Heat Flux and Wall Shear Stress in Large Aspect-Ratio Turbulent Vertical Convection

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We present a theoretical analysis of large aspect-ratio turbulent vertical convection that yields two relationships between heat flux and wall shear stress, measured respectively by the Nusselt number (Nu) and shear Reynolds number (Re_s), in terms of the Rayleigh (Ra) and Prandtl numbers (Pr): Re_s^2 Nu = f(Pr)Pr^1/3 Ra in the high-Ra limit and Nu ≈ CP^1/3 Re_s with ε = 1/3 for Pr ≫ 1 and ε = 1 for Pr ≪ 1, where f(Pr) is not a power law of Pr and C is a constant. These relationships imply Nu ≈ [C^2 f(Pr)]^{1/3} Pr^{-(1-2ε)/3} Ra^{1/3} and Re_s ≈ f(Pr)/C^{1/3} Pr^{-(1+ε)/3} Ra^{1/3} for high Ra.

In astrophysical, geophysical and industrial fluid flows, fluid motions are often driven thermally by temperature differences. There are two common model systems for thermally driven flows: Rayleigh-Bénard convection in a fluid heated from below and cooled from above (see e.g. [14]) and vertical convection in a fluid between two vertical walls as shown in Fig. 1. In these two systems, the direction of gravity makes a different angle to the boundaries that have a temperature difference. One important question in the study thermally driven fluid motions is how the heat transfer depends on the control parameters of the flow. Heat flux is commonly measured by the Nusselt number (Nu) and the control parameters include the Rayleigh number Ra = α gΔH^3/(νκ), which measures the strength of thermal forcing, and the Prandtl number of the fluid Pr = ν/κ. Here, H is the separation between the two boundaries with a temperature difference Δ, g the acceleration due to gravity, and α, ν, and κ are the thermal expansion coefficient, kinematic viscosity and thermal diffusivity of the fluid, respectively. A scaling theory has been developed by Grossmann and Lohse [5,8], which has successfully accounted for Nu(Ra, Pr) for a wide range of Ra and Pr in Rayleigh-Bénard convection. In this Letter, we study vertical convection, which is much less studied than Rayleigh-Bénard convection. Besides fundamental interest, vertical convection has many applications in engineering such as ventilation of buildings, thermal insulation in double-pane windows and cooling of electronic devices. It also plays a crucial role in ice-ocean interactions in which fluid motion is driven by temperature difference as well as the salinity difference between the melt water and the salty seawater [9,10]. For laminar vertical convection, analysis of the steady-state boundary-layer equations gives Nu ≈ Ra^{1/4} [11,14] and the dependence of Nu on Pr in the low- and high-Pr limits [14]. When the flow becomes turbulent, fluctuations cannot be neglected and a theoretical understanding of the dependence of Nu on the control parameters is yet to be attained.

