



- Motivation
- PV economics
- Rural electrification
- Water pumping
- Health care systems
- Other remote applications























GENDER EQUALITY



















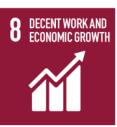












Remaining gap to 2030 SDG7 target







GENDER EQUALITY



100%

O%

Status in 2000

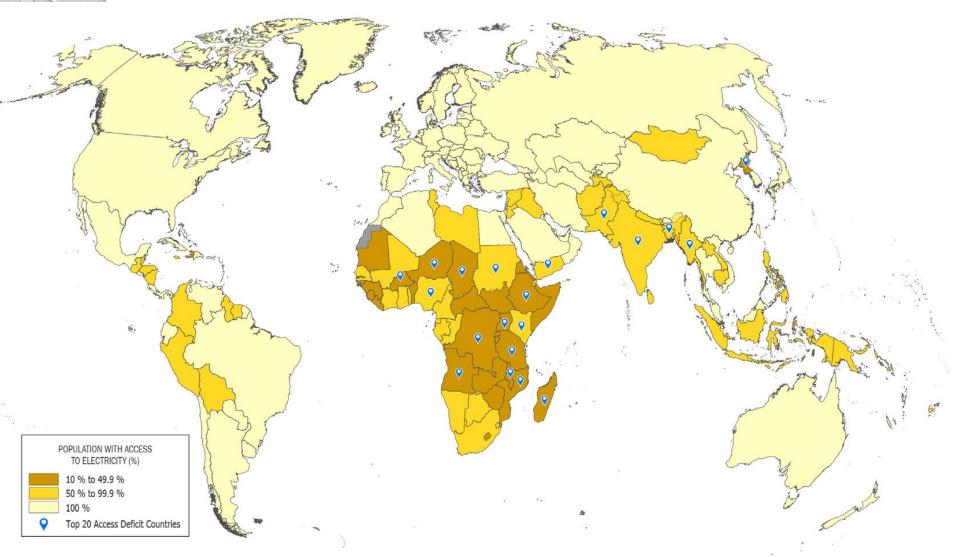
Progress between 2000 and 2010

Progress between 2010 and 2018

Projected progress up to 2030

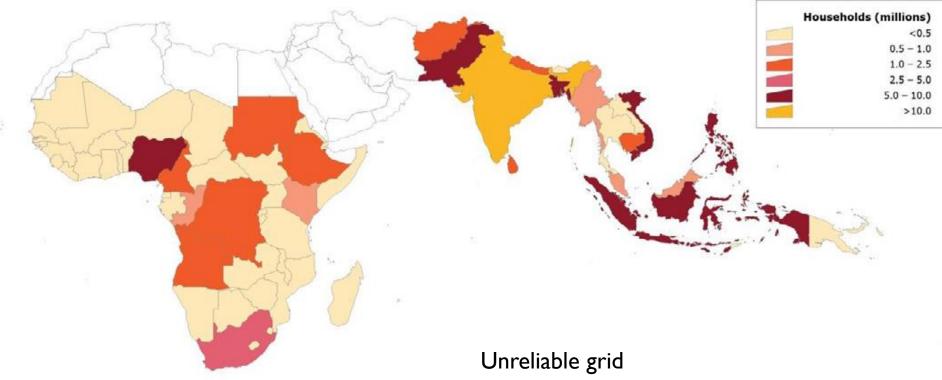


# Access to electricity



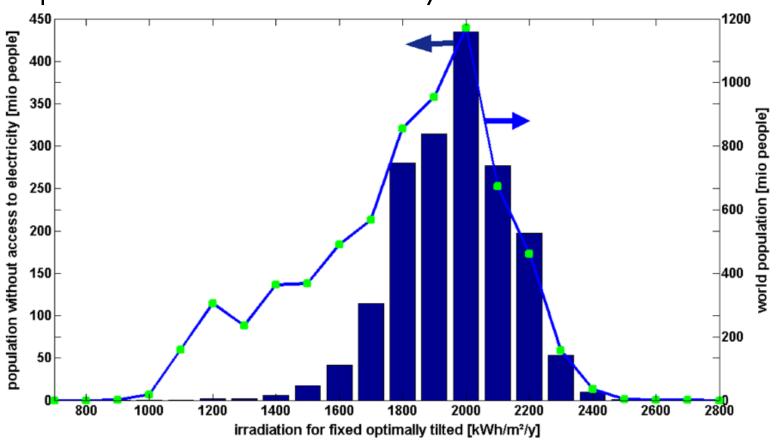


# Access to electricity



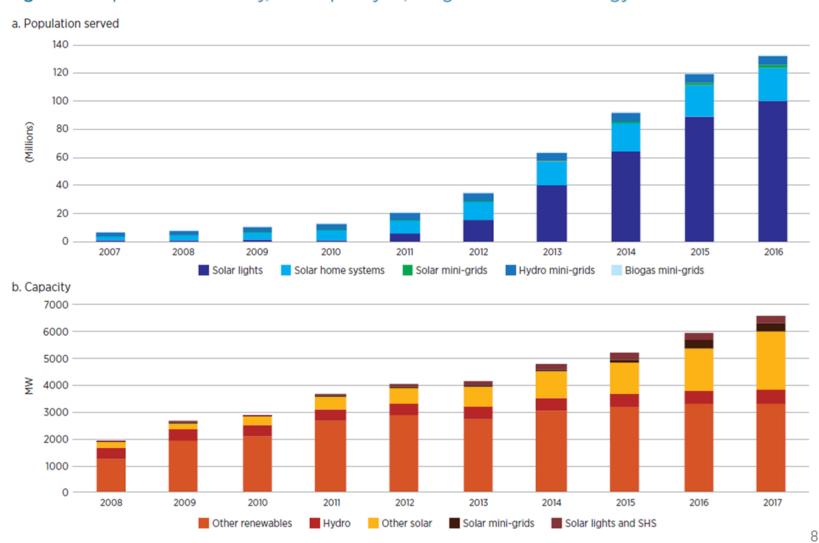
# Access to solar electricity

Population without access to electricity and local irradiation



# Access to solar electricity

Figure 3: Population served by, and capacity of, off-grid renewable energy solutions





- High capital cost
- No fuel cost
- Low maintenance cost
- High reliability (= low replacement cost)
- System output depends on location



- Life cycle cost: sum of all costs over lifetime, at today's money
- Payback time: time it takes for total cost to be paid for by system benefits/revenues
- Rate of return: magnitude of benefits expressed as a percentage on initial investment



