

Convective Heat and Mass Transfer
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Module No. # 01
Lecture No. # 22B
Sustaining Mechanism of Turbulence-I

To continue our discussion of spatial correlation coefficient, recall that I said these nine correlation coefficients are difficult to measure in a real non-homogeneous non-isotropic turbulence. It is usually measured in only one direction, say R_{11} .

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Spatial Correlation - 3 - L22(13/20)

- In **homogeneous turbulence**, all statistical correlations $\overline{\phi_1 \phi_2} / \Delta x_i = 0$ but, $\partial(\overline{\phi_1}) / \partial x_i$ and $\partial(\overline{\phi_2}) / \partial x_i$ can be finite.
- **Isotropic turbulence** implies that any relation between turbulence quantities must be constant (invariant) under rotation of the coordinate system and under reflection with respect to the coordinate system. As such, turbulence cannot be isotropic unless it was also homogeneous.
- For a **homogeneous and isotropic turbulence**, only R_{11} , R_{22} and, R_{33} are finite since $R_{ij} = 0$ for $i \neq j$. For 180° rotation about x_1 -axis, from reflection condition, $\overline{u_1 u_2} = \overline{u_1 (-u_2)} = -\overline{u_1 u_2}$. This is true only if $\overline{u_1 u_2} = 0$.
- Further, $R_{22} = R_{33}$ since the coordinate system is invariant under rotation about x_1 -axis (say). The $R_{11} = f(r)$ coefficient parallel to x_1 is called the **longitudinal coefficient** and coefficient $R_{22} = R_{33} = g(r)$ is called the **lateral coefficient**. (see slide 11)

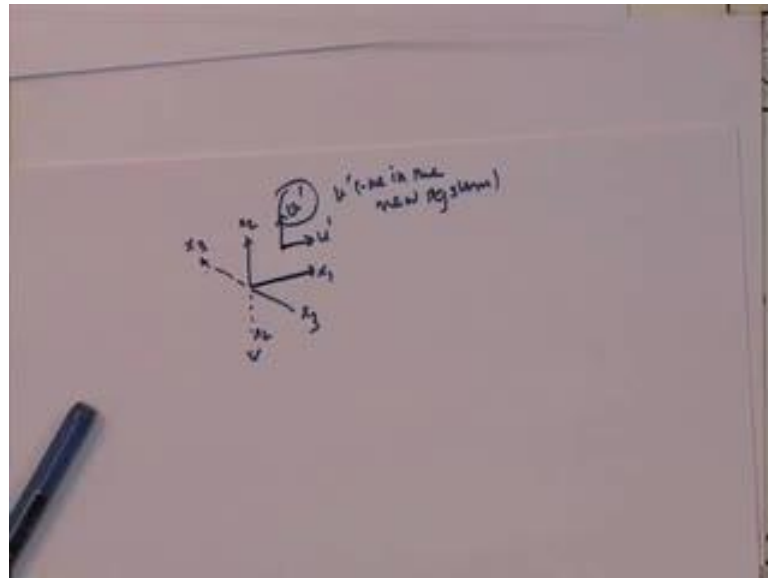
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As we said earlier, in homogeneous turbulence, all statistical correlations of time average fluctuating components are 0. Their gradients are 0, but gradients of mean quantities can be finite and that is the definition of homogeneous. Isotropic turbulence implies that any relation between the turbulence quantities must be constant or invariant under rotation of the coordinate system and under the reflection with respect to the coordinate system.

As such, turbulence cannot be isotropic, unless it was also homogeneous. So, what this means? For a homogeneous isotropic turbulence, only R_{11} , R_{22} and R_{33} will be finite

because all other quantities would involve spatial gradients of ϕ_1 dash ϕ_2 dash. Therefore, they would all be 0 for i not equal to j .

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Secondly, for 180 degree rotation, if I had x_1 , x_2 and x_3 , I am considering at some point, the fluctuation as u dash and the fluctuation v dash. Let us say, if I turn this system through 180 degrees, so that x_2 takes this position. Therefore, x_3 would take that position. This is the negative x_2 and negative x_3 that is turning through 180 degrees. In this new coordinate system - x_1 , x_2 , x_3 , you will see v dash will appear negative in the new system. Therefore, you will see the time averaging of the product.

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Spatial Correlation - 3 - L22(13/20)

- In **homogeneous turbulence**, all statistical correlations $\overline{\phi_1 \phi_2} / \partial x_i = 0$ but, $\partial(\overline{\phi_1}) / \partial x_i$ and $\partial(\overline{\phi_2}) / \partial x_i$ can be finite.
- **Isotropic turbulence** implies that any relation between turbulence quantities must be constant (invariant) under rotation of the coordinate system and under reflection with respect to the coordinate system. As such, turbulence cannot be isotropic unless it was also homogeneous.
- For a **homogeneous and isotropic turbulence**, only R_{11} , R_{22} and, R_{33} are finite since $R_{ij} = 0$ for $i \neq j$. For 180° rotation about x_1 -axis, from reflection condition, $\overline{u_1 u_2} = \overline{u_1 (-u_2)} = -\overline{u_1 u_2}$. This is true only if $\overline{u_1 u_2} = 0$.
- Further, $R_{22} = R_{33}$ since the coordinate system is invariant under rotation about x_1 -axis (say). The $R_{11} \equiv f(r)$ coefficient parallel to x_1 is called the **longitudinal coefficient** and coefficient $R_{22} = R_{33} \equiv g(r)$ is called the **lateral coefficient**. (see slide 11)

In the first system, it is $u_1 u_2$ equal to u_1 dash into minus u_2 dash in the second system and this would essentially be minus $u_1 u_2$ dash. Now, plus $u_1 u_2$ dash equal to minus $u_1 u_2$ dash can only be true, if $u_1 u_2$ dash were identically 0. That is the meaning of homogeneous isotropic turbulence and for that only R_{11} , R_{22} and R_{33} would be finite.

