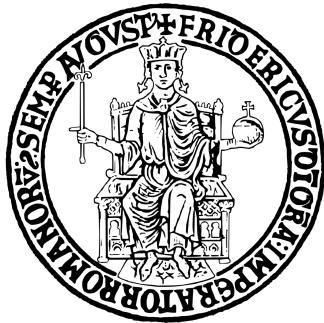


UNIVERSITÀ DEGLI STUDI DI NAPOLI
“FEDERICO II”



SCUOLA POLITECNICA E DELLE SCIENZE DI BASE

DIPARTIMENTO DI INGEGNERIA INDUSTRIALE

CORSO DI LAUREA IN INGEGNERIA AEROSPAZIALE

CLASSE DELLE LAUREE IN INGEGNERIA INDUSTRIALE (L-9)

Bachelor's degree dissertation

Vertical liquid jet: effect of the contact angle and
data-driven model reduction.

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Academic Year 2023/2024

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Abstract

This study examines the dynamics of gravitational thin liquid films in two main configurations. The initial setup utilizes a conventional approach, performing a modal decomposition analysis through Proper Orthogonal Decomposition (POD). The subsequent setup, instead, assesses the influence of inlet contact angles (40 and 140 degrees) on the flow dynamics using the same method. Applying the POD technique allows us to create a decomposed model, facilitating the identification of physically relevant structures. The analysis is conducted via BASILISK software using a two-phase Volume of Fluid (VOF) approach. The purpose of this research is to enhance our comprehension of these phenomena and assess whether any noticeable changes in flow patterns are evident while applying a contact angle. Findings reveal that the traditional setup operates as anticipated, displaying a sinuous-varicose flow behavior. However, varying the contact angle seems to have a limited impact on the original configuration; additional research is needed to clarify these results.

Chapter 1

Introduction

This paper seeks to explore and further understand the behavior of gravitational thin liquid sheets across two fundamental setups. In the first scenario, we explore a conventional setup and perform a modal decomposition analysis. In the second, our goal is to determine if the presence of a contact angle significantly impacts the flow. For the conventional setup, we are going to analyze the flow field behavior using a mathematical method called Proper Orthogonal Decomposition (POD). This technique allows us to develop a decomposed model of the phenomenon, facilitating the extraction of physically significant features, and ultimately enabling the creation of a desired reconstruction. The POD technique has been extensively discussed in the works of K. Taira *et al.* [11], Steven L. Brunton *et al.* [4], and executed by A. Colanera *et al.* [5]. It was A. Arote *et al.*, in the previously referenced articles ([2], [3]), who first introduced its application to liquid sheets.

The application of modal decomposition analysis through the POD technique marks a crucial advancement in the research of liquid sheets, originating in the mid-1900s and widely applied across scientific and industrial fields like fuel atomization, coating deposition, papermaking, and more. Using the POD technique on the liquid sheet allows for the identification of dominant spatial structures in the flow.

The analysis is conducted using the BASILISK software [<http://basilisk.fr>], employing a two-phase Volume of Fluid (VOF) approach. Pertaining to this topic, reference is made to previous applications of the VOF technique in simulating gravitational liquid sheets carried out by A. Della Pia *et al.* [7] [8] and A. Colanera *et al.* [5]. Like this research, these investigations begin with the incompressible linearized Navier-Stokes equations. The water-air interface analysis is also addressed in the works of A. Arote *et al.* [2] and [3].

As previously said this paper also investigates the impact of different contact angles on flow field behavior. It examines two specific configurations: one with sinusoidal forcing at the inlet and one without. In the simulation a Weber number of 2 and a Reynolds number of 413 are implemented, placing the configuration in the supercritical regime ($We > 1$).

The primary aim of this study is to enhance our comprehension of the impacts and magnitudes of various contact angles on thin viscous sheets, and to determine if significant alterations in the flow are detectable. The selected angles, 40 and 140 degrees, are chosen to emphasize the contrasts between low and high contact angles. This analysis is supported by the work of Afkhami *et al.* [1], and it implements a BASILISK library based on their findings.

Researching gravitational liquid sheets enhances our understanding of waterfall dynamics. Grasping waterfall flow is essential for foreseeing unpredictable oscillations and averting overflows that might cause noise and vibrations across vast areas. The resultant noise can be a nuisance and a source of potential accidents, potentially leading to dangerous vibrations in nearby building window frames or structural harm to dams.

Chapter 2

Numerical Simulation

2.1 Physical Domain

In figure 2.1, a schematic representation of the physical domain, the adopted numerical grid, and a sample snapshot of the volume fraction C are presented. The right and left interfaces are denoted as $y^+(x, t)$ and $y^-(x, t)$, respectively, as referenced in [2.1a]. Given the geometry of the interface, the centerline shape, denoted as $l(x, t)$, and the liquid sheet thickness, denoted as $h(x, t)$, are computed according to.

$$\begin{bmatrix} l(x, t) \\ h(x, t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y^+(x, t) \\ y^-(x, t) \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.1)$$

The setup involves a forced liquid sheet flow characterized by a fully developed parabolic axial velocity profile at the inlet. This profile undergoes perturbation due to a sinusoidal forcing with variable amplitude in the lateral velocity component. Consequently, Dirichlet boundary conditions are enforced at the inlet for $y \in [-H/2; H/2]$.

$$u = \frac{3}{2}U \left(1 - \left(\frac{2y}{H} \right)^2 \right), \quad (2.2)$$

$$v = \hat{A}U \sin(2\pi f_f(t - t_s))\vartheta(t - t_s), \quad (2.3)$$

$$C = 1, \quad (2.4)$$

Where U and H represent the mean axial velocity and the thickness of the liquid sheet at the inlet, respectively. \hat{A} denotes the dimensionless amplitude of the forcing lateral velocity

perturbation, f_f is the forcing frequency, and $\vartheta(t - t_s)$ is the Heaviside function that comes into effect at the forcing starting time t_s . For the remaining portion of the inlet side ($|y| > H/2$), no-slip conditions are applied. Neumann boundary conditions are imposed on the right and left edges for all variables, while standard outflow conditions are set at the lower edge.

$$\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x} = 0, \quad (2.5)$$

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial x} = 0, \quad (2.6)$$

$$p = 0. \quad (2.7)$$

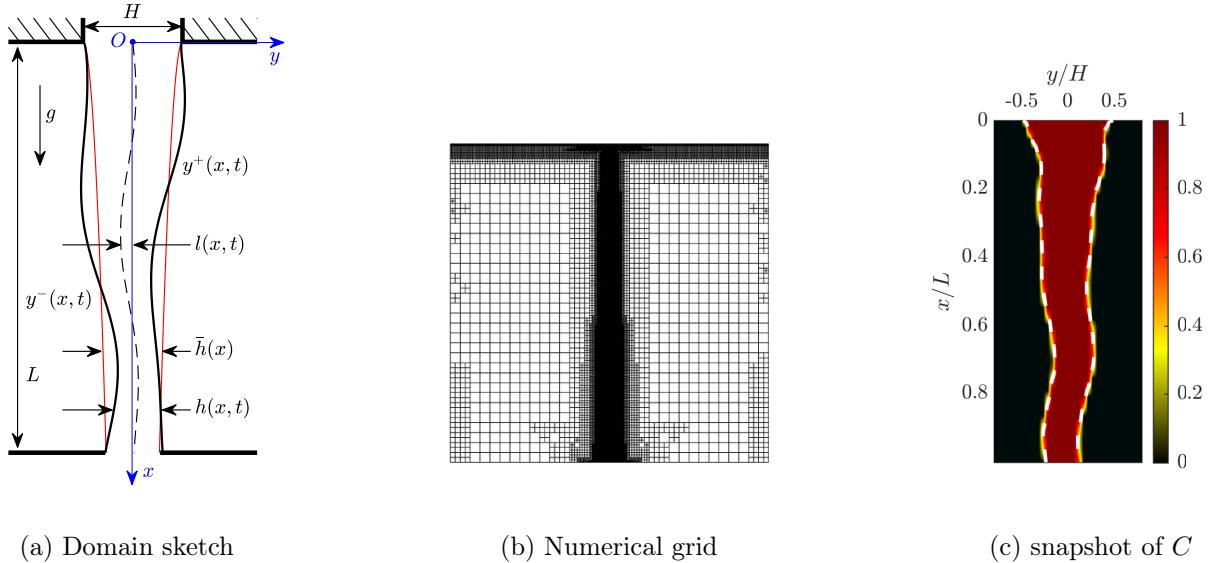


Figure 2.1: Typical numerical arrangement and sample output of the liquid sheet

The computational domain is a square with dimensions of $L \times L$. The mesh employed is a quadtree-structured grid, as illustrated in panel 2.1b, maintaining maximum refinement within the rectangular region $0 < x/L < 1$ and $1 < y/H < 1$, encompassing the entire liquid sheet. Outside this region, grid cells are dynamically refined based on user-defined adaptation criteria. For a detailed explanation of the adaptive grid refinement strategy, readers are directed to van Hooft et al.'s work [12]. The modal analysis specifically focuses on the region $0 < x/L < 1$ and $1 < y/H < 1$, discretized with a grid of 1025×41 uniform cells. Numerical data are collected at intervals of 5×10^3 s over a period of $T = 12$ s. Dimensionless parameters are introduced for subsequent analysis, including the Reynolds number ($Re = \rho_l U L / 2(\mu_l)$), the Froude number ($Fr = U^2 / (gL)$), the Strouhal number ($St = f H / U$), and the density ratio ($r_p = \rho_a / \rho_l$).

2.2 Volume Of Fluid approach

This work is describing a numerical investigation that has been conducted using the BASILISK open-source code. BASILISK is commonly used for fluid dynamics simulations, and in this case, it utilizes a single-phase formulation and the volume-of-fluid (VOF) approach.

In the VOF approach, the two-phase flow is treated as a single-fluid flow. The volume fraction, denoted as C , is introduced as a field variable. The volume fraction has values of 1 in the inner phase (representing one phase of the fluid) and 0 in the ambient phase (representing the other phase). The interface between the two phases is defined when the volume fraction is 0.5.

In this context, the simulation incorporates models for density ρ and viscosity μ

$$\rho = \rho_a = (\rho_l - \rho_a)C, \quad (2.8)$$

$$\mu = \mu_a = (\mu_l - \mu_a)C, \quad (2.9)$$

where subscripts a and l denote the ambient and liquid phases, respectively.

Therefore, based on equations (2.8) and (2.9), the density and viscosity remain constant within each phase and undergo variations across the separating interface, positioned where $0 < C < 1$. Throughout this study, the interface is associated with the isoline $C = 0.5$. It is important to note that this representation is a simplification; in reality, the transition from the external environment to the fluid occurs gradually. The volume fraction C is governed by the following advection equation.