- Period of analysis: lifetime of longest lived system under comparison
- Excess inflation (i): rate of price increase above (or below) general inflation
- **Discount rate (d):** rate (relative to inflation) at which money would increase in value if invested
- Capital cost: total initial cost
- Operation and maintenance: amount spend yearly in keeping system operational
- Fuel costs: annual fuel bill
- Replacements costs: cost of replacing each component at the end of its lifetime.

### PV ECONOMICS

M. Kolhe, S. Kolhe, J. C. Joshi, Economic viability of stand-alone solar photovoltaic system in comparison with diesel-powered system for India, Energy Economics, **24**:2 (2002) 155-165

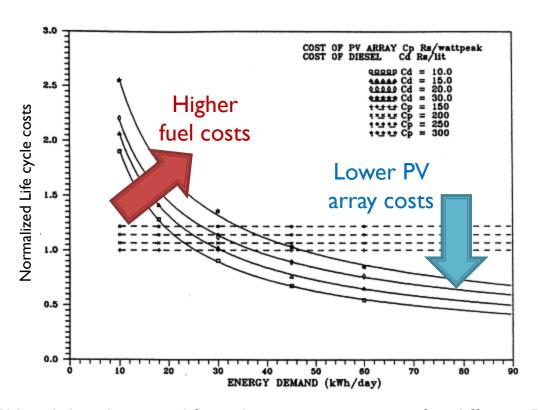


Fig. 3: PV and diesel system life-cycle cost comparisons for different PV array and diesel cost as a function of energy demand.

#### PV ECONOMICS

M. Kolhe, S. Kolhe, J. C. Joshi, Economic viability of stand-alone solar photovoltaic system in comparison with diesel-powered system for India, Energy Economics, **24**:2 (2002) 155-165

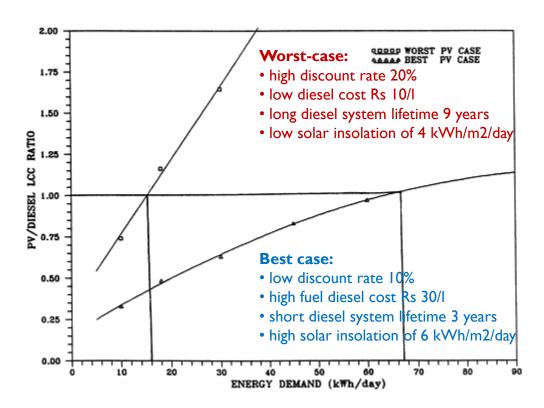


Fig. 4: Sensitivity to PV and diesel system life-cycle costs to the best and worst PV conditions as a function of energy demand.



