

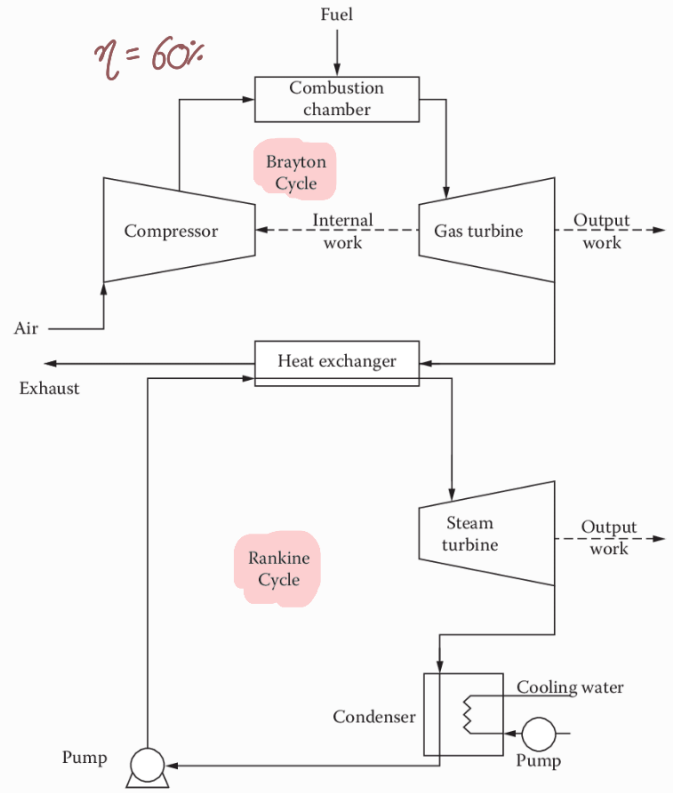
Direct Energy Conversion

MHD Power	P 2-4
Thermoelectric Power	P 5-7
Thermionic Power	P 8-11
Photovoltaic Power	P 12-15
Fuel Cells	P 16-21

check 8 slides 25, 40, 43, 61, 62, 67, 70, 83, 138, 139

Topping and Bottoming

- Cycles are combined together to improve efficiency
- Topping cycles rejects its heat into a lower temp. steam cycle
- Combined cycles Power Plants are an example of that



- These cycles uses less fuel per kwh & produce low emissions per kwh

Combined efficiency

$$\eta = \eta_p + (1 - \eta_p) \eta_o$$

Topping unit efficiency

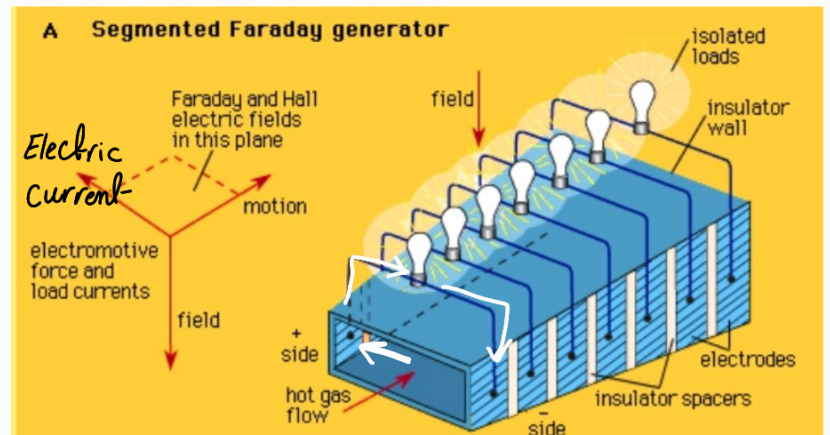
Conventional unit cycle

Magneto hydrodynamic Power

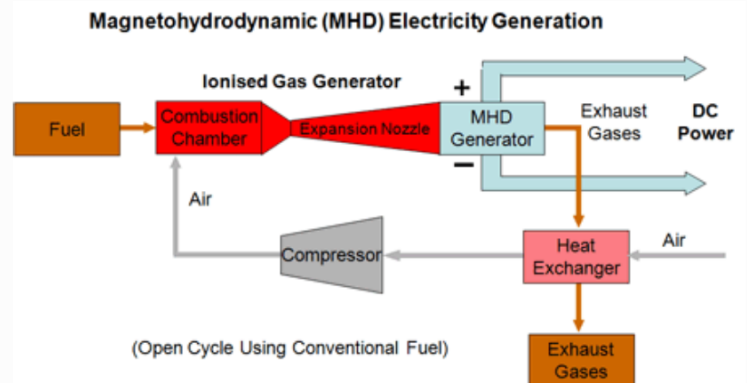
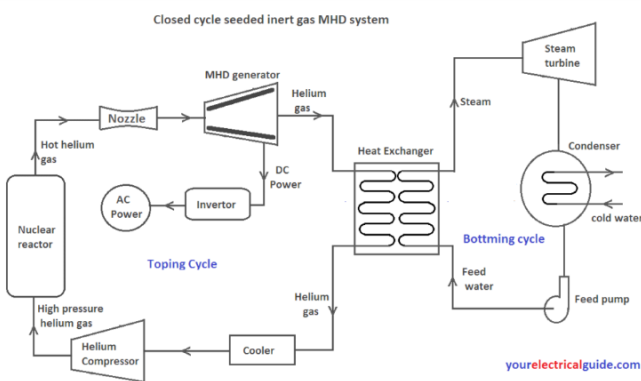
Thermal energy \longrightarrow Electrical energy

