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# Journal of Ocean Engineering and Technology

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## GENERAL INFORMATION

The “**Journal of Ocean Engineering and Technology**” (JOET) was launched in 1987 and is published bimonthly in February, April, June, August, October, and December each year by “The Korean Society of Ocean Engineers (KSOE).” Its ISO abbreviation is “J. Ocean Eng. Technol.” JOET publishes original research articles, technical articles, and review articles on all aspects of ocean engineering, including experimental, theoretical, numerical, and field observations. All manuscripts undergo peer-review by two or more reviewers.

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# Study on the Development of the Maneuvering Mathematical Model Considering the Large Angle Motion of Submarine

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**KEYWORDS:** Submarine, Large motion, CFD, Maneuvering, Mathematical model

**ABSTRACT:** Maneuverability is a crucial factor for the safety and success of submarine missions. This paper introduces a mathematical model that considers the large drift and angle of attack motions of submarines. Various computational fluid dynamics (CFD) simulations were performed to adapt Karasuno's fishery vessel maneuvering mathematical model to submarines. The study also presents the procedure for obtaining the physics-based hydrodynamic coefficients proposed by Karasuno through CFD calculations. Based on these coefficients, the reconstructed forces and moments were compared with those obtained from CFD and to the hydrodynamic derivatives expressed by a Taylor expansion. The study also discusses the mathematical maneuvering model that accounts for the large drift angles and angles of attack of submarines. The comparison results showed that the proposed maneuvering mathematical model based on modified Karasuno's model could cover a large range of motions, including horizontal motion and vertical motions. In particular, the results show that the physics-based mathematical maneuvering model can represent the forces and moments acting on the submarine hull during large drift and angle of attack motions. The proposed mathematical model based on the Karasuno model could obtain more accurate results than the Taylor third-order approximation-based mathematical model in estimating the hydrodynamic forces acting on submarines during large drift and angle of attack motions.

## 1. Introduction

In the design of submarines, frequent reviews are conducted regarding the hydrodynamic characteristics acting on the hull. A review of the hydrodynamic characteristics may include speed performance, maneuverability, and exceptional purpose performance. Generally, shipyards and research institutions worldwide have accumulated data (model tests, sea trials, and numerical analysis) based on their technology, research, development, and experience in surface ships for an extended period. These data are used frequently in the initial and detailed design of surface ships. On the other hand, in the case of submarines, unlike in surface ships, only a minimal amount of model test data, sea trial data, and numerical analysis data can be relied upon. This situation is also characterized by significantly reduced accessibility. Furthermore, in the case of submarines, the maneuvering performance in underwater operation is mentioned as an important factor closely related to submarine construction. In particular,

submarines require considering the maneuvering performance for six degrees of freedom (DOF) of the hull, which makes it more challenging to deal with than maneuvering surface ships.

Thus far, the performance estimation of submarine maneuverability has followed the same procedure (using the mathematical model of maneuvering motion based on captive model tests) as that used in surface ships, but the complexity of the procedure must be considered as the degree of freedom of the considered maneuvering increases.

On the other hand, a representative method of estimating maneuvering performance using the six degrees of freedom (hereinafter 6DOF) maneuvering mathematical model proposed by Gertler and Hagen (1967) and Feldman (1979) is to use the mathematical model-based methods for submarine maneuvering. Generally, in methods based on mathematical models, it is essential to obtain hydrodynamic derivatives, which are the hydrodynamic forces included in the mathematical model. In the case of submarines, it is also essential to obtain hydrodynamic forces acting on the hull

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using the same approach. Several methods of captive model tests, theoretical calculations, and empirical equations are used to obtain hydrodynamic derivatives that act on the hull during submarine maneuvering. On the other hand, captive model tests are mainly used for submarines. Nevertheless, these mathematical model-based maneuvering performance estimation methods are mainly for the 6DOF motion of the general submarine (hereafter normal motion), and it is difficult to apply them to emergency rising motion, one of the special maneuvers of submarines (hereafter excessive motion).

Generally, the mathematical models used to represent the hydrodynamic forces included in the equations of motion of a submarine in normal motion use Taylor's third-order approximation expression for a multivariate function with the motion states of a submarine as variables. These mathematical models are represented considering the accuracy and complexity of the equations, based on the assumption that submarine motion is not excessive. On the other hand, the assumption that submarine motion is not excessive is no longer valid, and Taylor's third-order approximation expression is no longer valid when the submarine performs low-speed or emergency maneuvers. Hence, if the terms of Taylor's approximation are extended to higher-order terms of the third order, the expression for the hydrodynamic forces becomes more complex, and the expression becomes even more complicated because the six-degrees-of-freedom motion must be considered. Therefore, studies have been conducted to represent hydrodynamic forces more concisely and reflect physical phenomena more rigorously. Hooft (1994) proposed a mathematical model that separates the hydrodynamic forces acting on the surface ship hull into linear and nonlinear terms and expresses the linear term based on slender body theory and the nonlinear term based on cross-flow drag based on the drag coefficient when the yaw angle is 90°. Bohlmann (1990) proposed a similar mathematical model proposed by Hooft for submarines. Shin et al. (2005) applied the same mathematical model as Bohlmann (1990) to submarines and validated the proposed mathematical model using theoretical equations for various submarines. Furthermore, Watt (2007) proposed a mathematical model that includes a Fourier series form of a multivariable function representing the hydrodynamic forces acting on a submarine when it moves at various angles based on a mathematical model similar to Gertler and Hargen (1976). Park et al. (2017) proposed a mathematical model that uses a polynomial function form of a multivariable function instead of a Fourier series form, similar to Watt (2007) model. Although the mathematical models proposed by Watt (2007) and Park et al. (2017) considered the behavior of submarines at various angles, they have limitations in that they do not consider large-angle motions.

Karasuno et al. (1991, 1992) proposed a new mathematical model for maneuvering a fishing vessel with a large drift maneuvering motion. The mathematical model suggested by Karasuno et al. is composed of fluid dynamic coefficients commonly used in aerodynamics (such as lift and drag coefficients) and cross-flow drag coefficients. Karasuno et al.'s research presents results that can express various maneuvering motions, including forward, backward, and large turning motions of a

fishing vessel. The mathematical model proposed by Karasuno et al. does not use complex coefficients and has the advantage of incorporating physical meaning into the coefficients and describing turning motion using the hydrodynamic coefficients obtained from the drift motion. Therefore, this study examined the applicability of the mathematical model proposed by Karasuno et al. for a submarine and proposed a mathematical model applicable to a submarine. Chapter 2 introduces the 6DOF maneuvering equations of a submarine and the hydrodynamic mathematical model proposed by Karasuno. In Chapter 3, large drift angle and angle of attack calculations are performed on horizontal and vertical planes using computational fluid dynamics (CFD) for the MARIN BB2. Chapter 4 confirms the utility of the mathematical model by deriving the hydrodynamic coefficients proposed by Karasuno et al. from these calculations and comparing them with the calculation results of the existing Taylor 3<sup>rd</sup> approximation formula.

## 2. Mathematical Model for the Maneuvering Motion of Submarine

### 2.1 6DOF Maneuvering Equation of Motion for Submarine

Assuming a submarine as a rigid body and symmetric about the  $x$ - $z$  plane, the 6DOF maneuvering equation of motion for the submarine can be expressed as Eqs. (1)–(6) using Newton's equations of motion, with a coordinate system fixed to a submarine as shown in Fig. 1 (Sohn et al., 2006).

Each force and moment includes the hull, propeller, elevator and stern plane, and hydrostatic forces, and the superscripts  $\dot{\cdot}$  and  $G$  indicate differentiation with respect to time and the center of gravity, respectively. As mentioned in the introduction, the forces and moments on the left-hand side of Eqs. (1)–(6) can be expressed using the equations proposed by Gertler and Hargen (1967) or Kim et al. (2021). As stated previously, this study proposes a mathematical model using a new approach for these external forces and validates the model accuracy. This study investigated the applicability of Karasuno et al.'s mathematical model to submarines.

$$X = m\{\dot{u} + qw - ru - x_G(q^2 + r^2) + z_G(p\dot{r} + \dot{q})\} \quad (1)$$

$$Y = m\{\dot{v} + ru - pw + z_G(q\dot{r} - \dot{p}) + x_G(q\dot{p} + \dot{r})\} \quad (2)$$

$$Z = m\{\dot{w} + pv - qu - z_G(p^2 + q^2) + x_G(rp - \dot{q})\} \quad (3)$$

$$K = I_{xx}\dot{p} + (I_{zz} - I_{yy})qr - m\{z_G(\dot{v} + ru - pw) + x_G z_G(p\dot{q} + \dot{r})\} \quad (4)$$

$$M = I_{yy}\dot{q} + (I_{xx} - I_{zz})rp + m\{z_G(\dot{u} + qw - ru) - x_G(\dot{w} + pv - qu) + x_G z_G(p^2 - r^2)\} \quad (5)$$

$$N = I_{zz}\dot{r} + (I_{yy} - I_{xx})pq + m\{x_G(\dot{v} + ru - pw) + z_G x_G(r\dot{q} - \dot{p})\} \quad (6)$$

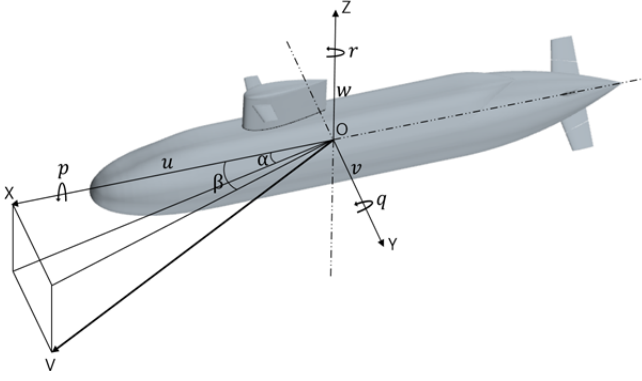


Fig. 1 Coordinate system

## 2.2 Physical-Based Hydrodynamic Model (Karasuno Model)

Karasuno et al. separated the hydrodynamic forces acting on the hull in a situation where the submarine is moving (Fig. 2) into seven elements: Munk moment, lift, drag, cross-flow lift, cross-flow drag, frictional force, and correction force due to the stall.

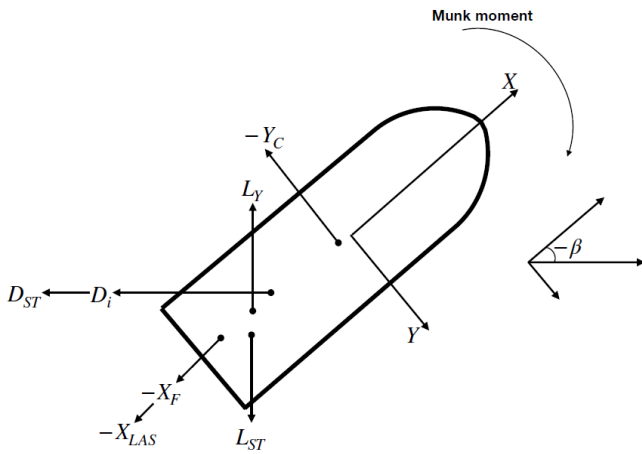


Fig. 2 Components of the hydrodynamic forces and moment proposed by Karasuno et al. (1991, 1992)

Table 1 lists the seven elements that make up the mathematical model proposed by Karasuno et al. (1991, 1992)

In the formulae presented in Table 1, the symbol ' represents a non-dimensional value;  $u$  and  $v$  represent the longitudinal velocity and the transverse velocity, respectively;  $U$  represents the total speed of the submarine;  $m$  and  $m'$  represent mass and transverse addedmass, respectively;  $L_{pp}$  represents the length of the hull;  $\Delta C_L$  and  $\Delta C_{Di}$  represent the lift and drag correction coefficients due to stall, respectively;  $C_L$  and  $C_{Di}$  represent the lift and drag coefficients;  $C_{D90}$  represents the cross-flow drag coefficient;  $C_F$  is the friction coefficient;  $m_0$  and  $m_1$  represent the area and first moment of the lateral projection of the body center, respectively. Using the seven elements in Table 1, the force and moment acting on the body can be expressed as Eqs. (7)–(9).

$$X' = C_L \cdot u' \cdot v' - C_{Di} \cdot u'^3 \cdot v'^2 - (\Delta C_L u' \cdot v'^2 - \Delta C_{Di} u'^3 \cdot v'^2) - C_{LAS} \cdot v'^2 - C_F \cdot |u'| \cdot u' \quad (7)$$

$$Y' = C_L \cdot u'^2 \cdot v' - C_{Di} \cdot u'^2 \cdot v'^3 - C_{D90} \cdot m'_0 \cdot (1 + p \cdot \cos^2 \beta) \cdot v'^3 \quad (8)$$

$$N = (m'_x - m'_y) \cdot u' v' - C_L l'_{v0} \cdot u'^2 \cdot v' - C_{Di} \cdot l'_{i0} \cdot u'^2 \cdot v'^3 - C_{D90} \cdot m'_1 \cdot (1 + p \cdot \cos^2 \beta) \cdot v'^3 \quad (9)$$

Here, where  $l'_{v0}$  and  $l'_{i0}$  represent the lever moment's lever due to because the lift and drag forces, respectively, and  $(1 + p \cdot \cos^2 \beta)$  is a term introduced to correct the cross-flow drag. Eqs. (7)–(9) represents the hydrodynamic forces and moment acting on the hull, and to use it in the equations of motion, it is necessary to obtain the seven elements that make up in Eqs. (7)–(9) to use it in the equations of motion. To obtain each element, Karasuno et al. proposed an analysis procedure using a fishing vessel as the target ship to obtain each element, as described listed in Table 2.

Table 1 Detailed information for each element of hydrodynamic force and moment from Karasuno's mathematical model

Component force or moment	Mathematical expression
Munk moment	$(m'_x - m'_y) u' v'$
Lift	$L_v = \frac{1}{2} \rho L_{pp} d U^2 C_L' u' v'$
Drag	$D_i = \frac{1}{2} \rho L_{pp} d U^2 C_{Di}' u'^2 v'^2$
Cross-flow drag	$Y_c = \frac{1}{2} \rho L_{pp} d U^2 C_{D90} m'_0 v'^3, N_c = \frac{1}{2} \rho L_{pp}^2 d U^2 C_{D90} m'_1 v'^3$
Cross-flow lift	$X_{LAS} = \frac{1}{2} \rho L_{pp} d U^2 C_{LAS}' v'^2$
Friction	$X_F = \frac{1}{2} \rho L_{pp} d U^2 C_F'  u'  u'$
Correction force for stall effect	$(L_{ST}' + D_{ST}')_x = -\Delta C_L' u' v'^2 + \Delta C_{Di}' u'^3 v'^2$

**Table 2** Analysis procedure for obtaining the hydrodynamic coefficient of Karasuno’s model

Hydrodynamic coefficients	Descriptions
$C_{D90} \cdot m_0', C_{D90} \cdot m_1'$	When drift angle $\beta = 90^\circ$ , obtaining $C_{D90} \cdot m_0'$ and $C_{D90} \cdot m_1'$ from $u' = 0, v' = 1$ and the experiment or calculation ( $Y'$ and $N'$ )
$C_L', C_L' \cdot l_{vo}'$	When drift angle $\beta = 0^\circ-30^\circ$ , obtaining $C_L'$ after removing known terms ( $C_{D90} \cdot m_0'$ ) from the experiment or calculation ( $Y'$ and $N'$ ) by using least square method
$C_{Di}', C_{Di}' \cdot l_{i0}', p$	When drift angle $\beta = 0^\circ-90^\circ$ , obtaining $C_{Di}'$ after removing known terms ( $C_{D90} \cdot m_0', C_L'$ ) from the experiment or calculation ( $Y'$ and $N'$ ) by using least square method
$C_F', C_{LAS}'$	When drift angle $\beta = 0^\circ$ , obtaining $C_F'$ (=Resistance coefficient) and when drift angle $\beta = 90^\circ$ , obtaining $C_{LAS}'$ after removing known terms ( $C_{D90} \cdot m_0', C_L', C_{Di}'$ and $C_F'$ ) from the experiment or calculation ( $X'$ ) by using the least square method
$\Delta C_L', \Delta C_{Di}'$	When drift angle $\beta = 0^\circ-90^\circ$ , obtaining $\Delta C_L'$ and $\Delta C_{Di}'$ after removing known terms obtained from previous procedures from the experiment or calculation ( $X'$ ) by using the least square method
$L_{ST} + D_{ST}$	When drift angle $\beta = 0^\circ-30^\circ$ , obtaining $L_{ST} + D_{ST}$ after removing known terms obtained from previous procedures from the experiment or calculation by using the least square method

### 3. Numerical Analysis

#### 3.1 Numerical Method

Chapter 2 introduced the physics-based mathematical model proposed by Karasuno et al. to estimate the hydrodynamic forces for the six degrees of freedom motion of a submarine at large angles of attack in detail. As previously mentioned, model tests or numerical calculations are necessary to obtain the hydrodynamic forces suggested in the Karasuno model. For submarines, however, facilities capable of performing model tests for large drift angle motions (or large angle of attack motion) are rare compared to surface ships. Furthermore, this study presents a methodology for reconstructing the hydrodynamic forces based on the proposed mathematical model using information obtained from model tests or numerical calculations. Therefore, this study performed numerical analysis using CFD instead of model tests. The commercial CFD software STAR-CCM+ was used for the numerical analysis, and Table 3 lists the basic numerical techniques used in this study. In addition, all forces and moments in

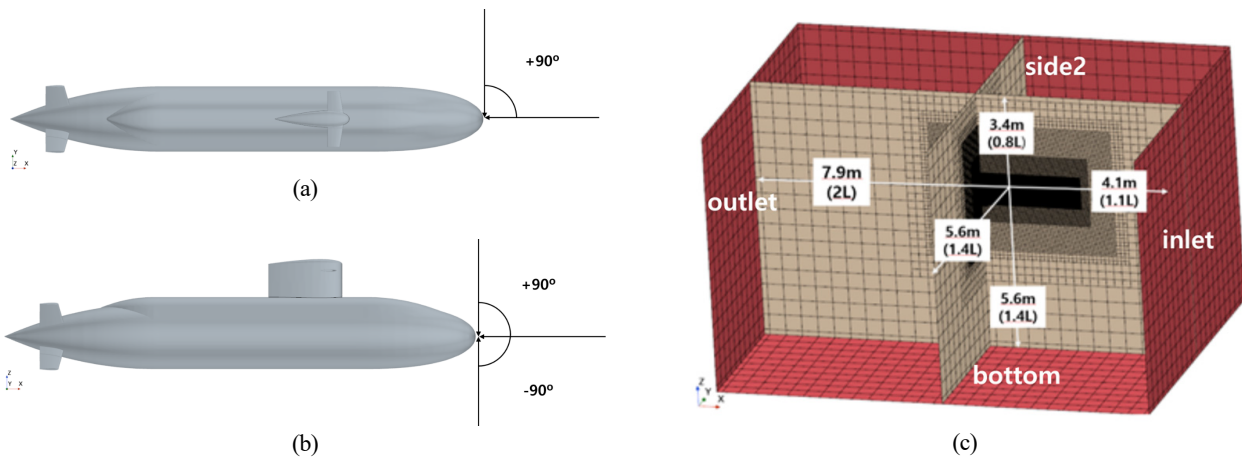
this study were non-dimensionalized using Eq. (10).

$$F' = \frac{F}{0.5\rho L^2 V^2}, M = \frac{M}{0.5\rho L^3 V^2} \quad (10)$$

MARIN BB2 in Table 4 was selected as a target ship, and CFD analysis was performed with the conditions listed in Table 5 and shown in Fig. 3.

**Table 3** Numerical setup

Item	Description
Code	STAR-CCM+ V.16
Turbulence model	Reynolds Stress model
Temporal / Convection term	Backward / 2 <sup>nd</sup> order upwind
Grid type	Unstructured grid (Trimmer)
Pressure-Velocity coupling	Unsteady SIMPLE



**Fig. 3** Calculation conditions for the CFD calculation: (a) Definition of flow direction for horizontal motion; (b) Definition of flow direction for vertical motion; (c) Layout of the domain for CFD calculations



**Table 4** Main particulars of MARIN BB2

Vessel	Full scale	Model scale
Lpp (m)	70.2	3.826
Breadth (m)	9.6	0.5232
Draft to deck (m)	10.6	0.5777
Displacement (m <sup>3</sup> )	4440	0.7012
LCG from nose	32.31	1.761
VCG from kell	4.90	0.267
Scale Ratio	1	18.348

**Table 5** Conditions for CFD calculation

Motion	Velocity (m/s)	Drift angle (interval: 10°)	Angle of attack
Horizontal	1.2009	0°–90°	0°
Vertical	1.2009	0°	-90° to 90° (interval: 10°)

### 3.2 Calculation Results for Horizontal Static Drift and Vertical Static Angle of Attack Motion

Fig. 4(a) shows the calculation results for the horizontal static motion. The longitudinal force (in green), lateral force (in orange), and pitching moment (in blue) increase as the yaw angle increases according to Fig. 4. On the other hand, the longitudinal and lateral forces decreased around yaw angles of 75° and 60°. The pitching moment reached a maximum around the yaw angle of 50° and then decreased. In the case of horizontal static motion, only the yaw angles from 0° to 90° were calculated because the submarine shape is symmetric, and they did not consider the astern motion. The lateral force decreased due to the strong backflow caused by the flow separation from the submarine sail and hull after the yaw angle of 60°, and the pitching moment also decreased due to the same effect (Choi, 2023).

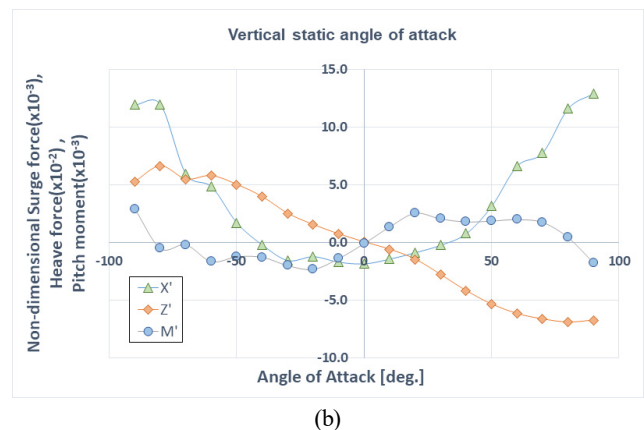
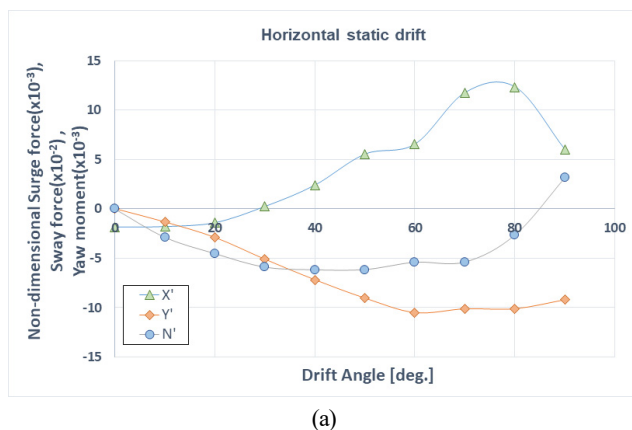
Fig. 4(b) shows the calculation results for the vertical static angle of attack motion. As shown in Fig. 4, the longitudinal force (in green),

vertical force (in orange), and pitching moment (in blue) increase as the angle of attack increases. On the other hand, the vertical force decreased around the trim angle of 80°. The pitching moment reached its maximum around the angle attack of 20° before decreasing slightly between 20° and 50° and then increased again around 60° before decreasing. In addition, complex flow patterns were formed for a negative angle of attack as the flow passing through the hull encounters the sail, leading to different characteristics than the positive angle of attack and showing asymmetry in force and moment (Choi, 2023).

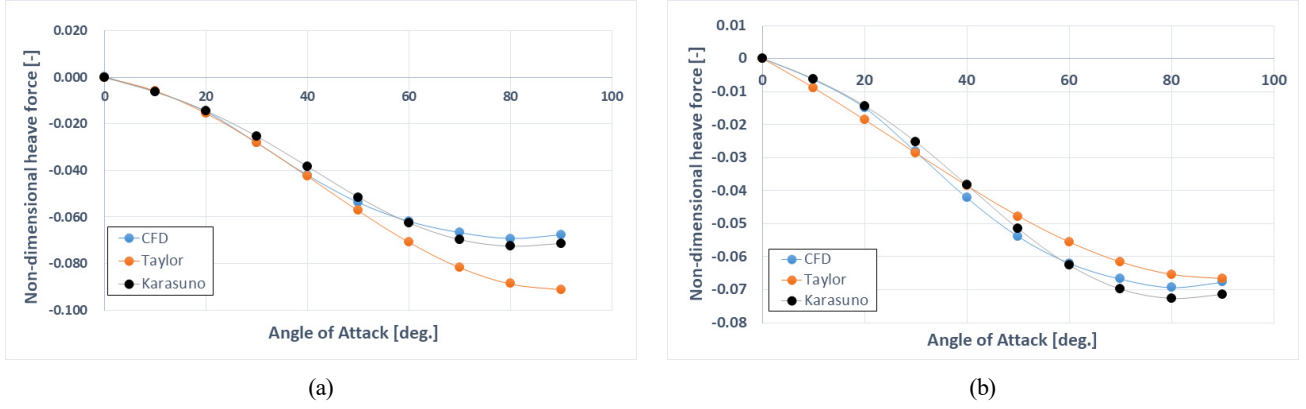
## 4. Discussion

Fig. 5 compares the reconstructed vertical force (Karasuno, black) using the hydrodynamic coefficients obtained from the procedure described in Table 2 and the vertical force obtained by Taylor third-order approximation ( $Z = Z_w' \cdot w + Z_{www}' \cdot w^3$ ) with the CFD result (blue). In Fig. 5(a), the coefficients for constructing Taylor third-order approximation (Taylor, orange) were obtained from the CFD values in the range of negative angles ( $\alpha = 0^\circ - 20^\circ$ ) and used to predict the large angle values. In Fig. 5(b), the coefficients were obtained from the CFD values in the range of the large angles ( $\alpha = 0^\circ - 90^\circ$ ) and used to predict large angle values.

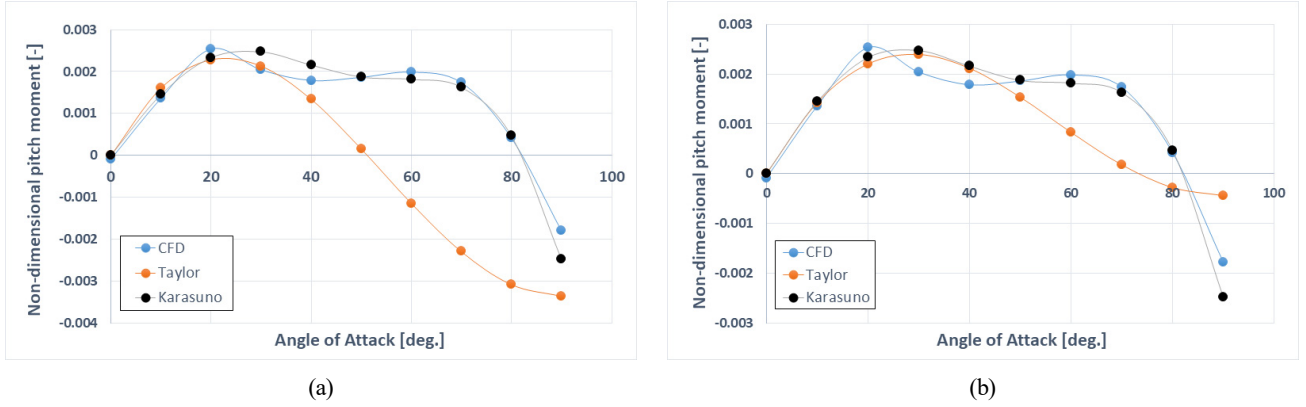
First, the reconstructed lateral force using the Karasuno model generally reproduced the CFD results well. On the other hand, the mathematical model using Taylor third-order approximation showed relatively good results up to an angle of attack of 50°, but it failed to reproduce the CFD values from an angle of attack of 60° and above. Moreover, although the mathematical model using Taylor third-order approximation generally reflects the trends of the CFD results, a significant difference was observed between the two in the entire range, as shown in Fig. 5(b). The order of the hydrodynamic coefficients in the approximation equation could be increased to more than a fifth-order term to reduce the error of the mathematical model using Taylor approximation. As mentioned in the introduction, introducing higher-order terms complicates the maneuvering equations of the submarine.



