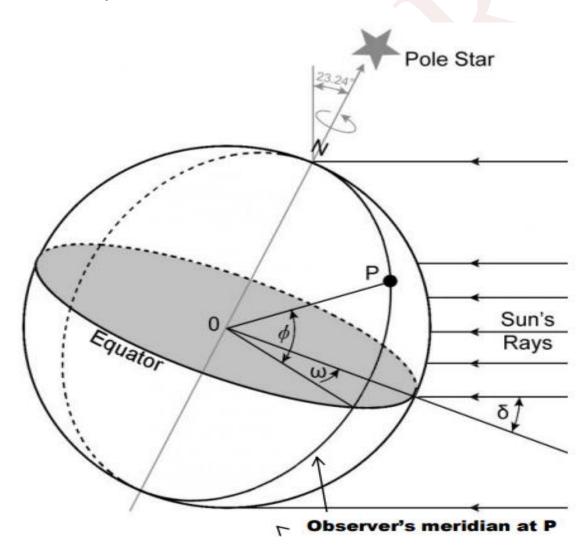
MODULE-2

SOLAR RADIATION GEOMETRY

Introduction

Solar radiation geometry involves understanding the angles and positions at which solar radiation strikes a surface, which is crucial for applications like solar panel installation and maximizing energy capture. The flux of solar radiation on a plane surface depends on the angle of incidence, which is influenced by the orientation of the surface and the position of the sun in the sky.



Flux on a Plane Surface

1. Angle of Incidence: This is the angle between the incoming solar radiation and the perpendicular (normal) to the surface. The smaller the angle of incidence, the more direct and intense the radiation hitting the surface. The angle of incidence is

influenced by several factors, including the tilt angle of the surface, the solar declination (the angle between the rays of the sun and the plane of the Earth's equator), the latitude of the location, and the time of day and year.

2. Flux Calculation: The solar radiation flux on a plane surface can be calculated using the cosine of the angle of incidence. Mathematically, if I_0 is the extraterrestrial solar irradiance (solar constant adjusted for Earth's distance from the sun) and θ is the angle of incidence, the flux I on the surface is given by:

$$I = I_0 \cos(\theta)$$

This equation shows that the flux is maximum when the surface is perpendicular to the incoming solar radiation (θ =0) and decreases as the angle increases.

Latitude or Angle of Latitude (φ): The latitude angle is the angle between a line drawn from a point on the earth's surface to the center of the earth and the earth's equatorial plane.

Declination Angle (\delta): If a line is drawn between the center of the earth and the sun, the angle between this line and the earth's equatorial plane is called the declination angle (δ).

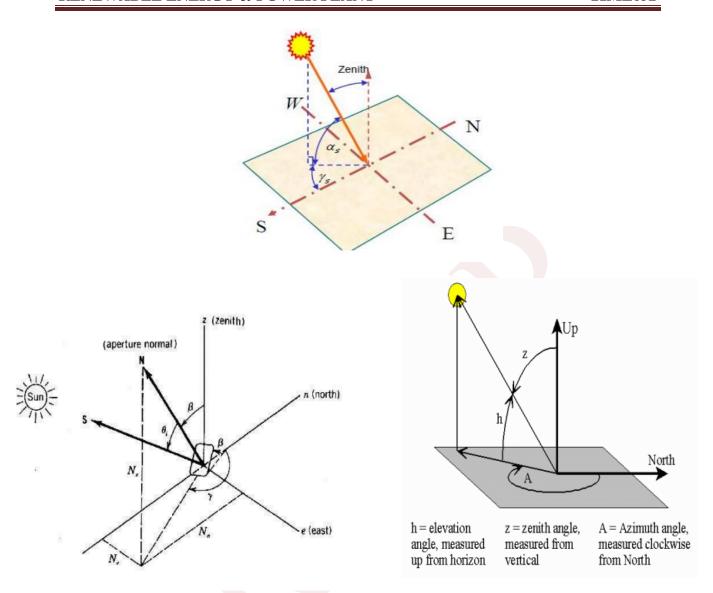
$$\delta = 23.45 \text{ x sin}[(360/365)(284+n)] \text{ degrees}$$

Hour Angle (ω): is the angular distance between the meridian of the observer and the meridian whose plane contains the sun. (or) The hour angle at any moment is the angle through which the earth must turn to bring the meridian of the observer directly in line with the sun rays.

$$\omega = [Ts - 12:00] \times 15$$
,

where,

- a) ω=Hour Angle (Degrees),
- **b)** Ts = Solar time
- c) ω +ve in afternoon and –ve in fore noon since at solar noon the hour angle is zero.



Solar Altitude Angle (α): is defined as the angle between the central ray from the sun, and its projection on horizontal plane containing the observer.

Solar Zenith Angle (\theta z): Angle between the sun ray and the normal to the horizontal plane.

Solar Azimuth Angle (\gammas): measured clockwise on the horizontal plane, angle between due south and the projection of the sun's central ray.

Slope or Tilt Angle (β): It is the angle between the inclined plane surface of collector and the horizontal. +ve when sloping is towards south.

Surface Azimuth Angle (Γ): It is the angle in the horizontal plane, between the line due south and the horizontal projection of the normal to the inclined plane surface. +ve when measured from south towards west.

Expressions for the Angle between the Incident Beam and the Normal to a Plane Surface (No Derivation)

The angle between the incident solar beam and the normal to a plane surface often referred to as the angle of incidence (θ) , can be determined using solar geometry. This involves several parameters including the solar declination (δ) , the hour angle (H), the latitude (ϕ) , and the surface tilt angle (β) .

Here are the key expressions:

1. Solar Declination (δ): This is the angle between the rays of the sun and the plane of the Earth's equator. It varies throughout the year as the Earth orbits the sun and can be calculated using the following formula:

$$\delta=23.45^{\circ}\sin\left(rac{360}{365}\left(284+n
ight)
ight)$$

where n is the day of the year (1 for January 1, 365 for December 31).

2. Hour Angle (H): This represents the rotation of the Earth, and it is the angular displacement of the sun east or west of the local meridian due to the rotation of the Earth. It is calculated as:

$$H=15^{\circ} \times (Local Solar Time - 12)$$

where Local Solar Time is the time based on the position of the sun in the sky, with solar noon being 12:00.

3. Zenith Angle (θz) : This is the angle between the vertical (directly overhead) and the line to the sun. It can be calculated as:

$$\cos(\theta z) = \sin(\phi)\sin(\delta) + \cos(\phi)\cos(\delta)\cos(H)$$

4. Angle of Incidence ($\theta \setminus \theta$): This is the angle between the incident beam and the normal to a tilted surface. For a surface tilted at an angle $\beta \setminus \beta$ from the horizontal and oriented at an azimuth angle γ , the angle of incidence can be found using:

$$\cos(\theta) = \sin(\delta)\sin(\phi)\cos(\beta) - \sin(\delta)\cos(\phi)\sin(\beta)\cos(\gamma) + \cos(\delta)\cos(\phi)\cos(\beta)\cos(H) + \cos(\delta)\sin(\phi)\sin(\beta)\sin(\beta)\cos(\gamma) + \cos(\delta)\sin(\beta)\sin(\gamma)\sin(H)$$

where:

- **a.** ϕ is the latitude of the location.
- **b.** δ is the solar declination.
- c. β is the tilt angle of the surface (0° for horizontal, 90° for vertical).
- **d.** γ is the surface azimuth angle (0° for south-facing in the northern hemisphere, positive for west of south, negative for east of south).
- **e.** H is the hour angle.

