

Baytree Lane, Middleton, MANCHESTER, M24 2EL

**Energy Statement / Regulation 25a Low or Zero Carbon (LZC)
technology feasibility study**

AG-77611-LZCR-Rev A

23rd February 2024

Abacus House, 450 Warrington Road, Culcheth, Cheshire, WA3 5QX

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1. Executive Summary

This report has considered the use of high efficiency alternative heating systems in line with the requirements of Regulation 25a, Approved Document Part L Volume 1 of the building regulations (England) 2021.

The proposed fabric and mechanical specification from Table 2 and Table 3 shown on page 6 of this report will achieve a compliance with AD. L1 2021 building regulations of which fabric and PV technology will provide the following reductions in energy, primary energy over and above the requirements of Part L 2021 and a 36.54% reduction in Carbon emissions over and above AD. L1 2013 requirements (Regulated use).

Regulated use

Energy (Consumption)	0.34%
Primary Energy (Total energy)	3.17%
Carbon emissions	4.24% (AD. Part L1 2021)
Carbon emissions	35.24% (AD. Part L1 2013)

Total use

Energy (Consumption)	0.27%
Primary Energy (Total energy)	2.62%
Carbon emissions	3.27%

Total Contribution from Renewables (LZC)

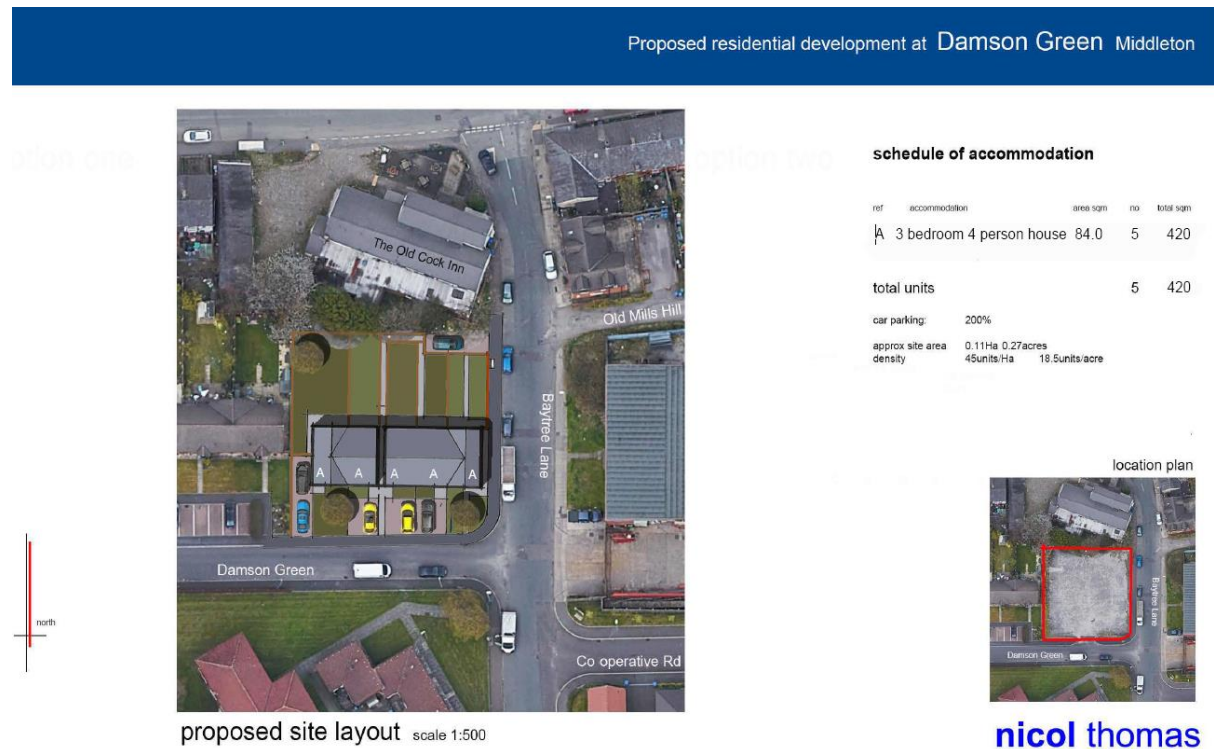
Energy	24.76%
Primary Energy	18.58%
Carbon	17.26%

Proposed Solution

The proposed solution is to use Photovoltaic technology to meet the regulatory requirements of Approved Document Part L Volume 1 of the Building Regulations 2021. Photovoltaic technology has been chosen to reduce running costs and achieve an Energy Performance Certificate "A" rating.

2. The development

The residential development at Baytree Lane, Middleton, MANCHESTER, comprises a total of 5 dwellings which are to achieve compliance with approved document Part L1 of the building regulations 2021.



2.1. Housing mix

House types	Number	GIFA sqft	Area m ²	Total area m ²
3B4P	5	84	7.72	38.59
Total	5			38.59

2.2. Proposed specification & assessment

The objective of this section of the report is to provide more information on specific requirements and details of the proposed fabric and heating and solutions, from this initial assessment and specific technical requirements a detailed heating design will need to be provided by a specialist who may be required to work with manufacturers. Technical information from the manufacturers will be included as an Appendix to this main report when available.

Table 2: Proposed fabric specification

Roof	0.10	W/m ² K
Walls	0.18	W/m ² K
Floor	0.11	W/m ² K
Windows	1.20	W/m ² K
Doors	1.00	W/m ² K
Lintels	Thermally Broken Lintels or independent lintels	
Thermal Bridging	Modelled Thermal bridging details	
Air permeability	5 m ²	

Table 3: Mechanical Specification

Heating	Highly efficient gas boilers
Controls	Programmer, Room Thermostat & TRV's
Domestic Hot Water	From main system
Compensator	Delayed start thermostat
Ventilation	Decentralised, Mechanical Extract Ventilation dMEV
Lighting	80lumes / watt
Photovoltaic Panels	2.40Kw PV panels installed to all dwellings

Energy, Primary Energy, Carbon and running costs based current proposals

Development (Proposed)	m²
GIFA (Development)	38.59
Energy	KwH
Heating	13,635.25
Hot water	12,752.45
Fans and Pumps	639.30
Lighting	1,110.25
Appliances	2,742.12
Cooking	2,200.96
Total Energy use	33,080.34
Energy Kw per m ² of floor area	857.24
Energy (Primary)	Kwpe
Heating	15,407.83
Hot water	14,410.27
Fans and Pumps	959.59
Lighting	1,666.49
Appliances	4,115.93
Cooking	3,303.64
Total Energy use	39,863.75
Energy Kw per m ² of floor area	1,033.02
CO2 emissions	Kg CO2
Heating	2,863.40
Hot water	2,678.01
Fans and Pumps	86.94
Lighting	150.99
Appliances	372.93
Cooking	299.33
Total CO2 emissions	6,451.62
Annual predicted carbon emissions per m ² of floor area	167.19
Running Cost	£ pa
Heating	£ 1,022.64
Hot water	£ 956.43
Fans and Pumps	£ 198.18
Lighting	£ 344.18
Appliances	£ 850.06
Cooking	£ 682.30
Standing Charges	£ 1,324.22
Total Running Costs	£ 5,378.01
Average annual Running Costs per residential unit	£ 1,075.60

Estimated fuel costs are based on the Government price cap figures from July 2023, running costs are for comparison purposes and actual running costs may differ depending on actual use.

2.3. Reduction in Carbon, Energy from improved fabric and mechanical specification

Energy (KwH)	NOTIONAL	PROPOSED
Heating	14,739.25	13,635.25
Hot water	14,312.20	12,752.45
Fans and Pumps	430.00	639.30
Lighting	1,013.35	1,110.25
Appliances	2,742.12	2,742.12
Cooking	2,200.96	2,200.96
Photovoltaic (electricity used in dwelling)	-4,158.70	-3,542.85
Photovoltaic (electricity exported)	-6,319.40	-4,646.20
Total	24,959.79	24,891.29

Reduction in energy	68.50
Percentage reduction	0.27%

Energy Primary (Kwpe)	NOTIONAL	PROPOSED
Heating	16,655.35	15,407.83
Hot water	16,172.79	14,410.27
Fans and Pumps	645.43	959.59
Lighting	1,521.04	1,666.49
Appliances	4,115.93	4,115.93
Cooking	3,303.64	3,303.64
Photovoltaic (electricity used in dwelling)	-6,242.21	-5,317.82
Photovoltaic (electricity exported)	-2,843.73	-2,090.79
Total	33,328.24	32,455.14

Reduction in energy	873.10
Percentage reduction	2.62%

Carbon emissions (Kg/CO2)	NOTIONAL	PROPOSED
Heating	3,095.24	2,863.40
Hot water	3,005.56	2,678.01
Fans and Pumps	58.48	86.94
Lighting	137.82	150.99
Appliances	372.93	372.93
Cooking	299.33	299.33
Photovoltaic (electricity used in dwelling)	-565.58	-481.83
Photovoltaic (electricity exported)	-859.44	-631.88
Total	5,544.34	5,337.90

Reduction in Carbon emissions	206.43
Percentage reduction	3.72%

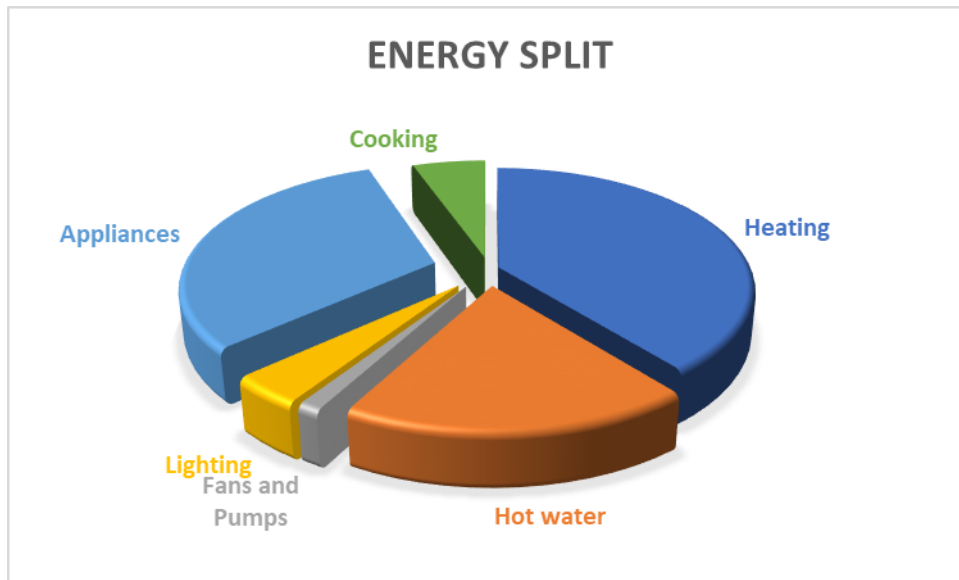
Reduction in Energy, Primary Energy and Carbon from proposed PV specification