Turbulent vertical convection has been investigated experimentally and by direct numerical simulations (DNS). In most of these studies, Pr is kept fixed and a range of Ra is studied. The dependence of Nu on Ra has often been reported in the form of a power law: Nu ≈ Ra^β. Experimental studies for a variety of fluids showed that β changes from 1/4, the value determined for laminar flow, to 1/3 when the flow becomes turbulent [15,18]. Results consistent with β = 1/3 have been found in DNS in three dimensions with periodic boundary conditions in the spanwise (y) and streamwise (z) directions for Pr = 0.709 (air) and Ra between 10^5 to 10^7 [19,20] but other values of β were reported in DNS at the same value of Pr such as β = 1/3.2 for a similar range of Ra [21] and β = 0.31 for a larger range of Ra up to 10^9 [22]. It was pointed out that the value of β depends on the range of Ra and Nu(Ra) may not be a pure power law [22]. The dependence on Pr has also been investigated for 1 ≤ Pr ≤ 100 and 10^6 ≤ Ra ≤ 10^9 and an effective power-law dependence of Nu on both Ra (with β = 0.321) and Pr was reported [23]. Effective power-law dependence Ra and Pr have also been reported for the wall shear stress and the maximum mean vertical velocity of the convective flow [23]. For DNS in two dimensions with adiabatic boundary condition in the horizontal boundaries, β has been found to be closer to 1/4 than 1/3 for Pr = 0.71 and 6×10^8 ≤ Ra ≤ 10^{10} [23,25] but a recent study at Pr = 10 and Ra up to 10^{14} shows that there is a sharp transition from β = 1/4 to β = 1/3 when Ra ≥ 5×10^{10} [26]. There have been different theoretical attempts to understand turbulent vertical convection. One approach is to identify relevant length, velocity and temperature scales in differ-
ent flow regions and develop scaling functions of velocity and temperature in each region [27][30]. By matching the scaling functions of temperature in an assumed overlap region of two flow regions, expressions for Nu(Ra) can be obtained and different results have been reported [27][29]. Another study has tried to extend the scaling theory of Grossmann and Lohse [3][8] for Rayleigh-Bénard convection to vertical convection but found that this approach is not feasible [22].

In this Letter, we present a theoretical analysis that yields two relationships between heat flux and wall shear stress and their dependence on Ra and Pr in the high-Ra limit. We test the theoretical results for high Pr against the openly available DNS data for 1 ≤ Pr ≤ 100 and 10^6 ≤ Ra ≤ 10^9 [23] and find excellent agreement.

We consider a fluid confined between two vertical walls, with the left wall heated at a temperature T_h and the right wall cooled at a temperature T_c (see Fig. 1). With the Oberbeck-Boussinesq approximation which neglects the variation of temperature in the fluid for all purposes except for the determination of the buoyancy force, the governing equations are

\[
\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla p + \nu \nabla^2 \mathbf{u} + \alpha g(T - T_0) \hat{z} \tag{1}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla T = \kappa \nabla^2 T \tag{2}
\]

\[
\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0 \tag{3}
\]

where \( \mathbf{u}(x, y, z, t) = (u, v, w) \) is the velocity, \( p(x, y, z, t) \) the pressure, \( T(x, y, z, t) \) the temperature, \( T_0 \) the average temperature of the two vertical plates and \( \rho \) the density of the fluid at \( T = T_0 \). The coordinate system is shown in Fig. 1 and \( \hat{z} \) is a unit vector along the vertical direction. The velocity field satisfies the no-slip boundary condition at the two vertical plates. The flow quantities are Reynolds decomposed into sums of time averages and fluctuations, e.g., \( u(x, y, z, t) = \bar{U}(x, y, z) + u'(x, y, z, t) \) and \( T(x, y, z, t) - T_0 = \bar{T}(x, y, z) + \theta'(x, y, z, t) \). We focus at the large aspect-ratio limit, namely \( L_z/H \gg 1 \) and \( L_y/H \gg 1 \), where \( L_z \) and \( L_y \) are the height and width of the vertical walls. In this limit, all the mean flow quantities depend on \( x \) only. Using the continuity equation Eq. (3) and the no-slip boundary condition, we obtain \( U = 0 \). Taking time average of Eqs. (1) and (2) leads to the mean momentum balance and mean thermal energy balance equations [19]

\[
\frac{d}{dx} \langle u' w' \rangle_t = \nu \frac{d^2}{dx^2} W + \alpha g \theta \tag{4}
\]

\[
\frac{d}{dx} \langle u' \theta' \rangle_t = \kappa \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \theta \tag{5}
\]

where \( \langle \cdots \rangle_t \) denotes an average over time. In DNS where the computational domain is finite, the same equations can be derived for the mean quantities averaged over time as well as over \( y \) and \( z \) if periodic boundary conditions are enforced in the \( y \)- and \( z \)-directions [23]. Due to the symmetry of the problem, the mean velocity and temperature profiles \( W(x) \) and \( \Theta(x) \) are antisymmetric about \( x = H/2 \) thus one only has to study Eqs. (4) and (5) for \( 0 \leq x \leq H/2 \). The boundary conditions are

\[
W(0) = W(H/2) = \Theta(H/2) = 0; \quad \Theta(0) = \Delta/2
\]