Local Apparent Time (LAT)

Definition: Local Apparent Time (LAT) is the time based on the apparent motion of the sun, where solar noon (when the sun is highest in the sky) is 12:00 LAT. It differs from standard time due to the equation of time and the observer's longitude relative to the standard meridian.

Equation of Time (EoT): The difference between apparent solar time and mean solar time, given approximately by:

$$EoT = 9.87\sin(2B) - 7.53\cos(B) - 1.5\sin(B)$$

where $B=rac{360}{365}(n-81)$, and n is the day of the year.

Conversion from Standard Time to LAT:

 $LAT = Standard Time + 4 \times (Local Longitude - Standard Meridian) + EoT$

Apparent Motion of the Sun

Definition: The apparent motion of the sun refers to the path the sun appears to take across the sky, which changes with the seasons due to the tilt of the Earth's axis and its orbit around the sun.

Solar Declination (δ):

$$\delta=23.45^{\circ}\sin\left(rac{360}{365}(n+284)
ight)$$

Day Length

Definition: Day length is the duration of daylight within a 24-hour period. It depends on the solar declination and the latitude of the location.

Calculation:

$$Day \ Length = \frac{2}{15} \cos^{-1}(-\tan(\phi) \tan(\delta))$$

where ϕ is the latitude, and δ is the solar declination.

Numerical Problems

1. Calculating Local Apparent Time

Given:

• Standard Time: 14:00 (2 PM)

• Local Longitude: 77.5°E

• Standard Meridian: 82.5°E

• Day of the Year: 100

Solution:

Calculate B:

$$B = \frac{360}{365}(100 - 81) = 18.76^{\circ}$$

Calculate EoT:

$$EoT = 9.87 \sin(2 \times 18.76^{\circ}) - 7.53 \cos(18.76^{\circ}) - 1.5 \sin(18.76^{\circ})$$

$$EoT \approx 2.49 \text{ minutes}$$

Convert to LAT:

$$LAT = 14:00 + 4 \times (77.5 - 82.5) + 2.49$$

$$LAT = 14:00 - 20 + 2.49 = 13:42.49 \text{ or } 1:42:49 \text{ PM}$$

2. Calculating the Angle of Incidence

Given:

- Latitude (ϕ): 35°
- Solar Declination (δ): 10°
- Hour Angle (H): 45°
- Tilt Angle (β): 30°
- Surface Azimuth Angle (γ): 0°

Solution:

$$\cos(\theta) = \sin(\delta)\sin(\phi)\cos(\beta) - \sin(\delta)\cos(\phi)\sin(\beta)\cos(\gamma) + \cos(\delta)\cos(\phi)\cos(\beta)\cos(H) + \cos(\delta)\sin(\phi)\sin(\beta)\sin(\beta)\cos(\gamma) + \cos(\delta)\sin(\beta)\sin(\gamma)\sin(H)$$

Substitute the values:

$$\begin{split} \cos(\theta) &= \sin(10^0)\sin(35^0)\cos(30^0) - \sin(10^0)\cos(35^0)\sin(30^0)\cos(0^0) + \\ \cos(10^0)\cos(35^0)\cos(30^0)\cos(45^0) + \cos(10^0)\sin(35^0)\sin(30^0)\cos(0^0) + \\ \cos(10^0)\sin(30^0)\sin(0^0)\sin(45^0) \\ \cos(\theta) &= 0.1736 \times 0.5736 \times 0.8660 - 0.1736 \times 0.8192 \times 0.5 + 0.9848 \times 0.8192 \times \\ 0.8660 \times 0.7071 + 0.9848 \times 0.5736 \times 0.5 \times 1 + 0 \\ \cos(\theta) &= 0.086 - 0.071 + 0.507 + 0.283 \\ \cos(\theta) &\approx 0.805 \\ \theta &= \cos^{-1}(0.805) \approx 36.1^0 \end{split}$$

3. Calculating Day Length

Given:

- Latitude (ϕ): 40°
- Solar Declination (δ): 23.45° (summer solstice)

Solution:

Day Length =
$$\frac{2}{15}\cos^{-1}(-\tan(40^{\circ})\tan(23.45^{\circ}))$$

Day Length =
$$\frac{2}{15}\cos^{-1}(-0.839 \times 0.432)$$

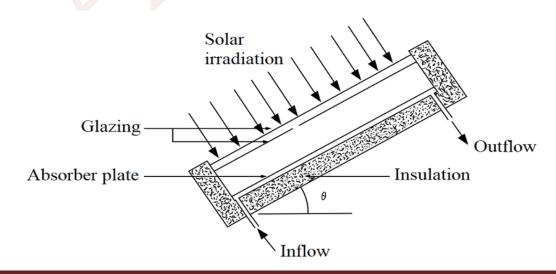
Day Length =
$$\frac{2}{15}\cos^{-1}(-0.362)$$

$$\mathrm{Day\ Length} = \frac{2}{15} \times 111.1^{\circ} \approx 14.81\ \mathrm{hours}$$

SOLAR THERMAL SYSTEMS

Solar Flat Plate Collectors

Introduction: Solar flat plate collectors are one of the most common types of solar thermal collectors used to capture solar energy for heating applications. They are widely used in residential and commercial buildings for water heating, space heating, and other low to medium temperature applications.



Components of a Flat Plate Collector:

1. Absorber Plate:

- **Material:** Typically made of metal (copper or aluminum) due to their excellent thermal conductivity.
- **Function:** The absorber plate absorbs incoming solar radiation and converts it into heat. The heat is then transferred to the fluid (usually water or air) flowing through or over the plate.

2. Transparent Cover (Glazing):

- Material: Usually made of glass or transparent plastic.
- **Function:** The cover allows sunlight to pass through and reach the absorber plate while minimizing heat loss through convection and radiation. It also protects the absorber plate from environmental elements.

3. Insulation:

- **Material:** Generally made of materials like fiberglass, polyurethane foam, or mineral wool.
- **Function:** Insulation is placed at the back and sides of the collector to reduce heat loss and improve efficiency by keeping the absorbed heat within the collector.

4. Fluid Passageways:

- Material: Copper or plastic tubes or channels.
- **Function:** The fluid (water or antifreeze solution) flows through these passageways, absorbing the heat from the absorber plate and carrying it to the storage tank or directly to the application.

5. Collector Box (Casing):

- Material: Often made of aluminum or steel.
- **Function:** The box encloses all the components, providing structural support and protection from weather.

Working Principle:

1. Absorption of Solar Radiation:

• Sunlight passes through the transparent cover and strikes the absorber plate.

• The absorber plate, typically coated with a selective coating to improve efficiency, absorbs the solar radiation and converts it into heat.

2. Heat Transfer to Fluid:

- The heat generated in the absorber plate is transferred to the fluid circulating through the tubes or channels attached to the absorber.
- The heated fluid then carries the thermal energy away from the collector.

3. Fluid Circulation:

- The heated fluid is pumped or naturally circulated to a storage tank or directly to the application where the heat is used.
- A heat exchanger may be used to transfer the heat from the collector fluid to
 potable water or space heating systems if the fluid contains antifreeze or other
 additives.

4. Reduction of Heat Loss:

- The transparent cover reduces heat loss by trapping a layer of air between the cover and the absorber plate, reducing convective heat loss.
- The insulation on the back and sides minimizes conductive heat loss.

Advantages of Flat Plate Collectors:

1. Simplicity and Durability:

• Flat plate collectors have a simple design, making them easy to manufacture and maintain. They are also durable with a long lifespan.

2. Cost-Effective:

• Compared to other solar collectors, flat plate collectors are relatively inexpensive, making them a cost-effective option for solar thermal applications.

3. Versatility:

• They can be used in a wide range of applications, from domestic hot water heating to large-scale commercial and industrial heating systems.

