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1 **A Method for Estimating the Potential Power Available to Building Mounted Wind Turbines**
2 **within Turbulent Urban Air Flows**

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6 **Abstract**

7 Small-scale wind energy applications have shown great promise in terms of their potential
8 contribution to transitions to low carbon economies. However, the energy generation potential of such
9 turbines within built environments has not yet been fully utilised due to the complexity of turbulent
10 urban winds, and the challenges this creates in developing effective scoping tools for viability
11 assessments. Effective scoping tools for turbine systems across sites within built environments require
12 an estimation of power generated by the turbine under turbulent conditions, in addition to more
13 commonly applied assessments based on mean wind speeds. A new methodology is therefore
14 presented here for predicting the power generated by a turbine system operating within an urban wind
15 resource. It was developed by employing high temporal resolution wind measurements from eight
16 potential turbine sites within urban/suburban environments as inputs to a vertical axis wind turbine 2-
17 D double multiple streamtube model. A relationship between turbulence intensity and the unsteady
18 performance coefficient obtained from the turbine model was demonstrated. Hence, an analytical
19 methodology for estimating the unsteady power coefficient at a potential turbine site is proposed. This
20 analytical methodology was combined with an excess energy estimation model to develop a turbine
21 power estimation (TPE) model which is used in predicting the turbine power within urban canopies.
22 Finally, the effect of turbine control response times on the unsteady power coefficient and the turbine
23 power estimation model was assessed. Estimates of turbine performance based on the present
24 methodology allow a more comprehensive assessment of potential urban wind projects.

25 **Keywords: Small-scale wind turbines; Wind power; Urban wind energy; Turbulence intensity;**
26 **Excess energy content**

27

28

29

30 1.0 Introduction

31

32 As global energy demands continue to grow, especially in urban areas, renewable energy sources such
33 as solar, wind, etc., must be encouraged to share this energy burden [1, 2]. With the global energy
34 demand in 2010 being expected to increase by 30% by 2040 [3], small wind systems are expected to
35 serve as vital Renewable Energy Sources (RES) that are likely to represent significant portion of the
36 energy generation mix in many power systems around the world [4, 5]. The wind resource within a
37 built environment is characterised by highly turbulent, fluctuating winds due to enhanced local
38 roughness, thus making it challenging to extract wind energy within such environments [6]. Siting of
39 urban wind systems requires detailed planning and design to be able to take maximum advantage of
40 the urban wind within a built environment. Various studies have highlighted the improvements in
41 wind turbine output in the last 2-3 decades [7, 8]. Hence, advances in structural dynamics,
42 aerodynamics, micrometeorology, noise level, etc., have encouraged the integration of wind systems
43 within urban architectural designs and planning, thus suggesting the important role small wind
44 systems will likely play in the holistic and comprehensive design of smart-city energy mix models [3,
45 9-11]. There are several economic and environmental benefits that arise from the integration of
46 micro-wind systems within a suburban/urban area. To achieve this, an effective scoping tool is
47 required to efficiently harness the available additional energy within turbulent winds, thereby
48 reducing generation load and transmission infrastructure as well as the impact of factors such as
49 variability, unpredictability and complexities of urban wind resource on power generation within the
50 built environment [4, 5].

51

52 Although wind energy applications within built environments have displayed some distinct benefits,
53 they are faced with many challenges. The complicated nature of the urban wind resource and the
54 inability to accurately predict the potential energy generation within a built environment may lead to
55 reduced markets as well as yields from small-scale wind technologies installed within suburban/urban
56 areas. However, more accurate estimations of the potential annual energy generated by small-scale
57 wind technologies may improve confidence within the market, potentially increasing wind power
58 penetration into the electricity grid and assisting in electricity trading [12]. Increased integration of
59 wind energy into the power grid may lead to significant social, environmental, technical and
60 economic impacts.

61 Several studies have indicated that turbine systems operating within urban environments are subject to
62 high levels of turbulence, and thus can underperform when compared to comparable turbine systems
63 operating in less turbulent environments [13, 14]. Due to the high cost of field testing and data

64 collection, a common approach to assessing the potential for power generation from wind turbines at a
65 particular site is the use of power curves that have been obtained under controlled conditions, which
66 may not perfectly reflect the conditions at the proposed site [12-19]. As a result of several
67 investigations, it is broadly acknowledged that the power curve of a given wind turbine system is
68 influenced by several meteorological and topographical factors like wind shear, turbulence and
69 inclined airflow, etc. [20, 21]. Notable discrepancies are often observed between small-scale wind
70 turbine performances predicted using manufacturer's power curves and those obtained through site
71 specific measurements [22, 23]. A major shortcoming in most wind power assessment studies is that
72 the wind measurements used in the development of these power curves may not fully represent the
73 complex, fluctuating urban wind resource thus making most power curves site dependent [24]. Hence,
74 uncertainties may arise from assumptions based on local atmospheric conditions while developing
75 these turbine power curves. These uncertainties may lead to under or over-prediction of the turbine
76 power output should generic power curves be applied within built environments. This, in turn, may
77 have significant implications on the viability of urban wind projects and the wind turbine market at
78 large.

79 The turbine system's ability to respond to high fluctuations present within the urban wind will be
80 subject to the response characteristics of the specific system. A few recent studies, including those of
81 McIntosh *et al* [25], Kooiman and Tullis [26] and Nguyen and Metzger [27], have highlighted the
82 importance of turbine response time and its influence on energy capture within a built environment.
83 However, to date there are no general methodologies that allow for the influence of turbulence
84 characteristics and turbine response times on power production to be taken into account for sites
85 across suburban/urban areas. The present work therefore attempts to fill this gap by proposing a
86 methodology for estimating the power capabilities of small-scale wind turbine systems within a built-
87 up area while considering the influence of local turbulence and turbine response time. A new turbine
88 performance parameter (the turbulence induced performance coefficient) will be developed which
89 aims to assess the performance of a turbine system while taking into account the effects of turbulence
90 and the excess energy available at short time-scales for a potential turbine site. Field data from eight
91 suburban/urban sites with differing characteristics will be used to develop an analytical model for
92 predicting turbulence induced performance across different levels of turbulence intensity using a
93 double multiple streamtube model. The influence of turbine response time on power production will
94 then be investigated.

95 The paper is structured as follows. Section 2 briefly introduces the wind data employed. A brief
96 description of the excess energy estimation model as well as a simple description of the 2-D double
97 multiple streamtube model employed within this study are also presented in Section 2. A new model
98 known as the turbine power estimation model (TPE), which comprises the excess energy coefficient
99 (*EEC*) model and the unsteady turbine performance coefficient, is presented in Section 3.1. This

100 model takes into account local turbulence effects and the excess energy available through turbine
 101 controls in response to turbulent fluctuations within a given suburban/urban environment. Section 3.2
 102 considers the effect of response time on the unsteady turbine performance coefficient and turbine
 103 power estimation model. Finally, the main conclusions are presented in Section 4.

104

105 **2.0 Methodology and Data Processing**

106 **2.1 Site description and Instrumentation**

107 Based on the availability of suitable urban data sets as discussed in Ref [28], eight high-resolution
 108 wind datasets acquired from five different cities namely Leeds, Manchester, London, Dublin and
 109 Helsinki were employed in this work. Brief descriptions of these wind measurement sites are provided
 110 in Table 1 below. Detailed description of the sites are published in Ref [28].

111

112 **2.2 Scope of data collected and analysis**

113 The urban/suburban wind data employed within this study were obtained from eight sites described
 114 earlier between the years 2008 and 2011, with a year-long dataset for each site selected for analysis in
 115 this paper. For the purpose of the current analysis, these urban/suburban sites are considered as
 116 potential turbine sites based on evaluation of their mean wind speeds. Due to the unavailability of data
 117 across the chosen period (2008-2011), the datasets selected are not entirely overlapping but this does
 118 not compromise the analysis carried out in this paper. The horizontal wind components, u_{ux} (x -
 119 direction) and v_{uy} (y -direction) were used in calculating the longitudinal free-stream wind speed (V_u)
 120 and wind direction upstream of the rotor (θ_u) and are given as [28]:

$$121 \quad \theta_u = \tan^{-1}(v_{uy}/u_{ux}) \quad (1)$$

122

$$123 \quad V_u = u_{ux} \cos \theta_u + v_{uy} \sin \theta_u \quad (2)$$

124 while the standard deviation of the longitudinal wind speed can be calculated using Equation 3.

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \sum_{i=1}^T (V_{ui} - \bar{V})^2} \quad (3)$$

125 where V_{ui} represents the free-stream wind speed upstream, \bar{V} is the mean wind speed, and T
 126 characterizes the sample time period.

127 The high resolution wind data, obtained from all sites selected in this paper, was averaged at a sample
 128 frequency of 1 Hz to ensure data consistency between different sites, and to eliminate very fast
 129 transients. In accordance with the wind energy industry certification standards, the high resolution
 130 wind data was then parsed into contiguous 10-min bursts (i.e. $T = 10$ min) [34]. A standard parameter
 131 known as turbulence intensity ($T.I.$) is employed in this study. The $T.I.$ parameter in this analysis is
 132 used in characterising the degree of turbulence within a burst, and is defined in Equation 4 as
 133 follows [35]:

$$T.I. (\%) = \frac{\sigma}{\bar{V}} \times 100\% \quad (4)$$

134 As represented in Equation 4, the standard deviation of the fluctuating component of the wind speed
 135 provides a measure of the degree to which the magnitude of the wind is changing during a given burst
 136 period. The $T.I.$ values for all observation sites presented within this study were calculated using
 137 Equation 4. As a result of $T.I.$ sensitivity to averaging time, turbulence intensities obtained within this
 138 study were compared for equivalent burst durations [36]. However, there exists extra energy within
 139 shorter frequencies in these high fluctuating complex urban wind conditions which is usually under-
 140 reported due to the use of mean wind speeds in calculating the wind power over a given period. This
 141 can be defined by two parameters known as the Gust Energy Coefficient (GEC) and the Excess
 142 Energy Content (EEC) [28, 36]. The GEC is defined as the ratio of the total integral kinetic energy in
 143 the wind over a given period of time to the assumed energy by only considering the mean of the wind
 144 speed within the same period [37]:

$$GEC = \frac{\int_0^T V_i^3 dt}{\bar{V}^3 \cdot T} \quad (5)$$

145 where T represents the burst period.

146 The extra energy contained within transient fluctuation about the mean over a given burst period is
 147 represented in this paper as EEC (which is closely related to the GEC) and is expressed as a
 148 percentage of the total integral energy:

$$EEC(\%) = (GEC - 1) \times 100\% \quad (6)$$

149

150 The values of EEC will be sensitive to the length of the burst period chosen which in this study is T
 151 $= 10$ min. From herein, for simplicity we drop the overbar when discussing mean wind speeds.

152 The average power available in the wind is calculated using Equation 7:

$$P_w = \frac{1}{2} \rho A V^3 \quad (7)$$

153 where ρ is the density of air and A is the swept rotor area.

154

155 **2.4 Excess Energy Prediction Methodology**

156 In order to estimate the excess energy content (*EEC*) at a given hub height within a built environment,
157 the *EEC* prediction model proposed by Emejeamara and Tomlin [28] was employed. This analytical
158 model was developed by comparing and analysing the *EEC* and *T.I.* values calculated using high
159 resolution wind measurements from potential suburban/urban turbine sites. Hence, the study
160 suggested that the excess energy at a given hub height within a built environment at different
161 turbulence intensities can be estimated using an empirical relationship given as:

$$EEC = 4.2B^4 + 14B^3 + 45B^2 + 99B + 74 \quad (8)$$

162 where

$$163 B = (T.I. - 47)/28 .$$

164 Hence, the *EEC* prediction methodology, as defined in Equation 8, was adopted within this study.
165 Further details on the *EEC* prediction model can be found in Refs [28, 36].

