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## Post-Print

This is the accepted version of:

C.L. Bottasso, S. Cacciola, J. Schreiber  
*Local Wind Speed Estimation, with Application to Wake Impingement Detection*  
Renewable Energy, Vol. 116, 2018, p. 155-168  
doi:10.1016/j.renene.2017.09.044

The final publication is available at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.renene.2017.09.044>

Access to the published version may require subscription.

**When citing this work, cite the original published paper.**

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<http://hdl.handle.net/11311/1038525>

1 Local wind speed estimation,  
2 with application to wake impingement detection

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6 **Abstract**

7 Wind condition awareness is an important factor to maximize power extraction, reduce fatigue loading  
8 and increase the power quality of wind turbines and wind power plants. This paper presents a new method for  
9 wind speed estimation based on blade load measurements. Starting from the definition of a cone coefficient,  
10 which captures the collective zeroth-harmonic of the out-of-plane blade bending moment, a rotor-effective  
11 wind speed estimator is introduced. The proposed observer exhibits a performance similar to the well known  
12 torque balance estimator. However, while the latter only measures the average wind speed over the whole  
13 rotor disk, the proposed approach can also be applied locally, resulting in estimates of the wind speed in  
14 different regions of the rotor disk. In the present work, the proposed method is used to estimate the average  
15 wind speed over four rotor quadrants. The top and bottom quadrants are used for estimating the vertical  
16 shear profile, while the two lateral ones for detecting the presence of a wake shed by an upstream wind  
17 turbine. The resulting wake detector can find applicability in wind farm control, by indicating on which side  
18 of the rotor the upstream wake is impinging. The new approach is demonstrated with the help of field test  
19 data, as well as simulations performed with high-fidelity aeroservoelastic models.

20 *Keywords:* Rotor-effective wind speed, wind speed estimation, wakes, wake detection, wind farm control

21 **Notation**

22	$A$	Rotor disk area
23	$A_B$	Planform area of the rotor blade
24	$A_S$	Area of a rotor sector
25	$B$	Number of blades
26	$C_{m_0}$	Cone coefficient
27	$C_P$	Power coefficient
28	$D$	Rotor diameter
29	$E(\cdot)$	Expected value
30	$J$	Rotor inertia

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Preprint submitted to Renewable Energy on September 18, 2017

31	$P$	Measurement noise variance
32	$Q$	Process noise variance
33	$R$	Rotor radius
34	$T_{\text{aero}}$	Aerodynamic torque
35	$T_{\text{friction}}$	Friction torque
36	$T_{\text{gen}}$	Generator torque
37	$V$	Wind speed
38	$m$	Out-of-plane bending moment
39	$n$	Gearbox ratio
40	$q$	Dynamic pressure
41	$r$	Spanwise radial coordinate
42	$t$	Time
43	$u$	Longitudinal wind speed
44	$v$	Measurement noise
45	$w$	Process noise
46	$z$	Kalman filter output
47	$\Omega$	Rotor speed
48	$\beta$	Blade pitch angle
49	$\delta_{\text{TI}}$	Left-right relative turbulence intensity difference
50	$\delta_{\text{V}}$	Left-right relative wind speed difference
51	$\epsilon$	Error
52	$\gamma$	Horizontal wind misalignment
53	$\kappa$	Vertical power-law shear exponent
54	$\kappa_{\text{lin}}$	Vertical linear shear coefficient
55	$\lambda$	Tip speed ratio
56	$\psi$	Azimuth angle
57	$\rho$	Air density
58	$\sigma$	Standard deviation
59	$\xi$	Non-dimensional spanwise radial coordinate
60	$\bar{(\cdot)}$	Average quantity
61	$\dot{(\cdot)}$	Time derivative, $d \cdot / dt$
62	$\hat{(\cdot)}$	Measured quantity
63	$(\cdot)_{\text{BE}}$	Blade-effective quantity
64	$(\cdot)_{\text{RE}}$	Rotor-effective quantity

65	$(\cdot)_{SE}$	Sector-effective quantity
66	$(\cdot)_h$	Quantity referred to the hub
67	$(\cdot)_i$	Quantity referred to the $i$ th blade
68	$(\cdot)_k$	Quantity referred to the $k$ th time step
69	BEM	Blade Element Momentum
70	BLE	Blade Load Estimator
71	HAWT	Horizontal Axis Wind Turbine
72	ILS	Integral Length Scale
73	LiDAR	Light Detection And Ranging
74	REILS	Rotor-Effective Integral Length Scale
75	RETI	Rotor-Effective Turbulence Intensity
76	REWS	Rotor-Effective Wind Speed
77	SETI	Sector-Effective Turbulence Intensity
78	SEWS	Sector-Effective Wind Speed
79	TBE	Torque Balance Estimator
80	TI	Turbulence Intensity
81	TSR	Tip Speed Ratio

## 82 1. Introduction

83 Modern wind power plants may contain tens or hundreds of individual wind turbines. Each machine  
 84 converts into electrical energy a part of the kinetic energy carried by an air stream tube interacting with its  
 85 rotor disk. As a consequence of this energy conversion process, behind each wind turbine a complex wake  
 86 structure develops, which is characterized by a slower wind speed and a higher turbulence intensity. Wakes  
 87 undergo complicated phenomena, including the breakdown of near-rotor vortical structures, mixing, recovery,  
 88 meandering and merging with other wakes. All such processes are strongly influenced by several parameters,  
 89 including the operating conditions of the machines, the characteristics of the atmosphere, the orography and  
 90 roughness of the terrain or the sea state, and the interactions among neighboring wakes.

91 Wakes impinging on downstream wind turbines within a wind farm are a cause of significant power  
 92 losses and increased fatigue loading. Several solutions to address this problem are currently being actively  
 93 investigated [1], including the idea of redirecting wakes away from downstream machines [2, 3, 4, 5], the  
 94 curtailment of power of upstream wind turbines [6], the promotion of a faster wake recovery—for example  
 95 by pitching the rotor blades [7]—, and the alleviation of loads on the affected downstream machines by active  
 96 controls [8].

97 For developing effective solutions that are capable of actively changing the wind farm flow, a precise  
98 knowledge of the wind inflow conditions at the rotor disk of each machine is essential. For example, when  
99 using wake redirection to alleviate a partial wake overlap, it is necessary to know with certainty which side  
100 of the downstream rotor is affected, in order to deflect the wake of the upstream machine in the correct  
101 direction.

102 Unfortunately, at present wind turbines do not operate based on a detailed understanding of the wind  
103 conditions that affect them. In fact, wind turbines typically use nacelle or hub mounted wind measurement  
104 devices, which can only provide information on wind speed and direction at the single point in space where  
105 these devices are installed. Therefore, wind turbines are unaware of the presence of an impinging wake and of  
106 many other important inflow parameters, as for example vertical shear and veer. Clearly, this lack of situation  
107 awareness severely limits the application of sophisticated wind turbine and wind farm control approaches.

108 Reduced wind farm models [9, 10], often based on engineering wake models or model-compression tech-  
109 niques, are able to represent to a certain extent the wind farm flow conditions and wake interactions at  
110 a moderate computational complexity. Given their limited computational cost, such models are also good  
111 candidates for the synthesis of model-based controllers. However, the quality and reliability of the predictions  
112 provided by these models are typically affected by a number of factors, including the stability and charac-  
113 teristics of the atmosphere and the proper calibration of the model parameters. Even in this case, a more  
114 sophisticated awareness of the flow conditions than it is currently available would prove very valuable. If  
115 one could measure the wind conditions at the rotor disk of each machine, this information could be used to  
116 improve/correct the predictions of the reduced order models, in turn providing higher quality information for  
117 advanced control applications.

118 LiDARs (Light Detection And Ranging) are remote sensing devices that are able to measure wind condi-  
119 tions and to detect wakes and their locations [11]. Both ground-based and nacelle-mounted LiDARs, possibly  
120 used in synergy, can provide a fairly complete description of the flow at the sampling rates necessary for  
121 wind turbine and wind farm control. Unfortunately, however, the use of LiDARs is still confined to research  
122 applications, and they are not yet routinely deployed in the field on production machines because of cost,  
123 availability, reliability and technological limits of the measurements. These include spatio-temporal averag-  
124 ing, complexity of multi-component measurements of the wind vector, effects of turbulence convection and  
125 interaction with the rotor induction zone.

126 In summary, there is a need to develop alternative methods for wind flow measurement that can improve  
127 the situation awareness of wind turbines. Such methods should be simple and reliable, and they should be  
128 able to provide detailed information on the flow characteristics at each wind turbine rotor disk in real time  
129 during operation. The availability of such new methods would facilitate the development of modern smart  
130 control approaches, to improve power capture and reduce loading for wind turbines operating within power

131 plants.

132 To address these needs, the concept of using the rotor as a generalized anemometer has been recently  
133 proposed [12, 13, 14, 15]. In a nutshell, the idea of *wind sensing* is that any change in the wind conditions  
134 at the inflow will be reflected in a corresponding change in the response of the rotor. In other words, there  
135 is in general a well defined map between some wind parameters and some specific features of the rotor  
136 response. By measuring such response—for example in terms of blade loads or accelerations, torque, rotor  
137 speed, blade pitch, etc.—one may invert the map, under suitable hypotheses and conditions, to estimate the  
138 wind characteristics. Recent results (see [15] and references therein) indicate that several wind states can be  
139 reliably observed using blade loads, including wind speed, vertical and horizontal shears, lateral misalignment  
140 and upflow. As many modern machines are already equipped with load sensors, typically for enabling load-  
141 alleviating feedback control laws, the implementation of such approaches may not require any additional  
142 hardware, and therefore may come at the cost of a simple software upgrade.

