

# Energy, Exergy, Environmental Impact and Economic (4E) Analysis of ET-CPC-Powered Solar Domestic Water Heating System

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## Research Article

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2 powered Solar Domestic Water Heating System

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10 **Abstract**

11 World energy demand is increasing continuously; consequently, the environmental impact forces  
12 towards utilizing renewable energy resources with efficient and optimized cost-performance  
13 conversion technologies. Therefore in this study, an analytical model is developed to propose the  
14 energy, exergy, environmental impact and economic (4E) analysis of the water heating system at  
15 Jaipur (India) with evacuated tube compound parabolic concentrator ET-CPC field of the total  
16 area of 81m<sup>2</sup>. The model results were validated with the experimental data, and a good  
17 agreement has prevailed. After that, the model is used to perform parametric studies on the effect  
18 of operating and meteorological parameters on the productivity and performance of the system.  
19 Moreover, the system's performance, environmental impact and economic aspects have been  
20 investigated and compared under different meteorological conditions at four different locations  
21 in Rajasthan (India) using TMY2 weather data files. Results clarified that Jodhpur receives the  
22 highest solar radiation intensity from these four locations. Consequently, the results indicate the  
23 highest annual energy and exergy with the value of 79.72 MWh and 9.311 MWh followed by  
24 Jaisalmer, Barmer, and Jaipur. The economic analysis results clarified that the simple payback

25 period ranged from 4.5 to 4.75 years and the discounted payback period ranged from 6.6 to 7  
26 years based on a 6% discount rate. At the same time, the Levelized Cost of Heating (LCOH)  
27 ranges from 1.62 to 1.72 INR/kWh of heat compared to closest with CNG as fuel ranging from  
28 4.39 to 4.41 INR/kWh for specified locations. The internal rate of return is reported to be 16.76,  
29 16.82, 16.77, and 16.75% for Barmer, Jodhpur, Jaipur, and Jaisalmer respectively, and savings of  
30 74400, 78125, 75371, and 73813 kg of CO<sub>2</sub> emission to the environment.

### 31 **Keywords**

32 Energy; Exergy; Environmental impact; Economic; evacuated tube; compound parabolic concentrator.

### 33 **Nomenclature**

34	CC	construction cost
35	CF	cash inflows
36	CPC	compound parabolic concentrator
37	DPBP	discounted payback period
38	ETC	evacuated tube collector
39	ET-CPC	evacuated tube with compound parabolic concentrator
40	FPC	flat plate collector
41	IRR	internal rate of return
42	LCOH	Levelized Cost of Heating
43	PCM	phase change material
44	PTC	parabolic trough collector
45	RTD	resistance temperature detector
46	SDWH	solar domestic water heating
47	SPBP	simple payback period
48	SPV	solar photo-voltaic
49	STC	solar thermal collector
50	TES	thermal energy storage
51	TLCC	total life cycle cost

52

### 53 *Symbols and notations*

54	A	area (m <sup>2</sup> )
55	C <sub>f</sub>	specific heat (J/kg.K)
56	D	tube diameter (m)
57	dt	time difference (s)
58	Ex	exergy (W/m <sup>2</sup> )
59	f	friction factor
60	F <sub>R</sub>	heat removal factor
61	I <sub>T</sub>	total solar radiation (W/m <sup>2</sup> )
62	L	length (m)
63	m <sub>f</sub>	mass flow rate (kg/s)

64	P	pressure (kPa)
65	$Q_{\text{useful}}$	useful heat gain (kWh)
66	V	fluid velocity (m/s)
67	$U_L$	overall heat coefficient ( $\text{W}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{K}$ )

68  
69 *Greek letter*

70	$\alpha$	absorptivity
71	$\rho$	density
72	$\eta$	efficiency
73	$\mu$	kinematic viscosity
74	$\tau$	transmissivity

75 *Subscript*

76	amb	ambient
77	c	collector
78	f	fluid
79	in	inlet
80	m	mean
81	n	number of collector in-series
82	out	outlet
83	r	receiver

## 84 **1. Introduction**

85 Once a luxury afforded to a precious few, energy has become a commodity that the modern world cannot  
86 survive without (Shekarchian et al. 2013). Most of the day-to-day needs of modern society are rigorously  
87 increasing the energy demand whether it refers to cooling, heating, or power. Presently, conventional  
88 sources dominate to produce electricity and are responsible for contributing harmful pollutants to the  
89 environment. Renewable energy such as solar energy has been proven to meet the energy demand  
90 partially or fully without carbon footprints being a clean fuel. Solar thermal collectors (STCs) and solar  
91 photo-voltaic panels (SPVs) are widely accepted for harnessing solar energy and further utilizing it for  
92 cooling, heating, and power. Flat plate collectors (FPCs), compound parabolic concentrator (CPC),  
93 evacuated tube collectors (ETCs), parabolic trough collectors (PTCs), etc. are some of the popular STC  
94 technologies. Recent innovations and technology advancements such as evacuated tube integrated with  
95 CPC (termed as ET-CPC), evacuated tube integrated with PTC, and many others are with improved  
96 productivity and efficiency by lowering losses to the environment which resulted in achieving higher

97 working temperature. Out of these, ET-CPCs are the most preferred for medium operational temperature  
98 range (up to 150°C) applications being a stationary type of STC. At the same time, these offer better  
99 productivity utilizing diffusive and direct radiations with efficiency ranging from 35 to 55%.

100 Domestic/community water heating is an essential application that is relatively energy-intensive, and the  
101 use of conventional resources such as kerosene, natural gas, wood, coal, and electricity is quite expensive  
102 and emits harmful emissions. Formerly, FPCs have been primarily promoted but as time progressed,  
103 technology advancement in STCs took place as discussed above. Sokhansefat et al. (2018) compared the  
104 FPC and ETC solar collectors in cold climatic conditions based on thermoeconomic and environmental  
105 impact analysis. It was reported that the performance of the ETC system is 41% better than the FPC  
106 system, and the yearly practical heat gain of ETC is 30% more than that of FPC in any climate zone.  
107 Hazami et al. (2013) reported a year-round energy performance monitoring results of a new type of  
108 domestic solar water heating system (DSWH) based on ETC. It was also reported that ETC generated  
109 about 9% more energy than the FPC under the same climatic condition. Kabeel et al. (2020) reported  
110 improved thermal performance of modified ETC with the help of hybrid storage materials and low-cost  
111 concentrators. Thermal efficiency improvement of modified design for using hybrid storage materials  
112 reached 72.1%. They used 0.0, 2, 3, 4, and 5% graphite nanomaterial mass concentration as hybrid  
113 storage materials.

114 Geete et al. (2019) fabricated compound parabolic solar collectors with evacuated tubes and analyzed the  
115 thermal performance of the system. Instantaneous energy efficiency was reported to be 69.87% during  
116 their experimental work. Jiang et al. (2015) concluded from their studies that CPC integrated ETCs (ET-  
117 CPCs) showed 50% efficiency at 200°C using mineral oils. Ma et al. (2010) reported that improving  
118 thermal conductance of working fluid from 5 to 40 W/m.K using ET-CPCs helped increase the efficiency  
119 by 10% and outlet temperature by 16%. Hence, the use of CPC reflectors at the backside of the ETC tubes  
120 is helpful to increase the collector efficiency by improving the overall aperture area. Similarly, Pie et al.  
121 (2012) analyzed the evacuated tube CPC and concluded that the concentrator is helpful to improve the

122 thermal performance of the ETC in high-temperature ranges. Further, Mills et al. (1986) reported a study  
123 on the effect of the acceptance angle of CPC on the performance of the evacuated tubes. They concluded  
124 that the acceptance angle is less decisive but the aperture area. Performance of ET-CPC is reported to  
125 have negligible effect from the selection of orientations from either North-South or East-West. The  
126 selection of reflector material was also discussed and suggested that the use of polished stainless steel is  
127 better in terms of cost-effectiveness, durability, and maintenance compared to other mirror materials.

128 Previously, Mishra et al. (2017) compared the performance of ETC and ET-CPC based on energy and  
129 exergy analyses. It was reported that 27.28% extra gain was observed in energy by using evacuated tube  
130 CPC compared to that of without CPC. Kerme et al. (2017) presented energy and exergy analysis of solar-  
131 powered vapor absorption systems. Furthermore, the result also indicated that the main source of the  
132 exergy destruction is the solar collector. In the solar collector, 71.9% of the input exergy was destroyed  
133 which accounted for 84% of the total exergy loss. Chopra et al. (2021) reported a 4E analysis of a PCM  
134 (palmatic acid) embedded ETC-powered solar water heating system. A significant improvement was  
135 shown in energy, exergy, and CO<sub>2</sub> mitigation with the use of ETC with PCM compared to without PCM.  
136 The results claimed a rise of 36-44% in energy efficiency whereas a rise of 28-35% was observed in  
137 exergy efficiency with the use PCM filled in annular space between absorber and tube of ETC.

138 Battisti and Corrado (2005) applied environmental analysis and optimization to the water storage coupled  
139 solar thermal collector. Simapro software program was used to obtain environmental indicators. It was  
140 found that the reduction of the impacts could be up to 40% and the environmental payback times were 5–  
141 19 months. Faizal et al. (2015) applied the energy, exergy, economic, and environmental analysis on a  
142 flat-plate solar collector operated with SiO<sub>2</sub> nanofluid. It was found that the energy and exergy  
143 efficiencies of nanofluids were higher than base fluids. Also, CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and payback periods of  
144 nanofluids are better. Bellos et al. (2017) reported a 4E analysis for a solar-assisted refrigeration system  
145 for various operating scenarios. Evacuated tube collectors fed heat to the generator of the vapour

146 absorption chiller. The electricity savings were 53.98%, the IRR 6.6%, and the payback period close to 14  
147 years.

148 Thus, it can be concluded that ET-CPCs are quite efficient at elevated temperatures up to 200°C and have  
149 no need for a solar tracking mechanism, which makes them a preferred choice over FPC. Along with this,  
150 these utilize diffuse and direct types of solar radiation. The thermodynamic performance of ET-CPCs  
151 based solar water heating systems has been measured through energy and exergy analyses. Energy  
152 analysis is conservative as per the first law of thermodynamics which typically involves energy efficiency  
153 and gain. On the other hand, exergy analysis helps to determine the energy transactions based on quality.  
154 Exergy analysis denotes the maximum theoretical work that can be obtained in a given set of  
155 environmental conditions. Hence, a thermodynamic system can be better assessed with the help of an  
156 exergy method (Caliskan 2017). Also, exergy analysis helps to determine the sustainability of the system  
157 (Moran and Shapiro 1993). An overall analysis of the system is incomplete without understanding its  
158 monetary transactions and environmental impact during its entire useful life (Dincer and Rosen  
159 2007a)(Meyer et al. 2009)(Tsatsaronis and Morosuk 2012). The first law of thermodynamics is widely  
160 used for energy utilization analysis. However, it is limited because it is incapable of quantitatively  
161 determining the quality of energy. On the other hand, the second law of thermodynamics supplants this  
162 limitation by introducing the exergy analysis that quantifies the potential helpful work for a given amount  
163 of energy. Therefore, it is essential that both the quantity and quality of the energy used for practical  
164 energy usage be considered (Saidur et al. 2013)(Cengel and Boles 2019). Expressing the true efficiency  
165 makes the exergy a powerful tool in sectoral energy analysis and engineering design (Rosen and Dincer  
166 1997). It should be pointed out that economic analysis is indirectly affected by environmental impact and  
167 energy analysis results.

168 In the present work, an analytical model is developed to carry out energy, exergy, environmental impact  
169 and economic analysis of an 81 m<sup>2</sup> ET-CPC powered solar water heating system equipped with thermal  
170 energy storage. Along with this, a parametric study is also performed to report the effect of mass flow

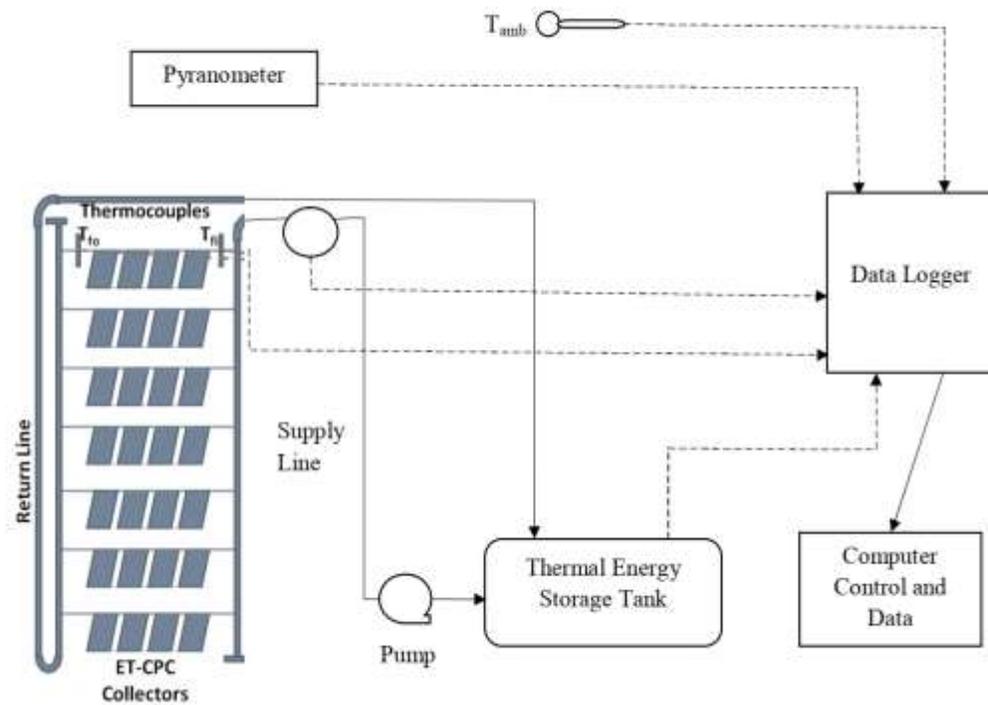
171 rate, solar radiation intensity, and ambient temperature on productivity and efficiency of reported  
172 installation at various fluid inlet temperatures. It was identified that overall analysis of ET-CPC-based  
173 applications are less reported in the literature and thus sufficient data is not available which can be  
174 otherwise helpful to promote its use. Thus, the thermodynamic performance of the SDWH system with its  
175 environmental impact and economic aspects has been investigated and compared under meteorological  
176 conditions of four different locations of Rajasthan (India) using TMY2 weather data files.

