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Estimation of Weibull parameters for wind energy analysis across the UK

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7 Abstract

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8 Harvesting wind energy resources is a major part of UK strategy to diversify the power 9 supply portfolio and mitigate environment degradation. Based on wind speed data for the period 1981-2018, collected at 38 surface observation stations, this study presents 10 a comprehensive assessment of wind speed characteristics by means of statistical 11 12 analysis using the Weibull distribution function. The estimated Weibull parameters are 13 used to evaluate wind power density at both station and regional level, and important, 14 turbine-specific wind energy assessment parameters. It is shown that, the Weibull distribution function provides satisfactory modelling of the probability distribution of 15 16 daily mean wind speeds, with the correlation coefficient generally exceeding 0.9. Siteto-site variability in wind power density and other essential parameters is apparent. The 17 18 Weibull scale parameter lies in the range between 4.96 m/s to 12.06 m/s, and the shape parameter ranges from 1.63-2.97. The estimated wind power density ranges from 125 19 W/m² to 1407 W/m². Statistically significant long-term trends in annual mean wind 20 21 speed are identified for only 15 of the 38 stations and 3 of the 11 geographical regions. Seasonal variability of Weibull parameters and wind power density is confirmed and 22 23 discussed.

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Keywords: Wind speed, wind energy, statistical analysis, Weibull distribution,
Weibull parameters, United Kingdom

27 1 Introduction

Harvesting renewable energy resource represents one of a range of strategies to reduce
 carbon dioxide emission and decelerate environment degradation. Reportedly, the

30 accumulated installation of renewable energy was sufficient to provide an estimate of

31 27.3% of global electricity generation at the end of 2019 [1]. Notable among the



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32 increase in the use of renewable energy technologies is the rapid increase in the use of 33 wind energy, with worldwide installation of new wind power generation exceeding 60 34 GW in 2019, a 19% increase compared to 2018, leading to a total installation capacity 35 of approximately 650 GW [2]. In particular, the wind power resources in the UK are significant on a national scale [3][4], and wind power development in the UK has met 36 37 a rapid growth, with the cumulative total installation capacity increased from 5.2GW in 2010 to 23.9GW in 2019 [5][6]. Despite increasing interest in offshore wind power 38 39 generation, onshore wind power still plays a dominant role in the UK wind power 40 market, accounting for 57.7% of the total installation capacity and 12% of total 41 electricity demand in 2019 [6].

42 While the benefits of harnessing wind energy are evident, the implementation may 43 be subject to a number of practical difficulties and uncertainties, one of which is the 44 intermittent and unsteady nature of wind. The theoretical energy carrying by wind (P)45 is linked to the third power of wind speed, as shown in Eq.(1), where ρ is the air density, 46 A represents the area swept out by the rotor blades perpendicular to the prevailing 47 direction of the wind and v is the wind speed [7]. Hence, accurate understanding of 48 wind speed characteristics is imperative in different aspects of wind energy 49 development, ranging from identification of desirable sites to prediction of the 50 economic viability of wind farm to structural design of wind turbines.

$$P = \frac{1}{2}A\rho v^3 \tag{1}$$

51 However, precise prediction of wind is not an easy task since wind, like many other 52 meteorological parameters [8], often exhibits significant variability over a range of 53 scales, both spatially and temporally [9][10]. In the view of wind power development, 54 the variation of wind speed at a given location is generally characterized by a probability distribution [11] which indicates the likelihood that a given wind speed will 55 56 occur. Most commonly used for wind energy assessments is the two-parameter Weibull 57 distribution, which has been shown to accurately capture the skewness of the wind speed distribution, f(v), than other statistical functions [11] and has been used in a 58 number of studies (e.g. [12]-[20]). The Weibull distribution function, as given in 59 60 Eq.(2), generally contains a scale parameter, c, in units of wind speed, which determines 61 the abscissa scale of the wind speed distribution, and a dimensionless shape parameter, 62 *k*, which reflects the width of the distribution:



$$f(v) = \left(\frac{k}{c}\right) \left(\frac{v}{c}\right)^{k-1} exp\left[-\left(\frac{v}{c}\right)^k\right] \qquad (v > 0; k, c > 0)$$
(2)

63 In the UK, estimation of Weibull parameters for wind energy analysis has been carried out previously by Earl et al., [21] and Früh [22]. Based on 2-year surface wind 64 observation at 72 stations, Früh [22] concluded that the shape parameter ranges from 65 1.43 to 2.23, and the scale parameter at 10m height ranges from 4.76m/s to 8.71 m/s. 66 67 Given the assertion of Gross et al. [24] show that at least 7 years of wind speed data is required due to year-to-year variability (this variability has been estimated as about 4% 68 69 [25]) the 2-year period seems short, but a similar range of shape parameter is also 70 reported by Earl et al. [21] from a much longer (31-year) data set. Earl et al. also noted 71 that the Weibull shape parameter depends strongly on both the strength of mean wind 72 and the topographic effect of the site.

73 It is important to note that the wind characteristics in the UK depend heavily on the 74 climate of the northeast Atlantic region, which not only exhibits substantial decadal 75 variability in storminess, but also reveals considerable inter- and intra-annual 76 variability in extreme wind speeds [21]. As mentioned earlier, Watson et al. [25] found 77 an annual variability of 4%, and also showed a long-term slight decrease in wind speed 78 across the UK in all regions expect the southeast, which experienced a slight increase. 79 However, it is not clearly stated which of these trends is statistically significant, and the 80 variation over the whole network of stations examined was shown not to be. Earl et al. 81 [21] also reported pronounced local variability in UK hourly mean wind speeds within the period from 1980-2010, over which 15 of the 40 observation sites used displayed a 82 83 statistically significant decrease (95% confidence level) on inter-annual basis, whereas 84 8 indicated an increase, of which two were statistically significant. Hewston and 85 Dorling [26] focused on the long-term variability in daily maximum gust speed (DMGS) measured at 43 surface stations over a 26-yr period spanning from 1980-2005. It was 86 87 shown that the DMGS values generally exhibit a statistically significant decrease within 88 the considered period, declining 5% across the observation network, while the extreme 89 DMGS values (i.e., the 98th percentile of DMGS, which refers to the 190 days in the 90 1980-2005 record with the highest observed gust speeds) show a statistically significant 91 decrease of 8%.

92 In such context, the main goal of this study is to provide an updated assessment of 93 long-term and seasonal wind speed variation over the UK at local, regional and national 94 level, including changes in Weibull distributions and implications for wind power

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generation. Data from 1981 to 2018 from 38 surface observation stations across the UK
is analysed. The remaining contents in this paper are organized as follows: Section 2
details the data used and its processing. Section 3 introduces the determination of
various parameters involved in this study. Results from statistical analysis are
documented and discussed in Section 4, and the main conclusions and summary are
given in Section 5.

101 2 Application of the Weibull Distribution Function

102 Statistical analysis of wind speed and wind energy using the Weibull distribution requires the calculation of the scale and shape parameters. A number of different 103 104 methods have been proposed and evaluated with the aim of determining the best 105 practice (e.g. [19], [20], [27]-[33]) but with no clear consensus. To illustrate, Chang [28] compared six common numerical methods in estimating Weibull parameters for wind 106 107 energy applications, which showed that the maximum likelihood method is most 108 suitable in accordance to double checks of potential energy and cumulative distribution 109 function. Ahmed [30] and Mohammadi et al [20] reported that the traditional empirical method, i.e., the mean-standard deviation method, is sometimes more efficient 110 111 regarding the determination of parameters in Weibull distribution function. Moreover, 112 Mohammadi and Mostafaeipour [19] and Mohammadi et al [20] concluded that the 113 power density method tends to be more preferable for describing wind speed 114 distribution and predicting wind power potential due to its higher statistical accuracy. 115 In this study, four of the most common methods were applied to the data(the empirical method of Justus (EMJ) [34], is based on the mean and standard deviation of wind 116 117 speed (V and σ_v respectively; v is used herein for instantaneous wind speeds). The 118 Weibull scale and shape parameters are calculated using:

$$k = \left(\frac{\sigma_{\nu}}{V}\right)^{-1.086} \quad (1 \le k \le 10) \tag{3}$$

$$c = \frac{V}{\Gamma\left(1 + 1/k\right)} \tag{4}$$

119 where Γ is the gamma function.

