

Lecture 16: Photovoltaic Components and Systems

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KIT Focus Optics & Photonics





- Simplest system consists only PV module, a battery, and load.
- Since internal resistance of PV module is very small \Rightarrow battery discharges through PV module if solar irradiance is low
- Can avoid such reverse currents by placing a "blocking diode" between PV module and battery, but this diode causes permanent a permanent loss

$$P_{\rm L,diode} = I_{\rm PV} \cdot V_{\rm D}$$

 $I_{\rm L}$ diode I_{PV} Hence diodes with Solar low forward voltages generator I_{Bat} V_{C1} $V_{\rm D}$ (e.g. Schottky diode, Rechargeable $V_D \sim 0.55$ V) often used V_{PV} V_{Bat} battery Load V_{C2}

Blocking



Cables cause further losses: a connection cable with cross-section A, specific resistance ρ and cable lengths l₁ and l₂ for the cables from PV module generator to battery and back, respectively, causes following losses:

$$P_{\rm L,cable} = I_{\rm PV} \cdot (V_{\rm C1} + V_{\rm C2}) = I_{\rm PV}^2 \cdot (R_{\rm C1} + R_{\rm C2}) = I_{\rm PV}^2 \cdot \frac{\rho}{A} \cdot (l_1 + l_2)$$

- Copper cable (ρ_{Cu} =0.0175 Ω .mm²/m) with cable length $l_1 = l_2 = 10m$, cross-sectionial area = 1.5 mm² and a current $l_{PV} = 6 \text{ A}$ causes cable losses of $P_{L,cable} = 8.4 \text{ W}$
- Assuming the PV module can produce 100 W, the cable losses + blocking diode losses of 3.3 W are considerable at 12%!



- To minimize losses, cables should:
 - i. be as short as possible and,
 - ii. have large cable cross-sectional area large
- For a 12V battery system, a voltage drop of 3%, or 0.35 V, is acceptable in the cables from the PV module to the battery and 7%, or 0.85 V, from battery to load. Here, the cable cross-section must therefore be 6 mm²
- For higher power systems , losses can be reduced if batteries are connected in series ⇒ increases battery voltage and decreases current flow ⇒ thus losses reduced

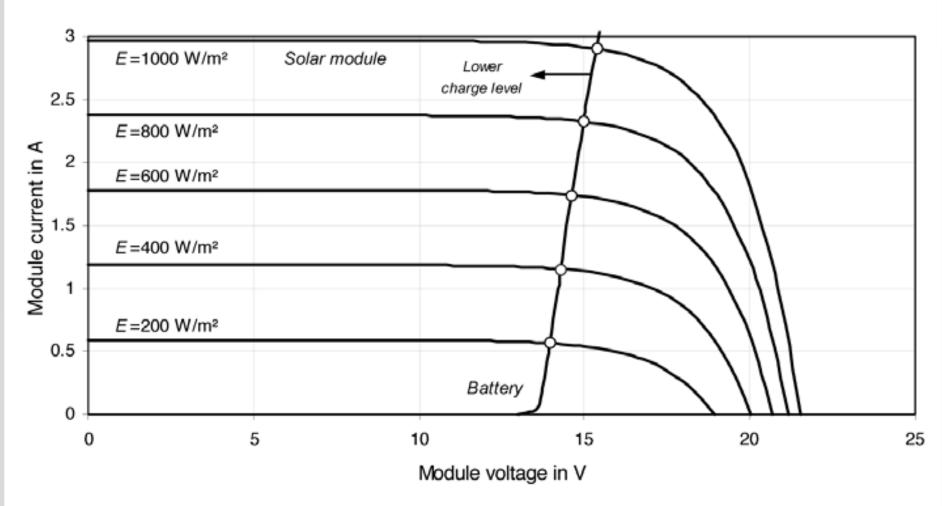


• The PV module has the voltage:

 $V_{\rm PV} = V_{\rm Bat} + V_{\rm D} + V_{\rm C1} + V_{\rm C2}$

- The diode voltage V_D being nearly constant, and cable voltage drops V_{C1} and V_{C2} proportional to the photovoltaic current I_{PV}
- The battery voltage V_{Bat} depends on the charge current and state of charge. Hence, the voltage at the PV module increases slightly with rising currents and increasing irradiances, and it varies with the battery SoC
- For a PV system with a directly-connected battery, a fairly good operating point is achieved for a wide irradiance range ⇒ DC–DC converters and MPPT'S are rarely used in battery systems
- Sometimes the power consumption of additionally electronics is higher than the possible energy gain!

