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UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

THE STABILITY AND INTERFACIAL PHENOMENA OF

A SALT WEDGE FLOW

ΒY

NOBORU YONEMITSU

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

WATER RESOURCES

DEPARTMENT OF CIVIL ENGINEERING

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1991



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Yours sincerely,

baurence

Greg Lawrence Assistant Professor

:kl Encl.

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Date 6 Sept 91

ABSTRACT

The salt wedge is a commonly observed water system in estuaries with relatively small tidal ranges. It is formed by sea water intrusion into the river and often has a very distinctive two layered stratification.

Because of its physical, chemical, biological and economic importance, extensive investigations have been performed on the salt wedge in order to specify both over-all flow properties and mixing phenomena through its density interface. However, particularly in the reproduction of this flow system by laboratory experiments, models show significant complications and the present hydrodynamic stability theories can not interpret the interfacial mixing properties correctly.

In this study, some typical flow configurations in salt wedge flow, especially secondary flow structures, are considered. Based on previous observations, four hydrodynamic stability models are developed to investigate interface stability. Each designed to investigate the effects of the rigid boundary, boundary velocity, viscosity, and displacement of the velocity profile inflection point with respect to the density interface. The results provide qualitative explanations for the observed three-dimensional structures of interfacial phenomena and waves.

Precise experiments have been performed to produce a complete data set (i.e. information such as wedge shape,

velocity and density profiles, wave length and phase velocity, interfacial displacement and the lower layer thickness) in order to verify the theoretical model predictions. Agreement between these experiments and the theoretical results is very good, although the predicted phase velocity of SVB waves is always underestimated.

This work is concluded with a discussion of the possibility of three-dimensional primary instability in a salt wedge flow.

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LIST OF SYMBOLS

A ;	Coefficient of variable (j=1,2,3,)
a;	Coefficient of variable (j=1,2,3,)
a , k	Elements of eigen matrix (j,k=1,2,3,)
B,,B;*	Coefficient of variable (j=1,2,3,)
С	Complex phase velocity
C _R	Real part of complex phase velocity
C:	Imaginary part of complex phase velocity
c.c.	Complex conjugate
D	Total depth of the channel
d	Displacement between density interface and center
	of shear layer
D _R	Real part of determinant
D:	Imaginary part of determinant
D _{int}	Depth of the density interface
$\widehat{e_1}$	Unit vector of longitudinal direction
ê ₂	Unit vector of lateral direction
ê ₃	Unit vector of vertical direction
F	Focal length of lens
f	Arbitrary function
f_2	Doppler shift frequency
F	Body force
g	Gravitational acceleration
g.	Non-dimensional gravitational acceleration
h	Shear layer thickness (=2L)
i	Square root of -1

Im (f)	Imaginary part of f
Kj	Modification coefficient for re-orthogonalization
	(j=1,2,3,)
L	Characteristic length scale
м	Eigen matrix
p	Pressure
PT	Total pressure
\mathbf{p}_{H}	Hydrostatic pressure
Pw	Pressure due to the wave motion
Po	Mean Pressure
Pr	Prandtl number
R	Hazel's thickness parameter
Re	Reynolds number
Rj,Rj [#]	Coefficient of variable (j=1,2,3,)
Ric	Critical Richardson number
Ri _L	Local (gradient) Richardson number
Rio	Over-all Richardson number
rms(f)	Root mean square of quantitiy f
U	Longitudinal velocity
υ _ο	Mean longitudinal velocity
Ul	Velocity of upper layer
U2	Velocity of lower layer
Uw	Velocity on the rigid boundary
ũ	Deviation of longitudinal velocity from mean
v	Characteristic velocity scale
v	Velocity vector (=(u,v,w))
V _{int}	Velocity of the density interface

v	Deviation of lateral velocity from mean
кí К	Deviation of vertical velocity from mean
х	Distance from the mouth
×	Longitudinal co-ordinate
Y	Distance from the left wall of the channel
У	Lateral co-ordinate
Z	Vertical co-ordinate
α	Wave number of small perturbation
ΔC_R	Calculation step of $C_{\rm R}$
ΔC_{r}	Calculation step of C_I
Δρ	Density deference between two layers
δ	Thickness of density transition layer
ε	Turbulent kinetic energy
γ ~	Specific weight
φ	Stream function of perturbation field
η	Interface displacement due to wave motions
λ	Wave length of the interfacial waves
λ_{L}	Wave length of the laser light
v	Kinematic viscosity
θ	Argument of complex variables
$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{ ext{L}}$	Crossing angle of laser beams
ρο	Mean density
ρι	Density of upper layer
ρ ₂	Density of lower layer
$\rho_{\rm AV}$	Average density
τ	Reynolds stress averaged over wave length
ω	Complex frequency

۲. ۲	Integral variable
f	In superscript, complex conjugate of f (in part
	four, it indicates dimensional quanity of f)
•	In superscript, ordinary derivative in terms of z
[]	"jump" bracket

INTRODUCTION

Understanding of instability phenomena of density stratified flows is very important in a broad range of scientific disciplines including Meteorology, Oceanography and several branches of Engineering. Instability phenomena are considered to be key mechanisms in the transition from laminar to turbulent flow and in various mixing phenomena. Much of the existing knowledge comes from work in Atmospheric and Oceanographic science where experimental verification is extremely difficult.

Investigation of estuarial salt wedges offers promise for improving understanding of the role of instability phenomena in mixing processes. Estuarine salt wedges can, in nature, exhibit relatively stable mixing zones that facilitate experimental and field investigation. Salt wedges in steep estuaries with low tidal range and a constant fresh water discharge exhibit these stable characteristics.

Needless to say, the hydrodynamic elements of such a system are best studied in laboratory experiments. Although laboratory experiments have some disadvantages such as channel size and Reynolds number limitation, they do show significant details of salt wedge hydraulics and are quite adequite for examining the relationship between mixing and interfacial wave phenomena. Many attempts have been made to interpret this phenomenon in terms of a shear instability mechanism; however, they fail to give enough accuracy,



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(a) SVA (Spiral Vortex Above the interface) waves. (Holmboe mode with positive phase velocity Cr>0.0)



(b) SVB (Spiral Vortex Beneath the interface) waves. (Holmboe mode with negative phase velocity Cr<0.0)



(c) SVC (Spiral Vortex the Center of which coinsides with the interface) waves. (Kelvin-Helmholtz mode)



(d) Breaking and mixing.

Figure 2. Classification of typical interfacial phenomena and waves.



Figure 3. Three dimensional flow structure of salt wedge flow due to the secondary flow in channel.

especially if three-dimensional wave structures exist on the density interface, due mainly to the lack of appropriate models.

From previous knowledge, typical salt wedge flow and its interfacial forms can be summarized as Figure 1 and 2. Velocity and density profiles are often approximated by tanh(z) and step functions, respectively, which have excellent agreement with experimental observations. Also it was found that secondary flow structures similar as the open channel flows exist on most of the salt wedge flow experiments. This flow structure often creates spanwise velocity distribution which is recognized as high and low speed regions in fresh water layer (Figure 3).

By investigating previous knowledge, relatively weak areas are identified as follows:

Problem (i): Separation of two different type of waves (SVA and SVB) were observed and this phenomenon is called 'one-sidedness'. Present knowledge of stability may explain some stabilizing effects of the rigid boundary conditions, but does not explain the separation of these two waves.

Problem (ii): Previous experiments show that a salt wedge can be divided into three sub-divisions based on their stress distributions. In each region, velocity profiles can be approximated very well by a tanh(z) function, although the inflection points are often displaced with respect to the density interface. These displacements cause some problems

when applying existing hydrodynamic stability theories to the salt wedge.

Problem (iii): Due to the secondary flow structures in channels, high and low speed regions develop which may cause three-dimensional interfacial wave structure. However, tow experimental data are available in the case of salt wedge flow, making it difficult to determine the implications of this phenomenon.

The objective of this study is to obtain a better understanding of the mechanisms of this interfacial wave phenomenon by investigating in an appropriate fashion the hydrodynamic stability of the flow field and then verifying these results by carefully assembled experiments. In this study, experimental and theoretical research will first be reviewed. The subsequent parts of this study will analyse each weak area by using theoretical, numerical and experimental approaches. Theoretical models will employ an inviscid two-dimensional two-layered stratified flow system with appropriate boundary conditions. Numerical study will be applied to two-layer viscous flow with continuous velocity profiles, and detailed experiments will be performed in order to verify these studies.

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1. PART ONE: REVIEW OF THE PRESENT KNOWLEDGE

1,1 INTRODUCTION

Experimental and mathematical investigations of salt wedge flow have been performed intensively since World War II because of its high economic and environmental impacts. From a hydrodynamic point of view, this flow is also interesting since it is essentially laminar-turbulent transition flow with density stratification, which is related to various phenomena in the atmosphere and ocean (such as mixing, waves, fluctuations of its properties etc).

However, despite such high demands from engineering, public policy and science, present knowledge is still quite limited due mainly to the complexity of the flow system (for example, tide effects, geometrical limitation of modelling, scale effects, strong non-linearity and time dependence). Until now, two major approaches have been utilized by researchers to understand this flow.

The first approach involves evaluation of the salt wedge using macroscopic parameters to predict overall properties such as entrainment, interfacial friction factor, general wedge shape, total intrusion length, the strength of salt circulation etc. Although relatively good agreements were obtained with this approach, particularly through laboratory experiments, the physics of the salt-wedge is still not so well understood.
Another approach is to pay great attention to the microstructures of the mixing phenomena at or through the density interface in the hope of improving the accuracy of prediction for various applications. However, achievements in this direction are still primitive.

In this study, we will employ this second approach to improve our understanding of mixing phenomena in the salt wedge. The hydrodynamic stability theory and interfacial waves are assumed to be dominant mechanisms of mixing, and applicability of those ideas will be discussed through the experiments.

In this section, we will first briefly review the overall properties of salt wedge experiments and then we will inspect the previous experimental research on the interfacial wave phenomena. Based on this microscopic approach, mathematical and numerical research will be discussed in order to identify relatively weak areas and the associated reasons.

1.2 REVIEW OF EXPERIMENTAL INVESTIGATIONS

1.2.1 Introduction

While any predictive model should be formulated on the basis of the underlying physical principles, the present state of understanding of density-stratified flow is so limited that a good deal of empirical information must be used in model development. Laboratory experiments clearly provide the most comprehensive observational detail, mainly because of their high reproducibility.

In the following subsection, several experimental works on salt wedge flow will be reviewed, paying particular attention to interfacial waves and mixing aspects.

1.2.2 Salt Wedge Experiments

Figure 1.1 summarizes the general overall shape of the salt wedge obtained by experimental observations. Sargent & Jirka (1987) suggested a longitudinal subdivision of the wedge into three regions: the tip region, the quasiequilibrium region, and the exit region. The tip and exit regions have a highly variable force distribution resulting from adjustments in the internal stress distribution (tip) and vertical accelerations caused by a non-hydrostatic pressure distribution (exit). In practice, it was pointed out that both regions are relatively short (on the order of several water depths) and the quasi-equilibrium region is the controlling factor for the overall dynamics of the salt wedge.

The density and velocity distributions in the vertical direction are also shown in Figure 1.1. The thickness of the variable density layer is about 1/10 to 1/15 that of the velocity profiles. Therefore, it is commonly accepted that the flow may be vertically divided by the density interface (the 50% point between maximum and minimum density, usually also coincident with the maximum gradient point) into an upper layer and lower layer (the so-called 'two-layer(ed) stratified flow' approximation).

Velocity profiles are often approximated by tanh(z) or erf(z) functions due mainly to their mathematical convenience, and acceptable matching with observations. Although there have been several theoretical investigations to determine the velocity distributions based on boundary layer theory, the derived very high order (8th and 9th) polynomial functions do not seem to provide sufficient improvement to justify such a complicated mathematical treatment (see Keulegan 1944). Therefore, the general trend is to approximate the velocity profile using a tanh(z) function, particularly for upper layer profiles. On the other hand, since the lower layer typically shows reverse flow due to the mass balance in cases of an 'arrested' salt wedge, a second order polynomial function is commonly employed for the velocity approximation, based on widthaveraged volume conservation.

In the quasi-equlibrium region, it is generally observed that the inflection point of velocity profiles coincides with its density interface level. By contrast, the tip and exit regions show significant displacement of the velocity inflection points from the density interface due to their stress distributions. This displacement can reach about 20% to 30% of the shear layer thickness; as will be explained later, the conventional hydrodynamic stability theory is not applicable for these cases. Details of the overall flow properties can be found in many papers and articles such as Schijf & Schonfeld (1953), Kaneko (1966), Keulegan (1966), Suga & Takahashi (1976), Grubert (1980), Arita, Jirka & Tamai (1986) and Arita & Jirka (1987). All of these indicate that the dynamics of a salt wedge is strongly related to the interfacial wave phenomena schematically illustrated in Figure 1.2 (which was produced from photographs using visualization technique).

Generally, interfacial waves first form at a distance of about 20 to 30 cm (which is approximately 15 to 20 times longer than shear layer thickness) from the wedge tip and then persist over the main region of the wedge. The predominant waves propagate downstream (see Figure 1.2) and are somewhat irregular in shape with a cusp-like structure as shown in Figure 1.3. (flow pattern (I)). The high vorticity concentrations existing above these interfacial waves can be visualized by injecting dye just above the density interface. As the interfacial wave passes downstream, another type of wave appears. This wave is generally moving upstream with a very small phase velocity and its shape looks anti-symmetric to other waves with respect to the density interface. These two types of waves eventually interact with each other and induce mixing by ejecting eddies from their creats into both the upper and lower layers (see wave pattern (II)).

Around the exit region, wave amplitudes increase drastically and strong mixing occurs. Waves in this region propagate with almost the same velocity as the density interface velocity, and eventually the interface itself starts rolling up.

Nishida & Yoshida (1984) classified these interfacial phenomena into the four groups shown in Figure 2 in previous section. The flow direction of upper layer is from left to right, and the lower layer flows in the opposite direction. They named the interfacial waves caused by strong vorticity concentration above the interface as "SVA waves"; these have been recognized as fast-propagating predominant waves on the salt wedge by several researchers (each of them given different names, such as wave I by Hino & Hung (1982)). Another commonly observed wave is the SVB wave, due to vorticity concentration below the interface, propagating in the opposite direction to SVA waves (called wave II by Hino & Hung). Although these two waves are identified as Holmboe modes in the Hydrodynamic stability theory, their properties still provoke many questions particularly in a complicated system such as the salt wedge.

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In the exit region, as was mentioned before, a third type of wave is observed, named SVC waves here. These are believed to be caused by a mechanism very similar to the well-known Kelvin-Helmholtz (K-H) instability mechanism. (n fact, this type of flow represents the first successful application of stability analysis to actual flow systems in nature.

The fourth pattern is found in more turbulent, well developed flow and often has a smaller density gradient at the density interface level.

This classification is very convenient, especially for salt wedge flow, because of the different names for two Holmboe modes moving in upstream and downstream directions. Therefore, we will follow this Nishida & Yoshida's naming tor the rest of this study.

In the next sub-section, experimental work related to these first two Holmboe modes (i.e. SVA and SVB waves) will be reviewed, in order to understand the basic mixing mechanism on the salt wedge.

1.2.3 Interfacial Waves and Instabilities

The earliest experiments which considered stability were performed by Keulegan (1949). His model was designed to investigate the relationship between global (overall) flow properties and the wave mixing phenomena of two layer stratified flow. Figure 1.4 shows schematics of his

apparatus and a sketch of the observed interfacial mixing process. Regardless of discharge variation and initial density differences, the fundamental mixing mechanisms found in these systems were identical: waves always had a sharp crest towards the upper side, and the mechanism of mixing was an ejection of eddies from the crests into the moving current as shown in Figure 1.4. At the time of Keulegan's work, however, this type of instability could not be explained theoretically, making it very difficult to explain this phenomenon. Even with present knowledge of Holmboe instabilities, which provides additional unstable modes in stratified flow, this phenomenon is not clearly understood, since only one type of wave was found in the flow instead of a pair of SVA and SVB waves as predicted by Holmboe (1962). This phenomenon, namely isolation of a single mode, was later found in several experiments, and was called 'one-sidedness' by Maxworthy & Browand (1975).

Although Keulegan's experiments do not provide enough information (such as vertical velocity and density distributions) to evaluate the flow stability using present knowledge, his results clarify the most fundamental mixing mechanism on the salt wedge.

Since the discovery of these additional unstable modes, new experimental data on the Holmboe instability has been quite sparse, despite theoretical and mathematical investigations. This is probably due to the fact that stratification in the atmosphere and ocean has relatively

small density gradients and under such conditions, K-H instability usually has larger growth rates than Holmboe modes. Qualitative investigations and observation of nonlinear evolutions of these Holmboe modes was performed experimentally by Browand & Wang (1972), and Browand & Winant (1973). Figure 1.5 shows their experimental set-ups and typical velocity and density profiles. It was found that the overall Richardson number (defined as $Rio=g\Delta\rho h/\rho (\Delta U)^{2}$ where $\Delta\rho$ and ΔU are density and velocity differences across the shear layer, respectively) varied from 0 to approximately 2.0 as the flow progressed downstream and tended to be stable after a certain distance from the splitter plates. This fact indicates the existence of a critical Richardson number for stability which could not be found using inviscid theory. Although the experiments were intended to investigate mainly strong non-linear evolutions of waves and vortex pairing, which are essential causes of mixing, some aspects are applicable to salt wedges particularly in the region where SVA and SVB waves interact.

Besides the 'one-sidedness' problem, three-dimensional structures of waves and flow are another phenomena still not well understood. Figure 1.6 shows a typical flow pattern observed in a relatively wide open channel (This photograph was taken by Yonemitsu (1986) using dyed thread visualization method): it can been seen that there are high and low speed regions in the lateral directions. The predominant waves (SVA) tend to be highly three-dimensional under this

circumstance, with several wave crest/troughs typically appearing across any wedge section in the high-speed regions The number of such lateral waves seem to be of flow. strongly affected by channel cross-section aspect ratios. There is some research that suggest this three-dimensional structure, particularly in the fresh water layer, is related to the channel secondary flows (Tashiro, Yoshida and Yoneya (1983), Yonemitsu (1986) etc). Visualization indicates that high speed regions tend to have higher shear stress at the interface: therefore, it is understandable that SVA waves are observed more often in these regions. On the other hand, SVB waves always appear in the low speed region where there is stronger back flow and lower interfacial shear stress; a fact which cannot be explained by our present knowledge of stability theory. This fact implies that wave properties may not be predicted accurately using width averaged quantities. Thus, more intensive and precise experiments with consideration of such three-dimensional flow structures must be performed in order to understand the mechanisms of interfacial wave phenomena. In the next sub-section, mathematical treatments of the interfacial wave phenomena will be reviewed.

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(b) Mixing processes

Figure 1.4. Schematics of experimental flume and process of mixing described by Keulegan (1949)



(a) side view of water channel



(b) Density and velocity distributions

Figure 1.5. Adopted schematic of stratified flow experiment of Browand and Winant. (1973)



Figure 1.6. Velocity distribution of upper layer fluid in the lateral direction (channel dimension of cross section is $50 \times 10^{\circ} \text{cm}$, visualized about 1cm above the density interface by dye injection method).

1.3 MATHEMATICAL MODELS OF INTERFACIAL WAVES

1.3.1 Introduction

As was mentioned in a previous section, it may be reasonable to treat the arrested salt wedge as two layer stratified flow without mixing at or through the density interface (Schijf & Schonfeld (1953)). This type of treatment is also common in many other areas of fluid dynamics in order to explain a variety of phenomena in the ocean and atmosphere.

Natural bodies of fluid such is the atmosphere, oceans and lakes are characteristically stably stratified. When they are disturbed in any way, internal waves are generated. This wave phenomenon and the generation mechanism have attracted the interests of many researchers since the middle of 19th century. One of the reasons is that this phenomenon is regarded as a primary mechanism of laminar-turbulent flow transition and, therefore, is expected to explain phenomena ranging from temperature fluctuations in the deep ocean to the formation of clouds in the lee of mountains. Because of such a wide variety of applications, intensive research has been performed in the areas of Oceanography, Meteorology and Applied Mathematics. Despite the early research attempts, dramatic progress towards understanding this phenomena has only been accomplished in the last 30 years due mainly to the development of computer and numerical schemes. Examples of books where the mathematical details of the linear stability

theory can be found are Chandrasekhar (1961), Betchov & Criminale (1967), Turner (1973), LeBlond & Mysak (1978), and Drazin & Reid (1981).

In this section, the stability analysis of two-layer and quasi-two-layer systems will be reviewed specifically from the salt wedge application point of view. The review will start with simple two layer inviscid two-dimensional models with piece-wise linear velocity profiles, and then proceed to more complicated systems employing viscosity-diffusivity effects and various boundary conditions. Finally, some of the latest three-dimensional instability theory and its numerical results will also be referred to.

1.3.2 Hydrodynamic Stability

Stability can be defined as the quality of robustness. This idea has been applied widely to mechanical, astronomical and electrical systems which have only a few discrete degrees of freedom. In the study of a continuous medium such as a fluid, however, the number of degrees of freedom is infinite and the question becomes substantially more difficult. In particular, the basic equations take the form of a system of nonlinear partial differential equations. In spite of the additional complications, progress toward an understanding of such system is made with the use of linearized approximations and by appropriately extending the theory developed for discrete systems. Such a mathematical treatment of stability to explain the waves and mixing mechanism was initiated by Helmholtz (1868) and Kelvin (1971). The velocity and density profiles which they investigated are shown in Figure 1.7. It was found that one unstable wave mode which is $C_R=0.0$ can exist in the system. This wave mode is now called 'Kelvin Helmholtz' (K-H) instability. Although Figure 1.8 shows a typical K-H instability observed in the atmosphere as a cloud formation, field investigations by Woods (1968), Atlas et al.(1970), Gossard et al.(1971), Gossard (1974) and Garrett & Munk (1979) also support the existence of this wave mechanism.

In a two-layer system such as the salt wedge, however, two additional unstable waves which are C_R≠0.0 with completely different features from K-H instability have been found. These modes are actually dominant waves for the mixing mechanism in the salt wedge; as was mentioned in a previous section, much research has been performed on these waves. Holmboe (1962) found these additional modes by employing a simple two-layer piece-wise linear velocity profile model with so-called 'symmetric wave analysis', and Hazel (1972) obtained details on the structure of these modes through numerical analysis.

Hazel's model utilized continuous velocity and density profiles which were approximated by tanh(z) functions. The details of these works can be found by reviewing articles by Drazin & Howard (1966), Thorpe (1973), Howard & Maslowe (1973) and Drazin & Reid (1981).

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The velocity profiles, density profiles and stability diagrams obtained by Holmboe are shown in Figure 1.9, where α is the wave number, non-dimensionalized by the shear layer thickness d, and Ri_o is the overall (global) Richardson number defined as follows:

$$\operatorname{Ri}_{1} = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{gd} \left(\frac{\rho_{2} - \rho_{1}}{\rho_{1} + \rho_{2}} \right) / U^{2}$$

According to this diagram, it can be seen that unstable modes (called 'over-stability' by Holmboe in order to distinguish these additional dispersive mode from K-H modes, and now these modes are generally called Holmboe modes) are limited to a narrow wave number band which extends to $Ri_0=\infty$.

The same types of solution were obtained by Hazel numerically using more realistic velocity and density profiles (Figure 1.10 and 1.11). He investigated the flow stability by varying the ratio between shear layer thickness and density transition layer thickness, and helped clarify the relationship between K-H modes and Holmboe modes. To perform a comparison with other two-layer models, it is necessary to modify the solutions, as is shown below, since Hazel's model employed slightly different characteristic scales,

$$\rho_1 = \overline{\rho} \exp \left(-\frac{\sigma}{R}\right)$$
, at $y = \infty$,

 $\rho_2 = \overline{\rho} \exp\left(\frac{\sigma}{R}\right)$, at $y = -\infty$, and

$$1 - \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2} = 1 - \gamma = 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{2\sigma}{R}\right)$$

Then,

$$\sigma = -\frac{\mathbf{R}}{2} \log \gamma \approx \frac{\mathbf{R}}{2} (1-\gamma), \text{ when } 1-\gamma << 1.$$

Therefore,

$$Ri_{Hardel} = \frac{\gamma gh}{V^2} \approx \frac{Regh}{2V^2} = \frac{R}{2} Ri_{Holmboe}$$

Using this conversion, Hazel's solutions give very good agreement with Holmboe's solutions when **R** >5.0. Although Nishida & Yoshida (1990) pointed out that Hazel's solution for K-H modes disappear asymptotically as **R** becomes larger (equivalent to the two layer modelling) Hazel's model provides an excellent explanation of the instability mechanism for Holmboe modes. Since it is still not clear just what is the reason for this mismatching between twolayer and continuous density model results, further investigation is required.

1.3.3 Viscosity Effects on Stability

Despite the excellent results of Hazel's calculations, his model could not explain some observed facts such as the presence of a critical value for the overall Richardson number (with regards to instability) and a Reynolds number dependency. Naturally, the next step in stability analysis was to include the viscosity and diffusivity effects into the governing equations (this was particularly necessary for gradually varying stratified flow). Since high Richardson number flow shows extremely small growth rates in the inviscid models, it is expected that consideration of the viscosity for such systems may decrease growth rates to the point that the flow is stabilized and thus induce the critical Richardson number.

The governing equations were derived by Orr (1906) and Sommerfeld (1908) for the case of viscous flows, and by Koppel (1964) for viscous-diffusive systems. These equations are 4th and 6th order ordinary differential equations respectively, and their mathematical behaviour has been extensively investigated. If the velocity and density profiles such as those of Hazel and Holmboe are used, the solutions become very complicated and the problems must be solved numerically. Maslowe & Thompson (1971) and Miller & Gage (1972) performed this numerical analysis for the 6th order governing equations based on Hazel's velocity and density distributions (see Figure 1.12). It was found that the effects of viscosity on stability was relatively small and the neutral boundaries did not change except for very low Reynolds number flows (Re<150). This result is similar to results obtained by Lessen (1950) and Gotoh (1971) for the homogeneous case. For a salt wedge, the range for Reynolds number is around 50<Re<300 and it may be important to include the viscosity effects to improve the predictions. However, since Hazel's and Holmboe's density distribution produces a relatively thick density transition layer, it is not suitable

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to explain the wave phenomena in this type of two layer stratified flow system.

The Orr-Sommerfeld equation (4th order) was employed in the two layer models analyzed by Nishida & Yoshida (1990) since the diffusivity effects are negligibly small for these systems. Figure 1.13 shows the velocity and density profiles and the resulting stability diagrams for different Reynolds numbers. It can be seen clearly that unstable regions are bounded as the Reynolds number Re decreases, and the critical Richardson number Ric is about 1.5. This analysis explains the experimental results very well, particularly in unbounded cases of the two layer system. However, for the analysis of the salt wedge flow, it was found that the phase velocities of Holmboe modes, which have smaller velocities (i.e.SVB), are always underestimated by this calculation. Also, as was mentioned in the previous section, the salt wedge showed subdivisions with different wave formations, and Nishida's results cannot explain the mechanism of this phenomenon. This fact implies that there are other factors determining the stability of a salt wedge besides viscosity.

1.3.4 Rigid Boundary Effects

The other important factor determining the stability of the salt wedge is probably the presence of a rigid boundary. Stability of the flow with such boundaries was first investigated by Howard (1964) on a homogeneous hyperbolic tangential shear layer. It was found that the critical

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distance from the inflection point to the rigid boundary (i.e. where the flow becomes stable for all wavelengths) was Zer=1.1997 as non-dimensional length based upon a half length of shear layer thickness. For stratified cases, Hazel (1972) used his model to evaluate the effect of reducing the lower layer thickness. Although the calculations showed some numerical instability problems, the critical values of the lower layer thickness for stability were found to be in the range 1.195<Zer<1.205.

Both Howard and Hazel employed inviscid models; a treatment followed by Lalas & Einaudi (1976), Einaudi & Lalas (1976), Lindzen & Rosenthal (1976), Davis & Peltier (1977) and Fua & Einaudi (1984) to solve atmospheric boundary layer problems. Although these papers considered models of varying complexity and realism, the main qualitative results of all were identical. For example, the result obtained by Lalas and Einaudi is shown in Figure 1.14. It is clearly seen that the presence of the boundary leads to extra modes of instability. These additional modes have different features from K-H and Holmboe modes and were named 'resonant' modes by Davis & Peltier (1976). The main differences observed were longer wavelengths, lower phase velocity and smaller growth rates than the K-H modes. Besides these facts, these modes propagate in the region between the shear layer and the lower rigid boundary, which is quite similar to the SVB waves. Both Lindzen & Rosenthal (1976) and Davis & Peltier (1976) were able to show that the mechanism responsible for the

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existence of resonant instabilities is critical level overreflection, a phenomena which explains the microscale structures in the atmosphere very well.

However, because of the exponentially varying density profile, this analysis is not applicable to salt wedges. Their definition of the Richardson number is based on density gradient dp/dz, (so-called local or gradient Richardson number Ri_L). In a salt wedge, Ri_L=0 except at the density interface where Ri_L= ∞ . Hino & Hung (1982) introduced this boundary effect into the salt-wedge type flow stability problems by using the realistic velocity and density profiles shown in Figure 1.15. Interestingly, although their calculations show several modes with positive and negative phase velocities, none of them are unstable. Thus, these modes may be due to numerical instabilities.

All these calculations overestimate the stabilizing effects of the rigid boundary, since it was found that salt wedges have SVA waves in the region where $Z_R=0.4$ to 0.5. A possible explanation of this fact may be that the density interface destabilizes the Holmboe modes. Therefore, in order to evaluate the boundary effects for salt wedge flow, it is necessary to consider two layer viscous models.

1.3.5 Density Interface Displacement Effects

Experiments show that the center of the shear layer tends to be displaced with respect to the density interface especially in the tip and exit regions of the salt wedge. Lawrence et al. (1991) investigated the stability features of these displaced flow systems by using relatively simple inviscid two-layer models (see Figure 1.16 and 1.17). The results show that additional Holmboe modes appear in the large wave number region near the Rio=0 axis. These modes have two pairs of complex conjugate roots having positive and negative real parts equal in magnitude. It was also found that new unstable waves, called 'mode I instability', are obtained (providing an extension to K-H instability) which are dispersive. It is interesting that Holmboe modes eventually move closer to the Rio=0 axis as displacement d increases and disappear at d=1.0. This result is understandable since Holmboe modes are induced by the existence of strong stratification in the shear layer and agree with Hazel's analysis qualitatively.

Although this model is quite simple, it indicates that stability properties are strongly influenced by the displacement d. This implies a sensitivity to velocity and, therefore, it will be necessary to develop an appropriate model for the stability analysis of a salt wedge because of its velocity profiles. Such a sensitivity of stability features to background velocity and density profiles may induce three-dimensional wave structures on the density interface, since the flow field is three-dimensional.

1.3.6 Three-Dimensional Instabilities

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As was mentioned in section 1.2.3, three-dimensional structures of interfacial waves are another commonly observed problem in salt wedges. Because of the consequences of Squire's theorem (Squire 1933), it is always assumed a priori that an initially one-dimensional flow will pass through a distinct two-dimensional state before being dependent on the third spatial coordinate (lateral direction). Threedimensional structures are therefore generally considered to be results of secondary non-linear instability after full development of primary two-dimensional instabilities. A typical example of this idea can be seen in a homogeneous fluid analysis such as the numerical analysis of a mixing layer (Metcalfe et al. 1987) etc.

