

Barriers to Solar Panel Adoption in Developing Countries: Social, Economic, and Technological Perspectives

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INTRODUCTION

While solar energy, derived from the sun's radiation, has been harnessed by humans for centuries, dating back to ancient civilizations that used passive solar designs for heating and cooking, the modern era of solar energy utilization began with the discovery of the photovoltaic effect by French physicist Alexandre Edmond Becquerel in 1839, which marked a significant scientific breakthrough in understanding how sunlight can be converted into electricity and laid the groundwork for subsequent advancements in solar technology. The development of the first silicon solar cell by Bell Laboratories in 1954 represented a pivotal moment, achieving an efficiency that made solar power a viable option for generating electricity (Perlin, 1999). Initially, solar cells were predominantly used in space applications due to their high cost, but over time, technological advancements and economies of scale have reduced costs significantly, enabling broader applications. According to current scientific models, solar energy can be captured primarily through two methods: photovoltaic (PV) systems and concentrated solar power (CSP) systems. PV systems use semiconductor materials to convert sunlight directly into electricity through the photovoltaic effect which are versatile and can be deployed on a small scale, such as residential rooftops, or in large-scale solar farms. CSP systems, on the other hand, utilize mirrors or lenses to concentrate sunlight onto a small area, generating heat that is then used to produce electricity via steam turbines and are typically employed for large-scale power generation and requires significant infrastructure (International Energy Agency, 2020). Both technologies have distinct advantages and are suitable for different applications based on geographic, economic, and infrastructural contexts.

While we can say that the global adaptation of solar panels has accelerated over the past two decades, the majority of this change has constricted itself to developed and wealthier regions of the Global North. Germany, for example,

implemented the Renewable Energy Sources Act (EEG) in 2000, which provided generous feed-in tariffs for solar power, catalyzing a rapid expansion of solar capacity (Jacobsson & Lauber, 2006) while the United States has incentivized solar energy through the Solar Investment Tax Credit (ITC), which has been instrumental in driving investment and deployment of solar technologies (Sherwood, 2020) which, combined with technological advancements and declining costs, have established solar power as a significant component of the energy mix in many developed nations. In contrast, the adoption of solar panels in developing regions faces substantial challenges which, despite having significant solar potential, encounter numerous economic, social, and technological barriers. This paper will attempt to dissect and critique these various viewpoints of the challenges faced by developing regions of the world in solar energy adoption and addressing these multifaceted barriers to solar panel adoption in developing countries which would inevitably require a holistic and integrated approach.

ECONOMIC CHALLENGES

The adoption of solar panel technology in developing regions faces significant economic challenges, which impede the widespread deployment and utilization of this renewable energy source. One of these is the high initial cost of solar panels and the associated equipment, such as inverters, batteries, and mounting systems. These upfront costs are particularly prohibitive for low-income households and small businesses in developing countries, where financial resources are scarce and the availability of credit is limited (IRENA, 2016). The capital-intensive nature of solar projects requires substantial investment, which is often unattainable for many communities and the cost of installation and maintenance further escalates the financial burden. Skilled labor for installing and maintaining solar systems is not only limited but also expensive, driving up the overall cost of solar energy projects (Sovacool et al., 2011). Financing these projects is another critical hurdle where developing regions frequently

suffer from high-interest rates and a lack of accessible financial products tailored to renewable energy investments. Traditional banking systems in these areas are often underdeveloped, and microfinance institutions or innovative financing models, such as pay-as-you-go schemes, are either nascent or insufficiently scaled to meet the demand (Bhattacharyya, 2013). Without affordable financing options, potential solar adopters are unable to spread the cost of solar installations over time, making it financially unfeasible for many. What's more striking is that the economic policies and market structures in developing countries often do not favor renewable energy investments where many governments still heavily subsidize fossil fuels, making them artificially cheap compared to renewable energy sources. These subsidies distort the energy market, creating an uneven playing field where solar energy cannot compete on price (IEA, 2020). In some instances, the policy environment is unstable, with frequent changes in regulations and incentives, which undermines investor confidence and deters long-term investments in solar infrastructure (REN21 2020). Additionally, the absence of strong regulatory frameworks and clear policies supporting renewable energy adoption further exacerbates the financial risks associated with solar investments. This dilemma is also further compounded by the limited economic benefits "perceived" by local populations. In many cases, the high initial investment does not translate into immediate or tangible economic gains, making it difficult to justify the expense which is particularly relevant in rural areas where economic activities are often limited to subsistence agriculture or small-scale enterprises, that do not generate sufficient revenue to offset the costs of solar installations (World Bank, 2017). Furthermore, the cost savings from reduced expenditure on traditional energy sources, such as kerosene or diesel, are not always sufficient to cover the repayment of loans or the initial investment in solar technology.

