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**TER**

**Clustering of inertial particles in turbulence**

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## **Acknowledgements**

Acknowledgements

## **Abstract**

Abstract

# Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>Study of initial data</b>	<b>4</b>
2.1	Fluid mechanics . . . . .	4
2.2	Conditions of the experiment . . . . .	6
<b>3</b>	<b>Clustering study</b>	<b>7</b>
3.1	Density . . . . .	8
3.1.1	Before turbulence . . . . .	8
3.1.2	After turbulence . . . . .	9
3.2	Voronoi diagram approach . . . . .	12
3.2.1	Voronoi diagram construction . . . . .	12
3.2.2	Before turbulence . . . . .	16
3.2.3	After turbulence . . . . .	16

# 1 Introduction

Particles are considered to be randomly arranged in a cube with a fluid in a Poisson distribution. Then a turbulence is applied to the fluid. After a given time and depending on the parameters, we can observe void areas and areas where the particles are grouped together. The different parameters used are the Reynolds number that characterizes the turbulence, and the Stokes number that characterizes the ability of a particle to follow the movement of the fluid. The purpose of this TER is to quantify the void areas and to characterize the clustering using a Voronoi Tessellation for different Reynolds number and Stokes number values. We will be based on data and the scientific articles of our research tutors.

## 2 Study of initial data

This section is intended to study how the data produced by our research tutors was produced.

### 2.1 Fluid mechanics

The droplet arrangement in this cube depends on different physical factors, which we will define, mainly the Stokes and Reynolds number.

**Definition 1.** *Reynolds number*

*The Reynolds number characterizes a flow, in particular the nature of its regime (laminar, transitional, turbulent) and therefore its degree of turbulence. Thus, for a strong turbulence, the Reynolds number will be large. The Reynolds number is defined as such:*

$$Re = \frac{V \times L}{\nu}$$

where :

$V$  is the velocity of the fluid with respect to the object (m/s)

$L$  is a characteristic linear dimension (m)

$\nu$  is the kinematic viscosity of the fluid (m<sup>2</sup>/s)

**Definition 2.** *Time constant*

*In physics, a time constant, noted  $\tau$ , is a quantity that characterizes the speed of the evolution of a physical quantity over time, especially when this evolution is exponential.*

**Definition 3.** *Viscous time*

*Time  $\tau_{viscous}$  is the characteristic duration of the exponential decrease in the velocity of a particle subjected to viscous friction.*

$$\tau_{viscous} = \frac{\rho \times d^2}{18 \times \mu}$$

where :

$\rho$  is the density of the particle

$d$  is the characteristic length of the particle

$\mu$  is the dynamic viscosity of the fluid

**Definition 4.** *Inertia time*

Time  $\tau_{inertia}$  is the characteristic duration of inertia.

$$\tau_{inertia} = \frac{L}{v}$$

where :

$v$  is the fluid velocity

$L$  is the characteristic length

**Definition 5.** *Stokes number*

The Stokes number is used to study the behaviour of a particle in a fluid. It represents the ratio between the kinetic energy of the particle and the energy dissipated by friction with the fluid. Thus, the Stokes number characterizes the inertia of a particle in a fluid. The more inertia a particle has, the greater the Stokes number will be. If  $St = 0$  the particle have no mass. The Stokes number is defined as such:

$$St = \frac{\tau_{viscous}}{\tau_{inertia}}$$

There are two different regimes:

- The viscous regime ( $St < 1$ ): the particles follow the movement of the fluid.
- The inertial regime ( $St > 1$ ): the particles are entrained by their inertia and their trajectory is not very influenced by the movement of the fluid.

**Definition 6.** *Navier-Stokes equations*

The governing equations of turbulent airflow are the continuity and Navier-Stokes equations for three dimensional incompressible flows:

$$\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_i} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u_i u_j}{\partial x_j} = -\frac{1}{\rho_a} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x_i} + \nu \frac{\partial^2 u_i}{\partial x_j^2} + F_i$$

where :

$u_i$  is the fluid velocity in the  $i$ th direction

$\rho_a$  is the air density

$p$  is the pressure

$\nu$  is the kinematic viscosity

$F_i$  is the external forcing term.

**2.2 Conditions of the experiment**

!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!! A REVOIR !!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!

difference between  $Re_\lambda$  and  $Re$  ???

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + (u \cdot \nabla)u = -\frac{1}{\rho_a} \nabla p + \nu \nabla^2 u$$

$$\frac{\partial x_i}{\partial t} = v_i \qquad \frac{\partial v_i}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial v_i - u_i}{\tau_p}$$

In this simulation we have :

$$Re_\lambda = \frac{l_\lambda u_{rms}}{\nu} \qquad St = \frac{\tau_p}{\tau_\eta}$$

where :

$l_\lambda$  is Taylor microscale

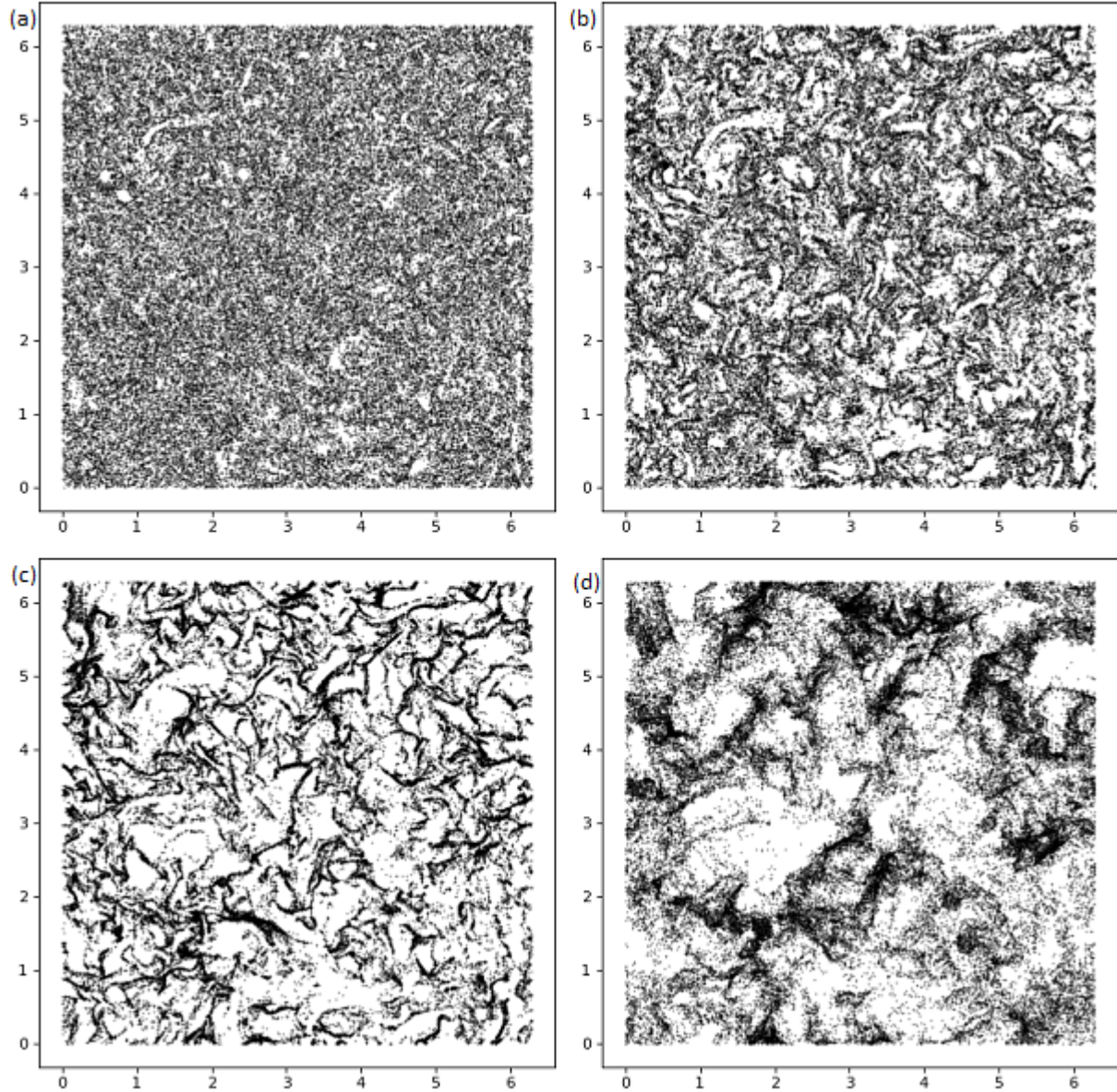
$u_{rms}$  is RMS value of velocity fluctuation