However, in the case of a salt wedge, flow is very laminar and even fully developed interfacial waves have a relatively small non-linearity when compared to homogeneous cases. Therefore, it is natural to consider that threedimensional wave structures are, somehow, induced by the flow structures caused by channel configurations. Another possibility is the existence of three-dimensional primary instability associated with strong stratification as predicted by Smyth & Peltier (1990). This particular idea will be discussed in part 5.

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Figure 1.7. Velocity and density profiles of Kelvin Helmholtz models.



Plate 1.8 K-H instability in atmosphere



(b) Stability boundaries

Figure 1.9 (a), (b) Velocity and density profiles and the stability boundaries. (Adopted from Holmboe (1962))



Figure 1.10 The velocity and density distributions of Hazel's model(1972)



Figure 1.11 (a), (b) The modified stability diagram obtained by Hazel (1972) U=tanh(z), $\log(\rho_o/\rho)=\sigma \tanh(Rz)/R$ with R=5.0 case.



(b) Neutral boundaries (i.e. $C_I=0.0$) for various Richardson numbers.

Figure 1.12 (a), (b) Adopted stability diagrams calculated by Maslowe and Thompson (1971)



Figure 1.13. Velocity and density profiles and the stability boundaries. (Adopted from Nishida and Yoshida (1984, 1987))



Figure 1.14. Velocity and density profiles and the stability boundaries. (Adopted from Lalas and Einaudi (1976))



(a) Velocity and density profiles



Figure 1.15. Velocity and density profiles and the stability diagram R=5.0 Pr=7.5 Re=50 J_0 =0.15 α =0.7 case (Adopted from Hino, Nadaoka & Hung (1984))







Figure 1.17 (a)-(d) Density interface displacement effects (Adopted from Lawrence et al.(1991))


(d) d=1.0 case

1.4 CONCLUSION

Based on the forgoing experimental and mathematical review, the following conclusions may be made:

(i) Experiments show that a salt wedge can be separated into three sub-divisions based on their stress distributions: the tip, quasi-equilibrium, and exit regions. In each region, velocity profiles can be approximated by a tach(c) function. The inflection points may be significantly displaced with respect to the density interface in the tip and exit regions.

(ii) Due to secondary flow structures in the fresh water layer, high and low speed regions develop. The number of regions is strongly related to the channel aspect ratio.

(iii) Mixing of salt and fresh water in salt wedge flow is dominated by the interfacial wave phenomena. Two wave groups of different phase velocities are observed. These have been named Holmboe modes. For convenience, Holmboe waves with $C_R>0.0$ will be called SVA waves, those with $C_4<0.0$ will be called SVB waves.

(iv) SVA waves are predominant through almost the entire range of the salt wedge. In contrast, SVB waves are observed to a limited degree only low speed, relatively low interfacial shear stress regions. There are few mathematical and numerical models applicable to salt wedge flow and no practical explanation exists concerning the localization of these wave modes. These results indicate that it is necessary to perform further analysis and investigation in the following area:

(i) Rigid boundary effects on the stability of twolayered stratified flows, both inviscid and viscous cases.

(?) Effects of velocity inflection point displacement with respect to the density interface for viscous fluxe.

(iii) Complete set of wave and flow property measurements with consideration of three-dimensional flow structures in the channel.

In the following sections, these problems will be analysed by performing analytical, numerical and experimental investigations.

2. PART TWO: THEORETICAL ANALYSIS (INVISCID MODELS)

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The waves on a saline we ge with rigid boundaries usually have a very complex three-dimensional structure. In order to understand this problem, many approaches have involved increasing the complexity of velocity and identity profiles, at the same time considering non-linear effects on the governing equations. Despite all the efforts, the problem is still not clearly understood. In this section, relatively simple velocity and density distributions will be used to understand the mechanism of the rigid boundary effects on the stability of these systems. The first step in the procedure will be to derive a governing equation $\mathrm{b}\gamma$ applying infinitesimally small perturbations to the inviscid, incompressible two-dimensional flow. Next, two models will solve this equation for rigid boundary conditions. Model I is designed to evaluate the effects of the lower layer thickness, Z_R , on the stability. Model II will test rigid boundary velocity effects. Both models employ a two-layer density distribution which has a distinctive interface and piece-wise linear velocity profile. These conditions will significantly simplify the analysis and make it easy to understand the physics behind the phenomena.

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2.2 GOVERNINIG EQUATIONS

2.2.1 Basic Assumptions and Governing Equations

The Cartesian co-ordinate system is basically the same as was utilized in previous sections and is defined as follows.

 The X co-ordinate and accordated velocities will are in the direction of flow parallel to the channel center line. The origin may be established arbitrarily.
 The Y co-ordinate and velocity v are in the lateral direction of the channel. When two-dimensional (plane) flow is assumed, ∂/∂y=0 and v=0.
 The Z co-ordinate originates at the density intertacts or the steepest density gradient point and is contitive upwards; w is the corresponding velocity.

In this chapter we limit our discussion to twodimensional incompressible inviscid flow in order to simplify the problem as follows:

 The fluid dynamics is governed by the adlatation equations. Therefore, the following assumptions may be made:

i) incompressible flow;

$$\frac{D\rho}{Dt} = 0 , \qquad (2.2.1)$$
where

$$\frac{D}{Dt} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + u\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + v\frac{\partial}{\partial y} + w\frac{\partial}{\partial z}$$

convective derivative.

ii) no non-conservative processes.(eg. viscosity, diffusivity, etc.)

The continuity equation becomes

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0 \qquad (2.2.2)$$

And the momentum equation becomes

$$\frac{\mathbf{D}\mathbf{V}}{\mathbf{D}\mathbf{t}} + \frac{1}{\mathbf{\rho}}\nabla\mathbf{p} + g\widehat{\mathbf{e}_3} = 0 , \qquad (2.2.3)$$

where $\widehat{e_3}$ is a unit vector of vertical direction.

2) Hydrostatic balance between $P_O(z)$ and $P_O(z)$ must

hold. Thus, in the absence of motion,

$$\mathbf{v} = 0$$
, $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{p}_0(z)$, $\mathbf{\rho} = \mathbf{\rho}_0(z)$. (2.2.4)

and Po and Po are exact solutions of the adiabatic equations. Namely,

$$\frac{\mathsf{D}\boldsymbol{\rho}_{\mathsf{O}}(z)}{\mathsf{D}\mathsf{t}} = 0 , \ \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0 , \qquad (2.2.5)$$

:
$$\frac{dp_{0}(z)}{dz} = -\rho_{0}(z) g$$
 (2.2.6)

3) Flow is two-dimensional, which is

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} = 0$$
, v=0
. (2.2.7)

From conditions 1),2) and 3), the governing equations become

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} = 0 \qquad (2.2.8)$$

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} + w \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial z} = 0 \qquad (2.2.9)$$

$$p \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + w \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \right) + \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} = 0 , \qquad (3.3310)$$

$$p\left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} + w \frac{\partial w}{\partial z}\right) + \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} + p z = 0$$
(2...11)

$$\frac{dp_{O}(z)}{dz} = -\rho_{O}(z)g \qquad (..., ...)$$

This system of equations will be examined for stability by introducing infinitesimal perturbations on the steady state solutions of the system. The procedure will be described in the next section.

2.2.2 Taylor-Goldstein Equation

We consider steady-state solutions of the term,

- $u = U_0(z)$, (2.2.13)
- w = 0, (2.2.14)

$$\rho = \rho_0(z) , \qquad (1.1.15)$$

$$p = p_0(z) , \qquad (1.1.1)$$

where

$$\frac{d\mathbf{p}_{0}(\pi)}{dz} = -\mathbf{p}_{0}(z)g \qquad (2.5.15)$$

opace, the system is called 'unstable'. The governing equations (2.8) to (2.12) obey Squire's theorem (1933), which means that "For every three-dimensional unstable disturbance, there is a more unstable two-dimensional disturbance". It implies that the small perturbations can be written as functions of x,z, and t. Here perturbation quantities are denoted by the tilde superscript.

$$u = U_{O}(z) + \widetilde{u}(x, z, t)$$
, (...2.19)

$$w = 0 + \widetilde{w}(x, z, t)$$
, (2.2.19)

$$\rho = \rho_0(z) + \tilde{\rho}(x, z, t)$$
, (2.2.20)

$$p = p_0(z) + \tilde{p}(x, z, t)$$
 (2.2.21)

Substituting these quantities into the adiabatic equation system, the terms containing products of perturbation quantities result from a fluctuation on another fluctuation. If the fluctuation has a frequency ω , the coupled terms will have frequency 0 or 2ω . Therefore they will either modify the nonfluctuating flow or introduce higher harmonics.

Since such difficulties disappear if we assume that the fluctuations and their derivatives have small amplitude, let us linearize the equations by neglecting the quadratic perturbation terms. Then

$$\frac{\partial \widetilde{u}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \widetilde{w}}{\partial z} = 0 \qquad (2.2.22)$$

$$\frac{\partial \widetilde{\rho}}{\partial t} + U_0 \frac{\partial \widetilde{\rho}}{\partial x} + \widetilde{w} \frac{\partial \rho_0}{\partial z} = 0, \qquad (2.2.23)$$

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$$\frac{\partial \widetilde{u}}{\partial t} + U_{0} \frac{\partial \widetilde{u}}{\partial x} + \widetilde{w} \frac{\partial U_{0}}{\partial z} + \frac{1}{\rho_{0}} \frac{\partial \widetilde{p}}{\partial x} = 0 \qquad (2.2.24)$$

$$\frac{\partial \widetilde{w}}{\partial t} + U_{O} \frac{\partial \widetilde{w}}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{\rho_{O}} \frac{\partial \widetilde{p}}{\partial z} + \frac{\rho}{\rho_{O}} q = 0 \qquad (\Box \cup \Box \cup \Box)$$

The advantage of linearity is that by assuming the solutions of this system are normal mode forms, it is possible to reduce the system of partial differential equations (2.2.22),(2.2.23),(2.2.24),(2.2.25) to ordinary differential equations, facilitating the analysis. Thus, the following forms of solution are assumed:

$$\widetilde{\mathbf{u}} = \left(\widehat{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{z}) \exp\left(i\alpha \mathbf{x} - i\omega \mathbf{t}\right) + c.c.\right)/2$$

= $\left(\widehat{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{z}) \exp\left(i\alpha (\mathbf{x} - c\mathbf{t})\right) + c.c.\right)/2$, (2.12.26)

$$\widetilde{\mathbf{w}} = \left(\widehat{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{z}) \exp\left(i\alpha(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{ct})\right) + \mathbf{c.c.}\right)/2 , \qquad (2.12.27)$$

$$\widetilde{\rho} = \left(\widehat{\rho}(z) \exp\left(i\alpha(x-ct)\right) + c.c.\right)/2, \qquad (2.1...38)$$

$$\widetilde{p} = (\widehat{p}(z) \exp(i\alpha(x-ct) + c.c.))/2, \qquad (2.2.29)$$

where $c = \frac{\omega}{\alpha}$ is the complex phase velocity and c.v. in the complex conjugate. (2.2.30)

If the complex phase speed is written in the form

$$c = c_R + i c_1$$
, (2.2.31)

we may rewrite the perturbation quantities as

 $\widetilde{\mathbf{f}} = \left(\widehat{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{z}) \exp\left(i\alpha\left(\mathbf{x} - (\mathbf{c}_{\mathsf{R}} + i\mathbf{c}_{1})\mathbf{t}\right)\right) + c.c.\right)/2,$ $= \left(\widehat{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{z}) \exp\left(\mathbf{c}_{\mathsf{I}}\mathbf{t}\right) \exp\left(i\alpha\left(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{c}_{\mathsf{R}}\mathbf{t}\right)\right) + c.c.\right)/2, \qquad (2.2.32)$

This relation shows that if the imaginary percent the phase velocity C_1 is non-zero, then the perturbation is either growing or decaying with time (i.e. the system is either 'unstable' or 'stable'). If $C_1=0$, then the perturbation

remains with the same amplitude as the initial state, and the system is neutrally stable. Therefore, a complex phase velocity c as a function of the given parameters related to velocity and density profiles, the stability of the flow system can be judged.

Let us substitute (2.2.26) to (2.2.30) into equations (2.2.22) to (2.2.25), then

$$i\alpha \widehat{u} + \frac{d\widehat{w}}{dz} = 0 \qquad (2.2.33)$$

$$i\alpha (U_0-c) \hat{\rho} + \frac{d\rho_0}{dz} \hat{w} = 0$$
, (2.2.34)

$$\rho_{O}\left(i\alpha \left(U_{O}-c\right)\widehat{u}+\frac{dU_{O}}{dz}\widehat{w}\right)+i\alpha\widehat{p}=0, \qquad (2.2.35)$$

$$\rho_0 i\alpha (U_0 - c) \widehat{w} + \frac{d\widehat{p}}{dz} + \widehat{\rho}g = 0 \qquad (2.2.36)$$

Solving this system in terms of \widehat{w} produces

$$(p_{0} (U_{0}-c) \widehat{w}')' - (p_{0} U_{0}' \widehat{w})' - \left| \frac{p_{0}'g}{U_{0}-c} + p_{c}\alpha^{2} (U_{0}-c) \right| \widehat{w} = 0$$

$$(2.2.37)$$

where ' means d/dz.

Equation (2.2.37) is called the Taylor-Goldstein (T-G) equation in honour of its derivation and exploitation by Taylor (1931) and Goldstein (1931). Note that the equation and the boundary conditions, which will be discussed in the next sub-section, are unchanged when α is replaced by $-\alpha$. Thus, without loss of generality, we can take $\alpha > 0$.

2.2.3 Boundary and Matching Conditions

To simplify the problem, in this section we will consider the very simple flow configuration with constant density and piecewise velocity profiles. In this case, \hat{p} and $U_0^{"}$ become zero in each layer except for the boundary between layers and the Taylor-Goldstein equation becomes,

$$\frac{d^2\widehat{w}}{dz^2} - \alpha^2 \widehat{w} = 0 \qquad (2.2.38)$$

The general form of the solution of this equation is well known and is written as

$$\hat{w} = A_1 \exp(\alpha^2 z) + A_2 \exp(-\alpha^2 z)$$
 (2.2.39)

where A_1 and A_2 are complex coefficients which can be determined by the boundary conditions and matching conditions between layers.

Since the flow is inviscid, there are two types of boundary conditions given as follows:

1) Rigid wall boundary: in this case

$$\hat{w} = 0$$
 at $z = z_{wall}$. (2.2.40)

2) Unbounded boundary: Solution has to be 'bounded' at either $z = \infty$ or $z = -\infty$.

The boundaries between each layer are generally deformed by the motion of the fluids (Figure 2.1), and two different matching conditions are required. These are: 1) Kinematic matching condition:

This implies the normal component of the velocity field is continuous across the deformed interface.



at $z = d \cdot \eta$.

However, in this case, it is assumed that wave field is very small (i.e. $\eta\!<\!\!<\!\!\mathrm{d}$). Thus,

$$w \approx \widetilde{w} , \qquad (.^{*}..^{*}.4^{*})$$
$$u \approx U_{0}(z) + \widetilde{u} , \qquad (.^{*}..^{*}.4^{*})$$

and when substituted into (2.2.43) and (2.2.44), Taylor expanding about z = d and neglecting quadratic eddy quantity terms,

$$\widetilde{w}^{*} = \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} + U_{0}(d^{*}) \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial x}, \qquad (2.1..47)$$
$$\widetilde{w}^{*} = \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} + U_{0}(d^{*}) \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial x}, \qquad (1.1.47)$$

Assuming wave perturbations of the form

$$\eta = (\widehat{\eta} \exp (i\alpha x - i\omega t) + c.c.) / 2$$

= $(\widehat{\eta} \exp (i\alpha (x - ct)) + c.c.) / 2$, (2.2.4*)

then

$$\widetilde{w}^{*} = \left(U_{\alpha}(d^{*}) - c\right) \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial x}, \qquad (2.2.50)$$

$$\widetilde{w}^{-} = \left(U_{o} \left(d^{-} \right) - c \right) \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial x} , \qquad (2.2.51)$$

which is equivalent to

$$\widehat{\mathbf{w}}^{*} = (\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{c}}(\mathbf{d}^{*}) - \mathbf{c}) i \alpha \widehat{\mathbf{\eta}} , \qquad (2.2.52)$$

$$\widehat{\mathbf{w}}^{*} = (\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{c}}(\mathbf{d}^{*}) - \mathbf{c}) i \alpha \widehat{\mathbf{\eta}} , \qquad (2.2.53)$$

implying

$$i \alpha \widehat{\eta} = \frac{\widehat{w}}{(U_{o}(d^{*}) - c)} = \frac{\widehat{w}}{(U_{o}(d^{-}) - c)},$$
 (2.2.54)

$$\frac{\widehat{w}^{*}}{(U_{o}(d^{*})-c)} - \frac{\widehat{w}^{-}}{(U_{o}(d^{-})-c)} = 0 \qquad (2.2.55)$$

If we define the "jump" bracket [] as

$$\left[f(z) \right] = \lim \left(f(d+\varepsilon) - f(d-\varepsilon) \right)$$

$$\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$$
 (2.2.56)

equation (2.2.) can be re-written as

$$\left[\frac{\widehat{w}}{U-c}\right] = 0 \qquad \text{at } z = d , \qquad (2.2.57)$$

where [] is the "jump" bracket.

This is the kinematic matching condition.

2) Dynamic matching condition:

This condition states that the pressure must be continuous across the deformed interface. First, consider the steady state solutions which have no wave-like interfacial deformations. If it is noted that

$\rho_{O}(z) = \rho_{1}(z)$	in layer I,	(2.2.58)
$\rho_0(z) = \rho_2(z)$	in layer II,	(2.2.59)
$p_0(z) = p_1(z)$	in layer I,	(2.2.60)
$p_{0}(z) = p_{2}(z)$	in layer II.	(2.2.61)

Then, because of the hocrostatic relationship, in layer I

 $\frac{dp_{1H}}{dz} = -\rho_1(z)g, \qquad (2.2.62)$ $p_{1H}(z) = 0 \quad \text{at } z=H, \qquad (2.2.63)$ where subscript H indicates hydrostatic pressure.

% kewise, in layer II,

$$\frac{dp_{2H}}{dz} = -\rho_{1}(z)q, \qquad (2.12.04)$$

$$\therefore \quad \mathbf{p}_{2^{\mathrm{H}}} = g \int \mathbf{p}_{2}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \, \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{\xi} + \overline{\mathbf{p}}_{2^{\mathrm{H}}}, \qquad (2.2.56^{\mathrm{h}})$$

where $\overline{P_{\text{ref}}}$ is an integration constant.

Since we must have sentimity of pressure at $d = d_{i}$ (i.e. $p_{in}(d) = p_{in}(d)$)

$$\therefore \qquad \overline{p_{2H}} = g \int_{4}^{H} p_{1}(\xi) d\xi + g \int_{4}^{4} p_{1}(\xi) d\xi \qquad , \qquad (2.2.66)$$

then

$$p_{2H}(z) = g \int_{a}^{a} \rho_{1}(\xi) d\xi + g \int_{a}^{b} \rho_{1}(\xi) d\xi$$
 (2.2.67)

If we introduce the wave-field as follows:

$$P_{1T} = P_{1H} + P_{1W}$$
, (2.2.68)

$$P_{2T} = P_{2H} + P_{2W}$$
, (2.2.69)

where subscripts T and W indicate total and wavefield pressure respectively.

The continuity of the stress field across the

deformed interface becomes,

$$p_{1T}(d+\eta) = p_{2T}(d+\eta)$$
 (2.2.70)

Performing a Taylor expansion of (2.2.70) around d (since $\eta_{<<d}$) produces,

$$p_{1H}(d) + \frac{dp_{1H}(d)}{dz} \eta + p_{1W}(d)$$

$$= p_{\rm eff}(d) + \frac{dp_{\rm eff}(d)}{dz} \eta + p_{\rm eff}(d) + O(\eta^2), \quad (2.2.71)$$

. .

Remembering equation (2.2.66), $p_{1H}(d)$ and $p_{2H}(d)$ cancel each other. Furthermore, from the hydrosticle relationship, we know

$$\frac{dp_{10}(d)}{dx} = -g \rho_1(d') \qquad (2.2.72)$$

.

$$\frac{dp_{2:H}(d)}{dz} = -g p_2(d^{-}) , \qquad (2.2.73)$$
where $d^{-} = d+\epsilon$, $d^{-} = d-\epsilon$, $\epsilon <<1$.
Since η is very small, if higher order terms of η are
neglected, then
 $-g\eta p_1(d^{-}) + p_{1W}(d^{-}) = -g\eta p_2(d^{-}) + p_{2W}(d^{-}) , (2.2.74)$
 $\therefore \{p_2(d^{-}) - p_1(d^{-})\}g\eta - \{p_{1W} - p_{2W}\} = 0 , (2.2.75)$
 $\therefore \{-g\eta p_2 + p_{2W}\} - \{-g\eta p_1 + p_{1W}\} = 0 , (2.2.76)$
at z=d.

And using the "jump" bracket, (2.2.76) can be written as

 $[-g\eta p_0 + p_w] = 0$ at z=d. (2.2.77)

Let us take the x-derivative of (2.2.77). Thus,

$$\begin{bmatrix} -\rho_{0}g\frac{\partial\eta}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial p_{W}}{\partial x} \end{bmatrix} = 0$$
 at z=d. (2.2.78)

However, from (2.2.50) and (2.2.51),

$$\frac{\partial \eta(d^{+})}{\partial x} = \frac{\widetilde{w}(d^{+})}{\left(U_{\circ}(d^{+}) - c\right)}, \qquad (2.2.79)$$

$$\frac{\partial \eta(d^{*})}{\partial x} = \frac{\widetilde{w}(d^{*})}{\left(U_{\infty}(d^{*}) - c\right)}, \qquad (1 + 1)$$

1

so

$$\left[p_{o}\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial x}\right] = \left[\frac{p_{o}\widetilde{w}}{U_{o}-c}\right] \qquad (1.111)$$

Also, if the continuity equation (....),

$$\frac{\partial \widetilde{\mathbf{u}}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = -\frac{\partial \widetilde{\mathbf{w}}}{\partial z}, \qquad (2.1.165)$$

is prostituted into the momentum equation (2.2.24),

$$\frac{\partial \widetilde{g}}{\partial x} = -\rho_0(U_2 - c) \frac{\partial \widetilde{u}}{\partial x} + \rho_0 \widetilde{w} \frac{\partial U_2}{\partial z}, \qquad (\dots, \dots, \dots, \dots)$$

then,

$$\frac{\partial \widetilde{p}}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial p_{W}}{\partial x} = \rho_{0}(U_{0}-c) \frac{\partial \widetilde{w}}{\partial z} - \rho_{0} \frac{\partial U_{0}}{\partial z} \widetilde{w} \qquad (2.2.34)$$

Therefore, the jump condition at z=d is obtained from (2.2.78), (2.2.81) and (2.2.84) as

$$\left[\rho_{0}(U_{0}-c)\frac{\partial\widetilde{w}}{\partial z}-\rho_{0}\frac{\partial U_{0}}{\partial z}\widetilde{w}-\frac{g\rho_{0}\widetilde{w}}{U_{0}-c}\right]=0$$
(2.2.6%)

which is the dynamic matching condition.

The governing equation (2.2.37) and the matching at: boundary conditions (2.2.40),(2.2.57) and (2.2.85) construct the eigenvalue problem. 2.2.4 Perturbation Quantities in the Flow

Perturbation quantities in the flow ar-easily obtained after the system is solved in terms of \widehat{w} . From the definitions, (2.2.26) to (2.2.30),

$$\widetilde{u} = \left\{ \widehat{u}(z) \exp \left(i\alpha x - i\omega t \right) + c.c. \right\} / 2$$

= $\left\{ \widehat{u}(z) \exp \left(i\alpha (x - ct) \right) + c.c. \right\} / 2$, (2.1.1)

$$\widetilde{w} = \{ \widehat{w}(z) \exp(i\alpha(x-ct)) + c.c. \} / 2,$$
 (2.2.57)

$$\tilde{\rho} = \{\hat{\rho}(z) \text{ exp } (i\alpha(x-ct)) + c.c.\}/2,$$
 (2.2.85)

$$\tilde{p} = \{\hat{p}(z) \text{ exp } (i\alpha(x-ct)) + c.c.\} /2,$$
 (2.2.89)

where c.c. means complex conjugate.

And \hat{w} has the form

$$\widehat{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{z}) = \left[\widehat{\mathbf{w}} \exp\left(i\theta\right) \right]$$
 (2.2.36)

Based upon this solution, other elements of the perturbation field can be obtained as follows:

From the continuity equation,

$$\frac{\partial \widetilde{u}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \widetilde{w}}{\partial z} = 0$$
(2.2.91)

i.e.

$$i\alpha \widetilde{u} + \frac{\partial \widetilde{w}}{\partial z} = 0$$
, (2.2.92)

then,

$$\widetilde{u} = \frac{i}{\alpha} \frac{\partial \widetilde{w}}{\partial z}$$
$$= \left| \frac{i}{\alpha} \frac{\partial \widetilde{w}}{\partial z} \exp \left(i\alpha (x - ct) \right) + c.c. \right| / 2$$
$$(2.2.93)$$

If the stream function of the perturbation velocity

field is defined as

$$\widehat{\phi} = \widehat{\phi}(z) \exp((i\alpha x - i\omega t))$$

= $\widehat{\phi}(z) \exp((i\alpha (x - ct)))$ (2.2.34)

then

$$\widetilde{\omega} = -\frac{\partial\widetilde{\phi}}{\partial x} = -i\alpha\widetilde{\phi}, \qquad (...,..)$$

so ~

$$\varphi = \frac{i}{\alpha} \widetilde{w},$$

$$= \left| \frac{i}{\alpha} \widehat{\mathbf{w}} \exp \left(i\alpha (\mathbf{x} - ct) \right) + c.c. \right| / 2 \qquad (2.1.96)$$

Therefore, from the kinematic matching condition $(1,2,47)\,,$ the interfacial deformation η satisfies

$$\widetilde{\mathbf{w}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{\eta}}{\partial \mathbf{r}} + \mathbf{U}_{o} \frac{\partial \mathbf{\eta}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}, \qquad (2.2.97)$$

but, by the definition

$$\eta = \hat{\eta} \exp (i\alpha(x-ct))$$
, (1.2.98)

then

$$\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial x} = i\alpha\eta$$

$$\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} = -i\alpha c\eta = -c \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial x}$$

$$(2.2.100)$$

then

$$\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial x} = \frac{\widetilde{w}}{U_o - c} = i\alpha\eta \qquad (2.2.101)$$

therefore, the displacement η must be calculated as

$$\eta = -\frac{i}{\alpha} \frac{\widetilde{w}}{U_{o}-c},$$

$$= \left\{ -\frac{i}{\alpha} \frac{\widehat{w}}{U_{c}-c} \exp \left(i\alpha(x-ct) \right) + c.c. \right\} / 2$$
(2.2.102)

To determine the Reynolds stress τ averaged over the wave length, the following procedure is used.

Since,

$$\tau = \frac{\alpha}{2\pi} \int_{0}^{2\pi/\alpha} (-\widetilde{u}\widetilde{w}) d\theta , \qquad (2.2.103)$$

where θ is the phase $\alpha x \text{-} \omega_{\text{R}} t$,

from (2.2.87) and (2.2.93)

$$\tau = -\frac{\alpha}{2\pi} \int_{0}^{2\pi/\alpha} \frac{1}{4} \left\{ \frac{i}{\alpha} \frac{d\widehat{w}}{dz} \exp(i\alpha x - i\omega t) - \frac{i}{\alpha} \frac{d\widehat{w}^{*}}{dz} \exp(i\alpha x - i\omega^{*} t) \right\} \\ \left\{ \widehat{w} \exp(i\alpha x - i\omega t) + \widehat{w}^{*} \exp(i\alpha x - i\omega^{*} t) \right\} d\theta .$$

$$(2.2.104)$$

Rewritten ω in the form

$$\omega = \omega_{\rm R} + i\omega_{\rm I} , \qquad (2.2.105)$$

where

$$c = \frac{\omega}{\alpha} = c_R + ic_I$$

then,

$$\exp(i\alpha x - i\omega t) = \exp(\omega_{I}t) \exp(i\alpha x - i\omega_{R}t) ,$$
$$= \exp(\omega_{I}t) \exp(i\theta) , \qquad (2.2.106)$$

,

$$\tau = \frac{1}{4} \frac{\alpha}{2\pi} \int_{0}^{\frac{2\pi}{\alpha}} \left\{ \frac{i}{\alpha} \frac{d\widehat{w}}{dz} \exp(\omega_{I}t) \exp(i\theta) - \frac{i}{\alpha} \frac{d\widehat{w}}{dz} \exp(\omega_{I}t) \exp(-i\theta) \right\} \\ \left\{ \widehat{w} \exp(\omega_{I}t) \exp(i\theta) + \widehat{w}^{*} \exp(\omega_{I}t) \exp(-i\theta) \right\} d\theta ,$$

$$= -\frac{1}{4} \frac{\alpha}{2\pi} \int_{0}^{2\pi/\alpha} i \left(\frac{\widehat{w}^{*}}{\alpha} \frac{d\widehat{w}}{dz} - \frac{\widehat{w}}{\alpha} \frac{d\widehat{w}^{*}}{dz} \right) \exp(2\omega_{1}t) d\theta$$

$$= -\frac{i}{4\alpha} \exp(2\omega_{1}t) \left(\frac{\widehat{w}^{*} d\widehat{w}}{dz} - \frac{\widehat{w} d\widehat{w}^{*}}{dz} \right) . \qquad (3.121)$$

,

Therefore, the Reynolds stress averaged over the wave length is

$$\tau = \frac{i}{2\alpha} \exp(2\omega_1 t) \operatorname{Im} \left(\widehat{w} \cdot \frac{d\widehat{w}}{dz} \right), \qquad (2.2.108)$$

where Im (f) is imaginary part of f.

2.3 MODEL I: THICKNESS EFFECTS

2.3.1 Formulation

In this section, the effects of a rigid boundary on the flow stability will be examined by using the equations which were derived in the previous section. To simplify the problem, four layers with piecewise linear velocity profiles will be used in this model, which is based on the assumption of Galilean invariance as well as experimental data (see Figure 2.2). In this type of model, the Taylor-Goldstein equation has the form of (2.3.1) since in each layer there is no density stratification and the velocity profile is linear. An advantage of this model is that the eigenvalue equation can be derived analytically from the governing equation. The governing equation 4.

$$\frac{d^2 \widehat{w}}{dz^2} - \alpha^2 \widehat{w} = 0$$
(2.3.1)

Note that if \widehat{w} is an eigen function with eigenvalue c for some α , then so too is \widehat{w}^* with eigenvalue c^{*} for the same α . Thus, to each unstable mode there is a corresponding stable mode which has a complex conjugate eigenvalue $C_1 < 0$.

Now the general form of solution of (2.3.1) is $\hat{w} = A_1 \exp(\alpha z) + A_2 \exp(-\alpha z)$ (2.3.2)

The basic solution procedure is to assume solutions for (2.3.1) in each layer and apply the boundary and matching conditions to determine the unknown coefficients A_1, A_2, \ldots

£5,





In order to get non-trivial solutions, the eigenvalue equation must be solved, establishing the dispersion relationship for internal waves in this system.