- Lighting and power supply for remote buildings (mosques, farms, schools, mountain huts, etc.)
- Remote villages
- Battery charging stations
- Portable power for nomads

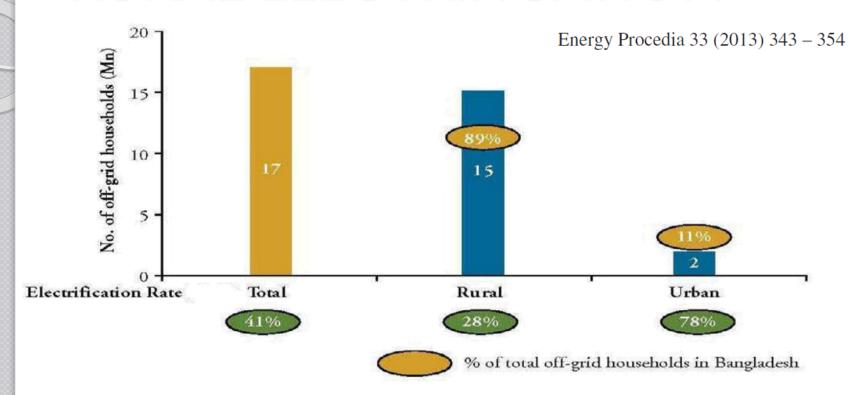
**Table 1**Expenses related to charging MP in developed and developing areas.

Parameter	Canada	Sub-Saharan Africa
Cost of energy (US\$/Wh)	0.00013	_
Charge energy (Wh)	8 Wh	8 Wh
Charges per month	30	30
Cost per charge (US\$)	0.001	0.20
Cost per month (US\$)	0.03	6.00
Phone plan per month (\$)	50.00	6.00
Charging costs as a percentage of total phone costs	0.06%	50%

Even if an MP user was to charge their phone once a month (and not daily!) they would still be paying nearly <u>seven times</u> the price for it.







#### 1. Rural Electrification Board (REB)

Started from 1993 Number of Installation: Solar electricity provided to 4220 rural houses by June 2007.

#### 2. Local Government Engineering Department (LGED)

Started from 1998 to 2006 Number of Installation: 4500 direct and about 50,000 indirect beneficiaries.

#### 3. Infrastructure

## **Development Company Limited (IDCOL)**

From 2003 until present
Partner Organisation: 30
Number of Installation: A total

of 1,655,832 (Aug 2012).

#### 4. Grameen Shakti (GS)

From 1996 until present Collaboration: Partner Organisation of IDCOL Number of Installation: 5, 18,210.

Energy Policy 63 (2013) 348-354

Solar Home System (SHS) in rural Bangladesh: Ornamentation or fact of development?



Syed M. Rahman a,\*, Mokbul M. Ahmad b,1

- <sup>a</sup> Climate Change and Sustainable Development Field of Study, School of Environment, Resources and Development, Asian Institute of Technology, PO Box 4, Klong Luang, Pathumthani 12120, Thailand
- <sup>b</sup> Regional and Rural Development Planning Field of Study, School of Environment, Resources and Development, Asian Institute of Technology, PO Box 4, Klong Luang, Pathumthani 12120, Thailand

#### HIGHLIGHTS

- No specific proof is there to conclude that SHS has contributed to development.
- SHS's contribution to income generation and employment is not significant.
- SHS is mostly used for entertainment and to uplift the so called 'social status'.