## 177 **2. System Description and Methodology**

178 The system presented in this research is installed at the roof and front lawn of the Department of  
179 Mechanical Engineering, Malaviya National Institute of Technology, Jaipur (26.86° N, 75.81° E). The  
180 schematic and actual photograph is presented in Figure 1. Each ET-CPC module has an effective area of 3  
181 m<sup>2</sup>. As shown in Figure 1, the installed ET-CPC field is arranged as six rows having four ET-CPCs in  
182 series, and one row has three ET-CPCs in-series constituting a total aperture area of 81 m<sup>2</sup> with 27 ET-  
183 CPC modules. These ET-CPCs are connected with a sensible thermal energy storage tank (containing  
184 soft water as a working medium) with the help of a centrifugal pump. Figure 2 shows the pictorial view of  
185 the ET-CPC solar field. The technical descriptions of the ET-CPC, thermal energy storage tank, and pump  
186 are provided in Table 1. There is no load considered to this system in the specified time. Various  
187 thermocouples, RTDs, and flow meters have been installed as shown in Figure 1 and a 16 channel  
188 Masibus 85xx+ data logger has been used to integrate these data.

189 This study developed an analytical model for energy, exergy, environmental impact and economic  
190 analysis of this SDWH. Further, experimental validation of the model is carried out using energetic  
191 efficiency and useful heat gain from the system. A parametric study is also made to investigate the effect  
192 of the mass flow rate of working fluid, solar radiation intensity, and ambient temperature on the  
193 productivity and efficiency of the system. Four potential locations have been identified from Rajasthan  
194 (India); Barmer, Jodhpur, Jaisalmer, and Jaipur. Weather data have been taken from the TMY2 file of  
195 these identified locations for ambient temperature and solar radiation intensity around the year. Energy

196 and exergy gain along with energy efficiency and exergetic efficiency is then estimated and compared for  
197 the specified locations. As discussed earlier, no analysis could be decisive without environmental and  
198 economic evaluation. Hence, environmental analysis is carried out to show the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions  
199 saved. In the latter section, economic analysis is done while comparing SDWH with the conventional  
200 methods of water heating.



201

202

**Figure 1** Schematic diagram of ET-CPC solar domestic water heating system



203

204 Figure 2 Pictorial view of ET-CPC solar collector field installed on MNIT, Jaipur roof top

205 Table 1 Technical description of the various components in the system

Description	Unit	Technical Specification
<b>Solar Collectors</b>		
No. of evacuated tubes	nos.	18
$\eta_0$ concerning aperture, EN12975	%	64.2
Heat transfer Coefficient ( $a_1$ )	(W/m <sup>2</sup> K)	0.89
Temperature dependent transfer Coefficient ( $a_2$ )	(W/m <sup>2</sup> K <sup>2</sup> )	0.001
Grid dimensions	m	2.08 x 1.64 x 0.10
Aperture area	m <sup>2</sup>	3.41
Max Working overpressure	bar	10
Max Stagnation temperature	°C	250
Glass Tube Material		Borosilicate Glass 3.3
Selective Absorber coating material		Aluminum Nitride
Glass Tube ( $\Phi$ Ext/ $\Phi$ Int/ Wall Thickness/Tube length)	mm	47/37/1.6/1500
Make		Linuo-Ritter
<b>Hot Storage Tank</b>		
Tank Diameter	m	1
Tank Length	m	3.5
Volume of Tank	m <sup>3</sup>	2.2
Material of Tank		Mild Steel
Insulation Material		Fiberglass of 50 mm thickness cladded with aluminium sheet
Orientation of Tank		Horizontal
<b>Hot Water Pump</b>		
Hot Water Pump at 25 m head	m <sup>3</sup> /hr	5.4

206

207 Table 2 Design parameters of ET-CPC field

Parameter	Value
<b>R</b>	0.0185 m
<b>C<sub>f</sub></b>	4186 J/kg.K
<b>L</b>	1500 mm
<b>A<sub>r</sub></b>	0.1734 m <sup>2</sup>
<b>A</b>	0.2215 m <sup>2</sup>
<b>A<sub>c,total</sub></b>	81 m <sup>2</sup>
<b>n</b>	12
<b><math>\tau</math></b>	0.95

$\alpha$	0.80
$\rho_f$	997 kg/m <sup>3</sup>
$\dot{m}_f$	0.0357 (kg/s)
$U_{tpa}$	2.1 W/m <sup>2</sup> .K
$h_{pf}$	100 W/m <sup>2</sup> .K
$F'$	0.986

### 208 3. Energy, Exergy, Environment impact and Economic Analysis

#### 209 3.1 Energy analysis of ET-CPC

210 Energy analysis for ET-CPC first involves the rise in fluid inlet temperature upon exit point from  
 211 the ET-CPC arrays. This temperature gain is achieved from the equations developed by Mishra  
 212 et al. (2017). It's essential to understand the flow distribution inside an ET-CPC module so that  
 213 assessment of flow rate inside a tube could be done perfectly. Figure 3 shows the flow scattering  
 214 inside a single module of ET-CPC which supports the precise number of evacuated tubes linked  
 215 in series in the current setup.

216 Table 3 Energy Analysis of ET-CPC

Energy Analysis of ET-CPC	Eq. No.
<p><math>T_{out,n}</math> outlet temperature from the n<sup>th</sup> ET-CPCs coupled in series is deliberate as in (Mishra et al. 2015):</p> $T_{out,n} = \frac{(A_c F_R \alpha \tau)_1}{\dot{m}_f C_f} \times \frac{(1 - K_{eff})^n}{(1 - K_{eff})} I_T + \frac{(A_r F_R U_L)_1}{\dot{m}_f C_f} \times \frac{(1 - K_{eff})^n}{(1 - K_{eff})} T_{amb} + K_{eff}^n T_{in}$ <p>Where,</p> $K_{eff} = 1 - \frac{A_r F_R U_L}{\dot{m}_f C_f}$ $F_R = \frac{\dot{m}_f C_f}{U_L A_r} \left[ 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{2\pi r L U_L}{\dot{m}_f C_f}\right) \right]$	1
<p>Practical heat gain for the n-tube connected in series is given as:</p> $Q_{useful,n} = (\alpha \tau)_{eff} I_T - (UA)_{eff} (T_{in} - T_{amb})$	2

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Where,

$$(\alpha\tau)_{eff} = A_c F_R \alpha \tau \left( \frac{1 - K_{eff}^n}{1 - K_{eff}} \right)$$

$$(UA)_{eff} = A_r F_R U_L \left( \frac{1 - K_{eff}^n}{1 - K_{eff}} \right)$$

Instantaneous thermal efficiency ( $\eta_{\text{Instantaneous}}$ ) is given as

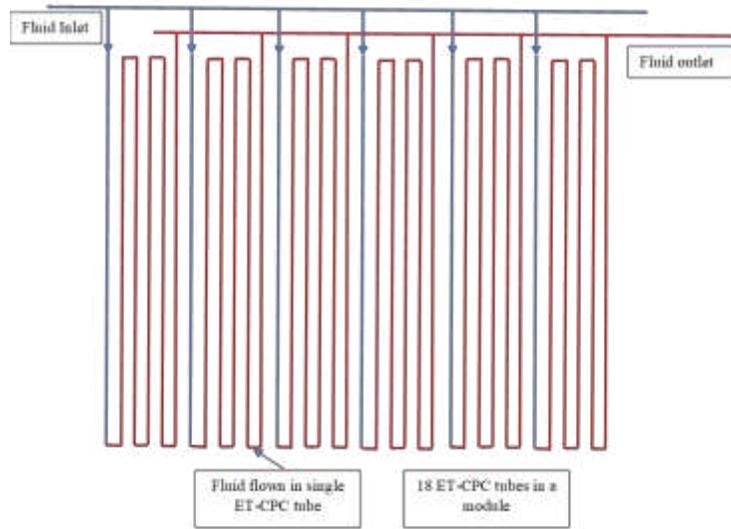
$$\eta_{\text{Instantaneous}} = \frac{Q_{\text{useful}}}{\eta_{\text{opt}} \times A_{c,\text{total}} \times I_T}$$

3

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217

218



219

220

Figure 3 Fluid Flow Diagram inside an ET-CPC module

221 Table 3 describes reduced equations for desired energy analysis of ET-CPC solar field. In the

222 existing setup, each ET-CPC module involves 18 evacuated tubes and four modules linked in

223 series to create an array and equally 7 rows are arranged parallel. Hence, 12 tubes are linked in

224 series and hence mass flow rate is distributed in 7 rows and 6 subdivisions. Hence, a total mass

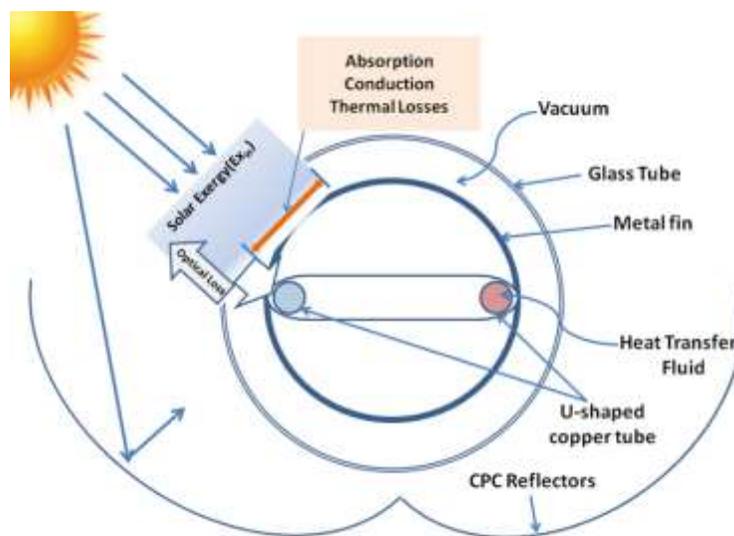
225 flow rate is 0.83 kg/s out of centrifugal pump rated discharge 1.5 kg/s because of pressure drop

226 due to ET-CPC solar collectors but only 0.0198 kg/s mass flow rate is observed inside any  
227 particular evacuated tube for this setup as shown in Figure 3.

228 Since this system's thermal energy storage is 2.2 m<sup>3</sup> in volume and oriented horizontally, a  
229 complete energy mix model is considered inside the TES tank. Further, energy gain is calculated  
230 as the successive sum of the energy gains, and subsequent temperature rise at any given time is  
231 treated as per equation (3) of Table 3.

### 232 3.2 Exergy analysis of ET-CPC

233 As stated in the Introduction section, reported literature mainly considers the physical conditions  
234 for exergy analysis and further for exergy gain. These models did not reflect the actual in-sight  
235 on the exergy destructions in each phase. Thus presented model is prepared concerning various  
236 possible destructions while performing exergy analysis therefore, accurate results could be  
237 presented. Figure 4 reports the various exergy destructions from an ET-CPC tube, and table 4  
238 shows the various equations reduced for exergy analysis.



239  
240 Figure 4 Representation of various Exergy Destructions inside a single ET-CPC

241 Table 4 Exergy Analysis of ET-CPC

**Exergy balance equation in the steady-state condition**

$$\dot{E}x_{in} = \Delta \dot{E}x_{opt} + \Delta \dot{E}x_{abs} + \Delta \dot{E}x_{thermal} + \Delta \dot{E}x_{cond} + \Delta \dot{E}x_{friction} + \dot{E}x_{useful} \quad 4$$

**Exergy inlet (Petela 2003, 2005)**

$$\dot{E}x_{Sun} = \dot{E}x_{in} = A_{c,total} I_T \varphi_{solar\ rad, max}$$

$$\varphi_{Solar\ rad, max} = \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{T_{amb}}{T_{sun}} \right)^4 - \frac{4}{3} \left( \frac{T_{amb}}{T_{sun}} \right) \right] \quad 5$$

**Exergy destruction due to optical**

$$\Delta \dot{E}x_{opt} = \dot{E}x_{sun} (1 - \eta_{opt}) \quad 6$$

**Exergy destruction due to absorption**

$$\Delta \dot{E}x_{abs} = \eta_{opt} \left( \dot{E}x_{sun} - I_T \times A_{c,total} \left( 1 - \frac{T_{amb}}{T_{receiver}} \right) \right) \quad 7$$

**Exergy destruction due to thermal losses**

$$\Delta \dot{E}x_{thermal} = K_{loss} (T_{surface} - T_{amb}) \left( 1 - \frac{T_{amb}}{T_{surface}} \right) \quad 8$$

**Exergy destruction due to conduction**

$$\Delta \dot{E}x_{cond} = T_{amb} (\Delta S_{cond})$$

$$\Delta S_{cond} = \int_{T_{in}}^{T_{out}} \frac{\dot{m}_f C_f dT}{T} - \frac{1}{T_{receiver}} \int_{T_{in}}^{T_{out}} \dot{m}_f C_f dT$$

$$\Delta S_{cond} = \dot{m}_f C_f \left[ \ln \left( \frac{T_{out}}{T_{in}} \right) - \left( \frac{T_{out} - T_{in}}{T_{receiver}} \right) \right] \quad 9$$

**Exergy destruction due to pipe friction (Bejan et al. 1981)**

$$\Delta \dot{E}x_{friction} = \frac{\dot{m}_f T_{amb} \Delta P}{\rho_f T_{in}}$$

$$\Delta P = f \rho_f L \frac{V^2}{2D} \quad 10$$

$$f = \frac{64}{Re}, \text{ for } Re \leq 2200$$

$$f = 0.316 Re^{-0.25}, \text{ for } Re > 2200$$

$$Re = \frac{\rho_f V D}{\mu_f}$$

---

### Exergy useful

$$\dot{Ex}_{useful} = \dot{Ex}_{in} - (\Delta \dot{Ex}_{opt} + \Delta \dot{Ex}_{abs} + \Delta \dot{Ex}_{thermal} + \Delta \dot{Ex}_{cond} + \Delta \dot{Ex}_{friction}) \quad 11$$

---

### Total Exergy gain

$$Ex_{gain,total} = \int \dot{Ex}_{useful} \cdot A_{total} \cdot dt \quad 12$$

---

### Exergetic efficiency

$$\psi_{exergetic} = \frac{\dot{Ex}_{useful}}{\dot{Ex}_{in}} \quad 13$$

242

### 243 3.3 Thermodynamic Analysis of Thermal Energy Storage

244 Thermodynamic analysis of thermal energy storage has been performed under actual environmental  
 245 conditions during the charging, storing, and discharging phase. Equations for energy and exergy  
 246 parameters have been reduced as presented in Table 5, and these are analyzed in conjunction with the  
 247 performance of ET-CPC.