166

167 **2.5 Wind Turbine Model**

168 Various numerical models have been developed to predict and analyse the power performance of a
169 vertical axis wind turbine system (VAWT) [38-41]. Advanced computational fluid dynamics (CFD)
170 approaches have been used in several wind turbine studies to overcome the limitations of accuracy in
171 aerodynamic databases for low Reynolds numbers. CFD models have the ability to calculate the
172 turbine's aerodynamic components by integration of the Navier-Stokes equations in the
173 neighbourhood of the wind turbine blade profile [42]. However, these CFD models have been found
174 to be very expensive and unable to fully capture a realistic basic structure of the flow field around the
175 blades and inside the rotor volume of the turbine when considering the selection of the meshing
176 accuracy, physical models and the turbulence models [43]. This type of CFD approach is therefore
177 still an area of development rather than providing a well-established, efficient and reliable technique.
178 Since the aim of this study is to develop a scoping model for complex terrains (i.e. built environments
179 across large cities), an analytical computationally efficient approach is required. Thus, this study
180 employs a 2D double multiple straight-bladed VAWT streamtube model, and Blade Element
181 Momentum (BEM) theory as the foundation for the performance model of the wind turbine system.
182 For this analysis, three points (i.e. the free-stream region, the blade region and the wake region) as
183 illustrated in Figure 2 will be considered.

184

185 The mass flow rate remains the same throughout the streamtube and hence the continuity equation
186 along the streamtube can be given as:

$$\rho AV_1 = \rho AV_T = \rho AV_2 \quad (9)$$

187 For steady state flow the mass flow rate across the rotor can be calculated using Equation 10:

$$\dot{m} = \rho AV_T \quad (10)$$

188 Given that the mass flow rate must be the same across the streamtube, the upstream cross-sectional
189 area of the streamtube enclosing the disc becomes smaller than the downstream cross-sectional area.
190 Hence, the turbine experiences a thrust equal to the change in the wind's linear momentum. This is
191 expressed by applying conservation of linear momentum on both sides of the actuator disc rotor (as
192 expressed in Equation 11):

$$F_T = \dot{m}(V_1 - V_2) \quad (11)$$

193 where V_1 and V_2 are the wind velocities upstream and downstream and \dot{m} is the mass flow rate of air
194 across the turbine rotor.

195 Since the flow is assumed to be frictionless and there is no work or energy transfer done, Bernoulli's
196 equation can be applied on both sides of the rotor. Thus, applying energy conservation using the
197 Bernoulli equation on both sides of the rotor will result in Equations 12 and 13:

$$P_{R2} + \frac{1}{2}\rho AV_T^2 = P_2 + \frac{1}{2}\rho AV_2^2 \quad (12)$$

$$P_1 + \frac{1}{2}\rho AV_1^2 = P_{R1} + \frac{1}{2}\rho AV_T^2 \quad (13)$$

198 where P_{R1} and P_{R2} are the pressures at both sides of the actuator disc as shown in Figure 2.

199 Combining Equations 12 and 13 gives the pressure decrease as:

$$\Delta P = \frac{1}{2}\rho(V_1^2 - V_2^2) \quad (14)$$

200 The thrust acting on the actuator disc rotor can be calculated as the sum of the forces on each side of
201 the rotor:

$$F_T = A\Delta P \quad (15)$$

202 where

$$\Delta P = P_{R1} - P_{R2} \quad (16)$$

203 Thus, substituting Equation 14 into Equation 15, we have

$$F_T = \frac{1}{2}\rho A(V_1^2 - V_2^2) \quad (17)$$

204

205 The rate at which the force (F_T) does work is expressed as $F_T V_T$, where V_T is the wind velocity across
 206 the wind turbine (which is represented as an actuator disc) and can be expressed by combining
 207 Equations 10, 11 and 17. Thus, the wind velocity across the rotor is given as:

$$V_T = \frac{V_1 + V_2}{2} \quad (18)$$

208 We could however, express the wind velocity downstream relative to the wind velocity upstream,
 209 giving the fractional decrease in wind speed across the wind turbine in terms of a reference factor
 210 known as the induction factor ' a '. This is expressed as:

$$a = \frac{V_1 - V_T}{V_1} = \frac{V_1 - V_2}{2V_1} \quad (19)$$

211 Hence from Equation 19, the wind velocity at the actuator disc V_T and the wind velocity downstream
 212 V_2 can be expressed as:

$$V_T = (1 - a)V_1 \quad (20)$$

$$V_2 = (1 - 2a)V_1 \quad (21)$$

213 Momentum theory applies up to $a = 0.5$, with V_2 becoming negative at higher values of a , which is
 214 obviously impossible [35, 44]. Therefore, the force of the actuator disc on flow as a result of the
 215 pressure drop introduced by the actuator disc (i.e. thrust force) can be expressed as [44]:

$$F_T = (V_1 - V_2)\rho A V_1 (1 - a) \quad (22)$$

216 where A is the turbine rotor swept area and ρ is the air density.

217 Combining Equations 20, 21 and 22, the thrust force can be re-written as:

$$F_T = 2\rho A V_1^2 a(1 - a) \quad (23)$$

218 Thus, the thrust coefficient can also be obtained using:

$$C_T = \frac{2\rho AV_1^2 a(1-a)}{\frac{1}{2}\rho AV_1^2} = 4a(1-a) \quad (24)$$

219 The power extracted by the wind turbine is now given as:

$$P_T = F_T V_T = 2\rho AV_1^3 a(1-a)^2 \quad (25)$$

220 The performance of a turbine design can be judged using a coefficient known as the turbine power
 221 coefficient (C_p). This is basically defined as the percentage of wind power the turbine can convert to
 222 mechanical power and is mathematically represented by:

$$C_p = \frac{P_T}{P_w} \quad (26)$$

223 where P_T is the power captured by the turbine, P_w is the power available in the wind for the size of
 224 turbine.

225 Substituting Equations 7 and 25 into Equation 26, the power coefficient can then be expressed as:

$$C_p = \frac{2\rho AV_1^3 a(1-a)^2}{\frac{1}{2}\rho AV_1^3} = 4a(1-a)^2 \quad (27)$$

226 Thus, while assuming the control volume boundaries are the surface of a streamtube (as shown in
 227 Figure 2), the BEM theory basically utilises the actuator disc method which is based on a control
 228 volume analysis to calculate the momentum deficit downstream [27, 35, 45]. This is combined with
 229 empirical lift and drag coefficients of the turbine blades (airfoil sections) in order to calculate the
 230 power performance of the turbine employed in this study [25, 39].

231 Although straight-bladed Darrieus type vertical axis wind turbine (VAWT) is known as the simplest
 232 wind turbine, its aerodynamic analysis is quite complex. The dynamic stall VAWT turbine modelling
 233 work within this study is based on the previous works of McIntosh *et al* [25], Beri and Yao [45] and
 234 Homicz [46]. In order to accomplish this, the turbine is divided into multiple strips and the lift and
 235 drag forces at the corresponding angle of attack acting on the turbine blades can be calculated using
 236 the empirical lift and drag coefficient data appropriate for the blade (airfoil) type or section. This is
 237 achieved by using a look-up table containing the lift and drag coefficients (C_l and C_d respectively) as
 238 a function of the local Reynolds number (Re) and the angle of attack (α). Figure A.1 presents a simple
 239 description of the forces (i.e. the lift and drag forces) acting on the turbine blade (See Appendix 1).
 240 From Figure 3, the angle of attack is shown to be dependent on the relative velocity (V_r).

241 Thus,

$$\alpha = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{V_n}{V_t}\right) = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{(1-a)\sin\theta}{(1-a)\cos\theta + \lambda}\right) \quad (28)$$

242 where θ is the blade azimuthal angle, V_n and V_t are the normal and tangential velocity components
 243 and λ represents tip speed ratio (which is defined as $\frac{\omega R}{V_\infty}$, where ω represents the rotational speed of
 244 the rotor and R is the rotor radius).

245 The normal and tangential forces acting on the turbine blades can be calculated using Equations 29
 246 and 30:

$$F_n = \frac{1}{2} \rho n c H (C_l \cos\alpha + C_d \sin\alpha) V_r^2 \quad (29)$$

$$F_t = \frac{1}{2} \rho n c H (C_l \sin\alpha - C_d \cos\alpha) V_r^2 \quad (30)$$

247 where c represents the chordlength of the blade, C_l represents the lift coefficient, C_d represents the
 248 drag coefficient, H denotes the blade height and n is the number of turbine blades.

249 The average torque on the turbine rotor in a full revolution can be estimated using Equation 31:

$$T_{ba} = N \sum_{i=1}^{2m} \frac{\left[\frac{1}{2} \rho H c R V_r^2 C_t\right]}{2m} \quad (31)$$

250 where m is the number of stream tubes and $2m$ is the number of $\Delta\theta$.

251 The torque and power coefficients can then be derived from Equations 32 and 33:

$$C_q = \frac{T_{ba}}{\frac{1}{2} \rho D R H V_\infty^2} \quad (32)$$

252 and the power coefficient can be rewritten as:

$$C_p = C_q \cdot \lambda \quad (33)$$

253 For this study, a NACA airfoil with a chordlength of 0.08815 m and a turbine rotor diameter and
 254 blade height of 1.5 m was considered. This study includes the dynamic stall model presented by
 255 Ref [48] with corrections from Refs [39,40]. As shown by other BEM models [25, 27, 35, 39, 45,
 256 46], the VAWT model uses a database of static NACA00** airfoil lift and drag coefficients obtained
 257 from wind tunnel tests by Sheldahl and Klimas [49] and later corrected by Lazauskas [50]. Thus, the
 258 C_l and C_d are interpolated for the relevant Reynolds number and angle of attack. This model however
 259 does not consider wind shear, electrical, aerodynamic and tower losses. As shown in Figure 4, the

260 VAWT model performance showed good agreement with predicted power coefficients over a range of
261 tip speed ratios for data obtained for a VAWT numerical model presented by McIntosh *et al* [25].

262

263 For the purposes of this study, a 600 W variable speed control (VSC) VAWT system was considered,
264 thus representing a micro-wind turbine system for domestic electricity generation [51]. The turbine
265 system considered is assumed to be a three straight-bladed NACA0015 VAWT. This study also
266 employs an ideal tip speed ratio controller, which allows the turbine system to respond
267 instantaneously to fluctuations in the wind, thereby extracting the maximum amount of energy
268 available from the wind. Thus, the controller adjusts the ω while responding to the fluctuations in the
269 incoming wind in order to ensure that the turbine operates within the optimal C_p - λ setting. In practice,
270 power electronics are used in variable speed control operations. Although more advanced controls can
271 be found in commercial wind turbine systems, a simple feedback control is used within this study. In
272 reality, the response time for a wind turbine system depends on the mass moment of inertia of the
273 turbine as well as the gain constant of the controller [25, 27, 44]. With real-time wind data as inputs,
274 the time varying rotational speed, tip speed ratio, aerodynamic torque and power were determined as a
275 function of time from the BEM model described above. Within practical systems, additional losses
276 such as electrical, aerodynamic and tower losses will be experienced [35, 52, 53]. Such additional
277 losses have not been directly addressed within the current work which is focussed around the
278 influence of turbulent wind profiles. Further modifications to the power coefficient due to such losses
279 for specific turbine designs could be added within the practical application of such a model but this
280 extends beyond the scope of the present work. Figure 5 demonstrates the performance of the VAWT
281 numerical model as described above.

282

283 **3.0 Results and Discussion**

284

285 **3.1 Turbine Power Estimation Model**

286 Generally, power generated by a turbine can be rewritten as [15]:

$$P_T = \frac{1}{2} C_p \rho A V^3 \quad (34)$$

287 where C_p represents the power coefficient of the turbine system, ρ represents the air density, A
288 represents the rotor swept area and V is the mean wind speed over a burst period. Various studies have
289 adopted Equation 34 in their power assessment studies and also demonstrated the effect of turbulence
290 on turbine power by adopting measures of factoring turbulence intensity into turbine power

291 estimation. This has been achieved either by directly using $T.I.$ as a form of heuristic safety factor
 292 (i.e. reducing the turbine power estimation by its percentage value [51]) or by adjusting or correcting
 293 the manufacturer's power curve for different turbulence intensity values [13]. These require complex
 294 methodologies which may not be user-friendly or readily accessible to micro-turbine purchasers or
 295 investors. It should be noted that turbine manufacturers are currently not required (by an industry
 296 standard or practice) to rate their turbine systems for an arbitrary or more realistic turbulence
 297 intensity. As turbulence levels within an urban wind resource increase or decrease, the C_p (as
 298 represented in Equation 34) has to be adjusted to account for inherent local turbulence. In order to
 299 estimate the power generated by the VAWT within a characteristic urban wind resource, a
 300 methodology is proposed herein. This methodology, which estimates the turbine power from averaged
 301 wind over a built environment within a given burst period, is referred to as the turbine power
 302 estimation (TPE) model and is mathematically given as:

$$TPE = P_{T_pred} = \frac{1}{2} C_{tc} \rho A \bar{V}^3 \quad (35)$$

303 Similar to Equation 34, C_p is replaced by a new parameter C_{tc} in Equation 35, which is termed the
 304 turbulence induced performance coefficient of the turbine system. C_{tc} is mathematically given as:

$$C_{tc} = C_e (EEC + 1) \quad (36)$$

305 where EEC is the excess energy content at a given burst period within the potential turbine site
 306 (defined by Equation 8) and C_e is the unsteady turbine performance coefficient.

