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Citation: Jamil, Muhammad Ahmad, Goraya, Talha S., Ng, Kim Choon, Zubair, Syed M., Xu, Bin and Shahzad, Muhammad Wakil (2021) Optimizing the Energy Recovery Section in Thermal Desalination Systems for Improved Thermodynamic, Economic, and Environmental Performance. International Communications in Heat and Mass Transfer, 124. p. 105244. ISSN 0735-1933

Published by: Elsevier

URL: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.icheatmasstransfer.2021.... <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.icheatmasstransfer.2021.105244>

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International Communications in Heat and Mass Transfer

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/ichmt



Optimizing the energy recovery section in thermal desalination systems for improved thermodynamic, economic, and environmental performance



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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords: Plate heat exchangers Preheaters Desalination Energy recovery Genetic algorithm Optimization Economic analysis

ABSTRACT

Integration of energy recovery section with thermal desalination systems improves their performance from thermodynamics, economics, and environmental viewpoints. This is because it significantly reduces input energy, heat transfer area, and capital cost requirements. Above all, the system outlet streams can achieve thermal equilibrium with the environment by supplying heat for useful preheating purposes thus reducing the environmental impacts. The plate heat exchangers are generally employed for this purpose as preheaters. The current paper presents a comprehensive investigation and optimization of these heat exchangers for thermal desalination systems applications. An experimentally validated numerical model employing Normalized Sensitivity Analysis and Genetic Algorithm based cost optimization is developed to investigate their performance at assorted operating conditions. The analysis showed that the heat transfer coefficient, pressure drop, and outlet water cost were improved by an increase in feed flow rate. However, with an increased flow rate, the comprehensive output parameter ($h/\Delta P$) decreased due to the high degree increase in pressure drop. Moreover, an increase in the chevron angle reduced the heat transfer coefficient, pressure drop. Moreover, an increase in the chevron angle reduced the heat transfer coefficient by ~62%, and the outlet cost of the cold stream by ~15.7%. The operational cost is increased due to the increased pressure drop but the overall impact is beneficial as C_{total} of equipment is reduced by ~52.7%.

1. Introduction

Thermal-based desalination systems are the mainstay of the water treatment industry and share almost 40% globally [1]. These systems primarily include multistage flash (MSF) [2,3], multi-effect desalination (MED) [4,5], thermal/mechanical vapor compression (TVC/MVC) systems [6,7] and adsorption systems [8,9]. The prime reasons for their dominance are high operational reliability, the capability to handle harsh feeds, low pre-and post-treatment requirements, less maintenance/equipment-replacement expenses, and the ability to use low-grade energy [10–12]. However, these systems operate at high top brine temperature (i.e., ≥ 55 °C), and are regarded as energy and cost-intensive systems [13]. Therefore, substantial research has been conducted to improve their performance from thermodynamic and economic viewpoints [14–16]. One important development in this regard is

the energy recovery i.e., preheating of intake by heat recovery from the distillate and brine streams [17]. This approach offers many advantages from thermodynamic, monetary, and environmental perspectives as it recovers heat that would be wasted otherwise resulting in higher thermal losses and increased risk for the aquatic life in the vicinity [18,19]. Moreover, it also reduces the sensible heating loads in the evaporators which lowers the area and investments [20].

The most commonly used preheaters for this purpose are the corrugated plate heat exchangers (PHXs) [21]. The salient features that make PHXs the most suitable for this job include narrow temperature control, easy maintenance, high operating reliability, and flexibility to accommodate varying loads [22,23]. However, it is important to mention that despite considerable importance, a cost-optimized design and analysis of PHXs as preheaters has seldom been conducted in desalination system studies [24–26]. Rather, the heat exchanger design is either missing [27] or restricted to preliminary sizing [28]. The heat transfer area in these

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https://doi.org/10.1016/j.icheatmasstransfer.2021.105244

Available online 23 March 2021

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Nomenclature		В	brine
		с	cold
C_h	constant for Nusselt number calculation in Table 3	ci	cold in
Ċ	product cost, (\$/h)	со	cold out
C_{total}	total cost of equipment, \$	ch	per channel
C_{o}	annual current cost, \$/y	h	hot
C_{ele}	cost of electricity, \$/kWh	hi	hot in
\overline{ex}	Specific exergy, k.J/kg	ho	hot out
h	local heat transfer coefficient, W/m ² K	i	inlet
h'	enthalpy, kJ	man	manifold
i	interest rate, %	0	outlet
ṁ	mass flow rate, kg/s	Р	port
Np	number of plates	SW	Sea Water
Nu	Nusselt number	t	total
n _v	equipment life, year	w	wall
Ρ́Ρ	pumping power, W		
ΔP	pressure drop, Pa	Superscri	pts
Pr	Prandtl number	m	constant for friction factor calculation
Re	Reynolds number	n	constant for Nusselt number calculation
S	Entropy, J/K	W	wall
U	global heat transfer coefficient, W/m ² K	Abbrevia	tions
\dot{W}_p	pump work, kW	CRF	capital recovery factor
Х	flow exergy rate, kW	CAPEX	capital investment
X_D	exergy destruction, kW	CEPCI	chemical engineering plant cost index
Ż	annual rate of capital investment, \$/v	ER	energy recovery
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	GOR	gain output ratio
Greek syn	mbols	HX	heat exchange
ζ	rate of fixed cost, \$/s	LMTD	log mean temperature difference
β	chevron angle, deg	MED	multi-effect desalination
Δ	change in quantity	MSF	multistage flash
д	partial	MVC	mechanical vapor compression
ρ	density, kg/m ³	NSC	normalized sensitivity coefficients
μ	viscosity, kg/ms	PHXs	plate heat exchangers
Λ	Operation hours, hour	OFAT	one-factor-at-a-time
η	efficiency	OPEX	operational cost
δ	local sensitivity	RC	relative contribution
ζx	certainty about nominal value	SEE	single effect evaporation
Subcomint	c.	SEC	specific energy consumption
o	dood state	TVC	thermal vapor compression
U	עדמע אנמוד		

