

Generalization of the Kolmogorov — 5/3 law of turbulence

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When the energy transfer function Π is a power-law function of the wave number k , $\Pi \propto k^\alpha$, the spectral dynamic equation of isotropic turbulence has a power-law solution, and the energy spectrum is $E(k) = C(\alpha)\Pi^{2/3}k^{-5/3}$, which is a generalization of the Kolmogorov — 5/3 law $E(k) = K_0\epsilon^{2/3}k^{-5/3}$. The Kolmogorov law corresponds to the special case of $\alpha=0$ and $\Pi=\epsilon$. Here $C(\alpha)$ is a dimensionless coefficient and depends upon the exponent α , $K_0=C(0)$ is the Kolmogorov constant, and ϵ is the energy dissipation rate. $C(\alpha)$ is evaluated by numerically solving the spectral dynamic equation.

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The energy spectrum $E(k)$ of an isotropic turbulence satisfies the following spectral form of the von Kármán–Howarth equation [1]:

$$dE(k)/dt + 2\nu k^2 E(k) = T(k) .$$

Here $dE(k)/dt$ denotes the derivative of $E(k)$ with respect to time t , k is the wave number, ν is the kinematic viscosity, and $T(k)$ is the energy transfer spectrum function of the triad interaction between modes of turbulence. The energy transfer function $\Pi = \Pi(k) = \int_k^\infty T(k')dk'$ is the net rate of energy transfer from the wave numbers below k to those above. If Π is a constant independent of k and equals the energy dissipation rate ϵ , we have

$$E(k) = K_0 \epsilon^{2/3} k^{-5/3} , \tag{1}$$

which is the celebrated Kolmogorov — 5/3 law, K_0 being the Kolmogorov constant. The Kolmogorov — 5/3 law (1) is a consequence of scaling properties of the hydrodynamic equation [2], and can be derived from the Navier-Stokes equation by statistical closure methods. The scaling properties imply that $E(k) \propto k^\gamma$ is a possible statistical solution of the Navier-Stokes equation even if γ takes a value other than $-5/3$. This possibility is explored here. $\Pi(k) = \text{const}$, a premise of the Kolmogorov — 5/3 law, is a special case of the following more general expression of Π :

$$\Pi = \Pi(k) = \Pi_1 k^\alpha . \tag{2}$$

Here Π_1 is a constant independent of k . This paper proves that if the energy transfer function Π is given by

(2), then the energy spectrum

$$E(k) = C(\alpha)\Pi^{2/3}k^{-5/3} , \tag{3}$$

so $E(k) \propto k^{-5/3+2\alpha/3}$. Here $C(\alpha)$ is a dimensionless coefficient and depends upon the exponent α . Equation (3) is called the generalized — 5/3 law and becomes the Kolmogorov law (1) when $\alpha=0$, $\Pi=\Pi_1=\epsilon$, and $C(0)=K_0$. Readers who are not interested in the derivation of (3) can skip the next two mathematical paragraphs.

Various statistical closure methods of the Navier-Stokes equation [3–5] yield the following expression for the energy transfer function Π :

$$\Pi = \int_k^\infty dk' \int_0^k dp \int_{\max(p, k'-p)}^{p+k'} dr S(k'|p, r) , \tag{4a}$$

$$S(k|p, r) = 16\pi^2 k^3 pr [b(k, p, r)d(r, p, k) + b(k, r, p)d(p, r, k)] / \eta(k, p, r) , \tag{4b}$$

$$d(r, p, k) = q(r)[q(p) - q(k)] , \quad q(k) = E(k) / 4\pi k^2 , \tag{4c}$$

$$\eta(k, p, r) = \eta(k) + \eta(p) + \eta(r) . \tag{4d}$$

Here $\eta(k)$ is the dynamic damping coefficient and $b(k, p, r)$ is a geometrical factor. Different closure methods give $\eta(k)$ quite different meanings. If we treated $\eta(k)$ as an optimal control parameter to minimize the approximation which is made during the derivation of (4), we would obtain

$$q(k)\eta(k) = 2\pi \int_0^\infty dp \int_{\max(p, k-p)}^{p+k} dr kpr \{f(k, p, r) + f(k, r, p) + b^*(k, p, r)d(k, r, p)[\eta(p) - \eta(r)]\} / \eta(k, p, r)^2 , \tag{5a}$$

$$f(k, p, r) = b(k, p, r)d(r, k, p)[2\eta(p) + \eta(r)] , \tag{5b}$$

which is called the $\eta(k)$ equation [5]. The geometrical factors $b(k, p, r)$ and $b^*(k, p, r)$ are defined as follows:

$$b(k, p, r) = (p/k)(xy + z^3) , \quad b^*(k, p, r) = (pr/k^2)(yz + x^3) ,$$

where x , y , and z are the cosines of three angles of the triangle with sides k , p , and r .

