Directional stability assessment of a wingsail-driven vessel

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Directional stability assessment of a wingsail-driven vessel

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Preface

Dear Reader,

This report marks the culmination of nine months of work on the Oceanbird car carrier, completed as part of my master's thesis in Marine Technology.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to Fredrik Olsson, my industry supervisor, for giving me the opportunity to undertake this thesis at RISE SSPA. Your initial ideas helped shape the direction of this research and our weekly meetings were invaluable. I greatly appreciated the engineering contexts you provided, which served as an essential counterbalance to the mathematical focus of the problem.

I also extend my thanks to Andrea Coraddu for your unwavering support and flexibility throughout this process. Your ability to instil confidence in me and to provide efficient, helpful, and insightful feedback on my progress was truly admirable.

I am very grateful to Martin Alexandersson for his expertise in manoeuvring theory and his meticulous attention to detail. Your time and effort in helping me refine this report have been incredibly beneficial.

Lastly, I want to thank my friends and family for their constant support and belief in me.

Guido Haenen Amsterdam, August 2024

Abstract

This thesis investigates the yaw stability of wind-driven vessels using wingsails, addressing the urgent need for decarbonising global shipping. An analytical method is developed to assess directional stability based on aerodynamic and hydrodynamic characteristics, yielding a universal stability criterion validated with SEAMAN data. The study explores practical stability assessment approaches and evaluates the impact of varying hydrodynamic parameters, aerodynamic models, and surge coupling effects.

Results show that while stability diagnostics are invariant under different hydrodynamic models, significant variations occur in destabilised hulls. Including a boundary layer in the wind model has negligible effects on stability but increases computational effort. The closed-loop analysis assesses proportional and derivative feedback control strategies, demonstrating satisfactory stability for both human and autopilot control across all points of sail in the original hull configuration.

Time-domain responses to step rudder inputs indicate small steady errors and oscillatory components under human control, with autopilot control yielding even more robust outcomes. The study highlights the importance of surge coupling in stability analysis, often overlooked in previous models. The thesis concludes that wind-driven vessels can achieve directional stability under active control schemes, providing a foundation for future research on sustainable maritime transportation.

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Introduction

1

Climate change poses a significant threat to human well-being and planetary health[[3\]](#page-47-1). A critical measure to mitigate its impact is the rapid decarbonisation of the global economy. One sector contributing notably to carbon emissions is shipping, accounting for approximately 3% of total annual anthropogenic CO2 emissions [\[5](#page-47-2)]. The International Maritime Organisation (IMO) aims to reduce total annual GHG emissions from international shipping by at least 20% (striving for 30%) by 2030 and by at least 70% (striving for 80%) by 2040, compared to 2008 levels. Additionally, carbon intensity should be reduced by at least 40% by 2030[[10\]](#page-47-3).

Achieving these ambitious targets presents significant challenges for the global shipping industry. Policymakers play a crucial role in regulating fossil fuel supply and demand, incorporating climate change externalities into fuel prices, and addressing the Jevons paradox by reducing shipping volumes. However, the engineering science community must focus on understanding and overcoming technical challenges to enhance transport efficiency.

Although numerous solutions exist, the most effective and straightforward approach—reducing transport volumes—is politically sensitive and beyond the scope of this research. Operational strategies to improve transport efficiency include just-in-time arrival, minimum time in port, weather routing, slow steaming, trim optimization, autopilot improvements, better fleet and cargo management, ballast optimization, hull roughness reduction, and propeller maintenance, upgrade, and optimization[[19\]](#page-47-4). Design and retrofit options involve alternative fuels, carbon capture and storage, engine optimization, waste heat recycling, space optimization, autonomous shipping, installation of energy-saving devices, direct environmental propulsion assistance, and wind propulsion.

Wind propulsion, in particular, remains a promising candidate for decarbonizing both new ships and refits due to its historically proven effectiveness. However, fully wind-driven vessels face operational and financial limitations that hinder their competitiveness with traditional cargo fleets under current fossilfavoring fiscal policies. Despite these challenges, the scientific and societal interest in wind propulsion has grown rapidly.

Traditionally, wind-driven vessels harness wind power through on-deck devices such as (wing)sails, Flettner rotors, or kites, which generate a net force opposite to the vessel's bow. This method introduces a side force component, causing the vessel to sail at a drift angle. The nonlinear nature of hull hydrodynamics in large commercial vessels renders classical straight-line stability criteria ([[4](#page-47-5)][[1](#page-47-6)]) unreliable for predicting directional stability under drift conditions. Therefore, a generalised analytical stability criterion that accounts for wind forces is necessary.

Previous research has partially addressed this gap by extending analytical stability criteria to include steady wind conditions[[6](#page-47-7)][[20\]](#page-47-8)[\[23](#page-48-0)][[2\]](#page-47-9). Notably, the work of [\[25\]](#page-48-1)[\[26](#page-48-2)] represents a significant step towards understanding stability in steady wind scenarios and proposes a generalisation of the classical stability criterion.

However, wind forces on wind-driven vessels significantly influence surge forces (which were deemed

insignificant by[[25\]](#page-48-1)), necessitating further investigation into factors affecting directional stability in cargo vessels driven solely by wingsails. This area remains relatively unexplored due to the novelty of wind propulsion in large vessels compared to the well-studied stability of sailing yachts with slender hulls.

To address these gaps, this thesis explores the following research questions:

To what extent is a vessel able to maintain yaw stability under the influence of varying wind conditions and control system specifications when introducing large aerodynamic control surfaces?

- 1. Which analytical methods can be used to assess the directional stability of vessels equipped with large aerodynamic control surfaces?
- 2. How do different modelling approaches impact the directional stability assessment of vessels?
- 3. How does the yaw motion of the system behave in both the frequency domain and the time domain under proportional and derivative feedback control strategies?

By investigating these questions, this research aims to contribute to the development of effective solutions for achieving yaw stability in wind-driven vessels under varying wind conditions and control system specifications.

2

Methodology

2.1. Approach

When answering the respective research questions, care should be taken that the obtained results are as generally applicable as possible. That said, while developing the methodology, a specific test case of a wind-powered car carrier (wPCC) with four wingsails placed on the centre line was analysed. This is especially relevant for the aerodynamic characteristics, which in general differs depending on the vessel. However, since the aerodynamic part is considered as a separate module and interaction effects are disregarded, the end result should be general with respect to arbitrary aerodynamic models.

When approaching the question of developing an analytical methodology for assessing directional stability, an important starting point is to define directional stability. Stability is a concept which relates to dynamical systems, which is the study of the time evolution of points that belong to a certain mathematical space, or more specifically, a vector space, as is usually the case in engineering contexts. This step means therefore to choose the particular vector space that is relevant to the problem at hand.

To that effect, a mathematical force model first needs to be crystallised which then leads to a concrete (simplified) description of the relevant motions that relate to directional stability. The model simplifications and limitations should be made clear, which helps defining the model itself as well as charting possible directions for future work. The model should also be sufficiently accurately describe the dynamics of the vessel. In essence this part comes down to describing the forces acting on a rigid body, since hydroelasticity can be assumed negligible in a manoeuvring context[[23\]](#page-48-0).

After developing the forces that act on the vessel, a steady state or force equilibrium can be found if the environmental conditions are known (wind speed and wind direction). Finding these steady states means optimising for speed while keeping the drift angle, the rudder angle, and the angles of attack of the sails within certain constraints. This step therefore reduces to a constrained optimisation problem, for which an algorithm will be described. It is also known as a Velocity Prediction Programme (VPP).

Stability of a point is defined by properties of a small neighbourhood around the point in question. Therefore, linearisation of the forces is another piece of the puzzle, and although this step in theory only constitutes simple higher-dimensional differentiation, i.e. writing out Jacobian matrices, the tricky part lies in unpacking the expressions until they are written in terms of parameters and variables that are considered to be known.

Finally, the notion of stability of a steady state is explored through an equivalent criterion called the Routh-Hurwitz criterion, which is a particularly useful tool in stability theory since it gives information about the roots of the characteristic polynomial of a differential equation which is useful for determining stability, without actually having to know the numerical value of the roots. This is particularly powerful since by the Abel-Ruffini theorem, roots of polynomials of at least order 5 can in general not be written in terms of their coefficients. Although in this thesis, at most order 4 polynomials will be considered, this fact is of possible relevance to more complex force models, for example, with more degrees of freedom.

To apply the methodology to an actual test vessel and obtain numerical results, all of the symbolic parameters and variables must be resolved. The force model depends on physical constants (e.g. water and air density), independent variables (wind speed and direction), and case-specific parameters. The case parameters generally refer to the dimensions of the ship, the centre of mass, the rigging layout, the hydrodynamic coefficients (including the rudder), the lift and drag characteristics of the wingsails, and the drag coefficients of the superstructure. Depending on the amount of analysis performed on a particular vessel, sometimes these parameters are already known. In other cases, semi-empirical methods or educated guesses are needed.

The most important dependent variable resulting from the methods described above is something that can be most aptly described as the "degree of instability" of the system. This boils down to the maximum of the real parts of the eigenvalues of the state transition matrix of the system, and its sign determines whether the whole system is stable or not. The parameter can be interpreted as a diagnostic value which mostly gives binary information (stable/unstable), although its magnitude is also indicative of how close the system is to being marginally stable.

In order to solidify confidence in the developed stability assessment, several modelling choices are varied and the effect on the results of the case study are examined. This forms the heart of the second subquestion.

Finally, the closed-loop effects are studied when introducing proportional and derivative gain in the system, and the step response in the time domain is analytically solved for a few specific operational conditions. This constitutes the answer to the third subquestion.

2.1.1. Model assumptions

The forces on the vessel can be divided into inertia forces, hydrodynamic forces, and aerodynamic forces. An additional subdivision can then be made for the hydrodynamic forces into hull forces, rudder forces, and possibly propeller forces, depending on additional simplifications that the analytical calculations may warrant. A possible simplification is to assume that the propeller rate is adjusted according to the required forward speed, yielding a constant forward speed as the thrust and extra wind resistance cancel out. The aerodynamic forces can be subdivided into the forces exerted on the superstructure by the wind, and the forces experienced by the wingsail system, which can be controlled. Consequently, the reaction forces (inertial pseudoforces, hull forces and superstructure forces) can be grouped together, while the control forces (rudder and sail system) can be grouped together as well.

A priori all six degrees of freedom of the ship are relevant when considering a realistic situation for a vessel on sea. However, in many modelling situations, one or more of the ship motions may be constrained in order to simplify the mechanics, provided that the simplifying assumptions are reasonable in the case considered. Alternatively, other simplifying assumptions can be made with respect to environmental forces or other forces. In this case, a 3DOF model is considered (surge, sway and yaw). The assumptions that will be made are the following:

- Deep-water conditions may be assumed, i.e. water depth is modelled as infinite;
- There is no interference from other vessels, shores or other objects;
- Fluid memory effects are ignored, i.e. a quasi-static approach is taken;
- The ship hull is considered rigid, which means hydro-elasticity is assumed negligible;
- All control surfaces are considered rigid;
- Calm water is assumed, i.e. no wave excitation is considered;
- The wind profile is considered uniform in space and time and no interaction effects between the different sails are considered;
- Roll is assumed negligible.

Whether or not roll motions may be considered negligible is an interesting question, and it can be expected that the answer in general is negative, particularly when it comes to more extreme weather conditions. However, for most cargo vessels, a roll angle of 5 *◦* is already considered rather extreme and the captain will generally reduce the sail area in order to avoid heeling too much. In practice the maximum heel angle will be limited to about 5 degrees. That said, some non-negligible roll-swayyaw-rudder couplings may occur even at small heel angles, generally introducing instabilities into the system. The extent to which this occurs is influenced by the drift angle as well[[13](#page-47-10)]. A paper on nonlinear stability of ship autopilots by Fossen and Lauvdal suggests a minimal speed to maintain controllability when designing a combined yaw autopilot and rudder-roll stabilisation system [\[8\]](#page-47-11). An experimental study on two different RoRo vessels suggests that the linear derivatives N'_v and N'_r may change by respectively +20% and *−*25% for a heel angle of 5 *◦* [\[9\]](#page-47-12). A sensitivity study on a particular container ship (S175), based on a nonlinear 4DOF steering model by Son and Nomoto, concludes that there are several roll-dependent hydrodynamic derivatives that have a moderate or moderate to high effect on the manoeuvring characteristics of the vessel in question [\[18](#page-47-13)]. Ship manoeuvrability may be significantly influenced by trim and loading condition as well[[11](#page-47-14)]. However, for the purposes of simplification it is chosen to focus on the three most important degrees of freedom and to leave out the effects of trim and loading condition, as well as any shallow water effects that could influence manoeuvrability.

2.2. Force Model

In this section, a force model will be developed that serves as the basis for all calculations, both for the steady-state solutions and for the stability evaluations. Various conventions exist concerning how equations of motion should be written down. In this thesis, a control theory approach will be taken insofar as the notation will strive towards a state-space formulation.

