

Agrivoltaic potential on grape farms in India

Prannay Malu, Utkarsh Sharma, Joshua Pearce

▶ To cite this version:

Prannay Malu, Utkarsh Sharma, Joshua Pearce. Agrivoltaic potential on grape farms in India. Sustainable Energy Technologies and Assessments, 2017, 23, pp.104-110. 10.1016/j.seta.2017.08.004 . hal-02111403

HAL Id: hal-02111403 https://hal.science/hal-02111403

Submitted on 26 Apr 2019

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

3

Agrivoltaic Potential on Grape Farms in India

Prannay R. Malu¹, Utkarsh S. Sharma¹, Joshua M. Pearce^{1,2,*}

4 1 Department of Electrical & Computer Engineering, Michigan Technological University, MI

5 2 Department of Materials Science & Engineering, Michigan Technological University, MI

6 *Corresponding author: Michigan Technological University, 601 M&M Building, 1400

7 Townsend Drive, Houghton, MI 49931-1295 (<u>pearce@mtu.edu</u>) Ph.: 906-487-1466 8

9 Abstract

10 Aggressive growth of land-based solar photovoltaic (PV) farms can create a land use conflict with agricultural production. Fortunately, this issue can be resolved using the concept of 11 12 agrivoltaics, which is co-development of land area for both solar PV and agriculture. To investigate and quantify PV generation potential, without harming agriculture output, this study 13 14 explores the viability of agrivoltaic farms deployment on existing grape farms in India. 15 Considering the shade tolerance of grapes, an techno-economicanalysis is run for the installation 16 of PV systems in the area available between the trellises on a grape farm. The electrical energy generation potential is determined per unit area and economic benefits for the cultivators is 17 quantified over a number of design options. The results show the economic value of the grape 18 farms deploying the proposed agrivoltaic systems may increase more than 15 times as compared 19 20 to conventional farming, while maintaining the same grape production. If this dual use of land is 21 implemented nationwide, it can make a significant impact by generating over 16,000 GWh 22 electricity, which has the potential of meeting the energy demands of more than 15 million 23 people. In addition, grape-based agrivoltaics can be implemented in rural areas to enable village 24 electrification.

25

26 Keywords: Agrivoltaic; agriculture; photovoltaic; land use; food-energy-water nexus; solar farm

27 **1. Introduction**

28 Fossil fuel combustion for human energy use and concomitant carbon emissions [1] is 29 disturbing the global ecosystem balance [2,3], which threatens future generations [4] the global economy [5]. Fossil fuels are being depleted [6], yet simultaneously there is an increasing 30 31 negative environmental impact from their continued use [7]. This demands a greater use of 32 renewable energy [8,9] to enable to internalize current externalities [10] and de-carbonize the 33 energy supply [11]. In the past few decades, the continuous technical improvements [12,13] in 34 solar photovoltaic (PV) technology have enabled methods to provide clean and sustainable solar 35 energy [14] while driving down economic costs [15]. The International Energy Agency (IEA) has 36 predicted that 16% of world's energy demand, which would be approximately 6,000 TWh, would 37 be generated using solar PV by 2050 [16]. Because of the rise in capacity for solar power 38 generation studies have focused on aggressive use of new designs [17] building integrated PV 39 (BIPV) [18,19] and more conventional rooftop PV retrofits estimated over regional [20], city 40 [21,22], municipal district [23], or multiple buildings [24,25]. However, rooftop systems cannot 41 provide all the energy necessary for some regions with high population densities and thus land-42 based solar PV farms have also been investigated in depth on technical [26] and economic 43 [27,28] and future economic [29]grounds. The aggressive growth of land-based PV farms [30] 44 creates a conflict in the use of land [31] for generating energy using solar PV or meeting increasing food production demands of the world population [32]. With the world population 45 46 increasing at the rate of 1.15% per year [33], and the continued failure to adequately nourish the 47 entire world population [34], this problem is becoming more important. Solar module requires a

relatively large amount of open space [35]. Prior efforts to convert crop lands to energy 48 49 generation (e.g. the production of ethanol) have driven up the cost of food [36], primarily 50 impacted the poor [36] and aggravated world hunger [37]. Fortunately, this major disputation of land use can be resolved using the concept of agrivoltaics (i.e. co-developing the same area of 51 52 land for both solar PV and agriculture) [38]. The agrivoltaic concept has proven successful in 53 several systems [38] including solar PV and aloe vera in dry, semi-arid regions [39], lettuce [40], and cherry tomatoes [41]. Most agrivoltaic studies, however, have focused on shade tolerant 54 55 crops. This study will focus on a the potential of a relativly shade *intolerant* crop (grapes) in a promising region for agrivoltaic production (India). 56

India is a particularly promising region for agrivoltaic production because it has an 57 economy that is made up of many agriculture producers [42], and is rapidly expanding electrical 58 59 services to the 21.3% of India's population without access to any form of electricity [43]. In addition, India has significant support from the government for PV production and has achieved 60 increasing solar capacities [44]. Finally, India receives a relatively high solar flux. Indian states 61 62 like Maharashtra, Gujarat, Haryana, Punjab, Rajasthan, Andhra Pradesh, Orrisa, Madhya 63 Pradesh, Bihar, and West Bengal, which form the major part of India, receive 4-7 kWh of solar radiation per square meter per day, which is equivalent to 2,300-3,200 hours of sunshine every 64 65 year [45].

