
A REVIEW ON TECHNOLOGY BASED ON WAVE ENERGY CONVERSION

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ABSTRACT

Ocean waves are a vast, mostly untapped energy resource, and the potential for collecting energy from waves is enormous. Research in this field is motivated by the need to fulfil renewable energy goals, but is relatively immature compared to other renewable energy technologies. This study presents the overall state of wave energy and analyzes the device types that reflect current wave energy converter (WEC) technology, especially concentrating on work being done inside the United Kingdom. The potential power take-off systems are defined, followed by a study of some of the control methods to improve the efficiency of point absorber-type WECs. There is a lack of consensus on the optimum technique of collecting energy from the waves and, while past innovation has typically concentrated on the idea and design of the main interface, issues emerge about how best to optimize the power train. This essay ends with some recommendations of future advancements.

KEYWORDS: *Energy, Technology, Power, Resources, Wave Energy.*

1. INTRODUCTION

Despite being mentioned in patents since the late 18th century, contemporary research into capturing energy from waves was spurred by the looming oil crisis of the 1970s. With worldwide attention now being directed to climate change and the increasing level of CO₂, the emphasis on producing energy from renewable sources is once again an essential topic of study. It is believed that the potential global wave power resource is 2TW, with the UK's practical potential being 7–10G[1]–[3]. To put these numbers into context, the UK's entire grid capacity is 80GW, with peak demand stable at about 65GW. As such, up to 15 per cent of present UK power demand might be supplied by wave energy; when coupled with tidal stream production, up to 20 per cent of the UK need may be met.

There are many reviews of wave energy converter (WEC) ideas. These demonstrate that numerous wave energy devices are being studied, although many are at the R&D stage, with just a limited variety of devices having been tested at large scale, installed in the seas. The LIMPET shoreline oscillating water column (OWC), built in Islay, Scotland, in 2000 is one system that is presently producing electricity for the National Grid. In September 2008, another commercial wave power plant began functioning in Northern Portugal. It makes use of the Plames power producing gadget developed by Pelamis Wave (previously OPD) in Scotland[4]–[6].

1.1.Challenges:

To achieve the advantages mentioned above, there are a number of technological difficulties that need to be solved to improve the performance and therefore the commercial competitiveness of wave power devices in the global energy market. A major difficulty is the translation of the slow ($\sim 0.1\text{Hz}$), unpredictable, and high-force oscillatory motion into usable motion to operate a generator with output quality acceptable to the utility network. As waves vary in height and duration, their corresponding power levels change proportionately. While gross average power levels may be anticipated in advance, this variable input needs to be transformed into smooth electrical output and therefore generally requires some kind of energy storage system, or other methods of compensating such as an array of devices.

Additionally, in offshore areas, wave direction is extremely changeable, and thus wave devices have to align themselves appropriately on compliant moorings, or be symmetrical, in order to collect the energy of the wave. The directions of waves near the coast may be substantially predicted in advance due to the natural processes of refraction and reflection.

The difficulty of effectively recording this erratic motion also has an influence on the design of the gadget. To function effectively, the device and associated systems have to be rated for the most frequent wave power levels. About the British Isles and the western shores of Europe, the most frequent offshore waves are around $30\text{--}70\text{kW/m}$. However, the gadget also needs to resist severe wave conditions that occur extremely infrequently, but may have power levels in excess of 2000kW/m . Not only does this pose difficult structural engineering challenges, but it also presents some of the economic challenges as the normal output of the device (and hence the revenue) are produced by the most commonly occurring waves, yet the capital cost of the device construction is driven by a need to withstand the high power level of the extreme, yet infrequent, waves. There are additional design difficulties in order to minimize the extremely corrosive environment of equipment working near the sea surface[7]–[10].

Lastly, the study emphasis is varied. To date, the emphasis of the wave energy developers and a significant portion of the published academic work has been mainly on sea performance and survivability, as well as the design and idea of the principal wave interface. However, the techniques of utilizing the motion of the main contact to generate energy are varied. More thorough assessment of the entire system is required if optimal, resilient but efficient systems are to be created.

1.2.Wave Energy Converters:

There is a huge variety of ideas for wave energy conversion; over 1000 wave energy conversion methods have been patented in Japan, North America, and Europe. Despite this significant diversity in design, WECs are usually classified by location and kind.