However, despite being one of the world's poorest countries, Bangladesh has notably made significant progress in solar energy adoption through its Solar Home Systems (SHS) program. Initiated by the Infrastructure Development Company Limited (IDCOL), the program aimed to provide off-grid solar solutions to rural households. By 2020, over 5 million SHS units had been installed, benefiting more than 20 million people (IDCOL, 2020). However, the economic hurdles were significant. The initial cost of SHS, although subsidized, was still a considerable financial burden for many rural families and to address that IDCOL implemented a microfinance model where households could purchase the systems on credit, with repayments spread over several years which helped mitigate the high upfront costs, but high-interest rates on loans remained a challenge, often reaching 12-15% per annum, which added to the financial strain on low-income families (Mondal et al., 2010). Furthermore, the program faced issues with maintenance and system failures, as the cost of repairs and the scarcity of skilled technicians in remote areas further burdened the economic viability of solar adoption.

Another economic challenge in developing regions is the limited availability of local manufacturing capabilities for solar components as most developing countries rely heavily on imported solar panels and related equipment, which increases costs due to import tariffs, shipping fees, and currency exchange rates (Bhattacharyya, 2013).

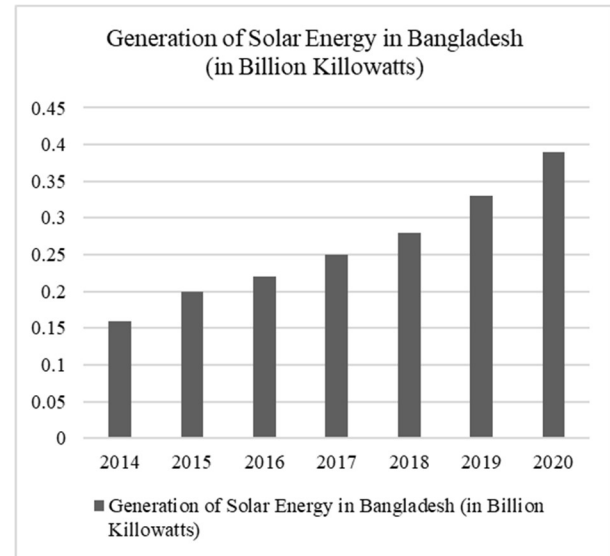


Fig. 1. Generation of Solar Energy in Bangladesh (in Billion Killowatts). The U.S. Energy Information Administration, 2021.

This also makes solar energy systems vulnerable to global market fluctuations and supply chain disruptions, which can lead to price volatility and uncertainty, further deterring investment. Additionally, the economic development level in many developing regions constrains the growth of the solar industry. The overall low levels of industrialization and technological development mean that the ancillary industries required to support a robust solar market—such as manufacturing, skilled labor training, and research and development—are often lacking. This creates a dependency on foreign expertise and technology, which not only raises costs but also limits the ability of local economies to benefit from job creation and technology transfer associated with the solar industry.

SOCIAL CHALLENGES

The social challenges faced by developing regions in adapting solar panel technology are complex and multifaceted, deeply intertwined with issues of education, cultural norms, gender dynamics, socioeconomic disparities, and community engagement. First, the pervasive lack of awareness and education about solar energy, which limits understanding of its benefits, operational mechanics, and long-term economic advantages which is aggravated by low literacy rates and limited access to information, particularly in rural areas where traditional energy sources, although often unreliable and costly, are more familiar and trusted (Bhattacharyya, 2013). The skepticism towards solar technology is further fueled by past experiences with poorly executed projects, leading to a general mistrust of new technologies (Rai et al., 2019).