**Fig. 4** Calculation results for the horizontal motion and the vertical motion: (a) Horizontal forces and moment depending on the static drift motion; (b) Vertical forces and moment depending on the static angle of attack motion



**Fig. 5** Comparison results between CFD and two mathematical models for the vertical force: (a) Curve fitting for Taylor-type mathematical model using the coefficients obtained between the vertical angle of attack from 0° to 20°; (b) Curve fitting for Taylor-type mathematical model using the coefficients obtained between the vertical angle of attack from 0° to 90°



**Fig. 6** Comparison results between the CFD and two mathematical models for the pitch moment: (a) Curve fitting for Taylor-type mathematical model using the coefficients obtained between the vertical angle of attack from 0° to 20°; (b) Curve fitting for Taylor-type mathematical model using the coefficients obtained between the vertical angle of attack from 0° to 90°

Fig. 6 shows the comparison result between the reconstructed pitch moment (Karasuno, black) using the lift coefficients obtained from CFD calculations by the procedure described in Table 2 as mentioned above, and the pitch moment (Taylor, orange) obtained by Taylor third-order approximation ( $M = M_w' \cdot w' + M_{ww'}' \cdot w'^3$ ), compared to the CFD results (blue). Among these results, Fig. 6(a) shows the reconstructed pitch moment over the range of angles of attack (hereafter AOA) ( $\alpha = 0^\circ - 90^\circ$ ) using the lift coefficient obtained from the CFD values in the AOA range ( $\alpha = 0^\circ - 20^\circ$ ) in the analysis of vertical force., and Fig. 6(b) shows the reconstructed pitch moment at the large AOA range ( $\alpha = 0^\circ - 90^\circ$ ) using the lift coefficient obtained from the CFD values in the large AOA range ( $\alpha = 0^\circ - 90^\circ$ ).

The Karasuno model relatively well reconstructed the CFD results over the entire range (Fig. 6), while the Taylor third-order approximation showed good results up to 30° AOA in Fig. 6(a), but showed significant differences from the CFD results at the large AOA (Fig. 6(b)), similar to the results in the vertical force. Similar results are obtained for the lateral force and yaw moment caused by the large drift motion (Choi, 2023), indicating the utility of the Karasuno model proposed in this study for the large drift/AOA motion.

## 5. Modified Karasuno Model

In this study, the applicability of the mathematical model proposed by Karasuno et al. was confirmed using CFD with a submarine as a target ship. In particular, it is proposed as expressed in Eqs. (11) and (12) below.

Horizontal motion

$$\begin{aligned}
 X' &= C_L^{hh'} u' v'^2 - C_{Di}^{hh'} u'^3 v'^2 - (\Delta C_L^{hv'} u' v'^2 - C_{Di}^{hh'} u'^3 v'^2) \\
 &\quad - C_{LAS}^{hh'} v'^2 - C_F^{hh'} |u'| u' + C_L^{hv'} u' w'^2 - C_{Di}^{hv'} u'^3 w'^2 \\
 &\quad - (\Delta C_L^{hv'} u' w'^2 - C_{Di}^{hv'} u'^3 w'^2) - C_{LAS}^{hv'} w'^2 - C_F^{hv'} |u'| u' \\
 Y' &= C_L^{hh'} u'^2 v' - C_{Di}^{hh'} u'^2 v'^3 - C_{D90}^{hh'} m_0' (1 + \cos^2 \alpha) v'^3 \\
 &\quad + C_L^{hv'} u'^2 w' - C_{Di}^{hv'} u'^2 w'^3 - C_{D90}^{hv'} m_0' (1 + \cos^2 \alpha) w'^3 \\
 N' &= (m_x' - m_y') u' v' - C_L^{hh'} l_{v0}^{hh'} u'^2 v' - C_{Di}^{hh'} l_{i0}^{hh'} u'^2 v'^3 \\
 &\quad - C_{D90}^{hh'} m_1' (1 + \cos^2 \beta) v'^3 - C_L^{hv'} l_{v0}^{hv'} u'^2 w' \\
 &\quad - C_{Di}^{hv'} l_{i0}^{hv'} u'^2 w'^3 - C_{D90}^{hv'} m_1' (1 + \cos^2 \alpha) w'^3
 \end{aligned} \tag{11}$$

**Table 6** All hydrodynamic coefficient for Karasuno's model obtained from CFD calculations

Hydrodynamic coefficients	Values	Hydrodynamic coefficients	Values
$C_{D90}^{hh} \cdot m_0'$	-0.2021	$C_{D90}^{hh} \cdot m_1'$	-0.001
$C_{D90}^{vv} \cdot m_0'$	0.1124	$C_{D90}^{vv} \cdot m_1'$	0.0018
$C_L^{hh'}$	-0.1191	$C_L^{hh'} \cdot l_{vo}^{hh'}$	0.0119
$C_L^{vv'}$	0.0554	$C_L^{vv'} \cdot l_{vo}^{vv'}$	0.0091
$C_{Di}^{hh'}$	-0.1090	$C_{Di}^{hh'} \cdot l_{i0}^{hh'}$	0.0098
$C_{Di}^{vv'}$	0.0152	$C_{Di}^{vv'} \cdot l_{i0}^{vv'}$	0.0188
$C_F^{hh'}$	0.0019	$C_{LAS}^{hh'}$	-0.0060
$C_F^{vv'}$	0.0019	$C_{LAS}^{vv'}$	-0.0129
$\Delta C_L^{hh'}$	-0.1420	$\Delta C_{Di}^{hh'}$	-0.1444
$\Delta C_L^{vv'}$	0.0633	$\Delta C_{Di}^{vv'}$	0.0114

### Vertical motion

$$\begin{aligned}
X' &= C_L^{vv'} u' w'^2 - C_{Di}^{vv'} u'^3 w'^2 - (\Delta C_L^{vv'} u' w'^2 - C_{Di}^{vv'} u'^3 w'^2) \\
&\quad - C_{LAS}^{vv'} w'^2 - C_F^{vv'} |u'| u' + C_L^{vh'} u' v'^2 - C_{Di}^{vh'} u'^3 v'^2 \\
&\quad - (\Delta C_L^{vh'} u' v'^2 - C_{Di}^{vh'} u'^3 v'^2) - C_{LAS}^{vh'} v'^2 - C_F^{vh'} |u'| u' \\
Z' &= C_L^{vv'} u'^2 w' - C_{Di}^{vv'} u'^2 w'^3 - C_{D90}^{vv'} m_0' (1 + \cos^2 \alpha) w'^3 \\
&\quad + C_L^{vh'} u'^2 v' - C_{Di}^{vh'} u'^2 v'^3 - C_{D90}^{vh'} m_0' (1 + \cos^2 \alpha) v'^3 \\
M' &= (m_x' - m_z') u' w' - C_L^{vv'} l_{vo}^{vv'} u'^2 w' - C_{Di}^{vv'} l_{i0}^{vv'} u'^2 w'^3 \\
&\quad - C_{D90}^{vv'} m_1' (1 + \cos^2 \alpha) w'^3 - C_L^{vh'} l_{vo}^{vh'} u'^2 v' \\
&\quad - C_{Di}^{vh'} l_{i0}^{vh'} u'^2 v'^3 - C_{D90}^{vh'} m_1' (1 + \cos^2 \alpha) v'^3
\end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

The superscript,  $hh$ ,  $vv$ ,  $hv$  and  $vh$  in Eqs. (11) and (12) represent the direction of the forces acting on the submarine, which depend on the direction of motion. Therefore, the superscripts  $hh$  and  $vv$  denote “forces acting in the same direction as the motion”. In contrast, the superscript  $vh$  denotes “forces acting in the vertical direction due to horizontal motion,” and  $hv$  denotes “forces acting in the horizontal direction due to vertical motion”. From their meanings, they represent the coupling term. The coupling terms that have the superscripts and can be ignored in the normal maneuvering motion of a submarine, but these coupling terms cannot be ignored in the special maneuvering motion, such as emergency rising or low-speed operation. In the present study, these coupling terms were ignored because of the lack of proven evidence. Table 6 lists all hydrodynamic coefficients obtained from CFD calculation.

## 6. Conclusions

This study applied the mathematical model proposed by Karasuno et al. to the maneuvering motion of a submarine using CFD to confirm its

applicability. In particular, the forces and moments acting on the submarine during significant drift and angle of attack motions were calculated and used to derive the hydrodynamic coefficients used in the Karasuno model. A mathematical model based on Taylor's third-order approximation was used to reconstruct the hydrodynamic force acting on the submarine during large drift and transverse motions. The results were compared with those obtained using Karasuno's physically-based mathematical model. The following results were obtained:

(1) It was confirmed that the Karasuno model could obtain more accurate results than the Taylor third-order approximation-based mathematical model in estimating the hydrodynamic forces acting on the submarine during large drift and angle of attack motions.

(2) To use the Taylor approximation-based mathematical model to estimate the hydrodynamic forces acting on the submarine hull during a large drift and angle of attack motions, it is necessary to extend the order of the approximation equation to higher-order terms.

Nevertheless, more research will be needed to introduce additional terms for the hydrodynamic forces acting in the vertical plane direction during horizontal motion and in the horizontal plane direction during vertical motion. Second, while this study focused only on large drift and angle of attack motions, further research on the rotational and turning motions of submarines will be necessary.

## Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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# Experimental and Numerical Study on the Characteristics of Free Surface Waves by the Movement of a Circular Cylinder-Shaped Submerged Body in a Single Fluid Layer

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**KEYWORDS:** Free surface, Two-dimensional mini-towing tank, Jet-like flow, Wave breaking, Submerged moving body, Numerical towing tank

**ABSTRACT:** Analyzing the interactions of free surface waves caused by a submerged-body movement is important as a fundamental study of submerged-body motion. In this study, a two-dimensional mini-towing tank was used to tow an underwater body for analyzing the generation and propagation characteristics of free surface waves. The magnitude of the maximum wave height generated by the underwater body motion increased with the body velocity at shallow submerged depths but did not increase further when the generated wave steepness corresponded to a breaking wave condition. Long-period waves were generated in the forward direction as the body moved initially, and then short-period waves were measured when the body moved at a constant velocity. In numerical simulations based on potential flow, the fluid pressure changes caused by the submerged-body motion were implemented, and the maximum wave height was accurately predicted; however, the complex physical phenomena caused by fluid viscosity and wave breaking in the downstream direction were difficult to implement. This research provides a fundamental understanding of the changes in the free surface caused by a moving underwater body.

## 1. Introduction

Free surface waves can be generated by water bodies (e.g., ships) or submerged bodies (e.g., submarines) that move at constant speeds (Journee and Massie, 2001). At infinite water depths, the flow around a submerged body causes various flow phenomena according to the geometry of the object and the flow velocity with no interaction with the free surface, and many relevant insights have been obtained from fluid dynamics. In contrast, the flow of a submerged body moving under the free surface forms free surface waves, causing complex physical phenomena according to the geometry, velocity, and submerged depth of the object. Therefore, many studies have been conducted to understand such phenomena. When a submerged body in the form of a cylinder, which is the most basic geometry, moves under the free surface, a jet-like flow occurs between the body and free surface, and free surface wave depression is generated behind the cylinder because of the rapid pressure change, as shown in Fig. 1



**Fig. 1** Free surface wave depression caused by submerged cylinder motion

(Sheridan et al., 1997).

This depression phenomenon becomes more obvious as the submerged depth of the submerged body decreases and its velocity increases (Yi et al., 2013; Shin and Cho, 2021). In addition, a breaking wave occurs in the depression, affecting the formation of rear free surface waves (Hyun and Shin, 2000).

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Studies on the geometry of rear free surface waves generated by the motion of a cylindrical submerged body have long been conducted using analytical or numerical methods, and in most of them, the free surface displacement generated behind the submerged body was calculated by applying an incident wave or flow velocity to a fixed cylinder (Dean, 1948; Ursell, 1950; Scullen and Tuck, 1995). However, this fundamentally differs from the free surface displacement caused by the direct movement of the submerged body, and the aforementioned studies had limitations in identifying the phenomena of free surface waves caused by complex interactions between the submerged body and the free surface. This is because they focused on the hydrodynamic analysis of the phenomena of free surface waves generated behind the submerged body; the actual movement of the body was not modeled. As various free surface waves caused by the acceleration of the submerged body from the stationary state are mixed with those caused by the movement of the body at a constant velocity, it is necessary to accurately simulate the motion of the submerged body through towing experiments to analyze the complex interactions affected by the geometry, velocity, and submerged depth of the body.

In general, the generation and propagation of free surface waves are calculated with potential flow that assumes the incompressible, non-rotational, and non-viscous flow of fluid (Journée and Massie, 2001). Potential flow-based numerical analysis has been commonly applied to the motion analysis of ocean waves and floating bodies using the boundary element method. In particular, time- and frequency-domain analysis for floating body motion has been widely conducted via modeling under the same conditions as an experimental tank through the numerical wave tank (NWT) technique (Uzair and Koo, 2012; Min and Koo, 2017; Min and Koo, 2022). This numerical analysis technique was used to model the motion of a submerged body and calculate free surface waves according to the submerged depth and velocity of the submerged body (Holloway and Davis, 2002; Kim et al., 2019; Seong et al., 2022). In particular, Seong et al. (2022) reproduced the free surface waves caused by the motion of a submerged body with a National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics geometry (NACA0034) using the NWT technique and validated their method through a comparison with experimental results.

In addition, various studies on the flow characteristics under submerged-body motion have been conducted using computational fluid dynamics (CFD). Various studies have been reported, in which researchers implemented changes in the free surface waves caused by the underwater motion of a simple cylinder (Mnasri et al., 2014), analyzed the dynamic characteristics of a submerged body through the adjustment of the drift angle and the angle of attack (Jeon et al., 2021), analyzed the flow noise of a submarine-shaped underwater body using CFD and computational acoustics (Ren et al., 2023), and performed spectrum analysis for the free surface waves caused by the motion of submarine- and whale-shaped underwater bodies through experiments and CFD (Liu and Guo, 2013).

To understand the complex phenomena associated with wave

generation and propagation caused by the flow change between a moving submerged body and a free surface, an accurate numerical analysis conducted under various experimental conditions is required, and the phenomena must be identified through a precise experiment in which the submerged body is towed directly. Experimental research in which complex flow phenomena were measured by directly towing a submerged body is rare, and basic research is needed to analyze complex flow phenomena by directly towing a submerged body in the presence of a free surface.

In this study, acceleration and constant-velocity regions were created by directly towing a cylindrical submerged body in water to precisely identify the interactions between the body and free surface, as well as the flow changes. In addition, the generation and propagation of free surface waves were measured, and their characteristics were analyzed. In contrast to streamlined objects, a cylinder easily causes flow separation and vortices on its surface owing to fluid viscosity, making it relatively easy to identify the complex physical phenomena that occur around the cylinder. Potential flow-based numerical analysis was conducted using a two-dimensional numerical towing tank that modeled the acceleration and constant velocity of the submerged body under the experimental conditions, and the results were compared with the experimental results. By comparing the experimental measurements that included fluid viscosity and the results of potential flow-based numerical analysis, the effects of the fluid viscosity on the geometry and propagation of the free surface waves caused by the submerged body motion were identified. The objective of this study was to clarify the generation and propagation characteristics of the free surface caused by the movement of a cylindrical submerged body and provide basic data. If these basic data are accumulated, they are expected to be used for applied studies, e.g., involving the detection of underwater bodies moving under free surfaces.

## 2. Submerged-Body Towing Experiment and Numerical Analysis

### 2.1 Two-dimensional Towing Tank

In this study, an experiment was performed using a towing tank that can directly tow a submerged body in a single fluid environment. The vertical displacement of the generated free surface waves was measured, and their propagation characteristics were analyzed according to the submerged depth of the submerged body and the towing velocity. Fig. 2 shows the cylindrical submerged body model connected to the rail support on the side wall of the two-dimensional towing tank with a wire. In the towing-tank experiment (Kim et al., 2022a), the two-dimensional submerged-body towing tank of Inha University was used. The specifications of the cylinder and towing tank are presented in Table 1. It was possible to clearly observe the displacement and propagation of the free surface because the walls of the tank are made of a transparent acrylic material, its frames are made of aluminum, and its bottom is made of polyvinyl chloride. The

**Table 1** Dimensions of the two-dimensional towing tank and submerged body

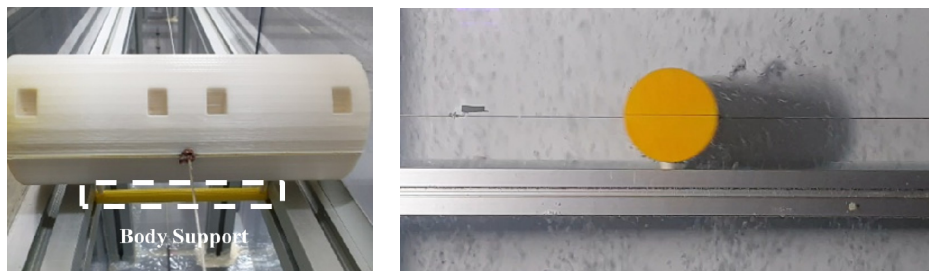
Object	Parameter	Dimension (m)
Towing tank	Tank length ( $L$ )	5.8
	Tank width ( $B$ )	0.2
	Water depth ( $H$ )	0.77
	Rail length ( $L_r$ )	4
	Wave gauge location ( $L_g$ )	2.8
Submerged cylinder	Body diameter ( $D$ )	0.084
	Body width ( $W$ )	0.19
	Body position from tank bottom ( $h$ )	0.395

cylindrical submerged body was divided into upper and lower hemispheres to allow a wire to pass through, and the cylinder was formed by fastening four 3-mm-diameter bolts. The width of the submerged body was set equal to that of the two-dimensional towing tank to minimize the interference of the tank walls with the formation and propagation of free surface waves. Fig. 3 shows an overview of the towing-tank experiment. For the submerged-body towing system, the submerged body was connected to the wire installed underwater and was directly towed using the wire drum connected to the servomotor. The system did not directly interfere with the free surface, because it

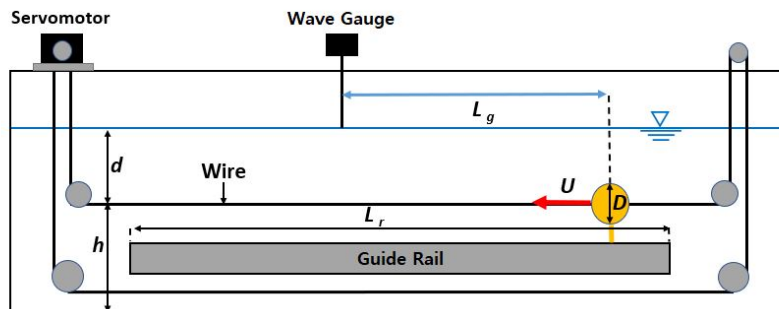
towed the submerged body with the wire. The system made it possible to observe the exact free surface displacement caused by the submerged-body motion, ensuring the reliability of the experimental results. Additionally, the submerged body could be accelerated from the stationary state and towed at a constant velocity.

The submerged-body towing system was used to tow the submerged body at a constant velocity. Fig. 4 shows the wire drum connected to the alternating-current (AC) servomotor installed in the towing tank. It towed the submerged body at a precise velocity along the rail installed on the tank wall by circulating the wire shown in Fig. 3. The wire connected to the submerged body passed through the centerline of the body. The tension of the wire acted on the center of gravity of the submerged body, causing translational motion. For the towing system, the towing velocity and towing distance were adjusted through the Programmable Multi Axis Controller (PMAC) software.

The free surface waves generated by the submerged body were accurately measured using a servo-type wave gauge (PCA-WH60S). This wave gauge can measure the vertical displacement of a free surface every 0.01 s (100 Hz) with a precision of up to 0.056 mm using water as a conductor. Proper tension must be maintained in the underwater wire for stable towing of the submerged body. In the experiment, the overall tension of the towing system was controlled by adjusting the pulley connected to the wire in the vertical direction.



**Fig. 2** Submerged cylinder installed in a two-dimensional mini-towing tank



**Fig. 3** Experimental setup for towing the submerged cylinder



**Fig. 4** AC servomotor and wire drum for towing the submerged body

## 2.2 Two-dimensional Numerical Towing Tank

To validate the experimental results, a numerical analysis was performed using a two-dimensional numerical towing tank modeled according to the experimental towing tank. Fig. 5 shows a schematic of the numerical towing tank, whose specifications are those presented in Table 1. However, the numerical towing tank did not need the underwater rail or wire, because it could move the submerged body precisely at the fixed velocity every hour. While the cylindrical submerged body was accelerated from the stationary state and subjected to the constant-velocity translational motion in the same manner as the experimental conditions, the displacement and propagation pattern of the free surface were calculated in the time domain. The two-dimensional numerical towing tank was detailed in previous works (Seong et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2022b). It was briefly described in this paper because the accuracy and reliability of the solution were verified.

### 2.2.1 Governing equations and boundary conditions

In the fluid field used for numerical analysis, the surface tension of the free surface was neglected, and non-viscous, incompressible, and non-rotational potential flow was assumed. Accordingly, the motion of the fluid particles in the fluid field can be described as velocity potential, and the continuity equation is satisfied. Therefore, the governing equation of the fluid field is Laplace's equation:

$$\nabla^2 \phi = 0 \quad (1)$$

where  $\phi$  represents the velocity potential. The above governing equation can be converted into a boundary integral equation using Green's second identity according to the boundary element method, as follows:

$$\alpha \phi_i = \iint_{\Omega} \left( G_{ij} \frac{\partial \phi_j}{\partial n} - \phi_j \frac{\partial G_{ij}}{\partial n} \right) ds \quad (2)$$

where  $\alpha$  represents the solid angle, which has a value of 0.5 when the field point is located on the boundary. The two-dimensional Green's function is  $G_{ij} = -(1/2\pi) \ln R_1$ , where  $R_1$  represents the distance between the source point and field point distributed on the boundary of the computational domain.

There were boundary conditions for each boundary of the numerical towing tank, and linear boundary conditions were used in this study. Eqs. (3) and (4) give the linear boundary conditions of the free surface, i.e., the dynamic and kinematic boundary conditions, respectively.

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} + g\eta = 0 \quad \text{on } z = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z} \quad \text{on } z = 0 \quad (4)$$

Here,  $\eta$  represents the vertical displacement of the free surface and  $g$  represents the gravitational acceleration. No penetration boundary condition was applied to the walls on both sides of the tank or the bottom, as given by Eq. (5).

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n} = 0 \quad (5)$$

The boundary condition for the moving cylindrical submerged body is given by Eq. (6), where  $U$  represents the velocity of the body and  $n_x$  is the horizontal-direction ( $x$ -direction) component of the normal vector on the submerged-body surface. The submerged body slowly accelerates and reaches a certain velocity, in the same manner as the experimental conditions. At this instance, the acceleration is given by the ramp function as shown in Eq. (7). The ramp function is applied to the initial acceleration section and the last deceleration section immediately before the submerged body stops. The ramp section is expressed by  $RT$  in Eq. (7), and it was set as 0.22 s, which was identical to that in the experiment. Fig. 6 shows the ramp function with respect to time. After passing through the ramp section, the submerged body performs translational motion at a constant towing velocity ( $U$ ) in the constant-velocity region.

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n} = \text{ramp} \cdot (U \cdot n_x) \quad \text{on body} \quad (6)$$

$$\text{ramp} = \begin{cases} \frac{1 - \cos\left(\frac{\pi t}{RT}\right)}{2}, & t \leq RT \\ 1, & t > RT \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

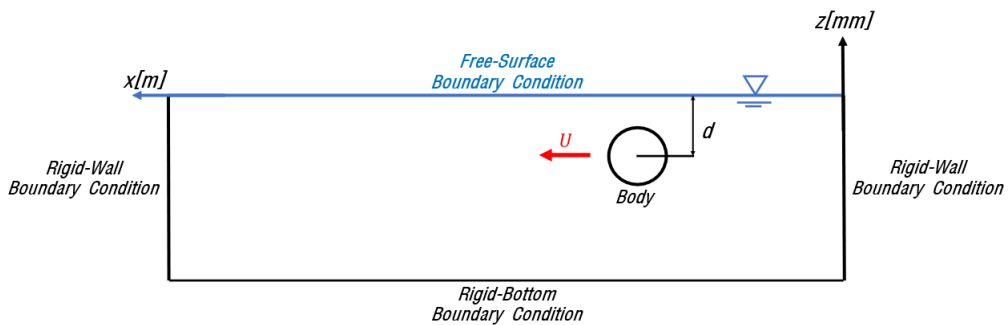


Fig. 5 Computational domain of the two-dimensional numerical towing tank



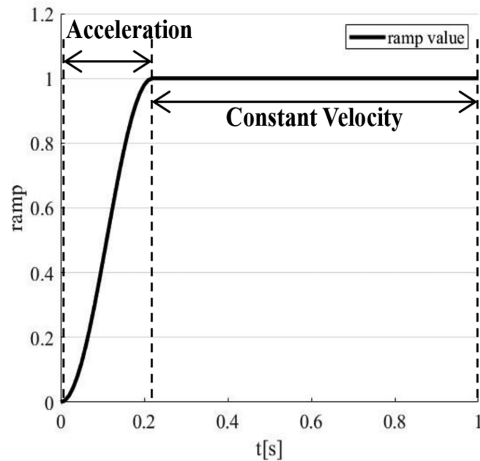


Fig. 6 Ramp function for towing velocity

### 3. Comparison and Analysis of Experimental Results

#### 3.1 Analysis of Experimental Results

In the experiment of this study, the vertical displacement of free surface waves was analyzed, and its characteristics were identified according to the velocity and submerged depth of the submerged body. Table 2 presents the various submerged depth, velocity, and Froude number conditions examined. The waves generated in front of the submerged body by its motion were measured to identify their propagation characteristics, and the maximum wave height that occurred behind the body was measured and analyzed. Fig. 7 presents the vertical displacement of the free surface according to the body velocity in time series for submerged-body depths of  $d = 1D$  and  $d = 1.75D$ . As shown, the displacement increased as the body velocity increased, and the maximum wave height occurred behind the body.

The number of free surface waves that propagated to the front of the submerged body increased as the body approached the measuring point (the position of the wave gauge) at a low velocity. However, when the submerged-body depth was large ( $d = 1.75D$ ), the maximum wave height and the number of free surface waves that propagated to

the front of the body decreased. In addition, when the submerged-body depth was small ( $d = 1.0D$ ), the maximum free surface displacement occurred after the submerged body passed the wave gauge owing to the occurrence of the maximum wave depression with the rapid free surface increase, and the shape of the wave was mostly lost behind the body. In contrast, when the submerged-body depth was large, the overall free surface displacement decreased, as only the maximum wave depression occurred, without a rapid increase in surface displacement. This appears to be because the jet-like flow increased behind the submerged body, which led to an increase in the displacement of the free surface as the body velocity increased (increase in Froude number) or the submerged depth decreased at a constant velocity, as reported by Shin and Cho (2021). Therefore, it can be said that the jet flow, which depends on the submerged depth and velocity of the submerged body, affects the maximum wave height.

The cause of the loss of free surface waves behind the submerged body can be inferred from the work of Hyun and Shin (2000). It is judged that as the submerged-body depth decreases, the displacement of the free surface rapidly decreases owing to wave breaking that occurs behind the body. Conversely, if the submerged-body depth increases ( $d = 1.75D$ ), the degree of wave breaking that occurs behind the body is weak owing to the sufficient distance between the body and free surface, and there is room for an increase in the displacement of the free surface.

