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Theoretical efficiency of Hybrid Solar Thermoelectric-Photovoltaic Generators

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This work analyses the potential of hybrid solar thermoelectric photovoltaic generators (HSTEPVGs) through evaluating their efficiency in converting solar power into electricity for a system consisting of a PV cell placed directly on top of a thermoelectric generator. A theoretical model for terrestrial application which includes the possibility of thermal and optical concentrations is reported. As in the case of pure solar thermoelectric generators (STEGs), an optimal operation temperature also exists for HSTEPVGs determined by the temperature dependences of both the solar cells and the thermoelectric generators. The study reports efficiency gain of 4-5% with respect to the sole PV case, especially in the case of optical concentrations which mitigate the solar cell temperature sensitivity. In addition to these interesting results, the work also reveals the major constrains expected for this approach, along with technological challenges especially regarding the optical properties of the device encapsulation and the solar cell degradation.

I. INTRODUCTION

Photovoltaics (PV) solar energy harvesting represents one of the most dominant ways of producing electrical power with renewable resources. In this field silicon solar cells are the mainstream solution, holding more than the 90% of the market. However, it is well know that single-junction solar cells are bound to a maximum conversion efficiency of \(\approx 33\%\), by the Shockley and Quisser (SQ) limit. Recently many efforts have been dedicated to the testing of different technologies promising to overcome this limit through the exploitation of the entire solar spectrum. Among them the most popular are tandem, and multi-junctions devices in which different materials convert different parts of the solar spectrum [1]. More recently the possibility of converting the whole solar spectrum via thermal conversion has attracted attention, especially with the advent of nanotechnology. Examples of this approach are thermophotovoltaics (TPV) [2, 3] and solar thermoelectric generators (STEG) [4, 5]. However, the still relatively low energy-conversion efficiencies reported for these kind of systems have so far limited their possible commercialization.

An intermediate viable solution comes from the so-called hybrid solar thermoelectric photovoltaic generators (HSTEPVG) which promise to take advantages from both the tandem and the thermal conversion approaches. Two main solutions have been reported in this field. The first is the spectrum splitting (or optically coupled) approach in which a beam splitter is used in order to direct the part of the solar spectrum with high energy onto the solar cell, and the infrared part on a thermoelectric generator (TEG). The potential of this approach was studied theoretically in the last ten years by different groups with interesting results [6–9]. The second consists instead of the direct thermal coupling between the two components, in which the TEG is placed underneath the solar cell, in thermal contact with it. In addition theoretical models often reported efficiencies higher than the sole PV case for this approach. However, most of these studies were focused on particular cases with no attempt to evaluate the generic potential of the hybrid approach [10–16]. Rarely the solar cell and the thermoelectric part have been described in general terms through their fundamental parameters [17]. However in this case the model was intended to evaluate the theoretical limit in a SQ-like study, without taking into account the limits of current materials.

In the absence of a systematic work evaluating the potential of HSTEPVG systems with state of the art technologies, we report here a study intended to cover this gap. In this work we propose a theoretical model to the predict the efficiency of a generic HSTEPVG for terrestrial applications, with and without optical concentration. The results show that the efficiency gain due to TEG addition can be as high as 4-5% of the solar power for little or no optical concentration. The gain was found to increase for higher concentration ratio due to its beneficial effect on the solar cell temperature sensitivity. The analysis also addresses the fundamental importance of the encapsulation optical properties, along with the crucial and delicate matter of the optimal working temperature.

II. THEORETICAL MODEL

In this work we consider an unit cell of a generic hybrid solar thermoelectric-photovoltaic generator (HSTEPVG) as that shown in Fig. 1. In this system a photovoltaic (PV) cell is placed in thermal contact, but electrically isolated from a couple of \(p\) and \(n\) type thermoelectric materials. For the sake of simplicity here we will consider the case of a thermoelectric generator (TEG) composed only by a couple, but as we will show later, under the assumption of this model, the number of couples \(N_c\) does not influence the maximum achievable efficiency.

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of the hybrid device. The unit cell is encapsulated within an evacuated environment reducing convective heat exchange with the exterior. The encapsulation top internal surface is provided with an additional component, so-called Heat Mirror (HM), used in order to prevent radiative heat dissipation towards the environment.

In this work we will make an evaluation of the theoretical maximum achievable efficiency of the HSTEPVG unit cell of Fig. 1 under the following assumptions:

1) The system is supposed to work in a terrestrial environment therefore the ambient temperature $T_a = 300$ K is taken as fixed, and the solar irradiance is that of the A.M. 1.5 solar spectrum with a total power density $G = 1000$ W/m$^2$.

2) The PV cell is assumed to be at uniform temperature $T_h$ equal to that of the TEG hot side.

3) The thermolectric properties of the TEG are independent from temperature.

4) Electrical and thermal contact resistance are negligible.

