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# ITTC Quality System Manual


## Recommended Procedures and Guidelines

### Guideline

## Uncertainty Analysis - Example for Horizontal Axis Turbines


- 7.5                    Process Control
- 7.5-02                Testing and Extrapolation Methods
- 7.5-02-07            Loads and Responses
- 7.5-02-07-03        Ocean Engineering
- 7.5-02-07-03.15    Uncertainty Analysis - Example for Horizontal Axis Turbines

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## Uncertainty Analysis - Example for Horizontal Axis Turbines

### 1. PURPOSE OF THE UNCERTAINTY ANALYSIS

The purpose of the guideline is to provide guidance on the application of uncertainty analysis to the small scale testing of a current turbine following the ITTC Procedure 7.5-02-07-03.9, “Model Tests for Current Turbines”. The small scale testing of a current turbine, while similar to the testing of a propulsion device or pump, focuses on the measurement of energy extraction from the flowing water in contrast to the addition of energy to a hydro environment by a pump or propulsor.

The uncertainty analysis should be performed following the ITTC Procedures (7.5-02-01-01, “Uncertainty Analysis in EFD, Uncertainty Assessment Methodology,” and 7.5-02-01-02, “Uncertainty Analysis in EFD, Guideline for Towing Tank Tests”. In addition, the ITTC procedures and guidelines relevant to the uncertainty in powering and resistance testing would be examples of the application of an uncertainty procedure to a marine turbomachinery device: ITTC Procedures (7.5-02-03-01.2, “Propulsion, Performance Uncertainty Analysis, Example for Propulsion Test,” 7.5-02-02-02, “Uncertainty Analysis, Example for Resistance Tests,” and 7.5-02-03-02.2, “Uncertainty Analysis Example for Open Water Test”.

### 2. INTRODUCTION


Unlike a standard powering test of a propulsor or pump, the measurement of the power extraction of a current turbine will be strongly dependent on the power take-off (PTO) used in the

model scale testing. The model scale PTO design may not be representative of the full scale PTO design and may add a level of uncertainty to the measurement of model scale power extraction and the prediction of full scale power extraction potential.

The device TRL (Technology Readiness Level) or stage of development can determine the type of testing performed, full device or sub-component testing as well as the degree or extent of the uncertainty analysis required. This then defines what analyses should be performed and recommended levels of uncertainty that should be targeted. In addition, the target audience of the test (Developer, Investor or Certifying body) can also dictate the level of uncertainty that needs to be achieved and what needs to be analysed. In general, the goal of a current turbine device is power extraction from the hydro environment. An uncertainty analysis of a turbine device must be focused on the uncertainty in the power measurement and all contributing sources of error in that measurement. Section 3 will provide a Summary of the Error Contributions that must be accounted for in a current turbine test.

It is expected that standard Design of Experiments, Montgomery (2012), uncertainty analysis methodologies defined by Coleman and Steele (1999), Taylor *et al* (1993) and the various ITTC procedures and guidelines referenced throughout this guideline will be followed relative to:

- a) performing the analysis,
- b) designing/planning the test program,
- c) interpreting the uncertainty analysis with respect to the device or sub-component performance, and

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- d) proper presentation of the uncertainty analysis results.

An example of an uncertainty analysis applied to a current turbine test is provided.

### 3. SUMMARY OF ERROR CONTRIBUTIONS

#### 3.1 Scaling

##### 3.1.1 Improper use of Scaling Laws

The improper use of scaling laws when designing model scale systems for small scale testing can contribute to errors in device function that can propagate into the uncertainty in power extraction. Geometric, dynamic and kinematic similitude should be attempted in the design of a small scale device for testing when possible. When complete similitude cannot be achieved due to governing physics of the device (Froude scaling vs Reynolds scaling) or manufacturing limitations, the impact of mixed scaling on the device performance and error contribution should be assessed. Improper scaling can arise in device sub-component function as well. Improper scaling of the sub-components of a device, such as wings or PTO, can also impart added errors due to improper function of the sub-component.

