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# 1       **Geometry optimization of a heat storage system for concentrated** 2       **solar power plants (CSP)**

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## 13 14       **Abstract**

15  
16       In the present study, geometry optimization of a phase change material (PCM) heat storage system is  
17       presented. The existing PCM-fins heat exchanger system works at the back side of a solar receiver in  
18       order to minimize the effect of the solar radiation fluctuations inside the cavity. As initially designed, the  
19       system does not accomplish the expected design purposes and thus optimization is needed. Optimization  
20       is usually time-consuming and some algorithms need a starting point, therefore one suitable method is  
21       geometrical optimization which aims to find the optimal shape of a system for a given criteria and  
22       providing a rough optimal geometry. Here, constructal theory, ‘point to volume’, is applied to find the  
23       optimum shape factor of the elemental volume of the presented PCM-heat exchanger. With this  
24       methodology, an optimum ratio of the PCM and fin width and length is found and beyond that the method  
25       is extended to ‘surface to volume’ problem. Results have been numerically validated using a CFD  
26       software and demonstrate that it gives a very good approximation of the real optimum which can be used  
27       as initial configuration for further optimization through CFD simulation or other optimization methods  
28       that require a starting point.

29  
30       **Keywords:** Thermal energy storage (TES); Concentrated Solar Power plant (CSP); Phase Change  
31       Material (PCM); Constructal; Exergy; Optimization.

36 **Nomenclature**

37	c	heat capacity	$\text{J kg}^{-1}\text{K}^{-1}$
38	d	height of the conductive material	m
39	$e\dot{x}_d$	total exergy destruction	W
40	f	shape factor	
41	H	height of the system	m
42	$j_q$	heat flux density	$\text{W m}^{-2}$
43	k	thermal conductivity	$\text{W m}^{-1}\text{K}^{-1}$
44	$\tilde{k}$	conductivities ratio	
45	L	length of the system	m
46	$L_m$	latent heat	$\text{J kg}^{-1}$
47	$\dot{Q}$	total heat power	W
48	$\bar{q}_x$	average heat flux to reach x	W
49	$\dot{S}$	total entropy production	$\text{W K}^{-1}$
50	T	temperature	K
51	$\bar{T}$	average temperature	K
52	$t_x$	time to reach x	s
53	W	width of the system	m
54	X	conversion degree	
55	Z	exergy impedance	$\text{W}^{-1}$
56	z	dimensionless exergy impedance	

57 **Greek symbols**

58	$\beta$	kinetics constant	$\text{K}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$
59	$\theta$	Carnot factor	
60	$\rho$	density	$\text{kg. m}^{-3}$
61	$\sigma_q$	Heat source	$\text{W m}^{-3}$
62	$\varphi$	liquid fraction	

63	$\phi$	Conductive to total volume ratio
64		<b>Subscript</b>
65	0	elemental (geometry) or reference (temperature)
66	1	construct 1
67	a	active material
68	c	conductive material
69	Cu	copper
70	irr	irreversible
71	m	melting
72		PCM phase change material
73	ptv	point to volume
74	stv	surface to volume
75		<b>Superscript</b>
76	*	optimal
77		

## 78 **1. Introduction**

79

80 Electricity consumption is growing rapidly in many countries; its global use increased by 54%  
81 between 1990 and 2005. Nowadays, electricity is the second major energy commodity in OECD  
82 countries with a share of 22%, after oil products with a 47% [1]. To move towards depletion of fossil  
83 fuels consumption to achieve the world-wide goals of climate change and CO<sub>2</sub> mitigations, the use of  
84 renewable energies is essential.

85 One feasible way to produce electricity from renewable energy is concentrated solar power (CSP) plants  
86 [2,3]. By 2050, with appropriate support, CSP could provide 11.3% of global electricity, with 9.6% from  
87 solar power and 1.7% from backup fuels (fossil fuels or biomass) [2]. Nowadays, four CSP technologies  
88 are represented at pilot and commercial scale: parabolic-trough collectors (PTCs), linear Fresnel reflector  
89 (LFR) systems, power towers or central receiver systems (CRS), and dish/engine systems (DE) [4].  
90 According to Lovegrove et al. [5] tower systems or central receiver systems represent the next generation  
91 of CSP plants as they can achieve higher efficiency and lower cost.

92 To compensate the intermittency of solar resource and to protect the solar receiver of a central receiver  
93 system, thermal energy storage technologies can be employed. Among these technologies, phase change

94 materials (PCM) tanks can either be implemented for continuous electricity production, by supplying  
95 required heat when sun is not available [6,7] , or to protect the receivers in tower system [8,9]. In  
96 parallel, other more mature technologies, mainly based on solar salts, for CSP applications are being  
97 tested at pilot plant scale [10] and on the other hand first demonstrations at pilot plant scale of more  
98 recent technologies, based on thermochemical materials, are growing [11,12].

99 In the literature, publications regarding design and optimization of PCM heat exchanger for storage in  
100 CSP applications can be found [13,14]. Several technologies have been investigated: encapsulated PCM  
101 for thermocline systems [15-17], shell and tube heat exchangers [18- 20] implementing finned tubes  
102 [21,22], heat pipes [23] or metallic foam [24] for heat transfer enhancement. All these studies make  
103 extensively use of CFD tools, permitting accurate performance evaluation through 2D or 3D modelling.  
104 However, such tools could be time consuming when optimising. The geometry needs to be drawn at a  
105 first step before generating a mesh. Therefore, simplified tools to approach the optimized geometry could  
106 be very interesting. Optimization methods giving valuable results with relatively simple calculations and  
107 less time consuming are aimed for studying the plausibility of new systems. One method is geometrical  
108 optimization which aims to find the optimal shape of a system for a given criteria. Bejan proposed in  
109 2000 [25], a general method devoted to this objective: the constructal theory [25]. Since then, several  
110 studies have been published proving the viability of this theory in a huge variety of fields, being one of  
111 them heat transfer and fluid flow systems [26]. In addition, and focusing on thermal energy storage  
112 designs, the constructal method has been extended to coupled heat and mass transfer by Azoumah et al.  
113 [27], or to thermochemical reactors, taking the total entropy production as minimization criteria [28].  
114 Tescari et al. [29] revisited the so-called ‘point to volume’ problem (ptv) studied by Bejan in his original  
115 work [30], using the thermodynamic of irreversible processes. It was shown that global optimisation gives  
116 better results than the step by step optimization usually used in the constructal theory. Moreover, this  
117 work defined the entropy and exergy impedances, which have to be minimised to facilitate heat transfer.  
118 Neveu et al. [31] successfully applied the impedance minimisation method to thermochemical reactor.

