

# Velocity probability distribution scaling in wall-bounded flows at high Reynolds numbers

M.-W. Ge,<sup>1</sup> Xiang I. A. Yang,<sup>2,\*</sup> and Ivan Marusic<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>*School of Renewable Energy, North China Electric Power University, Beijing, China*

<sup>2</sup>*Mechanical and Nuclear Engineering, Penn State University, State College, Pennsylvania 16802, USA*

<sup>3</sup>*Department of Mechanical Engineering, University of Melbourne, Parkville, Victoria 3010, Australia*



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Probability density functions (PDFs) give well-rounded statistical descriptions of stochastic quantities and therefore are fundamental to turbulence. Wall-bounded turbulent flows are of particular interest given their prevalence in a vast array of applications, but for these flows the scaling of velocity probability distribution is still far from being well founded. By exploiting the self-similarity in wall-bounded turbulent flows and modeling velocity fluctuations as results of self-repeating processes, we present a theoretical argument, supported by empirical evidence, for a universal velocity PDF scaling in high-Reynolds-number wall turbulence.

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## I. INTRODUCTION

Wall-bounded turbulent flows [1] are prevalent in a vast array of applications, from environmental flows, such as their role in gas exchange at the air-sea interface through the atmospheric surface layer, to engineering, where these flows account for over 50% of the drag through skin friction on aircraft and over 95% of the energy losses in long pipe transport networks. As quantities including velocity and pressure in a wall-bounded turbulent flow are generally stochastic (although the Navier-Stokes equation is deterministic), probability distributions are a useful tool for describing turbulence. A notable example is the use of the probability density function (PDF) method in turbulence combustion where a set of transport equations for the velocity-composition PDFs is solved [2,3].

The study of velocity PDFs in wall-bounded flows dates back to the 1950s [4]. The focus was on the logarithmic layer within which the flow is self-similar. Dinavahi *et al.* [5] concluded that the streamwise velocity PDF, i.e.,  $P(u)$ , is independent of both the Reynolds number and the wall-normal distance in the logarithmic region. The proposed self-similarity was later refined by Lindgren *et al.* [6], who postulated a different universal velocity PDF scaling, i.e.,  $P(u/u_{\text{rms}})$ , where  $u_{\text{rms}}$  is the root mean square of the streamwise velocity fluctuation. These early works are, by and large, focused on the streamwise velocity component. The arguments are usually heuristic and the postulated scalings are compared to data at only low and moderate Reynolds numbers, where the extent of the logarithmic range is limited [7]. Due to the developments in experimental measurement techniques and high performance computing, data at high and extreme Reynolds numbers have become available from both laboratory experiments [8–10] and high-fidelity direct numerical simulations (DNSs) [11–13]. Figure 1(a) shows the streamwise velocity PDFs in boundary layer flows at friction Reynolds numbers from  $\text{Re}_\tau \approx 2800$  to  $\text{Re}_\tau \approx 13\,000$  and Fig. 1(b)

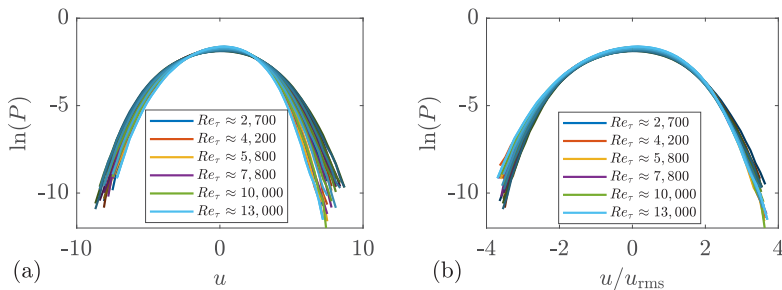


FIG. 1. (a) Streamwise velocity PDF in the logarithmic layer, i.e.,  $3\sqrt{\text{Re}_\tau} < z^+, z/\delta < 0.2$ , where  $\text{Re}_\tau$  is the friction Reynolds number,  $z$  is the wall-normal coordinate, and  $\delta$  is the boundary layer height. Details of this data set are presented later. Data at different Reynolds numbers are color coded. For data at a given Reynolds number, darker colors are used for velocities closer to the wall. (b) Same as (a) but plotted as a function of  $u/u_{\text{rms}}$ , where  $u_{\text{rms}}$  is the root mean square of the streamwise velocity fluctuation.

