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Pierrick Haurant, M. Muselli, L. Gaillard, P. Oberti. A new methodology to analyse and optimize territorial compensations of solar radiation intermittency: A case study in Corsica Island (France). Renewable Energy, 2022, 185, pp.598-610. 10.1016/j.renene.2021.12.010 . hal-03543399

## HAL Id: hal-03543399 https://hal.science/hal-03543399

Submitted on 9 Feb 2022

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# A new methodology to analyse and optimize territorial compensations of solar radiation intermittency: a case study in Corsica Island (France)

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#### 10 Abstract

4

Territorial compensations of variability are a lever for smoothing the global photovoltaic production. They may allow a higher penetration rate of photovoltaic production in an energy mix, especially for non-interconnected islands. The aim of this paper is to analyse and optimise the smoothing effects of solar resource on a territory. In that view a novel typological classification-based methodology is proposed: intervals from highly intermittent episodes to ones with few fluctuations are discriminated. Then, the potential for compensation is demonstrated through the transformation from classes of high to low variability when summing solar radiation over several sites instead of one alone. The methodology is applied to Corsica. Solar radiation measured at 1 Hz on 8 sites which criss-crosses the island, when summed, demonstrates a reduction in the set of most intense variations compared to individual basis: they represent 5.5 % to 15.5 % of the studied period for the sites taken individually against only 1.7% for the cumulated radiation. Optimisation of the territorial compensation strategy leads to a near-disappearance of intense variations, with this class representing only 0.13 % of the period. Finally, the optimized dispersion map of solar capacities results from this optimisation.

- 11 Keywords: Solar radiation, Classification, Variability, Territorial
- <sup>12</sup> compensations, Smoothing effect, Optimization

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Nomenclature		I	Interval	
		b	Classification thresholds [s]	
inter	Inter-interval	C	Class	
intra	Intra-interval	d	Distances between sites [km]	
$S_i$	Refers to site $S_i$	F	Objective function [s]	
$t_{tot}$	Refers to $t_{tot}$ , the studied period	G	Global horizontal radiation $[W m^{-2}]$	
$t_{var}$	Refers to $t_{var}$	$k_b$	Direct fraction	
tot	Refers to total (or cumulated)	$k_t$	Clarity index	
var	Variable	$k_{cls}$	Clear sky index	
		N	Number (sites, instants)	
$\beta$	Weight coefficient	$P_N$	Relative total number of inter- valles [%]	
λ	Longitude [°]	$P_t$	Relative cumulated interval	
$\varphi$	Latitude [°]		duration [%]	
		r	Pearson correlation coefficients	
$\delta G$	Relative variation of radiation		[-]	
	[s]	S	Site	
$\delta t$	Variation scale [s]	t	Time [s]	

#### 13 1. Introduction

Multicriteria selection of potential photovoltaic (PV) plants in Corsica re-14 vealed the challenges associated to the territorial concentration of grid-connected 15 plants [1, 2]. Of primary concern is the abrupt loss in energy generation arising 16 from localized heavy cloud cover. The issue is part of the broader challenge of 17 resource intermittency, which has been extensively studied for the electricity in-18 frastructures with a high penetration of photovoltaic technology [3, 4, 5, 6]. The 19 risk of grid instability has resulting in a limit being set on the amount of installed 20 capacity that can be based on intermittent renewable sources. This limit can 21 be highly constraining particuliarly for small grids such as non-interconnected 22 islands. For instance, for the islands of La réunion and Corsica (France), this 23 limit was set to 35 % of total electrical power by decrees [7, 8]. 24

Today this regulatory constraint is a significant limiting factor for the tran-25 sition to renewable energy technologies such as photovoltaic facilities, which 26 may only progress if the technical feasibility of safely exceeding the limit can 27 be proven. Small grids in non-interconnected zones such as on islands are es-28 pecially impacted by this limit. In this context, the intermittence of the solar 29 resource, its territorial variations and its predictability stand as major issues for 30 the energy utility operator. A good knowledge of the solar resource variation 31 over a territory would enable territorial compensation strategies to smooth pho-32 tovoltaic generation as suggested by [9] and thereby allow the limit on renewable 33 integration to be increased. 34

The spatial variability of solar radiation is typically shown through the anal-35 ysis of inter-sites Pearson correlation coefficients r presented as a function of the 36 distances between the studied sites [10, 11, 12, 13, 14]. A more advanced treat-37 ment was introduced by [15] and [16] who defined the discorrelation distance 38 as the distance for which r drops below 0.5. Other authors have proposed sta-39 tistical indices with which to compare fluctuations of solar radiation at various 40 sites. For instance, [12] studied the standard deviation of hourly clearsky  $k_{cls}$ 41 between 2 sites, obtained with satellite data. [10] discussed the solar radiation 42

difference between two sites by comparing the difference to the mean daily value 43 of solar radiation. [17] compared solar radiation power spectra of several sites, 44 and focused particuliarly on the linear best fit line for time scales less than 1 h. 45 The spatial variability of solar radiation demonstrated though the discorre-46 lation between sites induces shifts in temporal fluctuations from a site to other. 47 Thus for a given period, statistical compensations of variations can be expected 48 on a territory. These spatial compensations are exposed and analysed in various 49 studies. [17] examined the average smoothing effect of solar radiation received 50 by 4 sites separated by several tens of kilometres (20 km to 180 km), at different 51 time scales. The ramp rate analysis of the average revealed a significant decrease 52 in their mean and maximum magnitude, standard deviation, and kurtosis com-53 pared to each site individually. Also, probability distribution functions and cumulative distribution functions of ramp rates indicated that the average of all 55 four sites is less likely to have large fluctuations than each of the other sites indi-56 vidually. Similarly, [15] compared boxplots of 1 Hz measurements at 7 isolated 57 sites on the island of La Réunion to their aggregated radiation. The averaged ra-58 diation variability showed narrower distributions than individual stations, with 59 less hour-to-hour variability. The spatial smoothing of the solar potential was 60 shown to exist for a small geographic site in Japan by [18]. In that work, the 61 mean value of a network of 9 pyranometers covering a 4 km by 4 km area was 62 found to fluctuate to a significantly lesser degree than the individual readings 63 of each sensor.