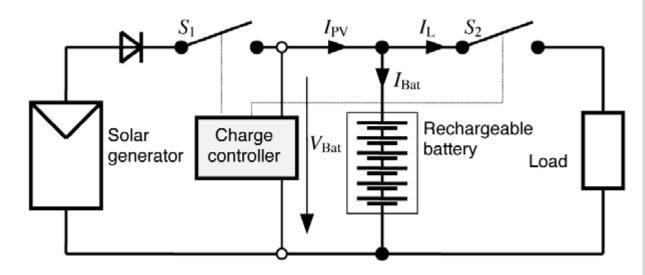




• When would it make sense to include a MPPT?



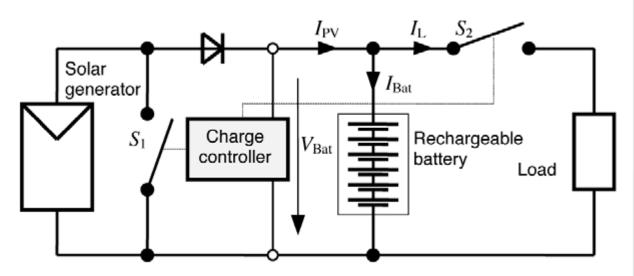
- However, charge controllers (or regulators) are still needed in PV-based power systems to protect batteries by limiting discharge levels and preventing overcharging
- Most charge-controllers work on basis of voltage control



 Charge controller measures the battery voltage V_{Bat}. If it falls below the deep discharge voltage (11.4 V for a 12-V LA battery) ⇒ switch S₂ disconnects load from battery.



- When battery is charged again (rising above an upper threshold voltage) \Rightarrow switch reconnects the load.
- If the battery voltage rises above the end of charge voltage (about 14.4 V for a 12-V lead—acid battery), the switch S_1 stops charging.
- The <u>series</u> charge controller (previous slide) and the <u>parallel or</u> <u>shunt</u> charge controller (below) are two main types





- The parallel (or shunt) charge controller \Rightarrow most commonly used
- If battery is fully charged, the charge controller short-circuits the PV generator across switch S_1 . The PV generator voltage falls to the voltage drop across the switch (<1 V). The blocking diode avoids reverse currents from the battery flowing back across the switch
- Note, if PV array is partially shaded and thus not irradiated homogenously, the short circuit conditions can strain the shaded cells very significantly ⇒ can cause heating problems in battery enclosures, as dissipation usually occurs when radiation levels and ambient temperatures are high
- One advantage: consume little power when the load or battery is using only PV generated power



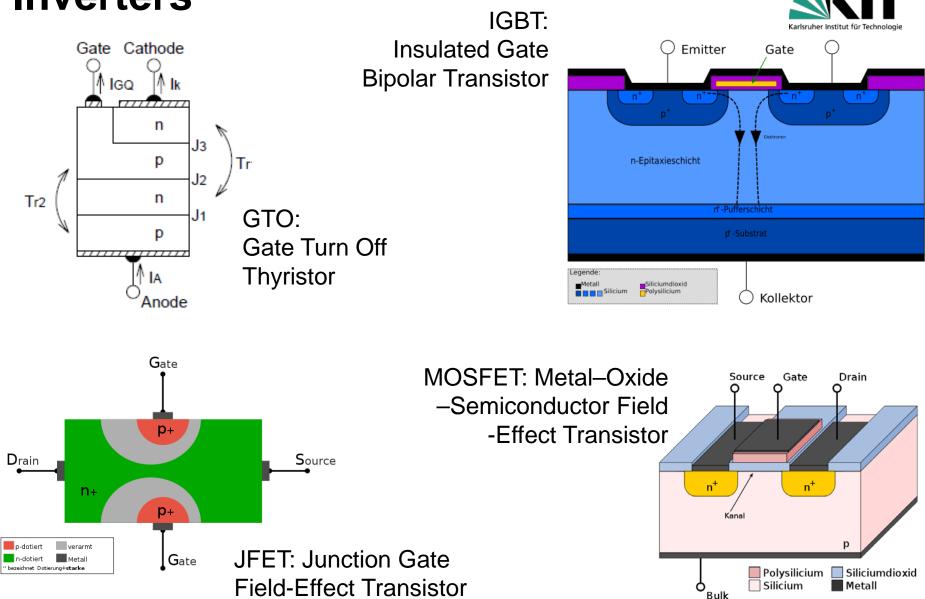
- Power semiconductors such as power MOSFETs are normally used as switches
- Continuous forward losses at the switch S_1 are a disadvantage of the series charge controller. The forward resistance of good MOSFETS is less than 0.1 Ω , e.g. but still with a current of 6 A, the field-effect transistor BUZ 11 with a forward resistance of 0.04 Ω still causes losses of 1.5 W
- If the PV array voltage is monitored in addition to the battery voltage, the blocking diode can be omitted and the forward losses reduced. In this case, the charge controller must open the switch S₁ if the solar generator voltage falls below the battery voltage



- One final question: why does a PV module with V_{mp} of 18 V required to charge a 12 V lead-acid battery?
- Five contributing factors:
 - 1. ~2.8 V is lost to temperature rises to 60°C.
 - 2. A drop of ~0.6 V occurs across the blocking diode.
 - 3. A drop of 1.0 V typically occurs across the regulator.
 - 4. There can be some voltage loss with reducing light intensity.
 - 5. The batteries must be charged to 14.0–14.5 V to reach their full state of charge.



