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Edited by: Hafeez R. Hoorani
Arshad Munir
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National Centre for Physics
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International Bhurban Conference on Applied Sciences & Technology

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1st International Bhurban Conference on Applied Sciences & Technology

**NATIONAL CENTRE FOR PHYSICS
QUAID-I-AZAM UNIVERSITY**

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction

ADVANCED MATERIALS

Microstructure and Properties of Metal-Matrix Composites (MMC) for Automotive Applications Fazal A. Khalid	1
Electro-Chromic Materials and Devices Rizwan Hussain	4
Composites for Aerospace Applications Dr. M. Zafar-uz-Zaman	8
High Performance Fiber Reinforced Composites (Processing and Fabricating Techniques) Naveed A. Siddiqui	16

COMPUTATIONAL FLUID DYNAMICS (CFD)

Introduction to Non-Linear Finite Element Analysis Dr. Abdul Fazal M. Arif	23
Formation of Counter-Rotating Vortices with Sheared Ion-Flows in the Earth's Auroral F-Region of the Plasma Arshad M. Mirza, P.K. Shukla, T. Farid and G. Murtaza	52
Computational Study of a Blunt Cylinder Flare Body in High Super-Sonic Flow Using CFD A. Jabbar, I. Afgan, M. Arshad, S. Zahir	63
Cone-Cylinder Separation Analysis in Hypersonic Flow R.A. Khurram, Nasir Kamran and S. Zahir	80
Solid Rocket Motor Plume Analysis and its Applications S. Bilal H. Bukhari, S. Zahir, I. Jehan and M. Hanif	92
Growth of Computational Aerodynamics in Pakistan S. Zahir	102
Fortran Code to Generate Multi-Block Algebraic Grids on and Around a Nose-Cone-Cylinder-Flare (NCCF) Configurations of Single Stage and Multistage Bodies S. Zahir, Nadeem A. Javed, Aamna Mubarak	110
Aerodynamic Force Estimation on a Jet Vane Exposed to an Internal Flow of a CD-Nozzle Exhaust I. Jehan, S. Bilal H. Bukhari and S. Zahir	130
Performance Benchmark of Some CFD Applications on PC and Parallel Processing Machine M. Asad, B. Zahid, S. Zahir	134
Steady Navier-Stokes Simulations of Supersonic Flow Field over a Three-Dimensional Cavity S. Zahir, Nadeem A. Javed, Sohail Aziz	138

Comparison of Convective and Radiative Heat Fluxes for the Stagnation Region of Hemisphere in Hypersonic Flow M. Hanif, S. Zahir	145
--	------------

Estimation and Validation of Aerodynamic Hinge-Moments and Shaft-Hinge Line Location for a Trapezoidal Control Surface Panel in Subsonic Flow Imran Afgan, Abdullah Malik, S. Zahir	151
---	------------

CFD Predictions of Axial Pressure Distribution and Flow Structure of Water and Air around Hemisphere Cylinder Configuration at Intermediate to High Reynolds Numbers and at Various Incidence Angles S. Sahir, M. Zahid Bashir and Rafi-ud-Din	157
--	------------

A Study of Separation Control on a Thick Airfoil by Varying Membranes Parameters Ajmal Baig, Salimuddin Zahir and Hossein Hamdani	164
---	------------

CONTROL ENGINEERING

Incompleteness of Cross-Product Steering and a Mathematical Formulation of Extended-Cross-Product Steering S.A. Kamal	167
---	------------

Dot-Product Steering, A New Control Law for Satellites and Spacecrafts S.A. Kamal	178
---	------------

Soft Computing Based Modeling and Control Systems M.M. Awais	185
--	------------

Internal Model Control-Systems for Large Scale Industrial Problems M.M. Awais	203
---	------------

Model Reduction Techniques for Large Scale Unstable Systems by the Implicit Restart Scheme Nisar Ahmed, M. Mansoor Ahmed and Mian M. Awais	222
--	------------

Lyapunov Stability Theory Kamran Iqbal	236
--	------------

Review of Fault Detection Techniques N. Lehrsab	241
---	------------

Review of Fault Isolation Techniques N. Lehrsab	256
---	------------

FPGA-based ASIC Design Using Verilog HDL Dr. Nasir D. Gohar	270
---	------------



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The Dot-Product Steering A New Control Law for Satellites and Spacecrafts

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Abstract

A control law is formulated, which employs dot products of velocity and time rate of change of velocity. Mathematical representation using elliptic-astrodynamical-coördinate mesh is presented.

