

# Harnessing High-Altitude Wind Power

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**Abstract**—Flying electric generators (FEGs) are proposed to harness kinetic energy in the powerful, persistent high-altitude winds. Average power density can be as high as  $20 \text{ kW/m}^2$  in an approximately 1000-km-wide band around latitude  $30^\circ$  in both the hemispheres of the Earth. At 15 000 ft (4600 m) and above, tethered rotorcraft, with four or more rotors mounted on each unit, could give individual rated outputs of up to 40 MW. These aircrafts would be highly controllable and could be flown in arrays, making them a large-scale source of reliable wind power. The aerodynamics, electrics, and control of these craft are described in detail, along with a description of the tether mechanics. A 240 kW craft has been designed to demonstrate the concept at altitude. It is anticipated that large-scale units would make low-cost electricity available for grid supply, for hydrogen production, or for hydro-storage from large-scale generating facilities.

**Index Terms**—Atmospheric measurements, energy conversion, power conversion, terrestrial atmosphere, wind energy, wind power generation.

## NOMENCLATURE

$\alpha_c$	Rotor's control axis angle.
$\beta$	Angle of cable to the horizontal.
$T, H, P$	Thrust, H-force, and power output of a single rotor.
$C_p, \mu$	Power coefficient and tip speed ratio, component of the wind normal to the rotor's control axis divided by the speed of the rotor blade's tip.
$R, \Omega$	Tip radius and angular velocity of rotors.
$V, \rho$	Velocity and air density of the free stream.
$M, g$	Craft mass and acceleration due to gravity.
$X, Y, Z$	Wire fixed, orthogonal set of axes also forces in these directions. Alternatively, wind axes are used.
$x, y, z$	Displacements in $X$ -, $Y$ -, $Z$ -directions.
$\phi, \theta, \psi$	Angular displacements about $X$ -, $Y$ -, $Z$ -axes.
$\theta_o$	Rotor's collective pitch angle.
$L_c$	Tether length from ground to craft.
$a_1$	Rotor's fore and aft flapping angle.

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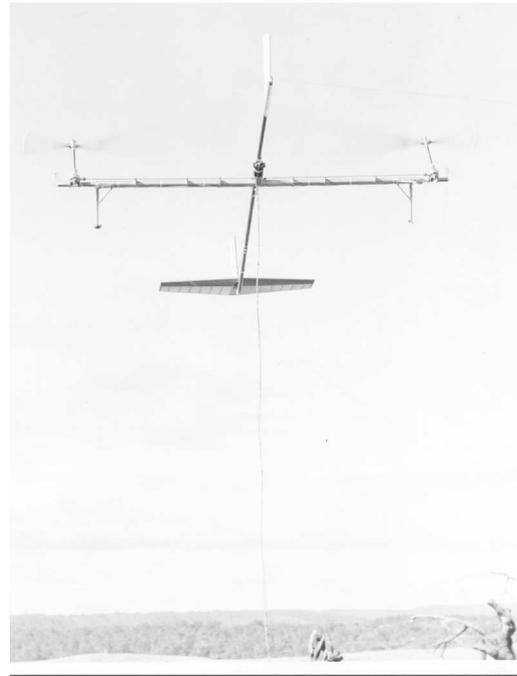


Fig. 1. Photograph of early two-rotor prototype in flight.

## I. INTRODUCTION

**T**WO major jet streams, the Sub-Tropical Jet and the Polar Front Jet exist in both the hemispheres of the Earth. These enormous energy streams are formed by the combination of falling of the tropical region's sunlight and Earth's rotation. This wind resource is invariably available wherever the sun shines and the Earth rotates. These jet stream winds offer an energy benefit between one and two orders of magnitude greater than equal-rotor-area, ground-mounted wind turbines operating in the lowest regions of the Earth's boundary layer. In the United States, Caldeira [1] and O'Doherty and Roberts [2] have shown that average power densities of around  $17 \text{ kW/m}^2$  are available. In Australia, Atkinson *et al.* [3] show that  $19 \text{ kW/m}^2$  is achievable. These winds are available in northern India, China, Japan, Africa, the Mediterranean, and elsewhere.

Various systems have been examined to capture this energy, and these include tethered balloons, tethered fixed-winged craft, tether climbing and descending kites, and rotorcraft.

