

Solar PV and the Post-Labor Economy: Energy Abundance as a Foundation for Decentralized Prosperity

Introduction

Solar photovoltaic (PV) energy has entered a phase of unprecedented expansion. In recent years, global solar deployment has accelerated sharply, driven by plummeting costs and concerted policy support. This surge is not only transforming the energy sector but also creating conditions for broader economic paradigm shifts. **Post-Labor Economics (PLE)** is one such emerging framework, envisioning a future where human flourishing is detached from wage labor by leveraging automation and shared capital ownership. PLE's core pillars – **(1) decentralized ownership of productive assets, (2) full automation of necessary labor, and (3) expansion of economic agency** – align closely with trends in the solar revolution. Abundant, widely-distributed renewable energy is increasingly seen as a prerequisite for a post-labor economy in which machines do the work and the benefits are equitably shared. This report provides a rigorous analysis of global solar PV trends and their linkage to the PLE framework. It examines the quantitative growth of solar deployment (with emphasis on the 2023–2025 period and forecasts to 2030), the continuing decline in solar energy costs, and shifts toward distributed and community-owned energy models. It then analyzes how an **energy-abundant future underpinned by solar PV** can enable PLE's vision – from powering automation to enabling new ownership structures like cooperatives, “energy dividends,” community microgrids, and tokenized asset trusts that broaden economic participation. Risks and challenges – including supply chain concentration, grid integration hurdles, and ecological considerations – are discussed to temper optimism with pragmatism. Finally, the report sketches an aspirational scenario of a solar-backed post-wage social contract at scale, illustrating how society could be restructured when clean energy and automation liberate communities from labor precarity.

1. The Global Surge in Solar PV Deployment (2023–2025)

Solar power is now the fastest-growing energy source in the world, repeatedly shattering installation records. In 2024, the world installed an estimated **597 GW** of new solar capacity – a **33% increase** over the (already record) additions of 2023 ¹. This brought cumulative global solar PV capacity to roughly **2.2 TW by the end of 2024**, double the total just two years prior. To put this growth in perspective, annual solar additions have ballooned nearly **10-fold in a decade**, and more than doubled from 252 GW in 2022 to 597 GW in 2024 ². Solar PV accounted for the majority of new electricity-generating capacity worldwide in 2023–2024 – by some estimates about **63–75% of all capacity added in 2023** – outpacing all other energy sources (renewable and fossil) by a wide margin. This rapid scale-up has firmly established solar as a cornerstone of the global energy mix.

Several factors underlie this **accelerating deployment**. **Policy targets and climate commitments** have risen in ambition, spurring a “solar rush” as nations seek to decarbonize power grids. **Economies of scale in manufacturing**, led by China's massive investments, have driven down costs (as detailed in §2) and

alleviated supply bottlenecks. **Maturing business models** (e.g. power purchase agreements, feed-in tariffs, and auction systems) have reduced market risks, while innovative financing has opened solar investment to more players. The technology itself has improved – modern PV modules are more efficient and durable, with some exceeding 20–22% conversion efficiency, and combined with battery storage they can provide energy on demand. Moreover, **social acceptance** of solar is high; it is viewed as a clean, modular solution that can be deployed quickly without the fuel price volatility of fossil generation. Even challenges like supply chain disruptions and trade disputes have been weathered: after a spike in material costs in 2021–2022, the industry rebounded with *surplus manufacturing capacity* by 2023, resulting in a glut of panels and a buyer's market for developers.

China's dominance in solar deployment cannot be overstated. In 2024, China alone added approximately **329 GW** of solar – about **55% of the world's new installations that year**. This single-year addition in China exceeds the total cumulative solar capacity of the entire world as recently as 2016. Aggressive provincial targets, low-cost manufacturing, and integration of solar with energy storage have enabled China to consistently outpace all forecasts. Other regions also saw robust growth: the Americas expanded solar installations by ~40% in 2024 (led by the United States' ~50 GW additions), and India's market surged 145% to **30.7 GW in 2024** (up from 12.5 GW in 2023) as it races toward a national goal of 500 GW renewable capacity by 2030. **Europe** added a more modest 15% growth (around 30 GW in 2024, with Germany, Spain, and Türkiye leading), constrained somewhat by grid saturation and permitting delays. Nonetheless, the European Union's cumulative PV capacity reached ~338 GW in 2024 and is on track to far exceed its 2030 target (the EU's ambition for **600 GW solar by 2030 is now deemed "within reach"** given the current trajectory). Regions lagging in 2024 included the Middle East & Africa, where installations actually dipped – highlighting that growth is not uniform and is often contingent on supportive policy and grid readiness.

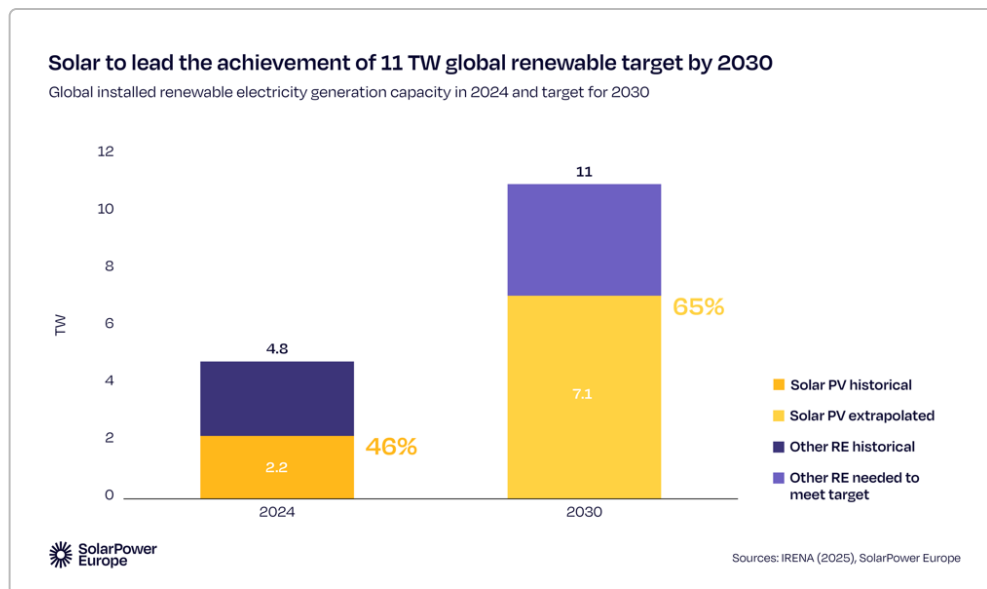


Figure 1: Solar PV's growing share in global renewable energy capacity. By the end of 2024, solar power represented roughly 46% of worldwide renewable generation capacity (2.2 TW of 4.8 TW total). Under ambitious growth scenarios, global solar capacity could exceed 7 TW by 2030, supplying ~65% of the total renewable capacity needed to hit an 11 TW target that year. This illustrates solar's central role in the clean energy transition.

Outlook to 2030: Institutional forecasts universally anticipate continued exponential growth in solar deployment through the decade, though projections vary in magnitude. The International Energy Agency (IEA) projects more than **4,000 GW of new solar capacity will be added globally by 2030** (2024–2030). In the IEA's *Renewables 2024* report, solar is expected to account for **~80% of all new renewable capacity** in that period, driving a total renewable capacity rise to ~11,000 GW by 2030. This implies global solar PV capacity on the order of **5 TW (or more) by 2030** – a nearly fivefold increase from 2024 levels. SolarPower Europe, an industry association, is even more bullish: their **Global Market Outlook 2025–2029** foresees the world *installing up to 1 TW of solar per year by 2030*, crossing **7 TW cumulative PV capacity by 2030** under a high-growth scenario ³. This scenario aligns with the international goal (announced at COP28) of roughly tripling global renewable capacity from 2020 levels; solar alone would contribute nearly two-thirds of the required expansion. BloombergNEF (BNEF) likewise predicts steep growth, with its analysts expecting **~700 GW of new PV in 2025**, rising to **~780 GW/year by 2027** as more markets hit grid parity and supply chains expand ⁴. If such growth is sustained, annual installations will approach 1 TW around 2030, consistent with the SolarPower Europe outlook. Figure 1 (above) illustrates one projection of solar's share in meeting a global 11 TW renewables target – underscoring that solar PV is now slated to carry the bulk of the clean energy build-out this decade.

