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RESULTS FROM NUMERICAL SIMULATION AND FIELD TESTS OF AN OCEANOGRAPHIC BUOY POWERED BY SEA WAVES

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ABSTRACT

The paper presents analysis of the MBARI wave-energy converter designed for oceanographic applications and is intended to generate 300-500 W of electrical power on average. The prototype consists of a small draft cylindrical buoy connected to a submerged anti-heave plate by a hydraulic power take-off system and cable. Engineering details and design of the system has been based on the results of a detailed time-domain hydrodynamic analysis of the system, discussed here. The performance of the prototype is assessed with respect to the submerged plate size/added-mass and the effectiveness of latching schemes. Additionally, results for the power extraction are statistically compared with measurements performed during field tests in Monterey Bay, California. During these tests performance measurements were logged by the buoy and wave data was recorded by a measurement buoy positioned 1 km from the

deployment site. This allows the comparison of actual performance to model predictions run for the sea state present during testing. In general, the results of the numerical model match fairly well the data acquired in the MBARI buoy field testing. ~~Latching schemes have been show to be ineffective for two-body systems of this size. The proposed causal latching schemes have been show to be ineffective for this type wave-energy converters.~~

1 Introduction

MBARI has been developing a wave-energy conversion buoy specifically for powering oceanographic instrumentation, the resulting device is a two-body point absorber in which a power take-off device connects a surface buoy and a submerged anti-heave plate (see figure 1). The relatively low average power level requirements (300-500 Watts) and small

size make this system distinct from the larger wave-energy conversion devices currently being explored for utility power applications. Nevertheless it is still important to develop as much power as possible from these systems with respect to their size and weight. The work presented here is the result of a collaboration between MBARI and IDMEC intended to utilize the computational tools present at IDMEC to explore advanced control schemes (latching in particular) to increase the amount of power captured by the MBARI system. Up to the point of this work the MBARI system had been deployed only with a linear damping scheme in which the power take-off machinery exerts a force that is proportional to the relative speed between the surface buoy and submerged plate.

Latching control is a technique of phase control developed by Budal and Falnes [3,] and consists in latching the device in a fixed position, during certain intervals of the wave cycle, to approximately bring into phase the body velocity and the excitation force on the body. The advantage of this technique is that it does not require that the system power electronics return energy to the hydraulic system and could therefore be directly applied to the existing system. The disadvantage of this approach is that it is suboptimal and has only been demonstrated to be effective in certain cases of two-body point absorbers.

Previous work at IDMEC [1] had explored the utility of latching in larger two-body systems and shown that an increase in total power capture can be obtained when the inertia of the submerged element is significantly larger than the mass of the surface expression. This work was undertaken to determine specifically if a similar result applied to the small scale system.

Applying phase control by latching to the present system faces some difficulties:

- During the latched period, the pair floater/plate cannot be kept fixed, unlike the case of a single body reacting against a fixed reference, reducing latching performance. This situation would be expected to significantly improve if the inertia of the second body (plate mass plus added mass) increases.
- The calculation of the latched period has to be performed in real-time, as function of the current sea wave conditions.
- No latching while the cable is under compression forces (slack cable).
- In order to limit brake forces on the system, the braking should occur approximately when the relative velocity between floater and the anti-heave plate is zero ($\dot{x}_r = 0$)

The analysis undertaken and presented here has shown that at the small scale of this system, latching techniques only