Working Principle

- o Based on Faraday's law of electromagnetic induction
- o Turbine and electric power generation are eliminated
- o suited for large scale use since it depends on volume flow of gas
- o Types of fluids used in
 1. Ionized gas or plasma
 2. Liquid metal
- o Types of MHD cycles
 - 1 - Open Cycle \rightarrow more efficient
 - 2 - Closed Cycle \leftarrow



- o Hot gas flows in the magnetic field, an electric field is created
- o Channel walls are cooled to protect it from high temperature MHD
- o Emf is induced in the gas and so an electric current goes through the external load, the gas and the electrodes



Note:

The flowing current creates an induced field that interacts with the main field \rightarrow Retarding force

Hall effect

It is caused by the axial EMF resulting from Faraday interaction from the movement of electrical charges

Gas conductivity

- Highly dependant on temperature
- Enhanced by adding small quantities of seed
- Seed: easily ionized impurity such as K_2CO_3 or KOH (Potassium) or Cesium

Comparison between MHD & Conventional Gas Turbine & Generator

MHD	Gas Turbine & Generator
operates at High Temperature 2000-3000°C	limited Temp since they have hot, highly stressed moving parts
Higher thermal efficiency than	
No moving parts	loud, vibrating moving parts

Characteristics of the MHD

- Volume and length of the diverging flow channel

- $E_{ind} = C \times B \quad V/m$

Velocity of fluid conductor \swarrow \searrow Magnetic flux density

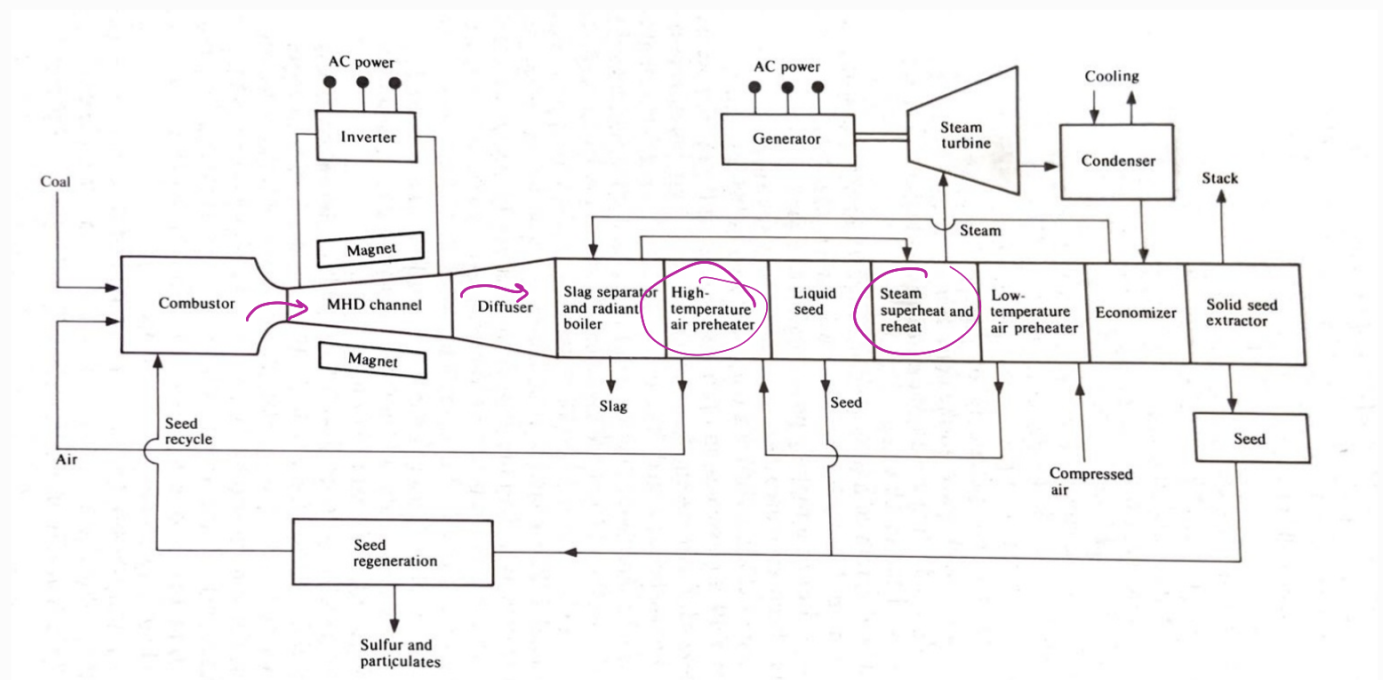
- $n = \frac{R_{ext}}{R_g + R_{ext}} = \frac{E}{E_{ind}}$

- $J = \sigma CB(1-n) \quad A/m^2$

- $\dot{W} = \sqrt{JA} \rightarrow E_z$
↑ electrode area = xy

- $L = \frac{P_1 - P_2}{\sigma CB^2(1-n)}$ → pressure drop

Magnetohydrodynamic Generator Analysis

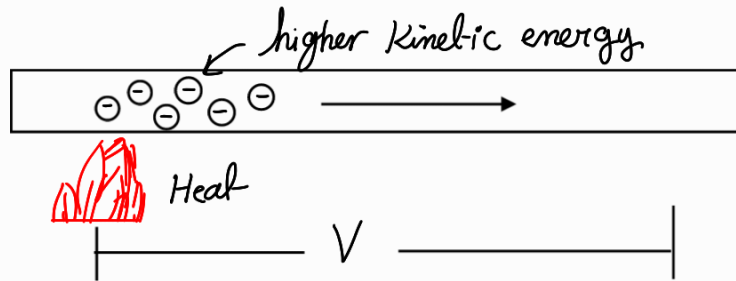


MHD Disadvantages

- Energy is required to energize magnets and air combustion

Thermoelectric power

Thermoelectric effect



- Characteristics

- 1- The output voltage \propto number of free electrons
- 2- Material conductivity \propto number of free electrons

- Materials used

- 1- Insulators cannot be used:

It gives high voltage difference but low current/Power since internal resistance is high

They can be modified to acquire good thermoelectric characteristics. Metallic additives are added to increase conductivity.

