A digital twin solution for floating offshore wind turbines validated using a full-scale prototype

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Abstract. In this work, we implement, verify, and validate a physics-based digital twin solution applied to a floating offshore wind turbine. The digital twin is validated using measurement data from the full-scale TetraSpar prototype. We focus on the estimation of the aerodynamic loads, wind speed, and section loads along the tower, with the aim at of estimating the fatigue lifetime of the tower. Our digital twin solution integrates :- 1) a Kalman filter to estimate the structural states based on a linear model of the structure and measurements from the turbine, 2) an aerodynamic estimator, and 3) a physics-based virtual 5 sensing procedure to obtain the loads along the tower. The digital twin relies on a set of measurements that are expected to be available on any existing wind turbine (power, pitch, rotor speed, and tower acceleration), and motion sensors that are likely to be standard measurements for a floating platform (inclinometers and GPS sensors). We explore two different pathways to obtain physics-based models: a suite of dedicated Python tools implemented as part of this work , or and the OpenFAST 10 linearization feature. In our final version of the digital twin, we use components from both approaches. We perform different 11 numerical experiments to verify the individual models of the digital twin. In this simulation realm, we obtain estimated damage 12 equivalent loads with an accuracy of the order of approximately 5% to 10%. When comparing the digital twin estimations with 13 the measurements from the TetraSpar prototype, the errors increased to 10%-15% on average. Overall, the accuracy of the results appears is promising and demonstrates the possibility to use of using digital twin solutions to estimate fatigue loads 14 on floating offshore wind turbines. A natural continuation of this work would be to implement the monitoring and diagnostics aspect of the digital twin -to inform operation and maintenance decisions. The digital twin solution is provided with examples 16 17 as part of an open-source repository.

1 Introduction

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The offshore floating wind turbine market is expected to grow in the next-coming decades as the technology is gaining gains in maturity, with several floating wind turbine prototypes already tested and commissioned, such as the TetraSpar, developed by Stiesdal Offshore (Stiesdal Offshore, 2022). Operation & and maintenance (O&M) costs can account for approximately one-third of offshore wind farm life cycle expenditures for a fixed-bottom project and are expected to be higher for remote (floating) projects (Castella, 2020). Reducing the O&M costs is therefore an impactful and effective means to lower the costs of floating offshore projects. Digital twin solutions are increasingly being considered-used to follow products during their life

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cycle to assess component conditions, guide predictive maintenance, and thereby reduce O&M costs. A review of digital twins for power systems is found in Song et al. (2023). Digital twins often include a virtual sensing component, whose role consists of providing information that are that provides information not measured by the physical system, and a structural health moni-toring component to assess the condition of the system. Virtual sensing technology is usually achieved using physics-based or data-driven approaches; both approaches relying on measurements from the physical system to infer and extrapolate informa-tion about its current state. Physics-based approaches use a numerical model of the system, whereas data-driven approaches either use ad-hoc use either ad hoc algorithms or machine-learning techniques. Machine-learning approaches can be trained using high-fidelity models or measurements, leading to potentially high accuracies while maintaining low computational time, but their training requirements imply that a technology cannot be readily transferred from one platform to another. Physics-based models often require low-fidelity models to achieve computational times low enough for digital twins to run in real time. They nevertheless offer the advantage that they provide tractable and insightful results, and, they can be applied to a same family of wind turbine concepts because they do not require a training dataset. Currently, there is no definite case as to which approach can lead to the best digital twin implementation, and it is possible that future approaches will combine physics-based with data-driven techniques. This work presents the development, verification, and validation of a physics-based digital twin for floating wind turbines -as a proof of concept for future maturation of the technology.

Digital twins for wind turbine applications have recently become a topic of research interest. The current authors explored the topic of physics-based digital twins in previous work, where in which a method to estimate tower loads on land-based turbines was developed (Branlard et al., 2020a, b). The approach relied on a Kalman filter model (Kalman, 1960; Zarchan and Musoff, 2015) , that combines a linear physics-based model of the structure with measurements from the turbine to perform a virtual sensing of the tower section loads and estimate the fatigue of this component. The measurement data was were taken from the supervisory control and data acquisition (SCADA) system using sensors readily available on most turbines. The approach used a mix between an augmented Kalman filter approach (Lourens et al., 2012), where the loads are estimated with the states of the system, and a physics-based aerodynamic estimator for aerodynamic thrust. Bilbao et al. (2022) used a Gaussian process latent force model instead to estimate the forcing of the system , and thereby obtain the section loads along the tower. Drivetrains are another component that has recently been an application of digital twin for which a digital twin has been applied, with physics-based approaches presented for instance in (Mehlan et al., 2022, 2023) in Mehlan et al. (2022, 2023), and data-driven models presented in Kamel et al. (2023).

In spite Despite the recent popularity of the term "digital twin" becoming recently popular, it," the concept is heavily based on the fields of structural health structural health monitoring and load estimations (or more generally, virtual sensing), which have long been topics of research. For instance, Iliopoulos et al. (2016) used physics-based modal decomposition to estimate the dynamic response on the substructure of a fixed-bottom wind turbine. Neural networks have been used to establish transfer functions or surrogate models based on SCADA data to obtain wind turbine loads with the aim of performing conditional monitoring (see, e.g., Cosack (2010); Schröder et al. (2018)). Kalman filters were introduced in fields other than wind energy to perform

58 load estimation, for instance in the following references: Auger et al. (2013); Ma and Ho (2004); Eftekhar Azam et al. (2015); Lourens et al. (2013). We want to all (2013). We want to al. (2013). We want

- used in wind energy to estimate rotor loads and improve wind turbine control , see, e. g., Boukhezzar and Siguerdidjane (2011); Selvam et al. (Boukhezzar and Siguerdidjane, 2011; Selvam et al., 2009; Bottasso and Croce, 2009; Bossanvi, 2003). Load estimations were
- 62 also achieved using hybrid-techniques hybrid techniques combining physics based on SCADA data by Noppe et al. (2016).
- 63 Other load estimation techniques may be used, such as lookup tables (Mendez Reyes et al., 2019), modal expansion (Iliopoulos
- et al., 2016), machine learning (Evans et al., 2018), neural networks (Schröder et al., 2018), polynomial chaos expansion (Dim-
- itrov et al., 2018), deconvolution (Jacquelin et al., 2003), or load extrapolation (Ziegler et al., 2017).
- In this work, we build on our previous work related to fixed-bottom turbines and present a digital twin solution for floating wind turbines that relies on physics-based models and a Kalman filter. We apply the digital twin to the TetraSpar structure and use measurements from the full-scale prototype. Achieving computational efficiency is crucial to be able to run the digital twin
- online, therefore, a reduced order model with few selected degrees of freedom is used. Developing digital twins for floating
- wind turbines present a set of challenges compared to our previous work on fixed-bottom foundations. The potentially large motions undergone by the platform may affect the aerodynamics and accelerometer signals. The models developed for fixed-
- 71 motions undergone by the platform may affect the aerodynamics and accelerometer signals. The models developed for fixed-
- 72 bottom foundations need to be augmented to be able to predict the aerodynamics when the platform experiences large pitching
- 73 motions. The dynamics of the platform motion needs to be well captured for the tower-top accelerometer to be used and for
- 74 estimating the loading in the stationkeeping system. In both floating and fixed-bottom wind turbines, hydrodynamic loads need
- 75 to be estimated to capture member-level loads in the substructure but they can be omitted as a first approximation if only the
- 76 tower loads are estimated, as in this study.
- 77 In Section 2, we provide an overview of our digital concept, the vision for future application, and the TetraSpar prototype on
- 78 which the digital twin is applied. In Section 3, we present the individual components of the digital twin, and run some isolated
- 79 verification studies on them. In Section 4, we present results from the digital twin application first using numerical experiments,
- 80 and then using measurements from the TetraSpar prototype, before concluding. To avoid lengthening the main text, we provide
- 81 derivations (some being of which are important contributions of this work) and additional results in appendices.

82 2 Overview of the digital twin concept

83 In this section, we provide an overview of our digital twin concept and how it is applied in this study.

84 2.1 Long-term vision of the digital twin concept

- 85 Many definitions and applications of digital twins are possible. The vision for the concept discussed in the this work is to
- 86 follow the life cycle of a wind turbine in real-time real time and ultimately provide tangible signals to inform O&M decisions.
- 87 Our goal is to achieve this by relying only on measurements expected to be available on most wind turbines, thereby avoiding
- 88 the extra cost of adding sensors. In this work, we leave open the question as to whether the installation of an additional set of
- 89 optimally placed and selected sensors can further improve the predictions of the digital twin, further reducing the long-term
- 90 O&M costs, and thereby warranting the additional costs of adding the sensors.

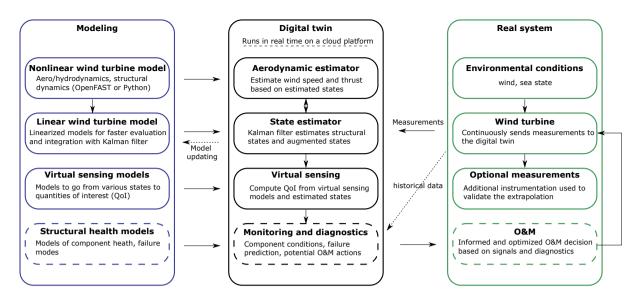


Figure 1. Overview of the digital twin concept. Dashed lines indicate features that are outside the current scope.

We illustrate our approach and vision in Figure 1. The digital twin is intended to run in real-time-real time on a cloud platform. It combines a set of models (on the left of the figure) with data from the real system (on the right) to perform the estimation of various states and eventually produce diagnostics that can be use to inform the O&M. The data from the real system are taken from high-frequency measurements from the SCADA system (e.g., power, pitch, rotor speed). The states estimated by the digital twin include aerodynamic states (wind speed, thrust) and motions of the structure (e.g., surge, pitch, tower deflection). The core algorithm in the estimation is a Kalman filter that uses a linear wind turbine model. The estimated states are used in an-a "virtual sensing" step, to produce quantities of interests (QoI), such as the loads at key locations of the structure. The QoI are then intended to be postprocessed by a monitoring and diagnostic tool to generate the data needed to perform condition-based O&M.

2.2 Narrowed scope

The boxes in Figure 1 that are surrounded with dashes are not addressed in the current work, namely: the structural with dashed-line borders—structural health modeling, monitoring and diagnostics, and O&M decisions. These decisions—are postponed to future work, even though they are essential steps necessary to achieve our final vision, but they are postponed to future work. Dashed lines indicate possible and arrows indicate options that may be exploited in the future but are also outside of our scope: the use of historical data to assist in the diagnostics, the use of estimates to perform modeling model updating, and real-time implementation.

This work therefore focuses on the estimation of states and environmental conditions under the assumption that the estimated quantities can replace costly measurements and eventually be used for O&M decisions. We intend to provide a proof of concept

109 paving that paves the way for future commercial applications. A detailed description of each of the boxes surrounded with plain

2.3 System studied

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2.3.1 The TetraSpar prototype

lines will be provided solid lines is given in Section 3.

Throughout this article, the system studied The system studied for this article is the TetraSpar floating offshore prototype. The system consists of a floating platform and station keeping stationkeeping system developed by Stiesdal Offshore in collaboration with partners Shell, RWE, and TEPCO Renewable Power, and a 3.6-MW wind turbine with a rotor diameter of 130 m developed by Siemens Gamesa Renewable Energy. A sketch of the system is provided in Figure 2. The prototype was installed



Figure 2. Sketch of the TetraSpar prototype

off the coast of Norway and commissioned in November 2021. The prototype turbine is equipped with additional sensors (labeled "Optional measurements" in Figure 1), which we will use to validate the estimated QoI.

2.3.2 Numerical experiments

Prior to using measurement data, we will use simulations (referred to as "numerical experiments") in place of the real system to feed-in-feed data to the digital twin. The advantage of this approach is that the QoI are directly accessible and can be compared to the estimates for verification purposes.

