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DELIVERABLE ONE: REPORT ON THE DST(S) FOR YOUR NATIONAL APPLICATIONS

AREA

Climate Change Science Program

**Uses and Limitations of Observations, Data, Forecasts, and Other Projections in
Decision Support for Selected Sectors and Regions**

Chapter 3. “Decision Support System for Assessing Hybrid Renewable Energy Systems”

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1. Introduction

The national application area addressed in this chapter is the deployment of renewable energy technologies. Renewable energy technologies are being used around the world to meet local energy loads, to supplement grid-wind electricity supply, to perform mechanical work such as water pumping, to provide fuels for transportation, to provide hot water for buildings, and to support heating and cooling requirements for building energy design. Numerous organizations and research institutions around the world have developed a variety of decision-support tools to address how these technologies might perform in a most cost-effective manner to address specific applications. This chapter will focus on one specific tool, known as the Micropower Optimization Model, Hybrid Optimization Model for Electric Renewables (HOMER),

28 that has been under consistent development and improvement at the US Department of Energy's National
29 Renewable Energy Laboratory and is used extensively around the world.

30

31 HOMER relies heavily on knowledge of the renewable energy resource available to the technologies being
32 analyzed. Renewable energy resources, particularly for solar and wind technologies, are highly dependent
33 on weather and climate phenomena, and are also driven by local microclimatic processes. Given the
34 absence of a sufficiently dense ground network of reliable solar and wind observations, we must rely on
35 validated numerical models, empirical knowledge of microscale weather characteristics, and collateral
36 (indirect) observations derived from Earth observations, such as reanalysis data and satellite-borne remote
37 sensors, to develop reliable knowledge of the geospatial characteristics and extent of these resources. Thus,
38 the Decision Support System (DSS) described in this chapter includes HOMER as an end-use application
39 and is described in the context of the renewable energy resource information required as input, as well as
40 some intermediate steps that can be taken to organize these data, using Geographic Information Systems
41 (GIS) software, to facilitate the application of HOMER.

42

43

44

45 2a. Description of the HOMER DSS

46

47 The HOMER DSS described in this chapter consists of three main components: (1) the renewable energy
48 resource information required to estimate technology performance and operational characteristics, (2)
49 (optional) organization of the resource data into a GIS framework so that the data can be easily imported
50 into the decision support tool, and (3) NREL's Micropower Optimization Model known as HOMER, which
51 ingests the renewable resource data for determining the optimal mix of power technologies for meeting
52 specified load conditions at specified locations. This section describes each of these components
53 separately. Although climate-based Earth observational data are primarily relevant only to the first
54 component, some related Earth observation information could also be associated with the second and even

55 the third component. Furthermore, it will be apparent that the first component is of major importance in the
56 successful use of the HOMER DSS.

57

58 Although HOMER handles a number of power technologies, we will focus our attention in this chapter on
59 solar and wind technologies and the resources required to run these technologies.

60

61

62 Solar and Wind Resource Assessments

63

64 The first component of the HOMER DSS is properly formatted, reliable renewable energy resource data.
65 The significant data requirements for this component are time-dependent measurements of wind and solar
66 resources, as well as Earth observational data and data from numerical models, to provide the necessary
67 spatial information for these resources, which can vary significantly over relatively small distances due to
68 local microclimatic effects. Because of this natural variability, it is necessary to examine these energy
69 resources geospatially in order to determine optimal siting of renewable energy technologies; alternatively,
70 if a renewable energy technology is sited at a specific site in order to meet a nearby load requirement (such
71 as a solar home system), it is necessary to know what the resource availability is at that location, since
72 microclimatic variability may make even nearby data sources irrelevant.

73

74 Examples of the products derived from the methodologies described below can be found for many areas
75 around the world. One significant project that has recently been completed is the Solar and Wind Energy
76 Resource Assessment (SWERA) Project, which provided high-resolution wind and solar resource maps for
77 13 countries around the world. SWERA was a project funded by the Global Environment Facility and was
78 cost-shared by several technical organizations around the world: NREL; the State University of New York
79 at Albany, the NASA's Langley Research Center, and the USGS/EROS Data Center in the U.S.; Riso
80 National Laboratory in Denmark; the German Aerospace Institute (DLR); the Energy Resources Institute
81 (New Delhi, India); and the Brazilian Spatial Institute (INPE) in Sao Jose dos Campos, Brazil. The United
82 Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) managed the project. Besides the solar and wind resource maps

83 and underlying data sets, a variety of other relevant data products came out of this program. All of the final
84 products and data can be found on the SWERA archive, hosted at the UNEP/GRID site, collocated with the
85 USGS/EROS data center in Sioux Falls, South Dakota (<http://swera.unep.net>).

86

87 For wind resource assessments, NREL's approach, known as Wind Resource Assessment Mapping System
88 (WRAMS) relies on mesoscale numerical models such as MM5 or Weather Research and Forecasting
89 (WRF), which can provide simulations of near-surface wind flow characteristics in complex terrain or
90 where sharp temperature gradients might exist (such as land-sea contrasts). Typically, these numerical
91 models use available weather data, such as the National Climatic Data Center's Integrated Surface Hourly
92 (ISH) data network and National Center for Atmospheric Research-National Centers for Environmental
93 Protection (NCAR-NCEP) reanalysis data as inputs. In coastal areas or island situations NREL's wind
94 resource mapping also relies heavily on SeaWinds data from the Quikscat satellite to obtain near-shore
95 and near-island wind resources. WRAMS also relies on Global Land Cover Characterization (GLCC) 1-
96 km and Regional Gap Analysis Program (ReGAP) 200-m land cover data, as well as Moderate Resolution
97 Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) data from the Aqua and Terra Earth Observation System satellites, to
98 obtain information such as percent of tree cover and other land use information. This information is used
99 not only to determine roughness lengths in the numerical mesoscale models but also to screen sites suitable
100 for both wind and solar development in the second component of the HOMER DSS.