Spatial compensations on solar radiation smooth the PV generation that 65 allows a better integration in the energy mix. At PV plants scale first, [19] 66 analysed the PV output of 6 plants of different sizes, from 0.2 ha to 52 ha, 67 scattered over a  $1000 \text{ km}^2$  area in the south of Navarra (Spain). Smoothing 68 of power fluctuations has demonstrated for large PV plants, and this effect is 69 particularly noticeable for small time steps. At larger scale, [20] performed 70 a multi-objective optimization, maximizing energy and minimizing variability, 71 to allocate 2 MW PV among four sites, with differing amounts at each site, 72 on the island of Lanai, Hawaii. For the optimal allotment, the variability in 73

the form of ramp rates, were reduced by 50 %, whereas energy was reduced 74 by only 3 % over the maximum production case. [21] have shown that the 75 dispersal of PV installations over a wide territory can enable a higher degree of penetration of PV systems without jeopardizing grid stability, from 1.3 % for 77 a fully centralized facility to 37 % for a distributed system covering  $1000 \,\mathrm{km}^2$ . 78 Also, [22] studied how geographic dispersion of PV installations may minimize 79 electricity supply uncertainty in Virginia (USA). They showed the probabilities 80 of generation shortfalls was lowered for decentralized configurations, since the 81 variability of the production are less variable. 82

Thus, the smoothing effects on solar radiation over a territory, when it is demonstrated, is a lever to limit the intermittence of the global photovoltaic production. Consequently, the territorial compensations of solar radiation offer a mean to increase the deployment of renewable energy technologies. These compensations are already analysed with statistical tools at different scales and territories in the literature. However no method has been proposed neither to quantified the smoothing effect of the solar radiation, nor to build a roadmap for an optimal dispersion of PV installation over a wide territory.

This paper addresses these two issues through a novel methodology for the analysis and optimization of the territorial compensations of radiation variability. The methodology is based on the classification of solar radiation variability and the quantification of durations of intermittent classes. The optimization consists then in finding the dispersion of PV capacity that minimizes the duration of the most intermittent class. To treat these issues, the main novelties of the paper are the following :

• A new typological classification methodology of solar radiation variations

- The use of a typological classification for studying the temporal variability of solar resource over measurement sites
- The application of the typological classification for analysing and quantifying the smoothing effects on solar radiation over a territory

### • The optimization of the smoothing effect for minimizing the intermittence of PV production

The paper is structured with four sections: the overall methodology, based 105 on typological classification and optimisation of territorial compensations of 106 variation, is introduced in section 2. A case study comprising several different 107 sites is described in section 3. Finally, results of the methology applied to the 108 case study are presented in section 4. Solar ressource variations of individual 109 sites, as well as considering them altogether are qualified and classified. Finally, 110 the presence of territorial compensations is demonstrated and then these are 111 optimised for the dataset. 112

#### 113 2. Methodology

#### 114 2.1. Classification methodology

If source intermittency is well understood, periods of deficient solar energy can be mitigated by managing the various energy generation plants at the disposal of the utility operator. As a first step towards developing effective strategies to overcome intermittency, it is important to develop a means to characterise the feature in a rigorous manner using data with a sampling time short enough to capture rapid fluctuations in radiation intensity.

Temporal fluctuation of solar resource is usually characterized by the analysis 121 of statistics on timeseries of solar radiation or photovoltaic generation data. 122 [12] calculated standard deviation of PV production measured at various times 123 steps. [15] used boxplots of  $k_{cls}$  to describe distributions of this index via 124 their median, 1<sup>st</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> quartiles. [13] applied autocorrelation coefficients 125 presented as a function of different temporal lags. Moreover, ramp rates are also 126 analysed through their probability densities, cumulative probabilities functions 127 [17], power spectral analysis [23, 17] and counting of ramp rates occurrences 128 over a given threshold [19]. 129

Irradiance measurements for multiple sites spanning a sufficient period with ahigh sampling frequency leads to a significant volume of data to analyse. Rather

than conventional statistical tools, typological classifications can prove advantageous. Within this framework, a classification methodology was developed to
identify and describe the nature of variations in solar radiation for individual
sites in order to demonstrate the spatial compensations phenomenon.

The typological classification of solar radiation per day or instantaneously 136 has been previously studied for satellite image processing [24, 25], the decom-137 position of total radiation into its direct and diffuse components [26] or the 138 calculation of radiation incident on an inclined plane. Typically, within such 139 studies, periods are classified into intervals of clear sky, partial cloud or over-140 cast conditions, so that different models can be applied to each scenario. The 141 segregation of a data into two or three intervals using instantaneous indicators 142 of cloud cover or sky clarity provides a first means of classification. Thanks 143 to its simplicity, this approach has been widely implemented in previous works 144 [27, 28, 26, 24, 25]. However, since it evokes a static measure of daily cloudy 145 conditions, the method is incapable of retaining dynamic information such as 146 the degree of variability of cloud cover. Hence, a highly variable day can be 147 attributed the same indicator of mean clarity as an overcast day. 148

Other typological methods allow the dynamics of passing clouds to be taken 149 into account: the categorization by the mean clarity index  $k_t$  was complemented 150 by mathematical quantities to quantify the roughness of the signal such as the 151 fractal dimension [29, 30] or the Dirichlet coefficients [31] or wavelet decompo-152 sition coefficients [32].[33] classified the daily distribution of direct fraction  $k_b$ 153 time series at reduced time-step. The methodology consists in combining three 154 data mining methods: principal component analysis (PCA), K-means cluster-155 ing methods and Ward hierarchical method to determine five typical days at 156 La Réunion Island. [34] used a set of discrimination parameters derived from 157 hourly clarity index  $k_t$  to define three types of day in Corsica, applying Ward 158 hierarchical method. The dynamics of solar radiation were taken into account 159 through an integral of the square of the second derivative of  $k_t$ . Similarly, [15] 160 identified five different solar radiation regimes at La Réunion, using k-means 161 clustering analysis. They considered the irradiance level with the daily clear 162

163 sky index and the variability through two parameters:

a Total Relative Change (TRC) of the clear sky index between 10 h and
 16 h

a Random Absolute Relative Change (RARC) index that represents the
sum of short-term variability, excluding the variability trend of the day.