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial Cu_i}{\partial x_i} = 0 \quad (2.10)$$

The momentum equations and the divergence-free condition (represented in index notation) are:

$$\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_i} = 0 \quad (2.11)$$

$$\rho \left(\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial t} + u_j \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} \right) = - \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial [\mu (\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i})]}{\partial x_j} + \sigma k n_i \delta_S \quad (2.12)$$

In this equation the surface tension is modelled as an impulsive force located at the interface. The governing equations, akin to those used in incompressible flows, are solved using the projection method. In the initial step, a temporary velocity field is determined by neglecting

the pressure gradient. Subsequently, in the second step, this field is projected onto a space of divergence-free velocity fields by incorporating the requisite pressure gradient information. The Volume-of-Fluid (VOF) method is employed to track the interface, solving Eq.(2.10) for the advection of the volume fraction. Once the velocity field is established, a one-dimensional scheme is applied to advect the volume fraction field along each coordinate direction. Local volume fraction fluxes are computed based on local velocities, and the geometric reconstruction of the interface is accomplished within each cell by utilizing the volume fraction value specific to that cell. The interface in each cell is represented as a segment described by the equation $n_1x_1 + n_2x_2 = c$, where n_i represents the dimensionless partial derivative of C with respect to the corresponding spatial coordinate x_i , and c denotes the shortest distance from the segment to the current coordinate and the underlying coordinate system.

Chapter 3

Contact angle

3.1 Physics description

By definition, the contact angle, represented by the symbol C, is the angle that forms where the liquid interface meets the solid surface. To further elaborate, it represents the angle between the tangent at the liquid-vapor interface and the tangent at the solid-liquid interface at their point of intersection.

According to the Young Equation, the contact angle is defined through the analysis of the thermodynamic equilibrium among three phases: gaseous, liquid, and solid.

In particular, denoting with γ_{sg} , γ_{sl} e γ_{lg} the surface energy of the three interfaces, the Young Equation states:

$$\gamma_{sg} - \gamma_{sl} - \gamma_{lg} \cos(\theta_c) = 0. \quad (3.1)$$

However, a century afterward, Gibbs suggested an alteration to Young's equation. It intended to account for the influence of the droplet's volume on θ_c ; it also manages to account for the excess energy at the interface of the three-phase boundary, by introducing a line tension k . The equation becomes as follow:

$$\cos(\theta) = \gamma_{sg} - \frac{\gamma_{sl}}{\gamma_{lg}} + \frac{k}{\gamma_{lg}\alpha} \quad (3.2)$$

It's notable that at micro-nano scales, even the modified Young's equation fails, as seen by empirical observations. For this thesis, the modified Young's equation will suffice. Our goal is to further explore the impact of varying contact angles on unsteady viscous liquid sheet flows.

3.2 Application of contact angle

The code utilizes the contact.h library from Basilisk, which is inspired by M. Renardy's work *et al.*[10] in turn. The library in question enables the use of height functions and VOF tracers to achieve the desired contact angle. To get a better a grasp of this concept, we need to introduce height functions, denoted by Hfs . Hfs can be used to calculate the curvature of the interface and its normal. The way in which it is done is by storing in the field the distance of the interface from the center of cell, and then using these values to obtain n and χ .

$$n = [h_x, -1] \quad (3.3)$$

$$\chi = h_{xx}/(1 + h_x^2)^{\frac{3}{2}} \quad (3.4)$$

where h_x and h_{xx} are obtained with a centered finite differences second order scheme. What the code does is modify the height-function so that the interface adopts a shape consistent with our specified contact angle.

As we'll observe, this field will be passed to tracers simply by setting the height variable of the tracers field.

The necessity for employing Hfs stems from the fact that gradient-based methods used to determine the normal to the interface and the curvature (essentially $\nabla \cdot n = \chi$ and $\frac{\nabla \times f}{|\nabla \times f|} = n$) introduce spurious currents (the strength of which might overshadow any actual velocities) and, more critically, fail to converge with mesh refinement.

The normal and curvature play a crucial role in discretizing the equation:

$$F_{st} = \sigma \cdot K \cdot \delta \cdot n \quad (3.5)$$

In (3.5), F_{st} denotes the superficial tension force, and δ represents Dirac's Delta. This formulation was developed based on the *CSF* Model. Looking at the code, it is all quite straightforward:

```

1 //We define the field containing the height-function.
2 vector h [] ;
3
4 //We modify the height-function field using the $contact_angle()$ macro

```

```

    , thus imposing the contact angle.\\
5 h.t[left] = (fabs(y) >= my_H*0.5) ? contact_angle(theta0*pi/180.) : 0. ;
6
7 //In our case, we are imposing only outside the fluid, so outside the
   width of the flow, which is my_H.

```

Listing 3.1: Contact Angle Implementation

The `contact_angle()` macro is defined in the `contact.h` library as follows:

```

1 #define contact_angle(theta)
2
3 (val(_s) == nodata ? nodata : val(_s) + (orientation(val(_s)) ? -1. :
4   1.)/tan(theta));

```

Listing 3.2: Snippet from `contact.h` library

Where `_s` represents the state of the height-function for the cell. It can be either complete or assume any value between 0 and 1: it's considered complete if both cell ends are identified, otherwise it's zero or one if one end is located, and between zero and one if only the interface is detected.

If both ends of the cell are identified, this indicates that the cell is not situated at the interface, and the value of `_s` is assigned `nodata`. In this instance, in fact, it remains unchanged, and the height function is also set to `nodata`. Otherwise, once the orientation is considered, we add $\pm 1/\tan(\theta)$, where 1 is the dimension of our mesh, given that all measurements are normalized.

Since the standard contact angle (without imposing any ourselves) is set to 90 degrees, `h0` and `h1` would have been the same. By adding `1/tan(theta)` we're imposing that the first order derivative of Hf is exactly `tan(theta)` (in this case the ghost value beneath the surface line is set equal to the one above it). It can be easily understood by looking at the figure 3.1.

This is required only for the left boundary, of course, as that is where the contact angle is imposed.

To achieve the required angles (from 30 degrees to 150 degrees), defining only the tangential component of `h[]` suffices. For more acute angles, the normal component would also be necessary.

```

1 //We then have to pass the information to the tracers field.

```

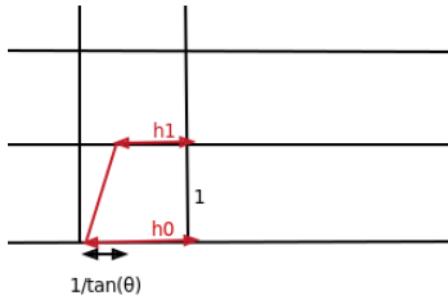
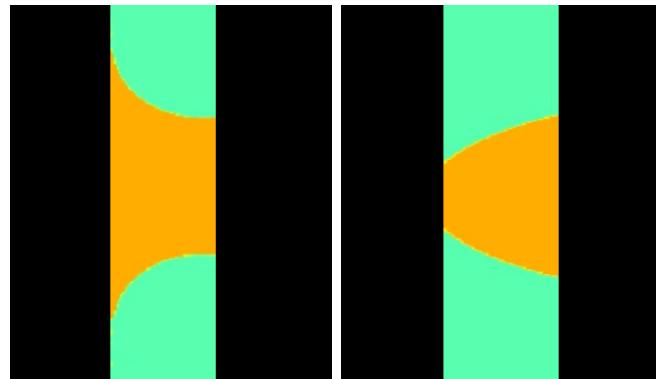


Figure 3.1: Height function on the left boundary

```
2 $f.height = h; $
```

Listing 3.3: Contact angle code

To further prove the presence of the contact angle, snapshots in fig.3.2 are taken from a configuration with gravity and initial velocity set to zero. The impacts in these cases are clearly visible in these snapshots, displaying contact angles of 30 and 135 degrees, respectively.



(a) 30 degree configuration (b) 135 degree configuration

Figure 3.2: Closer Examination of the Inlet Region in a Liquid Sheet with Different Contact Angles

3.2.1 Code

```
1 /*
2 Russo Andrea && Anastasio Domenico.
3 */
4
5 //We're including all the libraries needed to solve the problem.
```

```

6 //The first one solves the incompressible, variable-density Navier-
7 Stokes Equation.
8
9 #include "navier-stokes/centered.h"
10 //The second one lets us use a two-phase approach, usually used for two
11 fluids separated by an interface.
12
13 #include "two-phase.h"
14 //The third one lets us account for surface tension.
15
16 #include "tension.h"
17 //The fourth one lets us know continuous information about the running
18 solver.
19
20 #include "profile6.h"
21 //The fifth one lets us implement momentum-conserving VOF advection of
22 the velocity component, needed for our two-phase solver.
23
24 #include "navier-stokes/conserving.h"
25 //The sixth one lets us implement the contact angle through a boundary
26 condition as we'll see.
27
28 #include "contact.h"
29
30
31 //Defining problem variables.
32
33 #define my_rho_l 997.
34 #define my_rho_g 9.97
35 #define my_mu_g 0.0000184
36 #define my_sigma 0.00603
37 #define my_g 9.81
38 #define my_H 0.0015
39 #define my_L 0.075
40 #define my_U 0.492
41 #define my_r_rho (my_rho_g)/(my_rho_l)
42 #define my_r_mu (my_mu_g)/(my_mu_l)
43
44
45 //We define all the adimensional coefficients that will be needed.
46
47 #define my_RE (my_rho_l*my_U*my_H)/(2*my_mu_l)
48 #define my_WE (my_rho_l*pow(my_U,2)*my_H)/(2*my_sigma)

```

```

35 #define my_FR (pow(my_U,2))/(my_g*my_L)
36 #define my_eps (my_H)/(my_L)
37 #define my_p_ref my_rho_l*my_U*my_U
38
39 //This is the time at which we want the sinusoidal forcing at the inlet
   to start.
40 #define my_t_start 0.2
41
42 #define my_u_p 1.5*my_U
43
44 //This is the time at which the simulation will end.
45 #define my_tEnd 10.0
46
47 //These are the maximum and minimum level of refinement that will be
   used in the adapt_wavelet() function.
48 #define my_maxlev 11
49 #define my_minlev 5
50
51 //That's the power to which we will elevate 2, and that will be our
   initial grid size.
52 #define my_initlev 9
53 #define my_iter 5000
54 #define n_cells 512
55
56 //These are the amplitudes and the frequency of the sinusoidal forcing
   that will be applied at the inlet.
57 #define my_A 0.06
58 #define my_f 25
59
60 //This is the Strouhal number, which indicates the frequency of vortex
   shedding.
61 #define my_Stf (my_f*my_H)/my_U
62
63 //We define the strings containing the file's name.

