

# GLOBAL JOURNAL

OF SCIENCE FRONTIER RESEARCH: F

## Mathematics and Decision Science



Some Bicomplex Modules

Improved Korteweg De Vries

Highlights

Propagation of Gravity Waves

Symmetric Metric S-Connection

Discovering Thoughts, Inventing Future

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MATHEMATICS & DECISION SCIENCES

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# Effects of Nonisothermality and Wind-Shears on the Propagation of Gravity Waves (I): Comparison between *Hines'* Model and WKB Approach

By J. Z. G. Ma

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**Abstract-** In the presence of the vertical temperature & wind-speed gradients, we extend *Hines'* isothermal and shear-free model to calculate the vertical wavenumber ( $m_r$ ) and growth rate ( $m_i$ ) of gravity waves propagating in a stratified, non-isothermal, and wind-shear atmosphere. The profiles obtained from the extended *Hines'* model are compared with those from the Wentzel-Kramers-Brillouin (WKB) approach up to 300 km altitude. The empirical neutral atmospheric and wind models (NRLMSISE-00 and HWM93) are used to obtain the vertical profiles of the mean-field properties and the zonal/meridional winds.

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# Effects of Nonisothermality and Wind-Shears on the Propagation of Gravity Waves (I): Comparison between *Hines'* Model and WKB Approach

J. Z. G. Ma

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## I. INTRODUCTION

Atmospheric thermal structure and background winds substantially influence the propagation of gravity waves in regions where thermal and/or Doppler ducting is confirmed either theoretically (e.g., *Pitteway & Hines* 1965; *Wang & Tuan*, 1988; *Hickey* 2001; *Walterscheid et al.* 2001; *Snively & Pasko* 2003; *Yu & Hickey* 2007a,b,c) or experimentally (e.g., *Hines & Tarasick* 1994; *Taylor et al.* 1995; *Isler et al.* 1997; *Walterscheid et al.* 1999; *Hecht et al.* 2001; *Liu & Swenson* 2003; *She et al.* 2004; *Snively et al.* 2007; *She et al.* 2009). The vertical variations in temperature and zonal/meridional wind shears have therefore become the two dominant factors and received increasing attentions in the transport, reflection, refraction, dissipation, and evanescence of gravity waves propagating in atmosphere. Accordingly, *Hines* (1960)'s locally isothermal, shear-free gravity wave theory with the WKB approximation has been extended by previous authors to ob-

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tain generalized dispersion relations for accommodating to more complicated atmospheric situations.

*Einaudi & Hines* (1971) formulated an anelastic dispersion relation that includes the thermal and homogeneous wind effects, nevertheless in the absence of vertical wind shears, with the same growth rate ( $m_i$ ) but an updated vertical wave number square ( $m_r^2$ ) from *Hines'* formula ( $m_{r\text{Hines}}^2$ ), expressed by

$$m_i = -\frac{1}{2H} ; \quad m_{r\text{Hines}}^2 = \frac{\Omega^2 - \omega_a^2}{C^2} + k_h^2 \frac{\omega_b^2 - \Omega^2}{\Omega^2} \Rightarrow m_r^2 = \frac{\Omega^2 - \omega_a^2}{C^2} + k_h^2 \frac{\omega_B^2 - \Omega^2}{\Omega^2} \quad (1)$$

where  $\Omega = \omega - \mathbf{k}_h \cdot \mathbf{v}_0$  is the intrinsic (or, Doppler-shifted) angular frequency,  $\omega$  is the extrinsic (ground-based) frequency,  $\mathbf{k}_h$  is the horizontal wavenumber vector,  $\mathbf{v}_0$  is the horizontal mean-field wind vector,  $C = \sqrt{\gamma g H}$  is the sound speed in which  $\gamma$  is the adiabatic index,  $g$  is the gravitational acceleration, and,  $H$  is *Hines'* scale-height,  $\omega_B$  is the non-isothermal Brunt-Väisälä buoyancy frequency, and  $\omega_a$  is the isothermal acoustic-cutoff frequency. The thermal effect is given in the definition of  $\omega_B$  with  $\omega_B^2 = \omega_b^2 + g k_T$  [in which  $\omega_b^2 = (1 - 1/\gamma)(g/H)$  is *Hines'* isothermal buoyancy frequency, and  $k_T = (dH/dz)/H$  is the thermal inhomogeneous number], and the wind effect is implicitly involved in  $\Omega$ . Note that Eq.(1) is an extended *Hines* (1960)' expression which recovers his original windless result for  $k_T = 0$  and  $\mathbf{v}_0 = 0$ . The last  $\Omega - m_r$  dispersion equation in Eq.(1) is widely used in gravity wave studies as *Hines'* locally isothermal and shear-free model.

Later, *Gossard & Hooke* (1975) introduced the structure and behavior of the highest-frequency gravity waves in the mesosphere. The result was the same as Eq.(1) but without the first term. By considering the Coriolis parameter (*Eckart* 1960), *Marks & Eckermann* (1995) and *Eckermann* (1997) updated Eq.(1) to expose the effect of the Earth's rotation effect, as well as wave refraction, saturation, and turbulent damping via ray-tracing mapping. *Vadas & Fritts* (2004,2005) adopted *Hines'* isothermal model to examine the influence of dissipation terms, like kinematic viscosity and thermal diffusivity, and derived a complex dispersion relation and GW damping rate arising from mesoscale convective complexes in the thermosphere. Note that in the last formula of Eq.(1), the thermal effect is present in  $\omega_B$ , but missing in  $\omega_a$ . Besides, these studies did not take into consideration the wind-shear effect (i.e.,  $\omega_v = |\mathbf{d}\mathbf{v}_0/dz|$ ), but assuming a uniform background horizontal wind.

The role played by shears in gravity wave propagation was dominantly recognized at first through discussions of linear instabilities in a 2D, stably-stratified, horizontal shear flows of an ideal Boussinesq fluid (*Miles* 1961; *Howard* 1961), as well as of the onset of atmospheric turbulence (e.g., *Hines* 1971; *Dutton* 1986). It was found that the isothermal (gradient) Richardson number,  $Ri = \omega_b^2/\omega_v^2$ , has a critical value,  $Ri_c = 1/4$ . If  $Ri > Ri_c$ , flows are stable everywhere; however, this criterion may not rigorously apply for all scenarios, but as a necessary, not sufficient condition for instabilities (*Stone* 1966; *Miles* 1986), particularly when, e.g., the shear is tilted from zenith (*Sonmor & Klaassen* 1997), or, when the molecular viscosity is important (*Liu* 2007). Even for all arbitrarily large values of  $Ri$ , a family of explicit, elementary, stably-stratified, time-dependent, and non-parallel

flows was verified to be unstable (*Majda & Shefter* 1998). A growing body of experimental and observational data also indicated that turbulence survives  $Ri \gg 1$  (*Galperin et al.* 2007). Notwithstanding the above, there has been no such a dispersion relation of gravity waves which is derived to get  $Ri$  and  $Ri_c$  directly by solving the linear fluid equations under the WKB approximation.

Fortunately, sheared atmosphere had already been studied for tens of years before *Hines* (1960)'s WKB work. A special treatment was adopted to the perturbation of fluid equations in an incompressible atmosphere ( $\gamma \rightarrow \infty$ ): linear wavelike solutions are assumed in time and horizontal coordinates, with  $\omega$ ,  $k_h$ , and the mean-field state varying neither in time nor in the horizontal plane. As such the perturbed vertical profiles of bulk properties are obtained in view of the vertical variation in the background temperature and horizontal velocity (*Taylor* 1931; *Goldstein* 1931; see a review by *Fritts & Alexander* 2003). This approach has now been developed fully numerically as a generalized full-wave model (FWM) to treat the propagation of non-hydrostatic, linear gravity waves in a realistic compressible, inhomogeneous atmosphere which is dissipative due to not only the eddy processes in the lower atmosphere but also the molecular processes (viscosity, thermal conduction and ion drag) in atmosphere, in addition to the altitude-dependent mean-field temperature and horizontal winds, as well as Coriolis force (*Hickey* 2011; *Hickey et al.* 1997,1998,2000,2001,2009,2010; *Walterscheid & Hickey* 2001,2005,2012; *Schubert et al.* 2003,2005). Importantly, the WKB approach has been employed to yield a Taylor-Goldstein equation or a more generalized quadratic equation and the non-isothermal and shearing effects can be obtained in the presence of the height-varying temperature and wind shears (see, e.g., *Beer* 1974; *Nappo* 2002; *Sutherland* 2010). The most recent contribution was performed by *Zhou & Morton* (2007). Upon the background gradient properties of the atmosphere, the authors found that the vertical wavenumber depends only on the intrinsic horizontal phase speed ( $C_{ph} = \Omega/k_h$ ). Unfortunately, the generalized dispersion equation is unable to restore Eq.(1) due to some algebra inconsistencies.

we are inspired to concentrate on the exact expressions of the dispersion relation obtained by extending *Hines'* model and by adopting the WKB approximation. The purpose lies in describing the features of gravity wave propagation in a compressible and non-isothermal atmosphere in the presence of atmospheric wind shears. The motivation to tackle this subject is the necessity to find an accurate gravity wave model in data-fit modeling to demonstrate the modulation of waves excited by natural hazards (like, tsunami/volcano events, nuclear explosion, etc.) in realistic atmosphere. The region concerned is from the sea level to  $\sim 200$  km altitude within which the atmosphere is non-dissipative (negligible viscosity and heat conductivity) and the ion drag and Coriolis force can be reasonably omitted (*Harris & Priester* 1962; *Pitteway & Hines* 1963; *Volland* 1969a,b). The structure of the paper is as follows: Section 2 extends *Hines'* model, Eq.(1), by involving the nonthermaility and wind-shears in the dispersion relation. Section 3 gives a generalized dispersion relation by employing the WKB approach. Section 4 compares the two models and illustrates their deviations from *Hines'* isothermal and shear-free model. Section 5 offers a summary and conclusion. In the study, the mean-field properties up to 300 km

altitude are obtained from the empirical neutral atmospheric model (NRLMSISE-00; *Picone et al.* 2002) and the horizontal wind model (HWM93; *Hedin et al.* 1996). We choose a Cartesian frame,  $\{\hat{\mathbf{e}}_x, \hat{\mathbf{e}}_y, \hat{\mathbf{e}}_z\}$ , where  $\hat{\mathbf{e}}_x$  is horizontally due east,  $\hat{\mathbf{e}}_y$  due north, and  $\hat{\mathbf{e}}_z$  vertically upward.

## II. EXTENDED HINES' MODEL: DISPERSION RELATION

Up to  $\sim 200$  km altitude, the neutral atmosphere can be considered non-dissipative with negligible eddy process, molecular viscosity and thermal conduction, ion-drag, and Coriolis effect (*Harris & Priester* 1962; *Pitteway & Hines* 1963; *Volland* 1969a,b). The governing non-hydrostatic and compressible equations to describe gravity waves are based on conservation laws in mass, momentum, and energy, as well as the equation of state (e.g., *Beer* 1974; *Fritts & Alexander* 2003; *Zhou & Morton* 2007; for a complete set of equations including dissipative terms, see, e.g., *Landau & Lifshitz* 1959; *Volland* 1969a; *Francis* 1973; *Hickey & Cole* 1987; *Vadas & Fritts* 2005; *Liu et al.* 2013):

$$\frac{D\rho}{Dt} = -\rho\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}, \quad \frac{D\mathbf{v}}{Dt} = -\frac{1}{\rho}\nabla p + \mathbf{g}, \quad \frac{Dp}{Dt} = -\gamma p\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}, \quad p = \rho R_s T \quad (2)$$

in which  $\mathbf{v}$ ,  $\rho$ ,  $p$ , and  $T$  are the atmospheric velocity, density, pressure, and temperature, respectively;  $D/Dt = \partial/\partial t + \mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla$  is the substantial derivative over time  $t$ ;  $\mathbf{g} = \{0, 0, -g\}$  is the gravitational acceleration; and  $\gamma$  and  $R_s$  are the adiabatic index and gas constant, respectively. The vertical profiles of Hines' scale height  $H$ , and these three input parameters,  $\gamma$ ,  $g$ , and  $R_s$ , are given in Fig.1, where two additional scale heights,  $H_\rho$  (in density) and  $H_p$  (in pressure), are also shown for comparisons with  $H$ , the definitions of which are given below in Eq.(4).

Acoustic-gravity waves originate from the small perturbations away from their mean-field properties and propagate in a stratified atmosphere (*Gossard & Hooke* 1975). We linearize Eq.(2) by employing

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \rho &= \rho_0 + \rho_1, T = T_0 + T_1, p = p_0 + p_1 \\ \mathbf{v} &= \mathbf{v}_0 + \mathbf{v}_1 = \{U, V, 0\} + \{u, v, w\} \\ \left( \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_0}, \frac{p_1}{p_0}, \frac{T_1}{T_0}, \frac{u}{U}, \frac{v}{V}, w \right) &\propto e^{i(\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r}-\omega t)} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (3)$$

where parameters attached by subscript "0" are ambient mean-field components and those with subscript "1" are the linearized quantities;  $U$  and  $V$  are the zonal (eastward) and meridional (northward) components of the mean-field wind velocity (note that the wind is horizontal and thus the vertical component  $W$  is zero), respectively;  $(u, v, w)$  are the three components of the perturbed velocity, respectively;  $\mathbf{k} = \{k, l, m\}$  in which  $k$  and  $l$  are the two horizontal wavenumbers which are constants, constituting a horizontal wave vector  $\mathbf{k}_h = \{k, l\} = k_h \mathbf{k}_{h0}$  with  $k_h = \sqrt{k^2 + l^2}$  and  $\mathbf{k}_{h0} = \mathbf{k}_h/k_h$ , and,  $m = m_r + im_i$  is the vertical wave vector which is a complex; and,  $\omega$  is the extrinsic angular wave frequency which is a constant. The inhomogeneities of the mean-field properties bring about following altitude-dependent parameters:

$$k_\rho = \frac{1}{H_\rho} = \frac{d(\ln \rho_0)}{dz}, \quad k_p = \frac{1}{H_p} = \frac{d(\ln p_0)}{dz}, \quad k_T = \frac{d(\ln T_0)}{dz}, \quad \omega_v = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dU}{dz}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dV}{dz}\right)^2} \quad (4)$$

in which  $k_\rho$ ,  $k_p$ , and  $k_T$  are the density, pressure, and temperature scale numbers, respectively, satisfying  $k_T = k_p - k_\rho$  from the equation of state. Note that  $\omega_v$  is the shear-related parameter in the unit of angular frequency, rad/s.

The linearization of Eq.(2) yields following set of perturbed equations:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \rho_1}{\partial t} + \mathbf{v}_0 \cdot \nabla \rho_1 + \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \nabla \rho_0 + \rho_0 \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 + \rho_1 \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_0 &= 0 \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}_1}{\partial t} + \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}_0 + \mathbf{v}_0 \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}_1 &= -\frac{1}{\rho_0} \nabla p_1 + \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_0} \mathbf{g} \\ \frac{\partial p_1}{\partial t} + \mathbf{v}_0 \cdot \nabla p_1 + \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \nabla p_0 &= -\gamma p_0 \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 - \gamma p_1 \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_0 \\ \frac{p_1}{p_0} &= \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_0} + \frac{T_1}{T_0} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (5)$$

which provides following dispersion equation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \omega & k & l & m - ik_\rho & 0 \\ 0 & \omega & 0 & i\frac{dU}{dz} & k \\ 0 & 0 & \omega & i\frac{dV}{dz} & l \\ -ig & 0 & 0 & \omega & m - ik_p \\ 0 & k & l & m - i\frac{k_p}{\gamma} & \frac{\omega}{C^2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_0} \\ u \\ v \\ w \\ \frac{p_1}{p_0} \end{bmatrix} = 0 \quad (6)$$

from which a generalized, complex dispersion relation of gravity waves is derived in the presence of non-isothermality and wind shears, if and only if the determinant of the coefficient matrix is zero:

$$\Omega^4 - (C^2 K^2 + gk_T) \Omega^2 - (\gamma - 1)gk_h \Omega V_{k1} + C^2 k_h^2 \omega_B^2 = i\gamma gm \Omega (\Omega - k_h H V_{k1}) \quad (7)$$

in which  $\Omega = \omega - \mathbf{k}_h \cdot \mathbf{v}_0 = \omega - (kU + lV) = \omega - k_h V_k$  is the intrinsic (or, Doppler-shifted) angular frequency,  $K^2 = k_h^2 + m^2$ ,  $V_k = \mathbf{k}_{h0} \cdot \mathbf{v}_0 = \sqrt{U^2 + V^2} \cos \theta$ , and  $V_{k1} = \mathbf{k}_{h0} \cdot (d\mathbf{v}_0/dz) = \omega_v \cos \theta'$ , where  $\theta$  and  $\theta'$  are the angles between the horizontal wave vector  $\mathbf{k}_h$  and (1) the mean-field wind velocity  $\mathbf{v}_0$ , (2) the wind velocity gradient, respectively. Note that  $\theta = \theta'$  if  $\theta'$  is independent of  $z$ .

Because  $m$  is a complex, using  $(m_r + im_i)$  instead of  $m$  in Eq.(7) produces the solutions of the dispersion relation:

$$m_i = \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{H} - \frac{V_{k1}}{C_{ph}} \right) \quad (8)$$

and

$$\Omega^4 - \left[ C^2 k_h^2 + m_r^2 - \frac{2-\gamma}{2\gamma} \frac{1}{H} \frac{V_{k1}}{C_{ph}} \right] + \omega_A^2 \Omega^2 + C^2 k_h^2 \omega_B^2 \left( 1 - \frac{\cos^2 \theta'}{4R_I} \right) = 0 \quad (9)$$

which can be expressed alternatively as follows:

$$m_r^2 = \frac{\Omega^2 - \omega_A^2}{C^2} + k_h^2 \frac{\omega_B^2 - \Omega^2}{\Omega^2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{V_{k1}}{C_{ph}} \left( \frac{2-\gamma}{\gamma H} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{V_{k1}}{C_{ph}} \right) \quad (10)$$

in which  $C_{ph} = \Omega/k_h$  is the intrinsic horizontal phase speed,  $\omega_A^2 = \omega_a^2 + gk_T$  is the nonisothermal acoustic-cutoff frequency, and  $R_I = R_i + gk_T/\omega_v^2$  is the nonisothermal (gradient) Richardson number.

The last equation in Eq.(3) reveals that the amplitude (denoted by  $A^*$  as follows) of all the perturbations grows exponentially by following the same growth:

$$A^* \propto e^{-m_i z} \text{ for } m_i \text{ independent of } z; A^* \propto e^{-\int m_i dz} \text{ for } m_i \text{ dependent of } z \quad (11)$$

Under shear-free conditions ( $V_{k1} = 0$ ), Eq.(11) recovers the growth,  $A(0)e^{z/2H}$ , of Hines' classical result. Note that the temperature gradient, as represented by  $k_T$ , does not influence the amplitude growth; and, only in the presence of the shear can the horizontal phase speed ( $C_{ph}$ ) come into play to modulate the growth.

Eq.(9) is a quadratic equation of  $\Omega^2$ . It is easy to see that for small shear ( $V_{k1}/HC_{ph} \ll m_r^2$ ) there exists a critical value of  $R_{Ic} = \cos^2 \theta'/4$ . Note that the inclusion of  $\theta'$  is consistent with the result shown in Hines (1971). If  $R_I < R_{Ic}$ , one solution of  $\Omega^2$  is negative and thus turbulence can be completely excluded; otherwise, if  $R_I > R_{Ic}$ , the two roots of  $\Omega^2$  are always positive and any turbulence is suppressed. Under isothermal condition, this nonisothermal result recovers the conclusion introduced by Hines (1971) and Dutton (1986) with  $\theta' = 0$ . However, if the shear is large enough, the coefficient of  $\Omega^2$  in Eq.(9) may be positive. On the one hand in this case,  $R_I > R_{Ic}$  always leads to negative  $\Omega^2$  and turbulence is inevitably excited; on the other hand,  $R_I < R_{Ic}$  gives one negative root of  $\Omega^2$ , meaning turbulence can be developed. As a result, from our WKB dispersion relation, we confirm that the criterion of  $R_{Ic} = 1/4$  is merely as a necessary but not sufficient condition for instabilities (Stone 1966; Miles 1986).

Eq.(10) makes us easier to identify the effects of nonisothermality and wind shear on the propagation of gravity waves by comparison with previous dispersion relations introduced in literature. First of all, by assuming  $k_T = 0$  and  $\mathbf{v}_0 = 0$ , Hines (1960)'s dispersion relation for an isothermal and windless atmosphere is recovered, with  $\omega_A \rightarrow \omega_a$ ,  $\omega_B \rightarrow \omega_b$ , and  $V_{k1} \rightarrow 0$ . Secondly, for a nonisothermal and windless atmosphere, Einaudi & Hines (1971)'s result as shown in Eq.(1) is produced, certainly after the correction of the erroneous isothermal cutoff frequency  $\omega_a$  replaced by the nonisothermal  $\omega_A$ . We stress here that, although Eq.(1) is widely used as the dispersion relation for nonisothermal atmosphere by almost all the previous authors in both theoretical modeling and data



analysis, the formula is not accurate because it has a wrong expression of the cutoff frequency, which leads to absurd result that buoyancy frequency can be larger than the cutoff frequency. We point out the buoyancy frequency can never be larger than the cutoff frequency for either an isothermal or nonisothermal case, and the accurate nonisothermal dispersion relation in an windless atmosphere is not Eq.(1), but as follows:

$$m_r^2 = \frac{\Omega^2 - \omega_A^2}{C^2} + k_h^2 \frac{\omega_B^2 - \Omega^2}{\Omega^2} \quad (12)$$

Lastly, Eq.(10) exposes that wind shear ( $V_{k1}$ ) influences the vertical wave propagation always in combination with the intrinsic phase speed ( $C_{ph}$ ), the same feature as that affecting the vertical amplitude growth rate in Eq.(8). Due to the fact that the inclusion of wind shear term in the dispersion relation of gravity waves has not been found in literature, we thus make use of the FWM approach to validate the wind-shear effect, as to be given in the next section.

### III. WKB APPROACH

In the WKB approach, linear wavelike solutions are assumed in time and horizontal coordinates, however, not in the vertical direction; by contrast, the mean-field properties are supposed to vary only in the vertical direction. As a result, we follow Eq.(3) to linearize Eq.(2) by adopting

$$\left( \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_0}, \frac{p_1}{p_0}, \frac{T_1}{T_0}, \frac{u}{U}, \frac{v}{V}, w \right) \propto A(z) e^{i(\mathbf{k}_h \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)} \quad (13)$$

in which  $A(z)$  represents respective amplitude of all the perturbations. The resultant set of linearized equations is as follows:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} i(ku + lv) + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} + k_p w &= i\Omega \frac{p_1}{\rho_0}, \quad i(ku + lv) + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} + \frac{k_p}{\gamma} w = i\frac{\Omega}{\gamma} \frac{p_1}{p_0}, \quad \frac{p_1}{p_0} = \frac{p_1}{\rho_0} + \frac{T_1}{T_0} \\ i\Omega u - \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} w &= ik \frac{C^2}{\gamma} \frac{p_1}{p_0}, \quad i\Omega v - \frac{\partial V}{\partial z} w = i\frac{C^2}{\gamma} \frac{p_1}{p_0}, \quad i\Omega w = g \frac{p_1}{\rho_0} + \frac{C^2}{\gamma} \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left( \frac{p_1}{p_0} \right) + k_p \frac{p_1}{p_0} \right] \end{aligned} \right\} (14)$$

in which the reduction of variables yields following two coupled equations between  $w$  and  $p_1/p_0$ :

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \gamma\Omega \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} + \left( \gamma \mathbf{k}_h \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{v}_0}{dz} - \frac{\Omega}{H} \right) w - i(\Omega^2 - C^2 k_h^2) \frac{p_1}{p_0} &= 0 \\ i[\gamma(\Omega^2 - gk_T)H - g(\gamma - 1)] w - C^2 \Omega H \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left( \frac{p_1}{p_0} \right) + g(\gamma - 1) \Omega H \frac{p_1}{p_0} &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} (15)$$

This set of equations corrects Eq.(4) of Zhou & Morton (2007; hereafter ZM07) by

- (1) updating ZM07's term of  $\mathbf{k}_h \cdot (d\mathbf{v}_0/dz)$  with  $\gamma \mathbf{k}_h \cdot (d\mathbf{v}_0/dz)$ ;
- (2) updating ZM07's term of  $i(\Omega^2 - C^2 k_h^2)$  with  $-i(\Omega^2 - C^2 k_h^2)$ ;
- (3) updating ZM07's term of  $(p_1/p_0)\Omega H g + C^2 \Omega H (1/p_0) \partial p_1 / \partial z$  with  $(p_1/p_0)\Omega H g(\gamma - 1) - C^2 \Omega H \partial(p_1/p_0) / \partial z$ .

Eqs.(14,15) provide a full set of governing equations for gravity wave propagation:

$$\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial z^2} + f(z) \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} + g(z)w = 0, \quad \text{or,} \quad \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{w}}{\partial z^2} + q^2(z)\tilde{w} = 0 \quad (16)$$

together with

$$\left. \begin{aligned} i\Omega \frac{p_1}{\rho_0} &= -(\beta - 1) \left[ \gamma \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} + \left( \gamma \frac{V_{k1}}{\Omega} + \frac{k_p}{k_h} \right) k_h w \right] \\ i\Omega \frac{p_1}{\rho_0} &= -(\beta - 1) \left[ \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} + \left( \frac{V_{k1}}{\Omega} + \frac{k_p}{k_h} + \frac{\beta}{\beta-1} \frac{k_p - \gamma k_p}{\gamma k_h} \right) k_h w \right] \\ i\Omega \frac{T_1}{T_0} &= -(\beta - 1) \left\{ (\gamma - 1) \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} + \left[ (\gamma - 1) \frac{V_{k1}}{\Omega} + \frac{k_T}{k_h} - \frac{\beta}{\beta-1} \frac{k_p - \gamma k_p}{\gamma k_h} \right] k_h w \right\} \\ ik_u &= -\beta \frac{k^2}{k_h^2} \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} + \left[ \frac{k}{\Omega} \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} - \beta \frac{k^2}{k_h^2} \left( k_h \frac{V_{k1}}{\Omega} - \frac{1}{\gamma H} \right) \right] w \\ il_v &= -\beta \frac{l^2}{k_h^2} \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} + \left[ \frac{l}{\Omega} \frac{\partial V}{\partial z} - \beta \frac{l^2}{k_h^2} \left( k_h \frac{V_{k1}}{\Omega} - \frac{1}{\gamma H} \right) \right] w \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (17)$$

In the above, following functions are defined:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} f(z) &= -\frac{1}{H} - \frac{d(\ln C_d^2)}{dz} = -\frac{1}{H} + \beta k_T + 2(\beta - 1) \frac{V_{k1}}{C_{ph}} \\ g(z) &= \frac{1}{C_d^2} \left( \frac{1}{\beta-1} \omega_b^2 - 2V_{k1}^2 \right) - \frac{1}{\beta} k_h^2 + \frac{\beta^2}{\beta-1} \frac{k_T}{\gamma H} + \frac{1}{C_{ph}} \left\{ V_{k2} - \left[ 1 + \beta \left( k_T H - \frac{2}{\gamma} \right) \right] \frac{V_{k1}}{H} \right\} \\ q^2(z) &= g(z) - \frac{1}{4} f^2(z) - \frac{1}{2} \frac{df}{dz} = \\ &= \frac{\Omega^2 - \Omega_A^2}{C^2} + k_h^2 \frac{\Omega_B^2 - \Omega^2}{\Omega^2} + \beta \frac{V_{k1}}{C_{ph}} \left[ \frac{2-\gamma}{\gamma H} - (3\beta - 2) k_T - 3(\beta - 1) \frac{V_{k1}}{C_{ph}} + \frac{V_{k2}}{V_{k1}} \right] \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (18)$$

and following notations are applied:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \omega &= c_{ph} k_h, \quad C_{ph} = c_{ph} - V_k, \quad C^2 = C_{ph}^2 + C_d^2, \quad k_{kT} = \frac{1}{k_T} \frac{dk_T}{dz} \\ \beta &= \frac{C^2}{C_d^2}, \quad \alpha = \frac{\gamma}{2} \left\{ 1 + \beta \left[ 1 + \frac{k_T}{k_p} \left( 1 + \frac{k_{kT}}{k_T} - \frac{3}{2} \beta \right) \right] \right\} \\ V_{k2} &= \mathbf{k}_{h0} \cdot \frac{d^2 \mathbf{v}_0}{dz^2} = \frac{k}{k_h} \frac{d^2 U}{dz^2} + \frac{l}{k_h} \frac{d^2 V}{dz^2} \\ \omega_b^2 &= \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma} \frac{g}{H}, \quad \Omega_B^2 = \omega_B^2 + (\beta - 1) g k_T; \quad \omega_a^2 = \frac{C^2}{4H^2}, \quad \Omega_A^2 = \omega_A^2 + (\alpha - 1) g k_T \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (19)$$

where  $c_{ph}$  is the extrinsic horizontal phase speed;  $C_d$  is the complementary phase speed introduced for mathematical convenience;  $k_{kT}$  is the inhomogeneous number of  $k_T$ ;  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are altitude-dependent coefficients determined by atmospheric inhomogeneities irrelevant of wind shears;  $V_{k2}$  is another input parameter, in addition to  $V_{k1}$ , contributed by wind shears. Note that the two newly introduced pseudo-frequencies,  $\Omega_A$  and  $\Omega_B$ , are contributed by wave-independent frequencies,  $\omega_A$  and  $\omega_B$ , and wave-dependent components,  $(\alpha - 1)gk_T$  and  $(\beta - 1)gk_T$ , respectively.

As ZM07 pointed out, Eq.(16) reduces to the traditional Taylor-Goldstein equation if there is no temperature variation and  $\gamma \rightarrow \infty$  (e.g., Nappo 2002); the  $q^2(z)$  recovers Hines (1960)' dispersion relation in a windless isothermal atmosphere; and,  $w(z)$  yields Beer (1974)'s result under  $z$ -independent wind and non-isothermal conditions. However, we argue that ZM07's another claim, the signs of  $V_{k1}^2$  [or,  $(\mathbf{k}_h \cdot d\mathbf{v}_0/dz)^2$  in that paper] and  $k_T^2$  [or,  $(dH/dz)^2$  in that paper] in  $q^2(z)$  are all negative which is "consistent with the fact

that gravity waves cannot propagate freely at discontinuous boundaries”, is invalid due to the fact that the process is also determined by  $V_{k2}$ , while  $k_T^2$  does not appear in  $q^2(z)$  but  $k_{kT}$  occurs in  $\alpha$ ; more important, the buoyancy frequency  $\omega_b$  and the cut-off frequency  $\omega_a$  in ZM07's  $q^2(z)$  must be replaced by  $\omega_B$  and  $\omega_A$ , respectively, due to the presence of  $k_T$ .

In the cumbersome Eq.(18),  $q^2(z)$  could be either positive to describe freely upward/downward propagating waves in atmosphere, or negative to demonstrate evanescent “waves” (in fact “nonwaves” with infinite vertical wavelength) which are simply exponentially growing or decaying in amplitude. The choice of growing versus decaying is usually determined by things such as boundary conditions, or the finiteness of, e.g., energy. In its propagation, a wave can have  $q^2(z) > 0$  at some altitudes in one region, and becomes evanescent with  $q^2(z) < 0$  in a different region. At the boundary between two such regions where  $q^2(z) = 0$ , wave reflection and transmission occur. Interestingly, in the case of  $q^2(z) > 0$ , Eq.(18) provides the vertical wavenumber  $m = m_r + im_i$  of the plane-wave solution with

$$m_i = \frac{1}{2}f(z) = -\frac{1}{2H} + \frac{\beta}{2}k_T + (\beta - 1)\frac{V_{k1}}{C_{ph}} \quad (20)$$

and

$$m_r^2 = q^2(z) \quad (21)$$

Notice that the above FWM solutions are not exactly the same as the WKB results given in Eq.(8) and Eq.(10), respectively, but with extra terms in addition to modifications.

#### IV. COMPARISON AND VALIDATION

##### a) Mean-field atmospheric properties

The unperturbed mean-field atmospheric properties and related gravity-wave parameters are calculated from two empirical, neutral atmospheric models: (1) NRLMSISE-00, developed by Mike Picone, Alan Hedin, and Doug Drob (*Picone et al.* 2002); and (2) the horizontal wind model, HWM93, developed by *Hedin et al.* (1996). We arbitrarily choose a position at 60° latitude and -70° longitude for a local apparent solar time of 1600 hour on the 172th day of a year, with daily solar  $F_{10.7}$  flux index and its 81-day average of 150. The daily geomagnetic index is 4. Fig.2 demonstrates the results. The upper two panels illustrate the vertical profiles of mean-field mass density ( $\rho_0$ ), pressure ( $p_0$ ), temperature ( $T_0$ ), sound speed ( $C$ ), zonal (eastward) wind ( $U$ ), and meridional (northward) wind ( $V$ ), while the lower two ones present those of wave-relevant inhomogeneous scale numbers ( $k_\rho$ ,  $k_p$ , and  $k_T$ ), and atmospheric cut-off frequencies ( $\omega_a$  under isothermal condition and  $\omega_A$  under non-isothermal condition) as well as buoyancy frequencies ( $\omega_b$  under isothermal condition and  $\omega_B$  under non-isothermal condition).

The upper left panel gives  $\rho_0$  (solid blue),  $p_0$  (dash blue),  $C$  (solid red), and  $T_0$  (dash red). The magnitude of  $\rho_0$  decreases all the way up from 1.225 kg/m<sup>3</sup> (or, 2.55×10<sup>25</sup> 1/m<sup>3</sup>) at the sea level to only 2.38 × 10<sup>-11</sup> kg/m<sup>3</sup> (4.95 × 10<sup>14</sup> /m<sup>3</sup>) at 300 km altitude.

The value of  $p_0$  has a similar tendency to  $\rho_0$ . It reduces from  $10^5$  Pa at the sea level to  $8.27 \times 10^{-6}$  Pa finally.  $T_0$  is 281 °K at the sea level. It decreases linearly to 224 °K at 13 km, and then returns to 281 °K at 47 km, followed by a reduction again to 146 °K at 88 km. Above this height, the temperature goes up continuously and reaches a stable exospheric value of  $\sim 1200$  °K above 300 km height. At 194 km it is 1000 °K. Parameter  $C$  follows the variation of  $T_0^{1/2}$ . At the sea level, it is 336 m/s; at 300 km altitude, it is 697 m/s. The upper right panel exposes  $U$  (solid blue) and  $V$  (dash pink). Both of the horizontal wind components oscillate twice dramatically in altitude within  $\pm 51$  m/s in amplitude below 200 km altitude, and above this height they grow roughly proportionally to the height.

In the lower left panel, three curves are illustrated: density scale number  $k_\rho$  (solid blue), pressure scale number  $k_p$  (dash red), and temperature scale number  $k_T$  (solid black). Clearly, up to 200 km altitude,  $k_\rho \neq k_p$  always holds and thus the isothermal condition  $k_T = 0$  is broken in atmosphere, except at three heights: 13.1 km, 47.2 km, and 87.9 km. However, above 100 km altitude,  $k_T$  eventually keeps its positive polarization after two times of adjustment from negative to positive values. Above 200 km altitude,  $k_T = 0$  can be considered valid. Note that the scale height  $H$  is equal to  $-1/k_p$ . At the sea level,  $H$  is calculated as 8.44 km and then soaring to as high as 75.6 km when approaching to about 200 km altitude and beyond.

The lower right panel draws two pairs of frequencies of gravity waves:  $\omega_A$  (solid red) &  $\omega_a$  (dash red), and  $\omega_B$  (solid blue) &  $\omega_b$  (dash blue). At all altitudes,  $\omega_a$  and  $\omega_A$  are always larger than  $\omega_b$  and  $\omega_B$ , respectively. That is,  $\omega_a > \omega_b$  and  $\omega_A > \omega_B$  are guaranteed for all altitudes. Thus, the buoyancy frequencies can never be larger than the corresponding cut-off frequencies in either the isothermal case or the non-isothermal one. Nevertheless, this result does not exclude at some altitudes, when we compare the difference of the isothermal and nonisothermal cases,  $\omega_a < \omega_B$  (say, 100-180 km) or  $\omega_A < \omega_b$  (e.g., 70-80 km). This warns us to be cautious in applications about which thermal conditions are used, isothermal or non-isothermal? It is not accurate to use isothermal cutoff frequency and nonisothermal buoyancy frequency together, nor nonisothermal cutoff frequency and isothermal buoyancy frequency together. The two sets of frequencies under isothermal and nonisothermal conditions, respectively, should not be confused and mixing up, especially in wave analysis and data-fit modeling.