Energy	Kwh
Heating	13,635.25
Hot water	12,752.45
Fans and Pumps	639.30
Lighting	1,110.25
Appliances	2,742.12
Cooking	2,200.96
Sub TOTAL	33,080.34
Reduction in energy through LDC technology	-8,189.05
Total	24,891.29
Percentage reduction	24.76%

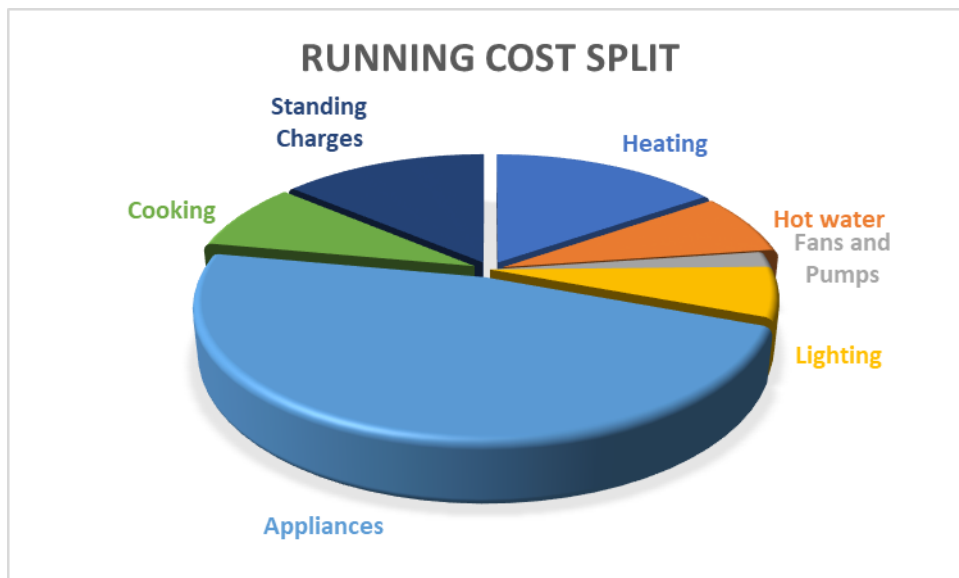
Energy (Primary)	Kwpe
Heating	15,407.83
Hot water	14,410.27
Fans and Pumps	959.59
Lighting	1,666.49
Appliances	4,115.93
Cooking	3,303.64
Sub TOTAL	39,863.75
Reduction in PRIMARY energy through LDC technology	-7,408.61
Total	32,455.14
Percentage reduction	18.58%

Carbon emissions	Kg/CO2
Heating	2,863.40
Hot water	2,678.01
Fans and Pumps	86.94
Lighting	150.99
Appliances	372.93
Cooking	299.33
Sub TOTAL	6,451.62
Reduction in Carbon emissions through LDC technology	-1,113.71
Total	5,337.90
Percentage reduction	17.26%

Total energy consumption split by use

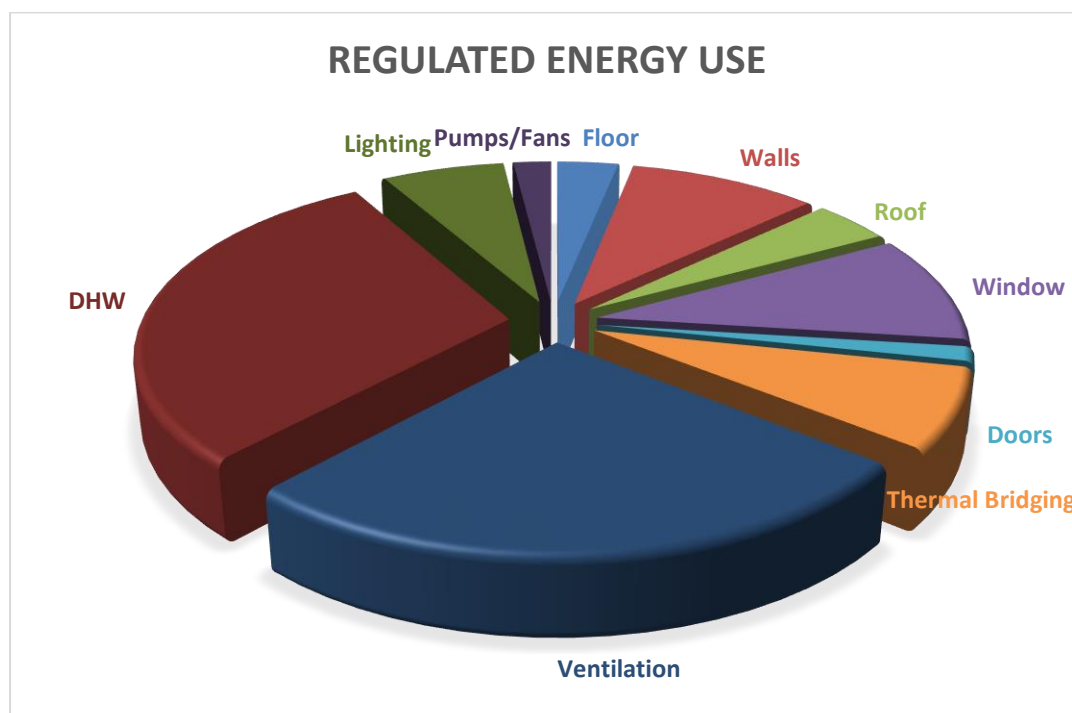


Total running cost split by use (Post April 2022 price cap)



2.4. Fabric (Be Lean)

Split of fabric losses in an average semidetached House with GIFA of 121m² dwelling built to AD. L1 2021 fabric specification (Notional dwelling, please refer to Table 1.1 on Page 17 of this report)



The affects from fabric improvements represent an approximately 25% of the total energy requirements from a typical new build home built to 2013/2021 building regulations standard and approximately 50% of regulated emissions (excluding use .i.e. cooking and appliances) as assessed using steady state assessment methodologies such as SAP etc. Improvements to individual fabric elements can have very limited effect on Energy/Carbon reduction although this is not a reason not to reduce heat loss and reduce heating loads by improving fabric and reducing losses associated with thermal bridging and ventilation losses.

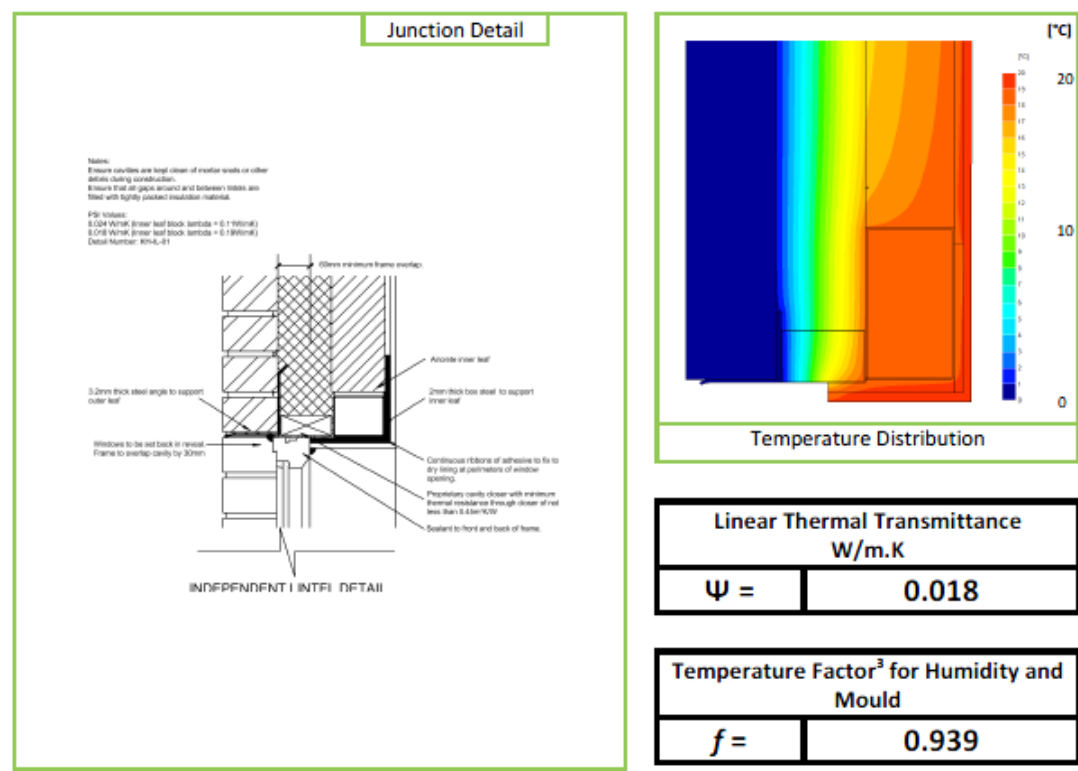
Future retro improvements made to a building's fabric are expensive, disruptive and most of the time impractical and therefore the thermal qualities of the building fabric must be one of the main considerations for long term energy and CO₂ reduction.

Reducing Energy and Carbon emissions from a development by increasing the fabric specification provides the development with a high degree of longevity, by limiting the heat losses across the building envelope over the dwelling's lifetime.