Introduction

The normal-component-cross-product steering, a control law [1] put forward in the other paper, may be used to derive another law, which can be used to derive normal components of velocity to zero. This law, termed as, *the dot-product steering*, is further developed into another control law, *the ellipse-orientation steering*, and conditions are derived to determine and, eventually, eliminate down-range and cross-range errors. This paper is a continuation of [1], and, hence, the list of symbols, the compact notations and the coördinate systems collected in the *Nomenclature* section applies to calculations presented in this paper, as well.

A good overview of orbital dynamics, needed to understand these calculations, may be found in [2]. The elliptic-cylindrical-coördinate mesh [3, 4] is adapted to deal with the

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bounded Keplerian orbits, as the elliptic-astrodynamical-coördinate mesh. References [3, 4] illustrate another adaptation of these coördinates — the cardiac-coördinate mesh, which is used to model surface anatomy of the human heart.

In this paper mathematical formulations of *the dot-product steering*, *the normal-component-dot-product steering* (as the special case of *the dot-product steering*) and *the ellipse-orientation steering* are presented. In Appendix A, trajectory computed under the assumption of constant g (parabola) is shown to be limiting case of the elliptical trajectory, when its semi-minor axis, b , is very small as compared to its semi-major axis, a . In Appendix B, equation of ellipse, written in the form,

$$r = \frac{p}{1 + e \cos f}; 0 \leq f \leq 180^\circ$$

is shown to be equivalent to the form, traditionally, recognized:

$$\frac{(x-h)^2}{a^2} + \frac{(y-k)^2}{b^2} = 1$$

The Dot-Product Steering

The dot-product steering is a control law, which involves dot products of the vector, and its time rate of change. In order to derive a vector $\vec{A}$ to zero, one needs to derive the factor $|\vec{A}| \left| \frac{d\vec{A}}{dt} \right| (1 + \cos \theta)$ to zero, where θ is the angle between $\vec{A}$ and $\frac{d\vec{A}}{dt}$. In other words

$$(1) \quad \vec{A} \cdot \frac{d\vec{A}}{dt} + |\vec{A}| \left| \frac{d\vec{A}}{dt} \right| \rightarrow 0$$

In the trajectory problems, it is customary to require the normal component of velocity to vanish. Hence, one may develop a special case of *the dot-product steering*.

The Normal-Component-Dot-Product Steering

In order to bring a vehicle to the desired trajectory one needs to derive the factor $|\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}| \left| \frac{d\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}}{dt} \right| (1 + \cos \phi)$ to zero, where ϕ is the angle between $\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}$ and $\frac{d\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}}{dt}$. The above condition may be expressed, mathematically, as

$$(2) \quad \vec{v}_{\text{perp}} \cdot \frac{d\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}}{dt} + |\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}| \left| \frac{d\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}}{dt} \right| \rightarrow 0$$

Proof: From *the normal-component-cross-product steering*, the condition to drive a vector to zero is vanishing of the product

$$\vec{v}_{\text{perp}} \times \frac{d\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}}{dt}$$

This means that the direction of $\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}$ may not change. However, its magnitude should change. The vector $\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}$ should go to zero if $\frac{d|\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}|}{dt} < 0$. This is possible only if $\frac{d\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}}{dt}$ makes an angle of 180° with $\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}$, that is

$$\frac{\vec{v}_{\text{perp}} \cdot \frac{d\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}}{dt}}{|\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}| \left| \frac{d\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}}{dt} \right|} = \cos 180^\circ = -1$$

which reduces to

$$(3) \quad \vec{v}_{\text{perp}} \cdot \frac{d\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}}{dt} + |\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}| \left| \frac{d\vec{v}_{\text{perp}}}{dt} \right| = 0$$

This completes the proof of *the normal-component-dot-product steering*.

Examples: Examples of the rectilinear, the circular and the elliptical trajectories are worked out to illustrate this control law.

a) Straight Line: To simplify the calculations, x axis is chosen along the trajectory. $\vec{v}_{\text{para}} = \vec{v}_x = v_x \hat{e}_x$; $\vec{v}_{\text{perp}} = \vec{v}_y + \vec{v}_z = v_y \hat{e}_y + v_z \hat{e}_z$. The conditions for *the normal-component-dot-product steering* become

$$\vec{v}_y \cdot \frac{d\vec{v}_y}{dt} + |\vec{v}_y| \left| \frac{d\vec{v}_y}{dt} \right| \rightarrow 0; \quad \vec{v}_z \cdot \frac{d\vec{v}_z}{dt} + |\vec{v}_z| \left| \frac{d\vec{v}_z}{dt} \right| \rightarrow 0$$

