Development of a software solution for solar-PV power systems sizing and monitoring

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Abstract- Power systems sizing and monitoring are very important design components in determining the overall performance of solar-photovoltaic (PV) systems. These design components represent the pre-installation and post-installation stages of solar-PV systems planning respectively, and paying adequate attention to them can go a long way to increasing the working life of solar-PV system installations. The SolarHelper developed in this work is a small software solution package that monitors and records vital system variables that will give the state and performance of an existing solar-PV installation at any given time; and it is able to accurately provide a simulated output of the required battery storage capacity, and PV array size based on load demands.

Keywords- Interfacing, Microcontroller, Monitoring, Sizing, Software Solution Package, Solar-PV System.

1. Introduction

A solar-PV system or PV power system is one of the many renewable energy options for distributed power generation. The reliability of the system makes it suitable for use in a wide range of applications such as residential, commercial, industrial, agriculture, etc. Solar electric systems majorly comprise an array of PV panels, inverters, charge controllers, and battery storage banks. Each of these individual components with their specifications play a very important role in the overall performance of any installed solar-PV system.

The main objective of solar-PV systems design and planning is to accurately choose and size the components of the standalone system installation as required. The system sizing implies deciding and determining the least possible number and type of solar modules required to capture enough solar energy that is then converted to electric energy to supply the required load demands, the battery capacity that will be able to store enough electric charge for a number of days when solar radiation is minimal, and the characteristics of the rest of the components that integrate the PV system (e.g. charge controllers, cables, and inverters) [1]. Unlike the HOMER optimization model [2] that obtains optimum design results of energy systems on techno-economic bases, the SolarHelper developed in this study is based only on load demands. The system sizing calculations are important because proper sizing of the system components ensure energy balance during operation. Solar-PV systems are designed for certain consumptions and if the user exceeds the designed limits constantly, the provision of energy will fail.

PV system monitoring on the other hand is one of the needed activities carried out on an existing installation so as to monitor vital system variables for easy control and maintenance. Awareness of important variables surrounding the usage, statistics and performance indices of the system can aid in early fault detection as well as extended life span of the system [3]. With a monitoring system in place, users can know immediately when the system has been compromised. Otherwise, it could take weeks or months before it is realised that the solar electricity system is no longer producing enough power. A study by solar experts concluded that about half of all solar power systems are working less optimally as they should, and this has led to around 20% of a year’s solar electricity being lost [3]. According to Ref. [3], solar electric systems that are hooked-up to monitoring systems have 10% rise in energy production over systems that are not hooked-up to monitoring systems.
This study presents the SolarHelper, a small software solution package designed to tackle the two phases of Solar-PV system design and monitoring to considerable levels using available technology and a straightforward approach.

2. Methodology

The software solution developed is designed for two major functionalities as stated and each individual function is tackled separately. A general classification would be to divide the system into software and hardware functions. Software functions include PV system design and microcontroller-software interfacing, while Hardware functions include the microcontroller-monitoring circuitry interface. The block diagram of Fig. 1 shows this.

3. Hardware Interfacing

Fig. 2 shows the hardware circuit diagram with all the parts and connecting arrows to system components clearly indicated.

3.1. The Microcontroller Hardware Circuity

The Microcontroller used is an Arduino Duemilanove, a microcontroller development board based on the ATMEL ATMEGA328 microcontroller. The microcontroller stands as the processing unit for the measurement circuitry and constitutes a major part of the monitoring system. It is part of the hardware circuitry that connects to the PC via a serial port (USB A-B cable). Part of its functions is to read and format the data periodically before getting to the Java GUI for display.

As part of the functional requirements for the monitoring system, we expect that the software would be able to measure/monitor the following:

- The voltage across the terminals of the solar panel (up to 20V).
- The battery voltage at any particular time (up to 15V).
- The current flowing in the system.
- The ambient temperature of the surrounding environment.
- The light intensity of the area.
- The corresponding output power of the solar panel.
- The state of the charge controller.