It is important to note that **deployment could temporarily fluctuate** due to policy and market adjustments. For instance, China's national market reforms in 2025 are expected to cause a brief dip in its solar additions in 2026, and some **grid integration challenges** in other regions may slow project commissioning (see §5). However, the overall trajectory remains strongly upward. By 2030, **solar energy is on track to become the largest source of electricity capacity globally**, overtaking all fossil fuels in installed capacity. The **share of solar and wind in global electricity generation** is projected to roughly double from 2023 to 2030, meeting almost half of worldwide power demand by 2030. Such rapid changes in the energy landscape are historically unprecedented – representing a fundamental shift to decentralization and renewables that parallels the core tenets of PLE. In the sections below, we examine how the economics of solar (especially the cost declines enabling this growth) and the evolving ownership models around solar infrastructure feed into the vision of a post-labor economy.

2. Plummeting Costs and Evolving Solar Economics

Underpinning the solar boom has been a dramatic decline in costs. **Solar PV is now one of the cheapest sources of electricity in history**, with costs continuing to fall. The **levelized cost of electricity (LCOE)** for utility-scale solar has reached record lows of around **\$40 per MWh (4¢/kWh)** in 2023. According to BloombergNEF, the global benchmark LCOE for new solar projects in the second half of 2023 hit **\$41/MWh**, slightly below the previous low set in 2021. This represents a >90% cost reduction since 2009 and a **58–70% decline in the past decade alone**. By comparison, the LCOE of fossil fuel generation is often 2–3 times higher (even before carbon pricing) in many regions, meaning new solar outcompetes new coal or gas on pure economics in **countries representing over 80% of global electricity demand**. Even with recent interest rate rises (which increase financing costs), solar's technology-driven cost reductions have more than offset those headwinds.

Key drivers of these cost declines include:

- **Manufacturing Scale and Learning:** The solar industry has aggressively scaled up manufacturing capacity, especially in China. Gigantic new factories and process improvements have driven down the price of PV modules. The average price of standard silicon PV modules fell to **\$0.165 per watt in**

August 2023, an all-time low, and continued to drop toward \$0.14/W by late 2024. For context, module prices were well above \$1/W a decade ago; the steep “learning curve” (historically ~20% cost reduction for each doubling of cumulative production) remains intact or even steeper today. China’s dominance has been pivotal: by 2022, **China controlled over 80% of the entire solar PV manufacturing supply chain** – from polysilicon and wafers to cells and panels – leveraging massive state-supported investments to achieve unrivaled economies of scale. This has helped cut PV module costs by **over 80% since 2010**, making solar affordable worldwide (while also creating strategic dependencies, discussed in §5). In 2023, Chinese polysilicon capacity expansion led to a glut, causing polysilicon prices to collapse and module prices to *half* within 10 months. Such supply-side competition is keeping solar equipment cheap, though it has squeezed manufacturer margins.

- **Technological Improvements:** Solar cell efficiencies continue to improve incrementally (e.g. the rise of PERC, TOPCon and heterojunction cell technologies), extracting more power from the same sunlight. Better efficiencies and higher wattage panels mean balance-of-system costs (racking, wiring, labor) are spread over more kW, reducing overall project \$/W. **Design innovations** like bifacial panels (capturing light from both sides) and larger wafer formats have further lowered the \$/kWh. On the system side, **four-hour battery storage costs** dropped ~20% in 2023 with falling battery commodity prices, enabling solar-plus-storage plants that deliver dispatchable power at competitive costs. These trends collectively push solar’s effective cost per unit of energy ever lower and improve its value to the grid (by extending availability into evening peaks).
- **Finance and Scale of Projects:** The sheer scale of contemporary solar projects (with many utility-scale farms in the hundreds of MW to multi-GW range) yields economies in development and financing. Solar is now viewed by investors as a stable asset class – often **considered as safe as bonds or infrastructure** – attracting lower cost of capital. Government incentives (like the U.S. Inflation Reduction Act’s tax credits) also significantly bolster project economics. The result is that in many sunny regions, a developer can profitably sell solar power for <5 cents/kWh under long-term contracts, a price unthinkable two decades ago.

Crucially, **the cost trajectory is still downward**. The International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA) reported that in 2022 the global weighted-average cost of newly commissioned solar PV was 48% lower than in 2018, and BNEF expects further declines of ~2–4% annually for solar generation costs through the mid-2020s. Some of the newest projects in high-resource locations are bidding even lower: in China and the Middle East, utility solar bids have approached **\$20–30/MWh** (2–3¢/kWh) for midday power. BloombergNEF notes that *best-in-class* PV projects in China achieved an LCOE around **\$31/MWh** in 2023. Likewise, record-low auction prices in countries like Portugal, Saudi Arabia, and India signal that ultra-cheap solar is becoming routine, provided there is a competitive procurement environment.

From the perspective of PLE, these cost trends are vital. **Cheap, abundant energy is the “fuel” of automation and economic abundance**. The steep decline in solar (and battery) costs means that providing electricity to run robots, AI servers, electric vehicles, and other automated systems will be economically feasible at large scale. Analysts often call energy the “master resource” – with sufficient cheap energy, many material needs can be met (through desalination for water, synthesis of renewable fuels, recycling of metals, etc.). The solar revolution thus lays the groundwork for *material plenty*, which is a prerequisite for decoupling human well-being from human labor. Moreover, the decentralization of solar costs (a solar panel produces energy for 25+ years with very low operating cost) implies that once the upfront investment is made, communities or individuals can effectively own a stream of energy *income* with minimal ongoing

effort. In economic terms, solar PV turns capital expenditure into a long-term flow of valuable goods (electricity) with near-zero marginal labor – precisely the kind of dynamic needed for a post-labor system.

Shifts in Deployment Models: As costs have fallen and adoption widened, the **ownership and deployment patterns of solar are also shifting**. Early solar markets often saw heavy government or utility ownership (e.g. large utility-scale solar farms or feed-in-tariff driven installations owned by investors). Today, solar is increasingly **decentralized**, with diverse stakeholders owning generation capacity:

- **Utility-Scale vs Distributed:** Utility-scale projects (large solar farms feeding the grid) still account for the majority of new capacity by sheer volume, but distributed solar (rooftop and commercial systems on homes, businesses, community sites) is a fast-growing segment. The IEA expects about **40% of new solar additions through 2030 to be distributed PV** on residential/commercial rooftops or local grids. This trend is supported by policies like net metering, feed-in tariffs for small systems, and the desire of consumers to control their energy supply. In many countries (Germany, Australia, Japan), **tens of percent of households** now have solar on their roofs, fundamentally changing the traditional utility-customer model. **Community solar** projects have also emerged, allowing multiple customers (especially those who cannot install their own panels) to subscribe to or co-own a local solar farm and receive credits on their bills. According to industry reports, U.S. community solar capacity is set to quadruple from 2020 levels by 2025, illustrating the appetite for shared ownership models.
- **Corporate and Cooperative Ownership:** Large corporations have become major purchasers and owners of solar assets (through power purchase agreements and direct investments) to meet renewable energy targets – e.g. tech companies building solar plants to power data centers. Simultaneously, **energy cooperatives and municipal utilities** are increasingly investing in solar to supply their members or citizens. In Europe and parts of the U.S., citizen-owned energy co-ops finance projects via local shares or bonds, keeping profits in the community. For example, Oxfordshire's Low Carbon Hub in the UK has facilitated numerous community-owned solar installations funded by local shareholders. Such cooperative finance models ensure the *ownership of generation is decentralized*, not concentrated solely among large utilities.
- **Hybrid and Innovative Models:** Novel deployment models are being tried, such as **agrivoltaics** (dual-use of farmland for crops and solar), floating solar on reservoirs, and **microgrid-based solar systems** (see §4.1 and §4.3). In many developing regions, **off-grid solar home systems and microgrids** owned by the users are leapfrogging central grids, giving rural communities first-time access to electricity. These off-grid deployments are usually small scale but collectively significant in expanding energy access and grassroots asset ownership.