The primary/dominant scaling factor in the operation of a current turbine should be the Reynolds number ( $Re$ ) with the correct velocity and length reference used. The  $Re$  provides a measure of the state of the flow regime over the device (laminar, transitional or turbulent) and this flow regime can have significant impact on the steady and unsteady device performance.


##### 3.1.2 Impact of Re Scaling

The proper use of  $Re$  scaling can be important in device performance and the resulting errors that may be encountered in model scale testing. Different characteristics of a device may scale differently with  $Re$  depending on the velocity and length scale used. A device downstream wake and thus the overall drag of the device, important in testing mounting configurations, will typically scale on the incoming flow velocity and a representative macro-scale length such as the turbine diameter. The performance of a lifting surface such as a blade in a turbine device will scale on  $Re$  with different velocity and length scales.

The hydrodynamic power extraction component in a standard turbine device is the turbine. This is typically a component composed of lifting surfaces or wings designed to work against the flowing fluid. The performance of a lifting surface can be dependent on the local flow regime the device is operating in. In this application, the  $Re$ , defined by the local relative velocity over the surface and the blade chord, can determine the amount of lift generated on the surface by the flowing fluid. A blade geometry designed to operate efficiently in one flow regime may produce degraded performance in another flow regime.

In ducted turbines, the hydrodynamic function of the duct, if important to turbine function, may scale on a different length scale. Duct boundary layer transition will scale on the local stream wise length of the duct and can influence both the local pressure gradient along the duct and overall duct resistance.

The impact of improper  $Re$  scaling on uncertainty can be difficult to assess due to the complexities of laminar to turbulent transition and the relative impact of transition on a component function. For example, an open, multi-blade tur-

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bine (similar to a wind turbine), designed to operate in a turbulent  $Re$  regime will extract lower power than expected from a given inflow if tested in a lower laminar  $Re$  flow regime.

The magnitude of the reduced power extraction will be dependent of the blade design and may be difficult to quantify a-priori leading to biased interpretation of the small scale test results. This can manifest itself into a bias error in the full-scale prediction of power extraction and this error can be difficult to quantify in an uncertainty analysis for full scale prediction. It is recommended that  $Re$  scaling be adhered to in small testing to avoid these possible errors. In reality,  $Re$  scaling can be difficult to achieve in small scale model testing often leading to necessary flow speeds higher than can be accommodated in a facility, high model loads or facility related inflow and boundary constraints causing unscaled turbulent flow characteristics or flow blockage. It is important to recognize when  $Re$  scaling cannot be achieved and to what extent it is mismatched between model and full scale for proper interpretation of the model scale test results. The primary impact of improper  $Re$  scaling is the determination of the flow regime on the model – laminar, transitional or fully turbulent.

If the proper full-scale flow regime (laminar vs turbulent) cannot be maintained at model scale testing, techniques can be used to artificially trip the boundary layer on transition sensitive components to attempt to control the transition location on the component. This may be necessary in traditional turbine blade designs that have a laminar flow leading edge geometry over a substantial percentage of the leading edge chord. The performance characteristics of these blade designs are known to be sensitive to the location of transition on the blade and thus the blade chord  $Re_C$ . The application of a boundary trip on the blade leading edge can be used to control transition and produce blade performance characteristics at the lower test  $Re_C$  that


are more in line with those that would be achieved at higher  $Re_C$ . The ITTC Procedure 7.5-01-01-01 “Ship Models,” could be used as a guidance on the techniques used to design boundary layer trip features for control of boundary layer transition in model tests.

Transition control can also be compromised by facility operating characteristics. High free-stream turbulence levels or high frequency model vibration could initiate early transition on a laminar flow controlled surface. Care must be taken to identify, control and document facility/model operating characteristics such as free stream turbulence intensity levels or model vibration characteristics if these may be relevant to component boundary layer transition and overall device function.

#### 4. PTO SOURCES OF ERROR

The PTOs main purpose is to convert mechanical power extraction from the hydro device, turbine, to electrical energy. The PTO is a component system comprised of drive train and power generation. Model-scale device testing must include some form of PTO modelling. In tests of model current devices, the PTO can be represented by direct electrical power generation, by mechanical/hydraulic/pneumatic loading or by using a speed or torque control drive. In all cases, friction associated with bearings and seals must be carefully assessed in order to minimise the impact on the measured power.