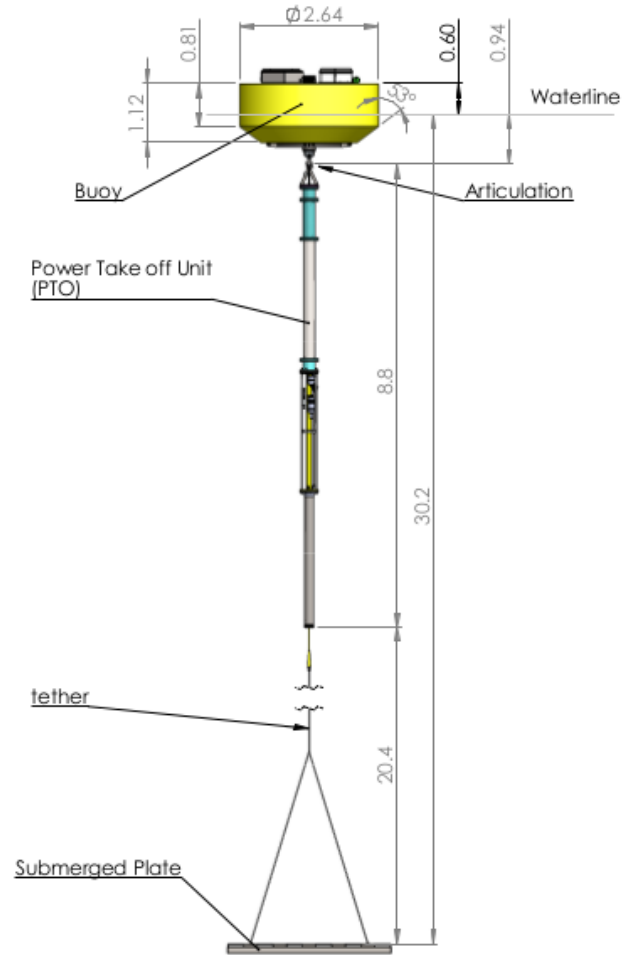


FIGURE 1: View of the MBARI's Wave-Power Buoy. Dimensions are in meters.

start to increase the power capture at inertia ratios (submerged element inertia to buoy mass) that are above 25:1, ratios that are impractically large for this system. This is in contrast to the findings of [1] that show an increase in power capture for inertia ratios of 5:1 for the larger systems. As such the latching scheme was not implemented in the MBARI device but instead a test deployment was done with a larger plate added-mass than had been previously tested since the analysis suggested a strong relationship between that parameter and total energy capture.

2 System Description

The wave-energy conversion device considered here consists of a cylindrical surface buoy connected to a submerged plate, 30 m below the surface, by an electro-hydraulic power take-off system, and is illustrated in figure 1.

The surface expression is typical of oceanographic systems and houses batteries, system control and power electronics, batteries, and other instrumentation. The physical parameters of the surface buoy are:

- diameter: $D = 2.5$ m;
- water-plane area: $S = 4.9$ m²;
- mass (with power take-off system attached): $m = 1520$ kg;
- displacement (with PTO system and plate attached): 2.29 m³;

The submerged plate is a welded steel frame with aluminum plates that can be arranged to provide different drag and added mass characteristics without significantly changing the submerged plates mass. The system has been deployed with several configurations of the submerged plate, allowing performance sensitivity to various parameters to be evaluated. The drag coefficient and added mass values are obtained as estimates from both numerical analysis using CFD and WAMIT as well as full-scale lab tests. For extended deployments the submerged plate is anchored to the sea-floor with a chain-catenary mooring, it is not believed this mooring is a significant factor in the dynamics of the system because the mean tensions in the system vary little with changing sea, wind, and current conditions. i.e. the mooring loads are small compared to the inertial and drag forces the submerged plate exerts on the surface buoy through the power take-off system. The physical properties of the submerged plate used in the field test presented here are:

- area: $A_p = 13.7$ m²;
- mass: $m_3 = 972$ kg;
- added mass: $A_3^\infty = 10140$ kg;
- drag coefficient: $C_D = 1.9$.

The power-take-off device is the most complicated part of the system and consists of an electro-hydraulic device as a damping element and a pneumatic spring element arranged in parallel. The damping component is a hydraulic cylinder plumbed directly to a hydraulic motor (bent-axis piston type). The hydraulic motor is coupled directly without a gearbox to a permanent magnet motor operating as a generator. There is no accumulator in the system and the generator and hydraulic motor stop and reverse direction with each oscillation of the power take-off ram. The small size and low inertia of the system allows this and while some oscillations are present due to the compressibility of the hydraulic oil reacting against the rotational inertia when the system is lightly loaded, these oscillations are heavily damped at all loadings that are used in the system. The absence of an accumulator simplifies the system and eliminates a loss element, but does result in a wide range of voltage and power

levels that the power electronics must convert to battery bus voltages. Presently this is accomplished by DC-DC converters in the system, with any excess power being shunted to a resistive load dump to maintain a load on the system at all times. This arrangement allows for simple electronic control of the load presented to the wave-energy converter. The mechanical-to-electrical efficiency of this power take-off device has been measured to be between 65 and 75 percent, depending on the condition of the seals and the care with which the long hydraulic rams are aligned. Like all hydraulic systems, efficiency is better at high damping levels (and subsequent high oil pressures). The numerical modeling below characterizes the systems ability to capture wave energy as a function of this damping force and it is seen to be fairly insensitive to this value, allowing the hydraulic system to be operated at it's most efficient point in almost all conditions. The hydraulic PTO system has the following characteristics:

- bore diameter 6.35 cm (2.5 in);
- rod diameter 3.81 cm (1.5 in);
- total stroke: 2 m;
- maximum damping force is approximately 20000 N (set by a pressure relief valve).