Further, R_{22} and R_{33} would also be equal, since the coordinate system is invariant under rotation about x_1 axis and that is what I showed. R_{11} equal to $f(r)$ coefficient parallel to x_1 axis is called the longitudinal coefficient; whereas, coefficient R_{22} equal to R_{33} equal to $g(r)$ is called the lateral coefficient and that is what I showed in the slide. Here, this (Refer Slide Time: 04:19) is the lateral coefficient this is the longitudinal coefficient.

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Spatial Correlation - 4 - L22($\frac{14}{20}$)

- Both $f(r)$ and $g(r)$ decline to zero as $r \rightarrow \infty$. For a given r , $f(r)$ is greater than $g(r)$.
- The coefficient curves are nearly parabolic near $r = 0$ and therefore symmetric about $r = 0$. Expanding $f(r)$ and $g(r)$ in Taylor's series about $r = 0$

$$f(r) \simeq 1 - \left(\frac{r}{l_f}\right)^2 + \dots \quad g(r) \simeq 1 - \left(\frac{r}{l_g}\right)^2 + \dots$$

$$l_f^2 = -2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial r^2} \Big|_{r=0}\right)^{-1} \quad l_g^2 = -2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial r^2} \Big|_{r=0}\right)^{-1}$$

- Hence, l_f and l_g in Taylor's micro-scales range,

$$l_f \equiv \left[\frac{2 \overline{(u_1')^2}}{(\partial u_1' / \partial x_1)^2} \right]^{0.5} \quad l_g \equiv \left[\frac{2 \overline{(u_2')^2}}{(\partial u_2' / \partial x_1)^2} \right]^{0.5}$$

Both $f(r)$ and $g(r)$ are declined to 0 as r tends to infinity. For a given r , $f(r)$ turns out to be a bigger magnitude than $g(r)$. The coefficient curves are nearly parabolic near r equal to 0. Therefore, it is symmetric about r equal to 0. Expanding $f(r)$ and $g(r)$ in Taylor's series about r equal to 0, you will see and retain only the first couple of terms. We will see $f(r)$ would be equal to 1, when r is equal to 0. It is minus r by l_f square plus additional term and I will define l_f in a minute.

Likewise, $g(r)$ would be approximately equal to 1 minus r by l_g whole square plus several terms. Here, l_f square would turn out to be minus 2 times $d^2 f$ by dr^2 square r times to 0 raise minus 1 and l_g square will be minus 2 into $d^2 g$ by dr^2 square.

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Spatial Correlation - 1 - L22(¹¹/₂₀)

In turbulence literature, the idea of scales is often expressed through the notion of an *eddy*. Whenever a fluctuation occurs, it can be expected to influence events over a zone that extends both *spatially* and *in time*. The *eddy*, notionally represents the *size of this zone*.




Figure: Here $\lambda_f = l_f$ and $\lambda_g = l_g$

Consider two points at positions r_1 and r_2 with $r = r_2 - r_1$. Then, let u_i at $r_1(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ and u_j at $r_2(x_1 + r, x_2, x_3)$ be the velocity fluctuations at the *same time instant*

Define **Spatial correlation coefficient**

$$R_{ij} = \frac{B_{ij}}{\sqrt{B_{ii}} \sqrt{B_{jj}}} \quad \text{---} \quad B_{ij} = \overline{u_i u_j}$$

These are the projections of the second derivative of f. You will see for the transfer of longitudinal correlation. Now, l f would appear as that and l g would appear somewhere over there. That is the estimate of l g and this is the estimate of l f. In the Kolmogorov scale, a very small distance l epsilon would be somewhere here and the integral scales would be of that order. There is an integral of this curve between 0 and infinity and likewise here. So, l f and l g are somewhere between l epsilon and l integral. They are the two length scales, which we have we had identified earlier.

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Spatial Correlation - 4 - L22(¹⁴/₂₀)

- Both $f(r)$ and $g(r)$ decline to zero as $r \rightarrow \infty$. For a given r , $f(r)$ is greater than $g(r)$.
- The coefficient curves are nearly parabolic near $r = 0$ and therefore symmetric about $r = 0$. Expanding $f(r)$ and $g(r)$ in Taylor's series about $r = 0$

$$f(r) \approx 1 - \left(\frac{r}{l_f}\right)^2 + \dots \quad g(r) \approx 1 - \left(\frac{r}{l_g}\right)^2 + \dots$$

$$l_f^2 = -2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial r^2} \Big|_{r=0}\right)^{-1} \quad l_g^2 = -2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial r^2} \Big|_{r=0}\right)^{-1}$$

- Hence, l_f and l_g in **Taylor's micro-scales range**,

$$l_f \equiv \left[\frac{2 \overline{(u_1')^2}}{(\partial u_1' / \partial x_1)^2} \right]^{0.5} \quad l_g \equiv \left[\frac{2 \overline{(u_2')^2}}{(\partial u_2' / \partial x_1)^2} \right]^{0.5}$$

We have now identified a third length scale, which is in between these l_f and l_g . It is called as Taylor micro-scale. They are defined in this manner - $2 u'^2$ divided by $d u' / dx$ raised to 0.5. So, you can see this has a length dimension square is raised to 0.5 and therefore l_f and l_g would be based on u'^2 separated by distance x in the x direction. The special derivatives are very difficult to measure because simultaneously measuring fluctuating velocity at two adjoining points turns out to be quite a difficult task in a turbulent flow. Therefore, the gradients of fluctuations in x direction would be quite difficult. We will see how to get over that difficulty. Before we do that we will make some important observations.