Compared with the vertical profiles of atmospheric properties, NRLMSISE-00 and HWM93 also provide the horizontal gradients of  $\rho_0$ ,  $T_0$ ,  $p_0$ ,  $U$ , and  $V$ . These inhomogeneities are always at least  $10^{2\sim 3}$  smaller than the vertical gradients. It is reasonable to assume, as most authors did, that the mean-field parameters are uniform and stratified in the horizontal plane, free of any inhomogeneities compared to that in the vertical direction, i.e.,  $\partial/\partial x \simeq 0$ ,  $\partial/\partial y \simeq 0$  and  $\nabla \cong (\partial/\partial z)\hat{e}_z$ . Besides, we assume an intrinsic wave-frequency  $\Omega$  and a horizontal wave-number  $k_h$  equivalent to a period of 30 minutes and a wavelength of  $\sim 50$  km, respectively, based on the data of the relations between horizontal wavelength and wave periods during the SpreadFEx campaign (*Taylor et al.* 2009).

b) Profiles of  $m_r$  and  $m_i$  in different models

To manifest the nonisothermal and wind-shear effects on the propagation of gravity waves, we compare the vertical profiles of growth rate  $m_i$  and vertical wavenumber  $m_r$  calculated from the three dispersion relations of (1) Eq.(1), which is from *Hines* (1960)'s classical isothermal and windless model; (2) Eqs.(8,10) of extended *Hines*'s model in the presence of nonisothermality (namely, vertical temperature gradient) and wind shears (namely, vertical zonal and meridional wind gradients) as described in Section 2; and, (3) Eqs.(20,21) of the WKB approach as discussed in Section 3. The result is depicted in Fig.3. The LHS panel plots  $m_i$  and the RHS one symbolizes  $\pm m_r$ . In the panels, solid black lines, dotted red lines, and dash blue lines represent *Hines*'s, extended *Hines*'s, and WKB models, respectively.

The LHS panel let us be aware that above  $\sim 200$  km altitude the three growth rates converge to one profile. Below this height there appears the divergence. See the *Hines*' growth rate first of all. This is the classical result in gravity wave studies. According to Eq.(1), the rate is only determined by temperature  $T_0$ :  $m_i = -1/(2H) = -g/(2R_s T_0)$ . Thus, its vertical profile is correlated directly to the change of  $T_0$  shown in the upper left panel of Fig.2. At the sea level, *Hines*' rate is -0.3 per 10 km. It reduces to -0.4 per 10 km at 13 km altitude, and then recovers to -0.3 per 10 km at 47 km. It falls down again to -0.6 per 10 km till 88 km, followed by an increase continuously in altitude to saturate at roughly -0.06 per 10 km above 200 km. Relative to *Hines*' model, the extended *Hines*' model is appreciably modulated, with a singularity at around  $100 \pm 20$  km altitude, where  $m_i$  soars up to  $+\infty$  from below the altitude, and tends sharply down to  $-\infty$  from above the altitude. This is caused by the zero phase speed  $C_{ph} = 0$ . Checking Eq.(8 leads us to confirm that the modulation comes from the wind-shear term,  $V_{k1}/C_{ph}$ . Below the 80 km altitude the shear modulation is much smaller. By contrast, above 120 km the growth rate fluctuates a complete cycle around *Hines*' profile. Concerning the WKB growth rate, although Eq.(20) includes both an additional nonisothermal term,  $k_T$ , and a coefficient,  $\beta$ , attached to the wind-shear term, its vertical profile keeps impressively away from the complicated extended *Hines*' model, but follows *Hines*' isothermal/shear-free model, except a little departure below 200 km altitude. We thus suggest that the extended *Hines*' model may exaggerate the shear effect due to the absence of the nonisothermal term in  $m_i$ ; whereas the WKB model involves both nonisothermal and wind-shear effects and thus is able to provide a more realistic  $m_i$ -profile, which is surprisingly much closer to *Hines*' result after avoiding the nonisothermal deficiency in the extended *Hines*' model. This confirms *Hickey* (2011)'s argument that the WKB approach offers a more accurate picture for gravity waves propagating in realistic atmosphere by focusing on the vertical properties of perturbations.

In the RHS panel the three vertical wavenumbers ( $m_r$ ) calculated from the three models reveal a more interesting result. As given in Eq.(1), *Hines*' model is only determined by the temperature profile  $T_0$ . By contrast, the extended *Hines*'s model and the WKB one are dependent of not only  $T_0$  but also its gradient ( $k_T$ ) and wind shears ( $V_{k1}/C_{ph}$ ), as given in both Eq.(10) and Eq.(21). The two profiles superimpose upon each other, and deviate from *Hines*'s model, though not significant. Similar to the LHS panel, there exists a discontinuity in the 80–120 km layer, contributed by  $C_{ph} = 0$ . Towards 300 km altitude

and beyond, the difference among the three models are increasingly disappearing with height. We notice that, although Eq.(10) and Eq.(21) are cogently discrepant due to the difference in shear-related terms ( $V_{k1}/C_{ph}$ ):

$$\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{2-\gamma}{\gamma H} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{V_{k1}}{C_{ph}} \right) \text{ versus } \beta \left[ \frac{2-\gamma}{\gamma H} - (3\beta-2)k_T - 3(\beta-1) \frac{V_{k1}}{C_{ph}} + \frac{V_{k2}}{V_{k1}} \right] \quad (22)$$

there are  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  coefficients attached to  $\omega_A$  and  $\omega_B$ , respectively, in the WKB approach. The existence of these two coefficients make the complicated WKB expressions to produce an identical profile to that of the extended Hines' model. We thus suppose that, with a simpler mathematical expression but a complete recovery of the WKB result, the extended Hines' model is convenient and sufficient to account for the features of the vertical wavenumber in dealing with the propagation of gravity waves, particularly in ray-tracing mapping and its data-fit simulations.

### c) Profiles of wave amplitudes in different models

Nonisothermality and wind-shears influence the vertical growth of gravity wave amplitudes. Fig.4 delineates the vertical profiles of atmospheric wave growth from (1) Hines' model (top left panel); (2) extended Hines' model (top right panel); and (3) the WKB approach (lower six panels) under initial conditions of  $w_0 = 1.17 \times 10^{-4}$  m/s and  $dw_0/dz = 0$  for wave-period  $T = 33.3$  minutes. In the top two panels, the horizontal axis is the dimension-free amplitude growth,  $A^* = A(z)/A(0)$ , calculated from Eq.(11). The WKB results are produced by Eqs.(16,17).

The top LHS panel discloses the vertical profile of  $A^*$  calculated from Hines' model. First of all, the  $A^*$ -magnitude has an exact exponential growth in altitude, which reaches 7 at the 300 km altitude, reproducing Hines (1960)'s result. Secondly, the two envelopes produced by  $\exp(\int dz/2H)$  and  $\exp(z/2H_{400})$ , respectively, are identical above 200 km altitude but with a little divergence (no more than 15%) in the 80-140 km layer, where  $H_{400} = 67.1$  km is the scale height at the 400 km altitude. It is therefore reliable to use 67.1 km as the altitude-independent scale height under 300 km, particularly above 150 km altitude. Thirdly, between 200 km and 300 km, there are 6.5 cycles in the oscillation of the perturbed amplitude. This is consistent with the  $m_r$ -profile in Fig.4: above 200 km altitude  $m_r \sim 0.4 \text{ km}^{-1}$ , corresponding to a wavelength of  $\sim 16$  km in the vertical perturbation; this wavelength gives rise to 6.5 cycles within a 100 km layer. After including the effects of non-isothermality and windshears, the above features have discernable modifications, respectively, as exposed in the top RHS panel calculated from the extended Hines' model. At first, the exponential increase is now damped from 7 to 6 at the 300 km altitude due to the appearance of the damping factor  $\kappa = 1 - HV_{k1}/C_{ph}$ . In addition, the extended profile has a bulge which modifies the exponentially-growing envelop within the 100-150 km layer. From the  $U/V$  profiles in Fig.2 we suggest that this abnormality is related to the violent shears of the neutral wind. Finally, there are 7.5 cycles above the 200 km altitude, indicating that realistic atmosphere has a little shorter vertical wavelength,  $\sim 14$  km, than Hines' idealized model due to the presence of the temperature & horizontal wind gradients. Note that based on Eq.(3) the amplitudes of all the six atmospheric

perturbations, i.e.,  $p_1/p_0$ ,  $\rho_1/\rho_0$ ,  $T_1/T_0$ ,  $u/U$ ,  $v/V$ , and  $w$ , follow the same rule versus altitude in *Hines'* and extended *Hines'* models. It is seen that gravity waves propagate upward with an amplitude amplified exponentially or slightly damped, with an oscillation the frequency of which is determined by or a little modified from  $m_r(z)$ .

The lower six panels in Fig.4 demonstrate the perturbations of the six perturbed parameters under the WKB approach. The simulations use the adaptive-step, 4th-order Runge-Kutta method to calculate Eq.(16) under the initial conditions  $w_0$  and  $dw_0/dz$ . At each step, after solving  $w(z)$  and  $dw/dz$ , Eq.(17) is applied to obtain the perturbations of  $p_1/p_0$ ,  $\rho_1/\rho_0$ ,  $T_1/T_0$  and  $u, v$ . Notice that the initial conditions of these 5 perturbations are all determined by  $w_0$  and  $dw_0/dz$ . Firstly, all the perturbations have a same vertical wavelength. For example, above the 200 km altitude, there are 8.5 cycles, presenting a further shorter vertical wavelength, 12.5 km, than the previous *Hines'* model and the extended *Hines'* model. Secondly, unlike the identical profile of the amplitude growths for all the perturbations in *Hines'* two models, the WKB model gives different envelopes of the atmospheric parameters to present distinct characteristics. For instance, the maximal amplitude of  $p_1/p_0$  is smaller than that of both  $\rho_1/\rho_0$  and  $T_1/T_0$ , while the phases of the last two are opposite. In addition, the perturbed components in velocity,  $u, v, w$ , evolve differently versus altitude. Take their amplitudes at the 300 km altitude as an example: their amplitudes are of 90 m/s, 550 m/s, and 140 m/s, respectively. In view of the vertically growing envelopes, all the profiles have much smaller magnitudes than that of *Hines'* model, as shown in the middle right panel (in pink), above 100 km altitude, while below  $\sim 80$  km altitude all the perturbations appear to be zero. Notice that the three perturbations in pressure, density, and temperature satisfy the perturbed equation of state,  $p_1/p_0 = \rho_1/\rho_0 + T_1/T_0$ .

#### d) Influence of phase speed in different models

The intrinsic phase speed,  $C_{ph}$ , affects the propagation of gravity waves in the three models introduced above. The relations are given by Eq.(1) in *Hines'* model, by Eqs.(8,10) in the extended *Hines'* model, and Eqs.(20,21) in the WKB approach. Fig.5 delineates the influence of dimension-free parameter,  $C_{ph}/C$ , on amplitude  $A^*$  in the two *Hines'* models (top panel), and on  $m_i$  (lower left) as well as  $m_r$  (lower right) of the three models at 100 km altitude where  $C = 293$  m/s. Assume  $C_{ph}/C$  changes from 0 to 1.

In the top panel, *Hines'*  $A^*$  (in blue) flies up from 1 at  $C_{ph}/C = 0$  to 2350 at  $C_{ph}/C = 1$ . By contrast, the extended *Hines'*  $A^*$  (in pink) experiences a sharp drop to nearly 0.1 within  $C_{ph}/C < 0.1$  and then climbs up gradually to 33 at  $C_{ph}/C = 1$ . The ratio between the two values of  $A^*$  (in black) increases from 1 at  $C_{ph}/C = 0$  and reaches to 72 at  $C_{ph}/C = 1$ . Review the top right panel of Fig.4. At the 106 km altitude, the ratio is 69, corresponding to  $C_{ph} = 0.93C = 272$  m/s.

In the lower left panel, the dependence of  $m_i$  on  $C_{ph}/C$  has different features among the three models. In *Hines'* model (in blue),  $m_i$  keeps constant versus  $C_{ph}/C$ . In the extended *Hines'* model (in pink),  $m_i$  drops rapidly from infinity to about  $-0.7 (10\text{km})^{-1}$

with the increase of  $C_{ph}/C$ , and  $m_i = 0$  at  $C_{ph}/C = 0.074$ . On the contrary, in the WKB case,  $m_i$  builds all the way up with  $C_{ph}/C$  from  $-0.58 (10\text{km})^{-1}$  to infinity, with  $m_i = 0$  at  $C_{ph}/C = 0.791$ . Similar to  $m_i$ , the dependence of  $m_r$  on  $C_{ph}/C$  in the lower right panel also exposes differences among the three models. *Hines'* case decreases continuously from infinity at  $C_{ph}/C = 0$  to 0 at  $C_{ph}/C = 0.9$ . For the extended *Hines'* model and the WKB approach, both curves superimpose upon each other for  $C_{ph}/C < 0.5$ , falling down from infinity to  $m_r = \pm 0.2$ ; they keep dropping but with different rates: the former reach zero at  $C_{ph}/C = 0.97$  while the latter is at a smaller value of  $C_{ph}/C = 0.75$ . Beyond these two phase speeds, respectively, the former increases a little to  $\pm 0.02 \text{ km}^{-1}$ , while the latter rises rapidly to infinity.

## V. SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Gravity waves were extensively studied in the 1950s-1960s, when rudimentary theories and a myriad of effects were investigated (e.g., *Gossard & Munk* 1954; *Eckart* 1960; *Tolstoy* 1963; *Journal of Atmospheric and Terrestrial Physics* 1968; *Georges* 1968; and *AGARD* 1972). Since then, the understandings of the wave physics and its role played in the interactions between atmosphere and ionosphere have gained considerable progress (see details in, e.g., *Fritts & Alexander* 2003; *Fritts & Lund* 2011). The advance is dominantly achieved with a couple of approaches: (1) linear wave analysis under WKB-approximation (e.g., *Pitteway & Hines* 1963; *Einaudi & Hines* 1971; *Hines* 1971; *Gill* 1982; *Hickey & Cole* 1987, 1988; *Nappo* 2002; *Vadas* 2007); (2) FWM formalism of vertical perturbation (e.g., *Lindzen & Tung* 1976; *Hickey et al.* 1997, 1998, 2000, 2001; *Liang et al.* 1998; *Walterscheid & Hickey* 2001; *Schubert et al.* 2003, 2005).

Realistic atmosphere is not isothermal and shear-free. It is featured by large temperature and wind-speed gradients especially in the vertical direction. Experiments demonstrated that the gradients can reach up to  $100^\circ \text{ K per km}$  and  $100 \text{ m/s per km}$ , respectively (see, e.g., *Liu & Swenson* 2003; *She et al.* 2009). It is thus necessary to take into account these factors in theoretical modeling and data-fit studies. In this paper, we extended *Hines'* locally isothermal and shear-free model by including the nonisothermal and wind-shear effects, and derive dispersion relation of gravity waves by applying the WKB approximation. Exact analytical expressions of growth rate ( $m_i$ ) and vertical wavenumber ( $m_r$ ) are obtained. The nonisothermality is found to influence wave propagation through the vertical temperature gradient, as denoted by the temperature inhomogeneous number  $k_T$ , which extends the isothermal buoyancy and cut-off frequencies to their nonisothermal counterparts. In the WKB approach,  $k_T$  also contributes to a coefficient  $\alpha$ . By contrast, the wind-shear exerts its impact through the combined effect of the vertical wind gradient ( $V_{k1}$ ) and the intrinsic horizontal phase speed ( $C_{ph}$ ).

We compare the extended *Hines'* model with the WKB results within 300 km altitude (note that the non-dissipation condition satisfies below 200 km altitude) with an arbitrary 50-km horizontal wavelength and 33.3-minute wave period. The vertical profiles of the background atmospheric properties and the horizontal winds are calculated from the empirical neutral atmospheric models NRLMSISE-00 and HWM93. Simulations expose



that the extended Hines'  $m_i$ -profile deviates away from Hines' model further than the WKB one due to the lack of the non-isothermal effect. In addition, the two  $m_r$  curves obtained from the extended Hines' and the WKB models superimpose upon each other, both of which amplify Hines'  $m_r$  magnitudes in the vertical direction. What is more, all the perturbations in the extended Hines' model has an identical profile in the growth of amplitude. This profile has a slight modification to the Hines' classical model except the 100-150 km layer. By contrast, the WKB model provides respective profiles of perturbations in pressure, density, temperature, zonal wind, meridional wind, and vertical wind. Finally, the propagation of gravity waves is related to the phase speed ( $C_{ph}$ ): when it increases, the Hines'  $m_i$ -profile keeps constant, but the extended Hines'  $m_i$  drops down continuously while the WKB one soars up monotonously; at the same time, the three  $m_r$  profiles fall off together when  $C_{ph}$  is no more than  $0.75C$ , the two profiles obtained from the extended Hines' & the WKB models overlap upon each other which shift away from Hines' model.

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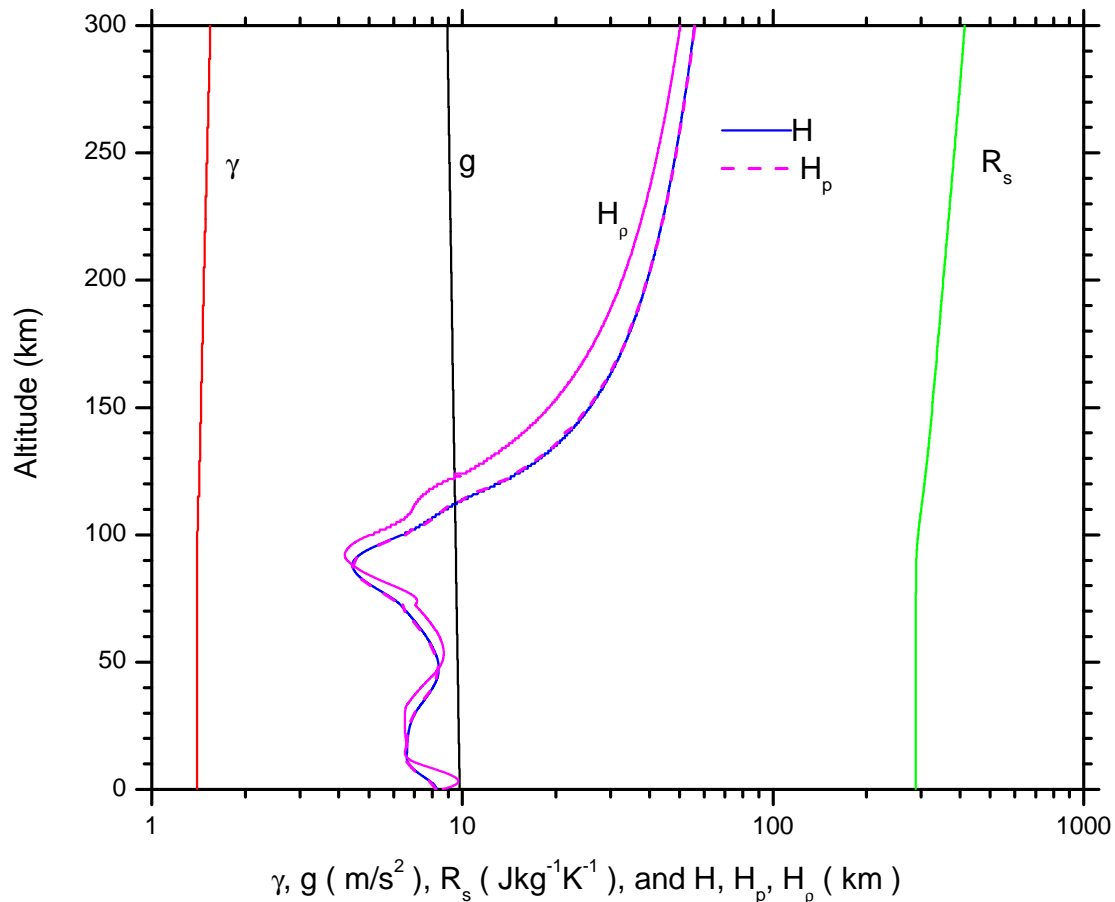
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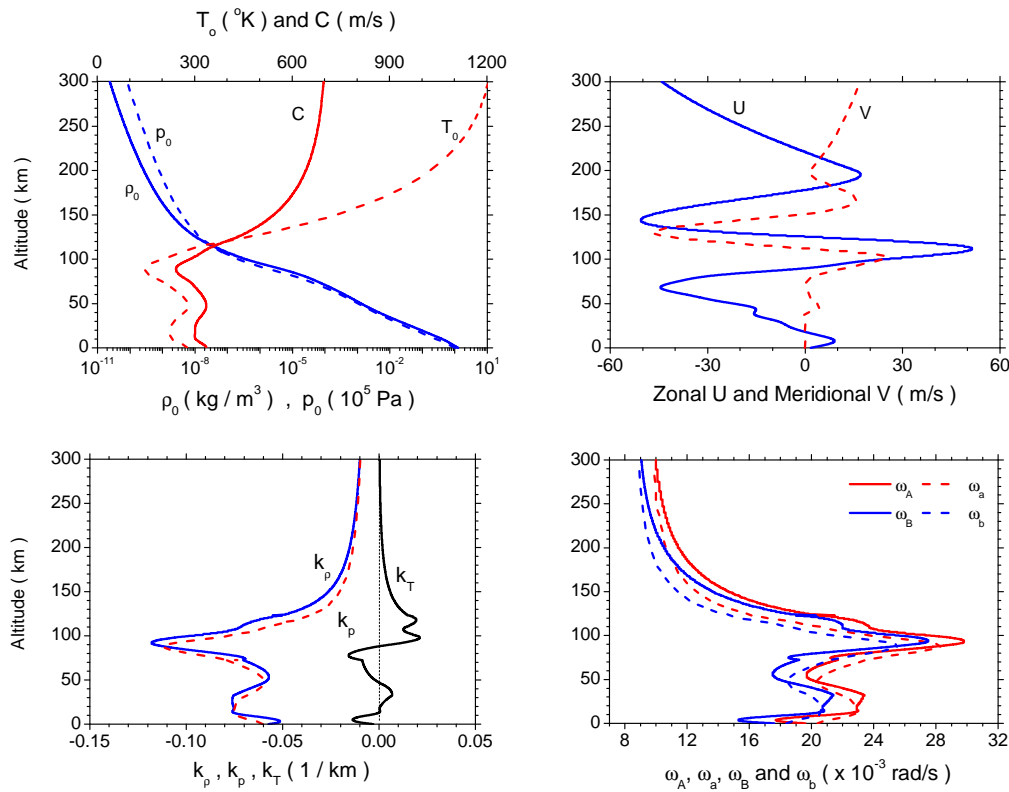
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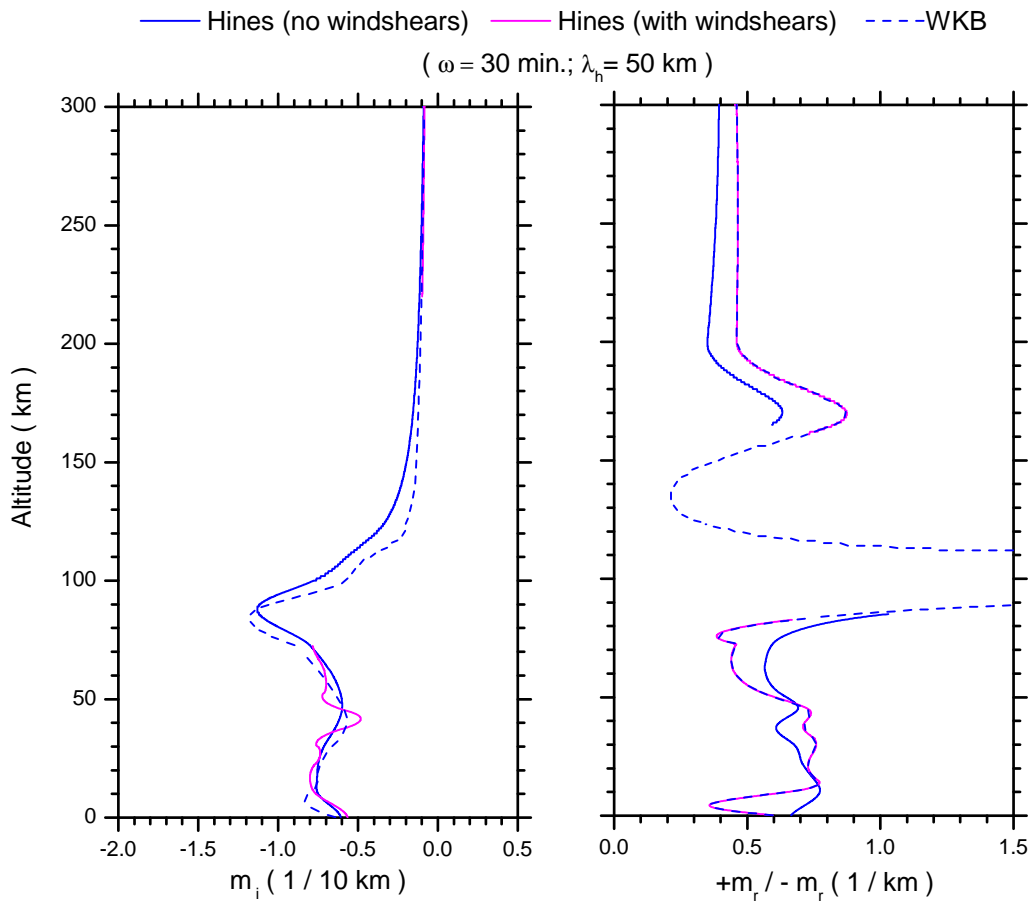
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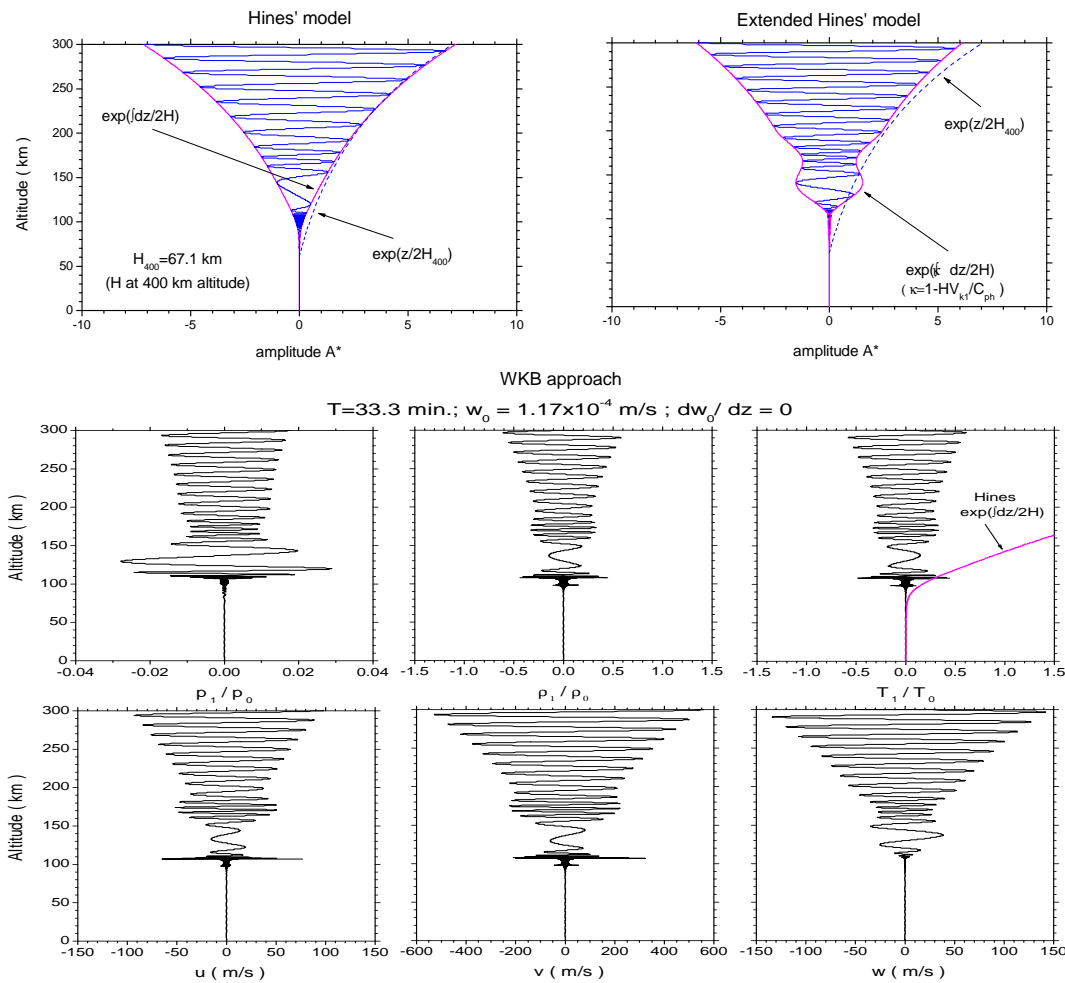
*Figure 1* : Vertical profiles of input parameters in atmosphere: adiabatic index,  $\gamma$  (in red); gravitational acceleration,  $g$  (in black); specific gas constant,  $R_s$  (in green); and Hines' scale height,  $H$  (in blue), as well as the two scale heights in density,  $H_\rho$  (in solid pink), and in pressure,  $H_p$  (in dash pink), respectively. Note that  $H = H_\rho \neq H_p$ .



**Figure 2 :** Vertical profiles of atmospheric mean-field properties (upper two panels) from NRLMSISE-00 (Picone et al. 2002) and HWM93 (Hedin et al. 1996), and related gravity wave parameters (lower two panels). Upper left: mass density  $\rho_0$  (solid blue), pressure  $p_0$  (dash blue), sound speed  $C$  (solid red), and temperatur  $T_0$  (dash red); upper right: zonal (eastward) wind  $U$  (solid blue) and meridional (northward) wind  $V$  (dash pink); lower left: density scale number  $k_\rho$  (solid blue), pressure scale number  $k_p$  (dash red), and temperature scale number  $k_T$  (solid black); lower right: cut-off frequencies  $\omega_A$  (solid red) and  $\omega_a$  (dash red), and buoyancy frequencies  $\omega_B$  (solid blue) and  $\omega_b$  (dash blue).



*Figure 3* : Comparisons of growth rate  $m_i$  and vertical wavenumber  $m_r$  of gravity waves among three different dispersion relations: (1) *Hines* (1960)' non-wind-shear model (in solid blue), (2) Wind-shear model (Section 2; in red); and, (3) WKB model (Section 3; in dashed blue)



**Figure 4 :** Vertical growth of atmospheric perturbations from (1) Hines' model (top left panel); (2) extended Hines' model (top right panel); and (3) the WKB approach (lower six panels) under initial conditions of  $w_0 = 1.17 \times 10^{-4}$  m/s and  $dw_0/dz = 0$  for wave-period of  $T = 33:3$  minutes. In the top two panels,  $A^* = A(z)/A(0)$ .



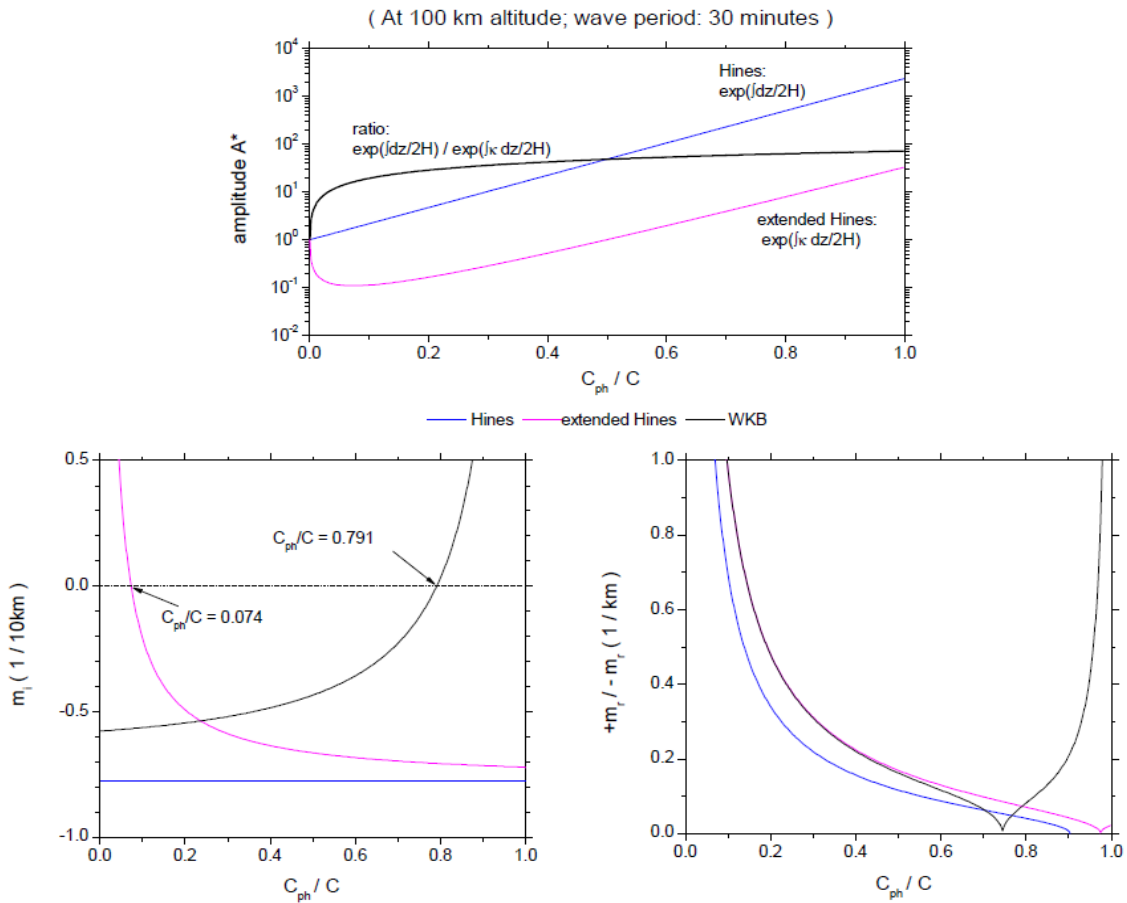


Figure 5 : Influence of phase speed on the propagation of gravity waves in the three models

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## On Some Bicomplex Modules

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*Abstract-* A class of entire bicomplex sequences denoted by  $B$ , studied by Srivastava & Srivastava in 2007 is studied and is shown to be a bicomplex module. The subclasses of this class, studied by Wagh in 2008, are also shown to be bicomplex modules. Further they have been shown to form module structure over the class  $B$ .

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# On Some Bicomplex Modules

Mamta Amol Wagh

**Abstract-** A class of entire bicomplex sequences denoted by  $B$ , studied by Srivastava & Srivastava in 2007 is studied and is shown to be a bicomplex module. The subclasses of this class, studied by Wagh in 2008, are also shown to be bicomplex modules. Further they have been shown to form module structure over the class  $B$ .

## I. SECTION: C

Bicomplex Numbers were introduced by Corrado Segre(1860–1924) in 1892. In[3], he defined an infinite set of algebras and gave the concept of multicomplex numbers. For the sake of brevity, we confine ourselves to the bicomplex version of his theory. The space of bicomplex numbers is the first in an infinite sequence of multicomplex spaces. The set of bicomplex numbers is denoted by  $C_2$  and is defined as follows:

$$C_2 = \{x_1 + i_1x_2 + i_2x_3 + i_1i_2x_4 : x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 \in C_0\}$$

Or equivalently

$$C_2 = \{z_1 + i_2 z_2 : z_1, z_2 \in C_1\}$$

where  $i_1^2 = i_2^2 = -1$ ,  $i_1 i_2 = i_2 i_1$  and  $C_0, C_1$  denote the space of real and complex numbers respectively.

The binary compositions of addition and scalar multiplication on  $C_2$  are defined coordinate wise and the multiplication in  $C_2$  is defined term by term. With these binary compositions,  $C_2$  becomes a commutative algebra with identity. Algebraic structure of  $C_2$  differs from that of  $C_1$  in many respects [2]. Few of them, which pertain to our work, are mentioned below:

### a) Idempotent Elements

Besides 0 and 1, there are exactly two nontrivial idempotent elements in  $C_2$ , defined as  $e_1 = (1 + i_1 i_2) / 2$ ,  $e_2 = (1 - i_1 i_2) / 2$ .

Note that  $e_1 + e_2 = 1$  and  $e_1 e_2 = e_2 e_1 = 0$ .