In this model, the formulations are slightly different according to whether the thickness of the lower layer Z₂ is larger or smaller than half the shear layer thickness: cases (a) and (b). All the quantities in this section we nondimensionalized by characteristic length and velocity scales L and V. These are chosen as half of shear layer thickness and half of the maximum-minimum velocity difference respectively.

First of all, let us consider model I(a). Although the general solution is written in the form of (2.3.2), the boundary conditions in layers (I) and (IV) require slightly different forms of solution. For layer (I), the boundary condition is that \widehat{w} must be 'bounded' at z is infinity, and for layer (IV), the condition is that \widehat{w} is zero at $z=-z_R$. Therefore, the solutions for each layer become as follows:

 $\widehat{w}_{:} = A_{i} \exp(-\alpha z) , \qquad (2.3.3)$ $\widehat{w}_{::} = A_{2} \exp(\alpha z) + A_{3} \exp(-\alpha z) , \qquad 3.4)$

$$\widehat{w}_{111} = A_4 \exp(\alpha z) + A_5 \exp(-\alpha z) , \qquad 5)$$

$$\widehat{w}_{IV} = A_6 \sinh(\alpha(z+z_R)), \qquad 6)$$

where A_1 , A_2 , ... are coefficients and \widehat{W}_1 is solution in layer (I).

Applying the kinematic (2.2.40) and dynamic (2.2.57) matching conditions to these solutions, the kinematic matching condition implies

And the dynamic matching condition at
$$z=1.0$$
 is

$$A_{1}\{\alpha(1-c) \exp(-\alpha)\} + A_{2}\{\alpha(1-c)-1\}\exp(\alpha) + A_{3}\{-\alpha(1-c)-1\}\exp(-\alpha) = 0$$

$$(.^{2}, 3, 8)$$

Thus, at z=0

$$A_2 + A_3 - A_4 - A_5 = 0$$
, $(2.4.4)$
 $A_2\gamma\left(\alpha c + 1 - \frac{g_*}{c}\right) + A_3\gamma\left(-\alpha c + 1 - \frac{g_*}{c}\right) + A_4\left(-\alpha c - 1 + \frac{g_*}{c}\right) + A_5\left(\alpha c - 1 + \frac{g_*}{c}\right) = 0$,

And at
$$z=-1.0$$

 $A_4 \exp(-\alpha) + A_5 \exp(\alpha) - A_6 \sinh(\alpha(z_R-1)) = 0$, (2.3.11)

$$\begin{aligned} A_{4}\gamma \{\alpha (1+c) + 1\} \exp(-\alpha) + A_{5}\gamma \{-\alpha (1+c) + 1\} \exp(\alpha) \\ &+ A_{6}\{-\alpha (1+c) \cosh(\alpha (z_{R}-1))\} = 0 \ , \ (2.3.12) \end{aligned}$$

where

;

$$\gamma = \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2}$$
, $g_* = \frac{Ri_o}{1-\gamma}$, $Ri_o = \frac{(1-\gamma)gL}{V^2}$,

which are specific weight, non-dimensional gravitational acceleration and over-all Richardson number. These conditions may be written in matrix form as

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{M} \\ \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A_1 \\ A_2 \\ A_3 \\ A_4 \\ A_5 \\ A_6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \end{pmatrix}$$
(2.3.13)

(2.3.10)

For a non-trivial solution, the det M = 0 must be satisfied. The determinant of M can be obtained analytically by using 'Cramer's rule', followed by a sort in terms of the complex phase velocity c. The final form of the dispersion relationship for case(a) is

$$a_{4}c^{4} + a_{3}c^{3} + a_{2}c^{2} + a_{1}c + a_{0} = 0 , \qquad (2.3.14)$$

where
$$a_{4} = \gamma B_{4} + B_{4}^{\sharp} ,$$

$$a_{3} = \gamma B_{3} + B_{3}^{\sharp} ,$$

$$a_{2} = \gamma B_{2} + B_{2}^{\sharp} ,$$

$$a_{1} = \gamma B_{1} + B_{1}^{\sharp} ,$$

$$a_{0} = \gamma B_{0} + B_{0}^{\sharp} , \qquad (2.3.15)$$

$$B_{4} = R_{1}R_{5} , \qquad B_{4}^{\sharp} = R_{1}^{\sharp}R_{5}^{\sharp} ,$$

$$B_{3} = R_{1}R_{6} + R_{2}R_{5} , \qquad B_{3}^{\sharp} = R_{1}^{\sharp}R_{6}^{\sharp} + R_{2}^{\sharp}R_{5}^{\sharp} ,$$

$$B_{2} = R_{2}R_{6} + R_{3}R_{5} , \qquad B_{2}^{\sharp} = R_{2}^{\sharp}R_{6}^{\sharp} + R_{3}^{\sharp}R_{5}^{\sharp} ,$$

$$B_{1} = R_{3}R_{6} + R_{4}R_{5} , \qquad B_{1}^{\sharp} = R_{3}^{\sharp}R_{6}^{\sharp} + R_{4}^{\sharp}R_{5}^{\sharp} ,$$

$$B_{0} = R_{4}R_{6} , \qquad B_{0}^{\sharp} = R_{4}^{\sharp}R_{6}^{\sharp} , \qquad (2.3.16)$$

$$R_{1} = 2\alpha^{2} ,$$

$$R_{2} = -\alpha (2\alpha + 1 - \exp(-2\alpha)) ,$$

$$R_{3} = 2\alpha + 2\alpha g_{*} - 1 + \exp(-2\alpha) ,$$

$$R_{4} = -g_{*} (2\alpha - 1 + \exp(-2\alpha)) ,$$

$$R_{5} = \alpha (\alpha \sinh(\alpha z_{R} - \alpha) + \sinh(\alpha) \cosh(\alpha z_{R} - \alpha)) ,$$

$$R_{6} = R_{5} - \sinh(\alpha) \sinh(\alpha z_{R} - \alpha) ,$$

$$\begin{aligned} R_{1}^{\#} &= \alpha^{2} \left(\cosh \left(\alpha z_{R} \right) \cosh \left(\alpha z_{R} - \alpha \right) + \sinh \left(\alpha \right) \sinh \left(\alpha z_{R} - \alpha \right) \right) \\ R_{2}^{\#} &= R_{1}^{\#} - R_{5} - \alpha \cosh \left(\alpha z_{R} \right) \sinh \left(\alpha z_{R} - \alpha \right) \\ R_{3}^{\#} &= \left(1 - g_{*} \right) R_{5} - \sinh \left(\alpha \right) \sinh \left(\alpha z_{R} - \alpha \right) \\ R_{4}^{\#} &= -g_{*} \left(R_{5} - \sinh \left(\alpha \right) \sinh \left(\alpha z_{R} - \alpha \right) \right) \\ R_{5}^{\#} &= 2\alpha \\ R_{6}^{\#} &= -\left(2\alpha - 1 + \exp \left(-2\alpha \right) \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$(2.3.17)$$

By the same procedure, the dispersion relationship for case (b) can be obtained as follows:

$$B_{0} = -(\gamma-1) g \exp(-2\alpha) \sinh(\alpha z_{R}),$$

$$= Ri_{0} \exp(-2\alpha) \sinh(\alpha z_{R}),$$

$$B_{1} = (\gamma-1) \exp(-2\alpha) \sinh(\alpha z_{R}),$$

$$B_{2} = \alpha (\gamma \sinh(\alpha z_{R}) - \cosh(\alpha z_{R})) \exp(-2\alpha),$$

$$R_{0} = -2\alpha+1,$$

$$R_{1} = 2\alpha,$$

$$R_{0}^{*} = (\gamma-1) g \sinh(\alpha z_{R}) = -Ri_{0} \sinh(\alpha z_{R}),$$

$$R_{1}^{*} = -(\gamma-1) \sinh(\alpha z_{R}),$$

$$R_{2}^{*} = \alpha (\cosh(\alpha z_{R}) + \gamma \sinh(\alpha z_{R})).$$

(2.3.20)

This dispersion relationship was solved using the IMSL polynomial solver ZRPOLY. A discussion of the results follows.

2.3.2. Solution

The proceeding problems were solved numerically for the parameter ranges 1.0 $\leq Z_{P} \leq \infty$, 0.0 $\leq \alpha \leq 3.0$, 0.0 $\leq Ri \leq 2.0$. The calculations were performed using the University of Alberta Computing Service's Amdahl 5870 system with IMSL subroutine library and FORTRAN 77 programing language. Figure 2.3 to Figure 2.13 summarize the results obtained. These include the dispersion relationship, neutral boundaries, growth rates on α -Ri plane and some other perturbation quantity profiles. Figure 2.3 illustrates that a lower layer thickness Z_R , does not affect the stabilit of the flow until it becomes less than 2.0. However, with decreasing Z_R , the growth rate of SVB waves gradually decreases until $Z_{R=1.03}$, all the SVB waves are stabilized and only SVA waves can exist. As there is no critical value for SVA waves in the range of the calculations, it implies that the wave may be observed in upper layer under this condition. This so-called "onesidedness" phenomena was studied by Maxworthy and Browand (1975).

The critical value of $Z_R=1.03$ is slightly smaller than calculated by Howard (1964) which was $Z_R=1.1997$ for the homogeneous case. As mentioned in part one, Hazel (1972) calculated this criterion and estimated the value to be in

/1

the range 1.195 < Z_R < 1.205. Although his calculation showed some problems due to the numerical instabilities with small wave number and Richardson numbers, the criterion had a tendency to converge towards Howard's value as ${\rm Ri}{\rightarrow}0$.

Figure 2.8 shows the neutral boundaries for different values of Z_R and illustrates that both SVA and SVB wave numbers tend to get smaller as Z_R decreases. Furthermore, the internal structure of the stability boundaries is shown in Figures 2.4 to 2.7. It is interesting to note that as $Z_R \rightarrow 1.0$, the waves which have smaller Richardson number are relatively stable compared to the waves for which Ri is about 0.6 to 1.0. This sounds contradictory since a smaller Richardson number usually implies less density difference and greater instability. This problem will be discussed later in section 2.5.

The perturbation quantities (such as $\tilde{u}, \tilde{w}, \tau, \eta$) are presented in Figures 2.9 to 2.12. By comparing Figure 2.9 to 2.10 (which shows the complex conjugate eigenvalues of 2.9), it is easy to see that \tilde{u} and η are exactly the same, but \tilde{w} has the opposite phase and the Reynolds stress τ is positive for the unstable case and negative for stable case. There is a clear relationship between the Reynolds stress and the phase of \tilde{w} since both of them imply the direction of energy transfer between turbulence and the mean flow. It can be shown that $d\theta/dz>0$ and $\tau>0$ are necessary conditions for instability, (see Appendix A), and can easily be seen in Figure 2.12 which is a neutral mode case. These plots also

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show that the critical level has a maximum displacement η which corresponds to the observations.

Figure 2.13, the streamlines of these waves are plotted and have very good agreement with experiments. Figure 2.3 (a)-(h). Dispersion relationship V.S. lower layer thickness ZR. Ri=2.0 case



1.1



(b) ZR=3.0 case





(c) ZR=2.0 case

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(e) ZR=1.3 case

78





(f) ZR=1.2 case

144




(g) ZR=1.1 case





(h) ZR=1.05 case







Figure 2.5. Dispersion relationship for ZR=3.0 SVA and SVB solution



Figure 2.6. Dispersion relationship for ZR=2.0 SVA and SVB solution









Ri





(a) SVA solutions





Figure 2.9 (a)-(d). The perturbation quantitier. Ri=0.2 α =0.8 c=(0.388, 0.161) Unbounded case





Figure 2.10 (a)-(d). The perturbation quantities. Ri=0.2 α =0.8 c=(0.388,-0.161) Unbounded case







Figure 2.11 (a)-(d). The perturbation quantities. Ri=0.2 α =0.8 c= ' .389, 0.162) Unbounded case





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2













Figure 2.13. Stream lines of SVA and SVB solutions (on the system moving with Cr)

2.4 MODEL II: EFFECTS OF VARIATIONS OF BOUNDARY VELOCITY

2.4.1 Formulation

The main objective of this section is to evaluate the effects of variations of boundary velocity on the stability of flow. This is actually a slight modification of section 2.3. In addition to the existence of a rigid boundary, it is assumed that the velocity on the rigid boundary can be Uw instead of being restricted to -1.0. Since observations show that the minimum velocity is located slightly above the bottom in most cases, this assumption allows a more reasonable model. Again, to model the system, four layers with piecewise linear velocity profile as shown in Figure 2.14 will be used. As the formulation of the system stability equations is almost identical to that in section 2.3, in this section only a brief additional explanation will be given.

The governing equation for this model is

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 \widehat{\mathbf{w}}}{\mathrm{d}z^2} - \alpha^2 \widehat{\mathbf{w}} = 0 \tag{2.4.1}$$

And the solutions for each layer become as follows:

$$\begin{split} & \widetilde{w}_{1} = A_{1} \exp(-\alpha z) , \qquad (2.4.2) \\ & \widetilde{w}_{11} = A_{2} \exp(\alpha z) + A_{3} \exp(-\alpha z) , \qquad (2.4.3) \\ & \widetilde{w}_{111} = A_{4} \exp(\alpha z) + A_{5} \exp(-\alpha z) , \qquad (2.4.4) \\ & \widetilde{w}_{1V} = A_{6} \sinh(\alpha (z+z_{R})) , \qquad (2.4.5) \end{split}$$



Figure 2.14. Velocity and density distribution of Model II

 $\overline{\partial}\overline{\partial}$

where A_1 , A_2 , \cdots are coefficients and \widehat{w}_i is solution in layer (I). If the kinematic (2.2.40) and dynamic (2.2.57) matching conditions are now applied to these solutions, at z=1.0 $A_1 \exp(-\alpha) - A_2 \exp(\alpha) - A_3 \exp(-\alpha) = 0$, (2.4.6)

$$A_{1}\{\alpha(1-c) \exp(-\alpha)\} + A_{2}\{\alpha(1-c)-1\}\exp(\alpha) + A_{3}\{-\alpha(1-c)-1\}\exp(-\alpha) = 0$$
(2.4.7)

at z=0

$$A_2 + A_3 - A_4 - A_5 = 0$$
, (2.4.8)

$$A_{2}\gamma\left(\alpha c+1-\frac{g_{*}}{c}\right)+A_{3}\gamma\left(-\alpha c+1-\frac{g_{*}}{c}\right)+A_{4}\left(-\alpha c-1+\frac{g_{*}}{c}\right)+A_{5}\left(\alpha c-1+\frac{g_{*}}{c}\right)=0$$

$$(2.4.9)$$

And at
$$z=-1.0$$

 $A_4 \exp(-\alpha) + A_5 \exp(\alpha) - A_6 \sinh(\alpha(z_R-1)) = 0$,
(2.4.10)

 $A_4\gamma\{\alpha(1+c)+1\}\exp(-\alpha)+A_5\gamma\{-\alpha(1+c)+1\}\exp(\alpha)$

+
$$A_6 \left(-\alpha (1+c) \cosh (\alpha (z_R-1)) + \frac{U_W+1}{1-z_R} \sinh (\alpha (z_R-1)) \right) = 0$$
,
(2.4.11)

where

$$\gamma = \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2}, \quad g_* = \frac{Ri_o}{1-\gamma}, \quad Ri_o = \frac{(1-\gamma)gL}{V^2}.$$

If U_W is the non-dimensionalized velocity on the rigid boundary, these conditions may be written in the following matrix form.

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{M} \\ \mathbf{M} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}_1 \\ \mathbf{A}_2 \\ \mathbf{A}_3 \\ \mathbf{A}_4 \\ \mathbf{A}_5 \\ \mathbf{A}_6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{pmatrix}$$

For non-trivial solutions, the det M =0 must be satisfied, and the dispersion relationship may be written as

$$a_{4}c^{4} + a_{3}c^{3} + a_{2}c^{2} + a_{1}c + a_{0} = 0 , \qquad (2.4.13)$$
where
$$a_{4} = \gamma B_{4} + B_{4}^{4} , \\a_{3} = \gamma B_{3} + B_{3}^{4} , \\a_{3} = \gamma B_{2} + B_{2}^{4} , \\a_{1} = \gamma B_{1} + B_{1}^{4} , \\a_{0} = \gamma B_{0} + B_{0}^{4} , \qquad (2.4.14)$$

$$B_{4} = R_{1}R_{5} , \qquad B_{4}^{4} = R_{1}^{4}R_{5}^{4} , \qquad (2.4.14)$$

$$B_{4} = R_{1}R_{5} , \qquad B_{4}^{4} = R_{1}^{4}R_{5}^{4} , \qquad (2.4.14)$$

$$B_{4} = R_{1}R_{5} , \qquad B_{1}^{4} = R_{1}^{4}R_{5}^{4} , \qquad (2.4.14)$$

$$B_{4} = R_{1}R_{5} , \qquad B_{1}^{4} = R_{1}^{4}R_{5}^{4} , \qquad (2.4.14)$$

$$B_{4} = R_{1}R_{5} , \qquad B_{1}^{4} = R_{1}^{4}R_{5}^{4} , \qquad B_{1}^{2} = R_{2}^{4}R_{6}^{4} + R_{3}R_{5}^{4} , \qquad (2.4.14)$$

$$B_{4} = R_{1}R_{5} , \qquad B_{1}^{4} = R_{1}^{4}R_{5}^{4} , \qquad B_{1}^{2} = R_{2}^{4}R_{6}^{4} + R_{3}R_{5}^{4} , \qquad (2.4.14)$$

$$B_{4} = R_{1}R_{5} , \qquad B_{1}^{4} = R_{1}^{4}R_{5}^{4} , \qquad B_{1}^{2} = R_{2}^{4}R_{6}^{4} + R_{3}^{4}R_{5}^{4} , \qquad (2.4.14)$$

$$B_{4} = R_{1}R_{5} , \qquad B_{1}^{4} = R_{1}^{4}R_{6}^{4} , \qquad (2.4.14)$$

$$R_{1} = 2\alpha^{2} , \qquad (2.4.14)$$

$$R_{1} = 2\alpha^{2} , \qquad (2.4.14) , \qquad (2.4.14)$$

$$R_{2} = -\alpha(2\alpha+1-\exp(-2\alpha)) , \qquad (2.4.14) , \qquad (2.4.14)$$

$$R_{3} = 2\alpha+2\alpha g.-1+\exp(-2\alpha) , \qquad (2.4.14) , \qquad (2.4.14)$$

$$R_{5} = \alpha(\alpha \sinh(\alpha z_{R}-\alpha) + \sinh(\alpha) \cosh(\alpha z_{R}-\alpha)) , \qquad (2.4.14) ,$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{R}_{t_{1}} &= \mathbf{R}_{5} - \left(1 + \frac{\mathbf{U}_{W} + 1}{1 - \mathbf{z}_{R}}\right) \sin h\left(\alpha\right) \sinh\left(\alpha \mathbf{z}_{R} - \alpha\right) \\ \mathbf{R}_{1}^{\#} &= \alpha^{2} \left(\cosh\left(\alpha \mathbf{z}_{R}\right) \cosh\left(\alpha \mathbf{z}_{R} - \alpha\right) + \sinh\left(\alpha\right) \sinh\left(\alpha \mathbf{z}_{R} - \alpha\right)\right) \\ \mathbf{R}_{2}^{\#} &= \mathbf{R}_{1}^{\#} - \mathbf{R}_{5} - \alpha \left(1 + \frac{\mathbf{U}_{W} + 1}{1 - \mathbf{z}_{R}}\right) \cosh\left(\alpha \mathbf{z}_{R}\right) \sinh\left(\alpha \mathbf{z}_{R} - \alpha\right) \\ \mathbf{R}_{3}^{\#} &= \left(1 - g_{*}\right) \mathbf{R}_{5} - \left(1 + \frac{\mathbf{U}_{W} + 1}{1 - \mathbf{z}_{R}}\right) \sinh\left(\alpha\right) \sinh\left(\alpha \mathbf{z}_{R} - \alpha\right) \\ \mathbf{R}_{4}^{\#} &= -g_{*} \left(\mathbf{R}_{5} - \left(1 + \frac{\mathbf{U}_{W} + 1}{1 - \mathbf{z}_{R}}\right) \sinh\left(\alpha\right) \sinh\left(\alpha \mathbf{z}_{R} - \alpha\right)\right) \\ \mathbf{R}_{5}^{\#} &= 2\alpha \\ \mathbf{R}_{6}^{\#} &= -\left(2\alpha - 1 + \exp\left(-2\alpha\right)\right) \\ \end{array}$$

$$(2.4.16)$$

As with the previous model, the same procedure was used to solve this dispersion relationship, and a stability criterion of $C_I=0$ was used to conform with the governing equation and boundary conditions.

2.4.2. Solution

In this model, the parameter ranges studied were $1.0 \leq Z_R \leq \infty$, $0.0 \leq \alpha \leq 5.0$, $1.0 \leq Ri \leq 2.0$ and $-1.0 \leq Uw \leq 1.0$ and the calculations were performed using the same facilities as in previous model. Since the cases involving Uw=-1.0 were presented in section 2.3.3, only the effects of Uw>-1.0 will be described in this section.

Figure 2.15 presents the effect of Uw on the stability boundaries. It is clear that as Uw increases SVB waves tend to get shorter and that SVA waves tend to have additional unstable modes with extremely long wave length. Also of interest, when Uw >-1.0, SVB waves have a tendency to increase their wave number with decreasing Z_R , an effect which is opposite to the Uw =-1.0 case. SVA solutions seem unaffected by Uw except for some additional unstable modes. These modes are relatively small when Uw is close to -1.0, but as Uw exceeds 0.0, they start growing as an independent unstable region, the details of which will be discussed later.

Figures 2.19 and 2.20 present the phase velocity of waves. Again, SVB waves are significantly influenced by Uw and tend to get slower for the same wave number as SVA when Uw increases. These same effects were found for decreasing 35in the previous section. By contrast, phase velocities of SVA solutions remain almost unchanged both Z_R and Uw vary. The additional unstable modes cannot be found on these phase velocity diagrams.

In order to investigate the additional unstable modes, the details of the dispersion relationship on the α -Ri plane are shown in Figures 2.21 and 2.22. They show that these modes have very small growth rates and phase velocities of approximately zero, implying that the instabilities will occur around the density interface and should rarely be observed in the flow due to other faster growing unstable modes.

Figures 2.23 and 2.24 show the perturbation quantities of SVA and the additional unstable modes. Despite the

displacement η of these additional modes is of very large amplitude, their growth rates are relatively small. These large amplitudes are simply due to the singularity of equati $\pi(2.2.102)$ which appears as c becomes a real number.



Figure 2.15 (a)-(e). Neutral boundaries V.S. Velocity at wall $ZR\!=\!4.0\ case$








































Figure 2.19 (a)-(e). Neutral boundaries on $\alpha-\alpha\,C_R$ plane. ZR=4.0 cases

































2.5

Ri





















2.5 DISCUSSION

Solutions of Models I and II show that unstable regions of small Richardson number waves get smaller as \mathbb{Z}_R decreases. Particularly for $\mathbb{Z}_R < 1.2$, waves in the range 0.4 < Ri < 1.0 appear to be more unstable than homogeneous ones (Ri=0.0), and at $\mathbb{Z}_{n=1}$.0, these homogeneous solutions disappear completely. This sounds contradictory since density stratification usually has a stabilizing effect and it is usually expected that homogeneous solutions are the most unstable.

To investigate this problem, the eigen equations (dispersion relationships) for Ri=0.0 and g=1.0 were derived for both $Z_{R}>1.0$ and $Z_{R}<1.0$. These equations are second order in terms of the complex phase velocity c, and may be written as

$A_2c^2 + A_1c - A_0 = 0$,	for $Z_{R}>1.0$	(2.5.1)
$B_1c (c + B_2) = 0$	for Z _R <1.0	(2.5.2)

where

$$A_{0} = (2\alpha^{2} - \alpha) e^{\alpha} (\cosh(\alpha(z_{R}-1)) + \sinh(\alpha(z_{R}-1)))$$

$$+ e^{-3\alpha} (\cosh(\alpha(z_{R}-1)) - \sinh(\alpha(z_{R}-1)))$$

$$- (2\alpha^{2}e^{\alpha} + (e^{-3\alpha} - e^{\alpha})) \sinh(\alpha(z_{R}-1)), \qquad (2.5.3)$$

$$A_1 = \alpha(e^{-3\alpha} - e^{\alpha}) \left(\cosh(\alpha(Z_R - 1)) - \sinh(\alpha(Z_R - 1)) \right), \qquad (2.5.4)$$

$$A_2 = -2\alpha^2 e^{\alpha} (\cosh(\alpha(z_R-1)) + \sinh(\alpha(z_R-1))) , \qquad (2.5.5)$$

$$B_1 = (\sinh(\alpha) + \cosh(\alpha)) \alpha^2 (\cosh(\alpha Z_R) + \sinh(\alpha Z_R)) , \qquad (2.5.6)$$

$$B_2 = \frac{\alpha \{\sinh(\alpha) \cosh(\alpha Z_R) + \cosh(\alpha) \sinh(\alpha Z_R)\}}{B_1} \qquad (2.5.7)$$

Therefore, both cases have the following solution

$$C_{\rm R} = -\frac{A_1}{2A_2}$$
, (2.5.8)

$$c_{1} = \pm \frac{\sqrt{4A_{2}A_{0} - A_{1}^{2}}}{2A_{2}} \qquad \text{for } Z_{R} > 1.0 , \qquad (2.5.9)$$

$$c = 0 \text{ or } c = -B_{2} \qquad \text{for } Z_{R} < 1.0 , \qquad (2.5.10)$$

illustrating that c cannot be complex for $Z_{3}<1.0$ (i.e. no unstable solution can exist).

Figure 2.25 presents the dispersion relationship for $Z_R>1.0$ case. It is obvious that an unstable region fades out as Z_R approaches to 1.0. The reason why there is no unstable solution when $Z_R<1.0$ is due to the velocity profile. This type of piece-wise linear velocity cannot satisfy one of the necessary conditions of instability; the so-called "Fjortoft's theory" (Fjortoft 1950) which states as "Suppose instability occurs, and let $Z^* \in (0,1)$ for which $U_0^* = 0$. Define $U^* = U_0(Z^*)$, then a necessary condition for instability is

 $U_{o}^{*}(U_{o}-U^{*})\langle 0$ somewhere in the flow." This theory was derived from Rayleigh's stability equation (homogeneous case of the Taylor-Goldstein equation (2.2.37)) and Rayleigh's theory. For a piece-wise linear velocity profile, a slight modification is required as follows: The Rayleigh equation is

$$(U_{o}-c) (\phi - \alpha^{2}\phi) - U_{o}^{"}\phi = 0 , \qquad (2.5.11)$$

where ϕ is the stream function of perturbation velocity, Uo is mean velocity profile which is function of z.

If there is instability, then c becomes a complex number and

$$\phi'' - \alpha' \phi - \frac{U_{o}'' \phi}{(U_{o} - c)} = 0 \qquad (2.5.12)$$

By multiplying ϕ^* and integrating through the domain, then

$$\int_{a} \phi^{*} \left(\phi^{"} - \alpha^{'} \phi - \frac{U^{"} \phi}{(U_{a} - c)} \right) dz = 0$$

$$re^{-c} = \frac{\omega}{\alpha} = c_{R} + ic_{1}$$
(2.5.13)

And taking the real part of this integration will always yield

$$\int_{2}^{1} \frac{U_{0}^{"}(U_{0}-c_{R})}{|U_{0}-c|^{2}} |\phi|^{2} dz = -\int_{0}^{1} (|\phi|^{2} + \alpha^{2} |\phi|^{2}) dz \langle 0 \rangle$$
(2.5.14)

But, from the Rayleigh's theory

whe

$$(c_R - U^*) \int_{0}^{0} \frac{U_0''}{|U_0 - c|^2} dz = 0$$
, (2.5.15)

therefore, the necessary condition becomes f^{1}

$$\int_{a} \frac{U''(U_{0} - U^{\star})}{|U_{0} - c|^{2}} |d|^{2} dz \langle 0 \rangle$$
(2.5.16)

For $Z_R>1.0$, there are two singular points which have both $U_0^{"=} \propto and U_0^{"=} -\infty$ in the domain, thus they can satisfy this necessary condition. However, for $Z_R<1.0$, it is impossible to fulfill this condition and, therefore, there is no instability in the flow. In order to achieve reasonable solutions for $Z_R \le 1.0$, either the viscosity or some other

continuous velocity profile has to be employed. This kind of analysis will be presented in next section.





Figure 2.25. Dispersion relationship of homogeneous case (Ri=0.0)

2.6 CONCLUSIONS

In this section, analytical models based on a perturbed, inviscid, linearized Navier-Stokes equation have been presented. Model I, which evaluates the effects of the lower layer thickness Z_R , shows that SVB waves are influenced by a reduction in Z_R , but this is not true for SVA cases. Generally, SVB waves tend to have a smaller wave number as Z_R decreases which is opposite to our intuition. By contrast, Model II, which tests the effects of the boundary velocity on the stability, shows that SVB waves with Uw>-1.0 get shorter in wave length as Z_R decreases. It was also found that SVA waves have additional unstable modes in the extremely small wave number region when the value of Uw exceeds 0.0. These modes, however, have a very small growth rate and are not expected to be able to appear in the flow.

The results of Models I and II seem to contradict each other in the area of thickness effects, but they indicate an obvious sensitivity of flow stability to velocity profiles. The weakest part of this analysis involves the stability of small Richardson number flow which tend to be over estimated by failing one of the necessary conditions for instability when Z_R gets closer to 1.0. Another problem is that these models were inviscid and could not predict any Reynolds number dependency as observed in experiments.

In summary, the analysis presented in this section explains many features of a flow with a rigid boundary, although appropriate experiments need to be performed to verify these characteristics, and more extensive analysis should be done to ensure reasonable predictions. In the next section, viscosity will be introduced and a continuous velocity profile will be employed to improve the analysis.

3. PART THREE: NUMERICAL ANALYSIS (VISCOUS MODELS)

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous section, inviscid piece-wise linear velocity profile models were investigated in order to clarify instability mechanisms involving a rigid boundary. However, the simplifications used in these models created problems with their dispersion relationship. Based on the results from these models and the previous experiments, there were indications that the flow stability was dependent on Reynolds number and that there also existed a critical Richardson number.

In this section, the effects of viscosity and a continuous velocity profile will be considered. To simulate the velocity profile, a hyperbolic tangent function will be employed since this function agrees very well with experimental observations. To model the density distribution, it i felt that a two-layer system is a reasonable approximation to that known to exist in a salt wedge type flow.

To model this type of flow, the governing equation, called the Orr-Sommerfeld equation, will be derived from the two-dimensional Navier-Stokes equation by applying infinitesimally small perturbations to the system, and will be solved numerically using two models with appropriate boundary conditions. A third model will evaluate the rigid

boundary effects and a forth model will investigate the stability of the flow when the density interface is displaced from the center of shear layer (in this model the flow is unbounded). Since these models have much more realistic velocity and consity profiles because viscosity is considered, they are expected to have better agreement with experimental results.

