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Optimal design of grid-connected rooftop PV systems: An overview and a new approach with application to educational buildings in arid climates

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To my dear the Editor-in-Chief of the Journal:

The authors wish to submit a new manuscript entitled **“Optimal design of grid-connected rooftop PV systems: An overview and a new approach with application to educational buildings in arid climates”**

We would like to have the manuscript considered for publication in *Sustainable Energy Technologies and Assessments Journal*.

The authors are confirming that this work is an original and has not been published elsewhere nor is it currently under consideration for publication elsewhere.

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Thank you for receiving our manuscript and considering it for review. We appreciate your time and looking forward to your response.

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Highlights

- A robust design of a grid-connected rooftop PV system is performed.
- The impacts of key parameters on economic performance are investigated.
- Comparison between incentive policies is discussed.
- Sensitivity analysis on FIT and components' costs is investigated.



1 **Optimal design of grid-connected rooftop PV systems: An**
2 **overview and a new approach with application to educa-**
3 **tional buildings in arid climates**
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Optimal design of grid-connected rooftop PV systems: An overview and a new approach with application to educational buildings in arid climates

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ABSTRACT

Recently, rooftop photovoltaic (PV) systems are widely deployed due to their technical, economic and socio-environmental benefits. This paper presents a new design approach, which combines spatial analysis with techno-economic optimization for a robust design and evaluation of the technical and economic potential of grid-connected rooftop PV (GCR-PV) systems, focusing on educational buildings in arid environments. A university campus in Ouargla province in Algeria is selected as a test-bed in this work. The main objectives of this work are to reduce the cost of energy (COE), grid dependency and CO₂ emissions, and even contribute to limit grid blackouts in the building location. Ecotect software, ArcGIS, and HOMER optimizer were therefore used to achieve the contributions of this work. The findings reveal that 60 % of the overall roof area is optimally suitable for hosting PV panels. Considering only this optimal area, multi-crystalline PV panels with an inclination of 17 ° yield the highest annual electricity output (2333.11 MWh/year). Based on this configuration, a sensitivity analysis is then performed to study the effects of feed-in tariffs (FITs) and the cost of components in the system outcomes. It is observed that with FITs less than those applied to large-scale PV projects in Algeria (0.11 \$/kWh), the analyzed GCR-PV system has fulfilled high self-sufficiency, reaching grid parity (COE 0.043 \$/kWh) and exporting significant amounts of electricity to the grid. Accordingly, the feasibility of the developed approach and the techno-economic viability of the GCR-PV system are both demonstrated.

Keywords: Grid-connected PV Systems; Rooftop; Optimal Design; Multi-criteria Decision Making; Geographical Information System; Techno-economic Assessment.

Abbreviations

AC	Alternative current
CAD	computer-aided design
CO ₂	Carbon dioxide
COE	Cost of electricity
C _T	Investment costs
DC	Direct current
FIT	Feed-in tariffs
FS	First solar company
FS	First Solar Company
GCR-PV	Grid-connected rooftop PV
GIS	Geographical information system
HRES	hybrid renewable energy system
HVAC	Heat ventilation and air conditioning
LiDAR	Light (Laser Imaging) Detection And Ranging
MOPSO	multi-objective particle swarm optimization
PV	Photovoltaic
SC	Self-consumption
S _{PV}	Net savings with PV only
S _{PV-BS}	Net savings with PV and Battery
TS	Trina solar company
TS	Trina Solar Company
USA	United States of America
WT	Wind turbine

1. Introduction

1.1. Background and motivation

Today, buildings use more than 40 % of the global generated energy [1]. In Algeria, in specific in last decade, the electricity demand of the building sector has been increased rapidly, by 8.3 % annually, which makes this sector account for 43% of total electricity consumption [2]. The main reasons are the rapid growth of consumers, whose total number has exceeded 9.6 million by 2018[3]. Besides, as 97 % of the generated electricity is derived from natural gas (fossil fuel) [4], buildings responsible for a high fraction of CO₂ emissions. The Algerian Government must therefore act quickly in order to face up to the coming technical, economic and environmental challenges, in particular to guarantee the necessary demand for electricity and to prevent a power outage[5] specifically in arid environments where the strong use of air conditioners in very hot periods in Summer [6]. In the meantime, they will save their fossil fuel reserves and reduce their carbon footprint. With a rapid decrease in the cost of PV modules [7] versus an increase in their efficiency[8] and assuming that 99 % of Algerian buildings have been connected to the grid [9], grid-connected rooftop PV (GCR-PV) systems could be the key solution for sustainable energy transition in the country. However, the optimal design of such systems is a major challenge, especially for existing buildings that did not consider the integration of renewable based-supply systems in their first stage of design.

1.2. Bibliometric analysis of GCR-PV systems

In this paper, a Bibliometric analysis is first carried out on the design optimization of GCR-PV systems. Such a type of analysis is not used before by researchers in this field of research. The authors have done this research on the Elsevier Database (the only free source available to authors) by introducing three keywords (Grid connected PV system, rooftop and optimal design). After the research has been completed, 930 papers, including original and review papers, have been found. However, after doing filtering (after reading their titles and abstract), only 120 papers are selected and exported to the VOS viewer and Gephi software as RIS format for performing the analysis. It is observed that most papers have been published in the journal Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews (26), followed by Renewable Energy (20), Solar Energy (18), Applied Energy (12) and Energy (10). In addition, only three papers are published before 2010 and 95 of them after 2015. The maps obtained from the VOS viewer are given in Fig.1 and Fig.2.

1 Thailand, and India). Besides, recently (from 2018), there is a transition from feed-in tariffs policy (that is firstly
2 applied in some developed countries as Germany) to self-consumption schemes (as in Pakistan) by using battery
3 storage. Hence, after reading the most important papers accordingly, the literature review section is developed to
4 point the reader gradually to the main research gap.

5 **1.3.Literature review on GCR-PV systems' design**

6 **1.3.1.Technical potential assessment of GCR-PV systems**

7 The technical potential assessment of GCR-PV systems involves, in particular, the selection of suitable roof-
8 ing areas for PV panel mounting and then the improvement of the PV system energy output [10]. The majority of
9 recent works are dedicated to the implementation of rooftop PV systems on a city level (also called solar cities)
10 rather than for an individual building. A review of the concept of solar cities and techniques used for assessing
11 roof solar potential in cities is given [11]. For instance, the Light Detection and Ranging data (LiDAR) is used
12 in[12,13] to estimate the technical potential of a roof-mounted PV system in urban areas. Similar work is carried
13 out in[14–16], but geographic information systems (GIS) based-approaches are used instead of LiDAR. As an
14 alternative to costly LiDAR methods, alternative methods for estimating the performance of roof-mounted PV
15 installations is proposed in [17,18]. Contrary, in [19], both GIS and LiDAR data are used in combination. It is
16 concluded in some previous works as in [20] that estimating the potential of a rooftop PV system within a city
17 level is necessary to make best decisions in primary design stages. However, accurate estimations cannot be at-
18 tained without making deep analysis at each type of building separately. In this context, the performance of the
19 building- PV roofing system located in Italy is carried out in[21]. The design optimization of rooftop PV installa-
20 tion at existing building is carried out in [22], considering shading effects and PV module's orientation. The
21 authors in [23] examined the technical performance of roof-mounted PV systems for school buildings in Kuwait.
22 Besides, the economic analysis of a solar PV system at residential buildings roofs is undertaken in[24]. A GIS-
23 based optimization approach is proposed in [25] to optimally design of a rooftop PV system for a campus building.
24 Similarly, the potential evaluation of a GCR-PV system for a University building is carried out by [26].

25 **1.3.2.Economic potential assessment of GCR-PV systems**

26 The economic potential assessment includes the determination of the size of the PV system, evaluate its en-
27 ergy costs and compare it to conventional sources, investigating local incentives (grid purchase and sell back
28 costs, interest rates), etc. [10]. Until now, there have been different incentive policies adopted in many countries
29 to promote GCR-PV systems, such as feed-in tariffs (FIT) and self-consumption (SC). Under the FIT policy that
30 is mostly adopted in case of low electricity purchase rates, the consumers intend to reach grid parity and feed
31 maximum surplus electricity into the grid [27]. Overview of rooftop residential installations with performance
32 assessment of a GCR-PV system at a Palestinian residence case study is performed in [28]. In [29] the PV-battery
33 system for an Australian residential home was economically assessed under the FIT policy. Similarly, the eco-
34 nomic feasibility study of grid-connected GCR-PVs for residences with FIT policy is performed in [30] using
35 HOMER software. The research conducted in [31]explores how FITs affect GCR-PV systems in Australian's
36 buildings. The study of [32] investigated the techno-economic viability of GCR-PV systems for residential build-
37 ings in Thailand considering different incentives schemes. In [33], a techno-economic analysis was carried out for
38 optimal design of a PV system considering Net Metering and FIT support mechanisms. In [34], the viability study
39 of a rooftop PV system at a case study Mosque in KSA is carried out considering a FIT scheme. Recently, due to
40 the increasing prices of electricity purchase rates in some countries, SC policies gained an increased interest
41 [35,36]. In this case, we would have a Prosumers, which consume the maximum of their onsite produced electric-
42 ity by GCR-PV and then feed excess electricity back to the grid [37]. Authors in [38] studied the feasibility of
43 Prosumers with rooftop PV systems up to 2050. Meanwhile, [36] analyses the economic feasibility of electricity
44 SC of the GCR-PV system in Thailand for different customers. The economic assessment of residential GCR-PV
45 SC with batteries in French case until 2030 is investigated in [39]. A techno-economic feasibility analysis of three
46 small GCR-PV SC systems located in different cities of Peru is undertaken in [40]. The technical and economic
47 feasibility study of a rooftop PV system under the SC-policy for different building categories is investigated in
48 [41]. Thermo-economic study of grid-connected rooftop photovoltaic systems for residential sector is performed
49 in [42].

