

A Mathematical Introduction to Large Eddy Simulation

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Abstract

The purpose of this report is to give a mathematical introduction to large eddy simulation. The treatment of closure focuses on eddy viscosity models and their mathematical foundation.

1 Introduction.

In the numerical solution of turbulent flows, it is usual to attempt to simulate averages of the fluid's velocity rather than its pointwise values. In general, this makes good practical sense: it is widely believed that flow averages evolve according to (hitherto undiscovered) simple deterministic laws while the fluctuations about those averages have a random (but universal) character. When the averages chosen are local, spatial averages, the approach is known as Large Eddy Simulation (LES henceforth). The main claim for LES is that

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f : external (body) forces/unit volume.
 d : pressure, σ : stress tensor associated with viscous forces,
 ρ : density, $n = (n_1, n_2, n_3)$: fluid velocity,

are:

The history of the development of the Navier-Stokes equations is replete with the names of the great natural philosophers beginning with the first book on mathematical fluid mechanics, *Hydrostatics* by Archimedes. Today, it is widely accepted that the Navier-Stokes equations provide a very accurate description of most flows of almost all liquid and gases. The basic variables

2 The Navier-Stokes Equations

Section 2 reviews aspects of the Navier-Stokes equations that are directly relevant to robust and reliable LES computations. Section 3 presents the basic idea of LES, mainly ignoring boundaries, and Section 4 introduces eddy viscosity models and the Smagorinsky model. Section 5 details possible approaches to improved eddy viscosity models. Conclusions are presented in Section 6.

“We are all led and guided by the passion to perceive and to understand...” L. Euler.

This claim is an exciting challenge to computational scientists to understand the degree to which it is true and then, with that understanding, to enhance the efficiency, reliability and universality of LES. Herein, we will try to give introduction to LES which will, hopefully, bridge some of the gap between mathematical theory and computational practice. Since turbulence is inherently a multi-disciplinary phenomena, each area can bring interesting insights and tools to its development:

“LES will simulate the motion of large eddies in a turbulent flow with computational complexity independent of the Reynolds number.”

$$n(x, 0) = n_0(x), \quad x \in \Omega, \quad (2.2)$$

The NSF (2.1) are assumed to hold in the flow domain (hereafter Ω) over some time interval $0 < t \leq T$ and are supplemented by an initial velocity

1 cm. sphere moving 1 cm/sec. in water	$Re \doteq 100,$
subcompact car	$Re \doteq 6 \times 10^5,$
small airplane	$Re \doteq 2 \times 10^7,$
competitive swimmer	$Re \doteq 1 \times 10^6,$
geophysical flows	$Re \doteq 10^{20}$ and higher.

Table 2.1: Representation Values of Re

It is worthwhile for theorists to see a few representative values of Re .

$$Re = \frac{UL}{\mu/\rho_0} = \frac{\text{characteristic velocity} \times \text{characteristic length}}{\text{kinematic viscosity}}.$$

where the Reynolds number Re is given by

$$\Delta \cdot n = 0 \text{ and } n_t + n \cdot \nabla n + \Delta p - Re^{-1} \Delta n = f, \quad (2.1)$$

where μ and ξ are material parameters known as the first and second viscosities. The mathematical structure of the NSF is best understood for incompressible fluids. Setting $p \equiv p_0 = \text{constant}$ and nondimensionalizing the resulting equations yields the system we will study herein: the incompressible Navier-Stokes equations

$$\sigma = \mu(\Delta n + \nabla n_t) + \xi(\nabla \cdot n)I,$$

and a linear stress-strain relation

$$d(n) + n \cdot \nabla n - \Delta n = f,$$

conservation of linear momentum

$$d_t + \nabla \cdot (dn) = 0,$$

conservation of mass

The Navier-Stokes equations are simply a mathematical realization of

$$\int_{\Omega} u_t \cdot n + Re^{-1} \Delta u : \nabla u - f \cdot u \, dx = 0.$$

that integrating over Ω and applying the divergence theorem immediately shows periodic boundary conditions, then multiplying (2.1) by n and p respectively, If (n, p) are classical solutions to the NSF subject to either no-slip or (even today) mathematically complete theory of the NSF. energy inequality, and from that directly constructs the most abstract and with the most concrete and physically meaningful point possible, the global began with the work of J. Leray [Ler34]. The Leray theory [Gal99] begins The modern theory of the NSF (indeed of partial differential equations) $u(x, t)$ and on all problem data.

and (for technical reasons) subject to a zero mean over $(0, 2\pi)^3$ on the solution (2.5) (periodic b.c.'s) $u(x + 2\pi, t) = u(x, t)$ $\Omega = (0, 2\pi)^3$

the equations from the boundaries): putational studies are done with periodic boundary conditions (to uncouple considered an “easy” case. Yet it is still hard enough that analytical and com- Of course, a liquid completely enclosed by stationary solid walls is rightly right one.

Thus, except for nearly infinite stresses, the no-slip condition (2.4) is the

$$\beta \sim \frac{\text{Macroscopic Length Scale}}{\text{Microscopic Length Scale}} \sim Re^{-1} \frac{\text{mean free pass}}{\text{diam } \Omega}$$

process, he also recovered Navier’s slip law (2.3) where β scaled like 1879 (i). Deriving the NSF from the kinetic theory of gases by an averaging The connection (and resolution) was provided by J.C. Maxwell [Max79] in

$$(2.4) \quad n \cdot \hat{n} = 0 \text{ and } n \cdot \hat{\tau} = 0, \text{ on } \partial\Omega.$$

proposed both no-penetration and no-slip: where $(\hat{n}, \hat{\tau})$ are the walls unit normal and tangent vectors, β is the friction coefficient and $\Delta_s u = (\Delta u + \nabla u^t)/2$ is the deformation tensor. Stokes

$$(2.3) \quad n \cdot \hat{n} = 0 \text{ and } \beta n \cdot \hat{\tau} + 2Re^{-1} n \cdot \Delta_s u \cdot \hat{\tau} = 0, \text{ and } \partial\Omega,$$

no-penetration and slip-with-friction conditions, written as Navier [Nav23] first proposed in 1823 that a fluid at a solid wall must satisfy any conditions at a wall has been remarkably controversial, [Ser59], [Lia99]. and appropriate boundary conditions. The question of the correct bound-

