High Reynolds number effects in wall turbulence

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A B S T R A C T

A review of recent advances in the study of high Reynolds number turbulent boundary layers is given. The emergent regime of very large-scale structures in the logarithmic region and their subsequent influence on the near-wall cycle challenges many of the previously held assumptions regarding scaling of turbulent boundary layers at high Reynolds numbers. Experimental results are presented to illustrate the superimposition of large-scale energy onto the near-wall cycle, together with an interaction well described by an amplitude modulation effect. Both phenomena are shown to increase in magnitude (as compared to viscous-scaled events) as Reynolds number increases. These observations lead to a possible model for a statistically representative near-wall velocity signal (giving accurate energy spectra) based on a given filtered velocity signal from the log region of a high Reynolds number turbulent flow.

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1. Introduction

Wall-bounded turbulent flows have attracted considerable attention over many years, which is not surprising given their prevalence and importance in many engineering and scientific applications. Up until fairly recently a majority of studies have focused on the near-wall region of wall-bounded flows, and due to practical considerations, many of these investigations have also been conducted at low Reynolds numbers. To a large extent, such studies have their origins in the observations of near-wall streaks (Kline et al., 1967) in the velocity field and the realisation that recurrent near-wall structures can play a key role in turbulence regeneration. More recently our understanding of such events has tended to shift towards a self-sustaining near-wall cycle, in which the near-wall structures propagate and sustain without need of external triggers. Such autonomous views are based largely on insightful low Reynolds number simulations by Jimenez and Pinelli (1999) and Schoppa and Hussain (2002). At low Reynolds numbers, the over-riding focus on the near-wall region is justified by the fact that the dominant kinetic energy production occurs within the viscous buffer layer, at a nominal wall-normal distance of $z^* = 2 U_f / \nu \approx 12$. This is demonstrated in Fig. 1a, where an estimate for the turbulent kinetic energy production, defined as the product of Reynolds shear stress and mean shear

$$ P = -\frac{\nu}{\kappa} \frac{dU^+}{dz^+}, $$

is plotted for three Reynolds numbers, $Re_l = 1000, 2000, 10^5$. Here, $Re_l = \delta U_f / \nu$, where $\delta$ is the boundary layer thickness. This plot is similar to that shown by Panton (2001) in which a very small variation in the production curves was noted from low to high Reynolds numbers. Based on these observations, and the fact that the measurements of the mean velocity and the Reynolds shear stress showed the expected theoretical Reynolds number trends, Panton (2001) commented: ‘one could infer that physical processes producing $\tau_{\text{wall}}$ discovered at low Reynolds numbers are likely to also be relevant at higher values. This is not to say there will not be modifications or new events, however, it is likely that the dominant processes are roughly similar.’ This sentiment has been a persistent narrative throughout the majority of literature pertaining to low Reynolds number flows. However, it should also be noted that production curves, when plotted semi-logarithmically as they are in Fig. 1a, can be misleading. On these axes, if one considers the contribution to the global or bulk kinetic energy production (the contribution to the integral of $P$), then the importance of the log region is not immediately clear, particularly as one goes from low to very high Reynolds numbers. The inset of Fig. 1a highlights the increasing production contribution due to the log region as Reynolds number increases. For a graphical representation, where equal areas indicate equal integral contributions, a pre-multiplied plot is required when using semi-logarithmic axes. This is shown in Fig. 1b and here it is clear that the contribution to the bulk production comes from the logarithmic region for sufficiently high Reynolds number. This is further illustrated in Fig. 2, where the contribution to the bulk or total production is compared for given regions in the boundary layer. The figure shows that the viscous near-wall region contribution to the bulk production is
The question of how wall turbulence changes at high Reynolds numbers has received heightened interest over the last decade or so. This has resulted in the construction or planning of high Reynolds number facilities, including the Princeton Superpipe (Zagorola and Smits, 1998), the development of SLTEST, an atmospheric test facility in the Great Salt Lake Desert, Utah (Klewicki et al., 1998), and a series of high Reynolds number wind tunnel facilities in Chicago (NDF (Nagib et al., 2007)), Stockholm (MTL (Österlund, 1999)), Melbourne (Nickels et al., 2005), Lille (Carlier and Stanislas, 2005), and Stanford (DeGraaff and Eaton, 2000).