studies is estimated using conventional heat transfer coefficient correlations that are only a function of temperature proposed by Dessouky et al. [29-31]. Though the methods give a quick estimate of the heat transfer area, the reliability of such calculations is suspected. This is because the heat transfer coefficients in heat exchangers are the functions of temperature, pressure, thermophysical properties, geometric constraints, and flow characteristics [32-34]. For instance, many studies reported the plate chevron angle (β) as the most important geometric parameter governing the thermodynamic performance of PHXs [35–39]. Similarly, flow rate, fluid properties, and heat duty also have a remarkable effect on thermohydraulic performance [40-42]. The optimization studies have also reported multiple geometric and process parameters that control the PHX performance [43-46]. The most influencing parameters have been identified as, number of plates/ channels, plate type (pattern), dimensions of chevron corrugation, number of passes, type of channel flow [47-49].

The literature review suggests that there is a significant need for a rigorous cost-effective design and analysis of the energy recovery section for thermal desalination systems. One of the recent works partially addressing this issue is conducted by Jamil et al. [50]. However, the study presented the design and analysis of preheating section from a thermohydraulic viewpoint only and lacks economic analysis and

optimization. The current paper is focused to add value by optimizing the thermal-hydraulic model (presented in [50]) for minimum cost. For this purpose, a very useful and reliable tool "Exergoeconomic Analysis" is employed as a simultaneous application of thermodynamics and monetary analyses. The study is designed to achieve the following objectives: (a) a detailed thermal-hydraulic design and analysis using experimentally validated numerical model, (b) Second Law analysis, (c) economic analysis for capital and operational cost, (d) sensitivity analysis for Normalized Sensitivity Coefficients (NSC) and Relative Contribution (RC) of sensitive parameters, (e) parametric analysis using a onefactor-at-a-time approach, and (f) optimization for minimum cost using Genetic Algorithm.

2. Impact of the energy recovery section

The layout of a traditional desalination system integrated with the energy recovery (ER) section is shown in Fig. 1. The ER section consists of two plate heat exchangers i.e., feed and brine preheaters based on the hot fluid stream. A recent study by Abid et al. [51,52] on the impacts of incorporating energy recovery section with a forward feed MED system conforms its benefits from thermodynamics, economic, and environmental perspectives. The analysis reported that for a 4-effect forward



Fig. 1. Conventional thermal desalination system with energy recovery.

feed MED system, the ER section increased the feed temperature up to 35%. Consequently, the Gain Output Ratio (GOR) improved by 17.9%, the Specific Energy Consumption (SEC) decreased by 15% (refer Fig. 2 (a)) and the heat transfer area by reduced by 0.42%. The total exergy destruction and the water production cost are reduced by 5.5% and 10.5% (see Fig. 2 (b)) due to the reduction in heat transfer area and energy consumption. In addition, the temperatures of the distillate and brine streams are lowered by 45% and 50%, which is an added advantage from the environmental point of view (refer to Fig. 4). Therefore, critical analysis and cost-optimized design of the energy recovery section are essential to achieve the goals of minimum water production cost. (See Fig. 3.)



Fig. 2. Impact of energy recovery on the thermodynamic and economic performance of forward feed MED system.



Fig. 4. The schematic diagram for heat exchanger configuration.

3. Materials and methods

3.1. Heat exchanger configuration

The system under consideration consists of a corrugated plate heat exchanger and two pumps to manage the desired flow rates and pressures as shown in Fig. 4. The system preheats the intake seawater using a hot brine stream coming from a Single Effect Mechanical Vapor Compression (MVC) based thermal desalination system [53]. The operating parameters i.e., temperatures, mass flows, and salinity of cold and hot streams are taken from recent studies for a practical design and analysis purpose as summarized in Table 1 [53].

3.2. Thermal-hydraulic analysis model

The thermal-hydraulic design presented in [50] is used for the calculation of temperatures, flow rates, heat duty, local and overall heat transfer coefficients, heat transfer area, pressure drops, and pumping power. The thermal analysis involves the calculation of the Nusselt number (*Nu*) which is given as a function of Reynold number (*Re*) and Prandtl number (*Pr*) [54–56].

$$Nu = C_h R e^n P r^{\frac{1}{3}} \left(\frac{\mu}{\mu_w} \right)^{0.17}$$
(1)

where C_h and *n* vary with Re and β as given in [50,54–56].