5) Lateral heat exchange from the side walls of the thermolectric elements are negligible.

### A. Thermal model

As already reported by Chen [19], the energy balance for a STEG system is

$$P_{in}^{stege} = Q_{te} + Q_{con} + Q_{rad}$$ (1)

with $P_{in}^{stege}$ the solar power, $Q_{te}$ the heat flowing through the TEG, and $Q_{con}$ and $Q_{rad}$ respectively the heat lost towards the environment by convection, and radiation. The incoming power $P_{in}^{stege}$ can be written as

$$P_{in}^{stege} = \gamma_{op}\eta_{op}\tau_{enc}A_{abs}G_{abs}$$ (2)

where $\gamma_{op}$ and $\eta_{op}$ are respectively the optical concentration ratio, and the efficiency of the optical system in concentrating the light, $\tau_{enc}$ the encapsulation transmittance, $A_{abs}$ the SSA absorbance, $G$ the solar power, and $A_{abs}$ the absorber area.

In the case of HSTEPVG systems some of the incoming power is converted in useful electrical power by the solar cell. In addition the metallic contact grid on the top of the solar device creates a shadowing effect reducing the incoming power. The remaining part is emitted back to the outside (a minor contribution which contributes to the reflectance spectra), or it is converted by different kind of losses in thermal power, as reported by several works [3, 20–23].

Therefore the power available for the TEG in the case of a HSTEPVG system can be written as

$$P_{in}^{hstepvg} = \eta_{th}\gamma_{op}\eta_{op}GA_{abs}$$ (3)

where $\eta_{th}$ is the PV efficiency in converting the incoming power into usable heat

$$\eta_{th} = (1 - \eta_{pv})(1 - r)(1 - s)\tau_{enc} = (1 - \eta_{pv})\eta_{opt}$$ (4)

with $\eta_{pv}$, $r$, and $s$ are respectively the PV cell efficiency, reflectance and shadowing loss ratios. In Eq. 4 we have grouped the contributions of $r$ and $s$ under the the optical efficiency $\eta_{opt}$.

$$\eta_{opt} = (1 - r)(1 - s)\tau_{enc}$$ (5)

As we defined an efficiency in converting the incoming power into usable thermal power ($\eta_{th}$), we can also define an efficiency within which the heat is lost towards the environment as

$$\eta_{th-loss} = \frac{Q_{con} + Q_{rad}}{\gamma_{op}GA_{abs}}$$ (6)

The reason of the definition of $\eta_{th-loss}$ will be clear in the next section.

The convective component of the heat lost towards the environment $Q_{con}$ can be written as

$$Q_{con} = \frac{T_h - T_e}{R_{con}}$$ (7)

where $R_{con}$ is the convective thermal resistance between the HSTEPVG unit cell and the environment. The radiative contribution is instead

$$Q_{rad} = \varepsilon_{up}^{up}A_{abs}(T_h^4 - T_a^4)$$

$$+ \varepsilon_{down}^{down}\sigma(A_{abs} - A_{TEG})(T_h^4 - T_e^4)$$ (8)
can be calculated as 

\[ \varepsilon_{\text{PV}} = \alpha + \varepsilon_{\text{c}} \]

the top PV cell emittance, 

\[ \varepsilon_{\text{T}} \]

footprint areas), is the TEG footprint area (equal to sum of the

\[ \sigma \]

where \( \sigma \) is the Stefan-Boltzmann constant, \( A_{\text{TEG}} = A_p + A_n \) is the TEG foot print area (equal to sum of the p and n leg footprint areas), \( T_c \) the TEG cold side temperature \( \varepsilon_{\text{PV}} \) the top PV cell emittance, \( \varepsilon_{\text{PV} \downarrow} \) the effective emittance between the TEG hot side. This last effective emittance can be calculated as [24]

\[
\varepsilon_{\text{PV} \downarrow} = \frac{1}{1/\varepsilon_{\text{PV} \uparrow} + 1/\varepsilon_{\text{PV} \downarrow}} - 1
\]

(9)

where \( \varepsilon_{\text{PV} \uparrow} \) and \( \varepsilon_{\text{PV} \downarrow} \) are respectively the TEG hot, and cold side emittances, and where we have neglected side walls of TE legs participating in radiation exchange [25, 26].