$\nu$  is kinematic viscosity

$\tau_p$  is relaxation time of droplet motion

$\tau_\eta$  is Kolmogorov time

The simulation is done in a cube with edges of length  $2\pi L_0$  where  $L_0$  is the representative length scale and with the 3 pairs of opposite faces glued, so this is a 3-torus. The medium is considered isotropic, i. e. it has the same properties in all directions. The data we will study were simulated in an environment without gravity in order not to alter the isotropic nature of the environment. We take a large number of inertial particles, i.e. with a higher density than the fluid, with a random spatial distribution that follows a Poisson probability distribution function (PDF) and consider them as Stokes particles. Collisions between particles will be neglected. Simulations for values from  $St=0.05, 0.2, 0.5, 1.0, 2.0$  and  $5.0$  at  $Re=204$  were done.



*Spatial distribution of dropets for  $St = (a)0.005, (b)0.02, (c)1, (d)5$  at  $Re_\lambda = 204$*

For  $St=1.0$  we can clearly observe void areas. For  $St<1.0$ , the void areas are less clear. For  $St>1.0$  they are larger but less clear than  $St=1.0$ . We can ask ourselves how to quantify the clustering in function of the Stokes and Reynolds number.

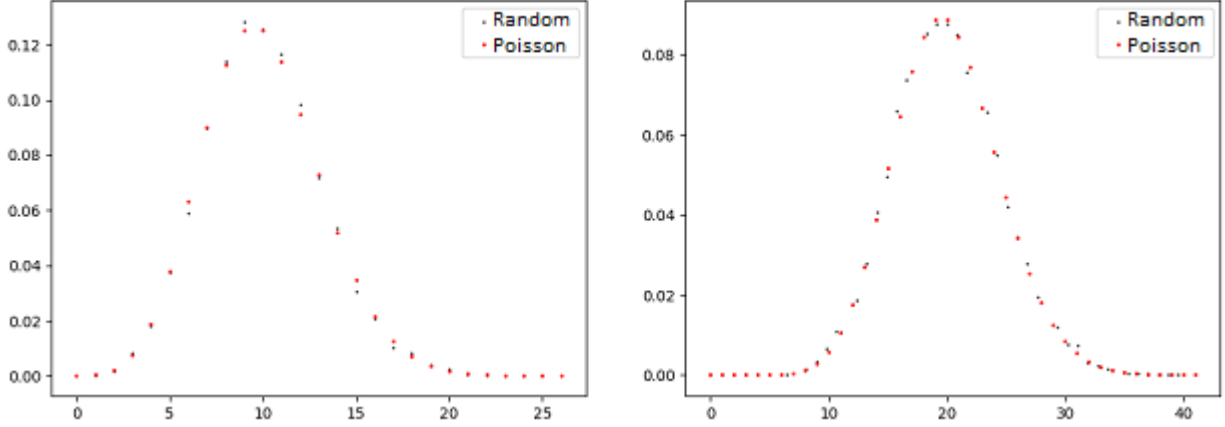
### 3 Clustering study

Afterwards we will take a  $\frac{2*\pi}{200}$  size range of the studied data. We will see two methods to quantify the clustering to highlight the influence of the Stokes and Reynolds number. Firstly, we will compute the density by cutting the area in boxes and counting the number of particles per cell. Secondly, we will use the Voronoi diagram approach, indeed the more the particles are grouped, the smaller the area of their cell will be.

## 3.1 Density

### 3.1.1 Before turbulence

We will calculate the particle density following an uniform distribution knowing that this is the initial condition before the turbulence.



To the left (respectively right), in red a Poisson density of parameter  $\lambda = 10$  ( $\lambda = 20$ ), in black the density of 100000 points (200000 points) with  $100 \times 100$  subdivisions.

**Propertie 1.** The density of an uniform distribution follow a Poisson distribution.

$$B(n, p) = P(\lambda) \text{ with } \lambda = np$$

**Proof 1.** The density of an uniform distribution follow a binomial distribution because we independently repeat several identical random experiments. Let  $X$  following binomial distribution of parameter  $n$  and  $p$ .

Let  $\lambda = np$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(X = k) &= \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \\ &= \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^k \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-k} \\ &= \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} \frac{1}{n^k} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-k} = \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} \frac{1}{n^n} (n-k)^{n-k} \end{aligned}$$

Stirling's approximation give us :

$$\begin{aligned} n! &\approx \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n \\ \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} &\approx \sqrt{\frac{n}{n-k}} \frac{n^n}{(n-k)^{n-k}} e^{-k} \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} \frac{1}{n^n} (n-k)^{n-k} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \sqrt{\frac{n}{n-k}} \frac{n^n}{(n-k)^{n-k}} e^{-k} \frac{1}{n^n} (n-k)^{n-k} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \left( \frac{n-\lambda}{n-k} \right)^{n-k} e^{-k}\end{aligned}$$

$$\left( \frac{n-\lambda}{n-k} \right)^{n-k} = e^{(n-k)\ln\left(\frac{n-\lambda}{n-k}\right)} \text{ and we know that } \ln(1+x) \approx x \text{ when } x \rightarrow 0$$

$$\text{So } \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \ln \left( \frac{n-\lambda}{n-k} \right) = \frac{n-\lambda}{n-k} - 1 = \frac{k-\lambda}{n-k} \text{ and } \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} e^{(n-k)\ln\left(\frac{n-\lambda}{n-k}\right)} = e^{\lambda+k}$$

