

LES of Turbulent Flows: Lecture 2

(ME EN 7960-003)

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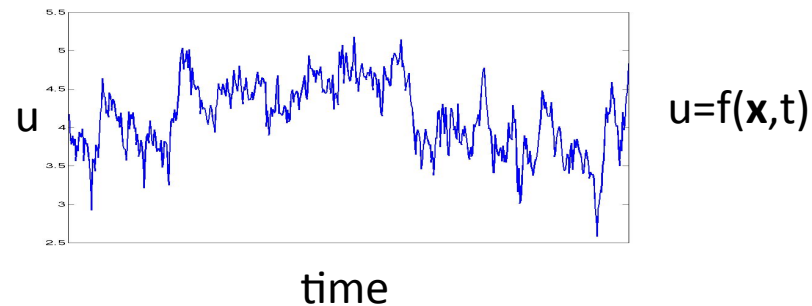
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Turbulent Flow Properties

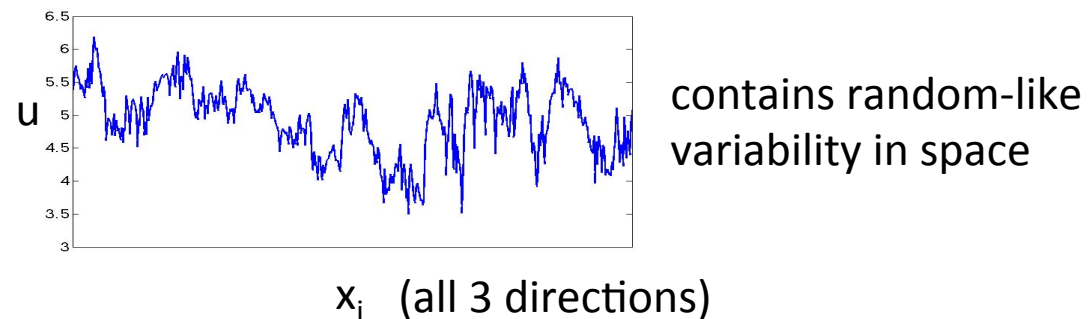
- Review from Previous

Properties of Turbulent Flows:

1. Unsteadiness:



2. 3D:



3. High vorticity:

Vortex stretching ➔ mechanism to increase the intensity of turbulence
 (we can measure the intensity of turbulence with the turbulence intensity $\Rightarrow \frac{\sigma_u}{\langle u \rangle}$)

$$\text{Vorticity: } \boldsymbol{\omega} = \nabla \times \vec{u} \quad \text{or} \quad \omega_k = \epsilon_{ijk} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} u_j \hat{e}_k$$

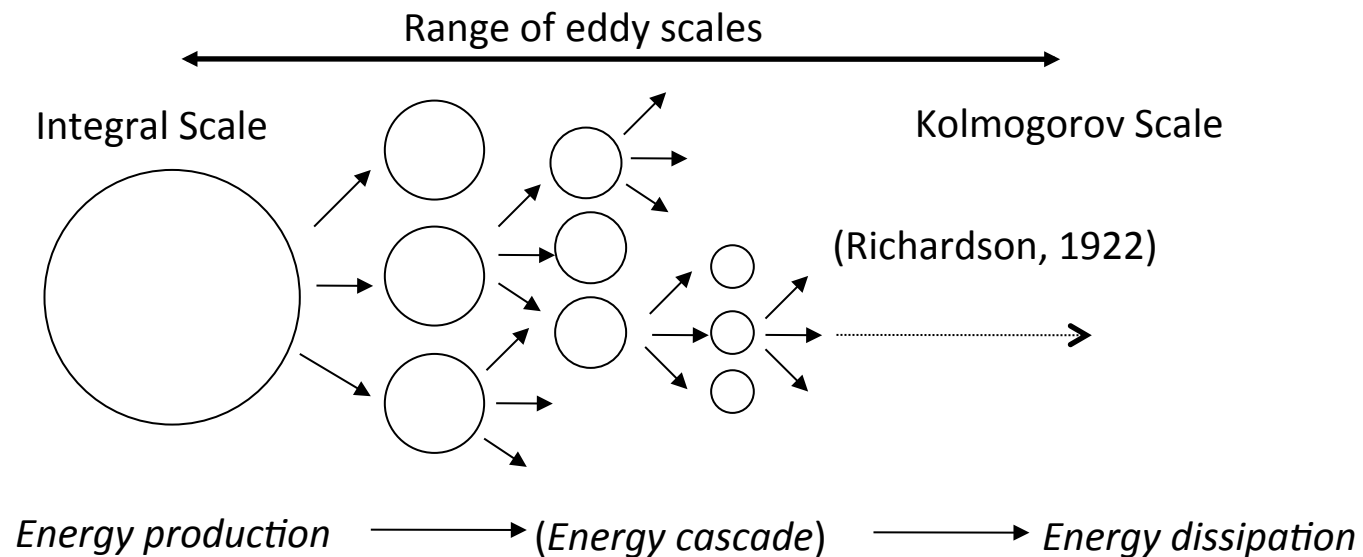
Turbulent Flow Properties (cont.)

