GEETHU BIJIL
DR. A.K. SINGH

RENEWABLE ENERGY
RESOURCE, CHALLENGES AND APPLICATION

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CHAPTER 1

THE FUNDAMENTALS OF RENEWABLE ENERGY

Ms. Geethu Bijil, Assistant Professor
Department Of Soft Skills, Presidency University, Bangalore, India
Email Id: geetu@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

In order to solve the global energy crisis and combat climate change, renewable energy is a fast-expanding profession. Sustainability, environmental effect, energy diversification, and economic feasibility are the guiding concepts of renewable energy systems. In contrast to fossil fuels, renewable energy sources provide a nearly endless supply of clean energy and are regenerated organically. By minimizing environmental deterioration and greenhouse gas emissions, they contribute to a sustainable future. In addition, using renewable energy lessens dependence on limited and non-renewable resources by using a variety of sources of energy, including solar, wind, hydro, and geothermal power. Additionally, there have been considerable improvements in renewable energy technology, resulting in higher efficacy, lower costs, and wider use. These developments have made renewable energy commercially feasible, allowing for its incorporation into the main energy industry along with helpful regulations and incentives. The fundamentals of renewable energy stress the need of shifting to a sustainable energy system that is socially just, commercially viable, and ecologically responsible. Societies may promote a more sustainable and resilient future while minimizing the negative effects associated with conventional energy sources by adopting renewable energy

KEYWORDS:

Energy, Renewable, Source, Fossil, Fuels.

INTRODUCTION

This text's goal is to investigate every kind of renewable energy source that is offered to contemporary economies. It is important to support the expansion of these renewables since they are considered essential components for sustainability. The topics covered will include renewable energy sources such as garbage, wind, water, biomass, and sunlight. Although the whole is a worldwide resource and the magnitude of local application spans from tens to many millions of watts, four issues are posed for actual application:

1. What kind of energy resource is there in the nearby environment?
2. What uses or end products may this energy be put to?
3. How does the technology affect the environment, and is it sustainable?
4. How much does the energy cost, and is it economical?

The first two are technical issues that are covered by the kind of renewable technology in the main chapters. The third query concerns general planning, social responsibility, and sustainable development challenges, all of which are covered in this chapter. The last portion of each technological chapter summarizes the environmental effects of certain renewable energy methods. The fourth issue, which was discussed in the previous chapter together with other institutional elements, is often the main criteria for commercial installations and may be dominant for customers. However, cost-effectiveness heavily relies on:

1. Understanding the unique scientific tenets of renewable energy.

2. Maximize the economic, social, and environmental advantages while limiting losses at each step of the energy supply chain.
3. Like-for-like comparisons with fossil fuels and nuclear electricity, taking externalities into account.

Once these requirements have been completed, it is feasible to determine the costs and benefits of a specific plan and compare them to potential alternatives for an economic and environmental evaluation. Poor engineering and unprofitable operation are practically definite outcomes if the particular scientific foundations for capturing renewable energy are not understood. The techniques used for renewable sources and those employed for non-renewable fossil fuel and nuclear sources are often in stark contrast[1]–[3].

DISCUSSION

A general definition of sustainable development is to live, produce, and consume in a way that satisfies current needs without jeopardizing the capacity of future generations to satiate their own needs. It has evolved into a crucial tenet of 21st-century policy. Politicians, businesspeople, environmentalists, economists, and theologians all around the world agree that the idea must be put into practice at the global, national, and local levels. Naturally, it is far more difficult to really put it into practice and in detail!The term development in an international context refers to an improvement in the standard of living, particularly in the less developed nations of the globe. The goal of sustainable development is to accomplish progress while preserving the natural processes that support life. Progressive companies strive to report a positive triple bottom line locally, i.e., a positive impact on the community's economic, social, and environmental well-being.

Following the publication of the World Commission on Environment and Development's landmark report 1987, the idea of sustainable development gained widespread acceptance. The extent and unevenness of economic development and population increase were, and continue to be, putting unprecedented strain on our planet's lands, waterways, and other natural resources, prompting the United Nations to establish the commission. Certain of these pressures are so intense that they put certain local populations' very existence in jeopardy and, in the long run, may trigger catastrophic global events. Populations will ultimately be pushed to change their way of life by ecological and economic forces, particularly in terms of production and consumption. Nevertheless, forethought, planning, and political i.e., community will lessen the negative economic and social effects of such transitions[4]–[6].

Examples of these problems include energy resources. All economies depend on a reliable energy supply for things like lighting, heating, communications, computers, industrial machinery, transportation, etc. In industrialized countries, the gross national product is 5–10% of energy purchases. But in certain emerging nations, the cost of energy imports may have exceeded the value of all exports; such economies are unsustainable and a financial obstacle to sustainable growth. Global energy consumption more than tenfold increased.Throughout the 20th century, electricity was produced mostly from fossil fuels coal, oil, and gas, with some energy coming from nuclear power. 21st centuryFurther increases in global energy consumption are anticipated over the next century, mostly due to increased industrialization and demand in formerly underdeveloped nations, which are made worse by glaring inefficiencies across the board. Whatever the energy source, efficient energy production, and utilization are very necessary.

Since there is not a large pace of new fossil fuel formation, the available supplies are eventually limited. The most recent polls determine where and how many of these stocks there are. By mass, coal is without a doubt the most prevalent form of fossil fuel, with oil and gas far behind. A resource's reserve lifespan may be calculated by dividing the known accessible quantity by the rate of current usage. According to this definition, coal has a lifespan of a few centuries, compared to the typical lifespan of oil and gas resources, which is just a few decades. Economics forecasts that when a fuel reserve's life span decreases, its price will rise. As a result, there will be less demand for fuel, and sources and substitutes that were previously more costly will join the market. The original source often lasts longer as a result of this procedure than an initial estimate would suggest.

In actuality, several other elements have a role, particularly state policies and international relations. However, the fundamental geological reality still stands: there are only a finite number of fossil fuel sources, making the current patterns of energy use and development unsustainable over the long run.Additionally, the use of fossil fuels and nuclear power results in emissions, which increasingly dictate the basic restrictions. One such example is the atmosphere's rising $CO2$ content. In fact, according to an ecological knowledge of our planet's long-term history spanning billions of years, there was an excess of carbon in the atmosphere at first, so it had to be stored underground to create the oxygen-rich atmosphere we have today.Therefore, it is crucial to increase the supply of renewable energy sources and to utilize energy more effectively, as shown by the reasons

1. The limited nature of fossil and nuclear fuel materials.
2. The damage of emissions.
3. Ecological sustainability.

If the entire external costs of getting the fuels and compensating for the harm caused by emissions are internalized in the price, such findings are supported by economics. Such basic studies may come to the conclusion that the use of efficient energy consumption and renewable energy is less expensive for society than the conventional use of fossil and nuclear fuels.The harmful environmental repercussions of burning fossil fuels also suggest that existing patterns of consumption are not long-term sustainable. The concentration of CO2 in the atmosphere has increased significantly, especially as a result of CO2 emissions from the burning of fossil fuels. According to the consensus of scientists, if this keeps happening, it will intensify the greenhouse effect and cause severe climate change in less than a century, which may have a big negative impact on food production, water supply, and people, such as via floods and cyclones IPCC.

Over 150 national governments signed the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change, which established a framework for collective action on the issue, recognizing that this is a global issue that no one nation can solve on its own. Unfortunately, progress is painfully slow, not least because governments in industrialized nations are reluctant to upend their constituents' way of life. However, it is already well-established that possible climate change and associated sustainability challenges are one of the main factors influencing energy policy.In terms of both resource restrictions and environmental implications, renewable energy sources are, in general, significantly more compatible with sustainable development than fossil and nuclear fuels.As a result, almost all national energy plans incorporate the following four crucial elements for enhancing or preserving the social benefit of energy:

1. Increased harnessing of renewable supplies.
2. Increased efficiency of supply and end-use.
3. Reduction in pollution.
4. Consideration of lifestyle.
5. Scientific principles of renewable energy

The definitions of finite brown and renewable green energy sources highlight the key distinctions between the two types of sources. As a result, effective implementation of certain principles is necessary for the effective use of renewable energy.

Energy Currents

It is crucial that the local environment already has a significant amount of renewable current. Trying to develop this energy stream, particularly for a certain system is not a smart idea. Previously, renewable energy was mocked. by figuring out how many pigs are needed to create enough manure to generate enough methane to power an entire city. However, it is clear that biogas methane generation should only be taken into account as a by-product of an established animal business, not the other way around. Similar requirements must be met for a biomass energy plant in order to prevent significant transportation inefficiencies. In order to determine exactly what energy flows are there, it is necessary to monitor and assess the local environment over an extended period of time. Before the flow via DEF is formed the energy current ABC must be evaluated.

Dynamic Characteristics

Energy end-use requirements change over time. For instance, the demand for energy on a power network often reaches its peak in the morning and evening and its lowest during the night. If the energy comes from a limited resource, like oil, the input may be changed to meet demand. Unused energy is retained with the fuel source rather than being squandered. However, with renewable energy sources, not only does end-use change inexorably through time, but so does the environment's natural supply. Therefore, a renewable energy device has to be dynamically matched at both D and E; the properties there are likely to be quite different. The majority of the next chapters will provide examples of these dynamic impacts. The primary periodic fluctuations of renewable sources, however exact dynamic behaviour may be significantly impacted by irregularities[7]–[9].Systems might be very unpredictable like wind power or precisely predictable like tidal power. In certain places, like Khartoum, solar energy may be quite predictable, while in other places, like Glasgow, it may be more unpredictable.

Quality of Supply

Although often addressed, the quality of an energy source or reserve typically goes undefined. The percentage of an energy source that can be used to do mechanical work is how we define quality. As a result, electricity is of excellent quality since an electric motor can transform more than 95% of the energy it receives into the mechanical effort, such as lifting a weight, while only losing 5% of its energy as heat. Because only approximately 33% of the calorific value of the fuel can be converted into mechanical work and about 67% is lost as heat to the environment, the quality of nuclear, fossil, or biomass fuel in a single-stage thermal power plant is relatively poor. The fuel's quality is raised to around 50% if it is utilized in a combined cycle power plant for instance, a methane gas turbine stage followed by a steam turbine. Such aspects may be examined in terms of thermodynamic variable energy, which is described as the theoretical maximum amount of work obtainable, at a particular environmental temperature, from an energy source in this sentence.There are three main categories that separate renewable energy supply systems:

1. **Mechanical resources**, including wind, wave, hydro, and tidal power. The conversion of mechanical energy into electrical often occurs with great efficiency. The percentage of energy that was collected from the environment by the devices is governed by the mechanics of the process, which are connected to the source's variability and are detailed in more detail in the following chapters. The ratios are typically 35% wind, 75% hydro, 50% wave, and 75% tide.
2. **Heat sources**, such as solar collectors and the burning of biomass. These sources produce heat effectively. However, the second law of thermodynamics and the Carnot Theorem, which makes the assumption that transformations are reversible and indefinitely lengthy, provide the greatest proportion of heat energy that can be

extracted as mechanical work and, therefore, electricity. In reality, the greatest mechanical power generated by a dynamic process is only approximately half of what the Carnot criterion indicated. The maximum realizable quality for thermal boiler heat engines is about 35%.

3. **Photon processes**, such as photovoltaic conversion, photosynthesis, and photochemistry. For instance, a matched solar cell may convert sun photons of a single frequency into mechanical work with great efficiency. In reality, matching is challenging due to the wide range of frequencies in the solar spectrum, and a photon conversion efficiency of 20–30% is thought to be satisfactory.

Dispersed versus Centralized Energy

The energy flow density at the first transformation is a clear distinction between renewable and finite energy sources. In contrast to limited central sources, which have energy flux densities that are orders of magnitude higher, renewable energy typically comes at roughly 1 kW m2 for example, energy in the wind at 10 m s1. For instance, gas furnace boiler tubes can transfer 100 kW m2 with ease, but a nuclear reactor's first wall heat exchanger has to move several MW m2. However, supplies from limited sources must have a much lower flux density at the point of application after distribution. End-use loads for renewable and limited sources are therefore comparable, with the notable exception of metal refining. In conclusion, it is more convenient to create and distribute limited energy centrally and at a high cost. The most cost-effective places to create renewable energy are scattered areas since it is costly to concentrate. Renewable generators are 'embedded' inside the distributed system when they are connected to an electrical grid.The application of renewable energy has the potential to boost the rural economy's growth and cash flow. Consequently, using renewable energy encourages rural growth rather than urbanization.

Complex Energy

Intimate connections between renewable energy sources and the environment exist, and these connections transcend the purview of a single academic field like physics or electrical engineering. It is often important to bridge the gap between fields as disparate as, for instance, plant physiology and electrical control engineering. The energy planning involved in integrated farming is one Methane, liquid, and solid fuels may be produced from animal and plant wastes, and the whole system can be connected with fertilizer production and nutrient cycling for the highest possible agricultural yields.

Situation Dependence

Since the capacity of the local environment to provide the energy and the appropriateness of civilization to take the energy differ widely, no one renewable energy system is universally applicable. The need to 'prospect' for renewable energy is equivalent to the need to explore oil in geological formations. Energy requirements studies for the local community's home, agricultural, and industrial demands are also important. Afterward, specific end-use requirements and nearby renewable energy resources may be matched, subject to financial and environmental limitations. Renewable energy is comparable to agriculture in this way. Some soils and settings are more suited for some crops than others, and the market demand for the output will rely on specific demands. Making simple worldwide or national energy planning is impossible as a result of this situation dependence on renewable energy. The use of solar energy in southern Italy should vary significantly from that in Belgium or even northern Italy. Farmers in Missouri could find corn alcohol fuels useful, but not in New England. Planning for renewable energy might be done at a size of 250 km, but not 2500 km. unfortunately, such flexibility and variance are not well suited for today's vast urban and industrialized cultures.

Technical implications

Prospecting the Environment

Typically, the location ofthe issue has to be monitored for a number of years. The continuous analysis must ensure that relevant data are being gathered, especially in relation to the dynamic properties of the anticipated energy systems.Meteorological data are always significant, but sadly the locations of official stations are often far from the sources of energy, and the recording and processing techniques are not optimal for energy exploration.The long-term statistics from official monitoring stations are crucial for comparison with local site fluctuations, however. As a result, wind velocity at a potential generating site may be tracked for a number of months and compared to information from the closest official base station. It could therefore be able to extrapolate using several years' worth of base station data. It may be challenging to analyse data that are unrelated to standard meteorological measures.Obtain. For instance, fluxes of biomass and waste materials often haven't been evaluated or taken into account for energy production. Prospecting for renewable energy sources often needs special techniques and tools that require substantial financial and human resources. Fortunately, the connections between meteorology, agriculture, and marine science lead to a wealth of fundamental knowledge.

End-Use Requirements and Efficiency

Energy production should always be done after a quantitative and thorough analysis of the energy end-use needs.Since no energy source is inexpensive or happens without causing some kind of environmental damage, it's crucial to utilize energy wisely and practice energy conservation. The term load in the context of electrical systems refers to the end-use need, and it has a significant impact on the kind of producing supply depending on its size and dynamic properties. Investments in energy efficiency and conservation often provide greater long-term returns than investments in increasing production and supply capacity. The biggest energy demands are often for transportation and heating. Both applications include the ability to store energy in thermal mass, batteries, or fuel tanks, and their incorporation into energy systems may significantly increase overall efficiency.

Social Implication

Social structures and lifestyle patterns have been significantly impacted by the Industrial Revolution in Europe and North America as well as industrial growth in all nations. The primary force behind most of this transformation has been the effect of evolving and new energy sources. Thus, there has been and will continue to be a long-standing connection between coal mining and the growth of industrialized nations. In the 1950s, when many nations gained their independence from colonialism, relatively affordable oil sources were accessible in non-industrialized nations. Thus, the usage of fossil fuels has resulted in significant changes in lifestyle in all nations.

Pollution and Environmental Impact

It is possible to categorize harmful emissions as chemical such as those from fossil fuel and nuclear power plants, physical such as acoustic noise and radioactivity, or biological such as pathogens emissions. Such pollution from energy production is mostly caused by the use of brown fuels, such as fossil and nuclear. On the other hand, renewable energy is always drawn from energy flows that are already safe for the environment. Since the energy is subsequently released back into the environment, only very little thermal pollution may happen. The amount of material and chemical pollution in the air, water, and trash is often quite low. The exception is air pollution caused by incomplete biomass or waste combustion. When brown energy is used to produce the materials and build renewable energy devices, there is some environmental contamination, although it is little over the course of the equipment's lifespan[10], [11].Renewable energy sources have different environmental effects depending on the technology and area. These are discussed in the latter portion of each of the next technological chapter's general institutional elements that are often connected to pollution reduction

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it is clear that energy supply changes have a significant impact on societal patterns. As more people use renewable energy sources, we may anticipate further changes. Older technologies have seen significant advancements thanks to the impact of current science and technology. And as a result, it is possible to anticipate an increase in living conditions, particularly in rural areas and formerly underdeveloped industries. It is difficult to make perfect predictions. The sustainable nature of renewable energy should result in better socioeconomic stability than has been the case with fossil fuels and nuclear power, notwithstanding the long-term effects of such changes in the energy supply. In particular, we anticipate that the wide variety of renewable energy sources will be correlated with a corresponding range of regional economic and social traits.

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CHAPTER 2

SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: FUTURE TRENDS IN RENEWABLE ENERGY

Dr. Dileep Ramakrishna, Associate Professor
Department Of Chemistry, Presidency University, Bangalore, India
Email Id: dileep.r@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The world's energy needs are now outpacing available generating capacity on a global scale. Therefore, it is important to effectively and safely meet future energy needs. Renewable energy sources should be used to assist energy solutions. The contribution of renewable energy is currently. To fulfil the world's needs for primary energy and power, not much primary energy is available. In the future decades, both industrialized and emerging countries must continue to depend on fossil fuels. The problem is worse in emerging nations than it is in wealthy ones. It seems that many emerging nations have been attempting to reform their energy industries. It seems that implementing innovations is challenging. The three biggest obstacles to the growth of renewable energy are price, market share, and policy. Numerous nations have energy policies that assist sustainable development in connection to factors like economic, social, and industrial ones. Energy systems will be operated as both safely and inexpensively as possible without causing environmental issues thanks to new enabling technologies for renewable energy sources. Both the wholesale and retail industries need new markets for renewable energy.

KEYWORDS:

Development, Energy, Power, Renewable, Sustainable.

INTRODUCTION

The industrial nations, which make up 28% of the world's population and use 77% of their energy output, are seeing a tremendous surge in demand for energy. By 2050, the current global population is projected to have increased by a factor of 1.26, reaching 9.7 billion people. 90% of the global population increase and the majority of the world's population is located in emerging nations. The industrialized nations' energy usage won't rise by 2050 despite the adoption of increasingly efficient energy-saving measures. Building their own electricity-generating facilities, nevertheless, is a common goal among emerging nations. Fossil fuels will provide 67% of the electrical supply and around 75% of the ultimate energy consumption in 2016. The use of coal is anticipated to rise by 27% over the next 20 years as a fundamental source of energy in the globe. It is anticipated that the fossil fuel supplies would run out on their own [1]–[3].

Alternative and renewable energy sources will thus be the most important energy sources in the near future. New employment will be created as a result of this circumstance, and help create the next industries. Because of rising industrialization and human labour, the environment is becoming more and more contaminated. Energy security, renewable energy applications, smart grid technology, energy pricing, and sustainable development are the key topics covered.The use of fossil fuels and the effects of climate change are now influenced by two trends. A quick-growing solution to each of these issues is renewable energy. One of the most accurate indices of a nation's degree of development and standard of living is its energy usage.The data of factors, including economic, political, and partially environmental and human life data, are connected to the current energy systems.

Most energy strategies state that conserving energy and using domestic energy sources are their two main tenets. However, in the future, there will be a strong connection between energy usage and the environment.The environmental impact of all industrial facilities should be considered during design and construction in order to boost the economy, promote ecology, and save energy. Large financial resources will be required for energy initiatives connected to environmental protection. Any new technology's success will be evaluated on its ability to enhance the environment while remaining cost-effective. As a result, renewable power production will be used to meet the world's rising energy demand. It is a truth that progress towards reaching sustainable development objectives will be fueled by clean and reasonably priced energy.In order to make better judgements and enable new technologies, the growing trends and fresh insights provide major new commercial opportunities for energy executives and Organisations. In accordance with the review of technology trends, the findings can be classified and categorized as renewable energy, advanced materials and nanotechnology, advanced manufacturing technologies, information society technologies, life sciences, aerospace technologies, biotechnology, global change, green energy, and ecosystem. Strategic industries are supported by these technologies in order to have rapid market development and address societal issues.

DISCUSSION

Energy and Sustainable Development

Energy systems have the potential to have a significant negative influence on the environment in both emerging and wealthy nations. Thus, an efficient and emission-controlled global energy system should be available. Sustainable and steady growth must also be compatible with the advancement of technology and the global economy.Global environmental issues are inescapable as energy use rises, particularly as it relates to fossil fuels. Both industrialized and developing nations have plans to enable the best energy systems and enhance the circumstances for sustainable human, economic, social, and environmental development. For the long-term sustainability of the world's energy systems, a number of issues, including demographic, social, economic, and technical developments, may arise.As stated, vigorous action should be taken in the areas of energy diversity and efficiency, supply reliability, public trust, market-sensitive interventions, market-based climate change responses, cost-reflective prices, technological innovation and development, and regional integration of energy systems in order to achieve sustainable energy systems.

Government strategies for energy production, replacement, transportation, distribution, and use should be properly planned. Countries should try to safeguard the climate system, develop their policies, and adopt relevant preventions due to energy-related environmental issues and difficulties. Thus, it is important to tighten and properly execute the standards for minimizing local air pollution.Dependence on conventional fossil fuels, the majority of which are generated in uncertain political environments, makes the existing energy supply and consumption very unsustainable. Fundamental shifts in technology will be necessary worldwide to fulfil the demands for bettering conditionssuch as human, economic, social, and environmentalin the present and the future. Considerations should be given to issues including leadership, organisation, work, and innovation.The growth of the market, technology and energy policy, and the state of the world's politics and economy are the three main groupings of crucial elements influencing the future of energy. Applying the environment, cultural legacy, and abundant natural resources may help a nation meet its energy needs. On the other hand, standardized tools and materials should be used to facilitate energy production, transmission, distribution, and commerce.

Even if using coal raises the danger of local environmental damage and greenhouse gas emissions, energy security is somewhat improved. The point of using carbon dioxide emissions from coal is considerable per unit of electricity. Resources like coal and gas will still be significant, however.The main factors that guarantee sustainability and affordable energy supply are always diversification and resource utilization. Clean technology should be the focus of the next industrial investments. Economic and political considerations will also have an impact on the quality of a cleaner environment, depending on technological advancements. Utilising indigenous renewable energy sources like hydro, wind, solar, geothermal, and biomass should provide more power in order to give the resource variety.Oil, gas, coal, and low-carbon sources will, nonetheless, make up the majority of the world's energy supply by 2040. As anticipated, the use of coal should be limited in order to combat pollution and lower CO2 emissions. When compared to fossil fuels, renewable energy sources are both economically viable and ecologically safe.

While using hydropower for irrigation and water supply might be very profitable, it has negative effects on aquatic ecosystems. Geothermal power plants are environmentally friendly and have minimal emissions. compared to the standard fossil fuel plants. There might be environmental harm if the power station releases its toxins. As a result, geothermal fluids are cooled. are pumped back into the soil, lowering the danger to the environment.When compared to the environmental effects of fossil fuels, wind power has comparatively little influence on the environment. People who reside close to wind turbines may have negative health consequences as a result of the location and operation of the turbines, depending on the conditions. Around the globe, solar energy consumption is rising quickly. However, there are several configurations for installed solar thermal and photovoltaic electricity, and it is anticipated that the same will be true for concentrating solar power systems.Biomass, which is converted into bio-energy, is a clean energy source depending on the kind of biomass and conversion process used.

Energy Security, Sustainability Challenges and Expectations

Briefly stated the main obstacle to sustainability from the perspectives of social, economic, and environmental factors is energy. The switch to sustainable energy sources and systems is therefore linked to a number of demands in the areas of the environment, the economy, and development. The main determinants will be the availability of local renewable resources, installation costs, and legislative framework.Though localised, the environmental effects of energy production and use may have enormous repercussions on regional, continental, and even transcontinental levels due to the movement of pollutants in the atmosphere. The goals of energy policy should be created to provide multiple rehabilitations on unlicensed electricity generation and renewable energy resources even though electricity demand and sustainable development are both expanding quickly on a global scale. The following are some of the policies' primary components:

1. To ensure better free market prices than a feed-in tariff.
2. To give extra encouraging sales tariff or domestically produced parts of renewable energy power plants.
3. To give priority to renewable energy when connecting to the grid.

Energy issues in developing nations are serious and becoming worse. However, many developing nations may benefit from restructuring their energy industries and have the chance to create cleaner, more effective technology. It is evident that developing nations face a variety of challenges that industrialised ones do not. Due to resource limitations, a sizeable portion of the population may have considerable difficulty accessing basic energy services. Many conventional technologies are probably going to continue to be less expensive than alternative energy technologies [4]–[6].Renewable energy sources should be made available for any nation's sustainable growth owing to the depletion of fossil fuels, the global rise in the price of fossil fuels, and the lowering of environmental effects. Solar, wind, hydro, and biomass are the main kinds of renewable energy sources with the greatest promise for addressing future energy concerns. there are a number of prerequisites for having a sustainable energy supply, including climatic compatibility, resource conservation, low risk, social equality, and public acceptability.

Enabling Technologies and Applications

The building of new power plants is necessary to meet the rising global energy demand, but it is also important to increase energy security and dependability and look into alternative energy sources.Enabling technologies are developed with the help of factors like high research and development intensity, quick innovation cycles, large capital investment, and highly trained personnel. The enabling technologies, which are likewise multidisciplinary and complement the efforts of technological leaders in their research, cater to the processes for the invention of products and services. The following criteria are used to choose enabling technologies:

1. To address global challenges such as low-carbon energy or resource efficiency.
2. To support the development of new products.
3. To stimulate economic growth and provide jobs.

In order to reduce costs and enhance integration, a combination of enabling trends and demand trends is required to realise global trends in renewable energy. The following list of enabling technologies is current:

1. Advanced materials.
2. Advanced manufacturing systems.
3. Micro and nano-electronics.
4. Nanotechnology.
5. Industrial biotechnology.
6. Photonics.

Innovative materials, innovative manufacturing systems, and industrial biotechnology are crucial for addressing social concerns and advancing the economy and the energy transition, as stated. The present digital progress and its significant advantages have led to the integration of digital technologies into process technologies, materials development, and business model development. The development of new markets, economic growth, and employment opportunities will all be accelerated by enabling technology. The following are crucial technological advancements and projects that are required:

1. Developing cutting-edge materials for the application of smart functions reacting to stimuli e.g., self-repair, renewable energy production and energy storage e.g., battery components, or energy efficiency e.g., low weight. Additionally, the advanced materials provide materials for electronics, food, energy, transportation, and construction. Polymer materials for 3D printing are employed in the automobile industry, lightweight design, the medical industry, and other industries.
2. Creating industrial biotechnology and advanced process technologies for alternate energy sources and more sustainable generation.
3. Making use of digital technology to enable new business models, improve consumer experiences, and apply enhanced process control. The switch from batch to flexible continuous intensification operations is made possible by digital technology.

On the other hand, the development of technologies that can transform CO2 into a useful resource and utilise it to create polymers may contribute to a decrease in the use of petroleum. Process technologies allow raw materials to be transformed into products with different chemical compositions, structures, and qualities than the raw materials used as input. Advanced process technologies are a particular class of enabling technologies that allow the chemical industry to supply the materials solid, gas, and liquid and novel properties needed to produce a wide range of end products for all industrial value chains such as construction, automotive, medical, electronics, and energy.

A hybrid photovoltaic/thermal PV/T system can convert solar energy to electricity and thermal energy concurrently, and it may also meet the energy needs of buildings. Performance study of these systems is crucial for building PV/T systems that are compatible with the operational circumstances. Economic restrictions and applications should be taken into account using the energy flow analysis. As was to be predicted, solar energy provides a number of benefits and is more affordable than other forms of energy. There can be a difficulty with the amount of land needed for the construction of an onshore wind turbine. Therefore, offshore wind turbines, which have greater economic expenses, are now an alternative option provided the area is right.Technical, social, and environmental issues are the main obstacles to wind energy. However, wind energy also becomes a viable option for sustaining a green environment in both wealthy and developing nations.Following is a basic summary of growing perspectives for future sustainable lifestyles:

1. To change the direction of design, planning, and action such that it puts the community first and empowers it to assume responsibility. For instance, more interconnected communities and sustainable neighbourhoods might arise if a community is founded on equality, mutual assistance, and stakeholder participation.
2. The infrastructure for collaboration is supported by sharing commodities and services. As a result, community-based consumption has lessened the high consequences of individual consumption. For instance, the applications for smart renewable energy facilitate the production and use of distributed renewable energy.
3. Sustainable choices must become commonplace without limiting people's freedom of choice. Several alternatives may modify the necessity for individual conduct and make sustainable choices simple and appealing. People will, for instance, coordinate their conduct based on resource use and consumption levels.

Innovation in supporting technology that may facilitate the integration of variable renewable energy sources into electrical networks is given a lot of attention.It seems that significantly greater flexibility for energy markets is needed as the proportion of renewable energy sources rises gradually. Large end users of electricity, such as merchants, producers, and IT firms, are crucial consumers of direct sales of renewable energy. There is a relationship Varying relationships exist between independent power providers, utilities, and commercial and industrial customers.

The function of utilities shifts as a result of the creation of new models for a single transaction.It is stated that sustainable business models, which are becoming more and more well-liked across many industries, devote strategies such as creating a market model to assure profits for the stakeholders. These models' applications may be categorised into a wide range of categories, including energy, innovation, marketing, entrepreneurship, developing nations, engineering, construction, mobility, and transportation.

The feed-in tariff is the most often used political mechanism to promote the market for renewable energy. As a result, for the duration of the agreement, a set price per unit of sold power is guaranteed. While feed-in tariffs help reduce the cost of renewable energy quickly, there is a chance that governments may need to continue to subsidise renewable energy for a while. On the other hand, during the last several years, feed-in tariffs that were managed by the government have given way to auction systems. It is intended to achieve significant cost savings in renewable energy by establishing the price for renewable energy contracts. The adoption of renewable energy technology depends on financing. Institutional investors, individual investors, and state finance organisations are the primary sources of funding [7]–[9].

Industrial marketing, which refers to business-to-business marketing, bases its goods on practical consumption criteria like price and quality. Businesses that do business with businesses rent, lease, and provide items to other businesses. Local buyers do not only buy items from nearby providers in the context of the globalised market. Due to rising global competition, business-to-business enterprises need to come up with innovative strategies to remain competitive. Businesses must treat clients like people with values in order to meet their requirements. Business-to-consumer marketing, in contrast, aims to offer goods or services directly to customers. Business-to-business renewable energy providers may benefit from a marketing edge when providing sustainable solutions. But promoting green energy is challenging.

Investing in a renewable energy product is a wise decision. Customers typically rely on assistance programmes, which are not set in stone and might change in various nations, to help fund the investment.Companies that invest in renewable energy are anticipated to be able to promote their environmental credentials by promoting their usage of renewable energy. Governments obtain various assistance programmes, including tax credits and subsidies, since they are interested in renewable energy and its advantages. On the other hand, subsidies for fossil fuels are decreased to make renewable energy more attractive.In various energy markets, the trends of digitization, decentralisation, and electrification are mirrored in and in response to the demands of power systems with larger proportions of variable renewable energy. Pricing in the energy market is gradually getting better. The real-time value of power, new dispatch regulations, flexibility, affordable energy sources, self-consumption, and market connectivity are typical components of a package. To hasten the energy transition, appropriate electricity market designs for evolving power system models are required. Presently, energy consumers have more options for suppliers and cutting-edge offers, and they may quickly transfer tariffs and providers. However, the retail sector cannot provide the intended outcomes for all end users [5], [10].

CONCLUSION

Fossil fuels continue to increase in price globally yet still account for the majority of energy usage. In this case, environmental degradation is somewhat unavoidable, even if renewable energy facilities make no direct contributions to it. The goal is for innovative and renewable energy sources to take over as the primary energy sources in the future. Renewable energy sources are going to be increasingly significant since fossil fuels are inexorably running out. They are beneficial in a variety of areas, including ongoing cost reduction, job creation, the development of new sectors, and achieving environmental and energy goals.Energy security, environmental protection, the economy, mechanical manufacturing, building and construction, transportation, and industry will all benefit from the development and usage of renewable energy. New employment will also be created as a result. Renewable energy sources like solar, wind, and biomass may fulfil local energy needs while also helping to safeguard the environment. The current energy demand scenario is encouraging a huge market for renewable energy. As anticipated, renewable energy sources will account for 12.4% of the world's energy consumption. Renewable energy has the potential to significantly contribute to energy demands in the long run if investments in renewable technology continue. Additionally, a number of technologies make use of biofuels, and fuel cells may contribute to the markets for energy, transportation, and heat. In an estimated 81% of the world's main energy supply will come from fossil fuels. About 30% of the global energy system will be made up of renewable sources by 2050.

To the greatest degree possible, the proportion of domestic and renewable energy resources in the generating system may be raised by offering a balanced resource diversity of nations for the main energy resources. Targets should be attained in a timely manner for supporting, developing, and promoting new environmentally friendly practises in generation and services, as is also the case in the present strategic plans of many nations. The most sophisticated renewable energy technology and the highest market share are produced by the world's top industrialised nations, including the USA, Japan, and Europe.Numerous energy-efficient enabling technologies are used in power plants, buildings, industrial facilities, and transportation networks in order to utilise less and cleaner energy. These innovations might reduce prices by up to 80%, guarantee energy savings of up to 30%, and contribute to future global warming mitigation. The nations might continue to be economical and advance sustainably as a result. The skill of understanding customers' wants and desires may also be used to describe marketing renewable energy.

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CHAPTER 3

SOUND FINANCE POLICIES FOR ENERGY EFFICIENCY AND RENEWABLE ENERGY

Dr. Anu Sukhdev, Associate Professor
Department Of Chemistry, Presidency University, Bangalore, India
Email Id: anu.sukhdev@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

As they provide the necessary financial incentives and structures to hasten the transition to a sustainable energy future, good finance policies are essential for boosting energy efficiency and the deployment of renewable energy sources. In order to promote energy efficiency and renewable energy, this article examines the significance of solid financial policies. It focuses on how these policies help to break down market barriers, attract investment, and promote innovation.The inherent market flaws and obstacles that prevent the adoption of renewable and energy-efficient technology may be addressed by sound financial policies. High upfront expenses, perceived dangers, knowledge asymmetry, and restricted access to money are some of these constraints. By lowering investment risks, increasing affordability, and promoting private sector involvement, sound financial policies like feed-in tariffs, tax incentives, grants, and low-interest loans help reduce these obstacles. Additionally, financial policies are also important in attracting investment money. The realization of renewable energy projects sometimes necessitates sizable up-front expenditures, making access to inexpensive finance essential.

KEYWORDS:

Efficiency, Energy, Financial, Policies, Technology.

INTRODUCTION

Well-crafted regulations, such as green bonds, renewable energy funds, and public-private partnerships, may draw institutional and private capital, releasing the cash required for project planning and execution. By funding R&D, technological demonstration, and market deployment, strong financial policies also encourage innovation in addition to attracting investment. Finance policies support the creation and commercialization of energy-efficient and renewable technology via programmers including research grants, innovation funds, and public procurement schemes. This encourages technical development, cost savings, and increased performance, increasing the competitiveness of these technologies in the energy market. In order to support energy efficiency and renewable energy, numerous governments and regions have established appropriate financial policies, which are examined in this essay. It examines the results and takeaways from these initiatives, emphasizing the need for consistency in policy, long-term planning, and stakeholder involvement [1]–[3].

Governments may foster investments in energy efficiency and renewable energy by enacting solid financial policies, which will promote sustainable economic development, lower greenhouse gas emissions, and improve energy security. The entire potential of energy efficiency and renewable energy may be unlocked, hastening the transition to a low-carbon and sustainable energy system, with the help of a comprehensive and well-targeted approach to financial policy.The adoption and implementation of energy efficiency and renewable energy technologies are greatly aided by prudent financial policies. Promoting energy efficiency and switching to renewable sources has become crucial as the globe deals with the twin concerns of climate change and energy security. But substantial cost obstacles often prevent the broad use of these technologies.To remove these obstacles and foster an environment that is favorable for investments in renewable and energy-efficient technologies, effective financial policies must be implemented. These laws provide people, companies, and governments with financial incentives, structures, and methods to support the use of renewable energy technologies. These measures may greatly quicken the shift to a sustainable energy future by reducing financial risks, raising affordability, and raising investment capital.

The purpose of this essay is to examine the significance of prudent financial practices for renewable and energy-efficient technologies. It looks at the numerous obstacles to funding renewable energy projects, such as high up-front costs, perceived dangers, and restricted finance availability. By being aware of these obstacles, governments may create efficient financial plans to address them and advance sustainable energy alternatives. The paper will discuss the essential elements of sensible financial policies, including feed-in tariffs, tax breaks, grants, loans, and financial products like green bonds and funds for renewable energy. It will examine successful case studies from many nations and areas that have put financial policies in place to encourage the use of renewable energy and energy efficiency. These case studies will emphasise the beneficial effects and takeaways from these regulations, illuminating best practices and strategies that might be used elsewhere.

The presentation will also stress the significance of stakeholder involvement, long-term planning, and policy stability in putting successful finance policies into practice. It will go through how governments, financial institutions, and the private sector should work together to create an environment that encourages investment in sustainable energy. It will also examine the connections between monetary policy, economic expansion, job creation, and environmental sustainability.This paper seeks to assist policymakers, investors, and other stakeholders in developing and putting into action successful policies for energy efficiency and renewable energy by offering a thorough grasp of solid financial policies in these areas. Energy efficiency and renewable energy have enormous promise, and sound financial policies may help them realise that potential, promoting sustainable development, lowering greenhouse gas emissions, and enhancing energy security [3]–[5].

DISCUSSION

1. Here are seven wise financial guidelines for renewable and energy-efficient technologies.We will first make a list of them before going through each one individually.
2. 1.**Leverage:** The most important word in improving environmental quality is leverage.
3. **Guaranties:** Never make loans; guarantee them.
4. Term: Finance assets over the full term of their service lives.
5. **Subsidies:** Stop general subsidies, which waste billions of dollars. Target subsidies only to those who need them.
6. **Grants:** Never give grants unless absolutely necessary
7. **Cost/Benefit Analyses**: Make financial decisions based on strict cost/benefit analyses. Get politics and chance out of the decision-making matrix.
8. **Full-Cost Pricing:**Insist on full-cost pricing of environmental services. Full-cost pricing will drive technological innovation. In turn, new technologies will drive down costs.

Leverage

Utilising borrowed money or other resources strategically to increase the potential returns or effect of an investment or activity is known as leverage, and it is a term that is often used in the fields of finance and investing. It is a key notion that enables people, companies, and investors to optimise their risk-reward profile and maximise their financial prospects. Leverage is the notion of using borrowed funds to increase the possible profits from a venture. Individuals or companies may enhance their exposure to an asset or investment opportunity beyond their original cash by taking on debt or using additional resources. If the investment does well, this amplification effect might lead to increased earnings or returns. Numerous financial activities may use leverage. To increase their investment positions in the financial markets, individuals and institutions often use financial leverage via margin trading or derivative products, such as options and futures. Investors who use borrowed money may be able to handle greater holdings and maybe achieve better returns than those who just use their own money.

Leverage is a tool that businesses use to streamline their financial and operational processes. Companies may finance their capital investment, R&D, and growth initiatives using debt financing. Businesses may accomplish growth, expand their market share, and improve their profitability by leveraging their financial sheets. However, in order to prevent high debt loads and associated financial concerns, it is necessary for firms to properly control their leverage levels. It's crucial to remember that although leverage might increase possible benefits, it also entails hazards. Leverage makes gains and losses more apparent. The borrower may have substantial financial difficulties and increased levels of risk if an investment performs badly. Because of this, it is crucial to carefully evaluate and manage the risks connected to leverage, such as changes in interest rates, market volatility, and the capacity to pay back borrowed money. Overall, financial markets, investment plans, and corporate operations all heavily depend on leverage. Leverage may provide chances for development, higher returns, and value creation when handled carefully and with a clear awareness of the risks involved.

Guaranties

Guarantees are a kind of financial assurance or security offered by one party to another in order to guarantee the execution of a certain duty or activity. They are essential to many facets of commercial transactions, contracts, and financing operations, giving participants security and protection. A guarantee is meant to reduce risk and foster confidence between the parties. In the case of non-performance or failure, it serves as a guarantee or commitment by one party, known as the guarantor, to take over liability for the debts or liabilities of another party, known as the debtor or obligor. This assurance gives the parties engaged in the transaction some degree of confidence and aids in transaction facilitation. Depending on the circumstances and needs, guarantees may take many various forms. For instance, a financial guarantee can include a third-party entity, like a bank, taking on responsibility for a borrower's debt obligations in the event that they are not paid back. The borrower's creditworthiness is improved with this kind of guarantee, and the lender feels more comfortable giving loans. Another popular kind is performance guarantees, in which one party promises the successful completion of a project, the shipment of products, or the performance of contractual duties. This gives the counterparty comfort in knowing they will be reimbursed or protected if the conditions of the agreement are not honoured [5]–[7].

Additionally, guarantees are often used in international commerce since they make cross-border transactions easier. Bank guarantees and standby letters of credit are often used to reassure exporters and importers that payment commitments will be satisfied or that items will be delivered as promised. Deposit guarantees safeguard depositors' money in the banking industry in the case of a bank collapse, stabilising the financial system and preserving public trust. Note that guarantees may have financial repercussions for the guarantor and include legal duties. To make sure they are clear and enforceable in the event of a default or underperformance, they should be thoroughly evaluated, organised, and recorded. guarantees are a crucial instrument for commercial deals, loans, and contractual agreements. They create confidence between parties, provide financial stability, and aid in the smooth operation of markets by providing assurance and reducing risks. For companies, lenders, and people involved in various financial and commercial operations, understanding the various guarantees and their ramifications is essential.

Term

A financial instrument, agreement, or investment's term refers to its length of time or duration. It stands for the time frame in which certain requirements, obligations, or provisions of an agreement are in force. An essential component of many financial transactions, contracts, and investments is the use of terms. They explain the terms and timeframes under which parties agree to carry out certain activities or complete commitments. The length, interest rates, payment schedules, rights, and obligations of an agreement are only a few examples of words that may be included. For instance, the phrase refers to the period of time during which the borrower is anticipated to return the debt under a loan arrangement. It establishes the total payback time, the number of instalments, and the frequency of payments. While a shorter loan period may need higher monthly payments but lower overall interest costs, a longer loan term may have lower monthly payments but higher total interest costs. Terms used in relation to investments, such as bonds or certificates of deposit CDs, may refer to the length of the investment. A bond's term describes the time frame leading up to its maturity when the principal will be returned to the bondholder. Similar to a term, a CD's term refers to how long the money is stored; when it matures, the investor gets the principal amount plus any accumulated interest.

Contractual agreements between parties that include precise terms, rights, and responsibilities are likewise covered by terms. For instance, the terms of a lease agreement specify the length of the lease, the amount of the rent, the possibility of renewal, and other conditions. The ability to comprehend and negotiate advantageous conditions is essential when making financial decisions. The cost, risk, and flexibility connected with a financial arrangement may all be considerably influenced by the conditions. To make sure that the terms of the agreements meet their financial objectives and needs, parties must thoroughly analyse and assess the terms of each agreement. The length or conditions attached to financial instruments, contracts, and investments are collectively referred to as terms. They define the duration and particular terms regulating the agreement, affecting elements like repayment plans, interest rates, and contractual commitments. Making wise financial choices and efficiently managing risks need understanding and evaluation of the terms.

Subsidies

Subsidies are monetary incentives offered by governments or other organisations to assist certain businesses, endeavours, or people. Their goal is to accomplish desirable outcomes including technical innovation, social welfare, environmental sustainability, and economic growth. Direct pay-outs, tax advantages, lowered borrowing rates, grants, and government-backed guarantees are just a few of the several ways that subsidies might appear. Subsidies are mostly used to cover expenses or provide financial support for endeavours that would not be commercially or socially advantageous without help. They are often used to solve market inefficiencies, rectify externalities, promote equal opportunity, incentivize investment, and boost innovation. Numerous different companies and areas provide subsidies. To assure steady food production, promote rural development, or solve issues with food security, for instance, governments may provide farmers subsidies. Subsidies may be used in the energy industry to promote the use of renewable energy sources, lessen reliance on fossil fuels, and lessen negative environmental effects.

In addition, subsidies may be necessary for housing, transportation, education, and health care. Governments may provide subsidies or grants to disadvantaged groups to make vital services cheaper and more accessible or to support equitable chances for housing and education. Incentives for certain actions or sectors of the economy that support societal goals may also be provided via subsidies. For instance, governments may provide subsidies to encourage R&D, encourage entrepreneurship, or draw foreign investment in key industries.Subsidies are not without criticism, however. Subsidies, according to their detractors, may skew market dynamics, lead to inefficiencies, and favour certain businesses or sectors over others. Subsidies may also burden governments and taxpayers financially, syphon funds away from other public goods, and lead to market imbalances or overproduction.

As a consequence, great thought must go into the design and execution of subsidies. To guarantee subsidies are efficient and long-lasting, governments must weigh their costs, advantages, and long-term effects. It is critical to assess the impact of subsidies and focus on them to get the intended results in order to maximise their beneficial impacts and reduce any possible downsides. Subsidies are financial inducements given by organisations or governments to encourage certain businesses, endeavours, or people. They work to correct market flaws, encourage investment, and balance costs in order to accomplish economic, social, or environmental goals. To achieve a balance between encouraging desired results and avoiding unforeseen effects, subsidies must be carefully planned and assessed.

Grants

Subventions are grants. Therefore, they should only be used in a limited number of situations. They should also be specifically targeted, as we previously learnt.The following are the four acceptable uses of grants:

1. Financing environmental services that neither individuals nor communities can afford: Keep in mind the young couple with an ill child. To maintain the warmth of their house and the well-being of their little daughter, they urgently needed to purchase a new wood stove. What kind of government aid was offered to them? A tax credit, but they couldn't afford to utilize it. So, what did they require? A gift. One of the grants of 100% or very close to 100%. That is an illustration of how funds for people may be used effectively. The USDA's water and wastewater programmer are a wonderful illustration of a responsible community grant. Here, the USDA utilizes grant money to reduce the cost of the project to levels where it will be affordable for the typical ratepayer when it determines that it would cost a significant portion of MHI and raise rates above those in neighboring districts. Community grants with a specific focus on good financial management.
2. Pressuring individuals or Organisations to take environmental action that they are not legally compelled to do: Renewables were just starting to become a big term when the American Reinvestment and Recovery Act ARRA was established in 2009 to assist us recover from the sub-prime mortgage debacle. For individuals who would install solar panels to lessen their carbon impact, ARRA contained sizeable grant incentives. No one was obligated to install any form of energy-saving or renewable technology. To achieve this, the government gave them money. Another excellent example is covering crops. There is a significant quantity of nitrogen left in the soil after crops are harvested. Much of this nitrogen migrates to the closest water body during the Winter and contaminates it there due to snowfall and rain on the now-bare soil. After the primary crop is harvested, cover crops are sown. They are only used to remove any nitrogen that has remained in the soil and keep it from contaminating any streams or ponds. In the US, farmers that grow cover crops are compensated or given incentives. These awards are funded by the farm bills that Congress passes each year to keep up its complex Programme of agricultural subsidies. They also have a cover crop Programme in Germany. It is a grant Programme as well, however in Germany, the funds are funded by an annual special tax. The key idea is that growing cover crops is a wise move. However, doing so is absolutely up to you. Farmers are not

required to sow cover crops by legislation everywhere. Thus, we should utilize grants to convince them to do it.

3. Developing or promoting fresh environmental technology: Solar panel installation was not economical until recently. Even with substantial government funding programmes, the monthly cost of the solar panels was more than the amount of money they saved on power. The U.S. Department of Energy launched a grant Programme i.e., a subsidy programmes for solar panel producers in an effort to kick-start the solar business. China followed suit. The Chinese producers were able to sell their solar panels below the cost of manufacturing because of the significant Chinese subsidies, however. The Chinese government established subsidies to enable its manufacturers to export goods throughout the globe, resulting in the creation of thousands of high-quality manufacturing jobs in China. Over this matter, a trade war has broken out between the US, the EU, and China. Using funds to launch new, necessary environmental technology is a really smart concept, regardless of the trade problem.
4. Offering modest funds to community Organisations is a smart approach to pique their interest in energy efficiency and environmental concerns like climate change. This is particularly true for less wealthy Organisations that find it difficult to collect money on their own for initiatives. The majority of locals refer to Maryland's grant programmes, the Chesapeake and Atlantic Coastal Bays Trust money, as the green fund. Despite the relatively modest size of this fund, it provides grants to local Organisations for projects like streambed restoration and tree planting.

   A worthwhile use of public expenditures is educating people about the importance of the environment and the efforts that must be taken to preserve it. And grants are what is actually needed in this situation.

Cost/Benefit Analyses

Cost-benefit studies are crucial for two related reasons. First, to ensure that funds allocated for projects or energy-efficient equipment are used properly. Second, to persuade the general public that this is the case so that they will support these kinds of programmer. These studies might be challenging when dealing with the financing of water and wastewater systems. They entail the gathering of empirical data from the general population, which is difficult to come by in certain less developed nations. However, in principle, they are relatively straightforward for renewable energy and energy efficiency devices. The advantage of energy-efficient appliances is the number of kilowatt hours that are saved. It is the number of kilowatt hours produced in the case of renewable energy. The price of the gadget paid throughout its service life at the lowest rate of interest is the cost for energy-efficient devices.

The use of technologies like light bulbs makes this simple. You are aware of the four essential pieces of data needed to do the cost-benefit analysis. The bulb's projected lumen output is known to you. You are aware of the bulb's hourly wattage. You are aware of the bulb's service life in hours, or at least how long the manufacturer thinks it will last. And you are aware of the bulb's price. With these four pieces of information, you can evaluate the costs and benefits of different bulbs and compare them to choose the one that offers the greatest value. The installed cost of producing one-kilowatt hour of electricity is the cost for renewable energy sources. This is rather unique. The majority of people rate installed power in Kilowatts rather than Kilowatts. hour. However, many renewable energy sources, including wind and solar, don't consistently provide electricity. They produce sporadically. Here is an extremely condensed illustration that leaves out, the price of upkeep, among other factors.Let's imagine that two homes, one in Buffalo, New York, and the other in Las Vegas, Nevada, both spend $20,000 or $5/W to erect a 4 kW solar array. Let's assume that they each finance them for a 20-year period at a 5% interest rate, resulting in a $1605 yearly payment. Las Vegas receives 3825 hours of sunshine on average each year. Therefore, our Las Vegas homeowner is paying $0.42/kW/h.Buffalo, on the other hand, has 2207 hours of sunshine annually. Thus, the cost to our Buffalo homeowner is $0.73/kW/h. You can now understand why rating renewable energy projects requires using kilowatt HOURS rather than simply kilowatts.

Full Cost Pricing

Environmental utility prices are significantly subsidized, as you are well aware. This is useless for everyone. There are a number of practical and considerate ways to deal with impoverished individuals who are unable to pay their water or sewer bills. The remaining ratepayers who can afford to pay the full cost of their service should now do so. No one enjoys paying more. Politicians and board members both dislikes raising fees. However, rates might go up gradually. And the authorizing resolution should be enacted today for all future hikes when hiking rates over, say, five years. This will save the board and/or politicians the agony of having to ask the public for additional money each year. Raising prices will encourage conservation, whether they reach full-cost pricing levels or not. More individuals will preserve the greater the rate rises. Consider boosting our petrol prices to the $7+ per gallon levels they do in Europe. There would undoubtedly be solutions for people to drive less. And automakers would become more intelligent. Likewise, when you increase electricity prices. People look for methods to consume less. Additionally, increased rates will spur innovation, which will eventually result in reduced prices.

Consider the installation of a $10 million technology in a market where there are no subsidies or full-cost pricing. Engineers and scientists will understand that they can enter the race without being outmatched by any covert subsidy if they can develop a device that performs the same or better task at the same or lower cost.Therefore, any financial programs for renewable energy or energy efficiency should be developed using these seven concepts. Please take into consideration a few more guidelines now that you are aware of the best ways to spend money in order to increase the amount of money you will spend wisely.Instead of one large tax or levy, raise money via several smaller ones. More stable than one huge source of funding is several smaller ones. a minimal tax or premium added to the registration fee for cars dependent on how much gasoline they use. an added carbon fee to electricity costs.After everything is all gathered, place it all in one basket. Do not chop it up or muddle it.Modify behaviour when collecting funds. Don't tax everyone equally; charge the polluters more while encouraging eco-friendly and energy-efficient behaviour. Effective signals will be sent to consumers, automakers, and power firms by the carbon price and the vehicle/fuel use premium outlined previously.

Use dedicated revenue streams to fund capital, not operating, expenditures such as yearly taxes or fees. These recurring and predictable income sources come from fees like the carbon tax and taxes on gasoline and vehicle usage. As a result, they serve as a great, high-quality source of repayment for bonds issued to fund renewable energy and energy efficiency projects. The highest, AAA, ratings on bonds, which result in the lowest interest rates, may be obtained with the right structure. Furthermore, in order to get AAA ratings, these reliable revenue sources don't even have to be employed to repay bonds Simply make a commitment of payback for them! In other words, let's use a programmes for energy efficiency and renewable energy in small businesses as an example. Small firms don't often have excellent credit histories. Moreover, there is no real property that may be used as collateral since many small firms rent their spaces. A bond in this scenario would get either no rating or a triple zero rating if it had a portfolio of uncollateralized loans to small firms. In this instance, the bonds may be set up such that the income stream only became available if and when a small firm went into default on its loan, with the loan receivables serving as the principal source of payments.

Make it as pain-free as you can. Raising the rates of a general tax at the federal level, such as the income tax, would spark nationwide outcry. It will organize legions of lobbyists in Washington who would swarm the congressional chambers bribing and intimidating the lawmakers to oppose it. If there is a proposal for an increase in either the income tax rate or the real property tax rate at the state level, the same thing will happen. Almost all of the newspapers in the state will run editorials against it. And the state legislature will be overrun by lobbyists. It is less probable that a successful environmental financing programmes will be accepted the more resistance there is.Sound Finance Policies for Energy Efficiency and Renewable Energy is the name of this chapter. These seven guidelines should be utilized to create highly effective programmes that spend money on renewable energy and energy efficiency projects as well as highly effective programmers that collect money for such programmer [8]–[10].

CONCLUSION

In order to advance energy efficiency and renewable energy, it is essential to have sound financial policies in place. These policies provide the financial infrastructure required to get over market obstacles, attract investment, and spur innovation. The significance of financial policies in expediting the shift to a future powered by sustainable energy sources has been addressed in this research. By lowering up-front costs, minimising investment risks, and enhancing affordability, effective finance policies solve the issues related to the adoption of renewable energy and energy efficiency. Feed-in tariffs, tax breaks, subsidies, and low-interest loans are a few of the mechanisms that encourage people to invest in clean energy technology. Sound financial policy must include a strategy for raising investment money. Policymakers may entice institutional and private investors and release the funding required for project development and execution by developing financial instruments like green bonds, renewable energy funds, and public-private partnerships. As a result, the economy expands, jobs are created, and the energy system becomes more robust.

Finance policies also encourage innovation by promoting R&D, technological demonstration, and market adoption. Policymakers support the development of energy-efficient and renewable technologies through sponsoring innovation programmes, research grants, and public procurement, which results in technical improvements, cost savings, and enhanced performance. Successful case studies from many nations and areas have shown the benefits of prudent financial policy. These instances highlight the significance of stable policies, long-term planning, and stakeholder involvement in fostering a climate that supports investments in clean energy. In conclusion, sensible financial policies are essential for advancing renewable energy and energy efficiency. They encourage innovation, encourage investment, and remove financial obstacles in the renewable energy industry. Governments can accelerate the shift to a sustainable energy future by putting in place efficient financial policies, which will help with climate change mitigation, energy security, and economic growth. Unlocking the full potential of energy efficiency and renewable energy sources and ensuring a sustainable and resilient energy system for future generations depends on a comprehensive and well-targeted approach to fiscal policy.

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CHAPTER 4

STATE AND FEDERAL POLICIES FOR RENEWABLE ENERGY

Ms. Anupama Gupta, Assistant Professor
Department Of Soft Skills, Presidency University, Bangalore, India
Email Id: anupamagupta@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

Policies at the state and federal levels that have been put into place to encourage and support the use of renewable energy sources in the United States. Solar, wind, hydroelectric, and geothermal power are examples of renewable energy that are essential to the transition to a clean-energy future. Many states have passed Renewable Portfolio Standards RPS or Renewable Energy Standards RES at the state level, which call for a certain proportion of power to come from renewable sources. For utilities to enhance their capacity for renewable energy, these rules provide a defined structure and long-term objectives. Additionally, to promote the development and investment in renewable energy, several jurisdictions provide financial incentives such as tax credits, grants, or performance-based incentives. The United States has put into place a number of significant government initiatives to encourage the development of renewable energy. Solar and wind energy project investment and deployment have been greatly aided by the Investment Tax Credit ITC and the Production Tax Credit PTC. By offering financial incentives to investors and developers, these tax credits drive down the price of renewable energy projects and promote industry expansion. In order to encourage the development and commercialization of renewable energy technology, the federal government has also developed credit guarantee programmes and research and development projects.

KEYWORDS:

Efficiency, Energy, Federal, Renewable, Solar.

INTRODUCTION

Federal laws and programmes also seek to encourage sustainable energy and lower greenhouse gas emissions. For example, the Clean Power Plan encourages the switch from fossil fuels to renewable energy sources by establishing emission reduction goals for existing power plants. In order to encourage energy conservation and lower total energy usage, the federal government has also created energy efficiency regulations and initiatives. The abstract emphasises the significance of a coordinated strategy between state and federal policy to hasten the implementation of renewable energy. Federal policies provide a larger framework and support system to encourage innovation, investment, and development in the renewable energy industry, even if states play a vital role in establishing their own renewable energy objectives and incentives. The examination of state and federal policy for renewable energy shows the development of a cleaner and more sustainable energy system in the United States. Uncertainty in legislation, grid integration, and the need for ongoing technology developments are still issues, however. Expanding the capacity of renewable energy and achieving long-term environmental and energy objectives will require addressing these issues and maintaining a favourable regulatory environment.

Although not all technologies fit this description, for example, biomass energy can involve significant ongoing costs for fuel and operations, renewable energy and energy efficient technologies are typically characterized by higher upfront costs that result in significantly reduced fuel and/or operating costs. Early policy incentives at the federal and state levels usually used tax credits corresponding to capital investment expenses with the goal of lowering the cost of acquiring these technologies. It was thought that investment incentives did not always provide enough motivation for high-quality technology or projects that would continue to operate after the initial incentive had been fully realized by the project owner, such as some of the early deployment of wind generating technology in California during the 1980s. However, these failures may also be linked to inadequate technology qualifying processes, such as technological criteria or screening. Although the early U.S. wind industry's investment incentives seemed to have certain drawbacks, both federal and state laws continue to often employ them for other renewable energy and energy efficiency technologies [1]–[3].

Early adoption of these technologies throughout the 1970s and 1980s was significantly influenced by federal tax incentives proportionate to the investment in renewable energy technology. 1980s. The Energy Policy Act of 1992 EPACT 92, which was originally enacted as a component of the Energy Tax Act of 1978, fixed the initial adoption rate permanently at 10% for solar and geothermal plants, and The investment tax credit directly reduces the amount of federal corporate income tax that must be paid in proportion to the original investment cost of the covered technology, which is presently 30% for solar plants until 2016.2 The production tax credit PTC, which is available for certain technologies see the next section, may also be replaced by a 30% investment tax credit under current federal legislation. Furthermore, the majority of renewable power generation technologies may gain from advantageous federal tax depreciation allowance schedules.

The Modified Accelerated Cost Recovery timeline uses a 5-year timeline rather than a 15- or 20-year schedule for combustion turbines or other thermal facilities, allowing for significantly quicker depreciation of investment costs for renewable production than is permitted for conventional generating technologies.Additionally, several governments provide or have offered tax incentives for spending money on energy efficiency and renewable energy. The early adoption of wind and solar thermal generating capacity in California throughout the 1980s was aided by additional investment tax incentives, other laws like the Public Utilities Regulatory Policy Act discussed and other measures. Several states presently provide selected renewable energy technologies, such photovoltaic PV systems, with substantial investment tax incentives.

These credits may, however, be applicable to electric producing technologies or to facilities that produce renewable fuels, such as ethanol. They are not consistently supplied and vary greatly across states that do offer them. Rebates or exemptions from state-imposed sales taxes on both energy-efficient and renewable technologies, as well as appliances and equipment, provide a way to lower the initial cost of adoption by the end user. The availability of such programmes, sales tax rates, and the amount and time of a refund or exemption, when available, vary greatly across states. A renewable fuel like biofuel may qualify for a sales-tax credit in addition to or instead of conventional gasoline. In this situation, a programme like this may work more like a production incentive than like an investment incentive. A gas guzzler fee will be applied to some low-mileage automobiles, which discourages the development of inefficient technologies.

DISCUSSION

Regulatory

Regulatory procedures often impose market activity limits that are meant to enhance the adoption of policy-preferred technology or prohibit the use of policy-unwanted technologies. Normally, market players are responsible for paying costs directly, as well as energy providers, consumers, or both. The three main forms of regulatory intervention will be looked at in this section: target-based standards, market facilitation or restriction regulations, and technological specification standards [4]–[6].

Target-Based Standards

Target-based standards provide a target measure for achieving renewable energy or energy efficiency and compel regulated industries to meet the objective. The Renewable Fuels Standard RFS for transportation fuels, car fuel economy requirements set by the federal government, and renewable power goals established by the individual states are the most significant forms of goal-based standards in U.S. energy policy.Renewable energy objectives may be expressed as either absolute quantities of generation or capacity, or as a percentage of a projected level of total generation or capacity. These goals, which are sometimes referred to as renewable portfolio standards RPS, might be set for a certain year in the future or based on a timeline with progressively higher compliance levels. Few states have renewable energy targets, which might resemble RPS programmes but often lack enforcement clauses and cannot be regarded as regulatory policy. RPS policies can either require complete compliance from the affected utilities or, more often than not, they can permit the accumulation of renewable energy credits RECs that can either facilitate inter-temporal compliance banking using RECs earned in one year to meet compliance targets in another year or inter-utility or inter-state credit trading where a utility that over-complies may sell RECs to a utility that cannot meet targets with native resources or both.

