Investigations on one-way coupling effects of particle-laden decaying isotropic turbulent flows

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1 Nomenclature

Stress tensor

I	Identity tensor
\boldsymbol{S}	Rate-of-strain-tensor
μ	Dynamic viscosity
ρ	Density
∇	Nabla-operator
Q	Container for conserved variables in the Navier-Stokes equations
u	Three-dimensional velocity
$H^{ m i}$	Stores the inviscid variables in the flux-vector included in the Navier-Stokes equations
H^{v}	Stores the viscous variables in the flux-vector included in the Navier-Stokes equations
H	Container for fluctuating variables in the Navier-Stokes equations
q	Heat conduction
c_p	Specific isobaric heat capacity
c_v	Specific isochoric heat capacity
E	Specific inner energy
e	Specific internal energy
k_t	thermal conductivity
p	Pressure
Pr	Prandtl number
R	Universal gas constant
Re	Reynolds number
S	Sutherland temperature
T	Temperature

2 Introduction

in Computational Methods for Multiphase Flow ist auf den Seiten 3-9 ein interessantes Beispiel.

3 Mathematical models

Sollen wir hier noch isotrope Turbulenz etc. erklaeren?

3.1 Single-phase flow

In this section the mathematical basics for understanding and simulating turbulent flows are discussed. However, it should be pointed out that this is no complete treatise of the mathematical and physical basics. The reader can achieve further insight on this topic by looking at different books and papers, e.g. [7].

3.1.1 The Navier-Stokes equations

The Navier-Stokes-Equations are of great importance for understanding turbulent phenomena. This set of equations exists in forms for compressible and incompressible fluids. For an infinitesimal small volume element $d\tau$ and using the cartesian coordinate system, they can be written in the so-called 'divergence form':

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{Q}}{\partial t} + \nabla \mathbf{H} = 0 \tag{3.1}$$

It should be noted by the reader that this work only contains investigations about chemically inert fluids and particles, and that the simulation results only fit under this condition. The vector Q contains all the variables which are conserved, i.e. the density ρ , the velocity u and the specific inner energy E:

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} \rho \\ \rho u \\ \rho E \end{pmatrix} \tag{3.2}$$

 $m{H}$ is the flux vector which stores all the floating variables and may be split up into two parts:

$$H = H^{i} + H^{v} \tag{3.3}$$

The contents of the two vectors are displayed below:

$$\mathbf{H}^{\mathbf{i}} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho \mathbf{u} \\ \rho \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u} + p \\ \mathbf{u}(\rho E + p) \end{pmatrix}$$
(3.4)

$$\mathbf{H}^{\mathbf{v}} = -\frac{1}{Re} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \boldsymbol{\tau} \\ \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{u} + \boldsymbol{q} \end{pmatrix}$$
 (3.5)

 H^i is called inviscid flux and contains only the variables that are independent of the fluids viscosity, it describes the way a fluid with zero viscosity would behave. In contrast, the viscous flux H^v represents the effects of viscosity. The Reynolds number $Re = \frac{\rho vd}{\eta}$ is defined to be the ratio of inertia to tenacity, which makes it very valuable for understanding turbulent flows. This is also due to the fact that two familiar objects with the same Reynolds number behave similar in turbulence. One can assume that flows with Re << 1 are laminar and

flows with Re >> 1 are turbulent. To solve the Navier-Stokes-Equations, more information regarding some variables is required. For Calculating the specific inner Energy E and the heat conduction q, the following equations are used:

$$E = e^{\frac{1}{2}|\boldsymbol{u}|^2} \tag{3.6}$$

$$\boldsymbol{q} = -\frac{\mu}{Pr(\gamma - 1)} \boldsymbol{\nabla} T \tag{3.7}$$

with

$$\gamma = \frac{c_p}{c_v} \tag{3.8}$$

and the Prandtl number

$$Pr = \frac{\mu_{\infty}c_p}{k_t} \tag{3.9}$$

using the specific heat capacities of the fluid c_v and c_p . If one could assume that the fluid is a newtonian fluid, the linear correlation between stress and the rate of strain results in:

$$\tau = 2\mu \mathbf{S} - \frac{2}{3}\mu(\nabla * \mathbf{u})\mathbf{I}$$
(3.10)

in which $S = \frac{(\nabla u)(\nabla u)^T}{2}$ denotes the rate-of-strain-tensor. Additionally, the viscosity μ can be approximated through Sutherland's law, which is based on the ideal gas-theory:

$$\mu(T) = \mu_{\infty} \left(\frac{T}{t_{\infty}}\right)^{3/2} \frac{T_{\infty} + S}{T + S} \tag{3.11}$$

S is in this case the Sutherland temperature. To achieve closure the caloric state equation $e=c_vT$ and the state equation for an ideal gas $p=\rho RT$ are used. The specific gas constant is determined by $R=c_p-c_v$. These equations form a set of partial differential equations, so for solving them starting values are needed. These are initialized at the first timestep of the simulation. To achieve physical solutions, 150 timesteps are computed before the particles are initialized, so the turbulence can evolve from the synthetic values to a natural flow field

Christoph Siewert: -2.1 bis 2.6 Stephan Fritz: -Navier-Stokes-Gleichungen (Anhang B) Randbedingungen?

3.2 Particle dynamics

Siewert: -3.1a-3.14 (spherical particles) OHNE GRAVITATION Stokes Drag/Stokes Coefficient Filterung (Fritz) -¿Viskositaet durch numerischen Fehler, Smagorinksy nicht benutzen

To get a usefuell equation of motion for the particles in the flow, we use the Euler Lagrangian approach, as it is common in Direct Numerical Simulations (DNS) and Large Eddy Simulations (LES). In this work we deal with small and heavy particles, that have a spherical shape. Their radius r_p is even smaller than the Kolmogorov scale η , but also large enough to neglect the Brownian motion. The density of the particles ρ_p is much higher than that of the fluid ρ_f . In addition due to the very low particle concentration we can neglect the influence of the particles on the mean flow and on each other. This simplification is called one-way coupling. That means that the particles can cross each other without any effect. That means particle collisions are neglected. After all this simplifications we obtain a simplified version of the Maxey-Riley equations.

$$\frac{\partial x_{\mathbf{p}}}{\partial t} = v_{\mathbf{p}} \tag{3.12}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{v_p}}{\partial t} = \frac{f_D}{\tau_p} (\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x_p}) - \mathbf{v_p})$$
 (3.13)

It shows that the particle motion is only depending on the the hydrodynamical drag force which results out of the actual difference between the fluid velocity $u(x_mathrmp)$ at particle position x_p and the particle velocity v_p . $\tau_mathrmp$ is the particle response time and a factor to obtain the drag force in Stokes flow conditions. To take the case of an Reynolds number \Re of order 1 into account the correction factor

$$f_D = 1 + 0.15Re_p^{0.687} (3.14)$$

is used. The biggest simplification of this Lagrangian approach is that the interaction of particles coming close together is neglected.

4 Numerical methods

To simulate flows like those described above we have two options. The direct numerical simulation (DNS) is the easier one to understand, although it is numerically very expensive. The Large-eddy simulation (LES) is numerically more capable, still we must accept certain inaccuracies. These two numerical methods are now discussed in the following chapter.

4.1 Direct numerical simulation

The basis of the direct numerical simulation (DNS) are the Navier-Stokes equations as described above. The idea is that the computer is very good at calculating and solves these equations completely. This provides us a very accurate result, as all scales of motion are being resolved. Still it requires an immense level of computational resources which increases rapidly with the Reynolds number. These computational resources were not available until the 1970s [7]. Pojektion (noComputationalParticles) implizite LES (Motivation fuer LES -

Pope Chapter 9, Bild 9.4), DNS

5 Results

Graphen (particleFree rot, Laden gruen)

6 Conclusion

7 References

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