119 The aim of the present study is to prove the fact that the impedance minimisation gives a good  
120 approximation of the optimal shape of a defined geometry, and therefore it is an appropriate method to  
121 obtain a starting point for an accurate further optimization of TES systems redesign. Furthermore, this  
122 study introduces and solves an original problem, named ‘surface to volume’ (stv) problem, which  
123 represents a more realistic structure than the ptv problem for TES systems optimisation.

## 124 **2. Background**

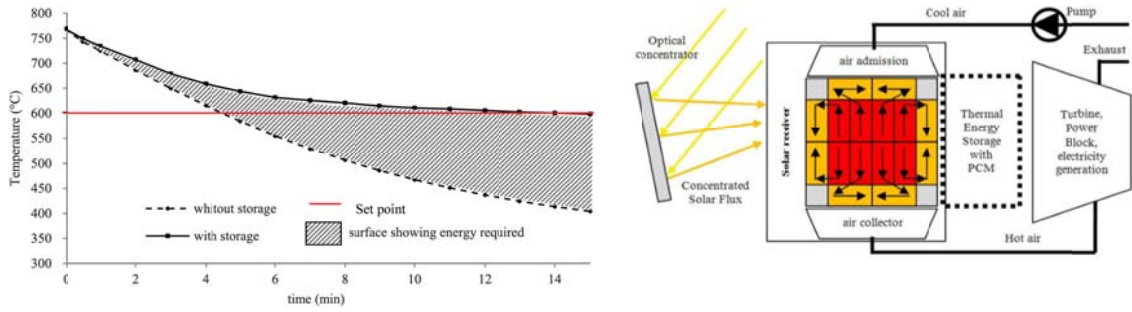
### 125 **2.1. Protection storage for high temperature solar receiver**

126

127 To smooth the variation of temperatures of a pressurized air solar receiver of a concentrated solar plant  
128 (CSP) a PCM heat exchanger working between 873 K and 1173 K was designed and published by  
129 Verdier et al. [8,9]. The main idea of this PCM tank is to stabilize the outlet air temperature in case of  
130 cloud covering, as represented in Figure 1 left, thus protecting the solar receiver and other critical

133 downstream components. Figure 1 right, shows the location of the PCM tank in the entire system being  
 134 integrated at the back of the receiver.

134



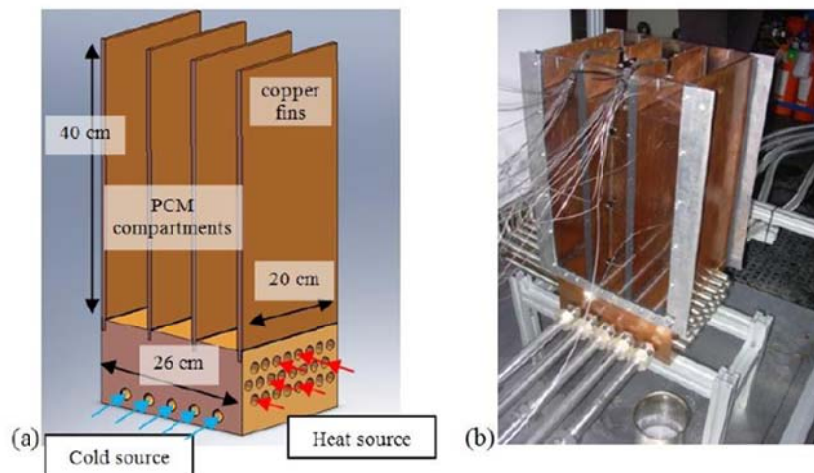
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137 *Figure 1. Left: Expected effect on temperature with and without storage system, from [8]. Right: Scheme*  
 138 *of the entire system and the PCM tank, from [9]*

138

142 The PCM used is lithium carbonate ( $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$ ) since its melting temperature is close to the working  
 143 temperatures, being 996 K. The fins are made of copper, being a highly conductive metal. Pictures and a  
 144 scheme of the current heat exchanger can be seen in Figure 2. After tests, it was concluded that this heat  
 145 exchanger needed to be optimized to achieve better results [9].

143



144

145 *Figure 2. PCM fins heat exchanger developed and tested for the solar receiver application [9]*

148 This study also provided a 2D model using CFD software. The PCM model is based on Calvet et al. study  
 149 [32] in which the local liquid fraction ( $\phi$ ) evolution is evaluated through a 1<sup>st</sup> order heterogeneous kinetic  
 150 law (Eq. 1 and 2):

$$149 \quad \frac{d\phi}{dt} = \beta(T - T_m)\phi \quad \text{if } T < T_m \text{ (solidification conditions)} \quad (1)$$

150 
$$\frac{d\phi}{dt} = \beta(T - T_m)(1 - \phi) \text{ if } T > T_m \text{ (melting conditions)} \quad (2)$$

154 The kinetic constant  $\beta$ , fitted by comparison between model and experiments, was found to be  $0.001 \text{ K}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ . Verdier [33] also remarks that the value of  $\beta$  can have a big impact on computing time; however its  
 155 effect to the TES evolution remains weak, showing that the behaviour of the PCM TES is controlled by  
 156 heat transfer.  
 157