The majority of states that have RPS regulations restrict the geographic source of compliance to within-state resources, or resources that may be delivered to the state or state power pool, or the electric power pools that serve the state. Additionally, it is possible to calibrate RECs using their current selling price. a fine or alternative payment for compliance, usually in the form of a price limit below which the state would supply RECs without actually producing any renewable energy or waive real compliance. These safety-valve tariffs often aim to have a definite maximum influence on market prices for power. In certain jurisdictions, compliance may additionally be excused or postponed for other, statutorily permitted reasons, such as safeguarding the financial viability of impacted utilities. Other states may include a safety valve that expressly restricts compliance depending on realized power rate consequences. With regard to resource eligibility, the grandfathering of existing capacity, and methods for demonstrating preferences among eligible technologies, such as the granting of bonus credits or the establishment of differentiating objectives for favored technologies, policies within states also exhibit notable variety.

The Energy Policy Act of 2005 and the Energy Independence and Security Act of 2007 both created the federal RFS. It sets volume-based objectives for advanced biofuels and ethanol that will rise year. The RFS will call for the usage of 36 billion gallons of renewable fuel by this year. By restricting the quantity of traditional ethanol made from maize that may be used for compliance and establishing volumetric limits for different advanced biofuels, the legislation assures the use of a diversity of fuel types. Advanced biofuels, which may include ethanol, biodiesel, drop-in fuels, and other qualifying formulations, are fuels produced from cellulosic feedstocks. Each batch of eligible fuel entering the market is given a Renewable Identification Number RIN, which is used to monitor compliance. RINs may be sold or banked to make compliance easier.

The federal government set a goal to double the fleet's fuel economy in cars within ten years in 1975. The combined sales of each automaker selling vehicles in the US market have to meet a predetermined Corporate Average Fuel Economy CAFE timetable in order to carry out this goal. rules were released in 2012 to create a goal of over 40 miles per gallon for passenger automobiles and light duty trucks by 2021 on a gasoline energy equivalent basis, with a possible increase to over 49 miles per gallon by 2025. The legislation was revised in 2007 and rules were released in 2012.11 With the existing rules, credit banking and trade regulations make it easier for every particular producer to comply. In other words, extra credits acquired in one year may be transferred to another company to assist them make up a deficiency in another year. Provisions for the deployment of cars with electric drive trains may be made outside the framework of the CAFÉ programmes.

Market Facilitation or Restriction

The market entry of a desired or unwanted renewable energy or energy efficiency technology may also be facilitated or prevented by regulatory policy. The target-based and technology-specification methods covered are only two examples of the many facilitation techniques. The market treatment of favored technology may be nondiscriminatory or even preferential under other forms of market facilitation. Federal or state feed-in tariff FIT rules, net metering specifications, and interconnection standards are a few examples of such regulations.Electric utilities are required to interconnect i.e., accept generation feed from small qualifying facilities that either co-generate process heat and electricity combined heat and power, or CHP, or use specific renewable resources, according to the Public Utilities Regulatory Policy Act PURPA, which was passed by Congress in 1978.Additionally, PURPA created a floor price for energy known as avoided cost, which was later defined as the cost of electricity that the utility would have otherwise paid. own acquired.

Theoretically, PURPA created a non-discriminatory environment for the implementation of effective industrial CHP and renewable power. federal government, while they are mostly carried out by state regulatory agencies. As federal energy policy progressed towards deregulation of the wholesale power market, several of the non-discriminatory market characteristics that PURPA expressly applied to renewable and CHP plants were eventually extended to the wide class of all power production technologies. In order to mandate the acceptance of certain renewable power feeds at a predetermined price floor, several states have developed legislation at the retail/distribution level.5 Such net-metering rules often call for load-serving utilities to encourage end-user connection of renewable distributed generating technologies on the customer side of the meter, particularly solar, but also sometimes wind or other renewable or non-renewable technologies. When a local resource's instantaneous generation is more than a customer's instantaneous demand, the metro is permitted to run backward, thus forcing the utility to buy the extra energy at the going retail rate.

The quantity of the distributed resource is often limited by customer class in most jurisdictions, and there may also be restrictions on the total generation offset permitted for example, the monthly or net yearly bill cannot be less than zero. Additionally, some jurisdictions have set restrictions on the amount of users or installed distribution capacity that are eligible to use net metering [7]–[9].FITs have lately been approved by a number of states, cities, and utilities and are now more like those in Europe. The utility takes the renewable feed under the FIT model, much as with net metering, but also provides a premium payment above the consumer's retail value of the generation. These FIT programmes may sometimes be created by a state or municipal government, but they can also be freely created by the utility itself, making them less strictly speaking regulated policy.

Technology Specification Standards

The introduction of minimal product requirements, either as voluntary targets or required performance thresholds for products, is another typical regulatory intervention strategy for renewable and energy-efficient technologies. These guidelines are thought to be a successful strategy for increasing individual customer energy efficiency. To preserve or increase profitability, commercial and industrial users presumably have a strong motivation to optimize energy efficiency for their activities. Although people are still sensitive to energy prices, they may not be as motivated to choose goods with greater initial costs in order to save money on recurring energy bills. Market structures may sometimes have an impact on consumers' choices about energy efficiency.The Energy Star emblem may be seen on product packaging and advertising for qualified items, which may include everything from computers to home appliances to commercial building equipment. As a result, the consumer is aware that the product is best-in-class for energy efficiency. However, for products lacking the logo, the consumer is unable to determine whether this is the result of the product failing to meet the specification or the manufacturer choosing not to participate in the programmes.

The federal government also establishes mandatory energy efficiency specifications, such as minimum levels of energy efficiency, for a wide range of consumer appliances, including furnaces, air conditioners, light bulbs and fixtures, and kitchen appliances, through the Energy Policy and Conservation Act and its numerous amendments. Energy efficiency requirements may also be included into construction rules at the state and municipal levels. Regulations addressing the composition of transportation gasoline are both federal and state-level. that encourage the use of renewable fuels directly or indirectly. Additionally, a variety of fuel standards were imposed by the Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990, including regional and/or seasonal variations in oxygenation.16 Particularly in places with extra ethanol incentives or that have prohibited the use of alternatives like MTBE, ethanol has become the preferred oxygenate; nevertheless, the RFS also provides incentives for ethanol usage. Limits on the Sulphur level of diesel fuels may promote the use of biodiesel fuels made from plant oils, assuming that such fuels can be produced profitably.

Research and Development

Government investment for energy efficiency and renewable technology research and development R&D may encourage the adoption of these technologies by enabling cost savings, increased effectiveness, and better utilization. Basic research, bench-scale technology development, proof-of-concept demonstration, and pilot applications are all phases of the technology development cycle that may get R&D funding. Government funding may be given to academic institutions, businesses, or government-owned research facilities. The government will leverage its contributions for many initiatives, particularly those creating innovations that are closer to commercialization, by demanding significant cost-sharing either cash or in-kind from industry partners.

Financing

Both at the project and manufacturing levels, government-assisted funding has been utilised to boost renewable energy and energy efficiency. Particularly, Sections 1703 and 1705 of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009 established loan guarantee programs18, whereby the federal government would act as a third-party guarantor for qualified borrowers using the proceeds for permitted purposes, such as new project development or the development of technology manufacturing capability. Loans for advanced energy technology which may include certain renewable technologies may still be authorised under the earlier Section 1703 authority, even if no new loans may be made under Section 1705 power.Publicly owned utilities and other governmental organizations have also received financial support from the federal government in the form of a tax-advantage bonding authority.5 The government may borrow money with these bonds, paying back the bondholders merely the principal. Interest is paid to the bondholder in the form of income tax credits. Programmes have been made available for Qualified Energy Conservation Bonds QECBs and Clean and Renewable Energy Bonds CREBs. Due to its limited financing, the CREB programmes is no longer accepting new project submissions. Additionally, a number of governments provide aid with project or technology loans. Several towns and states have also begun funding distributed renewable energy projects such employing Property Assessed Clean Energy PACE funding, rooftop PV. The local government usually serves as the lender in PACE financing, enabling the project owner to repay the loan via an assessment included in a property tax bill.

Other Direct Policy

Direct payments such as via grants or prizes and government purchases of these technologies are two additional popular state and federal programmes. These mechanisms often need ongoing financial support, which might come from a specific income source or through recurring approval during the appropriations process.Several states have created system benefit funds to assist energy efficiency and renewable energy projects and technologies. These programmes are primarily designed to collect money by an extra charge on retail generation or invoicing, often known as a systems benefit charge or public benefit fund, but state-by-state variations are significant.5 The different federal agencies are expected to get a portion of their energy from renewable sources and decrease their energy usage per square foot of facility as a consequence of EPACT and later presidential directives.19 Last but not least, the fleet of automobiles and other vehicles owned by the federal government must adhere to standards for both fuel efficiency and the usage of alternative fuels. Similar rules for the procurement of energy or motor fuels or for their efficiency have also been set out by a number of regional state governments.

Indirect Policy

Although many additional state and federal laws are not intended expressly to address the markets for renewable energy and energy efficiency, they may nonetheless have a significant or noticeable influence on these sectors. Among this wide group, attempts to control the energy or other markets, manage publicly or privately held lands, and safeguard the environment may be the most crucial.Electricity suppliers now have the chance to sell green power, which is typically electricity generated using renewable, low-emission, or high efficiency technologies. This opportunity has been made possible by efforts at the federal level to introduce competition in wholesale electricity generation markets as well as in a number of states to introduce competitive retail electricity supply.20 Such initiatives include the delivery of clean, renewable energy on a level playing field, regulated utilities offering special rates for green power, or the selling of the environmental benefits of renewable energy apart from the sale of electricity. Additionally, the competitiveness of certain renewable resources, particularly sporadic resources like wind, may be impacted by the unique architecture of competitive wholesale markets for production and transmission.

The cost and value of renewable energy and energy efficiency may be significantly impacted by environmental regulations at the federal or state level that address issues with air quality, water quality, solid waste disposal, land usage, greenhouse gas emissions, and other pollution concerns. The Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990 CAA laid the groundwork for additional pollutants' emission limits as well as cap-and-trade control of sulphur dioxide.The usage of renewable energy or efficiency is not often immediately addressed in these programmes. They do not necessarily exclude their usage to lower total emissions as a method of pollution avoidance. Other CAA effects on energy efficiency and renewable energy include

Reformulated petrol standards, which were previously addressed, in conjunction with state-level groundwater preservation initiatives, have resulted in a preference in certain states for ethanol as a preferred fuel additive for CAA compliance. Recently, the EPA has started using its powers under the CAA to control greenhouse gas emissions, which might have a more noticeable, albeit still indirect, effect on renewable energy sources. The Resource Conservation and Recovery Act mandated the installation of collection and flaring devices at select landfill operations in order to stop the harmful buildup of methane-rich gas that occurs from the breakdown of organic waste in landfills. The cost of installing tiny generators powered by this off-gas has been greatly decreased by these technologies. Land management policies at the federal and state levels may have a big impact on renewable energy policy, either encouraging or discouraging its growth on public lands.

Many states have created regulations to limit greenhouse gas emissions at the state level, either alone or in collaboration with other states. For instance, a variety of laws are put into place to restrict or limit carbon emissions under the California statute known as AB32 for Assembly Bill number 32, its ascending number during the legislative session.23 A change to the state's RPS or the low carbon fuel standard are two of these policies that directly address renewable energy or energy efficiency. Other policies, like the cap on greenhouse gas emissions, may encourage further adoption of renewable energy sources and improved energy efficiency. A cooperation agreement between several Northeastern states called the Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative was made to reduce greenhouse gas emissions and perhaps encourage the adoption of renewable energy sources [10]–[12].

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, state and federal policies are very important in fostering the uptake and expansion of renewable energy in the US. These regulations provide a framework, rewards, and assistance programmes to promote investment, creativity, and the growth of renewable energy sources. Targets for utilities to expand their production of renewable energy are established at the state level by the Renewable Portfolio Standards RPS and Renewable Energy Standards RES. State-level financial incentives, such as tax credits and subsidies, promote the growth and investment in renewable energy sources. These state laws provide flexibility in adjusting strategies to local requirements and resource availability, promoting a varied renewable energy landscape throughout the nation. Federal tax incentives like the Production Tax Credit PTC and the Investment Tax Credit ITC have been crucial in promoting the development of solar and wind energy installations. The development of renewable energy technology is supported by federal credit guarantee programmes and research and development activities, which assist remove obstacles and encourage commercialization. The reduction of greenhouse gas emissions and the switch to greener energy sources are encouraged by federal legislation and programmes like the Clean Power Plan. Programmes and standards for energy efficiency also help to create a society that is more environmentally friendly and energy mindful.

In order to create an environment that is conducive to the expansion of renewable energy, state and federal policies must be coordinated. Federal regulations provide a more comprehensive framework and support system to encourage innovation, investment, and development in the renewable energy industry, even if states are free to define their own goals and incentives. Despite gains, there are still problems, such as unclear regulation, grid integration, and the need for further technology developments. To give clarity and encourage investor confidence in the renewable energy industry, governments must solve these issues and maintain stable, long-term frameworks.In general, considerable development and expansion in the industry have been facilitated by state and federal initiatives for renewable energy. The United States can speed up the transition to a cleaner, more sustainable, and resilient energy future, lessening reliance on fossil fuels, and lessen the effects of climate change by continuing to support and improve these measures.

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CHAPTER 5

ENERGY CONSERVATION AND RENEWABLE ENERGY POLICIES IN CHINA

Dr. Amita Somya, Assistant Professor
Department Of Chemistry, Presidency University, Bangalore, India
Email Id: amithasomya@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

One of the world's top energy users and carbon emitters, China, has enacted programs for energy efficiency and renewable energy. The Chinese government has implemented a number of measures to encourage energy efficiency and the growth of renewable energy sources as the country works to solve its environmental problems and make the transition to a more sustainable energy system.China's energy conservation efforts are centered on enhancing energy efficiency in a variety of industries, including manufacturing, transportation, construction, and appliances. Standards for energy efficiency, voluntary agreements with industry, financial incentives, and programs for technological innovation are some of these strategies. China wants to cut its energy usage, lower its greenhouse gas emissions, and increase its total energy production. China has put in place ambitious plans to promote the deployment and use of renewable energy sources. The nation has established goals for increasing the capacity of renewable energy sources such as wind, solar, hydropower, and biomass power. Programs and subsidies for feed-in tariffs have been crucial in luring capital and fostering the growth of renewable energy installations.Through programs like the National Renewable

KEYWORDS:

Capacity, Efficiency, Energy, Government, Wind.

INTRODUCTION

China, the second-largest economy in the world, has maintained a 10% average annual growth rate during the last 30 years. China's economy has expanded quickly, and the country's energy industry has also achieved outstanding strides. China is now the world's top producer and user of energy. It has established an extensive system of energy supply that includes coal, power, fuel, natural gas, and innovative and renewable energy sources.1 However, China has also had to pay a high price and overcome significant obstacles as it transitioned from a poor nation with a backward economy to one of the world's top economies. China used 40% of the coal, 50% of the cement, 60% of the iron and steel, and 9% of the oil produced worldwide during the 11th Five Year Plan FYP, 2006–2010, while it only contributed 5% of the global GDP during that time.2 China uses five times more energy per unit of GDP than the rest of the world. The nation's air, land, and water have suffered grave effects as a result of the rapid economic expansion. The Chinese government has prioritized energy conservation and renewable energy more and more due to the country's limited fossil fuel resources and the intense pressure the international community has placed on China to reduce its emissions. China pledged in 2009 to cut carbon emissions per unit of GDP carbon intensity by 40–45 percent compared to 2005 intensity levels by 2020.

China said in 2014 that its carbon emissions will peak in 2030. The Chinese government has implemented numerous energy efficiency and renewable energy programs, passed numerous laws, rules, and regulations, and restructured its energy-governing organizations to improve their efficiency in order to meet these goals as well as other related energy efficiency and renewable energy targets [1]–[3].Energy Demonstration Programme and the Green Electricity

Certification System, China is further demonstrating its commitment to renewable energy. These initiatives attempt to present cutting-edge renewable energy technology, fund research, and development, and provide market mechanisms to encourage the production of renewable energy.

In order to promote the incorporation of renewable energy into the country's energy mix and lessen dependency on fossil fuels, the Chinese government has also put in place regulatory measures, such as renewable energy quota systems and carbon pricing mechanisms. The development of China's renewable energy industry has also been significantly influenced by international agreements and cooperation. China has shown its commitment to global climate objectives and promoted the development of sustainable energy via active participation in international projects like the Belt and Road Initiative and the Paris Agreement. China has made considerable strides in increasing renewable energy capacity and raising energy efficiency via the adoption of energy conservation and renewable energy legislation. However, there are still issues to be resolved, including grid integration, renewable energy curtailment, and the need for technological developments to increase the adaptability and dependability of renewable energy systems.

State-owned companies SOEs and government organizations have historically governed and controlled the majority of China's energy market. The National Growth and Reform Commission NDRC of China is responsible for coordinating energy planning with the overall economic and social growth of the nation. Under the NDRC, the National Energy Administration NEA, which was founded in 2008 and reorganized in 2013, is in charge of developing and implementing strategies, plans, and policies for the development of the energy sector in China. It also provides guidance on energy system reform. The NEA's New Energy and Renewable Energy Department specifically is in charge of developing renewable energy in China. In addition to the NDRC, the Ministry of Industrial and Information Technology MIIT is responsible for industrial energy efficiency, while the Ministry of Housing and Urban-Rural Development MOHURD is in charge of building energy efficiency. In terms of fiscal, tax, and financial incentives; energy-related science and technology; and technical standards and codes for energy conservation and renewable energy development, all these government agencies collaborate with one another and other related government organizations like the Ministry of Finance MOF, the Ministry of Science and Technology MOST, and the Standardization Administration.

General Policy

In comparison to 2005, China's energy consumption per unit of GDP decreased by 19.1% in 2010, coming very close to the 20% reduction goal the Chinese government set for the 11th FYP period, which concluded in 2010. This is primarily because of the effective policies and programs the Chinese government put in place to save energy. China enacted its first energy conservation legislation in 1997, outlining broad rules and directives for energy saving in China. The legislation not only specified the primary subjects of energy conservation—enterprises with yearly energy expendituresbut also designated four emphasis areas of energy conservationindustry, construction, transportation, and public institutions. greater than 10,000 tce tonne coal equivalent of use. When the legislation was revised in 2007, one of the most significant changes was the adoption of

Concept of the target responsibility system TRS. The national, provincial, municipal, and county level governments are required by TRS to meet an energy reduction objective. By entering into a contract with a higher level of government, local governments are held responsible for energy saving. The results of neighbourhood energy-saving initiatives have a direct impact on how well-elected authorities are doing.By the end of 2015, China's energy intensity energy consumption per unit of GDP and carbon intensity carbon emissions per unit of GDP would both be 16% and 17% lower than they were in 2010 according to the 12th FYP 2006-2010 for National Economy Development and Social Development, which was adopted by the nation's legislators in 2011. The 16% decrease will result in a 32% decrease from 2005 levels throughout the course of the whole 10-year period 2006-2015.

The Comprehensive Work Plan on Energy Efficiency and Emissions Reduction for the 12th FYP 2011-2015, published by the State Council, China's cabinet, in 2011 also outlines 50 specific actions to be taken in support of the energy intensity target as well as absolute reduction targets for criteria pollutants like chemical oxygen demand, ammonia, sulfur dioxide, and nitric oxides. The State Council thereafter released the 12th FYP for Energy Saving and Emission Control the following year, which included main objectives, tasks, and important projects for energy saving that were prioritized. Priority will be placed on limiting energy-intensive and high-emission sectors, retiring old production capacity, improving traditional sectors, adjusting the structure of energy consumption, and promoting services and other recently developing industries, according to the plan. The plan specifically highlighted priority responsibilities for preserving energy in business, construction, transportation, and public institutions [4]–[6].

DISCUSSION

Sector-Specific Energy Conservation Policies

Industry

The industry is China's greatest energy user, accounting for over 70% of the country's total consumption. China wants to cut energy consumption per unit of industrial value-added production by 21% from 2011 to 2015 and accomplish energy conservation of 670 million tce, according to the 12th FYP Plan for Industry Energy Conservation published by MIIT in 2012. Additionally, the plan specifies objectives for 20 different product categories and nine energy-intensive industries including steel, nonferrous metals, petrochemicals, chemicals, building materials, mechanical, light industrial, textile, and electronics.The same plan also identified key technologies and strategies to increase energy efficiency for each of these nine sectors and ten types of prioritized energy efficiency projects, such as the efficiency of industrial boilers and burners, internal combustion engines, generators, recovering and utilizing waste heat and pressure, combining heat and power, industrial by-product gas, enterprise energy management, and control centers, and the. The National Industry Energy Efficiency Guide 2014, which provides a thorough review of the industry's energy efficiency advancements since 2000, was released by MIIT in 2014. Readers who are interested might learn about China's extensive efforts to improve industrial energy efficiency during the last ten years. The NDRC announced the Top 10,000 Energy-Consuming Enterprises Programme, which targets businesses that consume more than 10,000 tce/year, as a significant endeavor to assist fulfill the energy-saving goal of 670 million tce. The program, which is an enlargement of the Top 1000 Programme China launched during the 11th FYP, seeks to save 250 million tce in total energy. This amounts to over one-third of the nation's total.12th FYP energy conservation goal.

Building

Nearly one-third of China's total primary energy consumption and carbon emissions are related to building. Only 1% of China's current buildings, which total 40 billion m2, are energy efficient. China is projected to create 10–15 billion m2 of residential space in metropolitan regions between 2010 and 2020. The Chinese government has been actively developing and implementing a number of legislative and regulatory tools to increase the building energy efficiency of both new and existing structures. There are three main laws and regulations governing building energy efficiency: the Renewable Energy Law, the Energy

Conservation Law, and the Civil Building Energy Efficiency Code. Additionally, more than a dozen provinces and municipalities have also approved their own particular laws and general energy efficiency guidelines. The policy framework for building energy efficiency in China is made up of these laws and regulations, the 12th FYP on Building Energy Efficiency published by MOHURD in May 2012, and the Green Building Work Plan published by the general office of China's State Council published in January 2013. China plans to reduce 116 million tce through four prioritized areas, including new construction 45 million, heating supply reform and retrofitting in China's northern areas 27 million tce, government offices and public buildings 14 million tce, and adoption of renewable energy in buildings 30 million tce, according to the 12th FYP on Building Energy Efficiency.

'The Chinese government started implementing a number of programs as early as the 1990s to encourage heat reform and retrofitting in existing structures, particularly in the northern regions where most buildings use centralized heating. The heat reform's objectives include lowering energy consumption via changes to the heating price structure and creating a market mechanism to support heat providers' efforts to make their heat delivery networks more energy-efficient.8 Given that more than 40% of China's total urban building energy consumption is accounted for by construction, residential retrofitting in northern areas is crucial to China's attempts to improve building energy efficiency. China renovated 182 million m2 of residential area in northern China from 2006 to 2010.8 According to the 12th FYP on Building Energy Efficiency, China will finish measuring the heat supply and retrofitting 400 m2 of existing structures in the north by 2015 [6]–[8].

The Chinese government also takes the initiative to put different energy efficiency laws and measures into place for government office buildings, big public structures, and college and university buildings. The monitoring and retrofitting of public buildings is the fundamental goal of this project. China wants to convert 120 million square meters of public and government buildings by 2015. One of the government's top focuses for improving building energy efficiency is the use of renewable energy sources. The use of renewable energy in rural area buildings as well as renewable energy building demo projects and demo cities were significant efforts during the 11th FYP. In order to encourage the use of renewable energy technology in buildings, such as photovoltaic power production, building integrated photovoltaic BIPV, solar water heating, and geothermal heat pumps, several supporting policies were established and put into place at the provincial and municipal levels. The government anticipates that by 2015, the newly added renewable energy construction would total

Transportation

The third-largest source of greenhouse gas emissions in China, the transport sector uses one-fifth of the country's overall energy consumption. According to the Ministry of Transportation's 12th FYP for Transportation Energy Efficiency and Emission Control, the energy consumption of operating cars, ships, and ports will decrease by 10%, 15%, and 8%, respectively, from 2005 levels.The strategy calls for a three-pronged approach to energy efficiency in the transportation industry, focusing on network, equipment, and infrastructure. The plan specified significant tasks and important energy efficiency initiatives in the transport industry, much as the 12th FYPs for other sectors.

Standards and Labeling Programs

National Energy Efficiency Standards

The appliances and gadgets in Chinese households have evolved into a key factor in China's domestic power consumption as living standards have improved. As a result, the government enacted nine necessary equipment standards for China in 1990, including those for fans, air conditioners, clothes washers, irons, rice cookers, refrigerators, and clothes washers. China has complied with and put into effect 109 national energy efficiency guidelines as of February 2013. Along with requirements for energy-intensive industrial items, the standards for residential electronic appliances have also been broadened to include criteria for energy monitoring and management. The Top Runner program, which promotes the highest energy efficiency, and the mandatory Minimum Allowable Value of energy efficiency, which outdates the backward 20% capacity and products, were both recently issued by the State Council in 2015 as part of their Opinions on Strengthening Energy Conservation Standardization.

China Energy Label CEL System

In order to display the energy efficiency grade and typical energy consumption TEC data, an energy label system was established in 2005. Customers may evaluate the energy efficiency levels of various items and find those with the greatest possible efficiency by using the energy label, which is often present on the surface or packaging of suitable products. Appliances and gadgets are categorized by the energy labeling system depending on how well they perform in terms of energy efficiency. According to product classification, the first grade denotes the best energy efficiency, whereas the fifth or third grade denotes the lowest energy efficiency, and the lowest value is known as the Minimum Allowable Value of energy efficiency, which is a necessary condition for a product to be allowed on the Chinese market.Since 2005, goods having an energy efficiency rating lower than the third or fifth grade cannot be sold. For government contracts or for a program that provides subsidies for energy efficiency, the first grade may sometimes be a requirement.

Ten product batches were added to the China Energy Label CEL system before the end of 2012.The Energy Efficiency Top Runner Implementation Scheme14 was jointly launched by seven Chinese government agencies on December 31, 2014. This program was designed to promote products with excellent energy efficiency using CEL's prior advancements. The item must satisfy CEL's Grade 1 requirements and have the greatest energy efficiency rating in its category. Every year, the standards will be updated. The current CEL will have the top-runner logo added, and the certified year will also be mentioned. In order to support R&D and product development, the government vowed to take more subsidy and promotion measures.

Building Energy Efficiency Labelling and Evaluation and Green Building

In 2006, China started developing a system for evaluating and labeling buildings' energy efficiency. The building energy efficiency labeling legislation, which was published in 2008, states that the labeling system primarily applies to new and existing government office buildings, substantial public buildings, national and provincial structures, energy efficiency demonstration projects, and green buildings. Building owners must use both an operating rating label and an assets rating label. While the latter represent real values of building energy efficiency assessed while the building is in use, the former reflects the theoretical value of building energy efficiency reviewed during the acceptance stage. The rule also includes a five-star grading system, with five stars denoting the most energy-efficient structure. In 2014, the assessment and labeling method was upgraded and made applicable to residential structures.

Through pilot initiatives in a few provinces and towns, the MOHURD has pushed building energy efficiency labeling in newly constructed government office buildings and large public buildings since 2009. Before applying for building energy efficiency labels, building owners are required to adhere to national obligatory requirements, including building energy codes design standards and the acceptance rules. Construction projects have received approval and star ratings as of 2010.Although China makes extensive use of the U.S. LEED green building rating system, it also created its own three-star green building rating system in 2004. The Green Building assessment criteria, the first national criteria for green buildings and technical recommendations for green building assessment, serve as the foundation for this rating system. Green building labeling comes in two varieties, one of which covers building design and the other building operation, similar to energy efficiency building labeling. By the end of 2010, 113 projects have received the national three-star green building label.

Energy Efficiency Product Subsidy Program

The most effective and direct method of energy conservation is the promotion of energy-efficient goods. The Chinese government contributed RMB 16.5 billion to the public and enterprises during the 11th FYP period to subsidize the purchase and provision of energy-efficient goods such as lighting, air conditioners, low-emission cars, and engines.Household freezers and air conditioners were among the first goods to receive government subsidies under the Energy Efficient Product Subsidy Programme, which was established in 2005. By the end of 2012, ten batches of subsidized energy-efficient devices had been unveiled; they included everything from rice cookers to cars, and family freezers to industrial pumps and motors. In essence, makers or consumers of energy-efficient items get the subsidies. Additionally, the real subsidies vary in value from RMB 150 to RMB 3000. The program not only assisted in raising the energy efficiency of energy-consuming items, particularly electric appliances but also increased public and corporate knowledge of the benefits of utilizing such products. The State Council announced an RMB 36.3 billion allocation for the subsidy program on May 12th, 2012.

Market

China is already a pioneer in renewable energy because of its aggressive renewable energy goals, supportive government regulations, and business savvy. Development of new energy sources and renewable energy will continue to be a government priority throughout the 13th FYP period 2015–2020 due to their significance for environmental protection, the fight against climate change, and sustainable development. The 13th FYP for Renewable Energy, which is currently being developed, states that renewable energy will be crucial to improving China's energy structure and revolutionizing its energy use and production. Additionally, the status of renewable energy will change from what is now referred to as complementary energy sources to alternative energy, replacing a significant amount of fossil fuels.

The installed capacity for solar and wind energy both surpassed the goals set by the Chinese government in the 11th FYP 2006-2010 before the end of 2010. Another crucial year for the growth of renewable energy in China was 2012, which. The amount of installed renewable energy increased by 11% to 313 GW. This comprises 60.8 GW of grid-connected wind energy, 248.9 GW of hydropower, and 3.3 GW of grid-connected solar energy. Most significantly, wind power surpassed nuclear power in 2012 to become China's third-largest energy source after thermal and hydropower, accounting for 2% of all energy production. The installed capacity for renewable energy reached 430 GW at the end of 2014, making up about 32% of the nation's overall power capacity. 1.2 trillion kilowatt-hours of power were produced using renewable energy, making about 22% of all electricity produced in the same time period.

Wind Power

Only after the United States does China come in second in terms of wind energy resources. China has a potential for land-based and offshore wind power of 2380 and 200 GW, respectively, at a height of 50 m, according to the results of the survey and appraisal of the country's wind energy resources. The total exploitable capacity exceeds hydropower in size.1 Although compared to many Western nations, China is a late adopter of wind power production and deployment, the country has seen enormous growth in wind power over the previous 10 years. With 41 GW of existing wind capacity and 16 GW of newly added capacity at the end of 2010, China overtook the US as the world's largest producer of wind energy. The US built around 5 GW of new wind generating capacity in 2010, bringing its total installed capacity to 40. GW, according to the Global Wind Energy Council. With 50 GW of built on-grid wind power, China also overtook the US in 2012 in terms of total grid-connected wind capacity. China became the first nation to surpass the 100GW wind power capacity milestone as the total grid-connected installed capacity for wind power reached 100.04 GW by the end of February 2014. With the installed wind power capacity increasing quickly and steadily, China has already established itself as the world's biggest wind power market.

The favorable market circumstances that government policies and regulations helped to develop have mostly benefitted China's wind sector. The wind power sector has been expanding quickly for many years, but it is now shifting from a frantic early stage when the emphasis was on the most installed capacity to a new development phase where the emphasis is more on quality, safety, dependability, and efficiency. The profit margins of many wind manufacturers in China have been reduced as a result of manufacturing overcapacity, severe market rivalry, government policy to delay finance and approval of wind projects, and other factors. From 18.92 GW in 2010 to 12.96 GW in 2012, the growth rate of newly added wind power installed capacity began to decline in 2011. The decreasing trend, nevertheless, was short-lived. With 16.08 GW of new wind capacity built in 2013, data from 2013 suggest the wind power sector has picked up steam. With 19.81 GW of new wind power built in 2014, the amount of freshly added wind capacity hit an all-time high.

Grid connection is one of the difficulties facing China's wind energy growth. Many municipal systems are unable to incorporate all the energy produced by wind power due to their poor capacity. Significant issues with grid dispatch, reactive power control, grid safety, and power quality are also brought on by large-scale wind power integration. Long-distance electricity transmission is also necessary since the geographic distribution of wind energy resources does not correspond to the country's profile of power demand. However, the constrained transmission capacity of electrical networks once again puts a limitation on this. Every year, a significant percentage of the electricity produced by wind energy must be lost owing to inadequate power grid infrastructure. According to data from the National Energy Administration, in 2011 and 2012, respectively, more than 10 billion and 20 billion kWh of electricity produced by wind energy were wasted.

In addition to a technological solution, China's entire power infrastructure has to be fundamentally changed to address the grid connection issue. Grid companies have little incentive to integrate renewable energy into their grids because doing so will increase their costs due to the additional costs associated with the grid connection and electricity purchases. This is because the business of power generation was split from grid companies, which are now only focused on power transmission and distribution.The average rate of abandoned electricity powered by wind power has been falling over the past two years, from 11% in 2013 to 8% in 2014, which is the lowest level in recent years, thanks to the implementation of favorable wind power policies, increased grid transmission capacity, and decreased wind speed.32 However, the rate increased once again in the first quarter of 2015, reaching 18.6%.33 The volatility in the rate indicates that grid integration and absorption of wind power have been and will remain major obstacles to the growth of wind power in China.

Solar Power

China has also overtaken other countries as the world's top producer of PV goods since 2007. Six of the top 10 solar PV module manufacturers worldwide have their headquarters in

China.34 About 90% of the PV panels made in China were shipped to nations that offered better incentives, namely those in North America and Europe. There were not many solar PV demonstration projects in China between 2002 and 2008.35 This is mostly caused by the high cost of PV systems and the difficulties in connecting to the grid, a challenge shared by China's wind energy sector. China's PV producers, which are strongly dependent on the international market, were severely impacted by the reduction of government subsidies and the falling PV demand in the European nations. The imposition of anti-dumping and countervailing tariffs on Chinese PV goods shipped to the US, followed by comparable trade investigations opened in the European Union, Canada, and India, put more pressure on China's PV sector. The Chinese PV producers swiftly looked to the local market, which was mostly untapped at the time, and developing economies, which had seen a boom in the development of renewable energy in recent years, to balance their export losses and absorb production overcapacity. A fresh wave of mergers and restructuring among PV industry producers has also been prompted by overcapacity. The Chinese government views this as a chance to update the PV sector in the nation and get rid of the out-of-date manufacturing capacity. It also announced a number of beneficial regulations to boost the development of the local PV sector.

In the fourth quarter of 2012, the demand for PV panels from the Chinese end-market already reached 33% of the worldwide demand, according to information published in the NPD Solar buzz quarterly report.36 With the construction of 12 GW of new PV capacity in 2013, China has already surpassed Germany, Japan, and the US to become the world's biggest market for solar energy. The generating capacity has increased by 232% as a result.37 One-fourth of the world's newly installed PV capacity was added in China in 2014, which contributed 10.6 GW of new capacity. In the last several years, China has also made impressive strides in the creation of concentrated solar power CSP. The 12th Five Year Plan for Solar Power Generation Development predicts that by 2015 and 2020, respectively, the installed capacity for CSP will reach 1 GW and 3 GW.39 Through a public tending program, a 50 MW commercial CSP project in Inner Mongolia was started in 2010.

The project has not yet been built, nevertheless, as of this writing. The first CSP plant in Qinghai province wasn't linked to the electrical grid and started generating energy until July 2013. The facility is anticipated to produce 112.5 million kWh of power with a 50 MW installed capacity, which equates to a reduction of 394,000 tonnes of standard coal and around 103,000 tonnes of carbon dioxide.40 The CSP plant represents how CSP initiatives go from small-scale technological demonstrations to substantial commercial endeavors.CSP generating has trailed behind other uses of solar energy by a wide margin. This is primarily because CSP does not have strong, transparent government backing.First, the feed-in tariff FIT for a CSP plant is chosen individually. There is no set FIT for CSP generating. For the 50 MW CSP project in Qinghai, the FIT was fixed at RMB 1.2/kWh in September 2014. Second, it might take a long time for a CSP project to be approved, which costs CSP project investors a lot of time and money. With supportive regulations from the central government and incentives from the provincial governments, solar heat utilization has developed quickly in China.

Solar water heaters, solar hot water centralized systems, solar heating and cooling, industrial use of solar energy at medium and high temperatures, solar cookers, and other major solar heat use solar homes, particularly in isolated rural locations.The most popular and commercialized method of using solar heat is the solar water heater. China has already overtaken the rest of the globe as the leading producer of solar water heaters after years of fast development. a whole value chain for the manufacture of solar water heaters. With a total inventory of around 258 million m2, China's solar water heater manufacturing in 2012 increased by about 10.7% to reach 63.9 million m2. The solar water heater business has also seen a significant fall since 2012 as a result of oversupply and declining demand. The production of solar heaters fell in 2014 by 17.6% compared to the previous year, marking the first negative increase in 17 years.

Biomass

The projected yearly quantity of biomass resources in China is around one billion tce. This is more than 1.3 times the nation's yearly energy use. The potential of biomass energy resources is twice as great as that of hydropower and 3.5 times more than that of wind power, according to a study on China's development plan for renewable energy that was published by the Chinese Academy of Science.45 While the Chinese government failed to reach several of the objectives for biomass energy established in the 11th FYP of Renewable Energy, including the targets for methane utilization, nonfood fuel ethanol, biomass pellets, and briquettes, biomass is a renewable energy that is prioritized alongside wind and solar.

The characteristics of biomass energy, such as its low energy density and irregular consistency, are one of the numerous obstacles to its widespread use. Wastes and residues from the agricultural and forestry sectors, animal manure from medium- and large-scale livestock farms, and municipal solid waste are the main biomass feedstocks in China.44 There hasn't been a comprehensive study conducted yet on the availability, distribution, and capability for the exploitation of biomass energy resources. The majority of the biomass energy feedstock is gathered manually using small-scale equipment. The procurement, delivery, and storage of biomass energy feedstock are very inefficient. A further barrier to the development of biomass energy technologies like biomass gasification and second-generation fuel ethanol is the technology of biomass utilization and equipment production [9], [10].

CONCLUSION

China's dedication to moving towards a more sustainable energy system is seen in its initiatives on energy saving and renewable energy. China intends to lessen its environmental impact, improve energy security, and promote the growth of a low-carbon economy via a mix of energy efficiency measures, renewable energy objectives, financial incentives, and international partnerships. In order to significantly speed up the adoption of renewable energy sources and meet China's long-term energy and climate objectives, it will be essential to continue efforts and make policy improvements.

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CHAPTER 6

RENEWABLE ENERGY AND ENERGY EFFICIENCY IN INDIA

Dr. Chandrasekaran Saravanan, Assistant Professor
Department Of Chemistry, Presidency University, Bangalore, India
Email Id: saravanan@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

This abstract focuses on energy efficiency and renewable energy projects and regulations in India, a nation with a huge environmental concern and a quickly expanding energy demand. The Indian government has undertaken a number of initiatives to encourage renewable energy and increase energy efficiency in recognition of the need to lessen reliance on fossil fuels, alleviate the effects of climate change, and improve energy security. The renewable energy industry in India has expanded significantly in recent years. The nation has established ambitious goals for increasing the capacity of renewable energy sources, such as solar, wind, biomass, and minor hydroelectric power. Feed-in tariffs, competitive bidding processes, tax breaks, and long-term power purchase agreements are just a few of the policies and incentives that have drawn investment and fostered the growth of renewable energy projects. India has put in place a number of programmes to improve energy production across all sectors and reduce energy consumption. In order to encourage the adoption of energy-efficient technology, the Bureau of Energy Efficiency BEE has established energy efficiency standards and labelling programmes for appliances and equipment.

KEYWORDS:

Capacity, Development, Energy, Renewable, Solar.

INTRODUCTION

Building energy efficiency has been improved because of the implementation of Energy Conservation Building Codes ECBC.In order to promote advances in appliance and industry energy efficiency, the Indian government has also introduced programmes like the Perform, Achieve and Trade PAT programmes and the Standards and Labelling S&L programmes. These initiatives motivate businesses to meet energy efficiency goals and entice customers to buy energy-efficient goods. Through international partnerships and agreements, India further demonstrates its commitment to renewable energy and energy efficiency. The nation has actively participated in international projects like the International Solar Alliance ISA and has vowed to meet its renewable energy goals under the terms of the Paris Climate Change Agreement.

India has made great strides towards energy efficiency and renewable energy, but there are still obstacles to overcome. These include financial limitations, meeting the energy demands of marginalized people, and integrating intermittent renewable energy sources into the system. To overcome these obstacles and hasten India's transition to a cleaner and more sustainable energy future, continued governmental assistance, technical advancement, and capacity development will be essential. Despite having a large and rapidly expanding population, India has historically had modest energy and power usage. This was partially due to the 'Hindu Rate of Growth' in the decades after independence. The Indian economy grew at an average annual rate of about 8%* in the last decade, although it has gradually shrunk to about 5% in the last 2-3 years due to the global recession. This is due to economic policy changes implemented since the early 1990s with increased private sector participation and deregulation of the infrastructure and industrial sectors. However, the likelihood is that growth will likely stay between 7% and 9% over the long run. Along with this process, there has been significant urbanization and expansion [1]–[3].

The rise of the middle class, as well as shifting lifestyles, caused a massive increase in the number of buildings, automobiles, and electrical appliances, with the sale of air conditioners, refrigerators, geysers, and Microwaves Therefore, India's need for energy and power has inevitably increased and will continue to do so. After China, the United States, and Russia, India was the fourth-largest energy user in the world in 2011. According to the IMF, India has the tenth-largest economy in the world and the third-largest in terms of purchasing power parity. India will keep progressing up this ladder. According to 2006 research by the Indian Planning Commission, primary energy consumption might increase by 4-5 times. while the amount of power needed to generate that demand could increase by 6-7 times. According to the assessment, the capacity for producing power may need to increase to 7-800 GW.

The growth of the nation's energy infrastructure and the constant rise in overall energy consumption are the results of successive Indian administrations' continued attention to energy services. Over the last 60 years, there has been a 21-fold rise in commercial energy use and a 100-fold growth in power-producing capacity. 537 million tonnes of oil equivalent mtoe of commercial energy were produced in 2012, including electricity from nuclear, hydroelectric, and renewable sources as well as coal, oil, and gas. The energy used by 56% of Indian homes, which comes from traditional sources, is not included in these statistics. § Traditional energy consumption estimates are often approximations, however, data shows that in 2012, 174 mtoe of energy came from garbage, fuel wood, manure, agricultural residue, and biogas. Over time, India's energy intensity has decreased. In 2011, it dropped to 0.62 kgoe per U.S. dollar from 1.09 kgoe per dollar. Despite significant advancement over the last ten years, the energy sector's development could not and has not been able to keep pace with the expansion of the economy.

The energy sector is still recognized as a significant barrier to India's industrial development, which is seen as essential to fostering the nation's economic and social development. India's contribution to global energy usage and electricity consumption is just 5.7% and 4.0%, respectively, while housing is around 17.8% of the world's population. †† At around 0.60 toe, the per capita energy consumption is far lower than that of industrialized nations and, more crucially, is approximately a third of the global average. The per-capita power consumption situation is much worse, with just 710 kWh used per year, or about one-fourth of the global average. In reality, even if capacities of 7-800 GW are reached, the per-capita primary energy consumption would only increase to roughly 1.25 toe, which is still far less than the present global average of 1.88 toe/capita/annum. The amount of electricity in deficit has been continuously high in recent years, with supply falling between 8% and 10% behind demand. Even yet, this could not be a true reflection of the overall demand. Giving a significant section of the population access to contemporary energy sources remains a significant task. Approximately 45% of rural homes still use paraffin to power their lights. Additionally, over 20% of urban families and around 86% of rural households still largely utilised traditional fuels like firewood, wood chips, or dung cakes for cooking [4]–[6].

DISCUSSION

Growth of Electricity Capacity

Since 1947, the Indian electricity industry has seen substantial growth. By January 2015, the capacity to produce electricity has expanded from 1.3 GW in 1947 to over 261 GW. The fact that there is still a scarcity of power despite the fact that electricity production has grown significantly over the years is mostly due to the fact that the rise in demand for power is outpacing the growth in generation and the expansion of power-producing capacity. Between 2003 and 2012, the average energy deficit was 9.1%, while the average peak power deficit was 12.8%.The first law to regulate the Indian power industry was the Electricity Act of 1910. After gaining independence, the Electricity Supply Act of 1948 was established, although it had little success. Major policy and regulatory actions were also implemented in the power sector as a result of the economy's liberalisation and reform in 1991–1992.

States and the private sector including foreign capital were allowed to invest in the generation of electricity under a regulatory framework that was established with independent regulators at its core and states acknowledging that the infrastructure sectors of electricity and others needed significant investments due to resource limitations. The areas of generating, transmission, and distribution are now open to 100 per cent FDI. The government's adoption of the 2003 Electricity Act was the most significant of all the reforms it introduced. It allowed for more private involvement and opened up the power-generating industry. It established open access, decoupled the State Electricity Boards, and divided generation, transmission, and distribution. The Indian government has taken a number of further actions in recent years, including the National Tariff Policy, National Electricity Plan, Competitive Bidding Guidelines, and Ultra Mega Power Projects.

Under the mega power programmes, incentives were also provided to the industry via the remission of taxes on capital goods. These factors led to an increase in capacity creation. Between 2006 and 2012, thermal power capacity increased by roughly 46 GW.This increase in capacity should be seen in light of China's recent events, however. China's total installed capacity increased from 725 GW to around 1200 GW between 2007 and 2012, respectively. Table 1 shows the increase in power capacity throughout time.Despite this recent expansion, a number of issues are being confronted, which might make it challenging to reach the capacity predicted to be needed by 2032. Forestry, environmental concerns, and coal transportation logistics are at the root of the challenges. issues with the liability legislation and growing public hostility after the Fukushima catastrophe

Table 1: Table shows the increase in power capacity throughout time.

Growth in Electric Installed Capacity (in MW)

	Thermal	Large Hydro	Nuclear	Gas	Renewables	Total
1950	1,153	560	0	0	0	1,713
1990	41,421	18,307	1,565	2,343	0	63,636
2002	63,266	26,269	2,720	11,163	1,628	105,046
2007	72,323	34,654	3,900	13,692	7,760	132,329
2012	113,564	38,990	4,780	18,039	24,504	199,877
2017 (estimate)	183,364	49,887	10,080	20,579	54,503	318,414

Instead of the desired 60 MW, there are indications that nuclear power in Japan may develop gradually, perhaps reaching roughly 25–30 GW by 2032. Gas reserves are little, new field development has been put off, and output from existing fields has decreased, leaving a large portion of recently developed gas power capacity stranded. The issues with oil are identical. The Himalayas have the capacity to produce 150 GW of large hydro, however, there have been logistical and environmental issues with using this potential. Even achieving 100 GW, for which we must use all available resources, may provide challenges. In this situation, finding alternatives to maximising the use of the aforementioned sources will be necessary to satisfy the demand.

In addition to issues with developing future production capacity, India's power industry also faces additional issues and difficulties. First, regardless of the capacity built, fuel supply availability is becoming a concern, particularly with regard to coal and gas. Second, the increased need for imports of all fuelsoil, gas, and coalis a result of these issues. According to projections, including those in the Integrated Energy Policy Report, the country's reliance on energy imports in 2031–2032 might reach 60%. The likelihood of an import reliance on coal of roughly 45% and oil of between 80% and 90% is a source of significant concern. Third, the price of all fuels is rising. Because of imports, coal prices may have increased by 10% to 15%, and experts fear that this trend may continue. Petrol costs both domestically and internationally have gone up.Gas-generated power is expected to cost more per unit than solar energy does right now, if not more. Rising nuclear plant capital expenditures also portend much higher future generation costs. Fourth, albeit partly, power rates have just recently been altered in a few states; historically, they have been lower than expenses. However, there is strong political resistance and pressure to cut down on this.

The rural irrigation power sector has the lowest rates, and rural tariffs have fallen even more. As a consequence, the majority of the utilities are in dire financial condition. This limits both expenditures in enhancing infrastructure as well as the amount of electricity that can be purchased to fulfil typical demand. Fifth, India's current account deficit has been negatively influenced by the growing prices of imported fuels, which are a result of the rise in quantity. Huge subsidies for a variety of oil products have seriously impacted the income and budgetary deficits in addition to causing other anomalies. Kerosene alone receives an annual subsidy of roughly $5 billion dollars, albeit this amount is decreasing due to the recent drop in oil prices. About 30%–40% of domestic cooking gas is subsidized. The aforementioned information makes it evident that India's demand for safe, economical, and environmentally friendly energy has grown to be one of the main obstacles to the nation's economic growth. Additionally, it is obvious that renewable energy will be a crucial component of the solutions and is likely to play an increasingly significant role in the expansion of grid power, providing energy access, reducing consumption of fossil fuels, and assisting India in pursuing its low-carbon development pathway. Energy conservation, demand management, and energy efficiency will all play significant roles in the national energy strategy [7]–[9].

New and Renewable Energy

There was an international realization of the need of developing alternative energy technologies after the oil shock of the 1970s. The Department of Non-Conventional Energy Sources DNES was established by the Indian government in 1982. Research, development, demonstration, and diffusion of renewable energy technologies were among the emphasis areas designated for supplying energy services to rural regions as well as for supplying the nation's energy requirements using renewable sources. DNES was upgraded to become an autonomous Ministry of Non-Conventional Energy Sources MNES later in 1992. On October 20, 2006, MNES was renamed Ministry of New and Renewable Energy MNRE. This ministry could be the only one of its kind in existence.

The Indian Renewable Energy Development Agency IREDA was established as a public sector venture in 1987 with the sole purpose of providing institutional funding in the areas of renewable energy and energy efficiency. When financing for the renewables industry was seen as a high-risk and low-profit venture, IREDA joined the market. The market for renewables has been widened and deepened thanks to the work of IREDA throughout the years. It was given credits on a bilateral and multilateral basis during the first years.Other financial institutions began offering financial support for renewable energy projects over time, and as a result, the market share of IREDA-financed projects is now approximately 15%. Solar lights, solar cookers, solar water heating, water mills, etc. were among the small-scale applications and rural regions that received the majority of the program's initial attention. Regarding the energy used for cooking in rural areas, two government programsthe Government Programme on Biogas Development and the National Programme on Improved Cook Stoveswere launched in 1981–1982 and 1984–1985 respectively. Programmes for the deployment of solar energy equipment were started concurrently. In 1988, small hydro less than 25 MW operations began. Pathbreaking progress in wind power began in the 1990s, and during the last ten years, it has gained momentum and become India's primary source of grid-connected renewable energy. Additionally, there have been breakthroughs in the field of cogeneration, with bagasse being successfully used to generate electricity in sugar mills, notably those in the private sector. Additionally, biomass-based power plants began to be built, using rice husk as their main fuel source.

Since the solar cooker programmes was unable to create a consistent market, it progressively died. Today, solar dishes are available in small and big systems. Although there is a solar thermal system in the holy city of Shirdi where 20,000 meals are prepared daily, they have also not really taken off. Due to budgetary restrictions and sluggish development in the northern states of UP, Bihar, and Haryana, the biogas programmes is still only building approximately a lakh plant yearly. After around 32 million upgraded stoves had been installed, the cook stove programmed was discontinued in the federal sector and given to the states in 2002. It then immediately shriveled away as well. Through the efforts of a few NGOs, etc., improved cook stoves are still being made in limited amounts in various regions of the nation. The programmes for solar water heating have grown, but there have been a few, challenging advances in the industrial and commercial sectors. There are several solar air conditioning experimenters, but this technology has to advance significantly before it can be considered competitive or mature.

The number of solar lanterns has substantially expanded, mostly due to privately financed or locally sourced projects, however, the central certain are also given out by the government and certain states. Urban trash-to-electricity facilities were built in several municipalities; however they had trouble operating due to segregation issues of trash. This issue is still present. Although there have been a few medium-sized and smaller facilities employing industrial waste and urban kitchen garbage, this practice hasn't really taken off. Using the gasifier technology that has shown promise, one to two-megawatt plants based on fuel wood or other agricultural leftovers have been tried, albeit tariff is still an issue. There is a lot of promise but little development. A significant programmed to reach 10,000 outlying settlements where the grid was not anticipated to go was launched in recent years. Solar house lighting solutions tended to take care of this. Additionally, many thousand solar house lights have received financial assistance from rural banks. As a result, the record is inconsistent.

Solar Grid Developments

India published a National Action Plan on Climate Change in 2008 that had 8 missions encompassing several facets of sustainable development. According to the Indian prime minister, the projected National Solar Mission, which would initiate an ambitious plan for the development of solar energy on a global scale, was the focal point of the initiative. Launched in January 2010, this project has the lofty goal of generating 20 GW of grid electricity by, 2 GW of off-grid solar power, 20 million solar-lit homes, and 20 million m2 of solar thermal collector area. The Government of India, however, has declared even more ambitious renewable energy objectives of 175 GW by in the Budget 2015-2016. This involves expanding grid-connected solar power projects from 20 GW to 100 GW, including projects on rooftops.

This programmes has already started. A grid with a 3000 MW capacity has already been built, starting from almost nothing. Different policies have been implemented by the center and the states, and it is anticipated that the mission's goals would be mostly attained. The most important change has been the decline in solar PV prices across the board, and the subsequent decrease in India was accomplished via competitive bidding rather than the widely used feed-in-tariff FIT scheme. According to a recent World Bank Report, India may now generate solar energy at the lowest cost in the world. There may be difficulties, especially with regard to the land and transmission infrastructure.

Capacity Creation

The implementation of renewable energy has made progress up to January 31, 2015, according to the following data. Renewable grid capacity expanded more than six times between 2002 and 2013, from 2% to around 13% in under 13 years, and is now accounting for 6% of the power generatedWhile wind has historically dominated the grid's renewable energy, solar is now beginning to make its presence known. The key finding in this development is that the percentage of renewable energy capacity has significantly grown at a period when there was the greatest demand to increase the capacity of conventional electricity. After adding massive hydro, India's high level of renewable energy penetration compares well to that of the EU and considerably outpaces that of the US.

Policy Support

In addition to the favorable rates offered at the state level, the government has been encouraging private investment in the establishment of projects for the production of electricity from renewable energy sources via an alluring combination of fiscal and financial incentives.These include customs tariffs, nil/concessional excise, accelerated depreciation AD, and capital/interest subsidies. Off-grid capital subsidies range from roughly 10% to 90% of project costs, depending on the renewable resource and area. Projects in the North-Eastern area and Special Category States get larger capital subsidies. The Electricity Act of 2003 gave India the legal foundation it needed to expand its use of renewable energy. The legislation required State Regulatory Commissions to establish renewable resource-specific FITs and to define renewable purchasing obligations RPOs. Additionally, solar-specific RPOs, beginning at 0.25 per cent in the Solar Mission's initial phase and increasing to 3 per cent, have also been implemented. Additionally, the National Electricity Policy of 2005 called for a gradual rise in these levels and purchases by distribution firms' procedure for competitive bidding.

According to the Tariff Policy 2006, State Electricity Regulatory Commissions SERCs must set a minimum age for purchasing energy from these sources while taking into account the regional availability of these resources, their impact on retail tariffs, and distribution companies' procurement at preferential tariffs set by the SERCs. As of now, the majority of SERCs have established percentage ages for purchasing power from renewable energy sources. Most prospective states provide preferential tariffs for grid-interactive renewable energy. The Central Electricity Regulatory Commission CERC has released uniform criteria for the determination of such preferential pricing. AD to investors/developers up to 80% in the first year is one of the additional instruments.Similar to the production tax credit in the US, this was a tax break for profit-making businesses and people. The wind industry significantly expanded as a result of this concept. To provide a fair playing field in 2010, generation-based incentives were also made available as a substitute for these power producers who were unable to use AD. This led to the highest-ever installation of more than 3 GW in 2010–2011. The generation-based incentive GBI has just been reinstated, however, the AD advantage for wind has subsequently been eliminated.

There are not enough renewable energy sources in the nation. There are certain states where the potential for renewable energy sources is not very great, and there are other places where the potential is quite high. Most of the wind energy produced now comes from five southern states, and the potential for solar energy is equally concentrated. For many governments, this presents operational and fiscal difficulties. To close this gap and help governments reach RPOs, tradable renewable energy certificates RECs were created in 2010.Renewable energy producers sell REC on the market, and utilities may also purchase and complete their RPO in regions with lower renewable energy potential. However, the REC market is not booming since there is minimal emphasis on RPO compliance. The Electricity Amendment Bill, 2014 was tabled by the Indian government in the Lok Sabha the National Parliament on December 19. It includes a number of elements for quickening the deployment of renewable energy in the nation, such as stronger RPO compliance and rules for the creation, revision, and notification of the National Renewable Energy Policy.

Solar Power Policy

Additional initiatives were taken to promote solar power. A central agency was designated to purchase the solar energy generated by the developers under the Central initiative of the Solar Mission. It then combined it in a 1:4 ratio with less expensive thermal power that was made available to its parent company, NTPC, and sold it to utilities with which it had power purchase agreements PPAs. This bundling significantly decreased the cost of electricity to the utilities, making it close to the standard price of purchasing. Additionally, the utilities were required to fulfil a separate solar procurement commitment. The solar PV rate, as determined by the CERC, was roughly Rs. 18 per unit at the beginning of 2010. However, a bidding process was also used, in which developers were asked to provide savings from the CERC pricing. The lowest offers were reduced in the two rounds of bidding, first to an average of around Rs. 12 per unit. U.S. $20 cents, and afterwards on a mean of around Rs. 7 or maybe more per unit U.S. $12 cents. This was the strategy for 1.1 GW's first phase.

The rate, however, has been set at Rs. 5.30 per unit for the second phase, which would produce around 750 MW. To reach this price, developers were invited to submit bids for a minimum viability gap financing VGF. According to the bid results, developers have typically requested a VGF of Rs. 1 crore per MW of built capacity. The VGF requested for domestic solar cells is in the range of Rs. 2.50 crore/MW. A newly created Indian Solar Energy Corporation will buy and sell power like before. Due to low-cost manufacturing in China, which also hurt their ability to export to Europe as well as low-cost financial support by the U.S. Exim bank for their local thin-film manufacturers, both phases had limited quantities and procedures for domestic content. The National Solar Mission was the sole project receiving this domestic element; state projects were not included. However, the US has made a special effort to criticise Indian policy. It is believed that in addition to being unjust and unduly pushy, it failed to consider the repercussions that would favor Chinese businesses over their own [10]–[12].

CONCLUSION

India has historically started organized programmes for renewable energy, including those for R&D and energy efficiency. The task is enormous and exciting for India. Although there has been a lot of development, there are still many things that need to be done. There is an urgent need for policy concerns involving every aspect of traditional power generation. With the right legislative structure and planning, India might be in a position to satisfy a significant amount of its energy demands from renewable sources. Renewable energy has already captured the public's attention. Additionally, a sizable off-grid programmed is required.Similar outcomes may also come through the effective execution of the National Mission on Enhanced Energy Efficiency, but at the same time, its scope has to be greatly expanded. Prioritization must be given to reducing oil product consumption using a variety of strategies in the transportation sector and those here mentioned in the electrical sector. All of them would also result in a significant decrease in carbon dioxide emissions or a lesser rise. Although financial support for renewable energy and energy efficiency has grown over time, especially for large-scale grid-linked electricity, they still need to be improved for both grid and off-grid to accomplish the enormous upscaling that is necessary. Reforming subsidies would instantly generate huge sums of money. However, there are still some significant structural and policy constraints, notably for decentralized distribution in the areas of finance access, technology development and adaption, innovation induction, and upmarket deployment methods. New chances and pressures, however, will force people to consider other options.

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CHAPTER 7

RENEWABLE ENERGY POLICIES IN BRAZIL: BIOENERGY, PHOTOVOLTAIC GENERATION AND TRANSPORTATION

Dr. Aparna Roy, Assistant Professor
Department Of Chemistry, Presidency University, Bangalore, India
Email Id: aparnaroy@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

With a particular emphasis on biofuels, solar power, and transportation, this abstract examines the renewable energy policies put into place in Brazil. Brazil is a resource-rich nation that has made great progress in encouraging renewable energy sources to diversify its energy mix and lower greenhouse gas emissions. In Brazil's system of renewable energy, bioenergy is essential. The nation has put in place measures to encourage the use of biofuels, especially ethanol made from sugarcane. By establishing yearly emissions reduction objectives and offering producers financial incentives, the National Biofuel Policy, also known as Renova Bio, seeks to increase the proportion of biofuels in the transportation sector. By encouraging sustainable farming practices and minimizing dependency on fossil fuels, the strategy has helped the bioenergy industry expand. Brazil has adopted measures to encourage the installation of solar power systems in photovoltaic generating. For the installation of photovoltaic panels, the Federal Programme for the Development of Solar Energy PROGDSE offers financing alternatives and tax benefits. Regulations governing net metering let customers to sell any extra power produced by solar panels back to the grid, which promotes the expansion of distributed solar production.

KEYWORDS:

Brazil, Biofuels, Ethanol, Power, Transportation.

INTRODUCTION

Brazil has embraced renewable energy by promoting biofuels in the transportation industry. The extensive use of ethanol as a fuel substitute for automobiles, especially flex-fuel automobiles able to operate on both petrol and ethanol, has greatly decreased transportation-related carbon emissions. The Brazilian government has also put policies into place to promote the use of electric cars EVs, such as the construction of charging infrastructure and tax incentives. Brazil has also taken use of its tremendous hydroelectric potential to produce renewable energy. With rules in place to promote sustainable hydropower development while minimizing environmental consequences, large-scale hydropower facilities provide a significant share of the nation's energy supply. Brazil has made significant strides in renewable energy thanks to its regulations. The nation now ranks among the top producers and consumers of biofuels, and a significant amount of its power is produced from renewable resources. The need to improve the grid integration of sporadic renewable energy sources, increase energy storage capacity, and handle environmental issues related to hydropower projects are still obstacles.

Brazil, a nation rich in natural resources, has put in place a number of regulations promoting renewable energy to encourage the use of bioenergy, solar power, and environmentally friendly transportation. These initiatives seek to increase energy security, decrease greenhouse gas emissions, and diversify the energy mix. Brazil's renewable energy system heavily relies on bioenergy, in particular ethanol made from sugarcane. To raise the proportion of biofuels in the transportation sector, the nation has put measures in place such as the National Biofuel Policy Renovation. With the use of financial incentives and objectives for emissions reduction, these policies encourage the use of sustainable agriculture practices and lessen dependency on fossil fuels [1]–[3].

Brazil has adopted measures to stimulate the installation of solar power systems in the photovoltaic generating industry. To encourage the installation of photovoltaic panels, the Federal Programme for the Development of Solar Energy PROGDSE offers financial alternatives and tax benefits. Regulations governing net metering allow customers to sell any extra power produced by solar panels back to the grid, which promotes the expansion of distributed solar production. Brazil's transport industry has embraced renewable energy by promoting biofuels, especially ethanol. The introduction of flex-fuel cars, which can operate on both petrol and ethanol, has greatly decreased the amount of carbon emissions produced by transportation. The Brazilian government has established programs, such as tax concessions and the creation of charging infrastructure, to encourage the use of electric cars EVs. Brazil has also developed a massive hydropower industry for the production of renewable energy. With rules in place to promote sustainable hydropower development while minimizing environmental consequences, large-scale hydropower facilities provide a significant share of the nation's energy supply.

