

Turbulence Measurements from Compliant Moorings - Part II: Motion

Correction

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ABSTRACT

6 Acoustic Doppler velocimeters (ADV) are a valuable tool for making high-
7 precision measurements of turbulence, and moorings are a convenient and
8 ubiquitous platform for making many kinds of measurements in the ocean.
9 However—because of concerns that mooring motion can contaminate tur-
10 bulence measurements and acoustic Doppler profilers are relatively easy to
11 deploy—ADV are not frequently deployed from moorings. This work de-
12 tails a method for measuring turbulence using moored ADVs that corrects
13 for mooring motion using measurements from inertial motion sensors. Three
14 distinct mooring platforms were deployed in a tidal channel with inertial-
15 motion-sensor-equipped ADVs. In each case, the motion correction based on
16 the inertial measurements dramatically reduced contamination from mooring
17 motion. The spectra from these measurements have a shape that is consistent
18 with other measurements in tidal channels, and have a $f^{-5/3}$ slope at high
19 frequencies—consistent with Kolmogorov’s theory of isotropic turbulence.
20 Motion correction also improves estimates of cross-spectra and Reynold’s
21 stresses. Comparison of turbulence dissipation with flow speed and turbu-
22 lence production indicates a bottom boundary layer production-dissipation
23 balance during ebb and flood that is consistent with the strong tidal forcing
24 at the site. These results indicate that inertial-motion-sensor-equipped ADVs
25 are a valuable new tool for measuring turbulence from moorings.

26 1. Introduction

27 Acoustic Doppler velocimeters (ADV) have been used to make high-precision measurements of
28 water velocity for over 20 years (Kraus et al. 1994; Lohrmann et al. 1995). During that time, they
29 have been deployed around the world to measure turbulence from a range of platforms, including
30 stationary structures on ocean- and lake-bottoms, in surface waters from a pole lowered from
31 a ship's bow, and in the deep ocean from autonomous underwater vehicles (e.g., Voulgaris and
32 Trowbridge 1998; Zhang et al. 2001; Kim et al. 2000; Goodman et al. 2006; Lorke 2007; Geyer
33 et al. 2008; Cartwright et al. 2009).

34 A relatively small fraction of ADV measurements have been made from moorings (e.g., Fer
35 and Paskyabi 2014). Presumably this is because mooring motion can contaminate ADV mea-
36 surements, and acoustic Doppler profilers (ADPs) can be used to measure mid-depth turbulence
37 statistics without a mooring (e.g., Stacey et al. 1999a; Rippeth et al. 2002; Wiles et al. 2006).
38 Still, ADV measurements have distinct characteristics that can be advantageous: they are capa-
39 ble of higher sample rates, have higher signal-to-noise ratios, and have a much smaller sample
40 volume (1 centimeter, as opposed to several meters). That is, compared to an ADP, ADVs are
41 high-precision instruments capable of providing unique information. They could be more widely
42 used as a moored instrument (i.e., at an arbitrary depth) if a method for accounting for mooring
43 motion can be demonstrated to provide more accurate estimates of turbulence statistics.

44 Inertial motion unit (IMU) sensors have been used in the aerospace and aeronautical industries
45 to quantify the motion of a wide range of systems for several decades (Bevly 2004). Over the
46 last 10 years, the smartphone, drone, and 'Internet of Things' markets has driven innovation in
47 microelectrical-mechanical systems, including the IMU. As a result of this growth and innovation
48 the cost, power requirements, and size of IMUs have come down. Also known as MARG (mag-

netic, angular-rate, gravity), or AHRS (attitude heading reference system) sensors, IMUs measure three axes of the Earth’s magnetic field, angular rotation, and linear acceleration.¹ These signals are then integrated using Kalman filters to estimate the orientation and motion of the sensor (Barshan and Durrant-Whyte 1995; Marins et al. 2001; Bachmann et al. 2003).

Nortek now offers a version of their Vector ADV with a Microstrain 3DM-GX3-25 IMU sensor (Nortek 2005; MicroStrain 2012). The IMU’s signals are incorporated into the Vector data stream so that the motion and orientation signals are tightly synchronized with the ADV’s velocity measurements. This tight synchronization provides a data stream that can be utilized to quantify ADV motion in the Earth’s inertial reference frame, and remove that motion from the ADV’s velocity measurements at each time step of its sampling. This work specifies a method for performing motion correction of these ‘ADV-IMU’ measurements, and presents results of this method using data from a range of mooring configurations that positioned ADV-IMUs at mid-depths in Puget Sound.

This effort was originally motivated by a need for low-cost, high-precision turbulence measurements for the emerging tidal energy industry (McCaffrey et al. 2015; Alexander and Hamlington 2015). Experience in the wind energy industry has shown that wind turbine lifetime is reduced by atmospheric turbulence, and the same is expected to be true for tidal energy turbines. In wind, meteorological towers are often used to position sonic anemometers at the hub height of wind turbines for measuring detailed turbulence inflow statistics (Hand et al. 2003; Kelley et al. 2005; Mücke et al. 2011; Afgan et al. 2013). In the ocean, tower-mounted hub-height turbulence measurements have been made, but they are challenging to install and maintain in energetic tidal sites (Gunawan et al. 2014; Thomson et al. 2012). Therefore, the U.S. Department of Energy funded this work to

¹Within this literature, IMU is generally reserved for a MARG sensor without a magnetometer, but herein we refer to the entire group of sensors that measure motion using accelerometers and angular-rate sensors as IMUs.

71 investigate the accuracy of mooring-deployed ADV-IMUs to reduce the cost of turbulence mea-
72 surements at tidal energy sites (Kilcher et al. 2016). The approach proved to be successful and
73 potentially useful to the broader oceanographic community interested in moored turbulence mea-
74 surements (Lueck and Huang 1999; Doherty et al. 1999; Nash et al. 2004; Moum and Nash 2009;
75 Alford 2010; Paskyabi and Fer 2013).

76 The next section describes details of the measurements, including a summary of the hardware
77 configurations (platforms) that were used to support and position the ADV-IMUs in the water
78 column. A detailed description of the motion of these platforms is found in the companion paper to
79 this work, Harding et al. (in review), hereafter Part 1. Section 3 describes the mathematical details
80 of motion correction and Section 4 presents results from applying the method to measurements
81 from the various platforms. Section 5 is a discussion of the energetics of the tidal channel in
82 which the measurements were made and demonstrates that the measurements are consistent with
83 turbulence theory and other measurements in similar regimes. A summary and concluding remarks
84 are provided in Section 6.

85 **2. Measurements**

86 This work focuses on measuring turbulence from ADVs that are deployed from nonstationary
87 platforms and equipped with IMUs. The ADVs utilized for these measurements were equipped
88 with Microstrain 3DM-GX3-25 IMU sensors that captured all six components of the ADV mo-
89 tion (three components of angular rotation and three components of linear acceleration), as well
90 as the orientation of the ADV pressure case. The sampling of the motion sensor is tightly syn-
91 chronized with the ADV measurements. The IMU measures its motion at 1 kHz and uses internal
92 signal integration (Kalman filtering) to output the motion signals at the same sample rate as the
93 ADV's velocity measurements. This reduces aliasing of the IMU's motion measurements above

94 the ADV's sample rate (MicroStrain 2010). Cable-head ADVs were used throughout this work to
95 allow for flexibility in the positioning of the ADV head relative to its pressure case.

96 All measurements used in this work were made in Admiralty Inlet, Washington, approximately
97 500 m west southwest of Admiralty Head in 60-m of water near latitude 48.153 north and longi-
98 tude 122.687 west (Figure 1). The site is approximately 6 km east of Port Townsend, and 1 km
99 north of the Port Townsend to Coupeville ferry route. Admiralty inlet is the largest waterway con-
100 necting Puget Sound to the Strait of Juan de Fuca, and it possesses a large semidiurnal tidal flow
101 (Thomson et al. 2012; Polagye and Thomson 2013). This work utilizes data from three distinct
102 deployment platforms: the tidal turbulence mooring, a StableMoor buoy, and a simple sounding
103 weight. Additional details, photos, and schematic diagrams of all three mooring systems can be
104 found in Part 1.

105 *a. Tidal Turbulence Mooring*

106 The tidal turbulence mooring (TTM) is a simple mooring system with a strongback fin sus-
107 pended between a steel clump-weight anchor weighing 1,200 kg when dry and a 0.93-m-diameter
108 spherical steel buoy with a buoyancy of 320 kg. The ADV pressure cases were clamped to one
109 side of the strongback fin and the ADV sensor head was positioned 10 cm in front of the fin's
110 leading edge (Figure 2). The leading edge of the fin is fastened inline with the mooring line. This
111 configuration was designed to work like a weather vane, such that the drag on the fin held the ADV
112 head upstream of the mooring components. This work utilizes data from two TTM deployments.