66 To investigate and quantify some of this agrivoltaic generation potential, without harming the Indian agriculture output even for shade-intolerant crops, for the first time this study explores 67 the viability of agrivoltaic farms deployment on existing grape farms in India. Considering the 68 69 weak shade tolerance of grapes, an analysis is run for the installation of PV systems in the area 70 available between the trellises on a grape farm without compromising grape production, which 71 represents a novel approach to agrivoltaics in the use of the necessary harvesting space of shade 72 intolerant crops. Then the electrical energy generation potential is determined per unit area and 73 economic benefits for the grape cultivators is quantified. A sensitivity analysis is run on geographical location, selection of module and inverter, row spacing, selection of axis and 74 75 azimuth angle. The results are discussed and conclusions are drawn to provide best practices.

76

77 2. Background

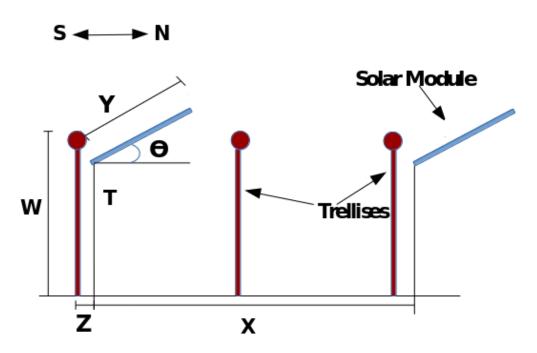
78

Grape farms offer considerable promise for agrivoltaic farms. First, grape farms are generally located in areas having a 15-40°C temperature range over a reasonable duration of sunlight hours [46, 47]. Grapes are grown on trellises and the layout of grape farms is such that there is an underutilized gap of about 1.5m to 2.5m between the trellises. Although grapes are normally considered a full sun plant, even in the absence of full sunlight all day long (e.g. even 7-8 hours), it is still possible to grow grapes in mostly shade with some preparation and forethought to maximize yield [48].

86 One of the method is to more fully utilize the sunlight incident on a standard grape farm 87 is to mount and install solar PV modules in the unused space between trellises. This agrivoltaic 88 geometry for grape farms is schematically represented in Figure 1, where X is the horizontal 89 distance between the solar PV rows towards the south direction, Z is the horizontal distance 90 between the trellis and the solar module, W is the height of trellis and T is the distance from the 91 ground to the bottom of the PV array, and Y is the length (vertical height) of the solar module. It 92 should be noted that for grape farms with small inter-trellis spacing (X-2Z)/2 the standard modules will need to be mounted in landscape format so that Y is what is normally referred to as 93

- 94 the width of the module. Finally, as can be seen in Figure 1, the angle, θ , is define as the tilt 95 angle of the solar module with respect to a plane parallel to the ground.
- 96
- 97
- 98
- 99





101 Figure 1. Side view schematic arrangement of solar modules between grape trellises. Note that 102 the middle of the PV module is positioned at approximately the top of the grape crop.

103

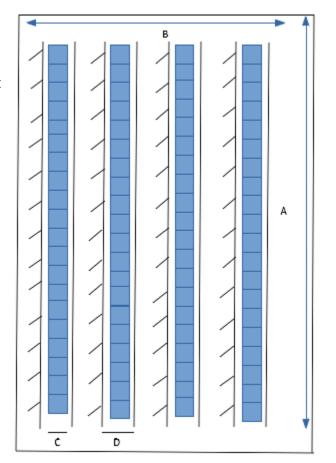
104 Grape farms in India are predominantly located in the Northwestern part of the State of 105 Maharashtra (known as the "the grape capital of India"), particularly in Nashik [49]. Surrounding industries can be supplied with the electricity from these farms during peak load demands, 106 helping to increase grid reliability [39], while decreasing greenhouse gas emissions from 107 conventional power plants that use fossil-fuel combustion. In this way, the sale of PV electricity 108 109 can operate as a second source of income for farmers from their existing grape fields. In addition, 110 the irrigation cost of grape farms is a substantial fraction of the farm input costs [64] and there is a considerable evidence that farmers can benefit from using the electricity generated from the 111 112 solar PV for water pumping for their own needs directly [51-55].

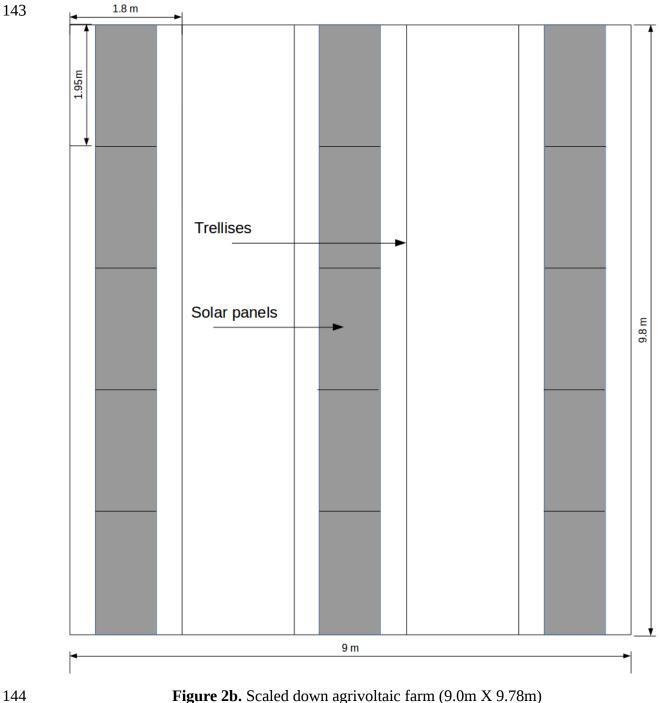
113 Using the geometry shown in Figure 1, Figure 2a is generated to show the top view arrangement of the solar PV systems in a complete grape-based agrivoltaic system. The PV 114 modules are mounted in series between the trellises in an alternate manner to allow grape 115 farmers access to every plant for pruning, harvesting and other agriculture related tasks. At the 116 117 same time this allows restricted access to the PV modules for any maintenance related tasks (e.g. 118 periodic cleaning). The variable A describes the width of the farm (east west direction) and the B 119 explains the depth of the farm made up of a multiple of X spacing between rows of modules. The C describes the horizontal width of the PV module projected on the ground, which is $Ycos(\theta)$ 120

