

1 **Model-based fault detection, fault isolation and fault-tolerant control of a blade pitch system in**
2 **floating wind turbines**

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8 **Abstract**

9 This paper presents model-based fault detection, fault isolation, and fault-tolerant control schemes
10 focused on blade pitch systems in floating wind turbines. Fault detection, isolation, and
11 accommodation techniques are required to achieve high power capture efficiency and structural
12 reliability in floating wind turbines. Faults in blade pitch systems should be detected at an early stage
13 to prevent catastrophic failures. To detect faults of the blade pitch systems, a Kalman filter is designed
14 to estimate the blade pitch angle of the system. The fault isolation algorithm is based on inference
15 methods and capable of determining the fault type, location, magnitude and time. The fault-tolerant
16 controller based on a reconfiguration block with a virtual sensor and shutdown mode controls the
17 floating wind turbine to avoid unexpected external loads. The proposed methods are demonstrated in
18 case studies with stochastic wind and wave conditions that considering different types of faults, such
19 as biases and fixed outputs in pitch sensors and stuck pitch actuators. The simulation results show that
20 the proposed methods can detect and isolate multiple faults effectively at an early stage. Additionally,
21 the effectiveness of the fault-tolerant control systems for different load cases for single and multiple
22 fault conditions is verified by numerical simulations.

23 **Keywords**

24 Floating wind turbine, fault detection and isolation, fault-tolerant control, Kalman filter, Virtual sensor

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27 **Abbreviations**

28 FDI fault detection and isolation
29 FTC fault-tolerant control
30 FWT floating wind turbine
31 LMI linear matrix inequality
32 MF# number (#) of multiple faults
33 NC nominal PI control
34 NREL National Renewable Energy Laboratory
35 NTM normal turbulence model
36 NWP normal wind profile model
37 PAS stuck in pitch actuator
38 PSB bias value in pitch sensor
39 PSF fixed value in pitch sensor
40 TF time of fault occurrence
41 TFD time of fault detection

42 TFI time of fault isolation
43 TFTC time of fault-tolerant control

44 1. Introduction

45 The wind energy industry has experienced rapid growth because of environmental issues and the
46 demand for sustainable solutions. Offshore wind technology in particular has experienced rapid
47 development in recent years, with an annual cumulative global installed capacity of 12.105 GW by the
48 end of 2015 [1]. Historically, most wind turbines were installed in shallow water on bottom-fixed
49 substructures. Currently, offshore wind farms are moving further into deeper water at an average
50 distance of 43.3 km [2] from the shore to capture the high wind energy density. In deeper water,
51 floating wind turbines are more cost effective than bottom-fixed wind turbines. Development projects
52 for floating wind turbines are emerging, including the Hywind 2 project in Scotland and the
53 WindFloat Atlantic and Pacific project in the USA.

54 Floating wind turbines operate in stochastic ocean environments, such as turbulent winds, irregular
55 waves, and significant disturbances, and they might experience unexpected failures that could lead to
56 system interruptions and cause huge economic losses. Therefore, maintenance and optimal operations
57 of floating wind turbines become critical issues because of limited access. The reliability of an
58 offshore wind turbine is even more important because maintenance costs account for 30% of the
59 overall cost of energy [3]. Faults in wind turbines occur in the sensors, actuators, and system
60 components, and faults with the potential to propagate to turbine failures change the system behavior,
61 the operational safety, and the power production efficiency of the wind turbines. Consequently, wind
62 turbine failure rates should be reduced to ensure reliability and decrease downtime.

63 A nominal controller may be inefficient and unstable under fault conditions. To supervise potential
64 faults in sensors, actuators or other components, different control techniques are needed. These
65 methods are called fault detection and isolation (FDI) and fault-tolerant control (FTC) techniques. The
66 FDI technique can provide the operator with valuable information on the type, location, and
67 magnitude of the fault. The FTC is a dynamic system that can compensate for sensor and actuator
68 faults by interacting with any pre-existing nominal controllers to cancel the fault effects on the system.
69 The FTC consists of reconfiguration blocks that are linked to the nominal controller in fault
70 conditions. The FDI and FTC techniques use real-time sensor data to clearly detect, isolate and
71 accommodate the wind turbine faults to improve their reliability and reduce the cost of repairs.

72 The FDI and FTC of wind turbines have been subjected to intensive research. FDI techniques are
73 based on model-based methods and signal-processing methods. For the model-based methods, the
74 system model could be mathematical or knowledge-based. Faults are detected based on residual
75 generation by state variables or parameter estimations. Chen et al. [4] and Wei et al. [5] proposed
76 model-based FDI schemes using a diagnostic observer for the pitch system and drive train faults to the
77 benchmark model. A diagnostic technique for imbalance fault identification based on a probabilistic
78 neural network was presented by Malik et al. [6]. For signal-processing-based fault detection,
79 mathematical or statistical operations are performed on the measurements. Fault detection and
80 isolation schemes applying data-driven design methods to avoid difficult modeling were used by
81 Dong et al. [7]. Santos et al. [8] presented a multi-sensory system combined with a data-mining
82 solution for fault diagnosis and classification using support vector machines in wind turbines. Ghane
83 et al. [9] and Feng et al. [10] demonstrated statistical change detection for a gearbox model of a wind
84 turbine using frequency analysis.

85 Fault-tolerant control methods can be divided into two categories: passive and active FTC methods
86 [11]. In passive FTC systems, the controllers are fixed control systems predetermined to be robust
87 against faults and uncertainties throughout the entire system. Passive FTC methods are optimized
88 while satisfying a specific fault scenario, which implies that it has limited fault-tolerant capabilities
89 for various faults. Additionally, this approach does not need FDI schemes and controller
90 reconfiguration. Active FTC methods react to system component failures by reconfiguring control
91 references so that acceptable performance and stability of the system can be maintained. An active
92 FTC relies on an FDI scheme, which should feed real-time information to accommodate the faults by
93 reconfiguring control references in the system. Shi and Patton [12] proposed an active fault-tolerant
94 control approach based on an extended state observer to an offshore wind turbine model. By using a
95 bank of virtual sensors and actuators, Seron et al. [13] suggested a FTC scheme that manages sensor
96 and actuator faults. Fan et al. [14] proposed an FTC scheme that is a combination of model reference
97 adaptive control with neural network compensation. Vidal et al. [15] presented a disturbance
98 compensator for controllers to estimate actuator faults and design fault-tolerant controllers.

99 Fault occurrence rates and their effects are an important factor in the design of wind turbines. Carroll
100 et al. [16] showed the results of an analysis determining the failure rates for the repair of modern
101 offshore wind turbines and their sub-assemblies. According to this study, the blade pitch systems have
102 the highest failure rates among the components and account for 13.3% of the total failures of wind
103 turbines. The blade pitch system is critical for pitch-regulated variable-speed wind turbines, and the
104 relevant faults change the aerodynamic load and power output immediately and thus affect the
105 response of the tower and support structures. The main faults of the blade pitch system occur in the
106 blade pitch sensors and actuators. These faults influence the control feedback and result in imbalanced
107 loads on the rotor, shaft, and main bearings. The detection of faults allows for fast accommodation to
108 avoid catastrophic long-term damage to the wind turbines. The effect of pitch system faults on turbine
109 performance and platform motion in wind turbine components has been studied in recent years for
110 specific fault scenarios [17]-[19].

111 This paper focuses on model-based FDI and FTC methods in the blade pitch sensors and actuators of
112 a floating wind turbine model. Faults generated in blade pitch sensors and actuators can be detected
113 by a Kalman filter based on residual generation and an appropriate evaluation method. The simple
114 cases of faults, such as bias (PSB) and fixed values in pitch sensors (PSF) and stuck in pitch actuators
115 (PAS), are predetermined by the fault magnitude, type and occurrence time to verify the feasibility of
116 the FDI method. The FTC for the fault scenarios considered in this paper provides a complete solution
117 for immediately accommodating faults. The objectives of this work are as follows:

- 118 - Present detection and isolation strategies for different types of faults that might occur in the blade
119 pitch system;
- 120 - Design an active fault-tolerant controller to achieve satisfactory performance when all control
121 components are back to functioning normally after a fault occurs; and
- 122 - Verify the effectiveness of the proposed FDI and FTC schemes under blade pitch system faults by
123 comparing the structural load, response, and safety of floating wind turbines and considering different
124 wind and wave conditions.

125 This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the floating wind turbine model, baseline
126 controller, blade pitch system and faults. Section 3 introduces the fault detection, fault isolation, and
127 fault-tolerant control schemes for the blade pitch system. Section 4 describes environmental load
128 cases, such as waves and aerodynamic loads, acting on the floating wind turbine. Section 5 presents

129 the simulation results for the fault detection and isolation technique according to a residual method
130 and fault decision and accommodation according to a fault detection criterion. Section 6 provides the
131 conclusions.

132 **2. Methodology**

133 2.1. Floating wind turbine concept

134 A floating wind turbine is modeled as a rotor, nacelle, tower, floater, and mooring system. The model
135 in this paper is based on the variable-speed pitch-regulated NREL 5 MW offshore wind turbine model
136 [20] supported by the spar buoy floater (OC3-Hywind) [21] and three catenary mooring lines as
137 shown in Figure 1. The specifications of the NREL 5 MW reference wind turbine are provided in
138 Table 1. Additionally, properties for the OC3-Hywind floater are listed in Table 2.

139 2.2 Fully coupled numerical model

140 The dynamic behavior of the floating wind turbine model is simulated with the Simo-Riflex-Aerodyn
141 software (SRA) [22], which is an aero-hydro-servo-elastic code for fully coupled nonlinear time-
142 domain numerical simulations of offshore wind turbines while simultaneously considering the
143 aerodynamics, hydrodynamics, structural dynamics and mooring line dynamics with an control code
144 for a proportional-integral (PI) pitch and a torque controller under various operational conditions.
145 Models coded by JAVA are added to the SRA to account for the pitch actuator and sensor. Fault data
146 in the blade pitch system are provided in the input file of the SRA to test the feasibility of the fault
147 detection.

148 2.3. Baseline controller

149 The baseline control system includes two separate controllers for regulating blade pitch angles and
150 generator torque. The operational region is divided into below-rated and above-rated regions of wind
151 speed. Below the rated wind speed within low wind speeds, the control strategy is to capture the
152 maximum power by adjusting the generator torque and maintaining the optimal tip speed of the blades
153 [20]. Within this region, the blade pitch controller is not active and maximum power is achieved by
154 adjusting the generator torque and then the rotation speed.

155 Above the rated wind speed, the blade pitch system controls the blade pitch angle to keep
156 aerodynamic loads within specified limits by producing a rated power output at a constant rotor speed.
157 A constant-torque variable pitch controller is used for floating wind turbines to improve the dynamic
158 response of the system and reduce the motion of the floater response to stability issues [23] by
159 modifying the gains of the controller [21]. A blade pitch reference is calculated based on the gain-
160 scheduled PI controller as a function of the generator torque error based on a constant-torque strategy
161 [21] for floating wind turbines.

