



Renewable Energies (part B, Hydro and Wind)

Master Degree in Innovative Technologies in Energy Efficient Buildings for Russian & Armenian Universities and Stakeholders

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Renewable Energies: Hydro

CLASSIFICATION

HYDRO

Small Plants P<10 MW

Schemes are also classified according to the "Head":-

High head: 100-m and aboveMedium head: 30 - 100 m

• Low head: 2 - 30 m

.

Schemes can also be defined as:-

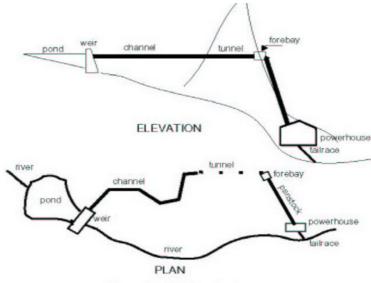
- Run-of-river schemes
- · Schemes with the powerhouse located at the base of a dam
- Schemes integrated on a canal or in a water supply pipe

Country	Small-scale hydro as defined by capacity (MW)	Reference	
Brazil	<30	Brazil Gvt Law 9648 May 27, 1998	
Canada	<50	Natural Resources Canada, 2009	
China	<50	Jinghe (2005), Wang (2010)	
European Union	<20	Directive 2004/101/EC ("Linking Directive")	
India	<25	Ministry of New and Renewable Energy, 2010	
Norway	<10	Norwegian Ministry of Petroleum and Energy 2008	
Sweden	<1.5	European Small Hydro Association	
United States	5-100	US National Hydropower Association	

CLASSIFICATION (II)

Medium and high head schemes use weirs to divert water to the intake which is then conveyed to the turbines typically through a pressure pipe (penstock)

SEZIONE A-A





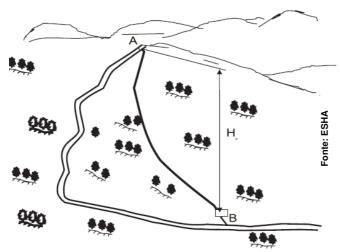
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STEPS IN DESIGNING A HYDRO SCHEME

- Topography and geomorphology survey of the site.
- Evaluation of the water resource availability in time
- Site selection and possible layout
- Pressure loss evaluation and pipe design
- Choice of the hydro turbine and its generators and their control
- Environmental impact assessment
- Financial and economic analysis
- Administrative procedures to attain the necessary consents

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The water resource



A mass flow rate of water m from section A to an end section B, with an elevation difference equal to H has a power potential P proportional to m and H in terms of the accelleration of gravity g:

P_p=mgH

In the natural flow this potential (mechanical energy) is dissipated as head losses (friction).

In the new path (open channels and pressure pipes) head losses are much lower and the pipeline design process is addressed to evalute these losses

The first step of the design process is the site survey and monitoring for assessing the river flow rate in time

The water resource

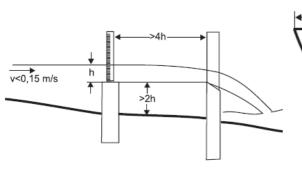
River flow rate measurements

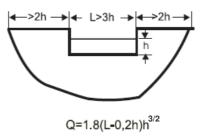
Method area/velocity is based on local measurents of the water velocity in different points of the river cross section



passerella orizzontale tacche equidistanti

The <u>weir method</u> is applied to small flow rates (up to 4m³/s). In this case a This is a low wall or dam across the stream/river is built and a gauge is devoted to record the river level

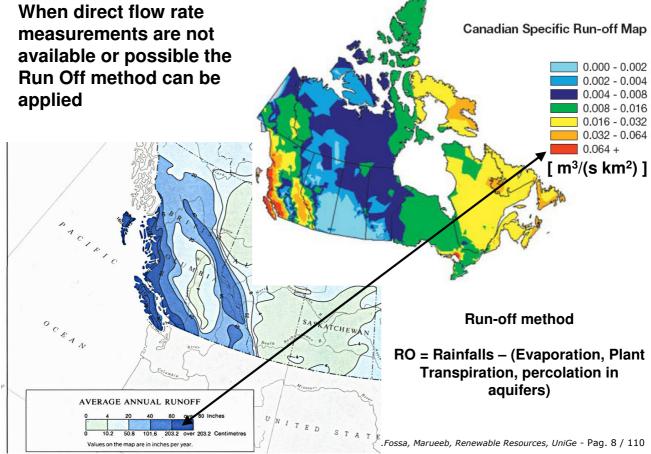




Liquid level is then related through empirical relationships to the volumetric flow rate Q

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The water resource

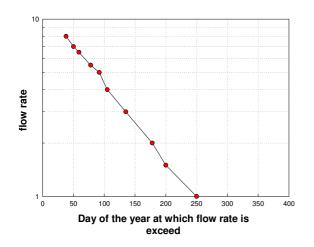


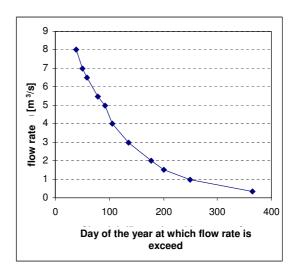
The water resource

Measured volumetric flow rate in time is usually organized in a diagram known as Flow Duration Curve (FDC)

In a FDC diagram x-axis are the days of the year and in the y-axis is the volumetric flow rate exceeded at that day of the year.

FDC are cumulative distributions of mass flow rate in time



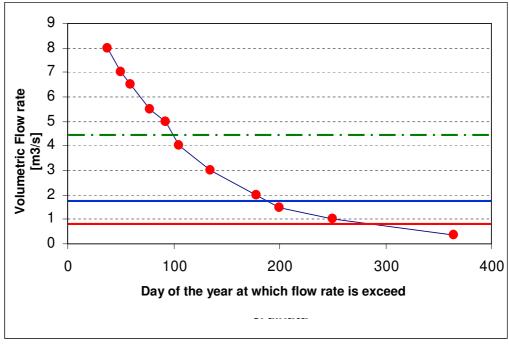


Flow rate in log scale typically gives a linear function in time

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The water resource

Energy potential can be calculated from FDC by inserting the Residual Flow (red line), the max (green) and minimum (blue) turbine flow rate

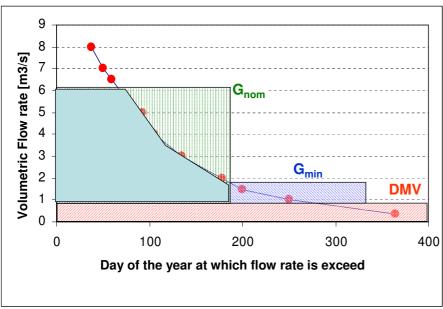


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The water resource

G is here the volumetric flow rate and refers to turbine capacity, whose efficiency is η . ρ is water density and H* the net head

DMV is the residual flow, left to the river based on environmental requirements $E = H^*g \ \rho \ \int G(\tau) \eta(G) d\tau = H^*g \ \rho \ \sum (G_i \ \eta_i \ 24^*3600)$



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Avalaible head and head loss

Being H the real head and h the head losses due to friction, H* is the net head.

The fluid in a typical piping system passes through various fittings, valves, bends, tees, inlets, exits in addition to the pipes. These components cause additional losses.

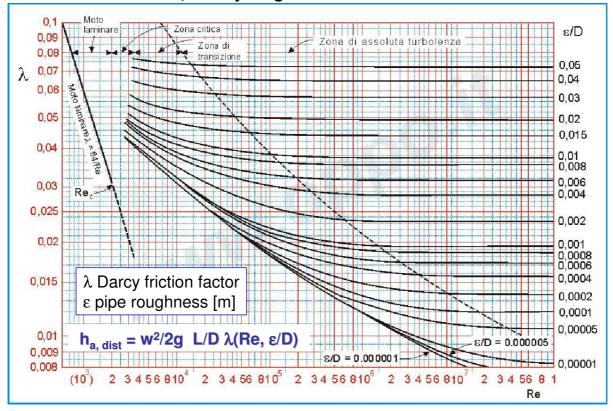
In a typical system with long pipes, these losses are minor compared to the total head loss in the pipes (the *major losses*) and they are called *minor losses*.

Here major losses (in straight pipes and channels) are referred as Distributed ones compared to the Concentrated ones (in singularities, like bends, valves, grids)

$$H - H^* = h_{a, dist} + \sum h_{a, conc}$$

Distributed head losses (pressure pipes)

Distributed head losses, Moody Diagram of friction factor λ

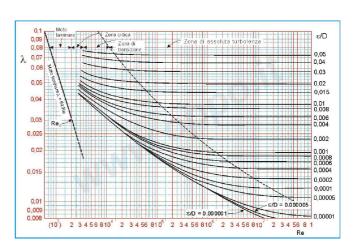


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Head losses, friction factor

ε values in meters

Steel pipes (extruded) 0.02 Smooth polyetilene (PE) pipes 0.003 Concrete pipes 0.2



Colebrook $1/\sqrt{\lambda} = -2.0 \text{ Log} 10 \left[\epsilon/(3.7 \text{D}) + 2.51/(\text{Re } \sqrt{\lambda}) \right]$

Haaland $1/\sqrt{\lambda} = -1.8 \text{ Log} 10 \left[\epsilon/(3.7\text{D})^{1.11} + 6.9/\text{Re} \right]$

Head losses, distributed

Equivalent to Moody diagram are Manning formulas

$$\frac{h_f}{L} = 10.3 \frac{n^2 Q^2}{D^{5,333}}$$

Manning Formula

h = Distributed head loss [m] Q = volumetric flow rate n = Manning coeff. ($\sim 1/\sqrt{\lambda}$) n=0.012 Steel 0.009 Plastic PE and PVC 0.011-0.014 concrete

Setting h = 0.04H (head losses 4% of available head H) yields the related optimum pipe diameter D:

$$D = 2,69 \left(\frac{n^2 Q^2 L}{H} \right)^{0,1875}$$

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Head losses, distributed, open channels

Head losses in open channels



f Triangular channel



trapezoidal channel

Q = 1/n A ($D_h/4$)^{0.67} s ^{0.5} (Manning formula for open chnnels)

Q = volumetric flow rate

n = Manning coeff. ($\sim 1/\sqrt{\lambda}$)

D_h = hydraulic diameter, 4Area/perimeter

s = channel slope [m/m]