3.2 GOVERNING EQUATIONS

3.2.1 Basic Assumptions and Governing Equations

As in the previous section, a system of equations based upon the Cartesian co-ordinate system will be used. The only difference is that we will now include the effect of viscosity. As before, we will assume incompressibility of flow, i.e.

$$\frac{\mathsf{D}\rho}{\mathsf{D}\mathsf{t}} = 0 \tag{3.2.1}$$

reducing the continuity equation to

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0 \qquad (3.2.2)$$

and the momentum equation to

$$\frac{D\mathbf{v}}{Dt} + \frac{1}{\rho}\nabla p + g\widehat{\mathbf{e}_{3}} - \mathbf{v}\nabla^{2}\mathbf{v} = 0$$
(3.2.3)

where $\mathbf{V}=(u,v,w)$ is the velocity vector, g is the gravitational acceleration and $\widehat{\mathbf{e}_3}$ is the unit vector in the vertical direction.

It will also be assumed that the hydrostatic balance between $\rho_0(z)$ and $P_0(z)$ is as follows,

$$\frac{dp_{0}(z)}{dz} = -\rho_{0}(z) g , \qquad (3.2.4)$$

where the subscript "o" represents quantities in a steady state condition or at rest.

Moreover, since our model (see Figure 3.2) does not have a gradual density stratification in each layer, Squire's theory

may be applied. This means that the system of equations may be reduced to two-dimensional form as

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \gamma} = 0 , \quad v = 0$$
(3.2.5)

From these assumptions and conditions, the governing equations become

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} = 0 , \qquad (3.2.6)$$

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} + w \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial z} = 0 , \qquad (3.2.7)$$

$$\rho \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + w \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \right) - \rho v \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} \right) + \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} = 0$$
(3.2.8)

$$\rho \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} + w \frac{\partial w}{\partial z}\right) - \rho v \left(\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial z^2}\right) + \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} + \rho g = 0$$
,
(3.2.9)

$$\frac{dp_{0}(z)}{dz} = -\rho_{0}(z)g \qquad (3.2.10)$$

3.2.2. Orr-Sommerfeld Equation

As in section 2.2.2, we will apply infinitesimally small perturbations to the steady state solutions. By observing their behavior, the stability of this system can be determined. Following this procedure, let us first assume that the steady state solutions are as follows:

$$u = U_0(z)$$
, (3.2.11)

$$w = 0$$
, $(3.2.12)$

$$\rho = \rho_0(z) , \qquad (3.2.13)$$

$$p = p_0(z)$$
, (3.2.14)

where $dp_{O}(z)$

$$\frac{dp_{0}(z)}{dz} = -\rho_{0}(z)g \qquad (3.2.15)$$

Let us now introduce perturbation quantities which are denoted by the superscript tilde.

$$u = U_0(z) + \widetilde{u}(x, z, t)$$
, (3.2.16)

$$w = 0 + \widetilde{w}(x, z, t)$$
, (3.2.17)

$$\rho = \rho_0(z) + \widetilde{\rho}(x, z, t) , \qquad (3.2.18)$$

$$p = p_0(z) + p(x, z, t)$$
 (3.2.19)

Substituting these into the governing equations, we will neglect quadratic terms of the perturbation quantities since it is assumed that these quantities and their derivatives have relatively small amplitude. Then

$$\frac{\partial \widetilde{u}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \widetilde{w}}{\partial z} = 0 , \qquad (3.2.20)$$

$$\frac{\partial \widetilde{\rho}}{\partial t} + U_{0} \frac{\partial \widetilde{\rho}}{\partial x} + \widetilde{w} \frac{\partial \rho_{0}}{\partial z} = 0 , \qquad (3.2.21)$$

$$\frac{\partial \widetilde{u}}{\partial t} + U_{O} \frac{\partial \widetilde{u}}{\partial x} + \widetilde{w} \frac{\partial U_{O}}{\partial z} - v \frac{\partial^{2} U_{O}}{\partial z^{2}} - v \left(\frac{\partial^{2} \widetilde{u}}{\partial x^{2}} + \frac{\partial^{2} \widetilde{u}}{\partial z^{2}} \right) + \frac{1}{\rho_{O}} \frac{\partial \widetilde{p}}{\partial x} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial \widetilde{w}}{\partial t} + U_{O} \frac{\partial \widetilde{w}}{\partial x} - v \left(\frac{\partial^{2} \widetilde{w}}{\partial x^{2}} + \frac{\partial^{2} \widetilde{w}}{\partial z^{2}} \right) + \frac{1}{\rho_{O}} \frac{\partial \widetilde{p}}{\partial z} - \frac{\widetilde{p}}{\rho_{O}} g = 0$$
(3.2.22)
(3.2.22)

If we now consider the perturbation quantities, let us assume wavelike perturbations as

$$\widetilde{u} = (\widehat{u}(z) \exp (i\alpha x - i\omega t) + c.c.) /2$$

= $(\widehat{u}(z) \exp (i\alpha (x - ct)) + c.c.) /2$, (3.2.24)
$$\widetilde{w} = (\widehat{w}(z) \exp (i\alpha (x - ct)) + c.c.) /2$$
, (3.2.25)
$$\widetilde{\alpha} = (\widehat{\alpha}(z) \exp (i\alpha (x - ct)) + c.c.) /2$$

$$\rho = (\rho(z) \exp(i\alpha(x-ct)) + c.c.)/2, \qquad (3.2.26)$$

$$\tilde{p} = (\hat{p}(z) \exp(i\alpha(x-ct)) + c.c.)/2$$
, (3.2.27)

where

$$c = \frac{\omega}{\alpha} = c_{\mu} + ic_{\mu} \qquad (3.2.28)$$

As explained in section 2.2.2, the imaginary part of the complex phase velocity c indicates the stability of the system. Namely, if C:>O, the perturbation grows with time and the system is unstable. If C:=O, then the system is neutrally stable, and if C:<O, the system is stable. By introducing these wavelike perturbations, the governing equations become a set of ordinary differential equations as shown below:

$$i\alpha \widehat{u} + \frac{d\widehat{w}}{dz} = 0 \qquad (3.2.29)$$

$$i\alpha (U_0-c) \hat{\rho} + \frac{d\rho_0}{dz} \hat{w} = 0 , \qquad (3.2.30)$$

$$\rho_{\odot} \left(i\alpha (U_{O}-c)\widehat{u} + \frac{dU_{O}}{dz} \widehat{w} \right) + \rho_{O}v \left(\alpha^{2}\widehat{u} - \frac{d^{2}\widehat{u}}{dz^{2}} \right) - \widehat{\rho}v \frac{d^{2}U_{O}}{dz^{2}} + i\alpha \widehat{p} = 0 ,$$
(3.2.31)

$$\rho_{0} i\alpha (U_{0}-c)\widehat{w} + \rho_{0}\nu \left(\alpha^{2}\widehat{w} - \frac{d^{2}\widehat{w}}{dz^{2}}\right) + \frac{d\widehat{p}}{dz} + \widehat{\rho}g = 0 \qquad (3.2.32)$$

Since the flow is two-dimensional, we can introduce the stream function of the perturbation velocity field, which is

$$\widetilde{\phi} = \widehat{\phi}(z) \exp((i\alpha x - i\omega t))$$

= $\widehat{\phi}(z) \exp((i\alpha (x - ct)))$ (3.2.33)

Then, by definition,

$$\widetilde{u} = \frac{\partial \widetilde{\phi}}{\partial z}, \qquad (3.2.34)$$

$$\widetilde{w} = -\frac{\partial \widetilde{\phi}}{\partial x} = -i\alpha \widetilde{\phi} \qquad (3.2.35)$$

Substituting these relations into equations (3.2.29), (3.2.30),(3.2.31) and (3.2.32), eliminating \hat{P} and \hat{P} and applying Boussinesq's approximation, we get the following expression,

$$(U_{0}-c)\left(\widehat{\phi}^{"}-\widehat{\phi}\right) + \left(\frac{-\frac{g}{\rho_{0}}\frac{d\rho_{0}}{dz}}{U_{0}-c} - U_{0}^{"}\right)\widehat{\phi} = \frac{v}{i\alpha}\left(\widehat{\phi}^{!v}-2\alpha\widehat{\phi}^{"}+\alpha^{4}\widehat{\phi}\right),$$

$$(3.2.36)$$

where a superscript of prime denotes d/dz. If we non-dimensionalize this equation by using characteristic length and velocity scales, the following equation is produced.

$$(U_{O}-c)\left(\widehat{\phi}^{"}-\widehat{\phi}\right) + \left(\frac{N.^{2}}{U_{O}-c} - U_{O}^{"}\right)\widehat{\phi} = \frac{1}{i\alpha Re}\left(\widehat{\phi}^{"}-2\alpha\widehat{\phi}^{"}+\alpha^{2}\widehat{\phi}\right),$$

$$(3.2.37)$$

where N is the Brunt-Väisälä frequency and Re is the Reynolds number.

Since this model has no density stratification in either layer, the Brunt-Väisälä frequency becomes zero and the equation may be simplified to

$$(U_{O}-c)\left(\widehat{\phi}^{"}-\widehat{\phi}\right) - U_{O}^{"}\widehat{\phi} = \frac{1}{i\alpha Re} \left\{\widehat{\phi}^{!}-2\alpha\widehat{\phi}^{"}+\alpha^{2}\widehat{\phi}\right\} \qquad (3.2.38)$$

Equation is the so-called 'Orr-Sommerfeld' equation, which is actually just the vorticity equation obtained by eliminating the pressure p from the momentum equations. As one model is essentially a superposition of two homogeneous fluid flow systems, let us use the subscripts 1 and 2 to define the stream function and Reynolds number for the upper(1) and lower(2) layer quantities. Thus,

$$(U_{0}-c)\left(\widehat{\phi_{1}}^{"}-\widehat{\phi_{1}}\right) - U_{0}^{"}\widehat{\phi_{1}} = \frac{1}{i\alpha \operatorname{Re}_{1}}\left\{\widehat{\phi_{1}}^{IV}-2\alpha\widehat{\phi_{1}}^{"}+\alpha^{4}\widehat{\phi_{1}}\right\},$$

$$(U_{0}-c)\left(\widehat{\phi_{2}}^{"}-\widehat{\phi_{2}}\right) - U_{0}^{"}\widehat{\phi_{2}} = \frac{1}{i\alpha \operatorname{Re}_{2}}\left\{\widehat{\phi_{2}}^{IV}-2\alpha\widehat{\phi_{2}}^{"}+\alpha^{4}\widehat{\phi_{2}}\right\}.$$

$$(3.2.39)$$

(3.2.40)

3.3 BOUNDARY CONDITIONS

There are three boundaries we have to consider here. They are: the bottom boundary which is rigid a wall at $z=-z_R$, the density interface which is a flexible boundary at $z=\eta$, and the upper boundary at z = infinity. Because of viscosi- γ , the no-slip condition must be applied on both the rigid surface and the density interface which is main difference between this model and the previous inviscid model. Therefore, at $z=-z_R$, the boundary condition is simply

$$\hat{\phi}_2 = \hat{\phi}_2 = 0$$
 at $z = -z_R$, (3.3.1)

where a superscript of prime denotes d/dz.

At the density interface, since each velocity, pressure and shear stress component must be continuous, the boundary condition may be expressed as:

$$\widetilde{\mathbf{w}}_1 = \widetilde{\mathbf{w}}_2 , \qquad (3.3.2)$$
$$\widetilde{\mathbf{u}}_1 = \widetilde{\mathbf{u}}_2 , \qquad (3.3.3)$$

$$\mathbf{v}_{1} \left(\frac{\partial \widetilde{w_{1}}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \widetilde{u_{1}}}{\partial z} \right) = \mathbf{v}_{2} \left(\frac{\partial \widetilde{w_{2}}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \widetilde{u_{2}}}{\partial z} \right) , \qquad (3.3.4)$$

$$-\widetilde{p_1} + 2\rho_1 v_1 \frac{\partial \widetilde{w_1}}{\partial z} = -\widetilde{p_2} + 2\rho_2 v_2 \frac{\partial \widetilde{w_2}}{\partial z} - T \frac{\partial^2 \eta}{\partial x^2} , \quad \text{at } z = \eta \quad (3.3.5)$$

where the subscripts 1 and 2 refer to upper and lower layer quantities respectively and T is the surface (interfacial) tension.

If we take a Taylor expansion around z=0, and neglect higher order terms of $\eta,$ and non-dimensionalize by using a characteristic length scale L and velocity scale V, then

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\phi}_1} = \widehat{\boldsymbol{\phi}_2} , \qquad (3.3.6)$$

$$\widehat{\phi}_1 - \frac{U_o}{U_o - c} \widehat{\phi}_1 = \widehat{\phi}_2 - \frac{U_o}{U_o - c} \widehat{\phi}_2 , \qquad (3.3.7)$$

$$\frac{\gamma}{\operatorname{Re}_{1}}\left\{\widehat{\phi_{1}}^{"}-\left(\frac{U_{o}^{"}}{U_{o}-c}-\alpha^{2}\right)\widehat{\phi_{1}}\right\}=\frac{1}{\operatorname{Re}_{2}}\left\{\widehat{\phi_{2}}^{"}-\left(\frac{U_{o}^{"}}{U_{o}-c}-\alpha^{2}\right)\widehat{\phi_{2}}\right\},\quad(3.3.8)$$

$$\frac{i\gamma}{\alpha \operatorname{Re}_{1}} \widehat{\phi_{1}}^{""} + \gamma \left\{ (U_{c}-c) - \frac{3i\gamma}{\operatorname{Re}_{1}} \right\} \widehat{\phi_{1}} - \gamma U_{c}^{'} \widehat{\phi_{1}} = \frac{i}{\alpha \operatorname{Re}_{1}} \widehat{\phi_{2}}^{""} + \left\{ (U_{c}-c) - \frac{3i\gamma}{\operatorname{Re}_{1}} \right\} \widehat{\phi_{2}} - U_{c}^{'} \widehat{\phi_{2}} - \frac{\operatorname{Ri} + \alpha^{2} S}{\operatorname{Ri} + \alpha^{2} S}$$

$$\frac{i}{\alpha \operatorname{Re}_{2}} \phi_{2} + \left\langle (U_{o}-c) - \frac{3i\gamma}{\operatorname{Re}_{2}} \right\rangle \phi_{2} - U_{o} \phi_{2} - \frac{\operatorname{Ri} + \alpha^{2}S}{U_{o}-c} \phi_{2}$$
(3.3.9)

where

$$\gamma = \frac{p_1}{p_2} , \qquad (3.3.10)$$

$$Re_{i} = \frac{VL}{V_{i}}, \qquad (3.3.11)$$

$$Ri = \frac{(1-\gamma) gL}{v^2} , \qquad (3.3.12)$$

where γ is the relative density, Ri is the (global) Richardson number, Re is the Reynolds number and S is the non-dimensional surface (interfacial) tension.

For the boundary at z=infinity, the boundary condition can be assumed to be the same the boundary condition at $z=-z_3$. It should be noted, however, that this may produce some difficulties for our numerical analysis. A more complete treatment of this boundary condition will be discussed in the next section.

3.4 CALCULATION METHOD OF EIGENVALUES

3.4.1 Eigen Equation

The governing equations are fourth order and require four independent solutions in each layer. However, because of the boundary conditions at z=infinity and z=-Z_R, we will only need to determine two arbitrary solution constants instead of four. To solve these equations, we will preform two computing passes in which we will integrate the governing equations numerically from the boundaries to the density interface. These calculations will be performed in the upper and lower layers separately, then, by examination, the conditions that permit a perfect matching of these solutions at the interface will be determined. Some values of α and γ , as well as some tentative values of C_R and C_I must be chosen to start the calculation, and then, if they satisfy the matching conditions, the system stability can be determined by judging sign of C_I.

Let us assume that the form of the upper and lower layer solutions is as below,

where ϕ_{i1}, ϕ_{i2} are independent solutions for the Orr-Sommerfeld equation and the first subscript i denotes the layer. If we know the values of ϕ_{i1}, ϕ_{i2} at the density interface, then by substituting them into the matching conditions (3.3.6),

(3.3.7), (3.3.8) and (3.3.9), we will obtain the following matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{ij} \\ B_{ij} \\ B_{2} \\ B_{2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ B_{2} \end{pmatrix} ,$$

(3.4.3)

where

$$a_{11} = \phi_{11} ,$$

$$a_{12} = \phi_{12} ,$$

$$a_{13} = -\phi_{21} ,$$

$$a_{14} = -\phi_{22} ,$$

$$a_{21} = \phi_{11} - \left(\frac{U_{0}}{U_{0}-C}\right) \phi_{11}$$

$$a_{22} = \phi_{12} \cdot \left(\frac{U_0}{U_0 - c}\right) \phi_{12}$$

$$a_{23} = -\phi_{21} + \left(\frac{U_{0}}{U_{0}-c}\right)\phi_{21}$$

$$a_{24} = -\phi_{22} + \left(\frac{U_0}{U_0-c}\right)\phi_{22}$$
,

$$a_{31} = \frac{\gamma}{\text{Re}_1} \phi_{11} - \frac{\gamma}{\text{Re}_1} \left(\frac{U_0'}{U_0 - c} - \alpha^2 \right) \phi_{11}$$

,

,

$$a_{32} = \frac{\gamma}{\text{Re}_1} \phi_{12} - \frac{\gamma}{\text{Re}_1} \left(\frac{U_0}{U_0 - c} - \alpha^2 \right) \phi_{12}$$
$$\begin{aligned} \hat{a}_{22} &= -\frac{1}{Re_{2}} \phi_{22}^{**} + \frac{1}{Re_{2}} \left(\frac{U_{1}^{**}}{U_{1}^{*}-c} - \alpha^{2} \right) \phi_{2}; \\ \hat{a}_{34} &= -\frac{1}{Re_{2}} \phi_{22}^{**} + \frac{1}{Re_{2}} \left(\frac{U_{1}^{**}}{U_{2}^{*}-c} - \alpha^{2} \right) \phi_{22} \\ \hat{a}_{41} &= \frac{i\gamma}{\alpha Re_{1}} \phi_{12}^{***} + \gamma \left((U_{2}-c) - \frac{3i\alpha}{Re_{1}} \right) \phi_{12}^{**} - \gamma U_{2} \phi_{12} \\ \hat{a}_{42} &= \frac{i\gamma}{\alpha Re_{2}} \phi_{12}^{***} + \gamma \left((U_{2}-c) - \frac{3i\alpha}{Re_{1}} \right) \phi_{12}^{**} - \gamma U_{2} \phi_{12} \\ \hat{a}_{42} &= -\frac{i}{\alpha Re_{2}} \phi_{21}^{***} - \left((U_{2}-c) - \frac{3i\alpha}{Re_{2}} \right) \phi_{21}^{**} + \left(U_{0} + \frac{Ri + \alpha^{2}S}{U_{0}-c} \right) \phi_{2}; \\ \hat{a}_{44} &= -\frac{i}{\alpha Re_{2}} \phi_{22}^{***} - \left((U_{2}-c) - \frac{3i\alpha}{Re_{2}} \right) \phi_{22}^{**} + \left(U_{0} + \frac{Ri + \alpha^{2}S}{U_{0}-c} \right) \phi_{2}; \\ \hat{a}_{44} &= -\frac{i}{\alpha Re_{2}} \phi_{22}^{***} - \left((U_{2}-c) - \frac{3i\alpha}{Re_{2}} \right) \phi_{22}^{**} + \left(U_{0} + \frac{Ri + \alpha^{2}S}{U_{0}-c} \right) \phi_{22} \\ \hat{a}_{44} &= -\frac{i}{\alpha Re_{2}} \phi_{22}^{***} - \left((U_{2}-c) - \frac{3i\alpha}{Re_{2}} \right) \phi_{22}^{**} + \left(U_{0} + \frac{Ri + \alpha^{2}S}{U_{0}-c} \right) \phi_{22} \\ \hat{a}_{44} &= -\frac{i}{\alpha Re_{2}} \phi_{22}^{***} - \left((U_{2}-c) - \frac{3i\alpha}{Re_{2}} \right) \phi_{22}^{**} + \left(U_{0} + \frac{Ri + \alpha^{2}S}{U_{0}-c} \right) \phi_{22} \\ \hat{a}_{44} &= -\frac{i}{\alpha Re_{2}} \phi_{22}^{***} - \left((U_{2}-c) - \frac{3i\alpha}{Re_{2}} \right) \phi_{22}^{**} + \left(U_{0} + \frac{Ri + \alpha^{2}S}{U_{0}-c} \right) \phi_{22} \\ \hat{a}_{44} &= -\frac{i}{\alpha Re_{2}} \phi_{22}^{***} - \left((U_{2}-c) - \frac{3i\alpha}{Re_{2}} \right) \phi_{22}^{**} + \left(U_{0} + \frac{Ri + \alpha^{2}S}{U_{0}-c} \right) \phi_{22} \\ \hat{a}_{44} &= -\frac{i}{\alpha Re_{2}} \phi_{22}^{***} - \left((U_{2}-c) - \frac{3i\alpha}{Re_{2}} \right) \phi_{22}^{***} + \left(U_{0} + \frac{Ri + \alpha^{2}S}{U_{0}-c} \right) \phi_{22}^{**} \\ \hat{a}_{44} &= -\frac{i}{\alpha Re_{2}} \phi_{22}^{***} - \left((U_{2}-c) - \frac{3i\alpha}{Re_{2}} \right) \phi_{22}^{***} + \left(U_{0} + \frac{Ri + \alpha^{2}S}{U_{0}-c} \right) \phi_{22}^{**} \\ \hat{a}_{44} &= -\frac{i}{\alpha Re_{2}} \phi_{22}^{***} - \left((U_{2}-c) - \frac{3i\alpha}{Re_{2}} \right) \phi_{22}^{***} + \left(U_{0} + \frac{Ri + \alpha^{2}S}{U_{0}-c} \right) \phi_{22}^{***} \\ \hat{a}_{44} &= -\frac{i}{\alpha Re_{2}} \phi_{22}^{**} - \left((U_{2}-c) - \frac{3i\alpha}{Re_{2}} \right) \phi_{22}^{***} + \left(U_{0} + \frac{Ri + \alpha^{2}S}{U_{0}-c} \right) \phi_{22}^{***} \\ \hat{a}_{44} &= -\frac{i}{\alpha Re_{2}} \phi_{22}^{***} - \left((U_{2}-c) - \frac{3i}{Re_{2}$$

Therefore, for non-trivial solutions, the determinant of this macrix (a_{12}) must be zero and the associated eigenvalue equation may be written as

$$\det (\Delta(\alpha, c; Re_1, Re_2, Ri, \gamma)) = 0 . \qquad (3.4.5)$$

To simplify the calculation, it is assumed that the kinematic viscosity takes almost the same value in both layers (i.e. $Re_{1}=Re_{2}$) and the non-dimensional surface (interfacial) tension S=0 which can be easily estimated its effects by investigating the effect of the Richardson number Ri on the system stability. With this simplification, the eigen equation becomes

$$det(\Delta(\alpha,c;Re,Ri,\gamma)) = 0 . \qquad (3.4.6)$$

3.4.2 Parasitic Growth Problems and Orthonormalization Now, let us consider the problem of determining values for \$\overline{1}\$; \$\overline{1}\$; \$\overline{1}\$; at the density interface in order to solve this eigen equation. Although there are several possible methods, we will employ the method of direct integration since we know the values of \$\overline{1}\$; \$\overline{1}\$; at boundaries. This reduces the problem into a one-point boundary problem, for which the method of direct integration gives high accuracy and also makes it possible to solve for situation involving relatively high Regnolds numbers.

If we follow the method developed by Betchov and Criminale (1967), from the boundary conditions, we choose the initial values of ϕ_{i1} , ϕ_{i2} to be

$$\Phi_{11} = (\phi_{11}, \phi_{11}, \phi_{11}, \phi_{11}, \phi_{11}) = (0, 0, 1, 0) , \qquad (3.4.7)$$

$$\Phi_{12} = (\phi_{12}, \phi_{12}, \phi_{12}, \phi_{12}, \phi_{12}) = (0, 0, 0, 1) , \qquad (3.4.8)$$

$$\Phi_{21} = (\phi_{21}, \phi_{21}, \phi_{21}, \phi_{21}, \phi_{21}) = (0, 0, 1, 0) , \qquad (3.4.9)$$

$$\Phi_{22} = (\phi_{22}, \phi_{22}, \phi_{22}, \phi_{22}) = (0, 0, 0, 1)$$
(3.4.10)

However, since the upper layer is assumed to be unbounded, it is difficult to calculate ϕ_{11} , ϕ_{12} by integrating the equations from z=infinity to z=0 without sacrificing accuracy. Fortunately, our model uses the hyperbolic tangent velocity profile and in the z>>1 region, the coefficients of the Orr-

where Φ_{ij} is vector form of solutions.

Some refeld equation are zero or constant. Therefore, the asymptotic solutions for z>>1 can be obtained as

$$\phi_{11} = \exp\left(-\left(\alpha^{2} + \frac{U_{0}''}{U_{0} - c}\right)^{1/2} z\right) , \qquad (3.4.11)$$

$$\phi_{12} = \exp\left(-\left(\alpha^{2} + i\alpha \operatorname{Re}_{1}(U_{0} - c)\right)^{1/2} z\right)$$
(3.4.12)

In our calculations, we use the values of these asymptotic solutions at z=5 as the starting values of integration. By using the Runge-Kutta-Gill numerical integration method with a calculation step $\Delta z=0.005$ to 0.025, we obtain the values of ϕ_{11} , ϕ_{12} and their derivatives at the density interface z=0. As the computer proceeds toward z=0, however, the solutions occasionally develop characteristic oscillations and the two solutions, ϕ_{11} and ϕ_{12} , become dependent. This phenomena, so-called parasitic growth problem, occurs more often when the system has either a large Reynolds number Re or wave number α .

To avoid this problem, several techniques have been developed. A few of them which are the filter method, the re-orthogonalization method, and the Riccati method (see Gersting & Jankowski (1972), Davey (1973 and 1977)). In this nodel, we will use the modified filter method which is based upon the method suggested by Kaplan (1964). The basic idea c. ethod is to maintain a right angle between the two vectors Φ_{i1} and Φ_{i2} by sobtracting Φ_{i2} element from Φ_{i2} . This produces

$$\Phi_{11N} = \Phi_{11} - K_1 \Phi_{12} , \qquad (3.4.13)$$

where Φ_{iiN} is the new vector which has been re-olthogonalized against Φ_{i2} and K_i is a modification coefficient. Since the coefficients of the Orr-Sommerfeld equation can be consider to be constant locally, the solutions should have the same forms as the z=infinity case, i.e.

$$\Phi = A_i \cdot \overline{\Phi_{i,j}} , \qquad (3.4.14)$$

where $\mathbf{\Psi}_{ij}$ is the solution matrix

,

$$\overline{\Phi_{1j}} = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_{11} & \phi_{11} & \phi_{12} & \phi_{12} \\ \phi_{12} & \phi_{12} & \phi_{12} & \phi_{12} \\ \phi_{21} & \phi_{21} & \phi_{21} & \phi_{21} \\ \phi_{22} & \phi_{22} & \phi_{22} & \phi_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \qquad (3.4.15)$$

$$A_{i} = (A_{1}, A_{2}, A_{3}, A_{4}),$$
 (3.4.16)

 $\phi_{11} = \exp(B_1 z) , \qquad (3.4.17)$

$$\Phi_{12} = \exp(B_2 z) , \qquad (3.4.18)$$

$$\phi_{21} = \exp(B_3 z) , \qquad (3.4.19)$$

- $\phi_{22} = \exp(B_4 z)$, (3.4.20)
- $B_{1} = -\left(\alpha^{2} + \frac{U_{0}''}{U_{0}-c}\right)^{1/2}, \qquad (3.4.21)$

$$B_2 = - (\alpha^2 + j \alpha Re (U_0 - c))^{1/2} , \qquad (3.4.22)$$

$$B_3 = -B_1 , \qquad (3.4.23)$$

$$B_4 = -B_2 . (3.4.24)$$

Then
$$A_1 = \Phi \cdot \overline{\Phi_{11}}^{-1}$$
 (3.4.2°)

Therefore,

$$A_{1}^{T} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\exp(B_{1}z)}{2B_{1}(B_{2}^{2}-B_{1}^{2})} (\phi^{"'}-B_{1}\phi^{"}-B_{2}^{2}\phi^{'}+B_{1}B_{2}^{2}\phi) \\ \frac{-\exp(B_{2}z)}{2B_{2}(B_{2}^{2}-B_{1}^{2})} (\phi^{"'}-B_{2}\phi^{"}-B_{1}^{2}\phi^{'}+B_{2}B_{1}^{2}\phi) \\ \frac{\exp(B_{3}z)}{2B_{3}(B_{4}^{2}-B_{3}^{2})} (\phi^{"'}-B_{3}\phi^{"}-B_{4}^{2}\phi^{'}+B_{3}B_{4}^{2}\phi) \\ \frac{-\exp(B_{4}z)}{2B_{4}(B_{4}^{2}-B_{3}^{2})} (\phi^{"'}-B_{4}\phi^{"}-B_{3}^{2}\phi^{'}+B_{4}B_{3}^{2}\phi) \end{pmatrix}, \quad (3.4.26)$$

where $A_1, \ldots A_4$ represent the magnitude of each element of a particular solution within the solutions Φ . Thus, the modified solutions should satisfy the following relationship,

$$A_2(\Phi_{11N}) = A_4(\Phi_{11N}) = 0$$
, (3.4.27)

and the modification coefficients K_i become

$$K_1 = \frac{A_2(\Phi_{11})}{A_2(\Phi_{12})}$$
 for z>0
, (3.4.28)

$$K_{2} = \frac{A_{4}(\Phi_{21})}{A_{4}(\Phi_{22})} \qquad \text{for } z < 0 \qquad (3.4.29)$$

Thus, the modified solutions may be written as

$$\Phi_{11N} = \Phi_{11} - \frac{A_2(\Phi_{11})}{A_2(\Phi_{12})} \Phi_{12} \qquad \text{for } z > 0$$
(3.4.30)

$$\Phi_{21N} = \Phi_{21} - \frac{A_3(\Phi_{22})}{A_3(\Phi_{22})} \Phi_{22} \qquad \text{for } z < 0 \qquad (3.4.31)$$

By using this method in every several calculation step, the accumulation of the truncation errors can be avoided.

3.4.3 Determination of Eigenvalues

In previous sections (3.4.1 and 3.4.2), the eigenvalue problem is presented in terms of the 6 parameters α , C_R , C_1 , Ri, Re and γ . It is conversiont to regard four of the parameters as given, and to present the determinant values on the plane of the other two. In this analysis, we will choose two possible combinations. In the first, we fix C_1 , Ri, Re, γ and plot the determinant values on α - C_R plane, while in the second, we fix α , Ri, Re, γ and plot on C_R - C_1 plane.

For example, if we use the second combination, the program will require α , Ri, Re and γ as given values, and a tentative range for C_R and C_I including the calculation steps ΔC_R and ΔC_I . Based on these values, the computer will perform the numerical integration from the boundaries toward the interface, and map the real and imaginary parts of the left-hand-side of the eigen equation (3.4.6). For convenience, let us define these parts as D_R and D_I . When the mapping is completed on the C_R-C_I plane, depending on the sign

1.....