Leray in fact conjectured that turbulence was connected to the breakdown of uniqueness in weak solutions to the NSE. In particular, conjecturing that perhaps $\epsilon(t)$ has singularities which are integrable but not square integrable:

$$(2.9) \quad \int_0^T \epsilon(t')^2 dt' < \infty.$$

while weak solutions are unique if, e.g.,

$$(2.8) \quad \int_0^T \epsilon(t') dt' < \infty,$$

Uniqueness of weak solutions is still not known. (It is a Clay-prize problem worth a million dollar reward offered.) Uniqueness appears to be connected to the time regularity of the energy dissipation rate. It is known, for example, that all weak solutions satisfy

$$(2.7) \quad k(t) + \int_0^t \epsilon(t') dt \leq k(0) + \int_0^t P(t') dt. \quad \square$$

energy inequality

there exists at least one weak solution to the NSE. Weak solutions satisfy the

$$\int_0^T \int_{\Omega} |u|^2 dx < \infty, \quad \int_{\Omega \times (0, T)} |f(x, t)|^2 dx dt < \infty.$$

Theorem 2.1 (J. Leray, 1934). *With a given u_0 and f with*

Leray was able to prove a much more interesting result. With the energy equality (2.1) for classical solutions (which may not exist)

$$\begin{aligned} P(t) &:= \text{power input through force} - \text{flow interaction} = \int_{\Omega} f \cdot u \, dx, \\ \epsilon(t) &:= \text{energy dissipation rate} = \int_{\Omega} \epsilon |\Delta u|^2 dx, \\ k(t) &:= \text{kinetic energy at time } t = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} |u|^2 dx, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$(2.6) \quad k(t) + \int_0^t \epsilon(t') dt' = k(0) + \int_0^t P(t') dt'$$

Integrating this in time gives the energy equality:

“So, naturalists observe a flea

By combining Richardson’s [Ric65] idea of an energy cascade in turbulent flows with audacious physical guesswork and dimensional analysis, Kolmogorov was able to give a clear explanation of Figure 2.1. Richardson’s famous verse on big whirls and lesser whirls was inspired by J. Swift’s description of a cascade of poets:

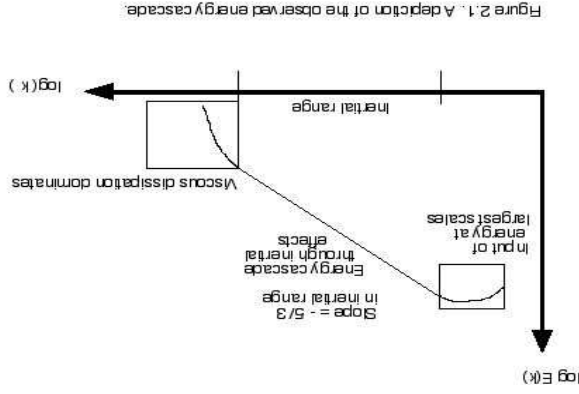


Figure 2.1. A depiction of the observed energy cascade.

Data from many different turbulent flows (see, e.g., Figure 7.4 in Frisch [Fri95]) reveal a universal pattern. Plotting the data on $(\log(k), \log E(k))$ axes, the universal pattern is a $k^{-5/3}$ decay in $E(k)$ through a wide range of wave-numbers known as the inertial range.

$$E(k, t) := \frac{1}{2} \int_{|\mathbf{k}|=k} |\hat{u}(\mathbf{k})|^2 d\mathbf{k}, \text{ and } E(k) := \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T E(k, t), dt.$$

As successful as the Leray theory has been, it has taken many years to begin to establish a connection between it and the Kolmogorov (physical) theory of homogeneous, isotropic turbulence. The status of this connection is well presented in [FMRT01] so we shall skip to the essential elements of Kolmogorov’s theory (often called the “K-41” theory) needed in this exposition. For more details see the paper [Kol41] and the very interesting books [Fri95], [Pop00], [Les97]. Consider the NSE under periodic boundary conditions. Let $\mathcal{F}(u) = \hat{u}$ denote the Fourier transform of the velocity field with dual variable \mathbf{k} with $|\mathbf{k}| = (k_1^2 + k_2^2 + k_3^2)^{1/2}$. Define

(2.8) holds but (2.9) might fail. This conjecture is still an open question and it is still unknown if equality or inequality holds in (2.7), see, e.g., [DR00], Galdi [Gal99] for a very clear elaboration of this theory.

The first estimate of $O(Re^{-3/4})$ accounts for the often quoted requirement of $O(Re^{-9/4})$ grid points in space for the direct numerical simulations of a turbulent flow. Considering the magnitudes of representative Reynolds numbers (Table 2.1), it also explains the 1949 assessment of turbulence of von Neumann:

$$E(k) = \alpha \epsilon^{2/3} k^{-5/3}, \quad \alpha \cong 1.4, \quad (2.11)$$

the smallest persistent eddy in a turbulent flow is of diameter $O(Re^{-3/4})$ and $E(k)$ must take the universal form

Two remarkable consequences were that:

$$\bar{\epsilon} := \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \epsilon(t) dt. \quad (2.10)$$

time-averaged energy dissipation rate: time averages of turbulent quantities depend only on one number, the

Reynolds numbers
 enough away from walls, after a long enough time and for high enough Kolmogorov began with the assumption that, (roughly speaking), far

L. da Vinci

“where the turbulence of water is generated,
 where the turbulence of water maintains for long,
 where the turbulence of water comes to rest.”

and by L. da Vinci's descriptions of turbulent flows as composed of an area of interaction and an area of decay into small scales:

J. Swift

Is bit by him that comes behind.”
 Thus, every poet, in his kind,
 And so ad infinitum.
 And these have smaller yet to bite 'em.
 Hath smaller fleas that on him prey;

where u is extended off Ω by zero in the case of no-slip boundary conditions and by periodicity under periodic boundary conditions. The mean $\bar{u}(x)$ is a weighted average of u about the point x . As $\delta \rightarrow 0$ the points near x are weighted more and more heavily so $\bar{u} \rightarrow u$ as $\delta \rightarrow 0$. To make this precise it is necessary to introduce some notation (e.g., Galdi [G94], Adams [A75]).

$$\bar{u}(x, t) := \int_{\mathbf{R}^3} g_\delta(x - y) u(y) dy, \text{ and } u' = u - \bar{u},$$