Cultural resistance also plays a critical role, as many communities have deeply ingrained practices and preferences for traditional energy solutions. For instance, some populations may view modern technologies with suspicion or regard them as unnecessary disruptions to established ways of living. In patriarchal societies for instance, the adoption of solar technology is often influenced by gender dynamics, where decision-making power rests predominantly with men, while women, who are the primary users of household energy, have limited say which can hinder the adoption process, as the energy needs and preferences of women are not adequately considered or prioritized (Dutta et al., 2017). Furthermore, the social structure and hierarchies within communities can affect the equitable distribution of solar energy benefits. Marginalized groups, such as the poor, rural inhabitants, and ethnic minorities, often have less access to solar initiatives due to their peripheral social status and limited political influence, perpetuating existing inequalities (World Bank, 2017). Successful implementation of solar projects requires active community engagement and participation, yet many initiatives are designed and executed with minimal local input, leading to a lack of ownership and commitment which often results in solutions that are poorly tailored to the specific needs and circumstances of the community, reducing their effectiveness and sustainability (Sovacool et al., 2011). Adding on to it, misinformation and myths about solar energy can spread within communities, fueled by a lack of reliable information and effective communication strategies which can create further barriers to acceptance and adoption, as people may harbor unfounded fears about health risks or doubt the efficacy of solar panels under certain climatic conditions.

For instance, if we see two contrasting examples—India’s National Solar Mission and the Barefoot College’s Solar Program—it may help illustrate the complexity of these social challenges better and the varying degrees of success in overcoming them. India’s National Solar Mission, launched in 2010, aimed to promote the adoption of solar technology through large-scale installations and policy incentives. However, the program encountered significant social barriers, particularly in rural areas. A major challenge was the lack of awareness and understanding of solar technology among rural populations, which limited their willingness to invest in or support solar projects. Additionally, the program faced cultural resistance, as many communities were hesitant to adopt unfamiliar technologies over traditional energy sources (Jawaharlal Nehru National Solar Mission, 2010) especially land-owning populations like farmers and tribal populations who considered panel distribution a waste of land for them as it generated insignificant profits in the near future. The top-down approach of the initiative, with insufficient community engagement and local input, often led to mismatched solutions that did not fully address the unique needs of different regions, reducing the overall impact and sustainability of the projects.



Fig. 2. A Karbi tribal woman whose agriculture land had been transferred to build a solar power plant stands at her home in India. Associated Press, 2022.

In contrast, the Barefoot College’s Solar Program, which focuses on empowering women in rural communities to become solar engineers, has achieved notable success by directly addressing social challenges. The program trains women, often grandmothers with limited formal education, to install and maintain solar systems, thereby addressing both the gender dynamics and the technical skills gap that hinder solar adoption (Roy, 2014). This grassroots approach fosters a sense of ownership and empowerment among participants, who become advocates for solar technology within their communities which also emphasizes community engagement and tailored solutions, ensuring that the solar systems meet the specific needs of the local population. It has consequently also led to higher acceptance and sustainability of the projects, as the community members are directly involved in the implementation and maintenance processes.



Fig. 3. The graduation ceremony of empowering 26 women from rural India. Barefoot College, 2023.

The comparison of these two case studies highlights the importance of addressing social challenges through inclusive and participatory approaches. While India’s National Solar Mission struggled with top-down implementation and limited local engagement, the Barefoot College’s Solar Program succeeded by empowering local communities and fostering grassroots involvement which primarily highlights the need for solar initiatives to go beyond mere technology deployment

and consider the social dynamics and cultural contexts of the target populations. Effective community education and awareness campaigns are crucial for overcoming skepticism and building trust in solar technology. Additionally, addressing gender dynamics by involving women in the decision-making and implementation processes can significantly enhance the adoption and sustainability of solar projects. Ensuring equitable access and benefits distribution requires targeted efforts to include marginalized groups and address socioeconomic disparities.