307 The performance coefficient C_{tc} takes into account the effect of turbulence and response time on the
 308 turbine performance while also considering the excess energy content available to the turbine. In order
 309 to predict the C_e for a given VAWT system within a built environment, the C_e for a given burst period
 310 of 10 min (i.e. $T = 10$ min) across the year was obtained using Equation 37 and plotted against the
 311 equivalent binned values of $T.I.$ for the 8 test sites.

$$C_e = \frac{\int_0^T P_{vsc} dt}{\int_0^T P_w dt} \quad (37)$$

312 where P_{vsc} represents the instantaneous VAWT power outputs from model simulations using the
 313 turbine system model (as presented in Section 2.5) at response time of 1 s using the wind datasets
 314 from the eight sites as inputs, and P_w represents the instantaneous wind power calculated using
 315 Equation 38:

$$P_w = \frac{1}{2} \rho A V_i^3 \quad (38)$$

316 where V_i represents the wind speed measurements at a given averaging time (in this case, $T_c = 1$ s).
 317 The wind speed measurements were obtained as described in Section 2.2.

318 For an ideal (i.e. perfect) turbine operation within an idealised steady wind environment, the C_{tc}
 319 would be 0.59 (i.e. C_e and EEC would be 0.59 (the Betz limit for HAWT whereas that for VAWT is
 320 somewhat lower primarily due to a drag-based, as opposed to a lift-based, operating system [35, 38,
 321 54]) and 0 respectively). This indicates that the excess energy and turbine performance calculated,
 322 reflects the time-series integral. However, due to real world gustiness and losses encountered by the
 323 turbine system while operating at potential sites (for example, transmission losses, electrical losses,
 324 etc.), this may not be realised. When analysing the unsteady turbine performance, the turbine response
 325 was first assumed to be 1 s and the raw wind data was also filtered at an averaging time (T_c) of 1 s, as
 326 stated earlier. Losses encountered in turbine operations (i.e. electrical losses, strut losses, mechanical
 327 losses, etc.) were not considered herein and hence the estimations are likely to be the upper limit
 328 compared to what might be realised in practice. Plots of binned C_e values against $T.I.$ bins as shown
 329 in Figure 6 demonstrate a strong relationship between C_e and $T.I.$ with increases in $T.I.$ resulting in
 330 decreased turbine performance at all test sites. An empirical equation for the prediction of C_e values
 331 as a function of $T.I.$ was determined using the least square errors approach within MATLAB's best fit
 332 tool. After various tests to determine the lowest errors, a single-term exponential form was assumed,
 333 hence C_e values were approximated using the following empirical relationship:

$$C_e = ae^{cx} \quad (39)$$

334 where

$$x = (T.I. - q)/s$$

335 Table 1 presents the coefficients derived from best fit of a $C_e - T.I.$ curve at a response time of 1 s
 336 (i.e. $T_c = 1$) shown in Figure 6. This suggests that from the knowledge of turbulence intensities, the
 337 performance of a given turbine design could be estimated. However, further analysis showed that
 338 increasing the turbine inertia may lead to a decrease in the power generated by the turbine system.
 339 This is demonstrated in Figure 7, by comparing the performance of the turbine system having a
 340 standard baseline inertia (J) with the turbine performance when the standard baseline inertia is
 341 increased by 20% (represented by ' $J + 20\% J$ ' in Figure 7). Results show a significant decrease of
 342 approximately 24.4% in turbine performance observed at the Leeds (H1) site should the turbine
 343 system experience a 20% increase in its inertia. Hence, from Equations 35 and 36, one can deduce a
 344 decrease of 24.4% in the power predicted using the TPE model should the turbine inertia be increased

345 by 20%. This, however, suggests that the turbine inertia has a big impact on the power generated by
 346 turbine system, as well as the overall economic benefits for potential urban wind projects. Thus,
 347 further sensitivity analysis testing the effects of inertia on the turbine power estimation (*TPE*) model
 348 would be useful in future work.

349 *EEC* values were calculated using the *EEC* model as proposed in Section 2.4. Thus, incorporating
 350 Equation 8 and Equation 39 into Equations 36, the turbine power output at a potential site which takes
 351 into account the effect of local turbulence can be estimated using Equation 35. A comparison of errors
 352 between the turbine power estimation model values (P_{T_pred}) and power output obtained from VSC
 353 VAWT model simulations (P_{VSC}) at a burst period of 10 mins using wind data from all 8 sites as input
 354 was achieved by using the mean percentage error (MPE) as defined in Equation 40. Figure 8 presents
 355 the MPE at different *T.I.* bins for all 8 sites.

$$\text{MPE}(\%) = 100 \times \frac{1}{n} \sum \frac{|P_{VSC} - P_{T_pred}|}{P_{VSC}} \quad (40)$$

356

357 As demonstrated in Figure 8, *TPE* model errors for *T.I.* between 40 – 60% were shown to be as low
 358 as 15.7%. A wide range of turbulence intensities were seen in the experimental data. Whilst it may not
 359 be common for sites to experience high levels of *T.I.* > 50% these values are possible and were
 360 demonstrated in Figure 6 to occur within several cities. They are likely to occur under low mean wind
 361 speed conditions, when local sources of turbulence such as building induced eddies, buoyancy effects
 362 and possibly even traffic induced turbulence may dominate over mean wind effects. Their low
 363 frequency of occurrence presents a challenge for the model and further analysis showed higher *TPE*
 364 model errors within Dublin Marrowbone and Helsinki Suburban sites. This may have resulted from a
 365 lower occurrence of data within this *T.I.* bin (See Appendix 2), thus suggesting reduced level of
 366 model accuracy of the *TPE* model within 40-60% *T.I.* bins. Also, *TPE* model errors within the 20 –
 367 30% *T.I.* bin were observed to be low across all sites except the London site where the occurrence of
 368 such conditions were less frequent (See Appendix 2). Hence, the *TPE* model showed fairly good
 369 performance at all sites for turbulence intensities between 20 – 60%, which represented the dominant
 370 *T.I.* demonstrated by the *T.I.* frequency distribution (as shown in Figure 8). Turbine power
 371 predictions at *T.I.* less than 20% and also within the 60 – 70% bin resulted in errors as high as 25.6%.
 372 A poor performance was also observed at *T.I.* higher than 70% across all sites. This was expected at
 373 these turbulence intensities as the occurrence of such turbulent conditions will be less frequent within
 374 built environments (as demonstrated in Figure 8 and Appendix 2). As shown in Figure 9, the average
 375 power output estimation using *TPE* model is found to have a positive correlation with VAWT power
 376 outputs thus implying better turbine power estimation. It will be interesting to compare average power
 377 outputs from turbines using advanced controls and the *TPE* model. Hence, these results suggest the

378 possibility of predicting turbine power fairly well by using a simple model within a built environment
379 as long as the local mean wind speed and $T.I.$ are known.

380

381 **3.2 Effect of T_c on C_e and Turbine Power Estimation**

382 Turbine response time has been shown to significantly influence the energy capture within an urban
383 wind resource [27]. Considering the influence of various factors such as turbine inertia, higher local
384 gust frequencies, time lag experienced by controllers, etc., on turbine operations, turbine systems with
385 a response time of 1 s may not be feasible in real world applications within built environments.
386 Hence, different response times were considered to assess the effect on turbine power output within
387 an urban wind resource for potentially different VAWT designs. This is demonstrated by calculating
388 the unsteady turbine performance coefficient (C_e) at different response times of 10 s, 20 s and 30 s
389 within a burst period of 10 min using Equation 37. These C_e values plotted against the equivalent
390 binned values of $T.I.$ at the eight potential turbine sites are presented in Figure 10. The best fit for C_e -
391 $T.I.$ plots at different response times were determined using the least square errors approach within
392 MATLAB's best fit tool. After various tests to determine the lowest errors, a two-term exponential
393 form was assumed for response times of 10 s, 20 s and 30 s. Hence, C_e values were approximated
394 using the following empirical relationship:

$$C_e = ae^{cx} + be^{dx} \quad (41)$$

395 where

$$x = (T.I. - q)/s$$

396 A summary of the coefficients of the two-term exponential for the different response times are
397 provided in Table 2. The maximum response time considered within this study was 30 s above which
398 the turbine system may be considered uneconomical for operations within a built environment.

399 As shown in Figure 10, it was observed that as the response time of the turbine increased, the C_e - $T.I.$
400 curve was observed to be steeper at lower turbulence intensities (represented by the first term of the
401 exponential in Equation 41) and flatter at higher turbulence intensities (represented by the second
402 term of the exponential). A simple plot distinguishing the first and second terms of the exponential in
403 Equation 41 is demonstrated in Figure 10d. Thus, Figure 10 suggests that as the response time
404 approaches 30 s, less significant changes in the turbine's power output may be observed at higher
405 turbulence intensities, whereas a steep increase in power may be observed at lower turbulence
406 intensities as the turbine becomes less sensitive to wind fluctuations. These relationships obtained at
407 different response times (as represented by the coefficients in Table 2) were employed in calculating

408 the turbulence induced power coefficient (C_{tc}) using Equation 36. Thus, they served as inputs in
409 estimating turbine power across the 8 potential sites using Equation 35.

410 The VAWT model power outputs across the 8 potential sites were obtained by using wind data
411 filtered at averaging times of 10 s, 20 s and 30 s as input to the turbine model with VSC controls.
412 These outputs were compared with turbine power prediction model outputs using the mean percentage
413 error (MPE) parameter defined by Equation 40. Figure 11 presents MPE plots across different $T.I.$
414 bins at different response times for all eight sites. Results show good TPE performance at a response
415 time of 10 s, with power prediction errors less than 16% at turbulence intensities below 40%. Further
416 analysis showed over 90% of the wind resource across the 8 test sites to have occurred at $T.I.$ below
417 40%. High TPE model errors were observed at higher turbulence intensities (i.e. $T.I. > 50\%$) which
418 represent a very small percentage of the wind resource at the test sites. The TPE model demonstrated
419 good power predictions at the response times of 20 s and 30 s (as shown in Figure 10). However,
420 higher errors were observed in less frequent turbulence intensity bins (i.e. 10 – 20% $T.I.$ bin and at
421 $T.I. > 50\%$). This is in agreement with results obtained at a response time of 10 s (as shown in
422 Figure 11 a). Further analysis showed these high errors were as a result of poor model accuracy at
423 Helsinki (suburban and urban) and Dublin Marrowbone sites due to these turbulence intensity bins
424 being less frequent. Figure 12 presents the overall average MPE for different response times at all
425 eight sites with average model errors of 14.11%, 14.51%, 15.64% and 13.33% at response times of 1
426 s, 10 s, 20 s and 30 s respectively.