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Micro & Integral Length Scales - L22(15/20)

- In l_f and l_g , derivatives of velocity fluctuations are difficult to measure
- None-the-less, if this local spatial change is *imagined* to have been caused by the smallest scales of motion, then l_f and l_g can be regarded as the average dimensions of the *range of small scale motions*.
- Similarly, we can define **Integral scales** as

$$l_{int,f} = \int_0^{\infty} f(r) dr \quad \text{and} \quad l_{int,g} = \int_0^{\infty} g(r) dr$$

- Thus, we have 4 length scales l_f , l_g , $l_{int,f}$ and $l_{int,g}$ in a simple homogeneous isotropic turbulence besides l , at the smallest Kolmogorov scales where viscosity kills turbulence and isotropy prevails.

In l_f and l_g , the derivatives are difficult to measure. If this local spatial change is imagined to have been caused by the smallest scales of motion, then l_f and l_g can be regarded as the average dimensions of the range of small-scale motion. They are close to r equal to 0 and therefore, they can be considered to be in the range of small scale motions.

Similarly, if we integrate $f(r)$ from 0 to infinity, we will get integral scales $l_{int,f}$ and $l_{int,g}$. Thus, we have four length scales: the micro scale in longitudinal direction, micro scale in the transverse direction, integral scale in the longitudinal direction, integral scale in the transverse direction. In a simple homogeneous isotropic turbulence besides l , epsilon at the smallest Kolmogorov scales, where viscosity kills turbulence and isotropy prevails.

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Estimate of ϵ - L22(¹⁶/₂₀)

- From slide 9, $l_t = (\nu^3/\epsilon)^{0.25}$. The dissipation rate ϵ can be estimated by noting that in isotropic turbulence¹,

$$\overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_1'}{\partial x_1}\right)^2} = \overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_2'}{\partial x_2}\right)^2} = \frac{1}{2} \overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_1'}{\partial x_2}\right)^2} = \frac{1}{2} \overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_2'}{\partial x_1}\right)^2} = \text{etc.}$$

- Hence, l_t and l_g are related (see slide 14) to ϵ as

$$\rho \epsilon = \mu \overline{\left[\frac{\partial u_1'}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial u_1'}{\partial x_1}\right]^2} \quad (\text{definition})$$

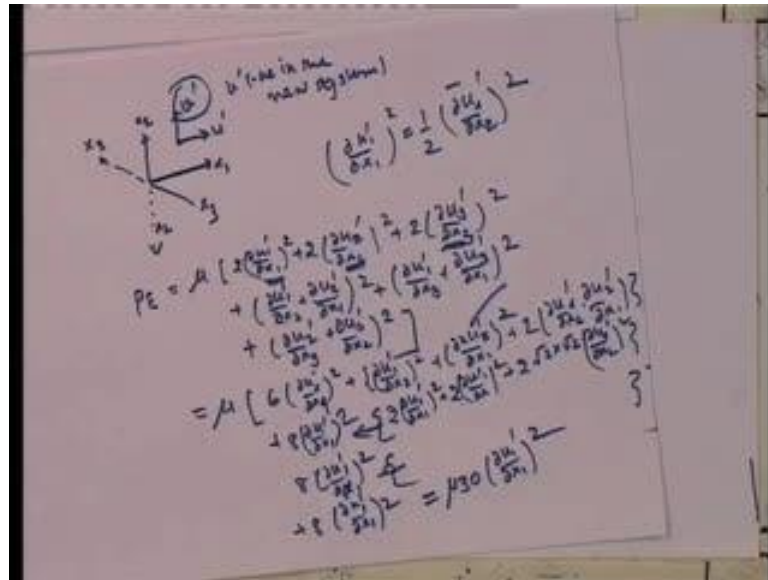
$$\epsilon = 15 \nu \overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_1'}{\partial x_1}\right)^2} = 30 \nu \left(\frac{u_1'}{l_t}\right)^2 = 15 \nu \left(\frac{u_1'}{l_g}\right)^2$$

¹Hinze J O - Turbulence, an Introduction to its Mechanism and Theory, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1959

How do we estimate ϵ ? Recall that in slide 9, I showed that Kolmogorov related ϵ to ν^3 into kinematic viscosity cube divided by ϵ raised to 0.25. Therefore, ϵ can only be estimated, if we can estimate the magnitude of the rate of kinetic energy dissipation. It can be estimated by noting that in isotropic turbulence.

There is a wonderful book by Hinze; it is called as Turbulence - an introduction to its mechanism and theory published by McGraw-Hill in 1959. Here, some properties of isotropic turbulence have been given. One of them is $\overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_1'}{\partial x_1}\right)^2} = \overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_2'}{\partial x_2}\right)^2} = \frac{1}{2} \overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_1'}{\partial x_2}\right)^2} = \frac{1}{2} \overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_2'}{\partial x_1}\right)^2} = \text{etc.}$ It would only be equal to half of $\overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_1'}{\partial x_2}\right)^2}$ and so on.

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Remember, rho epsilon is actually equal to mu times 2 du 1 dash by dx 1 square plus 2 du 2 dash by dx 2 whole square plus 2 times du 3 dash by dx 3 whole square plus du 1 dash by dx 2 plus du 2 dash by dx 1 whole square plus du 1 dash by dx 3 plus du 3 dash by dx 1 whole square plus du 2 dash by dx 3 plus du 3 dash by dx 2 whole square.

Now, we showed that all these will be equal in isotropic turbulence. Therefore, I have 6 times du 1 dash by dx 1 whole square, but du 1 dash by dx 2 is equal to half times du 1 dash by dx 2 whole square. Therefore you will see du 1 dash by dx 2 square will become du 1 dash by dx 2 whole square plus du 2 dash by dx 1 whole square plus 2 times du 1 dash by dx 2 into du 2 dash by dx 1 as the first term.