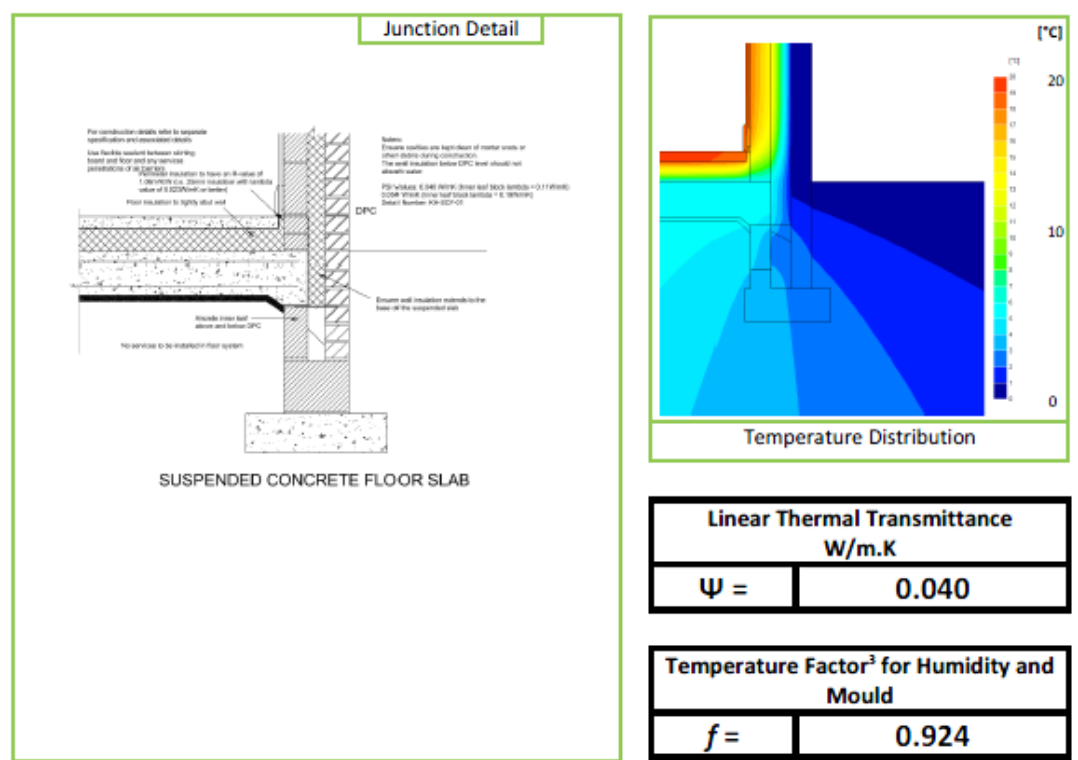
Improving the fabric specification at design stage will ensure that these dwellings do not become the "hard to treat dwellings" of the future.

It can be seen that thermal bridging will contribute to over 15% of a dwellings heating requirements, loses associated from junctions have been considered in detail and have been improved through modelling by the use of specialist 2D/3D thermal modelling software to BR433. Areas of high thermal loss will be identified and improved as required.

Example of a window lintel detail



Example of an exposed ground floor / wall bridging detail.



3. Introduction

Anderson Goddard Ltd has been commissioned by J Walker Homes to provide an Energy Statement and Low or Zero Carbon (LZC) feasibility assessment for the proposed development at Baytree Lane, Middleton, MANCHESTER. This report will consider the requirements of compliance with the building regulations in terms of Carbon and Primary Energy metrics and will also consider the use of high efficiency alternative systems in line with the requirements of Regulation 25a, Approved Document Part L1 of the building regulations (England) 2021.

The following will be considered.

- Energy generated from the LZC technology
- Payback
- Land use
- Local planning requirements
- Noise
- Whole life costs and lifecycle impact of the potential specification in terms of carbon emissions
- Any available grants
- All technologies appropriate to the site and energy demand of the development
- Reasons for excluding other technologies

3.1 Assessment methodology

The following methodologies approved documentation and practices have been used in the compilation of this report.

- SAP 10.2
- Approved document Part L1 of the building regulations 2021

SAP, the governments “Standard Assessment Procedure” for calculating the energy performance of a dwelling and is used primarily for the purpose of satisfying approved document Part L1 of the Building regulations 2021

Appliances

The second part of the calculation takes into account electrical use from appliances ref appendix L2 SAP 2012

$$E_a = 207.8 \times (TFA \times N)^{0.4714}$$

$$E_a \times EF_{\text{electricity}} / TFA$$

Where TFA is the total floor area in m² and N is the assumed number of occupants

Cooking

$$(119 + 24N) / TFA$$

Where TFA is the total floor area and N is the number of occupants

All assessments of benefit in terms of CO₂ reduction provided by upgrade measures or LZC technologies including heating and innovative technologies will be assessed as a percentage of the total estimated CO₂

emissions which will include heating, ventilation, lighting, pumps and fans from SAP 2005 and also CO₂ emissions provided by the calculation process above for Cooking and appliances.

Regulated Use

- Heating
- Ventilation
- Lighting
- Pumps and fans

Un-Regulated use

- Cooking
- Appliances

A SAP calculation generates four ratings a SAP rating and potential SAP rating and Environmental Impact (EI) rating and potential EI rating, all ratings are out of 100.

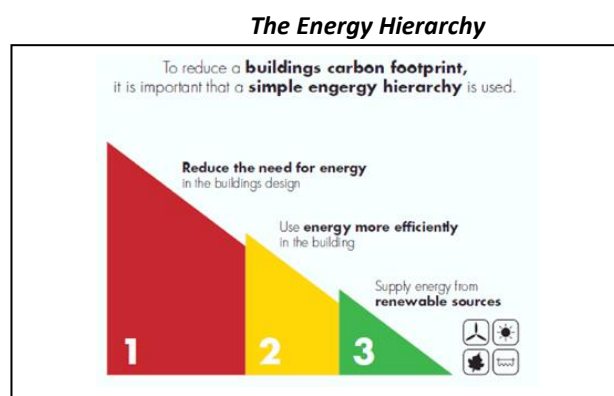
A SAP rating is an indication of heating and lighting costs, the higher the rating the lower the fuel costs will be.

Environmental Impact (EI) rating is an indication of CO₂ emissions produced by heating and lighting, the higher the rating the lower the Carbon emissions will be.

3.2 Energy Hierarchy

In line with best practice, the proposed buildings energy strategy should adhere to the principles of the Energy Hierarchy.

- **Be Lean** – reduce the need for energy.
- **Be Clean** – supply and use energy in the most efficient manner.
- **Be Green** – supply energy from renewable sources.



Adhering to the principles of the Energy Hierarchy has a number of benefits.

- By reducing the energy requirement of the building, the burden of renewable requirement shrinks in proportion. This has obvious financial benefits and will help meet part L of building regulations and any further reductions in carbon emissions required.
- The sustainable credentials of the development are enhanced and are not validated by simply bolting on expensive renewable equipment. By focusing on fabric performance and the provision of efficient heating/cooling systems the building is intrinsically “green”.

The lean measures are those measures which cumulatively reduce the energy requirement of the development through the construction of a thermally efficient building envelope. The measures included in this section of the report constitute the lean efforts.

“Fabric First”

Improved fabric specification

Fabric Enhancements are shown on Page 9 – Be-Lean

High efficient technologies

High efficiency heating technology such as heat pumps will have the greatest effect on reducing carbon emissions.

Energy efficiency within the building – Be Clean

Renewables

Microgeneration technologies including Photovoltaic technology will have the largest benefit in reducing occupiers running costs and reducing Primary Energy.

Installation of Renewable Energy – Be Green

LZC technology

An assessment of renewable technologies has taken place to determine technical and financial viability.

The following technologies would not be technically viable and/or would not provide the required reduction in either CO₂ emissions or energy.

- Solar thermal
- Micro wind
- District heating, CHP

Heat pump technology

Pros

- Would provide the largest reduction in carbon emissions when compared to other LZC technologies
- Maintenance requirements would be lower than more conventional systems

Cons

- Would require additional land use
- May be noisy in operation
- Would be more expensive to operate compared to more conventional systems

Photovoltaic

Pros

- Would provide the most cost-effective solution from a lifetime cost perspective as compared to other technologies
- Dwellings installed with Photovoltaic panels will have an Energy Performance Rating of 'A'
- Would provide the largest reduction in fuel costs as experienced by the occupant
- Would provide high reduction in energy
- Would not require any user operation
- Would require minimal change of habit by the occupant
- Would be silent in operation
- Would require very little maintenance when compared against other LZC technologies

Cons

- Would require suitable roof orientation and configurations, site layout etc
- Would have minimal effect on reducing carbon emissions when compared to Heat Pump technology

3.3 Building regulation requirements

Approved Document Part L1 of the Building Regulations 2021 (England)

Regulation 25

Regulation 25 requires the Secretary of State to approve minimum energy performance requirements. These requirements are in the form of a target primary energy rate, a target emission rate and a target fabric energy efficiency rate.

The targets are set out in Section 1 of this approved document.

Regulations 26, 26A and 26C

A newly constructed dwelling must be shown to meet regulations 26, 26A and 26C by producing calculations to show that the dwelling meets all of the following.

- a. Target primary energy rate.
- b. Target emission rate.
- c. Target fabric energy efficiency rate.

Section 2 of this approved document sets out how to produce these calculations.

Regulations 27, 27A and 27C

Both before and after a newly constructed dwelling is built, a notice must be given to the building control body of the calculations.

Regulation 25A: Consideration of high-efficiency alternative systems

This section deals with the requirements of regulation 25A of the Building Regulations 2010.

Regulation

Consideration of high-efficiency alternative systems for new buildings

- 25A.** (1) Before construction of a new building starts, the person who is to carry out the work must analyse and take into account the technical, environmental and economic feasibility of using high-efficiency alternative systems (such as the following systems) in the construction, if available—
- (a) decentralised energy supply systems based on energy from renewable sources;
 - (b) cogeneration;
 - (c) district or block heating or cooling, particularly where it is based entirely or partially on energy from renewable sources; and
 - (d) heat pumps.
- (2) The person carrying out the work must—
- (a) not later than the beginning of the day before the day on which the work starts, give the local authority a notice which states that the analysis referred to in paragraph (1)—
 - (i) has been undertaken;
 - (ii) is documented; and
 - (iii) the documentation is available to the authority for verification purposes; and
 - (b) ensure that a copy of the analysis is available for inspection at all reasonable times upon request by an officer of the local authority.
- (3) An authorised officer of the local authority may require production of the documentation in order to verify that this regulation has been complied with.
- (4) The analysis referred to in paragraph (1)—
- (a) may be carried out for individual buildings or for groups of similar buildings or for common typologies of buildings in the same area; and
 - (b) in so far as it relates to collective heating and cooling systems, may be carried out for all buildings connected to the system in the same area.

Regulation continued

- (5) In this regulation—
- (a) "cogeneration" means simultaneous generation in one process of thermal energy and one or both of the following—
- (i) electrical energy;
 - (ii) mechanical energy;
- (b) "district or block heating or cooling" means the distribution of thermal energy in the form of steam, hot water or chilled liquids, from a central source of production through a network of multiple buildings or sites, for the use of space or process heating or cooling;
- (c) "energy from renewable sources" means energy from renewable non-fossil sources, namely wind, solar, aerothermal, geothermal, hydrothermal and ocean energy, hydropower, biomass, landfill gas, sewage treatment plant gas and biogases; and
- (d) "heat pump" means a machine, a device or installation that transfers heat from natural surroundings such as air, water or ground to buildings or industrial applications by reversing the natural flow of heat such that it flows from a lower to a higher temperature. (For reversible heat pumps, it may also move heat from the building to the natural surroundings.)