Properties of Turbulent Flows:

4. Mixing effect:

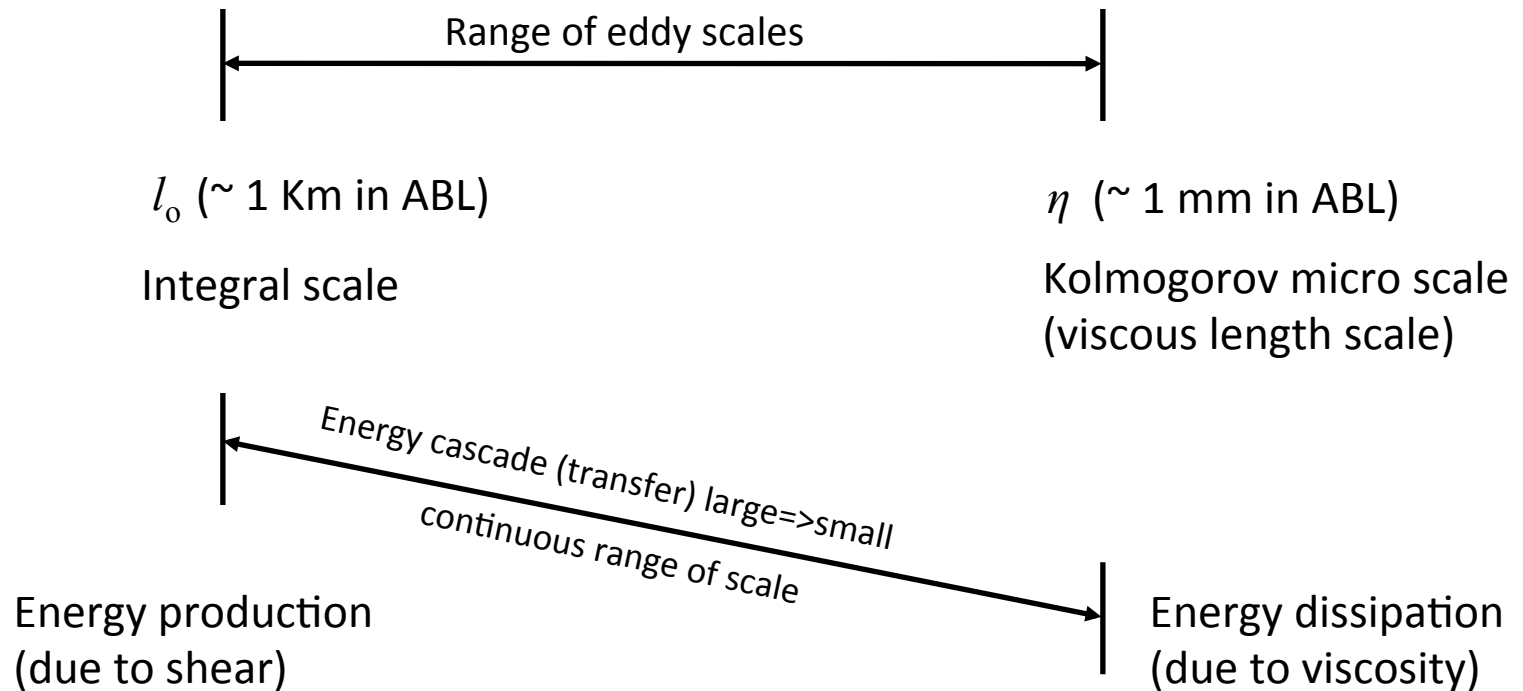
Turbulence mixes quantities with the result that gradients are reduced (e.g. pollutants, chemicals, velocity components, etc.). This lowers the concentration of harmful scalars but increases drag.