A bicomplex number  $\xi = z_1 + i_2 z_2$  has a unique idempotent representation, [5] as

$$\xi = {}^1\xi e_1 + {}^2\xi e_2 \text{ where } {}^1\xi = z_1 - i_1 z_2, {}^2\xi = z_1 + i_1 z_2.$$

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b) *Two Principal Ideals*

The Principal Ideals in  $C_2$  generated by  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  are denoted by  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  respectively; thus

$$I_1 = \{\xi e_1 : \xi \in C_2\},$$

$$I_2 = \{\xi e_2 : \xi \in C_2\}.$$

Since  $\xi = {}^1\xi e_1 + {}^2\xi e_2$ , where  ${}^1\xi$  and  ${}^2\xi$  are the idempotent components of  $\xi$ , therefore these ideals can also be represented as

$$I_1 = \{(z_1 - i_1 z_2)e_1 : z_1, z_2 \in C_1\} = \{z e_1 : z \in C_1\}$$

$$I_2 = \{(z_1 + i_1 z_2)e_2 : z_1, z_2 \in C_1\} = \{z e_2 : z \in C_1\}$$

Note that  $I_1 \cap I_2 = \{0\}$  and  $I_1 \cup I_2 = O_2$ , the set of all singular elements of  $C_2$ .

c) *Zero Divisors*

As we have seen,  $e_1 \cdot e_2 = e_2 \cdot e_1 = 0$ . Thus zero divisors exist in  $C_2$ . In fact, two Bicomplex numbers are divisors of zero if and only if one of them is a complex multiple of  $e_1$  and the other is a complex multiple of  $e_2$ . In other words, two Bicomplex numbers are divisors of zero if and only if one of them is a member of  $I_1 \sim \{0\}$  and the other is a member of  $I_2 \sim \{0\}$ .

d) *Conjugates of a Bicomplex number*

The  $i_2$ -conjugate of a bicomplex number is defined in [2] as follows:

$$\xi^\# = z_1 - i_2 z_2 = {}^2\xi e_1 + {}^1\xi e_2 \text{ where } \xi = z_1 + i_2 z_2$$

e) *Norm of a Bicomplex number*

The norm in  $C_2$  is defined as

$$\|\xi\| = \left\{ |z_1|^2 + |z_2|^2 \right\}^{1/2} = \left[ \frac{|{}^1\xi|^2 + |{}^2\xi|^2}{2} \right]^{1/2}$$

$C_2$  becomes a modified Banach algebra with respect to this norm in the sense that

$$\|\xi \cdot \eta\| \leq \sqrt{2} \|\xi\| \cdot \|\eta\|$$

f) *Entire functions*

A function  $f$  of a bicomplex variable is said to be an entire function if it is holomorphic in the entire bicomplex space  $C_2$ .

g) *Entire Bicomplex Sequence*

If  $f(\xi) = \sum_{k \geq 1} \alpha_k (\xi - \eta)^k$  represents an entire function, the series  $\sum \alpha_k$  is called entire bicomplex series and the sequence  $\{\alpha_k\}$  is called entire bicomplex sequence.

II. CLASS  $B$  AND THE BICOMPLEX MODULES

Let's see at these classes for the ready reference.

The classes  $B, B', B''$  of entire Bicomplex sequences:

Srivastava & Srivastava [4] defined the class  $B$  as

$$B = \left\{ f : f = \{ \xi_k \} = \{ {}^1\xi_k e_1 + {}^2\xi_k e_2 \} : \sup_{k \geq 1} k^k | {}^1\xi_k | < \infty, \sup_{k \geq 1} k^k | {}^2\xi_k | < \infty \right\} \quad (2.1.1)$$

Every element of class  $B$  is the sequence of coefficients of an entire function and is, therefore, an entire bicomplex sequence.

*Algebraic structure of  $B$* , given by [4]

Binary compositions on  $B$  are defined as follows:

Let  $f = \{ \xi_k \}$  and  $g = \{ \eta_k \}$  be arbitrary members of  $B$  and  $a \in C_0$

1. Addition :  $f + g = \{ \alpha_k \}$  where  $\alpha_k = \xi_k + \eta_k, \forall k \geq 1$ .
2. Scalar multiplication :  $a.f = \{ \beta_k \}$  where  $\beta_k = a.\xi_k, \forall k \geq 1, a \in C_0$ .
3. Weighted Hadamard Multiplication :  $f \times g = \{ \gamma_k \}$ ,

where  $\gamma_k = k^k \xi_k \times \eta_k, \forall k \geq 1$

They have shown that  $B$  is a commutative algebra with identity, the element  $u = \{ k^{-k} \}$  being the identity element of  $B$ .

Two subclasses of the class  $B$  have been defined in [6] as follows:

$$B' = \left\{ f : f = \{ {}^1\xi_k e_1 \} : \sup_{k \geq 1} k^k | {}^1\xi_k | < \infty \right\} \quad (2.1.2)$$

$$B'' = \left\{ f : f = \{ {}^2\xi_k e_2 \} : \sup_{k \geq 1} k^k | {}^2\xi_k | < \infty \right\} \quad (2.1.3)$$

The elements of  $B'$  and  $B''$  are the sequences with members in  $A_1$  and  $A_2$ , respectively where  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are the auxiliary space.

Note first that  $B'$  is closed with respect to the binary compositions induced on  $B'$  as a subset of  $B$ , owing to the consistency of idempotent representation and the algebraic structure of bicomplex numbers.

Norm in  $B'$  is defined as follows:

$$\| f \| = \sup_{k \geq 1} | {}^1\xi_k |, \quad f = \{ {}^1\xi_k \cdot e_1 \} \in B'$$

$B'$  is Gel'fand subalgebra of  $B$  [7].  $B'$  is an algebra ideal of  $B$  which is not a maximal ideal [7]. Zero divisors, Invertible and quasi invertible elements have also been characterised for this subclass [7].

*Definition 2.1.1: Bicomplex Modules (BC – module or T – module)*

A BC – module  $X$  over the ring  $BC$  of bicomplex numbers consists of an abelian group  $(X, +)$  and an operation  $BC \times X \rightarrow X$  such that for all  $\xi, \eta \in BC$  and  $x, y \in X$ , we have

1.  $\xi(x + y) = \xi x + \xi y$
2.  $(\xi + \eta)x = \xi x + \eta x$
3.  $(\xi \eta)x = \xi(\eta x)$
4.  $1_{BC}x = x$ ,  $1_{BC}$  is the multiplicative identity of  $BC$ .

The members of  $X$  are known as vectors and members of  $C_2$  are known as scalar and in most of the books scalar are always in left and vector in right side, for example,  $(xy)\xi = x(y\xi)$ . As the ring of bicomplex numbers is commutative, we don't need to define left or right BC - modules.

If  $X$  is a BC - module, then some structural peculiarities of the set  $BC$  are immediately manifested in any bicomplex module, in contrast to the case of real, complex or even quaternionic linear spaces where the structure of linear space does not imply anything immediate about the space itself.

Consider the sets

$$X_{e_1} = e_1 \cdot X \text{ and } X_{e_2} = e_2 \cdot X.$$

Since, we know that

$$X_{e_1} \cap X_{e_2} = \{0\}$$

and

$$X = X_{e_1} + X_{e_2}, \quad (2.1.4)$$

We can define two mappings:

$$P: X \rightarrow X, Q: X \rightarrow X$$

by

$$P(x) = e_1 x \quad Q(x) = e_2 x.$$

Since

$$P + Q = Id_X, P \circ Q = Q \circ P = 0, P^2 = P, Q^2 = Q,$$

the operators  $P$  and  $Q$  are mutually complementary projectors. (2.1.4) is called the idempotent decomposition of  $X$ , and it will play an important role in the development of the theory of bicomplex duals.

Consider the component – wise operations on  $X$ :

If  $x = e_1 x + e_2 x \in X, y = e_1 y + e_2 y \in Y$  and if  $\lambda = \lambda_1 e_1 + \lambda_2 e_2$ , then

$$x + y = e_1 x + e_2 x + e_1 y + e_2 y = (e_1 x + e_1 y) + (e_2 x + e_2 y),$$

$$\lambda x = (\lambda_1 e_1 + \lambda_2 e_2)(e_1 x + e_2 x) = \lambda_1 x e_1 + \lambda_2 x e_2.$$

Since,  $X_{e_1}$  and  $X_{e_2}$  are  $R-, C_1(i_1)-$  and  $C_1(i_2)-$  linear spaces as well as  $BC-$  modules, we have that

$$X = X_{e_1} \oplus X_{e_2},$$

where the direct sum  $\oplus$  can be understood in the sense of  $R-, C_1(i_1)-$  and  $C_1(i_2)-$  linear spaces, as well as  $BC-$  modules. By saying that  $X_{e_1}$  and  $X_{e_2}$  are  $R-, C_1(i_1)-$  and  $C_1(i_2)-$  linear spaces as well as  $BC-$  modules, we mean that  $X_{e_1}$  and  $X_{e_2}$  are linear spaces over  $R, C_1(i_1), C_1(i_2)$  and are modules over the ring of bicomplex numbers.

If we consider  $X$  as a  $C_1(i_1)-$  linear space, we denote it as  $X_{C_1(i_1)}$  and if it is considered as  $C_1(i_2)-$  linear space, then it is denoted as  $X_{C_1(i_2)}$ .

*Theorem 2.1.1:* Prove that the class  $B$  is a  $BC-$  module.

*Proof:* Let us take two bicomplex scalars  $\alpha, \beta \in BC$  and  $f = (\xi_k), g = (\eta_k) \in B$ .  $(B, +)$  is an abelian group.

The operation  $BC \times B \rightarrow B$  is well defined as

$$\sup_k k^k \|\alpha f\| = \|\alpha\| \sup_k k^k \|f\| < \infty, \because f \in B. \text{ This implies that } \alpha f \in B$$

Now,

$$1. \quad \alpha(f + g) = \alpha(\xi_k + \eta_k) = \alpha\xi_k + \alpha\eta_k = \alpha f + \alpha g,$$

$$\text{also } \sup_k k^k \|\alpha f + \beta g\| = \sup_k k^k \|\alpha\xi_k + \beta\eta_k\| \leq \|\alpha\| \sup_k k^k \|\xi_k\| + \|\beta\| \sup_k k^k \|\eta_k\| < \infty$$

$$2. \quad (\alpha + \beta)f = (\alpha + \beta)\xi_k = (\alpha\xi_k + \beta\xi_k) = \alpha f + \beta f.$$

$$3. \quad (\alpha\beta)f = \alpha(\beta f)$$

$$4. \quad 1.f = f.$$

Thus, we can say that  $B$  is a  $BC-$  module.

*Theorem 2.1.2:* Prove that the class  $B'$  is a  $BC-$  module.

*Proof:* Let  $\alpha, \beta \in BC$  be two bicomplex scalars and let  $f = ({}^1\xi_k e_1), g = ({}^1\eta_k e_1) \in B'$ .  $(B', +)$  is an abelian group.

The operation  $BC \times B' \rightarrow B'$  is well defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \sup_k k^k \|\alpha f\| &= \sup_k k^k \left\| ({}^1\alpha e_1 + {}^2\alpha e_2) ({}^1 f e_1 + {}^2 f e_2) \right\| \\ &= \sup_k k^k \left\| {}^1\alpha {}^1\xi_k e_1 + {}^2\alpha \cdot 0 e_2 \right\|, \because {}^2 f = 0 \\ &= \left| {}^1\alpha \right| \sup_k k^k \left| {}^1\xi_k \right| < \infty \end{aligned}$$

This implies that  $\alpha f \in B'$ .

Now,

$$1. \quad \alpha(f + g) = \alpha({}^1\xi_k + {}^1\eta_k)e_1 + 0e_2$$



$$\begin{aligned}
&= {}^1\alpha {}^1\xi_k e_1 + {}^1\alpha {}^1\eta_k e_1 + {}^2\alpha 0e_2 + {}^2\alpha 0e_2 \\
&= ({}^1\alpha {}^1\xi_k e_1 + {}^2\alpha 0e_2) + ({}^1\alpha {}^1\eta_k e_1 + {}^2\alpha 0e_2) \\
&= ({}^1\alpha e_1 + {}^2\alpha e_2)({}^1\xi_k e_1 + 0e_2) + ({}^1\alpha e_1 + {}^2\alpha e_2)({}^1\eta_k e_1 + 0e_2) \\
&= \alpha f + \alpha g
\end{aligned}$$

Also,

$$\sup_k k^k \|\alpha f + \alpha g\| = \sup_k k^k \|\alpha {}^1\xi_k e_1 + \alpha {}^1\eta_k e_1\| \leq |{}^1\alpha| \sup_k k^k |{}^1\xi_k| + |{}^1\alpha| \sup_k k^k |{}^1\eta_k| < \infty$$

$$\begin{aligned}
2. \quad (\alpha + \beta) f &= (\alpha + \beta) {}^1\xi_k e_1 = ({}^1\alpha {}^1\xi_k + {}^1\beta {}^1\xi_k) e_1 + ({}^2\alpha \cdot 0 + {}^2\beta \cdot 0) e_2 \\
&= ({}^1\alpha e_1 + {}^2\alpha e_2) {}^1\xi_k e_1 + ({}^1\beta e_1 + {}^2\beta e_2) {}^1\xi_k e_1 \\
&= \alpha f + \beta f
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
3. \quad (\alpha\beta) f &= ({}^1\alpha {}^1\beta e_1 + {}^2\alpha {}^2\beta e_2) {}^1\xi_k e_1 = ({}^1\alpha e_1 + {}^2\alpha e_2) \cdot ({}^1\beta e_1 + {}^2\beta e_2) {}^1\xi_k e_1 \\
&= \alpha(\beta f).
\end{aligned}$$

4.  $1.f = f$ , where  $1$  is the identity element of  $BC$ .

Thus, we can say that  $B$  is a  $BC$  - module.

**Theorem 2.1.3:** Prove that the class  $B'$  is a  $BC$  - module.

*Proof:* Let  $\alpha, \beta \in BC$  be two bicomplex scalars and  $f = ({}^2\xi_k e_2), g = ({}^2\eta_k e_2) \in B''$ .  $(B', +)$  is an abelian group.

The operation  $BC \times B'' \rightarrow B''$  is well defined as

$$\begin{aligned}
\sup_k k^k \|\alpha f\| &= \sup_k k^k \|({}^1\alpha e_1 + {}^2\alpha e_2)({}^1f e_1 + {}^2f e_2)\| \\
&= \sup_k k^k \|\alpha \cdot 0e_1 + {}^2\alpha \cdot {}^2\xi_k e_2\|, \because {}^1f = 0 \\
&= |{}^2\alpha| \sup_k k^k |{}^2\xi_k| < \infty
\end{aligned}$$

This implies that  $\alpha f \in B''$ .

Now,

$$\begin{aligned}
1. \quad \alpha(f + g) &= ({}^1\alpha e_1 + {}^2\alpha e_2) [({}^1f + {}^1g) e_1 + ({}^2f + {}^2g) e_2] \\
&= {}^1\alpha ({}^1f + {}^1g) e_1 + {}^2\alpha ({}^2f + {}^2g) e_2 \\
&= {}^1\alpha (0 + 0) e_1 + {}^2\alpha ({}^2\xi_k + {}^2\eta_k) e_2 \\
&= ({}^1\alpha e_1 + {}^2\alpha e_2) (0e_1 + {}^2\xi_k e_2) + ({}^1\alpha e_1 + {}^2\alpha e_2) (0e_1 + {}^2\eta_k e_2) \\
&= \alpha f + \alpha g
\end{aligned}$$

Also

$$\sup_k k^k \|\alpha f + \alpha g\| = \sup_k k^k \|\alpha {}^2\xi_k e_2 + \alpha {}^2\eta_k e_2\|$$

$$\leq \left| {}^2\alpha \sup_k k^k \right|^2 \xi_k + \left| {}^2\alpha \sup_k k^k \right|^2 \eta_k < \infty$$

$$\begin{aligned} 2. \quad (\alpha + \beta) f &= (\alpha + \beta) {}^2\xi_k e_2 = [({}^1\alpha + {}^1\beta)e_1 + ({}^2\alpha + {}^2\beta)e_2] ({}^2\xi_k e_2) \\ &= ({}^1\alpha + {}^1\beta) \cdot 0 \cdot e_1 + ({}^2\alpha + {}^2\beta) {}^2\xi_k e_2 \\ &= ({}^1\alpha e_1 + {}^2\alpha e_2) (0 e_1 + {}^2\xi_k e_2) + ({}^1\beta e_1 + {}^2\beta e_2) (0 e_1 + {}^2\xi_k e_2) \\ &= \alpha f + \beta f \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 3. \quad (\alpha\beta) f &= ({}^1\alpha {}^1\beta e_1 + {}^2\alpha {}^2\beta e_2) {}^2\xi_k e_2 = ({}^1\alpha e_1 + {}^2\alpha e_2) \cdot ({}^1\beta e_1 + {}^2\beta e_2) {}^2\xi_k e_2 \\ &= \alpha (\beta f). \end{aligned}$$

4.  $1.f = f$ , where  $1$  is the identity element of  $BC$ .

Thus, we can say that  $B'$  is a  $BC$  - module.

*Theorem 2.1.4:* Prove that the subclasses  $B'$  and  $B''$  are modules over the class  $B$  that is, they are bicomplex modules.

*Proof:* First of all observe that  $B$  given by (2.1.1) is a ring.

For all  $f = (\xi_k), g = (\eta_k), h = (\zeta_k) \in B$

1.  $f + g = (\xi_k + \eta_k) = (\eta_k + \xi_k) = g + f$
  2.  $(f + g) + h = (\xi_k + \eta_k) + \zeta_k = \xi_k + (\eta_k + \zeta_k) = f + (g + h)$
  3. There exists  $0 \in B$  such that  $f + 0 = f$
  4. There exists  $-f = (-\xi_k) \in B$  such that  $f + (-f) = 0$
  5.  $f(gh) = \xi_k (\eta_k \zeta_k) = (\xi_k \eta_k) \zeta_k = (fg)h$
  6.  $f(g+h) = \xi_k (\eta_k + \zeta_k) = \xi_k \eta_k + \xi_k \zeta_k = f g + f h$
- $$(f + g)h = (\xi_k + \eta_k) \zeta_k = \xi_k \zeta_k + \eta_k \zeta_k = f h + g h$$

All the above properties can be easily verified with the help of idempotent representation.

Now the classes defined by Wagh [7],  $B'$  and  $B''$  are shown to be modules over  $B$ . First consider

$$B' = \left\{ f : f = \{ {}^1\xi_k e_1 \} : \sup_{k \geq 1} k^k \left| {}^1\xi_k \right| < \infty \right\}$$

In this direction, first it is needed to prove that  $B'$  is an additive abelian group;

For all  $x = ({}^1\xi_k e_1), y = ({}^1\eta_k e_1), z = ({}^1\zeta_k e_1) \in B'$

1.  $x + y = ({}^1\xi_k e_1) + ({}^1\eta_k e_1) = ({}^1\xi_k + {}^1\eta_k) e_1 = ({}^1\eta_k + {}^1\xi_k) e_1 = y + x$ , since  ${}^1\xi_k, {}^1\eta_k$  are complex numbers and commutativity holds for them under addition.
2. By applying the same logic,

$$\begin{aligned}(x+y)+z &= ({}^1\xi_k e_1 + {}^1\eta_k e_1) + ({}^1\zeta_k e_1) = \{({}^1\xi_k + {}^1\eta_k) + ({}^1\zeta_k)\} e_1 \\ &= \{({}^1\xi_k) + ({}^1\eta_k + {}^1\zeta_k)\} e_1 = x + (y+z),\end{aligned}$$

since associativity under addition holds for complex numbers.

3. Zero element,  $0=0e_1$ , exists in  $B'$  such that  $x+0=x$ .

4. Additive inverse of every element is present in  $B'$ .

Let  $f = (\xi_k) \in B$  and  $x = ({}^1\zeta_k e_1) \in B'$

Now define an operation  $B \times B' \rightarrow B'$ . This map can be defined since

$$f \times x = x \times f = (k^k \xi_k {}^1\zeta_k e_1) = k^k ({}^1\xi_k e_1 + {}^2\xi_k e_2) ({}^1\zeta_k e_1 + 0e_2) = k^k {}^1\xi_k {}^1\zeta_k e_1$$

and  $\sup_{k \geq 1} k^k |k^k {}^1\xi_k {}^1\zeta_k| \leq \sup_{k \geq 1} k^k |{}^1\xi_k| \cdot \sup_{k \geq 1} k^k |{}^1\zeta_k| < \infty, \because ({}^1\xi_k e_1), ({}^1\zeta_k e_1) \in B'$ .

Therefore,  $f \times x = x \times f \in B'$ .

Thus, the above map is well defined such that for all

$$f = (\xi_k), g = (\eta_k) \in B \text{ \& } x = ({}^1\zeta_k e_1), y = ({}^1\mu_k e_1) \in B'$$

$$1. f(x+y) = \{ \xi_k ({}^1\eta_k e_1 + {}^1\mu_k e_1) \} = (k^k {}^1\xi_k {}^1\eta_k e_1 + k^k {}^1\xi_k {}^1\mu_k e_1) = f x + f y,$$

$$\because e_1^2 = e_1, e_2^2 = e_2, e_1 e_2 = 0$$

$$2. (f+g)x = (\xi_k + \eta_k) ({}^1\zeta_k e_1) = k^k ({}^1\xi_k {}^1\zeta_k e_1 + {}^1\eta_k {}^1\zeta_k e_1)$$

$$= k^k {}^1\xi_k {}^1\zeta_k e_1 + k^k {}^1\eta_k {}^1\zeta_k e_1$$

$$= f x + g x$$

$$3. (f g)x = (k^k \xi_k \eta_k) ({}^1\zeta_k e_1) = k^k (k^k {}^1\xi_k {}^1\eta_k \cdot {}^1\zeta_k e_1) = k^{2k} {}^1\xi_k {}^1\eta_k {}^1\zeta_k e_1$$

$$\text{and } f(gx) = (\xi_k) (k^k {}^1\eta_k {}^1\zeta_k e_1) = k^k {}^1\xi_k \cdot k^k {}^1\eta_k {}^1\zeta_k e_1 = k^{2k} {}^1\xi_k {}^1\eta_k {}^1\zeta_k e_1$$

$$\text{therefore, } (f g)x = f(gx).$$

$$4. 1_B = (k^{-k}) \text{ is the identity element of } B, (1_B)x = k^k \cdot k^{-k} {}^1\zeta_k e_1 = ({}^1\zeta_k e_1) = x$$

Hence,  $B'$  is a module over  $B$ .

Now consider other subclass:

$$B'' = \left\{ f : f = \{ {}^2\xi_k e_2 \} : \sup_{k \geq 1} k^k |{}^2\xi_k| < \infty \right\}$$

In this also, first we prove that  $B''$  is an additive abelian group;

For all  $x = ({}^2\xi_k e_2), y = ({}^2\eta_k e_2), z = ({}^2\zeta_k e_2) \in B''$

$$1. x+y = ({}^2\xi_k e_2) + ({}^2\eta_k e_2) = ({}^2\xi_k + {}^2\eta_k) e_2 = ({}^2\eta_k + {}^2\xi_k) e_2 = y+x,$$

since  ${}^2\xi_k, {}^2\eta_k$  are complex numbers and commutativity holds for them under addition.

2. By applying the same logic

$$\begin{aligned}(x+y)+z &= ({}^2\xi_k e_2 + {}^2\eta_k e_2) + ({}^2\zeta_k e_2) = \{({}^2\xi_k + {}^2\eta_k) + ({}^2\zeta_k)\} e_2 \\ &= \{({}^2\xi_k) + ({}^2\eta_k + {}^2\zeta_k)\} e_2 = x + (y+z),\end{aligned}$$

since associativity under addition holds for complex numbers.

3. Zero element,  $0=0e_2$ , exists in  $B''$  such that  $x+0=x$ .

4. Additive inverse of every element is present in  $B''$ .

Let  $f = (\xi_k) \in B$  &  $x = ({}^2\zeta_k e_2) \in B''$

Now we define an operation  $B \times B'' \rightarrow B''$ .

$$f \times x = x \times f = (k^k \xi_k {}^2\zeta_k e_2) = k^k ({}^1\xi_k e_1 + {}^2\xi_k e_2) (0e_1 + {}^2\zeta_k e_2) = k^k {}^2\xi_k {}^2\zeta_k e_2$$

and  $\sup_{k \geq 1} k^k |k^k {}^2\xi_k {}^2\zeta_k| \leq \sup_{k \geq 1} k^k |{}^2\xi_k| \cdot \sup_{k \geq 1} k^k |{}^2\zeta_k| < \infty, \because ({}^2\xi_k e_2), ({}^2\zeta_k e_2) \in B''$ .

Therefore,  $f \times x = x \times f \in B''$ .

Thus, the above map is well defined such that for all

$$f = (\xi_k), g = (\eta_k) \in B \text{ \& } x = ({}^2\zeta_k e_2), y = ({}^2\mu_k e_2) \in B''$$

$$1. \quad f(x+y) = \{\xi_k ({}^2\eta_k e_2 + {}^2\mu_k e_2)\} = (k^k {}^2\xi_k {}^2\eta_k e_2 + k^k {}^2\xi_k {}^2\mu_k e_2) = f x + f y$$

Since,  $e_1^2 = e_1, e_2^2 = e_2, e_1 e_2 = 0$

$$\begin{aligned}2. \quad (f+g)x &= (\xi_k + \eta_k) ({}^2\zeta_k e_2) = k^k ({}^2\xi_k {}^2\zeta_k e_2 + {}^2\eta_k {}^2\zeta_k e_2) \\ &= k^k {}^2\xi_k {}^2\zeta_k e_2 + k^k {}^2\eta_k {}^2\zeta_k e_2 \\ &= f x + g x\end{aligned}$$

$$3. \quad (f g)x = (k^k \xi_k \eta_k) ({}^2\zeta_k e_2) = k^k (k^k {}^2\xi_k {}^2\eta_k \cdot {}^2\zeta_k e_2) = k^{2k} {}^2\xi_k {}^2\eta_k {}^2\zeta_k e_2$$

$$\text{and } f(gx) = (\xi_k) (k^k {}^2\eta_k {}^2\zeta_k e_2) = k^k {}^2\xi_k \cdot k^k {}^2\eta_k {}^2\zeta_k e_2 = k^{2k} {}^2\xi_k {}^2\eta_k {}^2\zeta_k e_2$$

Therefore,  $(f g)x = f(gx)$ .

$$4. \quad 1_B = (k^{-k}) \text{ is the identity element of } B, (1_B)x = k^k \cdot k^{-k} {}^2\zeta_k e_2 = ({}^2\zeta_k e_2) = x$$

Hence,  $B''$  is also a module over  $B$ .

a) Construction of a BC - module, considering  $B$  and  $B'$  as complex linear spaces:

$$B' = \left\{ f : f = \{ {}^1\xi_k e_1 \} : \sup_{k \geq 1} k^k |{}^1\xi_k| < \infty \right\}$$

Let  $\alpha$  be a complex number and  $f \in B'$ , then

$$\alpha \cdot f = (\alpha \xi_k) e_1 \in B'$$

Therefore, both  $B$  and  $B'$  are complex linear spaces.

We know that  $B$  is a ring and

$$\begin{aligned} B' &= A_1 e_1 = (B)_{e_1} \\ B'' &= A_2 e_2 = (B)_{e_2} \end{aligned}$$

We have also shown that  $B$  and  $B'$  are ideals in the ring  $B$  and they have the properties

$$(B)_{e_1} \cap (B)_{e_2} = \{0\} \text{ and}$$

$B = B_{e_1} + B_{e_2}$ , idempotent decomposition of  $B$ .

Both the ideals are uniquely determined but their elements admit different representations.

$(\xi_k) \in B$  can be written as

$$\xi_k = z_{1k} + i_2 z_{2k} = \beta_{1k} e_1 + \beta_{2k} e_2 \quad (3.1.1)$$

where,

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_{1k} &= z_{1k} - i_1 z_{2k} \\ \beta_{2k} &= z_{1k} + i_1 z_{2k} \end{aligned}$$

$(\beta_{1k})$  and  $(\beta_{2k})$  are complex sequences i.e.,  $\beta_{1k}, \beta_{2k} \in C_1(i_1)$ .

$(\xi_k)$  can also be written as

$$\xi_k = \eta_{1k} + i_1 \eta_{2k} = \gamma_{1k} e_1 + \gamma_{2k} e_2 \quad (3.1.2)$$

where,

$$\begin{aligned} \eta_{1k} &= x_{1k} + i_2 x_{2k}, \\ \eta_{2k} &= y_{1k} + i_2 y_{2k}, \\ \gamma_{1k} &= \eta_{1k} - i_2 \eta_{2k}, \\ \gamma_{2k} &= \eta_{1k} + i_2 \eta_{2k} \end{aligned}$$

All these sequences are complex sequences in  $C_1(i_2)$ .

(3.1.1) and (3.1.2) can be equally called the idempotent representations of a bicomplex sequence in  $B$ .

We can say that (3.1.1) is the idempotent representation for  $B$  when we consider elements are from

$$C^2(i_1) = C_1(i_1) \times C_1(i_1)$$

And (3.1.2) is the idempotent representation for  $B$  when we consider elements are from

$$C^2(i_2) = C_1(i_2) \times C_1(i_2).$$

We get similar results for both the representations. We can say that the consequences are similar but different.

*Note 3.1.1:* One point should be noted here that  $(\beta_{1k})e_1 = (\gamma_{1k})e_1$  and  $(\beta_{1k})e_2 = (\gamma_{1k})e_2$  although  $\gamma_{1k}, \gamma_{2k} \in C_1(i_2), \forall k \geq 1$  and  $\beta_{1k}, \beta_{2k} \in C_1(i_1), \forall k \geq 1$ .

More specifically, given

$$\beta_{1k} = \text{Re}(\beta_{1k}) + i_1 \text{Im}(\beta_{1k}) ,$$

the equality

$$\beta_{1k} e_1 = \gamma_{1k} e_1$$

is true if and only if

$$\gamma_{1k} = \text{Re} \beta_{1k} - i_2 \text{Im} \beta_{1k} .$$

Similarly, given

$$\beta_{2k} = \text{Re}(\beta_{2k}) + i_1 \text{Im}(\beta_{2k})$$

the equality

$$\beta_{1k} e_1 = \gamma_{1k} e_1$$

is true if and only if

$$\gamma_{2k} = \text{Re} \beta_{2k} - i_2 \text{Im} \beta_{2k} . \text{ [c.f. [1]]}$$

*Note 3.1.2:* The decomposition  $B = B_{e_1} + B_{e_2}$  can be written in any of the two equivalent forms

$$B = A_1 e_1 + A_2 e_2 ; B = (A_1)' e_1 + (A_2)' e_2 ,$$

where  $A_1, A_2 \subseteq C_1(i_1)$  and  $(A_1)', (A_2)' \subseteq C_1(i_2)$  .

If  $B$  is seen as  $C_1(i_1)$  - linear space, then the first decomposition becomes a direct sum.

And if seen as  $C_1(i_2)$  - linear space, then the second decomposition becomes a direct sum.

*Note 3.1.3:* We know that idempotent representation is unique but (3.1.1) and (3.1.2) contradicts this fact. But each of them is unique in the following sense:

It is easy to show that

$$z = \beta_{1k} e_1 + \beta_{2k} e_2 = \eta_{1k} e_1 + \eta_{2k} e_2 \Rightarrow \beta_{1k} = \eta_{1k}, \beta_{2k} = \eta_{2k} ,$$

where

$$\beta_{1k}, \beta_{2k}, \eta_{1k}, \eta_{2k} \in C_1(i_1) .$$

Similarly

$$z = \gamma_{1k} e_1 + \gamma_{2k} e_2 = \xi_{1k} e_1 + \xi_{2k} e_2 \Rightarrow \gamma_{1k} = \xi_{1k}, \gamma_{2k} = \xi_{2k} ,$$

where

$$\gamma_{1k}, \gamma_{2k}, \xi_{1k}, \xi_{2k} \in C_1(i_2) .$$

Hence, idempotent representation for  $B$  is unique.

*Note 3.1.4:* The idempotent decomposition of  $B$ ,  $B = B_{e_1} + B_{e_2}$ , plays an important role, as it allows to realize component wise the operations on  $B$ :

$$(\xi_k) = ({}^1\xi_k e_1 + {}^2\xi_k e_2), (\eta_k) = ({}^1\eta_k e_1 + {}^2\eta_k e_2)$$

$\lambda = {}^1\lambda e_1 + {}^2\lambda e_2$ , then

$$\xi_k + \eta_k = ({}^1\xi_k e_1 + {}^2\xi_k e_2) + ({}^1\eta_k e_1 + {}^2\eta_k e_2) = ({}^1\xi_k + {}^1\eta_k) e_1 + ({}^2\xi_k + {}^2\eta_k) e_2$$

$$\lambda(\xi_k) = ({}^1\lambda {}^1\xi_k) e_1 + ({}^2\lambda {}^2\xi_k) e_2.$$

When  $B$  is considered as  $C_1(i_1)$  - linear space we write  $B_{C_1(i_1)}$  and when as  $C_1(i_2)$  - linear space, it is written as  $B_{C_1(i_2)}$ .

$B_{e_1}$  and  $B_{e_2}$  are  $\mathbb{R}$  - linear,  $C_1(i_1)$  - linear,  $C_1(i_2)$  - linear and  $BC$  - modules.

We can write  $B = B_{e_1} \oplus B_{e_2}$ , where the direct sum  $\oplus$  can be understood in the sense of  $\mathbb{R}$  - ,  $C_1(i_1)$  - ,  $C_1(i_2)$  - linear spaces, as well as  $BC$  - modules.

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## Effects of Nonisothermality and Wind-Shears on the Propagation of Gravity Waves (II): Ray-Tracing Images

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**Abstract-** We investigate the effects of the wind shears and nonisothermality on the ray propagation of acoustic-gravity waves in a nonhydrostatic atmosphere by generalizing *Marks & Eckermann's* WKB ray-tracing formalism (1995: *J. Atmo. Sci.*, 52, 11, 1959-1984; cited as ME95). Five atmospheric conditions are considered, starting from the simplest isothermal and shearfree case. In every step case a set of ray equations is derived to numerically code into a global ray-tracing model and calculate the profiles of ray paths in space and time, wavelengths and intrinsic wave periods along the rays, meanfield temperature or horizontal zonal/meridional wind speeds, as well as their gradients, and the WKB criterion parameter,  $\delta$ . Results include, but not limited to, the following: (1) Rays in shear-free and isothermal atmosphere follow straight lines in space; both forward and backward-mapping rays are superimposed upon each other; wavelengths ( $\lambda_{x,y,z}$ ), as well as the intrinsic wave period ( $\tau$ ), keep constant versus altitude. (2) If Hines' locally isothermal condition is applied, i.e., including the effect of temperature variations in altitude, ray traces become non-straight; however, their projections in the horizontal plane keep straight; the forward and backward ray traces are no longer overlain; and,  $\lambda_{x,y,z}$  show discernable changes but  $\tau$  does not change. All the modulations happen at around 80-150 km altitudes.

*GJSFR-F Classification : MSC 2010: 76B15*



EFFECTS OF NON ISOTHERMALITY AND WIND SHEARS ON THE PROPAGATION OF GRAVITY WAVES II RAY TRACING IMAGES

*Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of :*



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# Effects of Nonisothermality and Wind-Shears on the Propagation of Gravity Waves (II): Ray-Tracing Images

J. Z. G. Ma

**Abstract-** We investigate the effects of the wind shears and nonisothermality on the ray propagation of acoustic-gravity waves in a nonhydrostatic atmosphere by generalizing *Marks & Eckermann's* WKB ray-tracing formalism (1995: *J. Atmo. Sci.*, 52, 11, 1959-1984; cited as ME95). Five atmospheric conditions are considered, starting from the simplest isothermal and shearfree case. In every step case a set of ray equations is derived to numerically code into a global ray-tracing model and calculate the profiles of ray paths in space and time, wavelengths and intrinsic wave periods along the rays, meanfield temperature or horizontal zonal/meridional wind speeds, as well as their gradients, and the WKB criterion parameter,  $\delta$ . Results include, but not limited to, the following: (1) Rays in shear-free and isothermal atmosphere follow straight lines in space; both forward and backward-mapping rays are superimposed upon each other; wavelengths ( $\lambda_{x,y,z}$ ), as well as the intrinsic wave period ( $\tau$ ), keep constant versus altitude. (2) If Hines' locally isothermal condition is applied, i.e., including the effect of temperature variations in altitude, ray traces become non-straight; however, their projections in the horizontal plane keep straight; the forward and backward ray traces are no longer overlain; and,  $\lambda_{x,y,z}$  show discernable changes but  $\tau$  does not change. All the modulations happen at around 80-150 km altitudes. If the temperature constraint is relaxed to the nonisothermal condition by adding the effect of temperature gradients in  $x, y, z$  and  $t$ , the results do not exhibit perceptible differences. (3) If the atmosphere is only isothermal, rays are violently modulated by the zonal and meridional winds, and their shears in  $z$ , as well as gradients in  $x, y, t$  particularly during the 80-150 km altitudes where  $\lambda_{x,y,z}$  and  $\tau$  exhibit the most conspicuous modifications. More importantly, the forward and the backward rays never propagate along the same paths. If the isothermal condition is updated to the nonisothermal one by adding the effects of temperature gradients in  $x, y, z$  and  $t$ , modulations of the physical parameters in 0-80 km altitudes become significant. (4) While the WKB  $\delta$  is below 0.4 in the Hines' model, it can be driven to close to 3 by the wind shears and nonisothermality in realistic atmosphere. In addition to the above, features of ray propagations under different initial wavelengths are also discussed.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Gravity stratifies atmosphere and modifies the propagation of acoustic wave through a restoring force, namely, the buoyancy force, leading to the formation of acoustic-gravity wave, consisting of relatively higher-frequency acoustic and lower-frequency gravity branches (*Lamb* 1908; 1910). This force produces atmospheric oscillations featured by the buoyancy frequency,  $\omega_b$  (isothermal condition) or  $\omega_B$  (nonisothermal condition), also well-known as the Brunt-Väisälä frequency, satisfying (*Väisälä* 1925; *Brunt* 1927; *Eckart* 1960; *Hines* 1960; *Tolstoy* 1963)

$$\omega_b^2 = (\gamma - 1) \frac{g^2}{C^2}, \text{ or } \omega_B^2 = (\gamma - 1) \frac{g^2}{C^2} + \frac{g}{C^2} \frac{dC^2}{dz} \quad (1)$$

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where  $\gamma$  is the adiabatic index;  $g$  is the gravitational constant;  $C$  is the speed of sound, and  $z$  is the vertical coordinate of the atmospheric frame of reference.

