

Modelling of Domestic Hot Water End-Uses for Integrated Urban Thermal Energy Assessment and Optimisation

Alexandre Bertrand^{a,b,*}, Alessio Mastrucci^a, Nils Schüler^b, Riad Aggoune^c, François Maréchal^b

^a *Luxembourg Institute for Science and Technology - LIST, Environmental Research and Innovation, Belvaux, Luxembourg*

^b *Swiss Federal Institute of Technology of Lausanne - EPFL, Industrial Process and Energy Systems Engineering, Sion, Switzerland*

^c *Luxembourg Institute for Science and Technology - LIST, Information Technologies for Innovative Services, Esch-sur-Alzette, Luxembourg*

Abstract

Former integrated urban energy assessments and optimisation have modelled domestic hot water (DHW) demand as a single stream, as space heating, currently, is the main energy demand in buildings and a detailed DHW modelling was therefore not required. However, the characterisation of energy saving measures (e.g. grey water heat recovery) and the selection of optimal heating utility in buildings with low temperature space heating would benefit from a differentiation of the various DHW end-uses at urban scale. To this end, a new method modelling the main DHW appliances in households, hotels and nursing homes at urban level, is proposed. A review of European publications characterising water uses is conducted and utility load and energy consumption equations are developed. A specific model for district heating heat exchangers without thermal storage for integrated urban energy optimisation is proposed. The DHW-related energy consumption results are confirmed by typical values in a real urban case-study. Showering represents more than 80% of the DHW energy demand, and more than 97% of the total DHW heat use is required up to 40°C. The proposed method contributes to urban energy assessments and optimisation by improving the level of detail of the outcomes and by strengthening their integrated approach.

Keywords: Urban energy assessment, Integrated energy optimisation, Domestic hot water end-uses, Modelling

Nomenclature

COP Coefficient Of Power

DH District Heating

DHW Domestic Hot Water

GIS Geographical Information System

MFB Multifamily Building

MUB Mixed-use Building

*Corresponding author at: LIST, 41, rue du Brill - L-4422 Belvaux, Luxembourg. Tel: +352 275 888 1
Email address: alexandre.bertrand@list.lu (Alexandre Bertrand)

OLS Ordinary Least Squares

SFB Single Family Building

SH Space Heating

Symbols

b	specific bed number per room [room ⁻¹]
c_p	heat capacity [kJ/kg*K]
d	use duration [s]
f	use frequency [capita*day ⁻¹]
m	room occupancy [%]
p	bed place occupancy [%]
\dot{Q}	thermal load [kW]
Q	energy [kWh]
R^2	coefficient of determination [-]
r	room number r [-]
S_n	DHW simultaneity factor [-]
s	stay duration [day]
T	temperature [°C]
t	time t [hour]
\dot{V}	volumetric flow [m ³ /s]
x_{floor}	useful floor surface [m ²]
x_{occ}	number of occupants [occupants]
x_{type}	building type [-]
$x_{period,a}$	construction period a of buildings
y	dwelling energy consumption [kWh/a]
ε	random error term [-]
$\eta_{utility}$	utility efficiency [-]
ρ	density [kg/m ³]
σ	end-use occurrence [%]
v	random value for end-use geoallocation

Subscripts

b building b

e end-use e

h household h

o occupant o

t time t

u unit u

1. Introduction

Due to resource scarcity problems and growing environmental impacts, the European Union decided in 2014 to further increase its former 20% energy efficiency target to 30% for the year 2030 (Commission [1]). Cities are responsible for 75 % of the global energy consumption, as well as between 50 to 60% of the green house gas emissions (UN Habitat [2]) and therefore play a central role in the global improvement of energy efficiency. In that sense, new buildings shall be designed in the EU to be near-zero energy until 2020 (European Parliament [3]). In 2012, space heating (SH) household final energy consumption amounted to 199.04 Mtoe, while domestic hot water (DHW) reached 37.72 Mtoe - representing 16% of the total heat requirements - in the EU28 (Enerdata [4]). However, with improved thermal insulation, the relevance of DHW consumption is increasing. In the Netherlands, 23% of the household gas consumption is already related to DHW use, and new buildings see this contribution reach 50% of the energy consumption (Frijns et al. [5]).

So far, integrated urban energy assessments and optimisation mostly focused on the characterisation of space heating, and did not differentiate between the various DHW end-uses like showering, dish washing, etc. (Jennings et al. [6], Fonseca and Schlueter [7], Nouvel et al. [8]). Nevertheless, such a differentiation is conducted by Yao and Steemers [9], although relevant streams (shower and bath) are still aggregated as one stream, and by Aydinalp et al. [10], Widen et al. [11], Beal et al. [12], where the specific temperature levels of the various end-uses are not considered specifically. However, the differentiation and characterisation of DHW streams is of importance for an integrated approach to urban energy assessment and optimisation. With the distinction of the multiple domestic hot water end-uses, various energy saving measures can be more specifically addressed in an integrated way at urban scale. In particular, various grey water heat recovery configurations, as described by Schmid [13], McNabola and Shields [14], Dong et al. [15] for buildings or by Abdel-Aal et al. [16], Elias-Maxil et al. [17], Hepbasli et al. [18] for sewer systems, requires the characterisation of the specific DHW streams. The characterisation of the various end-use temperatures also improves the modelling of the heating utility temperature level of buildings with low temperature space heating systems, as this level is determined by the DHW demand (Brand et al. [19]). So far, the hot water temperature level has generally been assumed at 60°C (Perry et al. [20], Girardin et al. [21], Kordana et al. [22]), but with more specific DHW models, this level can actually be lowered. This again influences the selection of the optimal utility configuration, where heat pumps and low temperature waste heat recovery can become more competitive compared to biomass of fossil fuels. Finally, urban energy integration focusing on the optimisation of district heating (DH) systems only considered buildings equipped with hot water storage system (Weber [23], Fazlollahi [24], Elmegaard et al. [25]), although Thorsen and Kristjansson

[26], Christiansen et al. [27], Rosa et al. [28] showed that a configuration without storage (stand-alone heat exchanger) can be equivalent or even better in terms of costs and energy efficiency. The modelling of such a configuration, however, requires the characterisation of the DHW loads according to the main end-uses.

Considering the above-mentioned shortcomings, the objective of this work is to propose a detailed urban DHW modelling method differentiating between the various end-uses encountered in domestic buildings (households) and lodgings (hotels and nursing homes), and characterising them according to their temperature levels. Based on these DHW models, a complementary method to calculate the load of DH stand-alone heat exchangers is formulated. The main contributions of the proposed method are therefore to increase the detail level of urban thermal energy assessments, as well as to improve integrated urban energy optimisation with the consideration of DHW temperature for optimal heating utility type selection and an additional district heating system configuration.

To this end, the modelling methodology to characterise the energy demand and load requirement of various DHW end-uses is presented in section 2. The equations for households, hotels and nursing homes are developed, and a review on European domestic water use is conducted. In section 3, the proposed modelling method is applied to the households, hotels and nursing homes of the city of Esch-sur-Alzette (Grand-Duchy of Luxembourg), where the DHW energy demands are calculated and compared to literature values. The energy use of the various DHW streams are also put in relation to the total and space heating energy demand in this case-study. Temperature level and utility load requirements as well as the impact of the proposed DHW models on the energy integration of heat pumps are finally addressed in this section. Considering the outcomes of the case-study, section 4 covers the advantages, shortcomings and main contributions of the proposed method, while conclusions are drawn in the final section.

2. Method

This section describes the proposed method for urban DHW modelling. In section 2.1, equations for the DHW-related energy consumption in function of occupant and units number (e.g. a household in multifamily buildings, a room in a hotel), space heating energy demand as well as the utility load of stand-alone heat exchangers are developed. A review of European literature on the characterisation of domestic water use, considering typical flows, use frequency and duration, temperature and occurrence is conducted in section 2.2. The geolocation of the data is also presented in that section.

