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Research article

Clean and green energy technologies: Sustainable development and environment

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Abstract

The move towards a de-carbonised world, driven partly by climate science and partly by the business opportunities it offers, will need the promotion of environmentally friendly alternatives, if an acceptable stabilisation level of atmospheric carbon dioxide is to be achieved. This requires the harnessing and use of natural resources that produce no air pollution or greenhouse gases and provides comfortable coexistence of human, livestock, and plants. This article presents a comprehensive review of energy sources, and the development of sustainable technologies to explore these energy sources. It also includes potential renewable energy technologies, efficient energy systems, energy savings techniques and other mitigation measures necessary to reduce climate changes. The article concludes with the technical status of the ground source heat pumps (GSHP) technologies.

Keywords: Renewable energy resources, technologies, sustainable development, environment

1. Introduction

Over millions of years ago, plants have covered the earth converting the energy of sunlight into living plants and animals, some of which was buried in the depths of the earth to produce deposits of coal, oil and natural gas [1-3]. The past few decades, however, have experienced many valuable uses for these complex chemical substances and manufacturing from them plastics, textiles, fertiliser and the various end products of the petrochemical industry. Indeed, each decade sees increasing uses for these products. Coal, oil and gas, which will certainly be of great value to future generations, as they are to ours, are however non-renewable natural resources. The rapid depletion of these non-renewable fossil resources need not continue. This is particularly true now as it is, or soon will be, technically

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and economically feasible to supply all of man's needs from the most abundant energy source of all, the sun. The sunlight is not only inexhaustible, but, moreover, it is the only energy source, which is completely non-polluting [4].

Industry's use of fossil fuels has been largely blamed for warming the climate. When coal, gas and oil are burnt, they release harmful gases, which trap heat in the atmosphere and cause global warming. However, there had been an ongoing debate on this subject, as scientists have struggled to distinguish between changes, which are human induced, and those, which could be put down to natural climate variability. Notably, human activities that emit carbon dioxide (CO_2), the most significant contributor to potential climate change, occur primarily from fossil fuel production. Consequently, efforts to control CO_2 emissions could have serious, negative consequences for economic growth, employment, investment, trade and the standard of living of individuals everywhere.

2. Energy sources and use

Scientifically, it is difficult to predict the relationship between global temperature and greenhouse gas (GHG) concentrations. The climate system contains many processes that will change if warming occurs. Critical processes include heat transfer by winds and tides, the hydrological cycle involving evaporation, precipitation, runoff and groundwater and the formation of clouds, snow, and ice, all of which display enormous natural variability. The equipment and infrastructure for energy supply and use are designed with long lifetimes, and the premature turnover of capital stock involves significant costs. Economic benefits occur if capital stock is replaced with more efficient equipment in step with its normal replacement cycle. Likewise, if opportunities to reduce future emissions are taken in a timely manner, they should be less costly. Such a flexible approach would allow society to take account of evolving scientific and technological knowledge, while gaining experience in designing policies to address climate change [4].

The World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg in 2002 [4] committed itself to ''encourage and promote the development of renewable energy sources to accelerate the shift towards sustainable consumption and production''. Accordingly, it aimed at breaking the link between resource use and productivity. This can be achieved by the following:

- Trying to ensure economic growth does not cause environmental pollution.
- Improving resource efficiency.
- Examining the whole life-cycle of a product.
- Enabling consumers to receive more information on products and services.
- Examining how taxes, voluntary agreements, subsidies, regulation and information campaigns, can best stimulate innovation and investment to provide cleaner technology.

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The energy conservation scenarios include rational use of energy policies in all economy sectors and the use of combined heat and power systems, which are able to add to energy savings from the autonomous power plants. Electricity from renewable energy sources is by definition the environmental green product. Hence, a renewable energy certificate system, as recommended by the World Summit, is an essential basis for all policy systems, independent of the renewable energy support scheme. It is, therefore, important that all parties involved support the renewable energy certificate system in place if it is to work as planned. Moreover, existing renewable energy technologies (RETs) could play a significant mitigating role, but the economic and political climate will have to change first. It is now universally accepted that climate change is real. It is happening now, and GHGs produced by human activities are significantly contributing to it. The predicted global temperature increase of between 1.5 and 4.5^{o}C could lead to potentially catastrophic environmental impacts [5]. These include sea level rise, increased frequency of extreme weather events, floods, droughts, disease migration from various places and possible stalling of the Gulf Stream. This has led scientists to argue that climate change issues are not ones that politicians can afford to ignore, and policy makers tend to agree [5]. However, reaching international agreements on climate change policies is no trivial task as the difficulty in ratifying the Kyoto Protocol and reaching agreement at Copenhagen have proved.

Therefore, the use of renewable energy sources and the rational use of energy, in general, are the fundamental inputs for any responsible energy policy. However, the energy sector is encountering difficulties because increased production and consumption levels entail higher levels of pollution and eventually climate change, with possibly disastrous consequences. At the same time, it is important to secure energy at an acceptable cost in order to avoid negative impacts on economic growth. To date, renewable energy contributes only as much as 20% of the global energy supplies worldwide [5]. Over two thirds of this comes from biomass use, mostly in developing countries, and some of this is unsustainable. However, the potential for energy from sustainable technologies is huge. On the technological side, renewables have an obvious role to play. In general, there is no problem in terms of the technical potential of renewables to deliver energy. Moreover, there are very good opportunities for RETs to play an important role in reducing emissions of GHGs into the atmosphere, certainly far more than have been exploited so far. However, there are still some technical issues to address in order to cope with the intermittency of some renewables, particularly wind and solar. Nevertheless, the biggest problem with relying on renewables to deliver the necessary cuts in GHG emissions is more to do with politics and policy issues than with technical ones [6]. For example, the single most important step governments could take to promote and increase the use of renewables is to improve access for renewables to the energy market. This access to the market needs to be under favourable conditions and, possibly, under favourable economic rates as well. One move that could help, or at least justify, better market access would be to acknowledge that there are environmental costs associated with other energy supply options and that these costs are not currently internalised within the market price of electricity or fuels. This could make a significant difference, particularly if appropriate subsidies were applied to renewable energy in recognition of the environmental benefits it offers. Similarly, cutting energy consumption through end-use efficiency

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is absolutely essential. This suggests that issues of end-use consumption of energy will have to come into the discussion in the foreseeable future [7].

However, RETs have the benefit of being environmentally benign when developed in a sensitive and appropriate way with the full involvement of local communities. In addition, they are diverse, secure, locally based and abundant. In spite of the enormous potential and the multiple benefits, the contribution from renewable energy still lags behind the ambitious claims for it due to the initially high development costs, concerns about local impacts, lack of research funding and poor institutional and economic arrangements [8]. Hence, an approach is needed to integrate renewable energies in a way that meets the rising demand in a cost-effective way.

3. Role of energy efficiency system

The prospects for development in power engineering are, at present, closely related to ecological problems. Power engineering has harmful effects on the environment, as it discharges toxic gases into atmosphere and also oil-contaminated and saline waters into rivers, as well as polluting the soil with ash and slag and having adverse effects on living things on account of electromagnetic fields and so on. Thus there is an urgent need for new approaches to provide an ecologically safe strategy. Substantial economic and ecological effects for thermal power projects (TPPs) can be achieved by improvement, upgrading the efficiency of the existing equipment, reduction of electricity loss, saving of fuel, and optimisation of its operating conditions and service life leading to improved access for rural and urban low-income areas in developing countries through energy efficiency and renewable energies.

Sustainable energy is a prerequisite for development. Energy-based living standards in developing countries, however, are clearly below standards in developed countries. Low levels of access to affordable and environmentally sound energy in both rural and urban low-income areas are therefore a predominant issue in developing countries. In recent years many programmes for development aid or technical assistance have been focusing on improving access to sustainable energy, many of them with impressive results. Apart from success stories, however, experience also shows that positive appraisals of many projects evaporate after completion and vanishing of the implementation expert team. Altogether, the diffusion of sustainable technologies such as energy efficiency and renewable energy for cooking, heating, lighting, electrical appliances and building insulation in developing countries has been slow. Energy efficiency and renewable energy programmes could be more sustainable and pilot studies more effective and pulse releasing if the entire policy and implementation process was considered and redesigned from the outset [9]. New financing and implementation processes, which allow reallocating financial resources and thus enabling countries themselves to achieve a sustainable energy infrastructure, are also needed. The links between the energy policy framework, financing and implementation of renewable energy and energy efficiency projects have to be strengthened and as well as efforts made to increase people’s knowledge through training.

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3.1 Energy use in buildings

Buildings consume energy mainly for cooling, heating and lighting. The energy consumption was based on the assumption that the building operates within ASHRAE-thermal comfort zone during the cooling and heating periods [10]. Most of the buildings incorporate energy efficient passive cooling, solar control, photovoltaic, lighting and day lighting, and integrated energy systems. It is well known that thermal mass with night ventilation can reduce the maximum indoor temperature in buildings in summer [11]. Hence, comfort temperatures may be achieved by proper application of passive cooling systems. However, energy can also be saved if an air conditioning unit is used [12]. The reason for this is that in summer, heavy external walls delay the heat transfer from the outside into the inside spaces. Moreover, if the building has a lot of internal mass the increase in the air temperature is slow. This is because the penetrating heat raises the air temperature as well as the temperature of the heavy thermal mass. The result is a slow heating of the building in summer as the maximal inside temperature is reached only during the late hours when the outside air temperature is already low. The heat flowing from the inside heavy walls could be reduced with good ventilation in the evening and night. The capacity to store energy also helps in winter, since energy can be stored in walls from one sunny winter day to the next cloudy one. However, the admission of daylight into buildings alone does not guarantee that the design will be energy efficient in terms of lighting. In fact, the design for increased daylight can often raise concerns relating to visual comfort (glare) and thermal comfort (increased solar gain in the summer and heat losses in the winter from larger apertures). Such issues will clearly need to be addressed in the design of the window openings, blinds, shading devices, heating system, etc. In order for a building to benefit from daylight energy terms, it is a prerequisite that lights are switched off when sufficient daylight is available. The nature of the switching regime; manual or automated, centralised or local, switched, stepped or dimmed, will determine the energy performance. Simple techniques can be implemented to increase the probability that lights are switched off [9]. These include:

- Making switches conspicuous and switching banks of lights independently.
- Loading switches appropriately in relation to the lights.
- Switching banks of lights parallel to the main window wall.