162 2.4. Blade pitch system

163 A commonly used blade pitch system consists of three identical independent pitch actuators and
164 sensors with PI controllers. Regulating each blade pitch angle individually, a 2nd-order pitch actuator
165 is modeled for the 5 MW wind turbine. Consider the blade pitch system that describes a blade pitch
166 reference from the PI controller and the pitch angle measurement:

$$167 \quad \ddot{\beta}_i + 2\zeta\omega_n\dot{\beta}_i + \omega_n^2\beta_i = \omega_n^2\beta_C, \quad i = 1, 2 \text{ and } 3 \text{ (the blade number)} \quad (1)$$

168 where ζ is the damping ratio, ω_n is the natural frequency of the actuator, and (\cdot) represents the time
 169 derivatives. The parameters are $\omega_n = 11.11$ rad/s and $\zeta = 0.6$ [24]. Additionally, β_i is the i^{th} blade pitch
 170 angle, and β_C is the blade pitch command.

171 The recorded measurements must be accurate and reliable because the turbine monitoring and control
 172 are based on sensor data during wind turbine operations. A discretized control system that includes
 173 process and measurement noises are used in this paper. Process and measurement noises in a state-
 174 space model of the blade pitch system described by Eq. (2) are zero-mean Gaussian white noises.

$$175 \quad \begin{aligned} \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) &= \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}(t) + \mathbf{w}(t) \\ \mathbf{y}(t) &= \mathbf{C}\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{v}(t) \end{aligned} \quad (2a)$$

176 or

$$177 \quad \begin{aligned} \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) &= \begin{bmatrix} \dot{\beta}_i(t) \\ \ddot{\beta}_i(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0}_{3 \times 3} & \mathbf{I}_{3 \times 3} \\ -\omega_n^2 \mathbf{I}_{3 \times 3} & -2\omega_n \zeta \mathbf{I}_{3 \times 3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_i(t) \\ \dot{\beta}_i(t) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0}_{3 \times 3} \\ \omega_n^2 \mathbf{I}_{3 \times 3} \end{bmatrix} \beta_{C,i}(t) + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_{\beta,i}(t) \\ \mathbf{w}_{\dot{\beta},i}(t) \end{bmatrix}, \quad i = 1, 2 \text{ and } 3 \\ \mathbf{y}(t) &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{3 \times 3} & \mathbf{0}_{3 \times 3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_i(t) \\ \dot{\beta}_i(t) \end{bmatrix} + \mathbf{v}_i(t) \end{aligned} \quad (2b)$$

178 where $\mathbf{x}(t)$, $\mathbf{u}(t)$ and $\mathbf{y}(t)$ are the state vector, input vector and measurement vector by the blade pitch
 179 angle, respectively; and \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{C} are system matrices representing the state transition, input and
 180 measurement matrices, respectively. Uncertain disturbances are given, including the process noise
 181 vector $\mathbf{w}(t)$ and measurement noise vector $\mathbf{v}(t)$. This blade pitch system is observable, controllable and
 182 stable according to the observability matrix, controllability matrix, pole and Nyquist diagram from
 183 Chen [25].

184 2.5. Fault description

185 According to the wind turbine reliability analyses [16], the most common faults occur in the blade
 186 pitch system. A fault occurring in the blade pitch system can influence the closed-loop control system
 187 and the dynamics of a wind turbine. The incorrect pitch of a blade resulting from faults causes
 188 asymmetrical forces on the blades and lead to unbalanced rotation in the rotor. Therefore, a fault
 189 occurring in the sensors and actuators can affect the system characteristics or **lead to inoperable**
 190 **conditions that have resulted in hydraulic leakage, valve blockage or pump blockage** [24]. There is a
 191 **high possibility that a blade pitch system under multiple fault conditions in blades cannot perform a**
 192 **role of an aerodynamic brake properly while large wind loads are acting on the rotor.**

193 Faults of the blade pitch system are mainly categorized by the pitch sensor and actuator fault. To
 194 model the faults, the pitch actuator and sensor equations are updated. In this paper, three types of
 195 faults in the pitch sensor and actuator of the blade system can be considered: bias value (PSB), fixed
 196 output (PSF) in the pitch sensor and stuck actuator (PAS) as shown in Cho et al. [26]. PSB can be
 197 represented by a constant offset value that is added to the measurement from the sensor. PSF of the
 198 sensor retains the last measurement after fault occurrence. PAS is mainly caused by valve blockage
 199 which is mainly due to debris that could clog the valve in the flow in the hydraulic pitch actuator and
 200 represents one of the hazards announced by the fault analysis with a level of occurrence and severity
 201 by Esbensen and Sloth [24].

202 Faults to the blade pitch sensor and actuator frequently occur and result in the structural loading of the

203 turbine because of rotor imbalance, and they affect the stability of the floating platform. Other faults,
 204 such as hydraulic leakage and high air content in oil, can occur only by changing the natural
 205 frequency and damping ratio in the actuator. Therefore, these uncritical topics are not evaluated in this
 206 paper.

207 3. Fault detection, fault isolation and fault-tolerant control methods

208 Figure 2 shows the control procedure for a pitch-regulated wind turbine. The baseline controller
 209 regulates the wind turbine power production through blade pitch and generator torque control under
 210 normal operational conditions. The condition monitoring system with sensors measures the blade
 211 pitch angle, tower acceleration, and rotor speed. By using a fault detection and isolation algorithm, the
 212 system can detect, isolate, and accommodate faults at an early stage. Upon fault detection, the fault-
 213 tolerant controller selects a remedial action based on the protection strategy. If the fault is tolerable,
 214 then it can be accommodated by a signal correction in the case of sensor faults. If the situation is
 215 intolerable and the wind turbine is not in a safe state, then the controller brings the turbine to a
 216 shutdown mode.

217 3.1 Fault detection

218 In fault detection, faults in a system and their detection time are determined. Model-based approaches
 219 detect faults by comparing the generated residual from the measured pitch angle and threshold. The
 220 basic methods for establishing and evaluating the residual are described in this section. Currently,
 221 observer methods are the main model-based approaches for detecting faults. In this paper, a Kalman
 222 filter, which is a classical method used in fault detection and other fields, is used. Figure 3 shows the
 223 basic structure of model-based fault detection. Based on the input command $u(k)$ and measured output
 224 $y(k)$, the states and measurements are estimated by an observer. By comparing the measured and
 225 estimated values, changes of a state are identified by a threshold.

226 3.1.1 Observer design based on the discrete-time space model

227 The discrete system is more suitable for numerical computing and employing an observer than the
 228 continuous system. The discrete-time state-space model of the blade pitch system with disturbance
 229 and faults in the pitch actuator and sensor can be transferred from the proposed system (2) where the
 230 Euler discretization approach is applied.

$$231 \begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}(k+1) &= \mathbf{\Phi}\mathbf{x}(k) + \mathbf{\Psi}\mathbf{u}(k) + \mathbf{\Gamma}_f\mathbf{f}_A(k) + \mathbf{\Gamma}_d\mathbf{w}(k) \\ \mathbf{y}(k) &= \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}(k) + \mathbf{\Xi}_f\mathbf{f}_S(k) + \mathbf{\Xi}_d\mathbf{v}(k) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

232 where $\mathbf{\Phi} = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{A}T$, $\mathbf{\Psi} = \mathbf{B}T$ and $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{C}$. Here, $\mathbf{\Phi}$, $\mathbf{\Psi}$, \mathbf{H} , $\mathbf{\Gamma}_d$, $\mathbf{\Gamma}_f$, $\mathbf{\Xi}_d$, and $\mathbf{\Xi}_f$ are known constant matrices
 233 in a discretized system. In addition, T is sampling time and $\mathbf{f}_A(k)$ and $\mathbf{f}_S(k)$ are the actuator and sensor
 234 fault vectors described in Cho et al. [26], respectively.

235 The observer with a healthy case based on the Kalman filter method is designed as follows:

$$236 \begin{aligned} \hat{\mathbf{x}}(k+1) &= \mathbf{\Phi}\hat{\mathbf{x}}(k) + \mathbf{\Psi}\mathbf{u}(k) + \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{y}(k) - \mathbf{H}\hat{\mathbf{x}}(k)) \\ \hat{\mathbf{y}}(k) &= \mathbf{H}\hat{\mathbf{x}}(k) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

237 where $\hat{\mathbf{x}}(k)$, $\hat{\mathbf{y}}(k)$ and \mathbf{K} are the estimated state vector, estimated output vector, and Kalman gain
 238 matrix, respectively.

239 3.1.2 Residual generation and evaluation

240 A residual $r(k)$ is the difference between the measured and estimated values described as follows:

$$241 \quad r(k) = y(k) - \hat{y}(k) \quad (5)$$

242 A residual energy $J(k)$ is defined by the L_2 norm [27], which is described by the root-mean-square (RMS) of the residual as follows:

$$244 \quad J(k) = \|r(k)\|_{2,k} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n r_i^T(k) r_i(k) \right)^{1/2} \quad (6)$$

245 Because the residual energy in fault cases includes fault information, the generated residual energy
246 should be evaluated by fault detection logic. The residual determines the fault status by applying fault
247 detection logic with threshold J_{th} .

$$248 \quad \begin{aligned} J(k) < J_{th}, & \text{ fault - free} \\ J(k) > J_{th}, & \text{ fault} \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

249 The threshold is generated with bounded uncertainty. Hence, when the residual energy is less than this
250 threshold, the fault-free state is indicated. Otherwise, the fault can be detected. The threshold design
251 procedure using H_∞ optimization and linear matrix inequality (LMI) was described in Cho et al. [26]
252 with more details for the derivation.

253 If the system is a fault-free state, the residual energy is expressed as

$$254 \quad J(k) = \|r_d(k)\|_2 \leq \|G_{rd}(z)\|_\infty \|v\|_2 \leq \gamma_{\min} \delta_d \quad (8)$$

255 where $r_d(k)$ is a disturbance residual, $G_{rd}(z)$ is a disturbance transfer function, γ_{\min} is a minimum design
256 parameter for a performance bound and δ_d is a measurement noise boundary. $G_{rd}(z)$ is defined in
257 frequency domain and γ_{\min} is calculated according to LMI in a discrete-time system described in Cho
258 et al. [26]. In addition, δ_d is defined by sensor resolution.

259 Therefore, the threshold is set as follows:

$$260 \quad J_{th} = \gamma_{\min} \delta_d. \quad (9)$$

261 3.2 Fault isolation

262 After a successful fault detection, the main challenge is fault isolation. Fault isolation means
263 determining the type, location, and magnitude of a fault following detection. The fault isolation
264 decision can be made after the residual generator has generated a detection alarm that indicates the
265 occurrence of a fault as presented in Figure 3. This paper suggests a fault isolation algorithm based on
266 a Kalman filter using inference methods [4][28].

267 Most wind turbines have a single pitch sensor in each blade. As shown in Figure 4 (a), PSF faults
268 cannot be easily distinguished from PAS faults solely by measurements of the pitch angle. However,
269 the nacelle yaw motions are completely different between the two faults illustrated in Figure 4 (b).
270 The reason why nacelle yaw motions are different under PSF and PAS faults depends on whether the
271 pitch actuators are still working or not. The blade is seized in the PAS case and cannot respond to the
272 pitch command (control value). However, the blade can still pitch in the PSF case, but the pitch sensor
273 gives a fixed value and the pitch command is affected by faults, which results in an oscillating
274 irregular pitch angle with a large amplitude than PAS. This leads to a larger yaw motion under PSF, as
275 shown in Figure 4. The pitch command from the pitch controller can be influenced by the difference
276 between reference and measurement values that makes a pitch angle oscillate and consequently a
277 wind turbine unstable that results in the unbalanced rotor. Alternatively, fault isolation can be
278 conducted using measurements of nacelle yaw motions.

