

# Experimental testing and simulations of an autonomous, self-propulsion and self-measuring tanker ship model

Ameen M. Bassam<sup>a,\*</sup>, Alexander B. Phillips<sup>c</sup>, Stephen R. Turnock<sup>b</sup>, Philip A. Wilson<sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Naval Architecture and Marine Engineering Department, Faculty of Engineering, Port Said University, Port Fouad, Egypt

<sup>b</sup>Fluid Structure Interactions Group, University of Southampton, Boldrewood Innovation Campus, SO16 7QF, UK

<sup>c</sup>National Oceanography Centre, Natural Environment Research Council, UK

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## Abstract

Improving the energy efficiency of ships has generated significant research interest due to the need to reduce operational costs and mitigate negative environmental impacts. Numerous hydrodynamic energy saving technologies have been proposed. Their overall performance needs to be assessed prior to implementation. A new approach to this evaluation is investigated at model scale which applies an approach comparable to that applied for the performance monitoring of a full scale ship. That is long duration testing that measures power consumption for given environmental and ship operating conditions and can use statistical analysis of the resultant large amount of data to identify performance gains. As a demonstration of the approach, an autonomous, self-propelled and self-measuring free running ship model of an Ice Class tanker is developed. A series of lake based and towing tank tests experiments have been conducted which included bollard pull, shaft efficiency, naked-hull, self-propulsion, and manoeuvrability tests. These investigated the efficiency improvement resulting from changing the ship operational trim and testing different bow designs. An associated mathematical model for the time domain simulation of the autonomous ship model provides an effective tool for data analysis. It has been demonstrated that the use of a suitably instrumented self-propelled autonomous ship model can provide long duration tests that incorporates the influence of varying environmental conditions and thereby identify marginal gains in ship energy efficiency.

*Keywords:* Ship energy efficiency, Tanker ship, Model testing, Simulink, Autonomous

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## 1. Introduction

Model testing is considered as the standard procedure of predicting ship resistance, powering, manoeuvrability and sea-keeping during the design stage enabling designers to predict the required full-scale ship installed power (Molland et al., 2011). Ship model experiments can also be used to provide deeper insight into the ship power requirements throughout a whole voyage including power margin due to environmental conditions such as wind and waves (ITTC, 2017) which is an essential element for studying different power systems such as hybrid electric systems and alternative power sources. Similarly, model testing allows the influence of any modifications to the ship hull or its operating conditions to be studied. However, commercial model testing is expensive, time-consuming and it suffers from scale effects. Advocates of computational fluid dynamics say that an approach based on numerical simulation offers a flexible environment to build, test, and analyse ship system performance (Neilson and Tabet, 1997). This allows the simulation environment user to optimize, tune, or test possible changes in the ship design parameters, surrounding environment conditions, investigate different power sources or energy management strategies without conducting experiments each time. Unfortunately the benefits of CFD reduce rapidly once realistic, dynamic conditions are considered as high resolution meshes with small time steps are required which requires massive computational power just

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\*Corresponding author

Email address: ab2e12@alumni.soton.ac.uk (Ameen M. Bassam )

24 to consider a single design condition. Ship model experimental work is still the most essential and reliable  
25 method for dynamic testing and validation (Bertram, 2012) and ship dynamic performance is more quickly  
26 assessed.

27 A major focus for the shipping industry is how to improve the energy efficiency of ships in order to:  
28 limit the negative environmental impact of sea transport, reduce fuel costs and therefore enhance ship prof-  
29 itability. As a result, technologies, measures, and mechanisms have been proposed and adopted including  
30 the introduction of the Energy Efficiency Design Index (EEDI) and the Ship Energy Efficiency Management  
31 Plan (SEEMP) by the International Maritime Organization (IMO) aiming to reduce ships fuel consumption  
32 and greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and to improve shipping energy efficiency (Smith et al., 2014; Rehmat-  
33 ulla et al., 2017). The EEDI is mandated for new ships and it requires a minimum environmental cost in  
34 terms of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions divided by transport work. Moreover, the EEDI as a standard aims to reduce GHG  
35 emissions using technical and design-based solutions such as optimizing hull dimensions, engines and pro-  
36 pellers or using unconventional fuels and renewable energy sources. Meanwhile, the SEEMP is formulated  
37 for all ships and it targets the operational measures and practices such as weather routing and trim/draft  
38 optimization (Rehmatulla et al., 2017; Bazari and Longva, 2011).

39 Since there are various EEDI and SEEMP measures and technologies, selecting the optimal solution to  
40 be implemented for improving energy efficiency of a specific ship is a challenging issue. This is partially due  
41 to the lack of technical information about the overall implementation of such measures onboard ships and  
42 the fact that available data from IMO is limited and anonymous (Rehmatulla et al., 2017). In addition to  
43 technical risks, there is a business risk associated with investments in new energy efficiency technologies and  
44 its payback periods, life cycle and hidden costs (Rehmatulla and Smith, 2015).

45 Therefore, it is of significant importance to properly evaluate the effectiveness of ship energy efficiency  
46 suggested measures before its implementation. Also, EEDI calculation and verification are required for  
47 legislation by the IMO at the design stage through model testing which considers as the most important  
48 element of EEDI preliminary verification (Resolution MEPC.254(67), 2014). For example, model testing  
49 and simulation were used to study the influence of employing wavefoils on resistance and motion reduction of  
50 tanker ships in regular and irregular waves (Bøckmann and Steen, 2016). Also, to study ship motion control  
51 and guidance, an autonomous surface vehicle model of the tanker ship *Esso Osaka* has been developed for  
52 manoeuvrability testing (Moreira and Soares, 2011). Another autonomous self-propelled ship model of a  
53 tanker ship was also developed for manoeuvrability studies and control (Perera et al., 2012). For container  
54 ships, a study of ship motion control has used a free running ship model in experimental study where a  
55 simulation model has been built as well (Zheng et al., 2018). Moreover, a self-propelled unmanned free  
56 running model of a twin screw twin rudder ship has been developed and tested for manoeuvrability studies  
57 in (Coraddu et al., 2013) and the experimental results were also used to obtain a simplified manoeuvrability  
58 simulator on a model scale.

59 The aim of this study is to investigate the development of system that can acquire ship performance  
60 data, at low cost and in a range of suitably scaled wave conditions at model scale. Such a system requires  
61 a suitable body of water, usually an inland lake, and ideally a self-propelled, instrumented model that  
62 can acquire data automatically over relatively long periods of time (8 hours+). The targeted efficiency  
63 improvement measures are changing the ship operational conditions of trim and testing different bow designs  
64 for different loading conditions (Anderlini et al., 2013). The small changes in powering requirements resulted  
65 from changing the trim and bow design can be also identified statistically based on the experimental data.  
66 In order to perform this investigation, an autonomous, self-propulsion and self-measuring tanker ship model  
67 has been built and operated in towing tanks and natural open water body such as lakes to limit the cost  
68 of such investigations. The ship model is then mathematically modelled to develop a model simulator  
69 with the help of MATLAB/Simulink environment using its Simscape Power Systems (SPS) toolbox (SPS,  
70 2018) to be as a complementary to model testing allowing the study of changing the operational conditions  
71 without performing model testing each time which saves time, effort and cost (Coraddu et al., 2013). The  
72 experimental results are then used to validate the model simulator.