```

```

64 char Nomefile3[50];
65 char Nomefile4[60];
66 char Nomefile5[60];
67 char Nomefile6[60];
68 char Nomefile7[60];
69 char Nomefile11[60];
70 char Nomefile20[60];
71 char Nomefile21[60];
72 char Nomefile22[60];
73 char Nomefile23[60];
74 char Nomefile24[60];
75 char Nomefile30[60];

76

77 //We define the strings containing the directories' name.
78 char Nomedir[60];
79 char Nomedir2[60];

80

81 //We initialize the field containing the height-function.
82 vector h[];
83 //We define the vectors containing all the viscosities and superficial
     tension coefficients for which we will iterate.
84 double mu_l_Vec[3] = {0.00089, 0.00032, 0.001};
85 double sigma_Vec[3] = {0.0725, 0.02, 0.04};

86

87 //We initialize the contact angle variable.
88 double theta0;

89

90 //We initialize the counter variables that will be used to iterate.
91 int k;
92 int z;

93

94 //All of these conditions are applied on the left, which should be the
     inlet, since the gravity is applied from left to right.
95 //We impose our boundary conditions.

```

```

96 p[left] = neumann(0.);

97

98 //We will impose parabolic (Poisseuille) flow along the x-directions,
   but only inside the liquid phase, so it will be between
99 //0.5*my_H and -0.5*my_H

100 u.n[left] = fabs(y) <= 0.5*my_H ? dirichlet(-my_u_p*sq(y)/sq(0.5*my_H)
   +my_u_p) : dirichlet(0.);

101

102 //We will impose sinusoidal forcing at the inlet, but only inside the
   liquid phase.

103 u.t[left] = fabs(y) <= 0.5*my_H ? dirichlet(my_A*my_U*sin(2.*pi*my_f*t
   )*(t > my_t_start)) : dirichlet(0.);

104

105 //We will impose that the liquid phase is only present between 0.5*my_H
   and -0.5*my_H, thus changing the value of the tracers to 1.

106 f[left] = fabs(y) <= 0.5*my_H ? dirichlet(1.) : dirichlet(0.);

107

108 //On the right (which should be the lower edge), standard outflow
   conditions are imposed.

109 u.n[right] = u.n[] > 0. ? neumann(0.) : dirichlet(0.);

110 p[right] = dirichlet(0.);

111 f[right] = neumann(0.);

112 u.t[right] = u.t[] > 0. ? neumann(0.) : 0.;

113

114 //For the right and left edges neumann conditions are imposed.

115 u.n[top] = neumann(0.);

116 u.t[top] = neumann(0.);

117 f[top] = neumann(0.);

118 p[top] = neumann(0.);

119 u.n[bottom] = neumann(0.);

120 u.t[bottom] = neumann(0.);

121 f[bottom] = neumann(0.);

122 p[bottom] = neumann(0.);

123

```

```

124 int main (int argc, char * argv[])
125 {
126
127 //We define the initial grid dimension.
128 init_grid (1 << my_initlev);
129
130 //We define the domain size.
131 size (my_L);
132
133 //We move the origin to the middle (along y-direction) of our box, on
134 //the left. The origin before was in the top left corner.
135 origin (0., -my_L/2);
136
137 //These are the densities that the solver will use for both of our
138 //phases.
139 rho1 = my_rho_l, rho2 = my_rho_g;
140 TOLERANCE = 1e-4;
141
142 //We make a for loop to solve for different contact angles, different
143 //liquid viscosities, and different superficial
144 //tension coefficients.
145 for (k = 0; k < 1 ; k++ )
146 for (z = 0; z < 1; z++ )
147 for (theta0 = 40; theta0 <= 140; theta0 += 100)
148 {
149 //The field containing the tracers will need the superficial tension
150 //coefficient to build the interface.
151 f.sigma = sigma_Vec[z];
152
153 //This is the viscosity the field will use.
154 mu1 = mu_l_Vec[k];
155
156 //We modify the height-function field using the contact_angle() macro

```

```

    , thus imposing the contact angle.

154 h.t[left] = (fabs(y) >= my_H*0.5) ? contact_angle(theta0*pi/180.) :
0.;

155

156 //We then have to pass the information to the tracers field.

157 f.height = h;

158

159 //We give the two directories a name based on the Reynolds and Webers
.

160 sprintf(Nomedir,"Re_%0.f_We_%0.f", my_H*my_rho_l*my_U/(mu_l_Vec[k]*2)
,(my_rho_l*pow(my_U,2)*my_H)/(2*sigma_Vec[z]));

161 sprintf(Nomedir2,"Re_%0.f_We_%0.f/Snapshot_theta_%0.f", my_H*my_rho_l
*my_U/(mu_l_Vec[k]*2),(my_rho_l*pow(my_U,2)*my_H)/(2*sigma_Vec[z]),
theta0);

162

163 //We make the directories.

164 if (mkdir(Nomedir, 0777) == -1)
    printf("Error");

165 else
    printf("\nDirectory created\n");

166

167 if (mkdir(Nomedir2, 0777) == -1)
    printf("Error");

168 else
    printf("\nDirectory created\n");

169

170 //We make the names for the different files that are going to be
created, the first six are a zoom at the inlet for each variable.

171 sprintf(Nomefile3,"Re_%0.f_We_%0.f/ux_jet_theta_%0.f_zoom.mp4",my_H*
my_rho_l*my_U/(mu_l_Vec[k]*2),(my_rho_l*pow(my_U,2)*my_H)/(2*
sigma_Vec[z]),theta0);

172 sprintf(Nomefile4,"Re_%0.f_We_%0.f/uy_jet_theta_%0.f_zoom.mp4",my_H*
my_rho_l*my_U/(mu_l_Vec[k]*2),(my_rho_l*pow(my_U,2)*my_H)/(2*
sigma_Vec[z]),theta0);

```

```

177 sprintf(Nomefile5 , "Re_%0.f_We_%0.f/ux_theta_%0.f_zoom.mp4" ,my_H*
178   my_rho_l*my_U/(mu_l_Vec[k]*2) ,(my_rho_l*pow(my_U,2)*my_H)/(2*
179     sigma_Vec[z]) ,theta0);
180
181 sprintf(Nomefile6 , "Re_%0.f_We_%0.f/uy_theta_%0.f_zoom.mp4" ,my_H*
182   my_rho_l*my_U/(mu_l_Vec[k]*2) ,(my_rho_l*pow(my_U,2)*my_H)/(2*
183     sigma_Vec[z]) ,theta0);
184
185 sprintf(Nomefile7 , "Re_%0.f_We_%0.f/f_theta_%0.f_zoom.mp4" ,my_H*
186   my_rho_l*my_U/(mu_l_Vec[k]*2) ,(my_rho_l*pow(my_U,2)*my_H)/(2*
187     sigma_Vec[z]) ,theta0);
188
189 //We then name all the .mp4s that will contain the fields.
190
191 sprintf(Nomefile20 , "Re_%0.f_We_%0.f/ux_jet_theta_%0.f.mp4" ,my_H*
192   my_rho_l*my_U/(mu_l_Vec[k]*2) ,(my_rho_l*pow(my_U,2)*my_H)/(2*
193     sigma_Vec[z]) ,theta0);
194
195 sprintf(Nomefile21 , "Re_%0.f_We_%0.f/uy_jet_theta_%0.f.mp4" ,my_H*
196   my_rho_l*my_U/(mu_l_Vec[k]*2) ,(my_rho_l*pow(my_U,2)*my_H)/(2*
197     sigma_Vec[z]) ,theta0);
198
199 sprintf(Nomefile22 , "Re_%0.f_We_%0.f/ux_theta_%0.f.mp4" ,my_H*my_rho_l*
200   my_U/(mu_l_Vec[k]*2) ,(my_rho_l*pow(my_U,2)*my_H)/(2*sigma_Vec[z]),
201   theta0);
202
203 sprintf(Nomefile23 , "Re_%0.f_We_%0.f/uy_theta_%0.f.mp4" ,my_H*my_rho_l*
204   my_U/(mu_l_Vec[k]*2) ,(my_rho_l*pow(my_U,2)*my_H)/(2*sigma_Vec[z]),
205   theta0);
206
207 sprintf(Nomefile24 , "Re_%0.f_We_%0.f/f_theta_%0.f.mp4" ,my_H*my_rho_l*
208   my_U/(mu_l_Vec[k]*2) ,(my_rho_l*pow(my_U,2)*my_H)/(2*sigma_Vec[z]),
209   theta0);
210
211 sprintf (Nomefile30 , "Re_%0.f_We_%0.f/" , my_H*my_rho_l*my_U/(mu_l_Vec
212   [k]*2) ,(my_rho_l*pow(my_U,2)*my_H)/(2*sigma_Vec[z]));
213
214
215 //We run the solver.
216
217 run();
218
219 }

```

```

192 }
193
194 //Event defining the initial conditions, t = 0 is the condition needed
195 //for the event to happen.
196 event init (t = 0) {
197
198 //We use a foreach() to iterate on all the cells in our fields.
199 foreach() {
200 //We impose that the liquid phase is only present between 0.5*my_H
201 //and -0.5*my_H.
202 f[] = fabs(y) <= 0.5*my_H ? 1. : 0.;
203 //We impose parabolic (Poissonne) flow in the liquid phase, along
204 //the x direction.
205 u.x[] = fabs(y) <= 0.5*my_H ? (-my_u_p*sq(y)/sq(0.5*my_H)+my_u_p) :
206 0.;
207 //We impose y-component equal to zero.
208 u.y[] = 0.;
209 p[] = 0;
210 }
211
212 //We use the boundary function to impose the BCs also on the fields
213 //defined in the CIs.
214 boundary({f,u.x,u.y,p});
215
216 //We then save the level field in our field l[].
217 int n1=pow(2,my_maxlev);
218 scalar l[];
219 foreach()
220 l[] = level;
221 boundary({l});
222
223 //We then define these new fields, only containing the liquid phase's
224 //velocities and pressure.