There are also a number of methods, which help reduce the lighting energy use, which, in turn, relate to the type of occupancy pattern of the building [9]. The light switching options include:

- Centralised timed off (or stepped)/manual on.
- Photoelectric off (or stepped)/manual on.
- Photoelectric and on (or stepped), photoelectric dimming.
- Occupant sensor (stepped) on/off (movement or noise sensor).

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Likewise, energy savings from the avoidance of air conditioning can be very substantial. Whilst day-lighting strategies need to be integrated with artificial lighting systems in order to become beneficial in terms of energy use, reductions in overall energy consumption levels by employment of a sustained programme of energy consumption strategies and measures would have considerable benefits within the buildings sector. The perception often given however is that rigorous energy conservation as an end in itself imposes a style on building design resulting in a restricted aesthetic solution. It would perhaps be better to support a climate sensitive design approach that encompasses some elements of the pure conservation strategy together with strategies, which work with the local ambient conditions making use of energy technology systems, such as solar energy, where feasible. In practice, low energy environments are achieved through a combination of measures that include:

- The application of environmental regulations and policy.
- The application of environmental science and best practice.
- Mathematical modelling and simulation.
- Environmental design and engineering.
- Construction and commissioning.
- Management and modifications of environments in use.

While the overriding intention of passive solar energy design of buildings is to achieve a reduction in purchased energy consumption, the attainment of significant savings is in doubt. The non-realisation of potential energy benefits is mainly due to the neglect of the consideration of post-occupancy user and management behaviour by energy scientists and designers alike. Calculating energy inputs in agricultural production is more difficult in comparison to the industry sector due to the high number of factors affecting agricultural production, as Table 1 shows. However, considerable studies have been conducted in different countries on energy use in agriculture [13-18] in order to quantify the influence of these factors.

4. Renewable energy technologies

Sustainable energy is the energy that, in its production or consumption, has minimal negative impacts on human health and the healthy functioning of vital ecological systems, including the global environment. It is an accepted fact that renewable energy is a sustainable form of energy, which has attracted more attention during recent years. Increasing environmental interest, as well as economic consideration of fossil fuel consumption and high emphasis of sustainable development for the future helped to bring the great potential of renewable energy into focus. Nearly a fifth of all global power is generated by renewable energy sources, according to a new book published by the OECD/IEA [20]. ‘‘Renewables for power generation: status and prospects’’ claims that, at approximately 20%, renewables are the second largest power source after coal (39%) and ahead of nuclear (17%), natural gas (17%) and oil (8%) respectively. From 1973-2000 renewables grew at 9.3% a year, and it is predicted that this will increase by 10.4% a year to 2010. Wind power grew fastest at 52% and will multiply seven times by 2010, overtaking biopower and hence help reducing green house gases, GHGs, emissions to the environment.

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Table 2 shows some applications of different renewable energy sources. The challenge is to match leadership in GHG reduction and production of renewable energy with developing a major research and manufacturing capacity in environmental technologies (wind, solar, fuel cells, etc.). More than 50% of the world's area is classified as arid, representing the rural and desert part, which lack electricity and water networks. The inhabitants of such areas obtain water from borehole wells by means of water pumps, which are mostly driven by diesel engines. The diesel motors are associated with maintenance problems, high running cost, and environmental pollution. Alternative methods are pumping by photovoltaic (PV) or wind systems. At present, renewable sources of energy are regional and site specific. It has to be integrated in the regional development plans.

4.1 Solar energy

The availability of data on solar radiation is a critical problem. Even in developed countries, very few weather stations have been recording detailed solar radiation data for a period of time long enough to have statistical significance. Solar radiation arriving on earth is the most fundamental renewable energy source in nature. It powers the bio-system, the ocean and atmospheric current system and affects the global climate. Reliable radiation information is needed to provide input data in modelling solar energy devices and a good database is required in the work of energy planners, engineers, and agricultural scientists. In general, it is not easy to design solar energy conversion systems when they have to be installed in remote locations. First, in most cases, solar radiation measurements are not available for these sites. Second, the radiation nature of solar radiation makes the computation of the size of such systems difficult. While solar energy data are recognised as very important, their acquisition is by no means straightforward. The measurement of solar radiation requires the use of costly equipment such as pyrheliometers and pyranometers. Consequently, adequate facilities are often not available in developing countries to mount viable monitoring programmes. This is partly due to the equipment cost as well as the cost of technical manpower. Several attempts have, however, been made to estimate solar radiation through the use of meteorological and other physical parameter in order to avoid the use of expensive network of measuring instruments [21-24].

Two of the most essential natural resources for all life on the earth and for man's survival are sunlight and water. Sunlight is the driving force behind many of the RETs. The worldwide potential for utilising this resource, both directly by means of the solar technologies and indirectly by means of biofuels, wind and hydro technologies, is vast. During the last decade interest has been refocused on renewable energy sources due to the increasing prices and fore-seeable exhaustion of presently used commercial energy sources. The most promising solar energy technology are related to thermal systems; industrial solar water heaters, solar cookers, solar dryers for peanut crops, solar stills, solar driven cold stores to store fruits and vegetables, solar collectors, solar water desalination, solar ovens, and solar commercial bakers. Solar PV system: solar PV for lighting, solar refrigeration to store vaccines for human and animal use, solar PV for water pumping, solar PV for battery chargers, solar PV for communication network, microwave, receiver stations, radio systems in airports, VHF and beacon radio systems in airports, and educational solar TV posts in villages. Solar pumps are most cost effective for low power requirement (up to 5 kW)

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in remote places. Applications include domestic and livestock drinking water supplies, for which the demand is constant throughout the year, and irrigation. However, the suitability of solar pumping for irrigation, though possible, is uncertain because the demand may vary greatly with seasons. Solar systems may be able to provide trickle irrigation for fruit farming, but not usually the large volumes of water needed for wheat growing.

Table 1 Energy equivalent of inputs and outputs [15]

Energy source	Unit	Equivalent energy (MJ)
Input		
1. Human labour	h	2.3
2. Animal labour		
Horse	h	10.10
Mule	h	4.04
Donkey	h	4.04
Cattle	h	5.05
Water buffalo	h	7.58
3. Electricity	kWh	11.93
4. Diesel	Litre	56.31
5. Chemicals fertilisers		
Nitrogen	kg	64.4
P_2O_5	kg	11.96
K_2O	kg	6.7
6. Seed		
Cereals and pulses	kg	25
Oil seed	kg	3.6
Tuber	kg	14.7
Total input	kg	43.3
Output		
7. Major products		
Cereal and pulses	kg	14.7
Sugar beet	kg	5.04
Tobacco	kg	0.8
Cotton	kg	11.8
Oil seed	kg	25
Fruits	kg	1.9
Vegetables	kg	0.8
Water melon	kg	1.9
Onion	kg	1.6
Potatoes	kg	3.6
Olive	kg	11.8
Tea	kg	0.8
8. By products		
Husk	kg	13.8
Straw	kg	12.5
Cob	kg	18.0
Seed cotton	kg	25.0
Total output	kg	**149.04**

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Table 2 Sources of renewable energy

Energy source	Technology	Size
Solar energy	• Domestic solar water heaters • Solar water heating for large demands • PV roofs: grid connected systems generating electric energy	Small Medium-large Medium-large
Wind energy	• Wind turbines (grid connected)	Medium-large
Hydraulic energy	• Hydro plants in derivation schemes • Hydro plants in existing water distribution networks	Medium-small Medium-small
Biomass	• High efficiency wood boilers • CHP plants fed by agricultural wastes or energy crops	Small Medium
Animal manure	• CHP plants fed by biogas	Small
CHP	• High efficiency lighting • High efficiency electric • Householders appliances • High efficiency boilers • Plants coupled with refrigerating absorption machines	Wide Wide Wide Small-medium Medium-large

The hydraulic energy required to deliver a volume of water is given by the formula:

$$E_w = \rho_w \, g \, V \, H \qquad (1)$$

Where E_w is the required hydraulic energy (kWh day^{-1}); ρ_w is the water density (kg m^{-3}); g is the gravitational acceleration (ms^{-2}); V is the required volume of water (m^3 day^{-1}); and H is the head of water (m).

The solar array power required is given by:

$$P_{sa} = E_w / E_{sr} \, \eta \, F \qquad (2)$$

Where: P_{sa} is the solar array power (kW_p); E_{sr} is the average daily solar radiation ($kWhm^{-2}$ day^{-1}); F is the array mismatch factor; and η is the daily subsystem efficiency.