73 The main focus of this work is on the introduction of the autonomous tanker ship model and related  
74 experimental results in addition to introducing and validating the developed simulator. The paper is orga-  
75 nized as follows. Section 2 introduces the examined ship model and its main systems. Section 3 describes

76 the conducted experimental work using the ship model showing some example results. Section 4 illustrates  
 77 the ship model simulation implementation and validation. Finally, the conclusions and further work are  
 78 presented in Sections 5 and 6.

## 79 2. Ship model description

80 According to the last IMO GHG study, oil tankers dominates the total shipping fuel consumption with  
 81 container ships and bulk carriers. This fuel consumption dominates the ship operational cost where heavy  
 82 fuel oil is the dominant fuel type which deteriorates the environmental performance of shipping (Smith et al.,  
 83 2014; Argyros et al., 2014). Consequently, a 1/60 scale model tanker shown in Figure 1 has been developed  
 84 at the University of Southampton to study ship energy efficiency improvement using model testing and its  
 85 main particulars are shown in Table 1. Next, the main components of the model will be briefly described.



Figure 1: Tanker ship model in ballast condition

Table 1: Principal particulars of the examined Ice Class vessel

Parameter	unit	Ship	Model
Length overall	m	183.88	3.06
Length between perpendiculars	m	174	2.9
Breadth	m	32.2	0.54
Height	m	18.8	0.31
Draft (Full load)	m	11.02	0.1837
Draft (Ballast load)	m	6.91	0.1152
Service speed (Full load)	m/s	7.974	1.029
Service speed (Ballast load)	m/s	6.687	0.863
Displacement (Full load)	tonnes	49969	0.2257
Displacement (Ballast load)	tonnes	29773	0.1345
Block coefficient (Full load)		0.7994	0.7994
Block coefficient (Ballast load)		0.7596	0.7596

86 *2.1. Autonomy & Control*

87 For the model to be able to perform its required missions with high repeatability without the need for  
 88 continuous human control and expensive ocean basins, the ship model is built as autonomous. Moreover,  
 89 autonomous systems help to achieve more complex missions with longer duration and range in open-water  
 90 uncontrollable environments which allows the collection of large amounts of data with higher measurement  
 91 accuracy and cost efficiency than using towing tanks (Dunbabin et al., 2009). The control and autonomy of  
 92 the developed autonomous ship model has been written using the Robot Operating System (ROS) (ROS.org,  
 93 2018) in a hierarchical structure as shown in Figure 2. The hardware interface layer consists of software  
 94 drivers developed to interact with sensors and actuators. This level is responsible for reading the signals of  
 95 different sensors of the ship model, processing these signals, and then transferring them to other levels.

96 The controller layer contains the speed and heading controllers. The heading controller code calculates  
 97 the required rudder angle as a function of the difference between the compass current heading and the  
 98 required heading demand. The required heading demand is provided from the mission executive layer which  
 99 contains the codes of the required missions, tests and manoeuvres (e.g. straight run, circle, zig-zag, etc.)  
 100 to be executed. Then, the rudder angle demand is calculated using a standard PID controller due to its  
 101 robustness, simplicity, and ease of use and tuning (Moreira et al., 2007).

102 The safety system monitors all the hardware communications and continuously compares its current  
 103 values with the limit values to stop the system in case of the presence of any error. It is also possible to  
 104 control the ship model manually with ashore computer by sending direct commands in ROS to prevent any  
 105 problems such as collisions.

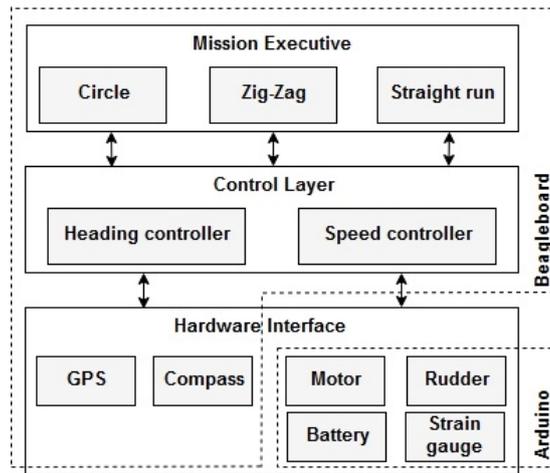


Figure 2: Overview of the tanker ship control system architecture

106 The central processing unit of the built ship model is a *Beagleboard xM* with 512 MB of RAM and 1  
 107 GHz Cortex-A8 processor. The *Beagleboard xM* was selected to take advantage of its tiny 3.25” by 3.25”  
 108 footprint, the ability of using storage media, 10/100 Ethernet, and 4 USB 2.0 ports which allows all the  
 109 components to be connected to the *BeagleBoard* directly (BeagleBoard, 2018). These components include  
 110 the *GlobalSat BU-353S4* GPS unit with USB interface and a 1 Hz sampling rate which is responsible for  
 111 providing geolocation and time information of the ship model during lake testing. The master Arduino is  
 112 also connected via a USB port and it reads the collected sensors data from the motor, rudder, battery, strain  
 113 gauge, etc. as shown in Figure 2. The master Arduino uses a Pro Mini (5 V/16 Mhz) microcontroller type  
 114 because of its suitable speed and price.

115 *2.2. Mechanical system*

116 The main components of the mechanical system power train include the electric motor, shafting system,  
 117 thrust block, and propeller. This power train is supported by linear bearings to be able to slide with less

118 friction losses allowing a longitudinal movement and free-floating for the entire system as shown in Figure  
 119 3. By applying this design concept, the developed propeller thrust is transferred solely by the thrust block  
 120 which minimizes losses and ensures accurate measurements of the thrust through the strain gauge. The  
 121 power train unit itself was made of aluminium *easyfix* tube system chosen for its light weight and ease of  
 122 use.