101

102 The numerical models are typically run at a 2.5-km resolution. However, wind resource information is
103 often reported at the highest resolution at which a digital elevation model (DEM) can provide. Globally
104 this has traditionally been 1-km resolution; however, in some cases in the US 400-m DEM data are
105 available. Furthermore, the Shuttle Radar Topology Mission has now been able to provide users with a
106 90-m DEM for much of the world. Thus, additional steps are needed beyond the 2.5-km resolution model
107 output to depict wind resources at the higher resolutions offered by these DEM's. This can be
108 accomplished by using a secondary high-resolution mesoscale model, empirical methods, or both. For
109 example, with NREL's WRAMS methodology, GISD-based empirical modeling tools have been developed

110 to modify results from the numerical models that appear to have provided unreliable results in complex-
111 terrain areas.

112

113 The numerical models generally provide outputs at multiple levels above the ground. The WRAMS
114 methodology provides values at a single specified height above the ground, nominally 50 m, or near the
115 hub-height of modern-day large wind turbines (although with the recent advent of larger and larger wind
116 turbines, hub heights are approaching 100 m, so this standard height designation is changing). Where
117 measured data are used to assess wind resources, a simple “power law” relationship is used to extrapolate
118 the measured data to the desired height (Elliott *et al.*, 1987), i.e.

119

$$120 \quad V_R/V_a = (Z_R/Z_a)^\alpha \quad (1)$$

121

122 where α , the power law coefficient, is normally assumed to be 1/7, V_R is the wind speed at reference height
123 Z_R (nominally, 50 m), and V_a is the wind speed at the measurement height Z_a .

124

125 The output of the WRAMS methodology is typically a value of wind power density at every grid-cell
126 representative of an annual average (in order to produce monthly values, the procedure outlined above
127 would have to be repeated for each month of the year). For mapping purposes, a classification scheme has
128 been set up that relates a “wind power class” to a range of wind power densities. The classification scheme
129 ranges from 1 to >7, and applies to a specific height above ground. Normally, for grid-connected
130 applications, a wind power class of 4 or above is best, while for small wind turbine applications where
131 machines can operate in lower wind speeds, wind power class of 3 or above is suitable. Of course, the
132 wind maps are not intended to identify sites at which large wind turbines can be installed, but rather are
133 intended to provide information to developers on where they might most effectively install wind
134 measurement systems for further site assessment. The maps also provide a useful tool for policy makers to
135 obtain reliable estimates on the total wind energy potential for a region.

136

137 Other well-known approaches besides NREL's WRAMS methodology are also used to produce large-area
138 wind resource mapping. For example, Riso National Laboratory calculates wind speeds within 200 m
139 above the Earth's surface using the Karlsruhe Atmospheric Mesoscale Model (KAMM). Although KAMM
140 also uses NCEP/NCAR reanalysis data, the model is based on large-scale geostrophic winds, and
141 simulations are performed for classes of different geostrophic wind. The classes are weighted with their
142 frequency to obtain statistics for the simulated winds. The results can then be treated as similar to real
143 observations to make wind atlas files for the Wind Atlas Analysis and Application Program (WAsP), which
144 are employed to predict local winds at a much higher resolution than KAMM can provide. WAsP
145 calculations are based on wind data measured or simulated at specific locations and includes a complex
146 terrain flow model, a roughness change model, and a model for sheltering obstacles. More on WAsP can
147 be found at <http://www.wasp.dk/>.

148

149 Due to the scarcity of high-quality, ground-based solar resource measurements, large-area solar resource
150 assessments in the US have historically relied on the analysis of surface National Weather Service cloud
151 cover observations. These observations are far more ubiquitous than solar measurements, and allowed
152 NREL to develop a 1961 to 1990 National Solar Radiation Database for 239 surface sites. However, more
153 recently in the US more and more reliance has been placed on GOES visible channel data to obtain surface
154 reflectance information that can be used to derive high-resolution (~10-km) site-time specific solar resource
155 data (see for example Perez, *et al.*, 2002). In fact, this approach has become commonplace in Europe,
156 using Meteosat data. And the NASA Langley Research Center has recently completed a 20-year
157 worldwide 100-km resolution Surface Solar Energy Data set derived from International Satellite Cloud
158 Climatology Project data, which is derived from data collected by all of the Earth's geostationary and polar
159 orbiting satellites (<http://eosweb.larc.nasa.gov/sse>).

160

161 The use of satellite imagery for estimating surface solar resource characteristics over large areas has been
162 studied for some years, and Renné *et al.* (1999) published a summary of approaches developed around the
163 world. These satellite-derived assessments require good knowledge of the aerosol optical depth over time
164 and space, which can be obtained in part from MODIS and Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer

165 (AVHRR) data from polar orbiting environmental satellites. The assessments provide information both on
166 Global Horizontal Irradiance (GHI), which is useful for estimating resources available to flat plate
167 collectors such as photovoltaic panels or solar water heating systems, and Direct Normal Irradiance (DNI),
168 which is needed for determining the resources available to solar concentrators that track the sun.