Substituting Eq. (1) in Eq. (2), the following equation is obtained for the amount of water that can be pumped:

$$V = P_{sa} \, E_{sr} \, \eta \, F / \rho_w \, g \, H \qquad (3)$$

$P_{sa} = 1.6$ kW_p, $F = 0.85$, $\eta = 40\%$.

A further increase of PV depends on the ability to improve the durability, performance and the local manufacturing capabilities of PV.

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4.2 Biomass

The data required to perform the trade-off analysis simulation of bio-energy resources can be classified according to the divisions given in Table 3, namely the overall system or individual plants, and the existing situation or future development. The effective economical utilisations of these resources are shown in Table 4, but their use is hindered by many problems such as those related to harvesting, collection, and transportation, besides the photo-sanitary control regulations. Biomass energy is experiencing a surge in interest stemming from a combination of factors, e.g., greater recognition of its current role and future potential contribution as a modern fuel, global environmental benefits, its development and entrepreneurial opportunities, etc. Possible routes of biomass energy development are shown in Table 5. However, biomass usage and application can generally be divided into the following three categories.

(a) Biomass energy for petroleum substitution driven by the following factors.

(1) Oil price increase.
(2) Balance of payment problems, and economic crisis.
(3) Fuel-wood plantations, and residue utilisation.
(4) Wood based heat and electricity.
(5) Liquid fuels from biomass.
(6) Producer gas technology.

(b) Biomass energy for domestic needs driven by:

(1) Population increase.
(2) Urbanisation.
(3) Agricultural expansion.
(4) Fuel-wood crisis.
(5) Ecological crisis.
(6) Fuel-wood plantations, agro-forestry.
(7) Community forestry, and residue utilisation.
(8) Improved stoves, and improved charcoal production.

(c) Biomass energy for development driven by

(1) Electrification.
(2) Irrigation and water supply.
(3) Economic and social development.
(4) Fuel-wood plantations.
(5) Community forestry.
(6) Agro-forestry.
(7) Briquettes.
(8) Producer gas technology.

The use of biomass through direct combustion has long been, and still is, the most common mode of biomass utilisation (Table 5). Examples for dry (thermo-chemical) conversion processes are charcoal making from wood (slow pyrolysis), gasification of forest and agricultural residues (fast pyrolysis – this is still in demonstration phase),

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and of course, direct combustion in stoves, furnaces, etc. Wet processes require substantial amount of water to be mixed with the biomass. Biomass technologies include:

- Carbonisation and briquetting.
- Improved stoves.
- Biogas.
- Improved charcoal.
- Gasification.

Table 3 Classifications of data requirements

Criteria	Plant data	System data
Existing data	Size Life Cost (fixed and variation operation and maintenance) Forced outage Maintenance Efficiency Fuel Emissions	Peak load Load shape Capital costs Fuel costs Depreciation Rate of return Taxes
Future data	All of above, plus Capital costs Construction trajectory Date in service	System lead growth Fuel price growth Fuel import limits Inflation

Table 4 Effective biomass resource utilisation

Subject	Tools	Constraints
Utilisation and land clearance for agriculture expansion	• Stumpage fees • Control • Extension • Conversion • Technology	• Policy • Fuel-wood planning • Lack of extension • Institutional
Utilisation of agricultural residues	• Briquetting • Carbonisation • Carbonisation and briquetting • Fermentation • Gasification	• Capital • Pricing • Policy and legislation • Social acceptability

Table 5 Agricultural residues routes for development

Source	Process	Product	End use
Agricultural residues	Direct	Combustion	Rural poor Urban household Industrial use
	Processing	Briquettes	Industrial use

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	Processing Carbonisation Fermentation	Carbonisation (small scale) Briquettes Carbonised Biogas	Limited household use Rural household (self sufficiency) Urban fuel Energy services Household, and industry
Agricultural, and animal residues	Direct Briquettes Carbonisation Carbonisation Fermentation	Combustion Direct combustion Carbonised Briquettes Biogas	(Save or less efficiency as wood) (Similar end use devices or improved) Use Briquettes use Use

4.2.1 Briquetting and Carbonisation

Briquetting is the formation of a char (an energy-dense solid fuel source) from otherwise wasted agricultural and forestry residues. One of the disadvantages of wood fuel is that it is bulky with a low energy density and therefore requires transport. Briquette formation allows for a more energy-dense fuel to be delivered, thus reducing the transportation cost and making the resource more competitive. It also adds some uniformity, which makes the fuel more compatible with systems that are sensitive to the specific fuel input. Charcoal stoves are very familiar to African societies. As for the stove technology, the present charcoal stove can be used, and can be improved upon for better efficiency. This energy term will be of particular interest to both urban and rural households and all the income groups due to its simplicity, convenience, and lower air polluting characteristics. However, the market price of the fuel together with that of its end-use technology may not enhance its early high market penetration especially in the urban low income and rural households.

Charcoal is produced by slow heating wood (carbonisation) in airtight ovens or retorts, in chambers with various gases, or in kilns supplied with limited and controlled amounts of air. The charcoal yield decreased gradually from 42.6 to 30.7% for the hazelnut shell and from 35.6 to 22.7% for the beech wood with an increase of temperature from 550 to 1,150 ^{o}K while the charcoal yield from the lignin content decreases sharply from 42.5 to 21.7% until it was at 850 ^{o}K during the carbonisation procedures [25]. The charcoal yield decreases as the temperature increases, while the ignition temperature of charcoal increases as the carbonisation temperature increases. The charcoal briquettes that are sold on the commercial market are typically made from a binder and filler.

4.2.2 Improved cook stoves

Traditional wood stoves are commonly used in many rural areas. These can be classified into four types: three stone, metal cylindrical shaped, metal tripod and clay type. Indeed, improvements of traditional cookers and ovens to raise the efficiency of fuel saving can secure rural energy availability, where woody fuels have become scarce. However,

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planting fast growing trees to provide a constant fuel supply should also be considered. The rural development is essential and economically important since it will eventually lead to a better standard of living, people's settlement, and self-sufficiency.

4.2.3 Biogas

Biogas technology cannot only provide fuel, but is also important for comprehensive utilisation of biomass forestry, animal husbandry, fishery, agricultural economy, protecting the environment, realising agricultural recycling as well as improving the sanitary conditions, in rural areas. However, the introduction of biogas technology on a wide scale has implications for macro planning such as the allocation of government investment and effects on the balance of payments. Hence, factors that determine the rate of acceptance of biogas plants, such as credit facilities and technical backup services, are likely to have to be planned as part of general macro-policy, as do the allocation of research and development funds [25].

4.2.4 Improved charcoal

Dry cell batteries are a practical but expensive form of mobile fuel that is used by rural people when moving around at night and for powering radios and other small appliances. The high cost of dry cell batteries is financially constraining for rural households, but their popularity gives a good indication of how valuable a versatile fuel like electricity is in rural areas (Table 2.6). However, dry cell batteries can constitute an environmental hazard unless they are recycled in a proper fashion. Tables (6-7) further show that direct burning of fuel-wood and crop residues constitute the main usage of biomass, as is the case with many developing countries. In fact, biomass resources play a significant role in energy supply in all developing countries. However, the direct burning of biomass in an inefficient manner causes economic loss and adversely affects human health. In order to address the problem of inefficiency, research centres around the world, e.g., [25] have investigated the viability of converting the resource to a more useful form of improved charcoal, namely solid briquettes and fuel gas. Accordingly, biomass resources should be divided into residues or dedicated resources, the latter including firewood and charcoal can also be produced from forest residues (Table 7). Whichever form of biomass resource used, its sustainability would primarily depend on improved forest and tree management.

4.2.5 Gasification

Gasification is based on the formation of a fuel gas (mostly CO and H_2) by partially oxidising raw solid fuel at high temperatures in the presence of steam or air. The technology can use wood chips, groundnut shells, sugar cane bagasse, and other similar fuels to generate capacities from 3 kW to 100 kW. Many types of gasifier designs have been developed to make use of the diversity of fuel inputs and to meet the requirements of the product gas output (degree of cleanliness, composition, heating value, etc.) [25].

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Table 6 Energy carrier and energy services in rural areas

Energy carrier	Energy end-use
Fuel-wood	Cooking Water heating Building materials Animal fodder preparation
Kerosene	Lighting Ignition fires
Dry cell batteries	Lighting Small appliances
Animal power	Transport Land preparation for farming Food preparation (threshing)
Human power	Transport Land preparation for farming Food preparation (threshing)

Table 7 Biomass residues and current use

Type of residue	Current use
Wood industry waste	Residues available
Vegetable crop residues	Animal feed
Food processing residue	Energy needs
Sorghum, millet, wheat residues	Fodder, and building materials
Groundnut shells	Fodder, brick making, direct fining oil mills
Cotton stalks	Domestic fuel considerable amounts available for short period
Sugar, bagasse, molasses	Fodder, energy need, ethanol production (surplus available)
Manure	Fertiliser, brick making, plastering

4.2.6 Biomass and sustainability

A sustainable energy system includes energy efficiency, energy reliability, energy flexibility, fuel poverty, and environmental impacts. A sustainable biofuel has two favourable properties, which are availability from renewable raw material, and its lower negative environmental impact than that of fossil fuels. Global warming, caused by CO_2 and other substances, has become an international concern in recent years. To protect forestry resources, which act as major absorbers of CO_2, by controlling the ever-increasing deforestation and the increase in the consumption of wood fuels, such as firewood and charcoal, is therefore an urgent issue. Given this, the development of a substitute fuel for charcoal is necessary. Briquette production technology, a type of clean coal technology, can help prevent flooding and serve as a global warming countermeasure by conserving forestry resources through the provision of a stable supply of briquettes as a substitute for charcoal and firewood.