- 2- Metals cannot be used:

It gives low voltage difference but it has low internal resistance.

- 3- Semiconductors are used. For example: lead Telluride (PbTe)

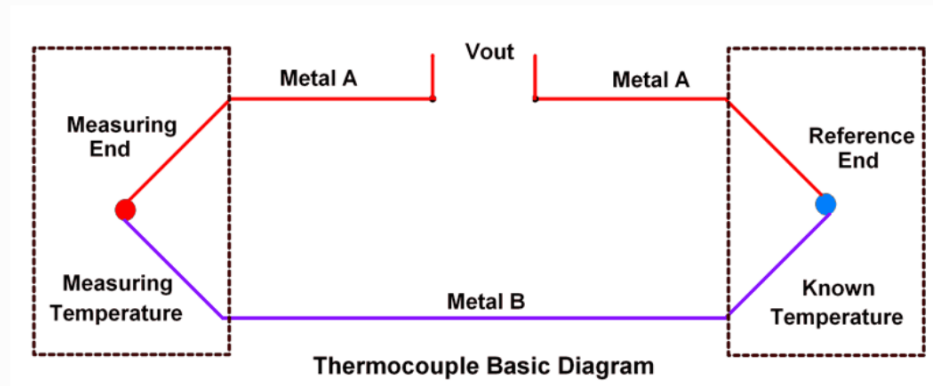
- Operating Temperature

When the Temp upper limit is reached, the material becomes

Intrinsic \rightarrow No + or - charge carriers or equal number

Semiconductors become intrinsic at 1250K, insulators don't

Thermo Couple



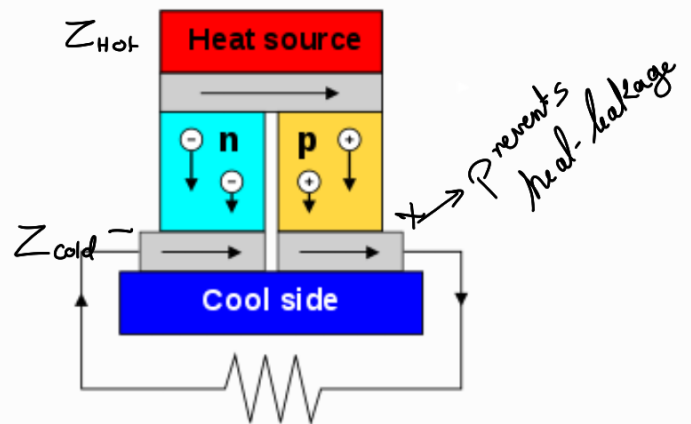
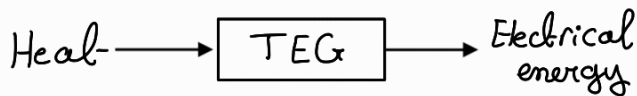
- The reason for this limited application is the low energy conversion efficiency

Basic Thermoelectric Generators

- Material

n-Type: has free electrons

p-Type: has holes



Performance of Thermoelectric Generator:

- 1- Seebeck coefficient
- 2- Electrical conductivity
- 3- Thermal conductivity

Figure of merit Z

$$Z = \frac{S^2 \sigma}{K}$$

$$M = Z \bar{T} \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{Average operating} \\ \text{Temperature} \\ \frac{T_h + T_c}{2} \end{array}$$

Maximum conversion efficiency

$$\eta_{mc} = \eta_c \frac{(1+Z\bar{T})^{\frac{1}{2}} - 1}{(1+Z\bar{T})^{\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{T_c}{T_h}}$$

$\rightarrow 1 - \frac{T_c}{T_h}$

Maximum power

$$\dot{W} = \frac{\delta^2 (\Delta T)^2 A}{4PL}$$

$$\dot{W} = \frac{\delta^2 (\Delta T)^2 A \sigma}{4L}$$

Area
material conductivity
Temperature Gradient
Element length
Seebeck coefficient

Burner efficiency

η_B = ratio of heat transferred through combustion chamber to the lower heating value of the fuel

$$= 1 - 0.00045T$$

stack gas temperature in $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (High Temp)

Overall efficiency (Thermal efficiency)

$$\eta_{\frac{T_c}{T_h}} = \eta_B \times \eta_{mc}$$

Applications

- space vehicles
- Military equipment
- undersea installations

Note

If δ, σ, K are given for n, p

$$Z = \frac{(\delta_1 + \delta_2)^2}{\left(\left(\frac{K_1}{\sigma_1}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \left(\frac{K_2}{\sigma_2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}\right)^2}$$

