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Original

Design and experimental characterization of a solar cooker with a prismatic cooking chamber and adjustable panel reflectors / Aquilanti, Alessia; Tomassetti, Sebastiano; Muccioli, Matteo; Di Nicola, Giovanni. - In: RENEWABLE ENERGY. - ISSN 0960-1481. - 202:(2023), pp. 405-418. [10.1016/j.renene.2022.11.083]

Availability:

This version is available at: 11566/309483 since: 2024-11-21T12:24:31Z

Publisher:

Published

DOI:10.1016/j.renene.2022.11.083

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(Article begins on next page)

Design and experimental characterization of a solar cooker with a prismatic cooking chamber and adjustable panel reflectors

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Abstract

In this work, a novel solar cooker with the cooking chamber shaped like a Newton prism was designed, constructed and tested. The device is characterized by ease of construction, use and transportation. It is made of common and inexpensive materials. The proposed cooker is able to track the sun during its use through wheels placed at its base and a manual system to vary the inclination of the reflective surfaces. Experimental tests were carried out to characterize its thermal and optical performances and evaluate the wind's influence. In particular, two identical prototypes, one shielded from the wind and the other not, were simultaneously tested by tracking the reflective surfaces at optimal angles. Several tests were carried out without and with a load using water and glycerin as test fluids. The results showed that the solar cookers have good thermal performance even at medium-high temperatures. Both prototypes reached a stagnation temperature of about 137 °C. The shielded cooker usually brought 2 kg of water from 40 °C up to 90 °C in about two hours and 2 kg of glycerin from 40 °C up to 110 °C in less than three hours. These times were slightly longer for

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the unshielded prototype.

Keywords: Solar cooking; Sun tracking; Experimental; Cooker opto-thermal ratio

1. Introduction

Currently, a significant percentage of the world's energy consumption is due to cooking purposes. This is especially true for various developing countries and rural areas of the world where, in some cases, more than 90% of the energy is consumed for cooking food [1]. However, in these areas, most of the energy demand for cooking is covered by non-commercial fuels, leading to harmful pollution and environmental problems [2, 3]. Since many developing countries are characterized by several days of the year with abundant solar radiation [4], solar cooking can be considered a sustainable alternative to the conventional energy sources used for cooking. Of course, this aspect is also valid for many developed countries. In fact, despite their shortcomings and limitations [5, 6], solar cookers are usually more affordable and less environmentally harmful than many of the most widespread cooking technologies.

In recent years, numerous designs of solar cookers characterized by different sizes and technologies have been reported in the literature [5, 7, 8, 9]. To overcome their limitations and improve their performances, various experimental and numerical studies analyzed possible modifications of solar cookers and their integration with thermal energy storage systems [6, 10, 11].

As explained by Aramesh et al. [5], solar cookers can be classified into three main structural types: panel cookers, box cookers and concentrating cookers. As they have the simplest design, the panel cookers are usually more cost-effective and easier to build than other types of solar cookers. Given their simplicity and flexibility, various designs of panel cookers have been developed in the last decades [5, 7, 12]. Some examples are the Cookit [13], the Solar Funnel Cooker [14], the Hot Pot [15], the Copenhagen Solar Cooker [16], and the Haines Solar Cookers [17].

27 Among the several designs of solar box cookers developed over the years,
28 some very low-cost and simple prototypes have been designed and manufac-
29 tured using inexpensive and recycled materials, such as cardboard boxes [12].
30 While various prototypes have been described in non-scientific literature (e.g.,
31 the Kyoto Solar Box Cooker [18] and the Jose Sol Cooker [19]), different sci-
32 entific works presented designs and experimental characterizations of low-cost
33 and simple box cookers. Some of the main literature studies concerning low-cost
34 solar cookers are briefly described below.

35 Ozturk [20] manufactured a low-cost and simple solar box cooker from a
36 plastic sheet box and a transparent plastic plate. The prototype was tested by
37 using a commercial aluminum pot filled with water and its energy and exergy
38 efficiencies were calculated. The results of the experimental tests showed that
39 the average water temperature was only 73.2°C, while the average energy and
40 exergy efficiencies were 18.3 % and 2.2 %, respectively.

41 Mahavar et al. [21] designed a low-cost box cooker, known as Single Family
42 Solar Cooker, that was tested with two aluminum cylindrical pots. The proto-
43 type has a small size and was manufactured using inexpensive materials. The
44 experimental results showed that the cooker was able to cook two meals of soft
45 load for two persons also in winter and its thermal performance parameters were
46 comparable with those of other box solar cookers available in the literature.

47 Following the ASAE S580.1 Standard [22], Ebersviller and Jetter [23] exper-
48 imentally compared the performances of a panel cooker, namely Hot Pot, with
49 those of a parabolic cooker (Sun Chef Cooker) and a box cooker (Global Sun
50 Oven). The prototypes were tested by using the load ratio recommended by the
51 Standard, i.e., 7 kg of water per square meter of intercept area. A standardized
52 cooking power for the panel cooker equal to 25 W was obtained, which is lower
53 than the values obtained for the box cooker (65 W) and the parabolic cooker
54 (198 W). This outcome could be due to the aperture area of the panel cooker
55 lower than that of the other devices. The results obtained for other experimental
56 parameters confirmed the lower performance of the Hot Pot.

57 Sagade et al. [24] experimentally analyzed the performance of a simple and

58 small solar box cooker with a booster reflector. A new parameter, namely
59 effective concentration ratio, was defined to assess the effectiveness of the booster
60 reflector. From the experimental tests performed with and without the booster
61 reflector, it was found that the new parameter enabled the assessment of the
62 effect of the booster reflector in the estimation of the opto-thermal performance
63 of the studied device. Moreover, the authors experimentally investigated the
64 thermal performance of the same solar box cooker tested with different working
65 fluids [25] and a modified cooking pot [26].

66 The thermal performance of a simple solar box cooker with different reflec-
67 tor configurations were experimentally evaluated by Weldu et al. [27]. From
68 the tests without load, the cooker with reflector tracking at the optimal angle
69 provided the highest values of the stagnation temperature (145.4 °C) and the
70 first figure of merit ($F_1 = 0.154 \text{ °C}/(\text{W}/\text{m}^2)$). As expected, the results of the
71 tests with water showed that the cooker configuration with reflector tracking
72 at the optimal angle and an aluminum pot ensured better thermal performance
73 than that of the configurations with a fixed angle of the reflector and a stainless
74 steel pot.

75 Ruivo et al. [28] simultaneously tested two identical funnel cookers by fol-
76 lowing the ASAE S580.1 Standard [22] to investigate the influence of the type
77 of pot lid. They used one cooking pot in each cooker surrounded by a trans-
78 parent cover and covered with a glass lid and a black metal lid, respectively.
79 A significant number of tests with water and a mixture of water and ice were
80 performed in Malaga, Spain during a period with low sun elevation, with az-
81 imuthal solar tracking. The results showed that the pot with the glass lid gave a
82 higher average standardized cooker power (73.9 W) than the pot with the black
83 metal lid (50.6 W). Four configurations of the Copenhagen Solar Cooker were
84 simultaneously tested by Apaolaza-Pagoaga et al. [29] under the same weather
85 conditions. From the tests without load, it was found that the performance of
86 one configuration is more influenced by the solar altitude angle than the others.
87 The results of the tests with water carried out by partly following the ASAE
88 S580.1 Standard [22] showed that the linear trend of the standardized power is

89 not universal, proving that the procedure for evaluating this parameter recom-
90 mended by the Standard should be improved, as also demonstrated by Ruivo
91 et al. [30, 31]. Recently, two prototypes of Haines 2 Solar Cooker were experi-
92 mentally analyzed side-by-side by the same authors in Malaga, Spain [32]. The
93 influence of the solar altitude angle on cooker performance was evaluated from
94 the tests without load. Instead, the influence of the solar altitude angle and
95 the impact of using partial loads on their thermal performance were analyzed
96 from the tests with water. Based on their results, the authors suggested that
97 the influence of both solar altitude angle and partial loads should be considered
98 in future versions of ASAE S580.1 Standard [22].

99 In this study, a low-cost and simple solar cooker having an innovative vari-
100 able geometry, named Newton solar cooker (NSC), is presented. The proposed
101 solar cooker was experimentally tested and its performance expressed in terms
102 of efficiency was investigated. In particular, the purpose of this study was to
103 simultaneously test two identical NSC prototypes, one wind-shielded and the
104 other not, to determine their performances, also considering the influence of
105 wind. The following experimental outdoor campaign was developed: 3 tests
106 without load, 4 water tests and 4 glycerin tests were carried out. The method-
107 ology followed to perform the tests is the same proposed in some of our previous
108 works [33, 34] and allows us to evaluate the main performance parameters used
109 in the scientific literature.

110 The paper is divided into the following sections. In Section 2, the charac-
111 teristics of the NSC and the optical analysis of the device are discussed. The
112 optimal inclination angles of the primary and secondary reflectors for different
113 elevations of the sun obtained by a 2D model are also reported. Section 3 de-
114 scribes the manufacturing steps of the prototype along with the materials used.
115 A cost analysis of all components is also given in this section. Section 4 de-
116 fines the experimental parameters used to characterize the two tested devices
117 and the experimental setup designed for the outdoor campaign. Section 5 re-
118 ports the results of the study, dividing them between no-load, water-loaded and
119 glycerin-loaded tests. The conclusions of the article are given in Section 6.

