

1 Southerly Winds Increase the Electricity Generated by Solar Photovoltaic 2 Systems

3 Damon Waterworth¹ and Alona Armstrong^{1,2}

4 ¹Lancaster Environment Centre, Lancaster University, Lancaster, LA1 4YQ, UK.

5 ²Energy Lancaster, Lancaster University, Lancaster, LA1 4YF, UK.

6
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8 9 **Abstract**

10 The urgent need to decarbonise energy supplies has prompted exponential growth of solar photovoltaic
11 (PV) systems across the world. As the penetration of renewable energy sources increases, the need to
12 accurately forecast electricity output heightens to ensure efficient energy system operation. While
13 exposure to high temperatures and moisture are known to significantly reduce PV panel efficiency, the
14 effects of wind on both PV panel temperature and electricity output are poorly resolved. Here,
15 meteorological and PV panel production data from Westmill Solar Park, Oxfordshire, were examined to
16 determine the influence of wind, cloud, ambient temperature and relative humidity. We found that, after
17 solar radiation, relative humidity and cloud cover were the dominant controls of PV electricity output;
18 increases in relative humidity and cloud cover were associated with decreased electricity outputs.
19 However, when all other variables were held constant, the mean electricity generated under southerly
20 winds was 20.4 – 42.9% greater than under northerly winds, with the difference greater at higher
21 electricity outputs and attributable to differences in surface cooling capabilities caused by the PV array
22 asymmetry. This finding suggests that PV electricity output predictions could be improved by
23 incorporating wind direction into computer models. Moreover, there is potential to modify solar park
24 design and deployment location to capitalise on wind benefits, especially in areas where panel
25 temperatures are a leading cause of efficiency loss. Ensuring deployments are optimised for site
26 environmental conditions could boost electricity outputs, and therefore profitability, with implications for
27 system viability in post-subsidy markets.

28 29 **1. Introduction**

30 As the energy transition progresses and solar photovoltaics (PV) comprise an ever-larger share of the
31 global energy portfolio it will become increasingly important to improve predictions of electricity output,
32 especially for large, utility-scale ground-mounted systems (Bhandari *et al.*, 2015; Breyer *et al.*, 2017;
33 Agoua *et al.*, 2018). Identifying and understanding the causes of meteorological sensitivity can improve
34 energy predictions, negating the need for technological innovation and intermittency solutions (e.g.
35 storage systems, demand-side management) to reduce power volatility and ensure electricity network
36 resilience (Hanjalic *et al.*, 2007; Schiermeier, 2016; Gaglia *et al.*, 2017; Reindl *et al.*, 2017; Saffari *et al.*,
37 2018). Consequently, energy meteorology – where the grid utilises weather observations and machine
38 learning techniques that predict renewable electricity outputs – has become increasingly pivotal in
39 supporting industry decision-making and decarbonisation projects in both daily operations and long-term
40 strategic planning (Traunmüller and Steinmaurer, 2010; Wan *et al.*, 2015; Reindl *et al.*, 2017; Agoua *et al.*,
41 2018; Ciriminna *et al.*, 2018). Moreover, improved understanding of meteorological-PV panel interactions

42 could be used within climate models to assess long-term risks to electricity supply given various climate
43 change scenarios, and thus inform future energy system needs (Jerez *et al.*, 2015).

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45 Whilst solar irradiance regulates PV panel electricity outputs, temperature is also influential as ambient
46 temperature, solar absorption and electricity generation can cause the panel surface to heat up, resulting
47 in reduced system efficiency (Armstrong and Hurley, 2010; Koehl *et al.*, 2011; Teo *et al.*, 2012; Kaldellis *et al.*,
48 2014; Gökmen *et al.*, 2016; Maghami *et al.*, 2016). Typically, a temperature increase of 1°C causes
49 between a 0.14% and 0.47% reduction in relative efficiency, depending on the type of PV panel installed
50 (Zaoui *et al.*, 2015; Cotfas *et al.*, 2018). PV panel temperature is also affected by wind and relative
51 humidity, making predictions of electricity output relatively complex (Fesharaki *et al.*, 2011; Huld *et al.*,
52 2011; Kaplani and Kaplanis, 2014). For example, panels exposed to high winds undergo greater cooling
53 via forced convective heat transfer to the ambient air (Tonui and Tripanagnostopoulos, 2007; Armstrong
54 and Hurley, 2010; Schwingshackl *et al.*, 2013). By contrast, in low-wind, low-solar conditions (<4 ms⁻¹;
55 <400 W/m²), radiative cooling and natural convection (driven by temperature differences) prevail, and
56 panel cooling reduces (Skoplaki and Palyvos, 2009; Huld *et al.*, 2011; Koehl *et al.*, 2011). This effect can be
57 described using the linear function of the total in-plane irradiance with wind speed affecting the gradient
58 of the slope (Koehl *et al.*, 2011). As such, given solar irradiance of 1000 W/m² and wind speeds of 1-2 ms⁻¹,
59 the temperature difference between the ambient and PV panel is predicted to be ~32°C while winds of
60 9-10 ms⁻¹ correspond with a temperature difference of just ~12°C (Koehl *et al.*, 2011).

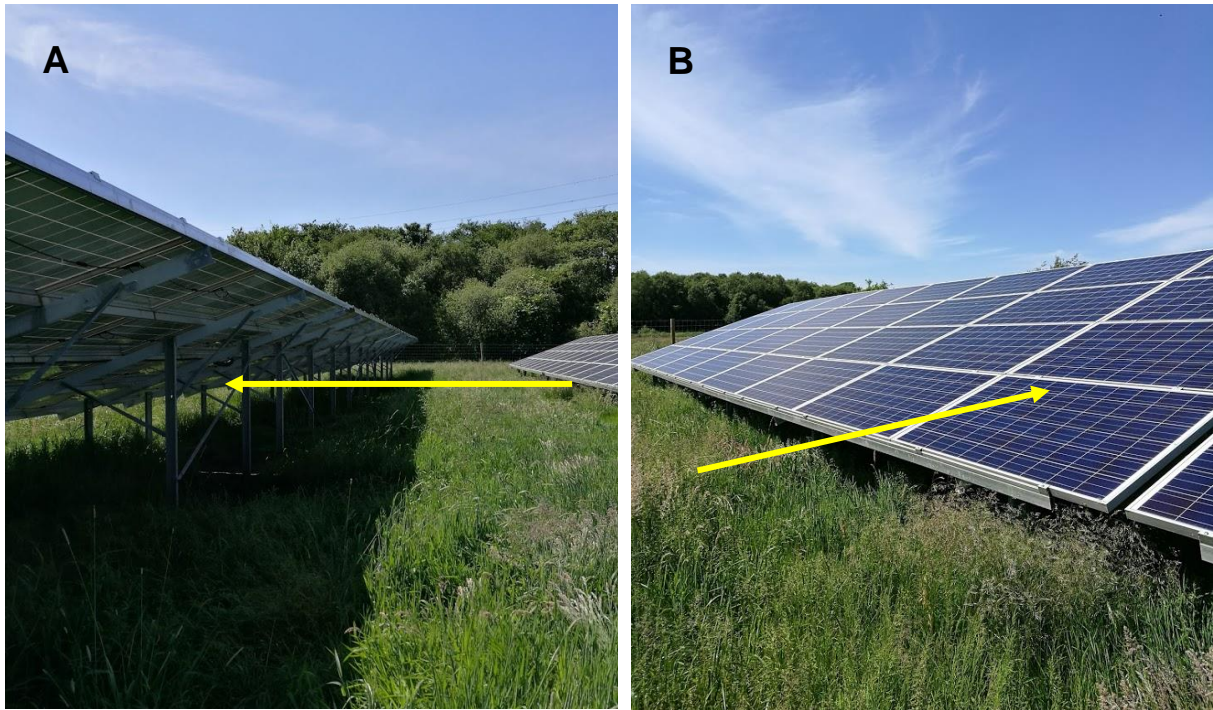
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62 Despite these observations wind speed and directional effects remain poorly resolved. Indeed, there is
63 conflicting evidence on the value of incorporating wind into solar energy models. While studies such as
64 Gaglia *et al.* (2017) claim that wind has a limited effect and thus can be disregarded, others (Koehl *et al.*,
65 2011; Schwingshackl *et al.*, 2013; An *et al.*, 2017) purport that the inclusion of wind speed significantly
66 improves solar energy forecasting capabilities, particularly on very short time horizons (0 to 2 hours)
67 which can see a 2% improvement in RMSE error (Agoua *et al.*, 2018). Equally, recent experimental
68 models have shown that heat convection from the PV surface decreases when wind flows in parallel to
69 the array, highlighting the potential importance of wind direction (Kaplani and Kaplanis, 2014).
70 Nevertheless, findings are inconsistent and understanding limited due to the diverse range of
71 environmental settings and panel types to be considered (e.g. Koehl *et al.*, 2011).