Uncertainty due to the PTO can be characterised in two categories. The first is associated with the small scale device test and the second is in the prediction of scale up performance based on the small scale testing. Errors in small scale device tests typically result from frictional effects in bearings and seals, instrument use (resolution, accuracy, etc.) and scaling of the full scale PTO to model scale. The measure of power extraction requires that the mechanical

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device used to extract power from the flow is restricted in its motion such that the fluid has to work on the device to induce that motion. This requires the PTO provide a resistance to the mechanical device motion through some form of a mechanical, hydraulic or pneumatic load.

Scale up performance prediction uncertainty usually occurs when PTO design variants are introduced into the model scale relative to the full scale PTO.

#### 4.1 Model Errors

Model errors can be grouped into three categories: manufacturing, structural and functional.

##### 4.1.1 Manufacturing

Manufacturing errors result from the inability to properly scale a model due to manufacturing limitations. Typical examples include edge geometries, surface finish and in general manufacturing tolerances. The function of a laminar flow turbine blade can be dependent on both the leading edge geometry and the blade surface finish. If the full scale device is designed to have a critical leading edge radius or a tight surface finish, the model scale must have appropriately scaled edge radius and surface finish. Both the leading edge geometry and the surface finish can have a strong impact on the location of boundary layer transition on the blade and this can impact blade performance. A model scale surface finish that is hydraulically rough at model scale but smooth at full scale can bias model scale testing due to differences in boundary layer characteristics over the device components.

Edge geometry and surface roughness can also impact flow shedding on components and flow induced vibration and noise. Careful analysis of the model scale geometry and flow regime over the model scale components must be


performed to assess any potential impact on model scale device performance.

Manufacturing tolerances may need to be relaxed at model scale due to manufacturing limitations. If a device has critical, tight clearances between components that could impact device performance, scaling these clearances down to model scale could result in difficulties in assembly or in maintaining these scaled clearances due to operational or thermal effects. A ducted turbine may have gap clearances defined to be in a specific range to optimise turbine performance in the field. Scaling these clearances down in a model scale may produce a rotor to duct fit that cannot be maintained during operation due to normal operating vibration/movement of the mating components or due to thermal expansion/contraction of the different mating components.

The scaling of tip gap flows in a ducted device can be sensitive to the physical gap size. Small gaps can increase the rotational resistance of the device due to increased viscous losses associated with the model scale gap flows. Large gaps can impact device performance through increasing the gap bleed flow and reducing turbine blade lift over the outer 10% span of the blade due to increased blade tip flow leakage. These flow induced characteristics due to improper gap scaling can introduce a bias errors in the power production of the device, overall device loading/drag and component loading such as drive shaft torque.

Assessing the impact of manufacturing limitations on model performance and quantifying the level of bias error that can be introduced can be difficult. Experience and good engineering judgement may be the only approach to quantifying a level of uncertainty or error in these situations. Computational techniques may be able to be used to bracket a level of error due to surface finish discrepancies. If surface finish is suspected to alter boundary layer transition on a



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model scale blade relative to that encountered on the full scale blade, computational modelling could be performed to assess blade performance (lift and drag) as a function of boundary layer transition location and surface roughness. Increased device drag or vibration of sub-components interfering with movement of mating components can increase shaft torque and bias power estimation. Vibrational effects can be difficult to assess in common tare or zeroing tests.

The bias errors that can be introduced by shaft seals and bearings at model scale can be addressed through proper tare testing. Typically, a rotating bare hub test can be performed to identify torque required to overcome frictional losses associated with the shaft bearings and seals. These torque estimates can then be used to correct the measured device torque for these frictional losses.

#### 4.1.2 Structural

Structural errors arise from improperly scaling the structural response of device components. This generally presents itself as improper deflection of components under load or improper mass distribution of components.

