

STRESS TRANSPORT MODELLING – 1

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Introduction – 1

- Both linear and non-linear EVM's use *algebraic* relations for the stresses.
- This means the stresses respond instantly to changes in the mean strain, and leads to a direct link between the stress anisotropy and mean strains. If mean velocity gradients vanish at some point in the flow, even a NLEVM will return isotropic turbulence at that position.
- Physically, the individual stresses get generated, convected, diffused and dissipated at different rates. We now, therefore, explore a modelling strategy that takes account of this.
- One can construct an exact transport equation for each stress component $\overline{u_i u_j}$, by manipulating the equations for the fluctuating velocities u_i and u_j . The result does contain unknown products – which have to be modelled – but the modelling is now at a more fundamental level than the approach of obtaining an effective turbulent viscosity.

Introduction – 2

- An important aspect of stress transport modelling is that the generation terms are represented exactly.
- In this first lecture we will:
 - Examine the stress transport equations, and identify some of the physical features built into them.
 - Describe simple models that can be used to close the set of equations.
- In a second lecture we will look at more methods of devising more advanced stress transport models.

Stress Transport Equations – 1

- To obtain a transport equation for $\overline{u_i u_j}$, the equation for u_j is multiplied by u_i and averaged:

$$\overline{u_i \left[\frac{\partial u_j}{\partial t} + U_k \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_k} = \dots \right]}$$

- Adding this to the equation for u_i multiplied by u_j (also averaged), results in an equation which begins

$$\overline{u_i \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial t}} + \overline{u_j \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial t}} + U_k \left[\overline{u_i \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_k}} + \overline{u_j \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_k}} \right] = \dots$$

or

$$\frac{\partial \overline{u_i u_j}}{\partial t} + U_k \frac{\partial \overline{u_i u_j}}{\partial x_k} \equiv \frac{D \overline{u_i u_j}}{Dt} = \dots$$

Stress Transport Equations – 2

- After some manipulation, the stress transport equation becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{D\overline{u_i u_j}}{Dt} = & - \left(\overline{u_i u_k} \frac{\partial U_j}{\partial x_k} + \overline{u_j u_k} \frac{\partial U_i}{\partial x_k} \right) - 2\nu \overline{\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_k} \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_k}} \\ & + \overline{\frac{p}{\rho} \left(\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} \right)} \\ & - \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left[\overline{u_i u_j u_k} + \overline{p u_i} / \rho \delta_{jk} + \overline{p u_j} / \rho \delta_{ik} - \nu \frac{\partial \overline{u_i u_j}}{\partial x_k} \right] \end{aligned}$$

which is often written in shorthand notation

$$\frac{D\overline{u_i u_j}}{Dt} = P_{ij} - \varepsilon_{ij} + \phi_{ij} + d_{ij}$$

Stress Transport Equations – 3

- There are similarities with the turbulent kinetic energy equation:
 - P_{ij} is the generation rate of the turbulent stress by mean shear.
 - ε_{ij} is the viscous dissipation rate of the stress component.
 - d_{ij} is the diffusion rate of the turbulent stress by turbulent and viscous action.
- For practical computations, models are needed for ϕ_{ij} , ε_{ij} and d_{ij} . However, the important generation terms do not require modelling.
- One difference between the turbulent kinetic energy and stress equations is that the k transport equation has no equivalent of the process ϕ_{ij} .
- If we sum the equations for the normal stresses (set $i = j$) we produce an equation for (twice) the turbulence energy ($D\overline{u_i u_i}/Dt \equiv 2 Dk/Dt$).

Stress Transport Equations – 4

- For ϕ_{ij} we get:

$$\phi_{ii} = \overline{\frac{p}{\rho} \left(\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_i} \right)} = 0 \quad (\text{by continuity})$$

- This process – called the “pressure-strain” or “pressure-scrambling” term – thus makes no *direct* contribution to the level of turbulence energy.
- However, ϕ_{ij} does act to redistribute turbulence energy from one stress component to another.
- As a vast generalization, if the normal stress in one direction is less than in the other directions, it will receive energy through ϕ_{ij} .
- The process ϕ_{ij} is thus often thought of as tending to return the turbulence towards an isotropic state.