With these new measurements have come questions about measurement techniques (Perry et al., 2001; Hutchins et al., 2009) in high Reynolds number regimes, and a re-examination of the boundary-layer scaling at high Reynolds number and its asymptotic scaling in the limit of infinite Reynolds number. Besides refinements of the ‘classic’ scaling (see e.g. Monkewitz et al., 2007), new theories have been proposed questioning the form and basis of classic scaling laws (Barenblatt et al., 1997; George and Castillo, 1997). For existing data, the log-law appears to persist as the preferred description of the mean velocity profile in wall turbulence. However, open questions remain regarding the universality of its parameters, and the extent of the logarithmic overlap region. These issues are discussed further by Marusic et al. (submitted for publication).

In this paper we will concentrate on issues related to the universality of the near-wall region and the influence of outer-flow motions on this near-wall region.

2. Experimental details

To consider the effect of increasing Reynolds number, experimental data measured by the authors are used. The data-sets come from boundary layer studies in three separate facilities, and a summary of the experimental parameters is given in Table 1. The lowest Reynolds number of \( Re_s = 500 \) are hot-wire measurements in the boundary layer wind tunnel at the University of Nottingham, with full details of the experiments given by Hutchins (2003). The remaining laboratory data, over the range \( Re_s = 2800–19,000 \), are from hot-wire measurements in the large boundary layer wind tunnel at the University of Melbourne (also known as HRNBWT), which has a 27 m long working section. The full details of these experiments are given in a recent paper by Hutchins et al. (2009). The largest Reynolds number data are obtained from atmospheric surface layer using a wall-normal array of nine sonic anemometers at SLTEST. Full details of the SLTEST conditions and set-up are given in Marusic and Hutchins (2008) and Hutchins and Marusic (2007a).

The measurements in the Melbourne tunnel were carried out with hot-wires that had sensing lengths matched to the same dimensionless length, \( l^+ = 22 \). This was done to avoid the complication of spatial resolution problems that are prevalent with many turbulence measurements in the near-wall region (Hutchins et al., 2009). For this \( l^+ \) value only a small amount of attenuation of the turbulent kinetic energy is expected. The Nottingham wind tunnel results were taken with a hot-wire with sensing length of \( l^+ = 8 \), and Fig. 3a shows the streamwise turbulence intensity profile across the boundary layer. Also, shown on the figure is the estimated value of turbulence intensity that a hot-wire with sensing length \( l^+ = 22 \) would measure at \( z^+ = 15 \), the nominal position of the peak intensity. This estimation is based on a correction scheme developed recently by Chin et al. (2009) using a DNS dataset of wall turbulence to study the attenuation effects of a modeled hot-wire with finite spatial resolution. The difference between \( l^+ = 8 \) and \( l^+ = 22 \) would be seen to be small. Fig. 3b shows how the correction scheme effects the pre-multiplied \( u' u' \)-spectra for \( z^+ = 15 \), where the area under the curves equals \( \overline{u'^2} \). The differences are again seen to be small and are confined to small wavelengths approximately \( k_x^+ < 3000 \).
Table 1
Experimental parameters for turbulence measurements; Melbourne and Nottingham wind tunnel experiments were conducted with single hot-wire probe; SLTEST data were acquired with sonic anemometers. No. of points indicates the number of wall-normal positions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$Re_s$</th>
<th>Facility</th>
<th>$\delta$(m)</th>
<th>$U_i$ (m/s)</th>
<th>$U_w$ (m/s)</th>
<th>$l^+$</th>
<th>$\Delta l^+$</th>
<th>No. points</th>
<th>Domain of measurement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>Nottingham</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>0.114</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>$z^+ = 4.8 - z/\delta = 1.6$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2800</td>
<td>Melbourne</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>0.442</td>
<td>11.97</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>$z^+ = 9.1 - z/\delta = 2.0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3900</td>
<td>Melbourne</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>0.426</td>
<td>11.87</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>$z^+ = 11.8 - z/\delta = 2.0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7300</td>
<td>Melbourne</td>
<td>0.326</td>
<td>0.330</td>
<td>9.82</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>$z^+ = 5.5 - z/\delta = 1.4$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13,600</td>
<td>Melbourne</td>
<td>0.315</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>20.63</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>$z^+ = 7.4 - z/\delta = 1.4$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19,000</td>
<td>Melbourne</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>0.960</td>
<td>30.20</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>$z^+ = 8.7 - z/\delta = 1.4$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>650,000</td>
<td>SLTEST</td>
<td>0.180</td>
<td>0.180</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>850</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>$z/\delta = 0.02 - z/\delta = 0.43$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 3. (a) Streamwise turbulence intensity results from Nottingham wind tunnel for $Re_s = 500$. (b) Corresponding pre-multiplied spectra versus wavelength at $z^+ = 15$ compared to result, where velocity signature has been modified to mimic a hot-wire with sensing length $l^+ = 22$.