Significant advancements in promoting sustainable energy sources and lowering carbon emissions have been made in Brazil as a consequence of the implementation of renewable energy regulations. Hydropower projects still face difficulties such as grid connectivity, energy storage, and environmental issues.Examining the particular policies and procedures in place in Brazil for biofuels, solar power, and transportation is essential in this context. Understanding these rules can help you better understand the successes, obstacles, and possibilities in the nation's renewable energy industry. By examining these issues, we may learn more about the efficacy of Brazil's renewable energy policies, their potential for growth, and how they contribute to a more resilient and sustainable energy future. Brazil has made tremendous advancements in promoting renewable energy sources because of its wealth of natural resources and dedication to sustainability. The nation's commitment to cutting carbon emissions and diversifying its energy sources is seen in the implementation of bioenergy, solar power, and sustainable mobility legislation. These regulations support technical development and economic expansion in the renewable energy industry in addition to helping to create a better environment. We may acquire a thorough grasp of Brazil's attempts to harness the potential of bioenergy, solar power, and sustainable transportation in order to construct a more sustainable and energy-efficient future by looking at the particular policies and projects in each of these sectors.

DISCUSSION

One of the most important strategies for reducing greenhouse gas GHG emissions and replacing fossil fuels is bioenergy. The transport sector, which is responsible for 23% of GHG emissions, is mostly dependent on fossil fuels and has fewer options, although there are several renewable energy technologies available for large-scale power generation with minimal or no direct GHG emissions. Approximately 27% of the world's secondary energy consumption and 21% of its primary energy consumption go into transportation, which rises 1% year on average. Both the transportation sector's GHG emissions and our reliance on petroleum may be significantly reduced with the help of biofuels. First-generation biofuels are a transitional technology since they now account for just around 3% of the world's road transport fuels. The potential rivalry with food crops and market pricing sugar vs. ethanol prices in international markets are two factors that contribute to the first-generation biofuels' low market adoption. The development of second-generation cellulosic ethanol, biomass-to-liquids, pyrolysis oil, and dimethyl ether and third-generation algal-biodiesel, biofuels from third-generation processes biofuel technologies was prompted by worries that these technologies are not meeting expectations, but these technologies still require scaling up in order to be cost-competitive [4]–[6].

Conventional biofuels, with the exception of sugarcane ethanol, suffer from a variety of serious drawbacks relating to feedstock. Rapeseed biodiesel and ethanol made from cereals or beets are currently substantially more expensive than gasoline and diesel, and significant subsidies are required to make them competitive. Due to the low net energy production of most annual crops 100-200 GJ/ha year over the long run, the need for high-quality agricultural land, and the intense management, these high expenses are a consequence. Reduced consumption of fossil fuels from well to wheel due to reduced production per acre and increased fertilizer needs further limits the environmental advantages. The net energy of grasses, perennial crops, and sugar cane is much greater 220–550 GJ/ha/year, and Brazil has been a global pioneer in pushing biofuels for more than 30 years under its Precool program. Brazil has required that ethanol be included with every petrol sold there since 1975. All filling stations are obliged to offer gasohol E25 and pure ethanol E100, and while the necessary mix level is periodically changed, it has historically been in the 20%–25% range.

Early on in the Precool program, tax incentives were given to vehicles that ran on pure ethanol, and more recently, the introduction of so-called flex-fuel vehicles by the majority of local automakers has allowed for the use of any ethanol-to-gasoline ratio E25-E100 at any time. This has contributed to the expanding market share that flex-fuel vehicles already enjoy in Brazil, which is expected to increase to over 96% by the end of 2014.In the last ten years, $16 billion has been spent on agribusiness, alcohol subsidies, and genetic research to boost sugar cane. Other policies have included blending laws, retail distribution requirements, production subsidies, and other measures.Following a difficult time in the 1980s and 1990s when excessive demand created a seller's market that resulted in high alcohol prices and delivery problems, the rise in oil costs and the advent of the flex fuel vehicle has rekindled interest in ethanol. Many of the technical issues with ethanol enginessuch as the need for drivers to wait valuable minutes for their automobile engines to warm up before they could drivewere resolved by advances in electronic fuel injection technology.

The Brazilian government was unable to provide the necessary subsidies in 1985 because of dropping oil prices, and in 1989, ethanol shortages and high pricing led to severely disgruntled drivers and the almost total failure of this promising technology. 1990 saw the deregulation of the industry and the closure of the Alcohol and Sugar Institute IAAInstituto do Accra e do cool, which oversaw export quotas and subsidies. When the price of sugar rose internationally, ethanol producers made the decision to go back to sugar in a free, unrestricted market, and the auto industry drastically cut the amount of alcohol-powered vehicles they produced. Ethanol costs have increased once again due to the spike in sales of flex fuel vehicles. This time, however, customers have the option to prevent excessive price hikes from alcohol producers thanks to flex fuel automobiles. Flex fuel car owners fill up with conventional fossil fuel anytime ethanol prices above the level of 70% of petrol price. While 90% of Brazilian-made automobiles already operate on both fuels, ethanol has not been the preferred fuel for most drivers. This is primarily because, as a result of the more lucrative sugar market, the price differential between ethanol and petrol has been below 20% in recent years. Furthermore, there is no practical benefit to fueling up with the so-called green fuel since flex fuel automobiles using pure ethanol have a 30% worse mileage than when using gasohol.

Bio-Oil

With the passage of law requiring mixes of 5% biodiesel in diesel fuels B5, Brazil has more recently started to pursue higher usage of biodiesel fuels, which are mostly generated from locally produced soybean oil. Brazil has the potential to dominate the world in the production of biodiesel since it will be able to make bio-oil from a variety of sources. But the fuel vs food debate will always exist, and it may even be more prominent with biodiesel than it has been with bioethanol so far.

Photovoltaic Generation and the Net Metering Law in Brazil

As a renewable energy source, photovoltaic PV generating, sometimes referred to as solar power generation, has become more popular in Brazil. Brazil has established a Net Metering Law, which is essential in encouraging the production of solar electricity, in order to promote the expansion of PV systems and stimulate consumer acceptance of them. The process known as net metering enables owners of solar power systems to feed extra energy produced by their PV systems back into the grid. Brazilian customers who install solar panels may reduce their power use by exporting excess electricity to the grid under the country's Net Metering Law. When the PV system is not producing enough power, such as at night or on cloudy days, the energy exported is credited and may be utilised to balance the electricity used from the grid. The Net Metering Law offers PV system owners a number of advantages. By balancing the power provided by their PV systems against the electricity they use, it first allows customers to dramatically lower their electricity expenditures.

Over time, this may result in significant energy cost reductions. Second, by increasing the proportion of renewable energy in the country's total energy mix, surplus power exported to the grid aids in achieving Brazil's targets for renewable energy and cutting carbon emissions.In Brazil, distributed solar generation has increased as a result of the installation of net metering. Consumers in the residential, commercial, and industrial sectors have been encouraged to invest in PV systems and increase the nation's potential for renewable energy. Solar power has become a feasible and alluring choice for many customers due to the financial advantages and the capacity to produce clean energy for self-consumption. PV system owners in Brazil must fulfil certain technical standards and register their installations with the local power distribution operator in order to be eligible for net metering. Additionally, the legislation creates methods for compensating system owners fairly for the power they provide when excess energy is exported to the grid.

The Net Metering Law have a tremendous impact on the growth of solar energy in Brazil, resulting in the creation of jobs, technical advancements, and a thriving solar sector. It has produced a stable regulatory environment that stimulates investments in PV systems and has allowed customers to actively participate in the nation's transition to renewable energy. But there are still issues including bureaucratic procedures, limited grid infrastructure, and inconsistent adoption throughout several Brazilian areas. To fully realise the potential of solar power in Brazil, ongoing efforts must be made to simplify administrative processes, increase grid capacity, and guarantee that net metering rules are applied consistently [7]–[9].

Brazil's Net Metering Law has been crucial in encouraging consumer investment in solar power systems, which has helped to advance photovoltaic energy. Customers may now offset their power use, save money on energy, and help the nation reach its renewable energy targets. Brazil was able to realise its potential for solar energy and position itself as a leader in the Latin American area thanks to the legislation, which has played a significant role in the expansion of distributed solar generating. The implementation of solar systems will need to be accelerated further in order to further Brazil's transition to a cleaner and more sustainable energy future. This will need continued support and changes in net metering legislation.

Prospects

In recent years, regulations for the blending of biofuels into vehicle fuels have begun to arise in a number of additional nations, mostly due to GHG reduction objectives. However, it might be claimed that biofuels will ultimately serve as a bridge fuel for electric cars and solar

PV energy. Biofuels for transportation may generally be seen as a transition technology in terms of energy conversion efficiency. The graph below shows a direct comparison between solar-to-electricity PV conversion + electric automobiles and sugar cane ethanol + flex fuel cars A 1 hectare 100 m 100 m sugar cane plantation will produce between 6,800 and 8,000 L of ethanol annually, which, in the best-case scenario, would enable a medium-sized flex fuel automobile to go up to 53,900 km/year.

The electricity generated over the course of a year on the same 1 ha will allow the electric version of the same medium-sized car to travel over 14,000,000 km/year more than 260 times more assuming the same area is covered with commercially available solar PV modules at 15% conversion efficiency and a 1,500 kWh/kWp/year energy yield. Both the orders of magnitude greater efficiency of PV conversion over photosynthesis and the noticeably greater efficiency of electric motors over internal combustion engines contribute to this stark difference. While mass manufacturing of fully electric, plug-in cars is still in its infancy, battery technology is constantly evolving, and volume production should result in the required cost reductions for this beneficial technology to be embraced globally. Building-integrated PV in an urban setting can supply a sizeable portion of the city's electricity needs without taking up additional space or competing with arable land in a sunny and large country like Brazil. It can also meet the additional electricity needs posed by a new fleet of electric vehicles [10], [11].

CONCLUSION

Brazil's renewable energy regulations in the fields of transportation, solar power, and biofuels have significantly aided the nation's transition to sustainable energy. These regulations have decreased carbon emissions, supported energy security, and encouraged the growth of a robust and varied renewable energy industry. Brazil has become a worldwide leader in the production and use of biofuels in the bioenergy industry as a result of its focus on sugarcane-based ethanol. The use of biofuels has been encouraged by the introduction of initiatives like Renovation, which also promote sustainable farming practises and lessen reliance on fossil fuels in the transportation sector. The development of solar power systems in Brazil has been expedited by the encouragement of photovoltaic production via laws like PROGDSE. In addition to reducing dependency on traditional energy sources, this has promoted the expansion of distributed solar generating and given customers more power in the transition to renewable energy sources.

Brazil's emphasis on biofuels, notably ethanol, and its promotion of electric cars are clear indications of its dedication to sustainable transportation. Utilizing flex-fuel cars and creating EV charging infrastructure have helped Brazil get closer to its aim of cleaner, more sustainable mobility by reducing carbon emissions in the transportation sector. Along with helping the environment, these renewable energy regulations have boosted Brazil's renewable energy sector's economic expansion, the creation of jobs, and technical developments. The nation has drawn investments, encouraged innovation, and established itself as a pioneer in renewable energy both domestically and internationally. Energy storage technology optimization, efficient grid integration of sporadic renewable energy sources, and managing possible environmental issues raised by hydropower developments are all ongoing difficulties. In order to overcome these obstacles and promote Brazil's transition to renewable energy, ongoing governmental support, technology improvements, and stakeholder involvement are essential.

In conclusion, Brazil has shown a great commitment to sustainability, lowering carbon emissions, and diversifying the energy mix via its renewable energy policy in the fields of transportation, solar power, and bioenergy. Brazil is laying the foundation for a cleaner, more sustainable, and more resilient energy future by making the most of its natural resources and putting in place effective regulations. Government, business, and society must continue to work together for the development of Brazil's renewable energy sector and the achievement of the country's long-term energy and climate objectives.

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CHAPTER 8

ENERGY IN ISRAEL: A CASE FOR RENEWABLES

Dr. Giri Gowda Chaitanya Lakshmi, Assistant Professor
Department Of Chemistry, Presidency University, Bangalore, India
Email Id: chaitanyalakshmig@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The Israeli energy sector and presents a case for renewable energy sources as a viable and wise alternative for the nation. Israel has made considerable strides in adopting renewable energy technology despite having limited natural resources, which has helped it meet its energy demands and lessen its reliance on fossil fuels.Beginning with Israel's particular energy issues, such as a lack of indigenous fossil fuel deposits, geopolitical limitations, and environmental concerns, the abstract describes Israel's unique energy situation. These difficulties have spurred the nation to look for other energy sources and encourage their growth.The next section of the abstract looks at the several renewable energy sources that Israel has used to diversify its energy mix. Given the nation's plentiful sunshine, solar energy has been a major topic of interest. Israel is now a world leader in the deployment of solar energy because of the policies and incentives it has put in place to promote the construction of solar photovoltaic systems.Israel has accessed various renewable energy sources in addition to solar, including wind, biomass, and geothermal energy.

KEYWORDS:

Energy, Nation, Natural, Solar, Source.

INTRODUCTION

Israel, a nation with few natural resources and distinct geopolitical difficulties, is moving towards renewable energy sources in order to fulfil its rising energy needs and solve environmental issues. The adoption of renewable energy technology and regulations has significantly changed Israel's energy environment, providing a long-term and strategic answer to the country's energy requirements. Israel's energy industry confronts a number of serious obstacles. The nation is significantly reliant on energy imports, which provide dangers to its economy and security since it lacks major local fossil fuel sources. Additionally, the geopolitical environment of the area makes the energy situation more complicated. Renewable energy becomes an attractive option in this situation, providing a way to achieve energy independence, resilience, and environmental sustainability [1]–[3].

The potential of these resources and the efforts made to maximise them in Israel are covered in the abstract.Also stressed is renewable energy's strategic importance to Israel. The nation's energy security may be improved, and its susceptibility to geopolitical conflicts can be diminished, by lowering its dependence on imported fossil fuels. Israel is positioned as a centre for clean energy research and exports thanks to the economic prospects, job development, and scientific improvements provided by renewable energy.The abstract looks at the laws and regulations, such as feed-in tariffs, grants, and tax incentives, that have helped Israel's renewable energy industry flourish. It also discusses the obstacles to renewable energy expansion in the nation, including intermittency, grid integration, and the need for energy storage technologies. The abstract emphasises that renewable energy makes a strong argument for Israel's energy future in its conclusion. Israel has advanced the use of renewable energy significantly by using its natural resources, enacting supporting legislation, and encouraging innovation. The adoption of renewables not only supports the nation's environmental objectives but also improves energy security, stimulates economic development, and positions Israel as a pioneer in clean energy technology. The development of an energy system in Israel that is more robust and sustainable will depend heavily on ongoing research, investments, and cooperation.

The significance of renewable energy as a tactical option for Israel is emphasized in this introduction to establish the scene. It examines the nation's particular energy issues as well as the advantages of switching to renewable energy sources. It also describes the discussion's goals, which include studying the renewable energy sources that are accessible in Israel, assessing the programmes and policies that promote their deployment, and exploring the strategic ramifications of renewables for the nation. Israel's abundance of sunshine throughout the year makes solar energy a standout renewable resource there. Israel is now a world leader in the use of solar energy because of its impressive advancements in capturing the sun's energy. Other renewable energy sources, such as wind, biomass, and geothermal, are briefly discussed in the introduction in order to emphasize how they may improve Israel's energy balance.

The introduction also highlights the strategic value of renewable energy for Israel. The nation may improve its energy security and lessen exposure to geopolitical conflicts in the area by lowering its reliance on imported fossil fuels. Israel is positioned as a center for clean energy research and export thanks to the economic possibilities, job development, and technical improvements provided by the renewable energy industry. Israel has put in place laws and regulatory frameworks that stimulate investment and the deployment of renewable technology to assist the expansion of renewable energy. Feed-in tariffs, grants, tax breaks, and R&D programmes are a few of these policies. The significance of these legislative initiatives in accelerating the switch to renewable energy is acknowledged in the introduction.The introduction's persuasive argument for renewable energy in Israel is highlighted in the conclusion. The country's dedication to sustainability, the particular energy issues, and strategic concerns has all pushed Israel in the direction of a renewable energy future. Israel is on a road to being a pioneer in renewable energy technology by using its natural resources, enacting supporting legislation, and encouraging innovation. The talks that follow will go into further detail on the particular renewable energy resources, regulations, and strategic ramifications for Israel, giving readers a thorough grasp of the benefits of using renewable energy sources in that nation's energy mix [4]–[6].

DISCUSSION

Israel, a nation of 8.0 million people on 20,000 km2 of land on the eastern Mediterranean coast, with a population of roughly. The electrical infrastructure and overall energy economy of Israel are separate from those of its neighbors. The unstable political environment has in the past resulted in energy and other economic boycotts against the nation. Israel's economy has mostly relied on imported coal and oil until recently.Despite its political challenges, Israel has the Middle East's fastest-growing economy, which is driving up energy consumption. In the previous 20 years, Israel's overall energy consumption has almost doubled, and both the production and consumption of electric power have grown by a ratio of 2.75. Israel has mastered the utilization of solar energy, which is its only plentiful and limitless energy source. Together with Greece and Cyprus, Israel has been a global leader in the development of solar technology.

Until recently, Israel ranked first globally in the use of solar energy per person. Domestic solar water heating is used by roughly 85% of families or about 2,100,000 households, according to the Ministry of Energy and Water Resources' Division of Energy Conservation, which accounts for 3% of the nation's primary energy usage. This application has been widely used thanks to government incentives and rules as well as more than 50 years of validated experience. There are other ways to use solar energy that might potentially provide a far bigger share of the nation's energy needs.Over the next 25 years, Israel will need to make a variety of decisions on how to get dependable, efficient, and clean energy sources. Recent offshore natural gas discoveries have sparked interest in harnessing this resource for domestic use in an effort to minimize reliance on imported coal and petroleum, which has hazards to both the economy and the environment. Developing these gas reserves involves a variety of trade-offs concerning energy security, the environment, and cost, according to forecasting research on Israel's energy consumption that MEW commissioned. Development of renewable resources is unaffected by these worries and offers enormous potential for supplying the nation with clean, reliable energy in the long run.

Israel's Energy Economy

The importation of coal and petroleum is a major source of energy for Israel. Prior to 1982, the nation used oil and its derivatives as its main energy source, with very little coal being used. Currently, around 35% of Israel's main energy comes from coal. It is nearly solely used in the production of electric power. Recent offshore natural gas field finds have contributed to this valuable resource, which is now mostly utilised to generate electricity.According to Central Bureau of Statistics CBS, the nation's total primary energy supply in 2009 was comparable to around 17.4 million tonnes of oil MTOE. There were around 13 MTOE of total end use, of which about 8 MTOE were for petroleum products and about 5 MTOE were for electricity. Petrol oil and diesel oil make up the biggest group of petroleum products. The amount of electricity used is roughly divided between domestic and industrial goods and services uses, with the latter including a sizable part for agricultural and water pumping. The transportation, industrial, and residential sectors, respectively, use 60%, 36%, and 4% of all fuel used other than for the production of electric power.

For the last ten years, the same consumption trend has been in place. Forecast states that it will probably alter over the next few years as natural gas replaces heavy oil in the industrial and electric power sectors.Solar energy, which is mostly used for residential water heating, is another element of the energy economy that is relatively little in quantity but significant in importance. As was already noted, it saves roughly 5% of the nation's electricity while meeting about 3% of the country's energy demand. Israel is presently among the top three solar energy consumers globally, disproving the idea that solar power is not yet economically viable.The following are the government MEW's declared aims and objectives in reference to energy.

1. Increasing the amount and variety of energy sources available to the country's customers and economy
2. Improvement of product quality, pricing, and service while advancing the health of the country's mining and energy industries
3. reducing the negative environmental consequences of the country's energy facilities aiming to consistently and steadily meet demand while taking action to reduce demand by using energy resources sparingly
4. Analysis of Israel's natural resource inventories, protection of their availability, licencing procedures, and promotion of exploration and excavation activities
5. Efforts are being made to ensure Israel's social, economic, and physical stability so that it can withstand the inevitable occurrence of powerful earthquakes with the least amount of casualties possible, the least amount of property and infrastructure damage, and the quickest return to normalcy possible.
6. Research funding and promotion for the subjects of soil and marine science

To encourage the use of renewable energy sources in the production of electricity, many initiatives have been launched. By the year 2020, the government established the goal of generating at least 10% of all electric power from renewable sources. By 2014, an interim objective is to generate 5% of all electric power from renewable sources. Consequently, theFor licensed power producers using renewable energy, the Public Utilities Authority has established a set of premiums that are proportionate to the realized decrease in pollution. Another government decision from August 2008 allocates financing over a 5-year period to the development of technology for the production of electricity from renewable sources. a different government. A resolution from September 2008 encourages energy efficiency and lowers the nation's power use. Market transformationraising public knowledge of energy efficiency in appliances and similar productsencourages consumers to save energy.To put energy policy into practises, a multitude of laws, rules, guidelines, and other legal instruments have been developed. The majority of them deal with licensing and safety problems as well as the usage of petroleum and petroleum products, natural gas, and electricity. Some are concerned with labelling, minimum requirements, and energy efficiency. Cogeneration and distributed generation are encouraged by recent rules. Article 9 of the Law for Planning and Building 1970 is noteworthy since it requires solar water heating systems to be installed in all new buildings. This article has significantly advanced the use of solar energy, and more will be said about it in the part after that.

Solar Energy Utilization in Israelthe Incomplete Success

Unavoidably, a visitor to Israel will observe the abundance of solar collectors and hot water storage tanks covering the buildings' rooftops. In Israel, solar water heaters are present in almost every home. The thermosyphon system, a fully passive, standalone device made up of one or two flat plate solar collectors and an insulated storage tank, is the most popular. A central system with a collector array on the roof and a storage tank in the basement that uses a pump controlled by a differential thermostat is often used in large multistory residential complexes. There are further options available. In the majority of the nation, an electric resistance backup is used the remaining nine to ten months of the year so that the solar system can provide the whole demand for hot water. Except in very remote areas, freeze protection is seldom necessary. A typical single-family system with a 150 L storage tank and 2-3 m2 of flat plate collectors' costs around $700 to install; a system powered by electricity would cost about $300. On a basic payback basis, the owner recovers the $400 difference in around 4 years; these systems have a manufacturer's guarantee that lasts 6 to 8 years and, with regular maintenance, may last up to 12 years. Domestic solar water heaters are now regarded as typical, dependable home appliances thanks to decades of experience and widespread customer trust [7]–[9].

In Israel, there is no solitary law governing the use of solar energy. The most significant solar law, as mentioned in the aforementioned Article 9 of the Law for Planning and Building 1970, has been the government's main contribution to Israel's success in the solar sector. Since 1980, any new structure up to nine stores tall has been required by law to have a solar water heating system installed by the builder not the homeowner. A movement to include multistory structures in the requirement is now being led by the MEW.The obvious trend towards developing high-rise structures in recent years is what motivates this. Other laws and regulations provide the rules for the retrofit installation of solar water heaters in existing multi-apartment buildings, set minimum standards for the quality of the solar equipment and installation, and describe in detail the size of the installation necessary for the different types of buildings. According to official statistics, a typical single-family household solar water heater saves 1250 kWh of electricity year, which contributes to the overall reduction in

About 1.6 billion kWh per year, or 21% of the electricity used in the household sector and 5.2% of the total electricity used in the nation, represents a 3% reduction in primary energy usage. This is among the highest in the world at roughly 270 kWh/year/capita. If the government commits to using clean and environmentally beneficial technology, it can be done in nations with comparable or even more favorable climates, as Israel has shown in its household solar water heating example - The far bigger industrial and commercial sector utilised relatively little solar energy, despite the fact that they are considerably more equipped to do so than a homeowner. In Israel, solar for household use has become a commonplace reality. The majority of industrial work is done during the day, so it requires less storage than residential use; the economy of scale gives large industrial installations a significant capital advantage; industry typically has plenty of roof space in one-story buildings located in locations where architectural considerations do not prevent the installation of solar collectors; and the industrial user is equipped to handle small maintenance jobs, eliminating the need for residential maintenance personnel. The textile, culinary, pharmaceutical, chemical, and many other sectors all need the same temperature range as the average household user, while others demand high-temperature process heat.

Of course, the business sector is also affected. It is predicted that broad solar energy use in commercial and industrial applications, such as process heat, may improve the nation's utilization by a factor of five or more.Unfortunately, the existing tax structure disincentivizes commercial usage of solar energy. While an investment in a solar heating system can only be amortized over 8–12 years, it is far less appealing economically than the cost of an industry using polluting fuel, which can write off the cost as a business expenditure, lowering its tax burden. In addition, the legislation presently exempts Highrise structures height more than 27 m from the necessity to install a solar water heating system in new structures. By implementing the necessary policies, eliminating tax loopholes, and establishing advantageous incentives for renewable energy, the government may significantly alter this scenario. There is no need for long-term expenditures or the creation of new technologies for this to be accomplished. The country's home sector has already shown that solar energy is a reality right now [10]–[12].

CONCLUSION

Israel has established itself as a regional leader in sustainable energy development thanks to its pursuit of renewable energy. The nation's particular energy issues, such as its finite domestic fossil fuel supplies and geopolitical limitations, have sped up its transition to renewables, with solar energy taking the lead. Israel has achieved worldwide leadership status in the use of solar energy by using its plentiful sunshine and enjoying the resulting strategic, environmental, and economic advantages. In Israel, switching to renewable energy has several benefits. By lowering reliance on energy imports and minimizing the dangers brought on by geopolitical conflicts in the area, first improves the nation's energy security. Second, since they dramatically lower greenhouse gas emissions and lessen the ecological effects of energy generation, renewables support environmental sustainability. Furthermore, Israel's reputation as a centre for clean energy technology and know-how has been strengthened by the sector's contribution to economic expansion, the creation of jobs, and scientific advancement. The government of Israel's policies and programmes have been instrumental in fostering the development of renewable energy. Solar power system deployment has been sped up thanks to research and development programmes, subsidies, tax incentives, and feed-in tariffs, which have all stimulated investment. Israel's shift to renewable energy will need a sustained commitment to supporting laws, rules, and public-private partnerships.

Grid integration, energy storage, and the sporadic nature of renewable sources are still problems. Developing effective storage solutions and smart grid systems will need ongoing investments in infrastructure, innovation, and research to address these problems. In order to overcome these challenges and realize the full potential of renewable energy in Israel, cooperation between the government, businesses, and academics is essential.The argument in favor of renewable energy in Israel is strong, to sum up. The nation has established itself as a leader in the use of renewable energy thanks to its dedication to environmentally friendly energy solutions, supporting regulations, and an abundance of solar resources. Israel can increase its energy security, lessen its carbon imprint, and promote economic development by using renewable energy sources. Israel will gain from the sustained emphasis on renewable energy, and other countries will be encouraged to adopt sustainable energy as a prudent and strategic decision for a more resilient and environmentally friendly future.

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CHAPTER 9

A BRIEF OVERVIEW ABOUT RENEWABLE ENERGY IN AUSTRALIA

Ms. Mini Pushkar, Assistant Professor
Department Of Soft Skills, Presidency University, Bangalore, India
Email Id: koustavnandi@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

This abstract examines the state of renewable energy in Australia, emphasizing the nation's notable advancements, difficulties, and possibilities in moving towards a more sustainable and clean energy system. Australia, which is renowned for having a wealth of renewable energy resources, has been aggressively pushing the deployment of renewable energy to lower carbon emissions, improve energy security, and make use of its inherent benefits. The first section of the abstract goes through Australia's wide variety of renewable energy sources, including sun, wind, hydro, and bioenergy. Australia is well suited for the production of wind and solar energy due to its long coasts and copious sun radiation. Large-scale renewable energy projects have been rapidly expanding throughout the nation, especially in the solar and wind sectors, which has helped to increase its capacity for renewable energy. The abstract emphasises Australia's dedication to renewable energy via legislative initiatives including the Renewable Energy Target RET, which aims to produce 33,000 gigawatt-hours of renewable energy by the year 2020. By encouraging investment in renewable energy projects, this strategy has sparked employment development and economic expansion in the industry. The abstract also discusses Australia's shift to renewable energy and the difficulties it has experienced. Grid integration, intermittency, and the need for energy storage solutions are some of these difficulties. To provide a dependable and steady supply of renewable energy, Australia's enormous geographic spread and decentralized energy infrastructure need sturdy transmission networks and cutting-edge storage technology.

KEYWORDS:

Australia, Energy, Solar, Power, Wind.

INTRODUCTION

In Australia, renewable energy has potential advantages that go beyond those related to the environment. The abstract describes how the renewable energy industry has drawn substantial investments, promoted technical improvements, and produced employment possibilities along the value chain. Australia has established itself as a key participant in the world of renewable energy, exporting its know-how and technology to other nations. The significance of Australia's sustained support for renewable energy. In order to fully realize the potential of renewable energy sources and propel the nation's energy transition, policy stability, research and development, and cooperation between the public sector, private sector, and academic institutions are crucial. Australia is well-positioned to become a worldwide leader in renewable energy because of its abundance of renewable resources and commitment to reducing carbon emissions and embracing clean energy.Australia's renewable energy industry has advanced significantly thanks to favorable legislation, an abundance of natural resources, and a dedication to sustainability. The nation has huge economic, environmental, and social potential as it switches to renewable energy. Australia can continue to progress its renewable energy objectives and position itself as an example for other countries in the quest for a clean and sustainable energy future by resolving obstacles and cultivating an environment that is favourable for renewable energy investments.

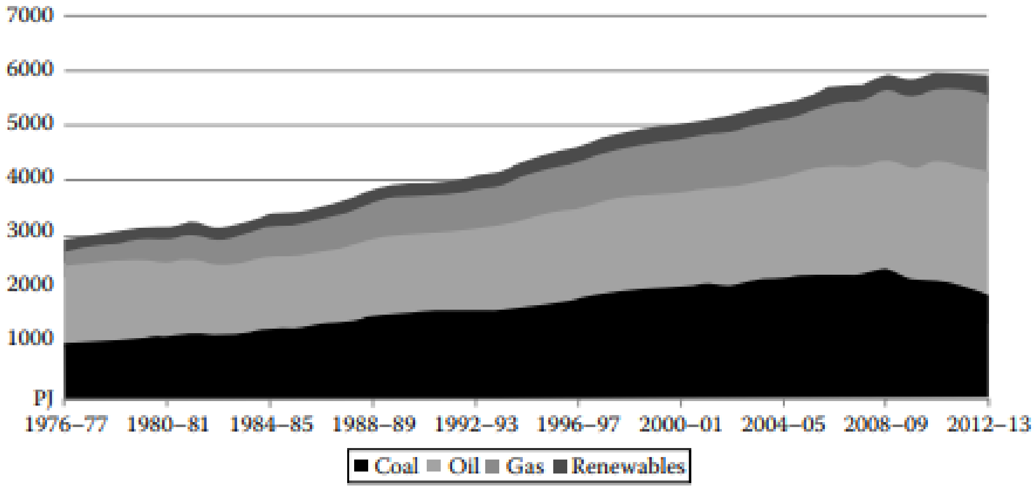

Figure 1: Australian energy consumption by fuel type [Routledge].

Minerals and energy are abundant in Australia (Figure. 1). With a value of AUD$71.5B in 2012/2013, 68% of its total energy output was exported, making it a net energy exporter. Despite being the eighth-largest energy producer in the world, it imports more refined petroleum products and crude oil than it exports. Australia's major energy export, coal, brought in around AUD$40 billion in 2012–2013, a drop of AUD$8 billion from 2011–2012.The biggest consumer of Australian coal is China. Despite having no operational nuclear power reactors of its own, Australia is one of the world's top exporters of uranium. Australia's actual export profits have grown by 10% annually on average during the last ten years. However, they decreased by 12% from 2012 to 2013 mostly as a consequence of reduced coal prices, but subsequently increased by 6% from 2013 to 2014 with help from higher LNG price [1]–[3].Coal, oil, and natural gas accounted up around 94.4% of all energy used in the years 2012–2013. However, natural gas has gradually replaced coal in energy production. At 5.6%, the penetration of renewable energy in primary energy is still rather low; 4.7% of this is made up of hydro and bioenergy. See Figure 1 and Table.1. Australia is now one of the countries that emits the most greenhouse gases per person in the world due to the high percentage of fossil fuels in its energy mix. On the other hand, the contribution from

Table 1: Table summarized the Australian energy consumption by fuel type.

Australian Energy Consumption by Fuel Type

	2012–2013		Average Annual Growth	
	PJ	Share (%)	2012–2013 (%)	10 Years (%)
Coal	1946	33.1	–5.9	1.4
Oil	2221	37.7	1.3	2.4
Gas	1387	23.6	2.2	3.3
Renewables	330	5.6	11.5	1.9
Total	**5884**	**100**	**–0.5**	**1.1**

Particularly in the electrical industry, wind and solar are beginning to grow see what follows. It has access to a variety of potential renewable energy sources, including solar, wind, geothermal, wave, and tidal power. The major source of renewable power at the moment is hydro, but its expansion is constrained and restricted only to Tasmania and certain areas of the eastern coast, while the biomass at the moment is primarily bagasse from sugarcane in Queensland and landfill gas from around the nation.Table. 2 and Figure. 2, which were produced from Table. 2, show that the power sector is likewise dominated by fossil fuels 86.9% in 2012–2013, but that renewable energy is on the rise, particularly large-scale wind

	2012–2013		Average Annual Growth	
	GWh	Share (%)	2012–2013 (%)	10 Years (%)
Fossil Fuels	**216509**	**86.91**	**–3.4**	**0.3**
Black coal	111491	44.8	–4.4	–0.9
Brown coal	47555	19.1	–13.6	–1.7
Gas	51053	20.5	5.1	5.7
Oil	4464	1.9	65.2	13.9
Other[a]	1945	0.8	78.8	0.8
Renewable Energy	**32566**	**13.1**	**26.2**	**6.2**
Bioenergy	3151	1.3	26.2	6.2
Wind	7328	2.9	19.9	29.7
Hydro	18270	7.3	29.7	1.3
Solar PV	3817	1.5	49.2	56.4
Geothermal	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	**249075**	**100**	**–0.3**	**0.9**

and rooftop solar. Between 2000 and 2013, a number of effective legislative initiatives were implemented, which facilitated the expansion of renewable energy in Australia. However, owing to ambiguous government policy between 2013 and 2015, growth and investment in renewables stagnatedmore on this later.The national grid in the east of Australia, which spans over 5,000 km with 40,000 km of transmission line and cable, and the western Australian WA grid are the two primary divisions of the country's power network. Due to the very low population difference between the two grids, they are not linked Figure. 3.

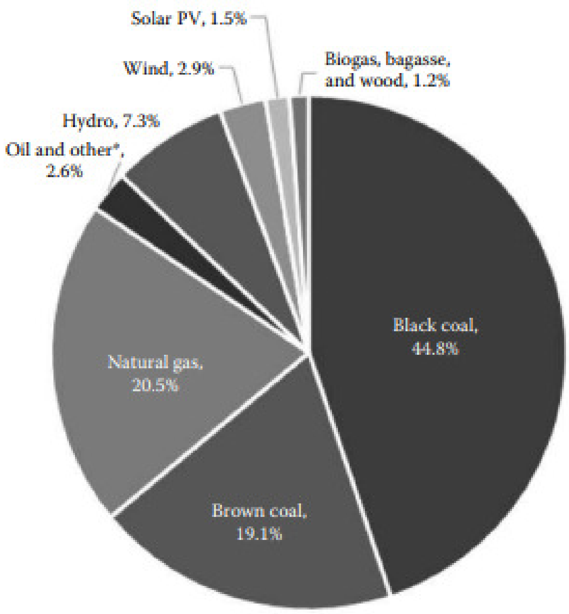

Figure 2: Australia's electricity generation, by energy source, 2012–2013 [Routledge].

Figure 3: Australian electricity transmission network. Energy network infrastructure and the climate change challenge [Routledge].

DISCUSSION

History of Renewable Energy Policy in Australia

National Renewable Energy Policies

The Renewable Energy Target RET programmed has been the primary national support system for renewable energy. The Mandatory Renewable Energy Target MRET, which went into effect in 2001, was a certificate-based programmed created to raise the share of renewable energy in Australia's power consumption from 10.5% in 1997 to 12.5% in 2010. 9500 GWh was chosen as the objective during the legislation's preparation. The objective was fixed in order to provide the energy sector predictability. By requiring electricity retailers and other wholesale power buyers to obtain a proportionate amount of the goal from permissible renewable energy sources 1 Renewable Energy Certificate, or REC, equals 1 MWh, the MRET established a market for Renewable Energy Certificates.To fulfil the Commonwealth Government's policy promise that at least 20% of Australia's electricity should come from renewable sources by 2020, the national RET was increased by almost five times in 2009, becoming a goal of 45,000 GWh in 2020.At that time, the amount of certificates obtained from certain small-scale generating methods was multiplied by a Solar Credit multiplier. Solar panels, solar water heaters, and heat pumps are examples of renewable energy systems that are suitable for the generation of Small-scale Technology Certificates STCs, a marketable commodity. The number of STCs is determined by the quantity of electricity measured in MWh that is generated by each qualified installation of renewable energy systems [4]–[6].

1. Generated during the span of a small-scale solar panel, wind, or hydro system's lifetime of up to 15 years.
2. Displaced throughout the course of its up to 10-year lifespan by a solar water heater or heat pump.

Depending on a person's location, there may be variations in the number of certificates that can be claimed. The PV solar multiplier was 4 at the start of the programme, and it provided a significant capital cost savings in addition to the 15-year deeming. The multiplier was decreased to 1 STC per MWh in July 2013.A significant number of virtual certificates were produced as a consequence of the STC multiplier programme, particularly with the addition of state and territorial feed-in tariffs FiTs in 2009, which accelerated expansion in the residential PV sector. The cumulative result was a drop in REC prices and a deterrent to spending in large-scale initiatives like wind and solar farms. The Large-scale Renewable Energy Target LRET and the Small-scale Renewable Energy Scheme SRES were therefore formed as two distinct markets in June 2010. The LRET was limited at 41,000 MWh, and these new markets went live on January 1, 2011.

The SRES has an implied objective of 4000 MWh but is uncapped. Depending on location, all PV systems up to 100 kWp are now eligible to get STCs upfront for up to 15 years of considered generation. This indicates that the STCs for such systems serve as a decrease in the original capital cost.The two programmes were no longer in opposition to one another as of 2011.As part of a comprehensive energy reform package known as the Clean Energy Plan, which had as its goals the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions by 5% below 2000 levels by 2020 and 80% below 2000 levels by 2050 as well as the provision of funding to achieve the 20% of electricity from renewable sources by 2020, a price on carbon was implemented in Australia on July 1, 2012. By incentivizing Australia's major emitters to improve energy efficiency and make investments in renewable energy, the price on carbon aims to achieve these goals. The pricing was supposed to start at $23.50 in 2012–2013, increase to $24.40 in 2014–2015, and then switch to an emissions trading system. The Federal Government switched from Labour too Liberal in 2013, nevertheless.

When the Liberals came into office, one of the first things they did was to implement their election pledge to axe the carbon tax, replacing it with a Direct-Actionprogrammed more on this later. They also announced a planned RET assessment in 2014 under the direction of a well-known sceptic of global warming, who suggested sharply reducing the RET. The fact that the expansion of the power industry had slowed and it was expected that the aim of 41,000 GWh in 2020 would represent more than 20% of sales was one explanation for this. There were heated political discussions around the revised aim at the time of writing, April 2015. The incoming administration does not want to exceed 32,000 MWh, which would have a substantial effect on the RE sector. While offering a compromise of 33,500 GWh, opponents who seek a greater aim were rejected. When the RET was unknown, the price of Large-Scale Generation Certificates LGCs, which had historically commanded prices between $40 and $50/MWh, plunged to around $20/MWh. However, the price has been progressively rising in anticipation of an impending resolution of the objective. Since mid-2014, as the quantity of certificates decreased as a result of the multiplier and FiT being phased out in the majority of states, the STCs have stayed at roughly $40/MWh.Australia's RE investments have been significantly impacted by the RET uncertainty, despite the fact that worldwide sales of renewable energy rose by 16% in 2014. for instance, The Clean Energy Council's CEO, Kane Thornton, said in January 2015 that Investment in large-scale renewable energy projects, such wind and solar farms, last year was down 88 percent to only $240 million it was $2.1 billion in 2013, the lowest levels we have seen in more than a decade. Australia is now investing less in renewable energy than nations like Panama, Honduras, and Myanmar.

Large-Scale Solar Installations

Using First Solar modules, the 10 MW Greenough River PV Solar Farm close to Geraldton, Western Australia, was finished in October 2012. It was Australia's biggest PV plant at the time and the only one with a capacity more than 1 MW. Electricity Retailer and Generator AGL stated in July 2013 that two solar farms will be erected in New South Wales, each with 100 MW in Nyngan and 50 MW at Broken Hill. employing First Solar PV modules, with assistance from the Australian Renewable Energy Agency, ARENA, and other financing sources. By May 2015, the Solar Farm's 25 MW capacity Nyngan's plant had been set up and was producing power; Broken Hill's plant was still being built. The 1.5 MW demonstration system in Mildura, Victoria, installed by Silex, formerly Solar Systems, in April 2013 is the biggest grid-connected concentrated PV CPV installation in Australia. It was intended to upgrade this to a 100 MW system;however, this project has been shelved due to uncertainty surrounding the Federal Government's RET. The project made use of multi-junction PV cells with an ultra-high efficiency 43% that were first created by Boeing for satellite power [7]–[9].

Australia doesn't currently have any solar thermal electric power plants. However, a 9.3 MW thermal solar-concentrating system based on Fresnel solar collector technology has been erected at the 2000 MW Liddell coal-fired power plant, located 260 kilometres north of Sydney. 18,500 m2 of mirror surface in total. By supplying steam to the existing coal-fired power plant and lowering the amount of coal needed to run the facility, the solar boiler serves as a fuel saver. The University of New South Wales and Sydney University collaborated on the invention of the Fresnel collector system. Solar Heat and Power was the first business to be established; Navitech currently owns it.The May 2012 report Realising the potential of Concentrating Solar Power in Australia written for the Australian Solar Institute by IT Power Australia is a good overview of the current status of concentrating solar thermal power technologies, their potential costs, benefits, grid impacts, and market development in Australia. The solar gas research facility at the CSIRO Solar Thermal Research Hub of the CSIRO National Research Centre in Newcastle, New South Wales, is seen in the report's cover image, Figure 4.

Figure 4: Solar gas research facility at the CSIRO solar thermal research hub of the CSIRO National Research Centre at Newcastle NSW [Routledge].

Direct Action

Through its Direct-Action Plan, the Australian Government aims to efficiently and effectively source low-cost emissions reductions and improve Australia's environment in order to meet its emissions reduction objective. The Emissions Reduction Fund will serve as the main vehicle for doing this. The government's climate action strategy is centres on the Emissions Reduction Fund ERF. To assist fulfil the goals of the Direct-Action Plan, it will cooperate with other incentives. 2020 emission reduction goal of 5% below 2000 levels for Australia. The consultation phase for design ideas for the ERF fund's safeguard mechanism is under underway. Soil carbon and carbon offsets from revegetation programmes will make up a significant portion of the ERF [10]–[12].

CONCLUSION

Fossil fuels, particularly coal, dominate the energy market in Australia. Although renewables only made up roughly 5.6% of Australia's primary energy in 2013, they generated 13.1% of the nation's power. With enormous natural resources for sun, wind, geothermal, and marine energy as well as more constrained resources for hydro and bioenergy, Australia has a very big potential for renewable energy that might be used.Due to the increasing adoption of energy efficiency programmes, the construction of rooftop solar and solar water heater systems, and a slowdown in the industrial sector, electricity consumption in Australia has decreased during the last several years. Additionally, numerous coal-fired power plants around the nation have shut down or curtailed their output as a result of this. It also serves as justification for the Federal Government's intention to lower the RET.In Australia, the RET has already brought in around $18.5 billion in RE investment and generated over 21,000 employments as of 2013. However, investors and investment in large-scale renewable energy programmes have drastically decreased and there have been many job losses after more than a year with no goal having been determined and uncertainty in government funding for R & D and renewable energy programmes. However, there has been an increase in interest in community-driven initiatives, and it is probable that people will be the ones to drive change. It has also been shown that the power system can accommodate significant penetrations of sporadic renewable energy sourcesup to approximately 40% in South Australia already exist. A paradigm changes in how energy distributors and merchants will work in the future is likely to emerge sooner rather than later, even if issues have been created. Many people are interested in seeing how renewable energy in Australia develops over the next few years. If outdated economic practises are not followed, it is possible that certain regions of Australia might serve as an example for how to effectively and reliably incorporate a variety of renewable energy sources into the energy mix.

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CHAPTER 10

JAPAN'S POST-FUKUSHIMA ENERGY POLICY

Dr. Arudi Shashikala, Associate Professor
Department Of Chemistry, Presidency University, Bangalore, India
Email Id: shashikalaar@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

This abstract investigates Japan's energy policies implemented in the wake of the Fukushima nuclear accident in 2011. After a devastating earthquake and tsunami caused the Fukushima tragedy, Japan's energy mix underwent a thorough examination, and the country moved towards a more diverse and sustainable energy system.The background on the Fukushima nuclear tragedy and its effects on Japan's energy system is given in the abstract's first paragraph. Nuclear reactors were shut down as a result of the disaster, which also raised questions about the country's nuclear power industry's profitability and safety. In order to assure the resilience, safety, and sustainability of its energy sector, Japan started a thorough review of its energy strategy.An emphasis on renewable energy sources was one of the main tenets of Japan's post-Fukushima energy strategy. In order to lessen its dependency on nuclear energy and fossil fuels, the government is working to encourage renewable energy technologies including solar, wind, and biomass. Feed-in tariffs, subsidies, and regulatory frameworks all encouraged investment in renewable energy projects, which greatly increased the capacity of renewable energy in Japan. The abstract also emphasises Japan's dedication to energy conservation and efficiency. The government launched a number of programmes, including energy-saving campaigns, construction regulations, and appliance efficiency requirements, after realizing the significance of lowering energy use and boosting energy efficiency. These initiatives intended to reduce the need for increased power production and maximize energy utilization.

KEYWORDS:

Energy, Efficiency, Fukushima, Nuclear, Power.

INTRODUCTION

Nuclear energy has long been promoted as part of Japan's strategy for reducing greenhouse gas GHG emissions, in addition to energy efficiency and renewable sources (Table. 1). This three-pronged strategy had been successful in fulfilling the Kyoto Protocol requirement, in addition to the contributions from the Kyoto procedures and economic stagnation. The government of Japan, however, imposed a moratorium on the restart of nuclear reactors and new construction in response to the devastating earthquake and related nuclear accident in March 2011. As a result, the proportion of nuclear power in electricity generation sharply decreased from 29% in FY 2010 to 11% in FY 2011 and to just 1.0% in FY 2013, which was the last full fiscal year [1]–[3].

Japan was able to avoid a power deficit in large part because of a successful statewide energy-saving effort that reduced consumption by 5%. However, the prolonged nuclear energy ban resulted in a greater mobilization of thermal plants powered by natural gas and petroleum, which had a negative influence on electricity prices and GHG emissions. In response, the Democratic Party of Japan DPJ under the Noda administration in 2012 created a new energy strategy called the Innovative Strategy for Energy and the Environment. This strategy aims to phase out all nuclear power plants by the 2030s through accelerated renewable energy deployment 17.7% of total electricity generation by 2020and strict energy conservation measures total energy consumption 19% below 2010 levels by 2030.3 But according to their prediction, without nuclear power, emissions in 2020 would only be 5% or less below 1990 levels, well short of the reduction target of 25% below 1990 levels by 2020, established in 2009. Electric utilities and energy-intensive sectors have voiced worries about the grid's reliability and the financial repercussions of such a radical shift in the fuel mix for power production.

The abstract also covers the difficulties Japan has had in moving to a more sustainable energy grid. Large-scale renewable energy deployment is hampered by the nation's limited land resources, geographic limitations, and intermittent nature of renewable energy sources. In order to overcome these obstacles and guarantee a steady and dependable energy supply, the abstract discusses the necessity for technical innovation, grid enhancements, and energy storage technologies (Figure. 1). As a result of Fukushima, Japan has made a considerable move towards energy efficiency and renewable sources of power. The nation's determination to broaden its energy portfolio, lessen its dependence on nuclear energy, and embrace sustainable alternatives has established a clear course for its energy future. Japan is determined to create an energy system that is more dependable, secure, and ecologically friendly, as seen by the government's support for renewable energy initiatives and initiatives to increase energy efficiency. Japan's long-term energy objectives can only be attained through continued research and development, investments in renewable energy technology, and international partnerships. Japan has the ability to lead the world in renewable energy and serve as a role model for other nations facing similar energy issues by leveraging its technical expertise and adopting clean energy solutions.Due to these factors, the Liberal Democratic Party LDP government under Abe later abandoned this ambitious phase-out plan and amended the Basic Energy Plan.

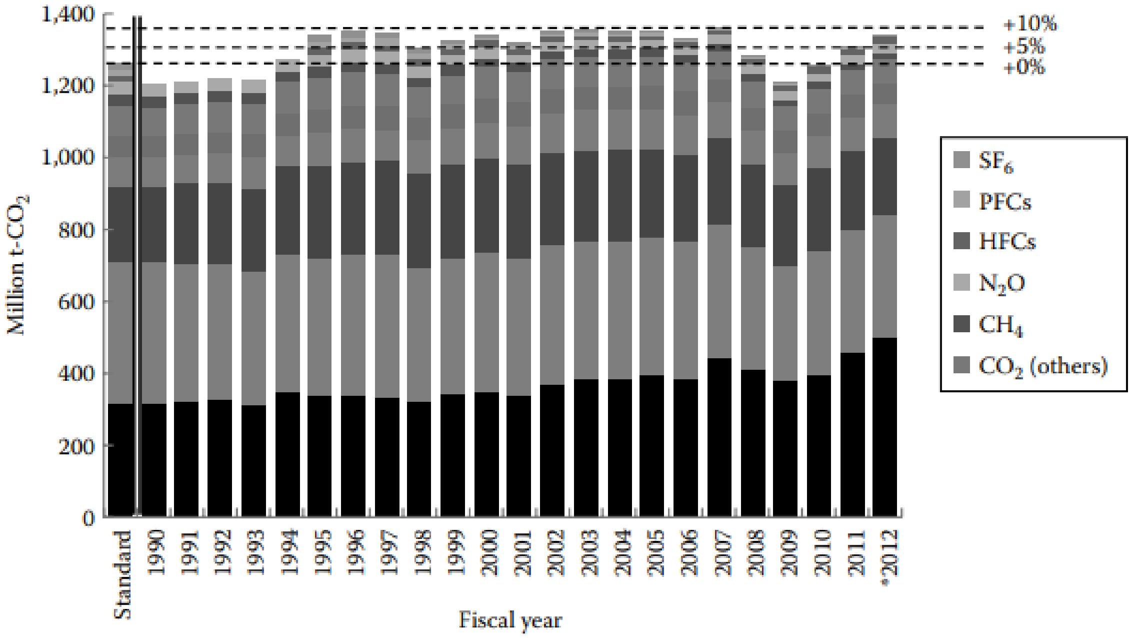


Figure 1: The figure for 2012 is. From Greenhouse Gas Inventory Office of Japan, National greenhouse gas inventory report of Japan, 2013[Routledge].

A long-term strategy that was originally created in 2010. In place of the explicit numerical goal established by the Noda administration, the revised Basic Energy Plan repositions nuclear power as an important baseload electricity source and describes the prospect of renewable energy as being further above past forecasts, footnoting 13.5% by 2020 and 20% by 2030 as references. The Abe government intends to set revised objectives for 2030's GHG emissions and power generating fuel mix in 2015. The new mix is anticipated to include a sizable portion of nuclear energy while displaying a less ambitious role for renewable energy.

In reality, a more risk-averse public makes it unrealistic to count on the restart of high-risk reactors or new construction for the foreseeable future, despite the politically independent Nuclear Regulation Authority having granted the first approval of the restart of a reactor under the new safety regulation in 2014.

Table 1: Innovative strategy for energy and the environment, 2012.

Renewable Energy Target in the Innovative Strategy for Energy and the Environment

	2010		2020		2030	
Source	**TWh**	**%**	**TWh**	**%**	**TWh**	**%**
Renewable	114.5	10.5	192.4	17.7	308.0	28.7
Hydropower	89.4	8.2	109.1	10.0	117.5	11.0
Photovoltaic	3.8	0.3	35.1	3.2	66.6	6.2
Wind	4.3	0.4	16.9	1.6	66.3	6.2
Geothermal	2.6	0.2	7.5	0.7	21.9	2.0
Biomass	14.4	1.3	23.6	2.2	32.8	3.1
Marine	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.0	0.3
Others	976.3	89.5	897.5	82.3	764.3	71.3
Total	1,090.8	—	1,089.9	—	1,072.3	—

Additionally, the authority created the allegedthe 40-year rule, which mandates additional safety assessments on reactor restarts after 40 years of operation and, in theory, prohibits such restarts without expensive retrofits; in actualityAfter going through the arduous and drawn-out regulatory procedure for relatively new reactors, numerous utilities are leaning towards decommissioning ageing reactors. These strict restrictions on Japan's nuclear future, when coupled with the ongoing need to cut GHG emissions, led the nation to implement a series of policy changes that have accelerated the growth of renewable energy and investment in energy efficiency.

DISCUSSION

Feed-In Tariff

The most significant policy reform after the disaster was probably the introduction of a feed-in tariff FIT programme for renewable energy in July 2012. It replaced a simple renewable portfolio standard RPS. Through 20-year power purchase agreements with a government guarantee and a set purchase price tariff, the FIT seeks to promote the growth of renewable energy. To encourage investment in a wide range of renewable energy projects, a panel of independent experts sets the tariff rates for each technology type and facility size. The panel reviews the rates annually to account for different developments, such as a decline in the price of solar panels Figure. 2.The expert panel awarded premium rates in the first year to allow investors to acquire funding quickly due to the pressing need for additional power production during the prohibition on the restart of nuclear power reactors. After the premium rates and the legally-binding purchase system caused an extraordinary growth in utility-scale PV, the rates were then reduced annually for PV. In contrast, new categories for several expensive but promising technologies, like offshore wind and small-scale biomass, were created in FY 2014 and FY 2015 [4]–[6].

The results of the FIT have been inconsistent thus far. The total installed capacity of renewable energy increased from 20.3 GW at the program's beginning to 35.2 GW in November 2014, with 58.6 GW worth of authorised projects in the pipeline, claims the Agency for Natural Resources and Energy ANRE. The majority of this expansion was driven by PV, demonstrating that alternative energy sources have not yet gained momentum Figure. 3. The following factors are believed to be the root of the seeming favouritism for PV: 1 a favourable tariff structure2 a waiver for environmental assessments; and 3 advantageous placements. The national analysis of the life cycle costs of energy production from 20114 served as the foundation for the tariff rates, but since then, the price of solar panels has dropped significantly, allowing investors to take advantage of the price differences between the expected and real costs.

The second component supports utility-scale PV by exempting PV projects with an area of 50 ha or less and no negative effects on land usage from the protracted environmental review process, which typically takes at least 3 years for most renewable energy development. Utility-scale PV also has an advantage in terms of site selection since it can be erected on the majority of unoccupied properties, in contrast to wind, geothermal, and biomass power plants, which often need to be sited in distant locations with inadequate transmission links to major energy consumption centres. These elements give PV a competitive edge over other renewable energy sources, which, at least temporarily, led to the concentration of investment in a single generating technology.There are a number of issues resulting from PV's rapid expansion. First off, the capacity factor, which is a comparison of the device's actual production over time in kWh, for example to its potential output in kW.

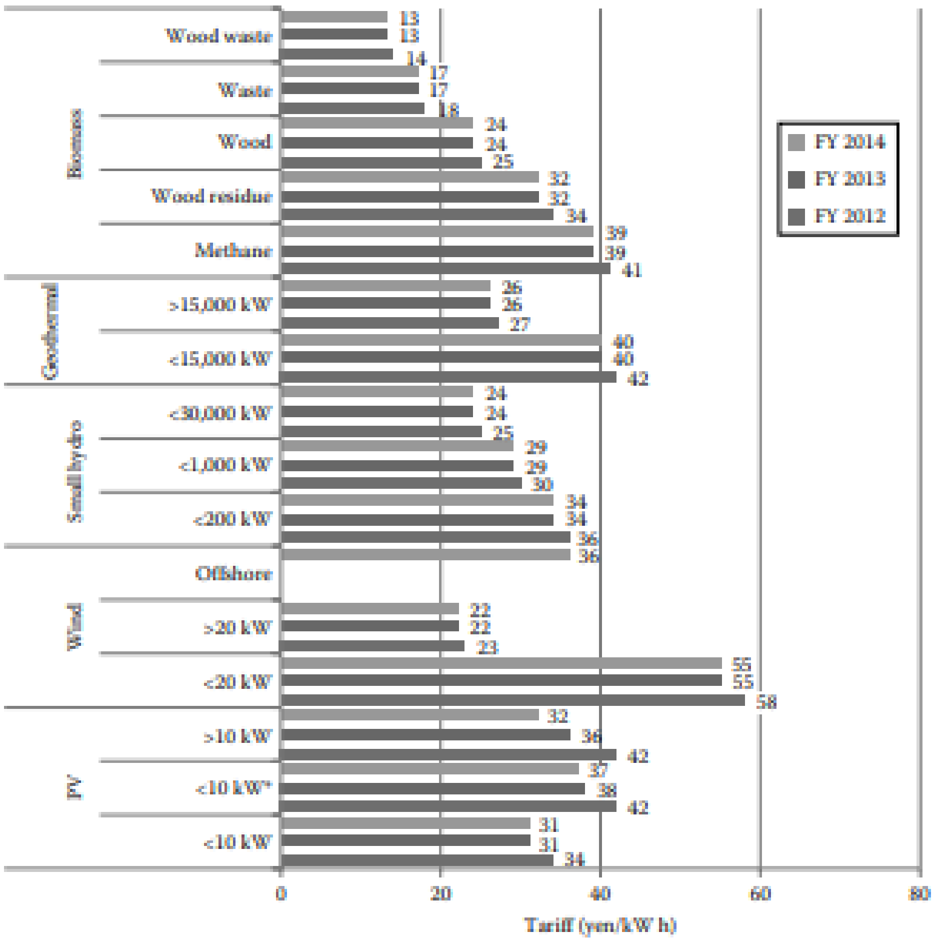
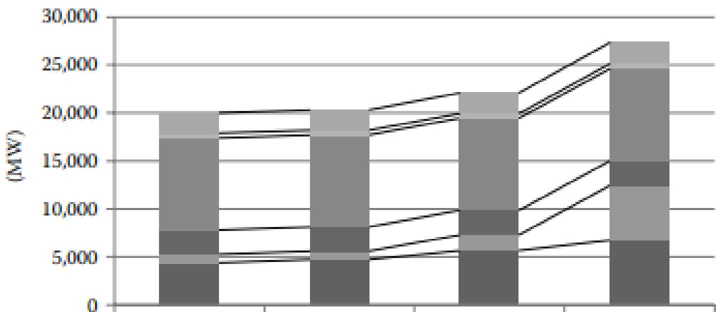


Figure 2: From Agency for Natural Resources and Energy, Avoidable cost calculation method and facility certification system reform, 2014 [Routledge].

Is PV prices are so cheap that the capacity base development statistic often causes the public to be misinformed about the effects on the country's fuel mix. In actuality, the percentage of renewable energy excluding large-scale hydropower in electricity production grew only by 0.8% between FY 2011 and FY 2013, from 1.4% to 2.2%, despite the significant introduction of renewable energy in capacity basis.Most crucially, electric utilities are particularly concerned about the influence on grid stability since the intraregional grid system now in use is only able to incorporate a small number of variable energy sources because it is intended to balance demand and generation within a single area. In reality, although being required by law, a number of large electric utilities announced an embargo on giving grid access for new renewable energy initiatives in late 2014, citing the infrastructure's inability to manage fluctuating energy sources. In response, ANRE developed new regulations in January 2015 that permit electric companies to deny PV and wind energy producers access to the grid for up to 360 hours per year without payment, with the possibility of an endless suspension without payment for future project developers if the conditions were right.



	March 2012	June 2012 (FIT start)	March 2013	December 2013
Biomass	2,100	2,106	2,136	2,225
Geothermal	500	500	501	501
Small hydro	9,600	9,602	9,605	9,608
Wind	2,500	2,500	2,563	2,574
PV (Utility-scale)	900	902	1,606	5,731
PV (rooftop)	4,400	4,700	5,669	6,716

Figure 3: Avoidable cost calculation method and facility certification system reform, 2014[Routledge].

Utility decides that the amount of available generating capacity on its system is saturated. Due to the lengthy permission procedure for restarting nuclear reactors, large curtailments are unlikely to happen anytime soon, but this new regulation reduces the financial security of the long-term for variable energy providers, which is anticipated to halt new investments, particularly utility-scale PV.A fine-tuning is required, according to these circumstances, to provide more incentives for other renewable energy sources and new mechanisms to support load and generation shaping measures that enable grid integration of more variable resources. Examples of such measures include increased use of demand management strategies, flexible backup energy sources, interregional power interchange, and energy storage facilities. Second, the high costs of PV may make Japan less competitive internationally by driving up power rates, especially in energy-intensive industries like the steel -industry. According to ANRE, the national costs of the FIT programme were 130 billion yen $1.3 billion in FY 2012 and are projected to increase to 313 billion yen $3.1 billion in FY 20135. The rising financial burden could have a negative impact on low-income households and energy-intensive industries in the years to come.

Energy Conservation Law

Despite having energy-intensive industrial sectors, Japan has one of the lowest energy intensities per GDP in the world6 as a result of substantial investments it has made in energy conservation technology and practises since the 1970s oil crisis.

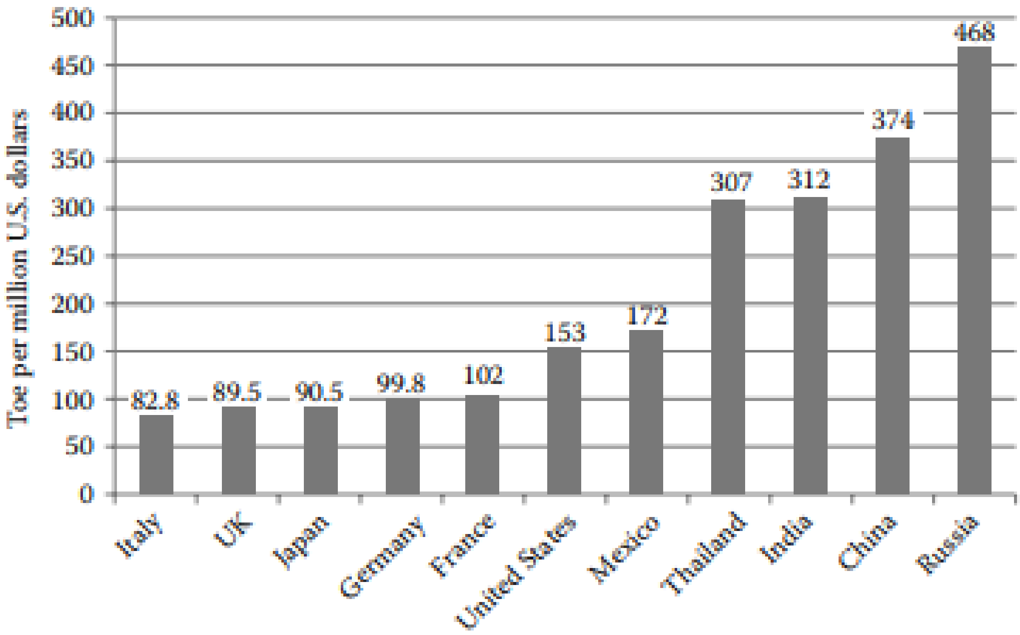


Figure 4:Represting the economic Statistics in Japan, 2013 [Routledge].