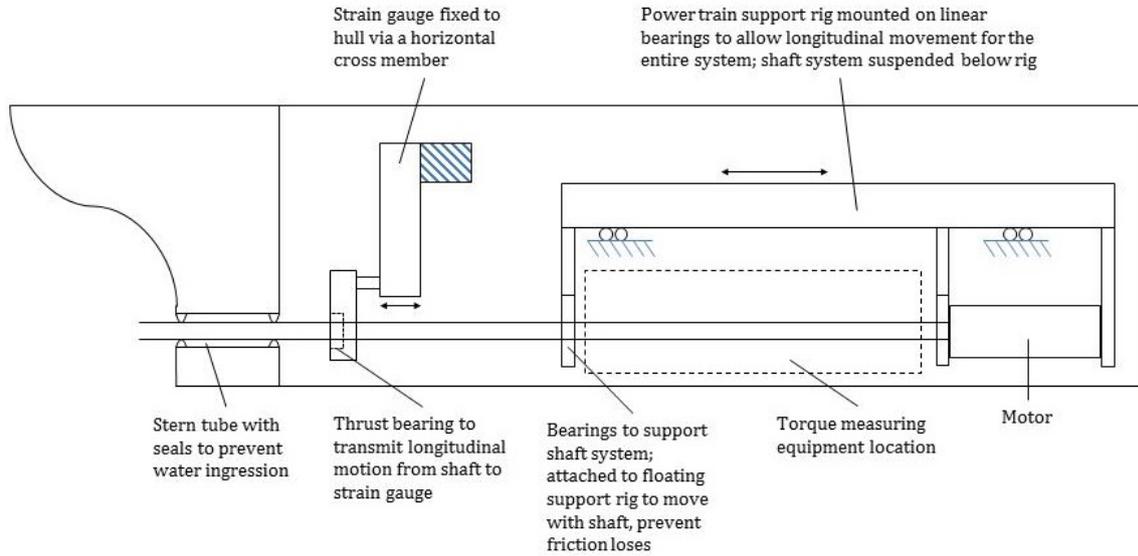


Figure 3: Power train assembly diagram (Anderlini et al., 2013)

123 By scaling down the resistance and power requirements of the full-scale ship, a suitable motor and  
 124 propeller were properly selected for the ship model. The operating torque and thrust requirements were  
 125 met by a *Maxon* 12 V DC motor with a maximum efficiency of 88% coupled to a 3.5:1 reduction gearbox.  
 126 This motor is controlled by a *SyRen50* Pulse Width Modulation (PWM) motor controller which controls the  
 127 motor applied voltage as a function of the motor demand value. The motor controller is also responsible for  
 128 measuring the motor rotational speed, voltage, and current. The measured motor current is then converted  
 129 to a motor torque using the motor torque constant of 16.4 mNm/amp supplied by the manufacturer (Maxon,  
 130 2018). Next, the motor torque is used to estimate the propeller torque as a function of the shaft efficiency.  
 131 The motor drives a 4 blades fixed pitch propeller which corresponds exactly to the model-ship scale ratio.

132 Based on the power requirements of the electric motor and other mechanical and electronic devices, 4  
 133 lead-acid batteries were decided to be used as a 12 V power source with a capacity of 60 amp-hour per  
 134 battery which could supply the ship model for at least 8-hours. Lead-acid batteries were chosen for its  
 135 relatively cheaper price and its weight which would be useful as ballast for the ship model. To step-down  
 136 the battery voltage from the 12 V level to power microcontrollers, a DC-DC converter with an efficiency of  
 137 93% was used.

138 In order to assess the performance of the built model in terms of the ability to perform autonomous  
 139 missions measuring its powering and maneuvering characteristics, a set of different tests in different envi-  
 140 ronments were performed as discussed in the following section.

### 141 3. Ship model testing & evaluation

142 The actual performance of the tanker ship model has been evaluated through different test environments  
 143 including laboratory and towing tanks and open-water environments. This section covers the conducted set  
 144 of testing using the ship model which included bollard pull, shaft efficiency, naked-hull, self-propulsion and  
 145 different manoeuvrability tests.

146 *3.1. Towing tank testing*

147 This experimental activity was carried out within the QinetiQ’s towing tank in UK which is 270 m  
 148 long, 12.2 m wide, and 5.4 m deep. Towing tank tests included bollard pull tests for the calibration of the  
 149 model’s thrust sensor for both full load and ballast conditions. As recommended for bollard pull test by the  
 150 International Towing Tank Conference (ITTC), the hull was affixed to the regularly checked carriage tow  
 151 post to measure the thrust values ( $T_C$ ) at different propeller speeds and zero ship model speed and equated  
 152 it with the readings produced by the load cell onboard the ship model ( $M_{raw}$ ) as shown in Figure 4a to  
 153 estimate the calibration coefficients and calibrate the model thrust readings for further tests.

154 The measured motor current during the bollard pull tests were then compared against the drained motor  
 155 current while detaching the propeller at various rotational speed in an attempt to find the shaft efficiency  
 156 which stayed roughly constant at different speeds and the average shaft efficiency was found to be about  
 157 71% as shown in Figure 4b. As it could be expected, a quite lower shaft efficiency was obtained at model  
 158 scale due to the higher shaft rotational speed compared to the full-scale ship. The shaft efficiency was  
 159 then used to estimate the propeller torque as a function of the motor torque but, for future work, a torque  
 160 dynamometer should be used instead for higher accuracy.

161 Naked-hull tests were also performed to determine the model naked-hull resistance at different loading  
 162 conditions of full load (FL) and ballast load (BL) at the model default trim (DT) as well as different trims  
 163 (T1 and T2) as an energy efficiency measure as shown in Figure 4c. The considered different values of trim  
 164 conditions were privately supplied by the shipping company for realistic loading conditions and it all fulfil  
 165 different stability and structure criteria and regulations.

166 The measured model drag from the tank carriage dynamometer was used to calculate the ship model  
 167 total resistance coefficient ( $C_T$ ) as a function of the water density ( $\rho$ ), model wetted surface area ( $S$ ), and  
 168 model speed ( $V$ ) using Equation 1.

$$C_T = \frac{Drag}{0.5\rho SV^2} \quad (1)$$

169 The model total resistance can be broken down into skin frictional resistance and residual resistance  
 170 according to Froude’s traditional approach (Molland et al., 2011). Accordingly, the total resistance coefficient  
 171 ( $C_T$ ) was used to calculate the residual resistance coefficient  $C_R$  as a function of the frictional resistance  
 172 coefficient  $C_F$  according to Equation 2. Meanwhile,  $C_F$  can be calculated according to the ITTC formula  
 173 (Equation 3) as a function of the model Reynolds number ( $Re$ ) calculated according to Equation 4 as a  
 174 function of the model length between perpendiculars ( $L_{PP}$ ) and water kinematic viscosity ( $\nu$ ).

$$C_T = C_R + C_F \quad (2)$$

$$C_F = \frac{0.075}{(\log Re - 2)^2} \quad (3)$$

$$Re = \frac{VL_{PP}}{\nu} \quad (4)$$

175 The traditional approach of Froude was chosen over the form factor approach recommended by the  
 176 ITTC because the form factor approach requires testing the ship model with relatively low Froude number  
 177 (Molland et al., 2011), however the towing tank carriage dynamometer doesn’t provide precise drag readings  
 178 at very low Froude numbers. Afterward, the model total resistance was scaled up to calculate the ship total  
 179 resistance ( $R_{Ts}$ ) and effective power ( $P_E$ ) at different ship speed ( $V_s$ ) and loading conditions according to  
 180 Equation 5 as shown in Figure 4e. The ship delivered power can be then calculated as a function of ( $P_E$ ),  
 181 quasi-propulsive coefficient, and the model-ship correlation factor.