Integrating Eq. (5) with respect to \( x \), one obtains

\[
\langle u' \theta' \rangle_t = -\kappa \frac{d\theta}{dx} \bigg|_{x=0} - \kappa \frac{d\theta}{dx} \bigg|_{x=\Delta} = \kappa \frac{d\theta}{dx} \bigg|_{x=0} = \frac{1}{\kappa} \frac{dW}{dx} \bigg|_{x=0} \tag{7}
\]

showing that the mean horizontal heat flux \( Q = \rho c \langle u' \theta' \rangle_t - k \partial\Theta/\partial x \) along the \( x \) direction is independent of \( x \) [27]. Here, \( c \) and \( k \) are the specific heat capacity and thermal conductivity of the fluid, respectively. Nu is defined as the ratio of actual heat flux to that when there were only thermal conduction, thus

\[
Nu \equiv \frac{Q}{k \Delta/H} = \frac{d\theta}{dx} \bigg|_{x=\Delta} = \frac{H}{2 \delta_T} \tag{8}
\]

where \( \delta_T \) is the thermal boundary layer thickness defined by \( \delta_T \equiv k \Delta/(2Q) \). Integrating Eq. (7) with respect to \( x \) gives [27]

\[
\langle u' w' \rangle_t = \nu \frac{dW}{dx} + \alpha g \int_0^x \Theta(x')dx' - \nu \frac{dW}{dx} \bigg|_{x=0} \tag{9}
\]

The wall shear stress is given by \( \tau_w = \rho \nu dW/dx|_{x=0} \) and is often measured by the dimensionless shear Reynolds number \( Re_w \equiv u_t H/\nu \) in terms of the friction velocity \( u_t \equiv \sqrt{\nu dW/dx}|_{x=0} \). If \( W(x) \) and \( \Theta(x) \) could be solved, then their gradients at \( x = 0 \) or, equivalently, \( Re_w \) and Nu would be obtained but Eqs. (4) and (5) are not closed due to the presence of the second-order correlations \( \langle u' w' \rangle_t \) and \( \langle u' \theta' \rangle_t \). This is the well-known closure problem of turbulence in which there are more unknowns than equations. Our first step to tackle this problem is to evaluate Eq. (9) at \( x = x_0 \), the location at which the magnitudes of the Reynolds shear stress and viscous stress are equal, i.e., \( \nu dW/dx|_{x=x_0} = \langle u' w' \rangle_t(x_0) \). Near the wall, the viscous stress \( \rho \nu dW/dx \) dominates over the Reynolds shear stress \( -\rho \langle u' w' \rangle_t \), which is small and positive. As one moves away from the wall, the viscous stress decreases while the Reynolds shear stress becomes negative and increases in magnitude. Towards the centerline \( x = H/2 \), the viscous stress becomes negative and the magnitude of the Reynolds shear stress dominates over that of the viscous stress. The magnitudes of the two stresses are equal at \( x = x_0 \). Evaluating Eq. (9) at \( x = x_0 \) thus bypasses the difficulty of estimating \( \langle u' w' \rangle_t \), and gives

\[
\nu \frac{dW}{dx} \bigg|_{x=0} = \alpha g \int_0^{x_0} \Theta(x')dx' \tag{10}
\]