Figure. 4. The key policy tool driving energy efficiency investment has been the energy conservation legislation, which was initially passed in 1979 and modified in 1998, 2002, 2005, 2008, and 2013 to broaden the aim and improve the enforcement mechanism. In addition to focusing on certain emitting devices like trucks and refrigerators, the regulation also demands that companies create and execute energy-saving programmes for their vehicles, buildings, and industries. For instance, companies using more than 1,500 tonnes of oil equivalent toe annually must develop and implement a long-term plan to increase efficiency by 1% or more annually. The most recent revision, made in 2013, encourages a peak cut, which involves reducing electricity demand during peak times by using strategies like demand shifting, cogeneration, and storage battery installation.

The Top Runner Programme, which defines energy efficiency criteria for equipment based on the performance of the best technologies currently available top runners for each item, is established by legislation. Beginning in 1999 with criteria for 11 items, the programme gradually increased the coverage to 27 items Table 2. The program's emphasis has traditionally been on cars, office equipment, and household appliances, but the most recent revision in 2013 includes building materials as a tool for reducing the energy required by other equipment. The programme has had a remarkable effect; for instance, between 1995 and 2012, the energy usage of a conventional air conditioner dropped by 43.3%, and between 1993 and 2012, the average fuel economy of a passenger automobile increased by 58.5%.8

The unusual cooperation connection between companies and regulators has been a major factor in the success of the regulatory techniques under the energy conservation legislation in Japan. The law also earned support among the general people as a straightforward and transparent regulation.9 However, some companies argue that the universal reduction rule on commercial energy usage is unjust since it places an unfair burden on those that reduced their energy use early because the baseline energy consumption determines how difficult it is to reach the objective. The Top Runner Programme now covers around half of the energy used in the residential and commercial sectors, but excludes several appliances that consume a lot of energy, such washers, dryers, commercial refrigerators, and freezers. Size-based subcategories are subject to various requirements specified by the programme [7]–[9].

Table 2: Agency for Natural Resources and Energy, Comprehensive energy and environmental strategy research report, 2013.

Target Items in Top Runner Program

Start Year	Item		
FY 1999	Passenger vehicle	Freight truck	Air conditioner
	Television	Fluorescent lamp	Copying machine
	Magnetic disk unit	Video cassette recorder	Computer
	Freezer	Refrigerator	
FY 2002	Space heater	Gas stove	Electric toilet seat
	Petroleum water heater	Gas water heater	Vending machine
	Transformer		
FY 2006	Rice cooker	Microwave oven	DVD recorder
FY 2008	Router	Switching unit	
FY 2012	Printer	Multifunction printer	Electric water heater
FY 2013	Thermal insulator		

And other analysts have asserted that it would discourage people from decreasing their televisions, vehicles, or other possessions. These concerns show that even while the 36-year-old regulation has significantly improved Japan's efforts to save energy, there is still potential for improvement [10]–[12].

CONCLUSION

Energy efficiency and investment in renewable energy have increased as a result of a number of regulatory reforms brought on by the earthquake and related nuclear catastrophe in 2011. It is impossible to predict whether Japan as a whole will be able to achieve large reductions in GHG emissions given the uncertain future of nuclear energy, despite the importance of the policy tools discussed in this section. In order to contribute as much as possible to global efforts to cut emissions, Japan must aggressively share its innovations via export, licencing, and most significantly a technology transfer tool known as the Joint Crediting Mechanism JCM.In addition, the knowledge gained from Japan's policy execution, including the advantages, disadvantages, and areas for development, may be helpful for other countries in developing the best policies to promote investment in renewable energy and energy efficiency.

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CHAPTER 11

POLICIES FOR DISTRIBUTED ENERGY GENERATION

Dr. Nikhath Fathima, Assistant Professor
Department Of Chemistry, Presidency University, Bangalore, India
Email Id: nikhathfathima@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The economics and environmental effects of several energy-producing methods are examined in this abstract. It examines the economic effects of traditional fossil fuel-based energy sources as well as renewable energy alternatives, as well as their environmental and economic repercussions.The first section of the abstract discusses the negative effects that the usage of fossil fuels has on the ecosystem, such as air pollution, greenhouse gas emissions, water pollution, and habitat loss. It draws attention to the detrimental effects of these environmental impacts on ecosystems, climate change, and human health. The abstract also covers the financial consequences of resolving these environmental effects, such as medical fees and environmental cleanup projects.The abstract also explores the benefits that renewable energy sources like solar, wind, hydro, and biofuels have on the environment. It highlights how the use of renewable energy reduces carbon emissions, enhances air and water quality, and lessens reliance on natural resources.

KEYWORDS:

Costs, Damage, Effect, Energy, Environment.

INTRODUCTION

The global energy landscape now places a strong emphasis on the economics and environmental effects of energy production. Understanding the environmental effects and economic ramifications of various energy sources is essential as societies work to fulfil increasing energy needs while addressing climate change and environmental degradation. Setting the scenario, the introduction emphasises the importance of environmental effects in energy decision-making. It emphasises the need of considering all environmental effects, from habitat loss and climate change to air and water pollution. The introduction also emphasises how crucial it is to take into account the expenses incurred as a result of these consequences, both economically and in terms of the resilience of ecosystems and public health [1]–[3].The introduction also recognises the predominance of traditional fossil fuel-based energy sources in the generation of energy worldwide, including coal, oil, and natural gas. The well-established environmental issues linked to these sources are described, including greenhouse gas emissions, air pollution, water contamination, and ecosystem disturbance. The importance of tackling these environmental effects is emphasised in the beginning, not just for the sake of the earth but also for the long-term economic viability of society.

The abstract also looks at the financial gains from renewable energy, such as the creation of jobs, lower fuel prices, and future expansion of the clean energy market.it's crucial to take into account all of the costs involved in producing energy, including not just the up-front capital expenditures but also the costs of operation, upkeep, and environmental externalities. It emphasises the need for decision-makers in the policy, investment, and energy sectors to take these costs into account in order to make more accurate assessments of the economic feasibility and sustainability of various energy sources.The abstract also discusses the idea of the energy transition and the difficulties that come with switching from fossil fuel-based to renewable energy sources. It discusses the possible costs and advantages of this shift and emphasises how crucial it is for a sustainable and low-carbon energy future to have supporting policies, technology developments, and public participation.

Emphasizing how crucial it is to take into account both the economic and environmental effects of energy production. It emphasises the need of moving away from energy sources based on fossil fuels because of their serious negative effects on the environment and high prices. Societies may reduce environmental damage, encourage sustainable growth, and create a more economically and ecologically sound energy system by adopting renewable energy sources and putting supporting policies in place. The preface, in contrast, acknowledges the development and promise of renewable energy sources, including solar, wind, hydro, and bioenergy, in resolving the environmental issues associated with traditional energy production. It draws attention to the advantages of renewable energy, such as lower carbon emissions, better air quality, and less dependence on limited resources. The introduction also highlights how renewable energy technologies are becoming more and more attractive solutions for producing sustainable energy due to their declining prices and rising competitiveness.

The energy transition, which entails switching from fossil fuel-based energy systems to cleaner and more sustainable alternatives, is also explored in the introduction. It explores the difficulties and possibilities brought on by this transformation, as well as the need of encouraging laws, progressive technology, and financial investments in infrastructure for renewable energy sources. The potential economic advantages of the energy transition, including job creation, technical advancement, and increased energy security, are highlighted in the introduction.The introduction established the significance of taking into account the economic and environmental effects of energy generating. It emphasises the urgent need to address the negative effects that traditional energy sources have on the environment while seizing the opportunities that come with renewable energy alternatives. Policymakers, investors, and society at large can make decisions that support sustainable development, mitigate climate change, and ensure a more dependable and environmentally conscious energy future by having a thorough understanding of the environmental implications and economic dimensions of energy generation.

The effects of air pollution on human health, flora and animals, and materials are significant. Insofar as they are not reflected in the pricing of commodities, the damage costs are external costs, meaning they are incurred outside of the market. Taxes, tradable permits, and other environmental laws may all be used to internalise the external costs. To prevent any confusion regarding how much the damage costs have already been internalised, we will refer to them as damage costs in this instance.Thanks to numerous large initiatives to assess the external costs of energy in Europe ExternE 1995, 1998, 2005, 2008, as well as in the United States ORNL/RFF 1994, Rowe et al. 1995, Abt 2004, NRC 2010, there has been significant development in the study of damage costs since 1990. Key contributors to the ExternE project series provide an overview of the approach and the findings in this chapter.There are several significant applications for damage cost estimation.

1. Environmental regulations guidance e.g., determining the optimal level of the limit for the emission of a pollutant.
2. Determining the pollution tax's socially ideal rate.
3. Determining which technologies have the lowest societal costs for example, wind, nuclear, or coal for the generation of electricity?
4. Analysing the advantages of enhancing a current installation's ability to reduce pollution, such as a garbage incinerator.
5. Optimised power plant dispatching.
6. Green accounting, or making adjustments to the usual GD accounts for environmental impact.

DISCUSSION

Impact Pathway Analysis IPA

An impact pathway analysis IPA, which follows a pollutant from its source to the impacted receptors people, crops, forests, buildings, etc., is necessary to determine the costs of harm. As shown in Figure1, the main components of an IPA may be divided into the following categories.

1. Emission: Specification of the relevant technologies and pollutants, for example, kg of NOx per GWhe emitted by a power plant.

2. Dispersion: Calculation of increased pollutant concentrations in all affected regions, for example, incremental concentration of ozone, using models of atmospheric dispersion and chemistry for ozone formation due to NOx this step is also called environmental fate analysis, especially when it involves more complex pathways that pass through the food chain.

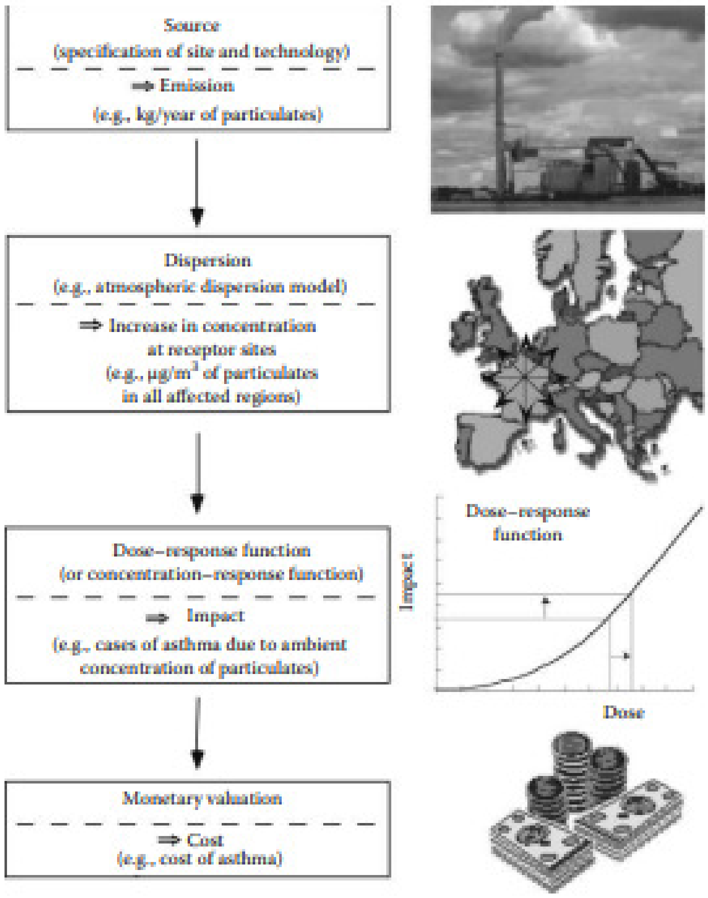

Figure 1: Impact pathway analysis IPA. Another term for doseresponse function is exposureresponse function ERF [Routledge].

3. Impact: Calculation of the dose from the increased concentration and calculation of impacts damage in physical units from this dose, using dose–response functions also known as exposureresponse functions [ERFs], for example, cases of asthma due to this increase in ozone.

4. Cost: Monetary valuation of these impacts, for example, multiplication by the cost of a case of asthmathe effects and expenses are totalled over all potential receptors. The project incorporates a multidisciplinary system study, including contributions from epidemiologists, ecologists, economists, and dispersion modellers. Figure. 2 illustrates the outcome of an IPA as the damage cost per kilogramme of pollutant released.

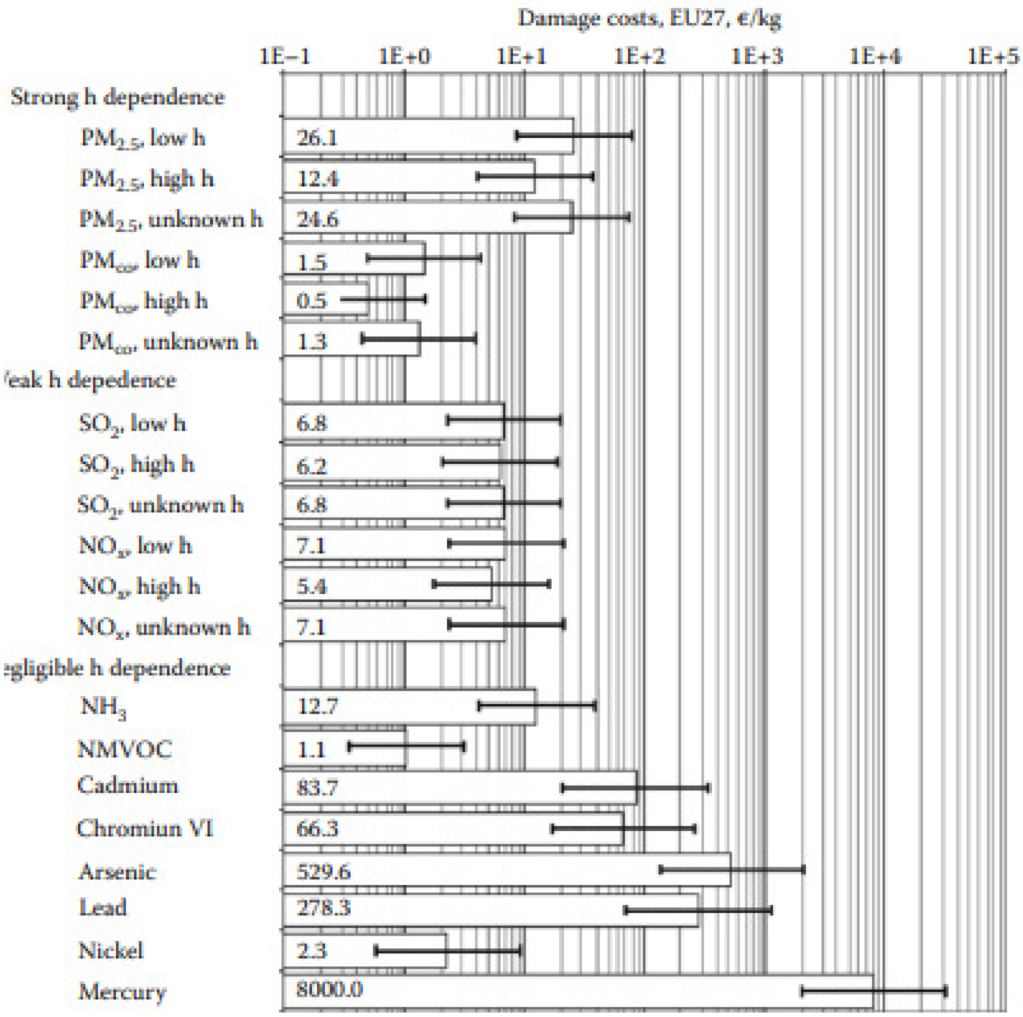

Figure 2: Typical damage costs in €2000/kg of pollutant for sources in the EU27, according to ExternE 2008 [Routledge].

Atmospheric Dispersion and Chemistry

The three main greenhouse gasesCO2, CH4, and N2Oremain in the atmosphere for long enough to mix evenly over the world. Both local and regional impacts are considerable for the majority of other air pollutants, in particular PM10, NOx, and SO2, for which atmospheric dispersion is large across distances of hundreds to thousands of kilometers. Therefore, to account for all substantial damages, a mix of local and regional dispersion models is required. Gaussian plume models may be used for the local range about 50 km from the source [4]–[6].

At the regional level, it is important to consider the chemical processes that turn primary pollutants i.e., those that are released into the air into secondary pollutants, such as the synthesis of sulphates from SO2. For the traditional air pollutants PM10, NOx, SO2, and O3, only the inhalation dosage is important; nevertheless, certain micropollutants toxic metals and persistent organic pollutants impact humans via food and drink. By Spadaro and Rabl 2004, a comparatively straightforward model for the movement of such contaminants through the food chain was created.These estimates generally show that the dosage received by ingesting may be around two orders of magnitude more than the dose received through inhalation. Even with the worst fuels, coal and heavy oil, the amounts of these micropollutants released by electric generating technologies are so negligible that they contribute only little to the overall cost of damage.

Exposure–Response Functions ERFs

The dose-response function, also known as the exposure-response function ERF, connects the physical effects of pollution on a receptor such as a population to the pollution exposure that affects this receptor. Harm can only be measured if the associated ERF is known. The most significant air pollutants, such as primary and secondary i.e., nitrates, sulphates particles, ozone, CO, SO2, NOx, benzene, dioxins, As, Cd, Cr, Hg, Ni, and Pb, are recognized to have the greatest effects on human health, building materials, and crops.

Monetary Valuation

The objective of valuing damages financially is to take into account all expenses, both market and nonmarket. For instance, the value of an asthma episode must take into account both the expense of medical care and the willingness-to-pay WTP to spare the sufferer any more pain. If a nonmarket good's WTP has been accurately calculated, it is equivalent to a price that is consistent with the prices paid for market items. Several approaches have been developed by economists to estimate nonmarket costs; contingent valuation CV is one of these tools that has grown in favour Mitchell and Carson 1989. Asking people how much they would be ready to spend on a certain commodity if they could purchase it is the fundamental concept behind a CV. Numerous CV studies have been conducted and may be used to estimate damage costs. It turns out that nonmarket goods, particularly the valuing of death, dominate the damage costs of air pollution. The so-called value of statistical life VSL is the single most crucial characteristic. People who believe economists attempt to gauge the worth of life typically respond negatively to this phrase. Life has an unbounded worth; to rescue a person in peril, no effort is spared. Actually, VSL is the readiness to pay to reduce the danger of an unidentified, early death. Value of prevented fatality VPF is a more appropriate phrase.

Health Impacts

Financially speaking, the expenses of damage are mostly driven by the health effects. Chronic mortality from particulate matter PM is the most significant cost, as determined by Pope et al. 2002 using data they collected. This term, chosen by analogy with acute and chronic morbidity impacts, denotes that the total or long-term effects of pollution on mortality have been taken into account, as opposed to acute mortality impacts, which are seen within a few days of exposure to pollution. The most significant contaminants and their effects on health. Primary pollutants are those that are released into the air, whereas secondary pollutants are produced in the environment when certain primary pollutants undergo chemical -transformation.For instance, SO2 is converted to sulphate aerosols, and ExternE, Abt 2004, and NRC 2010 have assumed that these have similar health effects to particulate matter PM.

Global Warming

It is difficult to calculate the cost of global warming since there are so many diverse effects in every nation that need to be taken into consideration. A further consideration is that one must predict how these effects and associated costs will change in the centuries and decades to come IPCC 2007. Along with scientific uncertainty, there are debatable ethical problems surrounding the estimation of mortality in developing nations where the majority of consequences would manifest themselves and the selection of the discount rate for intergenerational costs [7]–[9].The price per tonne of CO2 has been estimated in several research that have been published. Tol 2005 conducted a thorough analysis of cost studies related to climate change. He discovers that the distribution is highly right-skewed, with a median of $.,3 8/tCO2, a mean of $.25 4/tCO2, and an upper limit of the 95% confidence interval of $.95/tCO2, after combining the over 100 estimates for the marginal damage cost of CO2. According to Tol, the marginal damage cost is unlikely to surpass $,14/tCO2 and is probably much lower given the common assumptions of time discounting, equity weighting, and risk aversion. The Stern Review Stern et al. 2006, which was highly publicised, indicated a value of $85/tCO2*. This number is much lower. The relatively low intergenerational discount rate utilised by Stern et al., as opposed to the traditional social discount rate used in most other research, may be used to partially explain the disparity.

The growth rate of the economy and the so-called pure rate of time preference, which is essentially people's desire to spend now rather than in the future, make up the traditional social discount rate. We have demonstrated that any cost-benefit analysis of climate change mitigation options becomes inconsistent if the pure rate of time preference is included in the intergenerational discount rate because the funds assumed for future cost-benefit trade-offs won't exist. We think that the Stern Review's damage cost estimate is more accurate than estimates obtained using the conventional discount rate, particularly the value of 21 €/tCO eq 2 used in the current phase of ExternE 2008, because the Stern Review's discount rate is very close to taking the pure rate of time preference as zero [10], [11].

CONCLUSION

For coal, oil, and lignite, the damage costs are the highest. They would dramatically raise the market price of power if internalised by a pollution tax. Natural gas is far cleaner than coal, with damaging costs in the middle of the two. Nuclear has a low cost of damage. Even with the cost of catastrophic accidents included in, baseload still has a lower damage cost than wind with NGCC as a backup, even with a pessimistic evaluation based on historical data. In the case of fossil fuels, greenhouse gases, which are evaluated at 21 €/tCO eq 2, make up the majority of the damage cost. As stated in Section 13.2.6, we think that this is an underestimate and that the real cost is more in line with the Stern Review's 65 €/tCO eq 2 estimate Stern et al. 2006. That suggests a significantly higher cost for the fossil fuel networks in terms of harm. Energy recovery has significant advantages for waste treatment, particularly for waste incineration where it may significantly lower damage costs.According to Spadaro and Rabl 2008, there is a substantial amount of uncertainty around damage costs, about a factor of 3 either way. The reader can question the value of using them as a foundation for choices. The first response is that, even with analysis, threefold uncertainty is still preferable than infinite uncertainty. Second, even when there is ambiguity, the advantages are often either so much greater or so much lower than the costs that the decision's implications are obvious. Third, some of the ensuing judgements will err on the side of costs, while others will err on the side of benefits, assuming in the other instances the decisions are made without a major bias in favour of either costs or benefits. The effects of such unbiased inaccuracies were explored by Rabl et al. 2005, who came to the encouraging conclusion that even if damage costs are three times off, the additional societal cost is extremely small—less than 10%–20% in most circumstances.However, the additional social cost in comparison to the least social cost that would be incurred with complete information might be quite high without any awareness of the damage costs.

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CHAPTER 12

SIGNIFICANCE OF DISTRIBUTED GENERATION TECHNOLOGIES

Dr. Ranganatha Sudhakar, Assistant Professor
Department Of Chemistry, Presidency University, Bangalore, India
Email Id: ranganatha@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The notion of distributed generation DG technologies is examined in this abstract along with how they have impacted the current energy environment. An alternative to conventional centralized power generation, distributed generation DG is the production of energy from small-scale, decentralized sources that are positioned near the end customers.The abstract opens by emphasizing the growing role that DG technologies play in supplying society's rising need for energy. It talks about the benefits of DG, such as better integration of renewable energy sources and improved energy efficiency, dependability, and transmission losses. Due to these advantages, interest in and use of DG technologies has increased dramatically on a global scale.A variety of DG technologies are examined in the abstract, including solar photovoltaic PV systems, wind turbines, microturbines, fuel cells, small-scale hydro, and biomass systems, as well as others. Each technology's traits, advantages, and drawbacks are discussed, along with how well-suited each one is too certain uses and places in the world.the technical and practical elements of DG systems. It looks at grid connectivity, power quality, system control, and energy management challenges, with a focus on how crucial it is to make sure that everything is compatible and seamlessly integrates with the current energy infrastructure.

KEYWORDS:

Energy, Engine, Efficiency, Gas, Technologies.

INTRODUCTION

Since it creates energy precisely where it will be consumed, distributed generation (DG) is a novel and effective approach to both generate and transmit electricity. DG is defined as a source of electric power linked to a distribution network or a client site. Power generating systems may now be constructed in smaller sizes with great efficiency, low cost, and minimum environmental effect thanks to technology advancements. DG may be used to complement the grid-delivered energy produced by massive power facilities. However, DG may also be utilized at a customer's location to manage energy service demands or assist in meeting increasingly stringent power quality (PQ) and reliability criteria. Transmission and distribution (T&D) benefits from DG include shorter and less extensive outages, lower reserve margin requirements, improved PQ, reduced line losses, reactive power control, mitigation of T&D congestion, and increased system capacity with reduced T&D investment. DG also has the potential to improve site-specific reliability. Because of its modular technologies' ability to provide geographic flexibility, redundancy, and quick lead times, DG also offers cost advantages. Utilising DG technology for standby power applications, combined heat and power (CHP) cogeneration, and peak shaving may all have positive economic effects. A lot of DG technologies also assist the environment by using less land, emitting fewer or no greenhouse gases, and costing less to comply with environmental regulations.

Firm and intermittent electricity are two major categories under which DG technologies may be categorised. The technologies that allow power management of DG units that can be controlled in accordance with load needs are known as firm power technologies. Firm DG plants may be used as a backup, operating solely when the grid is down, during peak demand when energy is more costly, running constantly, or being dispatched to best meet the fluctuating load. Because they have a random generating nature, intermittent power methods do not enable management of the generated energy. These technologies, which only generate energy when the wind or sun are present, include wind power and solar power as examples. These technologies may be placed in combination with energy storage, which allows the combined system to regulate the given energy by filtering the energy production volatility. Traditional technologies including internal combustion engines, gas turbines, and in big installations steam turbines and mixed cycle turbines may be employed in DG applications. Other types of technology may also be used, such as fuel cells, solar, wind, or geothermal energy, microturbines, Stirling engines, or renewable energies (Figure .1)[1]–[3].

DISCUSSION

Internal Combustion Engines

One of the first methods to generate energy from fossil fuels was ICEs. ICEs, which were created more than a century ago, are the most widely used DG technology. They come in sizes ranging from a few kW for domestic backup power to 10 MW generators (Figure. 1). An ICE turns an AC electric generator using the crankshaft's rotation by transforming the linear motion of a piston within a cylinder into rotational motion using the thermal energy of fuel combustion. Due to the pistons' linear reciprocating action, ICEs are also known as reciprocating engines. Petrol, natural gas, diesel, heavy oil, biodiesel, and biogas are all acceptable fuels for ICEs [4]–[6].The two primary ICE types used in DG applications areEngines that utilise an electrical spark that is introduced into the cylinder, such as the Otto cycle. Nikolaus August Otto created this explosive engine, also known as ignition by spark, using the Otto cycle in 1867. In these engines, quick-burning fuels like petrol and natural gas are often employed. Additionally, biofuels like biogas and alcohols may be utilised.Diesel cycle engines using compression ignition, where compression starts the combustion. Rudolph Diesel created this engine in 1892, and it works best with fuels that burn slowly, like diesel, by compressing the fuel-air combination within the piston cylinder to a temperature where it spontaneously ignites. Vegetable oils and biofuels like biodiesel may also be utilised.

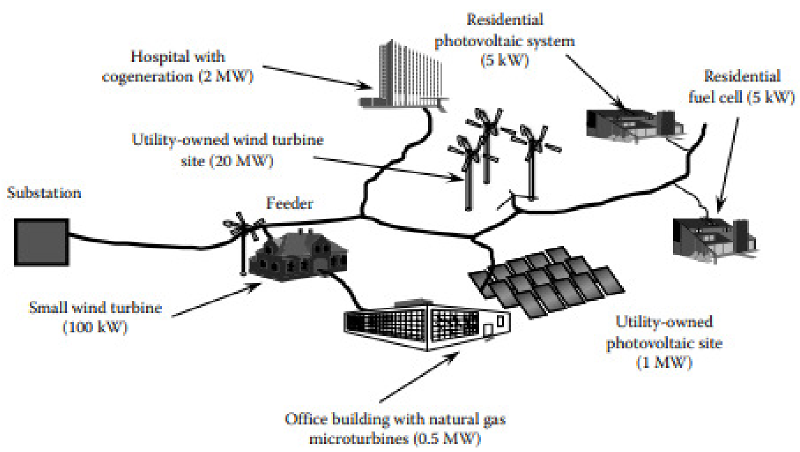

Figure 1: Power system with multiple energy sources [Routledge].

The efficiency of DG engines ranges from 25% to 45%. Diesel engines often outperform Otto engines in terms of efficiency because they run at greater compression ratios. In big engines more than 1 MW, engine manufacturers aim for decreased fuel usage and shaft efficiencies of up to 50%-55%. Otto engines powered by natural gas are anticipated to achieve diesel-engine efficiency levels. Commonly referred to as gensets, ICE generators for distributed power applications may range in capacity from around 5 kW to over 10 MW. Gensets are often utilised in residential, commercial, and industrial applications as a backup power source. The method may be used in conjunction with a 1–5-minute UPS uninterruptible power supply Provide uninterrupted electricity during a utility outage. Large ICE generators may also be used for base load generation, grid support, or peak shaving. The start-up periods for ICE generators range from 0.5 to 15 minutes, and they have a high tolerance for abrupt pauses and starts. The smaller engines, which come in capacities as low as a few kW, are designed for widely scattered applications, such individual residences and microbusinesses that must deal with power interruptions.

Gas Turbines

In the recent decades, gas turbines have been a widely utilised method for producing power. At the close of the nineteenth century, the first research of using gas to actuate turbines were initiated. But the first effective gas turbines began to run around 1930. An air-turbineconsists of a generator linked to a turbine, a combustion chamber, and a compressor. All the components of the turbines with a single axis rotate at the same speed and are connected by a continuous axis. When fluctuations in the turbine speed are unpredictable, this kind of construction is used. With additional flexibility in operating speed, the rotor that powers the generator may be mechanically separated from the rotor powered by gas combustion.In contrast to ICEs, gas turbines operate continuously rather than repeatedly performing a series of separate tasks. However, the procedure may be seen as a series of four steps, much like the ICEs' four strokes Figure. 2.

1. The air is compressed in the combustion chamber, raising the temperature and pressure to 300 °C and up to 10 bar, respectively, with the assistance of a compressor.
2. The burning fuel is combined with compressed air to reach temperatures of 1250 °C. To increase fuel economy and reduce pollutants, this combustion takes place under carefully monitored circumstances.
3. The turbine, which transforms the air energy into mechanical energy, is fed high-pressure air. A generator uses the remaining energy, some of which is sent to the compressor and some of which is utilised to produce electricity.
4. As stated in the paragraph below, the exhaust gases are either discharged into the environment or they may be employed to create process heat or to improve the amount of power produced.

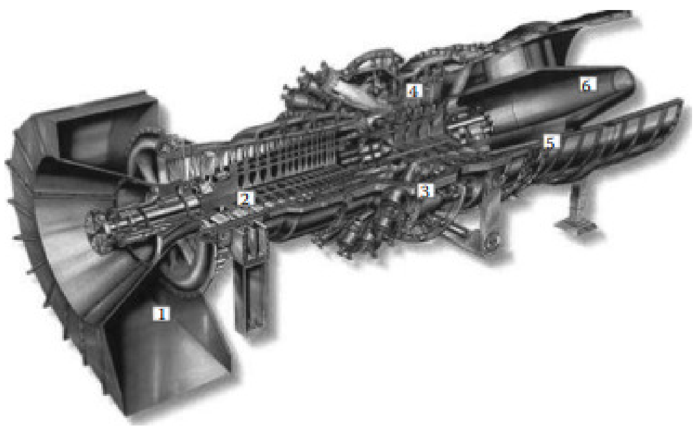

Figure 2: Represting the Combustion turbine (1) Air intake section; (2) compression section; (3) combustion section; (4) turbine section; (5) exhaust section; and (6) exhaust diffuser [Routledge].

Since gas turbines generate a lot of exhaust gases at high temperatures, it is possible to use their energy to generate steam for industrial operations or electricity via combined cycles. An integrated cycle in the gas turbine, which is employed as the first cycle, exhaust gases are converted into steam by a heat recovery steam generator. The steam is then utilized to power a steam turbine, raising the system's overall electrical efficiency to levels as high as 60%. In the Cheng cycle, the steam is fed superheated into the gas turbine's expansion chamber. The combustion gases and steam are combined in the expansion chamber, where the steam expands and generates more work, improving electrical efficiency (Figure. 2).

Synchronous generators are usually often used to convert mechanical energy into electrical energy. In DG applications, the turbines' rotational speed may be greater than the generator's synchronous speed, necessitating the use of a gearbox and lowering conversion efficiency by around 3%. In order to start the turbine, the generator also functions as an auxiliary engine. The fuel that allows for the highest efficiency to be attained in gas turbines is natural gas. However, alternative fuels such fuel oil, diesel, propane, J-5, kerosene, methane, and biogas may also be used with gas turbines. The use of heavy oil reduces the turbine's power and efficiency by 5%–8%. Since heavy oil is less costly than other fuels, it may lower the cost of producing energy, but the pollutants are greater. Three different kinds of generators correlate to the vast power range of gas turbine generators:

1. Microturbines (20–500 kW).
2. Medium turbines (500–10,000 kW).
3. Large turbines (more than 10 MW).

The gas turbines used by these generators have the same operating principles but various configurations and performance characteristics. Large turbines are not often regarded as DG. The basic properties of gas turbines.

Microturbines

Small combustion turbines called microturbines may generate 25–500 kW of electricity. Microturbines were developed using the same turbocharger and turbine technology used in big vehicles and aircraft auxiliary power units. The vast majority of gas turbine generators, those created for central station utility purposes, are not specifically developed for the generation of electric power. A competitive technology, microturbines have experienced tremendous improvement that allows for the generation of energy with high quality and dependability, minimal greenhouse gas emissions, and reasonable prices. With a few changes to the system layout, microturbines operate on the same principles as gas turbines. One of the breakthroughs in these turbines is the use of a special shaft on which the compressor, turbine, and generator are integrated (Figure.3). The rotor of these turbines revolves at a very high speed (up to 100,000 rpm).The gas turbines used by these generators have the same operating principles but various configurations and performance characteristics. Large turbines are not often regarded as DG. The basic properties of gas turbines.

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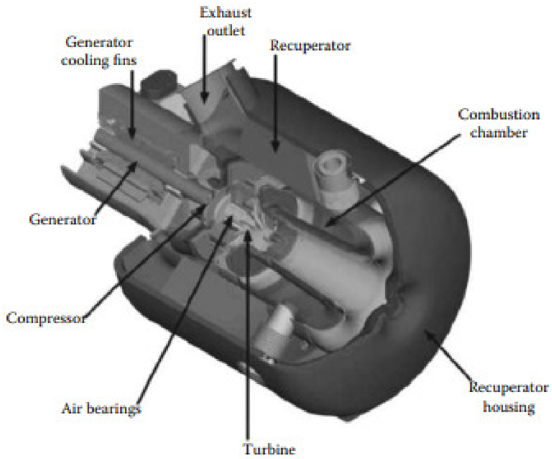

Figure 3: Represting the Microturbine instruments [Routledge].

These methods do away with the gearbox, which lowers the price and improves durability, but at the expense of overall efficiency. Another innovation is the use of air bearings, which do not need fluid for lubrication or cooling since the only element employed is air. The air may be continually renewed and will never be polluted by combustion byproducts or wasted materials. The heat recovery feature of microturbines, which uses the thermal energy of the exhaust gases' high temperatures to pre-heat the compressor's air supply, is one of its important features. A permanent magnet AC generator with a low inertia rotor revolving at turbine speed transforms mechanical energy into electrical energy. The AC output has a frequency of around 2 kHz due to the fast rotor speed. The microturbine voltage output has to be linked to an AC-DC-AC converter in order to connect the generator to a 50 or 60-Hz grid. This converter uses an inverter system synchronized with the 50 or 60 Hz supply to rectify, filter, and convert the microturbine voltage output to an AC voltage. Additionally, a number of fuels including natural gas (at high or low pressure), propane, diesel, gasoline, biogas (methane), or kerosene may be used to power microturbines. Microturbines have an electrical efficiency that ranges from 20% to 35% when heat recovery is used. This figure may drop below 15% if there is no heat recovery. The overall efficiency of cogeneration systems may approach 85%. Two broad kinds of microturbine generators may be distinguished:

1. Microturbines with heat recovery systems use the heat from exhaust gases to raise the temperature of the air stream that fuels combustion and enhance efficiency. In a cogeneration setup, further exhaust heat recovery is possible.
2. Simple cycle or no heat recovery microturbines offer lower efficiency but cheaper initial costs.

Other applications of microturbine technology include the following:

1. The primary means of power conversion in vehicles including buses, lorries, helicopters, and so on. Microturbines are appealing to the automotive industry as a fuel-based energy source that is both compact and effective for hybrid electric cars.
2. Applications for cogeneration, peak shaving, PQ, and standby power. A few different Restaurants, hotels, small offices, retail shops, and many other small commercial building businesses are excellent candidates for microturbines.

3. Making use of by-products from oil processing, gas transportation, petroleum production, and industrial waste management to maximise the use of natural gas, related gas, biogas, landfill gas, and other gases

The development of microturbines is ongoing in a variety of areas:

1. Heat recovery/cogeneration.
2. Use of waste heat for absorption cooling.
3. Increase of the efficiency.
4. Fuel flexibility.
5. Vehicles.
6. Hybrid systems e.g., fuel cell/microturbine, flywheel/microturbine.

Stirling Engines

Robert Stirling developed a family of reciprocating piston engines known as Stirling engines (Figure.4), which are categorized as external combustion engines and were first used in 1816. They make up a 40% theoretically efficient thermodynamic machine for the direct conversion of heat into mechanical work. Before the turn of the twentieth century, Stirling engines were often used. Stirling engines fell out of favor as steam engines advanced and the rival compact Otto cycle engine was developed. Stirling engines have regained popularity because of advancements in DG and concentrated solar thermal power. The process is reversible, meaning that mechanical energy can be created by providing thermal energy and thermal energy can be produced by supplying mechanical energy.

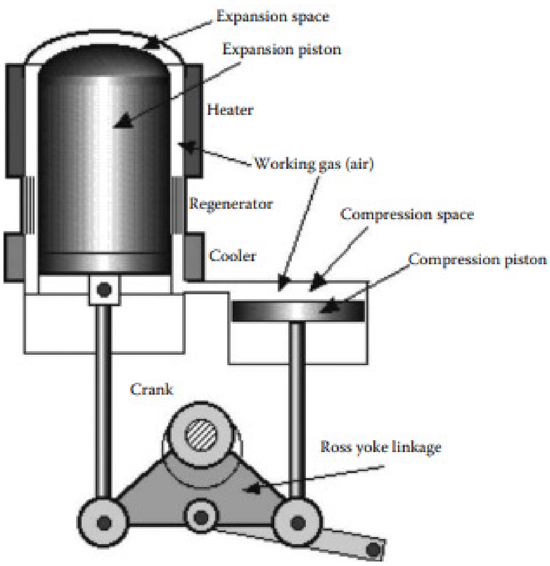

Figure 4: Represting the Stirling engine [Routledge].

Any heat source, whether fossil or renewable, may be used to run an engine, and some models can even do cogeneration. Compared to internal combustion Otto and diesel engines, which produce occasional explosions of fuel-air combinations, Stirling engines have a continuous combustion process that is simpler to optimize and manage and produces fewer pollutants. Stirling engines are typically produced in small numbers for specialized purposes and range in size from 1 to 25 kW. The electrical efficiency of large 25 kW Stirling engines is around 30%. Over the last 20 years, Stirling engines have mostly struggled with issues related to long-term dependability and durability as well as cost. Stirling engines are perfect for generating solar thermal energy. The highest temperature of the solar unit is not practically constrained by its working fluid when a gas is used. The only factor limiting the maximum temperature would be the materials utilized to build it. Developments of the Stirling engine have been focused on a variety of applications, including

1. **Small Scale:** Residential or portable power generation.
2. Solar dish applications: Heat reflected from concentrating dish reflectors is used to drive the Stirling engine.
3. **Vehicles:** Auto manufacturers have investigated utilizing Stirling engines in vehicles to improve fuel economy.
4. **Refrigeration:** Stirling engines are being developed to provide cooling for applications such as microprocessors and superconductors.
5. **Aircraft:** Stirling engines could provide a quieter-operating engine for small aircraft.
6. **Space:** Power generation units aboard spaceships and vehicles

Fuel Cells

To offer superior PQ for high loads, hundreds of phosphoric acid fuel cells (PAFCs) demonstration and test facilities, most of which have 200 kW capacity, were developed from the middle of the 1990s to the beginning of the 21st century. About 200°C is the working temperature, which is ideal for cogeneration applications in structures and small industrial facilities. They lack the ability to self-reform and need expensive platinum as their catalyst. The efficiency and peak production capacity of PAFCs declines by roughly 2% annually. The creation of hybrid systems is one of the most encouraging advancements. Solid oxide fuel cells (SOFCs) have high efficiency, especially when operating in a combined cycle, where they may outperform traditional mixed-cycle gas turbine facilities. High total efficiencies also come from part-load operations with high efficiencies.

High-temperature fuel cells, such SOFCs and molten-carbonate fuel cells (MCFCs), are best suited for uses in industrial heat-power cogeneration and public electricity supply. Both methods allow a variety of fuels to be used. Such fuel cell systems compete with gas turbines and motor cogeneration facilities in the lower rating range and combined gas and steam turbine power plants in the higher rating range. When compared to fuel cell facilities, conventional plants clearly have the edge in terms of real-world experience and relatively inexpensive capital expenditures. When compared to traditional production, high-temperature fuel cells are expected to grow in popularity since they use fewer specified primary fuels and emit fewer specific pollutants. This latter aspect is a significant benefit for DG applications in urban settings.

Solar Photovoltaic

Solar cells or photovoltaic (PV) cells transform light from the sun directly into energy. PV technology has a variety of uses, including:

1. Off grid/remote.
2. Grid attached residential and commercial buildings.
3. Remote communication systems.
4. Central power plants (above 1 MW).

PV has traditionally been utilised in isolated locations without access to the grid; these systems, known as standalone power systems, store energy in batteries for use when the sun isn't shining. Where the demand is modest and the location is too difficult for electric companies to service, PV-generated electricity is less costly than traditional power.

However, solar electricity is currently being used more often in urban areas as a result of regulatory measures to support PV production and the falling prices of PV panels. In this case, the grid receives either the extra power or all of the produced electricity. Solar systems that are linked to the grid are these. The widespread commercialization of distributed PV systems that provide power at the point of consumption has occurred. PV power systems for individual buildings are the most important of these dispersed applications.

Figure 5: Building-integrated photovoltaics in a façade and in a roof [Routledge].

The PV components essentially constitute a structural component of the structure, often acting as the outer weather skin or façade. PV experts and creative designers are increasingly looking for novel methods to incorporate solar power into their work across Europe, Japan, and the United States. PV modules are incorporated into the building envelope, such as the roof or the façade, to create a building-integrated photovoltaics (BIPV) system (Figure.5). BIPV systems may save material and energy expenses by acting as a power generator and building envelope at the same time. PVs may be included in a wide variety of building envelope assemblies, including:

1. Incorporated into the façade of a building, complementing or replacing traditional glass
2. Incorporated in the external layers of the wall of a building façade
3. Use in roofing systems providing a direct replacement for different types of roofing material
4. Incorporated in skylight systems in which part of the solar light is transmitted to the inside of the building and the other part is converted into electricity

Of the clean distributed power technologies, PV is the most flexible and operationally straightforward, and it offers advantages such as the capacity to provide electricity during summer peak hours, benefits from decreased distribution congestion, and advantages related to the environment and fuel price risk [7]–[9].

Wind Power

During the energy crisis and the ensuing hunt for alternative renewable energy sources in the 1970s, wind energy emerged as a key study subject. Over the last 25 years, there have been notable advancements in modern wind turbine technology. Currently, wind power A mature, sustainable, and practical alternative is available in technology. Individual wind turbines are often clustered into wind farms with many turbines. MW sized wind farms are common; they may be one to tens of MW in size.

Figure 6: Represting the Building-integrated wind power [Routledge].

May be directly linked to utility distribution networks, and bigger wind farms often have transmission lines connecting to them. Typically, distributed generation refers to both small-scale wind farms and individual units. There are available residential systems (1–15 kW) (Figure.6). Due to the limited area and slower wind speeds in urban settings, they are inefficient and therefore not ideal for suburban or urban residences on tiny lots. Single compact turbines with power outputs under 50 kW are also available and utilized for water pumping or in telecommunications facilities. The most significant DG technologies are outlined in Figure .7, which also provides typical characteristics related to each technology [10]–[12].

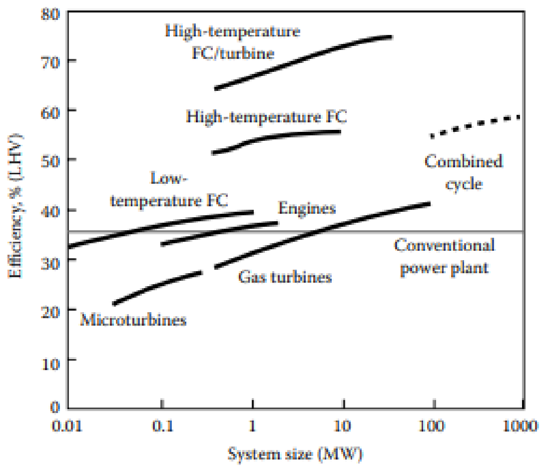

Figure 7: DG technologies comparative efficiency range [Routledge].

CONCLUSION

Utilizing DG technology makes it possible to integrate traditional central power plants with scattered DG fossil fuel-based production and dispersed DG renewable generation to create a power system with different energy sources. It is projected that DG expansion and its widespread deployment might increase dependability, improve supply security, reduce power prices, and to reducing the negative effects on the environment.Solar panels and combined heat and power are examples of distributed generation technologies that create energy close to where it will be utilized.

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CHAPTER 13

INTEGRATION OF DISTRIBUTED GENERATION AND SMART GRIDS

Mr. Naveen Kumar, Assistant Professor
Department Of Chemistry, Presidency University, Bangalore, India
Email Id: naveenkumarj@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The combination of distributed generation DG and smart grids are examined in this abstract as a game-changing strategy for modernizing the electrical power system. While smart grids include cutting-edge technology and communication systems that allow efficient and dependable power transmission, distributed generation refers to the production of electricity from small-scale, decentralized sources placed near the end consumers. opens by noting the growing use of DG technologies and the need of integrating them seamlessly into the current electricity infrastructure. It highlights the benefits of DG, such as higher use of renewable energy sources, better energy efficiency, fewer transmission losses, and improved energy dependability. The advantages of smart grids include real-time monitoring, automated control, demand response, and improved grid stability The technological details of merging DG and smart grids are explored in the abstract. With regard to grid connections, power quality management, voltage regulation, and control methods, it analyses the difficulties and possibilities that may arise. It emphasizes the significance of cutting-edge sensing, communication, and control technology for effective DG integration into the grid and grid operation optimization. how information and communication technology ICT may help with the integration of distributed generation and smart grids

KEYWORDS:

Distribution, Grid, Power, Systems, Technology.

INTRODUCTION

In order to provide efficient grid monitoring, load balancing, and coordination of distributed energy resources, it emphasizes the significance of data management, analytics, and decision-making algorithms. Additionally, the abstract looks at cybersecurity issues related to the use of smart grid technology. The economic and environmental effects of integrating DG and smart grids are also taken into account in the abstract. It talks about the potential cost reductions brought on by lower expenditures on transmission and distribution infrastructure, improved energy use, and renewable energy resource exploitation. The summary emphasizes the advantages for the environment of decreased greenhouse gas emissions and increased grid resilience brought about by DG and smart grid integration. the legislative and policy frameworks required to facilitate the integration of distributed generation and smart grids.

It examines the need for market incentives, tariff arrangements, and standards that promote the adoption of DG technology and makes it easier for distributed generators, customers, and the grid to work together seamlessly. the modernization of the electrical power system's revolutionary potential of combining DG and smart grids. Societies may create an energy infrastructure that is more effective, dependable, and sustainable by integrating decentralized power production with cutting-edge grid technology. The abstract emphasizes the importance of governmental support, stakeholder engagement, and technology improvements in achieving the full potential of DG and smart grid integration for the energy transition. One of the biggest obstacles to the installation of DG technologies is the possible effect that connecting a distributed power system to the electrical grid might have on the grid's dependability and safety. It seems to sense that electric utilities have traditionally given their electrical systems' dependability and safety a top priority. Utilities have seen distributed generators DG as a danger when faced with the interconnection of possibly many dispersed generators. This has caused some utilities to impose unduly cautious limitations on interconnected systems, adding expenses that can render an installation unprofitable. Several methods might mitigate negative network effects and enable DG connectivity, but they could be project-specific, costly, and have a negative influence on project profitability [1]–[3].The functioning of distribution networks is substantially changed by the connection of DG, with modifications and effects including Table: 1

1. Voltage fluctuations.
2. Increased fault levels.
3. Degraded protection.
4. Bidirectional power flow.
5. Altered transient stability.

Several conditions must be met in order to lessen the influence on the electrical system. Equipment that stops electricity from being sent to the grid while the grid is down is often required.Several conditions must be met in order to lessen the influence on the electrical system. Equipment that stops electricity from being sent to the grid while the grid is down is often required (Figure.1).

	Internal Combustion Engines	Gas Turbines	Microturbines	Stirling Engine	Fuel Cell	Photovoltaic	Wind Power
Power range (kW)	5–10,000	500–250,000	30–1000	1–25	1–10,000	0.07–1000	0.3–5000
Electric efficiency (%) (LHV)	25–45	25–45	20–35	12–30	30–70	5–15	25–40
Efficiency with partial load	Reasonable until 35%–40% of the rated load	Reasonable until 40% of the rated load	Bad below 40% of the rated load	(a)	Good/ Reasonable until 35%–40% of the rated load	(a)	(a)
Load following capacity	Very good	Good	Reasonable/ low (b)	(a)	Very good	(a)	(a)
Start time	10 s–15 min	2 min–1 h	60 s	(a)	(a)	NA	(a)
Availability (%)	90–98	90–98	90–98	90–98	90–95	5–25 (c)	10–40 (c)
Interval between the maintenance stops (×1000 h)	0.5–2	30	5–8	(a)	10–40	NA	4
Useful lifetime (years)	15–20	20–25	10	15–20	20	20–30	20
Fuel flexibility	Good	Good	Good	Excellent	Good	NA	NA
Noise	High	Moderate to high	Moderate	Low	Low	NA	Moderate
Commercial availability	High	High	Moderate	Very low	Low	High	High
Acquisition costs (€/kW)	300–900	300–1,000	900–1,250	2,000–50,000	3,000–4,000	2,250–3,500	1,350–7,000

Figure 1:Represting the DG Technologies Characterization [Research Gate.Net].

Is de-energized, manual disconnects, and PQ requirements such as restrictions on how much flicker, harmonic distortion, and other sorts of waveform disturbance may be produced by the linked system. Systems may also need to include an isolation transformer for the system, liability insurance, and the capacity to shut down automatically in the case of an electrical failure. Because they are so close to the interconnection requirements for central power plants, the interconnection requirements for big DG installations (>10 MW) are widely known. Smaller installations have more challenging interconnection requirements since the utility must weigh the need for a secure interconnection against the plant owner's need for a quick and easy connecting design to start the DG. With project scale, interconnection complexity often rises and is technology-dependent.There are three key benefits of grid interconnection:

1. A growing number of tiny generators are looking to connect to the grid.

2. Advocates for distributed generation (DG) claim that the present interconnection procedures and criteria are unfairly driving up prices and pricing DG out of the market.

3. Distribution businesses fear that DG would unjustly drive up their prices and have a detrimental influence on the grid's safety and dependability.

DISCUSSION

Power Distribution

The distribution system distributes power at medium and low voltages from the substation to the majority of customers, while the transmission system transports bulk power at high voltages from power plants to utility-owned substations and a few very large customers.Radial or networked utility distribution systems are two different types.In order to maximize economy and dependability, complexity and cost are trade-offs in power system design. As a consequence, the transmission level of the power delivery system has a networked aspect, whereas the distribution level has a more radical one.In a system known as radial distribution, the power lines are extended from a central substation to the customer loads that exit at discrete points along the line (Figure .2).Power can only go in one way in these distribution systems: from the substation.

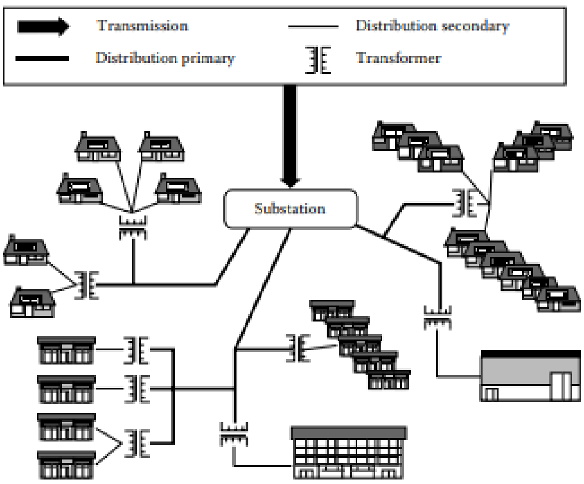

Figure 2: Represting the Radial distribution system [Routledge].

a load. While there may be many radial distribution lines coming from a substation, normally only one line is used to supply each load. All customer loads on that line will likely be impacted if there is a problem with that feed or substation. Because it lacks redundancy, a radial system often provides a less dependable power supply than a networked system. The radial system and its protective apparatus, however, are less sophisticated and more affordable than the networked system. The distribution of loads within the system will change as a result of the addition of an energy source like DG, and if it is substantial compared to the load, it may even result in reverse power flow. The protective mechanism often has to be modified when a sufficiently significant power source is introduced into the radial distribution.A system known as networked distribution consists of a grid of several independent lines that are connected to a common bus on the secondary side of the transformers so that customer loads may tap off various independent feeds. These might come from distinct lines coming from a single substation or from separate substations. Shown in Figure. 3.

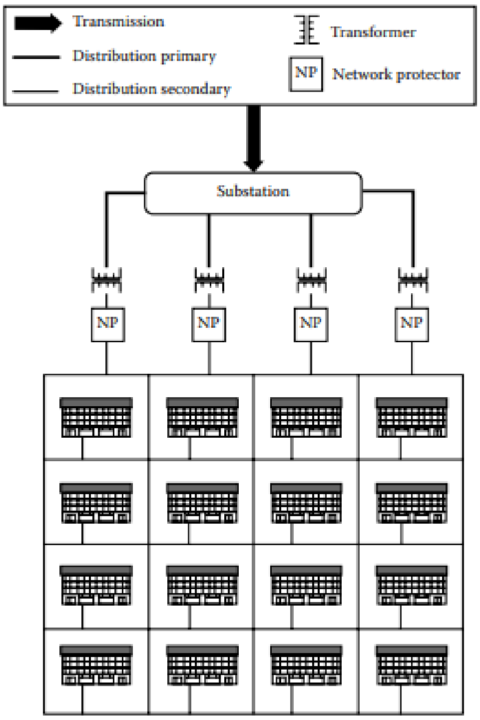

Figure 3: Represting the Networked distribution system [Routledge].

Having more than one power source available for loads gives the networked system dependability benefits over the radial system. This multipath architecture is sometimes known as a looped system. In order to safeguard the grid, these systems include network protectors, which swiftly isolate problems and move client loads to the remaining feeds. Utilities are understandably hesitant to permit the connectivity of anything they believe would jeopardize the reliability or safety of this system. Due to the additional intelligence required for dependable, efficient protection, system protection in a networked distribution system is more complicated and costly than in a radial distribution system. The networked system can handle reverse power flow since it is particularly designed to transmit energy from numerous transformers to loads.

Types of Grid Connections

The DG unit's electrical connection to the power system outside the installation site is made via the electric power system (EPS) interface. The interface arrangement may vary from a complicated parallel connectivity depending on the use and operation of the DG unit to being nonexistent if the DG unit is operated in isolation (Figure. 4). The option of joining with the local grid may not be feasible in distant applications owing to the high expenses of the power grid extension to the consumption location. In these scenarios, DG units take on the unique role of an affordable energy supply method. In this setup, the DG unit totally isolates all loads from the grid to provide electricity, leaving the utility without any backup or supplementary power. The owner of a DG unit may choose from a variety of interconnection options in applications that are close to the grid. Depending on the DG unit's use and mode of operation, the

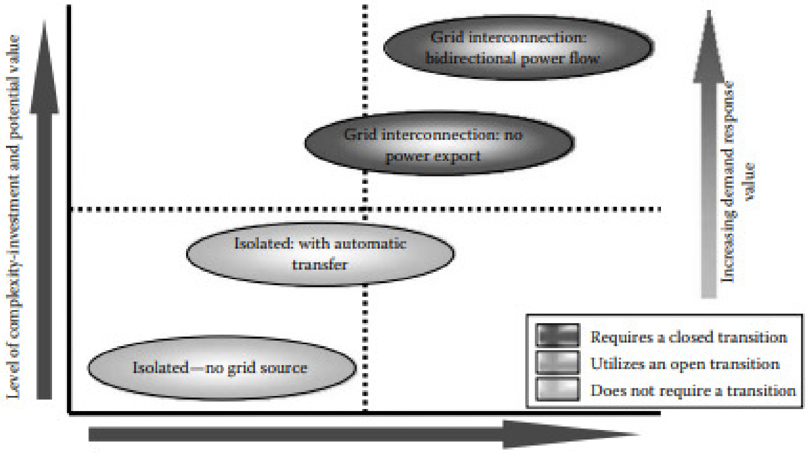

Figure 4: Representing the Interface complexity vs. interaction [Routledge].

If the DG is running separately from the grid, the connection system with the grid may represent a complicated parallel interconnection or it may not exist at all. The amount of contact between the DG unit and the distribution grid that is necessary increases the complexity of the interconnection systems. When linked to the utility grid, DG systems are the most economical and efficient for the majority of clients. Interconnected with the grid simply implies that the facility receives electricity from both the grid and the DG system at the same time. Paralleled systems provide increased dependability since the grid can handle the whole electrical demand while the DG system is offline for repair, and vice versa. In the event of a grid failure, DG systems may be created to keep a facility operational without interruption. Grid-interconnected systems may also be scaled down to handle a customer's base load rather than peak demand. The lower base load system is more affordable, operates closer to its rated capacity, and uses less fuel overall as a result. Grid interconnection may have either a parallel or roll-over form. The grid and the DG system are linked via parallel operation, and both are connected to the load. Only one source is linked to the load during the roll-over procedure, despite the fact that both sources are coupled.A typical connectivity system consists of three different types of hardware.

1. Control equipment for regulating the output of the DG

2. A switch and circuit breaker (including a visible open) to isolate the DG unit

3. Protective relaying mechanisms to monitor system conditions and prevent dangerous operating conditions

Isolated Operation

The DG units became the only affordable source of energy in distant applications. In this design, the utility receives no backup or supplementary power from the DG unit, which totally isolates all loads from the grid (Figure. 5). Additionally, locations that are typically linked to the grid but need continuous supply in the case of an outage are capable of operating in isolation. Some generating facilities, like an emergency hospital generator, may provide all or part of the customer's load while they are not connected to the grid.Since the generator does not run concurrently with the utility, there is no contact with the utility's distribution system during isolated operation.

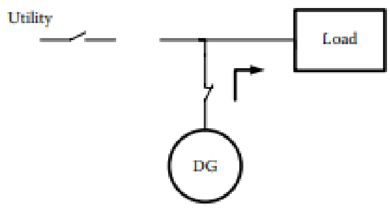

Figure 5: Represting the Isolated operation [Routledge].

When systems are separated, the generator is sized for a specific load that is always powered from the generator and never from the utility. There are two ways of transferring load to isolated operation:

1. A break-before-make transfer switch also known as open transition switching disconnects the load from the utility prior to making the new connection with the on-site electric generating facility

2. A momentary-parallelor closed transition switch, a control system starts the customer's generator and parallels it with the utility's distribution system, quickly ramps the generator output power to meet the customer's load demand and then disconnects the load from the utility

Advantages of Grid Interconnection

The efficiency, dependability, and sustainability of the electrical power system are all improved through grid connectivity of distributed generation (DG) systems. Among the principal benefits are:

1. **Renewable Energy Integration:** Grid interconnection enables the seamless integration of renewable energy sources, such as solar and wind, into the existing power grid. DG systems, especially those based on renewable sources, can contribute to a cleaner and more sustainable energy mix, reducing reliance on fossil fuels and lowering greenhouse gas emissions.
2. **Grid Support and Reliability:** DG systems connected to the grid can provide support and enhance the overall reliability of the electricity supply. During periods of high demand or grid outages, DG systems can supply additional power to support the grid, ensuring continuous electricity supply to consumers. This enhances grid resilience and reduces the risk of blackouts or disruptions.
3. **Energy Efficiency and Loss Reduction**: Grid interconnection allows for the efficient utilization of energy resources. DG systems located closer to the end-users reduce transmission and distribution losses that occur when electricity is transmitted over long distances. By generating electricity near the point of consumption, grid interconnection improves energy efficiency and reduces wastage.
4. **Voltage Regulation and Power Quality:** DG systems connected to the grid can help regulate voltage levels and improve power quality. By injecting power into the grid when needed, DG systems can compensate for voltage drops and fluctuations, ensuring a stable and reliable electricity supply to consumers. This is particularly beneficial in areas with weak grid infrastructure.
5. **Distributed Energy Resource Optimization:** Grid interconnection enables the coordination and optimization of distributed energy resources. By aggregating and controlling multiple DG systems, grid operators can effectively manage and balance the generation and consumption of electricity across the grid. This facilitates the integration of diverse energy sources and enhances the overall flexibility of the system.

6. **Economic Benefits and Cost Savings:** Grid interconnection of DG systems can lead to economic benefits and cost savings. DG systems, particularly those based on renewable energy, can help reduce fuel costs and mitigate the risks associated with volatile fuel prices. Additionally, DG systems can provide opportunities for energy producers to participate in electricity markets, potentially generating revenue through feed-in tariffs or selling excess power back to the grid.
7. **Grid Decentralization and Resilience:** Grid interconnection supports the decentralization of power generation, reducing dependence on centralized power plants. This enhances the overall resilience of the grid by diversifying energy sources and reducing vulnerability to single points of failure. In the event of natural disasters or other disruptions, grid-connected DG systems can continue supplying electricity to critical loads and support local communities [4]–[6].