- Preprint: Prannay R. Malu, Utkarsh S. Sharma, Joshua M. Pearce. <u>Agrivoltaic potential on grape farms in India</u>. *Sustainable Energy Technologies and Assessments* 23, pp. 104-110, 2017. doi: 10.1016/j.seta.2017.08.004
- and D is the inter-trellis spacing (X-2Z)/2. A scaled-down detail section (9.0m X 9.78m) of an agrivoltaic PV acre array used in the simulations is shown in Figure 2b.
- 123
- 124
- 125
- 126
- 127
- 128
- 129

130 Figure 2a. Top view 131 schematic arrangement 132 of a grape-based 133 agrivoltaic system. 134 Please note that the 135 grape grape trellises 136 are exaggerated to be 137 seen in the top view. 138 They are conventional 139 trellises and would not 140 need to be modified 141 for agrivoltaic

production.





¹⁴⁵

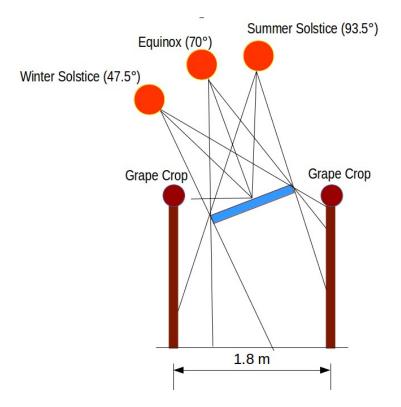
146 **3. Methods**

A combination solar PV and grape farm agrivoltaic system is modeled to study the energy aspects and expected output per acre of farmland with the dual use of land in Nashik district of Maharashtra state of India (Lat: 19°59'0" Long: 73°48'0" E Alt: 700 m). The National Renewable Energy Lab System Advisory Model (SAM) version 2014.1.14 [56] is used to simulate the performance of the PV system. Since SAM does not have Nashik as a default location due to lack of meteorological data, the location assumed for simulation is Nagpur, which

153 is close to and has similar climatic conditions as Nashik. The other inputs of system design 154 include the system array size, DC to AC ratio, azimuth angle, required type of axis and the tilt 155 angle (which was optimized with a sensitivity analysis with SAM) are detailed below. The 156 revenue generated through the electricity produced and data from historical grape farming on the 157 grape cultivation revenue are quantified.

158 The PV module considered (Trina Solar 310W TSM-310-PD14 polycrystalline silicon) is representative of an average performing module with an efficiency of 15.7% and dimensions 159 1956 mm × 992 mm × 40 mm [57]. The modules were arranged between the trellises, at the same 160 height as that of the grapes, such that the center of the module is at the height of the grapes. The 161 farm considered for this case study is a square farm of 1 acre (i.e. 4,046 square meters). With the 162 side A measuring 63.6 m, the number of PV modules that could be arranged along the width are 163 164 32, whereas the number of rows assuming the widest inter-trellis spacing normally observed of 165 1.8m provides 17 rows.

For the solar module selected, Y is fixed at 0.992 m. This is about half the distance 166 167 between the trellises and hence, the shade of the solar module will not fall on the grape crop for 168 most the year. This can be seen in Figure 3 where, the extreme solar altitude angles are shown schematically. It should be pointed out that the exact difference in the heights (as measured 169 above the ground) between the PV array and the top of the grape crop would in practice vary 170 171 with growth and future work is necessary to optimize this value. However, as can be seen in Figure 3, in general, the grapes will be shaded only for a few days around the winter solstice. 172 This position of the module will cause minimal shading on the grape crop, which ensures that 173 174 direct sunlight is available for the grape vines and thus the quality and quantity of grape production is not compromised. 175



177 **Figure 3.** Solar path showing shading of solar module on grape crop in Nashik, India.

178 The proposed agrivoltaic system yield is determined per unit acre. Then, for agrivoltaic 179 farms the optimum parameters from Figure 1 of X, Y, Z and Θ for a case of combination solar 180 PV and grape farm where the trellises are placed 1.8 meters away from each other is calculated. 181 In this step, no shade constraints and module size constraints are considered and Θ can vary.

Grapes need 7-8 hours of direct sunlight [58] to grow fully to be sold commercially. The average duration of day during the harvesting season of grapes is 11 hours 20 minutes [59] and hence, it can be estimated that grapes are about 30% shade tolerant for practical purposes. Simulations are run using SAM to determine optimum value of Θ . With these data, it is possible to calculate the economic benefit incurred by the grape cultivators for a unit acre of grape farm with a combination of grape and solar PV. The average retail electricity price in India has been constant over the last 5 years and for practical purposes, it is \$0.08/kWh [60].

Loss factors that need to be considered for scaling to all of India are the orientation of the grape farm (e.g. rows are ideally east-west allowing PV to be placed appropriately). Finally, the distance between the trellises varies on grape farms and must be wide enough to accommodate conventional PV modules without significant grape yield losses from shading. To make an estimate of these factors, 10 farmlands were evaluated in the region for orientation and spacing with Google Earth.