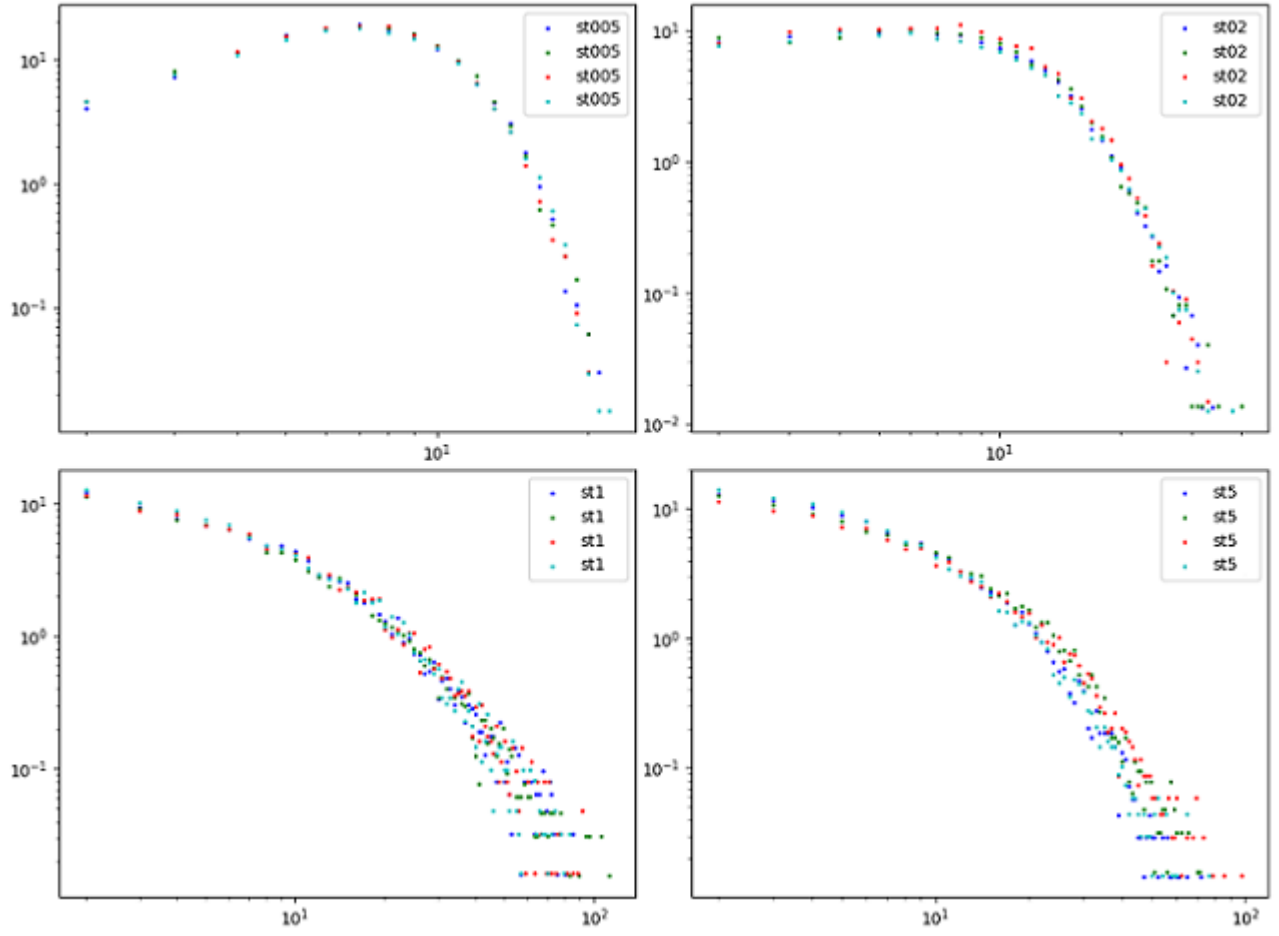
$$\text{And } \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \left( \frac{n-\lambda}{n-k} \right)^{n-k} e^{-k} = \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda}$$

We can conclude that :

$$B(n, p) = P(np) = P(\lambda)$$

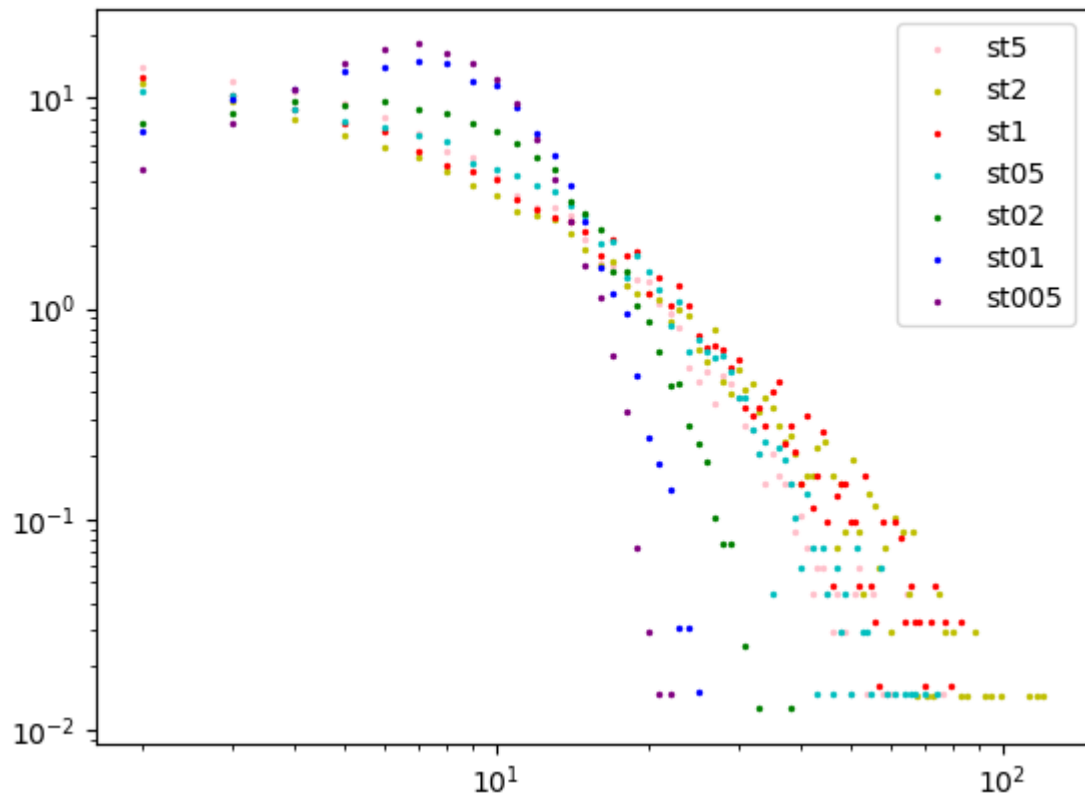
### 3.1.2 After turbulence

In this subsection we will calculate the density after the turbulence for different Stokes number and then for different Reynolds number.