Emittances of solar cells are reported to exhibit values that can be in general split in two groups. Silicon, GaAs, and multi-junction solar cells were showed to exhibit high emittances, ranging between 0.7 and 0.9 [27-30], while CIGS and related alloys (such as CZTS and CGS) show values between 0.2 and 0.4 [31–33]. In both cases it is fundamental to limit as much as possible the loss of \( \phi_{\text{in} \text{TEG PVG}} \) from the top of the system by heat radiation. Actually for \( T_h = 400 \) K, and \( \varepsilon_{\text{PV} \uparrow} \) ranging between 0.7 and 0.9, \( Q_{\text{rad}} = 700-900 \) W/m², which is almost all the incoming power \( G \). However it seems not possible to modify solar cell emittance without modify their basic structures, and thus impairing their efficiencies, therefore different solutions are needed. One possible approach comes from the HM component reported in Fig. 1. A HM is a layer or a multi-layer of materials that exhibit high optical transmittance for the solar spectrum, showing instead high reflectance for the infrared (Fig.2). The change between highly transparent, and highly reflective behaviour happens at the plasma frequency of the material free carriers [34]. During the ‘80s of the last century, several publications appeared suggesting Transparent Conductive Oxides (TCOs), such as In:SnO₂ (ITO) [35] and Al:ZnO (AZO) [36] as viable candidates for HMs. The recent increasing attention raised around these materials for their application as transparent conductive front contact in solar cells [37], or as spectrum splitters in hybrid PV - thermal strategies [38-40], joint with the possibility of tuning their optical properties by changing the deposition parameters [41, 42], make this solution very interesting for future development in HSTEPVG devices.

We want in addition highlight that the implementation of TCOs as front contact, is actually the reason behind the small emittances in CIGS solar cells.

Let’s therefore define the HM efficiency ratio in reflecting the infrared part as

\[
\eta_{\text{hm}}^t = \left[ \frac{\int R(\lambda)d\lambda}{\int T(\lambda)d\lambda} \right]_{\text{sun}}
\]

(10)

where \( R(\lambda) \) is the HM reflectance, and the subscript \( \text{ir} \) means that the integral is evaluated over a range of wavelengths 2500-30000 nm. Along with the HM efficiency ratio in transmitting the solar spectrum defined as

\[
\eta_{\text{hm}}^t = \left[ \frac{\int T(\lambda)d\lambda}{\int T(\lambda)d\lambda} \right]_{\text{sun}}
\]

(11)

where \( T(\lambda) \) is the HM transmittance, and the subscript \( \text{sun} \) means that the integral is evaluated over a range of wavelengths 250-2500 nm. The quality of a heat mirror or a beam splitter is often identified by the so-called figure of merit \( Z_{\text{HM}} \) [43] as

\[
Z_{\text{HM}} = \eta_{\text{hm}}^t - \eta_{\text{hm}}^r
\]

(12)

Thus using Eq. 10 we can define a effective emittance for the top surface of the device similarly to the case of Eq. 9

\[
\varepsilon_{\text{PV} \uparrow} = \frac{1}{1/\varepsilon_{\text{PV} \uparrow} + 1/\varepsilon_{\text{PV} \downarrow} - 1}
\]

(13)

where \( \varepsilon_{\text{hm}} \) is the HM emittance that according to Kirchhoff’s law is simply equal to

\[
\varepsilon_{\text{hm}} = 1 - \eta_{\text{hm}}^r
\]

(14)

By means of Eq. 13, and assuming a dissipation coefficient at the TEG cold side sufficiently high so that \( T_c = T_h \), Eq. 8 can be simplified as follows

\[
Q_{\text{rad}} = \sigma A_{\text{abs}} (T_h^4 - T_c^4) \left( \varepsilon_{\text{PV} \uparrow} - \varepsilon_{\text{PV} \downarrow} + \frac{A_{\text{TEG}}}{A_{\text{abs}}} \right)
\]

(15)

where

\[
\varepsilon_{\text{PV} \uparrow} = \varepsilon_{\text{PV} \uparrow}^t + \varepsilon_{\text{PV} \downarrow}
\]

(16)
Consequently the overall efficiency is \[ \eta \text{HSTEPVG} = \frac{P_{\text{PV}} + P_{\text{TEG}}}{\gamma_{\text{opt}} G A_{\text{abs}}} = \eta_{\text{PV}} + \eta_{\text{TEG}} \] (23)

where \( \eta_{\text{PV}} \) is the PV efficiency at concentration ratio \( \gamma_{\text{opt}} \), and temperature \( T_h \). The solar cell efficiency dependency on these parameters is reported in literature to be positive and logarithmic for optical concentration [44], and negative and linear for temperature [45–47]. Thus one can write

\[ \eta_{\text{PV}} = \eta_{\text{PV}}^0 + \eta_{\text{PV-cond}} \] (24)

where \( \eta_{\text{PV}}^0 \) is the PV efficiency at standard test conditions [48] (\( \gamma_{\text{opt}}=1 \), and \( T_h=300 \) K), and

\[ \eta_{\text{PV-cond}} = \eta_{\text{PV}}^0 [\beta_{\text{opt}} \log \gamma_{\text{opt}} - \beta_{\text{th}} (T_h - T_a)] \] (25)

where \( \beta_{\text{op}} \) and \( \beta_{\text{th}} \) are respectively the optical concentration coefficient, and the slope of \( \eta_{\text{PV}} \) versus temperature. It is important to clarify that since solar cell temperature sensitivity is due to carrier recombination, and since optical concentration modifies carrier injection (consequently
recombination rates) it follows that the temperature coefficient \( \beta_{th} \) should be modeled as a function of the concentration ratio \( \gamma_{op} \). Actually it is well known that solar cell temperature sensitivity is smaller in the case of optically concentrated systems. In literature this dependency is reported to be logarithmic [49] therefore

\[
\beta_{th} = \beta_{th}^0 (1 - \zeta \log \gamma_{op})
\]

(26)

with \( \beta_{th}^0 \) the temperature coefficient at no optical concentration, and \( \zeta \) the coefficient of \( \beta_{th} \) versus \( \gamma_{op} \).