Then the averaged/filtered velocity is defined by

$$g(x) := \left(\frac{\pi}{\lambda}\right)^{3/2} e^{-\gamma|x|^2} \text{ and } g_\delta(x) := \delta^{-3} g\left(\frac{\delta}{x}\right), \text{ (if } \Omega \subset \mathbf{R}^3\text{)}.$$

To filter, we must pick a filter. Many different ones are commonly used. To fix ideas we shall use the Gaussian. Choose γ (typically $\gamma = 6$) and define

L. da Vinci, 1510.

“Observe the notion of the water surface, which resembles that of hair, that has two motions: One due to the weight of the shaft the other to the shape of the curls; thus water has two eddying motions, one part of which is due to the principal current, the other to the random and reverse motion.”

of this idea was by an early but famous hydraulic engineer: effects on the mean notion can successfully be modelled. The first expression on the idea that since the fluctuations have a random character, their *average* goal is to predict the means accurately. This is widely believed possible based by filtering or mollification (convolution with an approximate identity). The mean (or average) and a fluctuation about that mean. The mean, \bar{u} , is defined The idea of large eddy simulation is to split the velocity into a local, spacial

3 The Idea of Large Eddy Simulation

LES!
which is still true today and provides the motivation for the development of

J. von Neumann, 1949,

“It must be admitted that the problems are too vast to be solved by a direct computational attack.”

Remarks on the Proof: Parts (a) - (d) are standard results for averaging by convolution. Part (e) is known at Young's inequality. Part (e) can be proven several different

$$(3.2) \quad \|n - \bar{n}\| \leq C \delta^2 \|n\|_2, \text{ for } n \in H^2(\Omega).$$

(e) In the absence of boundaries (i.e., under periodic boundary conditions), for smooth n , $n = \bar{n} + O(\delta^2)$. Specifically,

$$\frac{\partial^{|\alpha|} n}{\partial x^\alpha} = \bar{n} \frac{\partial^{|\alpha|} n}{\partial x^\alpha}.$$

(d) In the absence of boundaries, (i.e., under periodic boundary conditions) filtering and differentiation commute: where C is independent of δ .

$$(3.1) \quad \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} |\bar{u}|^2 dx \leq C \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} |u|^2 dx$$

(c) If the velocity field u has bounded kinetic energy then so does \bar{u} :

$$\|n - \bar{n}\|_1 \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } \delta \rightarrow 0.$$

Theorem 3.1 Let δ be constant (not varying with position x). Then,
 (a) If $n \in L^2(\Omega)$, $\bar{n} \rightarrow n$ as $\delta \rightarrow 0$, i.e., $\|n - \bar{n}\| \rightarrow 0$.
 (b) If $n \in L^2(\Omega)$ and $\Delta n \in L^2(\Omega)$ then

For constant averaging radius δ a lot is known about filtering, some of which is summarized next.

$H^k(\Omega)$ is the closure of the infinitely smooth functions in $\|\cdot\|_k$.

$$\|n\|_k := \left[\sum^{|\alpha| \leq k} \left\| \frac{\partial^{|\alpha|} n}{\partial x^\alpha} \right\|_2 \right]_{1/2}.$$

The H^k -norm, denoted $\|\cdot\|_k$, is

$$\|n\|_{1/2} := \left[\int_{\Omega} |n|^2 dx \right]_{1/2}.$$

Definition 3.1 The $L^2(\Omega)$ norm, denoted $\|\cdot\|$, is

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{u}_t + \Delta \cdot (\underline{u} \underline{u}) - Re^{-1} \delta \underline{u} + \Delta \underline{p} + \Delta \cdot \mathcal{R}(u, u) = \underline{f}, \\ \text{and } \Delta \cdot \underline{u} = 0, \end{aligned} \quad (3.7)$$

by:
 and convolve the NSE (i.e., $g_\delta * (\text{NSE}) = g_\delta * f$). Using the fact that convolution commutes with differentiation we get the space-filtered-NSE, given
 (3.6) ignore boundaries and assume constant δ

do this,
 To calculate $\underline{u}(x, t)$, LES must first construct closed equations for \underline{u} . To
 so that (3.2) follows. \square

$$\int (1 + |\mathbf{k}|^2)^2 |\hat{u}(\mathbf{k})|^2 d\mathbf{k} \leq C \|\underline{u}\|_2$$

We note that, again by Plancherel's theorem,

$$\|\underline{u} - \underline{w}\|_2 \leq C \delta^4 \int (1 + |\mathbf{k}|^2)^2 |\hat{u}(\mathbf{k})|^2 d\mathbf{k}.$$

Combining (3.4) and (3.5) in (3.3) gives

$$(3.5) \quad |1 - \hat{g}_\delta(\mathbf{k})|^2 \leq C \delta^4 (1 + |\mathbf{k}|^2)^2, \text{ for } |\mathbf{k}| \geq \pi/\delta.$$

Thus,

$$|1 - \hat{g}_\delta(\mathbf{k})|^2 \leq 2^2 \leq C(1 + |\mathbf{k}|^2)^{-2} (1 + |\mathbf{k}|^2)^2 \leq C(1 + \pi^2 \delta^{-2})^{-2} (1 + |\mathbf{k}|^2)^2.$$

while on $|\mathbf{k}| \geq \pi/\delta$

$$(3.4) \quad |1 - \hat{g}_\delta(\mathbf{k})|^2 \leq C \delta^4 |\mathbf{k}|^4, \quad 0 \leq |\mathbf{k}| \leq \pi/\delta,$$

On $0 \leq |\mathbf{k}| \leq \pi/\delta$, a Taylor series expansion shows that

$$\hat{g}_\delta(\mathbf{k}) = e^{-\frac{\delta}{4}(k_1^2 + k_2^2 + k_3^2)}$$

where the symbol of the Gaussian is again a Gaussian:

$$(3.3) \quad \|\underline{u} - \underline{w}\|_2 = \|\underline{u} - \widehat{\underline{u}}\|_2 = \|(1 - \hat{g}_\delta)(\mathbf{k}) \hat{u}(\mathbf{k})\|_2 = \left(\int_{|\mathbf{k}| \geq \pi/\delta} + \int_{|\mathbf{k}| \leq \pi/\delta} \right) |1 - \hat{g}_\delta(\mathbf{k})|^2 |\hat{u}(\mathbf{k})|^2 d\mathbf{k},$$