Likewise, there will be second term and third term. If I make use of this relationship, then you will see this will become 2 times du 1 dash by dx 1 whole square. Then du 2 dash by dx 1 square would again become equal to 2 times du 1 dash by dx 1 whole square. This would equal 2 times du 1 dash by dx 1 whole square. Therefore, you will see this is nothing but 2 plus 2 into 4 and that is 2 plus 2 equals 4 plus 4 as 8. So, I will get 8 times du 1 dash by dx 1 whole square from this.

I will get 8 times du 1 dash by dx 1 square or from these also. This is du and so I get essentially 3 into ... Therefore, all these will become 24 plus 6 equal to 30, so mu times

30 into du_1 dash by dx_1 whole square. That is what I have shown here as rho into epsilon.

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Spatial Correlation - 4 - L22(¹⁴/₂₀)

- Both $f(r)$ and $g(r)$ decline to zero as $r \rightarrow \infty$. For a given r , $f(r)$ is greater than $g(r)$.
- The coefficient curves are nearly parabolic near $r = 0$ and therefore symmetric about $r = 0$. Expanding $f(r)$ and $g(r)$ in Taylor's series about $r = 0$

$$f(r) \approx 1 - \left(\frac{r}{l_f}\right)^2 + \dots \quad g(r) \approx 1 - \left(\frac{r}{l_g}\right)^2 + \dots$$

$$l_f^2 = -2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial r^2}\right)_{r=0}^{-1} \quad l_g^2 = -2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial r^2}\right)_{r=0}^{-1}$$

- Hence, l_f and l_g in Taylor's micro-scales range,

$$l_f \equiv \left[\frac{2 \overline{(u_1')^2}}{(\partial u_1' / \partial x_1)^2} \right]^{0.5} \quad l_g \equiv \left[\frac{2 \overline{(u_2')^2}}{(\partial u_2' / \partial x_1)^2} \right]^{0.5}$$

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Remember, this definition l_f is equal to 2 times u_1 dash square over du_1 dash by dx_1 square and that is what I have shown.

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Estimate of ϵ - L22(¹⁶/₂₀)

- From slide 9, $l_f = (\nu^3 / \epsilon)^{0.25}$. The dissipation rate ϵ can be estimated by noting that in isotropic turbulence¹,

$$\overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_1'}{\partial x_1}\right)^2} = \overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_2'}{\partial x_2}\right)^2} = \frac{1}{2} \overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_1'}{\partial x_2}\right)^2} = \frac{1}{2} \overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_2'}{\partial x_1}\right)^2} = \text{etc.}$$

- Hence, l_f and l_g are related (see slide 14) to ϵ as

$$\rho \epsilon = \mu \overline{\left[\partial u_1' / \partial x_1 + \partial u_1' / \partial x_1 \right]^2} \quad (\text{definition})$$

$$\epsilon = 15 \nu \overline{\left(\frac{\partial u_1'}{\partial x_1}\right)^2} = 30 \nu \overline{\left(\frac{u_1'}{l_f}\right)^2} = 15 \nu \overline{\left(\frac{u_2'}{l_g}\right)^2}$$

¹Hinze J O - *Turbulence, an Introduction to its Mechanism and Theory*, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1958

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Epsilon would become essentially 15 times mu into du_1 dash by dx_1 whole square is equal to 30 times mu into u_1 dash whole square by l_f and likewise 15 nu times u_2 dash

by l_g whole square. This is how one estimates epsilon, provided we know this quantity and this quantity.

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Ratio of Strain Rates - L22(¹⁷/₂₀)

● To estimate l_{int} , consider *homogeneous pure shear flow* in which the strain rate $S_{ij} = \text{constant}$. Then, from TKE eqn, setting derivatives of all statistical relations to zero

$$-\rho \overline{u_i u_j} \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} = \overline{\tau_{ij} \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j}} = \rho \epsilon \quad (\text{Prod} = \text{Diss})$$

or, $-\overline{u_i u_j} (S_{ij}/2) = \nu \overline{s_{ij} s_{ij}}/2 = \epsilon$

● The LHS of this Eqn is associated with large scale motion. Hence

$$-\overline{u_i u_j} (S_{ij}/2) \simeq (V')^2 (V'/l_{int}) \simeq (V')^3/l_{int}$$

$$\epsilon = \nu \overline{s_{ij} s_{ij}}/2 \simeq (V')^3/l_{int} \quad (\text{Imp result})$$

$$\frac{\overline{s_{ij} s_{ij}}}{S_{ij} S_{ij}} \simeq \frac{(V')^3/(l_{int} \nu)}{(V'/l_{int})^2} = \frac{V' l_{int}}{\nu} = Re_{l_{int}} \rightarrow O(100)$$

We can also estimate l_f . To estimate integral length scale, consider homogeneous pure shear flow in which, the strain rate S_{ij} of the mean velocity gradient is constant.