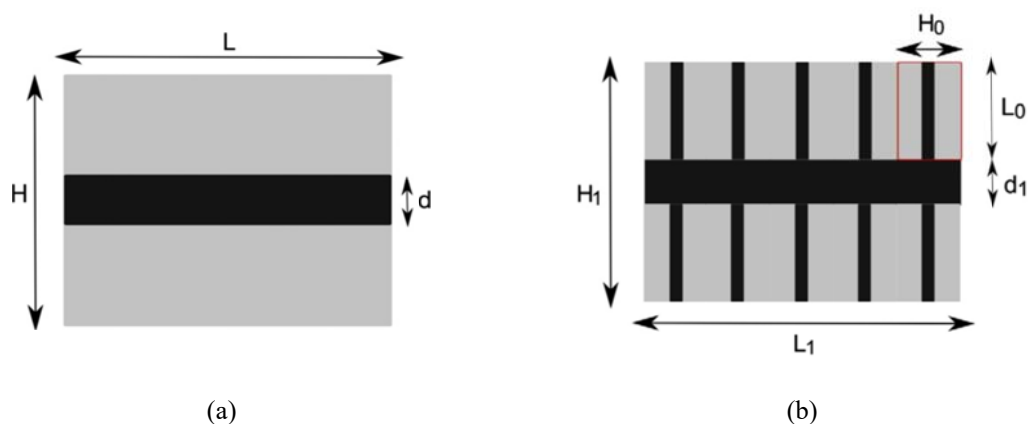
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## 156 2.2. Geometrical optimization

157

161 Constructal theory initiated by Bejan [25] aims at optimizing the geometry of systems in which heat or  
 162 matter is flowing. This method consists in finding the optimal geometrical shape that minimizes the  
 163 global transfer resistance. Cooling of electronic devices was first investigated by Bejan [30] where also  
 164 the ‘point to volume’ (ptv) problem was defined.

171 In this paper, the system under study is composed of an active material releasing heat and a conductive  
 172 path (Figure 3). Surface (or volume) of both materials is given. Heat released by the active material is  
 173 extracted through the fin(s) on the left side, maintained at  $T_0$ . All the other boundaries are thermally  
 174 insulated. The constructal method consists in finding the optimal shape for the so-called elemental  
 175 volume (Figure 3a) (i.e. optimal shape factor  $H/L$  for a given conductive to active materials ratio  $d/H$ ),  
 176 which minimizes the maximum temperature difference between the upper (or lower) right corner and the  
 177 middle left point. Once the optimal elemental volume is found, the construct one device (Figure 3b) is  
 178 obtained by paving the given surface with optimal elemental surfaces. The optimal number of elemental  
 179 volumes is pursued using the same criterion. This process leads to find the optimal shape factor  $H_1/L_1$  and  
 180 the optimal repartition of conductive material (i.e optimal ratios  $d_0/H_0$  and  $d_1/H_1$ ).



173 *Figure 3. (a) Elemental volume. (b) Construct 1 device with its optimized elemental volume represented*  
 174 *in red, from [25]*

176 The constructal method was extended to coupled heat and mass transfer by Azoumah et al. [27] for solid-  
 177 gas reactor design. This study shows that the optimal geometry deduced from the constructal theory leads  
 178 to the maximum thermal power (i.e. highest kinetics) reachable for a solid/gas reactor. Following these

176 studies, Tescari et al. [29] revisited the pvt problem by taking the total entropy production (or total exergy  
 177 destruction) as minimization criterion, and performing a global optimization (i.e. each scale is optimized  
 178 in a single step). It was shown that the total exergy destruction  $ex_d$  (W) could be expressed according to  
 179 the generated heat power  $\dot{q}$  (W) under the following remarkable form:

$$180 \quad ex_d = Z \dot{q}^2 \quad (3)$$

181  $Z$  is named exergy impedance. For the elemental volume (Figure 3a), it writes:

$$182 \quad Z_0 = \frac{l}{3k_c W T_0} \left( \frac{l}{\phi f} + \frac{\tilde{k}}{4} f (1 - \phi) \right) \quad (4)$$

183 where

184  $k_c$ : thermal conductivity of the conductive path ( $W \cdot m^{-1} K^{-1}$ )

185  $f = H/L$ : Shape factor

186  $\phi = d/H$ : Conductive to total volume ratio

187  $\tilde{k} = k_c/k_a$ : Conductivities ratio,  $k_a$  being the thermal conductivity of active material

188  $W$ : Width of the system (m)

189  $T_0$ : Constraint temperature taking as exergy reference temperature (K)

190 The minimization is then carried on the dimensionless impedance defined by:

$$191 \quad z_0 = \frac{Z_0}{Z_c} = \frac{l}{\phi f} + \frac{\tilde{k}}{4} f (1 - \phi) \quad (5)$$

$$192 \quad \text{where } Z_c = \frac{1}{3 k_c W T_0}$$

193 The optimal solution is:

$$194 \quad f_0^* = 2 \left[ \tilde{k} \phi (1 - \phi) \right]^{-1/2} \quad (6)$$

195 Similar expressions have been derived for construct 1 system. Results have been validated by comparing  
 196 the optimal configuration obtained from Eq. (6) with temperature fields computed using CFD simulations.  
 197 Neveu et al. [31] extended this methodology to thermochemical reactors, coupling constructal theory  
 198 ('point to volume' problem), exergy analysis, and thermodynamics of irreversible process. It permits to  
 199 refine the solution proposed for thermochemical reactor formerly obtained by Azoumah et al. [27] by  
 200 applying Bejan method to these systems. Moreover, the study published by Neveu et al. [18] proposes an  
 201 expression to evaluate the mean thermal power of the reactor, based on exergy balance:

$$202 \quad \dot{q} = \bar{\theta} / Z \quad (7)$$

$$203 \quad \text{where } \bar{\theta} = l - T_0 / \bar{T}$$

204  $T_0$ : temperature applied to the left side of the fin (K)

205  $\bar{T}$ : mean temperature of the reactive material (K).



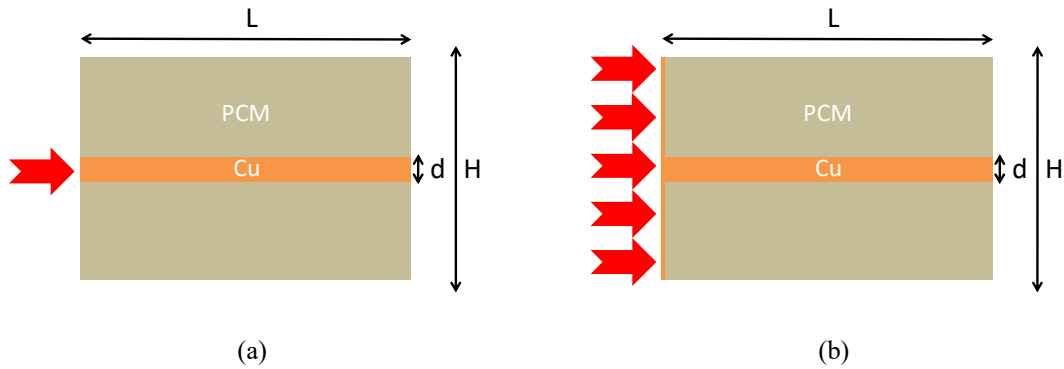
206 However, nor experimental neither computational validations are yet available. Such validation is still  
207 required.