Figure 3.1. Determination of eigenvalues

of D_R and D_1 , the computer will determine the points where Dr=0 and $D_1=0$. By connecting these points, we can make contour curves of $D_R=0$ and $D_1=0$ on C_R-C_1 plane, with their points of intersection representing the eigenvalues (C_R, C_1) . By evaluating the expected values of C_R and C_1 from this map, with the aid of computer, we can achieve solutions with higher accuracy. If the first combination of variables is used, the program works in same way except C_1 is fixed instead of the wave number α . (see Figure 3.1(a) and (b))

3.4.4 Perturbation Quantities of the Flow

To obtain the eigen function $\Phi_{i,j}$, we will use the following process. First, calculate the values of $\Phi_{i,j}$ at the density interface based upon the eigenvalues. While the numerical integration is preformed, calculated values of $\Phi_{i,j}$ in each step are stored in memory as well as the modification coefficients K_i if the modifications are required. Using the matrix equation (3.4.26), we determine the coefficients $A_{i,...,A_4}$, and by calculating these values from z=0 to the boundaries, the eigen function Φ will be determined. It is important to note that this eigen function Φ is defined as the stream function of the perturbation velocity field, therefore, we can find the perturbation quantities from Φ as follows,

$$\widetilde{u} = \left(\frac{d\phi}{dz} \exp(i\alpha(x-ct)) + c.c.\right) / 2$$
(3.4.32)

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$$\widetilde{w} = \left(-i\alpha \widehat{\phi} \exp(i\alpha(x-ct)) + c.c.\right)/2 \qquad (3.4.33)$$

$$\eta = \left(-\frac{i}{U_{c}-c} \widehat{\phi} \exp(i\alpha(x-ct)) + c.c.\right)/2$$
(3.4.34)

$$\tau = \left(- \overline{\widetilde{u}} \, \overline{\widetilde{w}} + \text{c.c.}\right) / 2 \tag{3.4.35}$$

$$\varepsilon = \left(\frac{\widetilde{u}^2 + \widetilde{w}^2}{2} + c.c.\right) / 2$$
(3.4.36)

where τ is the Reynolds stress (averaged over the wave length) and ϵ is the turbulent kinetic energy.

3.5 MODEL III: THICKNESS EFFECTS

3.5.1 Formulation

Figure 3.2 shows the velocity and density profiles used in model III which was designed to investigate the effect of the rigid boundary and the lower layer thickness \mathbb{Z}_R on the flow stability (The computer program for this problem and its flow-chart are listed in appendix B). It should be noted that the structure of this program allows it to calculate any type of velocity profile simply by changing the form of the function in subroutine FUNC. This feature allows us to investigate the stability of other velocity profiles in later sections. For this model the tanh(z) function was employed since it has been found that measured mean velocity profiles tend to match either the tanh or error functions very well (see section 1.2.2). The calculations were performed on the University of Alberta Computing Service's Amdhal 5870 system with the FORTRAN77 programing language. It took about 20 sec. of CPU time to determine each eigenvalue on either the α -C_R or C_R-C_I plane. These solutions will be present in next sub-section.

3.5.2 Solutions

The proceeding problems were solved numerically for the parameter ranges $0.4 \le Z_R \le 5.0$, $0.0 \le \alpha \le 3.0$, $0.0 \le Ri \le 2.0$. Figures 3.3 to 3.18 summarize the results obtained including the dispersion relationship, neutral boundaries and the

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perturbation quantity profiles. Figure 3.3 illustrates the dispersion relationship for the $Z_R = \infty$ case and is identical to the solutions arrived at by Nishida & Yoshida (1987). For this condition, the SVA and SVB waves are identical.

Figures 3.4 and 3.5 evaluate the rigid boundary effects and, again, both the SVA and SVB solutions have the same dispersion relationship, although they show that the additional unstable modes in the low wave number region. This is very similar to the inviscid cases presented in the previous sections as well as the Lalas & Einaudi(1976) results. These modes are, however, Holmboe modes instead of Kelvin-Helmholtz modes as in the Lalas' case. Figure 3.5 shows that the growth rates in the α Ci=0.05 region shrink as the Richardson number decreases, a phenomena noted in both models I and II. Evelually, the most unstable modes appear in the area where the Richardson number is about 0.4 and wave number is 0.8. This tendency is maintained until Z_{R} =0.4, and will be discussed in the following section.

The dispersion relationship of SVA and SVB waves starts to separate at $Z_R = 1.7$; a phenomena which can be clearly seen in Figure 3.6. Similar to the inviscid model results, SVA waves are not influenced by a thinning of the lower layer thickness Z_R , except in the region of very low wave number or small Richardson number. As Z_R becomes smaller than 1.0, a numerical instability occurs for very small Richardson number flow and makes it impossible to calculate the "espersion

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relationship, although these unstable regions eventually shrink as is presented in Figure 3.11.

Instead of testing the entire range of parameters, α =0.8 and Ri=0.4 have been chosen as the most unstable mode and examined for stability. Figure 3.12 implies that this system will be stabilized when Z_R<0.43. By contrast, SVB wates are much more stable against decreasing Z_R and for these waves, the criterion is met at approximately Z_R=1.07. This value is very close to that obtained from the inviscid models in the previous sections. Thus, it indicates that the viscosity effects on the system stability is in the order of 3 to 4%. This result is similar to the conclusions of Maslowe & Thompson (1972) and Nishida & Yoshida (1987).

Figures 3.13 to 3.17 illustrate the variation of the perturbation quantity profiles with Z_R . The Reynolds stress shows an obvious relationship between stability and energy transfers. The phase change of the displacement η also shows that the perturbation field must lie into the mean flow field in order to become unstable, which corresponds to the sign of Reynolds stress.

Figure 3.18 shows the stream line of the unstable modes of the SVA and SVB waves. It is obvious that SVB waves are deformed by the existence of the rigid boundary. Most of the features are identical with the invscid case; except for smaller growth rates.

le3



Figure 3.2. Velocity and density distribute of Model III





Figure 3.3. Dispersion relationship for ZR=infinity case





Figure 3.4. Dispersion relationship for ZR=3.0 case





Figure 3.5. Dispersion relationship for ZR=2.0 case





Figure 3.6. Neutral boundaries of ZR=1.5 case

1.68



Figure 3.7. Neutral boundaries of ZR=1.3 case





Figure 3.9. Neutral boundaries of ZR=1.1 case



Figure 3.10. Neutral boundaries of ZR=1.0 case



Figure 3.11. Neutral boundaries of ZR=0.7 case





Figure 3.12. Relationship between lower layer thickness ZR and Phase velocity, growth rate.









Figure 3.14 (a)-(e) The perturbation quantities of the flow. $\alpha = 0.8 \text{ Ri} = 0.4 \text{ C}_{P} = 0.432 \alpha \text{C}_{I} = 0.084 \text{ ZR} = 2.0 \text{ case.}$





Figure 3.15 (a)-(e) The perturbation quantities of the flow. $\alpha{=}0.8~\text{Ri}{=}0.4~\text{C}_R{=}0.393~\alpha\text{C}_I{=}0.056~\text{ZR}{=}1.0~\text{case.}$





Figure 3.16 (a)-(e) The perturbation quantities of the flow. $\alpha{=}0.8~{\rm Ri}{=}0.4~{\rm C}_{R}{=}0.371~\alpha{\rm C}_{I}{=}0.011~{\rm ZR}{=}0.5~{\rm case.}$











Figure 3.18. Stream lines of SVA and SV3 solutions (on the system moving with C_R)

3.6 MODEL IV: DENSITY INTERFACE SHIFTING EFFECTS

3.6.1 Formulation

This problem is very similar to that researched by Lawrence, Browand & Redekopp (1991). Figure 3.19 shows the velocity and density profiles used in this model. Since these profiles are similar to the preceding model, program changes will only be required in the subroutine FUNC and in some boundary conditions. To make the density interface shifting effects clear, an unbounded boundary condition will be used; an assumption supported by experiments since velocity distributions displaying this feature were observed when the lower layer thickness $Z_B>3.0$. With the rigid boundary, it is expected that the dispersion relationship may show some additional unstable modes in the low wave number region; this will be discussed in section 3.7.

3.6.2 Solutions

In this model, the parameter ranges studied were d=0.5, Re=100, $0.0 \le \alpha \le 3.0$ and $0.0 \le Ri \le 2.5$, which were chosen based on previous experimental research (Yonemitsu (1986)), and the calculations were performed using the same facilities as used in the previous models. Figure 3.20 illustrates the neutral boundaries and dispersion relationship of unstable modes. Under this condition, it was found that only one type of wave can be unstable. Since this wave also has a negative propagation speed, by definition, these waves must be called 378 modes. As Figure 3.21 shows, the perturbation quantities imply an instability level located lower than the point of inflection, which was expected to be the point of greatest instability.


U=tanh (z+ Δz)

Figure 3.19. Velocity and density distribution of Model IV



Figure 3.20. Dispersion relationship for density interface displaced case (Re=100, d=0.5 case)



Figure 3.21 (a)-(e) The perturbation quantities of the flow. $\alpha = 0.6 \text{ Ri} = 0.4 \text{ C}_{R} = -0.225 \alpha \text{C}_{I} = 0.135 \text{ ZR} = 3.0 \text{ case.}$



3.7 DISCUSSION

Solutions of model III show the effects of viscosity on the flow stability. By comparing to the result of inviscid models, it can be seen that a large Richardson number region is stabilized and that the neutral boundaries now have closed forms. This is a more reasonable solution since the previous experiments indicated the existence of a critical Richardson number for the Holmboe modes but the inviscid theories could not explain it.

Despite the fact that model III included significant improvements over the inviscid models in terms of the velocity profile and the evaluation of the viscosity effects, the dispersion relationship on the α -Ri plane indicates that the most unstable modes tend to appear around α =0.8 and Ri=0.4 for the bounded cases; a result similar to that predicted by the inviscid models in section 2.3. This finding is consistent with the results obtained by Lawrence et.al. (1991) who employed an inviscid piece-wise linear velocity profile model. It is interesting that the most unstable modes get closer to the axis (Ri=0.0) as Z_R increases, and, as was mentioned before, they appear on the axis in the unbounded case. This fact implies that model III may be using a slightly different mechanism to determine the most unstable modes in an off-axis location, when compared to Lawrence's model, he mentioned that this phenomena may be due to the existence of more unstable three dimensional primary

instability in the flow. However, present knowledge is insufficient to answer this question; it is suggested that experiments be performed to consider the three dimensional wave structure (see Smyth and Peltier 1989, 1990).

Model III also shows that the lower layer thickness Z_R affects the stability of SVB waves, but does not seem to affect SVA waves until it becomes less than 1.0. By contrast, in the inviscid models, the most unstable modes of SVB waves do not move their location on α -Ri plane with the variation of Z_{R} . This implies that the stability of SVB waves is sensitive not only to the velocity profile but also to the viscosity. SVA waves obtained the additional unstable modes similar to the inviscid models, but over a much larger area. Unfortunately, as was found by Lalas & Einaudi (1976), it is impossible to distinguish the boundaries between these additional modes. Since investigation of the perturbation quantities showed no over-reflection type of phenomena in these modes, more precise calculations need to be done in this region to find the mechanism of the additional modes. Experimental investigations would be difficult since it is expected that these modes would not be seen in the flow due to their extremely small growth rates.

Model IV illustrates the dispersion relationship for situation in which the density interface is displaced from the center of the shear layer. Lawrence's inviscid models show unstable Holmboe mode solutions in the region with small Richardson numbers and large wave numbers, but these

solutions cannot be seen in Figure 3.20. This may be due to viscosity damping effects, since the growth rate predicted in an inviscid solution is relatively small and occurs at a large wave number. Figure 3.20 also shows that the critical value of the Richardson number is larger than that predicted by model III. This result is reasonable, since the strongest shear occurs at the center of shear layer and far from the density interface. Thus, the stabilizing effects of bouyancy are much smaller than in the non-displaced cases. Another contrast between this model and non-displaced models is that only SVB waves can exist when the Richardson number exceeds about 0.2. This implies that the perturbation only appears in the lower layer, which agrees with observations by Browand & Winant (1973), Koop & Browand (1979) and Lawrence et.al.(1990).

3.8 CONCLUSION

In this section, the effect of viscosity was introduced into the previous models, and a hyperbolic tangent velocity profile was employed in order to improve the evaluation of the flow stability.

Model III, which evaluates the effects of the lower layer thickness Z_R , shows the damping and stabilizing effects of viscosity on high Richardson number flows. This is a much more reasonable solution than the inviscid one, since the previous experiments indicated the existence of a critical Richardson number of about 1.5 to 2.0. It was also found that the viscosity destabilizes the low wave number region, as was illustrated by the additional unstable modes.

Model III also shows that SVB waves are strongly influenced by the reduction in Z_R , but neutral boundaries and the most unstable modes behave slightly differently from those in the inviscid solutions. The most unstable modes appear around α =0.8 Ri=0.4 and do not move with variation of Z_R . These models (I,II and III) imply a sensitivity of SVB wave stability on the lower layer thickness Z_R and velocity profile Uo. By contrast, SVA waves are only slightly influenced by Z_R and Uo; a result very similar to the inviscid case, which may suggest an independence of SVA waves from the lower layer flow.

Model IV, which tests effects of the displacement between the interface and the center of the shear layer,

shows that only one Holmboe mode (SVB) can exist in the channel. Although the model did not cover the entire range of parameter variation (especially the displacement d), the results imply mechanisms for the instability that are quite reasonable (in particular, the larger critical Richardson number). This model also showed that the additional unstable modes obtained by Lawrence et.al. are stabilized by viscosity.

In summary, viscosity and continuous velocity profiles exhibit significant influences on flow stability. However, some of the features predicted by both the inviscid and viscous models are contradictory. In the next section, appropriate experiments will verify these problems and the stability of the salt-wedge will be examined.

4. PART FOUR: EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous section, several flow models, designed for different flow patterns in the channel, were investigated for their stability features. However, as was mentioned in Part I, few experimental and field observational data are available to verify the waves and flow structures in the channel, due mainly to the incompleteness of data sets.

In this section, experiments to produce complete data sets (i.e. information such as wedge shape, velocity and density profiles, wave length and its phase velocity, interface displacement d and the lower layer thickness Z_R) will be discribed. Measurements were made using LDA (Laser Doppler Anemometry), a conductivity-salinity meter, and a wave detector; all controlled by a computerized data acquisition system. Also a flow visualization technique was used to identify the flow structure and density interface. The parameter ranges were carefully controlled by choosing the salt water density p_2 and fresh water velocity U₀ to produce an appropriate flow situation for observing the waves and results referred to in previous sections. The details will be explained in the following sub-sections.

4.2 FACILITIES AND PROCEDURES

4.2.1 Flume

The layout of the flume used in the experiments is shown in Figure 4.1. It consists of a straight channel section 3.05 m long and 16 cm wide connected to a large downstream reservoir which is 81 cm long, 82 cm wide and 10 cm deep. At the end of reservoir there is an overflow weir to maintain a constant water level. The depth of the channel section is maintained at 6.7 to 7 cm for all cases. Although the slope is adjustable by using a jack located at the upstream end of the channel, it was set at zero for the experiments.

The flume was constructed of plexiglass supported by aluminum frames to prevent bending and torsion due to its own weight. The bed of flume is supported over the desk top about 40 cm high in order to move the LDA system. These supports were arranged to minimize interference with the measuring system except for the region very near the river mouth. At the upstream end, two sets of flow straighteners (which were made of 7 cm long plastic honeycomb and fiber hog) were installed in order to obtain uniform flow by destroying the large eddy structure in the channel. By employing this method, the turbulence intensity in the channel was of the order of 10 to 20% of the mean flow velocity at the upsteam end.

The salt wedges for our experiments were formed using the following procedure. First, the flume was filled with





salt water while the upstream end of the channel was elevated about 5 cm higher than downstream end and the depth of water was about 2 cm. Then, fresh water was introduced into the channel from the upstream end using a very small discharge, in order to prevent any mixing phenomena right at the beginning. Once a distinct fresh water layer had been established over the salt water, the discharge was increased and at the same time the slope was slowly reduced. The combination of discharge and bed slope was carefully chosen such that the location of the front end of the salt wedge (so-called tip region) would be maintained about 10 to 20 cm downstream of the flow straighteners. After the bed slope reached zero, and a constant discharge of the fresh water was established, the salt wedge tip continued to move until it reached a station approximately 200 cm from the channel mouth. At this point, the movementof the salt wedge slowed down significantly, reaching an average velocity of about 5 to 30 cm/hour (Quasi-steady state).

The measurements were made after a steady state condition had been obtained, which was ascertained by constancy of the salt wedge tip location. Measurements included visualization of interfacial details through dye injection, velocity profiles taken by the LDA system, interfacial wave phase velocity C_R and wave length λ determined by the wave detector. The density profile measurements were made with the conductivity probe and by

sampling. Details of these measurements and their equipment will be described in following sub-sections.

4.2.2 Laser Doppler Anemometer

The Laser Doppler Anemometry (LDA) technique is one of the most widely utilized velocity measurement systems. It is a non-intrusive, instantaneous measurement without any calibration even though its signal processing gives several mathematical and electrical difficulties. For a general review of the history, theories and applications, refer to the work by Durst, Melling & Whitelaw (1981), in the Von Karman Institute Lecture series 1981-3 entitled 'Laser velocimetry'(1981). Technical details of the system can be found in the FISA manuals.

The method utilized in the experiments is the "dual beam forward scatter" method (fringe mode) shown in Figure 4.2. The advantage of this method, compared to the common back scatter type LDA, is a smaller power requirement for the laser tube, and easy maintenance. In particular, the ease with which the optics could be adjusted was a very important feature of this method since the density stratification often refracted the laser beams, making it necessary to re-focus the photo detector during experiments. A minor adjustment of the detector focusing was necessary every time the system went across the density interface. Since the photomultiplier was conveniently located slightly higher than the beam focusing plane (see Figure 4.2), it was impossible to measure the velocity at points a few millimetres below the interface.

When using this method, velocity is given by following equation,

$$U = \frac{\lambda}{2\sin(\theta_{1}/2)} f_{0} \qquad (4.2.1)$$

where λ_{L} is the wavelength of laser light (632.8 nm (He-Ne tube)), θ_{L} is the crossing angle of the two beams (measured as 5.52 deg.), and f_{D} is the Doppler shift frequency. This equation implies that measured velocity values are completely independent of the location and set-up of photo detectors.

Figure 4.3 is a schematic diagram of the rain components of the LDA system, as well as the data acquisition system. The laser tube was composed of a 35mW He-Ne laser with a 632.8 nm red line, requiring significantly less power than other comparable systems. Using the beam splitter, the laser beam was split into two distributed beams of approximately equal power. The frequency of one of these beams was shifted 40MHz (plus-minus a few KHz) by passing it through the Bragg cell (acousto-optical frequency shifting system) in order to detect flow direction. A focusing lens (f=310mm $\theta_{\rm r}$ =5.52deg.) crossed these two beams at a point which was positioned in the flow by moving the entire optical system (mounted on the optical bench). Accuracy of positioning in the vertical and transverse direction was 0.5 mm.



<SIDE VIEW>

Figure 4.2. Laser optics set up.



Figure 4.3. Block diagram of Laser Doppler Anemometry system.

Since the system operates by analyzing the scattered light from minute particles within the flow, the flow was seeded with skim milk powder in very small concentrations, the required quantity being determined by monitoring the raw signal output of the photomultiplier with pre-amplifier and band-pass filters. The scattered light was collected by the photomultiplier located opposite the laser on the same optical bench as the laser-Bragg cell-focusing system. This scattered light was converted into an electrical signal, which was processed by the counter type frequency analyzer after passing through pre-amplifier and band-pass filters. This counter evaluated the Doppler frequency f_D in each burst and displayed these values on its front panel. Also, since the digital output was sent to a D-A convertor and output amplifier, the velocity values could be monitored as a voltage by using appropriate instruments such as a syncroscope.

As can be imagined, this system generates a large amount of data and necessitates the use of a data acquisition system. The system we used consisted of an A-D convertor (NB-MIO-16L-9), an amplifier and a computer (Macintosh II with 4MB of memory). The analog signal could be sampled by this system at an arbitrary sampling rate which was totally controlled by computer software, and, although this system was capable of a sampling interval of 10 MHz, the experiments did not require such a high speed sampling since the flow was

quasi-laminar. Other settings of importance to the operation of this system are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 LDA system setting

band pass filters	1 to 256 kHz
pre-amp. gain	-3 to -7 db
threshold window	7 db
computation accuracy	1.5 to 3 %
ensemble width	1 to 4096
Frequency shift	40 MHz+20kHz
output amp. reduce gain	3 to 7 db
AD conv. amp. gain (Mac)	100 db
sampling rate (Mac)	50 Hz ($\Delta t = 0.02 \text{ sec.}$)
FFT smpling (Mac)	1024 data points

The sampled data was processed by the utility program package 'LabView', which controlled data acquisition, calculations and data storage. Essentially, two types of information were collected; the time-averaged velocity Uo and the root-mean-square of fluctuations \tilde{u} . The averaging was performed over a time interval represented by 4000 to 40000 data points at a sampling interval $\Delta t=0.02$ seconds. Thus, it took about 2 minutes at each location to get one averaged velocity. At the same time, the statistical package included with LabView determined the standard deviation of velocity which corresponds to rms (\tilde{u}). In addition to velocity information, the power spectrum was obtained simultaneously by using the FFT (Fast Fourier Transform) program in the LabView. All this information could be monitored on the computer display screen and was automatically stored on a floppy disk in spread sheet format.

4.2.3 Wave Detector

The interfacial waves were detected using an instrument similar to a conductivity meter. Figure 4.4 shows a schematic diagram of this instrument, designed and built by the Department of Applied Physics at Hokkaido University in 1984. This device measures the conductivity difference between two wires by detecting the unbalance aross a Wheatstone bridge and amplifing the output. A 5 KHz alternating current was applied to the bridge to avoid the electrolysis of water, and the output of this circuit responded linearly to conductivity change. To maximize the sensitivity of this device to interface movement, the pair of wires was positioned such that the ends were half submerged into the salt water.

Two completely independent sets of sensors were located longitudinally in the stream, separated by a known distance (10cm). A FFT and cross-correlation of outputs gave enough information to evaluate the interfacial wave length λ and its phase velocity C_R (see Appendix C). These measured values were compared with flow visualization results in order to confirm the information. Unfortunately, it was impossible to measure the growth rate of waves αC_1 , because these two sensors had to be electrically independent and could not





Figure 4.5. Wave detector output and processed data. (90.6.9(1) case. λ *=2.10cm, C_R*=3.20 cm/sec.)

match their output characteristics completely. The FFT and cross-correlation were performed using the same computer system as was used for velocity measurements. (see Figure 4.5)

4.2.4 Conductivity-Salinity Meter

It is well known that conductivity-salinity measurements are one of the most difficult aspects of experimental instrument design and usually are not reliable unless sensors are calibrated every time they are used. The difficulty is mainly due to the change of sensor effective surface area by salt, and also the sensitivity of the sensor and circuit to temperature fluctuations. Also, entrainment of sampling water by the sensor makes the situation even more difficult. (see Sargent & Jirka (1987)).

In order to avoid these technical problems, the following two methods were employed. In the first method, a sensor designed and built in the Department of Mechanical Engineering at the University of Alberta was used. This had a tip designed to be very small and sleek to prevent entrainment, yet large enough to achieve high accuracy and sensitivity during experiments. This sensor was moved slowly and located at each measuring point for a sufficient length of time to obtain stable readings. The process required one to two minutes for each reading, depending on the flow velocity. By employing this method, it was found that





reading values were very consistent and reliable regardless of the direction of sensor travel.

In the second method, the density of the upper and lower layers was determined by taking 100ml samples of fresh and salt water before and after the experiments. By measuring the weight of each sample using an electric scale (which can read up to 10 mg), and averaging several readings, the maximum and minimum densities in the flow were obtained. From these values, $\Delta \rho$ and γ were obtained.

As shown in Figure 4.6, this sensor showed excellent linearity, implying a similarity of density profiles and output velocity profiles. Based on this figure, we feel very confident of our measuraments of density distributions and the density interface location, which was defined as the level at which ρ_{AV} is located. The vertical resolution of this sensor was 0.1 mm in location and it was accurate enough to examine the density structure of the interface and shear layer.

4.3 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Figure 4.7 is a schematic diagram of a typical salt wedge profile observed during the experiments. On the basis of their detailed experimental data, Sargent & Jirka (1987) suggested a longitudinal subdivision of the wedge into three regions (see part one) which are (1) the tip region, (2) the quasi-equilibrium region and (3) the exit region, based upon the force distribution on the interface. Although the overall dynamics of the salt wedge is mainly controlled by the quasi-equilibrium region, it was found that the tip and exit region contribute to wave generation as well. Therefore, it was necessary to perform velocity and density profile measurements in all three regions.

As it was mentioned before, the flow in the channel has a very complicated three-dimensional structure as is shown schematically in Figure 4.8. These structures were observed using a combination of flow visualization, conductivity measurements and LDA (see Figure 4.8 and 4.9). It is obvious that the secondary flow in the channel creates the transverse flow structures, and it is because of these structures that the stability of the system cannot be described by width-averaged or centerline velocity profiles as was the common practice with previous researchers. Moreover, the LDA measurement of the velocity distribution in the transverse direction, shown in Figure 4.9, indicates the existence of a slightly different structure in the salt water

compared to that observed in the fresh water. Therefore, the experiments were performed with consideration of not only longitudinal subdivisions but also transverse subdivision such as the high speed region and low speed region.

Let us now introduce new longitudinal subdivisions based upon wave and interfacial phenomena (Figure 4.7). If we consider Figure 4.8 it can be seen that SVA waves are located in the high speed region and, by contrast, SVB waves are always found in the low speed region.

In addition to velocity profiles (see Figure 4.8), the thickness of the salt wedge was also measured in the transverse direction, and it was found that only very small changes (about 0.2mm) in thickness existed. This fact implies that it is very difficult to determine the flow structure by measuring interfacial deformation. Therefore, it is necessary to clearly specify the locations of flow measurements if we are to understand and evaluate flow stability.

Figure 4.10. shows typical interfacial waves (here SVA) in this flume. Here, the salt water layer was dyed with food color to visalize the density interface ((a) and (b)). Also in (b), this dye was injected into fresh water layer about lcm above the interface and it indicated the series of vortices which correspond to SVA waves. Both photograph were taken in the quasi-equilibrium region and over-all Richardson number was around $Ri_0=0.6$.

In the analysis of vertical velocity profiles, they were non-dimensionalized using the characteristic length and velocity scales as defined in Figure 4.11. These scales are based upon the hyperbolic tangent function velocity profile and the step function which describes the density profile. Figure 4.12 summarizes the velocity profiles and shows good agreement with tanh(z) especially around the density interface. It can be seen that velocities tend not to match well in the z < -1.0 region, which is due to the existence of the rigid boundary. The upper layer velocities also show some disagreement with tanh(z) since the shear stress near the density interface was considered as the first priority for velocity matching. Also, it should be mentioned that we have tried to minimize the displacement d (which is defined as the distance between the density interface and the center of the shear layer) unless it was too big. The effects of this velocity approximation technique on the evaluation of the stability will be discussed in the next section.

Figure 4.13 shows a typical vertical density distribution and implies that a two-layer model for the salt wedge is quite reasonable. The profiles maintained their sharp density interface through the entire section of flume, and it was found that the visual interface and the steepest density gradient point always matched each other very well.

The significant details of the experiments performed are summarized in Table 4.2, where the superscript "*" indicates a dimensional quantity. X and Y represent the location of

measurement points as distance from the mouth and left wall, respectively, Vint and Dint represent the velocity and depth of the density interface, D represents the total depth of the location and d represents the density interface displacement from the center of the shear layer. Some of the experiments in this table were performed in a different flume by Yonemitsu (1986) and are listed for comparison. The ranges of the global parameters such as the Reynolds number and the Richardson number were wide enough to cover entire range of results from the previous analysis (29<Re<549, 0.15<Ri<3.96).

Figure 4.14 shows three typical velocity profiles measured in stable and unstable situations. It can be seen that the fluctuations $(rms(\widetilde{u}))$ tend to have three peaks in their amplitude; a feature that may be considered to be proof of the instability mechanism since it is a very unique feature predicted in sections 3.5 and 3.6. Moreover, the spectrum of these fluctuations appears to be identical with the interfacial wave spectrum predicted for the case involving unstable flow conditions. On the other hand, the stable case shows that the maximum fluctuation peaks are significantly far from the density interface and seem to be stabilized by stronger bouyancy effects. Another problem of $rms(\tilde{u})$ was that the data rates in lower layer, particularly near the bed, were not significantly high to obtain reliable value of deviation, which was mainly due to the fgeature of our counter type signal processor. Details of this problem can be founf in the DISA manual. Also, it can be seen that

the amplitude of $rms(\tilde{u})$ in the lower layer exceeds 100% of the mean velocity and, therefore, we must conclude that by using the velocity approximation, tanh(z), we may be introducing problems into the analysis. These problems will be evaluated in the next section.

Figures 4.15 to 4.20 summarize the results obtained by the experiments. Each of them combines experimental results with the theoretical and numerical analysis performed in the previous sections and by Nishida & Yoshida (1987). If we consider Figure 4.15, this figure indicates a strong dependence between Reynolds number and the unstable wave number and, since most results are below the line, the experiments show good agreement with the numerical results (unbounded case). Also, it should be noted that SVB waves tend to have larger wave numbers than SVA waves which may be due to the effects of the rigid boundary.

A strong influence of Reynolds number on stability can be seen in Figure 4.16 which illustrates Z_R effects on the stability of the flow. The inviscid analysis performed by several researchers (Hazel et.al. see section 1.3.3.) matches with experiment when Re>250, however, for the smaller Re, the results seem to indicate that viscosity effects should also be considered.

Figure 4.17 presents the relationship between wave number α and phase speed αC_R . Obviously, the numerical analysis underestimates the phase velocity of SVB waves even though the solid line is for the $Z_R=3.0$ case. This type of mismatch of phase velocity of SVB waves is common amongst most of the experimental results reported (Yoshida & Kashiwada 1988 and Hino & Hung 1982). Although several explanations (including non-linear effects) have been given for this problem, none of them have been verified.

Figure 4.18 illustrates the stability boundaries on the α -Ri plane. It is easily seen that the critical Richardson number Rie is about 2.0, which is slightly larger than that predicted by both the unbounded and bounded cases. This is also commonly found in experiments: it has been suggested that the intermittency of wave generation is related to this overestimation. Two other observations that can be made from this diagram are as follows. First, the numerical analysis gives reasonable agreement for SVA waves in terms of the most unstable modes. Second, SVB waves appear to be much shorter (i.e. larger wave number) than predicted values: again, several explanations exist and will be discussed later.

The critical Richardson number Rie and its Z_R dependence are shown in Figure 4.19. As in Figure 4.18, there is an indication of slight overestimation on Rie and, therefore, some of these points, which have extremely large Richardson numbers, may result from same mechanism. However, except for these points, experiments show relatively good matching with numerical analysis and the existence of a cut-off value for Z_R can be seen clearly.

Figure 4.20 shows the relationship between Re and Ri. Agreement is good except for several SVA waves which are the same outlines as in previous figures.

The experiments have revealed some of the basic mechanisms relevant to the interfacial wave phenomena in terms of the hydrodynamic stability. Yet, a few problems still remain, such as the underestimation of the critical Richardson number Ric and the SVB wave phase velocity. In the next section, these questions will be discussed from the point of view of velocity approximation problems.





