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Modeling and validation of a stochastic drag for fibers in turbulent flows

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Vorwort

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Darüber hinaus bietet die Reihe ein Forum für die Berichterstattung über die zahlreichen Kooperationsprojekte des Instituts mit Partnern aus Industrie und Wirtschaft.

Berichterstattung heißt hier Dokumentation des Transfers aktueller Ergebnisse aus mathematischer Forschungs- und Entwicklungsarbeit in industrielle Anwendungen und Softwareprodukte – und umgekehrt, denn Probleme der Praxis generieren neue interessante mathematische Fragestellungen.



Prof. Dr. Dieter Prätzel-Wolters
Institutsleiter

Kaiserslautern, im Juni 2001

MODELING AND VALIDATION OF A STOCHASTIC DRAG FOR FIBERS IN TURBULENT FLOWS

NICOLE MARHEINEKE AND RAIMUND WEGENER

ABSTRACT. Considering the dynamics of long slender elastic fibers in turbulent flows, a stochastic aerodynamic force concept for a general drag model was derived on the basis of a k - ϵ turbulence description in [23]. In this paper we generalize the concept and formulate an air drag model that is uniformly valid for all Reynolds number regimes and incident flow directions. The associated turbulent force overcomes the hitherto existing limitations and allows the simulation of all kind of fibers (flexible, stiff, light, heavy) immersed in turbulent flows. Moreover, the validation of the numerical results with PIV-measurements shows very convincing agreements in the industrial application of technical textile manufacturing.

Key words. fiber-fluid interactions, long slender fibers, turbulence modelling, aerodynamic drag, dimensional analysis, data interpolation, stochastic partial differential algebraic equation, numerical simulations, experimental validations

1. INTRODUCTION

The understanding of the motion of long slender elastic fibers in turbulent flows is of great interest to research, development and production in technical textiles manufacturing. The fiber dynamics depend on the drag forces that are imposed on the fiber by the fluid. Their computation requires in principle a coupling of fiber and flow with no-slip interface conditions. However, the needed high resolution and adaptive grid refinement make the direct numerical simulation of the three-dimensional fluid-solid-problem for slender fibers and turbulent flows not only extremely costly and complex, but also still impossible for practically relevant applications. Embedded in a slender body theory, an aerodynamic force concept for a general drag model was therefore derived on basis of a stochastic k - ϵ description for a turbulent flow field in [23]. The turbulence effects on the fiber dynamics were modeled by a correlated random Gaussian force and its asymptotic limit on a macroscopic fiber scale by Gaussian white noise with flow-dependent amplitude. The concept was numerically studied under the conditions of a melt-spinning process for nonwoven materials in [24] – for the specific choice of a non-linear Taylor drag model. Taylor [35] suggested the heuristic model for high Reynolds number flows, $\text{Re} \in [20, 3 \cdot 10^5]$, around inclined slender objects under an angle of attack of $\alpha \in (\pi/36, \pi/2]$ between flow and object tangent. Since the Reynolds number is considered with respect to the relative velocity between flow and fiber, the numerical results lack accuracy evidently for small Re that occur in cases of flexible light fibers moving occasionally with the flow velocity. In such a regime ($\text{Re} \ll 1$), linear Stokes drag forces were successfully applied for the prediction of small particles immersed in turbulent flows, see e.g. [25, 26, 32, 39], a modified Stokes force taking also into account the particle oscillations was presented in [14]. The linear drag relation was also conferred to longer filaments by imposing free-draining assumptions [29, 8]. Apart from this, the Taylor drag suffers from its non-applicability to tangential incident flow situations ($\alpha = 0$) that often occur in fiber and nonwoven production processes.

The goal of our paper is the generalization of the stochastic aerodynamic force context and the formulation of a drag model that is uniformly valid for all Reynolds number regimes and incident flow directions. The associated turbulent force overcomes then the observed limitations and allows the efficient simulation of all variants of long slender fibers (i.e. flexible, stiff, light, heavy) immersed in turbulent flows.

Date: August 20, 2009.

For convenience, we start with a brief outline of the aerodynamic force concept [23] that is based on a splitting of the instantaneous force into a mean and a fluctuating part in Section 1. The mean force model as well as the splitting approach require an appropriate air drag model that is valid for all Reynolds number regimes and incident flow directions. Motivated from Oseen and Stokes slender body theories for small Re (see e.g. [20, 36, 37, 18, 27, 16, 5] for Oseen and [6, 3, 19, 2, 13] for Stokes flow), empirical drag models for high Re [35, 17] and measurements [38, 31, 30, 33], we formulate a continuously differentiable drag that we verify by help of simulations in Section 2. In Section 3 we suggest a splitting approach that reduces to a linearization of the drag model for small turbulent kinetic energy $k \rightarrow 0$. The fluctuation force is asymptotically modelled by Gaussian white noise with flow-dependent amplitude. The amplitude is thereby deduced from the correlations of the turbulent flow velocity. Following [23], the double-velocity correlation tensor of the assumed centered differentiable Gaussian field satisfies initially the Kolmogorov universal equilibrium theory [10] as well as the local distribution of the kinetic energy k and dissipation rate ϵ provided by the stochastic k - ϵ turbulence model. We weaken Taylor's hypothesis of frozen turbulence pattern [34] originally proposed in [23] and incorporated in [24] by prescribing a dynamic decay of the local correlations in Section 4. This modification extends the applicability range of the stochastic force model crucially. Tangential incident as well as low Reynolds number flow scenarios are included as the numerical simulations of fiber-turbulence interactions in melt-spinning processes of nonwoven materials show in Section 5. We conclude this work with the validation of our proposed stochastic drag model with PIV-measurements.

General Stochastic Aerodynamic Force Concept. Being interested in the dynamics of long slender fibers in turbulent flows, we briefly recall the basic models developed in [23].

Consider a single elastic fiber of slenderness ratio $\delta = d/l \ll 1$ with length l and circular cross-sections of typical diameter d that is immersed in a subsonic highly turbulent air flow with small pressure gradients and Mach number $Ma < 1/3$. Its motion is crucially affected by the aerodynamic force, i.e. the stress on the fiber boundary in outer normal direction. The determination of the aerodynamic force requires in principle a two-way coupling of fiber and flow with no-slip interface conditions. In case of slender fibers and turbulent flows, the needed high resolution and adaptive grid refinement make the direct numerical simulation of the coupled fluid-solid-problem not only extremely costly and complex, but also still impossible for practically relevant applications. Since the fiber influence on the turbulence is negligibly small due to the slender geometry, it makes therefore sense to associate to the force a stochastic drag that characterizes the turbulent flow effects on the fiber and allows an one-way coupling. Representing the fiber as arc-length parameterized time-dependent curve $\mathbf{r} : [0, l] \times \mathbb{R}_0^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ with line weight (ρA) , its motion is asymptotically modeled by a system of stochastic partial differential equations with algebraic constraint of inextensibility, i.e.,

$$\|\partial_s \mathbf{r}\|_2 = 1 \quad (1.1a)$$

$$(\rho A) \partial_{tt} \mathbf{r} \, ds \, dt = \{ \partial_s (T \partial_s \mathbf{r} - \partial_s (EI \partial_{ss} \mathbf{r})) + (\rho A) \mathbf{g} + \mathbf{a}(\mathbf{r}, \partial_t \mathbf{r}, \partial_s \mathbf{r}, s, t) \} \, ds \, dt \quad (1.1b)$$

$$+ \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}, \partial_t \mathbf{r}, \partial_s \mathbf{r}, s, t) \cdot d\mathbf{w}_{s,t}$$

equipped with appropriate initial and boundary conditions, where

$$\mathbf{a}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\tau}, s, t) = \mathbf{m}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \bar{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{x}, t) - \mathbf{w}, k(\mathbf{x}, t), \nu(\mathbf{x}, t), \rho(\mathbf{x}, t), d(s)), \quad (1.1c)$$

$$\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\tau}, s, t) = \mathbf{L}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \bar{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{x}, t) - \mathbf{w}, k(\mathbf{x}, t), \nu(\mathbf{x}, t), \rho(\mathbf{x}, t), d(s)) \quad (1.1d)$$

$$\cdot \mathbf{D}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \bar{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{x}, t) - \mathbf{w}, k(\mathbf{x}, t), \epsilon(\mathbf{x}, t), \nu(\mathbf{x}, t)).$$

The system is deduced from the dynamical Kirchhoff-Love equations [1] for a Cosserat rod being capable of large, geometrically nonlinear deformations, neglecting torsion. In (1.1b) the change of the momentum is balanced by the acting internal and external forces. The internal line forces stem from bending stiffness indicated by Young's modulus and the moment of inertia (EI) as well as from traction. In this spirit, the Lagrangian multiplier $T : [0, l] \times \mathbb{R}_0^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ to (1.1a) can be viewed

as modified tractive force $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{T}_t + \text{EI} \|\partial_{\text{ss}} \mathbf{r}\|_2^2$ containing tension \mathbf{T}_t and curvature $\|\partial_{\text{ss}} \mathbf{r}\|_2^2$ due to bending. The external line forces imposed on the fiber arise from gravity \mathbf{g} and aerodynamics \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{A} .

The aerodynamic force is derived on basis of a stochastic k- ϵ turbulence model [21]. Expressing the instantaneous flow velocity as sum of a mean and a fluctuating part, the Reynolds-averaged Navier-Stokes equations (RANS) yield a deterministic description for the mean velocity $\bar{\mathbf{u}} : \mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}_0^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$, whereas two further transport equations for the kinetic turbulent energy $k : \mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}_0^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ and dissipation rate $\epsilon : \mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}_0^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ characterize the random fluctuations \mathbf{u}' according to $k = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{u}' \cdot \mathbf{u}']/2$ and $\epsilon = \nu \mathbb{E}[\nabla \mathbf{u}' : \mathbf{u}']$ with kinematic viscosity ν , density ρ and expectation $\mathbb{E}[\cdot]$. Analogously, the aerodynamic force is split into a mean and a fluctuating part. Acting as additive Gaussian noise in (1.1b), it depends on the flow quantities $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$, k , ϵ , and ν , ρ , cf. (1.1c), (1.1d). Thereby, the deterministic mean force $\mathbf{m} : \mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}^3 \times (\mathbb{R}^+)^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ as well as the associated splitting operator $\mathbf{L} : \mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}^3 \times (\mathbb{R}^+)^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ are determined by the chosen air drag model \mathbf{f} which is a function of the mean relative velocity between fluid and fiber, $\bar{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{r}, t) - \partial_t \mathbf{r}$, and the fiber tangent $\partial_s \mathbf{r}$. The correlated fluctuations are asymptotically approximated by Gaussian white noise with turbulence-dependent amplitude, where $(\mathbf{w}_{s,t}, (s, t) \in [0, 1] \times \mathbb{R}_0^+)$ denotes a \mathbb{R}^3 -valued Wiener process (Brownian motion). The amplitude $\mathbf{D} : \mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}^3 \times (\mathbb{R}^+)^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ represents the integral effects of the localized centered Gaussian velocity fluctuations on the relevant fiber scales by containing the necessary information of the spatial and temporal correlations of the double-velocity fluctuations $\gamma = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{u}' \otimes \mathbf{u}']$.