The monitoring circuitry connected to the microcontroller constitutes components that carry out all the necessary measurements and signal conditioning. The voltage measurements are generally carried out using a simple potential divider method through a series of 1kΩ resistors to drop the system voltage level to 5V, an acceptable input to the microcontroller with a design current of about 10mA. Temperature measurement is carried out using a LM35 precision centigrade sensor, being able to give voltage readings from 0°C to beyond 150°C. Light intensity measurement is carried out using a light dependent resistor (LDR) circuitry. Current measurement is carried out using a current sensor. Power consumption measurement is simply the product of the measured current and the terminal voltage.

4. Software Interfacing

At the junction of data collection, conditioning and processing, it is required that the data is transmitted to the PC for user-friendly display. Due to Java’s platform-independence, serial interfacing is difficult. Serial interfacing requires a standardised API with platform-specific implementations, which is difficult for Java [4].

Serial Interfacing is actually done via the Rx (D0) and Tx (D1) pins of the Arduino microcontroller which by default route through the USB port. Information transferred is understood by the computer and made available on the configured COM port. The RxTx Java library enables access of information on the serial port in the Java program. The process of information acquisition is made possible via a serialPortListener action listener which is triggered each time there is information available on the port. Some methods available in the RxTx package, specifically the InputStream input.available( ), pulls information from the input stream of the COM port to the input stream of the Java program as stream bytes. This information is encoded as a string before processing begins. Before information transmission, the microcontroller is able to send multiple readings by making use of a delimiter between each of the readings. Java is able to process the delimiter and extract the necessary information in the proper sequence using regular expression or just usual string manipulation methods [5].

![Fig. 1. Block diagram representing entire system configuration](image-url)
5. Development of the Sizing and Monitoring Algorithms

5.1. System Sizing Models

Several PV system sizing algorithms exist that are able to guide as to how to design a solar-PV system to give optimum performance [6-13]. Most of these algorithms are based on either cost or performance. The algorithm presented here is a procedural approach that works based on the worst month method [1] for PV system sizing. The method makes the best PV system size estimates by using the month in the year with the least amount of average solar insolation. This is an especially effective method for systems which are capable of working autonomously for long periods and for areas where the weather conditions are unpredictable. Load data are collected along with their corresponding usage profiles. All daily load demands are assumed constant. The relationship between consumption and time is linear [14]. The total daily energy demand in kilowatt-hour (kWh) is the algebraic sum of the product of power consumption and the average daily usage time for each individual load. This is mathematically expressed [6] as:

\[ E_{\text{total}} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (P_j \times t_j) \]  

(1)

where \( E_{\text{total}} \) is the total daily energy demand, \( P_j \) is the power consumed by appliance \( j \), \( t_j \) is the time of appliance usage, and \( n \) is the number of appliances. Equation (1) is the total energy demand from both AC and DC loads. Considerations include Loss estimates, Load factor, and Tracking compensation.

The system loss estimates is a justification that not all the energy produced by the modules will be available for use in the system, as some will be lost in the cables, batteries, charge controllers and inverters. DC energy losses account for losses in the cables, batteries, and charge controllers; while the AC energy losses are as a result of additional losses in the inverters. Equation (2) gives the total loss estimates as:

\[ E_{\text{loss}} = [\eta_{\text{loss(DC)}} E_{\text{total(DC)}}] + [\eta_{\text{loss(AC)}} E_{\text{total(AC)}}] \]  

(2)

where \( E_{\text{loss}} \) is the total loss estimates, \( \eta_{\text{loss(DC)}} \) is the DC energy loss estimate, \( E_{\text{total(DC)}} \) is the total DC load demand, \( \eta_{\text{loss(AC)}} \) is the AC energy loss estimate, and \( E_{\text{total(AC)}} \) is the total AC load demand.