Fig. 4. Reynolds number dependency of the streamwise turbulence intensity profile $\overline{u'^2} / U_i^2$.

Fig. 5. Pre-multiplied energy spectra of streamwise velocity fluctuations at the inner-peak location ($z^+ = 15$).

3. Turbulence intensities and spectra

Recently, substantial efforts have been devoted towards understanding the high Reynolds number scaling behaviour of the streamwise turbulence intensities ($\overline{u'^2}$) and the corresponding $u'$ spectra, as well as to a lesser extent the other components of turbulence intensity ($\overline{v'^2}$, $\overline{w'^2}$) and Reynolds shear stress ($\overline{uv'}$). Wall scaling has been widely used in computation schemes and assumes, like the mean flow, that the turbulence second order moments and spectra scale only with wall units in the near-wall region (for say, $z/\delta < 0.15$). Alternative theories such as the attached eddy hypothesis (Townsend, 1976; Perry et al., 1986; Marusic and Perry, 1995) suggest otherwise and predict that while the wall-normal turbulence intensity and Reynolds shear stress ($\overline{w'^2}$ and $\overline{uv'}$) will follow wall-scaling, the streamwise and spanwise components ($\overline{u'^2}$ and $\overline{v'^2}$) will not, and will depend on $Re_s$. Jiménez and Moser (2007) and Jimenez and Hoyas (2008) considered these issues using DNS and experimental data and concluded that $\overline{u'^2}$ and $\overline{v'^2}$ do not follow wall-scaling, and nor does wall pressure or the local static pressure.

Many other recent studies have confirmed that $\overline{u'^2}$ is indeed dependent on Reynolds number (albeit weakly) (DeGraaff and Eaton, 2000; Metzger and Klewicki, 2001; Marusic and Kunkel, 2003). Fig. 4 shows results over the range of Reynolds numbers considered in the Melbourne and Nottingham wind tunnels. The data, which show a rise in the peak in $\overline{u'^2}$ with increasing Reynolds number, clearly suggest a failure of wall-scaling in the near-wall region.

In order to understand why the peak in $\overline{u'^2}$ changes with Reynolds number, it is helpful to consider the corresponding spectra,
and this is shown in a pre-multiplied form in Fig. 5. It is worth noting that the representation here in terms of streamwise length-scale \( \lambda_z \) is only a reflected mirror image of the conventional \( k_\epsilon u_t/\overline{U}_j^2 \) versus \( \log(k_z) \) plot (equal areas under the curve will still denote equal energy). The figure shows that the near-wall \( u \)-spectra scale well in wall variables for all \( \lambda \) except the large scales. In other words, the increase in \( \overline{u^2} \) is directly attributed to an increase in energy due to large-scale motions, which do not scale on viscous wall variables. A similar trend has been observed on the spanwise pre-multiplied energy spectra of the streamwise velocity \( k_\epsilon \Phi_{uu} \) (see DNS studies del Álamo and Jiménez, 2003; Abe et al., 2004; Iwamoto et al., 2004; Hoyas and Jiménez, 2006), showing that near the wall there is an increase with \( Re_\tau \) of the energy of \( k_\epsilon \Phi_{uu} \) in the large spanwise wavelength \( k_z \).

To see how large and small scale motions contribute to the broadband turbulence intensity, and to investigate this further we decompose the fluctuating velocity signals into a small-scale (where \( \lambda_s < \delta \)) and a large-scale (where \( \lambda_s > \delta \)) contribution using a simple cut-off spectral filter. The value \( \lambda_s = \delta \) is chosen after Hutchins and Marusic (2007a), and appears as a reasonable value provided the Reynolds number is sufficiently high to have a separation of inner and outer length scales. Fig. 6a shows a streamwise broadband intensity profile decomposed in this way, and Fig. 6b shows how the decomposed components change with increasing Reynolds number. The small-scale component is seen to be invariant with Reynolds number across most of the boundary layer, while the outer-component clearly increases in magnitude across all wall-normal positions with increasing Reynolds number. The increasing influence in the near-wall region is noted, consistent with the spectral result in Fig. 5. The result in Fig. 6 shows that the \( \overline{u^2}/\overline{U}_j^2 \) profile can be considered to be the sum of two competing modes: a small viscous-scaled component primarily located in the near-wall region, and a larger outer-scaled component peaking in the log region. There is considerable overlap between these modes, with the large-scale extending down to the wall, and a diminishing small-scale influence penetrating to the edge of the boundary layer.

