

Structure functions (Kolmogorov, 1941b)

2nd-order structure function:

$$D_{ij}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{x}, t) = \overline{[\tilde{u}_i(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{r}, t) - \tilde{u}_i(\mathbf{x}, t)][\tilde{u}_j(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{r}, t) - \tilde{u}_j(\mathbf{x}, t)]},$$

which is a covariance of the velocity difference between $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{r}$ and $\mathbf{x}$.

Local isotropy: For $|\mathbf{r}| \ll \mathcal{L}$, D_{ij} is a function of $\mathbf{r}$ only independent of $\mathbf{x}$. A second-order isotropic tensor can be written $A\delta_{ij} + Br_i r_j$, thus,

$$D_{ij}(\mathbf{r}, t) = D_{NN}(r, t)\delta_{ij} + [D_{LL}(r, t) - D_{NN}(r, t)]\frac{r_i r_j}{r^2},$$

where D_{LL} is the longitudinal structure function, and D_{NN} is the transverse structure function. It can be shown:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial r_i} D_{ij} &= \frac{r_j}{r^2} \left[r \frac{\partial D_{LL}}{\partial r} + 2(D_{LL} - D_{NN}) \right] = 0, \\ D_{NN} &= D_{LL} + \frac{1}{2} r \frac{\partial}{\partial r} D_{LL}.\end{aligned}$$

Thus, in locally isotropic turbulence $D_{ij}(\mathbf{r}, t)$ is determined solely by $D_{LL}(r, t)$.

Structure functions (Kolmogorov, 1941b)–contd.

First similarity: For $|\mathbf{r}| \ll \mathcal{L}$, D_{ij} is uniquely determined by ϵ and ν ,

$$D_{ij}(\mathbf{r}, t) = (\epsilon r)^{2/3} \tilde{D}_{LL} \left(\frac{r}{\eta} \right),$$

where $\tilde{D}_{LL}$ is a dimensionless function (note that $(\epsilon r)^{2/3}$ has the dimension of vel^2).

Second similarity: For $\eta \ll r \ll \mathcal{L}$,

$$\begin{aligned} D_{LL}(r, t) &= c_2 (\epsilon r)^{2/3}, \\ D_{NN} &= \frac{4}{3} D_{LL} = \frac{4}{3} c_2 (\epsilon r)^{2/3}, \\ D_{ij}(\mathbf{r}, t) &= c_2 (\epsilon r)^{2/3} \left(\frac{4}{3} \delta_{ij} - \frac{1}{3} \frac{r_i r_j}{r^2} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, D_{ij} can be determined by ϵ and c_2 .

Structure functions (Kolmogorov, 1941b)–contd.

Saddoughi & Veeravalli (1994): NASA Ames 80×120 wind tunnel,
 $Re_\delta \sim 3.6 \times 10^6$, $\eta = 0.09$ mm, $\mathcal{L}/\eta \approx \delta/\eta \sim 12,000$.

$$\frac{D_{11}}{(\epsilon)^{2/3}} = c_2 \sim 2.0$$
$$\frac{D_{22}}{(\epsilon)^{2/3}} = \frac{4}{3}c_2?$$

The measured value was within ± 15 % of $\frac{4}{3}c_2$.

Karman-Howarth equation

The Kolmogorov hypotheses have no direct connection to the Navier-Stokes equations. It is natural to try to extract useful information about the energy cascade from the Navier-Stokes equations. Karman-Howarth equation is an attempt through two-point correlations.

Consider

$$R_{ij}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \overline{u_i(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{r}, t) u_j(\mathbf{x}, t)}.$$

Note that due to homogeneity, R_{ij} is independent of $\mathbf{x}$!. Also note that

$$R_{ij}(0, t) = \overline{u_i u_j} = \overline{u^2} \delta_{ij}.$$

For homogeneous isotropic turbulence,

$$R_{ij}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \overline{u^2} \left[g(r, t) \delta_{ij} + \{f(r, t) - g(r, t)\} \frac{r_i r_j}{r^2} \right],$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} f(r, t) &= \frac{\overline{u_1(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{e}_1 r, t) u_1(\mathbf{x}, t)}}{\overline{u_1^2}} \\ g(r, t) &= \frac{\overline{u_2(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{e}_1 r, t) u_2(\mathbf{x}, t)}}{\overline{u_2^2}}, \end{aligned}$$

where $f(r, t)$ is the longitudinal auto-correlation and $g(r, t)$ is the transverse (or lateral) auto-correlation.

Karman-Howarth equation–contd.