The spring element in the system consists of a second piston working against two volumes of compressible gas, the gas pressures and volumes are selected to create a nearly linear spring of appropriate spring constant which is not adjustable. The characteristics of this element are:

- Upper chamber
 - absolute pressure: 5.170 bar;
 - chamber volume: 0.036 m³.
- Lower chamber
 - absolute pressure: 8.690 bar;
 - chamber volume: 0.062 m³.

The control system on board the buoy measures a range of parameters at 10Hz throughout the deployments. In addition to logging this data and transmitting it to shore in near real-time, the damping force exerted is controlled electronically as a function of piston speed (or any other parameter) at a rate of 10Hz. The following data is recorded:

- piston position;
- force between buoy and PTO system;
- pressure and temperature sensors to monitor spring gas conditions;
- pressure sensor to monitor sea pressure at top of the PTO (buoy draft);
- 6 DOF GPS aided IMU to measure the buoy motions and location;

TABLE 1: MBARI's Wave-Power Buoy system characteristics used in the simulations

Floater		Power Take-off						Hydraulics		Generator
D	A_∞^1	p_{pu}	l_{pu}	S_{pu}	p_{pl}	l_{pl}	S_{pl}	A_{oil}	D_m	J_{gen}
[m]	[kg]	[bar]	[m]	[m ²]	[bar]	[m]	[m ²]	[m ²]	[m ³ /rad]	[kg/m ³]
2.5	2804.87	8.690	2.868	0.0126677	8.69	0.012677	0.0115276	0.000887	0.77986×10^{-6}	1.13×10^{-3}

$$T_m = D_m \Delta p_{oil}, \quad (8)$$

where D_m is the volumetric displacement of the motor. The theoretical volume flow rate of the motor is related to the cylinder motion (actual volume flow rate) through

$$D_m \omega_m = A_{oil} (\dot{x}_2 - \dot{x}_1). \quad (9)$$

The generator motion is modeled using

$$J \dot{\omega}_m = T_m - T_{gen}, \quad (10)$$

which yields

$$\frac{J A_{oil}}{D_m} (\ddot{x}_2 - \ddot{x}_1) = D_m \Delta p_{oil} - T_{gen}, \quad (11)$$

where the generator torque is given by the control relationship

$$T_{gen} = C_{gen} (\dot{x}_2 - \dot{x}_1), \quad (12)$$

and C_{gen} is a user defined constant.

Eq. (11) can be written in a more appropriate form for the computations

$$F_M = m_J \ddot{x}_2 - m_J \ddot{x}_1 + F_{gen}, \quad (13)$$

where $m_J = J A_{oil}^2 D_m^{-2}$ and $F_{gen} = A_{oil} T_{gen} D_m^{-1}$.

3.4 Submerged plate

The motion of the submerged plate is given by

$$(m_3 + A_3^\infty) \ddot{x}_3 = F_{cable} - F_{mg,3} - F_{drag}, \quad (14)$$

where $F_{mg,3} = m_3 g$, $F_{drag} = \frac{1}{2} \rho \dot{x}_3 |\dot{x}_3| A_p C_D$ and A_p is the plate area.

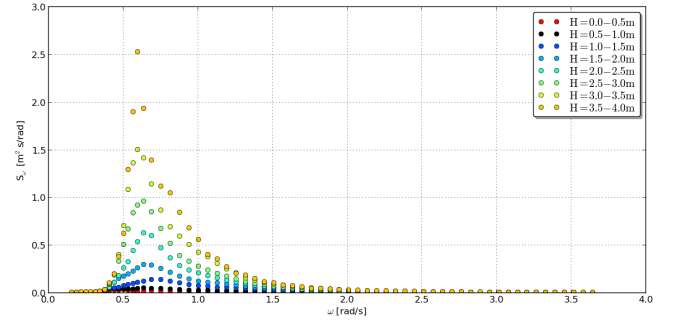


FIGURE 3: May sea spectra.

3.5 Numerical solution

The numerical model comprises the system of equations (1), (5), (13) and (14). Since latching implies a non-linear process, the equations of motion must be solved in the time-domain. In this paper, we use the high-order numerical method proposed in [1] for the solution of the system of equations. This approach is based on a continuous polynomial representation of the solution whose coefficients are computed using a continuous least-squares approximation. A six-order polynomial was used for the computation of the bodies' positions. The convolution integral is calculated using the continuous polynomial approximation of the velocity as computed by the least-squares method. This constitutes an important advantage of the proposed method in comparison to the usual high-order Runge-Kutta methods, where the convolution integral is computed with the trapezoidal rule which limits the overall accuracy of the solution to second-order. In the present approach, the convolution integral is computed using a Gauss-Legendre quadrature rule which results in a product of a matrix by a vector of instantaneous velocities.