120 2. Design and optical analysis

121 The new solar cooker presented in this work, shown in Fig. 1, is based on
122 designs of a solar cooker with the cooking chamber shaped like a Newton prism,
123 named Newton solar cooker (NSC) [35, 36], developed by Matteo Muccioli, co-
124 author of this work. In general, the NSC was designed to be easy to build and
125 use; in fact, its main strengths are the ease of construction, the ease of movement
126 and transportation, and the use of common and inexpensive materials. The
127 device can be constructed quickly since only common tools are required. It can
128 be easily transported since it can be easily disassembled and resealed. Moreover,
129 the presented solar cooker is affordable and easy to replicate because it can be
130 made of readily available materials with a quasi-zero cost.

131 Starting from the original versions of the NSC, which were never investigated
132 in scientific works, the construction features of the new version were chosen to
133 improve its thermal and optical performances. In this regard, the modifica-
134 tions performed on the proposed NSC were based on some preliminary outdoor
135 tests where different insulating and reflecting materials and geometrical config-
136 urations were evaluated. Fig. 2 shows the working scheme of the new device
137 presented here. It consists of a glass prism cooking chamber made of two tem-
138 pered glass panes, a wooden panel placed at the base and two side doors. The
139 glass panes are supported by the two side panels and the two side doors. A
140 layer of thermal insulating material and a steel plate are placed at the base
141 of the chamber. Moreover, the device comprises two rotating reflector support
142 structures placed at the sides of the chamber: a longer support for the primary
143 reflective surface and a shorter one for the secondary reflective surface. A de-
144 tailed description of the construction of the presented prototype is reported in
145 Section 3.

146 From Fig. 2, it can be understood that the device's geometry can be changed
147 by varying θ_1 and θ_2 , i.e., the inclination angles of the primary and secondary
148 reflectors with respect to the horizontal plane, respectively. This results in
149 a change in the NSC aperture area (A_a). The area A_a is calculated as the

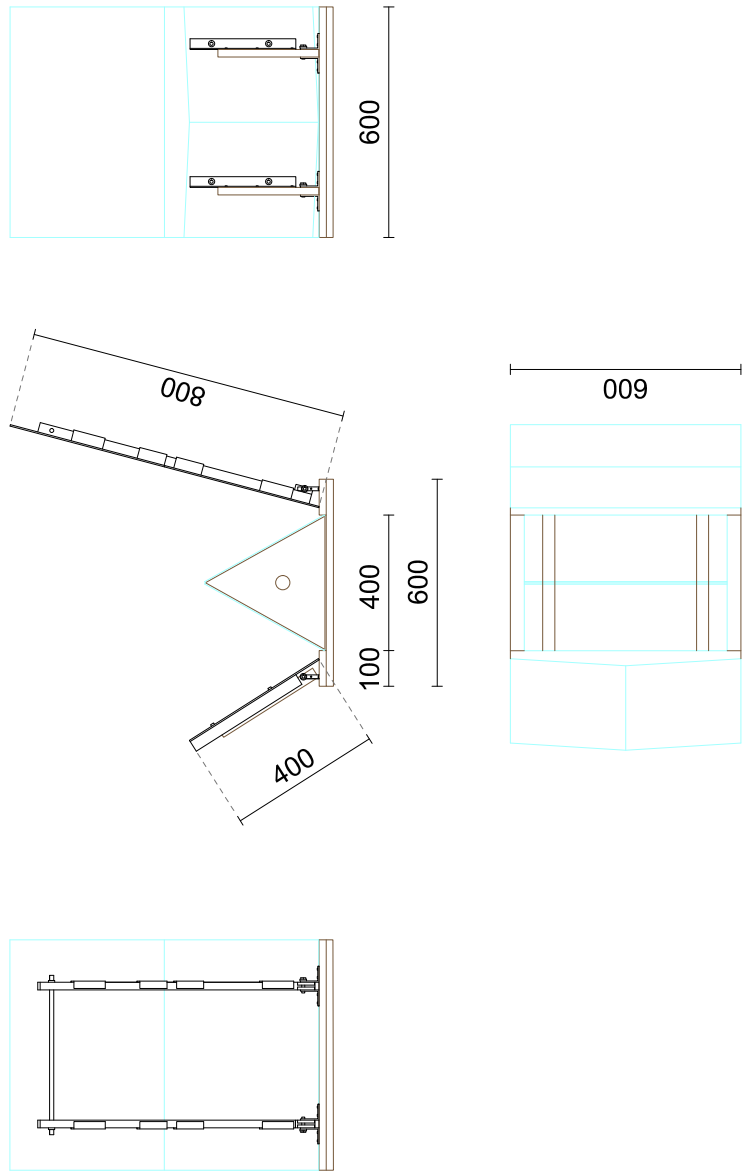


Fig. 1: Newton solar cooker views (dimensions in mm).

150 projection of the area bounded by the outer edges of the prototype on a plane
151 perpendicular to the direction of the sun's rays. By optimizing the values of θ_1
152 and θ_2 according to the elevation of the sun (H_{sun}), it is possible to maximize
153 the amount of solar radiation concentrated on the steel plate where the pot is
154 placed.

155 To calculate optimal θ_1 and θ_2 values associated with different sun eleva-
156 tions, a simplified 2D model to simulate the propagation of the solar rays on the
157 surfaces of the solar cooker was developed using MATLAB software [37]. In the
158 model, the solar rays are represented by vectors with an initial unit modulus
159 from the sun's direction. The solar cooker surfaces are modeled as obstacles
160 to the propagation of sun rays, dividing them between reflective surfaces (the
161 two reflectors) and glazed surfaces (the two glasses), according to the prototype
162 design. In particular, the reflective surfaces are characterized by specific values
163 of θ_1 and θ_2 . During the simulation, the sun's rays impact the various surfaces
164 of the solar cooker, which cause either reflection, transmission or absorption. To
165 compute the final amount of concentrated energy more realistically, the trans-
166 mittance and reflectance values of the materials are used to correct the modulus
167 of the solar ray vectors at each transmission or reflection. The model also takes
168 into account possible multiple reflections between reflectors. A ray is no longer
169 propagated in the following two cases: the ray does not impact the cooker or the
170 ray hits the cooker surface where the pot is placed. The rays' moduli that meet
171 the first condition are neglected, while those that meet the second condition are
172 summed. The score assigned to a specific configuration of θ_1 and θ_2 for a given
173 H_{sun} is the sum of rays' moduli obtained at the end of the simulation of the
174 rays' propagation.

175 For the latitude of Ancona, Italy (latitude of 43.5871°N), discretized with 1-
176 degree steps, the optimal configurations of θ_1 and θ_2 values that got the highest
177 scores were determined using the Particle Swarm Optimization algorithm [38].
178 As an example, the optimal values of θ_1 and θ_2 at 12:00 solar time on the days
179 of the equinox, summer solstice and winter solstice are reported below:

- 180 • Spring Equinox, 20/03/2022: $H_{\text{sun}} = 46.24^\circ$, $\theta_1 = 76.40^\circ$, $\theta_2 = 22.99^\circ$;
- 181 • Summer Solstice, 21/06/2022: $H_{\text{sun}} = 69.79^\circ$, $\theta_1 = 96.09^\circ$, $\theta_2 = 47.62^\circ$;
- 182 • Winter Solstice, 21/12/2022: $H_{\text{sun}} = 22.97^\circ$, $\theta_1 = 56.49^\circ$, $\theta_2 = 2.33^\circ$.

183 Fig. 3 shows the score (on the z-axis) for each pair of θ_1 (x-axis) and θ_2
184 (y-axis), again for 12:00 solar time on the equinox, summer solstice, and winter
185 solstice days.

186 To adjust the solar cooker geometry according to the sun elevation, the
187 optimal θ_1 and θ_2 pairs associated with each sun elevation were used by the
188 operator during the experimental campaign. Table 1 shows the optimal values
189 of θ_1 and θ_2 for H_{sun} between 50 and 70° , with the corresponding aperture area
190 of the NSC.

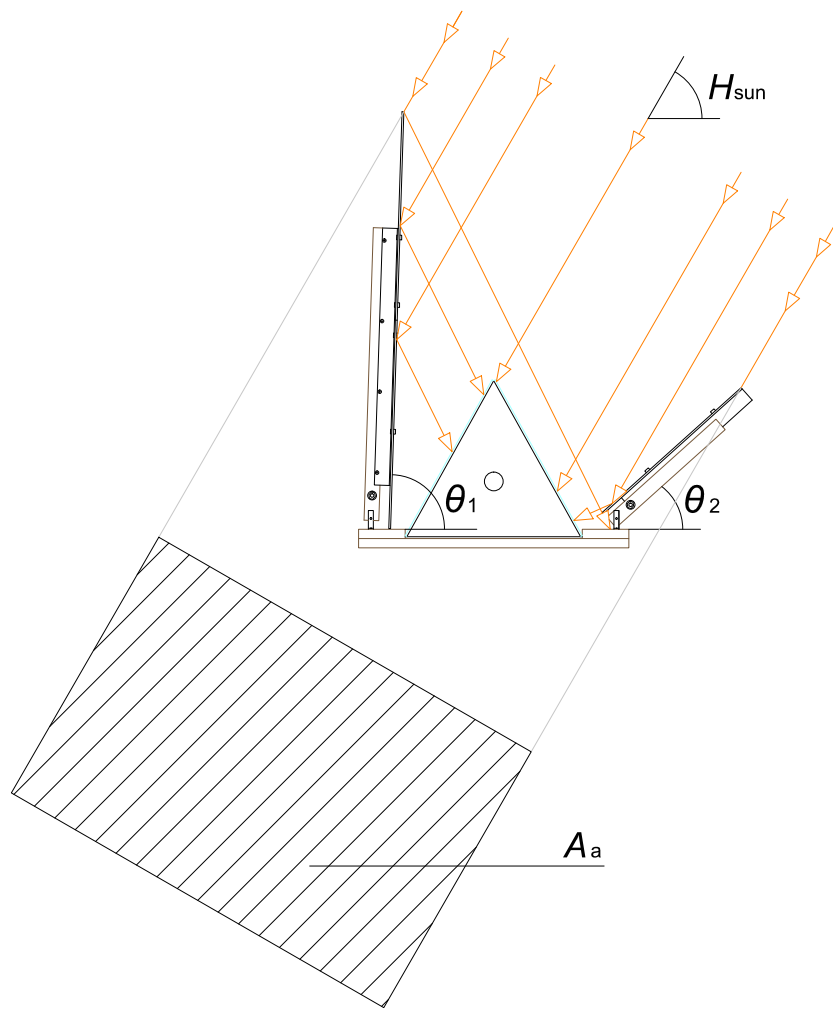


Fig. 2: Working scheme of the Newton solar cooker.