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Turbulent KE Eqn - 3 - L22(⁵/₂₀)

The Eqn for TKE ($e \equiv \overline{u_i u_i}/2$) is derived by first time-averaging Eqn for IKE (\dot{E}).

$$\rho \frac{D(E+e)}{Dt} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} (u_j \overline{\rho u_i u_i}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} (\rho \overline{u_j u_i u_i}/2) =$$

$$-\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} (\rho u_i + \overline{\rho' u_i}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} (\tau_{ij} u_i + \overline{\tau'_{ij} u_i}) - \tau_{ij} \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} - \overline{\tau'_{ij} \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j}}$$

Then, the Eqn for MKE (E) is subtracted

$$\rho \frac{De}{Dt} = \underbrace{-\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \overline{u_j (\rho' + \rho u_i u_i/2)}}_{(A)} + \underbrace{(-\rho \overline{u_i u_i} \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j})}_{(B)}$$

$$+ \underbrace{\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} (\overline{u_j \tau'_{ij}})}_{(D)} - \underbrace{\overline{\tau'_{ij} \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j}}}_{(E)} \quad (\text{next slide})$$

In the turbulent kinetic energy equation, all spatial gradients of product quantities would vanish, but the mean quantities would survive. So, this would survive but that would D term will go to 0, B term will go to 0 and production and dissipation would survive.

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Ratio of Strain Rates - L22(17/20)

● To estimate l_{int} , consider *homogeneous pure shear flow* in which the strain rate $S_{ij} = \text{constant}$. Then, from TKE eqn, setting derivatives of all statistical relations to zero

$$-\rho \overline{u_i' u_j'} \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} = \overline{\tau_{ij}} \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} = \rho \epsilon \quad (\text{Prod} = \text{Diss})$$

or, $-\overline{u_i' u_j'} (S_{ij}/2) = \nu \overline{s_{ij} s_{ij}}/2 = \epsilon$

● The LHS of this Eqn is associated with large scale motion. Hence

$$-\overline{u_i' u_j'} (S_{ij}/2) \simeq (V')^2 (V'/l_{int}) \simeq (V')^3/l_{int}$$

$$\epsilon = \nu \overline{s_{ij} s_{ij}}/2 \simeq (V')^3/l_{int} \quad (\text{Imp result})$$

$$\frac{\overline{s_{ij} s_{ij}}}{S_{ij} S_{ij}} \simeq \frac{(V')^3/(l_{int} \nu)}{(V'/l_{int})^2} = \frac{V' l_{int}}{\nu} = Re_{l_{int}} \rightarrow O(100)$$

From turbulent kinetic equation and assuming steady state, we would have minus rho u prime u j prime mean velocity gradient equal to tau dash i j du dash by dx j. It is equal to rho into dissipation. In other words, production will exactly be equal to dissipation. This is called equilibrium state. Another way of writing this is u i j u prime j equal to S i j by 2 equal to mu times. Remember, this is tau dash as mu times strain rate s i j. Small s i j is d u i by d x j plus d u j dash by d x I, whereas S i j is from the mean quantities by d x j plus d u j by d x i that is the mean s i j. In other words, I get u i prime u j prime time average into S i j by 2 equal to mu times small s i j s i j divided by 2 and that is equal to epsilon.

I have divided throughout by density, so you get that as a very interesting result. Now, the left hand side of this equation is associated with large scale motion u i dash u i dash S i j by 2. It is really dimensional because u i dash u j dash is essentially V dash capital V dash square divided by l integral essentially large-scale motion because the mean velocity gradients are involved. That would equal V dash cube divided by l integral and that is equal to epsilon. Epsilon would also be equal V dash cube by l integral and this is a very important result.

Remember, epsilon is associated with very small-scale motion and action of viscosity and yet, it can be estimated from the representative scales of the large-scale velocity fluctuation and large scale integral length scale. Therefore, this is sometimes called as the first law of turbulence. It is the ability to estimate epsilon from large-scale fluctuation velocities. Integral length scale is a very good result because it helps us later on in economic computation of turbulent flow. This result is routinely used in bimodulus of turbulent flow equations.

Another way of writing the same is that strain rates of smallest fluctuating motion divided by the strain rates of mean motion would be $\frac{V^3}{\nu} \frac{l}{\nu}$ divided by $\frac{V}{l}$ that is $\frac{V^3 l}{\nu^2}$ or the turbulent Reynolds number is formed from fluctuations of the mean and integral lengths. So, this tends to represent the large scale. Since $Re_{t, int}$ is of the order of 100, it means that the strain rates of the fluctuating quantities at the smallest scales are much greater than the strain rates of the mean quantities like u . The strain rates formed from u are much greater than these. Another way of saying is we can expect it in terms of amount of straining. The small-scale motions are totally again uncorrelated with the large-scale motion.

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Comparison of Scales - L22(18/20)
 From the results of previous 2 slides,

- Taylor and Kolmogorov scales are related as

$$t_f = \frac{l_f}{u'_1} = \sqrt{\frac{30 \nu}{\epsilon}} = \sqrt{30} t_c \quad \frac{l_f}{l_c} = \frac{\sqrt{30} u'_1}{(\nu \epsilon)^{0.25}}$$

$$t_g = \frac{l_g}{u'_2} = \sqrt{\frac{15 \nu}{\epsilon}} = \sqrt{15} t_c \quad \frac{l_g}{l_c} = \frac{\sqrt{15} u'_2}{(\nu \epsilon)^{0.25}}$$
- Integral and Taylor scales are related as

$$\epsilon \approx \frac{(V')^3}{l_{int}} \approx 15 \nu \left(\frac{u'_2}{l_g}\right)^2 \rightarrow u'_2 = A V' \text{ (say, with) } A > 1$$

$$\frac{l_g}{l_{int}} \approx A \sqrt{15} \sqrt{\left(\frac{\nu}{V' l_{int}}\right)} = \frac{A \sqrt{15}}{(Re_{l_{int}})^{0.5}} \rightarrow \frac{t_g}{t_{int}} = \sqrt{\frac{15}{Re_{l_{int}}}}$$

$$\frac{t_c}{t_{int}} \approx (Re_{l_{int}})^{-0.5} \text{ and } (l_c < l_g < l_{int}) \text{ and } (t_c < t_g < t_{int})$$

From the results of the previous two slides, we can now estimate and compare Taylor and Kolmogorov scales. So, time scale of t_f would be l_f by u_1 prime and that would be

equal 30μ divided by ϵ and under root $30 t \epsilon$ because μ by ϵ is square root of \dots It is really the time scale of the Kolmogorov scales. So, this shows that the Taylor micro scale time scale is under root 30 times Kolmogorov time scale in the longitudinal direction. Similarly, l_f divided by $l \epsilon$ would be again that quantity of time scale in the transverse direction; it would be root 15 times $t \epsilon$. So, there is a considerable separation between time scales associated with Kolmogorov scales and the micro scales, but not as big as what we observed between integral scales and the Kolmogorov scales.