The code has been successfully parallelized using the OpenMPI library to largely reduce the computational time. For the computations, each spectrum is assigned to one processor. The computations were performed at the IST cluster.

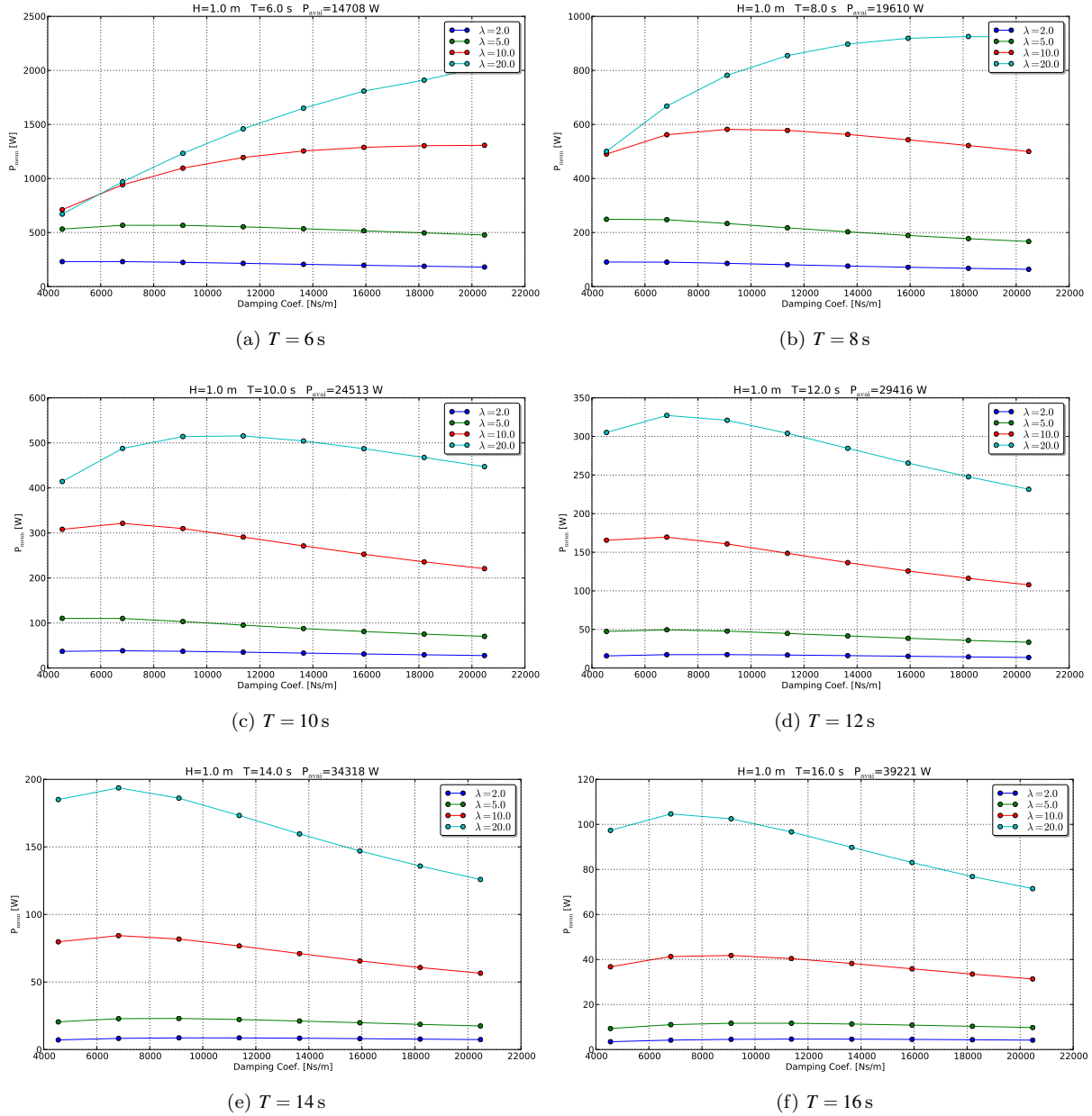


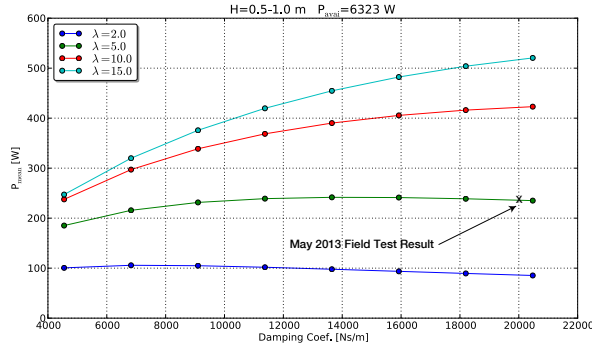
FIGURE 4: Mean power conversion, P_{mean} , as function of λ and C_{sys} , for regular waves with $H = 1.0$ m and different periods.

4 Numerical and Field Test Results

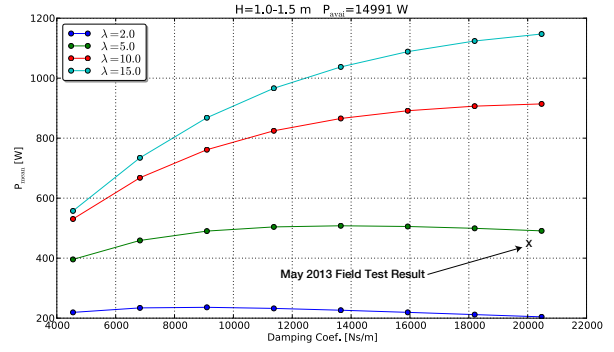
Two types of numerical studies have been performed, the first to evaluate the systems performance with various values of linear damping coefficient and submerged plate added mass. The second explores the effects of latching control schemes for this system at various values of submerged plate added mass. The submerged plate added mass is found to be an important parameter in both cases. Ad-

ditionally, results from field tests performed in May 2013 in Monterey bay are compared to the numerical predictions.

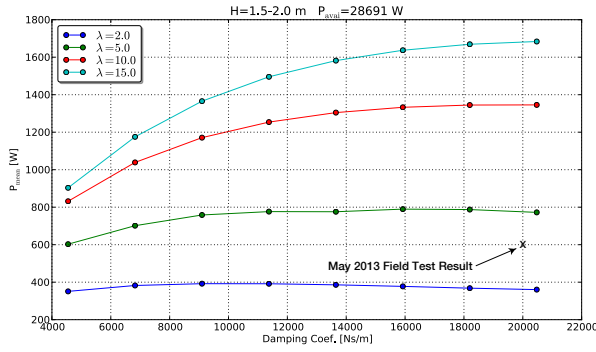
For the system characteristics shown in table 1, the extracted power from the wave energy converter was studied as a function of two main parameters: the system damping