427

428 **4.0 Conclusions**

429 Developing power curves used in performance assessment studies from assumptions based on local
430 atmospheric conditions may lead to various uncertainties such as under-prediction or over-prediction
431 of the actual power generated by urban wind applications. These uncertainties can be reduced by
432 incorporating factors such as turbulence, inertia, and turbine response time when estimating the power
433 generated by the turbine system. A new turbine performance parameter known as the turbulence
434 induced performance coefficient (C_{tc}) was introduced in this paper. This parameter aims to assess the
435 performance of a turbine system while taking into account the effect of turbulence (as represented by
436 the unsteady performance coefficient, C_e) and excess energy available at a potential turbine site. An
437 analytical model for predicting C_e at different turbulence intensities was developed using data
438 collected from eight suburban/urban sites as inputs within a micro wind turbine VSC VAWT model.
439 Hence, a methodology for estimating the turbine power output within a gusty wind resource was
440 proposed by multiplying the C_{tc} value with the wind energy available to the turbine system for a
441 given burst period. The effect on turbine response time on turbine performance was also presented

442 and discussed. Hence, considering factors such as turbulence intensity and response time, results
443 presented in this paper demonstrated the possibility of estimating power that would be generated by a
444 turbine system thus encouraging effective assessment of the viability of urban wind projects. It would
445 be useful in future work to test the viability of this methodology for various types of wind turbine
446 control systems. The methodology proposed also provides the opportunity to map the potential power
447 generated by a turbine system for different mast heights over city regions assuming the mean wind
448 speed and turbulence intensities can be estimated. This will be addressed in future work, allowing the
449 assessment of the viability of urban wind projects by mapping the capacity factor over built
450 environments that takes into account the spatial variability in not just the mean winds, but also the
451 turbulence intensities.

452

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621 **Table 1:** Brief description of the wind measurement sites

| Site Label | Site Description | Site Coordinate | Anemometer Type | Sampling Frequency | Measurement Height |
|----------------|--|--|--|--------------------|--|
| Unileeds H1 | Houldsworth building, University of Leeds Campus, Leeds, UK. Ref [28] | Lat.: 53.467371°, Long.: -2.232006° | Research-Grade Gill Scientific Instruments model R3-50 | 10 Hz | Building height approximately 24 m, mast height of 10m |
| Unileeds H2 | Houldsworth building, University of Leeds Campus, Leeds, UK. Ref [28] | Lat.: 53.467371°, Long.: -2.232006° | Research-Grade Gill Scientific Instruments model R3-50 | 10 Hz | Building height approximately 24 m, mast height of 6m |
| Manchester | The George Kenyon building within the University of Manchester South campus (also known as the Whitworth | Lat.: 53.467371°, Long.: -2.232006° | Gill Windmaster Pro Sonic Anemometer | 20Hz | Mast height approximately 5 m, building height of 49m |

| | | | | | |
|-------------------|---|--|--|-------|---|
| | Meteorological Observatory. Ref [28] | | | | |
| Dublin Marrowbone | Dublin City Council Building in Marrowbone Lane. Ref [13] | Lat.: 53.337767° , Long.: -6.286186° | Campbell Scientific CSAT3 three-dimensional sonic anemometer | 10 Hz | Total measurement height of approximately 17 m |
| Dublne St Pius X | St. Pius X National (Girls) School. Ref [13] | Lat.: 53.337767° , Long.: -60.305283° | Campbell Scientific CSAT3 three-dimensional sonic anemometer | 10 Hz | Total measurement height of approximately 12 m |
| Helsinki Urban | Roof-top of Hotel Torni within Helsinki city. Ref [29, 30] | Lat.: 60.167803° , Long.: 24.938689° | Metek USA-1 three-dimensional ultrasonic anemometer | 10 Hz | Mast height approximately 2.3 m, total building height approximately 42.7 m |
| Helsinki Suburban | SMEAR III (Station for Measuring Ecosystem-Atmosphere Relationships). Ref [29, 30] | Lat.: 60.202817° , Long.: 24.961128° | Metek USA-1 three-dimensional ultrasonic anemometer | 10 Hz | Mast at the height of 31 m with the anemometer located on a horizontal boom |
| London | The Westminster city council building, London. Ref [31-33] | Lat.: 51.521588° , Long.: -0.160074° | Gill R3-100 sonic anemometer | 20Hz | Mast height approximately 3.5 m, building height approximately 15 m |

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626 **Table 2:** Coefficients used in predicting the unsteady power coefficient required for the power

627 estimation model (as given in Equation 39).

| Constants | |
|-----------|---------|
| a | 23.85 |
| c | -0.7476 |
| q | 43.32 |
| s | 21.32 |

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631 **Table 3:** Summary of the coefficients for the best fit for $C_e - T.I.$ plots at different response times
632 across the 8 sites.

| Constants | Turbine Response time (s) | | |
|-----------|---------------------------|---------|---------|
| | 10 | 20 | 30 |
| a | 19.02 | 23.51 | 0.6099 |
| b | 3.789 | 1.045 | 19.84 |
| c | -0.4299 | -0.5336 | -3.342 |
| d | -1.806 | -2.881 | -0.2464 |
| q | 41.19 | 35.99 | 35.79 |
| s | 21.2 | 21.03 | 20.95 |

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Appendix 3.1

| ALPHA | Lift Coefficient for NACA0012 | | | | | |
|-------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|---------|---------|---------|
| | REYNOLDS NUMBER | | | | | |
| | 160000 | 360000 | 700000 | 1000000 | 2000000 | 5000000 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0.11 | 0.11 | 0.11 | 0.11 | 0.11 | 0.11 |
| 2 | 0.22 | 0.22 | 0.22 | 0.22 | 0.22 | 0.22 |
| 3 | 0.33 | 0.33 | 0.33 | 0.33 | 0.33 | 0.33 |
| 4 | 0.44 | 0.44 | 0.44 | 0.44 | 0.44 | 0.44 |
| 5 | 0.55 | 0.55 | 0.55 | 0.55 | 0.55 | 0.55 |
| 6 | 0.66 | 0.66 | 0.66 | 0.66 | 0.66 | 0.66 |
| 7 | 0.746 | 0.77 | 0.77 | 0.77 | 0.77 | 0.77 |
| 8 | 0.8247 | 0.8542 | 0.88 | 0.88 | 0.88 | 0.88 |
| 9 | 0.8527 | 0.9352 | 0.9598 | 0.9661 | 0.99 | 0.99 |
| 10 | 0.1325 | 0.9811 | 1.0343 | 1.0512 | 1.0727 | 1.1 |
| 11 | 0.1095 | 0.9132 | 1.0749 | 1.1097 | 1.1539 | 1.1842 |
| 12 | 0.1533 | 0.4832 | 1.039 | 1.1212 | 1.2072 | 1.2673 |
| 13 | 0.203 | 0.2759 | 0.8737 | 1.0487 | 1.2169 | 1.3242 |
| 14 | 0.2546 | 0.2893 | 0.6284 | 0.8846 | 1.1614 | 1.3423 |
| 15 | 0.3082 | 0.3306 | 0.4907 | 0.7108 | 1.0478 | 1.3093 |
| 16 | 0.362 | 0.3792 | 0.4696 | 0.606 | 0.9221 | 1.2195 |
| 17 | 0.42 | 0.4455 | 0.5195 | 0.5906 | 0.7826 | 1.0365 |
| 18 | 0.4768 | 0.5047 | 0.5584 | 0.603 | 0.7163 | 0.9054 |
| 19 | 0.5322 | 0.5591 | 0.6032 | 0.6334 | 0.7091 | 0.8412 |
| 20 | 0.587 | 0.612 | 0.6474 | 0.6716 | 0.7269 | 0.8233 |
| 21 | 0.6414 | 0.6643 | 0.6949 | 0.7162 | 0.7595 | 0.8327 |
| 22 | 0.6956 | 0.7179 | 0.7446 | 0.7613 | 0.7981 | 0.8563 |
| 23 | 0.7497 | 0.7715 | 0.7948 | 0.8097 | 0.8429 | 0.8903 |
| 24 | 0.8043 | 0.8246 | 0.8462 | 0.8589 | 0.8882 | 0.9295 |
| 25 | 0.8572 | 0.878 | 0.8984 | 0.9093 | 0.9352 | 0.9718 |
| 26 | 0.9109 | 0.9313 | 0.9506 | 0.9618 | 0.9842 | 1.0193 |
| 27 | 0.923 | 0.9412 | 0.9583 | 0.9683 | 0.9882 | 1.068 |
| 30 | 0.9593 | 0.9709 | 0.9814 | 0.9878 | 1.002 | 0.915 |
| 35 | 1.02 | 1.02 | 1.02 | 1.02 | 1.02 | 1.02 |
| 40 | 1.075 | 1.075 | 1.075 | 1.075 | 1.075 | 1.075 |
| 45 | 1.085 | 1.085 | 1.085 | 1.085 | 1.085 | 1.085 |
| 50 | 1.04 | 1.04 | 1.04 | 1.04 | 1.04 | 1.04 |
| 55 | 0.965 | 0.965 | 0.965 | 0.965 | 0.965 | 0.965 |
| 60 | 0.875 | 0.875 | 0.875 | 0.875 | 0.875 | 0.875 |
| 65 | 0.765 | 0.765 | 0.765 | 0.765 | 0.765 | 0.765 |
| 70 | 0.65 | 0.65 | 0.65 | 0.65 | 0.65 | 0.65 |
| 75 | 0.515 | 0.515 | 0.515 | 0.515 | 0.515 | 0.515 |
| 80 | 0.37 | 0.37 | 0.37 | 0.37 | 0.37 | 0.37 |
| 85 | 0.22 | 0.22 | 0.22 | 0.22 | 0.22 | 0.22 |
| 90 | 0.07 | 0.07 | 0.07 | 0.07 | 0.07 | 0.07 |
| 95 | -0.07 | -0.07 | -0.07 | -0.07 | -0.07 | -0.07 |
| 100 | -0.22 | -0.22 | -0.22 | -0.22 | -0.22 | -0.22 |
| 105 | -0.37 | -0.37 | -0.37 | -0.37 | -0.37 | -0.37 |