Plancherel's theorem on Fourier transforms:
 ways (see e.g., the books [HW55], [Fol95], [Hor90]). For example, using

models. The second two will be presented in [Lay02a] and [Lay02b].
 In this report, we shall focus only on the first approach: eddy viscosity

- Models which circumvent closure.
- Asymptotic models
- Phenomenological, eddy-viscosity, models

There are many general approaches to closure. We will present three:

general because of small-divisor problems.

the observable. Mathematically, neither can be done in a stable manner in either reformulation amounts to estimating the effects of the unknowable on its associated \underline{n} (another form of the deconvolution problem). Physically, n in terms of \underline{n} (the de-convolution problem) or approximate n' in terms of it is clear that the closure problem can be solved if we can either approximate

$$\mathcal{R}(n, n) = -\underline{n} \underline{n} + \underline{(n+n')} \underline{(n+n')} = -(\underline{n} \underline{n} - \underline{n} \underline{n}) + \underline{(n+n')} \underline{(n+n')} + n' n' \quad (3.10)$$

If we write $n = \underline{n} + n'$ and expand

new 'pressure' is then $\underline{p} + \frac{3}{1} \text{trace}(\mathcal{R}(n, n))$.

trace, which approximates $\mathcal{R}^*(n, n) := \mathcal{R}(n, n) - \frac{3}{1} \text{trace}(\mathcal{R}(n, n))I$. The strictly speaking, the closure problem is to find a tensor, $\mathcal{S}^*(\underline{n}, \underline{n})$, with zero stress, its average contributes to a new pressure. Thus, pressure is the average of the three normal stresses in the coordinate direction mechanical notation. Recall [Ser59] that for incompressible flow, the

Remark. This description of closure is a slight abuse of the correct continuation w of (3.9) is, at best, an approximation to \underline{n} and not \underline{n} . can be solved. Since $\mathcal{S}(\underline{n}, \underline{n})$ approximates (but doesn't equal) $\mathcal{R}(n, n)$ the

$$w_t + \Delta \cdot (w) - Re \epsilon^{-1} \Delta w + \Delta q + \Delta \cdot \mathcal{S}(w, w) = \underline{f}, \quad \text{and } \Delta \cdot w = 0, \quad (3.9)$$

whereupon the closed system:

issue in LES is to approximate \mathcal{R} by a tensor depending only on $\underline{n}, \mathcal{S}(\underline{n}, \underline{n})$, Since $\underline{n} \neq \underline{n}$ in general, the usual closure problem has arisen. The first

$$\mathcal{R}(n, n) := \underline{n} \underline{n} - \underline{n} \underline{n}. \quad (3.8)$$

where $\mathcal{R}(n, n)$, the Reynolds stress tensor, is

4 Eddy-Viscosity Models

The first closure problem of LES is thus to find a tensor $\mathcal{S}(\underline{n}, \underline{n})$ approximating $\mathcal{R}(n, n)$ or at least approximating its effects in the space filtered NSF. To do this, it is useful to have some understanding of the effects of those turbulent fluctuations. Eddy viscosity models are motivated by the following observed experimental behavior (paraphrased from Frisch [F95] who cites it as one of the two experimental laws of turbulence):

Suppose, in an experiment, all control parameters are kept fixed except the viscosity is reduced as far as possible and the energy dissipation is measured (typically by measuring drag). While the flow is laminar, then energy dissipation is reduced proportional to the reduction in ν . When the flow is turbulent, the energy dissipation does not vanish as $\nu \rightarrow 0$ but approaches a finite, positive limit.

The action of the Reynolds stresses is thus thought of as having a dissipative effect on the mean flow. In 1867, Boussinesq [B77] first formulated the eddy-viscosity/Boussinesq hypothesis based upon an analogy between the interaction of small eddies and the perfectly elastic collision of molecules (e.g., molecular viscosity or heat) stating:

Boussinesq Hypothesis (1877) *“Turbulent fluctuations are dissipative in the mean.”*

The mathematical realization is the model

$$(4.1) \quad \Delta \cdot \mathcal{S}(\underline{n}, \underline{n}) \sim -\Delta \cdot (\nu^T \Delta^s \underline{n}) + \text{terms incorporated into } \underline{p},$$

$\nu^T := \text{Turbulent Viscosity Coefficient} \geq 0.$

This yields the simple model for $w \approx \underline{n}$.

$$(4.2) w_t + \Delta \cdot (w \cdot \nabla - \nabla \cdot (w)) \cdot ([2Re^{-1} + \nu^T] \Delta^s w) + \Delta q = \underline{f}, \text{ and } \nabla \cdot w = 0.$$

The modeling problem then reduces to determining one parameter: the turbulent viscosity coefficient ν^T :

Closure Problem: Find $\nu^T = \nu^T(\underline{n}, \delta)$.

The global energy balance of eddy viscosity models is very simple and clear.

Proposition 4.1 *Let (w, q) be a classical solution to (3.2) subject to either periodic or no-slip boundary conditions. Let $\nu^T = \nu^T(w, \delta) > 0$. Then,*

If we assume that the time average of w is exactly the same as that of n restricted to the frequencies $0 \leq |\mathbf{k}| \leq k_c := \pi/\delta$ then Plancherel's theorem

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon_{\text{MODEL}} &\cong \int_{\mathcal{V}} \nu \text{Smag}(\delta, w) |\Delta^s w|_2^2 dx \\ &= \int_{\mathcal{V}} (C^s \delta)_2 |\Delta^s w|_3^2 dx = \int_{\mathcal{I}_3} (C^s \delta)_2 |\Delta^s w|_3^2 dx. \end{aligned}$$

averaging of each term in each step) we can approximate ignoring the viscous dissipation in ϵ_{MODEL} (and suppressing the time To explain this idea, we follow closely the presentation in [HMH00].

correct statistics, according to the K -41 theory it must exactly replicate $\bar{\epsilon}$ a value for C^s . This approach is very natural: if the model is to give the The idea of Lilly is to equate $\bar{\epsilon} = \bar{\epsilon}_{\text{MODEL}}$ and from this determine

Lilly's Estimation of C^s .