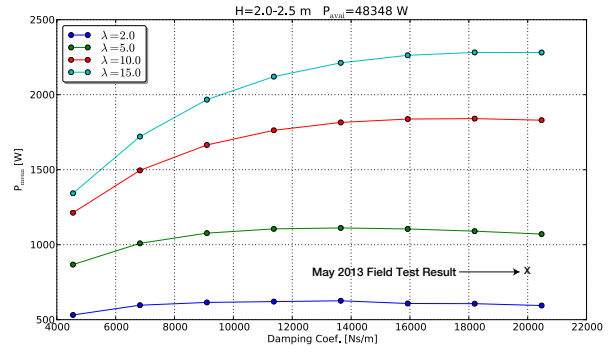
(a) $H = 0.5 - 1.0$ m



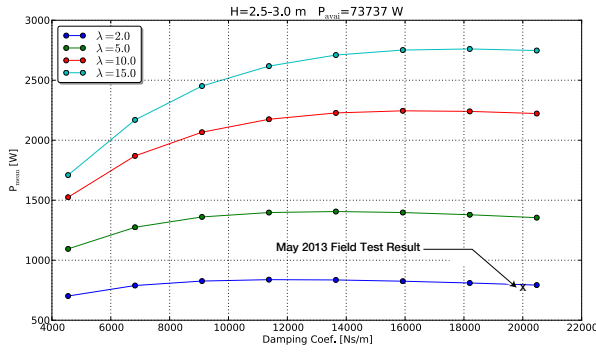
(b) $H = 1.0 - 1.5$ m



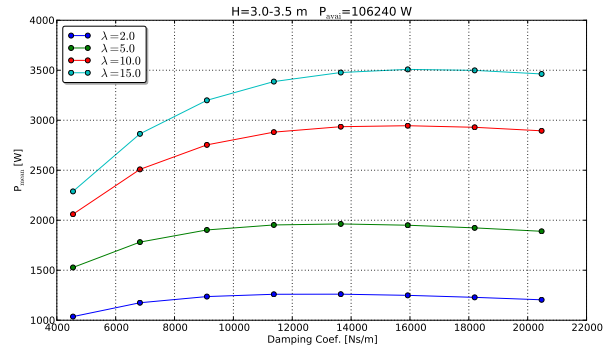
(c) $H = 1.5 - 2.0$ m



(d) $H = 2.0 - 2.5$ m



(e) $H = 2.5 - 3.0$ m



(f) $H = 3.0 - 3.5$ m

FIGURE 5: Mean power conversion, P_{mean} , as function of λ and C_{sys} , for each of the May spectra.

coefficient, defined as

$$C_{\text{sys}} = \frac{C_{\text{gen}} A_{\text{oil}}}{D_m}, \quad (15)$$

and the dimensionless plate added mass

$$\lambda = \frac{m_3 + A_3^\infty}{m_1}. \quad (16)$$

For regular waves, the available power is given by

$$P_{\text{avai}} = \frac{\rho g^2 H^2}{16\omega}. \quad (17)$$

Under linear water wave theory, the resulting free surface elevation time history for a spectrum is obtained as a

superposition of N frequency components

$$\eta(t) = \sum_{j=1}^N \Gamma(\omega_j) A_{\omega_j} \cos(\omega_j t + \phi_j), \quad (18)$$

with

$$A_{\omega_j} = \sqrt{2\Delta\omega_j S_{\omega,i}}, \quad (19)$$

$$\Delta\omega_j = (1 + \varpi_j) \Delta\omega, \quad (20)$$

$$\omega_j = \omega_{j-1} + 0.5 (\Delta\omega_j + \Delta\omega_{j-1}), \quad j = 2, \dots, N, \quad (21)$$

where ϕ_i is a phase constant equal to a random number between 0 and 2π , ϖ_j is a random number between 0 and 0.2 and $S_{\omega,i}$ is the frequency spectral density function. The inclusion of the perturbation ϖ_j has been shown to avoid repeating patterns appearing in the time records constructed from the superposition of frequency components ??.

The available power for a spectra is given by the weighted sum of the power of each sinusoidal wave

$$P_{\text{avai}} = \frac{\rho g^2}{4} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{A_{\omega,i}^2}{\omega_i}. \quad (22)$$

4.1 Linear Damping Behaviors

Figure 4 shows the numerically predicted power across a range of damping coefficients, inertia ratios (λ), and wave periods. The mean power conversion under regular waves was computed for several wave periods $T = 6, 8, 10, 12, 14$ and 16 s and a wave height of $H = 1.0$ m. The total simulation time considered was 1200 s with a time step of $\Delta t = 0.1$ s.

The reported average powers represent mechanical power and don't include inefficiencies in the mechanical to electrical conversion process. These basic results illustrate a strong dependence on the submerged plate added-mass, and a weak dependence on system damping coefficient. Even at the smaller inertia ratios, the predicted performance degrades only slightly for high values of the damping coefficient. This is important because as described above the hydraulic power-take-off device is most efficient at high loadings.