5. A continuous spectrum (range) of scales:



Turbulence Scales

- The largest scale is referred to as the Integral scale (l_0). It is on the order of the autocorrelation length.
- In a boundary layer, the integral scale is comparable to the boundary layer height.



Kolmogorov's Similarity hypothesis (1941)

Kolmogorov's 1st Hypothesis:

- smallest scales receive energy at a rate proportional to the dissipation of energy rate.
- motion of the very smallest scales in a flow depend only on:
 - a) rate of energy transfer from small scales: $\epsilon \left[\frac{L^2}{T^3} \right]$
 - b) kinematic viscosity: $\nu \left[\frac{L^2}{T} \right]$

With this he defined the Kolmogorov scales (dissipation scales):

- length scale: $\eta = \left(\frac{\nu^3}{\epsilon} \right)^{\frac{1}{4}}$
- time scale: $\tau = \left(\frac{\nu}{\epsilon} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$
- velocity scale: $v = (\nu\epsilon)^{\frac{1}{4}}$

Re based on the Kolmogorov scales $\Rightarrow \text{Re}=1$

Kolmogorov's Similarity hypothesis (1941)

From our scales we can also form the ratios of the largest to smallest scales in the flow (using ℓ_o , U_o , t_o).

Note: dissipation at large scales $\Rightarrow \epsilon \sim \frac{U_o^3}{\ell_o}$

- length scale:

$$\eta = \left(\frac{\nu^3}{\epsilon}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}} \sim \left(\frac{\nu^3 \ell_o}{U_o^3}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}} \Rightarrow \frac{\eta}{\ell_o^{1/4}} \sim \frac{\nu^{3/4}}{U_o^{3/4}} \Rightarrow \frac{\eta}{\ell_o} \sim \frac{\nu^{3/4}}{U_o^{3/4} \ell_o^{3/4}} \sim Re^{-3/4}$$

- velocity scale:

$$v = (\nu \epsilon)^{\frac{1}{4}} \sim \left(\frac{\nu U_o^3}{\ell_o}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}} \Rightarrow \frac{v}{U_o^{3/4}} \sim \frac{\nu^{1/4}}{\ell_o^{1/4}} \Rightarrow \frac{v}{U_o} \sim Re^{-1/4}$$

- time scale:

$$\tau = \frac{\eta}{v} \Rightarrow \frac{\tau}{t_o} \sim Re^{-1/2}$$

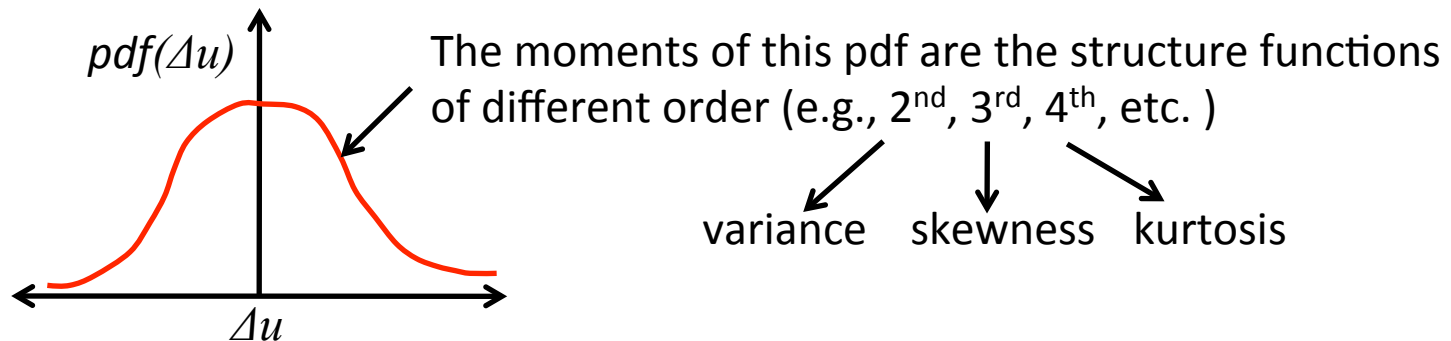
For very high-Re flows (e.g., Atmosphere) we have a range of scales that is small compared to ℓ_o but large compared to η . As Re goes up, η / ℓ_o goes down and we have a larger separation between large and small scales.

