

# Condition monitoring of wind turbines based on spatial-temporal feature aggregation networks

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**Abstract:** The existing supervisory control and data acquisition (SCADA) system continuously collects data from wind turbines (WTs), which provides a basis for condition monitoring (CM) of WTs. However, due to the complexity and high dimension and nonlinearity of data, effective modeling of spatial-temporal correlations among the data still becomes a primary challenge. In this paper, we propose a novel CM approach based on the **multidirectional spatial-temporal feature aggregation networks** (MSTFAN) to accurately evaluate the performance and hence diagnose the faults of the turbines. Firstly, the data collected from various sensors are formulated into graph-structured data at each timestamp. Spatial-temporal network constructed by combing a graph attention network (GAT) and a temporal convolutional network (TCN) is used to extract spatial-

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temporal features of the data. Then, a bi-directional long short-term memory (BiLSTM) neural network is adopted to further study long-term spatial-temporal dependency of the extracted features. Finally, the condition score is obtained and the streaming peaks over threshold (SPOT) is applied to determine the abnormal threshold for early warning of the fault occurrence. Experiments on datasets from real-world wind farms demonstrate that the proposed approach can detect the early abnormal situation of the WTs, and outperform other established methods.

**Keywords:** Wind turbine, condition monitoring (CM), graph attention network (GAT), temporal convolutional network (TCN), spatial-temporal correlation, streaming peaks over threshold (SPOT)

## 1. Introduction

Wind energy is a clean source and has become renewable energy for the most promising commercial development [1]. According to the latest global wind power report from GWEC (Global Wind Energy Council), the global capacity of installed wind power has reached 837GW to date [2]. However, the rapid expansion of wind farms has been affected by operations and maintenance (O&M) issues and high O&M costs. The designed service-life of a WT is usually 20 years while the total O&M costs constitute up to 30% of the total income of the turbines over their operating lifetime [3]. In particular, on-site maintenance for offshore wind turbines becomes more expensive since it requires complicated offshore operations [4]. Hence, it is imperative to design an efficient CM approach based on artificial intelligence techniques to improve the O&M strategies from post maintenance and planned maintenance to condition-based maintenance and predictive maintenance, which will help to reduce O&M costs and ensure the long-term healthy and stable development of the wind power industry [5].

Currently, condition monitoring of wind turbines has been performed by the supervisory control and data acquisition (SCADA) system and the specifically designed condition monitoring system (CMS) [6-8]. CMS system adds high-precision sensors in the corresponding positions of key components of WTs to collect the parameters such as vibration [9] and temperature [10]. The collection frequency is generally higher than 50Hz [11]. Then the methods such as spectral analysis [12], envelope analysis [13] and machine learning [14] are applied to analyze the data to achieve the CM. This way can accurately identify the specific types, positions and damage degree of equipment faults. However, the cost of a CMS is relatively high, which can be more than 11,000 Euros per turbine [15]. The SCADA system has been developed for real-time monitoring and control of WT operations by collecting data from a large number of parameters covering all key components in WTs [8, 16]. Moreover, the sampling frequency is generally lower than 1Hz. The SCADA system can provide valuable online information with depth and breadth regarding the performance and operational history of the WTs. Therefore, SCADA data have been widely used for fault detection and CM purpose [17, 18]. However, the CM based on SCADA data has faced a number of challenges [19] as follows: 1) Poor data quality, the operation of WTs is affected by variable conditions, disturbances and manual debugging, resulting in the collected data being contaminated with a large amount of bad data that cannot accurately reflect real operation states. 2) Imbalanced data classification, WTs mostly operate in the normal condition, while abnormal data are usually scarce. Meanwhile, due to the high manual label cost, valuable labels are not yet added to the collected data. 3) Complex feature correlation, because of the inter-coupling among different components or subsystems of the WTs, SCADA data are naturally high-dimensional and have complex cross-correlation and self-correlation.

83 In order to tackle these challenges, a number of CM methodologies have been developed,  
84 which can be generally categorized as physical model-based and data-driven approaches. When a  
85 large amount of data cannot be obtained, it is a natural choice to use the physical model-based  
86 methods. The model-based methods simulate the dynamic process of the system by establishing an  
87 accurate physical model for the checked objects [20]. Then, the residual between estimated and  
88 actual values of the parameters can be calculated for CM [21]. For instance, Feng et al. [22] created  
89 a wind power transmission model for gearbox condition monitoring by considering the heat transfer  
90 mechanism of the gearbox lubrication system, thus providing a sound theoretical basis for CM of  
91 the WTs. Dong et al. [23] used the gaussian mixture model (GMM) to build a multi-regime model  
92 of selected parameters that are greatly affected by working conditions.

93 On the contrary, data-driven methods do not require excessive prior knowledge, thus making  
94 this approach advantageous when performing CM tasks with complex-coupling effects and highly  
95 nonlinear dynamic performances [24]. In recent years, data-driven methods have been gained more  
96 attention, including shallow learning approach and deep learning approach [25]. Shallow learning  
97 algorithms usually construct a data-based probability-statistical model to achieve forecasting and  
98 analysis of data, mainly including regression [26], clustering [27], classification [28] and boosting  
99 algorithm [29]. For instance, Meik et al. [30] utilized a linear regression model to solve the  
100 correlation among the variables of WTs. Tang et al. [31] and Liu et al. [32] proposed fault diagnosis  
101 approaches based on Shannon wavelet support vector machine and clustering binary tree support  
102 vector machine, respectively. Furthermore, the clustering algorithm has been extensively applied  
103 especially for dealing with the common abnormal alignments [33]. Kouadri et al. [34] proposed the  
104 hidden Markov models (HMM) by incorporating machine learning-based HMM and principle  
105 component analysis to improve the availability and reliability of the fault diagnosis model under  
106 different operating conditions. Trizoglo et al. [29] developed an ensemble model of the extreme  
107 gradient boosting (XGBoost) framework to achieve a higher accurate detection at low  
108 computational costs. Tang et al. [35] developed an improved LightGBM fault diagnosis method for  
109 WT gearboxes by embedding the confusion matrix as a performance indicator. However, when  
110 dealing with a large amount of heterogeneous data, most shallow learning algorithms have some  
111 shortcomings. For instance, logistic regression is easy to underfit and decision trees are prone to  
112 overfitting [35]. Moreover, these methods usually construct features by combining expert  
113 knowledge and may exist the problems such as slow convergence speed and low prediction accuracy  
114 when a large amount of data is processed [36].

115 Compared with the shallow learning algorithms, the deep learning method has a better  
116 adaptability and mapping capability [37], which has shown evident advantages when dealing with  
117 highly nonlinear SCADA data [38, 39]. Applying a deep belief network to the abnormal detection  
118 of vibration signals in WTs can learn more extensive feature representations and improve  
119 recognition accuracy [40]. SCADA data, being regarded as time series data and capturing the long-  
120 term dependency relationship among features, would be vital for fault classification. Long short-  
121 term memory (LSTM) can utilize its specific gates mechanism to satisfy this requirement [29, 41].  
122 These methods are implemented mostly based on auto-encoder (AE) structure, and discriminate  
123 anomalies through reconstruction errors. For instance, Chen et al. developed the AE-LSTM to assess  
124 sequential CM data. Wu et al. [42] combined the LSTM with statistical Kullback-Leibler divergence  
125 (KLD), where the LSTM network was used to capture long-term dependency among the monitoring  
126 data while the KLD value was applied for making decisions. Compared with LSTM, convolutional

127 neural network (CNN) has a strong learning ability for the spatial features of data. In order to deal  
128 with the multiscale characteristics inherent in the vibration signals of a gearbox, Jiang et al. [43]  
129 proposed a multiscale CNN architecture for simultaneous multiscale feature extraction and  
130 classification. In addition, the CNN-LSTM or CNN-GRU models have also achieved good results  
131 in fault diagnosis because of their abilities for spatial-temporal information extraction [44-46].  
132 However, CNN performs remarkably in the field of image processing and is based on the assumption  
133 that the data exist in Euclidean space, which implies that the correlations among data can be  
134 measured by the Euclidean distance. This is clearly not enough for multivariable SCADA data  
135 because there are different dimensions and physical significances among various parameters, such  
136 as power and temperature.

137 How to better identify the complex relations among different variables of SCADA data thus  
138 becomes a problem worthy of thinking. Recently, graph neural network (GNN) [47] has been proved  
139 to possess a stronger ability for dealing with relationship dependence, including graph convolutional  
140 network (GCN) [48], graph attention network (GAT) [49] and graph spatial-temporal networks [50].  
141 These methods have received extensive applications in the fields of traffic forecasting and molecular  
142 property forecasting. For instance, Diao et al. [51] proposed a dynamic spatial-temporal GCN for  
143 accurate traffic forecasting, which tracks the spatial dependencies among traffic data. Achievements  
144 have also been made in processing time series data. To solve the anomaly detection problem of large  
145 IT systems, Scheinert et al. [52] proposed a network with the GCN architecture to extract spatial  
146 and temporal features. Deng et al. [53] proposed a GCN-based multivariate time-series anomaly  
147 detection method, which combines the relationships among sensor variables and sensor embeddings.  
148 Besides, in the latest research, Su et al. [54] proposed a method to extract the spatial features by  
149 using an attention module instead of CNN or GCN and showed promising results for the gearbox  
150 operating status detection of offshore wind turbines.