### 208 3. Materials and methods

209

210 The starting point of the present work has been briefly described in section 2.1 and is deeply explained by  
211 Verdier et al. [8]. The TES system is a parallel fins heat exchanger (Figure 2), which geometry slightly  
212 differs from the one related to the ptv problem (Figure 4a), since heat is supplied to the PCM through the  
213 fins and through the sole of the heat exchanger. That defines the ‘surface to volume’ problem (stv)  
214 (Figure 4b). In the ptv problem, heat is supplied only on the left part of the fin, while in the stv problem  
215 the heat is supplied through the left layer (see Figure 4). In both cases, constant temperature  $T_0$  is taken as  
216 boundary condition (red arrows).

217



218 *Figure 4. (a) 'Point to volume' problem, (b) 'Surface to volume' problem*

219

220 The assumptions firstly stated by Bejan [25], used by Tescari [29] and Neveu [31] are:

- 221 i. The active material (here the PCM) is characterized by the thermal conductivity  $k_a$  and a  
222 uniform and constant heat source  $\sigma_q$  ( $\text{Wm}^{-3}$ )
- 223 ii. The conductive material (here copper) is characterized by the thermal conductivity  $k_c$

224 For the ptv problem, 1D heat transfer is assumed (slenderness assumption), following H-direction in the  
225 active material, L-direction in the conductive fin. Under these assumptions, exergy impedance and  
226 optimal shape factor are given by Eqs. (5) and (6) derived by Tescari [29].

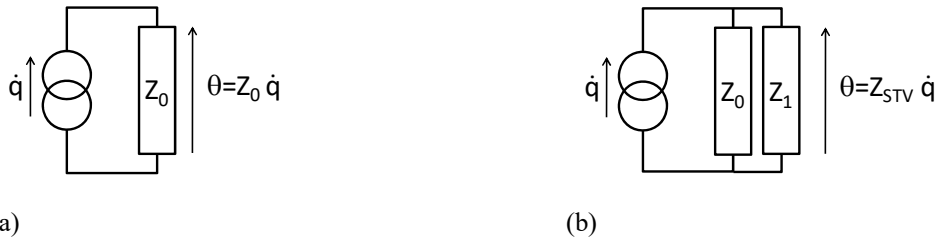
227 For the stv problem, these two quantities are derived in the present paper in sub-section 3.1. The optimal  
228 configurations for both ‘point to volume’ and ‘surface to volume’ problems are then tested, numerically,  
229 based on Calvet et al. model [32] and using a CFD software (Comsol®). 2D modelling principles are  
230 recalled in sub-section 3.2.

231

### 3.1. Impedance minimization method for stv problem

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234  
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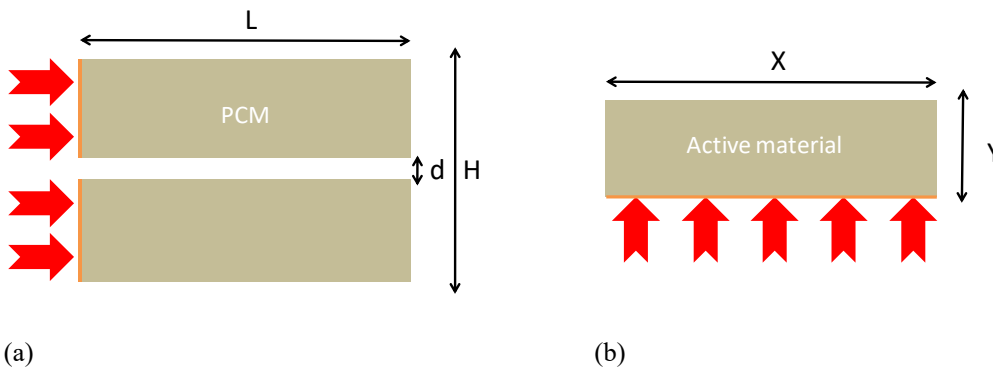
To extend the impedance model to stv problem, let's first notice that an equivalent electrical circuit can be associated to the ptv problem. From Equations (3) and (7), it consists in a perfect current source  $\dot{q}$  charging the impedance  $Z_0$  (Figure 5a).



239 *Figure 5. Equivalent electrical circuit. (a) 'Point to volume' problem. (b) 'Surface to volume' problem*  
240

241 Comparing Figure 4a and 4b, the 'surface to volume' problem could be seen as the association of two  
242 impedances in parallel (Figure 5b),  $Z_0$  related to the 'point to volume' problem and  $Z_1$  related to a system  
243 consisting only on PCM material and receiving heat from its left side (Figure 6a).

244



245 *Figure 6. (a) Complementary system for  $Z_1$  evaluation. (b) System analysed by Tescari [29]*  
246

247 Similar system has been already analysed in Tescari's work [29] when the entropy production  $\dot{S}_{irr}$   
248 occurring in the active material is derived. For the system represented in Figure 6b, this latter writes (Eq.  
249 11 from [29]):

$$250 \quad \dot{S}_{irr} = \frac{W X \sigma_q^2}{3k_a T_0^2} Y^3 \quad (8)$$

251 Thence, the total entropy production  $\dot{S}_1$  of the system represented in Figure 6a can be simply obtained by  
252 substituting Y by L and X by (H-d) in Eq. (8):

$$253 \quad \mathcal{S}_I = \frac{W(H-d)\sigma_q^2}{3k_a T_0^2} L^3 \quad (9)$$

254 which can be rearranged in:

$$255 \quad \mathcal{S}_I = \frac{W^2 (H-d)^2 L^2 \sigma_q^2}{3k_a T_0^2} \frac{L}{W(H-d)} \quad (10)$$