Our preferred option is a tethered rotorcraft, a variant of the gyroplane, where conventional rotors generate power and simultaneously produce sufficient lift to keep the system aloft. This arrangement, using a twin-rotor configuration, has been described and flown at low altitude by Roberts and Blackler [4] (Fig. 1). More recent developments have produced a quadruple

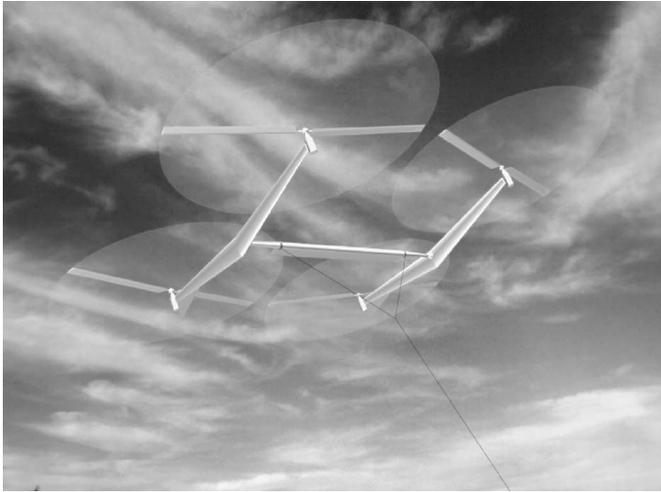


Fig. 2. Rendering of Sky WindPower Corporation's planned 240 kW, four-rotor demonstration craft.

rotor arrangement [5] (Fig. 2). Commercialization of the quad-rotor technology could significantly contribute to greenhouse gas reductions.

Tethered rotorcraft, with four or more rotors in each unit, could harness the powerful, persistent jet streams, and should be able to compete effectively with all other energy-production methods. Generators at altitude also avoid community concern associated with ground-based wind turbine appearance and noise. Bird strike problems are also less. However, tethered generators would need to be placed in dedicated airspace, which would restrict other aircraft. Arrays of tethered generators would not be flown near population centers unless and until operating experience assured the safety of such a configuration.

At this time, the best tether for the rotorcraft appears to be a single, composite electromechanical cable made of insulated aluminum conductors and high-strength fiber. When operating as a power source, two, four, or more rotors are inclined at an adjustable angle to the oncoming wind, generally a  $40^\circ$  angle. The wind on the inclined rotors generates lift, gyroplane style, and forces rotation, which generates electricity, windmill style. Electricity is conducted down the tether to a ground station.

The craft simultaneously generates lift and electricity. However, it can also function as an elementary powered helicopter with ground-supplied electrical energy, and with the generators, then, functioning as motors. The craft can, thus, ascend or descend from altitude as an elementary, tethered helicopter. During any lull periods aloft, power may be supplied to maintain altitude, or to land on a small ground base. A ground winch to reel the tether could be used to retrieve the craft in an emergency.

## II. UPPER ATMOSPHERIC WINDS IN THE UNITED STATES AND ELSEWHERE

Based on the ERA-15 reanalysis of the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts, we calculated the seasonal-mean, climate-zone wind power density from December 1978 to February 1994 [6]. Computed power densities in high-altitude winds exceed a  $10 \text{ kW/m}^2$  seasonal average at the jet stream's

typical latitudes and altitudes. This is the highest power density for a large renewable energy resource anywhere on Earth. It exceeds the power densities of sunlight, near surface winds, ocean currents, hydropower, tides, geothermal, and other large-scale renewable resources [7]. For comparison, Earth surface solar energy is, typically, about  $0.24 \text{ kW/m}^2$  [8], and photovoltaic cell conversion of energy into electricity has an efficiency several times less than that of wind power [7].

High power densities would be uninteresting if only a small amount of total power were available. However, wind power is roughly 100 times the power used by all human civilization. Total power dissipated in winds is about  $10^{15} \text{ W}$  [8]. Total human thermal power consumption is about  $10^{13} \text{ W}$  [9]. Removing 1% of high-altitude winds' available energy is not expected to have adverse environmental consequences.

High-altitude winds are a very attractive potential source of power, because this vast energy is high density and persistent. Furthermore, high-altitude winds are, typically, just a few kilometers away from energy users. No other energy source combines potential resource size, density, and proximity so attractively.

## III. DESCRIPTION OF THE PREFERRED ENERGY CONVERSION SYSTEM

The currently proposed new tethered craft consists of four identical rotors mounted in an airframe that flies in the powerful and persistent winds. The tether's insulated aluminum conductors bring power to ground, and are wound with strong Kevlar-family cords. The conductor weight is a critical compromise between power loss and heat generation. We propose employing aluminum conductors with tether transmission voltages of 15 kV and higher, because they are lightweight for the energy transmitted. To minimize total per kilowatt-hour system cost and reduce tether costs, the design allows higher per meter losses and higher conductor heating than does traditional utility power transmission. Depending on flight altitude, electrical losses between the tether and the converted power's insertion into the commercial grid are expected to be as much as 20%, and are included in energy cost estimates described in Section IX.