Structural similitude is the reproduction of the structures response to external load, for example hydro-elasticity. The non-dimensional Cauchy number ( $\rho U^2/E$ ) relates the influence of the flow inertial forces to the structural elastic forces. Here, the stiffness and stresses induced in an elastic structure through the interactions with the environment are desired to be reproduced. Clearly for “rigid” structures the elastic nature of the device response may not be dominant. However, introducing compliance into a small scale model of a rigid non-compliant device or sub-component can bias small scale performance testing.


Structural errors will often be introduced by improperly selecting the right material to manufacture the model components (due to cost or material limitations). Quantifying this error source can also be difficult and in most cases experience and good engineering judgement may be necessary to identify bounds on this error source. Careful evaluation of the test model function and possible sensitivities to component deflection or improper mass distribution must be performed prior to testing to assess possible impact on measured results. If the device performance is sensitive to these factors, it is recommended that the test be designed to carefully monitor and quantify model structural response during testing.

Mass loading discrepancies may be addressed by adding mass using heavy materials etc. to areas of the model. A sensitivity study or test may be necessary to assess the impact of mass loading uncertainty (magnitude of the added mass and location of the added mass on the model).

#### 4.1.3 Functional

Functional model errors occur in scaling sub-component elements where the function of the model element is different from that in the full scale device. Bearings and seals are common sources of this type of error. Model scale bearings and seals may produce more friction or resistance to motion impacting load measurement under flow. These errors can often be accounted for by performing common tare/zeroing tests to quantify any added friction in the system.

The model scale PTO can also be another source of functional error. Model scales PTOs are often not representative of the full scale device PTO. As a result, the model scale PTO function may bias the model scale tests providing an added error in scaling up model scale results to full scale prediction of performance. If

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the device performance is strongly coupled to the PTO function, which can be encountered in some wave devices, then model scale testing must carefully assess any impact of PTO modelling on overall device performance.

Depending on the model scale, it may not be possible to add a generator to the PTO as a device load and a fluid, mechanical or electromagnetic load is used. These devices operate as a break or frictional load on a moving component such as a drive shaft in a rotating turbine. A common source of error in these types of loads is due to the load characteristics (friction on the moving component) changing with ambient or environmental temperature during testing. This can result in changes in shaft torque, for example, not related to power extraction but in changes in the PTO function.

It is recommended that critical sub-components, such as the PTO, be tested in standalone configurations to carefully quantify sub-component performance as a function of the operating environment (load, temperature and motion). If sub-component testing identifies sensitivities to environmental or test parameters, then the device test plan should be designed to monitor and quantify critical parameters such as PTO temperature etc. Sub-component testing can be used to quantify the errors in sub-component operation and these errors can then be propagated into the overall device performance uncertainty.

Cavitation may occur under certain operating/deployment scenarios (high tip speed ratios coupled with high current speeds and low deployment depths) in some large scale devices. As a result, it may be desirable to perform model scale cavitation assessment studies for determining blade tip vortex onset or cavitation breakdown conditions for a defined blade design. Model tests designed to assess cavitation potential should be conducted following the ITTC Procedures (7.5-02-03-03.1 “Model –

Scale Cavitation Test,” 7.5-02-03-03.2 “Description of Cavitation Appearances,” and 7.5-02-03-03.6 “Podded Propulsor Model – Scale Cavitation Test”).

Current turbine devices may also be sources of noise with characteristic spectral signatures due to cavitation, structural vibration of components (blade or drive train) and operational noise due to component design (bearings, gear train, etc.). ITTC Procedures related to noise sources and impact to the environment (ITTC Procedures (7.5-02-03-03.3 “Cavitation Induced Pressure Fluctuations Model Scale Experiments,” 7.5-02-01-05 “Model scale noise measurements,” 7.5-04-04-01 “Underwater Noise from Ships, Full Scale Measurements,”) should be reviewed for relevance. Additional information on noise measurements can be found in the 27<sup>th</sup> ITTC Proceedings and the final report by the Specialist Committee on Hydrodynamic Noise (2014). The report also reviews the responses of a survey on both full scale and model scale noise measurements.


#### 4.2 Standard Sources of Test Errors

An uncertainty analysis of any current turbine model test must include standard sources error associated with:

- a) Instrumentation – accuracy, resolution, calibration error, user error
- b) Sampling errors – digitization errors
- c) Statistical errors
- d) Test procedure errors – hysteresis or bias errors introduced due to how the test is run. Are the test parameters (flow velocity, TSR, etc.) varied in a random fashion to avoid hysteresis in the test results?