248

Table 5 Thermodynamic Analysis of Thermal Energy Storage

---

Thermodynamic Analysis of Thermal Energy Storage	Eq. No.
--	---------

---

**TES charging stage** (Rezaie et al. 2015)

**Energy Balance** (Dincer and Rosen 2007)(Rosen and Dincer 2003)

$$Q_{in, TES} - Q_{loss, TES} = \Delta U_{charging}$$

$$\Delta U_{charging} = m_{total} C_f \Delta T_m$$

$$m_{charging} = \frac{Q_{in, TES}}{C_f (T_{c, in} - T_{c, out})}$$

14

---

---

### Energy Efficiency

$$\eta_{charging} = \frac{\text{Energy accumulated in TES}}{\text{Energy Input}} = \frac{\Delta U_{charging}}{Q_{in, TES}} \quad 15$$

### Exergy Balance

$$Ex_{c, in} = m_{charging} \left[ (h_{c, in} - h_{c, out}) - T_{amb} (s_{c, in} - s_{c, out}) \right]$$

$$Ex_{c, loss} = Q_{loss, TES} \left( 1 - \frac{T_{amb}}{T_m} \right)$$

$$Ex_{c, accum} = Ex_{c, f} - Ex_{c, i} = m_{total} \left[ (u_{c, f} - u_{c, i}) - (s_{c, f} - s_{c, i}) \right] \quad 16$$

### Exergy Destruction

$$\Delta Ex_{charging} = Ex_{c, in} - Ex_{c, loss} - Ex_{c, accum} \quad 17$$

### Exergy Efficiency

$$\psi_{charging} = \frac{\text{Exergy accumulated in TES}}{\text{Exergy Input}} = \frac{Ex_{c, accum}}{Ex_{c, in}} \quad 18$$

---

### TES Storing Stage

---

#### Energy Efficiency

$$\eta_{storing} = \frac{\text{Energy Accumulation in TES during charging and storing}}{\text{Energy Accumulation in TES during charging}} \quad 19$$

#### Exergetic Efficiency

$$\psi_{storing} = \frac{\text{Exergy Accumulation in TES during charging and storing}}{\text{Exergy Accumulation in TES during charging}} \quad 20$$

---

### TES Discharging Stage

---

#### Energy recovered

$$Q_{rec} = -(\Delta U_{discharge} + Q_{loss, TES})$$

$$\Delta U_{discharge} = m_{total} C_f \Delta T_m$$

$$m_{discharging} = \frac{Q_{rec}}{C_f (T_{d, out} - T_{d, in})} \quad 21$$

#### Energy Efficiency

$$\eta_{discharging} = \frac{\text{Energyre covered by TES}}{\text{Energyreleased by TES}} = \frac{Q_{rec}}{Q_{rec} + Q_{loss, TES}} \quad 22$$

---

---

Exergy recovered

$$Ex_{rec} = m_{discharge} [(h_{d,out} - h_{d,in}) - T_{amb}(s_{d,out} - s_{d,in})] \quad 23$$

Exergy accumulation

$$Ex_{d,accum} = Ex_{d,f} - Ex_{d,i} = m_{total} [(u_{d,f} - u_{d,i}) - (s_{d,f} - s_{d,i})] \quad 24$$

Exergy destruction

$$\Delta Ex_{discharging} = Ex_{d,in} - Ex_{d,loss} - Ex_{d,accum} \quad 25$$

Exergy efficiency

$$\psi_{discharging} = \frac{\text{Exergy recovered by TES}}{\text{Exergy accumulated in TES}} = \frac{Ex_{rec}}{Ex_{d,accum}} \quad 26$$

---

### Overall Energy and Exergy efficiency

---

Energy efficiency

$$\eta_{O, TES} = \frac{\text{Energy recovered from TES during discharging}}{\text{Energy input to TES during charging}} = \frac{\sum Q_{rec}}{\sum Q_{in, TES}} \quad 27$$

Exergy efficiency

$$\psi_{O, TES} = \frac{\text{Exergy recovered from TES during discharging}}{\text{Exergy input to TES during charging}} = \frac{\sum Ex_{rec}}{\sum Ex_{c, in}} \quad 28$$

---

## 249 3.4 Environmental Impact Analysis

250 With the ever-increasing concern about the environmental impact and specifically global  
251 warming due to greenhouse gases, it has become essential to evaluate and analyze the newly  
252 designed and developed system environmentally before heading forward. The developed system  
253 was weighed on an environmental impact basis which is quantified based on saving on carbon  
254 dioxide emissions. The change resulted in significant savings in CO<sub>2</sub> yearly and finally a lesser  
255 carbon footprint.

256 The annual social cost of CO<sub>2</sub> emission varies from one country to another. The cost of penalty  
257 for CO<sub>2</sub> emissions is calculated using the relation,

$$258 \dot{Z}_{env} = m_{CO_2} \cdot C_{CO_2} \quad (29)$$

259 In above equation  $C_{CO_2}$  is the cost of unit carbon dioxide production and it varies from 0.022  
260 1.63 INR/kg to 9.62 INR per kg of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. In our study, prices of developing countries  
261 have been chosen which is 3.7 INR/kg. Here  $m_{CO_2}$  is the mass of CO<sub>2</sub> emission and has been  
262 calculated using emission conversion factor as follows:

$$263 \quad m_{CO_2} = \lambda \cdot \text{Power consumption in kWh} \quad (30)$$

264 Where,  $\lambda$  is the emission conversion factor having a value of 0.968 kg/kWh. It is essential to  
265 mention that India's energy mix has been used to obtain the results. Here it is taken as 1 kWh<sub>e</sub>  
266 leading to 0.968 kg of CO<sub>2</sub> production.

### 267 **3.5 Economic Analysis**

268 Whether cooling, heating, or power, every solar-based system has indirect benefits in terms of  
269 environmental protection, lower health costs, and global climate benefits, but never a decision on  
270 investment in renewable systems are made on this basis. Quite a few times, lawmakers provide  
271 incentives that may attract investment when looking to these social benefits. However, any  
272 system must sustain itself until its financial viability or beneficiary.

273 The fossil-based system is relatively cheaper in terms of initial cost but they have a higher  
274 recurring cost including regular energy billing, maintenance cost, etc. whereas the Solar-based  
275 system is characterized by a high initial cost and negligible operating cost. Therefore it is very  
276 much needed that the life cycle cost approach has to be adopted when comparing the solar-based  
277 systems with the conventional-based systems.

278 The concept of life cycle cost includes both the initial investment cost and year-to-year operating  
279 cost in making economic decisions. The life cycle cost of any energy system is the total of the  
280 following cost made in its life term:

- 281 1. The initial capital cost includes the cost of equipment, installation and land cost (if any).
- 282 2. Its running cost throughout its life.
- 283 3. Interest cost, if money is invested through borrowing.
- 284 4. Periodic maintenance cost of equipment or any miscellaneous cost.
- 285 5. Taxes
- 286 6. Salvage value, if any at the end of its life span.

287 The first cost includes all the costs of owning the equipment and normally is one time. It includes  
 288 the cost of equipment, installation cost, and the cost of land, if applicable. On the other hand,  
 289 operation and maintenance cost includes the cost incurred during the life cycle of the domestic  
 290 water heating system year on year for operating the system which includes recurring electricity  
 291 cost for operating the system. During the economic evaluation of any solar-based system, the  
 292 initial investment made has to be weighted over the intended benefits in terms of heat, power, or  
 293 cooling which the system is supposed to provide. Hence the present value of future anticipated  
 294 benefits needs to be evaluated. Various financial performance parameters are analyzed over here,  
 295 refer to Table 6.

296 Table 6 Indicators of Economical Analysis

Economical Analysis Indicators/Parameters	Eq. No.
<b>Simple payback period (SPBP)</b>	
$SPBP = \frac{CC}{CF}$	31
<b>Discounted payback period (DPBP)</b>	
$DPBP = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{CC*r}{CF}}\right)}{\ln(1+r)}$	32

---

### Internal Rate of Return

$$0 = \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{CF_n}{(1+IRR)^n} + CI \quad 33$$

### Levelized Cost of Heating (LCOH)

$$LCOH = \frac{TLCC}{E_n} \left[ \frac{1-(1+i)^{-n}}{i} \right] \quad 34$$

---

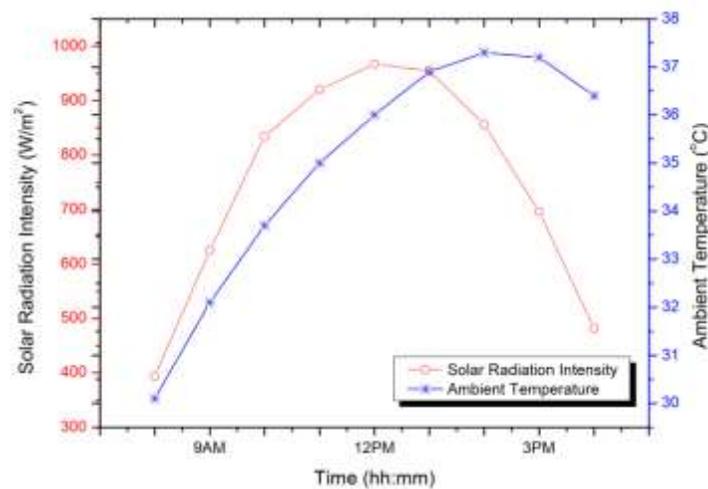
297

## 298 4. Results and Discussion

### 299 4.1 Experimental Validation of Analytical Model

300 Figure 5 shows the schematic diagram of the setup discussed above. However, only a solar hot  
301 charging loop is considered in this present study. Data received from different RTD sensors,  
302 mass flow sensors, pyranometer, and ambient temperature thermocouple have been integrated  
303 into the data logger and then the performance of ET-CPC coupled with a hot storage tank is  
304 discussed by

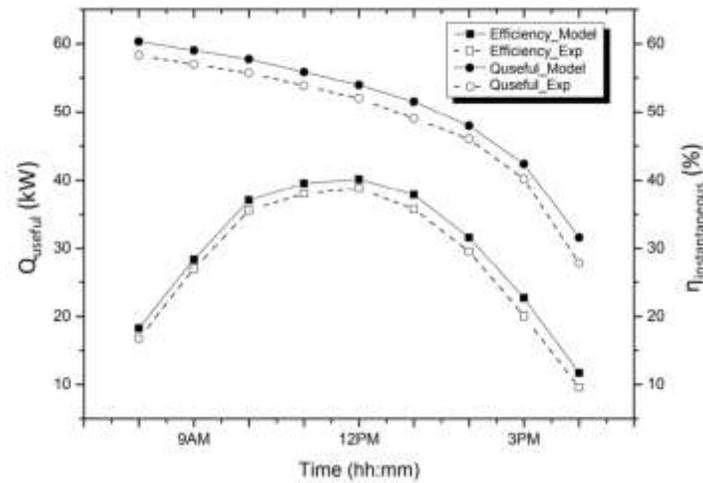
305 It is observed from this experimental validation that relative difference is within the range of 3-  
306 8%. Hence, there is a good agreement between the values from this analytical model and  
307 experimental results.



308

309

(a)



310

311

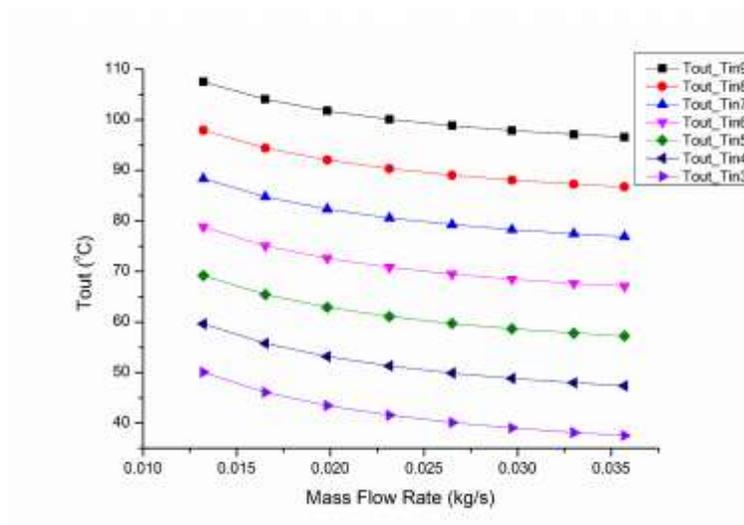
(b)

312 Figure 5 Experimental validation of analytical model on a typical day April 18, 2021 (a) Solar  
 313 radiation intensity and ambient temperature (b) efficiency and  $Q_{\text{useful}}$  model and experimental

## 314 4.2 Parametric Analysis

315 This parametric study shows the effect of mass flow rate, solar radiation intensity and ambient  
 316 temperature on the productivity and efficiency of the ET-CPC. A typical range of mass flow rate  
 317 is taken from 0.0132 to 0.0357 kg/s through tubes of ET-CPC. The values of solar radiation  
 318 intensity are considered from 200 to 1000 W/m<sup>2</sup> varying in the steps of 100 W/m<sup>2</sup>. The ambient  
 319 temperature values range from 27 to 43°C.

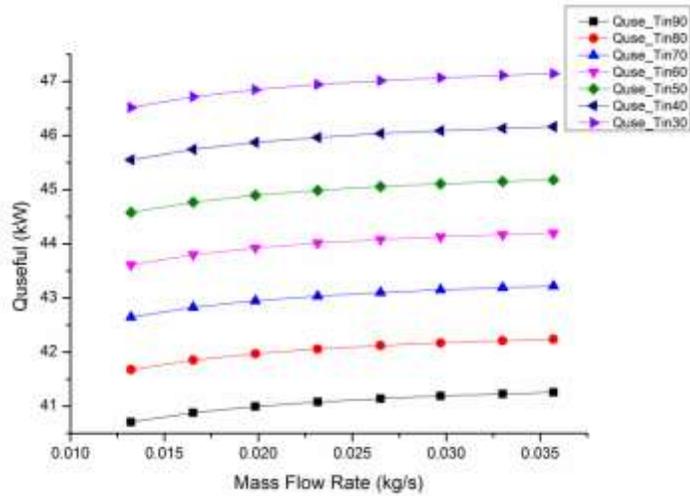
### 320 4.2.1 Effect of mass flow rate



321

322 **Figure 6** Effect of Mass Flow Rate on outlet temperature at a different inlet temperature

323 Figure 6 shows the variation of the system outlet temperature based on the mass flow rates. The  
 324 solar radiation intensity has been kept at  $1000 \text{ W/m}^2$  while the ambient temperature is kept at  
 325  $27^\circ\text{C}$ . Inlet temperatures have been varied from  $30$  to  $90^\circ\text{C}$  within the steps of  $10^\circ\text{C}$ . For the  
 326 different inlet temperatures, the slopes of the curves are declining in nature, which also supports  
 327 the theoretical knowledge. The slope of the curves decreases with the increase in inlet  
 328 temperature. The slope of the curve for  $30^\circ\text{C}$  is steepest and the slope of the curve for  $90^\circ\text{C}$  inlet  
 329 temperature is flattened.