There are many emerging biomass technologies with large and immediate potential applications, e.g., biomass gasifier/gas turbine (BGST) systems for power generation with pilot plants, improved techniques for biomass

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harvesting, transportation and storage. Gasification of crop residues such as rice husks, groundnut shells etc. with plants already operating in China, India, and Thailand. Treatment of cellulosic materials by steam explosion which may be followed by biological or chemical hydrolysis to produce ethanol or other fuels, cogeneration technologies, hydrogen from biomass, striling energies capable of using biomass fuels efficiently, etc. Table 8 gives a view of the use of Biomass and its projection worldwide.

However, a major gap with biomass energy is that research has usually been aimed at obtaining supply and consumption data, with insufficient attention and resources being allocated to basic research, to production, harvesting and conservation processes. Biomass has not been closely examined in terms of a substitute for fossil fuels compared to carbon sequestration and overall environmental benefits related to these different approaches. To achieve the full potential of biomass as a feedstock for energy, food, or any other use, requires the application of considerable scientific and technological inputs [25]. However, the aim of any modern biomass energy systems must be:

(1) To maximise yields with minimum inputs.
(2) Utilise and select adequate plant materials and processes.
(3) Optimise use of land, water, and fertiliser.
(4) Create an adequate infrastructure and strong R&D base.

Table 8 Final energy projections including biomass (Mtoe) [27]

Region	1995			
	Biomass	Conventional Energy	Total	Share of Biomass (%)
Africa	205	136	341	60
China	206	649	855	24
East Asia	106	316	422	25
Latin America	73	342	416	18
South Asia	235	188	423	56
Total developing countries	825	1632	2456	34
Other non-OECD countries	24	1037	1061	1
Total non-OECD countries	849	2669	3518	24
OECD countries	81	3044	3125	3
World	**930**	**5713**	**6643**	**14**
Region	**2020**			
	Biomass	Conventional Energy	Total	Share of Biomass (%)
Africa	371	266	631	59
China	224	1524	1748	13
East Asia	118	813	931	13
Latin America	81	706	787	10
South Asia	276	523	799	35
Total developing countries	1071	3825	4896	22

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Other non-OECD countries	26	1669	1695	1
Total non-OECD countries	1097	5494	6591	17
OECD countries	96	3872	3968	2
World	**1193**	**9365**	**10558**	**11**

An afforestation programme appears an attractive option for any country to pursue in order to reduce the level of atmospheric carbon by enhancing carbon sequestration in the nation's forests, which would consequently mitigate climate change. However, it is acknowledged that certain barriers need to be overcome if the objectives are to be fully achieved. These include the followings.

- Low level of public awareness of the economic/environmental benefits of forestry.
- The generally low levels of individuals' income.
- Pressures from population growth.
- The land tenural system, which makes it difficult (if at all possible) for individuals to own or establish forest plantations.
- Poor pricing of forest products especially in the local market.
- Inadequate financial support on the part of governments.
- Weak institutional capabilities of the various Forestry Departments as regards technical manpower to effectively manage tree plantations.

However, social policy conditions are also critical. This is still very much lacking particularly under developing countries conditions. During the 1970s and 1980s different biomass energy technologies were perceived in sub-Saharan Africa as a panacea for solving acute problems. On the account of these expectations, a wide range of activities and projects were initiated. However, despite considerable financial and human efforts, most of these initiatives have unfortunately been a failure.

Therefore, future research efforts should concentrate on the following areas.

- Directed R and D in the most promising areas of biomass to increase energy supply and to improve the technological base.
- Formulate a policy framework to encourage entrepreneurial and integrated process.
- Pay more attention to sustainable production and use of biomass energy feedstocks, methodology of conservation and efficient energy flows.
- More research aimed at pollution abatement.
- Greater attentions to interrelated socio-economic aspects.
- Support R and D on energy efficiency in production and use.
- Improve energy management skills and take maximum advantage of existing local knowledge.

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- Closely examine past successes and failures to assist policy makers with well-informed recommendations.

4.3 Combined heat and power (CHP)

District Heating (DH), also known as community heating can be a key factor to achieve energy savings, reduce CO_2 emissions and at the same time provide consumers with a high quality heat supply at a competitive price. Generally, DH should only be considered for areas where the heat density is sufficiently high to make DH economical. In countries like Denmark for example, DH may today be economical even to new developments with lower density areas, due to the high level of taxation on oil and gas fuels combined with the efficient production of DH.

Most of the heat used for DH can be produced by large CHP plants (gas-fired combined cycle plants using natural gas, biomass, waste or biogas) as shown in Table 2. DH is energy efficient because of the way the heat is produced and the required temperature level is an important factor. Buildings can be heated to a temperature of 21^{o}C and domestic hot water (DHW) can be supplied at a temperature of 55^{o}C using energy sources other than DH that are most efficient when producing low temperature levels (<95^{o}C) for the DH water [26]. Most of these heat sources are CO_2 neutral or emit low levels. However, only a few of these sources are available to small individual systems at a reasonable cost, whereas DH schemes because of the plant's size and location can have access to most of the heat sources and at a low cost. Low temperature DH, with return temperatures of around 30-40^{o}C can utilise the following heat sources:

- Efficient use of CHP by extracting heat at low calorific value (CV).
- Efficient use of biomass or gas boilers by condensing heat in economisers.
- Efficient utilisation of geothermal energy.
- Direct utilisation of excess low temperature heat from industrial processes.
- Efficient use of large-scale solar heating plants.

Heat tariffs may include a number of components such as: a connection charge, a fixed charge and a variable energy charge. Also, consumers may be incentivised to lower the return temperature. Hence, it is difficult to generalise but the heat practice for any DH company, no matter what the ownership structure is, can be highlighted as follows:

- To develop and maintain a development plan for the connection of new consumers.
- To evaluate the options for least cost production of heat.
- To implement the most competitive solutions by signing agreements with other companies or by implementing own investment projects.
- To monitor all internal costs and with the help of benchmarking, improve the efficiency of the company.
- To maintain a good relationship with the consumer and deliver heat supply services at a sufficient quality.

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Also, installing DH should be pursued to meet the objectives for improving the environment through the improvement of energy efficiency in the heating sector. At the same time DH can serve the consumer with a reasonable quality of heat at the lowest possible cost. The variety of possible solutions combined with the collaboration between individual companies, the district heating association, the suppliers and consultants can, as it has been in Denmark, be the way forward for developing DH in the United Kingdom.

4.4 Fuel cells

Platinum is a catalyst for fuel cells and hydrogen-fuelled cars presently use about two ounces of the metal. There is currently no practicable alternative. Reserves are in South Africa (70%), and Russia (22%). Although there are sufficient accessible reserves in South Africa to increase supply by up to 5% per year for the next 50 years, there are significant environmental impacts associated with its mining and refining, such as groundwater pollution and atmospheric emissions of sulphur dioxide ammonia, chlorine and hydrogen chloride. The carbon cost of platinum use equates to 360 kg for a current fuel cell car, or 36 kg for a future car, with the target platinum loading of 0.2 oz, which is negligible compared to the CO_2 currently emitted by vehicles [27]. Furthermore, Platinum is almost completely recyclable. At current prices and loading, platinum would cost 3% of the total cost of a fuel cell engine. Also, the likely resource costs of hydrogen as a transport fuel are apparently cheapest if it is reformed from natural gas with pipeline distribution, with or without carbon sequestration. However, this is not as sustainable as using renewable energy sources. Substituting hydrogen for fossils fuels will have a positive environmental impact in reducing both photochemical smog and climate change. There could also be an adverse impact on the ozone layer but this is likely to be small, though potentially more significant if hydrogen was to be used as aviation fuel.

4.5 Hydrogen production

Hydrogen is now beginning to be accepted as a useful form for storing energy for reuse on, or for export off, the grid. Clean electrical power harvested from wind and wave power projects can be used to produce hydrogen by electrolysis of water. Electrolysers split water molecules into its constituent parts: hydrogen and oxygen. These are collected as gases; hydrogen at the cathode and oxygen at the anode. The process is quite simple. Direct current is applied to the electrodes to initiate the electrolysis process. Production of hydrogen is an elegant environmental solution. Hydrogen is the most abundant element on the planet, it cannot be destroyed (unlike hydrocarbons) it simply changes state (water to hydrogen and back to water) during consumption. There are no CO or CO_2 generation in its production and consumption and, depending upon methods of consumption, even the production of oxides of nitrogen can be avoided too. However, the transition will be very messy, and will take many technological paths to convert fossil fuels and methanol to hydrogen, building hybrid engines and so on. Nevertheless, the future of hydrogen fuel cells is promising. Hydrogen can be used in internal combustion engines, fuel cells, turbines, cookers

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gas boilers, road-side emergency lighting, traffic lights or signalling where noise and pollution can be a considerable nuisance, but where traffic and pedestrian safety cannot be compromised.