151 In this paper, we propose a novel spatial-temporal aggregation network for condition  
152 monitoring of WTs, which makes full use of multiple monitoring variables related to WTs specific  
153 faults by allowing information to propagate through directed graphs and temporal subsequences.  
154 Specifically, firstly the multiple monitoring variables are preprocessed from the feature and  
155 temporal dimensions, respectively. Then a flexible multidirectional spatial-temporal feature  
156 aggregation network (MSTFAN) is constructed to capture the inherent relations among them. From  
157 the feature extraction perspective, the complex cross-correlation among variables is learned through  
158 the edges of the graph nodes so that different attribute sensor data can be distinguished. The models  
159 based on graph attention network can allow the correlations among sensors to be represented in a  
160 non-Euclidean space, which is more suitable for the actual complex data structures. From the  
161 temporal perspective, the correlation among variables at different timestamps is extracted by dilated  
162 casual convolution to obtain larger receptive fields while keeping the network stability. BiLSTM is  
163 further used to reconstruct spatiotemporal information in order to capture long-term temporal  
164 dependencies. For fault detection, we introduce a SPOT-based approach to identify the condition  
165 states, which makes no assumptions about the data distribution and has stronger adaptability to real  
166 failures. The main contributions of this paper are summarized as follows:

167 (1) *A new CM framework for WTs.* Specifically, this approach is proposed to automatically learn  
168 complex spatial-temporal features of SCADA data for constructing the normal behavior model  
169 of operating WTs, by which the abnormal behaviors of WTs deviating from this normal model  
170 are recognized and diagnosed. For the first time, spatial-temporal features of multivariate

171 SCADA data are investigated for CM of the WTs.

172 (2) *A novel spatial-temporal network.* A flexible MSTFAN is designed for improving the  
 173 performance of signal reconstruction by modeling and capturing both short- and long-term  
 174 spatial and temporal correlations. To the best of our knowledge, this graph neural network is  
 175 the first time applied to CM of the WTs.

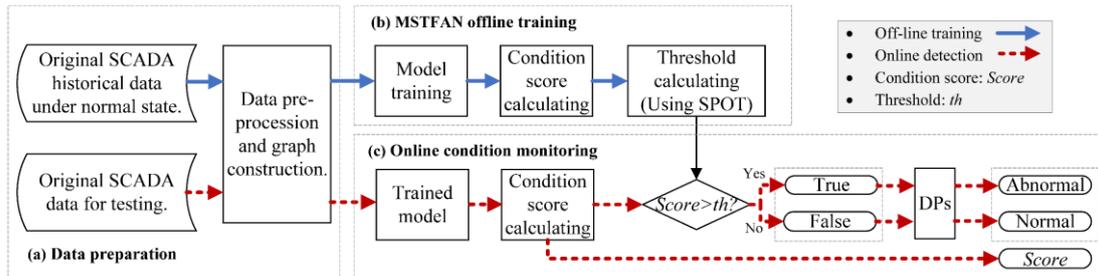
176 (3) *A new abnormality warning strategy.* An extreme value theory-based SPOT approach is proposed  
 177 to calculate the threshold to distinguish the normal and abnormal behaviors, by which the  
 178 abnormality detectability is improved. Furthermore, we propose a novel “delay perception”  
 179 (DPs) pre-warning strategy, which can reduce false warnings.

180 The rest of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 describes the proposed WT fault  
 181 detection framework. Section 3 presents the structure and working principle of MSTFAN in detail.  
 182 Two case studies, namely, the drivetrain bearing fault of doubly-fed induction (DFIG)-based WTs  
 183 and the pitch system fault of direct-driven WTs, are presented in Section 4, which are used to  
 184 validate the effectiveness of the proposed method. In Section 5, the performance of the proposed  
 185 CM method is assessed and compared with other existing mainstream methods. Finally, the  
 186 conclusions and future improvements are given in Section 6.

## 187 2. System framework overview

### 188 2.1. CM flowchart

189 An unsupervised anomaly detection often refers to the task of identifying data patterns from a  
 190 test dataset that appears the most divergent from the prevalent patterns of previously observed data  
 191 [55]. Therefore, for the abnormal detection of WTs, we need to first create the normal behavior  
 192 model and calculate the condition index of the WT. When the index exceeds a certain threshold  
 193 during the diagnosis process with the test dataset, the WT will be regarded as abnormal. Generally,  
 194 the newly-operated or major-repaired WTs after operating stably for a period of time are considered  
 195 to be normal [56], and data from these periods are used to train the normal behavior models and  
 196 calculate the alarm thresholds.



197  
198 **Figure 1 CM flowchart of WTs**

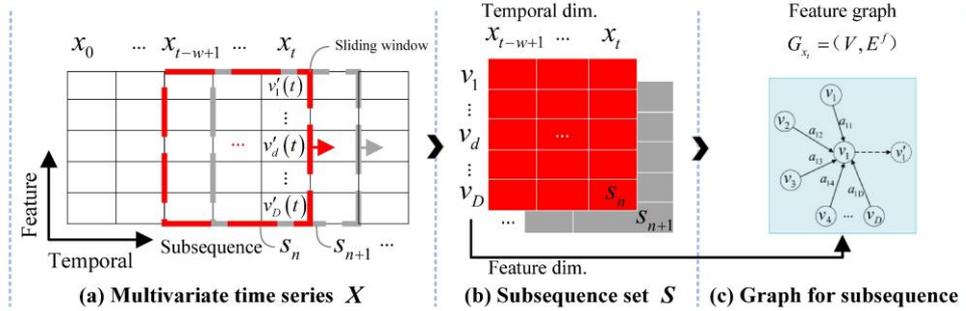
199 The designed CM flowchart of WTs is shown in **Error! Reference source not found.**, where  
 200 the process can be classified into three stages: data preparation and graph construction, MSTFAN  
 201 offline training and online condition monitoring. In the stage of data preparation, the original  
 202 SCADA data are cleaned first. This is because the SCADA system may cause data missing or  
 203 mutation when communication failures or maintenance activities happen which do not indicate the  
 204 actual abnormal state of the wind turbine. We adopt a quarterback method for mutation detection  
 205 and revise the outlier and missing data as the average of the fore and aft values. In the stage of  
 206 MSTFAN offline training, the normal operation pattern of WT is learned from a large number of  
 207 historical SCADA data and the monitoring parameters available for the targeted WT under normal

208 operating conditions are thus selected in this stage. The condition scores of normal data are then  
 209 calculated, by which the threshold  $th$  of the scores is obtained by SPOT to quantify the abnormal  
 210 level of the testing data. The model training and testing will be presented in detail in Section 3. In  
 211 the stage of online condition monitoring, the testing data are inputted into the trained MSTFAN  
 212 model to obtain their reconstructed values. The deviation between the actual and the reconstructed  
 213 values is then used to calculate the condition score. The data with a score larger than the threshold  
 214  $th$  are discriminated as abnormal. It is worth noting that the length of the input sequence and the  
 215 number of layers of the network could affect the detection results, which will be discussed in detail  
 216 in Section 4.3. Besides, when the WT assembly operates gradually from normal to abnormal  
 217 conditions, there appear inevitably fluctuations in the prediction results of the model, resulting in  
 218 difficult decision-making for proper CM. Hence, after the detection results are initially obtained, a  
 219 DPs is further designed to adjust the results for the second time in an attempt to eliminate the  
 220 frequent alarms or false alarms. Finally, the abnormal condition is represented by binary (true or  
 221 false), and scores are outputted simultaneously.

## 222 2.2. Graph construction

223 The MSTFAN-based CM method for WT aims to learn complex spatial-temporal correlations  
 224 of SCADA data. Therefore, we creatively create a graph using the data from each window after  
 225 processing the multivariate time series data with a sliding window, which are described in detail as  
 226 follows:

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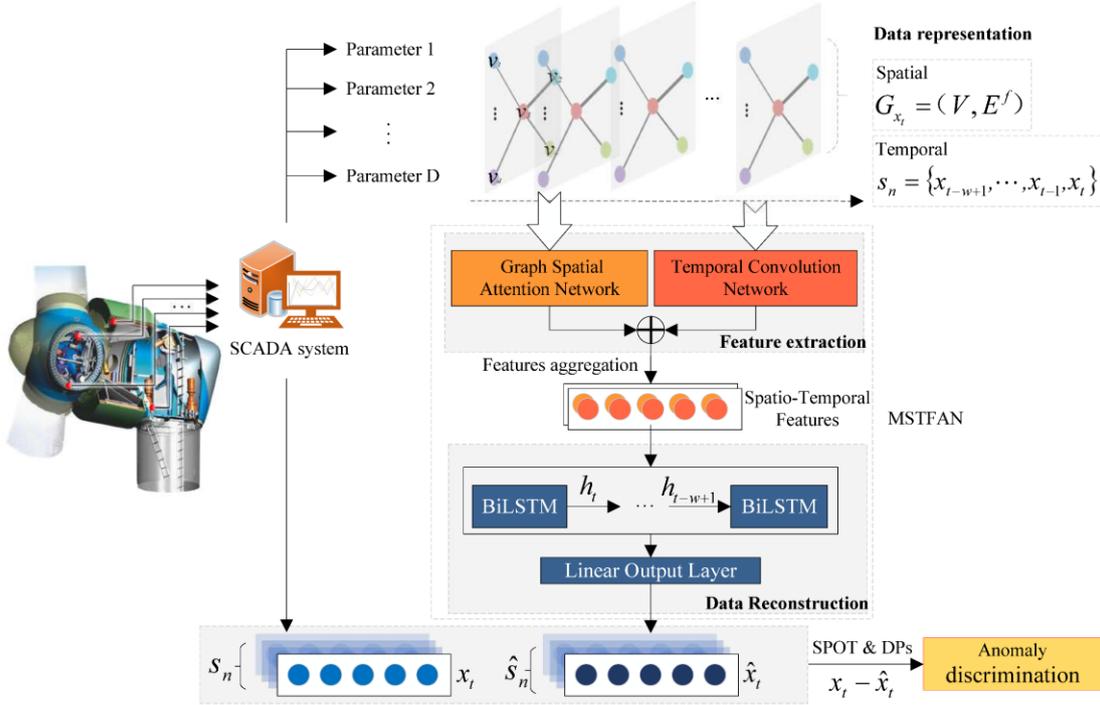
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**Figure 2 The construction process of the subsequences and the associated graph**

230 Generally, for a given multivariate time series  $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_t, \dots, x_T\}$ , where  $T$  and  $x_t \in$   
 231  $R^D$  represent the length of data samples and data collected from  $D$  sensors at timestamp  $t$ ,  
 232 respectively. The subsequences are required to be processed with a uniform length. The construction  
 233 process of the subsequences is shown in **Figure 2**. We define the feature vector at timestamp  $t$  as  
 234  $x_t = \{v_d(t) | d \in [1, D]\}$ , and a sliding window containing certain features as  $v_d =$   
 235  $\{x_t | t \in [t - w + 1, t]\}$ . As shown in **Figure 2(a)**, a sliding window with length  $w$  is assigned to  
 236 partition a long sequence  $X$  along the temporal dimension into  $N$  subsequences  
 237  $s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n, \dots, s_N$ , which are collected as a subsequence set  $S$ . Then we build a feature graph  
 238 for each subsequence  $s_n$  ( $n = 1, \dots, N$ ), as can be seen in **Figure 2(b)** and (c). Each feature  $v_d$  is  
 239 viewed as a node in the feature graph  $G_{x_t} = (V, E^f)$ , where  $V = \{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_D\}$  represents the  
 240 node set,  $\vec{v}_i \in \mathbb{R}^\omega$  represents the feature vector of each node, and  $E^f$  represents edge set (each  
 241 edge denotes the connection between two corresponding features, and the mutual contribution  
 242 between nodes  $i$  and  $j$  is expressed as  $a_{ij}$ ) among feature nodes.