The cited ITTC procedures and guidelines provide summaries of these standard error sources, how to quantify them and examples for reference.



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## 5. FACILITY

Facility errors are associated with facility operation, facility flow characteristics, model installation, and the relative scaling of model size to facility size with relevance to the impact of flow blockage on model or facility function. The following sub-sections provide a summary of these error sources. These errors can be easily quantified through careful measurements and should be propagated into the total test uncertainty as a component of a specific parameter uncertainty. For example, if the tunnel velocity has a 2% spatial variation across the inflow profile of the device, this 2% variation should be propagated into the test uncertainty as an uncertainty component in the measured velocity used to assess turbine performance coefficients such as power, torque or thrust/drag. This uncertainty component is in addition to the other contributing components such as instrument error in measuring the velocity, as well as other bias and precision errors associated with the velocity measurement. The total velocity uncertainty would be represented by the root sum square of all the contributing components following standard uncertainty procedures outlined in the referenced ITTC guides and procedures and Coleman and Steele (1999).

### 5.1 Flow Quality

The power extraction capacity of a current turbine device is proportional to the cube of inflow velocity the device is exposed to. As a result, the performance of most devices will be strongly dependent on the character of the flow field the device is exposed to. Spatial and temporal flow non-uniformities in the facility can generate significant bias errors between measured and predicted performance if the predicted performance does not account for these flow non-uniformities. In general, the facility flow quality should be carefully measured and documented in any current turbine test program. This

should include inflow velocity profiles to quantify spatial uniformity or gradients in the inflow to the device, axial flow profiles to assess flow direction gradients, mean flow steadiness (short term and long term stability in maintaining flow velocity), fluid properties such as temperature and pressure stability of the test duration, uniformity of flow properties in the test section, flow direction relative to the test section coordinate system and flow turbulence.

### 5.2 Accuracy


How accurate can the test conditions be set and maintained throughout the test? How is facility flow speed, fluid temperature and pressure measured and what is the uncertainty in those settings? What is the accuracy of the test section dimensions and relative positions of instrumentation used to assess test conditions? These questions should be addressed in any test campaign.

### 5.3 Controllability and Repeatability

The accuracy with which a facility can set, control and maintain a test condition, such as velocity, pressure and temperature, must be taken into account when assessing sources of error in a test. These type of error sources can usually be accounted for by propagating them into the appropriate variable total uncertainty (velocity, pressure or temperature) before propagating that variable uncertainty into the total uncertainty of the quantity being calculated. For example, the computation of the power coefficient is:

$$C_p = \frac{P}{\frac{1}{2}U^3 A} \quad (1)$$

where  $P$  is the measured or estimated power from other measured quantities,  $A$  is the area of the turbine defined by  $\pi R^2$ , and  $U$  is the velocity of the approach flow. The uncertainty in  $C_p$  is obtained by propagating the total uncertainties

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of the variables  $P$ ,  $U$  and  $A$  using standard error propagation methodologies outlined in the citations referenced in this guideline, Coleman and Steele (1999) and ITTC Procedure 7.5-02-01-01. Errors in controlling the facility velocity would be appropriately included in the total velocity uncertainty before propagating the velocity uncertainty into the uncertainty in  $C_P$ .

Additionally, the definition of  $C_P$  for ducted turbine has been argued by several researchers in the past decade whether it should be the frontal area of the duct or the turbine. Li (2014) have suggested a new formulation to reduce this bias.

Similar to controllability, the ability or lack thereof of a facility to repeat test conditions can introduce error into the model measurements. Repeat testing can also be used to assess a models ability to respond to a set condition in a repeatable fashion. This can be used to assess hysteresis, model or model component wear and precision errors associated with the test. In model tests requiring long test duration or the need to repeat test conditions over multiple days, the error in the ability of a facility to repeat test conditions may need to be accounted for in the total uncertainty.

