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# Time-Domain Simulation of Floating, Dynamic Marine Structures using USFOS 

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# Time-Domain Simulation of Floating, Dynamic Marine Structures using USFOS 

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# MASTER THESIS 2013 

for
Stud. techn. Marianne Mellbye Larsen

# Time-domain simulation of floating, dynamic marine structures using USFOS 

Tidsplansimulering av flytende, dynamiske marine konstruksjoner med USFOS

USFOS is a computer program for simulation of the response to extreme environmental and accidental loads. It was originally developed for fixed offshore structures like jackets and jack-ups. In recent years the program has been modified to account also for floating offshore structures. Floating offshore structures are subjected to diffraction and radiation terms, which are often simulated as added mass and damping terms. In USFOS these masses are at present assumed to be constant. In reality these terms are frequency dependent. In irregular waves the frequency dependence should be accounted for by using memory functions expressed by convolution integrals. The purpose of this work is to investigate the feasibility of including added mass and frequency dependence in USFOS. The work will start with analysis of a single degree of freedom problem using MATLAB

The work is proposed to be carried out in the following steps.

1. Discuss the frequency dependence of the added mass and damping terms for various floating and submerged bodies representative for pontoon type structures. Describe how the convolution integral (retardation function) can be established, based on both the added mass term and the damping term. Compare the retardation functions calculated with the two methods and comment any differences. Describe the challenges related to establishing the retardation function and how the accuracy can be checked by inverse calculation of the added mass and damping term. (Reference is made to PhD thesis of Olav Rognebakke).
2. Develop a MATLAB code for numerical, stepwise incrementation of a single degree of freedom system where the added mass and damping are frequency dependent. Simulate the response of the system for a single excursion, in regular wave and irregular seas. Illustrate the time history of the memory functions. Check the amount of "memory" that is needed to obtain satisfactory results. Investigate also the importance of the memory effect by comparing with results with constant added mass and damping terms.
3. On the basis of the experience obtained with the single degree of freedom system, describe how frequency dependent added mass and damping can be implemented in USFOS. This should include a flow diagram with input/output data defined.
4. To the extent time permits write a subroutine in USFOS to calculate the retardation function for a pontoon of a floating platform. Perform simulations with USFOS for a

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simple system and compare the results with those from the mATLAB program.
5. Conclusions and recommendation for further work.

Literature studies of specific topics relevant to the thesis work may be included.
The work scope may prove to be larger than initially anticipated. Subject to approval from the supervisors, topics may be deleted from the list above or reduced in extent.

In the thesis the candidate shall present his personal contribution to the resolution of problems within the scope of the thesis work.

Theories and conclusions should be based on mathematical derivations and/or logic reasoning identifying the various steps in the deduction.

The candidate should utilise the existing possibilities for obtaining relevant literature.

## Thesis format

The thesis should be organised in a rational manner to give a clear exposition of results, assessments, and conclusions. The text should be brief and to the point, with a clear language. Telegraphic language should be avoided.

The thesis shall contain the following elements: A text defining the scope, preface, list of contents, summary, main body of thesis, conclusions with recommendations for further work, list of symbols and acronyms, references and (optional) appendices. All figures, tables and equations shall be numerated.

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## Thesis supervisor

Prof. Jørgen Amdahl
Deadline: June 10, 2013

Trondheim, January 15, 2013

Jørgen Amdahl

## Preface

This master thesis was written during the spring semester 2013, at the Norwegian University of Science and Technology (NTNU). The work is conducted independently, and is partially based on the work done in my project thesis from fall 2012.

The objective is to look into the problem of including frequency-dependence in the added mass and damping terms in USFOS, to allow time-domain simulations of floating structures.
The work has been challenging regarding both the programming and the technical aspects, as transient effects have been mentioned, but disregarded in my hydrodynamic courses at NTNU. The absence of a standardized nomenclature used in the books regarding time-domain effects, has made the learning process more difficult. Slowly building a better understanding of these effects throughout the semester have been a great motivation.

As part of the work with this thesis, a MATLAB function for the convolution of two vectors has been written. However, MATLAB comes with a convolution function implemented in the standard library. This predefined function is only used for verification of correctness of the function written by the author. This is to make a transition to FORTRAN code possible.

Marianne Mellbye Larsen, Trondheim, June 10, 2013

## Abstract

This master thesis deals with calculation of the convolution integrals that constitute the memory functions in the linear time-domain wave response equation. Basic theory needed to calculate the forces acting on floating structures is presented. The main motivation for the thesis is to investigate the feasibility of including frequency dependent added mass and damping in USFOS. USFOS is a computer program originally developed to simulate the response to extreme environmental and accidental loads for fixed offshore structures. The program has been modified to be able to handle also floating offshore structures. Floating structures are however subjected to diffraction and radiation terms often simulated as added mass and damping terms. So far, these terms are assumed to be constant in USFOS. This is not correct, as the added mass and damping terms are frequency dependent in reality. The frequency dependence can be accounted for by adding memory functions expressed as convolution integrals.

The convolution terms are integrated from 0 to $t$, i.e. from the beginning of time and up to this moment. This is neither possible, due to computer restrictions, nor necessary, due to damping effects. This thesis concentrates on finding the amount of 'memory' that needs to be included in the convolution integral. A single degree of freedom system illustrating a platform oscillating in heave is analysed in MATLAB, both for regular waves and irregular seas. The convolution integral is calculated with different time intervals included in the memory function, and the deviations from the full integral are analysed.

Finally, a brief description is given of how the experiences obtained with the single degree of freedom system can be utilized in the implementation of frequency dependent added mass and damping terms in USFOS.

## Sammendrag

Denne masteroppgaven omhandler utregningen av konvolusjonsintegralene som utgjør minne-funksjonene i den lineære bølgeresponsfunksjonen i tids-domenet. Grunnleggende teori for utregning av kreftene som virker på flytende konstruksjoner blir presentert i oppgaven. Hovedmotivasjonen er å utforske muligheten for å inkludere frekvensavhengighet i tilleggsmasse- og dempningsleddene i USFOS. USFOS er et program som opprinnelig ble skrevet for å simulere responsen fra ekstreme milj $\varnothing$ - og ulykkeslaster for faste offshore konstruksjoner. Programmet er senere modifisert for å kunne håndtere også flytende konstruksjoner. Flytende konstruksjoner er imidlertid utsatt for diffraksjons- og eksitasjonslaster. Hittil er disse uttrykkene antatt å være konstante i USFOS, men dette er ikke helt korrekt da tilleggsmassen og dempningen i virkeligheten er frekvensavhengige. Denne frekvensavhengigheten kan bli redegjort for ved å inkludere minnefunksjoner uttrykt som konvolusjonsintegraler.

Konvolusjonsleddene skal integreres fra 0 til $t$, det vil si fra tidenes morgen og opp til dette $\varnothing$ yeblikket. Dette er verken mulig, på grunn av databegrensninger, eller nødvendig, på grunn av dempning. Denne oppgaven konsentrerer seg om å finne den nødvendige mengden 'minne' som må inkluderes i konvolusjonsintegralet. Et masse-fjær system med én frihetsgrad som illustrerer en platform som svinger i hiv analyseres i MATLAB, både for regulære bølger og irregulær sjø. Konvolusjonsintegralet regnes ut med ulike tidsintervaller inkludert i minnefunksjonen, og avvikene fra det fulle integralet blir analysert.

Til slutt blir det gitt en kort forklaring av hvordan erfaringene som har blitt oppnådd gjennom analysene av masse-fjær systemet kan benyttes i implementasjonen av frekvensavhengighet for tilleggsmasse- og dempningsleddene i USFOS.

## Acknowledgements

This thesis is written under supervision of Professor Jørgen Amdahl at the Department of Marine Technology at NTNU. I am very grateful for the guidance I got from him during this work. His enthusiasm together with his knowledge is truly inspiring when dealing with complex problems. Despite of his tight schedule, he has always found time to give me some pointers.

During the work with this thesis, the help and motivation from my classmates in room C1.077 have been greatly appreciated. They made long days at the office manageable, sometimes even fun. Whenever I felt the problems at hand to be impossible to overcome, they helped motivate me to continue the work.

Special thanks is also given to the rest of my friends, who have had to put up with numerous questions over the last months regarding the more practical aspects of a master thesis, from paper sizes to English grammar.

Lastly, I would like to thank my family for always being there for me and believing in me.

## Nomenclature

| $\alpha$ | Constant in the JONSWAP sea spectrum |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ | Rotation |
| $\ddot{\eta}_{3}$ | Acceleration in heave direction |
| $\dot{\eta}_{3}$ | Velocity in heave direction |
| $\eta_{1}, \eta_{2}, \eta_{3}$ | Oscillatory rigid-body translatory motions; surge, sway and heave |
| $\eta_{4}, \eta_{5}, \eta_{6}$ | Oscillatory rigid-body angular motions; roll, pitch and yaw |
| $\eta_{j}$ | Wave induced vessel motion response, see $\eta_{1-6}$ |
| $\gamma$ | Constant in the JONSWAP sea spectrum |
| $\lambda$ | Wavelength |
| $\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{k}$ | Unit vectors in $x$ - $y$ - and $z$-direction respectively |
| $\mathbf{r}$ | Distance from the origin to a given position |
| $\mathbf{s}$ | Motion of an arbitrary point on a structure |
| $\omega$ | Circular frequency in radians per second $=\frac{2 \pi}{T}$ |
| $\omega_{1}$ | Frequency of first wave component |
| $\omega_{l}$ | Lower integral limit of $\omega$ |
| $\omega_{p}$ | Constant in the JONSWAP sea spectrum |
| $\omega_{u}$ | Upper integral limit of $\omega$ |
| $\rho$ | Mass density of sea water $=1025 \frac{\mathrm{~kg}}{\mathrm{~m}^{3}}$ |
| $\sigma$ | Constant in the JONSWAP sea spectrum |
| $\varepsilon$ | Phase angle |
| $\varphi$ | Velocity potential |
| $\zeta$ | Surface elevation |


| $\zeta_{a}$ | Wave amplitude |
| :--- | :--- |
| $a_{c}$ | Normal component of cylinder acceleration |
| $A_{n}$ | Amplitude of wave component $n$ |
| $a_{n}$ | Wave induced acceleration normal to cylinder axis |
| $a_{x}$ | $x$-component of acceleration |
| $a_{z}$ | $z$-component of acceleration |
| $A_{33}$ | Added mass in heave |
| $A_{33}(\infty)$ | Infinite frequency limit for added mass in heave |
| $A_{33}^{2 D}$ | 2 D added mass in heave |
| $A_{i j}(\omega)$ | Frequency dependent added mass component |
| $A_{i j}^{\infty}$ | Infinite frequency limit for added mass component |
| $A_{k j}$ | Added mass coefficients |
| $A_{W P}$ | Water-plane area |
| $B$ | Damping matrix |
| $B_{33}$ | Damping in heave |
| $B_{33}(\infty)$ | Infinite frequency limit for damping in heave |
| $B_{33}^{2 D}$ | 2 D damping in heave |
| $B_{i j}(\omega)$ | Frequency dependent damping component |
| $B_{k j}$ | Damping coefficients |
| $C$ | Forcent wave height, in this thesis chosen as $H_{1 / 3}$ |
| $C_{D}$ | Stiffness matrix |
| $C_{M}$ | Drag coefficient |
| $C_{33}$ | Mass coefficient |
| $C_{k j}$ | Restoring in heave |
| $D$ | Restoring coefficients |
| $F$ | Cylinder diameter |
| $F_{3}$ | Force |
| $F_{k}$ | Force in heave direction |
| $g$ | Arcemponent, where $k=1,2, \ldots, 6$ |
| $H_{S}$ |  |


| $H_{1 / 3}$ | Average of the $1 / 3$ highest waves |
| :--- | :--- |
| $h_{33}$ | Retardation function (impulse response function) in heave |
| $h_{i j}$ | Retardation function (impulse response function) |
| $i$ | Wave component number, $i=1,2, \ldots, N$, where $N$ is the total <br> number of wave components |
| $k$ | Wave number $=\frac{2 \pi}{\lambda}=\frac{\omega^{2}}{g}$ |
| $k_{i}$ | Return period |
| $L$ | Length |
| $M$ | Mass matrix |
| $N$ | Number of wave components |
| $n$ | Unit normal vector |
| $p$ | Average wetted surface |
| $S$ | Wave spectrum |
| $S(\omega)$ | Wave period |
| $T$ | Time |
| $t$ | Return period of irregular sea pattern |
| $T_{r}$ | Zero up-crossing period <br> $T_{Z}$ |
| $u$ | $x$-component of velocity |
| $u_{n}$ | Wave induced velocity normal to cylinder axis |
| $u_{r e l}$ | Relative velocity between fluid and cylinder normal to cylinder <br> axis |
| $w$ | $z$-component of velocity |

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## Chapter 1

## Introduction

Humans have traveled and worked at sea for thousands of years. Knowledge of the sea and of how floating structures respond to different sea states, are a crucial part of protecting lives and property at sea. Floating structures might have complex geometries and loads, and the sea changes constantly, leaving the calculation of the motion responses to be quite comprehensive.

Many advanced computer programs have been written to simulate motion responses and loads on structures in different sea states. Accidents or extreme environmental conditions might lead to for instance flooding of some compartments, causing the buoyancy of the structure to change. Detailed knowledge of how a structure will be able to cope under such conditions is of high importance in designing safer ships and platforms.

### 1.1 Motivation

USFOS is a computer program for simulation of the response to extreme environmental and accidental loads. The program was originally developed for fixed offshore structures like jackets and jack-ups. USFOS have been modified in more recent years to be able to also simulate the response of floating offshore structures. One of the new challenges in the simulations due to this modification is connected to the added mass and damping terms. These terms are used to simulate the diffraction and radiation loads. They are at present assumed to be constant, but are in reality dependent of frequency.

For USFOS to be able to account for transient effects and not only steady-state conditions, a memory function must be introduced. The memory function is expressed by convolution integrals, which should be integrated from the beginning of time and up to present time. For practical reasons, this is not possible. This thesis is written as an investigation of the feasibility of including frequency dependence in
the added mass and damping terms in USFOS. The amount of time necessary to include in the memory function will be examined.

### 1.2 Background

Numerous books and articles have been written about the subject of understanding the motions of floating bodies. Some basic background is given here as a framework for discussions of the wave-induced motions.