143 The current paper falls within the new field of wind sensing. Within the general idea of using the rotor  
144 as a wind sensor, the present work proposes a new and simple method to estimate some wind characteristics  
145 that imply non-uniform wind conditions at the rotor disk. Relevant examples are vertical shear and the  
146 impingement of a wake shed by an upstream machine.

147 The method is based on the estimation of the wind speed by the out-of-plane blade bending moment,  
148 as explained in more detail in Section 2. Similarly to the thrust coefficient, one may define a cone bending  
149 coefficient, which depends on the tip speed ratio (TSR) and blade pitch. The cone coefficient captures the  
150 (collective) zeroth-harmonic of the blade loads, and it can be interpreted as the constant term produced by  
151 Coleman-transforming the individual loads of each blade. Using the three blades together, knowledge of the  
152 loads in addition to rotor speed and blade pitch allows one to estimate a rotor-equivalent wind speed from  
153 the cone coefficient. The estimate is obtained by the use of a Kalman filter, which enhances the robustness  
154 of the approach in the face of noise and disturbances, always present in practical applications in the field.

155 A similar rotor-equivalent estimate of the wind speed may be obtained by the well known torque balance  
156 estimator [12]. In that case, one uses the power coefficient and, based on measured shaft torque together with  
157 rotor speed and blade pitch, wind speed is obtained by filtering. A comparison between the two approaches  
158 shows results of similar quality. It is speculated that the present approach might yield better estimates in  
159 the high frequency spectrum, especially on machines with particularly large diameters. In fact, the flap  
160 response of the rotor is not slowed by its large rotary inertia, as it is on the other hand the case for the torque  
161 balance estimator. Results shown in this paper indicate that the method has sufficient temporal resolution  
162 for estimating with good accuracy even the Turbulence Intensity (TI), and in turn the Integral Length Scale  
163 (ILS) of the flow.

164 However, a crucial difference of the proposed approach with respect to the torque balance method is

165 that the former can be specialized to the observation of *local* flow conditions on different parts of the rotor;  
 166 this is in contrast to the exclusively *global* estimates provided by the latter. Specifically, by using the load  
 167 information for each single blade independently, one may sense the wind at the azimuthal location occupied  
 168 by that blade, as explained in Section 3. Averaging over an azimuthal interval, an estimate of the local wind  
 169 speed in a rotor sector can be readily obtained. In turn, from the local wind speed one may also easily derive  
 170 an estimate of the corresponding local TI.

171 This new idea is here developed by subdividing the rotor into four quadrants, although other choices are  
 172 clearly possible. The local speed estimates obtained by the proposed method may be used to detect speed  
 173 differences over the rotor disk. At first, the idea of detecting the effects of the vertical shear is investigated  
 174 by using field test data. Experiments conducted with different data sets show that the vertical distribution  
 175 of wind speed detected over the top and bottom rotor quadrants correlates well with the one measured by a  
 176 met-mast equipped with anemometers.

177 In Section 4, the new proposed concept is finally applied to the observation of waked conditions. A  
 178 simulation environment is used in this case. Although any model cannot clearly be perfectly faithful to  
 179 reality, the use of simulations has the advantage that one has a complete knowledge of the situation. In the  
 180 present case, this means that one knows exactly the ground truth wind speeds in the various areas of interest.  
 181 In addition, it is easier within a simulation environment to try and determine the effects of various disturbing  
 182 effects. The study considers various waked conditions, which differ in the degree of overlap with the affected  
 183 rotor disk. Extensive simulations and comparisons of the results of the observations with respect to the  
 184 reference exact solutions demonstrate the general ability of the proposed formulation of distinguishing between  
 185 waked and unwaked conditions, indicating the affected rotor side of the interaction. Other recent related  
 186 papers [16, 17, 18] present studies of the performance of the same method with reference to experimental  
 187 data measured on a scaled wind farm facility. The papers also show how to estimate the wake position based  
 188 on the local wind speed estimates developed in the present work.

189 Finally, the present work is terminated by Section 5, where conclusion are drawn and plans for future  
 190 work are sketched.

## 191 2. Estimation of rotor-effective wind parameters

### 192 2.1. A novel formulation for wind speed estimation based on the cone coefficient

193 In this work, the Rotor-Effective Wind Speed (REWS) is obtained by a Blade-Load-based Estimator  
 194 (BLE), which makes use of the zeroth harmonic (or cone) of the out-of-plane bending rotor loads. Considering  
 195 a steady wind condition, the cone coefficient is defined as

$$C_{m_0}(\lambda_{RE}, \beta, q_{RE}) = \frac{\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \sum_{i=0}^B m_i(\psi_i) d\psi}{\frac{1}{2} \rho A R V_{RE}^2}, \quad (1)$$

196 where  $\lambda_{\text{RE}} = \Omega R / V_{\text{RE}}$  is the rotor-effective TSR,  $\Omega$  the rotor speed,  $R$  the rotor radius,  $V_{\text{RE}}$  the REWS,  $\beta$   
 197 the blade pitch angle,  $B$  the number of blades,  $m_i$  the out-of-plane root bending moment of blade  $i$  (which  
 198 occupies the azimuthal position  $\psi_i$  over the rotor disk),  $\rho$  the density of air,  $A$  the rotor disk area and finally  
 199  $q_{\text{RE}} = 1/2\rho V_{\text{RE}}^2$  the rotor-effective dynamic pressure. The numerator of the right hand side represents the  
 200 average over a rotor revolution of the sum of the out-of-plane blade bending moments,  $m_0 = \sum_{i=1}^B m_i$ . In  
 201 the terminology of the Coleman transformation,  $m_0$  represents the collective, cone or zeroth harmonic of the  
 202 loads, while the higher harmonics would be given by appropriate sine and cosine combinations of the same  
 203 loads [19].

204 As in the case of the familiar power and thrust coefficients, also the cone coefficient depends on the  
 205 operating condition through TSR and blade pitch. In addition, as indicated on the left hand side of the  
 206 previous expression, the cone coefficient also depends on dynamic pressure. In fact, rotor and tower deform  
 207 under loading, so that the same TSR and blade pitch at two different wind and/or density conditions may  
 208 in principle correspond to slightly different non-dimensional cone (but also power and thrust) coefficients.

209 Once the cone coefficient has been computed for all operating conditions of interest, Eq. (1) can be used  
 210 to estimate  $V_{\text{RE}}$ . To this end, the equation is rewritten for the generic time instant  $t$  as

$$\hat{m}_0(t) = \frac{1}{2}\rho A R V_{\text{RE}}^2(t) C_{m_0}(\lambda_{\text{RE}}(t), \beta(t), \bar{q}_{\text{RE}}(t)), \quad (2)$$

211 where  $\hat{m}_0$  is computed based on the measurements provided at that instant of time by blade load sensors.  
 212 The rotor-effective dynamic pressure  $\bar{q}_{\text{RE}}$  is computed by a moving average looking backward in time over  
 213 a suitable time window, to capture the working point about which the machine is operating. Since also the  
 214 rotor speed  $\Omega$  can be easily measured together with the blade pitch angle  $\beta$ , the sole unknown in the equation  
 215 is the REWS  $V_{\text{RE}}$ , which can therefore be readily computed.

216 The contribution of the gravitational loads are assumed to have been eliminated from the blade bending  
 217 moments. In fact, not having an aerodynamic origin, gravitational loads cannot be non-dimensionalized by  
 218 the denominator of Eq. (1). In turn, this prevents the correction of the coefficient for density, which is on the  
 219 other hand important for the practical application of the method in realistic conditions. The elimination of the  
 220 effects of gravity is achieved by first pre-computing the corresponding bending moments for preselected values  
 221 of the azimuthal blade position, at each time step interpolating these values to get the one corresponding  
 222 to the actual position, and finally subtracting the interpolated value from the currently measured bending  
 223 moment. As previously noted, to account for the deformation of the machine at different operating points,  
 224 such procedure can be scheduled in terms of the current mean dynamic pressure.

225 To increase the robustness of the estimates in the face of measurement and process noise, an Extended  
 226 Kalman filter is used for the computation of  $V_{\text{RE}}$ . The wind speed update at the generic time step  $k$  is defined



227 as

$$V_{RE_k} = V_{RE_{k-1}} + w_{k-1}, \quad (3)$$

228  $w_k$  being the process noise with covariance  $Q$ . The very simple model used here has the advantage of  
 229 depending on the single tuning parameter  $Q$ , and it performed reasonably well in the experiments reported  
 230 later on. Nonetheless, it is clear that a more sophisticated model of the wind dynamics might be considered,  
 231 for example in order to ensure specific characteristics to the wind spectrum. Finally, the non-linear output  
 232 equation of the filter is defined as

$$z_k = \frac{1}{2} \rho A R V_{RE_k}^2 C_{m_0}(\lambda_{RE}, \beta, \bar{q}_{RE_k}) - m_0 + v_k, \quad (4)$$

233 where  $v_k$  is the measurement noise with covariance  $P$ , while the output  $z_k$  is set to 0 to enforce Eq. (2)  
 234 at each step. The filter parameters  $Q$  and  $P$  should be tuned in order to obtain good quality estimates in  
 235 different wind conditions, as shown later on in the results section.