256 Remarking that the total heat generated by the active material writes:

$$257 \quad \mathcal{Q} = W(H-d)L\sigma_q \quad (11)$$

258 It yields:

$$259 \quad \mathcal{S}_I = \frac{I}{3k_c W T_0^2} \frac{\tilde{k}}{f(1-\phi)} \mathcal{Q}^2 \quad (12)$$

260 Thence, exergy destruction writes:

$$261 \quad ex_{\mathcal{Q}} = T_0 \mathcal{S}_I = \frac{I}{3k_c W T_0} \frac{\tilde{k}}{f(1-\phi)} \mathcal{Q}^2 \quad (13)$$

262 which gives the exergy impedance  $Z_I$ :

$$263 \quad Z_I = \frac{I}{3k_c W T_0} \frac{\tilde{k}}{f(1-\phi)} \quad (14)$$

264 The impedance related to the ‘surface to volume’ flow problem is then:

$$265 \quad Z_{stv} = \left( \frac{I}{Z_0} + \frac{I}{Z_I} \right)^{-1} \quad (15)$$

266 From Eq. (14) and (4), we get:

$$267 \quad Z_{stv} = \frac{1}{3k_c W T_0} \frac{\tilde{k}}{f} \left( 1 - \phi + \frac{\tilde{k}\phi}{1 + \left( \frac{f}{f^*} \right)^2} \right)^{-1} \quad (16)$$

268 or, in dimensionless form:

$$269 \quad z_{stv} = \frac{\tilde{k}}{f} \left( 1 - \phi + \frac{\tilde{k}\phi}{1 + \left( \frac{f}{f_0^*} \right)^2} \right)^{-1} \quad (17)$$

270 where  $f_0^*$  is the optimal shape factor related to the ‘point to volume’ flow problem, given by Eq. 6. The

271 impedance  $z_{stv}$  presents two extrema, given by the roots of:

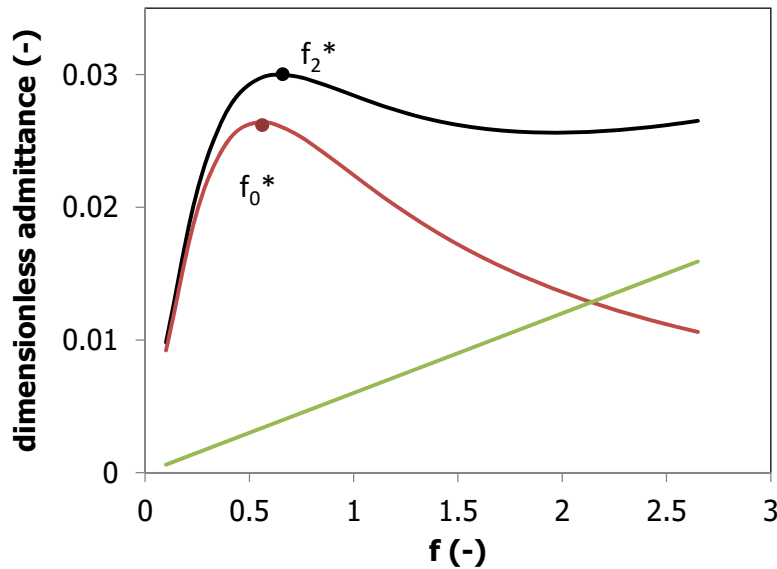
$$272 \quad \frac{\partial z_{stv}}{\partial f} = 0 \quad (18)$$

273 It is found:

$$274 \quad f_1^* = f_0^* \left[ \frac{\alpha - 2 + (\alpha^2 - 8\alpha)^{1/2}}{2} \right]^{1/2} \quad f_2^* = f_0^* \left[ \frac{\alpha - 2 - (\alpha^2 - 8\alpha)^{1/2}}{2} \right]^{1/2} \quad (19)$$

$$275 \quad \text{with } \alpha = \frac{\tilde{k} \phi}{1 - \phi}$$

276 Figure 7 presents the evolution of dimensionless admittance ( $1/z$ ) as a function of the shape factor, related  
 277 to the ptv ( $z_0$ ) and stv ( $z_1$  and  $z_{stv}$ ) problems. The values of  $\phi$  and  $\tilde{k}$  correspond to the experimental set-up  
 278 depicted in section 3.1. For ptv problem, optimal shape factor is  $f_0^*=0.56$ . For stv problem,  $f_2^*$   
 279 corresponds to a local maximum ( $f_2^*=0.65$ ) and  $f_1^*$  to the local minimum ( $f_1^*=1.96$ ) of conductance (i.e.  
 280 local minimum and local maximum for impedance). Thence, the optimal shape is given by  $f_2^*$ .  
 281



282  
 283 *Figure 7. Dimensionless admittance vs shape factor.  $\phi=0.0951$ ,  $\tilde{k}=150.7$ . —  $1/z_{stv}$ , —  $1/z_0$ , —  $1/z_1$*

284

### 285 3.2. 2D Model

286

287 A 2D transient model has been developed by Comsol® 4.3b simulating the PCM tank as described in  
 288 [9] and Section 3.1, to validate the developed methodology. The tank is a fin heat exchanger, composed  
 289 by copper and PCM,  $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$  which melts and solidifies at  $723^\circ\text{C}$ . The heat equations used to describe the  
 290 system are Eq. 20 for the copper fin and Eq. 21 for the PCM,  $\sigma_q$  being the heat source ( $\text{W}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ ), expressed  
 291 by Eq. 22, which depends on the latent heat ( $L_m$  ( $\text{J}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ )) and the evolution of the fraction of liquid,  $\phi$ .  
 292 Heating (melting) process is considered:

$$293 \quad \rho_{Cu} c_{Cu} \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \nabla(k_{Cu} \nabla T) \quad (20)$$

294 
$$\rho_{PCM} c_{PCM} \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \nabla(k_{PCM} \nabla T) + \sigma_q \quad (21)$$

295 
$$\sigma_q = -\rho L_m \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t} \quad (22)$$

296 where:  $\rho$  is the density ( $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ ),  $c$  is the specific thermal capacity ( $\text{J}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}$ ),  $k$  is the thermal  
 297 conductivity ( $\text{W}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}$ ), and  $T$  is the temperature (K).