### 1.2.1 Problem simplifications

As stated by Vugts, the general problem of floating structures at sea involves: "(...) the dynamic equilibrium of forces and moments in and on an elastic body moving in the interface of two different media" 9]. The problem is simplified by only considering the external forces on the submerged parts of the vessel. This is a valid simplification for many cases because the density of seawater is a thousand times larger than the density of air [9]. There are situations in which the air environment must be included in the calculations, for instance in manoeuvring a ship with large superstructures in strong winds [9], but these effects are neglected in this thesis.

Another simplification made is that the structures are assumed to be rigid bodies, a simplification that is valid as long as no structural or vibrational problems are dealt with 9.

To further simplify the problem, the water is considered incompressible, inviscid and irrotational. Finally, the problem is considered to be linear, allowing irregular seas to be simulated by superpositioning the contributions for different regular wave components [3].

### 1.2.2 Definition of motions

A floating structure subjected to waves might have response motions, both translatory and angular. The motions will be oscillatory, with the frequency depending on the sea state [1]. To describe the waves and response motions of the analysed structure, a coordinate system must be chosen. The axis system used in this thesis is defined with its origin and $x y$-plane at the undisturbed free surface, and the $z$-axis perpendicular to it. The $z$-axis is chosen so it will pass through the structures center of gravity when the structure is floating in still water [1].

The translational oscillatory motions are referred to as surge, sway and heave, where heave is the vertical motion, while surge and sway are the horizontal motions. For structures with forward motion, such as ships, surge is defined as the longitudinal motion. The rotational oscillatory motions are roll, pitch and yaw, where yaw
is rotation about the vertical axis, and roll and pitch are rotations about the horizontal axes. The axis system with oscillatory motion definitions is shown in Figure 1.1


Figure 1.1: Axis system showing translational and rotational oscillatory motions [1]
The motion components are denoted $\eta_{1}, \eta_{2}, \ldots \eta_{6}$, where the first three components ( $i=1,2,3$ ) refer to the translatory motions, and the last three components ( $i=$ $4,5,6)$ refer to the rotations as shown in table 1.1 .

| Translations |  | Rotations |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\eta_{1}$ | surge | $\eta_{4}$ | roll |
| $\eta_{2}$ | sway | $\eta_{5}$ | pitch |
| $\eta_{3}$ | heave | $\eta_{6}$ | yaw |

Table 1.1: Rigid oscillatory motion components for floating structures
Assuming small motions, the motion of any part of the structure can be written as in equation 1.1. $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ is the rotation, and is given by equation $1.2 . \mathrm{r}$ is the distance from the origin to the given location, and is found in equation (1.3). $\times$ denotes the vector product, while $\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{k}$ are unit vectors along the $x$-, $y$ - and $z$-axes, respectively.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{s}=\eta_{1} \mathbf{i}+\eta_{2} \mathbf{j}+\eta_{3} \mathbf{k}+\boldsymbol{\omega} \times \mathbf{r} \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{gather*}
\boldsymbol{\omega}=\eta_{4} \mathbf{i}+\eta_{5} \mathbf{j}+\eta_{6} \mathbf{k}  \tag{1.2}\\
\mathbf{r}=x \mathbf{i}+y \mathbf{j}+z \mathbf{k} \tag{1.3}
\end{gather*}
$$

The rigid-body motion of any point on the floating structure given in equation 1.1 can hence be written as in equation 1.4 .

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{s}=\left(\eta_{1}+z \eta_{5}-y \eta_{6}\right) \mathbf{i}+\left(\eta_{2}+x \eta_{6}-z \eta_{4}\right) \mathbf{j}+\left(\eta_{3}+y \eta_{4}-x \eta_{5}\right) \mathbf{k} \tag{1.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 1.3 Scope of work

The intended work scope proved to be larger than initially anticipated, and was reduced in extent in cooperation with the supervisor. The MATLAB code written in the second step of the proposed work description was reduced to focus on calculating the convolution integrals constituting the memory terms. The investigation of the importance of the memory effects was hence left for further work. The fourth step of the proposed work description was completely omitted in this thesis due to time restrictions.

### 1.4 Outline of thesis

A brief introduction to the sea environment explaining how to calculate the surface elevation and corresponding vertical velocity component for regular waves are given in chapter 2 Wave spectra are introduced, and the process of using them to simulate irregular seas are explained.

Chapter 3 explains how the response motions are found in the frequency domain assuming steady-state conditions. The frequency dependence of the added mass and damping terms for various floating and submerged bodies representative for pontoon type structures are discussed.

The linear time-domain heave response of a floating structure is presented in chapter 4 How the retardation function in the convolution integral can be established is explained, based on both added mass and damping. The two techniques are tested for a rectangular cross-section oscillating at the surface, and the obtained functions are compared. The challenges related to establishing the retardation function is then described, and a procedure for checking the accuracy by inverse calculation is presented.

Chapter 5 explains the MATLAB program written in order to assess how much time must be included in the memory functions. The results of the analyses are then presented and discussed in chapter 6 .

Chapter 7 deals with USFOS, describing how frequency dependent added mass and damping can be implemented based on the experiences obtained with the system tested in MATLAB. A flow diagram is presented, explaining a possible program flow of the subroutine.

Finally, chapter 8 presents the conclusion of this thesis and recommendations for further work.

## Chapter 2

## The sea environment

To be able to predict a floating structures response to different sea states, a set of equations describing the seas characteristics are needed. The derivation of the equations valid for linear wave theory is found in Newman (1977) [10]. Some important resulting equations are presented in this chapter.

### 2.1 Regular waves

As mentioned in the introduction, the sea water is assumed to be incompressible and inviscid, with irrotational fluid motion [1]. A velocity potential describes the fluid velocity vector for a water particle located at the point $(x, y, z)$ at a given time $t$ [1]. Assuming infinite water depth, the velocity potential is given as in equation (2.1). Using the same assumptions, the wave profile is given in equation (2.2). $\zeta_{a}$ is the wave amplitude.

$$
\begin{gather*}
\varphi=\frac{g \zeta_{a}}{\omega} e^{k z} \cos (\omega t-k x)  \tag{2.1}\\
\zeta=\zeta_{a} \sin (\omega t-k x) \tag{2.2}
\end{gather*}
$$

The dynamic pressure in the fluid due to the wave is given by equation 2.3 .

$$
\begin{equation*}
p=\rho g \zeta_{a} e^{k z} \sin (\omega t-k x) \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The $x$ - and $z$-components of velocity can be found by derivation of the velocity potential in equation (2.1) with respect to $x$ and $z$ respectively. The velocity in $x$-direction is given in equation (2.4) and in $z$-direction in equation (2.5). "It should
be noted that the linear theory assumes the velocity potential and fluid velocity to be constant from the mean free-surface to the free-surface level" [1].

$$
\begin{align*}
u & =\omega \zeta_{a} e^{k z} \sin (\omega t-k x)  \tag{2.4}\\
w & =\omega \zeta_{a} e^{k z} \cos (\omega t-k x) \tag{2.5}
\end{align*}
$$

Similarly the $x$ - and $z$-components of acceleration are found by derivation with respect to time of the corresponding velocity component. Derivation of (2.4) gives the acceleration in $x$-direction given in equation (2.6), while derivation of (2.5) gives the acceleration in $z$-direction given in equation (2.7).

$$
\begin{gather*}
a_{x}=\omega^{2} \zeta_{a} e^{k z} \cos (\omega t-k x)  \tag{2.6}\\
a_{z}=-\omega^{2} \zeta_{a} e^{k z} \sin (\omega t-k x) \tag{2.7}
\end{gather*}
$$

Equations 2.1 to 2.7 are part of the linear wave theory for propagating waves. They are derived assuming a horizontal sea bottom and a free-surface of infinite horizontal extent [1]. In real life, these assumptions are never completely fulfilled. However, taking into consideration that a floating offshore structure usually operates in deep water and far from shore, the equations might be assumed to give a good estimation of the conditions the structure is subjected to.

### 2.2 Irregular seas

The sea state a floating structure is exposed to do usually not look like a regular sine wave with constant amplitude propagating in one direction. The sea state is far more complex. However, due to linear superposition, irregular sea states can be simulated by adding together waves of different amplitudes, wavelengths and propagation directions [3].
This means that the surface elevation might be modeled by numerous longcrested waves, with different amplitudes, frequencies and phases. If considering a twodimensional model, all the waves propagate along the same axis. The surface elevation might then be expressed as in equation $(2.8)$, where $N$ is the total number of wave components [3].

$$
\begin{equation*}
\zeta(x, t)=\sum_{n=1}^{N} A_{n} \sin \left(\omega_{n} t-k_{n} x+\varepsilon_{n}\right) \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

The phase angles, $\varepsilon_{n}$, are randomly chosen numbers between 0 and $2 \pi$ and are constant with time. $A_{n}, \omega_{n}$ and $k_{n}$ are the wave components amplitude, frequency and wave number respectively. The wave amplitude $A_{n}$ can be expressed by a wave spectrum $S(\omega)$ as in equation (2.9) 3].

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{2} A_{n}^{2}=S\left(\omega_{n}\right) \Delta \omega \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

A wave spectrum describes the wave conditions after a constant velocity wind has been blowing for a long time. A specific ocean wave spectrum will typically be far more complex, and might for instance have two different peaks, one generated by waves coming in from far away, and one due to local winds creating more local waves [11. However, a general wave spectrum is used to simulate irregular seas for analyses. The two most common standard wave spectra available are the PiersonMoskowitz spectrum given in equation (2.10) 12] and the JONSWAP spectrum given in equation (2.11) 11].

$$
\begin{gather*}
S(\omega)=\frac{H_{S}^{2} T_{Z}}{8 \pi^{2}}\left(\frac{\omega T_{Z}}{2 \pi}\right)^{5} \exp \left[\frac{-1}{\pi}\left(\frac{\omega T_{Z}}{2 \pi}\right)^{-4}\right]  \tag{2.10}\\
S(\omega)=\frac{\alpha g^{2}}{\omega^{5}} \exp \left[-\frac{5}{4}\left(\frac{\omega_{p}}{\omega}\right)^{4}\right] \gamma^{r} \\
r=\exp \left[-\frac{\left(\omega-\omega_{p}\right)^{2}}{2 \sigma^{2} \omega_{p}^{2}}\right] \tag{2.11}
\end{gather*}
$$

The main difference between the two spectra is that the Pierson-Moskowitz spectrum assumes a fully developed sea, while Hasselmann et al. [13] realized that this is never really the case, and introduced an extra factor $\gamma^{r}$ to the Pierson-Moskowitz spectrum creating the JONSWAP spectrum. The constants $\alpha, \omega_{p}, \gamma$ and $\sigma$ might be found in for instance Stewart (2008) [11. The significant wave height $H_{S}$ is usually defined as $H_{1 / 3}$, the average of the $1 / 3$ largest wave heights [2]. This wave height is said by Huss [2] to correspond approximately to the wave height perceived by the human eye when observing irregular seas, as the lower components get filtered out.

For a regular wave, the wave period is easy to identify. For irregular seas however, it is harder to define a constant wave period, as the resulting wave elevation is irregular. $T_{Z}$ is defined to be the mean zero up-crossing period; the mean time interval between wave crests rising up past the still-water level.

For the analyses conducted in the work with this thesis, the Bretschneider spectrum shown in Figure 2.1 is used. The spectrum is also known as an ISSC spectrum and is a modified Pierson-Moskowitz spectrum [14]. The spectrum is based on the equation given in (2.12).


Figure 2.1: Bretschneider wave spectrum with $H_{S}=4 m$ and $T_{Z}=10 \mathrm{~s}[2]$

$$
\begin{equation*}
S\left(H_{S}, T_{Z}, \omega\right)=\frac{H_{S}^{2} T_{Z}}{8 \pi^{2}}\left(\frac{2 \pi}{\omega T_{Z}}\right)^{5} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{\pi}\left(\frac{2 \pi}{\omega T_{Z}}\right)^{4}\right] \tag{2.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

For each wave component, the amplitude is found by equation 2.13), where the upper limit $\omega_{u}$ and the lower limit $\omega_{l}$ are defined in (2.14). This is another way to write equation 2.9.

$$
\begin{align*}
A_{n} & =\sqrt{2 \int_{\omega_{l}}^{\omega_{u}} S(\omega) d \omega}  \tag{2.13}\\
\omega_{l} & =\omega_{n}-0.5 \Delta \omega \\
\omega_{u} & =\omega_{n}+0.5 \Delta \omega \tag{2.14}
\end{align*}
$$

Huss(2010) [2] explains the wave spectrum and its features as follows:
> "The shape of the wave spectrum reflects the character of the irregular sea. A spectrum with large area represents a severe sea state with large waves, a spectrum that is spread out over a wide span of frequencies represent a very chaotic sea state with a mixture of short and long waves while a narrow spectrum represents a rather regular sea state (such as swell) where most of the energy is concentrated to waves with almost the same frequency." [2]

When generating an irregular sea state for simulation analyses, one technique is to divide the wave spectrum into $N$ columns of width $\Delta \omega$, as shown in the upper half of Figure 2.2. The lower half of the figure shows how the wave components are summed up to give the resulting irregular sea. Another way to visualize the
transition from the wave spectrum in the frequency domain to the irregular wave elevation in the time domain is given in Figure 2.3


Figure 2.2: How a simplified irregular sea state can be simulated from a wave spectrum. The arrows indicate the quasi-random wave heights [2]

### 2.2.1 The return period

The return period is the total time span a unique wave pattern is generated before it is repeated. The ability to produce long return periods $T_{r}$ is an indicator of the quality of the chosen wave generator. The simulated irregular sea will repeat itself


Figure 2.3: The connection between the frequency-domain and time-domain representation of waves [3]
when all the wave components have run an integer number of full periods at the same time, i.e. when the condition given in equation 2.15) is satisfied [2]. $\omega_{1}$ is the frequency of the first component, $i$ is the component number, $\Delta \omega$ is the frequency step between the wave components, $T_{r}$ is the return period of the irregular sea pattern and $k_{i}$ is an integer number [2].