P = wetted perimeter

n values: Ground escavated=0.025-0.035 Concrete=0.015

$$S = \left(\frac{Q \cdot n \cdot P^{2/3}}{A^{5/3}}\right)^2$$

Slope for given flow rate

Head losses, distributed, open channels

 $Q = 1/n A (D_h/4)^{0.67} s^{0.5}$

$$S = \left(\frac{Q \cdot n \cdot P^{2/3}}{A^{5/3}}\right)^2$$

Calculation example

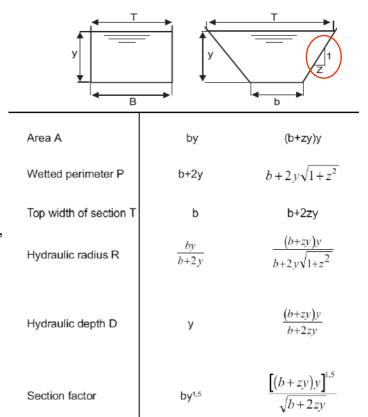
Trapezoidal channel, n=0.015, y=1m, b=1.5m channel sides slope, horiz/vertical=0.5 Channel slope 0.001 (1mm per meter),

A=
$$(1.5+0.5x1)x1=2 \text{ m}^2$$

T= $(1.5+0.5^*1)^*1=2m$
P = $1.5+2^*(1+0.5^2)^{0.5} = 3.74m$
Dh= $4A/P=2.139 \text{ [m]}$

$$Q = 2.78 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$$

 $w = Q/A = 1.4 \text{m/s}$



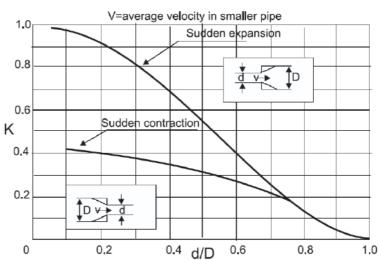
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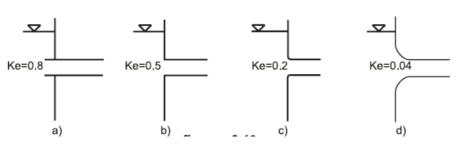
Head losses, concentrated

Concentrated (local) head losses

$$h_{a, conc} = 0.5 \text{ w}^2/\text{g K}$$

 $W = W_{max}$

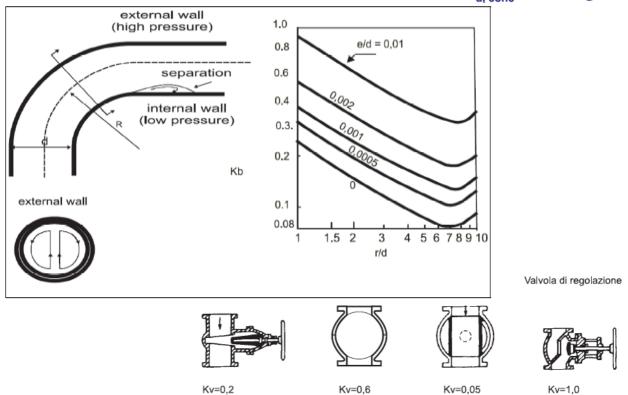




Head losses, concentrated

Local head losses, bends and valves

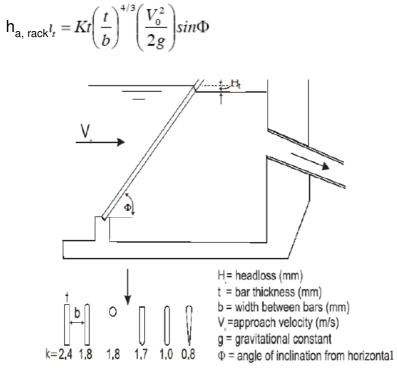
 $h_{a, conc} = 0.5 \text{ w}^2/\text{g K}$



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Head losses, concentrated

Head Losses in Trash Racks





Head losses in pressure pipes

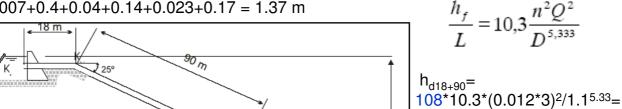
Example

Steel pipe n=0.012, G=3 m^3 /s, D₉₀=1.1m, D₄₅=0.90m, rack inclination 60°, bar thickness 12mm, spacing 70mm, V_o=1m/s, K_{bends}=

$$H = 85 \text{ m}$$

$$h_{a, d18} + h_{a, d90} + h_{a, d5} + h_{a, d45} + h_{a, 15} = 2.4 \text{ m}$$
 (distributed losses)

 $h_{a, c \text{ rack}} + h_{a, c \text{ curve}} + h_{a, c \text{ restr}} + h_{a, c \text{ bend}} + h_{a, c \text{ bend}} + h_{a, c \text{ valve}} =$ 0.007 + 0.4 + 0.04 + 0.14 + 0.023 + 0.17 = 1.37 m



Head losses are here below 5% of available head (85m)

Pipe diameters are correct..

$$h_{\text{rack}} = 2.4 \left(\frac{12}{70}\right)^{3/4} \frac{0.8^2}{2 \cdot 9.81} = 0.007 \ m$$

0.867m

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Power from turbine

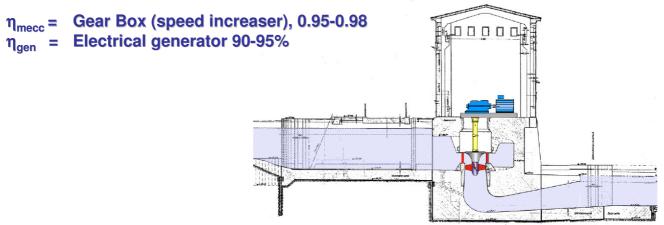
15 m

The electric power from turbine is given as a function of turbine, generator and gear box efficiencies η and net head H*

$$\textbf{P} = \eta_t \, \eta_{gen} \, \eta_{mecc} \, \textbf{H} \,^* \, \rho \, \textbf{G}$$

where:

 η_t = Turbine (depending of flow rate)



Hydro turbines

Different types are available, depending on head and flow rate to be exploited. Usually they have a fixed part (stator) and a moving one (rotor)

The water pressure can apply a force on the face of the runner blades, which decreases as it proceeds through the turbine. Turbines that operate in this way are called <u>reaction turbines</u> (e.g. <u>Francis</u>).

The opposite is the case of impulse (action) turbines (e.g. Pelton)

Stator or distributor

It's the non moving part of turbine. It directs and control the water flow and it converts (completely or partially) the pressure head into kinetic energy $w_{out,max}=(2gH^*)^{0.5}$. Full conversion of pressure head is characteristic of Impulse turbines

Wheel (or rotor or runner)

It converts the water head (pressure or kinetic) into mechanical power

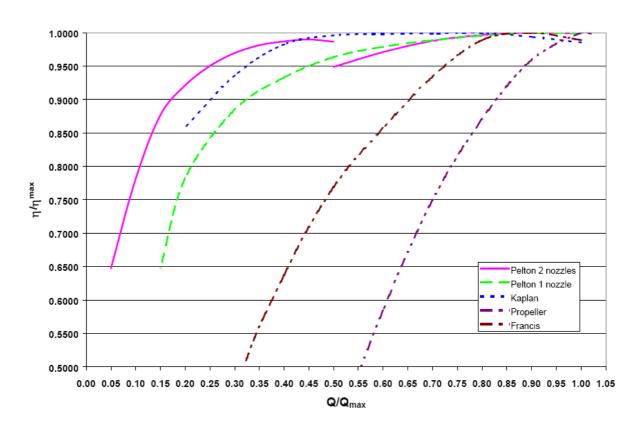
Specific speed n_s. It is a similar parameter that is peculiar of each turbine type.

$$n_s = n (P^{0.5})/(H^{*1.25})$$
 [rpm]

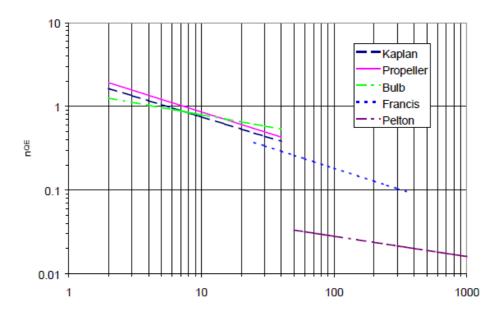
P = Power [kW], H* net head [m], n rotational speed [rpm]

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Hydro turbines, efficiency vs flow rate

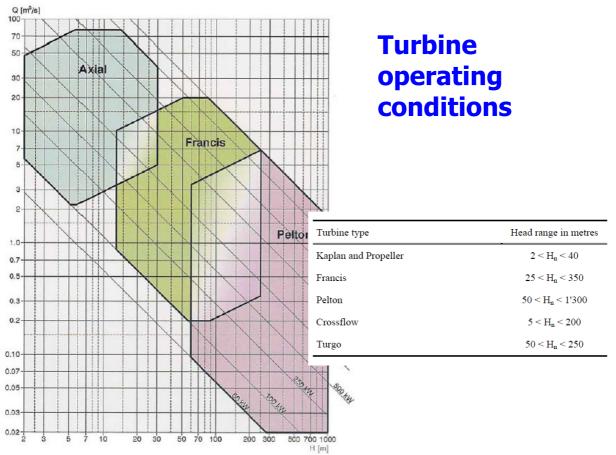


Turbines



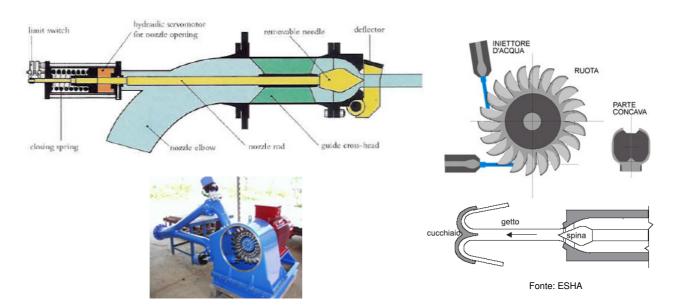
Specific speed n_s as function of the net head for different turbine types

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Impulse turbines (Pelton)

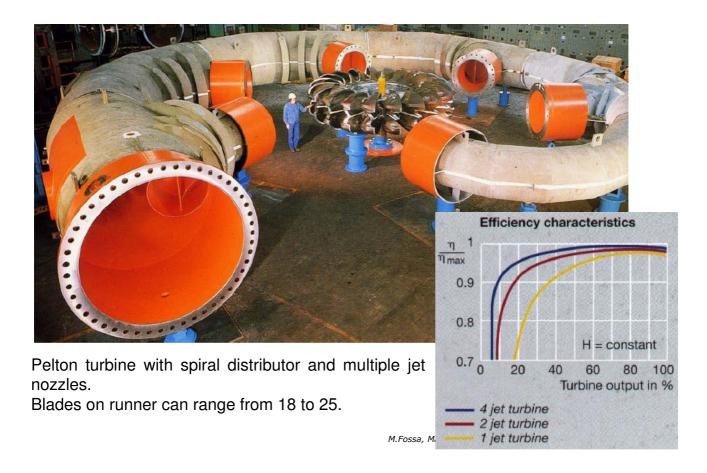


Pelton turbines have one or more nozzles which regulates the flow rate with a moving needle

