

1     **Turbulence measurements from compliant moorings - Part II: motion**  
2                                   **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—probably due to concerns that mooring motion can contaminate  
10    turbulence measurements, and because acoustic Doppler profilers are rela-  
11    tively easy to deploy—ADVs are not frequently deployed from moorings.  
12    This work details a method for measuring turbulence using moored acoustic  
13    Doppler velocimeters (ADVs) that corrects for mooring motion using mea-  
14    surements from inertial motion sensors (IMUs). Three distinct mooring plat-  
15    forms are deployed in a tidal channel with IMU-equipped ADVs. In each case  
16    the inertial measurements dramatically reduce 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 turbulence  
22    production indicates a bottom boundary layer production-dissipation balance  
23    during ebb and flood that is consistent with the strong tidal forcing at the site.  
24    These results indicate that IMU-equipped ADVs are a valuable new tool for  
25    measuring turbulence from moorings.

## 26 1. Introduction

27 Acoustic Doppler velocimeters (ADV) have been used to make high-precision measurements  
28 of 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). Still,  
38 ADV measurements have distinct characteristics that can be advantageous: they are capable of  
39 higher sample-rates, they have higher signal-to-noise ratios, and they have a much smaller sample-  
40 volume (1 centimeter, as opposed to several meters). That is, compared to an ADP, ADVs are high  
41 precision instruments capable of providing unique information. They could be more widely used  
42 as a moored-instrument (i.e. at arbitrary depth) if a method for accounting for mooring motion can  
43 be demonstrated to provide more accurate estimates of turbulence statistics.

44 Inertial motion sensors (IMUs) have been used in the aerospace and aeronautical industries to  
45 quantify the motion of a wide range of systems—including aircraft, rockets, and spacecraft—for  
46 several decades, but their cost has come down as their market has grown beyond these niche sectors  
47 (Bevly 2004). Over the last ten years massive growth in the smart-phone, drone, and ‘Internet  
48 of Things’ markets has driven innovation in micro-electrical-mechanical systems (MEMS). One

49 component that has emerged from this sector is the IMU. Also known as ‘Magnetic, angular-rate,  
50 gravity’ (MARG), or ‘attitude heading reference system’ (AHRS) sensors, IMUs measure three  
51 axes of: the earth’s magnetic field, angular rotation, and linear acceleration. These signals are then  
52 integrated using Kalman filters to estimate the orientation and motion of the sensor (Barshan and  
53 Durrant-Whyte 1995; oáo Luis Marins et al. 2001; Bachmann et al. 2003)<sup>1</sup>.

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

63 This effort was originally motivated by a need for low-cost, high-precision turbulence measure-  
64 ments for the emerging tidal energy industry (McCaffrey et al. 2015; Alexander and Hamlington  
65 2015). Experience in the wind energy industry has shown that wind turbine lifetime is reduced  
66 by atmospheric turbulence, and the same is expected to be true for tidal energy turbines. In wind,  
67 meteorological towers are often used to position sonic anemometers at the hub-height of wind  
68 turbines for measuring detailed turbulence inflow statistics (Hand et al. 2003; Kelley et al. 2005;  
69 Mücke et al. 2011; Afgan et al. 2013). In the ocean, tower-mounted hub-height turbulence mea-  
70 surements have been made, but they are challenging to install and maintain in energetic tidal sites

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<sup>1</sup>Within 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 (Gunawan et al. 2014). Thus, the Department of Energy funded this work to investigate the ac-  
72 curacy of mooring deployed ADV-IMUs to reduce the cost of turbulence measurements at tidal  
73 energy sites (Kilcher et al. 2016). The approach proved to be successful and potentially useful to  
74 the broader oceanographic community interested in moored turbulence measurements (Lueck and  
75 Huang 1999; Doherty et al. 1999; Nash et al. 2004; Moum and Nash 2009; Alford 2010; Paskyabi  
76 and Fer 2013).

77 The next section describes details of the measurements, including a summary of the hardware  
78 configurations (platforms) that were used to support and position the ADV-IMUs in the water-  
79 column. A detailed description of the motion of these platforms is found in the companion paper to  
80 this work, Harding et al. (2017), hereafter ‘Part 1’. Section 3 describes the mathematical details of  
81 motion correction, and section 4 presents results from application of the method to measurements  
82 from the various platforms. Section 5 is a discussion of the energetics of the tidal channel where the  
83 measurements were made and demonstrates that the measurements are consistent with turbulence  
84 theory and other measurement in similar regimes. A summary and concluding remarks is found in  
85 section 6.

## 86 **2. Measurements**

87 This work is focused on measuring turbulence from ADVs that are deployed from non-stationary  
88 platforms and equipped with inertial motion sensors (IMU). The ADVs utilized for these measure-  
89 ments were all equipped with Microstrain 3DM-GX3-25 IMU sensors that captured all 6 compo-  
90 nents of the ADV motion (3 components of angular rotation and 3 components of linear acceler-  
91 ation), as well as the orientation of the ADV pressure-case. The sampling of the motion sensor is  
92 tightly synchronized with the ADV measurements. The IMU measures its motion at 1kHz and uses  
93 internal signal integration (Kalman filtering) to output the motion signals at the same sample rate

94 as the ADV's velocity measurements. This reduces aliasing of the IMU's motion measurements  
95 above the ADV's sample-rate (MicroStrain 2010). Cable-head ADVs were utilized throughout  
96 this work to allow for flexibility in the positioning of the ADV head relative to its pressure case.

97 All measurements used in this work were made in Admiralty Inlet, Washington, approximately  
98 500 meters (m) WSW of Admiralty Head–Fort Casey State Park—in 60 m of water depth at latitude  
99 48.153 north and longitude 122.687 west (Figure 1). The site is approximately 6 kilometers (km)  
100 east of Port Townsend, and 1 km north of the Port Townsend – Coupeville ferry route. Admiralty  
101 inlet is the largest waterway connecting Puget Sound to the Strait of Juan de Fuca, and it possesses  
102 a large semi-diurnal tidal flow (Thomson et al. 2012; Polagye and Thomson 2013). This work  
103 utilizes data from three distinct deployment platforms: the ‘tidal turbulence mooring’, a ‘Stable-  
104 Moor’ buoy, and a simple sounding weight. Additional details, photos, and schematic diagrams of  
105 all three mooring systems can be found in Part 1.