Therefore, the total daily system energy requirement is given by equation (3) as:

\[ E_{\text{design}} = (f_{\text{load}} \times E_{\text{total}}) + E_{\text{loss}} \]  

(3)

where \( E_{\text{design}} \) is the system design load, and \( f_{\text{load}} \) is the load factor. The load factor takes into consideration any system overload imposed on the PV system.
The entire algorithm is carried out in twelve simple steps [15, 16] as enumerated below:

- **Step 1:** Compute Total Energy Demand. Equation (1) shows the mathematical expression.
- **Step 2:** Estimate System Energy Losses.
- **Step 3:** Calculate the System Design load using the load factor and losses.
- **Step 4:** Choose System Design Voltage for the system (usually the highest DC voltage in the system).
- **Step 5:** Obtain daily charge requirements – this is obtained using the system design load and the system design voltage. It is a pointer to the size of the battery bank and the number of solar panels required.
- **Step 6:** Charge produced by PV array per day must equal or exceed daily charge requirements.
- **Step 7:** Obtain worst month from the meteorological data.
- **Step 8:** Tracking compensation considerations are applied to the worst month value if necessary to obtain the design solar insolation value.
- **Step 9:** Divide daily system charge requirement by design solar insolation value to obtain system design charging current.
- **Step 10:** To obtain the total battery charge capacity required, multiply daily system charge requirements by number of autonomy days and divide by maximum battery depth of discharge.
- **Step 11:** The number of Batteries is obtained by dividing total battery charge capacity requirement by the charge capacity of the selected battery.
- **Step 12:** The number of series-parallel connections of batteries and solar modules is obtained by comparing the output current and voltage of modules to the system design charging current and voltage, and making sure the array sum is larger than the design values.

The following steps give an estimated PV panel sizing as well as the battery capacity to be used for energy storage considering a specified number of days when total dependence will be on the solar-PV system. The flow chart algorithm is as shown in Fig. 3.

In Step 5, the daily charge requirement is expressed in equation (4) as:

\[ A_{h_{\text{daily}}} = \frac{E_{\text{design}}}{V_{\text{design}}} \]  

(4)

where \( V_{\text{design}} \) is the system design voltage chosen for the PV system.

Step 6 sets a design constraint on the PV system to ensure that the charge produced by PV array per day must equal or exceed the daily charge requirements. This is given in equation (5) as:

\[ A_{h_{\text{PV}}} \geq A_{h_{\text{daily}}} \]  

(5)

where \( A_{h_{\text{PV}}} \) is the charge produced daily by the PV panel, and \( A_{h_{\text{daily}}} \) is the daily charge requirements.

In Step 8, the tracking compensation consideration is applied to the worst month insolation value to get the design solar insolation value expressed in equation (6) as:

\[ I_{n_{\text{design}}} = I_{n_{\text{min}}} + (I_{n_{\text{min}}} \times T_{c}) \]  

(6)

where \( I_{n_{\text{min}}} \) is the minimum monthly average insolation value within the period, and \( T_{c} \) is the tracking compensation factor for the solar panels.

The design charging current in Step 9 is calculated using equation (7) given as:

\[ I_{\text{charging}} = \frac{A_{h_{\text{daily}}}}{I_{n_{\text{design}}}} \]  

(7)

The total battery charge capacity required is obtained using equation (8).

\[ A_{h_{\text{total}}} = \frac{(A_{h_{\text{daily}}} \times n)}{\text{DoD}} \]  

(8)

where \( n \) is the number of autonomy days, and DoD is the maximum depth of discharge of the batteries.

The number of batteries is obtained in Step 11 as:

\[ n_{\text{batteries}} = \frac{A_{h_{\text{total}}}}{A_{h_{\text{selected}}}} \]  

(9)

where \( A_{h_{\text{selected}}} \) is a selected battery charge capacity.
Compute Total Energy demand in kWh \( (E_{\text{total}}) \)

Estimate System Energy Losses \( E_{\text{loss}} = (f_{\text{loss}} \% \times E_{\text{total}}) \)

Calculate Design Load considering Losses and Load Factor \( E_{\text{design}} = (E_{\text{total}} \times f_{\text{load}}) + E_{\text{loss}} \)

Choose the system design voltage (Usually the highest DC Voltage) \( (V_{\text{design}}) \)

Obtain daily charge requirements. Quotient of design load and design voltage \( (Ah_{\text{daily}} = E_{\text{design}} / V_{\text{design}}) \)

Analyze insolation data and obtain worst month \( (ln_{\text{min}}) \text{kwh/m}^2 \)