2.1. Domestic hot water modelling methodology

2.1.1. DHW end-use load

The thermal power requirement \dot{Q}_e^{DHW} of a DHW end-use e is calculated considering its density ρ , its heat capacity c_p , the hot water volumetric flow \dot{V}_e^{hw} and the difference between hot and fresh water temperatures ($T_{out,e}^{hw} - T_{in}^{fresh}$) (eq.1). Both volumetric flow and hot water temperature are specific to the considered end-use e .

$$\dot{Q}_e^{DHW} = \rho \times c_p \times \dot{V}_e \times (T_{out,e}^{hw} - T_{in}^{fresh}) \quad (1)$$

2.1.2. DHW and SH energy demand

2.1.2.1. Domestic buildings. The daily energy demand Q_e^{DHW} of a DHW end-use e is the product of the thermal power \dot{Q}_e^{DHW} with its use duration d_e and daily use frequency f_e .

$$Q_e^{DHW} = \dot{Q}_e^{DHW} \times d_e \times f_e \quad (2)$$

73 In a household, some of the DHW end-uses e are related to the activities of the occupant o (e.g.
74 showering, bathing, washing and shaving), while other streams (e.g. dish washing) are directly linked
75 to the household h . The total DHW-related yearly energy demand of the household $Q^{DHW,household}$,
76 expressed in kWh, is therefore obtained by summing the daily energy consumption $Q_{e,o,t}^{DHW}$ of the
77 various DHW streams e of occupant o for time t , with the energy use $Q_{e,h,t}^{DHW}$ required at household
78 level h for time t (eq.3).

$$Q^{DHW,household} = \sum_{t=1}^{365} \left(\sum_e Q_{e,h,t}^{DHW} + \sum_o \sum_e Q_{e,o,t}^{DHW} \right) \quad (3)$$

79 For multifamily buildings, some DHW end-uses (e.g. cleaning of common spaces) are required at
80 building b level. The yearly DHW energy demand $Q^{DHW,building}$ of a building is therefore obtained
81 by summing up the DHW energy demand $Q_{e,o,h,b,t}^{DHW}$ of the occupants, $Q_{e,h,b,t}^{DHW}$ of the households and
82 $Q_{e,b,t}^{DHW}$ of the streams attributed to the building common areas over 365 days (eq.4).

$$Q^{DHW,building} = \sum_{t=1}^{365} \left[\sum_e Q_{e,b,t}^{DHW} + \sum_h \left(\sum_e Q_{e,h,b,t}^{DHW} + \sum_o \sum_e Q_{e,o,h,b,t}^{DHW} \right) \right] \quad (4)$$

83 *2.1.2.2. Lodgings.* While the equations above can also be applied to hotels and nursing homes (the
84 room replacing the household), the necessary input data are scarce. An alternative to eq.4 can be
85 used, considering several parameters related to room and bed occupancies:

- 86 • the total room number r ,
- 87 • the yearly room occupancy m , expressed in percentage,
- 88 • the average bed number per room β ,
- 89 • the yearly bed place occupancy p , expressed in percentage.

90 Using eq.2, the energy demand of the various end-uses e related to the occupant $\sum_e Q_e^{DHW,occupant}$,
91 room $\sum_e Q_e^{DHW,room}$ and building $\sum_e Q_e^{DHW,building}$ are summed up according to the number of
92 occupants (product of bed number per room and bed place occupancy) and the number of occupied
93 rooms (product of number of rooms and room occupancy) for the whole year (eq.5).

$$Q^{DHW,lodging} = 365 \times \left[\sum_e Q_e^{DHW,building} + r \times \left(m \times \sum_e Q_e^{DHW,room} + \beta \times p \times \sum_e Q_e^{DHW,occupant} \right) \right] \quad (5)$$

94 *2.1.2.3. Space heating energy demand.* With the characterisation of the DHW energy consumption,
95 the space heating energy consumption is calculated considering the total fuel consumption and the
96 efficiency of the heating utility $\eta_{utility}$ (eq.6).

$$Q^{SH,building} = (Q^{total} \times \eta_{utility}) - Q^{DHW,building} \quad (6)$$

97 In case measured data are not available, the total heat consumption can be conveniently determined
98 using multiple regression analysis out of a sample of measured consumption data. Multiple linear
99 regression is one of the different techniques available to predict the energy consumption of buildings
100 based on measured consumption data as well as a series of predictors and has been used by several
101 authors (Guerra Santin et al. [29], Howard et al. [30], Mastrucci et al. [31], Wahlstrom and Harsman
102 [32], Schueler et al. [33]). Compared to other techniques, linear regression is particularly promising for
103 this goal due to reasonable accuracy and relatively simple implementation (Fumo and Biswas [34]).

104 *2.1.3. Utility load calculation*

105 *2.1.3.1. Utility with thermal storage.* The large majority of heating utilities in buildings cover both
 106 domestic hot water and space heating demands (Schramek [35]), and are usually used in combination
 107 with a hot water storage system. With the space heating energy consumption and data on outdoor
 108 temperature, the space heating load requirements can be obtained using the heating signature method
 109 (Girardin et al. [21]). The decentralised utility load (eq.7) is obtained by summing the maximal space
 110 heating load \dot{Q}_{max}^{SH} and the continuous, averaged over 8760 hours, DHW load (Schramek [35], Girardin
 111 et al. [21]). It is referred to the work of Becker and Marechal [36], Fazlollahi et al. [37, 38] for the
 112 optimised design of thermal storage tanks.

$$\dot{Q}^{utility,w.storage} = \dot{Q}_{max}^{SH} + \frac{Q^{DHW,building}}{8760} \quad (7)$$

113 *2.1.3.2. Utility without hot water storage.* Buildings connected to a district heating network are not
 114 necessarily equipped with a local DHW storage system (Christiansen et al. [27], Rosa et al. [28], Tol
 115 and Svendsen [39]). In literature, several methods to design the heat exchanger (HE) are proposed:
 116 while Gaderer [40], Tol and Svendsen [39] add up both SH and DHW load, Rosa et al. [28] considers
 117 only DHW, and Thorsen and Kristjansson [26] proposes to design the HE according to the highest
 118 load between DHW and SH. Considering building thermal inertia and the short DHW pulse duration,
 119 the approach of Thorsen and Kristjansson [26] is used for this work (eq.8).

$$\dot{Q}^{utility,no storage} = \begin{cases} \dot{Q}^{utility,DHW} & \text{if } \dot{Q}^{utility,SH} < \dot{Q}^{utility,DHW} \\ \dot{Q}^{utility,SH} & \text{if } \dot{Q}^{utility,SH} > \dot{Q}^{utility,DHW} \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

120 To determine the DHW power requirements of one household, the load of the DHW end-use with
 121 the highest value is selected and multiplied by a simultaneity factor $S = 1.15$ (Schramek [35]). It is
 122 considered that the various large end-uses (e.g. bathtub, dish-washing and showering in households)
 123 are available once and are not used simultaneously, but that smaller end-uses can be required at the
 124 same time than a large DHW appliance (eq.9).

$$\dot{Q}^{DHW,household} = 1.15 \times \dot{Q}_{max}^{DHW} \quad (9)$$

125 For multifamily buildings, mixed-use buildings and lodgings, the DHW thermal power requirement
 126 at building level is not obtained by summing up the loads of the single end-uses of the u units, as
 127 not all hot water demands occur at the same time (Thorsen and Kristjansson [26], Schramek [35]).
 128 Instead, in order to avoid an over-sizing of the utility, and thus higher investment costs, a simultaneity
 129 factor S_u is considered, which is multiplied by the sum of the single largest hot water end-use $\dot{Q}_{u,max}^{unit}$
 130 of each unit u (eq.10).

$$\dot{Q}^{DHW,building} = S_u \times \sum_u \dot{Q}_{u,max}^{unit} \quad (10)$$

131 The simultaneity factor S_u is determined according to the number of units u in the building. S_n
 132 values are based on empirical data, and several models have been proposed to describe its behaviour
 133 (see Gaderer [40] and Christiansen et al. [27] for comparisons of simultaneity factor models). The
 134 simultaneity factors S_u using the equations provided by Thorsen and Kristjansson [26] and Gaderer
 135 [40] are represented in fig.1.

136 Considering that the equation of Thorsen and Kristjansson [26] has been specifically designed for
 137 Danish hot water utility design conditions (32.3 kW) and that the results are still overestimated when
 138 compared to measured data (Thorsen and Kristjansson [26], Christiansen et al. [27]), the equation of
 139 Gaderer [40] is selected (eq.11).