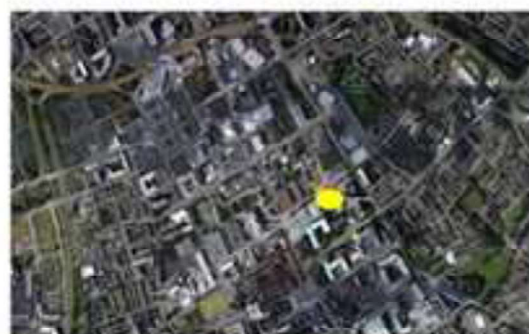
Appendix 3.5

| ALPHA | Drag | | Coefficient | | NACA0012 | |
|-------|--------|--------|-------------|---------|----------|---------|
| | 160000 | 360000 | 700000 | 1000000 | 2000000 | 5000000 |
| 0 | 0.0103 | 0.0079 | 0.0067 | 0.0065 | 0.0064 | 0.0064 |
| 1 | 0.0104 | 0.008 | 0.0068 | 0.0066 | 0.0064 | 0.0064 |
| 2 | 0.0108 | 0.0084 | 0.007 | 0.0068 | 0.0066 | 0.0066 |
| 3 | 0.0114 | 0.0089 | 0.0075 | 0.0071 | 0.0069 | 0.0068 |
| 4 | 0.0124 | 0.0098 | 0.0083 | 0.0078 | 0.0073 | 0.0072 |
| 5 | 0.014 | 0.0113 | 0.0097 | 0.0091 | 0.0081 | 0.0076 |
| 6 | 0.0152 | 0.0125 | 0.0108 | 0.0101 | 0.009 | 0.0081 |
| 7 | 0.017 | 0.0135 | 0.0118 | 0.011 | 0.0097 | 0.0086 |
| 8 | 0.0185 | 0.0153 | 0.0128 | 0.0119 | 0.0105 | 0.0092 |
| 9 | 0.0203 | 0.0167 | 0.0144 | 0.0134 | 0.0113 | 0.0098 |
| 10 | 0.0188 | 0.0184 | 0.0159 | 0.0147 | 0.0128 | 0.0106 |
| 11 | 0.076 | 0.0204 | 0.0175 | 0.0162 | 0.014 | 0.0118 |
| 12 | 0.134 | 0.0217 | 0.0195 | 0.018 | 0.0155 | 0.013 |
| 13 | 0.152 | 0.0222 | 0.0216 | 0.02 | 0.0172 | 0.0143 |
| 14 | 0.171 | 0.106 | 0.0236 | 0.0222 | 0.0191 | 0.0159 |
| 15 | 0.19 | 0.19 | 0.117 | 0.0245 | 0.0213 | 0.0177 |
| 16 | 0.21 | 0.21 | 0.21 | 0.128 | 0.0237 | 0.0198 |
| 17 | 0.231 | 0.231 | 0.23 | 0.231 | 0.138 | 0.0229 |
| 18 | 0.252 | 0.252 | 0.252 | 0.252 | 0.252 | 0.148 |
| 19 | 0.274 | 0.274 | 0.274 | 0.274 | 0.274 | 0.274 |
| 20 | 0.297 | 0.297 | 0.297 | 0.297 | 0.297 | 0.297 |
| 21 | 0.32 | 0.32 | 0.32 | 0.32 | 0.32 | 0.32 |
| 22 | 0.344 | 0.344 | 0.344 | 0.344 | 0.344 | 0.344 |
| 23 | 0.369 | 0.369 | 0.369 | 0.369 | 0.369 | 0.369 |
| 24 | 0.394 | 0.394 | 0.394 | 0.394 | 0.394 | 0.394 |
| 25 | 0.42 | 0.42 | 0.42 | 0.42 | 0.42 | 0.42 |
| 26 | 0.446 | 0.446 | 0.446 | 0.446 | 0.446 | 0.446 |
| 27 | 0.473 | 0.473 | 0.473 | 0.473 | 0.473 | 0.473 |
| 30 | 0.57 | 0.57 | 0.57 | 0.57 | 0.57 | 0.57 |
| 35 | 0.745 | 0.745 | 0.745 | 0.745 | 0.745 | 0.745 |
| 40 | 0.92 | 0.92 | 0.92 | 0.92 | 0.92 | 0.92 |
| 45 | 1.075 | 1.075 | 1.075 | 1.075 | 1.075 | 1.075 |
| 50 | 1.215 | 1.215 | 1.215 | 1.215 | 1.215 | 1.215 |
| 55 | 1.345 | 1.345 | 1.345 | 1.345 | 1.345 | 1.345 |
| 60 | 1.47 | 1.47 | 1.47 | 1.47 | 1.47 | 1.47 |
| 65 | 1.575 | 1.575 | 1.575 | 1.575 | 1.575 | 1.575 |
| 70 | 1.665 | 1.665 | 1.665 | 1.665 | 1.665 | 1.665 |
| 75 | 1.735 | 1.735 | 1.735 | 1.735 | 1.735 | 1.735 |
| 80 | 1.78 | 1.78 | 1.78 | 1.78 | 1.78 | 1.78 |
| 85 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 |
| 90 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 |
| 95 | 1.78 | 1.78 | 1.78 | 1.78 | 1.78 | 1.78 |
| 100 | 1.75 | 1.75 | 1.75 | 1.75 | 1.75 | 1.75 |

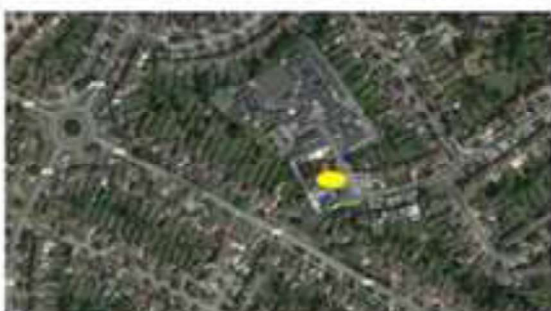
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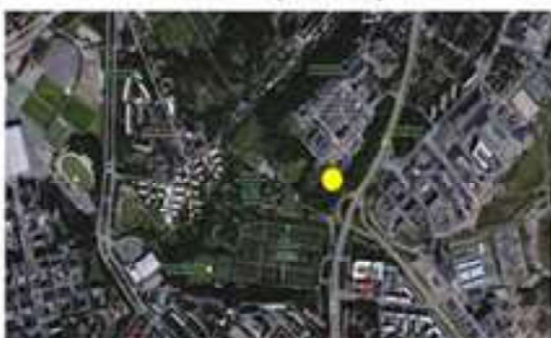
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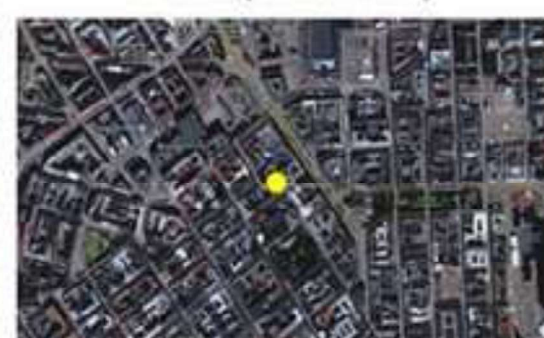
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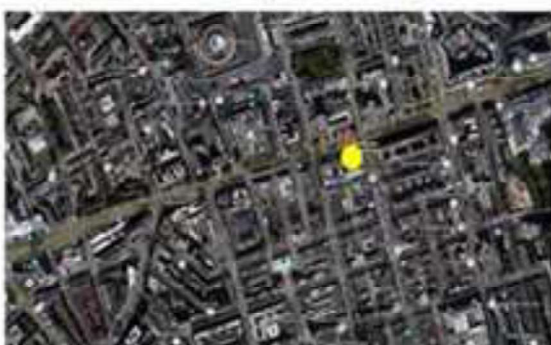
Dublin (Marrowbone)



Helsinki (Suburban)



Helsinki (Urban)



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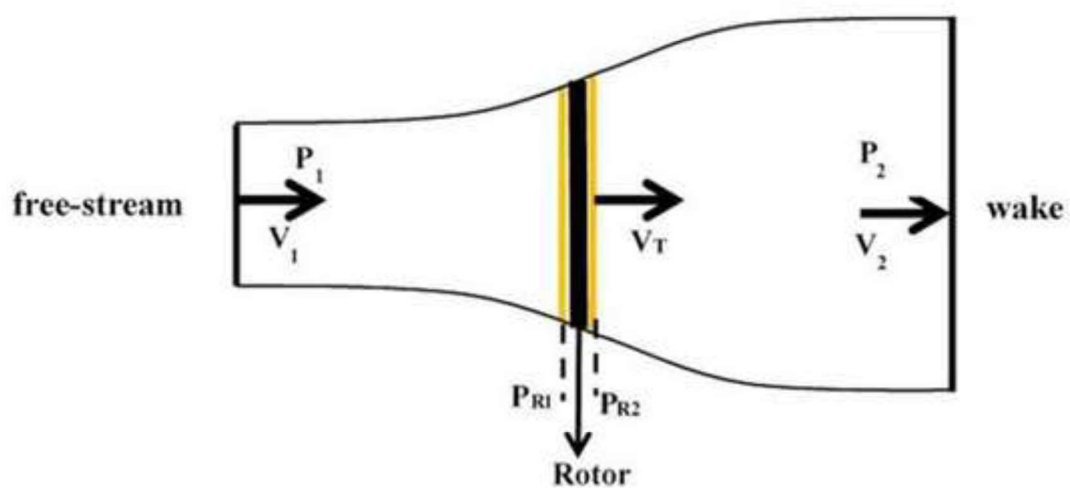


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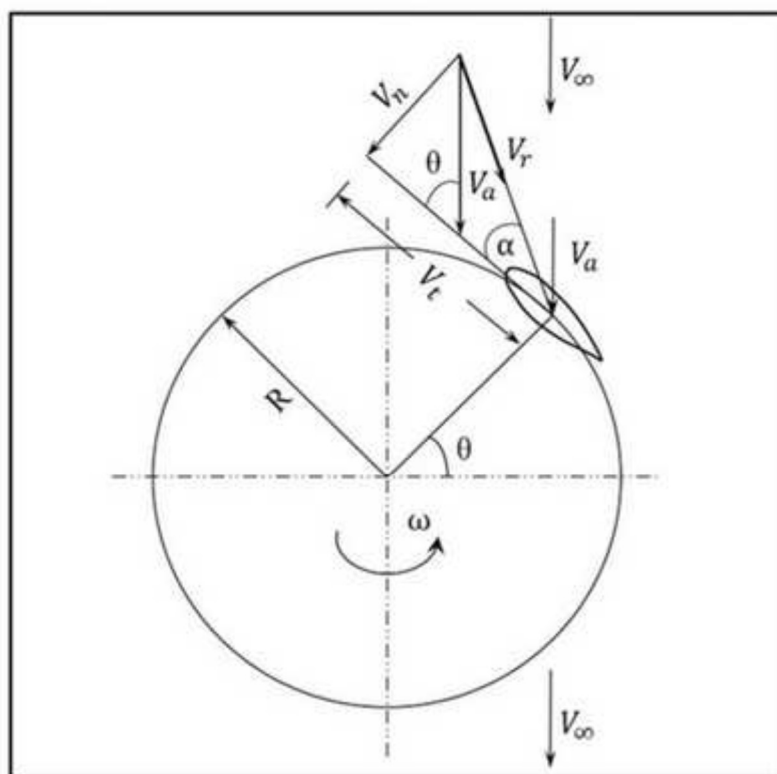


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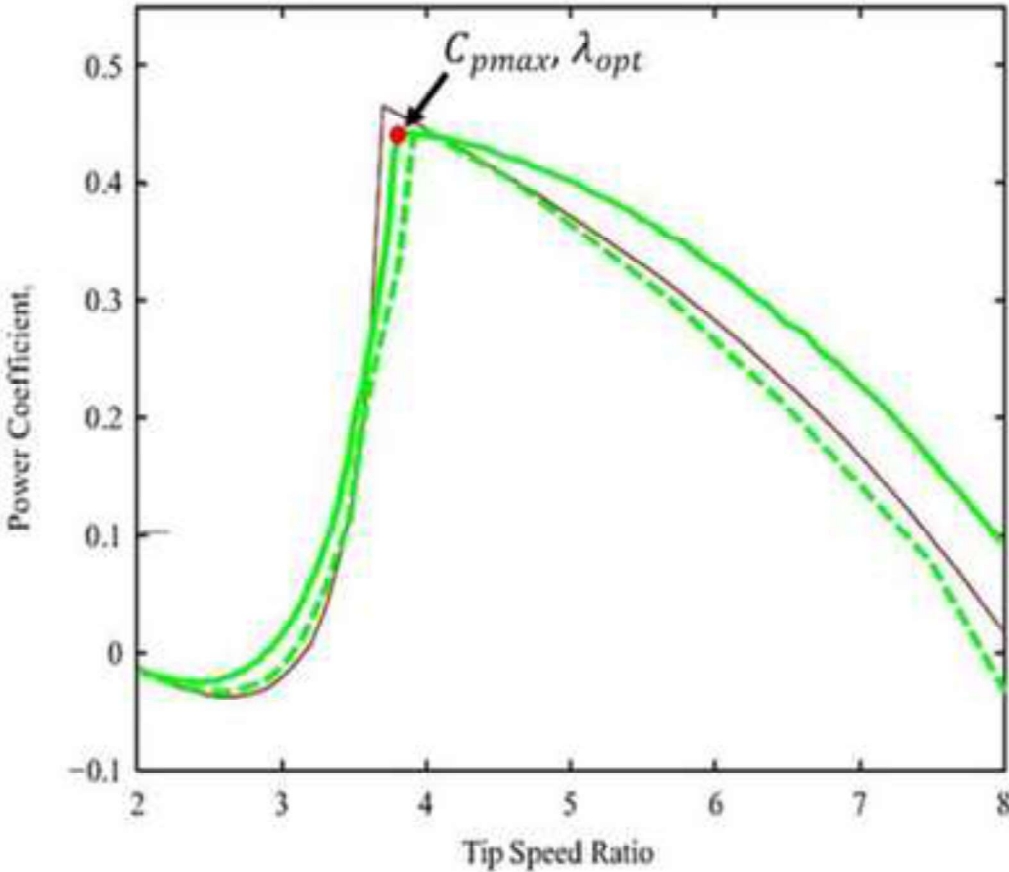