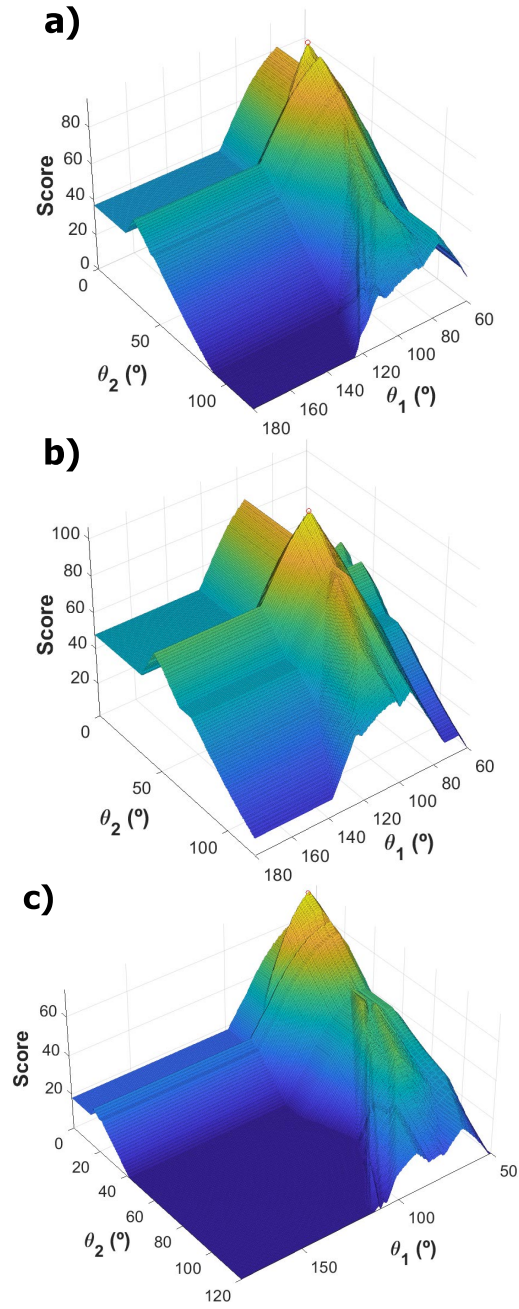


Fig. 3: Score (z-axis) obtained by a 2D model for the distribution of the solar radiation on the NSC for each pair of θ_1 (x-axis) and θ_2 (y-axis) at 12:00 solar time: a) Spring Equinox, 20/03/2022; b) Summer Solstice, 21/06/2022; c) Winter Solstice, 21/12/2022.

Table 1: Newton solar cooker optimal configurations in Ancona for different sun elevations and corresponding aperture areas.

H_{sun} ($^{\circ}$)	θ_1 ($^{\circ}$)	θ_2 ($^{\circ}$)	A_a (m^2)
50	80.29	34.72	0.394
52	81.21	35.92	0.396
54	83.16	37.44	0.401
56	84.28	39.48	0.401
58	86.43	39.93	0.410
60	88.10	41.79	0.413
62	90.28	42.67	0.421
64	91.19	43.82	0.421
66	93.18	44.99	0.426
68	94.06	46.83	0.423
70	96.85	47.76	0.434

191 **3. Manufacture and assembly**

192 The manufacturing steps of the proposed Newton solar cooker, shown in
193 Fig. 1, are the following: 1) construction of the base panel; 2) cutting and
194 assembly of supports; 3) construction of the side doors; 4) construction of the
195 cooking chamber; 5) arrangement of the reflectors and final assembly. Each step
196 is described in this section. In addition, details about manufacturing costs are
197 provided.

198 *3.1. Construction of the base panel*

199 A $600 \times 600 \times 20$ mm multilayer poplar wood panel was used as the base on
200 which the other elements of the cooker rest. Two poplar wood panels measuring
201 $600 \times 100 \times 20$ mm were fixed with screws at the top of the base panel along
202 two opposite edges. Their task is to keep two tempered glass panes that form
203 the glass prism cooking chamber in position, preventing them from sliding out-
204 wards and guaranteeing the closure of the cooking chamber. To facilitate the
205 prototype's usage and ensure its manual alignment to solar radiation, the base
206 panel was fitted with 3 wheels.

207 *3.2. Cutting and assembly of supports*

208 To form the support arms for the primary panel reflectors, two bars with
209 a length of 650 mm were cut using a metal saw starting from a square steel
210 hollow profile with a 20×20 mm cross-section. As shown in Fig. 4a, the square
211 metal bars were fixed and anchored to the base of the solar cooker using angle
212 brackets. The angle brackets were fastened to the bars using a self-locking
213 system to allow the entire support system to change the angle for proper sun
214 tracking. The primary reflectors were fastened to the support arms through
215 eight 100-mm-long pieces that were first cut from an aluminum C-profile and
216 then attached vertically to the reflectors using double-sided adhesive tape. In
217 addition, the two square bars were fixed together with a metal rod at the top
218 to make the entire system more stable.

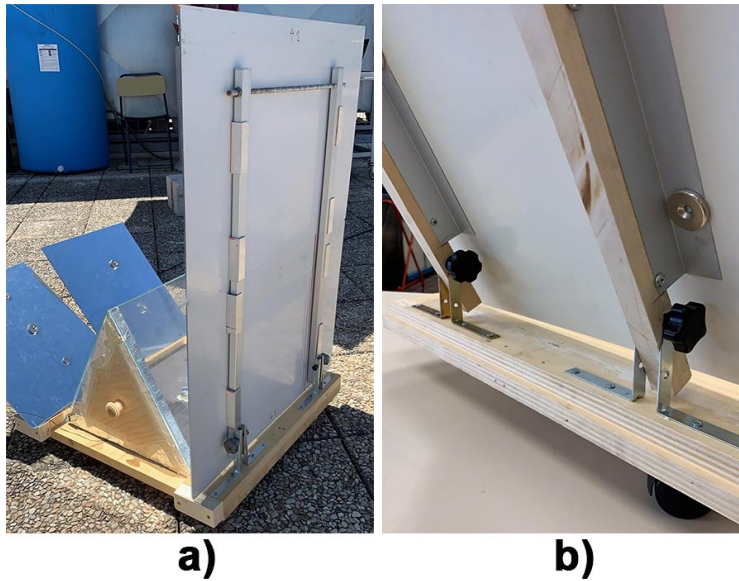


Fig. 4: Detail of the connection of the reflector supports to the wooden base: a) primary reflectors and b) secondary reflectors.

219 To form the support arms for the secondary reflectors, two profiles of 300
 220 mm in length were cut using an aluminum saw starting from a 1000 mm long
 221 aluminum L-profile with a 30×30 mm cross-section. To make the reflector sup-
 222 ports more stable during use, the aluminum profiles were reinforced by joining
 223 them to 350 mm long wooden strips with a 20×20 mm square section. As
 224 evident in Fig. 4b, the wooden supports were fixed and anchored to the base
 225 of the solar cooker in the same way as the square metal bars. The secondary
 226 reflectors were fixed to the aluminum supports and held in position by magnets.

227 3.3. Construction of the side doors

228 In addition to the base panel and glass surfaces, the cooking chamber was
 229 obtained by using two side doors that support the glass surfaces. The side doors,
 230 made of solid fir wood, are in the shape of an isosceles triangle with dimensions
 231 $400 \times 332 \times 30$ mm and are fitted with a handle on one side to facilitate their
 232 movement during testing. Moreover, the mobile doors allow varying the volume
 233 of the cooking chamber, adapting it to the pot and the load being used.

234 An aluminum film was applied to the handle-free surface of the triangular
235 doors and secured with adhesive tape with a twofold purpose: to reflect the
236 direct sun's rays at the doors inside the cooking chamber, thus reducing the dis-
237 persion of radiation, and to prevent that the steam generated inside the cooking
238 chamber penetrates the wood of the doors, affecting its thermal insulation re-
239 sistance.

240 *3.4. Construction of the cooking chamber*

241 The base of the cooking chamber was thermally insulated by inserting a
242 $430 \times 375 \times 8$ mm cork panel over the poplar wood base. The cork panel was
243 shaped to fit perfectly into the section created between the poplar base and the
244 two side panels anchored to it. A steel plate measuring $420 \times 365 \times 1$ mm was
245 placed on top of the cork layer. The plate was painted with a high-performance
246 black paint to increase its ability to absorb heat from solar radiation.

247 Two panes of tempered extra-clear glass measuring 380×480 mm and 4 mm
248 thick make up the actual cooking chamber. The two panes of glass were placed
249 on the triangular side doors and held in place by the two poplar wood panels. A
250 gap was left on the top to prevent condensation inside the cooking chamber by
251 spacing the two glass panes about 2 mm. This allows for improving the cooking
252 performance of the device.