330

331

Figure 7 Effect of Mass Flow Rate on  $Q_{useful}$  at different inlet temperatures

332

Figure 7 shows the effect of mass flow rate over the useful heat gain for various inlet

333

temperatures keeping solar radiation intensity  $1000 \text{ W/m}^2$  and ambient temperature  $27^\circ\text{C}$ . Useful

334

heat gain varies proportionally with the mass flow rate.  $Q_{useful}$  is higher for the lower inlet

335

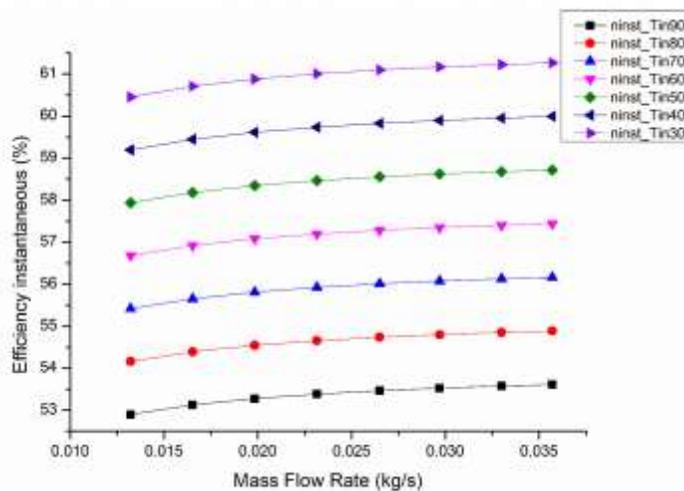
temperatures and vice-versa. At  $30^\circ\text{C}$  inlet temperature, the useful heat gain is highest and for

336

$90^\circ\text{C}$  inlet temperature, useful heat gain is lowest. This is since heat loss to the environment

337

increases as the inlet temperature increases and lowers as the mass flow rate increases.

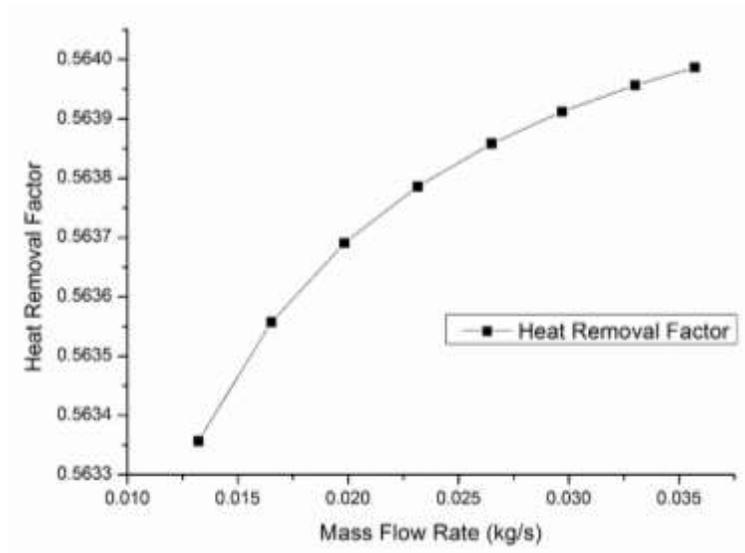


338

339

Figure 8 Effect of Mass Flow Rate on instantaneous efficiency with different inlet temperatures

340 Figure 8 shows the effect of mass flow rate over instantaneous efficiency of ET-CPC for various  
341 inlet temperatures at the solar intensity and ambient constant as described earlier. As the mass  
342 flow rate increases, the system's instantaneous efficiency is also increases and vice-versa.  
343 Instantaneous efficiency is better for lower inlet temperatures and reduces as temperature  
344 increases. The highest instantaneous efficiency is recorded at inlet temperature at 30°C and mass  
345 flow rate of 0.0357 kg/s.



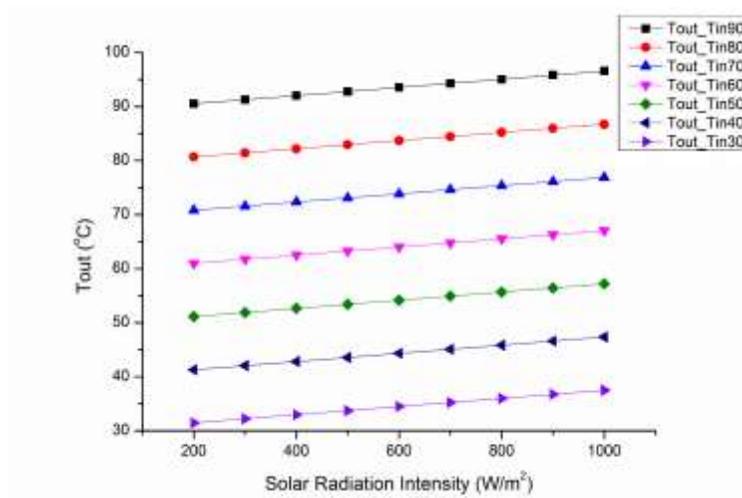
346  
347 Figure 9 Effect of Mass Flow Rate on Heat Removal Factor

348 The heat removal factor is an important design parameter as it is a measure of thermal resistance  
349 encountered by the absorbed solar radiation is reaching the collector fluid. Figure 9 shows the  
350 effect of mass flow rate on the heat removal factor. This can be concluded that there is an  
351 increasing trend for heat removal factor, however, this increase in heat removal factor is not  
352 significant thus an average value of 0.5635 is taken for further evaluation.

#### 353 4.2.2 Effect of solar radiation intensity

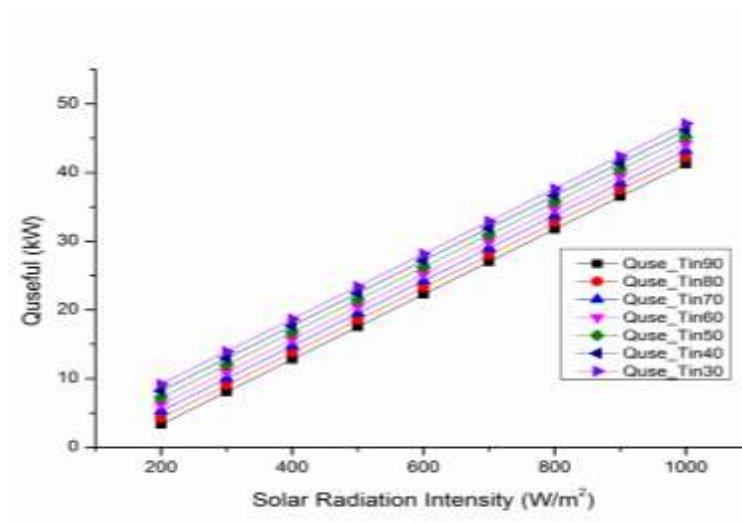
354 The effect of solar radiation intensity is quite essential to assess as an operating parameter since  
355 it is the base for any type of solar energy projects without which proper sizing and economics of

356 solar energy projects cannot be estimated. The effect of solar radiation intensity on outlet  
 357 temperature is shown in Figure 10. The solar radiation intensity is ranging from 200 to 1000 m<sup>2</sup>  
 358 taking fluid inlet temperature of 27°C and a constant mass flow rate of 0.0357 kg/s. There is an  
 359 obvious increase in the fluid outlet temperature corresponding to the increase in the solar  
 360 radiation intensity. However, as the inlet temperature increases, the outlet temperature increases  
 361 proportionally with the solar radiation intensity.



362

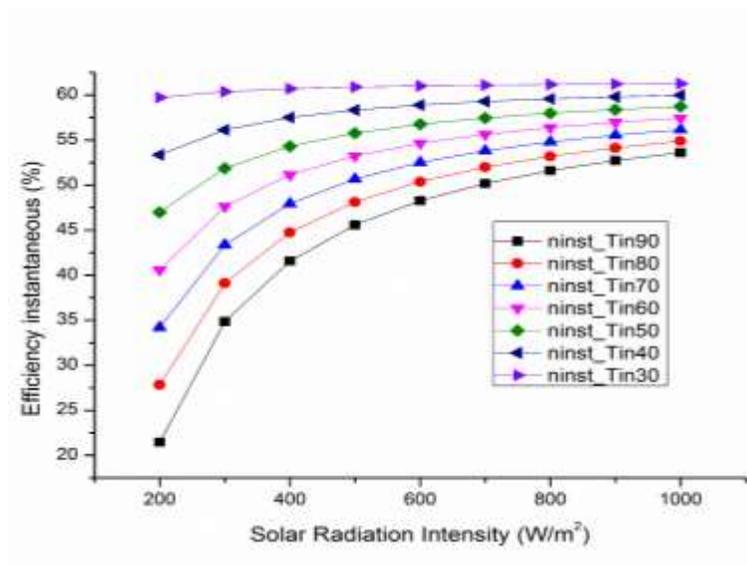
363 Figure 10 Variation of the outlet temperature as a function of the solar radiation intensity for  
 364 various inlet temperatures



365

366 Figure 11 Effect of solar radiation intensity on useful heat gain

367 Figure 11 shows that solar radiation intensity's effect on useful heat gain for various inlet  
 368 temperatures ranging from 30°C to 90°C. As mentioned earlier, while showing this mass flow  
 369 rate is kept as 0.0357 kg/s, and ambient temperature is taken as 27°C. It can be noted from the  
 370 figure that useful heat gain is directly proportional to the solar radiation intensity. For 30°C inlet  
 371 temperature, the useful heat gain is highest and lowers as the inlet temperature increases. Useful  
 372 heat gain is ranges between 40-46 kW for a given system's solar radiation intensity of 1000  
 373 W/m<sup>2</sup>.

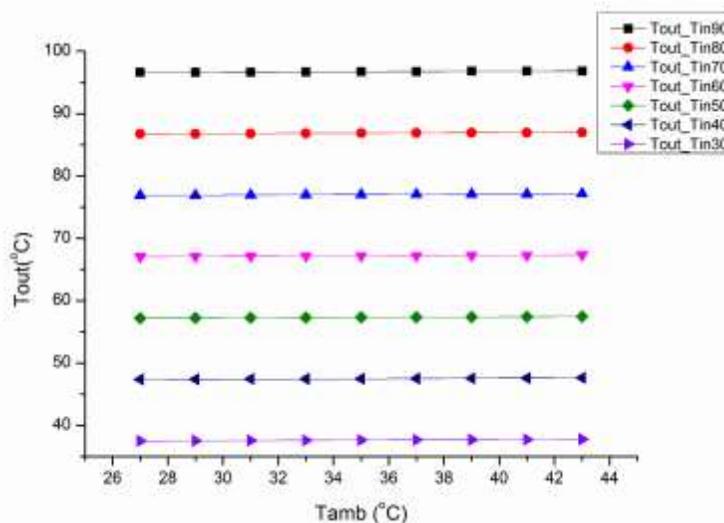


374  
 375 Figure 12 Effect of solar radiation intensity on instantaneous efficiency  
 376 Figure 12 represents the effect of solar radiation intensity on instantaneous efficiency for various  
 377 inlet temperatures as discussed earlier. The instantaneous efficiency usually increases with the  
 378 increase in the solar radiation intensity. The highest instantaneous efficiency was observed at  
 379 30°C inlet temperature at solar radiation intensity of 1000 W/m<sup>2</sup>. As the inlet temperature of  
 380 fluid increases, instantaneous efficiency decreases. This is mainly because of higher heat losses  
 381 to the environment at higher inlet temperatures. However, these relative differences reduce at the

382 higher value of solar radiation intensity. Further, it can be observed that instantaneous efficiency  
383 is still in the range of 40-50% which is significantly better than any other stationary STC.

### 384 4.2.3 Effect of Ambient Temperature

385 The effect of ambient temperature on productivity is reported in this section. The solar radiation  
386 intensity is considered as  $1000 \text{ W/m}^2$  along with a constant mass flow rate of  $0.0357 \text{ kg/s}$ . Figure  
387 13 shows the effect of ambient temperature over fluid outlet temperature for various inlet  
388 temperatures. It is observed that there is no significant variation observed in the fluid outlet  
389 temperatures with ambient temperatures. Hence it can be concluded from this discussion that  
390 ambient is the least dominant factor which affects the productivity of ET-CPC and further, useful  
391 heat gain and instantaneous efficiency.

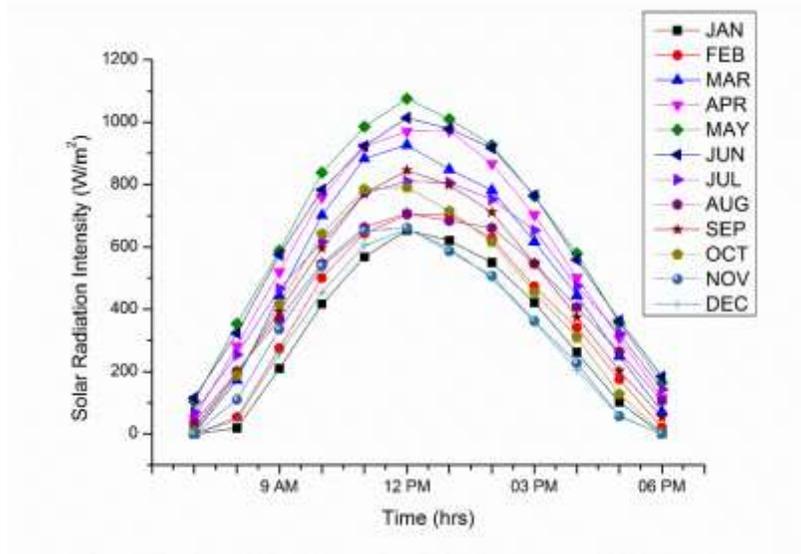


392  
393 Figure 13 Effect of ambient temperature on Outlet temperature with different inlet temperatures

### 394 4.3 Evaluation of Useful energy and exergy gain under actual meteorological conditions

395 As mentioned earlier, four meteorological conditions of Rajasthan (India) have been considered.  
396 Data have been recovered using the TMY2 file for these identified locations. The information  
397 has been used in the model to evaluate the variation of productivity and efficiency for the stated

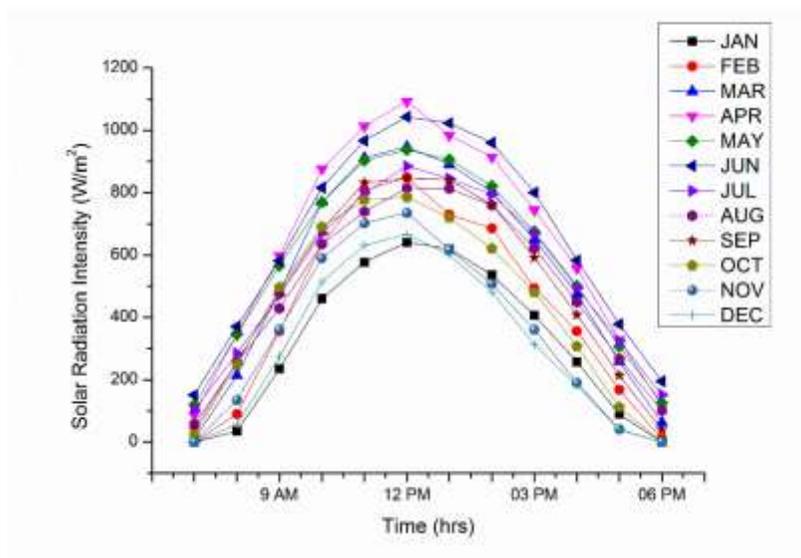
398 ET-CPC powered SDWH system with the help of various indicators of energy and exergy  
399 analysis such as useful heat gain, instantaneous efficiency, exergy gain, and exergetic efficiency.  
400 The results have been shown in stack form altogether to have a better and direct comparison of  
401 these identified indicators.