113 1) JUNE 2012 TTM DEPLOYMENT

114 The first TTM deployment was in June 2012 at 48.15285 north and 122.68581 west. The moor-
115 ing was in the water from 17:30 on the 12th until 14:30 on the 14th (local; i.e., Pacific Daylight

Time). Two Nortek ADVs were clamped to either side of the fin so that the axis of their cylindrical pressure cases were parallel with the leading edge of the strongback. The ADV heads were spaced 0.5 m apart vertically along the fin. Only one of these ADVs was equipped with an integrated IMU. This TTM also had an upward-looking acoustic Doppler profiler mounted on the mooring anchor.

Periods of time during which this mooring interfered with a beam of the Doppler profiler were identified by inspecting the profiler's acoustic amplitude signal. Periods during which one beam of the profiler had $> 5\%$ higher acoustic amplitude than the other beams were flagged as "contaminated" and excluded from averaging. Five-minute averages in which more than 50% of the data were contaminated in this way were masked as invalid.

2) JUNE 2014 TTM DEPLOYMENT

The second TTM deployment was in 2014 from 06:00 on June 17 to 05:00 on June 19 (local time). The mooring was positioned at 48.15327 north and 122.68654 west. Two Nortek ADV-IMUs were mounted on this TTM, with their heads spaced 0.5 m apart along the fin. In this case, the pressure cases and ADV heads were inclined at an angle of 18° to the leading edge of the fin to account for mooring blowdown during strong currents (Figure 3). This change was made to reduce vibrational motion observed during the June 2012 deployment that was believed to be associated with the orientation of the pressure cases.

b. The StableMoor platform

The second deployment platform was a cylindrical, StableMoor, syntactic foam buoy (manufacturer: Deep Water Buoyancy) that was anchored to a clump weight that weighed 2,700 lbs (Figure

137 4). The buoy is 3.5 m long and 0.45 m in diameter with a tail ring that is 0.76 m in diameter. The
138 StableMoor buoy weighs 295 kg in air, and has a buoyancy of 185 kg in water.

139 The buoy was ballasted to pitch upward a few degrees in zero-flow to avoid “flying downward.”
140 In the presence of an oncoming current, the tail fins help to orient it into the flow. The anchor for
141 this buoy is similar to that of the TTM, including an acoustic release so the mooring and anchor
142 can be recovered separately.

143 The StableMoor platform has two primary advantages compared to the TTM. First, it is signif-
144 icantly more massive and hydrodynamically stable than the TTM, which reduces the frequency
145 of motions of the platform. Second, the StableMoor platform is capable of supporting a bottom-
146 tracking acoustic Doppler profiler, which provides an independent measure of the platform’s trans-
147 lational motion. Disadvantages of the StableMoor include: its size, which adds to the challenge
148 of deployment and recovery, and its cost, which is significantly more expensive than the TTM
149 system.

150 The StableMoor buoy was deployed with an ADV-IMU mounted at its nose from 11:21 on May
151 12 to 11:53 on May 13, 2015 (local time). This deployment was at 48.15277 north and 122.68623
152 west. In this configuration, the sample volume of the ADV is 10 cm forward of the nose and
153 20 cm above the center line of the StableMoor buoy (Figure 4). Based on Wyngaard et al.’s
154 (1985) investigation of a similarly shaped slender body, the velocity measurements should have
155 flow-distortion effects of less than 10%. This configuration was designed to be the most stable
156 platform for measuring turbulence from a moving platform. The StableMoor buoy was equipped
157 with a 1,200-kHz RDI workhorse sentinel acoustic Doppler profiler that was oriented downward-
158 looking to measure water velocity below the platform in twelve 1-m bins and measure buoy motion
159 (“bottom tracking”), all at a 1-Hz sample rate.

160 *c. Turbulence Torpedo*

161 The turbulence torpedo is a simple sounding weight with an ADV head mounted forward of the
 162 nose, and the ADV pressure case strapped below. This platform was deployed on May 14, 2015,
 163 for 37 minutes starting at 07:41 local time. This measurement was made from a davit that hung
 164 the system from the side of the ship to a depth of approximately 25 m. The primary logistical
 165 advantages of this platform are its compact size, low cost, and the flexibility to perform spatial
 166 transects.

167 *d. Coordinate system and turbulence averaging*

168 Unless stated otherwise, vector quantities in this work are in a fixed “principal-axes” coordinate
 169 system that is aligned with the bidirectional tidal flow: positive u is in the direction of ebb (310°
 170 True), positive w is vertically upward, and v is the cross-stream component in a right-handed
 171 coordinate system. The full velocity vector, $\vec{u} = (\tilde{u}, \tilde{v}, \tilde{w})$, is separated into a mean and turbulent
 172 component as $\vec{u} = \bar{\vec{u}} + \vec{u}$, where the over-bar denotes a 5-minute average. Turbulence kinetic
 173 energy, $\text{tke} = \overline{u^2} + \overline{v^2} + \overline{w^2}$, and Reynold’s stresses, \overline{uv} , \overline{uw} , \overline{vw} , are computed by averaging over the
 174 5-minute window. Throughout this work, we use $\bar{U} = (\bar{u}^2 + \bar{v}^2)^{1/2}$ to denote the mean horizontal
 175 velocity magnitude.

176 All spectra, $S\{x\}(f) = |\mathcal{F}\{x(t)\}|^2$, and cross spectra, $C\{x,y\}(f) = \text{real}(\mathcal{F}\{x(t)\}\mathcal{F}\{y(t)\})$, are
 177 computed using NumPy fast Fourier transform routines (van der Walt et al. 2011). Here, $\mathcal{F}\{x(t)\}$
 178 denotes the fast Fourier transform of a signal $x(t)$. Time series, e.g., $x(t)$, are linearly detrended
 179 and Hanning windowed prior to computing $\mathcal{F}\{x\}$ to reduce spectral reddening.

180 Throughout the remainder of this work, the dependence of S and C on f is implied (e.g., $S\{x\}(f)$
 181 is hereafter $S\{x\}$), and for other variables the dependence on t is implied. Spectra and cross
 182 spectra are normalized to preserve variance: $\int S\{u\}df = \overline{u^2}$, and $\int C\{u,v\}df = \overline{uv}$. The notations

183 $S\{\vec{u}\} = (S\{u\}, S\{v\}, S\{w\})$, and $C\{\vec{u}\} = (C\{u, v\}, C\{u, w\}, C\{v, w\})$ denote the set of spectra and
 184 cross spectra for each velocity component and pairs of components, respectively.

185 Turbulence dissipation rates are computed as:

$$\varepsilon = \frac{1}{\bar{U}} \left(\alpha \left\langle (S\{u\} + S\{v\} + S\{w\}) f^{5/3} \right\rangle_{fis} \right)^{3/2} \quad (1)$$

186 Where $\alpha = 0.5$, and $\langle \rangle_{fis}$ denotes an average over the inertial subrange of the velocity spectra and
 187 where the signal-to-noise ratio is small (Lumley and Terray 1983; Sreenivasan 1995). Throughout
 188 this work, we take this average from 0.3 to 1 Hz for the u and v components, and 0.3 to 3 Hz for
 189 the w component.

190 3. Methodology

191 The essential approach of motion correction is to estimate the time series of velocity on a com-
 192 pliant mooring by obtaining an independent estimate of ADV head motion and removing that
 193 motion from the measured signal. Previous works have utilized inertial motion sensors to quantify
 194 the motion of multiscale profilers for the purpose of measuring the full spectrum of oceanic shear
 195 (Winkel et al. 1996). Nortek's ADV-IMU measures the linear acceleration, \vec{a} , rotational motion,
 196 $\vec{\omega}$, and orientation matrix, \mathbf{R} , of the ADV pressure case (body) in the Earth reference frame. So
 197 long as the ADV head is rigidly connected to the ADV pressure case, it is possible to utilize the
 198 IMU motion signals to calculate the motion of the ADV head and remove it from the measured
 199 velocity signal (Miller et al. 2008). The ADV head motion is calculated as the sum of rotational
 200 and translational motion:

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{u}_h &= \vec{u}_\omega + \vec{u}_a + \vec{u}_{low} \\ &= \mathbf{R}^T \cdot \vec{\omega}^*(t) \times \vec{\ell}^* + \int \{\vec{a}(t)\}_{HP(f_a)} dt + \vec{u}_{low} \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Here, * superscripts denote quantities in the ADV’s local coordinate system, and $\vec{\ell}^*$ is the vector from the IMU to the ADV head. \mathbf{R}^T —the inverse of the orientation matrix—rotates vectors from the IMU to the Earth reference frame. The notation $\{\vec{a}\}_{HP(f_a)}$ indicates that the IMU’s accelerometer signal is high-pass filtered (in the Earth’s stationary reference frame) at a chosen filter-frequency, f_a . This is necessary because accelerometers have low-frequency noise, sometimes referred to as bias-drift (Barshan and Durrant-Whyte 1995; Bevly 2004; Gulmammadov 2009).

