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Report No.122

STUDIES OF AIR ENTRAINMENT IN STEEP OPEN CHANNELS

by

K.K.Lai

The University of New South Wales School of Civil Engineering

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Key Words

Air Entrainment Boundary Layer Computer Programmes Open Channel Flow Velocity



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 $(x, y, y) \in \{x, y, y\}$

Errata

Page No.	Line	Correction should read		
2	last line	"observation"		
27	last line	$'' = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{C} - (\frac{p_a}{p_1} - 1)} $ (4.7) ''		
43.	last line	" F = 2.3 $(\log_{10}T - \log_{10}U)/\frac{1}{R_x}$ "		
45	18	Add "If the velocity profile is adjusted as shown in Fig. 26 and air concentration is assumed as in Fig. 25, the"		
45	21	Add "where M = momentum flux"		
46	6	Add "where m = mass influx		
66	15	Add "The calculation shows based on assumption in Figs. 25 and 26 that"		



Photograph: Air entrainment on spillway surface of Old Manly Reservoir, Manly Vale, N.S.W. Preface

The present investigation was carried out in the Water Research Laboratory of the Department of Civil Engineering of the University of New South Wales.

The report is essentially a reproduction of the dissertation submitted by the author in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Engineering. The supervisor of the study was R.T.Hattersley, Associate Professor of Civil Engineering.

> D.N.Foster, Acting Officer-in-Charge.

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Summary.

Experimental and analytical approaches were used in the study of air-entrained flow in the developing zone in steep open channels. The developing zone is defined as the zone of flow immediately downstream of the point of air entrainment inception (the critical point) in which the flow velocity, the quantity of entrained air and its distribution vary with distance downstream. The flume used was 27 ft. long with smooth boundaries, the slope of which could be adjusted up to 24 degrees with the horizontal, and the discharge used up to 2.20 c.f.s. In each flow, the width to depth ratio was kept sufficiently large to minimise side wall effects.

The position of the critical point was observed which agreed with that calculated by methods suggested by Bauer (Ref. 9) and by Halbronn (Ref. 10).

Velocity and air concentration were then measured within the developing zone at sections 3 ft. apart for two slopes $(18^{\circ} \text{ and } 24^{\circ})$ and three discharges (1.20, 1.70 and 2.20 c.f.s.). It was found that both the velocity of the flow and the quantity of entrained air increase with distance downstream. It was also found that the distribution of air in the upper layer of the air-water mixture may be described more closely by a cumulative log normal distribution (Equation 6.3) than by a cumulative normal distribution.

(i)

The flow in the developing zone was subsequently treated as two separate layers. The bottom layer was treated as a turbulent boundary layer. The measured thickness of this layer agreed reasonably well with the calculated value from an equation derived from the momentum integral equation.

The top layer was treated as a free turbulent flow. It was found that, near the critical point, the development of this layer is affected by the turbulence level of the flow upstream of the critical point and also of the flow in the lower layer. Farther downstream the development of the flow can be prescribed with the aid of Prandtl's mixing length theory for free turbulent flows.

1. Introduction

Air-entrainment has long been of great interest to hydraulic engineers because of its practical importance in the design of many hydraulic structures. In an open channel, the flow becomes aerated and is characterised by the appearance of white water. In a natural stream or in a spillway, this "white water" follows a reach of clean, transparent water with a well defined surface. The surface of the "white water" is ill-defined, with foam-like flow or water droplets spraying from the flow proper. Measurement in the aerated flow has shown that the quantity of entrained air increases with distance downstream until a uniform flow condition is reached (Ref. 1, 2). A uniform flow is considered as a flow in which both the quantity of entrained air and its distribution remain constant with distance. In an open channel, when air-entrainment exists, the flow can be divided into two regions, a region of water flow followed by a region of air-water mixed flow. The air-water mixed flow can further be divided into a developing zone and a fully developed zone (Fig. 1).

In an open channel, the point where air-entrainment starts to occur is called the point of air entrainment inception or the critical point. It has been established that air entrainment occurs when the turbulent boundary layer reaches the flow surface (Ref. 3).