Table 2 Experimental conditions

Parameter	Dimensions
Submerged-body depth ( $d$ )	$1D, 1.5D, 1.75D$ (m)
Body velocity ( $U$ )	0.3–0.7 (m/s)
Froude number ( $F_r = \frac{U}{\sqrt{gD}}$ )	0.330–0.771
Reynolds number ( $Re = \frac{\rho UD}{\mu}$ )	14,157–33,033
Towing distance ( $L_r$ )	4 (m)

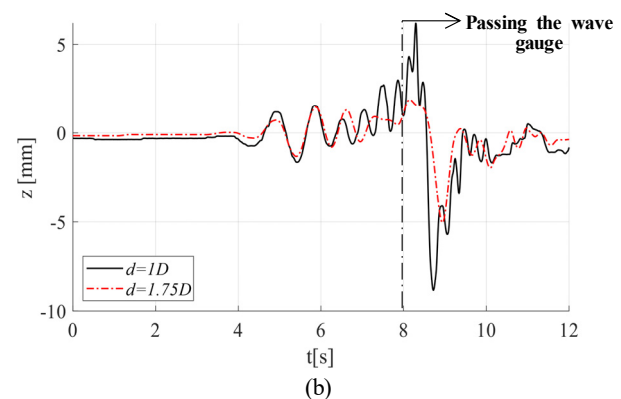
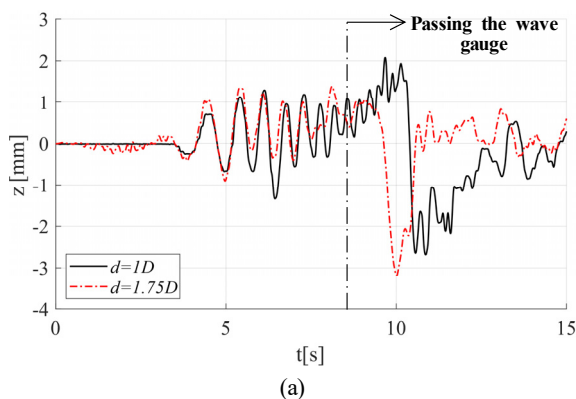
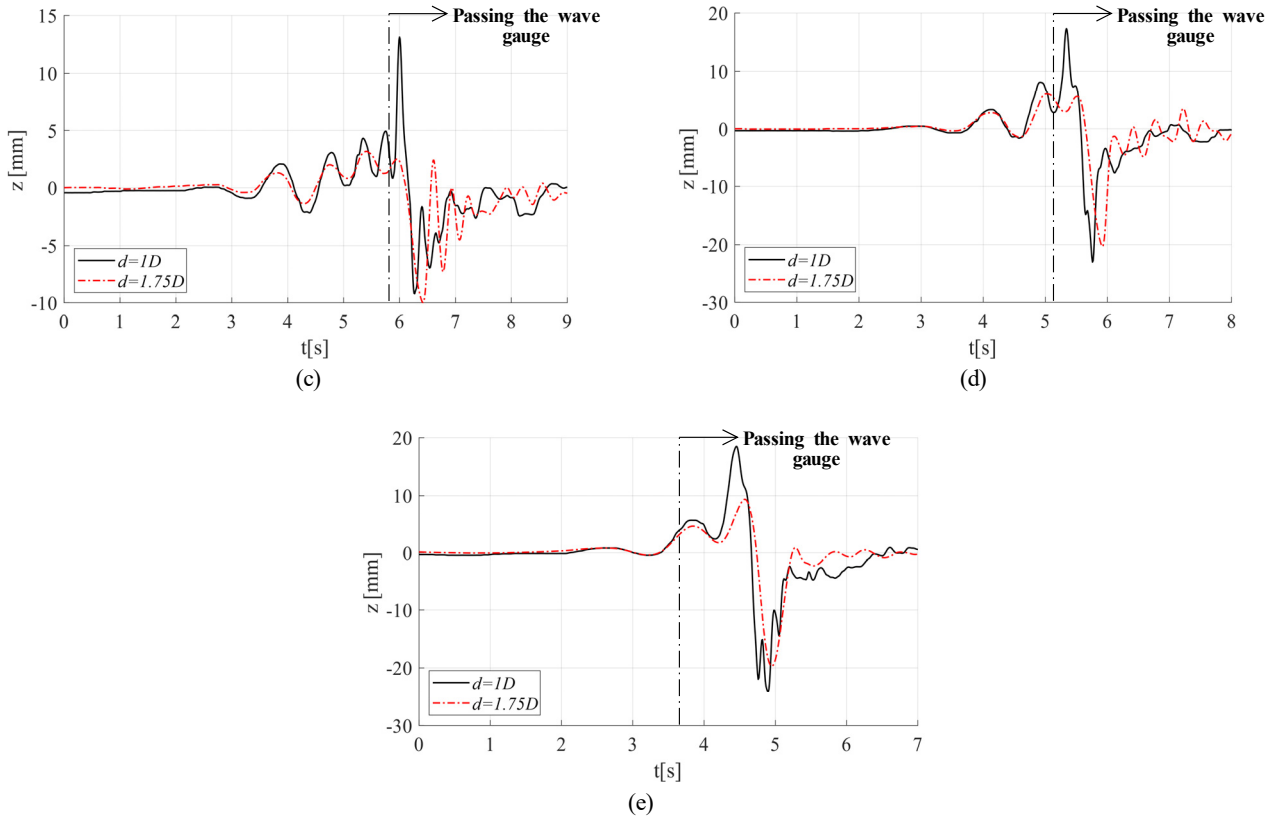
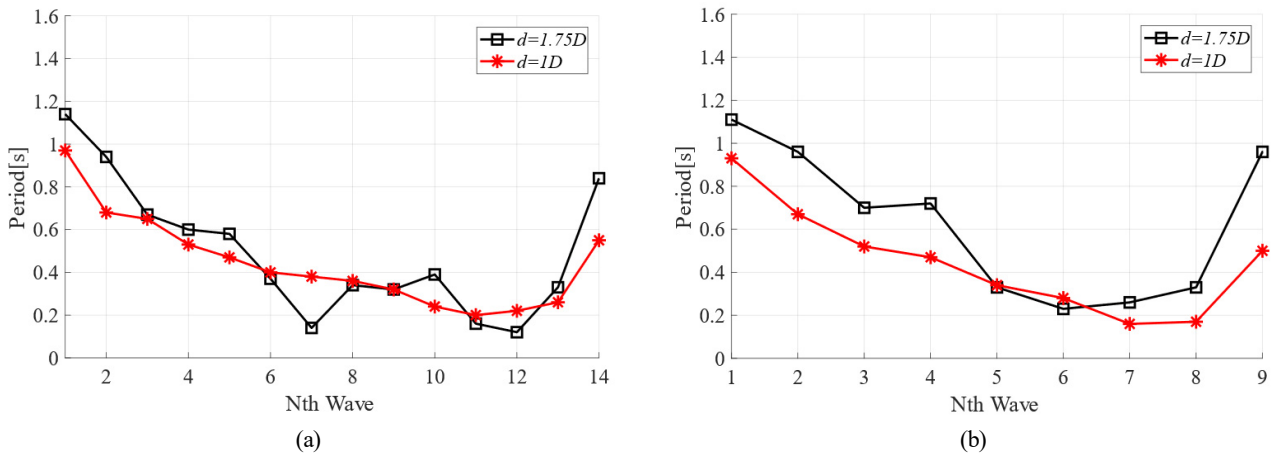


Fig. 7 Time series of surface elevations for different velocities: (a)  $U = 0.3$  m/s; (b)  $U = 0.4$  m/s; (c)  $U = 0.5$  m/s; (d)  $U = 0.6$  m/s; (e)  $U = 0.7$  m/s



**Fig. 7** Time series of surface elevations for different velocities: (a)  $U = 0.3$  m/s; (b)  $U = 0.4$  m/s; (c)  $U = 0.5$  m/s; (d)  $U = 0.6$  m/s; (e)  $U = 0.7$  m/s (Continuation)



**Fig. 8** Comparison of wave periods measured in order: (a)  $U = 0.3$  m/s; (b)  $U = 0.4$  m/s

Fig. 8 shows the results of measuring and comparing the wave periods observed in front of the submerged body in order. Here, Nth Wave = 1 represents the first period measured by the wave gauge as the wave generated at the time of the acceleration of the submerged body propagated forward. As indicated by Fig. 7, the number of waves measured in front of the submerged body increased as the submerged-body depth decreased. Therefore, the number of waves measured was small when the submerged depth was large ( $d = 1.75D$ ). Long-period waves were generated at the beginning when the submerged body accelerated, and then the period of the waves decreased slightly. As the submerged body approached the measuring

point (the position of the wave gauge), the measured wave period decreased, but the rate of reduction gradually decreased and tended to converge to a certain value. This is because various waves were generated at different velocities until the submerged body reached a certain velocity after acceleration, and fast long-period waves among them reached the measuring point first, followed by short-period waves. The value to which the wave period converged was similar to that given by a dispersion relation (Eq. 8) that corresponds to deep water conditions. In the comparison graph, the part where the period decreases and increases suddenly represents the wave period corresponding to the maximum wave height caused by the

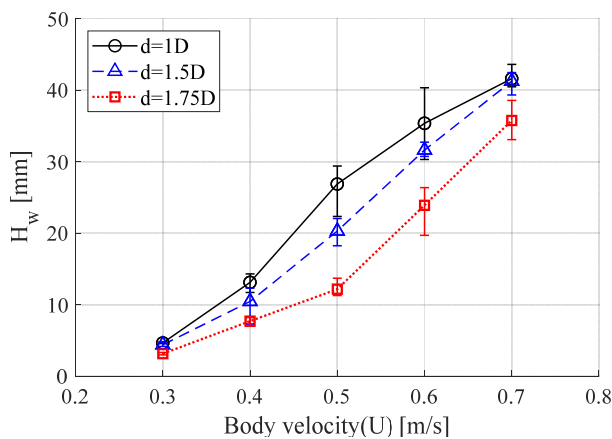
submerged-body motion. The wave period was longer when the submerged-body depth was larger; i.e., long-period waves were generated at the maximum surface displacement that occurred behind the submerged body. In addition, the period measured in front of the submerged body was generally longer when the submerged-body depth was larger.

$$w^2 = gk \quad (8)$$

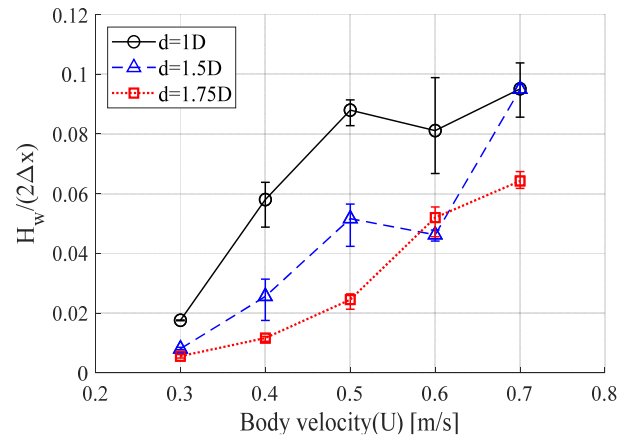
$$T = \frac{2\pi U}{g} \quad (9)$$

Here,  $T$  represents the wave period,  $w$  represents the wave frequency, and  $k$  represents the wavenumber.

Fig. 9 shows the maximum wave height according to the submerged depth and velocity of the submerged body. As in the previous analysis, the maximum wave height tended to increase as the body velocity increased. At 0.3 m/s, which was the lowest body velocity, there was no significant difference in wave height with respect to the submerged depth. However, as the velocity increased, the wave height rapidly increased at  $d = 1.0D$ , which was the smallest submerged depth, and then decreased at a maximum velocity of 0.7 m/s. This indicates that the wave height increases with the body velocity when the submerged depth is deep enough, but the maximum wave height decreases when the velocity increases further and wave breaking occurs behind the body. If the submerged-body depth is sufficiently large, the wave-height increase is small when the velocity is low; however, the wave height is likely to increase if the velocity increases. Under the experimental conditions of this study, even if the body velocity is higher than 0.7 m/s at a submerged depth of  $d = 1.75D$ , the maximum wave height will increase further because the effect of wave breaking that occurs behind the cylinder is expected to be insignificant. This phenomenon can be more accurately understood by comparing the wave steepness at the maximum wave height, as shown in Fig. 10. Wave steepness is expressed by an equation in which the wave height is divided by the wavelength ( $\frac{H}{2\Delta x}$ ,  $\Delta x = U\Delta t$ ). Theoretically, when



**Fig. 9** Comparison of the maximum wave height for various body velocities

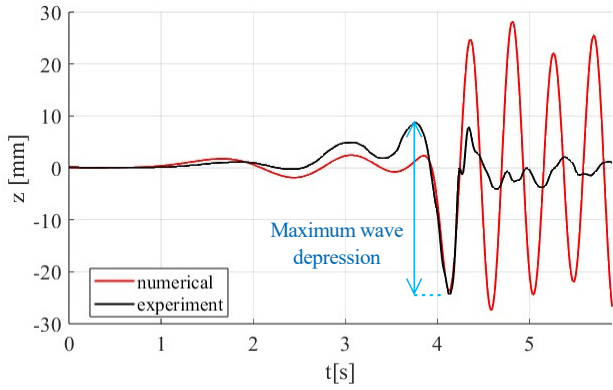


**Fig. 10** Comparison of the wave steepness for various body velocities at the maximum wave height

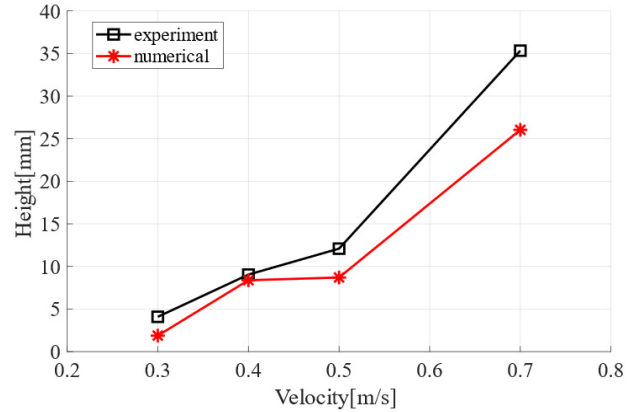
the wave steepness is close to 0.1, wave breaking occurs. When the body velocity was 0.7 m/s, the wave steepness was close to 0.1 at submerged depths of  $d = 1.0D$  and  $d = 1.5D$ . Under these conditions, the magnitude of the wave height no longer increases, because wave breaking occurs in free surface waves.

### 3.2 Comparison with Numerical Analysis Results

The results of the submerged-body towing experiment performed in the two-dimensional towing tank were compared with the calculation results obtained using the numerical towing tank. The benefit of the numerical technique is that the entire experimental tank can be modeled to perform calculations under the same conditions as the experiment by controlling the body velocity and reflected wave. Fig. 11 presents a comparison of the free surface displacement generated when the submerged body moved at the highest velocity ( $U = 0.7$  m/s). As shown, the numerical analysis results generally agreed with the experimental results for the maximum wave depression of the free surface caused by the submerged-body motion. However, there was a significant difference in the free surface displacement generated behind the cylinder. This is because wave breaking occurred behind the body, and the shape of the wave was lost, as the wave steepness of the maximum wave height corresponded to the wave-breaking condition, as mentioned in the analysis of the experimental results. In contrast, in the potential flow-based numerical analysis, the waves generated by the submerged body-motion were maintained without breaking, because fluid viscosity and wave breaking were not considered. The maximum wave depression that occurs immediately after the passing of the submerged body and before the occurrence of wave breaking is the free surface displacement generated by the fluid pressure change caused by the cylinder motion. For the potential flow-based calculation, the fluid pressure change can be implemented, but it is difficult to implement the complex physical phenomena caused by fluid viscosity and wave breaking behind the submerged body. In addition, the free surface displacement that occurred in front of the submerged body was smaller than that in the experiment. This appeared to be because linear free surface boundary conditions were



**Fig. 11** Comparison of wave elevations for  $d = 1.75 D$  and  $U = 0.7$  m/s

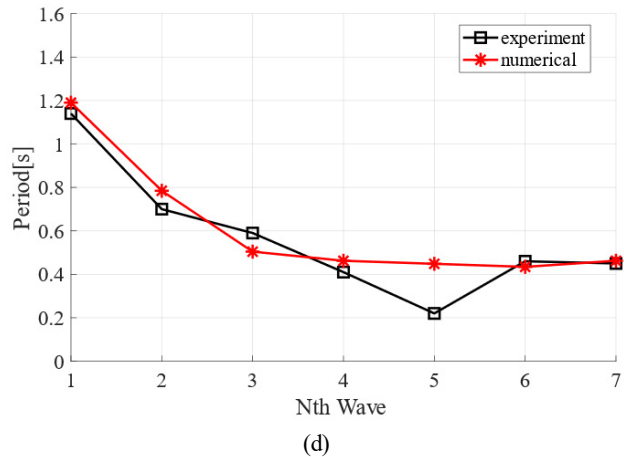
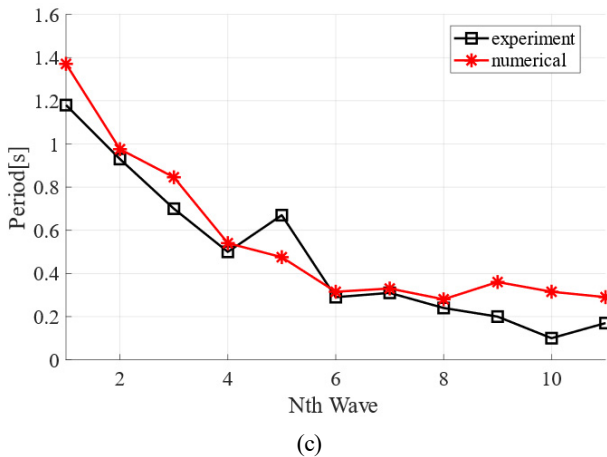
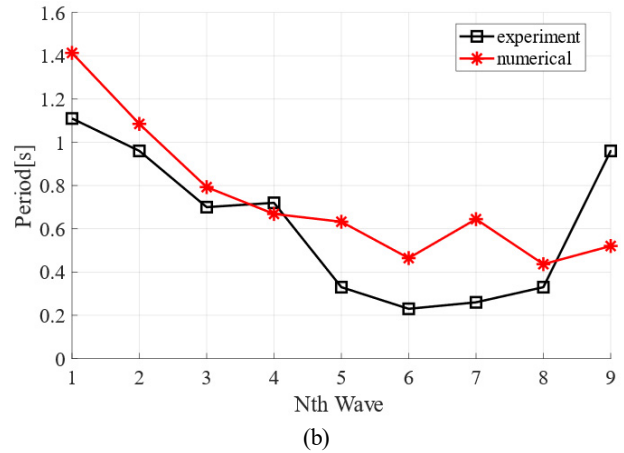
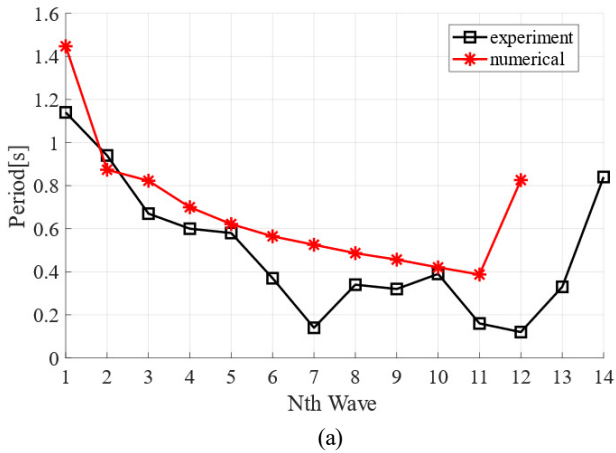


**Fig. 12** Comparison of the maximum wave depression values for various body velocities

applied in the potential flow-based calculation; thus, the nonlinear geometry of the free surface was not reflected.

Fig. 12 presents a comparison of the magnitudes of the maximum wave depression of the free surface with respect to the velocity of the submerged body. The magnitude of the maximum wave depression corresponds to the length of the arrow in Fig. 11. The results of the experiment and numerical analysis were generally similar, and the magnitude of the maximum wave depression increased as the body

velocity increased. This indicates that the formation of the maximum wave depression is affected more significantly by the kinematic factors of the submerged body and the resulting fluid pressure change than by the fluid viscosity. Therefore, the maximum wave height was accurately predicted in the potential flow-based numerical analysis, although the maximum wave height measured in the experiment slightly exceeded the numerical analysis result. This appears to be



**Fig. 13** Comparison of wave periods measured and calculated in order at  $d = 1.75D$ : (a)  $U = 0.3$  m/s; (b)  $U = 0.4$  m/s; (c)  $U = 0.5$  m/s; (d)  $U = 0.7$  m/s

because some of the effects of fluid viscosity that could not be considered in the potential flow-based calculations were included, and the nonlinear waveforms could not be properly implemented by applying linear free surface boundary conditions.

Fig. 12 presents a comparison of the measured and calculated periods of the free surface waves that propagated in front of the submerged body due to the body motion. As shown, the experimental and numerical analysis results had similar tendencies at all the body velocities. As the submerged body began translational motion and accelerated, waves with the longest period were generated and propagated first, followed by waves with gradually decreasing periods. The period of the waves generated by the submerged body at a constant velocity ultimately converged to the value given by Eq. (9), and it was confirmed that the convergence of the measurement and calculation results improved as the body velocity increased. Under all the velocity conditions, long-period waves were generated when the maximum wave depression occurred. Additionally, the rate of the wave-period increase decreased as the body velocity increased. This indicated that less long-period waves were generated as the body velocity increased, because the body quickly exited the acceleration region and entered the constant-velocity region owing to the submerged-body acceleration time being fixed at 0.22 s. Therefore, the agreement between the numerical analysis results and experimental results improved. However, the wave-period increase point differed between the experimental and numerical results, as shown in Fig. 13(a), because the numerical results and the measured data were different (Fig. 7(a)).

#### 4. Conclusions

The complex flow phenomena around a submerged body moving under a free surface were measured using a two-dimensional submerged-body towing tank. Acceleration and constant-velocity regions were created by directly towing the cylindrical submerged body underwater. The displacement and propagation of the generated free surface waves were analyzed, and their characteristics were identified. The experimental results were compared with potential flow-based numerical analysis results to examine the effect of the fluid viscosity on the generation of free surface waves. The following conclusions are drawn.

(1) As the velocity of the submerged body increased and its submerged depth decreased, the maximum wave height of the free surface increased. However, the maximum wave height stopped increasing when the wave steepness reached the wave-breaking condition.

(2) When wave breaking occurred owing to the increase in body velocity, rapid wave loss occurred behind the body.

(3) Long-period waves were generated in the forward direction as the submerged body moved, and short-period waves were gradually generated as it moved at a constant velocity. This is because various waves were generated at different velocities until the submerged body

reached a certain velocity after acceleration, and the fastest long-period waves among them reached the measuring point first, followed by short-period waves.

(4) In the potential flow-based numerical analysis results, the maximum wave depression was generally accurately predicted because it was possible to implement the fluid pressure change caused by the submerged-body motion, but it was difficult to implement the complex physical phenomena caused by fluid viscosity and wave breaking behind the submerged body.

To more precisely analyze the generation and propagation characteristics of free surface waves caused by submerged-body motion, it is necessary to investigate the changes in free surface waves due to changes in the submerged-body geometry and acceleration region, as well as high-speed motion, in the future. This will make it possible to obtain basic data that can be applied to the detection of submerged bodies that move near free surfaces.

#### Conflict of Interest

Weoncheol Koo serves as a editorial board member of the Journal of Ocean Engineering and Technology, but he had no role in the decision to publish this article. No potential conflict of interest relevant to this article was reported.

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# Fire Resistance Characteristics of Firewall Structure Associated with Impact Damage Induced by Explosion

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**KEYWORDS:** Fire resistance, Firewall structure, Explosion damage, Fragment, Thermal-structural interactions

**ABSTRACT:** When a fire accident accompanied by an explosion occurs, the surrounding firewalls are affected by impact and thermal loads. Damaged firewalls due to accidental loads may not fully perform their essential function. Therefore, this paper proposes an advanced methodology for evaluating the fire resistance performance of firewalls damaged by explosions. The fragments were assumed to be scattered, and fire occurred as a vehicle exploded in a large compartment of a roll-on/roll-off (RO-RO) vessel. The impact velocity of the fragments was calculated based on the TNT equivalent mass corresponding to the explosion pressure. Damage and thermal-structural response analyses of the firewall were performed using Ansys LS-DYNA code. The fire resistance reduction was analyzed in terms of the temperature difference between fire-exposed and unexposed surfaces, temperature increase rate, and reference temperature arrival time. The degree of damage and the fire resistance performance of the firewalls varied significantly depending on impact loads. When naval ships and RO-RO vessels that carry various explosive substances are designed, it is reasonable to predict that the fire resistance performance will be degraded according to the explosion characteristics of the cargo.

## 1. Introduction

Fire and explosion are high-risk accidents that can cause financial and environmental damage by causing severe damage to surrounding structures and casualties. Fig.1 summarizes fire/explosion accidents and casualties/injuries on ships based on statistics published by the Transportation Safety Board of Canada (2021). Of 2,599 ship accidents over the past 11 years, 15.47 percent were fire/explosion accidents, with an average of 37 fires/explosions occurring annually. Fire/explosion accidents occur continuously, and complete control is impossible, despite various studies to protect casualties, property, and the environment. Therefore, a damage reduction method based on risk is required and applied to protect the hull from fire accidents. Passive fire protection (PFP), such as fire alarms, sprinkling equipment, and firewalls, has been used to reduce damage from fire accidents. The firewall, one of the representative PFPs, delays and prevents the spread of fire. The characteristics of fires, such as liquid, gas, and electrical fires, that are expected to occur in certain places should be considered

when installing firewalls. They should also be designed to maintain fire resistance for a time required by the standard fire curves.

Among the varying fire resistance evaluation methods for firewalls, the U.S. Navy stipulates the fire resistance evaluation method of

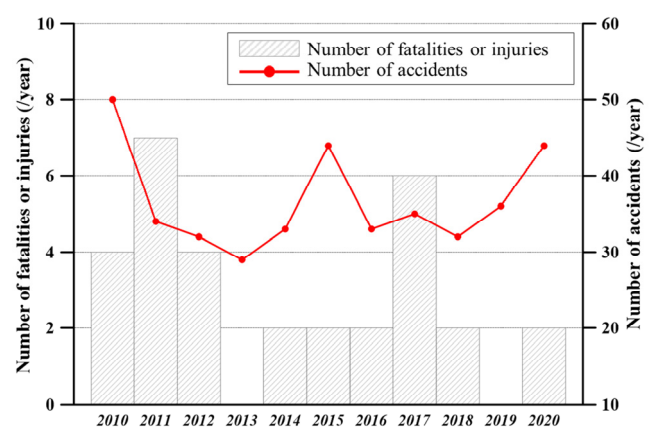


Fig. 1 Shipping fire/explosion accidents

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firewalls installed on warships. According to this evaluation methods, a reference impact load acts on the firewall to cause damage. The thermal load is applied to the damaged firewall to evaluate the fire resistance performance (U.S. Department of Defense, 2007). The Safety of Life at Sea (SOLAS) (IMO, 2002) provides evaluation criteria and methods to ensure that intact firewalls meet the appropriate fire resistance during the reference time. Fire and explosion are highly relevant accidents. Hence, the explosive effect should be considered in the design of firewalls in the large compartment expected to the high-risk accident. Nevertheless, the existing SOLAS regulations provide criteria considering fire only.

Choung et al. (2011) analyzed the structural deformation characteristics of the firewall at high temperatures using a numerical analysis method. Kim et al. (2014) and Seo et al. (2017) conducted a thermal analysis of the firewall equipped with PFP under fire accidents. D'Amore et al. (2020) presented a finite element analysis method evaluating the fire resistance performance of fire doors according to the procedure supplied by IMO. Park et al. (2021) experimentally investigated the PFP material characteristics and analyzed the thermal characteristics of firewalls, including the PFP material. Park and Song (2019, 2021) evaluated the fire resistance design by conducting the fire test and heat transfer analysis on A-60 grade fire resistance equipment. Despite the attempts to evaluate the fire resistance performance of fireproof structures, studies on the safety evaluation of firewalls considering the effects of explosions are

insufficient. Therefore, this study proposes a methodology to evaluate the fire resistance performance of firewalls considering the impact of explosions when designing firewalls installed in areas with a high explosion risk. The degree of damage and thermal response characteristics of the firewall panels were analyzed quantitatively using the proposed method.