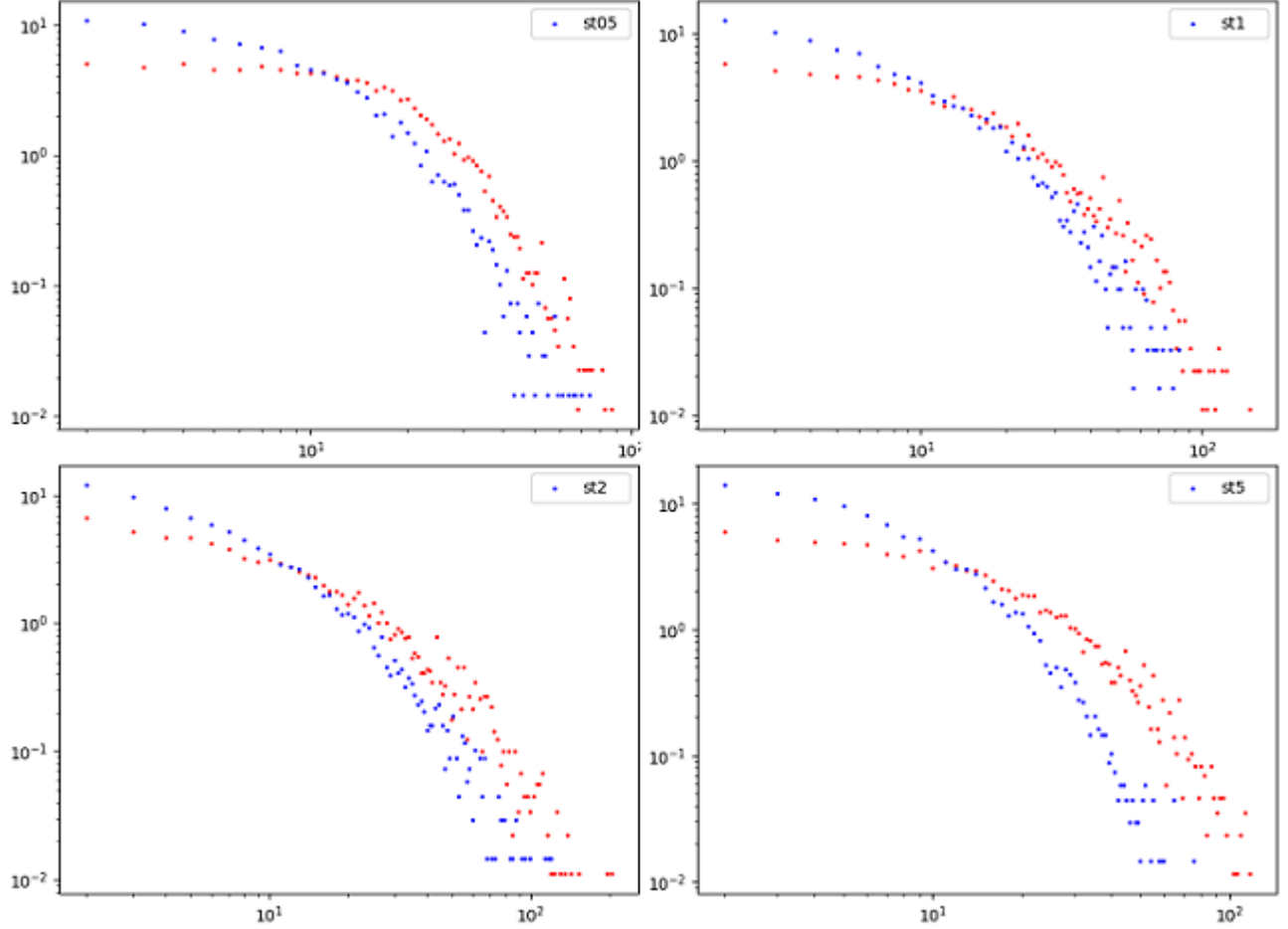
*Different density at different times.*

The density for a same Stokes number at different times are stable.



*Histogram of the density of particles using a logarithmic scale.*

As expected nearest St are to 1, more there are dens and void areas.



*Different density for  $Re=204$  in blue and  $Re=328$  in red for  $ST=0.05, 1, 2$  and  $5$ .*

When the turbulence become stronger, there are less void area but there are more high density area.

## 3.2 Voronoi diagram approach

The Voronoi diagram approach are interesting because the area of cells depend to the position of particles contrary to the density approche which depend to the dimmition of boxes.

### 3.2.1 Voronoi diagram construction

A Voronoi diagram is a paving of the plane built from a finite number of points called sites or germs. For each germ  $p_i$ , a Voronoi cell is the group of points of the plane that are closer to the germ  $p_i$  than to all the other germs in the plane. The paving of the plane by Voronoi cells is called a Voronoi diagram. This diagram is named after the Russian mathematician Georgi Fedoseevich Voronoi (1868 - 1908). Voronoi diagrams are used in many disciplines and have many applications (robotics, biology, plant growth, medical imaging...). A Voronoi cell delimits the area of influence of a point. Note that Voronoi diagrams can be generalized to other spaces and norm.

## General definitions

We suppose known the coordinates of a set of points  $P = \{p_i, 1 \leq i \leq n\}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ .

### Definition 7. Voronoi cells

We call Voronoi cell of the point  $p_i \in P$ , which is noted  $C_i$ , all the points of the space closer to  $p_i$  than all the other points of  $P$  :  $C_i = \{q \in \mathbb{E}, \forall j, \|qp_i\| \leq \|qp_j\|\}$ . The point  $p_i$  associated with the cell  $C_i$  is called the germ of this cell.

### Definition 8. Voronoi diagrams

We call Voronoi diagram of the set  $P$ , the cutting of the space in cell  $C_i$  associated to the points.

### Definition 9. Convex set

A set  $C$  in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  is said to be convex if,  $\forall (a, b) \in C \times C, \forall t \in [0, 1], ta + (1 - t)b \in C$

Afterwards we will use the Euclidean norm.

## Voronoi diagram in $\mathbb{R}^2$

### Definition 10. Voronoi vertex and edge:

The intersection of two Voronoi cells is empty or equal to a segment, a half right, or a right. In the latter three cases, this intersection will be called Voronoi edge. The intersection of two Voronoi edge, if it is not empty, is called the Voronoi vertex.

A Voronoi diagram shows the following properties :

**Propertie 2.** A Voronoi edge, separating two Voronoi cells  $C_i$  and  $C_j$ , is the perpendicular bisector  $p_i p_j$ .

**Proof 2.** All points on this Voronoi edge are at equal distance of  $p_i$  and  $p_j$ . So they are on the perpendicular bisector  $p_i p_j$ .

**Propertie 3.** The Voronoi vertex common to three cells  $C_i$ ,  $C_j$  and  $C_k$  is the centre of the circumscribed circle to the triangle of vertices  $p_i$ ,  $p_j$  and  $p_k$ .

