# Estimation of future changes in photovoltaic potential in Australia due to climate change

Shukla Poddar<sup>1</sup>, Jason Peter Evans<sup>1</sup>, Merlinde J. Kay<sup>1</sup>, Abhnil Amtesh Prasad<sup>2</sup>, and Stephen Bremner<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>University of New South Wales <sup>2</sup>The University of New South Wales

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#### Abstract

Solar photovoltaic (PV) energy is one of the most preferred and fastest growing emission-free energy sources in Australia. However, the dependency of PV generation on climatological factors can impact future power generation. Considering the future large-scale deployment of PV systems, accurate climate information is essential for PV site selection, stable grid regulation, planning and energy output projections. In this study, the effect of projected changes in shortwave downwelling radiation, temperature and wind speed on the performance of PV systems over Australia is examined using regional climate projections. Results indicate a small, but significant decline in future PV potential over Australia due to reduced insolation and increased temperature. Under a high emission scenario, the cell temperature is predicted to increase 2.5°C by 2070 leading to increased periods of significantly reduced cell efficiency (6-13 days/year) mostly in Western and central Australia.

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Shukla Poddar <sup>1,2</sup> , Jason P Evans <sup>2,3</sup> , Merlinde Kay <sup>1</sup> , Abhnil Prasad <sup>1,2,3</sup> , Stephen Bremner <sup>1</sup>					
<sup>1</sup> School of Photovoltaic and Renewable Energy Engineering, University of New South Wales,					
Sydney, Australia					
<sup>2</sup> ARC Centre of Excellence for Climate Extremes, University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia					
<sup>3</sup> Climate Change Research Centre, Biological, Earth and Environmental Sciences, University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia					
Corresponding author: Shukla Poddar (s.poddar@unsw.edu.au)					
Key Points:					
• Ensemble mean of regional climate model simulations predict a decline in Photovoltaic					
(PV) potential over Australia by 2079.					
• Projected changes in the temperature make the largest contribution to the future PV					
potential decline followed by changes in radiation.					
• PV cell temperature is predicted to increase in the future enhancing the cell efficiency					
losses and reduction in generation.					

- 33 Abstract
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Solar photovoltaic (PV) energy is one of the most preferred and fastest growing emission-free 35 energy sources in Australia. However, the dependency of PV generation on climatological 36 factors can impact future power generation. Considering the future large-scale deployment of 37 38 PV systems, accurate climate information is essential for PV site selection, stable grid regulation, planning and energy output projections. In this study, the effect of projected 39 changes in shortwave downwelling radiation, temperature and wind speed on the performance 40 41 of PV systems over Australia is examined using regional climate projections. Results indicate a small, but significant decline in future PV potential over Australia due to reduced insolation 42 43 and increased temperature. Under a high emission scenario, the cell temperature is predicted 44 to increase 2.5°C by 2070 leading to increased periods of significantly reduced cell efficiency (6-13 days/year) mostly in Western and central Australia. 45

46

47 Plain Language Summary

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Solar PV is an established and fastest growing renewable technology in Australia to combat 49 50 global warming and carbon emissions. PV power generation is affected by climatological 51 factors like radiation, temperature, wind speed, clouds, etc. making it susceptible to future climate change. Considering large scale investments in future PV plants, it is essential to 52 53 investigate the potential impact of climate change on PV power generation at different time 54 scales. This study assesses long-term changes in the future PV potential over Australia and the effects of projected changes in insolation, temperature and wind speed on PV power generation 55 capacity for the near (2020-2039) and far-future (2060-2079) periods. PV potential is projected 56 57 to decrease over Australia in the future due to elevated temperature and reduced insolation. On 58 further investigation, we find that the cell temperatures are projected to increase in the future, 59 resulting in increased degradation and risks of failure. The elevated cell temperatures 60 significantly contribute to cell efficiency losses, that are expected to increase in the future 61 indicating further reductions in PV power generation. Long-term PV power projections can help in understanding the variations in future power generation and identifying regions where 62 63 PV systems will be highly susceptible to losses in Australia.

64

65 1. Introduction

With the high rate of global warming and enhanced greenhouse gas emissions, Australia has 66 67 moved towards sustainable energy systems by deploying renewable technologies in the last decade. Almost 27.7% of Australia's electricity was generated from renewable energy in 2020 68 69 (Clean Energy Australia Report, 2021). Large-scale renewable energy generation capacity of 70 almost 2 GW was added to the electricity grid in 2020, which includes an additional 893 MW 71 of generation capacity in large-scale solar along with a 3GW capacity of rooftop Photovoltaic (PV). The solar PV capacity is expected to increase by 20 GW by 2026 and by another 72 GW 72 73 by 2050 to meet the zero net emissions target (Energy Networks Australia, 2017). To achieve 74 these targets, resource assessments and energy production forecasts at all timescales will be 75 required during the planning, construction and operation phases of a solar plant (Crook et al., 76 2011), along with planning storage solutions for the variable electricity generation of PV 77 systems.