```

```

220 scalar u_jet[],v_jet[],p_jet[],y_jet[];
221 foreach() {
222     u_jet[] = f[]*u.x[];
223     v_jet[] = f[]*u.y[];
224     p_jet[] = f[]*p[];
225     y_jet[] = f[]*y;
226 }
227 //We apply boundaries on our newly defined fields.
228 boundary({u_jet,v_jet,p_jet,y_jet});
229
230 //We put them all in a scalar list.
231 scalar * list = {f,u_jet,v_jet,p_jet,y_jet};
232
233 //We then initiate profiling for our solver.
234 char name[50];
235 sprintf (name, "1Dt_%g.dat",0*pow(my_tEnd,-1));
236 profile_equi(list, x,n_cells, fname = name);
237 profile(list, x,fname = name);
238 }
239 }
240
241 //This event ends the run.
242 event end(t = my_tEnd) {
243     printf("\nThe run is finished.\n");
244 }
245
246 //This event will impose the contact angle at every timestep.
247 event contact (i++) {
248
249 //Just like in the main, we impose the contact_angle using the
250 //contact_angle() macro, which in turn modifies the height-function
251 h.t[left] = fabs(y) >= (0.5*my_H) ? contact_angle(theta0*pi/180.) : 0.;
252

```

```

253 //We print the theta variable, to know at which value we're iterating.
254 printf("\n%f\n",theta0);
255
256 //We then pass the information to the tracers field.
257 f.height = h;
258 }
259
260 //With this event we then introduce gravity, it is done at every
261 //timestep.
262 event acceleration (i++) {
263
264     //av[] is the vector that the navier-stokes solver will use to
265     //represent the acceleration. In this case, we just add 9.81
266     //every timestep.
267
268     face vector av = a;
269
270     foreach_face(x)
271
272         av.x[] += my_g;
273
274 }
275
276 //This event makes a logfile for each run.
277 event my_logfile (i++) {
278
279     //We define the file's name according to the Reynolds and the Webers.
280
281     FILE * p_file;
282
283     char Nomefile10[30];
284
285     sprintf(Nomefile10,"logfile_theta_%0.f_Re_%0.f.txt",theta0,my_H*
286             my_rho_l*my_U/(mu_l_Vec[k]*2));
287
288     //We create a pointer to the file.
289
290     p_file = fopen(Nomefile10, "a+");
291
292
293     //We write inside the file all of the solver parameters.
294
295     fprintf(p_file, "%d %g %d %d %g %g %g %g %d %d %g %g \n",
296             i,dt, mgp.i,mgu.i,mgp.resb,mgu.resb,mgp.resa,mgu.resa,mgp.nrelax,

```

```

mgu.nrelax ,TOLERANCE ,TOLERANCE/(dt*dt));
284 fclose(p_file);

285

286 //We print the timestep and the time at which we're at.
287 fprintf(stdout, "i = %d , t = %g\n", i, t);
288

289 }

290

291 //We initialize the variables and the fields that will be used inside
292 //the next event.

292 double du,dun;
293 scalar U_old[],U[];
294
295
296 //This event lets us check if there's convergence. It takes at each
297 //timestep the biggest variation of u.x[] and then puts it
297 //in a file.

298 event my_checkconv (i=0;i<=my_iter;i++) {
299 //We initialize the max variable and the udiff field.
300 double max = 0.;
301 scalar udiff[];
302
303 //We calculate the velocity's module for each cell.
304 foreach() {
305 U[] = sqrt(sq(u.x[])+sq(u.y[]));
306 }
307
308
309 //What's the reduction operator? It's an operator that lets us operate
310 //on various cells simultaneously (in parallel). It is needed
310 //because if, for example, we're looking for the max variable it can
310 //happen that a variable is accessed and written in
311 //simultaneously, invalidating the result of the operation. Reduction
311 //allows to choose the criteria with which we will choose which

```

```

312 //variable to actually write, if a cell is accessed simultaneously. For
313   example, the + means that if two values are being written
314 //at the same time, what will be written inside the cell is the sum. In
315   our case, with max, we will only pick the bigger value.
316
317 foreach(reduction(max:max)) {
318
319 //We calculate the difference between the module now, and the module at
320   the previous timestep.
320 udiff[] = fabs(U[] - U_old[]);
321
322 //We put this value inside ds.
323 double ds = fabs(U[] - U_old[]);
324
325 //We confront the value now obtained with the maximum value ever
326   obtained. If it's bigger, then ds will be the new max.
326 if (ds > max && fabs(y) < 0.5*my_H)
327   max = ds;
328 }
329 boundary((scalar*){udiff});
330
331 //Now, the maximum variation was found, and it is put inside du.
332 du = max;
333
334 //We calculate the average variation.
335 dun = normf(udiff).avg;
336
337 //We now put the velocity field inside U_old[], so that at the next
338   timestep the value will have changed.
338 foreach(reduction(max:max))
339   U_old[] = U[];

```

```

340
341 //We define the name of the file that will contain the maximum and the
342 //average variations for each timestep.
343 char Nomefile[30];
344 sprintf(Nomefile, "CheckConv_Theta_%0.f",theta0);
345
346 //We define the name of the file that will contain the parameters for
347 //each timestep.
348 char Nomefile2[30];
349 sprintf(Nomefile2, "Check_param_Theta_%0.f",theta0);
350
351 //We create pointers to the files.
352 FILE * fp_dvar = fopen(Nomefile, "a+");
353 FILE * fp_dpar = fopen(Nomefile2, "a+");
354
355 //Wr write inside the files.
356 fprintf (fp_dvar, "%d %g %g %g \n",i,t,du*pow(my_U,-1),dun);
357 fclose (fp_dvar);
358 fprintf (fp_dpar, "%g %g %g %g %g %g \n",my_r_rho,my_r_mu,my_RE,my_FR,
359 my_WE,my_tEnd);
360 fclose (fp_dpar);
361
362 }
363
364 //This event produces the outputs.
365 event output (i++) {
366
367 //It saves the grid in a field.
368 scalar l[];
369 int n1=pow(2,my_maxlev);
370 foreach()
371 l[] = level;
372 boundary({l});

```

```

371 //We redefine the fields only containing the liquid phase's velocities.
372 scalar u_jett[], v_jett[];
373 foreach(){
374     u_jett[] = f[]*u.x[];
375     v_jett[] = f[]*u.y[];
376 }
377
378 //We produce an .mp4 containing the grid.
379 output_ppm(l, file = Nomefile11);
380
381 //We produce all the .mp4s containing the fields, but there's a zoom at
382 //the inlet (to check for contact angle).
383 //The third option, linear = true, allows us to interpolate where the
384 //level isnt high enough.
385 output_ppm(u_jett, file = Nomefile3, linear = true, box = {{0,-1.3*my_H
386 },{my_L/10, 1.3*my_H}});
387 output_ppm(v_jett, file = Nomefile4, linear = true, box = {{0,-1.3*my_H
388 },{my_L/10, 1.3*my_H}});
389 output_ppm(u.x, file = Nomefile5, linear = true, box = {{0,-1.3*my_H},{my_L/5, 2*my_H}});
390 output_ppm(u.y, file = Nomefile6, linear = true, box = {{0,-2*my_H},{my_L/5, 2*my_H}});
391 output_ppm(f, file = Nomefile7, box = {{0,-2*my_H},{my_L/10, 2*my_H}});

392
393 //We produce all the .mp4s containing the fields.
394 output_ppm(u_jett, file = Nomefile20, linear = true);
395 output_ppm(v_jett, file = Nomefile21, linear = true);
396 output_ppm(u.x, file = Nomefile22, linear = true);
397 output_ppm(u.y, file = Nomefile23, linear = true);
398 output_ppm(f, file = Nomefile24, linear = true);

399
400 //If the stationary regime is reached (t > my_t_start) every 6000
401 //timestep it will take a snapshot.
402 if ((i % 6000) == 0 && t > my_t_start){

```

```

398 //We initialize the strings that will be used to give a name to the
      Snapshots.
399 char Nomefile31[100];
400 char Nomefile32[100];
401 char Nomefile33[100];
402 char Nomefile34[100];
403
404 //We put the name inside the strings.
405 sprintf (Nomefile31, "Snapshot_theta_%0.f/t_%f.dat", theta0 , t);
406 strcpy (Nomefile32,Nomefile30);
407 strcat (Nomefile32,Nomefile31);
408
409 sprintf (Nomefile33,"time_theta_%0.f", theta0);
410 strcpy (Nomefile34,Nomefile30);
411 strcat (Nomefile34,Nomefile33);
412
413 //We create a pointer to the file.
414 FILE * fp_snap = fopen (Nomefile32 , "w");
415 //We output the field.
416 output_field ({u.x, u.y, f, p}, fp_snap , n=n1, linear = true, box =
        {{0.0,-my_H},{my_L,my_H}});
417 fclose (fp_snap);
418
419 //We create the file containing the times at which the snapshots were
      taken.
420 FILE * fp_time = fopen(Nomefile34 , "a+");
421 fprintf (fp_time , "%f\n" , t);
422 fclose (fp_time);
423
424 }
425 }
426 //This event is needed to adapt the grid to the tracer's variation.
      Basically we increase the resolution until the error
427 //is less than 1e-5.

```

```

428 event adapt (i++) {
429 //To do this, we used the adapt_wavelet function.
430 adapt_wavelet ({f}, (double []){1e-5}, minlevel = my_minlev, maxlevel =
431   my_maxlev);
431 adapt_wavelet ({u.x}, (double []){1e-5}, minlevel = my_minlev, maxlevel
432   = my_maxlev);
432 adapt_wavelet ({u.y}, (double []){1e-5}, minlevel = my_minlev, maxlevel
433   = my_maxlev);
433 //We refine our grid.
434 refine(x > -1. && fabs(y) < my_H && level < my_maxlev);
435 }

```

Listing 3.4: Implementation of Contact Angle

Chapter 4

Data-Driven Modal Analysis

4.1 Proper orthogonal decomposition

Proper orthogonal decomposition (POD) is a modal decomposition approach aimed at identifying an optimal collection of eigenfunctions, which form a spatial orthogonal basis. This technique offers an impartial algorithm for breaking down a dataset into the fewest possible basis functions or modes, aiming to capture the maximum energy. Consequently, it is utilized in creating succinct, low-dimensional representations of turbulent fluid flows.

In the context of applying POD to a fluid flow, we initiate the process with a vector field $\mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{x}, t)$ after subtracting its temporal mean $\bar{\mathbf{q}}(\mathbf{x})$. It is assumed that the unsteady component of the vector field can be decomposed as follows:

$$\mathbf{q}(\mathbf{x}, t) = \mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{x}, t) - \bar{\mathbf{q}}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{+\infty} a_j(t) \varphi_j(\mathbf{x}) \quad (4.1)$$

where $\varphi_j(\mathbf{x}, t)$ and $a_j(t)$ denote the modes and the time-dependent expansion coefficients, respectively. By removing the mean from the vector field, we observe how the flow field diverges from the average at each moment. Through POD, $\mathbf{q}(\mathbf{x}, t)$ is split into a series of spatially orthogonal modes φ_j (i.e., $\langle \varphi_j, \varphi_k \rangle_x = \delta_{jk}$) and temporal coefficients $a_j(t)$. The goal is to find the most effective way to reconstruct the vector field with the minimal number of methods.