243 **3. MSTFAN-based CM**

244 The proposed MSTFAN-based CM framework is shown in **Figure 3**. The key motivation of  
 245 MSTFAN is that using GAT and TCN simultaneously can capture implicit normal conditions from  
 246 both feature and temporal dimensions of SCADA data. The framework consists of four parts, namely  
 247 data representation, feature extraction, data reconstruction, and anomaly discrimination. We  
 248 establish the MSTFAN to explore spatial dependence and temporal dependence among different  
 249 sensors in the SCADA system. For each timestamp, spatial features and temporal features are  
 250 aggregated together by splicing and then inputted into the reconstruction network. For the  
 251 reconstruction network, a BiLSTM is adopted to capture long-term temporal correlations from  
 252 spatial-temporal aggregation vectors, and then the output layer composed of a fully-connected  
 253 network reconstructs the implicit vectors from BiLSTM to obtain the output vectors with the same  
 254 length and dimension as the input subsequence. Here the reconstructed value and actual value are  
 255 used to calculate the condition score, and the final abnormal condition is assessed based on the  
 256 SPOT-based threshold.



257

258

**Figure 3 The proposed MSTFAN-based framework for WT CM**

259 **3.1. Spatial feature learning with GAT**

260 Graph attention network (GAT) was firstly proposed by Velikovi et al. [49], which utilizes  
 261 attention mechanism to make a weighted sum of neighboring nodes, thus aggregating information  
 262 and totally removing the constraints of the graph structure. To fully capture the spatial correlation  
 263 among sensor parameters, we utilize the graph attention mechanism at each subsequence to process  
 264 the signals. As shown in **Figure 3**, subsequence  $s_n$  is processed into the graph-structured data in  
 265 the feature dimension and inputted into the GAT. The spatial correlation between the  $i$ -th and the  
 266  $j$ -th nodes can be represented by their attention coefficient being computed as:

267

$$\alpha_{ij} = \frac{\exp(\delta(\vec{a}^T [\mathbf{W}\vec{v}_i \parallel \mathbf{W}\vec{v}_j]))}{\sum_{k \in N_i} \exp(\delta(\vec{a}^T [\mathbf{W}\vec{v}_i \parallel \mathbf{W}\vec{v}_k]))} \quad (1)$$

268

where  $\delta$  is an activation function, and generally uses LeakyReLU which has a relatively small positive gradient for negative inputs.  $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^w$  is a learnable weight vector,  $\mathbf{W}$  is the shared weight vector and the operator  $\parallel$  represents the information concatenation of two nodes, and  $N_i$  denotes

270

the number of adjacent nodes for the  $i$ -th node. Finally, the output of each node can be obtained

272

by aggregating its adjacent nodes, as shown in **Figure 4(a)**. The implicit vector of  $i$ -th sensor node

273

through one layer of GAT can be denoted as  $\vec{v}'_i$ . In order to avoid focusing too much on the position

274

of the node itself, we adopt the multi-head attention mechanism [57], which is determined as follows.

275

$$\vec{v}'_i = \sigma \left( \frac{1}{H} \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{j \in N_i} \alpha_{ij}^h \mathbf{W}^h \vec{v}_j \right) \quad (2)$$

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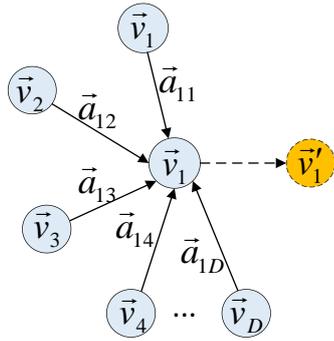
where  $h$  is the head number,  $\alpha_{ij}^h$  is the attention coefficient of the  $h$ -th head,  $H$  is the total

277

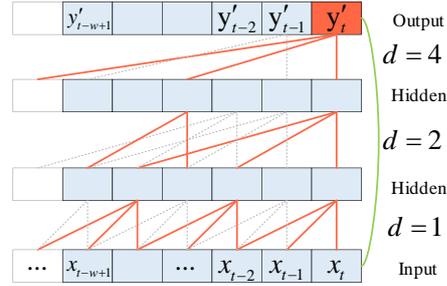
number of the attention heads, and  $\sigma$  is the activate function. For the final result, an average value

278

is adopted for the output vector of each attention head.



(a) GAT aggregation representation of different sensors through its adjacent nodes.  $a_{ij}$  denotes attention coefficient between sensor nodes.



(b) 4-layer TCN structure with residual connection, and  $d$  is dilation factor.

**Figure 4 Implicit layer representation**

279

### 3.2 Temporal feature learning with TCN

280

We adopt TCN to extract temporal features. The basic idea of TCN [58] is the combination of 1D-fully convolutional network (1D-FCN) and causal convolutions. Meanwhile, in order to obtain a larger receptive field and keep the network stability, TCN uses the extended causal convolution and residual modes to replace the general causal convolution network and the general convolutional layer, respectively, enabling the receptive field to expand exponentially. For 1-D input sequence  $s_n = \{x_{t-w+1}, \dots, x_{t-1}, x_t\}$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^D$ , the convolution kernel is  $f: \{0, \dots, k-1\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , and the convolution at timestamp  $t$  is defined as:

287

$$F(t) = (x *_d f)(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} f(i) \cdot x_{t-d \cdot i} \quad (3)$$

288

where  $d$  is dilation factor,  $k$  is the size of the convolution kernel, and  $t - d \cdot i$  indicates the direction of the past. An example structure of 4-layer TCN network is shown in **Figure 4 (b)**.

289

290

After a series of convolution operations, the input sequence is mapped into the implicit vector  $y'_t$  containing temporal information:

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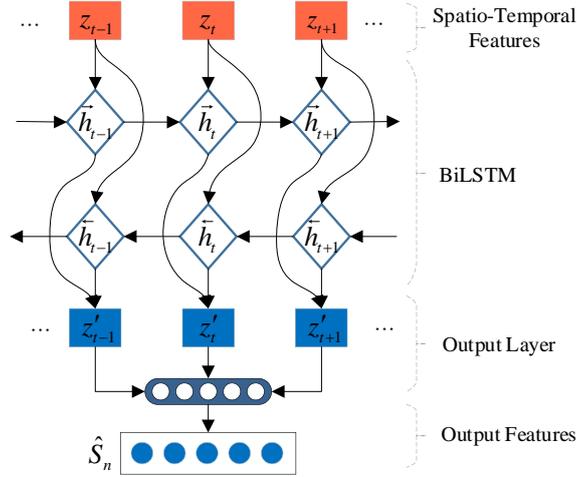
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$$y'_t = \mathcal{F}(x_t, \{W_t\}) + \text{Conv}_{1 \times 1}(x_t) \quad (4)$$

293 where  $\mathcal{F}$  represents the convolution operation module composed of a nonlinear causal expansion  
 294 convolution, a nonlinear activation function ( $ReLU$ ), a weight normalization and a dropout  
 295 regularization.  $Conv_{1*1}$  is used to adjust the dimension of input vector for realizing vector addition  
 296 operation connected by residuals, and  $W_t$  is the learnable weight vector.

### 297 3.3 Feature aggregation and reconstruction

298 After obtaining the vectors of spatial and temporal features, we adopt a splicing approach to  
 299 fuse them and send them to the BiLSTM-based reconstruction network. Different from the general  
 300 LSTM network, BiLSTM deals with the data from two different directions, which can better capture  
 301 bi-directional information dependence. **Figure 5** shows the basic structure of the signal  
 302 reconstruction network.



303  
 304

**Figure 5 BiLSTM-based signal reconstruction network**

305 In the figure,  $z_t$  is the spatial-temporal feature vector outputted from the MSTFAN at timestamp  
 306  $t$ . In the forward process, the implicit vector is updated by  $\vec{h}_t$ , while in the reverse process, the  
 307 implicit vector is updated from the reverse direction and is denoted by  $\overleftarrow{h}_t$ . The combined implicit  
 308 vector is represented as  $z'_t$ , and the relevant updating formulas are given as below:

309 
$$\vec{h}_t = ReLU(W_{\vec{h}_t} z_t + U_{\vec{h}_t} \vec{h}_{t-1} + b_{\vec{h}_t}) \quad (5)$$

310 
$$\overleftarrow{h}_t = ReLU(W_{\overleftarrow{h}_t} z_t + U_{\overleftarrow{h}_t} \overleftarrow{h}_{t+1} + b_{\overleftarrow{h}_t}) \quad (6)$$

311 
$$\hat{S}_n = ReLU(W_{\vec{h}_o} \vec{h}_t + W_{\overleftarrow{h}_o} \overleftarrow{h}_t + b_o) \quad (7)$$

312 where  $W_{\vec{h}_t}$  and  $W_{\overleftarrow{h}_t}$  denote the learnable weight vectors from different directions for the spatial-  
 313 temporal feature vector  $z_t$ ,  $U_{\vec{h}_t}$  and  $U_{\overleftarrow{h}_t}$  denote the learnable weight vectors from different  
 314 directions for hidden condition  $h_t$ ,  $W_{\vec{h}_o}$  and  $W_{\overleftarrow{h}_o}$  denote learnable weight vectors from different  
 315 directions for the output layer,  $b_{\vec{h}_t}$ ,  $b_{\overleftarrow{h}_t}$  and  $b_o$  denote the learnable bias, and  $ReLU$  is the  
 316 activation function.