120 Once the shape parameter, k, is estimated based on Eq. (3), an alternative, empirical

method was also proposed by Lysen [35] to determine the corresponding scale parameter, c, as follows:

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$$c = V \left(0.568 + \frac{0.433}{k} \right)^{-\frac{1}{k}}$$
(5)

123 The maximum likelihood method (MLM) is a mathematical likelihood function of 124 the wind speed data in time series format [20] in which the Weibull scale and shape

125 parameters are derived based on extensive numerical iterations [27][28][32]:

$$k = \left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} v_i^k \ln(v_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} v_i^k} - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \ln(v_i)}{n}\right]^{-1}$$
(6)

$$c = \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} v_i^k\right)^{1/k}$$
(7)

in which v_i is the wind speed data measured at the time interval *i*, and *n* is the number of non-zero data.

The power density method (PDM), originally proposed by Akdag and Dinler [36],calculates the shape parameter using:

$$E_{pf} = \frac{\overline{v^3}}{\overline{V^3}} \tag{8}$$

$$k = 1 + \frac{3.69}{(E_{pf})^2} \tag{9}$$

where $\overline{v^3}$ is the mean of the cubed wind speed. The scale parameter in PDM is estimated in a the same manner as in the EMJ, as shown in (4).

Once these Weibull parameters are determined, they can be applied to estimate a number of parameters that are important to wind power assessment. Each model of wind turbine has several characteristic wind speeds: the cut-in wind speed, v_c , the cutoff wind speed, v_f , and the rated wind speed, v_r . Below v_c or above v_f the turbine will not operate, while energy production is maximal at v_r . The probability that a turbine will be in operation can therefore be calculated based on the cumulative Weibull distribution function [37]:

$$P(v_c < v < v_f) = exp\left[-\left(\frac{v_c}{c}\right)^k\right] - exp\left[-\left(\frac{v_f}{c}\right)^k\right]$$
(10)

Moreover, as discussed by Sasi and Basu [38], the estimated Weibull parameters canas well be utilized to compute the capacity factor (*CF*) of a wind turbine:



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$$CF = \frac{\exp\left[-\binom{v_c}{c}^k\right] - \exp\left[-\binom{v_r}{c}^k\right]}{\binom{v_r}{c}^k - \binom{v_c}{c}^k} - \exp\left[-\binom{v_f}{c}^k\right]$$
(11)

141 This represents the ratio of predicted actual energy output to the maximum possible 142 (i.e. if the wind speed is constantly at v_r) over a year of operation. The Weibull 143 distribution also allows quantification of two useful characteristic wind speeds. The first is the most probable wind speed (v_{mp}) and second the wind speed carrying 144 145 maximum energy $(v_{max,E})$. The latter is closely tied to the rated wind speed of the turbine being assessed, v_r , with the turbine operating most efficiently if $v_r \cong v_{max.E}$. 146 147 These speeds are given by [28][39]:

$$v_{mp} = c \left(1 - \frac{1}{k}\right)^{1/k} \tag{12}$$

$$v_{max.E} = c \left(1 + \frac{2}{k}\right)^{1/k} \tag{13}$$

148 For engineers and specialists involved in wind energy industry, the wind power 149 density (WPD) is an important parameter that reflects how energetic the winds are at the location of interest. In the light of several previous studies [12][13][28], the WPD 150 151 can be determined using the Weibull parameters:

$$WPD = \frac{P}{A} = \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} \rho v^{3} f(v) dv = \frac{1}{2} \rho c^{3} \Gamma \left(1 + \frac{3}{k} \right)$$
(14)

152 where ρ is the density of ambient air (often adopted as 1.225 kg/m³).

153 3 Data collection and processing

3.1 154 Data collection and quality control

155 Hourly mean wind speed and wind direction data have been extracted from the Met Office Integrated Data Archive System (MIDAS), via the British Atmospheric Data 156 157 Centre (BADC). Explicitly, "hourly mean" is herein used to signify the mean of data 158 recorded over an entire hour, rather than a once-an-hour recording of a 10-minute mean speed as used in some contexts. Data covering the period 1981-2018 is used, taken from 159 160 38 observation stations spread across the country (see Figure 1 and Table 1) were used. 161 All of the observation sites meet the UK Met Office (UKMO) site exposure requirements, which are reasonably representative of an open exposure condition. Wind 162 a1

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164 ground, with wind direction measured by a traditional wind vane at the same height 165 [41]. All the records archived in MIDAS have an attribute version number which may 166 take a value of 0 and 1 only. Essentially, a record with a version number of 1 represents 167 the best available value of the data at the time in the sense that they have been properly corrected in accordance to a rigorous quality control [41]. On this account, a non-zero 168 169 criterion, similar to that performed by Watson et al [25], is applied during the data extraction process in this study, which aims to minimize the risk of irregular or 170 171 erroneous values in the dataset.

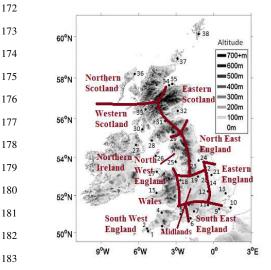


Figure 1 Surface observation network involved in this study, modified based on Earl et al., [21]. Marked regions are in accordance with the Met. Office classification for UK regional climate [40].

Previous statistical analyses of wind energy have been carried out using wind data at various temporal resolution: 10-min, hourly and daily. In the current study, the recorded hourly wind speeds are averaged over each day to provide the corresponding daily mean values. It has been shown that, when performing long-term estimate of the full-load duration and the electricity generation, the results based on daily and hourly wind data are overall equivalent, with the correlation coefficient of the regression fit exceeding 0.95 [42] The use of daily observation of mean wind speed for wind energy



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195 analysis can also be found in several previous studies [16][43]-[45]. A further discussion on the use of daily wind data will be given hereinafter in Section 4. 196

197 In addition, UK is one of the countries that most frequently affected by the 198 extratropical cyclones, which are associated predominantly with areas of low 199 atmospheric pressure over the North Atlantic. These cyclonic windstorms are the major 200 contributor in terms of the high wind speed records in long-term time series, and 201 sometimes may generate extreme wind speeds that result in wind turbines being shut 202 down [4]. Differentiation of different types of windstorm is often considered crucial 203 for extreme wind speed analysis [46]-[49]. However, given the nature of the present 204 study and the relatively lower likelihood of the occurrence of the extreme wind speeds 205 [4], no additional attempt has been made to separate out different windstorms. In order 206 to distinguish between local effects (e.g. changes in local surface roughness) and larger scale changes in the wind climate, the 38 stations have been divided into regions (see 207 208 Figure 1 and Table 1).