The flying electric generators (FEGs) envisioned for commercial power production have a rated capacity in the range of 3–30 MW. Generators arrays are contemplated for wind farms in airspace restricted from commercial and private aircraft use. To supply all U.S. energy needs, airspace for power generation is calculated to restrict far less airspace than is already restricted from civil aviation for other purposes. While similar in concept to current wind farms, in most cases, flying generator arrays may be located much closer to demand load centers.

When operating as an electrical power source, four or more rotors are inclined at an adjustable, controllable angle to the oncoming wind. In general, the rotors have their open faces at an angle of up to  $50^\circ$  to this wind. This disk incidence is reduced in various wind conditions to hold the power output at the rated value without exceeding the design tether load. Rotorcraft can also function as an elementary powered helicopter as described in Section II.

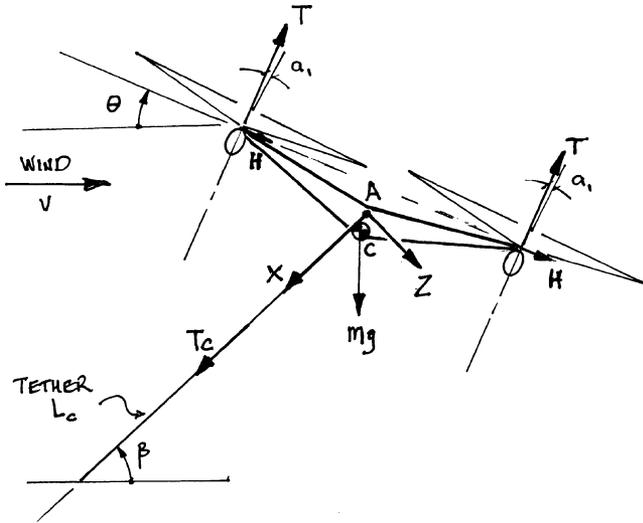


Fig. 3. Diagram of the FEG in flight, showing the craft's nose-up angle  $\theta$ , which is identical to the control axis angle  $\alpha_c$ , as no cyclic pitch use is planned. The rotor's fore and aft flapping angle  $\alpha_1$  is shown as the angle between the normal to the tip-path plane and the control axis. The total rotor thrust component along the control axis is  $T$ , and normal to this axis is the component force  $H$ . If  $T$  and  $H$  forces are combined vectorally, the total rotor force is almost normal to the tip-path plane.

Our capacity, or generating factor calculations, account for wind lulls or storms during which the generators must be landed. However, the projected capacity for FEGs is far higher than for the best ground-based wind turbine sites because of the persistent winds at high altitudes.

High-altitude wind speeds and other conditions are measured at 12 A.M. and 12 P.M. at major airports worldwide by radiosonde weather balloons, and are reported on the Web sites of National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) and other government agencies. It is, thus, possible to calculate what the past capacity of flying generators at those locations would have been. Sky WindPower Corporation's detailed calculations for many worldwide sites from October 2000 to September 2001 may be accessed at skywindpower.com.

The U.S. average capacity factor would have been about 80% for craft flying at 10 000 m. At Detroit's latitude, the capacity factor was calculated at 90%, at San Diego, it was 71%. This compares to capacity factors of about 35% for ground-based wind turbines operating at the best sites.

Figs. 2 and 3 show the four-rotor assembly with four identical rotors arranged, two forward and two aft. The plan-form of the rotor centerlines is approximately square. Adjacent rotors rotate in opposite directions; diagonally opposite rotors rotate in the same direction.

In this particular four-rotor assembly, craft attitude in pitch, roll, and yaw can be controlled by collective rotor pitch change. No cyclic pitch control is needed to modify the blades' pitch as they rotate, as is needed in helicopter technology. This should help reduce maintenance costs. Rotor collective pitch variation then varies the thrust developed by each rotor in the format described as follows using global positioning system (GPS)/Gyro supplied error signal data.

- 1) Total craft thrust (and total power output) is controlled by simultaneously equal, collective pitch action on all rotors.
- 2) Roll control is by differential, but equal, collective pitch action between the port and starboard pair of rotors.
- 3) Pitch control is by differential, but equal, collective pitch action between the fore and aft pair of rotors.
- 4) Yaw control, via differential torque reaction, is by differential, but equal, collective pitch changes on pairs of opposing rotors.

Ground-based wind turbines experience surface feature turbulence not present at high altitude. In addition, turbulence reaction is different for a FEG. Ground-based turbines are, more or less, rigidly mounted on support towers. Even when flexible units and procedures are used, direct and gust-induced moment loads are significant for these ground-based facilities. Considerable European and U.S. research and development has been directed toward relieving load excursions from near-surface wind gusts.

FEGs have a great, inherent advantage over equivalent ground-based facilities in their ability to reduce gust loads. This is due to tether cable flexibility, both as built-in elasticity and as changeable shape (drape) under gust conditions. This flexibility very significantly alleviates gust loads and torques applied to the rotors, gearboxes, etc. This means that gust loads in flying units are reduced by more than an order of magnitude compared to ground-based turbine gust loads. Sky WindPower Corporation has developed programs that demonstrate this gust alleviation process. Section V details the flight performance of these flying generators.