## 236 2.2. Estimation of wind speed by the power coefficient

237 A dynamic Torque Balance Estimator (TBE) [12, 20, 21, 22, 23] of the REWS is described next. The well  
 238 known TBE is introduced to provide a reference performance in the estimation of the wind speed, to be used  
 239 for comparison and validation of the previously described cone-coefficient-based estimator. The TBE uses a  
 240 dynamic model of the rotor torque balance, which writes

$$J\dot{\Omega} = T_{aero} - nT_{gen} - T_{friction}, \quad (5)$$

241 where  $J$  is the moment of inertia of the rotor-generator-drive-train assembly referred to the low speed shaft,  
 242  $\dot{\Omega}$  the rotor acceleration,  $T_{aero}$  the aerodynamic torque,  $n$  the gearbox ratio,  $T_{gen}$  the generator torque and  
 243  $T_{friction}(\Omega)$  a mechanical loss term accounting for friction in the bearings and drive-train. The aerodynamic  
 244 torque can be expressed as a function of the power coefficient  $C_P$  as

$$T_{aero} = \frac{1}{2\Omega} \rho A V_{RE}^3 C_P(\lambda_{RE}, \beta, q_{RE}). \quad (6)$$

245 Note that the power coefficient, similarly to the cone coefficient, is a function of the dynamic pressure as it  
 246 may be influenced by aeroelastic effects. Here again, as all quantities appearing in the equation are either  
 247 measured or can be estimated, the sole remaining unknown is the REWS  $V_{RE}$  for which the equation can be  
 248 solved.

249 Even in this case, to hedge against disturbances and noise the Extended Kalman filter is used, resulting  
 250 in the following non-linear output equation

$$z_k = \frac{1}{2\Omega} \rho A V_{RE_k}^3 C_P(\lambda_{RE}, \beta, \bar{q}_{RE_k}) - nT_{gen} - T_{friction} - J\dot{\Omega} + v_k. \quad (7)$$

### 2.3. Estimation of turbulence intensity and integral length scale

The Rotor-Effective Turbulence Intensity (RETI, noted  $TI_{RE}$ ) is directly obtained by the 10-minute REWS mean  $\bar{V}_{RE}$  and standard deviation  $\sigma_{V_{RE}}$ :

$$TI_{RE} = \frac{\sigma_{V_{RE}}}{\bar{V}_{RE}}. \quad (8)$$

Clearly, for the RETI to be a good quality estimate of the real flow turbulence intensity interacting with the rotor disk, the REWS should approximate the real wind speed in a sufficiently ample bandwidth, typically up to 0.2 Hz. In this sense, REWS estimators that perform an excessive filtering effect might not provide for suitable estimates of the RETI.

The Rotor-Effective Integral Length Scale (REILS) is readily obtained based on the 10-minute auto-correlation of the REWS, as for example described in Ref. [24].

### 2.4. Comparison of the two methods

Before moving on to the estimation of local wind speeds, estimates of rotor-equivalent wind quantities based on blade loads are compared to the ones obtained with the use of the well known TBE, with the purpose of establishing the performance characteristics of the new method.

At first, a simulation study was conducted by using the high-fidelity aeroservoelastic model of a 3 MW wind turbine, implemented with the modeling environment `Cp-Lambda` [25]. The machine is an upwind three-bladed variable-speed HAWT, representative of current wind turbine designs, with a rotor diameter of 93 m and a hub height of 80 m. The wind turbine is modelled as a flexible multibody system expressed in Cartesian coordinates, whose blades and tower are rendered using geometrically exact beam models, which are in turn discretized in space using the isoparametric finite element method. Lagrange multipliers are used for enforcing mechanical constraints, resulting in a high-index differential algebraic formulation, which is marched in time by a preconditioned energy decaying integration scheme [26]. The aerodynamic model is based on the coupling of lifting lines with the classical Blade Element Momentum (BEM) theory. The model operates in closed-loop with a collective blade pitch and torque controller. Turbulent wind fields were obtained with the `TurbSim` code [27]. At each instant of time, sensors within the model, including strain sensors at the blade roots emulating strain-gages, gather the necessary information that is in turn fed to the estimators.

At each time instant, a reference “ground-truth” REWS was calculated from the wind grid as

$$V_{RE,grid} = \frac{1}{A} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^R u(r, \psi) r \, dr \, d\psi, \quad (9)$$

where  $u$  is the wind speed in the longitudinal direction, similarly to what done by Østergaard et al. [20]. Other definitions are possible, as the one used by Soltani et al. [12], where wind speed is weighted by the

280 local power coefficient. Based on this reference REWS, reference RETI and REILS were readily obtained, as  
 281 previously described.

282 Figure 1a shows at top the reference REWS (at left) and RETI (at right), for parts of one turbulent wind  
 283 realization characterized by an ambient wind speed of 20 m/s with a TI of 5% and a vertical layer with shear  
 284 exponent equal to 0.2, based on the Kaimal turbulence model. The bottom part of the figure shows the  
 285 corresponding errors between estimate and reference, for both the REWS (at left, in meters per second) and  
 286 the RETI (at right, in percentage points).

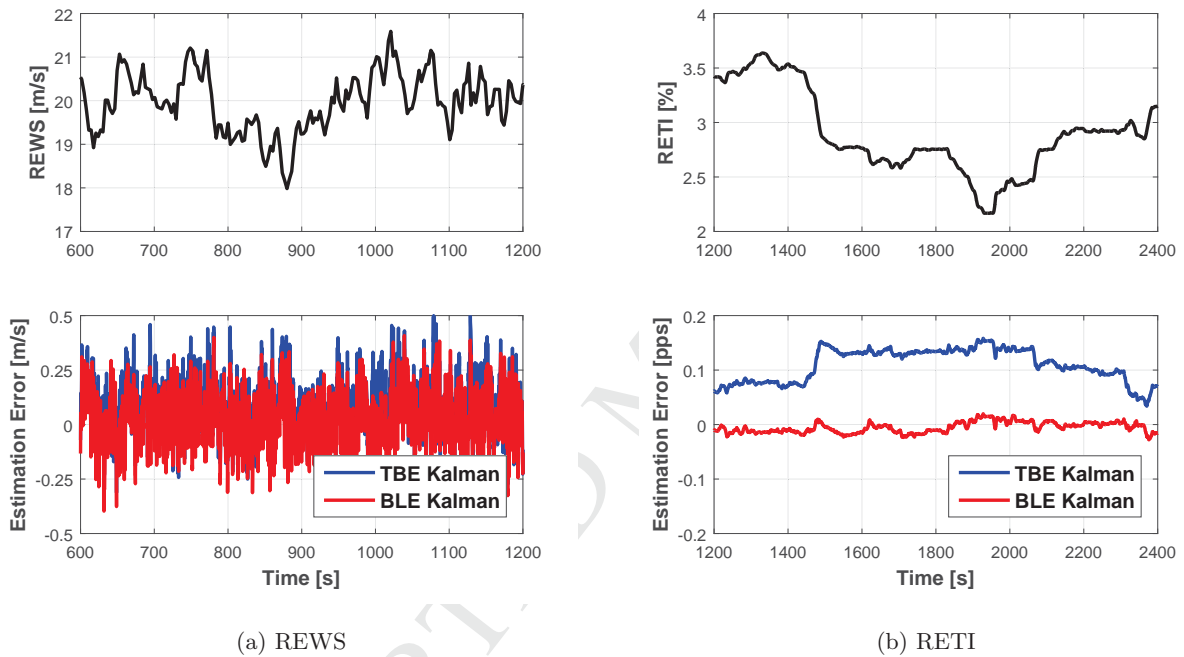


Figure 1: Top: reference REWS (at left) and RETI (at right). Bottom: estimation errors for REWS (at left) and RETI (at right).

287 For different average wind speeds and TIs, the estimation error mean  $E[\epsilon]$  and standard deviation  $\sigma_\epsilon$  are  
 288 shown in Table 1a. These quantities are computed on one realization of the turbulent wind time history of  
 289 40 minutes of length, which are enough to bring the statistics to convergence. Results indicate that both  
 290 methods produce similarly good estimates.

291 For the same wind conditions, Table 2 reports the statistical properties of the estimation error for the  
 292 REILS, in percentage. Again both estimators yield reliable results, although the TBE appears to be slightly  
 293 more accurate.