$$P_E = R_{Ts}V_s \quad (5)$$

182 Similarly to the naked hull tests, self-propulsion tests of the ship model at towing tank were performed  
 183 with different trim conditions in order to find the model self-propulsion point, where the model resistance is

184 equal to the propeller thrust, and to evaluate the propulsion factors of wake fraction and thrust deduction as  
 185 a function of the model resistance ( $R$ ), thrust ( $T$ ) and speed as shown in Figure 4f. The ship self-propulsion  
 186 point can also be evaluated from the self-propulsion test by taking into account the skin friction correction  
 187 force resulting from the difference in skin friction coefficients between the model and the full scale ship  
 188 according to (ITTC, 2008b). The correction force value was then offset on the diagram as shown in Figure  
 189 4f to obtain the ship self-propulsion point.

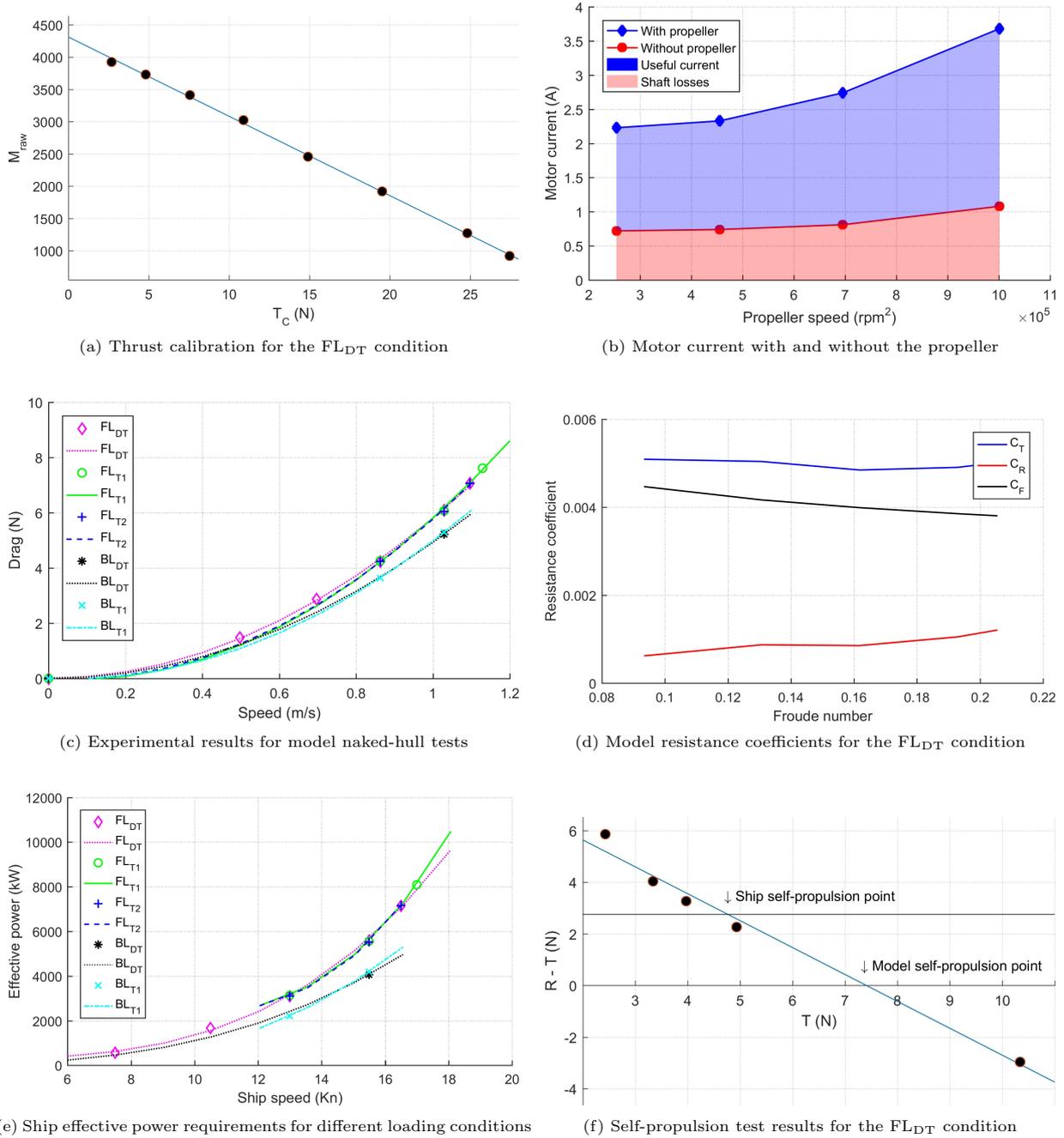


Figure 4: Example of towing tank experimental results

190 Since the ship has lighter load and less wetted surface area and draft in ballast condition, less resistance  
191 power requirements are to be expected compared to full load condition. Comparing Figures 4c and 4e shows  
192 that there is a noticeable difference between FL and BL resistance and power requirements as anticipated.  
193 Also, there is a slight improvement in resistance and power requirements for the  $FL_{T1}$  over the  $FL_{DT}$  condi-  
194 tion by 0.6% at the service speed of about 15 kn. Meanwhile, for ballast condition, the power requirement is  
195 lower at the  $BL_{DT}$  condition than the alternative trim  $BL_{T1}$  by 2.9% at the same speed as shown in Figures  
196 4c and 4e.

197 Moreover, at the  $FL_{DT}$  condition, the thrust which corresponds to the self-propulsion point of the model  
198 was 7.4 N as shown in Figure 4f which was then used with the model resistance at the same speed to calculate  
199 the model's thrust deduction which was found to be 0.17. According to this point of self-propulsion, the  
200 propeller speed and diameter were used with the model speed to calculate the model wake fraction and  
201 it was found to be 0.45. For the full-scale ship, a skin friction correction force of 2.75 N was calculated  
202 and offset as can be observed in Figure 4f to obtain the ship self-propulsion point at the  $FL_{DT}$  condition.  
203 Eventually, the model self-propulsion point was considered to be a good starting point for the lake testing  
204 by providing a propeller speed range around the self-propulsion point to be tested as will described in the  
205 following section.