Data for the numerical experiments is are obtained using OpenFAST simulations (Jonkman et al., 2023). A model of the 123 TetraSpar floating platform and the wind turbine was implemented in OpenFAST based on data provided by the manufactur-124 125 ers. The All the members of the substructure are modelled using the strip-theory approach (Morison equation) because the inherent long-wavelength assumption of the strip-theory has been shown to be sufficiently accurate for this structure with rel-126 atively slender members. The OpenFAST model is complemented with NREL's Reference OpenSource Controller (ROSCO, 127 128 Abbas et al. (2021)). The controller parameters are tuned so that OpenFAST simulations match the operating conditions of the turbine were extracted from SCADA data (pitch, rotor speed and power). The nacelle velocity feedback option of ROSCO is 129 130 used to reduce the platform pitching motion. Using trial and error, the frequency and damping ratio of the pitch PI-controller are set to $\omega_p = 0.05 \text{ rad/s}$ and a controller was tuned to approximate these conditions. $\zeta_p = 7 \%$, and the values for the 131 torque controller are set $\omega_Q = 0.15 \text{ rad/s}$ and $\zeta_Q = 7 \%$. The gain-scheduling of the pitch controller are obtained using the 132 tuning feature of ROSCO. We note that the controller is only needed to perform verifications of the digital twin with real-133 134 istic time series of the turbine responses, but the controller itself is not used for the design of the digital twin. We use the 135 following modules of OpenFAST(see, and Jonkman et al. (2023)) (Jonkman et al., 2023): MAP (mooring lines), HydroDyn (hydrodynamics), ElastoDyn (tower and blade elasticity; rigid floater), AeroDyn (aerodynamics), InflowWind (wind inflow), 136 and ServoDyn (controller interface). 137

For the numerical experiments, we use synthetic turbulent wind fields generated using TurbSim (Jonkman and Buhl (2006))(Jonkman and Buhl, 2006). In particular, we will often use the same wind field, that we will which we refer to as the "turbulent step"," where a deterministic ramp and drop are added to a turbulent field. The advantage of this 10-min wind field is that is it covers all the operating regions of the turbine in a challenging way because the variations of the wind speed are sudden. The wind speed at hub height for the turbulent step can be seen in Figure 6.

2.3.3 Main aspects of the structural model

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We model the structure using a set of 8 degrees of freedom (DOFsDOF), as illustrated in Figure 3. The platform is repre-144 sented as a rigid body, and its motion is described using 6 DOFsDOF: surge, sway, heave, roll, pitch, and yaw, respectively 145 noted $x, y, z, \phi_x, \phi_y, \phi_z x, y, z, \phi_x, \phi_y$, and ϕ_z . The tower bending in the fore-aft direction is represented using one-1 gen-146 eralized DOF, q_t , associated with a Rayleigh-Ritz shape function, taken as the first fore-aft mode shape of the tower (see, 147 e. g., Branlard (2019). (Branlard, 2019). The shape function along the tower height, z_t , is written as $\Phi(z_t)$, with $\Phi(0) = 0$ 148 149 at the tower bottom, and $\Phi(L_T)=1$ at the tower top, where L_T is the tower length. The shaft rotation is noted ψ , so that the rotation speed of the rotor is ψ -where the dotted, where the dot notation indicates differentiation with respect to time. 150 151 The rotor-nacelle-assembly (RNA)-rotor-nacelle assembly is modeled as a rigid body. The full vector of DOFs is therefore: $\mathbf{q} = [x, y, z, \phi_x, \phi_y, \phi_z, q_t, \psi]$ DOF is therefore $\mathbf{q} = [x, y, z, \phi_x, \phi_y, \phi_z, q_t, \psi]$. The equations of motion will be recast into a 152 first-order form by concatenating the vector of \overrightarrow{DOF} s-DOF and its time derivative: $x = [q, \dot{q}]$. The selected set of DOF capture 153 154 the first-order effects as it is the minimal set required to capture the full motion of the floater (necessary to compute restoring 155 loads and tower loads), the tower flexibility (necessary to capture tower loads) and the rotor motion (necessary to capture the aerodynamics). Additional degrees of freedom could be considered to increase the modeling accuracy, in particular to include 156

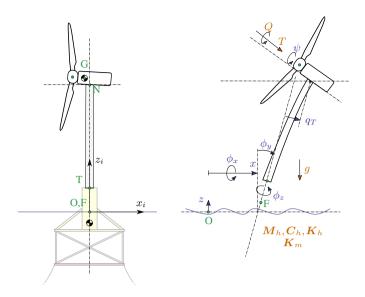


Figure 3. Notations for the structural modeling of the floating wind turbine, assuming no yawing of the nacelle. Left: main points (F,T,N,O,G) and inertial coordinate system (i). Right: degrees of freedom $(x,y,z,\phi_x,\phi_y,\phi_z,q_t,\psi)$ and main loads: aerodynamics (T,Q), hydrodynamics $(6\times 6$ mass -and damping and stiffness matrices-, M_h , C_h , K_h -Wave; wave excitation force neglected), mooring $(6\times 6$ stiffness matrix, K_m), and gravity (g).

floater flexibility for internal calculation of substructure member loads. This would increase the computational requirement and only contribute to second-order effects, and it is therefore postponed to future work.

In this work, we perform a simplifying assumptions, e.g., neglecting the influence of nacelle yaw on the system. The measurement data is are conveniently provided in the fore-aft and side-side system of the nacelle. The main assumption is therefore that we assume a rotational symmetry of the platform and mooring system about the yaw axis. We intend to lift this assumption in future work. Some of the consequences of this assumption is that we do no capture changes of inertial properties due to asymmetry of the support structure and changes of stiffness of the mooring system. In the case of the TetraSpar, the mass matrix of the floater does not vary significantly with the yawing of the coordinate system, and the assumption appears fair. For the restoring stiffness of the mooring system, the diagonal terms do not vary significantly as the coordinate system yaws, but some of the coupling terms vary by 50% to 200%. The couplings between the platform DOF are likely wrongly estimated under the rotational symmetry assumption. The impact is nevertheless limited because most of the platform DOF $(x, y, \phi_x, and \phi_y)$ are measured and therefore observable by the Kalman filter.

3 Individual components of the digital twin

- 170 In this section, we describe and verify the individual components of the digital twin presented in Figure 1. In Section 4, we
- 171 will-present applications of the digital twin where all the individual components are combined together.

172 3.1 Wind turbine measurements

The measurements used as inputs to the digital twin are listed in Table 1. These outputs are stored in a database at a sampling

Table 1. Measurements used as inputs to the digital twin.

Signal	Symbol
Blade Collective blade pitch angle	$ heta_p$
Rotor speed	$\dot{\psi}$
Generator torque*	Q_g
Surge and Sway Platform surge and sway	x, y
Roll and Pitch Platform roll and pitch	ϕ_x,ϕ_y
Nacelle accelerations	$m{\ddot{r}}_N$

^{*} Obtained from the power measurement using Equation 2.

rate of 25 Hz. We expect these measurements to be standard sensors for any floating wind turbine. The TetraSpar prototype is equipped with additional measurements that will be are used to validate the implementation of the digital twin (see Section 4).

3.2 Nonlinear wind turbine models

3.2.1 Overview

Similar to our previous work (Branlard et al., 2020b), we use two different pathways to obtain nonlinear and linear models of floating wind turbines: OpenFAST and WELIB (Wind Energy LIBrary, Branlard (2023b)). The different modeling approaches are illustrated in OpenFAST approach was described in Section 2.3.2, it is compared to the WELIB approach in Table 2 and further presented below. the WELIB toolset is further discussed below. In the next sections, we will show that the results from both approaches are consistent with each other so that either of the two can be used to obtain nonlinear and linear reduced order models. Ultimately, in Section 4, a mix of the two approaches is used for the digital twin: linear OpenFAST models for the state-space equations (Section 3.5) and WELIB for the virtual sensing step (Section 3.6).

The OpenFAST approach was described in . The

3.2.2 WELIB tools

The WELIB approach consists of a set of dedicated open-source Python tools that are similar to the ElastoDyn, HydroDyn and MAP modules of OpenFAST. We developed this Python code these tools to offer additional modularity and granularity, for instanceto allow for: the tools can be called individually or together; their states, inputs and outputs can be accessed and manipulated at each time step; and the Python scripting eases the manipulation of the models. For instance, this allows for: 1) analytical linearization of the structural dynamics, 2) simple linearization of the hydrodynamics (obtention of $6x6-6 \times 6$ matrices), 3) linearization of hydrodynamics with respect to wave elevation, 4) linearization with respect to parameters (Jonkman et al., 2022), and 5) interactive time-stepping of the linear and nonlinear models. One shortcoming is that WELIB does not

Table 2. Approaches and tools used to obtain nonlinear and linear models.

Approach	Tool	Usage	Formulation & Linearization
1 OpenFAST	OpenFAST (ElastoDyn, HydroDyn, MAP, AeroDyn)	Structural model Hydrodynamics Moorings Aerodynamics Virtual sensing	Numerical and analytical
WELIB (Python tools)	YAMS	Structural model Virtual sensing	Analytical
	pHydroDyn	Hydrodynamics	Numerical
	руМАР	Moorings	Numerical

cover the full range of options available with OpenFAST, which is a continuously evolving, extensively verified and validated tool. model. In this work, we mostly use the first two features listed above and their usage will be described in Section 3.3.2. Results from time-stepping simulations will be presented in Section 3.3.3. We expect to exploit the additional features of WELIB in future digital-twin implementations. For this work, we implemented the following tools in WELIB: 1) YAMS, a symbolic structural dynamics package to obtain the equations of motion of an assembly of rigid and flexible bodies analytically, and allow for their analytical linearization (Branlard and Geisler, 2022); 2) pHydroDyn, a Python version of the module HydroDyn (with a subset of HydroDyn's functionality) to determine the hydrodynamic loads; and 3) pyMAP, a wrapper around the MAP module of OpenFAST, to obtain the mooring quasi-statics. With these three additions, it is possible to perform nonlinear simulations of floating wind turbines using WELIB and perform comparisons with OpenFAST. The benefits of

3.2.3 Differences between the two nonlinear approaches

Currently, no controller or aerodynamic module is present in WELIB. Therefore, nonlinear timestepping simulations with WELIB are limited to free-decay simulations or prescribed loads. Another shortcoming is that WELIB does not cover the full range of options available with OpenFAST, which is a continuously evolving, extensively verified and validated tool. Such options include the potential flow representation of hydrodynamic bodies, the flexibility of the floating structure, aerodynamic and control features. One benefit of WELIB over OpenFAST is the possibility to perform interactive time-stepping, that is, to change the states and inputs dynamically during the simulation. We do not use this approach in this work, but it can be considered for nonlinear digital twin applications, for instance, using an extended Kalman filter algorithm. Another benefit is the possibility to obtain analytical linear models and—of the structure, which avoids using finite-differences and therefore reduces the associated numerical errors. In the WELIB approach, the individual modules are linearized separately before being combined into the final linear model, and it is therefore easier to understand where each term in the Jacobians of the linear models comes from, and thereby, gain physical intuitiveness on the model. Results-Ultimately, the linear models obtained by both approaches are similar and differ mostly based on differences in the structural dynamics equations and the implementation

216 of rotational transformation matrices. Results comparing time simulations using both approaches will be presented in see

217 Section 3.3.

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3.3 Linear wind turbine models

- 219 As part of our digital twin concept, we have chosen to use linear wind turbine models and a Kalman filter for the core of the
- 220 state estimation (see Section 3.5). Nonlinear models and an extended Kalman filter could be considered in future iterations. In
- 221 this section, we describe how the linear models from OpenFAST and WELIB are obtained.

222 3.3.1 OpenFAST linearization

- 223 OpenFAST can provide full-system linearization of its underlying nonlinear models by using a mix of analytically- and finite
- difference-derived analytically and finite-difference-derived Jacobians (Jonkman and Jonkman, 2016; Jonkman et al., 2018).
- 225 The linearization process provides the state-space model ($\delta \dot{x} = A\delta x + B\delta u$) and output equation ($\delta y = C\delta x + D\delta u$) for
- small perturbations (indicated with δ) of the internal states (x), inputs (u), and outputs (y) of OpenFAST, around the linearized
- 227 a selected operating point. OpenFAST provides the linear model for the entire set of states, inputs, and outputs present in the
- 228 model (including virtual sensor-type outputs typically written to an output file and not used internally). In this work, we extract
- subsets of the A, B, C, and D matrices and combine them to form the linear model of the state estimator (see Section 3.5).