#### IV. FLYING GENERATORS AERODYNAMIC PERFORMANCE

The flying generator's side view in Fig. 3 is for a typical flight configuration in a wind of velocity  $V$ . A single tether of length  $L_c$  is attached to the craft at a point A on the craft's plane of symmetry. The aircraft's center of mass is at C. The tether is assumed, herein for simplicity, to be massless and nonextendible.

For low-altitude flight, around 1500 ft ( $< 500$  m), the assumption of a straight, massless tether is reasonable. However, for higher altitudes, the analysis has been extended to include tether mass and tether air-loads. Roberts and Blackler [4], and Roberts and Shepard [5] have shown that higher altitudes are achievable using an aluminium-Kevlar composite [4] or an aluminum-spectra composite [5] for the electromechanical tethering cable.

A number of detailed equilibrium studies have been completed, such as those by Roberts [10], Ho [11], and Jabbarzadeh [12]. These were all based on the classic rotor theory of Gessow and Crim [13] applicable to rotors operating at high disk incidences with high in-flow conditions.

Fig. 4 shows the power output coefficient  $C_p$  for each rotor where

$$C_p = \frac{P}{\pi R^2 \times (1/2) \rho V^3}. \quad (1)$$

The power output is plotted against the control axis angle  $\alpha_c$  for values of constant tip speed ratio  $\mu$ .

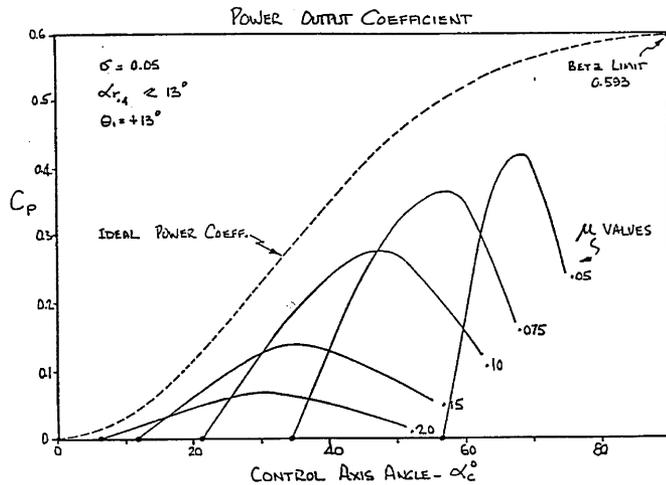


Fig. 4. Power coefficient  $C_p$  plotted as a function of the control axis angle  $\alpha_c$ , which is equal to the craft's nose-up angle  $\theta$ , as no cyclic pitch use is planned and is used in the strict rotorcraft sense. The power coefficient  $C_p$  is the actual shaft power divided by the power contained in the oncoming wind stream with an area equal to the swept area of the rotor. The tip speed ratio  $\mu$  is the component of the wind normal to the rotor's control axis divided by the speed of the rotor blade's tip.

By reference to Fig. 3, it can be seen that

$$\alpha_c = \theta \quad (2)$$

and

$$\mu = \frac{V \cos \alpha_c}{\Omega R}. \quad (3)$$

The dotted curve represents the maximum power output under conditions of zero profile drag on the rotor blades. Hence, it follows that when  $\alpha_c = 90$ , the value of  $C_p$  will equal the Betz limit of 0.593. Using the methods of Gessow and Crim [13], the practical values of  $C_p$  have been calculated for a rotor solidity of 0.05. For a fixed value of  $\mu$ , the power coefficients adopt an inverted U-shaped curve. On each of these curves, the power coefficient can be zero. These are the autorotation conditions where no power is being developed or supplied to the rotors. The favored autorotation condition, to be discussed later, is the left-hand side zero crossing of each inverted U-shaped curve. In these conditions, the craft is self-sustaining in the prevailing wind speed  $V$  and rotor speed  $\Omega$ .

Fig. 4 shows that the preferred generating conditions are at a power coefficient of around 0.4 with a control axis of about  $50^\circ$  at a tip speed ratio of 0.075. The tip speed ratio, in the current context, is defined by (3). Now, the best autorotation condition will be discussed.

The autorotation conditions physically relate to conditions when wind speed is insufficient to support the craft and its tether, and the system is on the point of collapse. The left-hand side cutting of the inverted U-shaped curves, with the ordinate axis, in Fig. 4 implies that all the wind's kinetic energy is being used to generate lift and that no power is being developed. The left-hand cutting with the ordinate is preferred because, in this condition, it favors the tether cable more than does the companion right-

hand crossing of the ordinate. This implies that the craft's lesser nose-up attitude allows a more near-vertical application of force at the top of the tether.