In summary, the solar energy landscape is characterized by *democratization*: millions of entities, from homeowners to startups to local governments, are becoming power producers. This contrasts with the fossil-fuel era where energy production was capital-intensive and dominated by a few corporate giants or state monopolies. As we discuss next, this decentralization of energy capital dovetails with PLE's emphasis on **broadly distributed ownership and economic agency**.

3. Energy Abundance as a Prerequisite for Post-Labor Economics

A core thesis of Post-Labor Economics is that human prosperity can be maintained and even expanded in a future with minimal human labor – *but only if* productivity is sustained through automation and plentiful resources. In essence, **technology (automation + energy) replaces labor as the engine of production**, and the fruits of that production are distributed in new ways (since wages will no longer be the primary mechanism). **Abundant clean energy is the lynchpin of this vision**. Without a virtually unlimited supply of cheap energy, automation would be constrained by operating costs and resource scarcity, making a fully post-labor economy infeasible. Conversely, if energy – the ability to perform work – is ubiquitous and near-zero cost, it becomes possible to automate **all necessary labor** (manufacturing, transportation, agriculture, services) and to provide a high baseline standard of living to everyone with minimal human input.

Solar PV (complemented by wind and other renewables) is the leading candidate to provide this **energy abundance**. Unlike fossil fuels, solar power is effectively *inexhaustible* on human timescales and globally distributed. Every hour the Earth receives more solar energy than human civilization uses in a year. The challenge has been harnessing it economically – a challenge now rapidly being overcome. If indeed on the order of 5–7 TW of solar and several more terawatts of wind are installed by 2030, and even greater growth beyond, we are looking at a world with **tens of thousands of terawatt-hours of cheap electricity available per year**. This is enough not only to run our current systems but to electrify transportation, heating, and many industrial processes, and to power new undertakings like direct air carbon capture or large-scale desalination – endeavors previously seen as prohibitively energy-intensive. In other words, **solar energy abundance could enable a post-scarcity economy for key commodities** (clean water, for example, via solar-powered desalination at scale, or food via energy-intensive vertical farming and synthetic fertilizers produced with green hydrogen).

David Shapiro's PLE framework explicitly highlights energy as a foundational layer. PLE aims to “*detach human flourishing from wage labor*” – essentially, to allow people to live decent lives regardless of formal employment. For this to happen, the basic necessities of life (electricity, food, shelter, healthcare, education) must be provided either free or at very low cost, and largely through automated means. Cheap renewable energy lowers the cost of all these necessities: it reduces electricity bills, enables low-cost heating/cooling, and can even lower water and food costs (through electrified supply chains). For instance, an automated farm powered by its own solar panels and electric machinery can produce food with minimal labor and no fuel costs, making the output cheaper and independent of human toil. Likewise, 3D printing or robotic manufacturing of houses using solar-powered machinery and local materials could sharply reduce housing costs. In a fully realized scenario, **energy becomes so inexpensive and plentiful that it ceases to be a limiting factor** – much as computational power or data storage have become effectively unlimited (and nearly free per operation) in the digital realm, enabling an explosion of AI and internet services. Solar PV is on track to do for energy what Moore's Law did for computing: deliver exponential capacity growth at decreasing unit cost, thereby *super-charging technological progress*.

Importantly, solar's modularity and distributive nature also ensure that energy abundance can be geographically widespread. Every region with sunlight (which is every inhabited region, to varying degrees) has the potential to generate its own power. This reduces the risk that energy abundance is confined to a few resource-rich nations (as happened with oil). Instead, even developing countries in sun-rich latitudes stand to benefit immensely. For example, much of Africa and South Asia have high solar irradiance and now see solar power as the key to leapfrogging into post-industrial development without the need for extensive fossil fuel infrastructure. The vision of PLE is inherently global and egalitarian – it's about *raising the floor* of

prosperity. Ubiquitous solar deployment aligns with that by potentially providing every community with a local, autonomous energy supply. In a PLE scenario, one could imagine **“universal energy access”** as a human right, akin to a public utility or commons. Some PLE proponents talk of **Universal Basic Services** (UBS) in addition to Universal Basic Income (UBI), meaning essentials like power, water, and connectivity are guaranteed. Solar makes UBS far more attainable because once panels are installed, the ongoing cost of providing electricity is extremely low.

Finally, energy abundance via solar is what powers the **“full automation of necessary labor,”** PLE’s second pillar. Automation – whether AI algorithms running server farms, robots operating factories, or autonomous vehicles delivering goods – all require energy as an input. Fossil-based energy cannot sustainably or affordably scale to power a fully automated civilization (both due to resource depletion and climate constraints), but solar (with storage) can. As Shapiro notes, if AI and robots become capable of displacing 80%+ of jobs, *“then it’s certainly smart enough to run utilities and businesses on our behalf”* – yet those AI systems and machines will in turn be running **on electricity**. Thus, cheap solar-derived electricity is the enabler that lets AI and robotics reach their full economic potential. Conversely, abundant AI/robotics increases the demand for electricity (data centers, robot fleets, etc.), creating a symbiotic loop: more solar enables more AI, which increases productivity and wealth; some of that wealth can be reinvested in further solar buildout, and so on. This positive feedback loop could rapidly accelerate the arrival of a post-labor economy – provided the institutional structures allow broad sharing of the benefits, as we examine next.

4. Linking Solar PV to the Pillars of Post-Labor Economics

Post-Labor Economics envisions a socioeconomic system where **capital and technology, rather than labor, are the primary productive forces**, and where individuals derive income and agency from shared ownership of those productive assets. Solar PV intersects with each of PLE’s three core pillars as follows:

4.1 Decentralized Ownership of Productive Assets (Energy as a Commons)

One of the most revolutionary aspects of the solar boom is the potential for **decentralized ownership**. Unlike fossil fuel plants, which are large, complex, and require centralized operation (hence typically owned by utilities or big investors), solar installations can be **modular and widely owned** – from a 5 kW rooftop system owned by a homeowner to a 5 MW community solar farm owned by a local cooperative. This democratization of energy production aligns perfectly with PLE’s goal of dispersing capital ownership throughout society.

In a post-labor economy, broad ownership of the “means of production” replaces wage income as the route to personal livelihood. Solar panels, while not traditionally thought of as “means of production” in the industrial sense, indeed produce one of the most critical inputs for all production: energy. Thus, owning solar-generating capacity can be a foundation for economic independence. If millions of households, communities, or cooperatives each own a slice of the energy infrastructure, then the wealth generated (in the form of electricity or revenue from its sale) is distributed to those owners rather than accumulating solely to corporate utilities. This concept is sometimes phrased as turning consumers into **“prosumers”** – producer-consumers who both take and supply power to the grid. It upends the one-way value flow of the old energy economy.