The runner is made by a series of blades ("spoons") moving at a speed equal to half of the impinging velocity w. Pelton turbines are suitable for high heads (100-1000m)

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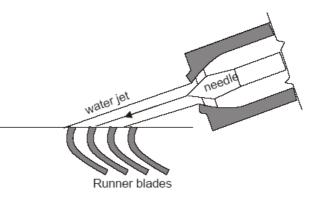
Impulse turbines (Pelton)



Turgo turbines

Turgo turbines are impulse acting ones like Peltons. The jet here impinges on more than a single blade and more flow rate can be transferred for given runner diameter



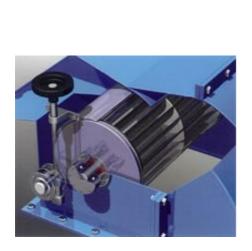


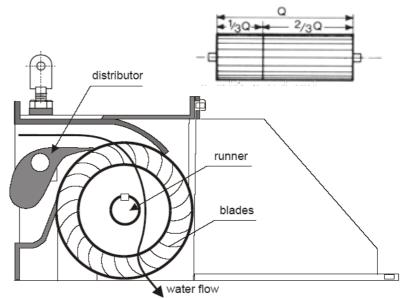
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Cross Flow Turbines

They are impulse turbines, also known as Banki-Michell machines. They can work with very small flow rates to high ones (20 l/s to 10 m³/s) and with medium heads (5-200 m).

Efficiency is not as high as Peltons but it reaches high values also for low flow rates with respect to the design value (minimum flow rate=15% of nominal one)





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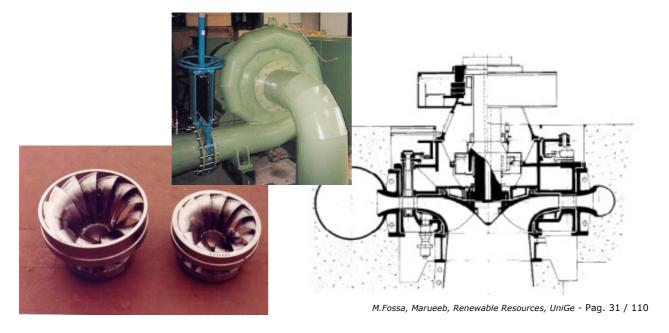
Reaction Turbines, Francis

Francis turbines are reaction machines with a statoric part having a spiral shape.

The distributor has moving blades while the runner has fixed ones. Water Intake circunferential while water exit is along turbine axis

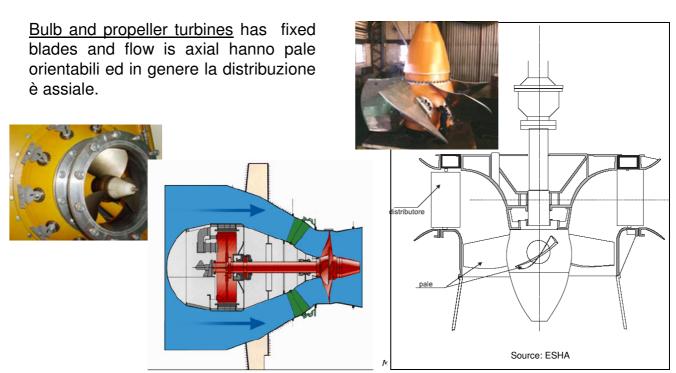
The distributor is larger than the runner itself.

These turbines can work in large range of head values (10-350m) and flow rates.



Reaction Turbines, Kaplan and Bulb

<u>Kaplan</u> turbines are reaction machines where the water intake is radial. Kaplan blades (either on stator or runner) can change their position for regulating the flow rate and the power. Typical head is below 10m



Renewable Energies: Wind



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Physics of wind on a global scale

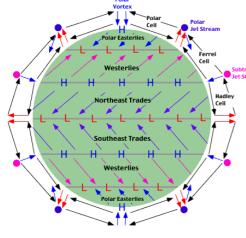
Wind energy comes from sun.

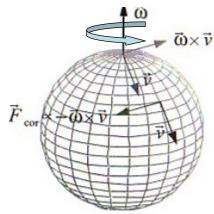
Sun radiation induces natural circulation in atmosphere due to the heating of the earth surface.

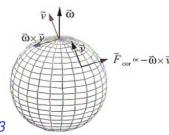
Circulation cells (Hadley cells) are created started from uplift winds at the equator and descending wind at both tropics and poles

Air movement due to the Trade (prevailing) winds creates high and low pressure areas on earth

This macrocirculation of air is affected by the **Coriolis** effect, a pseudo force which is related to earth rotation and push any object heading north in the atmosphere toward east in the northern emisphere







Gustave Gaspard Coriolis, 1792-1843

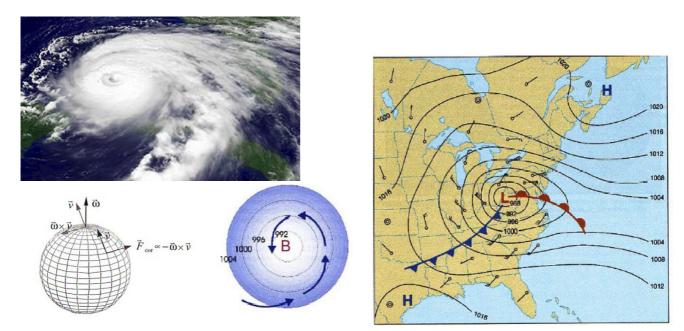
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Physics of wind on a global scale

On a smaller scale, mountain chains, sea surfaces and other local effects affect the wind circulation.

In any case Coriolis effects tend to lead winds parallel to isobars and not perpendicular to them, as expected from non rotating fields in fluid mechanics.

Cyclonic areas (low pressure) are typical effects of wind circulation



CENNI ALLA FISICA DEL VENTO (III)

Wind Speed Scale (Danish wind Industry association).

Wind Speed Scale

Wind	Beaufort Scale (outdated)	Wind Speed at 10 m height	
		knots	m/s
Calm	0	0.0-0.9	0.0-0.4
	1	0.9-3.5	0.4-1.8
Light	2	3.5-7.0	1.8-3.6
	3	7-11	3.6-5.8
Moderate	4	11-17	5.8-8.5
Fresh	5	17-22	8.5-11
Strong	6	22-28	11-14
Strong	7	28-34	14-17
Gale	8	34-41	17-21
Gale	9	41-48	21-25
Strong Calo	10	48-56	25-29
Strong Gale	11	56-65	29-34
Hurricane	12	>65	>34

Wind speed in Europe

Hills and ridges © 1989 Risee National Laboratory Vektor grambics © 1999 DWIA m/s W/m² >11.5 > 1800 10.0-11.5 1200 1800

Wind Resources at 50 (45) m Above Ground Level

Open

Col

Sheltered

 our
 terrain
 plain
 coast
 ridges

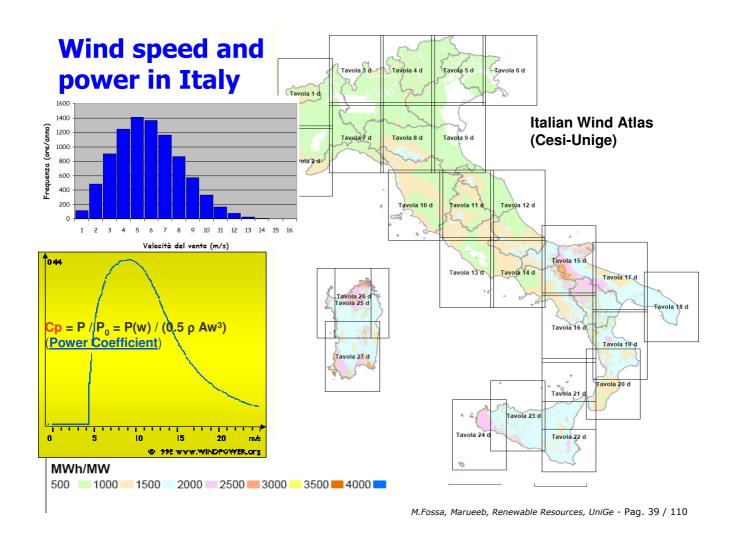
 m/s
 W/m²
 m/s
 W/m²

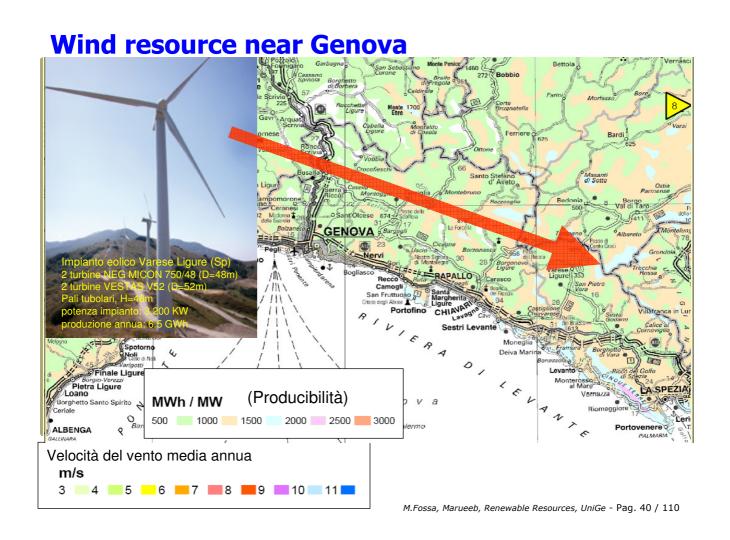
At a sea

Open sea

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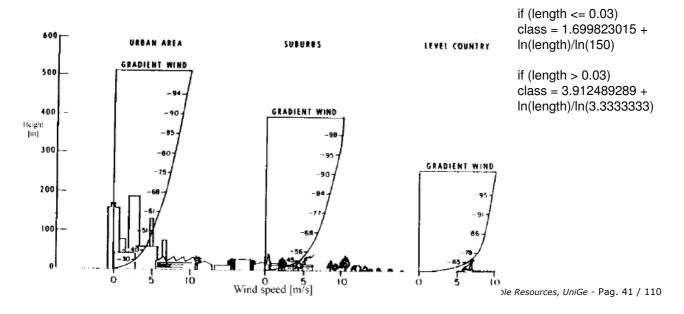


