

# An innovative air-cooling system for efficiency improvement of retrofitted rooftop photovoltaic module using cross-flow fan

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**Abstract**. . This study presents an innovative air-cooling photovoltaic (PV) system using cross-flow fan with speed regulation to optimize performance of rooftop PV system in tropical climates like Malaysia. Air passed through the impeller enters perpendicularly to the motor shaft, deflected by the fan blades and evacuated, allowing the fan to operate at its most efficient operating point. The airflow provided within the rear of the PV modules and the roof surface blow out the trapped hot air. Changes in the PV module temperature ( $T_{cell}$ ) are detected and the fan speed are adjusted accordingly to the PWM. This method was tested for 12 hours continuously from 7:00 am on the existing PV system at German Malaysian Institute (GMI) Bangi. The highest T<sub>cell</sub> achieved 72.88 °C and 55.75°C without and with air-cooling system with average power 210.22 W and 246.67 W per peak sun factor (PSF) respectively. There was a 17.34% increase in average power with a 13.18% in average net output power and achieved 6.68% energy efficiency using the proposed cooling system. T<sub>cell</sub> increases more swiftly and reaches higher temperatures in the absence of a cooling system, whereas T<sub>cell</sub> increases more slowly and at lower temperatures when a cooling system is present. The projected system's power rating was 6.48 W, which is 2.6% per PV module, and it really attained 6.32 W, which is 2.53% per PV module, while total energy consumption by the fan was 51.89 Wh per day, which is only 3.89% per PV module.

**Keywords:** uniform air-cooling, cross-flow fan, PV module temperature, cooling technique, photovoltaic



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# **1. Introduction**

Due to the lack of risk and natural disasters, renewable energy is now seen as a more desirable source of fuel, with the world's energy consumption increasing at a rate of 3% per year (Rawat *et al*., 2016). The favourable ecological impact of renewable energy sources makes them the preferred energy source for power generation (Adaramola, 2015). The PV technology that converts direct sunlight irradiance to electricity has gained tremendous appeal, particularly in places with high solar irradiance (Verma *et al*., 2021). Moreover, the cost of  $PV$  systems has fallen below grid parity in many regions of the world (Vishal Shah, Jerimiah Booream-Phelps, 2014). Retrofitted mounting refers to the mounting of a  $PV$  system over the existing roof tiles, using brackets to elevate the solar panels above the roof (Yusoff *et al.*, 2017). A gap between PV modules and the roof restrict airflow through it. Building integrated PV  $(BIPV)$  mounting is when  $PV$  modules are integrated into a structure (Yusoff *et al.*, 2017). Besides reducing leakage, retrofit mounting is becoming an increasingly popular option (Union of Concerned Scientists, 2015). Rooftop BIPV installations are an excellent method of obtaining clean energy (Lee *et al.*, 2019) but they also have their own set of factors that can reduce their power output (Pandey *et al.*, 2022). There are some studies on the relationship between the immediately built environments

such as roof type material and a gap between the  $PV$  modules and the roofs on the operating  $T_{cell}$ . PV modules become overheated due to the massive solar irradiance and high ambient temperature (Moharram *et al.,* 2013). Haidar et al. (Haidar et al., 2018) observed  $PV$  modules receiving solar energy as input and supplying electricity to the connected load with a significant amount of solar energy transformed into heat and lost through convection and radiation to the external environment. This heat at the  $PV$  module surface was released into the atmosphere and air gap on the backside of the PV module (Amelia *et al*., 2016). Yusoff et al. (Yusoff *et al*., 2017) found that the  $T_{cell}$  and the temperature difference ( $\Delta T$ ) are dependent on the roofing material type,  $PV$  technologies, irradiance and the gap height in between the  $PV$  module and roof surface. The amount of energy generated by these rooftop solar arrays depends on a variety of factors, including the weather, the design, and the arrangement and alignment of the PV modules (Pandey *et al.*, 2022). The performance of PV modules degrades significantly as their operating temperature rises (Haidar *et al.*, 2018). Open circuit voltage,  $V_{OC}$  decreases substantially as the ambient temperature of the solar PV cell rises above  $25^{0}$ C. With a decrease in operating temperature, the PV module's electrical output increases and the overall amount of power generated increases. Fatoni et al. (Fatoni *et al.*, 2019)

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have reported in their study that a 0.5% decrease in efficiency resulted for every  $1^0C$  rise in operating  $T_{cell}$ . To sustain a suitable temperature, a cooling system is necessary to remove solar heat that produces PV heating (Hamzat et al., 2021). An integrated  $PV$  cooling system during operation is a very important task for improving  $PV$  system performance (Elminshawy, El Ghandour, et al., 2019) and it has been demonstrated that significant power gains are possible, up to a total of 5 % (Smith *et al.,* 2014) by utilization of a cooling system. The higher electrical performance in  $PV$  systems can reduce the payback time of the invested capital (Hussien *et al.*, 2015; Jie Ji, Jian-Ping Lu, Tin-Tai Chow, Wei He, 2007).

#### **2. Cooling techniques for PV module**

As only 13% to 15% of solar irradiance is converted into electricity, cooling is required to increase the efficiency of PV modules and decrease energy loss in the form of heat (Mattei et al., 2006). To minimize the operating  $T_{cell}$ , it is necessary to eliminate heat energy. Consequently, the operating  $T_{cell}$  can be maintained close to the ambient temperature  $(T_{amb})$ , (Amelia *et* al., 2016). Cooling of the PV module is important to eliminate excess heat effects and ensure that efficient output power can be achieved. Many methods for cooling  $PV$  modules have been proposed. These include natural air, forced air, water, phase change materials  $(PCM)$ , thermoelectric cooling, transparent coating, and evaporative cooling (Haidar *et al.*, 2018).