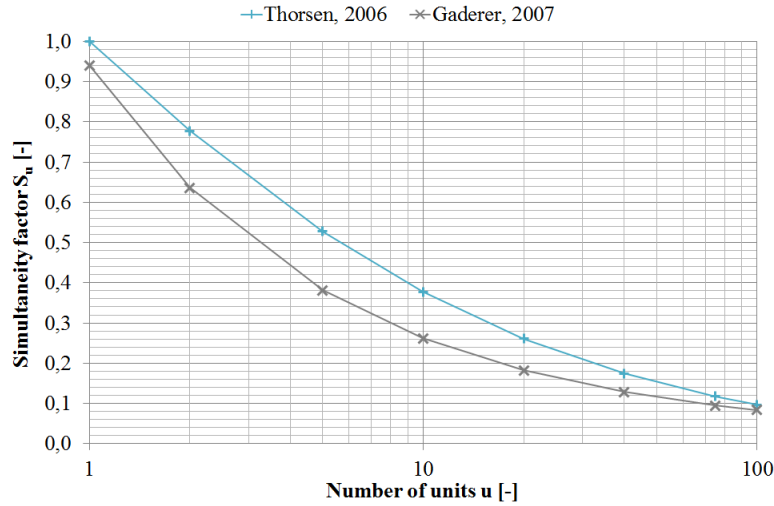


Figure 1: Simultaneity factors according to Thorsen and Kristjansson [26] and Gaderer [40]

$$S_u = 0.02 + 0.92u^{-0.58} \quad (11)$$

140 2.2. Input data

141 In order to apply the proposed method, the following input data are required:

- 142 • End-use temperature,
- 143 • Volumetric flow for load calculation,
- 144 • Use frequency and duration,
- 145 • Geographical allocation of end-uses, occupants and unit numbers.

146 2.2.1. Temperatures

147 The inlet temperature of fresh water T_{in}^{fresh} varies over the seasons between 5°C and 15°C, but
 148 is, for yearly assessments, generally assumed at 10°C (Spur et al. [41], Widen et al. [11]). End-use
 149 temperature data are generally scarce. Yao and Steemers [9] and Schramek [35] give identical end-use
 150 temperatures for bath and shower, hand washing and dish washing (table 1), while Wong et al. [42]
 151 mentions an average temperature of 40.9°C for showers.

152 2.2.2. DHW volumetric flows

153 Volumetric flow data for European DHW end-uses are summarised for domestic and lodging build-
 154 ings in tabs.2 and tabs.3, respectively. Widen et al. [11] provides water consumption of 25 different
 155 DHW streams, of which three, indicated in tabs.2, have a particularly high energy consumption. For
 156 non-European data, it is referred to DeOreo et al. [43], Hendron and Burch [44], Neunteufel et al.
 157 [45], Beal et al. [46], Cahill et al. [47], Kenway et al. [48], Rathnayaka et al. [49], Makki et al. [50].

158 Concerning household DHW streams, a value around 0.13-0.14 l/s for showers appears to be com-
 159 mon. For bathtubs, the volumetric flow depends of the considered volume. The volumetric flow of
 160 kitchen sinks revolves around 0.1 l/s, although lower and higher values are reported. Bathroom sink
 161 volumetric flow data show the largest variance, with values between 0.03 and 0.1 l/s.

Table 1: DHW end-use temperatures (Yao and Steemers [9], Schramek [35])

End-use type [-]	End-use temperature [°C]
Hand washing	35
Washing and shaving	35
Dish washing	55
Showering	40
Bath filling	40

162 *2.2.3. Use duration and frequency*

163 While data on volumetric flow of DHW are available in the literature, European data on use
 164 frequency and duration (tabs.4 and tabs.5, respectively) are scarce. Blokker et al. [52] mentions a
 165 total kitchen tap use frequency of 12.6 (household day)⁻¹, which is subdivided between hand washing
 166 and dish washing at one fourth each, according to the penetration rate mentioned in the publication
 167 (the remaining 50% water use is for drinking, cooking, etc.). The tap use frequency of Neunteufel
 168 et al. [45] is distributed evenly between kitchen and bathroom sinks. Data on bathtub and shower use
 169 frequencies in non-European countries are given by Hokoi et al. [56], Kenway et al. [48].

170 *2.2.4. DHW streams occurrences and geoallocation*

171 The occurrence of a dish-washing machine or a bathtub in a household or a room is not automat-
 172 ically given (Blokker et al. [52]). As DHW end-use occurrence data are unlikely to be available at
 173 building level when conducting an urban energy assessment, it is proposed to geographically distribute
 174 these end-uses randomly in function of the appliance occurrences o_e and by attributing random values
 175 ε_e between 0 and 1 to each end-uses in the household, e.g. using the RANDOM function in PostgreSQL
 176 [57]. The end-use is considered installed for $\varepsilon_e < o_e$ (eq.12).

$$\dot{Q}_e^{DHW} = \begin{cases} \dot{Q}_e & \text{if } \varepsilon_e < o_e \\ 0 & \text{if } \varepsilon_e > o_e \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

177 Values on the occurrence of dishwasher $o_{dishwasher}$ in households can be obtained from the respective
 178 national statistic agency (tab.6). Hand washing DHW demand is excluded for households equipped
 179 with a dishwasher.

180 Concerning the occurrence o_{bath} of household bathtubs, data is rare. 97.5% of the EU27 households
 181 in 2013 were equipped with a shower or a bathtub (Eurostat [63]) but a further breakdown between
 182 these two end-uses is almost non-existing in European and national household or production statistics.
 183 The French national statistic agency indicates that 74.4 % of the households were equipped with a
 184 bathtub in 2006, and 24.0% with only a shower (INSEE [64]). A study on the water consumption
 185 in Austrian households showed that at least 25% of the 24 assessed households only used a shower
 186 (Neunteufel et al. [45]). Blokker et al. [52] indicate a dissemination rate of 36% for household bathtubs
 187 in the Netherlands. A survey conducted in China showed that between 20 to 100% of the households
 188 in Nanjing and around 70% of the Hefei households were only equipped with a shower (Hokoi et al.
 189 [56]).

190 Information on DHW appliance of non-residential buildings are also very scarce (Pieterse-Quirijns
 191 et al. [65], Blokker et al. [66]). Data on lodging bathtubs availability can be obtained from the site

Table 2: Domestic DHW volumetric flows, in l/s

Reference	Koiv and Toode [51]	Thorsen and Kristjansson [26]	Schramek [35]	Widen et al. [11]	Blokker et al. [52]	Neunteufel et al. [45]	Neunteufel et al. [45]	Gutierrez-Escolar et al. [53]
Pub. year	2006	2006	2007	2009	2010	2012	2012	2014
Country	Estonia	Denmark	Germany	Sweden	Netherlands	Austria	EU	Spain
Bathroom sink	-	-	0.05 / 0.083 ^a	-	0.04 ^f	0.03	-	0.07 [*] , 0.1
Kitchen sink	0.2	0.1	0.1 / 0.17 ^b	39 l ^d	0.08 / 0.13 ^g	0.03	-	0.1 [*] , 0.13
Shower	0.2	0.14	0.14	0.13 / 0.2 / 0.58 ^e	0.12 [*] , 0.14	0.13	0.13	0.17 [*] , 0.25
Bathtub	0.3	0.21	0.11 / 0.17 / 0.21 ^c	100 l/bath	0.20 ^h	76 l/bath	150 l/bath	250 l/bath

^asmall /large sink^bsingle / double sink^csize: 100 / 160 / 180^ddish washing, mix of tub and running water^eassumed value / modern tap / trad. tap^fwashing and shaving^ghand washing / dish washing^hcapacity: 120 l^{*} water-saving end-use

192 manager, from the site homepage or reservation service homepage. While Pieterse-Quirijns et al. [65]
193 considers both showers and bathtubs available in Dutch hotel rooms, the number of hotel bathtubs
194 in the USA has strongly decreased with newer constructions. In 2001, 95% of the Holiday Inn hotels
195 were equipped with bathtubs, but hotels have recently been built either without (Indigo hotel) or only
196 with a much smaller ratio varying between 25% (Marriott) to 55% (Holiday Inn) (Jones [67]).

197 2.2.5. Occupant and unit geolocation

198 Inhabitant and household numbers can either be directly obtained from Geographical Information
199 System (GIS) data sets or by using population census data. For lodgings, the best option to obtain
200 the required data is to contact the facility manager, a solution which is nevertheless time-consuming
201 and yields only a limited number of returns (Neunteufel et al. [45]). Should the detailed data not
202 be available, public sources and statistical averages can be used to estimate the energy consumption.
203 For hotels, national or regional tourism offices as well as reservation service homepage can provide the
204 number of rooms r (e.g. Vienna Tourist Board [68], ONT [69], Switzerland Tourism [70]). Eurostat
205 provides national and regional data on bedroom and bed place numbers, so that a specific bed number
206 per room β (Eurostat [71]) as well as the net bed places occupancy p (Eurostat [72]) are available.
207 Nursing home room and bed numbers can be obtained from dedicated internet sites (e.g. Bundesmin-
208 isterium fur Arbeit, Soziales und Kosumentenschutz [73], Capgeris [74], Privatinstitut für Transparenz

Table 3: Lodging DHW volumetric flows, in l/s

Reference	Cobacho et al. [54]	Blokker et al. [55]
Pub. year	2005	2011
Country	Spain	Netherlands
Building type	Hotel	Hotel, nursing home,
Bathroom sink	15.26 l/day*guest	0.08 ^a
Showering	13.03 l/day*guest	0.12 / 0.14 / 0.37 ^b
Bath filling	-	0.20 ^c

^ahand washing, washing and shaving

^bwater-saving/normal/comfort

^ccapacity: 120 l

209 im Gesundheitswesen GmbH [75], Haederli et al. [76], Luxsenior [77]). Occupancy rate in Europe is
 210 very high, with values in Luxembourg, Italy and France reaching 95.4% (Statec [78]), 93 - 98% and
 211 98%, respectively (Evans et al. [79]).