**Proof 3.** The intersection points of two Voronoi edges are on the perpendicular bisector  $p_i p_j$  and  $p_j p_k$ , so it is the center of the circumscribed circle.

**Note 1.** If the points  $p_i$ ,  $p_j$  and  $p_k$  are aligned, the perpendicular bisector  $p_i p_j$  and  $p_i p_k$  are parallel. The Voronoi vertex does not exist.

**Propertie 4.** A Voronoi diagram is a convex subdivision of plane. A bounded Voronoi cell is a polygon.

**Proof 4.**  $C_i$  is the intersection of a finite number of half-plane, so it is a convex region. The border is made up of a series of Voronoi edges and Voronoi vertex. If  $C_i$  is bounded, its boundary is closed;  $C_i$  is therefore a convex polygon.

## Delaunay triangulation in $\mathbb{R}^2$

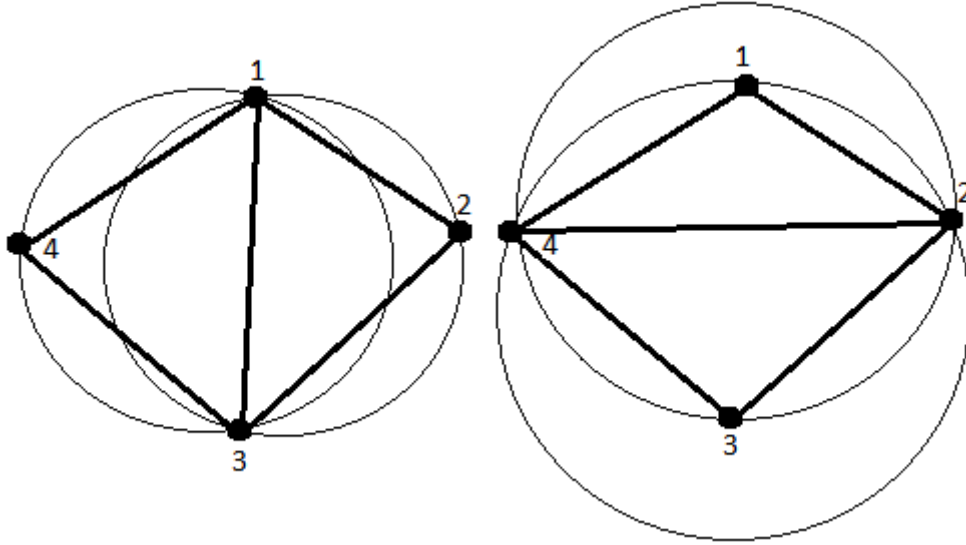
Like the Voronoi diagrams, Delaunay triangulation is a division of the plane into cells associated with points  $p_i \in P$ . The Delaunay triangulation of a set of points  $p_i \in P$  of the plane is a triangulation  $T$  such that no point of  $P$  is inside the circumscribed circle of one of the triangles of  $T$ . This triangulation was invented by the Russian mathematician Boris Delaunay (1890 - 1980) in an article published in 1934.

### Definition 11. *Delaunay triangle*

We call Delaunay triangle, a triangle noted  $D_i$ , which has as vertex three of the germs  $p_a, p_b, p_c \in P$  and such that its circumscribed circle has no germs inside it.

### Definition 12. *Delaunay triangulation*

We call Delaunay triangulation of the set  $P$ , the cutting of the plane in cell  $D_i$ , i.e. all the Delaunay triangles associated with the points  $P$ .



Here are two examples of triangulation, the one on the left is a Delaunay triangulation, the one on the right is not because point 3 is inside the circle circumscribed to the triangle formed by points 1,2,4.

## From Delaunay to Voronoi in $\mathbb{R}^d$

### Definition 13. *d - Simplex*

A simplex is the convex hull of a set of  $(d+1)$  points used to form an affine coordinate system in an affine space of dimension  $d$ .

**Definition 14.** *Open d – Ball*

The open d – Ball of centre  $c_0$  and radius  $r$  noted  $B^d(c_0, r)$  is define as :

$$B^d(c_0, r) := \{p \in \mathbb{R}^d \text{ with } \|c_0 - p\| \leq r\}$$

**Definition 15.** *Delaunay cells*

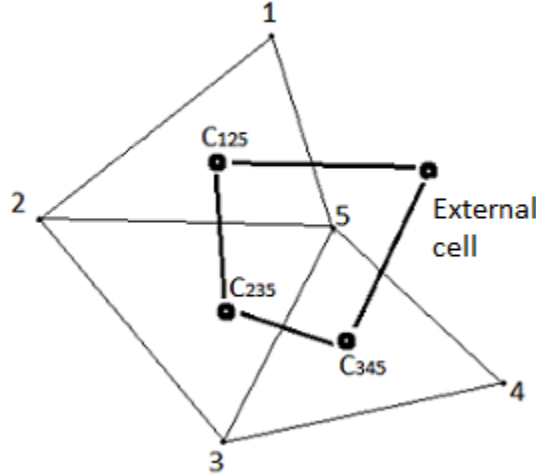
We call Delaunay cell, a simplex noted  $D_i$ , which has for vertices  $(d+1)$  germs such as there are no other germ inside the open d – Ball generated the this vertices.

**Definition 16.** *Undirected graph*

An undirected graph  $G$  is a pair  $(V; E)$ , where  $V$  is a set and  $E$  is a symmetrical binary relation define on  $V$ , i.e.  $(u, v) \in E \implies (v, u) \in E$ . The elements of  $V$  are called vertices and the elements of  $E$  are called the edges of  $G$ .

**Definition 17.** *Dual graph*

The dual graph  $G'$  of  $G$ , is a graph whose vertices are the faces of the previous graph (including the outer region), and whose edges are the edges of the previous graph, each edge connecting the two faces it borders.



Exemple in 2D of a graphe and this dual.

**Definition 18.** *Voronoi diagrams*

For a set of points  $P$ , the dual of the Delaunay triangulation is the Voronoi diagram.