Equation (10) shows explicitly that the wall shear stress \( \tau_w \) is generated by buoyancy and is equal to the buoyancy force per unit area within the velocity boundary layer.
with \( x \leq x_0 \). We define a dimensionless temperature function \( \Phi(\xi) \) of \( \xi = x/\delta_T \) by

\[
\Theta(x = \xi \delta_T) \equiv \Delta \Phi(\xi)/2, \tag{11}
\]

and rewrite Eq. (10) to yield a universal relation between \( \text{Re}_r \) and \( \text{Nu} \):

\[
\text{Re}_r^2 \text{NuPrRa}^{-1} = \frac{1}{4} \int_0^{x_0} \Phi(\xi)d\xi \equiv I(\text{Ra, Pr}) \tag{12}
\]

where \( x_0 = x_0/\delta_T \). Using Eqs. (6) and (8), we obtain the boundary conditions for \( \Phi \):

\[
\Phi(0) = \Phi(\text{Nu}) = 0, \quad \Phi'(0) = -1 \tag{13}
\]

We evaluate \( \Phi(\xi) \) and \( x_0 \) using the DNS data from Howland et al. \[23\, 31\] to study the Ra- and Pr-dependence of the integral \( I \). As shown in Fig. 2, \( \Phi(\xi) \) approaches an asymptotic form in the high-Ra limit for each Pr and the asymptotic form depends on Pr. In Fig. 3, it can be seen that \( x_0 \) increases slowly with Ra for each Pr. Since \( \Phi(\xi) \) decreases to zero for large \( \xi \), these results suggest that the integral \( I \) tends to a Pr-independent function \( f(\text{Pr}) \) in the high-Ra limit. The available DNS data cover \( 1 \leq \text{Pr} \leq 100 \) but we expect \( \Phi(\xi) \) to approach an asymptotic form for general Pr. For \( \text{Pr} < 1 \), as the velocity boundary layer is nested within the thermal boundary layer, \( x_0 \) has to be less than 1 and thus cannot increase with Ra asymptotically. It is expected that \( x_0 \) approaches a constant in the high-Ra limit for \( \text{Pr} < 1 \) and \( I(\text{Ra, Pr}) \rightarrow f(\text{Pr}) \) also for \( \text{Pr} < 1 \). Hence, we assume that

\[
\text{Re}_r^2 \text{NuPrRa}^{-1} = f(\text{Pr}) \quad \text{high-Ra limit} \tag{14}
\]

We estimate the values of \( f(\text{Pr}) \) from the DNS data \[23\] as follows. Among the 38 sets of data, most data were taken at \( \text{Pr} = 10 \). Thus we take \( f_0 \equiv f(\text{Pr} = 10) \) as a reference and estimate the values of \( f(\text{Pr})/f_0 \) by the averages of the ratio of the data points \( \text{Re}_r^2 \text{NuPrRa}^{-1} \) for each of the other values of \( \text{Pr} \) to the data points at \( \text{Pr} = 10 \), taken at the 7 common values of Ra. The errors of the estimated \( f(\text{Pr})/f_0 \) are measured by the standard deviations. Equation (14) implies that the data points of \( \text{Re}_r^2 \text{NuPr} \) for different values of \( \text{Pr} \), when multiplied by \( \text{Pr} f_0/f(\text{Pr}) \), would collapse into a single curve of \( f_0 \text{Ra} \) for large Ra. This is confirmed in Fig. 4 and as shown in the inset of Fig. 4, \( f(\text{Pr})/f_0 \) cannot be approximated by a power law.

Using Eqs. (8) and (11) we rewrite Eq. (7) as

\[
\frac{\langle u'\theta' \rangle_t}{\nu \Delta H} = \text{NuPr}^{-1}[1 + \Phi'(\xi)] \tag{15}
\]

Because of the boundary conditions, \( u' \), \( \theta' \) and \( \partial u'/\partial x = - (\partial v'/\partial y + \partial w'/\partial z) \) vanish at \( x = 0 \). As a result, \( \langle u'\theta' \rangle_t \) and its first and second-order derivatives with respect to \( x \) vanish at \( x = 0 \) while \( d^3\langle u'\theta' \rangle_t/dx^3 \bigg|_{x=0} =