To estimate the power capture capabilities of the system in irregular waves, the numerical model was run with

a range of spectrum's that represented the expected conditions at the test deployment site. Figure 3 shows the characteristic spectra's used, these were derived from 5 years of measured data at the deployment site. All the calculations were performed assuming $N = 300$, $\omega_1 = 0.63$ rad/s and $\Delta\omega = 2.46/(N-1)$ rad/s, see Eqs. (18)-(21). Each measured spectra during the 5 years of May measurements represents the conditions during a half-hour period, and each has an associated significant wave height. All the measured spectra's for each range of significant wave-heights were averaged to create a representative spectra. Figure 5 shows the model predictions and includes a data point that shows the actual average power production measured during the at-sea tests performed in May 2013 with a non-dimensional plate added mass of $\lambda = 5$. Because the at-sea system logs electrical power, the data points shown on the plots are the measured electrical power divided by the power-take-off device efficiency factor that was measured in the lab, allowing comparison between the numerical and measured results. The agreement is quite good in the milder sea-states but degrades in larger waves, due possibly to a discrepancy between the sea states actually present during the test for each wave-height range and the representative spectra used to drive the model. A more accurate comparison would re-run the model for each and every sea-state encountered during the test and compare the predicted versus measured power production for each half-hour spectra integration period. This has not been done at this point but the efficiency of the numerical scheme presented above makes this possible.

```
switch (latch_stage) {
case 0:
// If oil pressure crosses zero falling then initiate timers
//
if( dp_oil(0) > dp_oil(Delta_tau) and dp_oil(Delta_tau) < 0.0 ) {
    UnlatchTimer.Trigger(t, sys.t_unl);
    LatchTimer.Trigger(t, sys.t_lat);
    LatchStage = 1;
}
break;
case 1:
// If the unlatched timer has elapsed then the system
// is unlatched
if( UnlatchTimer.Elapsed(t) ) {
    LatchStage = 2;
    IsLatched = false;
}
break;
case 2:
// If relative velocity is zero and the secondary timer has
// elapsed then
// latch the system.
//
// The secondary timer is used to avoid spurious
// latching orders due to oscillations in the cable.
//
if( dx_r(0) * dx_r(n_tau - 1) <= 0.0 and dx_r(n_tau - 1) < 0.0
    and LatchTimer.Elapsed(t) ) {
    LatchStage = 0;
    IsLatched = true;
}
}
```