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73 PV electricity output may also be substantially affected by changes in wind direction due to differences in
74 the exposed surface area as described by Newton's Law of Cooling, which calculates the convection rate
75 between an object and its surroundings (O'Sullivan, 1990; Vollmer, 2009; Teo *et al.*, 2012). As fixed-tilt
76 ground-mounted solar arrays are generally orientated to maximise exposure to direct sunlight, in the
77 northern (southern) hemisphere PV arrays are south (north) facing (Figure 1). Consequently, a greater
78 proportion of the panel surface is exposed to southerly (northerly) winds compared to northerly
79 (southerly) directions given the orientation and inclination (Tonui and Tripanagnostopoulos, 2007;
80 Kaplani and Kaplanis, 2014). Thus, when all other factors are equal, the most efficient wind cooling
81 should occur under southerly (northerly) winds (Jubayer *et al.*, 2016). Recent observations at Hadley
82 Solar Park in England by Vassel and Iakovidis (2017) evidences this, reporting a power increase of up to
83 24% (300 kW) under southerly winds attributable to a 28% increase in convective heat transfer on the
84 windward side of the solar array compared to the leeward side (e.g. Kaplani and Kaplanis, 2014; Jubayer
85 *et al.*, 2016). However, it is likely that solar park design – the spacing of panel rows, height, and
86 inclination – influence wind patterns including the levels of turbulence, with greater turbulence

87 increasing heat transfer and thus PV cooling and electricity output (Nickling, 1978; Iakovidis and Ting,
88 2014; Kaplani and Kaplanis, 2014; Iousef *et al.*, 2017).
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90 **Figure 1:** Visualisation of the (a) northerly and (b) southerly airstreams (arrows) under investigation. The
91 front of the panel is sheltered from northerly winds but exposed to southerly winds, the situation is
92 reversed for the back of the panel. Panels have a larger surface area exposed to the southerly winds given
93 the skyward inclination.
94

95 As manufacturers usually provide static efficiency ratings based on standard test conditions (STCs),
96 commonly at 25°C, 1000W/m² irradiance, and an airmass (AM) (direct optical path length) of 1.5, reliable
97 energy predictions in response to changes in meteorological conditions is precluded (Bücher, 1997; Elibol
98 *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, different design, technical characteristics and geographical contexts necessitate
99 site-specific field testing to accurately predict electricity output (Mani and Pillai, 2010; Dubey *et al.*, 2013;
100 Zaoui *et al.*, 2015; Gökmen *et al.*, 2016). For example, a recent study in Greece compared the PV
101 efficiency reported in technical specifications (9.6% to 11.3%) with the actual efficiency observed at a
102 solar park exposed to outdoor conditions. They observed average PV efficiencies 18% lower than those
103 achieved in a controlled lab environment, as the prevailing weather conditions, namely high ambient
104 temperature and solar radiation, lowered efficiencies by raising the panel temperature (Gaglia *et al.*,
105 2017).
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107 Increased contributions from solar PV systems to electricity supply could be achieved through better
108 predictions of electricity output. Whilst temperature effects are generally well resolved, developing models
109 that incorporate wind speed and direction effects could offer useful insight and support energy grid
110 operators in their efforts to achieve supply and demand equilibrium. Therefore, this paper aims to quantify
111 the effects of wind and other meteorological variables on PV electricity output. It is hypothesised that: (1)
112 wind will have the greatest influence after solar radiation and ambient temperature on the overall
113 electricity output, and (2) solar panels will generate more electricity when winds originate from southerly

114 azimuths compared to northerly equivalents, with larger differences at higher wind speeds. These
 115 hypotheses will be tested using meteorological and PV array temperature and production data from a 5
 116 MW ground-mounted solar park in the south of England. However, we also discuss implications for other
 117 localities and solar park site designs.

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119 **2. Materials and Methods**

120 **2.1 Study Area and Geographical Setting**

121 This research was undertaken at Westmill Solar Park, Oxfordshire, UK (51°37'03"N, 01°38'45"W), which
 122 comprises 36 south-facing rows of fixed polycrystalline-silicon PV panels over 12.1 hectares of grassland.
 123 The PV array rows have a maximum height of 2.5 m, are 4.4 m wide, tilted due south at an angle of 30° and
 124 spaced 11.2 m from adjacent rows. The site has a rated capacity of 5 MW and a capacity factor of 12.3%
 125 based on 5,493 MWh of annual electricity generation between June 2013 and 2014. Like much of Western
 126 Europe, the area has a temperate oceanic climate (Köppen-Geiger classification) characterised by warm
 127 summers and mild winters (Geiger, 1954). The prevailing winds are westerly (Figure 2), which alternate
 128 warm tropical and cool polar maritime air masses, bringing inclement and humid weathers from the
 129 Atlantic Ocean (Met Office, 2018a). Rainfall is 685 mm per annum and partly cloudy skies are common
 130 (occurring >50% of the time) resulting in a high percentage of diffuse solar radiation and an average of 1632
 131 hours of direct sunlight annually (1981 – 2010 reference period) – just 37% of the theoretical maximum
 132 daylight duration (Khademi *et al.*, 2016; Meteoblue, 2018a; Met Office, 2018b). Nevertheless, the potential
 133 yearly sum of global horizontal irradiation is among the highest on the UK mainland at ~1100-1150 kWh/m²
 134 (Šúri and Cebecauer, 2010).

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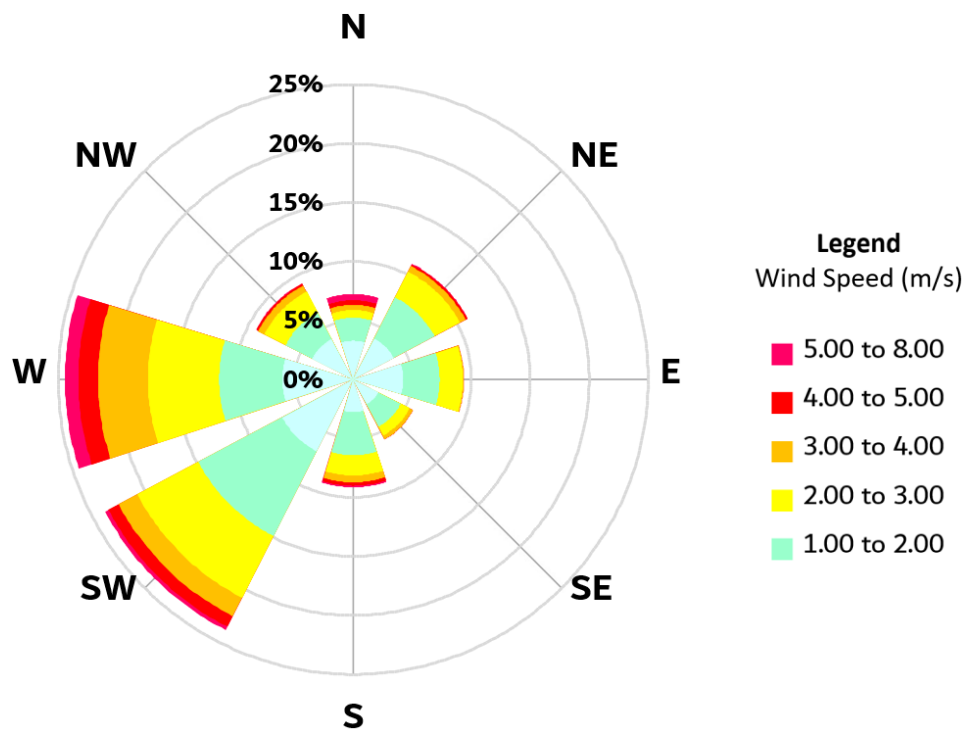
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Mean wind speed:	1.6 m/s
Percent calm (< 0.3 m/s):	19.4%
Prevailing wind direction:	Westerly (24%)

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Figure 2: Wind rose showing the percentage of wind hours from eight cardinal wind directions and their associated wind speeds. Observations are measured at a height of 1.5m above ground between June 27, 2013., 13:00 and June 27, 2014., 12:00 BST.

2.2 Data Sources, Preparation and Processing

Wind velocity (speed and direction), solar radiation (total and diffuse), ambient temperature and relative humidity, sampled every minute and averaged over hourly periods, were measured for a twelve month period from 27th June 2013 13:00 to 27th June 2014 12:00. Average ambient temperature (°C) and relative humidity (%) was derived from measurements taken using Tempcon HOBO data loggers (U30 model with S-THB-M002 sensor) at a height of 0.5 m above ground at four locations away from the photovoltaic panel rows. Total (global) and diffuse PAR (Photosynthetically Active Radiation) (J/m^2) was measured at one location (using the Delta-T BF5 sunshine recorder and GP1 data logger) at a height of 1.3 m. The diffuse fraction was used to estimate cloud cover given by the ratio of diffuse to total PAR (R_D/R_T) and used as a proxy for light intensity (on a scale from 0 to 1) whereby lower values indicate clearer sky conditions (Liu and Jordan, 1960; Roderick, 1999; Sağlam, 2010; Cruse *et al.*, 2015). Wind speed (ms^{-1}) and direction (°) were measured at the same logging station at 1.5 m above the surface using a three-cup anemometer (S-WSA-M003, S-WDA-M003 sensors). The site operator provided electricity output (kWh) and two sets of PV panel temperature (°C) readings, which were averaged for analysis.