298 The evolution of the liquid fraction can be written as an ordinary differential equation (ODE),  
 299 following the simplified phase field method described in section 2.1):

300 
$$\frac{d\varphi}{dt} = \beta(T - T_m)(1 - \varphi) \quad (23)$$

301 where  $\beta$  is a constant set at  $0.001 \text{ K}^{-1}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ , fitted from experimental results [9], and  $T_m$  is the melting  
 302 temperature (K). All the material properties, of both copper and PCM, are listed in Table 1.

303

304 *Table 1. Material properties of copper and PCM, adapted from [9]*

Properties	Copper	Li <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub>	
		Solid	Liquid
Density, $\rho$ , ( $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ )	8940	2110	2110
Thermal conductivity, $k$ , ( $\text{W}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}$ )	392	2.6	2.6
Heat capacity, $c$ , ( $\text{J}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}$ )	385	1800	2500
Latent heat, $L_m$ , ( $\text{J}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ )	n.a.	509	
Melting temperature, $T_m$ , (K)	1403	996	

305

306 The initial and boundary conditions are:

307 -  $t = 0$ , uniform initial temperature :  $T_{CU} = T_{PCM} = 973 \text{ K } 700^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $\varphi = 0$

308 -  $x=L$  or  $y = \pm H/2$  : perfect insulation:  $\nabla T \cdot \mathbf{n} = 0$

309 For  $x = 0$ , the boundary conditions depends on the problem. For ptv problem (Figure 4a), uniform  
 310 temperature  $T_0 = 1173 \text{ K}$  is imposed for  $-d/2 < y < d/2$ , and perfect insulation is assumed elsewhere. For  
 311 stv problem (Figure 4b), uniform temperature  $T_0 = 1173 \text{ K}$  is imposed on the whole left edge.

312 Thanks to the symmetry of the systems, only half of the elemental volume is modelled ( $0 < y < H/2$ ), with  
 313 a symmetry boundary condition in  $x = 0$  ( $\nabla T \cdot \mathbf{n} = 0$ ).

314

## 4. Results and discussion

315

316

317 To compare the results of both ‘point to volume’ and ‘surface to volume’ methodologies and seeking for  
 318 the shape factor giving the best results, the required time ( $t_X$ ) and average heat flux  $\bar{q}_X$  to reach a given  
 319 global liquid fraction  $X$  have been evaluated. The global liquid fraction writes:

320

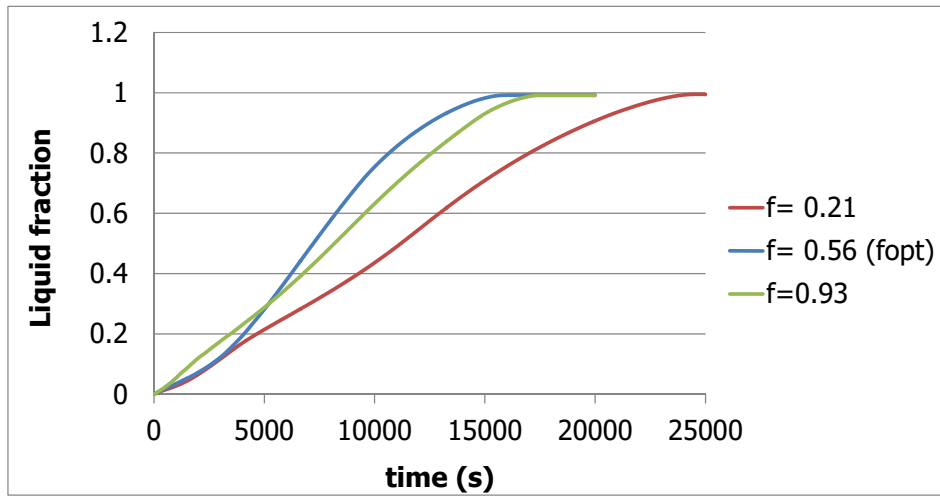
$$321 \quad X(t) = \iiint_{V_{PCM}} \varphi(t) dv \quad (24)$$

322

323 Then, the evolution of the global liquid fraction versus time can be evaluated for each shape factor, the  
 324 volumes of PCM and copper being kept constant. As an example, Figure 8 shows the evolution of the  
 325 global liquid fraction for ptv problem for three different shape factors. . From these evaluations, as in  
 326 Figure 8, it can be easily seen which shape factor provides the best geometry leading to the fastest melting  
 327 of the PCM.

328 In addition, the evolution of local liquid fraction versus temperature at several times is also obtained,  
 329 from where it can be easily seen the status of the phase change of each point (this is shown in section 4.2).

330



331

332 *Figure 8. Liquid fraction as a function of time for three different shape factor (ptv problem)*

333

334 The average heat flux to reach  $X$  is:

$$335 \quad \bar{q}_X = \frac{I}{t_X} \int_0^{t_X} \left( \iint_{S_0} j_q ds \right) dt \quad (25)$$

336 where  $S_0$  is the heated surface in  $m^2$ , and  $j_q$  the heat flux density crossing this surface in  $Wm^{-2}$ .

337 Due to accuracy problems when  $X$  reaches high values (i.e. very slow evolution when  $X$  is close to 1, see  
 338 Figure 8),  $t_X$  and  $\bar{q}_X$  were estimated for  $X = 0.9$ . First, the time  $t_{X=0.9}$  is searched such as:

$$339 \quad \iiint_{V_{PCM}} \varphi(t_{0.9}) dv = 0.9 \quad (26)$$

340 Thence, the average heat flux is determined with:

$$341 \quad \bar{q}_{0.9} = \frac{I}{t_{X=0.9}} \int_0^{t_{0.9}} \left( \iint_{S_0} j_q ds \right) dt \quad (27)$$