## 2. Fire Resistance Analysis Procedure of Firewall Considering Explosive Effect

Explosions often lead to fires, depending on the characteristics of combustible materials. But existing firewall design and evaluation methods have limitations in securing sufficient safety against fire and impact damage induced by explosions. This study proposes an advanced methodology that evaluates the fire resistance performance after the impact of explosions acting on firewalls, as shown in Fig. 2.

The existing method is described as follows. After selecting a target firewall structure, the likelihood of a fire accident was evaluated qualitatively to discern the hazards. A fire accident scenario is derived based on the fire hazard identified in the “Fire hazard identification” stage, and thermal-structure response characteristics were analyzed by numerical analysis and experiment. The fire resistance of a firewall was evaluated by comparing the capacity design strength ( $C_d$ ) of the structure determined through the previous process with the demand

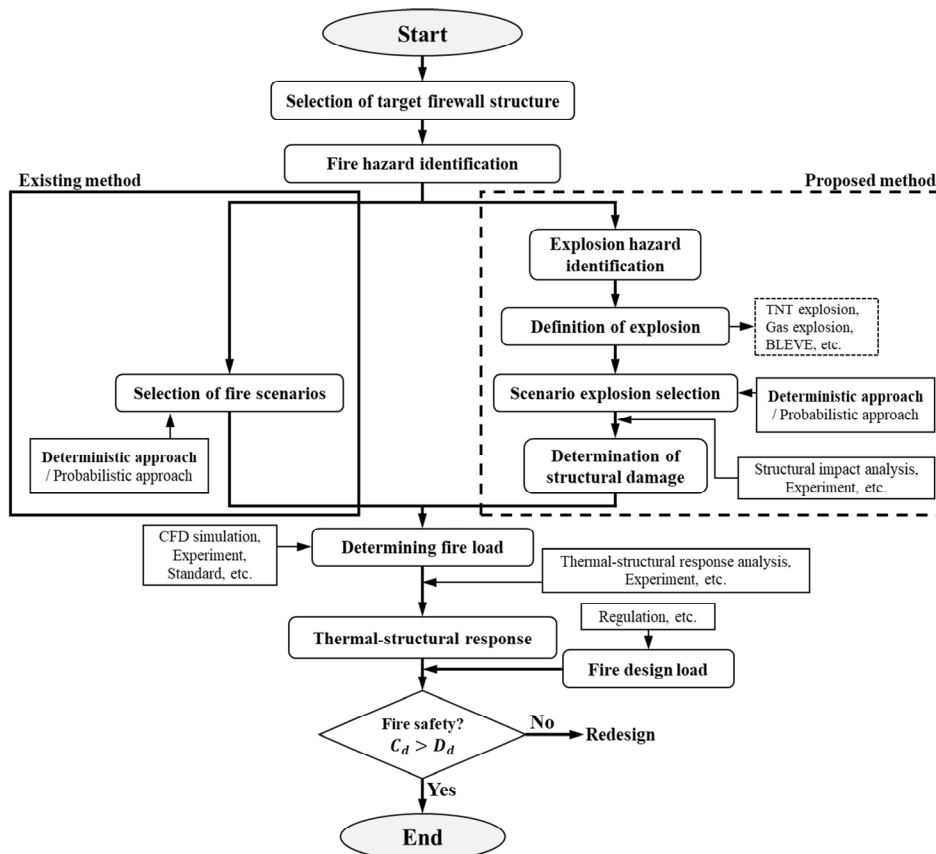


Fig. 2 Methodology of fire resistance characteristics analysis



design load ( $D_i$ ). The proposed method also proceeds similarly to the existing method, as shown in Fig. 2. This study evaluated the fire resistance performance of firewalls considering the consequences of explosion by supplementing the existing method.

The “Explosion hazard identification” step identified the potential for an explosion by considering the fire resistance materials, explosion conditions, and consequences of an explosion. The “Definition of explosion” is the stage for selecting the form and influential factors of the explosion. The type of explosion among various explosions, such as boiling liquid expansion steam explosion (BLEVE), solid explosion, gas explosion, and dust explosion, and the influential factors of the explosion affecting the structure are defined. The explosion scenario is selected in the “Scenario explosion selection” stage using an existing deterministic or probabilistic approach based on the explosion characteristics defined in the previous stages. In the “Determination of the structural damage” stage, structural impact analysis and experimental methods are used to predict the degree of damage to the firewall. The degree of damage is applied to the firewall. The thermal-structural response characteristics are identified in the “Thermal-structural response” stage through numerical analysis and experimental methods using the damaged firewall defined in the previous stage as the target structure.

### 3. Example of Application

Recently, battery fires/explosions of electric vehicles are a major risk factor. Accordingly, the vehicle hangar area of the pure car carrier carrying electric vehicles was selected as the location of the accident. Therefore, this study assumed the fire and explosion scenarios that a secondary fire was caused by a hydrocarbon-based combustible substance after the fragment was scattered by the explosive pressure of a small vehicle (fuel tank and battery). The target firewall will be damaged by impact and thermal loads of fragments induced explosion and fire.

The scatter of fragments caused by explosions was assumed, and the shape and initial velocity of the fragments were considered the influential factor. The solid explosive pressure of a compact car is converted to the TNT (trinitrotoluene) mass using the TNT equivalent method. Fig. 3 shows a schematic diagram of the application of the

proposed method. Structural damage and thermal-structural response characteristics of firewall structures were analyzed consecutively using commercial finite element analysis code (Livermore Software Technology Corporation, 2018) through impact analysis and thermal response analysis.

#### 3.1 Target Structure

A typical firewall panel that can be installed in a large compartment of ship and connected by a channel was selected as the target structure, as shown in Fig. 4. The firewall panel is a structure with mineral wool, one of the PFP materials, built between frames made of steel. Fig. 4 presents the main dimensions of the target structure, and each element was modeled in a hexahedron sharing eight nodes. As shown in Fig. 5, convergence studies were conducted to select the optimal mesh size. Convergence was reviewed in terms of the maximum Von Mises stress and maximum equivalent strain for each of various element sizes (20 mm × 20 mm, 10 mm × 10 mm, 6 mm × 6 mm, 5 mm × 5 mm, and 3 mm × 3 mm), and it was selected as an element size of 5mm×5mm according to the result. The range expected to be affected by the impact load was applied fine element, and another range applied a coarse mesh; Table 1 provides information on model elements.

#### 3.2 Scenarios Selection

The explosion fragments were selected in the shape of a sphere and a cube, and the degree of damage according to the velocity of various shapes was compared by assuming that the mass of each fragment was the same as 10 kg of steel. Considering the shape characteristics of the fragments, a total of three impact positions, including points, lines, and surfaces, were considered, as shown in Fig. 6.

The explosion pressure must be defined to calculate the initial scattering velocity of fragments. Consequently, the TNT equivalent mass method was used to estimate the explosion pressure according to the separation distance between the firewall panel (target structure) and the center of the explosion. According to Federal Emergency Management Agency (2006), the TNT equivalent mass of a small vehicle is 227 kg, and the maximum pressure by the distance between fragments from the explosion could be calculated using Eq. (1) (Newmark and Hansen, 1961).

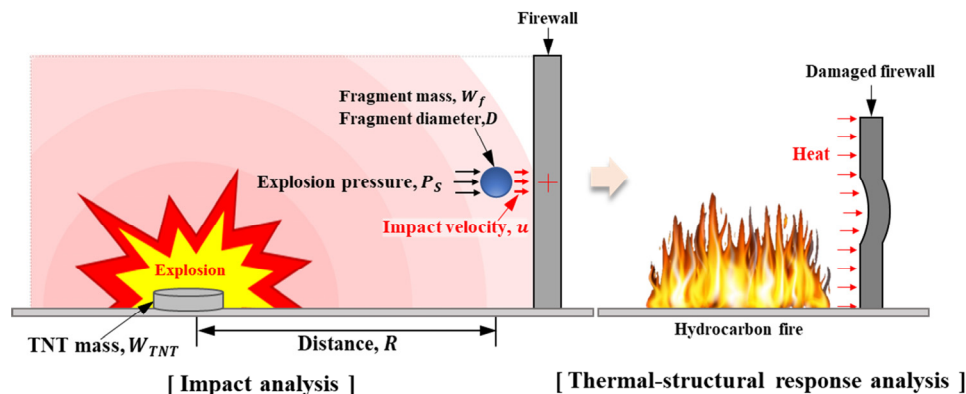


Fig. 3 Target location and fire resistance characteristics analysis scenario of the firewall

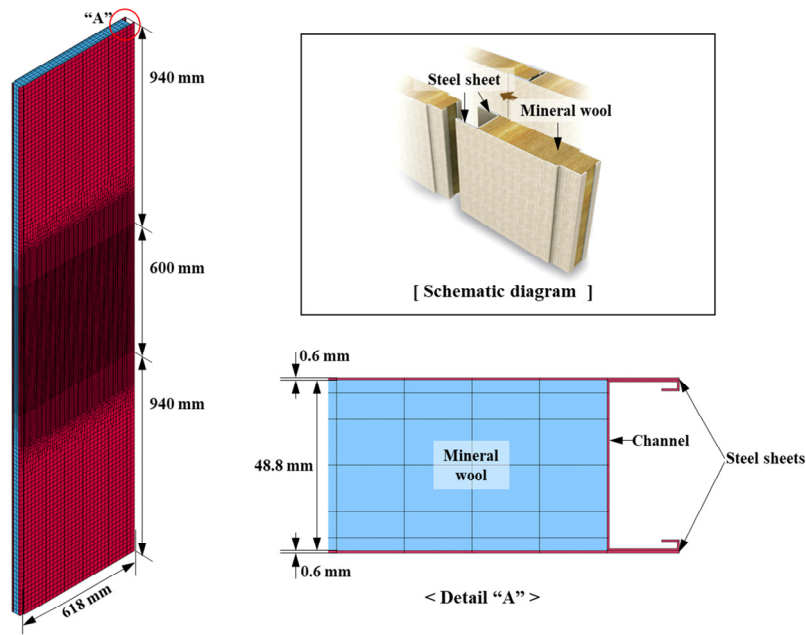


Fig. 4 Schematic diagram and FE (Finite element) model of the typical firewall panel

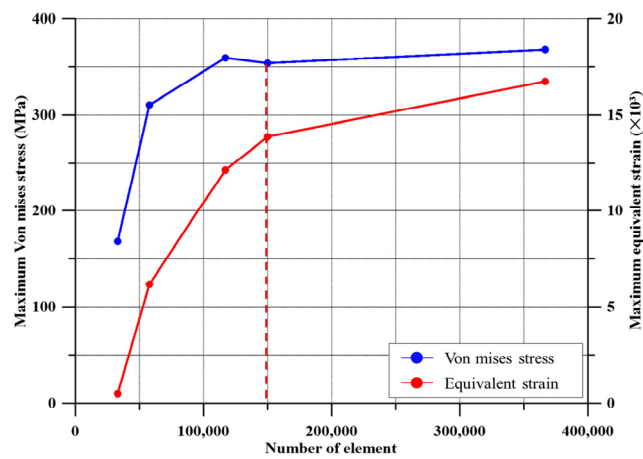


Fig. 5 Result of the convergence study to determine the optimal element size

Table 1 Description of elements in the FE model of the firewall

Feature	Steel sheets & channel		Mineral wool	
	Coarse mesh	Fine mesh	Coarse mesh	Fine mesh
Element type	Solid		Solid	
Element size	20 mm × 20 mm × 0.6 mm	5 mm × 5 mm × 0.6 mm	20 mm × 20 mm × (4-12) mm	5 mm × 5 mm × (4-7) mm
The number of elements	9,524	32,640	22,324	85,440
The number of all elements	149,928			

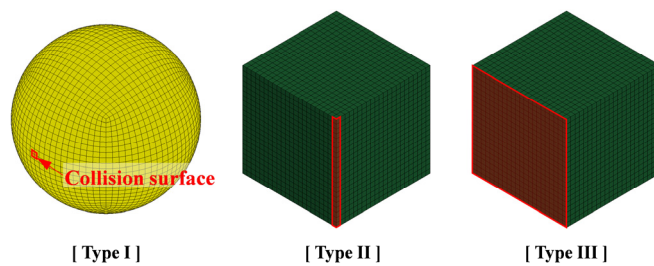


Fig. 6 Fragment FE model and initial contact surface in each case

$$P_s = 678.4 \frac{W_{TNT}}{1000R^3} + 9.3 \left( \frac{W_{TNT}}{1000R^3} \right)^{1/2} \quad (1)$$

where  $P_s$  is the maximum pressure;  $W_{TNT}$  is the TNT equivalent mass;  $R$  is the separation distance of the firewall from the explosion. The initial scattering velocity of the fragment could be calculated by substituting the maximum pressure for each distance defined by Eq. (1) into Eq. (2) (CCPS, 1999).

$$u = 2.05 \sqrt{\frac{P_s D^3}{W_f}} \quad (2)$$

where  $u$  is the initial scattering velocity of the fragment;  $D$  is the diameter of the fragment area under explosive pressure;  $W_f$  is the mass of the fragment. The fragment area subjected to explosion pressure different according to the shape and initial collision surface of the fragment. Thus, the initial scattering velocity was different for each fragment shape. On the other hand, the initial scattering velocity of the ‘‘Type I’’ fragment model was applied equally to the entire scenario to compare the degree of damage and fire resistance by each fragment shape under the same velocity condition. The impact velocity at which the fragment collides with the firewall panel has been assumed to be the initial scattering velocity in this study.

Fig. 7 presents the initial scattering velocity, i.e., impact velocity, based on the separation distance between the center of the explosion and the firewall derived through the process. The maximum pressure and initial scattering velocity at 0.1 m were 154.14 GPa and 7666.75 m/s, respectively. Case analysis was performed repeatedly to estimate the appropriate impact velocity range. The fragment fully penetrated the firewall at the impact velocity condition of approximately 12 m/s. There was little difference in fire resistance performance depending on the degree of damage under an impact velocity condition of less than approximately 8 m/s. Therefore, the initial scattering velocity range was determined from 8 to 12 m/s. Nine scenarios were selected in

**Table 2** Study scenarios with different impact conditions

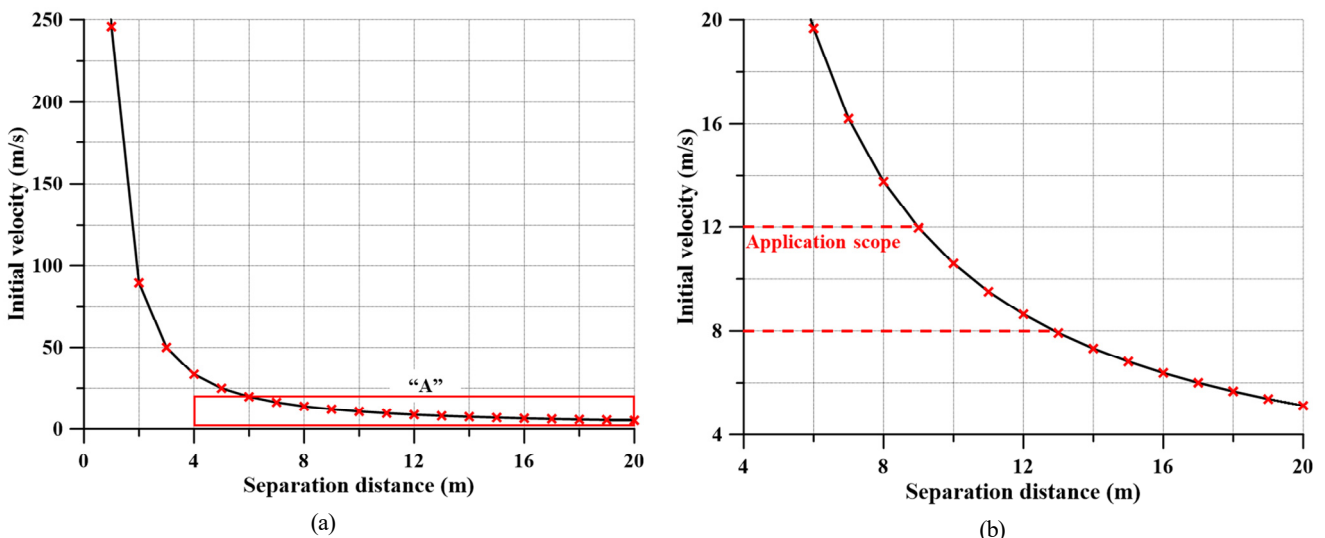
Scenario no.	Initial velocity of fragment (m/s)	Fragment type
1		I
2	8	II
3		III
4		I
5	10	II
6		III
7		I
8	12	II
9		III

terms of the shape, collision surface, and initial scattering velocity of the fragment, as shown in Table 2.

### 3.3 Impact Analysis by Explosive Fragment

#### 3.3.1 Mechanical material property

Steel sheets and channels were modeled with mild steel material, and the material properties for each firewall model were obtained through the tensile test results (Paik et al., 2017; Park et al., 2021). Table 3 lists the material properties of mineral wool and mild steel, and Table 4 summarizes the thermal properties of mineral wool at varying temperatures. The fracture behavior of the structure was simulated by applying a dynamic fracture strain and eliminating the elements exceeding the set fracture strain. The dynamic fracture strain of steel materials by various impact velocities was calculated using Eq. (3) to define the dynamic fracture characteristics of the model (Paik et al., 2017; Cowper and Symonds, 1957). Table 5 lists the dynamic fracture strain of carbon steel computed by various impact velocities. The dynamic fracture strain of mineral wool was assumed to be 0.35, which was estimated through parametric studies based on the damaged volume due to a lack of data.



**Fig. 7** Initial velocity of fragment by the separation distance: (a) Initial velocity; (b) Zoom in ‘‘A’’

$$\epsilon_{fd} = \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{\dot{\epsilon}}{C} \right)^{\frac{1}{q}} \right]^{-1} \epsilon_{fc} \quad (3)$$

where  $\epsilon_{fd}$ ,  $\dot{\epsilon}$ , and  $\epsilon_{fc}$ , represent dynamic fracture strain, strain rate, and critical fracture strain, respectively, and  $C$  and  $q$  are Cowper-Symonds coefficients.

**Table 3** Mechanical material properties of the firewall panel (Paik et al., 2017; Park et al., 2021)

Type	Firewall	
	Mild steel	Mineral wool
Density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	7,850	200
Young's modulus (MPa)	210,000	45.25
Poisson's ratio	0.3	0.26
Yield stress (MPa)	281.6	0.257
Static fracture strain	0.429	0.0297
Couper-Symons coefficients	$C$ (s <sup>-1</sup> )	3,200
	$q$	40

**Table 4** Thermal properties of mineral wool (Park et al., 2021)

Temperature (°C)	Young's modulus (kPa)	Yield stress (kPa)
Room temperature	45.25	256.59
100	43.10	287.56
200	43.17	431.33
300	22.21	300.93
400	9.46	44.28

**Table 5** Dynamic fracture strain of mild steel used for the FEM analysis

Impact velocity (m/s)	Strain rate (s <sup>-1</sup> )	Dynamic fracture strain
8	23.074	0.087
10	29.014	0.085
12	34.954	0.078

### 3.3.2 Load condition

The upper and lower parts of firewall panel were assumed to be fixed to the wall, and the left and right parts are connected through channels. Hence, the upper and lower parts and the left and right ends were applied to the fixed and simple support conditions, respectively, as shown in Fig. 8(a). The impact point of the fragment was selected as the center of the firewall panel, which is expected to be the weakest.

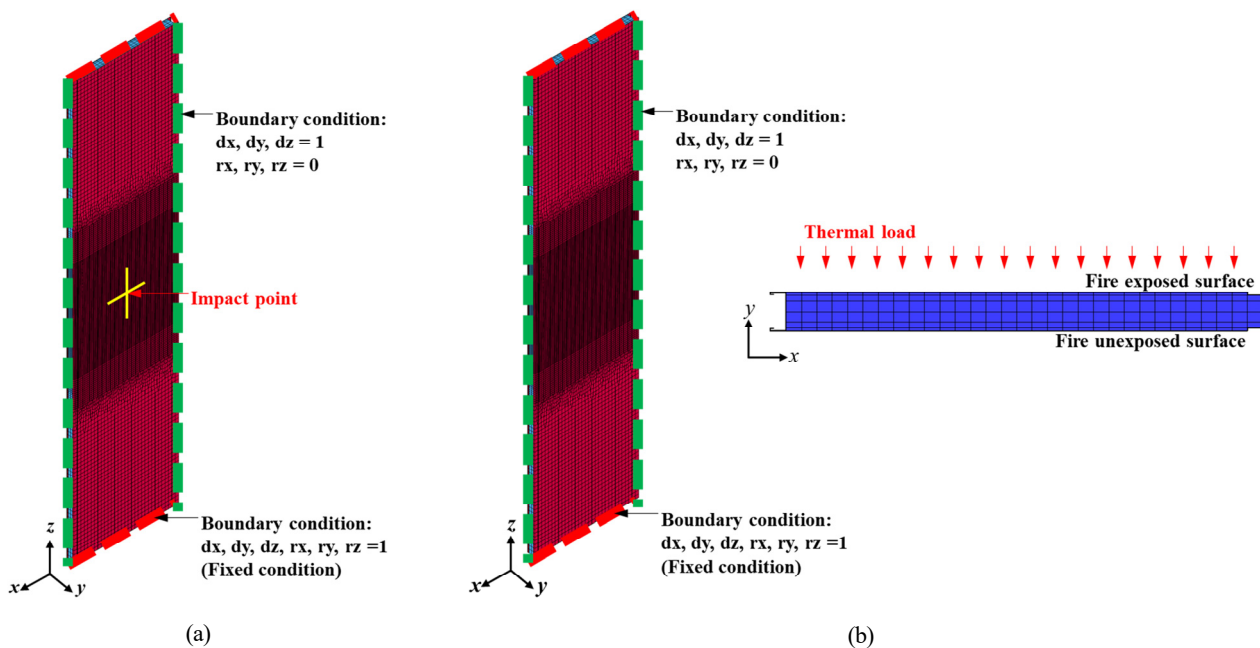
### 3.3.3 Result

Fig. 9 shows the deformed shape of the firewall panel at maximum penetration of the various fragment shape. In the case of "Type I", the damaged reduction ratio was up to 94.46% at an impact velocity of 10 m/s. In contrast, the firewall panel was slightly damaged in the case of "Type III". This result suggests that most of the kinetic energy was used to cause the global deformation of the structure, as the collision (contact) surface of the "Type III" fragment is larger than that of the other cases.

## 3.4 Thermal-Structural Response Analysis

### 3.4.1 Thermal mechanical property of the material

The thermal properties of steel material were modeled by applying the reduction factor provided by Eurocode 3 (European Committee Standardization, 2005), as shown in Fig. 10. The material properties of mineral wool by various temperatures were applied to the data summarized in Table 4.



**Fig. 8** Boundary conditions and loading direction applied: (a) Impact analysis; (b) Thermal-structural response analysis

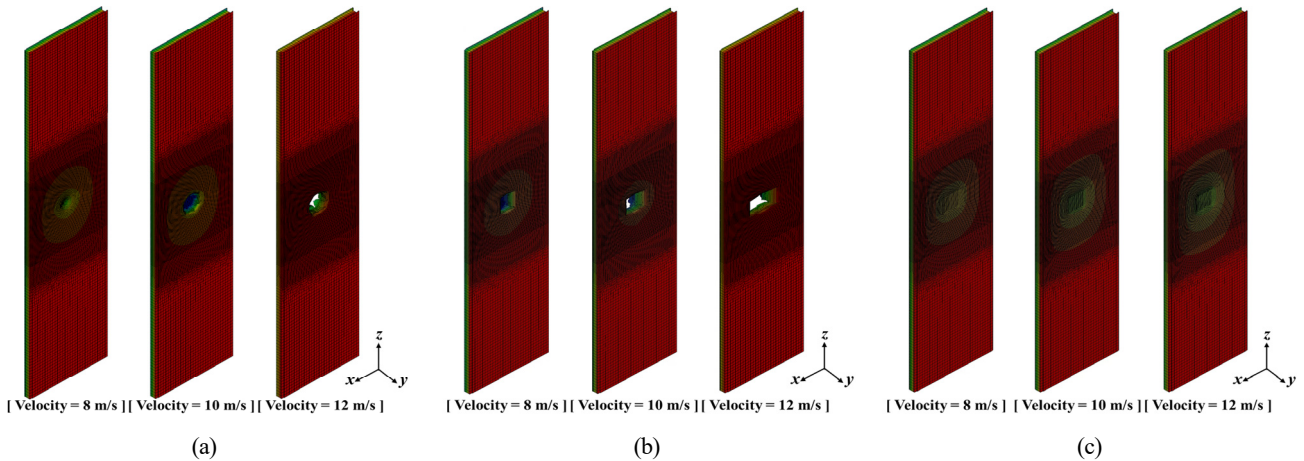


Fig. 9 Damaged firewall due to the impact of the fragment: (a) Fragment type I; (b) Fragment type II; (c) Fragment type III

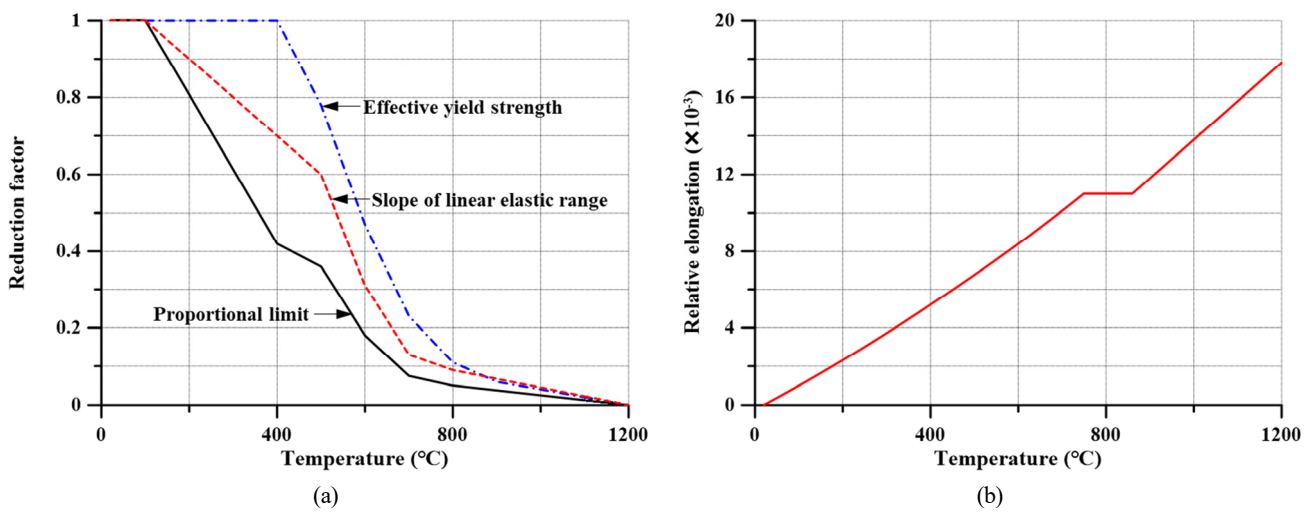


Fig. 10 Mechanical properties of carbon steel varying with temperatures (European Committee Standardization, 2005): (a) Reduction factor; (b) Thermal elongation

### 3.4.2 Thermal property

The thermal behavior characteristics of steel materials were modeled, as shown in Fig. 11, by applying the data provided in Eurocode 3 (European Committee Standardization, 2005). The thermal

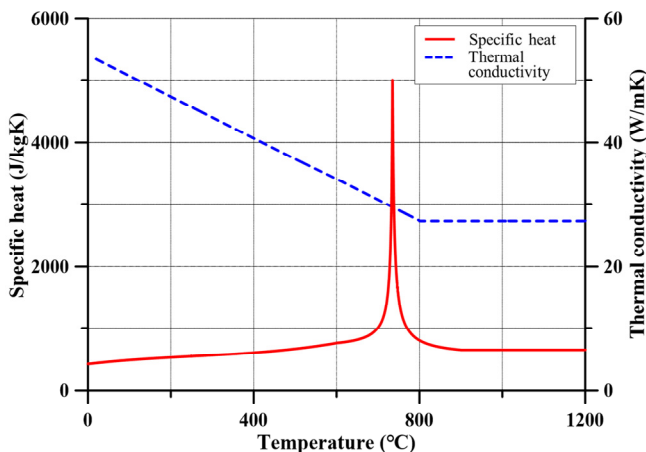


Fig. 11 Thermal properties with varying temperatures (European Committee Standardization, 2005)

behavior characteristics of mineral wool were obtained from the fire test results. The thermal conductivity and specific heat are 0.37 W/mK and 836.80 J/kgK, respectively (Park et al., 2021).