When the energy transfer function Π is given by (2), Eqs. (4) and (5) have a power-law solution,

$$q(k) = Ak^m , \quad \eta(k) = Bk^n . \tag{6}$$

Substituting (6) into (4) and (5), we obtain a set of algebraic equations for determining A , m , B , and n . Let $k' = k/u$, $p = vk'$, and $r = wk'$; after some manipulation, from (2), (4), and (6) we obtain

$$8 + 2m - n = \alpha, \quad (7)$$

$$\Pi_1 = 16\pi^2 [A^2/B] I_1(m, n, \alpha), \quad (8a)$$

$$I_1(m, n, \alpha) = \int_0^1 dv (v^{1-\alpha} - v) / \alpha \int_{\max(v, 1-v)}^{1+v} dw w [b(1, v, w) w^m (v^m - 1) + b(1, w, v) v^m (w^m - 1)] / [1 + v^n + w^n]. \quad (8b)$$

Similarly, if we let $p = vk$ and $r = wk$, from (5) and (6) we obtain

$$5 + m - 2n = 0, \quad (9)$$

$$B^2/A = 2\pi I_2(m, n), \quad (10a)$$

$$I_2(m, n) = \int_0^\infty dv v \int_{\max(v, 1-v)}^{1+v} dw w [b(1, v, w) w^m (1 - v^m) (2v^n + w^n) + b(1, w, v) v^m (1 - w^m) (2w^n + v^n) + b^*(1, v, w) (w^m - v^m) (v^n - w^n)] / [1 + v^n + w^n]^2. \quad (10b)$$

From (7) and (9) we have

$$m = -\frac{11}{3} + 2\alpha/3, \quad n = \frac{2}{3} + \alpha/3. \quad (11)$$

Instead of A and B , we use the dimensionless coefficients

$$C = 4\pi A / \Pi_1^{2/3}, \quad D = B / \Pi_1^{1/3}. \quad (12)$$

Then, Eqs. (8a) and (10a) become

$$D/C^2 = I_1(-\frac{11}{3} + 2\alpha/3, \frac{2}{3} + \alpha/3, \alpha), \quad (13a)$$

$$D^2/C = I_2(-\frac{11}{3} + 2\alpha/3, \frac{2}{3} + \alpha/3)/2. \quad (13b)$$

When α is given, $I_1(-\frac{11}{3} + 2\alpha/3, \frac{2}{3} + \alpha/3, \alpha)$ and $I_2(-\frac{11}{3} + 2\alpha/3, \frac{2}{3} + \alpha/3)$ can be evaluated by using (8b) and (10b). Then, from (13) we determine the dimensionless coefficients C and D . Obviously C is a function of α , i.e., $C = C(\alpha)$. The change of the ratio $C(\alpha)/K_0$ with α is given in Fig. 1, and $K_0 = C(0)$. From Eqs. (2), (6), (11), and (12), we have

$$E(k) = 4\pi k^2 q(k) = 4\pi A k^{m+2} = C [\Pi_1 k^\alpha]^{2/3} k^{-5/3} = C \Pi^{2/3} k^{-5/3},$$

which is exactly the generalized $-5/3$ law (3).

In summary, when the energy transfer function Π is given by (2), the spectral dynamic equations have a power-law solution, and the energy spectrum $E(k)$ is expressed by (3), which is a generalization of the Kolmogorov $-5/3$ law. The Kolmogorov law (1) is just a special case of (3), corresponding to $\alpha = 0$, $\Pi = \epsilon$, and $K_0 = C(0)$. Figure 1 shows the change of $C(\alpha)/K_0$ with α .

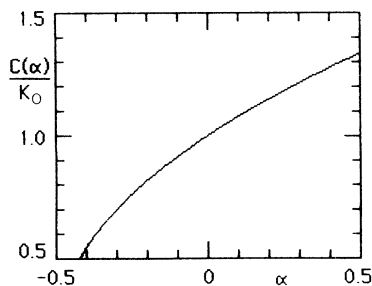


FIG. 1. $C(\alpha)/K_0$ vs α .

The above derivation of the generalized $-5/3$ law (3) is based upon a particular closure method. Actually, (3) can also be derived by other closure methods capable of deriving the Kolmogorov $-5/3$ law from the Navier-Stokes equation. Various closure methods [3–5] yield the same expression for the η transfer function Π , but have different forms of the η equation (or response equations). If a closure method is capable of deriving the Kolmogorov $-5/3$ law, its closed spectral dynamic equations have a power-law solution (6). Then, its energy equation leads to (7) and its η (or response) equation leads to (9); hence we obtain the generalized $-5/3$ law (3). Of course, different closure methods have different forms of the function $I_2(m, n)$ corresponding to different forms of the η (or response) equation. Consequently, this might predict different values of the dimensionless coefficient $C(\alpha)$. The issue over which closure method is better has no effect upon the validity of the generalized $-5/3$ law (3) and will not be discussed here.