Two types of cooling can be categorized that is active cooling, which consumes energy and the second is passive cooling, which uses natural convection/conduction to remove extra heat. The most common passive cooling approach for  $PV$  modules is the installation of aluminium fins and a heat sink on the module's backside surface. Hernandez *et al.* (Hernandez-Perez *et al.*, 2021), utilised a passive heatsink design for PV module cooling in numerical modelling and found a temperature reduction up to  $7^0C$ . Grubišić Čabo et al. (Grubišić Čabo *et al.*, 2020) improved the maximum power output of the  $PV$  system by 5% after applying perforated aluminium fins to the back surface of the PV module. Elbreki et al. (Elbreki et al., 2020) experimented by combining a planar reflector and backplate expanded surface on the  $PV$  module and increased the electrical efficiency to 11.2 %. Idoko *et al.* (Idoko *et al.*, 2018) recommended a cooling strategy that incorporated both surface water cooling and an aluminium heat sink at the back of the same module, resulting in a 3% gain in efficiency.

The phase change material  $(PCM)$  as cooling systems have gained popularity in recent years due to the reduction in and improvement in performance. Abdulmunem *et al*. (Abdulmunem *et al.*, 2021) considered heat transfer by using a  $PCM$  as a passive cooling technique and showed little cooling performance at a lower tilt angle. Sharma et al. (Sharma et al., 2021) studied convective  $PV$  modules and  $PV/T$  systems utilising  $PCM$  and determined that the electrical efficiency of  $PV/T$   $PCM$  would be 10.2 % higher. In an experiment by Sudhakar et al. (Sudhakar et al., 2021), a combination of PCM and a natural water-cooling system was utilized and prove a yielding average temperature reduction of 11.92 %, a maximum overall exergy production of 12.4 % and an exergy efficiency of 13.54 %. Sethiya *et al*. (Sethiya, 2021) comes up with an idea of the jacket attached to the back of the  $PV$  module and stuffed with glycerol and results in a  $0.4\%$  loss in the efficiency of PV modules.

Zubeer and Ali (Zubeer & Ali, 2021) added two reflectors side by side and used a  $45 Wac$  water pump to move water from a tank to a pipe attached to the top end of the front side of

the  $PV$  module and enhanced 17.7% the electrical performance. Gomaa *et al.* (Gomaa *et al.*, 2020) used both active and passive cooling by spraying water in front of the PV module surface and mounting fins on the back. Daily energy harvesting increased by 10.2%. Dida *et al*. (Dida et al., 2021) conducted research on passive cooling through water evaporation and the capillary action of a burlap cloth attached directly to the module's rear surface. This technique was successful, resulting in a substantial 14.75% increase in electrical efficiency. Castanheira *et al.* (Castanheira *et al*., 2018) prototype's active cooling technique was tested by installing it on a 5  $kW$  (25-panel) PV solar power plant string. Low-pressure water is sprinkled along the PV panels to ensure uniform distribution and reduce water leakage. The proposed technique increased annual energy production by as much as 2 % and increased maximum power by 17 %. Joseph *et al.* (Joseph Paul *et al*., 2021) sprinkled low pressure water along the PV module and introduced a double-sided cooling system that improved performance and efficiency by 7.7%.

When water is used as a cooling method on an existing PV system, it is imperative to carefully determine the optimal placement of the water source on the rooftop. If the water source is located close to the existing  $PV$  system, the water storage will be exposed to solar irradiance, which will cause the water temperature to rise and render it unsuitable for cooling. For this, a method should be devised to deliver water from the source to the  $PV$  system area involving water pressure, material used to prevent the water from absorbing excessive heat, and energy required for this process. The used water permitted to flow onto the roof and the long-term impact of exposing the roof to excessive humidity and moisture should be considered. The possibility of roof leaks or the created gutter channel for spent water will therefore lead to modifications to the current PV system and the associated expenditures.

Although air is less efficient than liquid as a coolant, it has some advantages such as low material consumption and operating costs (Tonui & Tripanagnostopoulos, 2007). Kaewchoothong *et al.* (Kaewchoothong *et al.*, 2021) designed multiple cooling modules with rib turbulators installed at the rear of the  $PV$  module to uniformly cool and improve the  $PV$ module's performance. Their active air-cooling design increased average output power by more than 13.97%. Lebbi *et al.* (Lebbi *et al.*, 2021) improved electrical efficiency by forcing air circulation on the backside of the  $PV$  module and flowing water on the front surface. Lebbi incorporated active cooling with self-cleaning and the use of Bi-Fluid coolants into the design and proposed current hybrid system to improve solar pumping irrigation as future work. Kabeel *et al*. (Kabeel *et al.*, 2019) applied technologies for both forced-air and watercooling in the presence of reflectors research. The result demonstrated a gain in net output electricity. Elminshawy et al. (Elminshawy, Mohamed, *et al.,* 2019) utilised an earth-to-air heat exchanger  $(EAHE)$  to precool the ambient air, which was then used to cool the back surface of the  $PV$  panel. The result demonstrated an average increase in  $PV$  module output power and electrical efficiency of 18.90% and 22.98%, respectively. When the air is utilised for cooling the  $PV$  system, achieving a uniform airflow and determining the appropriate air source for the relatively small space under the  $PV$  array are important considerations. If the fan is utilised as a source of wind, what sort of fan should be used to ensure that the wind flow created can fully be channelled into the tight lower space between the  $PV$  module and the rooftop, given that the fan blades are significantly larger to generate more wind. All past researched cooling methods demonstrate that  $PV$  module performance can be enhanced by reducing the  $T_{cell}$  during operation. However,

the majority of previous researches was conducted on prototypes developed on a modest scale. It is preferable to do research experiments on the existing  $PV$  system to evaluate and identify all elements and limits that exist when the cooling system is to be applied to the actual  $PV$  system, especially if installation on a building's roof is involved.