Consequently, the performance of the aerodynamic force mainly relies on two models, i.e. the air drag model \mathbf{f} (inducing \mathbf{m} and \mathbf{L}) and the turbulence correlation approximation γ (inducing \mathbf{D}). Applying the Global-from-Local Concept of [23] we derive local models in the following that we globalize by superposition. Hence, we handle the delicate fiber-turbulence problem by help of two surrogate models: a drag model for an incompressible flow around an inclined infinitely long circular cylinder and a correlation model for incompressible homogeneous isotropic turbulence.

Notational Convention *Note that we typeset dimensional quantities in Roman style (e.g. s , t , \mathbf{f} , \mathbf{m} , \mathbf{L} , \mathbf{D}) and the corresponding dimensionless quantities in Italic style (e.g. s , t , \mathbf{f} , \mathbf{m} , \mathbf{L} , \mathbf{D}) throughout this paper. Moreover, we use small and large bold-faced letters for vector- and tensor-valued quantities, respectively. Scalar-valued quantities are given in normal-faced letters.*

2. AIR DRAG MODEL

The flow around slender objects was subject of research during the last century and intensively studied theoretically, numerically and experimentally, for an overview see [41, 33, 31] and references within. In an incompressible flow, the force \mathbf{f} acting on a fixed, infinitely long circular cylinder is exclusively caused by friction and inertia. It depends on the material and geometrical properties, i.e. fluid density ρ , kinematic viscosity ν and cylinder diameter d , as well as on the specific inflow situation, i.e. inflow velocity \mathbf{v} and cylinder orientation $\boldsymbol{\tau}$, $\|\boldsymbol{\tau}\|_2 = 1$, see Figure 2.1. Non-dimensionalizing the line force \mathbf{f} and the flow velocity \mathbf{v} with the typical mass ρd^3 , length d and time d^2/ν yields a reduction of the dependencies,

$$\mathbf{f}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v}, \nu, \rho, d) = \frac{\rho \nu^2}{d} \mathbf{f}\left(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \frac{d}{\nu} \mathbf{v}\right), \quad \mathbf{v} = \frac{\nu}{d} \mathbf{v}. \quad (2.1)$$

In the following we focus on the derivation of the dimensionless quantity $\mathbf{f}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v})$.

2.1. Non-tangential Incident Flow. For the further discussion, we firstly exclude the tangential incident flow situation and assume $\mathbf{v} \not\parallel \boldsymbol{\tau}$. Then, we introduce

$$v_\tau = \mathbf{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{\tau}, \quad v_n = \sqrt{\mathbf{v}^2 - v_\tau^2}, \quad \mathbf{n} = \frac{\mathbf{v} - v_\tau \boldsymbol{\tau}}{v_n}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \boldsymbol{\tau} \times \mathbf{n}$$

such that $(\mathbf{n}, \mathbf{b}, \boldsymbol{\tau})$ forms an orthonormal basis induced by $(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v})$. In this context, the dimensionless normal velocity component v_n is the Reynolds number Re and $v_\tau/v_n = \cot \alpha$ can be associated with the angle of attack α .

Due to the rotational invariance of the force, its components depend only on the scalar products $\mathbf{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{\tau}$ and \mathbf{v}^2 such that we can express them alternatively in the tangential and normal velocity components

$$\mathbf{f}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v}) = f_n(v_n, v_\tau) \mathbf{n} + f_\tau(v_n, v_\tau) \boldsymbol{\tau}.$$

The binormal force component vanishes in case of a circular cylinder due to symmetry reasons, $f_b(v_n, v_\tau) = 0$, as we will see in the following consideration. For the dependencies of the normal and tangential component, Hoerner [15] postulated an independence principle. Since there can be found a lot of very vague explanations and speculations about this principle in literature, we derive it strictly for a stationary flow around a circular cylinder.

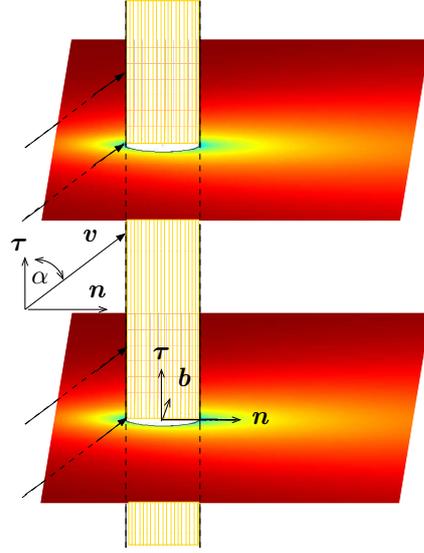


FIGURE 2.1. Flow around infinitely long cylinder with angle of attack α , $\alpha \neq 0$. Inflow set-up yields homogeneous velocity field in $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ -direction.

Independence Principle.

- The normal force f_n is independent of the tangential velocity v_τ .
- The tangential force f_τ depends linearly on the tangential velocity v_τ .

In particular, we formulate

$$f_n(v_n, v_\tau) = v_n^2 c_n(v_n), \quad f_\tau(v_n, v_\tau) = v_\tau v_n c_\tau(v_n). \quad (2.2)$$

Proof: With respect to the $(\mathbf{n}, \mathbf{b}, \boldsymbol{\tau})$ -basis, we introduce the tupels $\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}_\perp, x_\tau) = (x_n, x_b, x_\tau)$, $\mathbf{u} = (\mathbf{u}_\perp, u_\tau) = (u_n, u_b, u_\tau)$ and $\mathbf{f} = (\mathbf{f}_\perp, f_\tau) = (f_n, f_b, f_\tau)$ for position, velocity and line force, respectively. Describing a stationary, incompressible flow around a fixed circular cylinder, the three-dimensional Navier-Stokes equations for pressure p and velocity \mathbf{u} are

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0, \quad \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{u} = -\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} p + \Delta_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{u}$$

with inflow velocity $\lim_{x_n \rightarrow -\infty} \mathbf{u} = (v_n, 0, v_\tau)$ and no-slip conditions $\mathbf{u} = 0$ at the cylinder.

Note that due to the chosen non-dimensionalization, the parameters characterizing the flow, i.e. Reynolds number $\text{Re} = v_n$ and angle of attack $\alpha = \text{arccot}(v_\tau/v_n)$, occur in the boundary conditions and not in the balance equations themselves. Because of the homogeneity of the flow in $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ -direction, i.e. $\partial_{x_\tau} p = 0$, $\partial_{x_\tau} \mathbf{u} = 0$, which is a consequence of the inflow set-up (cf. Figure 2.1), the three-dimensional model decomposes into two-dimensional Navier-Stokes equations for p and \mathbf{u}_\perp and a two-dimensional drift-diffusion equation for u_τ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{\mathbf{x}_\perp} \cdot \mathbf{u}_\perp &= 0, & \mathbf{u}_\perp \cdot \nabla_{\mathbf{x}_\perp} \mathbf{u}_\perp &= -\nabla_{\mathbf{x}_\perp} p + \Delta_{\mathbf{x}_\perp} \mathbf{u}_\perp & \mathbf{u}_\perp \cdot \nabla_{\mathbf{x}_\perp} u_\tau &= \Delta_{\mathbf{x}_\perp} u_\tau & (2.3) \\ \lim_{x_n \rightarrow -\infty} \mathbf{u}_\perp &= (v_n, 0) \text{ and } \mathbf{u}_\perp = 0 \text{ at the cylinder,} & \lim_{x_n \rightarrow -\infty} u_\tau &= v_\tau \text{ and } u_\tau = 0 \text{ at the cylinder.} \end{aligned}$$

As for the inflow, the flow field \mathbf{u}_\perp depends hence only on the normal component v_n . This dependence is handed over to u_τ due to the one-sided coupling of the equations. Moreover, u_τ depends linearly on v_τ which follows from the linearity of the drift-diffusion equation.

The determination of the line force on the cylinder

$$\mathbf{f} = \int_{\gamma} -p \tilde{\mathbf{n}} + (\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{u} + \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{u}^T) \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{n}} \, dl,$$

simplifies respectively,

$$\mathbf{f}_\perp = \int_\gamma -p\tilde{\mathbf{n}}_\perp + (\nabla_{\mathbf{x}_\perp} \mathbf{u}_\perp + \nabla_{\mathbf{x}_\perp} \mathbf{u}_\perp^T) \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{n}}_\perp dl, \quad f_\tau = \int_\gamma \tilde{\mathbf{n}}_\perp \cdot \nabla_{\mathbf{x}_\perp} u_\tau dl, \quad (2.4)$$

because of the homogeneity of the flow. Here, the outer normal is given by $\tilde{\mathbf{n}} = (\tilde{\mathbf{n}}_\perp, 0)$ due to the orientation of the cylinder. For a circular cylinder, $\mathbf{f}_\perp = (f_n, 0)$ particularly holds because of symmetry reasons. Since f_n depends exclusively on \mathbf{u}_\perp and f_τ is linear in u_τ , the force inherits the observed dependencies of the flow problem. \square

A stationary flow regime around a cylinder develops for small Reynolds numbers, up to approximately $\text{Re} \approx 30$. For higher Reynolds numbers laminar vortex shedding that transits into turbulence in the wake at $\text{Re} \approx 200$ causes a transient flow behavior. However, in the spirit of time-averaged forces, direct numerical simulations (DNS) [22] show the validity of the independence principle even for subcritical Reynolds numbers. Therefore, we apply the principle to all flow regimes. This reduces f_n to the force obtained from cross-flow ($v_\tau = 0$) for all inflow directions, which we express in (2.2) by formulating f_n in terms of the well-studied drag coefficient c_n for cross-flow, see Figure 2.2 as well as [31, 41] and references within. Correspondingly, we introduce a tangential drag coefficient c_τ in (2.2). In contrast to c_n , we lack of theoretical and experimental data for c_τ over a wide range. Since c_n and c_τ play on the same scales, it makes sense to consider

$$c(v_n) = \frac{c_\tau}{c_n}(v_n).$$

A ratio $c(v_n) = 1$ corresponds to a force in direction of the inflow velocity \mathbf{v} . In general, a smaller tangential force might be expected which promises $c(v_n) \in [0, 1]$ to be a sensitive measure for the modelling of c_τ .