These errors in controllability and repeatability can be reduced if careful measurements of the test conditions are performed and synchronised with model measurements throughout the test. Data post-processing can then be performed using actual test conditions accounting for variability in control or test repeats. This methodology for reducing/accounting for facility control uncertainty will often only work if the model response being measured relative to the variable in question is well-behaved.


## 5.4 Installation

Model installation can introduce a source of error if the model function or performance is dependent on model orientation relative to the incoming flow. In such situations, careful alignment of the model relative to facility references aligned with the flow direction is recommended and should be carefully measured and quantified. Tests involving model tear out and re-installation under repeat test conditions should be performed to quantify variability in model response due to installation. Uncertainty in model installation can then be assessed by quantifying the standard deviation in the measured model response variables over the number of repeat installation tests and applying standard student-T analyses to estimating 95% confidence uncertainty ranges.

Instrumentation installation can also introduce errors if the accurate response of the instrument in question is sensitive to alignment with the flow direction or the model. Velocity and force sensors may be sensitive to alignment relative to the incoming flow or to the model. In addition, the installation of model components such as bearings and seals can also introduce bias errors into measurements of shaft thrust and torque and must be carefully assessed through zeroing or tare type tests where friction introduced by these components or their misalignment with the model are quantified. This is particularly important in tests where the measured power is determined by the product of shaft torque and rpm.

## 5.5 Blockage

Flow blockage errors occur when a device, designed to operate in an open environment, is tested in a closed environment such as a water/wind tunnel, tow tank or channel and the walls or free surface of the facility constrain or alter the flow streamlines entering and exiting

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the device. This will often increase power production and the amount of increase will be a function of the percent of blockage and the flow velocity. Similar to propulsion tests, current turbine testing in a confined facility should be performed following ITTC Procedure 7.5-02-03-02.1, “Propulsor Open Water Test” and ITTC procedures and guidelines relevant to the uncertainty in powering and resistance testing (7.5-02-03-01.2, 7.5-02-02-02 and 7.5-020-05-03.3).

Well established techniques exist to evaluate effects of blockage for marine vehicles and structures, and hence to correct the measured data. Corrections are typically based on the ratio between the cross section area of the model and the cross section area of the tank. This ratio should be reduced as far as possible in order to minimise blockage effects, and in the case of energy conversion devices, to minimise the effect on device performance. Whelan *et al.* (2009) present blockage and free-surface corrections for horizontal axis devices and propose an approach to correct results in the presence of blockage in conjunction with a free surface. Ross (2010) describes a study on wind tunnel blockage corrections applied to vertical axis devices. Special consideration should be given if non-axial flow conditions, common in current turbines, are to be considered (see Bahaj *et al.* (2007)).

## 5.6 Supporting Structure and Instrumentation

In a number of tests, models are installed with one or more auxiliary structures to enhance the stability of the model or to effectively attach instrumentations. Corrections shall be considered. Li and Calisal (2010) presented an analytical way to quantify the arm connection errors for vertical axis turbines and their supporting structures.

Due to the controllability of the carriage speed, there is always minor vibration on the turbine when the speed is beyond a certain value, usually, 5 m/s for a large tank. However, to meet the correct Re number, one has to run the test fast. Therefore, the larger the model, the less bias from the vibration.

Pintar and Kolios (2013) suggested a novel structure to test tidal turbine array so as to install multiple sensors while avoiding interference with the test.

## 6. APPLICATION OF UNCERTAINTY ANALYSIS TO A HORIZONTAL AXIS TURBINE MODEL TEST

### 6.1 List of Symbols Used in the Example


$B_i$	Bias uncertainty in variable $i$
$P_i$	Precision uncertainty in variable $i$
$N$	Rotational speed
$U$	Velocity
$Q$	Shaft torque
$T$	Thrust
$P$	Shaft Power
$R$	Turbine radius
$C_P$	Power coefficient
$C_T$	Thrust coefficient
$\rho$	Fluid density
$\lambda$	Turbine tip speed ratio

### 6.2 Test Data

For representative example an 800 mm diameter horizontal axis tidal turbine was mounted in a water tunnel. The rotor thrust ( $T$ ) and torque ( $Q$ ) are assumed to be measured using a strain gauged load cell mounted in the hub.