Wind vertical velocity distribution

Any fluid moving along a surface develops a velocity Boundary Layer where viscosity and surface roughness affect the fluid velocity profile

Roughness class and \mathbf{z}_0 are concepts employed for describing different terrain conditions

Class is related to roughness from the expressions



Wind vertical velocity distribution

Roughness Classes and Roughness Length Table (source: windpower.org)

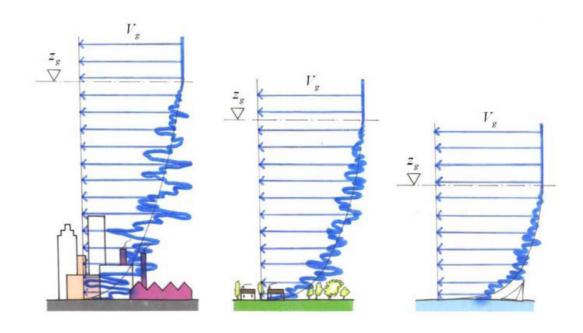
Rough- ness Class	Roughness Length m	Energy Index (per cent)	Landscape Type
0	0.0002	100	Water surface
0.5	0.0024	73	Completely open terrain with a smooth surface, e.g.concrete runways in airports, mowed grass, etc.
1	0.03	52	Open agricultural area without fences and hedgerows and very scattered buildings. Only softly rounded hills
1.5	0.055	45	Agricultural land with some houses and 8 metre tall sheltering hedgerows with a distance of approx. 1250 metres
2	0.1	39	Agricultural land with some houses and 8 metre tall sheltering hedgerows with a distance of approx. 500 metres
2.5	0.2	31	Agricultural land with many houses, shrubs and plants, or 8 metre tall sheltering hedgerows with a distance of approx. 250 metres
3	0.4	24	Villages, small towns, agricultural land with many or tall sheltering hedgerows, forests and very rough and uneven terrain
3.5	0.8	18	Larger cities with tall buildings
4	1.6	13	Very large cities with tall buildings and skycrapers M.Fossa, Marueeb, Renewable Resources, UniGe - Pag. 42 / 110

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Wind vertical velocity distribution

Turbulence is also affected by terrain roughness



Wind vertical velocity distribution

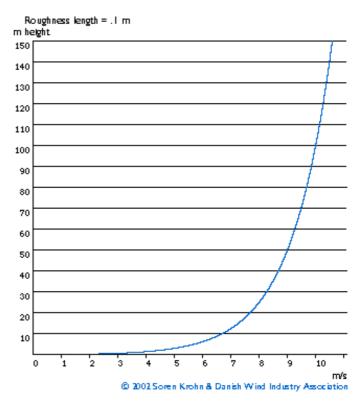
Log profile of vertical wind velocity

Wind velocity w as a function of elevation z is usually expressed as: $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w}_{ref} \ln(\mathbf{z}/\mathbf{z}_0)/\ln(\mathbf{z}_{ref}/\mathbf{z}_0)$

 w_{ref} = Ref velocity at ref elevation z_{ref}

 $z_0 =$ (roughness length)

Notice: Small z_0 (steep velocity profiles) are related to the need of lower hub height



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Wind vertical velocity distribution (obstacles)

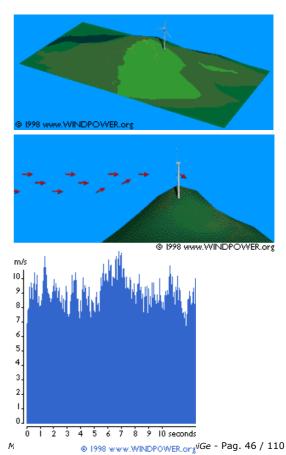
Local terrain effects

Terrain elevation changes (hills and mountains) reduce the flow area resulting in wind acceleration.

On the other hand usually an obstacle increase the wind turbulence, which are negative since induces vibration on turbine blades and structure

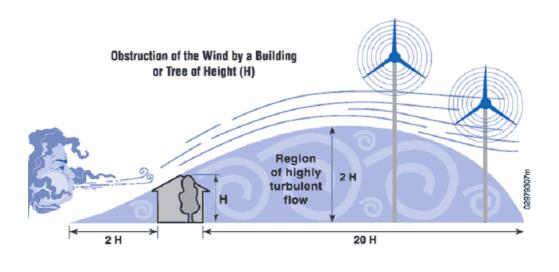
I = Turbolent Intensity = σ / w _{medio}

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \int_{T} [w(\tau) - w_{\text{medio}}]^2 d\tau}$$



Wind vertical velocity distribution (obstacles)

Presence of obstacles along wind direction



Prevailing wind

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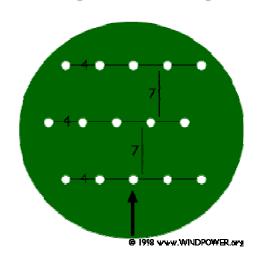
Wind vertical velocity distribution (obstacles)

Presence of other turbines

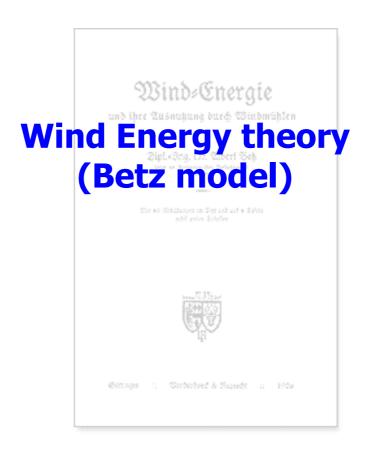
In wind farms several wind turbines are arranged in regular or non regular arrangements.

On dowstream turbines the wind energy is reduced and turbulence increased

Minimum distances (in terms of blade diameters) are suggested for mitigating the above effects

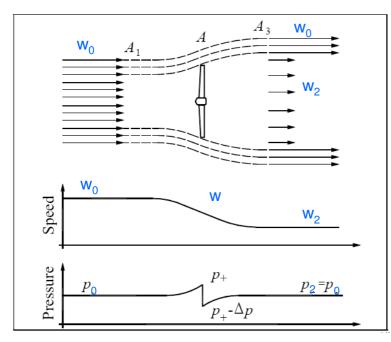


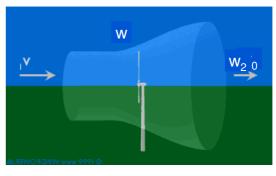




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BETZ Theory (I)



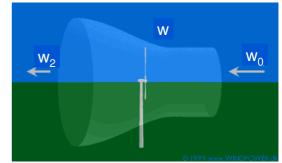


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BETZ Theory (II)

$$\begin{array}{ll} m = \rho_0 \; A_0 w_0 = \rho_2 \; A_2 w_2 & \text{(Continuity)} \\ F = m \; (w_0 - w_2) = \; \rho \; A \; w \; (w_0 - w_2) \\ \text{(momentum conservation)} \\ P = F \; w = \; \rho \; A \; w^2 \; (w_0 - w_2) \\ P = 0.5 \; m \; (w_0^2 - w_2^2) = 0.5 \; \; A \; \rho \; w \; (w_0^2 - w_2^2) \\ \text{(Energy conservation)} \end{array}$$





Set w₀, it is possible to get the maximum P value in terms of

downstream velocity w₂

$$dP/d(w_2) = 0$$

$$dP/d(w_2) = 0.25 (w_0^2 - 2 w_0 w_2 - 3w_2^2) = 0$$

The equation has 2 solutions: w_2 =-w0 (non realis $w_2 = w_0/3$ Hence:

$$P_{\text{max}} = 8/27 \text{ A } \rho \text{ W}_0^3$$

If we introduce $P_0 = 0.5$ A ρw_0^3

$$P_{max} / P_0 = \frac{C_p}{C_p} = 16/27 = 0.593$$

 $C_p = \frac{Power Coefficient}{C_p}$



BETZ Theory (III)

Force (or Thrust) acting on rotor

$$p_1 + 0.5 \rho w_0^2 = p_+ + 0.5 \rho w^2$$

(Bernoulli, no losses)

$$W = (W_0 + W_2)/2$$

 $dP/d(W_2) = 0.25 (W_0^2 - 2 W_0 W_2 - 3W_2^2) = 0$
 $W_2 = W_0/3$

$$F = \dot{m} (w_0 - w_2) = A \rho w (w_0 - w_2) =$$

 $A\rho (2/3w_0)(2/3w_0)$

$$F = A\rho (4/9w_0^2)=0.5\rho (8/9) w_0^2$$

For a plane surface

$$F = A\rho C_D(0.5w_0^2)$$

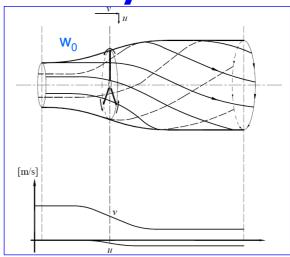
with
$$C_D=1.1$$
 (typically)

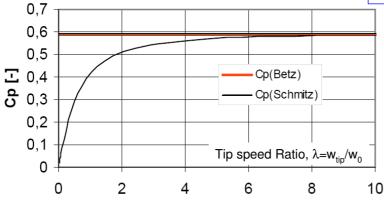
An ideal wind rotor supports a thrust equal to 80% (8/9/1.1) of that acting on a plane surface normal to wind and having the same frontal area

BETZ/Schmitz Theory

Schmitz has developed a more detailed and realistic model of the flow in the rotor plane. The torque *M* applied to rotor shaft is established because of the rotation of the wake.

Analysis shows the role of the **tip speed ratio** λ in rotor efficiency. If rotor turns to slowly, most wind passes without transferring momentum. A too fast rotor on the other hand acts as a solid wall to wind action. Thus an optimum λ exists, and for three blades rotors is around 5÷6.





$$\lambda = W_{tip}/W_0 = \omega R / W_0$$

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Optimum Tip speed ratio

Let's introduce two characteristic times:

the time taken for the disturbed wind to reestablish itself τ_w and the time needed for a blade (total number is n) to reach its predecessor position, $\tau_{\rm R}$

 $\tau_{\rm w}$ can be related to the length of disturbed wind while passing the rotor, L.

$$\tau_{w} = L/w_{0}$$
 $\tau_{b} = 2\pi/(n\omega)$

Optimum condition is when the two characteristic time are equal, $\omega_{\text{opt}} = 2\pi W_0/(\text{nL})$

Experiments/CFD simulations shows that L is close to 0.4R Hence optimum tip speed ratio is

 $\lambda = w_{tip}/w_0 = \omega R / w_0$

$$\lambda_{OPT} \sim 5\pi/n$$

For a three blade rotor, this optimum value is hence close to 5.