shows the same PDFs but as a function of  $u/u_{\text{rms}}$ . While a better data collapse is found for  $P(u/u_{\text{rms}})$ , it is probably clear from Fig. 1 that neither  $P(u)$  nor  $P(u/u_{\text{rms}})$  is universal. It is therefore timely to revisit the scaling of velocity PDFs in wall-bounded turbulent flows.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Sec. II we use Townsend’s attached-eddy model [14–16], the hierarchical random additive model [17–20], and the large-deviation theory to make predictions of the scaling of velocity PDFs in high-Reynolds-number wall-bounded flows. The discussion focuses on the scaling of the tails of velocity PDFs. Details of the data sets are presented in Sec. III. The predicted scalings are compared to experimental measurements and numerical simulation data in Sec. IV. Concluding remarks are given in Sec. V.

## II. THEORY

Invoking Townsend’s attached-eddy hypothesis [14,16–18] and using data up to  $\text{Re}_\tau \approx 13\,000$ , in this work we will show that the tails of the velocity PDF in wall-bounded flows follow the scaling  $\exp[-N_z f_i(u_i/N_z)]$  in the logarithmic range at both moderate and high Reynolds numbers, where the scaling factor  $N_z \sim \ln(\delta/z) \sim \langle u_i^2 \rangle \sim \ln\{\langle \exp[q_0 u_i(z)] \rangle\}$  ( $i = 1, 2$ ),  $u_1$  and  $u_2$  are velocity fluctuations in the streamwise and the spanwise directions, respectively,  $f_i$  ( $i = 1, 2$ ) is a generic function,  $z$  is the wall-normal distance,  $\langle \cdot \rangle$  is the ensemble average of the bracketed quantity, and  $q_0$  is a fixed real number.

According to Townsend’s attached-eddy hypothesis, high-Reynolds-number wall-bounded flows may be modeled as collections of wall-attached eddies [14,15]. A primitive flow quantity, e.g., velocity, in the logarithmic region can be computed by adding up incremental contributions from all wall-attached eddies, which may be modeled as random addends, i.e.,  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  [18,21],

$$u = \sum_{i=1}^{N_z} a_i, \quad v = \sum_{i=1}^{N_z} b_i, \quad (1)$$

where the number of addends is

$$N_z = \int_z^\delta \rho(z) dz \sim \ln(\delta/z). \quad (2)$$

A self-repeating process similar to the one in Eq. (1) was previously used to generate fractals and intermittent turbulent dissipation signals [22,23], and depending on the statistical properties of  $a_i$  and  $b_i$ , the resulting streamwise and spanwise velocity signals can have very different statistical properties. Here  $\rho(z)$  is the eddy population density, and because the eddies are wall attached and space filling,  $\rho(z)$  scales as  $\sim 1/z$  and  $\delta$  is the boundary layer height. Since the attached eddies are

TABLE I. Details of the hot-wire measurements. Here  $T$  is the time of the measurement,  $dt$  is the temporal resolution, the superscript  $+$  indicates normalization by wall units, and  $U_\infty$  is the freestream velocity.

$Re_\tau$	$TU_\infty/\delta$	$dt^+$	$U_\infty$ (m/s)	$u_\tau$ (m/s)
2700	$2.13 \times 10^4$	0.542	20.0	0.733
4200	$1.79 \times 10^4$	0.508	20.0	0.710
5800	$1.56 \times 10^4$	0.476	22.0	0.687
7800	$1.38 \times 10^4$	0.466	20.1	0.683
10 000	$1.59 \times 10^4$	0.444	20.0	0.659
13 000	$1.16 \times 10^4$	0.410	20.0	0.639

self-similar and noninteracting, both  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  are independent and identically distributed random addends. The last modeling assumption conveniently lends  $u$  and  $v$  to the large-deviation theory (LDT). According to the LDT [24], for a reasonably large  $N_z$ , the far tail of the streamwise velocity PDF  $P(u)$  is

$$P(u/N_z) \sim \exp[-N_z f(u/N_z)], \quad (3)$$

where the function  $f$  is

$$f = \mathcal{L}[\tau(q)], \quad (4)$$

with

$$\tau(q) = \ln[\langle \exp(qa) \rangle] = \ln[\langle \exp(qu) \rangle]/N_z. \quad (5)$$

Here  $\mathcal{L}[\cdot]$  is the Legendre transformation of the bracketed function.