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[\frac{\omega_{1}}{2 \pi}+(i-1) \frac{\Delta \omega}{2 \pi}\right] T_{r}=k_{i} \tag{2.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

For the Bretschneider spectrum, with $\omega_{1}=0.2$ and the total number of wave components $N=100$, the frequency step $\Delta \omega=0.02$. It can be shown that for $\omega_{1}>0$, condition 2.15 is satisfied if 2.16) is satisfied [2].

$$
\begin{equation*}
k_{2}=k_{1}\left(\frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega_{1}}+1\right) \tag{2.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $N=100, k_{1}=10$ and $k_{2}=11$. The return period $T_{r}$ will then be equal to 314.2 seconds. This is illustrated in Figure 2.4. It can be seen from equation (2.16) that a way of extending the return period is to make the ratio $\frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega_{1}}$ more irrational [2].


Figure 2.4: The return period for $N=100$ wave components in a Bretschneider spectrum with $\omega_{1}=0.2$

## Chapter 3

## Frequency-domain motion response

The same way regular waves can be added together to simulate irregular seas, a structures steady-state response in irregular seas is the sum of the response to each wave component [1]. It is hence sufficient to analyze a structure in incident regular sinusoidal waves. In a frequency-domain analysis, steady-state conditions are assumed, meaning no transient effects due to initial conditions are considered.

The problem of finding the motion response to a given sea state might be divided in two sub-problems as shown in Figure 3.1. One sub-problem consists of the wave exciting forces on a structure retained from moving, as shown in the left part of the figure. The other sub-problem, shown in the middle of Figure 3.1 consists of the fluid reactive forces induced by a structure forced to oscillate in still water (9). Due to the assumed linearity with respect to the wave amplitude, the loads from the first and second sub-problem can be added together to obtain the total hydrodynamic forces acting on a structure oscillating in regular waves [5].


Excitation loads:
Froude Kriloff and diffraction


Added mass, damping and restoring forces and moments


Linear wave-induced motions, accelerations and structural loads

Figure 3.1: Motion response as the sum of two sub-problems [4]

### 3.1 Added mass, damping and restoring

One of the sub-problems, shown in the middle of Figure 3.1, consists of the forces on the structure from the fluid when the structure is forced to oscillate with frequency $\omega_{i}$ in still water. The oscillation frequency is the same as the frequency of the incoming waves in the other sub-problem. The hydrodynamic loads developed in this sub-problem are referred to as added mass, damping and restoring loads [1]. The oscillating structure will generate outgoing waves, and by integration of the oscillating fluid pressure forces over the structures surface, the forces and moments acting on the structure are found [1].
The hydrodynamic added mass and damping loads due to harmonic motion mode $\eta_{j}$ can be written as in equation (3.1), where $k=1,2, \cdots, 6 . F_{1}, F_{2}$ and $F_{3}$ are the force components in the $x$-, $y$ - and $z$-direction, and $F_{4}, F_{5}$ and $F_{6}$ are the moment components about the corresponding axes.

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{k}=-A_{k j} \frac{d^{2} \eta_{j}}{d t^{2}}-B_{k j} \frac{d \eta_{j}}{d t} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

$A_{k j}$ and $B_{k j}$ are the added mass and damping coefficients, where $k$ denotes the force-direction, and $j$ denotes the direction of movement [5]. Six possible values for each of $k$ and $j$ gives a total of 36 added mass coefficients and 36 damping coefficients. Many of these coefficients are zero for a structure due to symmetry or no forward speed [1].

The terms added mass and damping might be misleading, in fact added mass terms do not have to have the dimension of mass. For instance $A_{44}$ has the dimension of an inertia moment, and other terms might have the dimension of mass multiplied by length [1. The names added mass and damping simply refers to the similarities with the terms in the equation for a simple oscillating single degree of freedom system. Equation (3.2) shows such a system, where $M, B$ and $C$ refer to the systems mass matrix, damping matrix and stiffness matrix respectively.

$$
\begin{equation*}
M \ddot{x}+B \dot{x}+C x=0 \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The hydrodynamic added mass and damping terms multiplied by respectively acceleration and velocity will give forces, but they are not physical properties of a structure, like the structures mass is 5. The hydrodynamic added mass is the force acting on the structure caused by the pressure field of the fluid being forced to oscillate by the moving structure. It is hence hydrodynamic pressure induced forces. The two terms in equation (3.1) can be understood as [5]:

- $-A_{k j} \ddot{\eta}_{j}=$ force in $k$-direction because of acceleration in $j$-direction
- $-B_{k j} \dot{\eta}_{j}=$ force in $k$-direction because of velocity in $j$-direction

A freely floating structure will have restoring forces following from hydrostatic and mass considerations. The restoring loads are caused by the changes of the displaced volume and hence changes in the buoyancy, due to rigid body motions [4]. The force and moment components may be written as in equation (3.3) [1].

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{k}=-C_{k j} \eta_{j} \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

"The restoring coefficients can be obtained estimating the variation of the buoyancy loads due to the rigid motions" 4]. Considering an uncoupled heave motion for a structure with the $x y$ - plane as a symmetry plane for the submerged volume, the restoring coefficient is given in equation (3.4) (1]. $A_{W P}$ is the water-plane area.

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{33}=\rho g A_{W P} \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

A positive restoring coefficient counteracts the motion, and hence helps bringing the structure back towards its initial position. Vice versa, a negative restoring coefficient will work destabilizing on the system [4]. "The restoring loads are important in fixing the natural periods of the body motions (...)" 4].

### 3.1.1 Strip theory

Finding the hydrodynamic coefficients for three-dimensional structures are not straightforward, and requires use of numerical techniques and computer programs [5]. Model testing is also possible. However, taking advantage of the structures geometry is useful. The underwater parts of both ships and platform pontoons and columns are slender structures, with one dimension dominating the other two. Dividing the underwater part of the structure in strips like in Figure 3.2 makes it possible to consider each strip in a two-dimensional stream in the cross-sectional plane [5. This implies that the variation of the flow in the cross-sectional plane is much larger than the variation of the flow in the longitudinal direction [1]. This is not true at the ends of the structure, so the strip theory can only be applied for structures where the end effects are relatively small.

Integration of the strip components over the structures length as shown in equation (3.5), or summation of the results for all the strips, gives the hydrodynamic coefficients. This approach is referred to as strip theory.

$$
\begin{align*}
A_{33} & =\int_{L} A_{33}^{(2 D)}(x) d x  \tag{3.5a}\\
B_{33} & =\int_{L} B_{33}^{(2 D)}(x) d x \tag{3.5b}
\end{align*}
$$



Figure 3.2: Underwater part of platform divided in strips [5]

Reduction of the problem from three to two dimensions makes it possible to find the solution analytically for some special very simple cross-sections like a circular cylinder [5]. In a general case, complicated body shapes makes numerical methods like source technique or conformal mapping necessary to estimate the two-dimensional added mass and damping coefficients.

Strip theory does have certain limitations. End effects become important if the length to beam ratio is too low, making strip theory a valid approach for finding hydrodynamic coefficients only for elongated bodies [3]. Also, strip theory is best applied to high frequency waves.

### 3.1.2 Frequency dependence of added mass and damping

As explained in the previous section, the added mass and damping terms depend on the cross-section of the submerged part of the structure. The added mass and damping components may also be strongly influenced by the oscillation frequency $\omega$ [1]. This is because the frequency of the waves affects the structures capability of generating waves. This might be shown by considering the far-field solution of the velocity potential [1] but this will not be done here.

In addition, the added mass and damping coefficients depend on the motion mode, meaning that for instance the added mass in heave and the added mass in roll are not necessarily equal. Figure 3.3 illustrates this. The left part of the figure shows added mass coefficients, and the right part shows damping coefficients. By comparing the two upper plots with the two lower plots, all for a circular cross-section oscillating at the free surface, it is easily seen that different motion modes yields different damping coefficients.

Again considering Figure 3.3 it is seen from the right column of plots that $B \rightarrow 0$ as $\omega \rightarrow 0$ and $\omega \rightarrow \infty$. This is because no free-surface waves are generated at these frequencies. "The reason is that the approximate free-surface conditions in these two cases state that there cannot be both a horizontal and a vertical velocity


Figure 3.3: Top: Added mass (left) and damping (right) of a circular cylinder oscillating in heave. Middle: Added mass (left) and damping (right) of a pointed cross-section oscillating in heave. Bottom: Added mass (left) and damping (right) of a circular cylinder oscillating in sway. [6]
component on the free-surface. Both are necessary everywhere for there to be any propagating waves" [1]. In theory, $A_{33} \rightarrow \infty$ as $\omega \rightarrow 0$ for any two-dimensional surface piercing body in deep water. "But as $\omega \rightarrow 0$, finite water depth effects and 3D effects become important and make the added mass to be finite in reality" [4].

### 3.2 Excitation forces

The other sub-problem consists of the forces and moments working on the structure from the fluid when the structure is retained from moving under incident regular sinusoidal waves of frequency $\omega_{i}$ [5]. These loads are due to the unsteady fluid pressure, and are referred to as wave excitation loads. They consist of Froude-Kriloff and diffraction forces and moments.

The Froude-Kriloff loads are caused by the pressure field in the incident waves when they are undisturbed by the structure [1]. The diffraction forces are the forces that occur because the structures presence will change the undisturbed pressure field. The diffraction forces are found by solving a boundary value problem for the velocity potential, similar to the method used for finding the added mass and damping coefficients [1].
Different books operate with different names for the forces in this sub-problem. Faltinsen [1] operates with the names presented above, that excitation loads consists of Froude-Kriloff and diffraction forces and moments, while Newman [10] defines the names otherwise. Using Newmans notations, diffraction forces consists of Froude-Kriloff and scattering loads. Faltinsens way of naming the forces will be used in this thesis.

The forces on a relatively small structure can be written as a sum of components, as given in equation (3.6) [1]. Each component are given by equation (3.7). To be considered as a small volume structure, the characteristic length must be small compared to the wavelength $\lambda$. For instance, the diameter $D$ of a vertical cylinder must be less than $\frac{\lambda}{5}$ to be considered small volume [1.

$$
\begin{gather*}
F=F_{1} i+F_{2} j+F_{3} k  \tag{3.6}\\
F_{i}=-\iint_{S} p n_{i} d s+A_{i 1} a_{1}+A_{i 2} a_{2}+A_{i 3} a_{3} \tag{3.7}
\end{gather*}
$$

The first term in equation (3.7) are the Froude-Kriloff forces. $p$ is the pressure in the undisturbed wave field, and $n$ the unit normal vector to the structures surface and positive into the fluid. "The integral is over the average wetted surface of the body" [1. The three last terms represents the diffraction forces.
Since the integral in equation (3.7) is to be taken over the wetted surface of the body, the junctions between the columns and pontoons must be respected, meaning that the Froude-Kriloff forces must be integrated directly [1].

### 3.2.1 Morison's equation

Wave forces acting on marine structures may be defined as either inertia or mass forces, or viscous forces. Inertia and mass forces are found from potential theory assuming inviscid fluid. Viscous forces are far more difficult to predict, as flow separation will occur and vortices will change the pressure field around the body and hence influence the hydrodynamic forces [7]. Empirical formulas are therefore often applied.
Faltinsen(1990) states that: "Morison's equation is often used to calculate wave loads on circular cylindrical structural members of fixed offshore structures when
viscous forces matter" [1. Morison's equation gives the force $d F$ on a strip of length $d z$ of a rigid circular cylinder like a platform leg, and can be written as in equation (3.8) [7.

$$
\begin{equation*}
d F=\rho \frac{\pi D^{2}}{4} d z C_{M} a_{n}+\frac{\rho}{2} C_{D} D d z\left|u_{n}\right| u_{n} \tag{3.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the case of a vertical cylinder, the force is positive in the wave propagation direction as seen in Figure $3.4 \rho$ is the mass density of the water, $D$ is the cylinder diameter, and $u_{n}$ and $a_{n}$ are the undisturbed wave induced velocity and acceleration components normal to the cylinder axis at the midpoint of the strip [7]. $C_{M}$ and $C_{D}$ are the mass and drag coefficients, and are dependent of several parameters such as Reynolds number, the roughness number, and the Keulegan-Carpenter number. $C_{M}$ and $C_{D}$ must be empirically determined [1].


Figure 3.4: Force $d F$ on strip of length $d z$ of vertical cylinder [5]
In the analysis of floating offshore structures, the cylinder is allowed to move, and equation (3.8) must be modified to the expression given in equation (3.9). The velocity used in the equation is now the relative velocity between the fluid and the cylinder. $a_{c}$ is the normal component of the cylinder acceleration.

$$
\begin{equation*}
d F=\rho \frac{\pi D^{2}}{4} d z C_{M} a_{n}+\rho \frac{\pi D^{2}}{4} d z\left(C_{M}-1\right) a_{c}+\frac{\rho}{2} C_{D} D d z\left|u_{\text {rel }}\right| u_{\text {rel }} \tag{3.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Figure 3.5 indicates which kind of forces that dominate for different cylinder diameters compared with wavelengths and wave heights. "Morison's equation is normally assumed to be valid for a wavelength/diameter ratio above 5. Below this limit the presence of the cylinder will change the wave potential significantly, which


Figure 3.5: Relative importance of mass, viscous drag and diffraction force on vertical cylinder [7]
means that wave diffraction forces become important and Morison's equation should not be used" [7].

Another limitation to Morison's equation is that it only gives a good estimation of the forces in the case of a uniform flow. For orbital flow, for instance encountered by a cylinder subjected to waves, Morison's equation does not give a good representation of the forces as a function of time [1]. Morison's equation is not perfect, but it is the best prediction known today of the forces caused by the complicated flow picture that occurs for separated flow around marine structures [1].

### 3.3 The equations of motion

"When the hydrodynamic forces have been found it is straightforward to set up the equations of rigid body motions. This follows by using the equations of linear and angular momentum. [1]. "Obtaining the hydrodynamic forces is by no means trivial" [3]. The steady-state rigid-body sinusoidal motions of a floating body are given as in equation 3.10 [3].

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=1}^{6}\left[\left(M_{j k}+A_{j k}\right) \ddot{\eta}_{k}+B_{j k} \dot{\eta}_{k}+C_{j k} \eta_{k}\right]=F_{j} e^{i \omega_{e} t}, \quad j=1, \ldots, 6 \tag{3.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Chapter 4

## Time-domain motion response

When analysing a structure in irregular seas, the structure is subjected to many different excitation frequencies. Because added mass and damping depend on the frequency of the waves, as discussed in section 3.1.2, the system in equation (3.10) cannot be used directly [3]. When only the steady-state solution is of interest, this problem is circumvented by finding the response to each regular wave component, and then adding together the structures motion responses for all the components 3].
In some cases, the transient effects might be too important to be neglected. Faltinsen [3] lists waves generated by passing ships, coupling between nonlinear sloshing in a ship tank and ship motions, and wet-deck slamming on a catamaran in waves as examples of situations where transient effects are crucial.