The question now arises as to which of the left-hand crossings is most favorable for our purposes. Jabbarzadeh [12], and Roberts and Shepard [5] have found that the minimum wind speed to stay aloft occurs when the craft nose-up attitude is around  $24^\circ$  with a corresponding tip speed ratio of 0.10. These values will vary somewhat with different rotor and tether parameters, but it is important to realize that autorotation at a minimal wind speed is fundamental to the system's performance. A typical minimum wind speed for autorotation is around 10 m/s at an operating altitude of 15 000 ft (4600 m).

## V. ELECTRICAL SYSTEM DETAILS

FEGs need to ascend and remain aloft for short periods on grid-sourced energy. In low-wind conditions, only a small proportion of output rating as grid-sourced energy is required to raise or maintain the craft aloft. Voltages at the terminals of both the generator/motor and at the grid interface need to be kept within designed tolerances and/or be adjusted by timely voltage regulation.

In a national regulated electricity market, such as that found in Europe and elsewhere, a system impact study (SIS) is required to connect a new generator to the grid [14] if the generator's capacity is above a minimum level, e.g., 5 MW. Even nondispatchable "embedded generators" require grid system impact assessments. The generator proponent usually pays for the generator-to-grid network connection. Land and sea locations for generation from renewable energy sources, especially wind energy, are often remote from the existing grid; hence, connection costs are often 50% of the total investment for new generating capacity. Also, where a renewable energy source generator is not n-1 reliable for availability, the network connection contracts usually include the costs of backup supply contingencies. These relate to network charges when the renewable generator is not supplying.

FEGs at altitude will have a relatively high availability, around 80%. Reliability and peak premium sales could be enhanced by a link to a pumped storage facility for off-peak filling/storage and peak-release energy sales and delivery. Energy could be stored as hydrogen gas produced from electrolysis, or as water pumped-back and re-released for hydroelectric generation.

Conventional ground-based wind energy systems harvest only about 30% availability. FEGs, in single units of 20 MW or more, can achieve about 80% availability with suitable siting at land or sea locations. These generators at altitude involve power transmission over lengths of between 4 and 8 km. Flying generator/tether voltages between 11 and 25 kV ac could be used on units of 30 MW at the most extreme altitudes. Also, there are recent modern innovations, which use Powerformers/Motorformers [15], [16]. The latter, being developed by equipment suppliers such as ABB, Siemens, Mitsubishi, etc. would allow polymeric cable stators and tether voltages at say 33 kV ac or more. Grid interfacing would, then, be easier at bulk energy levels.

The jet-stream location can drift north and south, so seasonal mobility from one prepared site to another could be a feature of flying generators' grid utilization and optimization. This could be advantageous in seasonal summer/winter demand-side management through peak-matching generator placement or relocations. This would include matching seasonal peaks for rural industries, such as grape processing, cotton harvesting, and irrigation to urban air conditioning, etc.

Because arrays of flying generators could move north or south to follow seasonal shifts in wind patterns or power demand, it could be advantageous to have "plug-in" flying generators at prearranged sites along an existing grid 33 kV, or more, overhead feeder with minimal interfacing. This would use, for example, an HV live line HV bypass cable, sometimes called temporary cable, with a mobile or transportable high-voltage generator switchyard circuit breaker/metering unit.

If the tether arrangement were to contain three conductors, two could form the single-phase circuit, while the third could be the ground wire and control cabling function. Three-phase balance is, then, achieved by adding other nearby generator outputs to form single-phase combinations for grid connection. Alternatively, if necessary, a transformer with on load tap changer (OLTC) could be used, similar to that used for monoplex or 50 kV ac duplex rail electric traction supply. This would be similar to a rail traction supply transformer of 50 MVA and 132 kV three-phase to 25 kV ac-positive and 25 kV ac-negative to center tap earth.

When using a shipboard site, fixed ocean site, or a site adjacent to a water-reservoir that is remote from the desired FEG ground-surface connection location, then the use of HVdc on tethers, with surface/submarine cabling, should be considered in combination with an HVdc voltage Motorformer/Powerformer design. In addition, a unit's dc motor/generator commutation by conventional brushes might be facilitated by more modern electronic switching or by triggered vacuum gaps (TVGs).

Where an ac interfacing transformer, or an HV ac/dc converter station (usually with an included transformer) is required for grid interfacing connectivity, the economics of scale would encourage more multiple-unit connections.

A 60–150 MW grid connection composed of three 20–50 MW airborne units with a Powerformer, or HVdc ac/dc connection, can perform as a synchronous condenser, thereby adding ac grid stability advantages in the SIS. This will depend on grid siting.