253 *3.5. Arrangement of the reflectors and final assembly*

254 Polymethylmethacrylate (PMMA) sheets were used for the reflective surfaces
255 because of the material's low cost and to allow the operator to work safely.
256 The presented configuration consists of 4 reflectors on 3 planes. The primary
257 reflective surface consists of two 600×400 mm reflectors placed one above the
258 other on the same plane, thus forming a single 600×800 reflector. The secondary
259 reflective surface is made up of two 300×400 mm reflectors in a V configuration.
260 The four reflectors were fixed to the supports, as described in Section 3.2.

261 *3.6. Cost analysis*

262 Table 2 shows the materials used for the construction of the prototype, with
263 the related costs. The highest costs are given by the PMMA reflectors, the
264 extra-clear tempered glass and the steel plate. These are the components that
265 most influence the optical (the first two) and thermal efficiency (the last one)
266 of the device. It is evident that the use of recycled or widely used materials,
267 such as wood, to make the main parts of the device (i.e., the base structure,
268 the side doors and the reflector supports) helped to keep the final cost low.
269 The prototype construction took two working days by a team of two unskilled
270 workers.

Table 2: Cost analysis of the prototype.

Item	Cost (EUR)
Panel reflectors	45.00
Extra clear tempered glass	40.00
Steel plate	30.00
Wood (structural frame, side doors and handles)	15.00
Aluminum L-profile	10.00
Insulating cork layer	10.00
Miscellaneous	40.00
Total	190.00

271 4. Experimental tests and setup

272 In this section, the types of tests carried out, the test fluids chosen and
273 the instrumentation used in the outdoor experimental campaign are described.
274 Then, the main parameters used to characterize the NSC are presented.

275 4.1. Experimental setup

276 Fig. 5 shows the experimental setup used during the experimental cam-
277 paign. Two identical prototypes of NSC were placed on the ground and tested
278 simultaneously under the same outdoor conditions. One of the two devices was
279 shielded with a wind shielding system specifically constructed for the experi-
280 mental campaign. The cooking chamber of each prototype was loaded with a
281 black stainless-steel pot containing the fluid to be tested. The pot has a diam-
282 eter of 200 mm, a height of 130 mm, a thickness of 2 mm and a mass of 476
283 g.

284 The recorded quantities during the tests were the absorber plate tempera-
285 tures of the two devices (T_a), the fluid temperatures inside the pots (T_f), the
286 ambient temperature (T_{amb}), the direct normal solar irradiance (G_{bn}), and the
287 global horizontal solar irradiance (G).

288 The sensors used to record the temperatures were T-type thermocouples with
289 an uncertainty of ± 1 °C. In detail, the one used to record the fluid temperature
290 was immersed in the studied fluid and held in place throughout the test. The
291 thermocouple for the absorber plate temperature was fixed to the plate using
292 high-temperature adhesive tape, shielding it from direct exposure to the sun.
293 Instead, the one used to record the ambient temperature was placed in a shady
294 place to avoid influencing the measurement.

295 The direct normal solar irradiance was recorded using an Eppley NIP pyrhe-
296 liometer (normal incidence pyrhelimeter) with a one-second response and lin-
297 earity $\pm 0.5\%$ from 0 to 1400 W/m². T-thermocouples and pyrhelimeter signals
298 were collected by a Pico Technology TC-08 datalogger and sent to a computer.
299 The global horizontal solar irradiance was measured using a pyranometer SR30-
300 M2-D1 with linearity $\pm 3.0\%$ from 0 to 4000 W/m² placed horizontally near the

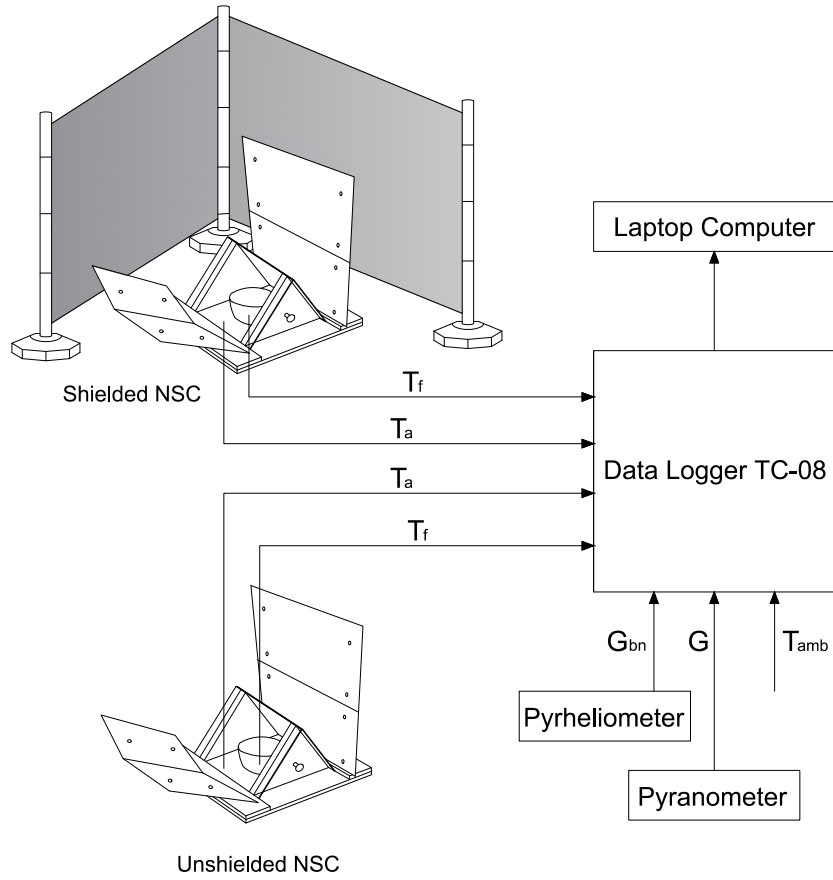


Fig. 5: Experimental setup. T_a : absorber temperature; T_f : testing fluid temperature; T_{amb} : ambient temperature; G_{bn} : direct normal solar irradiance; G : global horizontal solar irradiance.

301 tested prototypes. By following the same procedure described by other authors
 302 [28, 29, 32, 39], the global normal solar irradiance (G_n) was calculated using the
 303 Liu Jordan isotropic sky model [40] considering an albedo of 0.2.

304 4.2. Experimental parameters

305 Given the growing interest in the study and manufacture of solar cookers,
 306 there is a need for common procedures and standards to be followed for the
 307 characterization of the prototypes under investigation. These standards indicate
 308 the parameters and procedures to be followed to characterize the optical and

309 thermal performance of these devices.

310 Table 3 shows the parameters used to characterize the NSC performance dur-
311 ing the tests with and without load. The experimental campaign was divided
312 into two phases: the first tests were carried out by testing the devices with-
313 out load while all the remaining tests were carried out by loading the cooking
314 chamber with a fluid. The first tests with no load were used to reach the stag-
315 nation condition of the devices, i.e., the balance between heat input and heat
316 loss output. These tests are necessary to identify the first figure of merit (F_1)
317 associated with the device. It should be noted that for the determination of F_1
318 (Table 3), the considered values of ambient temperature (T_{amb}) and global nor-
319 mal solar irradiance (G_n) are those associated with the maximum temperature
320 value reached by the plate during the test.

321 Load tests were carried out by loading the cooking chamber of each device
322 with a black painted pot containing a test fluid. The selected fluids were water
323 and glycerin. Water was selected because the obtained results could be easily
324 comparable with those obtained by other researchers. Glycerin was selected
325 because it is widely used to test the performance of solar cookers [25, 26, 39].

326 For the tests with water, as suggested by Funk [45], the parameters de-
327 scribed in Table 3 were calculated over a time interval Δt_h required to raise
328 the temperature of the fluid from 40 °C to 90 °C. In addition, the parameters
329 were adapted and calculated to determine the behavior of the devices under in-
330 vestigation when tested with glycerin. The selected glycerin temperature range
331 within which all parameters were calculated was 40–110 °C.

332 Lahkar et al. [44] proposed a procedure to determine the cooker opto-thermal
333 ratio (COR) starting from the Hottel-Whillier-Bliss equation for solar cookers:

334

$$335 \quad \eta = F' \eta_0 - \left(\frac{F' U_1}{C} \right) \chi, \quad (1)$$

336

337 where $\chi = (T_f - T_{\text{amb}})/G_n$. The parameters $F' \eta_0$ and $F' U_1/C$ of the equation
338 can be identified from the data obtained from the experimental tests. These are

Table 3: Experimental parameters for the characterization of the Newton solar cooker.