Table 1.1 Summary of notional dwelling specification for new dwelling⁽¹⁾

Element or system	Reference value for target setting
Opening areas (windows, roof windows, rooflights and doors)	Same as for actual dwelling not exceeding a total area of openings of 25% of total floor area ⁽²⁾
External walls including semi-exposed walls	$U = 0.18 \text{ W/(m}^2\text{K)}$
Party walls	$U = 0$
Floors	$U = 0.13 \text{ W/(m}^2\text{K)}$
Roofs	$U = 0.11 \text{ W/(m}^2\text{K)}$
Opaque door (less than 30% glazed area)	$U = 1.0 \text{ W/(m}^2\text{K)}$
Semi-glazed door (30–60% glazed area)	$U = 1.0 \text{ W/(m}^2\text{K)}$
Windows and glazed doors with greater than 60% glazed area	$U = 1.2 \text{ W/(m}^2\text{K)}$ Frame factor = 0.7
Roof windows	$U = 1.2 \text{ W/(m}^2\text{K)}$, when in vertical position (for correction due to angle, see specification in SAP 10 Appendix R)
Rooflights	$U = 1.7 \text{ W/(m}^2\text{K)}$, when in horizontal position (for correction due to angle, see specification in SAP 10 Appendix R)
Ventilation system	Natural ventilation with intermittent extract fans
Air permeability	$5 \text{ m}^3/(\text{h}\cdot\text{m}^2)$ at 50 Pa
Main heating fuel (space and water)	Mains gas
Heating system	Boiler and radiators Central heating pump 2013 or later, in heated space Design flow temperature = 55 °C
Boiler	Efficiency, SEDBUK 2009 = 89.5%
Heating system controls	Boiler interlock, ErP Class V Either: – single storey dwelling in which the living area is greater than 70% of the total floor area: programmer and room thermostat – any other dwelling: time and temperature zone control, thermostatic radiator valves
Hot water system	Heated by boiler (regular or combi as above) Separate time control for space and water heating
Wastewater heat recovery (WWHR)	All showers connected to WWHR, including showers over baths Instantaneous WWHR with 36% recovery efficiency utilisation of 0.98
Hot water cylinder	If cylinder, declared loss factor = $0.85 \times (0.2 + 0.051 V^{2/3}) \text{ kWh/day}$ where V is the volume of the cylinder in litres
Lighting	Fixed lighting capacity (lm) = 185 × total floor area Efficacy of all fixed lighting = 80 lm/W
Air conditioning	None
Photovoltaic (PV) system	For houses: kWp = 40% of ground floor area, including unheated spaces / 6.5 For flats: kWp = 40% of dwelling floor area / (6.5 × number of storeys in block) System facing south-east or south-west

NOTE:

- For a dwelling connected to an existing district heat network, an alternative notional building is used. See paragraph 1.8 and SAP 10.
- See SAP 10 for details.

4 Low or Zero Carbon overview

The following Low or Zero Carbon technologies are commercially available for use in the UK housing sector; the following overview will give a brief description of each technology which will provide a better understanding of how each technology works and its appropriation for use, either for use in this project or for future projects.

Low or zero carbon technologies available in the UK

Zero carbon technologies

- Solar Hot Water
- Solar Photovoltaic
- PV-Thermal
- Small scale hydro power
- Wind turbines
- Solar Air heating

Low carbon technologies

- Biomass
- Combined Heat and Power (CHP) and micro CHP
- Community heating, including utilising waste heat from processes such as large scale power generation where the majority of heating comes from waste heat
- Heat pumps, Ground source heat pumps (GSHP) Geothermic heating systems, Air source.
- Other technologies, Fuel cells using hydrogen from any of the above renewable sources

Other innovative technologies

- Flue Gas Heat recovery systems (FGHRS)
- Shower saver Waste Water Heat Recovery (WWHRS)
- Sunwarm
- Geothermic storage

4.1 Solar Water



Solar water heating systems use heat from the sun to work alongside conventional primary water heaters. The technology is well developed with a large choice of equipment to suit many applications.

For domestic hot water there are three main components

Solar panels or collectors - are fitted to your roof. They collect heat from the sun's radiation. There are 2 main types of collector:

Flat plate systems - which are comprised of an absorber plate with a transparent cover to collect the sun's heat, or

Evacuated tube systems - which are comprised of a row of glass tubes that each contains an absorber plate feeding into a manifold which transports the heated fluid.

A heat transfer system - uses the collected heat to heat water;

Hot water cylinder - stores the hot water that is heated during the day and supplies it for use later.

Fuel Displaced	£ Saving per year	CO2 saving per year
Gas	£50	325 kg
Electricity	£80	635 kg
Oil	£65	365 kg
Solid	£55	645 kg

All savings are approximate and are based on the hot water heating requirements of a 3 bed semidetached home.

Solar water heating can be used in the home or for larger applications, such as swimming pools. For a domestic system you will need 3-4 square metres of southeast to southwest facing roof receiving direct sunlight for the main part of the day, a space to locate an additional water cylinder if required.

In England, changes to permitted development rights for micro generation technologies introduced on 6th April 2008 have lifted the requirements for planning permission for most solar water heating installations. Roof mounted and stand-alone systems can now be installed in most dwellings, as long as they respect certain size criteria. Exceptions apply for Listed Buildings, and buildings in Conservation Areas and World Heritage Sites.

In Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, the devolved governments are currently all considering changes to their legislation on permitted developments, to facilitate installations of micro generation technologies, including solar water heating. Legislation is expected in all three countries later this year. Until then, householders in Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland must consult with their local authority regarding planning permission.

Solar water heating systems tend to require little maintenance Installation and maintenance costs.

The typical installation cost for a domestic system is £3,000 - £5,000. Evacuated tube systems are more advanced in design than flat plate, and so tend to be more expensive.

Solar water heating systems generally come with a 5-10 year warranty and require regular maintenance. A yearly check by the householder and a more detailed check by a professional installer every 3-5 years should be sufficient.

4.2 Solar Photovoltaic



Solar PV (photovoltaic) uses energy from the sun to create electricity to run appliances and lighting. PV requires only daylight - not direct sunlight - to generate electricity.

How it works

Photovoltaic systems use cells to convert solar radiation into electricity. The PV cell consists of one or two layers of a semi conducting material, usually silicon. When light shines on the cell it creates an electric field across the layers, causing electricity to flow. The greater the intensity of the light, the greater the flow of electricity...PV systems generate no greenhouse gases, saving approximately 325kg of carbon dioxide emissions per year - adding up to about 8 tonnes over a system's lifetime - for each kilowatt peak (kWp - PV cells are referred to in terms of the amount of energy they generate in full sun light).

PV arrays now come in a variety of shapes and colours, ranging from grey 'solar tiles' that look like roof tiles, to panels and transparent cells that you can use on conservatories and glass to provide shading as well as generating electricity. As well as enabling you to generate free electricity they can provide an interesting alternative to conventional roof tiles!

PV systems for a building with a roof or wall that faces within 90 degrees of south, as long as no other buildings or large trees overshadow it.

If the roof surface is in shadow for parts of the day, the output of the system decreases. Solar panels are not light and the roof must be strong enough to take their weight, especially if the panel is placed on top of existing tiles. Solar PV installations should always be carried out by a trained and experienced installer. The area of PV required to generate 1 kw hour peak varies but generally 6-8m² for Môn crystalline or 10² for polycrystalline modules of PV will produce 1 Kw peak of electricity.

Cost and maintenance

Prices for PV systems vary, depending on the size of the system to be installed, type of PV cell used and the nature of the actual building on which the PV is mounted. The size of the system is dictated by the amount of electricity required. For the average domestic system, costs can be around £4,000- £9,000 per kWp installed, with most domestic systems usually between 1.5 and 2 kWp. Solar tiles cost more than conventional panels, and panels that are integrated into a roof are more expensive than those that sit on top. Grid connected systems require very little maintenance, generally limited to ensuring that the panels are kept relatively clean and that shade from trees has not become a problem.

The wiring and components of the system should however be checked regularly by a qualified technician. Stand-alone systems, i.e. those not connected to the grid, need maintenance on other system components, such as batteries.

4.3 Solar PV / Thermal



PV-T is an integrated panel that produces both electricity and heat.

Benefit

Traditional PV systems produce heat as a by-product of the electric production which causes the PV collector to reduce in efficiency, as a rule of thumb a PV collector will reduce in efficiency by 0.5% for every 1°C increase in temperature above normal operating temperatures, PV temperatures can exceed 85°C. PV-T systems are designed to cool the collectors and use the collected heat for water and space heating.

How it works

By cooling the PV panel with either water or air the collector will operate up to 25% more efficiently resulting in a smaller area of PV required to generate the same amount of energy compared to a typical PV collector, the heated water or air can then be used to provide the dwelling with heating and or hot water depending on system design.

Cost and Maintenance

The cost of the PV-T system will be very similar to the combined cost of Solar thermal and solar PV and the technology is more suited to Code 5 or code 6 plots because of the reduced area of PV required which would free up available roof area.

4.4 Hydro



Hydro power systems use running water turning a turbine to produce electricity. A micro hydro plant is one that generates less than 100kW. Improvements in small turbine and generator technology mean that micro hydro schemes are an attractive means of producing electricity. Useful power may be produced from even a small stream.

Benefits

For houses with no mains connection but with access to a micro hydro site, a good hydro system can generate a steady, more reliable electricity supply than other renewable technologies at a lower cost. Total system costs can be high but often less than the cost of a grid connection and with no electricity bills to follow. It should be noted that in off grid applications the power is used for lighting and electrical appliances. However, space and water heating can be supplied when available power exceeds demand. Hydro power systems convert potential energy stored in water held at height to kinetic energy

How it works

Hydro power systems convert potential energy stored in water held at height to kinetic energy (or the energy used in movement) to turn a turbine to produce electricity.

Energy available in a body of water depends on the water's flow rate and the height (or head) that the water falls. These are divided into low head, medium head and high head, where the height drop is greater. The scheme's actual output will depend on how efficiently it converts the power of the water into electrical power (maximum efficiencies of over 90% are possible but for small systems 60 - 80% is more realistic).

Hydro power requires the source to be relatively close to where the power will be used or to a suitable grid connection. Hydro systems can be connected to the main electricity grid or as a part of a standalone (off grid) power system. In a grid connected system, any electricity generated but not used can be sold to electricity companies.

In an off grid hydro system, electricity can be supplied directly to the devices powered or through a battery bank and inverter set up. A back up power system may be needed to compensate for seasonal variations in water flow.

Costs and savings

Hydro costs are very site specific and are related to energy output. For low head systems (assuming there is an existing pond or weir), costs may be in the region of £4,000 per kW installed up to about 10kW and would drop per kW for larger schemes.

