

## HIGH TEMPERATURE SOLAR CONCENTRATORS

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### Summary

The use of solar energy in technical applications is often constrained due to its low energy density relative to the conventional sources of energy. Optical concentration is one option to increase the energy density of the solar radiation resulting in the possibility to use absorbers with small surfaces. Higher temperatures can be achieved under concentrated conditions, because heat losses are proportional to the absorber surface. If the final objective is to convert the solar energy into work, the thermodynamics suggests that it can be done more efficiently the higher the temperature is.

In order to understand the design of different high temperature solar concentrators, this chapter gives an comprehensive insight into the fundamentals of optical concentration systems by introducing the definition of the concentration ratio and its limits and gives examples of imaging and non-imaging systems. When analyzing the conversion of radiation energy to heat, the collector performance equation of concentrated solar high temperature systems is presented and the impact of the concentration ratio, temperature and absorber properties is discussed.

One part deals with the conversion of heat to mechanical work starting with the discussion of the Carnot cycle. As typical examples for solar high temperature applications, the Rankine cycle, the Brayton cycle and the Stirling cycle are discussed.

The combination of power cycle attributes and receiver performance characteristics is presented to show the optimization potential.

In the scope of this chapter only three dimensional concentration concepts using two axis tracking are investigated, since they offer an application temperature clearly beyond 500 °C. Two axis tracking systems are dealt elsewhere. Three technical concepts for high temperature solar concentrators are presented: dish/Stirling systems acting in the power size below 25 kW<sub>e</sub> and central receiver systems ranging from the 10 MW to 100 MW are concepts used today mainly for high temperature power production purposes, whereas the third option, a solar furnace, is utilized as a research tool to apply very high energy densities to materials or processes under investigations. For all three options the system design and a description of different components are presented together with an analysis of the system performance and loss mechanisms. The state of the art of existing facilities is demonstrated and further development directions are pointed out.

## 1. Introduction

This chapter focuses on 3D two-axis tracking systems with concentration ratios higher than 500 for the generation of high temperatures beyond 500 °C. Linear one-axis tracking concentrators are presented in (*Medium Temperature Solar Concentrators (Parabolic Troughs Collectors)*).

High temperature solar concentrator concepts were already known by the ancient Greeks that enlightened the Olympic fire using a burning mirror. Leonardo da Vinci proposed a technique to weld copper using concentrated solar radiation in the 15<sup>th</sup> century. In the 18<sup>th</sup> century first technical prototypes of parabolic dish concentrators were used to generate steam driving steam engines. However, when oil and natural gas became available to serve as fuels to operate engines, the interest in high temperature solar concentrators vanished due to obvious reasons. In the late 1960s and early 1970s, when it became clear that fossil fuel resources are limited and their unequal distribution lead to strong dependencies, systematic research work was started in a number of industrialized countries. Today's concepts are based on the experiences gained with a variety of prototype and research installations that were mainly erected in the 1970s and 1980s. First commercial systems were put into operation in the beginning of the 21st century.

In order to understand the technical options offered by high temperature solar concentration, Section 2 of this chapter deals extensively with the relevant fundamentals. It covers the basics of optical concentration, the conversion of radiation to heat as well as the thermodynamic cycles to convert heat to mechanical power.

In Section 3 three technical concepts of high temperature solar concentrators are presented; dish/Stirling systems and central receiver systems are applied mainly on the field of electricity production whereas solar furnaces are utilized as a research tool to apply very high energy densities to materials or processes under investigation.

## 2. Theoretical Background

## 2.1. Concentration of Radiation

Radiation energy  $\Phi$  measured in W that is emitted from a source is diluted with increasing distance. This means that the energy density  $E$  measured in  $\text{W m}^{-2}$  is reduced with increasing distance, because the emitted energy is distributed over a larger surface area. Concentration of radiation aims at increasing the energy density  $E$  of the radiant energy, in order to allow a better use of it.

A generic concentrator (see Figure 1) consists of a concentrator entrance aperture area  $A$  (in  $\text{m}^2$ ) which the radiant energy enters through and an exit aperture  $A'$  from where the radiation energy leaves the concentrating system.