78 Energy generated from PV technology at a site mainly depends on solar irradiance availability at that location and the PV cell temperatures. It has been found that for every 1°C rise in the 79 cell temperature, the solar cell efficiency decreases by 0.5% (Kawajiri et al., 2011; Müller et 80 81 al., 2019). The PV power output varies non-linearly with irradiance, especially at lower intensities (Müller et al., 2019). Climate variables like cloud cover, wind speed, aerosols and 82 83 relative humidity (Pérez et al., 2019; Solaun & Cerdá, 2019) also affect PV production. Global 84 solar irradiance is directly dependent on cloud cover and atmospheric conditions. The cloud cover pattern and precipitation distribution rates are likely to change in the future under 85 different warming scenarios (Collins et al., 2013; Moon & Ha, 2020). Dependency of PV power 86 87 output on these meteorological factors introduce a large uncertainty for investments. Thus, mitigating risks for investments in future large-scale PV plants requires detailed future climate 88 analysis, as well as financial analysis to determine the economic feasibility of a project. 89

90 Several studies to quantify the long-term changes in future PV power availability have been 91 undertaken both globally as well as regionally using climate projections. Global studies based 92 on coarse-resolution global simulations including the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project 3 & 5 (CMIP3 and CMIP5) (Crook et al., 2011; Wild et al., 2015) projections indicate little 93 94 predicted changes in the PV production over Australia. Crook et al., 2011 investigated the 95 future changes in CSP and PV productivity and have suggested an increase in PV productivity 96 over Europe and China, a decrease over the USA and Saudi Arabia with a slight decline over 97 Australia and Algeria by 2080. Wild et al., 2015 suggest that PV power may increase in Spain

and Germany, decrease in North-India and North-West China with an almost negligible 98 99 increase over Australia by 2049. None of these studies explicitly consider the additional impact 100 of changes in cell temperatures. Regional studies, with both higher resolution regional model 101 simulations and coarser resolution climate projection data, have been carried out for various 102 parts of the world. These include studies for Europe (Jerez et al., 2015b using Euro-CORDEX 103 simulations; Müller et al., 2019 using CMIP5 projections), Europe and Africa (Gaetani et al., 2014 using ECHAM5 model), Greece (Panagea et al., 2014 using five regional models), UK 104 (Burnett et al., 2014 using UKCP09 probabilistic climate change projections), West Africa 105 106 (Bazyomo et al., 2016 using CORDEX simulations for Africa).

107 Studies focusing on the Australian continent have focused more on historical time periods and 108 highlighted the strong seasonal variability of global horizontal irradiance (GHI) and direct 109 normal irradiance (DNI) (Prasad et al., 2015, 2017). The variability of GHI and DNI over 110 Australia is directly influenced by the changes in cloud cover due to large-scale climate drivers (like El-Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO), monsoon, and sub-tropical ridge) and synoptic 111 features (like cloud bands, troughs, and fronts) (Prasad et al., 2015, 2017). Davy & Troccoli, 112 2012 analyzed the effects of ENSO and Indian Ocean Dipole (IOD) on solar radiation over 113 Australia (for the period 1989-2008) and highlighted the variability in radiation patterns, 114 115 especially during the winter period over the continent. Huang et al., 2020 have reported the 116 temperature de-rating impacts on solar and wind farms for two sites in Australia. However, to date, an extensive regional study analyzing future energy projections from PV technology has 117 not been attempted for Australia. Similarly, future changes in cell temperature due to climate 118 119 change, are yet to have been incorporated. The objective of this work is to examine the future 120 changes in PV power generation over Australia, and the role of climate variables in driving 121 such changes. In this study, we also project the future cell temperature changes over Australia and examine its impact on future PV productivity. 122

123 2. Methods

124 2.1. NARCliM regional projections

Regional climate model (RCM) simulations from the New South Wales/Australian Capital Territory Regional Climate Modelling (NARCliM) project have been used in this study (Evans et al., 2014). The NARCliM projections consist of two spatial domains at ~50 Km (0.44°×0.44°, covering CORDEX-Australasia region) and ~10 Km (0.088°×0.088°) spatial resolution (covering south-east Australia) for three different time periods: present (1990-2009),