Disadvantages of Grid Interconnection

While grid connectivity of distributed generation (DG) systems has many advantages, there are a few drawbacks to take into account. These negative aspects include:

1. **Grid Stability and Power Quality:** The integration of DG into the grid can impact grid stability and power quality. DG systems, especially those based on intermittent renewable energy sources like solar and wind, can introduce fluctuations in power generation that may affect grid stability. Sudden changes in power output from DG systems can lead to voltage and frequency variations, potentially causing disruptions in the grid.
2. **Grid Congestion and Overloading:** The increased penetration of DG systems can lead to grid congestion and overloading, particularly in areas with high DG density. If the distribution network is not designed to accommodate a large number of DG systems, it may result in voltage rise or excessive current flow, leading to operational issues and potential damage to the equipment [7]–[9].
3. **Grid Infrastructure Upgrades:** Integrating DG systems into the grid may require upgrades to the existing infrastructure. This includes strengthening transmission and distribution lines, installing new transformers and switchgear, and implementing advanced grid control and protection systems. These infrastructure upgrades can involve significant costs and may require coordination among multiple stakeholders.
4. **Grid Connection Costs:** The process of connecting DG systems to the grid often incurs connection costs. These costs can include fees for grid interconnection studies, equipment installation, metering, and administrative charges. For smaller-scale DG systems, these connection costs can be relatively high compared to the size and output of the system, which may pose financial barriers for potential DG system owners.
5. **Grid Dependency:** DG systems that are grid-connected rely on the availability and reliability of the grid. In the event of grid outages or disruptions, grid-connected DG systems may not be able to operate, limiting their ability to provide continuous power supply. This dependency on the grid may be a disadvantage in areas with unreliable or unstable grid infrastructure.

   Regulatory and Policy Barriers: The regulatory and policy frameworks governing grid interconnection can sometimes present barriers to the integration of DG systems. Complex and lengthy interconnection processes, unclear rules and requirements, and inconsistent policies across jurisdictions can hinder the seamless integration of DG into the grid [10], [11].

CONCLUSION

Modernizing the electrical power system via the combination of distributed generation DG and smart grids offers a paradigm-shifting strategy. Numerous advantages, such as higher use of renewable energy sources, lower transmission losses, better grid dependability, and improved energy efficiency are provided by the combination of decentralized power production with sophisticated grid technology. DG and smart grid integration presents a number of technological, operational, economic, and regulatory problems. In order to achieve seamless integration, it is crucial to carefully evaluate grid connectivity, power quality management, voltage regulation, and control systems. For effective grid monitoring, load balancing, and the coordination of distributed energy resources, an improved sensor, communication, and control technologies must be deployed. The use of information and communication technology ICT is essential for successful integration. Algorithms for data management, analytics, and decision-making enable grid monitoring and distributed energy resource utilization optimization. The smart grid infrastructure has to be protected from possible attacks; hence cybersecurity measures must be put in place. Economic advantages of the integration of DG and smart grids include decreased expenditures in transmission and distribution infrastructure, greater energy efficiency, and optimized use of renewable energy sources. These elements encourage a more sustainable energy system and help save money. Reduced greenhouse gas emissions and better grid resilience are two environmental advantages.

The integration of DG with smart grids is greatly supported by regulatory and policy frameworks. The use of DG technologies should be encouraged by market incentives, tariff frameworks, and standards, which will also make it easier for distributed generators, customers, and the grid to work together seamlessly. Implementation success depends on cooperation amongst stakeholders, including utilities, regulators, technology companies, and customers. In conclusion, by allowing a more effective, dependable, and sustainable energy infrastructure, the combination of DG and smart grids has the potential to revolutionize the electrical power system. Societies may boost energy efficiency, encourage the use of renewable energy sources, and increase grid resilience by embracing this integration and tackling related difficulties. Realizing the full advantages of DG and smart grid integration in accelerating the energy transition requires ongoing technology improvements, legislative support, and stakeholder cooperation.

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CHAPTER 14

A BRIEF OVERVIEW ABOUT DEMAND-SIDE MANAGEMENT

Mr. Koustav Nandi, Assistant Professor
Department Of Soft Skills, Presidency University, Bangalore, India
Email Id: koustavnandi@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

A crucial strategy for attaining a more effective and sustainable use of energy resources is demand-side management DSM. It entails putting strategies and mechanisms in place to change how much electricity consumers want, with an emphasis on shifting or lowering power consumption during spikes in demand, controlling peak loads, and optimizing energy usage depending on consumer demands and system circumstances. DSM seeks to increase grid dependability, lower peak demand, and increase energy efficiency. Gives a summary of demand-side management, stressing its essential elements and methods. As crucial components of DSM, time-of-use pricing, load shedding, energy efficiency initiatives, demand response, smart grid technology, and behavioral and educational initiatives are mentioned. These tactics are intended to encourage customers to use less energy during peak demand times, adopt energy-efficient equipment and practises, and move their energy use to off-peak hours.

Highlights the advantages of demand-side control, such as increased energy efficiency, lower grid load, cost savings, better grid dependability, and environmental sustainability. Utilities and grid operators may optimize energy usage, control peak loads, and build a more robust and sustainable energy system by actively involving customers and using successful DSM policies.In order to create an energy system that is more effective and sustainable, demand-side management is essential. DSM supports a transition to a more balanced and stable power supply while lowering total energy consumption and its related environmental effect. This is done through changing consumer behaviour, enacting energy-saving measures, and using smart grid technology.

KEYWORDS:

Demand, Load, Planning, Policies, Management.

INTRODUCTION

Demand-side management has been a crucial component of the integrated resource planning strategy used by electric utilities since the middle of the 1980s. At that time, peak load reductions were claimed in thousands of MW, energy savings were announced in billions of kWh, and yearly demand-side management costs in the United States were quoted in billions of dollars. The two decades that followed the 1980s saw a nationwide slowdown in activity, but since the turn of the century, activity has once again increased. Compared to a low of $0.9 billion in 1998, expenditures for utility and third-party managed energy efficiency programmes increased to about $6 billion in 2012; furthermore, it was predicted that electric savings nationally topped 22 billion kWh in 2011 Hayes et al. 2013. As a result, demand-side management strategies have persisted and lately reclaimed a sizable and expanding impact on the demand for energy resources. In this chapter, demand-side management is defined, the function it serves in integrated resource planning, the major components of demand-side management programmes are covered, and the most important best practices for programmed design and implementation are outlined. After that, case studies of four productive demand-side management initiatives are presented [1]–[3].

What Is Demand-Side Management?

The phrase demand-side management emerged logically from the planning procedures utilities used in the late 1980s. In a 1981 article for IEEE Spectrum, the author, Clark W. Gellings, coined one of the earliest terms: demand-side load management.Shortly after this article's release, Mr. Gellings changed the phrase to demand-side planning during a gathering of The Edison Electric Institute EEI Customer Service and Marketing Executives in 1982. This modification was made to better align with the bigger goals of the planning process. Since then, Mr. Gellings has used more than 100 articles to further popularize the term, including the five-volume set Demand-Side Management, which is widely regarded as the most comprehensive and useful source of knowledge on the demand-side management procedure. The control of all types of energy on the demand side, as opposed to only electricity, makes demand-side management considerably more comprehensive than this description suggests. Demand-side management initiatives are also carried out by organisations other than electric utilities, such as natural gas providers, governmental bodies, nonprofits, and private parties.Demand-side management typically encompasses the following essential elements of energy planning:

1. Customer usage will be influenced by demand-side management. Demand-side management is any strategy designed to modify how consumers use energy.
2. Demand-side management must accomplish chosen goals. The programmed must advance the accomplishment of chosen goals, i.e., it must lead to decreases in average rates, increases in customer satisfaction, the accomplishment of dependability objectives, etc., in order to comprise the intended load-shape shift.
3. The effectiveness of demand-side management will be compared to alternatives that do not use it. The idea further stipulates that particular demand-side management initiatives must advance these goals at least to the same degree as non-demand-side management options, such as producing units, buying electricity, or supply-side storage systems. In other words, it necessitates a comparison of supply-side and demand-side management options. Demand-side management is included in the integrated resource planning process at this review step.
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5. The value of demand-side management is impacted by load shape. Finally, the load shape is the main emphasis of this concept of demand-side management. This suggests an evaluation procedure that assesses the worth of programmes in light of how they affect costs and benefits over the course of a day, a week, a month, and a year.
6. Earlier terminology for these subsets included load management, marketing, and tactical conservation.

DISCUSSION

The continual examination of demand-side to supply-side and vice versa options is a crucial step in the demand-side management process. Integrated resource planning is the name given to this strategy. Demand-side management's role in the integrated resource planning procedure is shown in Figure. 1. Demand-side management must compete with conventional supply-side choices in order to be a competitive resource option.Since the demand-side management concept was first introduced in the early 1980s, several programmes have been put into place. In order to plan demand-side management programmes, utilities and other implementers must adhere to a framework that has been defined by Mr Gellings and the EPRI. The essential components of the demand-side management planning framework are described in this section.The kinds of buildings, end-use technology, and end-use sector targets during programmed development are then covered. It also includes a list of the numerous organisations normally in charge of carrying out programmes, as well as several techniques for doing so. Finally, this part lists the distinctive characteristics of well-designed and delivered programmes [4]–[6].

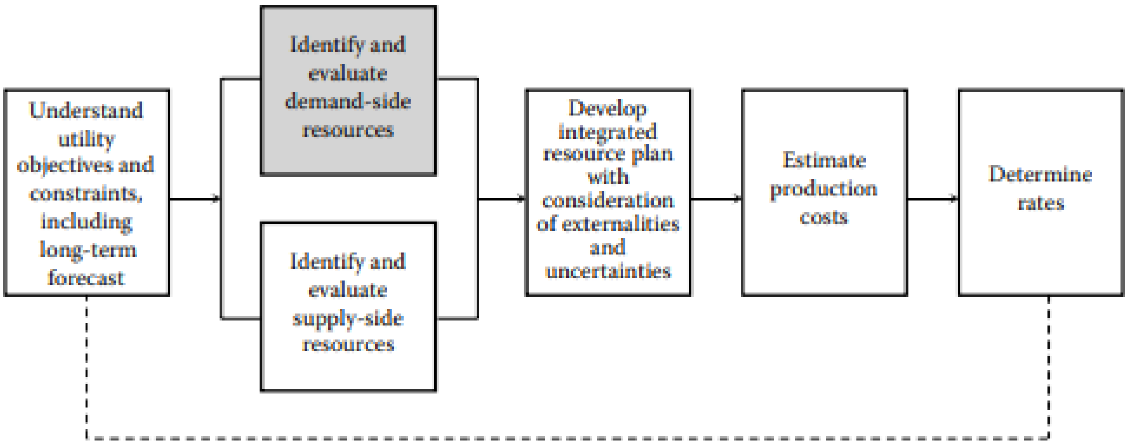

Figure1:Represting the demand-side management fits into integrated resource planning[Routledge].

Elements of the Demand-Side Management Planning Framework

The five basic components of the demand-side management planning framework are shown in Figure. 2. Establish broad organisational goals as the initial stage in demand-side management planning. The examples provided for these broad strategic goals often include things like preserving energy resources, lowering peak demand thereby postponing the need to construct new power plants, decreasing greenhouse gas emissions, lessening reliance on imports from outside, enhancing cash flow, raising profitability, and enhancing interactions with clients and staff. The planner must operationalize broad goals at this stage of the formal planning process in order to direct policymakers towards particular actions. Demand-side management options should be looked at and assessed at this operational or tactical level.

For instance, a review of capital investment needs may reveal times when significant investment is required.Through a demand-side management programmed, delaying the need for new building might lower investment requirements and stabilise the financial future of an energy firm, utility, state, or nation. On the basis of the current energy system's structure, financial reserves, operating environment, and competitiveness, specific operational goals are developed. Operational goals are then converted into intended changes in demand patterns or load shapes that may be used to assess the possible effects of different demand-side management initiatives.Six load-shape-changing possibilitiespeak clipping, valley filling, load shifting, strategic conservation, strategic load growth, and flexible load shapehave been presented in Figure. 3 to demonstrate the breadth of options available. These six are commonly used in combinations and are not mutually exclusive.

Finding alternatives is the next stage. Finding the relevant end-uses whose peak load and energy consumption characteristics most closely fit the criteria of the load-shape goals defined in the previous stage is the first dimension of this step. Typically, each the lowering of system peak loads, is now often referred to as demand response and is one of the original types of load control. Peak clipping is widely understood to be the process of lowering peak load via the use of incentive-based or time-based pricing choices, with or without the use of enabling technology. While many utilities see this as a way to decrease peaking capacity or capacity purchases and only take these methods into account on the days and times when system peaks are most likely to occur, these strategies may be used to reduce operational costs and reliance on essential fuels through economic dispatch.

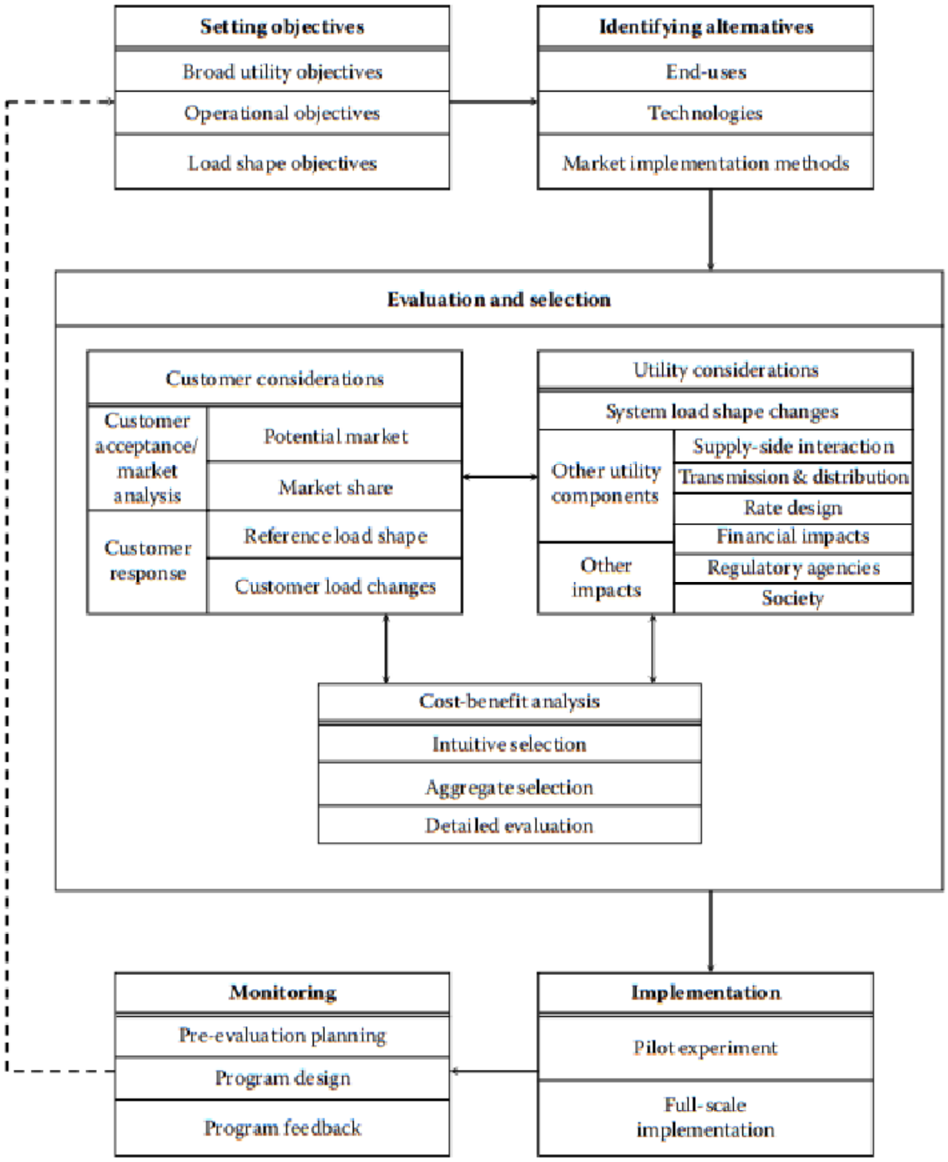

Figure 2: Elements of the demand-side management planning framework. [Routledge].

Valley fillingis the second traditional method of load control and is appropriate for both electric and gas systems. Involved in valley filling is increasing off-peak loads. Where the long-term incremental cost is less than the average price, this may be very attractive. of power. In certain situations, increasing appropriately priced off-peak load lowers the average cost. One of the most frequent methods of filling a valley is to substitute electric loads that are used off-peak e.g., for space or water heating with those that are powered by fossil fuels.Load shiftingis the last traditional method of load control and is applicable to both electric and gas systems. In order to do this, load must be shifted from peak to off-peak time**s.** The usage of storage water heating, storage space heating, coolness storage the most prevalent kind of thermal energy storage, and customer load changes are all frequent uses. During the load shift from storage devices, traditional appliances that would have been used are replaced.

Strategic Conservationis the shift in load shape brought about by end-use consumption-focused programmes. The adjustment of the load shape, which does not often fall under the category of load management and involves both a decrease in consumption and a change in use patterns, is reflected in the change. When using energy conservation, the planner must take into account the conservation practices that would naturally arise, and then assess the cost-effectiveness of any planned programmes to hasten or encourage such practices. Examples include improving appliance efficiency and weatherizationStrategic Load Growthis the load-shape shift that alludes to a broad rise in sales outside of the previously mentioned valley filling. Increased market share of loads that can or will be provided by competing fuels as well as economic growth may be indicators of load expansion. Electrification may be a factor in load increase. The word electrification is used to characterise the new and developing electric technologies related to automation, industrial process heating, and electric cars. These have the potential to raise the industrial sector's electric energy intensity. This increase in intensity can be caused by a decrease in the use of raw materials and fossil fuels, which would increase production all around.

Flexible Load Shapeis a planning restriction that has to do with the dependability of the electric system. The power supply planner investigates the ultimate best supply-side possibilities after forecasting the predicted load shape, including demand-side activities, over some horizon. Reliability is one of the numerous characteristics he or she considers. If clients are given alternatives about the variations in service quality they are prepared to accept in return for different incentives, load shape may be variable. Individual customer load control devices that provide service limits, notions of pooled, integrated energy management systems, or variants of interruptible or curtailable load may all be included in the programme [5]–[7].

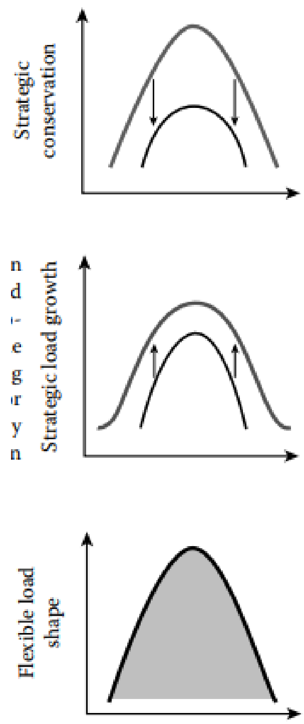

Figure 3: Six generic load-shape objectives that can be considered during demand-side management planning [Routledge].

End-use displays standardised and predictable demand or load patterns, such as domestic space heating and business lighting. One consideration when choosing an end-use for demand-side management is how well it can adapt to changes in load patterns. Selecting the best technology choices for each specific end-use is the second dimension of demand-side management options. The suitability of the technology for achieving the load-shape aim should be taken into account throughout this procedure. Even if a technology is appropriate for a certain end-use, the outcomes may not be what you were hoping for. For instance, although water-heater wraps are suitable for lowering home water-heating energy consumption, they are not suitable for load shifting. In this situation, a direct load control option for electric water heating would be preferable. The third component is researching market implementation strategies for a summary of such strategies.

Evaluation and Programme Selection: The third stage is to determine the most practical demand side management alternatives to pursue by balancing customer factors, supplier considerations, and cost/benefit evaluations. Demand-side management means a supplier/customer relationship that yields outcomes that are mutually advantageous even while consumers and suppliers work independently to change the pattern of demand. Suppliers must carefully analyse the ways in which the activity will alter the patterns and quantity of demand load shape, the techniques available for attracting consumer involvement, and other aspects in order to accomplish that mutual benefit. Prior to trying implementation, consider the anticipated magnitudes of costs and benefits to both the supplier and the client.

Implement Programs: The fourth phase involves putting the programs into action, which happens in stages. A high-level demand-side management project team comprising members from diverse departments and organisations should be established as a first stage, and they should be given total control and accountability for the implementation procedure. It is crucial for implementers to provide precise instructions for the project team, including a documented description of their responsibilities, their objectives, and a timeline. A pilot trial could go before the programme if there isn't much data available on previous demand-side management programme experiences. Pilot studies might be a helpful stepping stone before deciding whether to launch a bigger programme. Pilot studies may be restricted to a certain location or to a representative sample of customers nationwide [8]–[10].If the cost-effectiveness of the pilot project is confirmed, the implementers may think about starting the large-scale programme.

Programs to be Monitored: This is the sixth phase. Identification of performance variances and demand-side management programme improvement are the two main objectives of the monitoring process. Additionally, monitoring and evaluation procedures can encourage advanced planning and organisations within a demand-side management programme, serve as a major source of data on consumer behaviour and system effects, and give management the ability to track the progress of demand-side management initiatives [11], [12].

CONCLUSION

Demand-side management DSM, which optimises energy use, controls peak loads, and boosts grid resilience, is essential for maximising the advantages of renewable energy integration. DSM assists in addressing the issues related to variable renewable production and improves the overall efficiency and efficacy of renewable energy systems by coordinating power demand with the intermittent nature of renewable energy sources. DSM allows customers to actively engage in the transition to a renewable energy future via strategies including time-of-use pricing, load shifting, energy-saving programmes, and demand response. DSM supports the use of energy-efficient equipment, encourages customers to change their power consumption patterns to coincide with the availability of renewable energy sources, and fosters energy-conscious behaviours.There are numerous significant advantages of combining DSM with renewable energy. By skilfully controlling and lowering peak loads, it first lessens the demand for more fossil fuel-based generating capacity. Balancing power demand with renewable energy supply and guaranteeing a stable and reliable grid operation, also improves system stability and dependability. Third, DSM encourages energy efficiency and discourages wasteful usage to maximise the use of renewable energy sources. DSM also assists in the energy sector's decarbonization by lowering total power consumption and decreasing dependency on fossil fuel-based production. By permitting larger proportions of renewable energy in the power mix, it helps to reach national and international renewable energy and climate objectives.However, effective market mechanisms, supporting regulations, and reliable technology solutions are needed for the DSM for renewable energy to be implemented successfully. To create and put into place the proper DSM programmes and incentives, utilities, regulators, customers, and other stakeholders must work closely together. Furthermore, improvements in communication networks, data analytics, and smart grid technologies are necessary to enable real-time monitoring, control, and optimisation of energy usage. demand-side management is essential for maximising the benefits of renewable energy. DSM helps the grid's integration of renewable energy, improves grid stability and dependability, lowers carbon emissions, and fosters a more resilient and sustainable energy system by actively controlling and optimising energy demand. The development and widespread use of DSM techniques must continue if we are to hasten the shift to a clean and renewable energy future.

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CHAPTER 15

TARGETED END-USE SECTORS AND BUILDING TYPES

Ms. Geethu Bijil, Assistant Professor
Department Of Soft Skills, Presidency University, Bangalore, India
Email Id: geetu@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

To move towards a sustainable and low-carbon energy system, renewable energy is essential. It is crucial to identify and target certain end-use industries and building types that may profit the most from renewable energy integration in order to install renewable energy technology efficiently. This summary gives a general overview of the targeted end-use industries and building types where the adoption of renewable energy may have a big effect.Depending on their energy consumption patterns, needs, and potential for renewable energy integration, the intended end-use sectors for the deployment of renewable energy differ. Residential structures, commercial and institutional structures, industrial facilities, transportation infrastructure, and agriculture are some of these sectors. The use of renewable energy has specific potentials and difficulties in each area.Rooftop solar photovoltaic systems, solar water heaters, and geothermal heat pumps are all possibilities for residential structures. These innovations may minimise dependency on fossil fuels, cut power use, and increase energy independence.Solar PV installations, building energy management systems, and energy-efficient HVAC and lighting systems may all help commercial and institutional buildings including businesses, schools, hospitals, and government buildings. These innovations may lead the way in sustainability, improve energy efficiency, and lower energy expenses.Industrial facilities may integrate renewable energy via process optimisation and on-site generating methods like biomass or biogas cogeneration.

KEYWORDS:

Customer, Energy, Demand- Side, Implementation, Programmed.

INTRODUCTION

These actions can raise industry competitiveness, increase energy efficiency, and lower greenhouse gas emissions.Another crucial area for the adoption of renewable energy is transportation, especially in the context of electric vehicles EVs and environmentally friendly fuels. EV charging stations, public transit powered by renewable energy, and biofuels may all help cut down on carbon emissions from the transportation industry.Agriculture offers prospects for the deployment of renewable energy via the production of bioenergy from agricultural leftovers, animal waste, or special energy crops. Agricultural buildings may also be equipped with solar PV systems, which can provide energy for on-site activities and lessen dependency on the grid.To encourage the use of renewable energy in these particular end-use industries and building types, targeted policies, incentives, and supporting regulatory frameworks are crucial. Financial incentives, feed-in tariffs, tax credits, and programmes promoting energy efficiency may help install renewable energy systems and promote their adoption in a variety of industries. certain end-use industries and building types provide a major opportunity for the integration of renewable energy. We can maximise the advantages of renewable energy, lower greenhouse gas emissions, improve energy security, and advance sustainable development by concentrating our efforts in these areas. Realizing the full potential of renewable energy in focused end-use industries and building types will need ongoing research, policy support, and stakeholder engagement.

Residential, commercial, and industrial end-use sectors are the three main groups that demand-side management programmes are designed to target. These major categories each have several subcategories. The programme may sometimes be created for one or more broad sectors, while other times it can be created for a particular subsector. For instance, there are several subsectors within the residential sector, such as single-family houses, multifamily homes, mobile homes, low-income housing, etc. Additionally, the commercial sector may be divided into subgroups, such as offices, restaurants, hospitals, schools, grocery stores, retail shops, hotels/motels, and so on. There are also a lot of particular industrial end users who might be the focus of a programme for demand-side management [1]–[3].Additionally, the program's creator could desire to focus on a certain size or style of building within the selected industry. The programme could concentrate on brand-new construction, pre-existing construction, renovations and retrofits, big clients, little customers, or a mix of both. Crosscutting initiatives focus on several building types and/or end-use industries. Figure. 1 shows the various end-use sectors and building types in relation to other demand-side management programme planning elements.Demand-side management programmes target different end-use technologies or programme kinds see Figure. 1. Some programmes cover a wide range of end-use technologies and are comprehensive.

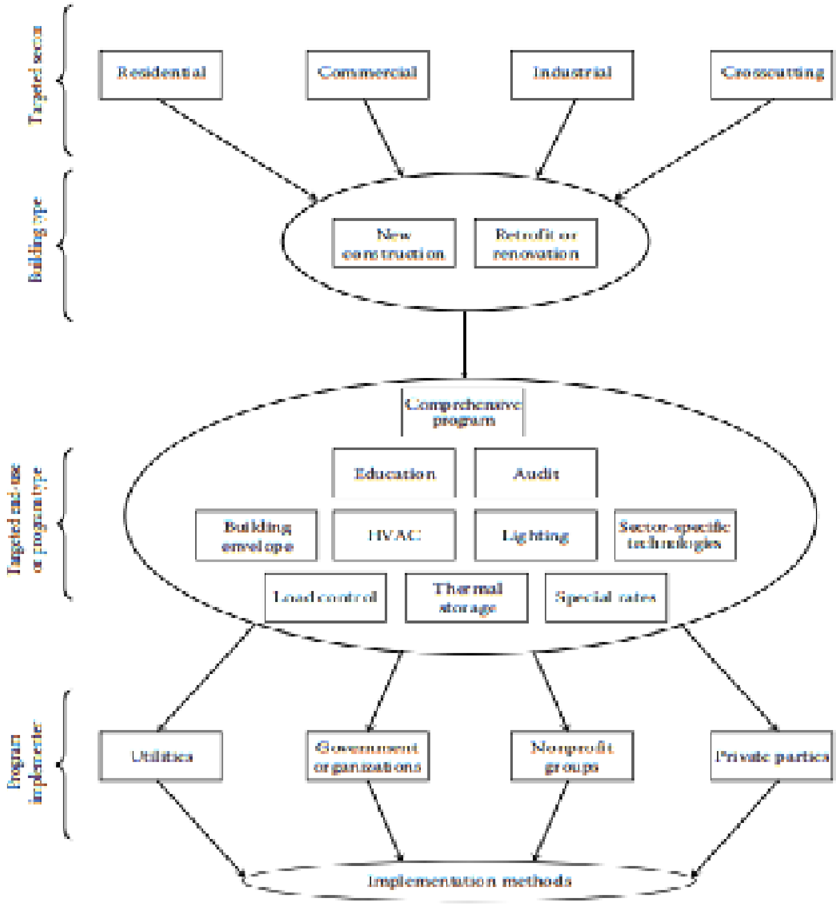

Figure 1: Relationship between end-use sectors, building types, end-use programs, and program implementer [Routledge].

Other initiatives concentrate on certain end-use devices, such lights. dishwashers, air conditioners, etc. Others focus on load management strategies, such as programmes that permanently shift loads to off-peak hours e.g., via thermal energy storage or demand response programmes where consumers temporarily reduce loads in reaction to peak demand events. The relationships between sample end-use technologies or programme types and other demand-side management programme planning elements.

DISCUSSION

Utilities often carry out demand-side management programmers. Government agencies, charitable organisations, for-profit businesses, and alliances of many companies are some more potential implementers. In order to offer better service at a cheaper cost while improving their own profits and lowering their business risks, utilities and governments in particular have a specific interest in influencing client demand treating it not as destiny but as choice. Energy planners have access to a variety of market push and pull techniques intended to encourage consumer adoption and remove obstacles, as covered in the following section [4]–[6].

Implementation Methods

The choice of the proper market implementation strategies is one of the most crucial factors in the characterization of demand-side alternatives. Planners and policymakers have a range of options for influencing demand-side management programme consumer uptake and approval. Six major categories may be used to classify the approaches. Examples of each kind of market implementation strategy are provided. The following are some of the categories:

Customer Education

Many energy suppliers and governments have relied on some form of customer education to promote general customer awareness of programs. Websites, brochures, bill inserts, information packets, clearinghouses, educational curricula, and direct mailings are widely used. Customer education is the most basic of the market implementation methods available and should be used in conjunction with one or more other market implementation method for maximum effectiveness

Direct Touch with Customers

In order to increase consumer approval of programmers, direct customer contact approaches refer to face-to-face interactions between the client and an energy provider or government official. Energy providers have long deployed marketing and customer service staff to provide guidance on selecting and using appliances, sizing heating and cooling systems, designing lighting, and even home economics. Energy audits, particular programme services (such equipment repair), storefronts with information and gadgets displayed, workshops, displays, on-site inspections, etc. are all ways to directly interact with customers. These techniques provide the implementer the chance to get client input, which gives them the chance to identify and address the main customer problems. Additionally, they make it possible for more individualized marketing, and they may be helpful in expressing interest in and concern about energy cost management.

Trading with Allies

Many demand-side management programmers may be successful with the help and support of trade allies. Any company that has the power to affect business dealings between a supplier and its clients or between implementers and consumers is referred to as a trade ally. Home builders and contractors, regional chapters of professional organisations, trade associations, groups representing wholesalers and merchants of appliances and energy-consuming equipment, and trade associations are important trade ally organisations. A variety of services are provided depending on the kind of trade allied organisations, including creation of guidelines and protocols, knowledge transfer, certification, marketing/sales, setup, upkeep, and repair. Typically, trade allied groups will support a programme if they think it will benefit them or at least not hurt their company from demand-side management programmers.

Publicity and Promotion

Numerous advertising and marketing strategies have been utilized by energy providers and governmental energy organisations. Advertising conveys a message to consumers through a variety of media in an effort to enlighten or convince them. Advertising platforms appropriate for demand-side management initiatives include point-of-purchase advertising, radio, television, magazines, newspapers, and the Internet. Press releases, personal selling, exhibits, demonstrations, discounts, competitions, and prizes are a few examples of activities that are often included in promotion to promote advertising.

Different Price

Pricing as a market-influencing factor typically serves three purposes communicating the cost or value of the goods and services being offered to producers and consumers offering incentives to use the most effective production and consumption methods and determining who can afford how much of a product. These three roles are intertwined in various ways. Utilities may use creative schemes for alternative pricing as a key implementation strategy to support demand-side solutions. For instance, rate incentives for promoting certain power use patterns may often be coupled with other approaches such as direct incentives to fulfil electric utility demand-side management objectives. Time-of-use rates, real-time pricing, crucial peak pricing, inverted rates, seasonal rates, variable service levels, promotional prices, off-peak rates, etc. are a few examples of pricing systems. The provider has little to no monetary expenditure, which is a significant benefit of alternative pricing programmers over certain other kinds of implementation strategies. A financial incentive is given to the client, but over a number of years so that the implementer may do so as it reaps the rewards [7]–[9].

By lowering the net cash outlay necessary for equipment purchase or by shortening the payback period, direct incentives are used to increase short-term market penetration of a cost control/customer option. Additionally, incentives help customers accept alternatives that have a shaky track record of performance or options that need significant alterations to the structure or the customer's way of life. Cash gifts, rebates, repurchase plans, billing credits, and low- or no-interest loans are examples of direct incentives. Offering free or significantly subsidized equipment installation or maintenance in return for participation is another sort of direct incentive. Such partnerships may be more expensive for the provider than the direct gains from the influence on energy or demand, but they may speed up customer recruitment and enable the gathering of useful empirical performance data. Many of these marketing techniques have been effectively used by energy providers, utilities, and governmental organisations. Demand-side management programmers are often promoted using a variety of marketing techniques. The following are some of the elements that may affect the decision to choose a single market implementation technique or a combination of methods:

1. Prior experience with similar programs.
2. Existing market penetration.
3. The receptivity of policy makers and regulatory authorities.
4. The estimated program benefits and costs to suppliers and customers.
5. Stage of buyer readiness.
6. Barriers to implementation.

Before wide-scale adoption, some of the most creative demand-side marketing initiatives began as pilot projects to test customer approval and assess programme design. The goal of market implementation strategies is to have an impact on consumers' behavior and the marketplace. The choice of the market implementation strategy to achieve the intended consumer acceptance and reaction is the crucial decision facing planners and policymakers. Customer acceptance includes consumer choices to embrace the desired fuel/appliance choice and efficiency as well as behavior changes that are supported by the provider or state. It also includes consumer readiness to engage in a market implementation programme.

Customer reaction is the real change in load-shape brought about by the customer's activity, together with the features of the tools and systems being used. Customer demographics, income, understanding of available technologies and programmers, choice variables including cash flow and perceived advantages and costs, as well as attitudes and motives, all have an impact on customer acceptance and reactions. Other external considerations, such as monetary circumstances, energy costs, technological characteristics, legislation, and tax incentives, can affect customer acceptability and responsiveness.

Case Studies

The case studies of four effective demand-side management initiatives and a smart grid demonstration project are examined in this section. Each of the four programmers focuses on a distinct industry and group of end users. Each programme also has a unique implementation structure and reflects a distinct U.S. geographic area. With the aim of promoting the integration of distributed energy resources into the electric power grid, the smart grid demonstration project is a massive undertaking involving the cooperation of more than 20 utilities in the US and internationally. The first case study, which is a comprehensive industrial energy efficiency programme run by the Bonneville Power Administration (BPA), the second case study focuses on Commonwealth Edison's (ComEd) retro commissioning (RCx) programme, which targets controls optimization and further operational energy efficiency upgrades. A Southern California Edison (SCE) pilot programme was made available to water utilities and is the subject of the third case study savings in both water and electricity.

For their superior programme design and execution, ACEEE awarded these first three programmers the distinction of exemplary in 2013. The fourth case study, which is a smart grid-enabled demand response programme made available to residential and small business customers by Oklahoma Gas and Electric (OG&E), Due in part to OG&E's effective demand management programmers and excellent customer satisfaction rating during a time of extremely high Smart Meter deployment, OG&E was named Utility of the Year by Electric Light & Power in 2011. The large-scale EPRI project known as the smart grid demonstration project aims to show how distributed energy resources can be integrated into the grid, including demand response technologies, electric vehicles, thermal energy storage, electrical storage, solar photovoltaics, wind generation, conservation voltage reduction, and distributed generation. The project, a seven-year undertaking, has recently finished its fifth year. All of the efforts and programmers discussed in these case studies have produced excellent outcomes, more significantly, their novel strategies have advanced the use of demand-side management techniques [10], [11].

CONCLUSION

Economic, political, social, technical, and resource supply factors have worked together since the early 1970s to alter the operating environment and the outlook for the energy business. Numerous utilities must deal with astronomical capital expenditures for new plants, notable swings in demand and energy growth rates, poor financial performance, and political or regulatory pressures as well as consumer anxiety about growing costs and the environment. Although demand-side management cannot solve all of these problems, it does provide a wide range of other options that have several advantages unrelated to energy in addition to the more apparent ones. Utilities, energy providers, energy service providers, and governmental organisations should all take these demand-side options into account. Demand-side management strategies have advantages for the organisation implementing them, such as changing load characteristics, postponing the need for new energy resources, and generally increasing resource value. They also have advantages for the customers they serve, such as lower energy costs and/or better performance from new technological options. Additionally, advantages to national security, the environment, and the economy are received by society as a whole. For instance, while demand-side management initiatives might delay the need for new power plants, the expenses and emissions related to the production of energy using fossil fuels are avoided. Demand-side management initiatives also often lead to an increase in employment and spending within the local economies where they are implemented. Demand-side management initiatives may also lessen a nation's reliance on imported oil, enhancing national security. Alternatives to demand-side management will play a significant role in resource planning both domestically and internationally and will be essential to the quest of a sustainable energy future.

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CHAPTER 16

A BRIEF OVERVIEW ABOUT FOSSIL FUELS AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE

Dr. A.K. Singh, Associate Professor,
School of Agriculture Sciences, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India,
Email Id:ashoksingh@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

This section covers how fossil fuels, such as coal, natural gas, and fuel oil made from petroleum, are used to produce electricity Perry 2008; Rigel 2007. Although the globe is covered in this analysis, the United States is the focus because of the volume of information that is readily accessible and the country's dominant economic position. In a similar vein, coal is a common fuel because of its availability across the globe. Nevertheless, there are environmental-regulatory concerns that must be resolved in order to maintain its usage in the production of electric power.

KEYWORDS:

Combustion, Coal, Fuels, Power, Gas, Oxygen.

INTRODUCTION

It is becoming more and more important for fossil fuel-based electricity production to be affordable, safe, and clean. Over the last several decades, considerable technological advancements have been made in order to maintain the economic competitiveness of electric power production from fossil fuels. These advancements have been driven by the need to lower emissions and boost efficiency. About two thirds of the electricity generated worldwide comes from the combustion of fossil fuels. Worldwide, coal is the fuel used in the majority of big power plants, although many generating firms are installing natural gas-fired facilities, especially in areas where the cost of gas-fired production and the long-term availability of gas look to be favorable [1]–[3].In the near future, it is anticipated that more gas turbine-based facilities will be added to the fleet of new-generation power plants, especially in the developed countries. Nowadays, the most sophisticated combustion turbines operate in simple cycle mode with better than 50% efficiency and mixed cycle mode with greater than 40% lower heating value LHV efficiency.

For further information on mixed cycles, in addition, natural gas combined cycle NGCC plants have capital costs between $728/kW and $1511/kW June 2011 base, which is less than half that of other plant types NETL 2012b. They also provide flexible siting options and quick building timetables. Due to these benefits, sufficient natural gas supplies especially given the rapid growth of shale gas in the United States and the potential for coal gasification as a backup, NGCC technology has become a popular option for new and repowered plants in the United States and Europe.However, pulverized coal PC plants continue to predominate in terms of new capacity in both the current fleets in the Americas and Europe as well as in growing Asian countries like India and China. Coal-fired power stations are becoming the go-to option for electricity production in emerging economies: Sulphur dioxide SO2 scrubbers have shown to be dependable and effective, and coal is both abundant and reasonably priced. In actuality, SOX eradication effectiveness of up to 99% is now feasible. Nitrogen oxides NOX may be removed by selective catalytic reduction SCR, with removal levels of over 90% being attainable. There are mercury removal technologies, and efforts to collect and store carbon dioxide CO2 from fossil plants are gaining attention as a way to reduce greenhouse gas GHG emissions.Three fundamental methods are used to transform coal into electricity:

fluidized coal and other solids bed combustion CFB, PC-fired boilers, and integrated gasification combined cycle IGCC facilities. The PC plant, the most typical coal-fired power plant, has the ability to significantly increase efficiency even with complete flue gas desulfurization FGD. Higher steam pressures and temperatures are now feasible because to advancements in ferritic materials technology. Modern supercritical and ultra supercritical PC plants are becoming more widely used, especially in Europe and Japan. Steam cycles, including subcritical, supercritical, and ultra-supercritical ones,

Globally, the use of air fluidized-bed combustion AFBC facilities has expanded. These plants reduce SO2 and NOX while enabling the efficient burning of low rank fuels like lignite, which are found in large quantities. With its benefit of in-bed SO2 collection with limestone, AFBC boiler technology has since the early 1990s established itself as a mature, dependable technology for the production of steam and electric power. In actuality, a significant factor in the mass use of this relatively new boiler technology since the mid-1980sIts capacity to collect SO2 on-site would remove or greatly minimize the requirement for FGD. Fluidized-bed combustion's FBC capacity to handle a variety of coal quality is an additional benefit.Power generation from IGCC facilities ranges from 250 to 600 MW. They were developed in large part as a result of the U.S. DOE's clean coal programme, which gave rise to two integrated gasification plants that were successful in going into commercial operation. In Europe and Asia, there are sizable gasification power plants running. In addition to reducing SO2, NOX, and particle emissions, gasification with combined cycle operation gives you the chance to benefit from recent advancements in gas turbine technology.Other emerging technologies include fuel cell power plants, perhaps incorporating fuel cell combined cycles, enhanced AFBC, including pressurized FBC, oxycombustion, chemical looping combustion, and ultra supercritical steam cycles.

DISCUSSION

Coal is the decomposed leftovers of ancient flora, which first collected as plant matter in peat bogs and swamps. These swamps and peat bogs were often deeply submerged due to the buildup of silt and other sediments, tectonic movements, and deposition of sediments. By exposing the plant material to high temperatures and pressures during burial, the vegetation underwent physical and chemical changes that led to coalification, a process that turns plant material into coal. Initially, lignite or brown coalcoal kinds with low organic maturitywas created from peat, a forerunner of coal. The lignite gradually changed into subbituminous coal, bituminous coal, and anthracite over time as a result of the ongoing impacts of temperature and pressure. The harder the coal becomes, the more carbon it contains, and the less oxygen it has, as this process goes on. The rank of a coal refers to the amount of metamorphism or coalification it goes through as it develops from peat to anthracite; rank has a significant impact on the chemical and physical characteristics. Low-rank coals, including lignite and subbituminous, are often soft, friable materials that seem drab and earthy and are distinguished by high levels of sulphate [4]–[6].

Low carbon content and moisture content translate to low energy content. Coals with a higher rank are often stronger, harder, and have a black vitreous luster. Ranking advancement is accompanied with increased carbon and energy levels and decreased moisture content. Anthracite is at the top of the scale and has a high energy and carbon content together with a low moisture level.

Following the development of land plants in the Devonian era, about 400 million years ago, massive coal deposits started to form. The Carboniferous period 350–280 million years ago in the Northern Hemisphere, the Carboniferous/Permian periods 350–225 million years ago in the Southern Hemisphere, and more recently the late Cretaceous to early Paleogene periods roughly 100–60 million years ago in places as diverse as the United States, South America, Indonesia, and New Zealand all saw significant coal accumulations.Coal is the most widely-available fossil fuel on the planet. It is geographically widespread, spanning all seven continents and over a hundred nations. There are confirmed coal deposits with a lifespan of more than 200 years. Figure1 shows the several types of U.S. reserves. The majority 54% of coal is lignite and subbituminous coal, which is largely utilised for power production. The world's coal reserves are ranked in Figure2.

Coal generally includes extraneous mineral particles when it leaves the mine, frequently with a high Sulphur level. An essential stage in getting coal ready for transport to a power plant is getting rid of as much of this stuff as you can. Cleaning coal not only decreases sulphur up to 70% SO2 emissions reduction is achievable and raises its heating value usually by approximately 10% but rarely by 30% or more, but it also lowers transportation costs. With more than 400 operational cleaning operations, most of which are found in mines, coal cleaning is well established in the United States. Coal contains both organic and mineralized sulphur.

Figure 1: Representing the U.S. coal basins [Routledge].

Mineral pyritic sulphur is largely removed during coal cleaning. Trace heavy metal concentrations are also decreased; standard cleaning generally removes between 30% and 80% of arsenic, mercury, lead, nickel, antimony, selenium, and chromium. It is more challenging to remove organic sulphur since it is chemically bonded and a component of the coal matrix. Microorganisms, enzymes, and chemical techniques have all been used in research, but none of them have proved economically successful.

Environmental Controls for Fossil-Steam Plants

Meeting even tighter emissions rules is now much simpler because to the many technological advancements of recent years. By 2012, 695 units in the United States had SO2 scrubbers running. These are important upgrades that will enable facilities to run in compliance for a lot longer. A typical 450 MW coal-fired plant would release 75 tonnes of SO2 per day without a scrubber, but with a 90% FGD system in place, that amount might drop to as low as 8 tonnes per day.

When it comes to NOX, the same facility may release 10-35 tonnes per day, but NOX reductions of up to 90% may lower emissions to the range of 1-3.5 tonnes per day. The usage of SCR is one of the control choices, in addition to burner optimisation. The factory previously mentioned emits roughly 9000 tonnes of CO2 per day at a plant efficiency of 38%, which equates to 2452 tonnes of carbon. Since these emissions are a growing problem, any carbon levies in the future must be taken into account.

World Recoverable Coal Reserves as of January 1, 2009

	Recoverable Reserves by Coal Rank (Billion Short Tons)					
Region/Country	Bituminous and Anthracite	Subbituminous	Lignite	Totals	2010 Production	Reserves-to-Production Ratio (Years)
World total	**445.0**	**285.9**	**215.2**	**946.1**	**7.954**	**119**
United States[a]	118.4	107.2	33.1	**258.6**	1.084	238
Russia	54.1	107.4	11.5	**173.1**	0.359	482
China	68.6	37.1	20.5	**126.2**	3.506	36
Other non-OECD Europe and Eurasia	42.2	18.9	39.9	**100.9**	0.325	311
Australia and New Zealand	40.9	2.5	41.4	**84.8**	0.473	179
India	61.8	0.0	5.0	**66.8**	0.612	109
OECD Europe	6.2	0.9	54.5	**61.6**	0.620	99
Africa	34.7	0.2	0.0	**34.9**	0.286	122
Other non-OECD Asia	3.9	3.9	6.8	**14.7**	0.508	29
Other Central and South America	7.6	1.0	0.0	**8.6**	0.085	101
Canada	3.8	1.0	2.5	**7.3**	0.075	97
Brazil	0.0	5.0	0.0	**5.0**	0.006	842
Others[b]	2.6	0.8	0.1	**3.6**	0.015	233

Figure 2: Represting the World Recoverable Coal Reserves of January 1, 2009 [Research Gate.Net].

Because NGCC plants are more efficient and natural gas has less carbon than combined cycle gas plants, they generate roughly half as much CO2 per MWh as combined cycle gas plants. For the owners and operators of fossil plants, the removal of mercury from the byproducts of the burning of fossil fuels will become more and more crucial. Several viable solutions are being investigated for mercury control in current plant testing. Figure 3 provides a broad overview of emissions control systems relevant to contemporary PC-fired facilities [7], [8].

Clean Coal Technology Development

Innovations have been created and tested at an increasing pace in recent years with the goal of decreasing emissions via better combustion and environmental controls in the short term and by fundamentally altering the way coal is produced in the long run.

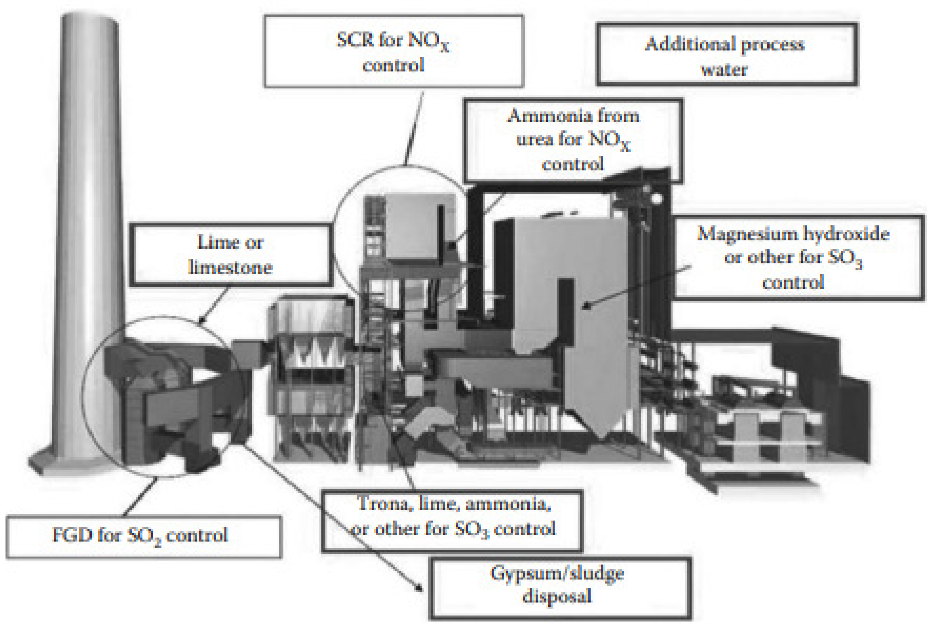

Figure 3: Emission controls on a modern PC-fired power plant [Routledge].

Before transferring its chemical energy to electricity, it was pre-processed. These methods are known as clean coal technologies CCTs, and many of these efforts were funded by the National Energy Technology Laboratory NETL of the Department of Energy. They are a group of precombustion, combustion, post combustion, and conversion technologies created to give coal users more technical flexibility and capabilities as well as give the rest of the world the chance to take advantage of the most abundant fossil resource while minimising environmental effects. They fall under the following categories:

1. **Precombustion:** This describes methods that clean fuels of CO2, sulfur, ash, and other contaminants before burning them. This mostly relates to cleaning unburned raw syngas from a gasifier.
2. **Burning:** This refers to methods used in the boiler to lessen the amount of pollutants produced by the burning of the fuel.
3. **Post-combustion:** This refers to methods that treat flue gas to lower pollutant emissions, such as membrane-based, sorbent-based, and solvent-based technologies.
4. **Transformation:** This refers to processes that convert coal into a form that may be cleaned and utilized as a fuel or chemical feedstock, such as gasification or coal-to-liquids technology.

When a PC is burnt in a boiler, some combustion products are created. The most significant ones are mercury, CO2, fly ash from the carbon in the coal, SOX (mostly SO2, but also some SO3) from sulfur, NOX (primarily NO) from nitrogen and oxygen in the air, and SOX (largely SO2). The majority of these materials must be eliminated in order to comply with environmental requirements. The majority of CCT initiatives were carried out to enhance procedures for reducing pollution. Environmental controls relevant to fossil fuel power plants are covered in the sections that follow. The cost range (updated to 2011 base) and important performance metrics for various kinds of power plants.

Oxy-combustion Power Plants

Utilizing oxygen with a purity of 95%–99% rather than air to burn coal is known as oxy-combustion. Higher flame temperatures may be feasible with associated increased efficiency and decreased fuel consumption since the nitrogen contained in the air is eliminated rather than burned in the boiler. Due to variations in combustion properties, oxygen combustion cannot be easily swapped for air combustion in current fossil-fueled power plants. Particularly, the temperature of combustion would be too great for traditional building materials. A thermal diluent is needed to replace the nitrogen and regulate the combustion temperature to employ oxy-combustion in an existing plant. Typically, recovered CO2 is used as the diluent, which is then mixed with the oxygen created by air separation to simulate the combustion properties of air. Oxy-combustion generates predominantly CO2 and H2O-based exhaust and roughly 75% less flue gas than air-fueled combustion.

A key benefit of oxy-combustion is the production of a stream of CO2 that is highly concentrated, which lowers the cost of separating it from the flue gas. Condensation, which is achieved by cooling and compression, easily separates water vapor from CO2. Before the CO2 is delivered to storage, the flue gas may require further treatment to eliminate contaminants like SOX and NOX. Oxy-combustion has to be a low-cost source of oxygen to be a viable choice for producing electricity. The boiler is supplied with very pure oxygen using a cryogenic air separation unit in the form of this idea that is most usually put out. The cost of power and plant efficiency may increase due to the capital and energy requirements of this commercially accessible technology. Ion transport membranes (ITMs), for example, are a revolutionary technology that is presently being developed and has the potential to drastically lower the cost of producing oxygen.

In an ITM, oxygen splits into two oxygen atoms after being deposited on one side of the membrane. These atoms spread across the membrane after absorbing two electrons apiece. The oxygen ions lose their electrons and rejoin to produce oxygen gas at the opposite surface. The partial pressure differential across the membrane acts as the driving force. The membrane has a very high degree of selectivity as only oxygen goes through it. If it is effective, ITM may be a less expensive alternative to cryogenic oxygen. The purpose of employing oxy-combustion is to create a flue gas high in CO2 that is suitable for storage. Compared to conventional air-fired plants, oxygen fuel combustion offers several benefits. One of these is:

1. The mass and volume of the flue gas are reduced by approximately 75%, which results in less heat lost in the flue gas and also smaller processing equipment.
2. The flue gas is primarily CO2 suitable for geologic storage.
3. The concentration of pollutants in the flue gas is higher, making separation easier.
4. Because nitrogen is largely excluded, nitrogen oxide production is greatly reduced.

Chemical Looping Power Plants

The need for an oxygen plant, which is an expensive component, is a significant challenge with oxygen-blown IGCC. Chemical looping combustion is a method for generating electricity from fossil fuels while generating a concentrated CO2 stream without the requirement for an oxygen plant. Combustion is divided into discrete oxidation and reduction steps by chemical looping. An alternative to metal is a compound, such as a metal oxide such as iron, nickel, copper, or manganese. Oxygen transporter. An oxidizer and a combustor are the two vessels that make up the plant in most cases. The carrier is delivered to the combustor, where it interacts with the fuel to form CO2 and release heat. After that, the carrier is recycled into the oxidation chamber, where it comes into contact with air to renew the metal oxide. When two chambers are used for the combustion process, the flue gas is produced in a highly concentrated CO2 stream after the water has been removed, as opposed to a diluted stream of nitrogen as in a normal PC plant. Maintaining the particles in fixed beds while sporadically switching flows to alternately decrease and oxidize the oxygen carrier is an alternative flow stream for chemical looping combustion. Chemical looping has the advantage that no external CO2 separation equipment or air separation plants are needed.

Fuel Cell Power Plants

A fuel cell is a machine that turns chemical energy into electric power instantly. It functions in a manner akin to a battery. The limitations of the second law of thermodynamics that constrain the efficiency of a steam turbine do not apply to a fuel cell since it is not a heat engine. Thus, theoretically speaking, fairly high efficiency is achievable. In a fuel cell, oxygen (air) is introduced at the cathode, and fuel (usually hydrogen or syngas) is injected at the anode. The electrolyte between the electrodes acts as a conduit for oxygen ions as they move from the cathode to the anode, where they interact with the fuel to create CO2 and water vapor. An electric current is created when electrons return to the cathode via an external circuit.

Fuel cells come in many varieties and are used for a range of purposes. The polymer electrolyte membrane fuel cell (PEMFC), molten carbonate fuel cell (MCFC), and solid oxide fuel cell (SOFC) are the kinds that are most often used for stationary electric power generation on sizes ranging from auxiliary home and commercial power to electric utilities. Fuel cells are gaining popularity due to their potential for high efficiency and clean operation. Methane may be fed to certain fuel cells, whereas hydrogen or syngas is required for others. A power plant might make syngas by gamifying coal to use as a fuel for fuel cells. PEMFC, MCFC, and SOFC types together accounted for around 125 MW of the installed fuel cell capacity for all stationary applications in 2012. Fuel cell power plant numbers and their share of total installed capacity are still modest, although capacity is expanding quickly and include some installations by electric utilities [7]–[10].

CONCLUSION

For many years, fossil fuels have been a major source of energy for the world's economy. However, the continuous dependence on fossil fuels offers considerable dangers and problems, such as worries about climate change, environmental deterioration, and energy security. In order to combat climate change, lessen environmental degradation, improve energy security, spur economic development, and enhance public health, a shift away from fossil fuels is necessary. A more robust and sustainable energy future may be attained through implementing renewable energy sources, energy efficiency measures, and sustainable practises. To hasten the transition to cleaner energy systems and promote the growth of a low-carbon economy, policymakers, corporations, and citizens must collaborate.

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CHAPTER 17

INFRASTRUCTURE RISK ANALYSIS AND SECURITY

Harsh Shrivastava, Assistant Professor,
Department of Electrical Engineering, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India,
Email Id: ershrivastava@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

The predicted breakthroughs and advancements in nuclear power technology through the year 2035 are outlined in this study. Long recognized as a dependable and low-carbon source of electricity, nuclear power must continue to advance in order to meet the world's rising energy needs and combat climate change. The summary briefly summarizes the paper's main points on issues such as improvements in reactor designs, fuel cycles, safety features, and waste management techniques. Additionally, it analyses how nuclear energy may fit into a system of clean, sustainable energy.The study and development of advanced reactor ideas, such as small modular reactors SMRs, Generation IV reactors, and fusion energy, are examined in this article. These innovations are intended to solve issues with traditional nuclear power reactors while also enhancing safety, increasing efficiency, and decreasing waste production.

KEYWORDS:

Fission, Nuclear, Power, Reactors, Steam

INTRODUCTION

The fission of heavy element nuclei or the fusion of light element nuclei provides nuclear energy. Since fusion will not be a realistic power source in the next 20 to 25 years, this chapter will focus on nuclear energy produced through the fission process. In a nuclear reactor, the fission process' available energy is converted to heat and transferred to working fluids that are utilized to produce electricity. The main fissile fuel now utilized in nuclear power reactors is uranium-235. It is an isotope of uranium that makes up around 0.72 percent of all naturally occurring uranium deposits. Each gramme of fissioned uranium-235 3.71E+10 Btu/lb produces about one megawatt day of energy when it is burned fissioned in a reactor [1]–[3].Nuclear power technology encompasses the complete nuclear fuel cycle in addition to the nuclear power plants that generate electricity. Uranium mining serves as the foundation for nuclear energy. In order to be used effectively in the modern light-water moderated reactors, the ore must be treated and transformed into a form that can be enriched in the U235 isotope. The proper fuel forms for usage in nuclear power plants are then created from the reactor fuel. After that, used fuel may either be processed again or put away for later disposal.

All of these processes produce radioactive waste, which has to be disposed of. A crucial component of the nuclear fuel cycle is the delivery of these materials. The connections that may be made between nuclear power and other energy sources such as industrial operations, hydrogen generation, and desalination. In order to develop a broad and robust energy portfolio, it emphasizes the need of combining nuclear power with renewable energy sources. Regulatory frameworks, public perception, funding, and international partnerships are some of the obstacles and possibilities related to the use of nuclear power technology that is covered in the abstract. To secure public acceptance and support, it emphasizes the need for strong safety measures, efficient waste management plans, and open communication. In general, the purpose of this study is to provide policymakers, academics, and industry participants with insights into the potential of nuclear power technology. It intends to aid in the knowledge and informed decision-making regarding nuclear power's role in fulfilling global energy demands while addressing environmental issues by emphasizing predicted breakthroughs and resolving difficulties. Realizing the full potential of nuclear power technologies in a sustainable energy future will need ongoing research, development, and cooperation.

The history, present application, and future of nuclear power will all be covered in this chapter. The development of nuclear energy as a source for the generation of electric power is briefly discussed in the first part. The second part examines nuclear energy as it is used now both domestically and internationally. The third segment looks at the nuclear power plants that will be constructed in the future. The fourth part of the article discusses ideas that are being put out for a new generation of nuclear power facilities. Small modular reactors are briefly introduced in the sixth part. The nuclear fuel cycle is covered in detail in the sixth part, which starts with a section on the availability of fuel materials and ends with a section on fuel reprocessing methods. The alternatives for handling nuclear waste are covered in the seventh section. The economics of nuclear power is covered in the eighth part [4]–[6].

DISCUSSION

After World War II, engineers and scientists working on the atomic bomb realised that carefully managed nuclear chain reactions might be a great source of heat for the generation of electricity. This led to the creation of nuclear reactors for power generation. Early studies on various reactor designs culminated in President Eisenhower's famous Atoms for Peace speech, in which he promised that the United States would find the way by which the miraculous inventiveness of man shall not be dedicated to his death, but consecrated to his life in a speech to the United Nations in 1953. The Atomic Energy Act of 1954, which President Eisenhower signed in 1954, encouraged the Atomic Energy Commission's (AEC) and private industry's joint research of nuclear energy. The United States' commercial nuclear power programme officially began with this. The Shipping port Atomic Power Station in Pennsylvania, which started operating in 1957, was the first substantial nuclear power station in the world. The Westinghouse Electric Company developed and constructed this pressurised water reactor (PWR), which was owned and operated by the Duquesne Light Company. The facility generated 231 MWt and 68 MWe.

The Dresden Nuclear Power Plant, which started operating in 1960, was the first boiling water reactor (BWR) of a commercial magnitude. The General Electric Company constructed this 200 MWe facility in Dresden, Illinois, approximately 50 miles southwest of Chicago, for the Commonwealth Edison Company. The PWR and BWR designs have dominated the commercial nuclear power industry, notably in the United States, despite the fact that alternative reactor types, including as heavy-water moderated, gas-cooled, and liquid metal-cooled reactors, have been successfully operated. These industrial power plants expanded quickly, going from tens of MWe to over 1000 MWe in generating capacity. Nations currently have nuclear power facilities in operation. The status of nuclear power facilities that are now in operation or being built across the globe is shown in the following section [7]–[9].

Current Nuclear Power Plants Worldwide

There were 433 distinct nuclear power reactors in operation across the globe by the end of 2012. PWRs make up more than half of these nuclear reactors. Figure 1 lists the types of reactors that are currently in use. There are now six different kinds of reactors being used to generate power across the globe, as indicated in Figure 1. These many reactor types are described in further depth in the sections that follow.

Pressurized Water Reactors

PWRs represent the largest number of reactors used to generate electricity throughout the world. They range in size from about 400 to 1500 MWe. The PWR, shown in Figure .1, consists of a reactor core contained within a pressure vessel and is cooled by water under high pressure. The nuclear fuel in the core consists of uranium dioxide fuel pellets enclosed in zircaloy rods that are held together in fuel assemblies. There are 200–300 rods in an assembly and 100–200 fuel assemblies in the reactor core. The rods are arranged vertically and contain 80–100 tons of enriched uranium.

Reactor Type	Main Countries	# Units Operational	GWe	Fuel
Pressurized light-water reactors (PWR)	United States, France, Japan, Russia	271	251	Enriched UO_2
Boiling light-water reactors (BWR) and Advanced boiling light-water reactors (AWBR)	United States, Japan, Sweden	83	78	Enriched UO_2
Pressurized heavy-water reactors—CANDU (PHWR)	Canada	48	24	Natural UO_2
Gas-cooled reactors (Magnox and AGR)	United Kingdom	15	8	Natural U (metal), enriched UO_2
Graphite-moderated light-water reactors (RMBK)	Russia	15	10	Enriched UO_2
Liquid-metal-cooled fast-breeder reactors (LMFBR)	Japan, France, Russia	1	1	PuO_2 and UO_2
		433	371	

Figure 1: Represting Nuclear Power Units by Reactor Types, worldwide [Research Gate.Net].