One might ask why and where the exponent α of (2) is different from zero. Before discussing the problem, it should be noticed that the energy transfer function Π approaches zero as $k \rightarrow 0$ or $k \rightarrow \infty$; hence, it is not realistic to model $\Pi = \Pi(k)$ by a power function of k for the whole wave number range of a real turbulent flow. However, it is possible to use (2) as a simple model of Π in some limited range. For example, the Kolmogorov model $\Pi = \text{const} = \epsilon$ ($\alpha = 0$) is routinely used over a limited inertial range of real turbulent flows. In the inertial range, the viscous term $2\nu k^2 E(k)$ is neglected, the spectral dynamical equation becomes $dE(k)/dt = T(k)$, and

$$\Pi = \int_k^\infty T(k') dk' = \int_k^\infty [dE(k')/dt] dk' + \text{const} \quad (k \text{ in inertial range}). \quad (14)$$

In an absolutely stationary turbulence $dE(k)/dt = 0$, Π becomes a constant independent of k , the α of (2) is zero, and the Kolmogorov $-5/3$ law (1) is valid. When the macrostructure of a high Reynolds number turbulence is changing spatially and temporally, $dE(k)/dt \neq 0$, by (14) Π is no longer a constant in the inertial range. In this case, as pointed out by Lumley [6], the energy flux at the low wave number end of the inertial-range spectral pipeline is not equal to the energy flux at the high wave num-

ber end. When the macrostructure is changing spatially and temporally, the physical fact of Π changing with k in the inertial range should be taken into account in turbulence modeling [6]. In the inertial range of a decaying homogeneous turbulence, $dE(k)/dt$ is negative and by (14) Π increases with k ; hence (2) with a positive α is a better model than $\Pi = \text{const}$. In the inertial range of a developing turbulence, initially only large scales are excited, then smaller and smaller scales are excited step by step, $dE(k)/dt$ is positive, by (14) Π decreases with k , and hence (2) with a negative α is a better model than $\Pi = \text{const}$. Although the macrostructure of a turbulence is changing, $E(k)/[dE(k)/dt]$ is still greater than the relaxation time of modal triad interactions in the inertial range, so the spectral dynamic equations (4) and (5) are still valid. The quasistationarity condition implies that $|\alpha|$ is not large. When $|\alpha| < 0.5$, the deviation of the exponent $-5/3 + 2\alpha/3$ of the energy spectrum (3) from the exponent $-5/3$ of (1) is less than 20%, which is not easy to be observed over a quite limited wave-number range. However, according to Fig. 1, the corresponding relative change in $C(\alpha)$ may be higher than 30%, which might be one of the reasons why the experimental values of the Kolmogorov constant are widely scattered.

Of course, $dE(k)/dt \neq 0$ is not the unique physical situation where (2) is a better model than $\Pi = \text{const}$. In numerical simulations or some experiments [7], a quite narrow inertial range is observed around $0.1 k_d$. Here k_d is the Kolmogorov wave number. In the narrow range around $0.1 k_d$, the viscous term $2\nu k^2 E(k)$ is positive, $\Pi = 2\nu \int_k^\infty k'^2 E(k') dk'$ decreases with k even if we assume $dE(k)/dt = 0$, and (2) with a negative α is a better

model than $\Pi = \text{const}$. In short, the Kolmogorov model $\Pi = \text{const} = \epsilon$ is the simplest inertial-range model, and is a special case ($\alpha = 0$) of (2), which represents an improvement over $\Pi = \text{const}$ to take into account the long-range effect of the viscous term as well as the nonstationarity effect. We should notice that the exponent α of (2) is not a universal constant; its value depends upon the wave-number range to be studied and how the macrostructure of a turbulent flow is changing, spatially and temporally.

It is well known [1] that the intermittency of turbulence may lead to inertial-range energy spectrum to deviate from the Kolmogorov $-5/3$ law (1). The main purpose of this paper is to prove the generalized $-5/3$ law (3). It is not intended to give any contribution to the intermittency problem. According to (3), the deviation of the energy spectrum from the Kolmogorov $-5/3$ law might be a result of the wave-number dependence of the energy transfer function Π , in addition to the intermittency effect. The Kolmogorov $-5/3$ law (1) is a consequence of two premises, the premise of self-similarity of small scales (or the premise of global scaling [2]) and the premise of constant Π [$\Pi(k) = \text{const} = \epsilon$]. The self-similarity premise implies $E(k) \propto k^\gamma$ while the premise of constant Π specifies $\gamma = -5/3$ and selects the Kolmogorov $-5/3$ law. One interesting problem is the question over what will happen if the first premise (self-similarity or global scaling) is not valid, which is the subject of various intermittency models such as the local multifractal scaling model [2]. Another interesting problem is the question over what will happen if the second premise (constant Π) is not valid, which is studied here, and the generalized $-5/3$ law (3) is derived.

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