δ value is taken positive even if negative

Thermionic emission

- Converts absorbed heat into electricity

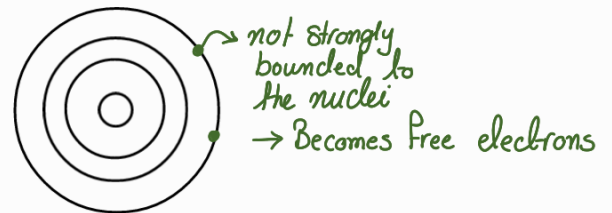
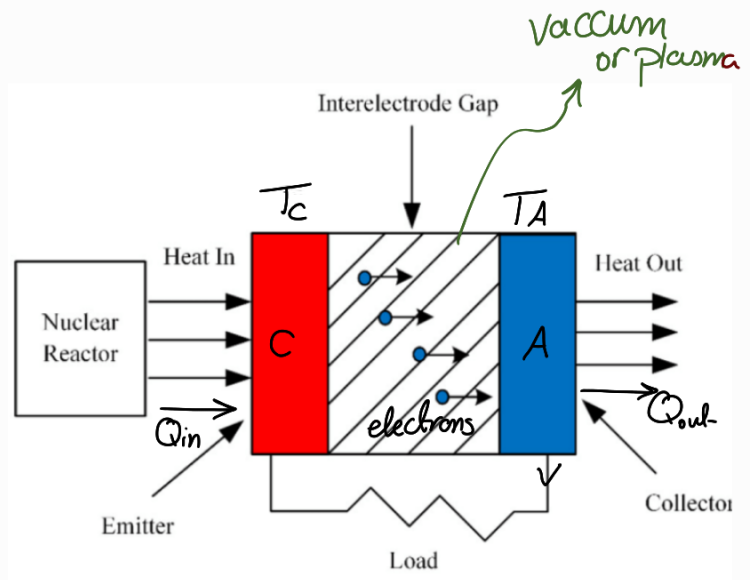
Applications

- Military and space applications

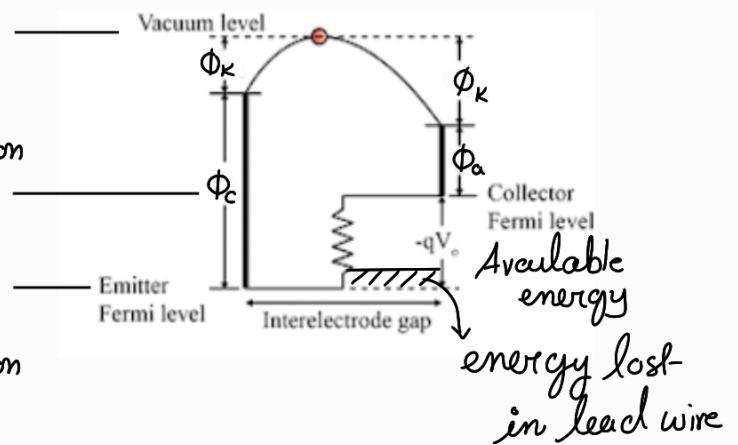
heat from Solar or Nuclear energy
 Fossil or nuclear fuel

Working principle

- Consists of two flat plates enclosed in a plasma or vacuum
- Cathode is made from a different material of anode
- $T_A < T_C$
- Free electrons exist in different energy levels



- Φ_C : Cathode work function
 → Energy required for the electron to escape the cathode
- Φ_A : Anode work function
 → Energy required for the electron to escape the anode



ϕ_k : Kinetic energy of electrons needed to move through vacuum

$\phi_k + \phi_c =$ Gained energy from heat-

$\phi_k + \phi_a =$ Energy lost from electrons striking the anode (Rejected as heat)

$\phi_c - \phi_a =$ Available energy

o To prevent space charge which prevents electrons flow from the cathode, a 0.01 mm interelectrode distance is used

→ Types of such converters are:

1. Vacuum close spaced diodes

2. Plasma diodes which uses ionized gas in an interelectrode space. For example: Cesium vapor, rubidium and potassium

However: heat transfer increase between diodes by convection

High pressure
Low pressure

Performance

$$W_{out} = \phi_c - \phi_a - \phi_l$$

← losses in the lead wire

Thermal efficiency

$$\eta_{th} = \frac{J_{max} (V_c - V_a)}{J_{max} (V_c + 2 \frac{k}{e} T_c) + \dot{Q}_r}$$

$$= \frac{\dot{W}}{\dot{Q}_s} = \phi_c + 2kT_c + \dot{Q}_r$$

output power
supplied power (Heat)

Saturation Current

$$J_{max} = A T_c^2 e^{\left(\frac{-11605 V_c}{T_c} \right)}$$

← Maximum electron current that an emitting surface can produce / Area

$$\dot{W} = J_{max} (V_c - V_a)$$

power ↗

Radiation losses

$$\dot{Q}_r = \sigma F_e (T_c^4 - T_a^4)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\epsilon_c} + \frac{A_c}{A_a} \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon_a} - 1 \right)}$$

ϵ_a, ϵ_c emissivity values for the cathode and anode surfaces

Construction

Arrangements of thermionic Converters:

1. Two-spaced flat plates
2. Concentric cylinders (Used for nuclear thermionic converters)
→ inner cylinder as the emitter

Materials used:

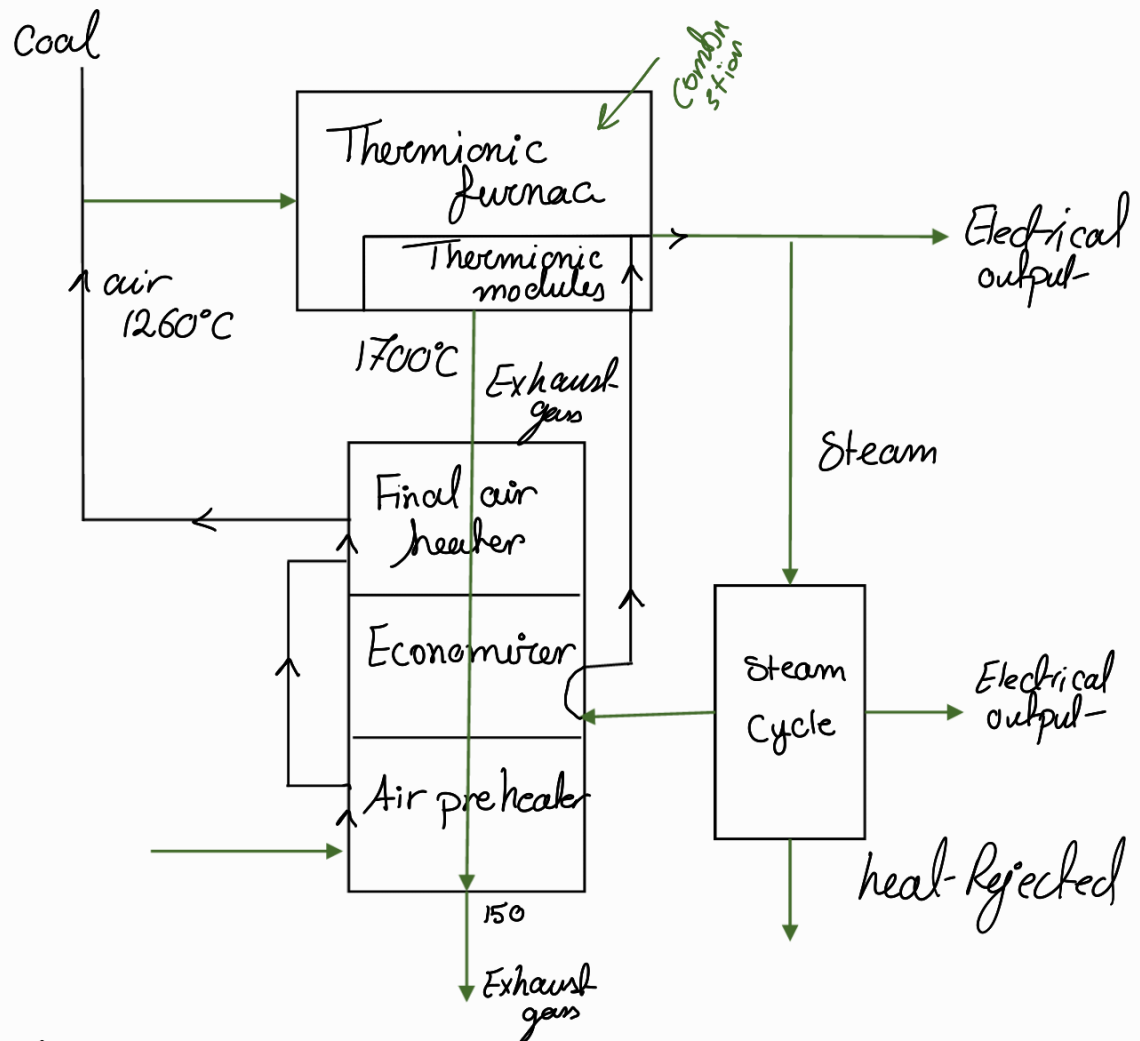
For Cathode

1. Tungsten
2. Barium oxide

For Anode

1. Silver Oxide
2. Tungsten Oxide
3. Copper

Thermionic Topping Powerplant



- Coal and hot air enters the thermionic furnace which results in the combustion of the coal.
- Thermionic modules are heated with the heat rejected from the combustion.
- Resultant Exhaust gases pass through the final air heater, the economizer and the air preheater.
- Air preheater is used to raise the temperature of the ambient air which then passes to the final air heater which raises the temperature of the air again.
- The economizer receives steam from the steam cycle, heats it and then passes it to the thermionic modules which heat it again.

Photovoltaic Power

Solar Cells

- Converts solar energy into electrical energy
 - Materials used: Silicon, germanium, cadmium sulfide & gallium arsenide
 - $\frac{\text{Power}}{\text{Mass}} \uparrow$ as Solar cell Thickness \downarrow
 - The negative surface is placed facing the Sun for radiation resistance
 - Types of solar cells:
 - 1- Silicon cells
 - 2- Thin film
 - 3- Polycrystalline semiconductor
 - Silicon cells are often used:
 - 1- They have superior conversion efficiency
 - 2- They have longer life
- The conventional silicon cell is a n/p type semiconductor device
- ↑ ↓
Phosphorus Boron

The photovoltaic effect-

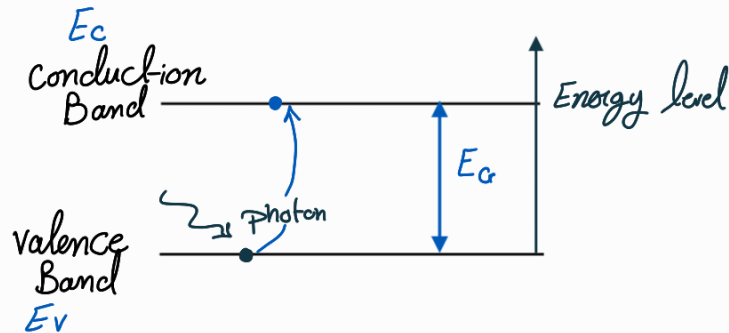
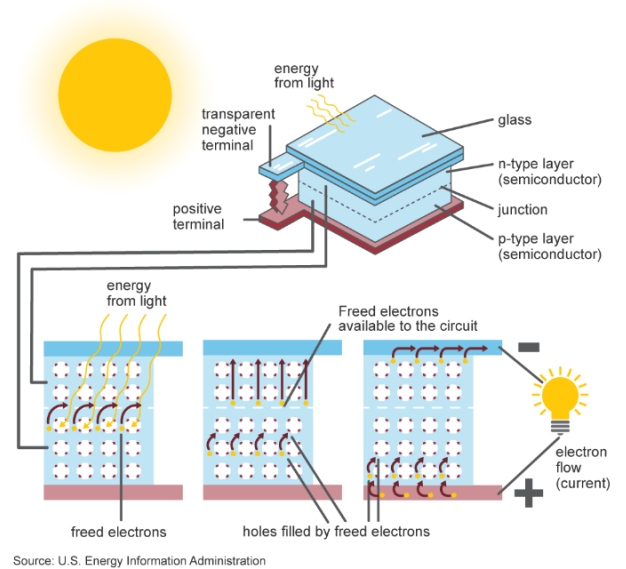
- p-n material