b) Circle: xy plane is chosen so that the circular trajectory lies entirely in it, with center of circle coinciding with the origin of the coördinate system. In the cylindrical-coördinate mesh, (ρ, ϕ, z) , the components of velocity are $\vec{v}_{\text{para}} = \vec{v}_\phi = v_\phi \hat{e}_\phi$; $\vec{v}_{\text{perp}} = \vec{v}_\rho + \vec{v}_z = v_\rho \hat{e}_\rho + v_z \hat{e}_z$. Therefore, *the normal-component-dot-product-steering law* takes the form

$$\vec{v}_\rho \cdot \frac{d\vec{v}_\rho}{dt} + |\vec{v}_\rho| \left| \frac{d\vec{v}_\rho}{dt} \right| \rightarrow 0; \quad \vec{v}_z \cdot \frac{d\vec{v}_z}{dt} + |\vec{v}_z| \left| \frac{d\vec{v}_z}{dt} \right| \rightarrow 0$$

c) Ellipse: In order to write this condition for the elliptic-astrodynamical-coördinate mesh, one notes that $\vec{v}_{\text{para}} = \vec{v}_E = v_E \hat{e}_E$; $\vec{v}_{\text{perp}} = \vec{v}_\xi + \vec{v}_z = v_\xi \hat{e}_\xi + v_z \hat{e}_z$. One notes that, $\vec{v}_P = \vec{v}_\xi = v_\xi \hat{e}_\xi$, shall contribute to down-range error and $\vec{v}_N = \vec{v}_z = v_z \hat{e}_z$, to cross-range error. Therefore, the steering law may be expressed as

$$\vec{v}_\xi \cdot \frac{d\vec{v}_\xi}{dt} + |\vec{v}_\xi| \left| \frac{d\vec{v}_\xi}{dt} \right| \rightarrow 0; \quad \vec{v}_z \cdot \frac{d\vec{v}_z}{dt} + |\vec{v}_z| \left| \frac{d\vec{v}_z}{dt} \right| \rightarrow 0$$

The Ellipse-Orientation Steering

The condition for no down-range error is

$$(4a) \quad (\hat{a}_{\text{para}} \cdot \vec{r} + ae)(\hat{a}_{\text{para}} \cdot \vec{v})(e^2 - 1) = (\hat{a}_{\text{perp}} \cdot \vec{r})(\hat{a}_{\text{perp}} \cdot \vec{v})$$

and the condition for no cross-range error is

$$(4b) \quad \hat{a}_N \cdot \vec{v} = 0$$

These equations describe another control law, termed as *the ellipse-orientation steering*.

Proof: Expressing v_ξ in terms of v_x and v_y

$$v_\xi = v_x \sinh(ae\xi) \cos E + v_y \cosh(ae\xi) \sin E$$

and substituting the values of

$$\sinh(ae\xi) = \frac{y}{ae \sin E}; \quad \cosh(ae\xi) = \frac{x + ae}{ae \cos E}; \quad E = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x + ae}$$

one gets, for no down-range error

$$v_\xi = \frac{v_x(x + ae) \sin^2 E + yv_y}{ae \cos E} \rightarrow 0$$

which can be, immediately, generalized to (4a). Similarly, for no cross-range error, $v_z \rightarrow 0$, which is generalized to (4b).

The Cross-Range Error Detection

For no cross-range error velocity of the spacecraft must lie in the plane containing $\vec{r} \times \vec{r}_2$. In other words

$$(5) \quad \vec{v} \cdot \vec{r} \times \vec{r}_2 = 0$$

In order to detect cross-range error present, v_ξ is first expressed in terms of x, y, z (body-coördinate mesh), and then in terms of the inertial system to be able to obtain a condition to eliminate down-range error. Similarly, v_z is expressed in terms of the inertial-coördinate mesh so that conditions may be obtained to eliminate cross-range error.

The Down-Range Error and the Cross-Range Error Elimination

To eliminate down-range error, the following condition should hold

$$(6a) \quad \frac{v_x}{v_y} \propto \tan E$$

and to eliminate cross-range error

$$(6b) \quad v_z = 0$$

This can be easily proved using the expressions for v_ξ , v_E and Eq. (5).

Conclusion

The normal-component-dot-product steering, involves, dot products of normal component of velocity and its time rate of change. It is derived from *the extended-cross-product steering*. The formulation presented in [1] and this paper may be useful in satellite dynamics. Using this formulation, a satellite-launch vehicle (SLV) may be constructed, which can inject satellites into the desired orbits. Suitable autopilots may be designed for attitude control of the satellites.

It is imperative to develop similar formulations for the parabolic and the hyperbolic orbits, and compare the results to this formulation.