1.3.Location:

Shoreline devices have the benefit of being near to the utility network, are simple to maintain, and since waves are attenuated as they pass through shallow water they have a decreased chance of being destroyed in severe circumstances. This leads to one of the drawbacks of shore placed devices, since shallow water leads to reduced wave strength (this may be partly offset by natural energy concentration areas. Tidal range may also be a problem. In addition, by nature of their location, there are usually site specific criteria like coastline geometry and geology, and preservation of coastal beauty, thus devices cannot be developed for mass production. Near shore devices are described as devices that are in relatively shallow water (there is a lack of agreement on what defines ‘shallow’ water, although it has been proposed that this may be a depth of less than one quarter wavelength. Devices at this position are typically connected to the seafloor, which provides a suitable fixed basis against which an oscillating body may function. Like shoreline devices, a drawback is that shallow water leads to waves with lower strength, reducing

the collecting capacity.

Offshore devices are usually in deep water but again there is little consensus regarding what defines 'deep' water. 'Tens of meters' is one definition, with 'greater than 40m', and 'a depth surpassing one-third of the wavelength' being others. The benefit of placing aWEC in deep water is that it can collect larger quantities of energy because of the increased energy content in deep ocean waves. However, offshore devices are more difficult to build and maintain, and due of the higher wave height and energy content in the waves, need to be built to withstand the more severe circumstances increasing expense to development. Despite this, it is claimed that with stronger waves, floating devices in deep water provide better structural efficiency.

1.4. Modes Of Operation

Within the categories described above, there is a further level of categorization of devices, defined by the mode of operation. Some notable instances are presented below.

1.4.1. Submerged Pressure Differential:

The submerged pressure differential device is a submerged point absorber that utilizes the pressure difference above the device between wave crests and troughs. It includes two major parts: a sea bed fixed air-filled cylindrical chamber with a movable upper cylinder. As a crest passes over the device, the water pressure above the device compresses the air inside the cylinder, pushing the top cylinder down. As a trough passes over, the water pressure on the mechanism decreases and the top cylinder rises. A benefit of this device is that because it is completely submerged, it is not subject to the hazardous slamming forces encountered by floating devices, and minimizes the visual effect of the gadget. Maintenance of the gadget is a potential problem though. Owing to part of the device being connected to the sea bottom, these devices are usually placed near shore.

1.4.2. Oscillating Wave Surge Converter:

An oscillating wave surge converter is usually composed of a hinged deflector, positioned perpendicular to the wave direction (a terminator), that swings back and forth utilizing the horizontal particle velocity of the wave. An example is the Aquamarine Power Oyster, a near shore device, where the top of the deflector is above the water surface and is hinged from the sea bottom. A prototype of this gadget has been built.

1.4.3. Oscillating Water Column:

An OWC consists of a chamber with an entrance to the sea below the water level. As waves approach the device, water is pushed into the chamber, putting pressure on the air inside the chamber. This air exits to atmosphere via a turbine. As the water retreats, air is then sucked in via the turbine.

1.5. Rotary Generator Types:

Traditional power plants utilize on-line synchronous generators (SGs), and are run at a nearly constant speed, matching the frequency of the grid connection. Depending on the conversion method, generators used for wave energy may have to deal with fluctuating speed. Four generating types are identified: doubly fed induction generators (DFIG), squirrel cage induction generators, permanent magnet SGs, and field wound SGs.

1.5.1. Turbine Transfer:

Turbine transfer is the word used here to describe the technique used in systems where the flow of fluid (either sea water or air) powers a turbine, which is directly connected to a generator. The kinds of devices utilizing direct transmission are OWCs and overtopping devices. As stated above, the requirements for generators in OWCs, such as variable speed input, are comparable to those of a wind turbine, and therefore have been extensively studied. The major benefit of utilizing sea

water turbines is that leaking of fluid creates no environmental concerns. The drawback is that sea water is a complicated fluid with many unexpected components. In addition, in near shore equipment, abrasive particles may harm seals and valves. Cavitation may potentially be an issue, unless the turbine is in deep water to maintain positive pressure. In low-pressure conditions, encountered in overtopping devices, propeller-type turbines are frequently employed, such as the Kaplan design.

1.5.2. Hydraulics:

Another way of translating the low-speed oscillating motion of the main WEC interface is to use a hydraulic system. Waves exert enormous forces at moderate speeds and hydraulic systems are ideally adapted to absorbing energy in these circumstances. These hydraulics working at a pressure of 400bar is a significant benefit of certain kinds of WEC when size and weight are a concern, and the force produced by these pressures are much higher than those from the finest electrical machines.