All the data were recorded in British Summer Time (GMT+1) and quality controlled to eliminate blank fields and erroneous values. Only 'daytime' data was used in the analysis, classified as two hours after sunrise until two hours prior to sunset to account for rapid fluctuations following the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration algorithm (ESRL, 2014), resulting in 3848 usable time-series records. The data was split into northerly and southerly wind subsets whereby values between 95° and 265° were considered southerly and those between 0 and 85° and 275 and 360° northerly. The 10° buffer between the northerly and southerly groups recognises that wind direction is a fluctuating quantity which oscillates around its mean value (Sharples and Charlesworth, 1998). To isolate the influence of wind direction, all other meteorological variables were categorised following standard bin packing methodology (Cohen, 1992). First, the range was calculated for ambient temperature, relative humidity, wind speed, total and diffuse PAR data sets before the individual values were categorised into bins, informed by Sturge's Rule and the visual examination of histograms for each variable. Accordingly, ambient temperature, relative humidity and wind speed values were sorted into fourteen equal bin widths of 3°C, 5% and $0.5ms^{-1}$, respectively (Table 1). Due to the severely skewed data distribution, total and diffuse PAR were categorised into 5% segments so that there was an equal number of data points in each bin. Following, categorisation, northerly and southerly wind subsets were compared and paired if the bin codes for all corresponding variables (ambient temperature, wind speed, relative humidity, total and diffuse PAR) matched (see Appendix A for the full listing of southerly-northerly pairs). Multiple pairings were made when more than one northerly match was found for any given southerly data point.

197 **Table 1:** Bin packing of meteorological variables showing the minimum threshold value for each bin
 198 number. The 5% segmentation for global and diffuse PAR resulted in 228 data points per bin. For the
 199 full listing of southerly-northerly pairs see Appendix A.

Bin Number	Ambient Temperature (°C)	Relative Humidity (%)	Wind Speed (m/s)	Global PAR (J/m ²)	Diffuse PAR (J/m ²)
1	-6 – -3.1	30 – 34.9	0 – 0.4	1080 – 10500	2160 – 9898
2	-3 – -0.1	35 – 39.9	0.5 – 0.9	10501 – 39959	9899 – 39959
3	0 – 2.9	40 – 44.9	1 – 1.4	39960 – 86399	39960 – 78839
4	3 – 5.9	45 – 49.9	1.5 – 1.9	86400 – 140681	78840 – 123671
5	6 – 8.9	50 – 54.9	2 – 2.4	140682 – 203039	123672 – 166319
6	9 – 11.9	55 – 59.9	2.5 – 2.9	203040 – 258358	166320 – 204957
7	12 – 14.9	60 – 64.9	3 – 3.4	258359 – 331697	204958 – 239535
8	15 – 17.9	65 – 69.9	3.5 – 3.9	331698 – 401759	239536 – 279719
9	18 – 20.9	70 – 74.9	4 – 4.4	401760 – 480599	279720 – 324586
10	21 – 23.9	75 – 79.9	4.5 – 4.9	480600 – 557012	324587 – 366833
11	24 – 26.9	80 – 84.9	5 – 5.4	557013 – 646803	366834 – 421199
12	27 – 29.9	85 – 89.9	5.5 – 5.9	646804 – 750816	421200 – 477120
13	30 – 32.9	90 – 94.9	6 – 6.4	750817 – 871142	477121 – 534599
14	33 +	95 – 100	6.5 +	871143 – 999999	534600 – 613439
15				1000000 – 1199999	613440 – 693359
16				1200000 – 1499999	693360 – 784278
17				1500000 – 1799999	784279 – 884387
18				1800000 – 2099999	884388 – 999999
19				2100000 – 2599999	1000000 – 1299999
20				2600000 +	1300000 +

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201 **2.3 Statistical Methods**

202 All statistical analyses were conducted using the open-source R programming software, version 3.4.3 (R
 203 Core Team, 2013), and significance determined at the 1% level ($p < 0.01$). Forward selection multiple
 204 regression was employed to test the first hypotheses, that wind will have the greatest influence after
 205 solar radiation and ambient temperature on the overall electricity output, using data when both solar
 206 elevation angle and electricity potential are highest – this solar noon (1300 BST, 365 data points in total)
 207 (ESRL, 2014) (Meyers *et al.*, 2016; Elibol *et al.*, 2017). Before conducting the multiple regression
 208 procedure, diagnostics plots provided checks for extreme values (Cook’s distance), heteroscedasticity
 209 (Bartlett and Breusch-Pagan tests), and normality (Shapiro–Wilk test). Furthermore, individual variance
 210 inflation factors (VIF) were computed as an indicator of multicollinearity using the ‘mctest’ package to
 211 avoid overfitting (Faraway, 2016). Using the R ‘scale’ function, beta coefficients (reported in standard
 212 deviations between 0 and ± 1) of the predictor variables were generated (based on the original multiple
 213 regression coefficients) to achieve a standardised solution enabling comparisons of the relative influence
 214 of the seven meteorological variables (Schroeder *et al.*, 2016). Akaike information criterion (AIC) (R:
 215 MASS package) was used to find the parsimonious model (Akaike, 1974). R^2 value was used to assess
 216 predictive power (Ranaboldo *et al.*, 2013; Schwingshackl *et al.*, 2013), and LMG scores (after authors:
 217 Lindeman, Merenda, and Gold, 1980) used to determine the relative hierarchy of predictor variables
 218 based on explanatory importance (Grömping, 2006; Grömping and Matthias, 2018). LMG scores were
 219 estimated using the ‘calc.relimp’ procedure in the ‘relaimpo’ package which gave the percentage of

220 variance contributed by each variable (Grömping, 2006). All LMG scores were normalised to 100% and
 221 calculated as a percentage of total R².

222

223 To test hypothesis two, that solar panels will generate more electricity when winds originate from southerly
 224 azimuths compared to northerly equivalents, with larger differences at higher wind speeds, a least squares
 225 linear regression model was fitted between northerly and southerly electricity output matches (Ranaboldo
 226 *et al.*, 2013). Linear regression was used to visualise the relationship between directional groups compared
 227 with the idealised one-to-one relationship expected if wind direction had no effect. Slopes, intercepts and
 228 confidence intervals were used to assess divergence from the one-to-one relationship and thus how the
 229 effect of wind direction changes as electricity output increases. Two further linear regression models were
 230 fitted between (1) wind speed and the electricity output difference (southerly minus northerly winds),
 231 and (2) panel temperature difference and electricity output difference, to determine whether wind
 232 cooling increased at higher wind speeds. A paired samples t-test was used to determine if there was a
 233 statistically significant difference in PV electricity output for northerly and southerly wind conditions, with
 234 electricity output readings logarithmically transformed ($\log_{10}(\text{value})$) to satisfy the residual normality
 235 assumption but later back-transformed (antilog: 10^x) and the results reported in kWh (Kutner *et al.*, 2004;
 236 McDonald, 2009). This was achieved using five sub-sets of the data to determine the point of significance
 237 based on the following electricity output groups: all outputs, <50 kWh, >50 kWh, >100 kWh and >200 kWh.

238

239 3. Results

240 3.1 Meteorological controls over electricity output

241 The multiple regression model shows how each meteorological variable affected the observed PV
 242 electricity output. Relative humidity, cloud cover and diffuse PAR were significant controls, together
 243 explaining 66.3% of the variance in electricity produced ($F(3, 322) = 211, p < .001$), whereas wind speed,
 244 direction and ambient temperature were insignificant controls ($p > .05$) (Table 2). Cloud cover and
 245 relative humidity had the strongest influence over electricity output, together explaining 85% of the
 246 variance, with increases in both variables associated with decreases in electricity output (Table 2). By
 247 contrast, electricity output increased with diffuse PAR but was less influential, explaining only 15% of the
 248 variance (Table 2).

249

250 **Table 2:** Summary statistics of the dominant predictor variables as given by the regression model
 251 along with their LMG scores with 95% confidence limits. Residual standard error: 0.5834 on 322
 252 degrees of freedom. $R^2 = 0.6628$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.6597$. F-statistic: 211 on 3 and 322 DF, p-value: <
 253 $2.2e-16$ ***, ns = no significance, * $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$.

~ Electricity output	β Coefficient	Standard error	t value	Pr(> t)	Significance	LMG Score
Intercept	3.816e-16	0.03231	0.000	1	ns	
Relative Humidity	-0.3328	0.04564	-7.292	2.38e-12	***	43% \pm 7%
Cloud cover	-0.5153	0.0403	-12.788	< 2e-16	***	42% \pm 6%
Diffuse PAR	0.2923	0.0415	7.042	1.15e-11	***	15% +4% -6%

254 3.2 Wind influences PV electricity output

255 The correlation between electricity output under northerly winds and electricity output under southerly
256 winds has been plotted to demonstrate the effects of wind direction on PV electricity production. When
257 there was no difference in electricity output for northerly and southerly wind matches, they fall on the one-
258 to-one line. All points above this line indicate greater electricity production under northerly winds when
259 compared to southerly equivalents, and visa-versa. Despite the insignificance of wind direction over PV
260 electricity output when analysed with other meteorological variables (i.e. regression methods), the
261 electricity output during northerly winds were, on average, only 73% of that during southerly winds
262 conditions when all other variables (listed in Table 1) were held constant (Figure 3). However, there was a
263 turning point in the data, with higher electricity outputs associated with northerly winds when total
264 electricity generation was less than 50 kWh (Table 3). Moreover, the difference in mean electricity output
265 between northerly and southerly wind groups increased significantly at higher PV electricity outputs: under
266 southerly wind conditions electricity outputs were 23.8%, 27.8% and 42.9% higher at electricity outputs >
267 50, 100 and 200 kWh, respectively (Table 3).