For the scenario of an infinitely long cylinder in cross-flow, Lamb [20] derived c_n by approximating the solution of Oseen flow for $\text{Re} \ll 1$. Among all the extended solutions, see [2, 16, 18, 27] and overview in [41], the exact Oseen drag by Tomotika and Aoi is especially worth mentioning. By help of higher order series expansions in Re with Bessel functions they generalized not only Lamb's result up to $\text{Re} < 4$ [36], but also transferred the techniques to arbitrary inflow directions yielding c_τ in this regime [37]. In Table 2.1 only the first correction to Lamb is listed. For high Reynolds number flows, heuristic drag models for c_n were formulated in correspondence to experimental measurements in cross-flow [38, 31, 30, 33]. Whereas Taylor's model [35] coincides satisfactorily for $\text{Re} \in [20, 3 \cdot 10^5]$, Imai [17] takes into account the drag drop from 0.5 down to 0.25 that is caused by compressibility effects in the critical to transcritical regimes, and pays instead the price of generally underestimating c_n for $\text{Re} \in [10^2, 10^5]$, see Figure 2.2. For the tangential drag, Taylor suggested $c_\tau = \gamma/\sqrt{v_n}$ where the coefficient $\gamma = 2.7$ is adapted to an experiment by Relf et. al., see [35]. To model a trustable tangential drag, we complement the available data by a series of simulations in the moderate Reynolds number regime based on (2.4). The efficient numerical handling of the underlying fluid dynamical problem is thereby allowed by the model reduction from the three-dimensional Navier-Stokes equations to the two-dimensional Navier-Stokes-drift-diffusion equations (2.3). The approximation quality of the performed COMSOL simulations is ensured by the validation with the cross-flow measurements and the Oseen theory, see Figure 2.2. On top of the simulation data, we propose an exponential, continuously differentiable least-square fit to close the gap between Tomotika et. al. and Taylor (cf. Table 2.1). Also the Taylor coefficient γ in c_τ is modified accordingly. This yields the following drag model (2.5), that is uniformly applicable for all Reynolds number regimes and incident flow situations – apart from tangential flow. The respective normal c_n and tangential c_τ components are visualized in Figure 2.3, their ratio c in Figure 2.4.

Flow regime		c_n	c_τ
Flow around infinitely long cylinder			
Oseen drag	low Re	with $S(v_n) = 2.0022 - \ln v_n$	
Lamb [20]	$\ll 1$	$\frac{4\pi}{Sv_n}$	$\frac{4\pi}{(2S-1)v_n}^*$
Tomotika et. al. [36, 37]	< 4	$\frac{4\pi}{Sv_n} \left(1 - \frac{S^2 - S/2 + 5/16}{32S} v_n^2\right)$	$\frac{4\pi}{(2S-1)v_n} \left(1 - \frac{2S^2 - 2S + 1}{16(2S-1)} v_n^2\right)$
Heuristic drag	high Re		
Imai [17]	> 5	$\frac{5.85}{v_n} + \frac{2.42}{\sqrt{v_n}} + 0.25$	
Taylor [35]	$[20, 3 \cdot 10^5]$	$\frac{2}{\sqrt{v_n}} + 0.5$	$\frac{2.7}{\sqrt{v_n}}$
Flow around finite cylinder			
Stokes drag	low Re	with $\delta = d/l$	
Cox [6], Batchelor [3]	$\ll 1$	$\frac{4\pi}{\ln(4/\delta)v_n}$	$\frac{2\pi}{\ln(4/\delta)v_n}$
Götz et. al. [13]	< 1	$\frac{4\pi}{(\ln(4/\delta) - 0.5)v_n}$	$\frac{2\pi}{(\ln(4/\delta) - 1.5)v_n}$
Keller et. al. [19]	< 1	$\frac{4\pi}{(\ln(4/\delta) - 0.5 - \frac{1-\pi^2/12}{\ln(2/\delta)})v_n}$	$\frac{2\pi}{(\ln(4/\delta) - 1.5 - \frac{1-\pi^2/12}{\ln(2/\delta)})v_n}$

TABLE 2.1. Selection of existing drag models for respective flow regimes (* c_τ supplemented according to [37])

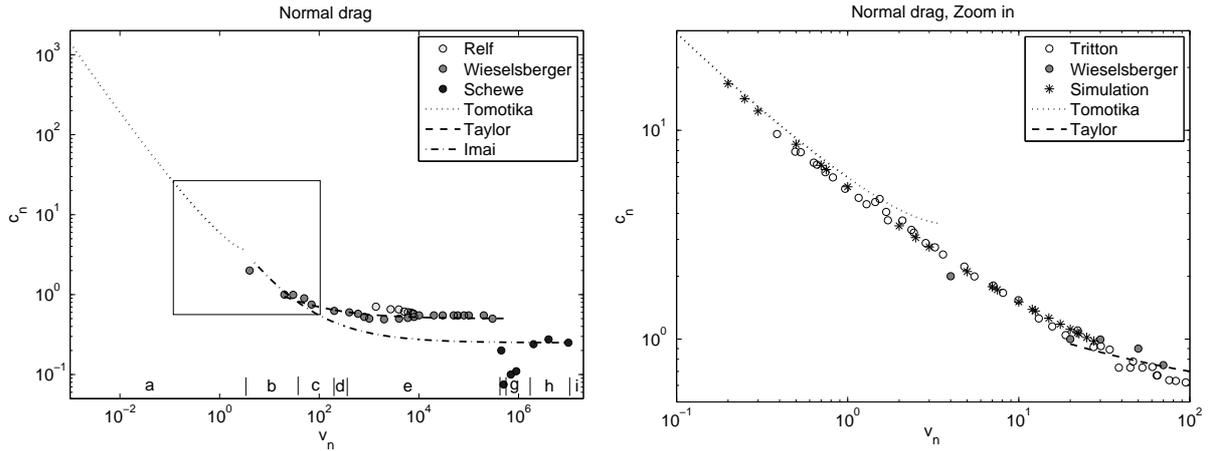


FIGURE 2.2. c_n for a smooth circular cylinder for different flow regimes: a. no vortex separation; b. fixed pair of symmetric vortices; c. laminar vortex separation; d. transition to turbulence in the wake; e. subcritical; f. critical; g. supercritical; h. upper transition; i. transcritical, cf. [33]. Experiments in cross-flow by Tritton [38], Relf et. al (see [35]), Wieselsberger (see [31]), Schewe [30]. Simulations of (2.4) with COMSOL.

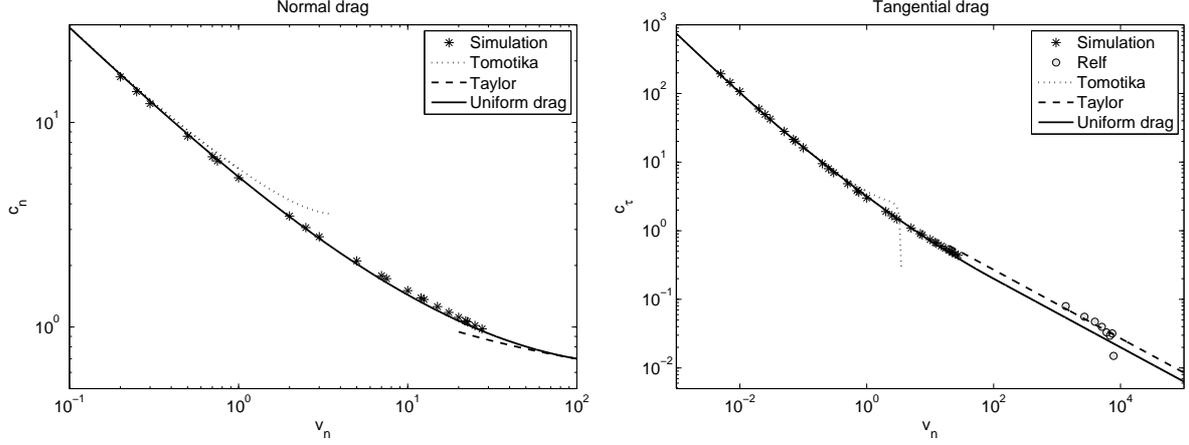


FIGURE 2.3. Normal c_n and tangential c_τ components of proposed uniform drag model (2.5).

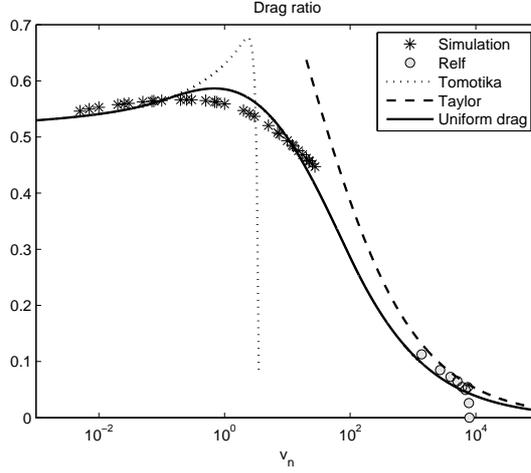


FIGURE 2.4. Drag ratio $c = c_\tau/c_n$.