In this work we use fixed values of \( \beta_{op} = 0.097 \) [44], and \( \zeta = 0.265 \) [49], while we consider variable the temperature coefficient at no optical concentration \( \beta_{th}^0 \) in order to take into account different kind of solar cells.

The other component of the right side of Eq. 23 is the TEG efficiency that can be obtained as follows

\[
\eta_{te} = \frac{P_{te}}{\gamma_{op} GA_{abs}} = \frac{I[S_{pn}(T_h - T_c) - IR_i]}{\gamma_{op} GA_{abs}}
\]

(27)

where

\[
R_i = R_{p1}^e + R_{n1}^e
\]

(28)

Following Chen [19] the TEG efficiency can also be expressed as

\[
\eta_{te} = \eta_{teg} \eta_{tot}
\]

(29)

where \( \eta_{teg} \) is the thermoelectric efficiency

\[
\eta_{teg} = \frac{T_h - T_c}{T_h} \frac{1 + Z_{pn}T_{m}}{\sqrt{1 + Z_{pn}T_{m} + \frac{T_c}{T_h}}}
\]

(30)

with \( Z_{pn} \) the TEG figure of merit given by

\[
Z_{pn} = \frac{S^2_{pn}}{(\sqrt{\rho_{pp}p} + \sqrt{\rho_{nn}n})^2}
\]

(31)

where \( \alpha \), \( \rho \), and \( \kappa \) are respectively the Seebeck coefficient, the electrical resistivity, and the thermal conductivity of the \( p \) and \( n \) thermoelectric material composing the TEG, and \( T_m \) the average temperature

\[
T_m = \frac{T_h + T_c}{2}
\]

(32)

The relationship between \( R_p \) and \( \rho_p \) is simply

\[
R_{p1}^e = \frac{\rho_p L_p}{A_p}
\]

(33)

where \( A_p \) and \( L_p \) are respectively the thermoelectric \( p \) leg cross-sectional area, and length. Same equation is valid for the \( n \) leg.

The other factor in Eq. 29 is the opto-thermal efficiency, which is the system efficiency in converting the incoming solar power into heat actually flowing through the TEG.

Following Chen [19] the TEG efficiency can also be expressed as

\[
\eta_{teg} = \eta_{teg}(\eta_{th} - \eta_{th-loss} - \eta_{pv-cond})
\]

(35)

An example of the interplay between the components of Eq. 35 is reported in Fig. 4.

We can now introduce an Energetic Convenience Index (EnCI) as

\[
EnCI = \eta_{teg}(\eta_{th} - \eta_{th-loss} + \eta_{pv-cond}) = \eta_{te} + \eta_{pv-cond}
\]

(36)

which define the efficiency gain due to the TEG addition, and thus the convenience of the coupling from an energetic point of view. Actually an EnCI greater than zero means an increased efficiency for the HSTEPVG respect to the sole PV case. It follows that the maximization of EnCI means also maximization the HSTEPVG efficiency. Controversially an EnCI smaller than zero means a efficiency loss in comparison with the sole PV case.

In the following section we will report the conditions for which the maximum EnCI is found, and we will analyze the parameters useful to such a maximization.

III. MAXIMUM ENCI

Let's assume now the case for which the HSTEPVG system works under vacuum within the encapsulation. In this case we can neglect the convective contribution to thermal losses, thus \( Q_{con} = 0 \).
Furthermore hereafter we will also assume that the cold side is taken at fixed temperature equal to \( T_a = 300 \text{ K} \). This is compatible with what recently reported for similar STEG systems [5]. With these assumptions \( EnCI \) equals

\[
EnCI = \frac{I[S_{pn}(T_h - T_a) - IR_i]}{\gamma_{op}G_{abs}} + \beta_{op} \log{\gamma_{op}} - \beta_{th}(T_h - T_a)
\] (37)

where we have made explicit all the components of \( \eta_{pv} \) using Eqs. 24 and 25.