FIGURE 6: Stages of the latching algorithm written in C++. The code is executed once at the end of each time step.

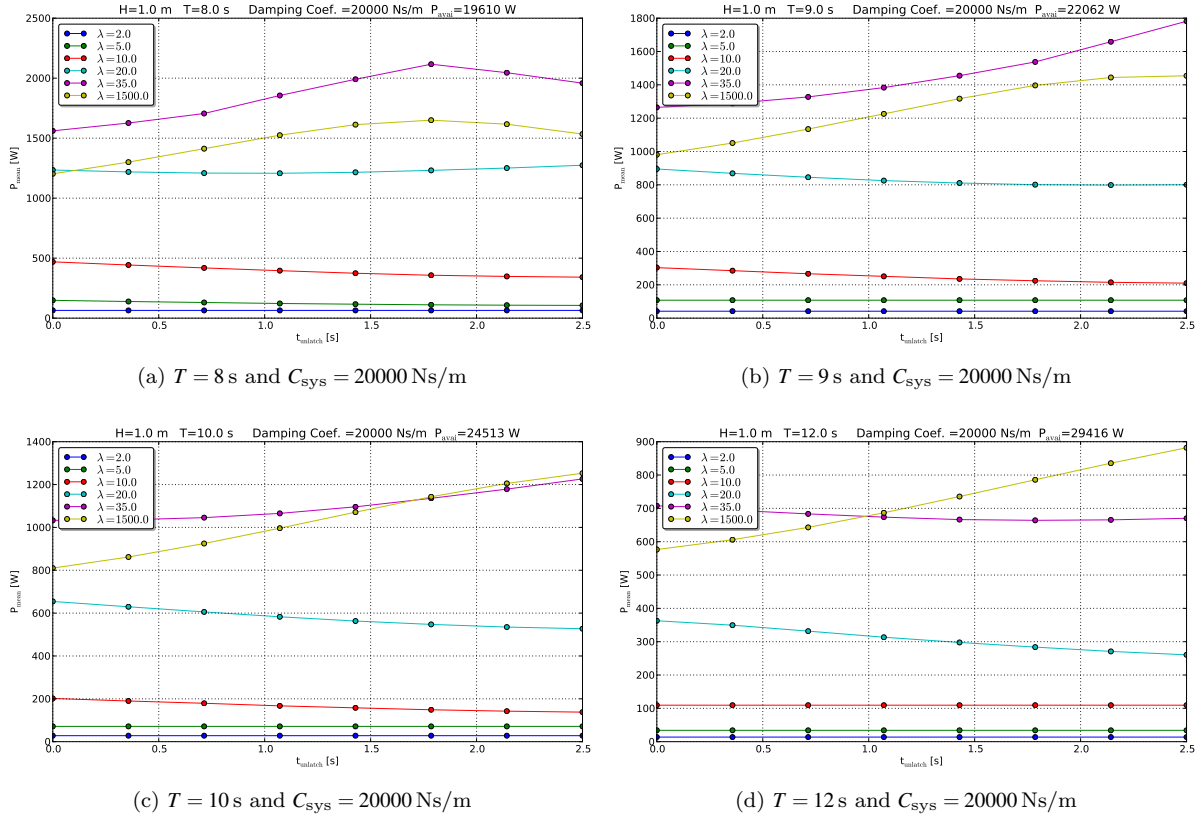


FIGURE 7: Mean power conversion, P_{mean} , using latching control as function of λ and unlatched time interval, t_{unlatch} , for regular waves with $H = 1.0$ m and different periods. $t_{\text{unlatch}} = 0$ corresponds to linear damping with no latching effects.