Uniform Drag Model. The continuously differentiable normal c_n and tangential c_τ drag models composed of Oseen theory, Taylor heuristic and numerical simulations read

$$c_n(v_n) = \begin{cases} 4\pi/(Sv_n) \left(1 - \frac{S^2 - S/2 + 5/16}{32S} v_n^2\right) & v_n < v_1 \\ \exp(\sum_{j=0}^3 p_{n,j} \ln^j v_n) & v_1 \leq v_n \leq v_2 \\ 2/\sqrt{v_n} + 0.5 & v_2 < v_n \end{cases} \quad (2.5a)$$

$$c_\tau(v_n) = \begin{cases} 4\pi/((2S-1)v_n) \left(1 - \frac{2S^2 - 2S + 1}{16(2S-1)} v_n^2\right) & v_n < v_1 \\ \exp(\sum_{j=0}^3 p_{\tau,j} \ln^j v_n) & v_1 \leq v_n \leq v_2 \\ \gamma/\sqrt{v_n} & v_2 < v_n \end{cases} \quad (2.5b)$$

with $S(v_n) = 2.0022 - \ln v_n$. The transition points $v_1 = 0.1$, $v_2 = 100$ as well as the amplitude $\gamma = 2$ are estimated from a least-square approximation of the data. This yields the associated C^1 -regularity parameters $p_{n,0} = 1.6911$, $p_{n,1} = -6.7222 \cdot 10^{-1}$, $p_{n,2} = 3.3287 \cdot 10^{-2}$, $p_{n,3} = 3.5015 \cdot 10^{-3}$ and $p_{\tau,0} = 1.1552$, $p_{\tau,1} = -6.8479 \cdot 10^{-1}$, $p_{\tau,2} = 1.4884 \cdot 10^{-2}$, $p_{\tau,3} = 7.4966 \cdot 10^{-4}$.

2.2. Tangential Incident Flow. The tangential flow along the cylinder, $\boldsymbol{\tau} \parallel \mathbf{v}$, is a special case that is not included in the previous consideration. Therefore, it is not surprising that the proposed uniform drag model in (2.5) yields an unrealistic force with a vanishing tangential component $\lim_{v_n \rightarrow 0} f_\tau(v_n, v_\tau) = 0$. Moreover, the drag force lacks total differentiability on the line $v_n = 0$ due to the symmetric inflow set-up.

To discuss the regularity in more detail, it is reasonable to introduce the resistance coefficients

$$r_n(v_n) = v_n c_n(v_n), \quad r_\tau(v_n) = v_n c_\tau(v_n). \quad (2.6)$$

associated to (2.5). For a differentiable force, the derivatives of the resistance coefficients must vanish in $v_n = 0$. To obtain such a behavior, we take into account Stokes theory. For slender bodies of finite length (ellipsoids and cylindrical filaments) immersed in slow Stokes flow, appropriate linear force models were asymptotically derived using analytical expansions and matching principles, e.g. [6, 3, 19, 13], Table 2.1. In leading order, Cox [6] and Batchelor [3] particularly found resistance coefficients for $v_n \ll 1$ that depend exclusively on the slenderness ratio δ of the cylinder, $\delta = d/l \ll 1$, i.e. $r_{n,C} = 4\pi/\ln(4\delta^{-1})$ and $r_{\tau,C} = 2\pi/\ln(4\delta^{-1})$. Considering a typical slenderness ratio δ as regularization parameter for our drag model, we suggest the following regularization

$$r_n^\delta(v_n) = \begin{cases} \sum_{j=0}^3 s_{n,j} v_n^j, & v_n < v_0 \\ r_n(v_n), & v_0 \leq v_n \end{cases}, \quad r_\tau^\delta(v_n) = \begin{cases} \sum_{j=0}^3 s_{\tau,j} v_n^j, & v_n < v_0 \\ r_\tau(v_n), & v_0 \leq v_n \end{cases} \quad (2.7)$$

that matches Stokes resistance coefficients of higher order for $v_n \ll 1$

$$r_{n,S} = \frac{4\pi}{\ln(4/\delta)} - \frac{\pi}{\ln^2(4/\delta)}, \quad r_{\tau,S} = \frac{2\pi}{\ln(4/\delta)} + \frac{\pi/2}{\ln^2(4/\delta)}. \quad (2.8)$$

to those corresponding to our uniform drag (2.6). The δ -dependence enters (2.7) via the definition of the transition point $v_0 = 2(\exp(2.0022) - 4\pi/r_{n,S})$ and the C^1 -regularity parameters $s_{i,0} = r_{i,S}$, $s_{i,1} = 0$, $s_{i,2} = (3r_i(v_0) - v_0 r_i'(v_0) - 3r_{i,S})/(v_0)^2$ and $s_{i,3} = (-2r_i(v_0) + v_0 r_i'(v_0) + 2r_{i,S})/(v_0)^3$ for $i = n, \tau$. In order to locate the transition point in the low Reynolds number regime, the condition $v_0 < v_1 = 0.1$ must be fulfilled which implies a restriction on δ , i.e. $\delta < 3.5 \cdot 10^{-2}$. This regularization affects the drag ratio only marginally, but the force essentially, see Figure 2.5. The regularized resistance coefficients (2.7) allow for a smooth force \mathbf{f} , accordingly

$$\mathbf{f}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v}) = v_n r_n^\delta(v_n) \mathbf{n} + v_\tau r_\tau^\delta(v_n) \boldsymbol{\tau}.$$

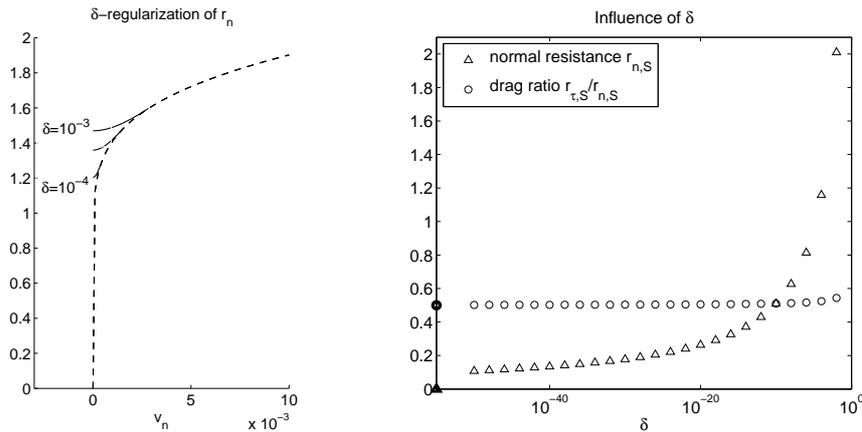


FIGURE 2.5. Effects of regularization on drag. *Left:* unregularized normal resistance coefficient r_n is indicated by dashed line, changes due to different δ -regularizations, $\delta \in \{10^{-4}, 5 \cdot 10^{-4}, 10^{-3}\}$, by solid lines. *Right:* δ -dependence of Stokes normal resistance $r_{n,S}$ and drag ratio $c_S = r_{\tau,S}/r_{n,S}$.

In the limit case of tangential flow, we particularly have the tangential force $\lim_{v_n \rightarrow 0} f_\tau(v_n, v_\tau) = v_\tau r_{\tau,S}$ and the derivative

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\mathbf{f}}{d\mathbf{v}}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v}) &= r_n^\delta(v_n) (\mathbf{I} - \boldsymbol{\tau} \otimes \boldsymbol{\tau}) + v_n (r_n^\delta)'(v_n) \mathbf{n} \otimes \mathbf{n} + r_\tau^\delta(v_n) \boldsymbol{\tau} \otimes \boldsymbol{\tau} + v_\tau (r_\tau^\delta)'(v_n) \boldsymbol{\tau} \otimes \mathbf{n} \\ &\xrightarrow{v_n \rightarrow 0} r_{n,S} (\mathbf{I} - \boldsymbol{\tau} \otimes \boldsymbol{\tau}) + r_{\tau,S} \boldsymbol{\tau} \otimes \boldsymbol{\tau}. \end{aligned}$$

with unit tensor \mathbf{I} , where the Stokes quantities $r_{n,S}$ and $r_{\tau,S}$ depend on the choice of δ , cf. (2.8) and Figure 2.5.

3. SPLITTING APPROACH

Coming back to the turbulent flow around a long flexible moving fiber, we generalize the drag by glueing together the locally valid results for the cylinder, imposing free-draining assumptions [29, 8]. Then, the drag force acting on the fiber at a certain position is given by

$$\mathbf{f}(\partial_s \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{r}, t) - \partial_t \mathbf{r}) = \mathbf{f}(\partial_s \mathbf{r}, (\bar{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{r}, t) - \partial_t \mathbf{r}) + \mathbf{u}'(\mathbf{r}, t)), \quad (3.1)$$

according to the RANS-averaging ansatz for the flow velocity, i.e., $\mathbf{u} = \bar{\mathbf{u}} + \mathbf{u}'$. As nonlinear functional on the centered Gaussian fluctuation velocity field \mathbf{u}' , the force is a stochastic process whose expectation and covariance can be computed according to the transformation theorem for random variables [4, 23]. However, due to the complexity, the efficient numerical handling of (3.1) is hopeless such that the Global-from-Local Force Concept [23] suggests its approximation by an appropriately chosen linear Gaussian drag force. Therefore, we split the drag force into a mean part \mathbf{m} and a fluctuation part. The drag fluctuation inherits the stochastic properties of the turbulence by being modelled linearly in the velocity fluctuations with the matrix-valued linearization operator \mathbf{L} . We determine \mathbf{m} and \mathbf{L} as solution of the following optimization problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{L}} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{3/2}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \left(\mathbf{f} \left(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v} + \sqrt{\frac{2k}{3}} \boldsymbol{\xi} \right) - \mathbf{m}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v}, k) - \mathbf{L}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v}, k) \cdot \sqrt{\frac{2k}{3}} \boldsymbol{\xi} \right)^2 \exp \left(\frac{-\boldsymbol{\xi}^2}{2} \right) d\boldsymbol{\xi}$$

where we incorporate the fact that the centered Gaussian velocity fluctuations are locally isotropic, i.e., the variance of every component satisfies $\mathbb{E}[(u'_i)^2] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{u}' \cdot \mathbf{u}']/3 = 2k/3$ with turbulent kinetic energy k . So, the quantities \mathbf{m} and \mathbf{L} depend on the fiber orientation $\boldsymbol{\tau}$, the mean relative velocity \mathbf{v} between mean flow and fiber and the turbulent kinetic energy k . By setting the variations of the cost functional with respect to the quantities equal to zero, we particularly obtain

$$\mathbf{m}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v}, k) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{3/2}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \mathbf{f} \left(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v} + \sqrt{\frac{2k}{3}} \boldsymbol{\xi} \right) \exp \left(\frac{-\boldsymbol{\xi}^2}{2} \right) d\boldsymbol{\xi} \quad (3.2a)$$

$$\mathbf{L}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v}, k) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{3/2}} \sqrt{\frac{3}{2k}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \mathbf{f} \left(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v} + \sqrt{\frac{2k}{3}} \boldsymbol{\xi} \right) \otimes \boldsymbol{\xi} \exp \left(\frac{-\boldsymbol{\xi}^2}{2} \right) d\boldsymbol{\xi}. \quad (3.2b)$$