To explore the role of the large-scale motions further, Fig. 7 gives an overview of the pre-multiplied streamwise energy spectra (shown with contours), across the full height of the turbulent boundary layer for a range of Reynolds numbers; with both inner (left column) and outer length scaling (right column). Two distinct peaks can be clearly observed in Fig. 7. The first peak, located in the near-wall region, is the energetic signature due to the viscous-scaled near-wall cycle of elongated high- and low-speed streaks (Kline et al., 1967), and is located at \( z^+ = 15 \) and \( \lambda_s^+ = 1000 \). We will refer to this peak as the “inner-peak”, it corresponds to the location coincident with the peak value of \( \overline{u^2} \). The large length-scale energy that encroaches at \( z^+ = 15 \) with increasing Reynolds number, is seen to be part of a very large-scale structure associated with the second distinct peak in the spectrogram, which appears in the logarithmic region. We will refer to this peak as the “outer-peak”. It is of interest to note that this peak is not visible at low Reynolds numbers (where \( Re_\tau < 1700 \), see Hutchins and Marusic, 2007b) due to insufficient separation of scales and a diminishing strength at low \( Re_\tau \). This outer peak is most likely the energetic signature due to the superstructure type events described by Hutchins and Marusic (2007a) (or VLSM as described by Kim and Adrian (1999)). Hutchins and Marusic (2007a) showed that the magnitude of this outer peak (when \( k_\epsilon \Phi_{uu} \) is scaled with \( U_j \)) increases with particular interest. Initial observations of Hutchins and Marusic (2007a), suggest that the location of this peak scales in boundary layer thickness: \( z/\delta = 0.06 \) and \( \lambda_s = 60 \). However, here the data in Fig. 7, which cover a larger Reynolds number range, show the location of the outer peak to correspond well with the geometric center of the logarithmic region (on a log plot), which is indicated by the vertical dashed lines on each plot in Fig. 7. The location and scaling of the ‘outer peak’ in the \( u \)-spectra is of interest as it relates to the origin or source of the superstructures which, as discussed in the next section, exert a direct influence on the near-wall cycle in a mechanism akin to a pure amplitude modulation. Recently, Balakumar and Adrian (2007) have studied the most energetic mode for \( k_\epsilon \Phi_{uu} \) in pipes, channels and zero-pressure gradient boundary layers, suggesting a possible scaling in outer units of the wavelength of the spectral peak of the VLSM.

The kinetic energy contribution coincident with the outer spectral peak is also of interest. If we assume that the location of the outer spectral peak follows \( z^+ = 3.9Re_\tau^{1/2} \) (consistent with the nominal centre of the log region) then the energy at this location is seen to increase, approximately following a logarithmic function of \( Re_\tau \). This is shown in Fig. 8 (points with solid filled circles). Fig. 8 also shows very high Reynolds number data from SLTEST experiments, which should be used with due caution due to measurement convergence and other uncertainties. However, these data together with the laboratory data indicate a consistent trend with the \( \overline{u^2} \) values at the inner spectral peak \( (z^+ \approx 15) \) and the outer spectral peak \( (z^+ \approx 3.9Re_\tau^{1/2}) \) both increasing nominally with the logarithm of \( Re_\tau \). The slope for the logarithmic trend for \( z^+ \approx 15 \) is debatable, and two lines are shown on the figure. One line (with slope 0.69) matches the slope of the line for the outer location, and in this event the \( \overline{u^2} \) value at \( z^+ \approx 15 \) will continue to remain the dominant and sole peak across the layer as one extrapolates to very high Reynolds numbers. However, if one accepted the second line (with slope 0.39) then the trends shown in Fig. 8 indicate that a second peak in the \( \overline{u^2} \) profile will emerge at sufficiently high Reynolds
Fig. 7. Reynolds number effect – iso-contours of the pre-multiplied energy spectra of streamwise velocity fluctuation $k_x/\bar{u}_x^2$: (a) $Re_\tau = 500$; (b) $Re_\tau = 3900$; (c) $Re_\tau = 7300$; (d) $Re_\tau = 19000$. Contour levels are from 0.2 to 1.8 in steps of 0.2. The large "*" marks the inner-peak location ($z^+ = 15, \lambda_x^+ = 1000$); The vertical dot-dashed line shows estimate of the middle of the log-layer ($3.9Re_\tau^{1/2}$). The plots in the left column are scaled with inner variables, while the plots in the right-hand column are scaled with outer-scale variables.
number for a smooth wall flow (the level of $\overline{u^2}$ in the log region will exceed the $z^+ = 15$ value for $Re_T \approx 10^6$). The critical level of $Re_T$ at which such an outer peak in $\overline{u^2}$ would appear is unclear, as the quantitative trends assigned here should be regarded as preliminary and are only an estimate based on the limited data that is available. Previous studies by Morrison et al. (2004) in the Princeton superpipe have proposed that an outer peak does exist for $\overline{u^2}$. This has been the subject of some controversy, with concerns raised regarding the spatial resolution of these measurements. For example, Hutchins et al. (2009) show that by increasing the sensing length of the hot-wire, the data shown in Fig. 4 will also appear with a second peak. Other experiments at very high Reynolds number at SLTEST by Metzger et al. (2007) also show double peaks in the $\overline{u^2}$ profile, but these have been attributed to roughness effects (which would reduce the level of the $z^+ = 15$ peak). The trends in Fig. 8 suggest that the two peaks in Metzger et al. (2007) results might be present even if the flow was hydrodynamically smooth, but further data at high Reynolds number and with minimal spatial resolution effects are needed to resolve this.