Integrating \vec{a} to estimate \vec{u}_a amplifies the bias-drift noise at low frequencies, which dramatically reduces the signal-to-noise ratio at those time scales (Figure A1). The high-pass filtering reduces this noise so that it does not contaminate motion correction, but real motion that exists at these frequencies is still lost in the low signal-to-noise ratio (Egeland 2014; VanZwieten et al. 2015). This means that low-frequency motion is not well resolved by the IMU, and so there is a residual low-frequency translational motion, \vec{u}_{low} , that needs to be measured independently—or at the very least considered—when using motion-corrected ADV-IMU data. The $\vec{\omega}$ and \vec{u}_ω estimates do not have the same issue because there is no integration involved, and because low-frequency bias-drift in the $\vec{\omega}$ sensors is stabilized by the IMU’s on-board Kalman filtering (i.e., the accelerometer and magnetometer signals provide estimates of down and north, respectively, which stabilize orientation estimates and eliminates bias from rotation estimates).

The choice of a high-pass filter for reducing low-frequency accelerometer noise depends on the flow conditions of the measurement and the platform being used. In particular, filter selection involves a trade-off between filtering out the bias-drift noise while not filtering out measured motion that is unresolved by an independent measurement of \vec{u}_{low} . If an independent measure of low-frequency motion is available it can be used to increase the accuracy of \vec{u}_h at low frequency. Note

that, to avoid double counting, \vec{u}_{low} should be estimated by applying the complementary low-pass filter to the independent measurement of low-frequency motion.

With this estimate of ADV head motion, it is straightforward to correct the measured velocity, \vec{u}_m , to estimate the velocity in the Earth’s inertial reference frame:

$$\vec{u}(t) = \vec{u}_m(t) + \vec{u}_h(t). \quad (3)$$

Note here that the ‘+’-sign is correct because head motion, \vec{u}_h , induces a measured velocity in the opposite direction of the head motion itself ($\vec{u}_m = \vec{u} - \vec{u}_h$).

For the TTM and turbulence torpedo, we utilize $f_a = 0.0333\text{Hz}$ (30-s period) and assume that $\vec{u}_{\text{low}} = 0$. For the StableMoor buoy, $f_a = 0.2\text{Hz}$ (5-s period). The bottom-track velocity was low-pass filtered at this frequency to provide an estimate of \vec{u}_{low} , and \vec{a} was high-pass filtered at this frequency. We use 4-pole, bidirectional (zero-phase), Hanning filters for all filtering operations.

Additional details on motion correction—including a detailed accounting of the distinct coordinate systems of the IMU, ADV pressure case, and ADV head—can be found in Kilcher et al. (2016). Open-source Python tools for performing motion correction of ADV-IMU data—including scripts that write processed data in Matlab and tabulated formats—are available at <http://lkilcher.github.io/dolfyn/>.

4. Results

a. Mean velocity

Figure 7 shows a comparison of \vec{u} measured by an ADV-IMU mounted on a TTM, to an upward-looking acoustic Doppler profiler mounted on the TTM anchor. This comparison shows excellent agreement between the ADV and Doppler profiler measurements of mean velocity. The \bar{u} , \bar{v} , and \bar{w} components have a root-mean-square error of 0.05, 0.13, and 0.03 m/s, respectively. Although

245 it is important to note that there is some discrepancy between ADP- and ADV-measured velocities
246 (especially in \bar{v} , which is most likely due to incomplete motion correction), the agreement between
247 the magnitude and direction of these independent velocity measurements indicates that moored
248 ADV-IMUs provide a reliable estimate of velocity in the Earth’s reference frame.

249 *b. TTM spectra*

250 As discussed in detail in Part 1, the mooring motion of the TTM, $S\{\vec{u}_h\}$, has a peak at 0.1 to 0.2
251 Hz from swaying of the mooring that is most likely driven by eddy shedding from the spherical
252 buoy (Figure 8, red lines). There is also higher-frequency broadband motion that is associated
253 with fluttering of the strongback fin around the mooring line. Both of these motions are especially
254 energetic in the v -component spectra because this is the direction in which the TTM mooring
255 system is most unstable. As is expected from fluid-structure interaction theory, the amplitude of
256 these motions increases with increasing mean velocity (Morison et al. 1950).

257 The mooring motion contaminates the uncorrected ADV measurements of velocity, $S\{\vec{u}_m\}$,
258 whenever the amplitude of the motion is similar to or greater than the amplitude of the turbulence.
259 Fortunately, much of this motion can be removed using the IMU’s motion signals as detailed in
260 Section 3. Lacking an independent measurement of turbulence velocity at this site, we interpret
261 the agreement of these spectra with turbulence theory as evidence of the success of the method.
262 In particular, at high frequencies ($f > 0.3$ Hz) for each mean-flow speed, the spectra decay with
263 a $f^{-5/3}$ slope and have equal amplitude across the velocity components. These results are con-
264 sistent with Kolmogorov’s (1941) theory of isotropic turbulence, and are consistent with spectral
265 shapes of earlier measurements of turbulence in energetic tidal channels from stationary platforms
266 (Walter et al. 2011; Thomson et al. 2012; McMillan et al. 2016).

For $|\vec{u}| > 1.0$, motion correction modifies the u and v component spectra at frequencies as high as 3 Hz. This outcome indicates that in order for motion correction to be effective, synchronization between the ADV and IMU needs to be within 1/3 s or better. This suggests that asynchronous approaches to motion correction may be challenging, especially considering that the clock drift of some instrumentation can be as high as a few seconds per day. By integrating the IMU data into the ADV data stream, the Nortek ADV-IMU achieves a synchronization to within 1e-2 s.

At low frequencies the spectra tend to become roughly constant (especially at higher flow speeds), which is also consistent with previous works. Note that the very low magnitude of $S\{\vec{u}_h\}$ at low frequencies is partially a result of filtering the IMU's accelerometer signal when calculating \vec{u}_a . The true low-frequency spectrum of ADV head motion is unknown (indicated using a dashed line below f_a). A comparison of $S\{\vec{u}\}$ measured by the TTM to that measured by the ADP—during the June 2012 deployment—reveals agreement at low frequencies (not shown). This finding suggests that the assumption that $\vec{u}_{low} = 0$ at these frequencies and at this site for this platform is justified—even if $S\{\vec{u}_h\}$ is not as low as indicated in Figure 8.

As successful as motion correction is, some of the motion contamination persists in $S\{\vec{u}\}$. This is most notable in $S\{v\}$ at the highest flow speeds (> 2.0 m/s): a peak at 0.15 Hz is an order of magnitude larger than a spectral fit to the other frequencies would indicate. This persistent motion contamination is evident to a lesser degree in $S\{u\}$ for $|u| > 2$ m/s, and in $S\{v\}$ at lower flow speeds. $S\{w\}$ appears to have no persistent motion contamination because the amplitude of the motion in this direction is much lower than for the other two components. For these measurements, $S\{w_h\}$ is so low that w -component motion correction makes only a minor correction to the spectra.

The amplitude of the persistent motion contamination peaks in $S\{v\}$ at 0.15 Hz is a factor of 5 to 10 times smaller than the amplitude of the ADV head motion itself. This observation suggests that the Microstrain IMU can be used to effectively correct mooring motion at 0.15 Hz when

291 the amplitude of that motion is less than 5 times the amplitude of the real turbulence spectrum.
292 As a result, we have chosen a value of 3 as a conservative estimate of the motion correction's
293 effectiveness.

294 In addition to the primary benefit of correcting for mooring motion, the IMU measurements
295 can also be used to identify and screen out persistent motion contamination. For example, one
296 of the most common uses of turbulence spectra is for the calculation of ε and τ_{ke} . For these
297 purposes, and based on the relative amplitudes of the 0.15-Hz peaks, we assume that persistent
298 motion contamination is likely, where $S\{\vec{u}_h\}/S\{\vec{u}\} > 3$, and thereby exclude these regions from
299 spectral fits.