195 **4. Results and Discussion**

196 **4.1. Technical Performance of Grape-Based Agrivoltaic Systems**

For a 1-acre farm with solar modules alone where modules are arranged in 17 rows and 32 columns physically, the potential array output is calculated to be 168.64 kW dc as the Trina Solar TSM 310PD14 module has a maximum power output of 310W. The 1-acre farm considered is assumed to be square and there must be a gap between the rows of modules to prevent row to row shading and to allow for maintenance.

202 Next the agrivoltaic farm is considered with grape trellises spaced at 1.8 m. As the solar modules are mounted in the row spacing between the trellises the desired array capacity is 203 204 expected to be low in comparison to the fully acquitted solar module field. But there would be an 205 added benefit of reduced inter-row shading on the modules (and the height is such that there is no 206 shading of the PV from the grape vines). A sensitivity was run on the annual electricity 207 generation as a function of tilt angles of the solar modules in both agrivoltaic setup and pure 208 solar farm. The results showed that a fixed optimal tilt angle of 21° maximized PV output 209 (259,826 kWhr/year) in an agrivoltaic farm setup in Nagpur, India using a Trina Solar TSM 210 -310PD14 (1920 × 992 × 40) mm which is 32 modules wide and 17 rows facing due south. This 211 is the physical arrangement of the modules considered for maximum land coverage. The ground 212 coverage ratio (GCR) is assumed to be 0.26 to avoid shading as much as possible. The monthly 213 solar energy generation at the case location and can be seen in Figure 4. It should be noted that 214 the monsoon season is responsible for the reduction in output during June, July and August.

- 215
- 216
- 217
- 218
- 219
- 220
- 221

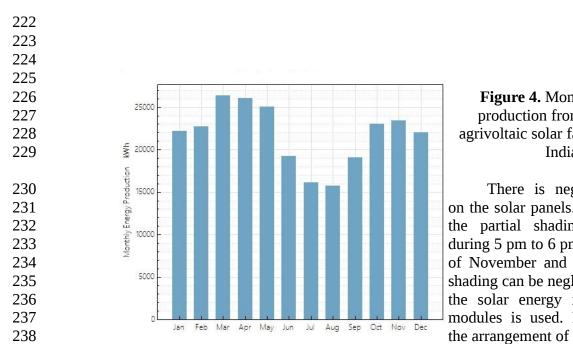
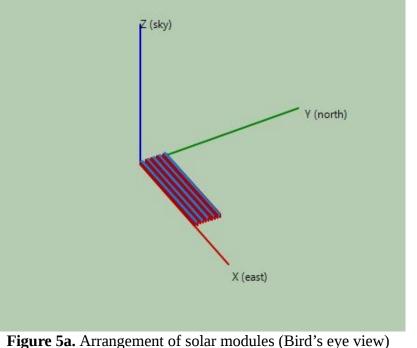


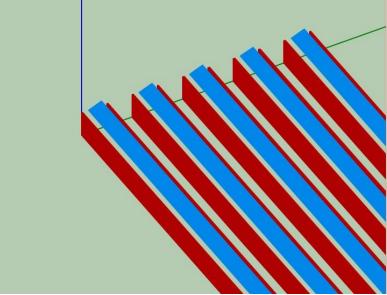
Figure 4. Monthly energy production from an acre of agrivoltaic solar farm in Nagpur, India.

There is negligible shading on the solar panels. It is found that the partial shading occurs only during 5 pm to 6 pm for the months of November and December. This shading can be neglected as most of the solar energy incident on the modules is used. Figure 5 shows the arrangement of solar modules in

239 a grape farm. Figure 5a shows the Bird's eye view of the arrangement of modules, whereas 240 Figure 5b shows a closer view of the arrangement of solar modules in the grape farm.



242 243 244



246 247

Figure 5b. Closer view of solar modules with trellises

For the 84,015 acres of farm in India [61], the total maximum potential energy production in grape farms with installation of solar PV panels can be scaled up to 21,829 GWh, which is 1.97% of 1107 billion units of energy produced in India in 2015-16 [44]. This energy is roughly equivalent to the output of 3GW of coal plants working at 85%. This is the idealistic maximum figure and to find the practical potential, various factors must also be considered. The most important factor is the orientation of the grape crops.

254

255 This preliminary evaluation of orientation-based lost areas with Google Earth appeared that there was no orientation bias in Indian vineyards. This resulted in a loss of approximately 256 257 23-25% of energy to the aligned direction farmlands. It should be pointed out that this was a preliminary study and that future work using a more sophisticated statistical survey of all Inidan 258 259 grape farms in needed. However, using these preliminary values as a base and including these losses still could provide over 16,000 GWh a year of PV potential. According to the Central 260 261 Electricity Authority of India, the per capita electricity demand had reached 1,010 kWh in the year 2014 [65], which means that agrivoltaic grape systems could conservatively service 15.8 262 million people. Lastly it should be pointed out that the case considered is for the city of Nagpur, 263 264 where the annual solar irradiation is above the average solar irradiation for India, so there would also be large geographic variability on solar potential depending on the location, which could 265 266 again be determined with a more focused GIS-based study.