In this thesis, a 3-DOF force model is used. The motions and forces considered are in the surge, sway, and yaw direction. The most important shortcoming of such a model is its limited applicability for stronger winds, as the heeling forces and consequent heeling motions will not be negligible in such conditions. Using Newton's laws of motion, the relation between accelerations and forces is given. The relation between generalised velocity and forces is given by empirical tests from the literature. The goal is to describe the dynamics of the system in a state-space representation.

The first goal is to describe the dynamics of a fully sailing cargo vessel with four sails and one rudder using a modular force model. This means the total accelerations on the vessel will be given by the sum of the forces and pseudoforces (due to a non-inertial reference frame) on the various components of the ship. An inertial NED frame (North-East-Down) and a ship-fixed body frame are defined as described in[[7](#page-47-15)]. In the ship coordinate system, the origin is in the midship, while the centre of mass is in the centreline of the ship, at distance *x^g* in the *x*-direction. The coordinate frames are shown in Figure [2.1](#page-15-0).

Forces will be expressed in the ship body frame so that the hydrodynamic forces become more straightforward than would otherwise be the case. However, since the ship frame is not inertial, this means that several pseudo-forces like Coriolis and centripetal forces will be introduced that would not appear in an inertial frame. The dynamic equations follow from Newton's laws as well as basic calculus and are documented in[[7](#page-47-15)]:

$$
\begin{cases}\nm(\dot{u} - vr - x_g r^2) &= \sum X \\
m(\dot{v} - ur - x_g \dot{r}) &= \sum Y \\
(I_z + m x_g^2)\dot{r} + m x_g(\dot{v} + ur) &= \sum N\n\end{cases}
$$
\n(2.1)

Here the sums on the right-hand side constitute all external forces acting on the ship. Note that the moment of inertia I_z is defined with respect to the centre of mass, which gives rise to a term $m x_g^2$ resulting from the Parallel Axis Theorem.

The terms on the left-hand side containing velocities can be grouped and moved to the right-hand side. They will be called inertial pseudo-forces:

$$
\mathbf{F}_{I,RB} := \begin{bmatrix} m(vr + x_g r^2) \\ -m u r \\ -m x_g u r \end{bmatrix}
$$
 (2.2)

The point is to group the acceleration terms on the left-hand side and all other terms on the right-hand side. This gives rise to the following vector \mathbf{F}_{BB} :

Figure 2.1: Coordinate system and sign conventions

$$
\mathbf{F}_{RB} = \begin{bmatrix} X_{RB} \\ Y_{RB} \\ N_{RB} \end{bmatrix} := \begin{bmatrix} m(vr + x_gr^2) + \sum X \\ -mur + \sum Y \\ -mx_gur + \sum N \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{F}_{I,RB} + \mathbf{F}_{H} + \mathbf{F}_{A} + \mathbf{F}_{S} \tag{2.3}
$$

The force vectors \mathbf{F}_H , \mathbf{F}_A , and \mathbf{F}_S , are the hydrodynamic hull forces (including rudder forces), aerodynamic forces acting on the ship superstructure, and the sail forces, respectively. These will be elaborated upon in the following sections. The acceleration terms of Equation [2.1](#page-14-1) give rise to the following definition:

$$
\mathbf{M}_{RB} := \begin{bmatrix} m & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & m & mx_g \\ 0 & mx_g & I_z + mx_g^2 \end{bmatrix}
$$
 (2.4)

The velocities in 3 degrees of freedom are written as *ν*:

$$
\nu := \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \\ r \end{bmatrix} \tag{2.5}
$$

Following Equations [2.1](#page-14-1),[2.3,](#page-16-1)[2.4](#page-16-2), and [2.5](#page-16-3), the equations of motion can then be rewritten as follows:

$$
\mathbf{M}_{RB}\dot{\nu} = \mathbf{F}_{RB} \tag{2.6}
$$

2.2.1. Hydrodynamic forces

The hydrodynamic forces can be subdivided in potential forces, inertial forces and manoeuvring forces:

$$
\mathbf{F}_H = -\mathbf{M}_A \dot{\nu} + \mathbf{F}_{I,A} + \mathbf{F}_{man},\tag{2.7}
$$

where each term will be explained below. The latter two terms can be combined, as we will see.

The added masses constitute the extra hydrodynamic forces that result from accelerating the water around the vessel and are a direct result of Newton's third law. The hydrodynamic forces due to this phenomenon are called potential forces. Here we model the off-diagonal added masses as zero:

$$
\mathbf{M}_{A}\dot{\nu} = -\begin{bmatrix} X_{\dot{u}} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & Y_{\dot{v}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & N_{\dot{r}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \dot{u} \\ \dot{v} \\ \dot{r} \end{bmatrix}
$$
(2.8)

It is worth elaborating on the Munk moment. Potential flow theory gives us an expression for the magnitude of the Munk moment in terms of the added masses of the body. The forces as a result of the change in kinetic energy of the surrounding fluid take a rather similar form as the inertial forces described in Equation [2.2](#page-14-2), and depend on the added masses of the ship. Sagatun and Fossen[[17\]](#page-47-16) constructed the concept of a Coriolis and centripetal matrix **C***^A* for the added masses, based on the Kirchhoff equations. This matrix contains, besides some minor adjustments to the force matrix by Davidson and Schiff [\[4\]](#page-47-5), the more significant Munk moment that is not explicitly included in many manoeuvring models. These forces are defined as follows:

$$
\mathbf{F}'_{I,A} = \mathbf{C}'_A \begin{bmatrix} u' \\ v' \\ r' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -Y'_v v'r' - Y'_r r'^2 \\ X'_u u'r' \\ (Y'_v - X'_u)u'v' + Y'_r u'r' \end{bmatrix} .
$$
 (2.9)

In Equation [2.9](#page-16-4), all primed parameters and variables mean that the respective quantities are nondimensionalised according to the Prime System - specifically, the Prime System I which doesn't use draft as a reference quantity but only length. Since in our force model, only the hydrodynamic forces result from a nondimensional framework, the choice was made to convert those forces to SI values and then calculate all results in a dimensional setting. This choice is all the more valid since usually, but not in our case, ship velocity is kept constant, which warrants its use as a reference speed. For more information on nondimensionalisation, see Section 7*.*2*.*5 from[[7](#page-47-15)]. All of the above forces become zero

in the pure translation case $r = 0$, except for the term $(Y_i - X_i)uv$, which is known as the Munk moment.

However, the hull forces **F***man* also depend on *ν*. Many different manoeuvring models can be chosen to model these, and the choice of such a model is a very interesting topic of discussion, although outside of the scope of this thesis. In this case, a polynomial model was adopted that has the following form:

$$
X_H' = X_0' + X_u' u' + X_{vv}' v'^2 + X_{vr}' v' r' + X_{rr}' r'^2 + X_{\delta \delta}' \delta^2
$$
\n(2.10)

$$
Y'_{H} = Y'_{v}v' + Y'_{r}r' + Y'_{vvv}v'^{3} + Y'_{vvr}v'^{2}r' + Y'_{vrr}v'r'^{2} + Y'_{rrr}r'^{3} + Y'_{\delta}\delta
$$
\n(2.11)

$$
+Y'_{\delta\delta\delta}\delta^3 + Y'_{r\delta\delta}r'\delta^2 + Y'_{rr\delta}r'^2\delta + Y'_{\upsilon\delta\delta}v'\delta^2 + Y'_{\upsilon\upsilon\delta}v'^2\delta + Y'_{\upsilon\upsilon\delta}v'^r\delta
$$

$$
N'_{H} = N'_{v}v' + N'_{r}r' + N'_{vvv}v'^{3} + N'_{vvr}v'^{2}r' + N'_{vrr}v'r'^{2} + N'_{rrr}r'^{3} + N'_{\delta}\delta
$$
\n
$$
+ N'_{\delta\delta\delta}\delta^{3} + N'_{r\delta\delta}r'\delta^{2} + N'_{rr\delta}r'^{2}\delta + N'_{v\delta\delta}v'\delta^{2} + N'_{v\delta}v'^{2}\delta + N'_{v\delta}v'^{2}\delta + N'_{rr\delta}v'r'\delta
$$
\n(2.12)

Since the total moment acting on the ship due to pure translation is a combination of both the Munk moment arising from potential theory and the viscous force contribution, there is no real advantage in including the potential terms explicitly (see also the discussion by Sutulo and Soares on this matter [\[21](#page-48-3)]). This holds not only for the Munk moment but also for the other terms present in $\mathbf{F}_{I,A}$, although they are comparatively less significant in magnitude. Hence, for manoeuvring modelling purposes, the added mass Coriolis and centripetal forces can be included in the hull forces. The attentive reader will note that in the above manoeuvring model, terms like N^{\prime}_{ur} are missing, which would seemingly render the previous argument invalid. However, in the linearised model, this caveat disappears, since $X_u u_0$ can then be included in N'_v or N'_{vvv} , and the other terms in $\mathbf{F}_{I,A}$ can be treated similarly. The polynomial model is less physical in the sense that the individual terms contain blurred physical information, and the fitting is done over the whole model. However, it works well enough for most simple purposes. Summarising all of the above, for the purposes of this thesis, $\mathbf{F}_{I,A} = 0$.

Combining all of the above with Equation [2.6](#page-16-5) and defining $\mathbf{M} := \mathbf{M}_{RB} + \mathbf{M}_{A}$ gives us the final force equation and a force vector called **F***tot* containing various forces and pseudoforces:

$$
\mathbf{M}\dot{\nu} = \mathbf{F}_{RB} + \mathbf{M}_{A}\dot{\nu} = \mathbf{F}_{I,RB} + \mathbf{F}_{man} + \mathbf{F}_{A} + \mathbf{F}_{S} =: \mathbf{F}_{tot}
$$
\n(2.13)

2.2.2. Aerodynamic superstructure forces

The aerodynamic forces **F***^A* experienced by the superstructure of the ship are related to the speed of the ship at a reference point (in this case the origin of the ship frame), also called the apparent wind. The model used is the following:

$$
\mathbf{F}_A = \begin{bmatrix} X_A \\ Y_A \\ N_A \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \rho_a V_A^2 \begin{bmatrix} A_T C_X(\theta_A) \\ A_T C_Y(\theta_A) \\ LA_T C_N(\theta_A) \end{bmatrix}
$$
(2.14)

where ρ_a is the density of air, V_A is the apparent wind speed at the origin, and A_T is the transverse projected area of the superstructure. Note that sometimes the lateral projected area *A^L* is used as a reference area for *Y^A* and *NA*, but this is just a convention issue and in the case study of this thesis, only the coefficients with respect to A_T were given. Lastly, C_X , C_Y and C_N are empirically determined force coefficients that depend on the shape of the hull and vary with the apparent wind angle *θA*.

If the true wind $(u_T, v_T)^T$ at a certain point (x, y, z) is known, as well as the ship speeds (u, v, r) , the apparent wind at that point can be calculated by

$$
\begin{bmatrix} u_A \\ v_A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u - yr + u_T(z) \\ v + xr + v_T(z) \end{bmatrix}
$$
\n(2.15)

$$
\theta_A = \operatorname{atan2}(u_A, v_A) \tag{2.16}
$$

$$
V_A^2 = u_A^2 + v_A^2 = (u - yr + u_T(z))^2 + (v + xr + v_T(z))^2
$$
\n(2.17)

where the true wind $(u_T,v_T)^T$ is obtained by applying a rotation transformation as it both depends on the wind direction and the ship orientation (see Figure [2.1](#page-15-0)):

$$
\begin{bmatrix} u_T \\ v_T \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{R}(\theta_w - \psi) \begin{bmatrix} V_T \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} V_T \cos(\theta_W - \psi) \\ V_T \sin(\theta_W - \psi) \end{bmatrix}
$$
(2.18)

The wind speed is modelled with the atmospheric boundary layer and will therefore vary in magnitude depending on the height above the surface:

$$
V_T(z) = V_{10m} \left(\frac{-z}{10 \,\mathrm{m}}\right)^{1/7} \tag{2.19}
$$

Note that because of the right-handed coordinate system, a minus appears in the numerator. The forces **F***^A* are modelled to always act at a height of 10 m, hence the effective wind speed for **F***^A* will be equal to V_{10m} . In the next section, we will see in more detail how the boundary layer affects the sails.

2.2.3. Sail forces

The sail forces depend on ship speed, true wind, orientation, and sheeting angles. For any nonzero ship speed, the boundary layer will cause variations in both the magnitude and direction of the apparent wind as a function of height. This "twist effect" is well known to operators of sailing vessels, usually dealt with by shaping the sail such that the sheeting angle becomes larger in the top part of the sail. In the case of a rigid sail, this is impossible and the twist effect will result in a varying angle of attack profile along the height.