### 317 3.4 Fault detection

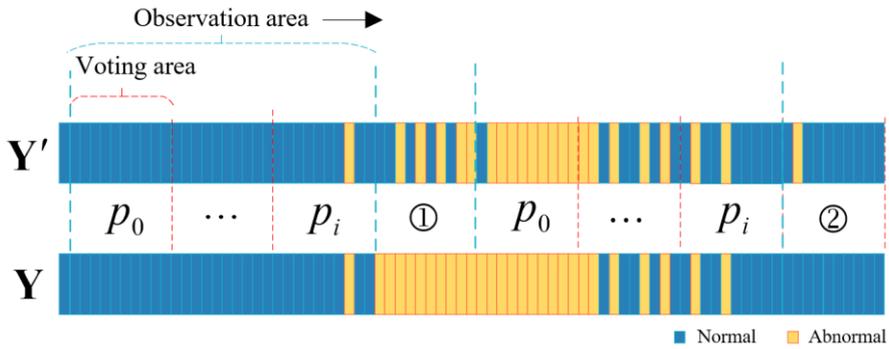
318 To accurately reflect WT operation condition, we calculate the condition score at each  
 319 timestamp. For the input subsequence  $s_n$ , the corresponding sequence  $\hat{s}_n$  of the same size as  $s_n$   
 320 can be reconstructed, as described above. A residual signal is taken from the difference between the  
 321 actual value and reconstructed value of all the subsequences for discriminating the data deviation  
 322 and then calculating the condition score at each timestamp. To eliminate the effect of different

323 variable dimensions, the scores are standardized [59], and calculated as follows:

$$324 \quad score = \frac{1}{D} \|x_t - \hat{x}_t\|_2 \quad (8)$$

325 When the dataset from a WT under normal operation is applied to train the model to calculate  
 326 the condition scores, the majority of scores are within a normal range. Hence, we introduce SPOT  
 327 to define the threshold, since neither manually pre-set threshold nor distributional assumption is  
 328 required in this method. We denote the obtained condition scores in the subsequence as  $C =$   
 329  $\{score_0, score_1, \dots, score_t, \dots, score_T\}$ , where  $T$  is the length of data and  $score_t$  represents  
 330 condition score at timestamp  $t$ . The SPOT is used to calculate the threshold  $th$ , ensuring the  
 331 probability that  $score_t > th$  is smaller than the given probability value  $q$  we have set, that is  
 332  $P(score_t > th) < q$ . In this paper, we set  $q = 0.001$ , an empirical value based on investigation  
 333 into the nature of the datasets. With the testing dataset, when  $score_t > th$ , the data are regarded as  
 334 abnormal, otherwise seen as normal. The predicted label describing the data condition can be  
 335 defined as  $Y' = \begin{cases} 1, & (score \geq th) \\ 0, & (score < th) \end{cases}$ .

336 Then we use DPs for the second discrimination of  $Y'$  in order to obtain the final binary  
 337 discrimination result of  $Y$ , thus improving the detection reliability. The detailed implementation  
 338 process of DPs is shown in **Figure 6**. We observe the predicted results through two designated  
 339 windows, namely, a voting area and an observation area, where the observation area contains several  
 340 voting areas. During the CM process, the window representing the observation area continuously  
 341 moves forward as time goes by. We denote the ratio of abnormal samples in each voting area as  $p$   
 342 ( $i$ -th voting area is denoted as  $p_i$ ). As shown in voting area ①, when  $p$  continuously increases to  
 343 above 90%, the samples in this voting area are adjusted to be abnormal. On the contrary, as shown  
 344 in voting area ②, when  $p$  continuously decreases to below 5%, the samples in this voting area are  
 345 adjusted to be normal, while the area without continuous change of  $p$  in the observation area is not  
 346 adjusted. This adjustment can avoid frequently repeated alarms in the voting area. In addition, after  
 347 the WT operation returns to normal, false alarms can be avoided, thus improving the reliability of  
 348 CM results for practical O&M arrangements.



349

350

**Figure 6 Use of delayed perception to reduce frequent alarms or false alarms**

## 351 4. Experiment results and analysis

### 352 4.1 Datasets

353 Different types of WTs (direct-driven or doubly-fed) or WTs installed in different locations  
 354 (mountainous or coastal) have great differences in data characteristics and high-risk components.  
 355 For example, the hub of the direct-driven WT is directly connected to the rotor of the generator

356 through rigid bearings; therefore, the hub speed is equal to the generator speed, which makes the  
 357 variables of pitch system closely related to the variables of the generator. For DFIG, the hub is  
 358 indirectly connected to the generator through the gearbox. Hence, the variables of the gearbox are  
 359 closely related to the variables of the generator and it is the gearbox that is a high-risk component  
 360 of failures in DFIGs.

361 Therefore, to evaluate the performance of the proposed method, the SCADA data from two  
 362 different wind farms with representative types of faults, i.e., pitch system fault for direct-driven WTs  
 363 and drivetrain bearing fault for DFIG WTs, are selected. These two wind farms are denoted as  $WF_1$   
 364 and  $WF_2$ , respectively. The wind farm  $WF_1$  is located in the southern coast of China, which  
 365 consists of 25 WTs with nominal power 2MW and DFIG. Having checked the onsite O&M records,  
 366 we select a WT with good operation condition and a WT with drivetrain bearing fault to build two  
 367 different datasets represented by  $WF_1 - WT_1$  (without abnormality) and  $WF_1 - WT_2$  (with  
 368 abnormality), respectively. The wind farm  $WF_2$  is located in the south-central hilly area of China,  
 369 which consists of 25 WTs with nominal power 2MW and direct-driven WT generators. We select a  
 370 WT with good operation condition and a WT with pitch system fault to build two different datasets  
 371 represented by  $WF_2 - WT_1$  (without abnormality) and  $WF_2 - WT_2$  (with abnormality), respectively.  
 372 The datasets in detail are given in **Table 1**. More physical descriptions of these faults are described  
 373 in subsequent case studies.

374 **Table 1 Datasets in detail**

Datasets	Samples	Anomaly ratio	Sampling intervals	Dimension (Monitoring parameters)	Location/Type	Description
$WF_1 - WT_1$	52790	-	10 minutes	9	Coast/DFIG	Without abnormality
$WF_1 - WT_2$	86829	7.3%	10 minutes	9	Coast/DFIG	Drivetrain bearing fault
$WF_2 - WT_1$	915000	-	1 second	32	Hill/Direct-driven	Without abnormality
$WF_2 - WT_2$	995800	7.5%	1 second	32	Hill/Direct-driven	Pitch system fault

## 375 4.2 Case studies

### 376 4.2.1 Case 1: main bearing fault

377 The main bearing is one of the most important components for DFIG-based WTs. Once the  
 378 abnormality of bearing occurs, the operating safety of WT will be seriously threatened. As shown  
 379 in **Figure 7**, the main bearing abnormalities mainly include bearing cage wear and deformation of  
 380 the ball. The continuous rotation of the main bearing causes the variety of bearing temperatures.  
 381 Under the normal condition, the temperatures at each location of bearing change with the rotating  
 382 speed; however, their changes are still maintained within a certain range. However, the situation  
 383 under abnormal operating conditions is different. Thus, as shown in **Table 2**, nine parameters were  
 384 selected among hundreds of SCADA parameters [60, 61], primarily because the rotating hub and  
 385 the rotor of the generator are connected through the gearbox, implying that the changes in the  
 386 temperature of main bearings are closely correlated to the speeds, ambient temperature, and active  
 387 powers. For instance, when the bearing cracks, the temperature difference between the front-end  
 388 and back-end of the gearbox may change greatly.



Figure 7 Physical photos of the drivetrain bearing fault

Table 2 SCADA parameters of bearing fault diagnosis in  $WF_1$

Location	Parameters	Unit
Weather station	Ambient temperature	°C
	Wind speed	m/s
Hub	Rotation speed	rpm
Generator	Active power at generator side	kW
	Active power at grid side	kW
Drivetrain	Bearing temperature 1 (middle in front-end)	°C
	Bearing temperature 2 (front-end)	°C
	Bearing temperature 3 (back-end)	°C
	Bearing temperature 4 (middle in back-end)	°C

Figure 8 and Figure 9 present CM results using the datasets  $WF_1 - WT_1$  and  $WF_1 - WT_2$ , respectively. Figure 8(a) and (b) show, under the normal conditions, that the actual value and reconstructed value almost coincide, and Figure 8(c) shows that the condition score maintains within the range of 0.01. This is because the model only uses the data under the normal conditions for training and learns the normal behavior of the WT, demonstrating the accuracy of the predicted model.