For these transient effects to be considered, a memory function must be included in the equations of motion to represent the time-domain effects [3].

### 4.1 The memory function

Cummins (1962) [15] and Ogilvie (1964) [16] discussed how the equation of motion must be reformulated to be valid in the time domain. Ogilvie [16] states that: "In a sense, we find that the existence of the free surface causes the physical system to have a 'memory': What happens at one instant of time affects the system for all later times" 16.

Cummins [15] presented a new mathematical expression as a representation of a ships response to waves. The linear time-domain response in heave decoupled from all other motions, are given in equation (4.1) 3].

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(M+A_{33}(\infty)\right) \ddot{\eta}_{3}+B_{33}(\infty) \dot{\eta}_{3}+C_{33} \eta_{3}+\int_{0}^{t} h_{33}(\tau) \dot{\eta}_{3}(t-\tau) d \tau=F_{3}(t) \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

By way of comparison, the steady-state response given in equation 3.10 will for heave motion decoupled from all other motions look like equation 4.2).

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(M+A_{33}\right) \ddot{\eta}_{3}+B_{33} \dot{\eta}_{3}+C_{33} \eta_{3}=F_{3}(t) \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The structures mass $M$ and restoring $C_{33}$ are the same in the two equations 3]. The differences are an additional integral term in equation (4.1), and that equation (4.1) uses the mean infinite-frequency added mass and damping coefficients 3. This means that the added mass and damping coefficients in equation (4.1) are independent of frequency. The integral term is referred to as a convolution integral. Cummins [15] states that: "The response is given as a convolution integral over the past history of the exciting force with the impulse response function appearing as the kernel" [15].
$h_{33}(t)$ is the impulse response function, or the retardation function, and section 4.2 explains how this function might be found.

### 4.2 Finding the retardation function

The retardation function $h(t)$ may be calculated based on either the added mass or the damping coefficient, as shown in equation (4.3). The two different approaches will be further investigated in the rest of this section.

$$
\begin{align*}
h_{i j}(t) & =-\frac{2}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\infty} \omega\left(A_{i j}(\omega)-A_{i j}(\infty)\right) \sin (\omega t) d \omega  \tag{4.3a}\\
& =\frac{2}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\infty}\left(B_{i j}(\omega)-B_{i j}(\infty)\right) \cos (\omega t) d \omega \tag{4.3b}
\end{align*}
$$

### 4.2.1 The added mass related approach

Calculation of the retardation function using equation 4.3a requires information of $A_{i j}$ to be known for all frequencies [3]. The added mass coefficient strongly depends on the geometry of the cross-section of the submerged body. Figure 4.1 shows the
added mass coefficients in heave for a rectangular cross-section for three different beam to draft ratios. The upper lines are for $B / D=8$, the middle lines are for $B / D=4$, and the lower lines are for $B / D=2$.


Figure 4.1: Added mass coefficients in heave as function of frequency [6]
As seen in Figure 4.1, low frequencies gives large added mass coefficients. The figure does not give any clear information as to what happens to the added mass coefficient as $\omega \rightarrow 0$, but the figure indicates that the values grows exponentially. The figure also indicates that the added mass coefficients might stabilize at a fixed value for frequencies larger than a certain value. For instance for a beam to draft ratio of 2, the lower line in Figure 4.1 the added mass coefficient appears to stabilize at approximately 1.1 for frequencies larger than approximately 1.9. As will be discussed further in 4.2.3, this is not sufficient information of the added mass coefficient for all frequencies to be used as a basis for calculation of the retardation function.

### 4.2.2 The damping related approach

The other possible approach for calculation of the retardation function is based on the damping of the structure, and is given by equation 4.3b. This approach will, analogous to the added mass approach, require information of $B_{i j}$ to be known for all frequencies [3]. Like for the added mass coefficients, there are a strong dependency to the geometry of the cross-section of the submerged body.

Figure 4.2 presents damping coefficients for a rectangular cross-section oscillating in heave. The upper lines represents a beam to draft ratio $B / D=8$, the middle lines represents $B / D=4$ and the lower lines represents $B / D=2$. The main difference between this figure, and the figure for the added mass coefficients 4.1, is
that unlike the added mass coefficients, the damping coefficients are defined also for low frequencies. The damping coefficients go to zero for really small and for large frequencies. This is because these frequencies causes the structure to not generate any waves, as mentioned in section 3.1.2


Figure 4.2: Damping coefficients in heave as function of frequency [6]

### 4.2.3 Challenges related to the two approaches

The main challenge in connection with calculating the retardation function is connected to finding sufficiently detailed information of either the added mass or damping coefficients at all frequencies. Rognebakke (2002) [17] describes this process as crucial. Both approaches where tested in this thesis, using the procedure explained in detail for damping in chapter 5.2.2. Both attempts at finding the retardation function are based on the information given respectively in Figure 4.1 and 4.2 A rectangular cross-section with a beam to draft ratio of 2 are assumed. The resulting functions are shown in Figure 4.3 and 4.4

It is easily seen that the two approaches in this case does not produce the same resulting function. To decide which, if any, is the correct one, comparison is made to the impulse response function presented by Faltinsen(2005) [3]. His function is given in Figure 4.5. By inspecting the three functions, it seems to be a reasonable accuracy in Figure 4.3, the one calculated utilizing the damping-related equation. The function found by the added mass approach, Figure 4.4 is incorrect. This is probably due to the inadequate information of the added mass coefficients for large and very small frequencies. The approximated function used for the line representing a beam to draft ratio of 2 in Figure 4.1 assumed a value of 5 for the added mass coefficient at $\omega=0$. This is a large understatement, in fact Kotic and


Figure 4.3: Retardation function calculated using damping (equation 4.3b)


Figure 4.4: Retardation function calculated using added mass (equation 4.3a)


Figure 4.5: Retardation function in heave (dotted line) for a rectangular cross-section of $B / D=2$ 3]

Mangulis (1962) [18] have proven that $A_{33} \rightarrow \infty$ as $\omega \rightarrow 0$ for all two-dimensional surface-piercing structures. An insufficient accuracy of the value the added mass coefficient seemingly stabilizes at might further add to the error.

### 4.3 Verification of accuracy by inverse calculation

The retardation function (4.3) for uncoupled heave motion is given by equation (4.4).

$$
\begin{align*}
h_{33}(t) & =-\frac{2}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\infty} \omega\left(A_{33}(\omega)-A_{33}(\infty)\right) \sin (\omega t) d \omega  \tag{4.4a}\\
& =\frac{2}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\infty}\left(B_{33}(\omega)-B_{33}(\infty)\right) \cos (\omega t) d \omega \tag{4.4b}
\end{align*}
$$

The accuracy of the retardation function found might be checked by performing an inverse calculation as explained by Rognebakke (2002) [17. Equations 4.5) and 4.6) show how the obtained retardation function might be used to calculate
respectively the added mass or damping coefficient in heave for all frequencies 16.

$$
\begin{align*}
& A_{33}(\omega)=A_{33}(\infty)-\frac{1}{\omega} \int_{0}^{\infty} h_{33}(t) \sin (\omega t) d t  \tag{4.5}\\
& B_{33}(\omega)=B_{33}(\infty)+\int_{0}^{\infty} h_{33}(t) \cos (\omega t) d t \tag{4.6}
\end{align*}
$$

This enables for comparison of the initial $A_{33}(\omega)$ or $B_{33}(\omega)$ with the result from respectively (4.5) or (4.6). A good correspondence between the initial coefficients and the coefficients found by the inverse calculation indicates a good accuracy in the retardation function $h_{33}(t)$ [17].

As the added mass related approach was seen from Figure 4.4 not to work, the procedure of inverse calculation was tested on the retardation function found by utilizing the damping related approach. The result is shown in Figure 4.6. The red line, found from the inverse calculation, is seen not to coincide with the initial damping coefficients shown with the black line. This indicates a bad accuracy of the retardation function, and is most likely connected to the method used for finding the function describing the initial damping coefficients. This procedure is explained in chapter 5.2.2 However, the two lines do show similar trends, they both start at zero for zero frequency and seemingly converges to zero for large frequencies. Thus, the retardation function found using the damping related approach is used in the calculation of the convolution integral in this thesis, despite the deficient accuracy.


Figure 4.6: Initial damping coefficients compared to the damping coefficients found by inverse calculation

### 4.4 The convolution integral

A general mathematical description of what a convolution integral is, and which mathematical operations that are valid when dealing with convolution integrals, are given in appendix A
Rognebakke (2002) states that: "The convolution integral takes care of the memory effect of past motions" [17. As mentioned in the beginning of this chapter, this is because the free surface of the water represents a 'memory' of the system. "Each occurrence is, in fact, dependent on all preceding occurrences." 9. Considering equation (4.7), the integral term from equation (4.1), it can be seen that the integral limits are 0 and $t$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{t} h_{33}(\tau) \dot{\eta}_{3}(t-\tau) d \tau \tag{4.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

This means that the integral is supposed to be evaluated from the beginning of time and up to this moment. This would require enormous computer resources and is hence neither practically possible nor necessary. By investigating the $h(t)$-term plotted in Figure 4.5, it is observed that the retardation function appears to be non-zero only for a limited time range. This implies that a "cut-off" value might be introduced, limiting the time history for the integral term. Equation 4.8 shows the convolution integral over a limited time span.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{t-t_{1}}^{t} h_{33}(\tau) \dot{\eta}_{3}(t-\tau) d \tau \tag{4.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

$t-t_{1}$ defines the "cutoff" value, with $t_{1}$ the amount of time in the time span included in the calculation. In the following, equation (4.7) will be referred to as the full convolution integral, while equation (4.8) will be referred to as the limited or reduced integral. A further investigation of the time span that needs to be included in the calculation of the memory effects are conducted in chapter 5 .

## Chapter 5

## Analyses in MATLAB

To illustrate the time history of the memory functions, a MATLAB program is written. A simplified system is tested, to help estimate the amount of memory that needs to be included in the convolution integral (4.8) to obtain a certain accuracy compared to the complete integral. What is considered a satisfactory accuracy will be discussed in chapter 6.3 after the results of the analyses are presented. One major simplification in the analysis is the geometry of the structure tested. The 'platform' is considered to be a two-dimensional rectangular cross-section oscillating at the free surface. Another important simplification is that the system analysed is assumed to oscillate only in heave, decoupled from other motions. The system hence becomes a single degree of freedom mass-spring system.

### 5.1 Single-degree mass-spring system

Wave-induced motions on a floating body might to a large extent be described by a mass-spring system with damping [3]. Faltinsen [3] states that coupling between different modes of motions are of importance, but a single degree of freedom system is sufficient to exemplify essential features of the motions. Equation (5.1) represents the steady-state motion in heave for a floating structure.

$$
\begin{equation*}
(m+a) \ddot{y}(t)+b \dot{y}(t)+c y(t)=f(t) \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here $m$ is the structures mass, $a$ is the added mass in heave, $b$ is the damping coefficient (according to [3] caused by, among others, wave radiation due to heave oscillations), $c$ is the restoring coefficient due to changes in the buoyancy etc, and $f(t)$ is the excitation force.
The oscillating body is assumed to be positioned at $x=0$, which means that the surface elevation from equation (2.8) might be expressed as in equation (5.2) 3.

Similarly the vertical velocity component of the wave might be expressed as in equation (5.3)

$$
\begin{align*}
\zeta(t) & =\sum_{n=1}^{N} A_{n} \sin \left(\omega_{n} t+\varepsilon_{n}\right)  \tag{5.2}\\
w(t) & =\sum_{n=1}^{N} \omega_{n} A_{n} \cos \left(\omega_{n} t+\varepsilon_{n}\right) \tag{5.3}
\end{align*}
$$

### 5.2 The MATLAB program

A MATLAB code is written to find two vectors, $\dot{\eta}(t-\tau)$ and $h_{33}(\tau)$ for time from 0 to a specified end time $t$, with time step $d t$, and numerically integrate the convolution of the two vectors from 0 to $t$. The program then calculates the integral from $t-t_{1}$ to $t$, where $t_{1}$ is a given time interval, and compare the deviation between this integral and the first one. The MATLAB program with all associated functions are found in the appendix.

### 5.2.1 Simulating waves

Three quite similar, but still slightly different functions are written to calculate the $\dot{\eta}(t)$ vector. The program asks the user to choose a wave scenario to be used in the analysis, and asks for the relevant input information for the chosen wave type. The chosen function will return a vector of vertical velocities for different $t$-values. The velocities are calculated at $x=0$, since this is considered to be the floating structure's location in this simplified analysis.

The transfer function $\left|\eta_{3}\right| / \zeta_{a}$ is assumed to be equal to 1 for all frequencies. This means that the structure analysed behaves like a cork floating on the water, i.e. the structures vertical velocity equals the waves vertical velocity component [3].

## regWave

The first wave-function is called regWave, and is used for creating regular waves. It takes the end time $\max T$, time increment $d t$, wave amplitude $\zeta_{a}$ and wave period $T$ as input from the user. The function then calculates the wave profile and vertical velocity vectors at $x=0$, using equation 2.2 and (2.5) respectively. Finally the function makes an animated plot of the wave and the corresponding vertical velocity vector. A snapshot of the animation is given in Figure 5.1 for a wave with amplitude $\zeta_{a}=5 \mathrm{~m}$ and period $T=5 \mathrm{~s}$. As seen, the wave profile at the given time instant is $T / 4$ out of phase with the vertical velocity component. The vertical velocity is zero under the wave crests and troughs, and reaches its maximum absolute values
at the wave profile's points of intersection with the still water level. This is as expected when comparing to the theory of regular waves presented by for instance Faltinsen(1990) [1]. The vector containing vertical velocities for all elements of $t$ at $x=0$ is returned to the main program.