The hydraulic design involves the calculation of total pressure drop which is the sum of the pressure drop in channels, ports, and manifolds as given [39,56].

$$\Delta P_{total} = \Delta P_{ch} + \Delta P_p + \Delta P_{man} \tag{2}$$

The pumping power, which is the main parameter governing the operational cost of the heat exchanger is calculated as.

$$P_{power} = \frac{\dot{m} \,\Delta P_{total}}{\eta \rho} \tag{3}$$

A detailed discussion regarding the selection and implementation of these correlations is presented in the referred study [50].

3.3. Exergy analysis

It is an important tool for heat exchanger optimization because it involves the calculation of lost work (exergy destruction) [57]. This is because the desirable high heat transfer coefficients in HXs are accompanied by corresponding high-pressure drops. The exergy analysis accounts for the variations in temperature and pressure simultaneously thus measuring overall performance. The performance index for this analysis is exergy destruction [58,59]. To conduct this analysis, the flow exergy is calculated at each terminal point (i.e., inlets and outlets of the pumps and HX) based on the mass flow rate salinity, temperature, and

ŀ



Fig. 3. Energy recovery from outlet streams for thermal equilibrium.

Table 1

Process input parameters [53].				
Parameter	Value			
Cold water flow rate, $\dot{m}_{SW}(kg/s)$	13			
Hot water flow rate, $\dot{m}_B(kg/s)$	13			
Coldwater temperature, $T_{SW}(i/o)$ (°C)	21/57			
Hot water temperature, $T_B(i/o)$ (°C)	63/23			
Coldwater salinity, <i>S_{SW}</i> (i/o) (°C)	40			
Hot water salinity, $S_{SW}(i/o)$ (°C)	80			

pressure as given in Eq. 5. After that, a standard exergy balance equation is solved for all the component to get X_D as given in Eq. 6. In the current study, the specific flow exergy \overline{ex} is calculated using the seawater library [60,61].

$$\overline{ex} = \left[(h' - h_0') - T_0(s - s_0) \right] + \overline{ex}_{che}$$
(4)

$$\dot{X} = \dot{m} \overline{ex} \tag{5}$$

$$\dot{X}_{Des} = \dot{X}_i - \dot{X}_o \tag{6}$$

3.4. Economic analysis

For standalone heat exchangers, the economic analysis is generally restricted to the calculation of capital and operational expenses i.e., CAPEX and OPEX, respectively [62–64]. However, for a system analysis with multiple components e.g., desalination systems consisting of heat exchangers, evaporators, pumps, compressors, etc. the stream cost is far more important than merely CAPEX and OPEX [65]. This is because, in these systems, the heat exchanger performance depends upon the plant operating parameters, and thus the HX is designed to fulfill the plant requirements rather than simply optimum local performance [53,66]. The details regarding the different components of economic analysis are presented below.

3.4.1. Capital expenses

These capital expenses (CAPEX) measure the money expended in equipment purchasing at the time and location of the study. The best approach for the calculation of CAPEX is the use of empirical correlations developed by researchers after an extensive survey. This is because for a flexible and rigorous design and analysis the parameter-dependent cost can only accommodate the variations in process and design parameters conveniently [67]. Therefore, in the current study, the CAPEX for pumps and heat exchanger is calculated using reliable correlation [68]. In this regard, all the correlations reported in the literature and their applicability ranges for heat exchangers are summarized in Table 2. It can be observed that the capital cost for a pump is given in terms of flow rate, pressure differential, and efficiency. While for heat exchanger the capital cost correlations are based on the heat transfer area. An installation factor of 1.5–2.0 is also used to accurately predict the expenses required to make the heat exchanger functional at the point

Table 2
Correlations for calculation of CAPEX of equipment.

Correlation	Applicability range (SI)	Ref.
$\begin{array}{l} {\it CAPEX_p^{\$}} = \\ 13.92 \ \dot{m} \ \Delta {\it P}^{0.55} \left(\eta / (1 - \eta) \right)^{1.05} {\it (\checkmark)} \end{array}$	$2 \leq \dot{m} \leq 32, 1.8 \leq e \leq 9, 100 \leq \Delta P \leq 6200$	[68]
$CAPEX_{PHX}^{\$} = 1000(12.86 + A^{0.8}) \cdot IF$	N/A	[76]
$CAPEX_{PHX}^{\$} = 1839 \cdot IF \cdot A^{0.4631}$	$A^{Tit} \le 18.6m^2$ $P \le 10$ bar $T \le 160^{\circ}C$	[77–79]
$\textit{CAPEX}^{\$}_{\textit{PHX}} = 781 \cdot \textit{IF} \cdot A^{0.7514}$	$A^{Tit} \ge 18.6m^2$ $P < 10$ bar, $T < 160^{\circ}C$	
$\textit{CAPEX}^{\$}_{\textit{PHX}} = 1281 \cdot \textit{IF} \cdot A^{0.4887}$	$A^{SS} \le 18.6m^2$ $P \le 10$ bar $T \le 160^{\circ}C$	
$\textit{CAPEX}^{\$}_{\textit{PHX}} = 702 \cdot \textit{IF} \cdot \textit{A}^{0.6907}$	$A^{SS} \ge 18.6m^2$ $B \le 10 \text{ bar } T \le 160^{\circ}C$	
$CAPEX_{PHX}^{\$} = 635.14 \cdot A^{0.778}$ $CAPEX_{PHX}^{\$} = 1391 \cdot A^{0.778}$	SS-CS Titanium	[49,80,81]

(\checkmark) currently used, Where, *IF* is the installation factor for PHX ranging 1.5–2.0 [77].

of utility. Moreover, the constants in the correlations vary with changing materials, however the general form for all the correlations is almost same.