David Shapiro argues that **decentralized ownership is essential to maintaining economic agency in a future where jobs are scarce**. In his view, simply handing out UBI (universal basic income) might sustain

people's consumption, but it leaves them disempowered, dependent on a central authority's stipend. True agency comes from having a stake in productive capital – receiving income *as a right of ownership* and having a voice in how resources are used. Solar facilitates exactly this: “*It hit me like a ton of bricks – duh! Decentralized ownership!!*” Shapiro notes, suggesting mechanisms like **DAOs (decentralized autonomous organizations)**, **public trusts**, and **local cooperatives** as avenues for collective ownership of AI-driven companies and utilities. Imagine a **community-owned solar + storage microgrid** that provides a town's power: residents could each hold shares (perhaps via a DAO token) in the installation. They would receive dividends (in cash or energy credits) from the sale of surplus power, and collectively vote on expansion or management decisions. This is not speculative – pilot projects are underway. For instance, the village of **Hook Norton in England built a community-led microgrid** powering homes and EV chargers, funded by a community land trust issuing shares to local residents. Residents benefit through lower energy bills (the microgrid sells power at reduced rates) and potentially a return on investment, all while the community gains resilience and control. Similar models are proliferating: in the U.S., rural electric cooperatives (which already serve millions) are increasingly adding solar farms owned by their member-customers, and states are enabling community solar subscriptions such that even renters can own a piece of a solar project.

Community microgrids are a particularly relevant innovation at the nexus of solar and decentralized ownership. A community microgrid is a localized grid segment with its own generation (often solar PV) and storage, capable of disconnecting (“islanding”) and operating independently during outages or high-cost periods. Microgrids empower communities to *take control of their energy future*, improving reliability and self-sufficiency. They are often developed by community initiatives or in partnership with utilities. For example, in Highland Park, Michigan – a low-income city – local leaders are developing microgrids to cover most of the city's area, aiming to provide **clean, local energy and power critical services like electric buses** for residents. In these projects, the community often has ownership stakes or governance input, ensuring the benefits (lower costs, resilience) flow to the people rather than outside investors. High-end residential developments are also embracing solar microgrids for self-reliance; a California neighborhood of 200 homes by KB Home is fully solar-plus-battery microgrid-connected, touted as a model of self-reliant, efficient living (each home has solar and battery, and a central community battery provides backup). Whether in underserved communities or affluent ones, the pattern is the same: **local energy ownership increases**. The expansion of microgrids, virtual power plants (aggregated home solar-battery systems), and peer-to-peer energy trading platforms (often blockchain-based like Power Ledger or LO3's Brooklyn Microgrid) hints at a future where energy is managed as a **common-good network resource** with participants both contributing and consuming.

From a PLE standpoint, such grassroots ownership of solar assets is transformative. It means that as labor is automated away, people can still derive *income from capital* – in this case, energy capital. The concept of an “**energy dividend**” naturally emerges: every member of society could receive dividends from collectively owned renewable assets. Some visionaries propose formal programs for this. For instance, solar advocate Robert Stayton's book “*Solar Dividends*” argues for installing enough PV for every person such that the sale of electricity could fund a basic income. Stayton calculates that roughly **10 kW of solar per person** (on average globally) could generate a *universal basic income of around \$1,000 per month* if revenues were pooled. His idea is to literally give everyone ownership of panels (the panels pay for themselves and then provide profit). While ambitious, the logic is sound: “*Unlike oil, no one owns the sun... Instead of a few oligarchs making lots of money on oil, everyone would be making a modest amount on solar,*” he explains. Several pilot programs echo this approach on smaller scales. For example, some U.S. electric cooperatives send annual profit checks (patronage capital retirements) to their member-owners when the co-op does well – effectively sharing energy sector surplus as cash to citizens. In Alaska, the state's Permanent Fund (fueled by oil

revenues) pays yearly dividends to all residents; one can imagine a future where *national wealth funds built on renewable energy* do the same, providing an “energy UBI.” In a post-labor economy, such mechanisms could replace wages as the primary distribution of purchasing power.

Tokenized asset ownership is another promising tool for decentralizing solar wealth. Blockchain tokenization allows large assets (like a 100 MW solar farm) to be divided into thousands of fractional ownership tokens that anyone can buy. This lowers barriers to entry – **small investors can own a piece of big renewable projects**, gaining both returns and a governance voice. Several startups and utilities are launching tokenized green investments. For example, Spain’s Iberdrola tested a blockchain platform for customers to directly invest in local solar parks. The Italian utility Enel has explored tokenizing renewables on the Algorand blockchain. Platforms like Energy Web, WePower and Power Ledger facilitate trading and fractional ownership of green energy tokens. Tokenization can increase **liquidity and transparency** in renewable finance, helping drive more capital to projects. Crucially, it supports decentralization: tokens enable community members to literally own bits of solar farms or wind farms in their area, aligning investor interests with local consumers. Smart contracts can automate **dividend payouts from energy sales** to token holders, providing an autonomous way to distribute income. In a matured PLE system, one could imagine citizens holding diversified portfolios of “energy tokens” representing solar, wind, and storage facilities – a form of public wealth ownership but via market mechanisms. This would flip the current paradigm where energy infrastructure is often owned by distant shareholders or governments. Instead, ownership would be *democratized through digital trusts*, giving people direct stakes in the automated economy’s assets.

In summary, solar PV’s rise is not just an energy transition but an **ownership transition**: it enables a world where energy infrastructure is owned and governed by myriad small actors rather than a few central ones. This pillar supports PLE by giving people capital income (from energy) and decision-making power, mitigating the loss of agency that might come if AI and corporations otherwise controlled all productive assets.

4.2 Full Automation of Necessary Labor (Empowering AI and Robotics with Solar)

The second pillar of Post-Labor Economics is the **full automation of all labor that society considers “necessary”** – meaning the work required to meet everyone’s basic needs and maintain infrastructure. In a PLE scenario, **human labor becomes optional**, with machines and algorithms handling the essential production of goods and services. Achieving this pillar depends on advanced robotics, artificial intelligence, and systems engineering – but none of those function without energy. **Solar PV is the prime energy source envisioned to power a fully automated economy sustainably.**

Several linkages illustrate how solar undergirds automation:

- **Energy as the Bottleneck to Automation:** In many industries, it is already technically feasible to automate tasks, but doing so at scale may consume large amounts of energy. For example, consider vertical farms (indoor agriculture): Robots can handle planting and harvesting, and LED lights can replace sunlight, enabling high yields without human labor – but the trade-off is a big electric bill for lighting and climate control. If that electricity is costly or carbon-intensive, such automation is uneconomic or unsustainable. Now imagine that electricity is extremely cheap (thanks to massive solar overcapacity) and clean – vertical farms become viable everywhere, providing food with minimal human work. Similar logic applies to **manufacturing** (running entire lights-out factories

with robotic arms and 3D printers 24/7), **transportation** (autonomous electric vehicles/trucks delivering goods), and **services** (AI servers doing data analysis or VR tutoring). In all cases, **cheap solar-powered electricity lubricates the automation** – it reduces the marginal cost of running machines to trivial levels. This is why countries with abundant renewable energy potential (e.g. cheap solar in deserts or cheap hydro in mountains) are also exploring energy-intensive industries like green hydrogen production or AI data centers; they foresee energy enabling new automated industrial value chains.