230 3.3.2 WELIB linearization

- WELIB performs the linearization of the structure, hydrodynamics, and moorings independently, before combining them into
- 232 one model. The aerodynamic loads are not linearized because a dedicated aerodynamic estimator is used in this work (see
- 233 Section 3.4). The steps are as follows:
- The structural equations are linearized analytically using our symbolic framework (Branlard and Geisler, 2022). We
- 235 introduce introduced a notion of "augmented inputs" to linearize the equations of motion without an explicit knowledge
- of the external forces. The process is described in Appendix A.
- We compute the 6×6 linearized rigid-body hydrodynamics matrices (mass matrix M_h , damping matrix C_h , and stiffness
- matrix K_h) corresponding to the six rigid-body motions of the platform. We obtain themusing numerical differentiation
- 239 in two different ways At the time of this study, these matrices could not be obtained directly from OpenFAST. While
- working on this issue, we ended up devising multiple ways to obtain them. They can now be obtained using: 1) using
- the-full-system linearization of the HydroDyn module, 2) the Python implementation of the HydroDyn module by per-
- forming rigid-body perturbation perturbations of the full platform, or , 2) using 3) an upgraded version of the OpenFAST
- 243 HydroDyn driver that also uses rigid-body perturbations. The first approach uses baseline OpenFAST functionalities but
- 244 requires additional postprocessing scripts and derivations. The full-system linearization of the HydroDyn module. The
- 245 latter linearization of OpenFAST provides Jacobians of the hydrodynamic loads as a function of motions of the individual
- 246 hydrodynamic analysis nodes (of which models often have hundreds to thousands of). To transfer these individual Jaco-

bians to the reference point and obtain the 6×6 matrices, we developed and used the method presented in Appendix B. The process is involved and prone to errors. In comparison, the second and third approaches are straightforward to implement and are several orders of magnitude faster. The Python version was implemented first and then ported over to Fortran so that it can be readily available to the OpenFAST community. The consistency between the two-different approaches was verified. The, and because of its ease of use, the second approach is not straightforward to implement, therefore, we upgraded the OpenFAST HydroDyn driver to provide the 6×6 hydrodynamic matrices directly without the need to use the full-system linearization retained in this study. We note that in this study, all members are modeled using the Morison equation and the hydrodynamic drag is set to zero during the linearization process. There is therefore no frequency-dependent damping, and the effect of hydrodynamic drag is assumed to be part of the modeling uncertainty of the state estimator (see Section 3.5).

- The linearized 6×6 mooring stiffness matrix, K_m , is obtained by calling the linearization feature of the MAP module, and transferring the Jacobian to the reference point using the method outlined in Appendix B.
- The linearized equations of motion are assembled as:

$$[\boldsymbol{M}_0 + \boldsymbol{Q}_0 \boldsymbol{M}_h] \delta \ddot{\boldsymbol{q}} + [\boldsymbol{C}_0 + \boldsymbol{Q}_0 \boldsymbol{C}_h] \delta \dot{\boldsymbol{q}} + [\boldsymbol{K}_0 + \boldsymbol{Q}_0 (\boldsymbol{K}_h + \boldsymbol{K}_m)] \delta \boldsymbol{q} = \delta \boldsymbol{f}_a + \delta \boldsymbol{f}_h$$
(1)

where the matrices with subscript 0 originate from the linearization of the structure (see Appendix A). The term-matrix Q_0 is used here to map the, of dimension 8×6 , maps the subset of the 6 rigid-body platform degrees of freedom DOF $(x,y,z,\phi_x,\phi_y,\phi_z)$, used for the definitions of M_h , C_h , K_h and K_m , to the full vector of degrees of freedom DOF, q. The term δf_a is an approximation of the aerodynamic loads, and will be discussed in Section 3.4. The term δf_h is an approximation of the hydrodynamic wave-excitation loads, and it will be. In this work, δf_h is mapped into the inherent model noise of the Kalman filter in (see Section 3.5.). Assuming that the loading is part of the model noise is a crude approximation that is expected to be fair as long as the loading has a zero mean value, which is expected to be the case for the wave loading, but not for the wind or current loading (here omitted). This modeling choice is not very influential in this work because the motions of the platform measured by the inclinometers and GPS sensors inherently carry information about the wave loading. Improvements could be obtained by including a model for the wave-excitation loads, and further, limiting the wave load signal such that it remains within a certain frequency band.

For instance, we could introduce a hydrodynamic state analog to the wave elevation or a set of states that scales different hydrodynamic shape functions so that the hydrodynamic load can be obtained as a linear superposition of scaled shape functions. In our application (tower section loads), such modeling did not appear necessary, but it will be considered in future work as it can be relevant to estimate substructure loads.

- We recast Equation 1 into a first-order system to obtain the state matrix A.

3.3.3 Verification of the linear models

In this section, we compare results from the OpenFAST nonlinear model, the OpenFAST linear model, and the WELIB linear model \bar{q} for free-decay simulations of the TetraSpar structure. Free-decay simulations are sufficient because wave and aerodynamic loads are purposely not included in the linear models used by the digital twin. The OpenFAST linear model is obtained about the operating point defined by $q_0 = 0$ and $\dot{\psi}_0 = 10$ rpm. All models (including the OpenFAST nonlinear model) use 8 DOFsDOF. The initial conditions are set to q = [1, -1, 0.6, 0.5, 0.5, 0, -0.2, 0] q = [1, -1, 0.6, 0.5, 0.5, 0, -0.2, 0] (in m and deg) and $\dot{\psi} = 10$ rpm, after which the structure is free to decaymove.

First, simulation without hydrodynamics (structure only) are considered, to isolate and verify the structural-dynamics part of the models. The time responses from the linear and nonlinear models are in strong agreement when only the structure is considered (see results in Appendix C). Below, we present Then, we consider results for a model that includes hydrodynamics, but without wind or external waves (still water). Free decay of the structure using nonlinear and linear models for a case including moorings and hydrodynamics (still water). Time series of the main DOFs. We set the hydrodynamic drag to zero due to the difficulty in linearizing this term and will let the state estimator account for this modeling uncertainty. Results of the free-decay simulation are given in Figure 4, for a time period of 153 s corresponding to the surge frequency. When

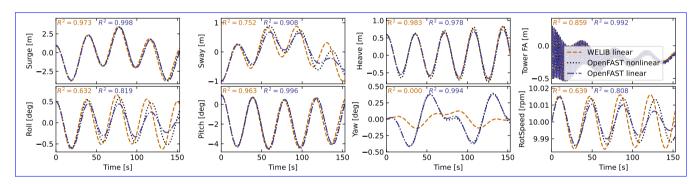


Figure 4. Free decay of the structure using nonlinear and linear models for a case including moorings and hydrodynamics (still water). Time series of the main DOF.

hydrodynamics is included, the time responses from the linear models are in strong agreement with the nonlinear OpenFAST results for the surge, heave, pitch, and tower fore-aft $\frac{DOFs}{DOF}$. The sway, roll, and rotor speed responses tend to drift as the simulation time advances. The WELIB linear model has difficulty capturing the yaw response. We believe that some of the error in the yaw signal is due to differences between the formulations of the three-dimensional rotations in OpenFAST and WELIB, resulting in a difference of coupling between the $\frac{DOFs}{s}$, which we assume can be attributed to inherent differences between linear and nonlinear models. The coefficient of determination (R^2) is indicated in Figure 4, comparing the linear models to the reference OpenFAST simulations for each response. In all cases, the OpenFAST linear model is closer to the nonlinear OpenFAST model than the WELIB model. The consistency between the linear and nonlinear OpenFAST model is expected because they are obtained from the same code base. The WELIB linear model had difficulty capturing the yaw response. We

believe that some of the error in the yaw signal is due to differences between the formulations of the three-dimensional rotations in OpenFAST and WELIB. The difference in yaw, results in a difference of coupling between the DOF, which can explain the differences observed in the sway, roll and rotor speed signals.

To further quantify the differences between the models, we compare the natural frequencies obtained using the OpenFAST linear and WELIB linear models in Table 3. Overall, the frequencies between the two linear formulations agree very well (less

Table 3. Comparison of system frequencies obtained using the WELIB and OpenFAST linear models with and without hydrodynamics (no addded added mass, damping, hydrostatics, or wave excitation)

Structure + mooring			Structure + mooring + hydrodynamics			
Mode	OpenFAST [Hz]	WELIB [Hz]	Rel. Err [%]	OpenFAST [Hz]	WELIB [Hz]	Rel. Err [%]
Surge	0.0088	0.0088	-0.2	0.0067	0.0065	-2.4
Sway	0.0088	0.0088	-0.1	0.0067	0.0068	0.7
Yaw	0.0163	0.0162	-1.0	0.0128	0.0128	-0.3
Pitch	0.0879	0.0886	0.7	0.0253	0.0257	1.6
Roll	0.0894	0.0902	0.9	0.0256	0.0266	4.0
Heave	NA	NA	NA	0.0276	0.0276	-0.2
Tower FA	0.5782	0.5789	0.1	0.5129	0.5145	0.3

that than 2.5% relative error), except for the roll frequencies (4% error) with hydrodynamics. Given the results of this section, we will continue this study using the OpenFAST linear model. We expect that continuous development of WELIB will further narrow the gap with OpenFAST in the future.

3.4 Aerodynamic estimator

In Section 3.3, we indicated that the linear models were derived without accounting for aerodynamics. Instead, we choose to include the aerodynamic contribution separately within the digital twin. The reason for this choice is that the determination of the aerodynamic loads is essential to capturing the main loading and deflections of the structure, in particular the tower, and $\frac{1}{2}$, the aerodynamic loads vary significantly over the range of operating conditions. Therefore, separating this contribution limits the need to obtain different linearized models for different operating conditions. We have successfully applied this approach in the past (Branlard et al., 2020a). In this work, we extend this approach to accommodate the floating wind application. The different elements of the aerodynamic estimator consist of $\frac{1}{2}$ a torque estimator, aerodynamic maps, and a wind speed estimator.

3.4.1 Kalman filter for torque estimation

We assume that the power and rotor speed are reliable measurement signals, and we further assume that the generator torque (relative to the low-speed shaft) can be inferred from the power signal as:

319
$$Q_g = \frac{P}{\dot{\psi}} \frac{1}{n\eta_{\rm DT}(\dot{\psi})} \tag{2}$$

320 where $\eta_{\rm DT}$ is the drivetrain (gearbox and generator) efficiency , and n is the gear ratio. For the TetraSpar, n=1, and we assume

321 $\eta_{\rm DT} = 1$. The dynamics equation of the drivetrain is modeled as:

$$322 \quad J_{\rm DT}\ddot{\psi} = Q - Q_q \tag{3}$$

323 where $J_{\rm DT}$ is the inertia of the drivetrain about the shaft axis. If we assume that the generator torque is a measurement, then an

324 augmented Kalman filter (Lourens et al., 2012) can be used to estimate the aerodynamic torque Q, using the following state

325 equation:

326
$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{\psi} \\ \ddot{\psi} \\ \dot{Q} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{J_{\text{DT}}} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \psi \\ \dot{\psi} \\ Q \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -\frac{1}{J_{\text{DT}}} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} Q_g$$
 (4)

A random walk approach is used for the evolution of the torque, that is, $\dot{Q} = 0$, and the Kalman filter adds further model noise

328 to this equation. The measurement equation of the Kalman filter is:

329
$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{\psi} \\ Q_g \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} \psi \\ \dot{\psi} \\ Q \end{vmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} Q_g$$
 (5)

In the following, we will-write \hat{Q} , the aerodynamic torque obtained using the method outlined above. We will-present verifica-

331 tion results in Section 3.4.4.

332 3.4.2 Aerodynamic maps

333 It is commonly accepted that the aerodynamic performances performance of a wind turbine mostly depends on the tip-speed

ratio and the pitch angle of the blade. With compliant structures, the bending of the blade, the bending of the tower, and the

motions of the floating platform (in particular, the platform pitch) will also affect the aerodynamic performances performance.

336 These motions are to a large extent a function of the mean wind speed. Therefore, we suggest to tabulate the aerodynamic

337 performances as recommend tabulating the aerodynamic performance as a function of wind speed (U), rotor speed $(\dot{\psi})$, blade

338 pitch (θ_p) , and platform pitch $\frac{\phi_u}{(\phi_u)}$, assumed to be in the fore-aft direction). The power and thrust coefficients, respectively

339 noted C_P and C_T , are precomputed using aeroelastic simulations in OpenFAST for a discrete set of values of the $\frac{4}{7}$ -four input

parameters. In the simulations, the blade and tower elasticity are accounted for. To limit the number of simulations, only the

341 points that are within reasonable proximity of the regular operating conditions of the wind turbine are computed. The 4D

342 aerodynamic maps are precomputed as follows:

343
$$C_P(U,\dot{\psi},\theta_p,\phi_y), \quad C_T(U,\dot{\psi},\theta_p,\phi_y)$$
 (6)

344
$$U \in \{2, 3, \dots, 25\} \text{ m.s}^{-1}, \quad \dot{\psi} \in \{5, 5.5, \dots, 18\} \text{ rpm},$$
 (7)

345
$$\theta_p \in \{-1, 0, \dots, 30\} \text{ deg}, \quad \phi_y \in \{-10, 0, 15\} \text{ deg}$$
 (8)

The precomputed values are stored in a database.