Kolmogorov's Similarity hypothesis (1941)

Kolmogorov's 2nd Hypothesis:

In Turbulent flow, a range of scales exists at very high Re where statistics of motion in a range ℓ (for $\ell_o \gg \ell \gg \eta$) have a universal form that is determined only by ϵ (dissipation) and independent of ν (kinematic viscosity).

- Kolmogorov formed his hypothesis and examined it by looking at the pdf of velocity increments Δu .



- What are structure functions ???

Important single point stats for joint variables

- **covariance:**

$$\text{cov}(U_1, U_2) = \langle u_1 u_2 \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (V_1 - \langle U_1 \rangle)(V_2 - \langle U_2 \rangle) f_{12}(V_1, V_2) dV_2 dV_1$$

- Or for discrete data

$$\text{cov}(U_1, U_2) = \langle u_1 u_2 \rangle = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{j=1}^N (V_{1j} - \langle U_1 \rangle)(V_{2j} - \langle U_2 \rangle)$$

- We can also define the correlation coefficient (non dimensional)

$$\rho_{12} = \frac{\langle u_1 u_2 \rangle}{[\langle u_1^2 \rangle \langle u_2^2 \rangle]^{1/2}}$$

- Note that $-1 \leq \rho_{12} \leq 1$ and negative value mean the variables are anti-correlated with positive values indicating a correlation

- **Practically speaking,** we find the PDF of a time (or space) series by:

1. Create a histogram of the series (group values into bins)
2. Normalize the bin weights by the total # of points

Two-point statistical measures

- **autocovariance:** measures how a variable changes (or the correlation) with different lags

$$R(s) \equiv \langle u(t)u(t+s) \rangle$$

- or the autocorrelation function

$$\rho(s) \equiv \langle u(t)u(t+s) \rangle / \langle u(t)^2 \rangle$$

- These are very similar to the covariance and correlation coefficient
- The difference is that we are now looking at the linear correlation of a signal with itself but at two different times (or spatial points), i.e. we lag the series.

- Discrete form of autocorrelation:

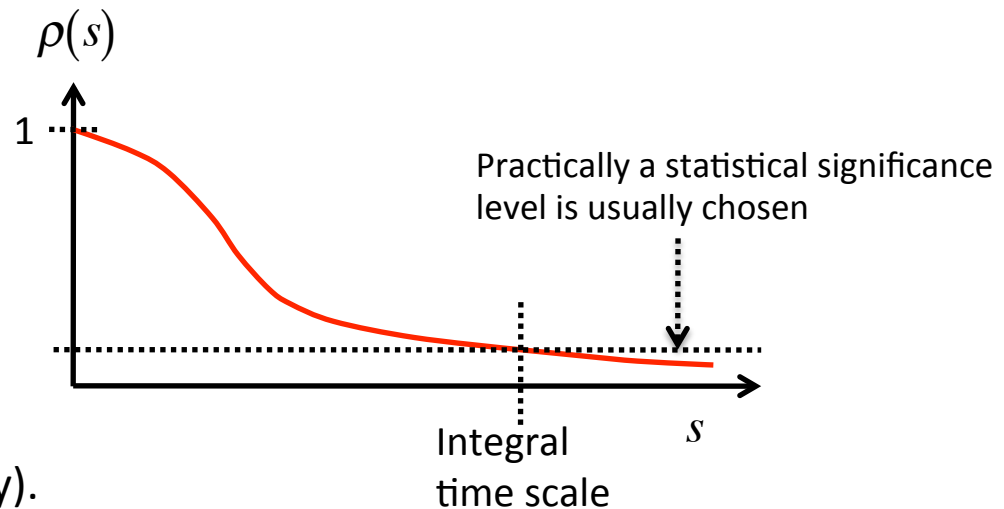
$$\rho(s_j) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{N-j-1} (u_k u_{k+j})}{\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} (u_k^2)}$$