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		Earl	et al.,[21]].		
Region	Station Number	Station Name	Altitude (m)	Gradient of Linear Fit (ms ⁻¹ / year)	Fit p- Value	Significant at 95% level?
Northern	36	Stornaway Airport	15	0.026	0.001	Y
	37	Kirkwall	26	-0.015	0.008	Y
Scotland	38	Lerwick	82	0.008	0.352	Ν
		Regi	0.006	0.297	N	
	31	Salsburgh	277	-0.033	0.000	Y
	32	Leuchars	10	-0.004	0.860	Ν
Eastern Scotland	34	Kinloss	5	-0.001	0.960	Ν
	35	Lossiemouth	6	0.006	0.521	Ν
		Regional Me		-0.008	0.081	Ν
	28	West Freugh	11	-0.001	0.521	Ν
Western Scotland	29	Eskdalemuir	242	-0.006	0.339	Ν
	30	Machrihanish	10	-0.001	0.841	Ν
	33	Dunstaffnage	3	-0.020	0.000	Y
		Regi	ional Mean	-0.007	0.179	Ν
Northern	27	Aldergrove	68	-0.021	0.000	Y
Ireland		Regi	ional Mean	-0.021	0.000	Y
North-	25	Blackpool Squires Gate	10	0.001	0.870	Ν
West England	26	Ronaldsway	16	-0.007	0.320	Ν
Lingiand		Regi	ional Mean	-0.003	0.734	Ν
North-	23	Bingley	262	-0.034	0.000	Y
East	24	Church Fenton	8	0.028	0.000	Y
England		Regi	ional Mean	-0.003	0.538	Ν
	12	Bedford	85	-0.009	0.020	Y
	14	Wittering	73	0.005	0.128	Ν
Midlands	18	Shawbury	72	0.008	0.068	Ν
Midlands -	19	Nottingham Watnall	117	-0.015	0.000	Y
		Regi	ional Mean	-0.003	0.489	Ν
	13	Wattisham	89	-0.010	0.007	Y
F .	20	Cranwell	62	0.009	0.061	Ν
Eastern England	21	Coningsby	6	0.001	0.880	Ν
Lingiana	22	Waddington	68	0.004	0.513	Ν
		Regi	ional Mean	0.001	0.772	Ν
	6	Hurn	10	0.002	0.589	N

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	7	Middle Wallop	90	-0.006	0.043	Y
South-	8	Lyneham	145	-0.006	0.242	Ν
	9	East Malling	33	0.038	0.010	Y
East England	10	Manston	44	0.008	0.308	Ν
Linghand	11	Heathrow	25	0.034	0.000	Y
		Regi	0.012	0.002	Y	
-	1	Culdrose	78	-0.006	0.782	N
	2	Camborne	87	-0.024	0.000	Y
South- West	3	Plymouth Mountbatten	50	-0.007	0.213	N
England	4	Chivenor	6	-0.002	0.660	Ν
	5	Yeovilton	20	-0.003	0.489	Ν
=		Reg	-0.008	0.078	Ν	
	15	Aberporth	115	-0.008	0.159	Ν
Wales	16	Bala	163	-0.032	0.000	Y
vv ales	17	Valley	10	0.006	0.258	N
		Reg	-0.011	0.037	Y	

212 To further highlight the necessity of this study, long-term variability of mean annual 213 wind speed across different UK regions is examined based on extended wind speed data 214 from 1981 to 2018, as shown in Figure 2. Region-to region variability is apparent. To 215 illustrate, the annual mean wind speed recorded at Midlands, North West England and 216 Eastern England remains relatively unchanged; the values at South East England 217 exhibits a pronounced upward trend, whereas those at Northern Ireland, Western 218 Scotland and Wales tend to reveal an opposite trend in which the annual mean wind 219 speed is shown to decrease. Earl et al [21] and Hewston and Dorling [26] both reported 220 that there is no distinguishable geographic pattern to the distribution of stations 221 exhibiting statistically decrease (or increase) changes. The difference in the long-term 222 variability of wind speed at different stations could provide important implication for 223 the strategical optimization of the integration of wind power into UK electricity 224 network, e.g. with increasing integration of wind power at regions where wind speed 225 shows a long-term increase.

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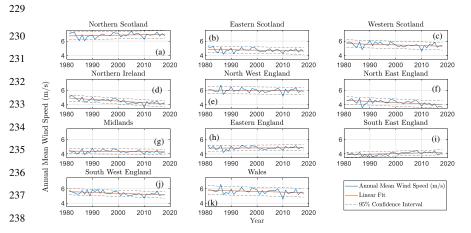


Figure 2 The variation of annual mean wind speed between 1981-2018 across different
 UK regions. The p-value and slope for linear regression fit are also demonstrated.

241 3.2 Extrapolation of wind speed data

242 It is recognised that the wind within the atmospheric boundary layer is mainly 243 modulated by the underlying surface roughness and the atmospheric stability, and the 244 consequent vertical profile of wind speed typically follows a monotonic-type increase 245 with height. For accurate estimation of wind energy, it is therefore necessary to correct the wind speed to compensate for the height of modern wind turbines. Note that a 246 247 variety of wind speed profile models have been established to describe the height-248 dependence of wind speed [14], among which the simple power-law model is more 249 often used as a handy tool to conduct vertical wind speed extrapolation in wind energy 250 community [50]:

$$v = v_R * \left(\frac{z}{z_R}\right)^{\alpha} \tag{15}$$

where v is the daily wind speed estimated at the prospective hub height of a wind turbine, z (i.e. rotor's height above ground level), v_R is the reference wind speed measured at the reference height z_R (e.g. 10m above the ground), and α is the power law coefficient. It is to be noted that the power law coefficient does not remain constant for all locations and may vary as a function of numerous factors, such as the nature of terrain, wind speed and atmospheric stratification condition [51]-[56]. For instance, Touma [56] found that the power law coefficient typically increases in magnitude when

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258 the atmosphere becomes more stable, and decreases when atmospheric unstability 259 strengthens. Gualtieri [55] and Rehman and Al-Abbadi [52] showed that the power law 260 coefficient is subjected to distinct diurnal and seasonal variability. By contrast, Rehman 261 and Al-Abbadi [53] addressed that no regular seasonal trend exists in the power law coefficient, whereas the diurnal variation is apparent, with larger values observed 262 263 during night-time and early morning and lower values midday. It should be noted that this study examined wind field characteristics in Saudi Arabia, where themal effects are 264 265 likely to be extreme. The common value of power law coefficient lies in the range of 266 0.1-0.4, with the most frequent adopted value of 0.143(1/7) for wind power analysis 267 [51]. Accordingly, in this study the MIDAS wind data measured at the standard level 268 of 10m above the ground are converted to a wind turbine hub height of 100 m using the 269 1/7th power law when applied directly to wind turbine function. All the graphic 270 representations of analysis results given in this study were produced using MATLAB, 271 unless otherwise specified.

272 4 Results and Discussion

273 4.1 Current UK Wind Climate

274 The prevailing wind direction over the wind direction is broadly south-west (see Figure 275 1), due to the location of the UK at a latitude where the wind climate is dominated by 276 the eastward passage of large weather systems [57]. The mean wind direction ranges 277 from 181° to 212° over the network. The large-scale topographical effects noted by, for 278 example, Lapworth and McGregor [58] are evident with the highland over Wales, 279 Northern England and Scotland having a distinct effect on the mean direction. 280 Topographic effects at a relative localised scale are also important - for example, 281 Station 29 is located in a northeast-to-southwest orientated valley, which results in a wind rose plot with a clearly defined prevailing wind direction while in south and 282 central England (e.g. Station 7,10,12) there is a much wider spread. 283



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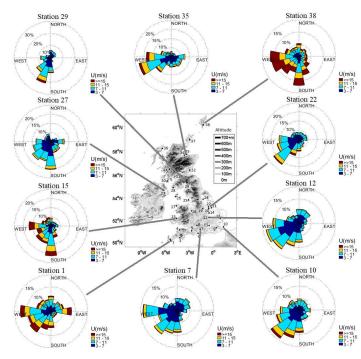
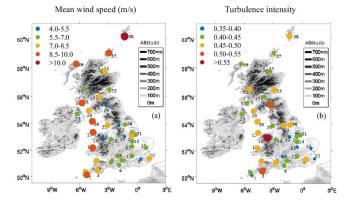
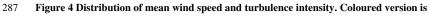




Figure 3 Wind rose plots at selected locations.