- As we all know, most consumer applications use alternating current (AC) rather than direct current (DC)
- Island grid inverter \Rightarrow for AC devices in a PV stand-alone system
- <u>Grid-connected inverter</u> \Rightarrow for system to be connected to national grid. Similar design, but there are some differences in the details.
- Power electronic devices are used today to convert DC to AC.
 Different types of semiconductor elements that can switch voltages higher than 1000 V or even currents higher than 1000 A are:
 - power MOSFET (power field effect transistors)
 - bipolar power transistors
 - insulated gate bipolar transistors (IGBT)
 - thyristors (controllable diodes)
 - triacs (two-direction thyristors)
 - gate turn-off (GTO) thyristors (switchable thyristors).



- Will focus on <u>thyristors</u> as an example of functionality of power electronic switches.
- Symbol shown: three contacts: A (anode), C (cathode) and G (gate).
- If control current $i_G = 0$, the thyristor blocks at negative and positive voltages *v*. If i_G positive (exceeds voltage *v*) then thyristor switched into forward mode \Rightarrow current *i* flows through thyristor
- While the forward current *i* is above the holding current i_H , the thyristor remains conductive.
- A triac can be operated in both directions and a GTO thyristor can be turned off by a negative control current.



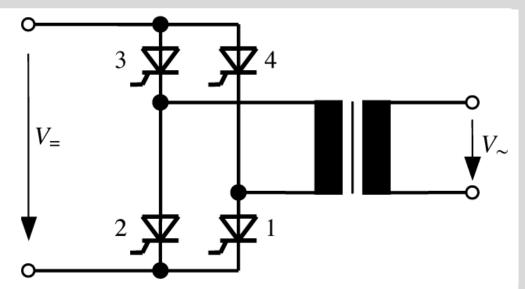


- Inverter must periodically direct the current from one branch to another ⇒ called commutation ⇒ therefore, different thyristors must switch alternately
- If the energy needed to change the state of the thyristor comes from outside (e.g. national grid), the commutation is called external or line commutation. If the circuit can provide this energy itself, it is called self-commutation, but such a circuit needs energy storage.
- Externally commutated inverters are not suitable for stand-alone operation. The grid defines the switching points of externally commutated inverters, whereas a self-commutated inverter must determine them itself.
- Also, the voltage of grid-connected inverters must be synchronized with the grid voltage.



- Besides the type of commutation, two most common inverter technologies are:
 - square-wave inverters
 - pulse-width modulated (or sine-wave) inverters.
- Grid-connected inverters have to fulfil stringent criteria to maintain high power quality. Therefore, amplitude, frequency and current shape must follow the rules of the grid operators.
- Also, for grid-protection, the inverter must switch off immediately if the grid fails to prevent "islanding" ⇒ where a small arm of the grid remains active due to solar power being exported but the main generators have been disconnected

- Square-wave inverter
- Simple circuit of two-pulse bridge connection shown
- Consists of 4 thyristors and a transformer



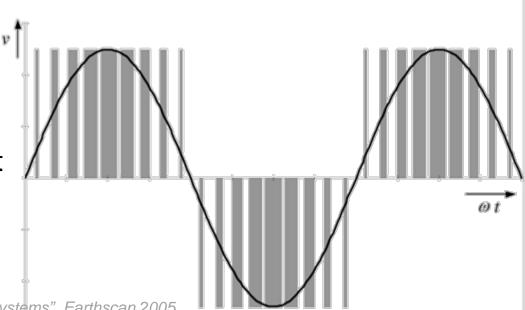
- Thyristors 1 and 3 work together, as do thyristors 2 and 4. If these two groups switch periodically, they generate a square-wave AC at the transformer
- Thyristors 1 and 2 can be replaced by non-controllable diodes for simplification; in this case, only half of the bridge must be controlled. This connection is then called a half-controlled bridge connection. The switching of the thyristors is delayed by the control angle α compared to the voltage zero crossing. Figure 4.54 shows the current of a B2 connection



- Current output of this circuit ⇒ N.B. shape differs significantly from that of a sinusoidal wave! | fi(t)
- Besides the desired sinusoidal first harmonic (order 1) ⇒ also various oscillations with different periods (order ≥ 2) ⇒ called harmonics
- Most national regulations
 or grid operators require a minimum of harmonics