Therefore, the purpose of this research was to develop a temperature-based air-cooling system with variable fan speed to increase the efficiency of  $PV$  modules by lowering their operating temperature. The primary characteristics of this concept for an air-cooling system were proposed as follows:

Uniform airflow

 $DC$  cross-flow fan was utilized. Instead of creating a uniform and wide airflow system, the cross-flow fan was suitable for wide-width cooling.

Energy saving concept The fan's speed depended on the temperature and allowed energy saving by preventing it from rotating continuously, limiting energy consumption

# **3. Methodology**

The test was conducted under actual outdoor conditions on a six-year-old PV system in a tropical region (Kajang, Selangor, Malaysia). The irradiance, temperature, and electrical characteristics of the tested  $PV$  module was analysed and compared (with and without cooling). In addition, the design of the air-cooling system considered the space between the PV system and the rooftop, the area surrounding the  $PV$  system, ease of installation, and lighter weight to improve the performance of the  $PV$  module without modifying the existing PV system.

## *3.1 Concept of the cross-flow air-cooling system with speed regulation*

The cooling system is comprised of an air-cooling system to decrease the  $T_{cell}$  by cooling the ventilation space beneath the installed  $PV$  array, thereby improving its efficiency, and utilising speed regulation to optimise energy. The primary objective was to produce uniform airflow beneath the  $PV$  array while lowering the  $T_{cell}$  using cross-flow fans. The fan was placed on the upper side of the solar array and a temperature sensor was attached to the back side of the  $PV$  module to detect changes on the  $T_{cell}$ , as shown in Figure 1. In this work, a minimum temperature has to be set based on the average  $T_{cell}$  per day at the site. When the  $T_{cell}$  exceeded the set minimum temperature, the microcontroller sent a signal to turn on the fan according to the PWM setting in the microcontroller. The fan then spun and the speed was dependent on the  $PWM$  settings. Any changes in



Fig 1. Proposed cooling system scheme



**Fig 2.** Flow chart of proposed controlling  $T_{cell}$  for air-cooling  $PV$ system

 $T_{cell}$  were detected and the fan speed adjusted accordingly. If the  $T_{cell}$  exceeded the maximum temperature, the fan continued to rotate at full speed. When the temperature dropped, the fan's speed decreased until it eventually stopped. The overall procedure for controlling  $T_{cell}$  is illustrated by the flow chart in Figure 2.





Fig 3. Simplified block diagram for a typical air-cooling system

**Table 2** 

	Specifications of the measuring instruments				
Parameter	Range	Accuracy			
Solar	$0-1500 W/m2$	$+ - 1.28%$			
irradiance					
Temperature	$-55 C - 125°C$	$+ - 0.5$ <sup>o</sup> C			
DC voltage	$0.1 - 330$ V	$+-0.1%$			
DC current	$0.1 - 20$ A	$+ - 0.4 - 0.9%$			

#### *3.2 DC cross-flow fan*

To create a uniform airflow system, a DC cross-flow fan  $LWCD - 401055M - 30$  with aluminium blade was utilized in this study. Table 1 contains its technical specifications. With less weight on the fan, this can solve the problem of heavy roof loads. To ensure safety features, it is essential to develop a system that is easy to install, lightweight and does not require a great deal of space when conducting studies on the actual PV system. Uniform air production is also important in this study, making this fan an option. The fan controller is a device designed to regulate the fan's operational time and speed at a predetermined temperature. The temperature sensor and fan are used as input and output controlled by the  $ATMega328$ microcontroller to achieve this functionality. The waterproof version of the DS18B20 digital temperature sensor was used in this work. While the sensor can withstand temperatures up to 125<sup>0</sup>C, the cable is  $PVC$ -coated and should be kept below 100<sup>o</sup>C. The DS18B20 is compatible with systems between 3.0 and  $5.5 V$ . Figure 3 shows a simplified block diagram for a typical air-cooling system used in this research. Table 2 displays the specifications of the instruments used in the experiment.

#### *3.3 Location of experiment*

Experimental tests were performed at the *GMi, Kajang Selangor Malaysia* at locations 2°55′59.2"N and 101°47′50.6"E. In general, the weather at *GMi* is humid, hot, and categorised by a tropical type of climate. It even has high atmospheric temperatures of above  $40^{\circ}$ C, particularly between 11 a.m. to 3: 30  $p$ .  $m$ . (depending on the solar path for the day), which is a well-known challenge for the performance of PV systems. The polycrystalline PV system was installed on the zinc-type roof by a proper mounting structure and complied with Sustainable Energy Development Authority (SEDA) Malaysia requirements with a 40  $-50$  mm gap underneath the PV array. The  $3kW$ grid-connected PV system utilised 12 pieces of 250 W polycrystalline  $PV$  module each, installed by  $1 X 12$ configurations, which are one string with 12 modules per string. This system's performance was monitored by *Sunny SensorBox* via *Sunny Portal (www.sunnyportal.com)*. The *Sunny SensorBox* includes an integrated solar irradiance sensor and an external module temperature sensor, allowing for the comparison of irradiance levels and PV power based on the solar irradiance  $(W/m^2)$  measured by the sensor and the total amount of recorded power the PV system generates in a single day with a 15 − minute time interval.