#### 106 *a. Tidal Turbulence Mooring (TTM)*

107 The ‘tidal turbulence mooring’ (TTM) is a simple mooring system with a ‘strongback fin’ sus-  
108 pended between a steel clump-weight anchor weighing 1200 kilograms (kg) when dry and a 0.93  
109 m-diameter spherical steel buoy with a buoyancy of 320 kg. The ADV pressure cases were  
110 clamped to one side of the strongback fin and the ADV sensor head was positioned 10 cm in  
111 front of the fin's leading edge (Figure 2). The leading edge of the fin is fastened inline with the  
112 mooring line. This configuration was designed to work similar to a weather-vane, such that the  
113 drag on the fin held the ADV head upstream of the mooring components. This work utilizes data  
114 from two TTM deployments.

## 115 1) JUNE 2012 TTM DEPLOYMENT

116 The first was in June of 2012 at 48.15285 north, 122.68581 west. The mooring was in the water  
117 from 17:30 on the 12th until 14:30 on the 14th (local, i.e. pacific daylight time). Two Nortek  
118 ADVs were clamped to either side of the fin such that the axis of their cylindrical pressure-cases  
119 were parallel with the leading edge of the strongback. The ADV heads were spaced 0.5 m apart  
120 vertically along the fin. Only one of these ADVs was equipped with an integrated IMU. This TTM  
121 also had an upward-looking acoustic Doppler profiler mounted on the mooring anchor.

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

## 127 2) JUNE 2014 TTM DEPLOYMENT

128 The second TTM deployment was in 2014 from 06:00 on June 17 to 05:00 on June 19 (local  
129 time). The mooring was positioned at 48.15327 north, 122.68654 west. Two Nortek ADV-IMUs  
130 were mounted on this TTM, with their heads spaced 0.5 m apart along the fin. In this case the  
131 pressure-cases and ADV heads were inclined at an angle of  $18^\circ$  to the leading edge of the fin  
132 to account for mooring blow-down during strong currents (Figure 3). This change was made  
133 to reduce vibrational motion observed during the June 2012 deployment that was believed to be  
134 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 2700 lbs (Figure 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 StableMoor weighs 295 kg in air, and has a buoyancy of 185 kg in water.

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

The StableMoor platform has two primary advantages compared to the TTM. First, it is significantly more massive and hydro-dynamically stable than the TTM, which reduces the frequency of motions of the platform. The other major advantage of the StableMoor platform is that it is capable of supporting a bottom-tracking acoustic Doppler profiler, which provides an independent measure of the platform’s translational motion. Disadvantages of the StableMoor include: a) its size adds to the challenge of deployment and recovery, and b) it is significantly more expensive than the TTM system.

The StableMoor was deployed with an ADV-IMU mounted at its nose from 11:21 on May 12 to 11:53 on May 13, 2015 (local time). This deployment was at 48.15277 north, 122.68623 west. In this configuration the sample volume of the ADV is 10 cm forward of the nose and 20 cm above the centerline of the StableMoor (Figure 4). Based on Wyngaard et al.’s (1985) investigation of a similarly shaped slender body the velocity measurements should have flow-distortion effects of less than 10%. This configuration was designed to be the most stable platform for measuring turbulence from a moving platform. The StableMoor was equipped with a 1200 kHz RDI workhorse



158 sentinel acoustic Doppler profiler that was oriented downward-looking to measure water velocity  
 159 below the platform in 12 1-meter bins and measure buoy motion (‘bottom tracking’), all at a 1 Hz  
 160 sample rate.

### 161 *c. Turbulence Torpedo*

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

### 168 *d. Coordinate system and turbulence averaging*

169 Unless stated otherwise, vector quantities in this work are in a fixed ‘principal-axes’ coordinate  
 170 system that is aligned with the bi-directional tidal flow: positive  $u$  is in the direction of ebb ( $310^\circ$   
 171 True), positive  $w$  is vertically upward, and  $v$  is the cross-stream component in a right-handed  
 172 coordinate system. The full velocity vector,  $\vec{u} = (\tilde{u}, \tilde{v}, \tilde{w})$ , is separated into a mean and turbulent  
 173 component as  $\vec{u} = \bar{\vec{u}} + \vec{u}$ , where the over-bar denotes a 5 minute average. Turbulence kinetic  
 174 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  
 175 5-minute window. Throughout this work we use  $\bar{U} = (\bar{u}^2 + \bar{v}^2)^{1/2}$  to denote the mean horizontal  
 176 velocity magnitude.

177 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  
 178 computed using NumPy fast Fourier transform routines (van der Walt et al. 2011). Here,  $\mathcal{F}\{x(t)\}$

denotes the fast Fourier transform of a signal  $x(t)$ . Time series', e.g.  $x(t)$ , are linearly detrended and Hanning windowed prior to computing  $\mathcal{F}\{x\}$  to reduce spectral reddening.

Throughout the remainder of this work the dependence of  $S$  and  $C$  on  $f$  is implied (e.g.  $S\{x\}(f)$  is hereafter  $S\{x\}$ ), and for other variables the dependence on  $t$  is implied. Spectra and cross-spectra are normalized to preserve variance:  $\int S\{u\}df = \overline{u^2}$ , and  $\int C\{u, v\}df = \overline{uv}$ . The notations  $S\{\vec{u}\} = (S\{u\}, S\{v\}, S\{w\})$  and  $C\{\vec{u}\} = (C\{u, v\}, C\{u, w\}, C\{v, w\})$  denote the set of spectra and cross-spectra for each velocity component and pairs of components, respectively.

Turbulence dissipation rates are computed as,

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

Where  $\alpha = 0.5$ , and  $\langle \rangle_{f_{IS}}$  denotes an average over the inertial-subrange of the velocity spectra and where the signal-to-noise ratio is small (Lumley and Terray 1983; Sreenivasan 1995). Throughout 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 the  $w$  component.