267

268 **4.2. Economic Performance of Grape-Based Agrivoltaic Systems**

Table 1 summarizes the revenue generated by the dual use of land for PV and grape production. The total annual gross revenue from an acre of grape farm is \$1,420.93 (~INR 94981.84) [66] (using an exchange rate of ~66 Indian rupees per U.S. dollar), whereas that of solar energy is the product of annual energy generated and cost of electricity. This comes out to be \$20,786.06. Thus from the Table 1, it can be seen that the annual revenue for the grape cultivator is increased by over 15 times if PV is installed between selected rows on a 1 acre farm. 275 276

| Table 1 : Revenue generated with dual use of land in one acre of farm in India. | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|---|--------------------------------------|--|--|--|
| | | Annual Revenue/acre (in 1 st year) | Percent of Agrivoltaic Revenue | | | |
| | Grape Produce | \$1,421 | 6.3% | | | |
| | Solar Electricity | \$20,786 | 93.6% | | | |
| | Total | \$22,207 | 100% | | | |

It should be noted that the cost per unit area (e.g. acre) is less for agrivoltaic farms in this setup than conventional solar farms because the packing factor (spacing between rows) of PV is lower for the agrivoltaic farm than for a conventional solar PV farm. The capital costs for such a 1 acre agrivoltaic farm vary by the cost of installation per unit power. Thus a sensitivity analysis was run from \$2/W (~INR 132) to \$0.25/W (~INR 16.5), which is summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Sensitivity on the capital cost of a one acre agrivoltaic farm

| PV System Capital Cost (\$/W) | Total Cost (USD) | Total Cost (INR) | Simple Payback Time (years) |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 2.00 | 337280 | 22260480 | 15.2 |
| 1.75 | 295120 | 19477920 | 13.3 |
| 1.50 | 252960 | 16695360 | 11.4 |
| 1.25 | 210800 | 13912800 | 9.5 |
| 1.00 | 168640 | 11130240 | 7.6 |
| 0.75 | 126480 | 8347680 | 5.7 |
| 0.50 | 84320 | 5565120 | 3.8 |
| 0.25 | 42160 | 2782560 | 1.9 |

In Table 2 the highest capital cost analyzed is \$2/W, which is a installation cost readily obtained for large ground-mounted PV systems currently in the global market. This provides about a 4% return on investment (ROI) assuming a 25 year lifetime. Again this is a conservative estimation of lifetime and the ROI is provided without taxes if the electricity is used by the farm. This ROI may already be attractive for some investors as the risk is relatively low. For larger systems the installation cost drops with economies of scale. For example, large systems have already been installed for under \$1/W, which in this context would provide a ROI of greater than 12%. This ROI would be attractive to most investors. However, if the agrivoltaic system were optimally constructed using existing trellises as the structure to reduce some of the mounting costs and low-cost high-efficiency PV modules were obtained, in the future \$0.25/W systems are possible. This would drive the ROI over 50%. The total cost comprises the costs of PV modules, land, civil and general works, monitoring, structures, power conditioning units, preliminary & pre-operation expenses including IDC and contingency, project design & management. However, the

315 Government of India provides support as accelerated depreciation, 10-year tax redemption, and 316 other state specific exemption [66], which could drive up ROIs higher than shown here.

- 317
- 318

Clearly any reduction in the capital cost that resulted in the same yields would provide higher returns for the farmer and make the system less challenging to finance.

321

322 It should be pointed out, however, that the revenue shown in Table 1 is for the first year. 323 Over the span of 25 years (under which the PV is under warranty), the efficiency of solar PV farm will decrease each year of all PV technologies is about 1%/year [67] and the majority of 324 modules should be less than this at around 0.5%/year [68]. However, the functional lifetime of 325 326 the PV can be much greater than that and with proper care, grapevines can live for 50 to 100 327 years or more. It is challenging to make projections of cost and value of both grapes and 328 electricity over such time scales and these factors will effect the levelized cost of the electricity 329 from the farm [69] as well as the ROI.

330

4.3. Future Work

332 The most pressing area of future work is to develop real-world proof of concepts. This 333 could first be done in a controlled fashion by turning a fraction of a grape vineyard into an 334 agrivoltaic farm and comparing the grape yield from the converted farm to the uncoverted farm used as a control. This study had no plant-biology/physiology considerations for the partial shade 335 336 effects caused by agrivoltaics and such a future proof of concept could begin to quantify the 337 impacts of partial shading from the PV on grape plant health and productivity. Careful records 338 can be kept on any secondary effects both negative (e.g. possible increases in labor costs due to 339 increased harvesting time due to more restricted access to vines for harvesting) or positive effects 340 (e.g. improved microenvironments increasing grape yields due to decreased soil temperatures and thus reduced evaporation from PV-related ground shading). Similarly, such a pilot test bed 341 342 would also have a co-deployed PV system completely unshaded by grapes to compare solar electric yields to with the agrivoltaic system. Both PV systems could be compared to SAM 343 simulations. These data could then be used to provide a more accurate economic model to create 344 a sound business case for such systems. 345

346 If these field studies also prove promising, there are other opportunities to improve the 347 mechanical design of an agrivoltaic system located on a grape farm. The existing structures made 348 for the grape plantations could be used to mount solar panels and thus a major installation cost 349 can be saved. Depending on the mechanical stability of the existing trellises this may only be 350 possible for new installations where the trellises are designed to meet mechanical specifications 351 of both grape and PV production. In this case the trellises can be used as the base structure and 352 solar modules can be fabricated to be mounted on them. This will ensure saving time and energy 353 to dig additional holes in the ground as well as the material cost to hold the solar modules will 354 decrease with an added advantage of free space under the module to facilitate farming. This 355 study assumed human labor for harvesting. However, there are automated harvesting machines for grapes, which are economic on large scale farms [70]. Future work should also consider the 356 357 design of an agrivoltaic grape farm, which has sufficient spacing to enable automated grape 358 harvesting [71]. This will entail additional spacing between trellises and the impact on grape 359 production per unit area will need to be taken into account and weighed against the additional revenue from the PV electrical production. 360

There are also several potential integrated benefits such as the use of the sprinklers for irrigating the farms can help in cleaning the dust particles from the solar modules. This loss can be non-trivial in certain areas (e.g. 15-25% decline in annual electricity production from solar PV) [39]. A future study is needed to quantify this benefit for increased solar electric yield in specific regions and then compared to the cost of manual or automated cleaning for dedicated PV cleaning systems.