3.1. Spanwise and wall-normal components

As mentioned above, there are considerably less studies that address the spanwise and wall-normal turbulence intensities and their spectra. Jiménez and Hoyas (2008) review most of the existing experimental studies and show detailed comparisons of all components of spectra and cospectra for DNS of channel flows studies up to $Re_T = 2000$. They find that the large outer motions (or modes) of the spanwise and wall-normal velocities in boundary layers are stronger than found in channel flows, but conclude that similar outer-layer structures seem to exist in both channels and pipes and as in boundary layers at high Reynolds numbers.

Of the previous studies, most support wall scaling for the Reynolds shear stress and $\overline{w^2}$ (Kunkel and Marusic, 2006; Jiménez and Moser, 2007), but the data is somewhat limited. Kunkel and Marusic (2006) showed collapse of the w-spectra with inner (wall) scaling over three order of magnitude change in $Re_T$ by making measurements in the log region of laboratory wind-tunnels and in the atmospheric surface layer. However, Zhao and Smits (2007) recently made similar two component hot-wire measurements in the Princeton Superpipe and suggest that $\overline{w^2}$ and the w-spectra in the log region depend weakly on Reynolds number. Further experimental study seems warranted to resolve this issue and other ambiguities.

One of the difficulties here is that extremely small probe sizes are required to measure spanwise and wall-normal statistics in the near-wall region at high Reynolds numbers. This is highlighted in Fig. 9, which shows spectrograms for $u$, $v$ and $w$ at $Re_T = 7300$, for $x$-wire measurements taken in the Melbourne tunnel (Hutchins et al., 2007). The absence of data in the near-wall region for $v$ and $w$ (due to the size of the $x$-wire probes) is very evident. For reference the location of the inner and outer peaks as identified in the $u$-spectra are also marked with (+) symbols on the spanwise ($v$) and wall-normal ($w$) spectra. Despite the lack of near-wall data,
the spectra show some interesting trends. Immediately evident is the inclined ridge of energy for all components, where the length scale \( \lambda_z \) is proportional to distance from the wall \( z \). This is indicative of attached eddies. However, an important distinction between the \( u \) and \( w \) components for the near-wall region is that the wall-normal fluctuations lack a large-scale energetic contribution, in contrast to the spanwise fluctuations which exhibit near-wall energy at large ‘superstructure’ type length scales \( \lambda_k \approx 6\delta \). Such behaviour is consistent with the notion of attached eddies, where the wall-normal fluctuations lack a large-scale component at the wall due to the ‘blocking-effect’, or equivalently, the image attached vortices in the wall (Perry and Chong, 1982). It is also consistent with the notion that the superstructure events are associated with a very large-scale counter-rotating roll-mode (Hutchins and Marusic, 2007b), which produces a significant elongated spanwise signature (but not \( w \)) for the region below the log region.

However, as indicated above, new high-quality experiments are needed over extended Reynolds number ranges to really address these issues. Questions certainly remain regarding the strength of this ‘roll-mode’ (and the corresponding \( v \) signature) and how this might change with Reynolds number. A number of studies at very high Reynolds number in the atmospheric surface layer (ASL) suggest that the spanwise intensity and spectra are significantly affected by increasing Reynolds number. An example of this is shown in Fig. 10, where the three components of velocity spectra are compared at a fixed location in the log region but where the Reynolds numbers are different by almost three orders of magnitude. The laboratory acquired data in Fig. 10 are taken in the Melbourne tunnel using hot-wires while the ASL data were measured using sonic anemometers at the SLTEST site in 2005 (Hutchins and Marusic, 2007a). The ASL spectra are calculated from just one hour of data (taken from a period of prolonged neutral buoyancy and steady wind conditions), and thus the statistics for the largest scales cannot be considered fully-convolved. Cautionously noting this caveat, the results in Fig. 10 do, however, strongly suggest that while the wall-normal component is little affected by the large change in Reynolds number, the spanwise and streamwise components will undergo dramatic changes, particularly with a large increase in spanwise kinetic energy associated with large length-scales. This is consistent with a strengthening of the superstructure events as described above.