TECHNOLOGICAL CHALLENGES

The adoption of solar panel technology in developing regions is significantly hampered by a variety of technological challenges, which encompass issues of infrastructure, grid compatibility, technical expertise, quality assurance, and innovation capacity wherein the inadequacy of existing infrastructure to support solar energy systems is the most striking one. Many developing regions suffer from underdeveloped or unreliable electrical grids that are not designed to handle the intermittent nature of solar power. Integrating solar energy into these weak grids requires advanced grid management technologies, such as smart grids and energy storage systems, which are often lacking due to high costs and technical complexities (Bhattacharyya, 2013) and moreover the infrastructure to manufacture, distribute, and install solar panels is often underdeveloped, leading to reliance on imported components that can be costly and subject to supply chain disruptions which increases the overall costs and delays the deployment of solar technology, making it less accessible to poorer communities (IRENA, 2016). Also, the lack of local manufacturing capabilities means that developing regions miss out on the economic benefits and job creation associated with a domestic solar industry.

Second, the lack of technical expertise and skilled labor necessary for the installation, maintenance, and repair of solar systems also stalls its implementation. In many developing regions, there is a scarcity of trained technicians who can ensure the proper functioning and longevity of solar installations which is worsened by limited educational and training programs focused on renewable energy technologies (Sovacool et al., 2011). It not only hampers the effective deployment of solar projects but also affects their sustainability, as poorly maintained systems are prone to failures and inefficiencies, leading to disillusionment with solar technology among users. Needless to say, the need for regular maintenance and occasional repairs requires a robust supply chain for spare parts and technical support, which is often lacking in remote and rural areas (Bhattacharyya, 2013). This posits quality assurance as a grave concern. The market for solar panels and associated components is often flooded with low-quality or counterfeit products that do not meet international standards which can lead to frequent breakdowns, reduced efficiency, and shorter lifespans of solar installations, ultimately increasing the costs and decreasing the reliability of solar energy (Mondal et al., 2010). Establishing

and enforcing quality standards for solar products is essential but difficult due to weak regulatory frameworks and limited technical capabilities of local authorities. Also, there is often a lack of rigorous testing and certification processes to ensure the reliability and performance of solar components. This is further complicated by the limited availability of data and research on the performance of solar technologies in different climatic and environmental conditions prevalent in developing regions (Bhattacharyya, 2013).

The experience of Kenya and Bangladesh in deploying solar technology highlights these technological challenges. In Kenya, the rapid growth of the solar home systems (SHS) market has been hindered by issues related to grid compatibility, technical expertise, and quality assurance. The country's weak electrical grid struggles to integrate the variable output of solar power, necessitating the use of expensive and technically complex solutions such as energy storage systems (Ondraczek, 2013) and the lack of trained technicians has led to problems with the installation and maintenance of SHS, resulting in frequent system failures and user dissatisfaction. Additionally, the influx of low-quality solar products has plagued the market, with many users experiencing poor performance and short lifespans of their solar systems (Alstone et al., 2015). In contrast, Bangladesh's success with the SHS program, implemented by the Infrastructure Development Company Limited (IDCOL), demonstrates the importance of addressing technological challenges through coordinated efforts which has successfully deployed over 5 million SHS units by addressing issues of technical expertise and quality assurance (Mondal et al., 2010). IDCOL's approach included extensive training programs for local technicians, ensuring a pool of skilled labor to support the installation and maintenance of solar systems. Additionally, the program established rigorous quality standards and certification processes for SHS components, ensuring that only reliable and high-performance products were used. This focus on quality and technical capacity has contributed to the sustainability and success of the SHS program in Bangladesh.