The number of addends, i.e., the scaling factor  $N_z$ , is  $\sim \ln(\delta/z)$  [Eq. (2)], but it could also be a statistic that follows a  $\ln(\delta/z)$  scaling. It follows from Eq. (1) that both

$$\langle u^2 \rangle = \left\langle \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N_z} a_i \right)^2 \right\rangle = N_z \langle a^2 \rangle + \sum_{i \neq j} \langle a_i a_j \rangle = N_z \langle a^2 \rangle \sim \ln(\delta/z) \quad (6)$$

and

$$\ln[\langle \exp(q_0 u) \rangle] = \ln[\langle \exp(q_0 a) \rangle^{N_z}] \sim \ln(\delta/z) \quad (7)$$

are viable scale factors. Here  $\langle a_i a_j \rangle = 0$  ( $i \neq j$ ) because the addends are statistically independent and  $\langle a_i^2 \rangle = \langle a_j^2 \rangle$  because the addends are statistically identical. Hence

$$N_z \sim \ln(\delta/z) \sim \langle u^2 \rangle \sim \ln[\langle \exp(q_0 u) \rangle]. \quad (8)$$

Because the boundary layer thickness is not locally defined, i.e., one would have to measure the whole boundary layer to determine the boundary layer height, depending on the data availability, it may be more convenient to use a locally defined scale factor like  $\langle u^2 \rangle$  or the moment generating function. Conclusions of the LDT are formally valid only when  $N$  is very large. A brief discussion of how large  $N$  has to be may be found in, e.g., [23], and  $N = \log_2(2^{12})$  is usually a good number. For a  $Re_\tau = 10\,000$  boundary layer, the number  $N = \log_2(10\,000) \approx \log_2(2^{13})$ , which is not bad. The number  $N$  is certainly not large at moderate Reynolds numbers, but we will show that our model works reasonably well at  $Re_\tau \approx 1000$ .

To briefly summarize, the scaled velocity PDF

$$\ln[P(u/N_z)]/N_z$$

TABLE II. Details of the cross-wire measurements. The streamwise and the spanwise velocity fluctuations are measured.

$Re_\tau$	$TU_\infty/\delta$	$dt^+$	$U_\infty$ (m/s)	$u_\tau$ (m/s)
10 000	$3.8 \times 10^4$	0.377	14.79	0.484

is universal. The above equation summarizes the main conclusion of this work. The proposed universality is that the velocity PDFs, if scaled as  $\ln[P(u/N_z)]/N_z$ , do not depend on the Reynolds number or the wall-normal distance. The spanwise counterparts of Eqs. (3)–(8) can be obtained by replacing  $u$  with  $v$  in Eq. (3) and  $a$  with  $b$  in Eq. (5). It is worth noting that, depending on the flow quantity, the predicted asymptotic scaling may emerge at different Reynolds numbers.

Equation (3) is a direct result of the attached-eddy hypothesis. Hence the validity of the model depends on the validity of Townsend’s attached-eddy hypothesis. The hypothesis is generally supported by data [16], but one inadequacy of the hypothesis is that it assumes eddies are noninteracting. Recent evidence shows that eddies in boundary layers can interact [25,26] and that may limit the applicability of our model.