- **Distributed Energy for Distributed Automation:** As labor automation spreads, it will not be confined to central factories. We will see automation at the household level (smart home systems, robot cooks/cleaners), at community levels (robotic local farms, autonomous maintenance drones), etc. Distributed solar synergizes with this by providing power *at the point of use*. A self-driving electric tractor on a farm could be charged by on-farm solar panels. A home robot could be powered by the homeowner's rooftop array. In essence, **solar allows every "node" of society to become a self-powered automated unit**. This reduces reliance on large power plants and grids, which could be chokepoints or single points of failure. Instead, power is as decentralized as the automation itself. The resilience of a PLE society increases – if each building has its own solar+storage and automation, it can function autonomously even if the wider grid or supply chains temporarily falter.
- **Lowering the Cost of Living via Automation + Solar:** PLE posits that with automation, the cost of goods and services can plummet (since human labor costs dominate many prices today). Yet energy has historically been a significant operating cost too. Solar's impact is to drive the cost of *energy-based inputs* toward zero as well. When both labor and energy costs are minimized, the cost of producing essentials approaches the cost of raw materials (which themselves might be abundant or recyclable). For example, consider construction: automated 3D printers can fabricate housing components, and electric robots can assemble them on site. If powered by on-site solar or very cheap grid electricity, the resulting home might be built at a fraction of today's cost. Automated electric vehicles, if charged by oversupply of midday solar (often solar farms now have to curtail excess generation at peak sun hours), could provide nearly free transport during those times. In sum, **solar-enabled automation can drastically reduce the real cost of living**, meaning that even a modest universal basic income or dividend (as discussed above) could afford a comfortable life. This dynamic is crucial for PLE's viability: if automation simply made things without making them affordable to all, the social problem wouldn't be solved. But if automation plus cheap energy makes essentials essentially free or very low-cost, then the decoupling of income from labor becomes far more tenable.
- **Automation of the Energy Sector Itself:** A fully automated economy requires even the production of energy to be automated and self-sustaining. Solar excels here as well. Sunlight and semiconductor physics do the "work" of power generation, with minimal human oversight. Large solar farms can be cleaned by autonomous cleaning robots, monitored by drones, and controlled by AI for optimal performance. Battery storage systems likewise can be managed by software. Thus, the energy sector – which underpins all other sectors – can reach near-labor-free operation. Contrast this with fossil fuels: oil and gas extraction, coal mining, etc., are labor-intensive and dangerous. Eliminating human labor from energy production via renewables is a double win (improving safety and freeing workers for other pursuits). Some analyses suggest that as we approach 100% renewable grids, we might also see **fully automated grid operations** using AI for balancing supply/demand, autonomous grid maintenance robots, etc. In a PLE world, one could envision an entirely

autonomous energy infrastructure that requires almost no human intervention yet provides reliable power everywhere.

- **AI and Energy Symbiosis:** Advanced AI, particularly machine learning, often requires significant computing power – and thus energy – for training algorithms and running servers (data centers currently consume a few percent of global electricity). Solar can supply green energy for these needs, ensuring AI development isn't constrained by power or generating emissions. Meanwhile, AI can improve solar operations (through predictive maintenance, smart inverters, weather forecasting for solar output, etc.). This symbiosis means as solar spreads, AI can spread, and vice versa. Crucially, PLE is predicated on very powerful AI performing many intellectual tasks; having ample renewable energy ensures we can scale AI systems (and the digital services they provide) without hitting an energy ceiling or incurring environmental costs that might slow adoption.

In summary, solar PV **empowers the automation revolution** by furnishing the low-cost, clean energy that robots and AI require. It is the foundation for running an economy where *machines do all necessary work*. Each factory robot or autonomous vehicle effectively has a long “extension cord” back to a solar farm or rooftop panel soaking up photons. The cheaper and more widespread those panels are, the more machines we can run and the more human labor we can replace. This is why PLE treats renewable energy as non-negotiable – a post-labor society cannot run on expensive or polluting energy, otherwise the economics and environmental impacts would undermine the benefits of automation. Solar provides a path to scale up energy supply in tandem with automation, both feeding and being fed by technological advances. With solar-driven automation, we move closer to what some futurists dub “*fully automated luxury communism*” or “*economic utopia*” – not in the political sense, but in the sense that luxury (abundant goods, services, creative time) is made possible for all without labor exploitation, courtesy of sunlight and machines.

4.3 Expansion of Economic Agency and Inclusion

The third pillar of PLE is the **expansion of economic agency** – ensuring that individuals have the ability to shape their economic lives, make choices, and participate meaningfully in the economy, even when they are not needed as workers. In other words, it's about avoiding a scenario where automation creates a passive population that merely consumes a government-provided stipend with no say in production or investment. Instead, PLE envisions empowered citizens who co-own and co-decide on economic matters, breaking down the traditional division between capital owners and everyone else.

Solar PV contributes to this expansion of agency in multiple ways:

- **Agency through Ownership and Governance:** As discussed in §4.1, when people collectively own solar installations (be it via co-ops, shares, or tokens), they gain not just income but also a vote – a voice in decisions such as setting electricity prices, choosing new projects, or reinvesting profits. This is a form of economic agency: individuals are not just consumers at the mercy of monopoly utilities; they are stakeholders who can influence outcomes. For instance, members of a solar cooperative often democratically elect a board and decide how to allocate surplus (e.g. return it as dividends or invest in more capacity or community programs). This participatory element can be carried over to other automated enterprises in PLE. Energy co-ops are thus a training ground for broader **economic democracy**. They imbue a sense of ownership and responsibility in citizens – qualities that PLE values as part of a new social contract where people engage as *owners and decision-makers* rather

than as employees or welfare recipients. The proliferation of community energy projects and local microgrids is building the institutional know-how for such participatory economics on a wider scale.

- **Energy Dividends and UBI for Autonomy:** Financial security is a prerequisite for agency. Someone preoccupied with basic survival has little capacity to exercise higher economic choices. By providing an income floor through energy dividends or related mechanisms, solar can free individuals from precarity. For example, if each person receives monthly credits or cash from the community solar trust or national renewable fund, they have a cushion to pursue education, entrepreneurship, artistic endeavors, caregiving, or civic activism – forms of agency that a 9-to-5 grind for survival might stifle. We see small examples already: villages in Kenya with solar microgrids report that affordable electricity allows residents to start small businesses (e.g. running machine tools or refrigeration) and improve local incomes. On a systemic level, Shapiro notes that **UBI alone can rob agency if it's overly paternalistic**, but if coupled with ownership (like everyone owning solar panels that produce the UBI) it retains agency. The act of receiving an “energy check” tied to actual production fosters a mindset of earned income rather than charity, even if one didn't personally labor for it. It psychologically and materially positions individuals as beneficiaries of a collective productive asset – arguably a more empowering identity than that of a welfare recipient. Over time, such an arrangement could build public support for maintaining and expanding common assets (since everyone directly benefits), reinforcing a virtuous cycle of inclusion.
- **Lower Barriers to Participation:** Solar energy's decentralization means that more people can directly participate in the energy economy. Whether by installing a few panels at home, investing in a community project, or adjusting consumption in response to price signals (demand response), the energy transition invites engagement at all levels. Contrast this with the fossil fuel economy, where participation is largely limited to paying your bill or perhaps buying oil company stocks; the complexity and scale of thermal generation excluded most from direct involvement. With solar, a neighborhood can rally to put panels on their school, a farmer can host a small solar farm, or an entrepreneur can start a solar installation business with relatively low capital. This broad participation enhances overall economic agency, as people feel they can influence and benefit from the energy transition, not just be subjected to it. In a PLE context, similar participatory ethos could extend to other sectors (e.g. local manufacturing labs, platform cooperatives for online services, etc.), with energy being the trailblazer.
- **Community Wealth Building:** Earnings from local solar projects often recirculate in the community – for example, a town's community solar farm might lower all participants' bills, effectively increasing disposable income locally, or pay lease fees to landowners and taxes to the town that fund public goods. This anchors wealth in communities rather than extracting it to distant shareholders. It also lets communities set priorities: a community might choose to use solar revenues to fund a repair cafe, a local broadband network, or other community development, according to local democratic decisions. This agency at the community scale is critical in PLE, which must work not just at the national level but bottom-up. **Agency expands when communities feel ownership of assets and outcomes.** Solar projects have in many places been the first foray of communities into owning infrastructure, and success there builds confidence to tackle other initiatives (some energy co-ops have branched into offering internet service, or running electric vehicle car-shares, etc., thereby multiplying community agency).