Until recently, studies on air-entrainment have been concentrated on fully developed flow. In the fully developed zone, both the depth and the velocity of the flow are above that of a corresponding non-aerated flow. In the design of a steep chute or a spillway, the bulking effect of air entrained in the flow needs to be taken into account. Since the fully developed zone is preceded by a developing zone, it is of interest to acquire knowledge of the effect of the entrained air on the flow in this zone. This report embodies the results of an investigation into the velocity, the distribution of air and the growth of the mixed air-water flow in the developing zone.

2. Literature Review

2.1 General

Ehrenberger in his pioneer study of air-entrainment (Ref. 4) describes an aerated flow as consisting of three layers. At the bottom, the flow consists mainly of water with only a small quantity of air bubbles. In the middle layer, the flow consists both of water and air in approximately equal quantities. The top layer consists of water droplets moving at high speeds in a stream of air. The change of concentration of air in a direction normal to the flow is gradual.

Since Ehrenberger published his results, the study of airentrainment has followed two trends:

 Field observeration of depth and velocity to provide basis for design.

(2) Laboratory investigation into the mechanism of the flow and to provide basis for rationalization.

2.2 Information Resulted from Field Observation

From the observation of aerated flows in a number of spillways, Hall in 1943 (Ref. 5) suggested that open-channel flow formulas applied to non-aerated flows can also be used for aerated flows, namely, the Chezy formula

$$V = C\sqrt{RS}$$
(2.1)

and the Manning formula

$$V = \frac{1.49}{n} R^{2/3} S^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
(2.2)

where V = velocity
C = Chezy coefficient
n = Manning's roughness coefficient
R = hydraulic radius
S = bed slope of channel

When the observed velocity and the observed hydraulic radius are used in the Manning formula, Hall found that the Manning's roughness coefficient 'n' is approximately the same as that in a channel of similar material with velocities below critical.

Hall also found that the quantity of air in the aerated flow depends on the velocity, the size of the channel and the roughness of the sidewalls. He expressed the ratio of air to water as

$$\frac{Q_a}{Q_w} = K \frac{V^2}{gR_c} + K_1$$
(2.3)
where $Q_a = air discharge$

- Q_W = water discharge
- V = velocity
- g = gravitational constant
- R_c = computed hydraulic radius

K, $K_1 = constants$.

The computed hydraulic radius in Equation (2.3) is different from the actual or observed hydraulic radius R in Equations (2.1) and (2.2). R_c is computed for the section of pure water only, the space occupied by air being excluded in the computation. Hall's observation showed that K depends on the surface roughness of the channel which varied from 0.0036 to 0.01, with smaller values for smoother bed surfaces. For all cases except one, $K_1 = 0$.

When applying either Equation (2.1) or Equation (2.2) in the c omputation of velocity and depth of the aerated flow, difficulty arises in that the ratio of air to water must be known, which, in turn, as shown by Equation (2.3) depends on the velocity and depth of the flow. Therefore, for design purposes, two 'n' values have to be assigned. A smaller value is used for the calculation of velocity and a larger value for the calculation of the depth of the flow.

1.1 Discontrage off there

From analyses of Hall's data, the Bureau of Reclamation (Ref. 6) suggested that n = 0.008 in the computation of velocity and n = 0.014 in the computation of depth. In the computation of the ratio of air to water, the Bureau recommends

$$\frac{Q_a}{Q_w} = \frac{V^2}{200 \text{ gd}}$$
 (2.4)

Apparently Equation (2.4) is derived from Equation (2.3) by adopting K = 0.005 and $K_1 = 0$ with the net depth 'd' instead of the computed hydraulic radius for wide shallow channels.

2.3 Laboratory Investigation into Mechanism of Air Entrained Flow

In the early stage of the study of the phenomenon of air-entrainment, it was thought that air-entrainment was associated with high velocities. Model tests would therefore be futile as sufficiently high velocity could not be attained in the laboratory (Ref. 5).

As early as 1939 Lane (Ref. 3) suggested that aeration in an open channel commenced when the turbulent boundary layer reached the flow surface. Subsequently, Hickox in 1945 (Ref. 7) demonstrated that in a spillway model, roughening of the water surface began at a position almost identical with the position of the critical point in the prototype structure. Since then, aerated flow was produced in large laboratory flumes and the study of the mechanism of air entrainment can be classified into three categories.