For medium heads, there is a fixed cost of about £10,000 and then about £2,500 per kW up to around 10kW - so a typical 5kW domestic scheme might cost £20-£25,000. Unit costs drop for larger schemes. Maintenance costs vary but small scale hydro systems are very reliable.

4.5 Micro wind



Wind turbines use the wind's lift forces to rotate aerodynamic blades that turn a rotor which creates electricity. In the UK we have 40% of Europe's total wind energy. But it's still largely untapped and only 0.5% of our electricity requirements are currently generated by wind power.

How does it work? Most small wind turbines generate direct current (DC) electricity. Systems that are not connected to the national grid require battery storage and an inverter to convert DC electricity to AC (alternating current - mains electricity).

Wind systems can also be connected to the national electricity grid. A special inverter and controller convert DC electricity to AC at a quality and standard acceptable to the grid. No battery storage is required. Any unused or excess electricity may be able to be exported to the grid and sold to the local electricity supply company.

There are two types of wind turbines:

Mast mounted - which are free standing and located near the building(s) that will be using the electricity.

Roof mounted - which can be installed on house roofs and other buildings.

Benefits

Wind power is a clean, renewable source of energy which produces no carbon dioxide emissions or waste products.

In the UK we have 40% of Europe's total wind energy

Individual turbines vary in size and power output from a few hundred watts to two or three megawatts (as a guide, a typical domestic system would be 1 - 6 kilowatts). Uses range from very small turbines supplying energy for battery charging systems (e.g. on boats or in homes), to turbines on wind farms supplying electricity to the grid.

You should consider the following issues if you're thinking about small scale wind. An accredited installer will be able to provide more detailed advice. Wind speed increases with height so it's best to have the turbine high on a mast or tower.

Generally speaking the ideal site is a smooth top hill with a flat, clear exposure, free from excessive turbulence and obstructions such as large trees, houses or other buildings.

Small scale wind power is particularly suitable for remote off grid locations where conventional methods of supply are expensive or impractical. Please note that the electricity generated at any one time by a wind turbine is highly dependent on the speed and direction of the wind. The wind speed itself is dependent on a number of factors, such as location within the UK, height of the turbine above ground level and nearby obstructions. Ideally, you should undertake a professional assessment of the local wind speed for a full year at the exact location where you plan to install a turbine before proceeding. In practice, this may be difficult, expensive and time consuming to undertake. Therefore I recommend that, if you are considering a domestic building mounted installation and electricity generation is your main motivation, then you only consider a wind turbine under the following circumstances:

The local annual average wind speed is 6 m/s or more. There are no significant nearby obstacles such as buildings, trees or hills that are likely to reduce the wind speed or increase turbulence

Planning issues such as visual impact, noise and conservation issues also have to be considered. System installation normally requires permission from the local authority.

Roof mounted

These cost from £3000. The amount of energy and carbon that roof top micro wind turbines save depends on several things including size, location, wind speed, nearby buildings and the local landscape. At the moment there is not enough data from existing wind turbine installations to provide a figure of how much energy and carbon could typically be saved. The Energy Saving Trust is monitoring up to 100 wind turbine installations; the results of this activity will help to provide further information for householders considering this technology.

Mast mounted

Larger systems in the region of 2.5kW to 6kW would cost between £11,000 - £19,000 installed. These costs are inclusive of the turbine, mast, inverters, battery storage (if required) and installation; however it's important to remember that costs always vary depending on location and the size and type of system. Turbines can have a life of up to 22.5 years but require service checks every few years to ensure they work efficiently. For battery storage systems, typical battery life is around 6-10 years, depending on the type, so batteries may have to be replaced at some point in the system's life.

4.6 Bio Mass



Biomass is produced from organic materials, either directly from plants or indirectly from industrial, commercial, domestic or agricultural products. It is often called 'bio energy' or 'bio fuels'. It doesn't include fossil fuels, which have taken millions of years to be created.

Biomass fall into two main categories:

Woody biomass includes forest products, untreated wood products, energy crops and short rotation coppice (SRC), which are quick-growing trees like willow.

Non-woody biomass includes animal waste, industrial and biodegradable municipal products from food processing and high energy crops. Examples are rape, sugar cane, maize.

For small-scale domestic applications of biomass the fuel usually takes the form of wood pellets, wood chips or wood logs



The benefits

Producing energy from biomass has both environmental and economic advantages.

Although biomass produces CO₂ it only releases the same amount that it absorbed whilst growing, which is why it is considered to be carbon neutral. Furthermore, biomass can contribute to waste management by harnessing energy from products that are often disposed of at landfill sites.

It is most cost effective and sustainable when a local fuel source is used, which results in local investment and employment and also minimises transport miles to your home.

Fuel

It's important to have storage space for the fuel, appropriate access to the boiler for loading and a local fuel supplier.

Flue

The vent material must be specifically designed for wood fuel appliances and there must be sufficient air movement for proper operation of the stove. Chimneys can be fitted with a lined flue.

Regulations

The installation must comply with all safety and building regulations.

See Part L of the Building Regulations, Northern Ireland

See Section 3 of the Technical Handbooks, Scotland

Smokeless zones

Wood can only be burnt in exempted appliances, under the Clean Air Act.

Planning

If the building is listed or in an area of outstanding natural beauty (AONB), then you will need to check with your Local Authority Planning Department before a flue is fitted.

Costs and savings

Standalone room heaters generally cost £2,000 to £4,000 installed. Savings will depend on how much they are used and which fuel you are replacing. A biomass stove which provides a detached home with 10% of annual space heating requirements could save around 840kg of carbon dioxide when installed in an electrically heated home. Due to the higher cost of biomass pellets compared with other traditional heating fuels, and the relatively low efficiency of the stove compared to a central heating system it will cost more to run.

The cost for boilers varies depending on the system choice; a typical 15kW (average size required for a three-bedroom semidetached house) pellet boiler would cost around £5,000 - £14,000 installed, including the cost of the flue and commissioning. A manual log feed system of the same size would be slightly cheaper. A wood pellet boiler could save you around £750 a year in energy bills and around 6 tonnes of CO₂ per year when installed in an electrically heated home.

Unlike other forms of renewable energy, biomass systems require you to pay for the fuel. Fuel costs generally depend on the distance from your supplier and whether you can buy in large quantities.

4.7 Heat Pumps

There are two types of heat pumps, ground source and air source.

Heat pumps work in a very similar way to fridges and air conditioners and absorb heat from the ground or from the air.

Ground or air source heat pumps are mainly designed to work with under floor heating systems because of the lower design temperatures of under floor systems.

Efficiencies of ground source heat pumps are between 350%-400% and air source between 200%-250%.

Heat pumps are a viable alternative to electric, LPG and oil fuel boilers, but are not considered as an alternative to natural gas.

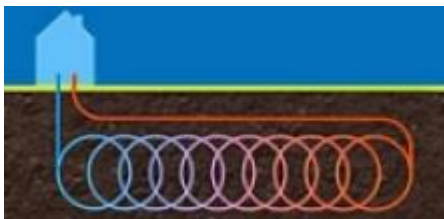
Ground source heat pumps

Ground source heat pumps use a buried ground loop which transfers heat from the ground into a building to provide space heating and, in some cases, to pre-heat domestic hot water. As well as ground source heat pumps, air source and water source heat pumps are also available.

The benefits

The efficiency of a ground source heat pump system is measured by the coefficient of performance (CoP). This is the ratio of units of heat output for each unit of electricity used to drive the compressor and pump for the ground loop. Average CoP over the year, known as seasonal efficiency, is around 3-4 although some systems may produce a greater rate of efficiency. This means that for every unit of electricity used to pump the heat, 3-4 units of heat are produced, making it an efficient way of heating a building. If grid electricity is used for the compressor and pump, then you should consult a range of energy suppliers to benefit from the lowest running costs, for example by choosing an economy 10 or economy 7 tariff.

Ground source heat pumps



How it works

There are three important elements to a ground source heat pump:

1. The ground loop

This is comprised of lengths of pipe buried in the ground, either in a borehole or a horizontal trench. The pipe is usually a closed circuit and is filled with a mixture of water and antifreeze, which is pumped around the pipe absorbing heat from the ground. The ground loop can be:

- Vertical, for use in boreholes
- Horizontal, for use in trenches
- Spiral, coil or 'slinky', also for use in trenches

2. A heat pump

In the same way that your fridge uses refrigerant to extract heat from the inside, keeping your food cool, a ground source heat pump extracts heat from the ground, and uses it to heat your home. A ground source heat pump has three main parts:

- The evaporator, (e.g. the squiggly thing in the cold part of your fridge) absorbs the heat using the liquid in the ground loop;
- The compressor, (this is what makes the noise in a fridge) moves the refrigerant round the heat pump and compresses the gaseous refrigerant to the temperature needed for the heat distribution circuit;
- The condenser, (the hot part at the back of your fridge) gives up heat to a hot water tank which feeds the distribution system.

3. Heat distribution system

This consists of under floor heating or radiators for space heating and in some cases water storage for hot water supply.

You should consider the following issues if you're thinking about installing a ground source heat pump. An accredited installer will be able to provide more detailed advice.

- You will need space outside your house for the ground loop.
- The ground will need to be suitable for digging a trench or borehole.
- What fuel is being replaced? If it's electricity, oil, LPG or coal the savings will be more favourable than gas. Heat pumps are a good option where gas is unavailable.
- The type of heat distribution system. Ground source heat pumps can be combined with radiators but these will normally be larger than with standard boiler systems. Under floor heating is better as it works at a lower temperature.
- Want to further reduce your home's carbon dioxide emissions? Install solar PV or some other form of renewable electricity generating system to power the compressor and pump.
- Is the system for a new building development? Combining the installation with other building works can reduce costs.

Air and water source heat pumps

Air and water source heat pumps use air or water respectively. They do not rely on a collection system and simply extract the heat from the source at the point of use.

Air source heat pumps can be fitted outside a house or in the roof space and generally perform better at slightly warmer air temperatures. Water source heat pumps can be used to provide heating in homes near to rivers, streams, lakes and lochs for example.

Costs and savings

A typical 8 - 12kW system costs £6,000 - £12,000 (not including the price of distribution system). This can vary with property and location. When installed in an electrically heated home a ground source heat pump could save as much as £880 a year on heating bills and almost 7 tonnes of carbon dioxide a year. Savings will vary depending on what fuel is being replaced.

Phase 1 - Householder Stream.

At present, grants are available for non-reversible closed loop systems, utilising a borehole or trenches. A grant of up to £1,200 is available for domestic systems. For details of how to apply for grants, and of energy efficiency measures that must be in place before the grant can be accessed, please visit www.lowcarbonbuildings.org.uk.