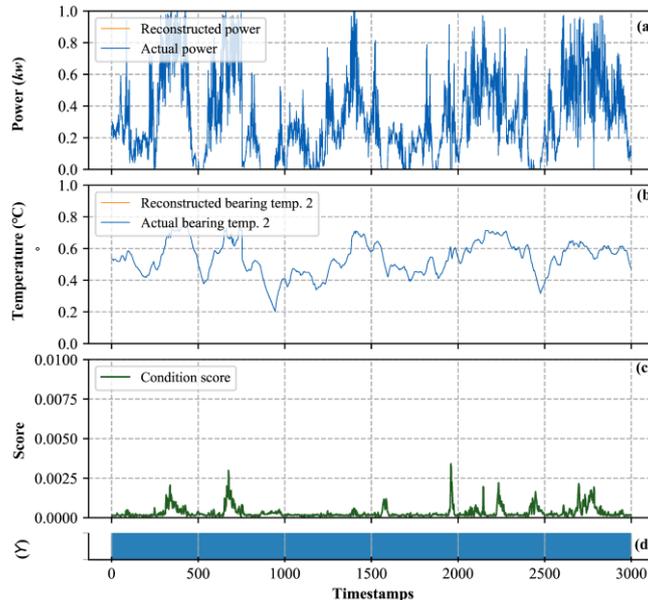
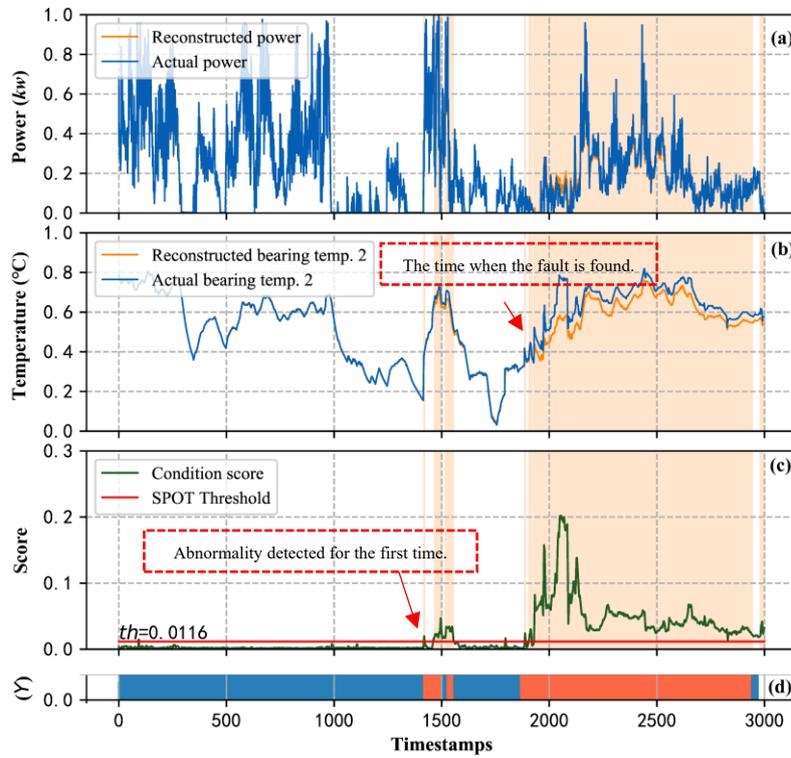


Figure 8 Abnormality detection results of the  $WF_1 - WT_1$

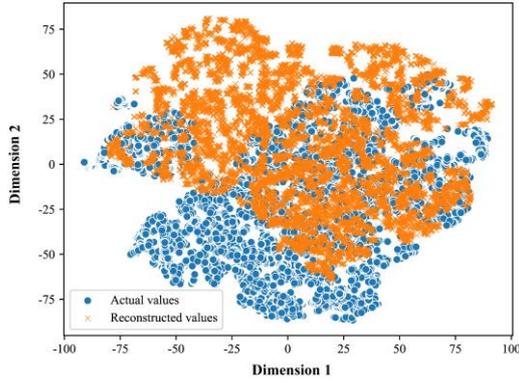
According to the maintenance records during the routine inspection, the O&M personnel detected a grease abnormality of the main bearing and smelled the stink produced due to bearing deformation at the timestamp 1900. However, there was no fault alarm because the value of temperature did not

403 exceed the alarm threshold set by the existing SCADA system. **Figure 9(a)** and **(b)** show the actual  
 404 value and reconstructed value for the active power and main bearing temperature 2, respectively.  
 405 The condition scores in **Figure 9(c)** show that the proposed algorithm is able to detect the  
 406 abnormality at the timestamp 1500, at which the WT was still generating power, showing that the  
 407 fault had not caused the WT to shut down. Then the condition score gradually increases until it fully  
 408 deviates from the original normal condition. Based on the initial value of the SPOT threshold  
 409 calculated using the dataset only containing health data, the threshold calculated using the testing  
 410 dataset becomes higher up to 0.0116, enabling to differentiate the condition scores from the two  
 411 datasets properly. It is noticed that in the early stage of fault occurrence, the incipient abnormality  
 412 results in the condition scores with certain fluctuations. As shown in **Figure 9(d)**, after the DPs  
 413 adjustment, the condition scores are adjusted to be anomalies near the timestamp 1500, which is  
 414 beneficial for the O&M personnel to be able to make decisions nearly 66 hours in advance about  
 415 maintenance plans for WTs.

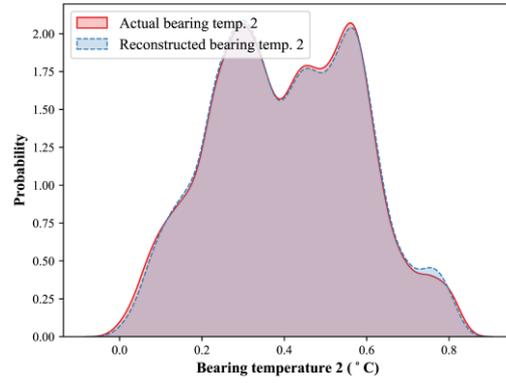


416  
417 **Figure 9** Fault detection results of the  $WF_1 - WT_2$

418 **Figure 10** and **Figure 11**, respectively, show the probability density distribution of actual value  
 419 and reconstructed value of  $WF_1 - WT_2$  within the normal and abnormal periods, where sub-figure (a)  
 420 shows the distribution of all parameters after dimension reduction by t-distributed stochastic  
 421 neighbor embedding (t-SNE) algorithm and sub-figure (b) shows the probability density distribution  
 422 of the main bearing temperature 2. The comparison of **Figure 10(a)** and **Figure 11 (a)** clearly shows  
 423 that our method fits the data well in normal conditions, while the distribution of the reconstructed  
 424 values deviates from the original distribution in abnormal conditions. As shown in **Figure 10(b)**,  
 425 under normal conditions, the main bearing temperature 2 is distributed in the range of 0 to 0.84°C.  
 426 However, within the abnormal conditions, as seen in **Figure 11(b)**, there are significant differences  
 427 in the temperature distributions, indicating the existence of abnormality. This is consistent with the  
 428 main bearing cracking discovered during the maintenance activities.

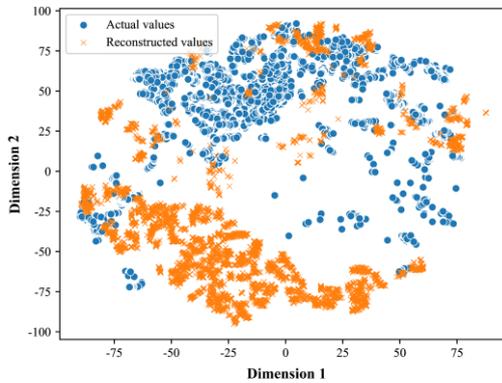


(a) t-SNE distribution of all parameters

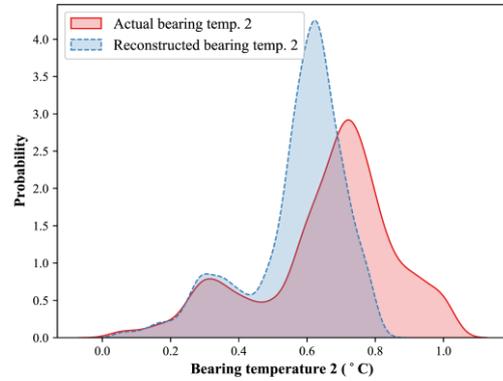


(b) Probability density distribution of main bearing temperatures

**Figure 10 The distribution of actual value and reconstructed value from  $WF_1 - WT_2$  under normal conditions**



(a) t-SNE distribution of all parameters



(b) Probability density distribution of main bearing temperatures

**Figure 11 The distribution of actual value and reconstructed value from  $WF_1 - WT_2$  under abnormal conditions**

#### 429 4.2.2 Case 2: pitch system fault

430 In this section, a CM case of direct-drive WT pitch system is presented. Because of the time-  
 431 varying nature of winds, the direct-drive WT needs to adjust the blade angle through the pitch system  
 432 to achieve a stable energy output. Once a pitch system fault occurs, as shown in **Figure 12**, the  
 433 common abnormalities include pitch-bearing cracks and bolt fractures. As shown in **Table 3**, thirty-  
 434 two parameters were selected among hundreds of SCADA parameters [62, 63], primarily because  
 435 the bearing cracking may lead to an increase in running resistance, which results in the deviation of  
 436 related pitch system parameters away from the original normal condition, such as the wide  
 437 fluctuations of pitch-motor currents and changes in pitch-motor temperatures and temperatures of  
 438 those components housed in the hub. At the same time, the failure of any blade bearing will cause  
 439 damage to the WT due to imbalance. Therefore, those parameters related to blades, such as blade  
 440 angles and nacelle vibrations are also important, along with the wind conditions and generator  
 441 operation parameters.

442



Figure 12 Physical photos of the pitch system fault

Table 3 SCADA parameters of the pitch system fault in  $WF_2$

Location	Parameters	Unit	Parameters	Unit
Weather station	Ambient temperature	°C	Wind direction	°
	Wind speed	m/s		
Hub	Rotation speed	rpm	Hub temperature	°C
	Pitch motor current 1	A	Angle of blade 1	°
	Pitch motor current 2	A	Angle of blade 2	°
	Pitch motor current 3	A	Angle of blade 3	°
	Pitch motor temperature of blade 1	°C	Pitch motor power 1	kW
	Pitch motor temperature of blade 2	°C	Pitch motor power 2	kW
	Pitch motor temperature of blade 3	°C	Pitch motor power 3	kW
	Battery temperature of blade 1	°C	Inverter temperature of blade 1	°C
	Battery temperature of blade 2	°C	Inverter temperature of blade 2	°C
Battery temperature of blade 3	°C	Inverter temperature of blade 3	°C	
Nacelle	Vibration x	m/s <sup>2</sup>	Hydraulic brake pressure	bar
	Vibration y	m/s <sup>2</sup>		
Generator	Active power at generator side	kW	Turbine state (e.g., startup, generation, and stop)	
	Active power at grid side	kW	Generator current	A
	Generator frequency	Hz	Generator torque	kNm

The CM results on the datasets  $WF_2 - WT_1$  and  $WF_2 - WT_2$  are respectively shown in Figure 13 and Figure 14. It can be seen from Figure 13 that under the normal condition, the actual value almost coincides with the reconstructed value, and the condition score maintains in the range of 0.04. Although there is a jump at the end of the condition score in Figure 13(c), it is still normal and within the allowable range. We can see clearly from Figure 13(a) that the actual power changes to zero at this time instant when the turbine shuts down, indicating that our method is still robust in dealing with such sudden changes in operations.