The steam generators get circulation of the 315°C pressurised water. The heated high-pressure water circulates through the tubes of the steam generator's tube and shell type of heat exchanger. The steam generator separates the cooling water for the nuclear reactor from the steam that powers the turbine generator. Water is poured into the steam generator's shell side, where it is heated and turned into steam that turns the turbine generator and generates power. The pressure vessel housing the steam generators and reactor core isWithin the nuclear containment building. Steam that has just left the turbine is condensed in a condenser before being sent back to the steam generator. In cooling towers, the condenser cooling water is circulated and cooled by evaporation. The cooling towers are often shown as a nuclear power plant's distinguishing feature.

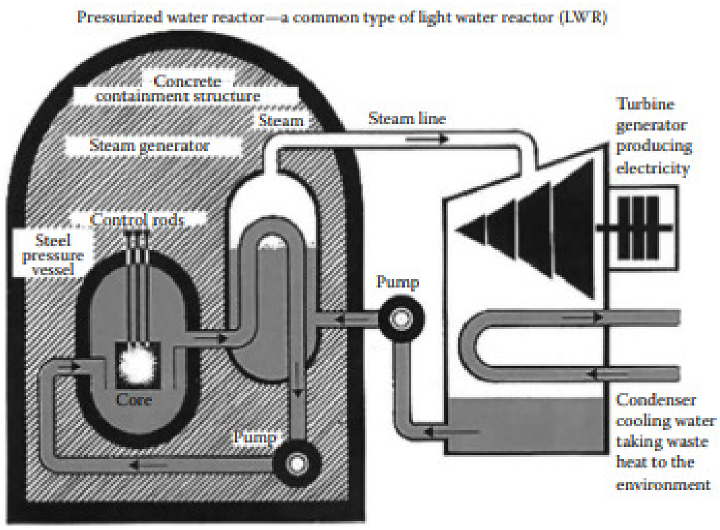

Figure 2: Represting Sketch of a typical PWR power plant [Routledge].

Boiling Water Reactor

The second-highest number of electricity-producing reactors are found in BWR power stations. BWRs come in sizes ranging from 400 MWe to around 1200 MWe, with the biggest. The BWR, seen in Figure. 2, is made up of a reactor core that is housed within a reactor vessel that is cooled by water that is circulated. In the reactor vessel, the cooling water is heated to 285°C, and the generated steam is then fed straight to the turbine generators. As in PWR, there is no intermediary loop. The reactor building houses the reactor vessel. In a condenser, the steam that is expelled from the turbine is condensed before being returned to the reactor vessel. The cooling water from the condenser is routed to the cooling towers, where evaporation cools it.

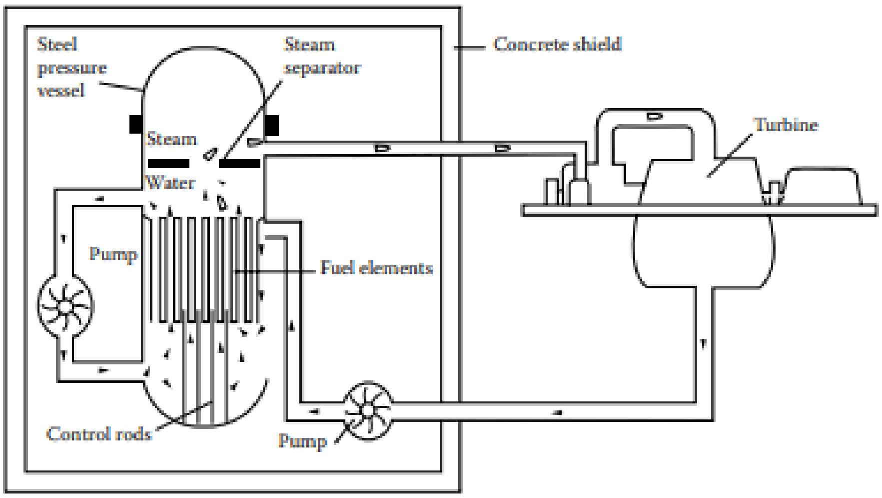

Figure 3: Sketch of a typical BWR power plant [Routledge].

Pressurized Heavy-Water Reactor

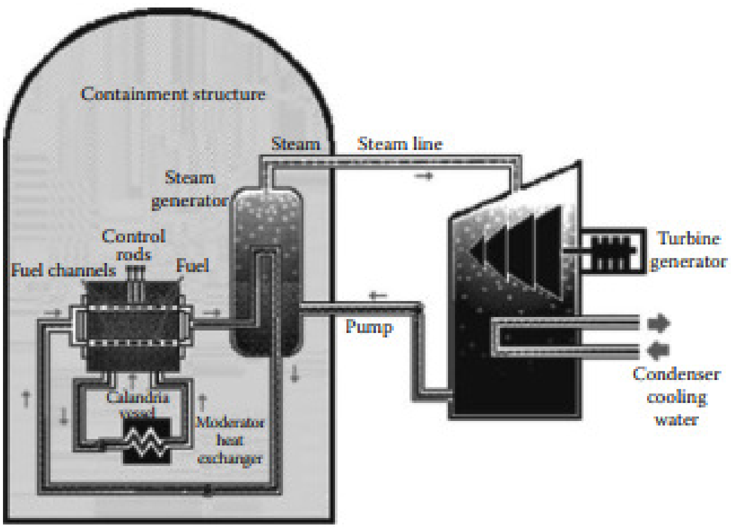

Figure 4: Sketch of a typical CANDU reactor power station [Routledge].

The so-called CANDU reactor was developed in Canada, beginning in the 1950s. It consists of a large tank called calandria containing the heavy-water moderator. The tank is penetrated horizontally by pressure tubes which contain the reactor fuel assemblies. Pressurized heavy water is passed over the fuel and heated to 290°C. As in the PWR, this pressurized water is circulated to a steam generator where light water is boiled to form the steam, used to drive the turbine generators. The pressure tube design allows the CANDU reactor to be refueled while it is in operation. A single pressure tube can be isolated and the fuel can be removed and replaced while the reactor continues to operate. The heavy water in the calandria is also circulated and the heat is recovered from it. The CANDU reactor is shown in Figure 3.

Gas-Cooled Reactors

Gas-cooled reactors were developed and implemented in the United Kingdom. The first generation of these reactors was called "Magnox" and they were followed by the advanced gas-cooled reactor (AGR). These reactors are graphite-moderated and cooled by CO_2.Magnox reactors are fuelled with uranium metal fuel, while the AGRs use enriched UO_2 as the fuel material. The CO_2 coolant is first circulated through the reactor core and then to a steam generator. The reactor and the steam generators are located in a concrete pressure vessel. As with the other reactor designs, the steam is used to turn the turbine generator to produce electricity. Figure. 4 shows the configuration for a typical gas-cooled reactor design.

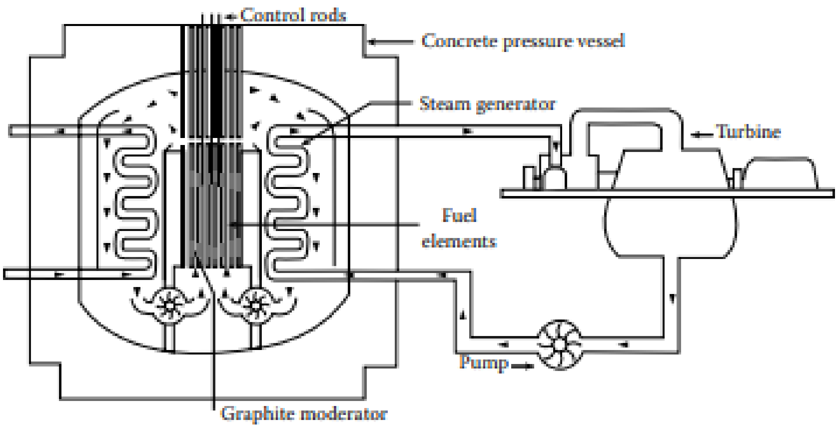

Figure 5: Sketch of a typical gas-cooled reactor power station [Routledge].

Other Power Reactors

The remaining reactors are the liquid-metal-cooled fast-breeder reactors LMFBRs in Japan, France, and Russia, as well as the light-water graphite-moderated reactors used in Russia. The fuel is housed in vertical pressure tubes in the light-water graphite-moderated reactors, where cooling water is permitted to boil at 290°C before the steam produced is circulated to the turbine generating system as in BWR. In the LMFBR, sodium is employed as the coolant, and the steam generator is heated by a secondary sodium cooling loop (Figure. 5).

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Growth of Nuclear Power

Three main elements are having an impact on the expansion of nuclear power production. These include modifying existing plants to boost their producing capacity, extending the life of existing plants via techniques like relicensing, and increasing the number of plants in operation globally through new construction. Following the Fukushima disaster, the IAEA claims that the World Energy Outlook 2011 According to the New Policies scenario, nuclear capacity will expand by 60% by 2035 as opposed to roughly 90% the year before. There were 433 nuclear power stations running at the end of 2012, with a total net installed capacity of

371 GWe. By 2035, they now project that the installed capacity will reach 630 GWe. This suggests that more than 250 new nuclear power plants will be constructed over the next 20 years; it also assumes that the average capacity will not change generally and does not take into consideration the replacement of existing plants that approach the end of their useful lives.

Increased Capacity

The generating capacity of nuclear facilities that are currently in operation is being increased. Reactors are being upgraded in the United States, Belgium, Sweden, Switzerland, Spain, and Finland. Since 1977, the Nuclear Regulatory Commission in the US has granted 140 uprates totalling more than 6500 MWe, some of which saw capacity increases of up to 20%. As of June 2013, there were 102 active reactors in the US with a generating capacity more than 100 GWe. The increase in generating capacity was brought about by improvements in maintenance and operating procedures that resulted in improved plant availability. While Spain's nuclear capacity has grown by 11% due to upgrading, Switzerland expanded its plant capacity by almost 13%. While avoiding the high capital cost of new building, the uprating procedure has shown to be a highly cost-effective technique to enhance total power output capacity.

Plant Life Extension

The process of extending the lives of operational reactors over their initial intended and licenced lifespans is known as life extension. The majority of reactors were initially planned and licenced for a 40-year operating life. Without life extension, the operating lifespan of many of the reactors constructed in the 1970s and 1980s will terminate between 2010 and 2030. As these reactors neared the end of their useful lives, there would be a major drop in the production of nuclear-based power if new plants weren't built to replace them. Nuclear power reactors now in operation have shown their ability to run for a longer period of time than their initial intended and licenced lifespan. 70 or more plants in the United States Nuclear Regulatory Commission (NRC) has awarded 20-year extensions to the country's operational licences. The majority of the other facilities' operators are also anticipated to submit applications for licence renewals. The plants will have an operational life of 60 years. Operating lives of 70 years are anticipated in Japan.

The world's earliest nuclear power plants were run by Great Britain. In the 1950s, Chalder Hall and Chaplecross were constructed with the intention of being in use for 20–25 years. Although they had a 50-year licence to operate, they were shut down for financial reasons between 2003 and 2004. The 12 oldest Russian reactors had their lifespan extended by 15 years in 2000, for a total of 45 years. Although life extension is now the norm everywhere, many reactors have been shut down for political, regulatory, and economic reasons. Many of these reactors were constructed before nuclear power became widely used. Usually smaller in size, they were first constructed as exhibition models. However, some nations' political and regulatory processes have resulted in the cancellation of nuclear power programmes and the closure of operational reactor facilities. The finest example is arguably Germany, which has decided politically to phase out nuclear power. Due to financial difficulties, facilities like San Onofre Units 2 and 3 in southern California and Kewaunee in Wisconsin are closing.

Generation IV Technologies

As was previously said, there were basically three stages to the development of nuclear power. The 1950s and 1960s saw the early development of prototype reactor designs, the 1970s and 1980s saw the development and deployment of major commercial facilities, and the 1990s saw the development of improved light-water reactors. Although the previous generations of reactors have successfully shown that nuclear power is viable, the nuclear industry still confronts a number of difficulties that must be addressed before nuclear power can reach its full potential. These difficulties include public concern over nuclear power safety following the Three Mile Island accident in 1979 and the Chernobyl accident in 1986 high capital costs and licencing uncertainty related to the construction of new nuclear power plants public concern regarding potential vulnerabilities of nuclear power plants to terrorist attacks and issues related to the accumulation of nuclear waste and the potential for nuclear accidents.The construction of a new generation of reactors, known as Generation IV, was started in 2001 in order to allay these worries and fully realise the potential contributions that nuclear power may make to the future energy demands in the United States and throughout the globe.

The goal of this initiative is to create a number of Generation IV nuclear power plants that can be deployed internationally by 2030. The U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) spearheaded an international initiative with involvement from 10 nations to build the Generation IV reactor systems. The Generation IV International Forum (GIF), a formal organisation, was founded by these nations. Argentina, Brazil, Canada, France, Japan, Republic of Korea, Republic of South Africa, Switzerland, United Kingdom, and the United States were among the GIF nations. The GIF aims to develop future-generation nuclear energy systems that can be licenced, built, and operated in a manner that will provide competitively priced and reliable energy products while satisfactorily addressing nuclear safety, waste, proliferation, and public perception concerns." The Generation IV Technology Roadmap, developed by the GIF, consists of three processes for selecting the most promising reactor ideas for development. The first step was to create a list of objectives for new reactor systems, the second was to ask the global nuclear community for proposals on new reactor systems that would help achieve these objectives, and the third was to use international experts to evaluate the concepts and choose the most promising ones for further research [10]–[12].

CONCLUSION

Nuclear power technologies have significant potential for tackling the issues of global energy consumption, climate change, and sustainable development until the year 2035. Nuclear power technology developments through the year 2035 are expected to offer substantial promise for a sustainable and low-carbon energy future. With these improvements in safety, effectiveness, and waste management, nuclear power is now a viable alternative for meeting the world's energy demands while reducing climate change. However, overcoming obstacles, establishing public acceptability, and encouraging global cooperation are necessary for a successful deployment. The development of a sustainable and dependable energy system is something society can work towards by using the advantages of nuclear power technologies and incorporating them into a broad energy portfolio.

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CHAPTER 18

OUTLOOK FOR U.S. ENERGY CONSUMPTION AND PRICES, 2011–2040

Beemkumar N, Associate Professor
Department of Mechanical Engineering,Faculty of Engineering and Technology, JAIN (Deemed-to-be University), Ramanagara District, Karnataka - 562112, India
Email Id- n.beemkumar@jainuniversity.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

The future of energy pricing and usage in the United States from 2011 to 2040 is outlined in this abstract, with a special emphasis on renewable energy sources. It looks at the projected trends and advancements in the energy industry and emphasizes the rising role of renewable energy in the country's energy mix. The analyses' major themes are highlighted in the abstract, including the historical patterns of energy costs and consumption, the factors that will shape future energy demand, and the contribution of renewable energy to addressing this need. It investigates the many renewable energy sources and their prospective contributions to the American energy system, including solar, wind, hydropower, and biomass. addresses the elements that are driving the development of renewable energy, such as legislative initiatives, financial incentives, cost reductions, and environmental concerns. It also takes into account the difficulties and advantages of incorporating renewable energy into the system, including intermittent nature, grid infrastructure improvements, and energy storage. the possible effects of renewable energy on energy costs and the national economy. It looks at the possible advantages of renewable energy, including the creation of jobs, a decrease in greenhouse gas emissions, and energy independence. To create a sustainable and low-carbon energy future in the United States, the abstract emphasizes the necessity for ongoing support and investment in renewable energy. It emphasizes the value of stable policy, research and development, and cooperation among industrial players, governmental organizations, and the general public. the increasing role of renewable energy sources is shown in the projections for energy consumption and pricing in the United States from 2011 to 2040. The United States can lessen its dependence on fossil fuels, prevent climate change, and build a more sustainable and resilient energy system by using technological developments and helpful legislation.

KEYWORDS:

Energy, Fuels, Transportation, Price, Renewable.

INTRODUCTION

The future of renewable energy depends critically on a functional transportation infrastructure. Considering how intricate and multidisciplinary the subject of transportation is, it actually merits its own book. However, this book's discussion of fuels and energy storage also touches on some of the major challenges surrounding transportation. While not claiming to be thorough, this section looks at some of the major concerns surrounding a sustainable transport future.In addition to being extremely practical fuels for ground transportation, petrol, and diesel also have a high energy density that allows for storage in a relatively small space, which is a key benefit for vehicles. For instance, compared to hydrogen compressed to 100 bar at roughly 300 kWh/m3, these liquid fuels have a volumetric specific energy content of about 10,000 kWh/m3. However, the world's known petroleum reserves are being depleted quickly, and their future availability is inevitable. Currently, petroleum is the primary component of more than 97% of the gasoline used for ground transportation in the US [1]–[3].Because of local oil and natural gas discovery and production, the United States has lately seen a decrease in the importation of fossil fuels. Average individuals are becoming more concerned about the rising cost of petrol and oil, and present transportation systems contribute significantly to the CO2 emissions that causes global warming.

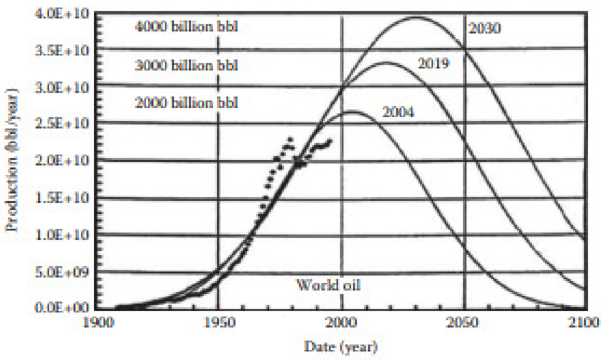

Figure 1: Oil production vs. time for various recoverable amounts of petroleum. [Routledge].

Oil specialists from all across the globe concur that the peak in global oil output will occur between 2020 and 2030. Figure .1 illustrates the forecasts for the time when global oil output will peak based on several estimations. For three total recoverable oil volumes that encompass the whole gamut of expert estimations, the oil production is shown as a function of time. Future oil field discoveries are possible, although it is unlikely that they will significantly increase the overall quantity of recoverable oil. As a result, it is estimated that the total quantities range between 3 and 4 trillion barrels of oil (bbl). The obvious inference to be made from these forecasts is that the production peak is close at hand and that oil prices will keep rising as supplies become smaller. Planning for a sustainable transport system that does not only rely on petroleum resources is thus a crucial component of a future with sustainable energy.

DISCUSSION

The alternative fuels that may be used in place of oil as well as their feedstock. A closer look at the table reveals that the fuels that are possibly independent of a petroleum resource like oil or natural gas include biodiesel, electricity, ethanol, and hydrogen through electricity. This manual has already covered the possibility of making liquid fuel from biomass in other places. There is every reason to think that in the future, biomass will make up a growing portion of the fuel used for transportation, particularly if it is possible to make ethanol from cellulosic materials like switchgrass or bio-waste, as well as diesel from algae. This is because, in contrast to cellulosic ethanol, which has an EROI of roughly 6, conventional techniques for producing ethanol from maize kernels only provide an energy return on energy investment of about 1.25. Algal-derived diesel could be even better. Even cellulosic ethanol, as seen in Figure. 2, would not be able to replace oil due to the fact that it would take a disproportionate amount of all arable areas in the United States to cultivate it.

Large-scale ethanol production would put food production in direct competition, which is crucial for a socially sustainable energy system. Utilizing biofuels made by aquatic microbial oxygenic photoautotrophs (AMOPs), sometimes referred to as algae, and has recently been suggested. This research demonstrated that AMOPs are fundamentally more effective solar collectors than cellulose, needless or no land, can be turned to liquid fuels using fewer complex processes, and provide secondary applications that fossil fuels do not. Compared to terrestrial plants, AMOPs have a 6- to 12-fold energy advantage due to their greater intrinsic solar energy conversion efficiency, which is estimated to be between 3% and 9%. The area required for three distinct biomass sources is shown in Figure. 2. The information pertains to

AMOPs, switchgrass, mixed prairie grasses, and corn grain. The area required to grow enough biomass to create enough liquid fuel to replace all the petrol is shown in each box overlaid on a map of the United States. 2007 saw its usage in the United States. The two boxes for AMOPs are for conversion efficiencies of 30% and 70%. Overall solar energy conversion to biofuels amounts to around 0.05% for ethanol made from corn grain and about 0.5% for ethanol made from switchgrass.

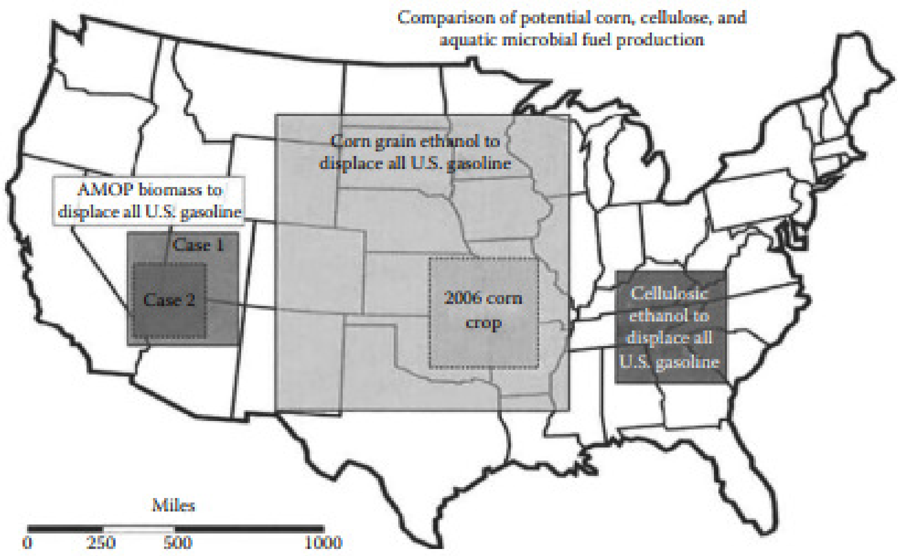

Figure 2: Relative land area requirement for various liquid fuel bio sources [Routledge].

Comparatively speaking, this number for AMOPs to ethanol or biodiesel is between 0.5% and 1%. Offers an even more positive evaluation of the potential of algae to make biodiesel. This research suggests that microalgae may be a source of biodiesel that might replace fossil fuel. Microalgae grow very quickly and are incredibly rich in oil, some microalgae may increase their biomass by as much as 20% per day, and their oil concentration can reach as high as 80% by weight. Figure.2 compares a few sources of biodiesel that may provide 50% of all transportation requirements in the US. Predicts that just a tiny portion of U.S. cropland would be required to provide 50% of the country's total need for transportation fuel. However, no full-scale commercial algal biodiesel production plant has been constructed and run for long enough to allow for accurate forecasts of algae's potential for use in a sustainable transportation system.

Well-to-Wheel Analysis

When assessing the possibilities of any new fuel for ground transportation, using a well-to-wheel study is a more thorough method to establish total efficiency rather than only focusing on the efficiency of an engine or a specific fuel. In Figure .3 the method for a well-to-wheel analysis is schematically shown. The creation of feedstock, its transportation and storage, the manufacture of gasoline, its transportation, storage, and distribution (T&S&D), and ultimately the operating of the vehicle are all sequential processes in the well-to-wheel method of a fuel cycle. Because each stage involves losses, this strategy is necessary for an objective comparison of several possibilities. While a fuel cell, for instance, is far more efficient than an internal combustion (IC) engine, it still requires a supply of hydrogen to function, which must be obtained via a number of stages from outside sources. In addition, there is no infrastructure for the transportation and storage of hydrogen, which results in significant losses in the total well-to-wheel analysis and much higher energy needs than for a petrol- or electricity-powered car (Figure 3).

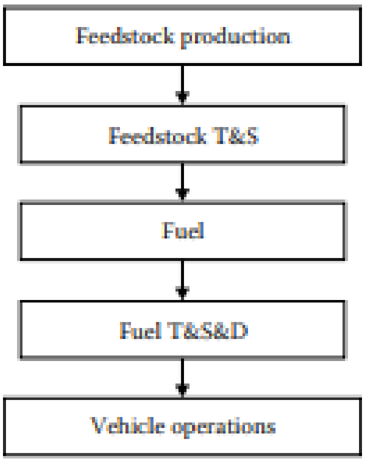

Figure 3: Steps in a well-to-wheel analysis for ground transportation vehicles [Routledge].

Mass Transportation

Mass transit would significantly cut the overall energy consumption for the transportation sector, according to a commonly held belief among state governments and environmentalists. The energy intensity of intercity rail and transit buses, that is, the energy used per passenger-mile travelled, is, however, almost the same as the energy intensity of cars in current use, as shown in Figure. 4 based on data gathered by the U.S. Transportation Department in this country. This is a result of urban expansion in big cities, which makes it challenging for a mass transit system to reach rural regions. In other words, the availability of mass transit systems won't significantly alter the total amount of energy used by the transportation industry unless there are incentives for mass transit or disincentives for driving a car, resulting in higher mass transport load factors, or more passengers per mile, on transit buses and light rail. Additionally, constructing additional light rail requires a significant investment in finance and may not always be worthwhile. Although it doesn't seem like there are many undiscovered prospects in mass transportation for people, shipping products and business items by ship or rail rather than by plane offers great potential for fuel savings.

Hybrid Electric Vehicles

Increasing the mileage of the automobiles is another apparent solution to the anticipated rise in price and scarcity of petroleum fuel. This may be done by increasing the IC engine's efficiency, such as by employing modern diesel engines with greater compression ratios than spark ignition (SI) engines or hybrid electric vehicles (HEVs). The issue of improving the efficiency of IC or diesel engines is quite specialized, hence it is not covered here. However, using more advanced battery technology in the near future is possible with HEVs. Like an electric vehicle, a HEV is propelled by a battery pack, an electric motor, and a power generating unit (PGU), which is often an IC or

HEV batteries, however, may be recharged by an onboard PGU that can be supplied by existing petroleum infrastructure, unlike electric cars. HEVs may be set up in either a parallel or a series configuration. The HEV may be powered by the PGU and the motor individually or simultaneously thanks to the parallel design. The HEV battery pack is recharged by the series design's PGU, which also powers an electric motor to provide power. The essential feature of both designs is that the battery pack and PGU may be much smaller than those of a standard electric car or a vehicle powered by an IC engine due to the latter's ability to function at close to full efficiency almost constantly.HEVs that are currently on the market, such the Toyota Prius, operate in a parallel layout, as shown in Figure. 4. A parallel HEV has two propulsion routes, one coming from the PGU and the other from the motor, and the output of each is controlled by separate computer chips. As in a conventional vehicle (CV), a parallel-configuration HEV has a direct mechanical connection between the PGU and the wheels, but it also features an electric motor that can drive the wheels. While instance, a parallel car may use its electric powertrain while travelling on the highway and its

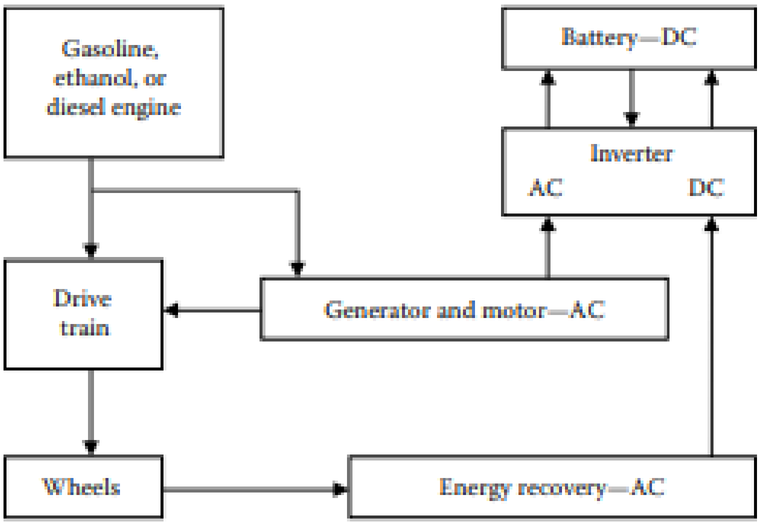

Figure 4: Schematic of a parallel-configuration hybrid electric vehicle [Routledge].

IC acceleration engine. The generator, which in turn may recharge the battery as required, is likewise powered by the PGU's output. Similar to an electric car, the generator's method for transferring power to the battery pack uses an inverter to convert alternating current to direct current (DC). Regenerative braking, which is another aspect of HEV parallel systems, transforms energy held in the inertia of the driving vehicle into electric power during. The following are some advantages of a parallel setup as opposed to a series design.

1. The vehicle has more power because both the engine and the motor provide power simultaneously.
2. Parallel HEVs do not need a separate generator.
3. Power is directly coupled to the road, thus operating the vehicle more efficiently.

Savings in energy and money from a HEV rely on a variety of variables, including the design of the vehicle as a whole, the price of gasoline, and the price and effectiveness of the batteries. According to preliminary calculations, the smaller motor and fuel savings over the course of 5-8 years might cover the higher cost of the batteries. When the cost of petrol or diesel surpasses $3 per gallon economically, a HEV would be advantageous, but the battery life cycle must also be taken into account. According to Toyota, if batteries have a life cycle of 150,000 miles, they won't need to be changed throughout the course of an average vehicle's lifespan. On the other hand, the operating cost throughout the life of a HEV would be much greater if the battery life was significantly lower and battery replacement was required during the anticipated 10-year automobile lifespan [4]–[6].

Plug-In Hybrid Electric Vehicles

The usage of plug-in HEVs (PHEVs), given the present level of technology, is arguably the most viable short-term solution to the ground transportation dilemma. Because they don't need new technology or distribution infrastructure, PHEVs have the potential to break into the mainstream consumer market. A PHEV has a battery and an IC engine for power, much as hybrids, which are currently commercially available. The difference is that a PHEV has a greater battery capacity and a plug-in charger, which allows the battery to be recharged anytime the vehicle is parked close to a 110 or 220 V outlet. When completely charged, a so-called series PHEV40 can travel the first 40 miles on electricity from the grid. When that charge is out, the car switches to a petrol or diesel engine and runs like a standard hybrid. According to estimates, a PHEV might lower petrol use for many drivers in the United States by 50% or more since the majority of commuting journeys are under 40 miles. In addition, utilising electric energy for ground transportation is more cost-effective and environmentally friendly than using petrol. An example of a Prius with

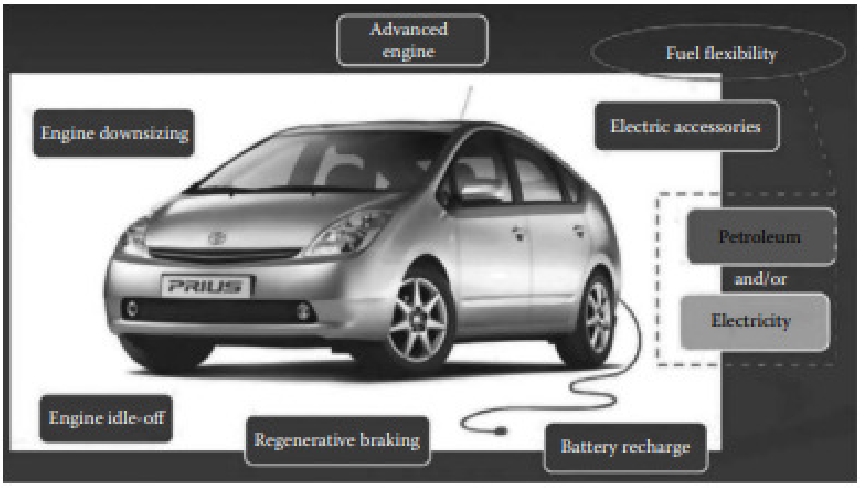

Figure 5: Representing the Plug-in hybrid electric vehicle [Routledge].

The plug-in capability was introduced. Although there are aftermarket conversions for these early plug-in upgrades, Toyota does not honor warranties when plug-in features are installed aftermarket since they are not mass-produced and hence expensive (Figure. 5). More recently, plug-in automobiles with varied battery storage capacities have been launched by all major original equipment manufacturers (OEMs) [7]–[9].The ability of PHEVs to charge their batteries at night, when utilities have extra power available, is a crucial feature. The potential energy charging and storage capabilities of PHEVs have caught the attention of utilities since off-peak charging would enable them to make better use of low-cost baseload power. Additionally, more sophisticated vehicle-to-grid models would enable utilities to repurchase energy from car owners' batteries at times of high demand, transforming a fleet of PHEVs into a large distributed storage-generation network. By employing extra capacity created by solar or wind energy to charge PHEVs, the setup would also permit the storage of renewable energy. Since lithium-ion and lithium-polymer batteries have the ability to hold huge charges in a lightweight form, as was discussed in the preceding section on batteries, this would make HEVs more desirable than the existing technology, which employs nickel metal hydride NiMH batteries [10]–[12].

CONCLUSION

The projection for U.S. energy costs and usage from 2011 to 2040 offers possibilities and difficulties for the renewable energy industry. The main conclusions about renewable energy use, costs, and their long-term effects are outlined in this conclusion.Renewable energy is expected to grow in popularity between 2011 and 2040, according to projections for energy pricing and use in the US. Renewable energy sources are positioned to be a key player in the nation's energy transition because of rising demand, falling costs, regulatory support, and environmental advantages. However, in order to address the remaining issues and quicken the adoption of renewable energy technology, governmental support, research, and innovation must continue. The United States can attain a more robust, cheap, and sustainable energy future while combating climate change and fostering economic development by adopting renewable energy sources.

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CHAPTER 19

INFRASTRUCTURE RISK ANALYSIS AND SECURITY

M. Sashilal Singh, Associate Professor,
Department of Electrical , Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India,
Email Id: msashilal@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Outlines the risk assessments and security issues related to the infrastructure of renewable energy sources. In order to ensure the safe and secure functioning of renewable energy technologies as they are progressively incorporated into the energy system, it is crucial to identify and address any possible risks or vulnerabilities.Emphasizes important issues discussed in the report, such as the vital components of renewable energy systems' infrastructure, the dangers and threats they may face, and the significance of security measures in protecting these systems. It examines the particular dangers and weaknesses linked to various forms of renewable energy, including solar photovoltaic (PV) systems, wind farms, hydropower plants, and biofuel facilities. These dangers include supply chain interruptions, physical damage, severe weather, cyberattacks, and equipment failure.The need for thorough risk assessments and prevention measures to safeguard renewable energy infrastructure. It emphasizes the significance of determining the possible effects of infrastructure failures and putting in place strong security controls such as cybersecurity protocols, physical security controls, redundancy, and contingency plans. Discusses how laws and rules from the government may be used to ensure that renewable energy infrastructure is secure. It emphasizes the need for industry stakeholders, governmental organizations, and cybersecurity specialists to work together to design and put into practice efficient security standards and best practices.Moreover, the possible effects of infrastructure risk on the adoption of renewable energy, investor confidence, and public opinion. It emphasizes the need for proactive risk management and ongoing surveillance to guarantee the resilience and long-term profitability of renewable energy systems. Assessments emphasize how crucial it is to take security precautions and risk assessments into account while planning, designing, and operating renewable energy infrastructure. Stakeholders are able to improve the dependability, safety, and security of renewable energy systems by identifying and resolving possible vulnerabilities. This, in turn, helps renewable energy become more popular and recognized as a reliable and sustainable energy source.

KEYWORDS:

Event, Occurrence, Probability, Risk, Time.

INTRODUCTION

Regardless of their sizes, natures, times, and locations of execution and utilization, all undertakings and commercial initiatives undertaken by people and organizations include a certain amount of risk. Even minor domestic initiatives, like building a deck for a home, and major, multibillion-dollar projects, like designing and building a space shuttle, include some element of risk. These hazards involve the danger of causing large cost overruns, delivery holdups, failures, monetary losses, environmental harm, and even serious injuries and fatalities. Because of the prospective advantages, rewards, survival, and future return on investment, people accept risks even when they might have disastrous results [1]–[3].In this chapter, risks are defined and discussed along with their dimensions, analyses, management, and communication.

Risk Terminology

Definitions that are needed for presenting risk-based technology methods and analytical tools are presented in this section

Hazards

A hazard is an action or phenomenon that has the potential to hurt someone or something, and it also has the ability to cause harm. For instance, threats include uncontrolled fire, water, and powerful winds. The danger must interact in a damaging way with someone or something for it to be destructive. The degree of damage that might occur, together with how seriously it could affect people and the environment, is known as the hazard's magnitude. Because they might pose risks and result in project failure, hazards need to be recognized and taken into account in life cycle evaluations of projects.A person's or a system's involvement with a risk might be voluntary or involuntary. For instance, exposing a marine vessel to the elements of the sea may cause it to interact with high waves in an uncontrolled, or involuntary, way. Although the decision to navigate through a storm system that is developing can be seen as a voluntary act in nature and may be required to meet schedule constraints or other constraints, the incentive to do so is provided by the potential rewards of on-time delivery of a shipment or the avoidance of late fees. Other instances where people engage with dangers for the possibility of financial gain, notoriety, and self-fulfillment and happiness include investing and scaling cliffs.

Reliability

A system or component's reliability may be described as its capacity to carry out its intended functions under certain operating or environmental circumstances for a predetermined amount of time. Probabilities are often used to evaluate this skill. Therefore, reliability is the likelihood that the complimentary event to failure will occur, as shown by the following expression:

$$\text{Reliability} = 1 - \text{Failure probability}$$

Event Consequences

Consequences for a failure occurrence may be described as the extent of loss or damage caused by a failure. A system's failure has some effects on it. Failure might result in injury, loss of life, economic loss, environmental harm, or other conceivable outcomes. To aid in risk analysis, consequences need to be defined in terms of failure consequence severities using relative or absolute metrics for different consequence categories.The degree of reward, return, or advantages from achievement may be described as the consequences for an occurrence of success. Economic and environmental effects might result from such an occurrence impacts or other potential occurrences. To aid in risk analysis, consequences must be quantified using relative or absolute metrics for different consequence categories [4]–[6].

DISCUSSION

The idea of risk might be connected to event-related uncertainty. Risk is sometimes referred to in the context of projects as an unpredictable occurrence or circumstance that, if it materializes, might have a favorable or unfavorable impact on the project's goals. Risk comes from the Latin word residuum, which refers to the difficulty a barrier reef presents to a sailor. According to the Oxford Dictionary, risk may be described as the likelihood of a danger, undesirable event, loss, etc.Risk is often connected to a system and is typically described as the potential loss brought on by an unknown exposure to a danger or by an unpredictable occurrence that takes advantage of the system's susceptibility. Based on known risk occurrences or event scenarios, risk should be assessed. In order to address the following factors, the International Organization for Standardizations ISO offered a broadly based definition of risk in its standard ISO 31000:2009 as the effect of uncertainty on objectives:

1. A difference from the anticipated that might be good or negative is called an effect.
2. Objectives may be applied at several levels, including strategic, organizational-wide, project, product, and process levels. Examples of such elements include financial, health and safety, and environmental objectives.
3. As stated in the definition that is often used, risk is frequently defined in terms of prospective occurrences and consequences, or a combination of these.
4. As stated in the usually accepted definition, risk is sometimes defined as a mix of the repercussions of an event, including changes in conditions, and the related probability of occurrence.

Since the majority of this book's coverage concentrates on the negative realm of consequences, using the first definition, providing two definitions of risk shouldn't create any confusion; nonetheless, readers must become acquainted with and comfortable with the latter widely based concept.When managing risk and establishing the scope and risk criteria for the risk management policy, the following external and internal factors or considerations must be taken into account ISO 31000:2009. Externalthe organization's goals are influenced by the following factors: relationships with, and perceptions and values of, external stakeholders; the cultural, social, political, legal, regulatory, financial, technological, economic, and competitive environment, whether it is global, national, regional, or local; key drivers and trends; and the environment's natural and technological components.Internal- governance, organisational structure, roles, and responsibilities; policies, goals, and the methods put in place to accomplish them; the capacity understood in terms of assets and expertise such as money, labour, time, people, processes, systems, and technologies; information systems, information flows, and decision-making processes both formal and informal; relationships with, and perceptions of, internal stakeholders; the organization's culture; standards, guidelines, and models adopted by the organisations; and the nature and scope of its contractual relationships.

$$\text{Risk} = [\, p_1, c_1, p_2, c_2, \ldots\ldots, p_i, c_i, \ldots. p_n, c_n] \quad 19.2$$

Where,

p_1 is the occurrence probability of an outcome or event i

c_1 is the occurrence consequences or outcomes of the even

A generalized definition of risk is sometime expressed as

$$\text{Risk} \equiv [l_1, o_1, u_1, cs_1, po_1, l_2, o_2, u_2, cs_2, po_2, \ldots, l_n, o_n, u_n, cs_n, po_n] \quad 19.3$$

Where,

l lis the likelihood

o is the outcome

u is the utility or significance

cs is a causal scenario

po is the population affected by the outcome

n is the number of outcomes

The definition given by Equation provides a realistic explanation of risk, beginning with the producing event to the impacted population and repercussions. It also includes critical qualities assessed in risk assessment that are discussed in this chapter. Since society reacts differently to dangers associated with a big population compared to a small population, the population-size impact should be taken into account in risk studies. For instance, a fatality rate of 1 in 100,000 per event results in an anticipated fatality of 104 per event for a population of 10, but a fatality rate of 1 in 100,000 per event leads in an expected fatality of 100 per event for a population of 10,000,000. The overall number of deaths per event or disaster is a determinant in risk acceptance even when the social effect of the two scenarios can be equal same anticipated risk value. Even though recreational boating is a riskier activity than flying, society nonetheless finds 200–300 injuries per accident to be unacceptable. Therefore, while determining an acceptable level of risk, it is important to take into account the size of the population at risk and the average number of deaths per incident [7]–[9].Due to two of its characteristics, the dimension of probability might be illusory in nature: 1 the methods of measurement and 2 the impact of time. The following are the most popular ways to quantify.

1. Frequency is defined as the number of repeated observations of the same experiments or systems that provide a certain result of interest. It is known as relative frequency if it is stated as a fraction or percentage.
2. A popular definition of rate is the number of times a result that is important to a system occurs during a certain period of time. Due to changes in the system's condition, such as those brought on by ageing, the rate itself may be time-dependent. Sometimes, the word frequency is misused to refer to the rate.
3. A measure of chance or likelihood is a probability

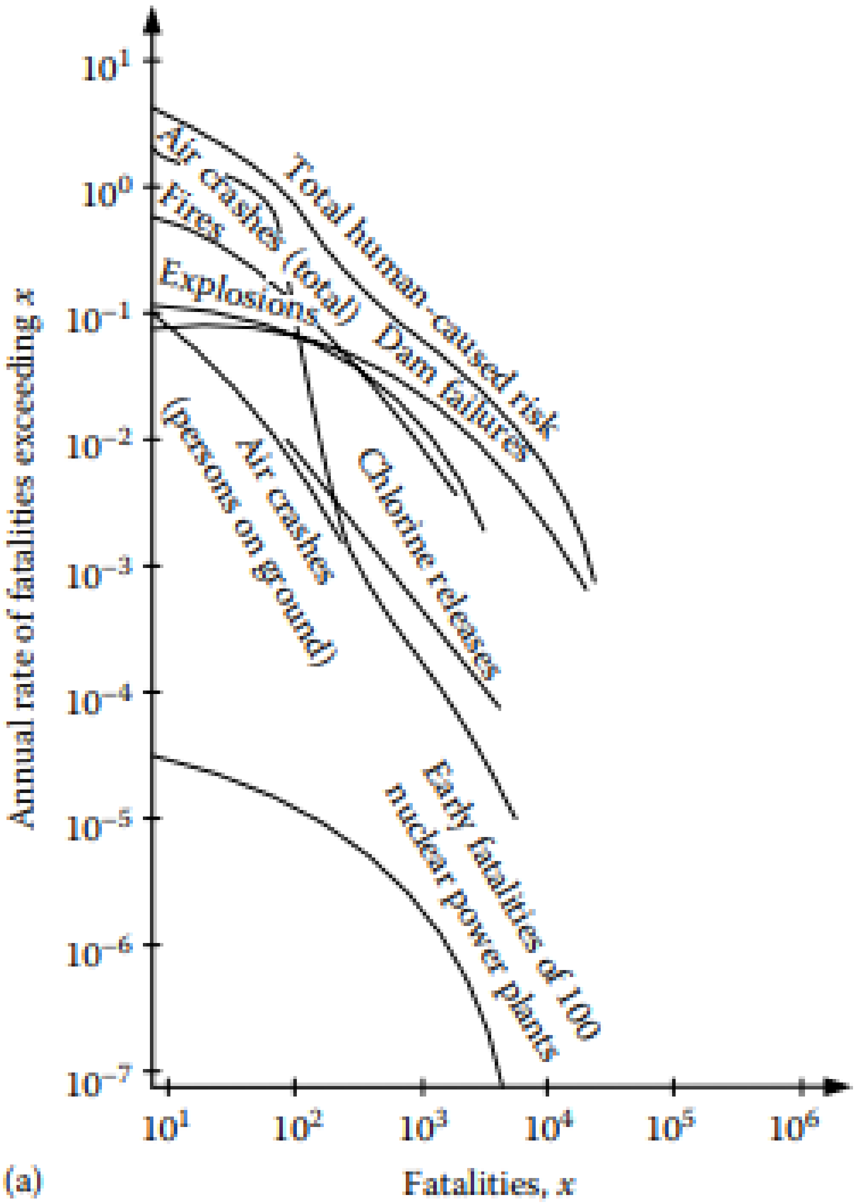
The following sections, respectively, examine how these three quantification methods are affected by time:

1. In terms of frequency, estimates of frequency trend towards values as observation time increases, and in situations where unbiased consistent estimators are used, estimates tend towards the genuine value.
2. In terms of the rate, an estimate of the rate tends to a value as observation time increases, and in situations where unbiased consistent estimators are used, the estimate tends to the real value.
3. In terms of probability, we are interested in the likelihood of an event occurring over a certain time period. This chance goes to 1 when this time period is extended. An eventual occurrence of the event is guaranteed as long as it is feasible; otherwise, the premise of possibility is violated.

As a 2D portrayal of probability and consequences, risk matrices, also known as heat maps, are essentially tools for capturing and visualising risks. They do this by defining ranges for consequence and likelihood. This approach divides probability and outcomes into categories and plots them on a matrix's two axes to represent risk. A lot of different dangers have been screened using risk matrices. They may be utilised independently or as the first stage of a quantitative investigation. Whatever method is used, risk analysis should be a dynamic process that is, a continual process where risk assessments are revaluated and modified.Continuous updating is required because decisions made or not made in one area may have an impact on risk in another.To accurately evaluate and estimate risk, we must weigh its distinguishing characteristics, including chance, negativity, and prospective rewards or advantages. The expected value for risk estimation is typically approximated by a point estimate, which is the product of the conditional probability of the event occurring and the consequence of the event, given that the event has already occurred, as follows with a loss in information regarding associated dispersion or variability:

Risk = Likelihood × Impact

Probability is measured on an event rate scale in units of count of events per time period of interest, for example, events per year; impact is measured on a loss scale, for example, monetary units or fatalities, or any other units suitable for analysis or multiple units per event, for example, dollars per event; and risk is event per unit time loss units per event producing. likelihood may also be written as a probability. Risk is shown as an average loss or an anticipated value of loss per unit of time.It is desirable to interpret the product as the Cartesian product for scoping the space defined by the two dimensions of probability and effect for all underlying events and scenarios. This view maintains risk's whole essence. The full probability distribution of outcomes should ideally be calculated.A risk profile, sometimes known as a Farmers curve, is a depiction of occurrence probability and effects.Here's one Based on a nuclear case study presented here for demonstrative reasons Kumamoto and Henley 1996, the Farmers curve is shown in Figure 1a. It should be remembered that the ordinate offers the yearly average while the abscissa provides the number of deaths.



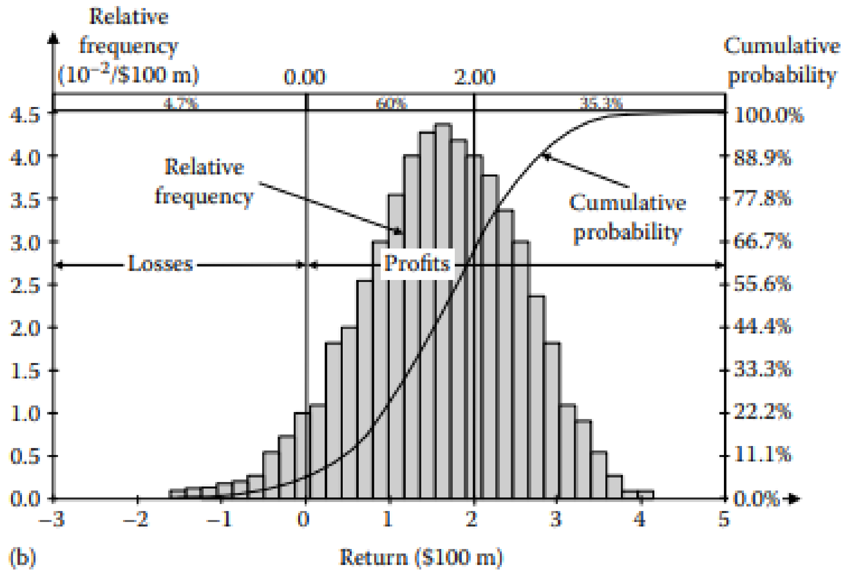


Figure 1: Represting the Farmers curve (a) Example risk profile (b) Example project risk profile [Routledge].

Occurrence of exceeding the equivalent amount of deaths on a regular basis. Sometimes probabilities are used to generate these curves rather than rates. The curves show values that are averaged or best estimated. Another example of a gross margin for an investment project that accounts for both prospective losses and gains is shown in Figure. 1b. The relative frequency histogram represented by the bars in the picture and the smoothed cumulative probability distribution represented by the solid curve show the outcomes of the Monte Carlo simulation that was used to create it. According to the graph, the likelihood of a loss is 0.047 while the likelihood of profits reaching \$200 million is 0.353.In order to show uncertainty in these curves, bands or ranges are sometimes included; these serve as confidence intervals for the average curve or the risk curve. Examples of bands-containing curves are shown in Figure. 2 Kumamoto and Henley 1996. Sometimes this uncertainty is referred to as meta-uncertainty or epistemic uncertainty.The likelihood of an event or threat occurring t, the chance of an event succeeding s given a threat slt, and the probability of an outcome given the occurrence of a successful event olt,s may all be broken down in circumstances involving intentional threats. Using the conditional probability ideas covered in Appendix A on the foundations of probability theory and statistics, the likelihood that an event will occur may be represented as follows:

po = ptpsltpolt,s 19.5

The threat is defined in this context as a risk or an adversary's capacity or purpose to conduct activities that are harmful to a system or an organization's interests.The threat in this situation is solely the responsibility of the opponent or rival and is often beyond the system owner's control. However, the system's vulnerability may either promote or deter the adversary's desire to utilise his capability a proprietor's defences. The probability polt may be further divided into two parts: a conditional probability on this success of consequences and the adversary's success likelihood. The success probability of the opponent multiplied by the conditional probability of repercussions resulting from this success yields the probability polt.A risk register, sometimes known as a risk log, is a list of detected dangers. A risk profile is a description of a collection of hazards that might apply to the whole organization, a specific division within the organization, or a stakeholder group.Risk segregation is the breakdown of an overall risk profile into a number of underlying risk profiles, while risk aggregation is the merging of several risks into one risk to generate a more thorough knowledge of overall risk[10], [11].

CONCLUSION

In summary, infrastructure risk analysis and security implementation are essential for the effective installation and operation of renewable energy systems. Stakeholders can improve the dependability, safety, and security of renewable energy infrastructure by identifying and resolving possible vulnerabilities. This encourages belief in renewable energy as a reliable and long-lasting energy source, aiding in the shift to a future powered by clean energy. The capacity of a system or component to fulfill functional criteria is referred to as performance. A number of factors, including speed, power, dependability, capability, efficiency, and maintainability, may be used to define an item's performance. Performance is affected by the product or system's design and functionality

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CHAPTER 20

A BRIEF OVERVIEW ABOUT RISK-BASED TECHNOLOGY

Vivek Kumar Jain, Associate Professor,
Department of Electrical, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India,
Email Id: vivekkumar@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

The employment of risk-based technological techniques in the field of renewable energy. It is critical to handle the possible risks and uncertainties related to the development, implementation, and operation of renewable energy technologies as they proliferate. the significance of risk assessment and management in renewable energy projects, the unique risks and difficulties encountered by renewable energy technologies, and the role of risk-based technology in minimizing these risks are only a few of the analysis's important points.It looks at the several phases of the lifetime of a renewable energy project, from planning and design through building, running, and decommissioning, and emphasises the need of doing a systematic risk assessment at each phase. This entails identifying and assessing possible risks, including resource unpredictability, grid integration difficulties, technological performance, uncertainty around policy and regulatory matters, and financial risks.the use of risk-based technology tools to address and manage these risks, including probabilistic modeling, scenario analysis, and decision-making frameworks.

KEYWORDS:

Assessment, Analysis, Failure, System, Risks.

INTRODUCTION

Numerous advantages result from the use of renewable energy technology in the global energy system, including decreased greenhouse gas emissions, increased energy security, and energy diversification. Renewable energy projects, however, have inherent risks and uncertainties much like any technical endeavor, which must be handled to guarantee their effective development and operation. In order to minimize possible problems and maximize the advantages of renewable energy systems, this introduction highlights the significance of risk assessment and management. It also gives a general review of the idea of risk-based technology in the context of renewable energy. Renewable energy technologies including solar, wind, hydroelectricity, and biomass have grown quickly, which has created additional complications and uncertainties. These include resource variability, difficulties integrating grids, technology performance, the unpredictability of policy and regulation, and financial hazards. For renewable energy projects to be viable and sustainable over the long term, it is essential to identify and properly manage these risks [1]–[3].

It emphasizes the significance of incorporating social, environmental, and economic variables in decision-making processes together with technical and non-technical hazards.the advantages of using risk-based technology in renewable energy projects, such as better project planning, improved system performance, optimized resource allocation, and elevated investor confidence. It also takes into account the difficulties and constraints involved in putting risk-based techniques into practice, such as data accessibility, modeling uncertainty, and stakeholder involvement.To identify, evaluate, and manage risks related to project development and operation, risk-based technological techniques must be used in the renewable energy industry. Stakeholders may improve the overall performance, dependability, and sustainability of renewable energy technology by including risk assessment and management practices in decision-making processes. Research, cooperation, and knowledge-sharing in this area must continue if risk-based technology is to be advanced in the renewable energy industry and the transition to a clean and reliable energy future is to be supported.

A systematic and proactive method of detecting, evaluating, and managing risks across the whole lifespan of renewable energy projects is provided by risk-based technology techniques. Stakeholders may reduce any negative effects and improve system performance by including risk assessment and management concepts in project planning, design, construction, operation, and decommissioning.The main elements of risk-based technology, such as risk assessment, risk mitigation, and risk communication, are highlighted in the introduction. It emphasizes the need for a multidisciplinary approach that fully assesses risks and uncertainties while taking into account technological, environmental, social, and economic variables. It also emphasizes the value of using tools and techniques like probabilistic modeling, scenario analysis, and decision-making frameworks to enhance strategic risk management and decision-making. The introduction also goes through the advantages of using risk-based technological techniques in the field of renewable energy. greater project planning, greater system performance, optimal resource allocation, higher investor confidence, and fewer financial and reputational risks are some of these advantages. Stakeholders can guarantee the dependability, safety, and long-term viability of renewable energy systems by methodically identifying and addressing risks.In order to improve risk-based technology in the renewable energy sector, the introduction stresses the need for cooperation among industry players, policymakers, academics, and technology developers. It emphasizes the need for best practices, standardized processes, and information exchange to assist strategic risk management and informed decision-making. To effectively manage risks, assure project success, and maximize the advantages of renewable energy technologies, the integration of risk-based technological techniques is essential in the renewable energy industry. Stakeholders can improve system performance, resolve uncertainties, and assist the global transition to a clean, sustainable, and resilient energy future by methodically identifying and minimizing risks.

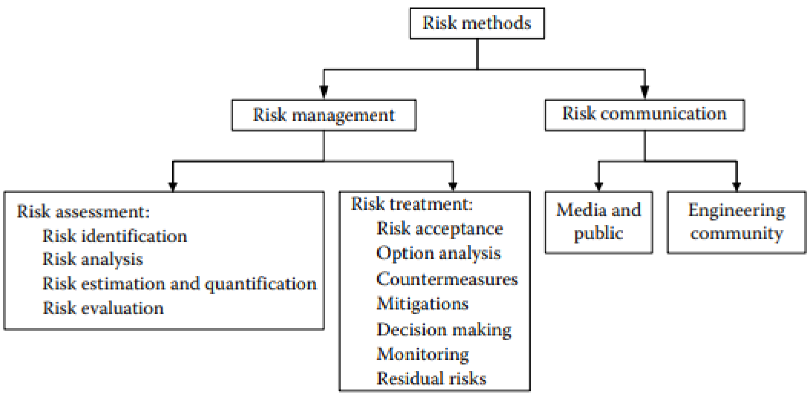

Figure 1: Represting the Risk-based technology methods [Routledge].

Risk-based technologies RBT are techniques, instruments, and procedures used to evaluate and control the hazards associated with a system or component. RBT techniques may be divided into two categories: risk management, which comprises risk assessment/analysis, risk control employing failure prevention and consequence reduction, and risk communication, as illustrated in Figure. 1. The three components of risk assessment are hazard identification, event probability analysis, and consequence analysis. The determination of acceptable risk and the comparative assessment of choices and/or alternatives via monitoring and decision analysis are both necessary for risk management. Failure avoidance and consequence reduction are also included in risk management. Risk perceptions are a component of risk communication, which is divided into risk communication to the media, the general public, and the engineering community.

DISCUSSION

Risk Assessment Methodologies

Risk studies require the use of analytical methods at the system level that considers subsystems and components in assessing their failure probabilities and consequences. Systematic, quantitative, qualitative, or semiquantitative approaches for assessing the failure probabilities and consequences of engineering systems are used for this purposeAn analyst may quickly and efficiently assess complex systems for safety and risk under various operating and severe situations by using a systematic method. By eliminating the need for unneeded and often expensive redesign, repair, strengthening, or replacement of components, subsystems, and systems, it is possible to quantitatively assess these systems. The outcomes of risk analysis may also be used to decision-making processes that rely on cost-benefit analyses.The modelling and quantification of hazards in a particular circumstance for a system is done via the technical and scientific process of risk assessment. Decision-makers may request and/or receive qualitative and quantitative data from risk assessment for use in risk management.

Risk analysis or risk assessment offers the method for determining risks, event probability, and effect. Three fundamental issues are addressed by the risk assessment processWhat can possibly go wrong? How likely is it that anything will go wrong? What happens if anything goes wrong? Utilizing the different risk methodologies covered in this chapter is necessary to provide answers to these queries.In addition to analysis and damage evaluation/prediction tools, a risk assessment process should make use of experiences obtained from project people, including managers, other comparable projects and data sources, past risk assessment models, experiences from other industries, and experts. A risk assessment process is frequently included in a risk-based or risk-informed methodology, which should be built as a synergistic combination of decision models, sophisticated probabilistic reliability analysis algorithms, failure consequence assessment techniques, and traditional performance assessment methodologies that have been used in related industries for performance evaluation and management. According to Ayyub and McCuen 2003 and Ayyub and Klir 2006, the technique should genuinely take into consideration the many sources and categories of uncertainty that are present throughout the decision-making process [4]–[6].A workflow or block diagram illustrating a typical overall process is shown in this section. The following sections provide descriptions of the methodology's different components. For the purpose of illustration, Figure.2 gives a general description of a strategy for risk-based management of structural systems. The main phases of the approach are as follows:

1. Definition of analysis objectives and systems.
2. Hazard analysis, definition of failure scenarios, and hazardous sources and their terms.
3. Collection of data in a life cycle framework.
4. Qualitative risk assessment.
5. Quantitative risk assessment.
6. Management of system integrity through failure prevention and consequence mitigation using risk-based decision making.

The next section provides a quick explanation of these stages, while the parts that follow give further background information.The methodology's initial step is to define the system. This definition need to be based on an aim for analysis that is divided into a goal. A system is an assembly or collection of components with different degrees of detail or action working together to achieve a specified goal. The risk-based technique receives the data it needs to accomplish the analysis goals from the system definition. The suggested methodology's system definition phase consists of four primary actions. The tasks include

1. Define the goal and objectives of the analysis.
2. Define the system boundaries.
3. Define the success criteria in terms of measurable performances.
4. Collect information for assessing failure likelihood.
5. Collect information for assessing failure consequences.

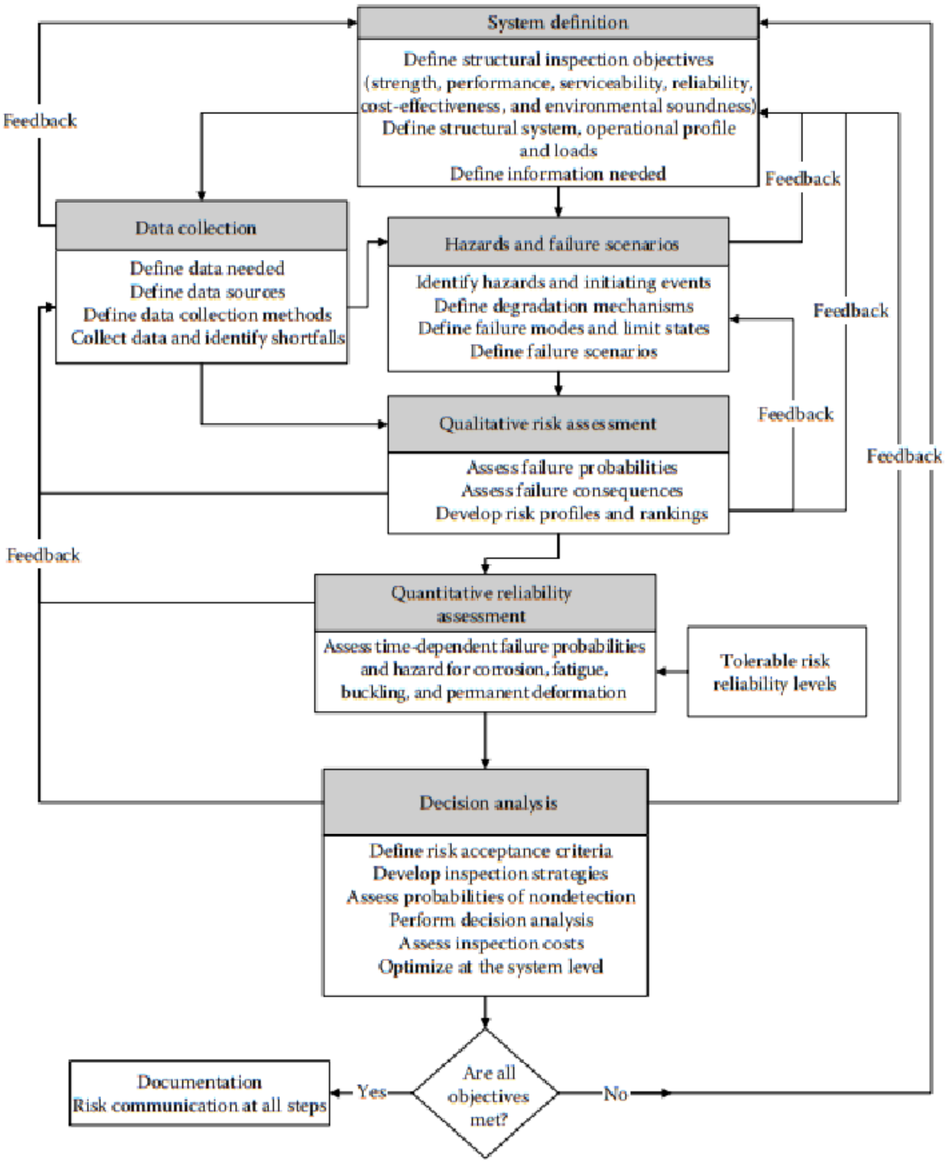

Figure 2: Methodology for risk-based life cycle management of structural systems. [Routledge].