279 Figure 5 shows an algorithm for fault isolation using the single blade pitch angle and nacelle yaw
 280 angle measurements. Initially, the trend of the pitch measurement $\beta_{i,k}$ must be determined. If the faulty
 281 sensor keeps outputting $\beta_{i,k+1} - \beta_{i,k} = 0$, then the algorithm decides that the fault is PSF or PAS. Then,
 282 by comparing the standard deviation of the nacelle yaw angle in normal $\sigma_{Yaw,n}$ and fault conditions
 283 $\sigma_{Yaw,f}$, the two faults can be differentiated. Once $\sigma_{Yaw,f}$ is greater than $\sigma_{Yaw,n}$, then the algorithm makes a
 284 decision of PSF in the pitch system. Otherwise, the algorithm indicates that there is PAS in the pitch
 285 system. To identify PSB, the estimation error should be determined, which can be performed by the
 286 residual of the pitch angle from the residual generator. If the fault estimation errors are bounded in a
 287 certain range δ , then the algorithm makes a decision that the fault is a PSB.

288 In the verification procedure, 300 simulations of each fault case were conducted with a duration of
 289 300 s to evaluate the algorithm of fault isolation. The location, magnitude and time of the faults were
 290 randomly generated. Once a fault alarm occurred, this algorithm isolated 99% of these faults after
 291 11.5 s. Then, the algorithm makes a fault isolation decision regarding the faults generated from Figure
 292 6. PSF and PAS can be distinguished by the standard deviation values of the nacelle yaw angle σ_{Yaw} .

293 3.3 Fault-tolerant control

294 If the sensors and actuators experience faults or are no longer available, then the controller cannot
 295 provide the correct control actions for the system. To minimize the potential risks of unexpected faults,
 296 new control techniques are needed to manage the faulty system before maintenance is conducted. In
 297 this paper, a fault-tolerant control (FTC) scheme is suggested that includes a reconfiguration block
 298 and a nominal PI controller after successful fault isolation. The main concept underlying this FTC
 299 scheme is to reconstruct the system output y_c to replace the faulty measurement y_f . Because faulty
 300 measurement y_f cannot be used with the existing controller, a configuration block must be found that
 301 generates a suitable signal y_c from y_f and u_f . Figure 7 shows the block diagram of the control
 302 reconfiguration scheme for sensor and actuator faults.

303 In the scheme, virtual sensors [11] are used to represent the main part of the reconfiguration block for
 304 the FTC to conduct signal corrections. The virtual sensor can be used to calculate state vectors by
 305 replacing the measurements from the faulty system. The virtual sensor is defined by the state-space
 306 model as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{\mathbf{x}}_v(k+1) &= \Phi \hat{\mathbf{x}}_v(k) + \Psi \mathbf{u}_c(k) + \mathbf{K}_v(\mathbf{y}_f(k) - \mathbf{H}_f \hat{\mathbf{x}}_v(k)) \\
 \mathbf{y}_c(k) &= \mathbf{H}_v \hat{\mathbf{x}}_v(k) + \mathbf{P} \mathbf{y}_f(k) \\
 \mathbf{u}_f(k) &= \mathbf{u}_c(k)
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{10}$$

308 where \mathbf{P} is a design parameter, and for $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{0}$, only observed values are used; and $(\cdot)_v$ represents values
 309 in the virtual sensors. The matrix of \mathbf{H}_v is set as equal to measurement matrix \mathbf{H} in Eq. (3). If the fault
 310 detection scheme detects any faults in the pitch sensor of the i^{th} blade, the value in \mathbf{H}_v allocated by the
 311 faulted sensor has been replaced by 0 in \mathbf{H}_f which means that this sensor is no longer available
 312 anymore.

313 Figure 8 shows the reconfiguration with the virtual sensor after faults. The sensor faults are reflected
 314 by the matrix \mathbf{H}_f . The virtual sensor estimates the state of the faulty system $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_f$ and replaces the
 315 faulty system output. This system output \mathbf{y}_c is improved by using the available sensor values and
 316 observing only the difference between the nominal and the faulty output. If this virtual sensor works
 317 well, then the state of the virtual sensor \mathbf{x}_v is equivalent to the state of the nominal system \mathbf{x} . Hence,

318 the controller recognizes the same system and reacts in the same way as before.

319 Actuator faults are critical to the safety of wind turbines when leaving the pitch actuator inoperable
320 regardless of the controller command as shown in Esbensen et al. [24]. Then, the blade cannot be
321 pitched effectively at the large aerodynamic torque above the nominal value. Therefore, pitch actuator
322 faults require a rapid shutdown of the wind turbine as a standard from Jonkman et al. [20]. Once PAS
323 faults are isolated, a safe and fast shutdown of the turbine could be reconfigured to continue power
324 production in response to other faults.

325 **4. Load cases**

326 Floating wind turbines are exposed to a variety of loads in their lifetime. Critical environmental
327 conditions, such as waves, wind gusts, turbulence, and sudden wind direction shifts, are another
328 source of transient loading. For floating wind turbines, appropriate wave conditions must be combined
329 with the wind conditions.

330 The floating wind turbine operates under variable wind conditions, such as a stochastic wind model
331 that present realistic wind and wave loads. The wind model is based on the IEC 61400-3 design code
332 [31]. A turbulent wind field $U_w(x, y, z, t)$ is commonly modelled by a mean wind and a fluctuating
333 component as described by

$$334 \quad U_w(t) = U_m + U_f(t) \quad (11)$$

335 where U_m is the mean wind speed represented as the normal wind profile model (NWP) and U_f is the
336 fluctuating wind for the normal turbulence model (NTM). The turbulent wind U_w is modeled using
337 Turbsim [29] to generate realistic turbulent wind fields according to the Kaimal turbulence model
338 including the turbulence intensity with IEC Class C. The turbulence intensity is a function of the wind
339 speed at the hub height [30][31]. The wave condition is modeled by the JONSWAP wave spectrum.
340 The significant wave height (H_s) and peak period (T_p) are set based on their correlation with wind
341 speed for the Statfjord site in the northern North Sea.

342 The load cases used to study the dynamic response of the floating wind turbine are given in Table 3.
343 Four independent simulations for turbulent wind and irregular waves were conducted by representing
344 the mean value and standard deviation of the dynamic response for one-hour ensembles.

345 **5. Simulation results and discussion**

346 In this section, a series of simulation results are presented to investigate the performance of the
347 proposed FDI and FTC schemes. Simulations of the wind turbine subjected to a stochastic wind speed
348 are conducted under three different fault conditions: PSB, PSF, and PAS on a single blade and
349 multiple blades.

350 **5.1 Fault detection, fault isolation, and fault-tolerant control with a single fault**

351 **5.1.1 Fault detection and isolation results**

352 Faults in the blade pitch system influence the structural dynamics of the wind turbine. Faults in
353 actuators and sensors can be detected effectively by the residual energy and the threshold. When the
354 residual energy exceeds the threshold, a fault alarm is set to 1, which means that a fault is detected.
355 The residual energy should be normalized to adjust the scale factor from the data. The normalized

356 residual energy J_N is described as follows:

$$357 \quad J_N(k) = J(k) / J_{th} \quad (12)$$

358 Figure 9 shows simulation results in connection with the blade pitch angle, normalized residual energy,
359 a fault detection alarm and fault isolation under LC4. In Figure 9 (a), a PSB occurs abruptly after 250
360 s in the wind turbine corresponding to a sensor bias of -3° on blade 3. Concurrently, an offset value ($-$
361 3°) occurs between the reference and measurement corresponding to pitch bias. The normalized
362 residual exceeds the threshold, and then the observer detects the blade pitch bias fault immediately by
363 setting to the fault alarm in Figure 9 (b). As shown in Figure 9 (c), the PSB fault can be isolated by the
364 fault isolation algorithm after successful detection.

365 In the case of PSF and PAS, the pitch angle measurement shows a constant value that is the same as
366 the last measurement value before the faults. The difference between the reference and measurement
367 values makes the pitch angle oscillate irregularly at a large amplitude and the pitch angle difference
368 between fault-free (blades 1, 2) and faulty blade (blade 3) occur as unbalanced rotation. The PSF and
369 PAS simulation results show the same pattern in Figures 10 and 11, respectively, which indicate that
370 faults on blade 3 can be detected based on the fault detection and isolation algorithm.

371 Cho et al. [26] studied a series of simulations for the reliability of this fault detection algorithm that
372 can detect sensor and actuator faults within a reasonable time after a fault is generated. Therefore, this
373 method can guarantee fault detection at an early stage in the blade pitch system.

374 5.1.2 Structural response of the floating wind turbine under fault conditions

375 In this section, numerical results for the fault effects in pitch sensors and actuators are presented. The
376 main objective of the FDI and FTC systems is to avoid unexpected mechanical loads and maximize
377 energy capture. The simulations are conducted to evaluate the proposed FDI and FTC schemes against
378 different fault scenarios. Each simulation has a 1-h duration to reduce the stochastic uncertainty for
379 each load case.

380 Ocean environmental loads, such as wave and wind loads, excite the structural dynamics of the
381 floating wind turbine. The responses are normalized to adjust the scale factor according to the
382 corresponding values from the fault-free case as described

$$383 \quad RV_{norm} = \frac{RV_i}{RV_{f-free}} \quad i = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 \quad (13)$$

384 where RV_{norm} is the response value normalized by the means and standard deviations of the fault-free
385 case RV_{f-free} , and RV_i is the i^{th} response value (1: NC under PSB, 2: FTC under PSB, 3: NC under PSF,
386 4: FTC under PSF, 5: NC under PAS, and 6: shutdown under PAS).

387 In particular, the mean and standard deviation (STD) values are calculated for the structural dynamics.
388 Figure 12 shows the effects of a series of fault cases on the normalized mean and STD of the surge,
389 roll, pitch, and yaw motions of a floating wind turbine. The results show that faults affect a significant
390 amount of platform yaw motions compared with the surge, roll and pitch motions because the incident
391 variations in an aerodynamic thrust caused by an unbalanced rotor speed directly affect the instability
392 of platform motion, especially the yaw motion as described by Cho et al. [26].

393 In the case of PAS, the actuator fault cannot tolerate the reconfiguration block. In cases of platform
394 yaw motion of the FTC in a pitch actuator fault, the fault accommodation is a shutdown to stop wind
395 turbine operations. In this procedure, the standard deviation should be reduced significantly. However,
396 the mean value has been changed because of the unbalanced pitch arrangement even if a wind turbine
397 has undergone shutdown states. As shown in Figure 13, the yaw motion with shutdown presents a
398 positive stable condition. However, the rotor has undergone an unbalanced state because the faulted
399 blade has been seized and the other blades are feathered. Although the results of the nominal and
400 fault-tolerant controllers are similar, changing the dimensionless value generates more considerable
401 differences as described in Table 4. The motions and structural loads of wind turbines can decay to
402 zero by the emergency shutdown. Jiang et al. [18] showed that the dynamic response of wind turbines
403 from the beginning of the shutdown can be unstable but ultimately decay over time.