Experimental parameter	Equation	Equation parameters
First figure of merit [41]	$F_1 = \frac{T_{a,\max} - T_{amb}}{G_n}$	A_a = aperture area of the solar cooker
Heating time interval	$\Delta t_h = t(T_2) - t(T_1)$	c_f = specific heat of the test fluid
		C = geometrical concentration ratio
Second figure of merit [41]	$F_2 = \frac{F_1 m_f c_f}{A_a \Delta t_h} \ln \left[\frac{1 - \frac{1}{F_1} (T_1 - T_{amb,av}) / G_{n,av}}{1 - \frac{1}{F_1} (T_2 - T_{amb,av}) / G_{n,av}} \right]$	G_n = global normal solar irradiance
		$G_{n,av}$ = mean G_n measured at Δt_h
Specific boiling time [42]	$t_s = \frac{\Delta t_h A_a}{m_f}$	$G_{n,ref} = 900 \text{ W/m}^2$ (for t_s calculation)
Characteristic boiling time [42]	$t_{ch} = t_s \frac{G_{n,av}}{G_{n,ref}}$	η_0 = optical efficiency
		F' = heat exchange efficiency factor
Overall efficiency [42]	$\eta_{av} = \frac{m_f c_f (T_2 - T_1)}{G_{n,av} A_a \Delta t_h}$	m_f = mass of the test fluid
		T_{amb} = ambient temperature
Utilizable efficiency [43]	$\eta_u = \frac{m_f c_f (T_2 - T_{amb,av})}{G_{n,av} A_a \Delta t_h}$	$T_{a,\max}$ = absorber stagnation temperature
		$T_{amb,av}$ = mean T_{amb} measured at Δt_h
Cooker opto-thermal ratio [44]	$COR = \frac{\eta_0 C}{U_1}$	$T_{f,av}$ = mean T_f measured at Δt_h
		$t(T_1)$ = starting time of the heating phase
Maximum achievable fluid temperature [44]	$T_{fx} = T_{amb,av} + \frac{F' \eta_0 G_{n,av}}{F' U_1 / C}$	$t(T_2)$ = ending time of the heating phase
		U_1 = heat loss factor

339 the intercept and the opposite value of the slope of the efficiency line regression.

340 The total time interval to cover the chosen temperature range for water
341 (40–90 °C) and glycerin (40–110 °C) is divided into sub-intervals of 5 minutes
342 each. For each sub-interval, the average global normal solar irradiance, the
343 average ambient temperature, the average test fluid temperature, the efficiency
344 and the parameter χ are determined. Plotting the thermal efficiency η against
345 the parameter χ for each identified sub-interval, it is possible to identify the
346 regression line of the efficiency curve and its coefficient of determination R^2 .
347 The regression line's intercept and opposite value of the slope correspond to the
348 parameters $F'\eta_0$ and $F'U_1/C$, which are necessary for the determination of the
349 *COR* parameter.

350 Finally, it is worth to point out that the ASAE S580.1 Standard [22] proce-
351 dure for the calculation of the standardized power was not used here because it
352 is not physically consistent, as recently showed by Ruivo et al. [46].

353 4.3. Experimental tests

354 The experimental campaign was carried out in June 2021 on the roof of
355 the Department of Industrial Engineering and Mathematical Sciences (latitude
356 43.5871°N, longitude 13.5149°E). As mentioned above, two identical Newton
357 solar cooker prototypes were made and tested at the same time avoiding shaded
358 areas in the test area. To understand the wind effect, one of the two devices
359 was shielded from the wind during the tests.

360 With reference to wind intensity, Fig. 6 shows the average wind speed
361 recorded in a location near the testing area (latitude 43.6098°N, longitude
362 13.5105°E) during the time slot when the measures were conducted. The data
363 were collected from the website of the Marche Region – Civil Protection Service
364 [47]. It is evident that, in all the tests, these values exceed the limit of 1 m/s
365 imposed by the ASAE standard [22, 48]. For this reason, following the same
366 strategy adopted by other authors [23], the prototypes were tested by placing
367 them near the parapets and walls of buildings, shielding them from direct wind
368 exposure.

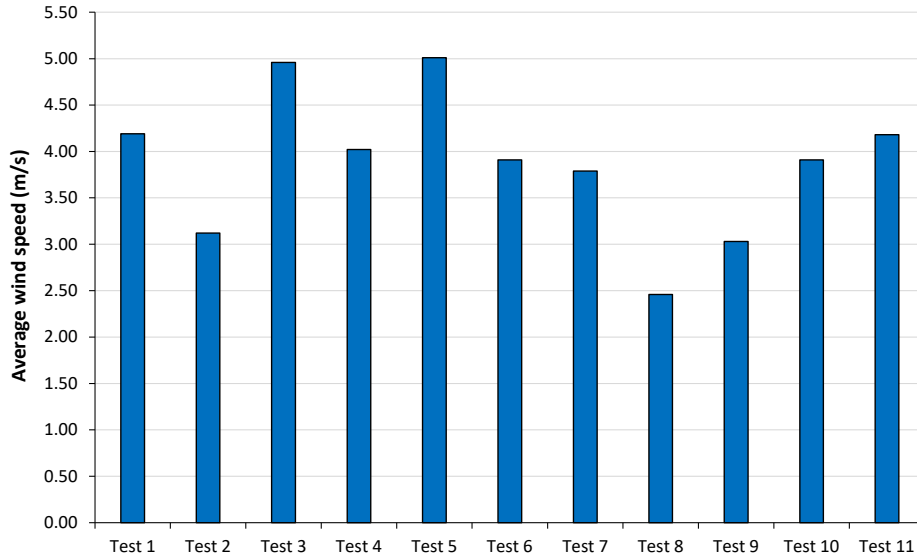


Fig. 6: Average wind speed recorded in Ancona, Italy during the testing period.

369 During the tests, the operator maintained the cooking chamber and the
 370 reflector system of the two devices always pointed towards the sun direction.
 371 Additionally, to make the best use of the reflective surfaces and to concentrate
 372 as much solar radiation as possible into the cooking chamber, the elevation of
 373 the sun (H_{sun}) was checked every 20 minutes and the θ_1 and θ_2 angles of the
 374 primary and secondary reflective surfaces were adjusted according to Table 1.
 375 Every tested configuration of the cooker was recorded by the operator in terms
 376 of H_{sun} , θ_1 and θ_2 angles. These values were averaged across the test duration
 377 to obtain $H_{\text{sun,av}}$, $\theta_{1,av}$ and $\theta_{2,av}$ for each test. The average aperture area
 378 ($A_{a,av}$) was calculated in a similar fashion. These quantities were used for the
 379 calculation of the parameters.

380 5. Experimental results

381 In this section, the results obtained from tests conducted with and without
 382 load are reported.

Table 4: Summary of tests without load.

Quantity	Test 1		Test 2		Test 3	
Date	31/05/2021		03/06/2021		30/06/2021	
Type of cooker	Unshielded	Shielded	Unshielded	Shielded	Unshielded	Shielded
$H_{\text{sun,av}}$ ($^{\circ}$)	65.64	65.64	56.22	56.22	62.34	62.34
$\theta_{1,\text{av}}$ ($^{\circ}$)	92.48	92.48	84.90	84.90	89.98	89.98
$\theta_{2,\text{av}}$ ($^{\circ}$)	45.14	45.14	38.83	38.83	42.93	42.93
$A_{\text{a,av}}$ (m^2)	0.425	0.425	0.401	0.401	0.421	0.421
T_{amb} ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	21.07	20.99	30.05	29.70	32.60	33.40
G_{n} (W/m^2)	981.19	977.35	908.86	907.25	936.19	932.46
G_{bn} (W/m^2)	925.74	923.02	866.71	865.17	859.29	858.67
$T_{\text{a,max}}$ ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	125.66	120.81	137.47	137.36	133.95	129.07
F_1 ($^{\circ}\text{C}/(\text{W}/\text{m}^2)$)	0.107	0.102	0.118	0.119	0.108	0.103

383 5.1. Tests without load

384 Three tests without load were carried out under different external conditions.
385 Table 4 shows the environmental conditions associated with the maximum tem-
386 perature reached by the absorber plate ($T_{\text{a,max}}$) and the F_1 parameter calcu-
387 lated for each device in each test. Table 4 also shows the average sun elevation
388 ($H_{\text{sun,av}}$), the average angles θ_1 and θ_2 and the average aperture area ($A_{\text{a,av}}$)
389 for the reported tests. From Table 4, it can be noted that similar values of
390 $T_{\text{a,max}}$ and F_1 were obtained for the two devices in each test. The temperature
391 trends of the absorber plate of the unshielded and shielded NSC prototypes for
392 the test of 03/06/2021 (test 2) are shown in Fig. 7. As can be seen, the max-
393 imum temperature reached by the absorber plate was about 137°C for both
394 NSC prototypes. This maximum temperature ($T_{\text{a,max}}$) was associated with a
395 global normal solar irradiance and an ambient temperature of $908.86 \text{ W}/\text{m}^2$ and
396 30.05°C for the unshielded NSC and $907.25 \text{ W}/\text{m}^2$ and 29.70°C for the shielded
397 NSC.

398 For the three tests without load, the following average values of the F_1
399 were obtained: $F_{1,\text{av}} = 0.111^{\circ}\text{C}/(\text{W}/\text{m}^2)$ for the unshielded device and $F_{1,\text{av}} =$
400 $0.108^{\circ}\text{C}/(\text{W}/\text{m}^2)$ for the shielded prototype. The values of $F_{1,\text{av}}$ were used for

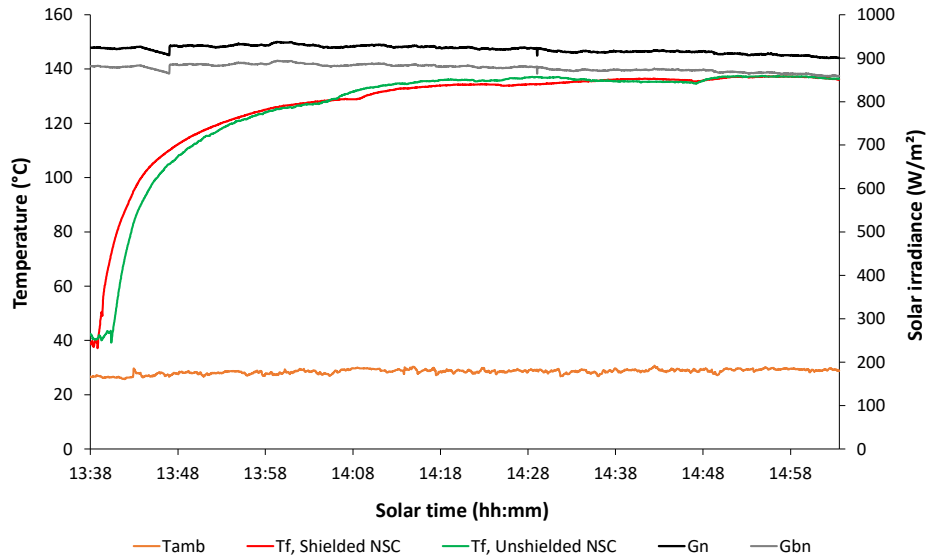


Fig. 7: Test without load (03/06/2021, test 2).