It is important to mention that the use of the above-discussed correlations requires a reasonable adjustment to adapt to the monetary variation in the equipment purchasing costs over the years due to fiscal policy changes [69]. In this aspect, the most systematic approach is the use of the cost index factor (C_{index}) [70,71]. The C_{index} is computed using CEPCI index of the original/reference year and the present year as given below [72,73].

$$C_{index} = \frac{CEPCI_{current}}{CEPCI_{reference}}$$
(7)

$$CAPEX_{current}^{\$} = C_{index} \times CAPEX_{reference}^{\$}$$
(8)

Cindex 1.7 is determined in the current analysis based on CEPCI_{1990} 390 [74] and CEPCI_{2020} 650 [75]. Nevertheless, the influence of Cindex is, however, studied for a wide variety of values for detailed design and analysis purposes.

3.4.2. Operational expenses

The operational expenses (OPEX) are calculated using annual current cost C_o (\$/y), component life, n_y (year), unit energy rate, C_{elec} (\$/kWh), yearly interest rate, *i* (%), operating hours $\Lambda(h/y)$, and pump power *PP* (*kW*) as.

$$OPEX = \sum_{j=1}^{n_y} \frac{C_o}{(1+i)^{-j}}$$
(9)

$$C_o = PP \times C_{elec} \times \Lambda \tag{10}$$

M.A. Jamil et al.

$$PP = \frac{1}{\eta} \left(\frac{\dot{m}_{SW} \Delta P_{SW}}{\rho_{SW}} + \frac{\dot{m}_B \Delta P_B}{\rho_B} \right)$$
(11)

where, $n_y = 10$ year, $\Lambda = 7000 h/y$, i = 10%, $C_{elec} = 0.09$ (\$/KWh) and $\eta = 78\%$ [62].

Finally, the total cost is calculated as [62,63].

$$C_{total} = CAPEX + OPEX \tag{12}$$

3.4.3. Exergoeconomic analysis and cost flow

The hot water outlet cost is estimated by applying the general cost approach [53]. In this regard, the CAPEX calculated above is transformed into the yearly rate of capital $\cot \hat{Z}(\$/y)$ through capital recovery factor (*CRF*) which is given as [66].

$$CRF = \frac{i \times (1+i)^{n_y}}{(1+i)^{n_y} - 1}$$
(13)

$$\dot{Z} = CRF \times CAPEX \tag{14}$$

Then the cost flow rate in seconds i.e. ζ (in \$/s) is determined using the plant availability factor (Λ) [19].

$$\zeta = \frac{Z}{3600 \times \Lambda} \tag{15}$$

Thereafter, the cost balance takes the form [82].

$$\dot{C}_o = \Sigma \dot{C}_i + \zeta \tag{16}$$

where \dot{C}_0 represents the monetary value of the local output stream, \dot{C}_i the monetary value the inlet stream, and the component cost rate ζ .

The cost balance for pump and HX are given as:

$$\dot{C}_o = \dot{C}_i + C_{elec} \, \dot{W}_P + \zeta_P \tag{17}$$

$$\dot{C}_{c,o} = \dot{C}_{c,i} + \dot{C}_{h,i} - \dot{C}_{h,o} + \zeta_{PHX}$$
 (18)

The intake cost of cold water is taken from reference [83]. Meanwhile, it is worth mentioning that the components with multiple outputs (i.e., HXs, evaporation effects, flashing stages, and RO trains, etc.,) need supplementary equations for the solution. For a system with "k" outputs, a "k-1" number of supplementary equations are needed [84]. The equality of the average cost of inlet and outlet streams is based on these Eqs. [85]. The auxiliary equation to solve the cost balance of PHX is given as:

$$\frac{\dot{C}_{B,i}}{X_{B,i}} - \frac{\dot{C}_{B,o}}{X_{B,o}} = 0$$
(19)

3.4.4. Sensitivity analysis

The sensitivity analysis also used as uncertainty propagation analysis (in experiments) is a powerful tool to assess the response of the output parameter to the perturbations in input parameters [86,87]. Besides measuring the "goodness" of results, this analysis can also satisfactorily conduct malfunction diagnosis and design improvements by highlighting the most responsive parameters for subsequent research [88,89]. In this regard, partial derivative-based sensitivity analysis is one of the most useful methods [90]. In this technique, all independent variables are simulated as a sum of their nominal values and the disturbances/perturbations as below [91].

$$X = \overline{X} \pm U_X \tag{20}$$

where \overline{X} denotes the nominal value and $\pm \widehat{U}_X$ the uncertainty about the nominal value.