“tuning” constant. result in LES is due to Lilly [Lil67] in 1967 who showed that (under a number of optimistic assumptions) C^s has a simple, universal value 0.17 and is not a The modelling difficulty now shifts to determining C^s . The first major of Du and Gunzberger [DG90], [DG91], Pares [Par94] and [Lay96], [JL02].

mathematical and numerical development of the model we refer to the work the linear stress-strain relation for flows with larger stresses. For further skaya (see e.g., [Lad67], [Lad69]), who considered it as a correction term for plate mathematical theory for it was constructed around 1964 by Ladzhen- by Smagorinsky [Sma63] in 1963 for geophysical flow calculations and a com- and Richtmyer [vNR50] as a nonlinear artificial viscosity in gas dynamics, The term $\nabla \cdot ((C^s \delta)_2 |\Delta^s w|_2^2 \Delta^s w)$ was studied in the 1950 by von Neumann

$$\nu T = \nu \text{Smag}(w, s) := (C^s \delta)_2 |\Delta^s w|_2^2.$$

Smagorinsky model in which The most commonly used eddy-viscosity model is known in LES as the

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon_{\text{MODEL}} &= \int_{\mathcal{V}} [2Re^{-1} + \nu T(w, \delta)] |\Delta^s w|_2^2 dx, \\ \text{where } k(t) &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathcal{V}} |w|_2^2 dx, P(t) := \int_{\mathcal{V}} \bar{f} \cdot w \, dx \text{ and} \\ k(t) + \int_t^0 \epsilon_{\text{MODEL}}(t') dt' &= k(0) + \int_t^0 P(t') dt', \end{aligned}$$

Interestingly, this universal value $C_s = 0.17$ has almost universally (in experiment) been found to be too large. There have been many other criticisms of the Smagorinsky model associated with it being too dissipative. Rather than summarize them here, we present below two simulations of a 2d flow over an obstacle: one a DNS and the other with the Smagorinsky model. It is clear from these that the dissipation in this model is too powerful.

“Smagorinsky is consonant with Kolmogorov.”

The universal value 0.17, independent of the particular flow, is obtained. This is often expressed as

$$C_s = \pi^{-1} \left(\frac{3}{4} \right)^{3/4} \alpha^{-3/4} \approx 0.17.$$

Equating $\epsilon = \epsilon_{\text{MODEL}}$, all dependence on ϵ cancels in the equation giving

$$\epsilon_{\text{MODEL}} \approx C_s^2 \pi^2 \left(\frac{3}{4} \right)^{3/2} \alpha^{3/2} \epsilon, \quad \alpha \doteq 1.4.$$

$$\epsilon_{\text{MODEL}} \approx (C_s \delta) \left[\frac{3}{4} \alpha \epsilon^{2/3} k^{4/3} \right]^{3/2}, \quad \text{where } k_c = \pi/\delta, \text{ or}$$

then we can write

$$\|\Delta^s w\|_2 \approx \|\Delta^s w\|_3.$$

If we assume that for homogeneous, isotropic turbulence, after time averaging,

$$\|\Delta^s w\|_2 \doteq \int_{k_c}^0 k^2 E(k) dk = \int_{k_c}^0 k^2 (\alpha \epsilon^{2/3} k^{-5/3}) dk = \frac{3}{4} \alpha \epsilon^{2/3} k_c^{2/3}, \quad k_c = \pi/\delta.$$

gives (in the time averaging sense)

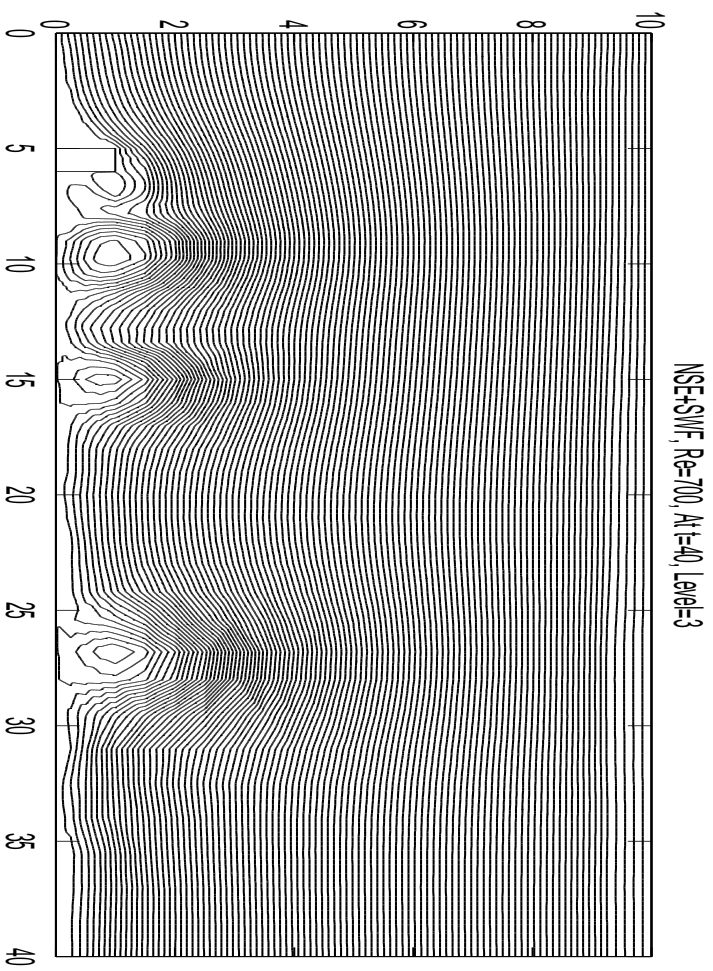


Figure 4.1a. Streamlines of the true solution at time $t=40$ (N. Sahin, 2002)

Germano's idea of dynamic parameter selection, e.g., [GPMC91], gives a big improvement in the performance of the Smagorinsky model. We will not delve into dynamic models here for two reasons. First, dynamic parameter selection is really a way to *improve* the performance of almost any model (and is not specific to the Smagorinsky model). Second, its mathematical foundation seems to be beyond the tools presently available.