Note:

$$\begin{aligned}R_{11} &= \overline{u^2}f, \\R_{22} &= \overline{u^2}g = R_{33}, \\R_{ij} &= 0 \quad \text{for } i \neq j.\end{aligned}$$

From the continuity equation, $\frac{\partial}{\partial r_j} R_{ij} = 0$, which yields,

$$g(r, t) = f(r, t) + \frac{1}{2}r \frac{\partial f(r, t)}{\partial r}.$$

Thus, $R_{ij}(\mathbf{r}, t)$ is a function of $f(r, t)$ only.

Karman-Howarth equation–digression.

Integral scales:

$$\begin{aligned}L_{11} &= L_f = \int_0^\infty f(r)dr, \\L_{22} &= L_g = \int_0^\infty g(r)dr = \frac{1}{2}L_{11}.\end{aligned}$$

Taylor micro scales:

$$\begin{aligned}f(r) &= 1 + \frac{1}{2}f''(0)r^2 + \dots \\&= 1 - \left(\frac{r}{\lambda_f}\right)^2.\end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\lambda_f = \left[-\frac{1}{2}f''(0)\right]^{-1/2},$$

and similarly

$$\lambda_g = \left[-\frac{1}{2}g''(0)\right]^{-1/2} = \frac{\lambda_f}{\sqrt{2}}.$$

Karman-Howarth equation–digression.

Taylor micro scale and velocity-gradient estimation:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} \overline{u^2} f(r, t) &= \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} \overline{u_1(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{e}_1 r, t) u_1(\mathbf{x}, t)} \\ &= \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \overline{\left(\frac{\partial^2 u_1}{\partial x_1^2} \right) u_1} \\ &= \overline{\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \left(u_1 \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} \right) - \left(\frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} \right)^2} \\ &= -\overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} \right)^2}.\end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\overline{u^2} f''(0, t) = -\overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} \right)^2},$$

or

$$\overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} \right)^2} = \frac{2\overline{u^2}}{\lambda_f^2} = \frac{\overline{u^2}}{\lambda_g^2}.$$

Karman-Howarth equation–digression.

Note that the estimate of the velocity gradient should be done using the Taylor micro scale.

Recall for isotropic flows,

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon &= 2\nu \overline{s_{ij}s_{ij}} \\ &= \nu \overline{\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j}} \\ &= 15\nu \overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1}\right)^2} \\ &= 15\nu \frac{\overline{u_1^2}}{\lambda_g^2}.\end{aligned}$$

Taylor's blunder: λ_g is, roughly, a measure of the diameter of the smallest eddies responsible for dissipation.

The above statement is wrong since $\sqrt{\overline{u_1^2}}$ is NOT the characteristic velocity scale of the smallest eddies.

Karman-Howarth equation–digression.

Some comments on Taylor micro scale:

Let $L = k^{3/2}/\epsilon$ be the length scale of energy containing eddies, and

$$Re_L = \frac{k^{1/2}L}{\nu} = \frac{k^2}{\epsilon\nu}.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\lambda_g}{L} &= \frac{\left(15\frac{\nu}{\epsilon}\frac{2k}{3}\right)^{1/2}}{L} = \sqrt{10}Re_L^{-1/2} \\ \frac{\eta}{L} &= Re_L^{-3/4} \\ \frac{\eta}{\lambda_g} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}}Re_L^{-1/4}.\end{aligned}$$

Obviously $\eta < \lambda_g < L$. Although λ_g is mathematically well defined, it does not have a clear physical interpretation.

Karman-Howarth Equation

For homogeneous isotropic flows,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial t} R_{ij}(\mathbf{r}, t) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \overline{u_i(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{r}, t) u_j(\mathbf{x}, t)} \\ &= \overline{u_j(\mathbf{x}, t) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} u_i(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{r}, t)} + \overline{u_i(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{r}, t) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} u_j(\mathbf{x}, t)}.\end{aligned}$$

Use the Navier-Stokes equations to express $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} u_i(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{r}, t)$ and $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} u_j(\mathbf{x}, t)$ to get

K-H Equation:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\overline{u^2} f) - \frac{\overline{u^3}}{r^4} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r^4 \overline{k}) = 2\nu \frac{\overline{u^2}}{r^4} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r^4 \frac{\partial f}{\partial r} \right),$$

where

$$\overline{k}(r, t) = \frac{\overline{u_1^2(\mathbf{x}, t) u_1(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{e}_1 r, t)}}{(\sqrt{\overline{u^2}})^3}$$

is the longitudinal triple correlation.

Karman-Howarth Equation–contd.

Note:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{r \rightarrow 0} f(r) &= 1, \\ \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \bar{k}(r) &= 0, \\ \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{r^4} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r^4 \frac{\partial f}{\partial r} \right) &= 5f''(0).\end{aligned}$$

Substituting into the K-H equation,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dt} \overline{u^2} &= 10\nu \overline{u^2} f''(0) \\ &= -10\nu \frac{\overline{u^2}}{\lambda_g^2} \\ \frac{d}{dt} \frac{3}{2} \overline{u^2} &= -15\nu \frac{\overline{u^2}}{\lambda_g^2} \\ \frac{dk}{dt} &= -\epsilon,\end{aligned}$$

i.e., we recover the kinetic energy equation for homogeneous isotropic flows.