Hydrogen is already produced in huge volumes and used in a variety of industries. Current worldwide production is around 500 billion Nm^3 per year [28]. Most of the hydrogen produced today is consumed on-site, such as at oil refineries, at a cost of around $0.70/kg and is not sold on the market [28]. When hydrogen is sold on the market, the cost of liquefying the hydrogen and transporting it to the user adds considerably to the production cost. The energy required to produce hydrogen via electrolysis (assuming 1.23 V) is about 33 kWh/kg. For 1 mole (2 g) of hydrogen the energy is about 0.066 kWh/mole [28]. The achieved efficiencies are over 80% and on this basis electrolytic hydrogen can be regarded as a storable form of electricity. Hydrogen can be stored in a variety of forms:

- Cryogenic; this has the highest gravimetric energy density.
- High-pressure cylinders; pressures of 10,000 psi are quite normal.
- Metal hydride absorbs hydrogen, providing a very low pressure and extremely safe mechanism, but is heavy and more expensive than cylinders, and
- Chemical carriers offer an alternative, with anhydrous ammonia offering similar gravimetric and volumetric energy densities to ethanol and methanol.

4.6 Hydropower

Hydropower has a valuable role as a clean and renewable source of energy in meeting a variety of vital human needs. The recognition of the role of hydropower as one of the renewable and clean energy sources and that its potential should be realised in an environmentally sustainable and socially acceptable manner. Water is a basic requirement for survival: for drinking, for food, energy production and for good health. As water is a commodity, which is finite and cannot be created, and in view of the increasing requirements as the world population grows, there is no alternative but to store water for use when it is needed. However, the major challenges are to feed the increasing world population, to improve the standards of living in rural areas and to develop and manage land and water in a sustainable way. Hydropower plants are classified by their rated capacity into one of four regimes: micro (<50kW), mini (50-500 kW), small (500 kW-5 MW), and large (>5 MW) [29].

Table 9 World hydro potential and development [29]

Continent	Africa	Asia	Australia & Oceania	Europe	North & Central America	South America
Gross theoretical hydropower potential ($GWhy^{-1}$)	$4x10^6$	$19.4x10^6$	$59.4x10^6$	$3.2x10^6$	$6x10^6$	$6.2x10^6$
Technically feasible hydropower potential ($GWhy^{-1}$)	$1.75x10^6$	$6.8x10^6$	$2x10^6$	10^6	$1.66x10^6$	$2.7x10^6$
Economically feasible	$1.1x10^5$	$3.6x10^6$	$90x10^4$	$79x10^4$	10^6	$1.6x10^6$

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hydropower potential (GWhy^{-1})						
Installed hydro capacity (MW)	21x10^{3}	24.5x10^{4}	13.3x10^{4}	17.7x10^{4}	15.8x10^{4}	11.4x10^{4}
Production by hydro plants in 2002 or average (GWhy^{-1})	83.4x10^{3}	80x10^{4}	43x10^{3}	568x10^{3}	694x10^{3}	55x10^{4}
Hydro capacity under construction (MW)	> 3024	>72.7x10^{3}	>177	>23x10^{2}	58x10^{2}	>17x10^{3}
Planned hydro capacity (MW)	77.5x10^{3}	>17.5x10^{4}	>647	>10^{3}	>15x10^{3}	>59x10^{3}

The total world installed hydro capacity today is around 1000GW and a lot more are currently planned, principally in developing countries in Asia, Africa and South America as shown in Table 9, which is reproduced from [29]. However, the present production of hydroelectricity is only about 18 per cent of the technically feasible potential (and 32 per cent of the economically feasible potential); there is no doubt that a large amount of hydropower development lies ahead [29].

4.7 Wind energy

Water is the most natural commodity for the existence of life in the remote desert areas. However, as a condition for settling and growing, the supply of energy is the close second priority. The high cost and the difficulties of mains power line extensions, especially to a low populated region can focus attention on the utilisation of different and more reliable and independent sources of energy like renewable wind energy. Accordingly, the utilisation of wind energy, as a form of energy, is becoming increasingly attractive and is being widely used for the substitution of oil-produced energy, and eventually to minimise atmospheric degradation, particularly in remote areas. Indeed, utilisation of renewables, such as wind energy, has gained considerable momentum since the oil crises of the 1970s. Wind energy, though site-dependent, is non-depleting, non-polluting, and a potential option of the alternative energy source. Wind power could supply 12% of global electricity demand by 2020, according to a report by the European Wind Energy Association and Greenpeace [30].

Wind energy can and will constitute a significant energy resource when converted into a usable form. As Figure 1 illustrates, information sharing is a four-stage process and effective collaboration must also provide ways in which the other three stages of the 'renewable' cycle: gather, convert and utilise, can be integrated. Efficiency in the renewable energy sector translates into lower gathering, conversion and utilisation (electricity) costs. A great level of installed capacity has already been achieved. Figure 2 clearly shows that the offshore wind sector is developing fast, and this indicates that wind is becoming a major factor in electricity supply with a range of significant technical, commercial and financial hurdles to be overcome. The offshore wind industry has the potential for a very bright future and to emerge as a new industrial sector, as Figure 3 implies. The speed of turbine development is such that more powerful models would supersede the original specification turbines in the time from concept to turbine order. Levels of activities are growing at a phenomenal rate (Figure 4), new prospects developing, new players entering, existing players growing in experience; technology evolving and, quite significantly, politics appear to support the sector.

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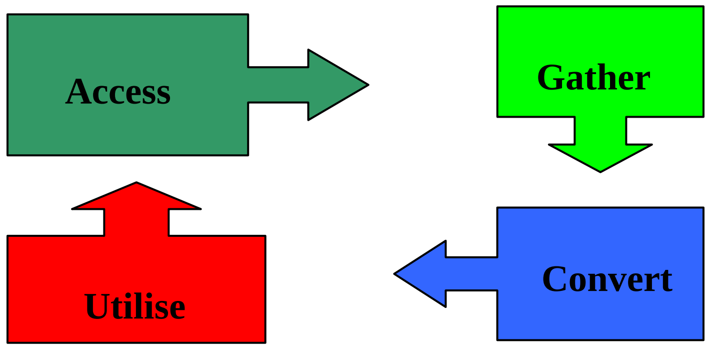

Figure 1 The renewable cycle

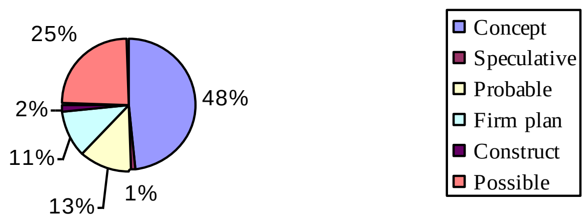

Figure 2 Global prospects of wind energy utilisation by 2003-2010

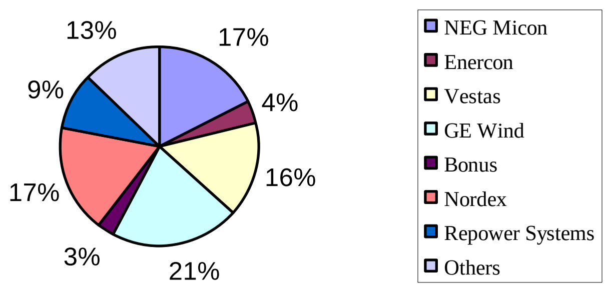

Figure 3 Prospect turbines share for 2003-2010

5. Energy and sustainable development

Sustainability is defined as the extent to which progress and development should meet the need of the present without compromising the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs [31]. This encompasses a variety

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of levels and scales ranging from economic development and agriculture, to the management of human settlements and building practices. Tables (10-12) indicate the relationship between energy conservation, sustainable development and environment.

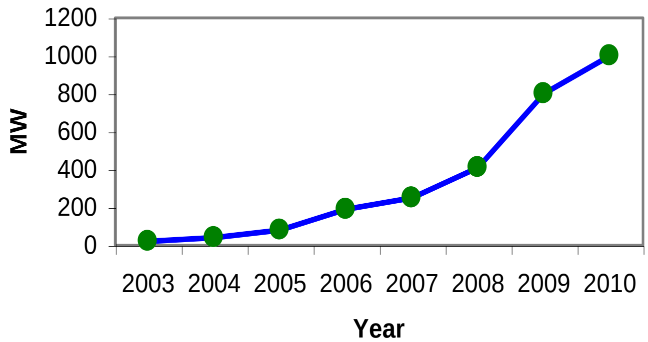

Figure 4 Average windfarm capacity 2003-2010

The following issues were addressed during the Rio Earth Summit in 1992 [32]:

- The use of local materials and indigenous building sources.
- Incentive to promote the continuation of traditional techniques, with regional resources and self-help strategies.
- Regulation of energy-efficient design principles.
- International information exchange on all aspects of construction related to the environment, among architects and contractors, particularly non-conventional resources.
- Exploration of methods to encourage and facilitate the recycling and reuse of building materials, especially those requiring intensive energy use during manufacturing, and the use of clean technologies.

And, the following action areas for producers were recommended:

- Management and measurement tools - adopting environmental management systems appropriate for the business.
- Performance assessment tools - making use of benchmarking to identify scope for impact reduction and greater eco-efficiency in all aspects of the business.
- Best practice tools - making use of free help and advice from government best practice programmes (energy efficiency, environmental technology, resource savings).
- Innovation and ecodesign - rethinking the delivery of 'value added' by the business, so that impact reduction and resource efficiency are firmly built in at the design stage.

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- Cleaner, leaner production processes - pursuing improvements and savings in waste minimisation, energy and water consumption, transport and distribution, as well as reduced emissions.
- Supply chain management - specifying more demanding standards of sustainability from 'upstream' suppliers, while supporting smaller firms to meet those higher standards.
- Product stewardship - taking the broadest view of 'producer responsibility' and working to reduce all the 'downstream' effects of products after they have been sold on to customers.
- Openness and transparency - publicly reporting on environmental performance against meaningful targets; actively using clear labels and declarations so that customers are fully informed; building stakeholder confidence by communicating sustainability aims to the workforce, the shareholders and the local community (Figure 5).