- **Technological Literacy and Empowerment:** The spread of rooftop solar and home batteries is also an expansion of agency in a technological sense: households are now active managers of technology (monitoring their power generation, optimizing usage, etc.) rather than passive utility customers. As home energy management systems (often AI-driven) become common, people gain familiarity with automation in daily life. In a post-labor world, this comfort with intelligent systems and willingness to have technology work *for us* is important. There's a narrative where automation could disempower individuals (if complex systems are opaque and controlled by a few). But the more people have direct experiences with beneficial automation (like a smart inverter that maximizes their solar savings, or a home AI that handles chores), the more they can trust and shape those systems. Solar thus serves as a relatively benign introduction to living with autonomous systems, paving the way for wider adoption of labor-saving technologies with public buy-in.

In essence, **solar PV's growth, especially under community-oriented models, acts as a laboratory for the PLE social contract.** It shows that distributed technology can bring material benefits while increasing local control and engagement. It challenges the idea that "bigger is better" or that only centralized systems are efficient. And it educates a generation in cooperative economics and sustainability, which are likely to be pillars of any post-labor society. The end-goal of PLE – a society where individuals have **the freedom to pursue education, creativity, leisure, and social contributions** without the compulsion of wage labor – requires that people feel *empowered* rather than *estranged* from the economic engine. Solar's integration into communities is a stepping stone toward that empowerment, rooting the grand concept of PLE in concrete projects and experiences today.

5. Challenges and Risks on the Path

For all its promise, the convergence of solar expansion and post-labor economics faces significant **challenges and potential failure modes.** It is crucial to acknowledge these, both to temper unrealistic utopian expectations and to devise strategies that mitigate risks. Key concerns include:

- **Centralization of Supply Chains:** Ironically, while solar enables decentralized ownership at the user level, its manufacturing supply chain today is *highly centralized*. As noted, **China dominates over 80% of global PV module manufacturing and key material processing.** This concentration poses geopolitical and resiliency risks. A disruption in China's factories (due to trade disputes, geopolitical conflict, or internal issues) could choke the global supply of panels. It also means much of the value-added and jobs in manufacturing accrue to one country. If not addressed, this could replicate the old pattern of wealth concentration, only with silicon replacing oil. Efforts are underway to diversify manufacturing – e.g. new factories in India, the U.S., Europe spurred by incentives – but building a globally distributed manufacturing base will take time and policy support. *Supply chain centralization also raises ethical issues:* for instance, allegations of forced labor in polysilicon plants in Xinjiang led to import bans by some countries. Such issues, if unresolved, not only contradict PLE's ethical aims but could slow solar deployment via sanctions or public backlash. **Mitigation:** Policymakers need to invest in supply chain resilience – diversifying sources, recycling materials (to reduce raw resource dependency), and ensuring ethical standards. An encouraging sign is that by 2025, global manufacturing capacity for solar modules is expected to reach ~1 TW per year, distributed across more countries, which should ease single-point failure risks. Furthermore, new technologies (like perovskite solar cells) might disrupt the current supply dominance if they can be produced in decentralized ways (e.g. printed roll-to-roll manufacturing in many local factories).

- **Interconnection and Grid Integration Gatekeeping:** As renewable deployment accelerates, **electrical grids are struggling to keep up**. In many regions, there are long queues of solar projects waiting for grid interconnection – for example, in the U.S. some new projects face **5–10 year delays for approval and grid hookup**. Grid operators, often monopolies or state entities, can become bottlenecks, either due to genuine technical constraints or outdated regulations. *Gatekeeping* can occur if utilities impose restrictive rules or excessive fees on connecting rooftop solar or community microgrids, in an effort to protect their traditional business models. Without reforms, this could stifle the very decentralization that PLE relies on. Already, in some places utilities have lobbied to roll back net metering or add fixed charges to solar owners, discouraging distributed PV. Additionally, lack of grid investments leads to curtailment – e.g. California sometimes has to curtail (turn off) significant solar output due to midday oversupply and insufficient transmission. If grids remain inflexible, the vision of abundant energy might be undercut by frequent curtailment or instability. **Mitigation:** Regulatory and policy changes are needed to modernize grid management. Streamlining permitting and interconnection processes is critical – as the Global Solar Council notes, we must “*enhance grid flexibility, adapt policies to variable renewables, prioritize storage, and streamline permitting and grid-connection*” to allow solar’s continued growth. Investment in smart grids, energy storage, and transmission can alleviate bottlenecks. Another strategy is **grid decentralization** itself – i.e., building more microgrids and using technologies like blockchain for peer-to-peer trading, so that local solar can be consumed locally without always needing central approval. Governments and regulators need to ensure that incumbent utilities do not unfairly obstruct these innovations. In a PLE framework, one might even consider treating grid access as a commons, not a corporate gate – similar to how the internet is governed by open protocols ensuring any node can connect (with appropriate technical standards).
- **Potential for Recentralization of Ownership:** While solar *can* be decentralized, it isn’t guaranteed. If left purely to market forces, it’s possible that the majority of solar capacity ends up owned by large corporations (e.g. big energy companies, asset funds) who deploy massive solar farms. This is already happening to an extent – oil & gas majors are investing in renewables, and institutional investors buy up solar farms as stable assets. In such a scenario, the benefits of solar (cheap energy, revenues from selling power) might flow primarily to these owners, not to the general populace, thereby **exacerbating inequality instead of alleviating it**. We could wind up with a techno-feudal outcome: a handful of entities own all the AI, robots, and solar farms, and everyone else is dependent on their largesse (UBI or jobs). That clearly is a failure mode relative to PLE’s ideals. **Mitigation:** Public policy and community activism can influence the ownership structure. For example, governments can reserve a share of new renewable projects for community ownership or require that utilities offer programs for customers to own slices of projects. Financial innovations like crowdfunding platforms and green bonds can enable local financing of renewables so that local investors get in. If PLE thinking gains traction, one could even imagine public trusts that use tax money or central bank digital currency issuance to buy out and socialise some renewable assets – basically, ensuring some baseline of common ownership. The key is to avoid an outcome where automation and solar simply reinforce the current concentration of capital.
- **Ecological and Resource Constraints:** Solar PV, while far cleaner than fossil fuels in operation, is not impact-free. Scaling to multi-terawatt capacity requires substantial **materials and land**. Each PV panel contains glass, aluminum, silicon, and small amounts of silver, copper, etc. There are concerns that certain materials could become limiting – for instance, silver is used for cell metallization, and some studies warn that *if PV growth is too rapid without technological change, it could consume a*

significant share of the world's silver supply. Mining and refining these materials have environmental impacts and energy costs (though manufacturers are already reducing silver usage and exploring alternatives like copper paste). Land use is another issue: utility-scale solar farms need large areas, which can conflict with agriculture or ecosystems if not managed carefully. Desert ecosystems, for example, could be disrupted by huge solar arrays; community opposition can arise if scenic lands are covered. Additionally, **end-of-life panel waste** will surge in coming decades. By 2050, it's estimated that **solar panel waste could total 60–78 million tons per year globally** as old installations get replaced. Without robust recycling, this could become a toxic e-waste problem (panels contain small amounts of lead, etc.). If these ecological issues are mishandled, they could slow the solar rollout or cause new environmental crises, undermining the sustainability premise of PLE. **Mitigation:** Continuous innovation is reducing material intensity (e.g. thinner wafers, frameless panels, higher efficiency means fewer panels for same output). Recycling technology for PV is improving; by recovering glass, aluminum, and semiconductor materials, we can create a circular supply chain. Some countries (e.g. EU) already mandate PV recycling and producer responsibility. On land use, dual-use approaches like agrivoltaics (combining solar with farming or pollinator habitats) and installing on built environments (roofs, parking canopies, brownfields) can minimize conflict. Offshore and floating solar can also expand capacity without using land. In summary, while materials and ecology pose challenges, they appear manageable with foresight – especially given that the *alternative* of continuing fossil fuel reliance would wreak far worse climate and ecological havoc, which itself would destroy the foundations of a prosperous post-labor society.