4. Large outer-scale interaction in near-wall region

Strengthening of the large-scale log-based superstructures implies that the near-wall region will be increasing influenced at high Reynolds number and this extends to the skin-friction signature at the wall. Marusic and Heuer (2007) conducted experiments at SLTEST and used a wall-normal array of sonic anemometers together with purpose-built skin-friction sensor that could measure time-resolved wall-shear stress (Heuer and Marusic, 2005). A sample time trace from simultaneous measurements in this experiment are shown in Fig. 11. A high level of correlation is noted between the low-frequency components of the skin-friction signal and fluctuating streamwise velocity in the log region. This reaffirms the notion that the large-scale structures impose a “footprint” on the near-wall region. This conclusion itself is not new and has been previously observed in DNS studies in Abe et al. (2004), Toh and Itano (2005) and Hoyas and Jiménez (2006), and more recently in Schlatter et al. (2009), where the influence is noted of large scale motions at the wall. However, what is new is that this strong influence is also noticeable in high Reynolds numbers.

An important feature of the “footprint” of the superstructures on the near-wall flow was noted by Hutchins and Marusic (2007a), who observed that the interaction of the large-scale motions was more than a mere superposition (or mean shift) on to the near-wall fluctuations (as per the attached eddy hypothesis (Townsend, 1976)) but that rather the small-scale structures were subject to a high degree of amplitude modulation by the much larger scales that inhabit the log-region. An example of this is shown in Fig. 12, where a decomposition of a typical fluctuating signal \( u^+ \) at wall-normal position \( z^+ = 15 \) (inner-peak) is shown. Here a decomposition is used for scales below and above a cutoff length-scale, taken here to be \( \lambda_k/\delta = 1 \) based on the spectra shown in Fig. 7. (Tests with different cutoff length-scales show that the basic trends are insensitive to choice of cutoff \( \lambda_k/\delta \).) The large-scale component shown in Fig. 12b is highly correlated with the large-scale component in the log region, and is therefore taken as representative of the footprint of the superstructure at \( z^+ = 15 \). For the large-scale component shown in Fig. 12b, a prolonged region of negative fluctuation occurs (between the dashed lines), typical of the footprint caused by the decelerated portion of a superstructure-type event (Hutchins and Marusic, 2007a). It appears that

\[
\begin{align*}
\tau_{12} & = \frac{\delta}{2} \\
\tau_{23} & = \frac{\delta}{2} \\
\tau_{31} & = \frac{\delta}{2}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\delta & = \frac{1}{2} \\
\delta & = \frac{1}{2}
\end{align*}
\]
Fig. 12. Example of fluctuating $u$ signal in the near-wall region from Melbourne wind tunnel for $Re_z = 7300$ at $z^+ = 15$: (a) raw fluctuating component; (b) large-scale fluctuation $\lambda_u/\delta > 1$; (c) small-scale fluctuation $\lambda_u/\delta < 1$; dashed vertical lines show region of negative large-scale fluctuation. Taken from Mathis et al. (2009).

Fig. 13. Example fluctuating velocity signals from the $Re_z = 950$ channel of del Álamo et al. (2004) at $z^+ = 15$. (a) Fluctuating $u$ component, thicker line shows large-scale component; (b) wall-normal $w$ fluctuation; (c) spanwise $v$ fluctuation; and (d) Reynolds shear stress fluctuation. Dashed vertical lines show region of negative large-scale fluctuation. Figure as shown in Hutchins and Marusic (2007b).

when this negative large-scale excursion occurs, the amplitude of the small-scale fluctuations $u'_z$ is significantly reduced (Fig. 12c). When similar analysis is conducted for a positive large-scale excursion, the opposite scenario is true and the amplitude of the small-scale fluctuations is increased. These results suggest that the low-wavenumber motions associated with the footprints of superstructure type events influence the near-wall $u$ fluctuations in a manner akin to a pure amplitude modulation.