The wind is assumed to exert only forces and no yaw moments on the sails. As a result, the yaw moment delivered by the sails is solely due to the side forces multiplied by the respective force arms. The thrust and side forces experienced by a single sail are obtained by a coordinate transformation from the drag and lift forces. These are defined as, respectively, the force component aligned with the flow and the component perpendicular to the flow. The relation to thrust and side force is then given by

$$
\begin{bmatrix} f_T(z) \\ f_S(z) \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{R}(\pi + \theta_A(z)) \begin{bmatrix} f_D(z) \\ f_L(z) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\cos(\theta_A(z)) & \sin(\theta_A(z)) \\ -\sin(\theta_A(z)) & -\cos(\theta_A(z)) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f_D(z) \\ f_L(z) \end{bmatrix}
$$
(2.20)

where *f^T* , *fS*, *f^D* and *f^L* are the force *densities* of the sail as a function of local angle of attack. The total forces exerted on the sail are given by

$$
\begin{bmatrix} F_T \\ F_S \end{bmatrix} = \int_{z=-h_b}^{-(h_b+h_S)} \begin{bmatrix} f_T(z) \\ f_S(z) \end{bmatrix} dz
$$
\n(2.21)

while the drag and lift force densities themselves are modelled as follows:

$$
\begin{bmatrix} f_D(z) \\ f_L(z) \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \rho_a V_A(z)^2 L_c(z) \begin{bmatrix} C_D(\alpha(z)) \\ C_L(\alpha(z)) \end{bmatrix}
$$
\n(2.22)

where $L_c(z)$ is the local chord length of the sail (varying with height) and $\alpha(z) = \theta_A(z) - s$ is the angle of attack, defined as the difference between the apparent wind angle *θ^A* and the sheeting angle *s*. The lift and drag coefficients of a rigid sail as functions of the angle of attack are considered known.

Finally, the forces exerted on all sails together make up the total sail forces, where *m ∈* N is the number of sails and x_{r_i} is the x position of sail number i (which constitutes the lever arm for the moment delivered by that sail):

$$
\begin{bmatrix} X_S \\ Y_S \\ N_S \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^m \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & x_{r_i} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} F_{T_i} \\ F_{S_i} \end{bmatrix}
$$
 (2.23)

2.2.4. Stability formulation

Course stability can be described as the tendency for the yaw angle to restore to the equilibrium value after a disturbance. To say something meaningful about stability, an equilibrium has to be found first. This is generally done through a velocity prediction programme (VPP). Using the force model as described in the rest of this section, a simplified VPP was constructed to find the approximate operational points of the ship in full sailing mode. A steady-state solution will have a constant yaw angle *ψ*0. This angle can be assumed equal to zero without loss of generality because we can align the inertial coordinate system with the bow direction in the steady state. This means that in general, the inertial reference frame is not a literal North-East-Down frame anymore, but as this thesis does not deal with navigational factors, this is not a problem. Furthermore, for the steady state, the yaw rate $r_0 = 0$ since $r = \dot{\psi} = 0$ by definition of steady state. The total steady state solution **x**⁰ will hence consist of velocities *u*⁰ and v_0 in the horizontal plane, a steady rudder angle $δ_0$ and steady sheeting angles $s_{1,0}, \ldots, s_{4,0}$.

Using control theory notation, the stability problem can be described by a state-space description, defining

$$
\mathbf{x} := \begin{bmatrix} \Delta u \\ \Delta v \\ r \\ \psi \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u - u_0 \\ v - v_0 \\ r \\ \psi \end{bmatrix}
$$
(2.24)

as the state. The state evolution matrix **A** will describe how the state changes as a function of itself. Another matrix **B** describes the state change as a function of inputs **u**, which are defined as the physical quantities that are directly adjustable by the controller. The state-space representation then takes the following form:

$$
\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u} \tag{2.25}
$$

Note that the steady term vanished due to the definition of **x** as the unsteady part of the variables *u, v, r, ψ.* Higher-order terms are also not written here, although they will be present in general. However, if all relevant functions are smooth enough with bounded derivatives, then Taylor's theorem guarantees a linear approximation provided **x** and **u** are small enough. However, as the model is highly nonlinear, the linearisations A and B depend on the steady state $\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{u}_0$.

In a simple control model, we can choose ∆*δ* and ∆*s*1*, . . . ,* ∆*s*⁴ as input variables, whereas, in a real situation, both the rudder and the sheeting angle are subject to their own dynamics. In such more precise models, the input variables would in extreme examples be given by the duty ratio of the chopper inside the sheeting actuator. For this model, the rudder and sheets are assumed to be directly controllable:

$$
\mathbf{u} := \begin{bmatrix} \Delta \delta \\ \Delta s_1 \\ \Delta s_2 \\ \Delta s_3 \\ \Delta s_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \delta - \delta_0 \\ s_1 - s_{1,0} \\ s_2 - s_{2,0} \\ s_3 - s_{3,0} \\ s_4 - s_{4,0} \end{bmatrix}
$$
(2.26)

Like stated earlier, the workflow of the open-loop stability evaluation at a certain wind speed V_{10m} and wind angle *θ^w* consists of the following steps:

- Developing a force model and choosing environmental conditions (V_{10m}, θ_w) ;
- Solving a constrained optimisation problem to find the associated operational point $\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{u}_0$;
- Computing stability derivatives of all forces at the operational point;
- Evaluating the Hurwitz stability of the associated state transition matrix.

2.3. VPP algorithm

Finding the steady state associated with a certain environmental condition is akin to solving the following constrained optimisation problem:

```
minimise -(u_0^2 + v_0^2)subject to
\mathbf{F}_{tot}(u_0, v_0, \delta_0, s_{1,0}, \ldots, s_{4,0}) = \mathbf{0},q(u_0, v_0, \delta_0, s_1, \ldots, s_{4,0}) \leq \mathbf{0}.
```
The equality constraint means that the steady state should be a force equilibrium. The inequality constraint imposes boundaries on the decision variables $u_0, v_0, \delta_0, s_1, \ldots, s_{4,0}$ by enforcing positive forward velocity and limits on the drift angle $\beta_0 := \tan 2(u_0, v_0)$, rudder angle δ_0 and angles of attack $\alpha_{i,0} := \theta_A(x_{r_i}, 0, -h_b) - s_{i,0}$, measured at the foot of the sails. The following limits were used:

$$
\begin{cases}\nu_0 \ge 0; \\
\beta_0 \in [-10^\circ, 10^\circ]; \\
\delta_0 \in [-35^\circ, 35^\circ]; \\
\alpha_{i,0} \in [-20^\circ, 20^\circ].\n\end{cases}
$$
\n(2.27)

To solve this optimisation problem, a Sequential Quadratic Programming (SQP) algorithm was used, which is an iterative method for solving nonlinear constrained optimisation problems. The core of the algorithm consists of expanding the dimension of the objective space by a Lagrange multipliers for all active constraints, then approximating the Lagrangian function by a positive definite Hessian matrix. This is also called a Lagrange-Newton method. Specialised techniques called quasi-Newton methods exist to make sure the matrix is both positive definite and approximates the Hessian of the Lagrangian well enough, although for the purposes of this thesis, starting from a close enough guess turned out to suffice for positive-definiteness and for letting the algorithm converge without resorting to sophisticated methods. The so-called QP subproblem is an unconstrained convex optimisation problem and hence has a guaranteed solution. This solution defines a search direction from the last guess, after which a line search is performed to find the next guess. When certain convergence criteria are satisfied for the constraints and the objective function, or when a maximum number of iterations is performed, the algorithm concludes. For more details regarding the exact algorithm, page 314 from[[16\]](#page-47-17) may be consulted.

2.4. Linearisation

In this section, the forces acting on the vessel are differentiated so that the state transition matrix can be found. Suppose for a start that a steady state $\mathbf{x}_0=(u_0,v_0,r_0=0,\psi_0=0)^T$ is found. Then let $\varepsilon>0$ and let (∆*u,* ∆*v, r, ψ*) = *O*(*ε*) be a perturbation vector (heuristically, a vector "close enough" to zero to ensure that all linearisations approximate the original functions sufficiently).

2.4.1. Wind linearisation and superstructure

First, the apparent wind speed, which appears in both the superstructure wind forces (Equation [2.14](#page-17-1)) and the sail forces (Equation [2.22](#page-18-2)) will be treated. Its linearisation around a certain value V_{A0} is as follows (following notation also used in [\[25](#page-48-1)] and expanding it):

$$
V_A^2 = V_{A0} + V_{Au}\Delta u + V_{Av}\Delta v + V_{Ar}r + V_{A\psi}\psi + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^2)
$$
\n(2.28)

for any $(\Delta u, \Delta v, r, \psi)^T \in \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon)$, with the coefficients given as

$$
V_{A0} = (u_0 + V_T \cos \theta_W)^2 + (v_0 + V_T \sin \theta_W)^2
$$
\n(2.29)

$$
V_{Au} = 2(u_0 + V_T \cos \theta_W) \tag{2.30}
$$

$$
V_{Av} = 2(v_0 + V_T \cos \theta_W) \tag{2.31}
$$

$$
V_{Ar} = 2x_{r_i}(v_0 + V_T \cos \theta_W) = x_{r_i} V_{Av}
$$
\n(2.32)

$$
V_{A\psi} = 2V_T(u_0 \sin \theta_W - v_0 \cos \theta_W)
$$
\n(2.33)

In the above equations, V_T is the local true wind speed (varying only with height above the free surface) and θ_W is the true wind direction measured from the bow of the ship. The apparent wind angle can be linearised as follows, using similar terminology as in[[25\]](#page-48-1) but including also the effect of yaw rate in the apparent wind:

$$
\theta_A = \theta_{A0} + \theta_{Au}\Delta u + \theta_{Av}\Delta v + \theta_{Ar}r + \theta_{A\psi}\psi + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^2)
$$
\n(2.34)

with the following expressions specifying the linear sensitivities of the apparent wind angle to the various state variables:

$$
\theta_{A0} = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{v_0 + V_T \sin \theta_W}{u_0 + V_T \cos \theta_W} \right)
$$
\n(2.35)

$$
\theta_{Au} = -\frac{v_0 + V_T \sin \theta_W}{V_{A0}} \tag{2.36}
$$

$$
\theta_{Av} = \frac{u_0 + V_T \cos \theta_W}{V_{A0}} \tag{2.37}
$$

$$
\theta_{Ar} = x_{r_i} \frac{u_0 + V_T \cos \theta_W}{V_{A0}} = x_{r_i} \theta_{Av}
$$
\n(2.38)

$$
\theta_{A\psi} = -\frac{V_T^2 + V_T(v_0 \sin \theta_W + u_0 \cos \theta_W)}{V_{A0}} \tag{2.39}
$$

The superstructure is subject to wind forces as explained in the previous work by [\[6\]](#page-47-7)[\[20](#page-47-8)][[25\]](#page-48-1):

$$
\begin{bmatrix} X_A \\ Y_A \\ N_A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X_{A0} \\ Y_{A0} \\ N_{A0} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} X_{Au} & X_{Av} & 0 & X_{A\psi} \\ Y_{Au} & Y_{Av} & 0 & Y_{A\psi} \\ N_{Au} & N_{Av} & 0 & N_{A\psi} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta u \\ \Delta v \\ r \\ \psi \end{bmatrix} + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^2) \tag{2.40}
$$

with the steady-state forces given by

$$
\begin{bmatrix} X_{A0} \\ Y_{A0} \\ N_{A0} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \rho_a V_{A0} \begin{bmatrix} A_X C_{XA}(\theta_{A0}) \\ A_Y C_{YA}(\theta_{A0}) \\ A_Y L C_{NA}(\theta_{A0}) \end{bmatrix}
$$
 (2.41)

and the "aerodynamic derivatives" as follows:

$$
X_{Ai} = \frac{1}{2} \rho_a A_X \left(V_{A0} \frac{\partial C_{XA}(\theta_{A0})}{\partial \theta_A} \theta_{Ai} + V_{Ai} C_{XA}(\theta_{A0}) \right)
$$
(2.42)

$$
Y_{Ai} = \frac{1}{2} \rho_a A_Y \left(V_{A0} \frac{\partial C_{YA}(\theta_{A0})}{\partial \theta_A} \theta_{Ai} + V_{Ai} C_{YA}(\theta_{A0}) \right)
$$
(2.43)

$$
N_{Ai} = \frac{1}{2} \rho_a A_Y L \left(V_{A0} \frac{\partial C_{NA}(\theta_{A0})}{\partial \theta_A} \theta_{Ai} + V_{Ai} C_{NA}(\theta_{A0}) \right)
$$
(2.44)

for $i = u, v, \psi$.