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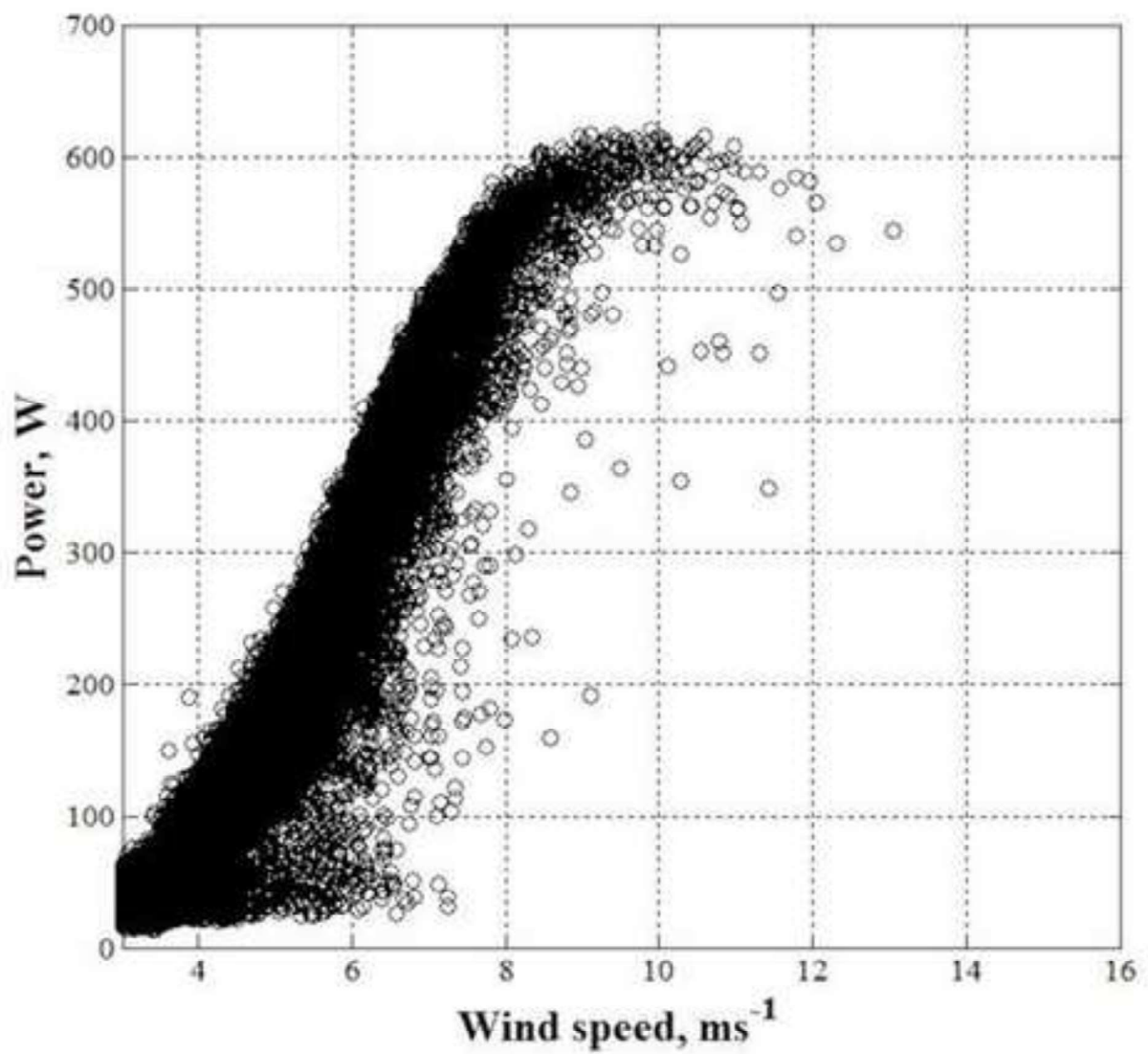


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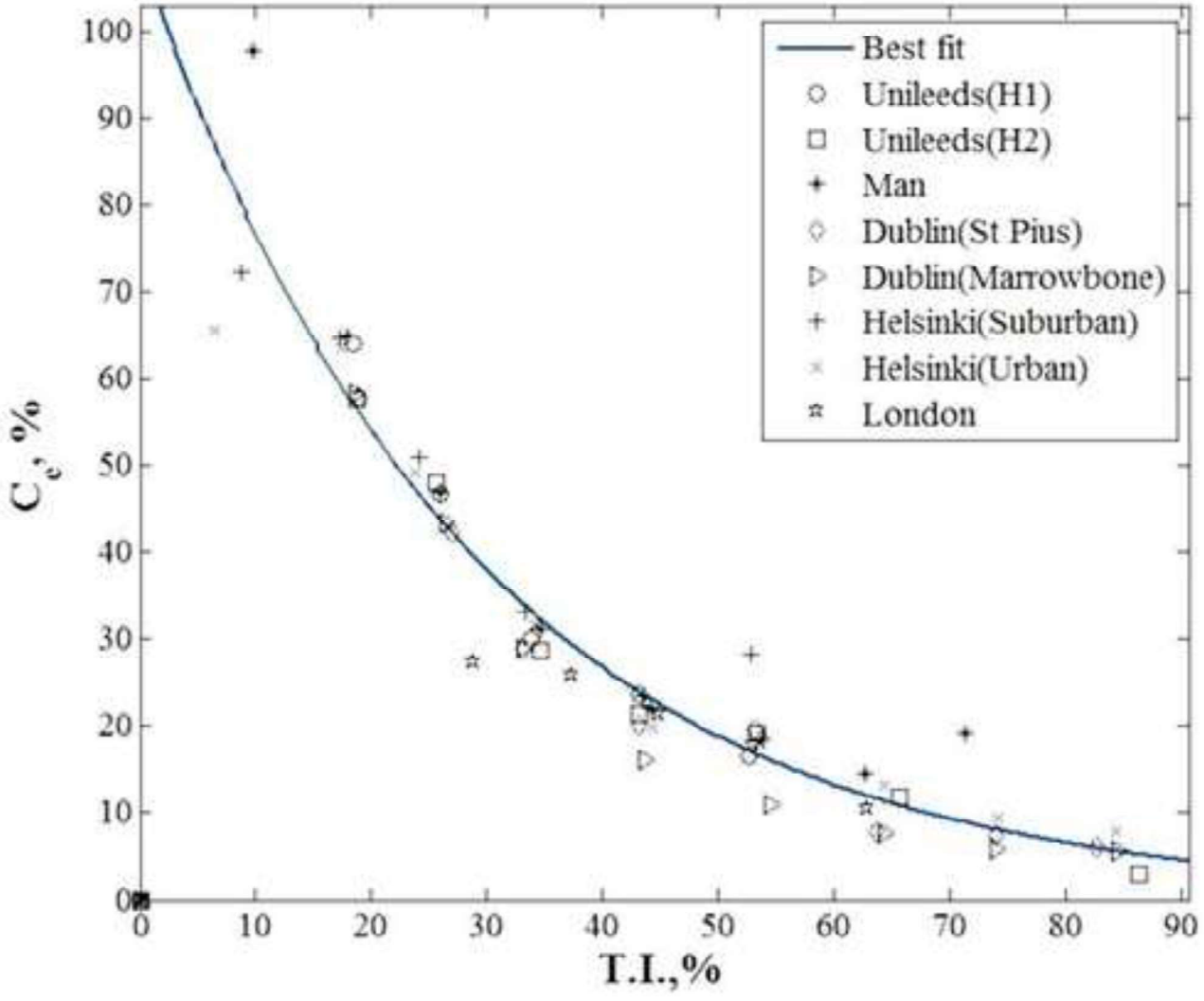


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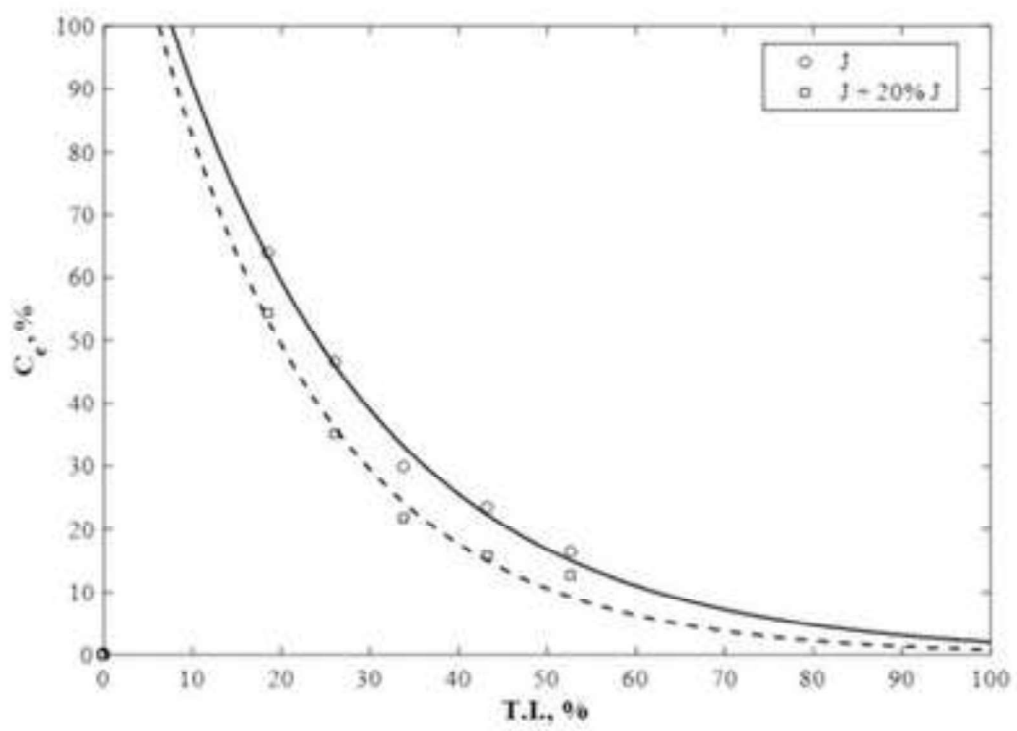


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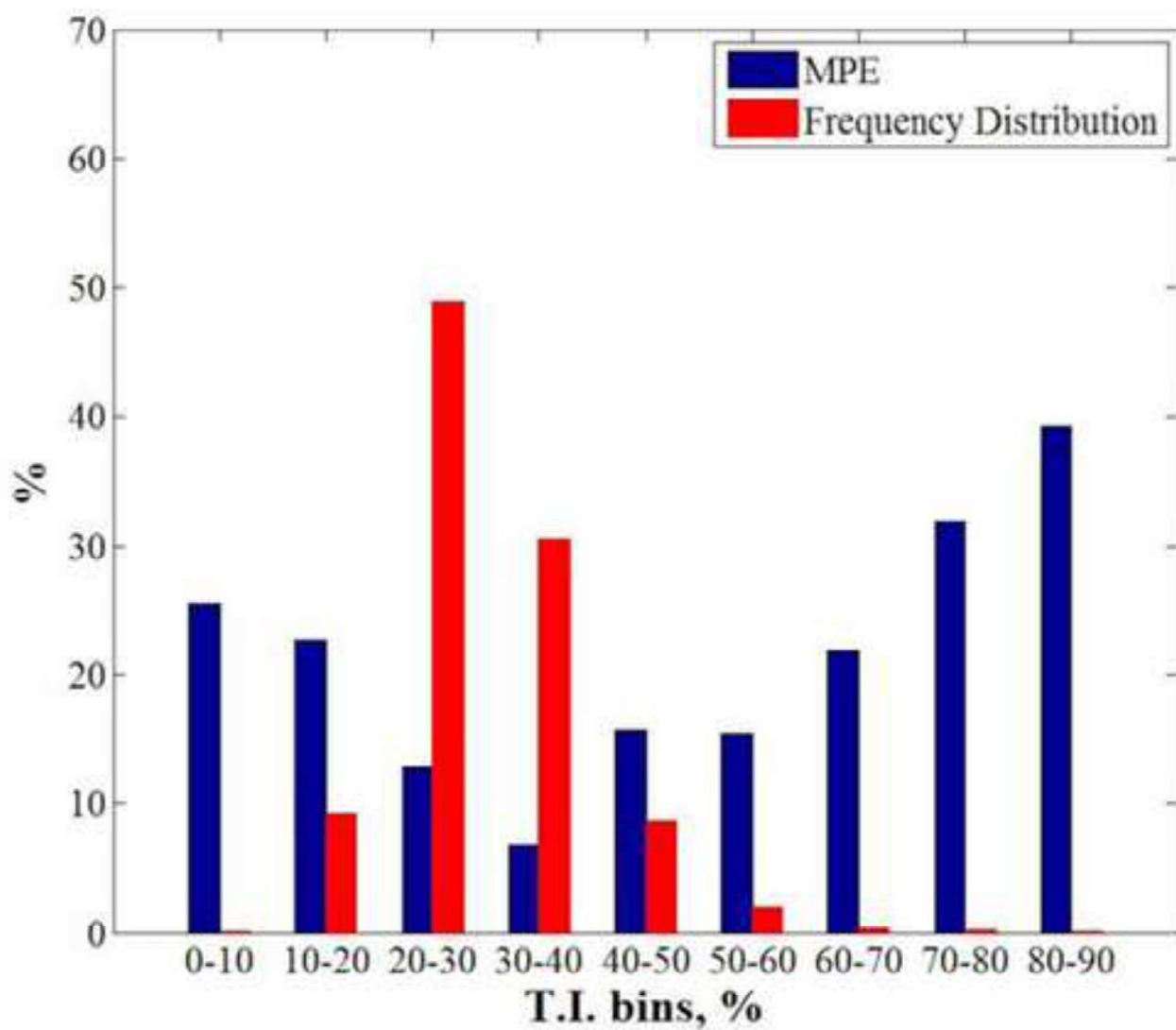