Acoustic-gravity waves were firstly found to be responsible for ionospheric ripples (*Hines* 1960), a traveling disturbance in space plasmas which causes the fading of radio signals (e.g., *Mimno* 1937; *Pierce & Mimno* 1940; *Munro* 1950, 1958; *Martyn* 1950; *Toman* 1955; *Heisler* 1958; *Hooke* 1968). In essence, the upward propagating waves are amplified by the exponential decrease in atmospheric density so as to trigger observable impulsive vertical undulations in Earth's atmosphere, transfer momentum and energy to plasma particles in ionosphere, and bring about detectable variations in parameters like, electron density (*Hines* 1972; *Peltier & Hines* 1976). This model was supported by a bulk of experiments (e.g., *Gershman & Grigor'ev* 1968; *Vasseur et al.* 1972; *Francis* 1974), e.g., the ionospheric observations following nuclear detonations in the atmosphere (*Hines* 1967; *Row* 1967). Tens of years of theoretical and experimental studies exposed that the possible origin of the waves also included other natural or artificial sources like, solar-wind irregularities, solar eclipses, meteors, polar and equatorial electrojets, rocket launches, thunderstorms, cold waves, tornadoes, tropical cyclones, vortexes, volcanic eruptions, tsunamis, earthquakes (e.g., *Bolt* 1964; *Harkrider* 1964; *Pierce & Coroniti* 1966; *Cole & Greifinger* 1969; *Tolstoy & Lau* 1971; *Francis* 1975; *Richmond* 1978; *Röttger*, 1981; *Huang et al.* 1985; *Fovell et al.* 1992; *Igarashi et al.* 1994; *Calais et al.* 1998; *Wan et al.* 1998; *Grigorev* 1999; *Šauli & Boška* 2001; *Fritts & Alexander* 2003, *Kanamori* 2004). Unexpectedly, space experiments confirmed that the excited waves were intrinsically linked to chemical processes in the airglow emissions in thermosphere, such as the hydroxyl (OH) nightglow fluctuations (e.g., *Krassovsky* 1972; *Peterson* 1979; *Walterscheid et al.* 1986), the 6300 Å redline (e.g., *Sobral et al.* 1978; *Hines & Tarasick* 1987; *Mendillo et al.* 1997; *Kubota et al.* 2001), and the far-ultraviolet 1356 Å emission (e.g., *Paxton et al.* 2003; *DeMajistre et al.* 2007).

The pioneer theoretical studies on acoustic-gravity waves happened during the 1950s and 1960s, when rudimentary theories and myriad effects of the waves had been investigated, as recorded by *Gossard & Munk* (1954); *Eckart* (1960); *Tolstoy* (1963); *Journal of Atmospheric and Terrestrial Physics* (1968); *Georges* (1968); *AGARD* (1972), and *Francis* (1975). Since then, particularly after the 1980s with the aid of ground-based and space-based measurements (e.g., radar, GPS), the understanding on the wave physics and its role played in the interactions between atmosphere and ionosphere have been made considerable progress (see details in, e.g., *Fritts* 1984,1989; *Hocke & Schlegel* 1996; *Fritts & Alexander* 2003; *Fritts & Lund* 2011). The advances rely dominantly on three kinds of approaches: (1) WKB (Wentzel-Kramers-Brillouin) approximation; (2) full-wave formulation; and (3) ray-tracing mapping. All of these methods intend to obtain solutions of respective set of perturbation equations originated from the same set of Navier-Stokes equations of the atmosphere under different conditions, based on the problems concerned.

Initiated by *Hines* (1960), WKB modeling draws the most attention due to its effectiveness to provide the vertical profiles of atmospheric perturbations by assuming the horizontal components of parameters, as well as the background atmosphere, change only slowly over the wave cycles of the vertical variations (*Pitteway & Hines* 1963; *Einaudi & Hines* 1970; *Hines* 1974; *Beer* 1974; *Gill* 1982; *Hickey & Cole* 1988; *Nappo* 2002; *Vadas* 2007), while the variation ( $k_m$ ) of the vertical wavenumber ( $m$ ) in altitude ( $z$ ),  $k_m = \partial(\ln m)/\partial z$ ,

is much smaller than  $m$ , i.e.,  $\delta = k_m/m \ll 1$ ; for large  $\delta$ , this condition was assumed broken and waves were generally suggested reflected vertically (e.g., Marks & Eckermann 1995; cited as ME95 hereafter). The WKB approximation makes it valid to apply Taylor expansion to the set of Navier-Stokes equations of continuity, momentum, and energy, by assuming the solutions have the form of  $\sim \exp[\pm i(kx + ly + mz - \omega t) + z/(2H)]$ , where  $x$  and  $y$  are horizontal coordinates in the zonal and meridional directions, respectively, with corresponding wavenumbers  $k$  and  $l$ ,  $H$  is the scale height,  $t$  is time, and  $\omega$  is the ground-relative (Eulerian) wave angular frequency (e.g., Hines 1963; Midgley & Liemohn 1966; Volland 1969; Francis 1973; Hickey & Cole 1987; Holton 1992; Fritts & Alexander 2003). Neglecting ion-drag, viscosity and molecular diffusion below 200 km altitude, and using Hines' locally isothermal atmosphere which is horizontally uniform with background wind  $U$  along  $x$  and  $V$  along  $y$ , which are all shear-free in  $z$ , a classical dispersion equation can be obtained as follows (Eckart 1960; Eckermann 1997):

$$\Omega^2 \left( k_h^2 + k_z^2 - \frac{\Omega^2 - f^2}{C^2} \right) = \omega_b^2 k_h^2 + f^2 k_z^2 \quad (2)$$

where  $\Omega = \omega - kU - lV$  is the intrinsic frequency,  $f = 2\Omega_E \sin\phi$  is the Coriolis parameter ( $\Omega_E$  is Earth's rotation rate and  $\phi$  is latitude),  $k_h^2 = k^2 + l^2$ ,  $k_z^2 = m^2 + 1/(4H^2)$ .

For the dissipative terms, Pitteway & Hines (1963) took advantage of a complex dispersion equation to confirm that they do contribute non-negligible effects at meteor heights. Besides, the shear-related Richardson number  $R_i$  was verified to provide a criterion,  $R_i \sim 1/4$ , which is a necessary but not sufficient condition for dynamic instability; however, this criterion might not rigorously apply to cases where the wind shear is tilted from zenith or when the molecular viscosity is important (Hines 1971; Dutton 1986; Sonmor & Klaassen 1997; Liu 2007). What is more, if more nonhydrodynamic terms (such as ion-drag) are included, the complexity of solving the perturbed equations made it hard to give as simple an expression of the dispersion relation as Eq.(2). Instead, Francis (1973); Hickey & Cole (1987) suggested a polynomial equation to demonstrate the dispersive properties of acoustic-gravity waves in the absence of wind shears,  $\sum_j D_j R^j = 0$ , where function  $R$  in the square of the complex vertical wave number,  $\kappa = m + i/(2H)$ , in which  $m$  becomes a complex;  $D_i$  is complex coefficient; and  $j$  is the number of the Navier-Stokes equations. Studies showed that the mean-field winds has a filter effect on waves (Mayr et al. 1984, 1990); and, waves of about 15-30 min periods and 200-400 km horizontal wavelengths are able to reach as high as 300 km altitude in the presence of dissipative terms (Sun et al. 2007). Note that the second point was in contrast with Vadas & Fritts (2004)'s earlier argument that the waves above  $\sim 200$  km are often linked to auroral sources at high latitudes.

Unlike the WKB model, the full-wave formulation provides all the solutions of the perturbed equations, not only the WKB ones, but also those that rigorously accounts for the wave reflection. The formalism made use of the tridiagonal algorithm (Bruce et al. 1953; Lindzen & Kuo 1969) and assumed a single monochromatic wave of the form  $f(z)e^{i(\omega t - kx - ly)}$  in an inhomogeneous atmosphere from the neutral troposphere upward to the mesosphere (50-85 km in altitude; i.e., ionospheric  $D$  region), and to a maximum altitude of 800 km in the  $F$  region, where  $f(z)$  is a perturbation function as a function of  $z$  (e.g., Yeh & Liu 1974; Lindzen & Tung 1976; Hickey et al. 1997,2000; Liang et

*al.* 1998; *Schubert et al.* 2003). Note that there was no waveforms in  $z$ . In this case, all factors existing in realistic atmosphere can be considered, such as, height-dependent mean temperature, damping term associated with ion drag, molecular viscosity and thermal conduction, the filtering of background winds; the eddy and the molecular diffusion of heat and momentum, etc., subject to boundary conditions. The model provided the magnitude and phase of the perturbed  $z$ -dependent temperature, pressure, horizontal and vertical wind speeds (e.g., *Klostermeyer* 1972a,b,c; *Hickey et al.*, 1997, 1998, 2000, 2001; *Walterscheid & Hickey* 2001; *Schubert et al.* 2005). The model was not only applied to analyze Earth's acoustic waves (*Hickey et al.* 2001; *Schubert et al.* 2005; *Walterscheid & Hickey* 2005) and gravity waves (*Hickey et al.* 1997; *Walterscheid & Hickey* 2001), but also used for gravity-wave heating and cooling in Jupiters thermosphere (*Hickey et al.* 2000; *Schubert et al.* 2003).

By contrast, ray-tracing mapping is theoretically based on the WKB approximation. It comes from Fermat's principle in terms of Hamiltonian equations (*Landau & Lifshitz* 1959; *Whitham* 1961; *Yeh & Liu* 1972). In the application to acoustic-gravity waves, it formulates the spatial and temporal evolutions of a wave packet in a background wind with velocity  $\mathbf{v}_0$ , constrained by the WKB-approximated dispersion relation,  $\omega = \omega(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{k})$ , where  $\omega$  is the ground-based Eulerian or extrinsic wave frequency,  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{k}$  are the 3D position and wavenumber vectors, respectively (e.g., *Jones* 1969; *Lighthill* 1978; ME95; *Ding et al.* 2003). After *Hines* (1960) suggested that the upward propagating gravity waves can be reflected or refracted by mean-field winds, and, *Thome* (1968); *Francis* (1973) proposed that zero and higher order gravity wave modes under different isothermal conditions are able to travel horizontally as far as thousands of km, *Cowling et al.* (1971) discussed the background wind effects on the ray paths and proposed a directional filtering model. The authors argued that if gravity waves go along the winds, the intrinsic frequency is shifted downward; If the waves propagate against the winds, reflection may appear. *Yeh & Webb* (1972) and *Waldock & Jones* (1984) confirmed the filtering effect exerted by the winds on waves in a stratified atmosphere. The reflection was found to occur when wave propagate against wind; and, it is impossible for the waves to penetrate through either along or against high-speed winds. These studies were extended in a wider scope. For example, *Bertin et al.* (1975) adopted a reverse ray-tracing model to study the mechanism of wave excitation by wind perturbations in a jet stream bordering the polar front. *Waldock & Jones* (1984) considered the diurnal variation of the wind in the ray-tracing method. *Zhong et al.* (1995) examined the wind influence on the propagation of gravity waves in different seasons, and extended the ray-tracing simulations by including the tidal wind that has temporal and vertical variations in the study of the wave propagation through the middle atmosphere.

Particularly, ME95 set up a generalized, 3D WKB ray-tracing model to accommodate gravity waves of all frequencies in a rotating, stratified, compressible, but isothermal, nondissipative atmosphere. The nonhydrostatic model took advantage of three derived equations in dispersion, refraction, and amplitude, where excluded were wind shears, temperature gradients, and time-dependent components of the mean-field parameters. Based on *Hines'* locally isothermal dispersion relation, the authors exposed that the decrease in the horizontal wavenumber causes the reduction in the high-frequency cutoff; turbulent damping is more important than scale-related radiative damping; and climatological planetary waves heavily modulate ray paths of waves launched from different longitudes. After ME95's contribution, *Ding et al.* (2003) employed the same *Hines'* model and adopted the HWM93 wind & MSISE90 atmospheric models (*Hedin* 1991; *Hedin et al.* 1991) for

a detailed investigation on the relation between the waves and the winds. They obtained that, in response to the directions of the winds, waves are divided into three types: cut-off, reflected, and propagating; and, the ray paths of the waves can be horizontally prolonged, vertically steepened, reflected, or critically coupled. A more recent work was done by Wrasse et al. (2006) in the absence of dissipative terms. The authors followed ME95's study and derived reverse ray-tracing equations to estimate the sources of the gravity wave disturbances from wave signatures observed at 23°S (Brazil) and 7°S (Indonesia) by airglow imagers.

However, acoustic-gravity waves are so complicated in their propagation through the atmosphere that it is important to take into account convection, wind shear, dissipation, sources of transport in heat, momentum, and constituents (*Fritts & Alexander* 2003). It is thus important to develop Hines' isothermal dispersion relation to a more general one which is able to expose the influences of factors like temperature gradient, Coriolis force, wind shear, molecular viscosity, thermal diffusivity, and ion-drag, in order to, on the one hand, understand the damping mechanism and physical effects of the waves in the coupling between atmosphere and ionosphere; on the other hand, validate and/or provide a reference to the numerical full-wave solutions. Toward this goal, an influential advance has been achieved in a series of contributions on isothermal and shear-free, but dynamically viscous and thermally diffusive atmosphere by *Vadas & Fritts* (2001, 2004, 2005, 2009). The work was recognized as the “*Vadas-Fritts* ray-tracing model” (cited as VF model hereafter), which consists of a near-field Fourier-Laplace integral representation for the around the convective source region, where rays are launched with initial conditions deduced there, and a far-field ray-tracing mapping for the propagation of the gravity waves binned in space-time grid cells, and the path of each ray is determined by its spectral amplitude and by the local density of rays within the grid cells (see details in Section 2 of *Broutman & Eckermann* 2012).

Said study improved over past efforts on WKB ray-tracing technique. Unlike using the traditional “complex- $m$  approach” usually used in atmospheric physics by assuming a complex vertical wave number ( $m_r + im_i$ ) and a real wave frequency  $\omega$  in, e.g., *Pitteway & Hines* (1963), the VF model adopted a “complex- $\omega$  approach” which is always employed in plasma physics by incorporating a complex wave frequency ( $\omega_r + i\omega_i$ ) but a real  $m$  into the dispersion relation. Otherwise, the authors claimed that the derived compressible, complex, dispersion equation, equipped with terms of molecular viscosity ( $\nu$ ) and thermal diffusivity (incorporated in the Prandtl number  $Pr$ ), was unable to be solved. Though via a different approach, the model led to similar results as those obtained by *Pitteway & Hines* (1963), such as, wave damping by thermal conduction is the same order as viscous damping; amplitude of perturbations in an inviscid atmosphere always keeps constant, in addition to the factor of  $1/(2H)$ , regardless of any positions in space; in a viscid atmosphere, the wave growth depends entirely on  $\nu$ . More significantly, the authors found that waves in high frequencies and large vertical wavelengths will propagate to high altitudes, and it is the integrated viscosity effect, rather than the local value of viscosity, that determines wave dissipation; molecular viscosity and thermal diffusivity act as filters on the wave spectrum, allowing only those high-frequency, large vertical wavelength waves to propagate up to high altitudes. The model was assumed not only to interpret measurements such as the airglow data near 85 km altitude (*Vadas et al.* 2009), but also to explain the ionospheric soundings near 250 km altitude (*Vadas & Crowley* 2010).

The achievements introduced above under isothermal and shear-free conditions are of great importance for us to gain fundamental understandings on the physics of generalized

acoustic-gravity waves, and then, based on this knowledge, to take incremental steps for suitable solutions of more realistic problems. Such a problem has arisen in last 15 years since lidar facilitates recorded both large wind shears (e.g., 100 m/s per km) and large temperature gradient (up to 100 °K per km) between ~85 and 95 km altitudes (*Liu et al.* 2002; *Fritts et al.* 2004; *Franke et al.* 2005; *She et al.* 2006, 2009). Spaceborne data also confirmed that the criterion of wind-shear related Richardson number,  $R_i \leq 1/4$ , appeared to reach 1 at 90 km altitude over Svalbard (78°N, 16°E; *Hall et al.* 2007); and, measurements of airglow layer perturbations in O(<sup>1</sup>S) (peak emission altitude ~97 km) and OH (peak emission altitude ~87 km) driven by propagating acoustic-gravity waves suggested that the factor of  $1/(2H)$  should be modified by  $(1 - \beta)/(2H)$ , where  $\beta$  is the so-called “damping factor” (*Liu & Swenson* 2003; *Vargas et al.* 2007). This parameter is positive, varying between 0.2 and 1.69 with a stronger positive correlation with the meridional wind shear than the zonal one, and a positive correlation for waves of shorter than 40 km vertical wavelengths, while a negative correlation for longer ones (*Ghodpage et al.* 2014). Considering the fact that both the ion drag and Coriolis force can be neglected below 600 km (*Volland* 1969), and viscosity can also be omitted as compared with heat conductivity within the same heights, while below about 200 km the later itself turns out to be evanescent (*Harris & Priester* 1962; *Pitteway & Hines* 1963; *Volland* 1969), influences by both wind shears and nonisothermality were consequently regarded as the candidates to exert impacts on the propagation of gravity waves through realistic mesosphere and lower thermosphere. The most recent study by *Ma et al.* (2014) exposed that (1) Wind shears and nonisothermality modulate Hines’ model in both real and imaginary vertical wavenumbers. While negligible below 80 km altitude, the modulation is appreciable above 80 km altitude. It drives the atmosphere into a “sandwich” structure with three layers: 80-115 km, 115-150 km, and 150-200 km. (2) “Damping factor”,  $\beta$ , keeps positive in the top and bottom layers where wave attenuations (damping effect) appear, while it is negative in the middle layer where wave intensification (amplifying effect) occurs. The sign of  $\beta$  is determined by  $\cos\theta$ , where  $\theta$  is the angle between the mean-field wind velocity and horizontal wave vector. (3) The strongest intensification happens at 125 km altitude at which the imaginary vertical wave-number,  $m_i$ , is  $-0.25 \text{ km}^{-1}$ ; the three strongest attenuations happen at 90, 100, 180 km altitudes with  $m_i = +0.01, +0.03, +0.05 \text{ km}^{-1}$ , respectively. (4) Within the acoustic and gravity wave-periods, usually no more than tens of minutes, the Coriolis effect plays an unrecognized role, whileas it affects the inertial waves, the waveperiod of which is in the order of hours.

Therefore, the isothermal and shear-free assumptions may be inadequate to be applied for a quantitative explanation of the observations in much more complicated situations in atmosphere, especially in the modeling and analyses of spaceborne data from, e.g., RADAR, GPS. Nevertheless, we argue that the formalism under previous assumptions is helpful, at least qualitatively speaking, as a good reference for us to treat realistic atmospheric situations (e.g., *Wrassea et al.* 2006) where both the temperature and wind gradients in the vertical direction are unable to be neglected, as demonstrated by the airglow measurements below 200 km altitude. It is thus necessary to take into account these important factors in ray-tracing imaging so as to have a better understanding on the propagation of acoustic-gravity waves in the presence of nonisothermality and wind shears. This paper will extend the VF model by incorporating the vertical temperature inhomogeneity and wind shear into a perturbed set of mass, momentum, and energy equations, but adopting ME95’s simplification of ignoring the dissipation terms (i.e., molecular viscosity, heat source, ion drag). The negligence of these terms had already been validated by classical work of, e.g., *Harris & Priester* (1962); *Pitteway & Hines* (1963); *Volland* (1969). We follow ME95’s algebra and nomenclature by taking the traditional complex- $k_z$  approach

to manipulate dispersion equation for ray-tracing equations, rather than the complex- $\omega$  algebra used in the VF model. In order to clearly illustrate the propagating paths of 3D rays driven by diverse, localized, and intermittent sources (such as, tsunami, volcano) in realistic atmosphere, we intentionally expand the inviscid heights from 0~200 km to 0~300 km in ray-tracing simulations.

The structure of the paper is as follows. Section 2 develops ME95's locally isothermal ray-tracing model to a generalized set of ray-tracing equations of acoustic-gravity waves under wind-shearing and nonisothermal conditions. Section 3 presents numerical results of ray-tracing images in five different atmospheric situations, starting from the simplest isothermal and shear-free model to the most complicated nonisothermal and wind-shearing model, to expose the effects of the nonisothermality and wind shears. The vertical profile of the WKB  $\delta$  parameter is also exhibited under some typical situations. Section 4 offers a quick summary and discussion. SI units are used throughout the paper, with exceptions noted wherever necessary.

## II. RAY-TRACING EQUATIONS

### a) Formulation

The classical formulation of ray-tracing theory is briefly described as follows. Let  $\omega$  be the ground-based (Eulerian, or, extrinsic) wave frequency,  $\mathbf{r} = \{x, y, z\}$  and  $\mathbf{k} = \{k, l, m_r\}$  are the position vector, and wavenumber vector, respectively, where subscript " $r$ " attached to  $m$  denotes the "real" part of the vertical wavenumber  $m$ . It will be omitted for simplification throughout the rest of the text. Based on Fermat's principle in terms of Hamiltonian equations (e.g., *Landau & Lifshitz* 1959; *Whitham* 1961; *Yeh & Liu* 1972), the ray-path,  $\Gamma$ , of internal gravity waves are determined both spatially and temporally by the dispersion relationship,  $\omega = \omega(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{k})$  (e.g., *Jones* 1969; *Lighthill* 1978):

$$\Gamma = \Gamma(\mathbf{r}, t; \mathbf{k}, \omega) \quad (3)$$

and  $m$  is constrained by the WKB dispersion equation along the rays:

$$m = m(\mathbf{r}, t; k_h, \omega) \quad (4)$$

For any rays with a generalized phase  $\Phi$ ,

$$\Phi = \int_{\Gamma(t)} (\omega dt - \mathbf{k} \cdot d\mathbf{r}) \quad (5)$$

only those with steady phase values are able to be observed and measured. Mathematically, this requires that the variation of  $\Phi$  is zero, namely,

$$\delta\Phi = \delta \int_{\Gamma(t)} G dt = \delta \int_{\Gamma(t)} \left( \omega - \mathbf{k} \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} \right) dt = 0 \quad (6)$$

in which

$$G = \omega - \mathbf{k} \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} \quad (7)$$

is a functional to be integrated. The calculus of variations provides the following set of differential equations:

$$\frac{\partial G}{\partial \omega} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial G}{\partial \mathbf{k}} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial G}{\partial \mathbf{r}} - \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial G}{\partial \dot{\mathbf{r}}_t} = 0 \quad (8)$$

where  $\dot{\mathbf{r}}_t = d\mathbf{r}/dt$ . Specifically, the set of vector equations is as follows:

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} = \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial \mathbf{k}} = \frac{\partial(\Omega + \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{v}_0)}{\partial \mathbf{k}}, \quad \text{or, } \mathbf{c}_g = \mathbf{v}_0 + \mathbf{c}_{g^*} \quad (9)$$

and

$$\frac{d\mathbf{k}}{dt} = -\frac{\partial \omega}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = -\frac{\partial(\Omega + \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{v}_0)}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = -\frac{\partial(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{v}_0)}{\partial \mathbf{x}} - \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \quad (10)$$

where

$$\Omega = \omega - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{v}_0 = \omega - \mathbf{k}_h \cdot \mathbf{v}_0, \quad \mathbf{c}_g = \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial \mathbf{k}}, \quad \mathbf{c}_{g^*} = \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial \mathbf{k}} \quad (11)$$

are the Doppler-shifted (Lagrangian, or, intrinsic) wave frequency, the extrinsic and intrinsic group velocities, respectively, in which  $\mathbf{k}_h = \{k, l\}$  and  $\mathbf{v}_0 = \{U, V, 0\}$ .

#### b) ME95's model and its generalization

Based on Hines (1960)'s locally isothermal and shear-free dispersion relation, ME95 developed a global WKB ray-tracing model of a set of six equations to accommodate gravity waves of all frequencies in a nonhydrostatic, rotating, stratified, and compressible atmosphere characterized by nonuniformities which are supposed to change slowly in real space  $(x, y, z)$ , but keep constant in time  $(t)$ , that is, wave period  $(2\pi/\omega; \text{tens of minutes}) \ll \text{Earth's daily rotation period } (1/f \sim 12 \text{ hours})$ . As a result, the mean-field horizontal wind of velocity  $\mathbf{v}_0 = \{U(x, y, z), V(x, y, z), 0\}$  holds  $\partial U/\partial t = \partial V/\partial t = 0$ . The model assumed that each ray starts from an initial spatial position of specific longitude, latitude, and altitude, and both  $k_h$  and  $\omega$  were supposed constant in time along ray paths due to the condition of  $\partial/\partial t = 0$ . A set of six ray equations was obtained, as given in Eq.(A3) of ME95.

We extend ME95's model by incorporating three additional effects: (1) nonisothermal effect, i.e.,  $k_T \neq 0$ ; and (2) wind-shear effects, i.e.,  $\partial U/\partial z \neq 0$  and  $\partial V/\partial z \neq 0$ ; and, (3) time-dependent effect, i.e.,  $\partial/\partial t \neq 0$ . Consequently, not only do additional terms appear in ME95's six equations, which are related to temperature gradient and wind shears, but also a new equation to demonstrate the temporal dependence of wave frequency  $\Omega$  comes into being. The set of ray equations from Eqs.(9,10) are thus expressed as follows, which generalizes ME95's Eq.(A3):

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{dx}{dt} &= U + c_{g^*x} = U + \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial m} \frac{\partial m}{\partial k}, \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = V + c_{g^*y} = V + \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial m} \frac{\partial m}{\partial l}, \quad \frac{dz}{dt} = c_{g^*z} = \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial m} \\ \frac{dk}{dt} &= -\left(k \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} + l \frac{\partial V}{\partial x}\right) - \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial m} \frac{\partial m}{\partial x}, \quad \frac{dl}{dt} = -\left(k \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} + l \frac{\partial V}{\partial y}\right) - \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial m} \frac{\partial m}{\partial y}, \\ \frac{dm}{dt} &= -\left(k \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} + l \frac{\partial V}{\partial z}\right) - \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial m} \frac{\partial m}{\partial z}, \quad \frac{d\Omega}{dt} = \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial m} \frac{\partial m}{\partial t} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (12)$$



## c) Ray equations under nonisothermal and wind-sheared conditions

Instead of Eq.(1b) in ME95, which was rewritten from Eq.(2) in the Introduction of this paper, the dispersion relation used in Eq.(12) is updated to the generalized expression as given by Eq.(12) of *Ma et al.* (2014):

$$m^2 = \frac{\Omega^2 - \omega_A^2}{C^2} + k_h^2 \left[ \frac{\omega_B^2 - \Omega^2}{\Omega^2} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\omega_v^2}{\Omega^2} \left( \frac{2-\gamma}{\gamma} \frac{\Omega^2}{k_h^2 V_p V_{ph}} + \frac{1}{2} \cos \theta \right) \cos \theta \right] \quad (13)$$

in which

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \omega_A^2 &= \omega_a^2 + gk_T, \quad C^2 = \gamma \frac{k_B T_0}{M}, \quad \omega_v = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dU}{dz}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dV}{dz}\right)^2}, \quad \cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{k}_h \cdot \mathbf{v}_0}{k_h \sqrt{U^2 + V^2}} \\ V_p &= \frac{\omega_v}{k_p}, \quad V_{ph} = \frac{\Omega}{k_h}; \quad \text{and,} \quad \omega_a^2 = \frac{\gamma^2}{4(\gamma-1)} \omega_b^2, \quad k_T = \frac{d(\ln T_0)}{dz}, \quad k_p = \frac{d(\ln p_0)}{dz} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (14)$$

where  $\omega_A$  and  $\omega_a$  are the nonisothermal and isothermal cut-off frequencies, respectively;  $k_T$  and  $k_p$  are the scale numbers in temperature and pressure, respectively;  $k_B$  is Boltzmann's constant;  $T_0$  is the mean-field temperature;  $M$  is the mean molecular mass of atmosphere;  $\omega_v$  is the synthesized wind shear;  $\theta$  is the angle between  $\mathbf{k}_h$  and  $\mathbf{v}_0$ ;  $V_p$  is a quasi-phase speed related to  $\omega_v$  and  $k_p$ , and  $V_{ph}$  is the horizontal quasi-phase speed. Note that the  $f$ -terms are omitted due to their negligible roles played in the band of gravity waves. Applying Eq.(13) to Eq.(12) produces a set of generalized, nontrivial ray-tracing equations as follows, where the algebra involved is notoriously tedious but straightforward:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{dx}{dt} &= U - A_{11}k + A_{12} \frac{\partial U}{\partial z}, \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = V - A_{11}l + A_{12} \frac{\partial V}{\partial z}, \quad \frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{\Omega^2}{\Omega^2 - \omega_B^2} A_{11}m \\ \frac{dk}{dt} &= - \left( k \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} + l \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} \right) - A_{22}k_c, \quad \frac{dl}{dt} = - \left( k \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} + l \frac{\partial V}{\partial y} \right) - A_{22}l_c \\ \frac{dm}{dt} &= - \left( k \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} + l \frac{\partial V}{\partial z} \right) - A_{22}m_c, \quad \frac{d\Omega}{dt} = -A_{21} \left( k \frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + l \frac{\partial V}{\partial t} \right) + A_{22}c_t \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (15)$$

in which

$$\left. \begin{aligned} A_{11} &= (\Omega^2 - \omega_B^2) \Omega C^2 / A_0, \quad A_{12} = -\Omega^3 C^2 / (A_0 V_*) \\ A_{21} &= (\Omega^4 - C^2 k_h^2 \omega_B^2) / A_0, \quad A_{22} = A_{12} V_* \left( K_*^2 - k_g^2 + \frac{\omega_v^2}{4V_{ph}^2} \cos^2 \theta \right) \\ k_c &= \frac{\partial(\ln C)}{\partial x}, \quad l_c = \frac{\partial(\ln C)}{\partial y}, \quad m_c = \frac{\partial(\ln C)}{\partial z}, \quad c_t = \frac{\partial(\ln C)}{\partial t} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (16)$$

where

$$\left. \begin{aligned} A_0 &= \Omega^4 - C^2 (k_h^2 \omega_B^2 + K_*^2 \Omega^2), \quad V_* = 4V_{ph} \frac{k_h/k_p}{\frac{2-\gamma}{\gamma} + \frac{V_p}{V_{ph}} \cos \theta} \\ K_*^2 &= -\frac{1}{4} k_p \frac{\omega_v}{V_{ph}} \left( \frac{2-\gamma}{\gamma} + \frac{V_p}{V_{ph}} \cos \theta \right) \cos \theta \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (17)$$

Because sound speed  $C$  is determined by temperature  $T$ , we see that the nonisothermal  $T$ -effect is converted to  $C$ -effect. Clearly, Eq.(15) demonstrates that the gradients of  $\{U, V, C\}$  in the 4D spacetime (3D space + 1D time) play a leading role in the development of the ray path  $\{x, y, z\}$ . Note that this development is also coupled with wave vector  $\{k, l, m\}$ . It also deserves to stress here that the above ray equations are derived under the WKB assumption. As pointed out by *Einaudi & Hines (1970)*; *Gossard & Hooke (1975)*; and ME95, the validity of this condition can be exhibited by a criterion parameter,  $\delta$ , expressed as (e.g., ME95)

$$\delta = \frac{1}{m} \left| \frac{\partial(\ln m)}{\partial z} \right| \quad (18)$$

Under isothermal and shear-free conditions, ME95 showed that for large  $\delta$  (or, equivalently,  $m \rightarrow 0$ ) when wave approaches a caustic, the WKB approximation breaks and ray integration terminates in simulations (see ME95 for details). The feature of this parameter will also be discussed based on our calculations.

### III. NUMERICAL RESULTS

We expose by steps the numerical calculations of ray images about the effects of wind shears and nonisothermality on the propagation of acoustic-gravity waves, starting from the simplest case and ending at the most complicated one. We consider following five atmospheric models with six simulation steps to describe the atmosphere where ray-tracing imaging calculations are performed: (1) fully isothermal, and shear-free; (2) Hines' locally isothermal and shear-free; (3) nonisothermal and shear-free; (4) fully isothermal and wind-shearing; (5) nonisothermal and wind-shearing (generalized formulation); and, (6) nonisothermal and wind-shearing (influence of initial wavelengths). Both hydrostatic and quasi-hydrostatic cases are considered in the first two situations.

#### a) *Fully isothermal, and shear-free atmosphere*

##### i. *Hydrostatic*

This is the simplest case:  $U = V = 0$  and  $T$  (or  $C$ ) is uniform in space and constant in time. Naturally,  $\nabla U = \nabla V = 0$  and  $\partial U/\partial t = \partial V/\partial t = 0$ . Eqs.(15-17) reduce to the following:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -A_{11}k, \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = -A_{11}l, \quad \frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{1}{A_0^*}; \quad \frac{dk}{dt} = \frac{dl}{dt} = \frac{dm}{dt} = \frac{d\Omega}{dt} = 0 \quad (19)$$

where

$$A_0^* = \frac{A_0}{mC^2\Omega^3}, \quad A_{11} = \frac{\Omega C^2}{A_0} (\Omega^2 - \omega_b^2), \quad A_0 = \Omega^4 - C^2\omega_b^2 k_h^2 \quad (20)$$

Eqs.(19,20) provide following equation of 3D straight rays due to the invariant nature of all the input parameters:

$$\frac{x}{k} = \frac{y}{l} = \frac{z}{m} \left( \frac{\omega_b^2}{\Omega^2} - 1 \right), \text{ along with } \Omega = \omega \quad (21)$$

where parameters  $k, l, m, \omega, \Omega$ , and  $\omega_b$  are all constant in time. We arbitrarily choose horizontal wavelengths of  $\lambda_x = 350$  km and  $\lambda_y = 50$  km and illustrate the features of ray images in Fig.1. The top panel depicts the ray path propagating in 3D space (thick line), and its three projections (thin lines) in XY/YZ/XZ planes. The two arrows indicate both forward and backward traces, respectively, which are superimposed upon each other. The bottom four smaller panels in the figure present the propagating length and altitude of the ray versus time (upper left), the vertical profiles of sound speed  $C$  (upper right), the three wavelengths  $\lambda_x, \lambda_y$ , and  $\lambda_z$  (lower left), and, wave period  $\tau = 2\pi/\Omega$ , cut-off period  $\tau_a = 2\pi/\omega_a$ , and buoyancy period  $\tau_b = 2\pi/\omega_b$  (lower right).

As displayed in the top panel, either the forward or the backward ray is a straight line. Relative to one end, the other end is 262.89 km away along  $x$  and 1840.2 km away along  $y$ . Clearly,  $x/y = k/l$ , following Eq.(21). The lapse of time that the ray travels between the two ends is given in the upper left panel of the bottom 4 small ones. It is 185 minutes, a little more than 3 hours, propagating a distance of vertically 300 km, but 1840.2 km long in space. In addition, the sound speed  $C$  is given in the upper right panel, calculated by assuming  $T_0 = 288$  °K. It keeps constant at different altitudes due to the isothermal condition. Furthermore, the lower left panel exposes the vertical profiles of the three wavelengths  $\lambda_x, \lambda_y$ , and  $\lambda_z$ . All of them do not change versus height. Lastly, the lower right panel exposes the three periods which also keep the same in altitudes.