402

(a)

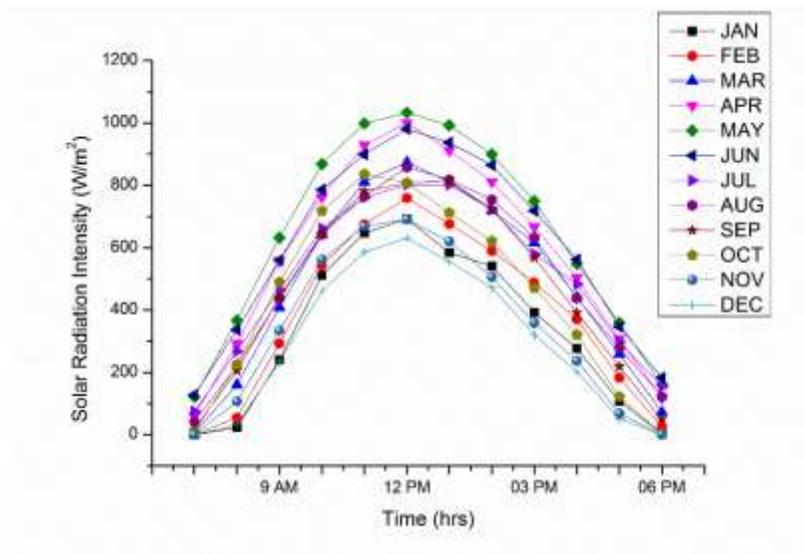
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404

(b)

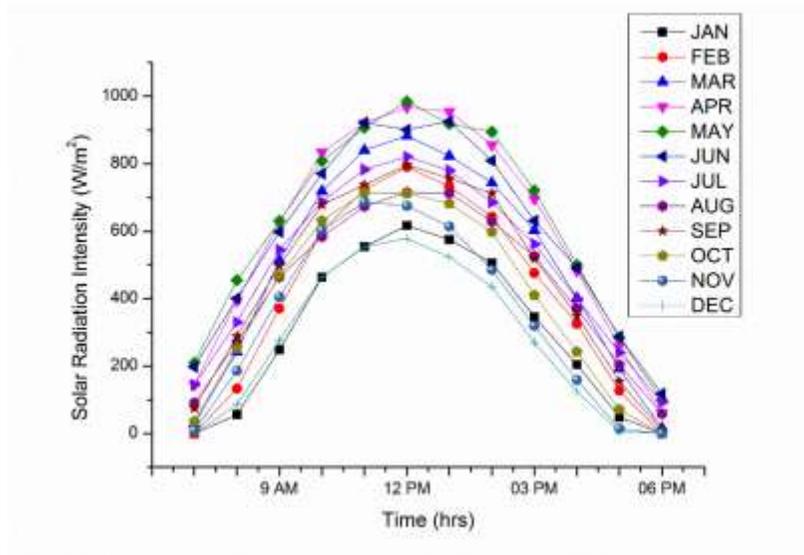
405



406

407

(c)



408

409

(d)

410 Figure 14 Radiation Intensity curves for (a) Barmer (b) Jodhpur (c) Jaisalmer (d) Jaipur

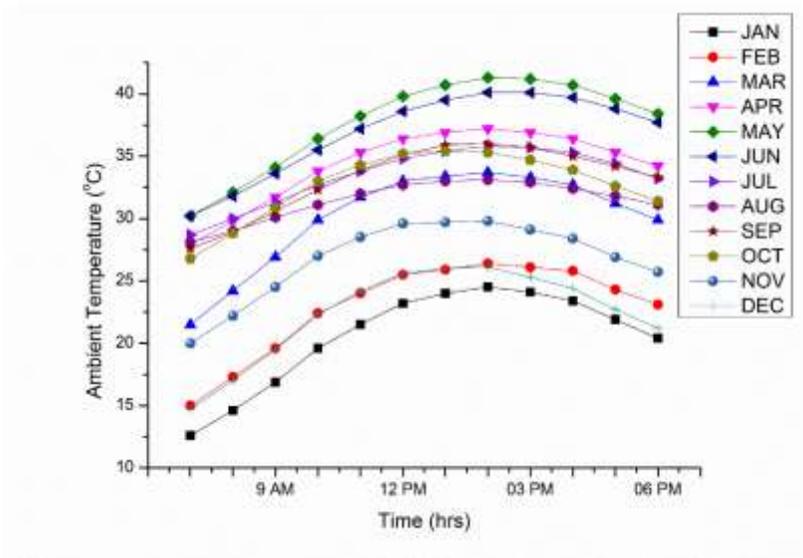
411 Figure 14 (a), (b), (c) and (d) shows the solar radiation intensity variation for year-round at

412 Barmer, Jodhpur, Jaisalmer, and Jaipur respectively. The highest solar radiation intensity data are

413 recorded between April and June while the lowest is recorded between November and January.

414 The highest solar intensity is observed around 12 PM for nearly every month. The highest value

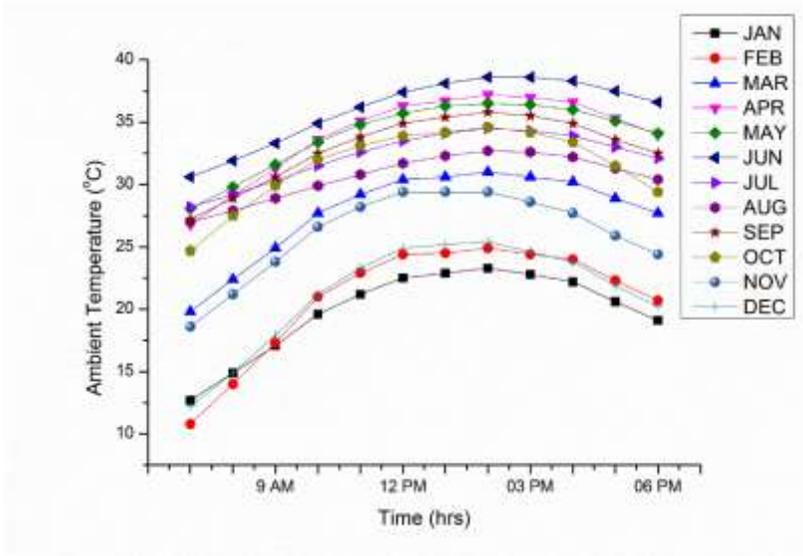
415 of solar intensity is recorded as 1075, 1093, 1033 and 985 W/m<sup>2</sup> for Barmer, Jodhpur, Jaisalmer  
416 and Jaipur respectively.



417

418

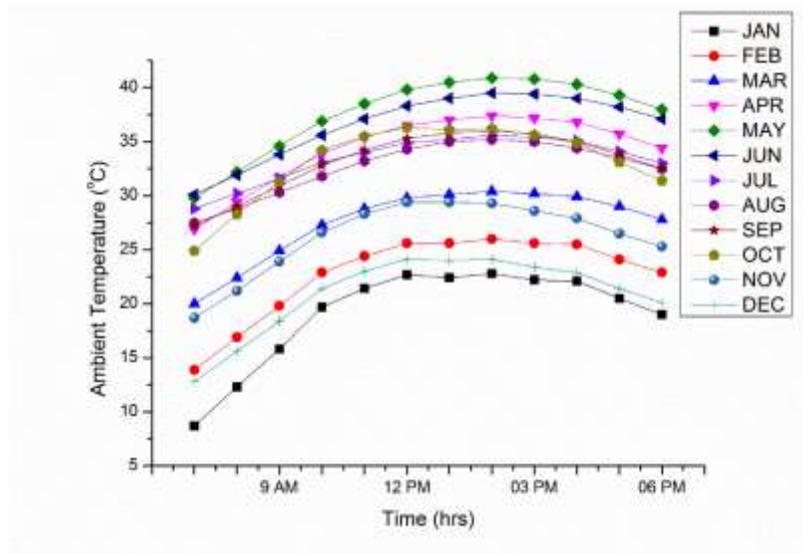
(a)



419

420

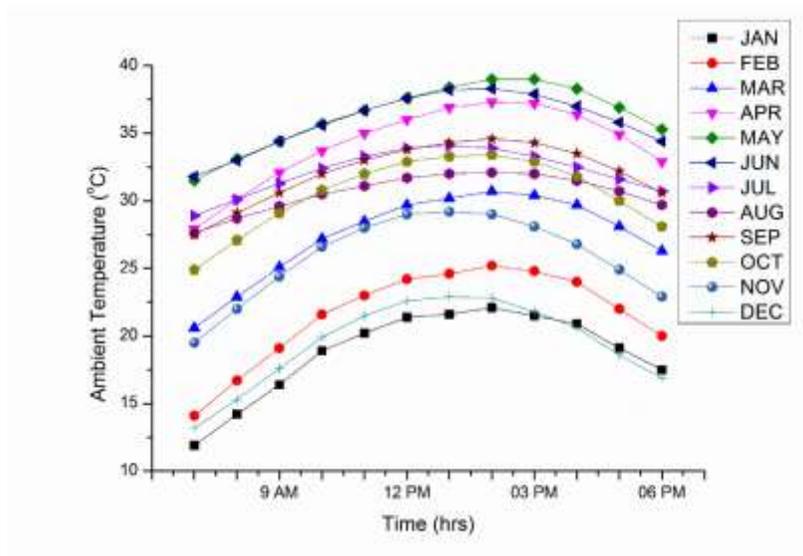
(b)



421

422

(c)



423

424

(d)

425 Figure 15 Ambient temperature curves for (a) Barmer (b) Jodhpur (c) Jaisalmer (d) Jaipur

426 Figure 15 (a), (b), (c), and (d) shows the variation of ambient temperature around the year for

427 Barmer, Jodhpur, Jaisalmer and Jaipur respectively. It is observed that the highest ambient

428 temperature achieved in the month may and lowest ambient temperature in the month January

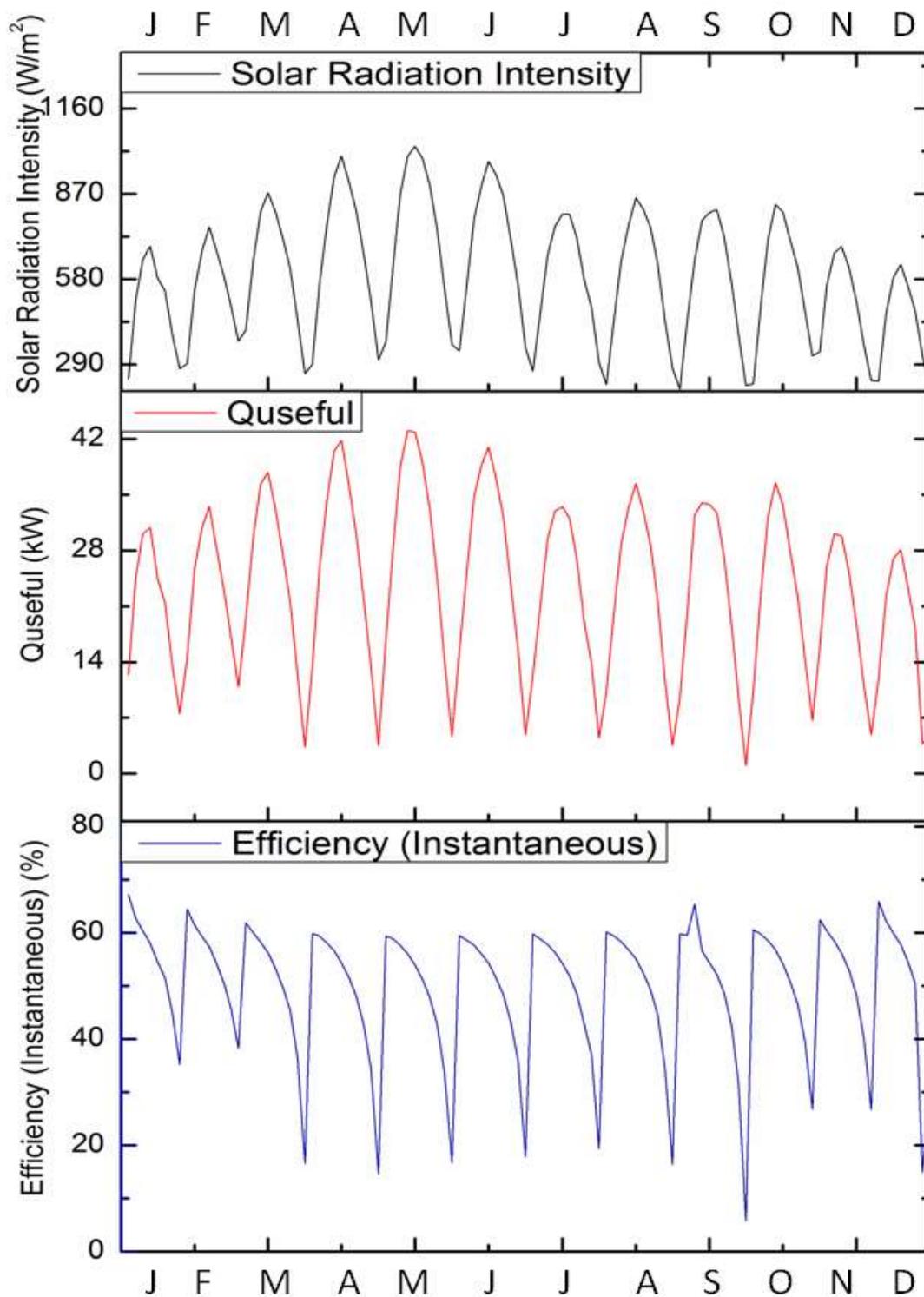
429 around 2 PM. ]The highest ambient temperature was recorded as 41.3, 38.5, 40.9 and 39°C for

430 Barmer, Jodhpur, Jaisalmer and Jaipur respectively while the lowest temperature recorded was  
431 15°C for Jaisalmer for a specified time of the day. The warmest months are May, June and July  
432 for all specified locations while the coldest months are December, January and February.

#### 433 **4.3.1 Energy Analysis**

434 Figure 16 (a) shows a comparison analysis between the solar radiation intensity, useful heat gain  
435 and instantaneous efficiency under the meteorological condition of Barmer for the different-  
436 different months of a typical meteorological year (TMY). Similarly, Figures 16 (b), (c) and (d)  
437 are showing useful heat gain, instantaneous efficiency and solar radiation intensity for different  
438 months at locations Jodhpur, Jaisalmer and Jaipur respectively. The curve shows that the highest  
439 solar radiation intensity  $1075 \text{ W/m}^2$  measured in May month. Similarly, the useful heat gain  
440 curve also has a higher value of  $45.03 \text{ kW}$  during April and May. It is observed from the Figure  
441 that the solar radiation intensity and  $Q_{\text{useful}}$  are greater in the summer season months. But the  
442 instantaneous efficiency curve shows the higher values for the winter months. It is mainly  
443 because of the higher temperature difference between the inlet and outlet fluid in winter and  
444 efficiency is directly proportional to this temperature difference so the instantaneous efficiency is  
445 higher in December and January.