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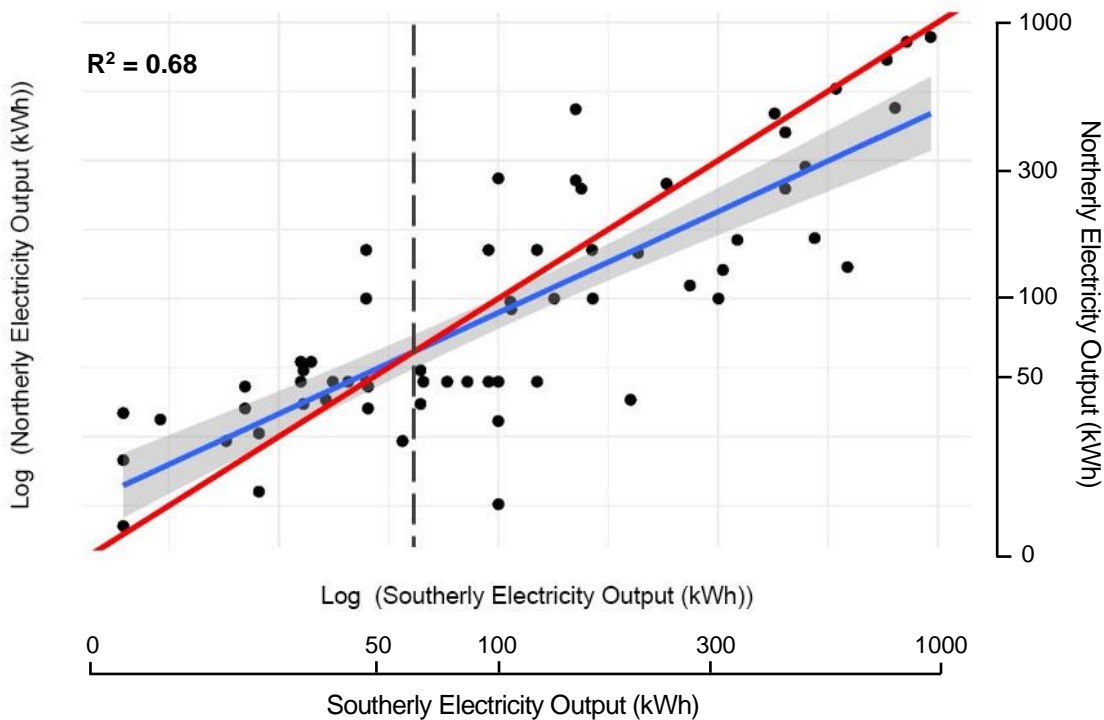
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286 **Figure 3:** The relationship between electricity outputs during northerly and southerly winds. The blue line
287 with the shaded area represents the trend of the observed electricity output ($Y = 0.7325x + 0.4835$) with
288 95% confidence limits. Points above (below) the 1:1 plot (red line) indicate where electricity output was
289 higher when the wind was from the north (south). The vertical dashed line indicates the point where the
290 trend changes from a northerly to southerly electricity surplus.

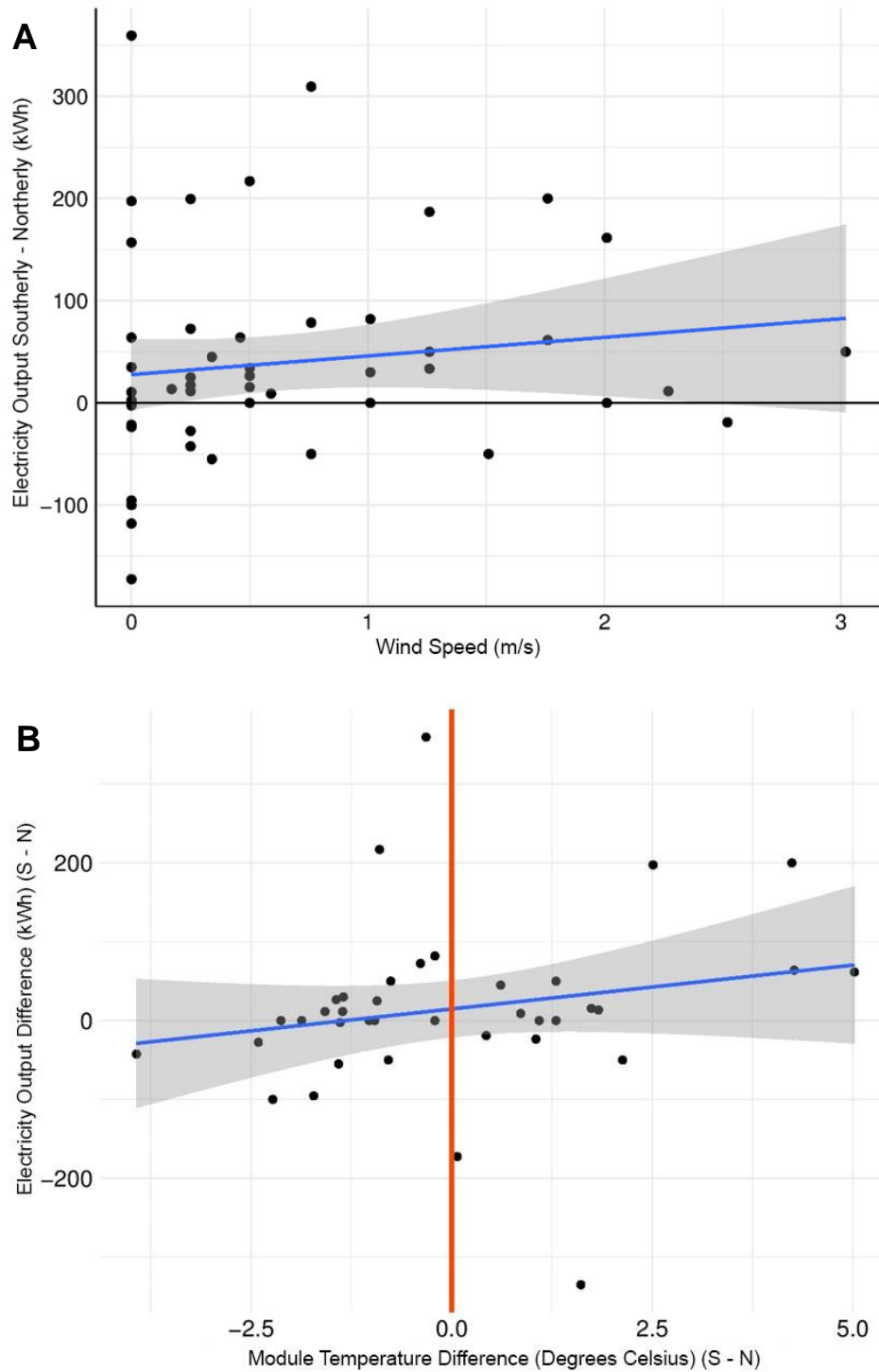
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292 **Table 3:** The mean electricity output for northerly and southerly wind groups for each data subset. Means were back transformed by taking the antilog. SD =
 293 Standard Deviation, DF = Degrees of Freedom, n = number of matches, : ns = no significance, * p < .01 and ** p < .001 = very significant).

Electricity	n	Northerly	Southerly	South - North	DF	Northerly	Southerly	t-value	p-value	Significance
		Mean (kWh)	Mean (kWh)	Difference (kWh)		SD	SD			
All outputs	70	147.5	177.6	30.1	69	0.42	0.47	1.5	0.149	ns
< 50 kWh	17	38.5	27.5	-11.0	16	0.17	0.17	4.3	< 0.001	**
> 50 kWh	53	181.8	225.1	43.3	52	0.42	0.4	2.9	0.005	*
> 100 kWh	32	260.0	332.2	72.2	31	0.42	0.32	3.1	0.004	*
> 200 kWh	18	344.4	492.0	147.6	17	0.37	0.21	4.3	< 0.001	**

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295 Despite the significance of the relationship between wind direction and PV electricity output (Figure 3),
296 differences in wind speed ($R^2 = 0.02$) and PV panel temperature ($R^2 = 0.04$) had no discernible effect on the
297 observed power output difference between northerly and southerly wind matches (Figure 4).
298



335 **Figure 4:** (a) The relationship between wind speed and electricity outputs (southerly minus northerly winds)
336 when electricity output was > 50kWh with 95% confidence limits, and (b) the relationship between
337 difference electricity output between southerly and northerly winds and panel temperature with 95%
338 confidence limits.

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340 **4. Discussion**

341 Improved predictions of PV electricity output would support the low-carbon energy transition by enabling grid
342 stabilisation of intermittent electricity sources. Here, we show the influence of meteorological variables on
343 electricity output, particularly how wind can affect the amount of electricity generated. Regarding energy and
344 financial returns, electricity increases could make solar energy more attractive and competitive with fossil fuels, if
345 wind cooling effects are utilised to the full extent.