### 206 3.2. Lake testing

207 The second phase of testing was performed on an open-water environment which is available and free to  
208 use removing the need for expensive towing tanks. The experimental testing were carried out in Timsbury  
209 Lake located about 5 kms north of Romsey, Hampshire and it has harbor area with 19 jetties, turning basins,  
210 critical bends and buoyed channels as shown in Figure 5 which makes it an ideal location for training and  
211 experiments. The main purpose of lake testing was to assess the effectiveness of the built ship model as a  
212 testing platform capable of performing autonomous tasks, measuring its powering, sea-keeping, manoeuvring  
213 and stability characteristics and communicating with the shore successfully in an open-water environment  
214 which is uncontrollable and unpredictable. Also, the ship model was used to test different bow designs as  
215 an EEDI measure to improve ship efficiency in waves which was part of another individual project at the  
216 University of Southampton (Cooke, 2013). Lake testing included straight run, circle and zig-zag tests at  
217 only the full load condition at the default trim using different bows because of time constraints and there  
218 were no significant improvement due to changing trim as shown in Figures 4c and 4e. A bollard pull test  
219 was also repeated before conducting the lake experiments to confirm the system accuracy.

220 In order to cover a large operational range of the model for different tests, three propeller rotational  
221 speeds were tested corresponding to the predicted model self-propulsion point. These propeller speeds were  
222 below, approximately equal and higher than the model self-propulsion point of 750, 1000, and 1250 revolution  
223 per minute (rpm) respectively. Prior to every test, the desired propeller rpm was accurately set as a function  
224 of the motor demand and gearbox ratio in the required mission code located in the mission executive layer.  
225 Moreover, by exploiting the ship model original position before every run and satellites signals, the GPS  
226 calculated the ship model speed, its latitude and longitude, and its x- and y- coordinates versus time during  
227 lake testing. Also, multiple runs of each test were performed in an attempt to account for the changing  
228 environment conditions and to increase the amount of available experimental data. An example of the data  
229 obtained from the straight line, zig-zag and turning circle tests are shown in Figure 6.

230 Straight line testing was carried out close to the centre-line of the lake with an approximate length of  
231 80m where the main aim of this test was to estimate the model resistance and power consumption using  
232 different bows in waves to assess any efficiency improvement as shown in Figure 6a. It can be observed that  
233 the first alternative bow results in less power consumption by 18.7% and 28% at the service speed compared  
234 to the normal bow and the second alternative bow respectively. For confidentiality reasons, further details  
235 about different bow designs and geometry are not disclosed in this paper. However, these results should be  
236 treated with caution because it is subjected to the employed sensors accuracy and reliability. Therefore,  
237 a statistical analysis was performed on a sample of the straight line lake testing to show the measurement  
238 variation from their mean in terms of standard deviation (SD) as shown in Table 2

239 Because of the occasional loss of a satellite fix and the low sampling rate of the GPS system of 1  
240 Hz, model speed measurement had high SD as shown in Table 2. Further work therefore is planned to



Figure 5: Satellite view of Timsbury Lake

Table 2: A sample of straight line lake testing showing mean and standard deviation

	Model speed		Propeller speed		Propeller thrust		Motor current		Motor voltage	
	Mean (m/s)	SD (%)	Mean (rpm)	SD (%)	Mean (N)	SD (%)	Mean (A)	SD (%)	Mean (V)	SD (%)
Run 1	0.64	24.53	750.42	1.09	5.12	18.69	2.14	2.33	4.56	1.08
Run 2	0.74	25.56	1000.51	0.93	8.38	9.38	2.22	4.11	6.15	1.17
Run 3	1.07	15.64	1250.09	0.94	13.05	11.6	3.23	6.15	8.04	1.05

241 install another GPS with a faster sampling rate for future testing. On the other hand, propeller speed  
 242 measurement had low SD of about 1% and its mean was very close to the targeted value of 750, 1000, and  
 243 1250 rpm owing to the used high precision optical encoder. Thrust measurement was less reliable than the  
 244 propeller speed measurement due to the strain gauge sensitivity to the model physical vibration caused by  
 245 the motor, the propeller, or its shaft. Therefore, an optical sensor which requires no physical contact should  
 246 be used to measure the thrust. Regarding the motor current and voltage used to calculate the model power  
 247 requirements, it showed good results with low SD which means less variability and high stability of the  
 248 measurements (Tilman et al., 1998).

249 Standard maneuvering tests required by the IMO were also conducted using the tanker model such as  
 250 turning circle and zig-zag tests where the model was free to move in the 6 degrees of freedom and the  
 251 propeller run at a constant revolution speed throughout the tests as suggested by the IMO (ITTC, 2008a).  
 252 Although it is also recommended by the IMO to test the free running ship model manoeuvrability in a calm  
 253 water condition (ITTC, 2008a), proving the capability of the built ship model was the main focus of the  
 254 lake testing. Consequently, due to inclement environmental conditions during the model testing, the model  
 255 motion during manoeuvres was affected as shown in Figure 6c with an increased margin of error was to  
 256 be expected. In addition, the recorded GPS readings were not always accurate which affected the model  
 257 position data. For these reasons, manoeuvring details such as advance, transfer, and period haven't been  
 258 estimated. However, despite the uncertainty related to environmental condition and torque measurements  
 259 and facing issues related to the model hardware (e.g. GPS) expected for a novel system, the built ship model  
 260 has proved its capability and flexibility as a testing platform and a large amount of useful experimental data

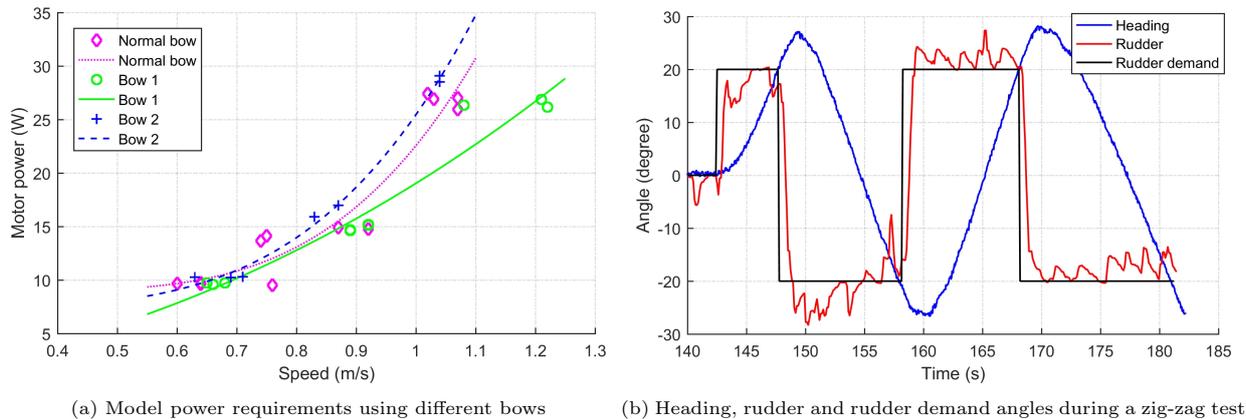


Figure 6: Example of towing tank experimental results

261 from towing tank and lake testing was collected. Nevertheless, the approach of using long acquisition periods  
 262 to help reduce environmental uncertainty has been demonstrated further work is required to enhance the  
 263 accuracy of the individual sensors. For example with trim by using multiple inertial sensors as has been  
 264 applied by (Bennett et al., 2014) to measure the hydroelastic behaviour of a flexible ship model.