- **Geopolitical and Macro-Economic Shifts:** The transition to solar-centric energy will upend geopolitical balances that have long revolved around oil & gas. Countries that are fossil-fuel-dependent (either as producers or importers) will face economic disruption. Petrostates might resist the transition or experience instability as revenues fall. Trade patterns will change – perhaps new tensions over access to critical minerals for renewables, or over intellectual property for advanced solar tech. There is a risk that great power competition could slow down the global cooperation needed to achieve a smooth transition (for example, if trade wars limit the diffusion of cheaper solar tech, or if countries view energy independence in nationalist terms and underinvest in cross-border grid infrastructure). Furthermore, the macro-economic underpinnings of PLE – such as using energy dividends or sovereign wealth funds – require enlightened governance. In a negative scenario, governments might fail to implement the policies that share the gains, leading to social unrest or lopsided outcomes. **Mitigation:** International frameworks and dialogues (like those under the Paris Agreement, or the International Renewable Energy Agency) aim to ensure a collaborative approach to the energy transition, including support for developing nations to adopt solar. Diversification of economies for petrostates (investing oil profits now into renewables and other sectors) is being encouraged. The more solar is recognized as a **global public good**, the more likely it is that knowledge transfer and equitable deployment will be prioritized over narrow interests. Maintaining peace and open trade is also critical – a decoupling of East-West spheres in cleantech would make PLE goals harder to reach everywhere. On the governance front, it will take active civil society pressure to push governments toward policies like UBI, public ownership stakes in automation, and antitrust measures against tech monopolies, to ensure the automated, solar-powered economy benefits the many. PLE-oriented thinkers are already engaging policymakers with ideas (e.g. universal basic dividend from automation taxes or energy profits). This intellectual groundwork needs to translate into pilot policies soon, to pre-empt the risks of an unmanaged transition.

In summary, while **the marriage of solar energy and post-labor economics is promising, it is not automatic**. Deliberate choices are required to navigate pitfalls. The next decade (2025–2035) will be particularly telling: it will determine whether solar’s growth continues at pace and how the spoils of that growth are allocated. If we address supply chain and grid issues, promote inclusive ownership, and steward the environment wisely, solar can indeed be the linchpin of a sustainable, equitable post-labor future. If not, we could see either a stalled transition or one that exacerbates inequality – scenarios where the PLE vision would falter. As with any transformative change, **technology opens the door, but human institutions must walk through it**. The following section paints an aspirational picture of walking through that door successfully.

6. A Solar-Backed Post-Wage Social Contract at Scale: An Aspirational Vision

Imagine a world in the year 2040, where the foundations laid in the 2020s have matured into a new socio-economic reality. The global community has largely achieved its climate and energy goals: fossil fuels have been relegated to niche uses, and renewable energy, spearheaded by solar PV, dominates every region. In this scenario, humanity operates under a **new social contract – a post-wage social contract – in which the linkage between one’s work and one’s right to a decent life has been fundamentally redefined**.

Energy Commons and Universal Dividends: By 2040, roughly 20 TW of solar PV is installed worldwide alongside extensive wind, hydro, and geothermal resources. This generates an abundance of electricity far exceeding the world’s 2040 energy demand for basic needs. Many countries, through public trusts or cooperative federations, have declared a portion of this critical infrastructure as part of the commons. For example, a “Global Solar Cooperative” might manage 1 TW of capacity spread across solar farms in various countries, funded initially by an alliance of governments. The output from this cooperative is sold on energy markets and the profits funneled into a **Universal Energy Dividend (UED)**. Every human on Earth receives a modest monthly income from the UED, reflecting their share as co-owner of the planetary renewable commons. Though modest, it covers fundamental needs when combined with free essential services. In parallel, many communities have local energy dividends: the town microgrid that sells surplus power and uses it to eliminate residents’ utility bills and fund local schools and healthcare clinics. With energy costs virtually zero for individuals, and a UED supplementing their income, **no one is forced to work just to afford electricity, heat, or water** – these are guaranteed. This echoes how Alaska’s oil fund once paid citizens – but now it’s a solar fund paying the “sunshine dividend” in a sustainable way.

Automated Abundance of Goods and Services: Nearly all essential production is automated. Farms are run by fleets of solar-powered robots and AI systems that handle planting, irrigation, and harvesting with precision. Manufacturing of consumer goods happens in fully automated factories (often located close to demand thanks to cheap power and robotics, reversing offshoring trends). Construction of infrastructure is done by autonomous machines, from 3D-printed buildings to robot-assembled solar farms. The energy to run this automated economy is almost entirely renewable – vast solar arrays in deserts produce green hydrogen that fuels high-temperature industrial processes; every factory roof and parking lot is covered in PV feeding onsite battery systems. With human labor needs drastically reduced, **the work week for humans has officially been reduced to, say, 15 hours**, and many people choose not to engage in formal employment at all beyond that. Society recognizes myriad forms of non-wage contribution: caring for family, community volunteering, artistic creation, learning – these are all supported and honored as valid pursuits, no longer luxuries reserved for a few.

Economic Agency and Participatory Governance: Freed from survival labor, citizens exercise agency in novel ways. They are members of various “**citizen stakeholder assemblies**” that oversee key automated sectors. For example, there might be a local Energy Assembly that meets (in person or virtually) to deliberate on proposals: Should we build another solar farm on the east hill? Should our community battery reserve more capacity for emergencies? These assemblies are empowered to make real decisions, often advised by AI simulations on outcomes. On larger scales, national assemblies might govern the allocations of sovereign automation funds – for instance, deciding how much of the national robotics dividend to devote to education vs healthcare vs increasing the UED. **Democracy has extended into the economic realm:** instead of just electing politicians, people directly vote on or even help program the algorithms that manage resources. This was made possible by decades of building trust through smaller scale cooperatives (like those early solar co-ops) and the transparency afforded by blockchain and open data on resource flows.

Education, Creativity, and Care as Focal Activities: With material sustenance decoupled from jobs, education and personal development become lifelong endeavors for much of the populace. Universities (physical and online) are filled with adults of all ages exploring sciences, arts, and trades, not for a credential to earn a living, but for personal fulfillment and community benefit. There is a flourishing of creativity – music, literature, research – akin to a new Renaissance, supported by patronage systems funded in part by automation dividends. People form “creative co-ops” that produce everything from video games to biomedical research, often supported by public grants acknowledging that these efforts enrich humanity. Many also choose to spend time in **care work** – raising children, caring for the elderly, mentoring youth – activities once undervalued or squeezed in after work hours, now central to societal values. Because basic income is assured, such caring roles are socially and financially supported (via stipends or time credits), not seen as burdens.