50 From the above literature, it is observed that the performance of GCR-PV systems can be influenced by many
51 factors, including spatial factors (available area, shape, slope, and direction of rooftops, shading over roofs and
52 between rows [43–45]), environment parameters (including solar radiation, wind speed, ambient temperature, and
53 dust) and technical factors (the setting of PV rows, including their inclination angle, orientation, and arrange-
54 ments). Also, selecting the PV technology, thin-film or crystalline silicon modules [8,46–48] has a significant
55 effect on the performance of GCR-PV systems. The robust configuration of these systems is indeed important to
56 achieve high reliability and minimize energy costs. Outside of this, none research is conducted in our knowledge
57 to evaluate both the technical and economic potential of GCR-PV systems for non-residential buildings. Further,

1 many factors that could affect the performance of GCR-PV systems are not taken into account in their analysis.
 2 Moreover, the majority of papers are performed at a city-scale rather than at the building level. In which, GIS
 3 tools and LiDAR data based approaches [49] are mostly used. However, carry out of spatial analysis on 3D build-
 4 ings is difficult if using only GIS tools. Besides, LiDAR data are unavailable for many countries. Hence, the
 5 combination of GIS tools with CAD software [50] is suggested in such cases. On the other side, the economic
 6 assessment of GCR-PV systems is mostly performed for residential buildings. However, GCR-PV systems for
 7 residential consumers was found costly unattractive for developing countries (like Algeria) [51], because of many
 8 barriers, mainly, the high capital cost of small scale PV systems (less than 10 kW) [52], low retail prices and lack
 9 of FITs for small scale systems. Besides that, as residential buildings use more electricity outside of PV output
 10 periods, a large size of batteries that still very cost [53,54] is needed to enhance their SC [55]. Thus, more re-
 11 searches to foster deployment of GCR-PV systems should be conducted.

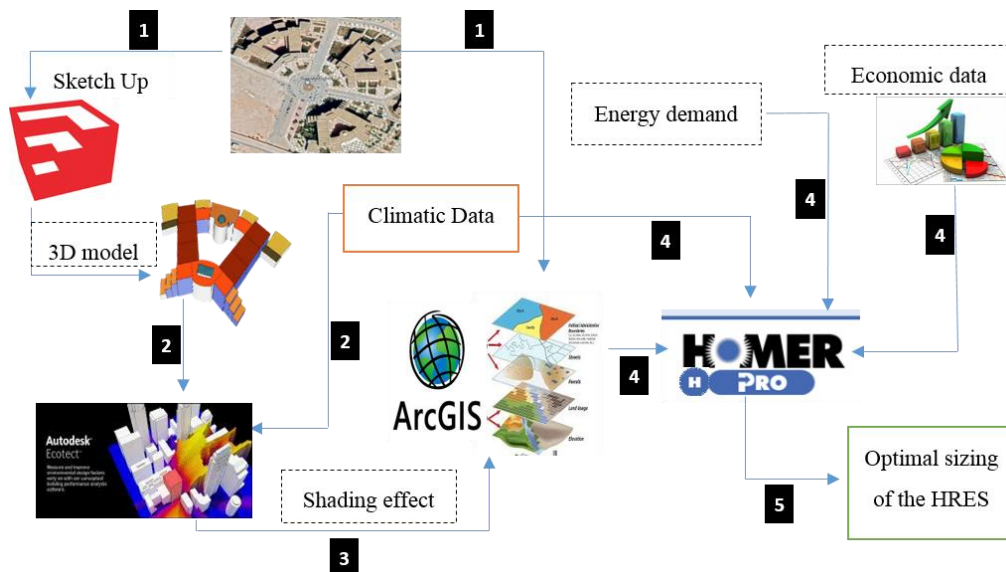
12 1.4. Novelty and contributions

13 This research article presents a new approach to the optimal design and the techno-economic potential assess-
 14 ment of GCR-PV systems for education buildings in arid climates, choosing a university campus in Algeria as a
 15 test-bed. The novelty of this work is the combination of spatial analyses with the technical-economic assessment
 16 to make the best decisions. Besides, this work is the first to make Bibliometric analysis and undertaken a sensi-
 17 tivity study to determine appropriate FITs for commercial-scale PV systems in Algeria. Minimizing the overall
 18 system cost, reaching grid parity, reduce power from the grid as well as CO₂ emissions, and the contribution of
 19 the studied building on limiting power blackouts in the location area during peak periods (Summer) are all inves-
 20 tigated. Hence, this study has the following contributions:

- 21 1) Identify feasible rooftop zones for hosting PV panels.
- 22 2) Determine the best PV technologies for the building based on the simulation results.
- 23 3) Techno-economic feasibility assessment of the grid-connected PV system with sensitivity analysis on
 24 FIT and components' costs.
- 25 4) Determine the required incentive policies to promote GCR-PV systems in Algeria.

26 2. Methodology and case study inputs

27 In this study, a new approach is developed for the optimal design of a GCR-PV system for a university campus
 28 in Ouargla, Algeria. First, a map of the building (from Google-Earth) is exported, separately, to ArcGIS to perform
 29 spatial analysis, and to sketch up to create a 3D model of the building. Based on the developed 3D model, Ecotect
 30 software is used to evaluate shading effects and sunlight hours at each rooftop's zone for a one-year simulation.
 31 Hence, based on multi-criteria decision-making analysis carried out on ArcGIS software [56], the best zones for
 32 hosting PV panels are identified. Thus, the optimal PV system's configuration among various candidates is deter-
 33 mined. Finally, the optimal sizing and techno-economic assessment of the GCR-PV system is performed using
 34 HOMER. Fig.3 shows the flow chart of the proposed approach.



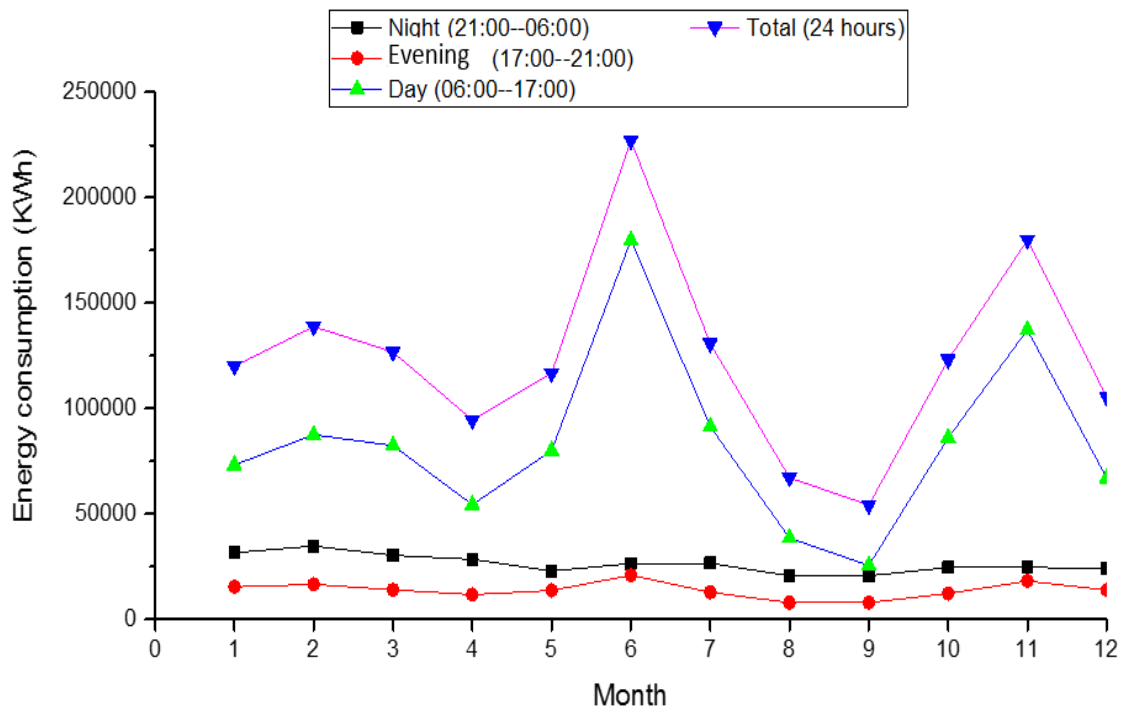
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 36 **Fig. 3** Flowchart of the proposed approach.

1 **2.1. Building description and climatic data**

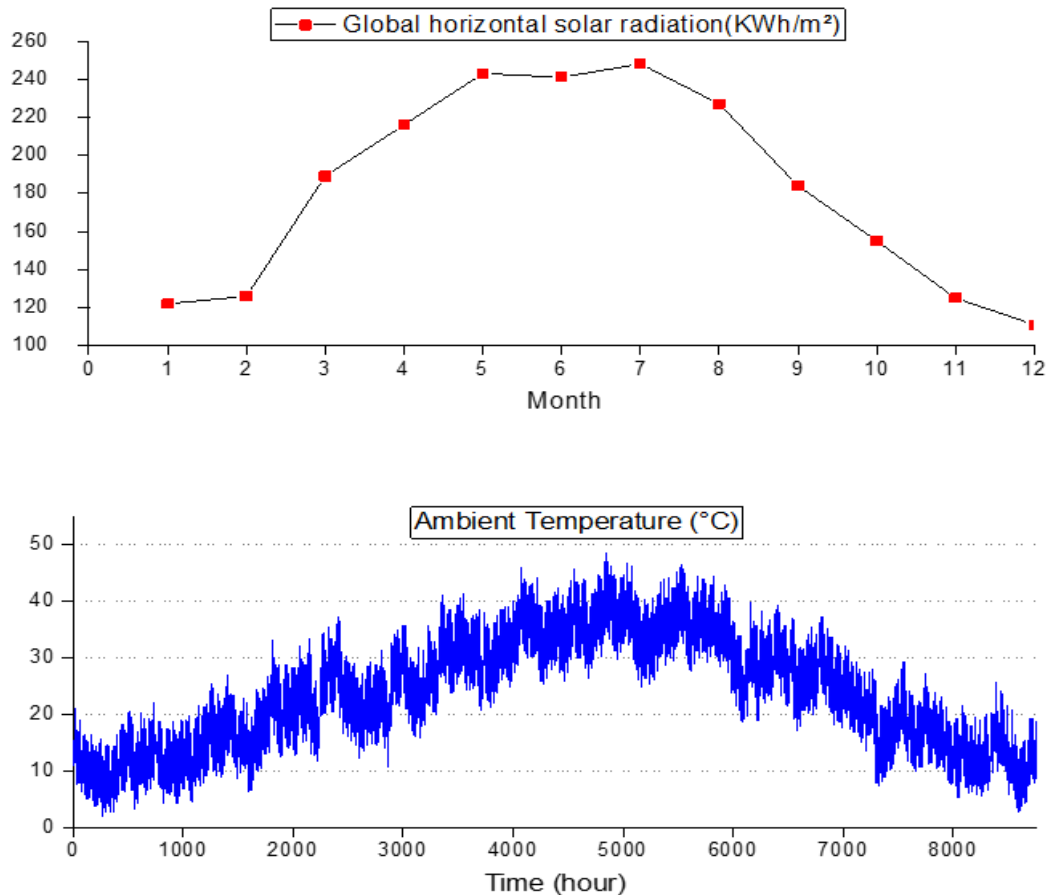
2 The education building under study (University campus) is located in an arid environment (hot dry climate),
3 in Ouargla, south-east of Algeria [57]. The building constitutes of three faculties and has a total roof area of 18209
4 m² and annual energy demand of 1487.35 MWh/year. Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 shows the map of the building (from
5 Google earth) and its load profile (as supplied by Sonelgas Company), respectively. The required climatic data
6 for the building are collected from Meteonorm 7 database. Fig.6 gives the daily global radiation and hourly ambient
7 temperature at Ouargla.