294 Next, field measurements were used to characterize the quality of the BLE, again in comparison with  
 295 the TBE. Measurements were obtained on the CART3 (Controls Advanced Research Turbine, 3-bladed) [28],

ambient		$E[\epsilon]$ in m/s		$\sigma_\epsilon$ in m/s	
V	TI	BLE	TBE	BLE	TBE
5m/s	2%	-0.03	-0.03	0.02	0.01
5m/s	5%	-0.04	-0.03	0.03	0.02
5m/s	10%	-0.05	-0.02	0.05	0.05
20m/s	2%	0.02	0.07	0.06	0.07
20m/s	5%	0.02	0.08	0.13	0.14
20m/s	10%	-0.09	0.02	0.25	0.25

(a) REWS

ambient		$E[\epsilon]$ in pps		$\sigma_\epsilon$ in pps	
V	TI	BLE	TBE	BLE	TBE
5m/s	2%	0.14	-0.02	0.07	0.01
5m/s	5%	0.12	-0.04	0.17	0.03
5m/s	10%	0.10	-0.10	0.28	0.05
20m/s	2%	0.06	0.13	0.01	0.01
20m/s	5%	-0.01	0.11	0.01	0.03
20m/s	10%	-0.03	0.05	0.03	0.04

(b) RETI

Table 1: REWS and RETI estimation error means  $E[\epsilon]$  and standard deviations  $\sigma_\epsilon$  for the BLE and TBE estimators, for multiple realizations of different wind conditions.

ambient		$E[\epsilon]$ in %		$\sigma_\epsilon$ in %	
V	TI	BLE	TBE	BLE	TBE
5m/s	2%	0.94	3.82	5.29	3.10
5m/s	5%	5.49	5.08	5.36	5.21
5m/s	10%	5.56	5.12	4.66	4.58
20m/s	2%	0.16	-0.82	9.96	6.00
20m/s	5%	2.56	0.33	6.51	5.93
20m/s	10%	1.81	0.47	5.79	4.72

Table 2: REILS estimation error means  $E[\epsilon]$  and standard deviations  $\sigma_\epsilon$  for the BLE and TBE estimators, for multiple realizations of different wind conditions.

operated by the National Wind Technology Center (NWTC) of the National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL). This 600 kW wind turbine has a rotor radius of 20 m and a hub-height of 40 m.

A met-mast is located 85 m from the wind turbine, and it is equipped with three anemometers and wind vanes located at 15, 36 and 55 m above ground. Wind recordings sampled at 400 Hz were selected for wind directions aligned with the met-mast and wind turbine axis. To account for the time delay between met-mast and wind turbine, the three anemometer measurements were first averaged at each time instant to give a rotor mean wind speed, and then time-shifted based on the 1500-second averaged mean wind speed.

The wind turbine cone and power coefficients were based on a previously validated aeroelastic model of the wind turbine, implemented with the simulation tool FAST [29, 30]. The coefficients were obtained by averaging the machine relevant response obtained with dynamic simulations in steady-state winds at various TSR and blade pitch settings, once the solution had settled onto a periodic orbit. Given its small size and robust construction, for this machine the dependency of the coefficients on the dynamic pressure is negligible, and therefore it was not taken into account.

For one specific representative time history of 600 s of duration, Fig. 2 shows the met-mast average, as well as the REWS computed by the BLE and the TBE. For completeness, the plot also reports the wind speed measured by the nacelle-mounted anemometer, which however is a point measurement (as opposed to a rotor-equivalent quantity) and also exhibits a significant offset. It should be mentioned that in this case the met-mast-measured wind can hardly be considered as a “ground truth”, as it is only based on three point measurements and it neglects the evolution of the flow from the met-mast to the wind turbine rotor (Taylor’s frozen hypothesis). Nonetheless, the plot shows that the BLE and TBE are in good agreement between themselves and in a reasonable one with the met-mast-provided information. Similar results were obtained with the use of different time histories from this same machine and experimental setup.

### 3. Estimation of local-effective wind parameters

The BLE method can be finally specialized to estimate the wind speed experienced in different parts of the rotor disk. The basic idea is to use each blade as a moving sensor whose out-of-plane bending load is strictly connected to the local wind speed at the blade position.

To this end, Eq. (2) is modified as

$$\hat{m}_i(t) = \frac{1}{2B} \rho A R V_{BE}(\psi_i(t))^2 C_{m_0}(\lambda_{BE}(\psi_i(t)), \beta_i, q_{BE}), \quad (10)$$

where  $(\cdot)_i$  indicates quantities pertaining to the  $i$ th blade. As in the previous case, this expression is used to define the output equation of an Extended Kalman filter (cf. Eq. (4)), which yields an estimate of the blade local-effective wind speed  $V_{BE}(\psi_i(t_k))$  at the azimuthal location  $\psi_i$  occupied by the blade at time instant  $t_k$ .

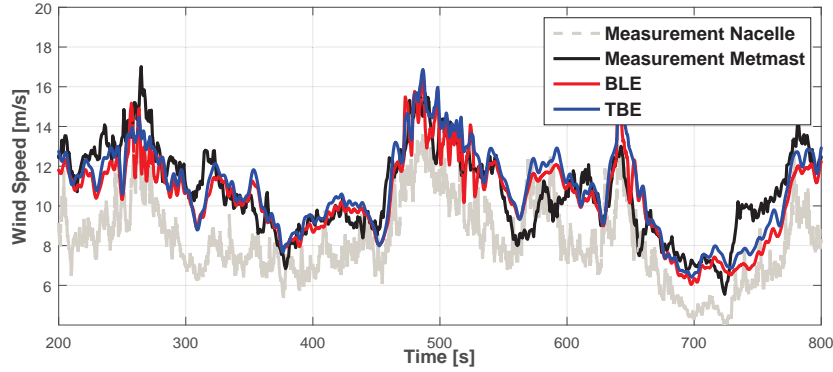


Figure 2: REWS BLE (red line) and TBE (blue line) estimates, averaged time-shifted met-mast wind speed (black line), and onboard nacelle-mounted anemometer wind speed (gray dashed line), for field measurements obtained with the NREL CART3 wind turbine.

326 From the blade local-effective wind speed, a Sector-Effective Wind Speed (SEWS), noted  $V_{SE}$ , is obtained  
 327 by averaging over an azimuthal interval of interest, as

$$V_{SE}(t) = \frac{1}{A_S} \int_{A_S} V_{BE}(\psi(t)) dA_S. \quad (11)$$

328 The SEWS estimate can be updated every time a blade leaves the sector, i.e. with a frequency equal to  
 329  $B \times \text{Rev}$ , while the zero-order hold can be employed in between two updates. This concept is symbolically  
 330 illustrated in Fig. 3.

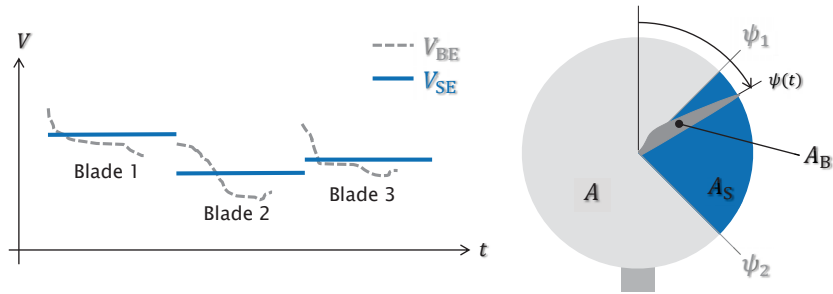


Figure 3: Estimation of blade-effective and sector-effective wind speeds, from the loads of a blade passing through a rotor disk sector.

331 A Sector-Effective Turbulence Intensity (SETI), noted  $TI_{SE}$ , is readily computed from the SEWS as

$$TI_{SE} = \frac{\sigma_{V_{SE}}}{V_{SE}}, \quad (12)$$

332 being  $\sigma_{V_{SE}}$  the standard deviation of the SEWS.

333 The SEWS has the meaning of an average velocity over the disk sector. Hence, the question arises: what  
334 is the spanwise location of such an average along the disk radius? In fact, this information may be useful for  
335 the validation and interpretation of the results. For example, later on the estimated SEWS will be compared  
336 to measurements obtained with a met-mast, and therefore it is necessary to know at which height along the  
337 met mast the comparison should be performed.

338 The blade root bending moment on a sector  $S$  occupying the azimuthal span  $\Delta\psi = \psi_2 - \psi_1$  with area  
339  $A_S = \Delta\psi R^2/2$  can be written as

$$m_S = \frac{1}{2B} \rho R^3 \int_0^1 \int_{\psi_1}^{\psi_2} V(\xi, \psi)^2 C_T(\xi, \psi) \xi^2 d\psi d\xi, \quad (13)$$

340 where  $\xi = r/R$  is the nondimensional radial position,  $r$  the dimensional one, and  $C_T$  the local thrust coefficient.

341 According to stream-tube theory,  $C_T(\xi) = 4a(\xi)(1 - a(\xi))$ , where  $a(\xi)$  is the axial induction factor. As

342  $a(\xi) \approx 1/3$  for a well designed blade, then  $C_T$  can be assumed to be roughly constant over the rotor disk.

343 Therefore, introducing the constant equivalent wind speed  $V_{SE}$  over the sector, one readily finds

$$m_S = \frac{1}{2B} \rho V_{SE}^2 A_S \frac{2}{3} R C_T. \quad (14)$$

344 This expression indicates that the blade bending moment can be interpreted as being produced by the thrust

345 applied at  $2R/3$  span. In this sense,  $V_{SE}$  can be interpreted as the wind velocity sampled at that same

346 location.