First, we arrange the snapshots of the vector field into a column vector $\mathbf{q}(\mathbf{x}, t) = \mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{x}, t) - \bar{\mathbf{q}}(\mathbf{x})$, for $t = t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m$, where m represents the number of snapshots. Once we've obtained the snapshot vector, it's practical to format our discrete data into a matrix:

$$\mathbf{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | & | \\ \mathbf{q}_1 & \mathbf{q}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{q}_k & \dots & \mathbf{q}_m \\ | & | & | & | \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m} \quad (4.2)$$

In this scenario, each column \mathbf{q}_k represents our state vector for the respective snapshot k , encapsulating all components of the vector field \mathbf{q}_i at each position \mathbf{x}_j . Using these snapshots, discrete Proper Orthogonal Decomposition (POD) modes and eigenvalues are derived by examining the covariance matrix \mathbf{C} , which is defined as follows:

$$\mathbf{C} = \frac{1}{m-1} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{Q}^*, \quad \mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \quad (4.3)$$

Here, the operator $*$ denotes the complex-conjugate operator. Solving the corresponding eigenvalue problem yields:

$$\mathbf{Q} \mathbf{Q}^* \varphi_k = \lambda_k \varphi_k \quad (4.4)$$

where the factor $\frac{1}{m-1}$ is incorporated into the eigenvalues λ_k . Clearly, the eigenvectors of the covariance matrix yield the optimal directions for representing variations in our vector state. Additionally, the symmetry of the matrix $\mathbf{Q} \mathbf{Q}^*$ ensures the orthogonality of the eigenvectors φ_k . By arranging the eigenfunctions φ_k into a matrix Ψ with dimensions $n \times n$, we formulate relation (4.1) as:

$$\mathbf{Q} = \Psi \mathbf{a} \quad (4.5)$$

Since the autofunctions are mutually orthogonal, the Ψ matrix is both unitary and invertible. As a result, the time-dependent coefficients \mathbf{a} can be calculated as:

$$\mathbf{a} = \Psi^* \mathbf{Q} \quad (4.6)$$

As the eigenvalues λ_k from Eq. (4.4) are sorted in descending order, the POD modes illustrate their significance in capturing the flow field's kinetic energy. Thus, by selecting only r crucial modes, fluctuations in the flow field data can be represented using the relation:

$$\sum_{j=1}^r \lambda_j / \sum_{j=1}^{+\infty} \lambda_j \approx 1 \quad (4.7)$$

This simplifies Eq. (4.1) to:

$$\mathbf{q}(\mathbf{x}, t) = \sum_{j=1}^r a_j(t) \varphi_j(\mathbf{x}) \quad (4.8)$$

In the discrete framework, the matrix \mathbf{a} has dimensions $r \times m$ instead of $n \times m$, achieving dimensionality reduction.

4.1.1 Relationship between SVD and POD

When the spatial dimension of the data n is significantly large, the covariance matrix size $\mathbf{C} = \frac{1}{m-1} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{Q}^*$ becomes extensive ($n \times n$). Using the classical spatial Proper Orthogonal Decomposition (POD) method for searching the eigenfunctions becomes computationally inconvenient. In addressing this challenge, since POD decomposition is connected to Singular Value Decomposition (SVD), the issue can be resolved. The data matrix $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ can be decomposed as:

$$\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{\Psi} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{\Phi}^* \quad (4.9)$$

Where $\mathbf{\Psi} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $\mathbf{\Sigma} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$, and $\mathbf{\Phi} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$. The matrix $\mathbf{\Psi}$ holds the left eigenvectors of $\mathbf{Q} \mathbf{Q}^*$ as columns, matrix $\mathbf{\Phi}$ includes the right eigenvectors of $\mathbf{Q}^* \mathbf{Q}$ as columns, and the matrix $\mathbf{\Sigma}$ contains the singular values $(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_m)$ along the main diagonal, which correspond to the eigenvalues λ_k of Eq. (4.4) by $\sigma_k^2 = \lambda_k$. This implies that, especially in fluid dynamics applications, $n \gg m$, making it computationally more feasible to compute eigenvectors and eigenvalues of $\mathbf{Q}^* \mathbf{Q}$ ($m \times m$) rather than $\mathbf{Q} \mathbf{Q}^*$ ($n \times n$). After $\mathbf{\Phi}$ and $\mathbf{\Sigma}$ are calculated for this smaller problem, by inverting the relation (??), $\mathbf{\Psi}$ can be easily reconstructed by

$$\mathbf{\Psi} = \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} \quad (4.10)$$

This method, using the SVD, is called the *method of snapshots*.

4.1.2 Utilization in Thin Liquid Sheet Scenarios

The POD method is used for particular configurations with thin liquid sheets. For analysis, it is essential to gather the disturbance components of velocity, labeled U and V , and changes in volume fraction, marked as C . Specifically, for each snapshot, a column state vector is formed,

covering every point on the numerical grid. The following snapshots are then obtained:

$$u = U - \bar{U}$$

$$v = V - \bar{V}$$

$$c = C - \bar{C}$$

and then they are stacked in the following matrix:

$$\mathbf{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11}^1 & u_{11}^2 & \cdots & u_{11}^k & \cdots & u_{11}^m \\ u_{21}^1 & u_{21}^2 & \cdots & u_{21}^k & \cdots & u_{21}^m \\ | & | & & | & & | \\ u_{n_y 1}^1 & u_{n_y 1}^2 & \cdots & u_{n_y 1}^k & \cdots & u_{n_y 1}^m \\ | & | & & | & & | \\ u_{n_y n_x}^1 & u_{n_y n_x}^2 & \cdots & u_{n_y n_x}^k & \cdots & u_{n_y n_x}^m \\ \hline v_{11}^1 & v_{11}^2 & \cdots & v_{11}^k & \cdots & v_{11}^m \\ v_{21}^1 & v_{21}^2 & \cdots & v_{21}^k & \cdots & v_{21}^m \\ | & | & & | & & | \\ v_{n_y 1}^1 & v_{n_y 1}^2 & \cdots & v_{n_y 1}^k & \cdots & v_{n_y 1}^m \\ | & | & & | & & | \\ v_{n_y n_x}^1 & v_{n_y n_x}^2 & \cdots & v_{n_y n_x}^k & \cdots & v_{n_y n_x}^m \\ \hline c_{11}^1 & c_{11}^2 & \cdots & c_{11}^k & \cdots & c_{11}^m \\ c_{21}^1 & c_{21}^2 & \cdots & c_{21}^k & \cdots & c_{21}^m \\ | & | & & | & & | \\ c_{n_y 1}^1 & c_{n_y 1}^2 & \cdots & c_{n_y 1}^k & \cdots & c_{n_y 1}^m \\ | & | & & | & & | \\ c_{n_y n_x}^1 & c_{n_y n_x}^2 & \cdots & c_{n_y n_x}^k & \cdots & c_{n_y n_x}^m \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times m} \quad (4.11)$$

where $N = 3 \times n_x \times n_y$ and m is the number of the snapshots.

Chapter 5

Investigation and Results

The paper intends to analyze a flow field characterized by a Weber number ($We = \frac{\rho U^2 H}{2\sigma} = 0.75$) and a Reynolds number ($Re = \frac{\rho UL}{\mu} = 1635$). The velocity profile's behavior is influenced by the magnitude of the Weber number. When $We > 1$, the flow velocity is considered supercritical; when $We < 1$, as in our study, it is subcritical. In this subcritical domain, the investigation shows a mixed sinuous-varicose motion pattern, affected by changes in the Reynolds number. Notably, it is also the high Reynolds number that contributes to the appearance of varicose modes, as shown in Figure (5.1b).

Utilizing the Proper Orthogonal Decomposition (POD) technique on liquid sheets verifies the dominance of varicose traits in the fluid movement. This method facilitates the detection and reconstruction of critical elements, offering a highly precise approximation of the real flow field.

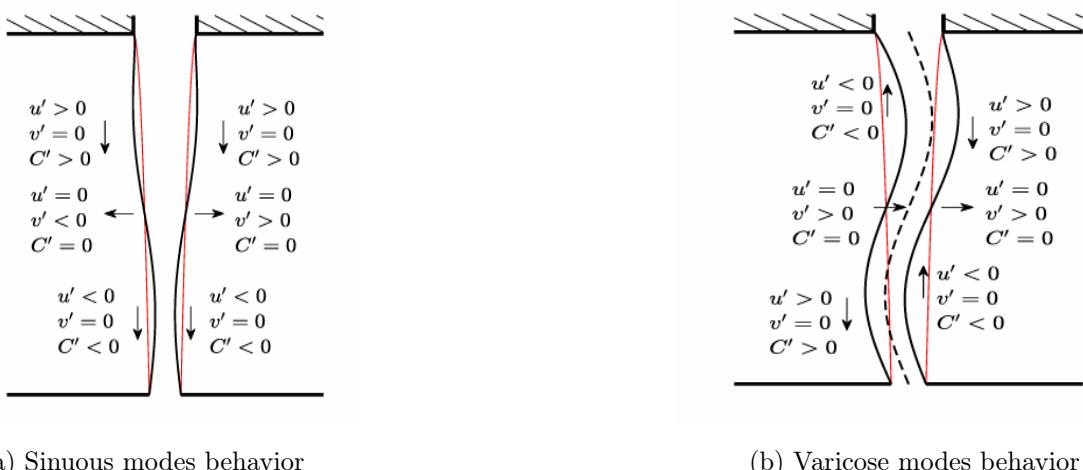


Figure 5.1: Fluid flow behavior

The tables (5.1) and (5.2) show the numerical data used in MATLAB codes.

Name	Parameter	Supercritical regime
Liquid density	ρ_l	$997 \text{ Kg}/(\text{m}^3)$
Liquid viscosity	μ_l	$2.25 \times 10^{-4} \text{ Kg}/(\text{ms})$
Gas density	ρ_g	$9.97 \text{ Kg}/(\text{m}^3)$
Gas viscosity	μ_g	$1.84 \times 10^{-5} \text{ Kg}/(\text{ms})$
Surface tension	σ	0.241 N/m
Gravity acceleration	g	$9.81 \text{ m}/(\text{s}^2)$
Inlet mean velocity	U_i	$4.92 \times 10^{-1} \text{ m/s}$
Inlet sheet thickness	H_i	$1.50 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}$
Liquid sheet length	L	$7.50 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}$

Table 5.1: Supercritical regime data

Name	Parameter	Supercritical regime
Density ratio	$r_\rho = \rho_g/\rho_l$	0.01
Viscosity ratio	$r_\mu = \mu_g/\mu_l$	8.17×10^{-2}
Slenderness ratio	$\epsilon = H_i/L$	0.02
Reynolds number	$\text{Re} = \frac{\rho_l U_i H_i}{2\mu_l}$	1635
Froude number	$\text{Fr} = \frac{U_i^2}{gL}$	3.29×10^{-1}
Weber number	$\text{We} = \frac{\rho_l U_i^2 H_i}{2\sigma}$	0.75

Table 5.2: Supercritical regime dimensionless data

5.1 Subcritical Regime

In this section, we explore the **Subcritical Regime** ($We < 1$) and we further delve into what was previously said. In this setting, we see a combined sinuous-varicose motion, the predominance of which hinges on changes in the Reynolds number. At lower Re values, sinuous motion prevails, whereas at higher Re values, varicose motion is more evident (as observed by Colanera *et al.* [5]). For the purposes of this investigation, we focus solely on the case where $Re = 1635$.