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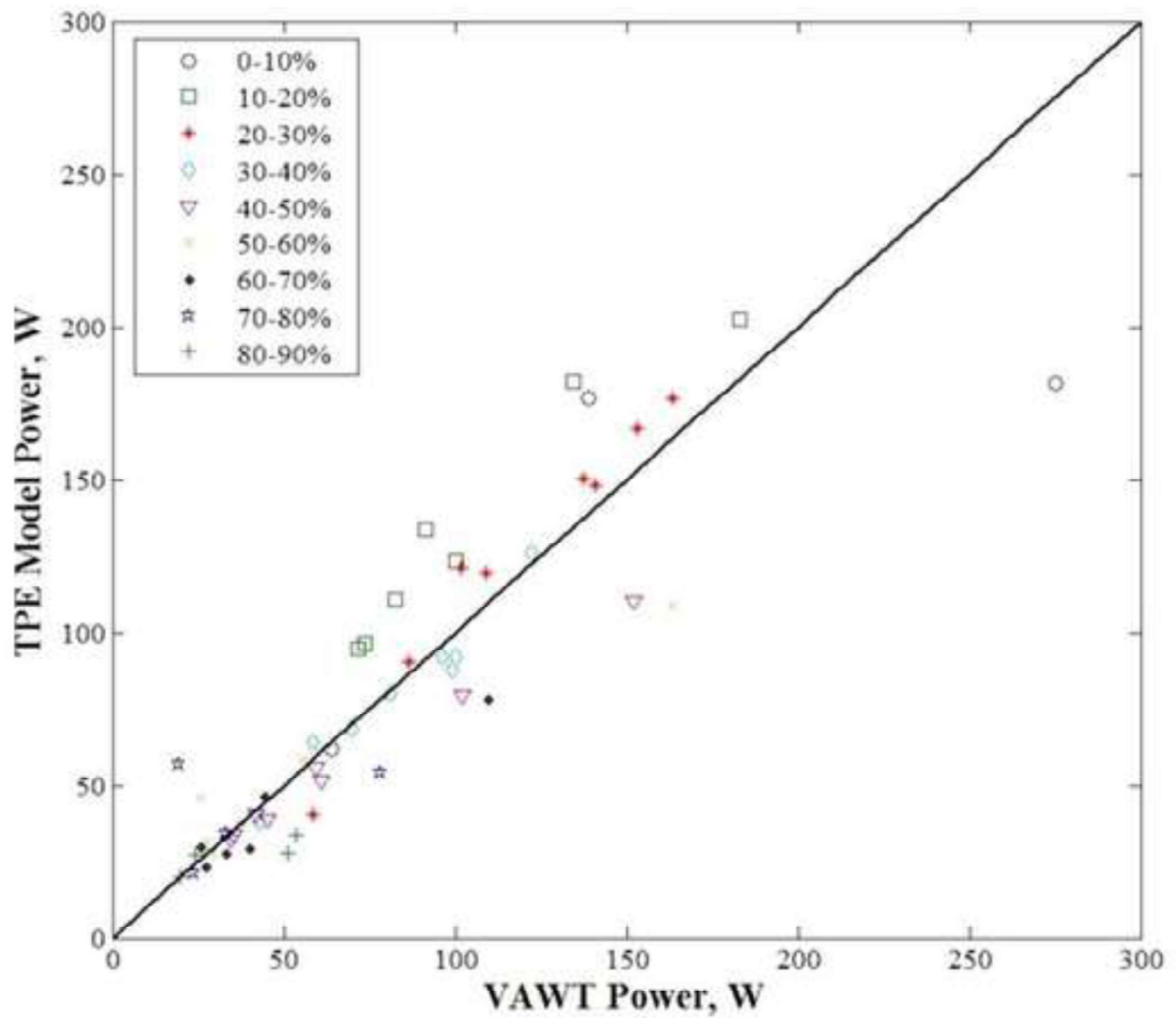


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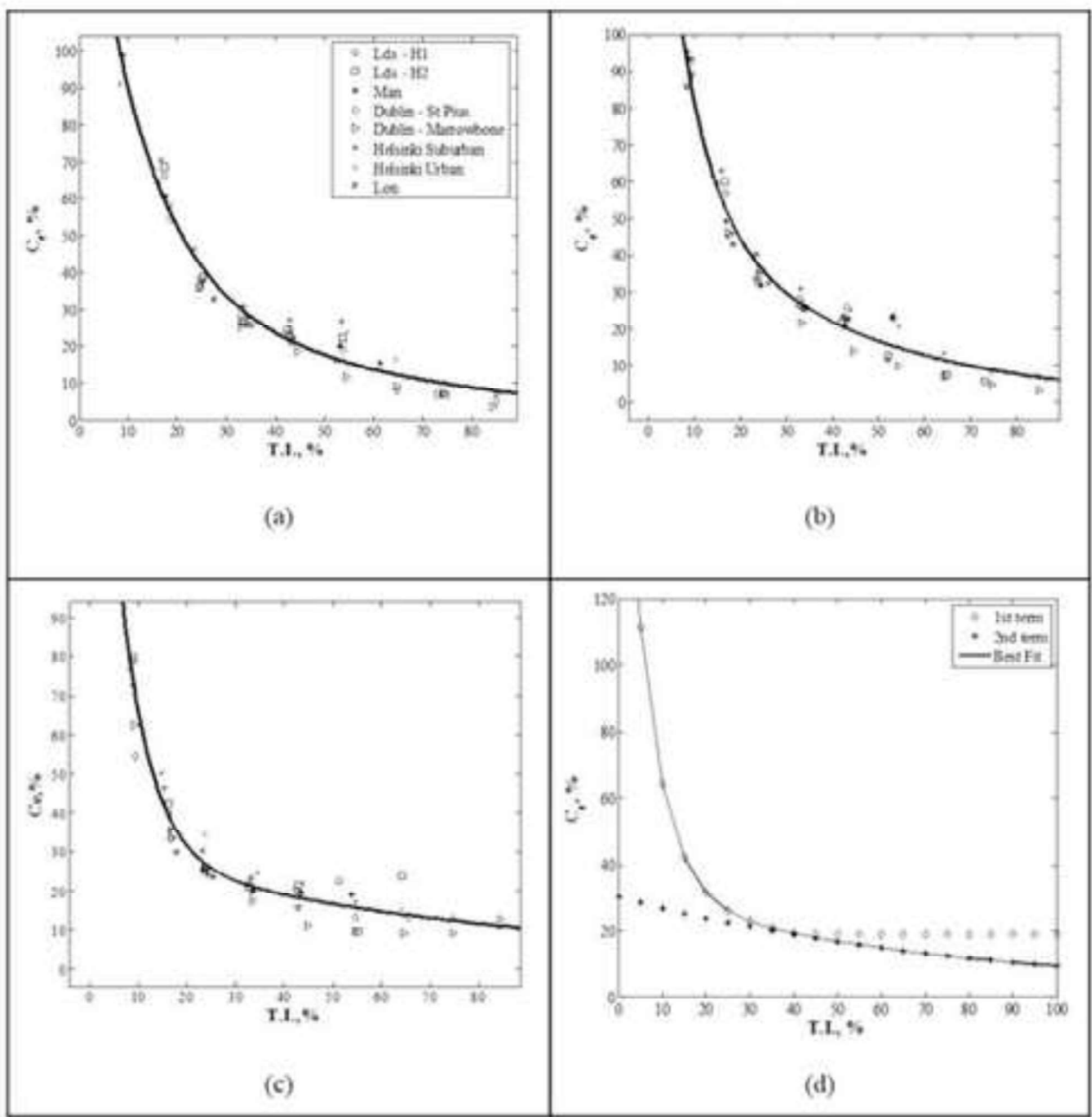