For small turbulent kinetic energy, this linearization approach converges towards the Taylor expansion of first order presented in [24], i.e.,

$$\mathbf{m}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v}, k) \rightarrow \mathbf{f}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v}), \quad \mathbf{L}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v}, k) \rightarrow \frac{d\mathbf{f}}{d\mathbf{v}}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v}) \quad \text{for } k \rightarrow 0. \quad (3.3)$$

This simplification is a good approximation when the flow fluctuations are small perturbations to the mean relative velocity which is not true in general. In fact, $\sqrt{2k} = \|\mathbf{u}'\| \ll \|\bar{\mathbf{u}}\|$ according to the turbulence theory, but the relative velocity $\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \bar{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{r}, t) - \partial_t \mathbf{r}$ between mean flow and fiber is only of the same order as the mean flow velocity $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$ in case of stiff, heavy fibers where $\partial_t \mathbf{r} \approx \mathbf{0}$. Flexible, light fibers, in contrast, move with the mean flow, i.e. $\mathbf{v} \approx \mathbf{0}$, such that $\sqrt{2k} \approx \|\mathbf{v}\|$ or even $\sqrt{2k} \gg \|\mathbf{v}\|$ might be expected. The general linearization approach (3.2) includes all these cases.

From the dimensionless quantities considered above we return to the associated dimensional ones that are used in the fiber dynamics model (1.1) by re-scaling with the typical mass ρd^3 , the typical

length d and the typical time d^2/ν (compare with the respective non-dimensionalization of the drag force \mathbf{f} , \mathbf{f} in (2.1)). Hence, we obtain

$$\mathbf{m}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{k}, \nu, \rho, d) = \frac{\rho\nu^2}{d} \mathbf{m} \left(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \frac{d}{\nu} \mathbf{v}, \frac{d^2}{\nu^2} \mathbf{k} \right) \quad \mathbf{L}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{k}, \nu, \rho, d) = \rho\nu \mathbf{L} \left(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \frac{d}{\nu} \mathbf{v}, \frac{d^2}{\nu^2} \mathbf{k} \right).$$

For the numerical evaluation of the multiple integrals over the unbounded domain with Gaussian weight in expression (3.2), product Gauss-Hermite quadrature rules or Monte-Carlo methods can be applied traditionally, see e.g. [7, 9]. Moreover, recent works suggest efficient fully symmetric interpolatory rules [11] as well as stochastic algorithms with higher accuracy and better convergence properties than the simple Monte-Carlo methods for high-dimensional integrals [12].

4. TURBULENCE CORRELATION MODEL

The random part of the drag force acting on the fiber is crucially determined by the underlying turbulent velocity fluctuations that can asymptotically be approximated by Gaussian white noise with flow-dependent amplitude. The amplitude \mathbf{D} represents hereby the integral effects of the localized centered Gaussian velocity fluctuations on the relevant fiber scales, containing the necessary information of the spatial and temporal double-velocity correlations. In an incompressible, homogeneous and isotropic turbulent flow, \mathbf{D} particularly depends on the turbulence properties, i.e. turbulent kinetic energy k , dissipation rate ϵ and kinematic viscosity ν , as well as on the specific fiber-flow relation, i.e. mean relative velocity \mathbf{v} and fiber orientation $\boldsymbol{\tau}$, $\|\boldsymbol{\tau}\|_2 = 1$. Non-dimensionalizing the correlation representant \mathbf{D} , the mean velocity \mathbf{v} and the viscosity ν with the typical turbulent length $k^{3/2}/\epsilon$ and time k/ϵ yields a reduction of the dependencies,

$$\mathbf{D}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{k}, \epsilon, \nu) = \frac{k^{7/4}}{\epsilon} \mathbf{D} \left(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \mathbf{v}, \frac{\epsilon}{k^2} \nu \right), \quad \mathbf{v} = \sqrt{k} \mathbf{v}, \quad \nu = \frac{k^2}{\epsilon} \zeta. \quad (4.1)$$

In the following we focus on the derivation of the dimensionless quantity $\mathbf{D}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v}, \zeta)$. With the chosen non-dimensionalization, ζ is not only the dimensionless viscosity but also the ratio of turbulent fine-scale and large-scale length [40].

In an homogeneous turbulent flow, the tensor $\boldsymbol{\gamma} : (\mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}_0^+)^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ containing the spatial and temporal correlations of the double-velocity fluctuations,

$$\boldsymbol{\gamma}(\mathbf{x} + \hat{\mathbf{x}}, t + \hat{t}, \hat{\mathbf{x}}, \hat{t}) = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{u}'(\mathbf{x} + \hat{\mathbf{x}}, t + \hat{t}) \otimes \mathbf{u}'(\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \hat{t})],$$

is invariant with regard to spatial and temporal translations. Hence it depends only on the differences of the arguments, $\boldsymbol{\gamma}(\mathbf{x} + \hat{\mathbf{x}}, t + \hat{t}, \hat{\mathbf{x}}, \hat{t}) = \boldsymbol{\gamma}(\mathbf{x}, t, \mathbf{0}, 0)$. The dynamic decay of the correlations might be modelled according to Taylor's hypothesis of frozen turbulence pattern [34] (originally proposed in [23] and incorporated in [24]), i.e. the fluctuations arise due to so-called turbulence pattern that are transported by the mean flow without changing their structure, $\boldsymbol{\gamma}(\mathbf{x}, t, \mathbf{0}, 0) = \boldsymbol{\gamma}_0(\mathbf{x} - t\bar{\mathbf{u}})$ with initial correlation tensor $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_0$. This hypothesis is based on the observation that the rate of decay of the mean properties is rather slow with respect to the time scale of the fluctuating fine-scale structures. However, considering the suspension of fibers in turbulent flows, the simulation results in [24] show that this ansatz might lead to unrealistic turbulent drag forces: short light fibers tending to move with the mean flow field would experience permanently the same non-varying fluctuations. Thus, we suggest to weaken the artificial frozen turbulence pattern by incorporating a natural temporal decay of the correlations (see [10] for details about the evolution of turbulence)

$$\boldsymbol{\gamma}(\mathbf{x} + \hat{\mathbf{x}}, t + \hat{t}, \hat{\mathbf{x}}, \hat{t}) = \boldsymbol{\gamma}_0(\mathbf{x} - t\bar{\mathbf{u}}) \varphi(t). \quad (4.2)$$

The decay function φ satisfies $\varphi(0) = 1$ which implies that the integral of its Fourier transform \mathcal{F}_φ is normalized. In particular, we use an exponential temporal decay, i.e.

$$\varphi(t) = \exp(-t^2/2), \quad \mathcal{F}_\varphi(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-\omega^2/2). \quad (4.3)$$

In the chosen non-dimensional formulation the typical decay time k/ϵ that acts as standard deviation in φ is scaled to one.* For the description of the initial correlation tensor γ_0 , it is also convenient to introduce its Fourier transform \mathcal{F}_{γ_0} that is known as spectral density in the turbulence theory. In case of incompressible isotropic turbulence the spectral density can be expressed exclusively in terms of the scalar-valued energy spectrum E

$$\mathcal{F}_{\gamma_0}(\boldsymbol{\kappa}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \exp(-i\boldsymbol{\kappa} \cdot \mathbf{x}) \gamma_0(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = \frac{1}{4\pi} \frac{E(\kappa)}{\kappa^2} \left(\mathbf{I} - \frac{1}{\kappa^2} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \otimes \boldsymbol{\kappa} \right)$$

with wave number $\kappa = \|\boldsymbol{\kappa}\|_2$. This relation holds analogously in the dimensional form, where the energy spectrum is scaled with the factor $k^{5/2}/\epsilon$. The energy spectrum of isotropic turbulence was a well-studied topic of research during the last century (see references in [10, 14]). In particular, Kolmogorov's universal equilibrium theory was trend setting. Based on dimensional analysis he derived not only the characteristic ranges but also the typical run of the spectrum which agree with later coming physical concepts and experiments, cf. Kolmogorov's 5/3-Law and his hypothesis of local isotropy [10]. Gathering the existing knowledge about the energy spectrum, the following function that fulfills the requirements of the universal equilibrium theory and of the stochastic k - ϵ turbulence model was proposed in dimensional form in [23].

Energy Spectrum. *The twice continuously differentiable energy spectrum*

$$E(\kappa, \zeta) = C_K \begin{cases} \kappa_1^{-5/3} \sum_{j=4}^6 a_j \left(\frac{\kappa}{\kappa_1}\right)^j & \kappa < \kappa_1 \\ \kappa^{-5/3} & \kappa_1 \leq \kappa \leq \kappa_2 \\ \kappa_2^{-5/3} \sum_{j=7}^9 b_j \left(\frac{\kappa}{\kappa_2}\right)^{-j} & \kappa_2 < \kappa \end{cases}, \quad (4.4a)$$

where the ζ -dependent transition wave numbers κ_1 and κ_2 are implicitly given by

$$\int_0^\infty E(\kappa, \zeta) d\kappa = 1, \quad \int_0^\infty E(\kappa, \zeta) \kappa^2 d\kappa = \frac{1}{2\zeta}, \quad (4.4b)$$

induces a differentiable velocity fluctuation field that stands in accordance to the k - ϵ turbulence model. The regularity parameters are $a_4 = 230/9$, $a_5 = -391/9$, $a_6 = 170/9$, $b_7 = 209/9$, $b_8 = -352/9$, $b_9 = 152/9$, and the Kolmogorov constant is $C_K = 1/2$.