Figure 5.1: Snapshot of regular wave propagation with vertical velocity component

## singleRegWave

The second wave function is singleReg Wave. The function works precisely like the regWave function, except that it only creates one single wave excursion. The vectors of wave elevation and vertical velocities at $x=0$ hence contains non-zero values only for one wave period. This function does not represent a plausible wave scenario, but it is a practical tool for understanding the convolution integral.

Like the regWave function, singleRegWave produces an animated plot of the wave propagation, and a snapshot of this plot is given in Figure 5.2. The function returns the vector of vertical velocity components at $x=0$ to the main program.


Figure 5.2: Snapshot (at $t=0$ ) of regular wave propagation for a single wave excursion with its vertical velocity component

## irrSea

The third wave function represents the most realistic representation of a sea state, and is called $i r r S e a$. Instead of getting a single wave amplitude and period from the user, the function requests a significant wave height $H_{S}$ and a zero up-crossing period $T_{Z}$. A Bretschneider wave spectrum is then used to find a set of wave amplitudes and frequencies to be summed up to represent an irregular sea state, as explained in chapter 2. Finally, an animated plot showing the sea state is made, and a vector of vertical velocities at $x=0$ is returned to the main program. A snapshot of an irregular sea state is given in Figure 5.3 .


Figure 5.3: Snapshot of the irregular sea elevation and its vertical velocity component

### 5.2.2 Finding the retardation function

After the $\dot{\eta}(t)$ term is found, the next step is to find the retardation function. As explained in chapter 4.2, the retardation or impulse response function might be found using one of two approaches, equation 4.3a or equation 4.3b) Both approaches where tested in this thesis, and only one gave a reasonable accuracy compared to the expected result. As shown in figure 4.6 the verification of accuracy for the best resulting function revealed inaccurate results also for this approach. This is most likely due to inaccurate information of the frequency-dependent added mass and damping coefficients introduced by the procedure used. The procedure for finding the retardation function will be presented here only for the damping related approach, but the procedure used for the added mass approach is identical.

Figure 4.2 constituted the basis of the calculation. The figure was digitized using a program called GetData Graph Digitizer. Figure 5.4 shows the process of digitizing; the program traces the specified line and returns a set of $x$ - and $y$-values. For the frequency-dependent damping coefficients, the $x$ - and $y$-values were then copied over to a spreadsheet. A scatter diagram was drawn based on the values, and finally, a polynomial equation was found as an approximated function of the coefficient. Figure 5.5 shows the scatter diagram and corresponding function found for the frequency dependent damping coefficients in heave. This function is used by the

MATLAB function retardationD to calculate equation 4.3b).


| Data |
| :--- |
|  Current status   <br> $\mathrm{N} \triangle$ X Y  <br> 0 0.501271 0.611389  <br> 40 0.515228 0.614573  <br> 41 0.529192 0.61892  <br> 42 0.543156 0.623266  <br> 43 0.55712 0.627612  <br> 44 0.570906 0.634318  <br> 45 0.584884 0.640987  <br> 46 0.598677 0.648854  <br> 47 0.612469 0.656721  <br> 48 0.62644 0.662229  <br> 49 0.640412 0.667736  <br> 50 0.654204 0.675603  <br> data points: 37    <br> 1: Line \#1    |

Figure 5.4: The process of digitizing a graph. Here shown for finding $A_{33}(\infty)$ for a rectangular cross-section


Figure 5.5: Damping coefficient $B_{33}$ as function of frequency

## retardationD

The MATLAB function retardationD is used to calculate the $h_{33}(t)$ vector. It takes the time increment $d t$ and end time maxT as input. The function from Figure 5.5 is then used as a basis for calculating equation 4.3b). Finally, a plot showing the retardation function is made, as shown in Figure 4.3. A vector containing the retardation values for all elements of $t$ are returned to the main program.

### 5.2.3 Performing the convolution

Finally, the actual convolution of the two vectors is performed. This is done in a function called contConvolution. There exists a predefined MATLAB function conv that returns the convolution of two vectors given as input. This function is not used in this thesis since the supereminent objective is to prepare for including a corresponding function in USFOS, which is written in Fortran.

## contConvolution

The last function, contConvolution, takes the vertical wave velocity and retardation vectors as input, in addition to the time increment $d t$ and end time maxT. The function defines a new 'time' variable $\tau$, ranging from $-\max T$ to $\max T$. The two input vectors are expressed in terms of $\tau$, creating $\dot{\eta}(\tau)$ and $h_{33}(\tau)$. The vertical velocity vector is then mirrored around the $y$-axis, creating $\dot{\eta}(-\tau)$ for plotting of the convolution process. The time span to be included in the limited integral is defined, and the corresponding number of steps in the time vector is calculated. The lower integral limit is calculated based on the chosen time span. A loop iterates over each element in the time vector $t$. For each iteration, the full integral from 0 to $t$ is calculated, as well as the reduced integral only including the the number of seconds defined as the time span in the integral. The deviation between the two integrals for each value of $t$ is stored in a vector. For $t<t_{1}$, where $t_{1}$ is the time span, the full time interval is included in the reduced integral, causing the deviation to be zero.

Finally, an animated plot showing the process of convolution is made. Figure 5.6 shows a snapshot of this animation. For better visualization of the process, the two vectors $\dot{\eta}(t)$ and $h_{33}(t)$ are scaled (in this figure) to be of the same order of magnitude. This is possible since the main interest here is the ratio of the error between the two integrals, and not the actual numerical values. The upper part of the figure shows the shifting of $\dot{\eta}(t-\tau)$ through a coordinate system fixed in $\tau$. In the middle of the figure, the product of $\dot{\eta}(t-\tau)$ and $h(\tau)$ is shown for all values of time $t$. The area under the graph is shaded, and corresponds to the value of the convolution in time $t$. The vertical lines show the integral limits, the full integral is calculated from time $t=0$ (left line) to time $t$. The limited integral only include the area between the middle and right vertical lines, in Figure 5.6 corresponding to 8 seconds. Lastly, in the two calculated integrals are plotted in the lower part of the figure.


Figure 5.6: Snapshot of the animation of the convolution process for a rectangular cross-section oscillating in heave in regular waves. $t=60 \mathrm{~s}$, time span $t_{1}=8 \mathrm{~s}$

## Chapter 6

## Required memory

The main results of the simulations conducted in MATLAB are presented in this chapter. The different wave scenarios are tested, and the effect of different wave parameters on the memory required to achieve a specific accuracy are investigated.

### 6.1 Regular waves

Table 6.1 shows the maximum deviation between the two integrals calculated with different time spans included in the 'memory' for the reduced integral. In this analysis, a regular wave with amplitude $\zeta_{a}=4$ meters and period $T=5$ seconds are used. A total of 100 seconds are included in the full integral, and a time increment $d t=0.01$ seconds is used. The first column shows how many seconds are included in the 'memory'. The second column shows the maximum absolute deviation of the second integral, and the third column shows the maximum absolute deviation as a ratio of the maximum value from the full integral.
Only including a few seconds in the 'memory' is seen to give bad estimations of the full convolution integral. For one second, the maximum deviation amounts to $65 \%$ of the maximum value in the full convolution integral. However, a few seconds extension of the time interval significantly reduces the deviation. Including a time span of four seconds gives a maximum deviation of $20 \%$, while $10 \%$ deviation is reached with less than six seconds included in the 'memory'. As the time span included in the reduced integral increases, it becomes more and more expensive in seconds to achieve a certain percentual improvement of the limited integral. Figure 6.1 illustrates this effect. The upper part of the figure shows the obtained deviation, while the two lower plots shows the percentual deviations.

As seen from table 6.1 a time span of 6 seconds included in the limited convolution integral results in an accuracy of $10 \%$. Figure 6.2 shows the full integral and the

| Time span included | Maximum deviation | Relative deviation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 0.82370 | 0.67807 |
| 2 | 0.37273 | 0.30683 |
| 3 | 0.26563 | 0.21867 |
| 4 | 0.25403 | 0.20912 |
| 5 | 0.17585 | 0.14476 |
| 6 | 0.12061 | 0.09929 |
| 7 | 0.10027 | 0.08254 |
| 8 | 0.08233 | 0.06778 |
| 9 | 0.06309 | 0.05194 |
| 10 | 0.05134 | 0.04226 |
| 11 | 0.04496 | 0.03702 |
| 12 | 0.03800 | 0.03128 |
| 13 | 0.03136 | 0.02582 |
| 14 | 0.02755 | 0.02268 |
| 15 | 0.02483 | 0.02044 |
| 16 | 0.02147 | 0.01767 |
| 17 | 0.01860 | 0.01531 |
| 18 | 0.01704 | 0.01403 |
| 19 | 0.01557 | 0.01281 |
| 20 | 0.01369 | 0.01127 |
| 25 | 0.00878 | 0.00722 |
| 30 | 0.00626 | 0.00515 |
| 35 | 0.00450 | 0.00371 |
| 40 | 0.00344 | 0.00283 |
| 45 | 0.00280 | 0.00231 |
| 50 | 0.00224 | 0.00184 |
| 55 | 0.00179 | 0.00148 |
| 60 | 0.00157 | 0.00129 |
| 65 | 0.00134 | 0.00110 |
| 70 | 0.00111 | 0.0091 |
| 75 | 0.00099 | 0.00082 |
| 80 | 0.00091 | 0.00075 |
| 85 | 0.00078 | 0.00064 |
| 95 | 0.00066 | 0.00054 |
| 100 | 0.00059 | 0.00049 |
| 0.00000 | 0.00000 |  |
|  |  |  |

Table 6.1: Maximum deviation between the two integrals for different time spans included in the 'memory'. End time $t=100 \mathrm{~s}$ and time increment $d t=0.01 \mathrm{~s}$. Tested with a regular wave with amplitude $\zeta_{a}=4 \mathrm{~m}$ and period $T=5 \mathrm{~s}$.


Figure 6.1: The deviations obtained while calculating the convolution integrals for various time spans in regular waves of amplitude $\zeta_{a}=4 \mathrm{~m}$ and period $T=5 \mathrm{~s}$
reduced integral for this time span. The blue line for the full integral completely covers the reduced integral line for the first 6 seconds, as should be expected. After 6 seconds, the reduced integral deviates from the full integral, and an oscillating error or deviation occurs.

Investigating the upper part of Figure 6.2 the maximum deviation appears to be less than $10 \%$ because the lines seem to coincide well. The maximum error can however be observed by enlarging the figure. This is done in Figure 6.3 where it is seen that the maximum deviations do not occur at the largest absolute values of the full integral. The largest deviations occur due to the shift, or 'phase difference', between the two integrals. At the points of maximum absolute values in the full convolution integral, the reduced integral is seen to give a better approximation to the full integral than the value from table 6.1 indicates. In fact, the reduced integral overestimates the maximum value of the 'memory function' by $1.3 \%$.


Figure 6.2: Full and reduced integral for a time span of 6 seconds


Figure 6.3: Enlarged part of Figure 6.2 showing the full and reduced integral for a time span of 6 seconds

### 6.1.1 A single wave excursion

The 'memory function' obtained for an analysis in regular waves, such as the analysis conducted in Figure 6.2 is seen to be oscillating with constant amplitude and period after a short initial phase. This is despite of the fact that more and more of $\dot{\eta}(t-\tau)$ is shifted into the integrated area. The reason for this becomes obvious when considering Figure 6.4 The contribution from a single wave excursion constitutes a negligible amount after being shifted only 20s, due to the low values of the retardation function after the initial fluctuations. Even though the value of the retardation function is visually non-zero where the vertical velocity vector is non-zero, the plotted product of the two vectors are almost invisible.

Since the convolution integral corresponds to the area under the middle graph with the area below the zero reference cancelling out the area above zero, the contribution to the 'memory function' is practically non-existent. Hence the 'constant' oscillation is understood to arise from a continuous wave of vertical velocities being shifted through the initial part of the retardation function, independent of the vertical velocities that are shifted past the initial part. The initial phase of the 'memory function', observed in Figure 6.2 to last only a couple of seconds, arises in the time interval until $t$ reaches the part of the retardation function where the values are so low that the product of the two vectors are neglectable.


Figure 6.4: The convolution process for a single wave excursion

### 6.1.2 The effect of higher waves

To investigate how the height of the waves affect the time interval that needs to be included in the limited integral to obtain a certain accuracy, a sample of time spans are tested for different wave amplitudes $\zeta_{a}$ with a constant period $T$. The maximum relative deviation are written to table 6.2 The wave amplitude of a regular wave is observed not to affect the relative deviation for regular waves. The numerical values of the deviation will however depend on the wave amplitude chosen.

| Time span | Relative deviation, $\zeta_{\mathbf{a}}=$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{4}$ | $\mathbf{6}$ |
| 1 | 0.67807 | 0.67807 | 0.67807 |
| 2 | 0.30683 | 0.30683 | 0.30683 |
| 3 | 0.21867 | 0.21867 | 0.21867 |
| 4 | 0.20912 | 0.20912 | 0.20912 |
| 5 | 0.14476 | 0.14476 | 0.14476 |
| 10 | 0.04226 | 0.04226 | 0.04226 |
| 20 | 0.01127 | 0.01127 | 0.01127 |
| 30 | 0.00515 | 0.00515 | 0.00515 |
| 40 | 0.00283 | 0.00283 | 0.00283 |
| 50 | 0.00184 | 0.00184 | 0.00184 |
| 60 | 0.00129 | 0.00129 | 0.00129 |
| 70 | 0.00091 | 0.00091 | 0.00091 |
| 80 | 0.00075 | 0.00075 | 0.00075 |
| 90 | 0.00054 | 0.00054 | 0.00054 |
| 100 | 0.00000 | 0.00000 | 0.00000 |

Table 6.2: Effect of wave amplitude on relative deviation

### 6.1.3 The effect of longer wave periods

The effect of increasing the wave period is investigated by analysing a sample of time intervals for different wave periods of regular waves, while keeping the amplitude of the waves constant. The results are given in Figure 6.5 It is easily seen that longer wave periods require greater time intervals included in the 'memory' of the reduced integral to achieve a certain accuracy. A wave with period $T=5$ seconds will for instance have a maximum deviation of approximately $4 \%$ of the correct value for a time interval of 10 seconds. For a wave with period $T=25$ seconds to achieve the same level of accuracy, almost 20 seconds must be included in the reduced integral. Similarly, it is seen that an included time interval of 10 seconds yields an error of only $4 \%$ for a wave with period $T=5$ seconds, but an error of $12 \%$ for a wave with period $T=25$ seconds.
The period of a regular wave is hence observed to affect the time interval that must be included in the limited convolution integral. Long wave periods require larger

Maximum deviation in percent of highest value in full convolution integral



Figure 6.5: Effect of increasing the period for regular waves
time intervals included in the 'memory' than shorter wave periods.