346

347 4.1 Meteorological controls over PV electricity output

348 The hypothesis, that wind will have the greatest influence after solar radiation and ambient temperature on the
349 overall electricity output, was rejected. Indeed, we found that ambient temperature, wind speed, and wind
350 direction had no significant influence on electricity output whereas, cloud cover, relative humidity and diffuse
351 PAR accounted for 43%, 42% and 15% of the variance in electricity output, respectively (Table 2). These findings
352 are consistent with the environmental setting, supporting previous works in similarly humid, low wind speed and
353 mild temperature environments (e.g. Gwandu and Creasey, 1995; Ghazi and Ip, 2014; Kazem and Chaichan, 2015;
354 Khademi *et al.*, 2016). We found that PV sensitivity to cloud cover (-0.51) was greater than to relative humidity (-
355 0.29) attributable to cloud formation and dissipation which causes frequent fluctuations in solar intensity and PV
356 output in similar environments (Still *et al.*, 2009; Hill *et al.*, 2012; Challenge *et al.*, 2015). Indeed, passing clouds
357 can shade panels and temporarily reduce electricity generation by 80% or more, exacerbating intermittency
358 issues (Hanjalic *et al.*, 2007; Hill *et al.*, 2012; Khademi *et al.*, 2016; Bonkaney *et al.*, 2017; Reindl *et al.*, 2017; Touati
359 *et al.*, 2017; Saffari *et al.*, 2018). In other climatic zones, the effects of clouds vary. For example, a field study in
360 Brazil found that clouds are responsible for ~50% attenuation approximately 75% of the time, and in Niger,
361 notable cloud impacts are limited to the short rainy season (Gu *et al.*, 2001; Bonkaney *et al.*, 2017). It is likely that
362 the characteristically cloudy conditions at Westmill lead to diffuse PAR, as opposed to direct, being positively
363 related to PV electricity output (Table 3): the relationship between diffuse PAR and PV electricity output is
364 consistent with PV conversion theory (e.g. Iqbal, 1983; López and Batlles, 2004; Solanki, 2015).

365

366 The humid conditions (RH >70%) at Westmill Park likely had a more consistent adverse effect on electricity
367 output, compared with cloud cover, creating a barrier of water vapor in front of the panel surface reducing the
368 incidence of direct radiation available for electricity conversion (Iqbal, 1983; Gwandu and Creasey, 1995;
369 Panjwani and Narejo, 2014). Further, there were occasions when the relative humidity reached 100% indicating
370 that the dew point and ambient temperatures were equal. This caused the saturated air to periodically coat the
371 panels in moisture thus increasing the reflectivity of the surface (optical refractive index) reducing the proportion
372 of solar energy available for electricity generation. Whilst wind was not influential at Westmill, it may be in other
373 climate zones, where substantial panel heat accumulation occurs, such as Qatar (Touati *et al.*, 2017). Here,
374 temperature and humidity reduce the capacity for electrical conversion, while the wind transfers heat away from
375 the panel surface, increasing system efficiency and electricity output (Touati *et al.*, 2017). Further, Westmill has
376 relatively low wind speeds, limiting wind-induced cooling and drying compared to high-wind environments (e.g.
377 10 to 15 m/s) (Gökmen *et al.*, 2016; Jubayer *et al.*, 2016).

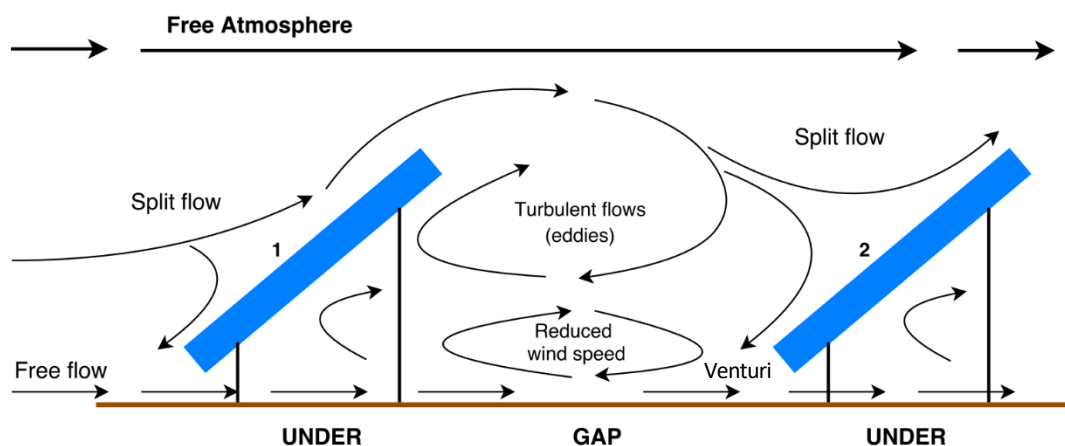
378

379 4.2 Wind influences PV electricity output

380 The hypothesis, that electricity output is increased under southerly winds, was supported, although no
381 relationship with wind speed was found. Overall, northerly winds generated 73% of the electricity output of

382 southerly equivalents (Figure 3). This trend is attributable to the efficacy of wind cooling through convective heat
 383 transfer as described by Newton’s Law of Cooling, whereby differences in exposed surface area likely resulted in
 384 differences in cooling rates between northerly and southerly directions and the solar park infrastructure (Cole and
 385 Sturrock, 1977; Keszthelyi *et al.*, 2003; Jubayer *et al.*, 2016; Goverde *et al.*, 2017; Lagouarde and Boulet, 2017).
 386 The southern face has a larger exposed surface area to maximise incident solar energy capture (Bardhi *et al.*,
 387 2012; Teo *et al.*, 2012). By proxy, this means that panel exposure to southerly winds is greater than northerly
 388 equivalents, because the wind currents can pass more effectively over the length of the PV array on its southern
 389 side due to the skyward inclination. In contrast, northerly wind approaches result in mostly groundward
 390 deflection (Goverde *et al.*, 2017). This difference increases the potential for convective heat loss, and ultimately,
 391 improves surface cooling capabilities under southerly winds (Goverde *et al.*, 2017; Lagouarde and Boulet, 2017).
 392

393 Differences in electricity output increased exponentially as the minimum electricity threshold was raised from 50
 394 to 200 kWh, with southerly winds associated with electricity boosts between 20.4 and 42.9% (Table 2). This was
 395 likely caused by increased surface heating by solar absorption which increases the cooling benefits of wind when
 396 compared to instances of reduced solar absorption. Moreover, under southerly winds, return flows can be
 397 generated when intercepted by the panels, augmenting cooling on the north-facing underside of the panels
 398 (Goverde *et al.*, 2017). Specifically, turbulent eddies form in the wake of the array (gap areas) and a return flow is
 399 generated which cools the underside of the array structure (Figure 5). Conversely, equivalent northerly winds are
 400 unlikely to induce counterflow cooling on the southern side due to the skyward tilt. This is because arrays under
 401 northerly winds act as a shelterbelt (or wind block) (Sharples and Charlesworth, 1998), creating areas of low wind
 402 speed adjacent to the southern edge – a phenomenon associated with many natural and human elements
 403 including hedges (e.g. Wilson and Yee, 2003; Stull, 2012) and buildings (e.g. Oke, 1988). Nonetheless, for both
 404 northerly and southerly winds, air passes beneath the array and accelerates due to the venturi effect, resulting in
 405 micro-pressure changes drawing air currents toward the base of the array structure (Figure 5).
 406