169

170 Besides NREL and NASA, other organizations perform similar types of high-resolution solar resource data
171 sets. For example, the German Space Agency (DLR) has been applying similar methods to Meteosat data
172 for developing solar resource maps and data for Europe and northern Africa. DLR was also involved in the
173 SWERA project and applied their methodologies to several SWERA countries.

174

175

176 Geospatial Toolkit

177

178 Recently, NREL has begun to format the solar and wind resource information into GIS software-
179 compatible formats, and has incorporated this information, along with other geospatial data relevant to
180 renewable energy development, into a Geospatial Toolkit (GsT). The GsT is a stand-alone, downloadable,
181 and executable software package that allows the user to overlay the wind and solar data with other
182 geospatial data sets available for the region, such as transmission lines, transportation corridors, population
183 (load) centers, locations of power plant facilities and substations, land use and land form data, terrain data,
184 etc. Not only can the user overlay various data sets of their choosing, there are also simple queries built
185 into the toolkit, such as the amount of “windy” land (e.g. Class 3 and above) available within a distance of
186 10-km of all transmission lines (minus specified exclusion areas, such as protected lands). The GsT
187 developed at NREL makes use of the Environmental Science and Research Institute’s (ESRI) MapObjects
188 software, although other platforms, including on-line, Web-based platforms, could also be used.

189

190 In a sense, the GsT is a DSS, since it allows the user to manipulate resource information with other critical
191 data relevant to the deployment of renewable energy technologies to assist decision makers in identifying
192 and conducting preliminary assessments of possible sites for installing these systems and supporting

193 renewable energy policy decisions. However, up to now NREL has only prepared GsT's for a few
194 locations: the countries of Sri Lanka, Afghanistan, and Pakistan; Hebei Province in China; the state of
195 Oaxaca in Mexico; and the state of Nevada in the US. By the time of publication of this chapter, additional
196 toolkits may also be available. As with the resource data, all toolkits developed by NREL are available for
197 download from NREL's Web site. Those toolkits developed under the SWERA project are also available
198 from the SWERA Web site.

199

200 HOMER: NREL's Micropower Optimization Model

201

202 The primary decision support tool that makes up the DSS being described here is HOMER, NREL's
203 Micropower Optimization Model. HOMER is a computer model that simplifies the task of evaluating
204 design options for both off-grid and grid-connected power systems for remote, stand-alone, and distributed
205 generation applications. HOMER's optimization and sensitivity analysis algorithms allow the user to
206 evaluate the economic and technical feasibility of a large number of technology options and to account for
207 variation in technology costs and energy resource availability. HOMER can also address system component
208 sizing and the adequacy of the available renewable energy resource. HOMER models both conventional
209 and renewable energy technologies:

210 **Power sources:**

- 211 • solar photovoltaic
- 212 • wind turbine
- 213 • run-of-river hydropower
- 214 • Generator: diesel, gasoline, biogas, alternative and custom fuels, co-fired
- 215 • electric utility grid
- 216 • microturbine
- 217 • fuel cell

218 **Storage:**

- 219 • battery bank
- 220 • hydrogen

221 **Loads:**

- 222 • daily profiles with seasonal variation
- 223 • deferrable (e.g., water pumping and refrigeration)
- 224 • thermal (e.g., space heating and crop drying)
- 225 • efficiency measures

226

227 In order to find the least cost combination of components that meet electrical and thermal loads, HOMER
228 simulates thousands of system configurations, optimizes for lifecycle costs, and generates results of
229 sensitivity analyses on most inputs. HOMER simulates the operation of each technology being examined
230 by making energy balance calculations for each of the 8,760 hours in a year. For each hour, HOMER
231 compares the electric and thermal load in the hour to the energy that the system can supply in that hour.
232 For systems that include batteries or fuel-powered generators, HOMER also decides for each hour how to
233 operate the generators and whether to charge or discharge the batteries. If the system meets the loads for
234 the entire year, HOMER estimates the lifecycle cost of the system, accounting for the capital, replacement,
235 operation and maintenance, and fuel and interest costs. The user can obtain screen views of hourly energy
236 flows for each component as well as annual costs and performance summaries.

237

238 This and other information about HOMER are available on NREL's Web site: <http://www.nrel.gov/homer/>.
239 The Web site also provides extensive examples of how HOMER is used around the world to evaluate
240 optimized hybrid renewable power systems to meet load requirements in remote villages. Figure 1 shows a
241 typical example of an output graphic available from HOMER.

242

243 In order to accomplish these tasks, HOMER requires information on the hourly renewable energy resources
244 available to the technologies being studied. However, typically hour-by-hour wind and solar data are not
245 available for most sites. Thus, the user is requested to provide monthly or average information on solar and
246 wind resources; HOMER then uses an internal weather generator to provide the best estimate of a
247 simulated hour-by-hour data set, taking into consideration diurnal variability if the user can provide an
248 indication of what this should be. However, these approximations represent a source of uncertainty in the

249 model. For those locations where a GsT is available, the GsT offers a mechanism for the user to easily
250 ingest data from the toolkit into HOMER for the specific location of interest. However, since the toolkit
251 contains only monthly solar and wind data, the limitations described above still apply. More information
252 on the weather generator can be found in the HOMER Help files.