Disadvantages of Flat Plate Collectors:

1. Efficiency Limitations:

• Flat plate collectors are less efficient than more advanced collectors like evacuated tube collectors, especially in colder climates and under diffuse solar radiation conditions.

2. Heat Loss:

• Despite the insulation and glazing, there is still some heat loss due to convection and radiation, which can reduce overall efficiency.

Applications:

1. Domestic Hot Water Systems:

• Used to provide hot water for households, reducing the need for conventional water heating methods.

2. Space Heating:

 Integrated into building heating systems to provide warmth during colder months.

3. Swimming Pool Heating:

• Efficiently heats pool water, extending the swimming season and reducing heating costs.

4. Industrial Processes:

• Used in various industrial applications where low to medium temperature heat is required.

Example Calculation:

Example: Calculate the amount of heat energy collected by a flat plate collector with an absorber area of 2 m², exposed to solar radiation of 600 W/m², for 5 hours. Assume the efficiency of the collector is 50%.

Solution:

1. Total solar energy incident on the collector:

Incident Energy = Area \times Solar Radiation \times Time

Incident Energy = $2 \text{ m}^2 \times 600 \text{ W/m}^2 \times 5 \text{ hours}$

Incident Energy = $2 \times 600 \times 5 \times 3600$ seconds (since 1 hour = 3600 seconds) \text{Incident Energy} = 2 \times 600 \times 5 \times 3600 \, \text{seconds (since 1 hour = 3600)}

Incident Energy= $2 \times 600 \times 18000 \text{ J}$

Incident Energy= 21,600,000 J

2. Useful heat energy collected:

Useful Energy = Incident Energy \times Efficiency

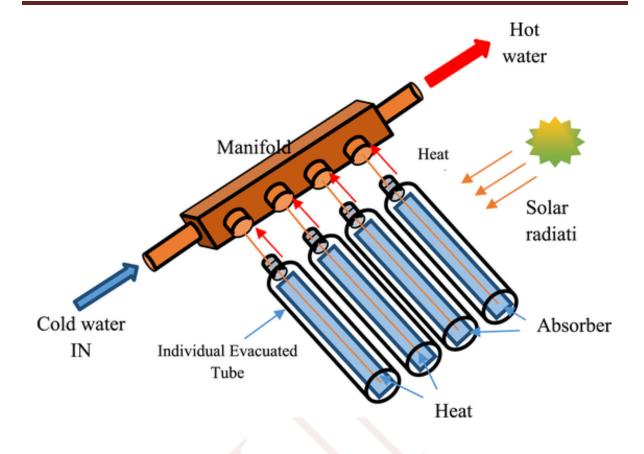
Useful Energy = $21,600,000 \text{ J} \times 0.5$

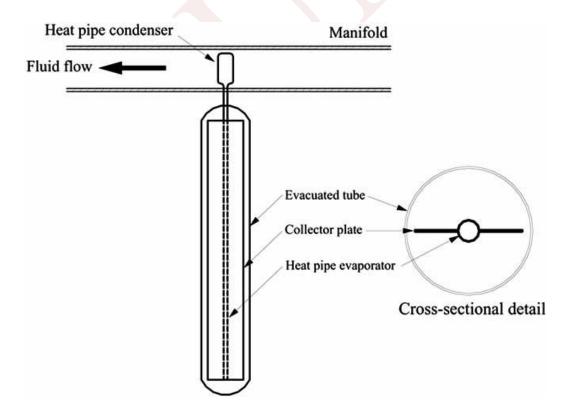
Useful Energy 10,800,000 J

The flat plate collector collects 10,800,000 joules (10.8 MJ) of useful heat energy in 5 hours under the given conditions.

Solar Evacuated Tube Collectors

Introduction: Solar evacuated tube collectors are advanced solar thermal systems designed to capture solar energy more efficiently than flat plate collectors. They are particularly effective in colder climates and applications requiring higher temperatures. These collectors use vacuum-sealed tubes to minimize heat loss and maximize heat absorption, making them suitable for residential, commercial, and industrial applications.





Components of an Evacuated Tube Collector:

1. Evacuated Tubes:

- **Structure:** Each tube consists of two concentric glass tubes separated by a vacuum. The inner tube is coated with a selective material to enhance solar absorption, while the outer tube is transparent.
- **Function:** The vacuum between the tubes acts as an insulator, reducing heat loss through convection and conduction.

2. Absorber:

- **Material:** Typically made of copper or aluminum with a selective coating.
- **Function:** The absorber, located inside the inner tube, absorbs solar radiation and converts it into heat. The heat is transferred to a heat pipe or a fluid circulating through the tube.

3. Heat Pipe or U-Tube:

- **Heat Pipe:** A sealed copper pipe containing a small amount of fluid (usually alcohol or water) that evaporates and condenses to transfer heat efficiently.
- **U-Tube:** A continuous fluid passageway through which a heat transfer fluid circulates.

4. Manifold:

- **Structure:** A horizontal pipe or header where the heat pipes or U-tubes converge.
- **Function:** The manifold collects the heat from the individual tubes and transfers it to the system's heat transfer fluid, which circulates through the entire system.

5. Frame and Mounting:

- **Material:** Typically made of aluminum or stainless steel.
- **Function:** The frame holds the evacuated tubes in place and ensures they are positioned at the optimal angle to capture solar radiation.

Working Principle:

1. Absorption of Solar Radiation:

- Sunlight passes through the outer glass tube and strikes the absorber inside the inner tube.
- The absorber, with its selective coating, efficiently absorbs the solar radiation and converts it into heat.

2. Heat Transfer:

- **Heat Pipe Systems:** The heat absorbed by the absorber evaporates the fluid inside the heat pipe. The vapor rises to the condenser end of the heat pipe located in the manifold. The heat is then transferred to the heat transfer fluid circulating through the manifold, and the vapor condenses back into a liquid, returning to the bottom of the heat pipe by gravity.
- **U-Tube Systems:** The heat absorbed by the absorber is directly transferred to the heat transfer fluid circulating through the U-tube, which carries the heat to the manifold.

3. Fluid Circulation:

• The heat transfer fluid circulates through the manifold, absorbing heat from the evaporated fluid or U-tubes and carrying it to the storage tank or directly to the application.

4. Reduction of Heat Loss:

• The vacuum between the glass tubes acts as an excellent insulator, significantly reducing heat loss through convection and conduction. This makes evacuated tube collectors more efficient, especially in colder climates and low sunlight conditions.

Advantages of Evacuated Tube Collectors:

1. High Efficiency:

• Due to the vacuum insulation, evacuated tube collectors have higher thermal efficiency compared to flat plate collectors, especially in colder and less sunny conditions.

2. Better Performance in Cold Climates:

• The vacuum insulation minimizes heat loss, making these collectors more effective in maintaining high temperatures in cold climates.

3. Modularity and Flexibility:

• Individual tubes can be replaced without affecting the entire system, and the collectors can be easily scaled up by adding more tubes.

4. Higher Temperature Applications:

• They are capable of achieving higher temperatures, making them suitable for applications like industrial process heating and solar cooling.

Disadvantages of Evacuated Tube Collectors:

1. Higher Cost:

• The advanced technology and materials used in evacuated tube collectors make them more expensive than flat plate collectors.

2. Fragility:

• The glass tubes can be more fragile and susceptible to damage compared to the more robust construction of flat plate collectors.

3. Complexity:

• The system is more complex to install and maintain, requiring skilled technicians for optimal performance.

Applications:

1. Residential Hot Water Systems:

• Used for domestic hot water heating, providing efficient year-round performance.