### 3. Methodology

The essential approach of motion correction is to estimate time-series of velocity on a compliant mooring by obtaining an independent estimate of ADV head motion and removing that motion from the measured signal. Previous works have utilized inertial motion sensors to quantify the motion of 'multi-scale profilers' for the purpose of measuring the full spectrum of oceanic shear (Winkel et al. 1996). Nortek's ADV-IMU measures the linear acceleration,  $\vec{a}$ , rotational-motion,  $\vec{\omega}$ , and orientation matrix,  $\mathbf{R}$ , of the ADV pressure case (body) in the earth reference frame. So long as the ADV head is rigidly connected to the ADV pressure case, it is possible to utilize the IMU motion signals to calculate the motion of the ADV head, and remove it from the measured

200 velocity signal (Miller et al. 2008). The ADV head motion, is calculated as the sum of rotational  
 201 and translational motion:

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

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

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

219 The choice of high-pass filter for reducing low-frequency accelerometer noise depends on the  
 220 flow conditions of the measurement, and the platform that is being used. In particular, filter-  
 221 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  $\vec{u}_{\text{low}}$ . If an independent measure of low-frequency motion is available it can be used to increase the accuracy of  $\vec{u}_{\text{h}}$  at low-frequency. Note that, to avoid double counting,  $\vec{u}_{\text{low}}$  should be estimated by applying the complimentary 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,  $\vec{u}_{\text{m}}$ , to estimate the velocity in the earth’s inertial reference frame:

$$\vec{u}(t) = \vec{u}_{\text{m}}(t) + \vec{u}_{\text{h}}(t) \quad . \quad (3)$$

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

For the TTM and Turbulence Torpedo we utilize  $f_a = 0.0333\text{Hz}$  (30 second period), and assume that  $\vec{u}_{\text{low}} = 0$ . For the StableMoor  $f_a = 0.2\text{Hz}$  (5 second period). The bottom-track velocity was low-pass filtered at this frequency to provide an estimate of  $\vec{u}_{\text{low}}$ , and  $\vec{a}$  was high-pass filtered at this frequency. We use 4-pole, bi-directional (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 that of an upward-looking acoustic Doppler profiler mounted on the TTM anchor. This shows excellent

243 agreement between the ADV and Doppler profiler measurements of velocity. The  $\bar{u}$ ,  $\bar{v}$  and  $\bar{w}$   
 244 components have a root-mean-square error of 0.05, 0.13 and 0.03 m/s, respectively. While it  
 245 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,  $S\{\bar{u}_h\}$ , 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 broad-band 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,  $S\{\bar{u}_m\}$ ,  
 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 the  
 261 agreement of these spectra with turbulence theory and 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

shapes of earlier measurements of turbulence in energetic tidal channels from stationary platforms (Kolmogorov 1941; 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 3Hz. This indicates that in order for motion correction to be effective, synchronization between the ADV and IMU needs to be within 1/3 second 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 IMU-ADV achieves a synchronization to within 1e-2 seconds.

At low frequencies, the spectra tend to become roughly constant (especially at higher flow speeds), which is also consistent with previous works. Note here, 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—are in agreement at low-frequencies (not shown). This suggests that the assumption that  $\vec{u}_{low} = 0$  at these frequencies, 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 is only necessary when  $|u| > 2$  m/s.

288 The amplitude of the persistent motion contamination peaks in  $S\{v\}$  at 0.15 Hz are a factor of 5 to  
289 10 times smaller than the amplitude of the ADV head motion itself. This suggests the Microstrain  
290 IMU can be used to effectively correct for mooring motion at 0.15 Hz when the amplitude of that  
291 motion is less than 3 times the amplitude of the real turbulence spectrum. Where we have chosen  
292 a value of 3 as a conservative estimate of motion correction's effectiveness.

293 This reveals an ancillary benefit of the IMU measurements: in addition to the primary benefit of  
294 correcting for mooring motion, they can also be used to identify and screen-out persistent motion  
295 contamination. For example, one of the most common uses of turbulence spectra is for the calcu-  
296 lation of  $\epsilon$  and  $\text{tke}$ . For these purposes, based on the relative amplitudes of the 0.15 Hz peaks, we  
297 assume that persistent motion contamination is likely where  $S\{\vec{u}_h\}/S\{\vec{u}\} > 3$  and exclude these  
298 regions from spectral fits.

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

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

### 311 *c. StableMoor Spectra*

312 The spectra of the stablemoor motion has a broader peak with a maximum amplitude that is  
313 approximately half the frequency of the TTM spectral peak (Figure 9). The motion of this platform  
314 also does not have high-frequency ‘sub-peaks’ or other high-frequency broad-banded excitation  
315 (Part 1). These characteristics of the motion are most-likely due to the more massive and hydro-  
316 dynamically streamlined properties of the platform.

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

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

### 331 *d. Torpedo spectra*

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



334 its spectra rolls-off quickly below  $f_a$ . A better estimate of  $\vec{u}_{\text{low}}$  could be obtained by accounting  
335 for ship motion, but this has not been done here.

336 Motion correction of the torpedo data appears to effectively remove a motion from  $S\{w\}$  at  
337 0.3Hz, and straightens out  $S\{v\}$  between 0.04 and 0.6Hz.  $S\{u\}$  is relatively unimproved by motion  
338 correction, apparently because the torpedo motion is smaller than the turbulence in this direction.  
339 At frequencies below  $f_a$ ,  $S\{u\}$  and  $S\{v\}$  increase dramatically. This suggests that unresolved low-  
340 frequency motion of the torpedo is contaminating the velocity measurements at these frequencies.  
341 It may be possible to correct for some of this using a measurement of the ship's motion as a  
342 proxy for the torpedo's low-frequency motion, but this has not been done. Still, above  $f_a$ , the  
343 torpedo appears to provide a reliable estimate of spectral amplitude in the inertial subrange and  
344 can therefore be used to estimate  $\varepsilon$ . Considering the simplicity of the platform it may be a useful  
345 option for quantifying this essential turbulence quantity in a variety of scenarios. If a GPS is  
346 positioned above it, it 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  
353 peak in the amplitude of the cross-spectra of  $\vec{u}_h$  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

standard deviation of  $C\{\vec{u}\}$  is also relatively small at 0.15 Hz suggests that motion correction is 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 due to 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 much lower amplitude than for the TTM. The low-frequency ( $< 0.3$  Hz) 'swimming' motion of that platform produces minimal cross-spectral signal, and the relative large-mass of the platform minimizes the kinds of higher-frequency swaying/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 beginning of the previous section presented a comparison of  $\vec{u}$  measured by a TTM-mounted ADV, to measurements from a co-located ADP. This 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, exact time and exact location. Accomplishing this, however, involves significant technical challenges 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 that from a nearby fixed platform, or a fixed platform placed at the same location at a different time (e.g. the ‘TTT’ platform described in Thomson et al. 2012). Unfortunately, to our knowledge, these measurements have not yet been made.