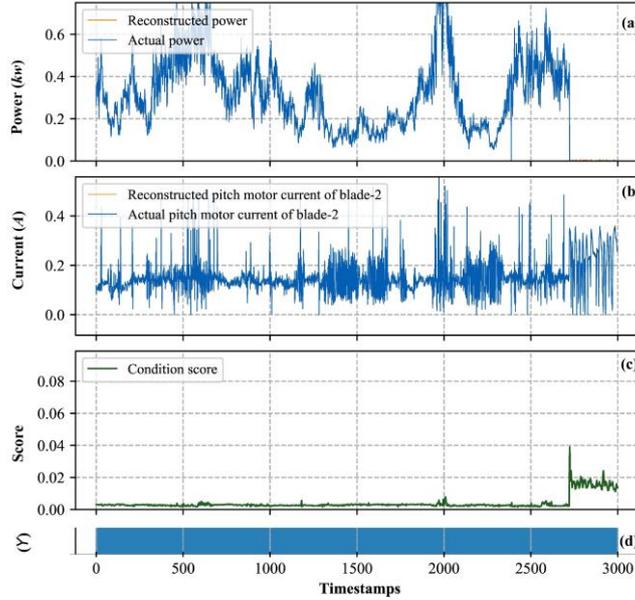


Figure 13 Abnormality detection result of the  $WF_2 - WT_1$

453

454

455 According to the maintenance records during the routine inspection, the maintenance personnel  
 456 detected a bolt fracture at the outer pitch bearing of blade-2 and a fracture at the location of the  
 457 bearing ball-plugging hole at timestamp 46800. By analyzing the data, it is found that the pitch  
 458 motor current of blade-2 is clearly higher than that of blade-1 and blade-3, and furthermore the  
 459 motor current presents large fluctuations at high frequencies, as can be seen in **Figure 14(b)**. However,  
 460 the SCADA system does not detect the abnormality. Instead, it only gives an alarm. The condition  
 461 score curve in **Figure 14(c)** shows that at timestamp 33800, the proposed algorithm has detected the  
 462 abnormalities above the threshold 0.1337 for several times, indicating that the pitch system fault  
 463 occurs at that moment. As shown in **Figure 14(d)**, after the DPs adjustment, the proposed CM method  
 464 identifies the fault occurrence 3.6 hours earlier. It is noteworthy that the threshold value of 0.1337  
 465 in this case is much higher than the threshold value of 0.0116 in case 1, indicating a decline in the  
 466 model's capacity in terms of fitting the normal data. This is primarily because the two cases work at  
 467 different sampling rates and with different number of parameters (9 for case 1 while 32 for case 2).  
 468 The maximum scores under abnormal conditions are also significantly different with 0.2 and 0.8 for  
 469 the two cases respectively. This shows that although the detection difficulty increases, the proposed  
 470 model still demonstrates good CM ability in dealing with the high-dimensional and complex  
 471 parameters.

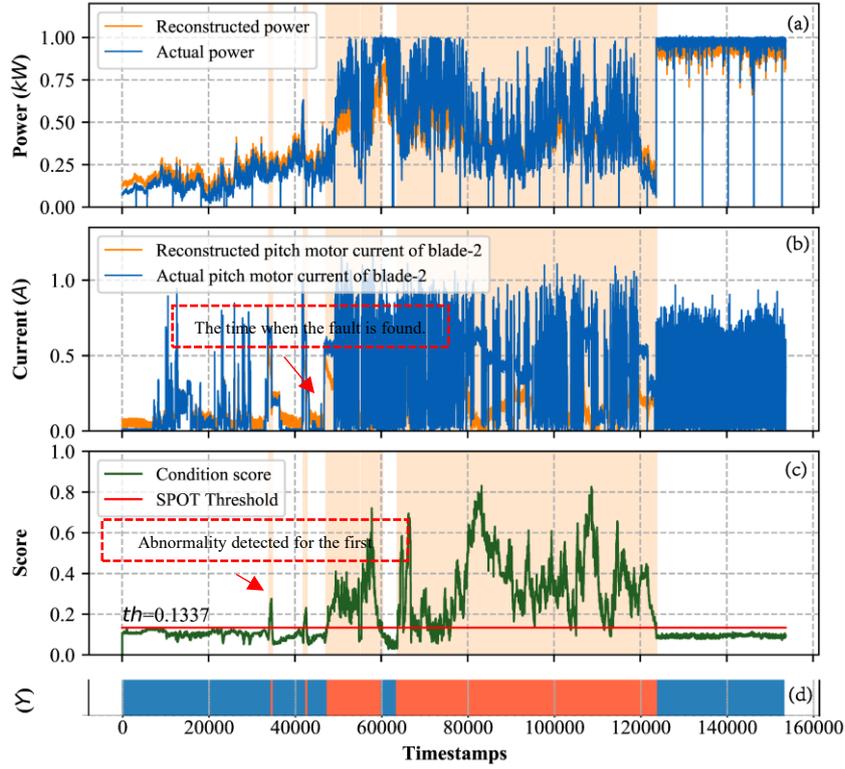
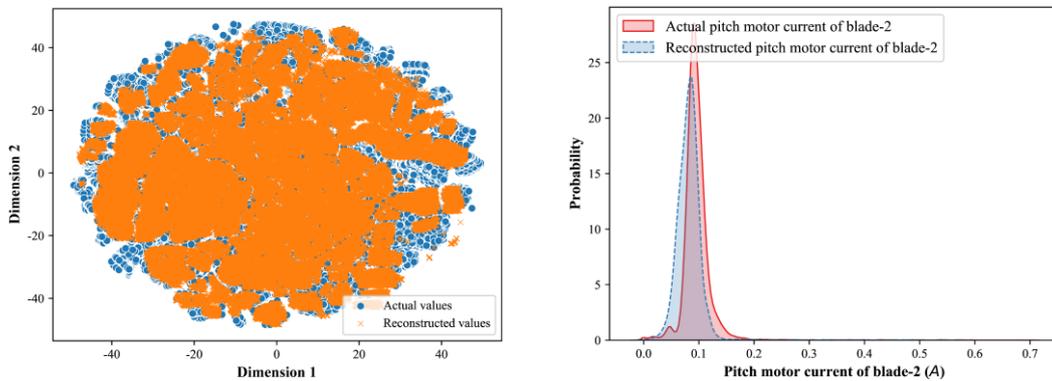


Figure 14 Fault detection result of the  $WF_2 - WT_2$

472  
473

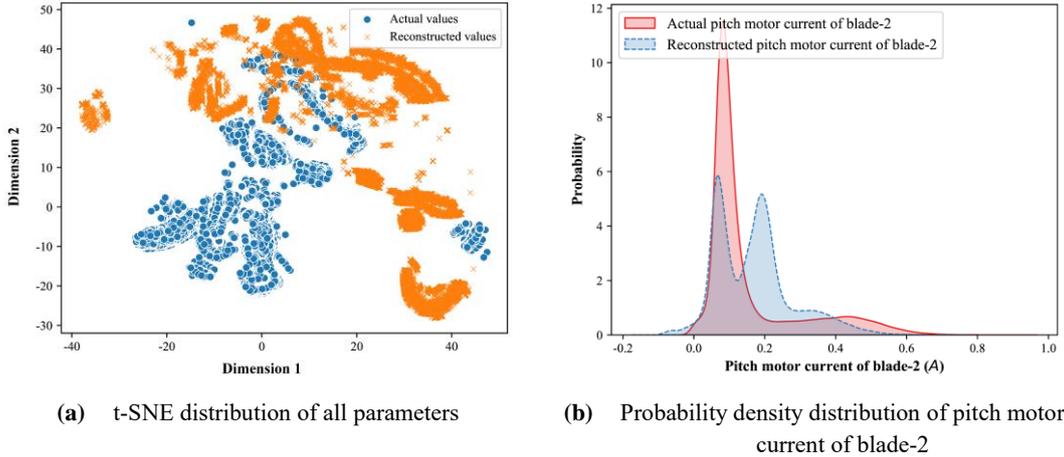
474 The probability density distribution of actual values and reconstructed values of  $WF_2 - WT_2$   
475 within the normal and abnormal periods are given in Figure 15 to Figure 16. As shown in Figure 15(a),  
476 under the normal condition, the distributions of actual values and reconstructed values of all selected  
477 32 parameters are consistent after t-SNE dimension reduction. Taking the pitch motor current of  
478 blade-2 as an example, it can be seen from Figure 15(b) that the current values of blade-2 are mainly  
479 distributed in the range of 0 to 0.2A, indicating that the proposed model has an accurate expression  
480 capability under the normal operation. However, within the abnormal period, Figure 16 shows the  
481 clear differences between the distributions of actual values and reconstructed values after t-SNE  
482 dimension reduction. The actual values of the pitch motor current of blade-2 are shifted to the range  
483 of 0 to 0.65A under the abnormal operation.