8
9 **Fig. 4** Map of the University campus (from Google earth)



10
11 **Fig. 5** Monthly load profile for the Building (from the Algerian electricity supplier, Sonelgas Company).



1
2 **Fig. 6** Climatic data at Ouargla, Algeria (Extracted from Meteonorm 7).

3 **2.2. Technical potential Assessment of the GCR-PV system**

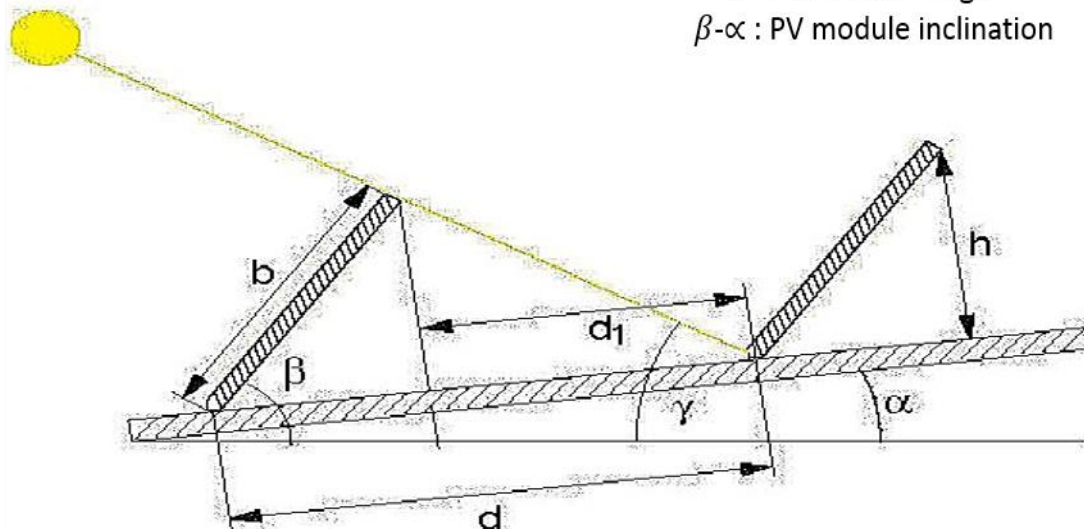
4 Solar potential represents the theoretical maximum amount of PV that can be deployed on the rooftop of
 5 buildings, which depends on different factors [58]. In the literature it is found that GIS and LiDAR methods are
 6 frequently used to assess the technical viability of city-level rooftop PV systems (macro scale), but CAD software
 7 are more effective in case of small spatial entities (building level) [59]. In addition, as many determining factors
 8 should be taken into account in the classification of spatial alternatives, a multi-criteria decision making (MCDM)
 9 analysis is often required to solve the problem. Hence, the combination of both tools, GIS and CAD software is a
 10 powerful technique to evaluate the technical potential of rooftop PV systems at building level, which is suggested
 11 in this work. The explanation for this developed approach is given as follows.

12 **2.2.1. Sunlight duration and shading effect assessment**

13 Owing to the existence of shading issue on building roofs, it is important to assess its impact on the availability
 14 of solar radiation in order to deduce the technical potential of rooftop PV systems [59]. Ecotect software that is
 15 mainly created for the design of zero energy buildings [59,60], it is used here to evaluate sunlight hours (i.e.
 16 number of hours when the zone is exposed to the sun) and exposer ratio (i.e. the percentage of maximum exposed
 17 area to the total area) at the building's roof for the whole year. For assessing these parameters, Ecotect is based
 18 on the created 3D model of the building (by Sketch up), solar radiation data and geographical information of the
 19 building. Besides, the inter rows shading effect is also evaluated in this work by calculating the minimum distance
 20 to avoid inter rows shading and to guarantee the ventilation (cooling) of the PV modules [61]. A simplified model
 21 based on PV module dimensions and sun height is used to evaluate the minimum distance, as shown in Fig. 7
 22 [62].

Sunlight

d_1 : inter rows distance
 b : PV module length
 $\beta - \alpha$: PV module inclination



1

2 **Fig. 7** Calculation of the minimum distance to avoid inter rows shading

3 **2.2.2. Identifying optimal rooftop zones**

4 Geographic information system software plays a key role in future analyses ; it enables us to monitor, evaluate
 5 and view the spatial distribution of all types of geographically referenced data [63]. ArcGIS software (V. 10.2)
 6 was used to select the best rooftop zones to install PV panels considering five evaluating criteria. Table 1 provides
 7 the description and weights of the five investigated criteria. After creating the raster maps of the five criteria, and
 8 based on their weights, a MCDM analysis [64] is performed using the Raster calculation toolbox on ArcGIS to
 9 solve the MCDM problem and hence classify and select best roof zones [65].

10 **Table 1**

11 Summary of evaluating criteria and their definition and weights.

Criteria	Definition	Weight (%)
Exposer Ratio	Is the ratio of the area exposed to the sun per entire area of the zone	30
Sunlight hours	Is the number of hours when the zone is exposed to sunlight	30
Shape Factor	Or architectural suitability of roof areas to install PV panels, which influenced by the shape of the zone, and what includes inside (Domes...)	20
Available Area	Is the area available for use in the zone	15
Wind speed intensity	Wind speed is needed for refreshing PV panels, as the performance of PV panels is reduced with high temperatures. As known, wind speed is a function of the zone's height.	5

12 **2.2.3. Select best configurations**

13 To select the best PV system installation, many factors are considered in this work, including PV panels'
 14 technology, the inclination angle of PV panels and the available area on the obtained optimal zone as found in the
 15 previous sub-section. Two different PV technologies are considered, multi-crystalline and CdTe thin-film mod-
 16 ules, as mentioned above. The second factor is the inclination angle of PV panels, in which, three inclination
 17 angles are considered: 17°, 47°, and 32°; these represent the optimum tilt angles (in which the highest energy can
 18 be produced by PV modules) at the studied location in the summer period, winter period, and the overall year,
 19 respectively. The last parameter is the total area of the obtained optimal zone, which only considered for hosting
 20 PV panels. Hence, the maximum allowed capacity that can be installed in the obtained optimal zone is determined
 21 for each configuration. Finally, the best installation for the PV system (That yields to the highest annual energy
 22 produced) is determined.

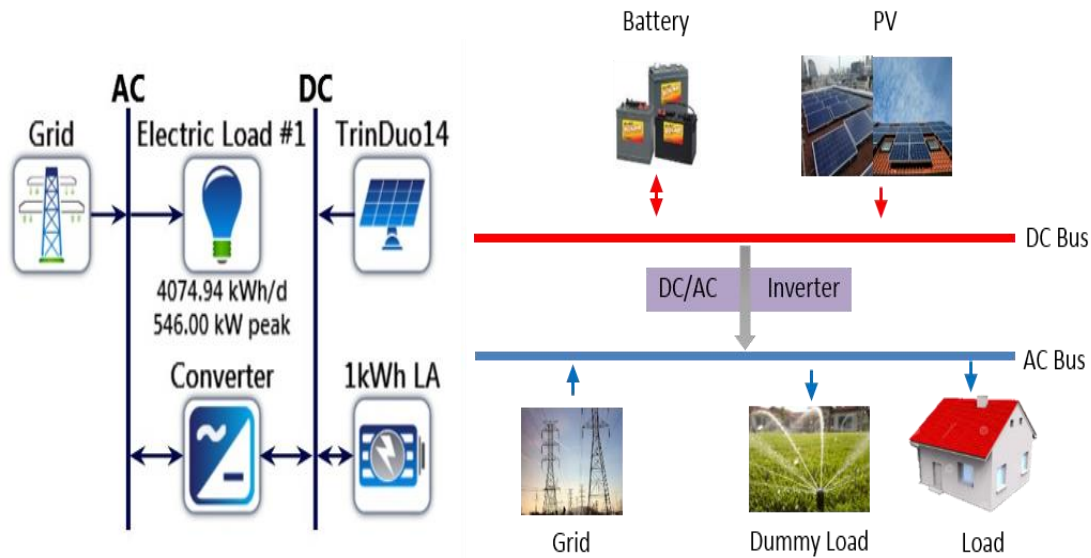
1 **2.3.Economic potential assessment of the GCR-PV system**

2 **2.3.1.HOMER simulation**

3 HOMER is a powerful tool developed for optimizing energy supply systems design in all sectors and for both
4 off-grid and grid-connected applications [66–68] by determining the optimal size of components through carrying
5 out the techno-economic analysis. HOMER performs the calculations according to three levels [69], starts by
6 simulating energy systems, shows system configurations optimized by cost, and provides sensitivity analyses.

7 **2.3.2.Simulation of the GCR-PV system in HOMER**

8 The investigated GCR-PV system as shown in Fig. 8, includes PV modules, battery, electricity grid, and an
9 inverter which is designed using HOMER to meet the electricity demand of a University campus.



10

11 **Fig. 8** Schematic of the GCR-PV system.

12 In this work, the system is simulated and optimized based on the parameters of the case study building, and
13 based on the results of previous sections. Here, the system was evaluated based on many technical, economic and
14 environmental criteria. Besides that, a sensitivity analysis was carried out on components costs and electricity sell
15 price to study their effect on system feasibility and the achievement of grid parity. The main steps of the techno-
16 economic assessment of the system under study in this work are presented in Fig. 9.