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(a)



(b)

Figure 4.10 SVA waves in the flume (quasi-equilibrium region)


Figure 4.11. Definitions of the characteristic length and velocity scale



Figure 4.12. Non-dimensionalized velocity profiles



Figure 4.12. Conductivity profile as output voltage. (at 80cm from river mouth and 2.0cm from left wall)

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Figure 4.20. Re-Ri relationship

4.4 DISCUSSION

The previous section indicates that the hydrodynamic stability analysis explains the interfacial wave phenomena very well. However, several problems also arise, examples of which are the velocity approximation, the critical Richardson number and the phase velocity. In this section some explanations will be given from the velocity approximation point of view.

As was mentioned in Part One, it was believed that the mean velocity profiles fit a tanh(z) function reasonably well and that the inflection point (i.e. the center of the shear layer) always matches the location of the density interface. This is true if a width averaged, center line velocity is considered. However, the actual flow structure is far more complicated and this idea of width averaging may not be appropriate for all the cases. Therefore, the velocity approximation should be re-considered in order to evaluate the flow stability correctly.

In section 4.3, the velocity profile was approximated by the tanh(z) function on the basis of the following assumptions: (1) The inflection points of the velocity profile (i.e.z=0) occur at the density interface except in the flow region near the mouth region. (2) The velocity gradient is of greater importance to a stability evaluation than the maximum-minimum values of velocity. Figure 4.12 and Table 4.2 were obtained using these assumptions and they provide the most important criteria for flow parameter determination. However, if we relax these conditions and let the interface displacement d be non-zero, a better approximation can be obtained as shown in Figure 4.21. Table 4.3 contains re-calculated parameters based on this new approximation: it can be seen that most of values are identical to Table 4.2 except for d.

As was found in the numerical analysis and Lawrence's results, the displacement d has strong effects on the flow stability, particularly on the wave number and phase velocity. In order to evaluate the influence of d, the Richardson number Ri and wave number α were plotted against d as in Figure 4.22. This figure indicates that the unstable modes tend to have larger Richardson numbers and wave numbers as d increases. This is very reasonable in terms of the critical Richardson number, since the prediction of model IV showed Ric=2.2 at d=0.5 (Ric=1.5 for d=0.0 case). On the other hand, model IV showed that the unstable wave numbers tend to be unchanged or slightly smaller than the d=0 cases; a result which is completely different from the behavior of SVB waves in Figure 4.22.

These experimental results seem to support Lawrence's inviscid analysis. SVA waves showed relatively good agreement with the viscous model and any differences may be explained as follows: (1) SVA waves showed larger critical Richardson numbers mainly due to the displacement effects predicted by model IV; (2) SVB waves tend to have larger wave

numbers than were predicted by the viscous models (III and IV). However, it may be reasonable to say that the viscosity effects are relatively small since the lower layer thickness Z₃ was large for these cases. Thus, the inviscid model does a better job of prediction (see also Figure 4.23). (3) Another possible explanation for these phenomena is that the non-slip boundary conditions (model II) make the SVB wave number larger as UW (relative velocity of the rigid boundary to the mean flow) increases. This also seems reasonable since model II is inviscid.

It should also be mentioned that the critical Richardson number observed in most of the previous experimental works tends to be large since the wave phenomenon is intermittent. Also, if the mean velocity profile is employed to examine the stability, the shear stress was likely underestimated and the critical Richardson number overestimated. This suggests that instantaneous velocity profile measurements must be employed to improve the accuracy of the prediction, although our experiments did reveal the details of the mechanism of the interfacial wave phenomena very well.

Figure 4.24 shows the relationship between the density difference $\Delta \rho$ and the characteristic length and velocity scales. It is interesting that the length scale L is almost independent of $\Delta \rho$ variation, while the velocity scale V is significantly influenced by $\Delta \rho$. The variation of V also shows that V cannot be large enough to maintain their small Richardson number for unstable waves as $\Delta \rho$ increases. On the

other hand, smaller values of $\Delta \rho$ allow a certain amount of variation in V and therefore, most of the unstable situations were observed in the 0< $\Delta \rho$ <0.015 region. This fact suggests that it is very difficult to obtain an instability in experimental channels with a high density difference such as provided by sea water ($\Delta \rho$ =0.029-0.033).

The phase velocity mismatch of SVB waves is another problem. However, there is no clear explanation for this problem mainly due to the lack of appropriate analysis. It can be seen (based on models I, III) that the SVB waves have a slightly larger phase velocity in the smaller wave number region if a rigid boundary is present than in the unbounded case and this may be one of the reasons. The possibility of non-linear effects on these waves has been examined by Yoshida & Kashiwada (1988), but this analysis did not improve the situation either. This is certainly a problem to be solved in the future.



Figure 4.21. Non-dimensionalized velocity profile (with non-zero d approximation)

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Figure 4.22. Displacement effects on the Richardson number Ri and wave number $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$



Figure 4.23. Displacement d and the lower layer thickness ZR



Figure 4.24. Density difference v.s. Characteristic length and veropity scales

4.5 CONCLUSION

In this section, experiments involving the salt wedge type of two layer stratified flow have been discussed. The measurements (from LDA, wave detector, conductivity metur and vibualization techniques) investigated the wave phenomenu on this type of flow. As the measured mean and fluctuation velocity profiles showed very good agreement with theoretical prediction, this proved that these wave phenomena are strongly associated with the shear instability mechanism. The other flow parameters (the Reynolds number, the Richardson number, wave number and phase velocity) supported this idea by showing very good agreement with analysis. However, a few problems were found related to the critical value of the Richardson number and phase velocity of SVB waves. These are partially caused by problems of the velocity approximation with a tanh(z) function and to intermittency of the wave phenomena. Also, it was suggested that strong non-linear effects on the phase velocity may affect the measurements. This problem needs further investigation by both theoretical and experimental analysis.

PART FIVE: GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

5.1 CONCLUSIONS

In this study, present knowledge was reviewed with the objective of clarifying relatively weak points in our understanding of instability phenomena on salt wedge flow. The following problems were addressed:

Problem (i): Separation of two Holmboe modes (i.e. SVA and SVB) were observed and this phenomena is called 'onesidedness'. Present knowledge of stability may explain some stabilizing effects of the rigid boundary conditions, but does not explain the separation of the solutions.

Problem (ii): Previous experiments show that a salt wedge can be divided into three sub-divisions based on their stress distributions. In each region, velocity profiles can be approximated very well by a tanh(z) function, although the inflection points are often displaced with respect to the density interface. These displacements cause some problems when applying existing hydrodynamic stability theories to the salt wedge.

Problem (iii): Due to the secondary flow structures in channels, high and low speed regions develop which may cause three-dimensional interfacial wave structures. However, few experimental data are available in the case of salt wedge flow, making it difficult to determine the implications of this phenomena.

These problems were investigated by developing appropriate numerical models and through verification of these models with experimental data.

For the problem (i), three models were examined to evaluate the rigid boundary effects on the subbility of salt wedge flow. The features of these models can be summarized as follows:

- Model I: Inviscid, piece-wise linear velocity profile flow to evaluate the effects of the rigid boundary.
- Model II: Same as model I, but provides for the back flow effects in the lower layer by changing the rigid boundary velocity Uw.
- Model III: Viscous, tanh(z) velocity profile flow. Designed to evaluate rigid boundary effects on stability.

The results are:

- Model I: Generally SVB waves are stabilized as the lower thickness Z_R decreases, while SVA waves are not affected as strongly. The unstable wave numbers for SVB waves tends to have smaller values as Z_R decreases, which is opposite to intuition.
- Model II: It was found that the SVB wave length gets shorter as Z_R decreases when the velocity of the rigid boundary Uw is Uw>-1.0. It was also found that SVA waves have additional unstable modes in the extremely small wave number region when the value of Uw exceeds 0.0. These modes, however, have a very small growth rate and are not expected to be able to appear in the flow.

Both models I and II showed some problems when 24 west smaller than 1.0, since the piece-wise linear velocity profile tails to satisfy one of the necessary conditions for instability. Model III: In this model the damping and stabilizing effects

of viscosity on high Richardson number flow was observed. It was also found that the viscosity destabilized the low wave number region, as was illustrated by the additional unstable modes. This model also shows that SVB waves are strongly influenced by the reduction in Z_R , but neutral boundaries and the most unstable modes behave in a slightly different way when compared to the inviscid solutions. The most unstable modes appear around α =0.8 Ri=0.4 and do not move with the variation of Z_R . These models (I, II and III) imply a sensitivity of SVB wave stability on the lower layer thickness Z_R and velocity profile Uo. By contrast, SVA waves are only slightly influenced by $Z_{\rm P}$ and Uo; a result very similar to the inviscid cas- and may suggest an independence of SVA waves from the lower layer flow.

These numerical results indicate that viscosity and a continuous velocity profile have a significant influence upon the flow stability. In order to verify these results, the experiments including the measurements (from LDA, wave detector, conductivity meter and flow visualization technique) were performed. As the measured mean and fluctuation velocity profiles showed very good agreement with

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the numerical results, this proved that wave phenomena on the balt wedge are strongly associated with the shear instability rechanism. Other flow parameters (the Reynolds number, the Fichardson number, wave number and phase velocity) supported this idea by showing very good agreement with analysis. It also found, however, that there were a few problems related to the critical value of the Richardson number and the phase velocity of SVB waves. These are partially caused by approximating the velocity profile with a tanh(z) function and problem associated with intermittency of the wave phenomena. Also, it was suggested that strong non-linear effects on the phase velocity may affect the measurements. This problem needs further investigation by both theoretical and experimental analysis.

For the problem (ii), the displacement of inflection point upon the stability of salt wedge flows were evaluated by numerical model IV, which is: Viscous, tanh(z) velocity profile and unbounded flow with the inflection point displacement. The results were summarized as: Model IV: This model showed that only one Holmboe mode (SVB)

can exist in an open channel. Although the model did not cover the entire range of parameter variation (especially the displacement d), the results imply mechanisms for the instability that are quite reasonable (in particular, the larger critical Richardson number). This model also showed that the additional unstable modes obtained by Lawrance et al. are stabilized by

viscosity.

The experiments verified significant effects of the inflection point displacement on the waves, particularly 'one-sidedness' phenomenon.

For the problem (iii), careful and precise experiments were performed. By combining the results with the problem (i) and (ii), they showed even more details of flow and wave structures on salt wedge than previous knowledge. The results from these experiments also support the assumption that localization and three-dimensional structures of interfacial waves are strongly related to the channel configuration and three-dimensional flow structures. This fact implies that better prediction of wave phenomena on a salt wedge requires precise details of the flow as opposed to just width averaged or centerline velocity and density profiles.

Therefore, the stability problem of a salt wedge needs further investigation in which precise measurements are taken. These should include the instantaneous velocity profiles and secondary flow structures in the channel.

1.1.1

5.2 DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTIONS

As was mentioned before, the three-dimensional structure of interfacial waves is another commonly observed problem associated with salt wedges. Because of the consequence of Equire's theorem, we have always assumed a priori that an initially one-dimensional flow will pass through a distinct two-dimensional state before becoming dependent on the third spatial coordinate (lateral direction). Thus, these threedimensional wave structures are considered to be the secondary instabilities produced after full development of primary two-dimensional instabilities. However, the salt wedge flow usually does not have the strong non-linearity required, by theory, to induce secondary instabilities and it is this fact that has guided this study in the investigation of three-dimensional flow structure as opposed to focusing on a non-linear treatment of these interfacial waves.

Recently, it was found that the fastest growing threedimensional primary instability possibly exists when there is increasing viscosity or stratification of the flow. Smyth & Peltier (1990) investigated the stability of stratified, dissipative flows and found these three-dimensional primary instabilities in the Holmboe modes. Although the calculation is performed under quite a limited range of parameters, their results answer some of the questions concerning the stability analysis of stratified flows. For example, the maximum growth rate of Holmboe modes is always obtained bround

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Figure 5.1 Adopted stability diagram of primary three-dimensional instability from Smyth & Peltier (1990). (R=3.0, Pr=9.0 case)

Fige0.4. Although this is intuitively somewhat suspicious, a possible explanation is that the flow tends to be more unstable due to the three-dimensional perturbations when Fige0.4.

Figure 5.1 illustrates some of the results obtained by Smyth & Peltier, and shows that when Re=100 (which was the cape for models III and IV) three-dimensional instabilities Can become the most unstable modes. Although their model employs a relatively large density transition thickness compared to the two layer model, the results indicate the necessity for further theoretical investigation to explore the possibility of three-dimensional primary instability. At the present time, we do not have enough evidence to verify the existence of three-dimensional primary instability, and further experimental and theoretical investigation is expected.

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APPENDIX A: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN REYNOLDS STRESS AND PHASE CHANGE OF PERTURBATION VELOCITY \widetilde{w} .

in section 2.3, it was seen that the phase change of perturbation velocity \tilde{w} (i.e. $d\theta/dz$) is strongly related to the flow stability. In fact, the phase change $d\theta/dz$ represents the direction of the energy transfer between the mean flow and turbulence which is the same as Reynolds stress. In this appendix, it will be proven that $d\theta/dz$ and Reynolds stress are identical in the piece-wise linear velocity profile cases.

Let us consider the phase change of the perturbation velocity \widetilde{w} , which is

$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{\widetilde{w_{I}}}{\widetilde{w_{R}}} = \tan^{-1} \frac{\widetilde{w_{I}}}{\widetilde{w_{R}}}, \qquad (A.1)$$

where

$$\widetilde{w} = \widetilde{w_R} + i\widetilde{w_I}$$
 and $\widehat{w} = \widehat{w_R} + i\widehat{w_I}$.

Since the piece-wise linear velocity profile was employed in section 2, it can be seen that only |z| < 1.0 region contributes to the energy supply for the turbulence (see Figures 2. to 2.). Thus, |z| < 1.0 region will be investigated in the following part of this appendix.

The general form of the governing equation for this region may be written as,

$$\widehat{w}$$
 = A exp(αz) + B exp($-\alpha z$), (A.2)

where A and B are complex numbers and may be written as

$$A = A_R + iA_I$$
 and $B = B_R + iB_I$.

From equation (2.2.) the Reynolds stress is

$$\tau = \frac{i}{2\alpha} \exp(2\omega_{z}t) Im \left(\widehat{w} \cdot \frac{d\widehat{w}}{dz}\right) . \tag{A.3}$$

If the flow is unstable for $\alpha > 0.0$ cases, then

$$\tau > 0$$
,

and

 $\exp(2\omega_i t) > 0$.

Therefore, the following relation has to be satisfied.

$$Im\left(\widehat{w}^*\frac{d\widehat{w}}{dz}\right) > 0 \qquad (A.4)$$

Substituting (A.), then

$$Im \left(\widehat{w}^* \frac{d\widehat{w}}{dz}\right)$$

$$= Im \left(\alpha \left(A^* \exp (\alpha z) + B^* \exp (-\alpha z)\right) \left(A \exp (\alpha z) - B \exp (-\alpha z)\right)\right),$$

$$= Im \left(\alpha \left(|A|^2 \exp (2\alpha z) - |B|^2 \exp (-2\alpha z)\right) + \alpha A B^* - \alpha A^* B\right),$$

$$= Im \left(\alpha (A B^*) - \alpha (A B^*)^*\right),$$

$$= Im \left(2i\alpha Im (A B^*)\right),$$

$$= 2\alpha Im (A B^*),$$

$$> 0. \qquad (A.5)$$
Therefore, the condition for instability becomes
$$Im (A B^*) > 0. \qquad (A.6)$$

However, from (A.), we know

 $A = A_R + iA_I$ and $B^* = B_R - iB_I$,

then (.)

$$Im (AB') = A_1B_R - A_FB_1 > 0 \qquad (A.7)$$

Thus the condition may be written as $A_1B_R > A_RB_1$. (A.8)

Analysis of the perturbation quantity profiles showed that if $d\theta/dz>0$ was satisfied, then Ci>0 was found. It implies that some relationship between $d\theta/dz$ and Reynolds stress τ exists. Let us consider the condition for $d\theta/dz$ in the followings. From (A.1),

$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{\widehat{w_{:}}}{\widehat{w_{R}}}$$

then

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\theta}{\mathrm{d}z} = \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{\widehat{w}_{\mathrm{I}}}{\widehat{w}_{\mathrm{R}}}\right)^2} \cdot \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}z} \left(\frac{\widehat{w}_{\mathrm{I}}}{\widehat{w}_{\mathrm{R}}}\right)$$

 $= \frac{\widehat{w_{R}}}{\frac{d\widehat{w_{I}}}{dz}} - \widehat{w_{I}} \frac{d\widehat{w_{R}}}{dz}}{\frac{d}{dz}} > 0$ (A.9)

,

Thus, the condition may be written as

$$\widehat{w_{R}} \frac{d\widehat{w_{I}}}{dz} > \widehat{w_{I}} \frac{d\widehat{w_{R}}}{dz} , \qquad (A.10)$$

but

$$\hat{w}$$
 = A exp(αz) + B exp($-\alpha z$)

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Then the relationship (A.) may be rewritten as

$$\alpha \left(A_{R} \exp(\alpha z) + B_{R} \exp(-\alpha z) \right) \left(A_{1} \exp(\alpha z) - B_{1} \exp(-\alpha z) \right)$$

$$> \alpha \left(A_{1} \exp(\alpha z) + B_{1} \exp(-\alpha z) \right) \left(A_{R} \exp(\alpha z) - B_{R} \exp(-\alpha z) \right),$$

(A.11)

chen

$$-A_{R}B_{1}+A_{1}B_{R} > -A_{1}B_{R}+A_{R}B_{1}$$
 (A.12)

Therefore

$$A_1 B_R > A_R B_1$$
 (A.13)

This condition is exactly the same expression as (A.8) which implies that t>0 and Ci>0. Hence it may be concluded that

APPENDIX B: COMPUTER PROGRAMS

In this section, the computer programs which were used in part three are presented. Flow charts are attached in front of each program and the symbols utilized in the programs are defined as follows.

<Symbols in the programs>

A	Eigen matrix Aij
C,CR,CI	Complex phase velocity c and its real and
	imaginary part
ENE	Turbulent kinetic energy
ETA, ABSETA, ARGETA	Interfacial displacement η and its
	amplitude and phase
F,DF,D2F,D3F	The stream function ϕ_1 and their
	derivatives
FIN	Solution $\mathbf{\Phi}_{i1}$
FVI	Solution Φ_{12}
GAMMA	Relative density γ
GR	Growth rate of perturbation = α Ci
ND(1), ND(2)	Step intervals of modification of
	solutions
NX(1), NX(2)	Number of integration steps in upper and
	lower layer
RE(1), RE(2)	Reynolds numbers of upper and lower layer
RI	Richardson number

S	Non-dimensional interfacial tension
TAU	Reynolds stress averaged over wave length
UO,ABSUO,ARGUO	Perturbation velocity \widetilde{u} and its amplitude
	and phase
V(1),V(2)	Characteristic velocities for the mean
	<pre>velocity profile (i.e. U₀=V(i)tanh(z))</pre>
V0,ABSV0,ARGVO	Perturbation velocity \widetilde{w} and its amplitude
W, DW, D2W, D3W	Solution vector at $z=0$ and its
	derivatives
ŴŇ	Wave number α
ZR(1), ZR(2)	Upper and lower boundary values of
	integration i.e. $-ZR(2) \leq Z \leq ZR(1)$

These programs are designed to calculate the eigenvalues for the bounded (THIC.FOR) case and the displaced velocity profile case (SHIFT.FOR). They have two modes of calculation. In mode 1, the wave number α is fixed and points are plotted where the determinant $D_R=0$ and $D_I=0$ on C_R-C_1 plane. In mode 2, C_I is fixed and points are plotted on $\alpha-C_P$ plane. The programs "THIC.FOR" and "SHIFT.FOR" are exactly the same except for the velocity profile which is calculated in the complex function "FUNC". Thus, only the flow chart and program for "THIC.FOR" are presented here.



PROGRAM THIC.FORT2 (DOUBLE PRECISION) С IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H, O-Z) COMPLEX*16 C, W, DW, D2W, D3W, A, DET1, DET2 COMMON /BL1/ V, WN, C, RE /BL2/ GAMMA, RI, S /BL5/ ZR, NX, ND, NPLOT /BL40/ WNS, WNE, CRS, CRE, CIS, CIE, ITAG DIMENSION V(2), RE(2), ZR(2), NX(2), ND(2), W(2,2), DW(2,2), D2W(2,2), D3W(2,2), A(4,4),DETR(21,21,21), DETI(21,21,21), ł AWN (21), ACR (21), ACI (21) READ(5,100) WNS, WNE, NWN, CRS, CRE, NCR, L CIS, CIE, NCI, V(1), RE(1), ZR(1), NX(1), ND(1), V(2), RE(2), ZR(2), NX(2), ND(2), GAMMA, RI, S, NN, NPLOT, ITAG NTOTAL = (NWN+1) * (NCR+1) * (NCI+1)IF (ITAG .EQ. 1) GOTO 111 WRITE (6,200) V(1), RE(1), ZR(1), NX(1), ND(1), V(2), RE(2), ZR(2), NX(2), ND(2), ł GAMMA, RI, S, NTOTAL WRITE(6,300) 111 DO 10 N1=1, NWN+1 IF (NWN .EQ. 0) GOTO 1 WN=WNS+(WNE-WNS) *DFLOAT(N1-1)/DFLOAT(NWN) GOTO 2 1 WN=WNS 2 CONTINUE AWN (N1) =WN IF (ITAG .EQ. 1) GOTO 112 WRITE(6,400) 112 DO 10 N2=1, NCR+1 IF (NCR .EQ. 0) GOTO 3 CR=CRS+(CRE-CRS) *DFLOAT(N2-1)/DFLOAT(NCR) GOTO 4 3 CR=CRS **4** CONTINUE ACR(N2) = CRDO 10 N3=1, NCI+1 IF (NCI .EQ. 0) GOTO 5 CI=CIS+(CIE-CIS) *DFLOAT(N3-1)/DFLOAT(NCI) GOTO 6 5 CI=CIS 6 CONTINUE ACI(N3) = CIC=CR+(0.0D0,1.0D0)*CI GR=WN*CI

```
IF (CDABS(C) .EQ. 0.0D0) GOTO 7
     CALL SUB1 (ZR, NX, ND, W, DW, D2W, D3W)
     CALL SUB2(W, DW, D2W, D3W, A)
     CALL SUB3 (A, DET1, ADET1, DET2, ADET2, AGAP, NSTOP)
     IF (ITAG .EQ. 1) GOTO 113
     WRITE(6,500) WN, CR, CI, GR, DET1, ADET1, DET2, ADET2, AGAP,
    !
                   NSTOP
113 GOTO 8
  7 CONTINUE
     IF (ITAG .EQ. 1) GOTO 8
     WRITE(6,600) WN,CR,CI,GR
  8 CONTINUE
     IF (NN .NE. 0 .AND. NN .NE. 1) GOTO 10
    IF (NN .EQ. 1) GOTO 9
    DEIR(N3, N2, N1) = DIMAG((0.0D0, 1.0D0) * DET1)
    DETI(N3, N2, N1) = DIMAG(DET1)
    GOTO 10
  9 CONTINUE
    DETR(N1, N2, N3) = DIMAG((0.0D0, 1.0D0) * DET1)
    DETI(N1, N2, N3) =DIMAG(DET1)
 10 CONTINUE
    IF (NN .NE. 0 .AND. NN .NE. 1) GOTO 30
    IF (NN .EQ. 1) GOTO 20
    CALL ZERO (NN, DETR, DETI, ACI, ACR, AWN, NCI+1, NCR+1, NWN+1)
    GOTO 30
 20 CONTINUE
    CALL ZERO (NN, DETR, DETI, AWN, ACR, ACI, NWN+1, NCR+1, NCI+1)
 30 CONTINUE
100 FORMAT(3(2F10.4, 15/), 2(2F10.4, F5.1, 215/), 3F10.4/, 3I5)
200 FORMAT(1H1//,11X,'U1=',F6.3,'DTANH(Y)',10X,'RE(1)=',
            F6.1,10X,'ZR(1)=',F5.1,5X,'NX(1)=',I4,5X,
   'ND(1)=', I4//, 11X, 'U2=', F6.3, 'DTANH(Y)', 10X,
           'RE(2)=', F6.1, 10X, 'ZR(2)=', F5.1, 5X, 'NX(2)=',
            I4,5X, 'ND(2)=', I4//, 11X, 'GAMMA=', F6.3, 10X, 'RI=',
            F6.2,10X, 'S=', F7.2,10X, 'NTOTAL=', I4//)
300 FORMAT(1H ,8X,'(WN,CR,CI,GR)',11X,
               'NORMALIZED DETERMINANT DET1', 4X, '|DET1|', 5X,
   'ORIGINAL DETERMINANT DET2', 5X, '|DET2|', 4X,
               'ELEMENT GAP', 2X, 'NS'/)
400 FORMAT(1H )
500 FORMAT(1H , '(', F6.3, ', ', F6.3, ', ', F6.3, ', ', F7.4, ')', 3X,
            '(',E11.4,',',E11.4,')',2X,E11.4,3X,'(',E11.4,
   1
            ', ', E11.4, ')', 2X, E11.4, 3X, E9.2, 2X, I2)
600 FORMAT(1H ,'(',F6.3,',',F6.3,',',F6.3,',',F7.4,')',3X,
              1
                                                        * ',3X,
                                            )',2X,'
   1
                           ', 2X, ' *')
               .
   ł
    STOP
    END
```

```
SUBROUTINE SUB1 (ZR, NX, ND, W, DW, D2W, D3W)
 C********
                                                  *********
       IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
                     C, P1, P2, FUNC, F0, G, FVI, FIN,
       COMPLEX*16
                     W, DW, D2W, D3W,
      1
                     COEF1, COEF2, COEF
       COMMON
                  /BL1/ V,WN,C,RE /BL3/ N
       DIMENSION V(2), RE(2), ZR(2), NX(2), ND(2), FO(4), G(4, 13),
      1
                  FVI(4,601),FIN(4,601),
                  W(2,2), DW(2,2), D2W(2,2), D3W(2,2)
      EXTERNAL
                 FUNC
       DO 10 N=1,2
       SIGN = (-1.0D0) * * N
       ZO = -DABS(ZR(N)) * SIGN
       LX = NX(N)
       LD = ND(N)
       H = -ZO/DFLOAT(LX-1)
       P1=SIGN*CDSQRT (WN*WN-2.0D0*V(N)*DTANH(Z0)*(1.0D0-
          DTANH(ZO) * DTANH(ZO)) / (V(N) * DTANH(ZO) - C))
      E
       P2=SIGN*CDSQRT(WN*WN+(0.0D0, 1.0D0)*WN*RE(N)*(V(N))
         *DTANH(20)-C))
      +
       IF (V(N) .EQ. 0.0D0) GOTO 100
С
       FO(1) = CDEXP(P2 \times ZO)
       FO(1) = 0.0D0
С
       FO(2) = P2 \times CDEXP(P2 \times ZO)
       FO(2) = 0.0D0
С
       FO(3) = P2 * P2 * CDEXP(P2 * Z0)
       FO(3) = 0.0D0
С
       FO(4) = P2 * P2 * P2 * CDEXP(P2 * Z0)
       FO(4) = 1.0D0
       CALL CRKGN1 (FUNC, Z0, F0, 4, H, ^, FVI, LX, 4)
       W(N,2) = FVI(1,LX)
       DW(N, 2) = FVI(2, LX)
       D2W(N,2) = FVI(3,LX)
       D3W(N,2) = FVI(4,LX)
С
      FO(1) = CDEXP(P1 \times Z0)
       FO(1) = 0.0D0
С
      FO(2) = P1 \times CDEXP(P1 \times ZO)
      FO(2) = 0.0D0
С
      F0(3)=P1*P1*CDEXP(P1*Z0)
      FO(3) = 1.0D0
С
      FO(4) = P1 * P1 * P1 * CDEXP(P1 * Z0)
      FO(4) = 0.0D0
      MX = LD + 1
      IF (MX .GE. LX) GOTO 30
      DO 20 I=LD+1, LX-1, LD
      M=I
      CALL CRKGN1 (FUNC, Z0, F0, 4, H, G, FIN, MX, 4)
```

```
P1=SIGN*CDSQRT(WN*WN-2.0D0*V(N)*DTANH(Z0)*(1.0D0-
   DTANH(ZO) * DTANH(ZO)) / (V(N) * DTANH(ZO) - C))
P2=SIGN*CDSQRT(WN*WN+(0.0D0, 1.0D0)*WN*RE(N)*(V(N))
COEF1=FIN(4,MX)+P2*FIN(3,MX)-P1*P1*FIN(2,MX)-P1*P1*P2*
COEF1 = FIN(1, MX) * DCONJG(FVI(1, M)) + FIN(2, MX)
```

```
*DCONJG(FVI(2,M))+FIN(3,MX)*DCONJG(FVI(3,M))
      1
             +FIN(4,MX)*DCONJG(FVI(4,M))
      С
       COEF2=FVI(4, M)+P2*FVI(3, M)-P1*P1*FVI(2, M)-P1*P1*P2*
С
                FVI(1, M)
      1
       COEF2 = FVI(1, M) * DCONJG(FVI(1, M)) + FVI(2, M)
             *DCONJG(FVI(2, M))+FVI(3, M)*DCONJG(FVI(3, M))
      +FVI(4, M) \star DCONJG(FVI(4, M))
      L
       COEF=COEF1/COEF2
       FO(1) = FIN(1, MX) - COEF * FVI(1, M)
       FO(2) = FIN(2, MX) - COEF * FVI(2, M)
       FO(3) = FIN(3, MX) - COEF * FVI(3, M)
       FO(4) = FIN(4, MX) - COEF * FVI(4, M)
   20 CONTINUE
      MX = LX - M + 1
      GOTO 40
   30 MX = LX
   40 CALL CRKGN1 (FUNC, Z0, F0, 4, H, G, FIN, MX, 4)
      W(N, 1) = FIN(1, MX)
      DW(N, 1) = FIN(2, MX)
      D2W(N, 1) = FIN(3, MX)
      D3W(N, 1) = FIN(4, MX)
      GOTO 10
  100 W(N, 2) = 1.000
      DW(N,2) = P2
      D2W(N, 2) = P2 * P2
      D3W(N, 2) = P2 * P2 * P2
      W(N, 1) = 1.0D0
      DW(N,1) = P1
      D2W(N, 1) = P1 * P1
      D3W(N, 1) = P1 * P1 * P1
   10 CONTINUE
```

```
RETURN
END
```

```
COMPLEX FUNCTION FUNC(K,Z,F)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H, O-Z)
```

```
COMPLEX*16 C,F
```

ZO=ZO+DFLOAT(LD) *H

 $\star DTANH(ZO) - C))$

FIN(1, MX)