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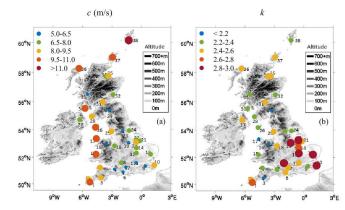
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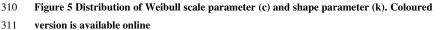
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290 Site-to-site variability of mean wind speed (Figure 4a) and turbulence intensity 291 (Figure 4b) is also apparent due to the effect of geographic diversity. Clearly, the 292 western coastal regions and Orkney and Shetland islands are generally the windiest 293 regions, whereas the wind speeds associated with inland and eastern regions are much smaller in magnitude. The estimated hub height wind speed ranges between 4.44 m/s 294 295 at Bala (Station 16) to 10.69 m/s at Lerwick (Station 38). Note that extreme low wind speeds (i.e, < 5.5m/s) are found mostly at the observation sites (e.g. Station 16, 19, 23 296 297 and 29) where the topographic-induced sheltering is likely. In general, the wind speed 298 map generated in this study demonstrates a good agreement with those reported in 299 previous studies [21][26][59], in which it has been well documented that the spatial 300 variability of wind speed in the UK is mainly modulated by two factors, i.e, the 301 exposure to fetch over the Atlantic Ocean and Irish Sea and the relative location to the 302 storm track. Typically, the higher and farther north an observation site is, the stronger 303 the wind due to reduced friction and closer proximity to the higher storm track density 304 region to the south and east of Iceland [59]. As for the distribution of turbulence 305 intensity (see Figure 4b), the largest value occurs at Bala, which may be attributed to 306 the surround mountainous terrain both shielding the site causing extreme roughness 307 levels; conversely, central and eastern England, where the terrain is relatively open and 308 flat, produce lower turbulence intensities.





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313 The considerable site-to-site variability in mean wind speed and turbulence intensity 314 leads to variation in the corresponding Weibull parameters (Figure 5). From a practical 315 point of view, the value of scale parameter reflects how windy an observation site is, 316 and the shape parameter indicates how peaked the distribution of wind speed is. As can 317 be seen from Figure 5a, the distribution of scale parameter is more or less consistent 318 with that of mean wind speed, where the observation sites located in the western coasts 319 and Scotland possess larger values. In contrast, the scale parameters obtained at 320 southern part of England are generally the smallest. The spread of scale parameter in 321 this study lies in the range from 4.96 m/s at Station 16 to 12.06 m/s at Station 38. The 322 shape parameter, on the other hand, is also subject to distinct spatial variation (Figure 323 5b), with larger shape parameters occurring in the southeast and central England where 324 the turbulence intensity is lower, indicating a smaller temporal variation in wind speed 325 which is reflected in the narrower spike in the probability density function.. Overall, 326 the spatial distribution of shape parameter is in line with that summarized by Earl et al 327 [21]. Numerically, the shape parameter derived in this study ranges from 1.63 to 2.97, 328 which appears to be larger than those given in previous studies [21] [22], but this may 329 be due to the vertical extrapolation of wind speed to a larger hub height.



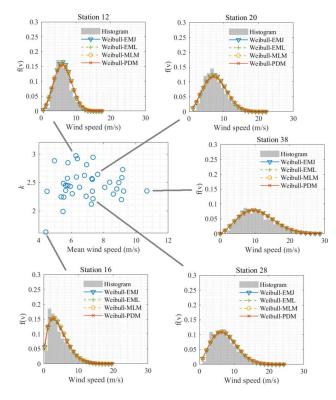
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331 Figure 6 Comparison of wind data histogram with different Weibull distribution fits

Earl et al. [21] found that the Weibull shape parameter, calculated using hourly mean wind speed data, showed a slight positive correlation (not statistically significant) with mean wind speed. Such a correlation is not evident in the current study (Figure 6), nor is any significant difference between the Weibull estimation methods. To examine the goodness of Weibull distribution fit to the histogram of measured wind speed, the coefficient of correlation (R^2) is obtained:

$$R^{2} = 1 - \left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(f_{m}(v_{i}) - f_{p}(v_{i}) \right)^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(f_{m}(v_{i}) - \overline{f_{m}} \right)^{2}} \right]$$
(16)

where f_m is the probability determined from the wind speed histogram for wind speed v_i, f_p is the probability predicted by the Weibull distribution function for v_i , and *i* indexes the *n* wind speed intervals used to construct the histogram. The correlation accepted manuscript. However, the online version of record will be different from this version once it has been copyedited and typeset This is the author's peer reviewed,

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correlation coefficient compared to the other methods, implying that the PDM is more preferable in terms of approximating the distribution of wind speeds in this study. For the remainder of this paper only PDM is presented, and may be considered representative of all. Wind power density (W/m²) < 180180-360 360-540 60°N -700-540-720 500r 58°N 400n 300n 200n 100n 56°N 54°N 52°N 50°N

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Figure 7 Distribution of wind power density across the observation network. Coloured
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coefficient across the observation network varies between 0.90 and 0.96, with 9 of the 38 sites having a value exceeding 0.95 and 36 above 0.90. Further, the goodness of fit

was found to be an inverse function of shape parameter (not shown), i.e. the larger the shape parameter, the lower R^2 value. Furthermore, it is noteworthy that the Weibull

distribution fit based on the power density method (PDM) generally possess the largest

355 Once the scale and shape parameters are determined, the wind power density at different sites across the network can be evaluated. It should be noted that this 356 calculation does not take into account the operating limits of the particular turbine 357 installed, and therefore represents the potential available wind energy rather than what 358 a turbine can extract. The network average of wind power density is about 458 W/m², 359 with the largest value (1407 W/m²) obtained at Lerwick (Station 38) and the lowest 360 value (125 W/m²) obtained at Nottingham Watnall (Station 19). In terms of the regions 361 362 defined in Figure 1, variation is seen in the mean wind power density over each region, Northern Scotland has the highest mean value at 1010 W/m², followed by North West 363 England (677 W/m²), Wales (590 W/m²) and Western Scotland (544 W/m²). North East 364

England and South East England have the lowest regional wind power densities, with
 mean values of 198 W/m² and 221 W/m² respectively.

367 Likewise, Figure 8a and Figure 8b demonstrate respectively the distribution of the 368 most probable wind speed (V_{mp}) and the wind speed carrying maximum energy 369 $(V_{max.E})$ based on the corresponding Weibull parameters. The estimated V_{mp} lies in 370 the range between 2.75 m/s and 9.52 m/s, with a network average of 6.30 m/s. As shown 371 in Figure 8a, larger V_{mp} are associated predominantly with sites in the western coast of 372 England, Wales and Scotland, as well as in the southeast part of England. The 373 distribution of $V_{max.E}$ is follows a similar northwest-to-southeast pattern, the 374 magnitude of which ranges from 6.63 m/s to 15.67 m/s.