A more refined analysis can be developed by assuming a linear vertical wind shear, which can be expressed  
as

$$V(\xi, \psi) = V_h \left( 1 + \kappa_{lin} \frac{z - z_h}{R} \right), \quad (15a)$$

$$= V_h (1 + \kappa_{lin} \xi \cos \psi), \quad (15b)$$

347 where  $V_h$  is the hub height,  $\kappa_{lin}$  the linear shear coefficient, and  $z$  a vertical coordinate pointing upwards,  $z_h$

348 being the hub height. In this case, one would like to find the equivalent height  $\tilde{z}$  where  $V$  is sampled by the

349 estimator. Using both expressions (15a) and (15b) in Eq. (13), considering a constant  $C_T$ , solving for  $z$  and

350 simplifying the result, one finds the following expression for the effective height  $\tilde{z}$ :

$$\frac{\tilde{z} - z_h}{R} = \frac{1}{\kappa_{lin}} \left( \sqrt{\frac{\int_0^1 \int_{\psi_1}^{\psi_2} (1 + \kappa_{lin} \xi \cos \psi)^2 \xi^2 d\psi d\xi}{\Delta\psi/3}} - 1 \right). \quad (16)$$

351 Even though the effective height is a function of the shear coefficient  $\kappa_{\text{lin}}$ , one may safely assume  $(\tilde{z} - z_h)/R \approx$   
 352  $\pm 2/3$  for the upper and lower sectors. Indeed, the variation of this quantity with  $\kappa_{\text{lin}}$  is very small, being for  
 353 the upper sector  $(\tilde{z} - z_h)/R|_{\kappa_{\text{lin}}=-0.5} = 0.662$  and  $(\tilde{z} - z_h)/R|_{\kappa_{\text{lin}}=+0.5} = 0.682$ .

### 354 3.1. Use of local-effective wind parameters

355 The concept of SEWS can be used for detecting areas of different wind speeds over the rotor disk. For  
 356 example, consider the four quadrants depicted in Fig. 4.

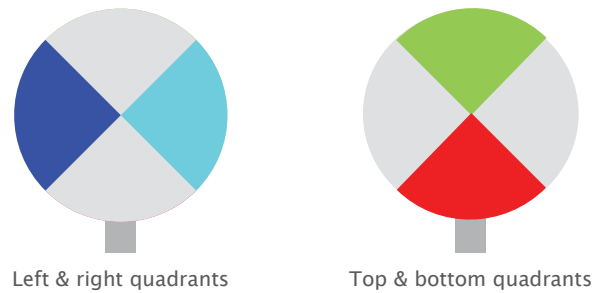


Figure 4: Rotor disk partitioned into four quadrants, noted left and right, and top and bottom. Naming of the quadrants considers an upwind view direction.

357 A partial wake impingement, whereby the wake shed by an upstream wind turbine has a partial overlap  
 358 with the rotor disk, will create different wind speeds on the right and left sectors of the rotor. Therefore, by  
 359 looking at the difference of the SEWS between the right and left quadrants, one may be able to detect a wake  
 360 interference condition, information that can be exploited for wind farm control. This information can also  
 361 help distinguish whether the wake is impinging over one or the other side of the rotor disk, which is again  
 362 useful for wake redirection control purposes.

363 Since a wake is characterized not only by a speed deficit but also by a higher TI than the ambient flow, a  
 364 partial wake condition will also typically imply different TI levels on the two sides of the rotor. As the proposed  
 365 formulation is also capable of estimating local TI values over the different quadrants, this information can  
 366 in principle be used in conjunction with the local speed to increase the confidence level of a correct wake  
 367 interference detection.

368 Similarly, a vertical wind shear will imply different wind speeds on the top and bottom quadrants. Here  
 369 again, the SEWS on these two rotor sectors may be used for estimating this wind parameter, which in turn  
 370 may find applicability in wind turbine and wind farm control (for example, by correlating wind shear and  
 371 atmospheric stability, which has strong effects on the behavior of wakes). Additionally, by averaging over



372 the left and right quadrants, one may have an indication of the wind speed at hub height. This, together  
373 with the SEWS of the top and bottom quadrants, produces a three-point estimate of the wind speed in the  
374 vertical direction, which can in principle be used for estimating an inverted wind profile, typical of conditions  
375 characterized by low level jets. In this case, the use of a higher number of sectors than the four used here  
376 might provide for an even better vertical resolution.

377 The use of SEWS for estimating shear and wake impingement is demonstrated in the following pages by  
378 the use of several examples, which make use of synthetic simulation data as well as field tests. A validation  
379 performed with scaled experiments conducted with wind turbine models in a boundary layer wind tunnel is  
380 described in a different publication [16].

## 381 4. Results

### 382 4.1. Vertical shear estimation from field test data

383 At first, the proposed formulation was verified with respect to its ability in estimating the vertical wind  
384 shear, again with reference to field test data gathered on the NREL CART3 wind turbine. Although the  
385 primary goal of this work is the development of a wake state estimator, both vertical shear and wake inter-  
386 ference are characterized by different average wind speeds on different rotor quadrants. Therefore, this test  
387 still gives relevant information on the general ability of the formulation of detecting wind speed variations  
388 over the rotor disk.

389 Based on the previously illustrated analysis, wind velocity estimates can be interpreted as flow samples at  
390  $2/3R$ . Therefore, for the lower sector, estimates are compared to the time-shifted and linearly interpolated  
391 anemometer measurements at  $2/3R$  below hub height (i.e., 27 m from the ground). Similarly, the upper  
392 sector reference is obtained by interpolating the measurements at  $2/3R$  above hub height (i.e., 53 m from the  
393 ground).

394 Figure 5 shows a time history of the estimated SEWS for a period of 100 s. It should be noted that the  
395 distance between met-mast and wind turbine clearly implies an approximation due to the adoption of Taylor's  
396 frozen turbulence hypothesis. In addition, it should also be remarked that the SEWS represents a spatial  
397 mean wind speed, while anemometers only provide point-wise measurements. Nonetheless, considering these  
398 two limitations of the present comparison, the estimates follow reasonably well the trend of the met-mast  
399 anemometers. In particular, it appears that the estimates are capable of consistently detecting the right sign  
400 of the shear (in other words, whether the speed in the top quadrant is higher or not than in the lower one),  
401 and the correct overall behavior of this quantity.

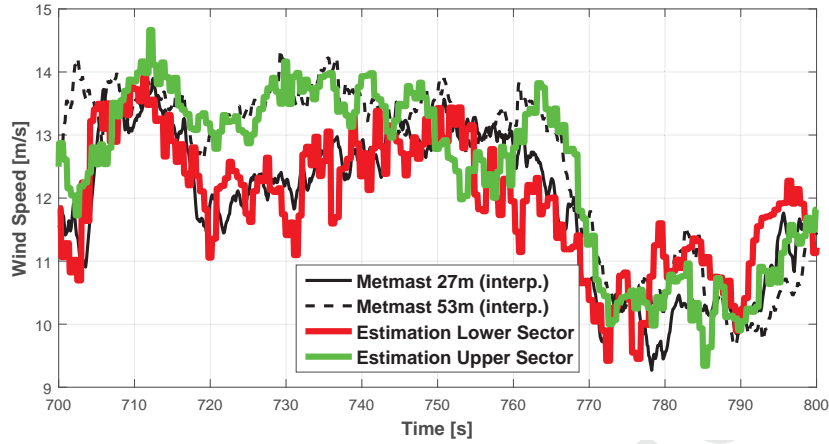


Figure 5: SEWS estimation based on NREL CART3 measurements of the bottom (red) and top (green) sectors. Interpolated and time-shifted met-mast measurements are shown as reference in black.

#### 4.2. Wake state estimation

The simple wind farm layout depicted in Fig. 6 was used for studying the ability of the proposed formulation in detecting the impingement on a rotor of the wake shed by an upstream wind turbine. Both machines are 3 MW HAWTs, identical to the ones used in the previous numerical study.

The longitudinal distance between the two wind turbines is four times the diameter of the rotor ( $4D$ ), which is a closely spaced configuration that might be representative of compact wind farms designed to reduce land occupation in onshore sites located in geographical areas of relatively high population density. The lateral distance of the two wind turbines is taken as a parameter, which is varied in order to realize different wake overlaps for a given fixed wind direction. When noted, the downstream wind turbine operates with a given misalignment angle  $\gamma$  with respect to the wind vector, which will probably be a relatively common mode of operation in the future within closely spaced wind farms. In fact, deliberate wind misalignment can be used for deflecting the wake away from downstream machines, thereby reducing interferences to the benefit of power output and loading. Tests conducted herein with a misaligned machine are meant to verify whether the wake state observer works also in this operating condition.

The wake of the upwind turbine is modeled by the superposition of a turbulent wind grid generated with `TurbSim`, and the first order solution of the wind speed deficit of the Larsen model (EWTSII model) [31]. Although this is only a rather crude and idealized behavior of a wind turbine wake, it still serves the purpose of generating a wind field that has different wind speed values and TIs over the rotor of the affected downstream wind turbine.

As an example of the wind fields generated this way, Fig. 7a shows for a random time instant the `TurbSim` wind grid obtained for a mean wind speed of 8 m/s, a 5% TI and a shear layer with exponent equal to 0.2.