212 3. Case-study

213 The proposed DHW modelling method is applied to the residential buildings of the city of Esch-sur-
 214 Alzette (Esch), comprising the domestic buildings, the five hotels and the two nursing homes. The city
 215 has a population of 33'487 inhabitants and 14'321 households, distributed over 18 districts (Service des
 216 travaux municipaux [80]). The main data source is the city GIS data set, imported into a PostgreSQL
 217 geospatial database (PostgreSQL [57]) using the PostGIS extension (PostGIS Project [81]). The data
 218 set contains data on inhabitant and household numbers, year of construction, building footprint and
 219 floor number.

220 In order to assess the impact of DHW energy consumption on low energy and passive buildings (not
 221 included in the city assessment due to insufficient data on recent constructions from Statec [82]), these
 222 building types are considered specifically. An average inhabitant number for single family buildings
 223 (SFB) and multifamily buildings (MFB) of, respectively, 2.98 and 12 as well as an average household
 224 number of 1 and 5.48 is used.

225 The calculations deployed for the case-study are described in section 3.1. The results are presented
 226 in section 3.2.

227 3.1. Calculations

228 In section 3.1.1, the calculation of the various DHW energy demands of the households and lodgings
 229 of Esch is set up using the proposed modelling method. In order to validate the outcomes of the
 230 method, DHW energy demand using a surface-related approach is also used. The method to quantify
 231 this surface is included in this section. To put the impact of the various DHW streams in relation to
 232 the urban heat demand, the total heat consumption using linear regression is described in section 3.1.2.
 233 Section 3.1.3 describes how space heating energy requirements are obtained from total heat and DHW
 234 energy consumption. The calculation of space heating and utility load of stand-alone heat exchangers
 235 in district heating systems are formulated in section 3.1.4. Finally, heat pump energy integration
 236 according to various hot water temperature levels is addressed in section 3.1.5.

Table 4: DHW use frequencies, in capita x day⁻¹

Reference	Cobacho et al. [54]	Blokker et al. [52]	Blokker et al. [55]	Neunteufel et al. [45]	Neunteufel et al. [45] (EU)
Building type	Hotel	Household	Offices, hotel, nursing home, restaurant	Household	Household
Bathroom sink	5.36 /day*guest	1.35 ^a	4.5 / 1.98 ^c	11.5	-
Kitchen sink	-	3.150 ^b	-	11.5	-
Showering	0.45 /day*guest	0.70	0.20 /0.80 ^d	0.7	0.8
Bath filling	-	0.04	0.2 ^e	0.03	0.1

^awashing and shaving

^bhand and dish washing, per household

^chand washing / washing and shaving

^dnursing homes / hotels

^ecapacity: 120 l

237 3.1.1. DHW energy consumption

238 3.1.1.1. *DHW occupant-related method.* The end-use types, volumetric flows \dot{V}_e , use frequency f_e and
239 duration d_e of Blokker et al. [52] are selected for the present case-study, as the data are relatively recent
240 and similar DHW use between the Netherlands and Luxembourg can be assumed as both countries
241 are geographically close and have similar living standards. The end-use types retained are also those
242 generally mentioned in DHW-related publications.

243 A distribution between efficient and normal shower of 50% is considered. Energy consumption
244 related to shower, bathtub (when available) and bathroom sink use is calculated in function of inhab-
245 itant number. Kitchen sink use (hand washing and dish washing) is related to the household number
246 in the building, as indicated by Blokker et al. [52]. A dish-washer occurrence rate of 79% is used
247 (Statec [61]), which implies that 21% of the households are doing their dish washing by hand. The
248 French bathtub occurrence rate of 74.4% is applied here. Dishwashers and bathtubs are geoallocated
249 using the RANDOM function in PostgreSQL [57], as more detailed information are not available. The
250 resulting percentage of dish-washer and bathtub occurrence in Esch reaches 78.8% for the dish washer,
251 and 74.3% for the bathtubs. For the theoretical low energy and passive single family and multifamily
252 building models, it is assumed that they are equipped with a dishwasher and bathtub.

253 For hotels and nursing homes, the DHW streams related to the rooms - shower, bathroom sink
254 (washing and shaving) and bathtubs (when occurring) - are considered. The volumetric flows \dot{V}_e , use
255 frequency f_e and duration d_e values of Blokker et al. [55] are used. A normal shower type having a
256 volumetric flow of 0.14 l/s is considered. While in hotel five the rooms are equipped with a bathtub
257 and hotels two and three are not, detailed information for hotel one and four are not available. An
258 occurrence rate of 50% is therefore assumed. Eurostat [71] indicates for the Grand-Duchy of Luxem-
259 bourg, in 2014 for hotels and similar accommodations, a bed-per-room number of 1.9. The number

Table 5: DHW use durations, in s

Reference	Cobacho et al. [54]	Schramek [35]	Blokker et al. [52]	Blokker et al. [55]	Neunteufel et al. [45]	Neunteufel et al. [45] (EU values)
Building type	Hotel	Household	Household	Hotel, nursing home	Household	Household
Bathroom sink	-	90 / 120 ^a	40 ^c	16 / 40 ^e	59	-
Kitchen sink	-	300	15 / 48 ^d	-	59	-
Showering	270	360	510	510	288	474
Bath filling	-	900 / 1200 ^b	600	600	-	-

^asmall / large sink

^bsize: 100 & 160 / 180

^cwashing and shaving

^dhand and dish washing

^ehand washing / washing and shaving

260 of hotel customers is calculated considering a yearly average bed place occupancy of 35,1% (Eurostat
261 [72]). The year of construction of hotel two is not given in the GIS data set, but as it is a very recent
262 building, it is set to 2012. Nursing homes are only equipped with showers. The nursing homes are
263 also equipped with small kitchen units, but it is not expected that the inhabitants do manual dish-
264 washing. The number of occupants is taken from the GIS data set. The values for the various sites
265 are summarised in tab.7.

266 *3.1.1.2. DHW surface-related method and surface quantification.* In order to compare the outcomes of
267 the proposed DHW occupant-related model, the DHW energy consumption according to the surface
268 is calculated. Specific energy consumption values for domestic hot water production of 13.9 and 20.8
269 kWh/m²a for single and multifamily buildings are assumed (Luxemburgish Parliament [83]). The
270 latter value is also used for mixed-use buildings (MUB). For lodgings, values of 88 kWh/m² for nursing
271 homes and 153 kWh/m² for hotels are used (Luxemburgish Parliament [84]).

272 The household floor surfaces of domestic use buildings are obtained by multiplying the footprint
273 area, obtained from the ST_AREA function of PostGIS (PostGIS Project [81]), with the building floor
274 number (including the attic). This method was selected as its outcomes fits best with average household
275 surface values for Esch mentioned in national population census data (Statec [85]). The average surface
276 of single family and multifamily buildings in Esch, 165.65 m² and 511.72 m² respectively, are considered
277 too for the low energy and passive buildings. For mixed-use buildings and lodgings, this method is not
278 specific enough, as surfaces not related to domestic use would also be included. The reference surface is
279 therefore calculated using the average household surface, obtained from the national population survey
280 (Statec [85]) for Esch, multiplied by the household number (tab.8).

281 For hotels and nursing homes, average room surfaces and room numbers are used to calculate the
282 relevant area (tab.7). Data for hotels are obtained from tourism sites: ONT [69] for room numbers
283 and Booking.com [86] for the calculation of average room surface. As surface data for hotel 3 are not

Table 6: Dishwasher occurrence rates

Country	Occurrence [%]	Year of survey [year]	Source [-]
Austria	74	2012	Statistik Austria [58]
France	56	2014	INSEE [59]
Germany	68	2011	Statistisches Bundesamt [60]
Luxembourg	79	2011	Statec [61]
Switzerland	85	2014	Morgenthaler et al. [62]

Table 7: Hotels and nursing homes data

Building	Number of rooms [-]	Daily customer/patients	Bathtub number [-]	Average room surface [m ²]
Hotel 1	23	15.34	12	18.3
Hotel 2	110	73.36	0	18.0
Hotel 3	22	14.67	0	18.3*
Hotel 4	15	10.00	15	35.0
Hotel 5	20	13.34	10	27.8
Nursing home 1	168	157.00	0	30.5
Nursing home 2	46	32.00	0	30.5*

* assumption

284 available, the value of hotel 1 is assumed, because both hotels are similar in size and type. Values
 285 between 22 to 32 m² for 114 rooms and 34 to 42 m² for 54 rooms are mentioned for nursing home 1
 286 (Servior [87]), leading to an average room surface of 30.5 m². This value is equally used for nursing
 287 home 2, as no further data are available. The number of rooms for this type of building is taken from
 288 the GIS data set of the municipality.