Charge produced by the PV array should be greater than or equal the daily charge requirements. \( (Ah_{\text{PV}} \geq Ah_{\text{daily}}) \)

Tracking compensation considerations are applied to the worst month value to obtain the design solar insolation value. \( ln_{\text{design}} = ln_{\text{min}} + (ln_{\text{min}} \times T_c) \)

Is tracking used? \( T_i = 0? \)

Divide Daily system charge requirement by design solar insolation value to obtain system design charging current. \( I_{\text{charging}} = Ah_{\text{daily}} / ln_{\text{design}} \)

Obtain total battery charge capacity required by multiplying daily system charge requirements by number of autonomy days and dividing by maximum depth of discharge of the battery \( Ah_{\text{total}} = (Ah_{\text{daily}} \times n) / \text{DoD} \)

The number of batteries is obtained by dividing total battery charge capacity requirement by the charge capacity of the selected battery. \( n_{\text{batteries}} = Ah_{\text{total}} / Ah_{\text{selected}} \)

The number of series-parallel connections of batteries and solar modules is obtained by comparing the output current and voltage of modules to the system design charging current and voltage, and making sure the array sum is larger than the design values.

Fig. 3. Flow chart algorithm for systems sizing
5.2. System Monitoring and Control

The monitoring and control interface contains functions to communicate with the Arduino microcontroller via the serial port and display the information on the screen. This process is carried out via the Java RxTx library which contains function to interface with local COM ports on the system [17]. The Java RxTx library is embedded in the Java program and an action listener is configured so as to perform a function each time the serial port has been given information (serial port is available). As shown in the flow chart algorithm of Fig. 4, the serial port is continuously probed for information and depending on the user; this process can be activated or deactivated at any given time.

6. Results and Discussions

Software development generally involves development of a solution that can be used by users to perform a predefined set of tasks (also known as the functional requirements). Some of the functional requirements of the product developed include:

- Ability to perform basic PV system sizing/design for a large load database using the worst month method.
- Ability to interface with a hardware monitoring circuit and display the readings on the user interface.
- Ability of the software to save records (in form of files) for users who use the software. Users have the ability to create a design file and edit it over time.
- Ability to perform simulation of solar-PV systems.

The software design was done over a period of about three months which included development of the user interface as well as the database to handle data storage. A substantial amount of this time went into debugging the software and ensuring that all the functionalities were properly implemented. To this end, all the requirements were implemented as expected.

The SolarHelper software designed in this work is integrated with an existing solar-PV system. The test results were successful as expected. At this point the solar-PV panel voltage was measured and variations were noted as weather conditions changed. Monitoring interfaces and simulation test results are shown in the figures 5-12.

6.1. User Interface

The user interface introduces a platform for the users of the SolarHelper software for input and output of data. All the functions proposed were included in the user interface and were programmed accordingly.

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**Fig. 4.** Flow chart algorithm for systems monitoring

**Fig. 5.** Home screen of the SolarHelper software
6.2. Database Interaction

Database interaction was made possible via SQLite and a JDBC/SQLite drive which allows access to native SQLite RDBMS functionality [18].
7. Conclusion

The development of a software solution for all-round operation with solar-PV systems can go a long way to improving system performance. In particular, emphasis was made on what is believed to be the two most important stages in solar-PV system implementation which are the pre-installation phase (i.e. design phase) and the post-installation phase (i.e. monitoring and control phase). A lot of effort was put into actualising this purpose. Challenges faced during the course of development especially the debugging stage of the project were successfully tackled.

Finally, the system is very effective, cheap to develop, and works very well under varying weather conditions. The accuracy of the sensory system is very high and provides the possibility of transmission of information over the internet or a local network in future works. The SolarHelper software tool is presently in use in a small 1.5kW solar-PV system installation; collecting vital system parameters for future system performance analysis. The PV system design functionality can be an easy alternative to strenuous hours that would have been spent trying to come up with a design scheme for a site. The overall efficiency and performance of the PV system will be improved by the implementation of this software. Future reports on system performance using the SolarHelper simulation and monitoring tool in operation with the installed solar-PV power system will validate this claim.

References