The Production Tensor

- The production terms are exact, in that they only contain Reynolds stresses and mean strains, and therefore do not require further modelling:

$$P_{ij} = - \left(\overline{u_i u_k} \frac{\partial U_j}{\partial x_k} + \overline{u_j u_k} \frac{\partial U_i}{\partial x_k} \right)$$

- Before considering the modelling of other terms, we first examine how these generation rates behave in a few example flows.

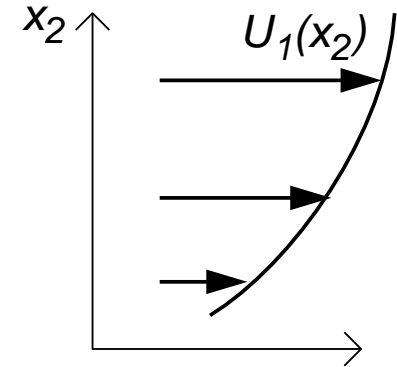
Simple Shear Flow

- In a simple shear flow, with $U_1(x_2)$, $U_2 = U_3 = 0$,

$$P_{11} = -2 \overline{u_1 u_2} \frac{\partial U_1}{\partial x_2}$$

$$P_{22} = P_{33} = 0$$

$$P_{12} = -\overline{u_2^2} \frac{\partial U_1}{\partial x_2}$$



- This shows why:

- $\overline{u_1 u_2}$ is (usually) of the opposite sign to $\partial U_1 / \partial x_2$: its generation term is of the opposite sign.
- The streamwise normal stress is typically larger than the others: only $\overline{u_1^2}$ is generated directly by P_{ij} , and the pressure-strain ϕ_{ij} then acts to 'redistribute' some of this energy into $\overline{u_2^2}$ and $\overline{u_3^2}$.
- Free flows spread more rapidly than near-wall flows: $\overline{u_2^2} / k$ is larger in free flows than in near-wall flows, leading to higher levels of shear stress generation.

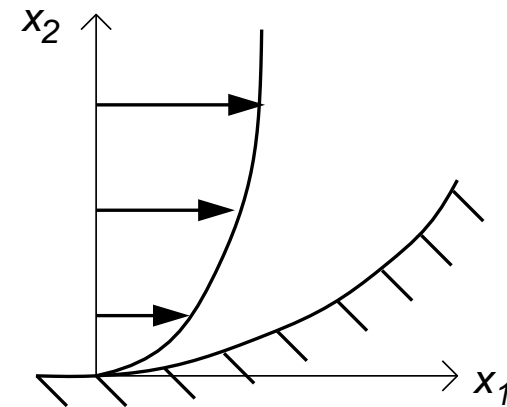
Generation Rates on Curved Surfaces – 1

- It is known that even weak surface curvature can have a strong effect on turbulence levels. The reasons for this can be seen from the generation terms.
- In addition to the primary shear $\partial U_1 / \partial x_2$, there is now a shear associated with curvature $\partial U_2 / \partial x_1$. This results in

$$P_{12} = -\overline{u_2^2} \frac{\partial U_1}{\partial x_2} - \overline{u_1^2} \frac{\partial U_2}{\partial x_1}$$

and

$$P_{22} = -\overline{u_1 u_2} \frac{\partial U_2}{\partial x_1}$$



- For the concave wall shown, $\partial U_1 / \partial x_2 > 0$, and $\partial U_2 / \partial x_1 > 0$.
- Both terms in P_{12} are thus of the same sign. As noted earlier, $\overline{u_1^2}$ is significantly larger than $\overline{u_2^2}$ (particularly in the viscosity affected sublayer).

Generation Rates on Curved Surfaces – 2

- Thus, although $\partial U_2/\partial x_1$ is much smaller than $\partial U_1/\partial x_2$, the difference in magnitude of the associated normal stresses means that the second term in P_{12} is not negligible when compared to the first.
- In addition, the generation term in the $\overline{u_2^2}$ equation is positive (since $\overline{u_1 u_2}$ is negative), helping to further increase P_{12} .
- The shear stress production is thus augmented partly by the secondary strain term in P_{12} and partly because the curvature enhances $\overline{u_2^2}$.
- Since stress transport models represent P_{ij} exactly, they should (at least qualitatively) capture this effect.
- In contrast, a linear eddy-viscosity model takes

$$-\overline{u_1 u_2} = \nu_t \left(\frac{\partial U_1}{\partial x_2} + \frac{\partial U_2}{\partial x_1} \right)$$

and since the secondary strain is much smaller than the primary, its effect in this case is negligible.