- The growth of the turbulent boundary layer and the inception of air entrainment.
- (2) Quantity and spatial distribution of air in the air-water mixture.
- (3) Velocity distribution in the aerated flow.

2.4 Inception of Air Entrainment

Lane in 1939 (Ref. 3) suggested that air-entrainment commenced when the turbulent boundary layer reaches the flow surface. Hickox in 1945 (Ref. 7) showed that the point of inception of air entrainment could be reproduced in a model. The point of air entrainment inception in the model was shown by the roughening of the flow surface, but the kinetic energy of the water particles in the model was not sufficient to c ompletely overcome the restraint of surface tension.

Halbronn in 1952 (Ref. 8) carried out theoretical and experimental investigations on the development of the turbulent boundary layer on smooth spillway surfaces and Bauer (Ref. 9) in 1954 conducted experiments on both smooth and rough spillway surfaces.

From Bauer's data Halbronn (Ref. 10) showed that the boundary layer thickness on a smooth spillway surface can be expressed as

$$S = \frac{0.0104}{S \ 0.0485} \times \frac{0.8545}{(2.5)}$$

and that on a rough surface

$$\begin{aligned} \delta &= 0.0447 \, \mathrm{k}^{0.154} \, \mathrm{x}^{0.846} \qquad (2.6) \\ \text{where} \qquad \delta &= \text{boundary layer thickness (ft.)} \\ &= \\ \end{aligned}$$

- x = distance along spillway surface (ft.)
- S = slope of spillway measured as the sine function of the angle of inclination with the horizontal.
- k = roughness height (ft.)

Bauer also suggested a method to compute the position of the critical point where the boundary layer intersects the flow surface (Ref. 9).

Govinda Rao and Rajaratnam in 1961 (Ref. 11) suggested that for air entrainment to occur, it is necessary to have the turbulent boundary layer to reach the flow surface, and also to have the kinetic energy acquired due to turbulent velocity fluctuations normal to the bed to overcome the surface energy. When the transverse velocity of fluctuation is assumed to be proportional to the surface velocity and the average eddy size proportional to the depth of flow, Govinda Rao and Rajaratnam introduced a dimensionless parameter \checkmark , which is the ratio of kinetic energy to surface energy, or,

$$\gamma = \frac{\sqrt{\sqrt{g_o}}}{\sqrt{6/\rho}}$$
(2.7)

where

V = surface velocity $y_0 = depth of flow$ 6 = surface energy

 ρ = mass density of water

Alternatively, when the mean drop size is taken as d = $\frac{500 \, v^{1/5}}{v}$

where γ = kinematic viscosity, as suggested by Merrington and Richardson (Ref. 12), the ratio of kinetic energy to surface energy becomes

$$\phi = \frac{V \nu^{\gamma_5}}{\sqrt{6/\rho}}$$
(2.8)

For air entrainment to occur, $\gamma > 465$, or $\emptyset > 60$.

Govinda Rao and Rajaratnam made some preliminary calculations of flow in some smooth channels. They found that the values of both of these two parameters were considerably greater than the critical values at the point of air-entrainment inception.

2.5 Distribution of Entrained Air in Fully Developed Flow

The quantity of entrained air in full scale structures was visually estimated from the increased depth of the flow. When prototype observations were made, the velocity of the flow and the distribution of air were often assumed to be uniform.

In his pioneering work, Ehrenberger described the quantity of air in a flume to increase towards the flow surface. From consideration of the nature of the mechanism, Knapp (Ref. 13) also deduced that vertical distribution of the air in the flow would not be uniform.

Subsequent measurements in laboratory flumes confirmed that the quantity of entrained air increased from the bottom of the flume towards the flow surface. In laboratory investigations, the quantity of entrained air in the flow is expressed as an air concentration which is defined as the ratio of the volume of air to a unit volume of the air and water mixture. Halbronn and others observed that measured air concentration profiles always show that there is a break corresponding approximately to a concentration value of about 60 per cent which may be corresponding to the passage from the emulsion zone (air bubbles in water) to the ejection zone (drops of water in air) (Ref. 2, p. 464).