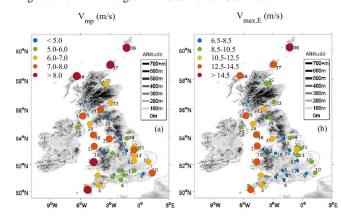


Figure 8 Distribution of V_{mp} and $V_{max,E}$ across the observation network. Coloured version is available online

378 4.2 Current UK Wind Climate – Case Study

379 In order to demonstrate the real-world impact of these wind characteristics, the Weibull 380 parameters are applied to determine the capacity factor and operation probability of two 381 commercial wind turbines, namely the Siemens SWT-2.3-93 and Vestas V80-2.0 382 (specifications are shown in Table 2). The selected wind turbines have similar hub 383 heights and cut-off wind speeds, but the Siemens has lower cut-in and rated wind 384 speeds. The distribution pattern of the estimated capacity factor is similar for both 385 turbines (Figure 9 and Figure 10), in and generally matches the WPD distribution (Figure 7). The operation probability is generally largest in the coastal western and 386 387 northern regions and the south-east coast of England, though the latter is an area of low

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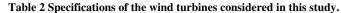
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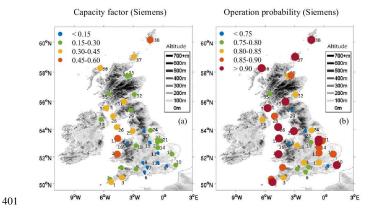
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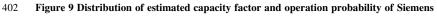
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388 capacity factory. including South East and South West England, Wales and Scotland. 389 Notwithstanding the similarities in the spatial pattern, considerable difference can still 390 be found in the magnitude of capacity factor and operation probability depending on 391 different wind turbines. For example, the spread of capacity factor associated with Siemens SWT-2.3-93 ranges from 7% to 56% with a network average value of 25.7%, 392 393 whereas the values associated with Vestas V80-2.0 lies between 4% to 46% with a network average of 18.3%. Likewise, the operation probability for Siemens SWT-2.3-394 395 93 varies between 57% and 95%, and those for Vestas V80-2.0 ranges from 49% to 396 93%. This clearly shows that at a given location, wind turbines with different design 397 properties may result in different performance for the same wind characteristics. 398



Manufacturer Model	Siemens SWT-2.3-93[60]	Vestas V80-2.0 [61]
Hub height (m)	101	100
Cut-in wind speed (m/s)	3.5	4
Rated wind speed (m/s)	13	15
Cut-off wind speed (m/s)	25	25





403 SWT-2.3-93 wind turbine. Coloured version is available online

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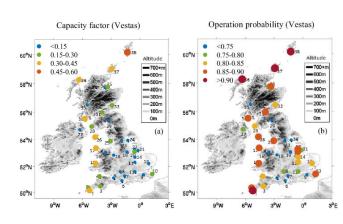


Figure 10 Distribution of estimated capacity factor and operation probability of Vestas
V80-2.0 wind turbine. Coloured version is available online

408 4.3 Long-term Trends

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As stated in Section 1, previous studies (e.g. [21] [25]) have indicated variation in both 409 regional and individual station wind speeds between 1980 and 2010. Extending this to 410 411 2018, 15 of the 38 stations show statistically significant (at the 95% level), determined 412 using the Mann-Kendall test implemented in [62] changes over the period. However, the variation is only significant in 3 of the 11 regions: Northern Ireland, South-East 413 414 England and Wales. Northern Ireland only contains a single station and therefore local variations in ground roughness (vegetation growth, construction) cannot be discounted. 415 In South-East England, where Watson et al. [25] saw a small increase, three of the six 416 417 stations in South-East England have significant variations. Two of these are positive, 418 with the negative change being approximately a factor of 6 smaller, giving a regional change of 0.012 $ms^{-1}/year$, though this equates to an increase in mean wind speed 419 420 of only approximately $0.5ms^{-1}$. In Wales, only the change at Bala is statistically 421 significant, with the remaining two stations not (Figure 11).

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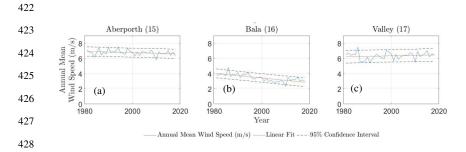




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429 Figure 11 Annual mean wind speeds at the Wales regional stations

430 Following the assertion of Gross et al. [24] that 7 years' data is required for an

431 accurate assessment of site wind characteristics, the Weibull shape and scale parameters

432 have been calculated for each year from 1987-2018 using the seven year' data up to and

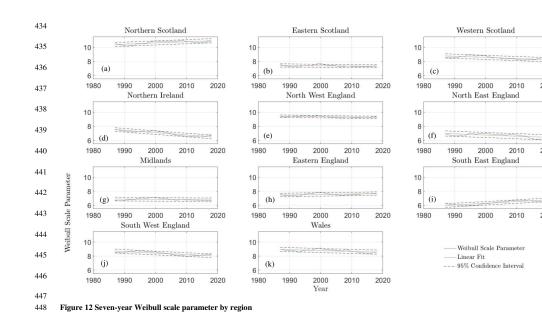
433 including the year in question (Figure 12 and Figure 13).



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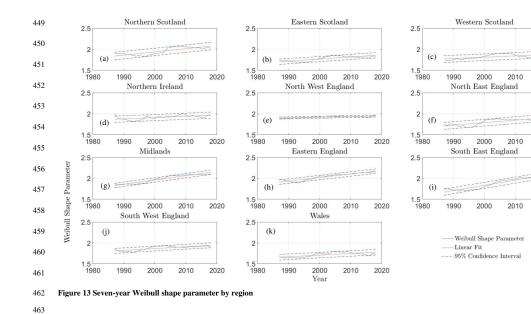
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Table 3 Trends in the seven-year Wei	ibull parameters
--------------------------------------	------------------

	Scale Parameter (ms ⁻¹)			Shap	e Parame	ter	Wind Power Density					
Region	Gradient of Linear Fit (ms ⁻¹ /year)	Fit p- Value	Significant at 95% level?	Gradient of Linear Fit (ms ⁻¹ /year)	Fit p- Value	Significan t at 95% level?	Gradient of Linear Fit (ms ⁻¹ /year)	Fit p- Valu e	Significant at 95% level?	Mean WPD (Wm ⁻²)	Annu Char 1 (%	
Northern	0.017	0.001	v	0.000	0.000	V	0.012	0.702	N	1002	0.1	
Scotland Eastern Scotland	-0.004	0.001	Y	0.008	0.000	Y	-1.976	0.783	N Y	1003 376	-0.1	
Western Scotland	-0.016	0.000	Y	0.003	0.000	Y	-4.510	0.000	Y	565	-0.	
Northern Ireland	-0.034	0.000	Y	0.003	0.001	Y	-4.774	0.000	Y	298	-1.	
North West England	-0.006	0.008	Y	0.002	0.000	Y	-1.861	0.001	Y	693	-0.	
North East England	-0.017	0.001	Y	0.006	0.002	Y	-3.223	0.000	Y	281	-1.	
Midlands	-0.004	0.062	N	0.010	0.000	Y	-1.896	0.000	Y	262	-0.2	
Eastern												
England	0.006	0.017	Y	0.008	0.000	Y	-0.651	0.277	Ν	345	-0.	
South East												
England	0.025	0.000	Y	0.013	0.000	Y	0.795	0.001	Y	226	0.4	

1 Ratio of mean annual change (gradient) to mean WPD



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	South West											
	England	-0.022	0.000	Y	0.004	0.000	Y	-5.485	0.000	Y	518	-1.10
	Wales	-0.013	0.001	Y	0.004	0.002	Y	-4.701	0.000	Y	658	-0.70
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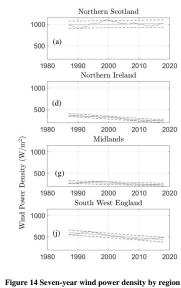
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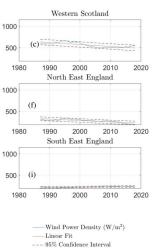


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) (e)				
980	1990 Eas	2000 tern Engl	2010 and	2020
)) (h)	300000			
980	1990	2000 Wales	2010	2020
) (k)				ies.
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The link between the scale parameter and the mean wind speed is clear from comparison of the gradients (Table 3 and Table 1), with the sign of the gradient of each being the same for each region. At the 95% level, more of the regions have a significant change in the scale parameter than in the mean wind speed. This is due to the dependence of the estimation of the Weibull parameters on both the scale parameter and the shape parameter – the latter is seen to follow a significant, increasing trend for all regions (Table 3 and Figure 13).