Prior to implementing the POD decomposition technique, we showcase the mean motion fields and the 100th snapshot of U , V , and C to offer insight into fluid flow patterns, as illustrated in Figures 5.2 and 5.3 respectively:

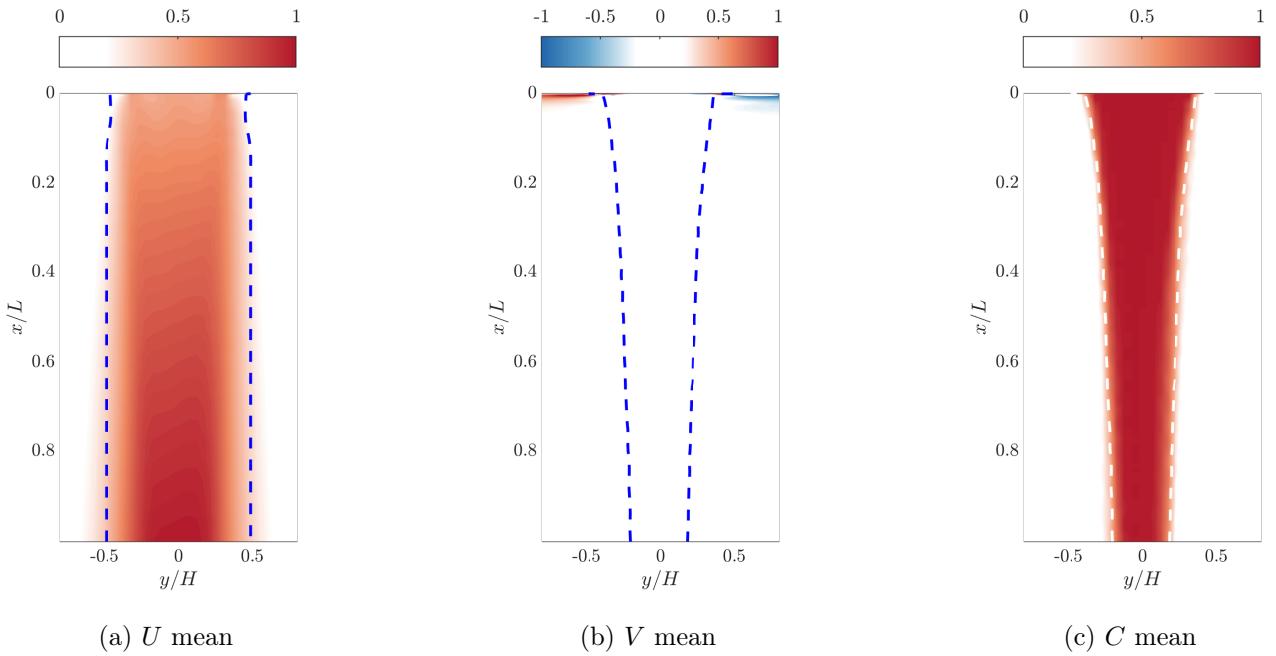


Figure 5.2: Mean values of the flow field parameters U, V , and C in subcritical regime for $We = 0.75$ and $Re = 413$

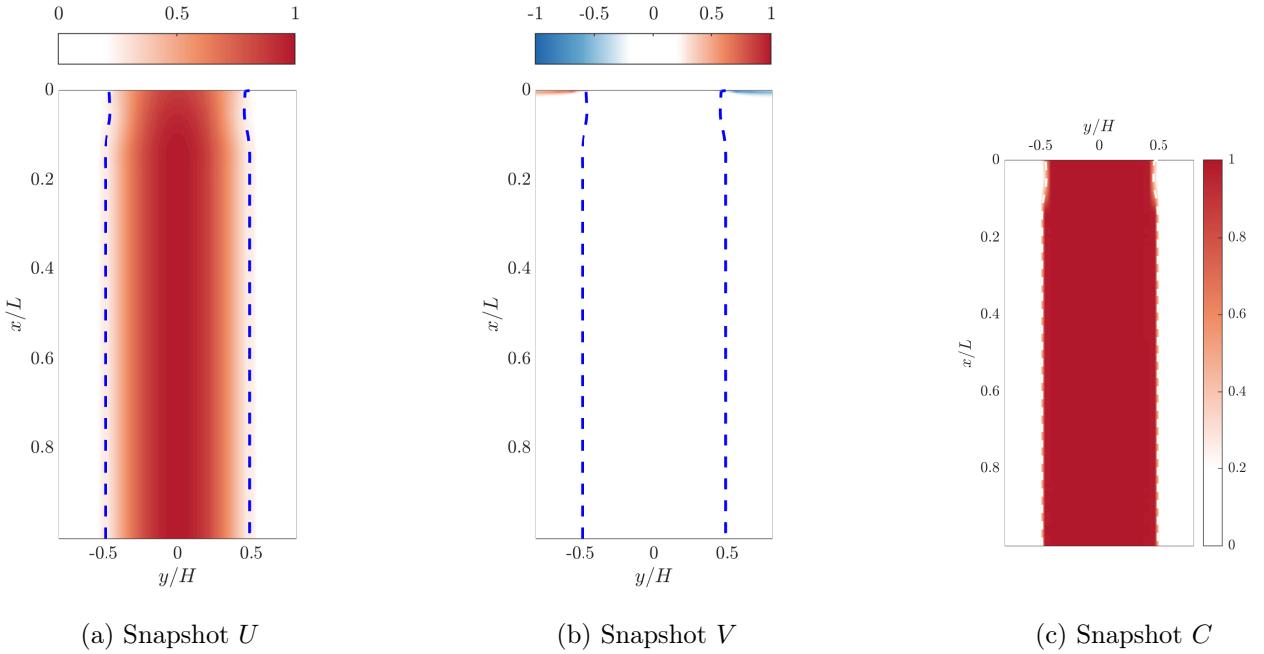


Figure 5.3: 100th snapshot of U, V , and C in subcritical regime for $\text{We} = 0.75$ and $\text{Re} = 1635$

Upon increasing the Reynolds number to 1635 (in comparison with Colanera's findings which implements a lower Reynolds [5]), significant changes occur in the fluid flow behavior, with the varicose component becoming more prominent.

After applying the POD decomposition technique, the primary modes of the velocity components (u, v) and of the volume fraction c are shown in Figure (5.4).

From the graphical representation, similarly to the supercritical case, we can observe that in mode 1, u exhibits antisymmetric behavior, v shows symmetry, and c displays antisymmetry.

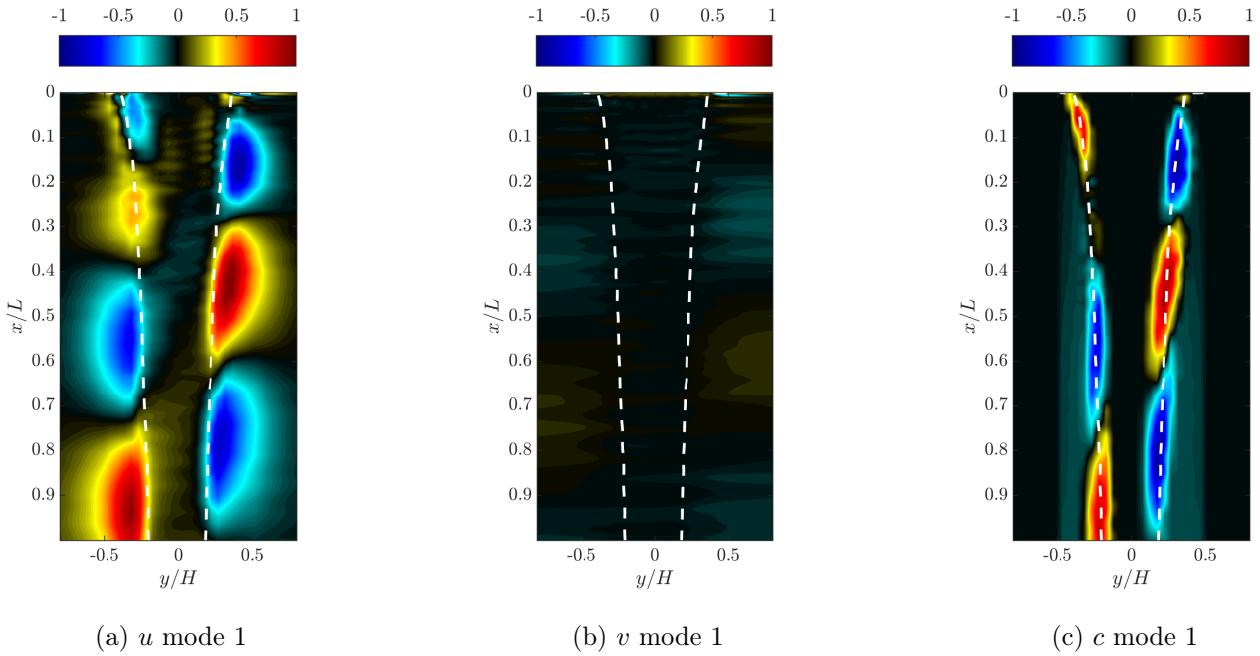


Figure 5.4: Mode 1 of u, v , and c in subcritical regime for $\text{We} = 0.75$ and $\text{Re} = 1635$

5.1.1 Symmetric and antisymmetric decomposition

After applying POD in the subcritical case for $\text{Re} = 1635$, it can be observed that the first mode (ϕ_1) of velocity (u, v) and concentration (c) does not display any distinct symmetries. However, it is possible to decompose each component into its symmetric and antisymmetric parts. In general, any mode ϕ_j can be decomposed as follows:

$$\phi_j = \phi_j^s(x) + \phi_j^v(x) \quad (5.1)$$

where ϕ_j^s and ϕ_j^v in eq:5.1 are defined as:

$$\phi_j^s(x, y) = [\phi_j(x, y) - \phi_j(x, -y)]/2 \quad (5.2)$$

$$\phi_j^v(x, y) = [\phi_j(x, y) + \phi_j(x, -y)]/2 \quad (5.3)$$

We represent u 's decomposition in figure (5.5), v 's decomposition in figure (5.6) and c 's

decomposition in figure (5.7).