253

254 The HOMER developers have implemented various methods to facilitate access to reliable resource data
255 that provide some of the input for simulations. For example, a direct link with the NASA SSE data site
256 enables the user to download monthly and annual solar data from any location on Earth. The 100-km
257 resolution NASA data have become a benchmark of solar resource information, due to the high quality of
258 the modeling capability used to generate the data, the fact that the SSE is validated against numerous
259 ground stations, and the fact that it is global in scope and now covers a 20-year period. However, the data
260 set is still limited by a somewhat coarse resolution and no validation in areas where ground data do not
261 exist. The procedures used to generate the SSE also have problems where land-ocean interfaces occur, and
262 in snow-covered areas.

263

264 Linking HOMER to higher-resolution regional solar data sets would likely improve these uncertainties
265 somewhat, but in general these data sets are also limited to monthly and seasonal values. However, since
266 these methods rely on geostationary satellite data that provide frequent imagery of the Earth's surface, an
267 opportunity exists to produce hourly time series data for up to several years at a 10-km resolution. This
268 option will require significant data storage and retrieval capabilities on a server, but such a possibility now
269 exists for future assessments.

270

271 Wind data available to HOMER is also generally limited to annual and at best monthly values. The
272 standard HOMER interface allows the user to also designate a Weibull "k" value if this information is
273 available. The Weibull k is a statistical means of defining the frequency distribution of the long-term
274 hourly wind speeds at a location; this value can vary substantially depending on local terrain and
275 microclimatic conditions. HOMER also has a provision for the user to designate the diurnal range of wind
276 speeds and the timing when maximum and minimum winds occur. This information then provides

277 improved simulation of the hour-by-hour wind values. The difficulty is that there may be applications
278 where even these statistical values are not known to the user and are not available from the standard wind
279 resource maps produced for a region, but this limitation may not be critical and requires further study to
280 determine the impact on model output uncertainties.

281

282 2b. Access to the HOMER DSS

283

284 HOMER was originally developed and has always been maintained by the National Renewable Energy
285 Laboratory. The model can be downloaded free of charge from NREL's Web site at
286 <http://www.nrel.gov/homer/default.asp>. The user is required to register, and registration must be updated
287 every six months. The Web site also contains a variety of guides for getting started and using the software.

288

289 Resource information required as input to HOMER is generally freely available at the Web sites of the
290 institutions developing the data. These institutions also generally maintain and continuously update the
291 data. For example, renewable energy resource information can be found in several places on NREL's Web
292 site, such as <http://rredc.nrel.gov> or www.nrel.gov/GIS. NASA solar energy data, which can be easily
293 input to HOMER, is available at <http://eosweb.larc.nasa.gov/sse>. In fact, there is a specific feature built
294 into HOMER that automatically accesses and inputs the SSE data for the specific location that the model is
295 analyzing. Wind and solar resource data for the 13 SWERA countries can be found at
296 <http://unep.swera.net>. This Web site is currently undergoing expansion and upgrading by the USGS/EROS
297 Data Center in Sioux Falls, SD, and will eventually become a major clearing house for resource data from
298 around the world in formats that can be readily ingested into tools such as HOMER.

299

300 2c. Definition of HOMER information requirements

301

302 The ideal input data format to HOMER is an hourly time series of wind and solar resource data covering a
303 complete year (8,760 values). In addition, the wind data should be representative of the wind turbine hub
304 height that is being analyzed within HOMER. Unfortunately data sets such as these are seldom available at

305 the specific locations for which HOMER is being applied. More typically, the HOMER user will have to
306 identify input data sets from resource maps (even within the GsT, the resource data are based on what is
307 incorporated into the map, which, in the case of wind, may represent only a single annual value). Because
308 monthly and annual mean data are more typically available, HOMER has been designed to take monthly
309 mean wind speeds (in m/s) and monthly mean solar resource values (in kw-h/m²-day). In the case of wind,
310 HOMER also allows for the specification of other statistical parameters related to wind speed distributions
311 and diurnal characteristics. Furthermore, if the wind data available for input to HOMER do not represent
312 the same height above the ground as the wind turbine's hub height being analyzed, HOMER has internal
313 algorithms to adjust for this. The user must specify the height above the ground for which the data
314 represent, and a power law conversion adjusts the wind speed value to the hub height of the specific wind
315 turbine being analyzed. HOMER then utilizes an internal weather generator that takes the input
316 information and creates an hour-by-hour data profile representing a one-year data file. Then, HOMER
317 calculates turbine energy output by converting each hourly value to the energy production of the machine
318 using the manufacturer's turbine power curve.