Now using the Lagrangian multiplier method is then possible to find the conditions for the maximization of \( EnCI \) as function of \( T_h, Y, L, \gamma_{th},p, \) and \( \gamma_{pn} \). The analysis (reported entirely within Appendix A) gives the following results

1. The load matching condition for the TEG part of the HSTEPVG at maximum efficiency is the same as for the maximum output power and is equal to

\[
\frac{R_i}{R_0} = \sqrt{1 + \frac{Z_{pn}T_m}{L}}
\] (41)

where \( R_i \) is the load electrical resistance.

2. The maximum efficiency is reached when the ratio between the \( n \) and \( p \) leg areas \( \gamma_{pn} \) equals

\[
\gamma_{pn} = \sqrt{\frac{\rho_{th}\kappa_p}{\rho_{th}\kappa_n}}
\] (42)

where we assumed that the value of \( L \) is the same for both legs.

3. The optimal value of \( T_h \) is independent from the geometrical parameters \( \gamma_{th},p, \gamma_{pn}, L, \) and the number of leg pairs \( N_c \), and can be determined by the following equation

\[
(1 - \eta_{pv})\frac{\eta_{opt}G_{abs}}{\gamma_{op}G_{abs}} - e_{pv}^{\gamma_{th}}(T_h - T_a)^4
\]

\[
= \sqrt{\frac{1 + Z_{pn}T_m}{T_h - T_n}} \frac{T_a/\tilde{\eta}_{th}}{T_h - T_n} + \frac{1}{2}
\] (43)

We want now to find and analyse the conditions for the maximization of Eq. 37. Following Chen [19] we can usefully introduce the following parameters

\[
\gamma_{th,p} = A_{abs}/A_p, \gamma_{np} = A_n/A_p, Y = \frac{IL}{A_p}
\] (38)

which give the following equations for \( EnCI \), and for the energy balance of Eq. 21

\[
EnCI = \frac{Y[S_{pn}(T_h - T_a) - Y(\rho_p + \rho_n/\gamma_{np})]}{\gamma_{op}G_{th,p}} + \beta_{op} \log{\gamma_{op}} - \beta_{th}(T_h - T_a)
\] (39)

\[\left(1 - \eta_{pv}^0(1 + (\beta_{op}\log{\gamma_{op}} - \beta_{th}(T_h - T_a)))\right)\eta_{opt}G_{th,p} = S_{pn}Y T_h \frac{L}{L} + (k_p + k_n\gamma_{pn}) \frac{T_h - T_a}{L} - \frac{Y^2}{2L} (\rho_p + \rho_n/\gamma_{np}) + \varepsilon_{pv}^{\gamma_{th}} \sigma_{th}(T_h - T_a)^4
\] (40)

Therefore once the system optical properties, and the value of \( Z_{pn}T_m \) are set, the optimal temperature and the \( EnCI \) are defined.

4. The optimal geometrical proportion for the thermoelectric legs is

\[
\gamma_{th}L = (k_p + k_n\gamma_{np})
\]

\[
\frac{T_h \sqrt{1 + \frac{Z_{pn}T_m}{T_h - T_a}}}{T_h \left[ 4\varepsilon_{pv}^{\gamma_{th}} \sigma_{th} + (\frac{\gamma_{th}G_{th,p}G^{\gamma_{opt}G_{th,p}} - \frac{1}{\tilde{\eta}_{th}})}{\gamma_{th}} \right]}
\] (44)

In Fig. 5a we report the values of maximum \( EnCI \) as a function of \( \beta_{th}^0 \), for different values of \( \eta_{pv}^0 \) and \( \gamma_{op} \). We suppose to have a HM leading to \( \gamma_{th}^0=0.90 \), and \( \varepsilon_{pv}=0.10 \), and a TEG with \( Z_{pn}T_m=1 \). The values of \( \beta_{th} \) are taken instead in the range 0.001 - 0.005 K\(^{-1}\) as normally done for PV materials with energy gap within 0.5 and 2.5 eV [45]. Obviously the values of \( EnCI \) are greater for small \( \beta_{th} \) in all the cases considered, because to a small sensitivity with temperature of the PV part. The graph also shows higher values of \( EnCI \) in case of small \( \eta_{pv}^0 \) because to the impact on \( \eta_{th} \). Actually a small \( \eta_{pv}^0 \) means a greater \( \eta_{th} \) and thus an higher \( \eta_{opt} \) as shown by Eqs. 4 and 34. Also optical concentration impacts positively on \( EnCI \) especially for its influence on recombination through \( \beta_{th} \) (Eq.26).

Nonetheless a higher value of \( EnCI \) means also a higher optimal temperature \( T_h \) as shown by Fig. 5b. From this graph is possible to understand how most of the maximum \( EnCI \) higher than 0.04 are hardly implementable since correspond to temperature above 450 K. At these
temperatures several issues as ohmic contact and semiconductors degradation, dopant diffusion, and others can lead to irreversible degradation of the PV part [50]. Even if relevant progresses on these technological limitations has been achieved in the field of high-temperature solar cells, especially for near-sun space missions [51–54], and for thermophotovoltaic applications [2, 55], the applicability of high working temperatures has to be evaluated depending on the kind of PV cell implemented.

