

INTRODUCTION TO PASSIVE SOLAR CONCEPTS

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Abstract- The United States Air Force is committed to energy efficiency and the use of renewable forms of energy in all of its facilities when shown to be reliable and cost effective. In its response to the Military Construction Codification Act of 10 USC 2801, Executive Order 12003 and Office of the Secretary of Defense directives, the Air Force has implemented numerous policies and procedures to significantly reduce the usage of fossil fuel derived energy. Since the oil embargo of the early 1970's, the Air Force has encouraged and demonstrated the integration of a variety of energy conserving features, including solar applications, in its facilities. Passive solar systems represent one type of solar application that can be used in almost all facilities to improve their energy efficiency and to lower their energy costs.

1. Introduction

Passive solar systems use the energy from the sun to heat, cool, and illuminate buildings. The Air Force has used passive solar concepts in buildings since it was established in 1947 and will continue to do so whenever possible. Figure 1-1 illustrates a passive solar strategy used by the Air Force in 1947. Although this form of passive heating system is no longer in use, it illustrates the Air Force's early commitment to the use of passive solar systems in commercial-type buildings.

Solar concepts described in this handbook fall into two broad categories: (1) those that use the energy from the sun to directly or indirectly impact the thermal needs (heating and cooling energy use) of the building, and (2) those that use the energy from the sun to directly impact the lighting needs of the building. Solar systems that heat or cool the building will be called *solar thermal systems*; ones that light the building will be called *daylighting systems*.

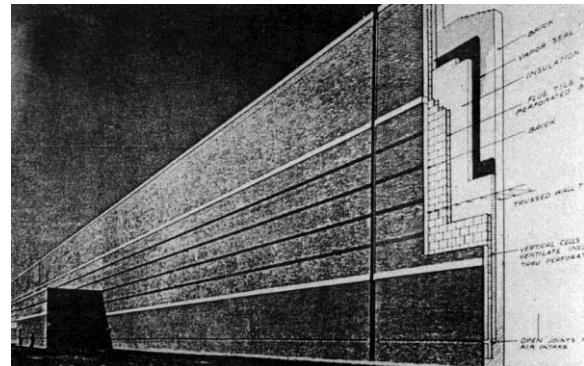


Figure 1-1: Breathing Wall. Tinker AFB, Oklahoma

The breathing wall, built in 1947, is a double layer mass wall acting as an indirect gain solar heating system.

It is not anticipated that a properly designed passive solar commercial-type building will completely eliminate the need for the auxiliary energy systems used to heat, cool, or light the building. Because of the size of the buildings, large internal loads, and their diverse use patterns, it is anticipated that passive solar systems will supplement the energy systems of the building. However, it is possible for a combination of passive solar concepts to reduce total energy costs by as much as 40% and have savings-to-investment ratios (SIR) that should make them cost effective. Technical and solar terms used throughout all of the volumes of the handbook are defined in Chapter 5 of this volume.

Passive Solar Concepts

A total of eleven different passive concepts will be considered in this handbook. Many other possible solar concepts were evaluated. The ones listed below are appropriate in a wider range of climates and building types.

- (H) Direct gain with storage
- (H) Indirect gain

- (H) Direct gain (without storage)
- (H) Sunspaces
- (C) Night Mechanical Ventilation
- (C) Natural Ventilation
- (L) Windows
- (L) Skylights
- (L) Sawtooth Apertures
- (L) Monitor Apertures
- (L) Atria

The letters (H), (C), and (L) stand for heating, cooling, and lighting, respectively, and are used to remind you of the purpose for each passive solar system concept. Solar thermal concepts use the energy from the sun to heat or cool the building and usually consist of four separate components:

- (1) collection
- (2) storage
- (3) distribution
- (4) control

Passive Heating

Passive heating concepts use heat from the sun to offset winter heating needs. The collection subsystem may include windows, skylights, or some other type of solar aperture. The purpose of the collection subsystem is to allow sunlight into the building to heat the space and, if appropriate, to heat the storage mass. The storage subsystem usually includes parts of the floor or interior walls of the building.

The purpose of the storage subsystem is to store the collected solar heat until it is needed by the occupants in the building. In most cases, heat is collected during the daytime and used at night. Stored energy is released from the storage mass and distributed throughout the building to offset heating energy use.

Distribution: Distribution is accomplished by arranging the functional spaces of the building such that those that need heat are closest to the storage subsystem. The size and shape of the solar apertures (collection subsystem) affects the quantity of heating energy available to offset auxiliary heating energy needs. The size of the storage subsystem affects the quantity of heat stored and the time delay between initial collection and final use of energy. The size, shape, and location of rooms in the building impact the optimum distribution of the heat throughout the building. Heat distribution is accomplished by a combination of radiation and

convection. Heat is radiated from the storage subsystem into the rooms being heated after the collected solar energy has passed through the storage system. Heat is convected through the air, warming it, and thereby warming the people in the room.