3.4.3 Wind speed estimation

348 The digital twin uses the aerodynamic map database to estimate the wind speed and aerodynamic thrust. For a given air density

349 (ρ) , rotor radius (R), and given measurements $\dot{\psi}$, $\tilde{\theta}_p$, $\tilde{\phi}_y$ measurements $\dot{\psi}$, $\tilde{\theta}_p$, $\tilde{\phi}_y$, the aerodynamic torque and thrust are readily

350 obtained as a function of wind speed from the database:

351
$$Q(U) = \frac{1}{2} \rho \frac{U^3}{\tilde{\psi}} \pi R^2 C_P(U, \tilde{\psi}, \tilde{\theta}_p, \tilde{\phi}_y), \qquad T(U) = \frac{1}{2} \rho U^2 \pi R^2 C_T(U, \tilde{\psi}, \tilde{\theta}_p, \tilde{\phi}_y)$$
 (9)

where S.I. SI units are assumed for all variables. For a given estimated torque (\hat{Q}) , the estimated wind speed (\hat{U}) is found such

353 that:

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$$Q(\hat{U}) - \hat{Q} = 0$$
 (10)

As illustrated in Figure 5, multiple values of \hat{U} can potentially satisfy Equation 10 because the aerodynamic torque is a nonlinear function of the wind speed. In such easecases, we use the steady-state operating condition curve of the turbine to

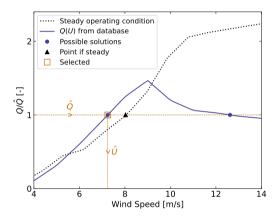


Figure 5. Illustration of wind speed estimation in the case where multiple wind speed values match the target torque value \hat{Q}

357 chose choose between the multiple solutions (typically two), by selecting the point that is closest to this curve (see Figure 5).

358 A relaxation scheme is also used, based on the previous estimate, to alleviate sudden jumps of the estimated wind speed.

3.4.4 Verification of the aerodynamic estimator

To verify the aerodynamic estimator, we ran an OpenFAST simulation of the TetraSpar with the "turbulent step" wind field mentioned in Section 2.3.2 and irregular waves computed with a significant wave height of $H_s = 6$ m and a peak spectral period of $T_p = 14$, which represent a fairly extreme sea state for the site of the TetraSpar prototype. The simulated values of $\dot{\psi}$, θ_p , ϕ_y , Q_g are used as direct input to the aerodynamic estimator. Comparisons of the estimates with the OpenFAST outputs are shown in Figure 6. The shaded area on the figure represent the area areas on the graphs represent the areas where the generator torque is zero (turbine spinning up), and—; therefore, the wind speed estimator is not expected to work in that region. The top

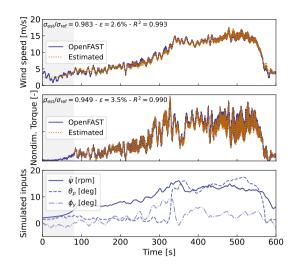


Figure 6. Example of aerodynamic estimation using "simulated measurements" from OpenFAST. Top: wind speed. Middle: Dimensionless torque. Bottom: structural inputs from the OpenFAST simulation provided to the estimator.

tops of the plots indicate the ratio of standard deviations, the mean relative error (ϵ) , and the coefficient of determination (R^2) .

Throughout this article, we define the mean relative error of a quantity x as:

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$$\epsilon(x) = \operatorname{mean}_{i} \left[\frac{|x_{\text{est}}[i] - x_{\text{ref}}[i]|}{\operatorname{mean}(|x_{\text{ref}}|)} \right]$$
 (11)

where x_{est} is the estimated signal, x_{ref} is the reference signal, and x[i] is the value of a signal at the time step i. Using the mean of $|x_{\text{ref}}|$ in the denominator avoids issue-issues related to signals crossing 0. It results in lower mean relative error than if the instantaneous value was were used, but the metric is still indicative of how far the two signals are on average.

To quantify the performance of the estimator, we reproduced reproduce the simulation above, but adding add different noise levels to the measurements to account for measurement errors by the sensors. A Gaussian noise signal of zero mean and standard deviation $r\sigma$ is added to each input, where r is the noise level and σ is the standard deviation of the clean input. The results are shown in Table 4. As expected, the error in the estimation increases with increasing noise levels. This numerical

Table 4. Mean relative error (ϵ) of the wind speed, torque and thrust estimates $\overline{\ }$ for increasing noise levels.

Noise level	0%	1%	5%	10%	20%
Wind Speed	2.6%	2.6%	3.1%	4.1%	6.7%
Torque	3.5%	3.8%	5.0%	6.8%	11.1%
Thrust	4.1%	5.1%	5.6%	7.3%	11.6%

experiment provides a rough quantification of the errors that can be expected from the aerodynamic estimator.

3.5 State estimator

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In this work, we follow a similar approach to our previous work (e.g., Branlard et al. (2020a)), (Branlard et al., 2020a), where

an augmented Kalman filter is used to estimate states and loads. The Kalman filter used in the aerodynamic estimator (Sec-

380 tion 3.4) is augmented with additional states and outputs. The Kalman filter uses two linear models: a state-equation, describing

381 the time evolution of the states, and an output equation, describing how the measurements are related to the states and inputs.

382 The state and output equations are written:

383
$$\delta \dot{x}_{KF} = X_x \delta x_{KF} + X_u \delta u_{KF} + w_x$$
 (12)

384
$$\delta \mathbf{y}_{\text{KE}} = \mathbf{Y}_{n} \delta \mathbf{x}_{\text{KE}} + \mathbf{Y}_{n} \delta \mathbf{u}_{\text{KE}} + \mathbf{w}_{n}$$
 (13)

relate the different system vectors; and, w_x and w_y are Gaussian processes represented modeling noise. The output vector,

 $\delta y_{
m KF}$, is also referred to as the "measurement" vector , because it corresponds to the measured signals. At a given time step,

where δx_{KF} , δu_{KF} , and δy_{KF} are the state, input, and output¹, respectively; X_x , X_y , X_y , and X_y are the system matrices that

388 the Kalman filter algorithm uses the system matrices, a set of measurements, and an a-priori a priori knowledge of the model

and measurement uncertainties to estimate the state vector (Kalman, 1960; Zarchan and Musoff, 2015).

In this work, we design the state estimator such that the state vector contains the structural degrees of freedom (δq and $\delta \dot{q}$) and the aerodynamic torque (Q), and the input vector consists of the thrust (obtained with the aerodynamic estimator) \dot{q} and the generator torque (obtained from the power). These design choices were guided by our previous work on the topic. For this choice of state and input variables, we build linear models for the state and output equations. We use the linear models described in Section 3.3 (the A, B, C, D matrices) \dot{q} to populate the system matrices of the Kalman filter. We provide additional Additional details on how the relevant Jacobians are extracted are given in Section 3.6.1. Given our choice of system vectors, the state equation is:

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$$\begin{bmatrix} \delta \dot{\mathbf{q}} \\ \delta \ddot{\mathbf{q}} \\ \dot{Q} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{A}_{12} & \mathbf{A}_{22} & \frac{\partial \ddot{\mathbf{q}}}{\partial Q} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \delta \mathbf{q} \\ \delta \dot{\mathbf{q}} \\ Q \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \frac{\partial \ddot{\mathbf{q}}}{\partial Q_g} & \frac{\partial \ddot{\mathbf{q}}}{\partial T} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Q_g \\ T \end{bmatrix} + \mathbf{w}_x$$

$$(14)$$

where \vec{A}_{12} and \vec{A}_{22} are the two lower blocks of the \vec{A} matrix, and \vec{I} is the identity matrix. The Jacobians with respect to the loads are extracted from the \vec{B} and \vec{D} matrices. A random walk approach is used for the evolution of the torque \vec{Q} (that is, we set $\vec{Q} = 0$). The output equation, which effectively relates the measurements to the system states and inputs, is set as:

$$401 \quad \begin{bmatrix} \delta \tilde{\mathbf{q}} \\ \dot{\mathbf{v}} \\ \ddot{\mathbf{r}}_{N} \\ Q_{g} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \tilde{\mathbf{q}}}{\partial \mathbf{q}} & \frac{\partial \tilde{\mathbf{q}}}{\partial \dot{\mathbf{q}}} & \frac{\partial \tilde{\mathbf{q}}}{\partial \dot{\mathbf{q}}} & \frac{\partial \tilde{\mathbf{q}}}{\partial Q} \\ \mathbf{0} & \tilde{\mathbf{I}} & \mathbf{0} \\ \frac{\partial \tilde{\mathbf{r}}_{N}}{\partial \mathbf{q}} & \frac{\partial \tilde{\mathbf{r}}_{N}}{\partial \dot{\mathbf{q}}} & \frac{\partial \tilde{\mathbf{r}}_{N}}{\partial Q} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \delta \mathbf{q} \\ \delta \dot{\mathbf{q}} \\ Q \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ 0 & 0 \\ \frac{\partial \tilde{\mathbf{r}}_{N}}{\partial Q_{g}} & \frac{\partial \tilde{\mathbf{r}}_{N}}{\partial T} \\ 1 & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Q_{g} \\ T \end{bmatrix} + \mathbf{w}_{y}$$

$$(15)$$

 $^{^{1}}$ In general, the Kalman filter system vectors are different from the ones used for the linearization presented in Section 3.3, therefore the subscript KF (for Kalman Filter) is added to these vectors.

where \ddot{r}_N is the vector of nacelle accelerations, and $\tilde{q} = \{\delta x, \delta y, \delta \phi_x, \delta \phi_y\}$ is the measurements of surge, sway, roll, and pitch as given in Table 1.

The state and output equations are used as part of a Kalman filter algorithm implemented in WELIB, which continuously takes as input the measurements from the wind turbine (corresponding to the left-hand side of Equation 15). The process and covariance matrices used within the Kalman filter algorithm (determining the values of w_x and w_y) are populated based on the estimated standard deviations of the different states and outputs. At each time step, the thrust is estimated using the aerodynamic torque of the previous time step and used as input. The result of the Kalman filter consists in is the estimated states and outputs at each time step. Sample simulation results will be are provided in Section 4.

410 3.6 Virtual sensing

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- 411 Once the states are estimated by the Kalman filter, the virtual sensing step is used to derive quantities of interest (see Figure 1).
- 412 In this work, we focus on the estimation of the sectional loads along the tower using a physics-based model. We investigate
- 413 two methods to obtain these loads.

414 3.6.1 OpenFAST linearization outputs

- 415 The first method consists of using the linearization outputs of OpenFAST, namely, using a subset of the equation $\delta y = C \delta x + C \delta x$
- 416 $D\delta u$ (see Section 3.3.1). In general, if a QoI quantity of interest is present in the output vector of OpenFAST, it can be retrieved
- 417 as follows. If the variable is located at the row index k in the vector y, then this variable can be obtained from the states and
- 418 inputs as:

419
$$[y]_k = [\delta y]_k + [y_0]_k = [C]_k \delta x + [D]_k \delta u + [y_0]_k$$
 (16)

where $[\cdot]_k$ indicates that the row k of the matrix or column vector is used. In our case, $[y]_k$ in Equation 16 would for instance 420 be the sectional fore-aft bending moment at the height z_i along the tower, noted $\mathcal{M}_u(z_i)$. The advantages of using this method 421 422 are multiple: 1) the method is directly applicable to any other outputs computed by OpenFAST, 2) the calculation procedure is linear and therefore computationally efficient, 3) if strain measurements are available at given heights, the rows $[C]_k$ and 423 $[D]_k$ could be included in the output equation of the Kalman filter (Equation 15) to provide information about the model's 424 expectation of these measurements, and 4) the underlying linear model is consistent with the nonlinear model of OpenFAST. 425 426 The downside of the method is its linearity, in the sense that it is only valid close to the operating point and could lack important nonlinear effects. The values of $[C]_k$, $[D]_k$, and $[y_0]_k$ would potentially need to be reevaluated if the system operates away 427 from the linearized operating point. One possible solution would be is to introduce gain-scheduling to continuously modify the 428 linear system based on the estimated wind speed. In this work, we used one operating point only and obtained results with fair 429 accuracy (see Section 4). We nevertheless expect that to better represent the different operating regions of a pitch-regulated 430 431 wind turbine, three to five linear models, stitched together through gain-scheduling would be needed.

3.6.2 Nonlinear calculation (WELIB)

An alternative method consists of computing the section loads based on first principles using the formulation presented in Branlard (2019). The calculation requires a knowledge of the tower-top loads and the full kinematics of the tower and nacelle (position, velocity, and acceleration). At a given time step, the kinematics are computed based on q, \dot{q} , and \ddot{q} . The tower-top loads are estimated based on the aerodynamic loads and the inertial loads of the rotor-nacelle assembly. We describe the method in more details—detail in Appendix D. The advantages are that nonlinearities are accounted for and the model is valid irrespectively—irrespective of the operating condition. The downside is that this method does not provide any of the four advantages offered by the OpenFAST linearization method.