404 The PSF fault has a greater effect on dynamic behavior than the PSB and PAS faults. In fault
405 accommodation, the mean and STD results demonstrate that the proposed FTC schemes with signal
406 correction for sensor faults have good performance. The platform motions with FTC schemes in PSB
407 and PSF faults have nearly equivalent values as the fault-free case, which are close to 1. The signal
408 correction brings the floating wind turbine back to normal operational conditions, which means that
409 the FTC scheme with FDI is apparently able to accommodate the fault effects on the pitch system.

410 Figure 14 shows the platform roll and yaw motions in sensor fault cases for LC4 to check the
411 effectiveness of the FTC for sensor faults. After 250 s, the FDI and FTC algorithms can detect and
412 isolate the faults precisely and conduct signal correction as fault accommodation for faulty sensors,
413 which means that the fault accommodation successfully eliminates unbalanced rotation in the rotor
414 during the PSB and PSF faults. However, unbalanced rotation still occurs in the rotor when a nominal
415 PI controller is used during the faults and leads to instability in the floating wind turbine.

416 Additionally, the effect of faults on the tower during fault accommodation with the proposed FTC
417 schemes should be presented. Figure 15 shows a comparison of the normalized mean and STD for the
418 tower torsional, fore-aft, and side-to-side bending moments. The bending moments are calculated by
419 the local coordinate system for each component. The results show that the torsional moment is more
420 affected by faults than the fore-aft and side-to-side bending moments. The torsional moment under
421 fault conditions is significant because of the unbalanced aerodynamic loads on the rotor. The PSF
422 fault has a much greater effect on the vibration (STD) than the two other fault cases because of the
423 large oscillation. In fault accommodation, the mean and STD results of the FTC schemes using signal
424 correction from the redundancy sensor demonstrates better performance than the nominal PI
425 controller as shown in Figure 15. The bending moments present nearly equivalent values for both the
426 fault-free case and FTC schemes. In the case of PAS, the bending moments decay to zero with the
427 shutdown.

428 Figure 16 illustrates the torsional moment and side-to-side bending moment on the tower base in
429 sensor fault cases for LC4 to validate the pitch FTC scheme from 230 to 330 s. After 250 s the FDI
430 and FTC algorithms can detect and isolate the fault precisely and conduct successful signal correction
431 to eliminate the unbalanced rotation during the PSB and PSF faults. The bending moments when a
432 nominal PI controller without the FTC is used increase in the two PSB and PSF cases because of the
433 rotor imbalance and the growth in the aerodynamic thrust force.

434 5.2 Fault detection, fault isolation, and fault-tolerant control with multiple faults

435 In this section, the performance of the FDI and FTC schemes is demonstrated for cases with multiple
436 fault scenarios. Simulations for the floating wind turbine subjected to various load cases are
437 conducted considering simultaneous PSB and PSF faults in multiple blades. Faults in actuators and
438 sensors can be detected effectively by the residual energy and the threshold.

439 Figure 17 shows simulation results in connection with the normalized residual energy, fault alarm, and
440 fault isolation. A PSB corresponding to a sensor bias of -3° abruptly occurs on blade 3 after 100 s, and
441 then a PSF occurs on blade 2 after 200 s. Concurrently, the normalized residual is greater than the
442 threshold, and then the observer detects the PSB and PSF faults immediately by setting to fault alarm
443 as shown in Figure 17 (a) and (b), respectively. Based on the fault isolation algorithm described in
444 Section 3.2, the faults are isolated as shown in Figure 17(c). These results indicate that the presented
445 method can guarantee the FDI at an early stage in the blade pitch system.

446 Figures 18 and 19 show the platform yaw motion and torsional moment in the tower base for LC4 in
447 PSB and PSF faults at 100 s and 200 s, respectively. The FDI algorithm can detect and isolate faults
448 precisely within 11.5 s. After a successful FDI, the FTC controller with virtual sensors conducts signal
449 correction after 111.5 s. The results indicate that yaw motion with the FTC controller converges to
450 fault-free yaw motion when the FDI is complete. In PSB faults without the FTC controller and only a
451 nominal PI controller, the imbalanced loads act on the rotor representing the unstable values of
452 platform yaw.

453 Moreover, the occurrence of a PSF fault in blade 2 after 200 s decreases of the stability of the wind
454 turbine. More precisely, the FTC scheme with the FDI demonstrates a highly effective fault
455 accommodation. After the FDI, the FTC controller is well activated in 211.5 s and control is gradually
456 restored as evidenced by the convergence of the platform yaw in the FTC (red line) case with the line
457 of the fault-free case. However, without the FTC, two faults are observed in the rotor in blades 2 and 3;
458 therefore, the platform yaw with a nominal PI controller is magnified over time to a greater degree
459 than that observed with fault-free yaw motion. The torsional moment in the tower base in Figure 19
460 presents similar behavior in Figure 18. Those figures represent the effectiveness of the FTC, which
461 means that the system can return to a normal state.

462 **6. Conclusions**

463 Fault detection and isolation techniques should be applied to floating wind turbines for the detection
464 and isolation of unexpected faults at an early stage to prevent catastrophic failures. Here, a fault
465 detection method is suggested based on a Kalman filter with focus on blade pitch actuator and sensor
466 faults. In fault detection, a Kalman filter is used for residual generation and a threshold is used for
467 detecting fault conditions in the blade pitch actuators and sensors. In fault isolation, a single blade
468 pitch angle and nacelle yaw angle measurement are employed to isolate faults in the blade pitch
469 system by the inference method. Based on fault isolation logic, the fault isolation decision can be
470 made by comparing the measurement values of the blade pitch and nacelle yaw motion.

471 Two fault-tolerant control schemes are suggested for reconfigurations using a virtual sensor for sensor
472 faults and shutdown for actuator faults. The FTC controller accommodates the PSB and PSF faults by
473 correcting the system output \mathbf{y}_c with the virtual sensor. These FTC schemes can accommodate single
474 and multiple sensor faults. If the FTC controller works well, then the system recognizes the nominal
475 system and reacts in the same way as before. However, faults in the pitch actuator that are intolerable
476 require another wind turbine FTC method. Once the PAS faults are isolated, an emergency shutdown

477 of the wind turbine should be conducted to prevent other failures.

478 The results of the numerical simulations clearly indicate the effectiveness of the proposed FDI and
479 FTC schemes for load cases with faults. The proposed FDI method can effectively detect and isolate
480 all three faults (PSB, PSF, and PAS) at an early stage. With the proposed FTC strategy, the system
481 response in simulations with single and multiple faults is close to the response of wind turbines in the
482 fault-free condition, which means that the FTC scheme can identify and correct faults within a
483 reasonable time. Finally, the proposed FDI and FTC schemes can be easily applied in practice.

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552 International Electrotechnical Commission. 2005.

Table 1. Properties for the NREL 5 MW wind turbine [20]

Rated Power (MW)	5
Rotor orientation, Configuration	Upwind, 3 blades, horizontal axis
Rotor diameter (m)	126
Hub height from the mean water level (m)	90
Cut-in, rated, cut-out wind speed (m/s)	3, 11.4, 25
Cut-in, rated rotor speed (rpm)	6.9, 12.1
Max pitch rate ($^{\circ}$ /s)	8
Gearbox ratio	97

Table 2. Properties for the OC3-Hywind floater [21]

Water depth (m)	320
Draft (m)	120
Diameter above taper (m)	6.5
Diameter below taper (m)	9.4
Center of mass (m)	(0, 0, -89.9115)
Mass, including ballast (kg)	7.466×10^6
Mass moment of inertia, I_{xx} and I_{yy} ($\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^2$)	4.229×10^9
Mass moment of inertia, I_{zz} ($\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^2$)	1.642×10^8

Table 3. Wind and wave conditions

Load case	U_w (m/s)	Turbulent model	H_s (m)	T_p (s)
1	11.2	IEC Class C	3.2	10.0
2	14		3.62	10.30
3	17		4.2	10.50
4	20		4.8	10.80

Table 4. Mean and dimensionless values of platform yaw under LC4

	Yaw (Mean)	Yaw (Dimensionless)
Fault-free	-0.1458	1
NC in PAS fault	-0.1303	0.8937
Shutdown in PAS fault	-0.8083	5.55439

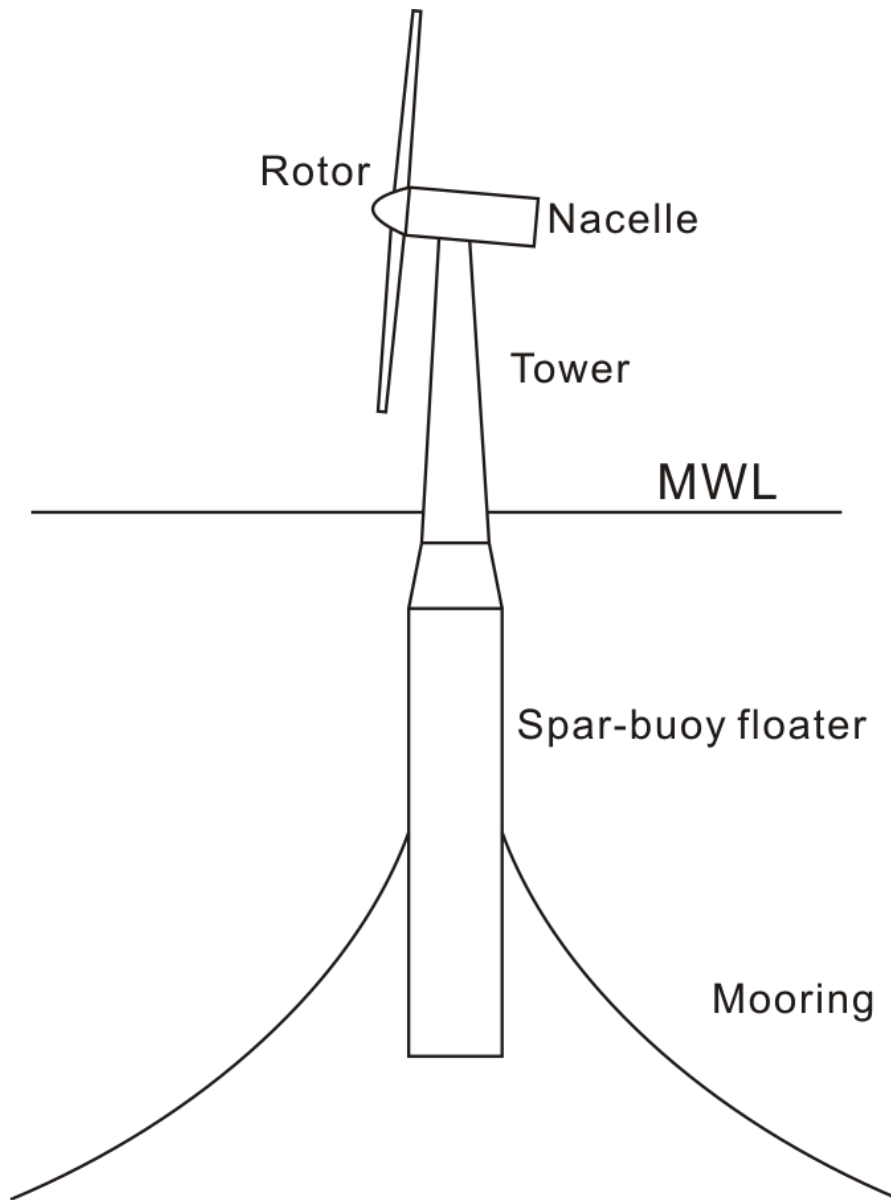


Figure 1. Schematic view of the floating wind turbines.