Phase 2 - Community Stream.

Phase 2 of the LCBP is for the installation of micro generation technologies in public sector buildings (including schools, hospitals, housing associations and local authorities) and charitable bodies. Grants are available for up to 50% for installations with a maximum of £30,000. Phase 2 is administered by the BRE, for further information please visit www.lowcarbonbuildingsphase2.org.uk.

4.8 CHP

Combined heat and power (Chp) and Micro combined heat and power (Micro Chp)
CHP (combined heat and power) earlier CHP units where basically diesel engines converted to run on oil or gas, electricity been the primary output and heat been the secondary.
They have been around for many years, but mainly used in larger buildings like hotels and large blocks of flats etc. For CHP systems to be economically viable they need to run for at least 4,000 hours per year. They are more suitable for leisure centres with swimming pools and hospitals that have a high, year round heat demand or in mixed use developments with suitable heat demands However, new housing or office developments may be able to make use of existing CHP schemes nearby

Fuel types for Chp / Micro Chp

Natural Gas

Micro CHP units are currently being developed for the domestic market by Potterton Baxi, and Powergen (Whispergen) and it shouldn't be long before they become commercially available.
Micro CHP boilers work using similar principle to their older commercial counterparts, an engine produces heat and electricity, the heat is used in the home much like heat from a conventional boiler and the electricity is either used in the home or exported into the national grid.

Typical estimated boiler efficiencies for use with natural gas

100% Gas	78% heat
	12% electricity
	10% waste

Biogas

Biogas typically refers to a gas produced by the biological breakdown of organic matter in the absence of oxygen. Biogas originates from biogenic material and is a type of bio fuel. One type of biogas is produced by anaerobic digestion or fermentation of biodegradable materials such as biomass, manure or sewage, municipal waste, and energy crops. This type of biogas comprises primarily methane and carbon dioxide. The other principal type of biogas is wood gas which is created by gasification of wood or other biomass. This type of biogas is comprised primarily of nitrogen, hydrogen, and carbon monoxide, with trace amounts of methane. The gases methane, hydrogen and carbon monoxide can be combusted or oxidized with oxygen. Air contains 21% oxygen. This energy release allows biogas to be used as a fuel. Biogas can be used as a low-cost fuel in any country for any heating purpose, such as cooking. It can also be utilized in modern waste management facilities where it can be used to run any type of heat engine, to generate either mechanical or electrical power. Biogas is a renewable fuel and electricity produced from it can be used to attract renewable energy subsidies in some parts of the world.

Bio Mass

(Please see previous description)

4.9 Fuel Cells

In principle, a fuel cell operates like a battery. Unlike a battery, a fuel cell does not run down or require recharging. It will produce energy in the form of electricity and heat as long as fuel is supplied.

A fuel cell consists of two electrodes sandwiched around an electrolyte. Oxygen passes over one electrode and hydrogen over the other, generating electricity, water and heat.

A fuel cell produces electricity.

The fuel cell is similar to a battery. It produces electricity using chemicals. The chemicals are usually very simple, often just hydrogen and oxygen. In this case the hydrogen is the "fuel" that the fuel cell uses to make electricity.

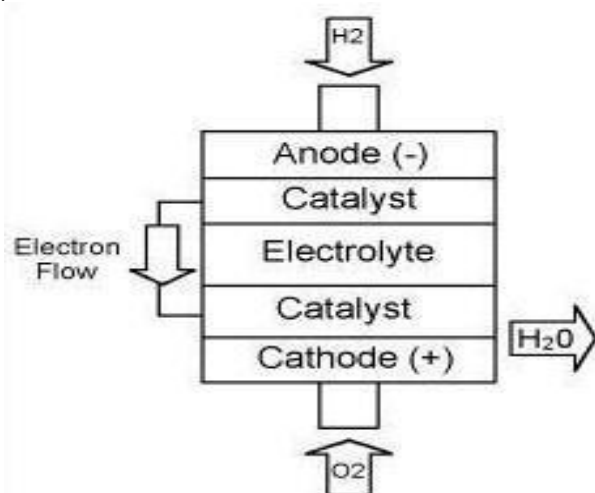
Another very important difference is that fuel cells do not run down like batteries. As long as the fuel and oxygen is supplied to the cell it will keep producing electricity for ever.

The oxygen needed by a fuel cell is usually simply obtained from air.

Although the majority of fuel cells use hydrogen as the fuel, some fuel cells work off methane, and a few use liquid fuels such as methanol.

Fuel cells that use hydrogen can be thought of as devices that do the reverse of the well-known experiment where passing an electric current through water splits it up into hydrogen and oxygen. In the fuel cell hydrogen and oxygen are joined together to produce water and electricity.

Fuel cells can be made in a huge range of sizes. They can be used to produce quite small amounts of electric power, for devices such as portable computers or radio transmitters, right up to very high powers for electric power stations.



Hydrogen fuel is fed into the "anode" of the fuel cell. Oxygen (or air) enters the fuel cell through the cathode. Encouraged by a catalyst, the hydrogen atom splits into a proton and an electron, which take different paths to the cathode. The proton passes through the electrolyte. The electrons create a separate current that can be utilized before they return to the cathode, to be reunited with the hydrogen and oxygen in a molecule of water.

A fuel cell system which includes a "fuel reformer" can utilize the hydrogen from any hydrocarbon fuel - from natural gas to methanol, and even gasoline. Since the fuel cell relies on chemistry and not combustion, emissions from this type of a system would still be much smaller than emissions from the cleanest fuel combustion processes.

FUEL CELLS USING HYDROGEN FROM RENEWABLE SOURCES

Fuel cells can be used as CHP systems in buildings. There are currently several different systems under development using different chemical processes, which operate at different temperatures. They currently use natural gas as the fuel, which is 'reformed' to produce hydrogen, the required fuel for the fuel cell. When and if hydrogen becomes available from renewable sources, e.g. as the storage medium of wind generated energy, fuel cell CHP from renewable sources may be possible in buildings.

5 Innovative technologies

The following technologies are not yet classified as LDC technologies; in reality they provide a large reduction in both CO₂ emissions and provide a good end user benefit in terms of energy savings. This list of technologies will expand over the following years, and this section will expand to include any new available innovative technologies.

5.1 Flue Gas Heat Recovery Systems (FGHRS)



The Flue Gas Heat Recovery System is not considered as a low carbon technology although it will be included in a draft consultation by the Energy Saving Trust.

In reality the FGHRS provides a good reduction in CO₂ emissions compared to some technologies that are classified and listed as LDC technologies yet do not provide a reduction in CO₂ emissions when compared to a Natural Gas energy model.

Background

Condensing combination boilers only condense when the flow and return water temperature differential is large enough, generally 11°C, during hot water mode the primary heating water is just circulated around the boiler through a secondary heat exchanger and the temperature differential between flow and return water will be very low and therefore the boiler will not condense.

How it works

The FGHRS is fitted above the boiler and is connected to the boiler flue outlet; the flue is terminated from the FGHRS as normal.

Cold mains water enters the FGHRS and is pre heated by the waste flue gasses via an air to water heat exchanger, the preheated water is then feed to the inlet cold connection on the boiler therefore reducing the amount of gas required to heat the hot water to a sufficient usable temperature.

Costs and maintenance

FGHRS cost between £500-£650 and according to the manufacture will require none or very little maintenance.

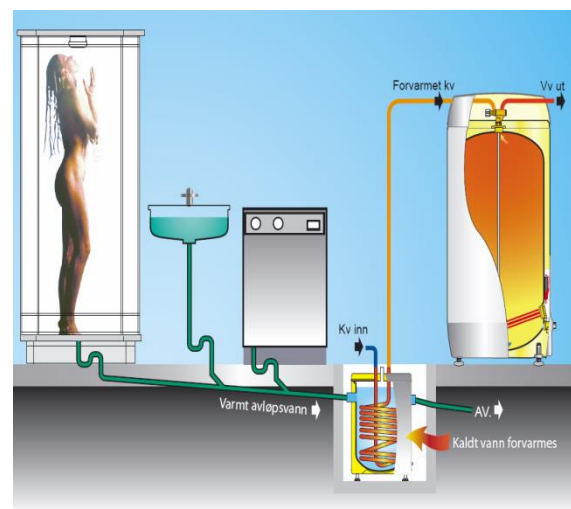
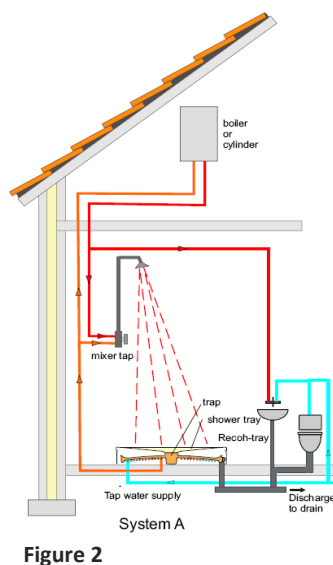
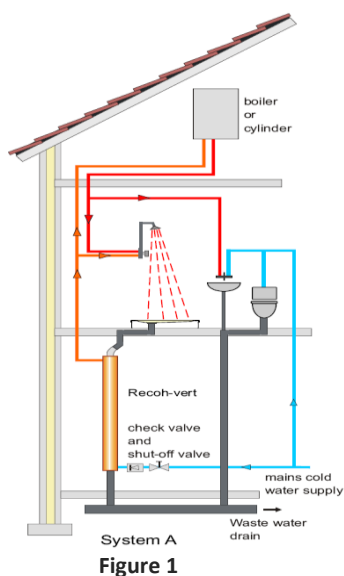
Land use

FGHRS requires no specific land use requirements.

Planning

FGHRS require no additional planning requirements.

5.2 Waste Water Heat Recovery Systems (WWHRs)



Shower Saver (figure 1 & 2)

Waste Water Heat Recovery Systems (WWHRs) are new to the UK and Appendix Q, following successful experience in The Netherlands where they are fitted to 20% of new dwellings. Although generically classified as a WWHRs the Shower-Save device is primarily applicable to heat recovery from warm shower waste water. Figure 7 shows the most common configuration known as Reco-vert, applicable to upstairs showers, whilst Figure 8 shows the Reco-h-tray which can be used in apartments, bungalows or other single storey properties. The principle of heat recovery is the same in both cases:

Warm shower water passes through the 'grey' water side of a copper counter-flow heat exchanger. Mains pressure water simultaneously passes through the fresh water side of the heat exchanger, where it is pre-heated before passing into both the 'cold' inlet of the mixer shower and the 'cold' inlet to the hot water cylinder, combi boiler or other water heater.