2. Commercial and Industrial Heating:

• Suitable for large-scale water heating, space heating, and industrial processes requiring high temperatures.

3. Solar Cooling:

• Can be used in absorption refrigeration systems to provide solar-powered cooling.

4. Swimming Pool Heating:

• Efficiently heats pool water, extending the swimming season and reducing heating costs.

Example Calculation:

Example: Calculate the amount of heat energy collected by an evacuated tube collector with an absorber area of 2 m², exposed to solar radiation of 800 W/m², for 6 hours. Assume the efficiency of the collector is 70%.

Solution:

1. Total solar energy incident on the collector:

Incident Energy = Area \times Solar Radiation \times Time

Incident Energy = $2m^2 \times 800 \text{ W/m}^2 \times 6 \text{ hours}$

Incident Energy = $2 \times 800 \times 6 \times 3600$ seconds (since 1 hour = 3600 seconds)

Incident Energy = $2 \times 800 \times 21600 \text{ J}$

Incident Energy = 34,560,000 J

2. Useful heat energy collected:

Useful Energy = Incident Energy \times Efficiency

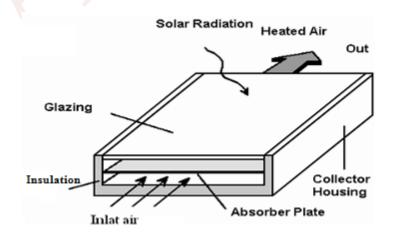
Useful Energy = $34,560,000 \text{ J} \times 0.7$

Useful Energy = 24,192,000 J

The evacuated tube collector collects 24,192,000 joules (24.19 MJ) of useful heat energy in 6 hours under the given conditions.

Solar Air Collectors

Introduction: Solar air collectors are devices designed to capture solar energy and use it to heat air. These systems are simple, cost-effective, and can be used for space heating, drying agricultural products, and preheating ventilation air in residential, commercial, and industrial applications. Solar air collectors convert solar radiation into thermal energy, which is then transferred to the air flowing through the collector.



Components of a Solar Air Collector:

1. Absorber Plate:

- **Material:** Typically made of metal (such as aluminum or copper) or other high thermal conductivity materials.
- **Function:** The absorber plate is coated with a dark, selective coating to maximize solar absorption and minimize heat loss. It absorbs solar radiation and converts it into heat.

2. Transparent Cover:

- **Material:** Usually glass or a transparent plastic.
- **Function:** The cover allows solar radiation to pass through and reach the absorber plate while reducing heat loss by trapping air and creating a greenhouse effect.

3. Insulation:

- **Material:** Often made of fiberglass or foam.
- **Function:** Insulation is placed on the back and sides of the collector to minimize heat loss and ensure that most of the heat is transferred to the air flowing through the collector.

4. Air Flow Passage:

- **Design:** The passage through which air flows can vary in design, including single-pass, double-pass, or multiple-pass configurations.
- **Function:** The air flow passage is designed to maximize contact between the air and the heated absorber plate, enhancing heat transfer.

5. Housing:

- **Material:** Typically made of metal or plastic.
- **Function:** The housing encloses all the components of the solar air collector and provides structural support.

Working Principle:

1. Absorption of Solar Radiation:

• Solar radiation passes through the transparent cover and strikes the absorber plate. The selective coating on the absorber plate maximizes the absorption of solar energy and converts it into heat.

2. Heat Transfer to Air:

• Air is drawn through the collector, either naturally (via buoyancy effects) or forced by a fan. As the air passes over or through the heated absorber plate, it absorbs heat from the plate, increasing its temperature.

3. Circulation of Heated Air:

• The heated air is then circulated to the desired area, such as a living space, drying chamber, or ventilation system. This can be achieved through natural convection or with the assistance of fans.

4. Minimizing Heat Loss:

 The transparent cover reduces heat loss by creating a greenhouse effect, and the insulation on the back and sides of the collector minimizes heat loss to the surroundings.

Types of Solar Air Collectors:

1. Unglazed Solar Air Collectors:

- **Structure:** These collectors do not have a transparent cover.
- **Function:** They are typically used for lower temperature applications, such as preheating ventilation air or drying agricultural products.

2. Glazed Solar Air Collectors:

- **Structure:** These collectors have a transparent cover that creates a greenhouse effect
- **Function:** They are used for higher temperature applications, such as space heating, due to their better heat retention.

3. Transpired Solar Air Collectors:

- **Structure:** These collectors consist of a perforated absorber plate through which air is drawn directly.
- **Function:** They are used for preheating ventilation air and are often installed on building facades or roofs.

Advantages of Solar Air Collectors:

1. Cost-Effectiveness:

• Solar air collectors are relatively simple and inexpensive to construct and maintain compared to other solar thermal systems.

2. Versatility:

• They can be used for a wide range of applications, including space heating, drying, and ventilation air preheating.

3. Durability:

• Solar air collectors are generally durable and have a long lifespan due to their simple design and the use of robust materials.

4. Environmentally Friendly:

• They reduce reliance on fossil fuels and decrease greenhouse gas emissions by using renewable solar energy.

Disadvantages of Solar Air Collectors:

1. Weather Dependence:

• The efficiency of solar air collectors is dependent on solar radiation, which can be variable due to weather conditions and geographical location.

2. Lower Efficiency:

• Compared to solar water heaters, solar air collectors typically have lower thermal efficiency due to the lower heat capacity of air.

3. Space Requirements:

• They require a relatively large surface area to capture sufficient solar energy, which may not always be available.

Applications:

1. Space Heating:

• Solar air collectors can be used to heat residential, commercial, and industrial buildings by circulating heated air through the spaces.

2. Drying Agricultural Products:

• They are used in solar dryers to remove moisture from crops, herbs, and other agricultural products, improving preservation and quality.

3. Preheating Ventilation Air:

• Solar air collectors preheat ventilation air in buildings, reducing the energy required to heat the air to a comfortable temperature.

4. Industrial Processes:

• They can be used to provide hot air for various industrial processes, such as drying, curing, and heating.

Example Calculation:

Example: Calculate the heat energy collected by a solar air collector with an absorber area of 3 m², exposed to solar radiation of 700 W/m², for 5 hours. Assume the efficiency of the collector is 60%.

Solution:

1. Total solar energy incident on the collector:

```
Incident Energy = Area \times Solar Radiation \times Time 
Incident Energy = 3\text{m}^2 \times 700 \text{ W/m}^2 \times 5\text{hours} 
Incident Energy = 3 \times 700 \times 18000 \text{ J} (since 1 hour = 3600 seconds) 
Incident Energy = 37,800,000 \text{ J}
```

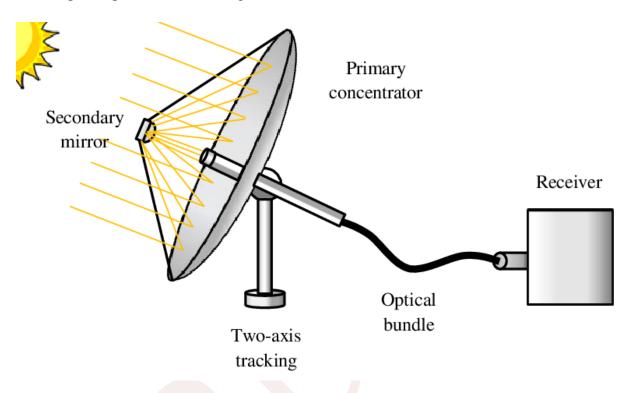
2. Useful heat energy collected:

```
Useful Energy = Incident Energy \times Efficiency 
Useful Energy = 37,800,000 J \times 0.6 
Useful Energy = 22,680,000 J
```

The solar air collector collects 22,680,000 joules (22.68 MJ) of useful heat energy in 5 hours under the given conditions.