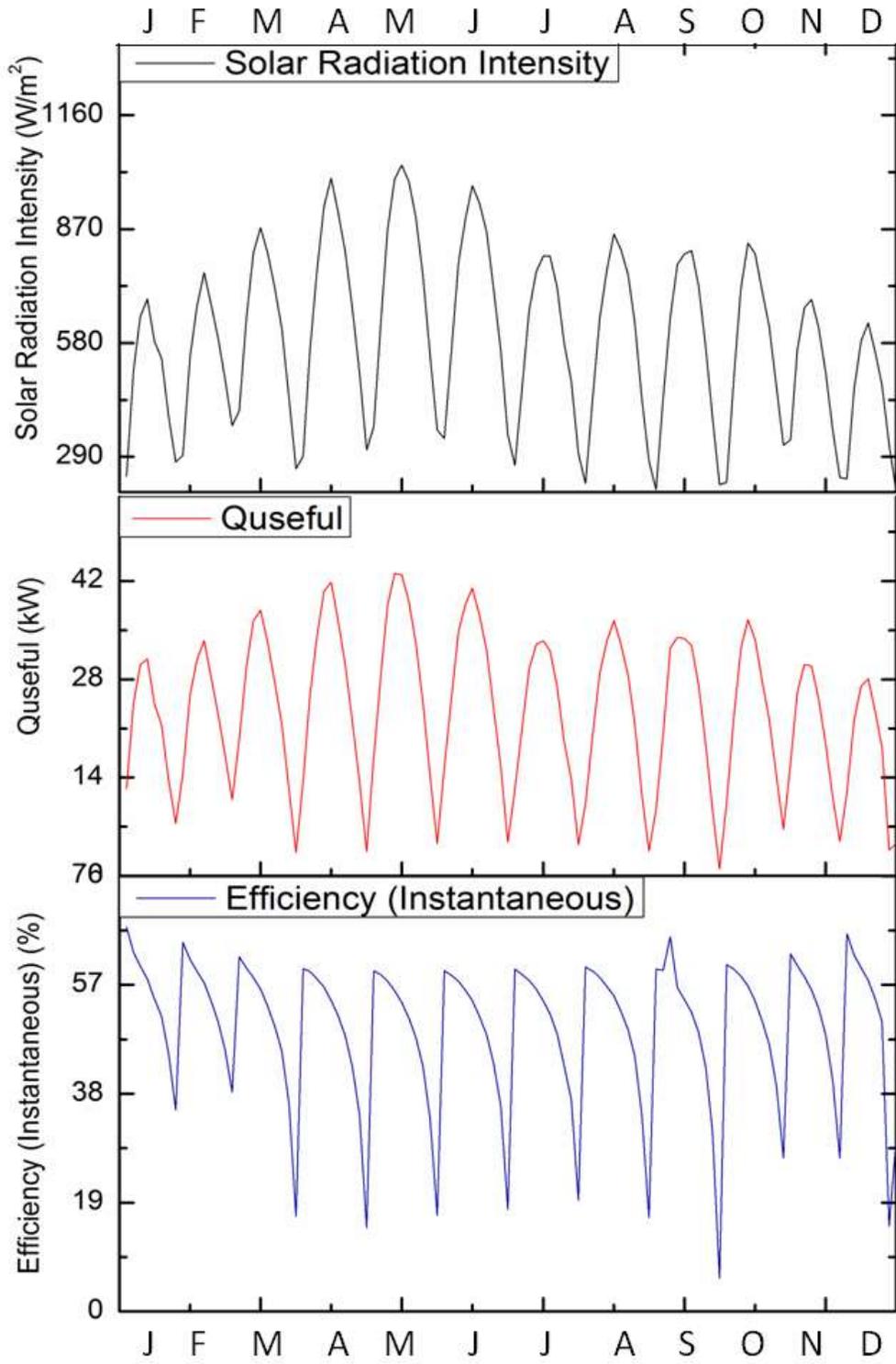
446 The highest value was measured as  $67.25\%$  in January. Similarly, the highest solar radiation  
447 intensity comes  $1093 \text{ W/m}^2$  for Jodhpur followed by  $1033$  and  $985 \text{ W/m}^2$  for Jaisalmer and  
448 Jodhpur locations during April and May. Accordingly, the  $Q_{\text{useful}}$  is measured higher for April,  
449 May and June. The highest value of  $Q_{\text{useful}}$  is recorded as  $46.02 \text{ kW}$  for Jodhpur followed by  
450  $42.86$  and  $40.67 \text{ kW}$  for Jaisalmer and Jaipur respectively during April and June. However, as  
451 discussed earlier, the highest instantaneous efficiency of  $66.64\%$  for Jodhpur is recorded during  
452 January followed by  $67.14$  and  $66.53\%$  for Jaisalmer and Jodhpur respectively.



453

454

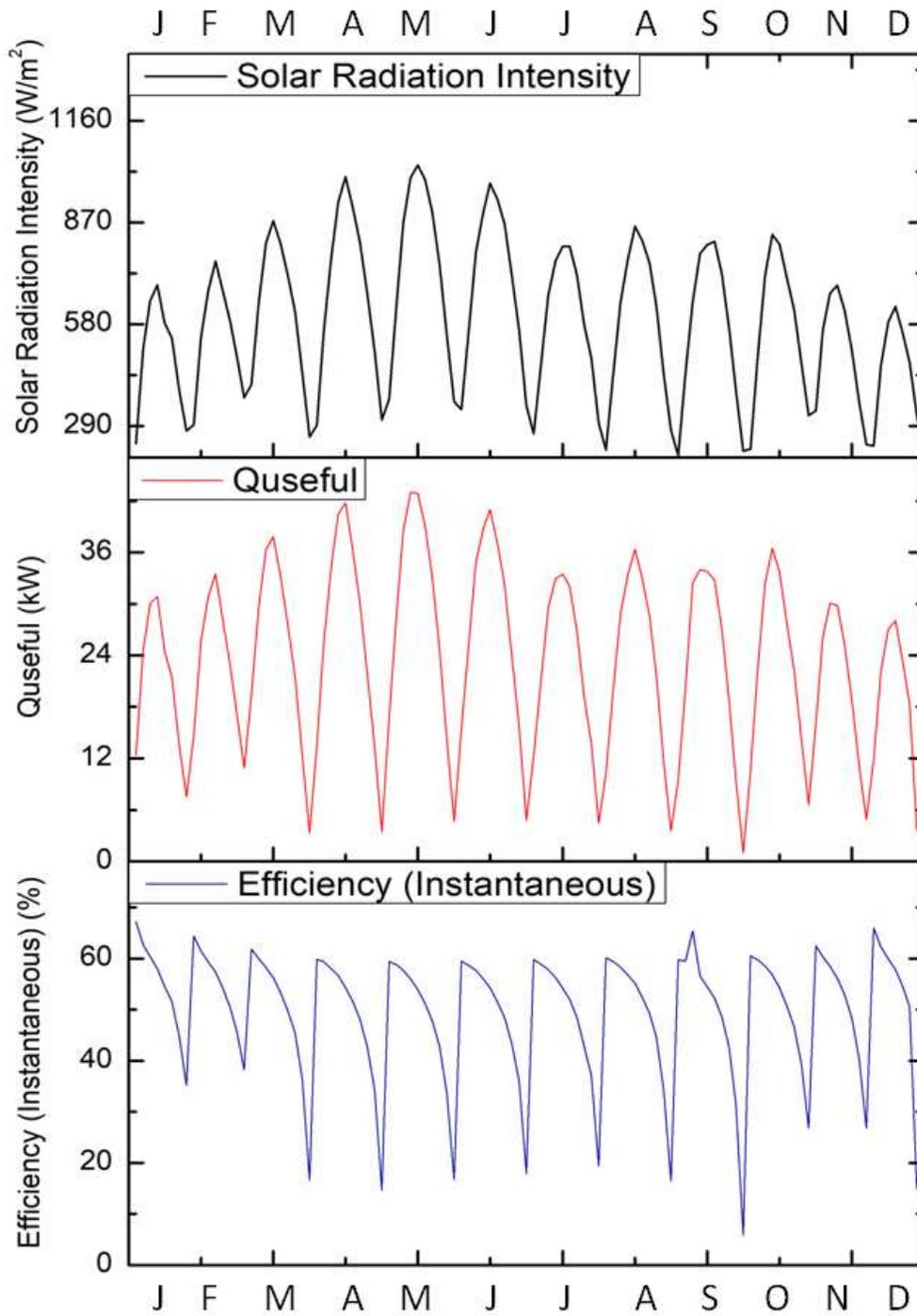
(a)



455

456

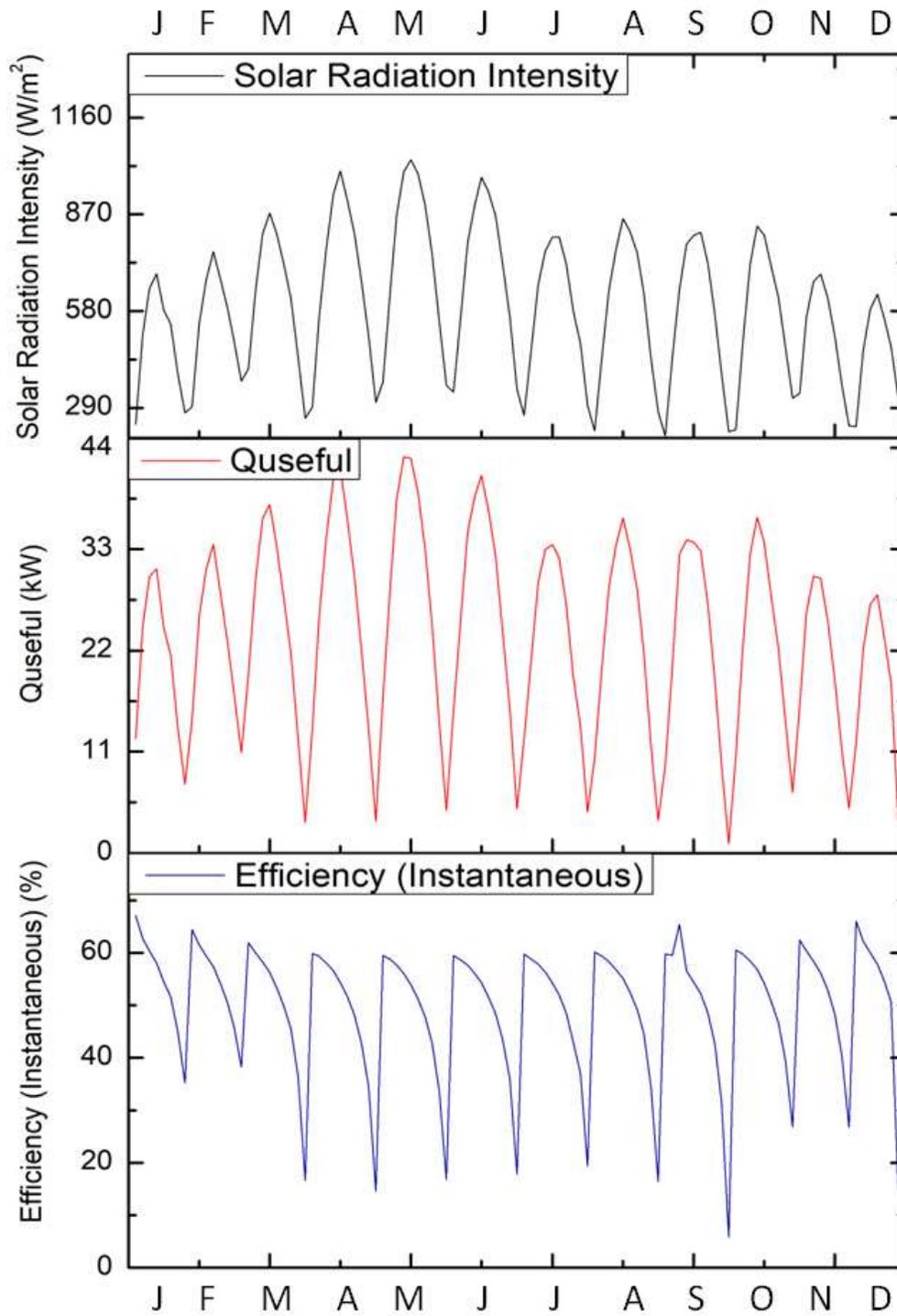
(b)



457

458

(c)



459

460

(d)

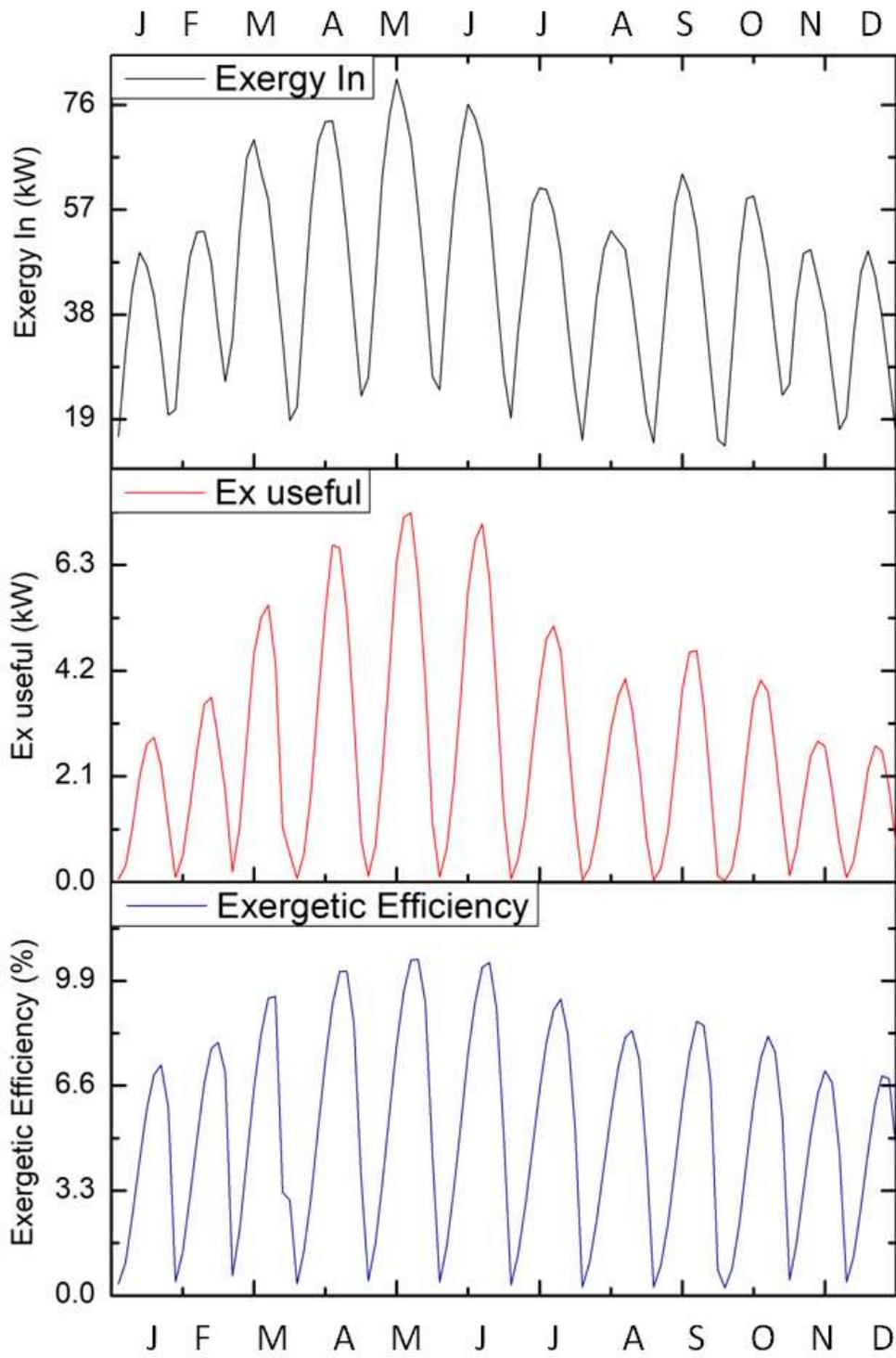
461 Figure 16 Parameters indicating Energy Analysis under meteorological condition of (a) Barmer