The use of pre-heated water (orange line in Figures 1 and 2) reduces the total volume of hot water required per shower, whilst also pre-heating the cold feed to the hot water heater which increases potential flow rates for combi or shortens the re-heat time of cylinders.

The energy saving applies to whichever fuel is used for water heating, which is therefore not limited solely to gas boilers.

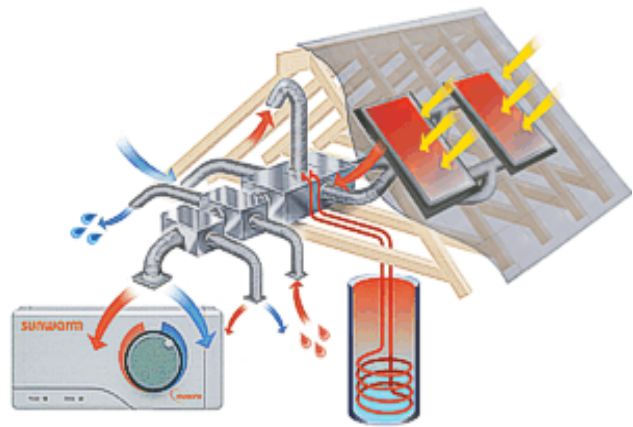
Whilst technically applicable to instantaneous electric showers, these aren't currently modelled by SAP, so it is not possible to apply in Appendix Q either.

Does not save energy from baths, in which hot water use is in advance of grey water disposal, but is applicable to the shower over a bath.

Waste water heat recovery System

Figure 3 depicts a whole house Waste Water Heat Recovery System (WWHRs) which is being developed in the Netherlands and is expected to be available in this country during the next year. It is estimated that the system will provide a reduction in energy consumption of approximately 2500Kw pa or approximately 475 Kg/ CO₂ pa for an average dwelling.

5.3 Sunwarm



The Sunwarm System developed by Nuaire could be classified as a LZC technology and was listed on the DTI clear skies renewable energy grant scheme, the technology has been included in this innovative section subject to confirmation of its exact classification.

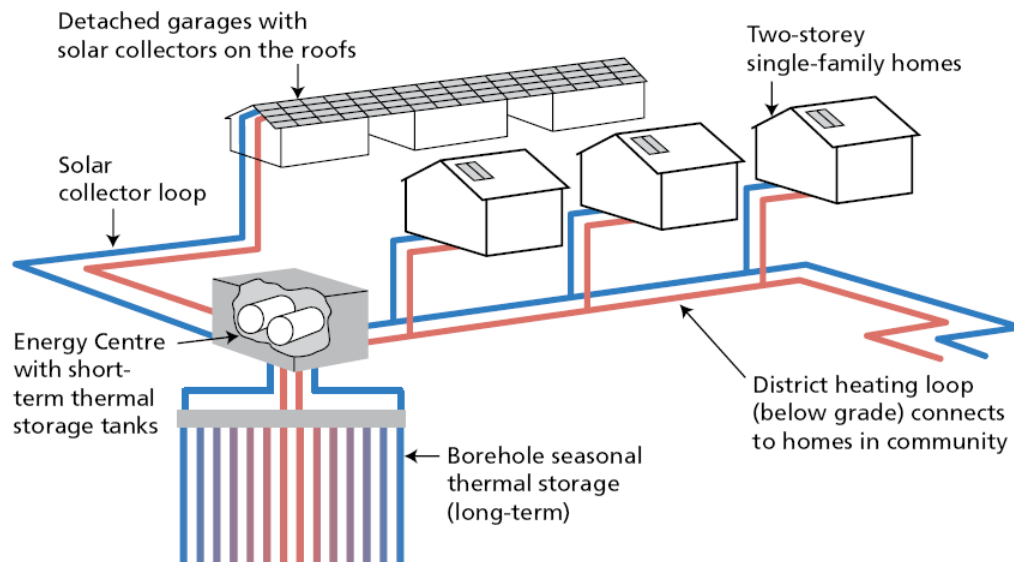
The Sunwarm system is a system that uses solar radiation in the same way Solar thermal uses solar radiation to heat water, the Sunwarm system uses solar radiation to heat air which is then introduced through the ventilation ducting and into the dwelling, the Sunwarm system can also be used to heat water by way of an air to water heat exchanger.

The unit is in the process of being tested by the BRE and will be eventually included in the appendix Q database.

The manufactures claim that the energy saved by the unit as assessed over a winter period will be approximately 1500 Kw and therefore the unit should provide in excess 1500 Kw if assessed over the full year. For the purpose of this feasibility assessment the conservative figure of 1500Kw has been used in the calculation process although this may change when the unit has been entered on the appendix Q database

5.4 Geothermal Storage

Solar Seasonal Storage and District Loop



Geothermal storage systems are and are intended to be used in conjunction with Solar thermal or PV-T systems. The heat produced by both systems can be stored in boreholes in the ground and the heat can then be used throughout the winter period to provide heating through community heating circuits.

The concept was conceived by the Canadian Government and implemented at Drake Landing Okotoks, Alberta, Canada and has successfully integrated the technology and an unlimited solar energy supply feeding 52 homes.

Borehole thermal energy storage allowed water to be heated and collected in large quantities for use in winter, at the end of summer the water was measured to reach temperatures of 80°C and even at the low temperatures associated with the Canadian winters the water temperature at the end of the winter period had been measured at 50°C.

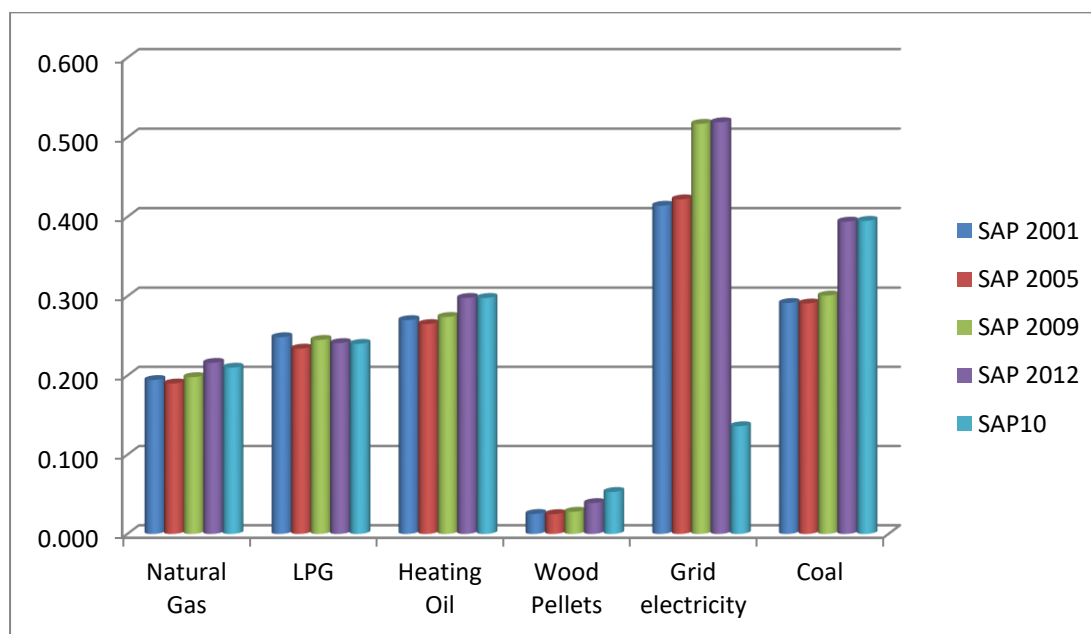
Currently there is no way of assessing the benefit of the Geothermal storage system because of limited test data and therefore the system has not been considered further in this study.

For more information on the Drake landing Solar community please visit www.dlsc.ca

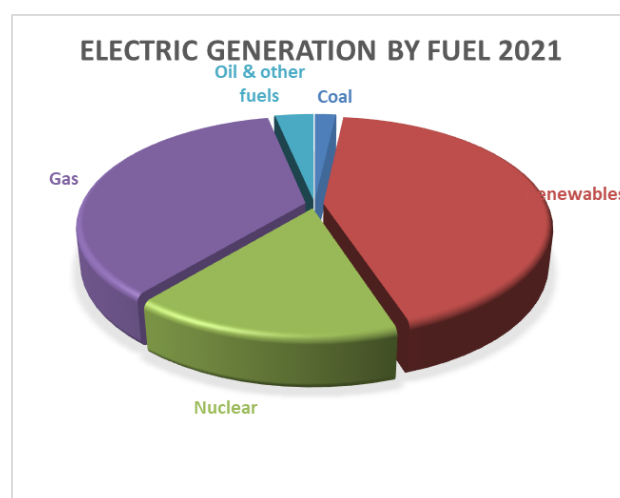
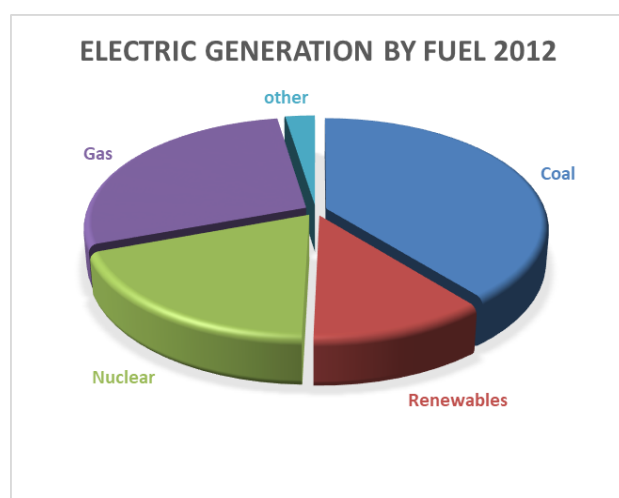
6 Fuel Cost and Carbon