(a) t-SNE distribution of all parameters

(b) Probability density distribution of pitch motor current of blade-2

Figure 15 The distribution of actual value and reconstructed value from  $WF_2 - WT_2$  under normal conditions



**Figure 16 The distribution of actual value and reconstructed value from  $WF_2 - WT_2$  under abnormal conditions**

#### 484 4.2.3 Discussions of cases

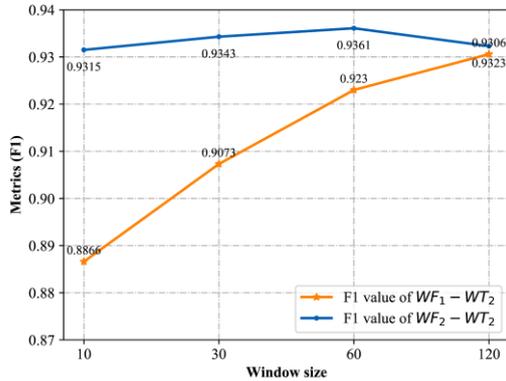
485 From the results of the above two representative cases, we can see that, the model proposed in  
 486 this paper can accurately detect the potential anomalies, although there exist large differences in  
 487 data in the wind farms due to the differences in turbine type, installation area, working environment,  
 488 fault type, and data collection frequency. For these cases, our methods can be adapted to the input  
 489 with variation in data dimension, which is significant for real-world WT condition monitoring,  
 490 because it is always hard to obtain the variables consistent with the faults. However, it is worth  
 491 noting that many variables may affect the accuracy of the prediction model due to data redundancy.  
 492 Moreover, different data collection frequency indicates the large differences in the contained  
 493 information. Use of the lower sampling frequency leads to domination of the trend-varying  
 494 information of the data, while use of the higher sampling frequency produces both low and high  
 495 frequency components of the data. Hence, when the data collection frequency is different, we need  
 496 to set different model hyper-parameters, mainly including sliding window length and number of  
 497 network layers.

#### 498 4.3 Hyperparameter effect on the model performance

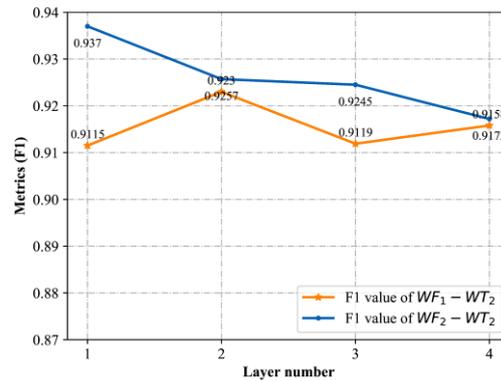
499 We have studied the effects of different parameters on model performance. Here, we take the  
 500 experimental results of the datasets  $WF_1 - WT_2$  and  $WF_2 - WT_2$  as examples to undertake the  
 501 performance analysis. It is hoped that the model can capture spatial-temporal features under normal  
 502 conditions as much as possible, thus providing an effective normal behavior model of the WT.  
 503 However, for abnormal data, the opposite properties are required, that is to say, it is better if the  
 504 reconstructed abnormal values deviate from the measured data. Therefore, the selection of  
 505 hyperparameters would be crucial for appropriate modelling. We mainly focus on the effect from  
 506 the number of layers of spatial-temporal feature extraction network composed of GAT and TCN and  
 507 the sliding window width on the model performance, because the number of BiLSTM layers is  
 508 found to have relatively little impact. Meanwhile,  $F1 = 2 \times \frac{Precision \times Recall}{Precision + Recall}$  is used to evaluate the  
 509 performance of the model, where  $Precision = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$ ,  $Recall = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$ .  $TP$ ,  $FP$  and  $FN$  refer to  
 510 true positives, false positives, and false negatives, respectively.

511 **Figure 17** and **Figure 18** show the effects of different sliding window widths and the number of  
 512 spatial-temporal network layers on  $F1$  score. For the  $WF_1 - WT_2$ , when the window width is 120,

513 F1 reaches 0.9306; however, when the window width is 10, F1 reduces to 0.8866. This is because a  
 514 longer time window contains more temporal features. It can be seen from **Figure 18** that F1 reaches  
 515 the optimal value 0.9257 when the number of network layer is 2. For the  $WF_2-WT_2$ , when the  
 516 window width is 60 and the number of network layer is 1, F1 reaches the optimal 0.9361 and 0.937,  
 517 respectively. F1 does not increase further with the increase of network layer number, indicating that  
 518 the number of network layer has little effect on the model performance. Note that the gradual  
 519 increase in network layer number clearly results in the increase in computation load and possibility  
 520 of the overfitting. Hence, in the practical applications, it is appropriate to select 1 to 2 layers of the  
 521 model. The parameter configuration of MSTFAN proposed in this paper is given in Table 4.  
 522



**Figure 17** Detection accuracy with different widths of the sliding window



**Figure 18** Detection accuracy with different layers of the proposed model

## 523 5. Performance comparison

524 To further verify the accuracy and effectiveness, the proposed MSTFAN method is compared  
 525 with TCN [58], LSTM, LSTM-VAE [64], CNN-LSTM and CNN-GRU [65]. All parameters of these  
 526 deep learning methods are kept to be consistent with the proposed MSTFAN method in this paper.  
 527 The TCN model is a 1-D dilated causal convolution-based model, which enables a better extraction  
 528 of spatial and temporal features from multivariate SCADA data. For the LSTM model, it is a 4-layer  
 529 LSTM network, a typical model for temporal feature extraction, which can capture potential  
 530 temporal dependency information from SCADA data. The LSTM-VAE-based model is used for  
 531 multimodal fault detection. The potential distribution of multivariate spatial-temporal signals is  
 532 modelled and then the information is reconstructed using the expected distribution. The CNN-  
 533 LSTM method performs similarly to the spatial-temporal feature extraction method proposed in this  
 534 paper, by utilizing the CNN network and LSTM network to extract spatial features and temporal  
 535 features, respectively. The CNN-GRU method performs similarly to CNN-LSTM since GRU is a  
 536 variant model of LSTM. Omitting the output gate in the model structure can make the number of  
 537 GRU parameters fewer, thus making the training easier.  
 538

539 **Table 4** Parameter configuration of MSTFAN

layer		Filter (Dropout)	Channels	Heads	Kernel (Strides)	Activation	Padding (Dilation)
Spatial network	GATConv		10/15	4	/	/	/
	Linear	64			/	/	/
	GATConv		10/15	4	/	/	/

	Linear	64	/	/	/	/	/
Temporal network	Conv1d	128 (20)	/	/	7 (1)	ReLU	6 (1)
	Conv1d	128 (20)	/	/	7 (1)	ReLU	6 (2)
Reconstruction network	BiLSTM	150 (20)	/	/	/	/	/
	Linear	10/15	/	/	/	/	/

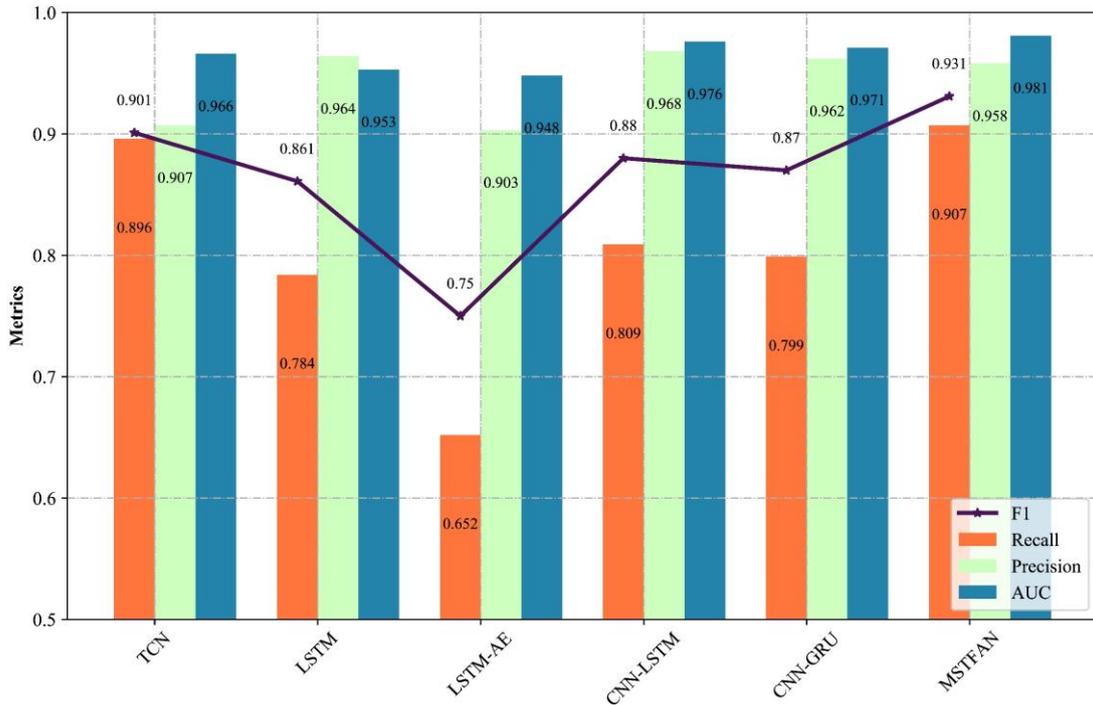
540 In addition, for all methods, the batch size is set to 128; the initial learning rate is 0.001; the  
541 maximum number of iterations is 100; and the early stopping mechanism is used to prevent the  
542 model from overfitting. To obtain a better convergence performance of the model,  
543 ReduceLROnPlateau, a kind of learning rate adjustment method based on epoch training times, is  
544 adopted for dynamic adjustment of learning rate. Meanwhile, *Precision (Pre.)*, *Recall (Rec.)*,  
545 *F1* and area under ROC curve (AUC) are used as evaluation indexes. Here the receiver operating  
546 characteristic (ROC) curve is a graphical plot that illustrates the diagnostic ability of a binary  
547 classifier system as its discrimination threshold is varied.