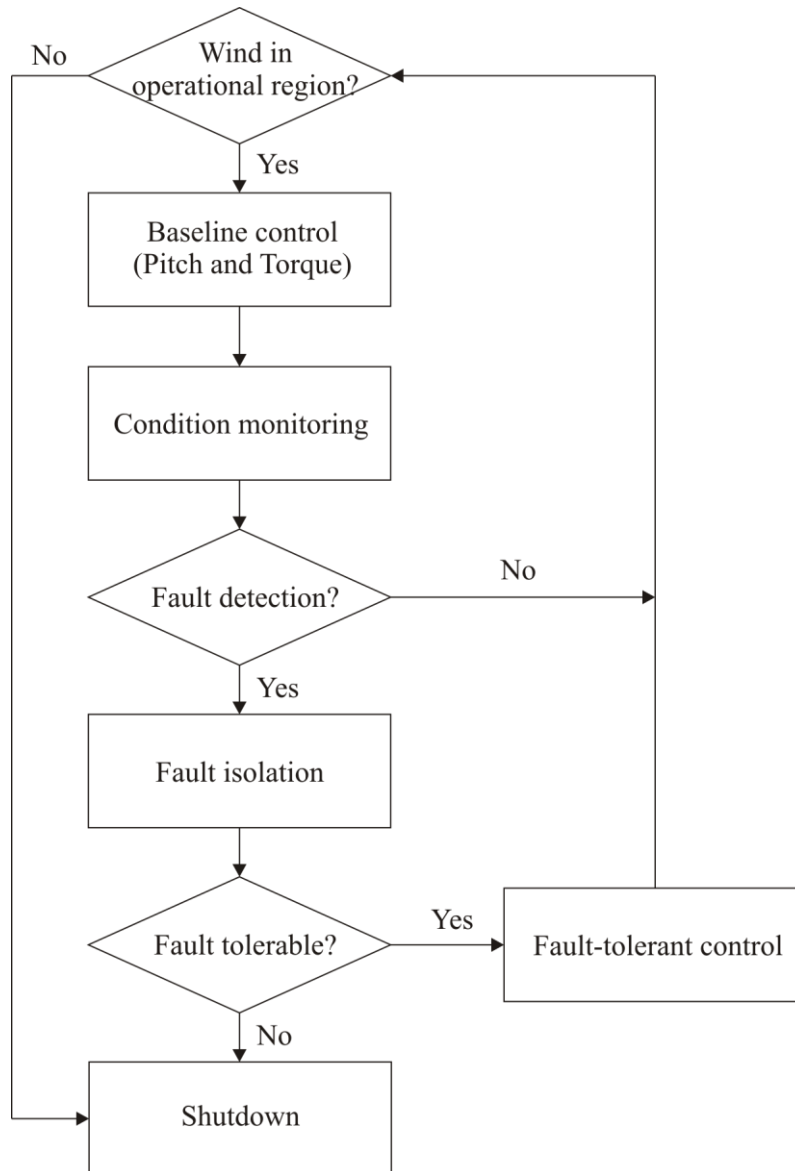


Figure 2. Control procedure for a wind turbine with FDI and FTC.

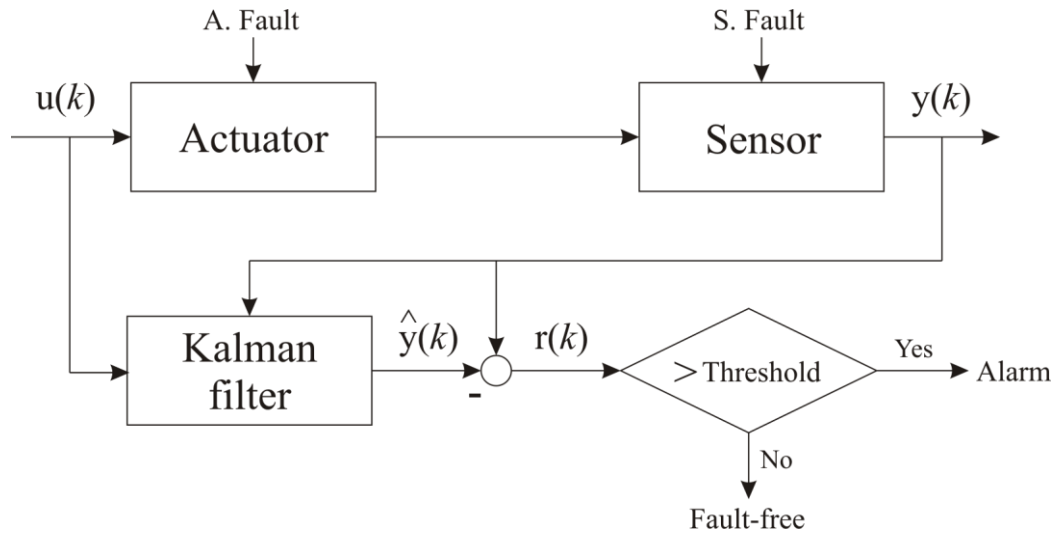
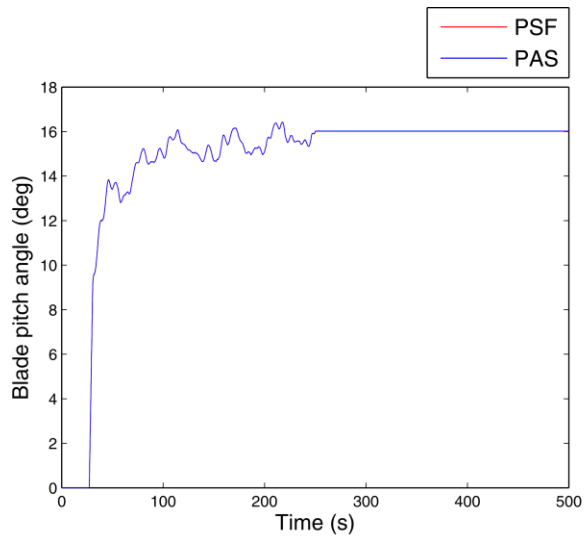
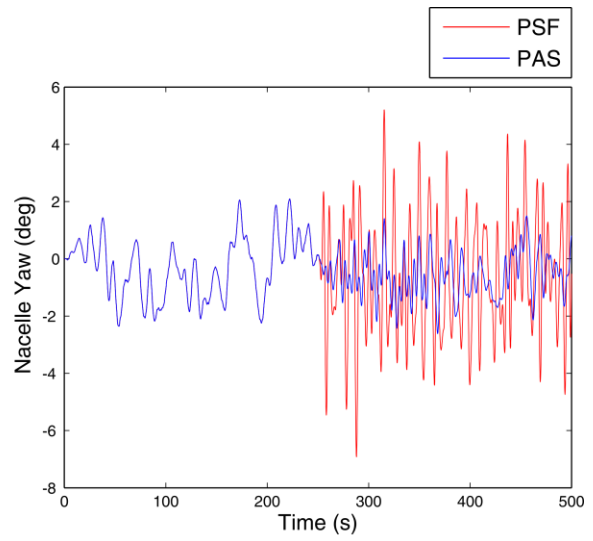


Figure 3. Scheme of observer-based fault detection in the blade pitch system.



(a) Blade pitch angle



(b) Nacelle yaw

Figure 4. Comparison of the effects of PSF and PAS faults on the blade pitch angle and nacelle yaw.

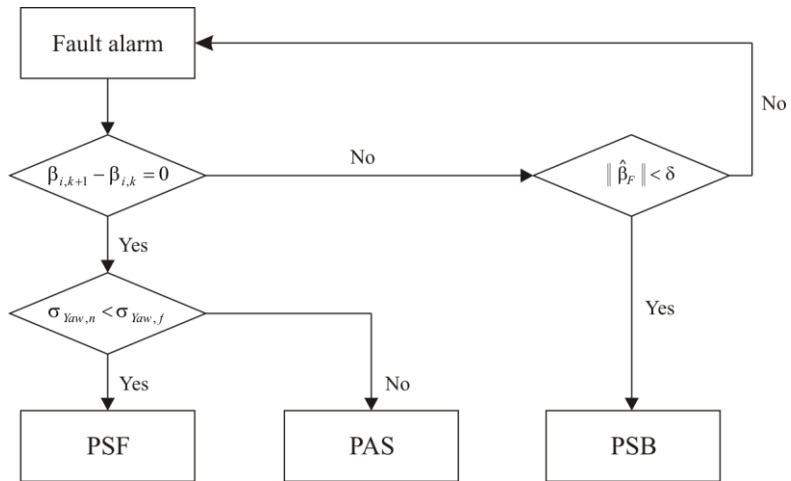


Figure 5. Algorithm of fault isolation with a single pitch sensor

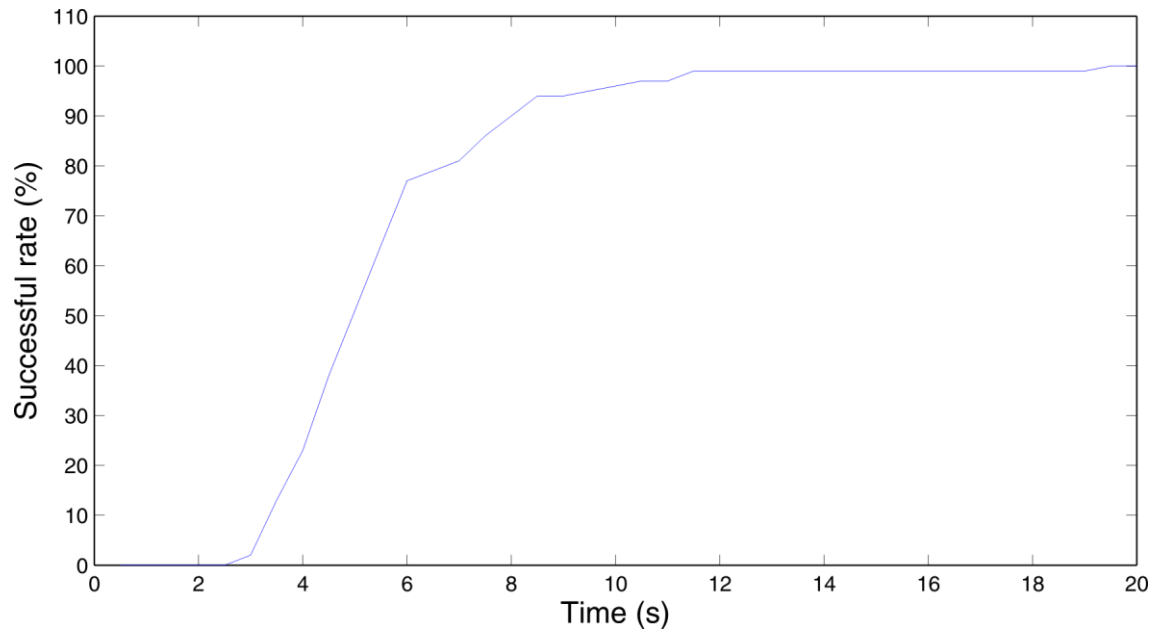


Figure 6. Successful rates of fault isolation at each number of steps.