Table 10 Energy and sustainable environment [32]

Technological criteria	Energy and environment criteria	Social and economic criteria
Primary energy saving in regional scale	Sustainability according to greenhouse gas pollutant emissions	Labour impact
Technical maturity, reliability	Sustainable according to other pollutant emissions	Market maturity
Consistence of installation and maintenance requirements with local technical known-how	Land requirement	Compatibility with political, legislative and administrative situation
Continuity and predictability of performance	Sustainability according to other environmental impacts	Cost of saved primary energy

Table 11 Classification of key variables defining facility sustainability [33]

Criteria	Intra-system impacts	Extra-system impacts
Stakeholder satisfaction	• Standard expectations met • Relative importance of standard expectations	• Covered by attending to extra-system resource base and ecosystem impacts
Resource base impacts	• Change in intra-system resource bases • Significance of change	• Resource flow into/out of facility system • Unit impact exerted by flow on source/sink system • Significance of unit impact
Ecosystem impacts	• Change in intra-system ecosystems • Significance of change	• Resource flows into/out of facility system • Unit impact exerted by how on source/sink system • Significance of unit impact

Table 12 Positive impact of durability, adaptability and energy conservation on economic, social and environment systems [33]

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Economic system	Social system	Environmental system
Durability	Preservation of cultural values	Preservation of resources
Meeting changing needs of economic development	Meeting changing needs of individuals and society	Reuse, recycling and preservation of resources
Energy conservation and saving	Savings directed to meet other social needs	Preservation of resources, reduction of pollution and global warming

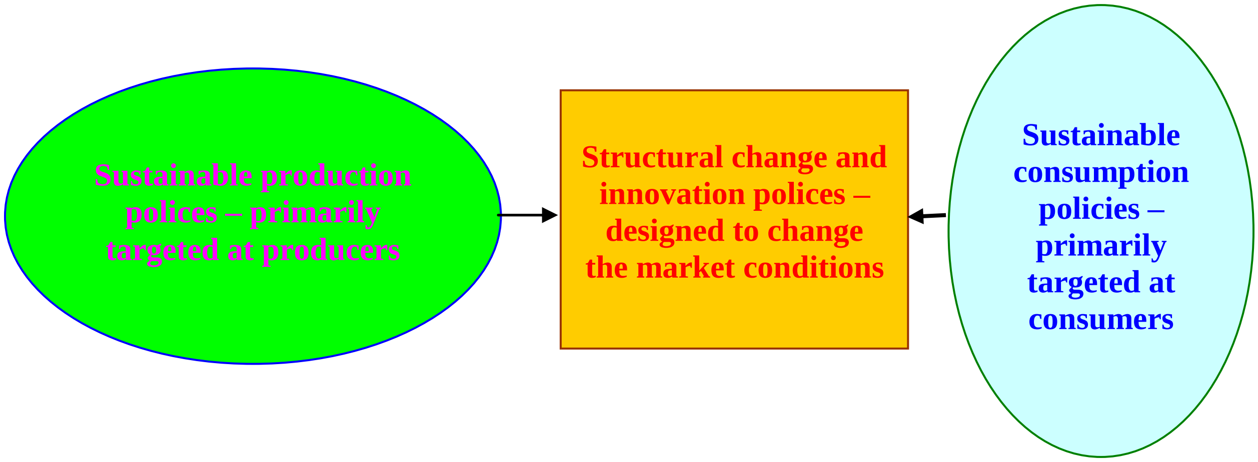

Figure 5 Link between resources and productivity

This is the step in a long journey to encourage progressive economy, which continues to provide people with high living standards, but, at the same time helps reduce pollution, waste mountains, other environmental degradation, and environmental rationale for future policy-making and intervention to improve market mechanisms. This vision will be accomplished by:

- 'Decoupling' economic growth and environmental degradation. The basket of indicators illustrated in Table 13 shows the progress being made. Decoupling air and water pollution from growth, making good headway with CO_2 emissions from energy, and transport. The environmental impact of our own individual behaviour is more closely linked to consumption expenditure than the economy as a whole.
- Focusing policy on the most important environmental impacts associated with the use of particular resources, rather than on the total level of all resource use.
- Increasing the productivity of material and energy use that are economically efficient by encouraging patterns of supply and demand, which are more efficient in the use of natural resources. The aim is to promote innovation and competitiveness. Investment in areas like energy efficiency, water efficiency and waste minimisation.
- Encouraging and enabling active and informed individual and corporate consumers.

6. Chemicals

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Humans and wildlife are being contaminated by a host of commonly used chemicals in food packaging and furniture, according to the World Wildlife Federation (WWF) and European Union [35]. Currently, the chemical industry has been under no obligation to make the information public. However, the new proposed rules would change this. Future dangers will only be averted if the effects of chemicals are exposed and then the dangerous ones are never used. Indeed, chemicals used for jacket waterproofing, food packaging and non-stick coatings have been found in dolphins, whales, cormorants, seals, sea eagles and polar bears from the Mediterranean to the Baltic. The European Commission has adopted an ambitious action plan to improve the development and wider use of environmental technologies such as recycling systems for wastewater in industrial processes, energy-saving car engines and soil remediation techniques, using hydrogen and fuel cells [35]. The legislation, which has not been implemented in time, concerns the incineration of waste, air quality limit, values for benzene and carbon monoxide, national emission ceilings for sulphur dioxide, nitrogen oxides, volatile organic compounds and ammonia and large combustion plants.

Table 13 The basket of indicators for sustainable consumption and production

Economy-wide decoupling indicators
1. Greenhouse gas emissions
2. Air pollution
3. Water pollution (river water quality)
4. Commercial and industrial waste arisings and household waste not cycled
Resource use indicators
5. Material use
6. Water abstraction
7. Homes built on land not previously developed, and number of households
Decoupling indicators for specific sectors
8. Emissions from electricity generation
9. Motor vehicle kilometres and related emissions
10. Agricultural output, fertiliser use, methane emissions and farmland bird populations
11. Manufacturing output, energy consumption and related emissions
12. Household consumption, expenditure energy, water consumption and waste generated

7. Wastes

Waste is defined as an unwanted material that is being discarded. Waste includes items being taken for further use, recycling or reclamation. Waste produced at household, commercial and industrial premises are control waste and come under the waste regulations. Waste Incineration Directive (WID) emissions limit values will favour efficient, inherently cleaner technologies that do not rely heavily on abatement. For existing plant, the requirements are likely to lead to improved control of:

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- NO_x emissions, by the adoption of infurnace combustion control and abatement techniques.
- Acid gases, by the adoption of abatement techniques and optimisation of their control.
- Particulate control techniques, and their optimisation, e.g., of bag filters and electrostatic precipitators.

The waste and resources action programme has been working hard to reduce demand for virgin aggregates and market uptake of recycled and secondary alternatives. The programme targets are:

- To deliver training and information on the role of recycling and secondary aggregates in sustainable construction for influences in the supply chain, and
- To develop a promotional programme to highlight the new information on websites.

8. Global warming

This results in the following requirements:

- Relevant climate variables should be generated (solar radiation: global, diffuse, direct solar direction, temperature, humidity, wind speed and direction) according to the statistics of the real climate.
- The average behaviour should be in accordance with the real climate.
- Extremes should occur in the generated series in the way it will happen in a real warm period. This means that the generated series should be long enough to capture these extremes, and series based on average values from nearby stations.

On some climate change issues (such as global warming), there is no disagreement among the scientists. The greenhouse effect is unquestionably real; it is essential for life on earth. Water vapour is the most important GHG; followed by carbon dioxide (CO_2). Without a natural greenhouse effect, scientists estimate that the earth's average temperature would be –18°C instead of its present 14°C [33]. There is also no scientific debate over the fact that human activity has increased the concentration of the GHGs in the atmosphere (especially CO_2 from combustion of coal, oil and gas). The greenhouse effect is also being amplified by increased concentrations of other gases, such as methane, nitrous oxide, and CFCs as a result of human emissions. Most scientists predict that rising global temperatures will raise the sea level and increase the frequency of intense rain or snowstorms. Climate change scenarios sources of uncertainty, and factors influencing the future climate are:

- The future emission rates of the GHGs (Table 14).
- The effect of this increase in concentration on the energy balance of the atmosphere.
- The effect of these emissions on GHGs concentrations in the atmosphere, and
- The effect of this change in energy balance on global and regional climate.