near future (2020-2039) and far future (2060-2079). The future periods are forced using the A2 130 scenario following the Special Report on Emission Scenarios (SRES). The A2 scenario projects 131 a surface warming of 3.4°C by 2100 (IPCC, 2007). The RCM ensembles have been created by 132 downscaling the four global climate models (GCM) (MIROC3.2, ECHAM5, CCCMA3.1, and 133 134 CSIRO-Mk3.0) using the weather research and forecasting (WRF) model version 3.3. These GCMs were chosen from CMIP3 according to their performance over the Australian domain, 135 their ability to span potential future climate over South-East Australia and the independence of 136 their errors (Evans et al., 2014). Three different RCM versions were created by combining 137 different planetary boundary layer, cumulus and atmospheric radiation schemes 138 139 (supplementary Table s1). The RCM configurations were selected from 36-member multi-140 physics ensemble based on their skill and independence of errors in a two-step selection process 141 (Evans et al., 2012; Evans et al., 2014). Thus, each period consists of 12 ensemble members: 4 GCMs x 3 RCMs. The NARCliM ensemble has been extensively evaluated and found to 142 143 reproduce many aspects of the regions climate including: the mean climatology (Olson et al., 2016); precipitation extremes (Evans et al. 2017); heatwaves (Gross et al., 2017); drought 144 145 (Herold et al., 2018); and teleconnections with large-scale climate modes (Fita et al., 2016). 146 All the analysis in this study has been done using the NARCliM three-hourly temperature, 147 downward shortwave solar radiation and wind speed data.

#### 148 2.2. Estimation of PV potential and cell efficiency

The power generated by a PV plant directly depends on the nominal installed capacity and the PV power generation potential of the location. PV potential characterizes the amount of solar energy retrieved at a location by a typical utility-scale PV system under ambient conditions. It is a dimensionless quantity that accounts explicitly for the performance of the PV cells to their nominal power capacity. Therefore, the instantaneous PV power of a site is the product of its PV potential and the nominal installed capacity. PV potential has been calculated using the general expression (Jerez et al., 2015a) in equation 1:

156 
$$PV Potential(P) = P_{R \times} G/G_{STC} \dots \dots \dots \dots eq 1$$

where, G is the downward shortwave solar radiation  $(W/m^2)$  and  $G_{STC}$  is G in standard test conditions (1000 W/m<sup>2</sup>).  $P_R$  is the performance ratio of the PV cell accounting for all the losses due to increase in cell temperature. Estimation of the PV potential does not consider the tilt of the array. Note, spectrum effects on the PV power output is small (Huld & Gracia Amillo, 2015) and has not been considered. The performance ratio of the PV cell is estimated
(Mavromatakis et al., 2010; Davy & Troccoli, 2012) using equation 2:

163 
$$P_R = 1 + \gamma (T_{cell} - T_{ref}) \dots \dots \dots eq 2$$

where  $\gamma = -0.005$  (Jerez et al., 2015a). T<sub>cell</sub> and T<sub>ref</sub> denote cell temperature and reference temperature, respectively. The reference temperature is taken to be 25 °C and T<sub>cell</sub> is modelled according to Chenni et al., 2007.

167 
$$T_{cell} = C_1 + C_2 T + C_3 G + C_4 V \dots \dots \dots \dots eq 3$$

where T is the air temperature around the cells (°C), V is the wind speed (m/s) and  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$ ,  $C_3$ and  $C_4$  are coefficients of cell temperature that depend on the cell properties and affect the heat transfer of the cell. Representing a generalized cell, the values of  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$ ,  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  are taken as 4.3 °C, 0.943, 0.028 °C m<sup>2</sup> W<sup>-1</sup> and -1.528 °Cs m<sup>-1</sup> (Jerez et al., 2015a). At standard temperature and irradiance, the power production reaches the rated value.

173 Efficiency of a PV cell has been calculated using the following equation:

174 
$$\eta c = \eta t \left[ 1 - \beta (T_{cell} - T_{ref}) \right] \dots eq 4$$

175 where  $T_{cell}$  and  $T_{ref}$  are the cell temperature and reference temperature respectively.  $\eta t$  is the 176 rated power conversion efficiency of the solar cell at reference temperature.  $\beta$  is efficiency 177 temperature coefficient (0.45%/°C) (Kaldellis et al., 2014; Makrides et al., 2012). The quantity 178  $(T_{cell} - T_{ref})$  increases with cell temperature and consequently decreases efficiency.