289 3.1.2. Total heat demand using linear regression

290 A multiple linear regression model is developed to estimate the energy consumption of residential
 291 buildings based on measured consumption data. Household budget survey data are obtained from the
 292 national statistic agency STATEC (Statec [82]). The model is implemented in the software R (R Core
 293 Team [88]) and fitted using the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) method.

294 Data from the year 2011 are selected to fit the model due to meteorological condition similar to
 295 the average of the region. Only dwellings having natural gas or fuel oil as main fuel are selected.
 296 The energy consumption in kWh/a is obtained by multiplying the amount of fuel consumed (m³ of
 297 gas and litres of oil) by suitable calorific values. A distribution of heating systems (traditional and
 298 condensing) is assumed based on statistical data to obtain an average calorific value based on national
 299 values (Luxemburgish Parliament [83]).

300 The final sample of observations used to fit the model consists of 794 records (of a total of 1'142)
 301 and is obtained by excluding the following items from the original data set: records with missing

Table 8: Average household surface for mixed-use buildings in Esch (Statec [85])

Building type, Statec typology	Building type, GIS typology	Number of households per building	Average surface [m ²]
Collective building, mixed usage	Building, mixed usage	1	136.55
		2-4	66.59
		>4	75.52
Home for adults	Hosting structure	1	74.875
		2-4	25
		>4	85
Collective building, for living purpose	Student home	1	108.71
		2-4	79.67
		>4	71.81
Other dwelling	Public usage, manufacturing industry building, commerce or service industry	1	93.33
		2-4	64.8
		>4	54.125

values; use of other fuels than gas and oil; presence of solar panels; not realistic ratio between energy expenditure and energy consumption, index of errors in the compilation of the survey.

The formulation of the outcome of the linear regression analysis is given by the following equation:

$$\ln(y) = \beta_0 + \ln(x_{floor}) \cdot \beta_{floor} + \ln(x_{occ}) \cdot \beta_{occ} + x_{type} \cdot \beta_{type} + \sum_{i=1}^5 (x_{period,i} \cdot \beta_{period,i}) + \varepsilon \quad (13)$$

where y represents the energy consumption of the dwelling in kWh/a, x_{floor} the useful floor surface in m², x_{occ} the number of occupants, x_{type} the type of building (single family building = 1, multifamily building = 0), $x_{period,i}$ the construction period of buildings (factorial variables) and ε the random error term. Some of the variables are logarithmically transformed as they present right skewness and other authors showed how this transformation can substantially improve the performance of the method (Kolter and Ferreira [89]).

Results of multiple linear regression are reported in tab.9. The coefficient of determination R^2 shows that 54.1 % of the variance is taken into account by the model and it is comparable with the ones obtained by similar studies (Guerra Santin et al. [29]). The model assumptions were carefully verified and not significant heteroskedasticity and multi-collinearity problems were detected. The equation for multifamily buildings is also applied to mixed-use buildings.

3.1.3. Space heating energy consumption

The space heating energy consumption is calculated by subtracting the DHW energy consumption (section 3.1.1.1) from the total heat consumption (section 3.1.2), considering an utility efficiency $\eta_{utility}$ of 90%. For low energy and passive single family and multifamily buildings, specific SH values of 43/22 kWh/m² and 27/14 kWh/m² are used (Luxemburgish Parliament [83]). As the equations are

Table 9: Statistical summary of the multiple linear regression for residential buildings

Coefficients	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Significance	
Intercept	6.809	0.206	33.080	<0.0001	***
Floor surface (ln)	0.568	0.047	12.074	<0.0001	***
Number of occupants (ln)	0.106	0.030	3.555	0.0004	***
Type 1: single family house	0.297	0.044	6.675	<0.0001	***
Period 1: <1919	0.220	0.068	3.235	0.00127	**
Period 2: 1919-45	0.148	0.054	2.768	0.0058	**
Period 3: 1946-60	0.159	0.048	3.278	0.0011	**
Period 4: 1961-80	0.204	0.041	4.979	<0.0001	***
Period 5: 1981-95	0.149	0.044	3.388	0.0007	***

Signific. codes: *** < 0.001, ** < 0.01, * < 0.05, . < 0.1, $R^2 = 0.541$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.536$

Residual standard error: 0.404 on 785 degrees of freedom, $p - value < 2.2 \cdot 10^{-16}$

Notes: Variables "T2: Multi-family house" and "P6: >1995" assumed as reference.

Coefficients marked with (ln) have been logarithmically transformed.

321 not applicable to hotels or nursing homes due to difference in user behaviour, the total and space
 322 heating energy consumption is only calculated for domestic buildings.

323 3.1.4. Heat exchanger load for district heating systems

324 The SH load of domestic buildings is calculated using the heating signature calculation (Girardin
 325 et al. [21]). The 2011 outdoor temperature $T_{outdoor}$ behaviour in function of time t , based on data from
 326 the air transport service in Luxembourg (Administration de la navigation aérienne [90]), is modelled
 327 using polynomial regression analysis (eq.14). The coefficient of determination R^2 reaches 64%.

$$T_{outdoor} = 2E - 17t^5 - 4E - 13t^4 + 3E - 09t^3 - 8E - 06t^2 + 0,0003t + 16,771 \quad (14)$$

328 A minimum outdoor temperature of -10°C and a threshold temperature of 15°C are considered.
 329 Eq.14 is integrated between the time intervals of 550 and 5'940 hours, where the outdoor temperature
 330 is below and above 15°C , respectively. The space heating load of each building is finally obtained by
 331 multiplying its reference area with the specific SH load obtained from the heating signature.

332 With the selected DHW household streams, three types of end-uses are to be considered for the
 333 maximal DHW load: dish washing, bathtub or shower. The determination of the relevant end-use
 334 depends of the occurrence of dish-washer and bathtub in the household. In case a dish-washer is not
 335 installed, a maximum DHW load of 30.10 kW is considered. Else, if a bathtub is available, a load of
 336 25.08 kW is retained. Finally, if both end-uses are not available, the load of the shower is prevailing with
 337 16.30 kW. Following eq.8 as well as eq.9 or eq.10 for households and multifamily buildings, respectively,
 338 the load of stand-alone heat exchangers is finally obtained.

339 In order to compare the results, eq.7 is applied to calculate the load of an utility combined with a
 340 hot water storage system.

341 3.1.5. Energy integration of decentralised heat pump considering various hot water temperature levels

342 Former works on integrated urban energy optimisation have so far modelled DHW demand as hot
 343 water stream at 60°C (Perry et al. [20], Weber [23], Girardin et al. [21], Varbanov et al. [91], Fazlollahi

344 et al. [92]). However, as stated by Girardin et al. [21], various heating utilities providing heat at
345 close space heating and domestic hot water temperatures, like heat pumps and low-grade waste heat
346 recovery, are particularly sensitive to temperature level requirements. Therefore, the impact of the
347 proposed DHW models on the integration of heat pump as heating utility is assessed as example, using
348 the energy integration approach described by Weber [23].

349 The above-mentioned low energy single family building, equipped with bathtub and dishwasher, is
350 selected as low-temperature SH case study. The space heating load of the building is calculated using
351 the heating signature for the coldest day of the year, with a floor heating system with supply and return
352 temperatures of 30/25°C (Hesaraki et al. [93]). For the first case, a hot water production at 60°C in the
353 storage tank is considered, the load being calculated by dividing the annual DHW energy consumption
354 by 8670 hours. In the second case, a temperature of 50°C is used, as it has been showed that for new
355 or renovated buildings with DHW system volumes below 3 litres and individual DHW feeding pipes,
356 this level is sufficient to avoid Legionella proliferation (Brand et al. [19]). The temperature difference
357 between the condensing side of the heat pump and the hot water is maximum 5K. The evaporation
358 side has a temperature of 5°C (5K below the average of 10°C outdoor temperature), and the electricity
359 consumption is calculated considering a Carnot factor of 55% (Becker et al. [94]). Finally, a price of
360 0.141€/kWh is used to calculate the operating costs (Enovos [95]).