Modelling the Stress Transport Equations

- Although generation terms are treated exactly, models are needed for the dissipation (ε_{ij}), diffusion (d_{ij}) and pressure-strain correlation (ϕ_{ij}).
- There are a number of properties which the model equations should ideally have:
 - The correct tensorial form: they should have the same symmetries and contraction properties that the exact processes do.
 - Coordinate invariance: they should be independent of the frame of reference – including accelerating frames.
 - Realizability: models should not predict physically impossible values such as negative normal stresses.
 - Consistency with physical wall/surface limits.
 - Geometry independence: models should not be dependent on details of the specific geometry being studied.
- Models described in this lecture satisfy the first two conditions.

Dissipation, ε_{ij}

- Dissipative processes arise from the smallest scale eddies:

$$\varepsilon_{ij} = 2\nu \overline{\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_k} \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_k}}$$

- Turbulence energy gets cascaded from larger eddies to smaller ones.
- If there is a wide enough range of scales, one can argue that the smallest eddies will be (almost) isotropic – local isotropy.
- Hence, at high Reynolds numbers, the dissipative terms are often assumed to be isotropic:

$$\varepsilon_{ij} = 2/3\varepsilon\delta_{ij}$$

– an equal effect on all normal stresses, and none on the shear stress.

- The turbulence energy dissipation rate ε is obtained from its own transport equation, similar to that used in a k - ε scheme.

Diffusion, d_{ij}

- From the exact expression, the diffusion can be seen to be due to triple moments, pressure-velocity correlations and viscous effects:

$$d_{ij} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left(\overline{u_i u_j u_k} + \overline{p u_j} / \rho \delta_{ik} + \overline{p u_i} / \rho \delta_{jk} - \nu \frac{\partial \overline{u_i u_j}}{\partial x_k} \right)$$

- Pressure-diffusion is usually negligible, except very close to a wall or surface.
- The generalized gradient diffusion hypothesis (Daly & Harlow 1970) is often employed:

$$\overline{u_k \phi} \propto -\frac{k}{\varepsilon} \overline{u_k u_l} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x_l}$$

for some quantity ϕ .

- Applying this to the triple moments gives

$$d_{ij} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left(c_s \frac{k}{\varepsilon} \overline{u_k u_l} \frac{\partial \overline{u_i u_j}}{\partial x_l} \right)$$

Pressure-Strain, ϕ_{ij} – 1

- As already seen, ϕ_{ij} is redistributive: it has no direct influence on levels of turbulence energy.

$$\phi_{ij} = \overline{\frac{p}{\rho} \left(\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} \right)}$$

- One can obtain and solve a Poisson equation for p , and thus arrive at an expression for ϕ_{ij} :

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_{ij} = & -\frac{1}{4\pi} \int_V \left(\frac{\partial^3 \overline{u'_l u'_k u_i}}{\partial r_l \partial r_k \partial r_j} + \frac{\partial^3 \overline{u'_l u'_k u_j}}{\partial r_l \partial r_k \partial r_i} \right) \frac{dV}{|r|} \\ & - \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_V \frac{\partial U'_k}{\partial r_l} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \overline{u'_l u_i}}{\partial r_k \partial r_j} + \frac{\partial^2 \overline{u'_l u_j}}{\partial r_k \partial r_i} \right) \frac{dV}{|r|} \end{aligned}$$

- In buoyant flows there is a third part to ϕ_{ij} , involving the fluctuating buoyant forces.

Pressure-Strain, ϕ_{ij} – 2

- One thus expects to have contributions to ϕ_{ij} from turbulence-turbulence interactions and from mean strains (and from buoyancy terms in buoyant flows). Hence ϕ_{ij} is often modelled as

$$\phi_{ij} = \phi_{ij1} + \phi_{ij2} (+\phi_{ij3})$$

- In a simple shear flow ϕ_{ij} acts to reduce the anisotropy of the stresses – by redistributing energy from the streamwise component into the other two normal stresses.
- If one generates an initially anisotropic turbulence, it will return towards isotropy once the external strains have been removed. This must be due to ϕ_{ij1} , the “slow pressure-strain”, or “return to isotropy”, term.