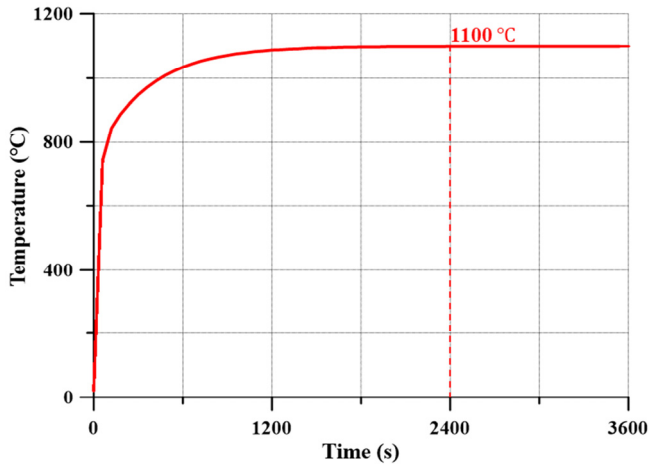
### 3.4.3 Load condition

The same boundary conditions were assumed as the impact analysis, and the load condition was considered so that the thermal loading acted throughout the same surface as the impact point of the fragment, as shown in Fig. 8(b). The thermal loading represented by the hydrocarbon fire curve presented in Eurocode 1 (European Committee Standardization, 2002) acted on the firewall fire exposure surface for 3600 seconds, as shown in Fig. 12.

## 3.5 Result

### 3.5.1 Comparison by the degree of damage

The degree of damage was calculated by measuring the reduced volume in the central section of the firewall panel, and the fire resistance performance was analyzed by comparing the temperature between the fire-exposed and unexposed surfaces of the firewall panel. Fig. 13 shows the temperature distribution after exposure to thermal



**Fig. 12** Hydrocarbon fire curve (European Committee Standardization, 2002)

load for one hour, and Fig. 14 presents the maximum temperature at each location. The asymmetric deformation of firewalls was caused by the geometric difference between the left and right ends to which the boundary condition was applied, as shown in Fig. 13.

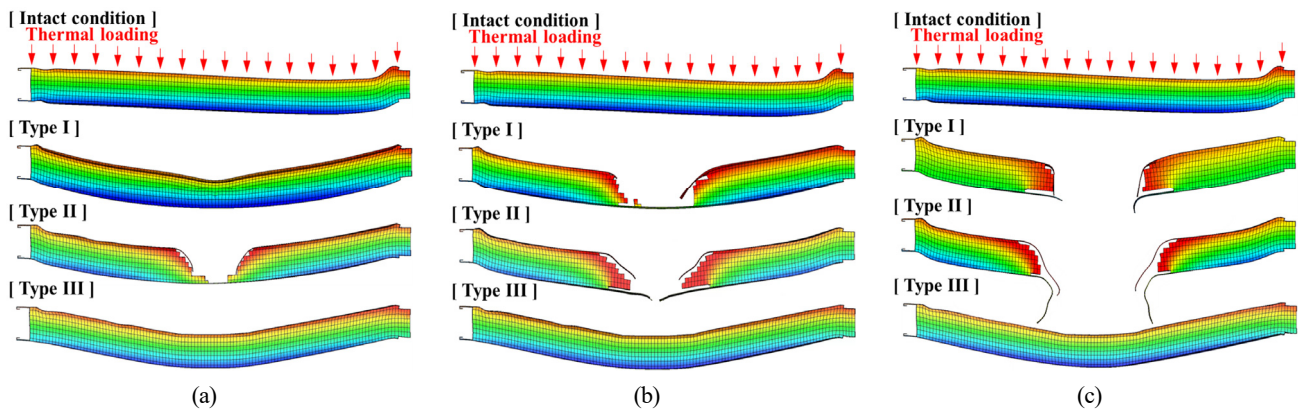
In the case of firewall panels damaged by “Type I” and “Type II” fragments at an impact velocity of 8 m/s, there was a temperature difference of 0.14–41.48% from the intact firewall, but there was little difference in the case of the “Type III” fragment. Global deformation

occurred at the structure and there was little volume change because the collision surface of the “Type III” fragment is wide and flat, as described in the impact analysis results in Section 3.4.

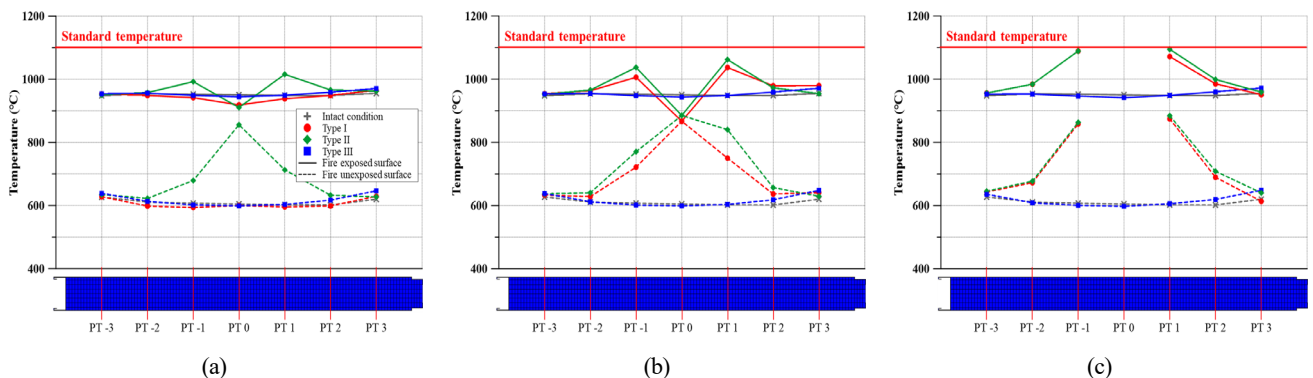
The “Type III” fragment at an impact velocity of 10 m/s showed a temperature and damaged volume difference of 0.16–4.53% and 0.01% compared to the intact firewall panel, respectively, as shown in Fig. 14(b). In the case of the “Type I” fragment, the temperature was increased by 43.36%, while the volume decreased by 94.46 %.

In the case of “Type I” and “Type II” at an impact velocity of 12 m/s, Fig. 14(c) shows the temperature distribution for the remaining points, except for the “PT0” point, which was immeasurable because of the penetration of the fragment. The temperature of the “PT-1” and “PT1”, which had the most differences in fire unexposed surface, was measured at 41.29%, 45.16% (“Type I”), 42.14%, and 46.81% (“Type II”) higher than the intact firewall panel, respectively.

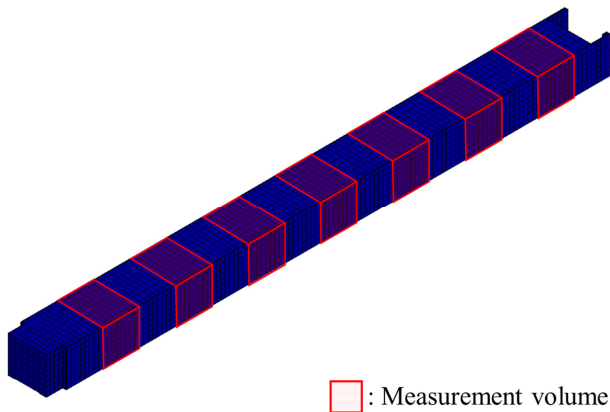
At the position indicated in Fig. 15, the temperature difference and temperature ratio of the non-exposed surface to the fire-exposed surface depending on the degree of the volume damage were compared (Fig. 16). The temperature difference and ratio decreased and increased linearly depending on the volume reduction ratio, respectively. Compared to the intact condition, the temperature difference between both surfaces of the firewall panel was decreased by a maximum of 99.97%, and the temperature ratio between both surfaces was increased by up to 57.15%. The temperature



**Fig. 13** Temperature contour of the firewall panel center under thermal load at various impact velocities: (a) 8 m/s, (b) 10 m/s, and (c) 12 m/s



**Fig. 14** Maximum temperature comparison at each point with varying impact velocities: (a) 8 m/s, (b) 10 m/s, and (c) 12 m/s



□ : Measurement volume

Fig. 15 Measurement point of damaged volume

characteristics differed according to the degree of damage. Therefore, the temperature characteristics showed a clear difference depending on the degree of damage, which was deemed necessary to evaluate the fire resistance performance of the firewall in consideration of the impact of

the explosion, as proposed in this paper.

3.5.2 Comparison by fire exposure time

The fire resistance performance was compared in terms of temperature increase rate and time to reach reference temperature based on analysis results of the firewall panel damaged by “Type II” fragment when a thermal load was applied. Figs. 17–19 show the curve of fire exposure time-measurement temperature at the “PT-1”, “PT0”, and “PT1” points on the fire-exposed and unexposed surfaces of the central section of the firewall panel.

The temperature increase rate was compared in the range of 100 to 200°C, where the temperature increased rapidly, to quantitative analyze the change in fire resistance caused by damage, as shown in Fig. 20. Furthermore, the time to reach the reference temperature was derived according to the degree of damage, and 607.37°C was the maximum temperature of the fire unexposed surface at the intact firewall and used as the reference temperature.

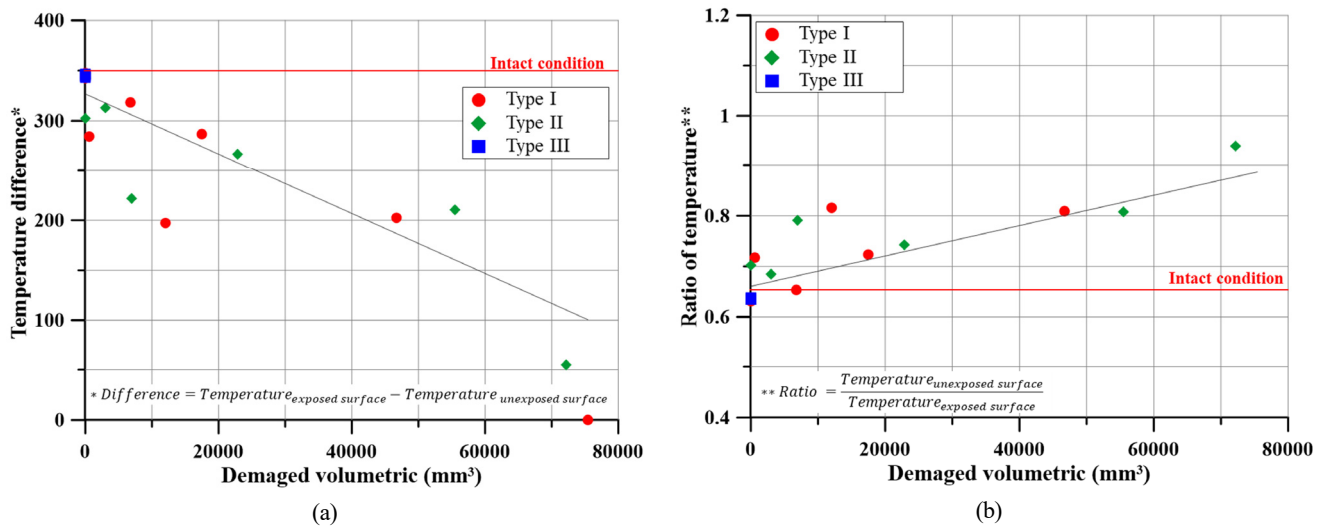


Fig. 16 Comparison of the temperature characteristics at different damaged volumes: (a) Temperature difference; (b) Temperature ratio

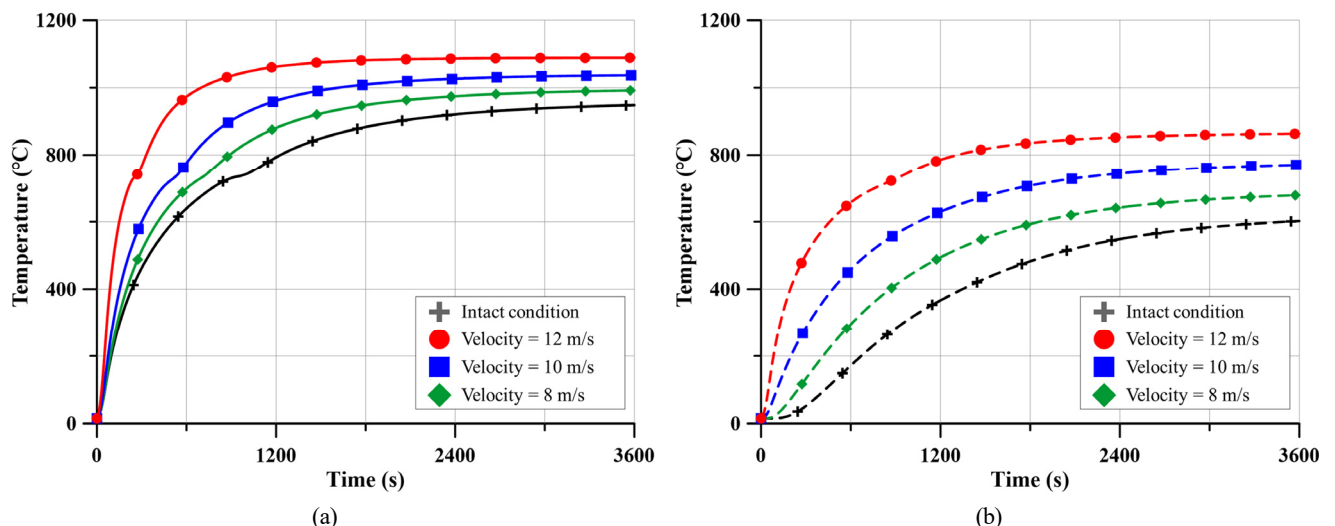


Fig. 17 Temperature comparison at “PT -1” with the varying impact velocities: (a) Fire-exposed surface; (b) Fire unexposed surface

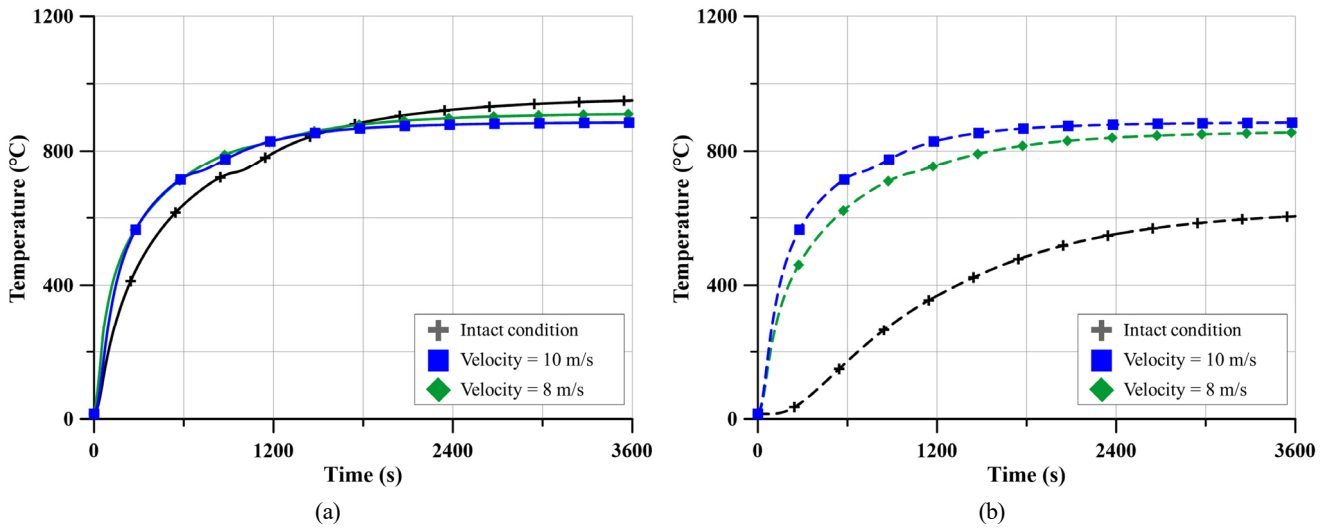


Fig. 18 Temperature comparison at “PT 0” with the varying impact velocities: (a) Fire-exposed surface; (b) Fire unexposed surface

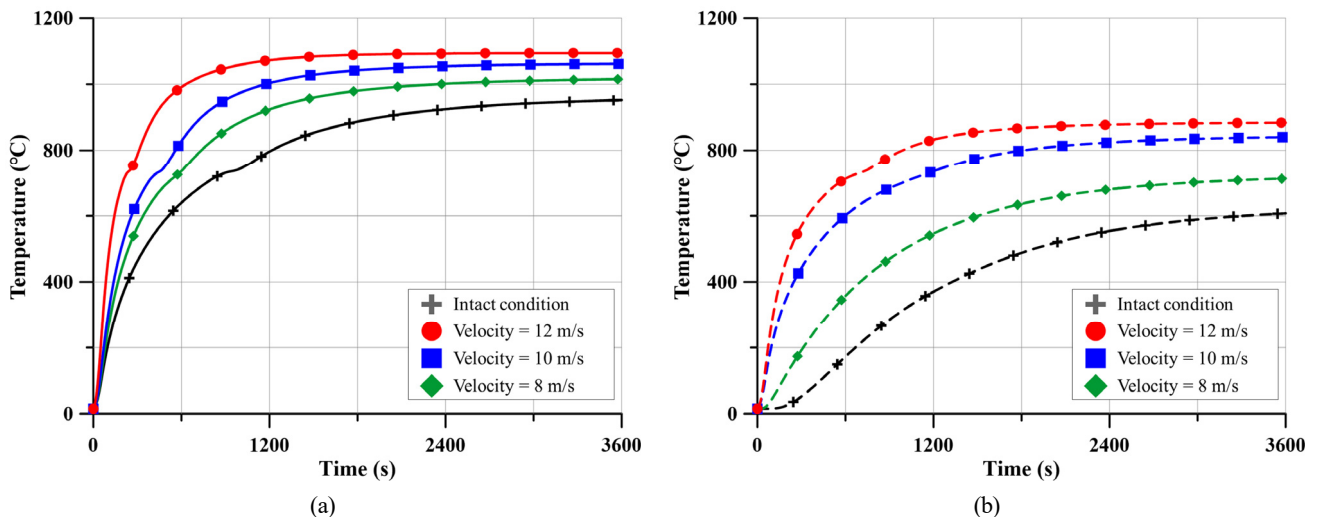


Fig. 19 Temperature comparison at “PT 1” with the varying impact velocities: (a) Fire-exposed surface; (b) Fire unexposed surface

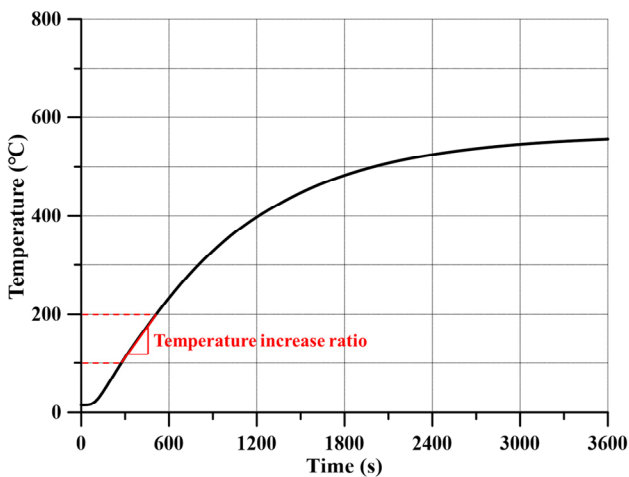


Fig. 20 Computational method of temperature increase ratio

Based on the results of Figs. 17–19, the maximum temperature, temperature increase rate, and time to reach reference temperature of fire-exposed and unexposed surfaces were organized in Table 6 by

each measurement point. The temperature between 100–200°C tended to increase at an inclination of 0.59–3.70 depending on the degree of damage. Thermal-structural response analysis showed that the time to reach the reference temperature of the firewall panel collided with the corner of a cube scattered at a velocity of 10 m/s was a minimum of 5.63 minutes. Thus, firewall damage is expected to affect the evacuation time and structural aspects.

#### 4. Conclusions

This study presented an advanced firewall design evaluation method for assessing the fire resistance performance associated with impact damage induced by explosions. Nine scenarios were selected to assess the variables for the shape and impact velocity of the fragments during a solid explosion. According to the evaluation method mentioned, the impact analysis was performed to determine the degree of damage owing to the explosion effect. Furthermore, the thermal-structural response analysis of the firewall panel applied with the degree of



**Table 6** Comparison of the fire resistance performance.

No.	Impact velocity (m/s)	Measurement point no.	Maximum temperature (°C)		Temperature increase ratio	Time to reach temperature of 607.37°C (min)
			Exposed surface	Unexposed surface		
1	-	PT -1	952.31	607.37	0.41	60
2		PT 0	950.39	604.71	0.41	-
3		PT 1	948.47	602.27	0.41	-
4	8	PT -1	992.18	679.14	0.59	32.20
5		PT 0	910.28	855.55	2.93	8.95
6		PT 1	1015.47	712.94	0.71	25.95
7	10	PT -1	1037.15	770.30	1.06	18.09
8		PT 0	885.15	885.07	3.70	5.63
9		PT 1	712.94	840.10	2.36	10.28
10	12	PT -1	1088.95	863.32	2.92	7.91
11		PT 0	-	-	-	-
12		PT 1	1094.67	884.19	3.53	5.88

damage was performed, and the results were analyzed. The following conclusions were derived:

(1) In the present study, the existing fire resistance evaluation method was supplemented, and advanced fire resistance evaluation methods and thermal-structural response analysis modeling techniques were presented.

(2) A firewall panel with mineral wool, one of the materials of PFP, was selected as a target structure, and the impact analysis and the thermal-structural response analysis were performed to analyze thermal-structural characteristics by explosion damage.

(3) A comparison of the fire-exposed and the non-exposed surface of the firewall panel showed that as the temperature difference decreased, the temperature ratio tended to increase as the volume reduction rate of the structure. Scenario analysis showed that when the volume decreased by up to 94.46%, the temperature difference decreased by up to 99.97%, and the temperature ratio increased by up to 57.15%.

(4) A temperature increase rate of 0.41 was observed in the case of intact firewalls, but the temperature increased sharply to 0.59–3.70 in the case of damaged firewalls. Furthermore, the time to reach the reference temperature, 607.37°C in this paper, was reduced by 90.62% compared to the intact firewall with a minimum of 5.63 minutes, depending on the degree of damage.

(5) Mineral wool is an insulating material and does not guarantee the resistance of the structure to damage, and research on dynamic material properties is insufficient. In this study, the dynamic fracture strain of mineral wool was estimated by parametric studies. Therefore, it is necessary to derive the dynamic material properties through experiments on the target load, when a close investigation of the damage behavior characteristics of firewalls, including insulation materials, such as mineral wool materials.

(6) The fire resistance performance was analyzed in terms of the temperature difference and ratio, temperature increase rate, and the time to reach reference temperature between both surfaces of the firewall panel. As a result, there was a clear difference in performance

depending on the degree of damage. This method is anticipated to be a variable when calculating the design load considering the explosion impact.

The advanced method can reduce the damage to human life and property caused by fires and explosions. The fire resistance performance evaluation considering fire/explosion accidents will be effectively realized if appropriate standards are in place for the proposed evaluation method.

### Conflict of Interest

Jung Kwan Seo serves a journal publication committee member of the Journal of Ocean Engineering and Technology, but he had no role in the decision to publish this article. No potential conflict of interest relevant to this article was reported.

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# Collision Simulation of a Floating Offshore Wind Turbine Considering Ductile Fracture and Hydrodynamics Using Hydrodynamic Plug-in HydroQus

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**KEYWORDS:** Floating offshore wind turbine, Collision, Ductile fracture, Hydrodynamics, Fluid-structure interaction

**ABSTRACT:** This paper intends to introduce the applicability of HydroQus to a problem of a tanker collision against a semi-submersible type floating offshore wind turbine (FOWT). HydroQus is a plug-in based on potential flow theory that generates interactive hydroforces in a commercial Finite element analysis (FEA) code Abaqus/Explicit. Frequency response analyses were conducted for a 10MW capacity FOWT to obtain hydrostatic and hydrodynamic constants. The tanker was modeled with rigid elements, while elastic-plastic elements were used for the FOWT. Mooring chains were modeled to implement station keeping ability of the FOWT. Two types of fracture models were considered: constant failure strain model and combined failure strain model HC-LN model composed of Hosford-Coulomb (HC) model & localized necking (LN) model. The damage extents were evaluated by hydroforces and failure strain models. The largest equivalent plastic strain observed in the cases where both restoring force and radiation force were considered. Stress triaxiality and damage indicator analysis showed that the application of HC-LN model was suitable. It could be stated that applications of suitable failure strain model and hydrodynamics into the collision simulations were of importance.

## 1. Introduction

Along with the continuous upsizing of offshore wind turbine (OWT) units to reduce the cost of power generation, commercial farms are also becoming larger. As commercial farms become larger, ships must be allowed to pass through them, increasing the likelihood of collisions with OWTs. A cargo ship collided with an OWT at a 330 MW commercial wind farm in Germany (Jasmina, 2023). Furthermore, collisions can lead to significant damage to floating OWTs (FOWTs), such as structural damage and loss of stability due to flooding, while ships can cause economic and environmental losses such as cargo loss and oil spills, as well as loss of life. To prepare for this, the Det Norske Veritas (DNV) offshore standard (DNV, 2013) provides design guidance for accidental ship collisions.

Dai et al. (2013) studied the collision of a fixed wind turbine with a monopile substructure and a 230-ton vessel and provided suggestions for collision risk reduction. Moulas et al. (2017) studied the collision of an OWT with a 4,000-ton ship on monopile and jacket substructures. They considered different ship speeds and collision angles, but environmental loads such as wind and wave loads were not

considered. Bela et al. (2017) performed a collision analysis between a 5,000-ton vessel and an OWT with a monopile substructure. The effects of ship speed, wind load, and soil stiffness on the collision were analyzed, but hydrodynamic forces acting on the ship were not considered.

Echeverry et al. (2019) performed a collision analysis of a spar-type FOWT and Márquez et al. (2022) studied the collision of a reinforced concrete barge-type FOWT with a 3,000-ton ship. Both studies used MCOL to consider hydrodynamic forces, but did not consider wave and wind loads. Zhang and Hu (2022) studied the collision of a spar-type FOWT with a 4,000-ton ship. User subroutines were used in LS-DYNA (LSTC, 2023) to implement aerodynamics and hydrodynamics. The drag force on the rotor area was calculated and the wind thrust load was applied as a point load to the center of the rotor. Since it was difficult to accurately model the initial mooring layout, instead of directly modeling the mooring lines, the linearized restoring matrix proposed by Jonkman (2007) was applied.