17

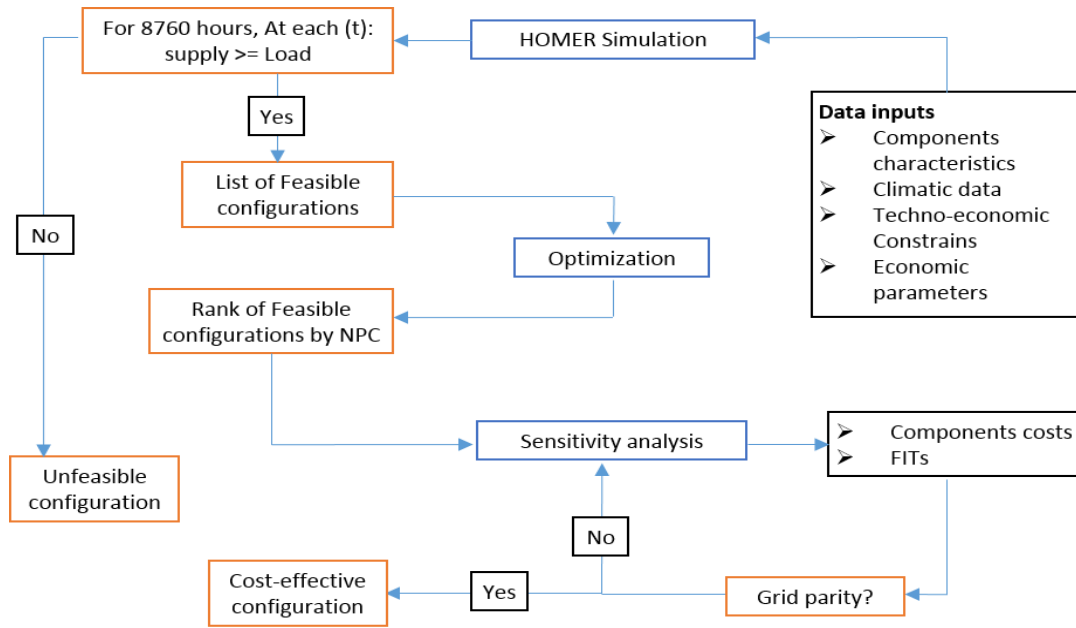


Fig. 9 Main steps of the applied strategy for techno-economic assessment of the Grid-connected PV system.

As mentioned before, only the best PV system (i.e. ranked first) from the discussed configurations, is considered for this analysis. Three, different scenarios are investigated to achieve the objectives of this work. To control the energy flows between systems components and organize the operation between them, the Load following (LF) dispatch control strategy was used in this work. Under the LF control strategy, supply sources, including storage components, are required to generate sufficient energy to meet the required demand at the lowest possible cost. Within this dispatch strategy, the PV system can export excess electricity to the grid if it is financially beneficial.

The description and modelling of the evaluating criteria and system components are provided in following parts.

2.4.Components modelling

2.4.1.Solar PV

The electric output power of the PV module is evaluated using eq.1 as follows [70].

$$P_{pv} = P_{Npv} \times \frac{G}{G_{STC}} \times \left[1 + K_t \times \left(\left[T_{amb} + \frac{NOCT-20}{800} \right] \times G - T_{STC} \right) \right] \quad (1)$$

where P_{pv} and P_{Npv} are the output power and rated power of PV module respectively, G and T_{amb} are the solar radiation and ambient temperature at a time step of the simulation, G_{ref} (1 kW/m^2) and T_{ref} (25°C) are solar radiation and ambient temperature at standard conditions, K_t is the temperature coefficient of power which depends on PV's panel technology, and NOCT (nominal operation cell temperature). Two different technologies are considered including thin-film modules of First-Solar (FS) and multi-crystalline modules of Trina-Solar (TS). These two technologies are provided by manufacturers listed on the top ten PV manufacturers in the world [8]. The characteristics of the selected PV modules are given in Table 2.

Table 2

The manufacturer's datasheet of selected modules.

Manufacturer	Trina Solar (TS)	First Solar (FS)
Model	DuoMax PEG14-320	FS-4107A-2
Technology	Multi-crystalline	CdTe
Efficiency (%)	16,3	14,9
Nominal Power (Wp)	320	107,5
Temperature coefficient of Power (%/°C)	-0,41	-0,34
Length (m)	1,96	1,2
Width (m)	0,992	0,6

2.4.2. Battery storage (BS)

Batteries are used to store excess electricity from PV panels. The state of charge of BS is evaluated according to discharge and charge mode and can be assessed by eq.2-3 respectively [71,72].

$$E_b(t+1) = E_b(t) \times (1 - \sigma) - \left(\frac{E_l(t)}{\eta_{cny}} - E_g(t) \right) \times \eta_{BD} \quad (2)$$

$$E_b(t+1) = E_b(t) \times (1 - \sigma) + \left(E_g(t) - \frac{E_l(t)}{\eta_{cny}} \right) \times \eta_{BC} \quad (3)$$

The operation of BS depends on charging and discharge limits, depth of discharge (DOD) and solar energy availability. This means that the BS must operate according to the permissible SOC limits specified by each manufacturer and for a DOD that depends on battery technology. The operation of the BS can be expressed by eq.4 as follows:

$$E_{b_{\min}} \leq E_b(t) \leq E_{b_{\max}} \quad \text{Or} \quad E_{b_{\min}} = (1 - \text{DOD}) \times E_{b_{\max}} \quad (4)$$

where $E_l(t)$ and $E_g(t)$ are the energy demand and the generated power by renewable sources (solar PV), respectively, η_{BD} and η_{BC} represent the discharge and charge efficiencies of the battery. The term σ is the self-discharge of the battery which is neglected in this study, and η_{cny} is the converter's efficiency.

In this study, Lead-acid (L-acid) batteries are used as there large availability in the Algerian local market and can be used for large scale applications. L-acid batteries are the oldest and most widely used rechargeable electrochemical devices. Besides, Lead-acid batteries have a low cost (\$300–600/kWh), and high reliability and efficiency (70–90%) [73].

2.4.3. Grid

When the PV system and storage devices are not sufficient to supply the load, the grid is used to supply the deficit power. In Algeria, the purchase price of electricity (EPR) is 0.045 \$/kWh. However, there is no incentive schemes for commercial and residential scale PV systems. Therefore, we have suggested different values for FITs similar or less than existing FITs in Algeria for large scale applications.

2.4.4. Inverter

An inverter converts the DC power from solar PV array output into 50 or 60 Hz AC power [74].

2.5. Economic evaluating criteria

In order to assess the economic viability of the GCR-P system under investigation and to compare the feasible configurations, the following economic indices, including the net present costs (NPC), cost of energy (COE), internal rate of return (IRR), return on investment (ROI) and the payback period (PB) have been used..

2.5.1. NPC and COE

HOMER computes the total net present cost (NPC) by determining the present value of all costs associated by the system throughout its working life, minus present value of all revenues gained (including grid sales income and salvage) by the system at the same period. Costs involve capital investment, replacement, operation and maintenance (O&M) expenses and grid buying costs t. HOMER is based on the NPC to optimise to system and rank the possible solutions. Besides, based on the total annualized cost and NPC or CRF (capacity recovery factor), the cost of energy (COE) was calculated by dividing the total annualized cost by the total electric load served. NPC and COE are defined by the eqs. 5-13 [75–78].

$$\text{NPC}_{\text{tot}} (\$/\text{KWh}) = \frac{C_{A_{\text{tot}}}}{\text{CRF}} \quad (5)$$

$$C_{A_{\text{tot}}} (\$/\text{year}) = C_{A_{\text{cap}}} + C_{A_{\text{O\&M}}} + C_{A_{\text{rep}}} + C_{\text{Grid}_{\text{purchase}}} - C_{\text{Grid}_{\text{sold}}} \quad (6)$$

$$C_{A_{\text{tot}}} (\$/\text{year}) = C_{A_{\text{cap}}} + C_{A_{\text{O\&M}}} + C_{A_{\text{rep}}} + C_{\text{Grid}_{\text{purchase}}} - C_{\text{Grid}_{\text{sold}}} \quad (7)$$

$$C_{A_{\text{cap}}} (\$) = (P_{\text{Npv}} \cdot C_{\text{PV}} + E_{b_{\max}} \cdot C_{\text{BS}} + P_{\text{Cnv}} \cdot C_{\text{Cnv}}) \times \text{CRF} \quad (8)$$

$$C_{A_O\&M}(\$) = 0.02 \times (C_{PV} + C_{BS}) \times \sum_{k=1}^T \frac{1}{(1+j)^k} \times CRF \quad (9)$$

$$C_{A_rep}(\$) = \left(E_{b_{max}} \times C_{BS} \sum_{k=10}^T \frac{1}{(1+j)^k} + P_{C_{cnv}} \times C_{C_{cnv}} \sum_{k=15}^T \frac{1}{(1+j)^k} \right) \times CRF \quad (10)$$

$$C_{Grid_purchase} = EPR \times E_{Grid_purchase} \times CRF \quad (11)$$

$$C_{Grid_sold} = ESR \times E_{Grid_sold} \times CRF \quad (12)$$

$$CRF = \frac{i(1+i)^T}{(1+i)^T - 1} \quad (13)$$

Here, $E_{Grid_purchase}$ and E_{Grid_sold} are the energy purchased and sold from/to the grid, respectively. $C_{Grid_purchase}$ and C_{Grid_sold} are the prices of electricity purchased and sold from/to the grid, respectively. EPR and ESR are the electricity purchase rate and the electricity sell rate (FIT), respectively. C_{PV} , C_{BS} , and $C_{C_{cnv}}$ are the capital cost of PV, BS, and converter, respectively. C_{A_cap} , $C_{A_O\&M}$, C_{A_rep} , and C_{A_tot} are the annualized capital, operation, and maintenance, replacement cost, and total annualized cost, respectively. $P_{N_{pv}}$, $P_{C_{cnv}}$ is the rated capacity of PV and converter, respectively. CRF is the capacity recovery factor, T and i are the project lifetime and the real interest rate, respectively. E_{served} [kWh/year] is the total electrical load served (includes the energy served the primary load as well as the energy sold to the grid).

2.5.2. Return on investment

Return on investment (ROI) is a profitability ratio that calculates the profits of an investment as a percentage of the original cost. RIO can be calculated by using the simple formula of eq. 14.

$$ROI (\%) = \frac{\text{Investement revenue} - \text{Investement cost}}{\text{Investement cost}} \quad (14)$$

2.5.3. Internal rate of return

The interest rate of return (IRR) is an economic indicator that has always had to compare the profits of projects. The IRR is the interest rate that renders the NPC zero, as specified in eq. 15. The most beneficial project to be undertaken is that of the highest IRR.

$$NPC = \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{C_n}{(1+IRR)^n} - C_0 = 0 \quad (15)$$

Given that C_n are the future cash flows from an investment, C_0 is the initial investment, n is the number of year, N the project lifetime.