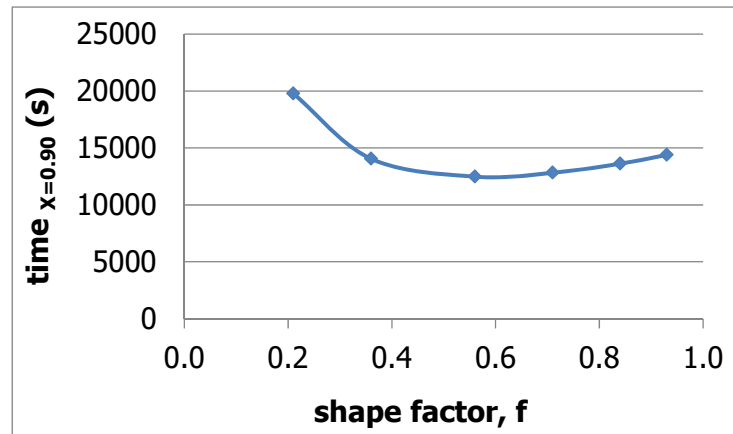
342

### 343 **4.1. 'Point to volume' problem**

344

345 The time needed to reach a 90 % liquid fraction for each shape factor is shown in Figure 9. The obtained  
 346 results follow a curve giving a minimum which leads to the optimum shape factor. The shape factor of  
 347 0.56 gives the lowest time, being 12480 seconds, which corroborates the one previously deduced from  
 348 impedance minimization (see eq. 6 and section 3.1).

349



350

351

Figure 9. Time to achieve 90 % of liquid fraction as a function of shape factor

352

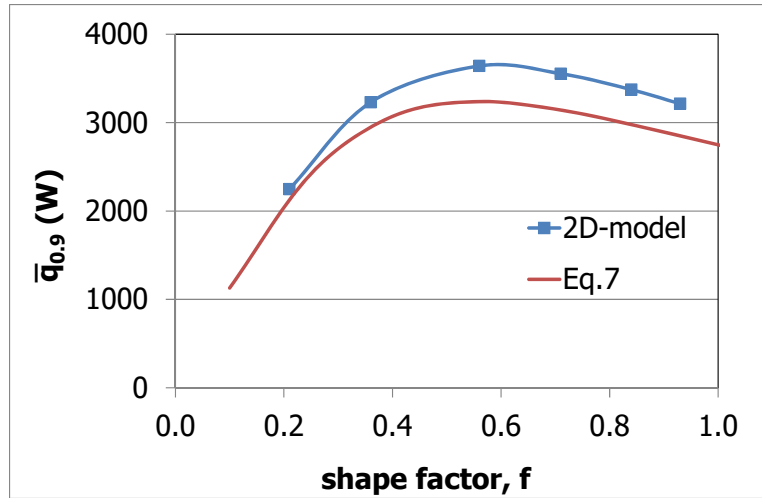
353 The average heat flux  $\bar{q}_{0.9}$  (Eq. 27) is plotted in Figure 10 as a function of the shape factor ( $f$ ), and  
 354 compared with the one deduced from Eq.7 taking the melting temperature as equilibrium temperature.  
 355 Although Eq.5 underestimates the average heat flux, it can be seen that this expression gives a quite good  
 356 approximation of the simulated heat power. The 2D model results evaluating the heat flux are 11%  
 357 higher than the ones following Equation 7 at the optimum shape factor.

358 The shape factor of the heat exchanger presented in [9] and in Figure 2 corresponds to a shape factor of  
 359 0.21, which leads to higher time to reach the same percentage of liquid fraction and consequently lower  
 360 values of heat flux, compared to the other shape factors. The results of the studied heat exchanger show

361 that its optimization can lead to remarkable savings of melting time of around 36%. Of course, this also  
 362 corroborates that the built heat exchanger was not the optimum and has to be refined.

363

364



365

366 *Figure 10. Average heat flux as a function of shape factor.  $W = 1\text{ m}$ ,  $\phi=0.0951$ ,  $\tilde{k}=150.7$*

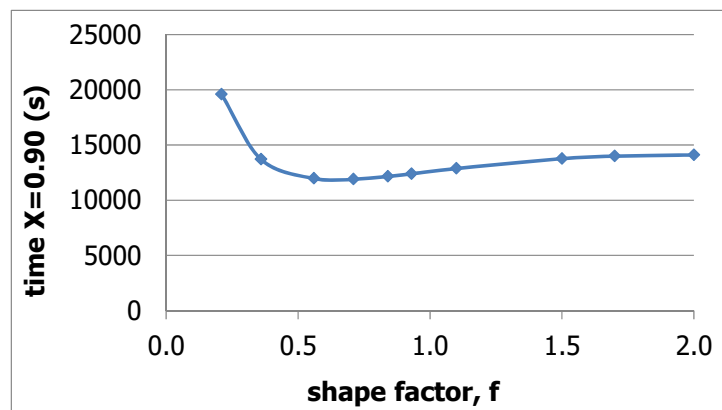
367

## 368 4.2. 'Surface to volume' problem

369

370 In the case that the entire bottom layer is heated (stv problem), the curve presents a minimum and a  
 371 maximum (see Eq. 19), and both are corroborated by the model results as it can be observed in Figure 11  
 372 and Figure 12.

373



374

375 *Figure 11. Time to achieve 90 % of liquid fraction as a function of shape factor.  $\phi=0.0951$ ,  $\tilde{k}=150.7$*

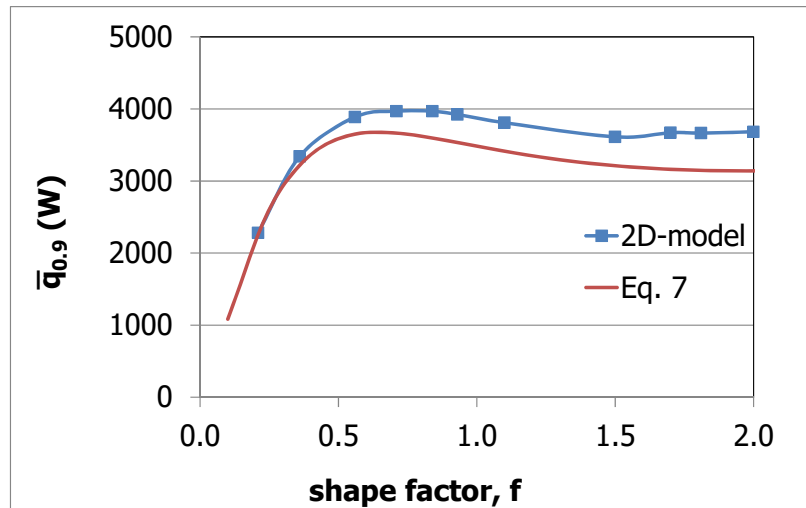
376 The shape factor giving a minimum impedance (see Section 3.1) is  $f_2^* = 0.65$ . The 2D model results show  
 377 that the optimum shape factor, giving the lowest time and highest heat flux values, is around 0.7. This can  
 378 be observed in Figure 11 and Figure 12, respectively. Results show that the time to reach a 90 % of



379 melted PCM is 11900 seconds (see Figure 11). Regarding Figure 12, the 2D model is in agreement with  
380 impedance minimization method (equation 7), showing differences of the heat flux at the optimum shape  
381 factor of around 8 %.