![Fig. 2. Plots of \( \Phi(\xi) \) versus \( x \) showing its dependence on Ra for \( \text{Pr} = 1, 10, 100 \) and its dependence on Pr at the largest Ra (10^8 for Pr = 1, 2, 5 and 10^9 for Pr = 10, 100) using DNS data from Howland et al. \[23\].](image)

![Fig. 3. Dependence of \( \xi_0 \) on Ra for \( \text{Pr} = 1 \) (circles), 2 (squares), 5 (diamonds), 10 (triangles) and 100 (inverted triangles).](image)
In the high-Ra limit. These theoretical results imply that

\[ \text{Nu} \approx C \text{Pr}^{3/2} \text{Re}_\tau, \quad \varepsilon = \begin{cases} 1/3 & \text{Pr} \gg 1 \\ 1 & \text{Pr} \ll 1 \end{cases} \]  

(18)

where \( C = \{3c_0/\left[8\Phi(4)(0)\right]\}^{1/3} \) is approximated as a constant, neglecting the possible weak Pr-dependence of \( \Phi(4)(0) \). Equation (18) for \( \text{Pr} \gg 1 \) agrees with the numerical result \( \text{Nu} \sim \text{Pr}^{1/3} \text{Re}_\tau \) found for \( 1 \leq \text{Pr} \leq 100 \) [23].

A relationship \( \text{Nu} \propto [\gamma(\text{Pr})\text{Pr}]^{1/3} \text{Re}_\tau \), where \( \gamma(\text{Pr}) \) is an undetermined function of \( \text{Pr} \), has been obtained for high \( \text{Pr} \) by assuming that the eddy diffusivity, defined by \( -\langle u'\theta' \rangle /\langle \partial \theta /\partial x \rangle \), can be approximated by a cubic function of \( x \), \( \gamma(\text{Pr})u'_x x^3/\nu^2 \), throughout the thermal boundary layer [22] but the cubic-function approximation is valid only for a very small region close to the wall and does not hold for the whole thermal boundary layer.

Solving Eqs. (14) and (18), we obtain

\[ \text{Nu} \approx \left[ c^2 f(\text{Pr}) \right]^{1/3} \text{Pr}^{1-2\varepsilon/3} \text{Ra}^{1/3} \]  

(19)

\[ \text{Re}_\tau \approx f(\text{Pr})/C \left[ \text{Pr}^{(1-\varepsilon)/3} \right] \text{Ra}^{1/3} \]  

(20)

in the high-Ra limit. These theoretical results imply that data points of \( \text{Nu} \) and \( \text{Re}_\tau \) taken at different values of \( \text{Pr} \) can be collapsed into single curves of \( \text{Ra}^{1/3} \)-dependence for large \( \text{Ra} \) when multiplied by appropriate factors of \( f(\text{Pr}) \) and \( \text{Pr} \). As shown in Fig. 5, the theoretical predictions for high \( \text{Pr} \) are in excellent agreement with the available DNS data for \( 1 \leq \text{Pr} \leq 100 \) [23]. Data for low \( \text{Pr} \) and high \( \text{Ra} \) are not yet available.
instead of the whole function. For finite \( Ra \), the additional \( Ra \)-dependence of \( I(Ra, Pr) \) [see Eq. (12)], which is expected not in the form of a power law, would modify the \( Ra^{1/3} \)-dependence of \( Nu \) and \( Re_\tau \). This could explain the variations of the effective power-law exponent \( \beta \) for \( Nu(Ra) \) observed in different ranges of \( Ra \) in DNS [19–24]. The present work studies the limit of large aspect ratios but our theoretical result of \( Nu \sim Ra^{1/3} \) in the high-\( Ra \) limit is also in agreement with the DNS result for a two-dimensional cell with unit aspect ratio in the turbulent regime [20].

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