#### ARTICLEINFO

Article history: Received 23 April 2013 Accepted 8 August 2013 Available online 30 August 2013

Keywords: Solar Home System (SHS) Rural development Bangladesh

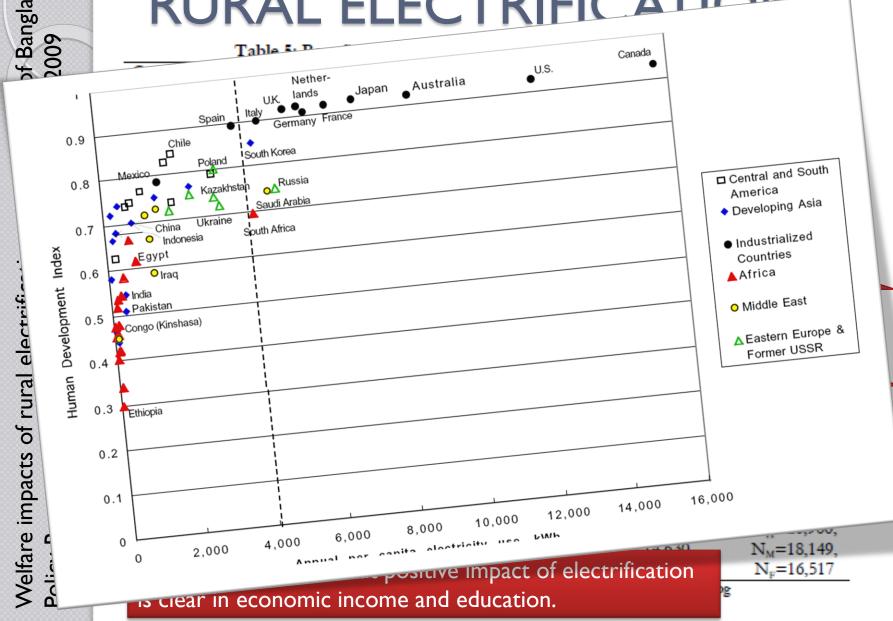
#### ABSTRACT

Energy requirement has been growing every day due to higher population growth, and consequently higher consumption. About one third of rural households of Bangladesh are connected to the grid. To meet the gap, solar energy has been treated as a feasible option for people in rural areas where grid connections are not available. A good number of organizations have been working together to provide Solar Home System (SHS) in rural Bangladesh. There is little evidence that supply of small scale energy supports significant rural development. This paper aims at understanding how increased energy access through SHS in rural Bangladesh contributes towards rural development. Recent published literatures on SHS in Bangladesh have been studied to get insight into the technical, financial, and operational as well as economic and social issues. Later the findings have been critically analyzed with respect to selected indicators of rural development. The study identified that increased access to energy through SHS in rural Bangladesh provides mostly recreational and leisure benefits with the so called 'social status'; income generation is negligible while support for education is average.

© 2013 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Outcome variables	Comparison of electrified households with households		
		rithout electricity in	
	In villages with	In villages without	All villages
	electricity	electricity	
Economic outcomes	_		
Yearly per capita expenditure (Tk.)	0.234	0.112	0.155
	(35.76)	(17.99)	(26.61)
Yearly farm income (Tk.)	1.227	-0.733	-0.037
	(14.05)	(-9.51)	(-0.50)
Yearly non-farm income (Tk.)	0.993	1.322	1.205
	(15.64)	(21.18)	2.450/
Yearly total income (Tk.)	0.433	0.177	245%
	(45.44)	(18.89)	(30.92)
Education outcomes (age 5-18)			
Boys' completed schooling years	1.134	0.725	0.867
	(18.91)	(12.97)	131%
Girls' completed schooling years	1.068	1.015	131/
	(16.72)	(17.47)	(18.99)
Boys' study time (minutes/day)	33.4	17.7	23.1
	(14.32)	(8.24)	<i>(</i> 1
Girls' study time (minutes/day)	36.2	24.6	168%
	(15.10)	(11.17)	(14.04)
Observations	$N_{H}=13,829$	$N_H = 16,853$ ,	$N_H = 20,900,$
	N -11 806	N -14 630	$N_M = 18,149$ ,
More boys than girls, but p	ositive impact of	electrification	$N_{\rm F}$ =16,517





#### Different deployment strategies

- Donations
- Cash sales
- Consumer credit
- Fee-for-service

#### Donations

- ✓ Low initial cost for user
- √ Economies of scale
- ✓ Rapid deployment
- \*Lack of user commitment
- No funding for maintenance/replacements

#### Cash sales

- √User choice
- √User commitment
- √'Modular' purchasing
- Cheap/low quality/undersized components
- High- and middle class access only