### III. DATA SETS

To verify the above velocity PDF scaling, we will use both hot-wire measurements and DNS data. The details of the data sets are summarized in Tables I–III. The hot-wire measurements were taken from the High Reynolds Number Boundary Layer Wind Tunnel (HRNBLWT) [8,10] and cover a range of Reynolds numbers from  $Re_\tau \approx 2800$  to  $Re_\tau \approx 13\,000$ . The DNS is a channel flow at  $Re_\tau \approx 1000$  [11]. Four thousand snapshots of time-resolved velocity and pressure in the entire channel are publicly available at the Johns Hopkins Turbulence Database (JHTDB).

The convergence of a probability distribution is usually limited by the amount of data and therefore the data at JHTDB and the hot-wire measurements from the HRNBLWT are particularly useful. A few snapshots of channel flow DNS at higher Reynolds numbers are available [12,27], but because of the limited data size, these data will not be very useful here. Unless otherwise noted, all quantities are normalized using wall units, i.e., friction velocity  $u_\tau = \sqrt{\tau_w/\rho}$  and viscous length scale  $\nu/u_\tau$ , where  $\tau_w$  is the mean wall-shear stress and  $\rho$  is the fluid density.

At high Reynolds numbers, because of amplitude modulation [28], the flow is only self-similar above  $z^+ \approx 3\sqrt{Re_\tau}$  and therefore we examine Eq. (3) above  $z^+ \approx 3\sqrt{Re_\tau}$ . At moderate Reynolds numbers, however, amplitude modulation is not prominent [29] and we expect Eq. (3) to work beyond the logarithmic range.

### IV. RESULTS

In Fig. 1(a) we have already shown the streamwise velocity PDF in the logarithmic layer  $3\sqrt{Re_\tau} < z^+, z < 0.2\delta$  [7] for hot-wire measurements of boundary layers at  $Re_\tau \approx 2800$ – $13\,000$ . The data are not Gaussian [30,31]. Since velocity signals are more intermittent near the wall than

TABLE III. Details of the DNS channel. The two numbers in parentheses are the wall-normal grid spacing at the wall and at the channel center. The superscript + indicates normalization by the wall units, i.e.,  $u_\tau$  and  $\nu/u_\tau$ .

$Re_\tau$	$L_x \times L_y \times L_z$ ( $\delta$ )	$\Delta x^+ \times \Delta z^+ \times \Delta y^+$
1000	$8\pi \times 2 \times 3\pi$	$12.3 \times (0.0165, 6.16) \times 6.13$

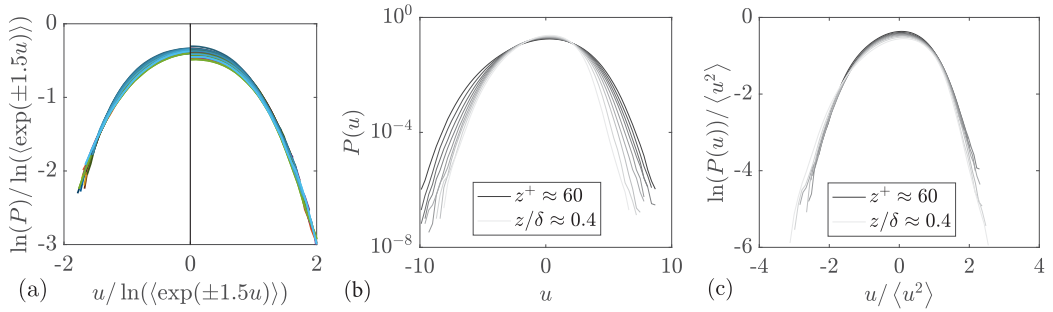


FIG. 2. (a) Scaled streamwise velocity PDF [the scale factor  $N_z \sim \ln\langle \exp(\pm q_0 u) \rangle$ , where  $u < 0$  corresponds to  $q_0 = -1.5$  and  $u > 0$  corresponds to  $q_0 = 1.5$ ]. (b) Logarithm of the unscaled streamwise velocity PDF at wall-normal distances from  $z^+ \approx 60$  to  $z/\delta \approx 0.4$  in a DNS channel flow at  $\text{Re}_\tau = 1000$ . Darker colors are for data closer to the wall. The wall-normal distances are logarithmically spaced from  $z^+ \approx 60$ , and  $z/\delta \approx 0.4$ . (c) Logarithm of scaled velocity PDF  $P/\langle u^2 \rangle$ .