FIG. 5: Maximum $\text{EnCi}$ (a), $T_h$ at maximum $\text{EnCi}$ (b), and $\gamma_{th}$ at maximum $\text{EnCi}$ (c) as a function of $\beta_{th}^0$. Different values of $\eta_{pv}^0$ (see legend of colors), and $\gamma_{op}=1$ (full lines), $\gamma_{op}=2$ (dashed lines), $\gamma_{op}=4$ (dotted lines) are considered. The other relevant parameters are $\tau_{enc}=0.90$, $\epsilon_{up}^n=0.10$, and $Z_{pn}T_m=1$.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section we want discuss about the values of $\text{EnCi}$ at a fixed working temperature equal to 450 K, as a function of the optical concentration $\gamma_{op}$, the thermoelectric figure of merit $Z_{pn}T_m$, and the HM properties. The temperature of 450 K has been chosen in view of recent developments of high temperature solar cells capable of working at such high temperature without damaging [53], and for the compatibility of this temperature with Bi$_2$Te$_3$ based TEGs, which are the most established thermoelectric material. For the sake of clarity in this section we also fixed $\beta_{th}^0$ to a medium value of 0.002 K$^{-1}$.

Fig. 6 reports the value of $\text{EnCi}$ at 450 K as a function of $\gamma_{op}$ for different values of $\eta_{pv}^0$. As shown in the graph $\text{EnCi}$ increases considerably increasing the optical concentration because to the influence of the optical concentration on recombination through $\beta_{th}$. For values of $\eta_{pv}^0$ higher than 0.1 $\text{EnCi}$ starts to become positive at different $\gamma_{op}$, defining a minimum optical concentration ratio for which thermoelectric hybridization increases the efficiency of the sole PV case.

In Fig. 7 is depicted instead the behavior of $\text{EnCi}$ versus $Z_{pn}T_m$. Obviously $\text{EnCi}$ increases increasing $Z_{pn}T_m$ for all the values of $\eta_{pv}^0$ considered. However
FIG. 6: Values of $EnCi$ at 450 K versus $\gamma_{op}$ for different values of $\eta_{pv}^0$ (see legend of colors). The taken parameters are $\beta_{th}^0=0.002$, $\tau_{enc}=0.90$, $\epsilon_{pv}^0=0.10$, and $Z_{pm} T_m=1$.

FIG. 7: Values of $EnCi$ at 450 K versus $Z_{pm} T_m$ for different values of $\eta_{pv}^0$ (see legend of colors). Other parameters are $\beta_{th}^0=0.002$, $\tau_{enc}=0.90$, $\epsilon_{pv}^0=0.10$, and $\gamma_{op}=1$.

FIG. 8: Values of $EnCi$ at 450 K versus $\epsilon_{tot}^{pv}$ for different values of $\eta_{pv}^0$ (see legend of colors), and for $\tau_{enc}=0.90$ (full lines), and $\tau_{enc}=0.95$ (dashed lines). Other parameters are $\beta_{th}^0=0.002$, $Z_{pm} T_m=1$, and $\gamma_{op}=1$.

The slope of this increase is higher for smaller $\eta_{pv}^0$ and viceversa. The reason of this trend is due to the fact that the efficiency in converting the solar input into heat flowing through the TEG ($\eta_{th}$) is higher for smaller $\eta_{pv}^0$.

Finally in Fig. 8 we show the dependency of $EnCi$ on $\epsilon_{tot}^{pv}$. In this case $EnCi$ increases linearly decreasing the PV total emittance. However as also showed in Fig. 4 a change of $\epsilon_{tot}^{pv}$ needs a change also of $Z_{hm}$. In particular, to achieve small values of $\epsilon_{tot}^{pv}$ which are beneficial for $EnCi$ high value of $Z_{hm}$ are needed. Therefore the development of efficient HMs is a fundamental condition for the achievement of efficient HSTEPVG.

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper we have reported a model for the determination of the theoretical efficiency of HSTEPVG systems. The potential of this novel kind of devices has been studied by analyzing the influence of the main parameters on the index $EnCi$ representing the efficiency gain compared to the sole PV case. The analysis showed the existence of an optimal operational temperature, leading to the maximum $EnCi$ compromising the efficiency increase of the TEG part with the PV temperature sensitivity. Interestingly enough the optimal temperature is not influenced by the TEG geometrical dimensions and number of legs, but is set once the system optical properties and the TEG figure of merit are known.

The model results demonstrated the possibility of reaching $EnCi$ value of 4-5% for small optical concentrations, and for state of the art parameters. The thermoelectric hybridization were found to be more effective in the case of low efficiency solar cells. We also showed the beneficial effect of high optical concentration, leading to higher $EnCi$ because to the smaller temperature sensitivity of the PV stage. Finally the work also revealed the fundamental importance of the optical properties of the encapsulation, along with the need of better solution for the development of solar cells able to stand high operational temperature.