If the proof of concept study shows an unacceptable decline in grape production 367 cultivators may still be able to use agrivoltaics on grape farms and have added revenue 368 369 generation by using a tertiary source for intercropping. For example, a 3 part system could be 370 made up of solar PV, grapes and a shade loving crop like the betel leaf, which is also known as the 'neglected green gold of India' [72]. Betel leaves are in great demand in several countries of 371 372 the world apart from India and generate additional revenue after drying [73]. Similarly, the shade 373 occurring due to solar modules can also be used to cultivate medicinal plants like ginger, tulsi 374 (Ocimum tenuiflorum), which need shade to proliferate. Farmers have explored intercropping of 375 grape farms with other crops on an experimental basis [74] and this could potentially made the 376 business model of agrivoltaics even more promising as solar PV + grape vinevards can attract 377 tourists and open more opportunities of income.

378

379 **5. Conclusions**

380 Growing the world's food supply while transitioning to more land-intensive energy sources is a challenge that can be partially overcome by the dual use of land in agrivoltaic 381 382 systems. This preliminary modeling study showed that for grape crops, food yields in India may 383 be maintained while the revenue of the farms deploying the proposed agrivoltaic systems could 384 increase by over 15 times annually as compared to conventional grape farming. If this dual use 385 of land is implemented nationwide, it could make a significant impact by generating over 16,000 386 GWh electricity, which could meet the energy demands of more than 15 million people. Future 387 work is needed to experimentally verify the results of this modeling study so that agrivoltaic 388 systems can be implemented in the rural areas and villages, which can be electrified apart from 389 the added advantage of growth in revenue.

390

391 6. Acknowledgements

392

396

The authors acknowledge helpful discussions with Gunnar Groesbeck on PV modeling
and Mr. Gopal Bhattad, a grape cultivator from Nashik, India for his input and helpful comments
about grape farms.

397 7. References

- Solomon, S., Plattner, G.-K., Knutti, R., & Friedlingstein, P. (2009). Irreversible climate
 change due to carbon dioxide emissions. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *106*(6), 1704–1709.
- 401
 2. R.H. Moss, J.A. Edmonds, K.A. Hibbard, M.R. Manning, S.K. Rose, D.P. van Vuuren the 402 next generation of scenarios for climate change research and assessment Nature, 463 403 (7282) (2010), pp. 747–756.
- 4043. Mach, K. and Mastrandrea, M., 2014. Climate change 2014: impacts, adaptation, and405vulnerability (Vol. 1). Cambridge, New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

- 406
 4. Hansen, J., Kharecha, P., Sato, M., Masson-Delmotte, V., Ackerman, F., Beerling, D.J.,
 407
 408
 408
 408
 408
 409
 409
 409
 409
 409
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 4
- 410 5. Stern, N.H., 2007. The economics of climate change: the Stern review. cambridge411 University press.
- 412
 413
 6. Droege P, Renewable Energy and the City: Urban Life in an Age of Fossil Fuel Depletion 413 and Climate Change, Bulletin of Science, Technology & Society 2002; 22(2),87–99.
- 414
 7. Pimentel D., Ethanol Fuels: Energy balance, economics and environmental impacts are negative, Natural Resources Research, June 2003; Volume 12, Issue 2, pp 127-134
- 416 8. El-Fadel M, Chedid R, Zeinati M, Hmaidan W. Mitigating energy-related GHG 417 emissions through renewable energy. Renewable Energy, 2003; 28(8), 1257–1276.
- 418
 9. Sims REH. Renewable energy: a response to climate change. Solar Energy, 2004; 76(1-3), 9–17.
- 420 10. Longo A, Markandya A, Petrucci M. The internalization of externalities in the
 421 production of electricity: Willingness to pay for the attributes of a policy for renewable
 422 energy. Ecological Economics, 2008; 67(1), 140–152.
- 11. Tsoutsos T, Papadopoulou E, Katsiri A, Papadopoulos AM. Supporting schemes for
 renewable energy sources and their impact on reducing the emissions of greenhouse
 gases in Greece. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews, 2008; 12(7), 1767–1788.
- Pandey A.K, Tyagi V.V, Sevaraj A/L Jayaraj, Rahim N.A, Tyagi S.K, Recent advances in
 solar photovoltaic systems for emerging trends and advanced applications, Renewable and
 Sustainable Energy Reviews 53 (2016) 859–884
- 429 13. Barker PP, Bing JM. Advances in Solar Photovoltaic Technology: An Applications
 430 Perspective, IEEE Power Engineering Society General Meeting, 2005; 2, 1955–60.
- 431 14. Pearce JM, Photovoltaics A Path to Sustainable Futures, Futures, 2002; 34(7), 663-674.
- 433 15. Feldman, D., Barbose, G., Margolis, R., James, T., Weaver, S., Darghouth, N., Fu, R.,
 434 Davidson, C. and Wiser, R., 2014. Photovoltaic System Pricing Trends: Historical,
 435 Recent, and Near-Term Projections. 2014 Edition. *Presentation by SunShot, US*436 Department of Energy, NREL/PR-6A20-62558.
- 437 16. IEA. Technology Roadmap: Solar Photovoltaic Energy, 2014.
- 438 17. Prasad, D. and Snow, M., 2014. Designing with solar power: a source book for building
 439 integrated photovoltaics (BiPV). Routledge.
- 440 18. Jelle, B.P. and Breivik, C., 2012. State-of-the-art building integrated photovoltaics.
 441 *Energy Procedia*, 20, pp.68-77.
- 442 19. Heinstein, P., Ballif, C. and Perret-Aebi, L.E., 2013. Building integrated photovoltaics
 443 (BIPV): review, potentials, barriers and myths. *Green*, *3*(2), pp.125-156.
- 20. Wiginton LK, Nguyen HT, Pearce JM. Quantifying rooftop solar photovoltaic potential
 for regional renewable energy policy, Computers, Environment and Urban Systems 2010;
 34, 345-357.
- 448