The modulating influence is not restricted to only the streamwise fluctuating velocity. For this we consider the DNS data at $Re_t = 934$ of del Álamo et al. (2004). Here, the same trends are evident in the $v$ and $w$ fluctuations, both of which are more active under positive large-scale excitation (these trends are clear even though at these Reynolds numbers the footprint of the superstructure is relatively weak). This is seen in Fig. 13 which shows simultaneous signals for all three velocity components along with the instantaneous Reynolds shear stress $uw$ at $z^+ = 15$. The small-scale activities for all signals are notably less intense during a large-scale negative $u$ fluctuation (between the vertical dashed lines). As an additional point, it is evident from Fig. 13 that the wall-normal velocity fluctuation (Fig. 13b) does not have a large-scale component, while the $u$ and $v$ components (Fig. 13a and c) do, as noted in energy spectra by Hoyas and Jiménez (2006) and previously in this paper in Fig. 9. Therefore, in the near-wall region, we have observed that under large-scale high-speed events (footprint of the superstructure), the local instantaneous Reynolds stresses (all components: $u'^2$, $v'^2$, $w'^2$ and $uw'$) are amplified, while the opposite is true under large-scale low-speed events. This is as expected since the local shear rate near the wall (and hence input of vorticity from the wall) is higher under high-speed events as compared with low-speed superstructure signatures. These findings are consistent with previous studies (Bandyopadhyay and Hussain, 1984; Rao et al., 1971) showing that large outer-scaled structures are active in rearranging and interacting with the near-wall structure. Furthermore, similar observations in the wall-shear stress fluctuations have been obtained in the DNS work of Abe et al. (2004). They shown that positive and negative regions of the streamwise wall-shear stress fluctuations correspond, respectively, to high- and low-speed events of the largest scales in the outer layer, whereas active regions in the spanwise wall-shear stress fluctuations coincide with high-speed regions of the very large-scale motions.

The modulation interaction is not easily detected in a Fourier representation. Because of the extremely low frequencies associated with the superstructures, the signature of the additional sideband frequencies generated by this amplitude modulation are difficult to determine in the power spectrum. The increasing importance of this nonlinear interaction across scales poses several difficulties for the interpretation of the harmonic spectral decomposition of temporal signals. Mathis et al. (2009) explore this further through analysis based on the Hilbert transform, which is well suited for quantifying modulation effects.
5. Towards a model for inner–outer interaction

The above results clearly show an influence of the large-scale superstructures in the near-wall region. Ideally we would like to build these observations into a mathematical model, which could enable a prediction to be made of the fluctuating velocity statistics in the near-wall region given only information about the large-scale signal in the log region.

As a first step towards this we can consider the viability of a model based on simple superposition. This will not capture the non-linear amplitude modulation effects, but such phase-related information is unlikely to effect the second-order statistics. Therefore, as a first attempt we propose a simple model for the prediction of a statistically representative signal at $z^+ = 15$ as

$$u_{15} = u'_{15} + z u_{LS}.$$  

Here, $u_{15}$ is the predicted $u$-signal at $z^+ = 15$, $u_{LS}$ is the fluctuating large-scale signal from the log-region, $u'_{15}$ is referred to as the statistically “universal” signal at $z^+ = 15$ (normalized in wall units), and $z$ is a constant. $u_{LS}$ is the universal inner-scaled signal that would exist if there were no large-scale influence, and would be the total signal if wall-layer modeling applied. The large-scale signal, $u_{LS}$, is obtained from the $u$-signal in the log region (at a given $z/\delta$ value, say 0.06) involving two steps. First, the $u$-signal is low-pass filtered to retain only large scales above, say, $\lambda_s > \delta$. Second, since we are equating a log-region signal (from $z/\delta = 0.06$) to $z^+ = 15$ the measured $u$-signal is shifted forward in the streamwise direction (assuming Taylor’s hypothesis with convection velocity equal to the local mean velocity) to account for the mean inclination angle of the large-scale structures ($14^\circ$). This angle corresponds to the coherent structure angle of Marusic and Heuer (2007), which they found to be invariant over three orders change in Reynolds number. The shift effectively corresponds to the time-delay that locates the maximum in a cross-correlation between the large scale $u$-signals at $z/\delta = 0.06$ and $z^+ = 15$, and $\alpha$ corresponds to the cross-correlation coefficient between these signals. These are assumed to be invariant and once obtained from a previous experiment, can be used at any Reynolds number.