#### Consumer credit

- As 'cash sales'
- Dealer extended credit or micro-credit

#### Fee-for-service

- As 'cash sales'
- Economies of scale

Cash sales
(3-5%)

Credit
(15-20%)

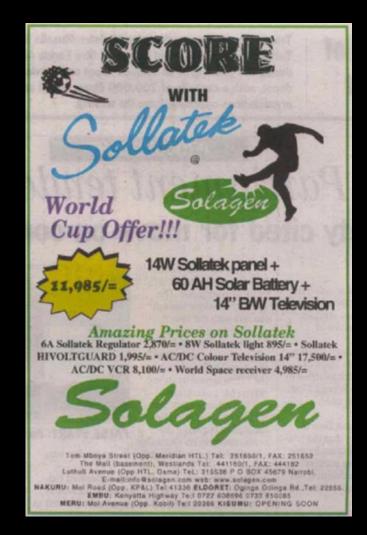
Fee-for-service

(18-25%)

50% may not be able to afford solar PV











Tests carried out at Loughborough University in U.K. have shown that 14 watt panels made in China only give out half the power they should do II They are therefore actually only 8 watt panels and should cost not more than Kshs 2000/= each. They can be identified by their silver frames.

This scandal has been reported to the Kenya Bureau of Standards. The detailed test results can be viewed at any Sollatek Solar Distributor, Sollatek Service Centre or www.sollatek.co.ke

LOOK FOR THE PANEL WITH THE GOLD FRAME MADE IN U.K. BY ICP SOLAR AND SOLD EXCLUSIVELY BY SOLLATEK IN E. AFRICA TO BE GUARANTEED GOOD VALUE FOR YOUR MONEY.

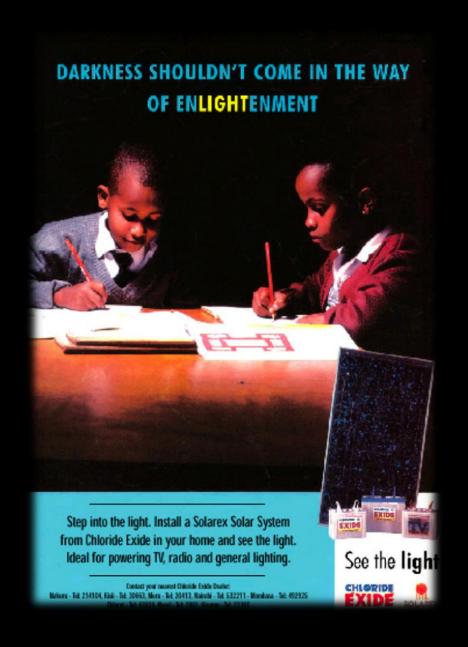
#### The choice is yours!

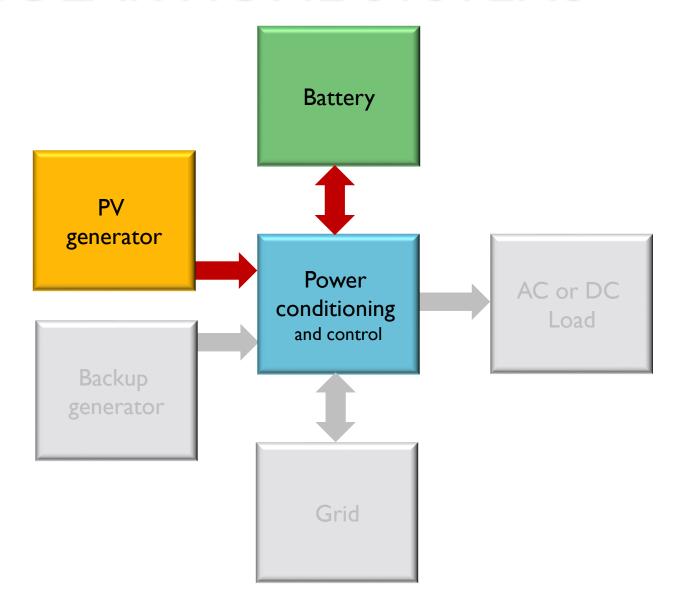


HEAD OFFICE,

P.O. Box34246, Mombasa, 80118 Kenya. Telkom: (041) 5486250/1/2/3 Fax: 5486259, Mobiles: 0733 615727 /610753 or 0722 764643 e-mail: sales@sollatek.co.ke