- Pulse-width modulation (PWM)
- An inverter that works on the pulse-width modulation (PWM) principle also uses the bridge circuit described, however, thyristors do not switch just once per half-wave ⇒ instead multiple switching generates pulses of different widths
- Sinusoidal fundamental wave is obtained after filtering
- Quality of sinusoidal oscillation much better than square wave inverters
 ⇒ PWM inverters exhibit much less harmonics content
 ⇒ most common inverter in use today





- <u>N.B. not be confused with MPPT!</u>
- PV modules typically mounded on <u>fixed arrays</u>. Ideally modules are placed on a support structure, facing within 5° of north in the southern hemisphere or of south in the northern hemisphere
- Tilt angle determined by load requirements, e.g. for most constant output over the year, an angle of latitude plus ~23° is used, which places the array at right angles to the sun's rays in mid-winter
- A minimum tilt angle of 10° is recommended, to allow natural cleaning of the array surface by rain

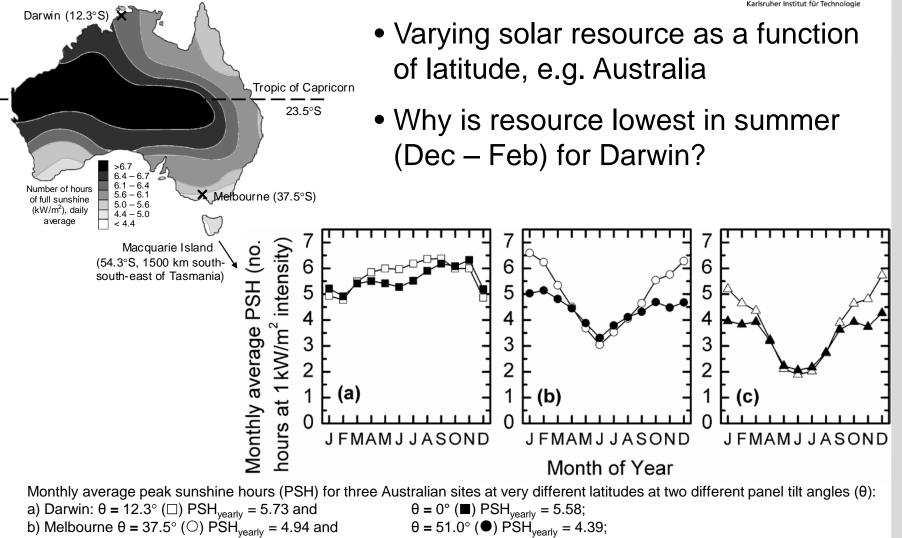
Table 6.1. Approximate optimum array tilt angles for fixed arrays.

tilt angle relative to latitude (°)

_	latitude (°)	constant seasonal load	winter-peaking load	summer-peaking load
	5-25	+5	+5 - +15	-5 - +5
	25-45	+5 - +10	+10 - +20	+10

Source: Wenham et al., "Applied Photovoltaics", 2nd ed, Earthscan 2007



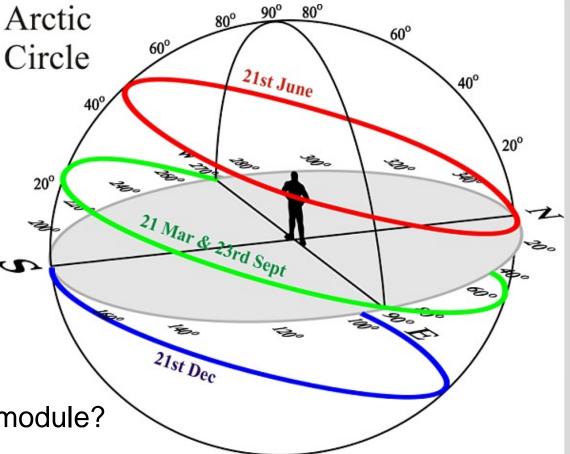


Source: Richards and Conibeer, International Journal of Hydrogen Energy 2007: 32(14), 2712--2718

c) Macquarie Island θ = 54.3° (\triangle) PSH_{vearly} = 3.77 and θ = 77.8° (\blacktriangle) PSH_{vearly} = 3.31.