- We could also look at the cross correlations in the same manner (between two different variables with a lag).
- Note that: $\rho(0) = 1$ and $|\rho(s)| \leq 1$

Two-point statistical measures

- In turbulent flows, we expect the correlation to diminish with increasing time (or distance) between points:

- We can use this to define an Integral time scale (or space). It is defined as the time lag where the integral $\int_0^{\infty} \rho(s) ds$ converges. and can be used to define the largest scales of motion (statistically).



- Another important 2 point statistic is the **structure function**:

$$D_n(r) \equiv \left\langle [U_1(x+r, t) - U_1(x, t)]^n \right\rangle$$

This gives us the average difference between two points separated by a distance r raised to a power n . In some sense it is a measure of the moments of the velocity increment PDF. Note the difference between this and the **autocorrelation which is statistical linear correlation** (ie multiplication) of the two points.

Fourier Transforms

Alternatively, we can also look at turbulence in wave (frequency) space:

Fourier Transforms are a common tool in fluid dynamics (see Pope, Appendix D-G, Stull handouts online)

Some uses:

- Analysis of turbulent flow
- Numerical simulations of N-S equations
- Analysis of numerical schemes (modified wavenumbers)
- consider a periodic function $f(x)$ (could also be $f(t)$) on a domain of length 2π
- The Fourier representation of this function (or a general signal) is:

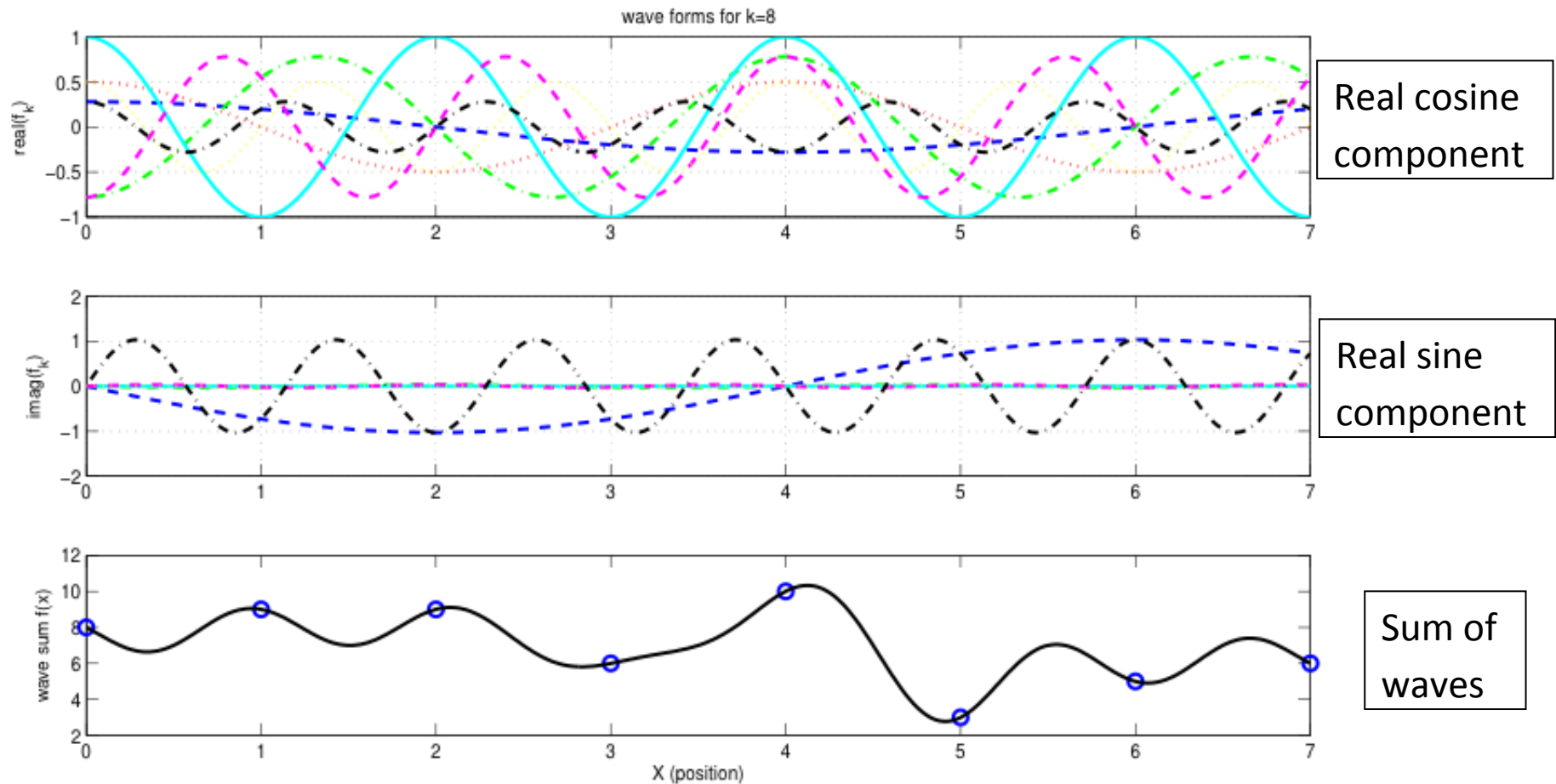
$$f(x) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{k=\infty} \hat{f}_k e^{ikx} \quad *$$