# *3.3.1 Implementation of cross-flow air-cooling PV system*

A prototype of the cross-flow air-cooling system was installed on a module of 250  $W$  (1 module) of a 3  $kW$  PV system. The PV system consisted of two  $3 kW$  PV sub-array of poly-crystalline PVs, installed in an adjacent array configuration, making the position of both solar arrays the same as a single solar array, as shown in Figure 4. Daily, from sunrise to sunset, the  $PV$  system was not affected by any sort of shade. The performance of the  $PV$  module under standard test conditions  $(STC)$  (irradiance AM 1.5 1000  $W/m^2$ , temperature 25<sup>o</sup>C) is shown in Table 3.

The maximum power of the  $PV$  module decreased with the temperature by  $-0.43\%/°C$ , as stated in the temperature characteristics in Table 4. For the experimental tests, the crossflow fan was placed on the upper side of the  $PV$  array. Experimental tests were done for only one module. The light metre  $BH1750$  was positioned close to the same area so that the irradiance measured for analysis is more precise. Figure 5 depicts the location of the cross-flow fan and the light meter  $BH1750$  within the  $PV$  system. The waterproof version of the digital temperature sensor DS18B20 was affixed to the back side of the solar module to detect temperature changes on the  $T_{cell}$ . This experiment was performed at the site for 12 continuous hours, from 7:00  $a.m.$  to 7:00  $p.m.$  Several days of experiments were conducted with and without the air-cooling system. The performance of a  $PV$  system is strongly reliant on the environment (Chandra S., 2018). The impact of irradiance, cell temperature, and windy conditions on PV systems is affected by geographical location as well as environmental and

#### **Table 3**

Technical specifications of the polycrystalline PV module under  $STC$   $(T_a = 25^{\circ}C, G = 100 W/m^2)$ 

Parameter	Specification	
Manufacturer	Canadian Solar	
Model	CS6P-250P	
Technology	Polycrystalline	
Maximum power (W)	250	
Maximum voltage (V)	30.1	
Maximum current (A)	8.3	
Open circuit voltage (V)	37.2	
Short circuit current (A)	8.87	
Number of cells	60 (6 X 10)	
Dimension	1638 x 982 x 40 mm	
Weight (kg)	18.5kg	



Fig 4. Two sub arrays installed in an adjacent array configuration

#### **Table 4**

Temperature characteristics for the *CS6P-250P Canadian Solar* PV module





Fig 5. The location of the fan and the light meter BH1750 within the PV system

meteorological variables (M. R. Abdelkader, A. Al-Salaymeh, Z. Al-Hamamre, 2010). Malaysia is located in a low-wind zone (United Nations, 2016). Due to the low wind speed for the geographical region where the experiment was conducted, the model concluded that its influence was insignificant (Al-Bashir *et al*., 2020). Only ambient temperature and solar irradiance were examined among all important meteorological indicators for this investigation.

# *3.3. Ambient temperature, voltage and power at maximum point, and peak sun factor.*

With an increase in solar irradiance, ambient temperature  $(T_{amb})$  rose, increasing the temperature for both the front and rear  $PV$  modules. The surface of the  $PV$  module was more exposed to solar irradiance, and as a result, its surface temperature was greater. The transfer of heat occurs from hotter to cooler objects. Therefore, heat transfer occurred from the surface of the  $PV$  module to the back side, resulting in a backside  $T_{cell}$  that is higher than the  $T_{amb}$ .  $T_{amb}$  was calculated as (Reddy et al., 2015):

$$
T_{amb} = T_{cell} - \left(\frac{NOCT - 20}{800}\right) G_{amb} \tag{1}
$$

Where NOCT is nominal operating cell temperature  $(C^0)$  and  $G_{amb}$  is irradiance at that  $T_{amb}$  (W/m<sup>2</sup>).

The maximum power point voltage  $(Vmp)$  and maximum power point power ( $Pmp$ ) of a  $PV$  module are the voltage and power levels at which the module produces its highest output. These parameters are crucial for the effective operation of a PV module. The values of  $Vmp$  and  $Pmp$  are subject to variation based on the unique attributes of the  $PV$  module, including its design, technology, and environmental factors. When designing a  $PV$  system, it is important to consider a certain value that assists in identifying the suitable arrangement of  $PV$  modules for achieving the specified power output. This study aims to measure and compare these parameters values under real operating conditions, referred to  $V_{mp\_exp}$  and  $P_{mp\_exp}$ , with the predicted calculated values, referred to as  $V_{mn \, calc}$  and  $P_{mp}$  calc.

The maximum power point voltage of the  $PV$  module was calculated  $(V_{mn \, calc})$  as follows:

$$
V_{mp\_calc} = V_{mp\_stc} X \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{v_{vmp}}{100} \right) \left( T_{cell} - T_{stc} \right) \right] \tag{2}
$$

where  $V_{mp}$  stc is voltage at maximum power point at STC and  $\gamma_{V_{mp}}$  is temperature coefficient for voltage at maximum power point.