179 2.3. Contribution of climate variables in PV potential change

180 Combining equation 2 and 3 with equation 1, the expression for PV potential can be rewritten181 as (supplementary section 2):

182 
$$PV_{pot} = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 G^2 + \alpha_3 GT + \alpha_4 GV \dots \dots \dots \dots eq 5$$

183  $\alpha_1 = 1.1035 \times 10^{-3} (W/m^2)^{-1}, \alpha_2 = -1.4 \times 10^{-7} (W/m^2)^{-2}, \alpha_3 = -4.715 \times 10^{-6} (W^{\circ}C)^{-1}$ 

184  $/m^2$ )<sup>-1</sup> and  $\alpha_4 = 7.64 \times 10^{-6} (W/ms)^{-1}$ . The total change in PV potential due to each variable 185 (obtained using Taylor expansion of equation 5) can be expressed as:

186 
$$\Delta PV_{pot} = \Delta G(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \Delta G + 2\alpha_2 G + \alpha_3 T + \alpha_4 V) + \alpha_3 G \Delta T + \alpha_4 G \Delta V + \alpha_3 \Delta G \Delta T$$
  
187 
$$+ \alpha_4 \Delta G \Delta V \dots \dots \dots \dots eq 6$$

188  $\Delta T$ ,  $\Delta G$  and  $\Delta V$  are the changes in temperature, radiation and wind between the historical and 189 the future period. Hence, PV potential change due to temperature alone can be obtained by 190 using  $\Delta G = \Delta V = 0$  in equation 6. Analogously, the change in PV potential due to the influence 191 of changes in radiation or wind alone is obtained by considering  $\Delta T = \Delta V = 0$  and  $\Delta G = \Delta T =$ 192 0 respectively in equation 6. This method has been previously adopted by (Jerez et al., 2015b; 193 Sawadogo et al., 2020).

#### 194 2.4. Significance test

The statistical significance of the results is examined with Student's t-test and presented 195 following the convention of Tebaldi et al., 2011. For each grid point, each ensemble member 196 is individually tested for significance using a Student's t-test. When less than 50% of the 197 ensemble members show a significant change ( $\alpha < 0.05$ ), it is denoted in color. These are areas 198 where little change is likely. Grid points, where at least 50% of the ensemble members show a 199 significant change and at least 75% of the significant members agree on the direction of change, 200 are denoted by color and stippling. These are areas with high confidence in the future change. 201 202 Grid points where at least 50% of the ensemble members show significant change with less 203 than 75% of them agreeing on the direction of change is denoted in white. These are areas with 204 low confidence in the future change.

205 3. Results and Discussions

206 3.1. Future projections of PV power output over Australia

To assess the climate change impacts on PV productivity over Australia, future changes in the 207 PV potential between the historical period (1990-2009) and future periods, near future (2020-208 209 2039) and far future (2060-2079), have been estimated (figure 1b, 1c). Western and Northern 210 Australia have the maximum potential for PV production (figure 1a). The overall PV potential over Australia declines in the future with respect to the historical period. During the near future 211 212 period, the decline in potential over Southern Australia is almost negligible ( $\sim 0.25\%$ ) while the 213 Northern regions show almost a uniform decline (1-1.25%). However, during the far future 214 period the PV potential declines further with a maximum decrease in the South-East of the 215 continent ( $\sim 2$  %).

Crook et al., 2011 also suggested that Australia may experience very slight changes in the 216 217 power produced by 2080 upon estimating the global relative PV power. They computed a decline in power over most of the continent, however the East and the South coast had an 218 219 increase in relative power output ( $\sim 2\%$ ) (figure 1e Crook et al., 2011), in contrast to our results. 220 Crook et al., 2011 used only one model, HadGEM1 from CMIP3 using SRES A1B scenario, 221 which is the likely reason for such a contradiction and provides an example of how relying on 222 a single model provides a limited view of potential future changes. Similar disagreement is also evident from the results of Wild et al., 2015, where a negligible increase in PV power 223 224 throughout Australia (<0.05%) with relatively higher values (0.05-0.1%) over North-Eastern 225 Australia (focal region selected for study) is predicted by the end of 2049. Such differences are 226 expected due to the coarser resolution GCMs from CMIP5 used in their study. RCMs introduce 227 an added value to the simulations compared to the GCMs due to the inclusion of higher 228 resolution spatial details and better representation of small-scale processes in parametrization 229 schemes (Bartók et al., 2016). The specific physical parameterization schemes selected for the 230 NARCliM configuration can also be considered as one of the causes for the difference in 231 results.

3.2. Dependency of PV potential on climatological variables and sensitivity to climate change

PV power output is directly driven by meteorological conditions, and its drivers are likely to 233 234 change in the future. The changes in PV potential is influenced by changes in downward 235 shortwave radiation, temperature and wind speed. Estimation of the individual strength of the 236 impacts of these parameters on PV power is required to fully understand predictions for future 237 scenarios. Projected changes in radiation show a decline over Northern Australia and a 238 negligible increase over Southern Australia during the near future (figure 2a). A further decline 239 in radiation during the far future is expected over most of the continent except the coastal regions of Northern and Southern Australia. Since the PV power can be generated only during 240 the daytime, the changes in temperature and wind speed are estimated for the daytime only (6 241 242 am-6 pm). Overall, daytime temperature is expected to increase throughout the continent for both periods (~1 °C in the near future and ~2.7 °C in far future) while only small changes (0-243 0.3 ms<sup>-1</sup>) in wind speed are expected for the future periods. Strong positive changes (0.2-0.5 244 ms<sup>-1</sup>) in the wind speed are expected near the coastal regions of Northern Australia in the far 245 246 future. Winds produce a cooling effect on the panel by reducing the cell temperature and thus 247 enhancing the power output (Kaldellis et al., 2014).