361 3.2. Results

362 As measured DHW energy consumption data are not available to validate the proposed methodol-
363 ogy, the results obtained are compared, in section 3.2.1, to typical values indicated in the literature.
364 In section 3.2.2 and 3.2.3, the DHW-related energy demand is assessed as to the main end-uses and
365 temperature levels. The heat exchanger loads, considered with and without hot water storage, are
366 displayed at district level in section 3.2.4. Finally, the outcomes of the energy integration of heat
367 pumps at different hot water temperatures are presented in section 3.2.5.

368 3.2.1. Validation of outcomes with literature values

369 The total yearly heat demand of the households in Esch amounts to 189.2 GWh (fig.2 and fig.3).

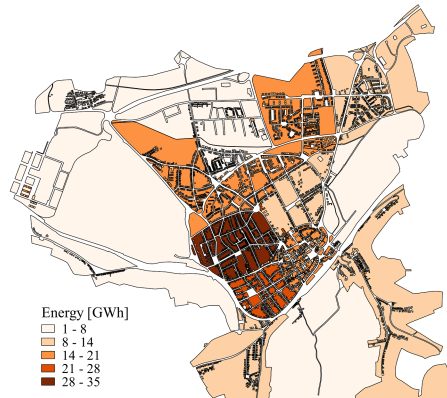


Figure 2: Total household yearly heat consumption at district level

370 The household DHW energy demand of the proposed methodology is, at city level, 15 % lower
371 than that of the surface-related model (fig.3). Districts 5, 13 and 16 have particularly high negative
372 differences, with 45-52% less energy demand. On the other hand, districts 2 and 12 show the oppo-
373 site behaviour, with the proposed methodology generating energy use values 14-22% higher than the
374 surface-related method. These difference are due to the reference surface. As represented with the

375 light blue bars, the higher the surface per inhabitant, the higher the difference between the two DHW
 376 models. In case the average surface per inhabitant is particularly low, the occupant-related method
 377 obtains higher energy consumption values than the surface-related model.

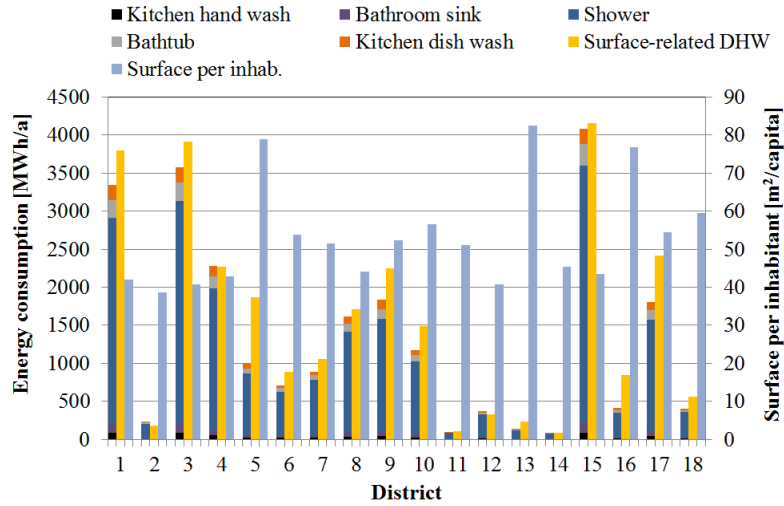


Figure 3: DHW-related energy demand and surface per inhabitant (blue column) of households at district level

378 Concerning the hotels and nursing homes, the difference between the two methods is even more
 379 important, with the detailed modelling method reaching only 20% and 9% of the surface-related energy
 380 consumption, respectively (fig.4). Part of this difference can be explained by the fact that the specific
 381 DHW energy consumption values are generic and might include additional streams (e.g. room cleaning,
 382 bathtub) that are not considered with the proposed model. In addition, an occupancy rate of 35.1%
 383 is considered for the hotels, while the surface-related approach assumes an occupancy rate of 100%
 384 of the surface.

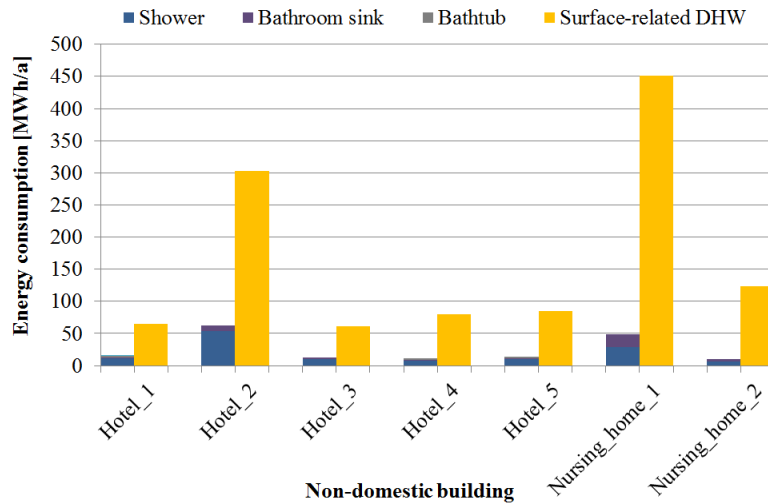


Figure 4: DHW energy demand of lodgings

385 Considering a hot water temperature of 60°C, a hot water consumption of 33.4 l/capita*day is ob-

386 tained using the proposed DHW models. Maas et al. [96], Schramek [35] and Girardin et al. [21] mention values of 40 l/capita*day (Luxembourg), 30-60 l/capita*day (Germany) and 50-70 l/capita*day (Switzerland), respectively.

389 Single family (SFB in fig.5), multifamily (MFB) and mixed-use (MUB) buildings have a specific energy demand between 124-172 kWh/m², 60-122 kWh/m² and 80-123 kWh/m², respectively. The outcomes for single family buildings build after 1995 confirms the findings of Maas et al. [96], who obtained an average energy consumption of 131 kWh/m² over a sample of 54 buildings built between 1997 and 2007. However, the generated values are lower than those measured by Merzkirch et al. [97], who mentions values of 170 kWh/m² and 120 kWh/m² for single and multifamily buildings built after 1994 on. This difference is most probably due to the uncertainties of the regression analysis results.

396 Fuel consumption for heating is, as expected, mostly related to space heating (fig.5), and decreases for more recent buildings. Concerning existing single family buildings, the fuel conversion losses of the heating utility are higher than the fuel consumption related to DHW. For multifamily and mixed-use buildings, DHW fuel consumption is almost twice as high than the utility losses.

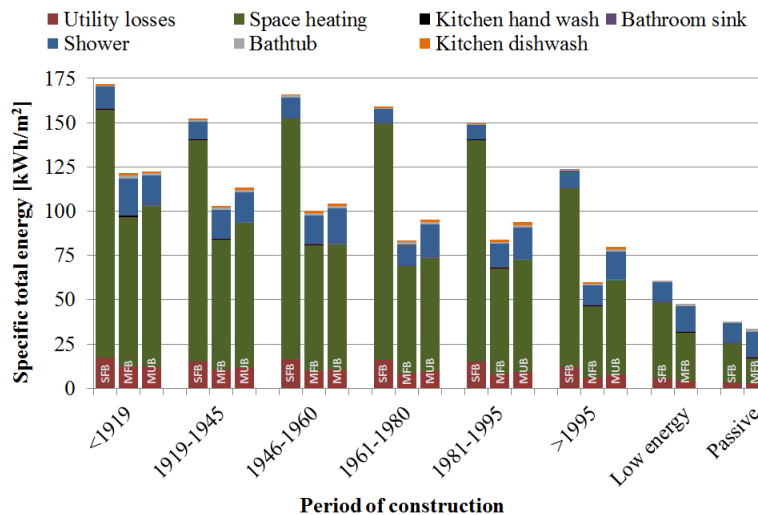


Figure 5: Specific thermal energy demand of households (SFB - single family building, MFB - multifamily building, MUB: mixed-use building)

400 The contribution of the DHW streams to the total heat demand (including utility losses), amounts
 401 at city level to 17.6%, while it varies between 6-9% (single family building), 17-23% (multifamily
 402 building) and 16-24% (mixed-use) for the considered periods of construction (fig.6). The order of
 403 magnitude of these results is confirmed by literature values (Enerdata [4]: 15.9%, Frijns et al. [5]:
 404 20.3%, Tooke et al. [98]: 22%). The relevance of DHW energy consumption is 20% and 33% for
 405 low-energy and passive SFB and 34% and 49% for MFB. Esch single family and multifamily buildings
 406 (mixed usage buildings included) have a specific DHW energy consumption of 11.75 kWh/m² and
 407 17.33 kWh/m², while values of 13.9 kWh/m² and 20.8 kWh/m² are at national level (Luxemburgish
 408 Parliament [83]).