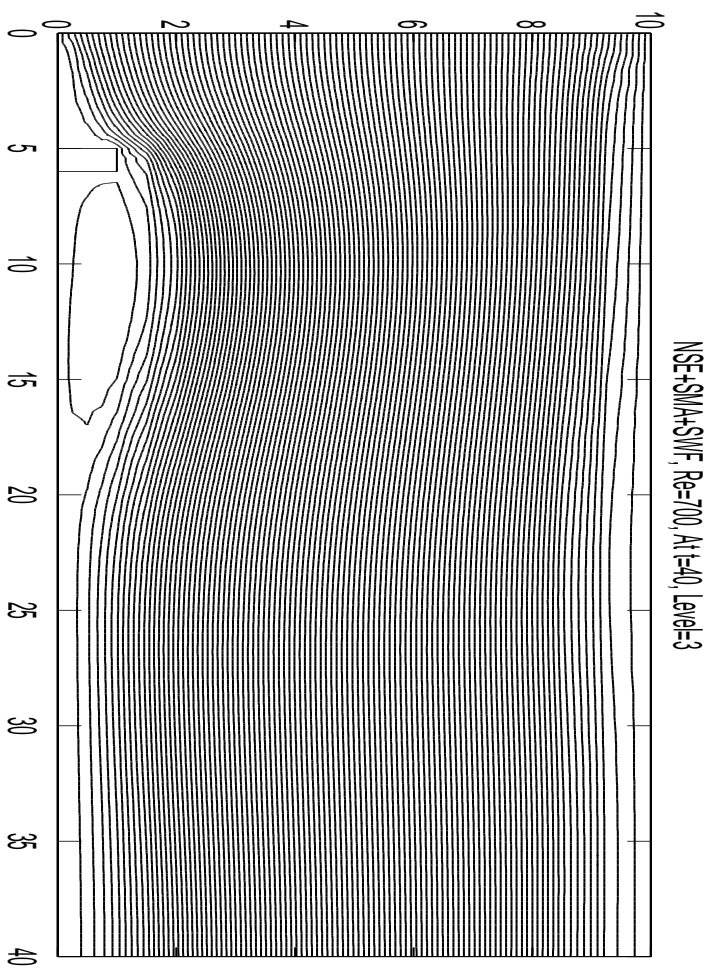


Figure 4.1.b. Streamlines of the Smagorinsky Model at time $t=40$ (N. Sahin, 2002).

$$\nu^{\text{Smag}} = (C_s \delta)^2 |\nabla_s w| = \begin{cases} O(\delta^2) & \text{in smooth regions,} \\ O(\delta) & \text{for fluctuations,} \end{cases}$$

The parameter μ_0 can either be determined dynamically or estimated adapting the approach of Lilly. This eddy viscosity model is much less dissipative than the Smagorinsky model. Indeed,

$$(5.3) \quad w_t + \nabla \cdot (w) + \Delta q - Re^{-1} \Delta w - \nabla \cdot (\mu_0 \delta |w - \underline{w}| \nabla_s w) = \underline{f}, \quad \text{and } \nabla \cdot w = 0.$$

Inserting this estimate into (5.2) gives the LES-eddy viscosity model:

$$\frac{1}{\underline{n}^2} = \frac{1}{\underline{n}^2} |n - \underline{n}| \sim \frac{1}{\underline{n}^2} |n - \underline{n}|^2.$$

Mathematically, energy in the unresolved scales is that of the smallest resolved scales, [IL98]. estimate of k' is obtained by scale similarity: the best estimate for the kinetic ness of this approach to be unclear. However, the most simple and direct The recent important work of Duchon and Robert [DR00] shows the correctness of estimating k' is to solve an approximate energy equation.

$$(5.2) \quad \nu^T \doteq C \delta \sqrt{\underline{k}'}, \quad k' = \frac{1}{2} |n'|^2.$$

The simplest functional form which is dimensionally consistent is the, so-called, Kolmogorov-Prandtl relation, given by

$$(5.1) \quad \nu^T = \nu^T(\delta, \underline{k}'), \quad k'(x) = \frac{1}{2} |n'|^2(x).$$

kinetic energy in the turbulent fluctuations: Within this reasoning (whose "optimism" he acknowledged) it is clear that the amount of turbulent mixing should depend mainly on the local interaction of small eddies.

based his model upon the analogy between perfectly elastic collisions and Boussinesq to seek other choices of ν^T with a more direct connection. Thus, it is natural to seek other choices of ν^T with a more direct connection. Thus, it is natural to seek other choices of ν^T with a more direct connection.

$$\nu^T = (C_s \delta)^2 |\nabla_s \underline{n}|$$

The connection between turbulent fluctuations and the choice

5 Improved Eddy Viscosity Models

The next three figures, provided courtesy of T. Iliescu and P. Fischer, show respectively, the models predicted mean velocity vs. time (from a filtered DNS database), the model's predicted values of u' vs. the true values

standard turbulent statistics well. The next three figures, provided courtesy of T. Iliescu and P. Fischer, show respectively, the models predicted mean velocity vs. time (from a filtered DNS database), the model's predicted values of u' vs. the true values

- $\nu + \nu^L(w) \geq C_0 > 0$,
- $\nu^L(w)(x, t) \in L^\infty(0, T; L^2(\Omega))$, and
- $\|\nu^L(w)\|_{L^\infty(0, T; L^2(\Omega))} \leq C(1 + \|w\|_{L^\infty(0, T; L^2(\Omega))})$.

Experiments with the model have, so far, been positive. Tests of turbulent channel flow of T. Iliescu and P. Fischer indicate that it replicates the three consistency and growth conditions: for all $w \in Y$

The theory behind this result also includes many filters, even differential filters, and many eddy viscosities $\nu^L(w)$ which minimally satisfy the following

Theorem 5.1 (Theorem 3.1 of [LL01]). For $\underline{u}_0 \in L^2(\Omega)$, $\underline{f} \in L^2(\Omega \times (0, T))$ there exists at least one distributional solution to the model (5.3). \square

In [LL01] existence of distributional solutions to the model (5.3) was proven.

$$\int_T^{\mathcal{U}} \int_T^{\mathcal{U}} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} w \, dx \, dt - \int_T^{\mathcal{U}} \int_T^{\mathcal{U}} \phi \cdot \Delta \phi \, dx \, dt = \int_T^{\mathcal{U}} \int_T^{\mathcal{U}} \phi \cdot \Delta^s w \, dx \, dt + \int_T^{\mathcal{U}} \int_T^{\mathcal{U}} \phi \cdot \underline{f} \, dx \, dt.$$

and if for all $\phi \in C^\infty(0, T; C^{2,1}(\Omega))$ and $\phi(T, \cdot) = 0$

$w \in Y := \{v \in L^\infty(0, T; L^2(\Omega)) \cup L^2(0, T; H^1(\Omega)) : \Delta \cdot w = 0\}$