Integral and Taylor scales are related as follows. Since ϵ is V^3 dash cube by l int cube equal to 15μ times u^2 dash square by $l g$. If I take u dash about A times V dash, then it follows that $l g$ by l int would be A root into 15 under root μ by v dash l int equal to that Reynolds number of turbulence, which is of the order of 100. Therefore, $t g$ by t integral would be under root 15 by that. In other words, the transverse micro scale would be much smaller than the integral scale. The same thing would also apply to the longitudinal time scale in comparison to integral time scale.

The only difference is 15 would be replaced by 30. Now, $t \epsilon$ by t integral is Reynolds t integral is raised to minus 0.5. So, we can say $l \epsilon$ is less than l_f and g and is also less than l integral. Although the distance between this and this would be considerably smaller than the distance between this (Refer Slide Time: 22:13) and this and the separation distance overall separation distance would be determined by the Reynolds number.

The same story applies to the time scales. Kolmogorov time scales would be much smaller than integrals time scales, but just small compared to the Taylor micro scales. So, now we have discovered that there are three scales and the middle one is the representative.

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Auto-Correlation - L22(19/20)
 To estimate the timescale of a turbulent eddy

$$R_{ij}(x_k, \Delta t) = \frac{u'_i(x_k, t) u'_j(x_k, t + \Delta t)}{\sqrt{(u'_i)^2} \sqrt{(u'_j)^2}}$$

$$\tau_{\text{morph}} = - \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 R}{\partial t^2} \Big|_{\Delta t=0} \right)^{-0.5}$$

$$= u'_i \left[\left(\frac{\partial u'_i}{\partial t} \right)_{\Delta t=0} \right]^{-1}$$

$$\tau_{\text{int}} = \int_0^{\infty} R_{ij} d(\Delta t)$$

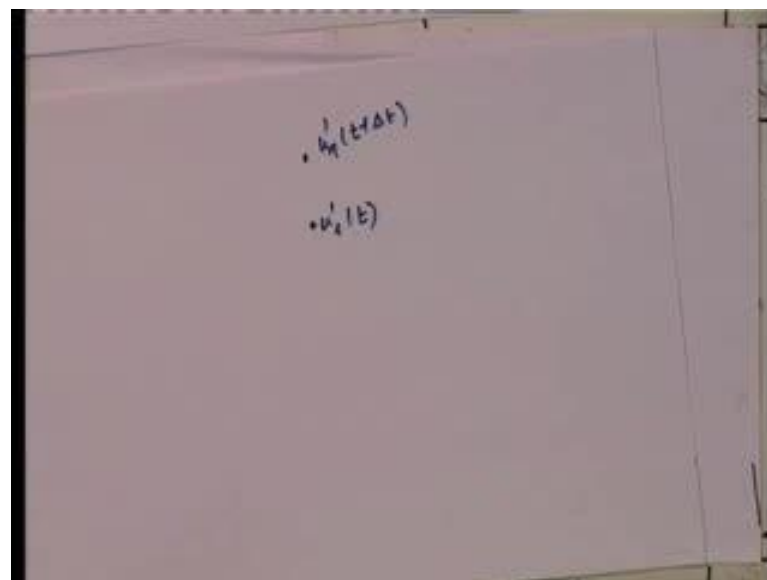
The time derivatives of fluctuations at a fixed point are simpler to measure. Taylor's Hypothesis states that if $u_1 \gg u'_1$, then $\partial u'_i / \partial t = -u_1 \partial u'_i / \partial x_1$. Hence $R_{11}(x_1) dx_1 = u_1 R_{11}(\Delta t) dt$ and $\tau_{\text{int}} = u_1^{-1} \tau_{\text{int}}$

In Reynolds's averaging $\tau_{\text{max}} \gg \tau_{\text{int}}$ (see previous lecture)

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As I said, spatial correlations are very difficult to estimate. Therefore, it makes it very difficult to estimate. In order to do that we undertake measurement of what is called as an autocorrelation.

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We will consider the same point, but separated by Δt . Let this be u_1' at t and this will be u_1' at $t + \Delta t$ as separated by time. We would define exactly in the same fashion as we defined this spatial correlation coefficient.

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Auto-Correlation - L22(19/20)

To estimate the timescale of a turbulent eddy

$$R_{ij}(x_k, \Delta t) = \frac{u_i'(x_k, t) u_j'(x_k, t + \Delta t)}{\sqrt{u_i'^2} \sqrt{u_j'^2}}$$

$$\tau_{\text{micro}} = - \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 R}{\partial t^2} \Big|_{\Delta t=0} \right)^{-0.5}$$

$$= u_i' \left[\left(\frac{\partial u_i'}{\partial t} \right)_{\Delta t=0} \right]^{-1}$$