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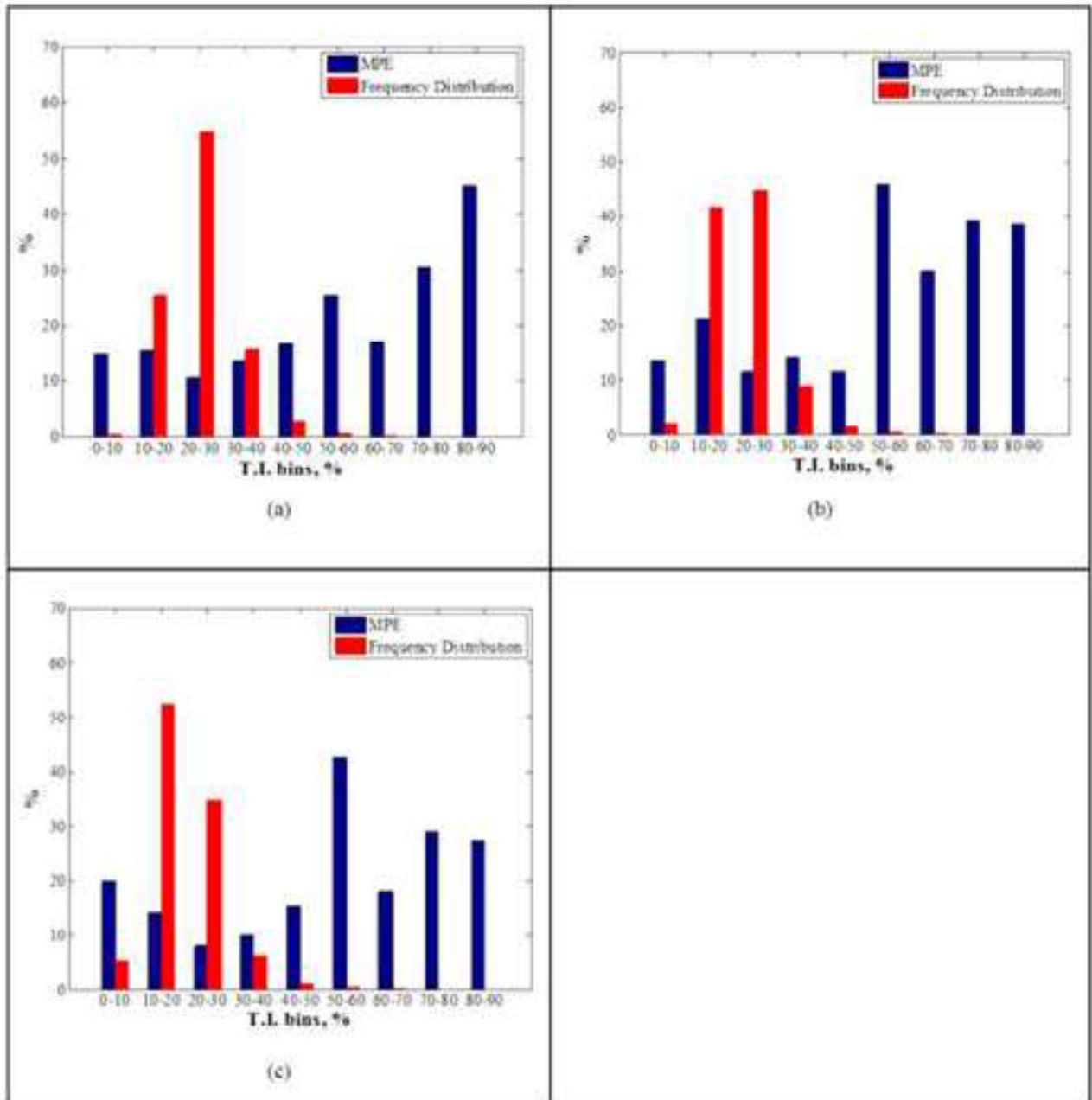
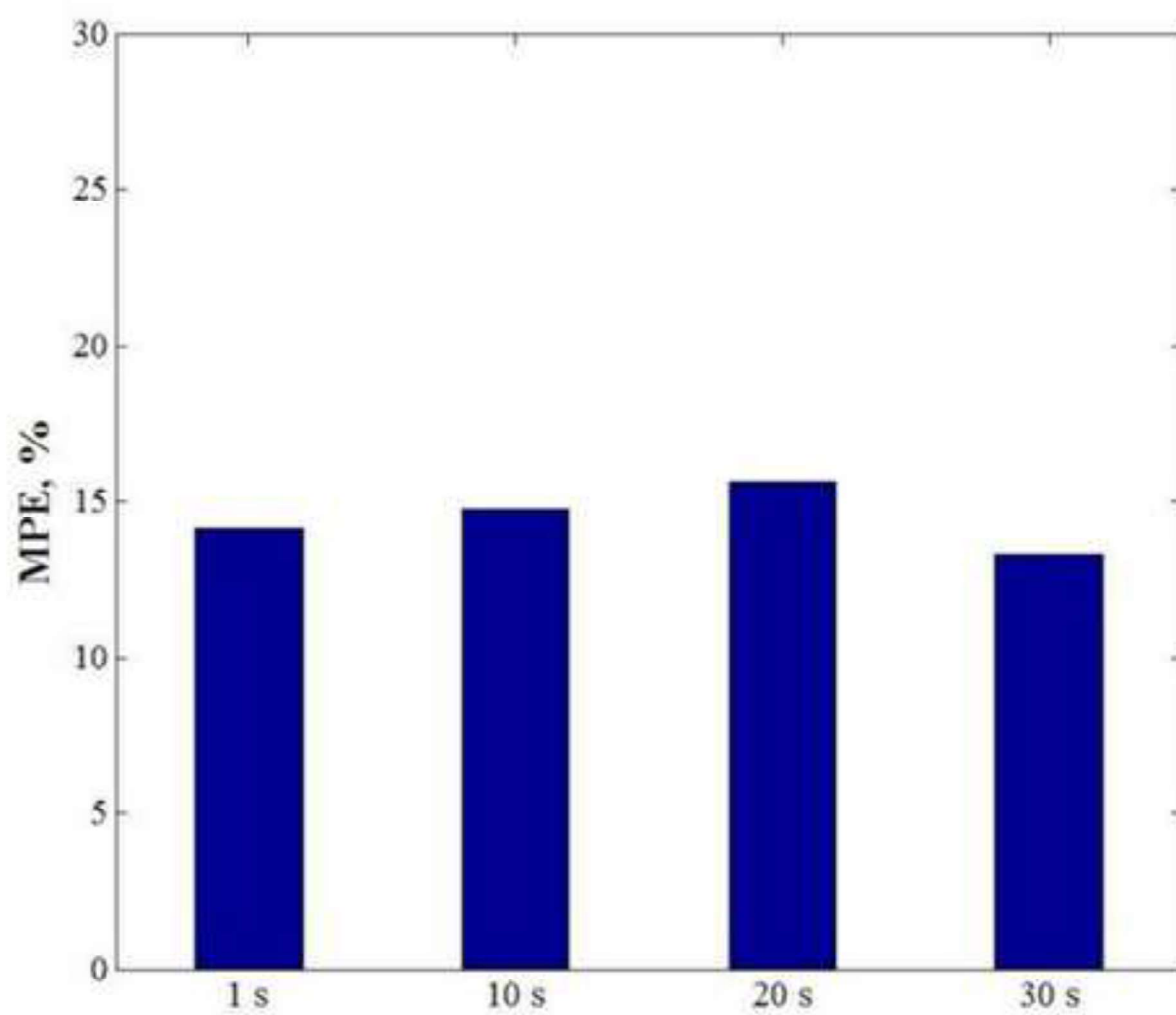


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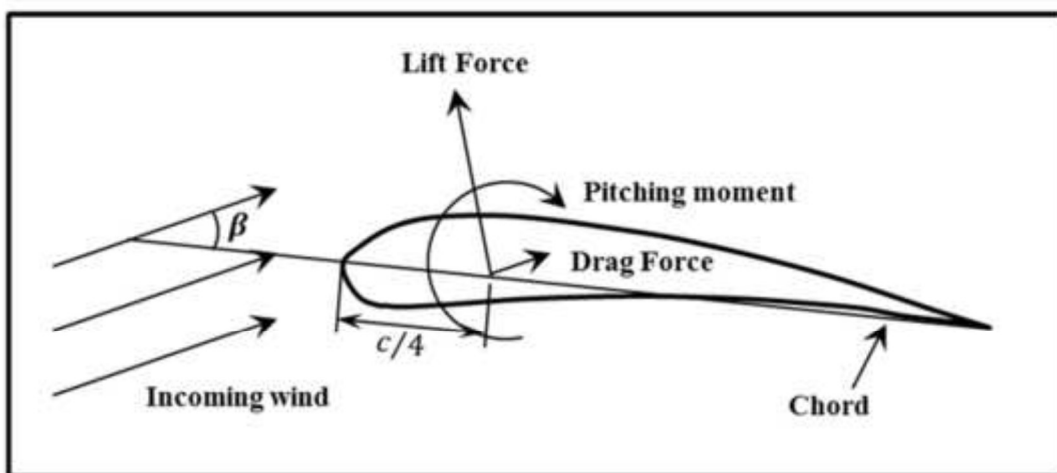
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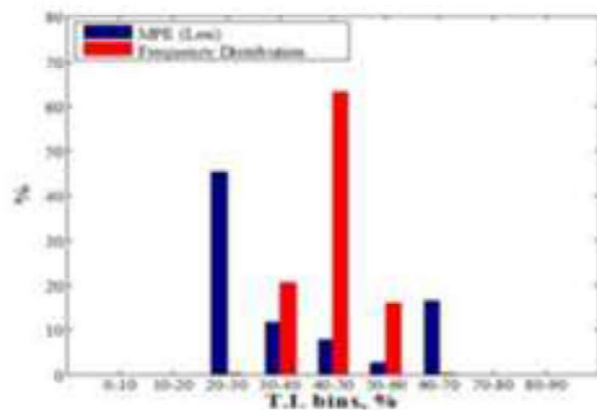
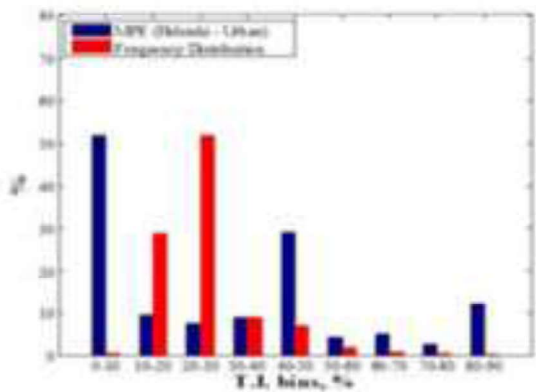
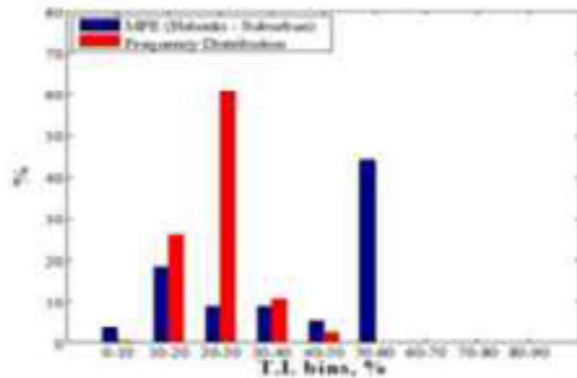
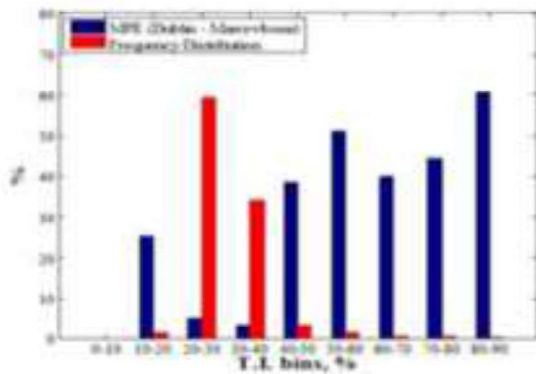
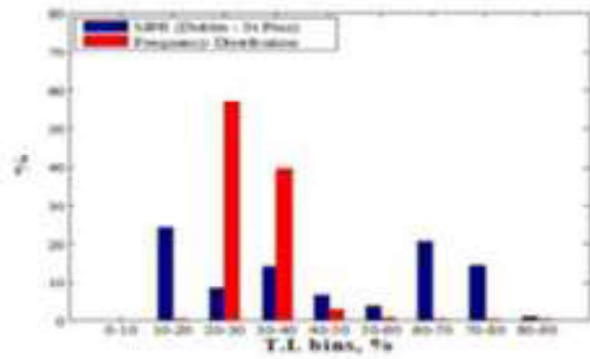
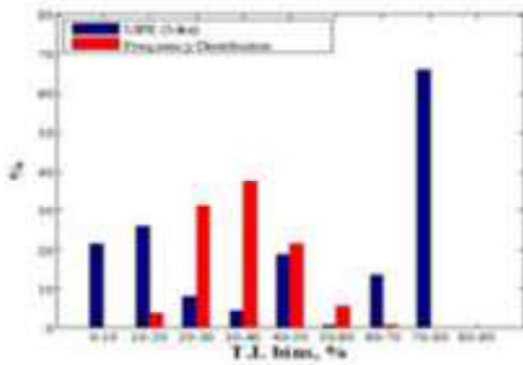
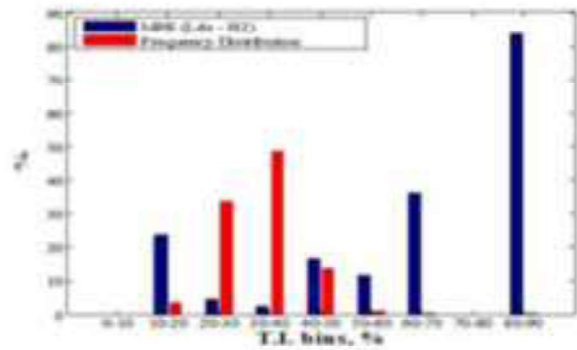
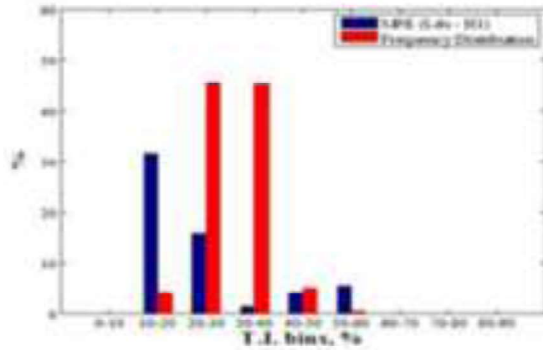
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APPENDIX 1

Figure A. 1: Forces acting on a blade, also demonstrating the chord and the angle of attack relative to the blade as well as the direction of the positive forces described by the direction of the arrows. c represents the blade chord length and β represents the pitch angle (Adapted from [55])

APPENDIX 2

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APPENDIX 3

Tables of Lift and Drag coefficients for different Reynolds number at varying angle of attack (α) for NACA0012, NACA0015, NACA0018 and NACA0021.

***Declaration of Interest Statement**

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

CREDIT AUTHOR STATEMENT

CRedit roles:

Francis Emejeamara: Conceptualization; Data curation; Formal analysis; Funding acquisition; Investigation; Methodology; Project administration; Resources; Software; Supervision; Validation; Visualization; Roles/Writing - original draft; Writing - review & editing.

Alison Tomlin: Formal analysis; Funding acquisition; Investigation; Methodology; Supervision; Roles/Writing - original draft; Writing - review & editing.