401 calculating the second figure of merit (F_2) for the tests with the load.

402 5.2. Tests with water

403 Four outdoor tests were performed by loading each NSC device with 2 kg of
 404 water. Table 5 shows the main parameters for each test calculated in the fluid
 405 temperature range between 40 and 90 °C.

406 Fig. 8 shows the trends of water temperatures, ambient temperature and
 407 global and direct normal solar irradiances for test 4 (01/06/2021). The average
 408 global normal solar irradiance was 1050.80 W/m², while the average ambient
 409 temperature was 21.65 °C. The fluid took 127 minutes when tested with the
 410 unshielded NSC and 128 minutes when tested with the shielded device to go
 411 from 40 °C to 90 °C.

412 Fig. 9 shows the water trends obtained with the two prototypes during all
 413 water tests. From Fig. 9, it is possible to see that, even though the tests were
 414 carried out on days characterized by different solar irradiances and ambient
 415 temperatures, the trends in water temperatures are very similar. It can also
 416 be noted that, in each test, the time taken for the water to reach 90 °C was

Table 5: Summary of tests with water.

Date	Test 4		Test 5		Test 6		Test 7	
	01/06/2021	01/06/2021	01/06/2021	01/06/2021	09/06/2021	09/06/2021	17/06/2021	17/06/2021
Type of cooker	Unshielded	Shielded	Unshielded	Shielded	Unshielded	Shielded	Unshielded	Shielded
$H_{sun,av}$ (°)	58.60	58.60	61.26	61.26	63.13	63.13	62.96	62.96
$\theta_{1,av}$ (°)	87.04	87.04	88.81	88.81	90.46	90.46	90.41	90.41
$\theta_{2,av}$ (°)	39.59	39.59	41.98	41.98	43.45	43.45	43.26	43.26
$A_{a,av}$ (m ²)	0.411	0.411	0.416	0.416	0.417	0.417	0.419	0.419
m_f (kg)	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
T_1 (°C)	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40
T_2 (°C)	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90
$G_{n,av}$ (W/m ²)	1051.95	1049.64	951.90	954.14	824.15	830.93	918.31	918.31
$G_{bn,av}$ (W/m ²)	908.40	906.41	908.93	911.07	696.92	702.65	738.05	738.12
$T_{amb,av}$ (°C)	22.03	21.99	23.69	23.59	23.76	23.54	30.22	30.21
Δt_h (min)	127	128	122	118	170	134	112	113
t_s (h m ² /kg)	0.44	0.44	0.42	0.41	0.59	0.47	0.39	0.40
t_{ch} (h m ² /kg)	0.51	0.51	0.45	0.43	0.54	0.43	0.40	0.40
η_{av}	0.13	0.13	0.15	0.15	0.12	0.15	0.16	0.16
η_u	0.17	0.17	0.19	0.20	0.16	0.20	0.19	0.19
F_2	0.21	0.21	0.25	0.27	0.24	0.31	0.26	0.26
$F'\eta_0$	0.247	0.255	0.271	0.329	0.285	0.345	0.279	0.268
$F'U_1/C$ (W/m ² °C)	2.722	2.866	2.683	3.750	2.879	3.424	2.804	2.552
COR (W/m ² °C)	0.091	0.089	0.101	0.088	0.099	0.101	0.100	0.105
T_{fx} (°C)	117.56	115.37	119.93	107.24	105.19	107.26	121.68	126.49
R^2	0.974	0.941	0.867	0.886	0.910	0.909	0.929	0.948

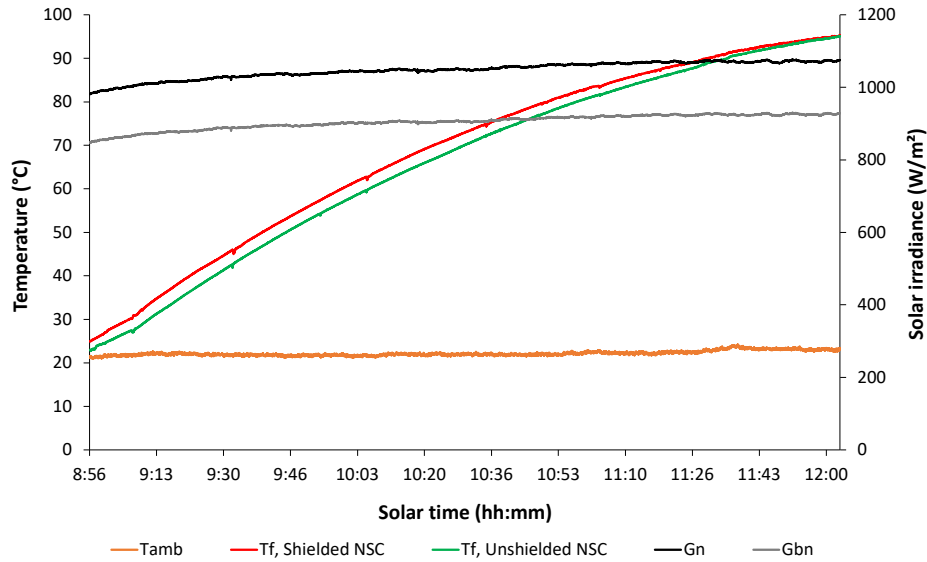


Fig. 8: Test with water (01/06/2021, test 4).

417 about the same for the two devices. In detail, this time was slightly longer in
 418 the case of the unshielded device (on average 133 minutes) with respect to the
 419 shielded one (on average 123 minutes). A decrease in the time required by the
 420 fluid tested in the shielded prototype is evident in test 6 (09/06/2021). The
 421 time taken by the unshielded NSC was 170 minutes while the time taken by the
 422 shielded device was 134 minutes.

423 In general, the shortest time was recorded in the test of 17/06/2021 (test
 424 7): 112 minutes for the unshielded NSC and 113 minutes for the shielded NSC.
 425 During the test an average global normal solar irradiance of 918.31 W/m^2 and
 426 an average ambient temperature of $30.22 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ were recorded. Comparing tests 4
 427 and 5 with test 7, it can be seen that the first two were characterized by higher
 428 values of $G_{n,av}$ and $G_{bn,av}$ than the latter. Despite that, their Δt_h are higher
 429 than that of test 7, showing that T_{amb} could affect the device performance more
 430 than the solar irradiance. In fact, this temperature was much higher in test 7
 431 than in tests 4 and 5 ($30.22 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ vs. $21.6 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and $23.6 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$). However, the influence
 432 of a lower solar irradiance is evident in tests 5 and 6 that showed a similar

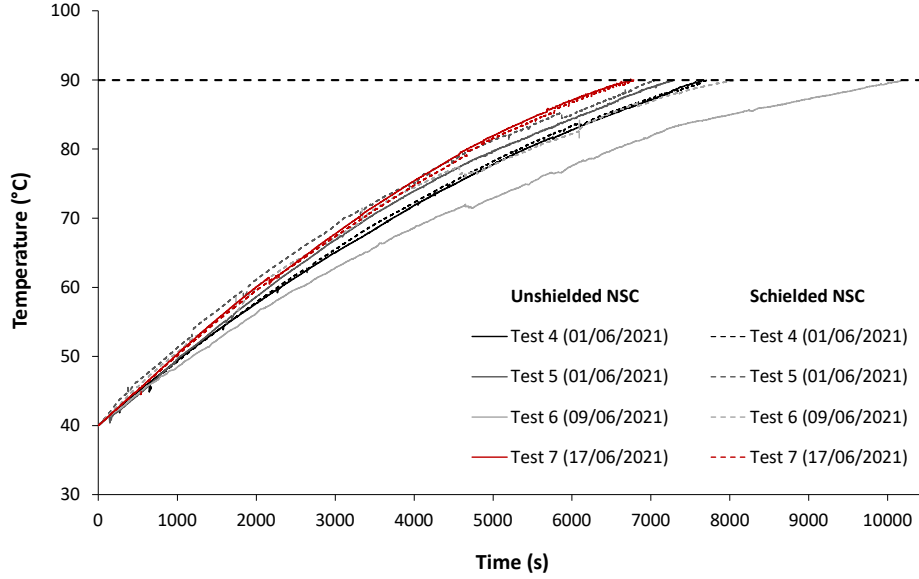


Fig. 9: Water temperature trends.

433 ambient temperature; in fact, a longer time for water to reach the boiling point
 434 was registered in test 6 (average Δt_h of 152 min and G_n of 827.54 W/m^2) with
 435 respect to test 5 (average Δt_h of 120 min and G_n of 953.02 W/m^2).

436 To better characterize the devices under investigation, in addition to the
 437 average efficiency (η_{av}) and the specific and characteristic boiling times (t_s and
 438 t_c), the following parameters were calculated: the *COR* parameter and the
 439 maximum temperature reachable by the fluid (T_{fx}).