491 The implications of these changes for wind power production can be seen from the 492 WPD and the variation of its seven-year value with time (Table 3 and Figure 14). In 493 Northern Scotland, where WPD is the greatest (~ 1 W/m²), there is no significant trend. 494 All other regions apart from Eastern England and South-East England have statistically 495 significant decreases - the trend in Eastern England is insignificant, and South-East 496 England has a mean rise of 0.4% per year though from a low mean value of 226 W/m². In the case of South-West England and Wales, which have relatively high WPD and 497 therefore show good potential for wind energy investment, these decreases (1.2% and 498 499 0.7% respectively) are arguably important in the long term.

500 4.4 Long-term Trends – Case Study

501 Examination of the long-term trends for the seven-year capacity factor and operational 502 probability of the example turbines (Siemens SWT-2.3-93 and Vestas V80-2.0 reveals 503 the same regional trends for each turbine, as would be expected. Capacity factor is 504 decreasing for all regions with statistically significant trends for both turbines, with the 505 exception of Northern Scotland where an increase of 0.1% per year is seen. This 506 amounts to 1% per decade. Northern Ireland, North-East England and South-East 507 England have seen mean decadal decreases of 3%, 2% and 2% respectively. Operational probability is increasing in all regions with statistically significant trends 508 apart from Northern Ireland. As discussed previously Northern Ireland is represented 509 510 by a single station and it seems likely that local effects are having an influence on this 511 station. The other stations have an annual increase of 0.1%, with the exception of South-512 East England where the increase is 0.3% (Siemens) and 0.4% (Vestas). The relatively 513 large increase seen in this region is likely due to the low wind speeds in the area, with 514 the trend for increasing wind speed (Table 1) having a larger impact in bringing the 515 wind speed above the cut-in speed than in other regions.



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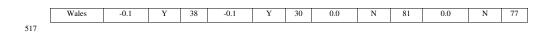
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			Capacit	y Factor				Op	erational	Probability			
	Si	emens		V	estas		s	iemens		v	Vestas		
Region	Gradient of Linear Fit (%/year)	Signif. at 95% level?	Mea n (%)	Gradient of Linear Fit (%/year)	Signif. at 95% level?	Mea n (%)	Gradient of Linear Fit (%/year)	Signif. at 95% level?	Mean (%)	Gradient of Linear Fit (%/year)	Signif. at 95% level?	Mea n (%)	
Northern													
Scotland	0.1	Y	48	0.1	Y	40	0.1	Y	89	0.1	Y	86	
Eastern Scotland	-0.1	Y	28	-0.1	Y	21	0.1	Ν	77	0.1	Ν	71	
Western													
Scotland	-0.1	Y	36	-0.1	Y	28	0.0	N	82	0.0	N	78	
Northern Ireland	-0.3	Y	24	-0.2	Y	18	-0.1	Y	77	-0.2	Y	71	
North West England	0.0	Y	41	0.0	Y	32	0.0	N	86	0.0	N	82	
North East													
England	-0.2	Y	23	-0.2	Y	17	0.0	Ν	73	0.0	Ν	67	
Midlands	-0.1	Y	22	-0.1	Y	16	0.1	Y	77	0.1	Y	71	
Eastern													
England	0.0	Ν	27	-0.1	Y	20	0.1	Y	81	0.1	Y	76	
South East													
England	0.0	Y	20	0.0	Ν	14	0.3	Y	72	0.4	Y	65	
South West													
England	-0.2	Y	35	-0.2	Y	27	0.0	Ν	82	0.0	Ν	78	



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518 4.5 Seasonal Variation

519 In addition to the spatial distribution of mean wind characteristics, the seasonal wind 520 characteristics are also of essential importance in the interest of predicting the variation 521 of wind power generation within an annual cycle, which may have implications to 522 strategize the operation and management of the electricity network. Sinden [4][63] 523 addressed that the electricity demand in the UK is subjected to pronounced seasonal 524 variation, in which winter is often the season requiring most electricity power output 525 due to heating and lighting purposes, whereas electricity demand is at its lowest in 526 summer. In 2019, approximately 79.70 TWh of electricity is consumed in spring, 69.35 527 TWh in summer, 67.51 TWh in autumn and 78.71 TWh in winter [64]. In parallel, 528 seasonal variability of wind speed across the UK is also obvious, which is mainly driven 529 by the depressions in the mid-latitudes of the northern hemisphere. The depressions are likely to be more vigorous in winter than that in summer and, consequently, the 530 531 storminess in winter tends to be more severe [65][66].Correspondingly, as can be seen 532 in Figure 15, the seasonal variation of Weibull distribution fit is clearly distinguishable, 533 where the wind speed distribution during the summer months of June, July and August 534 tends to be more peaked with smaller scale parameter (i.e, abscissa of the distribution 535 peak), whereas those during the winter months of December, January and February 536 appears to be much wider with lower peaks. Figure 16 reveals that the wind power 537 density during winter is typically higher than those during summer. Quantitatively, the majority of the observation sites (36 out of 38) possess twice as much wind power 538 density during winter than that during summer, and 14 out of the 38 stations possess 539 triple the wind power density during winter than that during summer. The network 540 average wind power density is estimated to be 392 W/m^2 in spring, 210 W/m^2 in 541 542 summer 347 W/m² in autumn and 639 W/m² in winter. At regional scale, the degree of seasonal variability also appears to be somewhat different. The most significant 543 seasonal variability in wind power density is observed at Wales, with a coefficient of 544 variation of 55%, followed successively by Northern Scotland (53%), Western Scotland 545 546 (51%), and North West England (51%). In contrast, the seasonal variability is at its 547 lowest in South East England with a coefficient of variation of 35%. Based on the 548 results and existing statistics, the seasonal contribution of wind power to electricity 549 demand can be estimated to be respectively 12% in spring, 7% in summer, 10% in 550 autumn and 18% in winter. The results here further support the conclusion by Sinden

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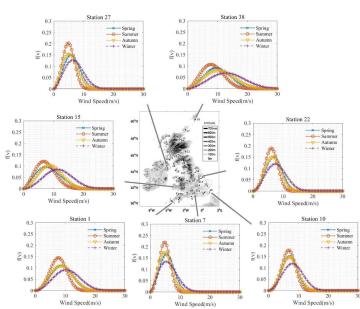
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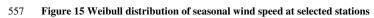
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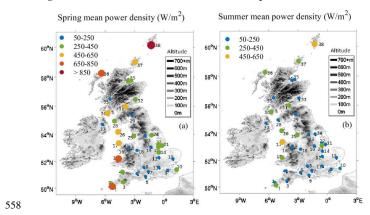
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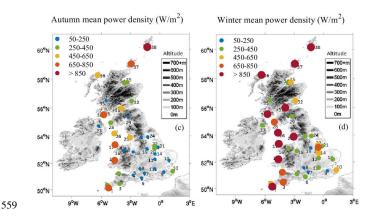
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551 [4] that there exists a positive relationship between the wind power output and the 552 electricity demand in the UK, i.e., the availability of wind power during times of peak 553 electricity demand is higher than that at times of low electricity demand. Overall, the 554 broad similarities in the seasonal pattern of wind power and electricity demand is 555 encouraging.