These recent methods, less trivial and more satisfactory represent neverthe-168 less the limitation of classifying days by averaging over instantaneous indicators, 169 despite the fact that even within a single day it is possible to observe periods 170 of different weather conditions. Once again, the characteristics of each weather 171 phenomenon becomes smoothed and attenuated and, consequently distinctly 172 different days may become embroiled together. Therefore, the categories repre-173 sent a large number of different radiation profiles. An additional shortcoming is 174 their limitation to the classification of complete days rather than short intervals. 175 In this respect, these methods are inadequate for the electricity utility operator 176 who must be able to forecast the intra-day conditions for energy generation. 177 To break away from this limitation, days may instead be considered as succes-178 sions of sunlight regimes to be identified by a suitable classification algorithm. 179 The typological classification method of solar radiation variability by interval, 180 mentioned in [35] is presented in a comprehensive manner in this paper. 181

#### 182 2.1.1. Variation scale

Regimes in solar radiation distinguish themselves in particular by the form of the variations in irradiance that are observed, which can be characterized by two criteria: their duration and amplitude. The objective of this work is to develop a classification method of the regimes according to these properties.

The variation scale refers to the duration of time intervals for which the variation of solar radiation is evaluated. It is duration between two consecutive instants for which the relative variation  $\delta G$  is calculated, ignoring the variations present in the interval, following the relation:

$$\delta G(t) = \left| \frac{G(t) - G(t - \delta t)}{G(t - \delta t)} \right| \tag{1}$$

#### 191 2.1.2. Categories of variations

Different solar radiation variation dynamics are discriminated by the variation scales. In effect, variations that are too slow to be perceived for a given  $\delta t$ can be revealed for larger time intervals (Fig. 1).

For a given day, if the data points with a variation greater than 10 % are 195 selected, one observes that four discontinuous and relatively short groups are 196 revealed for a variation scale of  $\delta t = 1$  s, corresponding to times when the 197 solar radiation fluctuates considerably. A large set of points is identified for 198 a variation scale of  $\delta t = 300 \,\mathrm{s}$ , and indeed it is observed that low frequency 199 variations occurring between 3:00 pm – 5:00 pm are particularly considered. 200 Finally, nearly all points in the interval 12:45 - 5:20 pm are recovered when 201  $\delta t = 1200 \,\mathrm{s}$  . The scales of variation therefore render visible and quantifiable 202 the intensity of the variability following the rule according to which, the smaller 203 the  $\delta t$  beyond which the variations become visible, the stronger and tighter the 204 variations. 205

It is therefore possible to construct a typology on the basis of scales of vari-206 ations according to the following procedure: considering the scales retained, 207 calculate and compare the variations for a threshold in variability. The varia-208 tions superior to this threshold are associated to the equivalent class, which can 209 be semantically defined as a class of "variations visible at such a scale". Two 210 distinct scales  $\delta t_1$  and  $\delta t_2$  give rise to three classifications, including the class 211 of negligible variations. It is useful to choose scales that are separated by sev-212 eral orders of magnitude, in order to categorize qualitatively different variation 213 profiles. 214

#### 215 2.1.3. Delimitation of intervals

For most cases, even within a highly active cloudy regime, variations of solar radiation are found to only occasionally exceed the fixed threshold. The



Figure 1: Variations revealed by different values of variations scales :  $\delta t = 1 \text{ s in red}$ ,  $\delta t = 300 \text{ s}$ in black and  $\delta t = 1200 \text{ s in green}$ 

categorization condition therefore generates a large number of instants of different classes that pass in rapid succession. On the other hand, an isolated and punctual variation, as may arise from a single passing cloud for example, may generated an isolated micro-interval. It seems therefore important to regroup these micro-intervals into large interval. The definition of criteria with which to regroup the data is therefore needed in order to limit the number of entities, whist respecting the similarity of variation profiles that have been regrouped.

The two filters have been introduced following this rational. The first threshold represented the maximum duration between two variations so that they are regrouped into the same interval. Labelled  $b_{intra}$ , it is the intra-interval threshold. The second threshold compares to a minimum duration of intervals: it is the inter-interval threshold  $b_{inter}$ . Using these two thresholds, the following four-steps sequential procedure (Fig.2)

1. Variable instants  $t_{var}$  are identified as instants for which the variations of solar radiation exceed the threshold of variability  $b_{var}$  (Step 0 & 1):

$$t_{var} = \{t \text{ s.t. } \delta G(t) \ge b_{var}\}$$

$$(2)$$

231



Figure 2: Diagram of the method : 0.&1. Identification of variations ( $b_{var} = 0.1$ ); 2. Intrainterval grouping step ( $b_{intra} = 900$  s) and 3. inter-interval grouping step ( $b_{intra} = 900$  s) (measured irradiance at Corte, 24<sup>th</sup> May 2010)

2. Times between two distinct variations separated by an interval which duration do not exceed the threshold  $b_{intra}$  are in turn considered : this step comprises the inter-interval regrouping, or the homogenisation during which the set of fluctuating irradiance intervals  $\mathbb{I}_{var}$  is determined (Step 2) :

$$\mathbb{I}_{var,i} = \mathbb{I}_{var,i} \cup \{t_{var,i+1}\}$$
  
if  $t_{var,i+1} - \max_{t \in \mathbb{I}_{var,i}}(t) \le b_{intra}$  (3)

232

3. Any intervals that are too short are integrated into adjacent intervals in the inter-interval regrouping step (step 3) :

$$\mathbb{I}_{var,i+1} = \mathbb{I}_{var,i} \cup \mathbb{I}_{var,i+1} \text{ or } \mathbb{I}_{var,i-1} = \mathbb{I}_{var,i} \cup \mathbb{I}_{var,i-1}$$

$$\text{if } \max_{t \in \mathbb{I}_{var,i}} (t) - \min_{t \in \mathbb{I}_{var,i}} (t) \le b_{inter} \quad (4)$$

In the case of adjacent intervals being of different classes, the inter-interval 233 regrouping proceeds depending on its class: if the given interval is of the 234 maximal class, it will be concatenated to the nearest neighbouring inferior 235 class, otherwise it will be added automatically to the nearest superior class 236 interval. These conditions are valid because, from the perspective of the 237 utility operator, it is more convenient to choose the less favourable case 238 in order to limit risks. However, in the first case where up-classing is 239 impossible, the marginality or short duration of fluctuations are assumed 240 to dominate their intensity and the interval is downgraded. 241

#### 242 2.2. Optimisation of spatial compensation of solar radiation variations

The phenomenon of spatial compensation of solar radiation variations represents an original alternative to smoothing photovoltaic generation without the need for additional technologies. To this end, optimization of the phenomenon could serve to attenuate variations and provide a relatively stable photovoltaic energy supply over the whole territory. The optimization problem shall be to find the set of coefficients  $(\beta_{S_i})_{i \in [1,N]}$ , with  $\forall i \in [1,N], \ \beta_{S_i} \geq 0$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^N \beta_{S_i} = 1$  that minimizes  $P_{t,G_{tot}}(C_M)$  the relative cumulated duration of most important variations  $C_M$  in the weight sum of global irradiance  $G_{tot}$  over all the N sites :

$$G_{tot}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \beta_{S_i} \cdot G_{S_i}(t)$$
(5)

252

So, objective function  $F\left((\beta_{S_i})_{i\in[1,N]}\right)$  is :

$$F\left(\left(\beta_{S_{i}}\right)_{i\in[1,N]}\right) = \min\left(P_{t,G_{tot}}\left(C_{M}\right)\right) \tag{6}$$

The coefficients corresponding to the minimum of the cost function indicate the optimal deployment of photovoltaic capacity at the sites included in the study for a minimum of  $C_j$  variations and hence the smoothest possible generation curve.

In order to determine the optimal set of coefficients  $\beta_{S_i}$  an efficient optimisation tool is needed to limit the number of necessary calculations. Ultimately, all combinations  $(\beta_{S_i})_{i \in [1,N]}$  should be tested to find the optimal set: for a coefficient precision of  $1 \times 10^{-1}$ , this would entail  $9^N$  tests. Rather than pursing this tedious approach, a genetic algorithm (GA) [36, 37] was employed to accelerate the search.

#### <sup>264</sup> 3. Case study

The methodology developped in section 2 is applied to Corsica Island as it 265 presents characteristics of an good illustrative case study. Indeed, the island can 266 be considered as a non-interconnected zone, since the importation of electricity 267 from the continental grid represents only a fifth of the total grid capacity. As 268 a consequence, the regulatory limit (35 %) of renewable integration in Corsica 269 was reached in 2012 when all existing PV plants were connected to the local 270 grid [38]. The objective of the present work is to highlight and optimize the ter-271 ritorial compensation of solar resource variation as an effective strategy in order 272

to exceed the regulatory integration limit for intermittent renewables without
impacting on the grid. To this end, the spatial and temporal behaviour of solar
radiation in Corsica was analysed, using ground-based measurements at a small
number of weather stations.

#### 277 3.1. Geography of the studied territory

Corsica is a Mediterranean island lying in the golf of Genova. From north 278 to south the landmass spans 183 km, from latitude N 41°20'2" to N 43°1'31". 279 The island is  $83.5 \,\mathrm{km}$  wide from east to west, covering longitudes E  $8^{\circ}32'30''$ 280 to E  $9^{\circ}33'38''$ . With a surface area of  $8722 \text{ km}^2$ , Corsica is the fourth largest 281 island in the Mediterranean after Sardinia, Sicily and Cyprus. The island is 282 classed as a "mountain in the sea", with relief above 600 m accounting for 39 283 % of its surface and an average elevation above sea level of 568 m. Some 120 284 peaks exceed 2000 m altitude (Rome and Giorgetti, 2007). The coastal regions 285 enjoy a Mediterranean climate characterized by warm, dry summers and mild, 286 humid winters, which translates into a higher solar resource potential than most 287 of metropolitan France. In contrast, in the mountains the climate is strongly 288 affected by the altitude. At the highest altitudes Corsica exhibits an alpine 289 climate. Inland, summers are hot and sunny, but in winter conditions are more 290 unstable with a high degree of precipitation (about  $700 \,\mathrm{mm}\,\mathrm{yr}^{-1}$ ). The geo-291 graphical distribution of the solar potential across the island is therefore par-292 ticularly heterogeneous and microclimates are present in the region, correlated 293 with elevation as illustrated by the map of daily average radiation in 2005 ob-294 tained with processed Meteosat8 satellite images [39]. 295

The geographical dispersion of the studied sites is essential, in order to ensure a representative and coherent dataset for solar radiation across the territory. The positions of the weather stations were therefore carefully chosen taking into account the microclimate zones on the island. The north-eastern and southwestern parts of the island do not experience variations in solar radiation at the same time. A line of separation exists, running north-west to south-east due to the orientation of the mountain range in the centre of the island. Coastal areas



Figure 3: Geographic localisation of measurement stations  $S_i$ , micro-climates and elevation contours in Corsica. The greyscale indicates daily irradiation intensity in 2005 over the island. Cyan, blue and red contours highlight the elevation levels at 530 m, 1060 m and 2120 m respectively.

of the north-east and south-west, which represent equivalent microclimates, do not however experience the same weather. It is therefore convenient to install weather stations in both areas. The measurement sites were thus deployed at EDF net interconnection sites, taking into account the above mentioned constraints (Fig. 3), with altitude and geographical coordinates detailed in table 1.