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Table 14 West European states GHG emissions [34]

Country	1990	1999	Change 1990-99	Reduction target
Austria	76.9	79.2	2.6%	-13%
Belgium	136.7	140.4	2.8%	-7.5%
Denmark	70.0	73.0	4.0%	-21.0%
Finland	77.1	76.2	-1.1%	0.0%
France	545.7	544.5	-0.2%	0.0%
Germany	1206.5	982.4	-18.7%	-21.0%
Greece	105.3	123.2	16.9%	25.0%
Ireland	53.5	65.3	22.1%	13.0%
Italy	518.3	541.1	4.4%	-6.5%
Luxembourg	10.8	6.1	-43.3%	-28.0%
Netherlands	215.8	230.1	6.1%	-6.0%
Portugal	64.6	79.3	22.4%	27.0%
Spain	305.8	380.2	23.2%	15.0%
Sweden	69.5	70.7	1.5%	4.0%
United Kingdom	741.9	637.9	-14.4%	-12.5%
Total EU-15	4199	4030	-4.0%	-8.0%

It has been known for a long time that urban centres have mean temperatures higher than their less developed surroundings. The urban heat increases the average and peak air temperatures, which in turn affect the demand for heating and cooling. Higher temperatures can be beneficial in the heating season, lowering fuel use, but they exacerbate the energy demand for cooling in the summer times. Neither heating nor cooling may dominate the fuel use in a building in temperate climates, and the balance of the effect of the heat is less. As the provision of cooling is expensive with higher environmental cost, ways of using innovative alternative systems, like the mop fan will be appreciated. The solar gains would affect energy consumption. Therefore, lower or higher percentages of glazing, or shading devices might affect the balance between annual heating and cooling loads. In addition to conditioning energy, the fan energy needed to provide mechanical ventilation can make a significant further contribution to energy demand. Much depends on the efficiency of design, both in relation to the performance of fans themselves and to the resistance to flow arising from the associated ductwork. Figure 6 illustrates the typical fan and thermal conditioning needs for a variety of ventilation rates and climate conditions.

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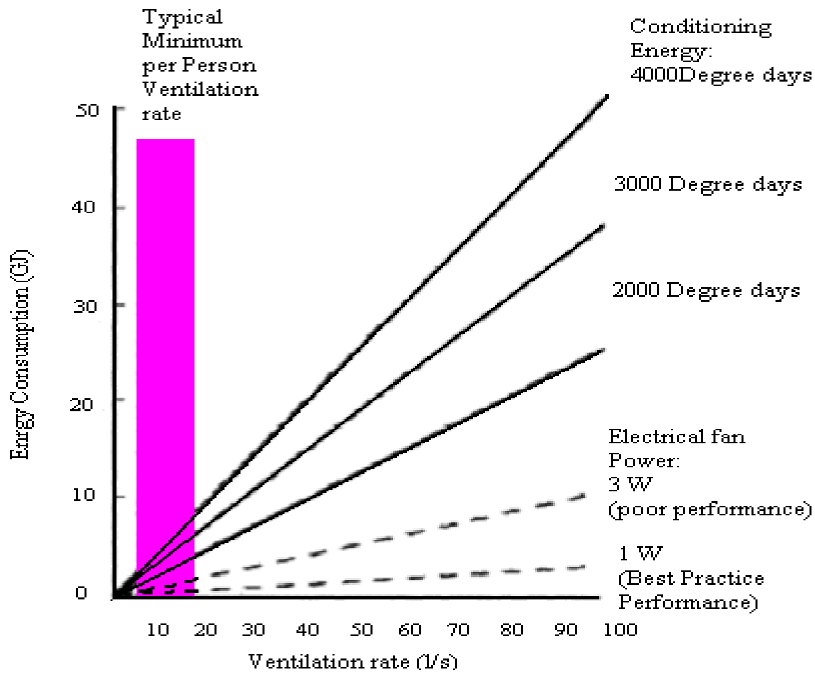

Figure 6 Energy impact of ventilation

9. Ground source heat pumps

The term "ground source heat pump" has become an all-inclusive term to describe a heat pump system that uses the earth, ground water, or surface water as a heat source and/or sink. Some of the most common types of ground source ground-loop heat exchangers configurations are classified in Figure 7. The GSHP systems consist of three loops or cycles as shown in Figure 8. The first loop is on the load side and is either an air/water loop or a water/water loop, depending on the application. The second loop is the refrigerant loop inside a water source heat pump. Thermodynamically, there is no difference between the well-known vapour-compression refrigeration cycle and the heat pump cycle; both systems absorb heat at a low temperature level and reject it to a higher temperature level. However, the difference between the two systems is that a refrigeration application is only concerned with the low temperature effect produced at the evaporator, while a heat pump may be concerned with both the cooling effect produced at the evaporator and the heating effect produced at the condenser. In these dual-mode GSHP systems, a reversing valve is used to switch between heating and cooling modes by reversing the refrigerant flow direction. The third loop in the system is the ground loop in which water or an antifreeze solution exchanges heat with the refrigerant and the earth.

The GSHPs utilise the thermal energy stored in the earth through either vertical or horizontal closed loop heat exchange systems buried in the ground. Many geological factors impact directly on site characterisation and subsequently the design and cost of the system. The solid geology of the United Kingdom varies significantly.

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Furthermore there is an extensive and variable rock head cover. The geological prognosis for a site and its anticipated rock properties influence the drilling methods and therefore system costs. Other factors important to system design include predicted subsurface temperatures and the thermal and hydrological properties of strata. GSHP technology is well established in Sweden, Germany and North America, but has had minimal impact in the United Kingdom space heating and cooling market. Perceived barriers to uptake include geological uncertainty, concerns regarding performance and reliability, high capital costs and lack of infrastructure. System performance concerns relate mostly to uncertainty in design input parameters, especially the temperature and thermal properties of the source. These in turn can impact on the capital cost, much of which is associated with the installation of the external loop in horizontal trenches or vertical boreholes. The climate in the United Kingdom makes the potential for heating in winter and cooling in summer from a ground source less certain owing to the temperature ranges being narrower than those encountered in continental climates. This project will develop an impartial GSHP function on the site to make available information and data on site-specific temperatures and key geotechnical characteristics.

The GSHPs are receiving increasing interest because of their potential to reduce primary energy consumption and thus reduce emissions of greenhouse gases. The technology is well established in North Americas and parts of Europe, but is at the demonstration stage in the United Kingdom. The information will be delivered from digital geoscience's themes that have been developed from observed data held in corporate records. This data will be available to GSHP installers and designers to assist the design process, therefore reducing uncertainties. The research will also be used to help inform the public as to the potential benefits of this technology.

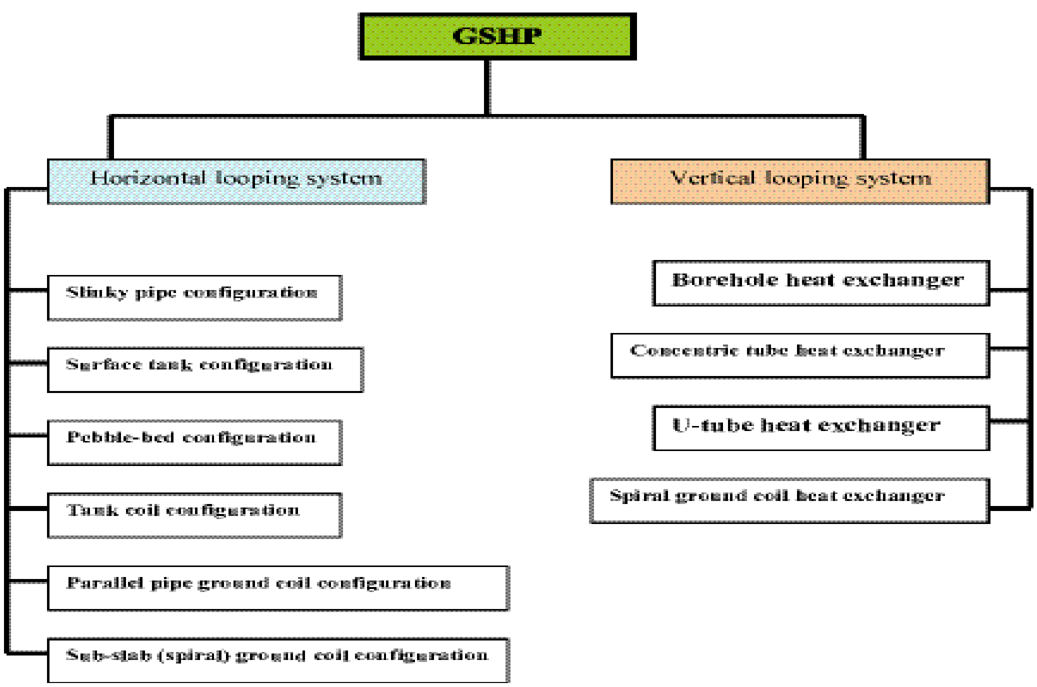

Figure 7 Common types of ground-loop heat exchangers

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The GSHPs play a key role in geothermal development in Central and Northern Europe. With borehole heat exchangers as heat source, they offer de-central geothermal heating with great flexibility to meet given demands at virtually any location. No space cooling is included in the vast majority of systems, leaving ground-source heat pumps with some economic constraints. Nevertheless, a promising market development first occurred in Switzerland and Sweden, and now also in Austria and Germany. Approximately 20 years of R and D focusing on borehole heat exchangers resulted in a well-established concept of sustainability for this technology, as well as in sound design and installation criteria. The market success brought Switzerland to the third rank worldwide in geothermal direct use. The future prospects are good, with an increasing range of applications including large systems with thermal energy storage for heating and cooling, ground-source heat pumps in densely populated development areas, borehole heat exchangers for cooling of telecommunication equipment, etc.