300 In the present case, for the u and w spectra, this criteria only excludes a narrow range of frequen-
301 cies at the 0.15-Hz motion peak for some cases. This criteria is more restrictive of the v -component
302 spectra at high frequencies for $\bar{U} > 1.0$ m/s, but this may be acceptable because the amplitude of
303 $S\{v\}$ at these frequencies—i.e., in the isotropic inertial subrange—should be equal to that of $S\{u\}$
304 and $S\{w\}$ (Kolmogorov 1941).

305 Agreement of the v -component spectral amplitude with that of u and w at frequencies > 0.3 Hz
306 indicates that motion correction is effective at those frequencies even when $S\{\vec{u}_h\}/S\{\vec{u}\} \gtrsim 3$. This
307 outcome suggests that our screening threshold is excessively conservative at those frequencies,
308 and that a more precise screening threshold may be frequency dependent. For example, it might
309 take into account the f^3 character of the noise in $S\{\vec{u}_a\}$ (Figure A1). For the purpose of this work,
310 the $S\{\vec{u}_h\}/S\{\vec{u}\} < 3$ threshold for spectral fits is sufficient, and detailed characterization of the
311 IMU's motion- and frequency-dependent noise level is left for future work.

312 *c. StableMoor Spectra*

313 The spectra of the StableMoor motion has a broader peak with a maximum amplitude that is ap-
314 proximately half the frequency of the TTM spectral peak (Figure 9). The motion of this platform
315 also does not have high-frequency “subpeaks” or other high-frequency broadbanded excitation
316 (Part 1). These characteristics of the motion are most likely due to the more massive and hydro-
317 dynamically streamlined properties of the platform.

318 Like the TTM, the motion-corrected spectra from the StableMoor buoy are consistent with turbu-
319 lence theory and previous observations. Most importantly, there is an improvement in the quality
320 of the motion-corrected spectra compared to the TTM. In particular, the persistent motion con-
321 tamination peaks are completely removed. That is, this measurement system provides an accurate
322 estimate of the turbulence spectra at this location from low frequencies to more than 1 Hz—well
323 into the inertial subrange—for all three components of velocity.

324 Note that this level of accuracy cannot be obtained without the independent estimate of \vec{u}_{low} .
325 If we assume that $\vec{u}_{low} = 0$, a similar plot to Figure 9 (not shown) reveals persistent motion-
326 contamination peaks and troughs in the u and v spectra regardless of the choice of f_a . This as-
327 sumption indicates that the low-frequency motion of the StableMoor buoy is below a threshold in
328 which the IMU’s signal-to-noise ratio is high enough to resolve its motion. In other words, com-
329 pared to the TTM, the StableMoor platform provides a more accurate measurement of turbulence
330 when it includes an independent measure of \vec{u}_{low} (here a bottom-tracking ADCP), but it does no
331 better—and perhaps worse—when it does not.

332 *d. Torpedo spectra*

333 The u and v motion of the turbulence torpedo is broadbanded and the w motion has a narrow
334 peak at 0.3 Hz (Figure 10). Because \vec{u}_h is estimated using $f_a = 0.0333\text{Hz}$ and assuming $\vec{u}_{low} = 0$,

335 its spectra rolls off quickly below f_a . Motion correction of the torpedo data appears to effec-
 336 tively remove a motion peak from $S\{w\}$ at 0.3 Hz, and straightens out $S\{v\}$ between 0.04 and
 337 0.6 Hz. $S\{u\}$ is mostly unaffected by motion at these frequencies, because the torpedo motion
 338 is smaller than the turbulence in this direction. At frequencies below f_a , $S\{u\}$ and $S\{v\}$ increase
 339 dramatically. This increase suggests that unresolved, low-frequency motion of the torpedo is con-
 340 taminating the velocity measurements at these frequencies. It may be possible to correct for some
 341 of this contamination using a measurement of the ship's motion as a proxy for the torpedo's low-
 342 frequency motion, but this has not been done. Still, above f_a , the torpedo appears to provide a
 343 reliable estimate of spectral amplitude in the inertial subrange and can therefore be used to esti-
 344 mate ε . Considering the simplicity of the platform, it may be a useful option for quantifying this
 345 essential turbulence quantity in a variety of scenarios. Further, if a GPS is positioned above it, it
 346 may be capable of providing even more.

347 *e. Cross Spectra*

348 Inspection of cross spectra from TTM measurements demonstrates that motion correction can
 349 reduce motion contamination to produce reliable estimates of velocity cross spectra (Figure 11).
 350 At low flow speeds (left column), cross spectra between components of \vec{u}_h (i.e., between compo-
 351 nents of head motion, red) are small compared to correlated velocities. As the velocity magnitude
 352 increases (center and right columns), the swaying motion of the TTM at 0.15 Hz appears as a peak
 353 in the amplitude of the cross spectra of \vec{u}_h (red) and \vec{u}_m (black) for all three components of cross
 354 spectra (rows). Fortunately, motion correction reduces the amplitude of this peak dramatically so
 355 that $C\{\vec{u}\}$ (blue) is small at 0.15 Hz compared to lower frequencies. Furthermore, the fact that the
 356 standard deviation of $C\{\vec{u}\}$ is also relatively small at 0.15 Hz suggests that motion correction is
 357 effective for each spectral window, not just in their mean.

These results indicate that motion-corrected TTM velocity measurements can be used to obtain reliable estimates of turbulence Reynold’s stresses, which are the integral of the cross spectra. Without motion correction, Reynold’s stress estimates would be contaminated by the large peaks in the cross spectra that are caused by the swaying and fluttering motion of the TTM vane.

A similar investigation of StableMoor cross spectra (not shown) indicates that cross-spectral motion contamination is at a much lower amplitude than for the TTM. The low-frequency (< 0.3 Hz) “swimming” motion of that platform produces a minimal cross-spectral signal, and the relative large mass of the platform minimizes the kinds of higher-frequency swaying and fluttering that creates large values of cross-spectral head motion. Thus, the StableMoor platform also produces reliable estimates of Reynold’s stresses, which are presumed to be improved by motion correction.

5. Discussion

The previous section presented a comparison of \vec{u} measured by a TTM-mounted ADV to measurements from a co-located ADP. This comparison demonstrated that the IMU provides a reliable estimate of the ADV’s orientation and that this can be utilized to estimate mean velocity in the Earth’s reference frame. Turbulence velocity estimates from the same ADP are also in agreement with low-frequency TTM turbulence estimates (not shown), but the ADP does not resolve turbulence at the scales where motion contamination is strongest (0.1 to 1.0 Hz).

Ideally, moored motion-corrected turbulence velocity measurements would be validated against simultaneous independent validated measurements of turbulence velocity at the same scales and exact time and location. Accomplishing this, however, involves significant technical challenges that are not easily overcome—most notably the difficulty of measuring turbulence at the same point as the moving ADV. A slightly less ideal but much more realistic confirmation of the methodology might involve comparing the statistics of moored turbulence measurements to those from a nearby

381 fixed platform, or a fixed platform placed at the same location at a different time (e.g., the “TTT”
382 platform described in Thomson et al. 2012). Unfortunately, to our knowledge, these measurements
383 have not yet been made.

384 Lacking a relevant, fixed, independent turbulence measurement to compare to it is instructive
385 to demonstrate the degree to which the moored measurements are consistent with turbulence
386 theory and other turbulence measurements in similar flow environments. The previous section
387 showed that the shape of the turbulence velocity spectra from moored ADVs is consistent with
388 Kolmogorov’s theory of locally isotropic turbulence, which has been observed consistently in tur-
389 bulence measurements for decades (Kolmogorov 1941; Grant et al. 1962; McMillan et al. 2016).
390 In particular, we observed an isotropic subrange—an $f^{-5/3}$ spectral slope and equal amplitude
391 spectra between components—that is driven by anisotropic turbulence at longer timescales (Fig-
392 ures 8, 9, 10). This finding is interpreted as the first indication that the measurement systems
393 presented are capable of accurately resolving turbulence. The degree to which uncorrected spec-
394 tra were corrected toward this theoretical and observationally confirmed shape is interpreted as a
395 measure of the improvement of the spectral estimates by motion correction.