Solar Concentrators

Introduction: Solar concentrators are devices that focus a large area of sunlight onto a smaller area using mirrors or lenses. This concentration increases the intensity of the solar radiation, making it possible to achieve higher temperatures and improve the efficiency of solar energy systems. Solar concentrators are used in various applications, including solar thermal power plants, solar cooking, and solar furnaces.



Types of Solar Concentrators:

1. Parabolic Trough Collectors (PTCs):

- **Structure:** These have a parabolic-shaped reflector that focuses sunlight onto a receiver tube located along the focal line of the parabola.
- **Application:** Commonly used in solar thermal power plants for electricity generation.

2. Parabolic Dish Collectors:

- **Structure:** These have a parabolic dish-shaped reflector that focuses sunlight onto a receiver positioned at the focal point above the dish.
- **Application:** Used for both electricity generation and thermal applications, such as solar cooking.

3. Linear Fresnel Reflectors:

• **Structure:** These use multiple flat or slightly curved mirrors to focus sunlight onto a linear receiver positioned above the mirrors.

• **Application:** Used in solar thermal power plants, similar to parabolic troughs but with a simpler design.

4. Heliostat Field Collectors:

- **Structure:** A field of flat or slightly curved mirrors (heliostats) tracks the sun and reflects sunlight onto a central receiver mounted on a tower.
- **Application:** Used in central receiver systems (solar power towers) for high-temperature applications and electricity generation.

5. Fresnel Lens Concentrators:

- **Structure:** These use a Fresnel lens to focus sunlight onto a small area. The lens can be flat but still focuses light effectively.
- **Application:** Used in photovoltaic systems and small-scale thermal applications.

Working Principle:

1. Collection of Solar Radiation:

• The concentrator collects a large amount of solar radiation over its surface area. Mirrors or lenses are used to focus this radiation.

2. Focusing of Solar Radiation:

• The collected solar radiation is focused onto a smaller area (receiver or absorber) by the concentrator. The concentration increases the intensity of the solar radiation at the receiver.

3. Absorption and Conversion:

• The receiver absorbs the concentrated solar radiation and converts it into thermal energy. In photovoltaic concentrators, solar cells are used to convert concentrated sunlight directly into electricity.

4. Heat Transfer:

 In solar thermal applications, the thermal energy is transferred to a working fluid (such as water, oil, or molten salts) that circulates through the receiver.
 The heated fluid can then be used for power generation, heating, or other industrial processes.

Applications:

1. Solar Thermal Power Plants:

• Solar concentrators are widely used in solar thermal power plants to generate electricity. The concentrated solar energy heats a working fluid, which then drives a turbine connected to a generator.

2. Solar Cooking:

• Parabolic dish collectors and other solar concentrators can be used for cooking food by focusing sunlight to achieve high temperatures.

3. Solar Furnaces:

• Solar furnaces use high-concentration solar energy to achieve extremely high temperatures for materials testing, research, and industrial processes.

4. Desalination:

• Solar concentrators can be used in desalination plants to produce fresh water by evaporating seawater and condensing the vapor.

5. Solar Heating:

• Concentrators can be used for space heating, water heating, and other thermal applications where high temperatures are required.

Advantages:

1. High Efficiency:

• Concentrating solar radiation increases the efficiency of solar energy systems by achieving higher temperatures and reducing heat losses.

2. Cost-Effectiveness:

• Concentrators can reduce the amount of expensive photovoltaic material required in solar cells by focusing sunlight onto a smaller area.

3. Scalability:

• Solar concentrator systems can be scaled to different sizes, from small solar cookers to large solar power plants.

4. Versatility:

• They can be used in a variety of applications, including electricity generation, heating, and industrial processes.

Disadvantages:

1. Complexity:

• Solar concentrator systems are more complex than flat-plate collectors or photovoltaic panels, requiring precise alignment and tracking mechanisms.

2. Weather Dependence:

• Their performance is affected by weather conditions, such as cloud cover and dust, which can reduce the intensity of sunlight reaching the concentrator.

3. Land and Space Requirements:

• Large-scale concentrator systems require significant land and space for installation, especially for heliostat fields and parabolic trough systems.

4. Initial Cost:

• The initial cost of solar concentrator systems can be high due to the materials and technology required for focusing and tracking mechanisms.

Example Calculation:

Example: Calculate the concentration ratio of a parabolic dish collector with an aperture diameter of 4 meters and a receiver diameter of 0.1 meters.

Solution:

1. Aperture Area (A_a):

$$A_a=\pi\left(rac{D_a}{2}
ight)^2$$

$$A_a=\pi\left(rac{4}{2}
ight)^2=\pi imes 4=12.57\,\mathrm{m}^2$$

2. Receiver Area (A_r):

$$A_r = \pi \left(rac{D_r}{2}
ight)^2$$

$$A_r = \pi \left(rac{0.1}{2}
ight)^2 = \pi imes 0.0025 = 0.00785 \, \mathrm{m}^2$$

3. Concentration Ratio (C):

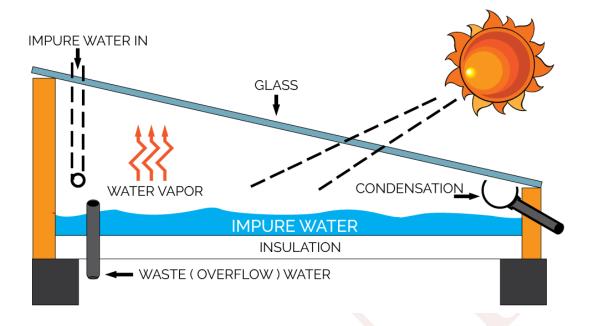
$$C=rac{A_a}{A_r}$$

$$C = \frac{12.57}{0.00785} = 1601.27$$

The concentration ratio of the parabolic dish collector is 1601.27, meaning the solar radiation is concentrated 1601.27 times at the receiver.

Solar Distillation

Introduction: Solar distillation is a process that uses solar energy to purify water, making it safe for drinking and other uses. The process mimics the natural hydrologic cycle: solar radiation heats water, causing it to evaporate, and the vapor then condenses into distilled water, leaving contaminants behind. This method is particularly useful in regions with abundant sunlight and limited access to clean water.



Basic Principle:

Solar distillation works on the principle of using solar energy to evaporate water and then condense the vapor to produce purified water. The key components of a solar still, the device used for solar distillation, include:

- 1. Transparent Cover: Allows sunlight to enter and heats the water inside.
- 2. Black Absorber Basin: Absorbs solar radiation and transfers heat to the water.
- 3. Water Basin: Holds the water to be distilled.
- **4. Condensing Surface:** Collects the condensed vapor as purified water.
- **5.** Collection Trough: Gathers the distilled water for storage.

Types of Solar Stills:

1. Single-Basin Solar Still:

- **Structure:** The most basic design, consisting of a shallow basin with a transparent cover. The sun heats the water, which evaporates and then condenses on the underside of the cover.
- Advantages: Simple, low-cost, and easy to construct.
- **Disadvantages:** Lower efficiency and productivity compared to other designs.

2. Multi-Basin Solar Still:

- **Structure:** Multiple basins stacked vertically or horizontally, increasing the surface area for evaporation and condensation.
- Advantages: Higher efficiency and productivity.
- **Disadvantages:** More complex and expensive to construct.

3. Inclined Solar Still:

- **Structure:** An inclined surface where water flows down, increasing the area exposed to sunlight and enhancing evaporation.
- Advantages: Increased efficiency due to better exposure to sunlight.
- **Disadvantages:** Requires precise construction and alignment.