### 6.2 Irregular waves

Any floating structure at sea will be subjected to irregular sea states which makes analyses in irregular seas important. The results obtained when testing in irregular seas are however dependent of the exact sea state generated from the irrSea function. Due to the random phase angles of the wave components, re-running the code results in a new sea state, and hence slightly different deviations. The main characteristics of the analysis do however stay valid unless input parameters are changed.

Table 6.3 presents the maximum deviation obtained for different time spans included in the 'memory'. An irregular sea state with significant wave height $H_{S}=5 \mathrm{~m}$ and zero up-crossing period $T_{Z}=10 \mathrm{~s}$ is used in this analysis. As was the case for the regular wave analysis, only including a few seconds in the 'memory' results in bad estimations of the full integral. The deviance is seen to be significantly reduced by including a few seconds more in the 'memory'. By including 7 seconds in the 'memory', the largest obtained deviance is $9.2 \%$, i.e. less than $10 \%$ of the largest value in the full convolution from 0 to 100 seconds. By comparing the results in table 6.3 to the results found for regular seas given in table 6.1, it is seen that the

| Time span included | Maximum deviation | Relative deviation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 0.42615 | 0.50774 |
| 2 | 0.21282 | 0.25357 |
| 3 | 0.19576 | 0.23324 |
| 4 | 0.16987 | 0.20239 |
| 5 | 0.12360 | 0.14726 |
| 6 | 0.09496 | 0.11314 |
| 7 | 0.07724 | 0.09203 |
| 8 | 0.06301 | 0.07507 |
| 9 | 0.05172 | 0.06163 |
| 10 | 0.04373 | 0.05210 |
| 11 | 0.03753 | 0.04471 |
| 12 | 0.03224 | 0.03841 |
| 13 | 0.02806 | 0.03343 |
| 14 | 0.02480 | 0.02955 |
| 15 | 0.02198 | 0.02619 |
| 16 | 0.01953 | 0.02327 |
| 17 | 0.01757 | 0.02093 |
| 18 | 0.01591 | 0.01896 |
| 19 | 0.01440 | 0.01716 |
| 20 | 0.01310 | 0.01560 |
| 25 | 0.00874 | 0.01041 |
| 30 | 0.00622 | 0.00741 |
| 35 | 0.00464 | 0.00553 |
| 40 | 0.00362 | 0.00431 |
| 45 | 0.00289 | 0.00345 |
| 50 | 0.00235 | 0.00280 |
| 55 | 0.00196 | 0.00234 |
| 60 | 0.00167 | 0.00199 |
| 65 | 0.00142 | 0.00169 |
| 70 | 0.00123 | 0.00146 |
| 75 | 0.00108 | 0.00129 |
| 80 | 0.00095 | 0.00114 |
| 85 | 0.00084 | 0.00100 |
| 90 | 0.00075 | 0.00090 |
| 100 | 0.00068 | 0.00081 |
|  | 0.00000 | 0.00000 |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |

Table 6.3: Maximum deviation between the two integrals for different time spans included in the 'memory'. End time $t=100 \mathrm{~s}$ and time increment $d t=0.01 \mathrm{~s}$. Tested with an irregular sea with significant wave height $H_{S}=5 \mathrm{~m}$ and zero up-crossing period $T_{Z}=10 \mathrm{~s}$.
results are very similar. This is not unexpected, as the significant wave height and zero up-crossing period used in this analysis are the same as the wave amplitude and period used for the regular wave case.

The deviation and relative deviation for different time intervals included in the 'memory' are shown in Figure 6.6 for the irregular sea analysis. For small time spans, both the maximum deviation and the relative deviation are seen to be less in the irregular sea case than for the regular wave. The relative deviation does however decrease faster for the regular wave, causing the relative deviation of a time span of more than 5 seconds to be smallest in the regular wave case.


Figure 6.6: Illustration of deviations obtained while calculating the convolution integrals for various time spans in regular waves

Figure 6.7 illustrates the convolution process for a time span of 7 seconds included in the limited integral. This corresponds to an accuracy of $9.2 \%$. The values in the figure are scaled to be of the same order of magnitude for a better visualization. The convolved function is observed not to have an initial and a stable oscillating phase, as was the case for the regular wave analysis conducted in Figure 6.2.


Figure 6.7: The process of convolution shown for an irregular sea state with a time span of 7 seconds included in the limited integral


Figure 6.8: The error of the convolved function from Figure 6.7

The irregular sea state cause a vector of irregular vertical velocities, which again cause the convolved function to be irregular. It should be noted that the error, or the deviation, of the limited integral does not oscillate with constant amplitude and period like it did in the regular wave scenario. This is shown in Figure 6.8. From $t=22$ to $t=42$ the error is seen to be small, due to a period of low values in the vertical velocity vector causing the area in the part of the product plot not included in the limited integral to be small. Vice versa, from $t=65$ to $t=85$, the error is seen to be larger and rapidly changing sign. This is caused by a set of large vertical velocity values causing the limited integral to cut off some of the area contributing to the value in the full integral.

### 6.2.1 The effect of more severe sea states

Using the set of values for $H_{m 0}$ and $T_{p}$ for different sea states given by Myrhaug (2007), the significant wave heights and zero up-crossing periods listed in table 6.4 might be calculated [19]. The significant wave heights and zero up-crossing periods given in the table is understood to be the most severe sea state with a duration of 3 hours that are likely to occur during the given return period.

| Return period | $H_{S}[\mathrm{~m}]$ | $T_{Z}[\mathrm{~s}]$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 year | 7.3 | 10.4 |
| 10 years | 8.4 | 10.9 |
| 100 years | 11.1 | 12.4 |

Table 6.4: Significant wave height and zero up-crossing period for sea states of different return periods

The effect of more severe sea states are analysed by comparing the deviations obtained for the three different sea states given in Table 6.4. Figure 6.9 illustrates the relative maximum deviations found. The three cases are seen to give very equal results. This is not unexpected, considering the experience gained from the regular wave analyses. The main difference between the sea state with 1 year return period, and the sea state with 100 years return period is in the significant wave height. The wave height alone does not affect the relative deviation, as concluded in section 6.1.2 The difference in zero up-crossing period is seen from Table 6.4 to be only 2 seconds between the 1 year and 100 year return periods. This difference can hence not be expected to give any large effects to the outcome, and the small differences between the different sea states seem reasonable.

### 6.3 Evaluation of the results

To decide what is a satisfactory accuracy is not straightforward, as a given accuracy might be considered sufficient in some cases and insufficient in other. For a situation where the memory effects constitutes a small part of the total forces acting on a


Figure 6.9: Effect of more severe sea states
structure, a rough estimate might be sufficient. However, if the memory effects constitutes a large part of the total forces on the structure, the accuracy might be crucial for the simulated vessel response. In general, a good accuracy is always best, but the additional accuracy comes with a cost in the form of slower calculations and higher computer memory requirements.

Considering the results obtained from the analyses conducted in MATLAB, a time interval of approximately 25 seconds should be sufficient to yield an accuracy of $99 \%$, i.e. less than $1 \%$ in maximum deviation. Saving the time history of 25 seconds should not induce too high costs in terms of computational memory requirements. Considering Table 6.3, reducing the error with $0.5 \%$, from $1 \%$ to $0.5 \%$ costs approximately an additional $12-13$ seconds. This is an increase of $50 \%$ in storage requirements, only to achieve an additional $0.5 \%$ in accuracy. Thus, including 25 seconds in the time history seems to be an appropriate choice.

However, the analyses conducted in this thesis only considers uncoupled heave motion for a rectangular cross-section oscillating in heave at the free surface. As discussed in section 3.1.2 the added mass and frequency coefficients depends on the motion mode and cross-sectional geometry, as well as the submergence. Different values for the $A(\omega)$ term might result in a different retardation function, which again might change the time interval necessary to obtain a sufficient accuracy in the approximated convolution integral. More analyses should thus be conducted in order to state a specific minimum time interval to be included in the 'memory'.

## Chapter 7

## Implementation in USFOS

On the basis of the experience obtained with the single degree of freedom system dealt with in chapter 5 and 6 a brief description is given of how frequency dependent added mass and damping can be implemented in USFOS.

### 7.1 Program flow

Figure 7.1 shows a possible program flow of the subroutine that must be written in Fortran code and implemented in USFOS. The first phase consists of collecting data. The cross-sectional geometry is taken as input from the existing USFOS code. The subroutine then checks whether or not information of either $A_{i j}(\omega)$ or $B_{i j}(\omega)$ is known. If not, the program flow is returned to the gathering of cross-sectional data. If the required information is known, the program proceed to the second phase. $A_{i j}(\infty)$ or $B_{i j}(\infty)$ is taken as input from the existing USFOS code, and $h_{i j}$ is calculated. The accuracy is then verified by inverse calculation as described in section 4.3. If a predefined requirement is met, the program flow proceeds to the third phase and if not, the entire process must start over.

In the third phase of the subroutine, the time interval defining the amount of time history stored is taken as input. The convolution integral is the calculated, and the last phase of the subroutine is entered. Here, the structures displacement, velocity and acceleration are taken as input from the existing program, and the equation of motion in the time domain is calculated and returned as output.


Figure 7.1: Flow chart showing a possible program flow of the subroutine in USFOS

## Chapter 8

## Concluding Remarks

### 8.1 Conclusion

Frequency dependence of the diffraction and radiation loads on a floating offshore structure might be implemented in USFOS using memory functions expressed by convolution integrals. One of the terms in each convolution integral is a retardation function, and the procedure of establishing the retardation function requires information of either the added mass coefficients or the damping coefficients to be known for all frequencies. A detailed information over the entire frequency range is necessary for a satisfactory accuracy of the retardation function to be achieved. Digital reading of the data from a scanned plot did not produce an accurate retardation function. This was demonstrated by verifying the accuracy of the retardation function by inverse calculation.

It is possible to obtain a good accuracy of the memory function by including only a short time span in the convolution integral. The analyses conducted in MATLAB for a single-degree of freedom system simulating a platform oscillating in heave, showed that a time span of 25 seconds was sufficient to achieve an error of $1 \%$ compared to the full convolution integral. The analyses showed that the relative deviation of the limited integral was independent of the amplitude of the waves the structure was exposed to. The amount of memory needed to obtain a certain accuracy does however depend on the wave period. Waves with long periods require longer time spans included in the memory than waves with shorter periods.

The main findings might be summarized as follows:

- Extreme caution must be taken in establishing the retardation function, as this function is very sensitive to the frequency dependent added mass or damping coefficients.
- The time span that needs to be included in the convolution integral to achieve
a certain accuracy is independent of the amplitude of the waves the structure is subjected to.
- Long wave periods require larger time spans included in the memory function than the smaller wave periods do.
- A time span of 25 seconds was found to be sufficient to achieve a maximum deviation of $1 \%$ compared to the maximum value of the full convolution integral for a rectangular cross-section oscillating at the free surface in uncoupled heave motion.


### 8.2 Recommendations for further work

Many aspects of the calculations performed in this thesis can be further investigated. The importance of the memory terms might be investigated by calculating the total motion response of a platform oscillating in incident waves. The results from an analysis conducted using the time-domain equation of motion might then be compared to the results from an analysis conducted assuming constant added mass and damping terms. This was initially intended to be within the scope of this thesis, but was omitted due to time restrictions.

The amount of time that needs to be included in the memory functions might be further investigated by calculating the retardation functions for other motion modes. Finding the retardation function in heave for other cross-sectional geometries and using that as a basis for the convolution integral could also be interesting. Different retardation functions might require that a different time span is included in the convolution integral to obtain an accuracy of $1 \%$.

Finally, and most interestingly, a subroutine must be written in Fortran to calculate the motion response in the time domain. This subroutine might be tested by calculating the motion response of a platform pontoon, and compare the result to a similar analysis conducted in an extended version of the MATLAB program. The result might then be verified by comparison to results obtained from other programs known to be accurate.

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## Appendix A

## The convolution integral explained

Convolution is a mathematical operation on two functions $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$, over the same variable, e.g. $f_{1}(t)$ and $f_{2}(t)$. The convolution produces a third function that describes how the first function modifies the second one, and conversely; the resulting function can be seen as how the second function modifies the first function [20]. The convolution is a mathematical operation "giving the area overlap between the two functions as a function of the amount that one of the original functions is translated" 8].

The convolution of two functions is denoted $*$ and is written as in equation (A.1). $\tau$ is used as a "dummy variable"; a variable used to shift $f_{2}$ through time $t[20]$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{1}(t) * f_{2}(t)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{1}(\tau) \cdot f_{2}(t-\tau) d \tau \tag{A.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

This process can be explained through the following steps, illustrated by Figure A.1 to A. 4 .

1. Start out with two functions $f_{1}(t)$ and $f_{2}(t)$. Express the two functions in terms of a dummy variable $\tau: f_{1}(\tau)$ and $f_{2}(\tau)$ as shown in Figure A.1
2. Reflect one of the functions: $f_{2}(\tau) \rightarrow f_{2}(-\tau) . f_{2}$ is now time-inverted. Leave the other function, $f_{1}(\tau)$ fixed in $\tau$-space. This is shown in Figure A.2.
3. By adding a time-offset, $t, f_{2}(t-\tau)$ is allowed to slide along the $\tau$-axis [8]. "Start $t$ at $-\infty$ and slide it all the way to $+\infty$. Wherever the two functions intersect, find the integral of their product" [8]. This process is shown in Figure A. 3 to A. 4 .

The result is a sliding, weight-average of function $f_{1}(\tau)$, where the weighting function is $f_{2}(\tau)$.


Figure A.1: $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ as functions of $\tau$ [8]


Figure A.2: $f_{2}$ time-inverted while $f_{1}$ is fixed [8]


Figure A.3: Time-offset added so $f_{2}$ can be shifted through $\tau$ [ $]$



Figure A.4: Shifting of $f_{2}(t-\tau)$ through $f_{2}(\tau)$ [8]
Following is a list of properties useful when handling convolution integrals and a set of equations, equations A.2 to A.6, showing how the different mathematical operations can be performed on the convolution integrals [20]:

Communicative property: Changing the order of the operands does not change the result.