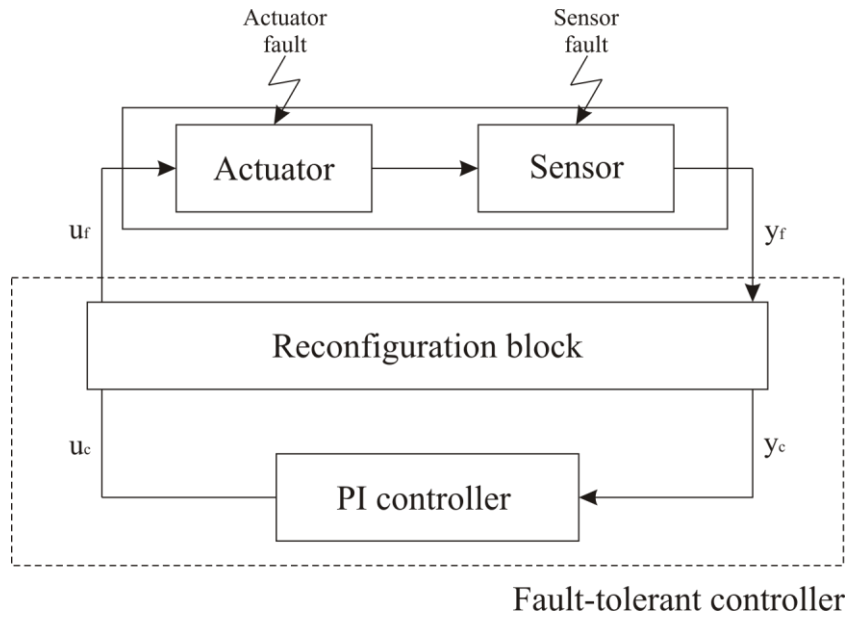


Figure 7. Control reconfiguration for sensor and actuator faults.

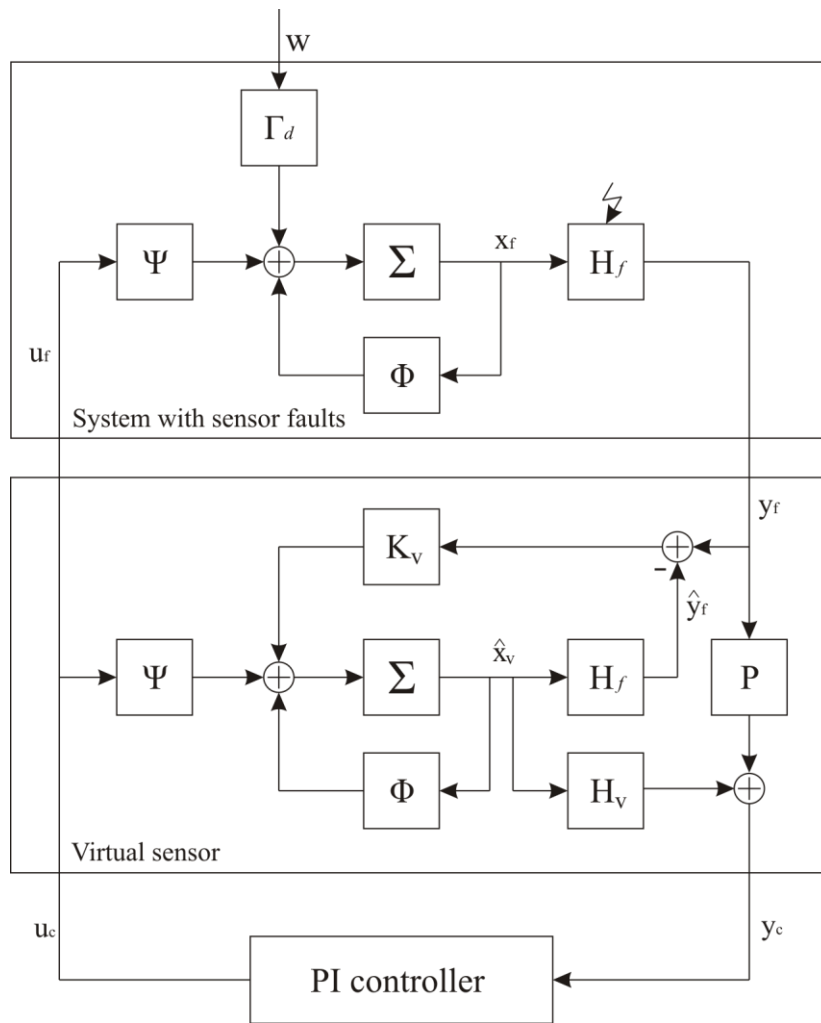


Figure 8. Reconfiguration with a virtual sensor after sensor faults

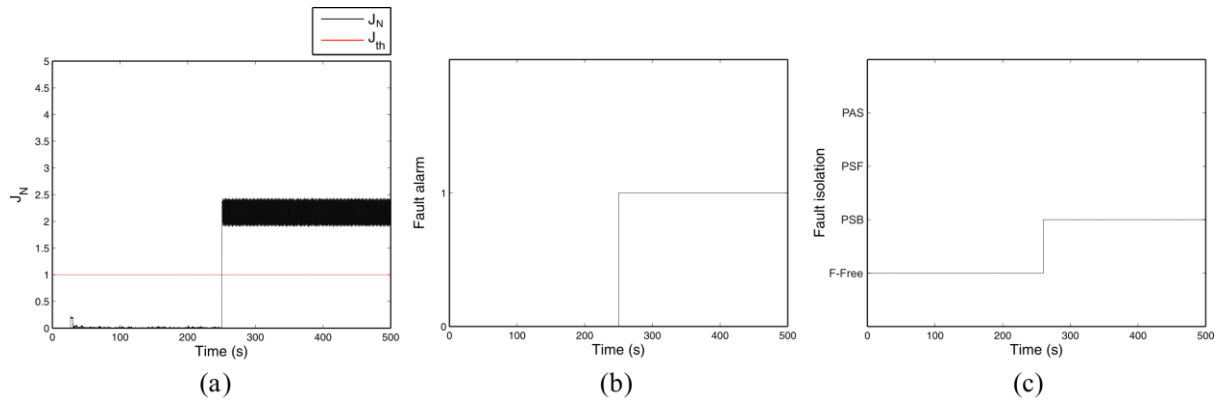


Figure 9. Simulation results of the PSB case corresponding to the blade pitch angle under LC4: (a) normalized residual energy, (b) fault detection alarm, and (c) fault isolation.

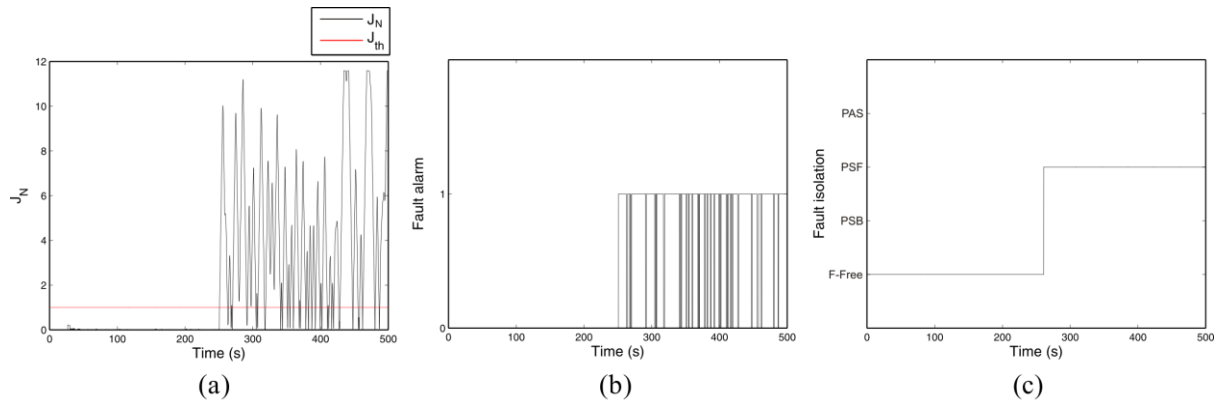


Figure 10. Simulation results of the PSF case corresponding to the blade pitch angle under LC4: (a) normalized residual energy, (b) fault detection alarm, and (c) fault isolation.

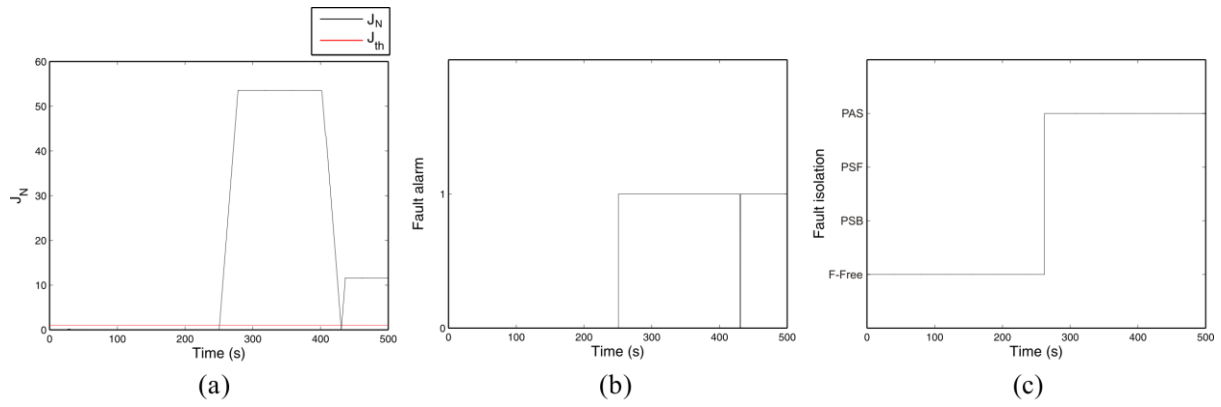


Figure 11. Simulation results of the PAS case corresponding to the blade pitch angle under LC4: (a) normalized residual energy, (b) fault detection alarm, and (c) fault isolation.