265 In order to study and optimize some operational or design changes that were not studied during the  
 266 discussed experimental work, and to save time, cost and effort associated with model testing, it is beneficial  
 267 to develop a model simulator to simulate the performance of the built ship tanker model. The developed  
 268 simulator can describe the ship model dynamics and its interaction with the surrounding environment and  
 269 present its main parts including its propulsion system using MATLAB/Simulink which can be used for  
 270 further investigations of EEDI and SEEMP measures. The collected experimental data can also be used to  
 271 validate the model simulator as will be discussed in the following section.

#### 272 4. Simulation

273 A flexible time-domain quasi-steady simulator is developed in MATLAB/Simulink using building block  
 274 modular approach to facilitate the modelling and simulation of the tanker ship model for further studies. This  
 275 simulator is based on the mathematical modelling of the ship model main components and its interaction  
 276 with the surrounding environment of wind and waves. The developed simulator is currently limited to  
 277 one-Degree of Freedom (DOF) since the manoeuvrability testing were not conducted in ideal condition as  
 278 discussed in the previous section and therefore, manoeuvrability experimental results are only sufficient to

279 develop a simple mathematical model of the ship model motion in one DOF. Figure 7 displays an overview  
 280 of the developed simulator showing its main inputs and outputs.

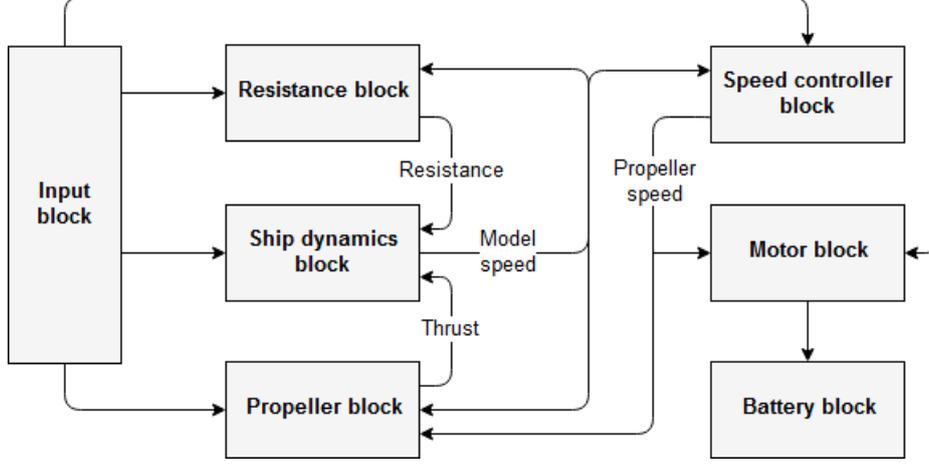


Figure 7: Representation of the developed ship model simulator

281 The developed simulator consists of an input block which provides the main particulars of the tanker  
 282 ship model and the required model speed or the required propeller speed to the rest of the simulator.  
 283 The calm water resistance ( $R$ ) is calculated in the resistance block using a polynomial function of the model  
 284 speed as suggested in (Theotokatos and Tzelepis, 2015) while added resistance due to wind and waves ( $\Delta R$ )  
 285 can be approximated by about 20-40% of calm water resistance (Liu et al., 2011). The propeller block is  
 286 responsible for calculating the propeller torque ( $Q_P$ ) and thrust ( $T_P$ ) using Equations 6 as a function of  
 287 the propeller diameter ( $D_p$ ) and speed ( $n_p$ ) and the non-dimensional thrust ( $K_T$ ) and torque coefficients  
 288 ( $K_Q$ ) calculated using interpolation polynomials suitable for Wageningen B-screw series type (Molland et al.,  
 289 2011).

$$\begin{aligned} T_P &= K_T \cdot \rho \cdot n_p^2 \cdot D_p^4 \\ Q_P &= K_Q \cdot \rho \cdot n_p^2 \cdot D_p^5 \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

290 The estimated model resistance and propeller thrust are then balanced in the ship dynamics block  
 291 according to Equation 7 to calculate the model longitudinal acceleration in surge direction ( $\frac{dv}{dt}$ ) to then  
 292 estimate the model current speed as a function of the thrust deduction ( $t$ ), ship model mass ( $M$ ) and  
 293 surge-surge added mass ( $-X'_u$ ) (Theotokatos and Tzelepis, 2015).

$$(M - X'_u) \frac{dv}{dt} = T_P(1 - t) - R - \Delta R \quad (7)$$

294 The model current speed is then provided to the resistance and propeller blocks to perform their calcu-  
 295 lations. In case of using a predefined model speed profile as an input to the simulator, the speed controller  
 296 block is activated and the required propeller speed ( $n_p$ ) is calculated backward as a function of the difference  
 297 between the model predefined speed (from input block) and current speed (from ship dynamics block) using  
 298 a PID controller and fed to the propeller and motor blocks. Otherwise,  $n_p$  can be defined by the user in the  
 299 input block. Next, the motor block estimates the required motor voltage ( $U_{mot}$ ), current ( $I_{mot}$ ) and power  
 300 to run the propeller at its required speed ( $n$ ) as a function of the motor torque ( $Q_{mot}$ ) and motor terminal  
 301 resistance ( $R_t$ ) according to Equation 8 supplied by the motor manufacturer.

$$U_{mot} \cdot I_{mot} = \frac{\pi}{30000} \cdot n \cdot Q_{mot} + R_t \cdot I_{mot}^2 \quad (8)$$

302 It should be also noted that, the motor torque and speed are proportional to the motor current and  
 303 voltage respectively as a function of the motor torque constant ( $K_M$ ) and speed constant ( $K_N$ ) supplied as  
 304 well by the motor manufacturer according to Equation 9.

$$\begin{aligned} Q_{mot} &= K_M \cdot I_{mot} \\ n &= K_N \cdot U_{mot} \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

305 The required motor power is then drained from the battery block whose main outputs are battery  
 306 voltage, current and battery state of charge (SOC) according to the battery mathematical model presented  
 307 in (Tremblay and Dessaint, 2009). In the next section, the developed simulator blocks are validated using  
 308 the real experimental data of the ship model performance during towing tank and lake tests.

#### 309 4.1. Simulator validation

310 Simulation results of the calm water resistance block is compared to the towing tank naked hull tests  
 311 experimental results of the tanker ship model using its normal bow at default trim as shown in Figure  
 312 8a which shows that the used polynomial equation provides an excellent fit to the calm water resistance  
 313 experimental data. Moreover, simulation results of the main variables of the propeller block which are  
 314 propeller speed, torque and thrust are also validated using the lake experimental data for full load condition  
 315 at default trim using normal bow during straight run manoeuvres showing good agreement as shown in  
 316 Figures 8b, 8c, and 8d.