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{1}(t) * f_{2}(t)=f_{2}(t) * f_{1}(t) \tag{A.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Distributive property: The order of the mathematical operations can be over-
ruled by parentheses.

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{1}(t) *\left[f_{2}(t)+f_{3}(t)\right]=f_{1}(t) * f_{2}(t)+f_{1}(t) * f_{3}(t) \tag{A.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Associative property: The order in which the operations are performed within an expression containing two or more of the same associative operator in a row does not matter as long as the sequence of the operands is not changed.

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{1}(t) *\left[f_{2}(t) * f_{3}(t)\right]=\left[f_{1}(t) * f_{2}(t)\right] * f_{3}(t) \tag{A.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Shift property: If equation A.5 is true, then equation A. 6 is also true.

$$
\begin{align*}
f_{1}(t) * f_{2}(t) & =c(t)  \tag{A.5}\\
f_{1}\left(t-T_{1}\right) * f_{2}\left(t-T_{2}\right) & =c\left(t-T_{1}-T_{2}\right) \tag{A.6}
\end{align*}
$$

## Appendix B

## MATLAB: Main program

```
    %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
    % Marianne Mellbye Larsen: Master thesis 2013 %
                                    - Main program -
    %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
clear % Clears all variables from the workspace
clc % Clears the command window
close all % Close all plots
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Properties for plots:
set(0, 'DefaultAxesFontSize', 11);
set(0, 'DefaultTextInterpreter', 'Latex');
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
disp('— PROGRAM STARTED
```

$\qquad$

``` ')
% Get input from user:
maxT = input('Choose end time (e.g. 100): '); % End time
dt = input('Choose time increment (e.g. 0.1): '); % Time increment
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%ᄋ%ᄋ%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Let user choose wave type:
type = menu('Select wave type', 'Regular wave', 'Single regular ...
    wave excursion', 'Irregular sea');
if (type == 1)
    disp('Regular wave chosen')
    zeta_a = input('Choose wave amplitude in meters (e.g. 5): ');
    T = input('Choose wave period in seconds (e.g. 5): ');
    % Finding a vector of vertical velocities at different times t ...
        for a wave at position x = 0:
```

```
    if (T < maxT || T == maxT) % Wave period must be shorter ...
        than maximum time
        continualWaveVel = regWave(maxT, dt, zeta_a, T);
    else
        disp('Invalid combination of period T and end time maxT ...
        chosen, at least one wave period must be included in maxT')
    end
    disp('continualWaveVel:')
    disp(continualWaveVel)
elseif (type == 2)
    disp('Single regular wave excursion chosen')
    zeta_a = input('Choose wave amplitude in meters (e.g. 5): ');
    T = input('Choose wave period in seconds (e.g. 5): ');
    % Finding a vector of vertical velocities at different times t ...
        for a wave at position x = 0:
    if (T<maxT || T == maxT)
        singleWaveVel = singleRegWave(maxT, dt, zeta_a, T);
    else
        disp('Invalid combination of period T and end time maxT ...
                chosen, at least one wave period must be included in ...
                maxT')
    end
    disp('singleWaveVel')
    disp(singleWaveVel)
elseif (type == 3)
    disp('Irregular sea chosen')
    N = input('Choose number of wave components (e.g. 15): ');
    H_S = input('Choose significant wave height in meters (e.g. 5): ');
    T_Z = input('Choose mean zero up-crossing period (e.g. 10): ');
    % Finding a vector of vertical velocities for an irregular sea ...
        state at position x = 0:
    if (T_Z < maxT || T_Z == maxT)
        irrSeaVel = irrSea(maxT, dt, N, H_S, T_Z);
    else
        disp('Invalid combination of "period" T_Z and end time maxT ...
            chosen, increase maxT or decrease T_Z')
    end
% disp('irrSeaVel:')
% disp(irrSeaVel)
end
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Finding the retardation function using a damping related approach:
h = retardationD(dt, maxT);
disp('h(t)')
disp(h')
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Performing the convolution:
if (type == 1)
    % Calculating the convolution integral for continual wave:
    contConvTerm = contConvolution(continualWaveVel, h, dt, maxT);
    disp('contConvTerm:')
```

```
    disp(contConvTerm)
elseif (type == 2)
    % Calculating the convolution integral for single wave excursion:
    singleConvTerm = contConvolution(singleWaveVel, h, dt, maxT);
    disp('singleConvTerm:')
    disp(singleConvTerm)
elseif (type == 3)
    % Calculating the convolution integral for irregular seas:
    irrConvTerm = contConvolution(irrSeaVel, h, dt, maxT);
    disp('irrConvTerm:')
    disp(irrConvTerm)
end
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
disp('— PROGRAM ENDED
    ')
```


## Appendix C

## regWave.m

```
    %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
    % Marianne Mellbye Larsen: Master thesis 2013 %
    % - Function to find the vertical velocity of %
                            a regular wave - %
    %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
function vel = regWave(maxT, dt, zeta_a, T)
    disp('_ Continual regular wave function started __')
    % Time and x-vector with increment dt:
    x = 0:dt:maxT; % x vector [m]
    t = 0:dt:maxT; % Time vector [s]
    % Constants:
    g = 9.81; % Acceleration of gravity [m/s^2]
    % Wave parameters:
    omega = 2*pi/T; % Circular frequency [s^-1]
    k = omega^2/g; % Wave number [m^-1]
    % Stillwater-line:
    stillWater = zeros(length(x),1);
    % Vectors of the wave profile and vertical velocities at }\textrm{x}=0\mathrm{ :
    prof = zeros(length(t),1);
    vel = zeros(length(t),1);
    for i = 1:length(t)
        prof(i) = zeta_a*sin(omega*t(i));
        vel(i) = omega*zeta_a*cos(omega*t(i));
    end
    %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%% PLOT %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
    % Speeds up the animation of the wave:
    increment = 1;
```

```
    if length(t) > 501
        increment = floor(length(t)/500);
    end
    % Plotting the wave animation:
    for i = 1:increment:length(t)
        j = t(i);
        zeta = zeta_a*sin(omega*j - k*x);
        w = omega*zeta_a*cos(omega*j - k*x);
        figure(1)
        subplot (2,1,1)
        plot(x, stillWater, 'Linestyle', '__', 'LineWidth', 2, ...
        'Color', 0.75*[1 1 1]);
    hold on
    plot(x, zeta)
    plot(x, w, 'r')
    axis([0 maxT -20 20])
    xlabel('x [m]');
    str = {'Wave elevation [m]', 'Vertical velocity [m/s]'};
    ylabel(str);
    title('Continual regular wave propagation', 'FontSize', 14);
    hleg1 = legend('Still water level', 'Wave profile', ...
        'Vertical velocity');
    set(hleg1,'Location', 'NorthEast', 'Interpreter', 'Latex')
    regWavePlot = gcf;
    saveas(regWavePlot, 'Plots\regWavePlot', 'png');
    hold off
        if (i > 200)
        break; % Stop the animation (exit the for loop)
    end
    % Create movie frame
    M(i) = getframe;
    end
    disp('_Continual regular wave function closed __')
end
```


## Appendix D

## singleRegWave.m

```
    %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
    % Marianne Mellbye Larsen: Master thesis 2013 %
    % - Function to find the vertical velocity - %
    % - of a single wave excursion - %
    %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
function singleVelShort = singleRegWave(maxT, dt, zeta_a, T)
    disp('_}\mathrm{ Single wave function started _
    % Time and x-vector with increment dt:
    x = 0:dt:maxT; % x vector [m]
    t = 0:dt:maxT; % Time vector [s]
    % Constants:
    g = 9.81; % Acceleration of gravity [m/s^2]
    % Wave parameters:
    omega = 2*pi/T; % Circular frequency [s^-1]
    k = omega^2/g; % Wave number [m^-1]
    % Calculating the wavelength:
    lambda = 2*pi/k; % [m]
    % Number of x-steps in one wave excursion:
    stepX = ceil(lambda/dt);
    % Amplitude and vertical velocity for one single wave excursion ...
        at }\textrm{x}=0\mathrm{ :
    singleAmp = zeros(length(t),1);
    singleVel = zeros(length(t),1);
    for i = 1:length(t)
        time = t(i);
        if time \leq T
        singleAmp(i) = zeta_a*sin(omega*time);
        singleVel(i) = omega*zeta_a*cos(omega*time);
```

```
        end
end
% Vertical velocity in vector of length one period at x=0:
stepT = length(0:dt:T);
singleVelShort = zeros(stepT,1);
for i = 1:length(singleVelShort)
    time = t(i);
    singleVelShort(i) = omega*zeta_a*cos(omega*time);
end
% Still-water level:
stillWater = zeros(length(x),1);
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%% PLOT %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Wave profile and vertical velocity at t=0:
wave = zeros(stepX,1);
velo = zeros(stepX,1);
for i = 1:stepX
    wave(i) = zeta_a*sin(-k*x(i));
    velo(i) = omega*zeta_a*cos(-k*x(i));
end
% Plotting the wave:
offset = 0;
singleZeta = zeros(length(t),1);
singleW = zeros(length(t),1);
for i = 1:length(t)
    if (offset == 0)
        singleZeta(1:length(wave),1) = wave;
        singleZeta(length(wave) +1:length(t),1) = 0;
        singleW(1:length(velo),1) = velo;
        singleW(length(velo)+1:length(t),1) = 0;
    elseif (offset < length(t)-length(wave))
        singleZeta(1:offset,1) = 0;
        singleZeta(offset+1:offset+length(wave),1) = wave;
        singleZeta(offset+length(wave)+1:length(t),1) = 0;
        singleW(1:offset,1) = 0;
        singleW(offset+1:offset+length(velo),1) = velo;
        singleW(offset+length(velo)+1:length(t),1) = 0;
    elseif (offset < length(t))
        singleZeta(1:offset,1) = 0;
        singleZeta(offset+1:length(t),1) = ...
            wave(1:(length(t)-offset),1);
        singleW(1:offset,1) = 0;
        singleW(offset+1:length(t),1) = ...
            velo(1:(length(t)-offset),1);
        else
            singleZeta = 0;
```

```
O
end
    offset = offset + 3; % Speeds up the animation
    if offset > length(t)
        break; % Stop the animation (exit the for loop)
        end
        figure(1)
        subplot (2,1,1)
        plot(x, stillWater, 'Linestyle', '__', 'Color', 0.75*[1 1 1]);
        hold on
        plot(x, singleZeta)
        plot(x, singleW, 'r')
        axis([0 maxT -20 20])
        xlabel('x [m]')
        str = {'Wave elevation [m]', 'Vertical velocity [m/s]'};
        ylabel(str);
        title('Single excursion wave propagation', 'EontSize',12)
        hleg1 = legend('Still water level', 'Wave profile', ...
            'Vertical velocity');
            set(hleg1,'Location', 'NorthEast', 'Interpreter', 'Latex')
            singleRegWavePlot = gcf;
            saveas(singleRegWavePlot, 'Plots\singleRegWavePlot', 'png');
            hold off
        if (i > 200)
            break; % Stop the animation (exit the for loop)
        end
            % Create movie frame
            M(i) = getframe;
end
disp('_ Single wave function closed
    ')
end
```


## Appendix E

## irrSea.m

```
    %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
    % Marianne Mellbye Larsen: Master thesis 2013 %
    - Function to find the vertical velocity of %
    an irregular sea state - %
    %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
function vel_sum = irrSea(maxT, dt, N, H_S, T_Z)
    disp('_ Irregular sea function started _
    % Time and x-vector with increment dt:
    x = 0:dt:maxT;
    t = 0:dt:maxT;
    % Constants:
    g = 9.81; % Acceleration of gravity
    % Finding random phase angles (epsilon):
    eps = rand (N,1)*2*pi;
    disp('eps:')
    disp(eps)
    % Delta omega:
    domega = (2.18-0.2)/(N-1);
    % Creating a vector of amplitudes:
    zeta_a = zeros(N,1);
    % Calculating the amplitudes from the wave spectrum:
    S = @(omega) (H_S^2*T_Z/(8*pi^2)) * (2*pi./(omega.*T_Z)).^ 5 .* ....
        exp(-(1/pi)*(2*pi./(omega.*T_Z)).^4);
    for i = 1:N
        lower = (i-1)*domega;
        upper = i*domega;
        int = integral(S,lower,upper);
        zeta_a(i) = sqrt(2*int);
```

```
end
disp('zeta_a:')
disp(zeta_a)
% Plotting the wave spectrum:
omega_plot = 0:0.01:2;
S_plot = zeros(1,length(omega_plot));
disp('omega_plot:')
disp(omega_plot)
disp('S_plot:')
disp(S_plot)
for i = 1:length(omega_plot)
    S_plot(i) = (H_S^2*T_Z/(8*pi^2)) * ...
        (2*pi/(omega_plot(i)*T_Z))^5 * ...
        exp(-(1/pi)*(2*pi/(omega_plot(i)*T_Z))^4);
    end
    figure(80)
    hold on
    plot(omega_plot, S_plot)
    grid on
    hold off
    % Finding the frequency values:
    omega_mid = zeros(N,1);
for i = 1:N
    omega_mid(i,1) = 0.2 + (i-1)*domega;
end
disp('omega_mid:')
disp(omega_mid)
    % Calculating periods:
    T = zeros(N,1);
    for i = 1:N
    T(i,1) = (2*pi)/omega_mid(i,1);
end
disp('T:')
disp(T)
% Wave number:
k = zeros(N,1);
for i=1:N
    k(i,1) = omega_mid(i,1)^2/g;
end
disp('k:')
disp(k)
    % Still-water level:
    stillWater = zeros(1,length(x));
    % Vector of the wave profile and vertical velocities at x=0;
    prof = zeros(length(t), N);
    prof_sum = zeros(length(t), 1);
    vel = zeros(length(t), N);
    vel_sum = zeros(length(t), 1);
    for i = 1:length(t)
        for n = 1:N
```

```
            prof(i,n) = zeta_a(n,1)*sin(omega_mid(n,1)*t(i) + ...
            eps(n,1));
            vel(i,n) = ...
                omega_mid(n,1)*zeta_a (n,1)*cos(omega_mid (n,1)*t(i) ...
        + eps(n,1));
    end
        prof_sum(i,1) = sum(prof(i,:));
        vel_sum(i,1) = sum(vel(i,:));
end
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%% PLOT %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Plotting the wave:
zeta = zeros(N,length(t));
zeta_tot = zeros(1,length(t));
w = zeros(N,length(t));
w_tot = zeros(1,length(t));
for i = 1: length(t)
    for n = 1:N
        zeta(n,:) = zeta_a(n,1)*sin(omega_mid(n,1)*t(i) - ...
        k(n,1)*x + eps(n,1));
        w(n,:) = ...
                omega_mid (n,1)*zeta_a (n,1)*cos(omega_mid (n,1)*t(i) ...
                -k(n,1)*x + eps(n,1));
    end
    for j = 1:length(t)
        zeta_tot = sum(zeta);
        w_tot = sum(w);
    end
        % Plotting:
        figure(1)
        subplot (2,1,1)
        plot(x, stillWater, 'Linestyle', ':', 'LineWidth', 2, ...
            'Color', 0.75*[11 1 1])
    hold on
    plot(x,zeta_tot)
    plot(x,w_tot, 'r')
    axis([0 maxT -4 4])
    xlabel('x [m]')
    str = {'Wave elevation [m]', 'Vertical velocity [m/s]'};
    ylabel(str)
    title('Irregular seas', 'FontSize', 12)
    hleg1 = legend('Still water level', 'Wave profile', ...
            'Vertical velocity');
    set(hleg1,'Location', 'NorthEast', 'Interpreter', 'Latex')
    irrSeaPlot = gcf;
    saveas(irrSeaPlot, 'Plots\irrSeaPlot', 'png');
    hold off
    if i > 200
            break; % Stop the animation (exit the for loop)
    end
    % Create movie frame:
```