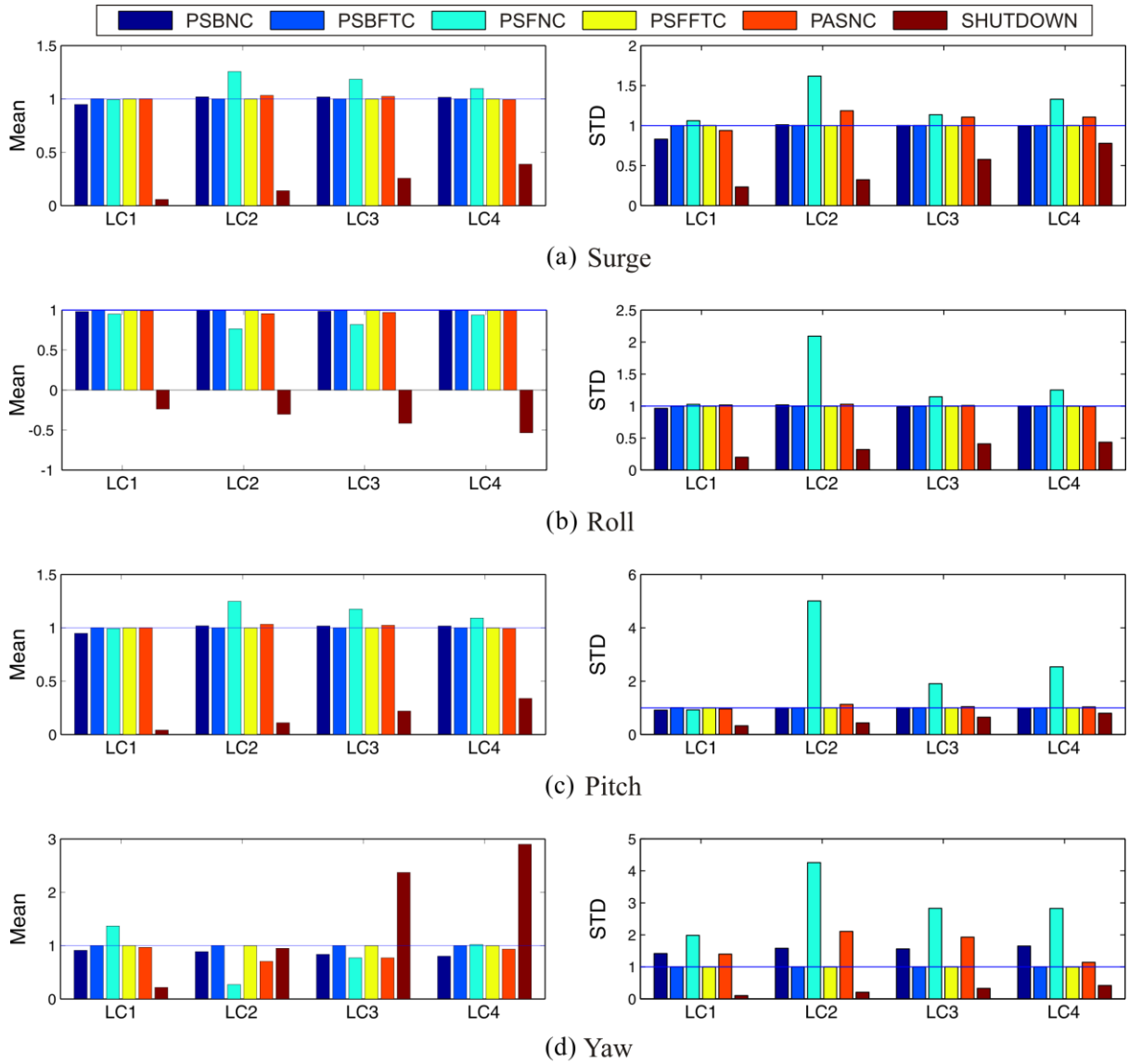


Figure 12. Mean values and standard deviations (STDs) of the platform surge, roll, pitch, and yaw motions for the floating wind turbine under PSB, PSF and PAS fault conditions with nominal PI and fault-tolerant controllers (blue line: fault-free; dark blue bar: nominal PI controller with PSB; blue bar: FTC controller with PSB; cyan bar: nominal PI controller with PSF; yellow bar: FTC controller with PSF; orange bar: nominal PI controller with PAS; and brown bar: shutdown).

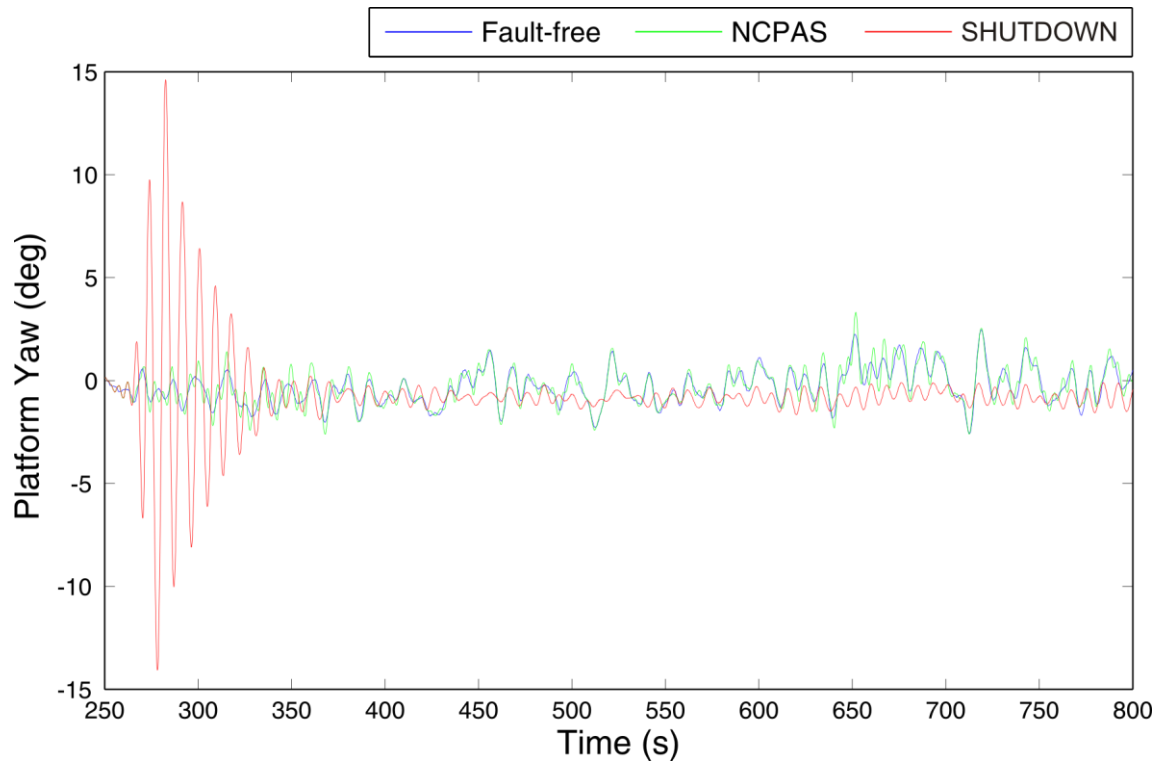


Figure 13. Platform yaw motion after PAS fault (blue line: fault-free; green line: nominal controller with PAS; and red line: shutdown with PAS).

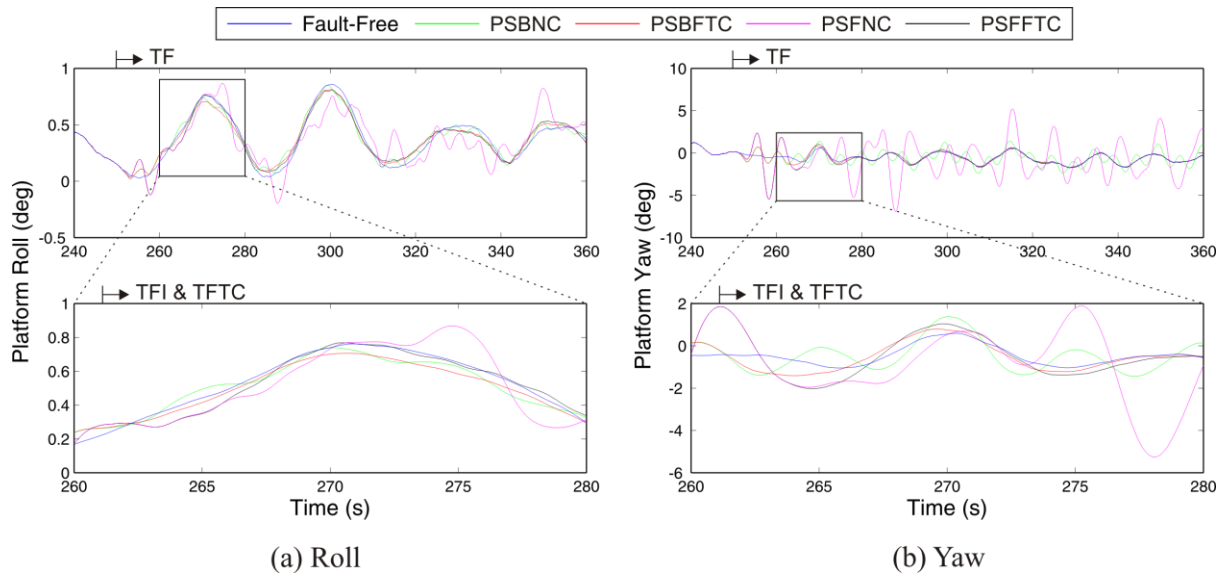
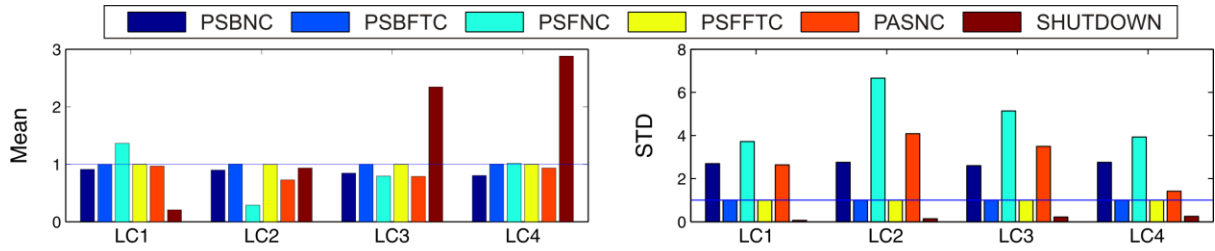
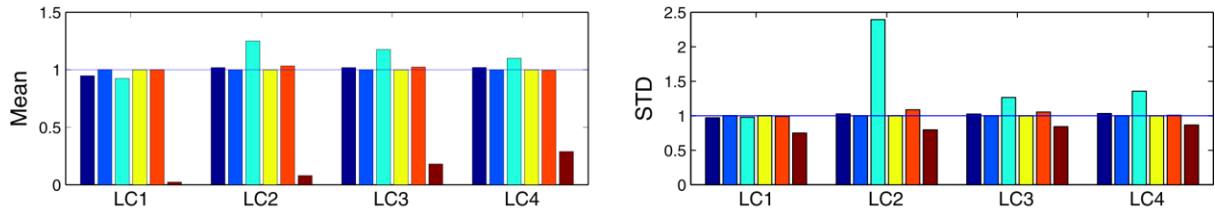


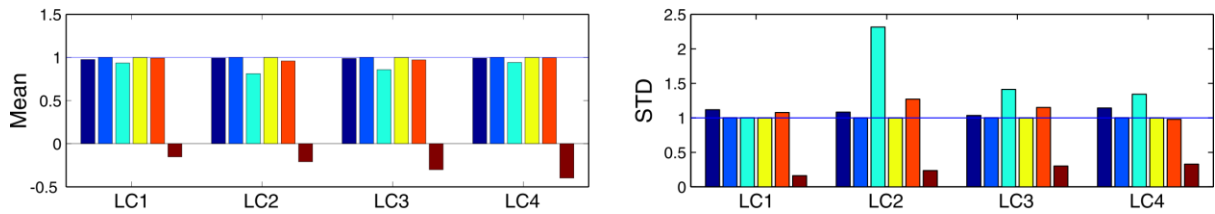
Figure 14. Comparison of the platform pitch and yaw motions under PSB and PSF fault conditions with nominal PI and fault-tolerant controllers under LC4.