- Doping {
- n-Type Silicon: arsenic or phosphorus are added (contains one more electron)
 - p-Type Silicon: Boron or gallium are added (contains one less electron)

Between them is the n/p Junction

- When solar photons hit the cell they are absorbed in the vicinity of the np Junction
- This will cause electrons to move to the conduction Band (Higher energy level due to the energy absorbed by photons)
- This will leave holes behind and so create a potential difference
- Free electrons will flow in the load circuit

Inside a photovoltaic cell



Solar Power generation

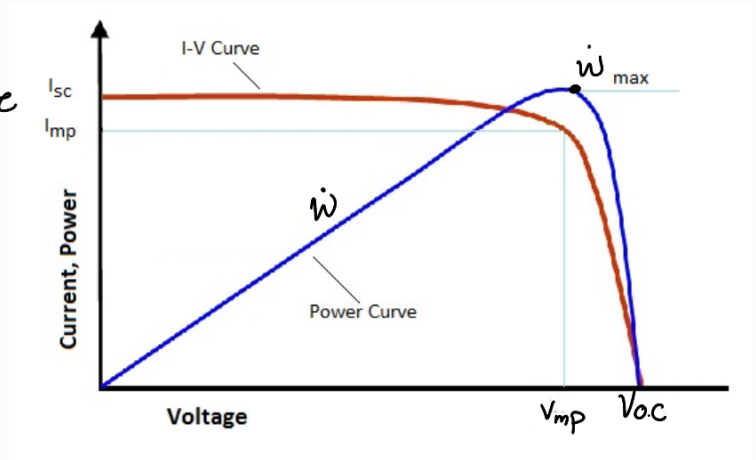
- Solar Cells are arranged in modules and modules are arranged in arrays (series or parallel)
- Solar constant-: the unit intensity of solar radiation on a surface normal to the sun's ray.
- To provide constant-power output throughout the year, energy storage systems are used \Rightarrow Stand alone system
- Grid interface System: uses power from the central utility when needed & supplies surplus PV generated power back to the utility

I-V curve for Solar cells

I_{sc} : current passing the cell
when $V=0$

V_{oc} : maximum voltage available
from a solar cell

Performance



$$I_j = I_d \left(e^{\frac{eV}{kT}} - 1 \right)$$

\uparrow Junction current \uparrow Dark / Reverse current

$$I = I_{sc} - I_j$$

\uparrow Load current \leftarrow constant current at no load

$$V_{oc} = \frac{kT}{e} \ln \left(\frac{I_{sc}}{I_0} + 1 \right)$$

Conversion efficiency

$$\eta_{max} = \frac{\dot{W}_{max}}{\dot{W}_{in}}$$

\leftarrow Solar Power input
usually = $\dot{E} (\text{W/m}^2) \times A (\text{m}^2)$

$$\text{Max Power} = \dot{W}_{max} = \frac{V_{mp} (I_{sc} + I_0)}{(kT/eV_{mp}) + 1}$$

PV Testing and Rating

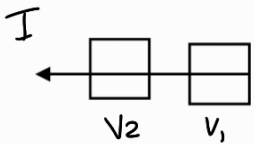
P_{rated} : Rated power of the solar cells at a radiation of 1 kW/m^2

P_{actual} : Actual power delivered by the solar cell at non-standard radiation

$$P_{actual} = P_{rated} \times E_{solar}$$

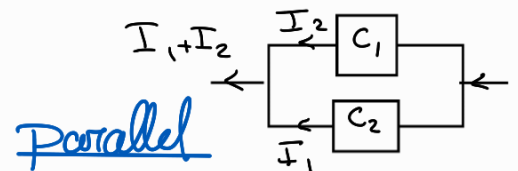
$P_{at-1 \text{ kW/m}^2}$ kW/m^2

Solar cells arrangement



Series

- o Same Current
- o Voltage adds up



Parallel

- o Same Voltage
- o Current adds up

PV Basic System

o Contains:

- 1- PV arrays
- 2- Voltage Regulator
- 3- Battery: Industrial chloride batteries are the best choice
- 4- Inverter: Converts power from DC to AC
- 5- Load

→ Subsystems: Inverters & Charge Controllers

← Regulates voltage entering Batteries to avoid over-charging

Applications

- 1- Satellite and space crafts
- 2- Telecommunication stations
- 3- Remote localities with small loads
- 4- Water pumping & vaccine refrigerators in rural areas

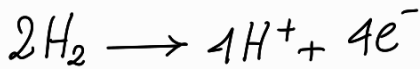
Fuel Cells

- Converts chemical energy into electric energy
- operating temperature can reach 600 to 650°C where molten salt electrolyte system is used / η_{Th} is not limited by 2nd Law

Working Principle

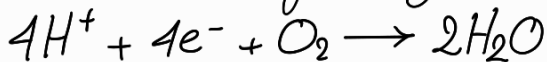
- Typical Hydrogen/oxygen fuel cell

- on the anode surface, the hydrogen reacts with the electrolyte to produce electrons and ions