Starting and retrieval characteristics of flying units at specific grid connections could be an important SIS review item. A higher fault level at the connection site is desirable for a large motor startup. Generator and tether performance depend on a good lightning-storm-detection system. Surge protection schemes and hardening of the control systems are also under examination.

## VI. FLIGHT CONTROL USING GPS AND GYRO DATA

Very accurate control is needed to precisely maintain a desired position in the sky. GPS with gyroscopes is an ideal way to provide the reference data necessary to provide this control.

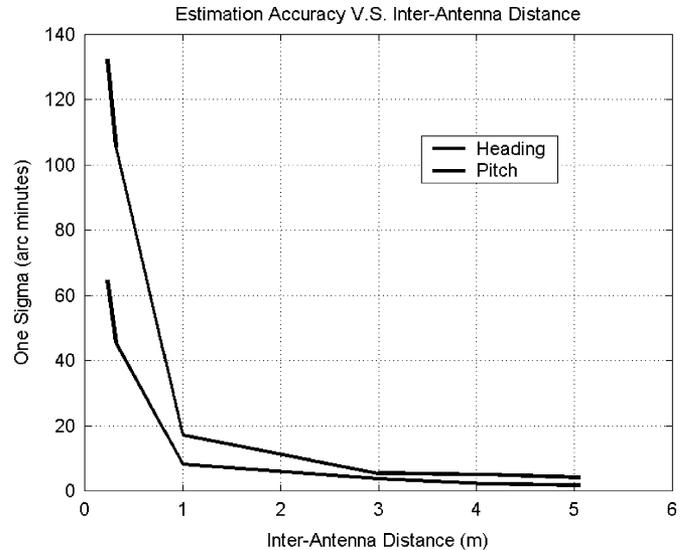


Fig. 5. Relationship between the achievable GPS-derived heading and pitch accuracy and antenna separation.

The GPS consists of a constellation of 24 satellites that provide a continuous navigation capability to users at any location on (or near) Earth in all weather conditions. With this system, currently operating with 29 satellites, real-time, three-dimensional position information with accuracies on the order of 5–10 m can be achieved [17].

Main error sources for the system include signal propagation effects through the atmosphere, satellite orbit and timing errors, and GPS receiver noise and signal reflection (multipath). When used in differential mode, where measurement corrections are computed at a GPS reference station sited on a known location, accuracies can be improved quite easily to within a few meters [differential GPS (DGPS)].

Although generally used for positioning and navigation, GPS can also be used for platform attitude determination and control. If three or more GPS receivers and antennas are mounted on a platform, such as a FEG, the GPS carrier phase data can be used to directly estimate the roll, pitch, and heading of the platform in real-time at a rate of 1–20 Hz [18].

The attitude parameter accuracy is primarily a function of the signal multipath, and antenna separation (wider spacing yields higher attitude accuracies, Fig. 5). For the FEG, multipath could occur through the reflection of the signals off the structure itself. However, when antennas are separated by over 5 m on the FEG, attitude accuracy should be better than  $0.25^\circ$  with multipath present, which is well within the required attitude control specifications.

Two other factors must be considered when using GPS for attitude determination and control on the FEG. One is the rigidity of the structure itself. Antennas with maximum separation increase the achievable accuracy, but function best with antennas located on a rigid frame. A second factor is system performance during significant FEG nose-up angles. These angles range from  $0^\circ$  when hovering up to  $45^\circ$  when generating. While hovering, some GPS satellites may be obscured since the FEG may block reception signals along the line-of-sight. Tests show that attitude

parameters can still be estimated up to at least a  $45^\circ$  tilt; however, a gyroscope used as an auxiliary attitude sensor augments GPS availability and reduces noise. This has been implemented for many applications, and overall accuracy is a function of the gyro sensor characteristics [19].

## VII. DETAILS OF A 240 kW DEMONSTRATION CRAFT

Sky WindPower Corporation has completed the design for a 240 kW demonstration craft. Fig. 2 is an isometric view of this craft.

Two units will demonstrate the commercial viability, or otherwise, of the flying generator concept. These craft have four, two-bladed rotors turning in paired counter-rotation, as described earlier. The rotors are 10.7 m in diameter with solidity of 5%, and the untwisted blades are of conventional construction. Collective pitch control on the rotors will be via electric actuators. The craft is designed for operations up to 15 000 ft (4600 m).

The rotors are connected to four separate gearboxes, which drive four motor/generator units supplied by AC propulsion. These electrical machines are of high armature speed to ensure a satisfactory power-to-weight ratio. They are also electrically linked to ensure that rotor speeds do not vary with one another. Typical armature speeds are 24 000 r/min. The four power units are mounted in an elementary, low-drag fuselage of fiber composite construction. The all-up weight of each craft is estimated at around 1140 lb (520 kg).