26





- Certified PV modules (no need for bypass diode)
- Support structures
  - at least 10 years of outdoor exposure
  - withstand winds of 120 km/h
- Tilt angle: latitude ± 10°
- Manual tracking: 2-3 positions/day, moving from East to West)
  - √ (Slight) performance improvement
  - √ Promotes user participation
  - Risk of damage
  - Risk of energy loss due to poor or no adjustment

- Automotive batteries (SLI)
  - √ Cheap
  - √ Widely available
  - √ Locally produced
    - Economic & socially convenient
    - Recycle
  - Short lifetime
    - use larger capacity
    - use lower electrolyte density (1.24 instead of 1.28g/cl)
    - replace thin electrodes (>2mm)

Maximum depth of discharge:

$$0.3 < Depth_{max} < 0.6$$

- **Useful capacity**  $(C_U)$  < Nominal capacity  $(C_B)$  $C_U = C_B \times Depth_{max}$
- C<sub>U</sub> = 3-to-5 days x daily energy consumption
   Depth of discharge in daily cycle:
   0.06 < Depth < 0.2</li>

- Depth<sub>max</sub> = 0.3-0.5
- n x Load / Depth<sub>max</sub> < C<sub>B</sub>

```
Load = I2 Ah
Dry place: n = 3 days
Isc = 3.3 A
C: 72 Ah < C<sub>B</sub>
R: I20 Ah < C<sub>B</sub>
Vet place: n = 5 days
Isc = 3.3 A
C: I20 Ah < C<sub>B</sub>
R: 200 Ah < C<sub>B</sub>
```

- NOC (number of cycles before residual capacity less than 80% CB) > 200
- Self discharge < 6%/month



- Voltage losses:
  - PV modules → charge regulator < 3%</li>
  - Battery → charge regulator < 1%</li>
  - Charge regulator → load < 5%</li>
- Minimum section of copper cable (12V)

$$S(mm^2) = 0.3 \times length (m) \times I_M(A) / \Delta V(\%)$$

- Energy performance
  - Loss of load probability (LLP)
  - Performance ratio(= useful energy / max theoretical energy)
    includes losses in module (temperature, mismatch), self consumption
    of charge regulator, battery efficiency, etc.
- Energy requirement (typical)
  - 40-50Wp
  - 120-160Wh/day

Lighting, radio, TV (for refrigerator, fans, etc, larger systems required)

#### Sizing:

PV generator capacity

$$CA = \eta A Gd / L$$

Storage capacity (days)

$$CS = CU / L$$

η – efficiency

A - Area

Gd - daily irradiation

L - (load) daily consumption

CU - useful battery capacity

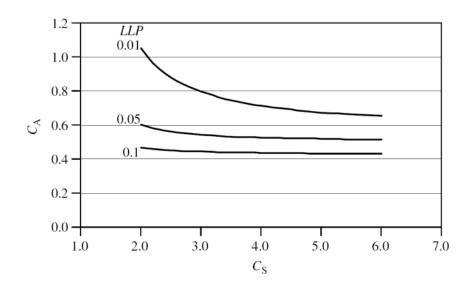
#### Rules of thumb

- Energy produced during worst month can, at least, equal demand of the load (CA = I)
- Battery useful capacity should allow 3-to-5 days of autonomy (3 < CS < 5)</li>

#### SOLAR HOME SYSTEMS

Proper sizing using Loss-of-load-probability method (LLP)

- R. Posadillo, R. López Luque, Approaches for developing a sizing method for stand-alone PV systems with variable demand, Renewable Energy 33:5 (2008) 1037-1048
- E. Lorenzo, Energy collected and delivered by PV modules, in Handbook of Photovoltaic Science and Engineering, ed. A. Luque, S. Hegedus (2003)



**Figure 20.23** Reliability maps: Generator capacity  $C_A$  versus storage capacity  $C_S$  with the reliability LLP as parameter



- No shadows on modules, at least 8h/day, centred at noon, all year
- Pedestal mounting preferable
- If on roof: 5cm gap for air circulation
- Battery locked but accessible
- And...
  - Avoid different bolts/screws to minimise tools
  - Use fluorescent tubes available locally
  - All materials (screws, connectors, etc) in SHS kit
  - etc.