2.5.4. Simple payback

HOMER calculates payback (PB) for comparing one system with another. In general, payback tells you how many years it takes to recover an investment. In other words, PB is the number of years it takes for the cumulative income to equal the value of the initial investment. For our system, the payback period is the time required to recover the investment on the solar PV and BESS project [29].

The PB period for only grid-PV systems can be calculated by the eq.16 as follows:

$$PBP_{PV}(\text{year}) = \frac{C_T}{S_{PV}(T)} \quad (16)$$

And that of for the grid-PV-battery systems can be calculated by the eq.17:

$$PBP_{PV-BS}(\text{year}) = \frac{C_T}{S_{PV-BS}(T)} \quad (17)$$

Where SPV or SPV-BS (expressed in \$/year) are the cost of the annual energy saving resulting from the utilization of PV or PV-Battery electrical energy instead of the electricity bought from the utility grid [79]. C_T is the initial cost of the PV or PV-Battery system.

2.6. Techno-environment evaluating criteria

2.6.1. Capacity shortage fraction

HOMER uses the capacity shortage fraction to evaluate the reliability of the system. The capacity shortage fraction is equal to the total capacity shortage (E_{CS_tot}) divided by the total electrical demand (E_{demand}) as given by eq.18. HOMER considers a system feasible (or acceptable) only if the capacity shortage fraction is less than or equal to the maximum annual capacity shortage (MACS). The value of the MACS is defined by the user and must be low as possible (mostly less than 1-5 %).

$$CSF(\%) = \frac{E_{CS_tot}}{E_{demand}} \quad (18)$$

2.6.2. Renewable fraction

The renewable fraction is the fraction of the energy supplied to the load from renewable energy sources. In the present case study system, the renewable fraction (RF) is estimated using the eq.19.

$$RF(\%) = 1 - \frac{E_{Grid_purchase}}{E_{served}} \quad (19)$$

2.6.3. Self-sufficiency

Consumers aim to improve this rate to limit grid dependency and then ensure they are self-sufficient in terms of electrical energy. Hence, the Self-sufficiency ratio (SSR) was defined as given by the eq.20.

$$SC(\%) = \frac{\text{Used generated renewable energy}}{\text{Energy consumption}} \quad (20)$$

2.6.4. Net energy purchased and net CO2 emission

This parameter represents the balance between the energy sold and purchased from the grid. To evaluate their value, HOMER subtracts the amount of electricity sold to the grid from those purchased from it. Therefore, its value is negative if the system export higher electricity to the grid than import from it. In this case, an energy plus balance was achieved, we would have energy plus building [80].

2.6.5. Grid parity

Grid parity is defined as the threshold at which a grid connected renewable energy-based system supplies electricity to the end-user at the same price as grid-supplied electricity [81]. This factor was taken into account to evaluate the economic feasibility of the GCR-PV system under study.

2.7. Simulation scenarios

2.7.1. First scenario

In this first scenario, we have used the characteristics of components, which are currently available as reported in the literature [82–87]. In addition, we have to assume that electricity sell price (ESP) or FIT equal to EPR (0.045 \$/kWh) as there are no FITs for commercial-scale PV systems in our country. In this situation, we have followed a Net-metering option. The characteristics of the system components that are used in this work are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3

Characteristics of system components (first scenario).

Generation source	Parameters	Specification
Solar PV	Capital cost (\$/kW)	1500
	O&M cost (% of Capital cost)	2
	Temperature coefficient of power (%/°C)	-0.41
	Lifetime (Year)	20
Battery (L-acid)	Capital/replacement cost (\$/kW)	300
	O&M cost (% of Capital cost)	2
	DOD (%)	80
	Discharge efficiency	90%
	Charge efficiency	100%
	Lifetime (Year)	10
Converter	Capital/ Replacement cost (\$/kW)	300
	Efficiency (%)	96
	Lifetime (Year)	15
Economic parameters	Project lifetime (Year)	20
	i (real interest rate) (%)	5.88
	EPR(\$/kWh)	0.045
	ESR(\$/kWh)	0.045

2.7.2. Second scenario

This scenario represents sensitivity analysis applied to the investment cost of components, including PV modules and batteries. This scenario is suggested as the costs of these components was rapidly decreased in the last years. Here, we consider that the capital cost of the battery is expected to decline by half in the future to be 150 \$/Kwh by 2030. Similarly to solar PV panels, we have assumed that the capital cost of the PV panels will be reduced with half to be 750\$/kW next year. Besides that, ESR was set (0.03 \$/kWh) lower than the EPR.

2.7.3. Third scenario

Here, using the same characteristics of the components that have been used in the first scenario, a sensitivity analysis is carried out on FITs rates to study their effect on COE and to determine the rates that reach grid parity in these buildings. Here, only the grid-PV system was investigated as grid-PV-battery was found not cost-effective higher rates of FITs (Higher than the EPR). The values of FITs that are used in this scenario are 0.045, 0.065, 0.085, and 0.095. These values are less than the minimum value of FITs for large scale (1-5 MW) consumers as launched by the Algerian government in 2014, which are in range (11.8 to 20.08 DZD/kWh or 0.10 to 0.17 \$/kWh) [88]. It is noted that the conversion from DZD to USD is performed according to average exchange rates in 2019.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. GCR-PV system's technical potential assessment

3.1.1. Maps of evaluation criteria for assessing GCR-PV technical potential

Before doing MCDM, the maps for the five evaluating criteria are developed. In Fig. 10, the distribution of exposer ratio and sunlight hours (Hrs) are presented, which obtained by Ecotect software. Besides, Fig. 11 presents the maps for the available area, shape factor, and wind-speed intensity, which are developed in ArcGIS.

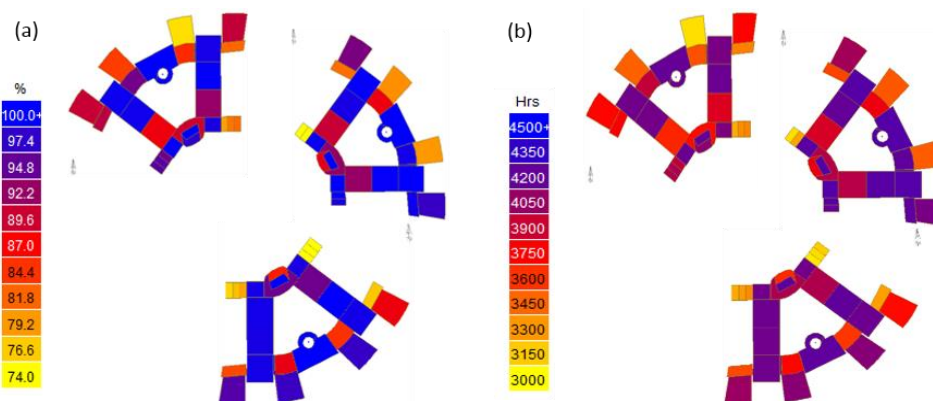
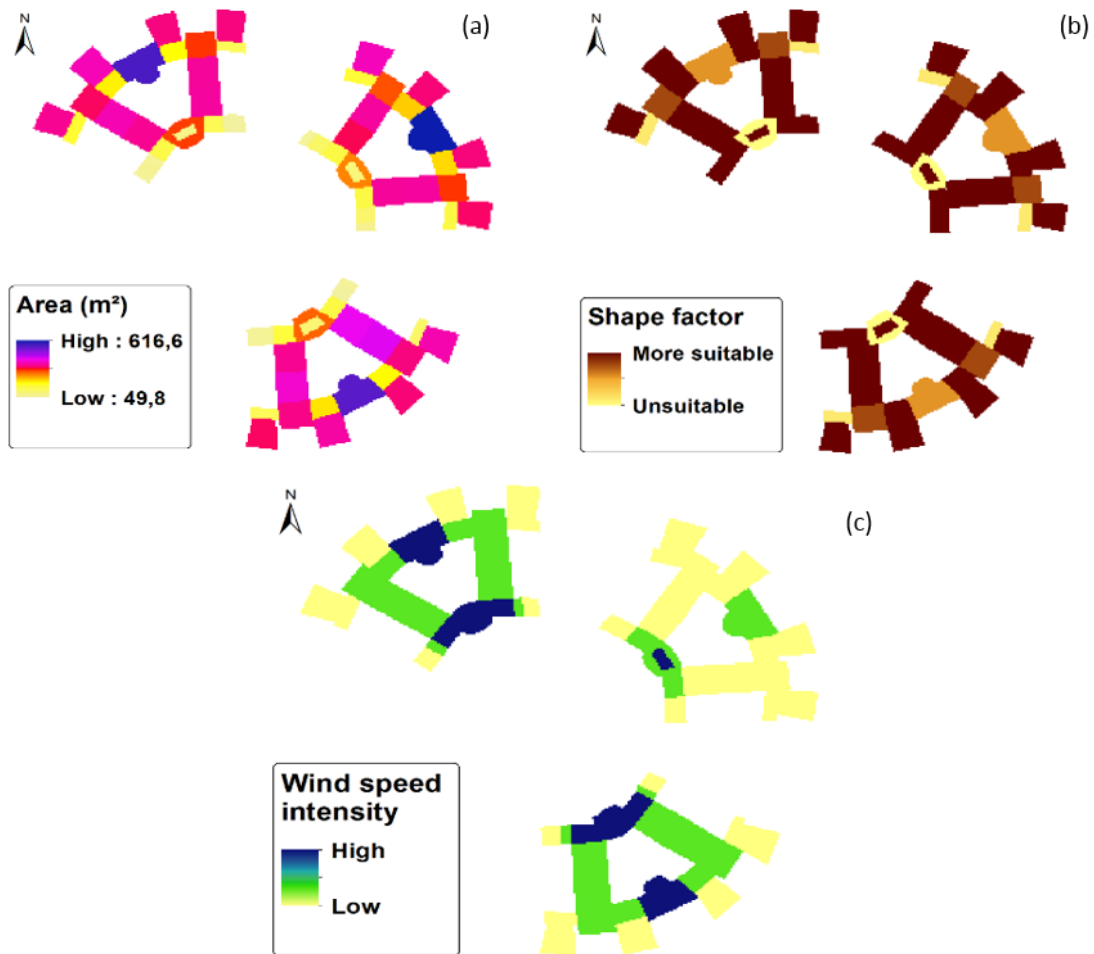


Fig. 10 Evaluating criteria; (a): Exposer ratio; (b) sunlight hours (from Ecotect).