## ii. Quasi-hydrostatic

If the hydrostatic condition is relaxed to quasi-hydrostatic, that is, the wind components are nonzero ( $U \neq 0$  and/or  $V \neq 0$ ) but uniform in space, while keeping other constraints unchanged, Eqs.(15-17) provide

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = U - A_{11}k, \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = V - A_{11}l, \quad \frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{1}{A_0^*} \quad (22)$$

along with the same coefficients as defined by Eq.(20). Eq.(21) is thus updated as follows:

$$\frac{x}{k - k_s} = \frac{y}{l - l_s} = \frac{z}{m} \left( \frac{\omega_b^2}{\Omega^2} - 1 \right), \text{ along with } \Omega = \omega - \omega_s \quad (23)$$

Obviously, Eq.(23) is a generalized expression of Eq.(21) to describe straight rays in space but with shifts  $k_s, l_s$ , and  $\omega_s$  in  $k, l$ , and  $\omega$ , respectively:

$$k_s = \frac{U}{A_{11}} = \frac{\Omega^4 - C^2\omega_b^2k_h^2}{\Omega C^2(\Omega^2 - \omega_b^2)}U \approx \frac{k_h^2}{\Omega}U, \quad l_s = \frac{V}{A_{11}} \approx \frac{k_h^2}{\Omega}V, \quad \omega_s = kU + lV \quad (24)$$

Accordingly, regardless of the shifts, rays are still straight lines propagating in space, similar to Fig.1.

b) *Hines' locally isothermal and shear-free atmosphere*

i. *Hydrostatic*

If the atmosphere is hydrostatic ( $U = V = 0$ ), and  $T$  (or  $C$ ) is constant in time and uniform locally (i.e.,  $k_T = 0$ ), the set of ray equations of Hines' model assumes can be obtained from Eqs.(15-17) as follows:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{dx}{dt} &= -A_{11}k, \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = -A_{11}l, \quad \frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{1}{A_0^*} \\ \frac{dk}{dt} &= -A_{22}k_c, \quad \frac{dl}{dt} = -A_{22}l_c, \quad \frac{dm}{dt} = -A_{22}m_c \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (25)$$

where

$$\left. \begin{aligned} A_0^* &= \frac{A_0}{mC^2\Omega^3}, \quad A_{11} = \frac{\Omega C^2}{A_0} (\Omega^2 - \omega_b^2), \quad A_{22} = \frac{\Omega^3 C^2}{A_0} k_g^2, \quad A_0 = \Omega^4 - C^2 k_h^2 \omega_b^2 \\ k_c &= \frac{\partial(\ln C)}{\partial x}, \quad l_c = \frac{\partial(\ln C)}{\partial y}, \quad m_c = \frac{\partial(\ln C)}{\partial z} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (26)$$

Eq.(??) produces a set of ray equations:

$$\frac{dx}{k} = \frac{dy}{l} = \left( \frac{\omega_b^2}{\Omega^2} - 1 \right) \frac{dz}{m}; \quad \frac{dk}{k_c} = \frac{dl}{l_c} = \frac{dm}{m_c}, \quad \text{along with } \Omega = \omega \quad (27)$$

from which we see that in the horizontal  $x$ - $y$  plane the projection of the ray trace should be close to a straight line due to the fact that  $k_c \sim l_c \ll m_c$ , leading to small changes in both  $k$  and  $l$ , if there are, compared to  $m$ .

Fig.2 illustrates the ray features in Hines' locally isothermal and shear-free atmosphere in both forward (in blue) and backward (in red) propagations. The upper left panel displays the 3D traces. Clearly, the rays are no longer straight anymore, in contrast with Fig.1. Impressively, there appear dramatic changes in the range of 85-120 km in altitude. However, as predicted in the above, the projections of the rays in the  $x$ - $y$  plane appear straight. The upper right panel shows a distinct difference between the forward and backward rays in the length and time of propagation with the same 300 km height travelled: the forward ray flies away as long as a distance of 700 km in  $\sim 380$  min (about 6.5 hours); while the backward one has a journey of 1100 km long in  $\sim 600$  min (about 10 hours). The lower two panels expose the vertical profiles of the three wavelengths  $\lambda_x$ ,  $\lambda_y$ , &  $\lambda_z$  (left) and the three periods  $\tau_a = 2\pi/\omega_a$ ,  $\tau_b = 2\pi/\omega_b$ , &  $\tau = 2\pi/\Omega$  (right), respectively. Obviously,  $\lambda_x$  and  $\lambda_y$  vary little compared to  $\lambda_z$ ; in addition,  $\lambda_z$  is modulated the most between 85 and 120 km altitudes; what is more,  $\tau_a$  and  $\tau_b$  have peaks between 85 and 100 km.

To understand the mechanism of these ray features, we plot the mean-field parameters along ray paths in both Fig.3 and Fig.4. The former presents  $T_0$  and  $C$  (upper left panel),  $dT_0/dx$  (upper right panel),  $dT_0/dy$  (lower left panel), and  $dT_0/dz$  (lower right panel); and the latter depicts  $\rho_0$  and  $p_0$  (upper left panel),  $d\rho_0/dx$  (upper right panel),  $d\rho_0/dy$  (lower left panel), and  $d\rho_0/dz$  (lower right panel). It is seen that  $T_0$  (or  $C$ ), rather than  $\rho_0$

(or  $p_0$ ), is responsible for the profile of wave periods. More importantly, it is the gradients of  $T_0$ , rather than those of  $\rho_0$ , that are correlated evidently with the abnormal features of the ray propagations. Note that the gradients in the horizontal plane ( $dT_0/dx$  and  $dT_0/dy$ ) is 2 or 3 orders smaller than that in the vertical direction ( $dT_0/dz$ ). Thus, the vertical gradient in temperature dominates the modulation.

Fig.5 draws the altitude profiles of the WKB  $\delta$  parameter in the forward and backward propagations. The parameter is lower on average in the former case than in the latter case. In either case, it is smaller than 1. Interestingly, in the 85-120 km altitudes, The magnitude becomes apparently higher than that in other altitudes.

### ii. *Quasi-hydrostatic*

If the hydrostatic condition is relaxed to quasi-hydrostatic, that is, the wind components are nonzero ( $U \neq 0$  and/or  $V \neq 0$ ) but uniform in space, while keeping other constraints unchanged, Eqs.(15-17) provide

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{dx}{dt} &= U - A_{11}k, \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = V - A_{11}l, \quad \frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{1}{A_0^*} \\ \frac{dk}{dt} &= -A_{22}k_c, \quad \frac{dl}{dt} = -A_{22}l_c, \quad \frac{dm}{dt} = -A_{22}m_c \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (28)$$

where the coefficients are those expressed in Eq.(??). This set of equations updates Eq.(??) as follows:

$$\frac{dx}{k - k_s} = \frac{dy}{l - l_s} = \left( \frac{\omega_b^2}{\Omega^2} - 1 \right) \frac{dz}{m}; \quad \frac{dk}{k_c} = \frac{dl}{l_c} = \frac{dm}{m_c}, \quad \text{along with } \Omega = \omega - \omega_s \quad (29)$$

in which shifts  $k_s$ ,  $l_s$ , and  $\omega_s$  in  $k$ ,  $l$ , and  $\omega$ , respectively, are already given in Eq.(24). Accordingly, regardless of the shifts, the profiles of rays are similar to Figs.2~4 in this quasi-static case.

### c) *Nonisothermal and shear-free atmosphere*

Realistic atmosphere is nonisothermal, i.e.,  $k_T \neq 0$ . We therefore extend Hines' locally isothermal model for more generalized situation where  $\omega_a$  and  $\omega_b$  are substituted by  $\omega_A$  and  $\omega_B$ , respectively. To save space, we just take the hydrostatic case ( $U = V = 0$ ) as an example. In this case, Eqs.(15-17) provide

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{dx}{dt} &= -A_{11}k, \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = -A_{11}l, \quad \frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{1}{A_0^*} \\ \frac{dk}{dt} &= -A_{22}k_c, \quad \frac{dl}{dt} = -A_{22}l_c, \quad \frac{dm}{dt} = -A_{22}m_c \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (30)$$

where

$$\left. \begin{aligned} A_0^* &= \frac{A_0}{mC^2\Omega^3}, \quad A_{11} = \frac{\Omega C^2}{A_0} (\Omega^2 - \omega_B^2), \quad A_{22} = \frac{\Omega^3 C^2}{A_0} k_g^2, \quad A_0 = \Omega^4 - C^2 k_h^2 \omega_B^2 \\ k_c &= \frac{\partial(\ln C)}{\partial x}, \quad l_c = \frac{\partial(\ln C)}{\partial y}, \quad m_c = \frac{\partial(\ln C)}{\partial z} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (31)$$

Eq.(30) produces a set of ray equations:

$$\frac{dx}{k} = \frac{dy}{l} = \left( \frac{\omega_B^2}{\Omega^2} - 1 \right) \frac{dz}{m}; \quad \frac{dk}{k_c} = \frac{dl}{l_c} = \frac{dm}{m_c}, \quad \text{along with } \Omega = \omega \quad (32)$$

Eqs.(30~32) are similar to Eqs.(25~27), respectively. Thus, the ray features in the present nonisothermal case are basically the same as Hines' locally isothermal case. For example, in the horizontal  $x$ - $y$  plane the projection of the ray trace is straight approximately due to the fact that  $k_c \sim l_c \ll m_c$  and thus  $k$  and  $l$  are nearly constant compared to  $m$ . As introduced in the last subsection, ray features are dominantly influenced by the mean-field temperature and its spatial gradients. Fig.6 presents the characteristics of ray propagation: the 3D ray traces in the upper left panel; the ray distances versus time in the upper right panel; the three wavelengths  $\lambda_x$ ,  $\lambda_y$ , &  $\lambda_z$  in the lower left panel, and the three periods  $\tau_A = 2\pi/\omega_A$ ,  $\tau_B = 2\pi/\omega_B$ , and  $\tau = 2\pi/\Omega$  in the lower right panel. Fig.7 displays the altitude profiles of mean-field  $T_0$  and  $C$  (upper left),  $dT_0/dx$  (upper right),  $dT_0/dy$  (lower left), and  $dT_0/dz$  (lower right), respectively.

Comparing Hines' model (Figs.2 & 3) with the nonisothermal model (Figs.6 & 7) reveals that the introduction of the new ingredient,  $k_T$ , in the cut-off and buoyancy periods results in (1) mitigated bulges of the two ray traces in the 85-120 km altitude; (2) lower speeds of ray propagation in space, e.g., Hines' model gives an average of 1.8 km/min (about 1100 km in 600 minutes), while the nonisothermal model shows 1.3 km/min (1050 km in 800 minutes) in the backward case. However, it is subtle to discern its effects on the profiles of wavelengths, periods, temperature (or, equivalently, sound speed), as well as the temperature gradients.

#### d) Fully isothermal and wind-shearing atmosphere

In this case,  $k_T = 0$ , but  $\mathbf{v}_0 \neq 0$ ,  $\partial\mathbf{v}_0/\partial t \neq 0$ , and  $\partial\mathbf{v}_0/\partial \mathbf{r} \neq 0$ . Eqs.(15-17) yield

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{dt}{dz} &= A_0, \quad \frac{dx}{dz} = A_0 \left( U - A_{11}k + A_{12} \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \right), \quad \frac{dy}{dz} = A_0 \left( V - A_{11}l + A_{12} \frac{\partial V}{\partial z} \right) \\ \frac{dk}{dz} &= -A_0 \Delta_x, \quad \frac{dl}{dz} = -A_0 \Delta_y, \quad \frac{dm}{dz} = -A_0 \Delta_z, \quad \frac{d\Omega}{dz} = -A_0 A_{21} \Delta_t \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (33)$$

where

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \Delta_x &= k \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} + l \frac{\partial V}{\partial x}, \quad \Delta_y = k \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} + l \frac{\partial V}{\partial y}, \quad \Delta_z = k \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} + l \frac{\partial V}{\partial z}, \quad \Delta_t = k \frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + l \frac{\partial V}{\partial t} \\ A_0 &= \frac{A_{00}}{mC^2\Omega^3}, \quad A_{11} = \frac{\Omega C^2(\Omega^2 - \omega_b^2)}{A_{00}}, \quad A_{12} = \frac{\eta\Omega^3 C^2 / \Delta_z}{A_{00}}, \quad A_{21} = \frac{\Omega^4 - C^2 k_h^2 \omega_b^2}{A_{00}} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (34)$$

in which  $A_{00} = \Omega^4 - C^2(\omega_b^2 k_h^2 + \eta\Omega^2)$  and  $\eta = (1 - \gamma/2)g\Delta_z/(2\Omega C^2) - \Delta_z^2/(4\Omega^2)$ .

Under the isothermal condition, Figs.8~11 display the heavy impacts of wind shears on the characteristics of ray propagation. In Fig.8, the upper left panel is the 3D ray traces. Both the forward and backward rays are wriggling through the 3D space by following two different paths. The difference is obviously shown in the upper right panel: the forward ray (in blue) travels ~530 km in about 380 minutes between the sea level and the 300 km altitude, while the backward ray (in red) hikes around 750 km in about 320 minutes. The

lower two panels of the figure present the wave lengths and intrinsic wave periods of the propagation, respectively. In the LHS panel,  $\lambda_y$  appears constant in altitude, relatively speaking, and does  $\lambda_z$  except the heights of 100-150 km. The altitude dependance of  $\lambda_x$  in the LHS panel is similar to that of  $\tau$  in the RHS panel: (1) below 80 km altitude they keep roughly unchanged. (2)  $\lambda_x$  and  $\tau$  stabilize with their respective minimum values in 120-135 km altitude in the forward propagation, while with maximum values in 130-145 km altitude in the backward propagation. The two arrow lines label these values. (3) above 200 km altitude, the forward parameters increase monotonously and the backward ones do not change anymore.

Along ray paths the altitude profiles of the mean-field zonal wind  $U$  and meridional wind  $V$  are described in the upper left and upper right panels in Fig.9, respectively. The WKB  $\delta$  parameter is given in the lower panel. Below 80 km altitude and above 200 km altitude both  $U$  and  $V$  are either unchanging or vary quasi-linearly. On the contrary, between the two altitudes, they exhibit oscillatory features with both positive and negative speeds. As far as  $\delta$ , most of its amplitudes are smaller than 1, while in 100-150 km altitudes there are a couple of peaks for both forward and backward situations, respectively. Between the peaks of each pair, there exists zero- $\delta$  heights of 120-135 km in the forward case and of 130-145 km in the backward case. The two zero- $\delta$  slots correspond to the two zones of the minimum  $\lambda_x$  and  $\tau$  values, respectively, in the lower two panels of Fig.8. Note that  $\delta$  can be as high as 8, which is larger than 1, for regular ray propagation as exposed in the upper left panel of Fig.8.

The altitude profiles of the mean-field wind gradients in temporal coordinate  $t$  and spatial ones  $(x, y, z)$  are illustrated in Figs.10 and Fig.11. The gradients in  $U$  and  $V$  have following characteristics: (1) The magnitude of all the  $U$ -gradients is larger than that of the  $V$ -gradients, particularly below 50 km altitude where the  $V$ -gradients are nearly zero. (2) While  $d(U, V)/dt \sim$  several m/s per hour in magnitude,  $d(U, V)/dx \sim d(U, V)/dy \ll d(U, V)/dz \sim$  several m/s per km in magnitude. This indicates that it is the wind shears (horizontal wind velocity gradients in altitude), rather than its gradients in the horizontal plane, that play the dominant role to influence wave propagation in atmosphere. (3) Below 80 km and above 200 km altitudes, all the wind gradients are smaller than that between the two altitudes. This reminds us that the effects of the wind gradients on wave propagation cannot not be omitted, especially in the middle atmosphere.

e) *Nonisothermal and wind-shearing atmosphere: Generalized formulation*

To adopt  $k_T \neq 0$  by relaxing the constraint of  $k_T = 0$  in the above Subsection, Eqs.(15-17) gives rise to the most generalized set of ray-tracing equations as follows:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{dt}{dz} &= A_0, \quad \frac{dx}{dz} = A_0 \left( U - A_{11}k + A_{12} \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \right), \quad \frac{dy}{dz} = A_0 \left( V - A_{11}l + A_{12} \frac{\partial V}{\partial z} \right) \\ \frac{dk}{dz} &= -A_0 (\Delta_x + A_{22}C_x), \quad \frac{dl}{dz} = -A_0 (\Delta_y + A_{22}C_y), \quad \frac{dm}{dz} = -A_0 (\Delta_z + A_{22}C_z) \\ \frac{d\Omega}{dz} &= -A_0 (A_{21}\Delta_t - A_{22}C_t) \end{aligned} \right\} (35)$$

where  $\Delta_{x,y,z,t}$  are expressed in Eq.(34), and,

$$\left. \begin{aligned} C_x &= \frac{1}{C} \frac{\partial C}{\partial x}, \quad C_y = \frac{1}{C} \frac{\partial C}{\partial y}, \quad C_z = \frac{1}{C} \frac{\partial C}{\partial z}, \quad C_t = \frac{1}{C} \frac{\partial C}{\partial t}; \\ A_0 &= \frac{A_{00}}{mC^2\Omega^3}, \quad A_{11} = \frac{\Omega C^2(\Omega^2 - \omega_B^2)}{A_{00}}, \quad A_{12} = \frac{\eta\Omega^3 C^2 / \Delta_z}{A_{00}}, \\ A_{21} &= \frac{\Omega^4 - C^2 k_h^2 \omega_B^2}{A_{00}}, \quad A_{22} = \frac{\Omega^3(\omega_A^2 - C^2 K^2 - \frac{\Delta_z^2 C^2}{4\Omega^2})}{A_{00}} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (36)$$

in which  $A_{00} = \Omega^4 - C^2(\omega_B^2 k_h^2 + \eta\Omega^2)$  and  $\eta$  keeps the same as that attached to Eq.(34).

In addition to the effects of the mean-field wind, this generalized case takes into consideration the influences of altitude-dependent temperature, as well as the density (and thus the pressure), and their gradients in time and space on the ray propagation. Figs.12~17 illustrate the results. In comparison with that of Fig.8, the upper left panel of Fig.12 exhibits a less wriggling feature in both forward and backward propagations. The upper right panel shows that, while the forward ray (in blue) passes  $\sim 400$  km in about 250 minutes between the sea level and the 300 km altitude, the backward one (in red) spends about 380 minutes to fly back to the sea level after a  $\sim 800$  km journey. The speed of the former ( $400/250 \approx 1.6$  km/min) is higher than that in Fig.8 ( $530/380 \approx 1.4$  km/min), while the speed of the latter ( $800/380 \approx 2.1$  km/min) is approximately the same as that in Fig.8 ( $750/320 \approx 2.3$  km/min). In addition, the altitude profiles of both the three wavelengths (lower left panel) and the intrinsic wave period (lower right panel) demonstrate that below 150 km nonisothermality results in stronger fluctuations in comparison with Fig.8, especially lower than 100 km altitude. Interestingly, the forward wave period is shorter than the backward one in Fig.12 at most altitudes, in contrast to the fact that it is always longer than that in Fig.8.

In Fig.13, the upper panel portrays the altitude profiles along ray paths of WKB  $\delta$ . The parameter is smaller than 0.2 above 160 km altitude. Below the altitude, the forward  $\delta$  is larger than the backward one between 130 km and 160 km; but it always is smaller below 130 km. This is different from the results given in Fig.9, where the forward  $\delta$  is usually larger than the backward one, particularly in the 100-150 km altitude. With respect to the mean-field zonal wind (lower left panel) and the meridional wind (lower right panel), the profiles in Fig.13 are similar to those in Fig.9.

Figs.14 & 15 draw the altitude profiles of density gradients (LHS panels) and temperature gradients (RHS panels) in  $t$ ,  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ . Except the  $t$ -related ones, these structures reproduce those presented in Figs.3 & 4, respectively, with the same order of magnitudes. For  $d\rho_0/dt$  and  $dT_0/dt$ , their appearances follow the patterns of their respective families, but with different units of each. In addition, Figs.16 & 17 delineate the altitude profiles of zonal wind gradients (LHS panels) and meridional ones (RHS panels) in  $t$ ,  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ . The figures do not disclose discernable changes from those given in 10 & 11, respectively.

#### f) *Nonisothermal and wind-shearing atmosphere: Influence of initial wavelengths*

In the above Subsections, we arbitrarily selected the same group of initial horizontal wavelengths,  $\lambda_{x0} = 350$  km and  $\lambda_{y0} = 50$  km, to exhibit the features of the ray propagation under different acoustic-gravity wave modes. In this Subsection, we choose several groups of initial horizontal wavelengths to exhibit the influence of the parameter on the ray propagation (taking the forward situation as an example) in the generalized nonisothermal and shearing mode. The considered wavelengths include following two groups of pairs: (1)  $\{\lambda_{x0}, \lambda_{y0}\} = \{2\pi \times 350, 2\pi \times 50\}, \{2\pi \times 350, -2\pi \times 50\}, \{-2\pi \times 350, 2\pi \times 50\}$ ,



$\{-2\pi \times 350, -2\pi \times 50\}$ ; and (2)  $\{\lambda_{x0}, \lambda_{y0}\} = \{2\pi \times 50, 2\pi \times 350\}, \{2\pi \times 50, -2\pi \times 350\}, \{-2\pi \times 50, 2\pi \times 350\}, \{-2\pi \times 50, -2\pi \times 350\}$ , where the unit of all the parameters are in km, and the negative values represent the propagating direction of the related wave components is in the reverse direction of the coordinate in the frame of reference. In the simulation, the initial extrinsic wave period  $\omega$  keeps unchanged at 30 minutes.

Fig.18 demonstrates the ray paths in space with these two groups of initial wavelengths. In each group, the four cases are discriminated by four different colors (black, blue, red, and green), respectively. Several distinct features of the ray propagation are exposed by both the upper and lower panels of the figure: (1) All the rays propagate in space along non-straight paths in a quadrant determined by, and opposite to, the initial wave vectors, respectively, in the horizontal plane,  $\{k_0 = 2\pi/\lambda_{x0}, l_0 = 2\pi/\lambda_{y0}\}$ . For example, in the two panels, the ray in black ( $\lambda_{x0} > 0$  and  $\lambda_{y0} > 0$ ) is oriented to evolve in the third quadrant ( $x < 0$  and  $y < 0$ ); similarly, the ray in blue ( $\lambda_{x0} > 0$  and  $\lambda_{y0} < 0$ ) is in the second quadrant ( $x < 0$  and  $y > 0$ ). (2) In the horizontal plane, the ratio between the  $x$ -displacement,  $\Delta x$ , and the  $y$ -displacement,  $\Delta y$ , of any projected ray paths is in the same order of that of the corresponding wavenumbers. For instance, the ray in red in the upper panel has a ratio of  $\Delta x/\Delta y \approx 45/270 = 0.16$  while the wavenumber ratio is  $k_0/l_0 = 0.14$ ; also, the ray in black in the lower panel has a ratio of  $\Delta x/\Delta y \approx 320/40 = 8$  while the wavenumber ratio is  $k_0/l_0 = 7$ . (3) Between 80 km and 150 km altitude all rays experience the most serious modulations. According to the analysis in the previous Subsections, these influences are exerted dominantly by the mean-field wind components and their shears. (4) By comparison with the upper left panel of Fig.12, these modulations caused by the wind components and their shears become mitigated if the horizontal wavelengths are longer, as shown in the upper panel of Fig.18.

Fig.19 portrays the temporal features of both the ray length (thick lines) and the vertical increments (thin lines) in the above two groups of the wave propagations. All the ray paths are approximately proportional to time, with a propagation speed of 15~18 km/min in space: the upper panel gives 400/23 $\approx$ 17 km/min (black), 400/26 $\approx$ 15 km/min (blue), 400/27 $\approx$ 15 km/min (red), and 400/25=16 km/min (green); and the lower panel presents 450/32 $\approx$ 14 (black), 400/22 $\approx$ 18 km/min (blue), 360/20=18 km/min (red), and 400/25=16 km/min (green). Relatively, the vertical propagation speed is lower, around 9~15 km/min, if assuming a linear relation between the height and time. These speeds are much higher than those obtained from the upper right panel of Fig.12: it is merely no more than 2 km/min for the four traces. Thus, rays with longer initial horizontal wavelengths travel faster. In fact, all the rays in Fig.19 reach heights of 300-400 km in only no more than 30 minutes; by contrast, those in Fig.12 arrive 300-800 km altitudes after more than 260 minutes.

Fig.20 displays the development of the wavelengths  $\lambda_x$  (upper left panel),  $\lambda_y$  (upper right panel),  $\lambda_z$  (lower left panel), and the intrinsic wave period  $\tau$  (lower right panel) along the ray paths in the two groups of wave propagations. The most conspicuous feature stays in the modulations of the four parameters below 200 km altitude, particularly at the height of 100-150 km. By checking Fig.19 we know this corresponds to 80-120 km altitude, the most extreme changing region of both the mean-field temperature (Fig.7,14,15) and zonal & meridional winds (Fig.13,16,17). Besides, for the horizontal wavelength ( $\lambda_x$  or  $\lambda_y$ ; the upper two panels in the two groups), its magnitude becomes higher than the initial value

( $\lambda_{x0}$  or  $\lambda_{y0}$ ) if the value is positive, i.e., the initial wave vector component is in the  $x$  (or  $y$ ) direction. For example, in the upper right panel in the first group, the red curve denotes the case of  $\lambda_{y0} = 2\pi \times 50 > 0$  km. Along the ray,  $\lambda_y$  increases and peaks at 150 km distance along the ray with 51.2 km. By contrast, if  $\lambda_{x0}$  (or  $\lambda_{y0}$ ) is negative, i.e., the initial wave vector component is opposite to the  $x$  (or  $y$ ) direction, the magnitude of  $\lambda_x$  (or  $\lambda_y$ ) decreases. See the green curve in the upper right panel in the second group. In this case,  $\lambda_{y0} = -2\pi \times 350 < 0$  km. Along the ray,  $|\lambda_y|$  decreases to 300 km at about 100 km distance along the ray.

However, the vertical wavelength,  $\lambda_z$ , behaves differently as exhibited by the two lower left panels in the two groups. Irrelevant to the directions of initial horizontal wavevectors, the upward propagating waves have negative  $\lambda_z$ . Its magnitude starts at  $\lambda_{z0} = 2\pi \times 12$  km. After a surprising drop of  $\lambda_z/(2\pi)$  to below 8 km in within 20 km ray path, it undergoes a large swing between 3 and 8 km in the first group, and between 3 and 11 km in the second group, before stabilizing at 3-5 km and 3-9.5 km, respectively, after a journey of 300 km long in the ray propagation. These final values correspond to  $\lambda_z \sim 20$ -60 km. Impressively, the wave period  $\tau$  has a similar trend as shown in the two lower right panels of the two groups: it decreases sharply at first, then goes up and down, and recovers finally to stabilize at a period which diverge only within 1 minute (the first group) and 2 minutes (the second group) from the initial values, respectively. Because the initial period is 30 minutes, we may neglect this divergence in dealing with measurements, that is, the wave period can be assumed constant in wave propagations.

#### IV. SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Since the 1960s, the influence of mean-field properties (such as zonal and meridional winds, background temperature) on the propagation of atmospheric acoustic-gravity waves has become one of the important topics in space physics. The related ray-tracing technique has also been developed to investigate gravity wave propagation under the effects of background wind and temperature variations. Due to the importance of an accurate description of mean-field properties and their effects in the clarification of the observed wave-driven phenomena in atmosphere (e.g., *Hickey et al.* 1998), we first of all took into account the wind-shearing and nonisothermal effects, as well as the Coriolis effect, to extend Hines' locally isothermal and shear-free model to describe the modes of generalized inertio-acoustic-gravity waves under different situations below 200 km altitude, where all dissipative terms (such as viscosity and heat conductivity) were neglected (*Ma et al.* 2014). The obtained dispersion relation recovers all the known atmospheric wave modes.

In this paper, we used the generalized dispersion relation to investigate the effects of the wind shears and nonisothermality on the ray propagation of acoustic-gravity waves. The derived general set of ray equations not only reproduces ME95's derivations under Hines' locally isothermal and shear-free conditions, but also provides the equation to describe the time-dependent variation of the intrinsic wave frequency. Our ray-tracing simulations accommodate five different types of atmospheric models, starting from the simplest situation to the most complicated one: (1) fully isothermal, and shear-free atmosphere under both hydrostatic and quasi-hydrostatic conditions; (2) Hines' locally isothermal and shear-free atmosphere under both hydrostatic and quasi-hydrostatic conditions; (3) nonisothermal and shear-free atmosphere under hydrostatic conditions; (4) fully isothermal and wind-shearing atmosphere; (5) nonisothermal and wind-shearing atmosphere (generalized formulation; influence of initial wavelengths). In every step, a set of ray equations was derived to numerically code into a global ray-tracing model and calculate the profiles of ray traces in space and time; that of the wavelengths and intrinsic wave periods along

the ray paths; that of the mean-field density, pressure, or temperature and the horizontal winds, as well as their gradients if available; and that of the WKB criterion parameter,  $\delta$  in a few typical cases.

Our studies demonstrated the influences of wind shears and atmospheric nonisothermality on the ray propagation. In an isothermal and shear-free atmosphere, ray paths follow straight lines in space and time; both forward and backward-mapping traces are superimposed upon each other; wavelengths ( $\lambda_{x,y,z}$ ), as well as the intrinsic wave period ( $\tau$ ), keep constant versus altitude. If Hines' locally isothermal condition is applied, i.e., including the effect of the altitude-dependent temperature, rays become non-straight spatially, but their projections in the horizontal plane keep straight. In this case, the forward and backward rays are no longer overlain, and  $\lambda_{x,y,z}$  give discernable changes but  $\tau$  does not change. All the obvious variations happen in 80-150 km altitude. If the temperature constraint is relaxed to the nonisothermal condition by adding the effect of temperature gradients in  $x, y, z$  and  $t$ , the results do not exhibit perceptible difference. In the presence of wind shears, as well as zonal and meridional wind gradients in space and time, but the atmosphere keeps isothermal, ray paths are violently modulated, particularly at 80-150 km altitude where  $\lambda_{x,y,z}$  and  $\tau$  exhibit striking variations. More importantly, the forward rays and the backward ones never propagate along the same paths. If the nonisothermal condition is employed by considering the effects of temperature variations in  $x, y, z$  and  $t$ , the modulations at 0-80 km altitude also become obvious. As far as the WKB  $\delta$  parameter, though it is smaller than 0.4 in Hines' locally isothermal model, in agreement with ME95's estimation, it can be driven to close to 3 by the wind shears and nonisothermality. Lastly, we found that longer initial horizontal wavelengths bring about mitigated modulations to ray paths and faster speeds in ray propagation.

We stress that ME95's ray-tracing model is based on the dispersion relation derived from Hines locally isothermal and shear-free model. By contrast, our study expends ME95's formulation to obtain a generalized set of ray-tracing equations by taking into account the effects of wind shears and atmospheric nonisothermality on the ray propagation. The focus of this paper is to illustrate the influences of the effects on acoustic-gravity waves travelling from sea level to 200 km altitude within which the dissipation terms can be reasonably neglected. We therefore pay attention dominantly to the waves which are able to penetrate atmosphere and reach the ionospheric height above 80 km altitude, with little energy attenuation, and ignore those waves which are either reflected or in the cut-off region (for details of the wave features in these two cases see, e.g., *Ding et al.* 2003). Naturally, we avoid to consider such terms related to, e.g., WKB violation, wave saturation or damping, energy attenuation or intensification, dynamical and convective instabilities, which are of little relevance to our study. Instead, we concentrate on the waves which are capable of survival from every damping process during their propagations upward from the sea level to some observational heights. Thus, the result shown in this paper are suitable to provide a reference for data-fit modeling studies with measurements in space, e.g., mesosphere and/or troposphere, where information of the background wind and temperature profiles are available, owing to the fact that the close relationship between the ray paths and the mean-field atmospheric properties can be demonstrated more evidently than before via the approach provided in the text.

## V. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The Fortran code and simulation data in this paper are available on request to John.

