

14. Appendix C.

Let $T_r^*(x)$ denote the r -th degree, modified Chebyshev polynomial, defined by

$$T_r^*(x) = \cos(r \cdot \theta) , \quad \cos \theta = 2 \cdot x - 1 , \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1 . \quad (C.1)$$

Any function integrable with the weight $(x-x^2)^{-1/2}$ in the interval $[0,1]$ can be expanded into

$$f(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} \cdot T_0^*(x) + \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} a_r \cdot T_r^*(x) , \quad (C.2)$$

where

$$a_r = \frac{2}{\pi} \cdot \int_0^1 f(x) \cdot T_r^*(x) \cdot \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x-x^2}} . \quad (C.3)$$

The error arising from taking only N terms of this expansion decreases more rapidly than any power of $1/N$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$ [92]. Multiplying the finite series by x^n yields:

$$x^n \cdot \left(\frac{a_0}{2} \cdot T_0^*(x) + \sum_{r=1}^N a_r \cdot T_r^*(x) \right) = \frac{b_0}{2} \cdot T_0^*(x) + \sum_{r=1}^{N+n} b_r \cdot T_r^*(x) , \quad (C.4)$$

where

$$b_r = 2^{-2 \cdot n} \cdot \sum_{s=r-n}^{s=r+n} \binom{2 \cdot n}{r+n-s} \cdot a_s \quad \text{if } r > n \quad (C.5)$$

or

$$b_r = c_r \cdot 2^{-2 \cdot n} \cdot \left[\sum_{s=0}^{s=r+n} \binom{2 \cdot n}{r+n-s} \cdot a_s + \sum_{s=1}^{s=n-r} \binom{2 \cdot n}{r+n+s} \cdot a_s \right] \quad (C.6)$$

$$\text{if } r \leq n \quad \text{and} \quad c_r = \begin{cases} 0.5 & r=0 \\ 1 & r>0 \end{cases} .$$

Differentiation of the finite series (C.2) gives:

$$\left[\frac{a_0}{2} \cdot T_0^*(x) + \sum_{r=1}^N a_r \cdot T_r^*(x) \right]^{(n)} = \left[\frac{a_0^{(n)}}{2} \cdot T_0^*(x) + \sum_{r=1}^{N-n} a_r^{(n)} \cdot T_r^*(x) \right] \quad (C.7)$$

and for the first four derivatives one receives:

$$a_r^{(1)} = 4 \cdot \sum_{p=r+1}^N p \cdot a_p , \quad p+r \equiv 1 \pmod{2} , \quad (C.8)$$

$$a_r^{(2)} = 4 \cdot \sum_{p=r+2}^N (p-r) \cdot p \cdot (p+r) \cdot a_p, \quad p \equiv r \pmod{2}, \quad (\text{C.9})$$

$$a_r^{(3)} = 2 \cdot \sum_{p=r+3}^N (p-r-1) \cdot (p-r+1) \cdot p \cdot (p+r-1) \cdot (p+r+1) \cdot a_p, \quad p+r \equiv 1 \pmod{2}, \quad (\text{C.10})$$

$$a_r^{(4)} = \frac{2}{3} \cdot \sum_{p=r+4}^N (p-r-2) \cdot (p-r) \cdot (p-r+2) \cdot p \cdot (p+r) \cdot (p+r) \cdot (p+r+2) \cdot a_p, \quad (\text{C.11})$$

$$p \equiv r \pmod{2},$$

where $i \equiv j$ means that $i - j$ is divisible by 2.

The above properties make the Chebyshev series particularly useful in solving the ordinary differential equation of type

$$\sum_{i=0}^K \sum_{j=0}^{L_i} \alpha_{i,j} \cdot x^j \cdot \frac{d^{(i)}y(x)}{dx^{(i)}} = 0 \quad (\text{C.12})$$

with the boundary conditions:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{K-1} \beta_{i,j} \cdot \frac{d^{(j)}y}{dx^{(j)}} \Big|_{x=x_i} = 0, \quad i=0,1,\dots,K-1. \quad (\text{C.13})$$

When the finite approximation

$$y(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} \cdot T_0^*(x) + \sum_{r=1}^N a_r \cdot T_r^*(x) \quad (\text{C.14})$$

is to be applied, the simplest method to solve (C.12) and (C.13) is Lanczo's tau method [91].