2.4.2. Sail forces

For the sails, the linearisation is considerably more involved. The linear derivatives which will constitute the entries of the Jacobian matrix $D_x \mathbf{F}_S$ of the sail forces are denoted by the subscript *S*, hence giving rise to the following notation:

$$
\mathbf{F}_{S} = \mathbf{F}_{S0} + (\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{F}_{S}) \Delta \mathbf{x} + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^{2}) = \begin{bmatrix} X_{S} \\ Y_{S} \\ N_{S} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X_{S0} \\ Y_{S0} \\ N_{S0} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} X_{Su} & X_{Sv} & X_{Sr} & X_{S\psi} \\ Y_{Su} & Y_{Sv} & Y_{Sr} & Y_{S\psi} \\ N_{Su} & N_{Su} & N_{Sr} & N_{S\psi} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta u \\ \Delta v \\ r \\ \psi \end{bmatrix} + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^{2}) \tag{2.45}
$$

Note that contrary to the simpler superstructure wind force model, a nonzero yawing rate dependence is present in the model, since the sails (especially the outermost ones) will experience varying apparent wind speeds when the ship is yawing.

The above Jacobian matrix is itself a linear combination of the derivatives of the forces on the individual

sails:

$$
\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{F}_{S} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & x_{r_1} & 0 & x_{r_2} & \cdots & 0 & x_{r_m} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial F_{T_1}}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial F_{T_1}}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial F_{T_1}}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial F_{T_1}}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial F_{S_1}}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial F_{S_1}}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial F_{S_1}}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial F_{S_1}}{\partial v} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial F_{T_m}}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial F_{T_m}}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial F_{T_1}}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial F_{T_1}}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial F_{S_m}}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial F_{S_m}}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial F_{S_m}}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial F_{S_m}}{\partial v} \end{bmatrix}
$$
(2.46)

where the force derivatives $\frac{\partial F_{T_i}}{\partial u},\frac{\partial F_{S_i}}{\partial u}\ldots,\frac{\partial F_{T_i}}{\partial \psi},\frac{\partial F_{S_i}}{\partial \psi}$ in turn are given by differentiating the thrust and side forces of the respective sail:

$$
\begin{split}\n\begin{bmatrix}\n\frac{\partial F_{T_1}}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial F_{T_1}}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial F_{T_1}}{\partial v} \\
\frac{\partial F_{S_1}}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial F_{S_1}}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial F_{S_1}}{\partial v}\n\end{bmatrix} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_{z=-h_b}^{-(h_b+h_S)} \frac{1}{2} \rho_a V_A^2(z) \mathbf{R}(\theta_A(z) + \pi) \begin{bmatrix} C_D(\alpha(z)) \\ C_L(\alpha(z)) \end{bmatrix} dz \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \rho_a \int_{z=-h_b}^{-(h_b+h_S)} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(V_A^2(z) \mathbf{R}(\theta_A(z) + \pi) \begin{bmatrix} C_D(\alpha(z)) \\ C_L(\alpha(z)) \end{bmatrix} \right) dz \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \rho_a \int_{z=-h_b}^{-(h_b+h_S)} \left(\mathbf{R}(\theta_A(z) + \pi) \begin{bmatrix} C_D(\alpha(z)) \\ C_L(\alpha(z)) \end{bmatrix} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (V_A^2(z)) \\
&+ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\mathbf{R}(\theta_A(z) + \pi) \left(V_A^2(z) \begin{bmatrix} C_D(\alpha(z)) \\ C_L(\alpha(z)) \end{bmatrix} \right) \\
&+ (V_A^2(z) \mathbf{R}(\theta_A(z) + \pi)) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\begin{bmatrix} C_D(\alpha(z)) \\ C_L(\alpha(z)) \end{bmatrix} \right) dz\n\end{split}
$$
\n(2.47)

where it should be kept in mind that this rather cumbersome expression is the result of standard calculus applications like the product rule and the appropriate switching of integral and derivative (which is always allowed when the functions are smooth enough - hence the later choice for continuously differentiable splines).

The right lid of Equation [2.47](#page-22-0) can be developed even further. The first term contains the factor $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(V_A^2(z))$, which is equal to $[V_{Au}$ V_{Av} V_{Ar} $V_{A\psi}]$ calculated with respect to the wind speed at height z . The third term contains *[∂] ∂***x** $\left(\begin{bmatrix} C_D(\alpha(z)) \\ C_L(\alpha(z)) \end{bmatrix}\right)$ which, by the definition $\alpha(z) = s - \theta_A(z)$ is equal to *−* $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial C_D}{\partial \alpha} \\ \frac{\partial C_L}{\partial \alpha} \end{bmatrix}$ $\left[\begin{array}{cc} \left[\theta_{Au} & \theta_{Av} & \theta_{Ar} & \theta_{A\psi} \right] \end{array} \right].$

This is the part where the derivatives of the drag and lift coefficients of the sails need to be known. The second term from Equation [2.47](#page-22-0) contains terms that ultimately all relate back to the apparent wind angle θ_A and its linearisation.

The upshot is that the state variable **x** influences the force density at a certain sail section in three different ways:

- Through the apparent wind speed;
- Through the change in direction of the flow, which has an effect on the rotation matrix;
- Through the change in direction of the flow, which indirectly influences the drag and lift coefficients because the angle of attack changes.

The first of these effects was already mentioned before when analysing the aerodynamic forces on the superstructure and the aerodynamic derivatives *VAu, . . . , VAψ*. The second effect requires calculating the derivative of the rotation matrix, which is just a phase offset of $\frac{\pi}{2}$. The third effect requires knowledge of (the first derivative of) the drag and lift coefficient functions. In the example case, these are just low-degree polynomials, of which the derivative becomes relatively simple. It should be noted that in a realistic wind-propelled scenario, the wingsails will make use of the drag profile in following wind conditions, which means that values of *α* beyond the stall angle will appear. Such a scenario will entail additional modelling complexity due to turbulence patterns that need high-fidelity sail-sail interactions

in the model. Therefore angles beyond stall are not considered here and *α* will be limited to at most 20*◦* .

Lastly, the methodology described above holds in general for flow models with a nonuniform boundary layer like the one described in Equation [2.19,](#page-18-3) but just as well for the uniform flow model of $V_T(z) \equiv V_{10m}$. In the latter case, the integral over the sail height can be resolved before making the actual calculations, thereby greatly reducing computational effort.

2.4.3. Hydrodynamics

The hydrodynamic forces are linearised as follows (note that the yaw angle *ψ* is unrelated to the hydrodynamic forces):

$$
\mathbf{F}_{H} = \mathbf{F}_{H0} + (\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{F}_{H}) \Delta \mathbf{x} + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^{2}) = \begin{bmatrix} X_{H0} \\ Y_{H0} \\ N_{H0} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} X_{Hu} & X_{Hv} & X_{Hr} & 0 \\ Y_{Hu} & Y_{Hv} & Y_{Hr} & 0 \\ N_{Hu} & N_{Hv} & N_{Hr} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta u \\ \Delta v \\ r \\ \psi \end{bmatrix} + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^{2})
$$
(2.48)

The hydrodynamic derivatives are originally defined in a dimensionless vector space where it becomes relatively easy to relate a small perturbation from the steady state to a specific term like Y'_v , N'_r or similar. This is the way it worked with the original stability criterion. However, as stated also elsewhere, the fact that in this case wind also has a substantial effect on the surge forces and hence on the total ship speed by virtue of acting on a sail vessel, makes the choice for a coordinate system which is nondimensionalised by the vessel speed $U = \sqrt{u^2 + v^2}$ unnatural. The total derivative of the hydrodynamic forces will therefore be a lot messier than in other literature about manoeuvring theory, since the simplification of having a constant ship speed during manoeuvring is unwarranted and actually, terms like *∂U ∂u , . . . , ∂U [∂]*]*psi* are also part of the full expression.

Two immediate attempts at solving come to mind. The first is to fit sea trials and model tests to a polynomial model which uses dimensional speeds and do all actual calculations in SI units. However, since $\sqrt{u^2 + v^2}$ is not a polynomial itself, the result will be a model of which the polynomial coefficients will be hard to their nondimensional counterparts elsewhere in the literature. Nonetheless, this is the route that was chosen to perform the numerical calculations in the Results chapter. The other solution is to nondimensionalise the other forces and perform the whole linearisation and consequent stability analysis in nondimensional space. This is also not ideal on account of the fact that these forces will be divided by the ship speed . In other words, this solves the problem of unwieldy hydrodynamic forces but introduces the same problem for all the other forces.

The most elegant solution would be to make all variables nondimensional by a quantity that is invariant in the context of the problem at hand. Where the ship speed $\sqrt{u^2 + v^2}$ is useful for making quantities nondimensional in the context of manoeuvring problems that consider ship speed invariant, it is not so useful for our problem. Wind speed could be used, although it would lose its usefulness when examining the ship stability under fluctuating wind patterns. This might be a major qualitative problem when using high-fidelity models like the one from [\[12](#page-47-18)] while trying to verify stability resulting from an analytical which divides all values by the wind speed. Of course, in such a case, one might resort to using the mean wind speed instead, but the point stands that for all analytical methods, the constants really need to behave like constants in order for the method to be trustworthy.

2.4.4. Inertial forces

The inertial forces are linearised very easily. The observation that $r_0 = 0$ yields a very straightforward expression:

$$
\begin{bmatrix} X_{Iu} & X_{Iv} & X_{Ir} & X_{I\psi} \\ Y_{Iu} & Y_{Iv} & Y_{Ir} & Y_{I\psi} \\ N_{Iu} & N_{Iv} & N_{Ir} & N_{I\psi} \end{bmatrix} = m \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & v_0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -u_0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & x_g u_0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
$$
 (2.49)

In other words, the quadratic term $m x_g r^2$ is negligible around a non-rotating steady state. What remains is the *CRB∗* matrix from [\[7\]](#page-47-15), generalised for a nonzero side velocity.

2.5. Stability assessment

After obtaining a solution for the constrained optimisation problem, the force derivatives at that point can be computed. From now on, the term $\mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^2)$ will be dropped since it can be assumed that the perturbation from the steady state is small enough.

$$
D_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{F}_{tot} = \begin{bmatrix} X_{t,u} & X_{t,v} & X_{t,r} & X_{t,\psi} \\ Y_{t,u} & Y_{t,v} & Y_{t,r} & Y_{t,\psi} \\ N_{t,u} & N_{t,v} & N_{t,r} & N_{t,\psi} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X_{Au} & X_{Av} & 0 & X_{A\psi} \\ Y_{Au} & Y_{Av} & 0 & Y_{A\psi} \\ N_{Au} & N_{Av} & 0 & N_{A\psi} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} X_{Su} & X_{Sv} & X_{Sr} & X_{S\psi} \\ Y_{Su} & Y_{Sv} & Y_{Sr} & Y_{S\psi} \\ N_{Su} & N_{Sv} & N_{Sr} & N_{S\psi} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} X_{Hu} & X_{Hv} & Y_{Hv} & 0 \\ Y_{Hu} & Y_{Hv} & Y_{Hr} & 0 \\ Y_{Hu} & Y_{Hv} & Y_{Hr} & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & X_{Ir} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & Y_{Ir} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & N_{Ir} & 0 \end{bmatrix}
$$
(2.50)

The steady state was a force equilibrium, therefore the total forces can be written as the product of the $\rm D_x$ matrix and the state vector $(\Delta u, \Delta v, r, \psi)^T.$ Also, this is the moment to invoke Equation [2.13](#page-17-2) which related the forces to $(\dot{u}, \dot{v}, \dot{r})$.

$$
\mathbf{M} \begin{bmatrix} \dot{u} \\ \dot{v} \\ \dot{r} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X_{tot} \\ Y_{tot} \\ N_{tot} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{F}_{tot} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta u \\ \Delta v \\ r \\ \psi \end{bmatrix}
$$
(2.51)

From here, the state transition matrix **A** follows, which directly relates the time derivatives of the state to the state itself. A similar process also leads to the input matrix **B**. This matrix can be built much like how the **A** matrix was constructed. The leftmost column will be closely related to some combination of the hydrodynamic parameters $X_{\delta\delta}$, Y_{δ} , $N_{vr\delta}$, and the steady state speeds u_0 and v_0 , while the other columns relate to the aerodynamic forces through the angle of attack $\alpha = s - \theta_A$.

$$
\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} \dot{u} \\ \dot{v} \\ \dot{r} \\ \dot{\psi} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{M}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{F}_{tot} \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta u \\ \Delta v \\ r \\ \psi \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{M}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{F}_{tot} \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta \delta \\ \Delta s_1 \\ \Delta s_2 \\ \Delta s_3 \\ \Delta s_4 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u} \tag{2.52}
$$

The Jacobian of the steady-state solution needs to be determined to evaluate the stability of an ODE system. This is the state transition matrix **A**. If one or more of its eigenvalues lie in the right halfplane, the corresponding eigenvector leads to an unstable solution. Therefore the problem reduces to analysing the roots of the characteristic equation of **A**.