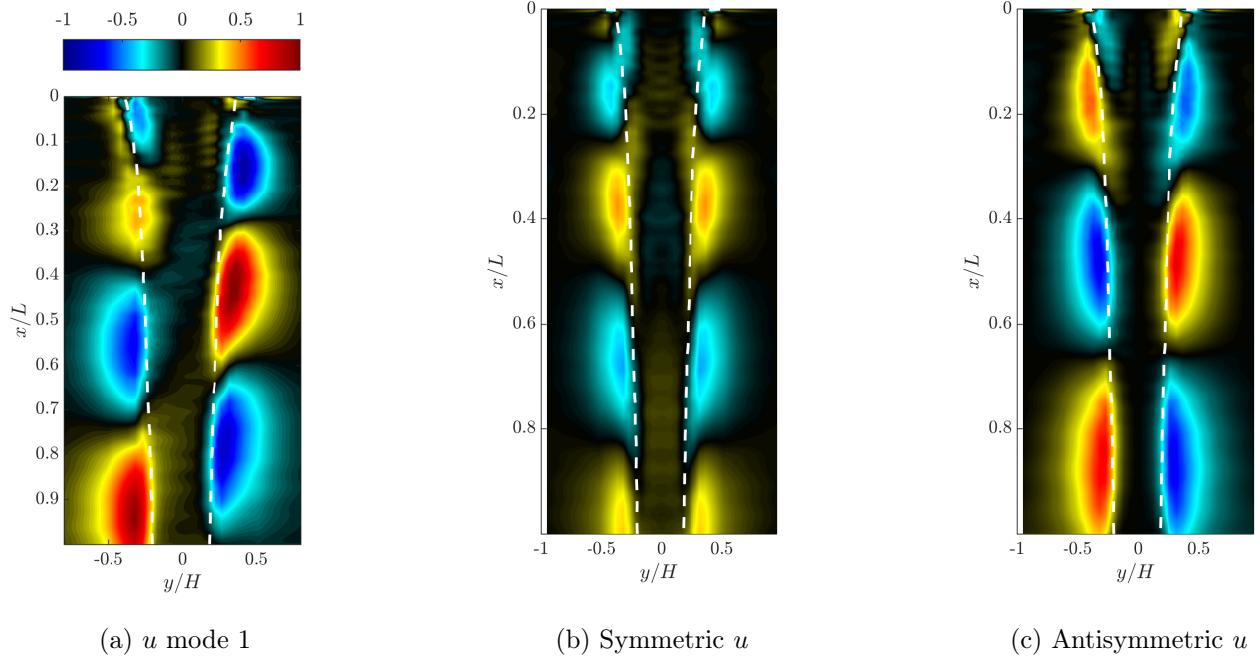


Figure 5.5: Decomposition of mode 1 of u , case subcritical regime for $\text{Re} = 1635$

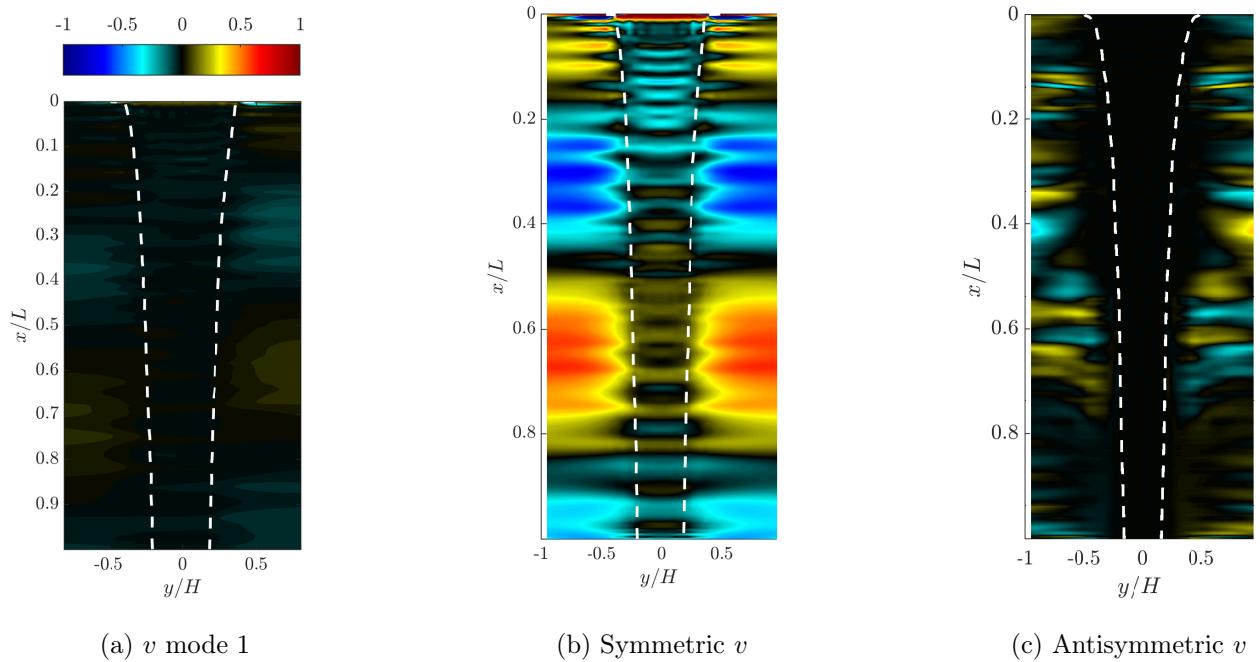


Figure 5.6: Decomposition of mode 1 of v , case subcritical regime for $\text{Re} = 1635$

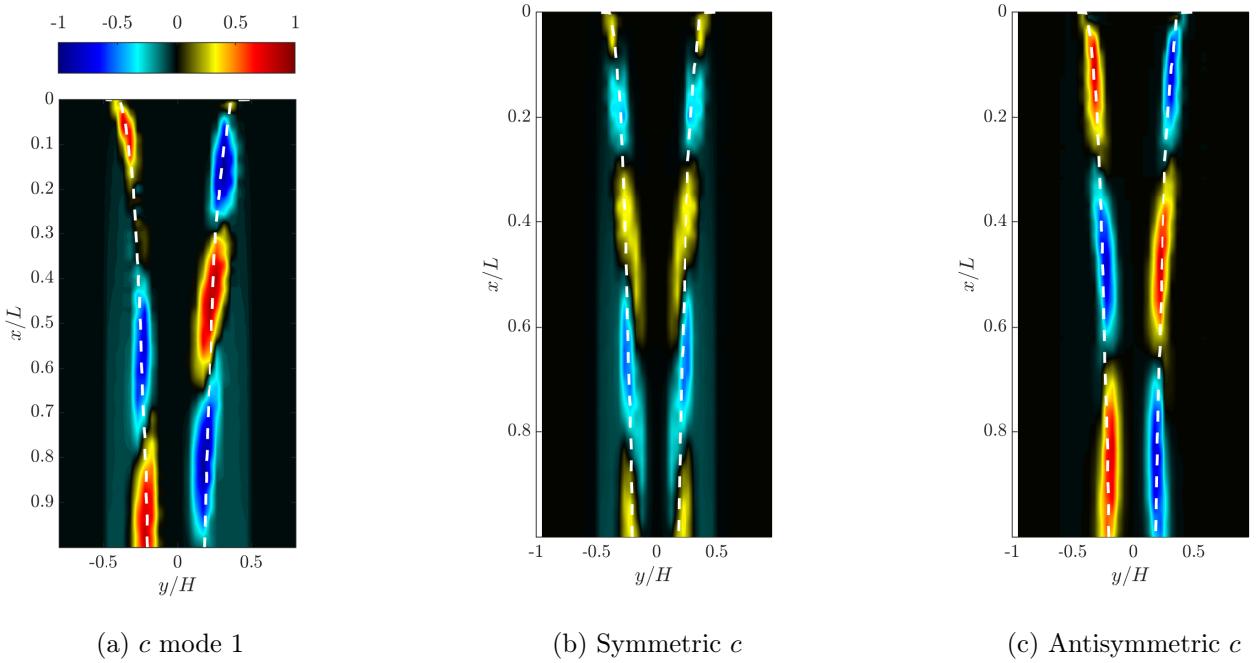


Figure 5.7: Decomposition of mode 1 of c , case subcritical regime for $\text{Re} = 1635$

It is evident (from panels 5.5, 5.6 and 5.7) that each component shows both symmetry and asymmetry, indicating a mix of varicose and sinuous behavior.

The emergence of the varicose component results from nonlinear coupling under resonance conditions, where the sheet is driven by a frequency matching its principal natural frequency, aided by low Weber numbers. As noted in [5], at the lowest forcing frequency, the varicose contribution becomes increasingly significant (in terms of energy) as the Weber number (We) decreases, peaking at $We = 0.75$, while the sinuous contribution rises with We .

The excitation of the varicose mode with decreasing Weber numbers, along with a gradual shift from higher harmonics to the principal frequency, can be seen as a precursor to the liquid sheet's rupture. This phenomenon is experimentally observed when We is reduced by progressively lowering the inlet flow rate (e.g., de Luca and Meola [6]). Le Grand-Piteira *et al.* [9] have similarly suggested that the progressive thinning of the sheet observed as the inlet Weber number decreases into the subcritical regime may be one of the mechanisms leading to rupture in a three-dimensional liquid curtain configuration.

Furthermore, by analyzing phase shifts in the modes, a half or full wavelength is evident in modes 4 and 5, as shown in Figure 5.8. This indicates the presence of a traveling wave, with the phase shift showing the wave's propagation direction. This hypothesis can be confirmed by simply analyzing the frequency content of said modes. Indeed, they show a continuous spectrum

of frequencies, as depicted in Figure 5.9, with the frequencies of modes 4 and 5 highlighted in magenta and yellow, respectively.

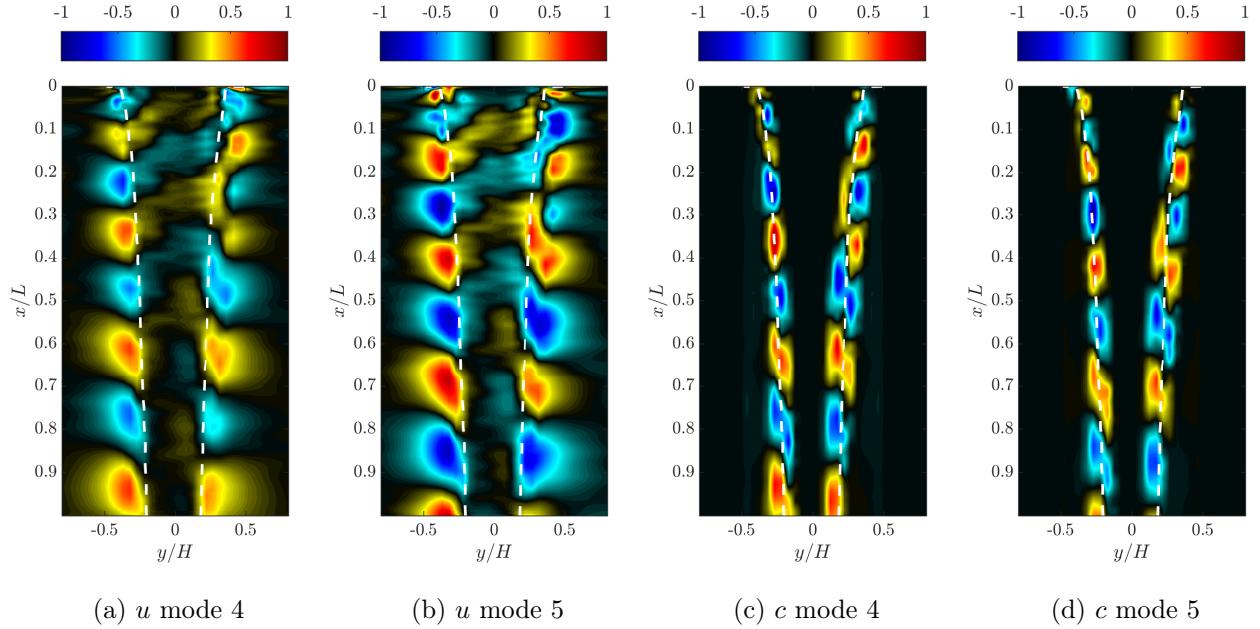


Figure 5.8: Mode 4 and 5 of u and c in subcritical regime for $We = 0.75$ and $Re = 1635$