560 Figure 16 Distribution of seasonal mean power density. Coloured version is available 561 online

562 5 Conclusions and Summary

563 Given its abundant availability and environment-friendly nature, wind energy has been 564 developing at an remarkable pace over the past few decades, and is anticipated to grow rapidly in the interest of diversifying the power supply portfolio and mitigating climate 565 change and environment degradation. To inform this development, this study presents 566 567 a updated overview of wind speed and wind energy characteristics across the UK based 568 on statistical analysis of long-term (1981-2018) surface wind observations at 38 569 stations, extending previous studies and bringing our understanding of trends up to date. 570 This analysis has been conducted at both station and regional level, based on the regions 571 defined by the UK Meteorological Office. The important conclusions drawn from this 572 work are:

Statistically significant, long-term changes in annual mean wind speed are seen
at 15 of the 38 stations. However, there is no region which shows a consistent increasing
or decreasing trend across all its stations, with the exception of Northern Ireland which
includes a single station.

577 2) The lack of consistent trends over all stations in a region implies the importance578 of local topographical effects.

579 3) South-East England has a statistically significant increase in annual mean wind 580 speed, but this amounts to less than $0.5ms^{-1}$ over the entire period.

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603 Data Centre (BADC) and UK Met Office (UKMO). Restrictions may apply to the 604 availability of these data, which were used under license for this study. 605 Acknowledgements The authors would like to thank the British Atmospheric Data Centre (BADC) and UK 606 607 Met Office (UKMO) for providing access to the MIDAS data. A special thanks is also 608 due to Professor Mark Sterling at University of Birmingham for reviewing and

commenting on the original draft of this paper. We also would like to thank the 609

4) The probability distributions are modelled well using a Weibull distribution.

The scale parameter follows trends which are similar to those of the annual mean wind

speed, though with a greater proportion of statistical significance; the trends in the

5) Application of the Weibull parameters to determine capacity factor and

operational probability for two representative wind turbines (Siemens SWT-2.3-93 and Vestas V80-2.0) shows a small (typically ~1% per decade) decrease in capacity factor

for all regions with a significant trend. Conversely, the operational probability is

generally increasing but again by the same small magnitude with the exception of the

South-East where an increase of about 4% per decade is seen, with the caveat that this

6) In addition to the considerable variability in space, the estimated wind power

density across the network is also subject to clear seasonality, with wind power density

Zhenru Shu : Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Writing - original draft,

The data that support the findings of this study are available from British Atmospheric

Methodology; Mike Jesson: Formal analysis, Writing - review & editing

during winter months at least twice that during summer months.

CRediT Authorship Contribution Statement

The authors declare no competing interest.

shape parameter are significant for all regions.

region has low wind power density.

Competing Interests

Data Availability Statement

610 anonymous reviewers for their constructive comments. This research did not receive





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- 611 any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit
- 612 sectors.
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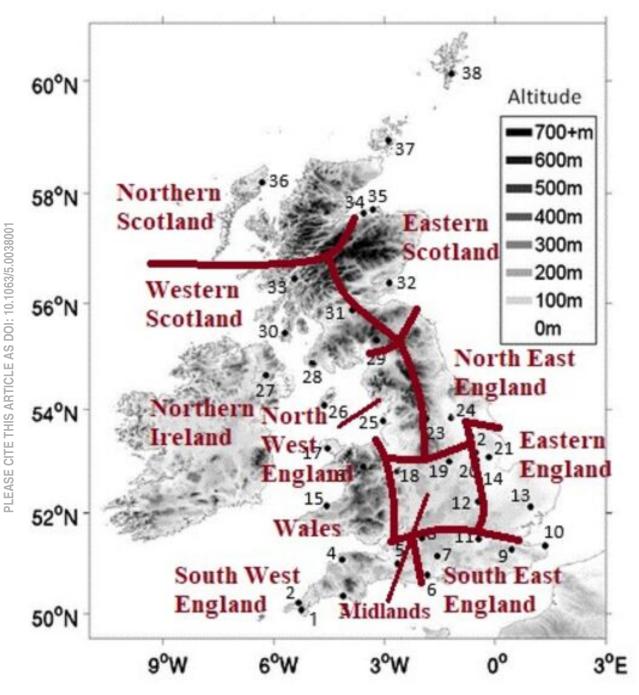
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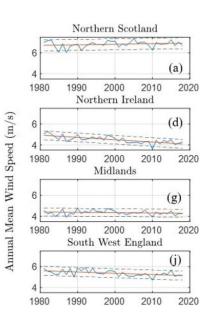


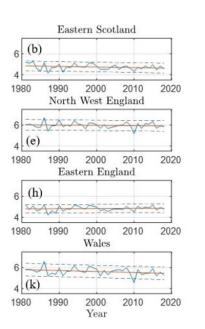


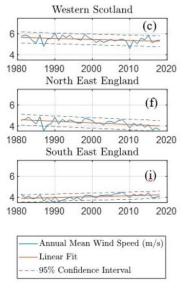
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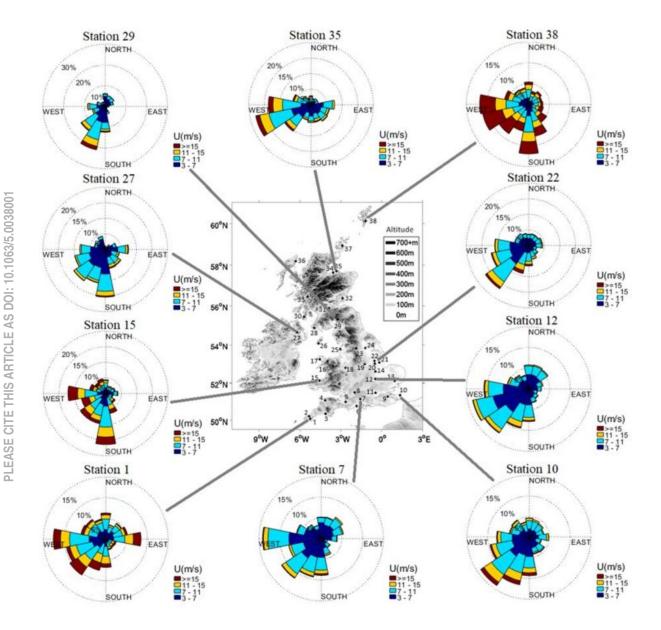




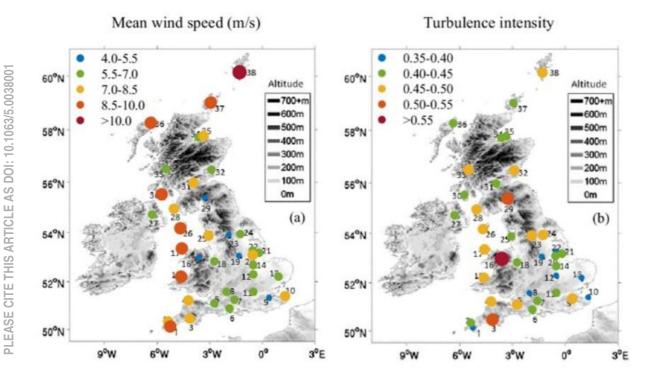




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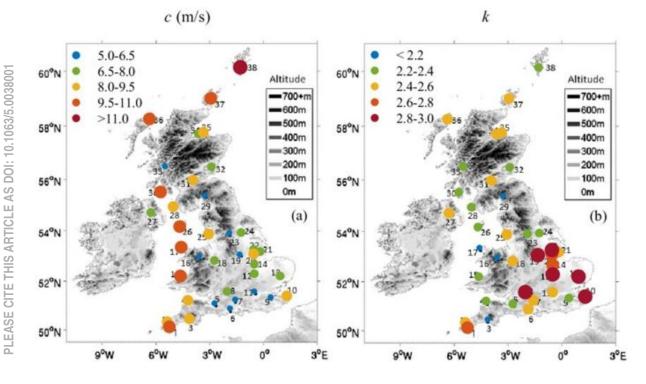