This study aims to address the collision of a 10 MW semi-submersible FOWT with a 5,000 ton ship using Abaqus/Explicit (Simulia, 2021). In order to generate fluid forces in Abaqus, either

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arbitrary Lagrangian Eulerian (ALE) or coupled Eulerian Lagrangian (CEL) must be utilized. However, the adoption of ALE or CEL requires too long computational time, so in this study, HydroQus developed by Han (2022) and Yoon et al. (2023) is used to perform the collision analysis of ship and FOWT. HydroQus is a plug-in of the commercial finite element analysis (FEA) code Abaqus that generates real-time hydrodynamic forces. HydroQus calculates hydrodynamic forces such as radiation force, wave excitation force, as well as restoring force acting on the FOWT in real time. Yoon et al. (2023) verified the accuracy of HydroQus and performed a collision analysis between a ship and an iceberg. The mooring of the FOWT was modeled using beam elements and joint elements. The HC-LN model, a synthesis of the Hosford-Coulomb (HC) model and the localized necking (LN) model, was used to accurately predict the structural damage caused by the collision. A user subroutine developed by Cerik et al. (2019) was applied to implement the HC-LN model in Abaqus.

## 2. Theoretical Background

### 2.1 Governing Equations for HydroQus

According to Newton's second law, the governing equation of motion for a floating body can be expressed as Eq. (1).  $M_{ij}$  is the mass of a floating body, and  $\ddot{u}_j$  is the acceleration of a floating body. The subscript  $i$  and  $j$  represent 6 degrees of freedom, 1 = surge, 2 = sway, 3 = heave, 4 = roll, 5 = pitch, and 6 = yaw. The restoring force  $F_i^{res}$  is calculated from the hydrostatic stiffness  $C_{ij}$  and the displacement of a floating body  $u_j$  as shown in Eq. (2). According to Cummin's equation, the radiation force  $F_i^{rad}$  is expressed as Eq. (3). It is important that  $t_1$  should be long enough for the impulse response function  $K_{ij}$  to converge stably to zero. The wave damping coefficient  $B_{ij}(\omega)$  obtained through frequency response analysis is used to calculate the impulse response function as shown in Eq. (5). The added mass  $m_{ij}(\infty)$  can be calculated by Eq. (4). The wave excitation force  $F_i^{wv}$  for the regular wave is defined as Eq. (6).  $F_i$  is the response amplitude operator (RAO) of the wave excitation force obtained by frequency response analysis,  $H$  is the wave height and  $\phi$  is the wave phase. The mooring force  $F_i^{mr}$  due to the mooring line and the impact force  $F_i^{col}$  due to the collision of the FOWT with the tanker are calculated in Abaqus.

$$M_{ij}\ddot{u}_j(t) = F_i^{res}(t) + F_i^{rad}(t) + F_i^{wv}(t) + F_i^{mr}(t) + F_i^{col}(t) \quad (1)$$

$$F_i^{res}(t) = C_{ij}u_j(t) \quad (2)$$

$$F_i^{rad}(t) = m_{ij}(\infty)\ddot{u}_j(t) + \int_0^{t_1} K_{ij}(t-\tau)\ddot{u}_j(\tau)d\tau \quad (3)$$

$$m_{ij}(\infty) = m_{ij}(\omega) + \int_0^\infty K_{ij}(\tau)\frac{\sin(\omega\tau)}{\omega}d\tau \quad (4)$$

$$K_{ij}(t) = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty B_{ij}(\omega)\cos(\omega t)d\omega \quad (5)$$

$$F_i^{wv}(t) = \frac{H}{2} F_i(\omega)\cos(-\omega t + \phi) \quad (6)$$

For modeling the mooring lines, the catenary equations presented in the studies of Masciola et al. (2013) and Jonkman (2007) were used, and are given by Eqs. (7)–(14).  $l$  and  $h$  denote the vertical and horizontal positions of the fairlead, respectively.  $H$  and  $V$  are the horizontal and vertical forces at the fairlead.  $EA$ ,  $W$ , and  $L$  are the properties of the mooring line: axial stiffness, weight per unit length, and unstretched length.  $C_B$  is the friction coefficient between seabed and mooring line and  $L_B$  is the laid length on seabed. By calculating Eq. (10) and Eq. (11), the location along the line segment  $s$  is derived, which are used to model mooring lines.

$$l = L_B + \frac{H}{W}\sinh^{-1}\left(\frac{V}{H}\right) + \frac{HL}{EA} + \frac{C_B W}{2EA} \left[ \mu \left( L - \frac{V}{W} - \frac{H}{C_B W} \right) - \left( L - \frac{V}{W} \right)^2 \right] \quad (7)$$

$$h = \frac{H}{W} \left[ \sqrt{1 + \left( \frac{V}{H} \right)^2} - 1 \right] + \frac{V^2}{2EA W} \quad (8)$$

$$\mu = \begin{cases} L - \frac{V}{W} - \frac{H}{C_B W} & \text{for } \left( L - \frac{V}{W} - \frac{H}{C_B W} \right) > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

$$x(s) = \begin{cases} s & \text{for } 0 \leq s \leq \gamma \\ s + \frac{C_B W}{2EA} [s^2 - 2s\gamma + \gamma] & \text{for } \gamma \leq s \leq L_B \\ L_B + H_W \sinh^{-1} \left[ \frac{W(s - L_B)}{H} \right] & \text{for } L_B \leq s \leq L \\ + \frac{HS}{EA} + \frac{C_B W}{2EA} [\lambda\gamma - L_B^2] & \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

$$z(s) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } 0 \leq s \leq L_B \\ \frac{H}{W} \left[ \sqrt{1 + \left( \frac{W(s - L_B)}{H} \right)^2} - 1 \right] & \text{for } L_B \leq s \leq L \\ + \frac{W(s - L_B)^2}{2EA} & \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

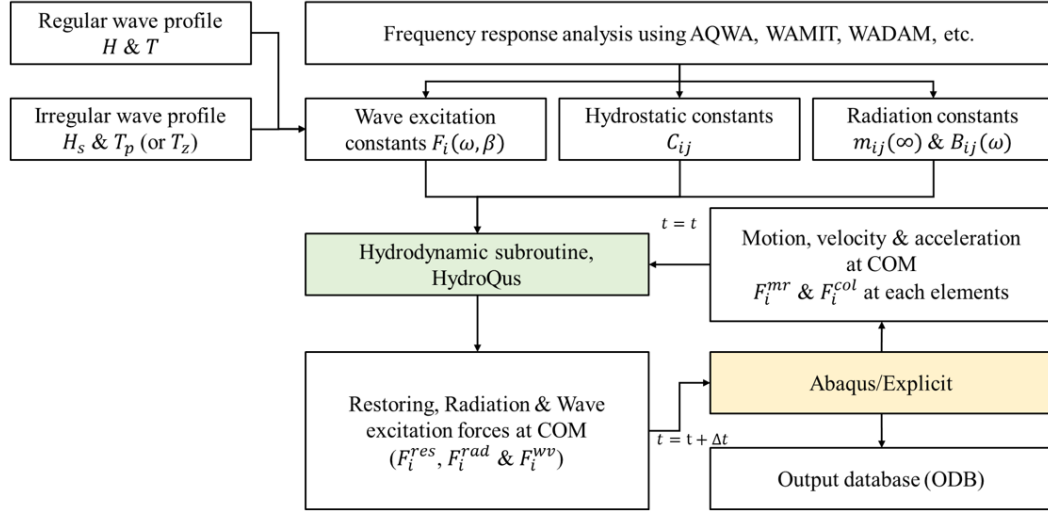
$$\gamma = L_B - \frac{H}{C_B W} \quad (12)$$

$$\lambda = \begin{cases} \gamma & \text{for } \gamma > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

$$L_B = L - \frac{V}{W} \quad (14)$$

### 2.2 Process of Fluid-structure Interaction

Abaqus is a commercial FEA code that includes a variety of material constitutive equations and a robust contact algorithm. However, Abaqus is not capable of generating hydrodynamic forces based on potential flow theory on its own. To solve this problem, the authors of



**Fig. 1** Flow chart of fluid-structure interaction scheme using HydroQus

this paper developed HydroQus, a hydrodynamic plug-in compatible with Abaqus/Explicit. HydroQus can generate linear or nonlinear restoring forces, radiation forces, and 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> order wave excitation forces. The hydrodynamic coefficients used in the calculations must be obtained in advance from a frequency response analysis. For the wave excitation force calculation, the wave height  $H$  (or significant wave height  $H_s$ ) and wave period  $T$  (or peak period  $T_p$ ) must be defined. HydroQus calculates the hydrodynamic forces using the displacement, velocity, and acceleration at the center of mass (CoM) of the FOWT at  $t = t_1$  (current time) in Abaqus and gives them to Abaqus/Explicit. Abaqus solves the equations of motion for the FOWT and the ship, respectively, using the hydrodynamic forces. During this process, Abaqus is responsible for generating the drag-based mooring tension forces and collision forces. The displacements, velocities, and accelerations at the CoM obtained by solving the equations of motion are fed back to HydroQus and used to generate the hydrodynamic forces at  $t = t_2$  (next time). This procedure is summarized in Fig. 1.

### 2.3 Flow Stress and Fracture Model

To accurately represent the hardening behavior after onset of necking, the combined Swift-Voce hardening model proposed by Sung et al. (2010) is applied in this study. The Swift-Voce hardening law is given by Eq. (15), where  $\alpha$  is the weighting factor between Swift law and Voce law. The Swift law and Voce law are given by Eq. (16) and Eq. (17), respectively. Cerik and Choung (2020) derived  $A$ ,  $\varepsilon_0$ ,  $n$ ,  $k_0$ ,  $Q$ , and  $\beta$  through tensile tests and numerical analyses.

$$k[\bar{\varepsilon}_p] = \alpha k_s[\bar{\varepsilon}_p] + (1 - \alpha) k_v[\bar{\varepsilon}_p] \quad (15)$$

$$k_s[\bar{\varepsilon}_p] = A(\varepsilon_0 + \bar{\varepsilon}_p)^n \quad (16)$$

$$k_v[\bar{\varepsilon}_p] = k_0 + Q(1 - \exp[-\beta \bar{\varepsilon}_p]) \quad (17)$$

The fracture strain in the HC model proposed by Mohr and Marcadet

(2015) is given by Eq. (18). Where  $\eta$  is the stress triaxiality and  $\bar{\theta}$  is the Lode angle. From Eq. (18) and Eq. (19),  $a$  is the load angle sensitivity,  $b$  is the fracture strain modulus,  $c$  is the stress triaxiality sensitivity, and  $n_f$  is the transformation exponent. The load angle parameter functions  $f_1$ ,  $f_2$  and  $f_3$  are calculated through Eqs. (20)–(22). To consider the stress path effect, the damage indicator  $D$  in Eq. (23) is introduced. It is assumed that fracture initiates when the damage indicator reaches 1.0.

$$\bar{\varepsilon}_{HC}^{pr}[\eta, \bar{\theta}] = b(1 + c)^{\frac{1}{n_f}} g[\eta, \bar{\theta}] \quad (18)$$

$$g[\eta, \bar{\theta}] = \left( \left\{ \frac{1}{2} ((f_1 - f_2)^a + (f_1 - f_3)^a + (f_2 - f_3)^a) \right\}^{\frac{1}{a}} + c(2\eta + f_1 + f_3) \right)^{\frac{1}{n_f}} \quad (19)$$

$$f_1[\bar{\theta}] = \frac{2}{3} \cos \left[ \frac{\pi}{6} (1 - \bar{\theta}) \right] \quad (20)$$

$$f_2[\bar{\theta}] = \frac{2}{3} \cos \left[ \frac{\pi}{6} (3 + \bar{\theta}) \right] \quad (21)$$

$$f_3[\bar{\theta}] = -\frac{2}{3} \cos \left[ \frac{\pi}{6} (1 + \bar{\theta}) \right] \quad (22)$$

$$dD = \frac{d\varepsilon_p}{\bar{\varepsilon}_{HC}^{pr}[\eta, \bar{\theta}]} \quad (23)$$

The LN fracture strain model proposed by Pack and Mohr (2017) is given by Eq. (24). Where  $d$  is the Hosford exponent and  $p_f$  is the transformation exponent. Stress triaxiality functions  $g_1$  and  $g_2$  are calculated using Eq. (25) and Eq. (26). A necking indicator  $N$  is introduced to consider the stress path effect (see Eq. (27)). Fracture is considered to occur when  $N$  reaches 1.0.

$$\bar{\varepsilon}_{LN}^{pr}[\eta] = b \left( \left\{ \frac{1}{2} ((g_1 - g_2)^d + g_1^d + g_2^d) \right\}^{\frac{1}{d}} \right)^{-\frac{1}{p_f}} \quad (24)$$

$$g_1[\eta] = \frac{3}{2}\eta - \sqrt{\frac{1}{3} - \frac{3}{4}\eta^2} \quad (25)$$

$$g_2[\eta] = \frac{3}{2}\eta - \sqrt{\frac{1}{3} - \frac{3}{4}\eta^2} \quad (26)$$

$$dN = \frac{\bar{d}e_p}{\bar{e}_{LN}^{pr}[\eta]} \text{ for } \frac{1}{3} < \eta < \frac{2}{3} \quad (27)$$

### 3. Setup of FOWT-tanker Collision Simulation

#### 3.1 Frequency Response Analysis

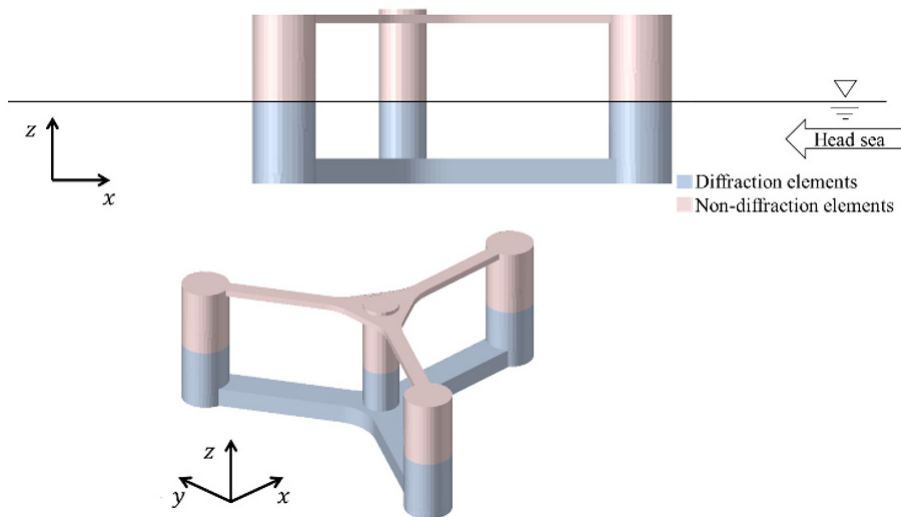
Fig. 2 is the model of FOWT used for the frequency response analysis. The frequency response analysis model consisted of approximately 5,500 diffraction elements and 4,500 non-diffraction elements. Tower and RNA were not included in the model, but were included in the mass information. Table 1 shows the mass information of the FOWT.

Frequency response analysis was performed using Aqwa (Ansys,

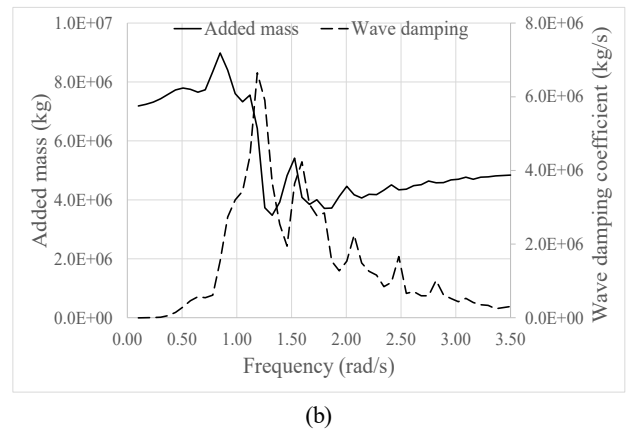
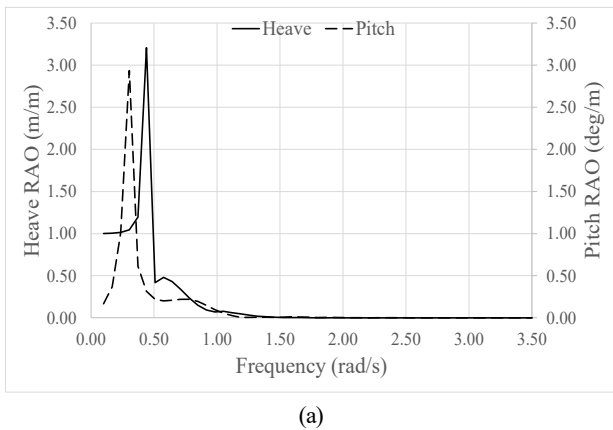
**Table 1** Principal dimensions and mass information of the FOWT

Item	Value
Draft (m)	15.5
Displacement (t)	10728.0
Vertical center of mass from waterline (m)	4.58
2nd moment of inertia for roll (t-mm <sup>2</sup> )	1.96E13
2nd moment of inertia for pitch (t-mm <sup>2</sup> )	1.96E13
2nd moment of inertia for yaw (t-mm <sup>2</sup> )	1.30E13

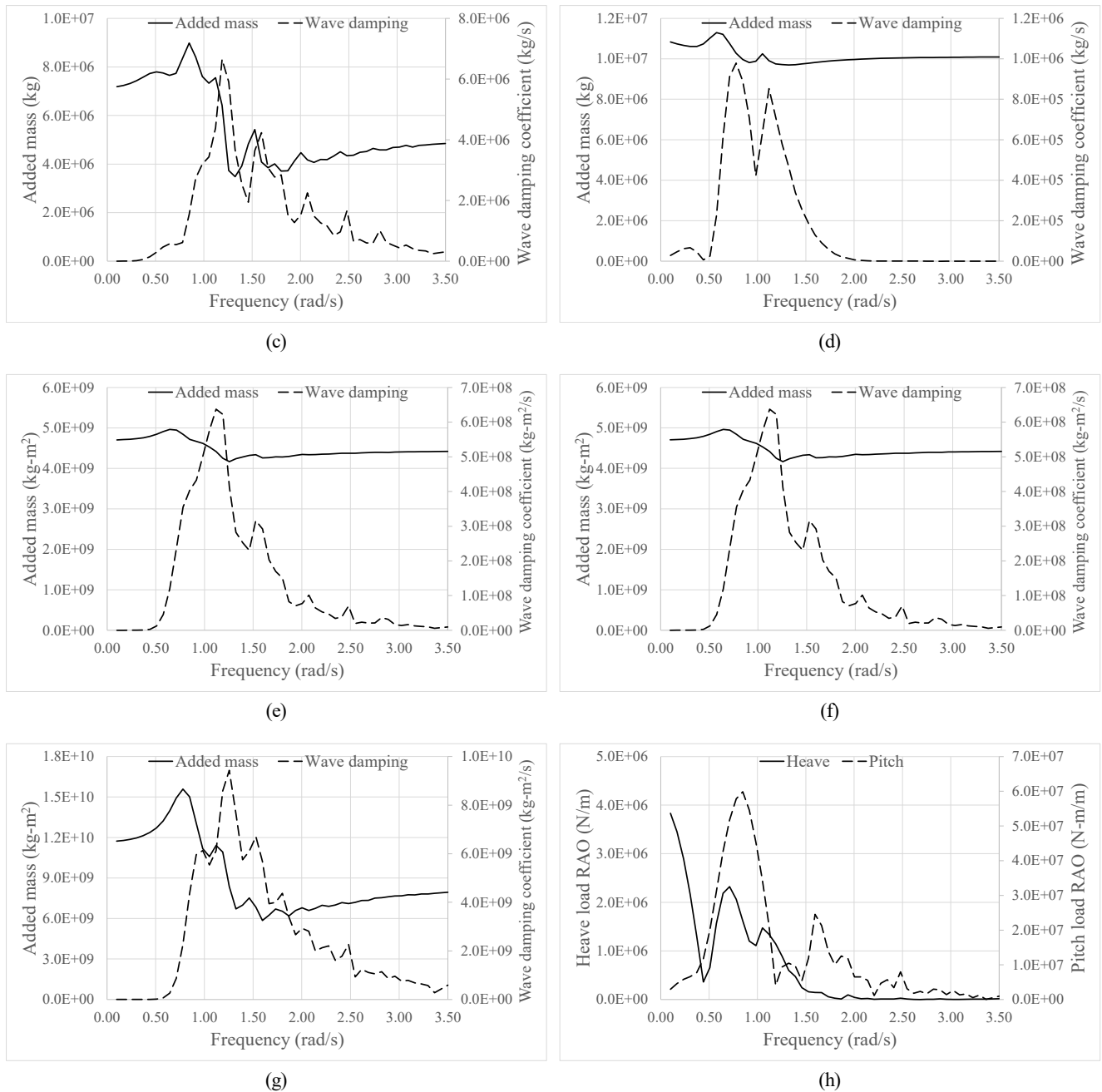
2022). The results of frequency response analysis in head sea condition are shown in Fig. 3 which includes the heave and pitch motion response amplitude operators (RAOs). The corresponding radiation coefficients for surge, sway, heave, roll, pitch and yaw motions are shown in Figs. 3(b)-3(g). It can be seen that the added masses nearly converged to a certain value as the frequency increased. The wave damping coefficients also nearly converged to zero as the frequency increased. Fig. 3(h) shows the 1<sup>st</sup> order wave excitation force RAOs in the heave and pitch directions.



**Fig. 2** Frequency response analysis model



**Fig. 3** Frequency response analysis results: (a) Motion RAOs; (b) Radiation coefficients in surge direction; (c) Radiation coefficients in sway direction; (d) Radiation coefficients in heave direction; (e) Radiation coefficients in roll direction; (f) Radiation coefficients in pitch direction; (g) Radiation coefficients in yaw direction; (h) Wave excitation forces

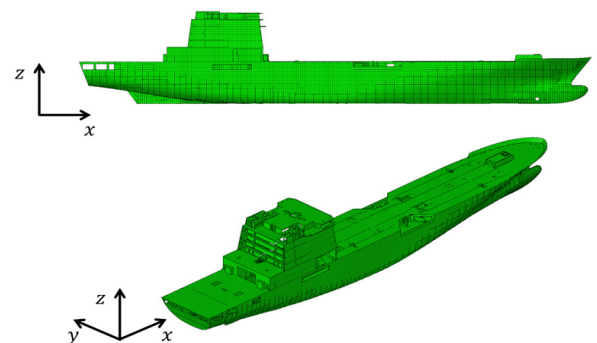


**Fig. 3** Frequency response analysis results: (a) Motion RAOs; (b) Radiation coefficients in surge direction; (c) Radiation coefficients in sway direction; (d) Radiation coefficients in heave direction; (e) Radiation coefficients in roll direction; (f) Radiation coefficients in pitch direction; (g) Radiation coefficients in yaw direction; (h) Wave excitation forces (continuation)

### 3.2 Finite Element Models for Collision Simulation

The tanker used in the collision simulations is shown in Fig. 4. In this study, the tanker was assumed to be a rigid body of R3D3 and R3D4 shell elements, while a MASS element, and a ROTARYI element were used to represent the mass. The main dimensions and masses of the ship are shown in Table 2.

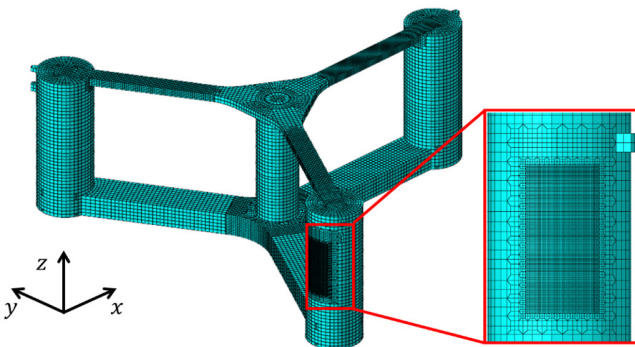
The FOWT was modeled with shell elements S3R and S4R. The element size was the longitudinal stiffener spacing, but the element size was reduced to 1/8 of the longitudinal stiffener spacing in the area where collisions were expected. The FEA model of the FOWT is summarized in Fig. 5 and Table 3.



**Fig. 4** Finite element model of tanker

**Table 2** Modeling information of tanker

Item	Value
Length overall (m)	114.94
Molded breadth (m)	15.05
Molded depth (m)	10.01
Draft (m)	4.9
Displacement (t)	5000
Vertical center of mass from baseline (m)	5.48
2 <sup>nd</sup> moment of inertia for roll (t-mm <sup>2</sup> )	1.22E11
2 <sup>nd</sup> moment of inertia for pitch (t-mm <sup>2</sup> )	3.02E12
2 <sup>nd</sup> moment of inertia for yaw (t-mm <sup>2</sup> )	3.08E12
Element type	R3D3 R3D4
Number of elements	47,734



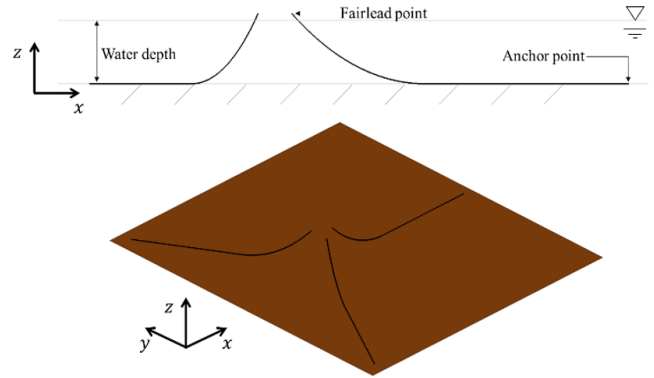
**Fig. 5** Finite element model of floater

**Table 3** Modeling information of floater

Item	Value
Column span (m)	45.00
Column height (m)	33.00
Outer column diameter (m)	12.00
Tower column diameter (m)	9.00
Steel mass (t)	3400
2 <sup>nd</sup> moment of inertia for roll (t-mm <sup>2</sup> )	8.57E12
2 <sup>nd</sup> moment of inertia for pitch (t-mm <sup>2</sup> )	8.57E12
2 <sup>nd</sup> moment of inertia for yaw (t-mm <sup>2</sup> )	1.29E13
Element type	S3R S4R
Number of elements	31,483

The initial layout of the mooring lines was determined using the catenary equation. The mooring lines were modeled using beam element (B31) and joint element (UJOINT) connecting the beam elements to allow rotation. The seabed was modeled as a rigid element. The modeled seabed and mooring lines layout is shown in Fig. 6. Table 4 presents the modeling information of seabed and mooring line.

The DTU 10 MW wind turbine (Borg et al., 2015) released by the LIFES50+ project was used to model the tower and RNA (see Table 5).



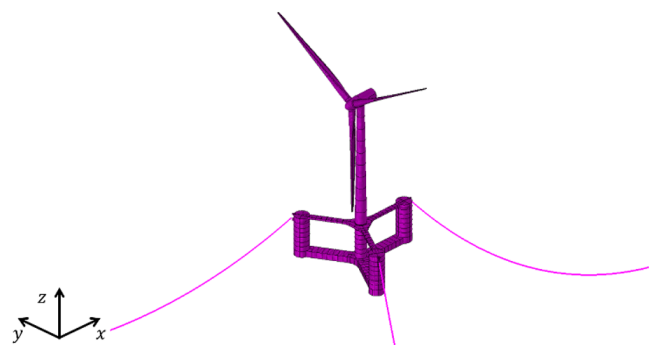
**Fig. 6** Layout of mooring lines

**Table 4** Modeling information for mooring system

Item	Value
Line diameter (m)	0.147
Axial stiffness (N)	1.845E9
Mass per unit length (kg/m)	430.0
Unstretched length (m)	850.0
Water depth (m)	150.0
Anchor to fairlead (m)	800.0
Fairlead from water line (m)	13.01
Friction coefficient	0.5
Element type of line	B31
Seabed stiffness	UJOINT Rigid

**Table 5** Modeling information of tower and RNA

Item	Value
Rotor diameter (m)	178.3
Hub diameter (m)	5.6
Hub height (m)	119.0
Number of blades	3
Rotor mass (t)	227.96
Nacelle mass (t)	446.04
Tower mass (t)	628.44
Element type	S3R S4R



**Fig. 7** Overall system layout of FOWT



Fig. 7 shows the FEA model of the complete FOWT including mooring lines, floating body, tower, and RNA.