4. Wick-Type Solar Still:

- **Structure:** Uses a wick to draw water into the evaporation zone, increasing the surface area for evaporation.
- Advantages: Higher efficiency and can work with a smaller amount of water.
- **Disadvantages:** Requires maintenance of the wick material.

Working Process:

1. Solar Energy Collection:

• The transparent cover allows sunlight to enter the still and heat the water in the black absorber basin.

2. Evaporation:

• As the water heats up, it evaporates, leaving impurities such as salts, minerals, and microorganisms behind in the basin.

3. Condensation:

• The water vapor rises and condenses on the cooler inner surface of the transparent cover.

4. Collection:

• The condensed water (distillate) runs down the inclined cover into the collection trough, where it is gathered and stored.

Factors Affecting Efficiency:

1. Solar Intensity:

• Higher solar intensity increases the rate of evaporation, thus improving the efficiency of the solar still.

2. Temperature Difference:

• A greater temperature difference between the water and the condensing surface enhances condensation rates.

3. Design and Construction:

• The material and design of the still, such as the angle of the cover, insulation, and surface area, significantly impact efficiency.

4. Water Depth:

• Shallow water depths in the basin lead to faster heating and evaporation.

5. Wind Speed:

 Adequate ventilation can help maintain the temperature difference required for efficient condensation.

Applications:

1. Drinking Water Production:

• Solar distillation provides clean drinking water in remote and arid regions with limited access to fresh water.

2. Desalination:

• Solar stills can be used to desalinate seawater, making it suitable for drinking and irrigation.

3. Wastewater Treatment:

• Solar distillation can purify contaminated water, reducing pollutants and pathogens.

4. Emergency Situations:

• Solar stills are useful in disaster relief scenarios where access to clean water is compromised.

Advantages:

1. Renewable Energy Source:

• Uses abundant solar energy, making it sustainable and environmentally friendly.

2. Simple Technology:

• Easy to construct and maintain, requiring minimal technical expertise.

3. Low Operating Costs:

• Once constructed, solar stills have low operational and maintenance costs.

4. Water Quality:

• Produces high-quality distilled water free from most contaminants.

Disadvantages:

1. Low Output:

 Solar stills generally produce limited amounts of water compared to other desalination methods.

2. Weather Dependent:

• Efficiency is heavily dependent on solar intensity and weather conditions.

3. Large Land Area:

• Requires a significant amount of space for large-scale water production.

Example Calculation:

Example: Calculate the daily water output of a single-basin solar still with an effective area of 1 m², given an average solar radiation of 6 kWh/m²/day and an efficiency of 30%.

Solution:

1. Solar Energy Input:

Solar Energy = Area \times Solar Radiation

$$Solar Energy = 1 m^2 \times 6 kWh/m^2/day = 6 kWh/day$$

2. Energy Utilized for Water Evaporation:

Useful Energy = Solar Energy \times Efficiency

Useful Energy =
$$6 \text{ kWh/day} \times 0.30 = 1.8 \text{ kWh/day}$$

3. Latent Heat of Vaporization:

Latent Heat =
$$2.26 \,\mathrm{MJ/kg} = 0.63 \,\mathrm{kWh/kg}$$

4. Daily Water Output:

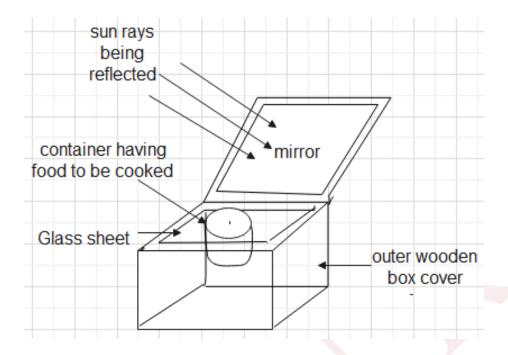
$$Water\ Output = \frac{Useful\ Energy}{Latent\ Heat}$$

$$Water\ Output = \frac{1.8\,kWh/day}{0.63\,kWh/kg} \approx 2.86\,kg/day$$

The solar still produces approximately 2.86 liters of distilled water per day.

Solar Cooker

Introduction: A solar cooker is a device that uses sunlight to cook food, providing a sustainable and environmentally friendly alternative to conventional cooking methods that rely on fossil fuels or electricity. Solar cookers are particularly useful in regions with high solar insolation and can help reduce fuel costs and deforestation while promoting clean cooking practices.



Types of Solar Cookers:

1. Box-Type Solar Cooker:

- **Structure:** Consists of an insulated box with a transparent cover and reflective surfaces to concentrate sunlight into the box.
- Working: Sunlight enters through the transparent cover, gets trapped inside, and heats the air and cooking pots.
- Advantages: Simple design, can cook multiple dishes at once, and retains heat well.
- **Disadvantages:** Takes longer to cook food compared to other types.

2. Parabolic Solar Cooker:

- **Structure:** Uses a parabolic reflector to focus sunlight onto a central cooking pot or area.
- Working: The parabolic shape concentrates sunlight to a focal point, generating high temperatures for faster cooking.
- **Advantages:** Cooks food quickly and can reach high temperatures, suitable for frying and grilling.
- **Disadvantages:** Requires frequent adjustment to track the sun and can be bulky.

3. Panel Solar Cooker:

• **Structure:** Consists of reflective panels arranged around a central cooking pot to concentrate sunlight.

- **Working:** The panels reflect sunlight onto the pot, increasing the temperature for cooking.
- Advantages: Portable, easy to set up, and inexpensive.
- **Disadvantages:** Less efficient than parabolic cookers, and cooking time can be longer.

4. Vacuum Tube Solar Cooker:

- **Structure:** Utilizes vacuum tubes to trap and convert sunlight into heat.
- Working: Sunlight is absorbed by the vacuum tubes, which then transfer the heat to the cooking area inside the tube.
- Advantages: Highly efficient, retains heat well, and can cook even in partially cloudy conditions.
- **Disadvantages:** More expensive and delicate compared to other types.

Working Principle:

The basic principle of solar cookers is to concentrate and trap sunlight to generate heat, which is then used to cook food. The key components involved in this process include:

- **1. Reflectors:** Increase the amount of sunlight entering the cooker by reflecting and concentrating the solar rays.
- **2. Transparent Cover:** Allows sunlight to enter and prevents heat from escaping, creating a greenhouse effect.
- **3. Insulation:** Reduces heat loss, ensuring efficient cooking by maintaining high temperatures inside the cooker.
- **4. Absorber Plate:** Usually painted black to maximize absorption of sunlight and convert it into heat.

Advantages of Solar Cookers:

1. Eco-Friendly:

• Uses renewable solar energy, reducing reliance on fossil fuels and decreasing greenhouse gas emissions.

2. Cost-Effective:

• After the initial investment, solar cookers have no fuel costs, making them economical in the long run.

3. Health Benefits:

• Produces no smoke or indoor air pollution, improving respiratory health.

4. Versatility:

 Can be used for various cooking methods such as boiling, baking, roasting, and steaming.

Disadvantages of Solar Cookers:

1. Weather Dependent:

• Efficiency relies on sunny weather and clear skies, making them less effective in cloudy or rainy conditions.

2. Cooking Time:

• Generally takes longer to cook food compared to conventional methods, especially in lower sunlight conditions.

3. Initial Cost:

• The upfront cost of some solar cookers, particularly parabolic and vacuum tube types, can be higher.

4. Space Requirement:

• Some solar cookers, especially larger models, require significant outdoor space for setup and operation.

Applications:

1. Domestic Cooking:

• Ideal for everyday cooking needs in households, especially in sunny regions.