396 Figure 12 presents a time series of the mean velocity (A) and several turbulence statistics that
397 were measured during the June 2014 TTM deployment. This figure shows the evolution of the flow
398 through Admiralty Inlet during 1.5 tidal cycles. The ϵ (B), Reynold’s stresses (C), dissipation,
399 and one component of turbulence production (D) grow and strengthen with ebb or flood then
400 subside during slack tide. This component of turbulence production is:

$$P_{uz} = \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial z} \overline{uw} \quad . \quad (4)$$

401 Where $\partial \bar{u} / \partial z$ is computed from the two ADVs on the TTM. The highest values of ϵ and P_{uz} occur
402 at the peak of the ebb or flood, which is in agreement with other measurements in tidal channels.

403 The agreement of the magnitude of P_{uz} with ε at those times suggests a local production-dissipation
404 balance that is often observed in tidally forced channels (Trowbridge et al. 1999; Stacey et al.
405 1999b; McMillan et al. 2016). At other times, the value of P_{uz} is insufficient to balance ε or is
406 negative.

407 Inspection of the negative P_{uz} values reveals that most of them are caused by a reversed sign of \overline{uw}
408 rather than a reversed sign of $\partial u / \partial z$ (i.e., when compared to the sign of u). This finding suggests
409 that uncertainty in \overline{uw} may be contributing to discrepancies between P_{uz} and ε . Furthermore,
410 considering the complex nature of the shoreline near this site (i.e., the headland), it is not surprising
411 that P_{uz} does not balance ε perfectly. Other terms of the tke equation are likely to be important,
412 such as other components of production, advection terms, or turbulent transport terms. The fact
413 that these two terms are in near balance as often as they are is a strong indication that bottom
414 boundary layer physics are important to the dynamics at this site.

415 Figure 13 compares individual values of P_{uz} with ε directly. Given the assumptions implicit in
416 this comparison and the discussion above, the agreement between P_{uz} and ε is an encouraging
417 result that suggests the turbulent boundary reaches the depth of these measurements (10 m) during
418 the highest flow speeds. This result is further supported by a comparison of \bar{U} with ε (Figure
419 14). Here we see a $\varepsilon \propto \bar{U}^3$ dependence that is again suggestive of bottom boundary layer physics
420 (Trowbridge 1992; Nash et al. 2009). At lower flow speeds, ε deviates from this relationship,
421 which suggests that the boundary layer is no longer the dominant physical process at the depth of
422 these measurements.

423 6. Conclusion

424 This work presents a methodology for measuring turbulence from moored ADV-IMUs and de-
425 tails an approach for removing the IMU-measured mooring motion from the ADV's velocity mea-

426 surements. The IMU integrated into the Nortek Vector ADV has been configured to provide esti-
427 mates of the ADV’s orientation and motion at every time step of the ADV’s sampling. The tight
428 integration of the IMU and ADV data streams provides a data set that can be used to correct ve-
429 locity measurements for mooring motion and rotate those measurements into the Earth’s reference
430 frame.

431 Comparison of spectra of ADV head motion, $S\{\vec{u}_h\}$, to that of motion-corrected, $S\{\vec{u}\}$, and
432 uncorrected spectra, $S\{\vec{u}_m\}$, reveals that motion correction improves spectral estimates of moored
433 ADV measurements. In particular, we found that motion-corrected spectra have spectral shapes
434 that are similar to previous measurements of tidal-channel turbulence and have a $f^{-5/3}$ spectral
435 slope at high frequencies. This finding suggests that the motion-corrected spectra resolve the
436 inertial subrange predicted by Kolmogorov’s theory of locally isotropic turbulence.

437 Motion correction reduces motion contamination for all platforms we presented but it does not
438 necessarily remove it completely. This outcome seems to depend on the relative amplitude of
439 platform motion compared to the underlying turbulence being measured. The most notable ex-
440 ample of this is from the TTM, which has a large “swaying” peak at 0.1 Hz. Where this peak
441 is very large—especially in the v component—it is not reduced to a level that is consistent with
442 earlier measurements of tidal-channel turbulence—i.e., there is no smooth roll-off between the
443 low-frequency energy-containing scales and the $f^{-5/3}$ inertial subrange.

444 This inconsistency indicates that turbulence measurements from moored, motion-corrected IMU
445 ADVs must be interpreted with care. An inspection of spectra presented here suggests that exclud-
446 ing spectral regions where $S\{\vec{u}_h\}/S\{\vec{u}\} > 3$ removes persistent-motion contamination peaks while
447 still preserving spectral regions where motion correction is effective. Using this criteria, it is then
448 possible to produce spectral fits that exclude persistent-motion contamination, and provide reliable
449 estimates of turbulence quantities of interest (e.g., ε and tke).

450 We've also shown that motion correction reduces motion contamination in cross spectra. This
451 finding is important because it suggests that moored IMU-ADV measurements may be used to
452 produce reliable estimates of Reynolds stresses. We utilized these stress estimates and vertical
453 shear estimates, both from the TTM, to estimate P_{uz} .

454 Finally, we have shown that ε estimates based on motion-corrected spectra scale with the U^3 , and
455 balance P_{uz} estimates during ebb and flood. Together, these results indicate that bottom boundary
456 layer physics are a dominant process at this site, and that the boundary layer reaches the height
457 of the IMU ADVs (10 m) during ebb and flood. The degree of agreement between P_{uz} and ε also
458 serves as an indicator of the self-consistency of moored IMU-ADV turbulence measurements.

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A1. Comparing StableMoor \vec{u}_{low} to IMU \vec{u}_{h}

To better understand the IMU’s signal-to-noise ratio, we compare the motion of the StableMoor buoy from the ADP bottom track measurements, \vec{u}_{BT} , to the IMU’s estimates of ADP motion. To do this, we compute the IMU’s estimate of ADP motion using equation (2), and replacing ℓ^* with the vector that points from the IMU to the ADP head. We then linearly interpolate the ADP measurements of \vec{u}_{BT} onto the times of the ADV-IMU measurements.

The coherence between these two signals is high and statistically significant over 1.5 decades—from 0.03 to 0.8 Hz (Priestley 1981). The v component has the highest coherence, 98%, because this is the direction that has the most motion (i.e., these estimates have a higher signal-to-noise ratio). The u and w components have a slightly lower coherence, 80% and 65%, respectively.

On the low-frequency side, our interpretation is that the signal-to-noise ratio of the IMU increases dramatically below 0.03 Hz, resulting in low coherence. On the high-frequency side, Doppler noise in the ADP measurements contaminates its estimates of motion, causing the decrease in coherence at 0.8 Hz. A comparison of the phase between these signals shows that there is no lag between the measurements (not shown).

These results help to inform the selection of zero-lag filters used to estimate \vec{u}_{low} from \vec{u}_{BT} . In particular, by selecting 0.2 Hz, we target the middle of the coherence peak between the two measurements. Furthermore, the rapid decrease in coherence below 0.03 Hz provides an objective measurement of the frequency at which IMU measured velocity becomes unreliable in the flow conditions we observed.

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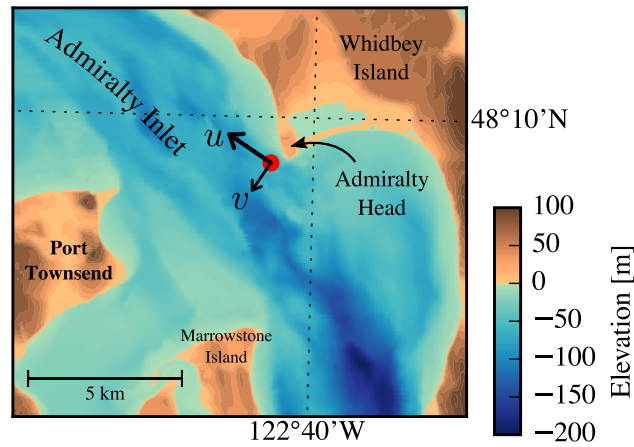