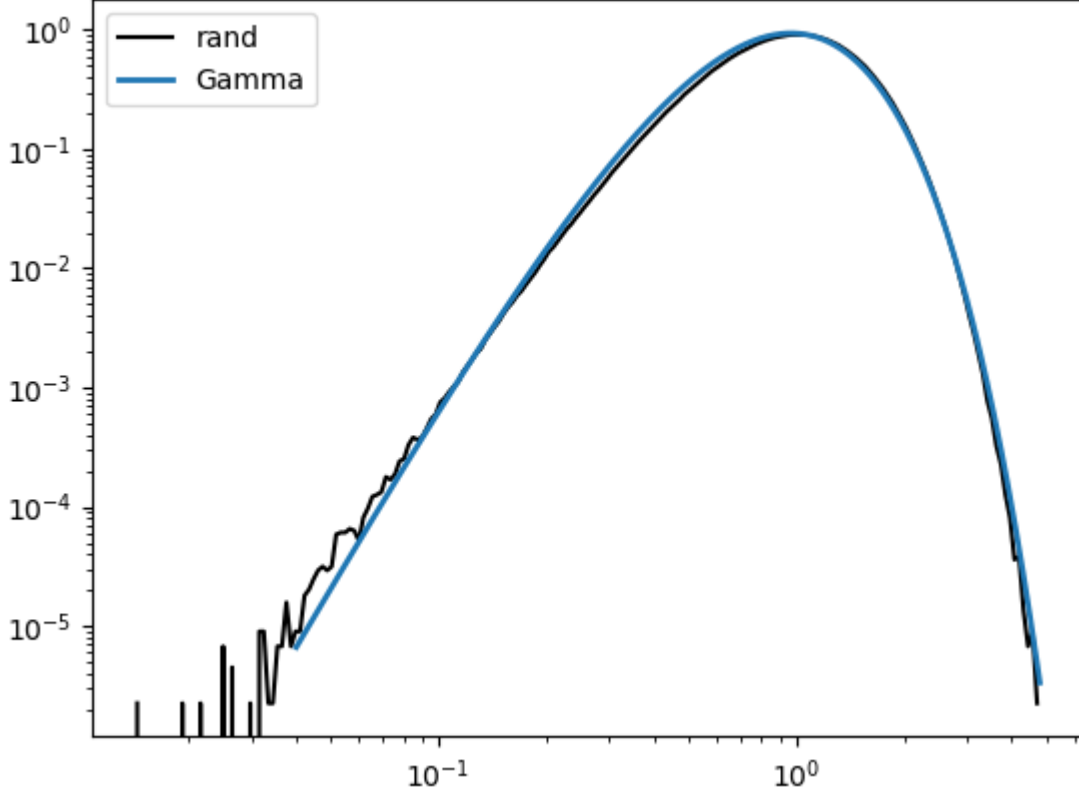
**Definition 19.** *Voronoi cells*

We can deduct that the Voronoi cell  $C_i$  is the convex hull of all the centers of the circumscribed circles generated by the simplexes of the germ  $p_i$ .

The algorithm of Guibas and Stolfi where be used. This algorithm is based on the principle of divide-and-conquer, which allows us to have an algorithmic complexity of  $O(n \ln(n))$ , which will allow us to work on a large number of data.

### 3.2.2 Before turbulence

We will calculate the area of Voronoi cells following an uniform distribution knowing that this is the initial condition before the turbulence.



*Area of Voronoi cell normaled by the mean for an uniforme distribution and an approche by a Gamma distribution.*

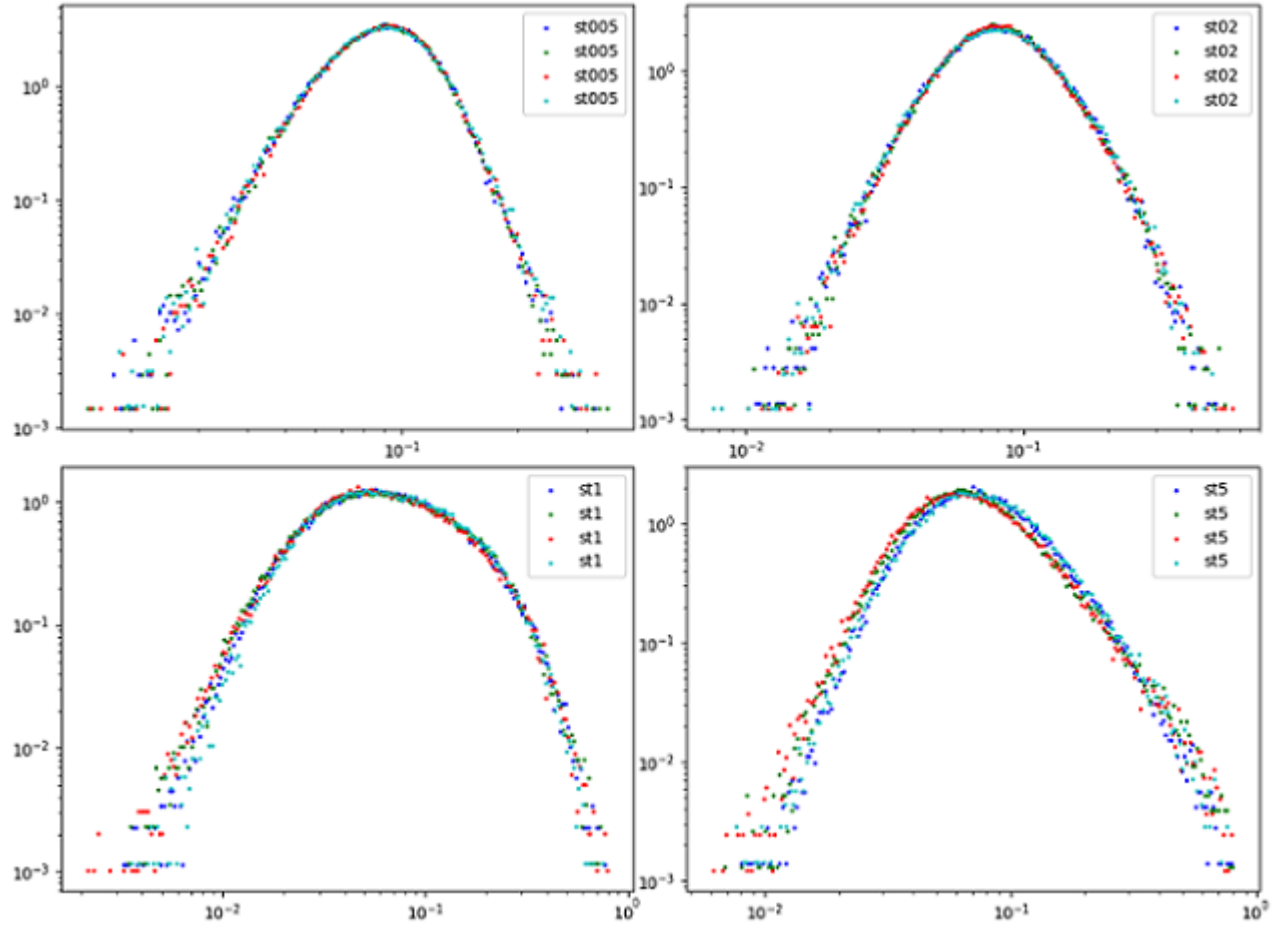
**Propertie 5.** *The area of Voronoi cells following an uniform distribution follow a gamma distribution.*