2. Community Kitchens:

• Can be used in community cooking setups to prepare meals for larger groups, reducing fuel costs and environmental impact.

3. Remote Areas:

• Beneficial in rural or off-grid areas with limited access to conventional fuels or electricity.

4. Disaster Relief:

• Useful in emergency situations where conventional cooking fuels are unavailable.

Example Calculation:

Example: Calculate the cooking power of a box-type solar cooker with an effective area of 0.5 m², given an average solar radiation of 700 W/m², and assuming an efficiency of 40%.

Solution:

1. Solar Energy Input:

Solar Energy = Area \times Solar Radiation Solar Energy = $0.5 \text{m}^2 \times 700 \text{ W/m}^2 = 350 \text{ W}$

2. Cooking Power:

Cooking Power = Solar Energy \times Efficiency Cooking Power = 350 W \times 0.40 = 140 W

The box-type solar cooker provides a cooking power of 140 W, which is sufficient for slow cooking or simmering food.

Thermal Energy Storage in Solar Energy Systems

Why We Need Thermal Energy Storage?

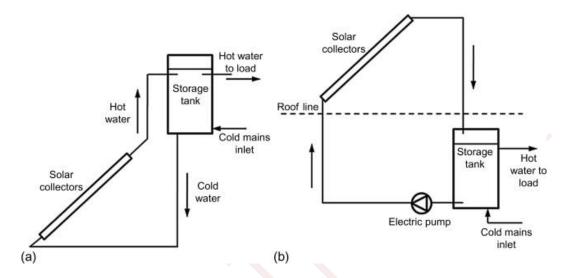
As countries ramp up their decarbonization strategies, energy efficiency and electrification based on renewable sources are crucial for reducing emissions. Renewable energy sources, such as solar power, are central to this strategy due to their potential for significant emission reductions. However, the intermittent nature of solar energy—dependent on weather and time of day—poses a challenge. To ensure a consistent supply of clean energy, we need effective energy storage solutions to balance the availability of solar energy when the sun is not shining.

Alternatives to Battery Storage

While battery technology is advancing, other storage methods also address the challenges of renewable energy intermittency and grid stability. One notable alternative is thermal energy storage (TES), which can store excess thermal energy for use when solar energy is not available.

What is Thermal Energy Storage?

Thermal energy storage involves capturing and storing thermal energy, either through heating or cooling a medium, for later use. For solar applications, this could mean using a medium like water or molten salt to store heat generated by solar collectors. The stored heat can then be used when solar input is low, such as during nighttime or cloudy periods.



Types of Thermal Energy Storage

Thermal energy storage technologies can be classified into three main types:

- 1. Sensible Heat Storage: This method involves storing thermal energy by changing the temperature of a storage medium, such as water or rocks. Sensible heat storage is common in residential solar thermal systems, where water tanks store heated water for later use.
- 2. Latent Heat Storage: Latent heat storage uses materials that absorb and release heat during phase changes, such as from solid to liquid or vice versa. Phase change materials (PCMs) are employed in solar applications to store excess heat in their phase-changing mass, making them useful in building materials and solar thermal systems.
- **3.** Thermochemical Heat Storage: This approach involves storing energy through chemical reactions. Thermochemical storage can provide high energy density and long-term storage but is more complex and less common in solar energy systems compared to sensible and latent heat storage.

Key Benefits of Thermal Energy Storage

Thermal energy storage systems offer several advantages:

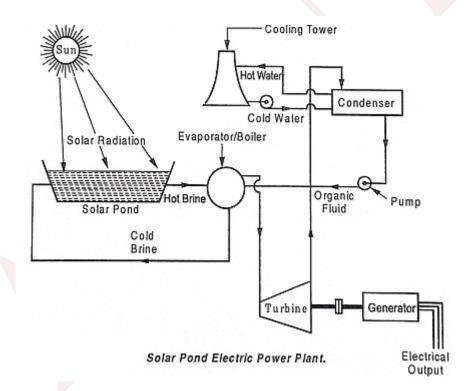
1. Peak Demand Reduction: TES systems can store excess energy when demand is low and release it during peak periods, helping to manage load and stabilize the grid.

- **2. Emission Reduction and Cost Savings**: By utilizing stored energy when it is cheaper and more renewable, TES can lower CO2 emissions and reduce energy costs.
- **3. Enhanced Energy Efficiency**: TES improves overall system efficiency by balancing energy consumption and production, especially in conjunction with solar energy systems.

Solar Pond

What is a Solar Pond?

A solar pond is a type of thermal energy storage system designed to capture and store solar energy in a body of water. Unlike conventional solar collectors that use flat panels, solar ponds utilize the entire volume of water to absorb and store thermal energy. The water in a solar pond is stratified into layers with different temperatures, which allows it to store heat efficiently.



How Does a Solar Pond Work?

- 1. Layered Structure: A solar pond typically consists of three distinct layers:
 - **Upper Convective Zone**: The top layer is relatively shallow and exposed to the atmosphere. It absorbs solar radiation and allows heat to transfer to the layers below.

- **Middle Non-Convective Zone**: This layer is thicker and acts as an insulating barrier. It contains salts or other additives that help retain heat by preventing convection and heat loss to the surface.
- **Lower Convective Zone**: The bottom layer is where the highest temperatures are achieved. It stores the bulk of the thermal energy collected by the pond.
- **2. Heat Capture and Storage**: Solar energy is absorbed by the pond's surface and transferred to the lower layers through conduction. The thermal gradient created by the layered structure allows the pond to store significant amounts of heat over extended periods.
- **3. Heat Extraction**: Heat can be extracted from the solar pond through various methods, such as piping hot water to a heat exchanger or using the thermal energy for industrial processes or electricity generation. The extraction can occur at different depths depending on the temperature required.

Advantages of Solar Ponds

- 1. High Thermal Storage Capacity: Solar ponds can store large amounts of thermal energy due to their volume and the thermal gradient created within them.
- **2. Long-Term Storage**: Unlike some other thermal storage systems, solar ponds can retain heat for extended periods, making them suitable for balancing energy supply and demand.
- 3. Simplicity and Low Cost: Solar ponds are relatively simple to construct and maintain compared to other advanced thermal storage technologies.
- **4. Versatility**: They can be used for various applications, including heating, cooling, and even electricity generation in conjunction with thermoelectric generators.

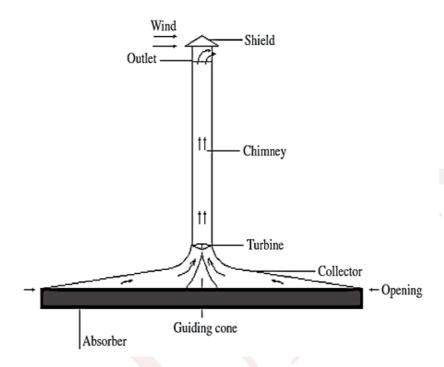
Applications

- **1. Heating:** Solar ponds can provide heating for residential, commercial, and industrial applications. The stored thermal energy can be used directly for space heating or hot water supply.
- **2. Electricity Generation**: In some cases, solar ponds are coupled with thermoelectric generators or organic Rankine cycle systems to produce electricity from the stored thermal energy.
- **3. Industrial Processes**: The high-temperature heat from solar ponds can be utilized in industrial processes that require significant thermal input.

Solar Chimney (Tower)

What is a Solar Chimney?

A solar chimney, also known as a solar tower, is a renewable energy technology that harnesses solar energy to generate electricity. It operates on the principle of convective heat transfer and uses a combination of a large collector area, a tall chimney or tower, and a turbine to convert solar energy into electrical power.



How Does a Solar Chimney Work?