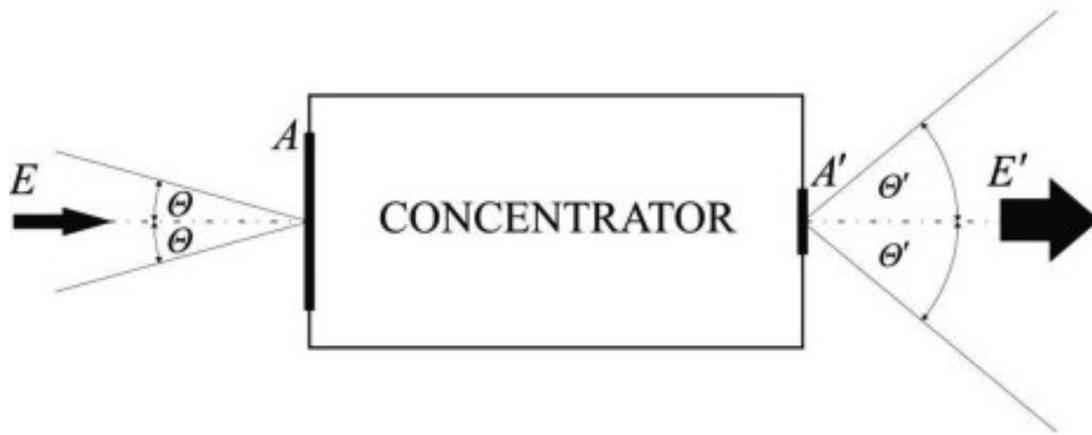


Figure 1: Scheme of a generic concentrator showing relevant aperture areas ( $A$  and  $A'$ ), radiation densities ( $E$  and  $E'$ ) and half angles of the radiation cones ( $\theta$  and  $\theta'$ )

Provided that no losses occur in the concentrator, the energy conservation principle leads to the conclusion that the concentration factor  $C$ , defined as the ratio of the outgoing energy density  $E'$  to the incoming energy density  $E$ , can also be described by the inverse ratio of the respective aperture areas:

$$C = \frac{E'}{E} = \frac{A}{A'} \quad (1)$$

A burning glass is a simple example of a concentrator. The entrance aperture is the circular area described by the diameter of the lens, the output aperture can be arbitrarily chosen, e.g. by an orifice behind the lens, through which the radiation passes to be utilized for instance by a photovoltaic cell.

An ideal lens would concentrate incoming parallel rays to a mathematical point, resulting in an infinite concentration ratio. However, in reality the focus point has finite dimensions (thus being a focal spot) so that a minimum diameter of the orifice is required to make sure that all radiation can pass.

One essential reason for this is that the incoming radiation is generally not parallel but can be described by a cone with a half angle  $\Theta$ . For solar energy applications on earth the sun's radiation cone with its half angle of 4.653 mrad is the relevant quantity.

In complex thermodynamic considerations (cf. Welford et al., 1978) it can be shown that ideal concentrators conserve a quantity called *Etendue*, the product of aperture area and sinus square of the half angle of the radiation cone:

$$A \cdot \sin^2 \Theta = A' \cdot \sin^2 \Theta' \quad (2)$$

Employing this law the concentration ratio of an ideal concentrator can be specified by

$$C = \frac{A}{A'} = \frac{\sin^2 \Theta'}{\sin^2 \Theta} \quad (3)$$

For a burning glass used to concentrate the sunlight,  $\Theta$  equals the sun's half angle, whereas  $\Theta'$  is described by the rim rays of the lens to the focal point. For a given opening angle  $\Theta$  the maximum concentration is achieved if  $\sin^2 \Theta' = 1$  or rather  $\Theta' = 90^\circ$ . Thus, for the sun's half angle of 4.653 mrad the theoretical maximum of the concentration ratio is 46 200.

From this principle the conclusion can be drawn that the concentration ratio of a burning glass is higher the smaller the ratio of focal length  $f$  to lens diameter  $D$  is, because  $\Theta'$  is increased further towards  $90^\circ$ .

However, even with a perfect burning glass the theoretical limit can not be reached. Optical errors, like the fact that parallel rays which are not parallel to the optical axis do not coincide in on single point ("off-axis aberration"), limit the capability to achieve the theoretical concentration limit.

In the analysis of concentrators it is important to distinguish between imaging and non-imaging systems. In imaging designs like the burning glass, telescopes, microscopes or parabolic shaped mirrors all rays leaving from a point of an object and entering into the aperture will be imaged on one single point in the exit aperture independently of their way through the optical systems.

That is how an image can be generated. Like the example of a burning glass given above shows, inherent optical errors do not allow imaging systems (with constant refractive properties and a finite number of reflector elements) to achieve the maximum theoretical concentration ratio. For instance the simple and often applied concentrator design of an ideal 3D parabola can only reach one fourth of the theoretical limit.

Non-imaging systems only require that all rays entering the entrance aperture leave the exit aperture somewhere. It may be not surprising, that the fewer constraints of non-imaging systems lead to a higher flexibility concerning the concentrator design so that higher concentration ratios can be achieved.

A simple (but sub-optimal) example is a truncated cone with reflective inner surfaces, where the radiation enters through the larger opening and leaves through the smaller one. A very efficient design of a non-imaging concentrator is a cone with a specific shape forming a segment of a parabola.