3.6.3 Verification of the section loads calculation

To verify the calculation of the section loads, we use the same "turbulent step" wind field and irregular sea state that was were used in Section 3.4.4. We assume that the time series of q, \dot{q} and \ddot{q} are entirely known, extracted from the OpenFAST simulation. These time series are provided to the two section loads algorithms: the WELIB nonlinear algorithm,—and the OpenFAST linear algorithm.

We run two sets of virtual sensing. In the "ideal" set, the loads at the tower top are extracted from OpenFAST results and provided to the two virtual sensing algorithms. In this ideal case, the linearized operating points of the OpenFAST linear model is set as the mean of each of the OpenFAST time series values. Results for the ideal case are provided-illustrated in Figure 7. The two algorithms are able to reproduce the section loads of OpenFAST with relatively high accuracy, which verifies our two

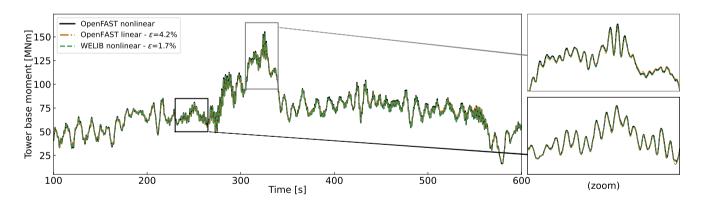


Figure 7. Tower fore-aft bending moment for the "turbulent step" and an irregular sea state as calculated by OpenFAST and compared to the WELIB nonlinear and OpenFAST linear method. The motion of the structure is determined by OpenFAST and provided to the two algorithms. The tower-top loads are also provided to the algorithms ("ideal" case, as opposed to Figure 8).

calculation procedures.

In the second set, labeled "unknown thrust"," the tower top loads are not provided to the algorithms, but—; instead, the aerodynamic estimator mentioned in Section 3.4.4 is used to estimate the aerodynamic loads. This time, we do not set the

linearized operating point of the OpenFAST linear model to the mean value of the time series, but; we set it to the static equilibrium (without loading).

The results are provided illustrated in Figure 8. The accuracy of the section loads calculation is seen to deteriorate when the

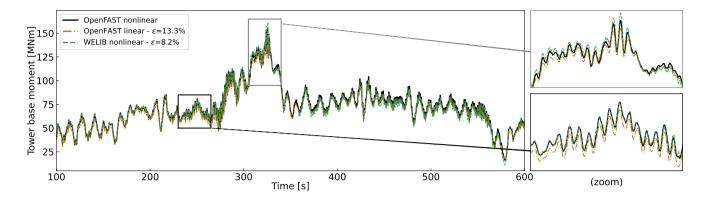


Figure 8. Tower fore-aft bending moment for the "turbulent step" and an irregular sea state as calculated by OpenFAST and compared to the WELIB nonlinear and the OpenFAST linear method. The motion of the structure is determined by OpenFAST and provided to the two other algorithms. The tower-top loads are estimated using the aerodynamic estimator ("unknown thrust" case, as opposed to the ideal case presented in Figure 7).

aerodynamic loads are estimated with the aerodynamic estimator, which is expected. The damage equivalent load computed with a Wöhler slope of m=5 is found to be 3.7% lower with the OpenFAST linear method and 1.2% lower with the YAMS nonlinear method compared to the value for reference signal.

The performances performance of both algorithms remain satisfactory because we observe that remains satisfactory because the extrapolated signals follow the reference OpenFAST nonlinear simulation. The relative error obtained with the OpenFAST linear algorithm is higher (13.3%) than the one obtained using the WELIB nonlinear method (8.2%). The main source of error in the linear model is associated with the fact that the linearization point was not tuned for this specific simulation. It is our simplifying design choice to use only one linearization operating point throughout. Because of the loss of accuracy associated with this design choice, we will use the WELIB nonlinear algorithm in the digital twin for the calculation of section loads.

We note that the variable that affects the most After performing a sensitivity analysis on the inputs and states of the system, we observed that the variables that most affect the fore-aft section loads is are the platform pitch (ϕ_y), the tower fore-aft bending degree of freedom (q_t), and then, the aerodynamic thrust. In this section, we assumed that all the states where known (including ϕ_y and q_t), leading to great accuracy in the estimation of the section loads. The final verification step consists of involves providing estimated states to the algorithm, which is the topic of the next section.

4 Applications of the digital twin

In Section 3, we discussed how the different components of the digital twin were introduced and tested using increasing level of complexity. In this section, we combine discuss combining the different components to form the digital twin. We begin using numerical experiments from OpenFAST (see Section 2.3.2), similar to what was done in the previous section previously, before using measurements from the TetraSpar prototype.

4.1 Numerical experiment

First, we use the same "turbulent step" wind field and sea state that was used throughout Section 3. The augmented states of the system are determined at each time step using the state estimator described in Section 3.5. The measurements (see Table 1) are taken from the nonlinear OpenFAST simulation. The wind speed and aerodynamic loads are estimated using the aerodynamic estimator described in Section 3.4. The linear model is derived from linearized OpenFAST while, and the section loads in the tower are obtained using the WELIB virtual sensing algorithm described in Section 3.6. The estimates from the digital twin are compared with the reference nonlinear OpenFAST simulation results in Figure 9. A visual inspection of the time series reveals

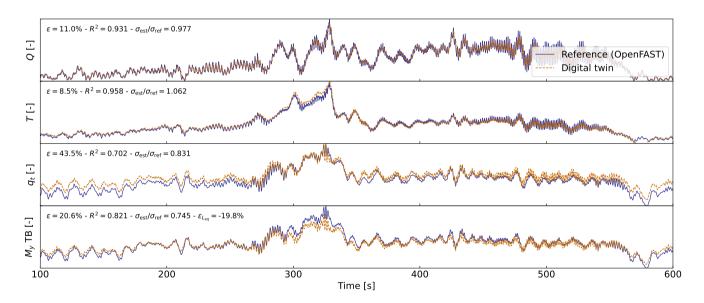


Figure 9. Estimated signals from the digital twin compared to results from an anonlinear OpenFAST simulation using the turbulent-step numerical experiment. From top to bottom: aerodynamic torque (Q), aerodynamic thrust (T), tower-top position (q_t) , tower-bottom fore-aft bending moment (M_y, TB) . Results are made dimensionless for confidentiality reasons.

that the digital twin is able to capture the main trends and fluctuations of the different signals. The match can be considered remarkable given that only the sensors provided in Table 1 are used by the digital twin. Metrics such as mean relative error (ϵ) , and coefficient of determination (R^2) are indicated on the figure. Despite the visually appealing match, the metrics indicate that the tower-bottom moment has a mean error of $\epsilon = 21\%$. The damage equivalent load of the tower-bottom moment is

485 underestimated by $\tilde{\epsilon}_{L_{eq}} = -21\%$, where we define:

486
$$\tilde{\epsilon}(L_{eq}) = \frac{L_{eq,\text{ref}} - L_{eq,\text{ref}}}{L_{eq,\text{ref}}}$$
 (17)

Differences in damage equivalent loads typically indicate differences in the frequency content of the signals. We compare the frequency content of the estimated signals with the reference signals in Figure 10. The low-frequency content (below 1 Hz) is

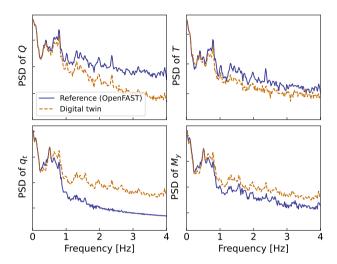


Figure 10. Power spectral density (PSD) of the time series presented in Figure 9. A logarithmic scale is used on the y axis.

captured well, in line with the visual inspection of Figure 9. Unfortunately, no clear trend is found for the high frequency high-frequency content: the power spectra of the aerodynamic loads indicate an underestimation, whereas the spectra of the tower-top position and tower-bottom bending moment tend to have higher energy content. As shown in previous studies (Branlard et al., 2020a), adequate filtering of the input measurements can be used to tune the energy content at high frequencies. The method is yet unsatisfactory because it acts as an artificial rebalancing of energy content to achieve the desired DEL value. Both low and high frequency content contribute to the DEL values, therefore, we believe that systematic improvement is only possible through modeling improvements and higher observability of the states by the Kalman filter.

To quantify the errors in the estimation under a wider set of operating conditions, we ran-run 10-min simulations for a set of wind speeds under normal turbulent conditions and sea states. We selected select wind speeds from 5 to 20 m/s using 10 different seeds per bin of wind speed. The seeds are used to randomise randomize the turbulent field and sea states. The wind speed range is selected such so as to avoid cut-in and cut-out events where the aerodynamic estimator is not expected to perform well. The turbulence intensity is selected based on the normal turbulence model for a turbine of class "A".." The wave height and wave period are set as a function of the wind speed as: $H_s(U) = 0.16U + 1$ and $T_p = 0.09U + 5.57$, based $T_p(U) = 0.09U + 5.57$. The H_s and T_p relationships were obtained by performing a linear regression on the sea state and wind measurements at the test site. OpenFAST simulations were are run for each case, and then the digital twin was-is run using these numerical measurements. A summary of the mean relative error on some key estimated quantities is given in Figure 11.

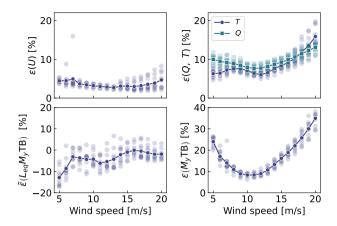


Figure 11. Mean relative error of estimated signals for various wind speed and seeds. Clockwise from top left: wind speed (U), aerodynamic loads, tower-bottom moment $(M_y \text{ TB})$, and damage equivalent load of the tower-bottom moment $(L_{eq,M_y} \text{ TB})$. The individual simulations are indicated by transparent markers. The average over each seed is indicated using plain-solid lines.

for larger errors on the aerodynamic loads at low and high wind speeds. The error further propagates within the system, and the tower-bottom moment is estimated with a relative error between 10% and 40%. The error levels indicate that the aerodynamic estimator, which is based on quasi-steady rotor-averaged aerodynamics, cannot fully capture the dynamic aerodynamic state of the rotor in floating conditions. In general, the digital twin lacks sufficient information to fully capture the tower-top loads and the frequency content of the system. It is expected that placing the placement of additional sensors, such as accelerometers or load cells, along the tower can significantly improve the estimation of the tower loads (in that case, we would either use OpenFAST linearization outputs capture 0, or an extended Kalman filter and a nonlinear model for the outputs). As seen in Figure 11, the relative error levels on the damage equivalent loads are between 00% and 00%, with the loads being either overestimated or underestimated depending on the wind speed. The structural health monitoring system could potentially use the estimated error levels indicated in Figure 11 to provide a confidence interval on the fatigue lifetime of the tower. We note that these error levels represent a best case scenario, best-case scenario because we assumed that no noise or biases were present in the measurements. We expect the error levels to increase with additional measurement noise.

4.2 Estimations using measurements from the full-scale prototype

In this section, we use measurements from the full-scale TetraSpar prototype installed off the Norwegian coast. Four days of data were selected based on data availability; a wide range of wind speeds are present in the time series (ranging from 4 to 24.5 m/s with an overall mean of 8.9 m/s). Two days were selected in summer and two in winter to account for potential seasonality. Apart from these criteria, the selection of time series can be considered random. The measurement data is are stored as 10-min time series sampled at 25 Hz. The total number of 10-min samples used over the four days is 576. The measurement data is

are provided to the digital twin to perform the state estimation and virtual sensing. The The prototype is equipped with load cells at the tower top, middle, and bottom and nacelle wind speed measurements. We use these measurements to compare with the digital twin estimates.

We begin by highlighting the computational time of the current procedure, as computational efficiency is crucial to achieve our digital twin vision. The state estimation is currently 10 times faster than realtimereal time. The virtual sensing step is half realtime twice as fast as real time, but computational improvements are possible, in particular, by using a compiled language instead of Python. The prototype is equipped with load cells at the tower top, middle and bottom, and nacelle wind speed measurements. We use these measurements to compare with For reference, OpenFAST simulations of the full TetraSpar model (with substructure flexibility) typically run 3 times slower than real time, and a reduced-order OpenFAST model with 8 DOF runs 1.1 times slower. Currently, real time estimation cannot be achieved with OpenFAST. Reduced-order modeling techniques, such as the ones presented in this article, are necessary to implement an online digital twin. Yet, if the digital twin estimates is run as a postprocessing step, then parallelization using multiple CPUs could be used, e.g., processing different time periods of the day.