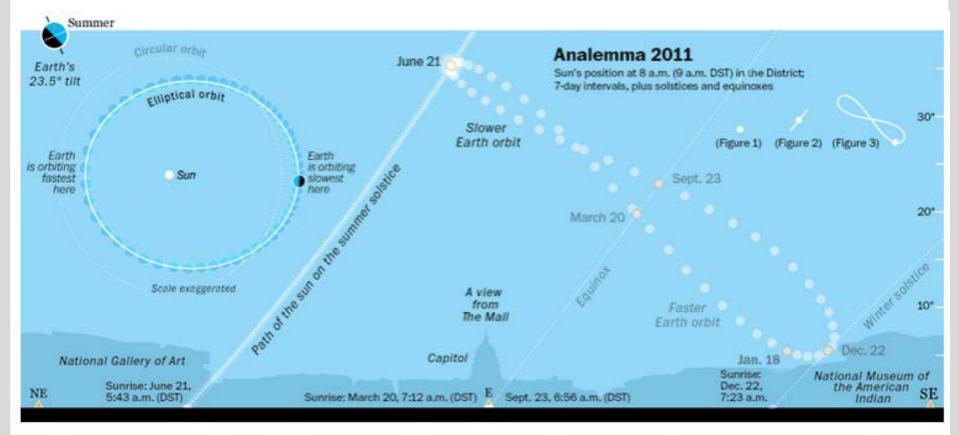


- Back to lecture 2 thinking about sun's position in the sky at:
 - Noon on summer solstice @ Karlsruhe (49°N)?
 - Sunrise on 21 Mar @ Karlsruhe (49°N)?
 - Noon on summer solstice @ north pole?
 - Midnight on summer solstice @ north pole?
 - what is the best
 orientation for PV module?



Source: http://www.hsphys.com/dayinb.jpg





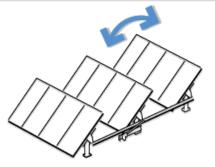
On the summer solstice in Washington, the sun rises at its most northeastern point on the horizon and follows the steepest path in the sky all year.

Source: <u>http://www.washingtonpost.com/blogs/capital-weather-gang/wp/2013/06/20/summer-solstice-2013-northern-hemispheres-longest-day-highest-sun-of-the-year/</u>



- So, what about we adjust the tilt angle of the PV panel?
- With seasonally-adjusted tilting the tilt angle is manually adjusted to allow for the changing solar elevation at noon, e.g. typically seasonally
- Simple way of increasing output that does not add significantly to cost or detract from reliability
- Flexibility in tilt angles for seasonal changes is marginally economical for small systems, e.g. for mid-latitude locations, quarterly adjustment to tilt angle increases annual energy production by less than 5%

 And what about if we adjust the E-W direction?



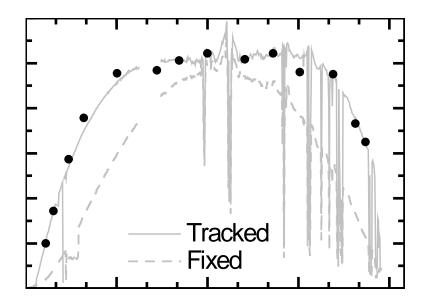


- <u>Single-axis tracking</u> tilts the array every 15min 1 hour along the vertical axis to follow the sun from east to west (GPS controlled)
- This increases output significantly, typically 20%
- N.B. now have moving parts
 ⇒ more can
 go wrong
 ⇒ increased
 maintenance

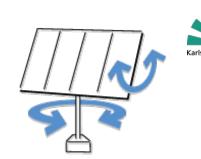




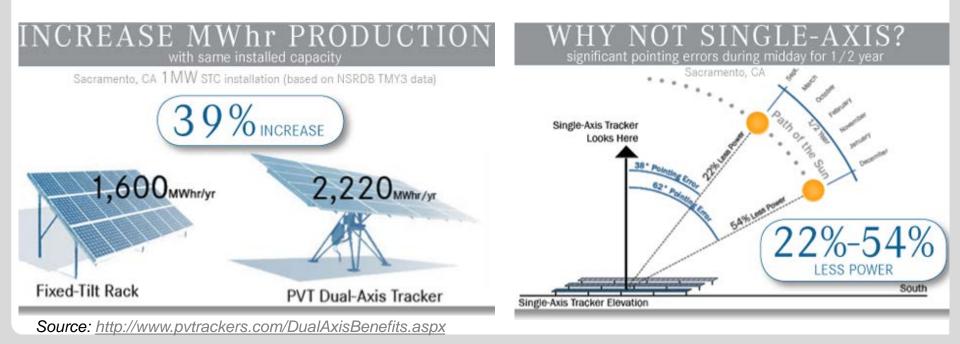
- Single-axis-tracked 300W PV array on solar-powered water treatment system
- Photo taken in Tanzania, data below from outback Australia