However, both cases highlight the persistent challenge of innovation capacity. Despite their successes, both Kenya and Bangladesh continue to rely heavily on imported solar technologies, highlighting the need for stronger local R&D capabilities. Enhancing local innovation ecosystems would enable these countries to develop and adapt solar technologies that are better suited to their specific needs and conditions, ultimately reducing costs and improving performance. Strengthening collaboration between universities, research institutions, and industry is crucial for driving innovation and commercialization of new solar technologies in developing regions (REN21, 2020).

POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS AND A WAY FORWARD

Addressing the numerous challenges that hinder the adoption of solar panel technology in developing regions requires a comprehensive approach that includes innovative solutions

and a fresh look at traditional strategies. Firstly, to tackle the economic barriers, governments and international organizations need to develop financial mechanisms that make solar projects more affordable which could involve creating microfinance programs with low-interest rates and flexible repayment options, as well as offering incentives like tax breaks and subsidies for solar installations. Public-private partnerships can also play a key role by attracting investment and reducing the cost of solar technology through economies of scale. It's crucial that these financial solutions are inclusive, reaching marginalized communities and small-scale enterprises that often lack access to conventional banking services.

Moreover, addressing social challenges involves raising awareness, providing education, and engaging communities. Public outreach campaigns can help demystify solar technology and highlight its health, economic, and environmental benefits. Utilizing local networks, community leaders, and women's groups can enhance the effectiveness of these campaigns and build grassroots support for solar initiatives. Promoting gender equity in the renewable energy sector is also essential, with programs designed to empower women to participate in decision-making, access training and employment, and benefit from solar technology.

When it comes to technological barriers lastly, building local capacity and infrastructure to support the entire solar value chain—from manufacturing to installation and maintenance—is vital. This requires investing in vocational training and technical education to equip people with the necessary skills. Collaboration between research institutions, universities, and industry can drive innovation and develop solar solutions tailored to local needs. Governments should also implement quality assurance mechanisms and regulatory frameworks to ensure high standards for solar products and installations, including certification requirements and periodic inspections to eliminate substandard products. Addressing infrastructure and grid compatibility challenges requires investment in smart grid technologies, energy storage systems, and decentralized energy solutions which can help improve grid resilience, manage the variability of solar power, and extend electricity access to remote and off-grid communities. Digitalization and mobile technology can facilitate energy management and payment systems, enhancing the deployment of solar energy solutions. Regional cooperation and knowledge sharing can accelerate progress by leveraging best practices, expertise, and resources across borders, through joint research projects, technology transfer programs, and regional energy markets.

However, overcoming the barriers to solar panel adoption requires more than technical and financial interventions and instead calls for a shift in how we approach energy transitions which means challenging existing power structures and interests that favor fossil fuels and impede renewable energy uptake. Governments must show political will by enacting policies and regulatory frameworks that prioritize renewable energy investments, phase out fossil fuel subsidies, and foster

innovation and entrepreneurship in the solar sector. Empowering local communities to participate in energy decision-making processes ensures that solar projects are culturally appropriate, socially inclusive, and sustainable. It not only involves supporting decentralized energy systems, community-owned renewable energy projects, and participatory planning processes that prioritize local needs but also fostering a collaborative culture among stakeholders—governments, civil society, academia, and the private sector—which is essential to overcome silos, drive innovation, and achieve systemic change.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, while the adoption of solar panel technology in developing regions faces numerous economic, social, and technological challenges, there has been a notable, albeit slower, increase in its uptake compared to the West. This progress, although gradual, highlights the growing recognition of solar energy's potential to drive sustainable development. However, one of the key reasons behind the slower adoption rate is the prevalent approach of addressing these challenges with perspectives and experiences primarily drawn from the Global North. These foreign frameworks often fail to align with the unique socio-economic, cultural, and environmental contexts of the Global South. To accelerate the adoption of solar technology, it is imperative to develop localized and nuanced strategies that resonate with local realities. This entails fostering community-driven initiatives, enhancing local capacity and innovation, and integrating indigenous knowledge and practices into solar energy solutions. By shifting towards a more context-specific approach, tailored to the diverse needs and circumstances of developing regions, we can more effectively overcome the barriers to solar adoption and unlock its full potential to foster inclusive and sustainable development in the Global South.

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