Notice: since rotor speed is often almost constant, efficiency (C_p) has a through a maximum profile

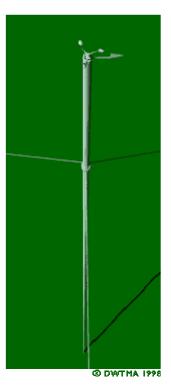
Wind speed measurements

Fundamental for wind farm decision and design is the knowledge of wind speed in time of the site

Multi year (2-4) measurements are suggested due to the year to year typical variability of wind

Wind speed (by anemometers) but also direction have to be measured for example with a sampling rate of 10 minutes

It is also useful for evaluating the terrain roughness to perform measurements at different height (10, 20, 40m).



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Wind speed measurements

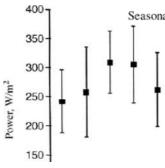


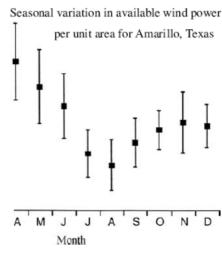
Installation of a 40m measurement mast

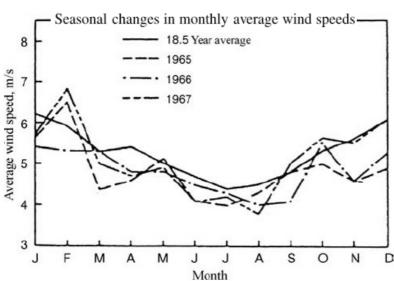
Measurements are represented in several diagrams including Probability Distributions and Wind Rose polar representations

Wind speed measurements

Measurements in different years





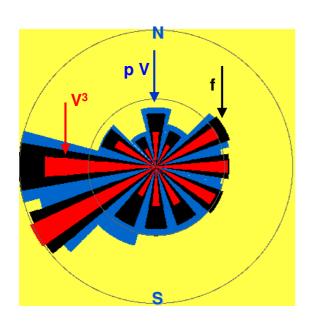


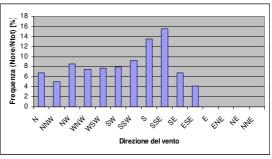
eb, Renewable Resources, UniGe - Pag. 57 / 110

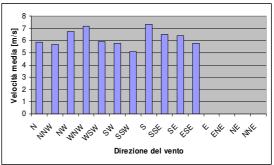
Wind speed diagrams

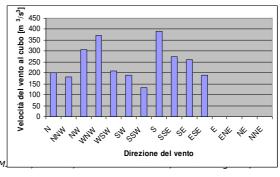


<u>Wind Rose</u> is a polar diagram of wind direction, velocity and cube of velocity in the different directions, N, S, E, W





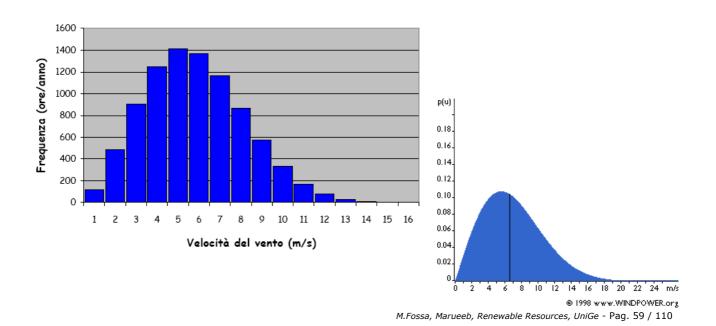




Wind speed diagrams

Wind velocity is often represented as Probability Density Function (PDF curve of frequencies) for all wind directions.

Typically distributions are not symmetric and they can be well described by a simple analytic formula like the Weibull expression



Weibull probability function

0.18

0.16

0.10 0.08

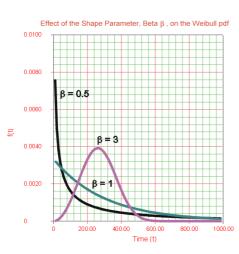
0.06

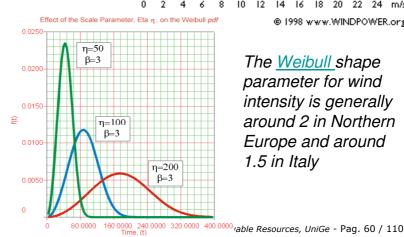
0.04

Weibull, is a 2 parameter PDF

$$f(w) = \left(\frac{\beta}{\eta}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{w}{\eta}\right)^{\beta - 1} \cdot e^{-\left(\frac{w}{\eta}\right)^{\beta}}$$

Where f is the PDF of w, β is the shape parameter and n is the scale parameter, proportional to average wind velocity





The Weibull shape parameter for wind intensity is generally around 2 in Northern Europe and around 1.5 in Italy

18 20 22 24

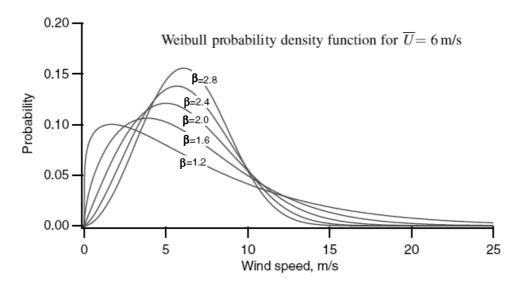
© 1998 www.WINDPOWER.org

Weibull probability function

$$f(w) = \left(\frac{\beta}{\eta}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{w}{\eta}\right)^{\beta - 1} \cdot e^{-\left(\frac{w}{\eta}\right)^{\beta}}$$

 η is the scale parameter, proportional to average wind velocity

The Weibull shape parameter for wind intensity is generally around 2 in Northern Europe and around 1.5 in Italy



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Weibull probability function

$$f(w) = (\frac{\beta}{\eta}) \cdot (\frac{w}{\eta})^{\beta - 1} \cdot e^{-(\frac{w}{\eta})^{\beta}}$$

$$\overline{w} = \int wf(w)dw = \sum_{w=0}^{w=25} wf(w)$$

$$\overline{w} = \eta \Gamma\left(1 + \frac{1}{\beta}\right)$$

$$\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$$

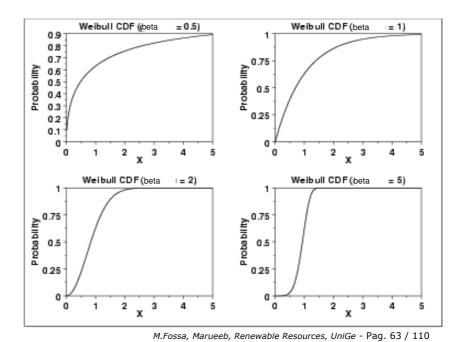
$$\Gamma(x) = \text{gamma function} = \int_0^\infty e^{-t} t^{x-1} dt$$

$$\Gamma(x) = \left(\sqrt{2\pi x}\right) \left(x^{x-1}\right) \left(e^{-x}\right) \left(1 + \frac{1}{12x} + \frac{1}{288x^2} - \frac{139}{51840x^3} + \dots\right)$$

Weibull probability function

Cumulative distribution F of Weibull PDF is by definition:

$$F(w) = 1 - e^{-\left(\frac{w}{\eta}\right)^{\beta}}$$



Given a random variate ${\it U}$ drawn from the uniform distribution in the interval (0, 1), then the variate ${\it X}$:

$$X = \eta(-Ln(U))^{\frac{1}{\beta}}$$

has a Weibull distribution with parameters β and η . This follows from the form of the cumulative distribution function.

Weibull parameters from measured data

$$f(w) = (\frac{\beta}{\eta}) \cdot (\frac{w}{\eta})^{\beta - 1} \cdot e^{-(\frac{w}{\eta})^{\beta}}$$

$$F(w) = \int_{-\infty}^{w} f(x) dx = 1 - e^{-(\frac{w}{\eta})^{\beta}}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1 - e^{-(\frac{w}{\eta})^{\beta}}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{10000} \frac{10000}{9000}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{9000} f(x) dx = 1 - e^{-(\frac{w}{\eta})^{\beta}}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{10000} \frac{10000}{9000}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{9000} f(x) dx = 1 - e^{-(\frac{w}{\eta})^{\beta}}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{10000} \frac{10000}{9000}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{9000} f(x) dx = 1 - e^{-(\frac{w}{\eta})^{\beta}}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{10000} \frac{10000}{9000}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{9000} f(x) dx = 1 - e^{-(\frac{w}{\eta})^{\beta}}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{10000} \frac{10000}{9000}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{9000} \frac{10000}{9000}$$

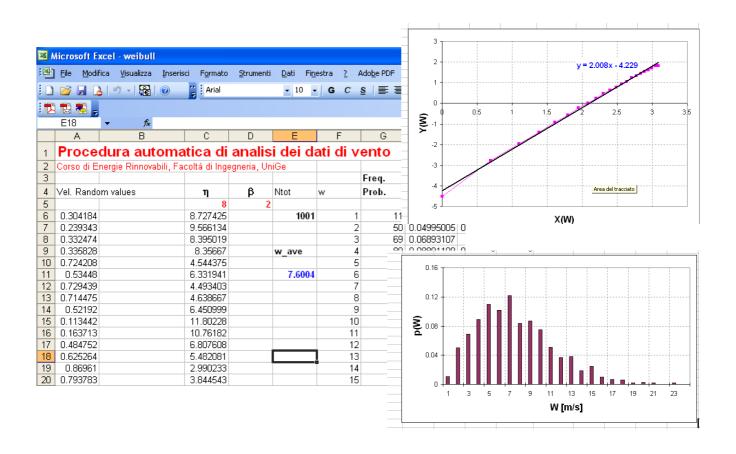
 β and η can be calculated from available measured data from Cumulative Distribution.

Two new auxiliary variables x and y are introduced x = ln(w) y = ln [-ln(1-F)]

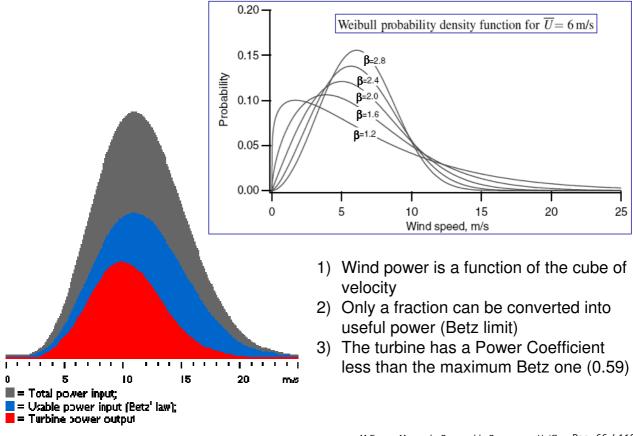
In a diagram y- x the y function will result in a linear profile $y = y_0 - mx$

Slope m is β while y_0 is related to η as $\eta = e^{-(y_0/m)}$

An excel program for β and η evalution



Wind Energy availability



Weibull Example

$$f(w) = \left(\frac{\beta}{\eta}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{w}{\eta}\right)^{\beta - 1} \cdot e^{-\left(\frac{w}{\eta}\right)^{\beta}}$$
$$F(w) = \int_{-\infty}^{w} f(x) dx = 1 - e^{-\left(\frac{w}{\eta}\right)^{\beta}}$$

A wind turbine has cut-in velocity 4 m/s and cut-out velocity 25 m/s. In the site where turbine is installed the shape factor is 1.5 and the scale one is 7 m/s. 1) For how many hours in a day, will the turbine generate power?