The respective uncertainty in the output parameter Y(X) due to uncertainty in *X* is given as [92].

$$\widehat{U}_Y = \frac{dY}{dX}\widehat{U}_X \tag{21}$$

For a multi-variate response variable, the total uncertainty is given as [93].

$$\widehat{U}_{Y} = \left[\sum_{j=1}^{N} \left(\frac{\partial Y}{\partial X_{j}} \widehat{U}_{Xj}\right)^{2}\right]^{1/2}$$
(22)

Where each partial derivative term in the above equation represents the sensitivity coefficient (SC) of the respective variable [93]. These coefficients are further refined by normalizing the perturbations in the outlet parameter Y and input parameter X by their corresponding nominal values and are known as Normalized Sensitivity Coefficients (NSC) [94]. This normalization allows a comparison of parameters with a significantly different magnitude on a common platform [95]. These coefficients are given mathematically as [96].

$$\frac{\widehat{U}_{Y}}{\overline{Y}} = \left[\sum_{j=1}^{N} \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial Y}{\partial X_{j}} \, \overline{\overline{X}_{j}}\right)^{2}}_{\left(\frac{\widehat{U}_{X_{j}}}{\overline{X}_{j}}\right)^{2}} \underbrace{\left(\frac{\widehat{U}_{X_{j}}}{\overline{X}_{j}}\right)^{2}}_{\left(\frac{\widehat{U}_{X_{j}}}{\overline{X}_{j}}\right)^{2}}\right]^{1/2}$$
(23)

where NSC is the normalized sensitivity coefficient and the NU is the normalized uncertainty.

In the current analysis, the heat transfer coefficient, pressure drop, operational cost, and stream cost are taken as response parameters. The input variables involve process parameters like mass flow rate, fluid temperature, and monetary parameters i.e., interest rate, energy cost, and cost index factor.

The relative contribution (RC) of the input parameter is another key factor that is used to classify the leading responders to uncertainty by merging the sensitivity coefficients with the actual uncertainties [95]. It is calculated as a square of the product of SC and U, normalized by U^2 of the output parameter [96].

$$RC = \frac{\left(\frac{\partial Y}{\partial X_j} \widehat{U}_{X_j}\right)^2}{\widehat{U}_{Y}^2}$$
(24)

4. Numerical solution strategy

The above presented mathematical model is numerically solved on Engineering Equation Solver (EES) software. First, the process parameters (i.e., T, P, m, etc.) are provided as input known data (refer to Table 1). Then the thermophysical properties are calculated at inlets and outlets of the pumps and heat exchanger using the seawater library [61]. This is followed by a detailed exergoeconomic analysis. Then the normalized sensitivity analysis is conducted to estimate the NSC and RC of important input parameters. This is followed by the parametric analysis of sensitive input parameters on the comprehensive HX performance. Finally, the Genetic Algorithm is employed for optimization of the geometric parameters for the minimum total cost (C_{total}). The solution flow chart for the numerical code is presented in Fig. 5.

The simulation is based on the following standard assumptions: (a) steady flow process, (b) significant heat transfer in transverse direction only, (c) uniform heat transfer coefficients, (d) insignificant heat loss in and ΔP in pipes, (e) incompressible fluid flow, (f) no heat leak to the environment, (g) constant thermal conductivity of plates, and (h) no endogenous or exogeneous heat sources or sinks other than hot and cold fluids.



Fig. 5. The simulation flow chart for simulation.

5. Results and discussion

5.1. Model validation

The numerical model developed is validated with the experimental data from a laboratory-scale PHX (Model: edibon-TIPL-0083/16) shown in Fig. 6. The geometric parameters of the experimental setup are presented in the referred study [50]. The experiments are conducted for three different operating scenarios as summarized in Fig. 7. For each case, the setup is operated for 35 min and the data is recorded after the system stabilized. For numerical validation, the recorded data (from the data acquisition system i.e., edibon-SCADA) is imported in EES software using the Look-up table command. Fig. 6 shows a very close agreement between experimental and numerical values. However, at flow rates approaching the maximum operating limits of HX, a deviation (max $\pm 10\%$) is observed probably due to the inaccuracy of flow sensors and non-negligible heat losses.

5.2. Preliminary design

It involves thermohydraulic design and analysis from an exergy and economic viewpoint as presented in Table 3 also reported by Jamil and Zubair [53]. The initial design reports that an area of 245 m² is required



Fig. 7. Model validation with experimental data [50].

to increase the intake seawater temperature from 21 °C to 57 °C by recovering heat from the brine stream entering the HX at 63 °C and leaving at 23 °C. The other thermal-hydraulic performance parameters are calculated as $h_h = 12.2 \text{ kW/m}^2\text{K}$, $h_c = 12.5 \text{ kW/m}^2\text{K}$, $U = 4.9 \text{ kW/m}^2\text{K}$, $\Delta P_h = 48.4 \text{ kPa}$, $\Delta P_c = 48.1 \text{ kPa}$, and PP = 1.55 kW. Similarly, the



Fig. 6. Experimental test setup.

M.A. Jamil et al.