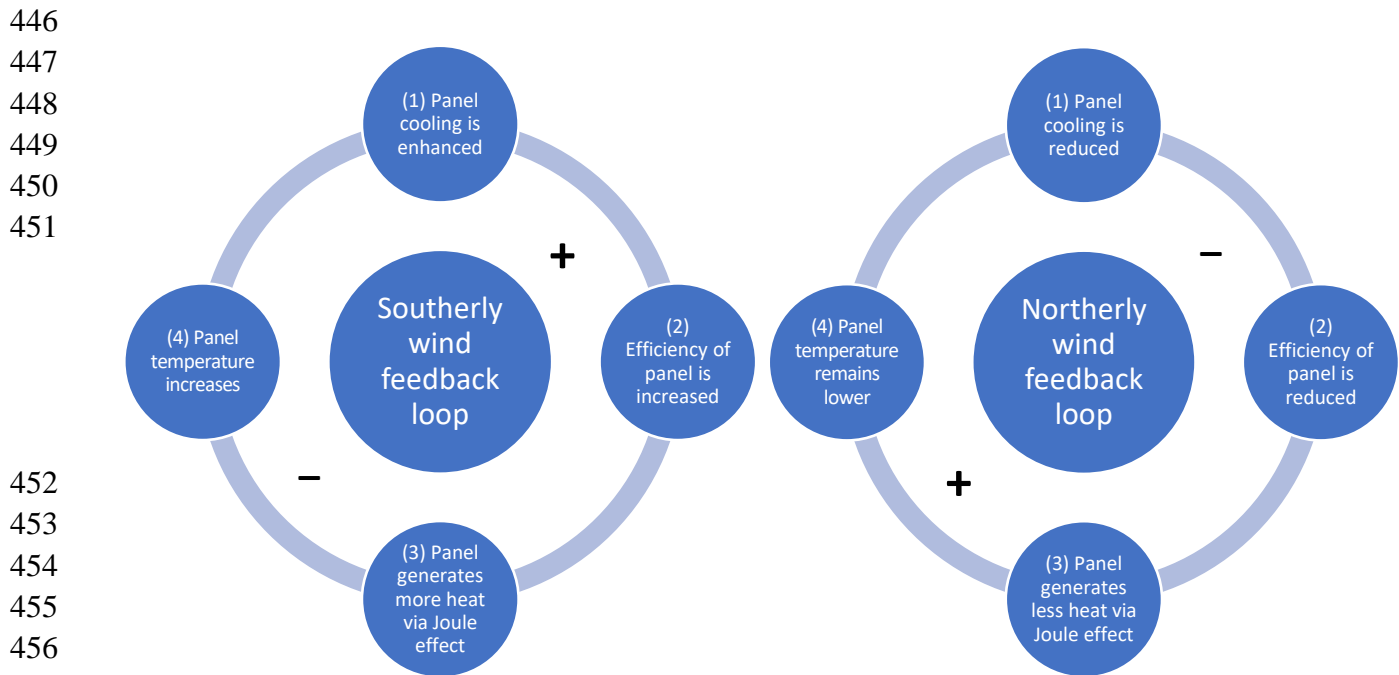


419 **Figure 5:** A schematic of wind flows at a theoretical solar park (cross-section view looking west) given a wake
 420 interference landscape and southerly wind scenario (Northern Hemisphere) (after Gandemer 1976; Kovar-
 421 Panskus *et al.*, 2002). Markers 1 and 2 indicate stagnation points.

422 For electricity outputs <50 kWh the opposite trend was found; northerly winds resulted in significantly higher
 423 electricity output than southerly equivalents (Figure 3). This reversal in trend may be attributed to greater boundary
 424 layer heat exchange driven by increased turbulent airflow under northerly winds (Bogren *et al.*, 2001; Goverde *et al.*,

425 2017; Marinić-Kragić *et al.*, 2018). Since solar arrays are asymmetrical, turbulence intensity is contingent on array
 426 orientation and the prevailing wind direction (e.g. Cole and Sturrock, 1977; Jubayer and Hangan, 2012). Given
 427 southerly winds, panel surfaces affect air currents in similar ways to pitched roofs, deflecting wind upwards and
 428 along the length of the structure (Sharples and Charlesworth, 1998). This encourages laminar flows, restricting heat
 429 loss by creating an insulation layer that restricts mixing (Jubayer and Hangan, 2012; Stull, 2012; Goverde *et al.*,
 430 2017). Conversely, when winds approach the northern, downward facing edge, turbulence was likely increased,
 431 breaking up the laminar layers, increasing turbulence and thereby boundary layer heat exchange (Goverde *et al.*,
 432 2017). This effect is supported by wind tunnel experiments, for example increases in turbulence intensity from 0.5%
 433 (near laminar) to 12% has been shown to increase the PV heat flux to the ambient air by ~40% (Iakovidis and Ting,
 434 2014). At greater electricity outputs the impact of turbulence is likely subsumed by other factors such as resistive
 435 ('Joule') and solar heating effects.

436
 437 Despite the differences in electricity outputs with wind direction, PV panel temperatures were not affected
 438 (Figure 5). This was not expected and contradictory to the understanding that lower panel temperatures result in
 439 greater electricity outputs. Further, it is counterintuitive given wind flow is the primary cooling mechanism
 440 governing the efficiency of PV systems (Xydis, 2013; Jubayer *et al.*, 2016; Vassel and Iakovidis, 2017; Wu *et al.*,
 441 2017; Styszko *et al.*, 2018). Perhaps because solar energy is not entirely converted to electricity, the Joule effect –
 442 where waste heat is generated during the light-to-electricity conversion process – offset the initial cooling
 443 attributable to surface winds, initiating a stabilising feedback loop (Armstrong and Harley, 2010; Morchid and
 444 Conlon, n.d.) (Figure 6). Conversely, less wind cooling under northerly winds reduces electricity, Joule heating and
 445 temperature implications throughout the cycle, initiating a similar stabilising effect (Figure 6).

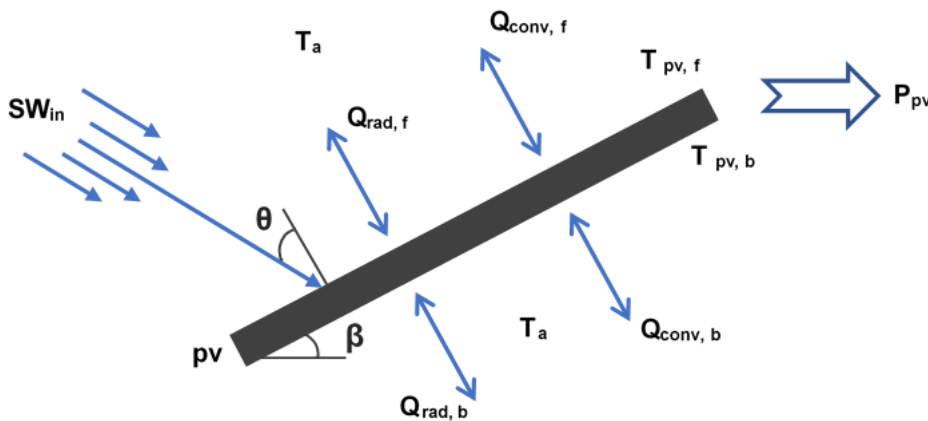


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 459 **Figure 6:** Hypothesised southerly and northerly wind feedback loops that explain the observed similarities in
 460 panel temperatures but differences in electricity output.

461

462 These hypothesised feedback loops are supported by consideration of heat transfers (Figure 8). Shortwave
 463 radiation from the sun (Q_{rad}) and resistive (Joule) effects associated with electricity generation create heat while
 464 electricity generation (P_{pv}), natural and forced convection (Q_{conv}) dispel heat from panels. Under calm winds,
 465 natural convection prevails, caused by thermal differences between the hotter PV panel surface (T_{pv}) and cooler
 466 ambient air (T_a), whereas stronger winds associate with forced convection, usually a more effective means of heat
 467 transfer (Keszthelyi *et al.*, 2003; Skoplaki and Palyvos, 2009; Huld *et al.*, 2011; Koehl *et al.*, 2011; Goverde *et al.*,
 468 2017; Lagouarde and Boulet, 2017). The results from this study (Figure 5) imply that heat loss through convective
 469 transfer (sum of both natural and forced components) was approximately proportional to the heat accumulated
 470 through absorption of shortwave radiation (Q_{rad}) and Joule effects under southerly winds. Heat losses (P_{pv} ,
 471 natural and forced convection) were not sufficient to overcome the heat generated (from the absorbed solar
 472 radiation and Joule effects) due to the prevalence of low wind (<3 m/s), low solar conditions (Figure 5) and thus
 473 the limited wind cooling benefits associated with forced convection (Skoplaki and Palyvos, 2009; Huld *et al.*, 2011;
 474 Koehl *et al.*, 2011). However, at higher electricity outputs, these same causes of heat loss likely overwhelmed any
 475 heat generated leading to a significant surplus in electricity output of up to 42.9% under southerly winds (Table
 476 3). This is substantially greater than the 24% (300 kW) increase in peak power observed in a similar study at
 477 Hadley solar farm, UK (Vasel and Iakovidis, 2017).

478
479



480

481 **Figure 7:** Schematic of heat exchanges, radiation (Q_{rad}) and convection (Q_{conv}) at the front (f) and back (b) of the
 482 solar panel (pv). P_{pv} relates to the electricity generated, T_a and T_{pv} are the ambient and panel temperatures,
 483 respectively. β and θ are the panel inclination angle and incoming direct solar energy component (SW_{in}),
 484 respectively (after Bardhi *et al.*, 2012).

485

486 4.3 Further research and implications for solar park innovations

487 In order to capitalise on the influence of meteorological conditions on solar park electricity outputs across the
 488 world, a combination of further field research, controlled experimentation of the independent variables and
 489 modelling approaches is required. Wind characteristics and associated cooling benefits vary considerably across
 490 different locations. At Westmill, prevailing westerly and south-westerly winds complement southerly facing
 491 panels, providing natural cooling. However, in the sunbelt (0 to 40°N) where annual global irradiance is double
 492 that of Westmill (~2000 - 2500 kWh/m²) and ambient temperatures often exceed 30°C (Šúri and Cebecauer,
 493 2010; Kawajiri *et al.*, 2011), north-east trade winds (e.g. Qatar: Meteoblue, 2018b) are unlikely to be as effective
 494 at cooling panels with a southerly orientation given the sheltering effect (Sharples and Charlesworth, 1998).

495 Moreover, as global circulation patterns follow changes in the sun's position, seasonal shifts in wind direction may
496 impact panel productivity differently according to the time of year. These aspects highlight the location-specific
497 nature of meteorological interactions, as such developers must effectively harmonise panel efficiency and solar
498 insolation receipts to locate the best sites (Bhandari *et al.*, 2015).