$$\tau_{\text{int}} = \int_0^{\infty} R_{ij} d(\Delta t)$$

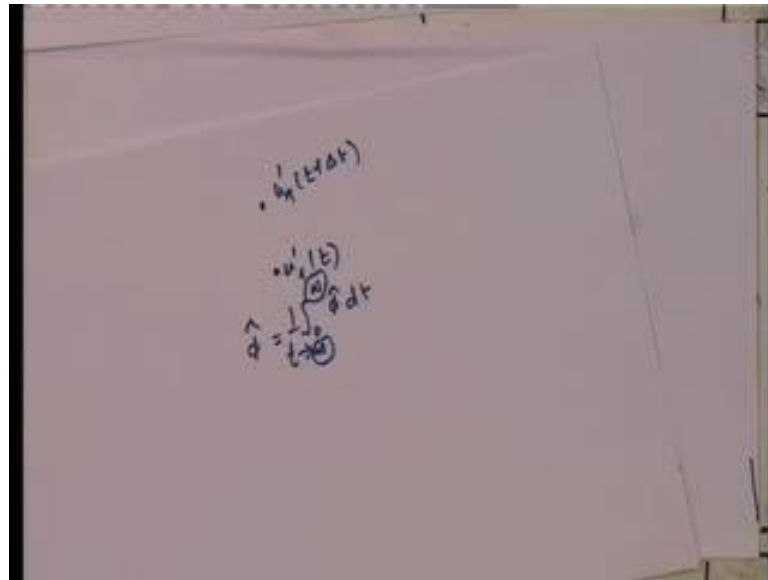
The time derivatives of fluctuations at a fixed point are simpler to measure. **Taylor's Hypothesis** states that if $u_1 \gg u_1'$, then $\partial u_i' / \partial t = -u_1 \partial u_i' / \partial x_1$. Hence $R_{ij}(x_1) dx_1 = u_1 R_{ij}(\Delta t) dt$ and $\tau_{\text{int}} = u_1^{-1} \tau_{\text{int}}$

In Reynolds's averaging $\tau_{\text{max}} \gg \tau_{\text{int}}$ (see previous lecture)

This is what I showed here. The value of u_i' at t at the same point x_k and the value of u_j' at $t + \Delta t$ is essentially $u_i' u_j'$ and $u_i'^2$, which is $u_i' u_j'$ and $u_j'^2$ and this will be at $t + \Delta t$ and this will be at t . Again, if I plot values of R_{ij} for different values of Δt in the separation time, then I would get a perfect correlation, when Δt is 0. It will go on declining, as I go on increasing Δt and beyond a certain Δt , the fluctuations at the later time would be completely uncorrelated with the fluctuation at time t equal to 0.

So, like what we did earlier, I can estimate a micro time scale like τ_{micro} associated with $l_f g$ equal to $u_i' \left[\frac{du_i'}{dt} \right]_{\Delta t=0}^{-1}$ by taking advantage of the fact that the variation here is very nearly parabolic. Therefore, the projected Δt or τ_{micro} would be that. Likewise, the integral time scale would be somewhere 0 to infinity $R_{ij} d\Delta t$. Now, we can get an idea of what should be the smallest magnitude of τ_{max} required in Reynolds average.

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In Reynolds averaging, ϕ average equal to 1 over t , tending to infinity. $\int_0^\infty \phi dt$ is what we said. For practical engineering measurements, we would of course need the estimate of epsilon. It has to be some finite time, as we cannot go on measuring for infinite time and that estimate key is now available.

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Auto-Correlation - L22(19/20)

To estimate the timescale of a turbulent eddy

$$R_{ij}(x_k, \Delta t) = \frac{u_i'(x_k, t) u_j'(x_k, t + \Delta t)}{\sqrt{u_i'^2} \sqrt{u_j'^2}}$$

$$\tau_{micro} = - \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 R}{\partial t^2} \Big|_{\Delta t=0} \right)^{-0.5}$$

$$= u_i' \left[\left(\frac{\partial u_j'}{\partial t} \right)_{\Delta t=0} \right]$$

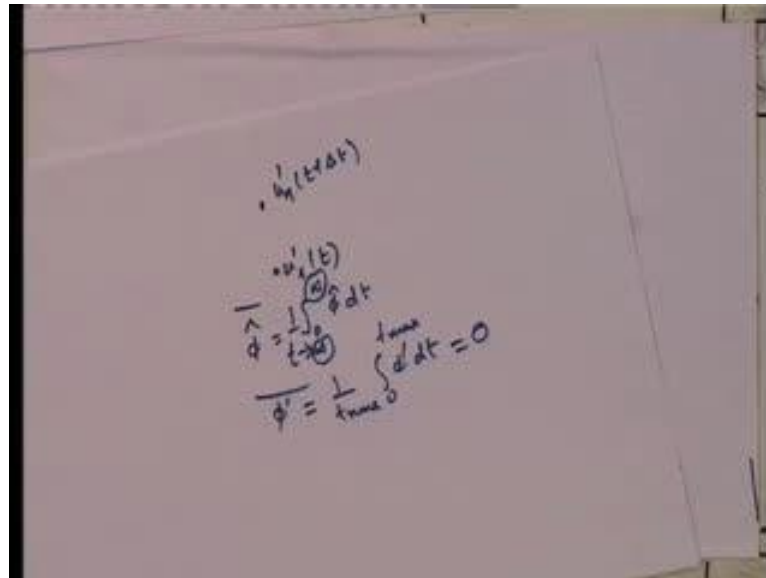
$$\tau_{int} = \int_0^\infty R_{ij} d(\Delta t)$$

The time derivatives of fluctuations at a fixed point are simpler to measure. Taylor's Hypothesis states that if $u_1 \gg u_t$, then $\partial u_1' / \partial t = -u_1 \partial u_1' / \partial x_1$. Hence $R_{11}(x_1) dx_1 = u_1 R_{11}(\Delta t) dt$ and $l_{int} = u_1 \tau_{int}$

In Reynolds's averaging $l_{max} \gg \tau_{int}$ (see previous lecture)

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From this expression (Refer Slide Time: 26:00), we say for t_{max} to be much greater than τ_{int} . This would ensure that $\bar{\phi}$ would be equal to 1 over t_{max} integral ϕdt is 0 to t_{max} and it would be equal to 0. That is the first importance of autocorrelation.