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Appendix A: Equivalence of a Projectile Trajectory in Constant Gravity (Parabola) and a Trajectory Computed From Kepler's Equation (Ellipse)

A projectile is a freely falling body. Its trajectory, as determined in elementary physics under the assumption of constant gravity, comes out to be a parabola in free space. The projectile is bound to the earth's gravitational field and, therefore, comes back to the surface of earth. Table 1 shows that the trajectory of a bound projectile (the potential energy larger than the kinetic energy) must be either an ellipse or a circle. A parabolic

Table 1. Orbits for Two-Body, Central-Force Motion

Energy ($\mathcal{E}$)	Eccentricity (e)	Shape of the Orbit	Type of the Orbit	System (Bound/Free)	Number of Turning Points
$\mathcal{E} < \mathcal{E}_{\min}$	$e < 0$	Not allowed	—	—	—
$\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}_{\min}$	$e = 0$	Circle	Closed	Bound	∞
$\mathcal{E}_{\min} < \mathcal{E} < 0$	$0 < e < 1$	Ellipse	Closed	Bound	2
$\mathcal{E} = 0$	$e = 1$	Parabola	Open	Free	1
$\mathcal{E} > 0$	$e > 1$	Hyperbola	Open	Free	1

Table 2. Features of Orbits

Energy ($\mathcal{E}$)	Features
$\mathcal{E} < \mathcal{E}_{\min}$	$\mathcal{E}_{\min} = V(r) _{\min}$
$\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}_{\min}$	$\dot{r} = 0$ everywhere, and $r = \text{constant}$
$\mathcal{E}_{\min} < \mathcal{E} < 0$	$r_{\min} = \text{pericenter}$, $r_{\max} = \text{apocenter}$, which are the turning points
$\mathcal{E} = 0$	$r_{\min}$ is the turning point
$\mathcal{E} > 0$	$r_{\min}$ is the turning point

orbit is possible only when total energy of the projectile is zero. In other words, the potential energy must be numerically equal to the kinetic energy (they have opposite signs). If this condition is satisfied at the surface of earth for a vertical launch, velocity of the projectile becomes equal to the escape velocity to get out of the earth's gravitational field.

This contradiction may be resolved if one looks at the parabolic trajectory as the limiting case of an elliptical trajectory — the semi-major axis being very large as compared to the semi-minor axis. In this case the eccentricity, e , shall approach unity. Mathematically,

$$b^2 = a^2(1 - e^2)^2 \Rightarrow e = \sqrt{1 - \frac{b^2}{a^2}}$$

which gives,

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} e = \lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{1 - \frac{b^2}{a^2}} = 1$$

In fact, this is, exactly, what happens in the case of constant g . The assumption of constant g (acceleration due to gravity) implies that the range is very small as compared to the circumference of earth (altitude is small). Since one of the foci lies at the center of earth the semi-major axis is of the order of radius of earth. The semi-minor axis, however, is of the order of range. Therefore, parabolic trajectory is, actually, the limiting case of elliptical trajectory.

It is interesting to note that for a bound system the number of turning points is greater than one, the energy is negative and the orbit is closed. Table 2 list some features of orbits.

Appendix B: Equivalence of Ellipse Equations

An equation of ellipse in the cartesian-coördinate mesh with center at (h, k)

$$(B1) \quad \frac{(x-h)^2}{a^2} + \frac{(y-k)^2}{b^2} = 1$$

is shown to be equivalent to an equation of ellipse in polar coördinates:

$$(B2) \quad r = \frac{p}{1 + e \cos f}; \quad 0 \leq f \leq 180^\circ$$

To do so one notes that (B2) refers to an ellipse with origin at one of the foci. The coördinates of center must, therefore, be taken as $(-ae, 0)$ in (B1), that is $h = -ae$ and $k = 0$. The semi-major axis, a , and the semi-minor axis, b , are related by $b^2 = a^2(1 - e^2)$. Therefore, perimeter of the orbit (semi latus-rectum of the ellipse), p , may be found by noting that it is the value of r , when $f = 90^\circ$ (or, the value of y , when $x = 0$). Substituting, $x = 0, y = p$, in (B1) and rearranging, one gets

$$(B3) \quad p = a(1 - e^2)$$

Substituting, $b^2 = a^2(1 - e^2)$, $x = r \cos f$, $y = r \sin f$, $h = -ae$, $k = 0$, in (B1), and using (B3), one obtains a quadratic equation:

$$(B4) \quad (1 - e^2 \cos^2 f)r^2 + (2ep \cos f)r - p^2 = 0$$

whose roots are

$$r_1 = -\frac{p}{1 - e \cos f}; \quad r_2 = \frac{p}{1 + e \cos f}$$

The solution r_1 is unphysical because it gives negative values of r (r , being the radius vector, is, always, positive). The solution r_2 is the required form.

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