A sample of results is provided in Figure 12. The figure illustrates a selected case where the estimation of the tower load is reasonably accurate, with an error on the damage equivalent load of only 0.4%. We note that the wind speed from the

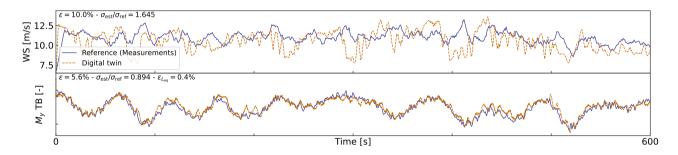


Figure 12. Comparison of digital twin outputs with wind speed and tower-bottom moment measurements from the TetraSpar prototype. The measured wind speed comes from a nacelle anenometer and therefore is expected to differ from the rotor-averaged value estimated by the digital twin.

measurement is a point measurement, (nacelle anenometer, in the wake of the turbine), and it is therefore not expected to be in strong agreement with the digital twin estimate, which is representative of a rotor-averaged wind speed.

An aggregate of results from all the 10-min digital twin runs is illustrated in Figure 13. The figure shows relative errors in wind speed, thrust, and damage equivalent loads at the tower bottom and tower middle. As indicated previously, the wind speed from the digital twin and the measurements are different quantities, but the level of error obtained indicates that the digital twin is able to capture the main level of wind speed. The aerodynamic thrust from the aerodynamic estimator is compared with the load cell at the tower top in the fore-aft direction. This is a crude first-order approximation \neg (e.g., neglecting inertial and gravitational loads, nacelle tilting and shaft bending), but the overall estimated levels appears to beon average, on average, around 10% from the measured ones. The tower damage equivalent loads areon average, on average, within $\pm 10\%$ of the

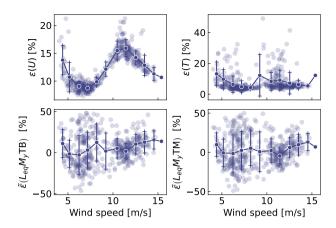


Figure 13. Similar to Figure 11 but using measurements from the Tetra Spar prototype. Each marker indicate indicates a 10-10-min simulation result. Solid lines are bin averages. The whiskers indicate the standard deviation in each bin. The bottom plots are for the tower bottom (TB) and tower middle (TM) bending moments.

values obtained from the measurements, but some cases show errors ranging between $\pm 50\%$. To give perspective on the large error values taken by the metrics, we illustrate two cases with large errors in Figure 14 and Figure 15. In both cases, we observe

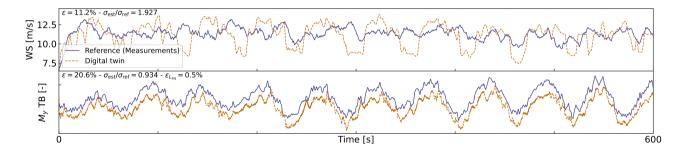


Figure 14. Similar to Figure 12, but for a case where a clear offset is present in the tower loads.

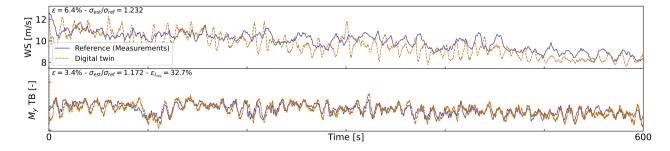


Figure 15. Similar to Figure 12, but for a case where a large error in damage equivalent load is observed.

that the estimator is capturing the trends and low frequencies with accuracies accuracy that, from a pure qualitative perspective, would appear satisfactory. As seen in Figure 14, an offset is present in the signal, which indicates that some physics might be missing from the load virtual sensing, or that the state estimator is failing. Measurement errors could also affect the results, but no systematic error was detected over the time period investigated. It is therefore difficult to conclude as to what is the main source of error. In Figure 14, the overall load level is captured well, but the error in the damage equivalent load is $\epsilon_{L_{eq}}$ is 33%. As illustrated in Figure 10, our current method fails at capturing the high-frequency content of the signals, which can have a significant impact on the accuracy of the damage equivalent loads. In spite of Despite these challenges, the average accuracy of 10% is promising and indicates that the current methodology can be used to reconstruct some structural and environmental signals from a limited number of readily-available readily available sensors.

5 Conclusions

 In this work, we implemented, verified, and validated a physics-based digital twin solution applied to a floating offshore wind turbine. The work focused on the estimation of the aerodynamic loads and the section loads along the tower, using a set of measurements that we expect to be available on any existing wind turbine (power, pitch, rotor speed, and tower acceleration) and motion sensors that are likely to be standard measurements for a floating platform (inclination and GPS sensors). The key concept behind our approach consists of using: uses 1) a Kalman filter to estimate the structural states based on a linear model of the structure and measurements from the turbine, 2) an aerodynamic estimator, and 3) a physics-based virtual sensing procedure to obtain the loads along the tower. An important part of the work consisted of was developing the methodology and implementing the tools and models necessary for the aerodynamic estimation, state estimation, and load virtual sensing. We explored two different pathways to obtain models: a suite of Python tools of Python too

Using numerical experiments, we found that the accuracy of the individual models were typically in was typically on the order of 5%. When comparing the digital twin estimations with the measurements from the TetraSpar prototype, the errors increased to 10%—15% on average for the quantities of interest. Overall, the accuracy of the results appeared promising given the scope of our work, which aimed at illustrating to illustrate a proof of concept for a floating wind turbine digital twin. We observed a non-negligible scatter of results for the estimation of the tower damage equivalent loads that we attributed to the difficulty of capturing high-frequency content.

Future work -should therefore explore possible improvements of the method to address this issue.

Additional improvements could include: 1) gain-scheduling of the linear models —to extend the domain of validity of the linear models used and reduce the modeling error, 2) using nonlinear models and extended Kalman filtering techniques —to lift the linear assumptions that challenges the aerodynamics, hydrodynamics and structural dynamics, 3) introducing additional degrees of freedom and a full account of the yawing of the nacelle —to increase the fidelity of the models and account for the flexibility of the floater, 4) adding a model to account for wave excitation forces —to account for hydrodynamic loads and likely improve the estimation of member-level loads, 5) introducing additional measurements —to improve the state estimation and

- 583 increase the observability of the state, 6) improving the robustness of the aerodynamic estimator (in particular) particular,
- 584 beyond the cut-in and cut-out wind speed), and speeds, to apply the digital twin when the turbine is not operating, and, 7)
- 585 expanding the virtual sensing steps to estimate additional signals.
- 586 Author contributions. EB implemented the digital twin and wrote the main corpus of this paper. JJ, CB and JZ provided continuous feedback
- 587 on the project and reviewed the article.
- 588 Competing interests. No competing interests are present.
- 589 Code availability. The source code of the digital twin and examples using a generic spar turbine are provided in the GitHub repository (Bran-
- 590 lard, 2023a).
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- 598 nologies Office.

599 Appendix A: Linearization of the equations of motion with augmented inputs

- 600 In this section, we describe the procedure used to linearize the structural equations of motion without a knowledge of the external loads,
- 601 which is used to obtain Equation 1. We write the implicit form of the equations of motion as

$$602 \quad \mathbf{e}(\boldsymbol{q}, \dot{\boldsymbol{q}}, \ddot{\boldsymbol{q}}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}, t) = 0 \tag{A1}$$

- where q, \dot{q} , \ddot{q} and \tilde{u} are the degrees of freedom, velocities, accelerations, and "augmented inputs" of the model, respectively. The term
- augmented input is used because the external loads are included in this vector. The external loads are (in general) a function of the degrees
- 605 of freedom. Therefore, we write the augmented input vector as:

606
$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{u}} = \tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}(\boldsymbol{q}, \dot{\boldsymbol{q}}, \ddot{\boldsymbol{q}}, \boldsymbol{u})$$
 (A2)

- 607 where u is the vector of inputs in the classical sense, that is, consisting of system inputs that do not depend on the degrees of freedom (for
- 608 instance, the wave elevation). The operating point is written using the subscript "0",and," and is defined as:

609
$$e(q_0, \dot{q}_0, \ddot{q}_0, \tilde{u}_0, t) = 0$$
 (A3)

- 610 We perturb each variable, as $q = q_0 + \delta q$, $\dot{q} = \dot{q}_0 + \delta \dot{q}$, etc., where δ indicates a small perturbation of the quantities. The perturbation of the
- 611 augmented input is then:

612
$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{u}} = \tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}(\boldsymbol{q}_0, \dot{\boldsymbol{q}}_0, \ddot{\boldsymbol{q}}_0, \boldsymbol{u}_0) + \frac{\partial \tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}}{\partial \boldsymbol{q}} \Big|_{0} \delta \boldsymbol{q} + \frac{\partial \tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}}{\partial \dot{\boldsymbol{q}}} \Big|_{0} \delta \dot{\boldsymbol{q}} + \frac{\partial \tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}}{\partial \ddot{\boldsymbol{q}}} \Big|_{0} \delta \dot{\boldsymbol{q}} + \frac{\partial \tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}}{\partial \boldsymbol{u}} \Big|_{0} \delta \boldsymbol{u}$$
 (A4)

- 613 where $|_0$ indicates that the expressions are evaluated at the operating point. The linearized equations are obtained using a Taylor-Series
- 614 Taylor-series expansion:

615
$$\left[\boldsymbol{M}_{0} - \boldsymbol{Q}_{0} \left. \frac{\partial \tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}}{\partial \ddot{\boldsymbol{q}}} \right|_{0} \right] \delta \ddot{\boldsymbol{q}} + \left[\boldsymbol{C}_{0} - \boldsymbol{Q}_{0} \left. \frac{\partial \tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}}{\partial \dot{\boldsymbol{q}}} \right|_{0} \right] \delta \dot{\boldsymbol{q}} + \left[\boldsymbol{K}_{0} - \boldsymbol{Q}_{0} \left. \frac{\partial \tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}}{\partial \boldsymbol{q}} \right|_{0} \right] \delta \boldsymbol{q} = \boldsymbol{Q}_{0} \left. \frac{\partial \tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}}{\partial \boldsymbol{u}} \right|_{0} \delta \boldsymbol{u}$$
(A5)

616 with

617
$$M_0 = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{e}}{\partial \ddot{\mathbf{q}}}\Big|_0$$
, $C_0 = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{e}}{\partial \dot{\mathbf{q}}}\Big|_0$, $K_0 = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{e}}{\partial \mathbf{q}}\Big|_0$, $Q_0 = \frac{\partial \mathbf{e}}{\partial u}\Big|_0$ (A6)

and where M_0, C_0, K_0 are the linear mass, damping, and stiffness matrices, and Q_0 is the linear forcing vector, also called the input matrix.

619 Appendix B: Transfer of a Jacobian from one destination point to another

- 620 The Jacobians provided by OpenFAST and MAP are provided at given nodes of the structure (e.g., the hydrodynamic nodes, or the fairleads).
- 621 In this section, we highlight the procedure to transfer these Jacobians to another node (the platform reference point) assuming a rigid-body
- 622 relationship between the nodes. The procedure is used in this work to compute the linear 6×6 matrix for the hydrodynamics and mooring
- dynamics in Section 3.3.2. We obtain different relationships depending if on whether the destination point is assumed to be displaced or not
- 624 -(see different subsections below).

625 B1 Transfer of Jacobians between two points

We consider a point source (noted S) and a destination point (noted D). The notations are illustrated in Figure B1. We assume a rigid-body

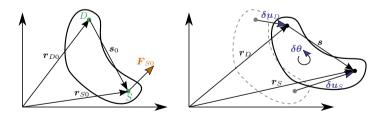


Figure B1. Rigid-body kinematics with the loads from one source point (S) transferred to ta destination point (D), assuming small motion of the points.