For instance, structural systems need to have a goal for structural integrity, which might include goals for strength, performance, usability, dependability, cost-effectiveness, and environmental soundness. The goals might be divided further to include additional aspects of structural integrity, such as alignment and water tightness in the case of maritime boats. A specified set of goals may be used to define a system. Based on these stated aims, several definitions of the same system may be possible. Failure rates, repair frequencies, and failure consequences can be estimated. The system definition might need to include non-structural subsystems and components that would be affected in case of failure. The subsystems and components are needed to assess the consequences. To understand failure and the consequences of failure, the states of success need to be defined.

For the system to be successful, it must be able to perform its designed functions by meeting measurable performance requirements. But the system may be capable of various levels of performance, all of which might not be considered a successful performance. While a marine vessel may be able to get from point A to point B only at a reduced speed due to a fatigue failure that results in excessive vibration at the engine room, its performance would probably not be considered successful. The same concept can be applied to individual elements, components, and details. It is clear from this example that the vessel's success and failure impacts should be based on the overall vessel performance that can easily extend beyond the structural systems. With the development of the definition of success, one can begin to assess the likelihood of occurrence and causes of failures. Most of the information required to develop an estimate of the likelihood of failure might exist in maintenance and operating histories available on the systems and equipment and based on judgment and expert opinion.

This information might not be readily accessible, and its extraction from its current source might be difficult. Also, assembling it in a manner that is suitable for the risk-based methodology might be a challenge. Operation, maintenance, engineering, and corporate information on failure history needs to be collected and analysed for the purpose of assessing the consequences of failures. The consequence information might not be available from the same sources as the information on the failure itself. Typically, there are documentations of repair costs, inspection or recertification costs, lost person-hours of labour, and possibly even lost opportunity costs due to system failure. Much more difficult to find and assess are costs associated with the effects on other systems, the cost of shifting resources to cover lost production, and things like environmental, safety loss, or public relations costs. These may be attained through carefully organized discussions and interviews with cognizant personnel including the use of expert-opinion elicitation.

Risk Events and Scenarios

Identification of risk events and scenarios is a crucial step in the risk assessment process in order to fully analyses all hazards related to a project. Risky situations and occurrences fall into the following categories:

1. Technical, technical, quality, or performance risks, including those caused by complex or emerging technology, unattainable performance targets, and changes to the technology or standards adopted by the industry throughout the project.
2. Project management risks, such as insufficient time and resource allocation, poor project planning, and improper application of project management disciplines
3. Organizational risks include internally inconsistent cost, time, and scope objectives, poor project prioritization, insufficient or interrupted funding, resource conflicts with other projects within the organisations, mistakes made by individuals or by the organisations, and a lack of expertise and experience among project personnel.
4. Risks from the outside, such as changing laws or regulations, labor concerns, shifting priorities among the owners, nation risk, and weather.
5. Disaster recovery procedures are often necessary in addition to risk management in the event of natural disasters including earthquakes, floods, high winds, and waves. These categories allow for the identification of various risk kinds.

Identification of Risk Events and Scenarios

The question What can go wrong? serves as the starting point for the risk assessment process. The definition of risks, risk events, and risk scenarios is necessary to determine what may go wrong. Risk occurrences and scenarios were categorized in the preceding section. Identifying risks entails identifying those that might have an impact on the project and cataloguing their characteristics. Project teams, risk management teams, subject matter experts from other departments of the business, customers, end users, other project managers, stakeholders, and outside experts on an as-needed basis are often required to participate in the risk identification process. The process of identifying risks may be iterative. Selected project team members or the risk management team may carry out the initial iteration. A second iteration may be undertaken by the complete project team and the main stakeholders.

The last iteration may be carried out by individuals who are not engaged in the project to ensure an objective appraisal. It may be challenging to identify risks since they are often extremely subjective, and there are no reliable methods for doing so other than primarily depending on the knowledge and expertise of important project participants. As shown in Table .2, scenarios for risk assessment may be developed inductively (e.g., failure mode and effects analysis [FMEA]) or deductively (e.g., fault tree). The approach of probability or frequency estimation stated either deterministically or probabilistically is one of several examples shown in the table. Additionally, they may be used to evaluate other consequence categories, such as financial loss, fatalities, or injuries. These formal approaches are necessary for the risk identification process and risk assessment, as illustrated in Table .3. These many ways all use similar strategies to respond to the fundamental risk assessment questions, however depending on the circumstance, certain techniques may be more suitable for risk analysis than others.

Risk Breakdown Structure

The organisation and structuring of the risk sources for a project may result in a uniform presentation that makes them easier to comprehend, manage, and communicate. The approaches that have been previously provided may be thought of as straightforward linear lists of possible sources of risk that offer a hierarchy of categories for organising hazards. Sometimes referred to as risk taxonomy, these listings. Since it only displays a single level of organisation, a straightforward list of risk sources could not offer the depth required for certain decision-making circumstances. For certain applications, defining the risk sources completely hierarchically may be essential, with as many layers as are necessary to offer the appropriate understanding of risk exposure. A risk breakdown structure (RBS) is a hierarchical framework for defining risk sources. A source-oriented grouping of project risks that is organised to determine the overall risk exposure of a project of interest is what is referred to as the RBS.

Each lowering level reflects a more thorough characterization of the project's risk sources. The RBS may be valuable in helping an analyst comprehend the project's risks. Figure . 3 offers an example RBS. The table in this example defines four different risk levels. The hazards for the project are rated as level 0. The table includes three different kinds of level 1 dangers for demonstrative purposes. Each degree of risk has a different amount of risk sources, depending on the application. The level 2 dangers that follow are presented in groups and are further described at level 3. The RBS offers a way to comprehensively and methodically identify all relevant risk sources for a project. Since the RBS often have connections and share risk factors, they shouldn't be seen as a list of separate risk sources. An essential first step in developing a risk management strategy that includes mitigation measures is determining the root causes of the risk sources. For the aim of risk management, a method of risk relationship assessment and root-cause identification may be used to discover plausible situations that might result in snowball effects.

Level 0	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
		Corporate	History, experiences, culture, personnel
			Organization structure, stability, communication
			Finances conditions
			Other projects
			M
	Management	Customers and Stakeholders	History, experiences, culture, personnel
			Contracts and agreements
			Requirement definition
			Finances and credit
			M
		Natural environment	Physical environment
			Facilities, site, equipment, materials
			Local services
			M
Project Risks	External	Cultural	Political
			Legal, regulatory
			Interest groups
			Society and communities
			M
		Economic	Labor market, conditions, competition
			Financial markets
			M
	Technology	Requirements	Scope and objectives
			Conditions of use, users
			Complexity
			M
		Performance	Technology maturity
			Technology limitations
			New technologies
			New hazards or threats
			M
		Application	Organizational experience
			Personnel skill sets and experience
			Physical resources
			M

Figure 3:Risk Breakdown Structure for a Project [Pueblerino].

System Definition for Risk Assessment

A crucial first step in doing a risk assessment is defining the system. A system is a deterministic object that consists of an interdependent group of discrete pieces and is often characterized using deterministic models. The term "deterministic" means that the system's design is well-defined and not ambiguous. The system's definition is based on an examination of its performance and/or functional needs. A system's description may include both functional and physical components. Functional descriptions are often used to pinpoint systems with a lot of information. A system may be broken down into interconnected subsystems. An explanation of the system's physical components, elements, and other characteristics follows more specifics. In order to undertake risk analysis consistently, it is necessary to organize and repeat the system analysis process. This ensures that key system components are identified and irrelevant data is left out. The emergence of the goals of the risk analysis serves as the foundation for system boundaries. Setting up system boundaries might help in creating the definition of the system. What performance characteristics of the system are of relevance influences the choice of the system boundary?

The objective of the study will also influence the choices of objects to include in the exterior border area. The set system boundary is followed by the system's external environment. Beyond the physical/functional system, boundaries may also be drawn. For instance, time may also be a boundary because as a product progress through its life cycle, the entire system model may change. A system's life cycle is crucial because some potential risks might vary over time. For instance, early in a system's life, material failure due to corrosion or fatigue would not be a worry. However, later in the system's life cycle, this issue could become quite critical. A resolution limit for the system should be established in addition to the boundaries. The chosen resolution is significant since it restricts the level of analytical detail. If you provide the issue too little information, it may not be addressed. A surplus of data may add complexity to the study, increasing expense and difficulty.

The system model's depth must be enough for the particular issue. The problem's resolution is also constrained by the practicality of gathering the necessary data. The resolution for failure analysis should be at the component level, where failure information is accessible. Additional clarity is not required and would just make the analysis more difficult. The top-down split of a system into subsystems and components is known as the system breakdown structure. The system has internal boundaries thanks to its design. Systems and subsystems are often established as functional needs before reaching the component level of detail. A system's functional level indicates the function or functions that are necessary for the system to operate. The system is further broken down into discrete elements until the hardware in the system is identified at the physical level of a system description. A logical, repeatable, and systematic method to risk analysis may be accomplished by structuring a system hierarchy utilising a top-down approach as opposed to fragmentation of particular systems.

Modelling the system using some of the risk assessment techniques mentioned in Table .3 provides further system analysis insight. These methods provide procedures that may aid in system-related decision-making. There are two types of modelling logic that are based on how a system's parts interact: induction and deduction. It's important to note how modelling and decision-making methods vary from one another. A broad conclusion may be drawn using induction logic from specific examples. This reasoning is used when examining how a malfunction or condition affects a system's functionality. The question "What are the system states due to some event?" is answered using inductive analysis. This "event" is a flaw in the system according to reliability and risk evaluations. FMEA, event tree analysis (ETA), and preliminary hazard analysis (PrHA) are a few methods that use the inductive approach. Deductive methods provide justification for drawing a particular inference from a set of general circumstances. This technique for system analysis looks for ways that a system, subsystem, or component failure might lead to the system failing. This method provides a response to the question, "How may a system state occur? Techniques for fault tree analysis (FTA) and its counterpart success tree analysis (STA) are provided by inductive reasoning.

Selected Risk Assessment Methods

Risk assessment techniques may be divided into two categories based on whether the risk is evaluated via quantitative or qualitative examination. In qualitative risk analysis, the likelihood and consequence values are assessed using discretion and, on occasion, "expert" opinion. Depending on the resources at hand, this subjective technique may be adequate to evaluate a system's risk. In order to find numerical probability values and consequence values for risk assessment, quantitative analysis depends on probabilistic and statistical methodologies and databases. This methodical technique conducts a more thorough analysis of the system to evaluate hazards. The availability of data for assessing the danger and the amount of analysis required to make a confident decision determine whether to use a quantitative or qualitative approach. Although qualitative approaches provide analyses without providing specific information, the intuitive and subjective procedures may cause variations in results depending on who uses them.

Quantitative analysis often leads to a more consistent knowledge among people, but correct findings need high-quality data. Depending on the circumstance, a mix of qualitative and quantitative studies may be used. Estimates of the failure probability at a few specified decision-making stages are needed for risk assessment. The failure probability may be calculated as a failure rate, mean time between failures, yearly failure likely, or lifetime failure likelihood. Both numerical and non-numerical estimations are acceptable. The typical duration between failures is 10 years, and the yearly failure probability is shown numerically as 0.00015. An example of a non-numerical form for "an annual failure likelihood" and "a mean time between failures" is big and medium, respectively. Guidance must be given on the definitions of phrases like big, medium, small, very large very tiny, etc. in the later nonnumeric form. The choice of the form should be made based on the information's accessibility, the personnel's capacity to represent the information in question in one form or another, and the significance of having numerical information as opposed to nonnumeric information when making final judgements.

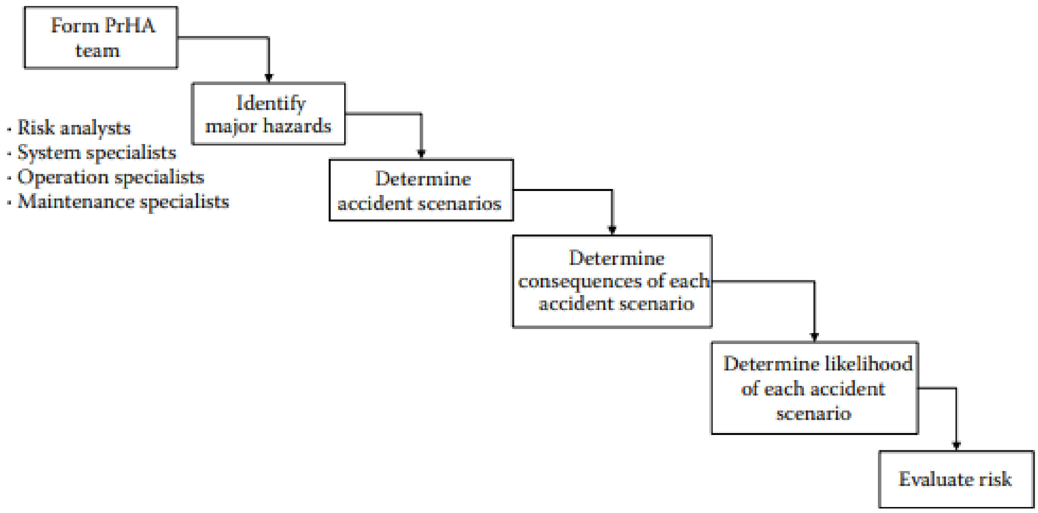

Figure 4: Preliminary hazard analysis (PrHA) process [Routledge].

It is necessary to choose the failure consequences that should be taken into account in a research. Production loss, property damage, environmental harm, and safety loss in the form of human injury and death are just a few examples. At the indicated levels of decision-making, rough estimations of the failure consequences must be made. Both numerical and non-numerical estimations are acceptable. 1000 units is a sample numeric representation of a manufacturing loss. Large is an example of a non-numerical term for production loss. Guidance must be given on the definitions of phrases like big, medium, small, very large, very tiny, etc. in the later nonnumeric form. The choice of the form should be made based on the information's accessibility, the personnel's capacity to represent the information in question in one form or another, and the significance of having numerical information as opposed to nonnumeric information when making final judgements. Risk estimates may be calculated as the arithmetic multiplication of the respective failure probability and consequences for the equipment, components, and details. They can be computed as a pair of likelihood and consequences. Alternately, charts of failure likelihood vs repercussions may be created for each occurrence. It is thus possible to establish an approximative ranking of them as groups based on risk assessments, failure probabilities, and/or failure consequences. preliminary risk assessment PrHA is a well-known risk-based technological tool with several uses. Figure .3 depicts the whole procedure.

Determine the likely accident situations and rate them. It is typically used as a first step in the process of determining and minimizing the risks connected to a system's main hazards. Analysis of the failure mode and consequences another widely used risk-based technology technique is FMEA, as shown in Figure. 4 [7]–[9]. Both domestic and international rules for the aerospace, processing plant, and marine sectors now include this technology. The Society of Automotive Engineers provides two forms of FMEA: design and process FMEA, in its recommended practice. This analysis tool makes the assumption that a failure mode manifests itself in a system or component as a result of some failure mechanism, after which the impact of this failure on other systems is assessed (Figure. 5) For each failure mode's impact on the system's overall performance, a risk rating may be created. The following categories offer examples of the different terminologies used in FMEA based on the production of personal flotation devices (PFDs) [10], [11].

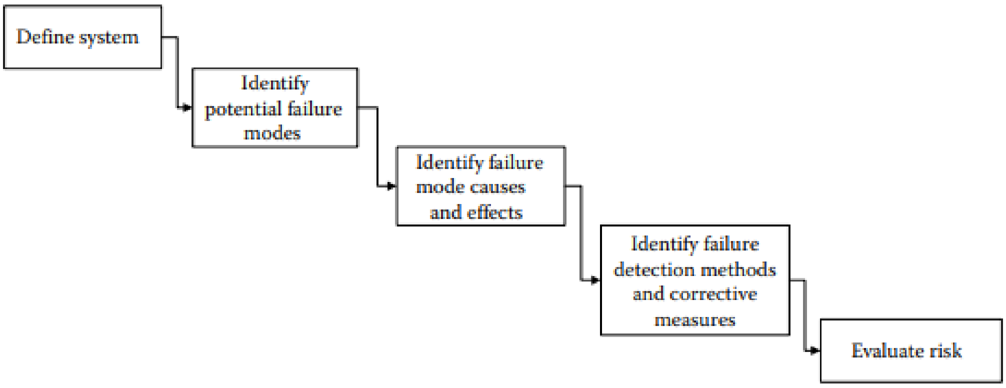

Figure 5: Failure mode and effects analysis (FMEA) process [Routledge].

CONCLUSION

To manage the inherent uncertainties and possible dangers connected with technological systems, the deployment of risk-based technology techniques is crucial in many sectors and applications. To manage and reduce risks in technological systems, risk-based technology techniques must be included. These methods help players in the renewable energy sector make well-informed choices, maximize project results, and assist the shift to a resilient and sustainable energy future. The efficacy of risk-based technology techniques across sectors will be further enhanced by ongoing improvements in risk assessment and management procedures. Failure mode, failure effect, severity rating, causes, occurrence rating, controls, detection rating, and risk priority number.

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CHAPTER 21

ELECTRICITY INFRASTRUCTURE RESILIENCE AND SECURITY

Harsh Shrivastava, Assistant Professor,
Department of Electrical , Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India,
Email Id:ershrivastava@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

An overview of the idea of secure and resilient energy infrastructure is given in this abstract. Making sure the energy infrastructure is resilient and secure is crucial since contemporary civilization depends significantly on power for many essential purposes. This summary summarizes the analysis's main points, such as how resilience and security are defined in relation to electrical infrastructure, how the energy system is challenged and vulnerable, and how resilience and security may be improved. the importance of resilient electrical infrastructure, which describes the grid's capacity to endure and recover from interruptions brought on by challenges such as natural disasters, cyberattacks, or other threats. It emphasizes the significance of preventative steps to lessen the effects of interruptions and facilitate quick recoveries, such as solid infrastructure design, redundancy, and contingency planning**.** The abstract also discusses the rising worry about cybersecurity vulnerabilities to the power infrastructure.

KEYWORDS:

Control,Civilization, Infrastructure, System, Security.

INTRODUCTION

Since its transmission lines link all of the electric production and distribution on the continent, the North American power network may be regarded as the biggest and most intricate machine in the whole globe. In that regard, it serves as an example of the complexity of the electric power infrastructure and how technological advancement and effective markets may work together. and that policies can deal with them. With approximately 15,000 generators spread over 10,000 power plants, hundreds of thousands of kilometers of transmission and distribution networks, and an estimated value of over US $800 billion, this network represents a huge investment. Transmission and distribution cables alone were worth $358 billion in the United States in 2000. The North American electrical grid was named the 20th century's greatest engineering accomplishment by the National Academy of Engineering. Around 10,000 power plants, 450,000 miles of high-voltage >100 kV transmission lines, over 6 million miles of lower voltage distribution lines in the United States, and more than 15,000 substations make up the current North American electric power system.

The transmission system, an interstate grid, links producing stations with areas of high electrical demand, such as cities and commercial and industrial enterprises. The local distribution system, in turn, offers service to clients in the residential, commercial, and small business sectors. Every energy consumer, producer, distributor, and broker engage in business transactions, competition, and cooperation via the North American power system. This continent-scale conglomerate includes every sector of the economy, every company, every shop, and every residence as active or passive participants. The electric industry has undergone significant change over the past ten years and will continue to do so in the coming years as its main players, the traditional electric utilities, adapt to deregulation, competition, renewable energy portfolio standards, tightening environmental/land-use restrictions, and other global trends [1]–[3].

It examines the flaws in linked digital systems and highlights the need for strong cybersecurity defenses against hostile assaults. This entails steps like information exchange among stakeholders and intrusion detection systems.emphasizes how crucial it is for different stakeholders, including government agencies, utilities, business partners, and research organizations, to work together in order to strengthen the security and resilience of the energy system. It places a strong emphasis on how laws, guidelines, and policies may encourage the development of robust and secure systems. Also takes into account the always-changing threats and the need of monitoring, evaluate, and adapt resilience and security measures. It emphasizes the need of adopting cutting-edge technology to improve situational awareness and reaction capabilities, such as enhanced sensors, analytics, and grid management systems. For a consistent and continuous supply of energy, it is essential to maintain the infrastructure's resilience and security.

Stakeholders may improve the grid's capacity to endure disruptions and defend against attacks by deploying strong infrastructure designs, cybersecurity safeguards, and cooperative methods. For an energy infrastructure to be safe and robust and to serve the demands of contemporary society, ongoing research, innovation, and cooperation are crucial.The majority of the present systems were created by and for the regulated monopoly utility business, and as a result, they are ill-equipped to manage the greater and more rapid changes in markets and technology that are occurring on both the supply and demand sides of the economy. It is crucial to expect that these changes will persist, and the infrastructure has to be more adaptive and agile in order to handle them. In order to allow the optimal choices for each stakeholder, our long-term objective is to integrate generation, transmission, distribution, and end use into a cohesive network with accessible, secure data, information, and knowledge.

The ability of the network as a whole to absorb shocks under the influence of deregulation, the digital economy, and interactions with other infrastructures has also changed without any systematic examination. Power supply outside nearby regions has only lately become a crucial design and technical factor with the introduction of deregulation, unbundling, and competition in the electric power business. However, we continue to anticipate that the current grid can manage an expanding number and diversity of long-distance, bulk power transfers. Grid congestion, unusual power flows, and customer dependability expectations are rising in response to the demands of a pervasively digital world that depends on microprocessor-based gadgets in automobiles, homes, businesses, and industrial facilities.The weaknesses of the electric infrastructure became more obvious in the months after Hurricane Sandy and more than ten years after the widespread power outages that occurred in 2003 in the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, and Italy . Since then, risk mitigation has advanced, although slowly.

The present government effort is mostly concentrated on transmission. To maintain acceptable levels of grid dependability and provide the services that customers desire, market design and grid expansion programmes for both the transmission and distribution networks must cooperate. The system must, at a minimum, allow for the installation of demand response, conventional and renewable generator additions, and solar and electric vehicle deployment on the distribution system. In the United States, a large portion of the potential for natural gas and renewable energy is concentrated in rural regions with low energy consumption and poor access to our national infrastructure for bulk electric power transmission. The growth of the grid has also been impacted by the recent increase in natural gas output in the US. In order to serve the energy needs of homes and businesses and have the potential to replace significant portions of the oil currently used in vehicle transportation, sufficient gearbox capacity must link new natural gas generating plants, onshore or offshore wind farms, solar plants, and other renewables to customers.

In order to support public policy goals, accommodate the retirement of older generation resources, increase transfer capability to obtain greater market efficiency for the benefit of consumers, and continue to meet evolving national, regional, and local reliability standards, new transmission will play a crucial role in the transformation of the electric grid. The installation of the required electric infrastructure is necessary to maximize the use of these renewable energy sources and natural gas sites. This cooperation at all levels is required for politically contentious tasks like the siting of facilities and the routing of new transmission lines, which call for sizable financial investments. ramifications of this change, such as its decreased production and transmission

DISCUSSION

Many discussions have centres on issues relating to power restoration in the Northeast in the months after Hurricane Sandy's tremendous devastation of the East Coast: Assisted the smart grid? A smart grid may have also been useful. The inquiries are legitimate, and the brief responseit dependsis insufficient. A lengthier response is more useful since it enables us to think about the principles guiding a self-healing grid, the drivers of grid modernization, and what we should do to maximise the returns on future investments.It will take thorough post-event investigation to determine if smart grid technologies really lessened Sandy's effects or sped up power restoration. Let's put the storm and its effects in perspective for the time being. First, it is important to appreciate that a powerful physical attack comparable to the superstorm of October 2012 would inevitably overwhelm the electricity system, at least temporarily. Under these conditions, no amount of money or technology can provide continuous power service [4]–[6].

Second, the American electricity sector is only now starting to adjust to a larger range of risk. It is interesting that since the 1950s, both the number and frequency of yearly, weather-related large outages have grown. The frequency of such outages rose from 2 to 5 per year between the 1950s and the 1980s. These interruptions grew to between 70 and 130 per year between 2008 and 2012. Up to 178 million consumers meters were impacted by power outages over the five-year period that were 66% weather-related.As we put strategies, technologies, and practises in place that will harden the grid and enhance restoration performance after a physical disturbance, this adaptation process continues. A multidecade, multibillion-dollar effort is underway to create an end-to-end, intelligent, secure, robust, and self-healing system. The investments made thus far in advanced metering infrastructure and the next wave of distribution automation DA expenditures are only the beginning. Thirdly, depending on the utility, the legacy equipment involved, the region, and even the kind and placement of equipment within a utility's service area, cost-effective investments to harden the grid and promote resilience will vary.

In the case of Sandy, storm surges and floods affected coastal communities, but strong winds and heavy rain caused the greatest destruction inland. In those various contexts, improved distribution system hardening and resilience would take diverse shapes.It may be necessary to rebuild subterranean substations near the ocean on the surface, although selective undergrounding of certain overhead wires further inland may be more cost-effective.The one generalisations we can make, however, is that the pursuit of an intelligent, self-healing grid has several traits that will make the grid very dependable in most situationscertainly in situations where interruptions are less severe than Hurricane Sandy. Utilities and consumers may also adopt additional, site-specific precautions based on logical risk assessment. As investments are made, the economic advantages of a modernized grid will become apparent. Regardless of the prediction for more catastrophic weather to come as our climate changes, in my opinion, we must make these investments if we want to maintain the digital economy of the twenty-first century. It describes the security, adaptability, robustness/survivability, and resistance to new threats and unexpected situations of large-scale power supply infrastructure.

InWe also pay attention to some of the difficulties in creating a smart self-healing electric power grid for improved system security, dependability, efficiency, and quality.

Electricity Enterprise: Today and Tomorrow

Where Are We

The current electricity supply system is susceptible to malicious attacks and natural calamities. Regarding the latter, a terrorist attack that successfully disrupts the power distribution system might have a negative impact on the nation's security, the economy, and every citizen's life.Power system protection is both crucial and challenging, and this has long been understood. The U.S. Congress' Office of Technology Assessment OTA published a thorough report in 1990 titled Physical Vulnerability of the Electric System to Natural Disasters and Sabotage, which came to the following conclusion: Terrorists could imitate acts of sabotage in several other countries and destroy critical [power system] components, rendering large portions of a transmission network inoperable for months.

Some of these parts are susceptible to saboteurs using explosives or simply powerful weapons. The cost of extensive outages was also covered in the research, with estimates ranging from $1 to $5 per kW h of service disruption, depending on the duration of the outage, the kinds of consumers it affects, and a number of other variables. For instance, in the 1977 New York City blackout, damage from looting and arson accounted for nearly $155 million, or about half of the whole cost.

The possibility of a concerted assault has made security more important to take into account alongside the dependability of power systems, which assumes more sporadic and isolated failures. The system's susceptibility to physical assaults and natural calamities has long been known, but in recent years, this susceptibility has grown dramatically, in part because the system is working closer to full capacity and in part because terrorist strikes are no longer a far-fetched possibility.Due to the thousands of transformers, line reactors, series capacitors, and transmission lines that are included in the accounting for all important assets, the issue has become even more complicated.Because there are so many parties involved, protecting all of the highly varied and distributed assets is almost impossible:

1. Over 450,000 miles of HV lines 100 kV and above.
2. Over 6644 transformers in the Eastern Interconnection.
3. Over 6000 HV transformers in the North American Interconnection of which<300 are critical assets.
4. Control centers.
5. Interdependence with gas pipelines.
6. Compressor stations.
7. Dams.
8. Rail lines.
9. Telecommunication equipment monitoring and control of the system.

For instance, trends indicate that there are more recorded assaults and incursions on a global scale; this has been happening quite quickly in recent years. Due to Human reaction may not be sufficient due to the increasingly speedy and sophisticated nature of certain malicious programmes, invasions, and denial-of-service assaults. To manage rising demand with a sufficient safety cushion, very little infrastructure particularly transmission lines has been constructed. Figures. 1 and. 2 display certain patterns and known non sensitive attack types.

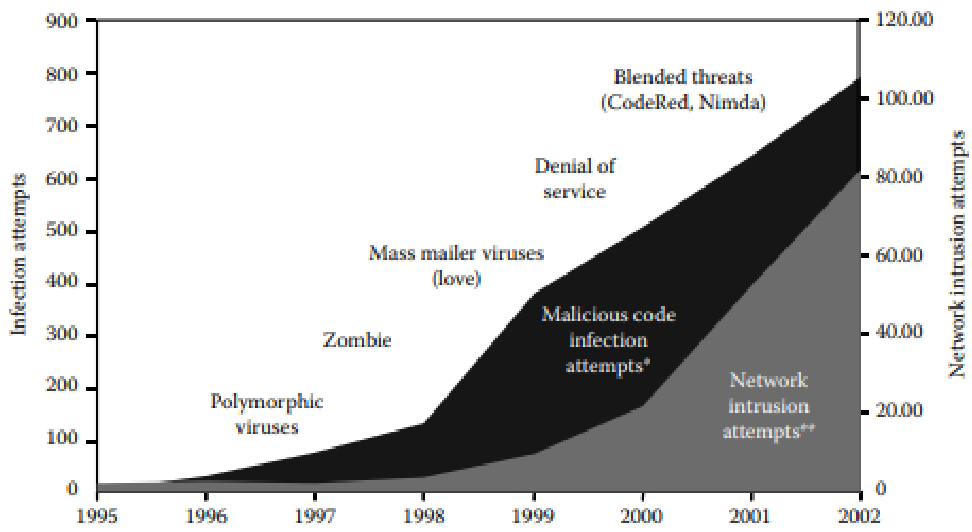


Figure 1: Documented network intrusion attempts [Routledge].

The national and global economy, security, and quality of life all depend on these systems operating securely and reliably. Due to their interconnection, they are more susceptible to localized global disruption brought on by material failure, natural disasters, deliberate assault, or human mistakes.Nuclear power plants raise additional security issues in addition to those related to electric transmission networks. As a relatively dependable source of energy that doesn't produce carbon dioxide, nuclear power benefits both the United States and many other nations around the globe (Figure. 3). It is a clean source of power in that regard. However, there are several instances in which nuclear power might be a risky technology.In this era of terrorism, nuclear power raises two urgent safety issues. The first has to deal with the regions outside and close to the reactors where spent fuel is stored. These spent fuel swimming pools are far less secure from assault than the reactor itself and are filled with a much greater stock of radioactive material. Millions of people could have had to be evacuated to avoid radiation, and certain areas of New York might have had to be abandoned, if a 9/11 jet had struck the spent fuel storage area of the Indian Point nuclear station, which is approximately 35 miles from New York City.

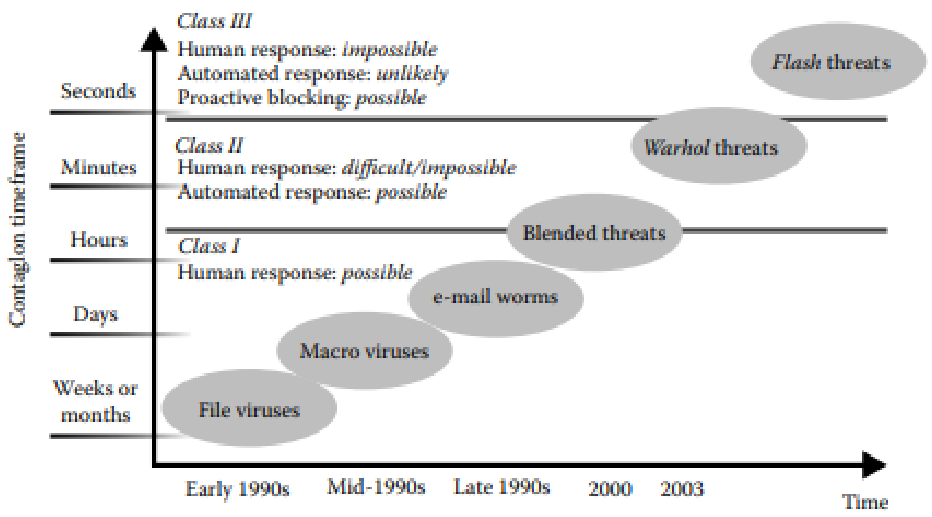
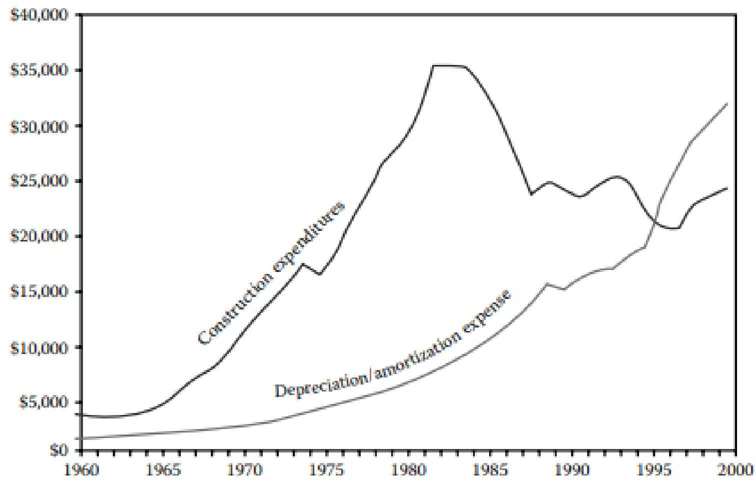


Figure 2: Malicious codes' threat evolution increased sophistication and much faster than a few years ago [Routledge].

Of course, there could be ways to prevent this terrible outcome, but they would raise the price of nuclear power. The ultimate transit of thousands of high-level nuclear waste canisters through open roadways in the United States through 43 states on their journey to a final resting place, such as Yucca Mountain, is another long-term safety worry. Terrorists would find these shipments to be attractive targets. This kind of accident may be mitigated by technology, but it is not yet available. The transmission lines of the North American power network link all of the continent's generating and distribution to create a hierarchically linked vertical network. In these multiscale, multicomponent, and distributed systems, the issue of whether there exists a unifying paradigm for the simulation, analysis, and optimization of time-critical processes both financial transactions and real physical control is highlighted. Additionally, current and conventional techniques of solution are often unavailable or insufficiently effective for solving interactive networks' mathematical models, which are either hazy or nonexistent altogether. Most currently used approaches are ineffective for comprehending their behaviour [7]–[9].

The impact of deregulation and economic forces on a certain infrastructure is another crucial aspect. The greatest national market for electricity is in the United States, while other and more populous nations like China and India will likely have higher potential markets and needs. Most of its vertically integrated, privately owned, and locally controlled electric utilities have been. Regional regulatory bodies, mostly at the state level, have set their prices, and their return-on-investment ROI, and have controlled their investment decisions while shielding them from outside competition. National regulations in the areas of safety, pollution, and network reliability also restrict their operations to some extent. Now, things are quickly changing; state authorities are moving in the direction of allowing and promoting a



competitive electric power market.

Figure 3: Since the crossover point in about 1995, utility construction expenditures have lagged behind asset depreciation [Routledge].

To transfer bulk electricity from generation to load regions safely and inexpensively, the electric power grid was previously run by several utilities, each independent in its own control area and governed by local organizations. This created a noncompetitive, regulated monopolyemphasis was on reliability and security at the expense of the economy. Competition and deregulation have created multiple energy producers that must share the same regulated energy delivery network. Traditionally, new delivery capacity would be added to handle load increases, but because of the current difficulty in obtaining permits and the uncertainty about achieving an adequate rate of ROI, total circuit miles added annually are declining while total demand for delivery resources continues to grow. In recent years, the shock absorbers have been shrinking; for example, during the 1990s, actual demand in the

United States increased by some 35%, while capacity has increased only 18%, the most visible parts of a larger and growing U.S. energy crisis that is the result of years of inadequate investments in the infrastructure. According to Electric Power Research Institute EPRI analyses, from 1995 to the present, the amortization/depreciation rate exceeds utility construction expenditures Figure. 3. As a result of these diminished shock absorbers, the network is becoming increasingly stressed, and whether the carrying capacity or safety margin will exist to support anticipated demand is in question. The complex systems used to relieve bottlenecks and clear disturbances during periods of peak demand are at great risk of serious disruption, creating a critical need for technological improvements

Programmable Logic Controller

PLCs are being employed to construct relay and control systems in substations after being actively used for many years in the manufacturing and process sectors. A PLC's expanded I/O system is comparable to an RTU in a transmission substation. Both software within the PLC and remote orders from a SCADA system may control the control outputs. Without making any significant hardware or software modifications, the PLC user may modify the EEPROM-stored program. PLCs with RTU reporting capabilities may be preferable to traditional RTUs in certain situations. PLCs are also used in several applications in refineries and power plants. They were initially intended to be used in certain tasks, such as handling coal. They are currently used in applications requiring continuous control, including feedwater control. PLCs are capable of having several real-time communication channels both within and outside of substations or plants.

Protective Relays

Protective relays are intended to react to short circuits and system errors. Relays must alert the proper circuit breakers to trip and isolate the malfunctioning equipment when faults occur. In order to synchronize the distribution system relaying with fuses and reclosures for faults, cold-load pickup, capacitor-bank switching, and transformer energization must be disregarded. To maintain stability, minimize fault damage, and lessen the effect on the electrical system, transmission-line relaying must quickly identify and isolate a problem. Telecommunication technology may be used to set up and query some kinds of smart protective relays.

Automated Metering

Electricity, gas, and/or residential meter data may all be uploaded via automated metering. These data may then be sent to a central data-collecting location by being automatically downloaded to a PC or other device. Real-time communication linkages exist with this technology outside of the utility infrastructure.

Plant-Distributed Control Systems

Plant-wide control systems called distributed control systems DCSs may be used for data collecting as well as control. The number of I/O operations may exceed 20,000 data points.For communication with intelligent field devices, other control systems such PLCs, RTUs, and even corporate data, the DCS is often employed as the plant data highway. network for applications related to enterprise resource planning ERP. Historically, the DCS has operated on a proprietary operating system. Open systems like Windows NT and Sun Solaris are becoming more prevalent in newer versions. Instead,then focusing on system security, DCS technology has been built with operational effectiveness and user customization in mind. Technologies have also been developed that provide remote access, often via a PC, to examine and maybe modify the operational settings.

Field Devices

Process instrumentation like pressure and temperature sensors and chemical analysers are examples of field equipment. Electric actuators are one of the other common categories of field devices. Electronics are included in intelligent field equipment to allow field setup and upload calibration data. These devices allow for offline configuration. They may also be able to connect stand-alone PCs, maintenance management systems, plant control systems, and other equipment within and outside the building in real-time.The reliability of the grid's functioning depends on the security of these communication and cyber networks. System security has grown more reliant on safeguarding the integrity of the related information systems as power systems increasingly rely on computerised communications and control. Because of the Internet's productivity benefits and cheaper costs, existing control systems that were initially created for use with proprietary, stand-alone communication networks were later connected to it without the addition of the security-related technology. All corporate operations and procedures depend on the communication of crucial business information and the regulated sharing of that information.Information security will be increasingly crucial if the energy sector is deregulated. The need to strike a balance between the seemingly incompatible aims of operating system flexibility and the need for security will need to be addressed from a commercial viewpoint for the energy-related businesses. Real-time communication linkages internal and external to the organisation are necessary for the functioning of critical electric energy systems.These essential systems must be built with an emphasis on open systems that are user-configurable to allow integration with other systems both internal and external to the company due to the functional variety of these organisations. Many times, telecommunications technology may be used to alter these systems. The systems almost always dynamically exchange data in real time. As a consequence, highly dependable, secure control and information management systems are required.

DCSs at power plants provide the data required for dispatch and control. The power plant must communicate in real time with the utility's control centre, system dispatch centre, regulatory bodies, and other entities. It's possible that a power plant that's a component of a large wholesale power network has connections to an independent system operator, a power pool, etc. Data integrity and confidentiality will become important considerations as the generating industry transitions even more into a market-driven competitive operation. for the organisations that run them.Any communications connection that is even slightly out of the control of the firm that owns and manages power plants, SCADA systems, or EMSs poses a risk to the grid as well as a potentially unsecured entry point into the company's commercial activities. These connections and the system's susceptibility to their failures were discovered via the interdependency analysis carried out by the majority of businesses during Y2K preparations. As a result, they serve as a great starting point for a cyber-vulnerability study.

The total grid system's monitoring and control, in particular, provide a significant difficulty.The absence of coordination between different operational components in current communication and information system designs often contributes to the unregulated growth of issues and the slow restoration of systems. The power grid has several levels and is susceptible to a wide range of disruptions, much like any large dynamic infrastructure system. Strong centralization is necessary for reliable operations, but this necessitates numerous high-data-rate, two-way communication links, a robust central computing facility, and a complex operation-control centerall of which are particularly vulnerable when they're most needed, such as during significant system stresses or power outages.Intelligent-distributed control is also necessary for greater protection since it would allow for the continued functioning of certain network components and even the autonomous reconfiguration of those components in the case of local failures or threats of failure [10]–[12].

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, maintaining a consistent supply of energy and guarding against foreseeable interruptions and threats require guaranteeing the resilience and security of the electrical system. Stakeholders can increase the resilience and security of the electricity infrastructure, contributing to the overall stability and sustainability of the energy system, by putting proactive measures into place, addressing cybersecurity issues, encouraging collaboration, and embracing emerging technologies. To adapt to changing problems and maintain the resilience and security of the energy infrastructure in the face of upcoming uncertainty, it is crucial to continue research, innovation, and collaboration.

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CHAPTER 22

ELECTRICAL ENERGY MANAGEMENT IN BUILDINGS

M. Sashilal Singh, Associate Professor,
Department of Electrical, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India,
Email Id: msashilal@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

An overview of the idea of electrical energy management in buildings is given in this abstract. Effective management of electrical energy in buildings has emerged as a critical component of energy efficiency and conservation due to rising energy demands and the need for sustainable practices. The significance of electrical energy management, techniques for reducing energy use, and advantages of installing energy management systems in buildings are only a few of the major issues addressed in the study that are highlighted. The relevance of electrical energy management in buildings is discussed in the abstract, with a focus on how it helps to cut energy use, reduce environmental impact, and boost overall energy efficiency. It emphasizes the necessity for all-encompassing energy management plans that include a range of topics such as lighting, HVAC, appliances, and building controls. the many methods and tactics that may be used to optimize energy use in buildings. This involves using demand response programs, smart controls and automation, occupancy sensors, and energy-efficient lighting systems. It emphasizes the need of keeping an eye on energy use, spot energy-saving possibilities, and putting in place energy-efficient tools and procedures.

The abstract also emphasizes the advantages of installing energy management systems in buildings. Building managers may make educated judgments and take appropriate action to prevent energy waste thanks to these systems' real-time monitoring and analysis of energy consumption. Energy management systems also make it possible to include energy storage devices, load control techniques, and renewable energy sources, which improves a building's overall energy efficiency. The necessity of user involvement and understanding in electrical energy management is also emphasized in the abstract. It talks about how to encourage people to use energy-efficient practices among stakeholders and building occupants via education and behavior change programs. Buildings may achieve considerable energy savings and support sustainable energy objectives by developing an environment that values energy conservation. efficient electrical energy management in buildings is essential for enhancing energy effectiveness, cutting down on energy use, and minimizing environmental impact. Stakeholders may reduce energy use and support a sustainable energy future by putting comprehensive strategy into practice, using energy-efficient technology, and involving building occupants. To enhance electrical energy management techniques and create energy-efficient buildings, industry players must collaborate, innovate, and conduct ongoing research.

KEYWORDS:

Buildings, Cooling, Commercial, Energy, Heating.

INTRODUCTION

An average structure is built to have a 40-year economic life. This suggests that the inventory of buildings now in use, with all of its positive and negative characteristics, is changing relatively slowly. Today, we know that it is economically advantageous to include a high level of energy efficiency in new construction since the money saved on running and maintenance expenses will more than offset the original expenditure. In the previous several decades, there have been significant decreases in the amount of energy needed to run buildings in a safe and comfortable manner. As a consequence of producing less power, these innovations have also resulted in decreases in air pollution and greenhouse gas emissions. Buildings may be grouped in a variety of ways, such by usage, construction type, size, and thermal qualities, to mention a few. There are hundreds of different building kinds. Here, the terms residential and commercial shall be used interchangeably for convenience. Industrial facilities are not included [1]–[3].

The residential category covers characteristics that are typical of single-family homes, townhomes, condominiums, and multifamily apartments. According to the U.S. Census Bureau 2012, there were around 115 million inhabited housing units in the country in 2012. A large focus on office buildings is included in the commercial category, along with a less in-depth study of characteristics shared by retail establishments, hospitals, restaurants, and laundries. It is either apparent to extend to additional kinds, or one may do so by consulting the literature. In 2012, the projected total square footage of the five million commercial buildings in the United States was 83 billion square feet EIA 2013a. According to SMR Research Corporation 2011, the average building age is roughly 50 years, and more than three-quarters of these structures are 25 years old or older. The majority of this area is housed in structures greater than 10,000 ft2.Since the publication of the first three editions of this book, total energy consumption in the two sectors has changed see Figure . 1. Since 1975, there has been a notable change in the energy sources utilised by the residential and commercial sectors. Prior to 1975, natural gas use in these industries rose quickly but then levelled off and has stayed relatively consistent since then. Petroleum is being used less. The major shift has been the sharp rise in energy sales to the residential and commercial sectors, which have increased by more than twofold between 1980 and 2011 and by 2.6 times since 1975.

	Year						
	1955	1965	1975	1985	1995	2005	2011
Residential	7.3	10.6	14.8	16.0	18.5	21.6	21.6
Commercial	3.9	5.8	9.5	11.5	14.7	17.9	18.0
Total	11.2	16.5	24.3	27.5	33.2	39.5	39.6

Figure1: Total Energy Consumption Trends, Quadrillion BTU [Research Gate.Net].

This chapter takes the approach of listing two types of particular tactics that are efficient and affordable ways to use power. The first group of initiatives falls under the heading of minimal capital cost actions that may be taken with virtually unaltered facilities and equipment. Technologies falling under the second category include those that call for new processes, equipment, or equipment that has to be retrofitted or modified. Typically, moderate to significant capital expenditures are also necessary.

DISCUSSION

Estimated breakdowns of bought electricity by primary end use for the residential and commercial sectors, respectively, are shown in Figures. 1 and 2. The information is taken from the most current Energy Information Administration EIA estimations EIA 2013 a, b. Space cooling accounts for the most 19% of home electricity usage, followed by lights 13%, water heating 9%, refrigerator 8%, TVs and associated equipment 6%, and space heating 6%. Nearly 40% of home power demand is accounted for by a variety of different purposes, including computers, dishwashers, fans, pumps, and washing machines and dryers.Space conditioning, or the mix of heating, ventilating, and air conditioning HVAC, consumes the most power in the business sector 28%.Lighting comes out on top as the business sector's biggest single end usage of energy at 21% when HVAC equipment is taken into account separately. Other large end users of electricity include refrigeration 8%, non-PC office equipment 5%, and PC office equipment 5%. The last third of electricity used in commercial buildings is made up of additional end uses including water heating, transformers, medical equipment, lifts and escalators, fume hoods, etc.

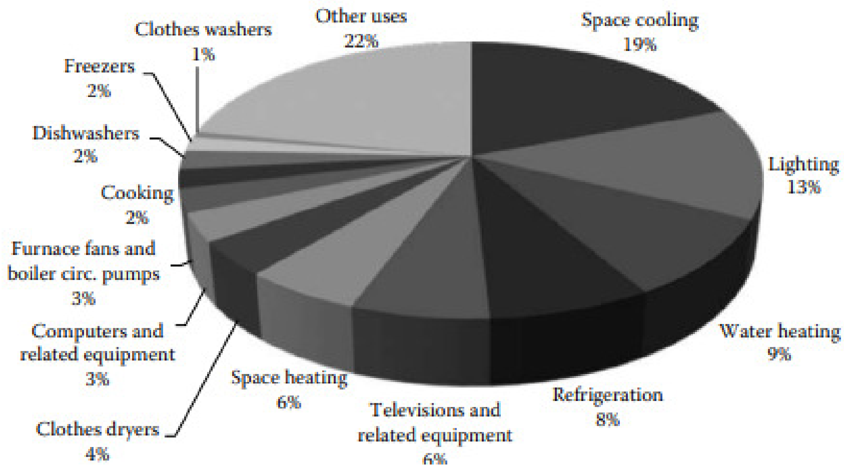

Figure 2: Breakdown of residential electricity end use, 2011, 1424 billion kWh [Routledge].

Residential Electricity Use

The largest end use of energy in residential structures, accounting for more than a quarter of all power sales today, is space conditioning, which includes both space cooling and heating as well as related fans and pumps. In the absence of further efficiency gains, EIA forecasts that space conditioning will continue to account for a significant portion of all residential energy use, with demand perhaps rising [4]–[6].Driving fans and compressors, providing a direct source of heat resistance heating, providing an indirect source of heat or cool heat pumps, and for controls are all examples of how electricity is utilised in space heating and cooling.Residential lighting energy usage increased from 9% in 2001 to 13% in 2011, partly as a result of a decrease in the amount of power used by other end users. However, the EIA anticipates a significant decrease in the amount of energy used for lighting over the next ten years, both in terms of the absolute amount of electricity supplied to households to power lights 35% less between 2011and in terms of the relative proportion of lighting in residential end use down to 8%. Due to the Energy Independence and Security Act EISA of 2007, which began phasing in regulations for compact fluorescent CFL and light-emitting diode LED bulbs on January 1, 2013, these anticipated savings are the result.

The previous ten years have seen a reasonably stable 9% proportion of domestic power consumption go towards water heating. According to EIA forecasts, during the next ten years, the total amount of energy provided to water heating systems will grow by 15%, and by water heating will account for more than 10% of all electricity use. Electric storage tank water heaters, tankless electric water heaters, and heat pump water heaters are being used for this purpose. Another option that is sometimes employed is solar water heating. Another significant energy end-use in the residential sector is refrigeration, which in 2011 accounted for 8% of all domestic electricity use, down from 14% in 2001. EIA forecasts the proportion of home power usage for refrigeration as well as the total amount. Between now the amount of power distributed to refrigerators will remain essentially unchanged. The majority of American homes have had refrigerators over the last 50 years. As a result, refrigerators have long since totally dominated the domestic market. However, due to the adoption of new standards, there have been considerable changes in energy usage over this time. For one thing, from less than 10 ft3 in 1947 to more than 20 ft3 now, the typical refrigerator size has more than doubled. Meanwhile, refrigerators now operate much more efficiently (Figure. 3). According to statistics from the Association of Home Appliance Manufacturers, the end consequence is that modern refrigerators consume roughly one-fourth as much energy 450 kWh/year in 2011 as smaller machines used 40 years ago 180 kWh/year in 1972. Furthermore, new refrigerators will consume roughly one-fifth of the energy of those made in the early 1970s when new efficiency regulations go into effect in the autumn of 2014. Over 9% of domestic power usage is made up of TVs, computers, and similar devices. Over the last several decades, these kinds of electrical devices have become more common in households. Another 11% goes to stoves, dishwashers, and freezers, while the remaining 22% of power used in the residential sector goes to other applications such as tiny electric devices, heating elements, and motors not previously covered.

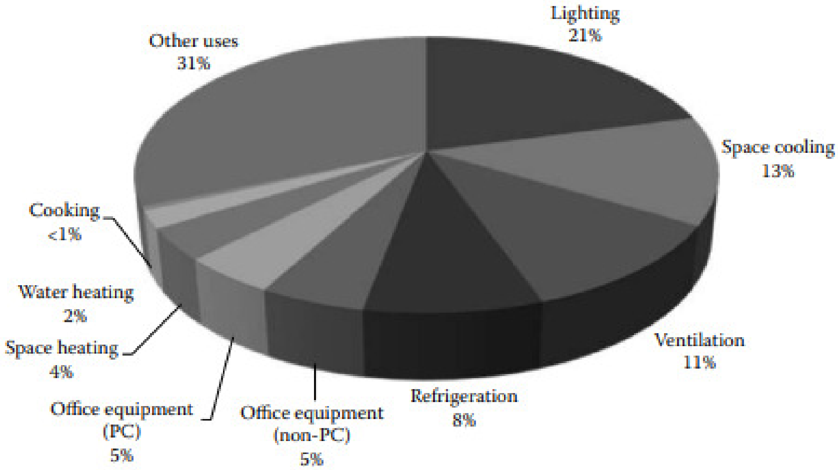

Figure 3: Breakdown of commercial electricity end use, 2011, 1319 billion kWh. [Routledge].

Commercial Electricity Use

HVAC dominates energy consumption for the business sector as a whole, with space cooling, space heating, and ventilation systems accounting for more than one-fourth of power use. The majority of commercial building types that employ space conditioning follow this pattern. Of course, there are exceptions; in energy-intensive facilities like laundries, process energy will be crucial. In order to operate fans, pumps, chillers, cooling towers, and heat pumps, electricity is utilised in space conditioning. Other applications include electric boilers and electric resistance heating used, for instance, in terminal reheat systems. In terms of overall power usage, commercial lighting often comes in second to HVAC, unless the facility has energy-intensive activities.The majority of interior illumination is fluorescent, with a minor amount of incandescent, metal halide, and LED bulbs also being used more often. The standard currently is high-efficiency fluorescent lighting, electronic ballasts, CFL lighting, and better lighting controls. In older buildings or for ornamental or aesthetic purposes, incandescent bulbs are still used in retail for display illumination.

The EIA estimates that in 2011, lighting accounted for 21% of the electricity used by the business sector, down from 27.7% in 1992. The EIA projects that by 2040, lighting will account for 15% of the power used in commercial buildings EIA 2013a. In grocery stores and other commercial buildings, refrigeration is a significant energy user. Due to efficiency improvements, commercial refrigeration's proportion of power demand has declined over the last several decades, similar to residential uses. For instance, refrigeration accounted for 8% of commercial energy demand in 2011 compared to 10% in 1992; according to EIA forecasts, that percentage will fall to 7% during the next ten years EIA 2013a. Over the last 20 years, there have been significant changes in how much commercial power is used by office equipment; from 7% in 1992 to 18% in 1999, and now down to 10% in 2011. The growth at the turn of the 2000 was mostly brought on by an increase in computer usage. Nowadays, computers are widely used in business, and their productivity keeps rising. As a consequence, the EIA calculates the precise amount of energy used by over the next ten years, computers will mostly remain unchanged. Another energy-intensive process in commercial buildings is water heating, however these structures tend to utilised circulation systems, which include a heater, storage tank, and pump. There are several ways to use heat recovery as a hot water source. In commercial buildings, the percentage of electricity used for water heating increased from 1% in 1999 to 2% in 2011. Over the next two decades, the EIA forecasts that the total amount of electricity used for water heating will remain mostly stable. In commercial buildings, the remaining power is used for escalators, lifts and other small appliances.

Setting Up an Energy Management Program

There are five phases in the overall process for implementing an energy management programmed in buildings:

1. Review historical energy use.
2. Perform energy audits.
3. Identify energy management opportunities EMOs.
4. Implement changes to save energy.
5. Monitor the energy management program, set goals, and review progress.

Each stage will be simply explained. These procedures have been created for use by homeowners, renters, and owners or operators of commercial buildings. Building owners and operators are advised to seek help from their local utility as many electric companies offer give technical and financial aid for different sorts of energy efficiency studies and renovations.

Electricity-Saving Techniques by Category of End Use

Strategies for energy conservation in the main end uses found in residential and commercial buildings are covered in this section. Along with retrofit and new design ideas, projects that can be performed quickly at little or minimal capital cost are offered. The issues are listed in roughly descending order of significance for building energy consumption.Exclusions include smaller end uses and procedures unique to certain building types.

Residential HVAC

Electric resistance heaters, heat pumps, ventilation fans, and air conditioning systems are the most common types of residential HVAC equipment that use electricity. Window air conditioners and central air conditioning systems are examples of cooling systems. In certain areas, evaporative coolers are also employed. The many kinds of heaters include electric heaters, tiny radiant heaters, to embedded floor or ceiling heating systems, duct heaters, strip heaters, and baseboard heaters may be used. A very effective option, heat pump systems may be utilised for both heating and cooling.The following are the key operating and maintenance plans for existing equipment.

1. System maintenance and clean-up.
2. Thermostat calibration and set-back.
3. Night cool down.
4. Improved controls and operating procedures.
5. Heated or cooled volume reduction.
6. Reduction of infiltration and exfiltration losses.

An obvious but sometimes overlooked energy-saving technique is system maintenance. Heat transmission efficiency is reduced on dirty surfaces. Filters that are clogged reduce pumping power and pressure declines. Ineffective or broken dampers might waste energy and make the system unable to work properly.

Heating and cooling are often controlled by a central or local thermostat in household systems. When inhabitants are present and awake, the thermostat should be set to around 26°C 78°F or higher for cooling and 20°C 68°F or lower for heating. To save energy on heating and cooling, the temperature set points should be changed while people are absent or sleeping. Check the thermostat's calibration in the first place since these inexpensive units might be as much as 5°C off. These days, programmable thermostats are generally accessible. According on the time of day and the day of the week, they may be programmed to automatically adjust the temperature backwards or forwards. They guarantee that the settings will be adjusted since they do not need human control, in contrast to manual thermostat resets that rely on occupant vigilance. Smart thermostats, also known as programmable communicating thermostats PCTs, are able to connect with certain utilities' demand response programmes. Participants' PCTs may be set up to adjust the temperature in response to price cues or other demand response event alerts from the utility, minimising energy use and peak demand.

In some programmes, the utility utilises the PCT to directly manage the customer's equipment at busy times. As a general guideline, for every 1°C increase in thermostat A 1% reduction in yearly heating or cooling energy expenses results from setting back heating or setting forward cooling during an 8-hour period. In more extreme conditions, the energy savings are often smaller.Energy may sometimes be saved by making small adjustments to controls or operational routines. Use night air for cooling to reduce summer temperatures. When the outside temperature is cool, shut off the air conditioner and open windows to let fresh air in. Whenever a fan unit has more than one speed, choose the one that offers the best performance.Additionally, make sure the system is balanced and that the dampers and vents are working properly to ensure that heating and cooling are given where it is required in the proper proportions.

Energy savings may be achieved by reducing the volume of the heated or cooled area. Closing vents, doors, or other suitable openings will do this. Typically, it is not essential to heat or cool a whole house since hallways may be blocked off, extra bedrooms are seldom used, etc. Air entering or leaving a residence is a significant source of energy loss.Exfiltration is unintended air transfer towards the outside, while infiltration is unintentional air transfer towards the inside. However, infiltration is often used to denote air leakage into and out of a dwelling, and this chapter uses that language. The intrusion of cold or hot air into a house will increase the amount of energy needed for heating or cooling.The HVAC system in a typical house loses 25% to 40% of its energy due to infiltration. Infiltration may result in unpleasant draughts and influence the quantities of indoor pollutants. Many cracks and openings made during building construction, including those around electrical outlets, pipes, ducts, windows, doors, and spaces between ceilings, walls, floors, and other surfaces, may allow air to enter a structure. The outcome of temperature and pressure differences between a home's interior and outside brought on by the wind, natural convection, and other causes is infiltration.

Attic bypassespaths within walls that link conditioned areas with the atticare significant sources of air leakage, as are fireplaces without dampers, leaky ductwork, window and door frames, and holes drilled in framing members for plumbing, electrical, and HVAC equipment. The U.S. Department of Energy claims that the combination of walls, ceilings, and floors is the most major source of infiltration, accounting for 31% of all infiltration in a typical house. Other significant sources of infiltration include ducts 15%, fireplaces 14%, plumbing penetrations 13%, doors 11%, and windows 10%. Electrical outlets 2%, fans and vents 4% are of less importance [7]–[9].Energy-efficient home builders utilise house wraps, caulking, foam insulation, tapes, and other sealing to thwart penetration. It's crucial to seal the ducts in the house to stop warm or cooled air from escaping. Additionally, homeowners should look for any holes that may be sealed, such as open fireplace dampers, open doors and windows, insufficient weather stripping around windows and doors, and any other gaps. However, care must be taken to provide appropriate ventilation. Depending on the kind of occupancy, different standards apply.

For healthy homes, continuous general ventilation should be at least 1.0 cfm cubic feet per minute per 100 ft2 of floor area plus at least 15 cfm for the first bedroom and 7.5 cfm for each additional bedroom, according to the builder guidelines for the American Lung Association's Health House programmed. Additionally, the kitchen should have intermittent ventilation that is at least 100 cfm. Rates for the restrooms should be 20 cfm continuously or 50 cfm intermittently. The ventilation rates of the health House meet ASHRAE standard. The following methods will reduce energy use in projects involving retrofit or new architecture:

1. Site selection and building orientation.
2. Building envelope design.
3. Selection of efficient heating/cooling equipment.

Owner/occupant control over site selection and building orientation is not always guaranteed. However, if at all feasible, choose a location protected from wind and high temperatures. In frigid regions, position the structure to have the most southerly exposure possible to benefit from direct sun heating throughout the winter. Reduce heat loss from the building's exposed northerly areas by using earth berms. Although they allow for winter solar heating, deciduous trees provide summer shade.Designing the building envelope may increase winter heat absorption and retention and summer cooling. The first necessity is to build a thermally tight, well-insulated structure.By preventing heat from transferring through walls, floors, ceilings, and ducts, insulation lowers heating and cooling loads in buildings. Due to the fact that indoor-outdoor temperature variations are often greater in winter than summer, reductions are typically proportionally bigger for heating than for cooling. There are several different types of insulation available, including batts, rolls,boards, blocks, loose fill, or foam that has been sprayed. A building's required R-value, type of climate, and insulation material are taken into consideration while choosing the best insulation. Greater R-values suggest improved insulating qualities. In most cases, it is more economical to utilised R-values beyond those advised in order to increase energy efficiency beyond what is generally done in construction. Windows have a significant role in both heat gain and loss.

Single-pane glazing loses heat at a rate of 5-7 W/m2°C. The similar value for double glazing is in the range of 3–4 W/m2°C. The development of window technology is ongoing. To reduce heat intake and/or loss, low emissivity low-E or spectrally selective coatings are often used on newer windows. Heat loss via low-E windows filled with argon gas is roughly 2 W/m2°C. They are offered with low solar heat uptake coefficients and increased visual transmittance to lessen summer cooling demands. Low-E windows may be ordered with an interior plastic film, thereby turning them into triple-glazed windows. These windows lose heat at a rate of about 1 W/m2°C. The finest insulation is found in windows with frames made of vinyl, wood, fiberglass, or aluminium with a thermal barrier. Additionally, it's crucial to utilised window coverings to reduce heat loss through radiation to the outside during the nighttime hours as well as to seal windows to prevent infiltration. By allowing for daylighting, windows that are strategically placed may help reduce energy use. The heat pump is often the most effective kind of electric heating and cooling system.