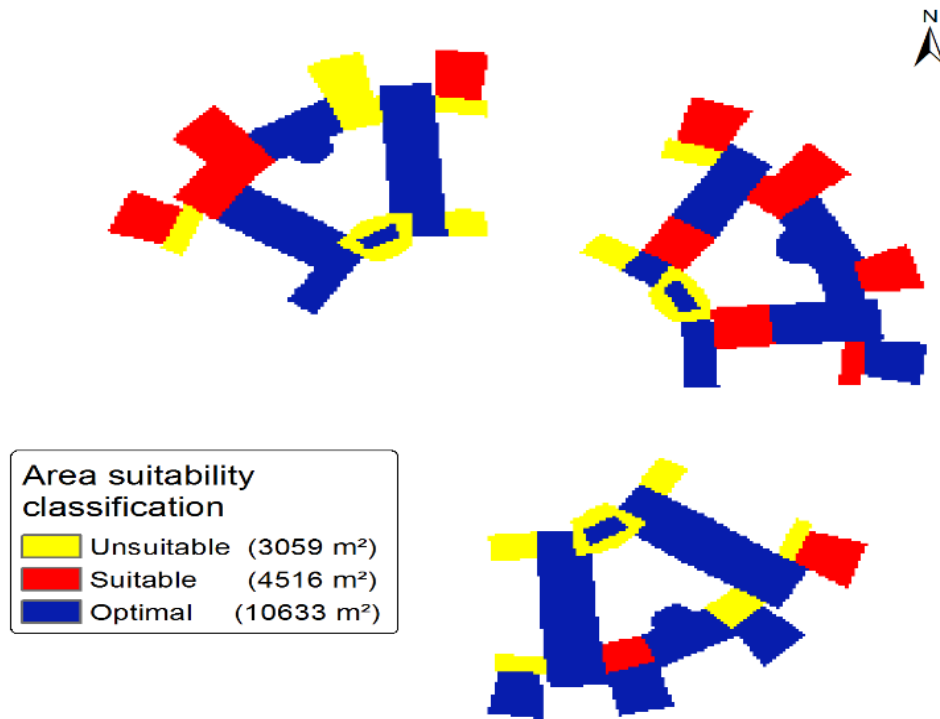


1
2 **Fig. 11** Evaluating criteria; (a): area; (b) shape factor; (c) wind speed intensity (from ArcGIS).

3 It is shown that the exposer ratio and sunlight hours are not similar for all roof zones, because these zones
4 have different height and orientation. The high rise zones can reach a value of exposer ratio of 100 % and sunlight
5 hours above 4500 hours, which makes them the best among the other zones taking into account these two factors.
6 However, some of these zones have small area and could present unsuitable shape. Thus, there are no zones
7 dominant over other zones. Therefore, multi-criteria decision analysis is proposed to select the best zones for
8 installing PV panels considering the above criteria.

9 **3.1.2. Area suitability classification**

10 Based on the created raster maps of the five evaluating criteria (influencing factors on PV modules' perfor-
11 mance and setting) and their weights, an MCDM analysis for area classification within the building is carried out
12 and the results are presented in Fig. 12.



1
2 **Fig. 12** Area suitability for installing PV panels on three buildings of the campus (from ArcGIS).

3 Results clearly show three categories of areas, with the optimal zones (of area 10633 m²) representing more
4 than half of the total area of the building. These best zones are classified first among other rooftop zones, as they
5 are better to other zones for the majority of the most influencing criteria such as shading effect and area charac-
6 teristics (area and shape). Here, only the optimal zone area is selected for installing PV panels to benefit from its
7 advantages and avoid energy and cost losses. Therefore, the maximum capacity of GCR-PV depends on the avail-
8 able area from this optimal zone. This information will be used in the following subsection to select the best PV
9 system installation.

10 **3.1.3. Selecting the best PV system installation results**

11 Based on the results of area suitability, and as already mentioned before, only the optimal zone area is con-
12 sidered for installing PV panels. The results of the allowed capacity of each configuration, their annual generated
13 electricity, and their ranking are presented In Table 4.

14 **Table 4**
15 Ranking of PV system installations.

Config- uration	Required area per KW	Maximum allowable PV ca- pacity (optimal zone) (KW)	PV output per KW (KWh/year)	PV total power (optimal zone) (MWh/year)	Rank
TS_17°	8,12	1310	1781	2333.11	1
FS_17°	9,04	1176	1804	2121.50	2
TS_32°	9,5	1119	1800	2014.20	3
TS_47°	10,22	1040	1743	1812.72	4
FS_32°	10,83	982	1828	1795.10	5
FS_47°	11,67	912	1759	1604.21	6

16
17 From the results of Table 3, multi-crystalline PV panels at 17° inclination represent the optimal installation
18 for the case study building. This is because it provides the largest annual electricity production by exploiting the
19 entire area of the optimal zone. We can see that considering the effect of inter-rows shading (must be avoided),
20 the required area for installing 1 KW is changed, and therefore, the output power of the PV system is affected.
21 Comparing results to other results that are obtained without considering the effect of inter-rows shading, PV panels
22 at 32° (optimum inclination at Ouargla) presents the best option. Therefore, it is recommended to take 17° as the
23 optimal inclination angle for Ouargla. By taking into account the inter-rows shading effect, multi-crystalline PV

1 modules provide better results than thin-film modules for the three inclinations. Therefore, we recommend using
 2 multi-crystalline PV modules in a hot dry climate.

3 In this work, only the best configuration (that is ranked first) is the one that will be investigated in the eco-
 4 nomic assessment section. This information is the link between the technical assessment and economic assessment
 5 of the GCR-PV system under study in this work. Because it will define the maximum capacity of the PV system
 6 that cannot be exceeded in the optimization of the grid-connected PV system with HOMER. This information is
 7 the main input (constraint) for making the optimization and analysing the feasibility of the proposed system.

8 3.2.Economic assessment results

9 As mentioned before, Multi crystalline PV panels at an inclination angle of 17° were selected for performing
 10 the techno-economic analysis, as it is ranked first among other configurations. This information is the main input
 11 for doing techno-economic assessment and optimal sizing of the GCR-PV system under study. The obtained re-
 12 sults for the three different scenarios are presented and discussed as follows.

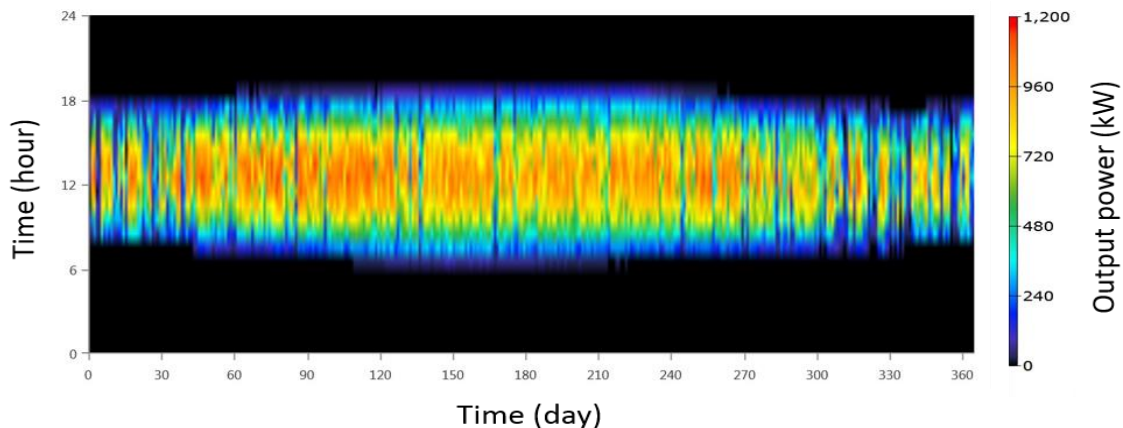
13 3.2.1.First scenario results

14 The results of the optimal sizing of the first scenario are presented in Table 5. The hourly electricity generation
 15 of the selected configuration is presented in Fig. 13. In addition, the monthly energy sold to the grid, and the net
 16 energy purchased for the three configurations (grid, grid-PV, and grid-PV-battery) are provided in Fig. 14 and
 17 Fig. 15, respectively.

18 **Table 5**
 19 Results of optimal sizing of the PV system (first scenario).

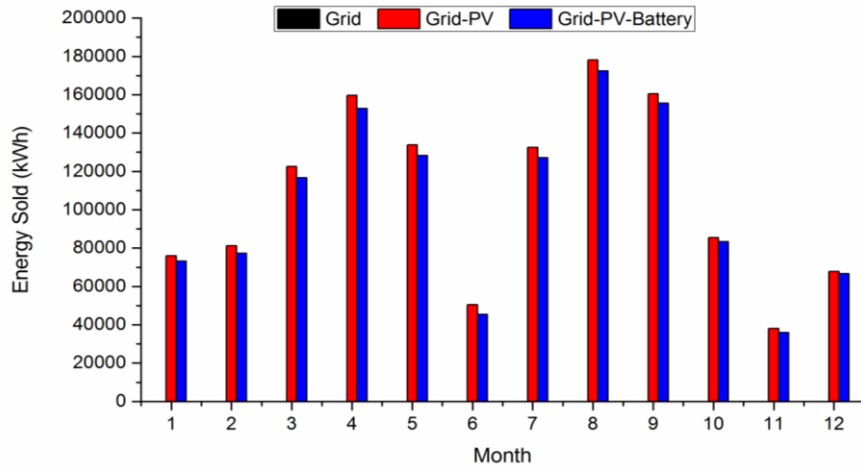
Configuration	Grid	Grid-PV	Grid-PV-Battery
PV capacity (kW)	/	1310	1310
Battery capacity (kWh)	/	/	7
Converter capacity (kW)	/	881	818
Renewable Fraction (%)	0	77.95	77.53
CO2 (kg/year)	940006.3	-426405.1	-393885.7
Annual Energy Purchased (kWh)	1487352	611506	611506
Annual Energy Sold (kWh)	0	1286198	1234743
Annual Net Energy Purchased (kWh)	1487352	-674692	-623237
Initial capital (\$)	0	2229450	2212640
NPC (\$)	775077.4	2388958	2396094
COE (\$/kWh)	0.045	0.0743	0.0760
Ranking (According to COE)	1	2	3