Based upon the conception that, in the upper layer, the water droplets were ejected from the lower layer by the action of random fluctuations of turbulence, Viparelli in 1957 (Ref. 14) suggested that the water droplets in the air follows a normal distribution in the form

$$q = Ve^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left(\frac{y - h}{s \, \delta \, \text{max}}\right)^2$$
(2.9)

$$V = \sqrt{2g \, \delta \, \text{max}}$$
(2.10)

with

	v v s max	(2.10
where	q = water discharge per unit area	
	V = velocity of water droplets	
	δ_{\max} = maximum measured dynamic head	
	g = gravitational constant	
	s = standard deviation	
	y = distance normal from bed	
	h = distance normal from bed corresponding to δ_{\max}	

Experiments by Viparelli were conducted in a smooth concrete flume with bed slope up to 45 degrees. He found that the value of the standard deviation varied from 0.0018 to 0.0025.

Straub and Anderson in 1958 published their findings of the distribution of air in the flow in a rough channel of sand-grain type surface (Ref. 15). The slope of the channel could be varied up to 75^o. Straub and Anderson suggested that the air-entrained flow can be divided into two regions according to the distribution of air in the flow.

In the lower region, the entrained air is in the form of discrete bubbles which are distributed throughout the flow by the turbulence in the stream. The downward transport of the air bubble is balanced by the buoyancy of the air bubbles in the liquid in the following relationship.

$$-C_{yb} + \epsilon_{b} \times \frac{dC_{y}}{dy} = 0 \qquad (2.11)$$

where

- C_v = air concentration at y
- y = distance normal from bed
- V_{b} = rise velocity of air bubbles
- $\varepsilon_{\mathbf{b}}$ = mixing parameter for air bubble transfer

In order to integrate Equation (2.11) the mixing parameter ϵ_b as a function of y must be known. Using a method similar to that used by Vanoni in the study of suspended sediments (Ref. 16) and assuming ϵ_b to be proportional to ϵ_m , the momentum mixing parameter, the authors derived

$$\epsilon_{\rm b} = \beta \, \mathrm{k} \, \, \boldsymbol{u}_{*} \, \times \, \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}_{\rm t} - \, \mathrm{y}}{\mathrm{y}} \right) \tag{2.12}$$

where β = proportional constant in $\epsilon_{b} = \beta \epsilon_{m}$

k = von Karman's universal constant

 \mathcal{U}_{*} = shear velocity

dt = transition depth or depth of the lower layer measured from the bed

Upon integration Equation (2.11) becomes

$$C_{y} = C_{1} \left(\frac{y}{d_{t} - y}\right)^{Z}$$
 (2.13)

where C₁ = reference air concentration, or air concentration at mid depth of lower region

and
$$z = \frac{V_b}{\beta k u_*}$$
 (2.14)

In the upper region, heteorogenous clumps, globules and water droplets are ejected from the flowing liquid stream. Assuming the projected water particles to follow a normal distribution above the liquid surface, Straub and Anderson derived the spatial distribution of water-air agglomerates and droplets which is described by the cumulative normal probability equation

$$\frac{1 - C_y}{1 - C_T} = \frac{2}{h/\pi} \int_y - d_t \quad \left[\exp \left(- \left(\frac{y - d_t}{h} \right)^2 \right] dy \quad (2.15)$$

where

 C_v = air concentration at y

- y = distance normal from bed
- C_T = air concentration at d_t
- d_t = transition depth or nominal boundary between
 - upper and lower regions
- h = a measure of mean distance of projection of water
 particles above transition depth.

The transition depth, or the nominal boundary between the upper and lower regions is determined from the concentration profile, the depth with the maximum concentration gradient, the value of which is

$$\left|\frac{dC_y}{dy}\right|_{\text{max.}} = \frac{2 (1 - C_T)}{h \sqrt{\pi}}$$
(2.16)

Siao in 1962 applied the theory of turbulent diffusion in the analysis of the concentration distribution of air in the air-water mixture, both in the developing zone and in the fully developed zone (Ref. 17). In his analysis, Siao also divided the air-water mixture into two regions. In the lower region, the entrained air is diffused in the liquid stream, while in the upper region, the projected water is diffused in the overlying air stream.