The procedure for finding $u_{15}$ is as follows. An experiment is conducted at an arbitrary Reynolds number (in this case $Re = 7300$) in which the $u$-signals from two hot-wires mounted at $z/\delta = 0.06$ and $z^+ = 15$ are simultaneously sampled. From this $\alpha$ (the correlation of the large-scale component between the two signals) is measured and found to be 0.70. Given $\alpha$, the universal signal $u'_{15}$ is then obtained by simply solving Eq. (2) as for this case $u_{LS}$ and $u'_{15}$ are known.

![Fig. 14. Prediction of pre-multiplied energy spectra at the inner-peak location ($z^+ = 15$).](image)

With $u_{15}$, and $\alpha$ known, and assumed to be invariant, predictions of $u'_{15}$ can now be made using Eq. (2), where the only input is the large-scale $u$-signal at $z/\delta = 0.06$. Fig. 14 shows such (post-) predictions of spectra for the experiments previously carried out in the Melbourne tunnel and these compare extremely well with the true measurements shown in Fig. 5. Also, included in Fig. 14 are two predictions of what the spectra at $z^+ = 15$ would be for $Re_\tau = 6.5 \times 10^4$ and $Re_\tau = 1.4 \times 10^5$, which corresponds to experiments at SLTEST in Utah for which $u_{LS}$ were available (in these cases from sonic anemometers). To test the validity of the model further, predictions were also made for $Re_\tau$ and these results are shown in Fig. 15. The predictions are seen to agree very well, as expected since these are simply the area under the curves in Fig. 14.

The model given by Eq. (2) will likely need to be refined and extended to include the amplitude modulation effect described in the previous section. However, this would only be needed if one required higher-order statistics and other quantities that involve phase information. For second-order statistics, Eq. (2) is seen to be largely adequate.

6. Conclusions and summary

An overview of Reynolds number effects in wall-bounded turbulence is offered. It is shown that the contribution from the logarithmic region to the overall turbulence production increases with Reynolds number. This would seem to imply that, as Reynolds number increases, the large-scale motions that inhabit this region, become increasingly important in terms of sustaining and producing turbulence (as compared to the near-wall cycle). This observation is consistent with the emergence (and subsequent strengthening) of a large-scale secondary energetic peak that has been noted in the spectra of the streamwise velocity fluctuations in the log region of high Reynolds number boundary layers. This secondary emergent peak is the energetic signature due to highly elongated (and correlated) meandering regions of spanwise alternating positive and negative $u$ fluctuations that have been observed in the log and wake regions of wall-bounded turbulent flows (so-called superstructures or VLSM [Kim and Adrian, 1999; Ganapathisubramani et al., 2006; Hutchins and Marusic, 2007a; Monty et al., 2007; Monty et al., 2009]). It is noted that the energetic signature due to these features increases with Reynolds number (as compared to the energy due to the near-wall cycle). It has been observed that these large-scale features maintain a ‘footprint’ or presence in the near-wall region. Through this mechanism, large-scale (log region) energy (which will get longer and stronger with $Re$ as compared to the near-wall cycle) percolates down to the...
buffer and viscous sub-layers. Hence, the emergent view from careful comparisons of experimental data over extended Reynolds number ranges, is that the viscous-scaled near-wall peak of streamwise velocity fluctuations increases with Reynolds number (as opposed to the previously assumed viscous-scaling of near-wall fluctuations). In addition, it has been shown that the spanwise velocity component close to the wall also has a very large-scale energetic component. Data from the atmospheric surface layer has been presented which tentatively suggest that this large-scale spanwise component will also grow in magnitude as Reynolds number increases.

In addition to the superimposition of large-scale log region energy onto the near-wall region, evidence is also presented which suggests a more subtle underlying non-linear mechanism whereby the large-scale structures amplitude modulate the small-scale fluctuating energy at the wall. This amplitude modulation occurs for all three velocity components and also the Reynolds shear stress. Thus the large-scale log-region motions appear to actively modulate or influence the production of turbulence at the wall. The superposition effect of the large-scale superstructures onto the near-wall region is seen to be well modeled with a simple mathematical model. It is able to predict the second-order statistical quantities of the velocity signal at $z^+ = 15$ given a large-scale filtered signal from the logarithmic region. Though at this stage this model is preliminary, future extensions could be of great benefit to turbulence modeling efforts, where the near-wall signal is predicted given only large-scale information from the log region. Such information is precisely what is needed for an effective near-wall model for large-eddy simulations (LES) of high Reynolds number wall-bounded flows.

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² The views and conclusions contained herein are those of the authors and should not be interpreted as necessarily representing the official policies or endorsements, either expressed or implied, of the Air Force Research Laboratory or the US Government.