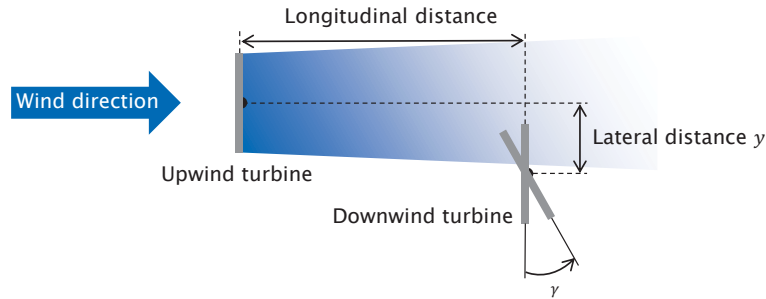


Figure 6: Configuration of the two wind turbines for the wake detection simulation study.

423 For the same instant of time, Fig. 7b shows the superposition of the turbulent wind with the Larsen model,  
 424 for a lateral distance between the two machines of  $0.5D$ .

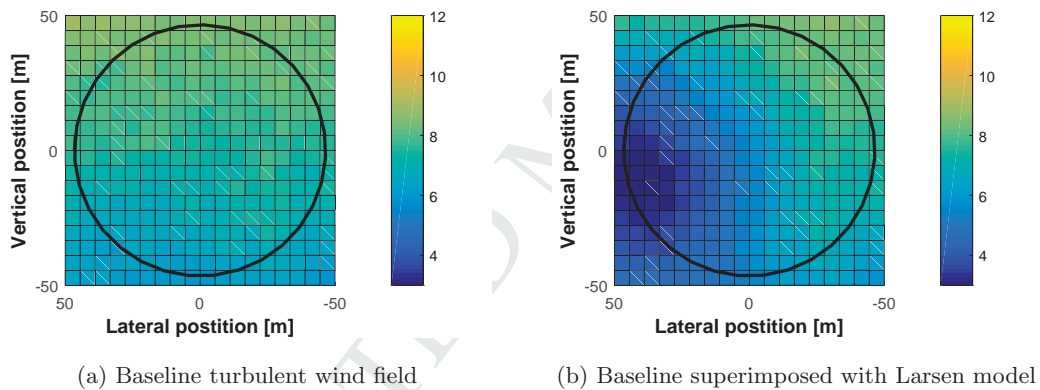


Figure 7: Turbulent wake model obtained by the superposition of Kaimal turbulence with Larsen model. Color bar in m/s; the downstream rotor circumference is indicated by a black circle.

425 Due to the wind speed deficit characterizing the wake core, turbulence inside the wake is increased,  
 426 as shown in Fig. 8. Figure 8a shows the 10-minute TI in percentage at each grid point without wake  
 427 superposition, whereas Fig. 8b shows the same quantity for the two superimposed wind fields. Clearly, this is  
 428 only a very crude model of the actual turbulent behavior of a wake, although here again it serves the purpose  
 429 of creating areas of different TI over the rotor disk.

#### 430 4.3. Wake interference detection

431 There may be multiple ways of detecting a wake impingement by analyzing the turbine response. For a  
 432 reliable wake detection a combination of various methods may be advisable, including geometric information

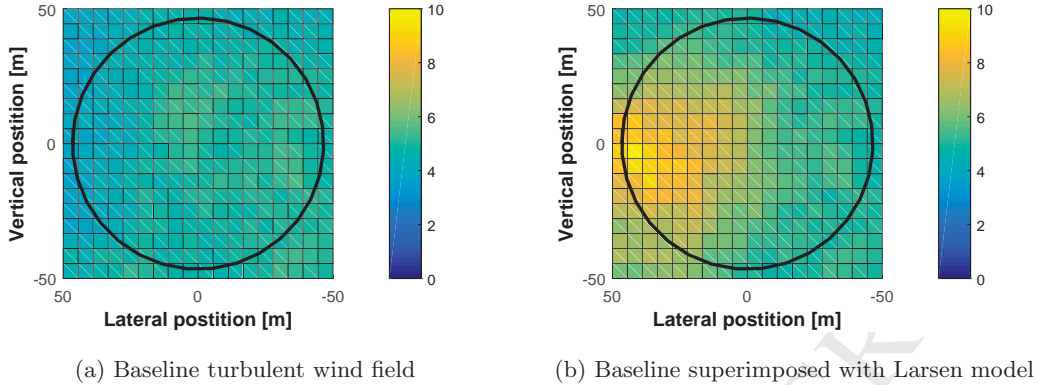


Figure 8: TI for the turbulent wake model obtained by the superposition of Kaimal turbulence with Larsen model. Color bar in percentage; the downstream rotor circumference is indicated by a black circle.

433 on the wind farm layout and the wind direction in addition to wind speed. While the general problem of  
 434 wake detection is very interesting and also quite important for wind farm control purposes, the attention is  
 435 restricted in this work to the sole use of the information obtained by the proposed estimation technique.

436 A detection based on SEWS is investigated first. To this end, Fig. 9 shows various wake interference  
 437 scenarios, defined by the lateral distance between the rotor centers of the upstream and downstream wind  
 438 turbines, for an ambient mean wind speed of 8 m/s, a TI of 5% and a shear layer with exponent equal to 0.2.  
 439 For each scenario, corresponding to a column subplot of the overall figure, the left and right sector wind speed  
 440 estimates are displayed as functions of time. Each column subplot also reports reference values computed  
 441 by spatially averaging the wind speed at each instant of time from the synthetic turbulent wind field. Such  
 442 reference values represent a ground truth with respect to which the estimates should be compared.

443 The figure clearly shows that in partial wake conditions ( $\pm 0.75D$ ,  $\pm 0.5D$  and  $\pm 0.25D$ ) the SEWS is, as  
 444 expected, smaller on the side of the rotor disk affected by the wake. This difference increases for increasing  
 445 overlap, suddenly dropping to zero when the downstream rotor is in full wake condition. Clearly, any wind  
 446 speed estimator can not readily distinguish between a full waked and a completely unwaked condition, al-  
 447 though wind direction and wind farm layout may come to the help in such a case. Interestingly, the plot also  
 448 shows that the estimates seem to follow quite well the ground truth, correctly identifying both the sign and  
 449 the magnitude of the wind speed imbalance over the two rotor sides.

450 Based on these observations, a simple approach to detect a wake interference condition is to calculate the  
 451 relative wind speed difference  $\delta_V$  between the two rotor sides, by using a moving averaged SEWS calculated  
 452 on the left and right quadrants:

$$\delta_V = \frac{\bar{V}_{SE, \text{left}} - \bar{V}_{SE, \text{right}}}{\bar{V}_{RE}}. \quad (17)$$

453 An indication of a left or right-sided wake impingement may be obtained by checking the sign of  $\delta_V$  and

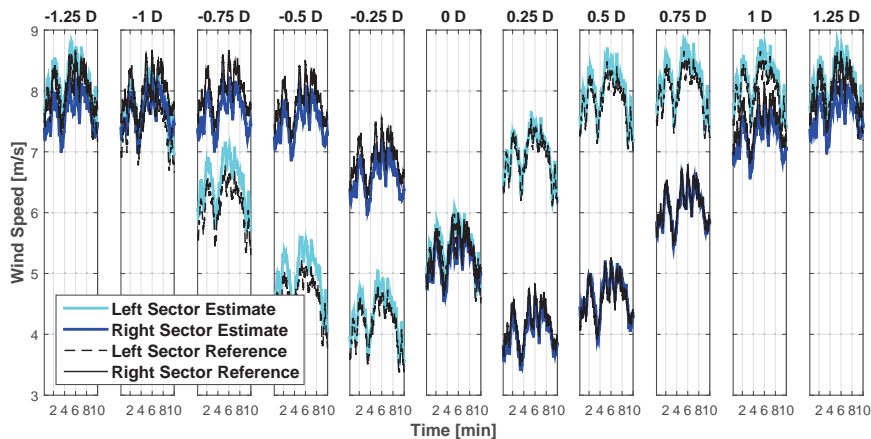


Figure 9: Estimated and reference (ground truth) sector wind speeds vs. time. Each column plot represents a different wake overlap, characterized by a different lateral distance between upstream and downstream rotor centers. Left sector SEWS: reference speeds shown in black dashed lines, estimates in cyan; right sector SEWS: reference speeds in black solid lines, estimates in blue.

454 comparing its absolute value with a threshold. It was observed that slightly different left and right thresholds  
 455 could be used for better detection performance, on account of the non-symmetric lateral behavior of the rotor,  
 456 due to its spin direction.

457 In turbulent unwaked wind conditions, speed fluctuations due to the passage of large eddies will generate  
 458 significant lateral shears, which may be wrongly interpreted as the presence of a wake by the impingement  
 459 detector. Similarly, in waked conditions, large turbulent fluctuations may temporarily hide the presence of  
 460 the wake speed deficit. These problems may be alleviated by computing  $\delta_V$  not with the instantaneous SEWS  
 461 values, but with moving averages computed on a sufficiently long window of time to filter out the effects of  
 462 turbulent fluctuations. Clearly, excessively long time windows would have the effect of inducing long delays  
 463 and missing wake motions due to meandering.