The characteristic polynomial of the state transition matrix **A** will be written as follows:

$$
char(\mathbf{A}) = a_0 \lambda^4 + a_1 \lambda^3 + a_2 \lambda^2 + a_3 \lambda + a_4
$$
 (2.53)

Its coefficients can be calculated from the force matrix derivatives and the mass matrix and amount to the following (note that the entire monic polynomial was first multiplied by det(**M**) to obtain a simpler expression):

$$
a_0 = \det(M);
$$
\n
$$
a_1 = -m_{11}m_{22}N_{t,r} + m_{11}m_{23}N_{t,v} + m_{11}m_{32}Y_{t,r} + m_{23}m_{32}X_{t,u} - m_{11}m_{33}Y_{t,v} - m_{22}m_{33}X_{t,u};
$$
\n
$$
a_2 = m_{11}Y_{t,v}N_{t,r} - m_{22}X_{t,r}N_{t,u} + m_{22}X_{t,u}N_{t,r} - m_{11}m_{22}N_{t,\psi} + m_{23}X_{t,v}N_{t,u} - m_{23}X_{t,u}N_{t,v} + m_{32}X_{t,r}Y_{t,u} + m_{11}m_{32}Y_{t,\psi} - m_{11}Y_{t,r}N_{t,v} - m_{32}X_{t,u}Y_{t,r} - m_{33}X_{t,v}Y_{t,u} + m_{33}X_{t,u}Yt, v;
$$
\n
$$
a_3 = X_{t,r}Y_{t,v}N_{t,u} - X_{t,v}Y_{t,r}N_{t,u} - X_{t,r}Y_{t,u}N_{t,v} + X_{t,u}Y_{t,r}N_{t,v} + X_{t,v}Y_{t,u}N_{t,r} - X_{t,u}Y_{t,v}N_{t,r} - X_{t,u}Y_{t,v}N_{t,v} + m_{11}Y_{t,v}N_{t,\psi} - m_{22}X_{t,\psi}N_{t,u} + m_{22}X_{t,u}N_{t,\psi} + m_{32}X_{t,\psi}Y_{t,u} - m_{32}X_{t,u}Y_{t,\psi};
$$
\n
$$
a_4 = X_{t,\psi}Y_{t,v}N_{t,u} + X_{t,u}Y_{t,\psi}N_{t,v} + X_{t,v}Y_{t,u}N_{t,\psi} - X_{t,v}Y_{t,u}N_{t,u} - X_{t,\psi}Y_{t,u}N_{t,v} - X_{t,u}Y_{t,v}N_{t,\psi}
$$

By the Routh-Hurwitz criterion, the stability of char(**A**), which means the condition that all roots lie in

the left half-plane, is equivalent to the following system of inequalities:

$$
\Delta_0 = a_0 > 0; \tag{2.54}
$$

$$
\Delta_1 = a_1 > 0; \tag{2.55}
$$

$$
\Delta_2 = a_1 a_2 - a_0 a_3 > 0; \tag{2.56}
$$

$$
\Delta_3 = a_1 a_2 a_3 - a_0 a_3^2 - a_1^2 a_4 > 0; \tag{2.57}
$$

$$
\Delta_4 = a_4 > 0. \tag{2.58}
$$

It should be noted that this condition is stronger than the condition that all $a_i > 0$. The system can be simplified by noting that a_0 is equal to the determinant of the mass matrix which means it will always be positive. Furthermore, a_1 is always positive since the force derivatives $X_{t,u}, Y_{t,v}, N_{t,r}$ are all negative, and the off-diagonal terms of the mass matrix are relatively small compared to the diagonal terms (provided the vessel has a center of mass reasonably close to the midship). The other Hurwitz coefficients Δ₂, Δ₃, Δ₄ are less straightforward in terms of predicting their signs in a general setting. All of the previous derivations can be summarised in the following statement:

The vessel is (open-loop) stable if and only if $\Delta_2, \Delta_3, \Delta_4 > 0$.

It will also prove useful to fit this condition by defining the degree of instability (DOI) of the system as follows:

$$
DOI(A) = Max(Re(Eig(A)))
$$
\n(2.59)

Whenever this number is positive, it means at least one of the Hurwitz coefficients is zero and the system is unstable. When $\text{DOI}(A) < 0$, the system is stable. The case when the degree of instability equals zero will not be treated as this case has measure zero in the corresponding probability space.

3

Case Study

The methodology developed to assess yaw stability in a 3-DOF framework will now be applied to the specific case of an ongoing EU Horizon project called Oceanbird. The concept, as it is being developed by Wallenius Wilhelmsen and Alfa Laval, in collaboration with multiple partners in the wind propulsion industry, aims to develop oceangoing RoRo vessels able to transport several thousands of cars across the Atlantic Ocean, using wind as the main means of propulsion. An artistic rendition is shown in Figure [3.1](#page-27-0).

In the context of the Oceanbird project, two demonstrator vessels are currently being built. The first vessel, named Tirranna, is a retrofit that is currently in the process of equipping one wingsail on its deck. Full-scale trial data from Tirranna serves as a testbed for the next generation of vessels - in particular, the second demonstrator vessel, named Orcelle Wind. This will be a new build with multiple wingsails, using wind as the main source of propulsion. The latest design iteration has six wingsails, a length of 206*.*6 m, a beam of 39 m and a height of 70 m above water, boasts a capacity of 7100 car units and is expected to emit at least 50 *−* 60% less than conventional car carriers [\[22](#page-48-4)].

For the case study, a design iteration of the Oceanbird concept will be used for which there was sufficient data readily available. The main design constants, as well as the aerodynamic and hydrodynamic parameters, were provided by RISE SSPA (<https://www.ri.se/en/what-we-do/maritime>).

The wPCC has four wingsails placed at the centreline of the vessel, where the mean centre of effort approximately crosses the axis of rotation so as to not cause difficulties with regards to control of the angle of attack. In Table [3.2,](#page-27-1) the main aerodynamic data of the ship is given, as well as the air density and the reference area used for calculating the wind force exerted on the superstructure. The shape of the sail is given by discrete values for the chord lengths at 25 different sections of the sail. Table [3.3](#page-27-2) presents the exact chord lengths at 25 linearly spaced chords along the height of the sail. The wingsails have a NACA 0015 profile, which is a symmetrical shape. This has the advantage of being able to generate lift on both starboard and port wind directions without deforming. Figure [3.2](#page-28-0) shows the measured drag and lift coefficients against the angle of attack. To be able to calculate aerodynamic

Figure 3.1: Orcelle car carrier developed by Oceanbird

Quantity Name	Symbol	Quantity
Air density	ρ_a	$1.225\,\mathrm{kg\,m^{-3}}$
Reference area for wind forces	A_T	$1229 \,\mathrm{m}^2$
Sail area	A_S	$7376 \,\mathrm{m}^2$
Sail height	h_S	80 _m
Sail foot above water line	h_B	27 _m
Longitudinal CoE of sail 1	$x_{S,1}$	$-61.6 m$
Longitudinal CoE of sail 2	$x_{S,2}$	$-18.4 m$
Longitudinal CoE of sail 3	$x_{S,3}$	$24.8\,\mathrm{m}$
Longitudinal CoE of sail 4	$x_{S,4}$	$68.0\,\mathrm{m}$

Table 3.2: Aerodynamic constants and parameters

Height above h_B (m)	(m) l_{C}	Height above h_B (m)	l_C (m)	Height above h_B (m)	l_C (m)
1.6	26.5663	30.4	25.3884	59.2	20.9925
4.8	26.5544	33.6	25.1076	62.4	20.0252
8.0	26.5124	36.8	24.7945	65.6	18.9216
11.2	26.4403	40.0	24.4482	68.8	17.6874
14.4	26.3385	43.2	24.0647	72.0	16.3276
17.6	26.2072	46.4	23.6286	75.2	14.8471
20.8	26.0467	49.6	23.1215	78.4	13.25
24.0	25.8571	52.8	22.5251		
27.2	25.638	56.0	21.8213		

Table 3.3: Discrete chord lengths of the wingsail

forces for any angle of attack, an interpolation function is needed. Since the stability evaluation method described in the methodology section uses force derivatives of first degree, the interpolation function is required to be continuously differentiable in order to avoid discontinuities in the stability evaluation. Therefore, a spline method of order 2 was used to ensure that the interpolation function is continuously differentiable. The aerodynamic profile for negative angles of attack was consequently extrapolated according to $C_D(-\alpha) = C_D(\alpha)$ and $C_L(-\alpha) = -C_L(\alpha)$. This follows by symmetry of the airfoil.

Figure 3.2: Measured aerodynamic coefficients for NACA 0015 airfoil, including 2-degree interpolation spline

Since the interaction effects between the four sails are expected to be both less predictable and larger in magnitude when entering angles of attack beyond the stall angle (*|α| >* 20*◦*), the sails are constrained to always stay within the no-stall region. This practice allows for a relatively simple polynomial approximation of the drag and lift coefficients. It turns out that for a NACA 0015 airfoil such as used in the example case, the drag and lift coefficients in the non-stall region can be approximated really well by the following polynomials obtained by a least-square fit on even (drag) resp. uneven (lift) polynomials of degree at most 5:

$$
\begin{bmatrix} C_D(\alpha) \\ C_L(\alpha) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.008163 + 0.03283\alpha^2 + 2.286\alpha^4 \\ 6.196\alpha + 1.127\alpha^3 - 97.70\alpha^5 \end{bmatrix}
$$
 (3.1)

Figure 3.3: Measured aerodynamic coefficients for NACA 0015 airfoil in no-stall region, including interpolation polynomial

Using polynomial approximations for the aerodynamic coefficients means simple expressions exist for both the functions and their derivatives over the whole domain. The polynomial fits are shown in Figure [3.3](#page-28-1).

In the used model, the aerodynamic forces on the hull depend on the apparent wind angle at the origin. The measured data follows from virtual tests and correspond closely to data found in the literature for similar hull shapes. Again, an interpolation spline of degree 2 was used in combination with symmetry laws in order to cover all possible values of the apparent wind angle *θA*. The result is shown in Figure [3.4](#page-29-0).

Figure 3.4: Measured aerodynamic coefficients of the superstructure depending on apparent wind angle, including 2-degree interpolation spline

In order to obtain the hydrodynamic coefficients, the model was subjected to a so-called Virtual Captive Test (VCT), which means that a high-fidelity flow model was used on a virtual hull to perform the same kind of trials that would be used in a towing tank to fit a polynomial manoeuvring model to a scale model of a vessel. Two fitting models were used: one that is linear in sway and yaw, and a more nonlinear model having nonzero coupling forces in sway and yaw. For brevity, they will be referred to as the linear resp. nonlinear model.

Figure [3.5](#page-31-0) and [3.6](#page-31-1) clearly illustrate the difference between the two manoeuvring models that were used. Both the data and the zigzag test in the figures are due to Martin Alexandersson at RISE SSPA. The exact coefficients are shown in Table [3.4](#page-30-0) and [3.5](#page-30-1).

Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
X'_0	-0.00121944	Y'_v	-0.012095	N_{v}^{\prime}	-0.00122871
X'_u	0.000616273	Y'_r	0.0	N'_r	-0.00219559
X'_{vv}	0.000980115	Y'_{vvv}	0.0	N'_{vvv}	0.0
X'_{vr}	0.000423671	Y'_{vvr}	0.0	N'_{vvr}	0.0
X_{rr}^{\prime}	0.000144873	Y'_{vrr}	0.0	N'_{vrr}	0.0
$X_{\delta\delta}'$	-0.00302748	Y'_{rrr}	0.0	N'_{rrr}	0.0
		Y'_δ	0.00459817	N'_{δ}	-0.0022101
		$Y_{\delta\delta\delta}'$	0.00673454	$N'_{\delta\delta\delta}$	-0.00338169
		$Y'_{r\delta\delta}$	0.0	$N'_{r\delta\delta}$	0.0
		$Y_{rr\delta}'$	0.0	$N'_{rr\delta}$	0.0
		$Y'_{v\delta\delta}$	0.0	$N_{v\delta\delta}'$	0.0
		$Y'_{vv\delta}$	0.0	N'_s $vv\delta$	0.0
		$Y'_{vr\delta}$	0.0	$N_{vr\delta}'$	0.0

Table 3.4: Hydrodynamic coefficients for linear model fitted to VCT data

Table 3.5: Hydrodynamic coefficients for nonlinear model fitted to VCT data

Figure 3.5: Manoeuvring model zigzag test comparison - spatial plot

Figure 3.6: Manoeuvring model zigzag test comparison - rudder angle and velocities

4

Results

4.1. Steady state results

All of the results have been obtained by implementing the described model in Wolfram Mathematica. The script used to obtain the data can be requested by contacting guidohaenen@gmail.com, while intermediate VPP results have been presented here in Appendix [A](#page-49-0).

The constrained optimisation algorithm was first run with four different underlying hydrodynamic models, using the relatively simple uniform flow model. Both of the models given in Table [3.4](#page-30-0) and [3.5](#page-30-1) result in stable hulls in terms of the classical stability criterion $Y_v'(N_r'-m'x_g')+(m'-Y_r')N_v' > 0$, which is the binary diagnostic of stability at zero drift without considering aerodynamics. As an attempt to verify the methodology of evaluating the sign of the maximum of the real part of the eigenvalues of the system transition matrix, the method should produce unstable results for a hull that is inherently more unstable in the classical sense. Therefore, both models were used as well as their tweaked "unstable" counterparts. In the modified models, the original coefficients N'_v and N'_r were respectively multiplied by 2 and divided by 3.