- Electrons travel through the external circuit, then back to the cathode

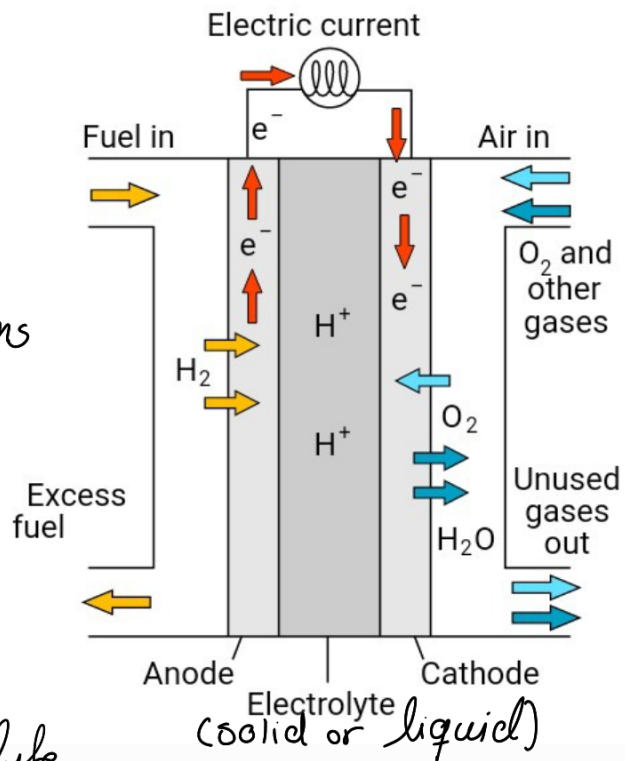
- Ions move from the electrolyte to the cathode, then, they combine with the e^- & O_2 forming H_2O



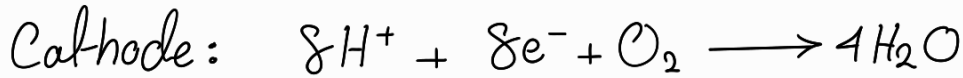
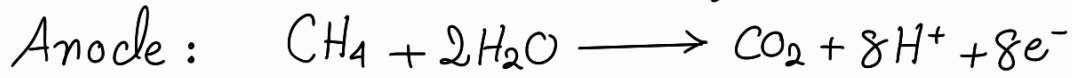
- Hydrocarbon fuels are used to provide hydrogen by the introduction of preliminary reaction (hydrocarbon becomes more reactive in a steam re-former)



→ Hydrocarbons can react immediately with oxygen by:
Improving the electrode structure and using liquid electrolyte (phosphoric acid)



o Reactions in Methane / air fuel cell



Materials used

Electrodes

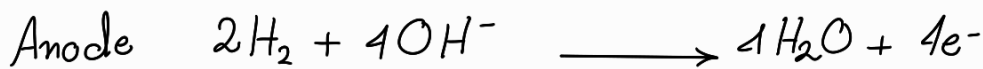
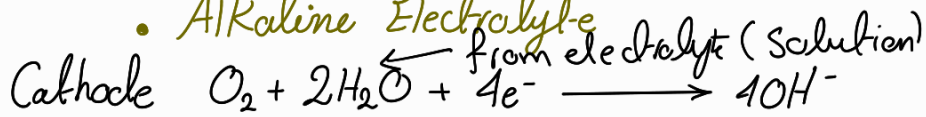
- Characteristics: Porosity, Catalyst, Electrical conductivity and Resistance to Corrosion
- Anode \rightarrow platinum
- Cathode \rightarrow palladium

Electrolyte

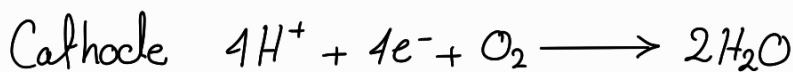
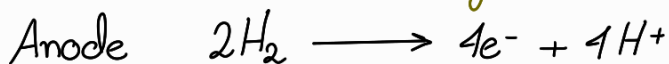
Types of fuel cells based on the electrolyte:

1- Aqueous: Range = 0-200°C

- Alkaline Electrolyte



- Acid Electrolyte



* Proton exchange membrane fuel cell

Electrolyte: water based acidic polymer membrane

Electrodes: platinum based

Operation: low Temp. (<100°C)

- Operates on pure hydrogen
- Same work principle as conventional fuel cell / H_2O as a result

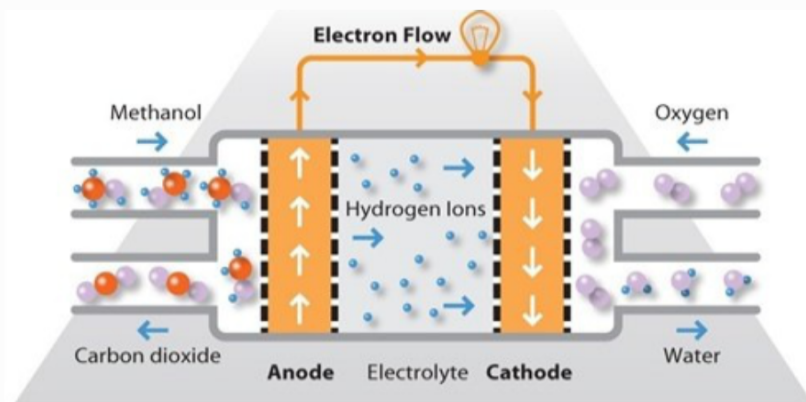
* Direct-methanol fuel cell

Electrolyte: polymer membrane

Electrodes → Anode: Platinum ruthenium catalyst - (Draws hydrogen from liquid methanol → No need for fuel reformer / CO_2 & H_2O results)

Temperature: $60^\circ - 130^\circ\text{C}$

- used for modest power requirements such as mobile electronic devices & chargers + forklifts of warehouses