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

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

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

Where  $\partial \bar{u} / \partial z$  is computed from the two ADV's on the TTM. The highest values of  $\varepsilon$  and  $P_{uz}$  occur at the peak of the ebb or flood, which is in agreement with other measurements in tidal channels. The agreement of the magnitude of  $P_{uz}$  with  $\varepsilon$  at those times suggests a local production-dissipation balance that is often observed in tidally forced channels (Trowbridge et al. 1999; Stacey et al. 1999b; McMillan et al. 2016). At other times the value of  $P_{uz}$  is insufficient to balance  $\varepsilon$  or is negative.

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

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

## 6. Conclusion

This work presents a methodology for measuring turbulence from moored IMU-ADV, and details an approach for removing the IMU-measured mooring motion from the ADV’s velocity measurements. The IMU integrated into the Nortek Vector ADV has been configured to provide estimates of the ADV’s orientation and motion at every time-step of the ADV’s sampling. The tight integration of the IMU and ADV data streams provides a data set that can be used to correct velocity measurements for mooring motion and rotate those measurements into the earth’s reference frame.

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

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

This inconsistency indicates that turbulence measurements from moored, motion-corrected IMU-ADV must be interpreted with care. An inspection of spectra presented here suggests

446 that excluding spectral regions where  $S\{\vec{u}_h\}/S\{\vec{u}\} > 3$  removes ‘persistent motion contamina-  
447 tion’ peaks, while still preserving spectral regions where motion correction is effective. Using this  
448 criteria it is then possible to produce spectral fits that exclude persistent motion contamination,  
449 and provide reliable estimates of turbulence quantities of interest (e.g.  $\varepsilon$  and  $\tau_{ke}$ ).

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

454 Finally, we’ve shown that  $\varepsilon$  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 of  
457 the IMU-ADVs ( 10 m) during ebb and flood. The degree of agreement between  $P_{uz}$  and  $\varepsilon$  also  
458 serves as an indicator of the self-consistency of moored IMU-ADV turbulence measurements.

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

In order to better understand the IMU's signal-to-noise ratio, it is instructive to compare the motion of the StableMoor buoy from the ADP bottom track measurements,  $u_{\text{BT}}$ , 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  $\ell^*$  with the vector that points from the IMU to the ADP head. We then linearly interpolated the ADP measurements 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). The  $v$  component has the highest coherence, 98%, because this is the direction that has the most motion and therefore these estimates have a higher signal to noise ratio. The  $u$  and  $w$  components have slightly lower coherence, 80% and 65%, respectively, which indicates the \*convolved\* signal to noise ratio of these measurements.

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  $\vec{u}_{\text{low}}$  from  $u_{\text{BT}}$ . 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 measure of the performance of the frequency at which IMU measured velocity becomes unreliable in the flow conditions we observed.

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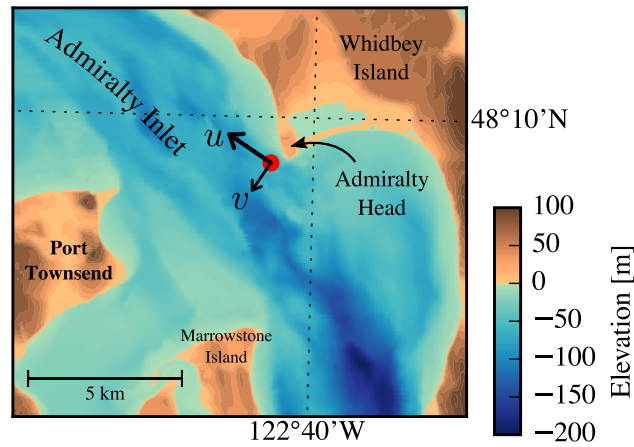


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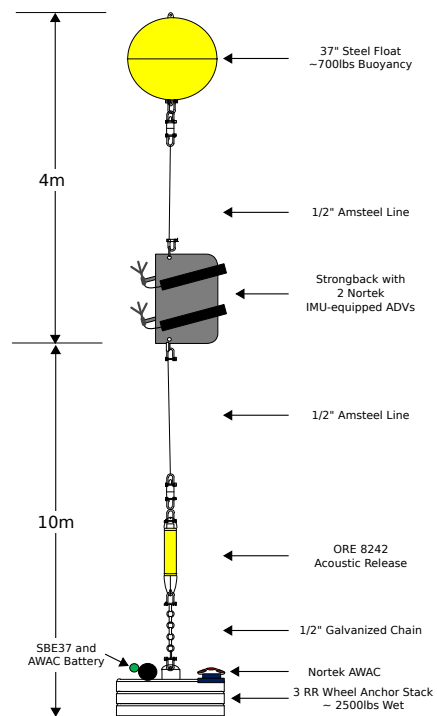
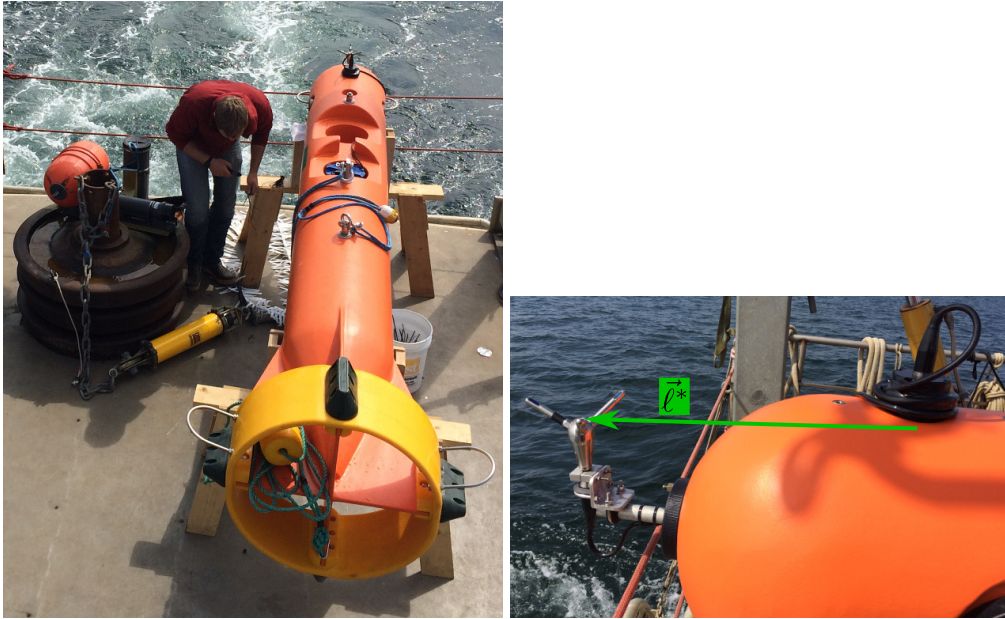