Table 3

Preliminary ana	lysis of PHX i	for the MVC system.
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Parameters	Value
Chevron angle β , deg	45
Effective heat transfer area A_e , m^2	245
Number of plates, N_p	291
Heat transfer coefficient, $h_h / h_c kW/m^2 K$	12.2 / 12.5
Hot side pressure drop, $\Delta P_{h,Total} / \Delta P_{c,Total} kPa$	48.4 /
	48.12
The ratio of heat transfer coefficient and pressure drop, $h_c/\Delta P_{c,Totab}$ m/s K	0.26
Overall heat transfer coefficient, U_c , W/m^2K	4968
Pumping power, PP, kW	1.56
Total exergy destruction, $X_{D,Totab}$ kW	32
Heat exchanger capital cost, CAPEX _{HX} , k\$	161
Operational cost, OPEX, k\$	6
Total cost, Ctotal, k\$	167
Stream cost of hot outlet, $\dot{C}_{h,o}/\dot{C}_{c,o}$, $\$/h$	0.52/12.65

exergoeconomic analysis estimated the total exergy destruction as 31.81 kW, the total capital expenses as 164.46 k, operational expenses as 6 k, and the stream cost for feed water at the HX outlet as 12.65 s/h.

5.3. Sensitivity analysis

The study is carried out to determine the most influential parameters influencing the output parameters, i.e. the coefficient of heat transfer, pressure drop, operating cost, and stream cost. The results are presented in terms of NSC and RC as shown in Fig. 8. It is seen that (refer to Fig. 8 (a)) The most influential parameters in terms of *NSC* for the heat transfer coefficient (h_c) are the \dot{m}_{c} , followed by $T_{c, i}$, and S_c . The corresponding RC is dominated by \dot{m}_c with ~88% followed by $T_{c, i}$, and S_c with ~11.7% and ~ 0.05%, respectively. Similarly, for pressure drop (ΔP_c) (refer Fig. 8 (b)) the most influential parameter is \dot{m}_c with an RC of ~99.6%.

Likewise, from the economic viewpoint (refer to Fig. 8 (c)), the OPEX appeared to be sensitive to the fiscal parameters in as follows $\dot{m}_c > \dot{m}_h > C_{ele} > i > \eta_p$. While, the RC is the highest for C_{ele} with ~86.2%, followed

by *i*, \dot{m}_c , \dot{m}_h , and η_p with ~8.94%, ~1.88%, ~1.84%, and ~ 1.15%, respectively. The product cost ($C_{c,o}$) has NSC as follows $C_{index}>i > T_{h,i} > \eta_p > \dot{m}_c > \dot{m}_h > C_{ele}$. While, the RC is the highest for *i* with ~95.5% followed by C_{index} and $T_{h,i}$ with ~2.50% and ~ 1.65%, respectively as illustrated in Fig. 8 (d).

Overall, the exergoeconomic performance of PHX is sensitive to several processes and fiscal parameters. Therefore, an equivalent apportionment should be given to sensitive parameters while designing/ analyzing the heat exchanger.

5.4. Thermal hydraulic and economic

The most influential parameters affecting the heat transfer coefficient (h) and pressure drop (ΔP) of PHXs are mass flow rate and plate chevron angle [50]. The h and ΔP increased with increasing flow rate. However, the pressure drop observed a higher-order increase compared to h. Therefore, the h/ ΔP factor reduced with increasing flow rate as



Fig. 9. Effect of flow rate on $h/\Delta P$ and operational expenses.



Fig. 8. Sensitivity analysis results i.e., NSC and RC of different input parameters on performance parameters (a) h_c (b) ΔP_c (c) OPEX (d) $C_{c,o}$.

shown in Fig. 9. Similarly, for chevron angle, the $h/\Delta P$ followed the order as $\beta = 65^{\circ} > 60^{\circ} > 50^{\circ} > 45^{\circ}$ with the lowest for $\beta = 30^{\circ}$ due to very high-pressure drop.

Similarly, the operational cost (OPEX) and outlet cost of the cold stream ($\dot{C}_{c,o}$) increased because the pressure drop is increasing at high order which consumes more pumping power and ultimately the cost of electricity increased as illustrated in Figs. 9 and 10. Thus, for the chevron angle, the OPEX and $\dot{C}_{c,o}$ followed the order as $\beta = 30^{\circ} > 45^{\circ} >$ $50^{\circ} > 60^{\circ}$ with the lowest for $\beta = 65^{\circ}$ due to low-pressure drop at high chevron angle which consumes low pumping power.

5.5. Effect of economic parameters

The conventional studies are primarily targeted at analyzing the effect of the flow and geometric parameters. However, the investigation of the combinatory effect of process and fiscal parameters on the thermoeconomics performance gained significant importance in recent studies [23,65]. This is because the system operating with a different inflation rate, the unit cost of electricity, the chemical cost would certainly have different operating costs (OPEX) with similar thermalhydraulic efficiency [53,66]. As the sensitivity analysis emphasizes in the above section, the importance of influencing economic parameters on the monetary output of PHXThe investigation of the fiscal parameters of PHX's economic output has therefore yielded accurate results for different regions and/or different economic policies over time.