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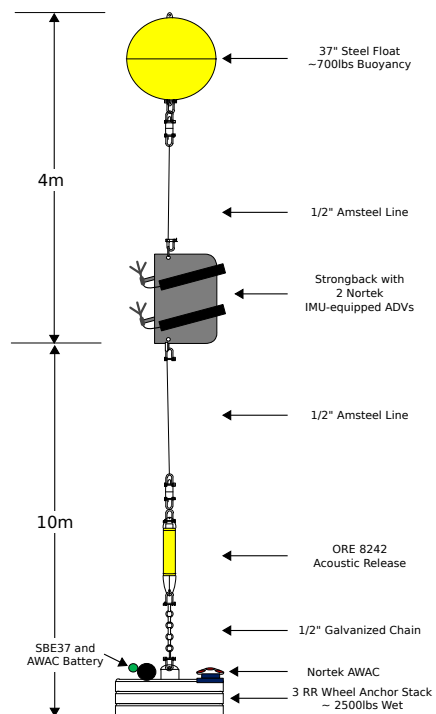
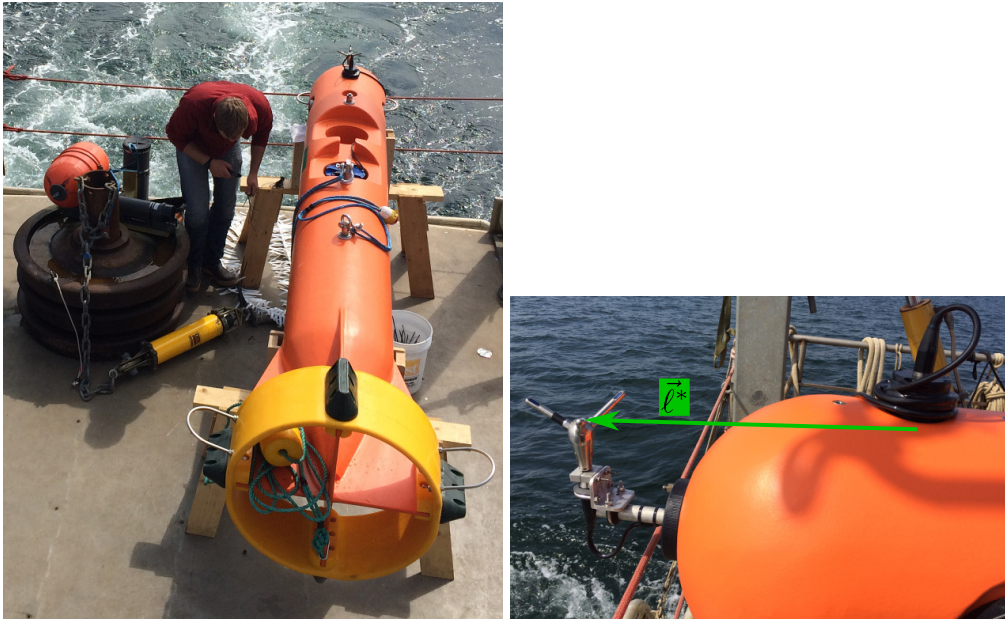


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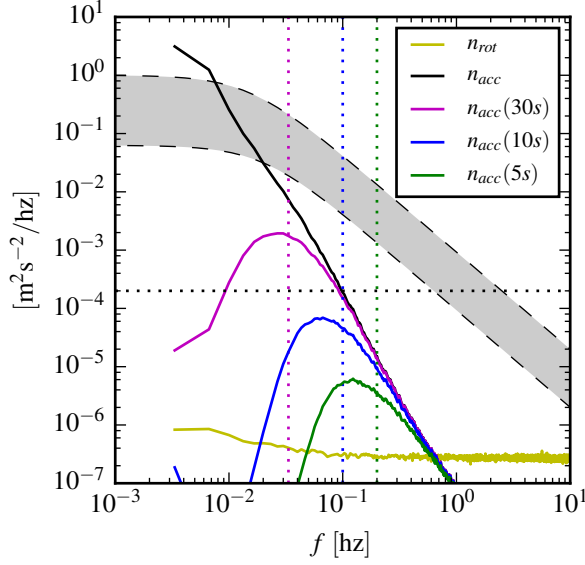
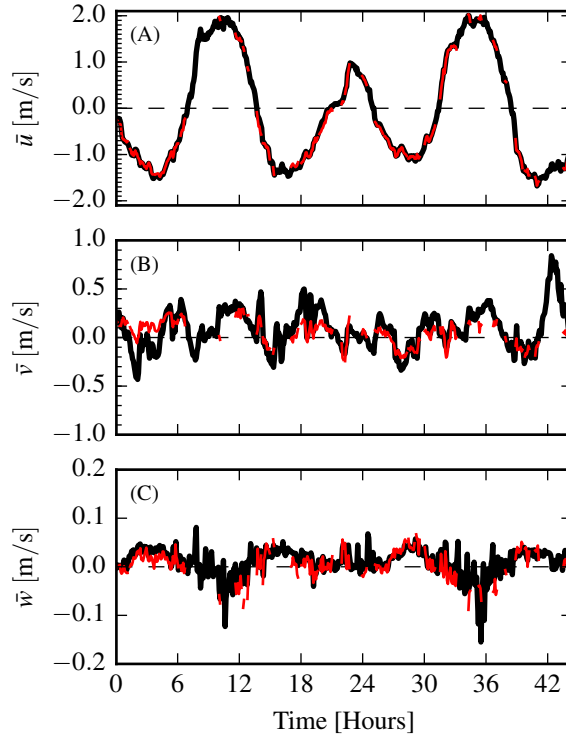


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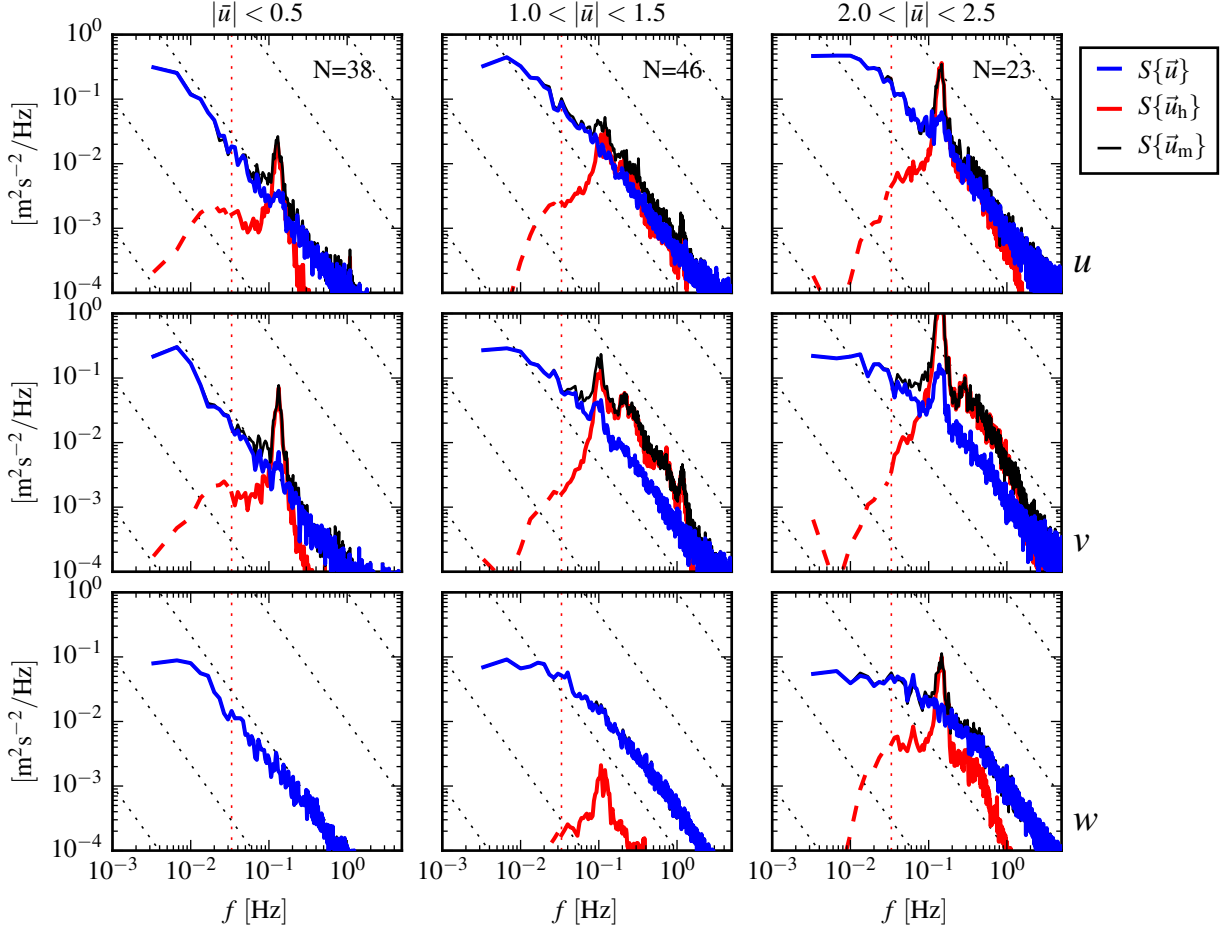