### 6.3 Precision Limits (Type A Uncertainty)

Type A uncertainties are evaluation of uncertainty by the statistical analysis of a series of observations (JCGM (2008) and Taylor *et al*

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(1993)). This type of uncertainty is as also commonly known as the precession of the test.

Repeated tests are required to help understand the precision limits which can also include tests in different test facilities with the same test rig. For guidance and an example of assessing precision limits see section 2.3.2 of uncertainty analysis example for open water testing of propellers (ITTC Procedure 7.5-02-03-02.2).

## 6.4 Bias Limits (Type B Uncertainty)

Type B uncertainties are the evaluation of uncertainty by means other than statistical analysis. (JCGM (2008) and Taylor et al (1993)). These are also commonly unknown as bias errors.

### 6.4.1 Geometry

The influence of many of the errors in manufacture of tidal turbine blade are difficult to estimate. Only the bias error considered in this example is the rotor radius as it directly effects the data reduction equations. For the example the radius ( $R$ ) is 0.4 m with an accuracy of  $\pm 0.1$  mm, which corresponds to 0.025%. This assumes the blades are rigid or have structural similarity. If this is not the case additional uncertainty may be required.

### 6.4.2 Temperature and Density

The tunnel temperature was measured to be 15.2°C with a thermometer calibrated to  $\pm 0.2$ °C. By apply the method outlined in the water properties ITTC Procedure 7.5-02-01-03, “Density and Viscosity of Water”. The density ( $\rho$ ) is 999.072 kg/m<sup>3</sup> and the corresponding bias ( $B_\rho$ ) is 0.0306 kg/m<sup>3</sup>.

### 6.4.3 Rotational Speed

Due to the controller methodology to hold rotational speed the accuracy of the rotational speed is limited to  $\pm 0.25$  rpm. Therefore, the corresponding rotational speed bias ( $B_n$ ) is 0.00147 rpm. This is 0.3% of the measured rotational speed of 170.0 rpm.

### 6.4.4 Tunnel Speed

The tunnel speed was measured using the standard tunnel Pitot tube mounted on the tunnel bed. Based on Laser Doppler Velocimetry wake survey data the reported accuracy of the tunnel speed is to 1% over the swept area of the rotor. For these tests the measured tank speed was  $U = 1.70$  m/s. Using the accuracy statement and measured speed the total bias is therefore  $B_U = 0.0170$  m/s.

### 6.4.5 Thrust and Torque

The ITTC procedure for calibrating instrumentation ITTC Procedure 7.5-01-02-01, “Uncertainty Analysis, Instrument Calibration” was followed. The bias in torque ( $B_Q$ ) was estimated to be 0.313 Nm and thrust ( $B_T$ ) to be 0.425 N. For the example calculation the measured torque was 28.69 Nm and the thrust was 466.60 N. The bias limits therefore represent 0.07% and 0.09% of the torque and thrust.

For some measurement techniques the thrust and torque measurements can be effected by static friction of bearings or seals. For this case the bias error of the datum (also known as dynamic zero) should also be estimated. This can be achieved from the error analysis of curve fits to the turbine tested in the bollard pull condition before and after a set of test series.

#### 6.4.6 Power

The power ( $P$ ) is estimated from the rotational speed and torque.

$$P = 2\pi nQ \quad (2)$$

Assuming the errors in the components are not correlated the bias in power ( $B_P$ ) can be calculated from:

$$(B_P)^2 = (2\pi Q B_n)^2 + (2\pi n B_Q)^2 \quad (3)$$

For this example, the representative power and associated estimation of total bias is,  $P = 510.72$  W and  $B_P = 5.764$  W.

If the measurement methodology of rotational speed was correlated to the torque measurement, then the above simplification is not adequate and more detailed analysis would be required.