The maximum power point power of the  $PV$  module was calculated  $(P_{mp\_calc})$  as follows:

$$
P_{mp\_roc\_calc} = P_{mp_{stc}} X \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{\gamma_{p_{mp}}}{100} \right) \left( T_{cell} - T_{stc} \right) \right]
$$
 (3)

where  $P_{mp\_stc}$  is power at STC (Watt)  $\gamma_{P_{mp}}$  is temperature coefficient for power at maximum power point.

On the same system, experiments were conducted on different days with and without the air-cooling system. Since external factors such as weather and solar irradiance cannot be controlled, it is essential to compare the output before and after installation of the air-cooling system based on a single factor. In many cases, it may be required to estimate the instantaneous outputs of the  $PV$  module or array under real operating conditions. In  $ROC$  situations, solar irradiance and temperature are instantaneous values that have an immediate effect on PV module outputs. Moreover, solar irradiance fluctuates rapidly, and the output of the  $PV$  module varies in tandem with solar  $irradiance. Consequently, a concept known as the PSF was used$ to determine the expected instantaneous output as follows:

$$
PSF = \frac{G_{array\_plane}}{1,000 W m^{-2}} \tag{4}
$$

Where PSF is Peak Sun Faktor (dimensionless) and G<sub>array\_plane</sub> is solar irradiance in array plane (Wm<sup>-2</sup>)

# **4. Result and discussion**

A reference measurement was carried out for a typical day on April 14, 2021 from the *GMi*-monitoring system at sunny portal. Figure 6 depicts the  $15 - minutes$  interval recording from Sunny Box for measured irradiance and  $T_{cell}$ , without a cooling system between 12: 15  $a$ .  $m$ . and 11: 45  $p$ .  $m$  for the correspond



**Fig 6.** Solar irradiance and  $T_{cell}$  for a typical day from GMi  $PV$ system monitoring.

day. From the chart, the maximum  $T_{cell}$  was 73.69<sup>0</sup>C at 1:00 pm, with solar irradiance 801.1W/ $m^2$ . T<sub>cell</sub> varied from 26<sup>0</sup>C up to 63<sup>0</sup>C in the morning, while the noon  $T_{cell}$  can exceed 73<sup>0</sup>C. Solar irradiance reached up to  $1113W/m^2$  for the day. Figure 7 illustrates the experimental data obtained for the observed solar irradiance,  $T_{cell}$ , and  $T_{amb}$  from the PV system on normal days, both before and after the air-cooling  $PV$  system was put in place. The percentage difference between the experimental and the measurements data from the *GMi*monitoring system is negligible, at approximately 0.8 %, so the experiment data in Figure 7 is applicable. This small disparity is attributed to the information on the global horizontal irradiance  $(GHI)$  daily intra-variability that can be obtained by characterizing the solar irradiance at the study site (Al-Kayiem & Mohammad, 2019) such as, the daily clearness coefficient, considering various cloud cover (Urrego-Ortiz et al., 2019) (Urrego-Ortiz et al., 2019), as well as the sun's path, particularly in tropical climate regions.

According to the chart in Figure 7, the highest temperature of the  $PV$  system before employing air cooling system was 72.88 ${^0}C$  at 1:08 pm, with an average solar irradiance of 738.64  $W/m^2$ . The temperature of  $T_{cell}$  ranged from 24<sup>0</sup>C to 65<sup>0</sup>C in the morning, with the possibility of exceeding  $72^{0}C$ around midday. The solar irradiance reached a maximum of 1098.29 $W/m^2$  on the experimental day prior to implementing the air-cooling PV system. Consequently, the greatest  $T_{cell}$ value did not necessarily coincide with the peak solar irradiance. It is probable that the maximum solar irradiance occurred in a very brief period of time and did not have sufficient time to influence the  $T_{cell}$  value. This is also demonstrated by the data collected by the existing system at the study site via Sunny Web Portal.

# *4.1. Cooling effect on*

An experiment was conducted by attaching an air-cooling system to the existing real PV system at *GMi* and the results were recorded continuously from  $7:00$  am to  $7:00$  pm. From the graphs in Figure 7, it appears that  $T_{cell}$  is higher than  $T_{amb}$ . It is essential to ensure that the backside of the  $PV$  module is cooled to reduce the  $T_{cell}$ . By providing uniformed air conduction underneath the  $PV$  module, this study ensured that cold air floated, preventing the trapping of hot air underneath the module. As already observed in Figure 7,  $T_{cell}$  increased as solar irradiance increased. Figure 7 demonstrates that the system with an installed air- cooling system experienced a slower rise in temperature after  $30^0C$  compared to the system without a cooling system. This is due to the fact that after the installation of the cooling system when the  $T_{cell}$  exceeded 30<sup>o</sup>C, the fan began to rotate at a speed of 4% and changed significantly with the changes in the  $T_{cell}$ . Consequently, although solar irradiance increased, the  $T_{cell}$  did not continue to increase at the same rate. The  $T_{cell}$  continued to rise, but at a slower rate than when no cooling system was installed. Nonetheless, it should be noted that the ratio between the amount of solar irradiance and the duration of time a  $PV$  module receives solar irradiance plays a significant role. When the amount and duration of solar irradiance received is high and relatively prolonged, the  $T_{cell}$  rises more rapidly. Alternatively, if the amount of solar irradiance received is high but over a brief period, the  $PV$  module change will still occur, but it will take longer and the rate of  $T_{cell}$  increase will be slower. This is because the air conduction factor produced by the installed cooling system has pushed out the hot air trapped beneath the PV module, which has the potential to raise the  $T_{cell}$ . After implementing the air-cooling  $PV$  system, Figure 7 shows that morning temperature varied up to  $54.13\degree C$  while the midday