Karman-Howarth Equation—contd.

Note:

- The transfer of energy to small scales is accomplished by $\bar{k}$.
- If $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}, t)$ were a Gaussian, field, $\bar{k} = 0$ since all 3rd order moments of a Gaussian field is zero. Thus, the energy cascade depends on non-Gaussian aspects of the velocity field.
- Recall

$$\begin{aligned} R(r, t) &= \frac{1}{2} \overline{u_k(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{e}_1 r, t) u_k(\mathbf{x}, t)} = \frac{1}{2} \overline{u^2} R_{kk}(r, t) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \overline{u^2} \left(3g + \frac{f - g}{r^2} r_k r_k \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \overline{u^2} \left(3f + r \frac{\partial f}{\partial r} \right), \\ E(\kappa, t) &= \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty R(r, t) \kappa r \sin \kappa r \, dr. \end{aligned}$$

- For a given model for $\bar{k}(r, t)$, solve for $f(r, t)$ from the K-H equation, and then compute the evolution of $R(r, t)$ and $E(\kappa, t)$.
- However, this still does not give a clear picture of the energy cascade. We will directly examine $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} E(\kappa, t)$.

Evolution of the Energy Spectrum

For homogeneous turbulence (see Hinze, 1975),

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} E(\kappa, t) = P(\kappa, t) - \frac{\partial}{\partial \kappa} T(\kappa, t) - 2\nu\kappa^2 E(\kappa, t).$$

- $P(k, t)$: production spectrum
 - $P_{(\kappa_a, \kappa_b)} = \int_{\kappa_a}^{\kappa_b} P(\kappa, t) d\kappa$, contribution to the production from wave numbers (κ_a, κ_b)
 - $P = P_{(0, \infty)} \approx P_{(0, \kappa_{EI})}$, and $P_{(\kappa_{EI}, \infty)} / P \ll 1$.
- $T(\kappa, t)$: spectral energy transfer rate, which is the net rate at which energy is transferred from wave numbers lower than κ to larger than κ
 - $\int_{\kappa_a}^{\kappa_b} -\frac{\partial}{\partial \kappa} T(\kappa, t) d\kappa = T(\kappa_a) - T(\kappa_b)$
 - $\int_0^\infty -\frac{\partial}{\partial \kappa} T(\kappa, t) d\kappa = 0$ since $T(0) = 0$ and $T(\infty) = 0$.
- $D(\kappa, t) = 2\nu\kappa^2 E(\kappa, t)$: dissipation spectrum, where $\epsilon = \int_0^\infty D(\kappa, t) d\kappa$.

Cascade time scale:

The speed at which the energy travels through the cascade,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d\kappa}{dt} &= \frac{T_{EI}}{E(\kappa)} \\ &= \frac{\epsilon}{c\epsilon^{2/3}\kappa^{-5/3}} \\ &= \frac{\kappa^{5/3}\epsilon^{1/3}}{c}.\end{aligned}$$

Thus, $c\epsilon^{-1/3}\kappa^{-5/3}d\kappa = dt$. The time it takes from κ_a to κ_b ,

$$\begin{aligned}t_{(\kappa_a, \kappa_b)} &= \frac{3}{2}c\epsilon^{-1/3} \left(\kappa_a^{-2/3} - \kappa_b^{-2/3} \right) \\ &= \frac{3}{2}c\tau \left[(\kappa_a L)^{-2/3} - (\kappa_b L)^{-2/3} \right],\end{aligned}$$

where $\tau = L/k^{1/2} = k/\epsilon$ is the eddy turn over time for energy containing eddies .

From the time an eddy entering into the inertial range to the final dissipation,

$$t_{(\kappa_{EI}, \infty)} = \tau \frac{3}{2} c \left[(\kappa_{EI} L)^{-2/3} - (\kappa_{\infty} L)^{-2/3} \right].$$

Note that the second term on the rhs is zero, and

$$\kappa_{EI} = \frac{2\pi}{\ell_{EI}} = \frac{2\pi}{\frac{1}{6} L_{11}} = \frac{2\pi}{\frac{1}{6} 0.4 L}.$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} t_{(\kappa_{EI}, \infty)} &= \frac{3}{2} 1.5 (30\pi)^{-2/3} \tau \\ &\sim \frac{1}{10} \tau. \end{aligned}$$

In other words, the life time of energy once it enters the inertial subrange is just a tenth of its total life time, $\tau = k/\epsilon$.