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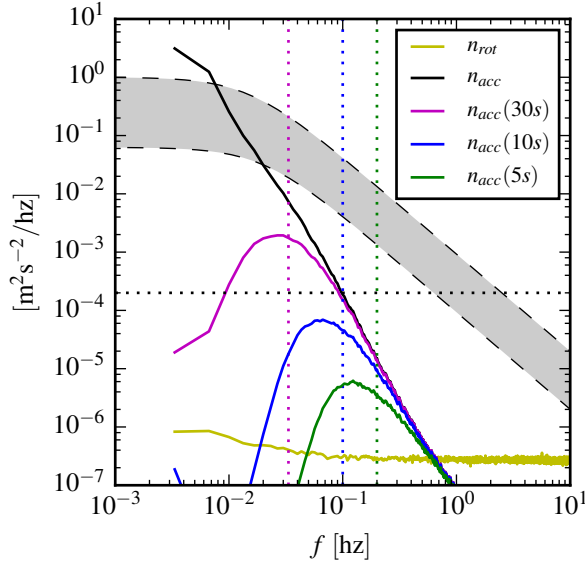
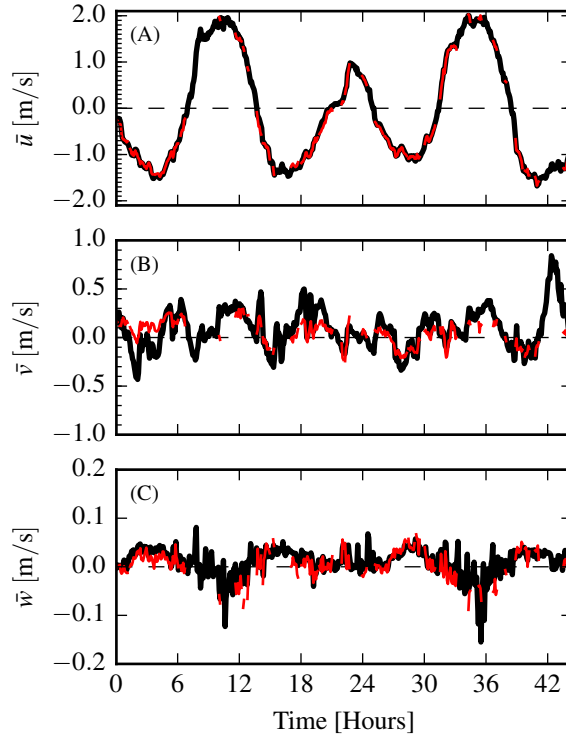


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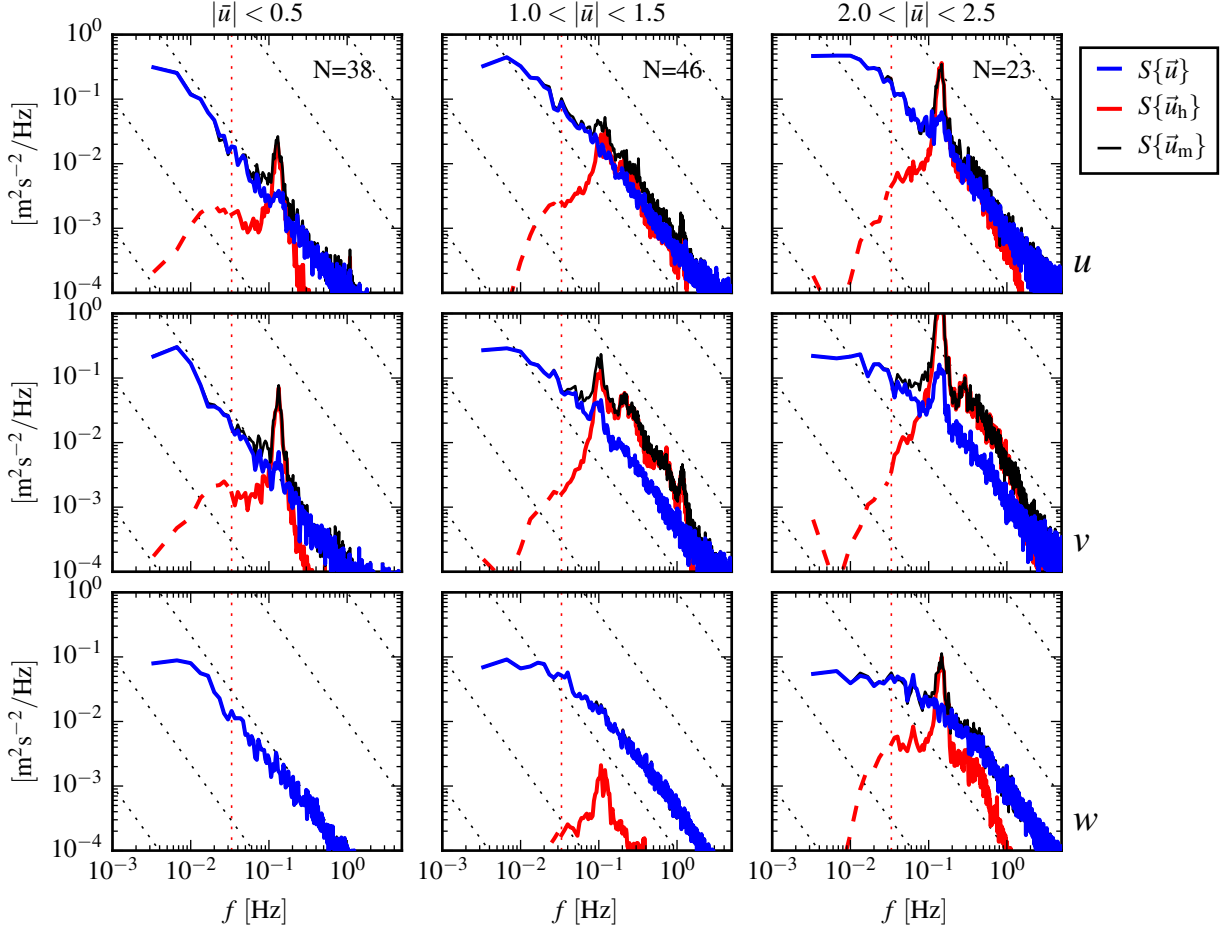