**Proof 5.** *In 1D  
demonstration*

### 3.2.3 After turbulence

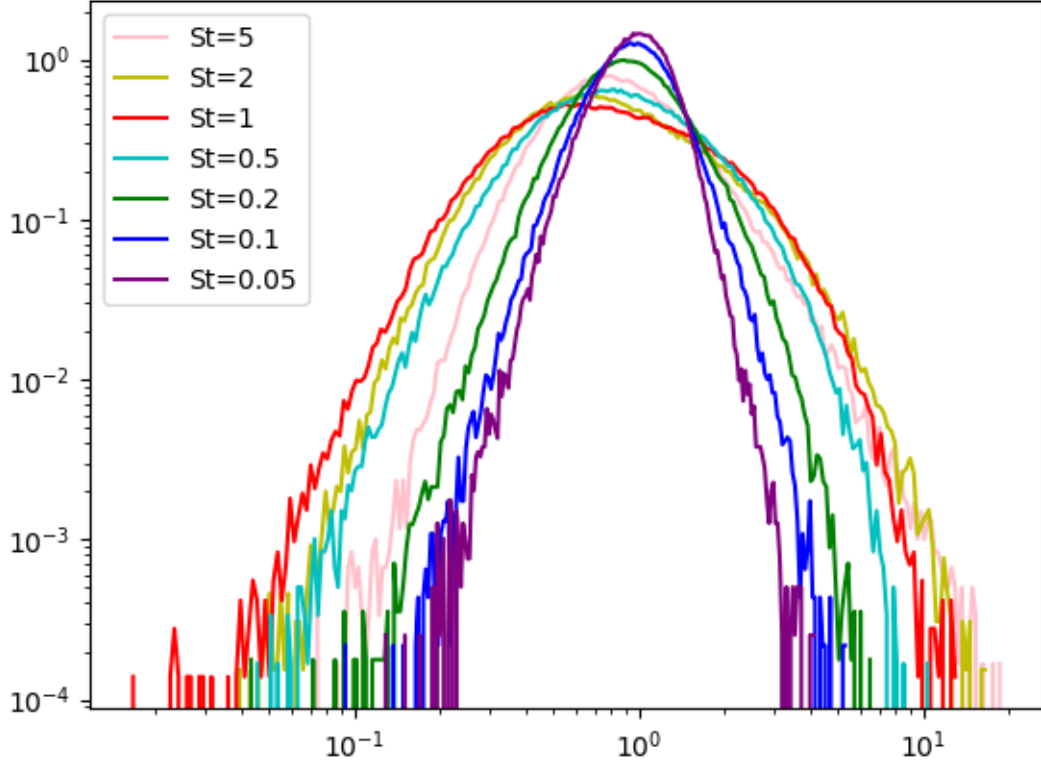
In this subsection we will calculate the area of Voronoi cells after the turbulence for different Stokes number and then for different Reynolds number. For this section when we speak about standard deviation or mean we speak about the standard deviation and the mean of the logarithme of the area.





*Different area of Voronoi cell at different times.*

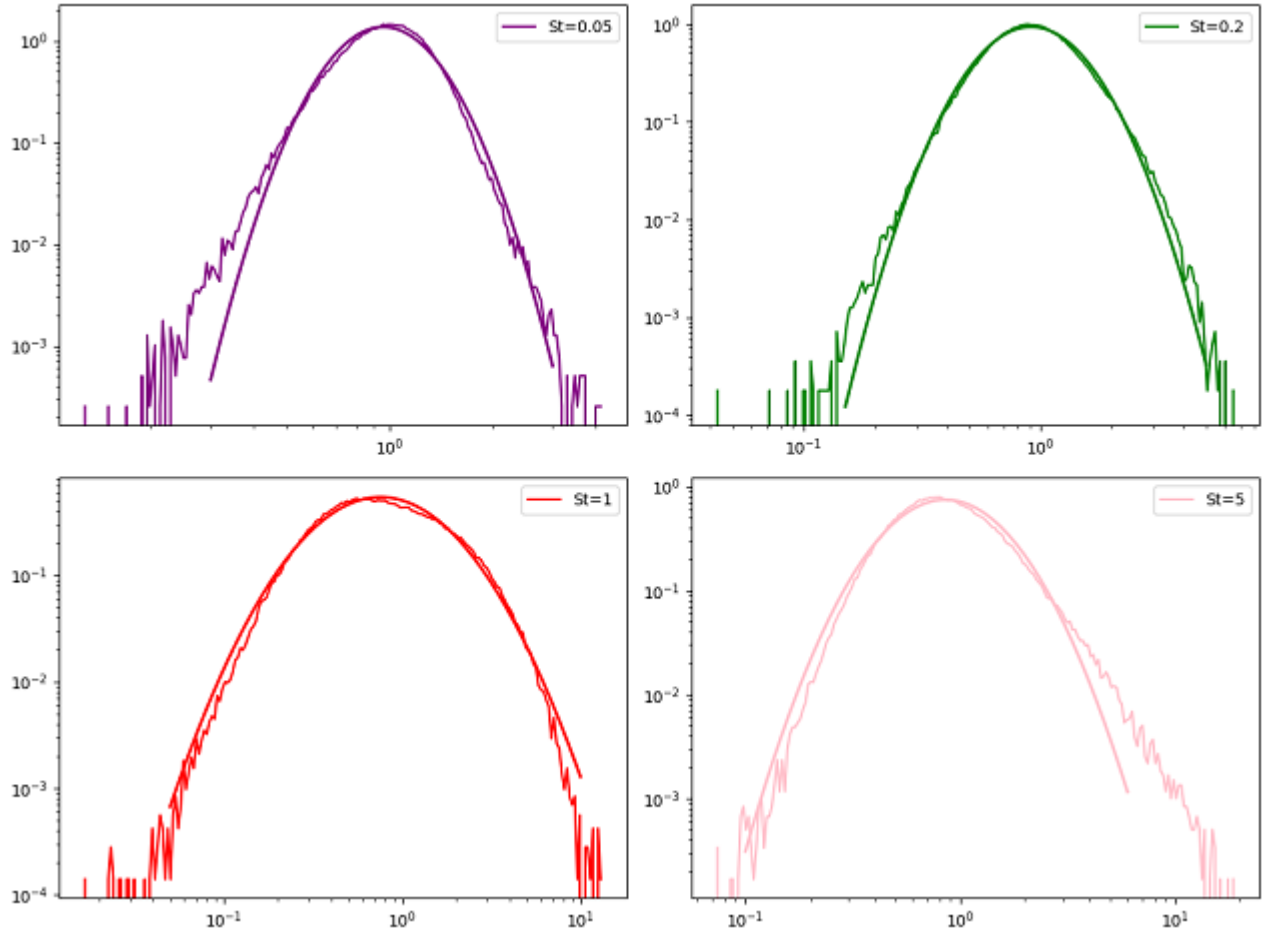
As the density the area of Voronoi cells are stable for a same Stokes number.