Figure 3 shows the net contribution of radiation, temperature and wind towards the future 248 changes in PV potential, respectively. The changes in PV potential due to each of the variables 249 is obtained by considering the change in future values of that variable with other variables set 250 251 at historical values (see methods section 2.3). The ratio of the future PV potential change due to an individual variable to the net change in the future PV potential estimates the contribution 252 253 of that variable to future PV potential change. Positive contribution by a variable implies an 254 increase in the future PV output due to changes in that variable. Similarly, a negative contribution implies a reduction in the future PV output due to a variable. This analysis reveals 255 256 that future changes in PV potential over Australia are driven by the changes in temperature followed by radiation and wind respectively. 257

258 The negative contributions of temperature (figure 3b, e) towards the future PV potential change 259 indicates that increases in temperature over Australia contributes towards the decline in PV potential (supplementary figure s2b, e). This highlights the sensitivity of PV cells to 260 261 temperature consistent with the previous studies (Dubey et al., 2013; Radziemska, 2003). The change in PV potential due to radiation is negative near Northern Australia, negligible near 262 central Australia and positive near Southern Australia (supplementary figure s2a) for the near 263 future period. During the far future period, these changes due to radiation are negative 264 265 throughout the continent except along the Northern and Southern coast where we see positive 266 changes. The total PV potential change during the future periods exhibits small positive values mostly due to the positive contributions by radiation. Small positive contributions of wind 267 268 speed to future PV potential change can be noted as opposed to large contributions of radiation 269 and temperature. This is due to the small changes in future wind speed (figure 2c, f). The 270 presence of cross-products makes it difficult to isolate the contributions by the individual 271 variables and adds a negligible residual contribution.

272 3.3. Changes in the cell temperature and efficiency loss in future

Reliability of cell temperature on the atmospheric conditions makes it susceptible to changes according to the variations in climatic conditions. The performance of the PV modules decreases at high cell temperature due to cell efficiency losses. Thus, periods of high cell temperature can lead to significant decreases in the power generated (Dubey et al., 2013). The mean daily maximum cell temperature over Australia varies from 35-55 °C (figure 4a) for the historical period. Northern Australia records the highest mean daily maximum cell temperature  $(\sim 55 °C)$ . During the historical period, the highest recorded cell temperature varies from 55-72

°C (figure 4d). The highest cell temperature for the historical period is found in Northern 280 281 Australia (72 °C) with relatively lower values along the Southern coastal regions (55-60 °C). Figure 4b, c depicts the projected changes in mean daily maximum cell temperature over 282 283 Australia for the near future and far future period. Even though the mean daily maximum cell temperature is highest over Northern Australia (~55 °C), it is worth noting that the maximum 284 285 rise in cell temperature is expected along the Eastern coast and Western Australia for both near future (~1 °C) and far future (~2.5 °C) periods. A similar increase in the mean cell temperature 286 is also observed (supplementary figure s3). The results also indicate that the highest recorded 287 288 cell temperature increases during the future period (Figure 4e, 4f). The maximum cell 289 temperature for the near future period records ~1 °C rise uniformly except for parts of central 290 Australia where an increase of 3-4 °C can be noted (Figure 4e). The increase in the highest cell temperature for the far future is higher (~6-7 °C) and fairly uniform throughout the continent 291 292 unlike the near future period. It is worth noting that prolonged exposure to high cell 293 temperatures can cause module degradation and enhance failure rates (Ndiaye et al., 2013; 294 Omazic et al., 2019). Such considerations are beyond the scope of this study.

During the historical period with relatively high cell temperatures, the minimum annual cell 295 efficiency over Australia is found to be 82-83% of the rated power conversion efficiency 296 297 indicating a loss of 17-18% due to de-rating. De-rating is the reduction in power output of the 298 PV cells from their rated power. It is important to note that this loss is expected to increase 299 further in the future due to consistent increases in the cell temperature with a maximum annual 300 loss of 19% and 21% in the near future and far future periods, respectively (supplementary 301 figure s4). A similar increase in daily maximum relative cell efficiency loss is expected in the future (~0.5% and ~1.2% in near and far future respectively). Considering the possibility of 302 303 future decline in relative cell efficiency due to elevated cell temperatures, it is useful to analyze the duration of expected loss per year and its future changes. 304