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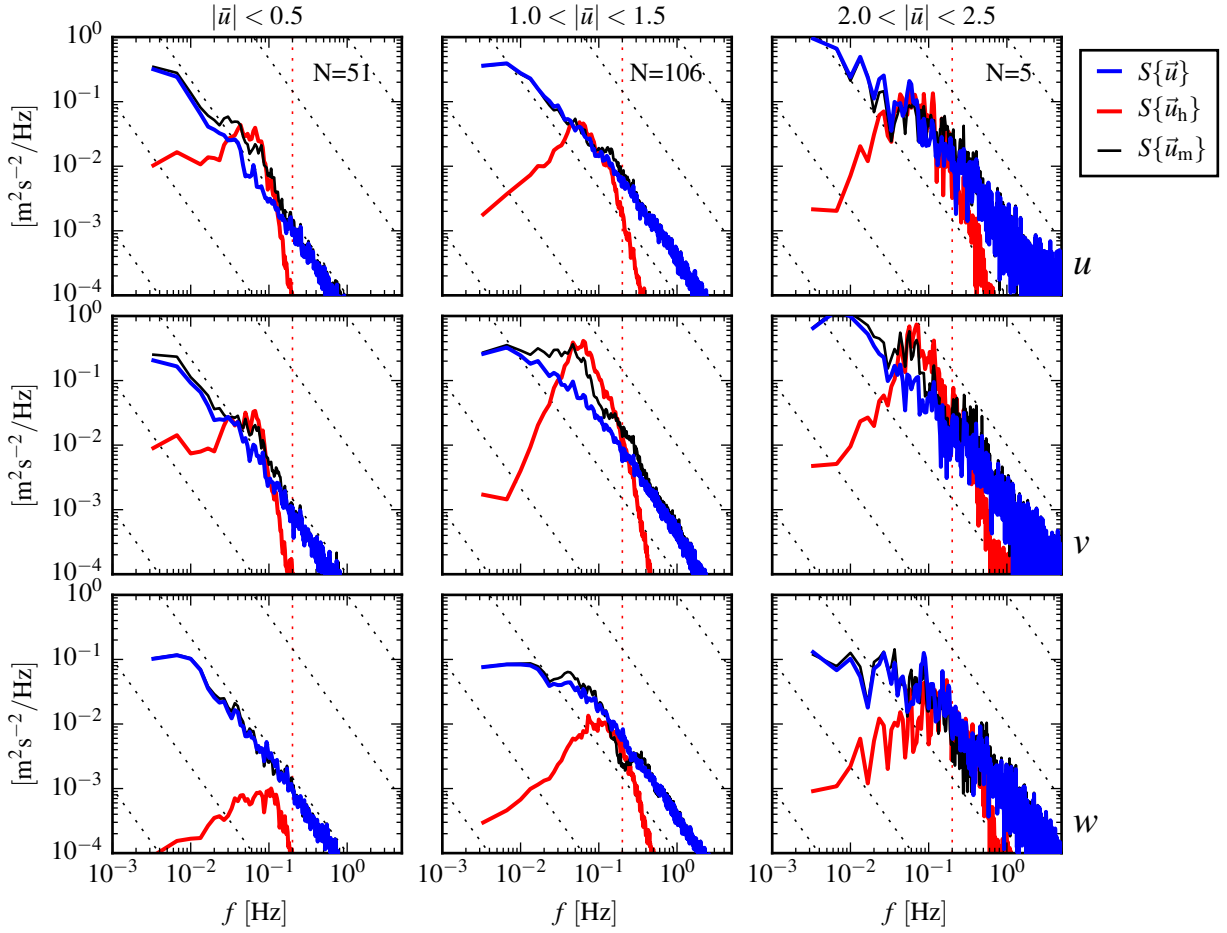


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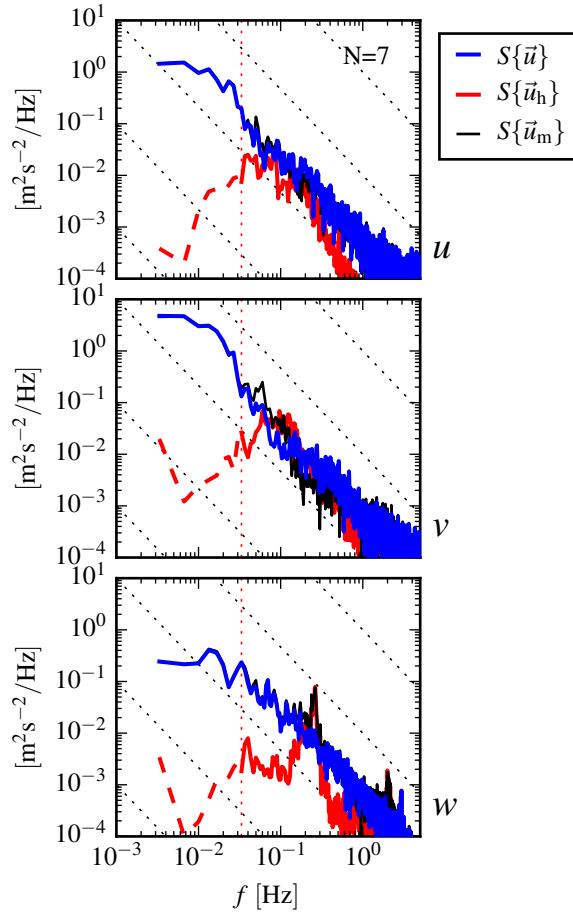