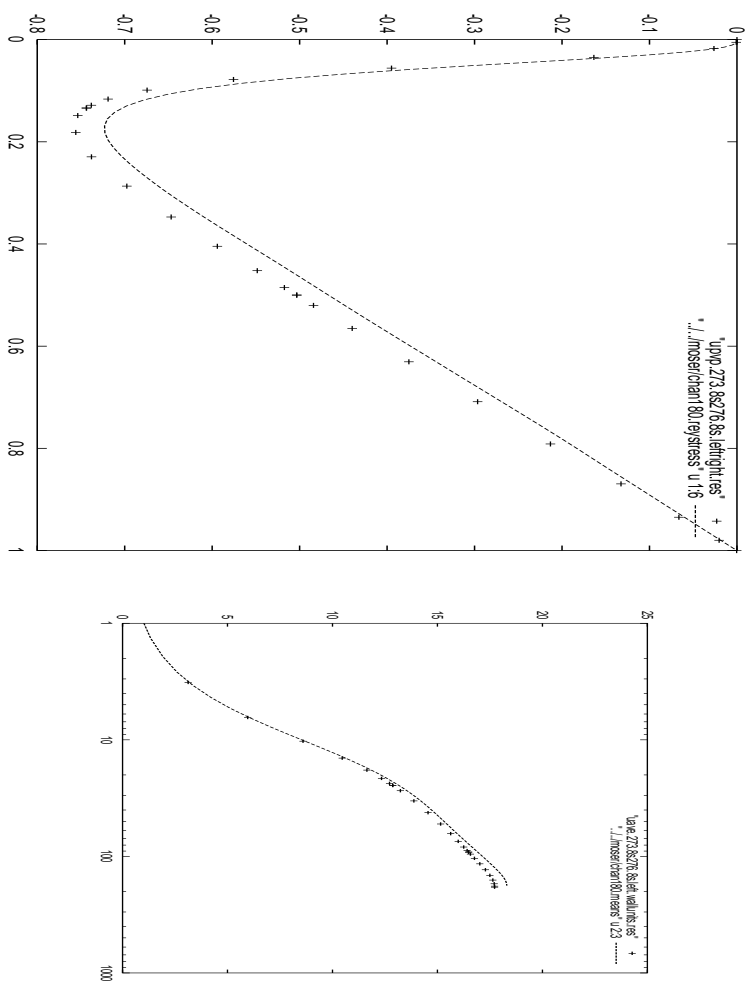
Definition 5.1 Let $\mu_0 > 0$ be fixed and consider (5.3) subject to periodic boundary conditions. Then, w is an distributional solution of (5.3) if

equality of eddy viscosity methods. Since (5.3) is an eddy viscosity model, its energy budget is clear (Proposition 4.1). Nevertheless, the fact that $\nu^L(w)$ can be unbounded places the model (5.3) outside the usual Leray-Lions theory for verifying existence of a distributional solution to the model. The mathematical elucidation of this model (5.3) was begun in [LL02]. It is again based upon the global energy

$$(5.4) \quad \nu^L = \mu_0 \delta |w - \underline{w}| = \begin{cases} O(\delta^3) & \text{in smooth regions,} \\ O(\delta) & \text{for fluctuations.} \end{cases}$$

while, (recall that $\|w - \underline{w}\| = O(\delta^2)$ in smooth regions)

and, third, the model's predicted values of w' vs. the true values, again from the filtered DNS database of Moser, Kim and Mansour [MKM99]. V. John [J02] has also conducted extensive test of $\nu_T = \mu_0 \delta |w - \overline{w}|$ as an eddy viscosity term incorporated into a mixed model, also with good results. The eddy viscosity $\nu_T = \mu_0 \delta |w - \overline{w}|$ has the simplest form and most direct connection with the physical ideas of turbulent mixing, so it is not surprising that closely related models have been independently tested in practical computations. In particular, interesting work has been done by Horuti [Hor85] upon scale-similarity models in general and models like the present ν_T in particular and Sagant [Sag96] who has tested geometric averages of ν_T and



A Related Model: The Gaussian-Laplacian Model

The model (5.6) was studied and tested by Hughes, Mazzei and Jansen [HJM10] who called it the “small-large Smagorinsky model”. The model (5.7) seems appealing computationally, but it seems that a mathematical development of it is very difficult. The Gaussian-Laplacian model of [IL98], which we present next, is a better candidate for a robust model.

$$(5.7) \quad \nu^L = \delta^2 |w - \underline{w}|, \text{ i.e., } \nu^L = \delta^2 |\Delta_s w|,$$

$$(5.6) \quad \nu^L = \delta^2 |\Delta_s w|, \text{ i.e., } \nu^L = \delta^2 |\Delta_s w|,$$

$$(5.5) \quad \nu^L = \delta |w - \underline{w}|, \text{ the model (5.3),}$$

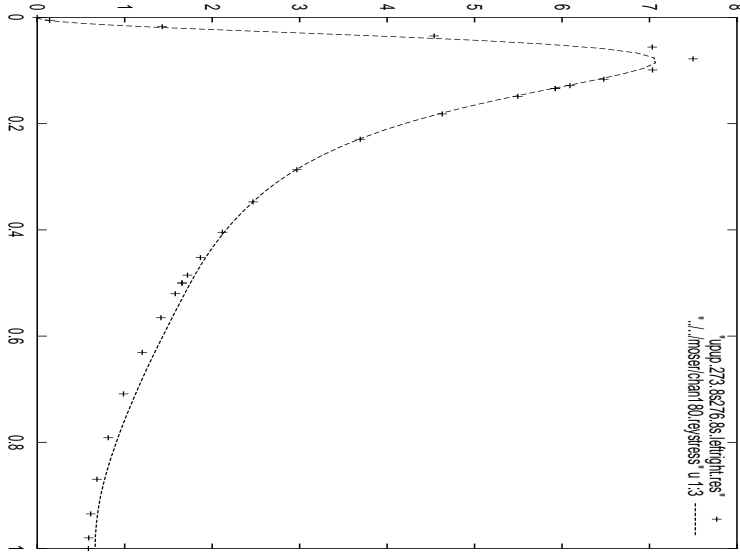
Not all models that are *dimensionally equivalent* can be expected to *perform analogously*. Thus, there is a real interest in exploring dimensionally equivalent versions of the model to test their differences, relative advantages and disadvantages. The three which come immediately to mind are:

Dimensionally Equivalent Models

in some very challenging compressible flow problems.

$$\nu = \nu_\theta^{L \text{ Smag}} = C \delta^{2-\theta} |w - \underline{w}|_\theta |\Delta_s w|_{1-\theta},$$

ν^{Smag} :



The eddy viscosity (5.10) is bounded, thanks to the regularization via convolution by a gaussian. Thus, it was possible in [LL98] to extend the Leray-Lions theory of weak solutions of the NSE to the model (5.11).

$$(5.11) \quad \text{and } \Delta \cdot w = 0.$$

$$w_t + \Delta \cdot (w w) - \Delta q - R e^{-1} \Delta w - \Delta \cdot (u \cdot \nabla w) = \underline{f},$$

The resulting model is:

$$(5.10) \quad \nu_T = \mu_\varepsilon \frac{\lambda}{\delta^3} |g_\delta * \nabla w|.$$

and the turbulent viscosity ([LL98])

$$\underline{\nu} = \frac{1}{\delta^2} \frac{\lambda}{2} |\overline{|\nabla w|^2}| + O(\delta^4).$$

tions:

This gives the approximation to the kinetic energy of the turbulent fluctua-

$$\hat{\nu}'(\mathbf{k}) = \frac{\lambda}{\delta^2} |\mathbf{k}|^2 \hat{\nu}(\mathbf{k}) + O(\delta^4).$$

The approximation (5.9), used in (5.8), gives:

$$(5.9) \quad \hat{g}_\delta(\mathbf{k}) \cong \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\lambda}{\delta^2} |\mathbf{k}|^2} + O(\delta^4).$$

[Poz94],

preserving this is the subdiagonal $(0, 1)$ -Padé approximation, e.g., [GL00], to the decay of $\hat{g}_\delta(\mathbf{k})$ as $|\mathbf{k}| \rightarrow \infty$. Thus, Taylor approximations (which have the opposite behavior) are not appropriate. The simplest approximation

$$(5.8) \quad \mathcal{F}(u') = \mathcal{F}(u - \hat{u}) = \hat{u} - \hat{g}_\delta(\mathbf{k}) \hat{u} =$$

$$= (\hat{g}_\delta^{-1}(\mathbf{k}) - 1) \hat{g}_\delta(\mathbf{k}) \hat{u}, \text{ or,}$$

$$\hat{u}' = (\hat{g}_\delta(\mathbf{k})^{-1} - 1) \hat{u}(\mathbf{k}).$$

Fourier transforms we have

$\nu_T = \mu_0 \delta |w - \hat{w}|$ in wave number space as follows. Since $\hat{u}' = u - \hat{u}$, taking

The Gaussian-Laplacian model is based on an asymptotic expansion of

$$\mathcal{R}(u, n) \Rightarrow \mathcal{S}(\underline{n}, \underline{n}).$$

• Subgrid scale models for the Reynolds stresses
 The fundamental problems of LES revolve around *closure* and there are several closure problems, including

6 Conclusions

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{n} &\doteq \hat{g}_s \underline{n} \doteq \left(\frac{1 + \frac{4\gamma}{\delta^2} |\mathbf{k}|^2}{1} \right) \hat{n} (+ O(\delta^4)) \\ \text{or } \hat{n} &\doteq (1 + \frac{4\gamma}{\delta^2} |\mathbf{k}|^2) \underline{\hat{n}}, \text{ which, when inverted, gives} \\ \underline{n} &\doteq (- \frac{4\gamma}{\delta^2} \Delta + 1) \underline{n}. \end{aligned}$$

approach. For example, we have using Padé approximations rather than Taylor approximations is the correct (and developed in [GL00]) suggests that deconvolution of Gaussian filters developed by Stoltz and Adams [SA97]. The considerations leading to (5.9) $n \doteq O(\underline{n})$ can be obtained. This point of view has been extensively

Remark: Deconvolution by Padé Methods.

The problem of closure is solved provided a “good” deconvolution approximation $n \doteq O(\underline{n})$ can be obtained. This point of view has been extensively smoothed by, e.g., [CLMG92], [MS98].
 The extra eddy viscosity term in (5.11) is called a Gaussian-Laplacian. It has other interesting mathematical properties and has been used for image-

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon^{\text{Model}}(t) &:= \int_{\hat{\Omega}} R \epsilon^{-1} |\Delta w|_2^2 + \mu_3 \frac{4\gamma}{\delta^3} |g_s * \Delta w| |\Delta^s w|_2^2 dx. \quad \square \\ \text{where } k(t) &:= \frac{1}{2} \int_{\hat{\Omega}} |w|_2^2 dx, \quad P(t) := \int_{\hat{\Omega}} \underline{f} \cdot w \, dx \text{ and} \\ k(t) + \int_t^0 \epsilon^{\text{Model}}(t') dt' &\leq k(0) + \int_t^0 P(t') dt', \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 5.2 Consider (5.11) subject to periodic boundary conditions and $\mu_3 > 0, \gamma > 0$. Then, a weak solution to (5.11) exists in the large and satisfies the energy inequality

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Acknowledgments

In computations and in the mathematical development of the models, understanding the model's global energy inequality is the key to insight and progress.

(3.10) to give a mixed model. which is combined with more systematic models of the remaining terms in

$$-\Delta \cdot \underline{u'} \sim -\Delta \cdot (\underline{u'}^T \Delta^s \underline{u}),$$

fluctuation interaction term $-\Delta \cdot (\underline{u'}^T \underline{u'})$ in (3.10): usefulness of eddy viscosity models will likely be as a model of the turbulent resolved scales (discussed in a subsequent lecture). However, the ultimate finest resolved scales (discussed herein) and models acting only on the finest resolved scales whose turbulent viscosity coefficients depend only on the robustness, accuracy and universality. The most interesting new development in LES. Even with them, there remains a lot to be done to increase their Eddy-viscosity models have been a workhorse for the first closure problems for *non-local* averages of fluid velocities.

- The problem of Near Wall Modeling and finding *local* boundary conditions of Vasiliev, Lund and Moin [VLM98].
- Closure for extra terms which arise with variable averaging radius $\delta = \delta(x)$, due to the same non-commutativity, (see the interesting work [DJL02]).
- Closure for the extra terms arising because convolution/filtering and differentiation *do not commute* on bounded domains ([DJL02]).

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