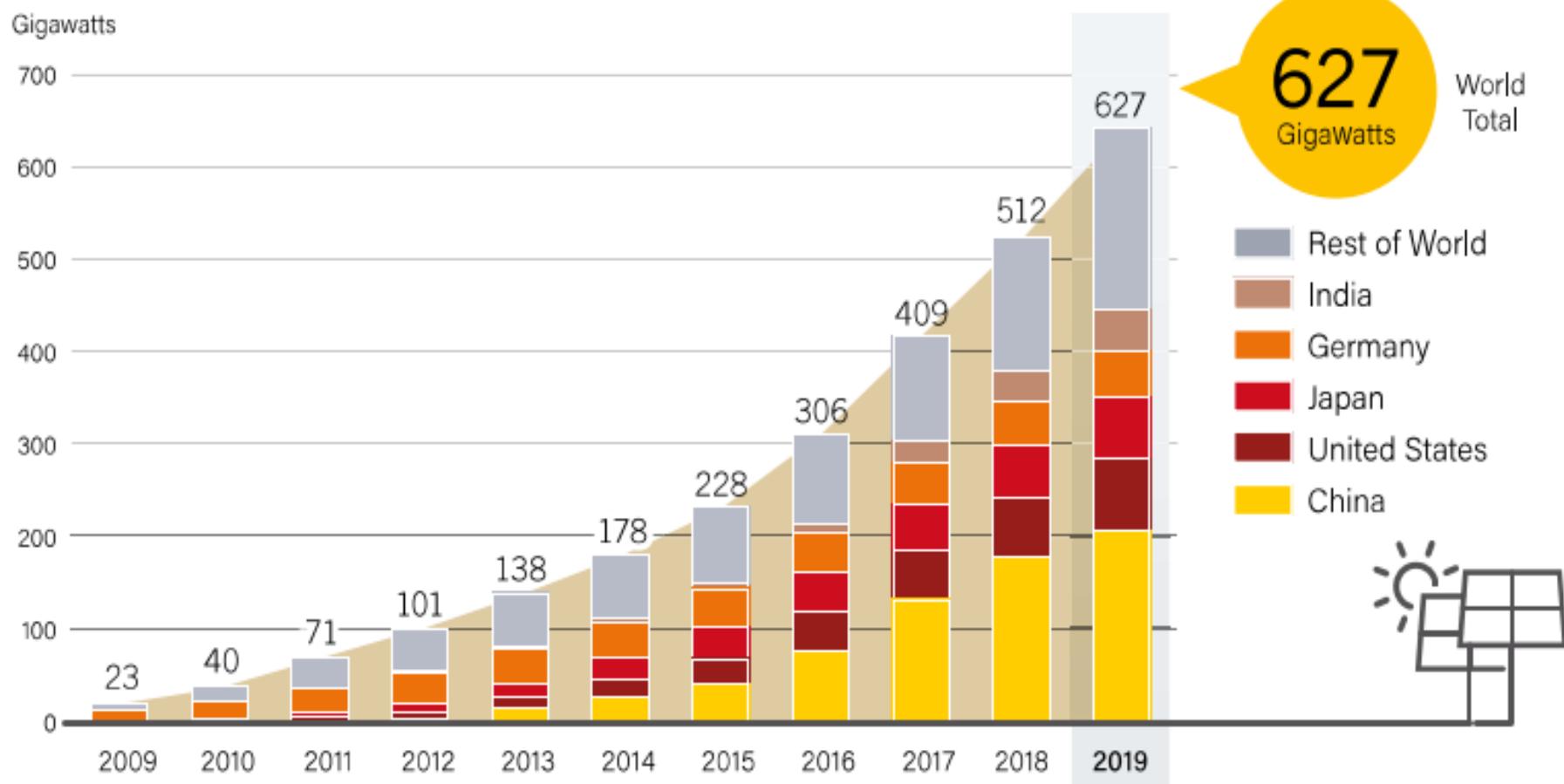


Annual output of world PV manufacturing and average cost per rated watt of panels, 1975 to 2003.





Solar PV Global Capacity, by Country and Region, 2009-2019





Figures can be very illustrative, but some data may help us to understand the real magnitude of this growth: 98 GW of solar PV capacity was added worldwide in 2017, increasing total capacity by nearly one-third, for a cumulative total of approximately 402 GW.

In 2017 China has surpassed all expectations, adding more solar capacity (51.3 GW) than was added worldwide in 2015 (51 GW). This is equivalent to the installation of nearly 40.000 solar PV panels every hour!



ME – 405 ENERGY CONVERSION SYSTEMS