**Fig 7.** Graph depicting the relationship between maximum  $T_{cell}$ and  $T_{amb}$  values and the corresponding measured solar irradiance at the  $PV$  system during the respective days before and after employing an air-cooling  $PV$  system.

temperature did not exceed 55.98<sup>0</sup>C. The maximum  $T_{cell}$  was 55.98 ${}^{0}C$  between 1.00 to 2.00 p.m, with the maximum solar irradiance  $1046.49 W/m^2$ . For average frequently solar irradiance 800  $W/m^2$ , the average maximum  $T_{cell}$  was  $70^0C$ before employing air-cooling PV system while  $49.5\,^0C$  after applying an air-cooling  $PV$  system. Compared to the previous

#### **Table 5**

Total average PSF received per day for respective experimental days, with average energy consumed by the fan for the cooling system

Time	Day 1 (without cooling system)	Day 2 (with cooling system)	
	Average <b>PSF</b>	Average <b>PSF</b>	<b>Average Energy</b> consumed by fan (Wh)
$7:00$ AM	0.03	0.04	$\Omega$
$8:00$ AM	0.17	0.11	$\Omega$
$9:00$ AM	0.38	0.4	2.52
$10:00$ AM	0.53	0.53	5.18
$11:00$ AM	0.68	0.75	5.95
12:00 PM	0.74	0.6	5.98
$1:00$ PM	0.68	0.56	6.02
$2:00$ PM	0.72	0.7	5.63
$3:00$ PM	0.55	0.61	5.55
4:00 PM	0.36	0.51	5.41
$5:00$ PM	0.37	0.37	5.15
$6:00$ PM	0.13	0.15	4.51
7:00 PM	0.03	0.08	$\Omega$
<b>TOTAL</b>	5.38	5.4	51.89



**Fig 8.** Experimental and calculated values before and after employing an air-cooling PV system based on corresponding  $T_{cell}$  for respective testing day: (a) voltage and (b) power

condition without the cooling system, where the temperature of  $T_{cell}$  varied from 24<sup>0</sup>C to 65<sup>0</sup>C in the morning and had the potential to surpass  $72^{0}C$  around midday, it is evident that the implementation of the recommended cooling system has effectively lowered the  $T_{cell}$  value.

The comparison is based on the two closest days with and without an air-cooling  $PV$  system when weather conditions were relatively similar, but it should be emphasised that weather conditions are uncontrollable. The choice of days to compare is important to make sure that the analysis of data is more accurate and useful. Table 5 shows data on solar irradiance received by total PSF per day for both before and after implementing the cooling system. The daily quantity of irradiance received is independent of the cooling system being evaluated but is contingent upon the meteorological conditions of the day. To ensure accuracy, it is important to measure the irradiance levels on both days while conducting the test, either before or after the installation of the cooling system. The table shows that the total average  $PSF$  for day 1, where the measured parameters were taken before employing the cooling system was 5.38, while on day 2, when the experiment was conducted with the cooling system in place, the total average  $PSF$  was 5.4. This demonstrates that despite the experiments being conducted on separate days, the average amount of irradiance received throughout both days of the experiment was about similar and relevant.

# *4.2. Cooling effect on the output voltage and power*

With an increase in  $T_{cell}$ , the initial rise in irradiance led to a rise in voltage. The same holds for the current, which is directly proportional to solar irradiance. However, when the temperature further climbed, an increase in irradiance resulted in a decrease in voltage. the increase in irradiance will initially result in the addition of  $T_{cell}$  and will increase the voltage value but when  $T_{cell}$  achieved over 25<sup>0</sup>C, the voltage will start to decrease depending on how much the  $PV$  module affected by

temperature coefficient. The temperature coefficient,  $\gamma$ , at the maximum power point refers to the impact of thermal expansion on the voltage, power and current of the  $PV$  module. In this investigation, the temperature coefficient for voltage was determined to be -0.43%/°C. The same principle applies to the power that is generated. The prolonged voltage dips led to a substantial power loss that has to be resolved. Figure 8 illustrates the graphs showing the changes in voltage  $(V_{mp\_exp}$  and  $V_{mp\_calc}$ ) and power ( $P_{mp\_exp}$  and  $P_{mp\_calc}$ ) before and after implementing the cooling PV system during experimental circumstances and expected calculations. Based on the comparison between  $V_{mp\_exp}$  and  $V_{mp\_calc}$ , as well as  $P_{mp\_exp}$  and  $P_{mp\_calc}$  in Figure 8, it was found that the measured values of  $V_{mp\_exp}$  and  $P_{mp\_exp}$  were lower than the calculated values before employing the cooling PV system. This difference was particularly noticeable in Figure 8, when the  $T_{cell}$  value exceeded 50 $°C$ , which happened between 10.00 a.m. and 3.00  $p$ .  $m$ . This demonstrates that the inclusion of  $T_{cell}$  will have an impact on the performance of  $V_{mp\_exp}$  and  $P_{mp\_exp}$ , which is contingent upon the current  $T_{cell}$ , PSF, and  $\gamma$  being taken into consideration.