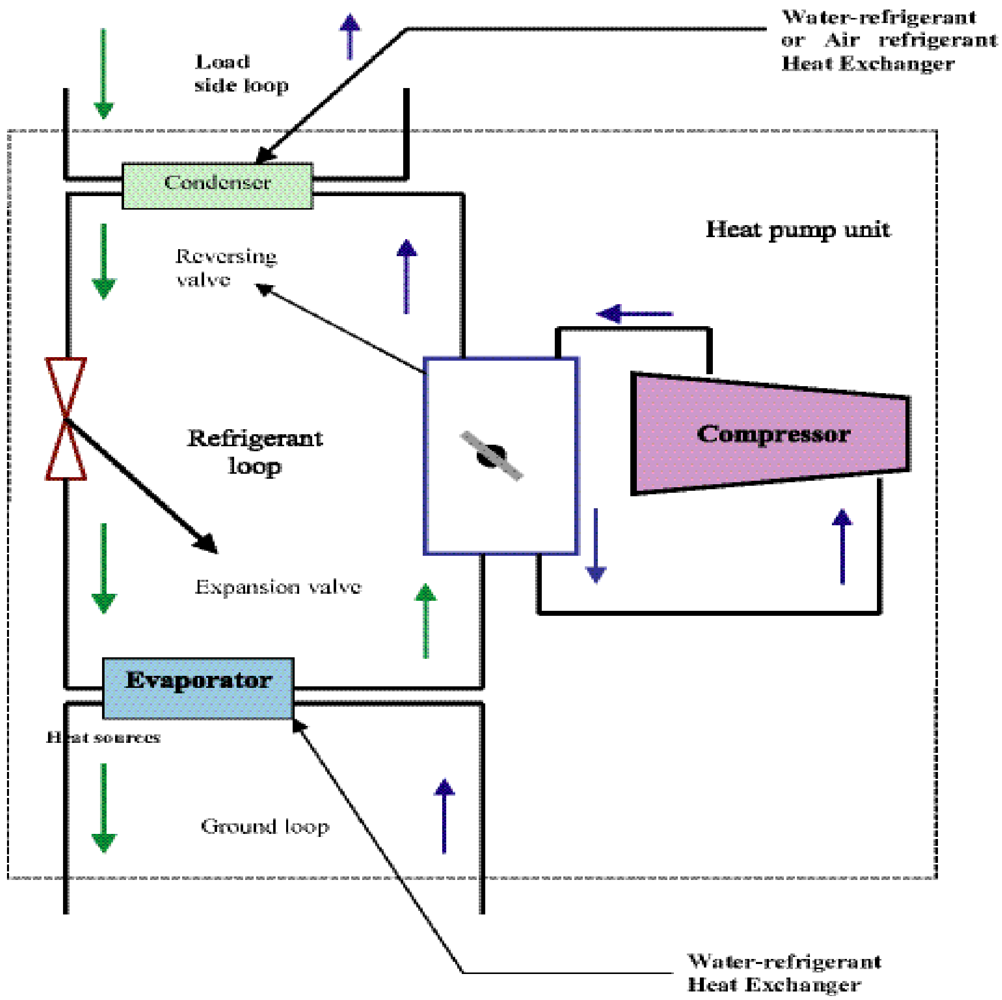

Figure 8 Schematic of GSHP system (heating mode operation)

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Loops can be installed in three ways: horizontally, vertically or in a pond or lake (Figure 9). The type chosen depends on the available land area, soil and rock type at the installation site. These factors help to determine the most economical choice for installation of the ground loop. The GSHP delivers 3-4 times as much energy as it consumes when heating, and cools and dehumidifies for a lower cost than conventional air conditioning. It can cut homes or business heating and cooling costs by 50% and provide hot water free or with substantial savings. The GSHPs can reduce the energy required for space heating, cooling and service water heating in commercial/institutional buildings by as much as 50%.

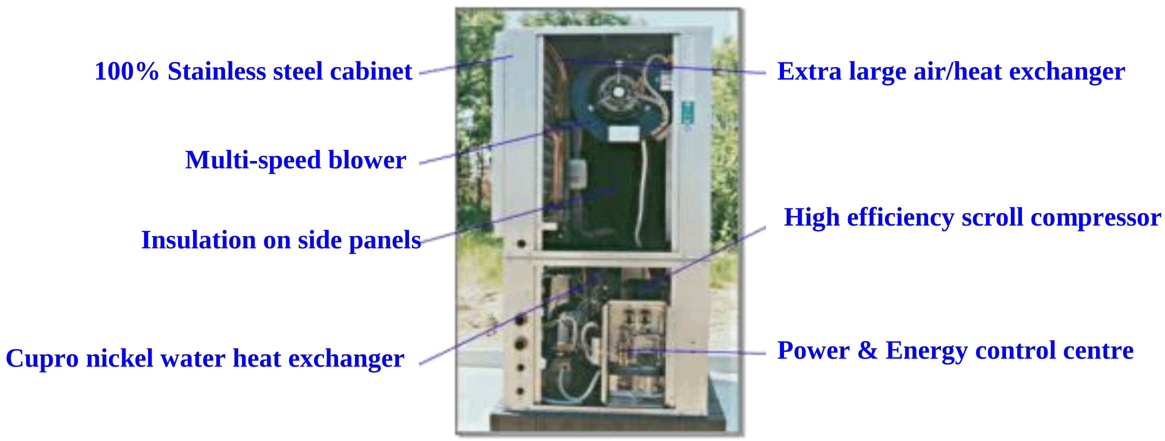

Figure 9 GSHPs extract solar heat stored in the upper layers of the earth

Efficiencies of the GSHP systems are much greater than conventional air-source heat pump systems. A higher COP (coefficient of performance) can be achieved by a GSHP because the source/sink earth temperature is relatively constant compared to air temperatures. Additionally, heat is absorbed and rejected through water, which is a more desirable heat transfer medium because of its relatively high heat capacity. GSHP systems rely on the fact that, under normal geothermal gradients of about 0.5^{o}F/100 ft (30^{o}C/km), the earth temperature is roughly constant in a zone extending from about 20 ft (6.1 m) deep to about 150 ft (45.7 m) deep. This constant temperature interval within the earth is the result of a complex interaction of heat fluxes from above (the sun and the atmosphere) and from below (the earth interior). As a result, the temperature of this interval within the earth is approximately equal to the average annual air temperature [32]. Above this zone (less than about 20 feet (6.1 m) deep), the earth temperature is a damped version of the air temperature at the earth's surface. Below this zone (greater than about 150 ft (45.7 m) deep), the earth temperature begins to rise according to the natural geothermal gradient. The storage concept is based on a modular design that will facilitate active control and optimisation of thermal input/output, and it can be adapted for simultaneous heating and cooling often needed in large service and institutional buildings [33]. Loading of the core is done by diverting warm and cold air from the heat pump through the core during periods with excess capacity compared to the current need of the building [32-34]. The cool section of the core can also be loaded directly with air during the night, especially in spring and fall when nights are cold and days may be warm.

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10. Conclusions

There is strong scientific evidence that the average temperature of the earth's surface is rising. This is a result of the increased concentration of carbon dioxide and other GHGs in the atmosphere as released by burning fossil fuels. This global warming will eventually lead to substantial changes in the world's climate, which will, in turn, have a major impact on human life and the built environment. Therefore, effort has to be made to reduce fossil energy use and to promote green energy, particularly in the building sector. Energy use reductions can be achieved by minimising the energy demand, rational energy use, recovering heat and the use of more green energy. This study was a step towards achieving this goal.

The adoption of green or sustainable approaches to the way in which society is run is seen as an important strategy in finding a solution to the energy problem. The key factors to reducing and controlling CO_2, which is the major contributor to global warming, are the use of alternative approaches to energy generation and the exploration of how these alternatives are used today and may be used in the future as green energy sources. Even with modest assumptions about the availability of land, comprehensive fuel-wood farming programmes offer significant energy, economic and environmental benefits. These benefits would be dispersed in rural areas where they are greatly needed and can serve as linkages for further rural economic development.

However, by adopting coherent strategy for alternative clean sustainable energy sources, the world as a whole would benefit from savings in foreign exchange, improved energy security, and socio-economic improvements. With a nine-fold increase in forest – plantation cover, every nation's resource base would be greatly improved while the international community would benefit from pollution reduction, climate mitigation, and the increased trading opportunities that arise from new income sources.

The non-technical issues related to clean energy, which have recently gained attention, include: (1) Environmental and ecological factors e.g., carbon sequestration, reforestation and revegetation. (2) Renewables as a CO_2 neutral replacement for fossil fuels. (3) Greater recognition of the importance of renewable energy, particularly modern biomass energy carriers, at the policy and planning levels. (4) Greater recognition of the difficulties of gathering good and reliable renewable energy data, and efforts to improve it. (5) Studies on the detrimental health efforts of biomass energy particularly from traditional energy users.
The present study is one effort in touching all these aspects.

11. Recommendations

- Launching of public awareness campaigns among local investors particularly small-scale entrepreneurs and end users of RET to highlight the importance and benefits of renewable, particularly solar, wind, and biomass energies.

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- Amendment of the encouragement of investment act, to include furthers concessions, facilities, tax holidays, and preferential treatment to attract national and foreign capital investment.
- Allocation of a specific percentage of soft loans and grants obtained by governments to augment budgets of R and D related to manufacturing and commercialisation of RET.
- Governments should give incentives to encourage the household sector to use renewable energy instead of conventional energy. Execute joint investments between the private sector and the financing entities to disseminate the renewable information and literature with technical support from the research and development entities.
- Availing of training opportunities to personnel at different levels in donor countries and other developing countries to make use of their wide experience in application and commercialisation of RET particularly renewable energy.
- The governments should play a leading role in adopting renewable energy devices in public institutions e.g., schools, hospitals, government departments, police stations etc. for lighting, water pumping, water heating, communication and refrigeration.
- Encouraging the private sector to assemble, install, repair and manufacture renewable energy devices via investment encouragement and more flexible licensing procedures.

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