- where k is the wavenumber (frequency if $f(t)$)

- \hat{f}_k are the Fourier coefficients which in general are complex

Fourier Transforms

- Fourier Transform example (from Stull, 88 see example: FourierTransDemo.m)



Fourier Transform Applications

Energy Spectrum: (power spectrum, energy spectral density)

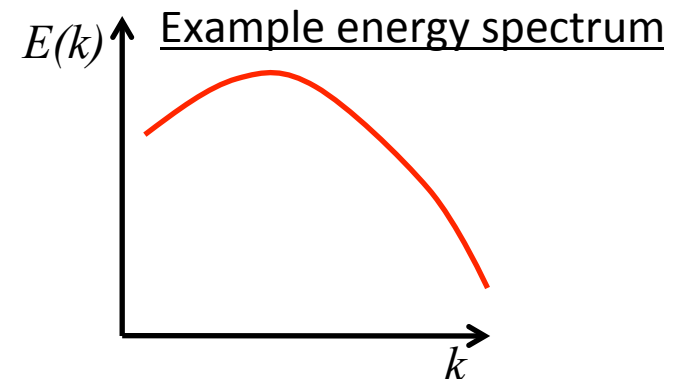
- If we look at specific k values from we can define:

$$E(k) = N |\hat{f}_k|^2$$

where $E(k)$ is the energy spectral density

The square of the Fourier coefficients is the contribution to the variance by fluctuations of scale k (wavenumber or equivalently frequency)

- Typically (when written as) $E(k)$ we mean the contribution to the turbulent kinetic energy (tke) = $\frac{1}{2}(u^2 + v^2 + w^2)$ and we would say that $E(k)$ is the contribution to tke for motions of the scale (or size) k . For a single velocity component in one direction we would write $E_{11}(k_1)$.
- See supplement for more on Fourier Transforms



Kolmogorov's Similarity Hypothesis (1941)

- Another way to look at this (equivalent to structure functions) is to examine what it means for $E(k)$ where $E(k)dk = \text{t.k.e. contained between } k \text{ and } k + dk$
- What are the implications of Kolmogorov's hypothesis for $E(k)$? K41 $\Rightarrow E(k) = f(k, \epsilon)$

By dimensional analysis we can find that: $E(k) = c_k \epsilon^{2/3} k^{-5/3}$

- This expression is valid for the range of length scales ℓ where $\ell_o \gg \ell \gg \eta$ and is usually called the inertial subrange of turbulence.

- graphically:

