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Artificial Neural-Network based model to forecast the electrical and thermal efficiencies of PVT air collector systems Y. Chaibi ^{1,*}, M. Malvoni ², T. El Rhafiki ¹, T. Kousksou ¹, Y. Zeraouli ¹ ¹Université de Pau et des Pays de l'Adour, E2S UPPA, SIAME, Pau, France

¹Université de Pau et des Pays de l'Adour, E2S UPPA, SIAME, Pau, France ²School of Electrical and Computer Engineering, National Technical University of Athens, 15780 Athens, Greece

8
9 Corresponding author:
10 *E-mail address*: chaibi.yassine@gmail.com
11 y.chaibi@edu.umi.ac.ma

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13 Abstract

In the recent decade, Machine Learning techniques have been widely deployed in solar 14 systems due their high accuracy in predicting the performances without going through the 15 physical modelling. In this work, the Artificial Neural Network (ANN) method is adopted to 16 17 forecast the electrical and thermal efficiencies of a photovoltaic/thermal (PVT) air collector system. Indeed, two accurate modelling techniques have been used to generate the output 18 results for training and validation. Both deployed electrical and thermal models have been 19 validated experimentally and demonstrated high accuracy. Then, real climatic samples of one 20 year with a 10 minute step of the Jordan valley location have been adopted to generate the 21 22 electrical and thermal efficiencies. These latter are used in the training and validation of the 23 developed ANN model under various combinations of the weather variables. The solar 24 irradiance and the module temperature are the most important variables to consider as input in a NN-based model respectively. The developed ANN model shows MAE of 0.0078% and 25 26 3.3607% in predicting the electrical and thermal efficiency respectively. The electrical efficiency can be predicted with higher accuracy than the thermal efficiency. Further, the 27 28 results demonstrate that the ANN outperforms the LS-SVM in forecasting the PVT air 29 collector performances.

30

31 *Keywords:* Artificial neural network; PVT air collector; electrical model; thermal model;
32 performance forecasting;

- 33
- 34

36 1. Introduction

37 Controlling global energy consumption over recent decades is becoming a central issue in discussions on climate change and the global task to reduce carbon emissions (Yilmaz et al., 38 39 2019). Today, renewable energy systems and energy efficiency are acclaimed by the 40 International Energy Agency (IEA) as a key driver of economic growth, reducing emissions 41 and boosting the energy security of countries (IEA PVPS, 2019). More specifically, solar-42 based energy systems demonstrated a good compromise between the investment cost and efficiency. According to the IEA, the electricity generation using solar energy systems 43 achieved a remarkable growth in the last decade (IEA PVPS, 2019). 44

One of the most effective solutions to reduce the consumption of electrical energy is the 45 development and implementation of hybrid solar systems that can generate two useful 46 47 products simultaneously. The PVT system is an interesting technology as it combines photovoltaic and thermal systems, generating electrical and thermal energy simultaneously 48 (Rejeb et al., 2020). Most popular PVT systems are designed with a cooling fluid flowing in 49 50 an open-loop (usually air) (Yang and Athienitis, 2014) or a closed-loop (usually water) (Yu et 51 al., 2019), but there are also other PVT collectors using an hybrid cooling system of air and 52 water (Su et al., 2016). Water-based PVT systems are more efficient than air-based PVT 53 systems due to its high thermo-physical properties (Abdelrazik et al., 2018).

54 Over the last years, a significant number of research projects on PVT technology have been 55 carried-out and various synthesis papers on PVT systems have been published (Kumar et al., 56 2015). Several authors have been interested in PVT air collectors due to their low-57 manufacturing costs (Diwania et al., 2020). Air cooling system provides a simple and 58 economical solution for cooling the photovoltaic modules. Air can be heated to various 59 temperature levels and its circulation can be either forced (via a fan) or natural (Chaibi et al., 60 2021). Forced circulation is required due to a better heat transfer by convection and conduction, however, the fan power consumption decreases the net electricity gain (Ibrahim et 61 62 al., 2011).

63 The development of physical models is necessary to analyze and study the electrical and 64 thermal performances of PVT air systems (Kumar et al., 2015). In the literature, the electrical 65 behavior of PVT air systems has been imitated using equivalent-circuit models. Waliullah et 66 al. used the double-diode model to compute the output power of a PVT air system (Waliullah

67 et al., 2015). The results are compared to the experiments and shown a remarkable disagreement, which is explained by the climatic data inaccuracy. Tarabsheh et al. adopted the 68 single-diode configuration to evaluate the PVT air system performances under different 69 70 ranges of temperature. The obtained results demonstrate the accuracy of this model by taking 71 into account the temperature gradient overall the PV module surface, and it was reported that 72 cooling PV cells enhances the electrical performances (Al Tarabsheh et al., 2016). Other 73 configurations of electrical models have been adopted in PVT air systems (Babu and 74 Ponnambalam, 2018) in order to forecast the electrical performances especially the electrical 75 efficiency.

76 A number of thermal models have been developed to study the thermal performance of PVT 77 air systems (Touafek et al., 2013). Most of the models are generic or based on electrical 78 analogy using thermal resistance to describe the heat transfers between the different layers 79 constituting the system (Agrawal and Tiwari, 2013). Tonui et al. developed a physical model of an air PVT system using the analogy with the solar thermal collector model and 80 experimental results. The model allows the calculation of the thermal and electrical 81 82 efficiencies of the solar collector without requiring precise knowledge of its composition and 83 without involving thermodynamic modelling (Tonui and Tripanagnostopoulos, 2008, 2007). 84 In addition, the most of the physical models developed in the literature assume that the temperature is uniform at each layer of the system and does not vary according to the airflow 85 direction (Barone et al., 2019). Such models are unable to predict the effects of the thermal 86 gradient along each layer on the thermal performance of the system. 87

In the last decades, predicting the performances of PVT systems by using artificial 88 89 intelligence becomes a key solution to avoid simulating the mathematical models and to 90 overcome their limitations. Accordingly, the advantages of reducing the computing time and to get high prediction accuracy are the main reasons to adopt the use of machine learning 91 92 algorithms. In the literature, many studies have been conducted to forecast the electrical 93 (Maria and Yassine, 2020); and thermal efficiencies of PVT systems (Mojumder et al., 2017). 94 Caner et al. used 80 samples recorded of two solar air collectors to build an ANN-based 95 model in order to predict the thermal efficiency. The results were satisfactory comparing to 96 the experiments (Caner et al., 2011). In the same context, Varol et al. adopted the ANN, the 97 Adapted-Network-Based Fuzzy Interference System (ANFIS) and the Support Vector 98 Machine (SVM) methods to forecast the thermal performances of a phase change material in 99 solar collectors. The results demonstrated the high performance of the SVM technique (Varol et al., 2010). Also, Ahmadi et al. proposed two models based on ANN and Least Squares
SVM methods to predict the electrical and thermal efficiencies of a PVT system. The results
shown that the LS-SVM represented the best performances (Ahmadi et al., 2019).

103 Most of reported studies about forecasting the electrical and thermal efficiencies adopted a 104 limited number of samples in the training and the validation processes, due to the 105 unavailability of experimental samples. The main contribution of this paper is the 106 implementing of an ANN based model to determine the electrical and thermal efficiencies of 107 air collector PVT systems. In this work the novelty is represented by the development of a new and original accurate electrical model together with an original detailed transient thermal 108 109 model of PVT air system, by which it is possible to determine the temperature evolution in each layer as a function of the system length. Further, the adopted data for the training and the 110 111 validation processes refer to 1 year of real climatic conditions of Jordan valley location with a step of 30 minute. This overcome the limitation of previous studies, which used a limited 112 113 number of samples to train and test the neural network. Different combinations of the weather variables were considered to assess the performance of the NN-based model to predict the 114 115 electrical and thermal efficiencies, demonstrating that the choice of the variables as input of 116 the neural network is very important to perform a model with low error. The developed ANN 117 model is also compared with the LS-SVM method in order to confirm the high accuracy in predicting the electrical and thermal efficiencies of the PVT air systems. 118

This manuscript is arranged as follows: First, the followed methodology and the adopted data are described in section 2. Then, the experimental results of both the electrical and thermal models with the predicted efficiencies using the ANN are presented in section 3. Finally, some conclusions are provided in section 4.

123 **2.** Methodology and data

The main objective of this study is to present both thermal and electrical modeling process and successively to implement an Artificial Neural Network model, which is able to forecast the electrical and thermal efficiencies of air collector PVT systems. Then, real climatic data of one year are used as an input of the electrical and thermal models to compute corresponding efficiencies. These latter are adopted in the training and validation of the proposed ANN and LS-SVM models.

130 **2.1.** PVT air collector modeling

131 The modeling procedure represents an important task to imitate the real electrical and 132 thermal behaviors of PVT systems. Accordingly, two validated modelling techniques are 133 developed to assess the electrical and thermal performances of the air collector PVT system.

134

135 **2.1.1.** Electrical modeling

Photovoltaic module is a group of cells connected in series to provide important levels of voltage and current, which vary according to the fluctuations of solar irradiance G and cell temperature T_c (Chaibi et al., 2019a). The electrical behavior of PV modules is represented by the equivalent-circuit models. In **Fig.1**, one of the most adopted configurations is presented, noted as the single-diode presentation. Here, two resistances called the shunt R_{sh} and the series resistance R_s are added to take in account the PV cell losses (Chaibi et al., 2018).



142 143

Fig.1: PV cell single-diode equivalent circuit model

144 The model in **Fig.1** is employed to plot the current-voltage characteristics (I-V). The PV 145 module output current I_{pv} is defined as follows (Villalva et al., 2009):

146
$$I_{PV} = I_{sol} - I_s \left\{ exp \left[\frac{q}{aN_cKT} (V_{PV} + I_{PV}R_s) - 1 \right] \right\} - \frac{V_{PV} + R_s I_{PV}}{R_{sh}}$$
(1)

- 147 where:
- 148 a: diode ideality factor.
- 149 I_s : saturation current of the PV module.
- 150 I_{sol} : photo-generated current of the PV module.
- 151 K: Boltzmann constant.
- 152 N_c : number of cells in series.
- 153 q: electron charge.
- 154 V_{PV} : output voltage of the PV module.

155 From **Eq.(1**), the I-V curves nonlinearity could be assessed using the manufacturer datasheet

and a numerical process to determine the unknown electrical parameters. An iterative process

157 to extract the equivalent-circuit physical parameters is adopted (Chaibi et al., 2020). This

- method is based on the iteration of the shunt resistance until finding a good matching betweencomputed and experimental power at the standard test conditions (STC).
- 160 In order to compute the corresponding powers for each value of solar irradiance and 161 temperature, **Eq.(2)** is used together with **Eq.(1)** to find the maximum power point (MPP) 162 coordinates.

$$163 \quad \frac{\partial P_{PV}}{\partial V_{PV}} = I_{PV} + V_{PV} \frac{\partial I_{PV}}{\partial V_{PV}} = 0 \Rightarrow I_{PV} = (V_{PV} - R_s I_{PV}) \left\{ \frac{q}{aN_c kT} I_s \exp\left[\frac{q}{aN_c kT} (V_{PV} + R_s I_{PV})\right] + 164 \quad \frac{1}{R_{sh}} \right\}$$

$$(2)$$

165 Computed powers at MPP are provided to calculate the electrical module efficiency using the166 following equation (Chaibi et al., 2019b):

167
$$\eta_{ele} = \frac{P_{pv}}{S_m G}$$
(3)

- 168 S_m is the module surface.
- 169 **2.1.2.** Thermal modeling

Fig.2 depicts the PVT hybrid collector scheme considered in this work. It is constituted
of a photovoltaic module with three layers: tempered glass, PV cells covered by two-ethylene
vinyl acetate (EVA) layers and Tedlar (Sarhaddi et al., 2010a).



- To perform the energy balance for each layer of the PVT module, various assumptions havebeen applied:

173

- unsteady state conditions;
- air is an incompressible fluid;
- EVA has a transmissivity of approximately 100%;
- temperature of glass, cell, tedlar and air depends only on the longitudinal dimension in
 the flow direction;

• heat loss is neglected as we consider the PV module to be well insulated.

Fig.3 presents the corresponding equivalent thermal resistance circuit and the size of thecontrol volume for airflow.



185 186



- Fig.3: Layout of thermal resistance system of a PVT air module (a), and basic length "dx" of a control volume (b) (Sarhaddi et al., 2010b)
- 191 The thermal energy equations for various layers of the system are as follows:

192

187 188

• Energy equation for glass

193
$$(\rho c \delta)_g \frac{\partial T_g}{\partial t} = \lambda_g \delta_g \frac{\partial^2 T_g}{\partial x^2} + \alpha_g G + \sigma \varepsilon_g (T_{sky}^4 - T_g^4) + h_c (T_{am} - T_g) + \frac{\lambda_g}{\delta_g} (T_c - T_g)$$

194 (4)

195 where, ρ_g is the density of the glass, c_g is the heat capacity of the glass, δ_g is the thickness of 196 the glass, λ_g is the thermal conductivity of the glass, G is the solar radiation received by the 197 glass, α_g is the absorptivity of the glass, T_{am} is the ambient temperature, σ and ε_g are Stefan 198 Boltzmann constant and glass emissivity respectively. Swinbank (Sarhaddi et al., 2010a) 199 expression is used to estimate the sky temperature T_{sky} :

200
$$T_{sky} = 0.0552 T_{am}^{1.5}$$

201 (5)

202 McAdams correlation is adopted to determine the heat transfer coefficient between air and203 glass (Swinbank, 1963):

204
$$h_c = 5.7 + 3.8 V_{wind}$$

205 (6)

- 206 where, V_{wind} is the wind speed.
- Energy equation for PV cell

$$208 \qquad \left(\rho c \,\delta\right)_c \frac{\partial T_c}{\partial t} = \lambda_c \,\delta_c \,\frac{\partial^2 T_c}{\partial x^2} + \left[\frac{\delta_g}{\lambda_g} + \frac{\delta_c}{\lambda_c}\right]^{-1} \left(T_g - T_c\right) + \left[\frac{\delta_{ted}}{\lambda_{ted}} + \frac{\delta_c}{\lambda_c}\right]^{-1} \left(T_{ted} - T_c\right) + G\beta_c \,\tau_g \alpha_{pv} - P_{pv}$$

209 (7)

The electricity produced by PV cell P_{pv} can be calculated using the following expression (Sellami et al., 2019):

212
$$P_{pv} = \tau_{g} \beta_{c} G \eta_{o} \left[1 - \beta \left(T_{c} - T_{ref} \right) \right]$$

213 **(8**)

214 where, β is the cell temperature coefficient, β_c is the packing factor, τ_g is the glass 215 transmittance, α_{pv} is the absorptivity of the PV cells and η_o is the reference electrical 216 efficiency of PV panel for a reference temperature T_{ref}.

• Energy equation for Tedlar

218
$$(\rho c \delta)_{ted} \frac{\partial T_{ted}}{\partial t} = \lambda_{ted} \delta_{ted} \frac{\partial^2 T_{ted}}{\partial x^2} + h_f (T_f - T_{ted}) + \left[\frac{\delta_{ted}}{\lambda_{ted}} + \frac{\delta_c}{\lambda_c}\right]^{-1} (T_c - T_{ted})$$
 (9)

• Energy equation for air

220
$$(\rho c A)_f \frac{\partial T_f}{\partial t} + c_f \dot{m}_f \frac{\partial T_f}{\partial x} = \lambda_f A_f \frac{\partial^2 T_f}{\partial x^2} + h_f . W (T_{ted} - T_f)$$
 (10)

where, \dot{m}_{f} is the mass flow rate of air and A_{f} is the cross-sectional area of the fluid and W is the PVT width. 223 The thermal (η_{th}) and electrical efficiency (η_{ele}) are calculated as (Evans, 1981):

224
$$\eta_{th} = \frac{\dot{m}_f c_f \left(\overline{T}_f - T_{f,in}\right)}{G.A_{pv}}$$
(11)

225
$$\eta_{ele} = \eta_{ref} \beta_c \left(1 - 0.0045 \left(\overline{T_c} - 298.15 \right) \right)$$
 (12)

where, \overline{T}_c is the average temperature of the PV cell and \overline{T}_f is the average temperature of the fluid (Rejeb et al., 2020). In this work the reference efficiency η_{ref} is assumed to be 12%, which is in the range of the efficiency of common PV modules (Hazami et al., 2016).

The overall energy efficiency of the PVT module is calculated using the following expression(Good, 2016):

231
$$\eta_g = \eta_{th} + \frac{\eta_{ele}}{C_F}$$
(13)

The electrical energy conversion factor C_F ranges from 0.35 to 0.40 and is generally used for PVT systems (Patankar, 1980).

A fully implicit finite volume method was used to solve the energy equations system. The first-order upwind scheme was applied to address convective terms, and diffusion terms are discretized using the second order of the central differential scheme. In this paper, the discretized equations were solved iteratively by using a Tridiagonal Matrix Algorithm (TDMA) method (Patankar, 1980). The computation procedure was carried out using Fortan 90. The specified iteration in each time interval was considered convergent when the maximum relative residual of T_g , T_c , T_{ted} and T_f was less than 10⁻⁴.

241 2.2. Machine learning based methods

This section introduces the supervisor machine learning techniques as the Artificial Neural Network and the Least Squares Support Vector Machines adopted to predict both electrical and thermal performance of a photovoltaic-thermal air collector system.

245 2.2.1. Artificial Neural Network

Artificial neural network includes an input layer, an output layer and one or more hidden layers. Each layer consists of neurons connected between them. The outputs of each layer are the input for the next layer, get by a transfer (activation) function f as follows:

249
$$Y_i = f(\sum_j w_j X_i + b)$$
 (14)

where, Y_i represents the output for the i-th layer based on the input X_i the connection weights w_j and b is the bias (Haykin, 2007). A common scheme of a multi-layer NN is shown in **Fig.4**.



253 254

Fig.4: Common multi-layer neural network

The neural networks can be classified into feed-forward and feed-back networks. A feedforward network is a non-recurrent network where the output is determined by the activation of the neurons starting from input through all the layers in one direction. Unlike a feed-back network can adopt a loop, so the neuron connections can be in more directions (Schmidhuber, 2015).

In common applications, fit a neural network means use a training dataset to set the connection between the neurons (weights) in order to map the inputs and the outputs in the best way possible. So, the training of a feedforward neural network phase consists of an optimization algorithm based on the back-propagation learning algorithm. It includes forward phase and backward phase (De Giorgi et al., 2013). In the Forward phase, the error is obtained as the difference between the target and the actual output with parameters of the network fixed. the Backward phase the weights are adjusted to minimize the error.

The Levenberg–Marquardt algorithm is one of the most popular training algorithm for neural network that adopts the gradient descent approach, by which the training can be considered as completed when the performance is minimized to the goal. A description of the Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm for neural network application can be found (Rojas, 1996).

271 2.2.2. Least Squares Support Vector Machines

The Least Squares Support Vector Machines represents a noteworthy learning technique with several applications to overcome the overfitting problem successfully. The LS-SVM maps the outputs y_i by using a regression function φ , applied to the inputs x_i as follows:

275
$$y_i = w\phi(x_i) + b$$
 $i = 1 ... N$ (15)

where, w is the weight vector, b is the bias and N is the size of the training dataset. The Lagrange function given by:

278
$$L(w, b, e, \alpha) = \mathcal{J}(w, e) - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i \{ y_i [w\phi(x_i) + b] - 1 + e_i \}$$
 $i = 1 \dots N$ (16)

279 It is introduced to solve the optimization problem and to minimize the cost function.

280
$$\min_{w,e} \mathcal{J}(w,e) = \frac{1}{2} w^{T} w + \frac{\gamma}{2} \sum_{i}^{N} e_{i}^{2} \quad i = 1 \dots N$$
 (17)

281 With e_i and α_i are unknown variables and γ is the regularization factor. The Mercer's 282 theorem introduces a kernel function K and claims that:

283
$$\varphi^{T}(x_{i})\varphi(x_{j}) = K(x_{i}, x_{j})$$
 i, j = 1 ... N (18)

284 It assumes the Radial Basis Function (RBF) as the kernel function given by:

285
$$K(x_k, x_j) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_k - x_j\|_2^2}{\sigma^2}\right)$$
 (19)

with σ the tuning parameter. So, an approximation of y is given by:

287
$$y(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i K(x, x_i) + b$$
 (20)

288 2.3.3 Accuracy assessment

289 The performance of the prediction models is evaluated by:

• Pearson correlation coefficient (R)

291
$$R = \frac{n \sum_{1}^{n} (x_i * \hat{x}_i) - (\sum_{1}^{n} (x_i) * \sum_{1}^{n} (\hat{x}_i))}{\sqrt{(n \sum_{1}^{n} x_i^2 - (\sum_{1}^{n} x_i)^2) * (n \sum_{1}^{n} \hat{x}_i^2 - (\sum_{1}^{n} \hat{x}_i)^2)}}$$
(21)

• Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)

293 RMSE =
$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \hat{x}_i)^2}$$
 (22)

• Mean absolute Error (MAE)

295
$$MAE = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{1}^{n} (x_i - \hat{x}_i)$$
 (23)

with $\hat{x_i}$ outputs, x_i targets and *n* is the size of the testing dataset. Low MAE implies good fitting between actual outputs and targets. R value is closed to 1 mean a good relationship among actual data and predicted one.

299 **3. Results and discussion**

300 In this section, the experimental validation of both electrical and thermal models is 301 assessed. Then, the obtained results of the ANN-based model are presented and compared to 302 the

- 303 LS-SVM model.
- 304 **3.1.** Data description

In this study, the input climatic data (Dalala et al., 2020) are the real measurements of solar irradiance, module temperature, humidity and wind recorded in a weather station located at Jordan valley site (Hashemite Kingdome of Jordan) for the 2017 year. More details are reported in (Dalala et al., 2020). The monitored data every 30 minutes, for 12.238 samples overall, are used as input of the developed electrical and thermal models. The test dataset of 3456 samples are plotted in **Fig.5**.





Fig.5: Test weather data and efficiency related to 2017 year.

The horizontal solar irradiance varies between 0 and 1093.06 W/m² with the mean value is 229.52 W/m². The module temperature is in the range 4.72 °C \div 51.82 °C with the lowest value in January, the highest value in June and a mean value of 24.13°C. The humidity is 11.33% in September, 99.81% in March and 54.12% on annual average. The highest wind value is recorded of 19.4 m/s with a mean of 1.1 m/s. The highest electrical and thermal

efficiencies are 12.7% in January and 44.66% in June with a mean of 5.27% and 6.98%respectively.





Fig.6: Variables Distribution Histograms

The distribution histograms of the used data are plotted in **Fig.6**. The solar irradiance and the wind show a distribution that "leans" to the left (positive skewness) that means the lack of symmetry with respect to the mean, unlike by the module temperature and humidity which present a distribution similar to the uniform one. It is noted that the electrical and thermal efficiencies show the same distribution as the solar irradiance and wind.



The Fig.7 shows the correlation between the input climatic data and the efficiencies (electrical and thermal). In very few cases it is possible to see a correlation between the variables. An increase/decrease pattern exists between irradiance, module temperature, electrical and thermal efficiency.



Fig.8: Pearson Correlation Coefficients

In fact, as shown in **Fig. 8**, the Pearson correlation coefficient is close to 1, or however higher

than 0.6 in very few cases. Sometimes we can see also negative correlations. The electrical

- and thermal efficiencies present a correlation of 0.78 and 0.53 with irradiance respectively; of
- 339 0.49 and 0.62 with the module temperature. The remain variables such as humidity and wind

show a correlation very closed to 0 or even negative correlation.

Such analysis will be considered in the development of the ANN model. In particular, the
correlations will represent the criteria by which the variables will be chosen as input for the
ANN.

- 344 **3.2.** Validation of the electrical and thermal models
- 345 **3.2.1.** Electrical model

To assess the accuracy of the electrical PV modeling, datasheet values of the SP75 PV module (See Table 1) are used to compute the electrical parameters using the iterative process reported in (Chaibi et al., 2020). The founded parameters are summarized in Table 2.

349

 Table. 1: Specifications of the used PVT air collector system (Sarhaddi et al., 2010a)

Solar PVT air module parameters	Value		
PV module type	Siemens SP75, monocrystalline silicon		
The number of cells in series, N_c	36		
The maximum power of PV module at STC, $P_{pv,MPP}$	75 W		
The maximum voltage of PV module at STC, $V_{pv,MPP}$	17 V		
The maximum current of PV module at STC, $I_{pv,MPP}$	4.4 A		
The short-circuit current of PV module at STC, <i>I</i> _{sc}	4.8 A		
The open-circuit voltage of PV module at STC, Voc	21.7 V		
The temperature coefficient of I_{sc} , K_i	2.06 mA/°C		
The length of PV module, L	1.2 m		
The width of PV module, W	0.527 m		
The area of PV module, S_m	0.632 m^2		
The electrical efficiency at the reference conditions, $\eta_{ele,ref}$	0.12		
The density of glass cover, ${oldsymbol{ ho}}_g$	2450 kg.m ⁻³		
The specific heat capacity of glass cover, C_g	500 J.kg ⁻¹ .K ⁻¹		
The thickness of glass cover, $\delta_{_g}$	0.003 m		
The conductivity of glass cover, λ_{g}	1 W.m ⁻¹ .K ⁻¹		
The transmissivity of glass cover, $ au_g$	0.95		
The conductivity of solar cell, λ_c	130 W.m ⁻¹ .K ⁻¹		
The specific heat capacity of solar cell, c_c	677 J.kg ⁻¹ .K ⁻¹		
The density of solar cell, ρ_c	2330 kg.m ⁻³		
The absorptivity of solar cell, α_c	0.85		
The thickness of solar cell, δ_c	0.0003 m		

The conductivity of solar cell, λ_c	0.036 W. m ⁻¹ .K ⁻¹
The thickness of tedlar, δ_{ted}	0.0005 m
The conductivity of tedlar, λ_{ted}	0.033 W. m ⁻¹ .K ⁻¹
The specific heat capacity of tedlar, c_{ted}	1250 J.kg ⁻¹ .K ⁻¹
The density of tedlar, ρ_{ted}	1200 kg.m ⁻³

³⁵⁰

 Table. 2: Extracted parameters of the Siemens SP75 PV module at the STC (Chaibi et al., 2020)

Parameters	Value	
Photo-generated current	4.8 A	
Saturation current	1.1e-06 A	
Ideality factor	1.5352	
Series resistance	0.2616 Ω	
Shunt resistance	2670 Ω	

The parameters in Table 2 are adopted to generate the I-V curves of the SP75 PV module. 352 353 Then, these characteristics are compared to the experimental curves for various level of solar 354 irradiance and temperature. These I-V curves are presented in Fig.9, with a variation of solar irradiance and fixed temperature at 25 °C (Fig.9-a), and variation of temperature with a fixed 355 irradiance at 1000 W/m² (Fig.9-b). It is clear from these curves that the adopted modeling 356 357 method exhibits high accuracy for different variations of solar irradiance and temperature. Besides, a little disagreement is remarked for irradiances below 400 W/m², but it will not 358 359 affect the performances of the electrical model since it does not exceed 2% of difference 360 compared to experimental data.



Fig.9: Experimental and simulated I-V characteristics of the SP75 PV module: irradiance varies and fixed temperature (T=25°C) (a), temperature varies and fixed irradiance (G=1000 W/m²) (b)

365 3.2.2. Thermal model

Numerical results obtained by the thermal model are compared to the experimental results 366 367 reported by Joshi et al. (Joshi et al., 2009). Solar irradiance, ambient temperature, air temperature at the inlet and outlet of the PVT, and PV cell temperature are some of the 368 parameters that Joshi et al. (Joshi et al., 2009) have measured. The design parameters and 369 370 thermophysical properties of the PVT air collector are presented in Table 1 (Sarhaddi et al., 2010a). Fig.10 indicates the experimental day's variations in solar radiation intensity, ambient 371 372 temperature and inlet air temperature. Fig.11 illustrates the variation versus time of the air 373 temperature at the output of the PVT module, the average PV cell temperature and the related 374 experimental data. Based on this figure, there is generally a good correspondence between experimental and numerical results. The thermal and electrical efficiencies of the PVT air 375 376 system are illustrated in Fig.12. Here, it can be seen that there is a reasonable agreement 377 between experimental and calculated values of these efficiencies. The slight difference 378 between the experimental and calculated efficiencies can be explained as follows:

- Wind speed is considered constant. However, in practice this velocity is not constant and
 has a direct effect on the heat loss through the system;
- The absorption and transmission coefficients were considered constant while they vary
 over the day as solar incidence angle on the PVT system surface changes.



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385

Fig.10: The hourly variation of G, T_{am} and T_{air,inlet}







3.3. ANN-based model results

395 In the present work a Multilayer Perceptron (MLP) feedforward neural network of 4 layers is design with 1 input node and 1 output neuron, 1 hidden layers 10 nodes and 1 output 396 397 layer. The two-layer feedforward network consists of sigmoid hidden neurons and linear 398 output neurons as shown in Fig.13.



- 399 400
- 401

Fig.13: Network Architecture

402 The sigmoid function used in the ANN hidden layer is defined as (Kang, 2017):

403
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\beta x}}$$
 (24)

404 The linear function is given by:

405
$$g(x) = ax + b$$
 (25)

They are shown in Fig.13. The MLP feedforward neural network implements the BackPropagation (BP) learning in Batch mode during the BP training, in which the weights are
adjusted through epoch-by-epoch that means, the whole dataset is use to training.

The **Table. 3** includes several combinations of the weather variables as the potential input of the neural network. They were chosen on the base of the results regarding the Pearson Correlation Coefficients. So, the variables which exhibited high correlations with the output variables (electrical and thermal efficiencies) were considered to define the cases as presented in the **Table 3**. Further, 2 combinations (case 6 and case 8) of the input variables with low correlations were also considered to analyze their impact on the neural network performance.

415	Table. 3: Several	l combinations of	of the weather	variables as the	potential inpu	t of the neural	network
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	Solar Irradiance	Module Temperature	Humidity	Wind
Case 1	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
Case 2	\checkmark			
Case 3	\checkmark	\checkmark		
Case 4	\checkmark	\checkmark		\checkmark
Case 5	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	
Case 6		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
Case 7	\checkmark			\checkmark

Case 8	\checkmark	\checkmark	
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For each case, different neural networks were trained and tested by varying the number of 416 417 hidden layer neurons. The RMSE as defined by Eq.(22) is used to assess the performance of 418 the network. The number of hidden layer neurons with lower RMSE was chosen to get the network with higher performance. Fig. 14 shows the performance in term of RMSEs related 419 420 to neural networks implemented to predict the electrical and thermal efficiencies respectively 421 for each case. Steady RMSEs were observed within 30 as number of hidden layer neurons. This was established as the maximum number of hidden layer neurons to apply in the 422 423 performance assessment.





Fig.14: Performance of different neural networks by varying the number of hidden layer neurons

In Fig 14, it is clear that the RMSE related to the electric efficiency is lower than 1% excepted for case 6 and 8 in which it varies between 4% and 5%. The case 3 and 5 result more performing with a number of hidden layer neurons starting from 6. The RMSEs of the thermal efficiency are in the range [5.5%, 10.5%]. The best and the worst perform were for the case 5 and the case 7 respectively.

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Table 4: Summary of number of hidden layer neurons and R for 8 cases

	Electrical Efficiency		Thermal Efficiency	
	Number of hidden layer neurons	R	Number of hidden layer neurons	R
Case 1	6	0.99998	25	0.85879
Case 2	7	0.99699	16	0.61297
Case 3	8	0.99998	15	0.82186
Case 4	28	0.99997	12	0.81293
Case 5	16	0.99997	29	0.86836
Case 6	7	0.51172	22	0.76551
Case 7	18	0.99783	2	0.58601
Case 8	11	0.51186	10	0.75414

The best number of hidden layer neurons for each case is summarized in **Table 4**. Generally, it can be observed that the neural network to predict the electrical efficiency performs well for low number of hidden layer neurons, unlike the neural network to model the thermal efficiency that shows high accuracy for high number of hidden layer neurons. The best number of hidden layer neurons for each case were adopted for the performance assessment in the following sections.



439 440

Fig.15: Target VS predicted values of the electrical efficiency.

Fig.15 plots the actual values (target) and the predicted values of the electrical efficiency. For each case, the neural network's response is quite similar to the expected value, excepted for case 6 and 8 which represent the weather variables combinations without the solar irradiance.



Fig. 16 presents regression plots for electrical efficiency. Mainly the R value is 0.99 excepted0.51 for case 6 and 8.



In Fig. 17 the errors generally are very low, exhibiting good compliance between target and output, but evident spikes can be observed between -10% and 10% in case 6 and 8. In fact the error histograms (Fig. 18) demonstrate that the error distribution is mainly peaked and centered to zero, unlike it is flat for case 6 and it is very flat for case 8.





The target and the predicted value of the thermal efficiency are presented in Fig.19. The
implemented neural networks show different responses of the thermal efficiency for the 8
cases. The regression plots (Fig.20) illustrate R values up to 0.86 (case 5) and 0.85 (case 1).
The worst R value (0.58) is for case 7 that does not consider the module temperature as input
of the neural network (see Table 3).



Fig.22: Thermal efficiency error histograms

Fig.21 depicts the errors and confirms that the case 7 presents low error, the remain cases are affected by evident spikes. The thermal efficiency error histograms (Fig.22) are left shift: This means that it is more probable to underestimate the thermal efficiency than to overestimate it. Furthermore, the histograms are low with not evident peaks, so positive and negative errors occur with comparable probability.





Fig.23: MAE for electrical and thermal efficiency for 8 cases

492 The MAEs of each case, calculated by Eq.(23), are plotted in Fig. 23. Regarding the electrical 493 efficiency, the case 1, 3, 4 and 5 show the best performances in term of MAE closed to zero. 494 For such cases, solar irradiance and module temperature are the common variables, so 495 humidity and wind variables are not essential to obtain high accuracy. High MAEs (up to 496 3.5%) are remarked in the case 6 and 8 which not consider the solar irradiance as input of the 497 neural network. MAEs of 3.2% can be obtained for thermal efficiency in case 1 and 5 which 498 include the solar irradiance, module temperature and humidity as input. High MAEs (5.9 %) 499 are reported for the cases 2 and 7 which not include module temperature. Such results are in 500 accord with the correlations shown in **Fig.8**, where the electrical efficiency is strictly correlated with the irradiance, the thermal efficiency is correlated with the module 501 502 temperature.



503 504



507 Fig.24: Actual VS predicted (a) R (b) and Error histograms (c) of the electrical efficiency by LSSVM.

In order to demonstrate the high performance of the discussed neural network-based model, a comparison with the LS-SVM technique is illustrated. Solar irradiance, module temperature, humidity and wind (case 1) were used as input for the LS-SVM model. **Fig.24.a** plot the electrical efficiency targets and outputs. It is evident that the response of the LS-SVM model is very spread if it is compared with the actual electrical efficiency as the R value of 0.80214 confirms (**Fig.24.b**). The error distribution is left shift (**Fig.24.c**) that means most of all the predicted values underestimate the actual electrical efficiency.





Fig.25: Actual and predicted values of the thermal efficiency by LS-SVM (a) R value (b) and Error
 histograms (c) of the thermal efficiency by LS-SVM

The actual and predicted thermal efficiency by LS-SVM is illustrated in Fig.25.a. Furthermore, the low R coefficient (0.71477) confirms that exists a not strong correlation (Fig. 25.b) and a quite similar probability to underestimate and overestimate the thermal efficiency as seen by the symmetric error distribution (Fig.25.c).

526

	ANN		LS-SVM	
	Electrical Efficiency	Thermal Efficiency	Electrical Efficiency	Thermal Efficiency
MAE (%)	0.0078	3.3607	2.6936	6.1546

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The **Table 5** summarizes the MAE for ANN and LS-SVM using the prediction models for both electrical and thermal efficiency. The results of the case 1 were adopted to compare the performance of the NN-based model. It can see that the ANN outperforms the LS-SVM showing very low MAE values for both efficiencies. The accuracy assessment confirms that the electrical and thermal efficiency of a PVT air system can be predicted with higher performance by using an ANN than LS-SVM based-model, with a reducing up to 2.7% forelectrical efficiency and up to 2.8% for the thermal efficiency.

535 Conclusion

The study presents the results of an ANN model to predict the electrical and thermal 536 efficiencies of PVT air systems. The first part of the paper introduces a method to model the 537 538 electrical and the thermal efficiencies. Such method is evaluated by using actual 539 measurements of weather conditions. Then the efficiency modeled values are applied to train 540 and test a predictive model based on ANN using the weather data as an input for the neural 541 networks. Different combinations of the weather variables were considered to assess the 542 performance of the ANN- based model. The results are presented, and an accuracy analysis is 543 performed by RMSE, R coefficient and MAE. The outcomes demonstrate that the choice of 544 the variables as input of the neural network is very important to perform a model with low 545 error. Furthermore, the solar irradiance and the module temperature are the most important 546 variables to consider as input in a NN-based model respectively. The results also demonstrate 547 higher performance of the ANN than LS-SVM. Furthermore, the electrical efficiency can be 548 predicted with higher accuracy than the thermal efficiency.

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