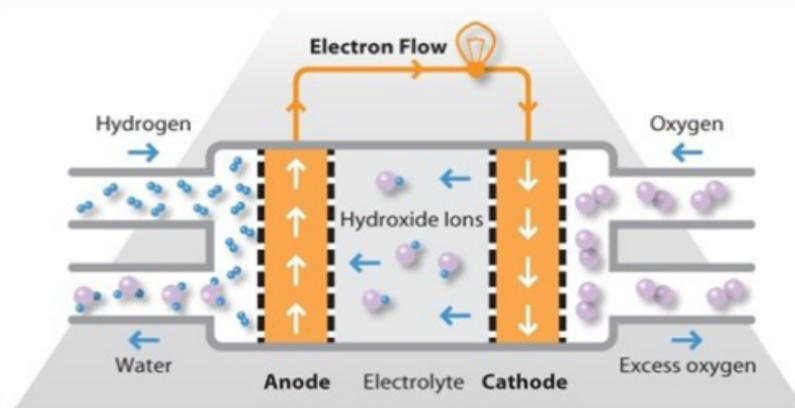


* Alkaline Fuel cells

Electrolyte: Alkaline electrolyte such as potassium hydroxide in water

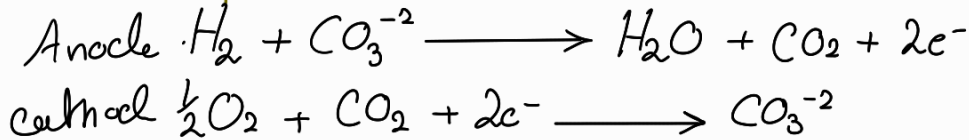
Temperature: 70°C so no need for platinum catalyst-

- Operates on pure hydrogen / H_2O & O_2 results
- used in space by NASA to produce H_2O & electricity



2- Molten Salt: $T_{range} = 500-700^{\circ}C$

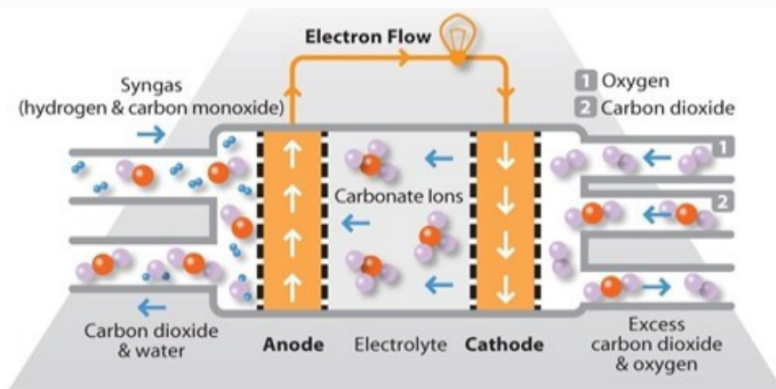
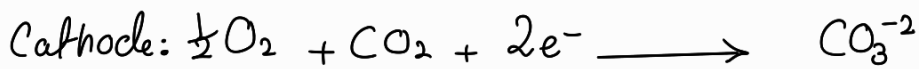
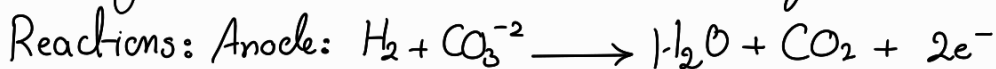
Example: molten carbonates



* Molten carbonate fuel cells

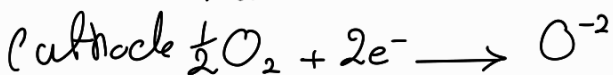
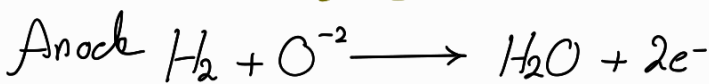
Electrolyte: Molten carbonate salt- suspended in a porous ceramic matrix / Salts used: lithium carbonate, potassium carbonate & sodium carbonate

Operation: High Temp. ($650^{\circ}C$) / no need for noble metal catalyst to boost reaction $\rightarrow T_{High}$ so better reaction kinetics



3- Solid Electrolyte: $T_{range} = 700^{\circ}C$

Contains ion species which becomes mobile at T_{High}



* Solid oxide fuel cells

Electrolyte: Solid ceramic such as: zirconium oxide stabilized with yttrium oxide instead of liquid or membrane

Operation: High Temp. (800°C to 1000°C)

- High efficiency 60%

Performance

Theoretical

- Reversible & Isothermal

$$W_{rev} = \Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S \Rightarrow \text{Values from Table 12.2}$$

Rejected heat increases as the operating T increases

Conversion efficiency

$$\epsilon_i = \frac{\Delta G}{\Delta H}$$

$\epsilon_i \downarrow$ as $T_{operating} \uparrow$

Electrical energy

$$\Delta G = -E_{rev} I t$$

Time for consuming one mole of fuel

$$\Delta G = -z F E_{rev}$$

Electrochemical valence \Rightarrow Transferred charge

Cell emf constant \Rightarrow values for E & E_{rev} from Table 12.3

Actual

- Irreversible

$$\left(\begin{array}{l} E_a < E_{rev} \Rightarrow W_a < W_{rev} \\ \rightarrow \text{Because of:} \\ - \text{unwanted reactions in the cell} \\ - \text{impediment to reaction at the anode or the cathode} \\ - I^2R \text{ heating in the electrolyte} \end{array} \right.$$

$$-E_a I \tau = \Delta H - \dot{Q}$$

\rightarrow in kJ/kgmol
To calculate in kJ/h
 $\dot{Q} = \frac{Q}{\tau}$ (h or s)

Conversion Efficiency

$$\epsilon_a = \frac{-E_a I \tau}{\Delta H}$$

\rightarrow in δ
 \uparrow
in δ/kgmol

Applications

- Space Applications
- Utility companies \rightarrow No pollution, no siting problems and location flexibility
- Automotive vehicles: hybrid applications
- Aerospace applications
- Laptop & mobile applications