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Auto-Correlation - L22(19/20)

To estimate the timescale of a turbulent eddy

$$R_{ij}(x_k, \Delta t) = \frac{u_i(x_k, t) u_j(x_k, t + \Delta t)}{\sqrt{\overline{u_i^2}} \sqrt{\overline{u_j^2}}}$$

$$\tau_{micro} = - \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 R}{\partial t^2} \Big|_{\Delta t=0} \right)^{-0.5}$$

$$= u_i \left[\left(\frac{\partial u_j}{\partial t} \right)_{\Delta t=0} \right]^{-1}$$

$$\tau_{int} = \int_0^{\infty} R_{ij} d(\Delta t)$$

The time derivatives of fluctuations at a fixed point are simpler to measure. **Taylor's Hypothesis** states that if $u_1 \gg u_t$, then $\partial u_1 / \partial t = -u_1 \partial u_1 / \partial x_1$. Hence $R_{11}(x_1) dx_1 = u_1 R_{11}(\Delta t) dt$ and $\tau_{int} = u_1 \tau_{int}$

In Reynolds's averaging $t_{max} \gg \tau_{int}$ (see previous lecture)

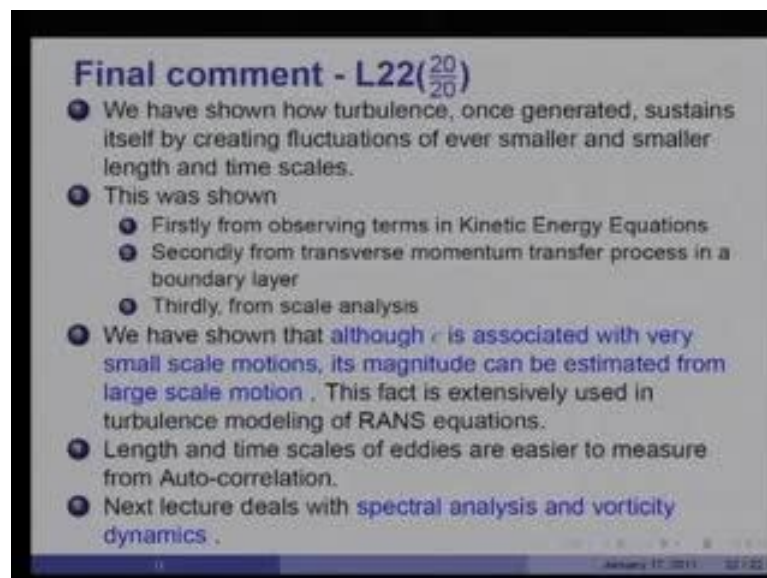
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There is also another very important thing. As I said, it is not possible to measure special gradients of u_i to estimate R_{ij} , which is the special correlation coefficient. So, the time derivatives of fluctuations at a fixed point are easier to measure with a single

instrument like a hot wire. It can enable us to measure that as a function of time. Taylor made a hypothesis, if mean u_1 is very much greater than u_1' , then du_1' / dt can be taken as $-\frac{u_1'}{L} u_1'$. It gives us the estimate of du_1' / dx_1 , which is required to estimate l_f - the longitudinal Taylor micro scale. Therefore, we can say that R_{11} of $x_1 dx_1$ would be equal to $u_1' \int_0^{\tau} dt$. In other words, l_f integral would be $u_1' \tau$ integral and that is given here.

Now, this is a very important deduction. There are two important deductions from autocorrelation. First of all, they are extreme and they are much easier to measure than the spatial correlation. The autocorrelation gives you the idea of what t_{max} should be. Usually, four to five times, the integral τ in is taken in practical measurements. We are also able to estimate the spatial correlation coefficient and therefore, estimate the l_f integral from τ integral, which as I said is much easier to measure.

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My final comment on these last two lectures is we have shown how turbulence, once generated, sustains itself by creating fluctuations of ever smaller and smaller length and time scales.

This was shown firstly, by observing terms in the kinetic energy equations. Secondly, from transverse momentum transfer processes in a boundary layer, where we got reasonably good idea of separation between the dissipation scale or viscosity affected

scales and the large scale. Thirdly, we did the scale analysis and we have also shown that. Although epsilon is associated with very small-scale motions, magnitude can be estimated from large-scale characteristics of large-scale motion. This fact is extensively used in turbulence modeling of RANS equations. The length and time scales of eddies are easier to measure from auto correlation. Usually, most people measure autocorrelations and from that they derive the spatial correlation coefficients.

Energy from mean motion is somehow transferred down to very small scales, where viscosity takes over and kills turbulence. We have tried to understand in physical space with physical measurements on what can be done with physical measurements. By transforming equations in the wave number space, it is possible to illustrate this story even more convincingly and that is called spectral analysis.

The equations generated cannot be solved in physical space, unless they are brought back again in the physical space. The equations in the wave number space are difficult to solve, but it reveals a story of what really goes on sustaining turbulence. Which are the terms that actually carry out turbulent energy production? What is the role of the redistributive terms that vanish on the cross-section? What is the contribution of the dissipation motion? I will take up that story in the next lecture, where I will explain what spectral analysis is. There is also another possible explanation of this transfer process, which can actually be shown figuratively by imagining stretching and torturing of an element fluid element by vorticity dynamics equations. I will try to show you, how both these tell the same story that we have already revealed through equations in the physical space and measuring capabilities in the physical space.