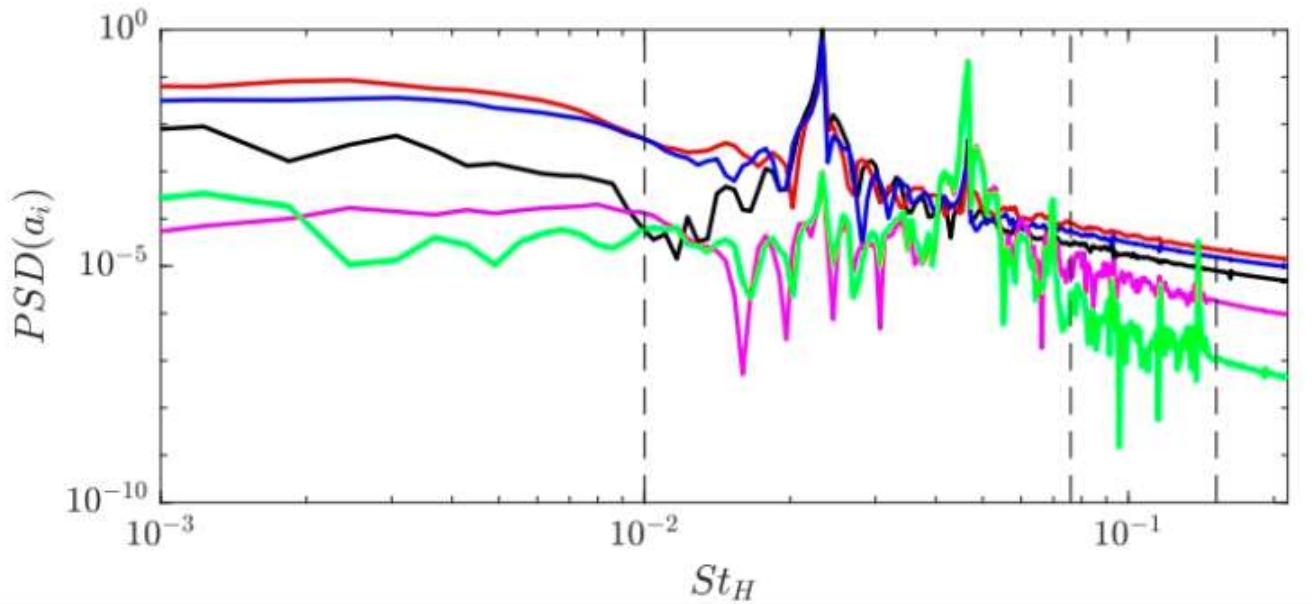


Figure 5.9: Power Spectral Density of some selected a_j for $We = 0.75$ and $Re = 1635$ (mode's color are black, red, blue, magenta and green respectively for the modes from 1 to 5)

5.1.2 Mode's energy and frequency analysis

The advantage of using Proper Orthogonal Decomposition (POD) lies in its capacity to simplify flow field reconstruction by selecting only a subset of modes. Essentially, this method streamlines the problem by allowing the selection of modes based on their significance in capturing the kinetic energy of the flow field. This flexibility makes the reconstruction process more efficient, enabling a focused analysis. This characteristic is demonstrated in the following figures, where the POD modes are plotted against energy (represented by dimensionless eigenvalues) in Figure 5.11a, and the cumulative energy ratio (ER) in Figure 5.11b, defined as:

$$ER = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^k \sigma_j^2}{\sum_{j=1}^m \sigma_j^2} \quad (5.4)$$

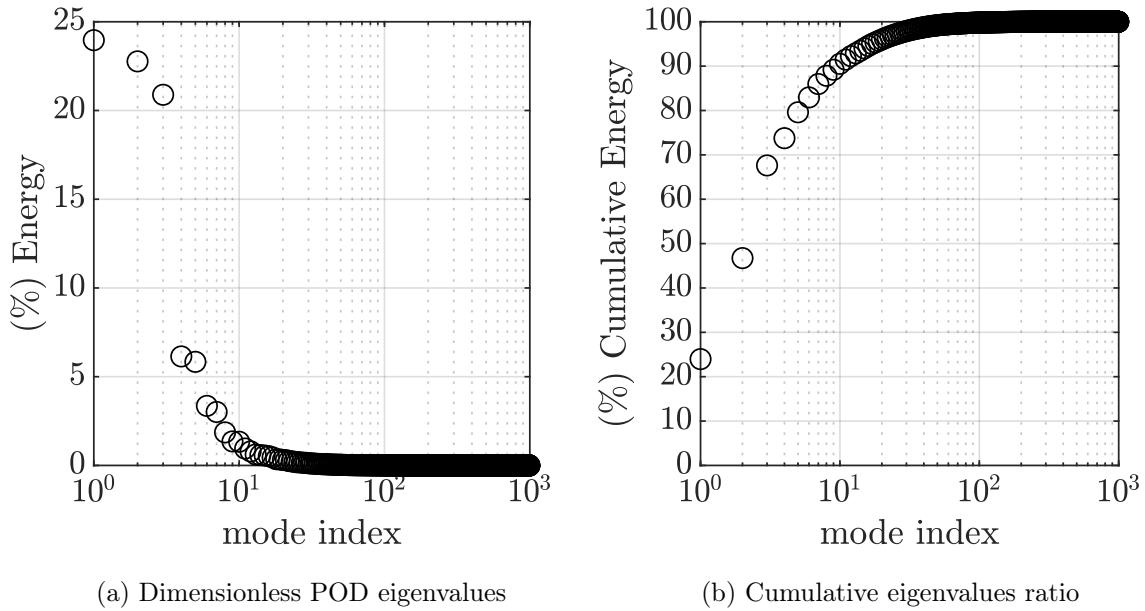


Figure 5.10: Kinetic Energy in subcritical regime for $Re = 1635$

Since the eigenvalues are sorted from largest to smallest, using the Proper Orthogonal Decomposition (POD) technique ensures that the first modes capture the most energy, as shown in Figure 5.11a. Remarkably, the initial 15 modes collectively account for approximately 99% of the total kinetic energy, as illustrated in Figure 5.11b. Notably, the kinetic energy associated with the POD modes beyond the initial ones declines rapidly.

Hence, if the goal is to select r modes for motion field reconstruction, choosing the foremost modes while excluding the later ones ensures an accurate approximation without significant in-

formation loss. Furthermore, when focusing on the initial modes, careful selection is nonetheless essential for reconstructing the motion field. This is evident from Figure 5.9, where although Mode 1 exhibits higher energy than Mode 5, the latter dominates at lower frequencies. Consequently, excluding Mode 5 from the reconstruction leads to significant information loss at lower frequencies. Therefore, the mode selection process is also guided by frequency analysis.

5.2 Result on contact angle

In this paper, we also sought to explore potential differences compared to the standard application by introducing a contact angle, denoted as θ_c , at the inlet. We established two configurations based on the value of θ_c : one set to 40° and the other to 140°. The parameters and configurations remained consistent with those examined in Section 5.1. We expected to observe variances between the 40-degree and 140-degree configurations, especially in the inlet profiles.

For the 40-degree configuration, we anticipated the flow cross-sectional area to initially decrease before stabilizing to the standard configuration observed previously. Conversely, for the 140-degree configuration, we expected an initial expansion of the flow section due to the larger angle. However, these modifications resulted in minimal changes to the liquid sheets, as shown in Figure (insert figure numbers), which presents snapshots of the C field. Remarkably, no significant alterations were observed.

The absence of substantial changes indicates one of two possibilities: either the impact of the contact angle is significantly smaller than the gravitational effects, or the expected variations are highly localized. The latter suggests the need for a finer grid and a more detailed investigation of the inlet region.

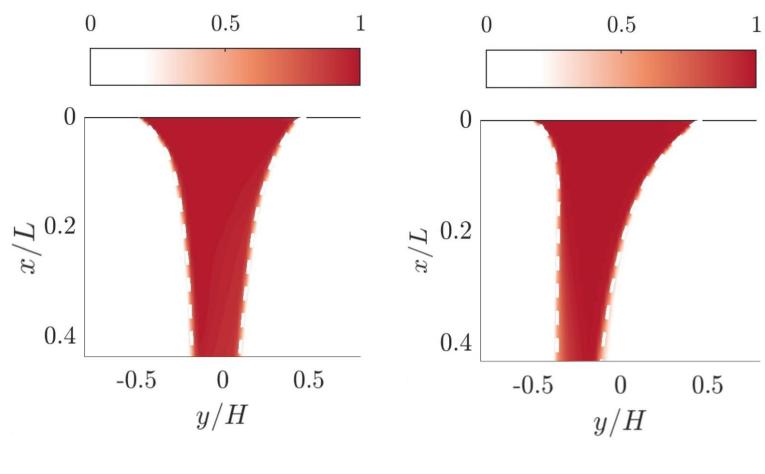


Figure 5.11: Closer look to C mean snapshot in configuration with contact angle

Chapter 6

Conclusion

The dynamics of a gravitational liquid sheet, perturbed by sinuous disturbances at the inlet section, has been successfully investigated through the careful application of the Proper Orthogonal Decomposition (POD) modal decomposition technique.

The investigation of the flow field at high Reynolds numbers in subcritical conditions has uncovered a sinuous-varicose behavior, representative of a traveling motion phenomenon. Applying the POD technique to the snapshots has enabled a decomposition of the analyzed flows, revealing various spatial structures (modes) each governed by temporal coefficients. Notably, the initial modes contain the majority of the energy, allowing for accurate reconstruction of the flow field.

Furthermore, applying the Fourier transform to the temporal coefficients has allowed a frequency domain analysis, confirming prior energy assessments and highlighting the need to carefully select the number of modes for reconstruction to prevent information loss across various frequency spectrum regions.

Subsequent reconstructions of the flow field with a different number of modes have shown better results with larger mode sets, underscoring the importance of mode selection. Furthermore, quantitative assessment via reconstruction errors has offered additional insights into the effectiveness of different configurations.

This investigation demonstrates the effectiveness of the POD decomposition technique in analyzing liquid sheets across various flow regimes, providing computational efficiency without accuracy losses.

Its applicability extends beyond this study to cover numerous aerospace phenomena, including Von Kármán shedding and Kelvin-Helmholtz instability.

In conclusion, the POD modal decomposition technique emerges as a pivotal tool, capable of delivering robust reconstructions with computational efficiency across a spectrum of complex aerospace phenomena.

Regarding the configuration with the contact angle, it is concluded that the snapshots do not show significant differences from the standard configuration. This may be due to the effects being of a smaller magnitude and not visually detectable. However, further investigation of this setup is needed, possibly through higher grid resolution and a more detailed examination of the inlet region.

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Acknowledgments

I would like to thank my mentors Matteo Chiatto and Antonio Colanera for guiding me through this not at all easy but definitely fun work.