Pressure-Strain Modelling – 1

- A simple linear model for the turbulence-turbulence interactions is thus (Rotta 1951):

$$\phi_{ij1} = -c_1 \varepsilon a_{ij}$$

where $a_{ij} = \overline{u_i u_j} / k - 2/3 \delta_{ij}$.

- This redistributes energy to reduce the anisotropy of the stresses.
- ϕ_{ij2} has a similar effect of tending to reduce the anisotropy (at least in simple shear flow).
- A simple (and widely used) model for the “rapid” pressure strain term is

$$\phi_{ij2} = -c_2 (P_{ij} - 1/3 P_{kk} \delta_{ij})$$

(Naot et al 1970, Launder et al 1975).

- This acts to redistribute the generation rates to reduce anisotropy. (“Isotropization of Production” or IP model)

Pressure-Strain Modelling – 2

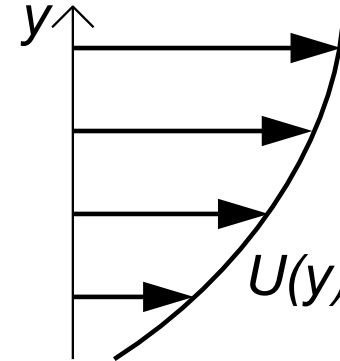
- In a simple shear, where only P_{11} and P_{12} are non-zero, this gives

$$\phi_{112} = -c_1 \varepsilon a_{11} - 2/3 c_2 P_{11}$$

$$\phi_{222} = -c_1 \varepsilon a_{22} + 1/3 c_2 P_{11}$$

$$\phi_{332} = -c_1 \varepsilon a_{33} + 1/3 c_2 P_{11}$$

$$\phi_{122} = -c_1 \varepsilon a_{12} - c_2 P_{12}$$



- ϕ_{ij2} acts as a sink for $\overline{u_1^2}$ and $\overline{u_1 u_2}$, but a source for $\overline{u_2^2}$ and $\overline{u_3^2}$.
- Since $\overline{u_1^2}$ will be larger than $\overline{u_2^2}$ and $\overline{u_3^2}$, ϕ_{ij1} will also act to reduce $\overline{u_1^2}$ and increase the other two normal stresses. It will also act as a sink for $\overline{u_1 u_2}$.

Accounting for Wall-Reflection Effects – 1

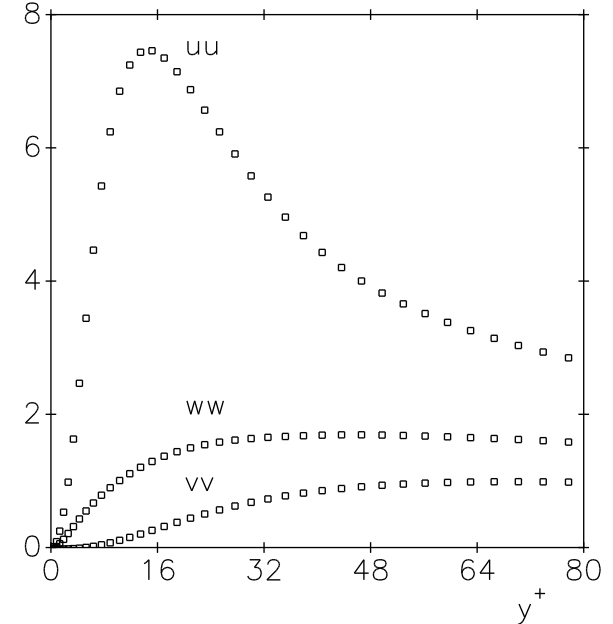
- In a simple shear flow with velocity gradient dU_1/dx_2 , the model described so far gives identical values for $\overline{u_2^2}$ and $\overline{u_3^2}$.
- This is *not* what is found experimentally, even in free flows: in near-wall flows even larger anisotropy is expected.
- Typical stress anisotropy levels:

	$\overline{u_1^2}/k$	$\overline{u_2^2}/k$	$\overline{u_3^2}/k$	$\overline{u_1 u_2}/k$
Free shear	0.95	0.47	0.55	0.32
Near-wall flow	1.20	0.25	0.55	0.25

- Equal values for $\overline{u_2^2}$ and $\overline{u_3^2}$ would imply significant errors near a wall.