548 **Table 5 Performance comparison of all methods for  $WF_1$  and  $WF_2$**

Methods	$WF_1-WT_2$				$WF_2-WT_2$				Average			
	F1	Pre.	Rec.	AUC	F1	Pre.	Rec.	AUC	F1	Pre.	Rec.	AUC
TCN	0.879	0.862	0.898	0.949	0.922	0.952	0.894	0.983	0.901	0.907	0.896	0.966
LSTM	0.820	0.970	0.713	0.925	0.903	0.958	0.854	0.982	0.861	0.964	0.784	0.953
LSTM-AE	0.719	0.837	0.642	0.930	0.781	<b>0.968</b>	0.661	0.966	0.750	0.903	0.652	0.948
CNN-LSTM	0.893	0.971	0.827	0.970	0.868	0.964	0.791	0.982	0.880	<b>0.968</b>	0.809	0.976
CNN-GRU	0.848	<b>0.972</b>	0.756	0.964	0.892	0.953	0.842	0.978	0.870	0.962	0.799	0.971
MSTFAN (proposed)	<b>0.931</b>	0.963	<b>0.900</b>	<b>0.980</b>	<b>0.932</b>	0.953	<b>0.913</b>	<b>0.983</b>	<b>0.931</b>	0.958	<b>0.907</b>	<b>0.981</b>

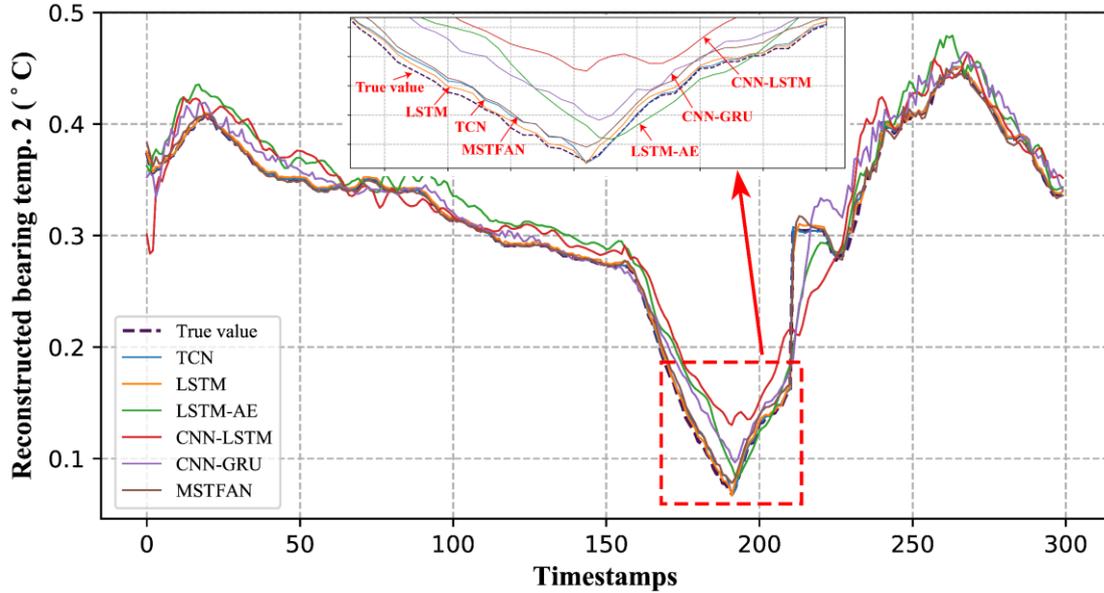
549 **Table 5** shows the performance of all methods against these two datasets  $WF_1 - WT_2$  and  $WF_2 - WT_2$ .  
550 Figure 19 graphically illustrates the performance comparison of the results from all the models  
551 investigated, where the optimal performance of the metric is shown in bold. It can be seen that the  
552 overall performances in terms of F1 and AUC are 0.931 and 0.981, respectively, which are produced  
553 from MSTFAN. The proposed MSTFAN is more optimal than those other methods, indicating that  
554 MSTFAN can effectively capture the complex spatial-temporal features of multivariate SCADA  
555 data and has a better generalization performance. Notably, the recall of MSTFAN is 0.907, which is  
556 also more optimal than other models. High recall indicates the model has a higher true negatives  
557 (TN) value, meaning that the model has a higher detection accuracy for abnormal data. This would  
558 be essential for fault detection. Furthermore, CNN-LSTM and CNN-GRU also present good  
559 performances whose AUC values are over 0.970; however, their average F1 (0.880 and 0.870,  
560 respectively) is still lower than that of the MSTFAN, and even worse than that of the TCN prediction  
561 network alone. It indicates that although CNN has a good local feature extraction capability, its  
562 ability to extract temporal correlations is weak when compared with the TCN. Meanwhile, CNN  
563 deals with problems under the Euclidean space, which may not be enough for complex multivariate  
564 time series data. We also notice that the average F1 of LSTM-AE is only 0.750, which is the worst  
565 performance in all models. This may be caused by abnormal patterns due to the trend anomaly of  
566 the variables and correlation anomaly among the variables. The AE-based methods use the  
567 reconstruction error to achieve the condition monitoring; however, sometimes the abnormal patterns  
568 may be allowed to be reconstructed. This fully illustrates the importance that the MSTFAN adopts  
569 the graph attention network to model specifically the spatial correlation of multivariate data, thus

570 improving the detection accuracy.  
 571



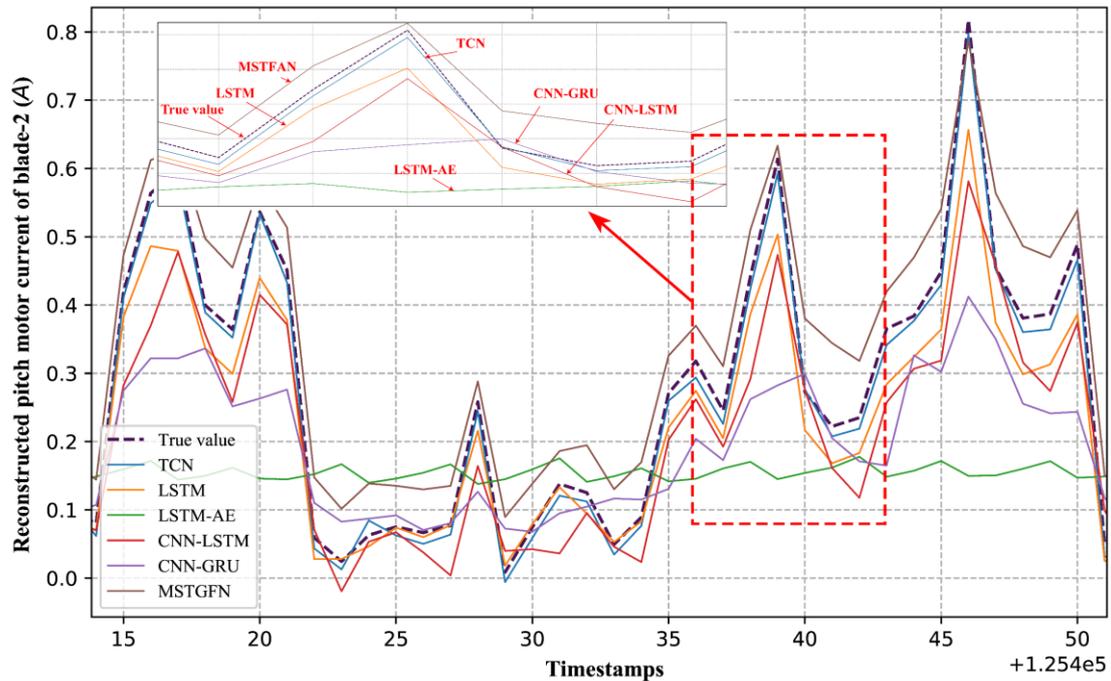
572 **Figure 19 Performance comparison of the average results of different methods**  
 573

574 **Figure** and **Figure** show the comparison of the actual and reconstructed values, taking main  
 575 bearing temperature 2 from  $WF_1 - WT_2$  and pitch motor current of blade-2 from  $WF_2 - WT_2$  as  
 576 examples. It can be seen that the proposed MSTFAN method has the best performances, although  
 577 TCN and LSTM both present comparable fitting effect for the normal data. CNN-LSTM and CNN-  
 578 GRU do not manifest perfect effects, possibly because these two methods only consider spatial  
 579 correlation at the front-end of network while ignoring temporal correlation of data at the back-end  
 580 of network. Moreover, although LSTM and TCN networks have good fitting effects on the normal  
 581 state of WTs, it can be seen from **Figure** that the values of F1 and AUC are relatively low. This  
 582 indicates that network over-fitting may happen, which is disadvantageous to fault detection. The  
 583 above analyses verify the necessity of spatial-temporal feature extraction from SCADA data by  
 584 combining graph network and temporal network. Meanwhile, the use of BiLSTM network has  
 585 further improved the extraction ability of the model due to long-term dependency correlation of  
 586 temporal data, making the proposed MSTFAN achieve an optimal performance in terms of accuracy  
 587 and generalization.



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Figure 20 Comparison of the actual value and reconstructed value for main bearing temperature 2 of  $WF_1 - WT_2$



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Figure 21 Comparison of the actual value and reconstructed value for pitch motor current of blade-2 of  $WF_2 - WT_2$

## 595 6. Conclusions

596 A novel approach is proposed for fault detection of WTs based on spatial-temporal information  
597 aggregation in this paper. It combines a graph neural network with a temporal convolution neural  
598 network to extract simultaneously spatial features and temporal features from multivariate SCADA  
599 data. A reconstruction network by means of BiLSTM network is utilized to capture the bi-directional  
600 information dependence to achieve an optimal prediction accuracy for the normal operation

601 conditions of WTs. Furthermore, a condition scoring method is proposed based on reconstruction  
602 error, and DPs is further designed to improve the detection reliability for the early warning of the  
603 faults. The experimental results demonstrate that the proposed MSTFAN model can effectively  
604 detect early WT faults and be convenient for users to detect anomalies in the condition monitoring  
605 of real-world WTs. For future studies, the detection accuracy and generalization capability of the  
606 model need to be optimized further by the proper selection of monitoring parameters. Moreover,  
607 practical data with more extensive fault cases should be collected for training and verifying the  
608 model to improve the robustness of the approach.

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