440 To calculate these parameters, the water temperature range 40–90 °C was
 441 divided into sub-intervals of 5 minutes each. For each sub-interval, the averages
 442 of the global normal solar irradiance ($G_{n,av}$), ambient and fluid temperatures
 443 ($T_{amb,av}$ and $T_{f,av}$), and efficiency (η) were determined together with the pa-
 444 rameter χ . Fig. 10 shows the thermal efficiency η plotted against χ for each
 445 identified sub-interval. From the points, it was possible to obtain the regression
 446 line of the efficiency curve and its coefficients that correspond to the parameters
 447 $F'\eta_0$ (intercept of the line) and $F'U_1/C$ (opposite value of the slope of the line).
 448 The *COR* parameter and T_{fx} were determined through these two coefficients.

449 From the parameters calculated for the different tests (Table 5), it can be
450 pointed out that their values for the unshielded device are usually similar to
451 those of the shielded NSC in all the tests. However, it is also possible to note
452 that, while the optical efficiency factor $F'\eta_0$ of the two prototypes is almost
453 constant, the heat loss factor $F'U_1/C$ shows wider variations that depend on
454 the average ambient temperature and wind speed.

455 5.3. Tests with glycerin

456 Four outdoor tests were performed by loading each pot with 2 kg of glycerin.
457 Table 6 shows the results obtained for two NSC prototypes in the tests. The
458 parameters reported in this table were calculated in the glycerin temperature
459 range between 40 and 110 °C.

460 Fig. 11 shows the trends of glycerin temperatures, ambient temperature and
461 global and direct normal solar irradiances recorded on 04/06/2021 (test 9). The
462 average global normal solar irradiances was 963.96 W/m², while the average
463 ambient temperature was 26.88 °C. The fluid took 199 minutes when tested
464 with the unshielded NSC and 187 minutes when tested with the shielded device
465 to cover the temperature range of 40–110 °C.

466 Fig. 12 shows the glycerin trends obtained with the unshielded and shielded
467 NSC devices during all the performed tests. From Fig. 12, it is possible to note
468 that, as in the case of the water tests, the curves follow a very similar trend
469 even though the external conditions were different.

470 However, it is worthwhile noting that the effect of shielding is more evident
471 in the tests with glycerin. In fact, the times required for the fluid to go from 40
472 to 110 °C were generally longer in the case of the unshielded solar cooker. This
473 is especially evident in tests 8 (03/06/2021) and 10 (22/06/2021): Δt_h were 236
474 and 214 minutes, respectively, for the unshielded NSC and 174 and 175 minutes,
475 respectively, for the shielded NSC.

476 As for the water tests, to best characterize the two prototypes, the *COR*
477 parameter and T_{fx} were calculated in addition to η_{av} , t_s and t_{ch} . The same pro-
478 cedure described for the water tests was used. The only difference was that the

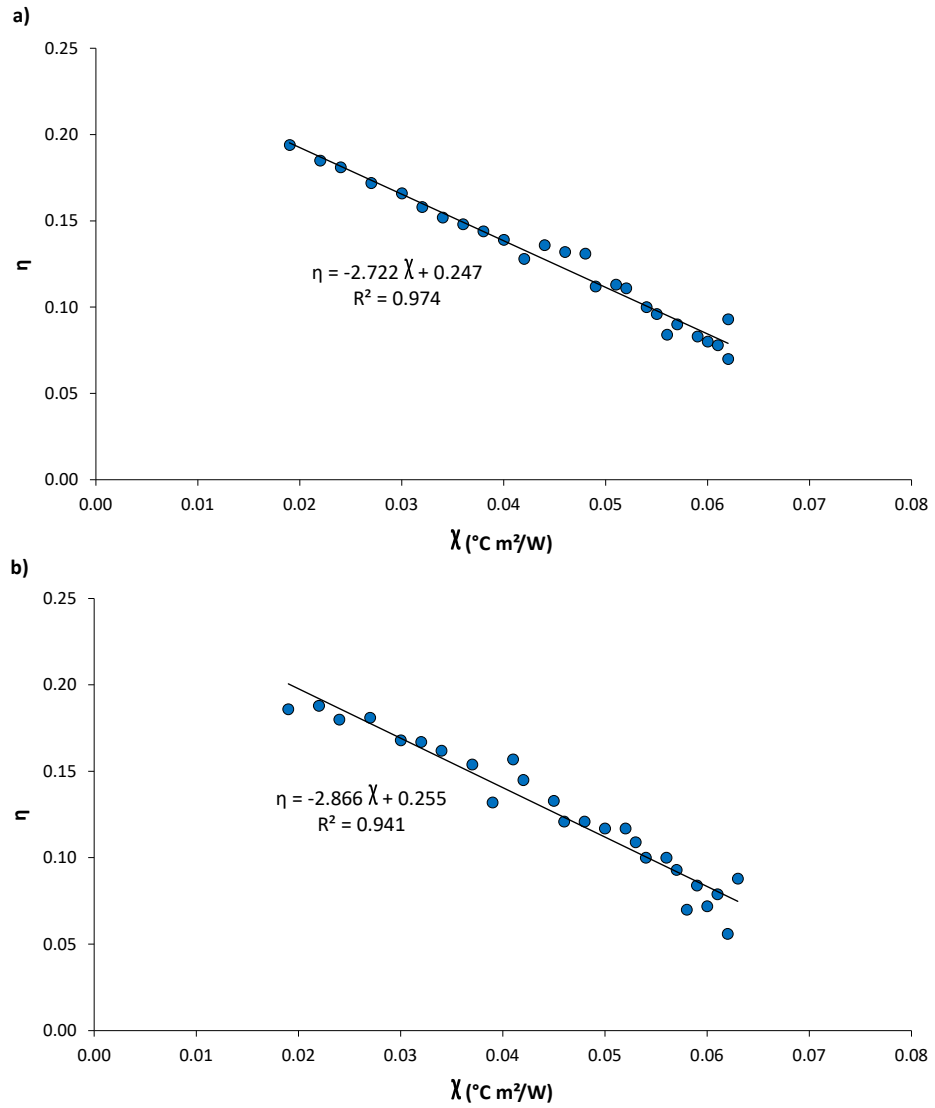


Fig. 10: Efficiency of the cookers tested with water (01/06/2021, test 4): a) unshielded Newton solar cooker and b) shielded Newton solar cooker.

Table 6: Summary of tests with glycerin.

Date	Type of cooker	Test 8		Test 9		Test 10		Test 11	
		03/06/2021	04/06/2021	22/06/2021	29/06/2021	Unshielded	Shielded	Unshielded	Shielded
$H_{sun,av}$ (°)		60.93	60.93	60.48	60.48	63.77	63.77	61.39	61.39
$\theta_{1,av}$ (°)		88.69	88.69	88.53	88.53	90.98	90.98	89.19	89.19
$\theta_{2,av}$ (°)		40.75	40.75	40.73	40.73	43.75	43.75	41.64	41.64
$A_{a,av}$ (m ²)		0.414	0.414	0.413	0.413	0.419	0.419	0.416	0.416
m_f (kg)		2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
T_1 (°C)		40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40
T_2 (°C)		110	110	110	110	110	110	110	110
$G_{n,av}$ (W/m ²)		1058.05	1048.19	962.39	965.53	934.34	934.96	910.08	910.85
$G_{bn,av}$ (W/m ²)		879.44	871.25	837.81	846.06	766.25	766.75	744.91	745.54
$T_{amb,av}$ (°C)		24.06	23.43	26.78	26.94	31.05	30.92	32.10	32.12
Δt_h (min)		236	174	199	187	214	175	140	146
t_s (h m ² /kg)		0.81	0.60	0.60	0.64	0.75	0.61	0.49	0.51
t_{ch} (h m ² /kg)		0.96	0.70	0.64	0.69	0.78	0.63	0.49	0.51
η_{av}		0.06	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.12	0.11
η_u		0.08	0.10	0.11	0.10	0.09	0.10	0.13	0.13
F_2		0.12	0.17	0.19	0.18	0.15	0.19	0.24	0.24
$F'\eta_0$		0.156	0.204	0.216	0.206	0.177	0.230	0.265	0.295
$F'U_1/C$ (W/m ² °C)		1.682	2.124	2.240	2.046	1.776	2.347	2.810	3.206
COR (°C/(W/m ²))		0.093	0.096	0.096	0.100	0.100	0.098	0.094	0.092
T_{fx} (°C)		122.14	124.27	119.65	123.99	124.17	122.54	117.93	116.03
R^2		0.932	0.957	0.883	0.968	0.922	0.883	0.856	0.910

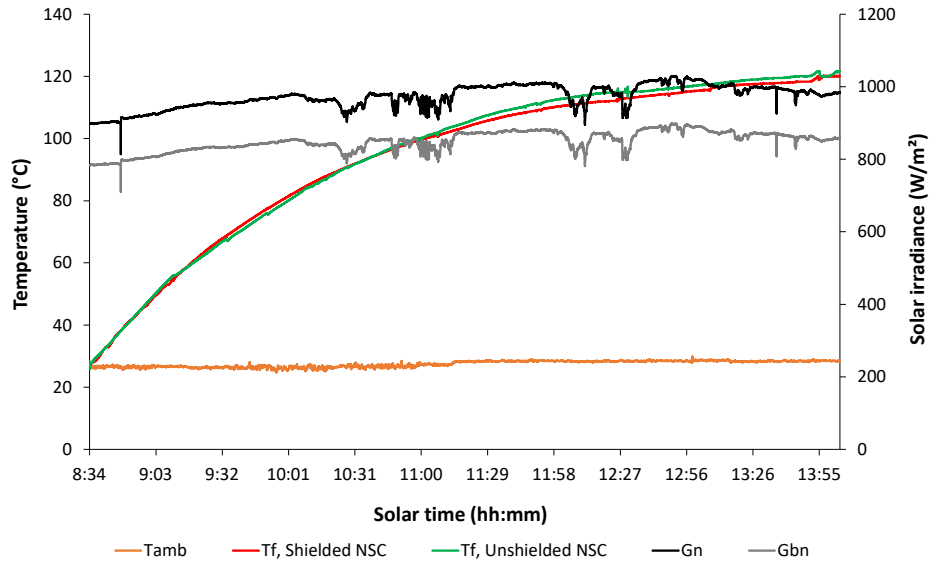


Fig. 11: Test with glycerin (04/06/2021, test 9).