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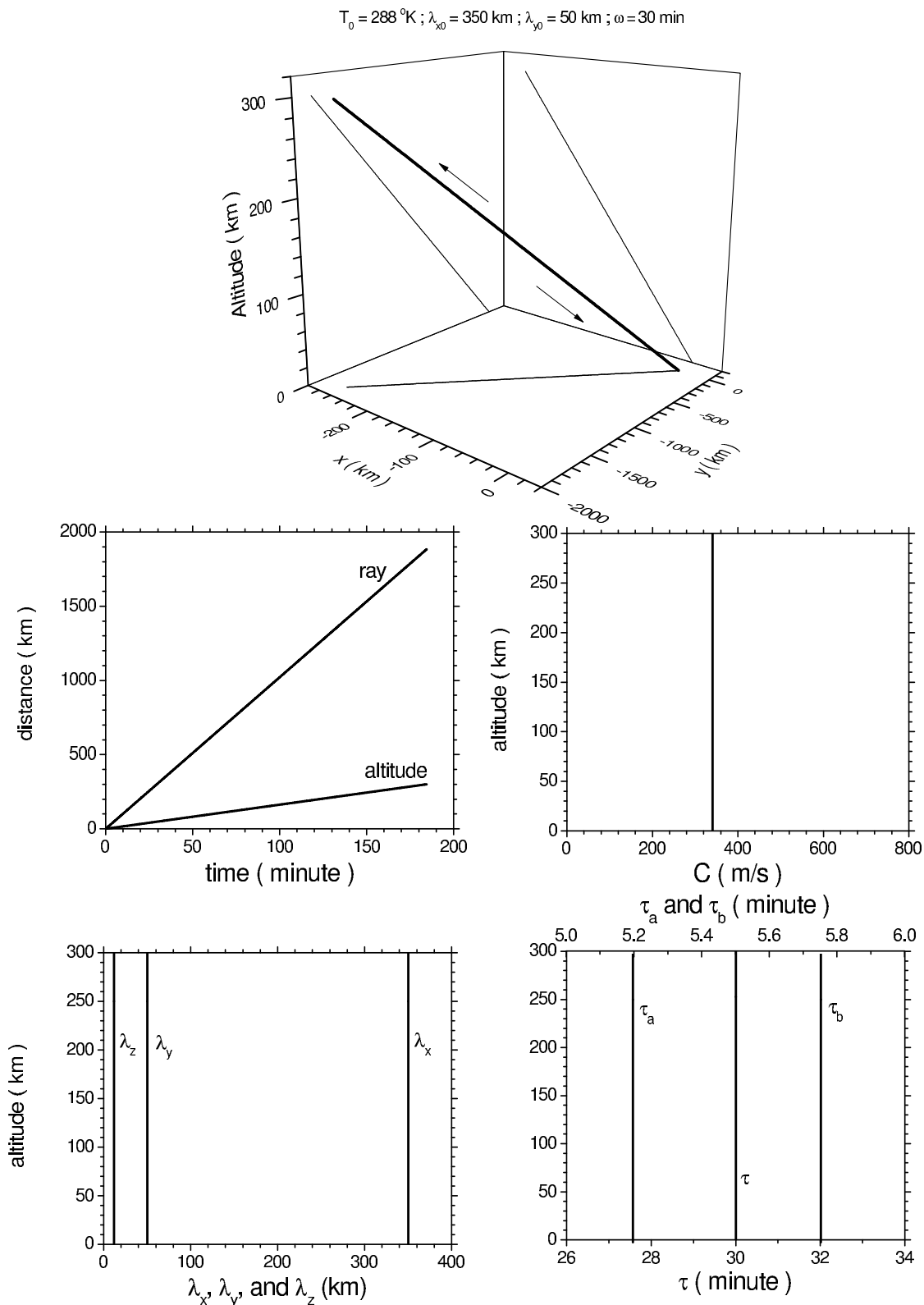


Figure 1 : Case 1: Ray features in hydrostatic, fully isothermal and shear-free atmosphere

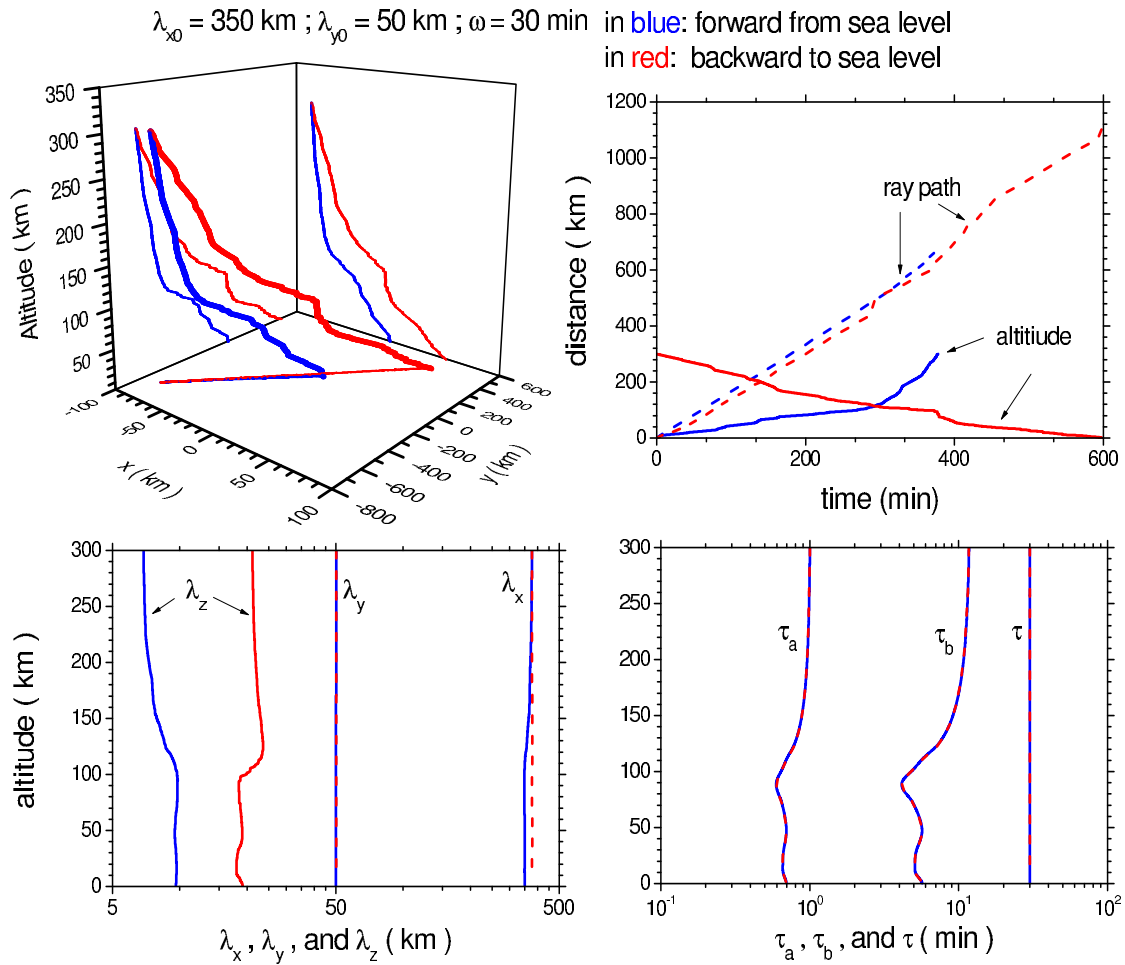


Figure 2 : Case 2-1: Ray propagation in hydrostatic, Hines' locally isothermal and shear-free atmosphere

$\lambda_{x0} = 350 \text{ km} ; \lambda_{y0} = 50 \text{ km} ; \omega = 30 \text{ min}$

in blue: forward from sea level  
in red: backward to sea level

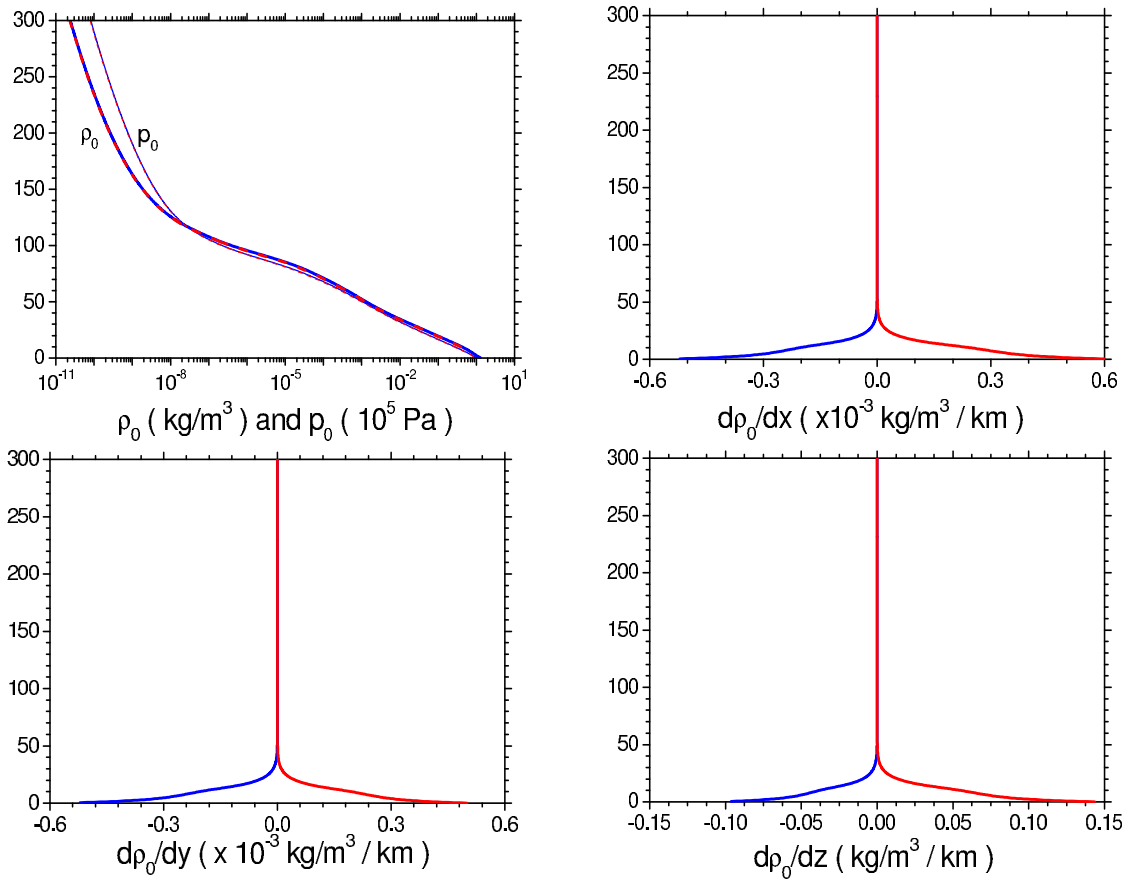


Figure 3 : Case 2-2: Altitude profiles of  $\rho_0$  and its gradients, as well as  $p_0$ , in hydrostatic, Hines' locally isothermal and shear-free atmosphere

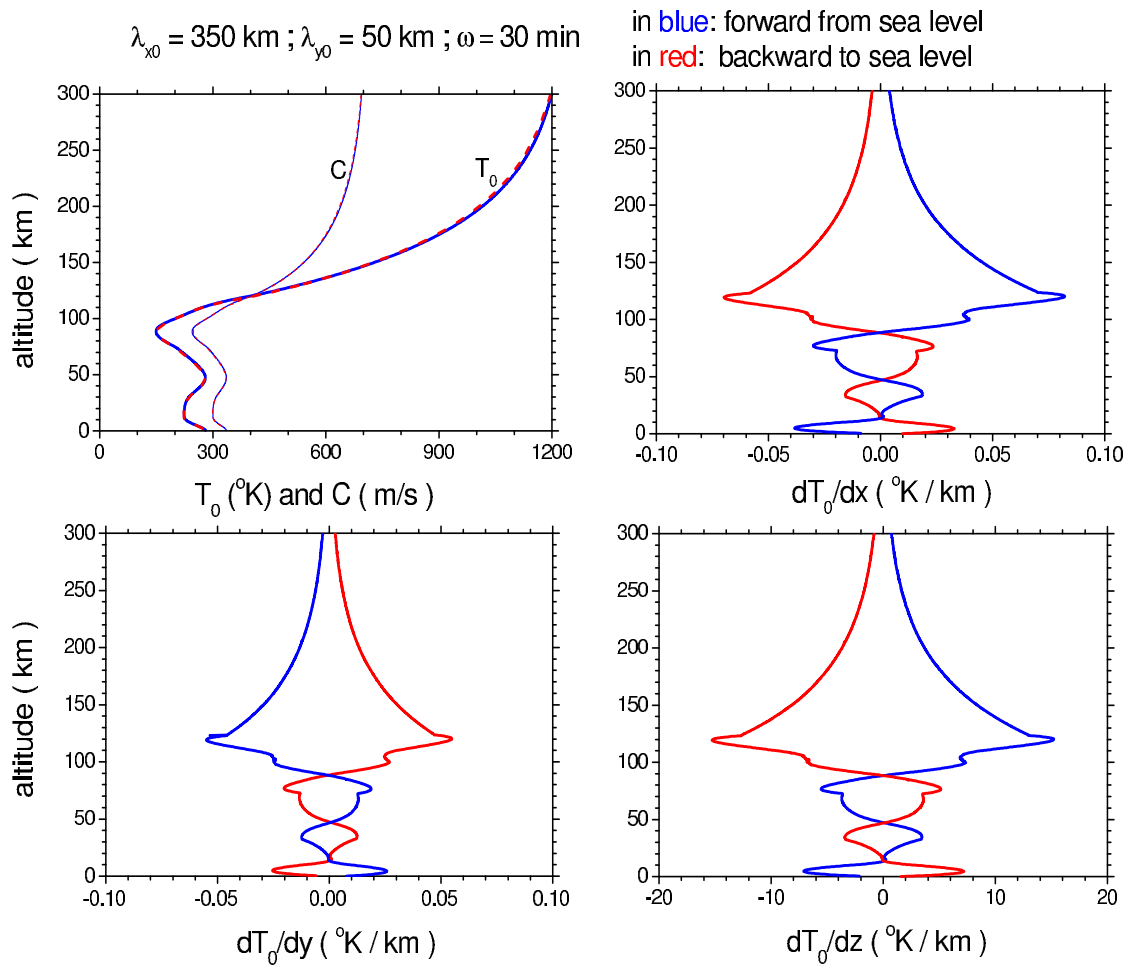


Figure 4 : Case 2-3: Altitude profiles of  $T_0$  and its gradients, as well as  $C$ , in hydrostatic, Hines' locally isothermal and shear-free atmosphere

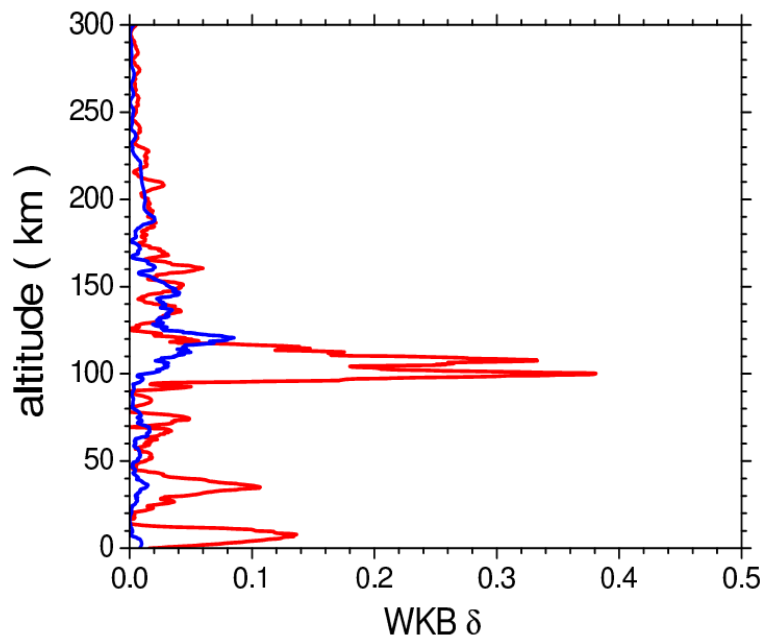
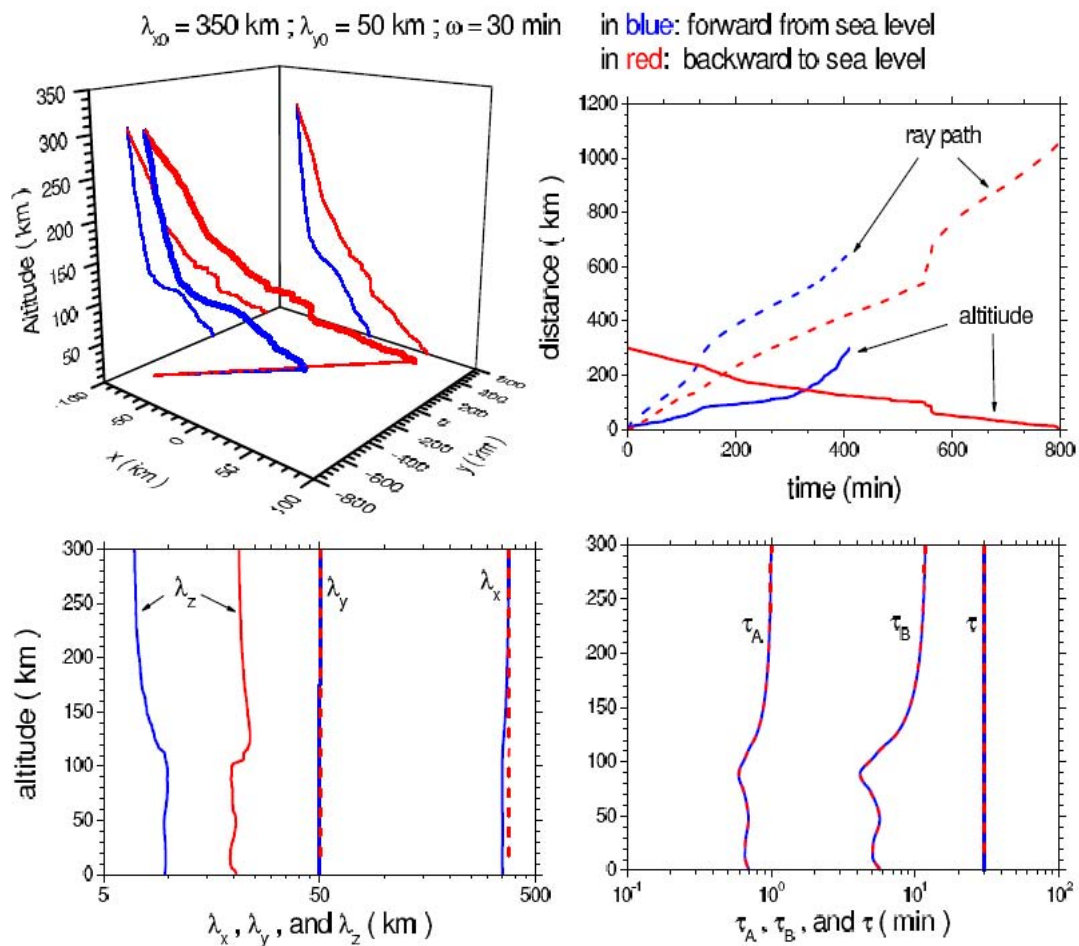
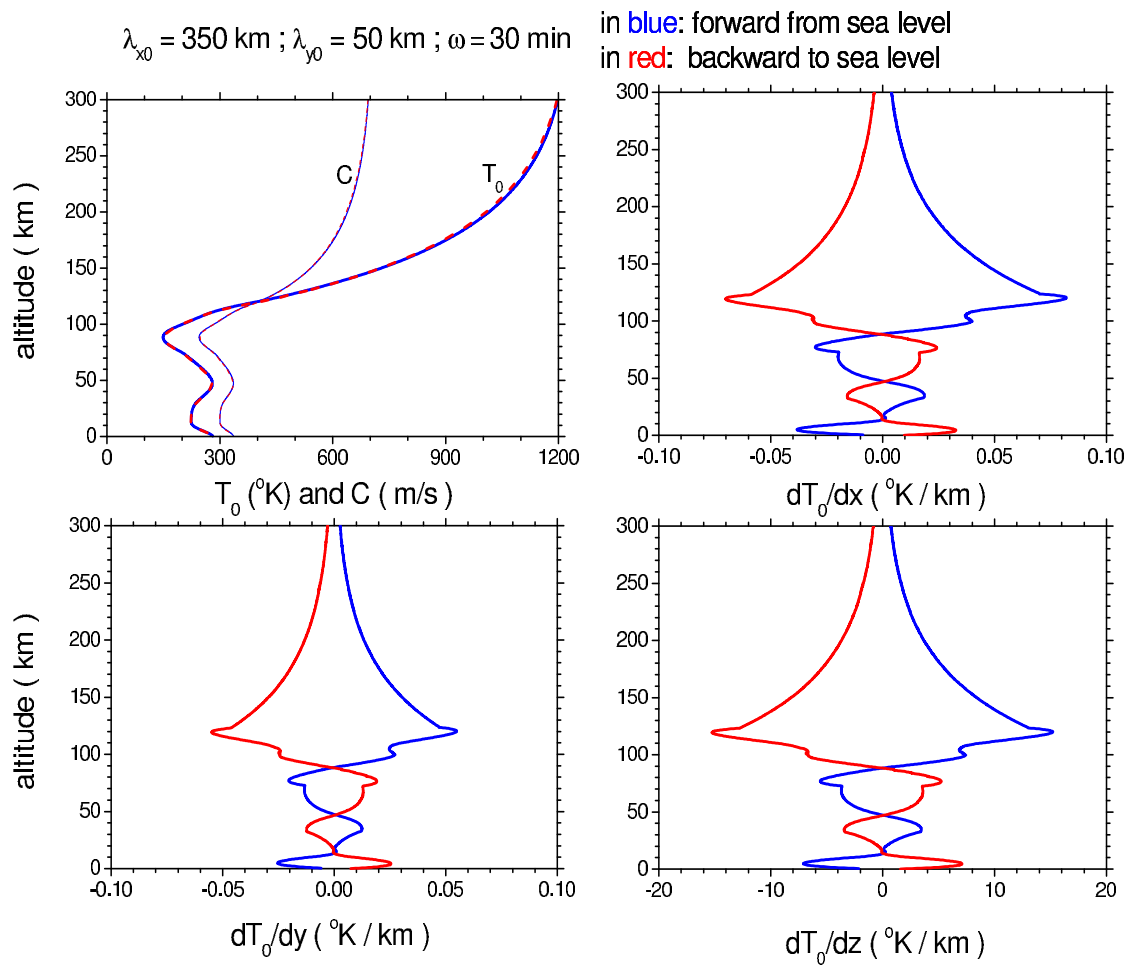


Figure 5 : Case 2-4: Altitude profiles of WKB  $\delta$  in hydrostatic, Hines' locally isothermal and shear-free atmosphere

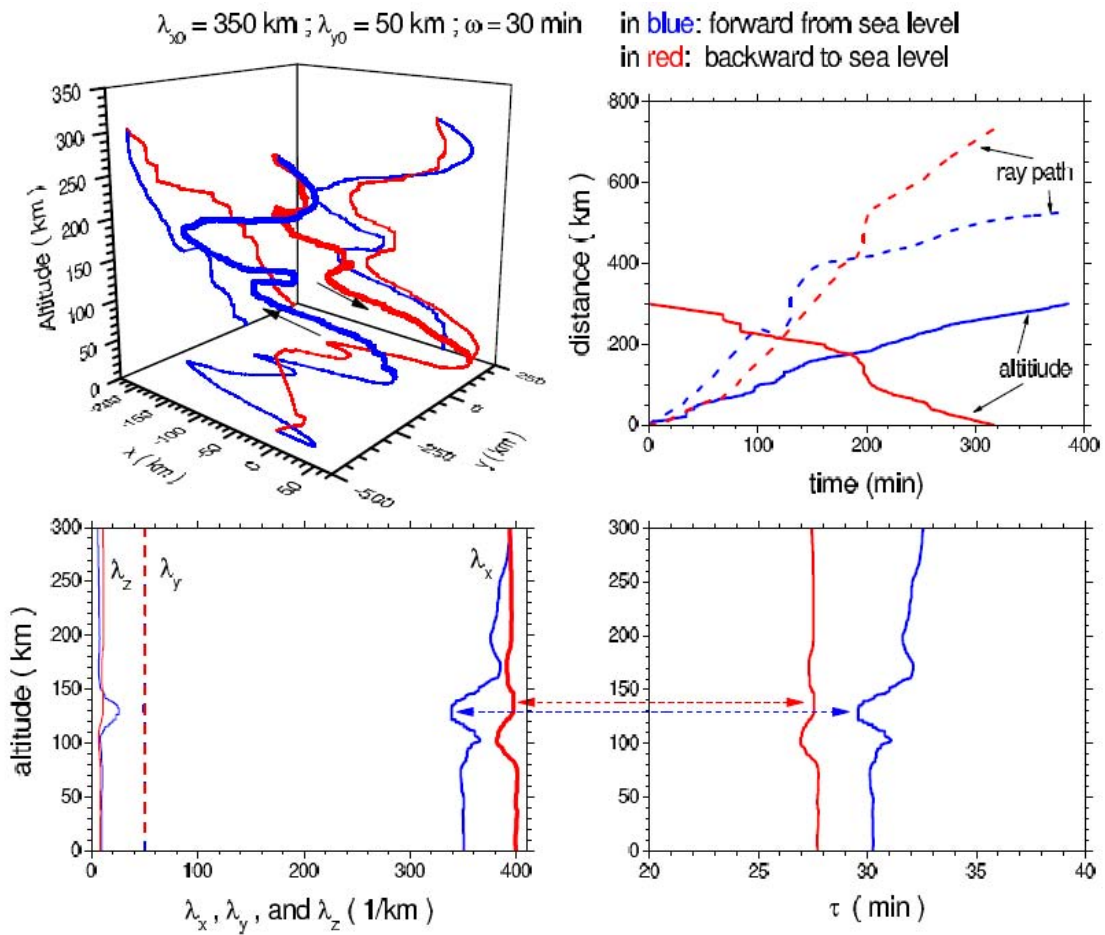


*Figure 6* : Case 3-1: Ray propagation in both space (upper left panel) and time (upper right panel), and altitude profiles of wavelengths (lower left panel) and intrinsic wave periods (lower right panel) in hydrostatic, nonisothermal and shear-free atmosphere.



*Figure 7* : Case 3-2: Altitude profiles of mean-field temperature (upper left panel) and its gradients in x (upper right panel), y (lower left panel), and z (lower right panel) in hydrostatic, nonisothermal and shear-free atmosphere

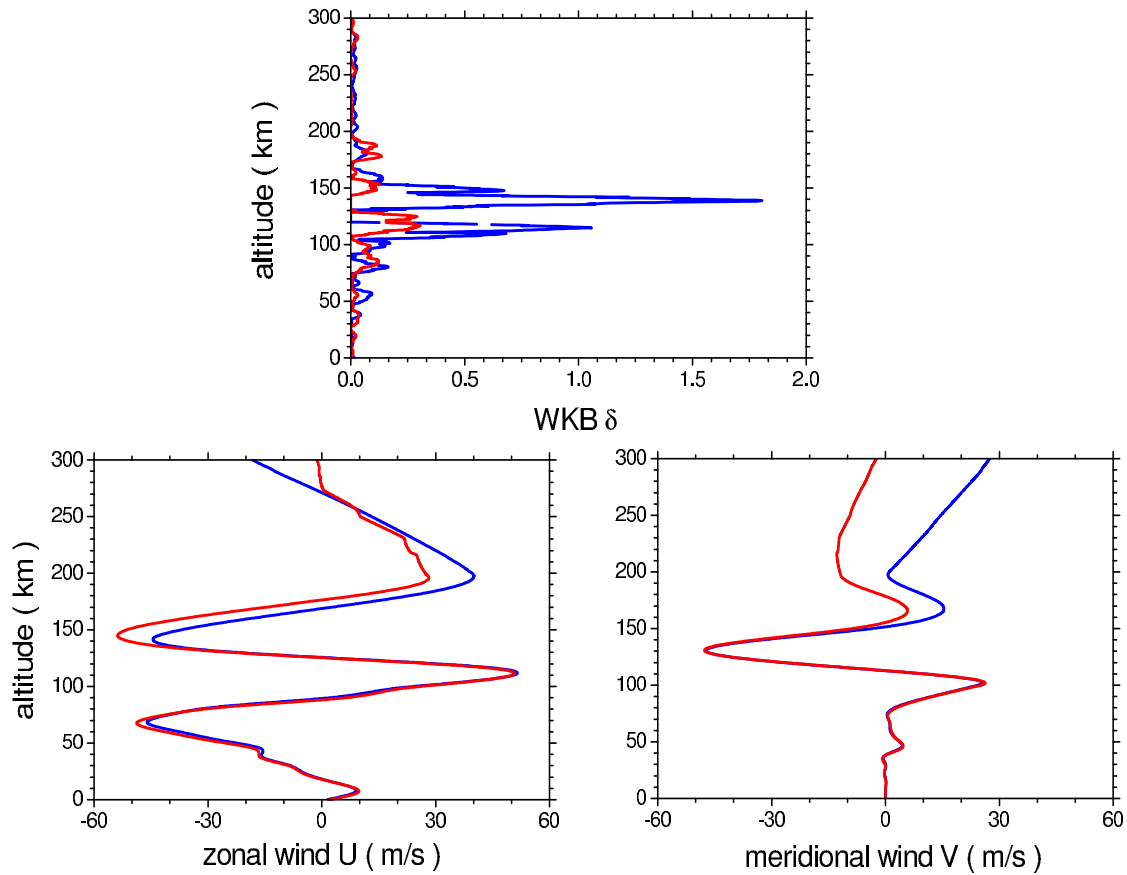




*Figure 8* : Case 4-1: Ray propagation in both space (upper left panel) and time (upper right panel), and altitude profiles of wavelengths (lower left panel) and intrinsic wave periods (lower right panel) in isothermal and wind-shearing atmosphere

$$\lambda_{x_0} = 350 \text{ km} ; \lambda_{y_0} = 50 \text{ km} ; \omega = 30 \text{ min}$$

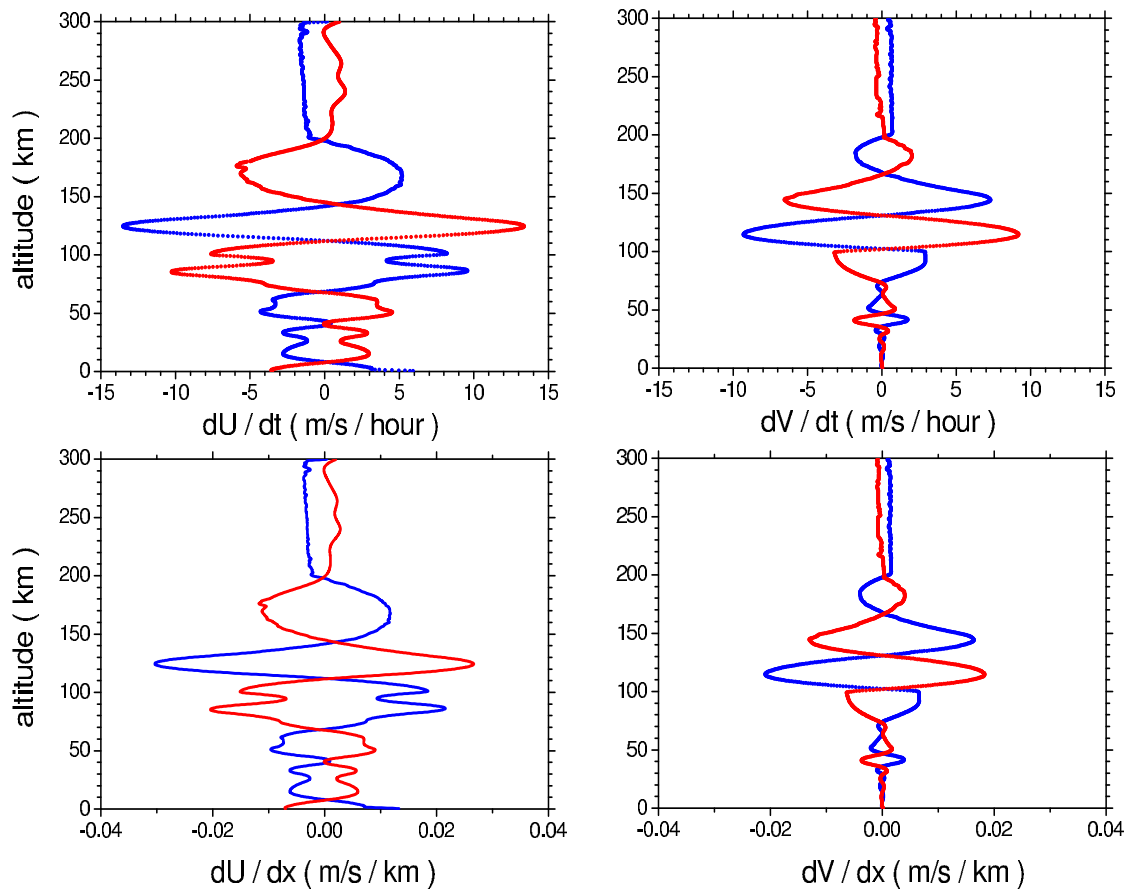
in blue: forward from sea level  
in red: backward to sea level



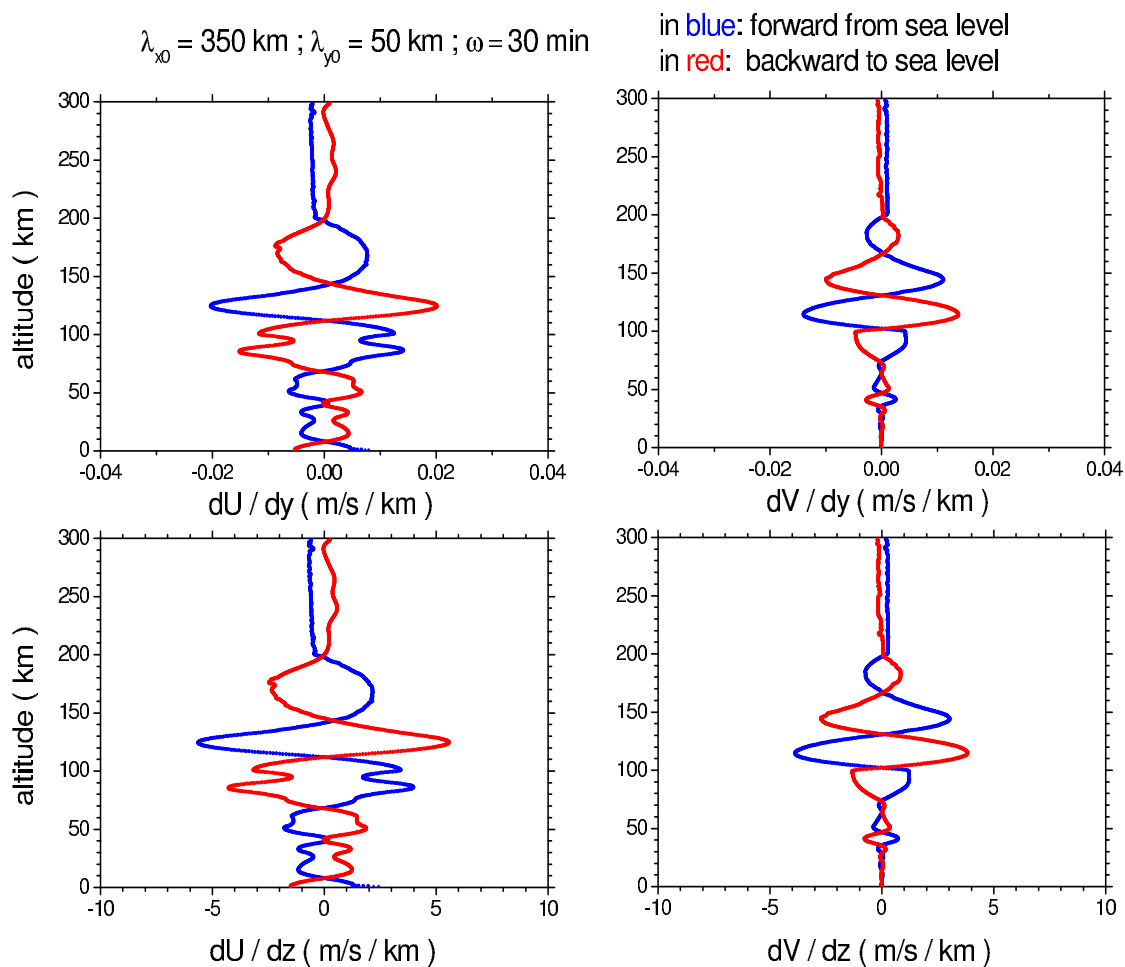
*Figure 9* : Case 4-2: Altitude profiles along ray paths of WKB  $\delta$  (upper panel), and mean-field wind (lower left panel: zonal direction; lower right panel: meridional direction) in isothermal and wind-shearing atmosphere

Notes

$\lambda_{x_0} = 350 \text{ km} ; \lambda_{y_0} = 50 \text{ km} ; \omega = 30 \text{ min}$ 

 in blue: forward from sea level  
 in red: backward to sea level


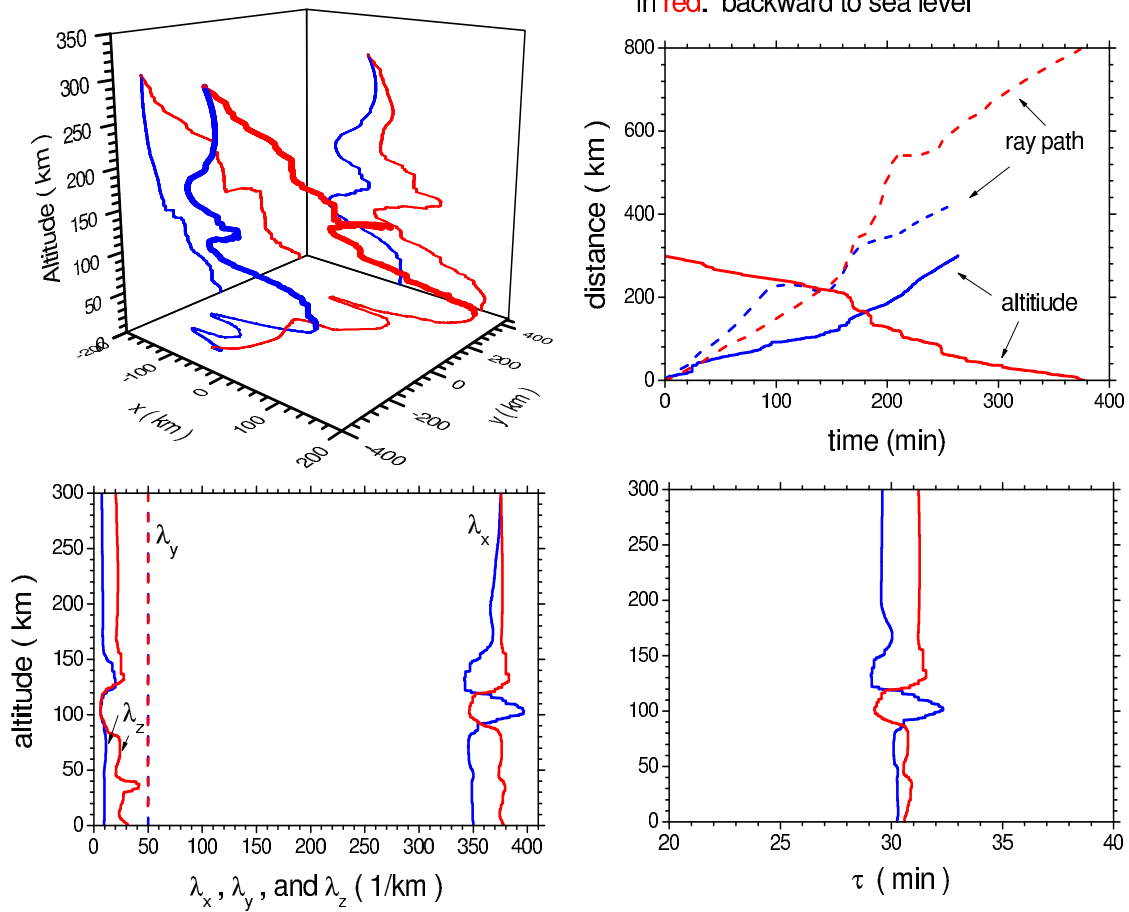
*Figure 10* : Case 4-3: Altitude profiles of zonal wind gradients (LHS two panels) and meridional wind gradients (RHS two panels) in  $t$  (upper two panels) and  $x$  (lower two panels) in isothermal and sheared atmosphere



*Figure 11* : Case 4-4: Altitude profiles of zonal wind gradients (LHS two panels) and meridional wind gradients (RHS two panels) in y (upper two panels) and z (lower two panels) in isothermal and sheared atmosphere