Accounting for Wall-Reflection Effects – 2

- One of the effects of the wall (or surface) is to impede the energy transfer into the stress component normal to the wall.
- Pressure fluctuations get reflected from walls or surfaces, and this leads to a damping of the velocity fluctuations normal to the surface.
- This also leads to a reduction of the shear stress.
- Additional terms are often included in ϕ_{ij} to account for these effects.



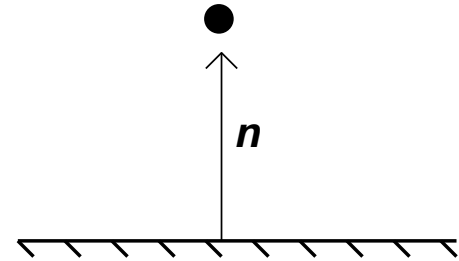
Wall-Reflection Modelling – 1

- The wall damping effect is often modelled by employing the turbulence lengthscale to control the strength of the wall corrections.

- The quantity f_y defined by

$$f_y = \frac{k^{3/2} / \varepsilon}{2.5x_p n_p}$$

where n is the unit vector normal to the wall, is typically close to unity near the wall, but decreases as one moves away from the wall.



- Note, however, that this can be difficult to apply in computing complicated geometries.

Wall-Reflection Modelling – 2

- A widely-used wall correction to ϕ_{ij1} (Shir 1973) can be written:

$$\phi_{ij1}^w = c_{1w} \frac{\varepsilon}{k} (\overline{u_k u_l} n_l n_k \delta_{ij} - 3/2 \overline{u_i u_k} n_j n_k - 3/2 \overline{u_j u_k} n_i n_k) f_y$$

where c_{1w} is typically taken as 0.5.

- For a single wall with $n_1 = n_3 = 0$, $n_2 = 1$ this gives:

$$\phi_{111}^w = \phi_{331}^w = c_{1w} \frac{\varepsilon}{k} \overline{u_2^2} f_y$$

$$\phi_{221}^w = -2 c_{1w} \frac{\varepsilon}{k} \overline{u_2^2} f_y$$

$$\phi_{121}^w = -3/2 c_{1w} \frac{\varepsilon}{k} \overline{u_1 u_2} f_y$$

- The model thus acts to impede the transfer of energy into $\overline{u_2^2}$ as the wall is approached.

Wall-Reflection Modelling – 3

- Corrections are usually also applied to ϕ_{ij2} . The Gibson-Lauder (1978) model for ϕ_{ij2}^w can be written:

$$\phi_{ij2}^w = c_{2w} (\phi_{kl2} n_k n_l \delta_{ij} - 3/2 \phi_{ik2} n_j n_k - 3/2 \phi_{jk2} n_i n_k) f_y$$

- This acts to oppose the ϕ_{ij2} redistribution process. For $n = (0, 1, 0)$,

$$\phi_{112}^w = \phi_{332}^w = c_{2w} \phi_{222} f_y$$

$$\phi_{222}^w = -2 c_{2w} \phi_{222} f_y$$

$$\phi_{122}^w = -3/2 c_{2w} \phi_{122} f_y$$

- But in an impinging flow (where, because of the different strain rates, energy is generated in the component normal to the wall), this has the effect of *increasing* the stress component normal to the wall!

Wall-Reflection Modelling – 4

- An alternative model for ϕ_{ij2}^w , proposed by Craft & Launder (1992), has the desired effect of damping the wall-normal stress component in both wall-parallel and impinging flows:

$$\begin{aligned}\phi_{ij2}^w = & -0.08 \frac{\partial U_l}{\partial x_k} \overline{u_l u_k} (\delta_{ij} n_t n_t - 3n_i n_j) f_y \\ & - 0.1 k a_{lm} \left(\frac{\partial U_k}{\partial x_m} n_l n_k \delta_{ij} - 3/2 \frac{\partial U_i}{\partial x_m} n_l n_j - 3/2 \frac{\partial U_j}{\partial x_m} n_l n_i \right) f_y \\ & + 0.4 k \frac{\partial U_k}{\partial x_l} n_l n_k (n_i n_j - 1/3 n_t n_t \delta_{ij}) f_y\end{aligned}$$

Summary

- In this first lecture on stress transport modeling, we have covered:
 - Where the stress transport equations come from.
 - The physical processes that appear in the equations.
 - Some simple modelling ideas to close the equations.
- In the next lecture we will look at routes to devise more advanced models: in particular the idea of realizability and the development of two-component-limit models.

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