319

320 Besides the mean monthly wind speeds, the statistical parameters required by HOMER to generate the
321 hourly data sets include the following:

322

- 323 • The altitude above sea level (to adjust for air density, since turbine performance is typically rated
324 at sea level);
- 325 • The Weibull k value, which typically ranges from 1.5 to 2.5, depending on terrain type;
- 326 • An auto-correlation factor, which is a measure of how strongly the wind speed in 1 hour depends
327 (on average) on the wind speed in the previous hour (these values typically range from 0.85 to
328 0.90);
- 329 • A diurnal pattern strength, which is a measure of how strongly the wind speed depends on the time
330 of day (values are typically 0.0 to 0.4); and
- 331 • The hour of the peak wind speed (over land areas this is typically 1400 to 1600 local time)

332

333 In the US as elsewhere, wind resource maps often depict the resource in terms of wind power density, in
334 units of watts-m⁻² rather than in wind speeds. In this case, the wind power density must be converted back
335 to a mean wind speed. The relationship between wind power density (P) and wind speed (v) is given as
336 follows:

337

$$338 \quad P = \frac{1}{2}\rho \sum_i v_i^3, \quad (2)$$

339

340 where ρ is the density of the air and i is the individual hourly wind observation. Since the frequency
341 distribution of wind speed over the period of a year or so follows a Weibull distribution shape, the wind
342 power density can be converted back to a wind speed if the “k” factor in the Weibull distribution is known,
343 as well as the height above sea level of the site (to determine the air density).

344

345 2d. Access to and use of the HOMER DSS among the federal, state, and local levels

346

347 Because of the easy access to HOMER and to the related resource assessment data products, the HOMER
348 DSS is freely available to all government and private entities in the US and worldwide. Thousands of users
349 from all economic sectors are using HOMER to evaluate renewable energy technology applications,
350 particularly for off-grid use.

351

352 2e. Variation of the HOMER DSS by geographic region or characteristic

353

354 A key feature of HOMER is the evaluation of specific renewable energy technologies and related energy
355 systems for different regions and for different applications. The HOMER model contains information on
356 renewable energy technology characteristics; however, these characteristics, such as power curves of
357 difference wind turbine models, generator fuel curves, and other factors are not affected by location.

358 Because of the location-specific dependency of resource data, use of data that is not representative of the
359 specific region of analysis will introduce additional uncertainties in the model results. Thus, the user

360 should evaluate the accuracy and relevancy of any default information that is built into HOMER, or any
361 resource data chosen as input to HOMER before completing the final analyses.

362

363 **3. Observations used by the HOMER DSS now and of potential use in the future**

364

365 This section focuses on the Earth observations (of all types, from remote sensing and *in situ*) used or of
366 potential use in the HOMER DSS.

367

368 3a. Kinds of observations being used

369

370 In the previous section we provided a description of the renewable energy resource assessment related to
371 solar and wind technologies that are required as input to HOMER when these technologies are being
372 modeled. As noted in that section, developing this resource information requires the use of a variety of
373 Earth observations. In this section we list out these observations for each resource category, as well as
374 other types of observations relevant to the HOMER DSS.

375

376 Wind Resources

377

378 The ideal observational platform for obtaining reliable wind resource data to be input into HOMER would
379 be calibrated wind speed measurements from a meteorological tower installed at the location of interest.
380 These measurements should be obtained at the hub height of the wind turbine being modeled, should be of
381 sufficient sampling frequency to provide hourly measurements, and should be of sufficient quality and
382 duration to result in at least one full year of continuous measurements. Although measurements of this
383 quality are typically necessary at project sites where significant investments in large grid-connected wind
384 turbines are anticipate, and where a decision has already been made to implement a large-scale project, it is
385 extremely rare that this level of observation is available for most HOMER applications, where the user is
386 examining potential applications for proposed projects. Thus, some indirect means to establish wind
387 characteristics at a proposed site, such as extrapolating wind resource measurements available from a

388 nearby location or developing a wind resource map such as described in Section 2, is required. The major
389 global data sets typically used by NREL for wind resource assessment are summarized in table 1.

390

391 More discussion on some of these data sets is provided below.

392

393 Surface Station Data

394

395 In the US, as well as in most other countries, the main source of routine surface wind observations would
396 be observations from nearby national weather stations, such as those routinely maintained to support
397 aircraft operations at airports. These data can be made available to the user from the National Climatic
398 Data Center (NCDC) in the form of the Integrated Surface Hourly (ISH) data set. This database is
399 composed of worldwide surface weather observations from about 20,000 stations, collected and stored from
400 sources such as the Automated Weather Network (AWN), the Global Telecommunications System (GTS),
401 the Automated Surface Observing System (ASOS), and data keyed from paper forms (see,
402 http://gcmd.nasa.gov/records/GCMD_C00532.html).

403

404 Satellite-Derived Ocean Wind Data

405

406 Ocean wind data can be obtained from the SeaWinds Scatterometer (see
407 <http://manati.orbit.nesdis.noaa.gov/quikscat/>) mounted aboard NASA's Quick Scatterometer (QuickSCAT)
408 satellite. QuickSCAT was launched on June 19, 1999 in a sun-synchronous polar orbit. A longer-term
409 ocean winds data set is available from the Special Sensor Microwave/Imager (SSM/I) data products as part
410 of NASA's Pathfinder Program. The SSM/I geophysical dataset consists of data derived from observations
411 collected by SSM/I sensors carried onboard the series of Defense Meteorological Satellite Program
412 (DMSP) polar orbiting satellites (see http://www.ssmi.com/ssmi/ssmi_description.html#ssmi). An example
413 of how Scatterometer data were used in support of a wind resource assessment in Pakistan is provided in
414 figure 2 (see also http://www.nrel.gov/international/rr_assess_pakistan.html). Airborne or space borne
415 Synthetic Aperture Radar systems can also provide information on ocean wind data, although these data are

416 not commonly used for this purpose in the US, since Scatterometer data products are more readily and
417 freely available.