Beyond 58.33°C threshold cell temperature (supplementary section 3), a significant reduction in cell efficiency of at least 15% occurs. We therefore calculate the number of days/year when there will be expected loss in efficiency on reaching beyond the threshold cell temperature (figure 4 g-i). During the historical period, at least a 15% reduction in relative cell efficiency can be observed for 12-16 days/year in Northern and Central Australia. Results indicate that the maximum number of days/year above the threshold temperature increases for both near future (~2-4 days/year) and far future (~6-13 days/year) period. This indicates that the

frequency of module efficiency degradation will increase in the future leading to a reduction 312 313 in energy production. Furthermore, the periods of cell efficiency loss are consistent with the 314 high cell temperature periods, imposing threats of power loss during these periods. A similar 315 increase in the duration of 16-19% efficiency losses for both the future periods (supplementary 316 figure s5) suggests an increased power loss by the end of the century across the country due to 317 cell temperature rise. Increase in cell temperatures can lead to direct current (DC) to alternating current (AC) inverter de-rating and PV module de-rating (Huang et al., 2020). De-rating is one 318 of the most significant impacts of temperature on power generation. It can negatively affect 319 320 the supply-demand ratio causing power shortages, material damage along with a huge 321 monetary loss to the industry (Ke et al., 2016).

322 4. Conclusion

This paper presents the expected changes in the future PV power potential over Australia 323 324 under a high emission scenario using dynamically downscaled regional climate data from the 325 NARCliM project. The PV potential is projected to decline during the 21st century over 326 Australia for near future (2020-2039) and far future (2060-2079) period. The maximum decline in PV power generation is expected to occur in Northern Australia during the near 327 328 future period and it decreases uniformly throughout the continent during the far future period 329 with the highest expected decline in generation capacity in South-East Australia. The relative 330 contributions of projected changes in temperature, downward solar radiation and wind speed 331 on the future PV potential was analyzed. Results reveal that future changes in PV potential 332 are determined primarily by the increase in temperature over Australia, with the next most 333 significant effect being the projected decline in radiation. Elevated air temperatures due to 334 global warming will induce higher cell temperatures over Australia, which leads to a decrease 335 in relative cell efficiency and productivity. The expected number of days/year recording minimum 15% relative cell efficiency loss increases in the future. This indicates an increase 336 in the number of days/year when PV power generated will be less than the rated generation 337 capacity. PV systems are foreseen to largely expand over the 21st century in Australia, 338 339 together with other technological developments. Future changes in PV power generation 340 capacity should be considered when selecting locations and technology for transition to a low-carbon economy. These results can thus help in the assessment of resources and site 341 342 allocation before deployment of large-scale projects in Australia.

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Figure 1. a) Historical PV potential. Relative percentage change in the PV potential over Australia for
b) near future and c) far future period with respect to the historical period. Stippling indicates a
significant change (according to method 2.4).





Figure 2. Change in the shortwave downward radiation (a, d), daytime temperature (b, e) and daytime
wind speed (c, f) over Australia for the near future (a, b, c) and far future (d, e, f) period with respect to
the historical period. Stippling indicates a significant change (according to method 2.4).



Figure 3. Contribution of meteorological variables to future PV potential change. Contribution by
shortwave downward radiation (a, d), daytime temperature (b, e) and daytime wind speed (c, f) over
Australia for the near future (a, b, c) and far future (d, e, f) period with respect to the historical period.
Stippling indicates a significant change (according to method 2.4).



Figure 4. a) Mean daily maximum cell temperature over Australia for the historical period. Relative 549 550 change in the mean daily maximum cell temperature for b) near future and c) far future period with 551 respect to the historical period. d) Maximum cell temperature for the historical period. Relative change 552 in the maximum cell temperature for e) near future and f) far future period with respect to the historical 553 period. g) Climatological total number of days/year cell temperature exceeds the threshold temperature 554 for minimum 15% reduction in relative cell efficiency for the historical period. Relative change in 555 number of days/year the cell temperature exceeds the threshold temperature for minimum 15% 556 reduction in relative cell efficiency for h) near future and i) far future period with respect to the historical 557 period. Stippling indicates a significant change (according to method 2.4).