Such a concentrator is called compound parabolic concentrator (CPC) (see Figure 2). This design can approach the theoretical concentration limit very closely. The conservation of the *Etendue* implies that for a given ratio of exit to entrance apertures of the CPC, only rays in a cone with an half angle of

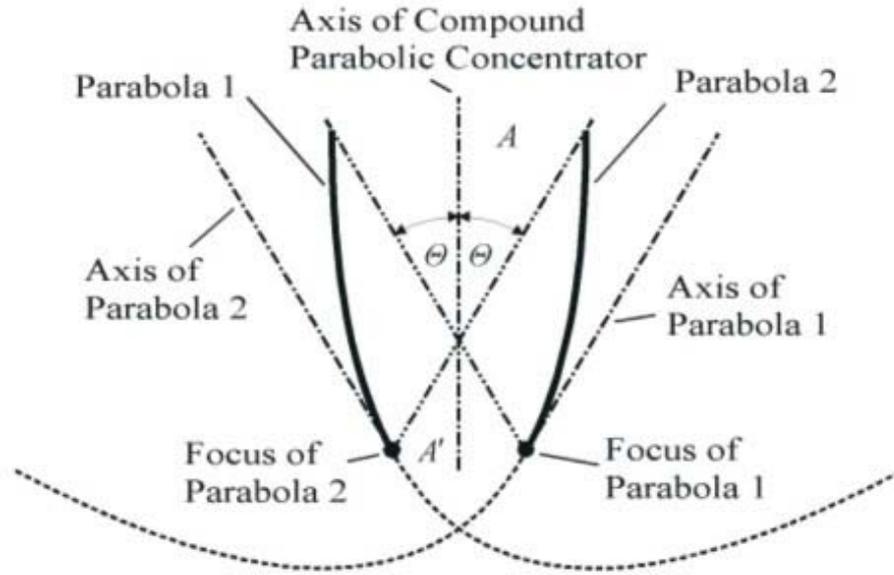


Figure 2: Compound parabolic concentrator (CPC)

$$\theta = \arcsin \sqrt{\frac{A'}{A}} \quad (4)$$

will be accepted by the concentrator.

A stand-alone CPC is not well suited for high temperature solar concentration, because its length needs to be very high compared to its aperture diameter to achieve high concentration ratios.

However, the use of a CPC as a 3D terminal concentrator in imaging solar concentrator applications is beneficial, because it boosts the overall concentration ratio of the system by a factor of 2 to 8.

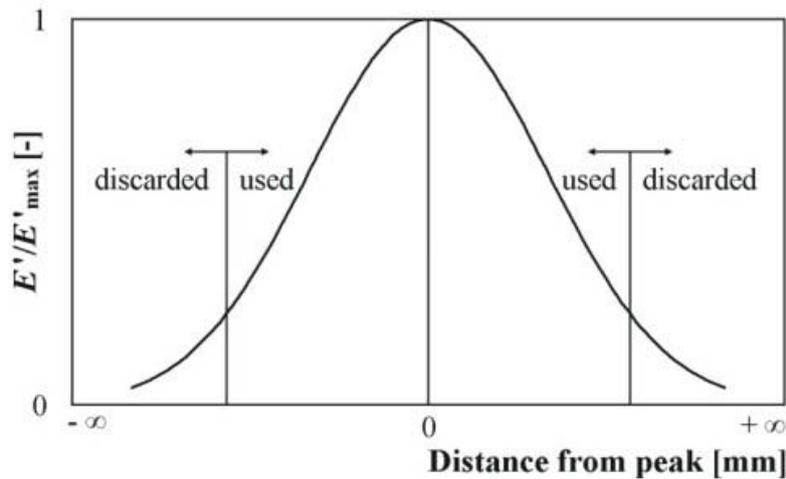


Figure 3: Gaussian distribution showing the relative radiation density (the radiation density  $E'$  related to its maximum) as a function of the distance to the center of the peak

In practice, imaging mirror concentrators rather than lens concentrators are applied as primary concentrators for solar high temperature systems, due to their better outdoor durability and lower specific costs. Their design generally approximates the parabolic shape in a continuous or segmented way (see details in the subsequent paragraphs). The image of the sun is generated by such a mirror reflector is blurred by the intrinsic optical imperfections of the imaging parabola concentrator concept (off-axis aberration) and by imperfect surface characteristics. The resulting image, in particular if it consists of superimposed images of individual concentrator segments, can often be well approximated by a Gaussian distribution (see Figure 3). Thus, the energy density at the exit aperture of an imaging concentrator is not constant but varies from a peak value to zero at an infinite distance. For practical applications it makes sense to use only the central part of the Gaussian profile and to discard the rest. The amount of discarded energy is the outcome of an economic optimization process. Typical values range between 2 % and 10 %.

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### **Biographical Sketch**

**Prof. Dr.-Ing. Robert Pitz-Paal** is head of the Solar Research Unit at the German Aerospace Center (DLR) and Professor for Solar Technology at the Technical University in Aachen. He has been working in the field of concentrating solar systems for more than 15 years. He has served as the Operating Agent for Task III of the SolarPACES (Solar Power and Chemical Energy Systems) implementing agreement of the International Energy Agency and is its Vice Chairman today. He is also member of the editorial board of the ASME Journal of Solar Energy Engineering. His team has been awarded the title “Center of Excellence” in the field of Concentrating Solar Technology by DLR Board of Directors in 2006.