2) Estimate the probability of wind velocity to exceed 25 m/s at this site.

$$P(V_1 < V < V_2) = F(V_2) - F(V_1)$$

$$F(w > w_x) = e^{-(\frac{w_x}{\eta})^{\beta}}$$

Prob(
$$w_4 < w < w_{25}$$
)=exp(-(4/7)^{1.5})-exp(-(25/7)^{1.5})= 0.77

$$Prob(w>w_{25})=exp(-(25/7)^{1.5})=6E-10$$

ANSWER

In a day the turbine generates power for 0.77x24=18.2h

The chance of wind stronger than 25 m/s at this site is really very rare

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Turbines Power curves

Cut In Wind Speed

Wind turbines have a minimum wind velocity that allows power generation (3-5 m/s)

Hence wind velocity lower than Cut in are not converted into mechanical energy

Cut Out Wind Speed

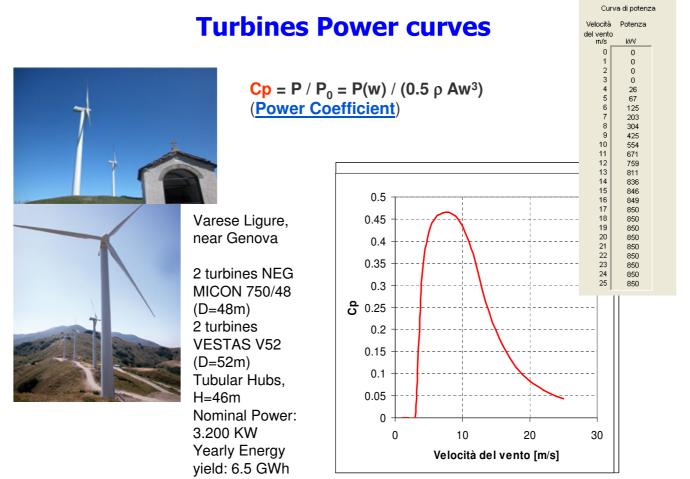
Turbines have brakes and other systems to cut power and stop the rotor when the wind speed exceed 25 m/s.

The reason is to avoid risk of damages on the moving and fixed structure

The diagram here shows a power curve of a 600kW turbine with cut-in at 4 m/s

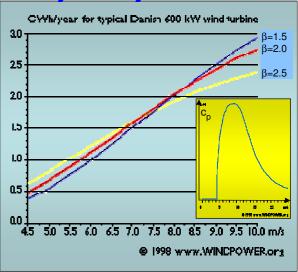


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Wind Energy availabilty analysis

- 1)On site measurements of wind velocity and direction:
- 2) Wind Rose and PDF curves calculation
- 3) Weibull parameter estimation
- 4) Evaluation of the theoretical available power;
- 5) Choice of turbine;
- 6) Calculation of power and energy converted by turbine from turbine power coefficient
- 7) Ecomomic and financial calculation for assessning the payback time of the investement



The diagram above shows how wind distribution for given turbine changes the yearly energy yields at given average wind speed

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Vestas V47-

600kW Turbine

Power Curve.

Wind speed (m/s)

Feasibility analysis

Wind Power density, WPD

$$WPD = \sum_{w=0}^{w=25} 0.5 \rho \ w^3 f(w)$$

Average wind speed

$$f(w)dw = \frac{d\tau}{\tau_{tot}}$$

$$\overline{w} = \frac{1}{\tau_{tot}} \int_{\tau_{tot}} w(\tau) d\tau = \int w f(w) dw = \sum_{w=0}^{w=25} w f(w)$$

$$E = \int P(w)d\tau = \int 0.5 \rho A w^{3} c_{p}(w) d\tau = \tau_{tot} \int 0.5 \rho A w^{3} c_{p}(w) f(w) dw$$

700

500

400

300

200

100

Power output (kW)

$$E = 8760 \sum_{w=0}^{w=25} P(w) f(w) = 8760 \sum_{w=0}^{w=25} Ac_p(w) \ 0.5 \rho \ w^3 f(w)$$
 [kWh]

P(w) = Power

f(w) = probability density, e.g. Weibull function



Feasibility analysis

	5()
W	P(w)
[m/s]	[kW]
0	0
1	0
3	0
3	0
4	26
5	67
6 7	125
7	203
8	304
9	425
10	554
11	671
12	759
13	811
14	836
15	846
16	849
17	850
18	850
19	850
20	850
21	850
22	850
23	850
24	850
25	850

_		FE
Beta	1.5	
eta	7	+6/)
f(w)	P*f	w*f(w)
0.00000	0	0
0.07674	0	0.076735
0.09832	0	0.196636
0.10596	0	0.317891
0.10517	2.734324	0.420665
0.09903	6.634809	0.495135
0.08972	11.21479	0.53831
0.07883	16.00276	0.551819
0.06751	20.52375	0.540099
0.05655	24.03325	0.508939
0.04644	25.7282	0.464408
0.03747	25.13916	0.412117
0.02973	22.56789	0.356805
0.02324	18.84945	0.302149
0.01791	14.97422	0.250764
0.01362	11.52274	0.204304
0.01023	8.682229	0.163623
0.00759	6.448114	0.128962
0.00556	4.728287	0.100128
0.00403	3.428921	0.076646
0.00289	2.460217	0.057887
0.00206	1.747079	0.043163
0.00145	1.228344	0.031792
0.00101	0.85532	0.023144
0.00069	0.590009	0.016659
0.00047	0.403293	0.011862
SUM	230.4971	w media
		6 290644

$$\overline{w} = \int w f(w) dw = \sum_{w=0}^{w=25} w f(w)$$

$$E = 8760 \sum_{w=0}^{w=25} P(w) f(w) =$$

$$8760\sum_{w=0}^{w=25} Ac_p(w) \ 0.5\rho \ w^3 f(w)$$

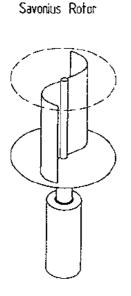
$$f(w) = \left(\frac{\beta}{\eta}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{w}{\eta}\right)^{\beta - 1} \cdot e^{-\left(\frac{w}{\eta}\right)^{\beta}}$$

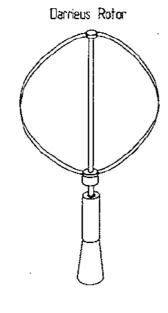
Excel spreadsheet for calculating energy yields of a Vestas V52 turbine

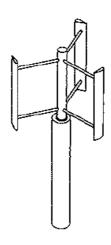
E [GWh/anno] 2019.155 [kWh/kW] 2375.476

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Wind Turbine types





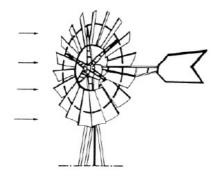


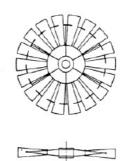
H-Rotor



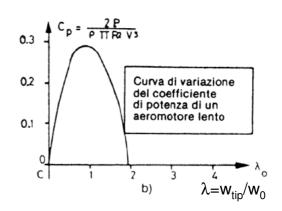
Vertical axis

Wind Turbine types



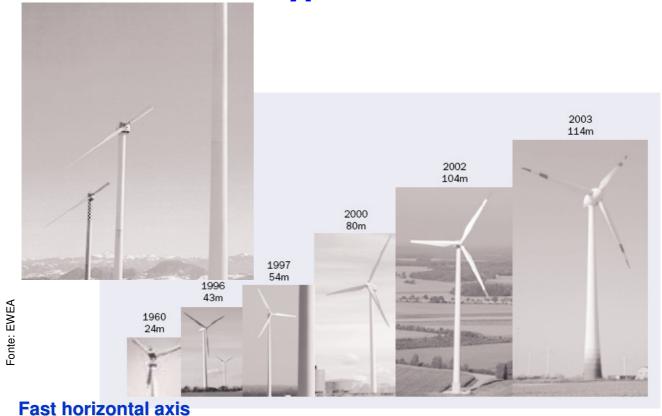


Horizontal axis, slow turbines

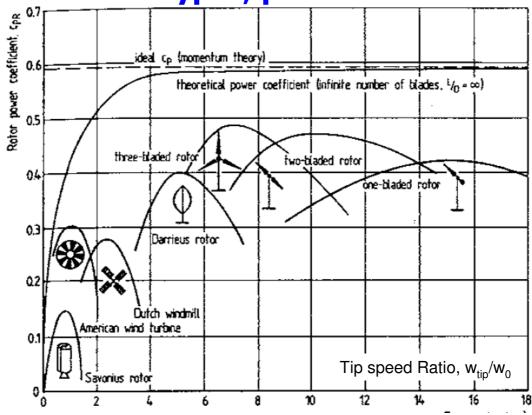


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Wind Turbine types

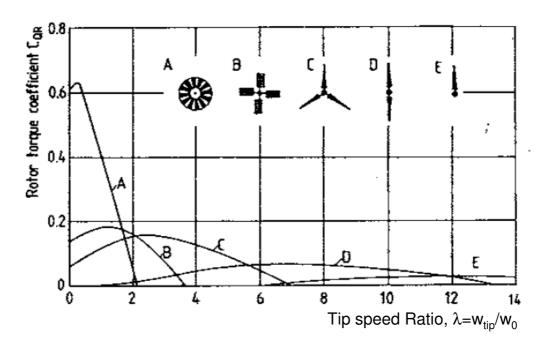


Wind Turbine types, power coefficient



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Wind Turbine types, Torque coefficient



 $C_m = M(w) / (0.5 \rho A Rw^2) = Cp/\lambda (Torque Coefficient_1)$

Fast horizontal axis turbines



Fast horizontal axis turbines





Fast horizontal axis turbines





Fonte: windpower.org

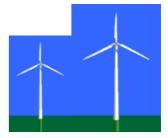
HUBS Tubular,

Trellis frame type

Hybris

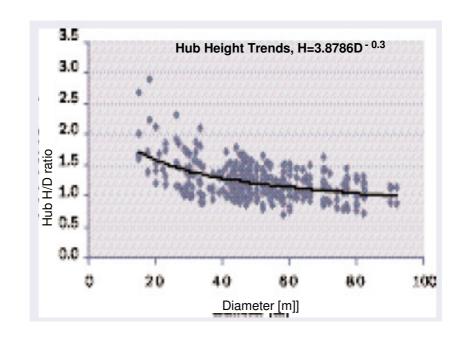


Price of hub is about 20% of the whole systems



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Hub dimensions



Fast horizontal axis turbines

Turbines have controls for changing the blade pitch and rotating the whole nacelle for facing the wind (Yaw control)

Pitch control is also used for regulating the power



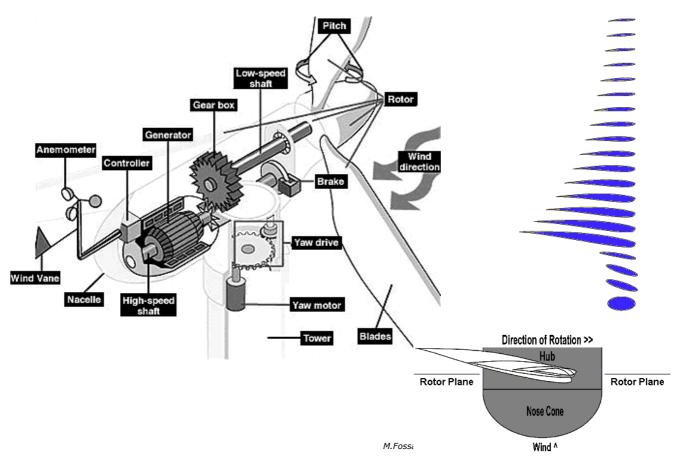


Yaw control

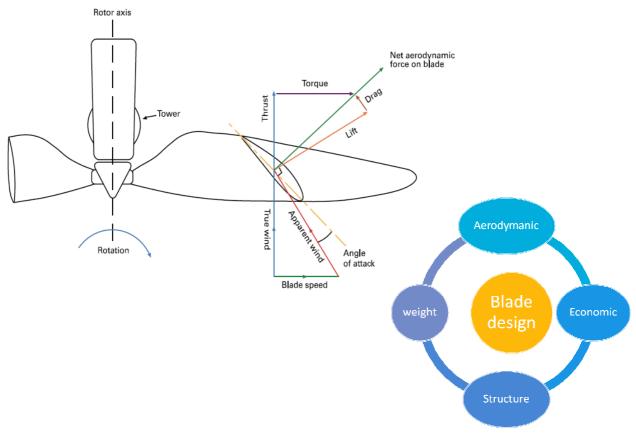
Fonte: windpower.org

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Fast horizontal axis turbines

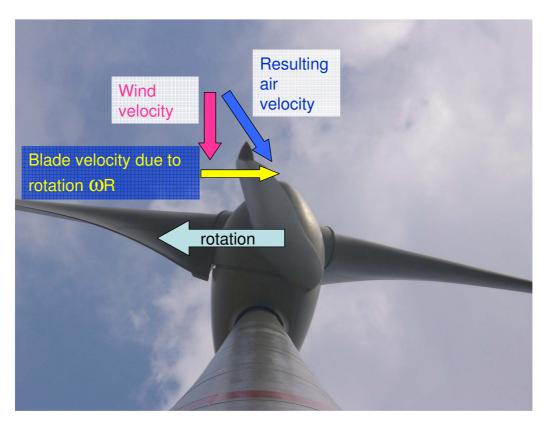


Aerodinamica delle pale, cenni (I)

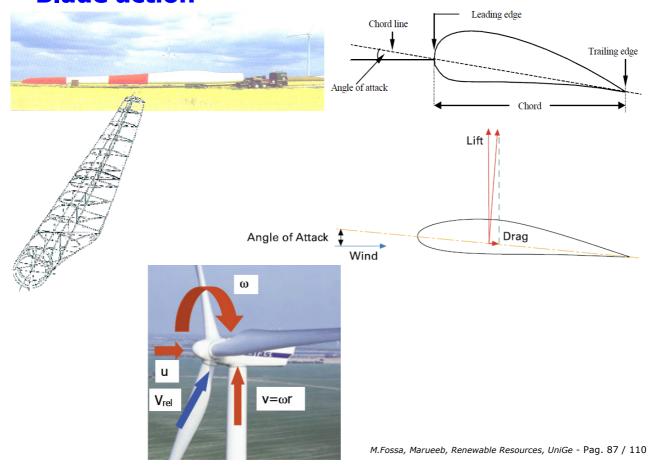


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Blade action



Blade action

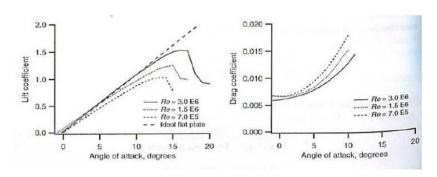


Blade action

• Lift and drag coefficients

$$c_l = \frac{Lift}{(1/2)\rho U_{eff}^2} \quad c_d = \frac{Drag}{(1/2)\rho U_{eff}^2}$$

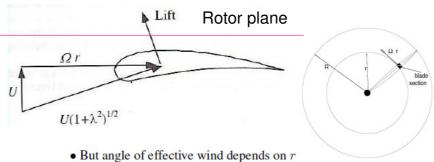
- c_l, c_d depend on α
- \bullet c_l, c_d determined experimentally or computationally



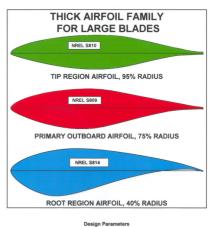
- \bullet c_l, c_d also depend on viscous forces; "Reynolds number effects"
- Note fall-off in lift at large α , called "stall"

Blade action

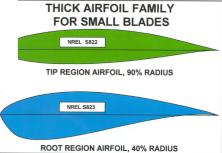
- Each blade section sees an "effective wind"
- Eff. wind is a vector sum of real wind U & "wind of rotation" Ωr
 - $\left(\lambda \equiv \frac{\Omega r}{U}\right)$ - Lift force is perpedicular to eff. wind



- ullet Blade section works best at about 10 deg. "angle-of-attack" lpha
- \bullet Because wind direction changes with r, blade must be twisted



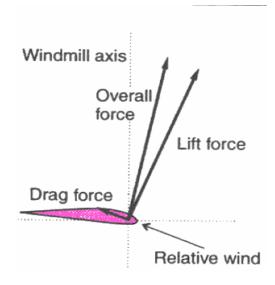
Airfoil	r/R	Re. No. (x10 ⁶)	t/c	C _{Imax}	C _{dmin}	C _{mo}
S810	0.95	2.0	0.180	0.90	0.006	-0.05
S809	0.75	2.0	0.210	1.00	0.007	-0.05
S814	0.40	1.5	0.240	1.30	0.012	-0.15
S815	0.30	1.2	0.260	1.10	0.014	-0.15

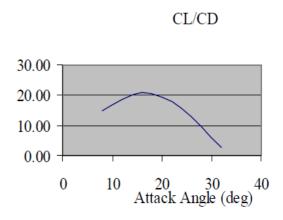


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Design r didileters									
Airfoil	r/R	Re. No. (x10 ⁶)	t/c	C _{Imax}	C _{dmin}	C _{mo}			
S822	0.90	0.6	0.160	1.00	0.010	-0.07			
S823	0.40	0.4	0.240	1.30	0.018	-0.15			

Blade action

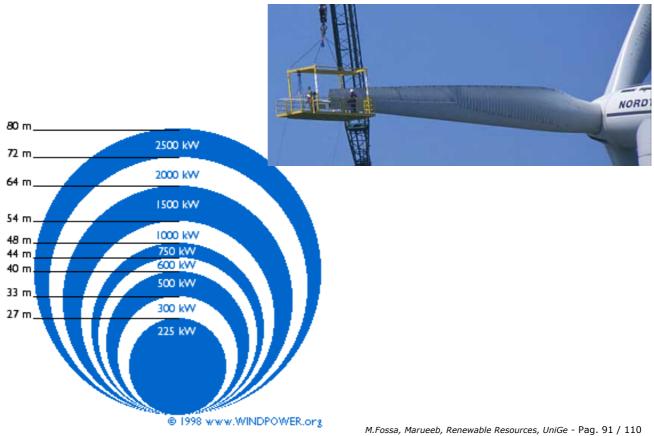




 C_L/C_D = "glide" ratio The lift coefficient drops beyond a certain attack angle.

This generally represents the limit of effective use of an aerofoil. On the other hand turbines can use this effect to regulate its operations

Turbine dimensions and costs



Till 0550, Till 0665, Renewable Resources, Office Tag. 51 / 110

Turbine dimensions and performance

Utility-Scale Wind Turbines--Performance Comparison

		Power Output (kW)					Power Output/Rotor Swept Area (W/m²)				
Turbine Manufacturer/Model	Rotor Swept Area	Wind Spe	ed (meters	/second)			Wind Speed (meters/second)				
(Rotor Diameter/Rated Power)	(m ²)	11.6	14	15	16	17	11.6	14	15	16	17
NEG Micon/Unipower 64 NM 1500C/64 (64 meters/1500 kW)	3217	1,168	1,490	1,542	1,562	1,564	363	463	479	486	486
Vestas/V66 (66 meters/1650 kW)	3421	1161	1,549	1,616	1,641	1,650	339	453	472	480	482
NEG Micon/Multi-power 48 NM 750/48 (48.2 meters/750 kW)	1824	610	730	746	750	745	334	400	409	411	408
Vestas/V47 (47 meters/660 kW)	1735	569	651	660	660	660	328	375	380	380	380
Zond/Z-48 (48 meters/750 kW)	1810	750	750	750	750	750	414	414	414	414	414

m² = Square meters

W/m² = Watts per square meter

Sources: NEG Micon, Vestas, and Zond wind turbine specification sheets for design information (rotor diameter, swept area, and rated power output). Power output at different wind speeds from manufacturer contacts, 1999.