626

627 relationship between that the two points -belong to a rigid body. The forces and moments at the destination and source are related as follows:

$$\mathbf{628} \quad \mathbf{F}_D = \mathbf{F}_S \tag{B1}$$

629
$$M_D = M_S + \tilde{s}F_S$$
 (B2)

- 630 where $s = r_S r_D$ is the vector from destination point to the source point, F_S and M_S are the force and moments, respectively, at point
- 631 S, and the tilde notation refers to the skew symmetric matrix, which is a matrix representation of the cross product. We seek to linearize
- 632 Equation B1 and Equation B2 for small displacements and rotations of the destination and source nodes. In particular, we seek to express
- 633 the Jacobians at the destination node as a function of the source node, assuming a rigid-body relationship between the two. The rigid-body
- 634 relationship linking the small displacements (δu) and small rotations ($\delta \theta$) of the source and destination points is:
- 635 $\delta \boldsymbol{u}_D = \delta \boldsymbol{u}_S + \tilde{\boldsymbol{s}}_0 \delta \boldsymbol{\theta}_S$

636
$$\delta \theta_D = \delta \theta_S$$
 (B3)

- 637 where s_0 is the vector between the source and destination points at the operating point (prior to the perturbation). The Jacobians of the
- 638 transformations given in Equation B3(, and its inverse), are:

639
$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial u_D}{\partial u_S} & \frac{\partial u_D}{\partial \theta_S} \\ \frac{\partial \theta_D}{\partial u_S} & \frac{\partial \theta_D}{\partial \theta_S} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & \tilde{s}_0 \\ \mathbf{0} & I \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial u_S}{\partial u_D} & \frac{\partial u_S}{\partial \theta_D} \\ \frac{\partial \theta_S}{\partial u_D} & \frac{\partial \theta_S}{\partial \theta_D} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & -\tilde{s}_0 \\ \mathbf{0} & I \end{bmatrix}$$
(B4)

640 To linearize Equation B1 and Equation B2, we introduce the following perturbations:

$$\mathbf{F}_D = \mathbf{F}_{D0} + \delta \mathbf{F}_D, \quad \mathbf{F}_S = \mathbf{F}_{S0} + \delta \mathbf{F}_S$$
 (B5)

642
$$M_D = M_{D0} + \delta M_D$$
, $M_S = M_{S0} + \delta M_S$, (B6)

643 where the subscript 0 indicates values at the operating point. At the operating point, Equation B1 and Equation B2 are satisfied, that is:

$$644 F_{D0} = F_{S0} (B7)$$

645
$$M_{D0} = M_{S0} + \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_0 \mathbf{F}_{S0}$$
 (B8)

646 Transfer of forces

647 Inserting Equation B5 into Equation B1 leads to:

$$\mathbf{648} \quad \boldsymbol{F}_{D0} + \delta \boldsymbol{F}_{D} = \boldsymbol{F}_{S0} + \delta \boldsymbol{F}_{S} \tag{B9}$$

649 Whichwhich, using Equation B7, leads to:

650
$$\delta \boldsymbol{F}_D = \delta \boldsymbol{F}_S$$
 (B10)

- The Jacobians of the loads at node D with respect to the displacements at node D are then obtained by applying the chain rule to Equation B10
- 652 and making use of the Jacobian of the displacements given on the right of Equation B4. For instance, for the force:

653
$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{D}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{D}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{S}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{D}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{\theta}_{S}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{\theta}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{D}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{S}}$$
654
$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{D}}{\partial \mathbf{\theta}_{D}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{S}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{\theta}_{D}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{\theta}_{S}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{\theta}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{\theta}_{D}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{\theta}_{S}} - \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{S}} \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{0}$$
(B11)

- For the transfer of the moments, the relationship will be different whether the moments are transferred at the undisplaced destination point.
- 656 or the displaced destination point.

657 Moments at the undisplaced destination point

- 658 In this section, the moments are transferred to the undisplaced destination point. The vector from the undisplaced destination point to the
- 659 displaced source is:

$$660 \quad r = s_0 + \delta u_S \tag{B12}$$

661 Introducing Equation B6 and Equation B12 into Equation B2, and temporarily using the "x" notation instead of the tilde notation:

662
$$M_{D0} + \delta M_D = M_{S0} + \delta M_S + \mathbf{s}_0 \times \mathbf{F}_{S0} + \mathbf{s}_0 \times \delta \mathbf{F}_S + \delta \mathbf{u}_S \times \mathbf{F}_{S0} + \delta \mathbf{u}_S \times \delta \mathbf{F}_S$$
 (B13)

663 Making use of Equation B8, neglecting the nonlinear term $(\delta u_S \times \delta F_S)$ and reintroducing the tilde notation $\frac{1}{2}$ leads to:

$$\delta \mathbf{M}_D = \delta \mathbf{M}_S + \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_0 \delta \mathbf{F}_S - \tilde{\mathbf{F}}_{S0} \delta \mathbf{u}_S \tag{B14}$$

- 665 The Jacobians of the moments at the undisplaced node D with respect to the displacements at node D are then obtained by applying the
- 666 chain rule to Equation B14:

667
$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{M}_{D}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{D}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{M}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{S}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{D}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{M}_{S}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{S}} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{D}} + \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{0} \left[\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{F}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{S}} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{u}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{D}} + \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{F}_{S}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{S}} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{D}} \right] - \tilde{\boldsymbol{F}}_{S0} \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{D}}$$

$$= \frac{\partial \mathbf{M}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{S}} + \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{0} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{F}_{S}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{S}} - \tilde{\boldsymbol{F}}_{S0}$$
(B15)

669 and

670
$$\frac{\partial M_{D}}{\partial \theta_{D}} = \frac{\partial M_{S}}{\partial \theta_{S}} \frac{\partial \theta_{S}}{\partial \theta_{D}} + \frac{\partial M_{S}}{\partial u_{S}} \frac{\partial u_{S}}{\partial \theta_{D}} + \tilde{s}_{0} \left[\frac{\partial F_{S}}{\partial \theta_{S}} \frac{\partial \theta_{S}}{\partial \theta_{D}} + \frac{\partial F_{S}}{\partial u_{S}} \frac{\partial u_{S}}{\partial \theta_{D}} \right] - \tilde{F}_{S0} \frac{\partial u_{S}}{\partial \theta_{D}}$$
671
$$= \frac{\partial M_{S}}{\partial \theta_{S}} - \frac{\partial M_{S}}{\partial u_{S}} \tilde{s}_{0} + \tilde{s}_{0} \frac{\partial F_{S}}{\partial \theta_{S}} - \tilde{s}_{0} \frac{\partial F_{S}}{\partial u_{S}} \tilde{s}_{0} + \tilde{F}_{S0} \tilde{s}_{0}$$
(B16)

672 Jacobian relationships at the undisplaced destination point

- 673 Equation B11, Equation B16, and Equation B15 can be gathered in matricial form to relate the different Jacobians between the source point
- and the undisplaced destination point:

675
$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial F_D}{\partial u_D} & \frac{\partial F_D}{\partial \theta_D} \\ \frac{\partial M_D}{\partial u_D} & \frac{\partial M_D}{\partial \theta_D} \end{bmatrix}_{\text{undisplaced}} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ \tilde{s}_0 & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial F_S}{\partial u_S} & \frac{\partial F_S}{\partial \theta_S} \\ \frac{\partial M_S}{\partial u_S} & \frac{\partial M_S}{\partial \theta_S} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & -\tilde{s}_0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ -\tilde{F}_{S0} & \tilde{F}_{S0} \tilde{s}_0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(B17)

676 Moments at the displaced destination point

- 677 In this section, the moments are transferred to the displaced destination point. The vector from the displaced destination point to the displaced
- 678 source is:

679
$$r = s_0 + \delta u_S - \delta u_D = s_0 - \tilde{s}_0 \delta \theta_S$$
 (B18)

680 Introducing Equation B6 and Equation B18 into Equation B2, and temporarily using the "x" notation instead of the tilde notation:

681
$$M_{D0} + \delta M_D = M_{S0} + \delta M_S + s_0 \times F_{S0} + s_0 \times \delta F_S - (s_0 \times \delta \theta_S) \times F_{S0} - (s_0 \times \delta \theta_S) \times \delta F_S$$
 (B19)

Making use of Equation B8, neglecting the nonlinear term $((s_0 \times \delta \theta_S) \times \delta F_S)$, and reintroducing the tilde notation -leads to:

$$\delta \mathbf{M}_D = \delta \mathbf{M}_S + \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_0 \delta \mathbf{F}_S + \tilde{\mathbf{F}}_{S0} \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_0 \delta \theta_S \tag{B20}$$

The Jacobians of the loads at the displaced node *D* with respect to the displacements at node *D* are then obtained by applying the chain rule to Equation B20 and making use of the Jacobian of the displacements given on the right of Equation B4.

686
$$\frac{\partial M_{D}}{\partial u_{D}} = \frac{\partial M_{S}}{\partial u_{S}} \frac{\partial u_{S}}{\partial u_{D}} + \frac{\partial M_{S}}{\partial \theta_{S}} \frac{\partial \theta_{S}}{\partial u_{D}} + \tilde{s}_{0} \frac{\partial F_{S}}{\partial u_{S}}$$
687
$$= \frac{\partial M_{S}}{\partial u_{S}} + \tilde{s}_{0} \frac{\partial F_{S}}{\partial u_{S}}$$
(B21)

688 and

698

689
$$\frac{\partial M_{D}}{\partial \theta_{D}} = \frac{\partial M_{S}}{\partial u_{S}} \frac{\partial u_{S}}{\partial \theta_{D}} + \frac{\partial M_{S}}{\partial \theta_{S}} \frac{\partial \theta_{S}}{\partial \theta_{D}} + \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{0} \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{S}}{\partial \theta_{D}} + \tilde{\mathbf{F}}_{S0} \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{0}$$
690
$$= \frac{\partial M_{S}}{\partial \theta_{S}} - \frac{\partial M_{S}}{\partial u_{S}} \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{0} + \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{0} \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{S}}{\partial \theta_{D}} + \tilde{\mathbf{F}}_{S0} \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{0}$$
691
$$= \frac{\partial M_{S}}{\partial \theta_{S}} - \frac{\partial M_{S}}{\partial u_{S}} \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{0} + \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{0} \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{S}}{\partial \theta_{S}} - \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{0} \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{S}}{\partial u_{S}} \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{0} + \tilde{\mathbf{F}}_{S0} \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{0}$$
(B22)

692 Jacobian relationships at the displaced destination point

693 Equation B11, Equation B22, and Equation B21 can be gathered in matricial form to relate the different Jacobians:

694
$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial F_D}{\partial u_D} & \frac{\partial F_D}{\partial \theta_D} \\ \frac{\partial M_D}{\partial u_D} & \frac{\partial M_D}{\partial \theta_D} \end{bmatrix}_{\text{displaced}} = \begin{bmatrix} I & \mathbf{0} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{\mathbf{0}} & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial F_S}{\partial u_S} & \frac{\partial F_S}{\partial \theta_S} \\ \frac{\partial M_S}{\partial u_S} & \frac{\partial M_S}{\partial \theta_S} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & -\tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{\mathbf{0}} \\ \mathbf{0} & I \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \tilde{F}_{S0}\tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{\mathbf{0}} \end{bmatrix}$$
(B23)

695 B2 Relationships at the displaced destination point for multiple source points

We now consider the case where multiple point sources are present. The derivation can be seen as a generalization of the previous case between two points, but special care is needed —when summing the contributions from the different nodes. The notations are illustrated in Figure B2. The loads at the destination points are obtained as:

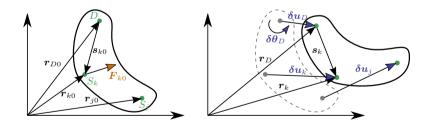


Figure B2. Rigid-body kinematics with the loads from multiple source points (S_j) , transferred to a destination point (D)

$$\mathbf{699} \quad \mathbf{F}_D = \sum_k \mathbf{F}_k \tag{B24}$$

700
$$M_D = \sum_k M_k + \tilde{s}_k F_k$$
 (B25)

701 where k is an index looping over all points of the rigid structure. To shorten notations, we define the vector between the destination point and

702 a given point as:

$$703 \quad s_k = r_k - r_D \tag{B26}$$

$$704 \quad s_{k0} = r_{k0} - r_{D0} \tag{B27}$$

705 where s_k is the vector between the displaced points and s_{k0} is the vector prior to the displacement (at the operating condition). Due to the

706 rigid-body assumption, the elementary displacements of the points are related as follows:

707
$$\delta \boldsymbol{u}_D = \delta \boldsymbol{u}_j + \tilde{\boldsymbol{s}}_{j0} \delta \boldsymbol{\theta}_j$$

$$708 \quad \delta \boldsymbol{\theta}_D = \delta \boldsymbol{\theta}_i \tag{B28}$$

709 from which one obtains the following useful relationships:

710
$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{u}_{j}}{\partial \boldsymbol{u}_{D}} = \boldsymbol{I}, \quad \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{j}}{\partial \boldsymbol{u}_{D}} = \boldsymbol{O}, \quad \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{u}_{j}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{D}} = -\tilde{\boldsymbol{s}}_{j0}, \quad \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{j}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{D}} = \boldsymbol{I}, \quad \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{j}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{k}} = \boldsymbol{I}\delta_{jk}, \quad \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{j}}{\partial \boldsymbol{u}_{k}} = \boldsymbol{O}$$
 (B29)

711 Using a similar Taylor expansion as for the case with two nodes, the perturbation loads are obtained as:

$$\delta \boldsymbol{F}_D = \sum_k \delta \boldsymbol{F}_k \tag{B30}$$

713
$$\delta \mathbf{M}_D = \sum_k \delta \mathbf{M}_k + \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{k0} \delta \mathbf{F}_k + \tilde{\mathbf{F}}_{k0} (\tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{k0} \delta \boldsymbol{\theta}_k)$$
 (B31)