The electromechanical tether is designed to transmit 240 kW at a voltage of 15 kV. The electrical transmission efficiency is 90%. The tether has two insulated aluminum conductors embedded in a Vectran fiber composite. The tether's specific weight is around 115 kg/km at a diameter of 10 mm. A sample has been constructed. The electrical ground facility is configured for a dc supply to and from the platform. The motor/generators are series connected.

The craft's rated output is developed at an 18.4 m/s wind speed at an altitude of 15 000 ft (4600 m). The 11.5 m/s autorotation speed is at the same altitude. The power consumption in no wind (hover) at 15 000 ft (4600 m) is estimated to be around 75 kW. Rotor speeds are in the range of 130–300 r/min. The craft in this demonstrator is designed to withstand a wind of 35 m/s at 15 000 ft (4600 m). Throughout the operating envelope, the craft's nose-up attitude varies in the range between  $10^\circ$  and  $45^\circ$ . At no time during these operations does the blade incidence on the retreating blade exceed acceptable values at the conventional reference station, while tip Mach numbers never exceed about 0.6.

Finally, there is some merit in the view that the best return on investment of these crafts will be dependent on an optimal, operating altitude. At low altitudes, the average wind velocity wanes, while at higher altitudes, adjacent to the jet stream core, the costs produce a less than beneficial return, because of the need for a higher transmission voltage as the altitude increases. Thus, it will be necessary to find the best return from an investment as a function of the maximum operating altitude. This aspect will be developed and confirmed over 12 months of flights planned during the demonstration program.

## VIII. COST AND PERFORMANCE PROJECTIONS AT THE LARGE SCALE

### A. Scalability Considerations

As discussed in Section IV, the tethered rotorcraft is inherently scalable in size and output, from small prototype configurations of less than 240 kW, through commercially viable systems with competitive costs of energy (COEs), in the range of 3–30 MW per craft. Larger sizes are more economical and may utilize more than four rotors to maintain economy and manageability of materials.

In this section, we analyze cost and performance of a four-rotor, 3.4 MW (platform-rated) configuration as might be deployed in an array over various sites in the United States. Because of losses described earlier, the actual output after conditioning would be about 20% lower. The 3.4 MW size was chosen because it is large enough to provide competitive economics in a four-rotor configuration, and a rotor design that is within the scope of currently available methods and materials.

### B. Weights and Costs

For cost illustration purposes, we use a 100 MW array, comprising 3.4 MW FEGs. The cost estimates are based on 250 FEGs/year production rate assuming prior production of 150 FEGs, in accordance with the guidelines of the National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL) [20].

A 3.4 MW platform-rated craft is estimated to weigh 21 000 lb (9500 kg) and cost \$1 360 000. Adding ground systems and production profits brings the total to \$2 260 000 per 3.4 MW. The balance of station costs for the 100 MW array, including site preparation, facilities and equipment, spare parts, and construction is \$4 210 000. Taken together, these initial capital costs come to \$71 200 000 per 100 MW.

### C. Performance and Net Annual Energy Production

Three design sites were chosen for analyzing the output of the 100 MW array, Topeka, KS, Detroit, MI, and San Diego, CA. Topeka is a "Great Plains" site, Detroit is a site where a great deal of energy is used, and San Diego is a site where capturing power from the wind is not normally thought to be practical.

Net annual energy production in kilowatt-hour per year is determined by multiplying rated power by a site capacity factor. Capacity factors for FEGs of the proposed design are based on wind statistics provided by NOAA radiosonde readings for major airports near the design sites, normally taken daily at noon and midnight. FEGs are to be flown at the most efficient altitude for prevailing wind conditions, and capacity factor is calculated in the normal manner.

In making these calculations, we have taken into account the projected operating characteristics of the 3.4 MW design through the range of altitudes up to 9000 m. Over the current range of interest, the rated wind speed has been approximated to the linear variation (4), while the air density varies according to National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics (NACA) Standard Atmosphere values.

Capacity factors have been computed for the three design sites using software we developed, from data downloaded from NOAA. The data is for the year starting September 20, 2000, and ending September 21, 2001:

$$V = 14 \text{ m/s} + 5.7 \text{ m/s} \times \frac{H}{10\,000 \text{ m}} \quad (4)$$

where  $V$  is the wind speed, in meters per second, required to operate at rated capacity and  $H$  is the altitude in meters.

Capacity factors for Topeka, Detroit, and San Diego are 91%, 90%, and 70%, respectively. As a reserve against storms, maintenance and mechanical problems, we assume 10% downtime. This gives net annual energy production values of 581, 575, and 447 GWh per year, respectively, for a 100 MW array at each of the three sites.