20

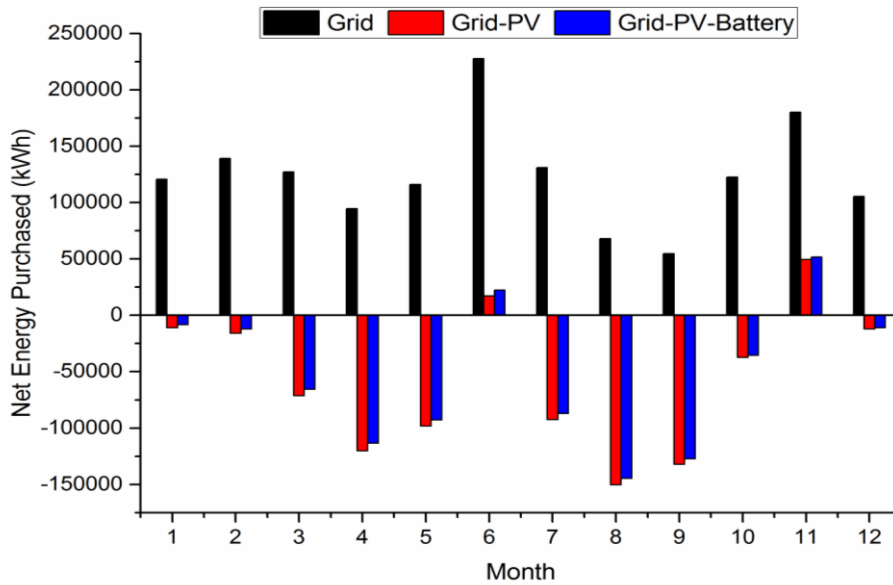


21

22 **Fig. 13** The daily output power of the PV system at the building location (from HOMER results).



1
2 **Fig. 14** Monthly energy sold to the grid.



3
4 **Fig. 15** Monthly net energy purchased.

5 The results show that both configurations (grid-PV and grid-PV-battery) cannot reach grid parity within the
6 inputs of this scenario. Furthermore, grid-PV presents better results than grid-PV-battery in terms of COE, NPC
7 and renewable fraction. We can see that the grid-PV system can sell (export) to the grid an important amount of
8 electricity, which can supply an equivalent of 394 residential building, assuming that the average annual electricity
9 consumption of a residential building in Algeria is 3262 kWh [2]. Moreover, large electricity can be exported to
10 the grid in peak periods (July to 15 September), which can help reducing power shortage or grid blackouts in the
11 case study location. In April also there is large energy exported to the grid, because of the low energy consumed
12 and the high energy produced this month. However, in some months (June and November), the net energy pur-
13 chased is positive, which represents that the energy sold to the grid is less than the energy purchased from the
14 grid. Because of the energy demand of the campus in these two months (for cooling in June and for heating in
15 November). Although, the annual balance still a net plus, it means, an energy plus building target was achieved
16 in these buildings without taking any enhancements on building components (no energy efficiency measures are
17 introduced before integrating such renewable system). Finally, we can conclude that GCR-PV system FIT similar
18 to electricity purchase rates can achieve plus energy targets with low COE. However, grid parity still unachieved
19 within this scenario. The following scenarios have been discussed the possible ways to achieve grid parity in these
20 buildings.

21 **3.2.2. Second scenario results (FIT less than the EPE)**

22 The results of optimal sizing for the second scenario are presented in Table 6.

1 **Table 6**
 2 Result of the second scenario (Sensitivity analysis on components costs).

Configuration	Grid-PV	Grid-PV-BS
PV (kW)	1310	1310
LA (kWh)	/	18
Converter (kW)	796	801
COE (\$/kWh)	0.0446	0.0447
NPC (\$)	1397097	1401331
Initial capital (\$)	1221581	1225691
Renewable Fraction (%)	77.35	77.39
CO2 (kg/year)	-379990	-383080
Energy Purchased (kWh)	611506	611506
Energy Sold (kWh)	1212757	1217646
Net energy purchased (kWh)	-601251	-606140
Return on investment (%)	4.3	4.3
Simple payback (year)	n/a	n/a

3 From the study of [89] increasing electricity pricing, decreasing PV feed-in tariff and falling cost in battery
 4 can provide the residential PV-battery system more attractiveness. However, in the case of low electricity pricing
 5 it still difficult to make residential PV-battery systems cost-effective. From the results, we can see that even within
 6 half reduction on battery costs, the grid-PV system still more cost-effective than grid-PV-Battery. Therefore, grid-
 7 PV systems are the most cost-effective solution for education buildings in Algeria. In this scenario, grid parity
 8 was achieved within FIT lower than EPR by half reduction on the investment cost of PV and battery storage.
 9 However, this scenario represents future assumptions, which cannot be applied currently. But if subsidies can be
 10 devoted to reducing investment costs of PV panels with half, the investment on GCR-PV systems in education
 11 buildings will be more attractive especially within the problem of power shortage in arid environments in peak
 12 periods.

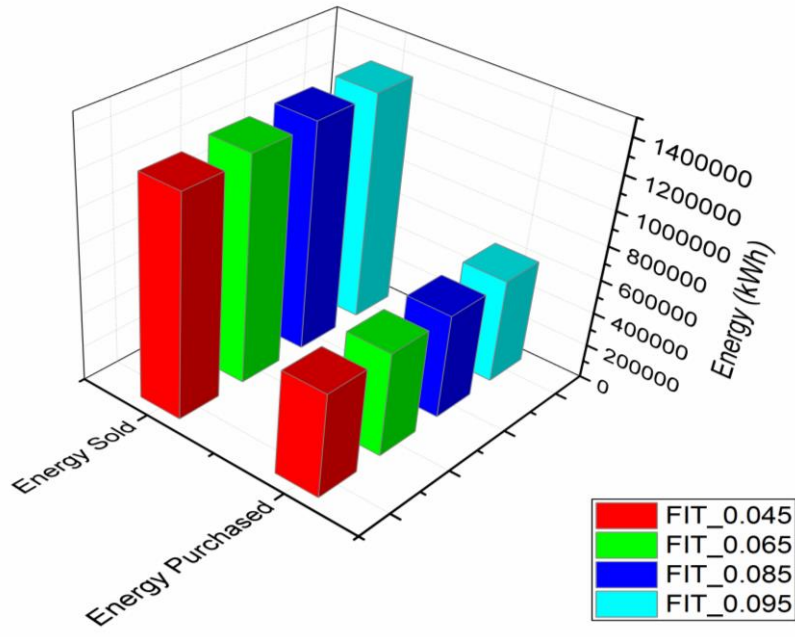
13 3.2.3.Third scenario results

14 In this scenario, the only grid-PV system was investigated, because grid-PV-battery is found not competitive
 15 to the grid –PV configuration for the investigated building even with a half reduction on battery cost (as obtained
 16 from the second scenario). The results of this scenario (third scenario) are presented in Table 7. Further results for
 17 this scenario are presented in Fig. 16, Fig. 17 and Fig. 18.

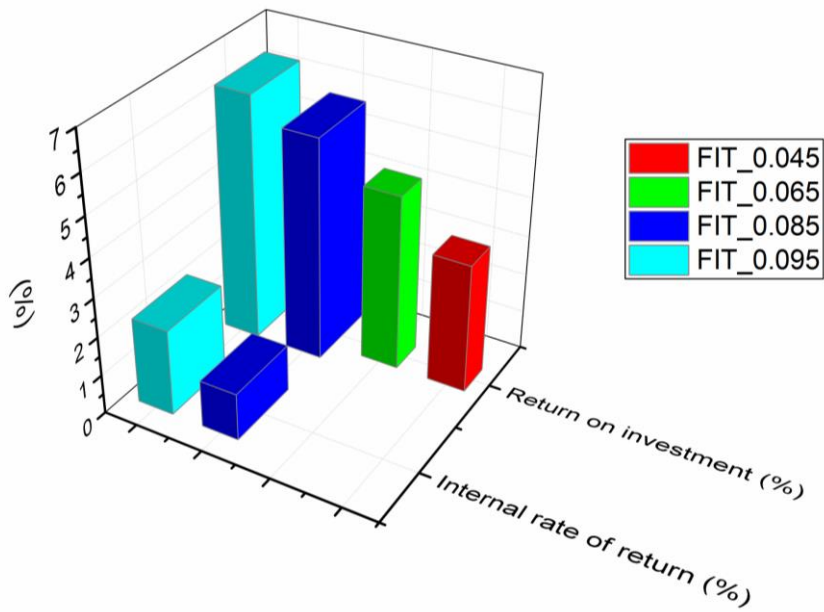
18 **Table 7**
 19 Result of optimal sizing of the Grid-PV system (third scenario).

FIT rate	FIT_0.045	FIT_0.065	FIT_0.085	FIT_0.095	Grid
Solar PV (kW)	1310	1310	1310	1310	/
Converter (kW)	882	928	957	961	/
Renewable Fraction (%)	77.95	78.17	78.26	78.28	/
Initial capital (\$)	2229450	2243544	2252000	2253410	/
NPC (\$)	2161406	1859601	1553752	1400102	/
Simple payback (year)	n/a	n/a	19	17	/
COE (\$/kWh)	0.067	0.057	0.047	0.043	0.045

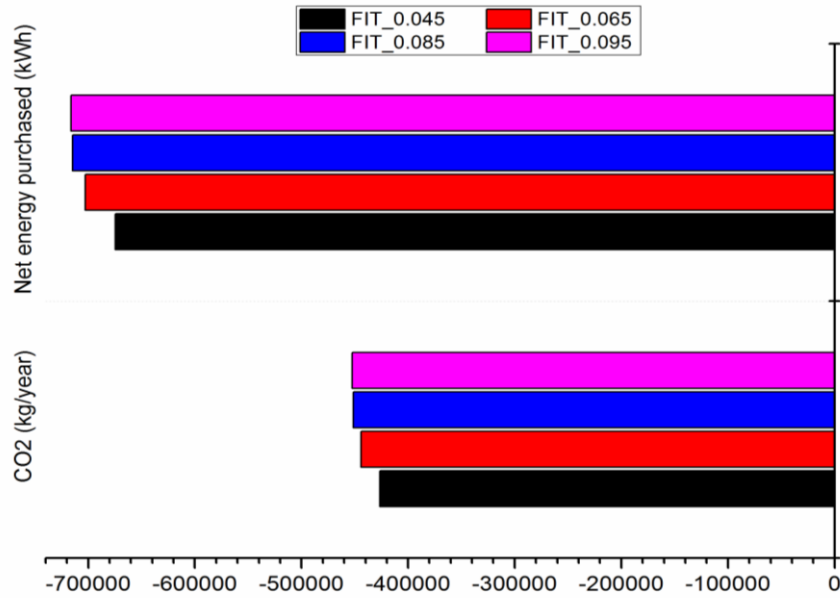
20 n/a is result in case of the time value exceeded project life time or can be applicable only with time less than the project lifetime



1
2 **Fig. 16** Annual energy Purchased and Sold to the electricity grid.