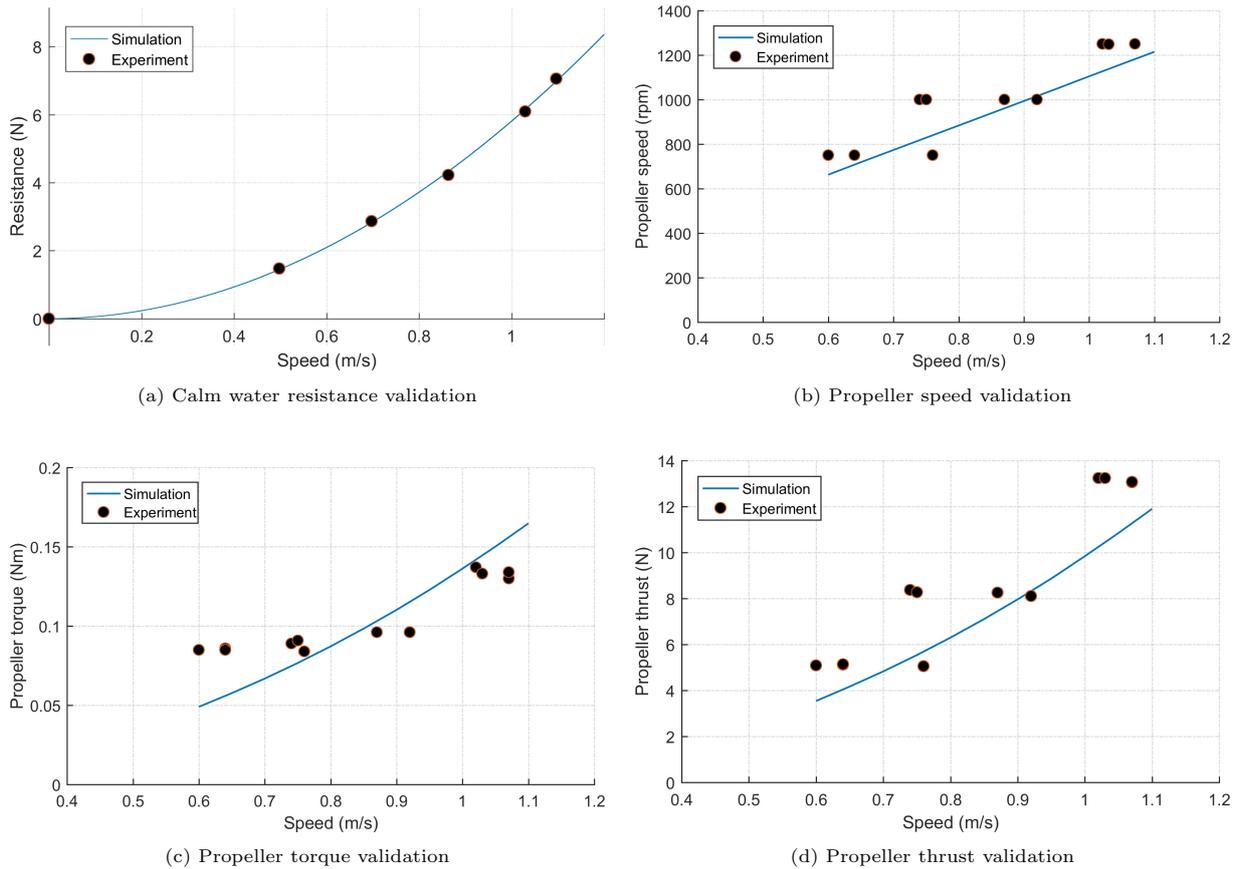


Figure 8: Validation of calm water resistance and propeller blocks

317 Furthermore, the motor block is also validated using the lake testing experimental results of the ship  
 318 model using its normal bow at full load condition while performing a set of manoeuvres which included  
 319 straight run tests at propeller speed of 1000 and 1250 rpm, circle tests at propeller speed of 750, 1000, 1250  
 320 rpm and rudder angle demand of  $20^\circ$ ,  $25^\circ$ , and  $30^\circ$  and zig-zag tests at propeller speed of 1000 rpm and  
 321 rudder angle demand of  $20^\circ$ - $20^\circ$  as shown in Figure 9.

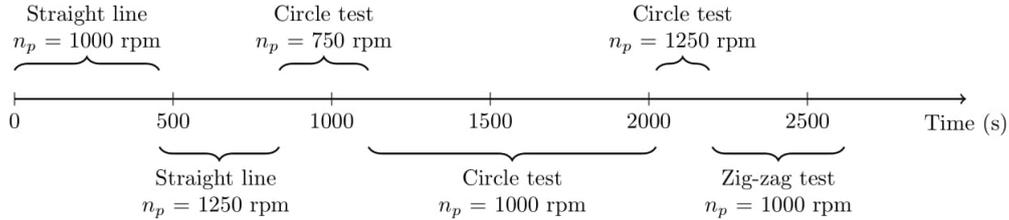


Figure 9: Time line of lake experiments used for motor block validation

322 Figure 10a reveals that the simulated applied motor voltage is in good agreement with the experimental  
 323 results. Meanwhile, There is a less than perfect agreement between simulation results and recorded readings  
 324 of motor current as shown in Figure 10b where the error is larger at higher motor speed or while manoeuvring.  
 325 This can be justified by the fact that the frictional and electrical losses associated with the motor itself and  
 326 its controller increases with increasing the motor speed. Therefore, more experimental work is required to  
 327 observe the effect of motor speed on the motor losses for the sake of calibrating the built simulator. Also, the  
 328 motor torque and current consumption during manoeuvrability can't be captured well by the developed one  
 329 DOF simulator. Future work should therefore include manoeuvrability testing in a controlled calm water  
 330 environment to accurately predict manoeuvring characteristics and power consumption of the ship model  
 331 and upgrade the developed simulator.