(a) Tower base torsional moment



(b) Tower base fore-aft bending moment



(c) Tower base side-to-side bending moment

Figure 15. Mean values and standard deviations (STDs) of the torsional, fore-aft and side-to-side bending moments for the floating wind turbine under PSB, PSF and PAS fault conditions with nominal PI and FTC controllers (blue line: fault-free; dark blue bar: nominal PI controller with PSB; blue bar: FTC controller with PSB; cyan bar: nominal PI controller with PSF; yellow bar: FTC controller with PSF; orange bar: nominal PI controller with PAS; and brown bar: shutdown).

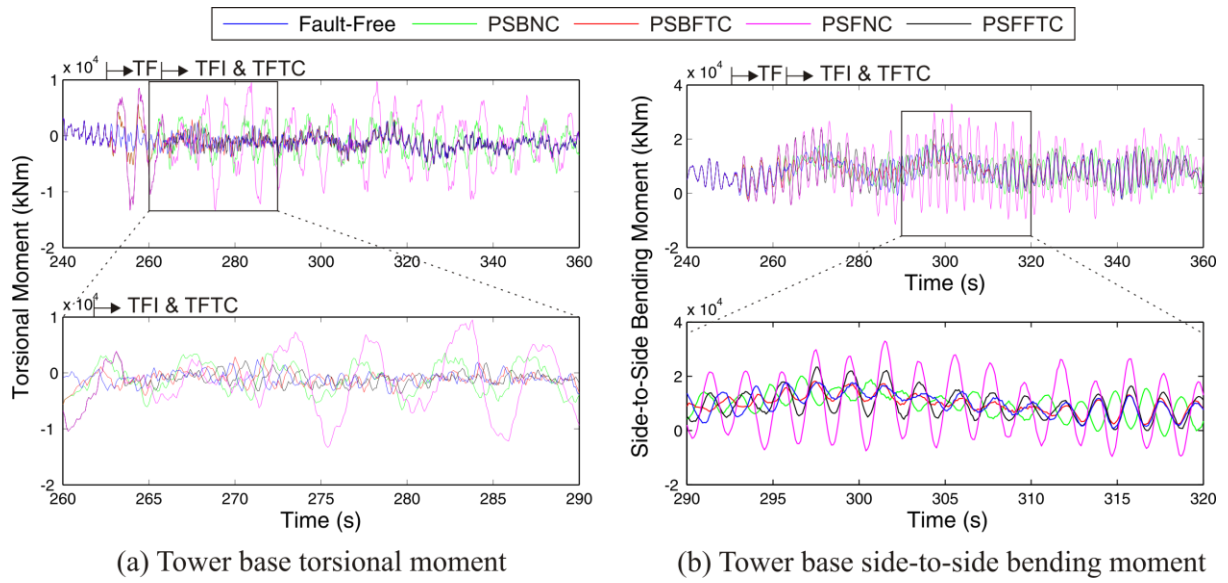


Figure 16. Comparison of the torsional and side-to-side bending moments under PSB and PSF fault conditions with nominal PI and fault-tolerant controllers under LC4.

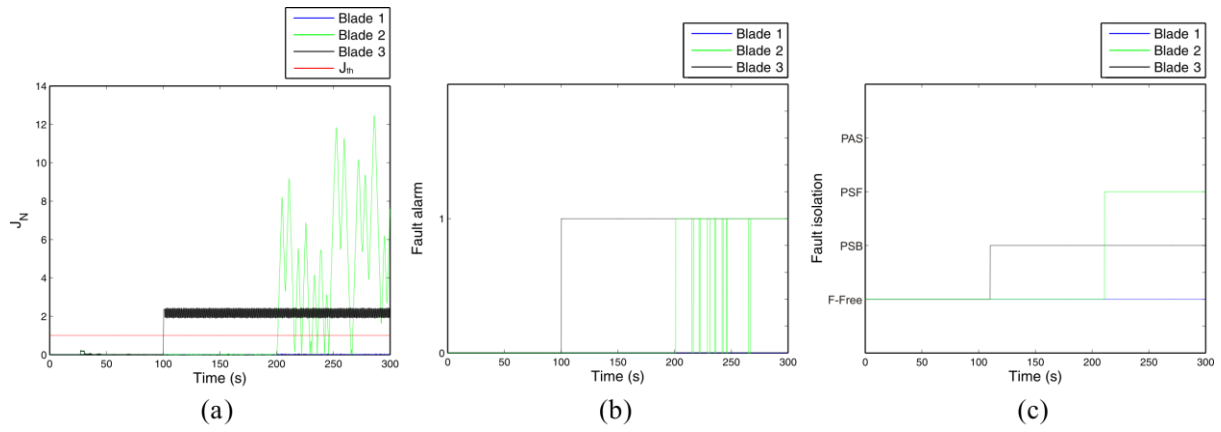


Figure 17. Simulation results of the PSB and PSF cases corresponding to the blade pitch angle: (a) normalized residual energy, (b) fault detection alarm and (c) fault isolation under LC4.

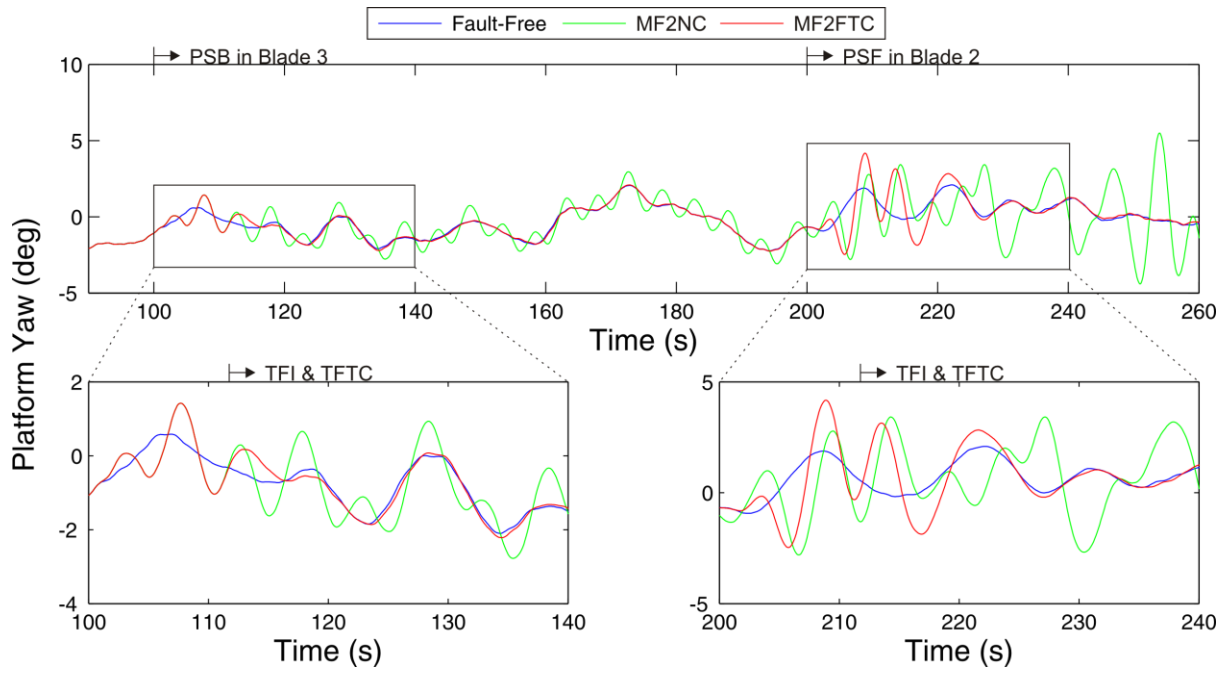


Figure 18. Comparison of the platform yaw motion under PSB and PSF fault conditions with nominal PI and fault-tolerant controllers under LC4.

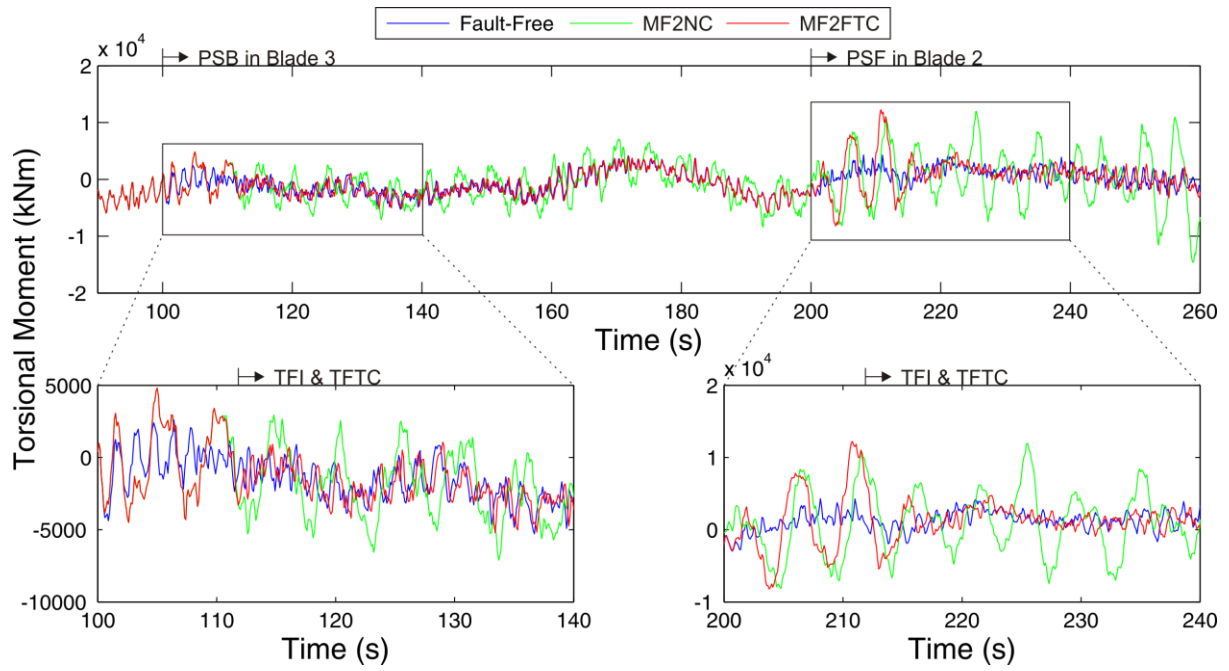


Figure 19. Comparison of the tower base torsional moment under PSB and PSF fault conditions with nominal PI and fault-tolerant controllers under LC4.