Control: Control of the passive heating system might be quite different from control of an HVAC system. In many passive buildings, control is achieved through the use of shading devices, or some other means to regulate the sunlight entering the building. More complex passive buildings may also have thermostats to control fans and motors that regulate the air flow or control vents. In many passive buildings, the control mechanisms are manual; that is, people control the building. A balance between the size, shape, and location of each subsystem must be achieved to ensure optimal system performance and efficiency. If the collection subsystem is too large or too small, then either too much energy is collected and the building is overheated or not enough energy is collected to be effective. Similarly, if the storage subsystem is improperly sized, then it either holds the energy in storage too long (oversized) or not long enough (undersized) to provide heat to the building when it is needed. Finally, if the spaces of the building are not correctly organized, the heat cannot be distributed in a manner that ensures optimal auxiliary heating energy savings and comfort. In developing this handbook, extensive analysis was done to determine the optimal size of different subsystems for various climate zones and building types.

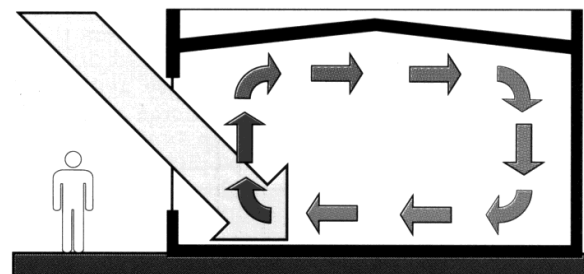


Figure 1-4: Direct Gain (DG) Schematic
Figure



Figure 1-5: Direct Gain. Walker Field Terminal, Indirect Gain (IND)

Indirect gain (IND) concepts place the collection and storage components of the solar thermal system very close to each other as part of the same wall. Heat is collected and stored in an exterior wall or on the roof of a building, and distributed to the building by passing all the way through the storage mass. For some applications, air that passes between the aperture and the storage mass (which are only 4 to 6 in. apart) is heated and circulated to rooms to offset immediate heating energy needs. Indirect gain systems are often used when extended storage capacity is needed in a building because it is possible to make the storage component very thick (12+ inches). In commercial-type buildings, there were no cases where walls in excess of 8 inch thick were needed or useful. See Figure 1-8 and 1-9

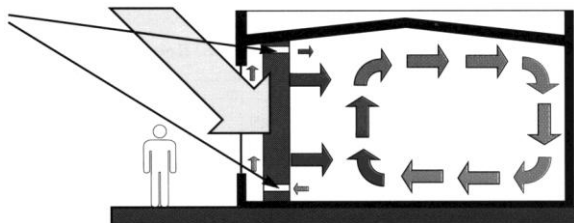


Figure 1-8: Indirect Gain (IND) Schematic Figure



Figure 1-9: Indirect Gain. Shelly Ridge Girl Scout Center, Philadelphia Area Council.

Sunspaces (SUN)

Isolated gain passive solar heating systems isolate the collection and storage subsystems from the building. One special category of an isolated gain system is a sunspace. A sunspace (SUN) combines some features of direct gain systems with features of indirect gain systems. A sunspace is a room attached to or integrated with the exterior of a building in which the room temperature is allowed to rise and fall outside the thermal comfort zone. The space can be inhabited, thus acting like a direct gain system. However, the walls and floor of a sunspace are used as storage. The back walls of the sunspace allow the heat to pass through them, much like an indirect gain system, to heat the room adjacent to the sunspace. See Figure 1-10 and 1-11.

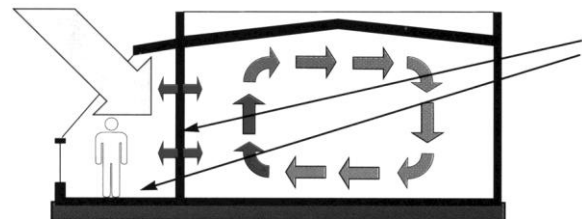


Figure 1-10: Sunspace (SUN) Schematic



Figure 1-11: Sunspace. Commissary, McGuire AFB, New Jersey

Different types of passive heating systems have been considered to allow for design variation and to recognize the fact that some concepts work better in some building types. In general, passive heating systems work best in buildings: (1) with low levels of continuous internal load (less than 1.5 w/sf), (2) that are occupied for extended periods (more than 8 hours), and (3) are located in climates with heating seasons in excess of 1,000 HDD. The severity and length of the heating season are not as critical as the internal load and occupancy schedule of the building.