The steady-state data resulting from the algorithm consists of steady velocities u_0 and v_0 , as well as a steady rudder angle δ_0 and steady sheeting angles $s_1, \ldots, s_{4,0}$.

The results, showing the resulting ship speed $U\,=\,\sqrt{u_0^2+v_0^2}$ for every true wind angle TWA (see below for the definition of *TW A*) are shown in Figure [4.1](#page-33-0). A wind speed of 8 ms*−*¹ was used, which is weak enough that in a 4-DOF model, the heeling constraints would be satisfied even without having to reef the sails[[15\]](#page-47-19). True wind angles *θ^W* varied between 32*◦* and 160*◦* . It is clear that the model differences do not have a large effect on the outcome of the VPP algorithm. This observation, along with the general magnitude of the numbers found, strengthens confidence in the validity of the method.

A transformation $\theta_w \mapsto \theta_w - \beta_0 =: TWA$ was made so that the angles shown in the plot refer to true wind angles with respect to the speed over ground (SOG), which is the standard practice for VPP results. The fact that the drift angle as a function of the true wind is a bijection means that this can be done without loss of information. The reason for defining *θ^w* with respect to the bow was to align with the previous work on yaw stability in steady wind[[25\]](#page-48-1). The reason for using *TW A* in the VPP plot is just a presentation convention that allows for comparison with other VPP plots and has no effect on the stability assessment. The steady-state ship velocities resulting from the SEAMAN VPP used by RISE/SSPA and applied to the stable ship hull is included in Figure [4.1.](#page-33-0) It can be observed that the results are very close. The force model developed in this thesis thus produces credible results, at least for the steady state calculation.

4.2. Open-loop stability assessment

For all four hydrodynamic models, the steady state data served to calculate the numerical value of the **A** and **B** matrices. This allowed for a direct computation of the eigenvalues of the **A** matrix for every

Figure 4.1: VPP results for four different hydrodynamic models, *V*10*^m* = 8 ms*−*¹

Figure 4.2: Open-loop degree of instability for four different hydrodynamic models, *V*10*^m* = 8 ms*−*¹

 θ_W , of which the real parts were then calculated. The largest value served as a marker for whether the open-loop system was stable. This is also called the "degree of instability" or DOI, which was earlier defined in Equation [2.59.](#page-25-0) To verify that all derivations were correctly implemented, the found DOI values were verified by running a simple Euler scheme on a few steady states of both stability types. The results are presented in Figure [4.2](#page-34-0), where the stable and unstable regions are shaded green and red, respectively. Any subsequent stability plot will follow the same convention. An almost stepwise linear behaviour can be discerned when looking at Figure [4.2](#page-34-0). This cannot result from a small data resolution, since a step size of 1° was used when varying θ_W , and the steps in the graph have a larger step size. Future studies could delve into the exact mechanisms at play here by unpacking the Hurwitz coefficients and exploring how they evolve under a varying true wind angle.

Furthermore, it is rather surprising that for the "stable hull" cases, there exist several disconnected intervals of θ_W values that yield a stable steady equilibrium. This means that for those wind angles, the helmsman could fix the rudder position and the sheets and go on a coffee break without the ship veering out of control - all while using sail propulsion and sailing under a drift angle. For most wind angles, however, the ship cannot maintain a stable heading without any form of active steering. This is in line with the general intuition that one could have in the context of sailing vessels. The few stability islands mentioned above might even disappear when a 4-DOF model or a more accurate aerodynamic interaction model would be used instead of the basic approximation of the current methodology.

A more obvious observation that one would hope to see is the fact that artificially destabilised hulls do in fact yield more unstable eigenvalues when operating in full sailing mode. This further solidifies the validity of the results.

An attempt was made in the methodology section to derive a general analytical criterion. Due to the exponentially increasing complexity of the Routh-Hurwitz criterion with each new added dimension, the expressions were rather cumbersome and unwieldy. For actual applications, the system matrices could be calculated just as well by perturbing all the forces described around the steady state with small values *ε*, thus obtaining all the necessary partial derivatives to fill in the force derivatives. This has its own drawbacks, seeing as it would require five times as many force evaluations - one for the steady state solution and one for each dimension of the state vector. Applications of the Hurwitz method could prove superior in cases where computational time required for the force calculations is longer than the time required to fill in the force matrix from the steady state information alone.

In this specific case, it turns out that for all the wind angles analysed $\theta_w \in [32^\circ, 160^\circ]$, the Hurwitz coefficients $\Delta_1, \ldots, \Delta_3 > 0$ and it is purely the coefficient Δ_4 that determines open-loop yaw stability. In Figure [4.3](#page-35-1), this is visualised. It can be seen that the sign of the DOI quantity is larger than zero if and only if the quantity $\Delta'_4:=\frac{\Delta_4}{\frac{1}{8}\rho^3 L^7 V_{10m}^4},$ a nondimensional version of Δ_4 , is smaller than zero. It would be very interesting to see whether this reduction of the Routh-Hurwitz conditions is possible in a more general marine engineering context, or if it is exclusive to the particular hull and force model being used.

Figure 4.3: Fourth Hurwitz coefficient at various true wind angles.

Figure 4.4: Open-loop degree of instability for both analytical models compared with SEAMAN results

In the former case, the stability criterion would look as follows:

$$
X_{t,\psi}Y_{t,\upsilon}N_{t,u} + X_{t,u}Y_{t,\psi}N_{t,\upsilon} + X_{t,\upsilon}Y_{t,u}N_{t,\psi} > X_{t,\upsilon}Y_{t,\psi}N_{t,u} + X_{t,\psi}Y_{t,u}N_{t,\upsilon} + X_{t,u}Y_{t,\upsilon}N_{t,\psi}
$$
(4.1)

A sanity check for whether the found DOI values are reasonable, can be done by comparing them with the values obtained by discrete differentiation of the SEAMAN VPP used by RISE SSPA as it was applied on the stable hull case. In this case, for every steady state resulting from the optimisation problem, a very small perturbation was made in the direction of every state variable, which yielded corresponding matrices **A** and **B** for the chosen operational conditions. Essentially, the force matrices were filled in by taking difference quotients of the forces as calculated by the SEAMAN algorithm. The resulting matrices are due to data delivered by Fredrik Olsson at RISE SSPA. This data yielded numerically estimated system matrices **A** of which the DOI value was plotted in Figure [4.4](#page-35-2) together with the data resulting from the model in this thesis. It can be concluded that the analytical stability assessment is indeed reasonable as it roughly agrees with the SEAMAN-produced data - both concerning order of magnitude of the DOI and concerning its general trend when comparing different points of sail.

The results found by the method developed in the methodology section agree quite well with the SEA-MAN data. Both methods show open-loop instability at the upwind points of sail and marginal stability on a beam reach. The results slightly diverge again as the wind angle approaches 160*◦* , which may be explained by interaction effects (not modelled in the methodology but present in SEAMAN data) which become stronger when the sails block each other more.

4.3. Modelling approaches

In order to gain a more in-depth understanding of the modelling limits of the applied methodology, two additional variations were made in the open-loop stability assessment.

4.3.1. Wind flow model

The first variation pertains to the wind strength variations over the height. Both a model with an atmospheric boundary layer and one without a boundary layer but with a constant wind profile over the height (multiplying *V*10*^m* by a correction factor of 1*.*285 to adjust for the average forces on the sail in the boundary layer model) were used. The results (using only the linear hydrodynamic model for a stable hull) are shown in Figure [4.5](#page-36-2), using the same conventions as in Figure [4.1](#page-33-0). Again, the steady-state

Figure 4.5: Ship speed from VPP at *V*10*^m* = 8 ms*−*¹ for uniform-flow model and boundary layer model, using linear stable hull.

differences between both models are virtually equal. This is a priori not a guarantee that the force derivatives also behave the same. Nonetheless, they actually do behave roughly the same, as can be seen by the DOI plot in Figure [4.6](#page-37-1). From the above results, it can be concluded that the application of a model with an atmospheric boundary layer does not lead to substantial qualitative stability differences when compared with the uniform flow model that uses a wind speed correction factor. The difference in computational effort is huge, therefore an important takeaway is that the exact distribution of the wind profile and resulting twist effects are of negligible importance when assessing directional stability.

4.3.2. Surge coupling

Since this thesis builds on the previous work done on the yaw stability of a ship in steady wind by adding sails to the equation, it makes sense to gauge the effect of surge coupling on stability as the thrust-yaw coupling on force is expected to be considerably larger than for propeller-driven vessels. The state

Figure 4.6: Degree of instability for two different flow models, using the linear stable hull type.

transition matrix **A** is first explicitly written out in symbolic coefficients:

$$
\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
$$
 (4.2)

An attempt to simplify this system can be made by defining the no-surge state transition matrix, which is the bottom-right part of the original state transition matrix:

$$
\mathbf{A}_{NS} := \begin{bmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
$$
 (4.3)

The Hurwitz criterion can be formulated again from the no-surge state transition matrix **A***NS*. Again, all Hurwitz coefficients turn out positive except for the last one, which determines the overall stability of the sway-yaw system. This corresponds to the *D*⁴ quantity from [\[25\]](#page-48-1) and is reformulated here using the notation applied to the no-surge (subscript NS) case:

$$
\Delta_{3,NS} = Y_{t,v} N_{t,\psi} - Y_{t,\psi} N_{t,v} \tag{4.4}
$$

Whenever this quantity is larger than zero, the course will be stable for this particular vessel. For other vessels, the other Hurwitz coefficients may further restrict the stability of the system.

The degree of instability for the restricted matrix was plotted in Figure [4.7](#page-38-0) for all steady-state results, and a comparison can be made with the original surge-coupled case. The results are similar, although stable equilibria become unstable in some beam reach points of sail after neglecting the surge coupling. Another main observation is the divergence of the results in headwinds. Although the stability type remains unstable in the whole region *θ^w ∈* [32*◦ ,* 80*◦*], the surge coupling could be expected to yield qualitative differences with regards to stability in another situation - for example, when considering a different vessel or when adding the influence of rudder feedback.

Unlike in the case of the atmospheric boundary layer, in this case the results are too different to be able to neglect surge couplings.

4.4. Closed-loop analysis

To add the influence of rudder feedback on yaw motion, a *K* matrix is defined according to a proportional/derivative (PD) control scheme. Note the gain values are multiplied by *−*1 to account for the sign

Figure 4.7: Degree of instability of the vessel system both with and without surge coupling, using the linear stable hull type.

convention of *δ* combined with the usual notation of feedback, that is, **A** *−* **BK**.

$$
\mathbf{K}(G_1, G_2) := \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -G_2 & -G_1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
$$
(4.5)

A simple first implementation is a control scheme with only a proportional gain of $G_1 = 0.3$ ($G_2 = 0$), representing human steering:

$$
\mathbf{K}_{human} := \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
$$
(4.6)

A control scheme which is expected to be more powerful is given by proportional and derivative gains $G_1 = G_2 = 1.0$, which more closely resembles how an autopilot would steer the vessel.

$$
\mathbf{K}_{auto} := \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -1.0 & -1.0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
$$
(4.7)

The closed-loop DOI is then calculated again by taking the maximum of the real parts of the eigenvalues of the system matrix, which in this case is equal to **A***−***BK** rather than just **A** like it was in the open-loop case. The result is seen in Figures [4.8](#page-39-1) and [4.9,](#page-39-2) where a comparison was again made between four different sets of hydrodynamic coefficients as described in the beginning of the Results section. The vessel is now steerable at all the analysed points of sail, as is to be expected since it was originally designed to be wind-propelled. The nonlinear model of the same hull gives virtually the same results as the linear model. The tweaked destabilised hulls have closed-loop eigenvalues further to the right (as seen in the complex plane) which makes them more unstable in the wind-propelled context, as expected. The destabilised hull resulting from the nonlinear hydrodynamic model is less affected than the one that came from a linear model, which can be expected since the linear terms are also the ones that were tweaked and in a nonlinear model, overall stability under a drift angle depends not only on the linear coefficients that appear in the classical stability criterion. The autopilot control case, like the human control case, showcases a drastically improved stability under all points of sail when compared to the open-loop case. There is less added effect of PD control when using the original hull, while

Figure 4.9: Closed-loop degree of instability of automatic steering control ($G_1 = 1.0, G_2 = 1.0$).

the tweaked hulls benefit a little from the effect of adding derivative control. The DOI of the nonlinear unstable model closely follows its stable counterparts for closed-hauled points of sail, and then starts increasing after what is likely a bifurcation in the eigenvalue space (note that taking the maximum of the real parts of the eigenvalues means that at certain points, when changing the underlying parameters, the eigenvalues can flip positions, which is likely to have happened here).