499
500 Field studies like this one are highly location specific reflecting the unique characteristics (e.g. climatological,
501 technical, site management) that influence PV performance. In order to capitalise on these findings, and improve
502 the efficiency of future solar parks, it would be valuable to investigate how differences in panel inclination,
503 orientation, type, spacing and location affect the balance of heat sources and sinks through changes in
504 turbulence, conduction and exposure. There is some existing understanding, for example, changes in park design,
505 specifically orientation, have been found to provide an electricity boost at little or no additional expense (Cheng
506 and Hammond, 2017). Further, wind tunnel simulations (e.g. Goverde *et al.*, 2017) and microclimate studies (e.g.
507 Fthenakis and Yu, 2013) have demonstrated that forced airflows over the panel surface transport heat
508 downwind. As such, arrays furthest downwind experience restricted heat transfer capabilities (natural
509 convection) when compared to those upstream, as the panel-ambient temperature difference is reduced (Ali *et al.*,
510 2017; Goverde *et al.*, 2017) suggesting that the most efficient solar park site designs will be those with the
511 smallest number of rows aligned with the dominant wind direction. Finally, panel interactions reduce the average
512 wind speed such that northernmost panels have reduced cooling benefits (via forced convection) under southerly
513 airstreams (Fthenakis and Yu, 2013). As southerly winds significantly increase electricity output, solar parks
514 elongated along the west-east axis may be able to capitalise on increased wind exposure by reducing the north-
515 south distance and the proportion of panels subjected to an artificially warmed airflow (Fthenakis and Yu, 2013;
516 Ali *et al.*, 2017; Goverde *et al.*, 2017).

517 518 **5.0. Conclusion**

519 Solar PV is an integral part of national and global decarbonisation strategies, with growth accelerating as costs
520 decline. As the penetration of solar PV grows, it is becoming increasingly valuable to be able to improve
521 predictions of electricity generation, including the impact of local meteorological conditions. We found that the
522 electricity output at Westmill Solar Park was primarily influenced by humidity and cloud cover with diffuse PAR
523 important but less influential; together humidity, cloud cover and diffuse PAR explained 66% of the variance in
524 electricity output. Wind direction, but not speed, was also found to significantly influence electricity generation.
525 On average electricity outputs when the wind originated from the north were only 73% of outputs when wind
526 was from the south. At the highest electricity outputs, 42.9% (147.6 kWh) more electricity was produced under
527 southerly winds compared to northerly equivalents. These differences associated with wind direction are
528 attributable to changes in the balance of heat generated and lost, which relate to the surface geometry, the role
529 of turbulence, and PV array spacing. These findings could inform both solar park location and design decisions, if
530 this understanding was extended across different climatic regions and solar park designs. Ultimately, improved
531 understanding of the effect of meteorology on PV electricity generation will improve grid management and the
532 profitability of this rapidly accelerating means of low carbon electricity production.

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Appendix A

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Table 3: Wind direction matches summary table.

Southerly										Northerly											
Match #	Date (d.m.y h:m)	WD (°)	Wind Speed (m/s)	Amb Temp (°C)	RH (%)	Global PAR (J/m2)	Diffuse PAR (J/m2)	Panel Temperature (°C)	Electricity output (kWh)	Date (d.m.y h:m)	WD (°)	Wind Speed (m/s)	Amb Temp (°C)	RH (%)	Global PAR (J/m2)	Diffuse PAR (J/m2)	Panel Temperature (°C)	Electricity output (kWh)	S-N (Panel Temp)	S-N (Energy output)	
1	02/07/2013 06:00	259.7	0.00	9.55	97.83	110160	111240	8.83	42	22/04/2014 07:00	25.3	0.00	8.93	99.40	99272	100667	8.81	50	0.02	-8	
2	02/07/2013 07:00	209.2	0.25	11.32	97.85	307800	309960	11.07	122.5	22/04/2014 09:00	296.2	0.00	10.27	99.65	296283	297259	13.48	150	-2.41	-27.5	
3	02/07/2013 07:00	209.2	0.25	11.32	97.85	307800	309960	11.07	122.5	24/06/2014 06:00	279.4	0.00	11.39	96.51	310505	283735	11.46	50	-0.39	72.5	
4	05/07/2013 07:00	256.9	0.50	11.96	99.78	399600	400680	NA	134	03/04/2014 09:00	80.0	0.50	10.61	96.95	386353	387887	12.08	100		34	
5	14/07/2013 06:00	263.9	0.00	12.78	96.73	176040	160920	NA	50.5	18/07/2013 06:00	78.6	0.00	12.75	97.13	156600	149040	13.42	40		10.5	
6	14/07/2013 06:00	263.9	0.00	12.78	96.73	176040	160920	NA	50.5	28/08/2013 08:00	355.2	0.25	13.77	99.30	162000	163080	14.09	48		2.5	
7	15/07/2013 06:00	237.3	0.00	9.09	97.38	222480	166320	NA	37.5	17/11/2013 12:00	26.7	0.00	8.44	100.00	242473	142072	10.54	59		-21.5	
8	16/07/2013 13:00	217.6	0.76	30.58	45.73	3000000	919080	NA	964	17/07/2013 13:00	355.2	0.76	31.60	45.55	3300000	1000000	NA	885.5		78.5	
9	21/07/2013 12:00	102.5	1.26	21.78	71.93	1800000	1800000	27.11	766.5	07/08/2013 12:00	70.2	1.51	21.55	69.28	2000000	1800000	NA	733		33.5	
10	26/07/2013 06:00	237.3	0.00	12.47	98.63	163080	132840	12.58	26.5	18/07/2013 06:00	78.6	0.00	12.75	97.13	156600	149040	13.42	40	-0.84	-13.5	
11	26/07/2013 06:00	237.3	0.00	12.47	98.63	163080	132840	12.58	26.5	28/08/2013 08:00	355.2	0.25	13.77	99.30	162000	163080	14.09	48	-1.51	-21.5	
12	27/07/2013 06:00	235.9	0.00	8.32	97.13	99360	97200	8.84	35.5	22/04/2014 07:00	25.3	0.00	8.93	99.40	99272	100667	8.81	50	0.03	-14.5	
13	29/07/2013 06:00	233.1	1.01	14.83	98.08	130680	110160	14.38	60.5	22/07/2013 07:00	70.2	1.01	15.75	98.50	105840	108000	15.73	30.5	-1.35	30	
14	29/07/2013 10:00	249.9	2.27	21.68	80.88	1400000	1300000	23.58	587	25/08/2013 15:00	15.4	2.01	21.75	79.45	1300000	1300000	24.94	575.5	-1.36	11.5	
15	30/07/2013 06:00	221.8	0.25	13.41	98.08	66960	68040	12.9	24	27/08/2013 07:00	57.6	0.25	12.32	98.80	77760	78840	12.4	30.5	0.5	-6.5	
16	30/07/2013 11:00	238.7	0.00	16.59	97.48	783000	785160	17.85	154.5	24/06/2014 09:00	345.4	0.00	16.81	97.16	855945	837541	19.57	250	-1.72	-95.5	
17	30/07/2013 12:00	259.7	0.00	17.28	98.00	496800	498960	19.92	324.5	22/08/2013 08:00	314.5	0.00	17.33	98.78	495720	484920	17.41	127	2.51	197.5	
18	04/08/2013 06:00	214.8	0.50	13.67	99.15	76680	78840	NA	28.5	28/08/2013 07:00	342.6	0.50	13.19	99.30	63720	65880	13.23	20		8.5	
19	13/08/2013 07:00	235.9	0.25	9.65	98.23	184680	185760	NA	67.5	01/04/2014 08:00	329.9	0.00	8.27	99.13	198405	199939	8.64	50		17.5	
20	13/08/2013 07:00	235.9	0.25	9.65	98.23	184680	185760	NA	67.5	28/04/2014 08:00	26.7	0.25	9.28	98.80	165361	166895	9.62	50		17.5	
21	13/08/2013 07:00	235.9	0.25	9.65	98.23	184680	185760	NA	67.5	24/05/2014 07:00	71.6	0.00	9.87	98.62	197569	198963	9.93	50		17.5	
22	14/08/2013 07:00	238.7	0.00	9.62	98.68	293760	281880	NA	85	22/04/2014 08:00	331.3	0.00	9.26	99.48	281504	282898	9.78	50		35	