462

(b) Jodhpur (c) Jaisalmer (d) Jaipur

### 463 **4.3.2 Exergy analysis**

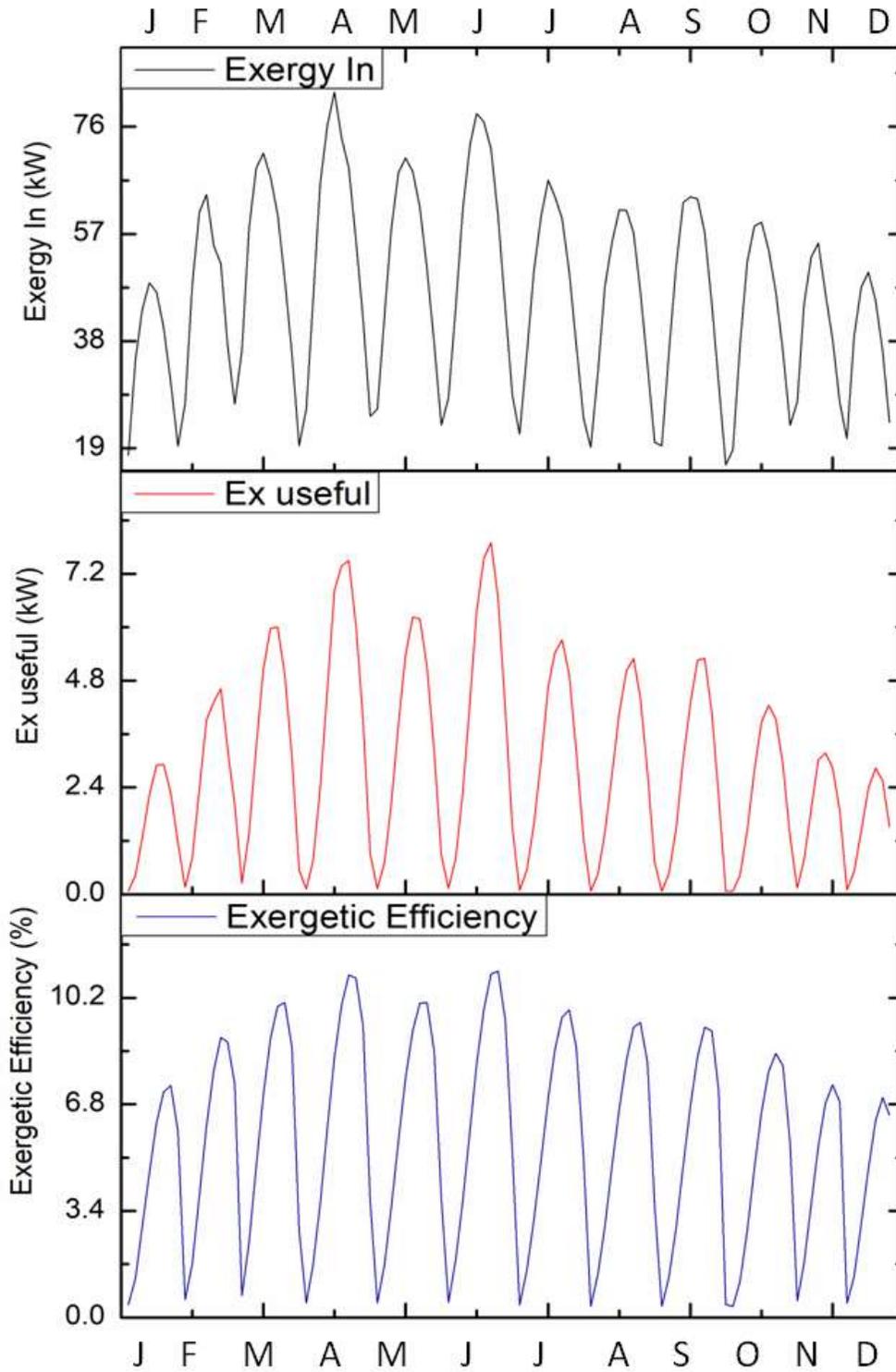
464 Figure 17 (a), (b), (c) and (d) manifests the exergy analysis consisting of three parameters as  
465 amount of exergy inlet, amount of useful exergy and exergetic efficiency for various months  
466 under the meteorological conditions of Barmer, Jodhpur, Jaisalmer and Jaipur respectively. The  
467 first part of the curves elucidates the exergy variation in other months. The maximum exergy in  
468 measured as 80.74 kW during May month. This curve also illustrates that the amount of exergy  
469 is higher in the summer season and lower in the winter season. It is mainly because of the higher  
470 solar radiation intensity in summers as compared to the winters. The second and third parts of  
471 these curves illustrate the behavior of exergy gain and exergetic efficiency for different specified  
472 locations during different months. The highest value of exergy gain is observed during April and  
473 June. It is observed as 7.50 kW for Jodhpur followed by 7.33, 7.17 and 7.09 kW for Barmer,  
474 Jaisalmer and Jaipur respectively during May. The exergetic efficiency is observed as 10.57%  
475 for Barmer during May. Since the amount of exergy useful is higher and subsequently exergetic  
476 efficiency is also higher. The highest exergetic efficiency is again recorded for Jodhpur as 11.  
477 05% during June. The highest exergetic efficiency for Jaisalmer and Jaipur is recorded as 10.58  
478 and 10.55% respectively.



479

480

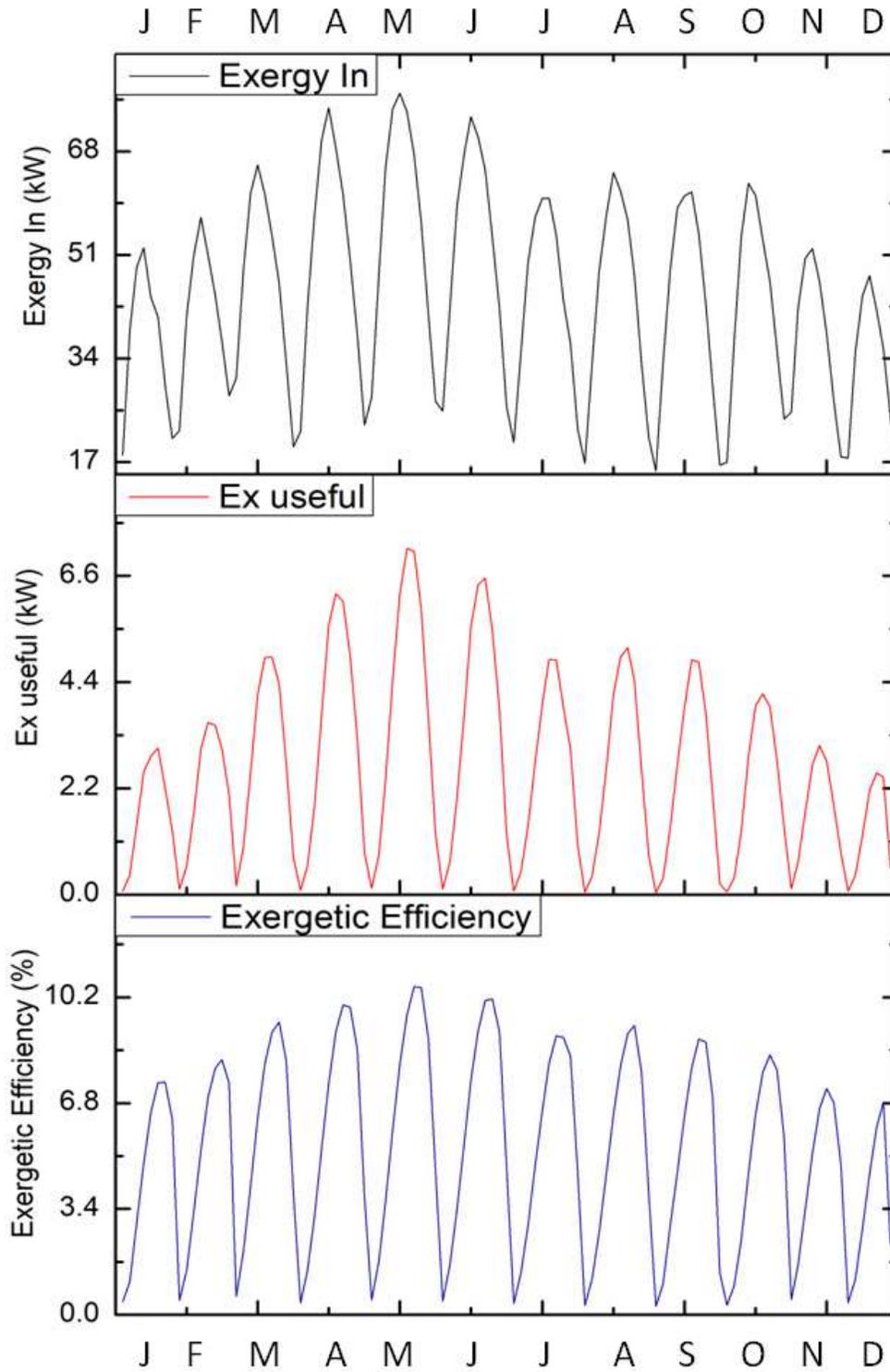
(a)



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482

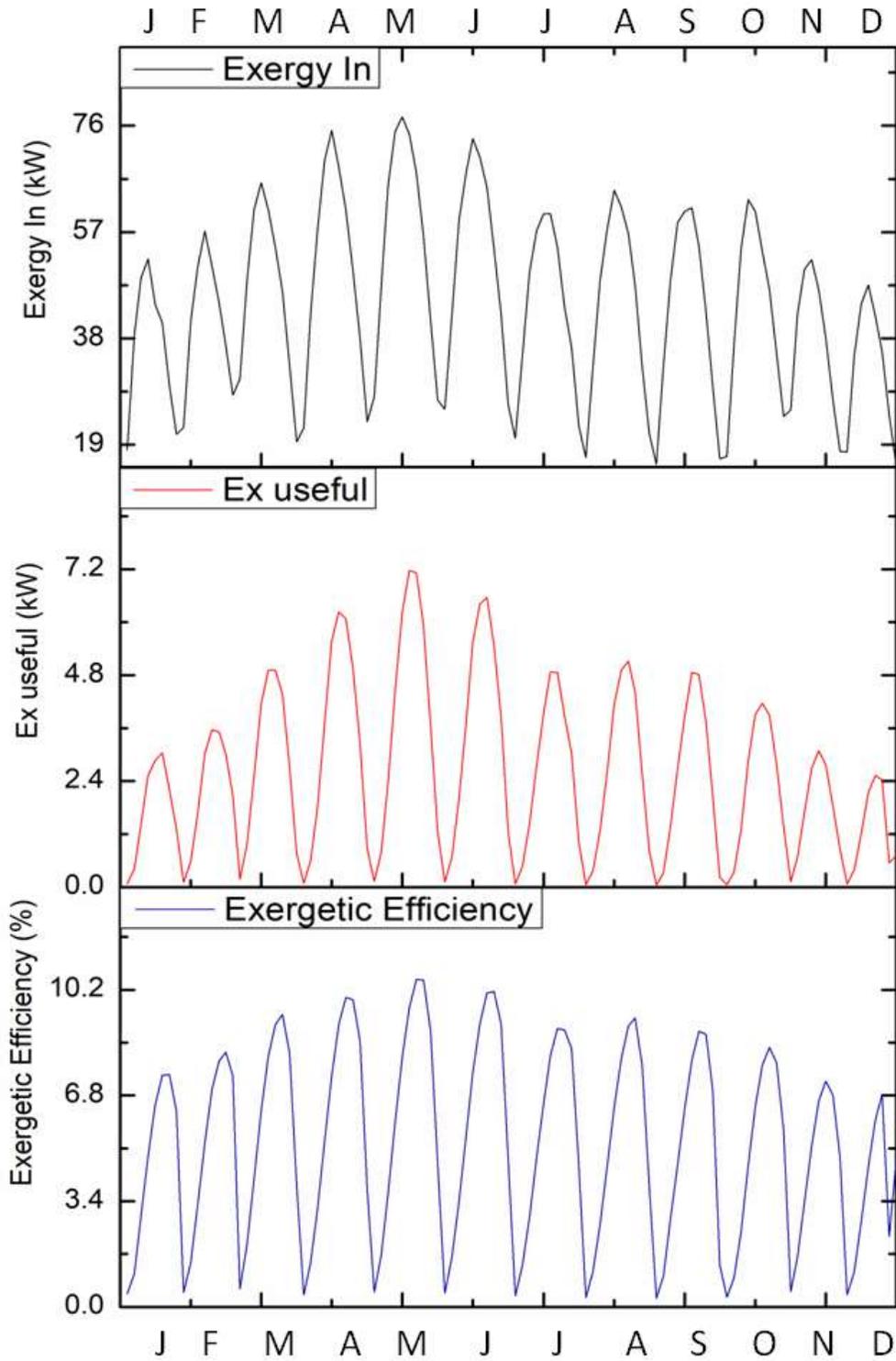
(b)



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484

(c)



(d)

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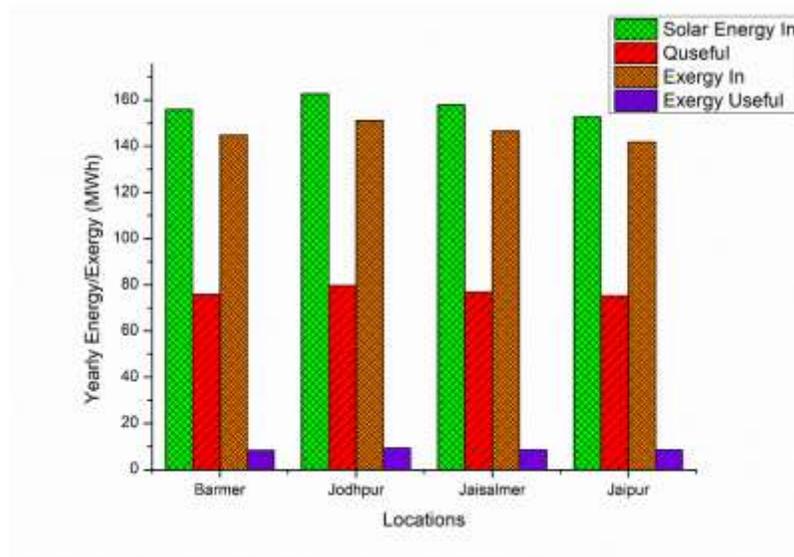
486

487 Figure 17 Parameters indicating Exergy Analysis under meteorological condition of (a) Barmer

488

(b) Jodhpur (c) Jaisalmer (d) Jaipur

489 However, a comparison is essential to discuss site selection to indicate the annual useful heat  
 490 gain and useful exergy gain for all specified locations. Figure 18 shows the comparison of solar  
 491 energy received by the ET-CPC solar field, useful heat gain, exergy inlet and exergy gain annual  
 492 for the specified locations Barmer, Jodhpur, Jaipur and Jaisalmer. As observed Jodhpur is having  
 493 the most excellent solar radiation 162 MWh/year and thus highest annual useful energy and  
 494 exergy gain as reported to be 79.72 MWh and 9.311 MWh annually. Jaisalmer receives 157.85  
 495 MWh of solar radiation per year which is getting converted to 76.90 MWh/year of useful heat  
 496 gain. Exergy gain calculated for Jaisalmer is 8.53 MWh concerning inlet Exergy of 146.63 MWh  
 497 per year. Similarly for useful heat gain is as 75.92 and 75.32 MWh/year for Barmer and Jaipur  
 498 respectively. Exergy gain for Barmer and Jaipur is calculated as 8.4 and 8.32 MWh/year  
 499 respectively.