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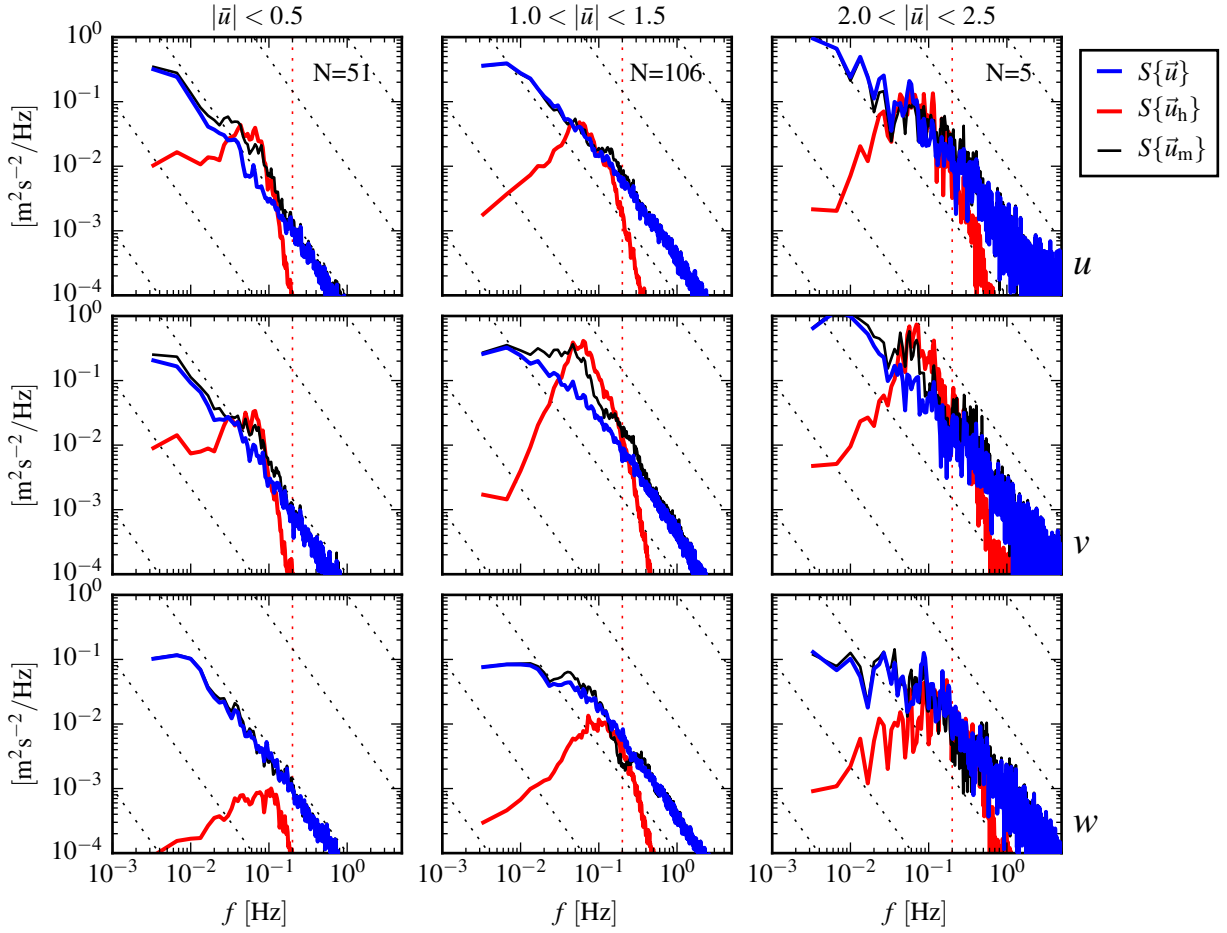


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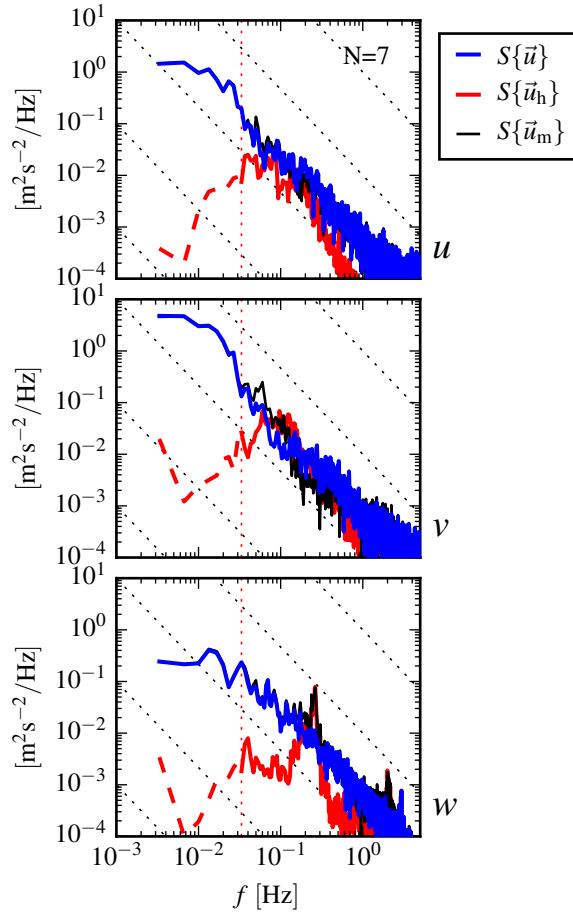


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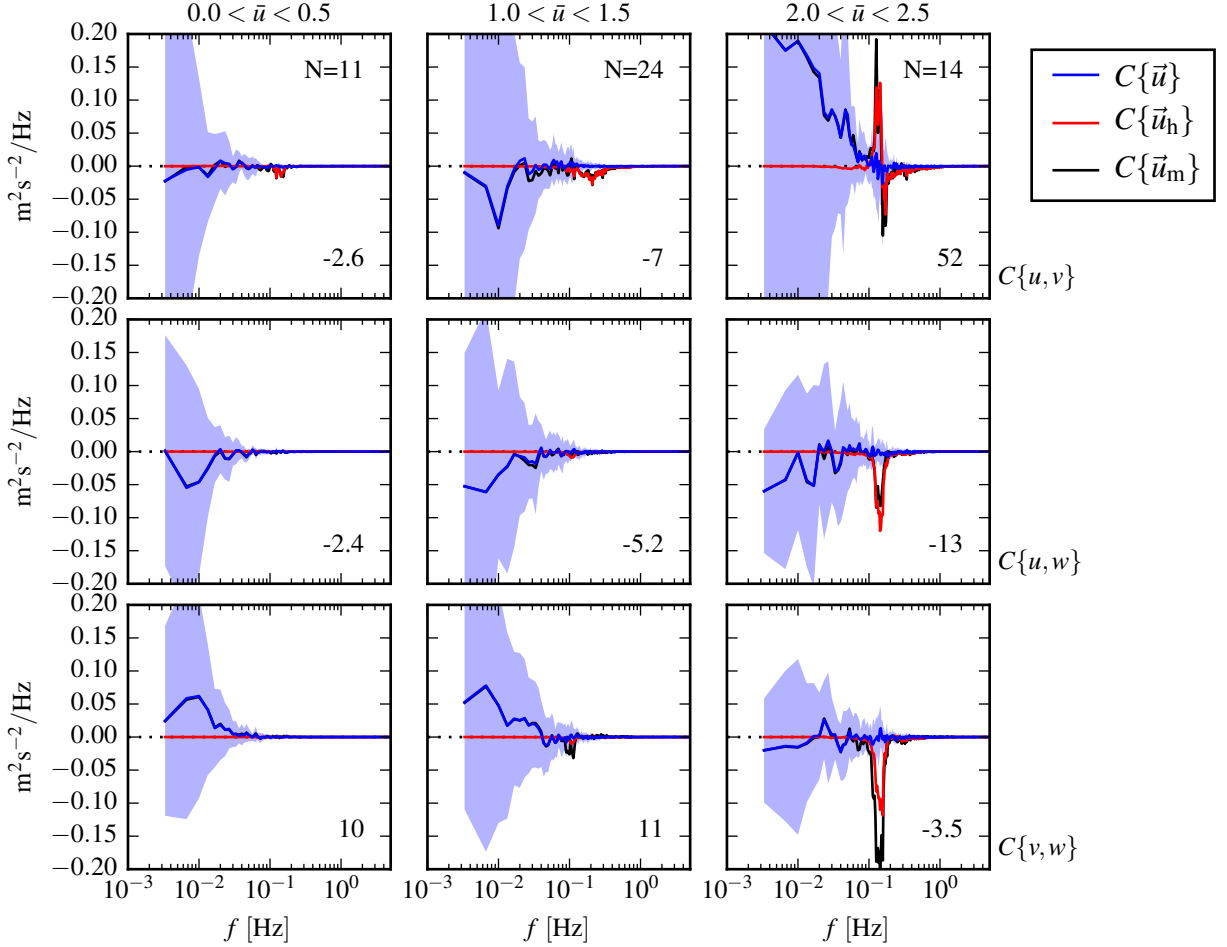