1 2	Supplementary for
3	Estimation of future changes in photovoltaic potential in Australia due to
4	climate change
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7	Shukla Poddar <sup>1,2</sup> , Jason P Evans <sup>2,3</sup> , Merlinde Kay <sup>1</sup> , Abhnil Prasad <sup>1,2,3</sup> , Stephen Bremner <sup>1</sup>
8 9	<sup>1</sup> School of Photovoltaic and Renewable Energy Engineering University of New South Wales
10	Sydney, Australia
11	<sup>2</sup> ARC Centre of Excellence for Climate Extremes
12	<sup>3</sup> Climate Change Research Centre, Biological, Earth and Environmental Sciences, University
13	of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia
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18	Corresponding author: Shukla Poddar (s.poddar@unsw.edu.au)
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32 33	Contents of this file						
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40 41	• Derivation of net change in PV potential due to contribution of radiation, temperature and wind speed.						
42	Cell efficiency loss threshold temperature.						
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45	• A figure representing the changes in the PV potential due to radiation, temperature and						
46	wind speed (Figure s2).						
47	• A figure similar to figure 4(a-c) from the article demonstrating the mean cell						
48	temperature over Australia for the historical period and its changes for the near future						
49	and far future periods (Figure s3).						
50	• A figure representing the cell efficiency losses for historical period and changes in the						
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52	• A figure similar to figure 4(g-i) from the article demonstrating the number of days/year						
53	there shall be a 16-19% efficiency loss during the historical period and the expected						
54	changes for the near and far future periods (Figure s5).						
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#### 1. Parameterization schemes used for different ensemble members

### Table s1: WRF schemes selected to generate the RCMs

Ensemble Member	Planetary boundary layer physics/ surface layer physics	Cumulus physics	Microphysics	Shortwave/long- wave radiation physics	Land Surface
R1	MYJ /Eta similarity	Kain– Fritsch	WDM5	Dudhia/RRTM	Noah LSM
R2	MYJ /Eta similarity	Betts– Miller– Janjic	WDM5	Dudhia/RRTM	Noah LSM
R3	YSU/MM5 similarity	Kain– Fritsch	WDM5	CAM/CAM	Noah LSM

Table s1 describes the different parameterization schemes chosen to downscale four global climate models (GCMs) using three Weather Research Forecasting v3.3 (WRF) model configurations (Evans et al., 2014). The GCMs are chosen from the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project phase 3 (CMIP3) archive (MIROC3.2, ECHAM5, CCCMA3.1 and CSIRO-MK3.0). Thus the final ensemble contains 12 members (4 GCMs x 3 RCMs).

#### 2. Contribution of climate variables in PV potential change

82 
$$PV Potential(P) = P_{R \times} G/G_{STC} \dots \dots \dots \dots eq 1$$

83 where  $G_{STC}=1000 \text{ W/m}^2$ 

84 
$$P_R = 1 + \gamma (T_{cell} - T_{ref}) \dots \dots \dots eq 2$$

85 where  $T_{ref} = 25 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ 

86 
$$T_{cell} = C_1 + C_2 T + C_3 G + C_4 V \dots \dots \dots eq 3$$

87 where  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$ ,  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  are taken as 4.3 °C, 0.943, 0.028 °C m<sup>2</sup> W<sup>-1</sup> and -1.528 °Cs m<sup>-1</sup> 88 respectively.

89 Combining equation 2 and 3 in 1,

90 
$$P = 1 + \gamma ((C_1 + C_2 T + C_3 G + C_4 V) - T_{ref}) x G/_{GSTC} \dots \dots \dots \dots eq 4$$

91 Adding values of  $G_{STC}$ ,  $T_{ref}$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$ ,  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  to equation 4 we get,

92 
$$PV_{pot} = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 G^2 + \alpha_3 GT + \alpha_4 GV \dots \dots \dots \dots eq 5$$

93 where  $\alpha_1 = 1.1035 \times 10^{-3} (W/m^2)^{-1}$ ,  $\alpha_2 = -1.4 \times 10^{-7} (W/m^2)^{-2}$ ,  $\alpha_3 = -4.715 \times 10^{-6} (W^{\circ}C /m^2)^{-1}$  and  $\alpha_4 = 7.64 \times 10^{-6} (W/ms)^{-1}$ 

Using Taylor expansion in equation 5 we obtain the net change in PV potential due toradiation, temperature and wind speed,

97 
$$\Delta PV_{pot} = \Delta G (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \Delta G + 2\alpha_2 G + \alpha_3 T + \alpha_4 V) + \alpha_3 G \Delta T + \alpha_4 G \Delta V + \alpha_3 \Delta G \Delta T$$
  
98 
$$+ \alpha_4 \Delta G \Delta V \dots \dots \dots eq 6$$

99 where ΔT, ΔG and ΔV are the changes in temperature, radiation and wind between the historical
100 and the future period

101 The change in PV potential due to the change in radiation only is obtained from equation 6 102 (considering  $\Delta T = \Delta V = 0$ ):

103 
$$\Delta PV_{pot_R} = \Delta G(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \Delta G + 2\alpha_2 G + \alpha_3 T + \alpha_4 V) \dots \dots \dots \dots eq 7$$