#### 309 3.2. Dataset

310 3.2.1. Instrumentation

The apparatus used, SP Lite 2 Kipp & Zonen pyranometers, are equipped with a silicon photodiode of sensitivity 60 to  $100 \,\mu V \, W^{-1} \, m^{-2}$ . Their rapid

Code	Site	Latitude ( $\varphi$ )	Longitude $(\lambda)$	Altitude	$N^{er}$ days
$S_1$	Lucciana	42°39′49″	$9^{\circ}25^{\prime}28^{\prime\prime}$	$60~{ m m}$	456
$S_2$	Calvi	$42^{\circ}33'38''$	$8^{\circ}44^{\prime}48^{\prime\prime}$	$31\mathrm{m}$	416
$S_3$	Corte	$42^{\circ}18'4''$	$9^{\circ}9'57''$	$381\mathrm{m}$	445
$S_4$	Ghisonaccia	$42^{\circ}3'54''$	$9^{\circ}22^{\prime}14^{\prime\prime}$	$65\mathrm{m}$	451
$S_5$	Ajaccio	$41^{\circ}55'49''$	$8^{\circ}45^{\prime}23^{\prime\prime}$	$2\mathrm{m}$	355
$S_6$	Sainte Lucie	$41^{\circ}41'59''$	$9^{\circ}20^{\prime}12^{\prime\prime}$	$66~{ m m}$	405
$S_7$	Propriano	$41^\circ 39^\prime 43^{\prime\prime}$	$8^{\circ}55'2''$	$17\mathrm{m}$	407
$S_8$	Bonifacio	$41^{\circ}22'17''$	$9^{\circ}12^{\prime}10^{\prime\prime}$	$46~{ m m}$	450

Table 1: Geographical coordinates of measures sites

response time to 95 % signal strength within 1s allowed for the second-wise measurements undertaken in the current study. This time step was chosen in order to allow a thorough study of short term variations in solar radiation.

#### 316 3.2.2. Measurement period

The data span a period of 18 months, starting the 24<sup>th</sup> May 2010 for the stations at Corte and Ajaccio, and a few days later for the other installations. Data acquisition was stopped on the 2<sup>nd</sup> October 2011. Over the period, occasional service interruptions lasting from a few hours to a few days were experienced. Consequently,

- Some days contain several data gaps, rendering them unusable for the analysis. Those days with more than 10 % missing or unusable data were eliminated from the analysis
- The number and distribution of useable days of data in the dataset vary between sites (Table 1)

Applying the requirement that data from all stations were available (necessary for a comparative analysis), a subset of 152 days was kept for the present analysis. This constraint plus the heterogeneous distribution of the useable dates across the seasons represent serious limiting factors for this type of study. Indeed, the present dataset comprised 62 days in winter, 63 in spring, 21 in summer and only 6 days in autumn. The set of overlapping dates therefore contains a seasonal imbalance, which introduces a statistical bias when comparingsites.

Around the hours of sunrise and sunset the effect of nearby obstructions and airmass result in low radiation intensities. Moreover, these phenomena are deterministic whereas the study is focused on stochastic variation due to cloudy cover. It was therefore necessary to define a so-called energy interval, representing 80 % of the solar energy of the day (at clear sky condition), symmetrical about solar noon and excluding the start and end of each day [40].

#### 341 3.2.3. Parametrisation of the classification method

The development of the classification method as well as the definition of intervals of variability and of regimes of solar radiation require the determination of four parameters:

- 1. A variability threshold  $b_{var}$  beyond which the conditions are considered fluctuant
- 2. The values of the variation scales  $\delta t$  used to discriminate the different regimes of solar radiation
- 3. The thresholds of intra- and inter-intervals regrouping, designated respectively  $b_{intra}$  and  $b_{inter}$ , which set the limits of the different intervals.

The variability threshold was defined by the french grid operator in Corsica, EDF, which judges a variation to be important when it exceeds 10 % of the radiation received during 5 minutes. It was therefore decided to generalize this 10 % threshold for all of the variability scales to be considered.

The scales of variability  $\delta t$  serve to discriminate variations with different features. It suffices to adopt variation scales that are separated by orders of magnitude in order to discriminate different variation dynamics. Those of order a few seconds may be used to identify deep and narrow variations whereas those of a few minutes, as well as intense variations, recover slow and shallower variations.

Consider  $N_{t_{var}}$  the number of instants  $t_{var}$  identified, for a given variability scale  $\delta t$ , by the first step of the classification procedure (Fig. 2). Let's define



Figure 4: Statistics of  $P_t(t_{var})$  as a function of the scale of variability  $\delta t$  for the 8 sites on all the study period. The light grey area despicts the range between the 10<sup>th</sup> and the 90<sup>th</sup> percentiles, dark grey despicts range between the 25<sup>th</sup> and the 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles and dashed line is the median

P<sub>t</sub>  $(t_{var}) = N_{t_{var}}/N_{t_{tot}} * 100$  the ratio of number of variable instants to the total sample of the measurement period  $N_{t_{tot}}$ .  $P_t(t_{var})$  can be seen as the cumulative time variable on the whole sample.