It is worth clarifying that $EnCi$ indicates only the ener-
getic convenience of solar cell thermoelectric hybridization, without taking into account economical effectiveness. This latter is a different and complicated matter that deserves attention even if it is far from the scope of this paper. Recently few works exploring this subject has been published [57–59] showing how economical convenience for thermoelectric hybridization compare to the sole PV case can be found for sufficiently high optical concentration (≥ 10). Actually for this case no additional costs are needed for the heat exchanger section, which is known to have a significant impact on the system cost [60]. The convenience was shown to increase increasing the thermal concentration for the thermoelectric stage, therefore reducing the amount of thermoelectric material needed.

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**APPENDIX A  FULL MATHEMATICAL DERIVATION**

Using the Lagrangian method we have the following set of six equations

\[
EnCI(T_h, Y, L, \gamma_{th,p}, \gamma_{np}) = \frac{Y[S_{pn}(T_h - T_a) - Y(\rho_p + \rho_n/\gamma_{np})]}{\gamma_{op}G_{\gamma_{th,p}}L} + \eta_{pn}^0[\beta_{op}\log\gamma_{op} - \beta_{th}(T_h - T_a)]
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
0 &= \frac{\partial EnCI}{\partial \gamma_{th,p}} = \frac{-Y[S_{pn}(T_h - T_a) - Y(\rho_p + \rho_n/\gamma_{np})]}{\gamma_{op}G_{\gamma_{th,p}}L} + \lambda \left[ k_p \frac{P_h}{L} + \frac{Y^2}{2L} \left( \frac{\rho_p}{\gamma_{np}} \right) \right] \\
0 &= \frac{\partial EnCI}{\partial \gamma_{np}} = \frac{Y^2(\rho_p / \gamma_{np}^2)}{\gamma_{op}G_{\gamma_{th,p}}L} + \lambda \left[ \frac{1}{L} \left( \frac{T_h - T_a}{L} \right) \right] \\
0 &= \frac{\partial EnCI}{\partial \gamma_{th,p}} = \frac{S_{pn}(T_h - T_a) - 2Y(\rho_p + \rho_n/\gamma_{np})}{\gamma_{op}G_{\gamma_{th,p}}L} + \lambda \left[ S_{pn} \frac{L}{T_h} - \frac{Y}{L} \left( \rho_p + \rho_n/\gamma_{np} \right) \right] \\
0 &= \frac{\partial EnCI}{\partial Y} = \frac{-S_{pn} \frac{Y}{L} + (\rho_p + \rho_n/\gamma_{np})}{\gamma_{op}G_{\gamma_{th,p}}L} + \lambda \left[ S_{pn} \frac{L}{T_h} - \frac{Y}{L} \left( \rho_p + \rho_n/\gamma_{np} \right) \right] \\
0 &= \frac{\partial EnCI}{\partial T_h} = \frac{YS_{pn} \frac{Y}{L} - \eta_{pn}^0 \beta_{th}}{\gamma_{op}G_{\gamma_{th,p}}L} + \lambda \left[ S_{pn} \frac{L}{T_h} - \frac{Y}{L} \left( \rho_p + \rho_n/\gamma_{np} \right) \right] \\
0 &= \frac{\partial EnCI}{\partial L} = \frac{-S_{pn} \frac{Y}{L} - \eta_{pn}^0 \beta_{th}}{\gamma_{op}G_{\gamma_{th,p}}L} + \lambda \left[ S_{pn} \frac{L}{T_h} - \frac{Y}{L} \left( \rho_p + \rho_n/\gamma_{np} \right) \right]
\]

From Eqs. A.4, and A.6, along with Eq. 31 we obtain

\[
Y = \frac{(\kappa_p + \kappa_n \gamma_{np})(T_h - T_a) (\sqrt{1 + Z_{pn}T_m} - 1)}{S_{pn}T_m} 
\]

where \(Z_{pn}T_m\) can be written as

\[
Z_{pn}T_m = \frac{S_{pn}^2T_m}{(\rho_p + \rho_n/\gamma_{np})(\kappa_p + \kappa_n \gamma_{np})} 
\]

Eq. A.7 is the exactly the same equation which stands also for the STEG case [19]. Therefore it follows that the conclusions valid for STEGs regarding this equation can be drawn also for HSTEPVGs. In particular it follows that the ratio between the TEG leg areas which maximizes \(Z_{pn}T_m\) is

\[
\gamma_{pn} = \sqrt{\frac{\rho_p \kappa_p}{\rho_p \kappa_n}} 
\]

and that the load matching condition can be written as

\[
\frac{R_l}{R_i} = \sqrt{1 + Z_{pn}T_m} 
\]