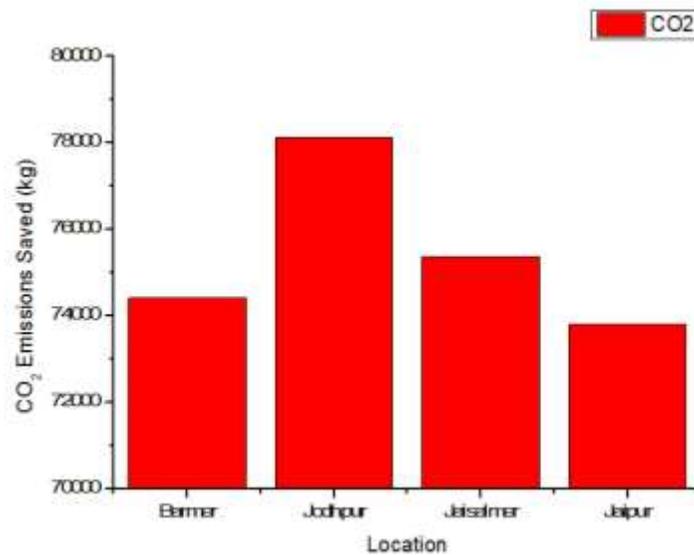
500

501 Figure 18 Solar energy-exergy graph comparison for four different meteorological condition

#### 502 4.4 Environmental Impact Analysis

503 The use of solar energy is always helpful to overcome CO<sub>2</sub> emission-related environmental  
 504 impact issues such as global warming, smog, acid rain and rise in mean global ambient

505 temperature. This analysis reports the massive savings of CO<sub>2</sub> emission compared to the other  
 506 existing conventional solar water heating systems. Figure 19 represents the CO<sub>2</sub> emission saved  
 507 in kg of CO<sub>2</sub> for various identified locations.



508  
 509 Figure 19 Comparison of CO<sub>2</sub> emission saved with the use of solar energy for identified  
 510 locations

511 **4.5 Economic Analysis**

512 As discussed earlier, economic analysis is quite an essential to compare different existing  
 513 technologies based on profitability. A detailed economic analysis has been reported here to  
 514 understand the effect of location on cost recovery and other indicators of economic profitability.  
 515 There are five conventional fuels-based water heating systems for the economic comparison with  
 516 the existing solar water heating system. Table 7 shows the different fuels used for water heating  
 517 and their corresponding price, conversion efficiency and calorific value of fuels.

518 Table 7 Comparison of price, conversion efficiency and calorific values for various fuels

Sr. No.	Fuel	Units	Price	Conversion Efficiency	CV Fuel (MJ/kg)
1	Electricity	per kWh	9.84	0.9	3.6 (MJ/unit)
2	LPG	per kg	86.34	0.6	55

<b>3</b>	Karosene	per kg	67.68	0.4	45
<b>4</b>	Fuelwood	per kg	10	0.25	22
<b>5</b>	Natural gas	per kg	34.2	0.6	50

519 Table 8 shows the installation cost or first cost of the different water heating systems. It can be  
520 easily identified that the first cost of a solar water heating system is significantly higher than  
521 those of other systems. Table 9 reports the annual operation and maintenance cost of various  
522 fuels while Table 10 shows the estimated life expectancy of the selected systems. Economic  
523 evaluation is done based on equations reported in Table 6. Table 11 describes the internal rate of  
524 return and payback periods. The internal rate of return is 16.82% for Jodhpur followed by 16.77,  
525 16.76 and 16.75 for Jaipur, Barmer and Jaisalmer respectively. Similarly simple payback period  
526 is 4.49, 4.65, 4.72 and 4.75 years for Jodhpur, Jaipur, Barmer and Jaisalmer respectively. The  
527 discounted payback period is also calculated which is ranging from 6.6 to 7.09 years similarly  
528 for identified locations.

529 Table 8 Comparison of First Cost for various water heating systems

<b>System</b>	<b>First Cost in INR</b>
<b>ET-CPC Solar Water Heating</b>	947520
<b>Electricity based Water Heater</b>	250000
<b>LPG/Kerosene/CNG operated water heaters</b>	226762
<b>Firewood operated water heater</b>	250000

530

531 Table 9 O&M cost for various locations for different fuels

<b>Sr. No.</b>	<b>Fuel</b>	<b>Units</b>	<b>Price</b>	<b>Conversion Efficiency</b>	<b>CV Fuel (MJ/kg)</b>	<b>O&amp;M Cost (INR)</b>			
						<b>Barmer</b>	<b>Jodhpur</b>	<b>Jaipur</b>	<b>Jaisalmer</b>
<b>1</b>	Electricity	per	9.84	0.9	3.6	830043	871598	873202	823490

	unit		(MJ/unit)						
2	LPG	per kg	86.34	0.6	55	715074.16	750875.4	724408.3	709432.2
3	Kerosene	per kg	67.68	0.4	45	1027639.6	1079090	1041054	1019532
4	Fuelwood	per kg	10	0.25	22	496924.36	521803.6	503410.9	493003.6
5	Natural gas	per kg	34.2	0.6	50	311571.58	327170.9	315638.6	309113.3

532

533

Table 10 Life expectancy of equipment

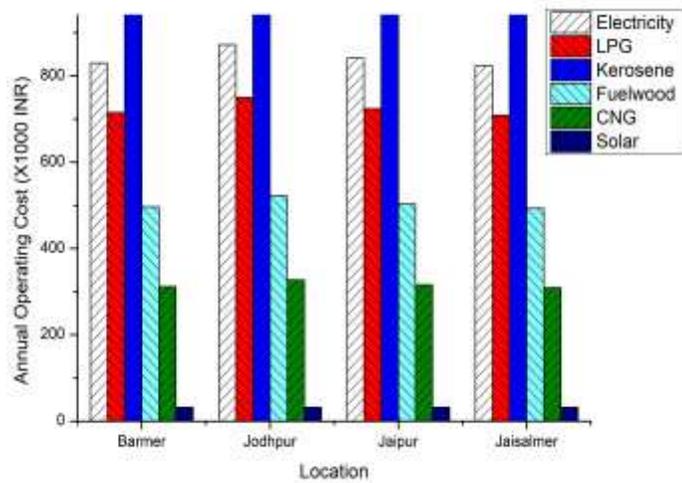
<b>Expected Life (Solar System)</b>	<b>15 years</b>
<b>Expected Life (Electricity heating system)</b>	15 years
<b>Expected Life (LPG/CNG/Kerosene fired heating system)</b>	15 years
<b>Discount Rate</b>	6% annual

534

535 Table 11 Comparison of IRR and payback periods for identified locations for solar water heating  
536 system

	<b>IRR (%)</b>	<b>SPBP (Yr)</b>	<b>DPBP (Yr)</b>
<b>Barmer</b>	16.76	4.7169	7.024
<b>Jodhpur</b>	16.82	4.492	6.615
<b>Jaipur</b>	16.77	4.656	6.912
<b>Jaisalmer</b>	16.75	4.7543	7.093

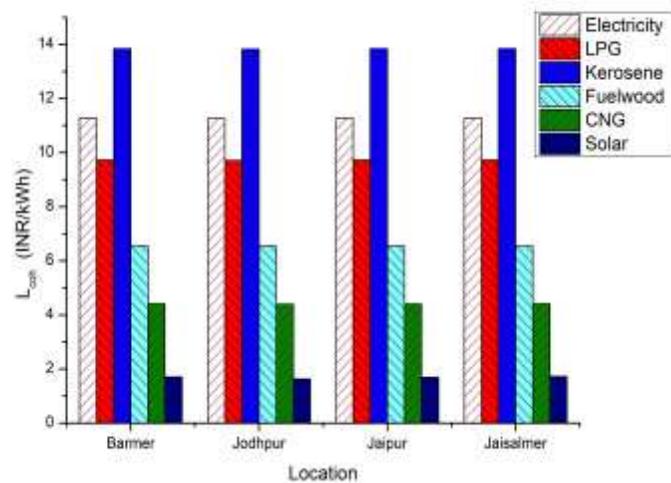
537 A comparison of operation and maintenance costs has been presented in Figure 20. The kerosene  
538 fuel-operated water heating system shows the highest cost of operation and maintenance,  
539 followed by Electricity and LPG. This can be seen that solar energy is having significantly less  
540 operation and maintenance costs as compared to that of other conventional fuels reported.



541

542 Figure 20 Comparison of Annual O&M cost for various fuels used for domestic water heating  
543 system

544



545

546 Figure 21 Comparison of Levelized cost of Heating for various fuels for identified locations

547 Levelized cost of Heating is essentially a significant indicator to compare overall cost per unit

548 kWh of Heating. It can be seen from Figure 21, LCOH is significantly less in the case of ET-

549 CPC solar water heating system ranging from 1.65 INR/kWh to 1.72 INR/kWh followed by

550 Kerosene (13.83 INR/kWh) and Electricity (11.25 INR/kWh). SPBP and DPBP are calculated as

551 4.5-4.75 year and 6.6-7 year respectively taking a discount rate of 6%. The internal rate of return  
552 is reported to be 16.76, 16.82, 16.77 and 16.75% for Barmer, Jodhpur, Jaipur and Jaisalmer  
553 respectively which proved that it is a very profitable business model, refer to Table 11.

## 554 **5. Conclusion**

555 An SDWH powered by an 81 m<sup>2</sup> ET-CPC solar collector field is reported in presented here.  
556 Energy, exergy, environmental and economic analysis is carried out. The following points are  
557 drawn as the conclusion of this work.

- 558 • The developed model results are validated with the experimental results and relative  
559 differences are ranged from 3 to 8%.
- 560 • Parametric analysis shows that with the increase in mass flow rate ranging from 0.0132 to  
561 0.0357 kg/s, there is simultaneous improvement in the useful heat gain and instantaneous  
562 efficiency of ET-CPCs. However, there is a drop in the useful heat gain and instantaneous  
563 efficiency with an increase in the inlet temperature which ranged from 30-90°C.
- 564 • Effect of solar radiation intensity ranging from 200 – 1000 W/m<sup>2</sup> has been reported for  
565 various inlet temperatures to evaluate and compare the useful heat gain and instantaneous  
566 efficiency of ET-CPC solar field.
- 567 • It has also been reported that there is no significant effect of ambient temperature over  
568 the useful heat gain and efficiency.
- 569 • The analytical model is then implemented under meteorological conditions of four  
570 specified locations (Barmer, Jodhpur, Jaisalmer and Jaipur), then annual energy and  
571 exergy gain have been evaluated and compared. Jodhpur is receiving the most excellent

572 solar radiation and thus highest annual useful energy and exergy gain have been reported  
573 to be 79.72 MWh and 9.311 MWh followed by Jaisalmer, Barmer and Jaipur.

574 • The economic analysis reports the simple payback period ranging from 4.5 to 4.75 years  
575 and discounted payback period ranging from 6.6 to 7 years based on a 6% discount rate.

576 • Along with this, based on levelized cost of heating using solar energy as fuel is ranging  
577 from 1.62 to 1.72 INR/kWh of heat compared to closest with the use of CNG as fuel  
578 which is ranging from 4.39 to 4.41 INR/kWh.

579 • The highest LCOH has been reported for electricity for domestic water heating which  
580 ranged from 11.25 to 11.27 INR/kWh.

581 • The internal rate of return is reported to be 16.76, 16.82, 16.77 and 16.75% for Barmer,  
582 Jodhpur, Jaipur and Jaisalmer respectively which proved that it is a very profitable  
583 business model.

584 • The environmental analysis also supports the previous trends and report 74400, 78125,  
585 75371 and 73813 kg of CO<sub>2</sub> saved which anyway got added to the environment if the  
586 electricity was used for the same purpose.

587 Hence it can be recommended that ET-CPC is a viable, economical and pollution-free alternative  
588 to meet the medium temperature heat demand such as in solar water heating systems for  
589 domestic and community use. ET-CPC operation is not possible during weak sunshine (<200  
590 W/m<sup>2</sup>) hours and technology advancement is needed in this direction. The use of nanofluids as a  
591 working fluid is reported to be advantageous to improve the productivity and performance of the  
592 ET-CPC further but insufficient data is there and that also reports operational issues. Research  
593 could be made to find the optimal configuration of nanofluids to offer less/no operational issues

594 and optimal performance. Further, ET-CPC life cycle cost assessment could be worked out to  
595 understand the overall impact on nature.

596 *-Ethical Approval*

597 We confirm that this work has not been published elsewhere, nor it is currently under  
598 consideration for publication elsewhere.

599 *-Consent to Participate*

600 Authors give their consent to participate.

601 *-Consent to Publish*

602 We consent it to publish in the Environmental Science and Pollution Research after acceptance.

603 *-Authors Contributions*

604 Dinesh Kumar Sharma is a corresponding of this manuscript. He has involved in the  
605 development of entire manuscript.

606 Prof. Dilip Sharma has involved in the conceptualization of this research and reviewed the  
607 technical details of the manuscript.

608 Prof. Ahmed Hamza H Ali has involved in the conceptualization and reviewed the language and  
609 grammar of the manuscript.

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612 *-Competing Interests*

613 Authors have no conflict of interest to disclose.

614 *-Availability of data and materials*

615 Calculations data and other relevant material would be made available to editor/reviewer as and  
616 when required.

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