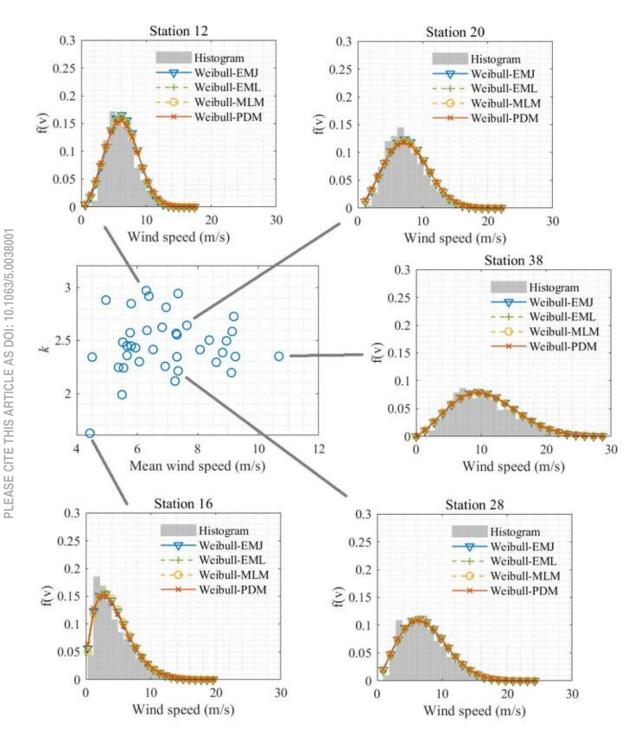




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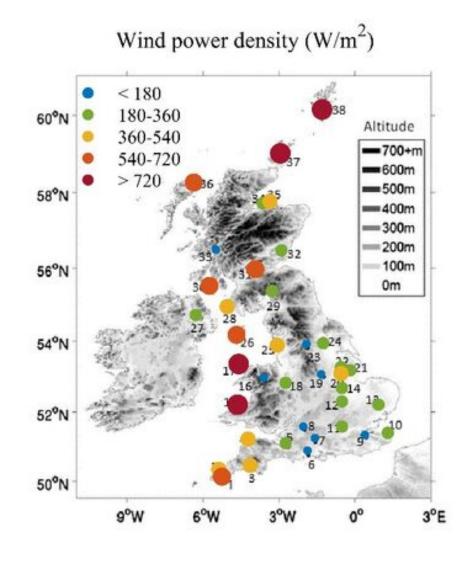






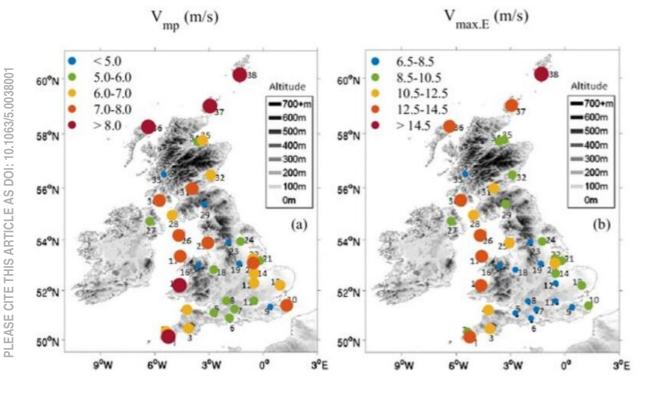


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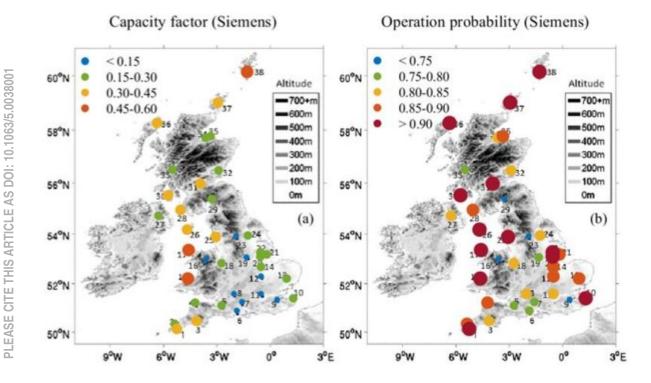




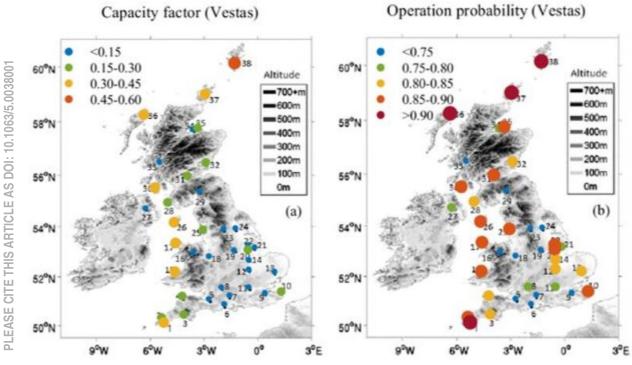
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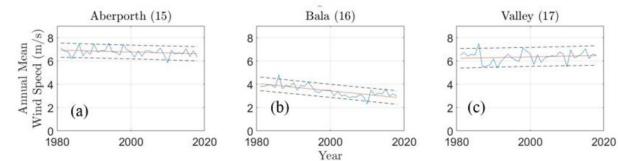






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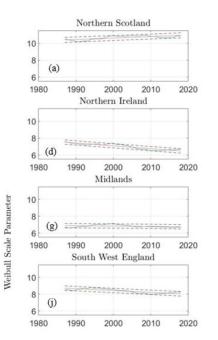


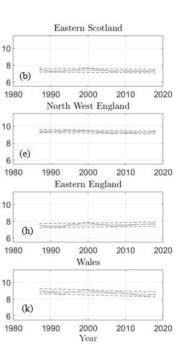
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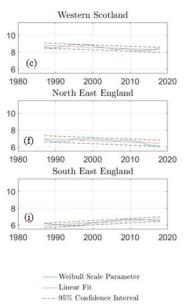


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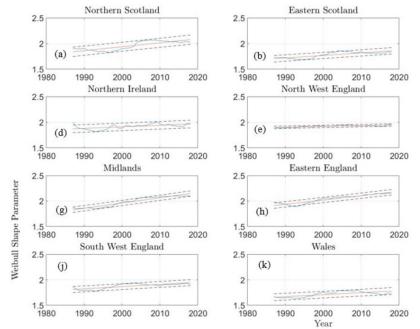


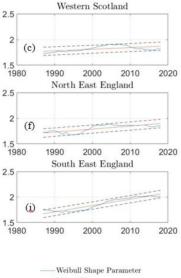




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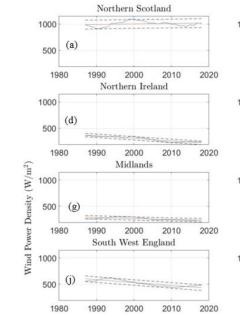


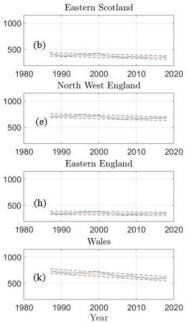


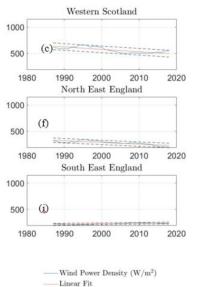
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