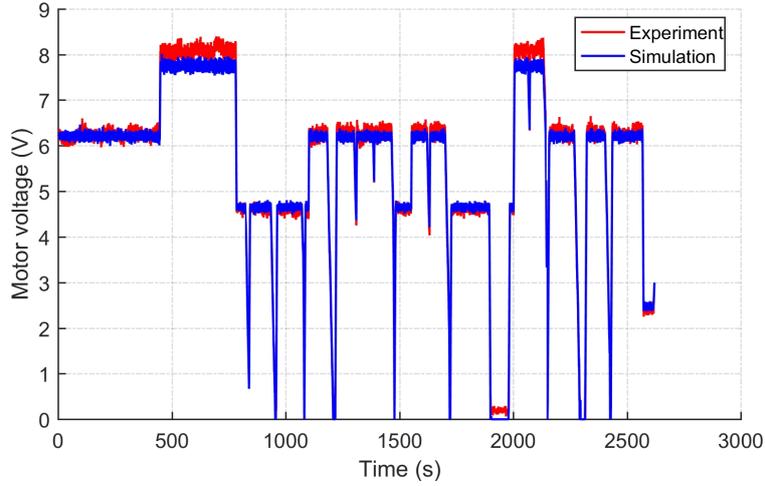
332 The required motor current is then drained from the battery block which is responsible for simulating  
 333 the battery behaviour and calculate its voltage and SOC. The battery block contains a lead-acid battery  
 334 model already integrated in the SPS toolbox in the electric drives library of Simulink. This battery model  
 335 is selected due to its ease of use, its capability of representing both dynamic and steady state behaviour of  
 336 the battery and it has been well validated against experimental results as can be found in (Tremblay and  
 337 Dessaint, 2009).

338 As can be seen from simulation results that the ship model behaviour is acceptably represented by  
 339 the developed simulator. The accuracy of the simulator can be further increased by conducting more  
 340 experimental work and upgrading the model hardware as described later. This simulator can then be used  
 341 to test different power sources or control strategies as will be discussed later.

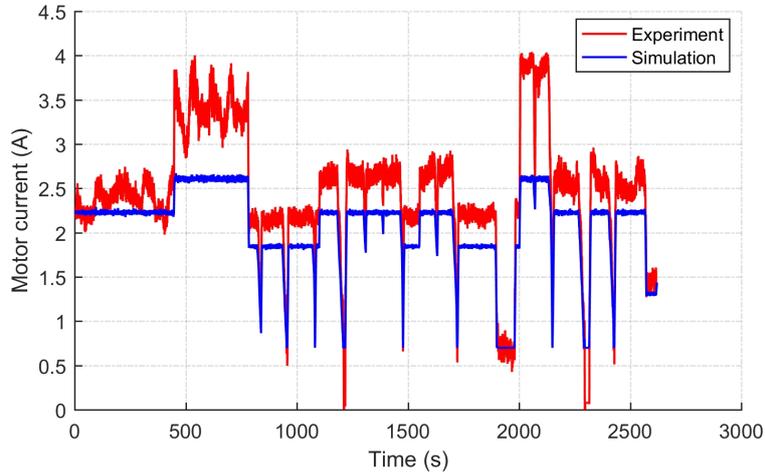
## 342 5. Conclusion

343 In order to comply with the tighter environmental regulations and reduce operational costs, improving  
 344 ships energy efficiency has been extensively studied recently. According to the most recent IMO GHG  
 345 study,  $\text{CO}_2$  ship emission could increase by between 50% and 250% by 2050. Therefore, many measures  
 346 and technologies have been suggested to increase shipping environmental and economical performance. On  
 347 the other hand, it is of great concern for ship operators to select the suitable technology to improve their  
 348 fleets energy efficiency because of the associated technical and economical risks. Autonomous ship models  
 349 can play a major part in predicting the real potential of different EEDI and SEEMP measures through  
 350 experiments due to its advantages of performing tests with higher repeatability, measurement accuracy and  
 351 cost efficiency. To overcome model testing difficulties, system simulation can be also accompanied which  
 352 offers an environment to analysis, tune, and optimize the system performance which helps to achieve the  
 353 targeted ship energy efficiency level.

354 This paper introduces the main parts and control of an autonomous, self-propulsion and self-measuring  
 355 free running model of an Ice Class tanker ship developed at the University of Southampton to study the



(a) Experiment vs simulation results of motor voltage readings



(b) Experiment vs simulation results of motor current readings

Figure 10: Validation of Motor block

356 effect of EEDI and SEEMP measures of using different bow designs and changing the ship operational  
 357 trim. An extensive experimental campaign has been carried out using the built ship model which proved its  
 358 versatility and effectiveness as a test platform and a large amount of useful data has been collected. Tests  
 359 included bollard pull, shaft efficiency, naked-hull, self-propulsion tests in addition to manoeuvrability tests  
 360 of straight line, circle, and zig-zag manoeuvres in different testing environment of laboratory, towing tank,  
 361 and open-water lake. Towing tank naked hull test experimental results show that a small saving in power  
 362 consumption of 0.6% and 2.9% can be achieved by changing the operational trim in full load and ballast load  
 363 conditions respectively at the ship service speed. Also, experimental results of lake straight line testing show  
 364 that using an alternative bow instead of the normal bow can result in a considerable efficiency improvement  
 365 of 18.7%. These experimental results demonstrate the feasibility of the targeted EEDI and SEEMP measures  
 366 and more testing is planned to be done. It should, however, be noted that these experimental results are  
 367 subject to measurement error and uncertainty. Therefore, a statistical analysis was performed to assess the  
 368 accuracy of the ship model instruments. Also, developing the built ship model is planned.

369 The analysis of information provided from tests allows to obtain a flexible simulator to represent the  
 370 built ship model performance in one DOF using building block modular approach in Simulink/MATLAB

371 environment. This simulator has been well validated using experimental data from the model testing.  
372 Therefore, the developed simulator provides a framework for future studies to improve ship energy efficiency  
373 through simulation taking into consideration the correlation between model and ship.

## 374 6. Further work

375 Regarding the built ship model, more accurate GPS with higher sampling rate is intended to be installed  
376 for higher measurements precision. Moreover, a torque dynamometer is planned to be used after calibration  
377 for more accurate propeller torque measurements. Furthermore, a wave buoy and an anemometer to measure  
378 wave and wind conditions are recommended to be used to analyse the testing environmental conditions,  
379 decrease its associated uncertainty and enable more understanding of the future experimental data. This  
380 will also enable the validation of the developed ship model by comparing the experimental results from both  
381 the towing tank and lake testing to retain the system accuracy. Then, more testing and experimental work  
382 can be done which includes more comprehensive trim study and conducting manoeuvrability testing in calm  
383 water condition to have more accurate assessment of the model control and manoeuvrability characteristics.  
384 More ship energy efficiency measures can be tested as well such as study the effect of changing the ship  
385 operational conditions such as draft and other modifications to the vessel such as propeller type, using an aft  
386 body flow device or testing hybrid and electric power systems and its related energy management strategies  
387 and control using different power sources such as fuel cells. In addition, this investigation should include  
388 different types of ships such as bulk carriers, containers, etc. to further improve their energy efficiency.  
389 A statistical model can be also built based on the experimental data to identify changes in powering and  
390 manoeuvring characteristics.

391 Regarding the developed simulator, it can assist further studies of EEDI and SEEMP measures such as  
392 using alternative power sources or hybrid systems and the associated different control and energy manage-  
393 ment strategies. After modifying the built ship model as explained earlier and performing more experimental  
394 work, recalibrating the developed simulation tool for better results can be done as well as upgrading the  
395 model to 4 or 6 DOF.

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