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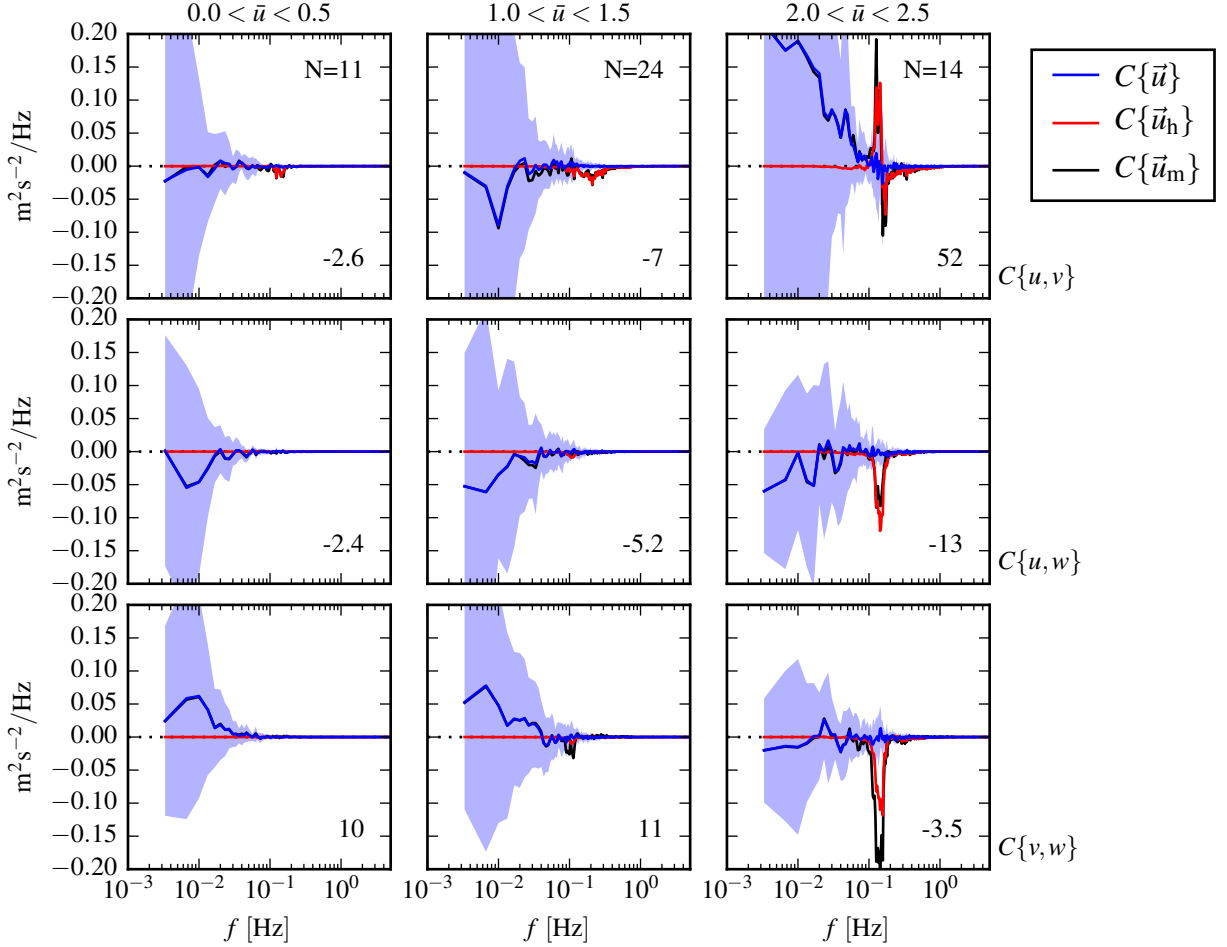