23	14/08/2013 15:00	231.6	2.01	18.80	71.65	483840	486000	NA	273	10/07/2013 19:00	61.8	2.27	19.62	70.83	505440	503280	NA	111.5	161.5	
24	17/08/2013 10:00	231.6	1.76	17.56	85.58	529200	519480	23.49	208	21/07/2013 08:00	74.4	1.76	16.92	83.33	496800	498960	18.47	146.5	5.02	61.5
25	17/08/2013 11:00	256.9	2.52	18.31	80.93	837000	828360	20.35	241.5	24/08/2013 14:00	320.1	2.77	18.37	79.23	848880	851040	19.92	260.5	0.43	-19
26	19/08/2013 07:00	258.3	0.50	11.59	97.90	182520	184680	10.83	76.5	29/05/2014 07:00	39.3	0.76	11.81	99.87	168010	169404	12.27	50	-1.44	26.5
27	01/09/2013 08:00	255.5	0.50	9.10	95.45	438480	435240	8.55	317	25/03/2014 11:00	1.4	0.76	8.28	93.98	443519	440451	9.45	100	-0.9	217
28	03/09/2013 08:00	252.7	0.00	12.37	99.15	412560	407160	13.46	525	27/08/2013 09:00	49.1	0.25	13.23	99.25	407160	409320	13.78	165.5	-0.32	359.5
29	15/10/2013 13:00	226.7	0.46	12.46	90.19	623160	613440	17.67	164	17/06/2014 07:00	43.5	0.76	12.15	89.53	636486	539305	13.4	100	4.27	64
30	15/10/2013 14:00	242.2	0.17	12.23	89.17	514080	515160	15.27	163.5	26/05/2014 14:00	81.4	0.25	12.09	88.32	496362	498035	13.44	150	1.83	13.5
31	16/10/2013 09:00	104.6	0.29	7.99	100.00	50760	51840	8	14	07/08/2013 06:00	60.4	0.00	7.41	97.63	51840	52920	NA	26		-12
32	16/10/2013 09:00	104.6	0.29	7.99	100.00	50760	51840	8	14	15/10/2013 08:00	291.8	0.04	6.60	99.98	66960	68040	5.39	38.5	2.61	-24.5
33	16/10/2013 09:00	104.6	0.29	7.99	100.00	50760	51840	8	14	27/11/2013 10:00	297.6	0.00	7.96	97.95	77027	47412	9.26	15	-1.26	-1
34	18/10/2013 10:00	124.7	0.59	12.98	99.90	252720	254880	13.43	106.5	27/08/2013 08:00	54.8	0.50	12.21	99.13	253800	255960	12.57	97.5	0.86	9
35	31/10/2013 09:00	236.6	0.04	9.90	98.75	116640	118800	11.05	45.5	22/04/2014 07:00	25.3	0.00	8.93	99.40	99272	100667	8.81	50	2.24	-4.5
36	31/10/2013 10:00	224.9	0.34	11.07	97.99	321840	320760	12.07	95	22/04/2014 09:00	296.2	0.00	10.27	99.65	296283	297259	13.48	150	-1.41	-55
37	31/10/2013 10:00	224.9	0.34	11.07	97.99	321840	320760	12.07	95	24/06/2014 06:00	279.4	0.00	11.39	96.51	310505	283735	11.46	50	0.61	45
38	06/11/2013 10:00	202.2	0.00	9.67	99.73	233504	136940	11.59	35.5	17/11/2013 12:00	26.7	0.00	8.44	100.00	242473	142072	10.54	59	1.05	-23.5
39	08/11/2013 14:00	238.7	0.00	8.27	98.45	145411	86538	8.18	40.5	17/11/2013 11:00	329.9	0.00	8.05	99.98	162798	96486	9.57	43	-1.39	-2.5
40	11/11/2013 10:00	199.4	1.76	10.30	98.98	77027	47412	11.49	17	13/10/2013 10:00	328.7	1.68	10.44	98.65	50760	51840	10.68	36.5	0.81	-19.5
41	16/11/2013 15:00	244.3	0.00	7.14	98.45	180300	106500	7.71	36	18/11/2013 10:00	276.6	0.00	7.12	100.00	145411	86538	10	55	-2.29	-19
42	16/11/2013 15:00	244.3	0.00	7.14	98.45	180300	106500	7.71	36	28/11/2013 10:00	328.5	0.00	7.80	97.08	145411	86538	9.35	41.5	-1.64	-5.5
43	09/12/2013 10:00	237.3	0.25	7.51	99.95	119550	71742	9.7	28.5	17/11/2013 10:00	278.0	0.00	7.12	99.93	119550	71742	8.78	32.5	0.92	-4
44	09/12/2013 12:00	233.1	0.50	9.50	96.08	525038	303740	11.17	107	28/11/2013 13:00	2.8	0.50	8.77	94.15	554731	320729	9.43	91.5	1.74	15.5
45	12/12/2013 10:00	196.5	0.25	7.19	99.73	162798	96486	8.42	66.5	18/11/2013 10:00	276.6	0.00	7.12	100.00	145411	86538	10	55	-1.58	11.5
46	12/12/2013 10:00	196.5	0.25	7.19	99.73	162798	96486	8.42	66.5	28/11/2013 10:00	328.5	0.00	7.80	97.08	145411	86538	9.35	41.5	-0.93	25
47	19/12/2013 11:00	212.0	0.25	4.96	92.68	418397	242726	12.16	425.5	15/11/2013 10:00	325.7	0.00	4.17	92.83	456769	264680	16.09	468	-3.93	-42.5
48	19/12/2013 12:00	233.1	1.51	6.50	88.53	505387	292497	13.64	623.5	25/11/2013 13:00	21.1	1.26	6.05	87.38	505387	292497	7.35	130	6.29	493.5
49	04/01/2014 13:00	226.0	0.00	6.72	98.85	154625	156019	6.51	100	12/07/2013 06:00	33.7	0.00	6.30	97.55	157680	137160	NA	36		64
50	13/01/2014 10:00	216.2	0.00	3.79	97.68	398902	171914	9.84	100	22/11/2013 10:00	22.5	0.25	2.38	98.88	333759	194300	9.77	272.5	0.07	-172.5
51	04/02/2014 15:00	178.3	2.27	7.44	83.48	635371	346895	13.23	150	22/11/2013 14:00	23.9	2.01	7.25	84.35	604800	349376	11.62	485	1.61	-335

52	18/02/2014 11:00	219.0	0.76	8.11	95.98	458158	436547	11.58	50	25/03/2014 11:00	1.4	0.76	8.28	93.98	443519	440451	9.45	100	2.13	-50
53	02/03/2014 16:00	196.5	3.02	8.13	95.85	214161	214579	8.39	100	20/04/2014 10:00	54.8	3.02	8.76	94.08	225175	226709	9.15	50	-0.76	50
54	05/03/2014 12:00	221.8	0.25	9.28	88.70	999695	985473	15.55	500	11/04/2014 09:00	296.2	0.25	9.48	87.23	920221	893451	NA	300.49		199.51
55	13/03/2014 18:00	113.7	0.00	10.69	96.58	131341	125066	5.68	200	07/08/2013 07:00	59.0	0.00	11.56	98.35	137160	137160	NA	43		157
56	17/03/2014 09:00	247.1	0.00	8.07	99.33	341318	342852	10.71	50	03/04/2014 08:00	43.5	0.25	9.79	97.88	341737	340342	9.62	50	1.09	0
57	21/03/2014 09:00	256.9	1.26	7.05	89.88	1100000	210675	14.59	350	14/04/2014 08:00	283.6	1.51	7.99	91.13	1100000	225733	NA	163.04		186.96
58	22/04/2014 16:00	212.0	1.26	14.37	82.95	983242	897076	19.63	450	27/05/2014 13:00	39.3	1.51	15.81	85.01	917711	918827	18.33	400	1.3	50
59	22/04/2014 19:00	192.3	1.01	12.14	86.78	81844	82959	13.82	100	25/08/2013 08:00	329.9	1.01	13.68	88.05	85320	87480	14.03	18	-0.21	82
60	23/04/2014 13:00	178.3	1.76	14.32	80.55	497059	491621	20.8	450	27/05/2014 14:00	32.3	1.76	14.04	82.19	525363	526617	16.56	250	4.24	200
61	23/04/2014 15:00	192.3	1.51	12.57	87.10	305346	306740	14.68	50	03/04/2014 16:00	37.9	1.51	13.64	87.25	299351	300745	15.47	100	-0.79	-50
62	23/04/2014 19:00	217.6	0.00	10.69	95.65	87839	88536	11.02	50	26/05/2014 18:00	23.9	0.00	11.61	94.55	114749	115864	11.98	50	-0.96	0
63	01/05/2014 10:00	213.4	0.00	12.00	98.30	707455	707594	14.87	150	05/07/2013 08:00	275.2	0.25	13.32	99.68	749520	741960	NA	268		-118
64	08/05/2014 07:00	237.3	1.01	10.07	94.00	205377	207050	10.17	50	27/05/2014 17:00	5.6	1.01	11.70	94.38	215276	216391	12.04	50	-1.87	0
65	26/05/2014 07:00	103.9	0.00	8.32	97.36	355679	356098	8.59	50	03/04/2014 08:00	43.5	0.25	9.79	97.88	341737	340342	9.62	50	-1.03	0
66	04/06/2014 07:00	244.3	0.00	10.79	98.07	283595	284990	11.25	50	22/04/2014 09:00	296.2	0.00	10.27	99.65	296283	297259	13.48	150	-2.23	-100
67	04/06/2014 07:00	244.3	0.00	10.79	98.07	283595	284990	11.25	50	24/06/2014 06:00	279.4	0.00	11.39	96.51	310505	283735	11.46	50	-0.21	0
68	09/06/2014 13:00	249.9	2.01	23.85	69.64	2100000	1100000	33.69	850	18/06/2014 13:00	53.3	2.01	22.39	69.26	2200000	1000000	32.39	850	1.3	0
69	22/06/2014 15:00	188.1	0.76	26.72	50.80	2000000	1100000	47.68	800	12/07/2013 17:00	47.7	0.76	27.64	48.08	1800000	1100000	NA	490.5		309.5
70	26/06/2014 19:00	219.0	0.50	14.03	84.81	79892	80868	14.51	50	15/06/2014 20:00	67.4	0.76	15.68	85.96	83517	84632	16.64	50	-2.13	0