Introduction of (C.14) into (C.12) gives

$$\sum_{r=0}^Q \left(\sum_{n=0}^N \gamma_{r,n} \cdot a_n \right) \cdot T_r^*(x) = 0, \quad Q = \max\{N+L_i-i\} \text{ for } i=0,1,\dots,K, \quad (\text{C.15})$$

whereas elimination of $y(x)$ between (C.13) and (C.14) results in K equations:

$$\sum_{r=0}^N \left(\sum_{n=0}^N \delta_{i,r,n} \cdot a_n \right) \cdot T_r^*(x_i) = 0, \quad i=0,1,\dots,K-1. \quad (\text{C.16})$$

Constants $\gamma_{r,n}$ and $\delta_{i,r,n}$ appearing in expressions (C.15) and (C.16) are linear functions of constants $\alpha_{i,j}$ and $\beta_{i,j}$, and can be determined from relations (C.5), (C.6) and (C.8)÷(C.11) provided that $K \leq 4$. Equations (C.15) should be satisfied for each x from 0 to 1, which results in $Q+1$ equations of type:

$$\sum_{n=0}^N \gamma_{r,n} \cdot a_n = 0 \quad \text{where } 0 \leq r \leq Q. \quad (\text{C.17})$$

The system of equations (C.16) and (C.17) is overdetermined since one has $N+1$ coefficients a_n and $Q+K+1$ equations. The idea of the tau method is to leave $Q-N+K$ equations (C.17) unsatisfied [91,92] and determine the high frequency (i.e. high r) behavior of the solution from K boundary conditions (C.16).

In the case of the system composed of two Orr-Sommerfeld equations (4.26) and eight boundary conditions (4.24) and (4.25) the constants α_{ij} and β_{ij} are linear functions of the wave speed. Hence, the application of the tau method yields general eigenvalue problem (4.28). Such a problem can be solved by the LZ-algorithm [93], which is a generalization of well known Rutishauser's LR-method. The LZ-algorithm is based on three observations:

1. If $\bar{\bar{L}}$ and $\bar{\bar{M}}$ are nonsingular matrices, the eigenvalue problems:

$$\bar{\bar{A}} \cdot \bar{x} = \lambda \cdot \bar{\bar{B}} \cdot \bar{x}, \quad (\text{C.18})$$

$$\bar{\bar{L}} \cdot \bar{\bar{A}} \cdot \bar{\bar{M}} \cdot \bar{y} = \lambda \cdot \bar{\bar{L}} \cdot \bar{\bar{B}} \cdot \bar{\bar{M}} \cdot \bar{y} \quad (\text{C.19})$$

have the same eigenvalues, λ , and their eigenvectors are related by

$$\bar{x} = \bar{\bar{M}} \cdot \bar{y}, \quad (\text{C.20})$$

2. If $\bar{\bar{A}}$ is a triangular matrix with diagonal elements, $a_{i,i}$, and $\bar{\bar{B}}$ is a triangular matrix with diagonal elements, $b_{i,i}$, then the ratio $a_{i,i}/b_{i,i}$ is an eigenvalue of the generalized problem (C.18) if $b_{i,i} \neq 0$,

3. There exist matrices $\bar{\bar{L}}$ and $\bar{\bar{M}}$ such that $\bar{\bar{L}} \cdot \bar{\bar{A}} \cdot \bar{\bar{M}}$ and $\bar{\bar{L}} \cdot \bar{\bar{B}} \cdot \bar{\bar{M}}$ are upper triangular and $\bar{\bar{L}}$ and $\bar{\bar{M}}$ are the products of lower triangular and permutation matrices.

The aim of the LZ-algorithm is to construct iteratively $\bar{\bar{L}}$ and $\bar{\bar{M}}$ matrices by means of stabilized elementary transformations. The superiority of this algorithm over similar ones is expressed by the fact that it can be successfully applied even if both matrices $\bar{\bar{A}}$ and $\bar{\bar{B}}$ are singular; in system (4.28) matrix $\bar{\bar{B}}$ is singular.

The accuracy of the proposed here numerical procedure consisting of Lanczo's tau method and the LZ-algorithm depends on the number of terms in Chebyshev series (4.27). Considering data presented in table C-I one can see that setting $k=l=20$ gives accuracy up to 5 significant digits, whereas $k=l=26$ gives accuracy up to 8 significant digits. Stability curves presented in chapter 4 were obtained for $k=l=20$.

Table C.I. Accuracy of computations;
 $\rho_1/\rho_2=1.026$, $\mu_1/\mu_2=2.36e-3$, $\alpha a=0.7$,
 $a/R=0.10512$, $Re_w=29.83$.

number of terms $k=1$	$Im(c \cdot a \cdot \rho_1/\mu_1)$
10	0.65928180
12	0.66034212
14	0.65938258
16	0.65917069
18	0.65912998
20	0.65912260
22	0.65912128
24	0.65912104
26	0.65912100