418

419 Reanalysis Upper Air Data

420

421 The US reanalysis data set was first made available in 1996 to provide gridded global upper air and vertical
422 profiles of wind data derived from 1,800 radiosonde and pilot balloon observations stations (Kalnay, *et al.*
423 1997). The reanalysis data were prepared by NCAR-NCEP and can be found at
424 <http://www.cdc.noaa.gov/cdc/reanalysis/>. An early analysis of the data set (Schwartz, George, and Elliott,
425 1999) showed that for wind resource assessments the dataset was a promising tool for gaining a more
426 complete understanding of vertical wind profiles around the world but that discrepancies with actual
427 radiosonde observations still existed. Since that time, continuous improvements have been made to the
428 NCAR-NCEP dataset, and it has become an ever-increasingly important data source for contributing to
429 reliable wind resource mapping activities.

430

431 Digital Terrain Data

432

433 Digital Elevation Models (DEM) have been accessed from the USGS/EROS data center. These models
434 consist of a raster grid of regularly spaced elevation values that have been derived primarily from the
435 USGS topographic map series. The USGS no longer offers DEMs, and for the US these can now be
436 accessed from the National Elevation Dataset (<http://ned.usgs.gov/>). The Shuttle Radar Topographic
437 Mission (SRTM) offers much higher resolution terrain data sets, which are now beginning to be used in
438 some wind mapping exercises. These are also being distributed by USGS/EROS under agreement with
439 NASA (<http://srtm.usgs.gov/>).

440

441 Digital Land Cover Data

442

443 Land cover data are used to estimate roughness length parameters required for the mesoscale
444 meteorological models used in the wind mapping process. Data from the Global Land Cover
445 Characterization dataset provide this information at a 1-km resolution (see
446 <http://edcsns17.cr.usgs.gov/glcc/background.html>). The Moderate Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) is
447 used to obtain global percent tree cover values at a spatial resolution of 0.5 km (Hansen, *et al.*, 2003).
448 Existing natural vegetation is also being mapped at a 200-m resolution as part of the USGS Regional Gap
449 Analysis program. Gap analysis is a scientific method for identifying the degree to which native animal
450 species and natural communities are represented in our present-day mix of conservation lands (Jennings
451 and Scott, 1997).

452

453 Solar Resources

454

455 As with wind, the ideal solar resource data set for incorporation into HOMER would be data derived from a
456 quality, calibrated surface solar measurement system consisting of a pyranometer and a pyrliometer that
457 can provide a continuous stream of hourly data for at least one year. Such data are seldom available at the
458 site for which HOMER is being applied. Although interpolation to nearby surface radiometer data sets can
459 be accomplished with reasonable reliability, we usually resort to an estimation scheme to derive an *in-situ*
460 data set. The solar resource assessments that NREL and others undertake make use of several different
461 observational datasets, such as ground-based cloud cover measurements, satellite-derived cloud cover
462 measurements, or the use of the visible channel from satellite imagery data. The major global data sets
463 used for solar resource assessments are summarized in table 2.

464

465 More discussion on some of these data products is described below.

466

467 World Radiation Data Center

468

469 Since the early 1960s the World Radiation Data Center, located at the Main Geophysical Institute in St.
470 Petersburg, Russia, has served as a clearinghouse for worldwide solar radiation measurements collected at

471 national weather stations. The WRDC is under the auspices of the World Meteorological Organization. A
472 Web-based data set was developed by NREL in collaboration with the WRDC and can be accessed at
473 <http://wrdc-mgo.nrel.gov/>. This data archive covers the period 1964 to 1993. For more recent data, the user
474 should go directly to the WRDC home page at <http://wrdc.mgo.rssi.ru/>.

475

476 Aerosol Optical Depths (AOD)

477

478 After clouds, atmospheric aerosols have the greatest impact on the distribution and characteristics of solar
479 resources at the Earth's surface. However, routine *in-situ* observations of this parameter have only recently
480 begun. Consequently, a variety of surface-based and satellite-based observations are used to derive the best
481 information possible of the temporal and spatial characteristics of the atmospheric AOD. The most
482 prominent of the surface data sets is the AERONET (<http://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/>), a network of automated
483 multiwavelength sun photometers located around the world. This network also has links to other
484 networks, where the data may be less reliable. AERONET data can be used to provide ground-truth data
485 for different satellite sensors that have been launched on a variety of sun-synchronous orbiting platforms
486 since the 1980s, such as the Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer (TOMS), the Advanced Very High
487 Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR), the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS), and the
488 Multi-Angle Imaging Spectroradiometer (MISR), the latter two mounted on NASA's Terra satellite. As
489 noted by Gueymard (2003) determination of AOD from satellite observations is still subject to
490 inaccuracies, particularly over land areas, due to a variety of problems such as insufficient cloud screening
491 or interference with highly reflective surfaces. The Global Aerosol Climatology Project (GACP),
492 established in 1998 as part of the NASA Radiation Sciences Program and the Global Energy and Water
493 Experiment (GEWEX), has as its main objectives to analyze satellite radiance measurements and field
494 observations in order to infer the global distribution of aerosols, their properties, and their seasonal and
495 interannual variations and to perform advanced global and regional modeling studies of the aerosol
496 formation, processing, and transport (<http://gacp.giss.nasa.gov/>).