The integral conditions in (4.4b) can be reformulated as nonlinear system for κ_1 and κ_2 in ζ

$$\hat{a}_1 \kappa_1^{-2/3} - \hat{b}_1 \kappa_2^{-2/3} = C_K^{-1}, \quad -\hat{a}_2 \kappa_1^{4/3} + \hat{b}_2 \kappa_2^{4/3} = (2C_K \zeta)^{-1},$$

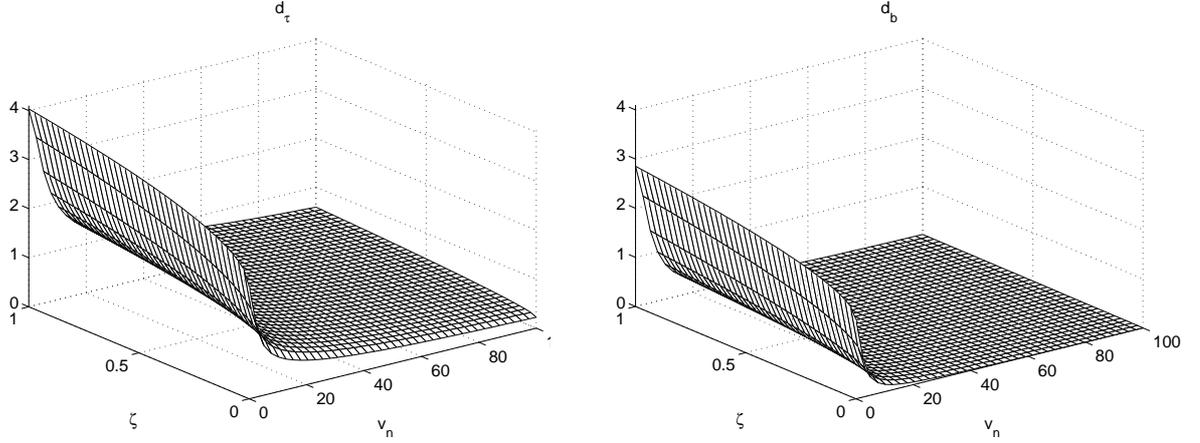
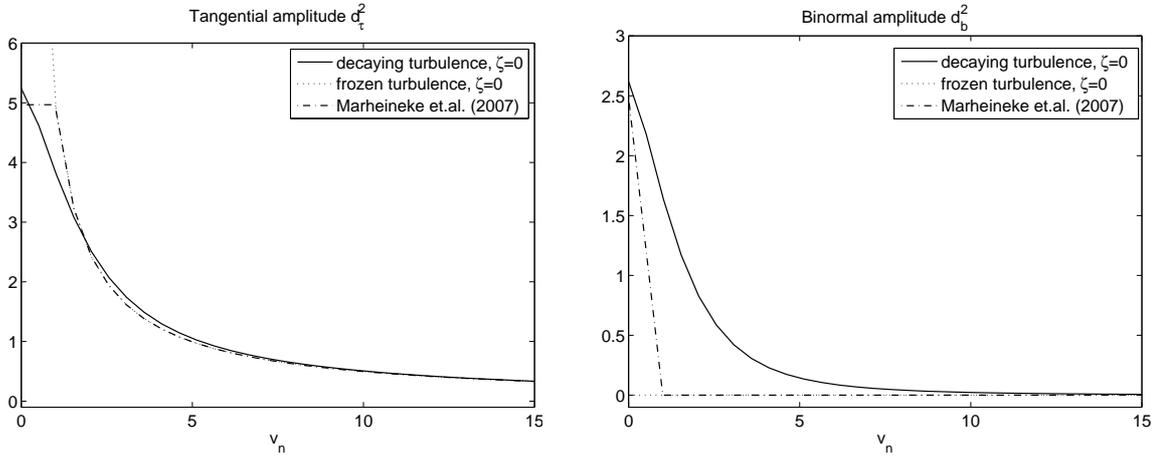
with positive parameters

$$\hat{a}_1 = \frac{3}{2} + \sum_{j=4}^6 \frac{a_j}{j+1}, \quad \hat{a}_2 = \frac{3}{4} - \sum_{j=4}^6 \frac{a_j}{j+3}, \quad \hat{b}_1 = \frac{3}{2} - \sum_{j=7}^9 \frac{b_j}{j-1}, \quad \hat{b}_2 = \frac{3}{4} + \sum_{j=7}^9 \frac{b_j}{j-3}.$$

The condition $0 < \kappa_1 < \kappa_2 < \infty$ is equivalent to $0 < \zeta < \zeta_{crit} = (2C_K^3 (\hat{b}_2 - \hat{a}_2) (\hat{b}_1 - \hat{a}_1)^2)^{-1} \approx 3.86$. The bounds on ζ (where we have $\kappa_1 = \kappa_2 = (C_K (\hat{a}_1 - \hat{b}_1))^{3/2}$ for $\zeta = \zeta_{crit}$ and $\kappa_1 = (C_K \hat{a}_1)^{3/2}$, $\kappa_2 = \infty$ for $\zeta = 0$) are no practically relevant restrictions, since the general turbulence theory assumes the ratio of fine-scale and large-scale length to satisfy $\zeta = \epsilon\nu/k^2 \ll 1$.

The ζ -dependence that enters the model of the energy spectrum E via the consistency condition to the k - ϵ turbulence approach (4.4b) is handed over to the correlation tensor. Applying the correlation model (4.2), the turbulent drag amplitude \mathbf{D} representing the integral effects of velocity

*For completeness we supplement the dimensional forms of the decay function $\phi(t) = \exp(-t^2/t_T^2)$ and its Fourier transform $\mathcal{F}_\phi(\varpi) = t_T \exp(-t_T^2 \varpi^2/2)/\sqrt{2\pi}$ with $t_T = k/\epsilon$. For slow decay $t_T \rightarrow \infty$ we obtain the desired transition to frozen turbulence $\phi(t) \rightarrow 1$ and $\mathcal{F}_\phi(\varpi) \rightarrow \delta_0(\varpi)$ with Dirac distribution δ_0 .

FIGURE 4.6. Tangential d_τ and binormal d_b amplitude.FIGURE 4.7. Convergence of $d_\tau^2(v_n, 0)$ and $d_b^2(v_n, 0)$, $v_n \rightarrow \infty$, to frozen turbulence results and amplitude proposed in [24].

fluctuations on the relevant fiber scales has the form

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{D}^2(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v}, \zeta) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \gamma_0(s\boldsymbol{\tau} - t\mathbf{v}, \zeta) \varphi(t) ds dt \\ &= \pi \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{E(\boldsymbol{\kappa}, \zeta)}{\kappa^2} (\mathbf{I} - \frac{1}{\kappa^2} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \otimes \boldsymbol{\kappa}) \delta_0(\boldsymbol{\tau} \cdot \boldsymbol{\kappa}) \mathcal{F}_\varphi(\mathbf{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{\kappa}) d\boldsymbol{\kappa}, \end{aligned}$$

when inserting the Fourier transforms. In the $(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v})$ -induced orthonormal basis $(\mathbf{n}, \mathbf{b}, \boldsymbol{\tau})$ where $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$, we obtain in particular

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{D}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{v}, \zeta) &= d_n(v_n, \zeta) \mathbf{n} \otimes \mathbf{n} + d_b(v_n, \zeta) \mathbf{b} \otimes \mathbf{b} + d_\tau(v_n, \zeta) \boldsymbol{\tau} \otimes \boldsymbol{\tau}, \quad (4.5) \\ d_{n,b,\tau}^2(v_n, \zeta) &= 4\pi \int_0^\infty \frac{E(\boldsymbol{\kappa}, \zeta)}{\kappa} l_{n,b,\tau}(v_n \boldsymbol{\kappa}) d\boldsymbol{\kappa}, \quad l_{n,b,\tau}(\boldsymbol{\kappa}) = \int_0^{\pi/2} \{\sin^2 \beta, \cos^2 \beta, 1\} \mathcal{F}_\varphi(\boldsymbol{\kappa} \cos \beta) d\beta. \end{aligned}$$

For this transformation we perform the integration over $\boldsymbol{\kappa}_\tau$ and introduce polar coordinates $\kappa_n = \boldsymbol{\kappa} \cos \beta$ and $\kappa_b = \boldsymbol{\kappa} \sin \beta$. The angle integration over $[0, 2\pi]$ can be put down to the integration over the first quadrant because of the symmetry of the integrand. The coefficients d_i , $i = n, b, \tau$, in (4.5) obviously satisfy $d_n^2 + d_b^2 = d_\tau^2$ such that the effort for the computation of the tensor-valued amplitude \mathbf{D} reduces to the evaluation of two scalar-valued functions d_τ, d_b depending on

two parameters, Figure 4.6. Thereby, the influence of ζ is marginal and might be neglected in the numerical simulations in Section 5. Moreover, we obtain $\kappa l_\tau(\kappa) \rightarrow 1/2$ and $\kappa l_b(\kappa) \rightarrow 0$ in the limit $\kappa \rightarrow \infty$ which coincides with the results of frozen turbulence. The amplitude that we recently proposed in [24] corresponds to frozen turbulence with $\zeta = 0$ and a slight modification for $v_n < 1$. For a comparison to our representant of decaying turbulence (4.5) see Figure 4.7.

5. APPLICATION AND VALIDATION

In this section we show the applicability of our proposed stochastic force model to the simulation of practically relevant fiber-turbulence interactions. We validate the model with regard to experimental data coming from an industrial melt-spinning process of nonwoven materials.

5.1. Numerical Treatment. The system (1.1) of stochastic partial differential equation with algebraic constraint that models the fiber dynamics in turbulent flows is implemented in the software tool FIDYST[†]. Starting with the flow computation, e.g. via the commercial tool FLUENT, the relevant flow data (mean velocity $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$, kinetic energy k , dissipation rate ϵ etc.) enter into the routine for the fiber dynamics where the nonlinear stochastic fiber system is solved by a method of lines. Thereby, the use of a spatial finite difference method of higher order ensures the appropriate approximation of the algebraic constraint. The Box-Muller method generates the Gaussian deviates for the stochastic force. Incorporating the force amplitude on the interpolated flow data explicitly, a semi-implicit Euler method realizes the time integration. An adaptive time step control gives stability and accuracy. The resulting nonlinear system of equations is finally solved by a Newton method.