#### 6.4.7 Total Tip Speed Ratio Bias

The combined bias for the tip speed ( $B_\lambda$ ) is a combination of bias of the radius, rotational speed and tunnel speed as detailed in the equation below.

$$(B_\lambda)^2 = \left(\frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial R} B_R\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial n} B_n\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial U} B_U\right)^2 \quad (4)$$

where the derivatives are:

$$\frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial R} = \frac{2\pi R}{U}$$

$$\frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial n} = \frac{2\pi n}{U}$$

$$\frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial U} = 2\pi Rn \left(\frac{-1}{U^2}\right)$$

The combined bias in tip speed ratio is therefore  $B_\lambda = ((1.478 \cdot 0.0002)^2 + (10.47 \cdot 0.00833)^2 + (-2.464 \cdot 0.01700)^2)^{0.5} = 0.0437$ . This corresponds to 1.0% of the tip speed ratio of 4.188.

#### 6.4.8 Total Power Coefficient Bias

The combined bias for the power coefficient ( $B_{C_P}$ ) is a combination of bias of the radius, tunnel speed, density and power as detailed in the equation below.

$$(B_{C_P})^2 = \left(\frac{\partial C_P}{\partial R} B_R\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial C_P}{\partial U} B_U\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial C_P}{\partial \rho} B_\rho\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial C_P}{\partial P} B_P\right)^2 \quad (5)$$

where the derivatives are:

$$\frac{\partial C_P}{\partial R} = \frac{P}{0.5\rho U^3 \pi} \left(\frac{-2}{R^3}\right)$$


$$\frac{\partial C_P}{\partial U} = \frac{P}{0.5\rho \pi R^2} \left(\frac{-3}{U^4}\right)$$

$$\frac{\partial C_P}{\partial \rho} = \frac{P}{0.5\rho U^3 \pi R^2} \left(\frac{-1}{\rho^2}\right)$$

$$\frac{\partial C_P}{\partial P} = \frac{1}{0.5\rho U^3 \pi R^2}$$

The combined bias limit for the power coefficient is  $B_{C_P} = ((-2.070 \cdot 0.0002)^2 + (-0.731 \cdot 0.0170)^2 + (-0.00041 \cdot 0.0306)^2 + (5.764 \cdot 0.0133)^2)^{0.5} = 0.0133$ . This corresponds to 3.2% of the calculated  $C_P$  of 0.414.



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#### 6.4.9 Total Thrust Coefficient Bias

As for the power coefficient total bias of the thrust coefficient ( $B_{C_T}$ ) is detailed in the equation below.

$$(B_{C_T})^2 = \left(\frac{\partial C_T}{\partial R} B_R\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial C_T}{\partial U} B_U\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial C_T}{\partial \rho} B_\rho\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial C_T}{\partial T} B_T\right)^2 \quad (6)$$

where the derivatives are:

$$\frac{\partial C_T}{\partial R} = \frac{T}{0.5\rho U^2 \pi} \left(\frac{-2}{R^3}\right)$$

$$\frac{\partial C_T}{\partial U} = \frac{T}{0.5\rho \pi R^2} \left(\frac{-2}{U^3}\right)$$

$$\frac{\partial C_T}{\partial \rho} = \frac{T}{0.5\rho U^2 \pi R^2} \left(\frac{-1}{\rho^2}\right)$$

$$\frac{\partial C_T}{\partial T} = \frac{1}{0.5\rho U^2 \pi R^2}$$

The combined bias for the power coefficient is therefore:  $B_{C_T} = ((-3.125 \cdot 0.0002)^2 + (-0.757 \cdot 0.0170)^2 + (-0.0006 \cdot 0.0306)^2 + (0.001378 \cdot 0.4259)^2)^{0.5} = 0.0129$ . This corresponds to 2.0% of the calculated  $C_T$  of 0.643.

#### 6.5 Comments on Total Uncertainty

The total uncertainty is a combination of both the known Type A and Type B uncertainties, (the bias limits (B) and the precision limits (P)). These are combined for the tip speeds ratio and power and thrust coefficients as detailed below.


$$(U_\lambda)^2 = (B_\lambda)^2 + (P_\lambda)^2$$

$$(U_{C_p})^2 = (B_{C_p})^2 + (P_{C_p})^2$$

$$(U_{C_T})^2 = (B_{C_T})^2 + (P_{C_T})^2$$

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