1

1

С

С

```
COMMON
                /BL1/ V,WN,C,RE /BL3/ N
      DIMENSION F(4), V(2), RE(2)
      GOTO (1,2,3,4),K
    1 FUNC=F(2)
      GOTO 10
    2 FUNC=F(3)
      GOTO 10
    3 FUNC=F(4)
      GOTO 10
    4 FUNC=(2.0D0*WN*WN+(0.0D0,1.0D0)*WN*RE(N)
           * (V(N) *DTANH(Z) -C)) *F(3) - (WN **4+(0.0D0, 1.0D0)
          *WN*RE(N)*(WN*WN*(V(N)*DTANH(Z)-C)-2.0D0*V(N)
          *DTANH(Z) * (1.0D0-DTANH(Z) *DTANH(Z))) *F(1)
     1
   10 RETURN
      END
SUBROUTINE CRKGN1 (FUNC, X0, Y0, N, H, F, Y4, NX, NR)
      N-TH ORDER DIFERENTIALL EQUATION (RUNGE-KUTTA-GILL)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
      COMPLEX*16
                  FUNC, YO, F, Y4
      DIMENSION YO(N), Y4(NR, NX), F(NR, 13)
      IF (N .LE. O .OR. N .GT. NR) GOTO 80
      CR2I=1.0D0-DSQRT(0.5D0)
      DO 10 K=1,N
      F(K, 1) = 0.0D0
      Y4(K, 1) = Y0(K)
   10 F(K, 2) = YO(K)
      I=1
  20 X=X0+(DFLOAT(I-1))*H
      DO 30 K=1,N
      F(K, 3) = H * FUNC(K, X, F(1, 2))
      F(K, 4) = 0.5D0 * F(K, 3) - F(K, 1)
      F(K, 5) = F(K, 2) + F(K, 4)
  30 F(K, 6) = F(K, 1) + 3.0D0 + F(K, 4) - 0.5D0 + F(K, 3)
     DO 40 K=1,N
      F(K, 7) = H * FUNC(K, X+0.5D0 * H, F(1, 5))
      F(K, 4) = CR2I * (F(K, 7) - F(K, 6))
      F(K, 8) = F(K, 5) + F(K, 4)
  40 F(K, 9) = F(K, 6) + 3.0D0 * F(K, 4) - CR2I * F(K, 7)
     DO 50 K=1,N
     F(K,10) = H*FUNC(K, X+0.5D0*H, F(1,8))
     F(K, 4) = (2.0D0 - CR2I) * (F(K, 10) - F(K, 9))
     F(K, 11) = F(K, 8) + F(K, 4)
  50 F(K, 12) = F(K, 9) + 3.0D0 * F(K, 4) - (2.0D0 - CR2I) * F(K, 10)
     DO 60 K=1,N
     F(K, 13) = H * FUNC(K, X+H, F(1, 11))
```

C

. . . .

```
F(K, 4) = (F(K, 13) - 2.0D0 * F(K, 12)) / 6.0D0
       F(K, 2) = F(K, 11) + F(K, 4)
       Y4(K, I+1) = F(K, 2)
    60 F(K, 1) = F(K, 12) + 3.0D0 * F(K, 4) - 0.5D0 * F(K, 13)
       I = I + 1
       IF (NX-I)70,70,20
   80 WRITE(6,100) N,NR
  100 FORMAT('0(SUBR.CRKGN1) N=', I3, ', NR=', I3,
                 ', N SHOULD BE A POSITIVE INTEGER LESS THAN
      ł
               OR EQUAL TO NR. RETURNED WITH NO CALCULATION.'
      ł
               //)
   70 RETURN
      END
SUBROUTINE SUB2(W, DW, D2W, D3W, A)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
      COMPLEX*16
                     C,A10,A20,B11,B21,B10,B20,
                    C12,C22,C10,C20,
     ł
                    D13, D23, D11, D21, D10, D20,
     1
                    A, W, DW, D2W, D3W
     L
      COMMON
                 /BL1/ V,WN,C,RE /BL2/ GAMMA,RI,S
      DIMENSION V(2), RE(2), A(4,4), W(2,2), DW(2,2),
                 D2W(2,2), D3W(2,2)
     1
      A10=1.0D0
      A20=1.0D0
      B11 = -C
      B21=-C
      B10 = -V(1)
      B20 = -V(2)
      C12 = -C * GAMMA * RE(2)
      C22 = -C \times RE(1)
      C10 = -WN * WN * C * GAMMA * RE(2)
      C20 = -WN * WN * C * RE(1)
      D13=-(0.0D0,1.0D0) *C*GAMMA*RE(2)/WN
      D23 = -(0.0D0, 1.0D0) * C * RE(1) / WN
      D11=C*GAMMA*(C*RE(1)*RE(2)+(0.0D0,3.0D0)*WN*RE(2))
      D21=C*(C*RE(1)*RE(2)+(0.0D0,3.0D0)*WN*RE(1))
      D10 = (C*GAMMA*V(1)+RI)*RE(1)*RE(2)
      D20 = (C \times V(2) - WN \times WN \times S) \times RE(1) \times RE(2)
      A(1,1) = A10 * W(1,1)
      A(1,2) = A10 * W(1,2)
      A(1,3) = -A20 \times W(2,1)
      A(1,4) = -A20 * W(2,2)
      A(2,1) = B11 * DW(1,1) + B10 * W(1,1)
      A(2,2) = B11 * DW(1,2) + B10 * W(1,2)
      A(2,3) = -B21 * DW(2,1) - B20 * W(2,1)
      A(2,4) = -B21 * DW(2,2) - B20 * W(2,2)
```

```
A(3,1) = C12 * D2W(1,1) + C10 * W(1,1)
       A(3,2) = C12 * D2W(1,2) + C10 * W(1,2)
       A(3,3) = -C22 * D2W(2,1) - C20 * W(2,1)
       A(3, 4) = -C22 * D2W(2, 2) - C20 * W(2, 2)
       A(4,1)=D13*D3W(1,1)+D11*DW(1,1)+D10*W(1,1)
       A(4,2) = D13 * D3W(1,2) + D11 * DW(1,2) + D10 * W(1,2)
       A(4,3) = -D23*D3W(2,1) - D21*DW(2,1) - D20*W(2,1)
       A(4,4) = -D23*D3W(2,2) - D21*DW(2,2) - D20*W(2,2)
      RETURN
       END
SUBROUTINE SUB3 (A, DET1, ADET1, DET2, ADET2, AGAP, NSTOP)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
      COMPLEX*16
                   A, DET1, DET2, WA, B
      DIMENSION A(4, 4), AMXJ(4), AMXI(4), AMNJ(4), WA(24), WK(4),
      B(4)
      DO 10 J=1,4
      AMXJ(J) = DMAX1(CDABS(A(1, J)), CDABS(A(2, J)))
      CDABS(A(3, J)), CDABS(A(4, J)))
      AMNJ(J) = DMIN1(CDABS(A(1, J)), CDABS(A(2, J)))
               CDABS(A(3, J)), CDABS(A(4, J)))
      DO 20 II=1,4
      A(II, J) = A(II, J) / AMXJ(J)
   20 CONTINUE
   10 CONTINUE
      DO 30 I=1,4
      AMXI(I) = DMAX1(CDABS(A(I,1)), CDABS(A(I,2)))
     1
               CDABS(A(I,3)), CDABS(A(I,4)))
      DO 40 JJ=1,4
      A(I, JJ) = A(I, JJ) / AMXI(I)
   40 CONTINUE
   30 CONTINUE
С
      DO 554 IJ=1,4
С
      B(IJ) = (1.0D0, 0.0D0)
C 554 CONTINUE
С
      IAA=4
С
      IBB=4
С
      NNN=4
С
      IMM=1
С
      IJOBB=1
С
С
      CALL LEQ2C (A, NNN, IAA, B, IMM, IBB, IJOBB, WA, WK, NSTOP)
С
С
      DET1 = (1.0D0, 0.0D0)
С
      DO 555 JI=1,NNN
```

```
С
       IPVT=WK(JI)
С
       IF (IPVT .NE. JI) DET1=-DET1
       INDX=JI+(JI-1) *NNN
CC
       DET1=DET1*WA(INDX)
С
C 555 CONTINUE
       DET1=A(1,1) * (A(2,2) * A(3,3) * A(4,4) + A(2,3) * A(3,4) * A(4,2)
                   +A(2,4) *A(3,2) *A(4,3) -A(2,4) *A(3,3) *A(4,3)
                   -A(2,3) *A(3,2) *A(4,4) -A(2,2) *A(3,4) *A(4,3))
                   -A(2,1) * (A(1,2) * A(3,3) * A(4,4) + A(1,3) * A(3,4))
                   *A(4,2)
                   +A(1,4) *A(3,2) *A(4,3) -A(1,4) *A(3,3) *A(4,2)
                   -A(1,3) *A(3,2) *A(4,4) -A(1,2) *A(3,4) *A(4,3))
                   +A(3,1) * (A(1,2) *A(2,3) *A(4,4) +A(1,3) *A(2,4)
                   *A(4,2)
                   +A(1,4) *A(2,2) *A(4,3) -A(1,4) *A(2,3) *A(4,2)
                   -A(1,3) *A(2,2) *A(4,4) -A(1,2) *A(2,4) *A(4,3))
                   -A(4,1) * (A(1,2) * A(2,3) * A(3,4) + A(1,3) * A(2,4))
                   *A(3,2)
                   +A(1,4) *A(2,2) *A(3,3) -A(1,4) *A(2,3) *A(3,2)
                   -A(1,2) *A(2,4) *A(3,3) -A(1,3) *A(2,2) *A(3,4))
      ADET1=CDABS (DET1)
      DET2=AMXJ(1) *AMXJ(2) *AMXJ(3) *AMXJ(4) *
              AMXI(1) *AMXI(2) *AMXI(3) *AMXI(4) *DET1
     ADET2=CDABS (DET2)
      AMX = DMAX1(AMXJ(1), AMXJ(2), AMXJ(3), AMXJ(4))
      AMN=DMIN1(AMNJ(1), AMNJ(2), AMNJ(3), AMNJ(4))
      AGAP=AMX/AMN
      RETURN
      END
*******
      SUBROUTINE ZERO (NN, FR, FI, X1, X2, X3, M1, M2, M3)
C*****************************
                                                  **********
      IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H, O-Z)
                /BL4/ X10R, X20R, X30R, X10I, X20I, X30I,
      COMMON
     L
                       SGR, SGI, J, K, L, M
      DIMENSION FR(21,21,21), FI(21,21,21), X1(21), X2(21),
     L
                 X3(21),X10R(2,21,450),X20R(2,21,450),
                 X30R(2,21,450),X10I(2,21,450),X20I(2,21,450),
                 X30I(2,21,450),SGR(2,21,450),SGI(2,21,450),
                 J(21), K(21), L(21), M(21)
      DO 10 I1=1,M1
      JJ=0
      KK=0
      LL=0
      MM=0
```

IF (M3 .LE. 1) GOTO 26

```
DO 20 I2=1,M2
    DO 20 I3=1,M3-1
    IF (FR(I1, I2, I3) *FR(I1, I2, I3+1)) 12, 12, 11
 12 JJ=JJ+1
    IF (FR(11,12,13) .NE. 0.0D0 .AND.
           FR(I1, I2, I3+1) .NE. 0.0D0) GOTO 8
   GRD=0.0D0
    X30R(1, I1, JJ) = 0.5D0 * (X3(I3+1) + X3(I3))
    GOTO 9
  8 GRD=(X3(I3+1)-X3(I3))/(FR(I1,I2,I3+1)-FR(I1,I2,I3))
    X3OR(1, I1, JJ) = X3(I3) - GRD + FR(I1, I2, I3)
  9 X10R(1, I1, JJ) = X1(I1)
    X20R(1, I1, JJ) = X2(I2)
    IF(GRD) 13,14,15
13 SGR(1, I1, JJ) =-1.0D0
    GOTO 11
14 SGR(1, I1, JJ)=0.0D0
    GOTO 11
15 SGR(1, I1, JJ)=1.0D0
11 CONTINUE
    IF (FI(I1,I2,I3)*FI(I1,I2,I3+1)) 22,22,21
22 KK=KK+1
    IF (FI(I1, I2, I3) .NE. 0.0D0 .AND.
          FI(I1, I2, I3+1) .NE. 0.0D0) GOTO 18
   GRD=0.0D0
   X30I(1, I1, KK) = 0.5D0*(X3(I3+1)+X3(I3))
   GOTO 19
18 GRD=(X3(I3+1)-X3(I3))/(FI(I1,I2,I3+1)-FI(I1,I2,I3))
   X30I(1, I1, KK) = X3(I3) - GRD*FI(I1, I2, I3)
19 X10I(1, I1, KK) = X1(I1)
   X20I(1, I1, KK) = X2(I2)
   IF (GRD) 23,24,25
23 SGI(1, I1, KK) =-1.0D0
   GOTO 21
24 SGI(1, I1, KK) = 0.0D0
   GOTO 21
25 SGI(1, I1, KK)=1.0D0
21 CONTINUE
20 CONTINUE
26 IF (M2 .LE. 1) GOTO 10
   DO 30 I3=1,M3
   DO 30 I2=1, M2-1
   IF (FR(I1, I2, I3) *FR(I1, I2+1, I3)) 32, 32, 31
32 LL=LL+1
   IF (FR(I1, I2, I3) .NE. 0.0D0 .AND.
          FR(I1, I2+1, I3) .NE. 0.0D0) GOTO 28
  I.
   GRD=0.0D0
   X20R(2, I1, LL) = 0.5D0 * (X2(I2+1) + X2(I2))
   GOTO 29
28 GRD = (X2(I2+1) - X2(I2)) / (FR(I1, I2+1, I3) - FR(I1, I2, I3))
   X20R(2,11,LL)=X. (2)-GRD*FR(11,12,13)
29 X10R(2,I1,LL)=X1(I1)
```

```
X3OR(2, I1, LL) = X3(I3)
      IF (GRD) 33,34,35
   33 SGR (2, I1, LL) = -1.0D0
      GOTO 31
   34 SGR(2, I1, LL)=0.0D0
      GOTO 31
   35 \text{ SGR}(2, I1, LL) = 1.0D0
   31 CONTINUE
      IF (FI(I1, I2, I?) *FI(I1, I2+1, I3)) 42, 42, 41
   42 MM=MM+1
      IF (FI(11,12,13) .NE. 0.0D0 .AND.
            FI(I1, I2+1, I3) .NE. 0.0D0) GOTO 38
     GRD=0.0D0
      X20I(2, I1, MM) = 0.5D0 * (X2(I2+1) + X2(I2))
      GOTO 39
   38 GRD=(X2(I2+1)-X2(I2))/(FI(I1,I2+1,I3)-FI(I1,I2,I3))
      X20I(2, I1, MM) = X2(I2) - GRD + FI(I1, I2, I3)
   39 X10I(2,I1,MM)=X1(I1)
      X30I(2, I1, MM) = X3(I3)
      IF (GRD) 43,44,45
   43 SGI(2, I1, MM) =-1.0D0
      GOTO 41
   44 SGI(2, I1, MM) = 0.0D0
      GOTO 41
   45 SGI(2, I1, MM)=1.0D0
   41 CONTINUE
   30 CONTINUE
      J(I1) = JJ
      K(I1) = KK
      L(I1) = LL
      M(II) = MM
   10 CONTINUE
      CALL WRITE (NN, M1)
      RETURN
      END
SUBROUTINE WRITE (NN, M1)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
      COMPLEX*16 C
     COMMON
               /BL4/ X10R, X20R, X30R, X10I, X20I, X30I,
     T
                      SGR, SGI, J, K, L, M
                /BL40/ WNS, WNE, CRS, CRE, CIS, CIE, ITAG
     /BL1/ V, WN, C, RE /BL2/ GAMMA, RI, S
     1
               /BL5/ ZR, NX, ND, NPLOT
     1
```

.

DIMENSION X10R(2,21,450), X20R(2,21,450), X30R(2,21,450), X10I(2,21,450), X20I(2,21,450), X30I(2,21,450), SGR(2,21,450),SGI(2,21,450),RE(2), J(21), K(21), L(21), M(21), ZR(2), NX(2), ND(2) IF (ITAG .EQ. 1) GOTO 135 DO 50 JJ=1,M1 WRITE(6,100) DO 60 II=1,2 GOTO (61,62),II IF (JL .EQ. 0) GOTO 64 IF (NN .EQ. 1) GOTO 65 WRITE(6,200) (X30R(II,JJ,KK),X20R(II,JJ,KK), X10R(II, JJ, KK), SGR(II, JJ, KK), KK=1, JL)65 WRITE(6,200) (X10R(II,JJ,KK),X20R(II,JJ,KK), X30R(II, JJ, KK), SGR(II, JJ, KK), KK=1, JL)64 WRITE(6,300) 66 WRITE(6,400)

WRITE(6,500) DO 80 II=1,2 GOTO (81,82),II 81 KM=K(JJ)

- GOTO 83
- 82 KM=M(JJ) 83 CONTINUE

1

1

1

61 JL=J(JJ)GOTO 63 62 JL=L(JJ) 63 CONTINUE

GOTO 66

GOTO 66

60 CONTINUE

- IF (KM .EQ. 0) GOTO 84
- IF (NN .EQ. 1) GOTO 85 WRITE(6,200) (X30I(II,JJ,KK),X20I(II,JJ,KK), X10I(II, JJ, KK), SGI(II, JJ, KK), KK=1, KM) 1 GOTO 86
- 85 WRITE(6,200) (X10I(II,JJ,KK),X20I(II,JJ,KK), X301(II, JJ, KK), SGI(II, JJ, KK), KK=1, KM) GOTO 86
- 84 WRITE(6,300) 86 WRITE(6,400)
- 80 CONTINUE

```
50 CONTINUE
```

135 IF (ITAG .EQ. 0) GOTO 111

DO 150 JJ=1,M1

```
WRITE(6,101)
      IF (NN .EQ. 1) GOTO 112
      WRITE(6,103)
      WRITE(6,104) WNS, WNE, CRS, CRE
      WRITE(6,105) ZR(2), RE(1), RI, CIS
      WRITE(6,107)
      GOTO 113
  112 WRITE(6,102)
      WRITE(6,104) CIS,CIE,CRS,CRE
      WRITE(6,106) ZR(2), RE(1), RI, WNS
      WRITE(6,107)
  113 DO 160 II=1,2
      GOTO (161,162),II
  161 JL=J(JJ)
      GOTO 163
  162 JL=L(JJ)
  163 CONTINUE
      IF (JL .EQ. 0) GOTO 160
      IF (NN .EQ. 1) GOTO 165
      WRITE(6,201) (X30R(II,JJ,KK),X20R(II,JJ,KK),
                   KK=1, JL)
     1
      GOTO 160
  165 WRITE(6,201) (X30R(II,JJ,KK),X20R(II,JJ,KK),
                   KK=1, JL)
     1
  160 CONTINUE
      WRITE(6,501)
      DO 180 II=1,2
      GOTO (181,182),II
  181 KM=K(JJ)
      GOTO 183
  182 KM=M(JJ)
  183 CONTINUE
      IF (KM .EQ. 0) GOTO 180
      IF (NN .EQ. 1) GOTO 185
      WRITE(6,201) (X30I(II,JJ,KK),X20I(II,JJ,KK),
     Ł
                   KK=1, KM
     GOTO 180
  185 WRITE(6,201) (X30I(II,JJ,KK),X20I(II,JJ,KK),
                   KK=1, KM
     180 CONTINUE
  150 CONTINUE
      WRITE(6,601)
100 FORMAT(1H ///,10X,'ZERO-POINT OF REAL PART OF
            DETERMINANT DET1'//,1H ,20X,'( WN
                                                   CR ,
                                                          CI
     ,
            )',5X,'SIGN OF GRADINT',/)
     200 FORMAT(1H ,21X,F6.3,1X,F6.3,1X,F6.3,14X,F4.1)
  300 FORMAT(1H , 25X, 'NO ZERO-POINT')
  400 FORMAT(1H )
 500 FORMAT (1H //, 10X, 'ZERO-POINT OF IMAGINARY PART OF
            DETERMINANT DET1'//,1H ,20X,'( WN , CR , CI
```

1)',5X,'SIGN OF GRADIENT',/) 101 FORMAT(6X, 'GEN A PLOT.', /, 6X, 'LEGEND OFF.',/,6X, 'X PAGE IS 11.',/,6X,'Y PAGE IS 8.5.') 102 FORMAT(6X, 'X LABEL IS "CI".',/,6X, 'Y LABEL IS "CR".') 103 FORMAT(6X, 'X LABEL IS "WN". ', /, 6X, 'Y LABEL IS "CR". ') 104 FORMAT(6X, 'X LENGTH=9.0, AXIS ORIGIN 1.0.',/,6X, 'Y LENGTH=6.5, AXIS ORIGIN 1.0.',/,6X, 'X MIN ', F10.4, ', MAX ', F10.4, '.' 1 ,/,6X, 'Y MIN ', F10.4, ', MAX ', F10.4, '.') 105 FORMAT(6X, 'TITLE "WALL EFFECT THICKNESS=', F4.2, ' RE=', F5.1,' RI=',F5.3,' CI=',F5.3,'".') 1 106 FORMAT (6X, 'TITLE "WALL EFFECT THICNESS=', F4.2, ' RE=', F5.1, ' RI=', F5.3, ' WN=', F5.3, '".') 107 FORMAT(6X, 'FRAME.', /, 6X, 'INPUT DATA.', /, 6X, '"REAL PART"') 201 FORMAT(3X,F8.5,',',3X,F8.5) 501 FORMAT(6X, '"IMARGINARY PART"') 601 FORMAT(6X, 'END OF DATA.', /, 6X, 'CURVE 1 SYMBOL COUNT 1, SCATTERED.', /, 6X, 'CURVE 2 SYMBOL COUNT 2, SCATTERED.',/,6X, 'LEGEND UNITS PLOT%.',/,6X, 'LEGEND X ORIGIN 70.',/,6X, 'LEGEND Y ORIGIN 10.',/,6X, 'LEGEND HEIGHT 0.10.',/,6X, 'LEGEND FRAME 1.',/,6X, 'SEND.',/,6X, 'QUIT.') 111 RETURN

. •

END

The program "THIC10.FOR" is designed to calculate the stream function and other perturbation quantities based upon the eigenvalues which are obtained from previous programs. Its flow chart and program are as follows.



STABILITY OF A TWO-LAYER SHEAR FLOW CALCULATION OF EIGENFUNCTION --- <THIC10.FOR2> DOUBLE PRECISION TYPE *********************** IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H, O-Z) COMPLEX*16 C, W, DW, D2W, D3W, A, DET1, DET2, AA, Q, V0, DV0, D2V0, D3V0 COMMON /BL1/ V, WN, C, RE /BL2/ GAMMA, RI, S DIMENSION V(2), RE(2), ZR(2), NX(2), ND(2), Z(2, 601), W(2,2), DW(2,2), D2W(2,2), D3W(2,2), A(4,4),Q(3), V0(2,601),DV0(2,601),D2V0(2,601),D3V0(2,601), ABSV0(2,601), ARGV0(2,601), ABSU0(2,601), ARGU0(2,601), ABSETA(2,601), ARGETA(2,601), TAU(2,601), ENE(2,601) READ(5,100) WN,CR,CI, V(1), RE(1), ZR(1), NX(1), ND(1), V(2), RE(2), ZR(2), NX(2), ND(2), GAMMA, RI, S, RT, ICONT, IVO IF (ICONT .EQ. 1) GOTO 10

WRITE(6,300) 10 C=CR+(0.0D0,1.0D0)*CI GR=WN*CI

IF (CDABS(C) .EQ. 0.0D0) GOTO 1 CALL SUB1 (ZR, NX, ND, Z, W, DW, D2W, D3W)

CALL SUB2 (W, DW, D2W, D3W, A) CALL SUB3 (NX, A, DET1, ADET1, DET2, ADET2, AGAP, NS1, 1 AA, Q, NS2, V0, DV0, D2V0, D3V0) CALL SUB4 (NX, Z, V0, DV0, ABSV0, ARGV0,

ABSUO, ARGUO, ABSETA, ARGETA, TAU, ENE)

IF (ICONT .EQ. 1) GOTO 20 WRITE(6,400) WN, CR, CI, GR, DET1, ADET1, DET2, ADET2, AGAP, NS1 WRITE(6,500) WRITE(6,600) AA,Q(1),Q(2),Q(3),NS2

CALL WRITE (NX, Z, VO, DVO, D2VO, D3VO, ABSVO, ARGVO, Ł ABSUO, ARGUO, ABSETA, ARGETA, TAU, ENE)