714 The chain rule for a given quantity of interest (Q) is obtained by summing over all the elementary variables:

715
$$dQ = \sum_{j} \frac{\partial Q}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{j}} d\mathbf{u}_{j} + \frac{\partial Q}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{j}} d\boldsymbol{\theta}_{j}$$
 (B32)

716 For instance, the application of the applying the chain rule to F_D and using Equation B30 leads to:

717
$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{D}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{D}} = \sum_{j} \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{D}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{j}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}_{j}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{D}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{D}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{j}} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{j}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{D}} = \sum_{j} \sum_{k} \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{k}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{j}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}_{j}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{D}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{k}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{j}} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{j}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{D}} = \sum_{j} \sum_{k} \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{k}}{\partial \mathbf{u}_{j}}$$
(B33)

718 Eventually, the Jacobians at the displaced destination node are obtained as:

719
$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial F_{D}}{\partial u_{D}} & \frac{\partial F_{D}}{\partial \theta_{D}} \\ \frac{\partial M_{D}}{\partial u_{D}} & \frac{\partial M_{D}}{\partial \theta_{D}} \end{bmatrix}_{\text{displaced}} = \sum_{j} \left\{ \sum_{k} \left(\begin{bmatrix} I & \mathbf{0} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{k0} & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial F_{k}}{\partial u_{j}} & \frac{\partial F_{k}}{\partial \theta_{j}} \\ \frac{\partial M_{k}}{\partial u_{j}} & \frac{\partial M_{k}}{\partial \theta_{j}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & -\tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{j0} \\ \mathbf{0} & I \end{bmatrix} \right) + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \tilde{\mathbf{F}}_{j0} \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{j0} \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$
(B34)

720 Appendix C: Verification of the linear models

721 In this section, we supplement the results given in Section 3.3.3, by showing free-decay results without hydrodynamics (no added mass,

damping, hydrostatics). We In Figure C1, we show results with the structure only in and results with the structure and moorings are reported

723 in Figure C2. These results also include the nonlinear WELIB formulation. A strong agreement is found between the nonlinear OpenFAST

724 and WELIB models, and between the linear OpenFAST and WELIB models. The yaw degree of freedom appears to be more challenging

725 to capture for the linear models. We recall that OpenFAST and WELIB use different definition of the transformation matrices between the

726 degrees of freedom, which results in different structural dynamic equations.

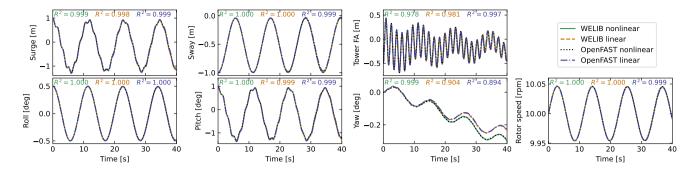


Figure C1. Free decay of the structure using nonlinear and linear models for a case including only the structure (no moorings, no hydrodynamics). Time series of the main DOFsDOF.

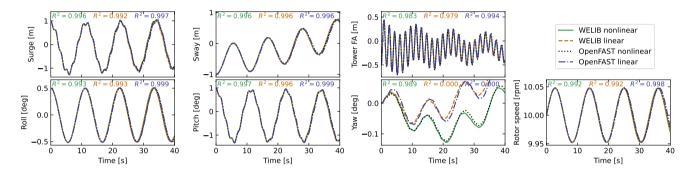


Figure C2. Free decay of the structure using nonlinear and linear models for a case including moorings (no hydrodynamics). Time series of the main DOFsDOF.

727 Appendix D: Computation of section loads

728

729

730

In this section, we describe the nonlinear calculation procedure used in Section 3.6.2 to assess the section loads along the tower based on estimates of the structure kinematics and the loads at the tower top. For conciseness, in this appendix, we use x and z for the coordinates along the tower fore-aft and tower height, respectively, instead of x_T and z_T .

731 D1 Tower fore-aft bending moment and shear force

732 The fore-aft and side-side loads are computed moments are computed in the same way, therefore; therefore, this section focuses on the fore-aft direction. The sectional fore-aft bending moment at a given tower height z is determined as:

734
$$\mathcal{M}_y(z) = \mathcal{M}_{y,\text{top}} - \int\limits_z^{L_T} S_x(z')dz'$$
 (D1)

735 -here-Here, $\mathcal{M}_{y,\text{top}}$ is the fore-aft bending moment at the tower top, and S_x is the shear force in the x direction, obtained as:

736
$$S_x(z) = \int_{z}^{L_T} p_{x,\text{all}}(z') dz'$$
 (D2)

- 737 where $p_{x,\text{all}}$ is the force per unit length acting on the tower section in the fore-aft direction, including contributions from the external loads
- 738 (aerodynamic loads on the structure), inertial loads due to the acceleration of the structure (including gravity), and nonlinear correction terms
- 739 from the loads in the z direction ($p \Delta$ effect, including self-weight effects). The different contributions are written as follows:

740
$$p_{x,\text{all}} = p_{x,\text{ext}} + p_{x,\text{corr}} - p_{x,\text{acc}}$$
 (D3)

- 741 In this work, we neglect the external loads on the tower, $p_{x,\text{ext}} = 0$ (aerodynamic loads on the tower are typically small relative to rotor-thrust
- 742 loads for an operating wind turbine). The acceleration contribution is $p_{x,acc} = -m(z)(a_{x,struct}(z) a_{x,grav})$, where m is the mass per length
- 743 along the beam, and $a_{x,\text{struct}}(z)$ is the acceleration of the section, determined based on the rigid-body acceleration of the floater and the elastic
- 744 motion of the tower $(\dot{q}_T \text{ and } \ddot{q}_T)$, and $a_{x,\text{grav}}$ is the acceleration of gravity in the x direction. The $p-\Delta$ correction term due to the vertical
- 745 loading is computed as (see Branlard (2019)):

746
$$p_{x,\text{corr}} = \frac{d^2 \Phi}{d^2 z} \left[\int_{z}^{L} p_z \, dx' + \sum_{z_k > z} \mathcal{F}_{z,k} \right] - \frac{d\Phi}{dz} \left[p_z + \sum_k \mathcal{F}_{z,k} \delta(z - z_k) \right]$$
 (D4)

- 747 where p_z is the vertical load per unit length (mostly consisting of the self-weight), $\mathcal{F}_{z,k}$ is the k-th-th vertical force acting at point z_k , and
- 748 δ is the Dirac function, and Φ is the shape function used to describe the tower displacement field (see Section 2.3.3). In our case, only the
- 749 vertical force acting on top of the tower is present, $z_1 = L_T$ and $\mathcal{F}_{z,1} = \mathcal{F}_{z,\text{top}}$. The procedure is similar to compute the section loads in the
- 750 y direction (using the $p \Delta$ correction as well) is similar.

751 D2 Tower and RNA-rotor-nacelle assembly kinematics

- 752 The determination of the tower section loads require requires a knowledge of the tower kinematics, to compute a_{struct} , and the RNA of the
- 753 rotor-nacelle assembly (RNA) kinematics, to compute the inertial contribution to the tower-top loads (see Section D3). The position, linear
- 754 velocity, linear acceleration, rotational speed, and rotational acceleration of the floater (point F, body f) are given respectively by:

755
$$r_F = \{x, y, z\}_i, v_F = \{\dot{x}, \dot{y}, \dot{z}\}_i, a_F = \{\ddot{x}, \ddot{y}, \ddot{z}\}_i,$$
 (D5)

756
$$\boldsymbol{\omega}_f = \{\dot{\phi}_z, \dot{\phi}_y, \dot{\phi}_z\}_i, \, \dot{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_f = \{\ddot{\phi}_z, \ddot{\phi}_y, \ddot{\phi}_z\}_i$$
 (D6)

- 757 where the notation i indicates that the coordinates of the vector are expressed in the inertial coordinate system. The transformation matrix
- 758 from the floater to the inertial frame is obtained as $\div \mathbf{R}_{f2i} = \mathbf{R}(\phi_x, \phi_y, \phi_z)$, where \mathbf{R} is a function computing the rotation matrix. The tower
- 759 base (point T, body t) kinematics are obtained from the floater using rigid-body motion using rigid-body kinematics:

$$760 \quad \boldsymbol{r}_T = \boldsymbol{r}_F + \boldsymbol{r}_{FT}, \tag{D7}$$

761
$$v_T = v_F + \omega_f \times r_{FT}$$
, (D8)

762
$$a_T = a_F + \omega_f \times (\omega_f \times r_{FT}) + \dot{\omega}_f \times r_{FT},$$
 (D9)

763
$$\omega_t = \omega_f$$
, $\dot{\omega}_t = \dot{\omega}_f$, $R_{t2i} = R_{f2i}$ (D10)

764 where r_{FT} is the vector from the floater point to the tower base. The kinematics of a given tower section (point S, at height z) are given by:

765
$$r_S = r_T + r_{TS} = r_T + r_{TS_0} + u_S$$
, (D11)

766
$$v_S = v_T + \omega_t \times r_{TS} + \dot{u}_S$$
, (D12)

767
$$a_S = a_T + \omega_t \times (\omega_t \times r_{TS}) + \dot{\omega}_t \times r_{TS} + 2\omega_t \times \dot{u}_S + \ddot{u}_S,$$
 (D13)

$$768 \quad \omega_s = \omega_t + \omega_{ts}, \tag{D14}$$

769
$$\dot{\omega}_s = \dot{\omega}_t + \dot{\omega}_{ts} + \omega_t \times \omega_{ts}$$
, (D15)

- where $r_{TS_0} = z\hat{z}_t$ is the vector from the tower base to the undeflected section, u_S , \dot{u}_S , \ddot{u}_S are the elastic motions of the section computed
- based on the shape function and the generalized coordinates, e.g., $u_S(z) = \sum_j q_{t,j} \Phi_j = q_t \Phi(z) \hat{x}_t$ (see e.g., Branlard and Geisler (2022)).
- 772 We note that OpenFAST also includes a vertical motion associated with the deflection (referred to as a "geometric nonlinearity") associated
- 773 with the deflection, which we are currently neglecting neglect in this work. The transformation matrix from the section to the tower is
- 774 $\mathbf{R}_{s2t} = \mathbf{R}(-u'_{S,y}, u'_{S,x}, 0)$, where $u_{S,y}$ and $u_{S,x}$ are the components of \mathbf{u}_{S} in the tower coordinate system, and the prime notation indicates
- 775 the differentiation with respect to z. The rotation speed and acceleration of the tower section with respect to the tower base are:

776
$$\boldsymbol{\omega}_{ts} = \left\{ \dot{u}'_{S,y}, \dot{u}'_{S,x}, 0 \right\}_{t}, \quad \dot{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_{ts} = \left\{ \ddot{u}'_{S,y}, \ddot{u}'_{S,x}, 0 \right\}_{t}$$
 (D16)

- 777 The kinematics of the tower-top point and nacelle (point N, body n) are taken from the last section node (point S with $z = L_T$). Yawing,
- 778 tilting, and rolling of the tower top would change the orientation matrix, rotational velocity, and rotational acceleration of the nacelle. These
- 779 kinematics are omitted here for conciseness. The kinematics of the center of mass of the RNA (point G) are obtained using rigid-body
- 780 kinematics, identical to what was used between point F and T.

781 D3 Tower-top loads

782 The tower-top loads are computed as follows:

783
$$\mathcal{F}_{top} = \mathcal{F}_{aero} - \mathcal{F}_{inertia}$$
 (D17)

784
$$\mathcal{M}_{\text{ton}} = \mathcal{M}_{\text{aero}} - \mathcal{M}_{\text{inertia}}$$
 (D18)

785 where the aerodynamic loads are transferred to the tower top and where the inertial loads from the rigid-body RNA are:

786
$$\mathcal{F}_{inertia} = M_{RNA}(a_G - g)$$
 (D19)

787
$$\mathcal{M}_{\text{inertia}} = r_{NG} \times \mathcal{F}_{\text{inertia}} + J_G \cdot \dot{\omega}_n + \omega_n \times (J_G \cdot \omega_n)$$
 (D20)

- 788 where: r_{NG} is the vector from the tower top to the center of mass of the RNA, M_{RNA} is the mass of the RNA, J_G is the inertia tensor of the
- 789 RNA at it's center of mass, a_G is the linear acceleration of the center of mass of the RNA, ω_n is the rotational acceleration of the RNA, and
- 790 $\dot{\omega}_n$ is the rotational acceleration of the nacelle. The load calculation is first done in the coordinate system of the nacelle, and then transferred
- 791 to the coordinate system of the tower where Equation D1 is defined.

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