## Appendix F

## retardationD.m

```
    %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
    % Marianne Mellbye Larsen: Master thesis 2013 %
    % - Function to find the retardation function - %
    %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
function h_nondim = retardationD(dt, maxT)
    disp('_ Retardation function started _
    % Platform dimensions (the beam to draft ratio must be two):
    B = 16; % Beam [m]
    D = B/2; % Draft [m]
    % Constants:
    rho_sw = 1025; % Density seawater [kg/m^3]
    g = 9.81; % Acceleration of gravity [m/s^2]
    % Damping in heave for 2D platform as omega -> infinity:
    B_inf = 0; % [kg/m]
    % Vector of damping values at spesific omega values:
    stepsize = 0.001;
    valueRange =1.6; }\quad%\textrm{B}\mathrm{ is defined for omega < 1.6
    nSteps = valueRange/stepsize +1;
    B_coef = zeros(nSteps,1);
    omega_nondim = zeros(nSteps,1);
    for i = 1:nSteps
        omega_nondim(i,1) = (i-1)*stepsize;
        B_coef(i,1) = -0.6591*omega_nondim(i,1)^4 + ...
            3.1149*omega_nondim(i,1)^3 - ...
            4.9105*omega_nondim(i,1)^2 + 2.6013*omega_nondim(i,1) ...
            - 0.0298;
    end
    % Evaluate h33(t):
    t_range = maxT;
```

```
n_t_steps = t_range/dt + 1;
time = zeros(n_t_steps,1);
for i = 1:n_t_steps
    time(i,1) = (i-1)*dt;
end
zero_ref = zeros(n_t_steps,1); % Plotting a zero reference vector
h_eq = @(w)(2/pi) * ((-0.6591*(w*sqrt(B/(2*g)))^4 + ...
        3.1149*(w*sqrt (B/(2*g)) )^3 - 4.9105*(w*sqrt (B/(2*g)) )^2 + . . 
        2.6013* (w*sqrt (B/(2*g))) - ...
        0.0298)*rho_sw*B*D/sqrt(B/(2*g)) - B_inf)*cos(w*(time));
h = integral(h_eq,0,1.6,'ArrayValued',true);
% Non-dimentionals for plotting h33:
t_nondim = time*sqrt(g/(B/2));
h_nondim = h/(2*rho_sw*g*D);
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%% PLOTS %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Properties for plots:
set(0, 'DefaultAxesFontSize', 10);
set(0, 'DefaultTextInterpreter', 'Latex');
% Plotting non-dimentional damping in heave:
figure(2)
subplot (2,1,1)
hold on
plot(omega_nondim, B_coef, 'k')
y1_max = max(B_coef)*1.2;
axis([0.0 valueRange 0.0 y1_max])
xlabel('$\omega \sqrt{\frac{B}{2g}}$')
ylabel('$\frac{B_{33}}{\rho_{sw} B D}$', 'Rotation', 0.0)
title('Damping coefficient in heave as function of ...
    frequency','FontSize',12)
hleg2 = legend('Damping coefficient in heave');
set(hleg2,'Location', 'NorthEast', 'Interpreter', 'Latex')
heaveOmegaPlot = gcf;
saveas(heaveOmegaPlot, 'Plots\heaveOmegaPlot', 'png');
hold off
% Plotting dimentionless retardation function h:
figure(3)
subplot (2,1,1)
plot(t_nondim, zero_ref, 'Linestyle', '__', 'Color', 0.75*[1 1 1])
hold on
plot(t_nondim, h_nondim, 'g')
y4_min = min(h_nondim)*1.1;
y4_max = max(h_nondim)*1.1;
axis([0 t_range y4_min y4_max])
xlabel('t $\sqrt{\frac{2g}{B}}$')
ylabel('$\frac{h}{2 \rho_{sw}gD}$', 'Rotation', 0.0)
title('Dimensionless retardation function $h(t)$ in heave', ...
    'FontSize', 12)
hleg3 = legend('Zero reference', 'Retardation function ...
    $h_{33}(t)$');
```

```
85
86 set(hleg3,'Location', 'NorthEast', 'Interpreter', 'Latex')
    retDPlot = gcf;
    saveas(retDPlot, 'Plots\retDPlot', 'png');
    hold off
    disp('_ Retardation function closed __')
end
```


## Appendix G

## contConvolution.m

```
    %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
    % Marianne Mellbye Larsen: Master thesis 2012 %
    % - Function to find the convolution of two functions - %
    %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
function answer = contConvolution(etaDot,h,dt,endt)
    disp('_}\mathrm{ Convolution function started —_')
    % Time vector t:
    t = 0:dt:endt;
    % Creating vectors for the results of the convolution integrals:
    result = zeros(length(t)+1,1);
    result_limits = zeros(length(t)+1,1);
    % Creating a zero reference for plotting:
    zero_ref = zeros(length(t), 1);
    % Making etaDot a vector of length(t) for plotting:
    etaDotPlot = zeros(length(t),1);
    for i = 1:length(etaDot)
    etaDotPlot(i) = etaDot(i);
    end
    % Plotting the two functions that will be convolved vs time t:
    figure(5)
    plot(t, zero_ref, 'Linestyle', '__', 'Color', 0.75*[1 1 1])
    hold on
    plot(t, etaDotPlot, 'r')
    plot(t, h, 'g')
    ymin = min(min(etaDot), min(h))*1.1;
    ymax = max(max(etaDot), max(h))*1.1;
    axis([0 endt ymin ymax])
    xlabel('time $t$ [s]')
    title('$\dot{\eta}(t)$ and $h(t)$', 'FontSize',12)
```

```
% Defining dummy time variable T:
T = -endt:dt:endt;
T = -endt:dt:endt;
zero_t_index = ceil(length(T)/2); % Finding the index of t=0 ...
    in vector T:
% Expressing the functions in terms of dummy variable T:
etaDot_T_mirror = zeros(length(T),1);
h_T = zeros(length(T),1);
for i = 1:length(h)
    h_T(zero_t_index - 1 + i) = h(i);
end
for i = 1:length(etaDot)
    etaDot_T_mirror(zero_t_index + 1 - i) = etaDot(i);
end
% Creating a zero reference in T for plotting:
zero_ref_T = zeros(length(T), 1);
etaDot_mirror = zeros(length(etaDot),1);
for i = 1:length(etaDot)
    etaDot_mirror(i) = etaDot(length(etaDot) + 1 - i);
end
% Adding zeros after the vectors because of length issues when ...
    shifting ETA:
ETA = [etaDotPlot, zeros(length(etaDotPlot),1)];
H = [h, zeros(length(h),1)];
% Vector of t values used in plotting of the convolution:
t_result = zeros(length(result), 1);
zero_ref_result = zeros(length(result),1);
temp = 0:dt:2*endt;
for i = 1:length(result)
    t_result(i) = temp(i);
end
% Defining global paramter for printing of matrix to latex:
global maxDiff;
maxDiff = zeros(endt,3);
% Choose time span to be included in the limited integral:
timespan = 10; % [s]
% or run a loop over many timespans:
% for timespan = 1:endt
% disp(timespan)
    % Time span in steps:
    timeSpan_steps = timespan/dt;
    product = zeros(length(result));
```

```
result = zeros(length(t)+1,1);
result_limits = zeros(length(t)+1,1);
% Lower limit:
low_limit = zeros(length(t),1);
for i = 1:length(t)
    if i \leq timeSpan_steps
        low_limit(i,1) = 0;
    else
        low_limit(i,1) = t(i-timeSpan_steps);
    end
end
% Compare:
comp = zeros(length(t),2);
comp(:,1) = low_limit(:,1);
% Figure used for plotting of animation (slow):
figure(6)
offset = -length(etaDot_mirror); % Position relative to ...
    t=0 of first non-zero element in etaDot_mirror
for i = 1:length(result)
    comp(i,2) = t(i);
    etaDot_shift = zeros(length(T), 1); % Empty ...
        etaDot_shift
    if offset < (length(t) - length(etaDot_mirror))
        for j = 1:length(etaDot_mirror)
            etaDot_shift(zero_t_index + offset + j) = ...
                etaDot_mirror(j);
        end
    else
        etaDot_shift(zero_t_index + offset + ...
                1:length(etaDot_shift)) = ...
                etaDot_mirror(1:(length(T)-zero_t_index-offset));
    end
    % Calculating the convolution integral from 0 to t:
    for j = 1:length(h)
        if (i-j+1 > 0)
                product (j) = ETA(j) * H(i - j + 1);
                result(i+1) = result(i+1) + (ETA(j) * H(i - j + ...
                    1)) *dt;
        end
    end
    % Calculating the convolution integral from t-timeSpan ...
        to t:
    for j = 1:length(h)
        if (i-j+1>0)
                if (j > low_limit(i)/dt)
                    result_limits(i+1) = result_limits(i+1) + ...
                    (ETA(j) * H(i - j + 1))*dt;
        end
```

```
|\mp@code{lum end (timespan == l |l timespan == 10) }
```





```
    end
    disp('res:')
    disp(res)
    maxIntegralValue = max(abs(res (:, 1)));
    maxDiff(timespan,1) = timespan;
    maxDiff(timespan,2) = max(abs(res(:,3)));
    maxDiff(timespan,3) = maxDiff(timespan, 2)/maxIntegralValue;
    maxError = max(res (:,4));
    disp('maxError:')
    disp(maxError)
    maxPercent = max(res (:,5));
    disp('maxPercent:')
    disp (maxPercent)
% end
answer = maxDiff(:, 3);
disp('answer:')
disp(answer)
% Figure:
figure(7)
subplot (2,1,1)
plot(t_result, zero_ref_result, 'Linestyle', '—_', 'Color', ...
    0.75*[1 1 1])
hold on
plot(t_result, result_limits, 'r')
plot(t_result, result, 'b')
axis([0 endt -40 40 ])
grid on
xlabel('time $t$ [s]')
title('Convolution of $\dot{\eta}(t-\tau)$ and $h(\tau)$', ...
    'FontSize',12)
hleg71 = legend('Zero reference', '$\int\limits_{t-t_1}^t ...
    \dot{\eta}(t-\tau) h(t) \, d\tau$', '$\int\limits_{0}^t ...
    \dot{\eta}(t-\tau) h(t) \, d\tau$');
set(hleg71,'Location', 'NorthEast', 'Interpreter', 'Latex')
hold off
subplot (2,1,2)
plot(t_result, zero_ref_result, 'Linestyle', '--', 'Color', ...
    0.75*[1 1 1])
hold on
plot(t_result, res(:,3), 'r')
axis([0 endt -10 10 ])
grid on
xlabel('time $t$ [s]')
title('Error')
hleg72 = legend('Zero reference', 'Error');
set(hleg72,'Location', 'NorthEast', 'Interpreter', 'Latex')
fig7Plot = gcf;
```

```
    saveas(fig7Plot, 'Plots\fig7Plot', 'png');
    hold off
    % Used only when the loop iterating over many time spans is ...
    activated:
    figure(8)
    subplot (2,1,1)
    hold on
    plot(maxDiff(:,1), maxDiff(:, 2), 'r')
    axis([1 length(maxDiff) 0 7 ])
    grid on
    xlabel('Time included in memory [s]')
    title('Deviation', 'FontSize',12)
    hleg81 = legend('Maximum deviation');
    set(hleg81,'Location', 'NorthEast', 'Interpreter', 'Latex')
    subplot (2,1,2)
    hold on
    plot(maxDiff(:,1), maxDiff(:, 3)*100, 'g')
    axis([1 length(maxDiff) 0 65 ])
    grid on
    xlabel('Time included in memory [s]')
    title('Maximum deviation in percent of highest value in full ...
    convolution integral', 'FontSize',12)
    hleg82 = legend('Maximum percentual deviation');
    set(hleg82,'Location', 'NorthEast', 'Interpreter', 'Latex')
    fig8Plot = gcf;
    saveas(fig8Plot, 'Plots\fig8Plot', 'png');
    hold off
    figure(9)
    subpl ot (2,1,2)
    hold on
    plot(maxDiff(:,1), maxDiff(:,3)*100, 'g')
    axis([1 length(maxDiff) 0 10 ])
    grid on
    xlabel('Time included in memory [s]')
    ylabel('\%', 'Rotation', 0.0)
    title('Maximum deviation in percent of highest value in full ...
    convolution integral', 'FontSize',12)
    hleg9 = legend('Maximum percentual deviation \quad');
    set(hleg9,'Location', 'NorthEast', 'Interpreter', 'Latex')
    fig9Plot = gcf;
    saveas(fig9Plot, 'Plots\fig9Plot', 'png');
    hold off
disp('
                                    Convolution function ended
                                    ')
end
```