#### D. Projected COE

Annual operating expenses (AOE) include land lease costs (LLC), operations and maintenance (O&M), and levelized replacement/overhaul costs (LRC). AOE projections are necessarily subjective, since no plant like this exists currently. O&M costs are derived from an \$82 000 per year estimate for a 3.4 MW FEG, multiplied by 29.4 FEGs/100 MW plant. Life-limited components are anticipated to require replacement at 10 and 20 years. Tether longevity is a risk. Replacement cost is estimated at 80% of the initial capital cost for the whole system. Expressed in per kilowatt-hour terms, the AOE for the Topeka, Detroit, and San Diego sites are estimated at \$0.0102/kWh, \$0.0103/kWh, and \$0.0129/kWh, respectively.

We have assumed a fixed charge rate (FCR) of 0.0750 per year. The COE was computed using (5). For the Topeka, Detroit, and San Diego sites, the COEs are \$0.0194/kWh, \$0.0196/kWh, and \$0.0249/kWh, respectively:

$$\text{COE} = \frac{\text{FCR} \times \text{ICC}}{\text{AEP}_{\text{net}}} + \text{AOE}. \quad (5)$$

### IX. ENERGY STORAGE ISSUES

Electric utilities want constantly available “dispatchable” power, which cannot be provided economically if capacity factors are low, such as the 30% that is typical of ground-based wind turbine sites. However, with the high capacity factors, such as 85%, that are expected at average FEG sites in the United States and many other places in the world (especially in the mid-latitudes), this dispatchable electricity becomes economical. This is because the expected storage requirement in connection with FEG derived electrical energy is storage for only the shorter periods when FEGs are grounded due to inadequate winds or bad storms.

Pumped water storage, where available, is a very economical means used now for such temporary storage. A well-known example is used by the utility PG&E in California to pump water up to a high lake during low electrical-use hours, and then, have that water generate electricity at high demand times on the way back to a lower lake.

Existing hydroelectric power at dams may be considered to be the equivalent of pumped water storage facilities by deliberately

phasing in and out generation in complementary fashion to wind availability at a nearby FEG array. In that combination, the combined output could be dispatchable power with as much as four times the capacity of the existing hydroelectric site.

Compressed air energy storage (CAES) is another energy storage means presently coming into use. In special circumstances, where pumping compressed air into existing large caves or porous rock strata is feasible, it may well be especially economic. Commercial tanks built for the purpose may be the most economic storage means where very short-term energy storage is needed.

Hydrogen, not currently a means of economic storage as are some of the methods mentioned earlier, has the advantage that it can be stored in one season and used in another. Hydrogen can be produced from low-cost FEG electricity supplied by water electrolysis, stored in typically good wind winter months, and then, used to generate electricity in typically low-wind summer months. For example, the capacity factor at Patiala, India, for an FEG flying at 35 000 ft (10 700 m) is calculated at only about 37% for the summer months, but approximately 90% for the remaining months. Therefore, north India’s hydrogen generation using FEGs in the good months should sufficiently supply all its energy needs. Summer electricity would be generated from stored hydrogen fueling turbines in the south, not directly from FEG arrays.

Furthermore, high-altitude winds are often described by the planetary scale thermal wind equations. These thermal winds, including the jet stream, tend to shift latitudinally but rarely stop blowing. Thus, a latitudinally spaced configuration of FEG arrays, coupled with long-distance electricity transmission, could potentially smooth out much of the local variability in high-altitude wind power generation.

Thus, the economics of supplying the dispatchable electricity, which electric utilities want, should be favorable in connection with energy storage when that electricity is generated by FEGs with their high capacity factors. This is an important factor in determining the relative worth of FEG generated electricity compared with that of fossil fuels such as natural gas, and therefore, also the financing costs of FEG facilities.

### X. CONCLUSION

It has been shown that FEGs can harness the powerful and persistent winds aloft to supply electricity for grid connection, for hydrogen production, or for hydro-storage. Globally, upper atmospheric winds provide an enormous resource for this application. The environmental impacts at altitude are minimal with virtually no visual, or noise intrusion and no bird strikes. The proposed systems lead logically to rural/remote area installations in regions of restricted airspace.

Sky WindPower is well advanced in the design, and in vendor-supplied qualified components for the demonstration of a small 240 kW craft for operation in the southern United States and/or out-back Australia. Full-scale facilities, using individual FEG units of rated power around 30 MW, could easily form wind-farms equivalent in output to regular coal, gas, and nuclear facilities. These wind-farms would give capacity (generating)

factors around three times greater than that from conventional wind-farms. The estimated bulk electricity cost for the power so produced is estimated to be of the order of \$20/MWh.

High-altitude wind power is not science fiction. It depends on currently available technologies and engineering know-how, building on decades of experience with wind turbine and gyroplane technologies. Harnessing high-altitude wind energy, using a combination of essentially existing technologies, appears to be thoroughly practical and suggests that this energy source can play an important part in addressing the world's energy and global warming problems.

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