497 Other sources of aerosol optical depth data include the Global Ozone Chemistry Aerosol Transport
498 (GOCART) model (<http://code916.gsfc.nasa.gov/People/Chin/gocartinfo.html>) which is derived from a

499 chemical transport model. An older dataset, the Global Aerosol Dataset (GADS), which can be found at
500 <http://www.lrz-muenchen.de/~uh234an/www/radaer/gads.html>, is a theoretical data set providing aerosol
501 properties averaged in space and time on a $5^0 \times 5^0$ grid. (Koepke, *et al.*, 1997).

502 Other Renewable Energy Resources

503 Although the scope of this chapter focuses on wind and solar energy resources, it is evident that many of
504 the Earth observation data sets listed above can apply to other renewable energy resources as well. For
505 example, hydropower resources can be determined by analysis of high resolution DEM data, along with
506 knowledge of the rainfall amounts over specific watersheds and the land use characteristics of these
507 watersheds. Biomass resource assessments can be enhanced through use of MODIS data as well as other
508 weather-related data, and through evaluation of MODIS and AVHRR data to determine the Normalized
509 Vegetation Index (NVI).

510 3b. Limitations on the usefulness of observations

511

512 In the absence of direct solar and wind resource measurements at the location for which HOMER is being
513 applied, the observations described in Section 3a, when used in the wind and solar resource mapping
514 techniques described in Section 2, will together provide useful approximations of the data required as input
515 to HOMER. However, the observations all have limitations in that they do not explicitly provide direct
516 observation of the data value required for the mapping techniques but only approximations based on the use
517 of algorithms to convert a signal into the parameter of interest. These limitations for some of these data
518 sets can be summarized here:

519

520 Surface Station Data: These are generally not available at the specific locations at which HOMER would
521 be applied, so interpolation is required. Furthermore, they generally do not have actual solar
522 measurements, but rather proxies for these measurements (i.e., cloud cover). The wind data are generally
523 collected at 10 m above the ground or less, and the anemometer may not be in a well-exposed condition.
524 When the station observations are derived from human observations, they represent samples of a few
525 minutes duration every 1 or 3 hours; therefore, many of the observations are missing. For those stations

526 that have switched from human observations to Automated Surface Observation Stations (ASOS), the
527 means of observation have changed significantly from the human observations, representing a discontinuity
528 in long-term records. Occasionally, the location of the station is changed without changing the station ID
529 number, which can also cause a discontinuity in observations. Similarly, equipment changes can cause a
530 discontinuity in observations

531

532 Satellite-Derived Ocean Wind Data: These data are not based on direct observation of the wind speed at
533 10 m above the ocean surface, but rather from an algorithm that infers wind speeds based on the wave
534 height observations provided by the scatterometers or Synthetic Aperture Radar

535

536 Satellite-Derived Cloud Cover and Solar Radiation Data: These data sets are derived from observations of
537 the reflectance of the solar radiation from the Earth-atmosphere system. Although it could be argued that
538 this method does provide a direct observation of clouds, the solar radiation values are determined from an
539 algorithm that converts knowledge of the reflectance observation, the incoming solar radiation at the top of
540 the atmosphere, and the transmissivity characteristics of the atmosphere to develop estimates of solar
541 radiation.

542

543 Aerosol Optical Depth: Considerable research is underway to improve the algorithms used to convert
544 multi-spectral imagery of the Earth's surface to aerosol optical depth. The satellite-derived methods have
545 additional shortcomings over land surfaces, where irregular land-surface features make application of the
546 algorithms complicated and uncertain.

547

548 3c. Reliability of the observations

549

550 For those observations that provide inputs to the solar and wind resource data, their reliability can vary
551 from parameter to parameter. Generally all of the observations used to produce data values required for
552 solar and wind assessments have undergone rigorous testing, evaluation, and validation. This research has
553 been undertaken by a variety of institutions, including the institutions gathering the observations (e.g.,

554 NASA and NOAA) as well as the institutions incorporating the observations into resource mapping
555 techniques (e.g., NREL). Many of the satellite-derived observations of critical parameters will be less
556 reliable than *in-situ* observations; however, satellite-derived observations must still be used due to the
557 scarcity of *in-situ* measurement stations.

558

559 3d. What kinds of observations could be useful in the near future

560

561 All of the observations currently available will continue to be of critical value in the near future. For
562 renewable energy resource mapping, improved observations of key weather parameters (wind speed and
563 direction at various heights above the ground and over the open oceans at higher and higher spatial
564 resolutions, improved ways of differentiating snow cover and bright reflecting surfaces from clouds, etc.)
565 will always be of value to the renewable energy community. New, more accurate methods of related
566 parameters such as aerosol optical depth would result in improvements in the resource data. All of these
567 steps will lead to improvements in the quality of outputs from renewable energy decision support tools such
568 as HOMER.

569

570 **4. Uncertainty**

571

572 Application of the HOMER DSS involves a variety of input data types, all of which can have a level of
573 uncertainty attached to them. HOMER addresses uncertainties by allowing the user to perform sensitivity
574 analyses for any particular input variable or combination of variables. HOMER repeats its optimization
575 process for each value of that variable and provides displays to allow the user to see how results are
576 affected. An input variable for which the user has specified multiple values is called a sensitivity variable,
577 and users can define as many of these variables as they wish. In HOMER, a “one-dimensional” sensitivity
578 analysis is done if there is a single sensitivity variable, such as the mean monthly wind speed. If there are
579 two or more sensitivity variables, the sensitivity analysis is “two” or “multi-dimensional.” HOMER has
580 powerful graphical capabilities to allow the user to examine the results of sensitivity analyses of two or

581 more dimensions. This is important for the decision maker, who must factor in the uncertainties of input
582 variables in order to make a final judgment on the outputs of the model.