On figure 4, we can observe that the ranges between  $25^{\text{th}}$  and the  $75^{\text{th}}$ 366 of  $P_t(t_{var})$  and its derivative drawn a thick envelope curves. It shows that 367 whatever the site,  $P_t(t_{var})$  has the same shape:  $P_t(t_{var})$  increases with the 368 scale of variations  $\delta t$  considered. More precisely,  $P_t(t_{var})$  rises rapidly up until 369 an inflexion of the envelop, for  $\delta t = 300$  s. Very fewer variable instants are found 370 for  $\delta t = 1$  s than for  $\delta t = 300$  s. These points reflect different types of variations 371 to those observed for  $\delta t = 300 \,\mathrm{s}$ : large variation scales can be used to identify 372 slow variations in addition to deep and fast found with small scales. Then, we 373 can see  $P_t(t_{var})$  increases slowly for  $\delta t \geq 300$  s and  $\delta t \leq 1200$  s: nearly the same 374 instants are considered variable when  $\delta t$  is set in this intervale of values. Finally, 375 more variations identified at  $\delta t > 1200 \,\mathrm{s}$ . These additional variations are not 376 directly associated to meteorological instabilities, but rather may arise from the 377 variation in solar radiation under clear sky conditions. 378

From this analysis of figure 4, it appears appropriate to undertake an analysis considering two variation scales,  $\delta t_1 = 1$  s and  $\delta t_2 = 300$  s, used to define three classes:

• Class 0 ( $C_0$ ): stable conditions, with no visible variations for  $\delta t = 1$  s or  $\delta t = 300$  s;

• Class 1 ( $C_1$ ): slow and shallow variations perceptible only for  $\delta t = 300$  s;

385 386 • Class 2 ( $C_2$ ): narrow and deep variations present for both scales,  $\delta t = 1$  s and  $\delta t = 300$  s.

The roles of  $b_{intra}$  and  $b_{inter}$  are equivalent:  $b_{intra}$  can be interpreted as a maximal time interval between two variations, and therefore the minimum size of stable intervals; whereas the  $b_{inter}$  designates the minimum size of variable intervals. These thresholds therefore represent the minimal sizes of intervals, stable or otherwise, and hence it is appropriate to consider identical values for the two parameters.

Figure 5 presents intervals delimited for different regrouping thresholds, which are observed to as significant an impact on the data as the configurations, when the thresholds are varied from  $b_{intra} = b_{inter} = 1$  s to  $b_{intra} =$  $b_{inter} = 300$  s,  $b_{intra} = b_{inter} = 900$  s and finally to  $b_{intra} = b_{inter} = 1800$  s.

As was previously expected, without regrouping  $(b_{intra} = b_{inter} = 1 \text{ s})$  a large number of small discontinuous intervals are observed (Fig.5(a)). The application of these thresholds serves to eliminate marginal variations. Thus, all unstable points classified as  $C_1$  observed between 10:28 and 10:33 (Fig.5(a)) change to  $C_0$  when regrouping is applied (Fig.5(b), 5(c) et 5(d)). The intervals generated by the instabilities during these times do not exceed the threshold Sinter, and are therefore declassified.

These thresholds are responsible for a considerable restructuring of the variation intervals. Therefore,

• Data belonging to  $C_2$  between 1:40 pm and 2:00 pm before regrouping are too spaced out to be regrouped into an interval when  $b_{intra} = b_{inter} =$ 



Figure 5: Intervals revealed for a variability threshold of 10 %,  $dt_1 = 1$  s and  $dt_2 = 300$  s and different values of intra and inter – interval grouping thresholds

408300 s, and are thus declassified (Fig.5(b)). In contrast, the same points are409regrouped into an interval of class  $C_2$  for  $b_{intra} = b_{inter} = 900$  s (Fig.5(c)).410Finally, they integrate class  $C_2$  interval between 12:25 pm and 1:12 pm411when  $b_{intra} = b_{inter} = 900$  s (Fig.5(d)).

• Points classed as  $C_2$  for the range 2:36 pm to 2:43 pm are retained in this class when  $b_{intra} = b_{inter} = 300$  s, because the subsequent points are two spread out to be included. These points are retained within this interval when the thresholds are raised to  $b_{intra} = b_{inter} = 900$  s and  $b_{intra} = b_{inter} = 1800$  s.

We can observe a total of 14 intervals were identified for  $b_{intra} = b_{inter} =$ 300 s (Fig. 5(b)), of which 6 persist less than 15 minutes. For  $b_{intra} = b_{inter} =$ 900 s (Fig. 5(c)), 8 intervals are recovered, whereas 5 are found for regrouping thresholds of 1800 s (Fig. 5(d)). It should be noted that a period in which N intervals are identified for  $b_{intra} = b_{inter} = 300$  s, including M intervals of durations shorter than 900 s, will not be split into N - M intervals when considering  $b_{intra} = b_{inter} = 900$  s.

Overall, the smaller the thresholds, the larger the degree of segmentation of days and the smaller the intervals hat will be obtained (Fig. 4). With this in mind, and in the absence of any objective criterion for the determination of these thresholds, they should rather be set be according to the specific application under study, the subsequent analysis, and the desired temporal resolution needed for that application.

#### 430 4. Results and discussion

#### 431 4.1. Characterisation of fluctuations observed at each site

The method introduced in section 2 was implemented to characterise the 432 fluctuations observed at the 8 sites, considering a variability threshold of  $b_{var}$ 433 = 10 %, and two scales of variations  $\delta t_1 = 1$  s and  $\delta t_2 = 300$  s to allow the 434 evaluation of the three classes defined above. The thresholds intra- and inter-435 regrouping were set to  $b_{intra} = b_{inter} = 900 \,\mathrm{s}$ , affording a good compromise 436 between temporal resolution for intervals and the number of intervals to be 437 defined. This comparative assessment was undertaken using the 152 days of 438 overlapping data. 439

The results of this comparative analysis of intervals are shown in figure 6, where each class  $C_j$  is presented with its associated weight in terms of

- 1. relative cumulated durations  $P_t(C_j)$  of intervals, obtained by evaluating the number of measurements associated to each class relative to the sample size.
- 2. relative number of intervals  $P_N(C_j)$ , obtained by counting the amount of interval of each class normalized by the total amount of intervals.