Turbine dimensions and performance

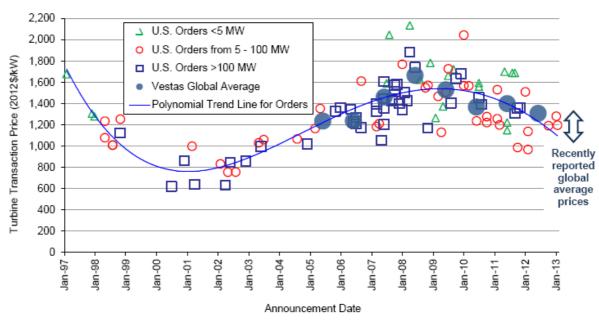
model	capacity	blade length*	hub ht†	total ht	area swept by blades	rpm range	max blade tip speed‡	rated wind speed§
GE 1.5s	1.5 MW	35.25 m (116 ft)	64.7 m (212 ft)	99.95 m (328 ft)	3,904 m ² (0.96 acre)	11.1-22.2	183 mph	12 m/s (27 mph)
GE 1.5sle	1.5 MW	38.5 m (126 ft)	80 m (262 ft)	118.5 m (389 ft)	4,657 m ² (1.15 acre)	?	?	14 m/s (31 mph)
Vestas V82	1.65 MW	41 m (135 ft)	70 m (230 ft)	111 m (364 ft)	5,281 m ² (1.30 acres)	?-14.4	138 mph	13 m/s (29 mph)
Vestas V90	1.8 MW	45 m (148 ft)	80 m (262 ft)	125 m (410 ft)	6,362 m ² (1.57 acres)	8.8-14.9	157 mph	11 m/s (25 mph)
			105 m (344 ft)	150 m (492 ft)				
Vestas V100	2.75 MW	50 m (164 ft)	80 m (262 ft)	130 m (427 ft)	7,854 m ² (1.94 acres)	7.2-15.3	179 mph	15 m/s (34 mph)
			100 m (328 ft)	150 m (492 ft)				
Vestas V90	3.0 MW	45 m (148 ft)	80 m (262 ft)	125 m (410 ft)	6,362 m ² (1.57 acres)	9-19	200 mph	15 m/s (34 mph)
Vestas V112	3.0 MW	56 m (184 ft)	84 m (276 ft)	136 m (459 ft)	9,852 m ² (2.43 acres)	6.2-17.7	232 mph	12 m/s (27 mph)
Gamesa G87	2.0 MW	43.5 m (143 ft)	78 m (256 ft)	121.5 m (399 ft)	5,945 m ² (1.47 acres)	9/19	194 mph	c. 13.5 m/s (30 mph)
Siemens	2.3 MW	46.5 m (153 ft)	80 m (262 ft)	126.5 m (415 ft)	6,793 m ² (1.68 acres)	6-16	169 mph	13-14 m/s (29-31 mph)

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Turbine dimensions and performance

model	capacity	blade length*	hub ht†	total ht	area swept by blades	rpm range	max blade tip speed‡	rated wind speed§
Bonus (Siemens)	1.3 MW	31 m (102 ft)	68 m (223 ft)	99 m (325 ft)	3,019 m ² (0.75 acres)	13/19	138 mph	14 m/s (31 mph)
Bonus (Siemens)	2.0 MW	38 m (125 ft)	60 m (197 ft)	98 m (322 ft)	4,536 m ² (1.12 acres)	11/17	151 mph	c. 15 m/s (c. 34 mph)
Bonus (Siemens)	2.3 MW	41.2 m (135 ft)	80 m (262 ft)	121.2 m (398 ft)	5,333 m ² (1.32 acres)	11/17	164 mph	c. 15 m/s (c. 34 mph)
Suzlon 950	0.95 MW	32 m (105 ft)	65 m (213 ft)	97 m (318 ft)	3,217 m ² (0.79 acres)	13.9/20.8	156 mph	11 m/s (25 mph)
Suzlon S64	1.25 MW	32 m (105 ft)	73 m (240 ft)	105 m (344 ft)	3,217 m ² (0.79 acres)	13.9/20.8	156 mph	12 m/s (27 mph)
Suzlon S88	2.1 MW	44 m (144 ft)	80 m (262 ft)	124 m (407 ft)	6,082 m ² (1.50 acres)			14 m/s (31 mph)
Repower MM92	2.0 MW	46.25 m (152 ft)	100 m (328 ft)	146.25 m (480 ft)	6,720 m ² (1.66 acres)	7.8-15.0	163 mph	11.2 m/s (25 mph)
Clipper Liberty	2.5 MW (4 × 650 KW)	44.5 m (146 ft)	80 m (262 ft)	124.5 m (409 ft)	6,221 m ² (1.54 acres)	9.7-15.5	163 mph	c. 11.5 m/s (c. 26 mph)
		46.5 m (153 ft)		126.5 m (415 ft)	6,793 m ² (1.68 acres)		169 mph	
		49.5 m (162 ft)	78 m (256 ft)	127.5 m (418 ft)	7,698 m ² (1.90 acres)		180 mph	
Mitsubishi MWT95	2.4 MW	47.5 m (156 ft)	80 m (262 ft)	127.5 m (418 ft)	7,088 m ² (1.75 acres)	9.0-16.9	188 mph	12.5 m/s (28 mph)

Turbine costs in the US



Source: Berkeley Lab

Turbine costs, till 2013, United States, referred to nominal power

Notice: fluctuations also related to \$/€ currency ratio...

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Whole plant costs in the US

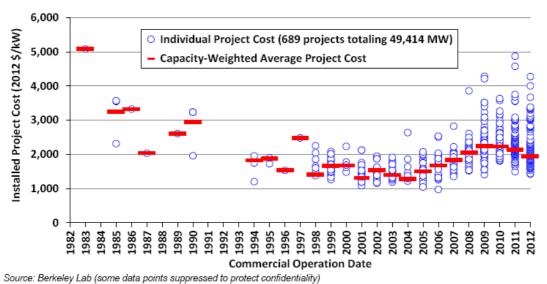


Figure 20. Installed Wind Power Project Costs over Time

Whole Plant costs, till 2013, USA

Notice: fluctuations also related to \$/€ currency ratio...

Electric generation

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Electric generators

Alternators are employed for large power turbines.

They work at constant rotational speed and the turbines cannot adjust its speed for maintaining the optimum Tip Speed Ratio

Different solutions can be adopted for variable speed turbines, including:

Indirect connections (AC to DC to AC systems)

Alternators with modulated excitation current

Electric generators



Indirect connection systems

The generator may be either a synchronous generator or an asynchronous generator.

AC current with a variable frequency is rectified i.e. converted into DC and finally modulated to AC at the right grid frequency by thyristors and transistor devices.

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Doubly-Fed Induction Generators (DFIG)

Doubly-fed electric machines are basically electric machines that are fed ac currents into both the stator and the rotor windings.

They are currently widely employed in large wind turbines, since they allow the rotational speed to be varied in a wide range of values (60% of nominal rotational speed)

In a conventional three-phase synchronous generator, magnetic field of the rotor is static, since created by the dc current fed into the rotor winding.

Thus this magnetic field rotates at the same speed as the rotor (n_{rotor} in rpm) does. As a result, continually changing magnetic flux passes through the stator windings as the rotor magnetic field rotates, inducing an alternating voltage across the stator

$$f_{Stator} = \frac{n_{Rotor} \times N_{Poles}}{120}$$

when the speed n_{rotor} of the generator rotor is equal to the generator synchronous speed n_{sync} , the frequency f_{stator} of the ac voltages induced across the stator windings of the generator is equal to the frequency of the ac power network $f_{network}$.

Doubly-Fed Induction Generators (DFIG) II

Doubly-fed electric machines are basically electric machines that are fed ac currents into both the stator and the rotor windings.

The same operating principles apply in a doubly-fed induction generator as in a conventional (singly-fed) induction generator. The only difference is that the magnetic field created in the rotor is not static (as it is created using three-phase ac current instead of dc current), but rather rotates at a speed proportional $n_{rotor,ac}$ to the frequency of the ac currents (at frequency f_{rotor}) fed into the generator rotor windings.

$$f_{Stator} = \frac{n_{Rotor} \times N_{Poles}}{120} + f_{Rotor}$$

If the generator rotor rotates at the nominal (singly-fed) synchronous speed, the frequency of the ac currents that need to be fed into the generator rotor windings will be equal to 0 Hz (i.e., dc current). The machine would thus operate as a conventional (singly-fed) three-phase synchronous machine.

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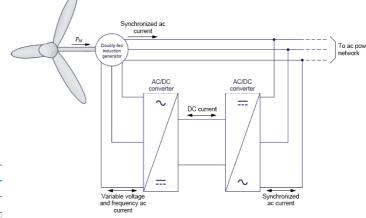
Doubly-Fed Induction Generators (DFIG) III

When the generator rotor speed decreases below the nominal synchronous speed, the frequency of the ac currents that need to be fed into the generator windings increases accordingly and is of positive polarity. The positive polarity of the frequency indicates that the phase sequence of the three-phase ac currents fed into the rotor windings must make the rotor magnetic field rotate in the same direction as the generator rotor

to maintain the voltage produced at the stator equal to the ac power network voltage, a specific magnetic flux value must be maintained in the machine (more precisely at the stator windings). This can be achieved by applying a voltage to the generator rotor windings that is proportional to the frequency of the voltages applied to the rotor windings (this maintains ins the V/f ratio constant and ensures a constant magnetic flux value in the machine). The value of the V/f ratio is generally set so that the reactive power at the stator is equal to zero. This is similar to the common practice used with conventional (singly-fed) synchronous generators where the exciter current (dc current in the rotor) is adjusted so as to zero the reactive power at the stator

Lab Volt Canada. www.labvolt.com)

Doubly-Fed Induction Generators (DFIG) IV



(b) Doubly-fed induction generator

2,200
1,800
1,600
1,400
1,200
800
600
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30

DFIG con inverter. Rispetto ai sistemi asincroni con inverter, l'elettronica deve gestire minore potenza

ELECTRICAL

Frequency 50/60 Hz

Generator type 4-pole (50 Hz)/6-pole (60 Hz)

doubly fed generator, slip rings

VESTAS V90 2MW D=110m Nominal revolutions: 16.1 rpm Operational interval: 8.6 - 18.4 rpm

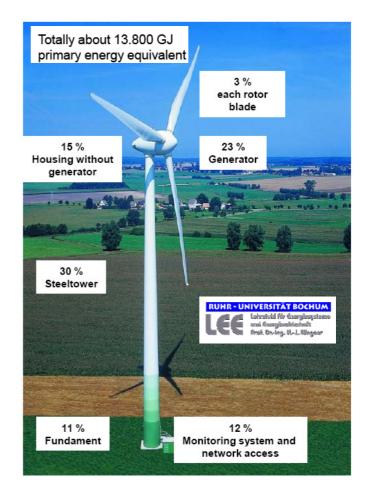
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LCA of a wind turbine

Enercon 1.5MW Good wind site = 3000MWh/MW

E=3000*1.5=4500MWh/yr=16200 GJ/yr

Energy payback = 1 year (and even less)



Thanks for your attention



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