382 On the other hand, the shape factor  $f_1$  leading to local maximum impedance (see Section 3.1) is around  
383 1.5 according to the model (Figure 12), although Eq. 19 gives 1.96 for  $f_1^*$ . The difference is considerable,  
384 but could be explained by the fact that the slenderness assumption used in the impedance calculation is no  
385 more valid for high  $f$  value.

386



387

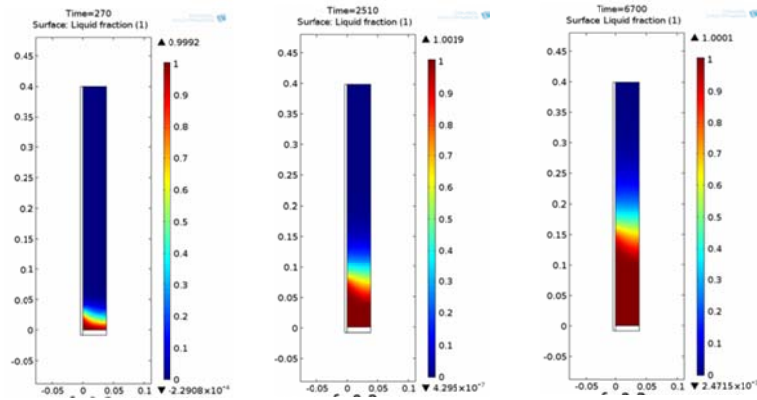
388 *Figure 12. Heat flux average as a function of shape factor,  $W = 1m$ ,  $\phi=0.0951$ ,  $\tilde{k}=150.7$*

389 When comparing both optimums for ptv and stv problems, it can be noticed that stv configuration leads to  
390 an expected faster melting process, of around 10 minutes, and 330 W higher heat flux value. This  
391 behaviour was expected since in ptv problem, heat is supplied only on the left part of the fin, while in the  
392 stv problem all the heat is supplied through the left layer (see Figure 4). Nevertheless, this is the first time  
393 that impedance minimization methodology is developed for a stv configuration and numerically  
394 demonstrated. The results out from this study corroborate not only the expected faster melting process  
395 with stv configuration but also that impedance minimization approach can be also implemented for stv  
396 configurations.

397 In addition, it is important to point out that the optimum shape factor for stv problems has shift to higher  
398 values meaning lower length and higher height of the system compared to ptv geometry.

399 The transient 2D model permits to simulate the temperature and liquid fraction field according to time.  
400 Such fields evolution are presented in Figure 13 and Figure 14 for two shape factors,  $f = 0.21$ ,  
401 corresponding to the original design experimented by Verdier et al. [9], and  $f = f_0^* = 0.56$  (ptv problem)  
402 deduced from the impedance minimization by Eq. 6. It is important to remind that the total volume  
403 (surface) is equal for both presented case (i.e same amount of PCM and copper). It could be immediately  
404 seen that the liquid fraction evolution runs faster for the minimal impedance case.

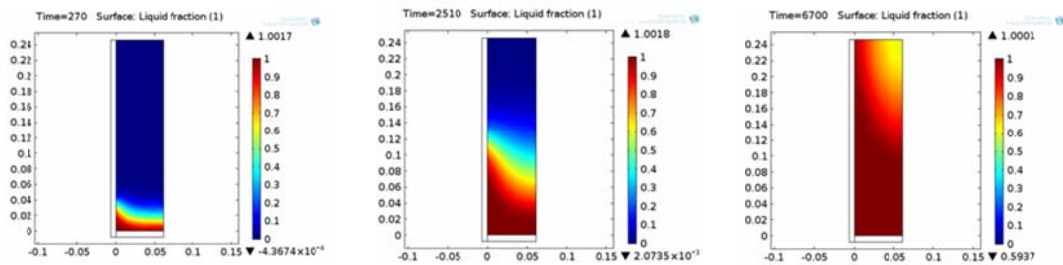
405



407

Figure 13. Evolution of the liquid fraction vs. time for the stv problem when  $f=0.21$

408



409

Figure 14. Evolution of the liquid fraction vs time for the stv problem when  $f=0.56$

410

## 5. Conclusions

411

412

416 A 2D model of an elemental volume of a PCM and fins heat exchanger for the ‘point to volume’ case has  
 417 been developed with Comsol<sup>®</sup> software. The impedance minimization method for ‘point to volume’  
 418 problem has been numerically validated by comparing it with the model results. The optimal shape factor  
 419 found for the studied TES PCM based described system is around 0.56.

422 The impedance minimization method has been extended for ‘surface to volume’ problem. The ‘surface to  
 423 volume’ problem 2D model has been developed and demonstrated that the calculated optimum by  
 424 impedance minimization approach is the one expected, being 0.65, for the same solar receiver application.  
 425 Stv configuration leads to faster melting process, of around 10 minutes, and 330 W higher heat flux value  
 426 when compared to ptv case. Refining the TES system with the stv optimum shape factor would increase  
 427 the power by 200% compared to the initial non-optimized configuration.

426 Therefore, it can be concluded that the impedance minimization approach is a useful and powerful  
 427 method to start a PCM storage tank optimization for both ‘point to volume’ or ‘surface to volume’  
 428 problems. The obtained optimum geometry by this method is completely in agreement with the developed  
 429 2D model results simulating a PCM and fin heat exchanger by Comsol<sup>®</sup> multiphysics software.

426 Further work is planned, for instance to perform the experimental tests to validate the model and adjust  
427 some parameters, to compare the presented 2D model with another more complex and presented in [34],  
428 and to extend the model for sensible and TCM systems.

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430

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