they are away from the wall, no data collapse can possibly be found. Figure 2(a) shows the scaled velocity PDF. The data collapse. The wiggles at the tips are probably due to a lack of statistical convergence. The scale factor  $N_z$  is  $\ln\langle \exp(\mp q_0 u) \rangle$  for  $u \leq 0$ , respectively. The moment generating function  $\langle \exp(q_0 u) \rangle$  emphasizes velocity fluctuations that have the same sign as  $q_0$ . Considering the asymmetry of the streamwise velocity PDF, we have used positive  $q_0$  to scale the positive side of the velocity PDF and vice versa. The value  $q_0 = 1.5$  is arbitrary, and using  $q_0 = 1.0, 2.0$  leads to very similar results (see Fig. 3). The scaled velocity PDF is discontinuous at  $u = 0$  because  $q_0$  abruptly changes value from  $-1.5$  to  $1.5$  across  $u = 0$ . Figures 2(b) and 2(c) show the unscaled and scaled streamwise velocity PDF at wall-normal distances from  $z^+ \approx 60$  to  $z/\delta \approx 0.4$  in a  $\text{Re}_\tau \approx 1000$  channel. The scale factor is  $N_z \sim \langle u^2 \rangle$ . The same observation as for Figs. 1(a) and 2(a) can be made. The theory promises that the scaled velocity PDFs collapse as long as they are scaled using one of the scale factors in Eq. (8). The fact that the velocity PDFs collapse for different scale factors shows the strong predictive power of our theory.

The same exercise can be done for the spanwise velocity and using the scale factors  $N_z \sim \ln(\delta/z)$ . Figures 4(a)–4(d) show the scaled and unscaled spanwise velocity PDFs at  $\text{Re}_\tau \approx 10\,000$  (hot-wire boundary layer) and  $\text{Re}_\tau = 1000$  (DNS channel), respectively. The scale factors are  $N_z \sim \ln[\langle \exp(v) \rangle]$  and  $\ln(\delta/z)$ , respectively. Cross-wire measurements of the spanwise velocity component are not available at other Reynolds numbers. For the spanwise velocity,  $\langle \exp(-v) \rangle = \langle \exp(v) \rangle$  and therefore we have used  $N_z \sim \ln[\langle \exp(v) \rangle]$  to scale both  $v$  and  $-v$ . Both scale factors are able to collapse the data.

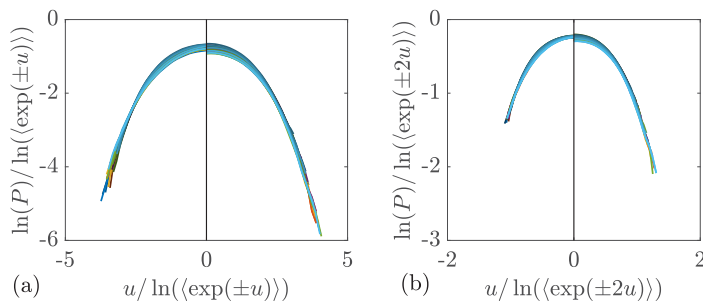


FIG. 3. (a) Same as Fig. 2(a) but using a different  $q_0 = 1$ . (b) Same as Fig. 2(a) but using a different  $q_0 = 2$ .