A common kind is an air-to-air heat pump, which may be either a single package unit like a window air conditioner or a split system where the compressor and accompanying equipment are outside and the air handling equipment is within the building. The efficiency of equipment that is readily accessible on the market varies widely. In terms of a heating seasonal performance factor HSPF, which is expressed in BTUs of heat provided per Watthour of electricity input, heating performance is determined. The most effective heat pumps typically have values between 6.8 and 10.0.

A seasonal energy efficiency ratio SEER, which expresses the ratio of cooling capacity to electrical power input, is used to assess the cooling performance of home heat pumps, air conditioners, and packaged systems. The typical range is 10.0–14.5, and the most effective systems may even reach higher figures. A minimum SEER of 13 and a minimum HSPF of 7.7 are required by Federal regulations for air conditioners, heat pumps, and home packaged units established in 2006. Many older units still in use today have SEERs of 6-7, or around 50% of the new minimum requirement. Therefore, updating outdated equipment might result in significant efficiency increases. When choosing new equipment, think about going for the systems with the greatest HSPF and SEER. The greater initial cost of these units is often justified by the operational savings. In addition, a lot of utilities provide refunds for setting up the more efficient appliances.

Equipment sizing is crucial because the most effective operation often takes place at or close to full load. Therefore, choosing bigger equipment will cost more up front and result in higher operational expenditures.As the temperature differential between the heat source and the heat sink narrows, heat pumps become less efficient. Since outside air often provides heat, it is most challenging to get heat at times of greatest demand. To prepare for exceptionally cold weather, heat pumps often feature electrical backup heaters. Designing the system with a heat source other than ambient air is a different strategy.Examples include warm air such as that expelled from a house, a deep well which supplies water at a consistent temperature all year long, the earth, or a solar heat source. Combinations of solar heating and heat pumps come in a wide variety.

Non-residential HVAC

Package rooftop or ground mounted units, a central plant, or other non-residential installations may be used in HVAC systems in commercial buildings. Although the fundamental concepts are similar to those previously mentioned in relation to residential systems, the equipment is bigger and the control is more intricate.In existing buildings, retro commissioning is the process of evaluating and optimizing HVAC system performance to ensure it is working as originally intended. This procedure can reveal numerous inefficiencies and frequently results in significant energy savings and increased comfort.HVAC systems' primary duties include heating, cooling, dehumidifying, and humidifying as well as providing air mixing and ventilation. The amount of energy needed to perform these tasks depends on the building's design, its duty cycle for example, whether a hospital is used for 24 hours per day or for 10 hours per day, the type of occupancy, the occupants' HVAC usage habits and training, the type of HVAC equipment installed, and lastly, the daily and seasonal temperature and weather conditions to which the building is exposed [10]–[12].The scope of this chapter does not allow for a thorough study of psychometrics, HVAC system design, or varieties of commercially available equipment.Three sections will be used to discuss energy management strategies:

1. Equipment modifications control, retrofit, and new designs
    - **a.** Fans.
    - **b.** Pumps.
    - **c.** Packaged air conditioning units.

   - **d.** Chillers.
   - **e.** Ducts and damper's.
   - **f.** Systems.
2. Economizer systems and enthalpy controllers.
3. Heat recovery technique.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, efficient electrical energy management in buildings is essential for increasing sustainability, attaining energy efficiency, and lowering energy consumption. Stakeholders may reduce energy use and support a sustainable energy future by putting comprehensive strategy into practice, using energy-efficient technology, and involving building occupants. To enhance electrical energy management techniques and promote energy-efficient buildings, it is essential to continue research, innovation, and partnership activities. Many current HVAC systems may be made more efficient. When improvements are implemented, energy consumption may be reduced by 10% to 15%, sometimes without the building's inhabitants even realizing it.

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CHAPTER 23

HEATING, VENTILATING, AND AIR CONDITIONING CONTROL SYSTEMS

Beemkumar N, Associate Professor
Department of Mechanical Engineering,Faculty of Engineering and Technology, JAIN (Deemed-to-be University), Ramanagara District, Karnataka - 562112, India
Email Id- n.beemkumar@jainuniversity.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

An overview of HVAC heating, ventilation, and air conditioning control systems in buildings is given in this abstract. In order to maintain cozy and healthy interior environments while using the least amount of energy possible, HVAC systems are crucial. The relevance of HVAC control systems, their components, and functions, as well as the advantages of effective control techniques, are some of the major subjects addressed in the study that are highlighted.The importance of HVAC control systems in maximizing energy efficiency and occupant comfort is emphasized in the abstract. Heating, cooling, and ventilation are given in accordance with specified needs when HVAC systems are properly controlled, which saves energy and improves indoor air quality. It emphasizes the need for exact regulation and observation of temperature, humidity, airflow, and ventilation rates.the elements and purposes of HVAC control systems. This contains sensors for measuring temperature and humidity as well as actuators, thermostats, and control formulas. It highlights the function of these parts in detecting and controlling environmental factors, modifying equipment operation, and preserving peak performance.The advantages of effective control methods in HVAC systems are also covered in the abstract. These tactics include demand-based control, adaptive control, and occupancy-based control. By modifying HVAC operations depending on occupancy patterns, external circumstances, and individual comfort needs, effective management systems may dramatically cut energy usage. They help decrease environmental impact, increase comfort, and save energy. The possibility for sophisticated control algorithms and data analytics, as well as the integration of HVAC control systems with building automation systems BAS. The incorporation of BAS enables coordinated operation and optimization of HVAC systems by providing centralized monitoring and control. The capabilities of energy efficiency, predictive maintenance, and problem detection may all be improved further by using advanced control algorithms and data analytics.

KEYWORDS:

Air, Control, Pneumatic, Temperature, Ventilation.

INTRODUCTION

The fundamentals of HVAC heating, ventilation, and air conditioning control systems for buildings intended for energy-efficient operation are covered in this chapter. There are, of course, other renewable and energy-efficient systems that need to be controlled. The principles outlined here for buildings also apply to various other systems with the necessary and evident modifications. The reader is directed to a number of widely used sources in the list at the conclusion of this chapter for further information [1]–[3].The informational connection between the typically somewhat consistent requirements for interior environmental conditions and the fluctuating energy demands on a building's main and secondary systems is provided by the HVAC system controls. The costliest, most carefully built HVAC system will be a failure without an effective control system. It just won't be able to regulate the inside climate to make it comfortable.The HVAC management program must

1. Sustain a comfortable building interior environment.
2. Maintain acceptable indoor air quality.
3. Be as simple and inexpensive as possible and yet meet HVAC system operation criteria reliably for the system's lifetime.
4. Result inefficient HVAC system operation under all conditions.
5. Be commissioned, including the building, equipment, and control systems.
6. Be fully documented, so that the building staff successfully operates and maintains the HVAC system.

The task of creating an energy-efficient and dependable control system for HVAC systems is a significant issue. HVAC system issues and poor operational control are often caused by insufficient control system design, commissioning, documentation, and personnel training. The foundations of HVAC control are developed in this chapter, and it continues with the operational requirements for properly sustained operation. The following sources on the topic are advised to be reviewed by the reader: ASHRAE 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, Haines 1987, Honeywell 1988, Levine 1996, Sauer et al. 2001, Stein and Reynolds 2000, and Tao and Janis 2005.

The HVAC system must be properly planned, built, calibrated, and commissioned in accordance with the electrical and mechanical systems designs in order to accomplish appropriate control based on the control system design. These need to have main and secondary systems that are the right size. Additionally, air stratification must be prevented, adequate space must be provided for control sensors, freeze protection in cold regions is important, and proper attention must be given to minimizing energy usage subject to dependable operation and occupant comfort.Zone temperature, along with humidity and/or air quality in certain buildings to a lesser degree, is the main and last regulated variable in structures. So, the ways for regulating temperature will be the main topic of this chapter. Numerous other control loops, including those for the boiler, chiller, pump, fan, liquid and airflow, humidity, and auxiliary systems such as thermal energy storage control, support the zone temperature control in buildings' primary and secondary HVAC systems. Only automated control of these subsystems is covered in this chapter.

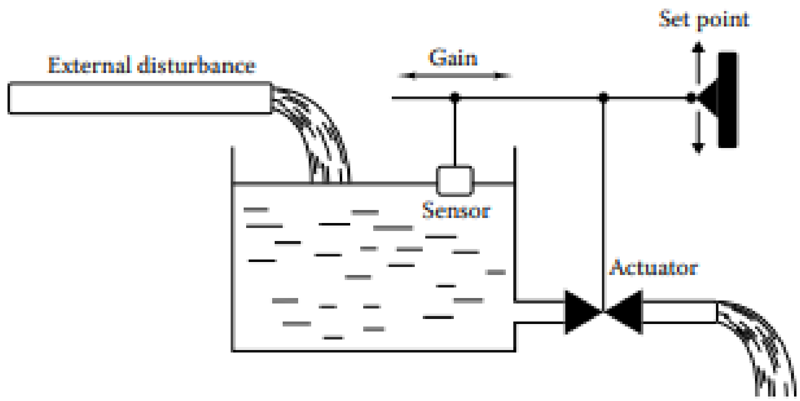

Figure 1: Representing the Simple water level controller [Routledge].

A system that reacts to a change or imbalance in the variable it controls by adjusting other variables to restore the system to the desired balance, according to the definition, is an automated control system.Using feedback, Figure .1 describes a well-known control issue. Under a variety of outflow circumstances, the tank's water level must be kept constant. As the tank is being emptied, the float opens a valve that lets water in. All components of a control system are included in this simple system.

1. **Sensor—**float; reads the controlled variable, the water level.
2. **Controller—**linkage connecting float to valve stem; senses difference between full tank level and operating level and determines needed position of the valve stem.
3. **Actuator (controlled device)—**internal valve mechanism; sets valve (the final control element) flow in response to level difference sensed by controller.
4. **Controlled system characteristic—**water level; this is often termed the controlled variable. Because the controlled device (valve) immediately affects the sensor (float), this system is known as a closed-loop or feedback system. In an open-loop system, neither the controller nor the actuator is directly sensed by the sensor running the system. A way of operating the valve depending on an external factor, such as the time of day, which may have an indirect relationship to water consumption from the tank, would be an example. One of the four main ways of control is shown in Figure .1. We shall discuss each in connection with an example HVAC system in the next section.

DISCUSSION

The numerous physical elements necessary to carry out the activities mandated by the control methods of the preceding section are explained in this section. The following information is separated into two sections because pneumatic and electrical controls are fundamentally different. The main HVAC applications' sensors, controllers, and actuators are explained [4]–[6].

Pneumatic Systems

The signal transmission medium for the earliest widely used automated control systems was compressed air. Compressed air has the benefit of being able to power huge actuators and be metered by a variety of sensors. It was often advantageous that a typical pneumatic loop's reaction time may take several minutes. For the purpose of operating sensors, pneumatic controllers employ compressed air (about 20 psig in the United States).

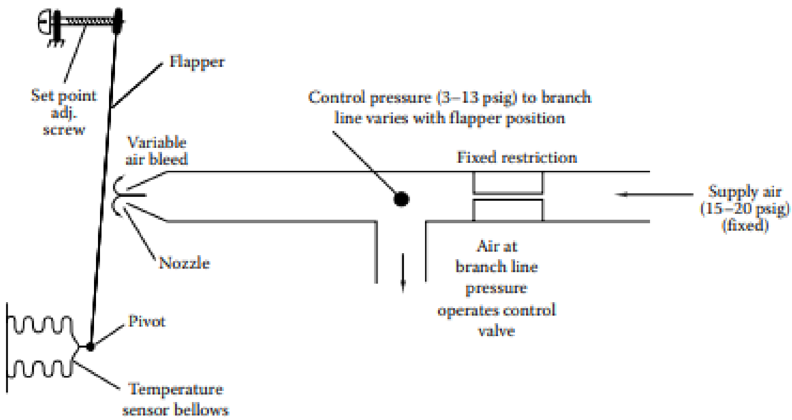

Figure 2: Drawing of pneumatic thermostat showing adjustment screw used to change the temperature setting [Routledge].

Actuators, too. Although electrical controls are the norm for new construction, pneumatic controls are still widely used in many older structures. An outline of how these devices work is given in this section. The majority of pneumatic loop controls are for temperature and damper control. A technique for measuring temperature and generating a control signal is shown in Figure. 2.

A limitation allows the main supply of air from a compressor to reach a branch line. Depending on where the flapper is located and how the temperature sensor bellows are positioned, the zone thermostat will bleed air out to a different degree. The branch line pressure (control pressure) decreases as more air escapes. The output of the control element is altered by this decrease in the overall pressure applied to it. Both forward and backward action is possible with this control. The constraints normally use very little air and have hole sizes of just a few thousandths of an inch. The branch lines typically have pressures between 20 and 90 kPa (3 to 13 psig). An actuator, such as a control valve for a room heating unit, might be operated in basic systems by the pressure from a thermostat. In this instance, the thermostat serves as both the sensor and the controller, which is a fairly typical setup.

Numerous more temperature sensor methods are available. For instance, the flapper may be formed of a bimetallic strip instead of the bellows seen in Figure. 2. The bimetal strip's curvature varies with temperature, opening or closing the flapper/nozzle gap. Another method controls the pressure signal by pushing a rod against the flapper using a remote bulb that is either liquid or vapor-filled. This tool is helpful if the sensing element has to be placed in an area where it is impossible to directly detect the temperature using a metal strip or bellows, such as in a water stream or a duct system moving quickly. Depending on the application, the bulb and connecting capillary size might vary greatly. Branch line pressure may be controlled using pressure sensors using either bellows or a diaphragm. To adjust the bleed rate, for instance, a diaphragm may be used in lieu of the flapper in Figure .2. Bellows like the one in the same illustration could be internally pressurized to create a displacement that can regulate the pace at which air bleeds out. A single diaphragm cannot match the displacements produced by bellows.

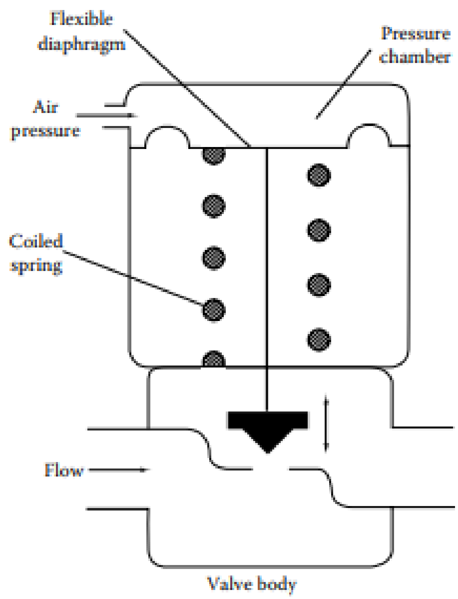

Figure 3: Pneumatic control valve showing counterforce spring and valve body. Increasing pressure closes the valve [Routledge].

Materials used to make humidity sensors for pneumatic systems alter the size in response to moisture content. Commonly used fibers include nylon and other synthetic hygroscopic materials with size changes of 1% to 2% when exposed to humidity. The displacement is mechanically amplified since the dimensions change is very little in absolute terms. Nylon, hair, and cotton fibers are examples of materials that display the desired attribute. Nylon offers a significantly broader range of applications than human hair, which changes in characteristics with age and has a much more linear reaction to humidity. The following part discusses humidity sensors for electrical systems, which are quite different. Pneumatic energy is transformed into motion, either linear or rotational, via an actuator. Through the use of control mechanisms like dampers or valves, it alters the controlled variable.

A pneumatically actuated control valve is seen in Figure 3. The diaphragm's pressure working against the spring regulates the valve's opening. In essence, the spring is a linear object. As a result, the valve stem's motion is practically linear with air pressure. However, as will be shown later, this may not always result in a linear impact on flow. A pneumatic damper actuator is seen in Figure3. The straightforward system depicted converts linear actuator action into rotary damper motion. A branch line pressure sees Figure.2 that is suitable to provide the required control action for achieving the set point is produced by pneumatic controllers. Many different control companies provide these controls for certain uses. Controllers may be categorized based on the direction of an error's output direct or reverse acting, the control action proportional, PI, or two-position, or the number of inputs or outputs. The fundamental components of a dual-input, single-output controller is shown in Figure. 5. The two inputs, which are utilised to regulate the output water temperature setting of a boiler in a building heating system, might be the outside temperature sensor and the supply temperature of the heating system. This technology is simply a boiler temperature reset that lowers heating water temperature when ambient temperature rises for improved system management and lower energy use.

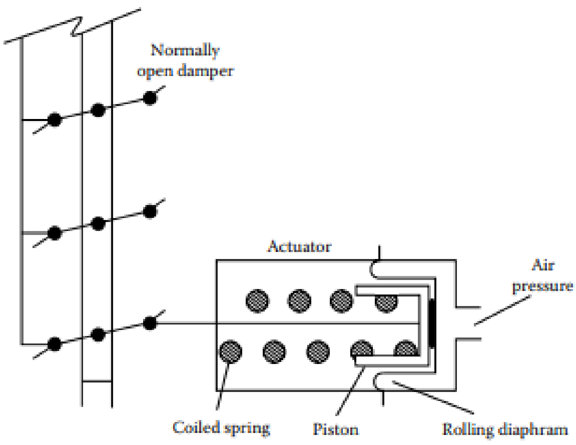

Figure 4: Increasing pressure closes the parallel-blade damper [Routledge].

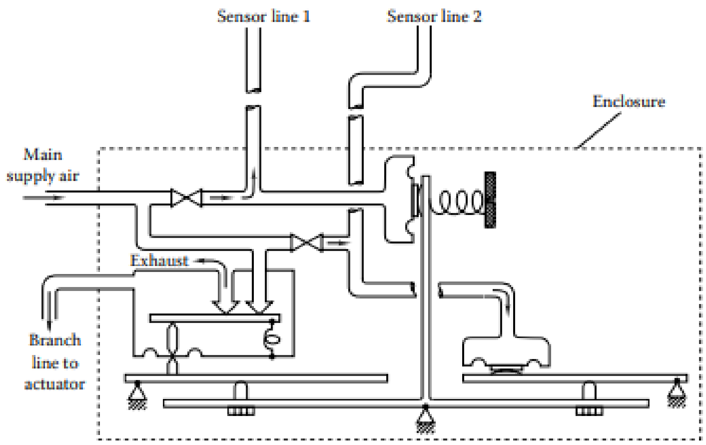

Figure 5: Representing the pneumatic controller with two inputs and one control signal output [Routledge].

Pneumatic systems need highly clean, dry, oil-free air, which must be produced by the air supply. It is common for a compressor to produce 80 to 100 psig. The compressor does not have to run continuously since compressed air is stored in a tank and used as required. The air system has to be 50% to 100% larger than the nominally predicted demand. To prevent moisture from freezing in cold control lines in air-handling units (AHUs) and other places, the air is then dried. In regions with intense temperatures, the dew point of dried air should be 30°F or below. The cold air supply from the building may be the lowest temperature to which the compressed air lines are exposed in deep cooling climates. The air is then filtered to eliminate any debris, water droplets, and oil from the compressor. Finally, a pressure regulator lowers the air pressure to about 20 psig, which is the operational pressure for the control system. Regulate air Copper or nylon is used in pipework in places where it is available.

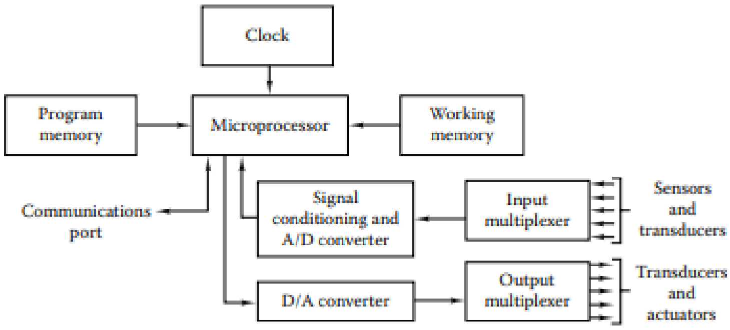

Figure 6: Block diagram of a DDC controller[Routledge].

Electronic Control Systems

The majority of HVAC system controllers are electronic controls. Early in the 1990s, direct digital control (DDC) systems started to gain traction; now, they account for more than 80% of all controller sales. Low-end microprocessors are currently available for less than $0.50 per, making their use incredibly cost-effective. With DDC, you may get more functionality in addition to lower costs. According to ASHRAE (2001), BACnet has become the de facto communication technology, and the majority of control suppliers provide a BACnet protocol. This section provides an overview of the sensors, actuators, and controllers utilized in contemporary electronic building control systems.This microprocessor-based system's output may be utilized to operate electronic, electrical, pneumatic, or a combination of those actuators. DDC systems are superior to other systems in terms of flexibility and dependability. For instance, it is simpler to precisely change control constants in computer software than it is to alter a control panel with a screwdriver. Since the sensor data used for control is very similar to that used in EMSs, DDC systems provide the option of controlling EMSs and HVAC diagnostic, knowledge-based systems. This capability is not available in pneumatic systems. A DDC controller's schematic design is shown in Figure 6. This controller-only graphic does not depict any sensors or actuators that are part of the complete control system. There are three main ways to gauge temperature for DDC applications:

1. Thermocouples.

2. Resistance temperature detectors (RTDs).

3. Thermistors.

Each has benefits depending on the use. Thermocouples are made of two different metals that are selected to provide a measurable voltage at the target temperature [7]–[9].

CONCLUSION

For attaining energy efficiency, occupant comfort, and healthy indoor environments, HVAC control systems are crucial. Building owners and operators may maximize energy savings, enhance comfort, and advance sustainable building practices by applying effective control techniques, using cutting-edge technology, and integrating with building automation systems.

To enhance HVAC control systems and promote energy-efficient procedures in the heating, ventilation, and air conditioning sector, it is essential that research, innovation, and cooperation continue. DDC adds digital characteristics to the earlier electronic system that was analog-only. Modern DDC systems employ digital computer programs and analog sensors that are transformed into digital signals inside of a computer to regulate HVAC systems.

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CHAPTER 24

ENERGY-EFFICIENT TECHNOLOGIES: APPLIANCES AND SPACE CONDITIONING EQUIPMENT

Vivek Kumar Jain, Associate Professor,
Department of Electrical, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India,
Email Id: vivekkumar@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

An overview of energy-efficient technology used in large appliances and space conditioning equipment is given in this abstract. The use of energy-efficient technology is essential for decreasing energy consumption, cutting utility costs, and minimizing greenhouse gas emissions as environmental concerns and energy usage increase. The relevance of energy-efficient technologies, illustrations of large appliances and space conditioning equipment, their advantages, and their effects on energy efficiency are only a few of the analysis' significant points that are highlighted. The relevance of energy-efficient technology in large appliances and air conditioning equipment is emphasized in the abstract in order to save energy and encourage sustainable living. It talks about the need for energy-saving appliances and machinery that function as well as or better than traditional versions while using less energy.at several instances of energy-efficient technology used in large appliances such refrigerators, washing machines, dishwashers, and TVs. It talks about the attributes, efficiency requirements, and cutting-edge designs that help decrease energy use and environmental effect.HVAC heating, ventilation, and air conditioning system energy-efficient solutions in space conditioning equipment. It emphasises the significance of modern control systems, smart thermostats, and high-efficiency HVAC equipment that optimize energy consumption, enhance comfort, and lower greenhouse gas emissions.The advantages of energy-efficient technology, such as lower utility costs, better performance, increased durability, and little environmental effect, are also emphasized in the abstract. In order to encourage the use of energy-efficient appliances and equipment, it covers the role of government legislation, consumer awareness campaigns, and energy efficiency labelling programmes.energy-efficient solutions in large appliances and home comfort systems are crucial for lowering energy use and advancing sustainability. Consumers and companies may benefit from cost savings, greater performance, and environmental conservation by adopting these technologies. To encourage the wider use of energy-efficient technology and build a more sustainable future, ongoing research and development, supporting legislation, and consumer education are required.

KEYWORDS:

Air, Appliances, Conditioning, Equipment, Efficient.

INTRODUCTION

In today's society, energy-efficient solutions in large appliances and air conditioning equipment have taken on growing importance. The adoption of energy-efficient technology has drawn a lot of attention due to growing worries about energy consumption, environmental sustainability, and the desire to lower utility bills. With a focus on the relevance of energy-efficient technologies, the significance of large appliances and space conditioning equipment, and the advantages they bring, this introduction seeks to provide a general overview of the subject. The necessity of energy efficiency is emphasized in the introduction's first paragraph as a means of tackling the world's energy crisis. It draws attention to the rising energy consumption and its effects on the environment and consumer costs. Energy-efficient technologies are essential for cutting down on energy usage and greenhouse gas emissions. They also help people and companies financially [1]–[3].

The presentation also highlights major appliances and space conditioning equipment as important applications for energy-efficient technology. Large domestic equipment like refrigerators, washing machines, dishwashers, and TVs require a lot of electricity. The same is true for commercial and residential buildings, where heating, ventilation, and air conditioning HVAC systems account for a significant amount of energy use. The developments in energy-efficient technology found in various gadgets and machinery are highlighted in the introduction. It talks about the creation of efficiency standards, creative constructions, and technical developments that help lower energy usage without sacrificing usefulness or performance. The introduction also discusses the advantages of energy-efficient technology in large appliances and home air conditioning systems. Reduced environmental impact, more comfort and convenience, cheaper energy costs, and longer product lifespans are just a few of these advantages.

Energy-efficient technology help the world's efforts to combat climate change and advance sustainable development while also saving money for consumers. The introduction lays the foundation for understanding the significance of energy-efficient technology in large appliances and home comfort systems. It places emphasis on the need of addressing issues with energy consumption and the environment while enjoying the advantages of cost savings and increased performance. Individuals, companies, and society as a whole may support a more sustainable future while benefiting from energy efficiency by using energy-efficient solutions in these sectors.The British thermal unit Btu is a standard energy measure used by the U.S. Energy Information Administration EIA to compare or total energy consumption from various energy sources that generate electricity. Petroleum, coal, natural gas, propane, nuclear power, hydroelectric power, wind power, wood power, biomass waste power, solar power, and other forms of energy are all used in the United States.

It is considerably simpler to convert different energy sources into Btus and calculate the overall amount of power used by various industries and goods.The EIA published a forecast for domestic electrical consumption for the next 30 years in April 2013 and found that the country would use more power. This doesn't imply that our goods are using more power; it just means that during the next 30 years, there will be more houses, people, and electrical equipment.Residential appliances and space conditioning equipment's energy consumption may be decreased by upgrading to the much more energy-efficient models that are now on the market and by continuing to develop even more energy-efficient appliances. Over the last 20 years, national energy efficiency rules for appliances have encouraged efficiency advancements, leading to a major increase in appliance efficiency Increasing appliance efficiency further offers a large unrealized technological potential.

DISCUSSION

Food is kept cold by refrigerators, refrigerator-freezers, and freezers by transferring heat from the air within the appliance cabinet to the cabinet's outside. A standalone freezer is a refrigerated cabinet used to store and freeze foods at 12°F 24.4°C or below. A refrigerator is a well-insulated cabinet used to store food at 34°F 1.1°C or above. A refrigerator-freezer is a refrigerator with an attached freezer compartment. The majority of refrigerators run on electricity. The compressor, metering device, condenser, and evaporator are all components of the refrigeration system. The system employs a vapour compression cycle, in which the refrigerant changes phases while flowing through a closed loop system from high pressure vapour to high pressure liquid and back to low pressure vapour. As the refrigerant change's phases, heat is either absorbed or released. Chlorofluorocarbons CFCs were originally included in the majority of refrigerants and insulating materials;however, they are no longer present in any U.S. models sold after January 1, 1996. As required by the Montreal Protocol, R-12 dichlorodifluoromethane refrigerant was replaced with R134a 1,1,1,2-tetrafluoroethane in refrigerator and freezer production in 1996. Other names under which R134a is offered for sale include Dymel 134a, Forane 134a, Genero 134a, HFA-134a, HFC-134a, R-134a, Suva 134a, and Norflurane [4]–[6].In the United States, there are presently over 170 million refrigerators and refrigerator-freezers in operation, 60 million of which are more than ten years old and costing consumers billions in unnecessary energy expenses.

Water Heaters

An equipment called a water heater is used to quickly heat potable water for usage outside the heater. Water heaters provide water for sinks, showers, baths, dishwashers, and washing machines. The majority of water heaters in the United States are storage heaters, which continually keep a tank of water at a temperature that is thermostatically regulated. The most typical storage water heaters have a glass-lined cylindrical steel tank that is protected against corrosion. The majority of hot water tanks produced nowadays have a steel jacket and polyurethane foam insulation. Although some utilise oil, almost all storage water heaters are powered by electricity or natural gas or LPG.

Tankless instantaneous water heaters heat water as it is pulled through the unit, as opposed to keeping it at a set temperature. There are tankless electric and gas-fired instantaneous water heaters available. In Asia and Europe, instantaneous water heaters are quite common. Even while they are not often used in the United States, their usage does seem to be growing.Similar to refrigerators, water heaters are a common fixture in American homes. About 38% of homes have electric water heaters, whereas about 54% of homes use gas water heaters. The amount of hot water used varies greatly from one family to the next, mostly because of variations in household size and occupant behaviour.The Department of Energy's DOE final regulation, which took effect on April 16, 2015, demands that almost all residential gas, electric, oil, and tankless gas water heaters have higher energy factor EF ratings. The EF is the proportion of the water heater's usable energy production to the total energy given to the water heater. The efficiency of the water heater increases with the EF.

Furnaces and Boilers

Major home equipment that are used to provide central space heating include furnaces and boilers. Electric and fuel-burning stoves and boilers are also options. The following fundamental parts make up a typical gas furnace installation: Heat exchangers, a system for acquiring air for combustion, a combustion system with burners and controls, a venting system for expelling combustion products, a circulating air blower and motor, an air filter, and other accessories are among the components that are included in a cabinet or casing. Oil and liquid petroleum gas LPG-burning furnaces are also available, but less often. The blower, air filter, and casing of an electric furnace are very similar to those of a gas furnace. However, the air in an electric furnace is heated by electric heating components rather than by fuel-fired heat exchangers. Electric overload protection, a contactor, limit switches, and a fan switch are among the controls. Through a network of ducts connecting to the intended heating locations, furnaces provide warm air. A superior system pipes hot water or steam to terminal heating units positioned all throughout the home. In a conventional boiler, water is heated within a pressurised heat exchanger made of cast iron, steel, or copper. According to the U.S. Census Bureau's Annual 2012 Characteristics of New Housing report, natural or LPG gas was used to heat 59% of newly constructed single-family houses in 2012, followed by electricity for 39%, oil for 1%, and other forms for 2%.

Central Air Conditioning, Room Air Conditioners, and Ductless Minisplit Air Conditioners

A device intended to provide cold air to a confined environment is a central air conditioning AC system. An interior unit and an outdoor unit make up a split system in a central air conditioning system. There are also packaged central air conditioning AC systems available. All of the parts of a packaged unit air conditioning system are housed in a single unit.With the addition of ductwork, this kind of air conditioning unit may be mounted on a rooftop. Similar to a central unit, a package unit air conditioner uses the same technology. The indoor unit is made up of an evaporator coil an indoor heat exchanger coil and a refrigerant flow control device a capillary tube, thermostatic expansion valve or orifice that are located either in a forced-air furnace or an air handler. The outdoor condenser unit is made up of a compressor, condenser coil an outdoor heat exchanger coil, condenser fan and condenser fan motor. The two units are connected via refrigerant tubing.In order to condition the air, a central air conditioning system draws warm air from the living area and blows it through the evaporator coil, where the air transfers its heat content to the refrigerant. The blower located in the living area then returns the conditioned air to the room using a ducted system. in the air handler or furnace. The compressor takes the refrigerant that has been vaporised and is shooting out of the evaporator and elevates it to a temperature higher than the ambient air temperature. Once in the condenser unit outside coil, the condenser coil rejects the refrigerant. condenses when heat is transferred from the refrigerant to the outside, colder air. The flow control mechanism allows the liquid refrigerant to pass while lowering its pressure and temperature. Re-entering the evaporator coil, the refrigerant completes the refrigeration cycle once again.

A room air conditioner, as opposed to the two-unit central AC system, is housed in a single cabinet and fixed in a window or a wall such that part of the unit is outside the building and half is within the inhabited area. In order to minimise heat transmission, the two sides of the cabinet are normally divided by an insulated divider wall. The compressor, condenser coil, condenser fan, fan motor, and capillary tube are located in the cabinet's outside section. The evaporator coil and evaporator fan are the components found in the cabinet's inside. Both the condenser and evaporator fans are propelled by the fan motor. In the same way as a central AC system conditions air, a room air conditioner does the same thing without using air ducts.

Minisplit air conditioners work similarly to traditional central air conditioners in that they have an inside evaporator coil and ductless air handler unit and an outside compressor/condenser unit. The distinction is that each room or cooling zone has a separate ductless air handler. A conduit carrying the electrical power, refrigerant lines, and condensate lines connects each interior ductless air handler unit to the outside condensing unit. The main benefit is that it is simpler to address the various comfort demands of different rooms in the house by supplying specialised units to each inhabited area or zone. Minisplit AC also avoids energy losses related to central AC by not using ductwork. Up to five ductless air handlers may be operated simultaneously by certain Mini split air conditioner condensers [7]–[9].

In 2009, an estimated 89% of American houses had an air conditioning system; 6% of them utilised room air conditioners, and 5% did not. In its Annual 2012 Characteristics of New Housing report, the U.S. Census Bureau states that 89% of new family houses were finished in 2012, but 11% were left without air conditioning.As an alternative to HCFC-22 R-22 refrigerant units, AC manufacturers are starting to provide HFC-410A refrigerant in AC systems. The EPA has mandated that the HCFC-22 refrigerant be phased out starting in 2020, with neither manufacture nor importation allowed. But starting on January 1, 2010, producers of AC equipment must gradually stop using HCFC-22 refrigerant in new AC equipment. However, new AC equipment will be made to run on R-410A, while old R-22 systems are likely to be converted to R-407C, an alternative refrigerant.

Heat Pumps

Heat pumps utilise the same equipment to offer both space heating and cooling, in contrast to air conditioners, which only provide space cooling. During the heating season, a heat pump pulls heat from the outside air into a structure, and during the cooling season, it pulls heat away from a building and transports it outside. An air source heat pump has the same parts and functions as a central air conditioner, but it also has the ability to heat spaces by switching the direction of the refrigerant flow. The indoor coil serves as the condenser and the outside coil as the evaporator while heating a room. During the heating season, the available heat content of the outside air rapidly falls when the temperature dips below 2°C 35.6°F; in this situation, a heat pump will use more electric-resistance backup heat.

Similar to air-source equipment, a ground-source heat pump works by rejecting or extracting heat from the ground rather than from the air. As a result of ground temperatures More stable operating temperatures are attained when the temperature does not change as much during the day or year as the ambient air temperature. A ground-source heat pump's ground loop A pressurized, sealed pipe system filled with a water/antifreeze combination is used in a closed system called a pump. A ground-source system's interior mechanical equipment consists of a fan coil unit with an indoor coil, a compressor, and a ground loop circulation pump. Electricity is the source of power for almost all heat pumps.

In 2001, heat pumps were utilised in around 11% of American residences. The same user factors that were previously described for AC systems also affect how much energy heat pumps consume. In its Annual 2012 Characteristics of New Housing report, the U.S. Census Bureau states that 38% of new single-family houses built in 2012 had heat pump systems installed.The EPA has mandated that the HCFC-22 refrigerant for heat pumps be phased out starting in 2020, with no new manufacture or imports. However, by January 1, 2010, producers of heat pump equipment must phase out the use of HCFC-22 refrigerant in all new heat pump products. However, new heat pump equipment will be made to function on R-410A, while most old R-22 systems will likely be changed to R-407C, an alternate refrigerant.

Clothes Washers

An equipment called a clothes washer uses water, detergent, and mechanical agitation to clean garments. The perforated basket is housed within a water-retaining tub, where the clothing are washed, rinsed, and spun. Top-loading washers normally revolve around a vertical axis as they move the clothing up, down, and back and forth. Clothes are rotated along a horizontal axis using front-loading machines. Electricity is required to run a pump that circulates and drains the water in the washing tub as well as an electric motor that agitates and spins the garments. Some washer types heat the water used in the washing using a separate water heater element.In 2009, a little over 84% of homes had washers. The majority of washing machines sold in the US are top-loading, vertical-axis models. Between 85% and 90% of the energy consumed to wash garments goes into heating the water.

User behaviour has a big impact on how much energy clothes washers use. The user may save water and energy by adjusting the machine's water consumption to the size of the load. Using cold water for washing instead of hot water helps the water heater use less electricity. Similar to this, using cold water for rinsing rather than warm water might use less energy. How often the washer is used will determine how much energy is utilised. According to the DOE's test protocol, a clothes washer is used 300 times on average year. The U.S. Energy Star programme estimates that if every washer bought in the country in 2013 had the Energy Star certification, we would begin saving around $250 million annually on power, water use and gas.

Cooktops and Ovens

A conventional oven is an enclosed, cabinet-like device in which food is heated from above whereas a hob is a horizontal surface on which food is cooked or heated from below. A hob is a kitchen equipment that combines a hob and an oven into one piece. There are both gas and electric ranges. Ovens and cooktops may be found in practically all homes. The majority of houses almost 60% have electric cooktops and ovens, whereas 40% have gas cooktops and ovens.Nonionizing microwaves sent into the cavity of the microwave oven's cabinet cause the water molecules in the food to vibrate. The meal is heated from the inside out by the motion of the water molecules. The proportion of homes using microwaves has significantly grown in recent years. More than 5 million microwave ovens were sold by appliance manufacturers in 2013.

Dishwashers

A dishwasher is a device designed to wash and dry kitchenware with the use of water and detergent. In North America, a typical external water heater provides hot water to the dishwasher. The dishwasher's water temperature is also increased by an inbuilt electric heater. In a succession of wash and rinse cycles, electric motors push water via spray arms that impinge on the kitchenware. Electric heaters and sometimes a fan also provide an extra drying function. Some dishwashers now come equipped with dirt sensors that can tell when the dishes are clean and the cycle may be halted. In 2011, dishwashers were in around 69% of houses in the United States [9]–[11].

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, energy-efficient technology in big appliances and air conditioners contributes significantly to energy savings, lower utility bills, and sustainability. To address the rising concerns about energy usage and environmental effect, these technologies must be adopted.Major appliances that are designed to use less energy include refrigerators, washing machines, dishwashers, and TVs. These appliances provide higher efficiency requirements and cutting-edge designs. Customers may get the same or greater performance while drastically lowering their energy consumption and environmental impact by selecting energy-efficient versions. Similar to this, energy-efficient HVAC systems and other space conditioning equipment have a lot to offer in terms of comfort and energy savings. Advanced control systems, smart thermostats, and high-efficiency HVAC units optimise energy utilisation, resulting in decreased energy use and greenhouse gas emissions. There are various benefits to using energy-efficient technology in large appliances and air conditioning systems. Reduced environmental impact, increased performance, cheaper energy costs, and longer product lifespans are all benefits for consumers. Government legislation and energy efficiency labelling programmes also significantly contribute to the adoption of energy-efficient technology by giving consumers and producers standardised information and incentives.Research and development must continue if energy-efficient solutions are to be adopted widely. Major appliances and space conditioning equipment may both benefit from technological and design advancements that increase their efficiency. Additionally, encouraging people and companies to adopt environmentally responsible decisions may be accomplished through increasing consumer knowledge and educating them about the advantages and accessibility of energy-efficient products. energy-efficient technology in large appliances and air conditioning equipment provide customers with real advantages and work towards a future that is more sustainable. Individuals, companies, and politicians may significantly reduce energy usage, save money, and lessen environmental impact by adopting these technologies.

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CHAPTER 25

ENERGY-EFFICIENT LIGHTING TECHNOLOGIES AND THEIR APPLICATIONS

Harsh Shrivastava, Assistant Professor,
Department of Electrical , Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India,
Email Id:ershrivastava@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Uses of energy-efficient lighting systems in the home and commercial sectors. Due to increased concerns about energy efficiency and environmental sustainability, the use of energy-efficient lighting solutions has become more prevalent. The relevance of energy-efficient lighting, various lighting technologies, their advantages, and their specialized applications in residential and commercial settings are only a few of the analysis's major themes that are highlighted in this abstract.The significance of energy-efficient lighting in lowering energy consumption and its accompanying environmental effect is emphasized in the abstract. It emphasizes the need of switching from conventional lighting sources, including incandescent bulbs, to more effective substitutes in order to save energy and advance sustainability objectives.several energy-saving lighting solutions are now on the market, including high-efficiency fluorescent lights, compact fluorescent lamps, and light-emitting diodes LEDs. It outlines the benefits, drawbacks, and characteristics of each technology while emphasizing their increased longevity, reduced energy use, and interoperability with lighting control systems. explores the precise uses of energy-efficient lighting solutions in the home and business settings. It describes how they are used in several types of lighting fixtures, including task lighting, accent lighting, general illumination, and outdoor and interior lighting. To maximize energy savings and create aesthetically pleasing and pleasant spaces, the significance of correct lighting design and the integration of lighting controls is emphasized.the extra advantages of energy-efficient lighting solutions outside of energy savings. These advantages include better illumination, lower maintenance costs, and the opportunity to integrate smart lighting systems for better automation and control. Energy-efficient lighting systems provide a lot of benefits in terms of environmental sustainability, cost reduction, and energy savings. They provide the potential to develop effective and aesthetically attractive lighting systems in the home and commercial sectors. Both residential and commercial buildings may help with energy conservation efforts and construct sustainable surroundings by employing energy-efficient lighting systems, applying proper lighting design, and using lighting controls. In order to further encourage the use of energy-efficient lighting solutions and pave the path for a more sustainable future, ongoing research, technical breakthroughs, and awareness are essential.

KEYWORDS:

Design, Lighting, Energy, Efficient, Incandescent.

INTRODUCTION

Around 15% of the world's electricity is used for lighting, which also contributes 5% of the world's greenhouse gas GHG emissions. According to the end. lighten initiative of the United Nations Environment Programme, replacing all inefficient grid-connected lighting worldwide will cut annual CO2 emissions by 490 million tonnes and global power consumption by almost 5% . 99% of all lighting energy is used for grid-connected space lighting, with the remaining 0.1% going to vehicle lighting and 0.1% to off-grid fuel-based lighting. About 75 percent of the world's grid-connected lighting is made up of both residential and business lighting Figure. 1. Globally, artificial light consumption per person varies greatly but generally amounts to roughly 20 mega-lumen hours annually. The average annual consumption of North Americans is 100 mega-lumen hours. Indians barely utilize three mega lumen-hours annually, compared to the 10, consumed by the Chinese. Given worldwide population trends, advancements in lighting efficiency not only provide huge energy savings in affluent countries but, more crucially, the chance to restrain the rapid rise in the energy consumption of lighting in less developed nations. The historical efficacies of various light source technologies are shown in Figure. 2 as solid lines [1]–[3].The least efficient form of light source is an incandescent bulb, including halogen incandescent lights. Efficacy in the context of lighting is measured in units of 1m/W.

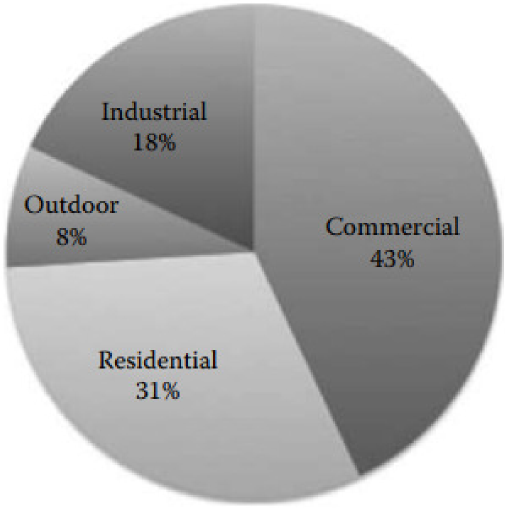

Figure 1: Global grid-connected lighting consumption by sector in 2005 [Routledge].

Compact fluorescent lamps CFLs are the next highest with efficacies approximately four times those of incandescent lamps. Linear fluorescents have trended with an efficacy intermediate that of low and high-wattage high-intensity discharge HID lamps. Light-emitting diodes LEDs are now starting to exceed the efficacy of fluorescent lamps and are expected to reach about 200 lm/W by 2020approximately twice that of today's most efficacious conventional lighting technologies. Up to the present, different lighting technologies have dominated different sectors. For example, in 2010 in the United States, an estimated 86% of outdoor lighting was provided by HID lamps, 72% of commercial lighting was provided by linear fluorescent lamps and 79% of residential lighting was provided by incandescent lamps. Given the large differences in the efficiency of the different light sources Figure. 2, this has resulted in large sectoral differences in efficiency. Solid-state lighting is poised to change that equation with LED rapidly entering all sectors of the lighting market.

LEDs are expected to replace essentially all other lighting technologies in the coming decades. Navigant Research anticipates LED's global market share of replacement lamps to grow from 5% in 2013 to 63% by 2021. The U.S. Department of Energy expects LEDs to represent 70% of the U.S. residential and commercial lighting markets by 2030 In combination with an expected doubling in LED lamp efficacy anticipated by 2020, the total energy savings are expected to be very large. This is particularly true in the residential sector, where the dominant incumbent technology incandescent lamps has an efficacy of only about 15 lm/W. In addition to the trend toward LED lighting, increased use of lighting controls is expected to further reduce energy use. Because LED lights are significantly longer lived than conventional residential and commercial lamps, global lamp sales are expected to peak and decline as a result of the LED takeover of global lighting markets. compares the typical lifetimes of various lamp technologies currently on the market. projected revenues from technology-specific lamp sales through 2021. This implies that not only will consumers.

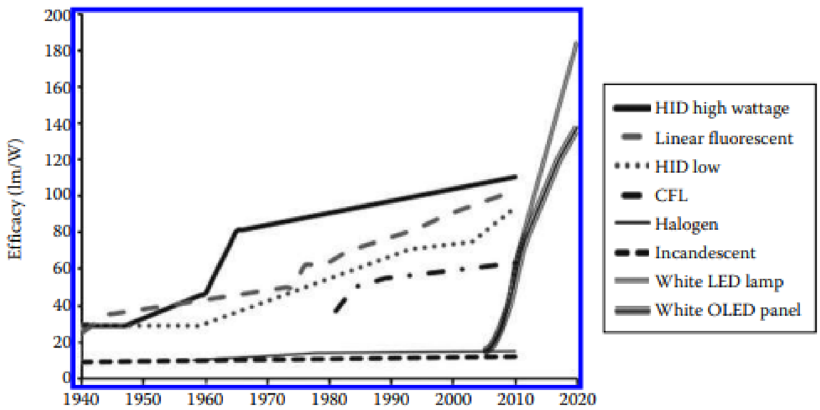

Figure 2: Historic best-on-market lamp efficacy trends by a light source and lamp type and projected trends for solid-state lighting [Routledge].

DISCUSSION

Electromagnetic waves with wavelengths between 390 and 700 nm make up visible light. These waves are contained in a specific region of the electromagnetic spectrum. Visible light is viewed in accordance with its wavelength, with orange and red light having longer wavelengths than violet and blue light. Infrared radiation is light with wavelengths longer than visible light, from 700 nanometers to one millimeter, and is often felt as heat. UV radiation has wavelengths between 390 nm and 10 nm, which are shorter than those of visible light. When light is emitted at the atomic level, it does so in discrete packets known as photons, which are waves with an energy that is inversely proportional to their wavelength.The two most common physical processes for producing visible light in common electric light sources are thermal and atomic emission. Thermal emission, which is electromagnetic radiation released by all things with temperatures above absolute zero, is the method that has been utilized the longest.

The spectrum from a blackbody, a hypothetical entity that completely absorbs all input light and produces only heat radiation, closely resembles the spectrum of thermal emission for the majority of things. Broad-spectrum blackbody radiation has a peak wavelength that changes inversely with temperature and intensity that scales as the fourth power of the object's temperature. The majority of the thermal radiation that objects at room temperature release is infrared, and the visible light that they also emit is too feeble to be easily seen. The overall power emitted increases quickly as the temperature rises, and the peak of the spectrum changes towards shorter wavelengths. A 5000 K item will shine strongly, with the peak of the light occurring. Although the thermal emission spectrum is relatively wide, objects with temperatures as low as 750 K produce observable visible light even in their thermal spectrum at visible wavelengths. despite the fact that the majority of their output is visible light. Incandescence is the name for the visible light produced by thermal emission.

Atomic emission takes place when atoms' electrons are stimulated to a high-energy configuration by some process and subsequently change back to a lower-energy configuration through the emission of a photon. The light that is released during an atomic transition is monochromatic, with a well-defined wavelength that is dependent on the particular element and the particular energy levels involved in the change since atomic electrons can only inhabit a limited set of energy levels. Atomic emission may produce light at a number of wavelengths by combining different elements and energizing different energy-level transitions. When atoms move randomly, as they would do in a gas, the Doppler effect can also expand the spectrum emission peaks. In contrast to the comparatively wide, smooth spectrum of thermal emission, atomic emission often results in light with a spectrum made up of one or more relatively small wavelength peaks referred to as emission lines.Examples of spectra for blackbody radiation, atomic emission, and, for comparison, daylight are shown in Figure. 3. Solid lines depict the theoretical spectrum of a blackbody at various temperatures, from 3750 K to 6000 K bottom to top. The spectral peak changes to shorter wavelengths as the temperature rises, along with the source intensity. The full area of light grey represents the spectrum of sunlight, which resembles a blackbody spectrum in its wide, smooth appearance. Atomic emission from a mercury vapour MV lamp is visible in the filled dark grey area and is characterized by small peaks emission lines at distinctive wavelengths. Except for the relative intensities of the various blackbody temperatures, the curves are not on the same scale. McNamara spectral data for sunshine and MV lamps.

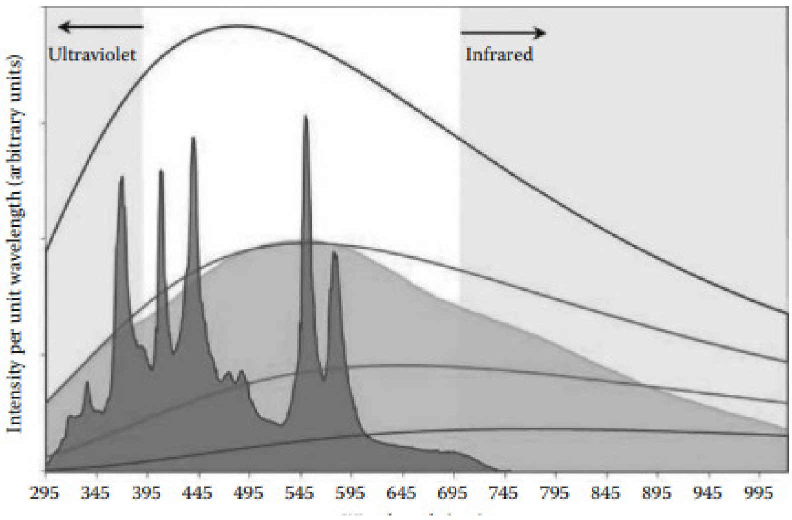

Figure 3: The spectra of different types of light sources at visible and neighbouring infrared and ultraviolet wavelengths [Routledge].

Depending on how the electrons are stimulated, atomic emissions may take on various shapes. Fluorescence happens when an atom absorbs light at a certain wavelength, which excites an electron. As the electron relaxes to a lower energy level, it emits light at the same or a different wavelength. The released photon will have a longer wavelength than the absorbed photon if the electron relaxes to greater energy than it did originally. This technique is often employed to convert ultraviolet to visible light, for instance in fluorescent lights. When an electric current travels through plasma or ionized gas, it produces plasma discharge emission, which is a phenomenon known as an electric arc. The gas's atoms' excited electrons are excited by the free electron collisions with them and go to lower energy levels, where they produce photons. This is the main way that HID and fluorescent bulbs generate light. When an electrical current is given to a semiconductor composed of two nearby materials with differing electrical characteristics, it produces diode emission in LEDs. The semiconducting material's excited electrons, which are free to move around, are added to one material and taken away from the other by the current. The electrons that are transmitted over the interface between the two materials subsequently release photons when they relax to the empty energy levels in the electron-depleted atoms [4]–[6].

Design of Energy-Efficient Lighting Systems

Illumination systems for homes and businesses are often created to provide both practical illumination and aesthetic value. Energy-efficient lighting design aims to provide the appropriate level of light and other aesthetically pleasing aspects of the lighting system while using the least amount of energy. Aesthetic design decisions may result in less efficiency. For instance, a luminaire's effectiveness will decrease if a diffuser is added to it in order to prevent glare. In other situations, some decisions could increase effectiveness. For instance, lighting controls that prevent the supply of unwanted surplus light are both more aesthetically pleasing and more energy-efficientOnly as much artificial light as is desired at the appropriate times and places is the aim of energy-efficient lighting design. The ideal system takes daylighting into account, offers the right lighting for the design application, and takes occupancy variations into account. Systems may potentially modify spectral distribution in the future to enhance human performance and well-being throughout the day.

Making the most of natural light, using the most effective artificial lighting technologies, incorporating automated lighting controls, controlling high-illumination task lighting separately from lower-illumination ambient lighting, and using automated lighting controls are the essential components of an efficient lighting design. The next part goes into great detail on energy-efficient lighting technology and controls, but this section gives background information on the advantages and drawbacks of daylighting. In order to prevent any possible negative effects, proper daylighting design necessitates climate-sensitive building design. Particularly, excessive direct sunlight may raise cooling energy demand, cause discomfort from glare and heat loading, and negate or surpass the energy savings from lighting. Energy-efficient lighting, on the other hand, may lower the energy demand for cooling since they emit less heat, which is advantageous in areas where cooling dominates peak electric load. Building energy modeling is required to get the ideal balance [7]–[10].

The overall architectural design of a structure and the interior space design have a significant impact on the possibility to use sunshine to partially replace the requirement for artificial light. By employing properly positioned shading devices, thermal mass, and phase change materials, passive solar building design, which maximizes building orientation and window placement and minimizes severe thermal excursions, may promote daylighting while preventing overheating. loading. It is possible to direct natural light farther into a structure by using skylights, reflecting surfaces both inside and outside, and other techniques. To bring natural light farther within, light pipes might be employed. A hybrid may even be used in light pipes. when there is inadequate natural light, include artificial lighting in the design. While allowing for the entry of natural light, advanced window solutions with dynamic solar management may reduce heat losses in the winter and prevent excessive heat loading in the summer.

The most recent technologies include zonal controls that may reduce glare for building occupants while allowing unmodified light to flow where it won't bother them. Intelligent blinds are being created that can detect thermal loading, glare, and light intensity and adjust themselves automatically. The requirement for artificial light throughout the day may also be decreased by using interior design and furnishings that situate high light-need activities next to windows and that maximize the amount of natural light that enters a building via its windows.Solar-assisted lightingitems that incorporate photovoltaic PV power supply into lighting systemsis another newly introduced, ecologically sound design alternative. When PV power is available, efficient business lighting from NexTek Power Systems works only on direct current DC supplied by the PV system; when PV power is unavailable, it functions on rectified alternating current AC. The method eliminates power conversion losses from DC to AC to DC and permits variable lighting design. The metal grid supporting the ceiling tiles in a typical commercial drop ceiling Armstrong Ceiling's DC Flexzone system has a 24 V bus embedded into it that powers the lights. The concept lowers the cost and significantly increases the flexibility of commercial lighting design by enabling lights to be removed and installed without an electrician and to be put anywhere on the grid. On the other end of the spectrum, there are now available compact solar-assisted lighting systems that contain a battery, LED lights, and a small PV module for example, Fenix International's ReadySet Solar Kit. The systems were created for marketplaces in underdeveloped nations. They may gain popularity in many locations with very inconsistent grid electricity, even though they are most suitable for off-grid settings.

Lighting, Human Health, and the Environment

Natural and artificial light exposure may have both positive and negative impacts on a person's health, and these effects are significantly influenced by the wavelength of the light, the time of exposure, and the organs affected. By preserving the body's circadian rhythms, exposure to the natural daily cycle of darkness and light benefits mental and physical health.A variety of hormones that regulate stress and impulsive behavior, appetite and metabolism, and support reproductive health and alertness are produced when people are exposed to blue light in the morning. Lack of circadian blue light in the morning may result in melancholy, anxiety, food cravings, reduced libido and energy, and unhappiness. Lack of darkness at night and inadequate blue light exposure in the morning both raise the risk of cancer and infectious illness by interfering with the immune response pathways that fight cancer and viruses.Blue light exposure at night is especially disruptive to well-being and detrimental to eyesight. The body is stimulated to produce hormones that aid in cellular repair, blood pressure reduction, and sleep when exposed to darkness.

Blue light exposure throughout the night has been shown to promote sleep, lower sickness, and blood pressure, lessen hostility, increase lucidity, and improve social engagement in both geriatric and Alzheimer's patients. While light color effects on health have, up to now, mostly been ignored in lighting design, avoiding light pollution has grown to be a significant problem. The idea is that light ought to It should only shine at its targeted audience. The BUG System measures unwanted stray light from outdoor illumination and quantifies backlight, upright, and glare. The Model Lighting Ordinance of the Illuminating Engineering Society approved the scheme. While high-end lighting designers have started to use spectral dynamics in their lighting systems recently to change the atmosphere of places throughout the day, readily accessible technologies are now making it possible for residential consumers to modify the color of lights. For instance, the new Philips Hue lighting system may be managed with an Apple iPhone. The technologies are anticipated to gain popularity as people become more conscious of how lighting affects productivity and human health.

Technology

The first kind of electric illumination is the incandescent lamp, which was created separately in the late 1800s by Thomas Edison in the United States and Joseph Swann in England. Although carbon, tantalum, and osmium filaments were used in early incandescent lights developed around the beginning of the 20th century, tungsten is the material utilized in current lamps. When tungsten filaments were first used, they were far more effective than these previous filament materials.Blackbody spectrums are a good approximation of the light spectrum that is produced by incandescent lamp filaments. At working temperatures for common incandescent lamps, the vast majority of the power that is emitted usually 90% or more falls in the infrared region of the spectrum, where it is perceived as radiant heat rather than visible light. Because of this, incandescent bulbs are much less efficient than other kinds of lighting.Despite this, incandescent lighting is still widely used, particularly in household settings. Incandescent lights continue to be popular due to a variety of appealing qualities as well as their familiarity. Warm color temperatures and a high color rendering index are characteristics of incandescent lighting.

They can be readily dimmed without suffering harm. Inside the light. In comparison to other lighting technologies, incandescent lights are less costly, smaller, and lighter, and they don't need ballasts or other controllers to work with low-cost fixtures. Both AC and DC power may be used with them, and they have no need for top-notch power input. They provide great optical control in a setup with a suitable design. Furthermore, incandescent lights may be disposed of in the regular waste stream since they are simple to install and maintain, don't emit much sound or electromagnetic interference, and don't contain many harmful compounds. Reflectors and general-purpose incandescent bulbs are the two main varieties. Pear-shaped general-purpose lights, commonly referred to as A-lamps, are widely used home lighting fixtures. A reflecting coating is often placed on a portion of the bulb surface that has been carefully shaped to regulate the light direction and distribution in reflector lamps, which are typically conical in form. Flood and spotlights, which are often used to brighten outdoor spaces, draw attention to store displays and artwork inside, and enhance the optical performance of track lights or downlights, are typical varieties of reflector lamps.

By heating a filament to the point of incandescence, halogen lamps work similarly to normal incandescent lights but are more effective since they use the tungsten-halogen cycle. Tungsten is evaporating off the filament and deposits on the inner surface of the glass envelope when an incandescent lamp operates. Over time, this process darkens the bulb and thins the filament, leading to ultimate failure. A greater operating temperature for the light might quicken this process. In a halogen lamp, a quartz capsule containing a little quantity of halogen gas, such as iodine or bromine, surrounds the filament. The halogen gas attaches to the tungsten that has evaporated from the filament at moderate temperatures, inhibiting deposition onto the quartz capsule. The tungsten-halogen link is broken and tungsten is redeposited onto the filament at the higher temperatures present near the filament. As a result, halogen lamps may be used at greater temperatures without suffering any negative effects on their lives many halogen lights actually have longer lifetimes than normal incandescent bulbs. Thus, the filament emits a higher-temperature blackbody spectrum that has a bigger overlap with the human eye's response curve. As a consequence, more lumens are generated at a given power demand, leading to higher luminous efficacy.

The halogen infrared reflecting HIR light is even more effective than the typical tungsten-halogen bulb. An optically clear but infrared-reflective coating is applied to the halogen capsule, or lamp reflector, in such lamps to reflect part of the infrared radiation back onto the filament. This raises the filament's working temperature without using more electrical power watts. HIR lights have better luminous effectiveness than non-HIR halogens because the elevated temperature produces more lumens at constant power. Despite having lives that are typically two to three times longer than normal halogens, HIR lamps have traditionally had a little market share owing to their expensive initial cost.Halogen lamps generate brilliant white light with color temperatures that are somewhat higher than those of conventional incandescent lamps and with comparably high CRI values since they are running at a higher temperature. Additionally, they are more compact, somewhat more efficient, and have better lumen maintenance than conventional incandescent bulbs. They also often have longer-rated lives. Reflector lamps have previously made extensive use of halogen technology; as a result of minimum efficiency requirements, they are now gaining market share both domestically and internationally. There are other general-purpose halogen bulbs on the market. These have historically been used sparingly, but recent advancements in their effectiveness together with new regulatory criteria are anticipated to enhance their use in the near future.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, energy-efficient lighting solutions have a wide range of uses in the residential and commercial sectors and provide important advantages. In order to save energy, cut power prices, and promote environmental sustainability, these technologies must be used. Significant energy savings may be achieved by switching from conventional lighting sources to energy-efficient substitutes such as LEDs, CFLs, and high-efficiency fluorescent bulbs. These innovations provide improved control and illumination operations via greater energy efficiency, longer lifespans, and compatibility with lighting control systems. Energy-efficient lighting systems have a wide range of uses in both home and business settings. They include general illumination, task lighting, accent lighting, and interior and outdoor lighting. Energy consumption may be reduced while producing aesthetically pleasing and cosy spaces by using proper lighting design and lighting controls. Energy savings are only one benefit of using energy-efficient lighting.

Additionally, these technologies provide better illumination, lower maintenance costs, and the possibility of interaction with smart lighting systems. Smart lighting solutions allow for sophisticated automation and control, significantly increasing both convenience and energy economy.It is necessary for consumers, companies, and legislators to be aware of energy-efficient lighting systems, which will only become widely used with sustained research, technical breakthroughs, and consumer education. Promoting the usage of energy-efficient lighting systems may be greatly aided by government incentives, rules, and educational initiatives. The lighting business has the potential to undergo a revolution, and energy-efficient lighting solutions may make a big contribution to energy conservation initiatives. We can achieve significant energy savings, lower carbon emissions, and develop sustainable ecosystems for the future by adopting these technologies and their uses in the residential and commercial sectors.

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