3.2.2. Contribution of DHW streams to household energy consumption

410 In terms of energy consumption, showering represents by far the most relevant DHW stream, which
 411 is confirmed by Elias-Maxil et al. [17], contributing between 5-8% (SFB), 14-18% (MFB) and 13-19%
 412 (MUB) to the total heat consumption of the buildings (fig.6). For low energy and passive buildings,
 413 this value reaches between 20 and 30 % for single family and between 30 and 44% for multifamily

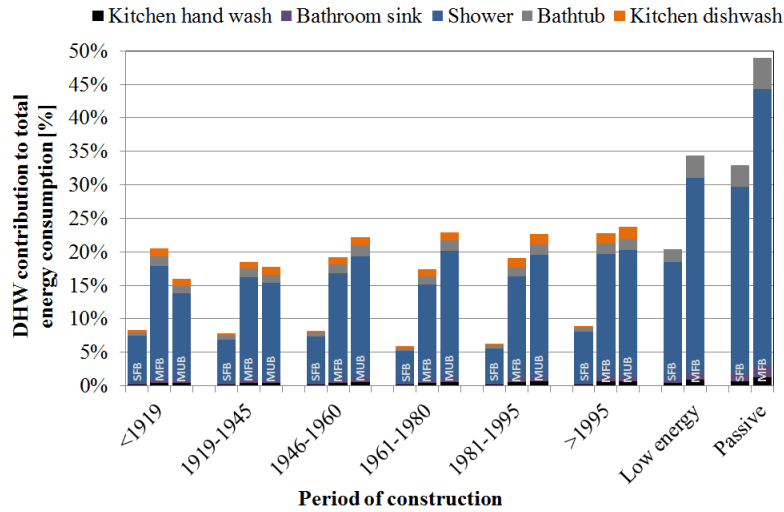


Figure 6: DHW energy demand contribution in households (SFB - single family building, MFB - multifamily building, MUB: mixed-use building)

414 buildings. The bathtub makes up between 2 to 5% of the total heat consumption, and the other
 415 streams around 1%.

416 Related to the total DHW energy consumption, showers contribute between 80 and 84% (fig.7). The
 417 energy consumption of the other DHW streams is comparatively small, with the bathtub contributing
 418 to 7%, the dish washing between 3 to 7%, the bathroom sink to 3% and hand washing to 2 to 3%. In
 419 low energy and passive buildings, shower makes up to 85% of the DHW energy consumption, bathtub
 420 10%, with the remaining streams totalling 5%.

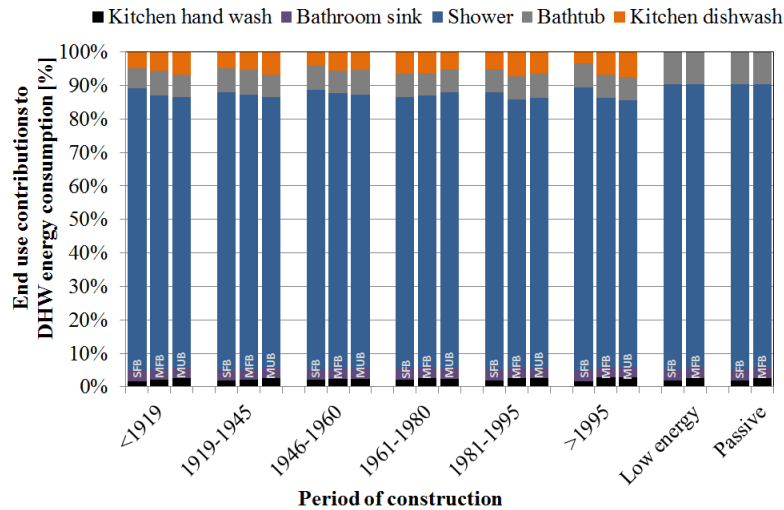


Figure 7: End-use contribution to household DHW energy demand (SFB - single family building, MFB - multifamily building, MUB: mixed-use building)

421 *3.2.3. DHW temperature level requirements*

422 Considering temperature levels, 0-1% of the total heat consumption is used for domestic hot water
 423 use at 35°C (all types of buildings), while 40°C streams represent 5-8%, 15-20% and 14-21% of the
 424 heat consumption of single family, multifamily and mixed-use buildings. DHW demand at 55°C (dish
 425 washing) lies between 0-2% of the total household heat consumption. For low energy and passive
 426 buildings equipped with dishwashers, 1-3 % of the DHW energy consumption is related to 35°C streams,
 427 while 19 to 46% of the energy consumption is for 40°C domestic hot water.

428 Set in relation to the DHW energy consumption, dish washing at 55°C makes between 5 to 7 %
 429 of the energy use (fig.8). 93% of the DHW energy consumption is therefore related to streams at or
 430 below 40°C, with 35°C end-use streams (hand wash and washing and shaving) representing around
 431 5%. In low energy and passive buildings, 35°C streams amounts to approximately 6% of DHW energy
 432 consumption, while, with the assumption that dishwasher are installed and therefore no 55°C hot water
 433 is required, the rest is used for 40°C streams.

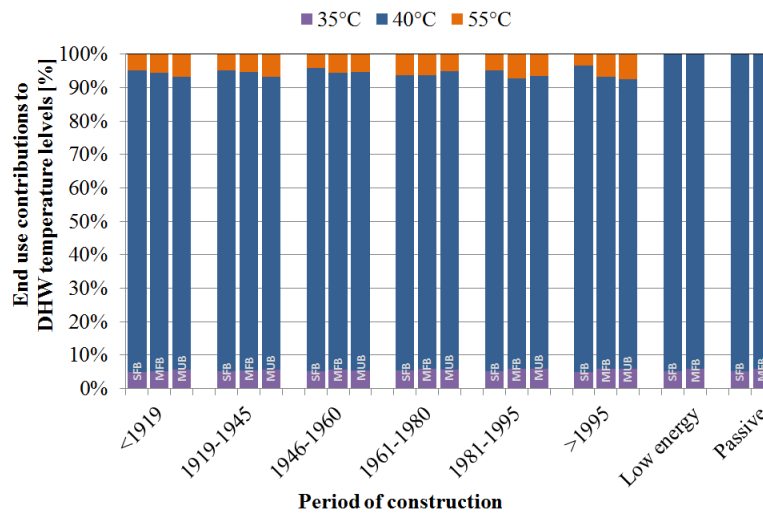


Figure 8: Temperature level contribution to household DHW energy demand (SFB - single family building, MFB - multifamily building, MUB: mixed-use building)

434 *3.2.4. Heat exchanger load for district heating systems*

435 With the characterisation of the various DHW streams, the load of DH stand-alone heat exchangers
 436 of 99% of the single family and 100% of the multifamily and mixed-use buildings is designed according
 437 to the DHW demand. Due to the high occurrence of dishwashers and bathtubs, 59% of the utility load
 438 of households are sized according to the bathtub load requirement. The stand-alone heat exchanger
 439 load of buildings, aggregated at district level (fig.9a), is between 1.9 and 2.9 times higher compared to
 440 a configuration with a hot water storage system (fig.9b).

441

442 *3.2.5. Energy integration of decentralised heat pump considering various hot water temperature levels*

443 The results of the energy integration of the heat pump in the low energy single family building
 444 is represented as cold (blue line) and hot (red line) composite curves, with the former representing
 445 the heating requirements of the building, and the latter the heat pump heating load. As the curves
 446 are based on pinch analysis theory (Linnhoff et al. [99]), they are both shifted by half of the assumed

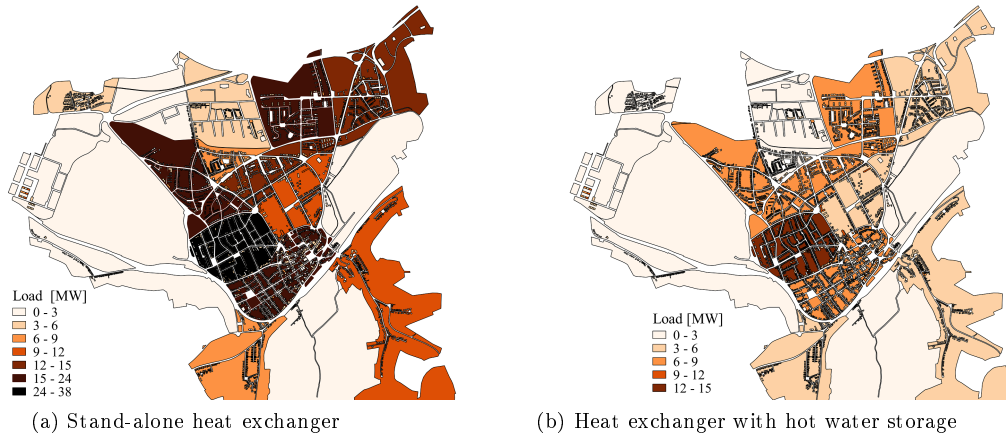


Figure 9: Utility heating load at district level

447 minimum temperature difference of 5 K, which explains e.g. the heating requirements temperature of
 448 62.5°C in the figure on the left.