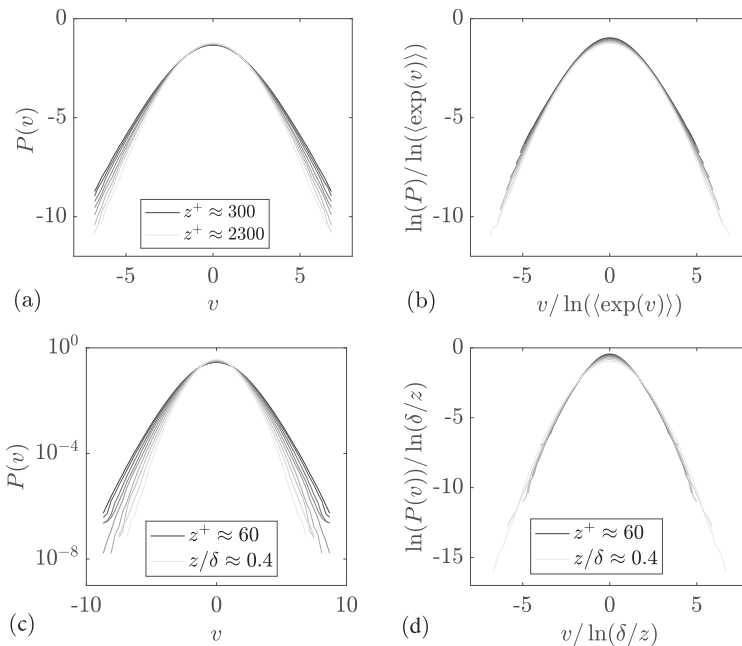


FIG. 4. (a) Spanwise velocity PDF within  $3\sqrt{\text{Re}_\tau} < z^+, z < 0.2\delta$ . Data at  $\text{Re}_\tau \approx 10\,000$  are shown. Darker colors are used for data closer to the wall. (b) Scaled spanwise velocity PDF [the scale factor  $N_z \sim \ln(\exp(v))$ ]. (c) Unscaled spanwise velocity PDF in a channel at  $\text{Re}_\tau \approx 1000$ . The legends are the same as in Fig. 2(c). (d) Same as (c) but for the scaled velocity PDF.

The above analysis confirms the proposed universality, lending support to the Townsend attached-eddy hypothesis, which models the velocity fluctuations as results of self-repeating processes. Next we compare the scaled PDF to  $f = \mathcal{L}[\tau(q)]$ . The spanwise velocity is more intermittent than its streamwise counterpart and therefore presents a more challenging case. Figure 5(a) shows the measured exponent  $\tau(q)$ . The spanwise moment generating function  $\langle \exp(qv) \rangle$  is a power-law function of the wall-normal distance and  $\tau(q)$  is the corresponding power-law exponent, which can be directly measured following Refs. [21,32]. We compare  $-c' + f$  to  $\ln(P)/c \ln(\delta/z)$  in Fig. 5(b), where  $c$  and  $c'$  are constants [note that Eqs. (4) and (8) give only the scaling and there are undetermined constants]. The data are seen to follow  $f$  closely. The above exercise may be done for the streamwise velocity and the results are very similar (not shown). It is worth noting that Eq. (4)

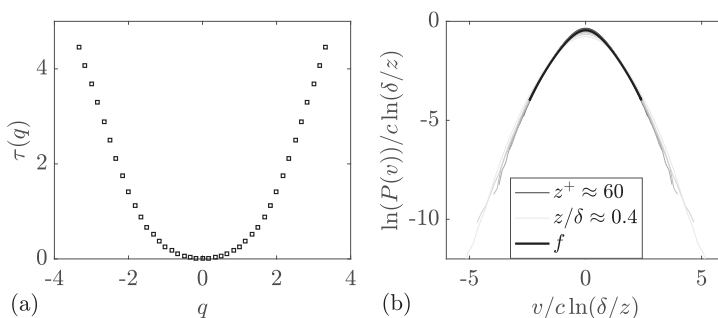


FIG. 5. (a) Measured  $\tau(q)$  as a function of  $q$ . (b) Plot of  $\ln(P)/c \ln(\delta/z)$  and  $c' - f_1$ . The two constants are  $c = 1.26$  and  $c' = 0.45$ .

is only useful if the knowledge of the function behavior of the single-point moment generating function is available.

## V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In conclusion, the velocity PDF tails collapse if scaled according to Eqs. (3) and (8). Because Eq. (3) is a direct consequence of the attached-eddy hypothesis and the LDT, the work lends strong support to the attached-eddy hypothesis and therefore Eq. (1). While not formally shown here, the theory holds as long as the quantity in question results from a self-repeating process and can therefore be leveraged to predict the sizes of rocks and the lengths of twigs, both of which are results of self-repeating processes.

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