4.2 Latching Control Behaviors

Taking this into account the implemented latching algorithm is shown in Fig. 6 and it is based on [1]. The algorithm detects when the oil pressure crosses zero falling to start a timer that waits for a time period of t_{unlatch} to unlatch the system. Then, when the system has zero relative velocity between the buoy and the plate is latched again. To avoid spurious latching orders due to cable oscillations a secondary timer is triggered which disables latching orders immediately after unlatching.

Utilizing the numerical tools described above and the latching algorithm described, numerical results have been computed for regular waves and the mean power conversion results using phase control by latching are presented in Fig. 7 for regular waves with periods of $T = 8.0, 9.0, 10.0$ and 12.0 s. The total simulation time was 1200 s with a time step of $\Delta t = 0.005$ s.

Results for the system without latching are shown in Fig. 5 and demonstrate this scheme to be ineffective for this wave-energy converter, i.e. the latching algorithm tends to lower the average extracted power as the submerged plate

movement. Only for very high submerged plate added mass (very high λ) would latching start to be successful and these ratios are beyond what is practical to field. The results shown are computed for a damping coefficient of $C_{\text{sys}} = 20000$ Ns/m and similar behaviors were seen for other values of damping coefficient.

5 Conclusions

It is evident that the mean power extracted increases substantially with the λ coefficient, i.e. with the submerged steel plate added mass. For wave periods between 8 s and 16 s, the mean power curves present an optimal damping value, C_{sys} , although the total energy capture is not very sensitive to this parameter. The same analysis was performed for the spectra that represent the wave climate of May at the test site, see Fig. 5. As in regular wave results, the mean power extracted increases with plate added mass (λ). For the various sea states and λ curves, P_{mean} exhibits a “plateau” like behavior when increasing the damping coefficient, i.e. after a given threshold P_{mean} is weakly

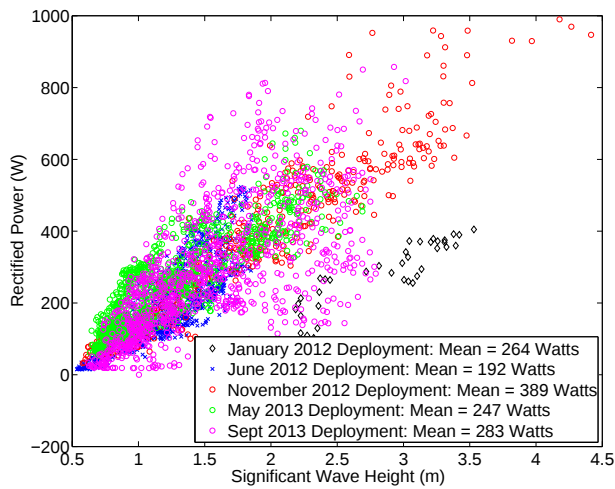


FIGURE 8: Hourly electrical power averages throughout five test deployments.

dependent of the damping coefficient.

Although the numerical simulations of latching did not lead to an increase in power capture in the prototype system, this work highlighted the importance of maximizing the submerged plate added mass as much as possible. Figure 8 shows hourly averages of the power captured for five different test deployments, in different system configurations and sea conditions. The May 2013 deployment had the largest submerged plate added mass and subsequently performed the best, especially at lower sea states. For this application of wave-energy, the low sea-state performance is particularly important to maintain high average powers, i.e. it is not hard to meet the power goals in higher sea-states and the total energy capture quickly becomes limited by on-board energy storage limitations. For this reason the low sea-state performance is the biggest factor limiting the average power this system can make available to systems it hosts. The lack of an increase in the measured results at higher sea states in figure 8 is likely due to the fact that the system sheds peak pressures in the hydraulic system through a pressure relief valve.

The future holds many ambitious projects for oceanographic data-acquisition systems. At-sea charging stations for autonomous underwater vehicles (AUVs) and au-

tonomous un-moored platforms for extended deployments are examples of such projects that are underway and that we will likely see come to fruition in the coming years. The development of energy harvesting techniques for these systems is important and we aim to advance those efforts. In particular, this work has illustrated that for small wave-energy harvesting systems of this type, the most expedient way to increase the power capture is to increase the size, mass, and drag of the submerged element of the system and utilize simple linear-damping power take-off devices. The limits to this approach become the large peak loads that result and the implications for storm survivability. The natural development path is towards compliant sub-surface heave plates that can exert large inertial and drag forces in moderate sea states but that can shed power in larger sea states.

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