Figure 9 shows the total average voltage and power produced by the  $PV$  module compared to the total average voltage and power expected to be produced. Since the experiment was done on two different days with almost the same irradiance level value, this study has made a comparison of the total values of voltage and power produced during the experiment, which are  $V_{mp\_exp}$  and  $P_{mp\_exp}$ , to the values expected through calculation, which are  $V_{mp\_calc}$  and  $P_{mp\_calc}$ before and after employing the cooling system. This is to get a more accurate comparison, even though the wind factor is neglected in this study based on the metrology of the experimental area. Prior to implementing the air-cooling PV system, the testing findings indicated that a rise in  $T_{cell}$  led to a drop-in voltage and power values by 3.75% and 3.73% respectively, compared to the estimated value, despite an



Fig 9. Total average voltage and power at maximum power point at real operating condition and expected value: (a) voltage and (b) power

increase in solar irradiance. In addition to successfully extending the time it takes for the temperature of a  $T_{cell}$  to rise, the installation of an air-cooling  $PV$  system can also control the voltage drop that occurs when the temperature rises to ridiculous levels. After implemented the air-cooling  $PV$  system,  $V_{mp\_exp}$  and  $P_{mp\_exp}$  were higher than the calculation, particularly when the  $T_{cell}$  value was above 50<sup>o</sup>C, which occurred between 11.00  $a$ .  $m$ . and 3.00  $p$ .  $m$ , as shown in Figure 8. The gains from  $0.5 V$  to  $1.81 V$  and  $0.43 W$  to  $15.03 W$  for voltage and power respectively. The percentages varied from 2.16% up to 8.76% and 2.2% up to 9.6% for voltage and power. When  $T_{cell}$  was above 30<sup>o</sup>C at 9.00 a.m. and over, the measured  $V_{mp\_exp}$  and  $P_{mp\_exp}$  started higher than  $V_{mp\_calc}$  and  $P_{mp\_calc}$ .  $V_{mp\_exp}$  and  $P_{mp\_roc\_exp}$  continued to rise as the increase in irradiance, but when  $T_{cell}$  started higher than 50<sup>o</sup>C,  $V_{mp}$  exp and  $P_{mp~exp}$  began to decline. However, the  $V_{mp\_exp}$  and  $P_{mp\_exp}$ readings continued to exceed the calculation value. When  $T_{cell}$ began to decrease, the  $V_{mp\_exp}$  and  $P_{mp\_exp}$  started to increase with an increasing irradiance. After  $5.00 p.m.,$  Tcell started to drop below 30<sup>o</sup>C and the  $V_{mp\_exp}$  and  $P_{mp\_exp}$  approached the value of calculation as the irradiance began to decrease and the afternoon weather was cloudier and windier at the experiment area. From Figure 9, the total average voltage and power were 10.05  $V$  and 83.44  $W$ , higher than the calculated value which was 6.68% energy efficient. The results of the proposed aircooling  $PV$  system were compared, as shown in Table 6, with those of Lebbi *et al*. (Lebbi *et al.*, 2021), A.E. Kabeel *et al.* (Kabeel *et al*., 2019), Arcuri *et al.* (Arcuri *et al*., 2014), Mazón- Hernández *et al.* (Mazón-Hernández *et al.*, 2013), and Kidegho *et al.* (Kidegho et al., 2021). All PV modules were compared based on the proportion of power performance under which they operated. The output power and efficiency of  $PV$  modules increased when cooling systems were utilised. However, there are no exhaustive comparisons of the power rating per module used in the research system in the literature. The current study involved a  $6.48 W$  power rating for the proposed system, utilising a 250  $Wp$  PV module measuring 1638  $x$  980  $x$  40 mm, with an average net improvement in output power of 12.9%, which is nearly 9% higher than what Lebbi *et al.* (Lebbi *et al.*, 2021) achieved.

This proposed system has one of the two lowest power ratings per module at 2.6%. Another lowest was found by Arcuri *et al.* (Arcuri *et al.*, 2014) also with 2.6%. The system introduced by Arcuri *et al.* (Arcuri *et al.*, 2014) had a power rating of 3.6 and used a 1041  $x$  989  $x$  35  $mm$ , 140  $Wp$  PV module. Although the power rating system by Arcuri *et al*.(Arcuri *et al*., 2014) is much lower than the proposed system, the power of used PV module cannot match with the proposed system, which is much larger and only produced gain in power by 0.19% compared to 12.9% net for the proposed one. A.E. Kabeel *et al.* (Kabeel *et al.*, 2019) achieved the biggest net improvement in output power but came with the highest power rating,  $15 W$  for the introduced methtod, using  $130 Wp PV$  module and a lower size of 1482  $x$  672  $x$  35 mm than the one proposed. The method by A.E. Kabeel *et al*. (Kabeel *et al*., 2019) had the highest percentage power rating per module at 11.5%. In terms of power rating per system and per  $PV$  module, the proposed air-cooling  $PV$  system outperforms both Arcuri *et al.* (Arcuri *et al.,* 2014) and A.E. Kabeel *et al*. (Kabeel *et al.,* 2019). This is due to the peak power of  $PV$  module and size employed were significantly larger than those used by Arcuri *et al*. (Arcuri *et al.*, 2014) and A.E. Kabeel *et al* (Kabeel *et al.*, 2019). The superiority of the proposed aircooling PV system as compared to Lebbi *et al*.(Lebbi *et al.*, 2021), Mazón-Hernández *et al.* (Mazón-Hernández et al., 2013), and Kidegho *et al*.(Kidegho *et al.*, 2021) is evident from Table 6. The passive cooling approach utilised by Kidegho *et al*.(Kidegho *et al.*, 2021) had zero power rating and was applied to 13 modules with dimensions of  $325 \times 325 \times 20$  mm where they achieved  $PV$  power production by 1.8%. The experiment was conducted on the smallest  $PV$  module as shown in Table 6 and consumed no power but produced lower output power. Compared to the proposed air-cooling  $PV$  system, it is preferable to adopt a system that is more power-efficient, such as the one in the proposed system, which has a low power rating per module and can provide a relatively large power output. Consequently, it is essential to remember that the cooling temperature range plays a crucial role in preventing energy waste. It is good to prevent the consumption of more energy for air-cooling systems than can be generated. Consequently, it is essential to remember that the cooling temperature range plays a crucial role in preventing energy waste. It is good to prevent the consumption of more energy for air-cooling systems than can be generated. Therefore, it is essential to regulate the correct temperature ranges so that the desired temperature can reduce or prevent voltage drops. Since a relatively large heat transfer occurs in the roof area due to uncontrollable external factors, it is impossible to achieve a temperature that is too low or to approach the  $STC$  for the rooftop  $PV$  system.