The plots in Figures [4.8](#page-39-1) and [4.9](#page-39-2) again include the numerically obtained data from the SEAMAN software used by RISE SSPA, applied on the stable hull type. The data agrees quite well with the results obtained from the analytical method.

The unstable hulls used in this thesis are more hypothetical and only result from artificially tweaking the hydrodynamic coefficients. An interesting direction of further research would be to investigate these same characteristics for a refit of a real unstable vessel (or at the very least a parameter set that was directly derived from VCT data), e.g. a tanker or bulk carrier.

4.5. Yaw motion

For the last research question, the time-domain behaviour of the closed-loop system is examined to get an idea of the robustness of the step response. Also, the general method of solving the associated ODE with boundary conditions is presented.

The yaw motion can be calculated starting from an equilibrium operational point and subsequently assuming a new target yaw angle *ψ^r* in order to simulate a step response. Recall Equation [2.52](#page-24-0) and assume constant sheeting angles to investigate the ship/rudder system around a constant equilibrium point:

$$
\begin{bmatrix} \dot{u} \\ \dot{v} \\ \dot{r} \\ \dot{\psi} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{M}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{F}_{tot} \\ \mathbf{M}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{F}_{tot} \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta u \\ \Delta v \\ v \\ \psi \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{M}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{F}_{tot} \\ \hline 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta \delta \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}
$$
(4.8)

When rewriting the ODE system of Equation [4.8](#page-40-0) so that *u* and *v* are eliminated, a fourth-order differential equation is the result:

$$
a_0 \ddot{r} + a_1 \ddot{r} + a_2 \dot{r} + a_3 r + a_4 \psi = q_1 \ddot{\delta} + q_2 \dot{\delta} + q_3 \Delta \delta \tag{4.9}
$$

Here the *aⁱ* coefficients are the same as in Equation [2.53](#page-24-1), while the *qⁱ* coefficients are found by unpacking the definitions of D**^u** and the mass matrix **M**. As before, the entire equation was first multiplied by det(**M**) in order to clear out the bulky fractions resulting from inverting the mass matrix. After unpacking everything, the *qⁱ* coefficients are as follows:

$$
q_1 = m_{11}m_{22}N_{t,\delta} - m_{11}m_{32}Y_{t,\delta};
$$

\n
$$
q_2 = m_{11}Y_{t,\delta}N_{t,v} - m_{11}Y_{t,v}N_{t,\delta} + m_{22}X_{t,\delta}N_{t,u} - m_{22}X_{t,u}N_{t,\delta} + m_{32}X_{t,u}Y_{t,\delta} - m_{32}X_{t,\delta}Y_{t,u};
$$

\n
$$
q_3 = X_{t,u}Y_{t,v}N_{t,\delta} - X_{t,u}Y_{t,\delta}N_{t,v} - X_{t,v}Y_{t,u}N_{t,\delta} + X_{t,v}Y_{t,\delta}N_{t,u} + X_{t,\delta}Y_{t,u}N_{t,v} - X_{t,\delta}Y_{t,v}N_{t,u}.
$$

There is no straightforward way to solve equation [4.9](#page-40-1) if the behaviour of ∆*δ* is unknown. An attempt to solve the simplified equation can be made by ignoring the inertia of the rudder and hence defining a quasi-static "rudder efficiency coefficient" *q*3*/a*⁴ similar to the one present in[[25\]](#page-48-1). However, since in the case of the wPCC, we already established that a_4 is close to or smaller than zero, this coefficient will often flip negative or approach infinity and has little physical meaning. It is also not immediately clear that the time derivatives of the rudder motion can be ignored when calculating the yaw motion. Therefore, a proportional control scheme with gain $G_1 = 0.3$ is used to ensure a stable yaw motion for all points of sail, thus ensuring a meaningful comparison between various operational points. The situation considered is a steady operational condition at equilibrium. Then a new target angle *ψ^r* is introduced at $t = 0$, hence the change in rudder angle will be equal to

$$
\Delta \delta = G_1(\psi - \psi_r). \tag{4.10}
$$

This way the control system aims for a yaw angle that differs from the previous yaw angle ψ_0 by the value *ψr*. The obtained solution can be interpreted as a step response to the combined rudder controller/shipsystem.

Now ∆*δ* can be written in terms of *ψ* so that the ODE can be solved. The new ODE containing only time derivatives of *ψ*, and divided by the reference angle *ψr*, looks like the following:

$$
a_0 \frac{\ddot{r}(t)}{\psi_r} + a_1 \frac{\ddot{r}(t)}{\psi_r} + (a_2 - q_1 G_1) \frac{\dot{r}(t)}{\psi_r} + (a_3 - q_2 G_1) \frac{r(t)}{\psi_r} + (a_4 - q_3 G_1) \frac{\psi(t)}{\psi_r} = -q_3 G_1 \tag{4.11}
$$

It turns out that the corresponding characteristic equation

$$
a_0\lambda^4 + a_1\lambda^3 + (a_2 - q_1G_1)\lambda^2 + (a_3 - q_2G_1)\lambda + (a_4 - q_3G_1) = 0
$$
\n(4.12)

has two real roots and one pair of complex conjugates. After using familiar techniques for solving polynomial equations, these roots can be expressed in terms of the polynomial coefficients. In practical applications, a numerical root finding method suffices. The characteristic equation can be rewritten in its root form as follows:

$$
a_0(\lambda - \tilde{\sigma}_0)(\lambda - \tilde{\sigma}_1)(\lambda - (\tilde{\sigma}_{2R} + \tilde{\sigma}_{2I}i))(\lambda - (\tilde{\sigma}_{2R} - \tilde{\sigma}_{2I}i)) = 0
$$
\n(4.13)

The general solution of the ODE then looks as follows:

$$
\frac{\Delta\psi(t)}{\psi_r} = C_0 e^{\tilde{\sigma}_0 t} + C_1 e^{\tilde{\sigma}_1 t} + C_2 e^{\tilde{\sigma}_{2R} t} \cos(\tilde{\sigma}_{2I} t) + C_3 e^{\tilde{\sigma}_{2R} t} \sin(\tilde{\sigma}_{2I} t) + C_4 \tag{4.14}
$$

Figure 4.10: Comparison between yaw motion at $\theta_w = 50^\circ$ with and without the approximation $a_0 = 0$.

The root $\tilde{\sigma}_0$, which is the root with the most negative real part, can be disregarded in the final solution since it is a solution component of relatively high frequency, which quickly approaches zero as *t >* 0. This is akin to making the simplification that $a_0 = 0$, which is an inertia term that is neglected in the K-T Nomoto model as well[[14\]](#page-47-20). It turns out this simplification does not change the other coefficients by much, as exemplified by numerically solving the yaw motion for *θ^w* = 50*◦* both with and without this approximation. The result is visible in Figure [4.10.](#page-41-0)

The simplified ODE characteristic equation can now be summarised as follows:

$$
a_1\lambda^3 + (a_2 - q_1G_1)\lambda^2 + (a_3 - q_2G_1)\lambda + (a_4 - q_3G_1) = 0
$$
\n(4.15)

$$
a_1(\lambda - \sigma_1)(\lambda - (\sigma_{2R} + \sigma_{2I}i))(\lambda - (\sigma_{2R} - \sigma_{2I}i)) = 0
$$
\n(4.16)

$$
\frac{\Delta\psi(t)}{\psi_r} = C_1 e^{\sigma_1 t} + C_2 e^{\sigma_2 R t} \cos(\sigma_2 t) + C_3 e^{\sigma_2 R t} \sin(\sigma_2 t) + C_4 \tag{4.17}
$$

The chosen boundary conditions are $\frac{\psi(\infty)}{\psi_r} = \frac{-q_3 G_1}{a_4 - q_3 G_1}$ (assuming that all time derivatives converge to zero, this is the static solution at infinity), $\psi(0)=0$, $r(0)=0$, $\dot{r}(0)=0$, and $\ddot{r}(0)=0$. These boundary conditions represent a situation in which the ODE is completely solvable, and the lowest-order time derivatives of the yaw angle are zero at $t = 0$. This leads to the following linear system of boundary equations:

$$
\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \frac{-q_3 G_1}{a_4 - q_3 G_1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ \sigma_1 & \sigma_{2R} & \sigma_{2I} & 0 \\ \sigma_1^2 & \sigma_{2R}^2 - \sigma_{2I}^2 & 2 \sigma_{2R} \sigma_{2I} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} C_1 \\ C_2 \\ C_3 \\ C_4 \end{bmatrix}
$$
(4.18)

This linear system can now be solved to obtain the boundary coefficients by inverting the matrix on the right hand side. The result is a convoluted expression of terms appearing in Equation [4.18](#page-41-1) and can be easily calculated by inverting the matrix.

When examining the solution for three different points of sail (closed-hauled, beam reach and broad reach), it becomes clear that the oscillatory components driven by *σ*2*^R* and *σ*2*^I* have a relatively small contribution to the motion. The numerical values of the solution coefficients are presented in Table [4.1](#page-42-0).

The solutions, normalised by the reference angle *ψr*, are dominated by the real eigenvalue *σ*1. Oscillatory components are virtually negligible. Yaw oscillation, which was the dominant phenomenon in the last section of the previous work by Yasukawa et. al[[25](#page-48-1)], driven by the complex conjugate pair of eigenvalues σ_2 , plays almost no role here due to the additional eigenvalue σ_1 dominating the transient response. The steady errors in the yaw response arise due to the fact that no integral control was applied. Whenever $a_4 \neq 0$, the steady error will be unequal to zero.

	$\theta_w = 50^{\circ}$	$\theta_w = 90^\circ$	$\theta_w = 130^\circ$
σ_1	-0.00449485	-0.00538884	-0.00477033
σ_{2R}	-0.0105731	-0.0113001	-0.00776853
σ_{2I}	0.0145206	0.0157717	0.0114955
C_1	-1.51065	-1.41765	-1.40152
C_2	0.35044	0.349288	0.373944
C_3	-0.212452	-0.234121	-0.328886
C_{4}	1.16022	1.06836	1.02758

Table 4.1: Numerical values of coefficients of ODE solution for three different points of sail, using the human control scheme and the linear stable hull

Figure 4.11: Time evolution of ODE solution for three different points of sail, using the human control scheme and the linear stable hull.

The autopilot control scheme gives an even better response, as can be seen both in the numerical overview in Table [4.2](#page-42-1) and the time response plot in Figure [4.12.](#page-43-0) The steady error is a lot smaller, owing to the larger proportional gain applied in this case. Note that a proportional gain of 1*.*0 is still very reasonable in an actual operational context in the terms of actuator limits, as this means that the extra rudder angle applied is equal to the current yaw angle anomaly (not counting derivative gain).

Both the human and autopilot control cases show that the vessel from the case study is very controllable by active steering.

	$\theta_w = 50^{\circ}$	$\theta_w = 90^\circ$	$\theta_w = 130^\circ$
σ_1	-0.0047302	-0.00538429	-0.00481328
σ_{2R}	-0.018626	-0.020248	-0.014127
σ_{2I}	0.0276442	0.0295592	0.0209084
C_1	-1.21086	-1.19565	-1.22522
C_2	0.167642	0.176081	0.217105
C_3	-0.0942371	-0.0971766	-0.135366
C_4	1.04322	1.01957	1.00812

Table 4.2: Numerical values of coefficients of ODE solution for three different points of sail, using the autopilot control scheme and the linear stable hull

Figure 4.12: Time evolution of ODE solution for three different points of sail, using the autopilot control scheme and the linear stable hull.

5 Conclusions

We recall the research questions here:

To what extent is a vessel able to maintain yaw stability under the influence of varying wind conditions and control system specifications when introducing large aerodynamic control surfaces?

- 1. Which analytical methods can be used to assess the directional stability of vessels equipped with large aerodynamic control surfaces?
- 2. How do different modelling approaches impact the directional stability assessment of vessels?
- 3. How does the yaw motion of the system behave in both the frequency domain and the time domain under proportional and derivative feedback control strategies?

5.1. Analytical method

An analytical method was developed for assessing directional stability of any vessel for which the basic aerodynamic and hydrodynamic characteristics are known. The main aim when attacking the first research question was to mathematically reformulate the notion of a stable linearised system into a single inequality that holistically described the stability type of the system. Although this reduction of stability conditions turned out to be possible for this particular vessel, that is a tentative conclusion that might lose its value when the hydrodynamic coefficients look wholly different. Possible future work could look into examining the signs of the various Δ_i for a range of vessels.

For many practical applications, the easiest approach to assessing stability might be to directly derive the degree of instability of the system from the system matrices. This can be done by filling in the force derivative matrices with difference quotients to approximate the total derivative, exactly as demonstrated in this thesis with the SEAMAN data.

The directional stability diagnostic, whether in the form of a numerically-calculated DOI or an equivalent combination of Hurwitz coefficients, is a binary dimensionless quantity that could be expanded into a red/orange/green partition or similar. To do this, a notion of marginal stability would need to be defined, which could relate to the necessary gains needed to stabilise the system. This could be an interesting direction for future research in the field.