The total cost (C_{total}) and product cost of the cold stream ($\dot{C}_{c.o}$) are increasing as the cost index factor, inflation rate and cost of electricity are increasing as shown in Fig. 10. For instance, for Cindex= 1.7, Ctotal and $\dot{C}_{c,o}$ (refer to Fig. 11 (a) and (b)) increased ~62% and ~ 13.85% for $\beta =$ 30° over 30 years due to market inflation. Similarly, for $\beta = 30^{\circ}$, the $\dot{C}_{c.0}$ (refer to Fig. 11 (c) and (d)) increased ~17.7% and ~ 3.80% when the inflate rate and electricity cost varies from 1 to 14% and 0.01-0.15 k wh respectively. Therefore, for chevron angle, C_{total} and $\dot{C}_{c.o}$ followed the order as $\beta = 30^{\circ} > 45^{\circ} > 50^{\circ} > 60^{\circ}$ with the lowest for $\beta = 65^{\circ}$ for the fiscal parameters.

5.6. Exergoeconomic flow diagram

A significant visual representation of the thermo-economic output at each specific point of the system is the exergoeconomic flow diagram. It illustrates the exergy and economics of all streams at the inlet and out of each component of the system calculated using local process and fiscal parameters. The pictorial demonstration is important for multicomponent systems to identify how efficiently each component in the system is working from exergetic and economic viewpoints. Contrarily, the simple economic analysis gives the inputs and outputs at system

 $m_h = 13 \text{ kg/s}, i = 10\%, C_{ele} = 0.09 \text{ k/kWh}, \Lambda = 7000 \text{ h/y}, C_{c,i} = C_{h,i} = 4.9 \text{ k/h}$ 13.2 13.1 13 Cc., (\$/h) 12.9 12.8 12.7 12.6 12.5 12.4 5 11 12 13 14 15 6 8 9 10 m_c (kg/s)

Fig. 10. Effect of feed mass flow rate on the product cost of the cold stream.

6. Optimization

After a detailed normalized sensitivity and parametric analyses, the cost optimization of PHX as a brine preheater of a conventional single effect MVC system as shown in Fig. 13 is conducted. For this purpose, the Genetic Algorithm ie employed such that the total cost (Ctotal) of equipment is taken as an objective function that must be minimized meanwhile maintaining the thermal performance of PHX. The decision parameters against the objective function (C_{total}) are port diameter, the horizontal distance between opening, pitch, tube thickness, enlargement factor, and a number of plates.

The ranges of constrains variables are selected carefully from the literature [49,97] as summarized in Table 4. It is important to mention that the chevron angle (β) is taken as constant for optimization because the chevron angle is the most influential geometric parameters which affect the thermal performance of the heat exchanger [35–39]. Therefore, it's taken as constant to maintain or improve the thermal performance of the heat exchanger [97,98]. The values of algorithm-specific parameters i.e., generations = 400, population size = 150, and mutation probability = 0.035 are taken as reported by Hajabdollahi et al. [49]. The convergence of the genetic algorithm is illustrated in Fig. 14. The perfect convergence has occurred almost within 201 generations (30,475 iterations). However, the C_{total} is reduced by ~52.5% at 50 generations (7677 iterations).

The detailed results of the optimization for PHX via a genetic algorithm (GA) is represented in Table 5. It can be observed that the optimization altered the thermal, hydraulic, and economic performance of PHX. The thermal performance of PHX is improved as the heat transfer of hot and cold streams is increased by \sim 58.74% and \sim 58.73 respectively which increased the overall heat transfer coefficient by \sim 65.4%. However, the pressure is high as compared to standard values but within the permissible range of plate heat exchanger i.e., 0.1-1.5 MPa [56]. The comprehensive parameter $h/\Delta P$ is reduced by ~46.6% because of pressure drops. The pumping power is also increased by 2.97 folds to overcome the pressure drop across the heat exchanger.

Meanwhile, due to the modification in the design parameters, the number of plates and tube thickness is reduced while the port diameter and tube pitch are increased. The heat transfer area is reduced significantly by~79.5% which reduced the capital investment (CAPEX) by ~62%. Also, the operational cost (OPEX) increased from 6.02 k to 17.91 k\$ due to pumping power. However, the overall impact is beneficial as the total cost (C_{total}) of the equipment is reduced by ~52.7%. Similarly, the outlet cost of the feed water stream is reduced by $\sim 15.7\%$.

Overall, the sensitivity analysis and optimization of traditional PHX have greatly enhanced the design and analysis process. Therefore, modern system analysis should be extended to normalized sensitivity analysis and optimization rather than relying exclusively on classical parametric analysis.

7. Concluding remarks

A liquid phase water-to-water plate heat exchanger is investigated as a preheater that uses hot brine coming from a single effect mechanical vapor compression (SEE-MVC) based thermal desalination system. The system is analyzed from thermo-hydraulic, and economic viewpoints. The EES based numerical code is validated against the experimental setup. Sensitivity and parametric analyses are used to investigate the most important parameters. The exergy-and-cost flow-based exergoeconomic analysis is also conducted to calculate the exergies and outlet cost of streams at each component of the system. Finally, the multi-objective optimization of PHX is performed using the Genetic Algorithm. The major findings of the study are as follows.