464 In support of the information coming from wind speed imbalances, also TI can be used as an additional  
 465 indicator of wake interference. Similarly to the previous plot, Fig. 10 shows the ground truth and estimated  
 466 SETI values for different degrees of overlap between the two machines. Here again it appears that the proposed  
 467 estimator is capable of appreciating the differences in TI over the two sides of the rotor. In addition, these  
 468 estimates correlate quite well with their reference values. Consequently, one could here again define a relative  
 469 TI difference  $\delta_{TI}$ , exactly as done for the wind speed. Checking the value and magnitude of this additional  
 470 indicator could be used for reinforcing the information obtained by computing the wind speed imbalance, in  
 471 the interest of a hopefully more robust and reliable indicator.

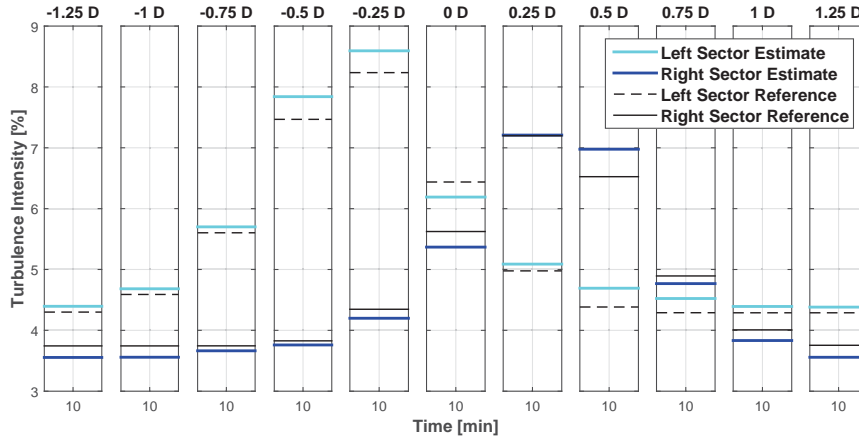


Figure 10: Estimated and reference (ground truth) sector TIs vs. time. Each column plot represents a different wake overlap, characterized by a different lateral distance between upstream and downstream rotor centers. Left sector SETI: reference TIs shown in black dashed lines, estimates in cyan; right sector SETI: reference TIs in black solid lines, estimates in blue.

#### 4.4. Simulation studies

In the following, several wake interference scenarios were realized with the wind and turbine models described above. Wake detection was based in all cases on the  $\delta_V$  parameter, therefore looking for an imbalance of the SEWS on the right and left quadrants of the rotor. The threshold in  $\delta_V$  used for discriminating a wake interference from a non-interference case was set to 0.12, while the time span of the moving average window to 60 sec. Wind conditions also included a power-law vertical wind shear  $\kappa$  and downwind turbine yaw misalignment  $\gamma$ , to investigate the effects of these parameters on the detection quality.

Figure 11 shows results obtained for four different shear and turbulence intensity combinations. For different overlaps, each plot displays the detection ratio on the right quadrant (dark blue bars pointing upwards), and on the left one (light blue bars pointing downwards). The detection ratio is defined as the ratio of the number of time instants when the wake is detected, divided by the total number of time instant in a sequence of a given length (here chosen to be 10 min). For each combination of parameters, one single 10-minute sequence was used, as additional realizations lead only to marginal changes in the results.

For the cases of low ambient turbulence (TI=5%) with two different vertical shear layers, results show that a wake can be always detected for overlaps between around  $0.25D$  and  $0.75D$  on either side of the disk. For the cases characterized by higher ambient turbulence (TI=10%), the wake is not always perfectly detected due to a faster wake recovery, which in turn leads to a smaller wake deficit. In fact, the wake model predicts a maximum deficit in the wake center of around only 2.5 m/s. That deficit is not as large as in the low turbulence case, where the maximum deficit is about 4.5 m/s. This smaller deficit creates a smaller difference between SEWS on the two rotor sides, in turn decreasing the detection quality. However, the detection ratio

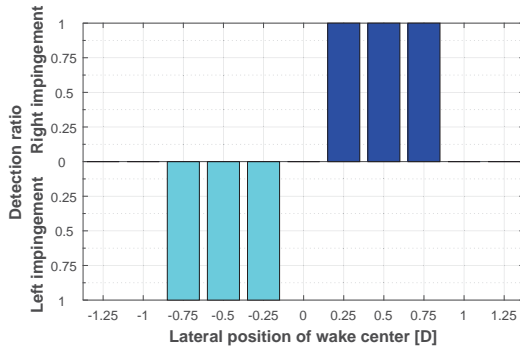
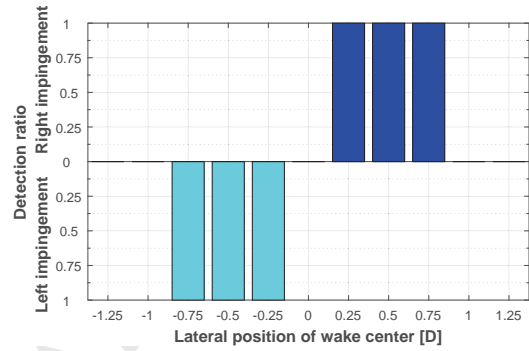
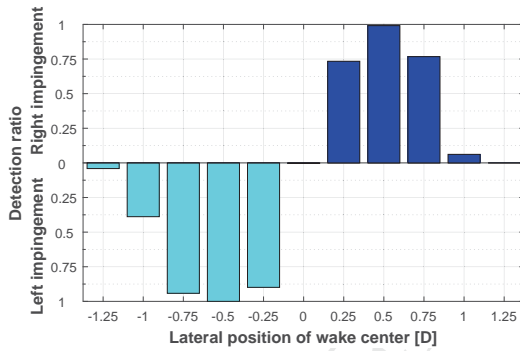
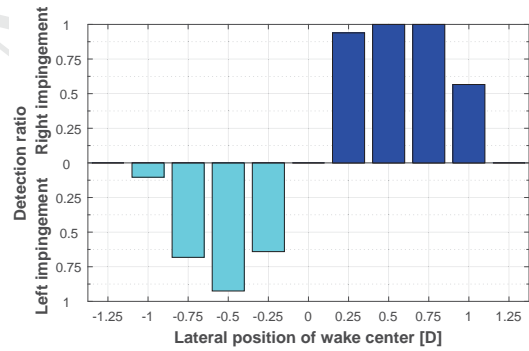
(a)  $\kappa = 0.0$ ,  $\gamma = 0$  deg, TI=5%(b)  $\kappa = 0.2$ ,  $\gamma = 0$  deg, TI=5%(c)  $\kappa = 0.0$ ,  $\gamma = 0$  deg, TI=10%(d)  $\kappa = 0.2$ ,  $\gamma = 0$  deg, TI=10%

Figure 11: Wake state detection based on SEWS estimation for varying wake overlap, for an 8 m/s ambient wind speed and different vertical shear and ambient TI.

remains sufficiently high for all conditions between  $0.25D$  and  $0.75D$ . It also appears that, although false negatives are clearly present, false positives are typically not. Improvement are foreseeable by scheduling both threshold and moving average window size as functions of ambient parameters, at the expense of an increased overall complexity of the algorithm implementation and use.

Figure 12 shows results for one single wind condition (vertical shear exponent equal to 0.2,  $TI=5\%$ ), but for four different yaw misalignment angles of the downstream wind turbine ( $\gamma=\pm 10^\circ$  and  $\pm 20^\circ$ ). These conditions are meant to represent situations when the downstream wind turbine is actively redirecting its wake away from a machine located further downstream, using some suitable control strategy. In all cases the detection quality is similar to the non-misaligned case reported previously. This can be explained by the fact that the SEWS of the two lateral sectors are little affected by wind direction.