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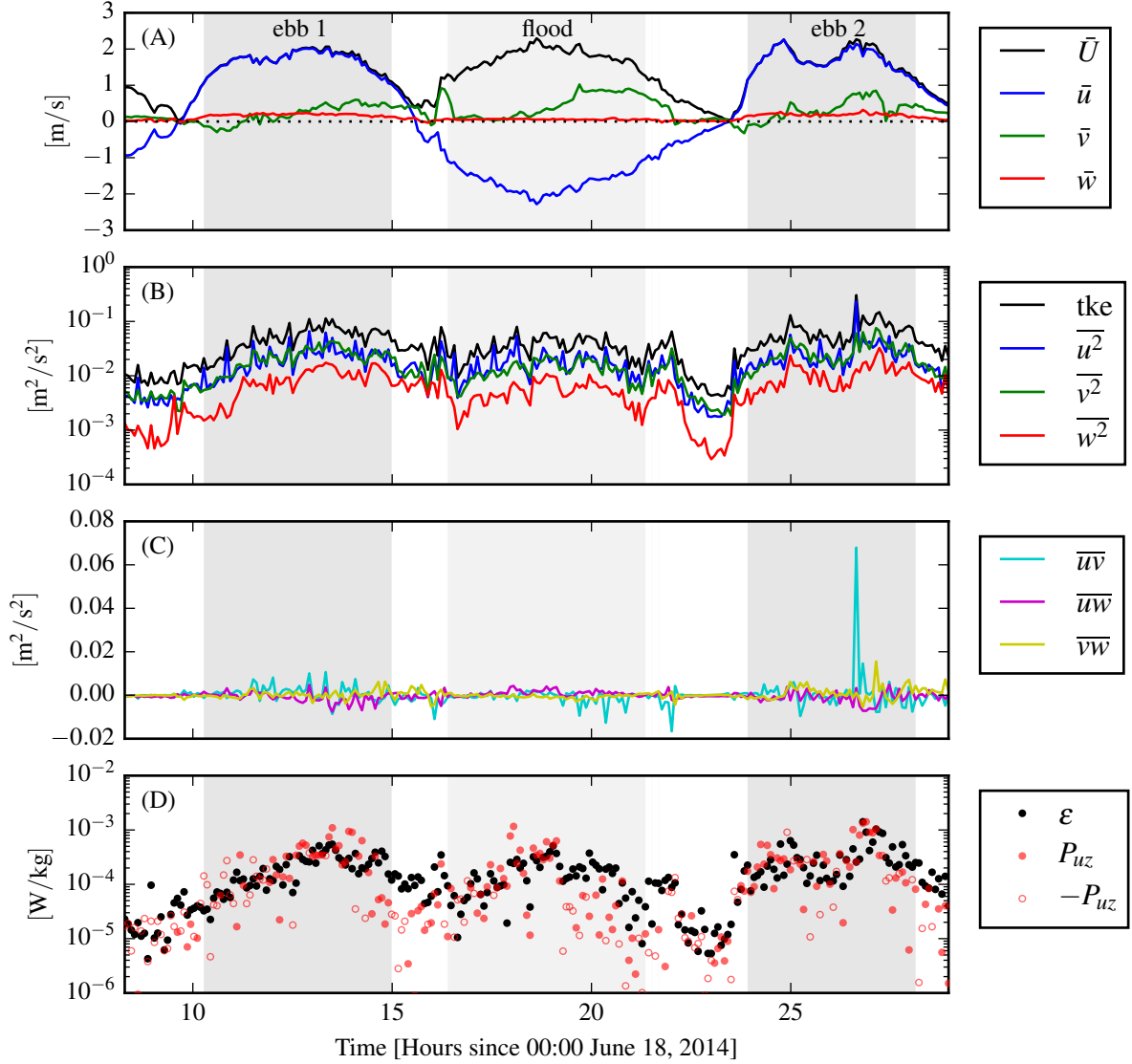
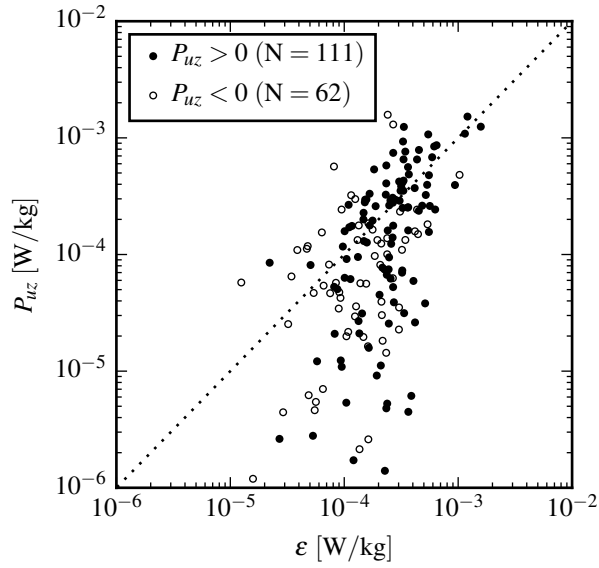


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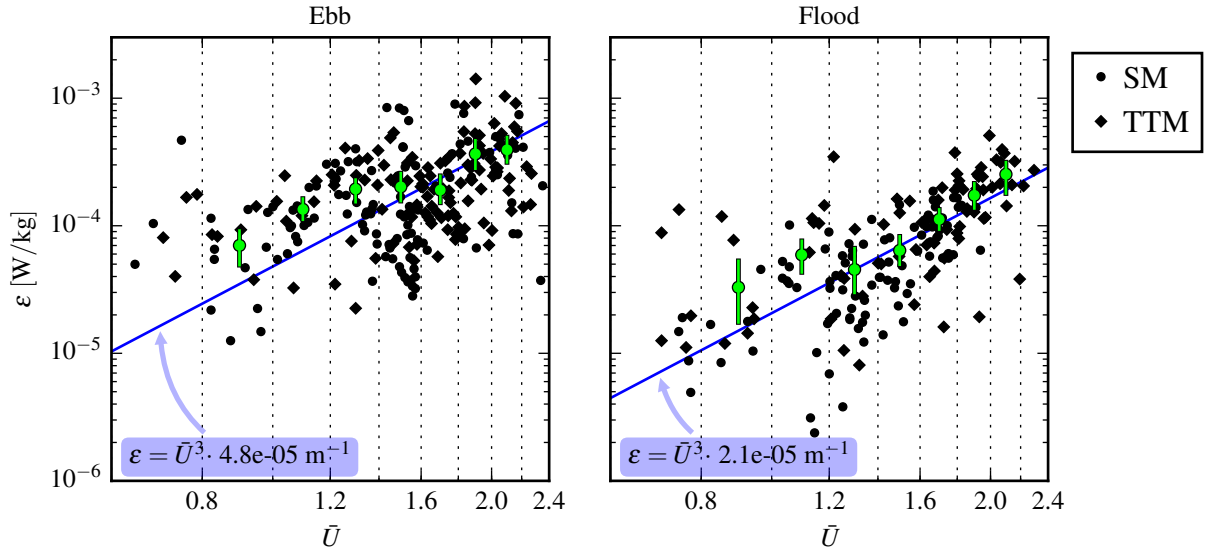


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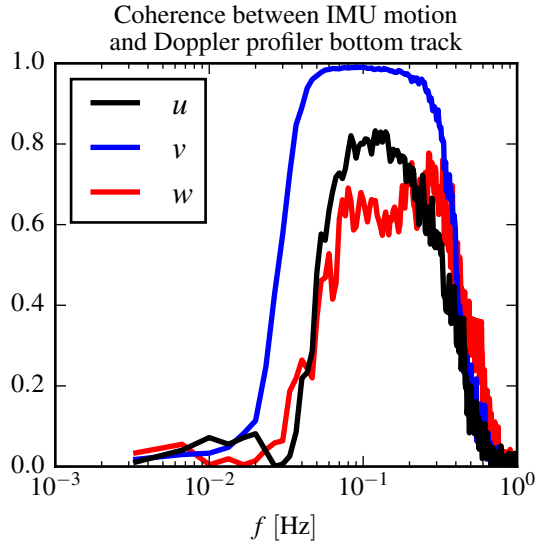


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