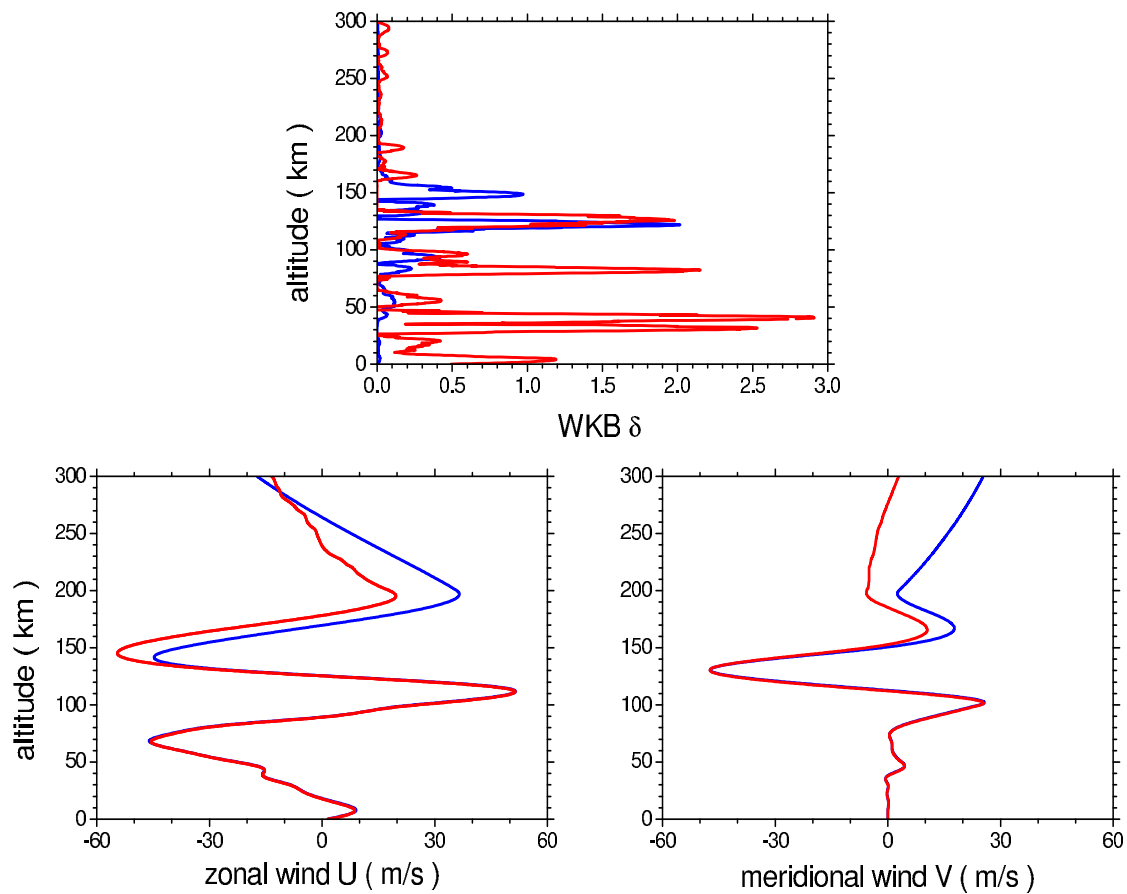
$$\lambda_{x0} = 350 \text{ km} ; \lambda_{y0} = 50 \text{ km} ; \omega = 30 \text{ min}$$

in blue: forward from sea level  
in red: backward to sea level



*Figure 12* : Case 5-1: Ray propagation in both space (upper left panel) and time (upper right panel), and altitude profiles of wavelengths (lower left panel) and intrinsic wave periods (lower right panel) in nonisothermal and wind-shearing atmosphere

$\lambda_{x0} = 350 \text{ km}$  ;  $\lambda_{y0} = 50 \text{ km}$  ;  $\omega = 30 \text{ min}$  in blue: forward from sea level  
in red: backward to sea level



*Figure 13* : Case 5-2: Altitude profiles along ray paths of WKB  $\delta$  (upper panel), and mean-field wind (lower left panel: zonal direction; lower right panel: meridional direction) in nonisothermal and wind-shearing atmosphere

$\lambda_{x0} = 350 \text{ km} ; \lambda_{y0} = 50 \text{ km} ; \omega = 30 \text{ min}$ 

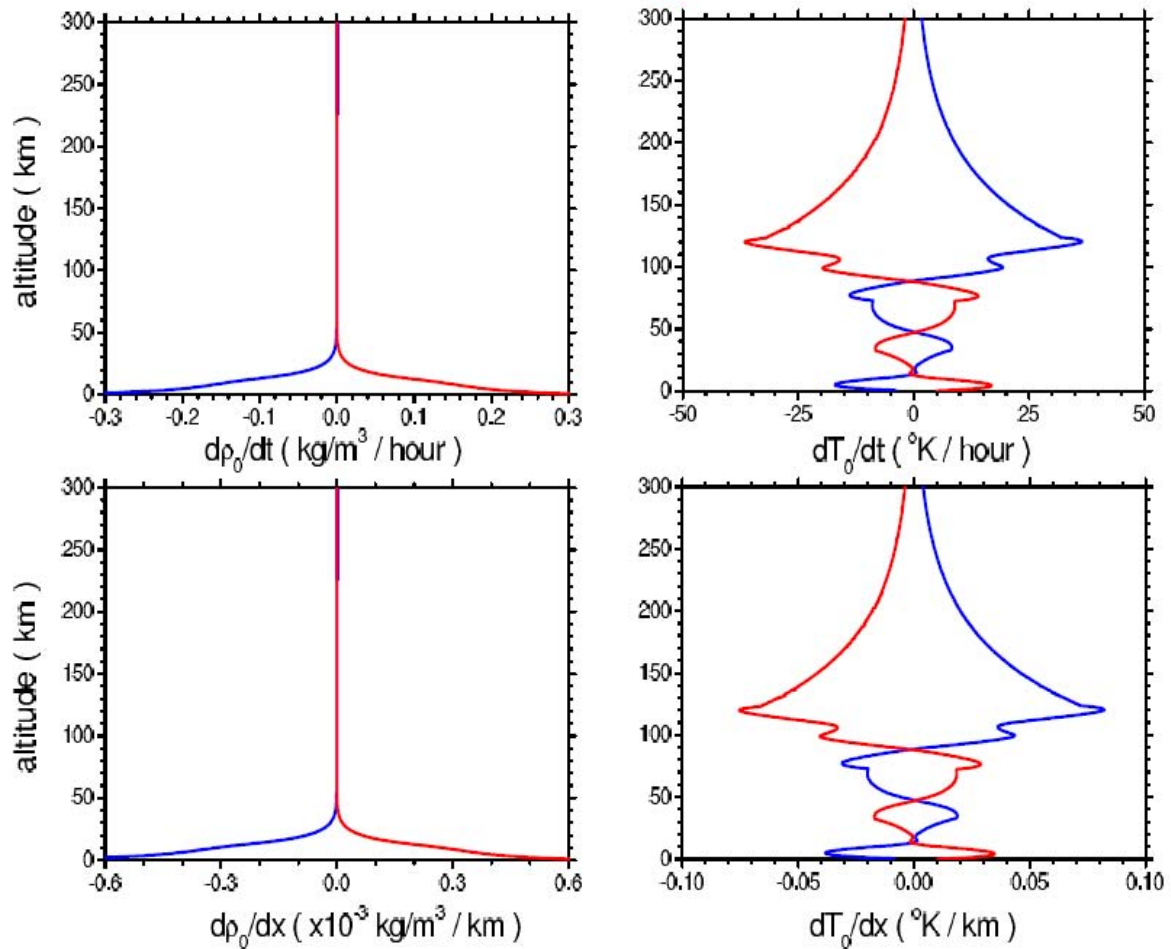
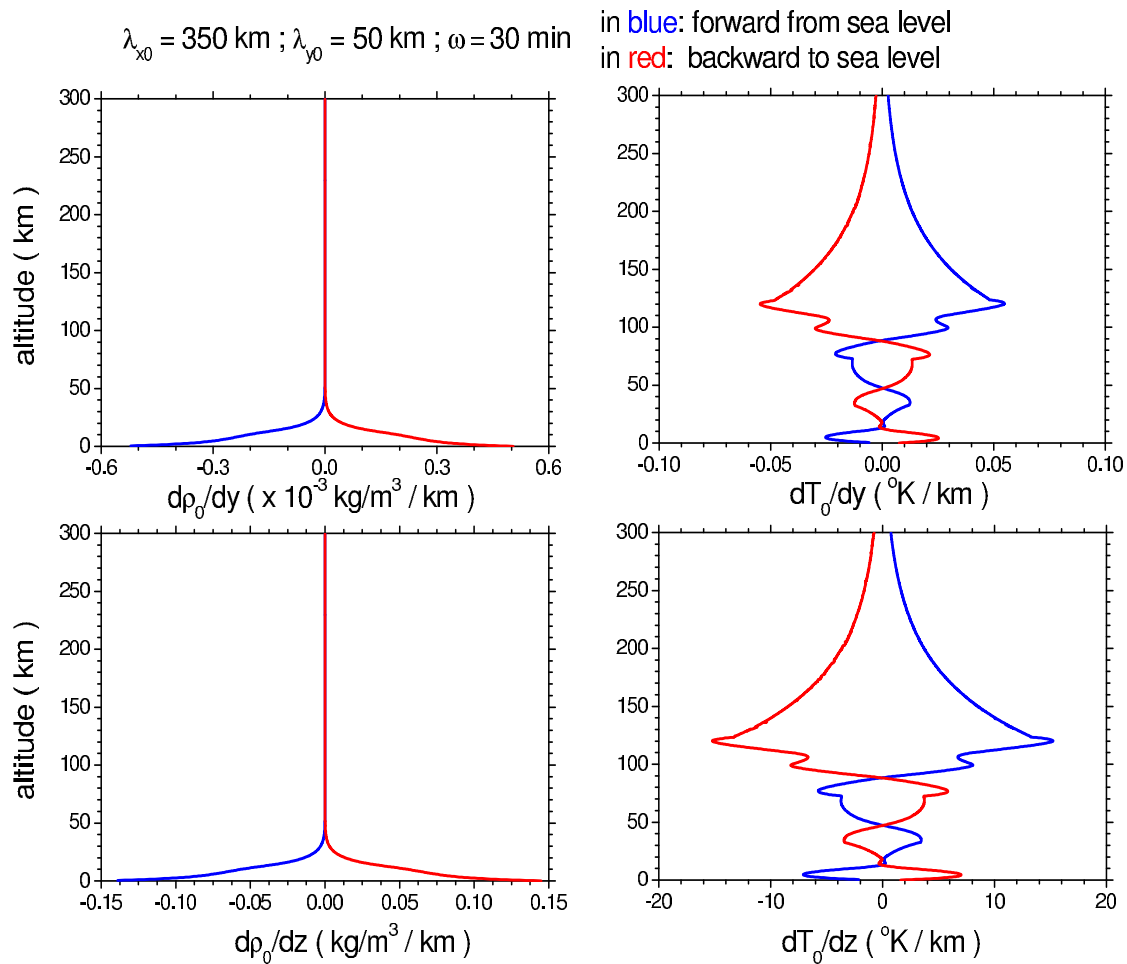
 in blue: forward from sea level  
 in red: backward to sea level


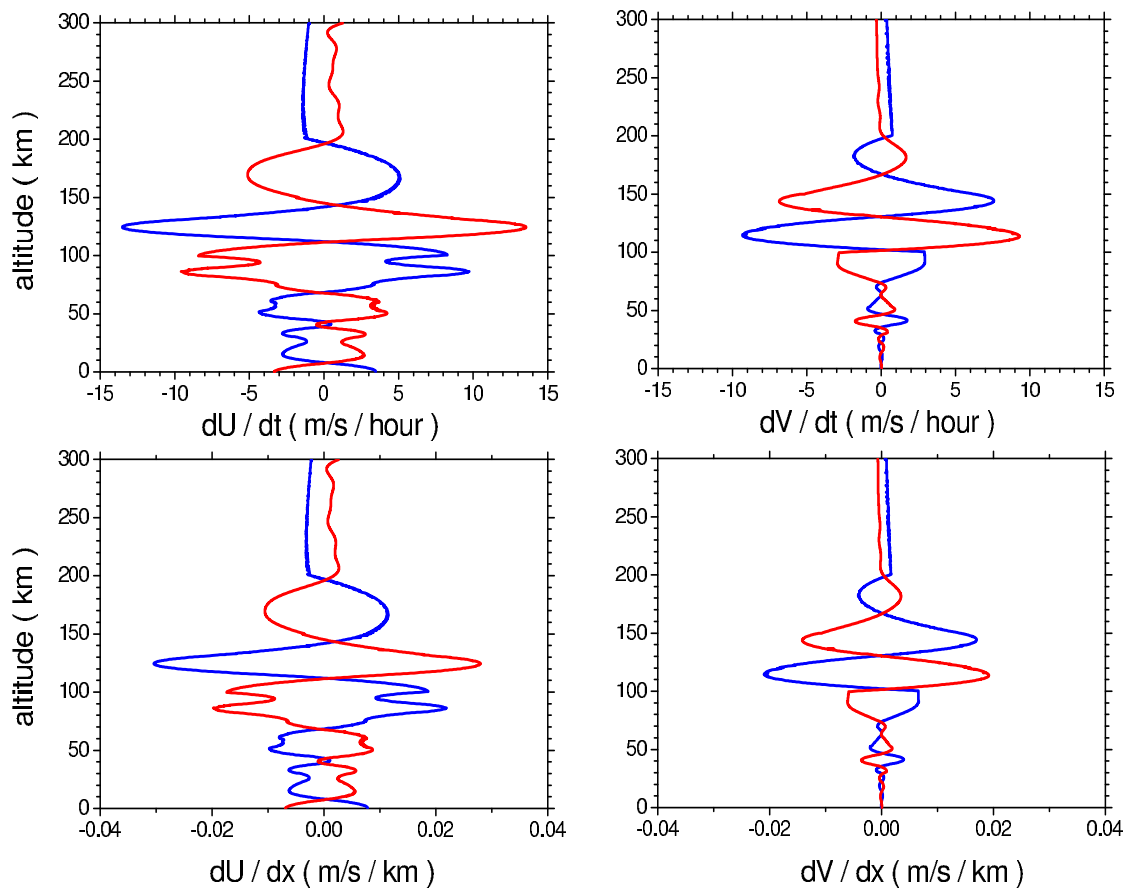
Figure 14 : Case 5-3: Altitude profiles of density gradients (LHS two panels) and temperature gradients (RHS two panels) in  $t$  (upper two panels) and  $x$  (lower two panels) in nonisothermal and wind-shearing atmosphere



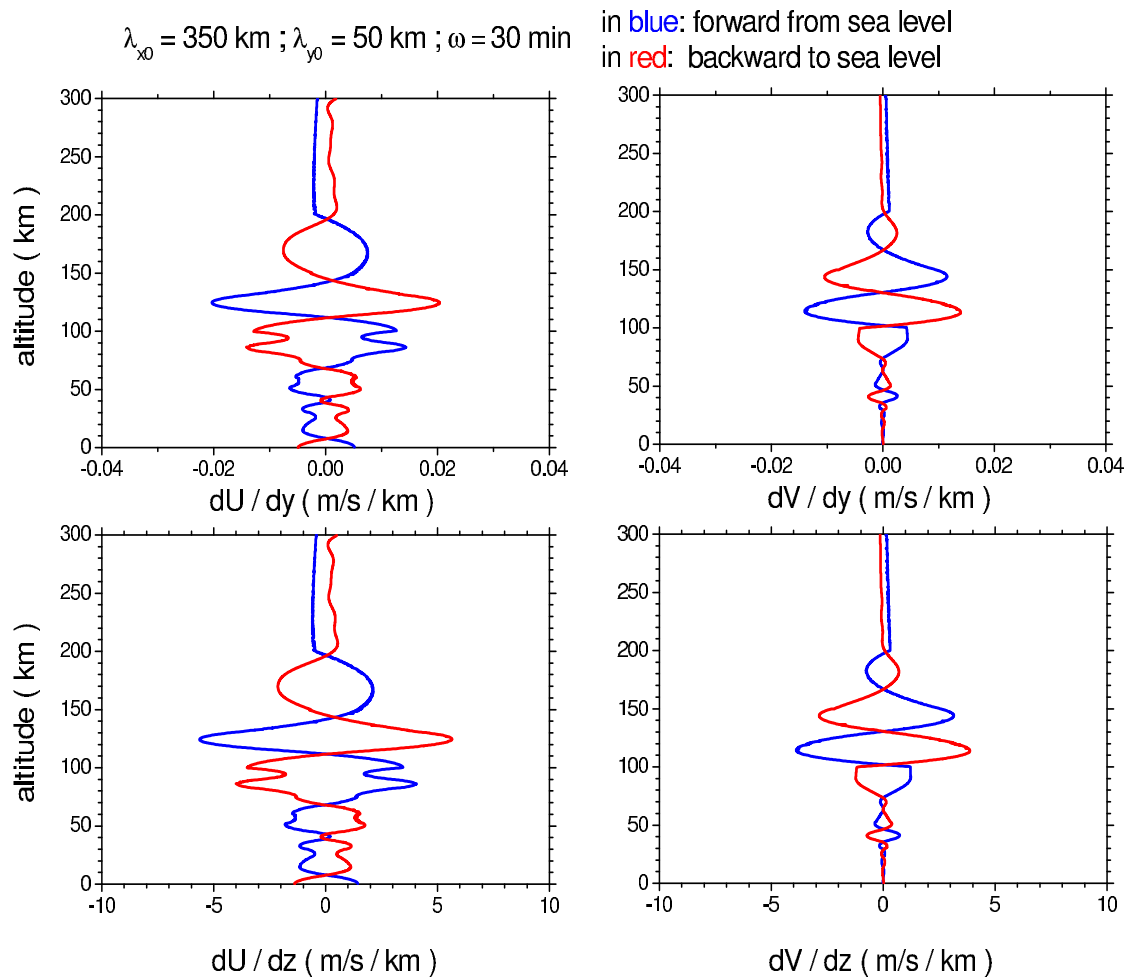
*Figure 15* : Case 5-4: Altitude profiles of density gradients (LHS two panels) and temperature gradients (RHS two panels) in y (upper two panels) and z (lower two panels) in nonisothermal and wind-shearing atmosphere



$\lambda_{x0} = 350 \text{ km} ; \lambda_{y0} = 50 \text{ km} ; \omega = 30 \text{ min}$ 

 in blue: forward from sea level  
 in red: backward to sea level


*Figure 16* : Case 5-5: Altitude profiles of zonal wind gradients (LHS two panels) and meridional wind gradients (RHS two panels) in  $t$  (upper two panels) and  $x$  (lower two panels) in nonisothermal and wind-shearing atmosphere



*Figure 17* : Case 5-6: Altitude profiles of zonal wind gradients (LHS two panels) and meridional wind gradients (RHS two panels) in  $y$  (upper two panels) and  $z$  (lower two panels) in nonisothermal and wind-shearing atmosphere

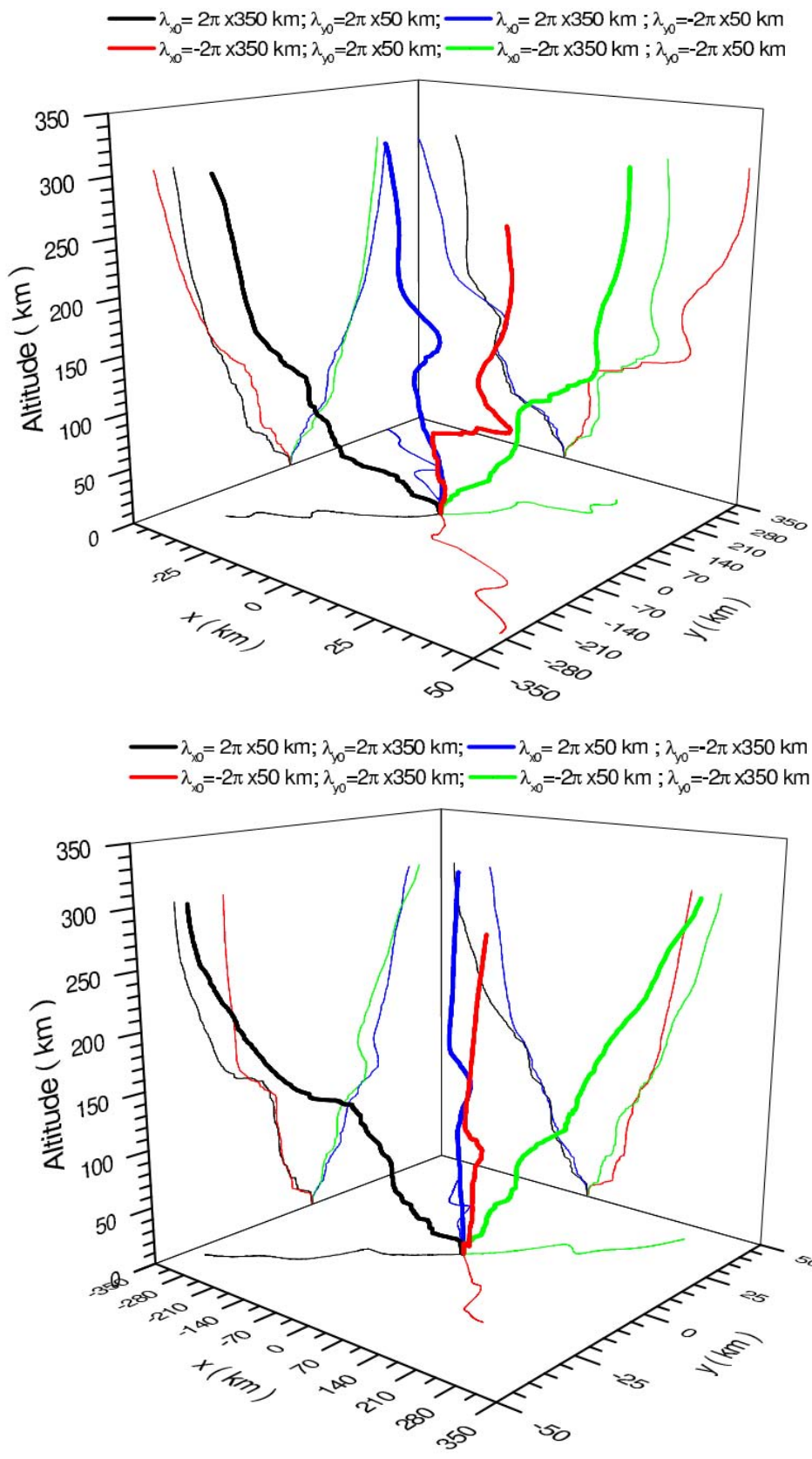


Figure 18 : Case 6-1: Propagating ray paths in space in nonisothermal and windshearing atmosphere under different initial wavelengths

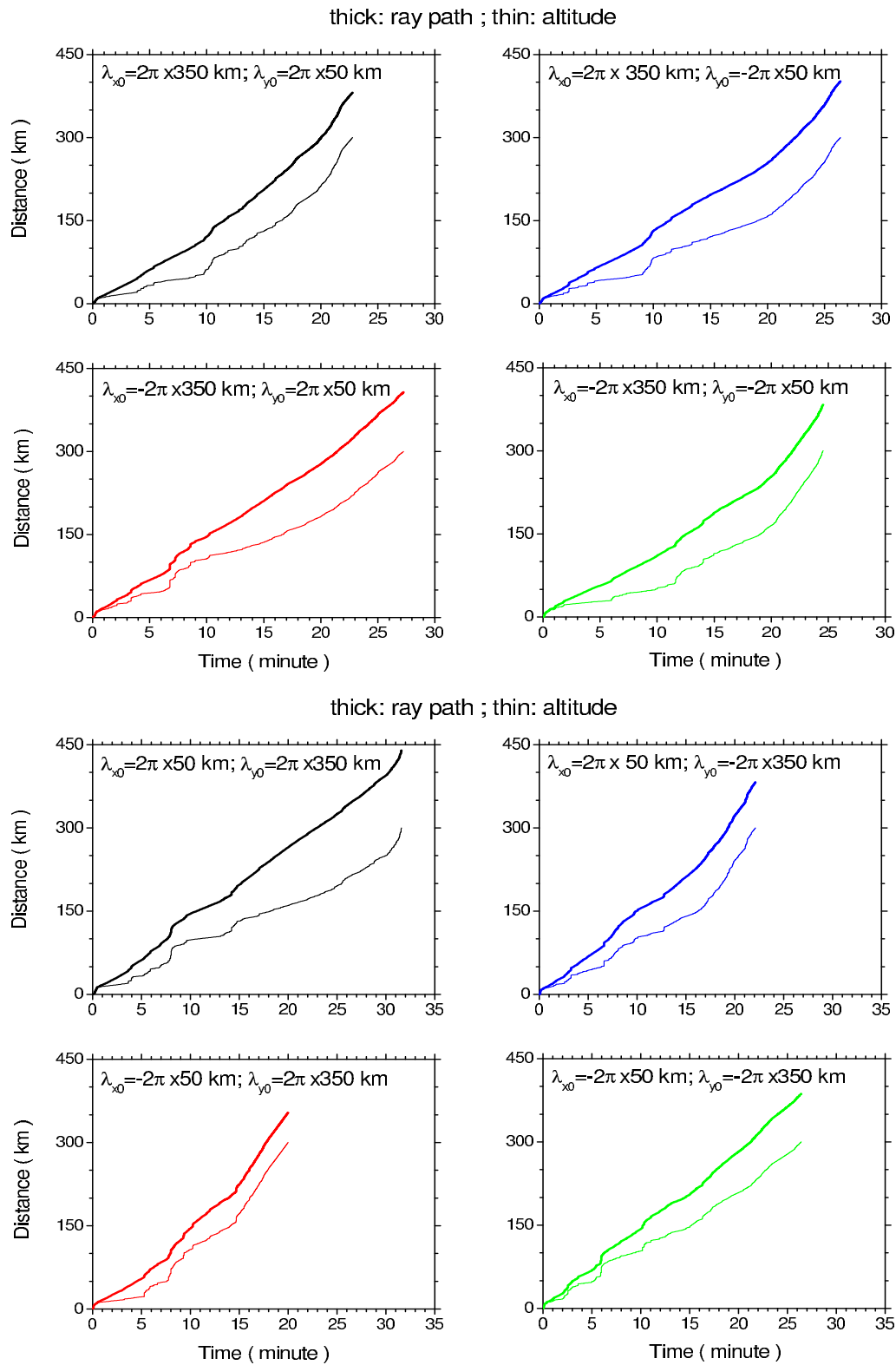


Figure 19 : Case 6-2: the same as Fig.18 but ray paths and vertical increments in time

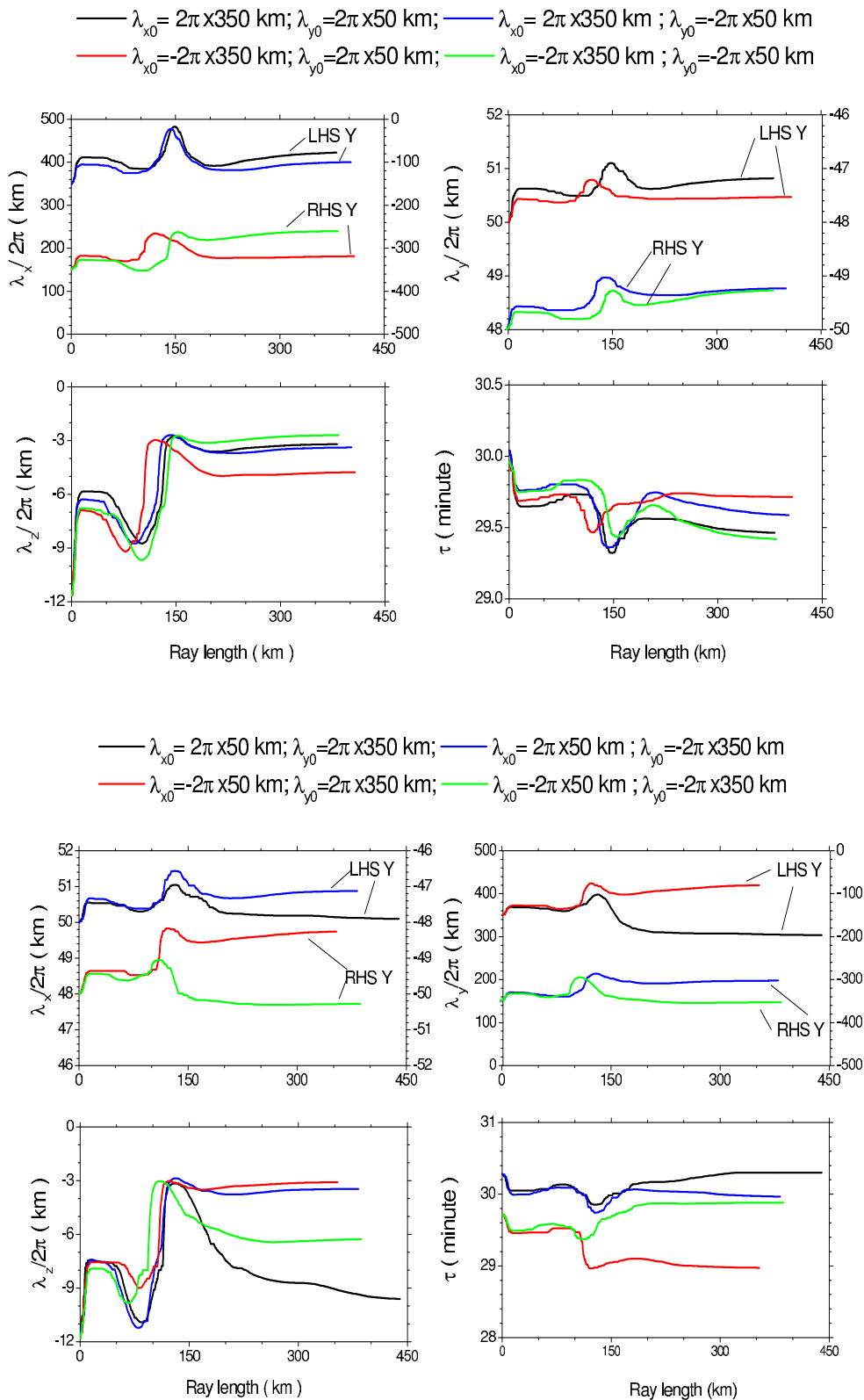


Figure 20 : Case 6-3: Development of  $\lambda_{x,y,z}$  and  $\tau$  versus ray path in wave propagation

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# A Semi-Symmetric Metric S-Connection in a Generalised Co-Symplectic Manifold

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**Abstract-** In the present paper, we define a new type of connection called semi-symmetric S-connection in a generalised co-symplectic manifold and studied some of its properties. The relation between the curvature tensor with respect to this connection and the curvature tensor with respect to the Riemannian connection is established.

**Keywords:** *semi-symmetric s-connection, generalised co-symplectic manifold, curvature tensor.*

**GJSFR-F Classification :** *MSC 2010: 53C25*



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# A Semi-Symmetric Metric S-Connection in a Generalised Co-Symplectic Manifold

Deepa Kandpal <sup>α</sup> & J. Upreti <sup>σ</sup>

**Abstract-** In the present paper, we define a new type of connection called semi-symmetric S-connection in a generalised co-symplectic manifold and studied some of its properties. The relation between the curvature tensor with respect to this connection and the curvature tensor with respect to the Riemannian connection is established.

**Keywords:** semi-symmetric s-connection, generalised co-symplectic manifold, curvature tensor.

## I. INTRODUCTION

An n-dimensional differentiable manifold  $M_n$  is an almost Contact manifold, if it admits a tensor field  $F$  of type  $(1, 1)$ , a vector field  $\xi$  and a 1-form  $\eta$  satisfying for arbitrary vector field  $X$ , such that

$$\bar{X} + X = \eta(X)\xi \tag{1.1}$$

$$\bar{\xi} = 0 \tag{1.2}$$

where

$$\bar{X} = FX$$

Again equations (1.1) and (1.2) gives

$$\eta(\bar{X}) = 0 \tag{1.3}$$

$$\eta(\xi) = 1 \tag{1.4}$$

An almost contact manifold  $M_n$  in which a Riemannian metric tensor  $g$  of type  $(0,2)$  satisfies

$$g(\bar{X}, \bar{Y}) = g(X, Y) - \eta(X)\eta(Y) \tag{1.5}$$

$$g(X, \xi) = \eta(X) \tag{1.6}$$

for arbitrary vector field  $X, Y$ , is called an almost Contact Metric Manifold [1].

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Let us put

$$F'(X, Y) = g(\bar{X}, Y)$$

then we have

$$F'(\bar{X}, \bar{Y}) = F'(X, Y) \tag{1.7}$$

$$F'(X, Y) = g(\bar{X}, Y) = -g(X, \bar{Y}) = -F'(Y, X) \tag{1.8}$$

An almost contact metric manifold satisfying

$$(\nabla_X F')(Y, Z) = \eta(Y)(\nabla_X \eta)(\bar{Z}) - \eta(Z)(\nabla_X \eta)\bar{Y} \tag{1.9}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} &(\nabla_X F')(Y, Z) + (\nabla_Y F')(Z, X) + (\nabla_Z F')(X, Y) + \eta(X)[(\nabla_Y \eta)\bar{Z} - (\nabla_Z \eta)\bar{Y}] \\ &+ \eta(Y)[(\nabla_Z \eta)\bar{X} - (\nabla_X \eta)\bar{Z}] + \eta(Z)[(\nabla_X \eta)\bar{Y} - (\nabla_Y \eta)\bar{X}] = 0 \end{aligned} \tag{1.10}$$

for arbitrary vector field X, Y, Z . Then  $M_n$  is called Generalised Co-Symplectic and Generalised Quasi-Ssasakian Manifold[2] .

If in  $M_n$

$$(\nabla_X \eta)\bar{Y} = -(\nabla_{\bar{X}} \eta)Y = (\nabla_Y \eta)\bar{X} \tag{1.11}$$

$$(\nabla_X \eta)Y = (\nabla_{\bar{X}} \eta)\bar{Y} = -(\nabla_Y \eta)X \tag{1.12}$$

$$(\nabla_\xi F) = 0 \tag{1.13}$$

Then  $\xi$  is said to be of the first class and the manifold is said to be first class [2].

If in an almost Contact metric Manifold  $M_n$  ,  $\xi$  satisfies

$$(\nabla_X \eta)\bar{Y} = (\nabla_{\bar{X}} \eta)Y = -(\nabla_Y \eta)\bar{X} \Leftrightarrow (\nabla_X \eta)Y = -(\nabla_{\bar{X}} \eta)\bar{Y} = (\nabla_Y \eta)X \tag{1.14}$$

$$(\nabla_\xi F) = 0. \tag{1.15}$$

Then  $\xi$  is said to be of the second class and the manifold  $M_n$  is said to be of the second class [2].

The Nijenhuis tensor in Generalised Co-Symplectic Manifold is given by

$$N(X, Y) = (\nabla_{\bar{X}} F)Y - (\nabla_{\bar{Y}} F)X - \overline{(\nabla_X F)Y} + \overline{(\nabla_Y F)X} \tag{1.16}$$

$$N'(X, Y, Z) = (\nabla_{\bar{X}} F')(Y, Z) - (\nabla_{\bar{Y}} F')(X, Z) + (\nabla_X F')(Y, \bar{Z}) - (\nabla_Y F')(X, \bar{Z}) \tag{1.17}$$

## II. A SEMI-SYMMETRIC METRIC S-CONNECTION

Let  $E$  be an affine connection and  $E$  is said to be metric if

$$(E_X g) = 0 \tag{2.1}$$

The metric connection satisfying

$$(E_X F)Y = \eta(Y)X - g(X, Y)\xi \tag{2.2}$$

is called S-connection [3].