### 3.3 Material Properties for Finite Element Model

In this study, the floating body of the FOWT is made of AH36 steel for ship structures. In this study, the combined Swift-Voce hardening law was used to define the flow stress of this steel. The material constants of the combined Swift-Voce hardening law were determined based on the tensile test results by Park et al. (2020) (see Fig. 8). They also conducted a series of fracture tests. Their results were used in this study to obtain the fracture strain locus as shown in Fig. 9.

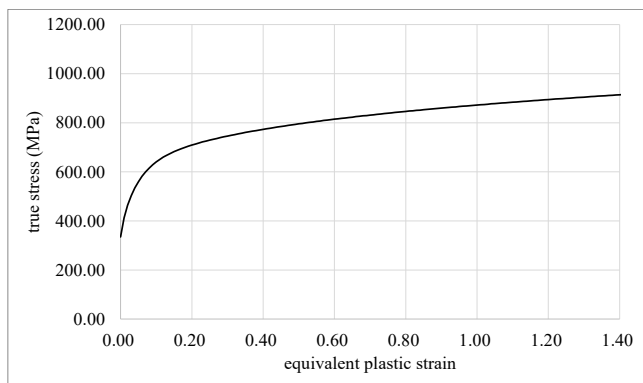


Fig. 8 Flow stress curve for AH36

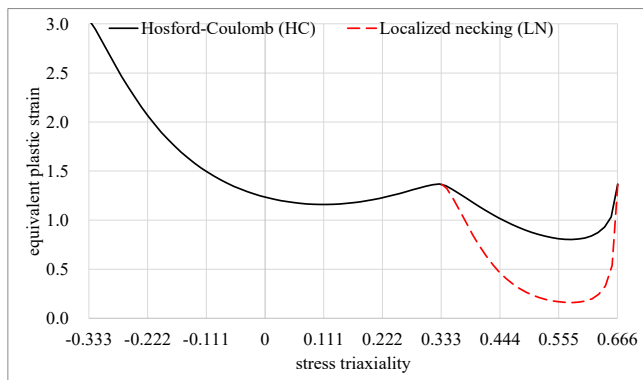


Fig. 9 Fracture strain curve for AH36

### 3.4 Collision Analysis Cases

The objective of this study is unfolded into two. The first objective is to determine the impact of hydrodynamic forces on structural damage in a FOWT-tanker collision. Therefore, the cases were divided into those before and after considering hydrostatic restoring force and radiation force in the collision simulations. The second objective is to determine the impact of the fracture model on the structural damage assessment. For this purpose, the cases were divided into those with the HC-LN fracture model applied and those defined by a constant failure strain  $\epsilon_f$ . In this case,  $\epsilon_f$  was assumed to be 0.2, which has been the most widely used failure strain. Six cases were generated, which are summarized in Table 6. In all cases, the initial forward velocity of the tanker was assumed to be 5 knots (9.26 km/h). The collision analysis model is shown in Fig. 10.

Table 6 Collision cases

Case	Hydrodynamic force	Fracture model	Tanker velocity
Case1-1	n/a	$\epsilon_f = 0.2$	
Case1-2	n/a	HC-LN	
Case2-1	Buoyancy	$\epsilon_f = 0.2$	5 knot
Case2-2	Buoyancy	HC-LN	(9.26 km/h)
Case3-1	Buoyancy + Radiation	$\epsilon_f = 0.2$	
Case3-2	Buoyancy + Radiation	HC-LN	

## 4. FOWT-tanker Collision Simulation Results

### 4.1 Equivalent Plastic Strain

The equivalent plastic strain is an important measure for determining the extent of damage. The equivalent plastic strain distribution just after the collision process is finished are shown in Fig. 11. Comparing the corresponding cases before and after considering hydrostatic force and hydrodynamic force (for example, comparing Case1-1, Case2-1 and Case3-1, or Case1-2, Case2-2, and Case3-2), there are no significant differences in the equivalent plastic strain

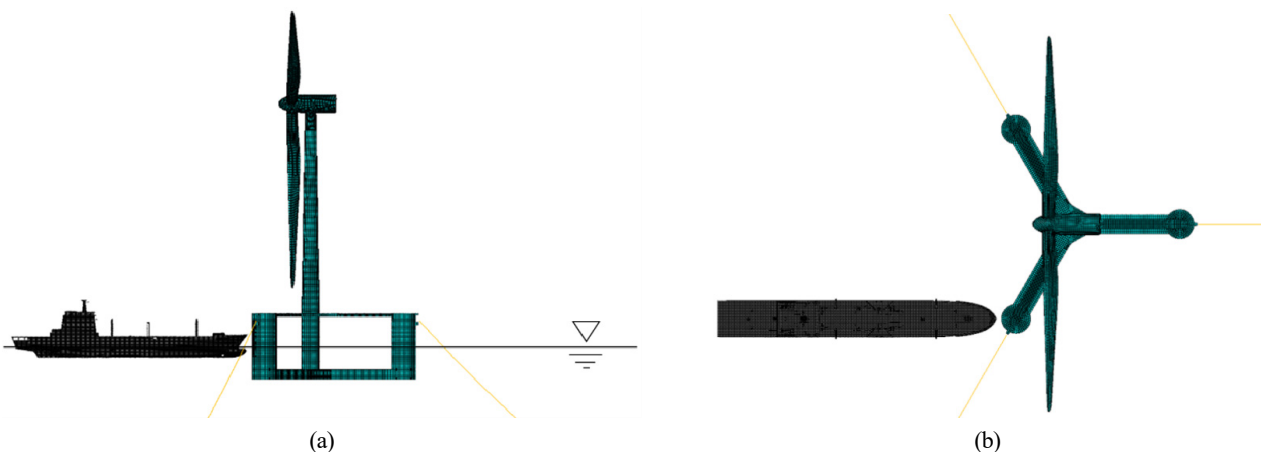
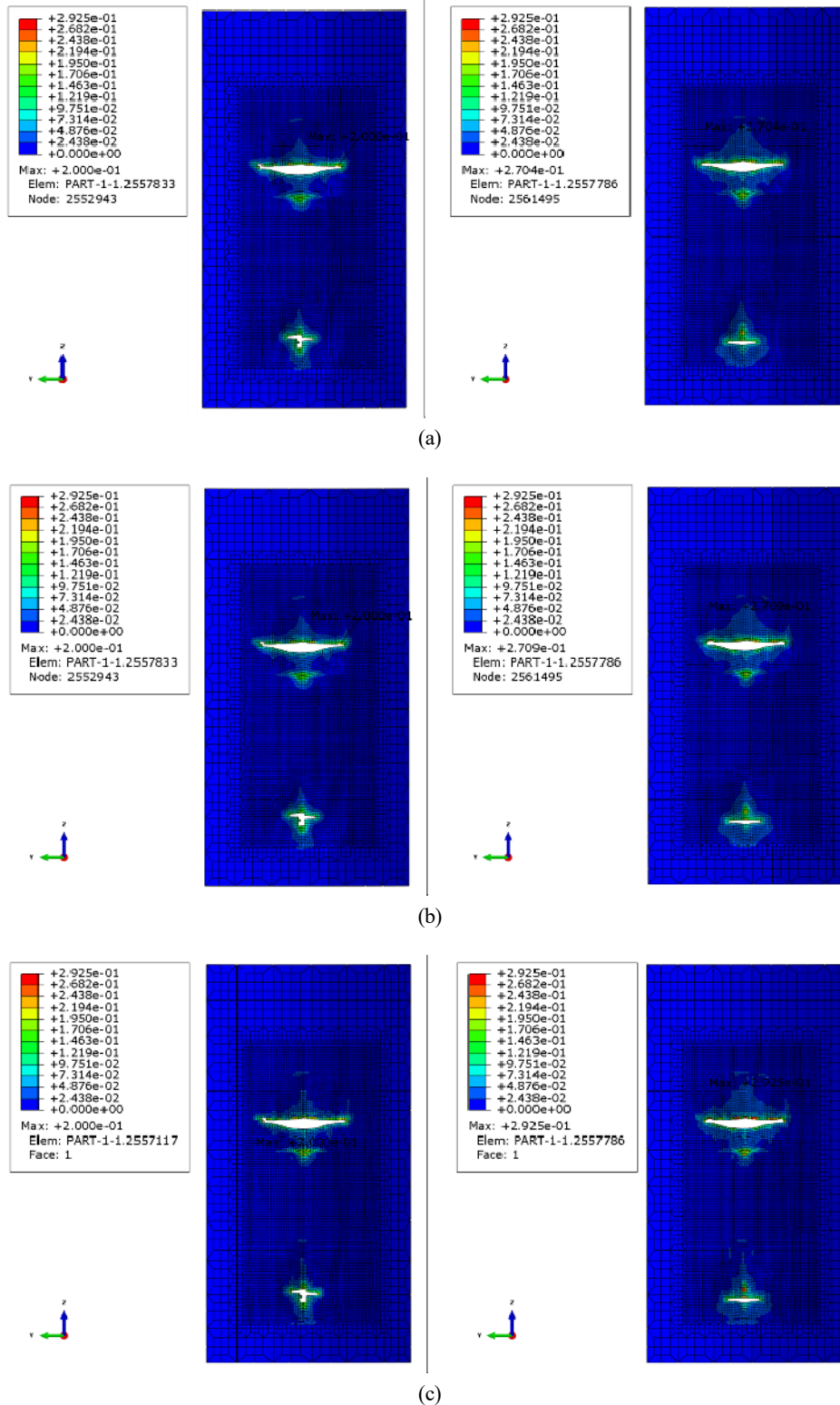


Fig. 10 Relative position between FOWT and tanker: (a) Side-view; (b) Top-view



**Fig. 11** Equivalent plastic strain distribution: (a) Case1-1 & Case1-2; (b) Case2-1 & Case2-2; (c) Case3-1 & Case3-2

distributions and maximum equivalent plastic strains. When comparing the constant failure strain model with the HC = LN model (e.g., Case1-1 and Case1-2), constant failure strain model shows similar damage extents as the HC-LN model, although the maximum equivalent plastic strains were developed up to 0.2 with the constant failure strain model.

#### 4.2 Damage Extent

In this study, the damage extent is defined as the failed area of the side shell. The ratio of the damage extent with constant failure strain model divided by that with HC-LN model is shown in Fig. 12. In all cases, this ratio exceeds 1.0, which means that the constant failure strain model predicts larger damage extents than the HC-LN model.

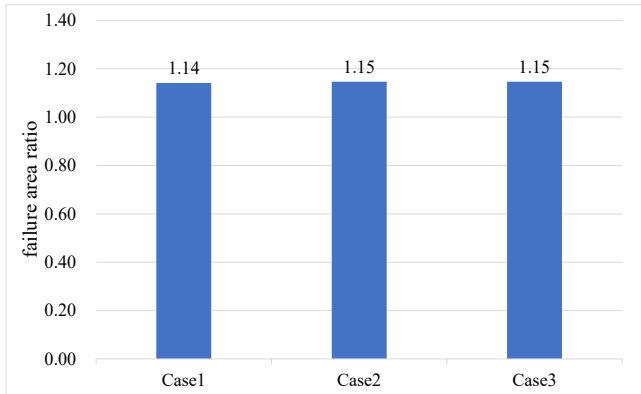


Fig. 12 Failure area ratio

#### 4.3 Triaxiality and Damage Indicator

The stress triaxiality and damage indicators of Case3-2 were analyzed as an example. The stress triaxiality immediately after the collision occurred is shown in Fig. 13(a). It can be seen from Fig. 13(a)

that the stress triaxiality in the collision area corresponds to the biaxial tension. A stress path at a fracture initiation location was formed with this stress triaxiality and the necking damage was accumulated. After the collision was completely terminated, the necking indicator and ductile fracture damage indicator are shown in Fig. 13(b)–(c), respectively. As expected, we can see that the LN necking damage indicator was developed much larger than the HC damage indicator.

## 5. Conclusions

The authors of this study developed HydroQus, a hydrodynamic plug-in that can calculate hydroforces such as hydrostatic restoring force and hydrodynamic radiation/wave excitation forces. Using HydroQus to implement the hydrodynamic forces acting on the FOWT, a FOWT-tanker collision analysis was performed. Two different fracture models (constant failure strain model and HC-LC model) were applied to the collision simulations with and without the

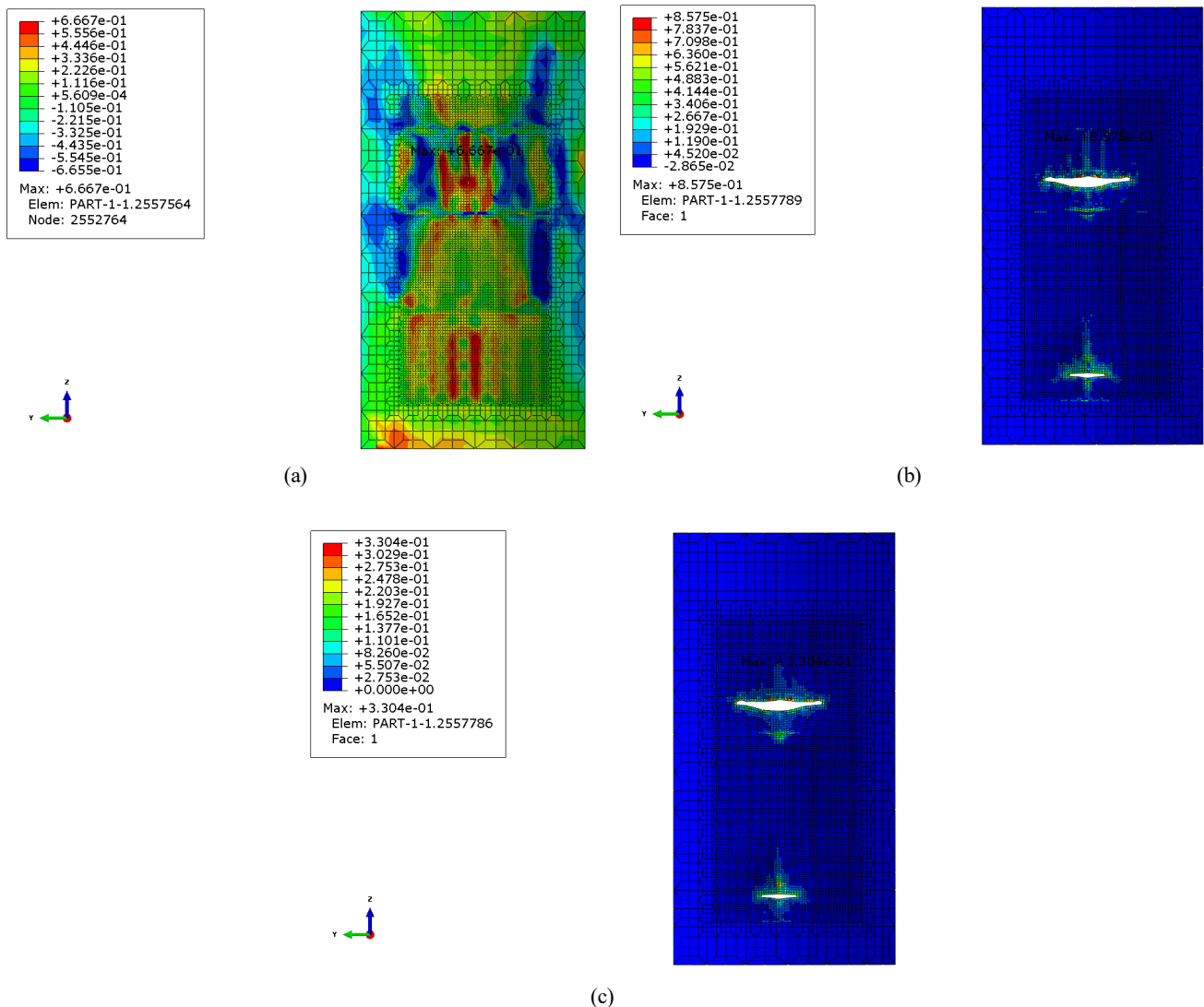


Fig. 13 Stress triaxiality, LN necking indicator and HC damage indicator of Case3-2; (a) Stress triaxiality; (b) LN necking indicator; (c) HC damage indicator

application of hydroforces to reasonably determine the damage extents.

The effect of hydroforces on the damage extents from the collision was relatively limited. This was presumed to be due to the fact that the collision occurs in a very short instant. A comparison of the failure areas caused by the collision showed that the constant failure strain model predicted larger fractures by about 15% compared to the HC-LC model. Since the size of the failure determines the speed and amount of flooding, a more scientific and reasonable failure model was required for the FOWT's impact analysis. The analysis of stress triaxiality and damage indicators confirmed that the use of the HC-LN model was justified.

The pitch motion of the ship generated by the waves changes the direction and magnitude of the impact force and should be considered in the future. The impact of ship hydrodynamics on collision simulations needs to be considered in the future. The ability of moorings to constrain the FOWT needs to be evaluated, as modeling moorings requires special effort.

### Conflict of Interest

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# Trajectory Optimization for Autonomous Berthing of a Twin-Propeller Twin-Rudder Ship

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**KEYWORDS:** Two-point boundary value problem, Trajectory planning, Autonomous berthing, Twin-propeller twin-rudder ship, Model predictive control

**ABSTRACT:** *Autonomous berthing is a crucial technology for autonomous ships, requiring optimal trajectory planning to prevent collisions and minimize time and control efforts. This paper presents a two-phase, two-point boundary value problem (TPBVP) strategy for creating an optimal berthing trajectory for a twin-propeller, twin-rudder ship with autonomous berthing capabilities. The process is divided into two phases: the approach and the terminal. Tunnel thruster use is limited during the approach but fully employed during the terminal phase. This strategy permits concurrent optimization of the total trajectory duration, individual phase trajectories, and phase transition time. The efficacy of the proposed method is validated through two simulations. The first explores a scenario with phase transition, and the second generates a trajectory relying solely on the approach phase. The results affirm our algorithm's effectiveness in deciding transition necessity, identifying optimal transition timing, and optimizing the trajectory accordingly. The proposed two-phase TPBVP approach holds significant implications for advancements in autonomous ship navigation, enhancing safety and efficiency in berthing operations.*

## 1. Introduction

Recently, as interest in autonomous ships grows, autonomous berthing has garnered attention as a crucial technology for enabling fully autonomous ship navigation. Conventionally, larger ships depend on tugboat assistance for berthing instead of conducting the process independently (Quan et al., 2019). However, in pursuit of the ultimate goal of achieving full autonomy in ship navigation, automation of the berthing process is essential.

Effective berthing requires plotting a path that moves the ship from its current position to the intended berthing point. This procedure calls for trajectory planning over simple path planning, to ensure smoother movement, increased efficiency, and adept handling of constraints. Previous research proposed berthing algorithms for ships equipped with azimuth thrusters using optimal control (Martinsen et al., 2019, 2022), as well as path optimization methods for single-rudder, single-propeller ships with two side thrusters while considering real port spatial constraints (Miyachi et al., 2022). To tackle the universal challenge of finding a globally optimal solution in optimization-based methods, graph search (Ødven et al., 2022) and warm-started semi-

online trajectory planners (Rachman et al., 2022) have been utilized. Most recently, experimental verification of the miiliampere ship's docking algorithm - an urban ferry with two azimuth thrusters - was conducted using MPC-based trajectory optimization and trajectory tracking controllers (Bitar et al., 2020; Bitar et al., 2021; Martinsen et al., 2020).

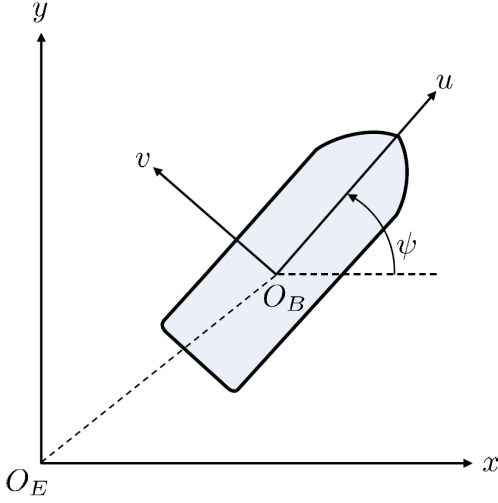
In this study, we propose a berthing trajectory generation algorithm for twin-propeller, twin-rudder ships with self-berthing capabilities. It is challenging to anticipate effective force when a pair of propellers and rudders are rotated in reverse (Lindegard and Fossen, 2003; Skjetne et al., 2004). Additionally, tunnel thrusters only show effectiveness at low speeds (Fossen, 2011). Addressing these motion characteristics, we adopt a two-phase, two-point boundary value problem approach, segmenting the process into an approaching phase—where the ship maneuvers close to the target berthing position—and a terminal phase, continuing until the ship aligns with its final position. In the approaching phase, the use of the tunnel thruster is limited, whereas in the terminal phase, it is actively deployed. We conducted numerical simulations to validate the proposed trajectory generation algorithm's efficacy, highlighting its successful application in

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**Fig. 1** The coordinate system of a ship

autonomous berthing scenarios.

The structure of this paper is as follows: Section 2 introduces the necessary preliminaries, providing the groundwork for understanding the subsequent methodologies. The formulation of our proposed trajectory optimization scheme is presented in detail in Section 3. In Section 4, we provide a comprehensive review of the simulation results, demonstrating the efficacy of our approach. Finally, we draw conclusions from our findings in Section 5, encapsulating the key points of the study and their implications for autonomous ship berthing.

## 2. Preliminary

### 2.1 Ship Dynamic Model

The equations of motion of a ship are composed of both kinematic and kinetic equations, represented in the earth-fixed and body-fixed coordinate systems, as illustrated in Fig. 1. The kinematic equations, which deal with the geometric properties of motion, are defined within the context of the earth-fixed frame. Conversely, the kinetic equations are modeled within the body-fixed coordinate system. The relationship between these two coordinate systems is articulated through the ship's heading  $\psi$  as follows:

$$\dot{\eta} = \mathcal{J}(\psi)\nu,$$

$$\mathcal{J}(\psi) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \psi & -\sin \psi & 0 \\ \sin \psi & \cos \psi & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (1)$$

where  $\eta = [x, y, \psi]^\top$  and  $\nu = [u, v, r]^\top$  are the position and velocity vectors, respectively, and  $\mathcal{J}(\psi)$  is the rotation matrix that transforms the velocities from the body-fixed coordinate to the earth-fixed coordinate.

The kinetic equations represent the relationship between the forces acting on the vehicle and its motion within the body-fixed frame.

These equations can be articulated using Newton's second law, as follows:

$$M\dot{\nu} + C(\nu)\nu + D(\nu)\nu = \tau \quad (2)$$

In this equation,  $M$  represents the inertia matrix,  $C(\nu)$  stands for the Coriolis and centripetal matrix,  $D(\nu)$  signifies the damping matrix, and  $\tau$  is the vector of control force. The matrices  $M$  and  $C(\nu)$  can be depicted as the sum of the rigid body and added mass components, as outlined below:

$$M = M_{RB} + M_A$$

$$M_{RB} = \begin{bmatrix} m & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & m & mx_g \\ 0 & mx_g & I_z \end{bmatrix}$$

$$M_A = \begin{bmatrix} -X_u & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -Y_v & -Y_r \\ 0 & -N_v & -N_r \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$

$$C(\nu) = C_{RB}(\nu) + C_A(\nu),$$

$$C_{RB}(\nu) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -m(x_g r + v) \\ 0 & 0 & mu \\ m(x_g r + v) & -mu & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C_A(\nu) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & Y_v \nu + Y_r r \\ 0 & 0 & -X_u u \\ -Y_v \nu - Y_r r & X_u u & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Additionally,  $D(\nu)$  can be depicted by a combination of the nonlinear and linear damping matrices, as follows:

$$D(\nu) = D_l(\nu) + D_n(\nu),$$

$$D_l(\nu) = - \begin{bmatrix} X_u & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & Y_v & Y_r \\ 0 & N_v & N_r \end{bmatrix} \quad (4)$$

$$D_n(\nu) = - \begin{bmatrix} X_{|u|}|u| & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & Y_{|v|}|v| + Y_{|r|}|r| & Y_{|v|}|v| + Y_{|r|}|r| \\ 0 & N_{|v|}|v| + N_{|r|}|r| & N_{|v|}|v| + N_{|r|}|r| \end{bmatrix}$$

### 2.2 Actuator Model

In this study, as illustrated in Fig. 2, we develop an algorithm for a ship equipped with twin propellers and twin rudders at the stern, in addition to a bow tunnel thruster. The forces generated are as follows:  $T_1$  represents the force produced by the port stern propeller,  $T_2$  corresponds to the force originating from the stern starboard propeller, while  $T_3$  designates the bow tunnel propeller forces. Additionally, the rudder angles at the port and starboard sides are denoted by  $\delta_1$  and  $\delta_2$ , respectively. Given these, the control force can be formulated with the

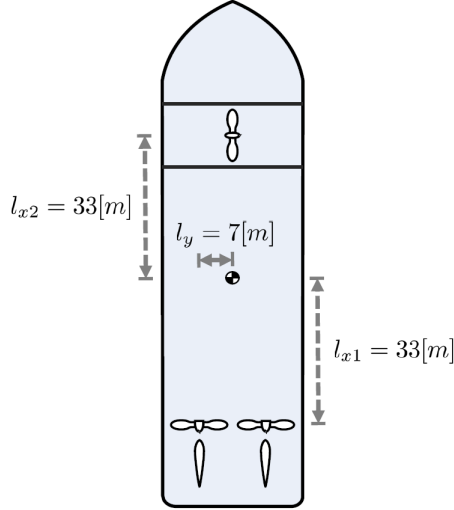


Fig. 2 The control configuration of a ship

control input  $[T_1, T_2, \delta_1, \delta_2, T_3]^T$ , as detailed below:

$$\tau_c = g(u) = \begin{bmatrix} T_1 + T_2 - D_1 - D_2 \\ L_1 + L_2 + T_3 \\ (D_1 - T_1 - D_2 + T_2)l_y - (L_1 + L_2)l_{x1} + T_3l_{x2} \end{bmatrix} \quad (5)$$

In this formulation,  $D_1$  and  $D_2$  represent the drag forces, while  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  represent the lift forces for the port and starboard rudder, respectively. The terms  $l_{x1}$ ,  $l_{x2}$  and  $l_y$  refer to the distances from the center of gravity to each propeller. The force generated by the propeller can be defined by the rotational speed  $n_i$ , and the thruster coefficient  $K_T$  with advance ratio  $J_i$ , as follows:

$$T_i = K_T(J_i)\rho n_i |n_i| D^4, \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (6)$$

where  $\rho$  denotes the density of water and  $D$  stands for the propeller's diameter. The tunnel thruster is also modeled using the rotational speed  $n_3$ , the propeller's diameter  $D_3$ , and the thruster coefficient  $K_{T_3}$ . However, it is important to note that the tunnel thruster can only generate sufficient force when the ship moves at low speeds. Consequently, we employ the tunnel thruster at lower speeds and model it with a constant thruster coefficient, independent of the advance ratio, as follows:

$$T_3 = K_{T_3}\rho n_3 |n_3| D_3^4 \quad (7)$$

The force exerted by a ship's rudder at low speed is notably influenced by the direction of the propeller's rotation. When the propeller rotates forward, ample lift is generated through propeller force and rudder angle interplay. However, generating effective lift is challenging when the propeller rotates in reverse. Consequently, the lift and drag forces produced by a pair of propellers and rudders can be formulated as follows, according to (Lindgaard, 2003):

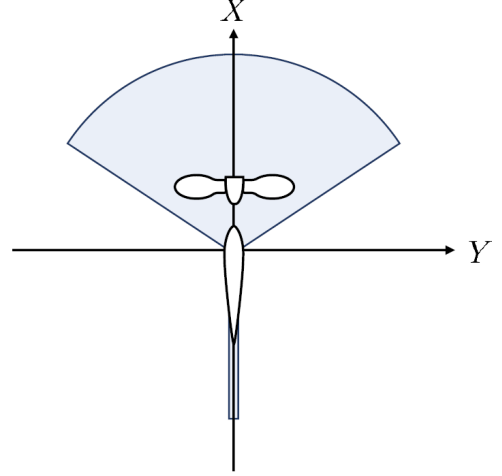


Fig. 3 The feasible force domain of single-propeller, single-rudder

$$L_i = \begin{cases} T_i k_{L\delta} \delta_i, & T_i \geq 0 \\ 0, & T_i < 0 \end{cases}, \quad i = 1, 2,$$

$$D_i = \begin{cases} T_i (k_{D\delta_1} |\delta_i| + k_{D\delta_2} \delta_i^2), & T_i \geq 0 \\ 0, & T_i < 0 \end{cases}, \quad i = 1, 2. \quad (8)$$

Fig. 3 visually illustrates the force generated by a pair of propellers and rudders. Given that the ship's propellers and rudders can operate independently, the ship is viewed as a fully-actuated system capable of controlling motion across three degrees of freedom. Nevertheless, when considering the propulsion properties of the propellers and rudders, as demonstrated in Eq. (8), the system exhibits specific characteristics of being partially under-actuated.