5.2. Model variations

The different model approaches that were performed provided various useful insights. Variations were made in the hydrodynamic parameters, the aerodynamic model, and the system dimension (whether to take into account surge coupling or not).

The different datasets for the hydrodynamic coefficients produced no significant results when compar-

ing a nonlinear hull with a linear hull, at least for the original stable case. This is good news for the simple methods developed here, since the stability diagnostic should be invariant under the choice of hydrodynamic model. The fact that differences in the results arose for the artificially destabilised hulls can be explained by the relative importance of the linear coefficients (which are the coefficients that were altered), which is lower in the nonlinear model than in the linear one.

The effect of including a boundary layer in the wind model was also examined, mostly with the aim of improving the computational time of both the VPP algorithm and calculating the force derivatives. The differences in the stability outcome are almost completely negligible in this case, although this could change when sail-sail and wind-sail interaction effects are present in the force model. The computational effort is much larger for the boundary layer model, which requires the calculation of the apparent wind angle and speed at all sail heights instead of just once.

Surge coupling is perhaps the most interesting phenomenon here, since it has the strongest connection to the core of the research gap. Where previous directional stability models were able to disregard surge or even yaw angle - in the classical stability criterion, only sway and yaw *velocities* play a role - this thesis needed a state-space model of all four dimensions. The surge coupling effects turn out to not be negligible, although for some points of sail the differences are small. It could be expected that this dimension plays a stronger role in this case, since wind propulsion inevitably has a strong effect on the surge forces so that coupling effects are very likely in most situations.

5.3. Closed-loop analysis

When looking at the closed-loop response of the wPCC vessel, both a proportional gain scheme $(G_1 =$ $0.3, G_2 = 0.0$ and a PD scheme $(G_1 = 1.0, G_2 = 1.0)$ were applied, corresponding to human control and autopilot control, respectively. The degree of instability (DOI) is then calculated with the closedloop system matrix **A** *−* **BK**. The DOI values for both control schemes are satisfactory on all points of sail when looking at the original hull. For the artificially destabilised hulls the results are, in varying degrees, relatively more unstable - as expected. Again, the SEAMAN data serve as a verification for the stable hull results.

The time-domain response of a step rudder input was also solved. This was done by first neglecting the most high-frequency eigenvalue through the approximation $a_0 = 0$, and then applying the boundary conditions $\psi(0) = r(0) = \dot{r}(0) = 0$ on the resulting third-degree ODE. Numerical solutions for three different points of sail yielded small steady errors and negligible oscillatory components for the human steering control scheme, and yielded negligible steady errors and negligible oscillatory components for the autopilot control scheme.

Most solutions are dominated by the exponential term corresponding to the constant C_1 and the eigenvalue *σ*1, which is the eigenvalue that arises due to the extra surge coupling term. When comparing the found results with a similar analysis done by Yasukawa et al. [\[25](#page-48-1)], the most striking difference is the absence of this eigenvalue in their work. As such, a comparison of the various eigenperiods of the oscillatory components has much less value in the present case.

The general conclusion is that, looking at the case study at hand, the wPCC vessel becomes directionally stable rather easily under active rudder control schemes, even when using moderate gain values and simple PD control. The step responses are acceptable in the time domain when looking at overshoot. For a more realistic estimation of the response (especially the settling time which is at present quite long), the rudder action should be driven by a maximum rudder angle rate ˙*δ* or even a separate plant including rudder inertia. In the current analysis, the chosen boundary conditions may diverge from reality because they were rather conservative.

5.4. Future work

Future work done in the field might build on this research in the following ways:

• Expand the motion model to a 4DOF model, adding roll (*ϕ*) and roll rate (*p*) as variables. This would imply that the state-space model has six dimensions, and the ODE would become even more complex. However, numerical directional stability assessments with respect to a varying wind speed and subsequent heeling effects could be interesting from both design and operational

points of view;

- Explore the wind-assisted case (wingsail/Flettner/kite) where a propeller guarantees a steady ship speed;
- Evaluate sheeting control strategies (especially multiple sails). Note that the notation from this thesis already facilitates the use of sheeting angles as input variables, which was briefly explored and then abandoned due to unverifiable results;
- Develop traffic-light diagnostic (stable/marginally stable/unstable) or similar;
- Examine fundamentally different hull shapes like tankers, container vessels, and small sailing yachts;
- Experimentally validate methodology using existent scale models;
- Compare different underlying models:
	- **–** High-fidelity methods like turbulence models, flow-sail and sail-sail interaction;
	- **–** Integral control gain;
	- **–** Alternative hydrodynamic models like the MMG model[[24\]](#page-48-5);
- Find general sign of Δ_2 , Δ_3 for a wide variety of vessels to reduce the conditions for stability.

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A

Intermediate VPP results

θ_W (°)	u_0 (m/s)	v_0 (m/s)	δ_0 (°)	$\overline{(\degree)}$ $\alpha_{0,1}$	$\alpha_{0,2}$ (°)	$\alpha_{0,3}$ (°)	$\alpha_{0,4}$ (°)
123	6.47842	-0.095688	0.226554	19.4877	19.4806	19.4734	19.4663
124	6.40427	-0.0857206	0.21334	19.4952	19.4881	19.4809	19.4737
125	6.32976	-0.0758424	0.198793	19.5028	19.4957	19.4885	19.4813
126	6.25497	-0.0660487	0.182854	19.5106	19.5034	19.4962	19.489
127	6.17994	-0.0563339	0.165459	19.5184	19.5112	19.5039	19.4967
128	6.10465	-0.0466863	0.146766	19.5265	19.5191	19.5119	19.5046
129	6.02822	-0.0370424	0.129032	19.5346	19.5273	19.5199	19.5126
130	5.95046	-0.0273734	0.112927	19.543	19.5356	19.5282	19.5208
131	5.8714	-0.0176613	0.0985582	19.5516	19.5441	19.5366	19.5292
132	5.79106	-0.00788532	0.0860506	19.5603	19.5528	19.5453	19.5378
133	5.71083	0.00183012	0.0750155	19.5693	19.5616	19.554	19.5465
134	5.63427	0.0111161	0.0641327	19.5783	19.5705	19.5628	19.5552
135	5.56131	0.0199696	0.0533642	19.5874	19.5794	19.5716	19.5639
136	5.49171	0.0284066	0.0427468	19.5965	19.5885	19.5806	19.5727
137	5.42512	0.0364622	0.0320383	19.6058	19.5976	19.5896	19.5817
138	5.36031	0.044347	0.018575	19.6154	19.607	19.5988	19.5907
139	5.29693	0.0521171	0.00166304	19.6251	19.6165	19.6081	19.5999
140	5.23494	0.0597779	-0.0187278	19.6351	19.6263	19.6177	19.6093
141	5.17428	0.0673357	-0.042563	19.6454	19.6364	19.6275	19.6189
142	5.11389	0.0748299	-0.066684	19.656	19.6467	19.6376	19.6287
143	5.05323	0.0822903	-0.0893086	19.667	19.6574	19.6479	19.6388
144	4.9923	0.0897304	-0.110354	19.6785	19.6684	19.6587	19.6492
145	4.93111	0.0971668	-0.129726	19.6904	19.6799	19.6698	19.66
146	4.8697	0.1047	-0.147331	19.7027	19.6918	19.6813	19.6711
147	4.80807	0.112394	-0.163052	19.7156	19.7043	19.6933	19.6827
148	4.74622	0.120269	-0.176739	19.7291	19.7172	19.7058	19.6948
149	4.68405	0.12832	-0.188416	19.7432	19.7307	19.7187	19.7072
150	4.62102	0.136343	-0.199664	19.7581	19.7449	19.7322	19.7202
151	4.55695	0.144309	-0.2108	19.7737	19.7597	19.7464	19.7337
152	4.49177	0.152242	-0.221729	19.7903	19.7754	19.7613	19.7478
153	4.42624	0.160206	-0.235776	19.808	19.7922	19.7773	19.7632
154	4.36198	0.168299	-0.259931	19.8268	19.8101	19.7943	19.7793
155	4.29887	0.176538	-0.294853	19.8469	19.829	19.8121	19.7963
156	4.23679	0.18494	-0.340815	19.8684	19.849	19.8308	19.8138
157	4.17446	0.193693	-0.392616	19.8912	19.8699	19.8501	19.8316
158	4.11126	0.202911	-0.448353	19.9158	19.8924	19.8706	19.8504
159	4.0471	0.212639	-0.508458	19.9425	19.9164	19.8924	19.8703
160	3.98191	0.222896	-0.575571	19.9715	19.9423	19.9156	19.8912

Table A.2: VPP results for nonlinear stable hull

θ_W (°	(m/s) u_0	v_0 (m/s)	δ_0 (°)	$\alpha_{0,1}$ (°)	$\alpha_{0,2}$ (°)	$\alpha_{0.3}$ (°	$\alpha_{0,4}$ (°)
154	4.38139	0.19386	-0.167857	19.8193	19.7995	19.781	19.7636
155	4.31899	0.202935	-0.196163	19.8387	19.8175	19.7978	19.7795
156	4.25767	0.212112	-0.235481	19.8594	19.8366	19.8156	19.7961
157	4.19646	0.221543	-0.281816	19.8813	19.8565	19.8337	19.8127
158	4.13445	0.231378	-0.331915	19.9049	19.8777	19.8529	19.8301
159	4.07158	0.241645	-0.386232	19.9304	19.9004	19.8732	19.8485
160	4.00775	0.252359	-0.44615	19.958	19.9248	19.8949	19.8679

Table A.3: VPP results for linear unstable hull

$\overline{\theta_W(\text{}})$	u_0 (m/s)	v_0 (m/s)	$\overline{\delta_0(\text{C})}$	$\overline{(\degree)}$ $\alpha_{0.1}$	$\alpha_{0,2}(\overline{(\overline{\ }})$	$\alpha_{0,3}(\overline{c})$	$\overline{(\degree)}$ $\alpha_{0,4}$
130	5.95322	-0.0234387	0.21673	19.5433	19.5372	19.5311	19.525
131	5.87319	-0.0151235	0.166434	19.5521	19.5459	19.5396	19.5334
132	5.79185	-0.00675298	0.116775	19.5611	19.5547	19.5484	19.5421
133	5.71062	0.00156629	0.0677808	19.5703	19.5638	19.5572	19.5508
134	5.63315	0.00951478	0.0196086	19.5796	19.5728	19.5661	19.5595
135	5.55935	0.0170898	-0.027665	19.5889	19.582	19.5751	19.5683
136	5.48899	0.0243054	-0.0739697	19.5984	19.5912	19.5842	19.5772
137	5.42169	0.031194	-0.119648	19.6079	19.6006	19.5934	19.5862
138	5.35618	0.0379389	-0.168268	19.6177	19.6102	19.6027	19.5954
139	5.29213	0.0445859	-0.220696	19.6278	19.62	19.6123	19.6047
140	5.22948	0.0511398	-0.276975	19.6382	19.63	19.6221	19.6142
141	5.16817	0.0576068	-0.337045	19.6488	19.6404	19.6321	19.624
142	5.10707	0.0640224	-0.397799	19.6598	19.651	19.6424	19.6339
143	5.04571	0.0704109	-0.457796	19.6713	19.662	19.653	19.6442
144	4.98407	0.0767842	-0.517047	19.6832	19.6735	19.664	19.6548
145	4.92218	0.0831587	-0.575577	19.6956	19.6854	19.6755	19.6659
146	4.86007	0.0896259	-0.633822	19.7086	19.6978	19.6874	19.6773
147	4.79772	0.0962373	-0.692014	19.7221	19.7107	19.6997	19.6891
148	4.73512	0.103009	-0.750163	19.7364	19.7243	19.7126	19.7015
149	4.67216	0.109926	-0.808417	19.7513	19.7384	19.7261	19.7143
150	4.60828	0.116809	-0.867559	19.7671	19.7533	19.7402	19.7276
151	4.54335	0.123647	-0.927814	19.7838	19.769	19.7549	19.7415
152	4.47728	0.130462	-0.989305	19.8016	19.7857	19.7705	19.7562
153	4.41114	0.137325	-1.05708	19.8208	19.8036	19.7874	19.7721
154	4.3462	0.144317	-1.13751	19.8412	19.8226	19.8052	19.7887
155	4.28242	0.151441	-1.2312	19.8632	19.8429	19.824	19.8062
156	4.2195	0.158731	-1.33824	19.8868	19.8644	19.8437	19.8244
157	4.15598	0.166374	-1.45453	19.9123	19.8874	19.8644	19.8431
158	4.09146	0.174445	-1.57989	19.9401	19.9121	19.8864	19.8629
159	4.02584	0.182988	-1.71539	19.9706	19.9388	19.9101	19.8839
160	3.95899	0.19201	-1.866	20.0042	19.968	19.9354	19.9061

Table A.4: VPP results for nonlinear unstable hull