# SOLAR HOME SYSTEMS

#### Flexibility:

- Any component may be substituted by similar component (even from different supplier)
- Increasing system size:
  - PV modules in parallel (check wiring sizes and regulator maximum current)
  - Batteries in parallel?
    - Not more than 2 identical batteries
    - Old and new batteries OR 2 non-identical batteries may not be connected in parallel





- Pumping for drinking water
- Pumping for irrigation
- De-watering and drainage
- Ice production
- Saltwater dessalination
- Water purification
- Water circulation in fish farms

- Solar pumps
  - Hydraulic energy (kWh/day) =
    - = volume required (m $^3$ /day) x head (m) x water density x gravity
    - =  $2.725 \times 10^{-3} \times \text{volume required (m}^3/\text{day}) \times \text{head (m)}$
  - Solar array required (kWp) =

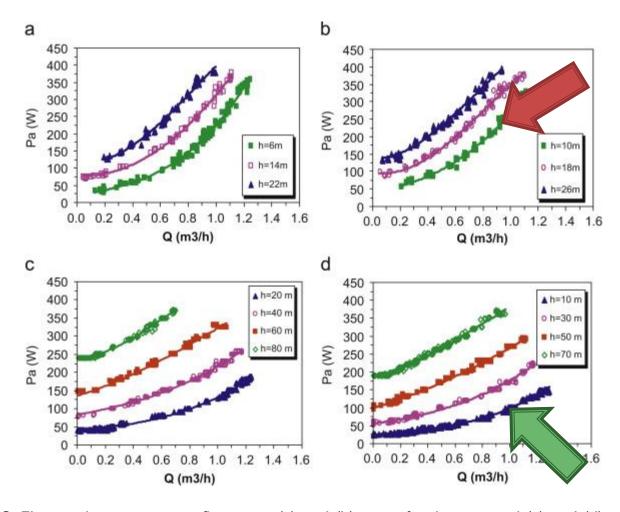
Hydraulic energy (kWh/day)

Average daily solar irradiation (kWh/m<sup>2</sup>/day) x F x E

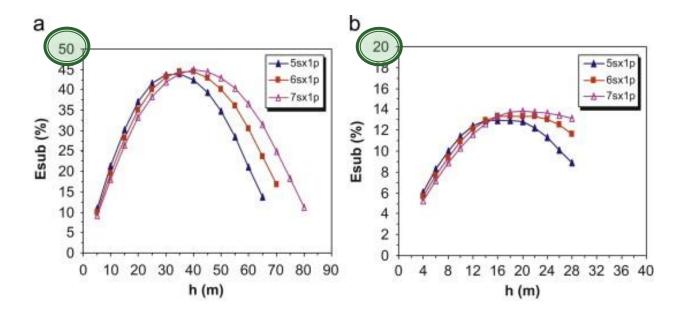
F (mismatch factor) = 0.85 E (subsystem efficiency) = 0.25 – 0.4

Example

25m³/day 20m head requires 800Wp at Sahel



**Fig. 3.** Electrical power versus flow rate: (a) and (b) centrifugal pump, and (c) and (d) displacement pump.



**Fig. 4.** The subsystem efficiency, the peak power of the photovoltaic array: (a) DC motor with a positive displacement pump and (b) AC motor with a centrifugal pump.

Maximum point tracker:
 DC/DC converter to track pump input I/V

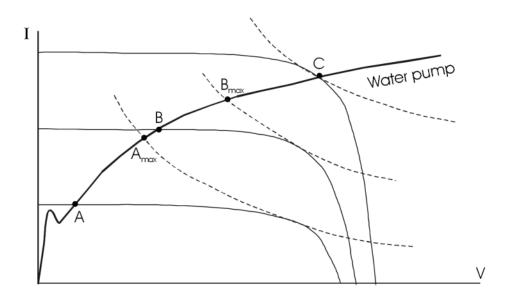


Figure 3.27 Pump and PV I-V characteristics, showing the need for use of MPT.



- Lighting in rural remote clinics
- UHF transreceivers between health centres
- Vaccine refrigeration
- Ice pack freezing for vaccine carriers
- Sterilisers
- Blood storage refrigerators



- Remote communications: Radio repeaters, Remote TV & radio receivers, Mobile radios, Emergency phones
- Remote weather measuring
- Earthquake monitoring
- Road sign lighting
- Navigations buoys
- Boat power supply
- Corrosion protection systems
- Calculators