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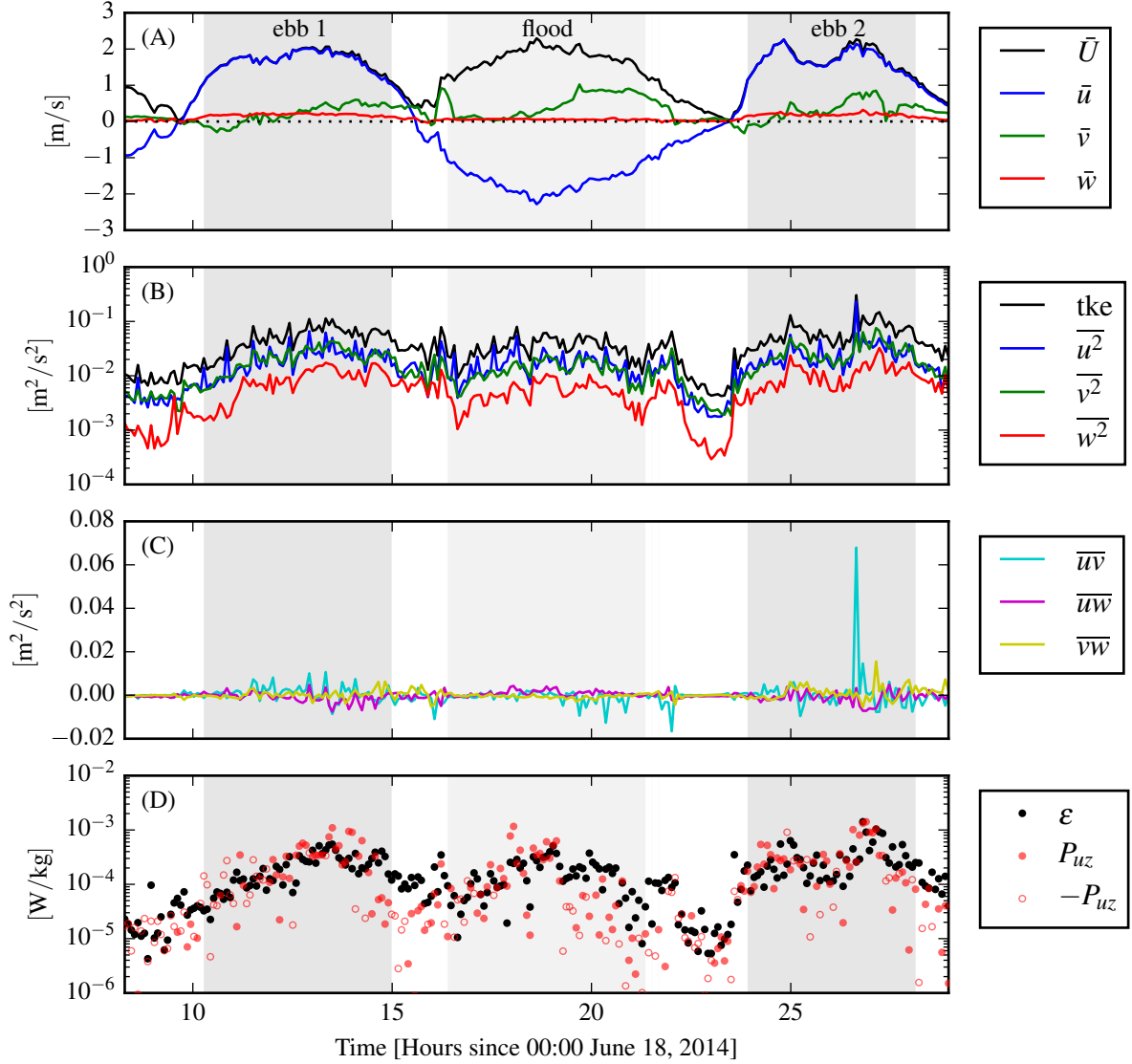


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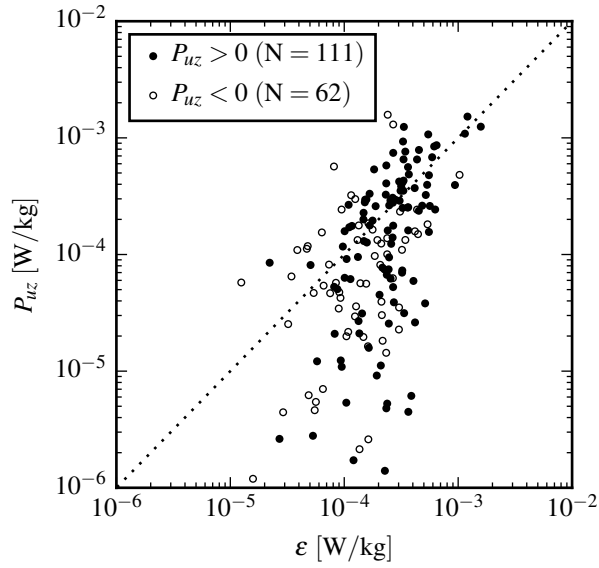


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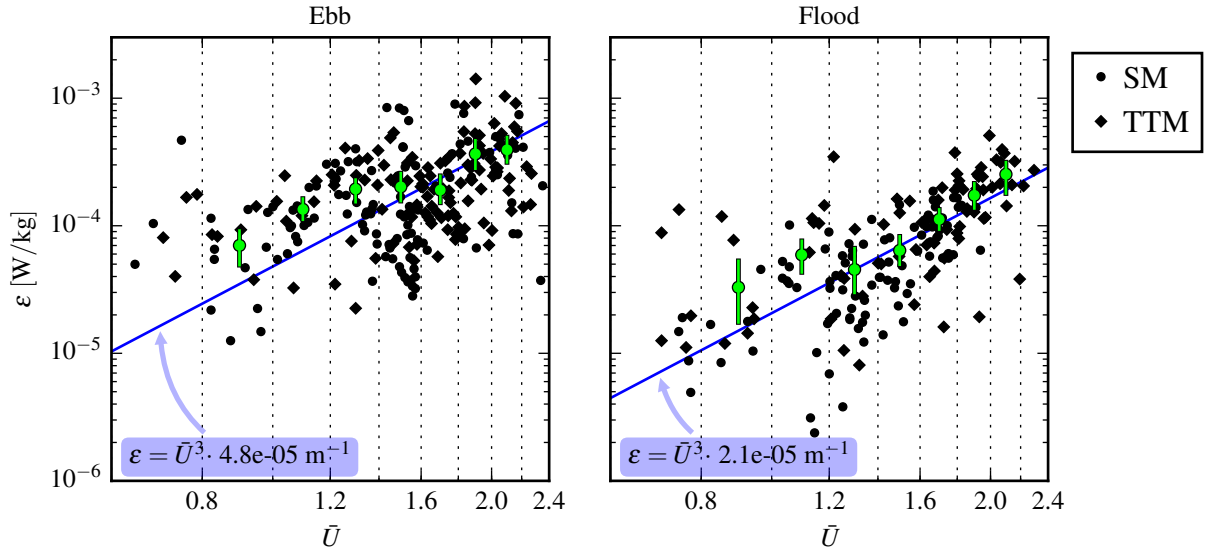


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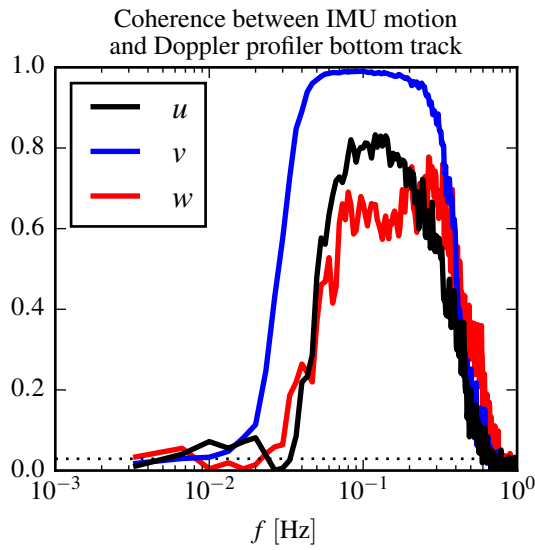


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