Figure 6: Histograms of relative numbers of intervals  $P_N(C_j)$  and relative cumulated durations  $P_t(C_j)$  of variation class  $C_j$  for the studied sites  $S_i$ 

The fluctuations of all stations exhibit  $P_t(C_0) > P_N(C_0)$ , and with the 447 exception of Ajaccio  $(S_5)$  and Bonifacio  $(S_8)$ ,  $P_t(C_1) > P_N(C_1)$ . These obser-448 vations show that the intervals of classes  $C_0$  and  $C_1$  tend to be relatively long. 449 For example, 50 % of the intervals of class  $C_0$  at Propriano ( $S_7$ ) represent some 450 53.7 % of the measurement time; similarly, 36.3 % of the intervals classed  $C_1$  at 451 Ghisonaccia  $(S_4)$  occupy 39.7 % of the time. In contrast,  $P_t(C_2) < P_N(C_2)$  in-452 dicates that the intervals of class  $C_2$  tend to be of short duration. One observes 453 that at the Lucciana site  $(S_1)$  for example, 10.9 % of the intervals represent 6.13 454 % of the measurement time. 455

Ajaccio  $(S_5)$  appears to be meteorologically the most stable of the 8 sites, with the most intervals of class  $C_0$  and the fewest of class  $C_2$  which is confirmed in terms of the cumulated time: variations of class  $C_0$  represent 61 % of the period whereas class  $C_2$  covers only 5.36 % (Fig.6). At the other extreme, Bonifacio  $(S_8)$  experiences the least stable conditions with a larger frequency of  $C_2$  variations, representing 19 % of intervals and 15.5 % of cumulated time.



Figure 7: Variagramm of the irradiance data per paire of sites: standard variations between irradiances measured over paire of sites as a function of distances

- 4.2. Characterising the spatial compensation of the solar resource in Corsica 462
- 4.2.1. Evidence for the phenomenon 463

The subset of data corresponding to daylight hours was retained for the 464 comparative analysis. Pair-wise linear correlation coefficients were evaluated 465 for the 152 days of overlapping data for each weather stations and the seven 466 other sites. As can be seen in figure 7, the correlation factor between sites 467 was found to not exceed 0.8 for the available data, indicating that the sites 468 are not strongly correlated. The data exhibit phase differences between the 469 variations observed from one site to the next, which therefore may be exploited 470 to smooth the effects of intermittence and hence take advantage of the spatial 471 compensations of the solar resource. 472

With the aid of the present data analysis, it has been possible to draw 473 certain observations of the spatial compensation of the solar resource that are 474 nevertheless indicative of the presence of the phenomenon for Corsica. 475

- 476
- Distinct variations in meteorological conditions recorded as a function of geographical position;
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• correlation coefficients not exceeding 0.8 between sites (Fig.7), arising from

479 phase shifts in cloud phenomena;



Also, we can observe that the degree of fluctuation observed for individual 482 sites (Fig. 8(a), 8(b), 8(c), 8(d), 8(e), 8(f), 8(g), 8(h)) is attenuated when 483 the solar radiation is integrated over all sites (Fig. 8(i)). For instance, some 484 sites exhibit significant variations in solar radiation during the afternoon: such 485 variations of class  $C_2$  were observed in Lucciana  $(S_1)$ , Calvi  $(S_2)$  and Bonifacio 486  $(S_8)$ . These variations are attenuated when considering the average, and none 487 of them are of class  $C_1$ . These observation are consistent with earlier evidence. 488 The distribution of solar radiation over the island is therefore favourable 489 to concept of territorial smoothing of the solar resource, although it remains 490 necessary to develop a more general proof for all days and also a method to 491 quantify the level of compensation achieved. Conventional statistical methods 492 such as histograms of variations are inadequate for the current study. Indeed, we 493 have not found any suitable data representation tool to visualise and quantify 494 the variations. The use of variation classes could serve to prove the existence 495 of the phenomenon, by presenting the class distribution for individual sites and 496 the cumulated signal. 497





Figure 8: Irradiances and variations classes ( $b_{var} = 10 \%$ ,  $\delta t_1 = 1 \text{ s}$ ,  $\delta t_2 = 300 \text{ s}$ , and  $b_{intra} = b_{inter} = 900 \text{ s}$ ) over the sites and average, on 13<sup>th</sup> February 2011

#### 498 4.2.2. Quantification of spatial compensation

In the present work, the durations of intervals associated to the various 499 classes has been used to characterize the phenomenon of territorial smoothing, 500 by classifying the solar radiation at each site and then studying the cumulated 501 duration of each class. The integrated radiation over all sites can be analysed 502 following the same procedure. This method was applied to the 152 days of 503 overlapping data for the 8 sites, using the same parameters as the analysis of 504 individual sites:  $b_{var} = 10 \%$ ,  $\delta t_1 = 1 \text{ s}$ ,  $\delta t_2 = 300 \text{ s}$ , and  $b_{intra} = b_{inter} = 900 \text{ s}$ , 505 and hence the same three class descriptions. Recall that, for all sites, the class 506  $C_0$  variations are the most frequent, representing some 50 – 60 % of the study 507 period, whereas class  $C_1$  variations account for 30 - 40 %. Class  $C_2$  variations 508 are the least common, covering only 5 - 15 % of the measurement time (Fig. 509



6). When the data are cumulated over all sites, class C1 variations increase atthe expense of the other classes (Fig. 9).