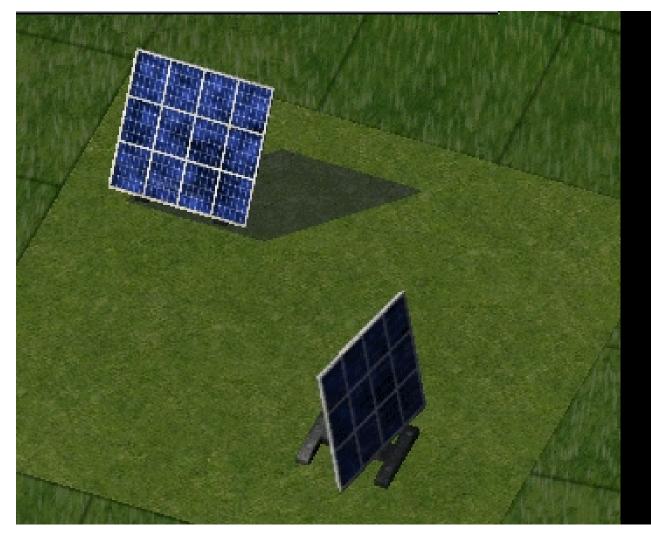
• Via <u>two-axis tracking</u> the power output is further increased by tracking the sun along both the north-south and east-west axes



- 30% advantage over a fixed-tilt array have been measured
- Capital and maintenance costs can be high. Also often requires more secure foundations







Source: http://imageshack.com/f/21/solarpanel01.gif





Source: http://www.solar-tracking.com/



1. Determine the demands of power consumption (Wh)

The first step in designing a solar PV system is to find out the total power and energy consumption of all loads that need to be supplied by the solar PV system as follows:

1.1 Calculate total Watt-hours (Wh) per day for each appliance used

Add the Watt-hours needed for all appliances together to get the total Watt-hours per day which must be delivered to the appliances

Also consider time-of-day when used as impacts inverter choice

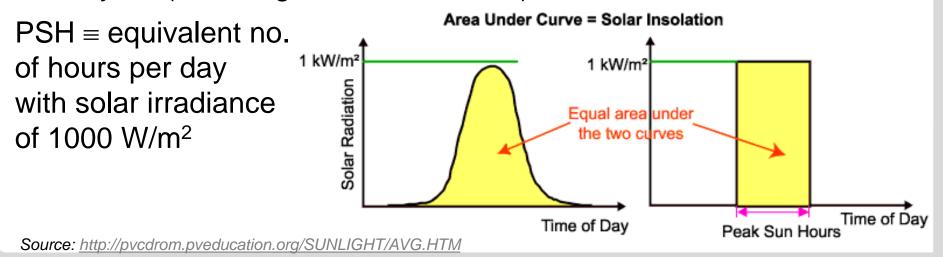
1.2 Calculate total Watt-hours (Wh) per day needed from the PV modules

Multiply the total appliances Watt-hours (Wh) per day x 1.3 (the energy lost in the system) to get the total Watt-hours per day which must be provided by the panels



2. Sizing the PV modules (Wp)

Different size of PV modules will produce different amount of power. To find out the sizing of PV module, the total watt peak (Wp) produced needs. The peak watt (Wp) produced depends on size of the PV module and system location. We have to consider the average "peak sun hours" (PSH), which is different in each site location. For central Europe the PSH is around 3, and corresponds to about 3 hours of sunlight, per day, expected average over the whole year (including in the winter time).





To determine the sizing of PV modules, calculate as follows:

2.1 Calculate the total Watt-peak rating needed for PV modules

Divide the total Watt-hours per day needed from the PV modules (from item 1.2) by the PSH to get the total Watt-peak rating needed for the PV panels needed to operate the appliances.

N.B: if the PV system is planned to operate only in spring-summerautumn the average PSH values will be around 4-5 and for systems working only in summer, around 6-7 hours sun per day

2.2 Calculate the number of PV panels for the system

Divide the answer obtained in item 2.1 by the rated output Watt-peak of the PV modules available to you. Increase any fractional part of result to the next highest full number and that will be the number of PV modules required.



Result of the calculation is the minimum number of PV panels. If more PV modules are installed, the system will perform better and battery life will be improved. If fewer PV modules are used, the system may not work at all during cloudy periods and battery life will be shortened.

3. Sizing pure sine wave PV inverter

An inverter is used in the system where 230V/50Hz AC power output is needed. The input rating of the inverter should never be lower than the total power consumption of appliances.

The inverter must have the same nominal voltage as your battery (12/24/48V). For stand-alone systems, the inverter must be large enough to handle the total amount of watts you will be using at one time. The inverter size should be 25-30% bigger than total watts (W) of appliances.