Carbon

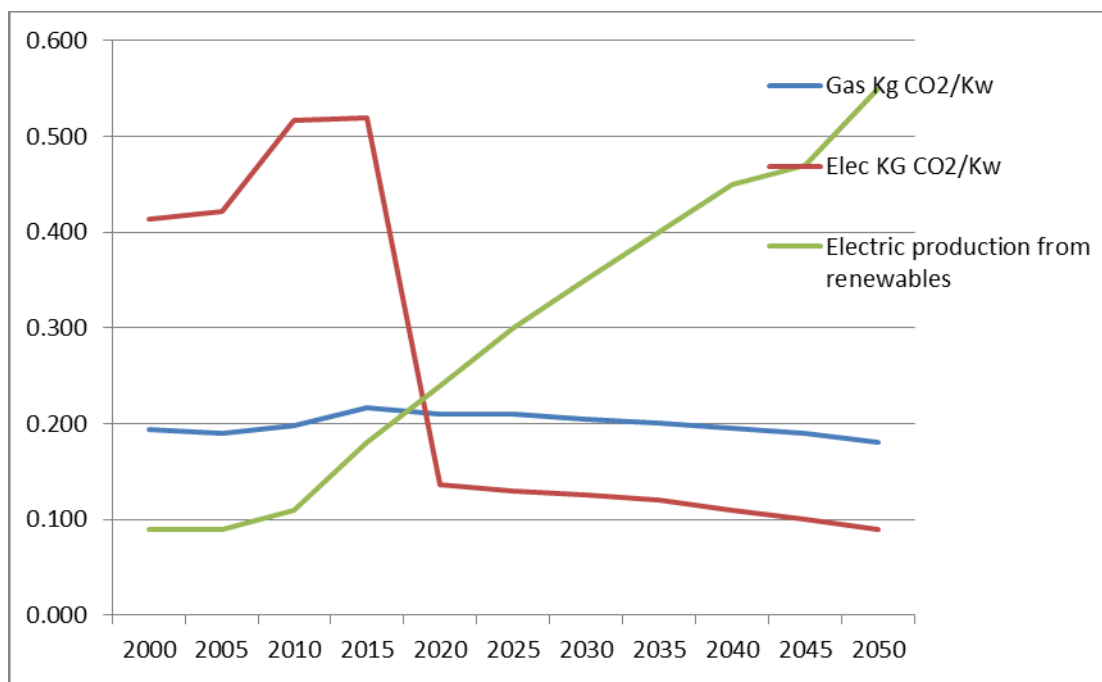
Carbon factors including SAP10.1 estimate, due to the decarbonisation of the grid electricity is now the low carbon fuel



It can be seen that electric generation from renewable technologies has increased as well as a marked reduction in generation from coal however as a consequence the share of electric production from gas has also increased.

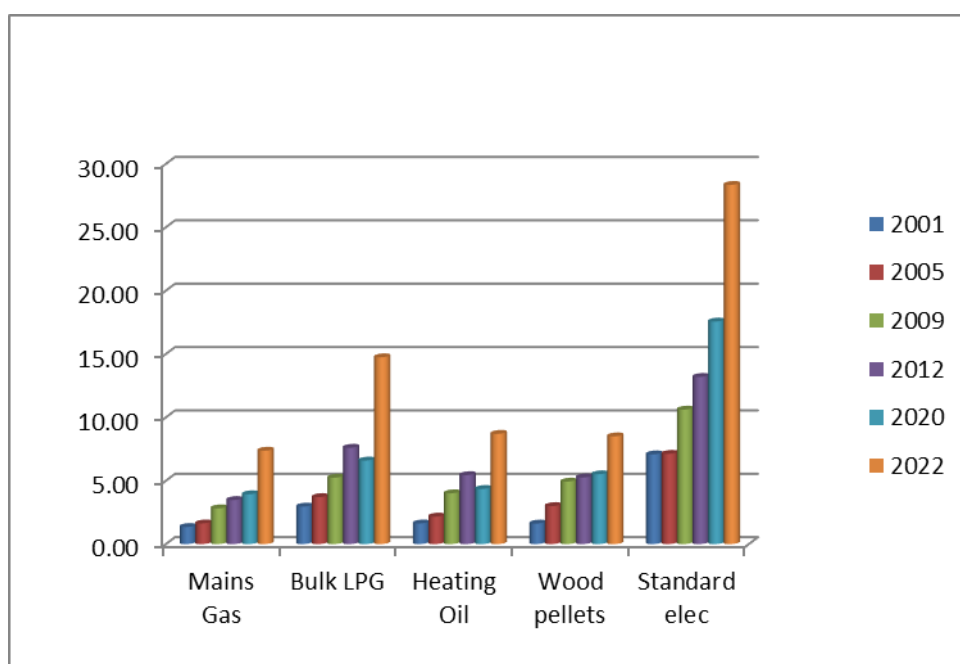


The following graph represents an estimate of CO₂ emissions for both gas and electricity and how they may change over the following years; data has been taken from SAP 2001, 2005, 2009, 2012 and SAP10.1 documents.



Running costs

Electricity is the greener fuel although it is also the most expensive fuel, technologies which high efficiencies which further reduce carbon as well as running costs would be preferred.



7 Excluded technology

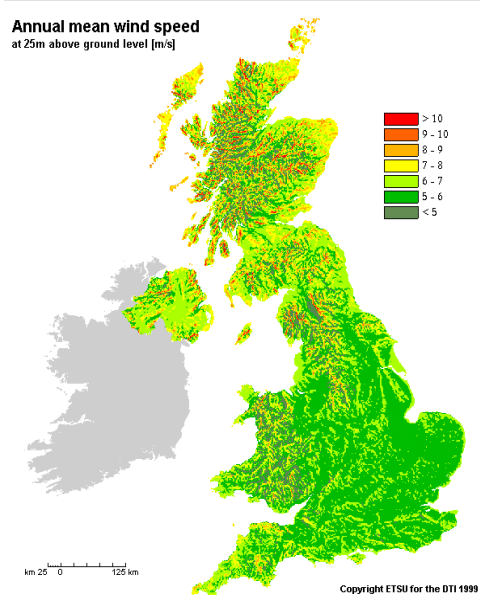
Low or Zero Carbon technologies and other innovative technologies not thought appropriate for use at the proposed development.

- Large Mast Wind turbines
- Small scale hydro power
- Solar thermal
- Waste heat from processes such as large scale power generation where the majority of heating comes from waste heat
- Other technologies, Fuel cells using hydrogen from any of the above renewable sources

LZC technology and reasons for their exclusion

Wind turbines

The UK Department of Trade and Industry used to publish a database of average wind speed data for every 1km grid square in the country, known as the NOABL database. The database no longer appears on the DTI website. The data is estimated rather than measured, and takes no account of local features such as walls, buildings, trees and hilltops, which occur at a scale of much less than 1km. These features make a major difference to the wind. To quote the DTI web page: "The data can only be used as a guide and should be followed by on-site measurements for a proper assessment".



In any case, average wind speed is not a reliable predictor of wind turbine output, because the relationship between wind speed and power output is not linear. For example, compare two days: one when the wind blows steadily at 8 mph all day, and another when the wind blows at 16 mph for 12 hours and there is no wind at all for the other 12 hours. Both days have an average wind speed of 8mph, but most turbines would produce more than twice as much power on the second day. One way to approach the problem is to embark on complex statistical calculations involving the 'Rayleigh wind speed distribution'; a simpler method is to carry out a wind survey in the exact spot where the turbine is to be mounted. The average wind speed for the proposed development is **5 meters per second**, 10 meters above ground level according to the NOABL database; therefore large mast wind turbines may be suitable for use at the proposed site. As previously indicated a detailed on-site assessment to establish the actual average wind speed would be required to determine the potential suitability of the site for the installation of a large mast wind turbine although it is thought that the land use requirements would be Impractical.

5.2	5	4.6
5	5	4.6
4.6	4.8	4.9

<http://www.renew-reuse-recycle.com/noabl.pl?n=503>

Small scale hydro power

Small scale hydro would be inappropriate for integration into the proposed development due to the geographical location of the proposed site and its increased proximity to a natural water feature which would be capable of accommodating this type of technology.

Biomass

As well as the increase in running costs and energy use the fuel would need to be delivered to site and there would be a certain degree of organisation required to source the fuel and arrange for delivery which may cause inconvenience on part of the occupier and or housing management team.

Biomass boilers are very efficient and produce very little waste products even so there would be a requirement to remove and dispose of burnt spent fuel frequently.

The Clean Air Acts of 1956 and 1968 were introduced to deal with the smog's of the 1950s and 1960s which were caused by the widespread burning of coal for domestic heating and by industry. This smog's were blamed for the premature deaths of hundreds of people in the UK. The Acts gave local authorities powers to control emissions of dark smoke, grit, dust and fumes from industrial premises and furnaces and to declare "smoke control areas" in which emissions of smoke from domestic properties are banned. Since then, smoke control areas have been introduced in many of our large towns and cities in the UK and in large parts of the Midlands, North West, South Yorkshire, North East of England, Central and Southern Scotland. The implementation of smoke control areas, the increased popularity of clean natural gas and the changes in the industrial and economic structure of the UK lead to a substantial reduction in concentrations of smoke and associated levels of sulphur dioxide (SO₂) between the 1950s and the present day.

Pollutants associated with biomass combustion include particulate matter (PM₁₀/PM_{2.5}) and nitrogen oxides (NO_x) emissions. These pollution emissions can have an impact on local air quality and affect human health, a report provided by DEFRA concluded that the negative effects on air quality associated with biomass primary installations especially in urban developments could out way any benefit associated with CO₂ reduction.

A permit would be required which would need to be purchased from the local authority and the local authority could refuse or revoke licence at any time in the future.

It is considered that Bio Mass would not be suitable for integration at the proposed development for these reasons.

From wasted heat

Community heating including utilising waste heat from processes such as large scale power generation or industrial heat generation where the majority of heating comes from waste heat would be inappropriate for integration at the proposed development due to the geographical location of the proposed site and its increased proximity to an industrial heating or power generation source that would be capable of supporting this type of technology.

Specific details relating to the new commercial / retail element of the scheme is so far unknown, energy from wasted heat from use of these building may be able to contribute towards the heat requirements of residential units and this should be considered in greater detail once this information becomes available.

Other technologies

Fuel cell etc, not yet fully commercially available.

8 Suitable technologies

The following Low or Zero carbon technologies and innovative technologies are to be considered in more detail for integration at the proposed development.

- Solar Photovoltaic
- Air Source or Ground Source Heat Pump (ASHP & GSHP)

High efficiency technologies such as Ground and Air Source Heat pumps will have the largest effect on Carbon reduction and Primary Energy reduction.

Microgeneration technologies including Photovoltaic technology if coupled with battery storage will have the largest benefit in reducing occupiers running costs and reducing Primary Energy.

Heat Pump Technologies and Solar Photovoltaic technologies are both considered suitable for integration at the proposed development.

9 Bibliography and definitions

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SAP	Standard Assessment Procedure
ENE 1	Energy 1
ENE 7	Energy 7
SAP	Standard Assessment Procedure
LZC	Low or Zero Carbon Technology
CSH	Code for Sustainable Homes
EI	Environmental Impact
FIT	Feed in Tariffs
RHI	Renewable Heat Incentives
DER	Dwelling Emission Rate
TER	Target Emission Rate
DNO	District Network Operator
PV	Photovoltaic
CHP	Combined Heat and Power
AD	Anaerobic Digestion
ASHP	Air Source Heat Pump
GSHP	Ground Source Heat Pump