432

^{449 21.} Strzalka, A., Alam, N., Duminil, E., Coors, V. and Eicker, U., 2012. Large scale
450 integration of photovoltaics in cities. *Applied Energy*, 93, pp.413-421.

- 451 22. Nguyen HT, Pearce JM. Automated Quantification of Solar Photovoltaic Potential in 452 Cities International Review for Spatial Planning and Sustainable Development. 2013; 453 1(1), 57-70.
- 454 23. Bergamasco, L. and Asinari, P., 2011. Scalable methodology for the photovoltaic solar 455 energy potential assessment based on available roof surface area: further improvements 456 by ortho-image analysis and application to Turin (Italy). Solar Energy, 85(11), pp.2741-457 2756.
- 24. Nguyen HT, Pearce JM, Harrap R, Barber G, The Application of LiDAR to Assessment 458 of Rooftop Solar Photovoltaic Deployment Potential on a Municipal District Unit, 459 460 Sensors. 2012; 12, 4534-4558.
- 25. Kodysh, J.B., Omitaomu, O.A., Bhaduri, B.L. and Neish, B.S., 2013. Methodology for 461 462 estimating solar potential on multiple building rooftops for photovoltaic systems. 463 Sustainable Cities and Society, 8, pp.31-41.
- 464 26. Nguyen HT, Pearce JM. Estimating Potential Photovoltaic Yield with r.sun and the Open 465 Source Geographical Resources Analysis Support System Solar Energy. 2010; 84, 831-466 843.
- 467 27. de Wild-Scholten MJ, Alasema EA, ter Horst EW, Bachler M, Fthenakis VM. A Cost and Environmental Impact Comparison of Grid-Connected of Rooftop and Ground Based PV 468 469 Systems, 21st European Solar Photovoltaic Energy Conference. 2006.
- 470 Utility-Scale Solar 2012: An Empirical Analysis of Project Cost, 28. Bolinger M. Performance, and Pricing Trends in the United States. 2012. 471 472
 - 29. Fairley P. Big Solar's big surge, Spectrum, IEEE, 2015; 52(1), 41-44.
- 473 Renewable Energy and Food Supply: Will There Be Enough Land? 30. Nonhebel S. 474 Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews. 2005; 9(2) 191–201.
- 475 31. Calvert K, Pearce JM, Mabee WE. Toward renewable energy geo-information 476 infrastructures: Applications of GIScience and remote sensing that can build institutional 477 capacity, Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews. 2013; 18, 416–429.
- 478 32. S. Nonhebel Renewable energy and food supply: will there be enough land? Renew 479 Sustain Energy Rev, 9 (2) (2005), pp. 191–201
- 480 33. United Nations Dept. of Economic and Social Affairs, 2014, Concise Report on the World Population Situation in 2014. UN. 481
- 34. Denholm, P. and Margolis, R.M., 2008. Land-use requirements and the per-capita solar 482 483 footprint for photovoltaic generation in the United States. Energy Policy, 36(9), pp.3531-484 3543.
- 485 35. Brown, L.R., 2008. Why ethanol production will drive world food prices even higher in 486 2008. Earth Policy Institute, 24.
- 487 36. Ford, C. and Senauer, B., 2007. How biofuels could starve the poor. Foreign affairs, 488 86(3), pp.41-53.
- 489 37. Tenenbaum D., Fuel vs Food: Diversion of crops could cause more hunger, Environ 490 Health Perspect, 2008; 116(6): A254-A257.
- 491 38. Dinesh, H. and Pearce, J.M., 2016. The potential of agrivoltaic systems. *Renewable and* 492 Sustainable Energy Reviews, 54, pp.299-308.
- 493 39. Ravi, S., Macknick, J., Lobell, D., Field, C., Ganesan, K., Jain, R., Elchinger, M. and 494 Stoltenberg, B., 2016. Colocation opportunities for large solar infrastructures and agriculture in drylands. Applied Energy, 165, pp.383-392. 495