# *4.3. Cooling effect based on peak sun factor (PSF)*

Estimating the instantaneous output of a  $PV$  module or array under real operating conditions is crucial in certain situations. This is due to the fact that irradiance and temperature are instantaneous variables that have an immediate impact on the output of the  $PV$  module. This study utilised  $PSF$  to calculate the average power output for each received  $PSF$ . According to Table 5, the total  $PSF$  attained the day before the cooling



system was installed was 5375, which is equivalent to 5.38 average peak sun hours  $(PSH)$  where the PV module received  $1000W/m^2$ . The entire daily power output for this was 1131.70  $W$ , as seen in Figure 8. Under real-world operating circumstances, the average instantaneous power output of  $PV$ 

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modules before employing the cooling system was  $210.35 W$ per *PSF* at  $1000W/m^2$  of solar irradiance.

The amount of total  $PSF$  achieved on the day where the air-cooling  $PV$  system was applied was 5402, equal to 5.40 for  $PSH$ . The total power generated by the  $PV$  module on that day was  $1332.74$  W and the average output power per  $PSF$  at 1000  $W/m^2$  of solar irradiance was 246.80 W. Compared to the before and after applying the studied air-cooling  $PV$  system, the anticipated instantaneous average power output of  $PV$  modules increased by  $17.3\%$ , which is equal to  $36.45W$ . Although numerous researches have been conducted to establish the efficacy of PV cooling systems, the majority of them were conducted using simulations. Six previous experiment-based research works with credible findings were chosen to further validate against the proposed air-cooling  $PV$  system. As can be seen in Table 6, the proposed air-cooling  $PV$  system achieved a large net gain on average power, while using only a fraction of the power throughout the course of the day. Even though the proposed air-cooling PV system was tested at an alreadyexisting roof-top  $PV$  system, the results were still superior to earlier experiment-based research on a single  $PV$  module. The achievements show that the proposed air-cooling system with an innovative cross-flow fan can significantly boost the efficiency of modules in comparison to the previous research system. Even though there is zero power loss while using the passive cooling approach, the increase in power output of the module can't be matched by the proposed active cooling method. The effectiveness and capability of the proposed aircooling system proved successful, as greater energy was produced than was consumed during cooling processes.

# **5. Conclusion**

In this study, an air-cooling system for an existing polycrystalline  $PV$  system was developed and experimentally investigated under tropical climate conditions. The air-cooling system relied on a cross-flow fan that produced a uniform airflow between the rear of the  $PV$  module and the roof. This temperature-based system with variable fan speed and userfriendly installation was placed directly to the side of the existing PV system without modification. Based on the results obtained, some conclusions have been drawn.  $T_{cell}$  is greater than  $T_{amb}$ ; consequently, wind intake from an open-air or ambient surroundings  $PV$  system can provide wind with a lower temperature than wind discovered between  $PV$  modules and rooftop, thereby lowering  $T_{cell}$  by expelling the hot wind trapped in the space beneath the  $PV$  array by using a cross-flow fan. With the support of the utilised air-cooling  $PV$  system, a maximum temperature of  $T_{cell}$  decreased with maximum reference  $T_{cell}$  ranged from 24.37 $^0C$  to 72.88 $^0C$ . In contrast, the maximum cooled  $T_{cell}$  ranged from 24.37<sup>0</sup>C to 55.98<sup>0</sup>C. Due to the temperature reduction afforded by the employed air-cooling method, the PV module output power and conversion efficiency were significantly improved. The anticipated instantaneous power output of PV modules increased by 17.3%, from 210.35 to  $246.80$  W per PSF. 13.18% increase in average net output power with 6.68% energy efficiency. Energy consumption for the proposed air-cooling  $PV$  system was  $51.89$  Wh per day, which is only 3.89% per PV module. While the peak power of  $PV$  module and size employed were significantly larger, the proposed air-cooling PV system outperforms previous research with the lowest power rating per module, 2.6% but achieved high net average power improvement and it really attained 6.32  $W$ , which is 2.53% per PV module. Based on the experimental findings, it is possible to conclude that the proposed air-cooling system enhanced the temperature

regulation and performance of the PV module significantly. This is because the experiment was conducted on an existing  $PV$ system on a zinc-type roof, where zinc is a conductor that allows for a substantial heat transfer under high irradiance. This system is also user-friendly, silent, has a low initial investment cost, and is lighter. In terms of future research, this air-cooling technology must be investigated further, considering other variables that may affect the cooling efficiency, such as wind speed, roof type, and fan blade.

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