Figure 9: Relative cumulated durations of intervals  $P_t(C_j)$  of each class  $C_j$  considering the individual sites in gray histograms (the errorbar depicts the minimal and maximal values all sites considered) and the accumulation of the global radiation over all the sites, illustrating territorial compensation in blue histograms

This result shows firstly that  $C_2$  variations are smoothed and become less 512 frequent when radiation is integrated over several sites : only 1.7 % of the 513 cumulated dataset is associated to class  $C_2$  compared to 5.36 % for the most 514 favourable site. Else, an increase of cumulated duration of  $C_1$  intervals is ob-515 served, whereas  $C_0$  intervals duration decreases slightly. This undesired growth 516 of C1 interval cumumated time can be explained by considering that  $C_2$  varia-517 tions may be smoothed through the summation of either  $C_2$  variations that are 518 out of phase, or  $C_0$  variations that attenuate the relative fluctuations. For the 519 latter case,  $C_0$  variation are transformed to  $C_1$ . Despite this, the overall effect 520 is to smooth the radiation trend. 521

#### 522 4.2.3. Optimisation results

<sup>523</sup> A simple GA was implemented to determine the coefficients  $(\beta_{S_i})_{i \in [1,8]}$  for <sup>524</sup> a range of tests, which converged after 70 to 75 generations of 20 individuals. <sup>525</sup> The obtained coefficients are summarized in table 2. They are the result of 8

- <sup>526</sup> applications of the GA on the scale of the study, the calculations being reiterated
- 527 in order to test the sensitivity of the coefficients and thus exclude the hypothesis
- <sup>528</sup> of a given solution corresponding to a local minimum.

$\operatorname{Code}$	Sites	$\beta_{S_i}$ [%]
$S_1$	Lucciana	$26.04 \pm 1.80~\%$
$S_2$	Calvi	$11.71 \pm 0.65 \ \%$
$S_3$	Corte	$16.20 \pm 2.47 \ \%$
$S_4$	Ghisonaccia	$8.40 \pm 0.73$ %
$S_5$	Ajaccio	$16.51 \pm 2.01 \ \%$
$S_6$	Sainte Lucie	$5.29 \pm 0.33$ %
$S_7$	Propriano	$12.55 \pm 0.57$ %
$S_8$	Bonifacio	$2.81 \pm 0.47$ %

Table 2:  $\beta_i$  coefficients for each site  $S_i$ , with their uncertainties obtained with GA optimization ran 8 times

- <sup>529</sup> Operationnally, the  $\beta_i$  coefficients can be translated as rates of the total PV <sup>530</sup> capacity installed on the territory to be implemented at around each site. Thus,
- a map of the optimal dispersion of PV installations is shown in figure 10.



Figure 10: Territorial redistribution of solar electricity generation for an optimal compensation of variations. The sizes of the squares denote the optimial rate of PV global capacity on the site zone and the thickness of the edges represent the uncertainties of the optimization

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Those sites with the least  $C_2$  variations are found to carry the greatest

weight: the Lucciana and Ajaccio sites, with  $C_2$  variations covering 6.13 % and 5.29 % of time respectively, have weights of  $26.04 \pm 1.80$  % and  $16.51 \pm 2.01$ %. Reciprocally the most unstable site, Bonifacio, was designated the smallest coefficient of  $2.81 \pm 0.47$ %. The optimization process had two positive outcomes (Fig. 11):

• The near total suppression of  $C_2$  variations, which after optimisation account for only 0.13% of the measurement period of 6600 s;

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• A reduction in the growth in frequency of  $C_1$  variations. The occurrence of this class of variation was limited to a level comparable to the site with the highest frequency of  $C_1$  variations.



Figure 11: Relative cumulated durations of intervals  $P_t(C_j)$  of each class  $C_j$  considering the individual sites in gray histograms (the errorbar depicts the minimal and maximal values all sites considered); the accumulation of the global radiation over all the sites, illustrating territorial compensation in blue histograms and the compensations phenomenon optimization in red histograms

The ratios of points considered unstable relative to the number of data, for the sample of 152 days, are for any interval in the range  $dt \in [1; 1800]$  less for the spatially compensated combinations than for the individual sites (Fig.12(a)).

546 The optimization improves on the simple sum of irradiances by reducing



Figure 12: Proportion of unstable periods to the total data sample for the 8 sites; for the territorial variation compensations (blue) and the optimized case (red)

the number of strong variations for scales from 1 to 20 s. Smaller variations, for 547 scales greater than 20 s, are less impacted by the optimization search (Fig.12(b)). 548 This is explained by the fact that the optimization processes is focused more 549 towards the larger variations because the criterion to minimize is the number 550 of variations observable at 1 s. In general, the smoothing afforded for this type 551 of variation can only be partial, hence strong variations are downgraded to 552 moderate ones, which are observable for larger scales and thus the ratio for 553 these scales increases. 554

#### 555 5. Conclusion

We have presented in this paper a new typological classification method for solar radiation, in which the principle innovation resides in the decomposition of days into intervals of different classes according the regime of solar radiation and its variability.

This classification method has been applied to the meteorological character-560 ization of sites across the territory of Corsica, and in order to demonstrate the 561 phenomenon of spatial compensation through an understanding of variations: 562 the collection of events for which the variations were sufficiently important to 563 be classified "strong variations" is limited when radiation is integrated across 564 several sites. Therefore, the observable fluctuations at the scale of 1s, classed 565  $C_2$ , represent between 5.5 and 15.5 % of the measured time for individual sites 566 whereas they represent 1.7 % for the cumulated intensity. 567

A genetic algorithm was subsequently implemented in order to optimise the compensation afforded by spatially distributed radiation, and was found able to practically eliminate intervals of strong variation. Variations of class  $C_2$ represented only 0.13 % after optimization.

However, even once optimised, the compensation is not complete for the set of sites under consideration, and some variations were found to persist. Therefore in the case of a high degree of penetration of intermittent renewable energy resources in Corsica, the utility operator will always need to manage the

- variations and thus overcome the intermittence of energy generation in order to
- ensure the stability of the grid supply and guaranty the electricity service.

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