5.2. Set-up of Measurements and Simulations. Fiber-turbulence interactions are of great importance in melt-spinning processes of nonwoven materials. Here, thousands of individual fibers are obtained by continuous extrusion of a molten polymer granular that is spun through narrow jets and stretched by cooling air flows to crystallize. The resulting flexible slender fibers are then entangled by a highly turbulent air flow and laid down onto a conveyor belt to form a web. The properties of this web and hence the quality of the nonwoven material depend essentially on the dynamics of the fibers in the turbulent deposition region. In the following, we focus exclusively on this region taking the crystallization for granted and considering the fibers as elastic. The turbulence causes entanglement and loop forming along the fibers, which yields slower vertical fiber velocities, wider deposition ranges and higher isotropic properties of the nonwoven material. To validate our stochastic model, we could compare either the statistical fiber velocities in the deposition region or the statistical material properties of the resulting products, e.g. mass distribution, fiber orientation.

[†]FIDYST: Fiber Dynamics Simulation Tool developed at Fraunhofer ITWM, Kaiserslautern

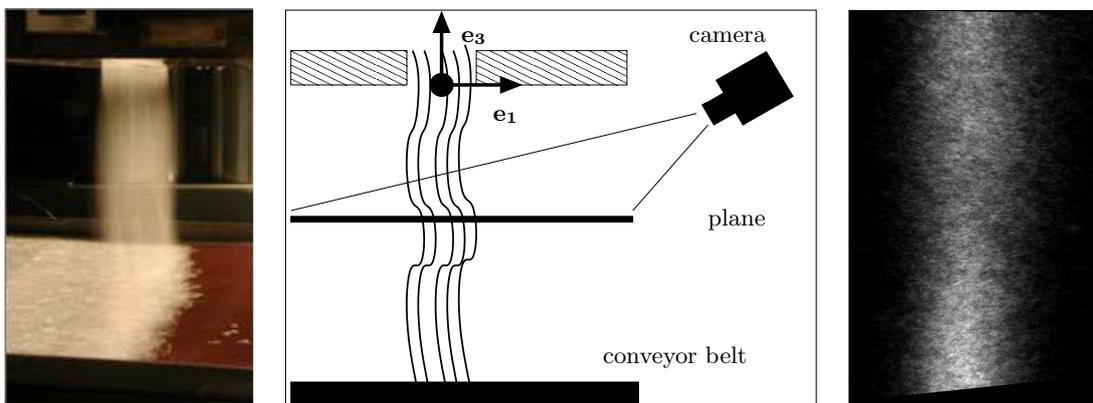


FIGURE 5.8. *From left to right:* deposition of fiber curtain in a laminar flow, PIV set-up, recorded fiber structures in light sheet (photos by industrial partners).

The last is easy to measure, but has the decisive disadvantage that the nonwoven material shows not only the effects of the turbulence but also of the lay-down, e.g. buckling behavior, friction, conveyor belt speed. Admittedly, this is also valid for the fiber dynamics near the conveyor belt. Hence, to exclude this perturbing influence, we consider the fibers that enter the region. However, measuring their velocities turns out to be a technically delicate task.

The particle image velocimetry (PIV) is a planar laser light sheet technique [28] in that a light sheet is pulsed twice and the images of the structures lying in this plane are recorded on a photograph, see Figure 5.8. The technique enables the determination of their planar displacements and thus of their planar velocities. Dividing the image plane into small interrogation spots and cross correlating the sequential frames from two time exposures, the spatial change of the image structures are computed by means of a peak detection, i.e. the displacement that generates the maximal cross correlation approximates statistically the average displacement in the cell. With regard to the time between the laser pulses, this yields then the velocity associated with each spot. Perturbed or defective data are thereby filtered by prescribed tolerances. As for our endless fibers cutting a light sheet parallel to the conveyor belt, PIV follows the trajectories of the fibers in the plane and measures their planar velocities. These differ from the instantaneous velocities. Consider the PIV set-up as sketched in Figure 5.8 with fixed outer orthonormal basis $(\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3)$. Then, the fiber velocity in a plane h is given by the total time derivative of $\mathbf{r}(s_{track}(t), t) = \eta_1(t)\mathbf{e}_1 + \eta_2(t)\mathbf{e}_2 + h\mathbf{e}_3$. The vanishing of the vertical planar velocity implies the temporal change $\partial_t s_{track} = -\partial_t r_3 / \partial_s r_3$ of the implicitly defined function s_{track} . Inserting this relation in the expression for the horizontal components yields

$$w_i(t) := \partial_t \eta_i(t) = \left(\partial_t r_i - \partial_t r_3 \frac{\partial_s r_i}{\partial_s r_3} \right) (s_{track}(t), t), \quad i = 1, 2, \quad r_3(s_{track}(t), t) = h, \quad (5.1)$$

with $r_i = \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{e}_i$, $i = 1, 2, 3$. The dominance of the second summand in the first equation of (5.1) depends on the orientation of the fiber with respect to the plane. In case of parallelism which might occur due to loop forming, we obtain even infinite planar fiber velocities in spite of finite instantaneous quantities. But they are filtered by a tolerance threshold.

The experiments and PIV-measurements are performed and provided by our industrial partner. The experiments are set up for hundreds of slender endless fibers that are suspended in a highly turbulent flow with periodically oscillating mean stream in \mathbf{e}_1 -direction. The streamlines are exemplarily visualized in Figure 5.9. The periodic motion causes a respective delayed oscillation and a widening of the fiber curtain. This is taken into account in measurements and simulations to obtain comparable data. The PIV-measurements provide information about the fiber density and the velocity distribution in two planes, i.e. near the entry (plane E) and in the middle of the deposition region (plane M), at eight equidistant time points within in the periodic sequence. To obtain a large, statistically equivalent random sample, we simulate the dynamics of the fiber curtain by means of

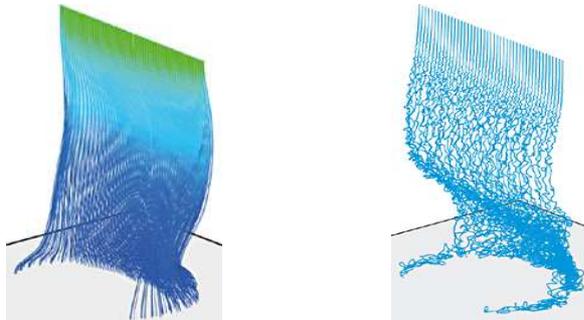


FIGURE 5.9. Industrial set-up for measurements and simulations. *Left*: streamlines of periodically oscillating mean flow field simulated with FLUENT. *Right*: corresponding fiber curtain, fiber motion is computed with FIDYST using $\delta = 10^{-5}$, (3.3) and $\zeta = 0$ in (4.1).

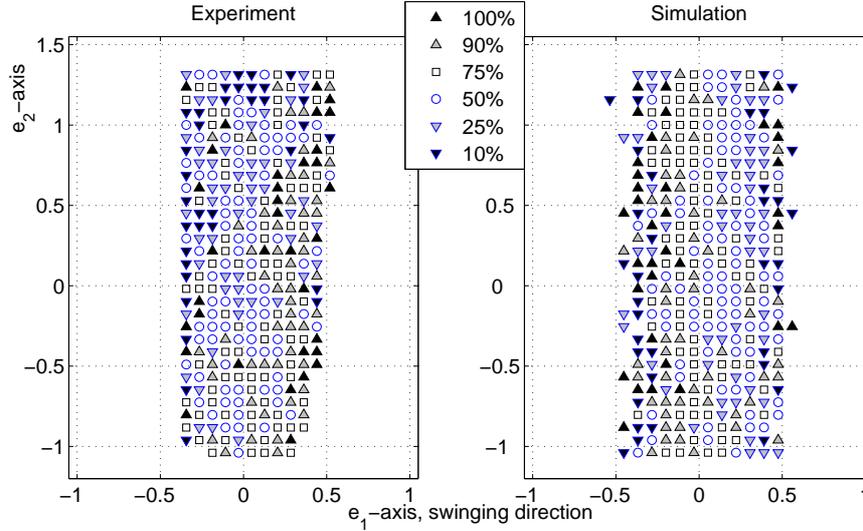


FIGURE 5.10. Hitting spots of fiber curtain in plane M at certain time point, colored by quantiles of velocity component w_1 . (Quantile 10% includes all points where the associated w_1 belongs to the lowest 10% of all w_1 -values, quantile 25% includes all points where w_1 lies between the lowest 10-25% etc.)

66 individual fibers for a respective number of oscillations. As for the stochastic drag model, we use the simplifications $\zeta = 0$ in the computation (4.1) of the turbulence amplitude \mathbf{D} as well as (3.3) in the splitting approach for \mathbf{m} , \mathbf{L} . The last approximation avoids the numerical evaluation of the multiple integrals in (3.2) and speeds up the computations drastically. The slenderness ratio of the fibers is $\delta = 10^{-5}$. Their endless character and their deposition onto the conveyor belt are realized by appropriate boundary conditions and constraints with contact forces to (1.1). Possible fiber-fiber interactions are neglected such that the calculations can be additionally accelerated by parallelizing the independent fiber motions. Then, they take around 30 h CPU-time on a cluster with 66 Intel Xeon processors, 2.4 GHz.

5.3. Results. The measured and simulated results for the planar fiber velocities and the fiber curtain dynamics are presented statistically. Thereby, the length and velocity values in the following diagrams are scaled with problem-specific length and velocity scales such that they can be understood as relative quantities. The periodic time sequence is considered as $[0, 1]$.

According to the PIV-measurements, the planes M and E are divided into small quadratic cells to that the average velocity components w_1 , w_2 , the variances $\text{Var}(w_1)$, $\text{Var}(w_2)$ and the covariance $\text{Cov}(w_1, w_2)$ are associated. These are computed from the sample of all photographs / simulations corresponding to a specific temporal scene. Figure 5.10 exemplarily illustrates the hitting spots in plane M for a certain time point and gives thus the instantaneous position and width of the fiber curtain, cf. photo of light sheet in Figure 5.8. The spots are thereby colored in terms of the velocity w_1 in swinging direction \mathbf{e}_1 . To emphasize the extreme velocities, we use the representation of quantiles: the dark up- and down-directed triangles mark the high velocities in positive and negative \mathbf{e}_1 -direction, respectively. They occur in general at the boundary. Since their appearance is hardly correlated to the swinging direction, the geometrical second term in (5.1) dominates the planar velocity. Therefore, we might conclude much loop forming of the single fibers which agrees with Figure 5.9.