Passive Cooling

Passive cooling systems have the same basic components as passive heating systems, but work in a different manner. Whereas the purpose of passive heating systems is to draw heat into the building, the purpose of a passive cooling strategy is to remove or reject heat from the building, and thereby cool it. Because the mechanisms that drive passive cooling strategies are not fully understood, many cooling concepts are difficult to fully evaluate during the comprehensive planning process. Therefore, the number of cooling concepts advocated in this volume of the handbook is limited. A more detailed discussion of passive cooling concepts can be found in Volume IV: Passive Solar Design.

Peak Coolin

Passive cooling benefits are achieved by avoidance of the cooling load in the building. In many commercial-type buildings, the peak cooling requirement is directly associated with solar gains. By avoiding solar gains, a portion of the cooling load is avoided. This can be accomplished by shading the apertures of the building.

Shadin

Shading can be achieved using the shape and form of the facade, using low transmission glazing, or using devices inside of the building. From a passive solar viewpoint, the most effective method of shading is on the outside of the building using overhangs, fins, or louvers, as illustrated in Figures 1-12 and 1-13. A less effective method is to use glazing with a low shading coefficient.

Shading devices must be carefully designed. For passive heating systems, shading devices should block the sun during the summer months but allow sunlight to enter the building during winter. For daylighting systems, the sun is usually blocked during the swing seasons (spring and autumn) as well as the summer. In either case, there will be variations depending upon the building type and internal loads.



Figure 1-13: Shading. Military Personnel Support Center, Grissom AFB, Indiana

Natural Ventilation (NVN)

Natural ventilation (NVN) relies on the natural airflow and breezes to reduce the need for mechanical cooling when the building is occupied. See Figure 1-14 on the following page. In most cases, natural ventilation occurs simply by opening windows when the outside air temperature is lower than the inside air temperature. This strategy is effective primarily during the spring and autumn (the swing seasons), thus avoiding the intermittent use of mechanical heating and cooling equipment. The Air Force recommends that commercial-type buildings have operable windows when climatic conditions offer the potential for significant energy savings. This strategy is a no-cost change in building design and operation. It should be noted that inappropriately opening windows as a heating control strategy during the heating season may offset any gains achieved by using them for natural ventilation.

Daylighting

Daylighting is the use of natural light from the sky as a supplement for electric lighting in buildings. Traditional daylighting systems differ in one major respect from passive heating systems: they use the sky as a source of light and avoid letting direct sunlight into a building. Since light from the sky is used in lieu of direct sunlight, daylighting systems function quite well on overcast, partly cloudy, or clear days. Daylighting is an instantaneous use of the light from the sky. Therefore, daylighting systems consist of collection and distribution components and do not include a storage component like passive heating systems. However, much like solar thermal strategies, daylighting systems are categorized according to the type of collection system used. Thus, there are three basic types of daylighting systems:

- (1) sidelighting
- (2) toplighting
- (3) core daylighting

Daylighting is the most effective passive solar strategy in almost all commercial building types because it reduces two major energy uses in these buildings: electric lighting and cooling.

Conclusion

A properly designed passive solar building is one that saves both energy use and energy costs. However, a primary purpose of this handbook is to save energy costs. The possibility of saving energy costs without reducing energy use or by increasing energy use will also be considered. Saving energy costs without reducing energy use can occur if the peak demand for a building can be reduced. For example, in the previous example, suppose the demand were reduced from 500 kW to 250 kW. Then the energy costs would be reduced from \$7,000 to \$4,500 even if there is no reduction in energy usage (it is still 20,000 kWh). Saving energy costs by increasing energy use can occur in two ways. First, by decreasing the peak demand but simultaneously increasing the consumption of electricity, it is possible to reduce the overall cost of energy in a building. For example, suppose the 500 kW building could have the peak demand reduced to 100 kW if it "costs" an additional 10,000 kWh. Thus, the total electricity costs would be based upon 30,000 kWh and 100 kW. Total electricity costs would be \$4,000, down from \$7,000. The second way to reduce energy costs by increasing

energy use is to switch fuel, that is, change from a more costly fuel to a less expensive fuel. A good example of this is to use natural gas instead of electricity to heat a building. Even though natural gas heating is less efficient than electric heating, the cost differential associated with the two fuels usually makes it cheaper to use natural gas rather than electricity. Although special circumstances may make it difficult or impossible to trade off one fuel for another, it is a viable alternative that should be considered during the comprehensive planning process.

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