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Environmental impact comparison of a ventilated and a non-ventilated building-integrated photovoltaic rooftop design in the Netherlands: Electricity output, energy payback time, and land claim



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ABSTRACT

Building Integrated PV (BIPV) is considered as a key development for successful deployment of PV in the built environment. However, the effect of PV integration on environmental impact is not fully understood. In this study a single indicator for environmental impact assessment of BIPV is investigated in the Netherlands. A BIPV rooftop with 24 multi-crystalline 60-cell modules has been designed with and without backside ventilation, and the environmental impact of these configurations has been assessed in the current situation and three future scenarios. The results are expressed in terms of electricity output difference (Δ_{Eout}), Energy PayBack Time (EPBT), and the single indicator Land Claim (LC); the calculated claim in land-time on the carrying capacity to realize the BIPV rooftop. The EPBT calculations are based on two different datasets, SimaPro and the Inventory of Carbon and Energy (ICE), and the LC calculations are based on two different models, SimaPro and MAXergy. Calculations indicate that the ventilated BIPV rooftop design generates 2.6% more electricity than the non-ventilated BIPV rooftop design on a yearly basis. Calculations indicate that the EPBT of the ventilated BIPV rooftop design (3.56 and 4.59 years, based on SimaPro and ICE, respectively) is 9 and 6% longer than the EPBT of the non-ventilated BIPV rooftop design (3.25 and 4.32 years, based on SimaPro and ICE, respectively). Calculations indicate that the LC of a m² ventilated BIPV rooftop design (24.4 and 19.4 m² a, based on SimaPro and MAXergy, respectively) is 18 and 10% higher than the LC of a m² non-ventilated BIPV rooftop design (20.0 and 17.4 m² a, based on SimaPro and MAXergy, respectively). In the optimal future scenario EPBT might decrease to 2.06 years and LC might decrease to 10.6 m² a. This study indicates that the non-ventilated BIPV design shows a lower environmental impact in spite of a lower electric performance and that environmental impact can significantly be reduced in future scenarios.

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1. Introduction

To reach lower fossil fuel dependency and to decrease CO₂ emissions in the European Union (EU), it has been agreed to increase the share of renewable energy sources in the Final Energy Consumption (FEC) to 20% by the end of 2020 (European Commission, 2010). Photovoltaics (PV) can be a major contributor to this target. In 2011, electricity consumption was 3500 TWh in the EU of which 117 TWh in the Netherlands (European Commission, 2013). The amount

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of PV surface needed to cover this electricity consumption would result in a total of 7100 km² PV modules for the EU and 1300 km² for the Netherlands, placed in the optimum orientation and inclination (Šúri, 2007). This area calculation is not taking into account improved efficiency of PV systems, degradation of PV systems, grid/storage interaction and increasing electricity demand. The potential roof and façade surface for building integrated PV is a total of 4979 km² in the EU and 210 km² in the Netherlands (Defaix, 2012). Theoretically, 70% of the electricity demand in the EU and 16% of the electricity demand in the Netherlands could be fulfilled by BIPV, not taking into account lower efficiencies due to less optimal inclination and orientation, degradation over time, PV efficiency improvement, grid/storage aspects, and other installation and operational aspects.

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Nomenclature

BAPV	building added photovoltaics	E _{trans}	primary energy demand for transportation during and in between the different process steps (MI)
BIPV	building integrated photovoltaics	EU	European Union
CO ₂	carbon dioxide	Event	energy output of ventilated BIPV (MI)
$\Delta_{\rm Fout}$	difference in electricity output (%)	f	conversion factor (based on the amount of m^2 necessary
Eagen	annual electricity generation of the PV installation (MI)	5	to generate the embodied energy with the given instal-
Eaoper	annual energy demand for operation and maintenance		lation)
	of the PV installation (MJ)	FEC	final energy consumption (MJ)
EE	embodied energy (MJ)	ICE	inventory of carbon and energy
Eemb	primary energy demand necessary for the realization of	IEA	International Energy Agency
	the PV installation (MJ)	LC	land claim $(m^2 \cdot a)$
E _{EOL}	primary energy demand for end-of-life management of	LCA	life cycle analysis
	the PV installation (MJ)	LCI	life cycle inventory
Egen	energy generated over lifespan of the installation (MJ)	MWT	metal wrap through
Einst	primary energy demand to install the PV installation	η_G	grid efficiency, the average primary energy to electricity
	(MJ)		conversion efficiency at the demand side (44.3% in the
EL	embodied land $(m^2 a)$		Netherlands) (World Energy Council, 2015) (%)
EL _{EE}	embodied land necessary for embodied energy genera-	NL	the Netherlands
	tion $(m^2 a)$	NREL	National Renewable Energy Laboratory
EL _{fact}	embodied land factory (m ² a)	OPT	optimistic scenario
EL _{mat}	embodied land materials (m ² ·a)	PEC	primary energy consumption (MJ)
EL _{pv}	embodied land photovoltaic device (m ² a)	PV	photovoltaics
E _{manuf}	primary energy demand to manufacture the PV installa- tion (MJ)	PVPS	Photovoltaic Power Systems International Research Col- laborative
E _{mat}	primary energy demand to produce materials for the PV	REAL	realistic scenario
	installation (MJ)	SAM	system advisory model
E _{non-vent}	energy output of non-ventilated BIPV (MJ)	STC	standard test conditions
EPBT	Energy PayBack Time (years)	TDoT	The District of Tomorrow, field test location in the
Eraw	primary energy demand to extract raw materials for the		Netherlands
	PV installation (MJ)	Wp	Watt peak, nominal power at STC of PV modules (W)
EROI	energy return on investment		

PV can easily be applied to buildings because PV installations are easily connected to the electricity system of a building and are not based on either potentially dangerous processes or use potentially dangerous resources, as opposed to for example gas based heating systems. The 60-cell multi-crystalline PV modules under investigation in this study can be added to the building envelope (Building Added PV - BAPV) or can be integrated in the building envelope (Building Integrated PV – BIPV), as illustrated in Fig. 1A and B.

In the case of BAPV, a construction is added to the building envelope to carry the PV modules, with in general an air gap between rooftop and PV. In the case of BIPV the modules are directly placed on the rooftop construction, possibly replacing roofing materials resulting in a smaller or no air gap.

The acronym BIPV is generally used when the PV installation is both technically and aesthetically contributing to the functionality of the building (Sinapsis and Donker, 2013). Four key factors are considered essential for the success of PV: cost reduction, efficiency increase, electricity storage, and its integration in the building, i.e. BIPV (Raugei and Frankl, 2009). One of the barriers on the track towards more BIPV is the possible negative side effect of physical integration on the performance and durability of the PV installation due to increased operating temperatures and increased relative humidity (Ritzen et al., 2014a,b,c; Mei, 2009; Norton, 2011; Ritzen et al., 2017), caused by a lack of backside ventilation. For this reason, the relation between PV output and backside ventilation is an important topic of ongoing research (Ritzen et al., 2014a,b,c). PV application has an environmental impact, in the form of energy necessary to produce the PV installation (embodied energy - EE) and in the form of resource extraction and processing, which might increase due to a shorter lifespan of PV installations. This creates a possible imbalance between energy generation on the one hand and embodied energy and material consumption on the other hand.

The availability of resources, in combination with the renewable energy potential, to deliver the necessary operational energy



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