- 496 40. Marrou H, Wery J, Dufour L, Dupraz C. Productivity and Radiation Use Efficiency of 497 Lettuces Grown in the Partial Shade of Photovoltaic Panels, European Journal of 498 Agronomy. 2013; 44, 54-66.
- 499 41. Cossu Marco, Murgia Lelia, Ledda Luigi, DeligiosA. Paola, Sirigu Antonella, Chessa 500 Franseco, Pazzona Antonio, Solar radiation distribution inside a greenhouse with south-501 oriented photovoltaic roofs and effects on crop productivity, Applied Energy 133 (2014) 502 89-100
- 503 42. Chhablani J., October 20 2012, Occupation of India, Available at 504 http://www.slideshare.net/jashithchhablani/occupation-of-india
- 505 43. The World Bank, Access to electricity (% of population), Available at 506 http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/EG.ELC.ACCS.ZS, (accessed on 11th April, 2016)
- 507 44. Ministry of New and Renewable Energy, Government of India, http://www.mnre.gov.in/
- 508 45. Phukan R. S., 30 July 2014, Solar Energy in India – Pros, Cons and the future, MapsofIndia.com, Available at http://www.mapsofindia.com/my-india/india/scope-of-509 510 solar-energy-in-india-pros-cons-and-the-future
- 46. GAF Contributor, 26 August 2015, how much sun do grapevines need? Available at 511 512 http://www.gardenandflowers.com/info 8558829 much-sun-do-grapevines-need.html
- 513 47. National Horticulture Board Ministry of Agriculture and Farmers' Welfare, Government 514 of India, http://nhb.gov.in/pdf/fruits/grape/gra012.pdf
- 48. Rodriguez A., How to grow grapes in mostly shade, Home Guides, SF Gate, Available at 515 http://homeguides.sfgate.com/grow-grapes-mostly-shade-33175.html, (last accessed 1 516 517 March, 2016)
- 518 49. Discovered India, http://www.discoveredindia.com/maharashtra/cities-and-Nashik. 519 destinations-in-maharashtra/nashik.htm
- 520 50. Personal communication with Mr. Gopal Bhattad, grape cultivator from Vinchur, Nashik, 521 India.
- 522 51. Bhave, A.G., 1994. Potential for solar water-pumping systems in India. *Applied energy*, 523 48(3), pp.197-200.
- 524 52. Kumar, A. and Kandpal, T.C., 2007. Renewable energy technologies for irrigation water 525 pumping in India: a preliminary attempt towards potential estimation. *Energy*, 32(5), pp.861-870. 526
- 527 53. Surendra, T.S. and Subbaraman, S.V.V., 2002, May. Solar PV water pumping comes of 528 age in India. In Photovoltaic Specialists Conference, 2002. Conference Record of the 529 Twenty-Ninth IEEE (pp. 1485-1488). IEEE.
- 54. Purohit, P. and Kandpal, T.C., 2005. Solar photovoltaic water pumping in India: a 530 financial evaluation. International Journal of Ambient Energy, 26(3), pp.135-146.
- 55. Meah, K., Ula, S. and Barrett, S., 2008. Solar photovoltaic water pumping—opportunities 532 533 and challenges. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 12(4), pp.1162-1175.
- 534 56. National Renewable Energy Lab. System Advisor Model (SAM). https://sam.nrel.gov/
- 535 57. Trina Solar, Trina Solar TSM-310PD14 (310W) Solar Panel. Specification sheet.
- 536 58. GAF Contributor, 26 August 2015, how much sun do grapevines need? Available at 537 http://www.gardenandflowers.com/info 8558829 much-sun-do-grapevines-need.html
- 59. timeanddate.com, http://www.timeanddate.com/sun/india/nashik?month=12&year=2015, 538 539 (last accessed 6 March, 2017)
- 60. Bucklev T., Briefing Note, Indian Power Prices. May 6, 2014. Institute for Energy 540 Economics and Financial Analysis. 541

- 542 61. Shikhamany S. D., 'Grape production in India', National Research Centre for Grapes,
 543 India, Available at <u>http://www.fao.org/docrep/003/x6897E/x6897e06.htm</u>, (last accessed
 544 30th March, 2016)
- 545 62. Philip, V.V. India's per capita electricity consumption touches 1010 kWh. Indian power
 546 sector. Available: <u>http://indianpowersector.com/2015/07/indias-per-capita-electricity-</u>
 547 <u>consumption-touches-1010-kwh/</u>
- 54863. Central Electricity Authority of IndiaPower Sector at a Glance.549http://powermin.nic.in/power-sector-glance-all-india
- 55064. Shah D, 'Assessing economics of grape cultivation in India', 9th July 2007, Munich551RePEcArchive, Available at552muenchen.de/3927/1/MPRA_paper_3927.pdf
- 65. Phinikarides, A., Kindyni, N., Makrides, G. and Georghiou, G.E., 2014. Review of
 photovoltaic degradation rate methodologies. Renewable and Sustainable Energy
 Reviews, 40, pp.143-152.Jordan, D.C. and Kurtz, S.R., 2013. Photovoltaic degradation
 rates—an analytical review. Progress in photovoltaics: Research and Applications, 21(1),
 pp.12-29.
- 66. Branker, K., Pathak, M.J.M. and Pearce, J.M., 2011. A review of solar photovoltaic
 levelized cost of electricity. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews, 15(9), pp.44704482.
- 561 67. Domingues, F. and del Aguila, J.S., 2016. The cost of grape mechanical harvesting is
 562 more economical than the manual harvest?. In *BIO Web of Conferences* (Vol. 7, p.
 563 01023). EDP Sciences.
- 56468. Pellenc.Self-propelledOPTIMUM.Availableat565http://www.pellenc.com/agri/produits/self-propelled-optimum/?lang=en (last accessed 9566July 2017).
 - 69. Guha P., 2006, 'Betel leaf: the neglected gold of India', Agricultural and Food Safety Department, Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur, J. Hum. Ecol., 19(2): 87-93.
- 70. Pin, K.Y., Chuah, T.G., Rashih, A.A., Law, C.L., Rasadah, M.A. and Choong, T.S.Y., 2009.
 Drying of betel leaves (Piper betle L.): Quality and drying kinetics. Drying Technology, 27(1),
 pp.149-155.
- 572 71. Ripoche, A., Celette, F., Cinna, J.P. and Gary, C., 2010. Design of intercrop management plans to
 573 fulfil production and environmental objectives in vineyards. European Journal of Agronomy,
 574 32(1), pp.30-39.

568