Fig. 11. Effect of monetary (a) total cost against cost index factor, (b) cold water outlet cost against cost index factor, (c) cold water outlet cost against interest rate, and (d) cold water outlet cost against unit electricity cost.



Fig. 12. Exergoeconomic flow diagram for PHX arrangement.

- The normalized sensitivity analysis shows that the most influential parameters in terms of NSC for the heat transfer coefficient (h_c) are the \dot{m}_c , followed by $T_{c, i}$, and S_c . Similarly, for pressure drop (ΔP_c), the most influential parameter is \dot{m}_c . Furthermore, the OPEX appeared to be sensitive to the fiscal and process parameters in the following order $\dot{m}_c > \dot{m}_h > C_{ele} > i > \eta_p$ while the and the product cost ($C_{c,o}$) followed as $C_{index} > i > T_{h, i} > \eta_p > \dot{m}_c > \dot{m}_h > C_{ele}$.
- The parametric analysis shows that an increase in the feed mass flow rate decreases $h/\Delta P$ because of high order rise in pressure drop but increases the operational cost and outlet cost of the cold stream due to high consumption of pumping power to overcome pressure drop. Therefore, for the chevron angle, the OPEX and $\dot{C}_{c,o}$ followed the order as $\beta = 30^{\circ} > 45^{\circ} > 50^{\circ} > 60^{\circ}$ with the lowest for $\beta = 65^{\circ}$ due to low-pressure drop at a high angle which required low power.



Table 4

Va	lues	for	genet	ic al	gorit	hm	[49,9	97.].

Parameters	Guess Values	Constraint bounds			
		Lower	Upper	Optimum ^a	
Port diameter, m	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.4	
Horizontal distance opening, m	0.43	0.3	0.7	0.3995	
Pitch, m	0.001306	0.0010	0.0014	0.0014	
Tube thickness, m	0.0006	0.0003	0.003	0.0003	
Enlargement factor	1.25	1.15	1.25	1.15	
Number of plates	291	50	700	57	
Chevron angle, deg	45	Constant		45	

Note: Not all references provided all the data ranges.

^a : Calculated.



Fig. 14. The convergence of the Genetic Algorithm.

• The fiscal parameters such as unit cost of electricity, inflation rate, and cost index factor have an equivalent effect on the operational cost and outlet cost of PHX compared to the process and design

Table 5

Optimization results for PHX using GA.

Parameters	SEE-MVC			
	Standard	Optimal		
Chevron angle, β , deg	45	45*		
Effective heat transfer area, A_e , m ²	246	50 ↓		
Number of plates, N _p	291	57↓		
Hot side heat transfer coefficient, $h_b kW/m^2$. K	12	19 ↑		
Cold side heat transfer coefficient, h_c , kW/m^2K	12	19↑		
Hot side pressure drop, $\Delta P_{h,Totab}$ kPa	48	144 ↑		
Cold side pressure drop, $\Delta P_{c,Total}$, kPa	48	143 ↑		
Cold side $h_c/\Delta P_{c,Totab}$ m/s K	0.26	0.14 ↓		
Overall Heat transfer coefficient U_c , kW/m^2K	5	8 ↑		
Pumping power, PP, kW	1.56	4.63↑		
Total exergy destruction, $X_{D, Total}$, kW	32	35 ↑		
Heat exchanger capital expenses, CAPEX _{HX} , k\$	161	61↓		
Total capital expenses, CAPEX _{Totab} k\$	164	67↓		
Operational expenses, OPEX, k\$	6	17 ↑		
Total cost, C _{total} , k\$	167	79↓		
Brine outlet stream cost, $\dot{C}_{h,o}$, $$/h$	0.52	0.53 ↑		
Feed outle stream cost, $\dot{C}_{c,o}$, h	12.65	10.66↓		

↓: Decrease, ↑: Increase, *: Same.

parameters. An increase in C_{ele} , C_{index} , and i increased the operational and outlet cost of the cold stream.

• The GA optimization improved the performance of PHX by modifying the design parameters. The optimum heat exchanger area is reduced by ~79.5%, capital investment by ~62%, and the outlet cost of the cold stream by ~15.7%. The operational cost is increased from 6.02 k\$ to 17.91 k\$ due to increased pressure drop. However, the overall impact is beneficial as C_{total} is reduced by ~52.7%.

Author contributions

Muhammad Ahmad Jamil, Muhammad Wakil Shahzad and Kim Choon Ng proposed the idea and developed overall methodology. Talha S. Goraya, Ben Bin Xu and Syed M. Zubair collected data, developed detailed simulation and conducted detailed analysis. Muhammad Ahmad Jamil, Muhammad Wakil Shahzad developed detailed optimization technique. Muhammad Ahmad Jamil prepared the initial draft. Muhammad Wakil Shahzad reviewed the manuscript. Kim Choon Ng and Syed M. Zubair prepared the final draft.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

Acknowledgment

The authors acknowledge the support provided by Northumbria University, UK under reference # RDF20/EE/MCE/SHAHZAD and MCE QR funds 2020/21. Ben Xu would like to thank the support from EPSRC grants EP/N007921/1.

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M.A. Jamil et al.

International Communications in Heat and Mass Transfer 124 (2021) 105244

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