- 1. Solar Collector: At the base of the solar chimney is a large, transparent canopy or collector. This collector, often made of glass or plastic, covers a wide area and allows sunlight to penetrate while trapping heat. The collector heats the air beneath it, causing it to become less dense and rise.
- 2. Hot Air Flow: As the air under the collector heats up, it becomes buoyant and starts to rise towards the chimney or tower. This creates a flow of hot air moving upward through the system.
- **3.** Chimney/Tower: The tall chimney or tower, situated in the center of the collector area, channels the rising hot air. The height of the chimney enhances the natural draft effect, increasing the speed of the air flow and creating a strong updraft.
- **4. Turbine**: At the base of the chimney is a turbine, usually located within the airflow path. The fast-moving hot air drives the turbine, which is connected to a generator that converts mechanical energy into electrical power.
- **5. Power Generation**: The turbine generates electricity as it spins, driven by the thermal updraft of air. The power produced can be fed into the grid or used for local applications.

Advantages of Solar Chimneys

- 1. Renewable and Clean: Solar chimneys use solar energy, which is a clean and renewable resource. They do not produce greenhouse gases or pollutants during operation.
- **2. Consistent Power Generation**: Unlike some solar technologies, solar chimneys can generate power even when sunlight is not directly available, thanks to the thermal mass and air circulation. The system can store thermal energy for periods of low solar radiation.
- **3.** Low Environmental Impact: Solar chimneys have a minimal environmental footprint compared to other energy technologies. They require fewer materials and land compared to large-scale solar farms or wind turbines.
- **4. Scalability**: Solar chimneys can be designed and scaled to meet various energy demands, from small-scale applications to large power plants.

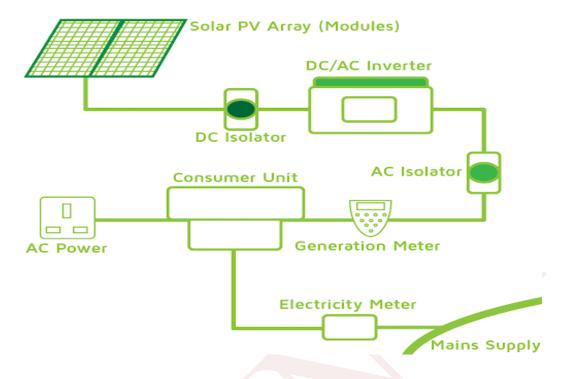
Challenges and Limitations

- 1. **High Initial Costs**: The construction of a solar chimney involves significant upfront investment, particularly for the large collector area and tall chimney.
- **2. Land Requirements**: Solar chimneys require a substantial amount of land for the collector area. This may not be feasible in densely populated or environmentally sensitive areas.
- **3. Efficiency**: The efficiency of solar chimneys is generally lower compared to other solar technologies, such as photovoltaic panels. The conversion efficiency depends on factors such as collector design, tower height, and local climate conditions.

Solar Photovoltaic Systems

Introduction to Solar Photovoltaic Systems

Solar photovoltaic (PV) systems convert sunlight directly into electricity using semiconductor materials. These systems are a key component in the shift towards renewable energy, offering a sustainable and clean alternative to fossil fuels. Solar PV technology is increasingly used in residential, commercial, and utility-scale applications.

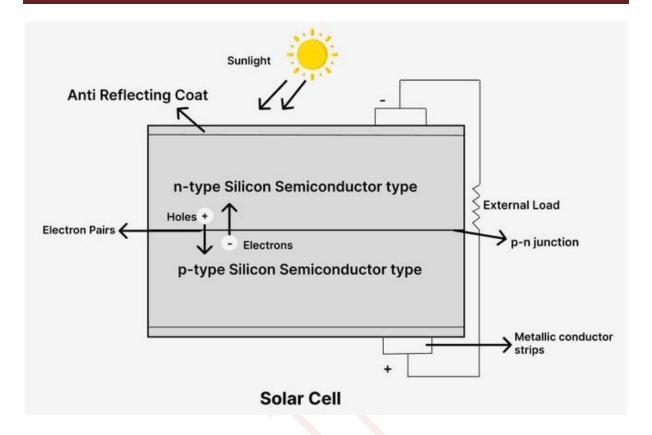


Solar Cell Fundamentals

- 1. Basic Principle: Solar cells, or photovoltaic cells, operate based on the photovoltaic effect. When light strikes the semiconductor material in a solar cell, it excites electrons, creating electron-hole pairs. These charges are then separated by an electric field within the cell, generating a flow of electric current.
- 2. Semiconductor Materials: The most common semiconductor materials used in solar cells are silicon, gallium arsenide, and cadmium telluride. Silicon-based solar cells are the most widely used due to their efficiency and cost-effectiveness.

3. Cell Structure:

- **P-N Junction**: The core of a solar cell is the p-n junction, formed by combining p-type (positive) and n-type (negative) semiconductor materials. The junction creates an electric field that drives the flow of electrons and holes.
- **Anti-Reflective Coating**: A layer of anti-reflective coating is applied to reduce the amount of sunlight reflected off the cell's surface and increase light absorption.
- Front and Back Contacts: Metal contacts are placed on the front and back of the solar cell to allow the extracted current to flow to an external circuit.



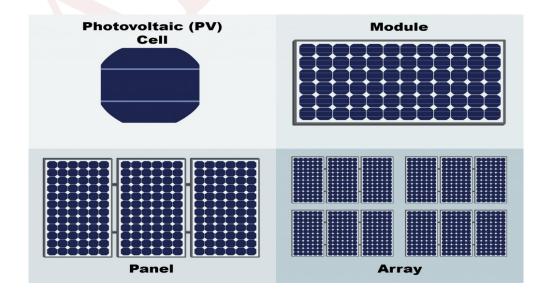
Characteristics of Solar Cells

- 1. Efficiency: Solar cell efficiency measures the percentage of sunlight converted into usable electricity. Efficiency varies by technology, with commercial silicon cells typically ranging from 15% to 20%, and advanced cells reaching over 25%.
- **2. Power Output**: The power output of a solar cell depends on its size, efficiency, and the amount of sunlight it receives. It is measured in watts (W) or kilowatts (kW).
- **3. Voltage and Current**: Solar cells produce direct current (DC) electricity. The voltage and current output are influenced by the cell's size, materials, and illumination.
- **4. Temperature Coefficient**: Solar cells' performance is affected by temperature. The temperature coefficient indicates how much the efficiency decreases as the temperature rises.



- **1. Monocrystalline Silicon**: Made from single crystal silicon, these cells have high efficiency and performance but are more expensive due to the manufacturing process.
- **2. Polycrystalline Silicon**: Made from silicon crystals melted together, these cells are less efficient than monocrystalline cells but are more affordable.
- **3.** Thin-Film Cells: These cells use thin layers of semiconductor materials deposited on a substrate. They are lightweight and flexible but generally less efficient than siliconbased cells.
- **4. Multi-Junction Cells**: These cells consist of multiple layers of different semiconductor materials, each designed to capture different parts of the solar spectrum. They offer high efficiency but are more costly.

Solar Cell Construction



- 1. Module: A solar module, or solar panel, consists of multiple solar cells connected in series or parallel to increase voltage or current output. Modules are encapsulated between layers of protective materials, including glass, a polymer encapsulant, and a backsheet, to ensure durability and efficiency.
- **2. Panel**: Panels are assemblies of solar modules. They are designed to be mounted on rooftops, ground mounts, or other structures. Panels come in various sizes and configurations to suit different installation needs.
- **3. Array**: A solar array is a collection of solar panels connected together to form a larger system. Arrays can be designed to meet specific power requirements and are often arranged to maximize exposure to sunlight.