In case of appliance type is motor or compressor (these have large startup currents) then inverter size should be minimum 3 times the capacity of those appliances and must be added to the inverter capacity to handle surge current during starting (first 3-6 seconds)

4. Sizing the battery (Ah)

The battery type recommended for using in solar PV system is deepcycle lead acid battery - designed for to be discharged to low energy level and rapid recharged or cycle charged and discharged day after day for years. The battery should be large enough to store sufficient energy to operate the appliances at night, cloudy days and if needed in winter. To find out the size of battery, calculate as follows:



- 4.1 Calculate total Watt-hours per day used by appliances.
- 4.2 Divide the total Watt-hours per day used by 0.85 for battery loss.
- 4.3 Divide the answer obtained in item 4.2 by 0.5 for DoD

4.4 Divide the answer obtained in item 4.3 by the nominal battery voltage.

4.5 Multiply the answer obtained in item 4.4 with days of autonomy (the number of days that you need the system to operate when there is no power produced by PV panels, e.g. 5 days if there is no backup generator) to get the required Ampere-hour capacity of deep-cycle battery.

Battery Capacity (Ah) = $\frac{\text{Total Watt-hours per day used by appliances x Days of autonomy}}{(0.85 \times 0.5 \times \text{nominal battery voltage})}$



5. Sizing the charge controller (A)

Charge controller is typically rated against Amperage (A) and Voltage (V) capacities. Select the solar charge controller to match the voltage of PV system and batteries and then identify which type of solar charge controller is right for your application. Make sure that solar charge controller has enough capacity to handle the current from PV system.

For the PWM charge controller type, the sizing of controller depends on the total PV input current which is delivered to the controller and also depends on PV panel configuration (series or parallel configuration).

According to standard practice, the sizing of solar charge controller is to take the short circuit current (I_{sc}) of the PV module, and multiply it by x 1.3

Steps to Sizing a PV System



							1144		а г			
PSH data	Horizontal	Latititude (deg S)	At		le angle	Worst m				Worst m		
Darwin	5.58 hours/da				3 hours/day						ours/day	
Melbourne	4.12 hours/da				4 hours/day							
Macq Is	2.51 hours/da	y 54.3		3.77 hours/day 0.4					J	2.06 ho	ours/day	
Load	10696 Wh/d											
Assume all AC load, so tak	e into account invert	er efficiency (90%)										
=> 11884 Wh/d				3904 kWh/yr (taken from Markcart and Castaner)								
For >3kWh recommended		1 18 V DC										
Ah rating of system	247.6 Ah/d											
Battery capacity = (dema						Recommended days of autonomy						
Demand:	247.6 Ah/d	Demand:	247.6 Ah	n/d	Demand:	247.	6 Ah/d	Latitude	Days		-	
Autonomy:	<mark>5</mark> d	Autonomy:	10 d		Autonomy:	15 d		0-30deg	5 to 6			
Max DOD	0.7	Max DOD	0.7		Max DOD	0.7		30-50deg	10 to 12			
Battery capacity	1769 Ah	Battery capacity	3537 Ah	า	Battery capa	530	6 Ah	50-60deg	15			
	0.14	· · · · ·	0.07			0.0	5				<u> </u>	
Correct for battery operatir	ig temperature											
e.g. if lowest 24hr average	temperature is 10de	gC then correct by 0.96	i									
Average daily DOD = (daily	/ load) / (battery capo	city) =	0.14									
Rule: average daily DOD s	hould be less than 14	4% with the maximum a	Illowable in ar	ny one	day of 20%.							
PV array size												
Battery efficiency	85%											
PV array output	291.3 Ah/d											
NOCT operating point of B		')	5.39 A									
Module Size (m^3) 1.203			5.12 A									
	1.205		3.12 A		anowing for -5	//0 pow						
Average daily module outp	ut: Darwin	29.34 At	า									
	Melbour	ne 25.30 Ah	ו									
	Macq I											
Number of modules in seri			-									
Numer of series connected		9.93	=>	10	in series =>	20	x 170W +	1769	Ah battery	Area	24.1 m2	
(in plane array)	Melbour		=>	12	in series =>	24	x 170W +	3537	Ah battery		28.9 m2	
(plane anay)	Macq Is		=>	16	in series =>	32	x 170W +	5306	Ah battery		38.5 m2	
			-							,		



• 5.3kW grid connected PV system (Boston, USA)



Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Photovoltaic_system



• Building integrated photovoltaic (BIPV) balcony (Helsinki, Finland)





• Community owned solar farm (Westmill, England)





• Photovoltaic power station at Mt. Komekura (Japan)





• Solar array at National Solar Energy Center (Negev Desert, Israel)





 23-year old, ground mounted PV system on a North Frisian Island (Germany)





• An isolated mountain hut in Catalonia (Spain)





• The Japanese winner of 2009 World Solar Challenge (Australia)





 Photovoltaic powered water pumping system for stock watering (India)



Source: <u>http://regentsolar.com/swp.html</u>



• Small hybrid wind-PV system on a yacht



Source: http://www.micamalecharter.com/barca_en.html



• An electric vehicles charging station (France)





• A solar-powered community satellite phone in Western Australia



Source: blog.activ8me.net.au



• PV-power for Philae comet lander... well, sometimes.... with

Rosetta in background (artist's impression)



Source: http://www.natureworldnews.com/articles/6466/20140328/rosetta-missions-comet-lander-wakes-up-from-deep-space-sleep.htm



• A navigation marker in Otago Harbour (New Zealand)





• Solar powered electric fence in Northumberland (U.K.)