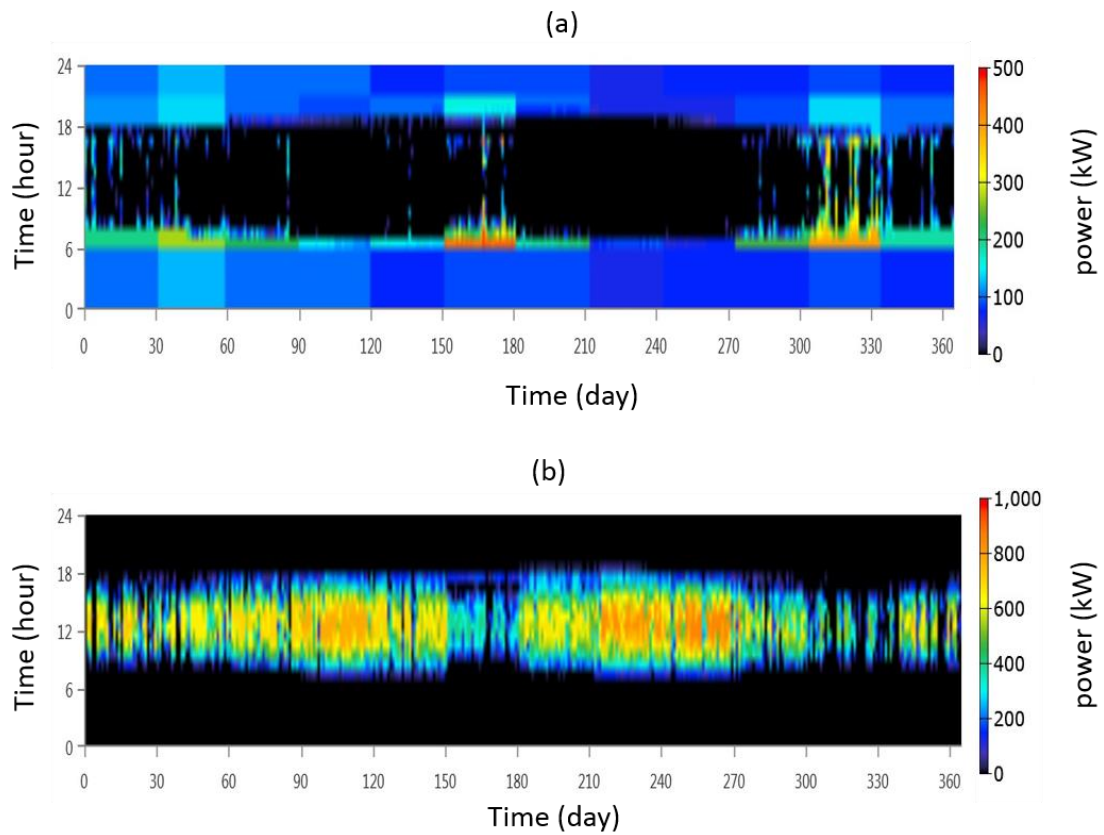


3
4 **Fig. 17** Return on investment and internal rate of return.



1
2 **Fig. 18** Annual net energy purchased and CO2 emission.

3 The results of this scenario show that grid parity can be achieved with a sell electricity price of 0.095 \$/kWh,
4 which is slightly smaller than the minimum sell electricity price devoted to large scale PV systems. Therefore,
5 FIT-0.095 is the minimum FIT rate that allows education buildings to reach grid parity. The detailed results for
6 this grid parity option are presented in the following figures. Fig. 19 shows the hourly energy purchased and sold
7 from/to the grid. In addition, Fig. 20 provides the instantaneous SC of the building.



8
9
10 **Fig. 19** (a) Energy Purchased From Grid (kW); (b) Energy Sold To Grid (kW).

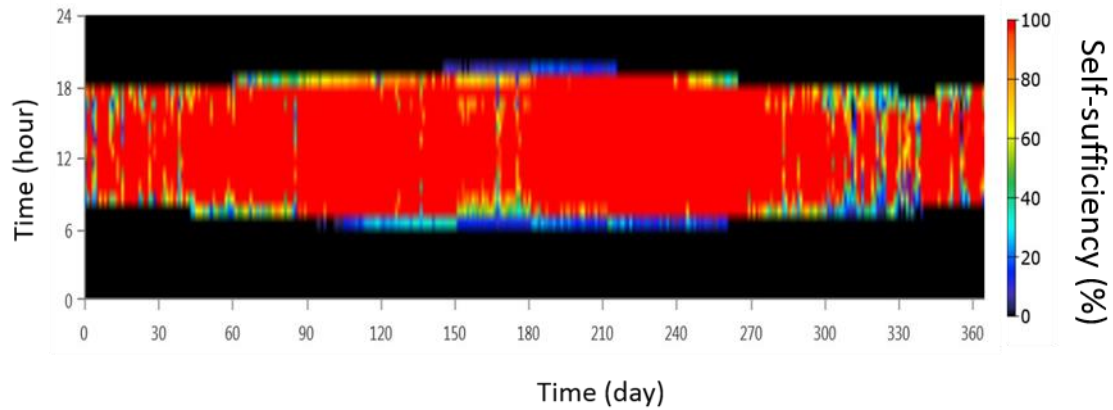


Fig. 20 Instantaneous self-sufficiency.

As the university campus operated from 8:00 until 18:00, the PV system can provide near to 100% of the total load on this period expect in June (150-180) and in November (300-330) where the campus import some amount of electricity from the grid, due to high demand in these two months. Hence, high self-sufficiency (more than 90 %) levels can be achieved. Meanwhile, the system can export a high amount of electricity to the grid. Hence, a large number of buildings, which are located near to the campus location can be supplied by this excess electricity, which can help to reduce significantly peak loads in these regions. In addition, grid parity is also fulfilled with acceptable FIT rates. We can conclude that GCR-PV systems installed on education buildings in arid climates is beneficial for both consumers and suppliers. Because, it able to ensure high self-sufficiency, reach grid parity, and feed into grid large amounts of electricity that allows electricity companies to reduce the hours of blackouts or blackout problems definitely in the building location.

3.2.4. Comparison of Grid parity results

As shown, grid parity is achieved in two different ways. In the second scenario by applying a half reduction on components costs and with FIT 0.03 \$/kWh lower than EPR (0.045\$/kWh), and in the third scenario with FIT 0.095 \$/kWh (which is higher than EPR). The comparison of the results between these two options is given in Table 8.

Table 8

Comparison between the second and third scenarios within grid parity fulfilment.

Configuration	Grid-PV (2 nd scenario)	Grid-PV (3 rd scenario)
COE (\$/kWh)	0.0446	0.043
Initial capital (\$)	1221581	2253410
NPC (\$)	1397097	1400102
Renewable Fraction (%)	77.35	78.28
CO2 (kg/year)	-379990	-452607
Net energy purchased (kWh)	-601251	-716151
Return on investment (%)	4.3	6.3
Internal rate of return (%)	n/a	2.2
Simple payback (year)	n/a	17

From the results, if considering investment (initial capital) cost as the determinant parameters, in this case, the second scenario is more cost-effective as the capital cost of the grid-PV system is about half of the investment cost of the same system in the third scenario. Moreover, the rates of FIT used in the second scenario is more attractive for supplier companies. In this regard, the third scenario is more advantageous for both sides (consumers and Supplier Company). However, if we consider other parameters as net energy purchased (related to power shortage as mention above), CO2 emissions and other economic indices as payback time, we can see that the second scenario can bring better results than the second scenario. However, both scenarios still attractive for education buildings. Accounting that there has been an important number of education buildings in each small community including university buildings, high schools, elementary schools, and other categories, large electricity

1 surplus can be exported to the grid, and therefore, reducing power shortage even with high energy demand in
2 summer periods.

3 **4.Conclusions**

4 In this work, a GCR-PV system at a university campus (common types of education buildings in Algeria) is
5 optimally designed. Contrary to previous work, here, a combined approach is developed, that enables to carry out
6 the technical and economic potential assessment of the proposed grid connected system. Based on the obtained
7 results, and with a sensitivity analysis performed on component cost and feed-in tariffs, the key conclusions of
8 the study are presented as follows:

- 9 – The simulation results reveal that only 60 % of the overall roof area is optimally suitable for hosting PV
10 panels. In which, standard multi-crystalline PV panels at an inclination angle of 17° were found the most
11 suitable configuration for the studied building. By considering only the obtained suitable roof area, this
12 optimal installation yields an annual electricity production of 2333.11 MWh/year.
- 13 – It is observed that the Shading effects can reduce dramatically the potential of PV systems on rooftop in-
14 stallations.
- 15 – GCR-PV systems without battery storage are technically and economically viable solution than grid-PV-
16 battery systems for education buildings in arid climates of Algeria.
- 17 – In Algeria, for the GCR-PV system at education buildings, it is found that with high FITs rates but less than
18 existing FITs for large scale PV systems (0.11\$/kWh), the grid parity is fulfilled, with the cost of energy
19 0.043 \$/kWh. In addition, education buildings can reach grid parity with even low FITs rates (if achieving
20 half reduction on PV panels costs).

21 The findings of this study have proven the techno-economic feasibility of GCR-PV systems in education
22 buildings in the arid environments of Algeria. It also ensures the efficiency of the developed approach to design
23 such complex renewable-based systems.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors wish to tell the editor in chief and the editorial board of the **Sustainable Energy Technologies and Assessments** Journal that the new manuscript entitled "*Optimal design of grid-connected rooftop PV systems: An overview and a new approach with application to educational buildings in arid climates*" has no Conflict of interest with any one or organization

Thank you for receiving our manuscript and considering it for review. We appreciate your time and looking forward to your response.

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