### 3. Berthing Trajectory Optimization

Given the initial and target berthing states, a trajectory optimization algorithm can be devised to minimize both the berthing duration and control effort, while taking into account the motion and control characteristics represented by Eqs. (1)-(8). However, the nonlinear nature and complexity of the optimization problem present a challenge in assuring optimal solutions. To tackle this issue, we propose an optimization approach that separates the trajectory into two distinct phases, thereby effectively reducing the complexity of the problem.

#### 3.1 Two-phase Approach

The berthing process can be strategically segmented into two phases. The first, referred to as the "approaching phase," guides the ship towards a region proximate to the final berthing position. The second, termed the "terminal phase," involves the precise maneuvering of the ship to reach the final position. During the approaching phase, the ship retains sufficient speed, thus hindering the bow tunnel propeller from generating effective force. As a result, in this phase, only the stern propellers and rudders are employed as control inputs, as described below:



$$u_a = [T_1, T_2, \delta_1, \delta_2, 0]^\top \quad (9)$$

Conversely, the terminal phase occurs at relatively lower speeds, thus allowing the use of the tunnel thruster. In this phase, the ship's movements and rotations are slower, diminishing the effects of the Coriolis and nonlinear damping matrices. This reduction permits a simplified model approximation similar to those used in dynamic positioning (Skjetne et al., 2004). Accordingly, the dynamic model and control input vectors are formulated as follows:

$$M\dot{\nu} + D_1(\nu)\nu = \tau_c,$$

$$u_t = [T_1, T_2, \delta_1, \delta_2, T_3]^\top \quad (10)$$

### 3.2 Two-point Boundary Value Problem

Employing models for each phase allows for the formulation of the two-point boundary value problem with the state vector  $x = [x, y, \psi, u, v, r]^\top$ , as detailed below:

$$\min_{x(\cdot), u(\cdot)} J_T + \int_0^{T_{f1}} J_a(t) dt + J_a^{T_{f1}} + \int_{T_{f1}}^{T_{f2}} J_t(t) dt \quad (11)$$

Here  $T_{f1}$  and  $(T_{f2} - T_{f1})$  represent the time durations for each phase, respectively. Additionally,  $J_T$  denotes the time penalty cost function, which is defined as follows:

$$J_T(t) = \rho_t (T_{f1} + T_{f2}) \quad (12)$$

Here  $\rho_t$  is the weighting scalar.  $J_a(t)$ ,  $J_a^{T_{f1}}$  represent the cost functions for the approaching, which are defined as follows:

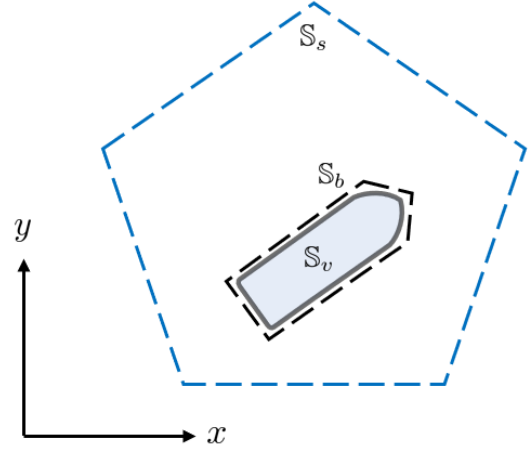
$$J_a(t) = \nu(t)^\top Q_a \nu(t) + u_a(t)^\top P_a u_a(t) + \dot{u}_a(t)^\top R_a \dot{u}_a(t)$$

$$J_a^{T_{f1}} = (\eta(T_{f1}) - \eta_f)^\top Q_a^{T_{f1}} (\eta(T_{f1}) - \eta_f) \quad (13)$$

In these equations, the matrices  $Q_a$ ,  $P_a$ , and  $R_a$  denote the weight matrices that penalize the velocity, control input, and rate of change of control input, respectively.  $Q_a^{T_{f1}}$  represents the weight matrix that penalizes the terminal position of the approaching phase, while  $\eta_f$  is the final position vector. Additionally,  $J_t(t)$  denotes the cost function for the terminal phase, given as follows:

$$J_t(t) = \nu(t)^\top Q_t \nu(t) + u_t(t)^\top P_t u_t(t) + \dot{u}_t(t)^\top R_t \dot{u}_t(t) \quad (14)$$

In this context, the matrices  $Q_t$ ,  $P_t$ , and  $R_t$  represent the weight matrices that penalize the velocity, control input, and rate of change of control input, respectively. The optimization problem formulated above also encompasses several constraints, which are as follows:



**Fig. 4** The illustration of collision avoidance constraints. (Ship  $S_v$  with a safety boundary  $S_b$ , as well as state constraints  $S_s$ )

$$\dot{x}(t) = f_a(x(t), u_a(t)), \forall t \in [0, T_{f1}]$$

$$\dot{x}(t) = f_t(x(t), u_t(t)), \forall t \in [T_{f1}, T_{f2}]$$

$$x(0) = x_0$$

$$x(T_{f2}) = x_f \quad (15)$$

$$|u(t)| \leq \overline{u(t)}, \forall t \in [0, T_{f2}]$$

$$S_b \subseteq S_s$$

Here  $f_a$  and  $f_t$  represent the dynamic models of the approaching and terminal phases, respectively, while  $x_0$  and  $x_f$  denote the initial and target berthing states.  $\overline{(\cdot)}$  denotes the maximum value. The final constraints represent the collision avoidance condition. Here,  $S_b$  and  $S_s$  indicate the safety boundary of the ship and state constraints, as shown in Fig. 4.

To address the nonlinear optimization problem formulated in this manner, we utilized the Interior Point Optimizer (IPOPT) (Wächter and Biegler, 2006), implemented in the CasADI framework (Andersson et al., 2019), within the in the MATLAB environment.

## 4. Simulation Results

Simulations were executed within the MATLAB environment to evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed trajectory optimization algorithm. We incorporated the port geometry of Jangsaengpo Port in Ulsan, Korea, and devised two scenarios featuring distinct initial and final positions. The state constraints were formulated convexly, considering the berthing position, the port layout, and the ship's navigable area. It is worth noting that the specific configuration of these constraints can be altered based on the available space in the intended target port. The parameters of the supply ship's model used for simulation are derived from (Skjetne et al., 2004), with the

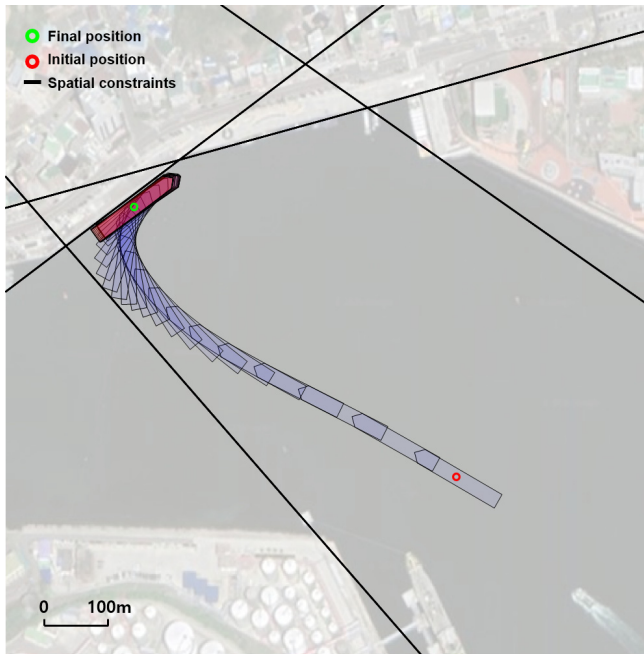
remaining parameters detailed in Table 1. The parameters specific to our proposed algorithm can be found in Table 2. The results of the first simulation are visually represented in Figs. 5-7.

**Table 1** The model parameters of the ship

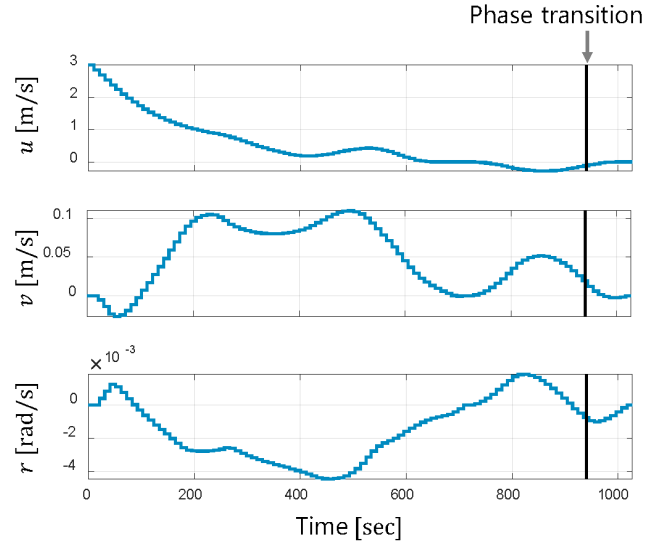
Parameter	Value
$k_{D\delta_1}$	0.093
$k_{D\delta_2}$	0.727
$k_{L\delta}$	0.920
$l_{x_1}$ (m)	-33
$l_{x_2}$ (m)	33
$l_y$ (m)	7

**Table 2** Parameters of the trajectory optimization problem

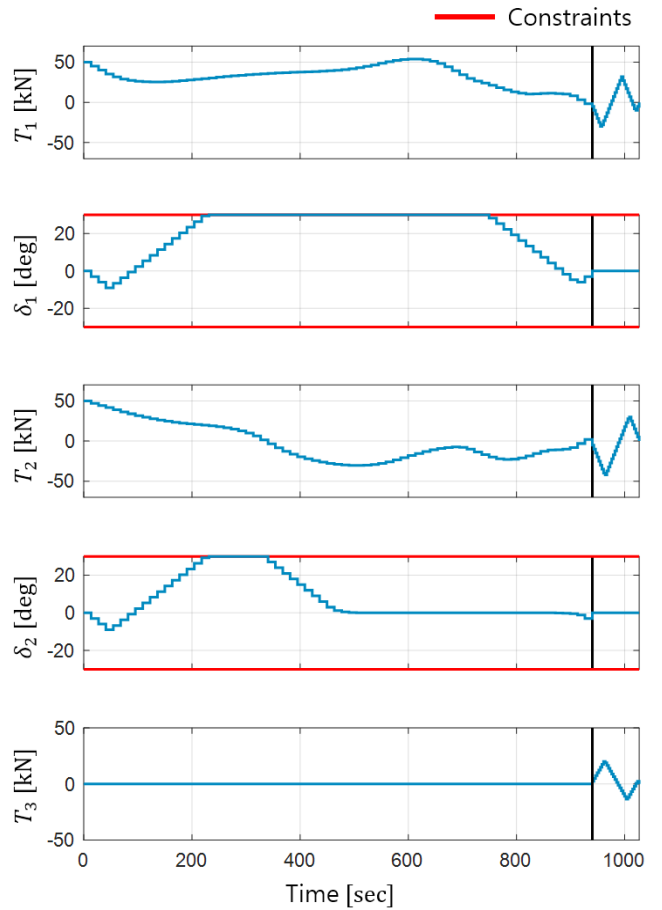
Parameter	Value
$\rho_t$	30
$Q_a$	diag ([0.0, 0.0, 1.0E6])
$P_a$	diag ([0.1, 0.1, 1.0, 1.0, 0.1])
$R_a$	diag ([1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 1.0])
$Q_a^{T,\beta}$	diag ([1.0, 1.0, 5.0E4])
$Q_t$	diag ([1.0E2, 0.0, 0.0])
$P_t$	diag ([0.0, 0.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.0])
$R_t$	diag ([0.01, 0.01, 1.0, 1.0, 0.01])
$\bar{T}_1, \bar{T}_2$ (kN)	200
$\bar{R}_1, \bar{R}_2$ (deg)	30
$\bar{T}_3$ (kN)	100



**Fig. 5** The result of the first scenario



**Fig. 6** Time trajectories of velocities (first scenario)



**Fig. 7** Time trajectories of control inputs (first scenario)

Fig. 5 illustrates the time trajectory for a port side berthing scenario. In this figure, the blue ship trajectory corresponds to the approaching phase, while the red ship trajectory represents the terminal phase. Fig. 6 illustrates the variation in velocities over the course of the berthing process, which lasts approximately 1026 seconds, with the approaching phase accounting for 940 seconds of this duration. This

highlights a distinct phase switch. Fig. 7 shows the alterations in control input over time. These results corroborate that the proposed algorithm effectively considers the characteristic of not utilizing a rudder when the propeller is in reverse rotation.

In the second scenario, the objective is to berth a ship on the starboard side. The results of this simulation are depicted in Figs. 8-10. Fig. 8 displays the time trajectories for each phase. Figs. 9 and 10, on the other hand, portray the velocities and control input fluctuations over time, respectively. Contrary to the first scenario, the second scenario does not require a phase transition. This result arises from the optimization process determining that a sole emphasis on the approaching phase, without a phase transition, is more efficient for this scenario.

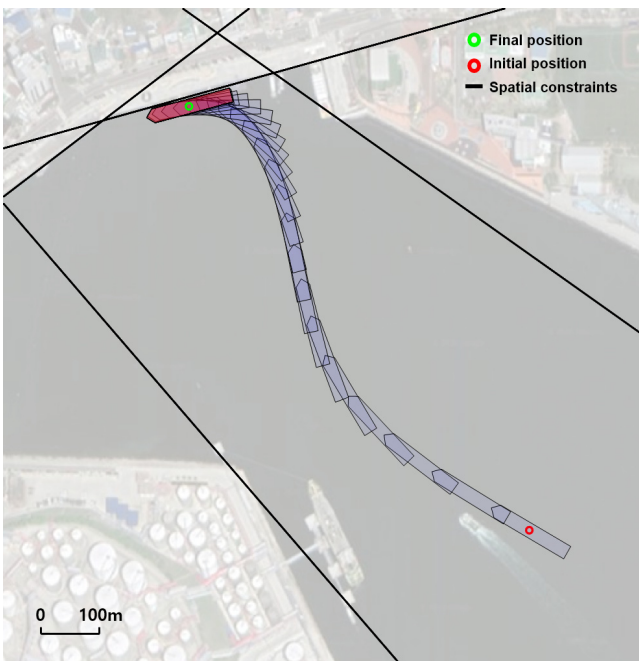


Fig. 8 The result of the second scenario

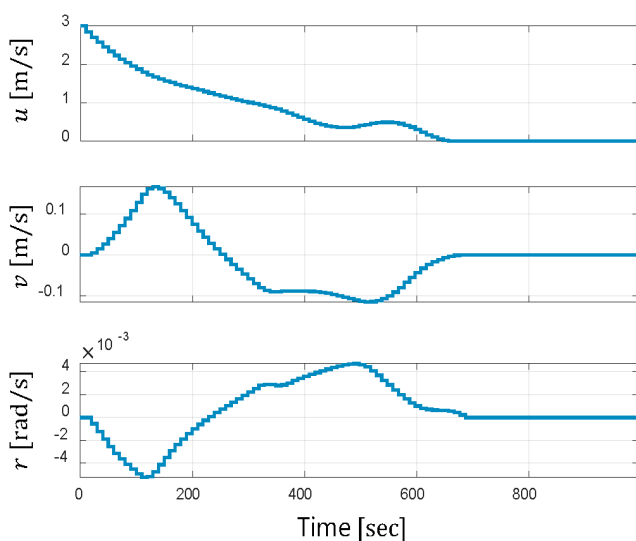


Fig. 9 Time trajectories of velocities (second scenario)

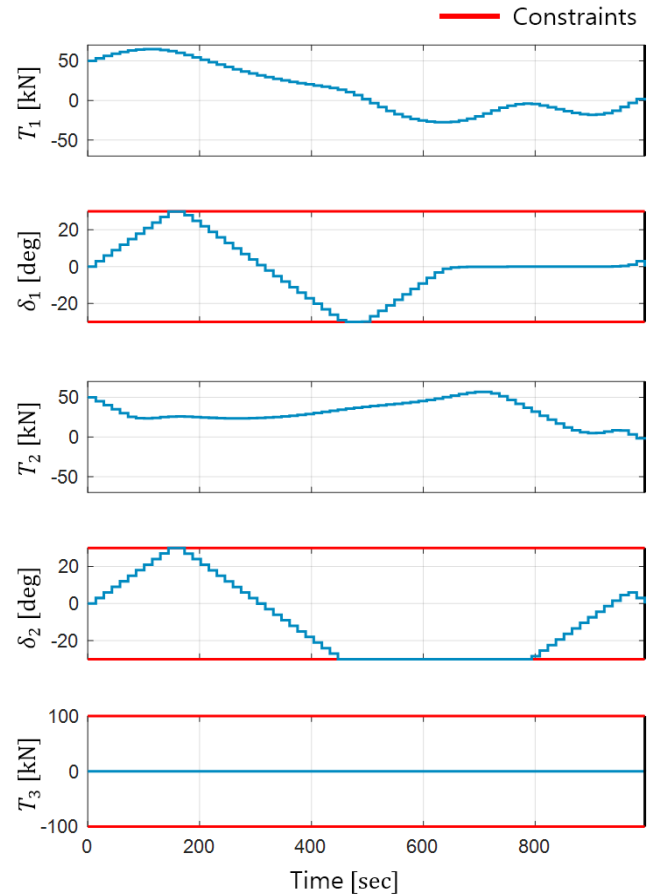


Fig. 10 Time trajectories of control inputs (second scenario)

## 5. Conclusions

In this study, we have proposed a two-phase berthing trajectory optimization algorithm for the autonomous berthing of a twin-propeller, twin-rudder ship. The berthing process was segregated into two distinct phases, taking into account the ship's dynamic characteristics and actuator properties. We formulated models for each phase and generated dynamically feasible trajectories using a two-phase, two-point boundary value problem. To assess the practicality and effectiveness of our proposed algorithm, we created two scenarios grounded in real-world port geometries and conducted comprehensive numerical simulations.

## Conflict of Interest

Jinwhan Kim serves as an editorial board member of the Journal of Ocean Engineering and Technology, but he had no role in the decision to publish this article. No potential conflict of interest relevant to this article was reported.

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# Instructions for Authors

## General information

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One of the authors who submits a paper or papers should be member of the Korean Society of Ocean Engineers (KSOE), except a case that editorial board provides special admission of submission.

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Be sure all necessary files have been uploaded/ attached.

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## Article structure

Manuscript must be edited in the following order: (1) Title, (2) Authors' names and affiliations, (3) Keywords, (4) Abstract, (5) Nomenclature (optional), (6) Introduction, (7) Main body (analyses, tests, results, and discussions), (8) Conclusions, (9) Conflict of interest, (10) Funding (optional), (11) Acknowledgements (optional), (12) References, (13) Appendices (optional), (14) Author's ORCIDs.

## Abstract

A concise and factual abstract is required. The abstract should state briefly the background, purpose and methods of the research, the principal results and conclusions. An abstract should be written in 150-200 words. References are not cited in abstract whenever possible. Also, non-standard or uncommon abbreviations should be avoided, but if essential they must be defined at their first mention in the abstract itself.

## Keywords

Immediately after the abstract, provide a maximum of 5 or 6 keywords.

## Unit

Use the international system units(SI). If other units are mentioned, please give their equivalent in SI.

## Equations

All mathematical equations should be clearly printed/typed using well accepted explanation. Superscripts and subscripts should be typed clearly above or below the base line. Equation numbers should be given in Arabic numerals enclosed in parentheses on the right-hand margin.

## Tables

Tables should be numbered consecutively with Arabic numerals. Each table should be fully titled. All tables should be referred to in the texts.

## Figures

Figures should be numbered consecutively with Arabic numerals. Each figure should be fully titled. All figures should be referred to in the texts. All the illustrations should be of high quality meeting with the publishing requirement with legible symbols and legends.

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conflict of interest relevant to this article was reported.”

### Funding

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### Acknowledgments

Any persons that contributed to the study or the manuscript, but not meeting the requirements of an authorship could be placed here. For mentioning any persons or any organizations in this section, there should be a written permission from them.

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References in texts follow the APA style. Authors can also see how references appear in manuscript text through the ‘Template’.

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### Peer review and publication process

The peer review process can be broadly summarized into three groups: author process, review process, and publishing process for accepted submissions. General scheme is presented in Figure 1.

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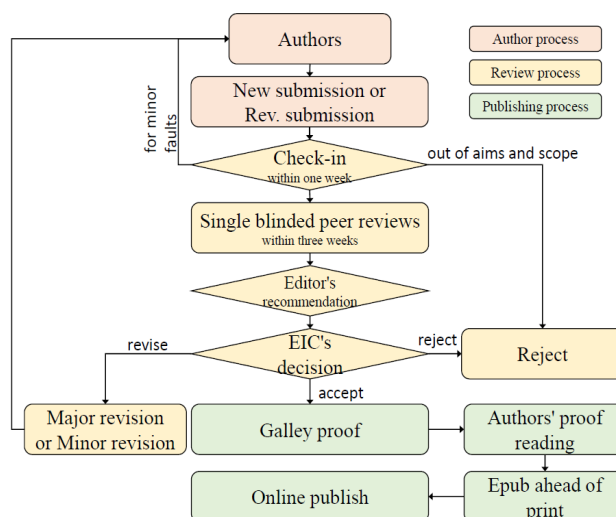


Figure 1 Flow chart of the peer review and publication process of JOET

The criterion for similarity rate for further screening is usually 15%; however, rather than the similarity rate, the Editorial Board focuses on cases where specific sentences or phrases are similar. The settings for Similarity Check screening are as follows: It excludes quotes, bibliography, small matches of 6 words, small sources of 1%, and the Methods section.

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<sup>2</sup>Graduate Student, Department of OO, OO University, Seoul, Korea

<sup>3</sup>Senior Researcher, Department of OO, OO Engineering, Corp., Seoul, Korea

**KEYWORDS:** Lumped mass line model, Explicit method, Steel lazy wave riser (Provide a maximum of 5 or 6 keywords.)

### ABSTRACT:

**\*\*Abstract Construction Guidelines\*\***

- 1) Describe the research background and aims in 1-2 sentences
- 2) Describe the research/analysis method (method section) in 2-3 sentences.
- 3) Describe the research/analysis results (results) in 2-3 sentences.
- 4) Describe the research conclusion in 1-2 sentences.

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### Nomenclature (Optional)

$ITOC$	Increment of total operating cost (\$/yr)
$LHV$	Lower heating value (kJ/kg)
$P_w$	Power (kW)
$T$	Temperature (K)
$V$	Volume (m <sup>3</sup> )
$\rho$	Density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )

## 1. Introduction

The introduction should briefly place the study in a broad context and highlight why it is important. It should define the purpose of the work and its significance. The current state of the research field should be reviewed carefully and key publications cited. Please highlight controversial and diverging hypotheses when necessary. Finally, briefly mention the main aim of the work and highlight the principal conclusions. As far as possible, please keep the introduction comprehensible to scientists outside your particular field of research.

Received 00 February 2100, revised 00 October 2100, accepted 00 October 2100

Corresponding author Firstname Lastname: +82-51-759-0656, e-mail@e-mail.com

It is a recommended paper from the proceedings of 2019 spring symposium of the Korea Marine Robot Technology (KMRTS).

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### 3.1 Unit

Use the international system units (SI). If other units are mentioned, please give their equivalent in SI.

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All mathematical equations should be clearly printed/typed using well accepted explanation. Superscripts and subscripts should be typed clearly above or below the base line. Equation numbers should be given in Arabic numerals enclosed in parentheses on the right-hand margin. The parameters used in equation must be defined. They should be cited in the text as, for example, Eq. (1), or Eqs. (1)–(3).

$$G_{GEV}(x; \mu, \sigma, \xi) = \begin{cases} \exp[-(1 + \xi(x - \mu)/\sigma)^{-1/\xi}] & \xi \neq 0 \\ \exp[-\exp(-(x - \mu)/\sigma)] & \xi = 0 \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

in which  $\mu$ ,  $\sigma$ , and  $\xi$  represent the location (“Shift” in figures), scale, and shape parameters, respectively.

### 3.3 Tables

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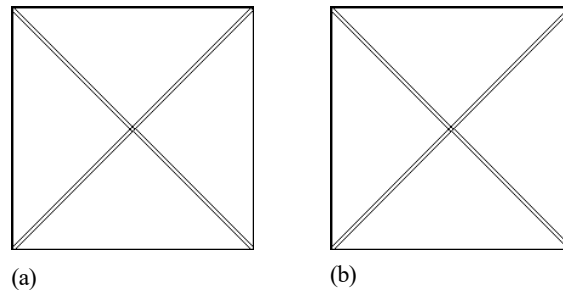
**Table 1** Tables should be placed in the main text near to the first time they are cited

Item	Buoyancy riser
Segment length <sup>1)</sup> (m)	370
Outer diameter (m)	1.137
Inner diameter (m)	0.406
Dry weight (kg/m)	697
Bending rigidity (N·m <sup>2</sup> )	1.66E8
Axial stiffness (N)	7.098E9
Inner flow density (kg·m <sup>3</sup> )	881
Seabed stiffness (N/m/m <sup>2</sup> )	6,000

<sup>1)</sup>Tables may have a footer.

### 3.4 Figures

Figures should be numbered consecutively with Arabic numerals. Each figure should be fully titled. All the illustrations should be of high quality meeting with the publishing requirement with legible symbols and legends. All figures should be referred to in the texts. They should be referred to in the text as, for example, Fig. 1, or Figs. 1–3.



**Fig. 1** Schemes follow the same formatting. If there are multiple panels, they should be listed as: (a) Description of what is contained in the first panel; (b) Description of what is contained in the second panel. Figures should be placed in the main text near to the first time they are cited

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This section may be divided by subheadings. It should provide a concise and precise description of the experimental results, their interpretation as well as the experimental conclusions that can be drawn. Tables and figures are recommended to present the results more rapidly and easily. Do not duplicate the content of a table or a figure with in the Results section. Briefly describe the core results related to the conclusion in the text when data are provided in tables or in figures. Supplementary results can be placed in the Appendix.

## 5. Discussion

Authors should discuss the results and how they can be interpreted in perspective of previous studies and of the working hypotheses. The findings and their implications should be discussed in the broadest context possible. Future research directions may also be highlighted

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JOET follows the American Psychological Association (APA) style.

- Some samples are found in following web pages: <https://apastyle.apa.org/style-grammar-guidelines/references/examples> or <https://www.ntnu.edu/viko/apa-examples>
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The appendix is an optional section that can contain details and data supplemental to the main text. For example, explanations of experimental details that would disrupt the flow of the main text, but nonetheless remain crucial to understanding and reproducing the research shown; figures of replicates for experiments of which representative data is shown in the main text can be added here if brief, or as Supplementary data. Mathematical proofs of results not central to the paper can be added as an appendix.

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<b>Author name</b>	<b>ORCID</b>
So, Hee	0000-0000-000-00X
Park, Hye-Il	0000-0000-000-00X
Yoo, All	0000-0000-000-00X
Jung, Jewerly	0000-0000-000-00X

# Authors' Checklist

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## < Checklist for manuscript preparation >

- I checked my manuscript has been 'spell-checked' and 'grammar-checked'.
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  - E-mail address
  - Phone numbers
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