104	The change in PV potential due to the change in temperature only is obtained from equation 6
105	(considering $\Delta G = \Delta V = 0$ ):
106	$\Delta PV_{pot_T} = \alpha_3 G \Delta T \dots \dots \dots \dots eq 8$
107	The change in PV potential due to the change in wind only is obtained from equation 6 ( $\Delta T = \Delta G$
108	=0):
109	$\Delta PV_{pot_V} = \alpha_4 G \Delta V \dots \dots \dots eq 9$
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#### **3.** Cell efficiency loss threshold temperature

127 Cell efficiency is calculated using:  $\eta c = \eta t [1 - \beta (T_cell - T_ref)] \dots \dots \dots \dots eq 10$ 

where  $T_{cell}$  and  $T_{ref}$  are the cell temperature and reference temperature respectively.  $\eta t$  is the rated power conversion efficiency of the solar cell at reference temperature.  $\beta$  is efficiency temperature coefficient (0.45%/°C) (Kaldellis et al., 2014; Makrides et al., 2012).

- 131 To estimate the cell efficiency loss of 15%, we find consider:  $\frac{\eta t \eta c}{\eta t} \times 100 = 15\%$ .
- 132 On re-arranging the equation 10,

133 
$$1 - \frac{\eta c}{\eta t} = 1 - [1 - \beta (T_{cell} - T_{ref})].....eq 11$$

On adding all the values of the constants to equation 11, we can solve for  $T_{cell} = 58.33$  °C for 135 15% loss. Similarly, threshold temperature is found to be 60.55 °C, 62.77 °C, 65 °C and 136 67.22 °C for 16%, 17% 18% and 19% loss respectively.

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### Relationship of PV cell relative efficiency with irradiance, temperature and cell temperature



*Figure s1.* Relationship of relative efficiency with a) irradiance b) ambient temperature c) variation
152 of cell temperature with irradiance and ambient air temperature.

153 It can be noted that relative cell efficiency  $(\eta_r)$  decreases with an increase in ambient 154 temperature at constant irradiance level. Cell temperature increases with an increase in the 155 ambient temperature and irradiance.  $\eta_r$  also decreases with an increase in the cell temperature. 156 There is an agreement with the previous literature (Chander et al., 2015; Notton et al., 2005) 157 where they have reported similar relationship of relative cell efficiency with ambient 158 temperature and irradiance.

- 167 5. Change in the net PV potential over Australia for the near future and far future
   168 periods due to radiation, temperature and wind speed



*Figure s2.* Change in future PV potential due to shortwave downward radiation (a, d), daytime
172 temperature (b, e) and daytime wind speed (c, f) over Australia for near future (a, b, c) and far future
173 (d, e, f) period with respect to the historical period. Stippling indicates significant change (according
174 to method 2.4).

The individual contribution by the climatological variables (shortwave downward radiation, temperature and wind speed) towards the future change in PV potential shows that temperature influences the PV potential maximum in Australia followed by radiation and wind speed. Positive changes in the PV potential due to radiation majorly contribute towards the net small positive PV potential change over Australia.

## 188 6. Mean cell temperature over Australia for the historical period and relative 189 changes in the cell temperature for the future periods



Figure s3 a) Mean cell temperature over Australia for historical (1990-2009) period. Relative change
in the mean cell temperature over Australia for b) near future (2020-2039) and c) far future (20602079) period with respect to the historical (1990-2009) period. Stippling indicates significant change
(according to method 2.4).

Australia records a mean cell temperature of around ~40-45 °C near the Northern Australia during the historical period. This mean cell temperature uniformly decreases (by ~5-10 °C) on moving towards the South of the continent. Due to climate change, an increase in around ~0.75-1 °C is expected during the near future period. Similar uniform rise in cell temperature (~1.5-2.5 °C) is expected for the far future period. The highest rise in the mean cell temperature is expected near the western part of the continent.

#### 7. Cell efficiency loss 222





226 Figure s4. a) Annual maximum relative cell efficiency loss for historical (1990-2009) period. Change 227 in the relative cell efficiency over Australia for b) near future (2020-2039) and c) far future (2060-228 2079) period with respect to the historical (1990-2009) period. d) Daily maximum relative cell

229 efficiency loss for historical (1990-2009) period. Change in the daily maximum relative cell efficiency

230 over Australia for b) near future (2020-2039) and c) far future (2060-2079) period with respect to the

231 historical (1990-2009) period. Stippling indicates significant change (according to method 2.4).

The annual maximum relative cell efficiency loss over Australia for the historical period is 232 233 maximum over the Northern part of the continent with values going up to 17-18%. This loss increases during the near future period by  $\sim 1\%$  and further increases by 2-2.5% during the far 234 future period. Similar changes in the daily maximum relative cell efficiency loss are expected 235 236 in the future periods. This loss increases during the near future and far future periods by 0.5% 237 and 1.2% respectively.



Figure s5. Number of days/year cell temperature remains beyond threshold temperature for estimated
loss in efficiency and there changes in the future periods.

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