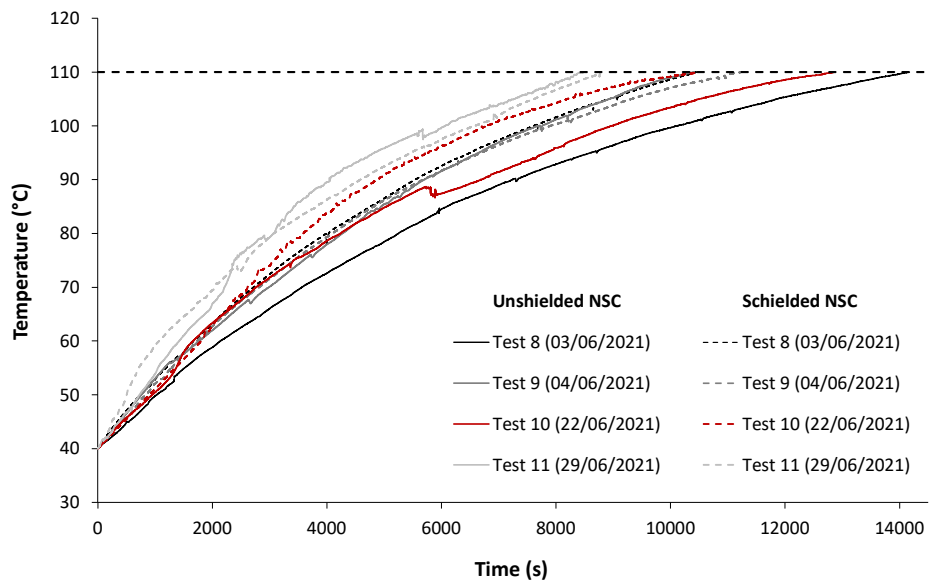


Fig. 12: Glycerin temperature trends.

479 temperature range from 40 to 110 °C was considered to calculate the parameters.

480 Fig. 13 shows the efficiency (η) referring to test 10 (04/06/2021). Also in
481 this case, the values of the calculated parameters are very similar in each test
482 (Table 6). As for the tests with water, the optical efficiency factor ($F'\eta_0$) of the
483 two prototypes is almost constant, while wider variations of the heat loss factor
484 ($F'U_1/C$) are evident.

485 Finally, from Tables 5 and 6, it can be pointed out that, for the same mass of
486 fluid, the average thermal efficiency (η_{av}) for the tests with glycerin is lower than
487 that for the tests with water; this outcome can be due to the higher temperatures
488 used to test glycerin.

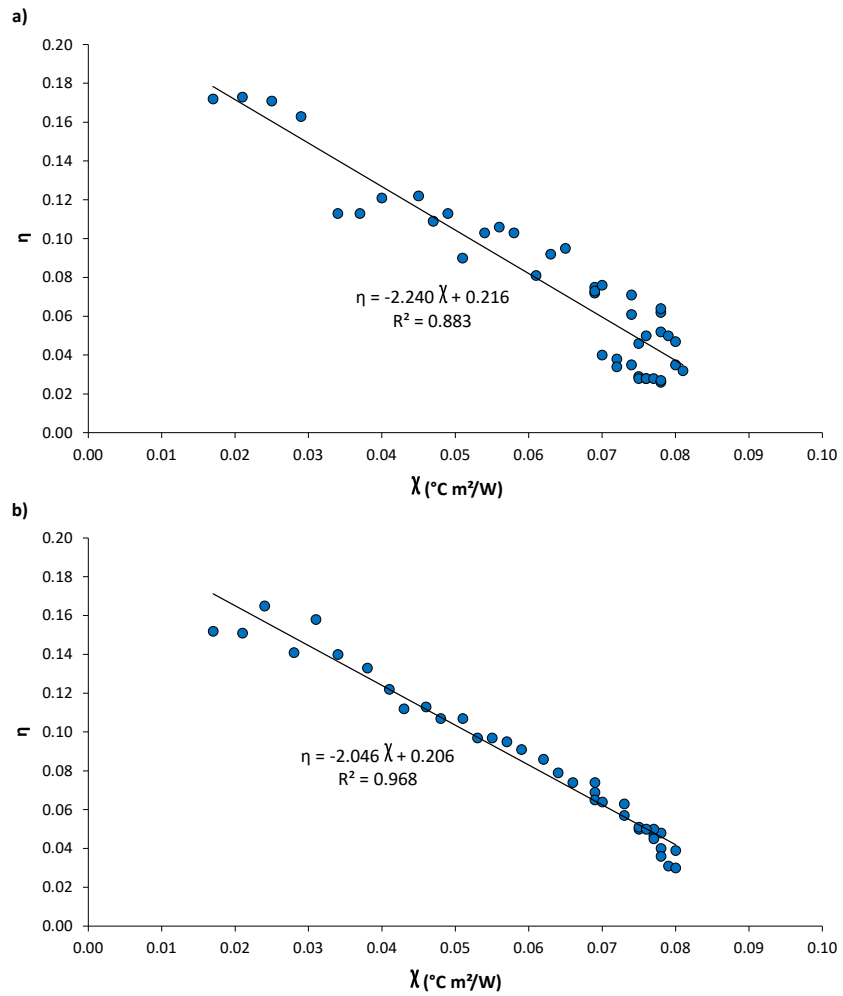


Fig. 13: Efficiency of the cookers tested with glycerin (04/06/2021, test 9): a) unshielded Newton solar cooker and b) shielded Newton solar cooker.

489 6. Conclusions

490 In this work, a new solar cooker with variable geometry, called Newton
491 solar cooker, was designed, constructed and experimentally tested through an
492 outdoor campaign. The presented device is easy to build, given the few simple
493 steps required in its manufacturing. It is easy to use and transport, given its
494 low weight and the possibility of disassembling the reflective surfaces and folding
495 the reflector supports. In addition, it is mainly made of common and available
496 materials such as wood and glass, making it inexpensive. To track the sun and
497 to maximize the amount of solar radiation concentrated on the cooking chamber,
498 the Newton solar cooker can change the inclination of the reflectors and rotate
499 through wheels.

500 During the experimental campaign, an unshielded prototype was simultane-
501 ously tested with an identical prototype that was shielded from the wind. The
502 two prototypes with tracking reflective surfaces at optimal angles were tested
503 both without load and by loading a pot with water or glycerin. The no-load
504 tests revealed that both prototypes were able to bring the cooker plate to a
505 stagnation temperature of approximately 137 °C. The water tests showed that
506 the shielded Newton solar cooker was capable of boiling 2 kg of water in ap-
507 proximately two hours. This time was slightly longer (on average 133 minutes)
508 in the case of the unshielded device. From the glycerin tests, it was found that,
509 to raise the temperature of 2 kg of glycerin from 40 °C to 110 °C, the shielded
510 Newton solar cooker took 170 minutes on average, while the unshielded device
511 took 197 minutes on average. The use of glycerin showed that the studied cooker
512 can reach medium-high temperatures with good efficiency.

513 In conclusion, it can be stated that the presented solar cooker is easy to use,
514 cost-effective and non-hazardous thanks to its simplicity and the use of common
515 and recyclable materials. The proposed device is also suited for developing
516 countries where it can be considered as a promising and environmentally friendly
517 alternative to traditional cooking methods.

518 **Nomenclature**

519 *Latin Symbols*

520	A	Area (m^2)
521	C	Concentration ratio
522	COR	Cooker opto-thermal ratio ($^{\circ}\text{C}/(\text{W}/\text{m}^2)$)
523	c	Specific heat ($\text{J}/(\text{kg } ^{\circ}\text{C})$)
524	F_1	First figure of merit ($^{\circ}\text{C}/(\text{W}/\text{m}^2)$)
525	F_2	Second figure of merit
526	F'	Heat exchange efficiency factor
527	$F'\eta_0$	Optical efficiency factor
528	$F'U_1$	Heat loss factor ($\text{W}/\text{m}^2 \text{ } ^{\circ}\text{C}$)
529	G	Global horizontal solar irradiance (W/m^2)
530	G_{bn}	Direct normal solar irradiance (W/m^2)
531	G_{n}	Global normal solar irradiance (W/m^2)
532	H_{sun}	Sun elevation ($^{\circ}$)
533	m	Mass (kg)
534	T	Temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)
535	T_{fx}	Maximum achievable fluid temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)
536	t	Time (min)

537

538 *Greek Symbols*

539	η	Efficiency
540	η_0	Optical efficiency
541	θ	Reflector angle ($^{\circ}$)

542

543 *Subscripts*

544 a Absorber, aperture

545 amb Ambient

546 av Average

547 ch Characteristic

548 f Fluid

549 h Heating

550 max Maximum

551 ref Reference

552 s Specific, solid

553 u Utilizable

554

555 *Acronyms*

556 NSC Newton solar cooker

557 PMMA Polymethylmethacrylate

558

559

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