*Histogram of the area of Voronoi cell using a logarithmic scale normalized by the mean.*

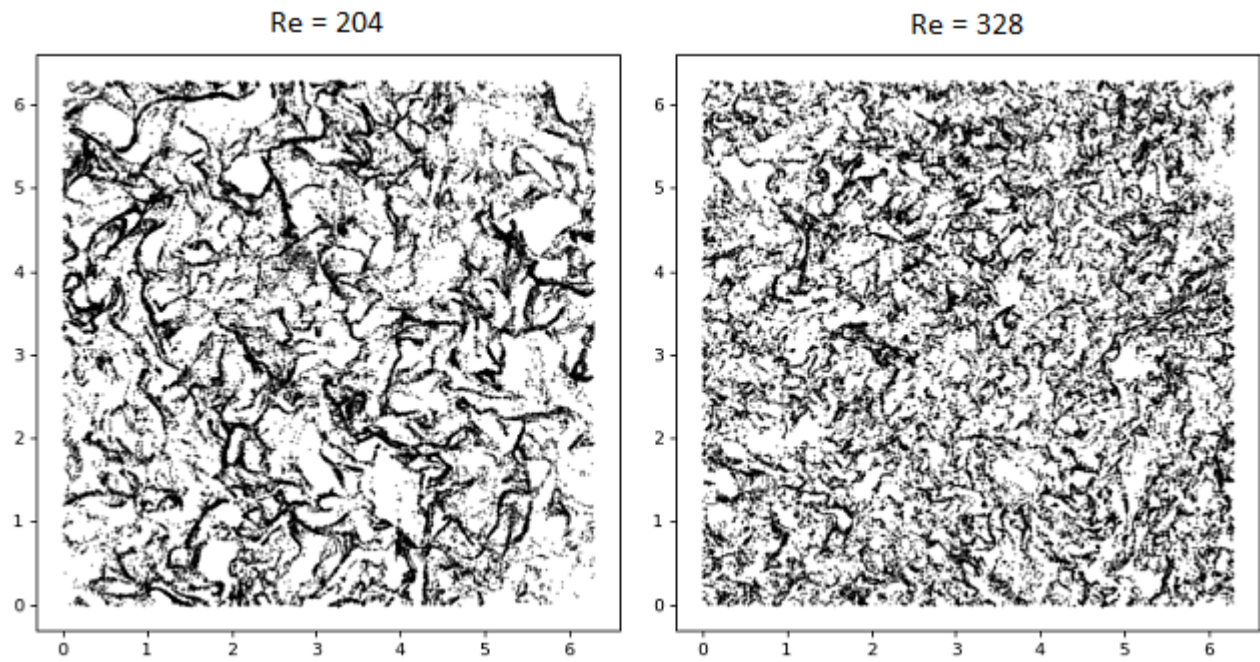
As expected when the Stokes number are weak the standard deviation are small, and nearest Stokes number are to 1 more the standard deviation are. It should be noted that for  $St = 5$  the standard deviation become again small. We can think that if we do a simulation for an higher Stokes number we will found a small the standard deviation as when the Stokes number a weak.

We can try to approuche the PDF with Log-normal distribution.

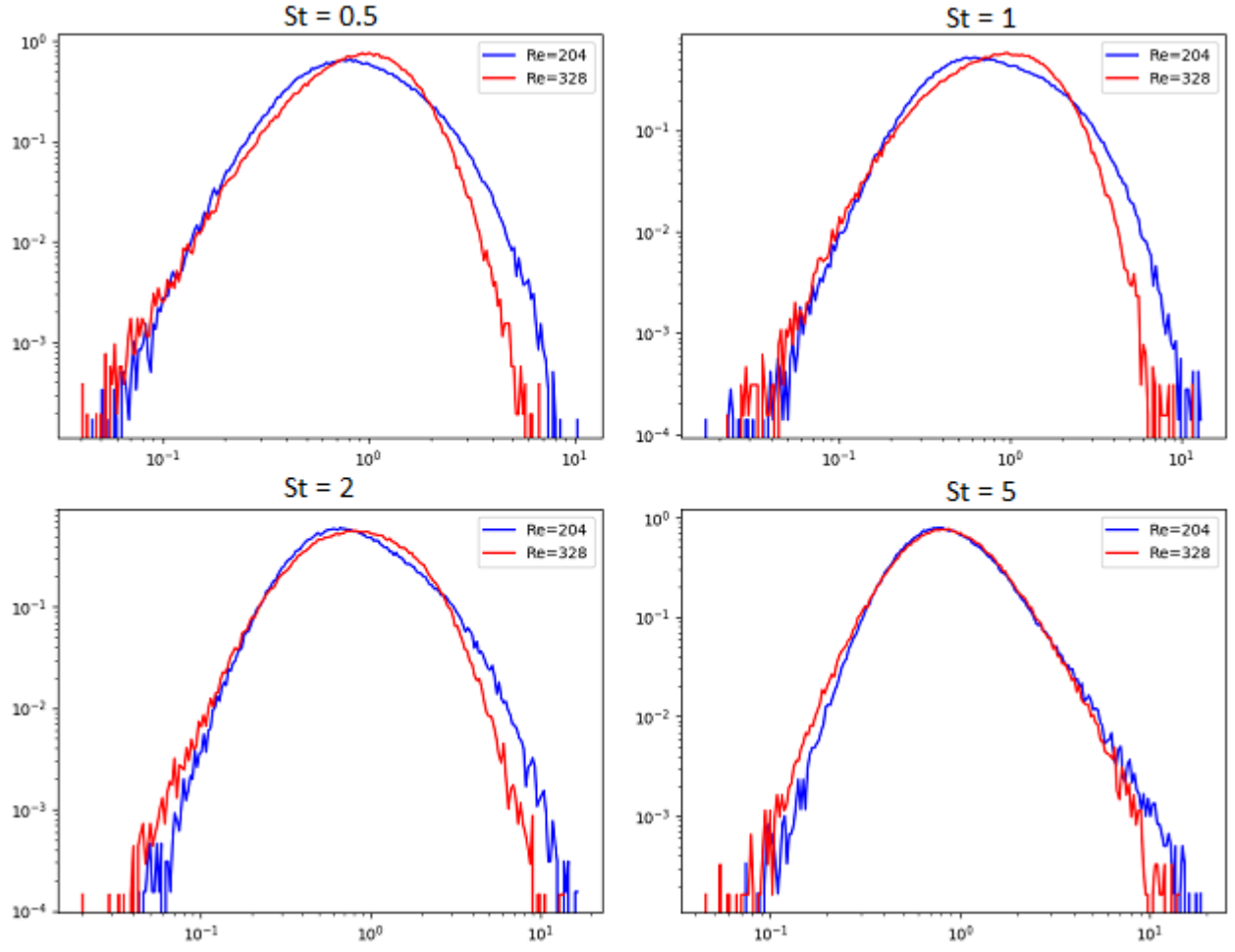


*Different area of Voronoi cell for  $Re=204$  and the Log-normal distribution associate.*

We can conclude the the area of Voronoi cells clearly don't follow a Log-normal distribution even if the Log-normal distribution is preaty near to the PDF when the Stokes number are near to 1. This aspect is much more visible on 3D data (q.v. annexe).



*Spatial distribution of dropets for  $St = 1$  at  $Re_\lambda = 204$  and  $Re_\lambda = 328$*



*Different area of Voronoi cell for  $Re=204$  in blue and  $Re=328$  in red for  $St=0.05, 1, 2$  and  $5$ .*

We can see that Reynolds number have an influence on number of large area of Voronoi cells.