449 fig.10a represents the configuration with 60°C hot water production. Considering an evaporation
 450 temperature of 10°C, the heat pump has a temperature lift of 50 K, which leads to a Coefficient Of
 451 Power (COP) of 3.10 and electricity costs of 419 €/year. By reducing the hot water temperature level
 452 (fig.10b) to the minimum required by space heating, DHW end-use temperature levels and hygienic
 453 constraints, the COP of the heat pump is increased by 14 % to a value of 3.61, reducing the costs to
 454 359 €/year.

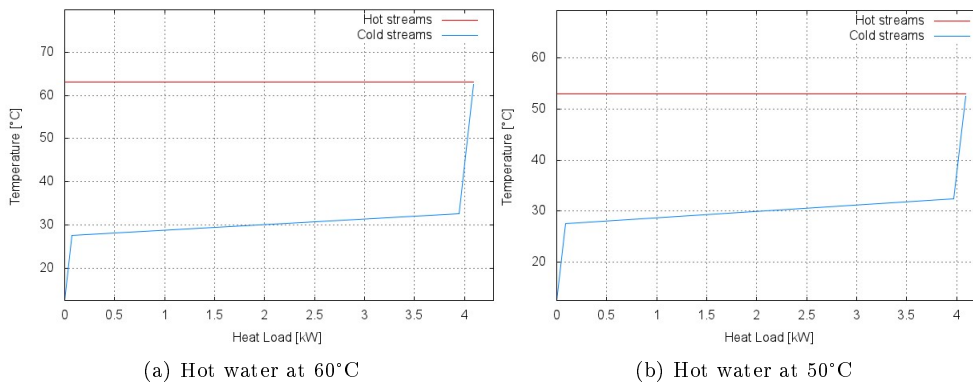


Figure 10: Composite curves of a low energy, single family building

455

456 4. Discussion

457 Although measured data on DHW energy consumption are not available to validate the outcomes
 458 of the case study and, therefore, the proposed modelling method, the related energy demand results
 459 are nevertheless confirmed by previous works focusing on DHW urban energy consumption.

460 The lower DHW energy consumption values of the proposed method, compared to the surface-
461 related method, and the lower specific energy consumption per surface, compared to legislation values,
462 actually highlight an advantage of the exposed method. The observed differences of the case-study are
463 most probably due to the inaccuracies in surface estimations, generated with geographical data and
464 therefore including non-heated surfaces (e.g. garages) or actually non-existing areas for buildings with
465 different levels. As an alternative to these estimation, the proposed modelling approach instead relies
466 on occupant and household or room numbers, data that are usually available from the municipality
467 or other sources. In addition, as particularly highlighted in the case of hotels in section 3.2.1, using
468 building occupant number instead of surface data as input parameter also allows to reflect the actual
469 level of occupancy of a building. An allocation of DHW energy use to empty or less-occupied buildings
470 is therefore avoided. By relating the DHW consumption to the occupants, the proposed method
471 generates more accurate results, in particular when surface data can only be roughly estimated. The
472 outcomes of space heating energy demand, when calculated at district, street or building block levels,
473 is therefore more precise. Due to the use of a randomising function for the geoallocation of various
474 end-uses, the proposed method should not be applied at building level. However, this is actually not
475 an issue, as the specific characterisation of the actual DHW end-uses can then be addressed in detail
476 anyway.

477 One drawback of the proposed DHW modelling method is the limited input data availability. DHW
478 data specific to the country should be considered, as water use differs according to geographical location
479 and living standards. But information on volumetric or mass flow, use duration, use frequency and
480 end-use occurrence are generally scarce, in particular for non-domestic buildings. Specific data for
481 other types of buildings with relevant DHW demand (e.g. hospitals, sport facilities) are not even
482 available or sufficiently detailed out. An additional weak point is the use of national statistical values
483 to calculate unit occupancy of lodgings, as an equal distribution of customers across the country is
484 assumed. Moreover, the detailed modelling of the DHW streams implies the risk that some end-uses
485 might be neglected, thus distorting the DHW and SH energy demand outcomes. Finally, the actual
486 user water consumption behaviour, which differs according to age and occupation during the day
487 (Blokker et al. [52]), is not reflected, as this work focuses on yearly assessments.

488 Further DHW data, covering additional building types, are therefore necessary for a complete
489 application of the proposed modelling method. It is also proposed to include regional or city-level
490 information on hotels and nursing homes directly in the input data set. To avoid the risk of omitting
491 relevant streams, users are encouraged to at least consider the four end-uses described in section 2.2,
492 which are commonly referred to in DHW-related publications. A validation of the aggregated DHW
493 demand results with national values is also recommended. Daily user behaviour patterns have already
494 been addressed in former publications and can be referred to in order to conduct assessments with
495 smaller time scale. Globally, as household DHW energy consumption is due to more than 80% to
496 showering only, integrated urban energy assessments and optimisation shall particularly focus on the
497 characterisation on this specific end-use.

498 The main significance of the proposed DHW modelling method lies in the simultaneous differenti-
499 ation and temperature characterisation of various DHW streams at urban scale, which leads to three
500 main contributions to current integrated urban energy assessments and optimisation methods.

501 First, the various heating demands of urban systems are better differentiated. This allows to
502 address the impact of specific optimisation measures, like water saving techniques or in-shower, in-
503 building or in-sewer heat recovery solutions. Moreover, the proposed method already generates part
504 of the necessary DHW data (stream types, flows, temperature, etc.) for the modelling and integration
505 of these optimisation measures at urban scale.

506 Second, the technological scope of integrated energy optimisation of heating utilities in buildings
507 with low temperature space heating is increased. The utility temperature of this type of building is
508 defined by the DHW requirements, as space heating temperature lies below that of DHW end-uses

509 (Brand et al. [19]). These requirements are precisely characterised with the use of the proposed DHW
510 modelling method, the only limit remaining Legionella proliferation, which, under certain DHW system
511 configurations, can still be avoided with hot water production temperature below 50°C. Therefore, with
512 the decrease of the temperature level requirement from typical 60°C to below 50°C, low temperature
513 utilities, like heat pumps or low temperature waste heat, have a stronger impact in the integrated
514 selection of optimal heating utilities. The reduction in temperature lift profits heat pumping solutions,
515 as their efficiency is improved with lower condensing temperature, and waste heat at a low temperature
516 level can be further valorised as the demand of fitting low temperature heat users is better characterised.

517 Finally, with the characterisation of the main DHW end-use loads, an additional configuration for
518 district heating transfer stations is available for integrated energy optimisation of urban systems. The
519 characterisation of these loads allows to model stand-alone heat exchangers, an alternative to the heat
520 exchanger and hot water storage unit configuration considered so far in integrated energy optimisation.
521 Previous works have showed that these stand-alone systems can yield equivalent or even better costs
522 and energy efficiency results. The optimal selection between these two configurations should therefore
523 be addressed in future integrated urban energy optimisation works.

524 5. Conclusions

525 A specific method characterising the main domestic hot water appliances in households, hotels
526 and nursing homes at urban level has been presented. The DHW-related energy demand results
527 have been confirmed by typical values in a real case-study. The proposed method contributes to
528 urban energy assessment methods by detailing out the type and quantity of energy demand of various
529 building heating end-uses, therefore providing part of the necessary data to address hot water energy
530 saving measures. The DHW models also contribute to the improvement of integrated urban energy
531 optimisation, in particular of buildings with low temperature space heating, by providing specific data
532 on temperature level requirements. As these temperatures are lower than those currently assumed,
533 systems like heat pumps and low temperature waste heat see their efficiency improved. Finally, the
534 method contributes to the integrated design and optimisation of district heating networks with the
535 modelling of an additional configuration of heat exchangers without hot water storage unit, which can
536 in certain cases have lower costs and / or better energy efficiency than configurations with storage
537 tanks.

538 The present work therefore globally supports the energy efficiency targets set by the European
539 Commission on the topic of near-zero energy buildings. It will be followed by the modelling of resi-
540 dential waste water streams and the integrated assessment of waste water heat recovery and optimal
541 utility selection in buildings at urban scale.

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