1.5.3. Typical Hydraulic Circuit For WEC:

To maintain speed despite a changing flow rate. The management of the motor capacity may be dependent on observed or projected sea conditions surrounding the WEC, or fluid flow data inside the system. Additionally, a throttling valve may also be utilized to regulate the flow to the motor. Accumulators are added in the circuit to offer energy storage and to ensure consistent flow to the hydraulic motor. In addition, the low-pressure accumulating or offers as small boost pressure to minimize the danger of cavitation on the low-pressure side.

1.6. Maintenance:

Carrying out maintenance in the maritime environment is costly, time-consuming, and presents numerous hazards. In a hydraulic conversion system, there are likely to be many steps between the primary interface and the electrical generator, each containing moving components, and therefore may need maintenance. It is essential that the necessary maintenance be minimal, ideally just needing inspection yearly or less. In addition, metal surfaces and components must be protected against corrosion and erosion. Ceramic coatings (such as Ceramax, produced by Bosch Rexroth) provide a potential way of preserving the components in direct contact with sea water. One approach that might be used to decrease maintenance expenses (and possibly lessen the risk of leaking from hydraulic devices) would be to place the hydraulic PTO system near the beach. This has attracted little attention owing to the lengthy, expensive, and inefficient pipe construction needed to transfer the fluid from the off shore or near shore device to shore, and the accompanying substantial power loss.

1.7. Electrical Linear Generation:

During early wave power research, the idea of utilizing electrical line regenerators was explored. The findings at this point were that these devices would be excessively heavy, inefficient, and costly. New magnetic materials and the decreased prices of frequency converter devices imply that this technology may now be feasible. It is claimed that the increasing complexity of hydraulic or turbine systems bring dependability and maintenance problems, which are essential to reduce in offshore settings. Conventional electrical machines are intended to be driven using high-speed rotary motion. The airgap speed between the rotor and stator in these machines may be high (upwards of 60m/s) allowing for simple translation into a fast change in flux. Linear oscillatory motion from a WEC, however, is anticipated to have a peak of approximately 2m/s. Developments for the wind power sector have centered on direct drive generators (to replace unreliable and heavy gearboxes) (to replace unreliable and heavy gearboxes). These direct drive generators have an airgap speed of 5–6m/s. The development of linear electrical generators needs continuous study into slow-speed electrical machinery.

The basic concept of a linear generator is to have a translator (what would be the rotor in a rotary machine) on which magnets are mounted with alternating polarity directly coupled to a heaving buoy, with the stator containing windings, mounted in a relatively stationary structure (connected to a drag plate, a large inertia, or fixed to the sea bed) (connected to a drag plate, a large inertia, or fixed to the sea bed).

1.8.Control:

In regular waves, energy is absorbed most effectively in a point-absorber-type WEC when the undamped natural frequency of the device is near to the main frequency of the incident wave. At resonance, the velocity of the oscillator is in phase with the dynamic pressure (and therefore force) of the incoming wave, resulting in a significant transfer of energy from the wave to the oscillator. The behaviour of the gadget thus is reliant on the damping. For most power extraction, damping must be adjusted to obtain optimum energy conversion efficiency. If the damping is too great then the movements are restricted and little power is generated. If the damping is too mild, then the damper absorbs little power and little power is taken off. With any PTO system, the proper damping is essential for an effective system.

2. DISCUSSION

The potential for producing power from wave energy is enormous. The ocean is a vast resource, and capturing the energy in ocean waves offers a significant step towards achieving renewable energy goals. This overview presents the current state of WEC technology. The various device kinds are established and assessed. The institutes and businesses engaged in WEC development, as well as joint wave energy initiatives, are also highlighted. The potential PTO systems are evaluated and categorized as hydraulic, linear electrical generator, or turbine based. A hydraulic PTO system is especially well adapted to absorbing energy from a high force, slow oscillatory motion and may assist the conversion of reciprocating motion to rotational motion to operate a generator. There are, nevertheless, significant design difficulties like as efficiency and dependability. A linear electrical generator offers an alternate option, although the technology is less developed.

3. CONCLUSION

The active control of a WEC may substantially improve its efficiency, and therefore cost effectiveness. This study is presently underway with latching control being emphasized as a potential, simple technique of effectively collecting energy. Despite extensive study and development, the ideas for translating as low, high-force, reciprocating motion to one suitable for producing energy show no indications of converging to a favored solution. Questions emerge about which idea to employ, how best to maximize its performance, and how to manage such a system. Future study should adopt a systems engineering approach, since the various subsystems of a WEC are all closely linked and any one should not be improved without considering the other sub systems. Furthermore, individual WECs will frequently function as part of a wave farm, thus future systems analysis must incorporate the interaction between devices.

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