583

584 The amount of uncertainty associated with resource data is largely dependent on how the data are obtained
585 and on the nature of the analysis being undertaken. For some types of analyses, very rough estimates of the
586 wind resource would be sufficient; for others, detailed hourly average data based on surface measurements
587 would be necessary. Quality *in-situ* measurements of wind and solar data in formats suitable for renewable
588 energy applications over a sufficient period of time (one year or more) can have uncertainties of less than
589 $\pm 3\%$ of the true value. However, when estimation methods are required, such as the use of Earth
590 observations and modeling and empirical techniques, uncertainties can be as much as $\pm 10\%$ or more.
591 These uncertainties are highest for shorter-term data sets, and are lower when annual average values are
592 being used, since throughout the year errors in the estimation methods have a tendency to compensate
593 among the individual values.

594

595 Based on wind turbine and solar technology operating characteristics, it is possible that the error in
596 estimating a renewable energy system performance over a year is roughly linear to the error in the input
597 resource data. For example, for wind energy systems, even though the power of the wind available to a
598 wind turbine is a function of the cube of the wind speed, it turns out that the turbine operating
599 characteristics, where turbines typically do not provide any power at all until a certain threshold speed is
600 reached, and then the power output increases linearly with wind speed until the winds are so high that the
601 turbine must shut down. This results in an annual turbine power output that is roughly linear to the mean
602 annual wind speed for certain mean wind speed ranges. This would mean that, in some cases, an
603 uncertainty in the annual wind or solar resource of $\pm 10\%$ results in an uncertainty of expected renewable
604 energy technology output of approximately $\pm 10\%$.

605

606

607 **5. Global change information and the HOMER DSS**

608

609 This section expands the discussion of the HOMER DSS to include the relationship of HOMER and its
610 input data requirements with global change information

611

612 5a. Reliance of HOMER DSS global change information

613

614 As shown in the previous section, a number of observations that provide information on global change are
615 also used in either direct or indirect ways as input to HOMER. These observations related primarily to the
616 renewable energy resource information that is required for HOMER applications. Renewable energy
617 system performance is highly dependent on the local energy resources available to the technologies. The
618 extent and characteristics of these resources is driven by weather and local climate conditions, which
619 happens to be the primary area in which Earth observational systems monitoring climate change are
620 addressing. Thus, as users seek access to observations to support renewable energy resource assessments,
621 they will invariably be seeking certain global change observational data.

622

623 Specifically, users will be seeking global change data related to atmospheric properties that support the
624 assessment of solar and wind energy resources, such as wind and solar data, and atmospheric parameters
625 important for estimating these data. For example, major data sets used in solar and wind energy
626 assessments include long-term reanalysis data, climatological surface weather observations, and a variety
627 of satellite observations from both active and passive onboard remote sensors.

628

629 Key factors in affecting the choice of these observational data are their relevance to conducting reliable
630 solar and wind energy resource assessment, their ease of access, and low or no cost to the user. The
631 extensive list of observational data being used in the assessment of renewable energy resources represents
632 strong leveraging of major, taxpayer-supported observational programs that are geared primarily for global
633 change assessment.

634

635 There is also an important consideration regarding the potential influence of long-term climate change on
636 the renewable energy resources that are used as input into HOMER. Through the Intergovernmental Panel

637 on Climate Change there has been a significant improvement in the reliability and spatial resolution of
638 General Circulation Models (GCM) used to estimate the impacts of greenhouse gas emissions on climate
639 change. As weather patterns change under changing climate conditions, wind and solar energy resources at
640 a specific location can also change over time. The GCM results indicate that these renewable energy
641 resources can be measurably different 50 to 100 years from now than today in specific locations and
642 regions. These changes may have a noticeable impact on the results of HOMER simulations in the future;
643 however, significant uncertainties exist in GCM results. Until these uncertainties are reduced sufficiently,
644 implementation of GCM results will produce unreliable HOMER simulations.

645

646 5b. How the HOMER DSS can support climate-related management decision-making among US
647 government agencies

648

649 Although HOMER was not intentionally designed to be a climate-related management decision-making
650 tool, the HOMER DSS has attributes that can support these decisions. For example, as we explore
651 mechanisms for mitigating the growth of carbon emissions in the atmosphere, the HOMER DSS can be
652 deployed to evaluate how renewable energy systems can be used cost-effectively to displace energy
653 systems dependent on fossil fuels. Clearly, the science results and global change data and information
654 products coming out of our reanalysis and satellite-borne programs are of critical importance to HOMER
655 for supporting this decision-making process. Given that the pertinent observational data sets have been
656 developed primarily by federal agencies, these data sets tend to be freely available or available at a
657 relatively small cost, given the costs involved in making the observations in the first place. However, as we
658 have noted in previous sections, the use of global change observations as input to the resource assessment
659 data required by HOMER is not the optimal choice of data; ideally, *in-situ* (site-specific) measurements of
660 wind and solar data relevant to the technologies being analyzed would be the most useful and accurate data
661 to have for HOMER, if they were available.