Both, experimental and numerical results, satisfy Gaussian distributions for all planar velocity variations whose discrete probability distribution functions are exemplified for a single scene in Figure 5.11. Focusing on their characteristic parameters, i.e. expectation μ and standard deviation σ , the expectations coincide very well. This is also true for their dynamics in plane M and E, see

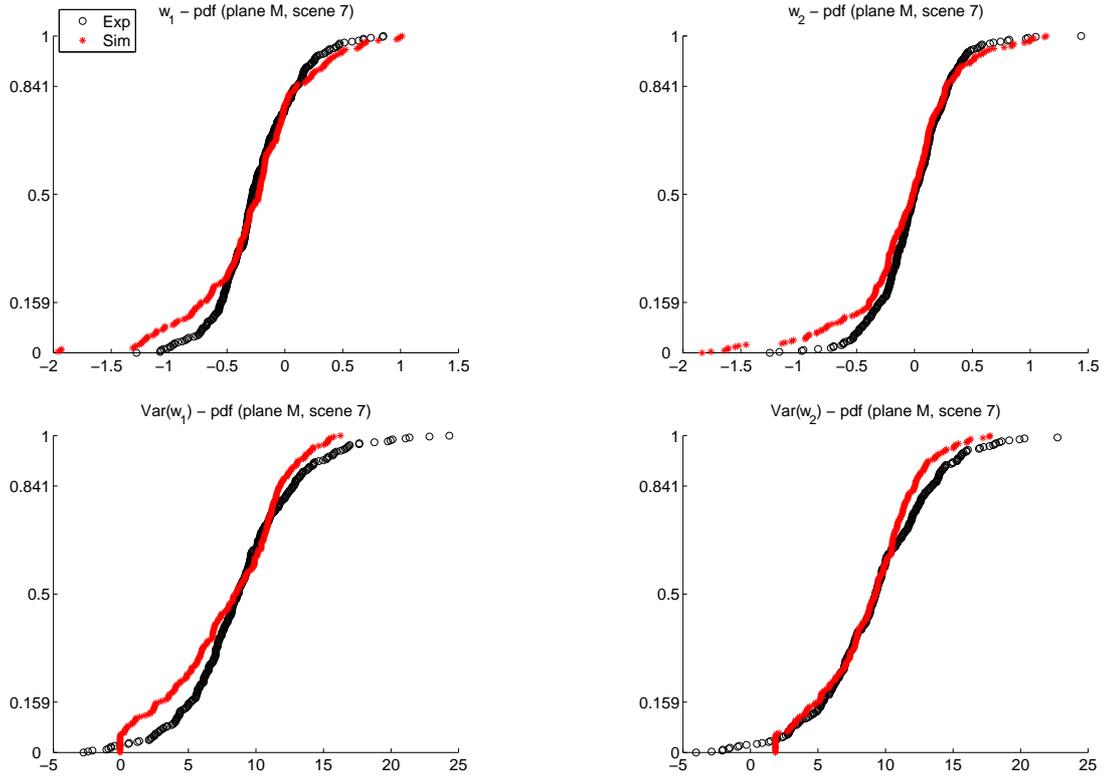


FIGURE 5.11. Discrete probability distribution functions \mathcal{F} for w_1 , w_2 , $\text{Var}(w_1)$, $\text{Var}(w_2)$ in plane M at specific scene. Experimental results are marked by black (\circ) and simulated by red (\star). (Expectation μ and standard deviation σ can be estimated from the plot, $\mu \approx \mathcal{F}^{-1}(0.5)$, $\sigma \approx \mathcal{F}^{-1}(0.841) - \mu \approx \mu - \mathcal{F}^{-1}(0.159)$.)

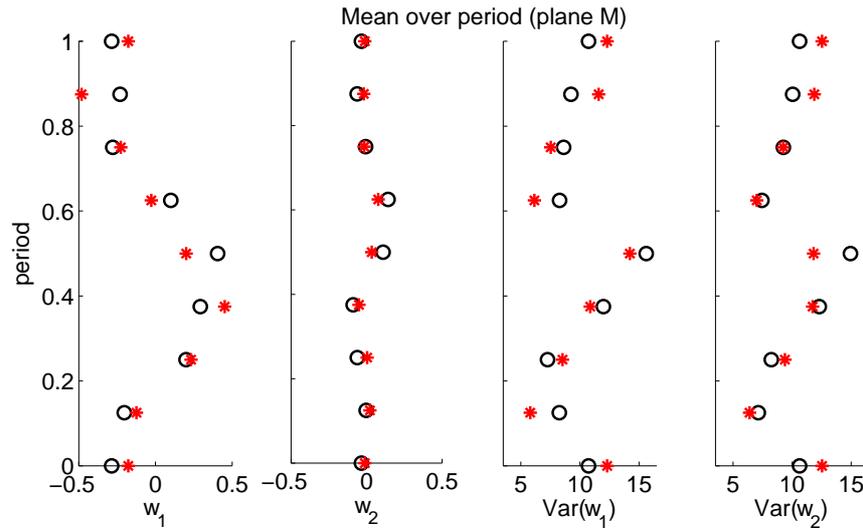


FIGURE 5.12. Dynamics of expectation μ for velocity variations in plane M over time period. Experimental results are marked by black (\circ), simulated by red (\star).

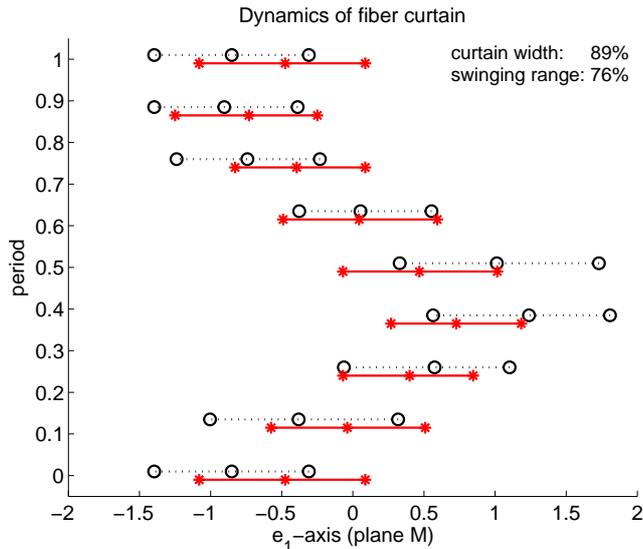


FIGURE 5.13. Dynamics of fiber curtain in plane M. Experimental results for curtain center, boundaries and width are represented by black marker (\circ) and dotted line (:), simulated results by red marker (\star) and solid line ($-$).

Figure 5.12 for plane M. The standard deviations in contrast show differences. We observe the tendency that the experimental data describe very uniform standard deviations over the time period. This rises the suspect of fiber bunch forming (fiber clusters on light sheet) in combination with the application of a good filtering algorithm. Since neither the experimental tolerances nor accuracies are known, the adaptation of the simulations is difficult. The observed differences might be simply caused by the use of various thresholds.

The dynamics of the simulated fiber curtain agrees qualitatively well with the experimental results, see Figure 5.13 for plane M. The fiber curtain is small around the symmetry axis and becomes wider in the turning points. But, exactly here, the simulated curtain is quantitatively too small which leads to a underestimation of the average curtain width and thus of the resulting swinging range. This underestimate might come from the neglect of fiber-fiber interactions and sticky fiber bunches. As the drag coefficients are proportional to the fiber diameter, thicker ropes experience larger uniform forces that obviously cause a higher impulse and hence stronger oscillations. This remains to be investigated. However, note that the simplifying assumptions reduce the computational effort and allow indeed the simulation of curtains consisting of many fibers.

We conclude this section with the visualization of a spinning process of nonwoven materials that shows fiber dynamics, deposition and fleece forming (Figure 5.14). To emphasize the effects of our stochastic force model, we simulate non-interacting slender fibers in a turbulent flow field with stationary, vertically directed mean stream.

6. CONCLUSION

In this paper we have developed an improved stochastic aerodynamic force model based on the concepts of [23] that allows the simulation of long slender elastic fibers immersed in turbulent flows. The underlying drag model is uniformly valid for all Reynolds number regimes and incident flow directions. It is composed of asymptotic Oseen and Stokes theory, Taylor heuristic and numerical simulations and is overall concordant with the experimental studies in literature. The practical relevance of our stochastic drag force has been shown for the application of technical textile manufacturing. In particular, we have validated the simulation results with PIV-measurements of hundreds of fibers in a melt-spinning process of nonwoven materials. Although the reliability of

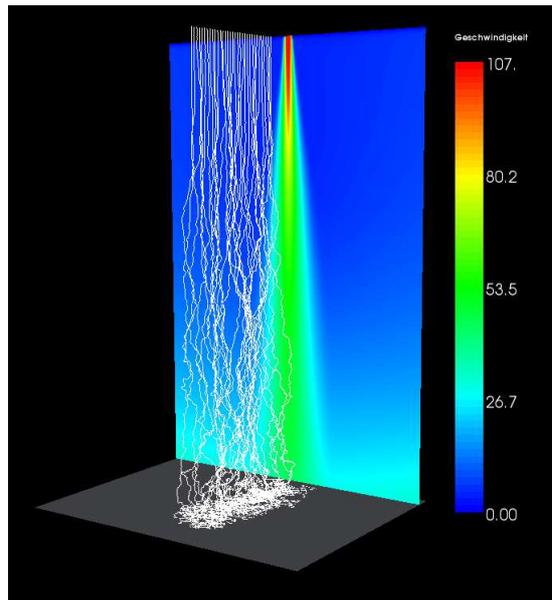


FIGURE 5.14. Simulation of spinning process: fibers immersed in a turbulent flow. The color bar prescribes the velocity magnitude of the stationary, vertically directed mean flow field.

the PIV-measurements as reference data concerning the planar fiber velocities might be questioned as long as the used filter tolerances are not specified in detail, the received agreements of simulated and measured probability distributions, mean velocity values and fiber curtain characteristics are very promising and militate in favor of our stochastic force model.

When the dynamics of dense sticky fiber bunches / curtains in turbulent flows is of interest, the affection of the turbulence by the flexible structure plays a crucial role and has certainly to be taken into account in a two-way coupling for the fiber-fluid interactions. In this context, the fiber bunches might be treated as a continuous porous medium whose properties could be deduced from a statistical analysis of a large set of individual fibers via an homogenization approach. This remains to be investigated.

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