• Solar sailor ferry in Darling Harbour (Sydney, Australia)





• Solar power for a yurt (Mongolia)



Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Photovoltaic_system



• 46MW tracked solar farm in Amareleja (Portugal)

ACCIONA nimmt größtes Photovoltaik-Kraftwerk der Welt in Portugal in Betrieb



Solarpark Amareleja (46 MWp).

Das Unternehmen ACCIONA Energy hat ein Solar-Kraftwerk mit einer Photovoltaik-Spitzenleistung von 46 Megawatt (MW) in Amareleja (Moura, Portugal) in Betrieb genommen. ACCIONA habe in die Solarstromanlage - die größte ihrer Art weltweit - rund 261 Millionen Euro investiert, berichtet das Unternehmen in einer Pressemitteilung. Nach Angaben von ACCIONA kann der Solarpark jährlich rund 93 Millionen Kilowattstunden Solarstrom produzieren, was rechnerisch

den Elektrizi Haushalten d 89.383 Tonne Kohle freiges

erzeugen. Der Solarpark sei in der Re ACCIONA.

262.080 Solarmodule auf 250 Hektar

Der Solarpark erstreckt sich auf einer Ges Region Alentejo, nahe der spanischen Gr Typ "Buskil" montiert, die ACCIONA selb Quadratmetern. Die Buskil-Tracker sind 1 polykristalline Silizium-Module (170 bzw. Sonne einachsig nachgeführt werden.

Source: http://www.solarserver.de/solarmagazin/new





• 35MW 2-axis tracked solar farm in Alamosa (Colorado, USA)





• Solar-powered unmanned aerial vehicle (NASA/AeroVironment)



Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Electric_aircraft



• The future of flight? Solar-powered plane – planned circumnavigation of Earth in 2015 (Solar Impulse)...



Source: http://www.powerclouds.com/index.php/photovoltaics-that-make-you-fly-the-solar-impulse-venture/



• ... 2 passengers and wingspan similar to that of an Airbus A340!



Source: http://www.aerospace-technology.com/projects/solar-impluse/solar-impluse2.html

Competing with coal and nuclear?

- Topaz Solar Farm is a 550MW PV power station in California (USA)
- Construction began Nov 2011, ended in Nov 2014
- Currently world's largest solar farm
- U\$2.5 billion project
- 25 km² area
- 9 million CdTe PV modules from First Solar
- 400 construction jobs created
- Annual generation is expected to be 1,096 GWh
- A utility (Pacific Gas and Electric) have 25 year contract to buy the electricity

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Topaz_Solar_Farm





Competing with coal and nuclear?

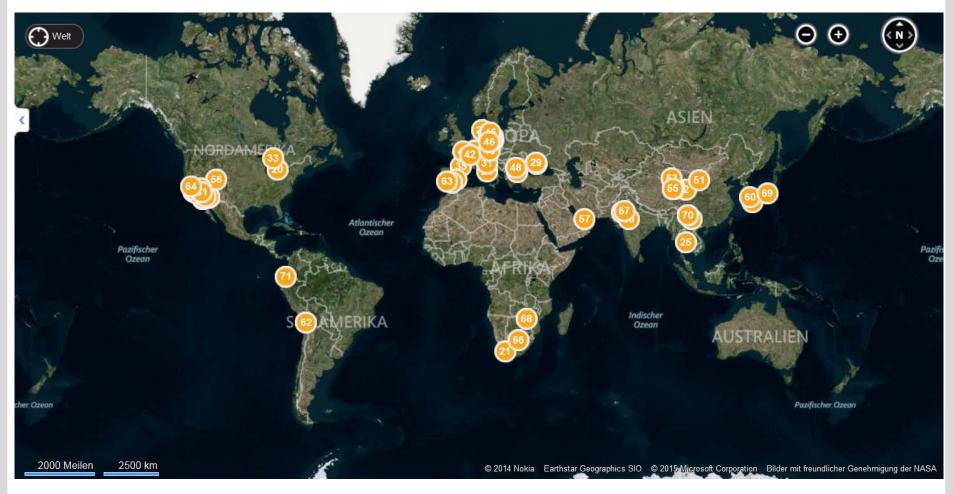




Source: http://papichco.com/construction/project/topaz-solar-farm/

PV Systems >50MW Worldwide





Source: <u>http://www.bing.com/maps/?mapurl=http%3A%2F%2Ftools.wmflabs.org%2Fkmlexport%2F%3Farticle%3D</u> List_of_photovoltaic_power_stations%26usecache%3D1