A metric S-Connection  $E$  is called semi -symmetric metric S-Connection if

$$E_X Y = \nabla_X Y - \eta(X)\bar{Y} \tag{2.3}$$

which implies

$$S(X, Y) = \eta(Y)\bar{X} - \eta(X)\bar{Y} \tag{2.4}$$

where S is the torsion tensor of connection E. We know that

$$E_X(g(Y, Z)) = (E_X g)(Y, Z) + g(E_X Y, Z) + g(Y, E_X Z).$$

Using equation (2.3)

$$(E_X g)(Y, Z) = 0, \text{ where } X, Y, Z \in M_n. \tag{2.5}$$

Therefore , linear connection E defined by equation (2.3) and satisfying equations (2.4) and (2.5) is semi-symmetric metric connection ,we have

$$S(X, Y) = -S(Y, X)$$

This implies S is semi-symmetric. Now let  $E$  be a linear connection defined on a generalised Co-Symplectic manifold  $M_n$  by

$$E_X Y = \nabla_X Y + P(X, Y) \tag{2.6}$$

where P is a tensor of type (1,2) defined on  $M_n$ . Now , from equations (2.5) and (2.6) , we have

$$\begin{aligned} E_X(g(Y, Z)) &= (E_X g)(Y, Z) + g(E_X Y, Z) + g(Y, E_X Z) \\ &\Leftrightarrow g(P(X, Y), Z) + g(Y, P(X, Z)) = 0 \\ g(P(X, Y), Z) + g(P(X, Z), Y) &= 0 \end{aligned} \tag{2.7}$$

from equation (2.6) , we get

$$S(X, Y) = P(X, Y) - P(Y, X). \tag{2.8}$$

Using equation (2.8), we get

$$g(S(X, Y), Z) + g(S(Z, X), Y) + g(S(Z, Y), X) = 2g(P(X, Y), Z) \tag{2.9}$$

Ref

3. Sasaki, S., Almost Contact Manifold, I, II, III, A lecture Note, Tohoku University, (1967),(1967),(1968).

and

$$P(X, Y) = \frac{1}{2}[\eta(Y)\bar{X} - \eta(X)\bar{Y}] \tag{2.10}$$

Now from equations (2.6) and (2.10), we get

$$E_X Y = \nabla_X Y + \frac{1}{2}[\eta(Y)\bar{X} - \eta(X)\bar{Y}] \tag{2.11}$$

Further for a 1-form  $\eta$  on a generalised Co-Symplectic manifold  $M_n$ , we have,

**Theorem 2.1.** *A Generalised Co-Symplectic Manifold  $M_n$  admitting a connection  $E$ , is uniquely determined by the contact form  $\eta$  and tensor field  $F$  satisfies*

$$(E_X \eta)Y = (\nabla_X \eta)Y \tag{2.12}$$

$$(E_X \eta)(FY) = (\nabla_X \eta)(FY) \tag{2.13}$$

$$E_X(FY) = \eta(Y)X - g(X, Y)\xi + \overline{\nabla_X Y} - \frac{1}{2}[\eta(Y)X - \eta(X)Y] \tag{2.14}$$

$$E_X(FY) - E_Y(FX) = \overline{\nabla_X Y} - \overline{\nabla_Y X} \tag{2.15}$$

*Proof:* Using equations (2.6), (2.10) and (2.11), we have the results (2.12), (2.13), (2.14) and (2.15).

Again covariant differentiation of the torsion tensor  $S$  is given by

$$E_X(S(Y, Z)) = (E_X S)(Y, Z) + S(E_X Y, Z) + S(Y, E_X Z).$$

Using equation (2.4), we have

$$(E_X S)(Y, Z) = ((E_X \eta)Z)Y - ((E_X \eta)Y)Z \tag{2.16}$$

Let us define

$$\bar{S}(X, Y, Z) = g(S(X, Y), Z) \tag{2.17}$$

Then from the equations (2.4) and (2.17), we get

$$\bar{S}(X, Y, Z) + \bar{S}(Y, Z, X) + \bar{S}(Z, X, Y) = 0 \tag{2.18}$$

and

$$g(P(X, Y), Z) + g(P(X, Z), Y) = 0 \tag{2.19}$$

The torsion tensor  $S$  of the connection  $E$  satisfies the following relations

- (a)  $S(\bar{X}, \bar{Y}) = 0$
- (b)  $S(X, \xi) = \bar{X}$
- (c)  $S(\bar{X}, \xi) = \bar{X}$ ,
- (d)  $S(X, \xi) - S(\bar{X}, \xi) = 2X - 2\eta(X)\xi$
- (e)  $S(\bar{X}, Y) = \eta(X)\eta(Y)\xi - \eta(Y)X$
- (f)  $S(X, Y) = \eta(Y)\bar{X}$
- (g)  $\eta(S(X, Y)) = 0$

**Theorem 2.2.** *A generalised Co-symplectic Manifold  $M_n$  satisfies the following relations i.e. (a), (b), (c), (d), (e), (f) and (g) defined above.*



**Theorem 2.3.** In a Generalised Co-Symplectic manifold  $M_n$  with connection  $E$ , we have

- (a)  $\tilde{P}(X, Y, Z) = \frac{1}{2}[\eta(Y)F'(X, Y) - \eta(X)F'(Y, Z)]$
  - (b)  $\tilde{P}(X, \bar{Y}, \bar{Z}) = 1/2[\eta(X)g(Y, Z) - \eta(X)\eta(Y)\eta(Z)]$
  - (c)  $\tilde{P}(\bar{X}, \bar{Y}, \bar{Z}) = 0$
  - (d)  $\tilde{P}(\bar{X}, \bar{Y}, Z) = 0 = \tilde{S}(\bar{X}, \bar{Y}, \bar{Z}) = 0$
  - (e)  $\tilde{P}(X, Y, \bar{Z}) = \frac{1}{2}[\eta(Y)F'(X, \bar{Z}) - \eta(X)F'(Y, \bar{Z})]$
- where  $\tilde{P}(X, Y, Z) = g(P(X, Y), Z)$

**Theorem 2.4.** In a Generalised Co-Symplectic Manifold  $M_n$  admitting connection  $E$  satisfied the following properties:

- (a)  $(E_X F')(Y, Z) = (\nabla_X F')(Y, Z) - \frac{1}{2}[\eta(Y)F'(\bar{X}, Z) + \eta(Z)F'(Y, \bar{X})]$
- (b)  $E_{FX} F'(\bar{Y}, \bar{Z}) = (\nabla_{FX} F')(\bar{Y}, \bar{Z})$

*Proof:* (a) We have

$$X(F'(Y, Z)) = (E_X F')(Y, Z) + F'(E_X Y, Z) + F'(Y, E_X Z)$$

$$X(F'(Y, Z)) = (\nabla_X F')(Y, Z) + F'(\nabla_X Y, Z) + F'(Y, \nabla_X Z)$$

which implies

$$\begin{aligned} (E_X F')(Y, Z) &= (\nabla_X F')(Y, Z) + F'(\nabla_X Y, Z) + F'(Y, \nabla_X Z) - F'(E_X Y, Z) - F'(Y, E_X Z) \\ &= (\nabla_X F')(Y, Z) - 1/2[\eta(Y)F'(\bar{X}, Z) + \eta(Z)F'(Y, \bar{X})] \end{aligned}$$

Using equation (2.10), we get (a). Again baring (a), we get (b) and (c).

### III. CURVATURE TENSOR OF $M_n$ WITH RESPECT TO CONNECTION $E$

Let  $\tilde{R}$  be the curvature tensor with respect to the semi-symmetric metric connection  $E$  on a generalised co-symplectic manifold  $M_n$ . Then

$$\tilde{R}(X, Y, Z) = E_X E_Y Z - E_Y E_X Z - E_{[X, Y]} Z \tag{3.1}$$

We have the following results:

**Theorem 3.1.** In a Generalised Co-Symplectic Manifold  $M_n$  curvature tensor  $\tilde{R}$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{R}(X, Y, Z) &= R(X, Y, Z) + \frac{1}{2}[S(X, \nabla_Y Z) + S(\nabla_X Z, Y)] + \frac{1}{2}\eta(Z)S'(X, Y) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2}\eta(Z)[\nabla_X \bar{Y} - \nabla_Y \bar{X}] + \frac{1}{2}[\eta(Y)\nabla_X \bar{Z} - \eta(X)\nabla_Y \bar{Z}] \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2}(\nabla_Y \eta(Z))\bar{X} - \frac{1}{2}\eta(Z)[\bar{X}, \bar{Y}] + \frac{1}{2}\eta([X, Y])\bar{Z} - ((\nabla_X \eta)Y)\bar{Z} \end{aligned} \tag{3.2}$$

where

$$S'(X, Y) = \eta(X)Y - \eta(Y)X$$

$$R(X, Y, Z) = \nabla_X \nabla_Y Z - \nabla_Y \nabla_X Z - \nabla_{[X, Y]} Z$$

*Proof:* Let  $\tilde{R}(X, Y, Z)$  be the curvature tensor for generalised co-symplectic manifold with respect the semi-symmetric metric S-connection  $E$ , then

$$\tilde{R}(X, Y, Z) = E_X E_Y Z - E_Y E_X Z - E_{[X, Y]} Z$$

By using equations (1.1),(1.2),(1.11),(1.12),(1.13) ,(2.9) and (2.12), we get equation (3.1), where  $R(X, Y, Z)$  is curvature tensor of  $M_n$  with respect to the Riemannian Curvature  $\nabla$ .

Let  $K$  and  $\tilde{K}$  be curvature tensor of type (0,4) given by

$$K(X, Y, Z) = g(R(X, Y, Z), U)$$

$$\tilde{K}(X, Y, Z, U) = g(\tilde{K}(X, Y, Z), U)$$

**Theorem 3.2.** *In a Generalised Co-Symplectic Manifold  $M_n$ , we have*

$$\tilde{R}(X, Y, Z) + \tilde{R}(Y, Z, X) + \tilde{R}(Z, X, Y) = 0 \tag{3.3}$$

If

$$\begin{aligned} &2[(\nabla_X \eta)Z]\bar{Y} + ((\nabla_Y \eta)X)\bar{Z} + ((\nabla_Z \eta)Y)\bar{X}] \\ &+ \eta([X, Z])\bar{Y} + \eta([Y, X])\bar{Z} + \eta([Z, Y])\bar{X} = 0 \end{aligned} \tag{3.4}$$

and

$$\tilde{K}(X, Y, Z, U) + \tilde{K}(Y, X, Z, U) = 0 \tag{3.5}$$

If and only if

$$g((\nabla_Y \eta(Z))\bar{X}, U) + g((\nabla_X \eta(Z))\bar{Y}, U) = 0 \tag{3.6}$$

and

$$(\nabla_Y \eta)X + (\nabla_X \eta)Y = 0 \tag{3.7}$$

*Proof:* Using equation (3.2) and the first Bianchi identity

$$R(X, Y, Z) + R(Y, Z, X) + R(Z, X, Y) = 0$$

with respect to Riemannian Connection  $\nabla$ , we get eq.(3.3) and (3.4).

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{K}(X, Y, Z) &= g(\tilde{R}(X, Y, Z), U) \\ &= g(R(X, Y, Z), U) + \frac{1}{2}g(S(X, \nabla_Y Z), U) + \frac{1}{2}g(S(\nabla_X Z, Y), U) \\ &+ \frac{1}{2}g(\eta(Z)[\nabla_X \bar{Y} - \nabla_Y \bar{X}], U) + \frac{1}{4}g(\eta(Z)[\eta(X)Y - \eta(Y)X] \\ &- g(((\nabla_X \eta)Y)\bar{Z}, U) + \frac{1}{2}g((\eta(Y) \nabla_X \bar{Z} - \eta(X) \nabla_Y \bar{Z}), U) \end{aligned}$$



$$-\frac{1}{2}g((\nabla_Y\eta(Z)\bar{X}, U) - \frac{1}{2}g(\eta(Z)[\bar{X}, Y], U) + \frac{1}{2}g(\eta([X, Y])\bar{Z}, U)$$

We get

$$\tilde{K}(X, Y, Z, U) = -\tilde{K}(Y, X, Z, U) \tag{3.8}$$

If

$$g(\nabla_Y\eta(Z)\bar{X}, U) = -g(\nabla_X\eta(Z)\bar{Y}, U) \tag{3.9}$$

and

$$(\nabla_Y\eta)X + (\nabla_X\eta)Y = 0 \tag{3.10}$$

#### IV. NIJENHUIS TENSOR OF $M_n$ WITH RESPECT TO NEW CONNECTION $E$

The Nijenhuis tensor with respect to  $E$  of  $F$  in a generalised Co-symplectic manifold  $M_n$  is a vector valued bilinear scalar function  $N_E$ , is given by

$$N_E(X, Y) = (\nabla_{\bar{X}}F)Y + S(X, Y) - (\nabla_{\bar{Y}}F)X + \overline{\nabla_X F}Y + \overline{\nabla_Y F}X \tag{4.1}$$

Using equation (1.16), we get

$$N_E(X, Y) = N(X, Y) + S(X, Y) + 2\overline{\nabla_X F}Y \tag{4.2}$$

where  $N$  is Nijenhuis tensor with respect to Riemannian connection and  $S$  is the Torsion tensor of connection  $E$ .

Again by using equation (1.17), we get

$$N_E(X, Y, Z) = (E_{\bar{X}}F')(Y, Z) - (E_{\bar{Y}}F')(X, Z) - (E_Y F')(X, \bar{Z}) + \frac{1}{2}\eta(Y)[F'(X, \bar{Z}) + F'(X, Z)] \tag{4.3}$$

and

$$N_E(X, Y, Z) = N(X, Y, Z) \tag{4.4}$$

If and only if

$$(\nabla_X F')(Y, \bar{Z}) + (\nabla_Y F')(X, Z) - (\nabla_Y F')(X, \bar{Z}) = \frac{1}{2}\eta(X)[F'(Y, Z) + F'(\bar{Y}, Z)] + \frac{1}{2}\eta(Y)F'(X, \bar{Z}) \tag{4.5}$$

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# Numerical Solutions for the Improved Korteweg De Vries and the Two Dimension Korteweg De Vries (2D Kdv) Equations

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**Keywords:** *the  $(\frac{G'}{G})$ - expansion method, the improved korteweg de vries equation and the two dimension korteweg de vries (2D kdv).*

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# Numerical Solutions for the Improved Korteweg De Vries and the Two Dimension Korteweg De Vries (2D KdV) Equations

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**Abstract-** In this paper we established a traveling wave solution by the  $(\frac{G'}{G})$ -expansion method for nonlinear partial differential equations (PDEs). The proposed method gives more general exact solutions for two different types of nonlinear partial differential equations such as the improved Korteweg de Vries equation and the two dimension Korteweg de Vries (2D KdV) equations.

**Keywords:** the  $(\frac{G'}{G})$ -expansion method, the improved korteweg de vries equation and the two dimension korteweg de vries (2D kdV).

## I. INTRODUCTION

The nonlinear partial differential equations (NPDEs) are widely used to describe many important phenomena and dynamic processes in physics, chemistry, biology, fluid dynamics, plasma, optical fibers and other areas of engineering. Many efforts have been made to study NPDEs. One of the most exciting advances of nonlinear science and theoretical physics has been a development of methods that look for exact solutions for nonlinear evolution equations. The availability of symbolic computations such as Mathematica, has popularized direct seeking for exact solutions of nonlinear equations. Therefore, exact solution methods of nonlinear evolution equations have become more and more important resulting in methods like the tanh method [1–3], extended tanh function method [4, 5], the modified extended tanh function method [6], the generalized hyperbolic function [7]. Most of exact solutions have been obtained by these methods, including the solitary wave solutions, shock wave solutions, periodic wave solutions, and the like. In this paper, we propose the extended  $(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)})$ -expansion method to find the exact solutions of the improved Korteweg de Vries (IKdV) equation and the two dimension Korteweg de Vries (2D KdV) equation. Our main goal in this study is to present the improved  $(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)})$ -expansion method [12-15] for constructing the travelling wave solutions. In section 2, we describe the  $(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)})$ -expansion method. In section 3, we apply the method to two physically important nonlinear evolution equations.,

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## II. OUTLINE OF THE $(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)})$ -EXPANSION METHOD

The  $(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)})$ -expansion method will be introduced as presented by A.Hendi [8] and by [12–15]. The method is applied to find out an exact solution of a nonlinear ordinary differential equation.

Consider the nonlinear partial differential equation in the form

$$N(u, u_t, u_x, u_{tx}, u_{xx}, \dots) = 0 \tag{2.1}$$

Where  $u(x, t)$  is the solution of nonlinear partial differential equation Eq. (1). We use the transformation,  $\xi = (x - ct)$ , to transform  $u(x, t)$  to  $u(\xi)$  give :

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} = -c \frac{d}{d\xi}, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x} = \frac{d}{d\xi}, \quad \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} = \frac{d^2}{d\xi^2}, \quad \frac{\partial^3}{\partial x^3} = \frac{d^3}{d\xi^3}, \tag{2.2}$$

and so on, then Eq. (1) becomes an ordinary differential equation

$$N(u, -c u', u', c^2 u'', -c u''', \dots) = 0, \tag{2.3}$$

The solution of Eq.(3) can be expressed by a polynomial in  $\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)}$

$$u(\xi) = \sum_{i=-N}^N a_i \left(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)}\right)^i, \tag{2.4}$$

Where  $G = G(\xi)$  satisfies,

$$G''(\xi) + \lambda G'(\xi) + \mu G(\xi) = 0, \tag{2.5}$$

Where  $G'(\xi) = \frac{dG(\xi)}{d\xi}$ ,  $G''(\xi) = \frac{d^2G(\xi)}{d\xi^2}$ ,  $a_i$ ,  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  are constants to be determined later,  $a_i \neq 0$ , the unwritten part in (4) is also a polynomial in  $(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)})$ , but the degree of which is generally equal to or less than  $m - 1$ , the positive integer  $m$  can be determined by balancing the highest order derivative terms with nonlinear term appearing in Eq.(3). The solutions of Eq.(5) for  $(\frac{G'}{G})$  can be written in the form of hyperbolic, trigonometric and rational functions as given below[8].

$$\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)} = \begin{cases} \frac{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - 4\mu}}{2} \left( \frac{C_1 \sinh(\frac{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - 4\mu}}{2} \xi) + C_2 \cosh(\frac{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - 4\mu}}{2} \xi)}{C_1 \cosh(\frac{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - 4\mu}}{2} \xi) + C_2 \sinh(\frac{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - 4\mu}}{2} \xi)} \right) - \frac{\lambda}{2}, & \text{when } \lambda^2 - 4\mu > 0, \\ \frac{\sqrt{4\mu - \lambda^2}}{2} \left( \frac{-C_1 \sin(\frac{\sqrt{4\mu - \lambda^2}}{2} \xi) + C_2 \cos(\frac{\sqrt{4\mu - \lambda^2}}{2} \xi)}{C_1 \cos(\frac{\sqrt{4\mu - \lambda^2}}{2} \xi) + C_2 \sin(\frac{\sqrt{4\mu - \lambda^2}}{2} \xi)} \right) - \frac{\lambda}{2}, & \text{when } \lambda^2 - 4\mu < 0, \\ \frac{C_2}{C_1 + C_2 \xi} - \frac{\lambda}{2}, & \text{when } \lambda^2 - 4\mu = 0, \end{cases} \tag{2.6}$$

Where  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are integration constants. Inserting Eq.(4) into (3) and using Eq.(5), collecting all terms with the same order  $\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)}$  together, the left hand side of Eq.(3) is converted into another

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8. M A Abdou, A.Hendi, Mirvet Al-Zumaie. On the extended  $(\frac{G'}{G})$ -expansion method and its applications Int. J. Comput. Math. (2011) 3(3): 193-199.

polynomial in  $\left(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)}\right)$ . Equating each coefficients of this polynomial to zero, yields a set of algebraic equations for  $a_i, \lambda$ , and  $\mu$ . with the knowledge of the coefficients  $a_i$  and general solution of Eq.(5) we have more travelling wave solutions of the nonlinear evolution Eq.(1).

### III. APPLICATIONS

In order to illustrate the effectiveness of the proposed method two examples in mathematical are chosen as follows

a) *The improved Korteweg de Vries (IKdV) equation*

We Consider the IKdV equation in the form [11]

$$u_t + \epsilon u u_x + \beta u_{xxx} - \delta u_{xxt} = 0, \tag{3.1}$$

We make the transformation

$$u(x, t) = u(\xi), \quad \xi = x - c t, \tag{3.2}$$

Eq. (3.1) becomes

$$-c u' + \epsilon u u' + \beta u''' + \delta c u''' = 0, \tag{3.3}$$

Integrating the above equation with respect to  $\xi$ , we get

$$-c u + \frac{\epsilon}{2} u^2 + (\beta + \delta c) u'' = 0, \tag{3.4}$$

Balancing  $u^2$  with  $u''$  gives  $m = 2$ . thus we suppose solutions of Eq. (3.3) can be expressed by

$$u(\xi) = a_0 + a_1 \left(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)}\right) + a_2 \left(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)}\right)^2, \tag{3.5}$$

Where  $a_0, a_1, a_2$  are constants, Substituting Eq.(3.5) into Eq.(3.4),collecting the coefficients of  $\left(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)}\right)$  we obtain a set of algebraic equations for  $a_0, a_1, a_2$  and  $c$ , and solving this system we obtain the two sets of solutions as

Case (1)

$$a_0 = -\frac{2\beta(\lambda^2+2\mu)}{\epsilon(1+\delta(\lambda^2-4\mu))}, a_1 = -\frac{12\beta\lambda}{\epsilon(1+\delta(\lambda^2-4\mu))}, a_2 = -\frac{12\beta}{\epsilon(1+\delta(\lambda^2-4\mu))}, \text{ and } c = \frac{-\beta(\lambda^2-4\mu)}{1+\delta(\lambda^2-4\mu)} \tag{3.6}$$

Case (2)

$$a_0 = \frac{12\beta\mu}{\epsilon(-1+\delta(\lambda^2-4\mu))}, a_1 = \frac{12\beta\lambda}{\epsilon(-1+\delta(\lambda^2-4\mu))}, a_2 = \frac{12\beta}{\epsilon(-1+\delta(\lambda^2-4\mu))}, \text{ and } c = \frac{-\beta(\lambda^2-4\mu)}{-1+\delta(\lambda^2-4\mu)} \tag{3.7}$$

By using Eq.(21) , Eq.(20)can written as

$$u(\xi) = -\frac{2\beta(\lambda^2+2\mu)}{\epsilon(1+\delta(\lambda^2-4\mu))} - \frac{12\beta\lambda}{\epsilon(1+\delta(\lambda^2-4\mu))} \left(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)}\right) - \frac{12\beta}{\epsilon(1+\delta(\lambda^2-4\mu))} \left(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)}\right)^2, \tag{3.8}$$

or by using Eq.(3.7),Eq.(3.6)can written as

$$u(\xi) = \frac{12\beta\mu}{\epsilon(-1+\delta(\lambda^2-4\mu))} + \frac{12\beta\lambda}{\epsilon(-1+\delta(\lambda^2-4\mu))} \left(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)}\right) + \frac{12\beta}{\epsilon(-1+\delta(\lambda^2-4\mu))} \left(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)}\right)^2 \tag{3.9}$$

We have three types of travelling wave solutions of the IKdV equation as

The first type: when  $\lambda^2 - 4\mu > 0$ ,

$$u_1(\xi) = \left( \frac{3\beta(4\mu - \lambda^2)}{\epsilon(1 + \delta(\lambda^2 - 4\mu))} \right) \left( \frac{C_1 \sinh\left(\frac{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - 4\mu}}{2}\xi\right) + C_2 \cosh\left(\frac{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - 4\mu}}{2}\xi\right)}{C_1 \cosh\left(\frac{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - 4\mu}}{2}\xi\right) + C_2 \sinh\left(\frac{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - 4\mu}}{2}\xi\right)} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{3}, \quad (3.10)$$

Where  $\xi = x + \frac{\beta(\lambda^2 - 4\mu)}{1 + \delta(\lambda^2 - 4\mu)}t$ , or

$$u_2(\xi) = \left( \frac{3\beta(4\mu - \lambda^2)}{\epsilon(-1 + \delta(\lambda^2 - 4\mu))} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{C_1 \sinh\left(\frac{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - 4\mu}}{2}\xi\right) + C_2 \cosh\left(\frac{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - 4\mu}}{2}\xi\right)}{C_1 \cosh\left(\frac{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - 4\mu}}{2}\xi\right) + C_2 \sinh\left(\frac{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - 4\mu}}{2}\xi\right)} \right)^2 \quad (3.11)$$

Where  $\xi = x + \frac{\beta(\lambda^2 - 4\mu)}{1 - \delta(\lambda^2 - 4\mu)}t$ ,

The second type: when  $\lambda^2 - 4\mu < 0$ ,

$$u_3(\xi) = \left( \frac{-3\beta(4\mu - \lambda^2)}{\epsilon(1 + \delta(\lambda^2 - 4\mu))} \right) \left( \frac{-C_1 \sin\left(\frac{\sqrt{4\mu - \lambda^2}}{2}\xi\right) + C_2 \cos\left(\frac{\sqrt{4\mu - \lambda^2}}{2}\xi\right)}{C_1 \cos\left(\frac{\sqrt{4\mu - \lambda^2}}{2}\xi\right) + C_2 \sin\left(\frac{\sqrt{4\mu - \lambda^2}}{2}\xi\right)} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{3} \quad (3.12)$$

Where  $\xi = x + \frac{\beta(\lambda^2 - 4\mu)}{1 + \delta(\lambda^2 - 4\mu)}t$ , or

$$u_4(\xi) = \left( \frac{3\beta(4\mu - \lambda^2)}{\epsilon(-1 + \delta(\lambda^2 - 4\mu))} \right) \left( \frac{-C_1 \sin\left(\frac{\sqrt{4\mu - \lambda^2}}{2}\xi\right) + C_2 \cos\left(\frac{\sqrt{4\mu - \lambda^2}}{2}\xi\right)}{C_1 \cos\left(\frac{\sqrt{4\mu - \lambda^2}}{2}\xi\right) + C_2 \sin\left(\frac{\sqrt{4\mu - \lambda^2}}{2}\xi\right)} \right)^2 + 1 \quad (3.13)$$

Where  $\xi = x - \frac{\beta(\lambda^2 - 4\mu)}{1 - \delta(\lambda^2 - 4\mu)}t$ ,

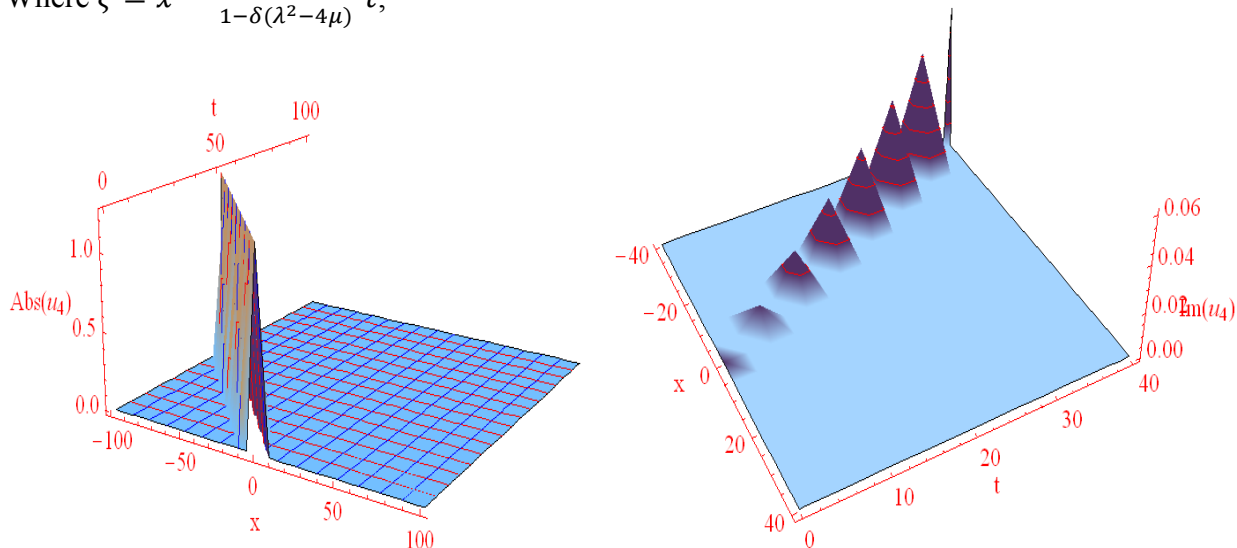


Figure 1 : for IKdV equation where  $C_1 = 2, C_2 = 4, \lambda = 150$ , and  $\mu = 1, \beta = 2, \beta = 1$

The Third type: when  $\lambda^2 - 4\mu = 0$

$$u_5(\xi) = \frac{-12\beta}{\epsilon} \left( \frac{C_2}{C_1 + C_2\xi} \right)^2, \quad \text{Where } \xi = x - \frac{\beta(\lambda^2 - 4\mu)}{1 - \delta(\lambda^2 - 4\mu)}t, \quad (3.14)$$

b) *The two dimension Korteweg de Vries (2D KdV) equation*

Consider the two dimensions Korteweg de Vries in the form, [11]

$$(u_t - \epsilon u u_x + u_{xxx})_x + 3u_{yy} = 0, \tag{3.15}$$

Put  $u(x, t) = u(\xi)$ ,  $\xi = x + \beta y - c t$ , Eq. (3.15) become

$$(3\beta^2 - c)u'' - \epsilon(u u')' + u'''' = 0, \tag{3.16}$$

Integrating the above equation with respect to  $\xi$ , we get

$$(3\beta^2 - c)u - \frac{\epsilon}{2}u^2 + u'' = 0, \tag{3.17}$$

Balancing  $u^2$  with  $u''$  gives  $m = 2$ . thus the solution of Eq. (3.15) can be expressed by

$$u(\xi) = a_0 + a_1 \left(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)}\right) + a_2 \left(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)}\right)^2, \tag{3.18}$$

By solving this system we obtain  $a_0, a_1, a_2$  and  $c$ , we have two sets of solutions as

*Case (1)*

$$a_0 = \frac{12\mu}{\epsilon}, a_1 = \frac{12\lambda}{\epsilon}, a_2 = \frac{12}{\epsilon} \text{ and } c = 3\beta^2 + \lambda^2 - 4\mu \tag{3.19}$$

*Case (2)*

$$a_0 = \frac{2(\lambda^2 + 2\mu)}{\epsilon}, a_1 = \frac{12\lambda}{\epsilon}, a_2 = \frac{12}{\epsilon}, c = 3\beta^2 - \lambda^2 + 4\mu \tag{3.20}$$

By using Eq.(34)and Eq(35),Eq.(33) can written as

$$u_1(\xi) = \frac{12\mu}{\epsilon} + \frac{12\lambda}{\epsilon} \left(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)}\right) + \frac{12}{\epsilon} \left(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)}\right)^2, \text{ or} \tag{3.21}$$

$$u_2(\xi) = \frac{2(\lambda^2 + 2\mu)}{\epsilon} + \frac{12\lambda}{\epsilon} \left(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)}\right) + \frac{12}{\epsilon} \left(\frac{G'(\xi)}{G(\xi)}\right)^2 \tag{3.22}$$

With the knowledge of the solution of Eq.(5) and Eqs.(21-22),we have three types of travelling wave solutions of the Eq.(3.15) as

*The first type:* when  $\lambda^2 - 4\mu > 0$ ,

$$u_1(\xi) = - \frac{3(C_1^2 - C_2^2)(\lambda^2 - 4\mu)}{\epsilon(C_1 \text{Cosh}(\frac{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - 4\mu}}{2}\xi) + C_2 \text{Sinh}(\frac{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - 4\mu}}{2}\xi))^2}, \tag{3.23}$$

Where  $\xi = x + \beta y - (3\beta^2 + \lambda^2 - 4\mu)t$ , or

$$u_2(\xi) = \frac{(\lambda^2 - 4\mu)}{\epsilon} \left(2 - \frac{3(C_1^2 - C_2^2)}{(C_1 \text{Cosh}(\frac{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - 4\mu}}{2}\xi) + C_2 \text{Sinh}(\frac{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - 4\mu}}{2}\xi))^2}\right), \tag{3.24}$$

Where  $\xi = x + \beta y - (3\beta^2 - \lambda^2 + 4\mu)t$

*The second type:* when  $\lambda^2 - 4\mu < 0$

Ref

11. K. R. Raslan. Exact solitary wave solutions of equal width wave and related equations using a direct algebraic method. I.J. N. Science (2008) 6(3):246-254

$$u_3(\xi) = \frac{(\lambda^2 - 4\mu)}{\epsilon} \left( 2 - \frac{3(C_1^2 + C_2^2)}{(C_1 \cos(\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{-\lambda^2 + 4\mu}\xi) + C_2 \sin(\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{-\lambda^2 + 4\mu}\xi))^2} \right), \quad (3.25)$$

Where  $\xi = x + \beta y - (3\beta^2 + \lambda^2 - 4\mu)t$ , or

$$u_4(\xi) = - \frac{3(C_1^2 + C_2^2)(\lambda^2 - 4\mu)}{\epsilon(C_1 \cos(\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{-\lambda^2 + 4\mu}\xi) + C_2 \sin(\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{-\lambda^2 + 4\mu}\xi))^2}, \quad (3.26)$$

Where  $\xi = x + \beta y - (3\beta^2 - \lambda^2 + 4\mu)t$

The Third type: when  $\lambda^2 - 4\mu = 0$ ,

$$u_5(\xi) = \frac{12C_2^2}{\epsilon(C_2 + C_2\xi)^2}, \quad (3.27)$$

Where  $\xi = x + \beta y - 3\beta^2t$ ,

The behavior of the solutions  $u_3(x, t)$  and  $iu_3(x, t)$  for 2DKdV equation are shown in Figure(2)

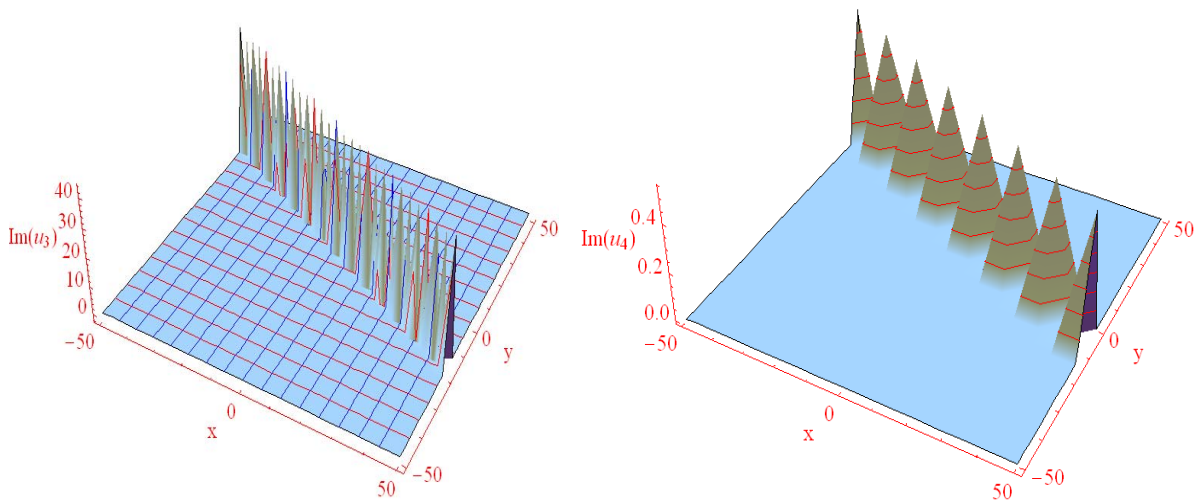


Figure 2:  $C_1 = 2, C_2 = 4, \lambda = 3$ , and  $\mu = 1$

#### IV. CONCLUSION

In this work the  $(\frac{G(\xi)}{G'(\xi)})$ - expansion method was applied successfully for solving some solitary wave equations in one and two dimensions. Two equations which are the IKdV and 2D KdV have been solved exactly. As a result, many exact solutions are obtained which include the hyperbolic functions, trigonometric functions and rational functions. It is worthwhile to mention that the proposed method is reliable and effective and gives more solutions. The method can also be efficiently used to construct new and more exact solutions for some other generalized nonlinear wave equations arising in mathematical physics.

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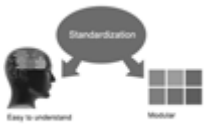
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- Manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate the identical information.
- Never confuse figures with tables - there is a difference.

### Approach

- As forever, use past tense when you submit to your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.
- Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report
- If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results part.

### Figures and tables

- If you put figures and tables at the end of the details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attach appendix materials, such as raw facts
- Despite of position, each figure must be numbered one after the other and complete with subtitle
- In spite of position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other and complete with heading
- All figure and table must be adequately complete that it could situate on its own, divide from text

### Discussion:

The Discussion is expected the trickiest segment to write and describe. A lot of papers submitted for journal are discarded based on problems with the Discussion. There is no head of state for how long a argument should be. Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implication of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and hold up for all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of result should be visibly described. Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved with prospect, and let it drop at that.

- Make a decision if each premise is supported, discarded, or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."
- Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work
- You may propose future guidelines, such as how the experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- Give details all of your remarks as much as possible, focus on mechanisms.
- Make a decision if the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory, and whether or not it was correctly restricted.
- Try to present substitute explanations if sensible alternatives be present.
- One research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind, where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

### Approach:

- When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from available information
- Submit to work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.
- Submit to generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.



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| <i>References</i>             | Complete and correct format, well organized  | Beside the point, Incomplete  | Wrong format and structuring                                       |



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