Safety Nets and Adaptation: Of course, this society still faces challenges – not everyone thrives equally in a life without traditional work structures. The transition period saw some turmoil: as jobs rapidly automated in the 2030s, governments had to intervene robustly with retraining, public employment guarantees in the interim, and cultural campaigns to emphasize that one’s job does not equal one’s value. Mental health services expanded to help people find purpose and community outside the workplace identity. But by 2040, a new culture has taken root. The question “What do you do?” is no longer primarily answered with an occupation, but perhaps with “I’m a gardener and musician” or “I help run our neighborhood FabLab and also coach soccer.” The social esteem once attached to high-paying careers has shifted to esteem for contributions to community and creativity. This cultural shift was crucial – and it was aided by the tangible reality that *no one fears destitution*; the combination of universal basic dividends and free public services (like housing in repurposed buildings, plentiful solar-powered public transport, etc.) means basic needs are met unconditionally.

Environmental Regeneration: The massive deployment of solar and other clean tech, combined with reduced consumption waste (people value sustainability now that production is optimized for needs, not corporate profit), has dramatically cut carbon emissions and pollution. Many regions have achieved carbon negativity by using excess renewable energy to sequester carbon (via direct air capture or ecosystem restoration). Automated systems also help clean up oceans and recycle materials. The climate, while still warmer than preindustrial, is stabilizing, and some formerly climate-stressed communities are rebuilding with the help of resilient microgrids and automated construction of sea walls or shade canopies. Ecological indicators are improving as the economy is now largely circular: by 2040, *almost all solar panels are recycled* at end-of-life in automated facilities, recovering materials for new panels, avoiding the earlier feared waste

crisis. Mining of virgin resources has plummeted because abundant energy allows efficient recycling and even mining landfills for old materials. This synergy of solar abundance and circular manufacturing showcases how technology can align with environmental healing, which is a foundation for long-term human flourishing beyond labor.

Global Equity and Collaboration: Internationally, the gap between rich and poor regions has narrowed somewhat, thanks in part to solar's ubiquity. Many developing countries that lacked fossil resources leapt ahead with solar and now even export clean energy (via hydrogen or high-voltage lines) or energy-intensive products. A *Global Energy Dividend* (like the UED) ensures that even the least developed regions receive some benefit from the collective solar infrastructure – essentially a form of global basic income financed by the productivity of automation. This was negotiated in UN forums as part of climate reparations and development goals. It recognizes that the sun falls on all nations and thus a portion of solar wealth is shared as a human inheritance. As a result, extreme poverty has greatly reduced – villages in Sub-Saharan Africa have microgrids and water desalination units, all run by solar and maintained by largely automated systems, overseen by trained local technicians (one of the few in-demand human jobs early on was installing and maintaining these systems, until even that became more automated with drone-based maintenance). There is still politics and friction in the world, but wars over oil are a thing of the past, and energy autarky has made trade more about optional goods and knowledge exchange than survival needs.

Personal Autonomy and Time: Perhaps the most palpable change at the individual level is the sense of *freedom of time*. The average person in 2040 spends their days quite differently than in 2020. A morning might involve a few hours tending a community garden (more hobby than necessity, but provides fresh produce and social bonding), midday might involve learning or creative work (taking a class, writing a novel, contributing to an open-source project), and later in the day they might participate in a local assembly meeting or volunteer to mentor youth. Automation quietly hums in the background to ensure that when one flicks a light switch or opens a tap, the service is there – nobody needs to think about the labor that made it possible, much like few thought about the exact workings of the grid or the food supply chain before, except now those run almost entirely emission-free and without exploitation. If one *chooses* to work in a traditional sense (say, as a researcher or designer or artisan), they do so out of passion or for additional income that allows more luxury (some folks still like fancy cars or bespoke fashion, and luxury markets exist, though they too are often automated in production). **Crucially, the stigma around not having a formal job is gone.** Society doesn't label the non-employed as "unproductive"; with automation producing abundance, the concept of "full employment" has been retired as anachronistic. What matters is *participation* – in family, community, democracy, and self-actualization – not "productivity" as measured by hours worked. This reflects a profound shift in values, arguably as significant as the end of serfdom or other past social transformations.

This aspirational snapshot of 2040 illustrates one path of how the **solar-powered, post-labor economy** could coalesce. It is, of course, an idealized vision – reality may unfold differently, with more complexity and setbacks. Yet, it is grounded in trends visible today: the exponential growth of solar PV and renewables, the relentless march of automation and AI, the experiments in cooperative ownership, and the policy discourse around basic income and new metrics of well-being. Each year that solar installations beat records and robots get more capable, the plausibility of such a future increases. The task now is to guide these trends with wisdom and inclusivity so that, as John Maynard Keynes imagined in 1930, "*we are able to use the bounty of nature [and machines] for the welfare of all, so that the economic problem may be solved, and we can devote our energies to non-economic purposes.*"

Conclusion

The accelerating global deployment of solar photovoltaics is far more than a clean energy success story – it is a cornerstone of a possible civilizational shift. By furnishing humanity with abundant, low-cost, democratized energy, solar PV creates the necessary conditions to **decouple prosperity from labor** and to reimagine economic relations along the lines of Post-Labor Economics. In this report, we surveyed how recent solar trends (record capacity additions, plunging costs, and diversification of ownership) provide the empirical momentum towards that vision. We presented quantitative evidence of solar’s rise – hundreds of gigawatts being added annually, terawatts on the horizon – and how institutions like the IEA and SolarPower Europe foresee multi-terawatt scales by 2030. This growth, underpinned by an 80%+ decline in costs over the last decade, makes feasible the abundant energy supply needed for widespread automation.

We then linked solar’s unique attributes to the pillars of PLE: (1) **Decentralized ownership** is exemplified by the proliferation of community solar, cooperatives, and even proposals for universal solar dividends – mechanisms that turn energy infrastructure into broadly held wealth. (2) **Full automation of labor** is energized by cheap solar power, enabling robots and AI to perform tasks at scale without economic or carbon constraints, hastening the day when human labor in drudgery is obsolete. (3) **Expansion of economic agency** is fostered by models where people gain income, governance rights, and local benefits from solar projects, preserving their agency in an automated world rather than reducing them to passive recipients. We also explored innovative concepts like energy-backed currencies, tokenized renewable assets, and microgrid communities as building blocks of the PLE economy – all pointing to a future where technology empowers rather than alienates.

However, this report also underscores that **realizing the PLE vision is not automatic**. Key risks – from the current centralization of solar manufacturing in one country, to regulatory bottlenecks that could slow grid integration, to questions of who owns the robots and panels – will determine whether solar becomes a liberating commons or just another profit center for the few. The path to a post-labor economy must be intentionally guided by policy and societal choice. Strategies such as diversifying supply chains, reforming grid regulations, promoting cooperative business models, instituting universal dividends, and rigorously addressing environmental impacts (like panel recycling) are all needed to steer the outcome towards equity and sustainability.

In conclusion, the marriage of the solar revolution with Post-Labor Economics offers a credible and inspiring route to address some of the 21st century’s greatest challenges: climate change, inequality, and the future of work. Solar PV has already proven its ability to transform our energy system; leveraged in the PLE framework, it could help transform our economic system to one where **prosperity is decoupled from toil and shared by all**. A solar-powered post-wage social contract is no longer a utopian daydream but a tangible possibility visible on the horizon – if we have the wisdom to seize it. As the sun rises each day, so too does the opportunity to build an economy where technology and energy serve humanity’s highest aspirations, freeing us from want and enabling us to flourish in creative freedom. The decisions we make in this decade will determine whether that sunrise blooms into the daytime of a truly post-labor era, powered by the virtually limitless energy of the sun and the collective endeavor of humankind.

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(Additional sources and citations are embedded in text as per reference numbers.)

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