Now we can use Eqs. A.7 and A.8 to re-write the energy balance of Eq. 40 in terms of \(Y\) as follows
\[(1 - \eta_{pv})\eta_{opt} h_{op} \gamma_{op} G - \varepsilon_{pv} \sigma (T_h^4 - T_a^4) \gamma_{th,p} L = \left( k_p + k_a \gamma_{np} \right) (T_h - T_a) \frac{T_h \sqrt{1 + Z_{pm} T_m} \left( \sqrt{1 + Z_{pm} T_m} + T_a/T_h \right)}{T_m \left( \sqrt{1 + Z_{pm} T_m} + 1 \right)} \] (A.11)

From Eqs. A.4, and A.5 we have instead

\[
\frac{S_{pn}(T_h - T_a) - 2Y(\rho_p + \rho_n/\gamma_{np})}{Y S_{pn} - \eta_{pv} \varepsilon_{th,0} \gamma_{opt} h_{op} \gamma_{th,p} L} = \frac{S_{pn} T_h - Y(\rho_p + \rho_n/\gamma_{np})}{S_{pn}(T_h - T_a) - 2Y(\rho_p + \rho_n/\gamma_{np})} = \frac{T_a \sqrt{1 + Z_{pm} T_m} + (T_h - T_a)/2}{T_h - T_a} - \frac{\eta_{pv} \varepsilon_{th,0} \gamma_{opt} h_{op} \gamma_{th,p} L}{\eta_{reg}} \] (A.12)

which leads to

\[
4 \varepsilon_{pv} \sigma \gamma_{th,p} T_h^3 L - \eta_{pv} \varepsilon_{th,0} \gamma_{opt} h_{op} \gamma_{th,p} G \gamma_{th,p} L = \frac{[Y S_{pn} - \eta_{pv} \varepsilon_{th,0} \gamma_{opt} h_{op} \gamma_{th,p} L]}{S_{pn}(T_h - T_a) - 2Y(\rho_p + \rho_n/\gamma_{np})} - \frac{S_{pn} Y + (\kappa_p + \kappa_a \gamma_{np}) + 4 \varepsilon_{pv} \sigma \gamma_{th,p} T_h^2 L - \eta_{pv} \varepsilon_{th,0} \gamma_{opt} h_{op} \gamma_{th,p} L}{T_m \left( \sqrt{1 + Z_{pm} T_m} + 1 \right)} \] (A.13)

where

\[
\frac{1}{\eta_{reg}} = \frac{S_{pn} T_h - Y(\rho_p + \rho_n/\gamma_{np})}{S_{pn}(T_h - T_a) - 2Y(\rho_p + \rho_n/\gamma_{np})} = \frac{T_a \sqrt{1 + Z_{pm} T_m} + (T_h - T_a)/2}{T_h - T_a} \] (A.14)

Now combining Eq. A.13 with Eq. A.11 we have

\[
\frac{(1 - \eta_{pv})\eta_{opt} h_{op} \gamma_{op} G - \varepsilon_{pv} \sigma (T_h^4 - T_a^4)}{4 \varepsilon_{pv} \sigma T_h^3 - \eta_{pv} \varepsilon_{th,0} \gamma_{opt} h_{op} G T_h (\eta_{opt} h_{op} - \frac{1}{\eta_{reg}})} = \frac{\sqrt{1 + Z_{pm} T_m} + T_a/T_h}{T_a \sqrt{1 + Z_{pm} T_m} + \frac{T_h - T_a}{T_h - T_a} + \frac{1}{2}} \] (A.15)

from which is possible to obtain the optimal working temperature \( T_h \).

Finally from Eq. A.13 one can derive the leg geometrical proportion to obtain the maximum efficiency

\[
\gamma_{th,p} L = (\kappa_p + \kappa_a \gamma_{np}) \frac{T_a \sqrt{1 + Z_{pm} T_m} + (T_h - T_a)/2}{T_m} - \frac{\sqrt{1 + Z_{pm} T_m} + T_a/T_h}{T_h - T_a} \] (A.16)

Finally expand the analysis to the case of TEG with multiple couples does not lead to any changes to the conclusions reported above.

Actually considering a value of \( N_c \) small enough to prevent later heat exchange between legs (assumption 5 in our model), and as long as the temperature of the TEG hot plate is uniform (assumption number 2 in our model) the addition of \((N_c - 1)\) couples would only change the voltage produced by the TEG (i.e. multiplied by a factor \( N_c \)), and as long as the temperature of the TEG remains the same, and since \( \gamma_{th,p} \) is divided by a factor \( N_c \) through \( A_p \). Since none of these parameters is present in Eq. A.15 it follows that the optimal temperature, and thus the maximum efficiency do not change. Consequently also the optimal geometrical factor \( \gamma_{th,p} L \) remain the same, and since \( \gamma_{th,p} \) is divided by a factor \( N_c \) it follows that \( L \) has to be increased by the same factor.
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