20 CALL STFUNC (NX, Z, VO, RT, ICONT, IVO, ZR) CALL VOPLO(Z,NX,VO,IVO)

GOTO 2

С

С

С

 C^{*}

1

1

1 CONTINUE IF (ICONT .EQ. 1) GOTO 2 WRITE(6,700) WN,CR,CI,GR

```
2 CONTINUE
```



```
P1=SIGN*CDSQRT(WN*WN-2.0D0*V(N))
          *DTANH (20) * (1.0D0-DTANH (20) *
       L
              DTANH(ZO)) / (V(N) * DTANH(ZO) - C))
       L
       P2=SIGN*CDSQRT(WN*WN+(0.0D0,1.0D0)
         *WN*RE(N)*(V(N)*DTANH(ZO)-C))
       1
       IF (V(N) .EQ. 0.0D0) GOTO 100
С
       FO(1) = CDEXP(P2 \times ZO)
       FO(1) = 0.0D0
С
       FO(2) = P2 * CDEXP(P2 * Z0)
       F0(2) = 0.0D0
С
       FO(3) = P2 * P2 * CDEXP(P2 * ZO)
       FO(3) = 0.0D0
С
       FO(4) = P2 * P2 * P2 * CDEXP(P2 * Z0)
       FO(4) = 1.0D0
       CALL CRKGN1 (FUNC, Z0, F0, 4, H, G, FVI, LX, 4)
       DO 200 J1=1,LX
       F(N, 2, J1) = FVI(1, J1)
       DF(N, 2, J1) = FVI(2, J1)
       D2F(N, 2, J1) = FVI(3, J1)
       D3F(N, 2, J1) = FVI(4, J1)
       COEF(N, J1) = 0.0D0
  200 CONTINUE
       W(N,2) = FVI(1,LX)
       DW(N, 2) = FVI(2, LX)
       D2W(N, 2) = FVI(3, LX)
       DW(N, 2) = FVI(4, LX)
С
       FO(1) = CDEXP(P1 \times ZO)
       F0(1) = 0.0D0
С
       F0(2)=P1*CDEXP(P1*Z0)
       F0(2) = 0.0D0
С
       FO(3) = P1 * P1 * CDEXP(P1 * ZO)
       FO(3) = 1.0D0
С
       FO(4) = P1 * P1 * P1 * CDEXP(P1 * Z0)
       FO(4) = 0.0D0
       MX = LD + 1
       M=1
       IF (MX .GE. LX) GOTO 30
       DO 20 I=LD+1, LX-1, LD
       M=I
       CALL CRKGN1 (FUNC, Z0, F0, 4, H, G, FIN, MX, 4)
       K1 = 1
       DO 300 J2=M-LD, M
       F(N, 1, J2) = FIN(1, K1)
       DF(N, 1, J2) = FIN(2, K1)
       D2F(N, 1, J2) = FIN(3, K1)
       D3F(N, 1, J2) = FIN(4, K1)
       K1 = K1 + 1
  300 CONTINUE
       ZO=ZO+DFLOAT(LD) *H
      P1=SIGN*CDSQRT (WN*WN
         -2.0D0*V(N)*DTANH(Z0)*(1.0D0-DTANH(Z0)*
      1
             DTANH(ZO)) / (V(N) * DTANH(ZO) - C))
      P2=SIGN*CDSQRT(WN*WN+(0.0D0,1.0D0))
```

```
*WN*RE(N)*(V(N)*DTANH(ZO)-C))
      1
       COEF1=FIN(4,MX)+P2*FIN(3,MX)-P1*P1*FIN(2,MX)-P1*P1*P2*
С
С
                FIN(1, MX)
      1
       COEF1=FIN(1,MX) *DCONJG(FVI(1,M))+FIN(2,MX)
             *DCONJG(FVI(2,M))+FIN(3,MX)*DCONJG(FVI(3,M))
      1
             +FIN(4,MX)*DCONJG(FVI(4,M))
       COEF2=FVI(1, M) *DCONJG(FVI(1,M))+FVI(2, M)
             *DCONJG(FVI(2,M))+FVI(3, M)*DCONJG(FVI(3,M))
      1
             +FVI(4, M) *DCONJG(FVI(4, M))
      COEF2=FVI(4, M)+P2*FVI(3, M)-P1*P1*FVI(2, M)-P1*P1*P2*
C
С
                FVI(1, M)
      1
       COEF(N, M) = COEF1/COEF2
      FO(1) = FIN(1, MX) - COEF(N, M) * FVI(1, M)
      FO(2) = FIN(2, MX) - COEF(N, M) * FVI(2, M)
      F0(3)=FIN(3, MX)-COEF(N, M)*FVI(3, M)
      FO(4) = FIN(4, MX) - COEF(N, M) * FVI(4, M)
   20 CONTINUE
      MX=LX-M+1
      GOTO 40
   30 MX = LX
   40 CALL CRKGN1 (FUNC, Z0, F0, 4, H, G, FIN, MX, 4)
      K2=1
      DO 400 J3=M, LX
      F(N, 1, J3) = FIN(1, K2)
      DF(N, 1, J3) = FIN(2, K2)
      D2F(N, 1, J3) = FIN(3, K2)
      D3F(N, 1, J3) = FIN(4, K2)
      K2 = K2 + 1
  400 CONTINUE
      W(N, 1) = FIN(1, MX)
      DW(N, 1) = FIN(2, MX)
      D2W(N, 1) = FIN(3, MX)
      D3W(N, 1) = FIN(4, MX)
      GOTO 10
  100 CONTINUE
      DO 500 J4=1,LX
      F(N, 2, J4) = CDEXP(P2 \times Z(N, J4))
      DF(N, 2, J4) = P2 * CDEXP(P2 * Z(N, J4))
      D2F(N, 2, J4) = P2*P2*CDEXP(P2*Z(N, J4))
      D3F(N, 2, J4) = P2*P2*P2*CDEXP(P2*Z(N, J4))
      F(N, 1, J4) = CDEXP(P1 * Z(N, J4))
      DF(N, 1, J4) = P1 * CDEXP(P1 * Z(N, J4))
      D2F(N, 1, J4) = P1 * P1 * CDEXP(P1 * Z(N, J4))
      D3F(N,1,J4)=P1*P1*P1*CDEXP(P1*Z(N,J4))
      COEF(N, J4) = 0.0D0
  500 CONTINUE
      W(N, 2) = F(N, 2, LX)
      DW(M, 2) = DF(N, 2, LX)
      D2W(N, 2) = D2F(N, 2, LX)
      D3W(N, 2) = D3F(N, 2, LX)
      W(N, 1) = F(N, 1, LX)
      DW(N, 1) = DF(N, 1, LX)
      D2W(N, 1) = D2F(N, 1, LX)
```

```
D3W(N, 1) = D3F(N, 1, LX)
   10 CONTINUE
     RETURN
     END
COMPLEX FUNCTION FUNC(K, Z, F)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
     COMPLEX*16 C,F
     COMMON /BL1/ V, WN, C, RE /BL3/ N
     DIMENSION F(4), V(2), RE(2)
     GOTO (1,2,3,4),K
   1 FUNC=F(2)
     GOTO 10
   2 FUNC=F(3)
     GOTO 10
   3 FUNC=F(4)
     GOTO 10
   4 FUNC=(2.0D0*WN*WN+(0.0D0,1.0D0)
          *WN*RE(N)*(V(N)*DTANH(Z)-C))*F(3)
    Í.
          - (WN**4+(0.0D0,1.0D0) *WN*RE(N)
    1
          * (WN*WN* (V(N) *DTANH(Z) -C)
          -2.0D0*V(N)*DTANH(Z)
    *(1.0D0-DTANH(Z)*DTANH(Z))))*F(1)
    1
  10 RETURN
     END
*
     SUBROUTINE CRKGN1 (FUNC, X0, Y0, N, H, F, Y4, NX, NR)
С
     N-TH ORDER DIFERENTIALL EQUATION (RUNGE-KUTTA-GILL)
*
     IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H, O-Z)
    COMPLEX*16 FUNC, Y0, F, Y4
    DIMENSION YO(N), Y4(NR, NX), F(NR, 13)
    IF (N .LE. O .OR. N .GT. NR) GOTO 80
    CR2I=1.0D0-DSQRT(0.5D0)
    DO 10 K=1,N
    F(K, 1) = 0.0D0
    Y4(K, 1) = Y0(K)
  10 F(K, 2) = YO(K)
    I=1
  20 X=X0+(DFLOAT(I-1))*H
```

```
DO 30 K=1,N
       F(K, 3) = H * FUNC(K, X, F(1, 2))
       F(K, 4) = 0.5D0 * F(K, 3) - F(K, 1)
       F(K, 5) = F(K, 2) + F(K, 4)
    30 F(K, 6) = F(K, 1) + 3.0D0 * F(K, 4) - 0.5D0 * F(K, 3)
       DO 40 K=1,N
       F(K, 7) = H * FUNC(K, X+0.5D0 * H, F(1, 5))
       F(K, 4) = CR2I * (F(K, 7) - F(K, 6))
       F(K, 8) = F(K, 5) + F(K, 4)
    40 F(K, 9) = F(K, 6) + 3.0D0 * F(K, 4) - CR2I * F(K, 7)
       DO 50 K=1,N
       F(K, 10) = H * FUNC(K, X+0.5D0 * H, F(1, 8))
       F(K, 4) = (2.0D0 - CR2I) * (F(K, 10) - F(K, 9))
       F(K, 11) = F(K, 8) + F(K, 4)
   50 F(K, 12) = F(K, 9) + 3.0D0 + F(K, 4) - (2.0D0 - CR21) + F(K, 10)
       DO 60 K=1,N
       F(K, 13) = H * FUNC(K, X+H, F(1, 11))
       F(K, 4) = (F(K, 13) - 2.0D0 * F(K, 12)) / 6.0D0
       F(K, 2) = F(K, 11) + F(K, 4)
       Y4(K, I+1) = F(K, 2)
   60 F(K, 1) = F(K, 12) + 3.0D0 * F(K, 4) - 0.5D0 * F(K, 13)
       I=I+1
       IF (NX-I) 70, 70, 20
   80 WRITE(6,100) N,NR
  100 FORMAT('0(SUBR.CRKGN1) N=', I3, ', NR=', I3,
                 ', N SHOULD BE A POSITIVE INTEGER LESS THAN
              OR EQUAL TO NR. RETURNED WITH NO CALCULATION. '
              11)
   70 RETURN
      END
SUBROUTINE SUB2 (W, DW, D2W, D3W, A)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
      COMPLEX*16
                     C, A10, A20, B11, B21, B10, B20, C12, C22, C10, C20,
     1
                 D13, D23, D11, D21, D10, D20, A, W, DW, D2W, D3W
      COMMON
                 /BL1/ V,WN,C,RE /BL2/ GAMMA,RI,S
      DIMENSION V(2), RE(2), A(4,4), W(2,2), DW(2,2),
     1
                 D2W(2,2), D3W(2,2)
      A10=1.0D0
      A20=1.0D0
      B11=-C
      B21=-C
      B10 = -V(1)
      B20 = -V(2)
      C12=-C*GAMMA*RE(2)
      C22 = -C \times RE(1)
      C10=-WN*WN*C*GAMMA*RE(2)
      C20 = -WN * WN * C * RE(1)
```

```
D13=-(0.0D0,1.0D0)*C*GAMMA*RE(2)/WN
       D23 = -(0.0D0, 1.0D0) * C * RE(1) / WN
       D11=C*GAMMA*(C*RE(1)*RE(2)+(0.0D0,3.0D0)*WN*RE(2))
       D21=C*(C*RE(1)*RE(2)+(0.0D0,3.0D0)*WN*RE(1))
       D10=(C*GAMM&*V(1)+RI)*RE(1)*RE(2)
       D20 = (C*V(2) - WN*WN*S)*RE(1)*RE(2)
       A(1,1) = A10 * W(1,1)
       A(1,2) = A10 * W(1,2)
       A(1,3) = -A20 \times W(2,1)
       A(1, 4) = -A20 \times W(2, 2)
       A(2,1) = B11 * DW(1,1) + B10 * W(1,1)
       A(2,2) = B11 * DW(1,2) + B10 * W(1,2)
       A(2,3) = -B21 * DW(2,1) - B20 * W(2,1)
       A(2,4) = -B21 * DW(2,2) - B20 * W(2,2)
       A(3,1) = C12 * D2W(1,1) + C10 * W(1,1)
       A(3,2) = C12 * D2W(1,2) + C10 * W(1,2)
       A(3,3) = -C22 * D2W(2,1) - C20 * W(2,1)
       A(3, 4) = -C22 * D2W(2, 2) - C20 * W(2, 2)
       A(4,1)=D13*D3W(1,1)+D11*DW(1,1)+D10*W(1,1)
       A(4,2) = D13 * D3W(1,2) + D11 * DW(1,2) + D10 * W(1,2)
       A(4,3) = -D23 \times D3W(2,1) - D21 \times DW(2,1) - D20 \times W(2,1)
       A(4, 4) = -D23 \times D3W(2, 2) - D21 \times DW(2, 2) - D20 \times W(2, 2)
С
       DO 10 I=1,2
С
       DO 20 J=1,2
С
      WRITE(6,100) I, J, D3W(I, J)
C 100 FORMAT(2X,2(I5,2X),'(',E20.10,',',E20.10,')')
С
   20 CONTINUE
С
   1.0 CONTINUE
      RETURN
      END
SUBROUTINE SUB3 (NX, A, DET1, ADET1, DET2, ADET2, AGAP, NS1,
                        AA, Q, NS2, V0, DV0, D2V0, D3V0)
     *****
      IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
      COMPLEX*16
                     F, DF, D2F, D3F, COEF, A, AA, P, Q, DET1, DET2, WW1,
                     WW2, VMAX, SHIFT, V0, DV0, D2V0, D3V0, A11, A12,
                     A21, A22, BBB, TDET, TP, TQ
      COMMON
                 /BL6/ F, DF, D2F, D3F, COEF
      DIMENSION NX(2), F(2,2,601), DF(2,2,601), D2F(2,2,601),
                 D3F(2,2,601),A(4,4),P(3,3),Q(3),WW1(24),
                 IP1(4), WW2(15), IP2(3), VO(2, 601), DVO(2, 601),
                 D2V0(2,601),D3V0(2,601),AMXJ(4),AMNJ(4),
     1
                 AMXI(4), COEF(2,601), A11(601), A12(601),
                 A21(601), A22(601), BBB(4), TP(3,3), TQ(3)
      AA = (1.0D0, 0.0D0)
      DO 100 I=1,3
```
```
Q(I) = -A(I, 1) * AA
       DO 200 J=1,3
       P(I, J) = A(I, J+1)
   200 CONTINUE
   100 CONTINUE
С
       EPS=1.0D0D-14
       CALL DCLNLU(P, 3, 3, Q, EPS, WW2, IP2, NS2)
С
С
       DO 102 I1=1,3
С
       WRITE(6,103) (I1, J, P(I1, J), J=1, 3)
С
       WRITE(6,104) Q(11)
C 103 FORMAT(2(I5,2X),4X,'(',E12.6,',',E12.6,')')
C 104 FORMAT(10X, 'Q=', '(', E12.6, ', ', E12.6, ')')
C 102 CONTINUE
       TDET=P(1,1) *P(2,2) *P(3,3) +P(1,2) *P(2,3) *P(3,1)
      1
               +P(1,3)*P(2,1)*P(3,2)-P(1,3)*P(2,2)*P(3,1)
      t
               -P(1,1)*P(2,3)*P(3,2)-P(1,2)*P(2,1)*P(3,3)
       IF (TDET .EQ. (0.0D0,0.0D0)) THEN
       WRITE(6,105)
   105 FORMAT(20X, 'MATRIX IS SINGULAR')
       STOP
       END IF
       TP(1,1) = (P(2,2) * P(3,3) - P(2,3) * P(3,2)) / TDET
       TP(1,2) = -(P(1,2) * P(3,3) - P(1,3) * P(3,2)) / TDET
       TP(1,3) = (P(1,2) * P(2,3) - P(1,3) * P(2,2)) / TDET
       TP(2,1) = -(P(2,1) * P(3,3) - P(2,3) * P(3,1)) / TDET
       TP(2,2) = (P(1,1) * P(3,3) - P(1,3) * P(3,1)) / TDET
       TP(2,3) = -(P(1,1) * P(2,3) - P(1,3) * P(2,1)) / TDET
       TP(3,1) = (P(2,1) * P(3,2) - P(2,2) * P(3,1)) / TDET
       TP(3,2) = -(P(1,1) * P(3,2) - P(1,2) * P(3,1)) / TDET
       TP(3,3) = (P(1,1)*P(2,2)-P(1,2)*P(2,1))/TDET
       TQ(1) = TP(1, 1) *Q(1) + TP(1, 2) *Q(2) + TP(1, 3) *Q(3)
       TQ(2) = TP(2, 1) *Q(1) + TP(2, 2) *Q(2) + TP(2, 3) *Q(3)
       TQ(3) = TP(3, 1) *Q(1) + TP(3, 2) *Q(2) + TP(3, 3) *Q(3)
       Q(1) = TQ(1)
       Q(2) = TQ(2)
       Q(3) = TQ(3)
С
       CALL LEQ2C(P, 3, 3, Q, 1, 3, 0, WW2, IP2, NS2)
       WRITE(6,111) Q(1),Q(2),Q(3)
С
C 111 FORMAT(2X, 'NO1', 3(2X, '(', E12.6, ', ', E12.6, ')'))
       A11(NX(1)) = AA
       A12(NX(1)) = Q(1)
       A21(NX(2)) = Q(2)
      A22(NX(2)) = Q(3)
```

DO 50 L1=NX(1)-1,1,-1

```
A11(L1) = A11(L1+1)
       A12(L1) = A12(L1+1) - COEF(1,L1+1) * A11(L1+1)
    50 CONTINUE
       DO 60 L2=NX(2)-1,1,-1
       A21(L2) = A21(L2+1)
       A22(L2) = A22(L2+1) - COEF(2, L2+1) * A21(L2+1)
    60 CONTINUE
       VMAX = (0.0D0, 0.0D0)
       DO 300 K1=1, NX(1)
       V0(1,K1)=A11(K1)*F(1,1,K1)+A12(K1)*F(1,2,K1)
       DV0(1,K1)=A11(K1)*DF(1,1,K1)+A12(K1)*DF(1,2,K1)
       D2V0(1,K1)=A11(K1)*D2F(1,1,K1)+A12(K1)*D2F(1,2,K1)
       D3V0(1,K1)=A11(K1)*D3F(1,1,K1)+A12(K1)*D3F(1,2,K1)
       IF (CDABS(VO(1,K1)) .GT. CDABS(VMAX)) VMAX=VO(1,K1)
  300 CONTINUE
      DO 400 K2=1, NX(2)
      VO(2, K2) = A21(K2) * F(2, 1, K2) + A22(K2) * F(2, 2, K2)
      DVO(2, K2) = A21(K2) * DF(2, 1, K2) + A22(K2) * DF(2, 2, K2)
      D2VO(2, K2) = A21(K2) * D2F(2, 1, K2) + A22(K2) * D2F(2, 2, K2)
      D3V0(2,K2)=A21(K2)*D3F(2,1,K2)+A22(K2)*D3F(2,2,K2)
      IF (CDABS(VO(2,K2)) .GT. CDABS(VMAX)) VMAX=VO(2,K2)
  400 CONTINUE
      FAI=-3.141592D0*0.5D0
      WRITE(6,411) VO(1,1)
C 411 FORMAT(2X, 'VO=', '(', E12.6, ', ', E12.6, ')')
С
      SHIFT=DCONJG(V0(1,1)/VMAX)/CDABS(V0(1,1)/VMAX)*
С
     1
               CDEXP((0.0D0,1.0D0)*FAI)
С
      SHIFT=CDEXP((0.0D0,1.0D0)*FAI)
      SHIFT=DCONJG(V0(2,2)/VMAX)/CDABS(V0(2,2)/VMAX)*
     1
               CDEXP((0.0D0,1.0D0)*FAI)
      DO 500 K3=1, NX(1)
      V0(1,K3)=V0(1,K3)/VMAX*SHIFT
      DV0(1,K3)=DV0(1,K3)/VMAX*SHIFT
      D2V0(1,K3)=D2V0(1,K3)/VMAX*SHIFT
     D3V0(1,K3)=D3V0(1,K3)/VMAX*SHIFT
  500 CONTINUE
      DO 600 K4=1, NX(2)
      V0(2,K4)=V0(2,K4)/VMAX*SHIFT
      DVO(2, K4) = DVO(2, K4) / VMAX * SHIFT
      D2V0(2, K4) = D2V0(2, K4) / VMAX * SHIFT
      D3V0(2,K4)=D3V0(2,K4)/VMAX*SHIFT
 600 CONTINUE
      DO 10 J=1,4
      AMXJ(J) = DMAX1(CDABS(A(1, J)), CDABS(A(2, J)))
```

. . . .

```
CDABS(A(3, J)), CDABS(A(4, J)))
      AMNJ(J) = DMIN1(CDABS(A(1, J)), CDABS(A(2, J)))
                      CDABS(A(3, J)), CDABS(A(4, J)))
      L
       DO 20 II=1,4
       A(II, J) = A(II, J) / AMXJ(J)
    20 CONTINUE
    10 CONTINUE
       DO 30 I=1,4
       AMXI(I) = DMAX1(CDABS(A(I,1)), CDABS(A(I,2)),
                      CDABS(A(I,3)), CDABS(A(I,4)))
      Т
       DO 40 JJ=1,4
       A(I,JJ) = A(I,JJ) / AMXI(I)
    40 CONTINUE
    30 CONTINUE
С
       CALL DCINV(A, 4, 0, 4, 4, 0.0D0, DET1, WW1, IP1, NS1)
С
С
       DO 556 IJ=1,4
С
       BBB(IJ) = (1.0D0, 0.0D0)
C 556 CONTINUE
С
С
       CALL LEQ2C(A, 4, 4, BBB, 1, 4, 1, WW1, IP1, NS1)
С
С
       WRITE (6, 112)
C 112 FORMAT(2X, 'NO2')
       DET1=A(1,1) * (A(2,2) *A(3,3) *A(4,4) +A(2,3) *A(3,4) *A(4,2)
                    +A(2,4) *A(3,2) *A(4,3) -A(2,4) *A(3,3) *A(4,3)
                    -A(2,3) *A(3,2) *A(4,4) -A(2,2) *A(3,4) *A(4,3))
A(2,1) * (A(1,2) * A(3,3) * A(4,4) + A(1,3) * A(3,4) * A(4,2)
                    +A(1,4) *A(3,2) *A(4,3) -A(1,4) *A(3,3) *A(4,2)
                    -A(1,3) *A(3,2) *A(4,4) -A(1,2) *A(3,4) *A(4,3))
+A(3,1) * (A(1,2) *A(2,3) *A(4,4) +A(1,3) *A(2,4) *A(4,2)
                    +A(1,4) *A(2,2) *A(4,3) -A(1,4) *A(2,3) *A(4,2)
                    -A(1,3) *A(2,2) *A(4,4) -A(1,2) *A(2,4) *A(4,3))
A(4,1) * (A(1,2) * A(2,3) * A(3,4) + A(1,3) * A(2,4) * A(3,2)
                    +A(1,4) *A(2,2) *A(3,3) -A(1,4) *A(2,3) *A(3,2)
     T
                    -A(1,2) *A(2,4) *A(3,3) -A(1,3) *A(2,2) *A(3,4))
С
      DET1 = (1.0D0, 0.0D0)
С
      DO 555 JI=1,4
С
       IPVT=IP1(JI)
С
       IF (IPVT .NE. JI) DET1=-DET1
С
      INDX=JI+(JI-1)*4
С
      DET1=DET1*WW1(INDX)
C 555 CONTINUE
      ADET1=CDABS (DET1)
      DET2=AMXJ(1) *AMXJ(2) *AMXJ(3) *AMXJ(4) *
               AMXI(1) *AMXI(2) *AMXI(3) *AMXI(4) *DET1
     L
      ADET2=CDABS (DET2)
```

```
AMX=DMAX1 (AMXJ(1), AMXJ(2), AMXJ(3), AMXJ(4))
      AMN=DMIN1 (AMNJ(1), AMNJ(2), AMNJ(3), AMNJ(4))
      AGAP=AMX/AMN
      RETURN
      END
SUBROUTINE SUB4 (NX, Z, V0, DV0, ABSV0, ARGV0,
     1
                      ABSUO, ARGUO, ABSETA, ARGETA, TAU, ENE)
*******
      IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H, O-Z)
      COMPLEX*16
                  C,VO,DVO,UO,ETA
      COMMON
                /BL1/ V,WN,C,RE
      DIMENSION V(2), RE(2), NX(2), Z(2, 01), VO(2, 601),
                 DV0(2,601),U0(2,601),ETA(2,601),TAU(2,601),
                 ENE(2,601), ABSV0(2,601), ARGV0(2,601),
                 ABSU0(2,601), ARGU0(2,601), ABSETA(2,601),
                 ARGETA (2, 601)
      DO 10 N=1,2
      ABSVO(N, 1) = 0.0D0
      ARGVO(N, 1) = 0.0D0
      ABSUO(N, 1) = 0.0D0
      ARGUO(N, 1) = 0.0D0
      ABSETA(N, 1) = 0.0D0
      ARGETA(N, 1) = 0.0D0
      TAU(N, 1) = 0.0D0
      ENE(N, 1) = 0.000
     DO 20 I=2, NX(N)
     UO(N, I) = (0.0D0, 1.0D0) * DVO(N, I) / WN
     ETA (N, I) = VO(N, I) / ((0.0D0, 1.0D0) *WN* (DTANH(2(N, I)) - C))
     ABSVO(N, I) = CDABS(VO(N, I))
     ARGVO (N, I) = DATAN2 (DIMAG (VO (N, I)), DREAL (VO (N, I)))
                *180.0D0/3.141592D0
     L
     ABSUO(N, I) = CDABS(UO(N, I))
     ARGU0 (N, I) = DATAN2 (DIMAG (U0 (N, I)), DREAL (U0 (N, I)))
     ł.
                *180.0D0/3.141592D0
     ABSETA(N, I) = CDABS(ETA(N, I))
     ARGETA (N, I) = DATAN2 (DIMAG (ETA (N, I)), DREAL (ETA (N, I))) *
     L
                       180.0D0/3.141592D0
     TAU(N, I) = -ABSUO(N, I) * ABSVO(N, I) * COS(ARGUO(N, I))
               -ARGV0(N,I))/2.0D0
     T
     ENE (N, I) = (ABSUO(N, I) * *2 + ABSVO(N, I) * *2) / 2.0D0
  20 CONTINUE
  10 CONTINUE
     RETURN
     END
```

. . . .

SUBROUTINE WRITE (NX, Z, V0, DV0, D2V0, D3V0, ABSV0, ARGV0, ABSUO, ARGUO, ABSETA, ARGETA, TAU, ENE) C***** IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z) COMPLEX*16 V0, DV0, D2V0, D3V0 DIMENSION NX(2), Z(2, 601),V0(2,601), DV0(2,601), D2V0(2,601), D3V0(2,601), ABSV0(2,601), ARGV0(2,601), ABSU0(2,601), ARGUO(2,601), ABSETA(2,601), ARGETA(2,601), TAU(2,601), ENE(2,601) WRITE(6,100) (Z(1,I),VO(1,I),DVO(1,I),D2VO(1,I), WRITE (6,200) D3VO(1, I), I=1, NX(1), 2)1 (Z(2,J), VO(2,J), DVO(2,J), D2VO(2,J),WRITE(6,200) D3VO(2, J), J=NX(2), 1, -2)t WRITE(6,300) WRITE(6,400) (Z(1, I), ABSV0(1, I), ARGV0(1, I), WRITE(6,500) ABSU0(1, I), ARGU0(1, I), ABSETA(1, I), ARGETA(1, I), TAU(1, I), ENE(1, I), I=1, NX(1), 2)(Z(2, J), ABSV0(2, J), ARGV0(2, J), WRITE(6,500) ABSU0(2, J), ARGU0(2, J), 1 ABSETA(2, J), ARGETA(2, J), TAU(2, J), ENE(2, J), J=NX(2), 1, -2)ł 100 FORMAT(1H //,8X,'Z',16X,'V0',23X,'DV0/DZ',20X, 'D2V0/DZ2', 19X, 'D3V0/DZ3'/) 200 FORMAT(1H ,5X,F6.3,2X,'(',E11.4,',',E11.4,')',2X, '(',E11.4,',',E11.4,')',2X,'(',E11.4,',', E11.4,')',2X,'(',E11.4,',',E11.4,')') 300 FORMAT(1H //,8X,'Z',16X,'V0',25X,'U0',25X,'ETA',18X, 'TAU', 12X, 'ENE') 400 FORMAT(1H , 17X, 'DABS(VO) ARG(V0)',10X,'DABS(U0) ARG(U0)', 10X, 'DABS(ETA) ARG(ETA)') 500 FORMAT(1H ,5X,F6.3,2X,'(',E11.4,',',E11.4,')',2X,'(', E11.4, ', ', E11.4, ') ', 2X, '(', E11.4, ', ', E11.4, ')', 3X, E11.4, 4X, E11.4) I RETURN END **************** SUBROUTINE STFUNC (NX, Z, VO, RT, ICONT, IVO, ZR) ***********************

IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)

```
COMPLEX*16
                  C, V0
      COMMON /EL1/ V, WN, C, RE /BLP/ AMP /BLV/ VP, VA
      DIMENSION NX(2), Z(2,601), VO(2,601), F(2,601), VP(2,601),
     1
               VA(2,601), AMP(31,41), ZR(2), V(2), RE(2)
      CR=DREAL(C)
C----- BACKGROUND STREAM FUNCTION ------
      DZ1=Z(1,1)-Z(1,2)
      DZ2=Z(2,2)-Z(2,1)
      DO 10 I0=1,601
      F(1, I0) = 0.000
      F(2, I0) = 0.0D0
   10 CONTINUE
      DO 20 I1=NX(1)-1,1,-1
      F(1, I1) = F(1, I1+1)
               +((DTANH(Z(1, I1))+DTANH(Z(1, I1+1)))/2-CR)*D21
     20 CONTINUE
      DO 30 I2=NX(2)-1,1,-1
      F(2, I2) = F(2, I2+1)
     -((DTANH(Z(2,I2))+DTANH(Z(2,I2+1)))/2-CR)*DZ2
   30 CONTINUE
C----- MESH GENERATOR -----
С
      TZ=ZR(1)+ZR(2)
      TZ=3.0D0+ZR(2)
      DTZ=TZ/40.0D0
      IZ1=INT (DTZ/DZ1)
      IZ2=INT (DTZ/DZ2)
      IMZ2=IZ2*INT(NX(2)/IZ2)+1
      IMZ1=NX(1) - INT((DTZ-(NX(2) - IMZ2) * DZ2)/DZ1)
      ISZ1 = IMZ1 - IZ1 * (41 - (INT (NX (2) / IZ2) + 1) - 1)
      IF (ISZ1 .LT. 1) THEN
      ISZ1=1
     END IF
C-----
                  VMAX=0.0D0
     VP(1,1) = 0.0D0
     VA(1,1) = 0.0D0
     DO 40 J1=2, NX(1)
     VP(1, J1) = CDABS(V0(1, J1))
     SA1=DIMAG(V0(1, J1))/VP(1, J1)
     VA(1, J1) = -DASIN(SA1) - (3.141592/2.0D0)
     IF (VP(1, J1) . GT. VMAX) THEN
     VMAX=VP(1,J1)
     ELSE
     VMAX=VMAX
     END IF
  40 CONTINUE
     VP(2,1) = 0.0D0
```

```
VA(2,1) = 0.0D0
      DO 50 J_{2=2}, NX(2)
      VP(2, J2) = CDABS(VO(2, J2))
      SA2=DIMAG(V0(2, J2))/VP(2, J2)
      VA(2, J2) = - DASIN(SA2) - (3.141592/2.0D0)
      IF (VP(2,J2) .GT. VMAX) THEN
      VMAX=VP(2, J2)
      ELSE
      VMAX=VMAX
      END IF
   50 CONTINUE
      DO 60 K1=1, NX(1)
      VP(1, K1) = VP(1, K1) / VMAX
   60 CONTINUE
      DO 70 K2=1, NX(2)
      VP(2, K2) = VP(2, K2) / VMAX
   70 CONTINUE
C----- COMBINING -----
      DO 80 I=1,81
      PN = (I-1) * (3.141592/20.0D0)
      II=0
      DO 90 J1=ISZ1, IMZ1, IZ1
      II=II+1
      AMP(I, II) = F(1, J1) + RT * VP(1, J1) * COS(VA(1, J1) + PN)
   90 CONTINUE
      DO 110 J2=IMZ2, 1, -IZ2
      II=II+1
      AMP(I, II) = F(2, J2) + RT * VP(2, J2) * COS(VA(2, J2) + PN)
  110 CONTINUE
   80 CONTINUE
C----- FIND AMOUNT OF SHIFTING ------
      AMIN=10.0D0
      DO 200 I3=1,81
      DO 210 J3=1,41
      IF (AMP(I3, J3) .LT. AMIN) THEN
      AMIN=AMP(I3, J3)
      END IF
  210 CONTINUE
  200 CONTINUE
C----- SHIFTING ACCORDING TO AMIN -----
     DO 300 I4=1,81
     DO 310 J4=1,41
     AMP(14, J4) = AMP(14, J4) - AMIN
  310 CONTINUE
  300 CONTINUE
DO 500 I=1,81
     IF (IV0 .EQ. 1) GOTO 120
```

```
WRITE(6,100) AMP(I, 1), AMP(I, 2), AMP(I, 3), AMP(I, 4),
                  AMP(I, 5), AMP(I, 6), AMP(I, 7), AMP(I, 8),
                  AMP(I, 9), AMP(I, 10), AMP(I, 11), AMP(I, 12),
                  AMP(I,13), AMP(I,14), AMP(I,15), AMP(I,16),
                  AMP(I,17), AMP(I,18), AMP(I,19), AMP(I,20),
                  AMP(I,21), AMP(I,22), AMP(I,23), AMP(I,24),
                  AMP(I,25), AMP(I,26), AMP(I,27), AMP(I,28),
                  AMP(I,29), AMP(I,30), AMP(I,31), AMP(I,32),
                  AMP(1,33), AMP(1,34), AMP(1,35), AMP(1,36),
                  AMP(I, 37), AMP(I, 38), AMP(I, 39), AMP(I, 40),
                  AMP(I, 41)
  100 FORMAT(41(1X, F6.3))
  500 CONTINUE
  120 RETURN
     END
SUBROUTINE VOPLO(Z,NX,V0,IV0)
С
       TAG GENERATOR.
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
     COMPLEX*16
                  VO
     COMMON /BLV/ VP,VA
     DIMENSION 2(2,601), NX(2), VO(2,601), VP(2,601), VA(2,601)
     IF (IVO .EQ. 0) RETURN
     WRITE(6,100)
     WRITE(6,200)
     WRITE(6,300)
     WRITE(6,400)
     DO 10 I1=1, NX(1)
     WRITE(6,500) VP(1,11),Z(1,11)
  10 CONTINUE
     DO 15 I2=NX(2),1,-1
     WRITE(6,500) VP(2,12),Z(2,12)
  15 CONTINUE
     WRITE(6,600)
     DO 20 J1=1, NX(1)
     WRITE(6,500) VA(1,J1),Z(1,J1)
  20 CONTINUE
     DO 25 J2=NX(2), 1, -1
     WRITE(6,500) VA(2,J2),Z(2,J2)
  25 CONTINUE
     WRITE(6,700)
```

100 FORMAT(6X, 'GEN A PLOT.', /, 6X, 'LEGEND OFF.',/,6X, 'X PAGE IS 11.',/,6X,'Y PAGE IS 8.5.',/ 1 6X, 'X LABEL IS "VO".', /, 6X, 'Y LABEL IS "Z".') 1 200 FORMAT(6X, 'X LENGTH=9.0, AXIS ORIGIN 1.0D0.',/,6X, 'Y LENGTH=6.5, AXIS ORIGIN 1.0D0.',/,6X, 1 'X MIN -3.0D0 ',',MAX 3.0D0 ','.',/,6X, 'Y MIN -3.0D0 ',',MAX 3.0D0 ','.') 300 FORMAT(6X,'TITLE "V0 DISTRIBUTIONS".') 400 FORMAT(6X, 'FRAME.', /, 6X, 'INPUT DATA.', /, 6X, '"ABS V0"') 500 FORMAT(3X,F10.5,',',3X,F10.5) 600 FORMAT(6X, '"PHASE VO"') 700 FORMAT(6X, 'END OF DATA.',/,6X, 'CURVE 1 SYMBOL COUNT 1, SCATTERED.',/,6X, 'CURVE 2 SYMBOL COUNT 2, SCATTERED.',/,6X, 1 t 'LEGEND UNITS PLOT%.',/,6X, 'LEGEND X ORIGIN 70.',/,6X, 'LEGEND Y ORIGIN 10.',/,6X, 'LEGEND HEIGHT 0.10.',/,6X, 'LEGEND FRAME 1.',/,6X,'SEND.',/,6X, 'QUIT.') RETURN

END

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APPENDIX C: DETERMINATION OF WAVE LENGTH λ and phase velocity c_{R}

In section 4.2.3, it was mentioned that two sets of independent wave sensors located along the longitudinal axis of the flume, gave enough information to evaluate the interfacial wave length λ and its phase velocity C_R. In this appendix, the process used to determine these properties is shown by way of example output data.

Let us consider a the typical output example which is shown in Figure C.1. From the FFT output (b), we can obtain the dominant frequency of the wave f_d which can be confirmed by comparison with the raw data (a) (in this example, $f_d =$ 1.52 Hz). Output (c) shows the result of a cross correlation between two sensors located 10cm apart longitudinally, which indicates the maximum correlation time t_d . Care must be taken when using this time scale since there are several identical peaks in the output produced by the wave phenomena, since the waves are basically periodic. Therefore, some information is required to distinguish between the correlation time and others.

In this thesis, the additions information was provided using a stop watch and physical observation; a technique which a supplied reasonable range for the time scale. Using this process, the maximum correlation time in this particular example was found to be $t_d=3.13$ sec. Since we already know

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the distance between the two wave sensors, the phase velocity of the interfacial wave can be calculated as follows;

 $c_R = 10~(\text{cm})~/~t_d = 10~(\text{cm})~/~3.13~(\text{sec}) = 3.20~(\text{cm/sec})\,.$ Since the dominant frequency fd was obtained from (b), the wave length λ is calculated as,

 λ = c_R / F_d = 3.20 (cm/sec) / 1.52 (Hz) = 2.10 (cm).

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Figure C.1. Wave detector output and processed data example. (90.6.9(1) case. λ *=2.10cm, C_R*=3.20 cm/sec.)