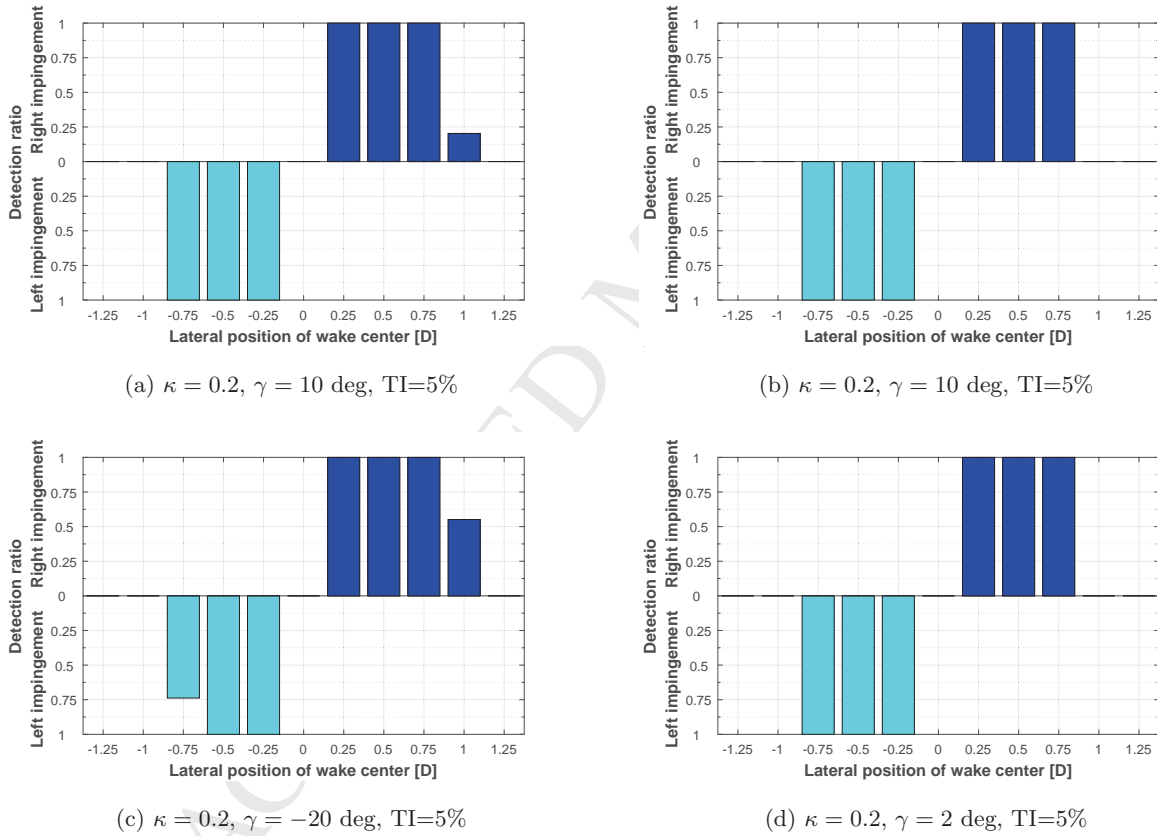


Figure 12: Wake state detection based on SEWS estimation for varying wake overlap and different misalignment of the downstream wind turbine, for an 8 m/s ambient wind speed, vertical shear exponent equal to 0.2 and  $TI=5\%$ .

Next, a case characterized by a meandering wake was considered. In order to approximate such a case, the



503 lateral distance  $y$  between wake and turbine center was varied in time according to the following expression:

$$y = 1D(\sin(2\pi ft) - 1), \quad (18)$$

504 where  $f$  is the meandering frequency. Accordingly, the resulting wake will oscillate between an unwaked state  
 505 ( $y = -2D$ ) to a fully waked one ( $y = 0D$ ). In total, 28 wake oscillations with a frequency of  $f = 0.05$  Hz were  
 506 analyzed, for an ambient mean wind speed of 8 m/s, TI of 5% and a vertical shear layer exponent  $\kappa = 0.1$ .  
 507 In this scenario, it is important to ensure a fast detection in order to capture wake motions. To this end, the  
 508 detection threshold was raised to 0.2 and the moving average filter was eliminated. This same combination of  
 509 parameters yields good results also in the low turbulence conditions analyzed earlier. The resulting detection  
 510 ratio is displayed in Fig. 13.

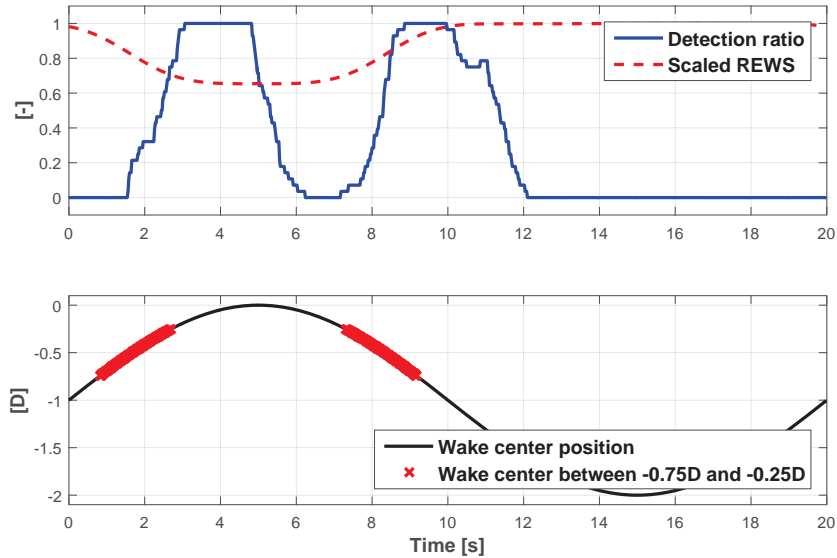


Figure 13: Upper subplot: detection ratio (blue line) for the meandering wake problem, and scaled REWS (dashed red line), as an average over 28 cycles. Lower subplot: wake center positions vs. time over one cycle.

511 The lower subplot shows the oscillating wake center. Positions between  $-0.75D$  and  $-0.25D$  are marked in  
 512 red, since within that range a correct wake state detection is typically possible, as previously shown. The  
 513 upper subplot shows the scaled mean REWS, using a dashed red line. This quantity was computed on the  
 514 wind grid, and clearly exhibits a drop when a significant wake overlap is present.

515 The same upper plot also shows the detection ratio, using a solid blue line, which indicates that a left-  
 516 sided wake impingement is detected twice throughout a full meandering cycle. When the wake center is far  
 517 outside of the rotor disk, a wake impingement is never detected, so that there are no false positives. The  
 518 first detection peak refers to the entrance of the wake on the rotor disk, while the second one to its exit,

519 both times on the left side of the rotor disk. The gap between these two peaks corresponds to the full wake  
520 condition, realized when the wake is exactly aligned in front of the downstream wind turbine. This situation  
521 could be perhaps detected by comparing the REWS on the upstream and downstream wind turbines, as well  
522 as considering the alignment of their connecting line with the wind direction. Comparing the detection rate  
523 with the wake center position, a delay of about 2 seconds can be observed. This time delay corresponds  
524 to approximately  $1/3$  of a rotor revolution, and it is due to the fact that a new estimate of the SEWS is  
525 realized only once a blade leaves a sector.

## 526 5. Conclusions and outlook

527 This work has presented the formulation of a new method to estimate the wind speed inflow at the rotor  
528 disk of a wind turbine. The proposed method falls within the general area of wind sensing, where the whole  
529 rotor is turned into a sensor. By using measurements of the rotor response, in this case in the form of blade  
530 loads, the response is inverted to estimate the wind conditions. If load sensors are available on a wind turbine,  
531 for example to enable load-driven control, the present method does not require any additional hardware and  
532 it amounts to a simple software upgrade.

533 The proposed approach uses the cone coefficient, which captures the zeroth-harmonic bending of the  
534 blades, to infer the wind speed by means of a Kalman filter. When loads from all rotor blades are used  
535 together, a rotor-equivalent wind speed can be estimated. Simulation and experimental results shown here  
536 indicate that this method compares favourably with the well known approach based on the power coefficient.  
537 Furthermore, it also appears that the time resolution is sufficient to successfully estimate the associated RETI  
538 and REILS.

539 However, differently from other wind sensing approaches, the proposed formulation has also the ability of  
540 sensing variations of the wind speed over the rotor disk. In fact, by using the bending moment measured on  
541 each blade individually, one can obtain local estimates of the wind speed. These estimates were here averaged  
542 over four rotor quadrants, to yield sector-equivalent wind speed measurements.

543 The knowledge of areas of different local wind speeds over the rotor disk can be used to infer a lack of  
544 uniformity of the wind field. In particular, it was shown with the help of experimental field test data that  
545 the method is capable of observing the different wind speeds that characterize the top and bottom quadrants  
546 of the rotor, on account of the vertical shear profile.

547 As an even more interesting application, the paper considered also the detection of the impingement of  
548 the wake shed by an upstream wind turbine. Since a wake is characterized by a speed deficit and an increased  
549 TI, a partial wake overlap can in principle be detected by measuring speed and TI on the left and right  
550 quadrants of the rotor. Simulation results indicate that this is indeed possible with the proposed approach.  
551 In fact, studies conducted with a high-fidelity aeroservoelastic model of a wind turbine interacting with a

552 turbulent wake model have shown the general ability of the present method in detecting the presence of a  
553 partial wake overlap, even in the presence of wake meandering.

554 The proposed idea is being further investigated along different lines of research. From a validation point  
555 of view, the method is being demonstrated with the help of wind tunnel tests conducted with aeroelastically  
556 scaled models. Full-scale experiments with LiDAR measurements of waked conditions should become available  
557 soon, hopefully enabling a first verification in the field. Additionally, the scaled experimental facility is being  
558 used for exploiting the proposed method at the wind farm control level, where it is being used to trigger a  
559 left or right deflection of the upstream wake, based on where the wake impingement is detected. The method  
560 is also being used to improve the quality of the estimates produced by a reduced order flow model, used for  
561 closed-loop model-based wind farm control. Finally, the vertical resolution provided by the use of sectors is  
562 being exploited for the identification of the presence of low level jets in the atmosphere.

### 563 Acknowledgements

564 The authors gratefully acknowledge Dr. Paul Fleming (NWTC, NREL) for having provided the CART3  
565 experimental data.

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## Research Highlights

- New method to estimate wind speed based on load measurements, turns the rotor into a wind sensor.
- Differently from other methods, the present approach can detect *local* wind speed variations over the rotor disk.
- The paper demonstrates the new method for the estimation of the vertical wind shear and the impingement of the wake of an upstream wind turbine.
- The new wake detector is shown to reliably estimate the wake location over the rotor disk, showing promise for its use in wind turbine and wind farm control.