In the fully developed zone, Siao's analysis leads to a hyperbolic cosine distribution of the air in the upper region.

$$\frac{C_{y}}{C_{T}} = \frac{\cosh\left(\frac{V_{b} \cdot y \cos \theta}{V_{1}2 \cdot T_{1}}\right)}{\cosh\left(\frac{V_{b} \cdot d_{t} \cos \theta}{V_{1}2 \cdot T_{1}}\right)}$$
(2.17)
where C_{y} = air concentration at y
$$C_{T}$$
 = air concentration at d_{t}

$$y = \text{distance normal from bed}$$

$$d_{t} = \text{transition depth}$$

$$V_{b}$$
 = rise velocity of air bubbles
$$\theta = \text{inclination angle of channel}$$

particles divide th

 $\overline{V_{l}^{2}}$ = mean square value of turbulent velocity in liquid stream T₁ = time scale of turbulence in liquid stream

In the upper region, the distribution of air follows an exponential function in the form

$$\frac{1 - C_{y}}{1 - C_{T}} = \exp\left(-\frac{w y \cos\theta}{v_{2}^{2} T_{2}}\right)$$
(2.18)

where w = fall velocity of water particles

 v_2^2 = mean square value of turbulent velocity in air stream T₂ = time scale of turbulence in air stream

When compared with the experimental data by Straub and Anderson (Ref. 15), Siao found that in the lower region, Equation (2.17) agrees very well with the experimental data, but, in the upper region, the experimental points fall on a smooth curve rather than on a straight line as shown by Equation (2.18) in a semi-logarithmic plot.

Gangadharaiah, Lakshmana Rao, and Seetharamiah (Ref. 18) also conducted experimental investigations on self-aerated flows in a laboratory flume. They found that, in the fully developed zone, the mean air concentration is closely related to the non-aerated Froude number and the surface roughness of the flume. An empirical relationship between these parameters can be written as

$$1 - \overline{C} = \frac{1}{\Omega \, \mathrm{IF}_{\mathrm{W}}^{3/2} + 1} \tag{2.19}$$

where \bar{C} = mean air concentration

 IF_w = Froude number of non-aerated flow (= $\frac{U_w}{\sqrt{g R_c}}$) U_w = velocity of water

 R_c = hydraulic radius of water flow

For rectangular channel

$$\Omega = 1.35 \, \text{n}$$

For trapezoidal channel with side slope of 1.5 to 1

$$\Omega = 2.16 \, \text{n}$$

where n = Manning's roughness coefficient

2.6 Velocity Distribution in Fully Developed Flow

Velocity measurements over a vertical indicate that the velocity of the air-entrained flow increases from the bed of the channel until a maximum is reached. From this maximum, the velocity decreases rapidly towards the flow surface. Velocity profiles by Straub and Lamb (Ref. 19) and also by Halbronn and others (Ref. 2) show that the maximum velocity occurs in the lower region of the air-water mixture, below the transition depth.

Viparelli measured the velocity with a pitot tube (Ref. 14). When plotted semi-logarithmically with the distance normal from the bed, the velocity in the lower region near the bed follows a straight line, suggesting a logarithmic distribution having a form

$$\frac{u}{\sqrt{\tau_o/\rho}} = A + \frac{2.3}{k} \log_{10} \sqrt{\frac{\tau_o}{\rho}} \frac{y}{v} \qquad (2.20)$$

where \mathcal{U} = velocity at y

- y = distance normal from bed
- \mathcal{C}_o = wall shear
- f' = mass density of fluid
- ν = kinematic viscosity
- A = a constant
- k = a constant similar to von Karman's universal constant in non-aerated flow.

Viparelli found k varied from θ . 28 to 0.46. He did not evaluate the value of A because it was not certain whether the water droplets in the upper layer would contribute anything to the wall shear.

Siao in 1963 (Ref. 20) derived the velocity distribution of the aerated flow in the lower region. In additon to the gravitational force, Siao also took into account the turbulent concentration stress. He further divided the lower region into two sub regions, using the point of maximum velocity.

In the lower sub region, he assumed the mixing length proportional to the distance from the bed and therefore obtained a logarithmic velocity distribution

$$\frac{u}{u_{\star}} = \frac{2.3}{k} \log_{10} \frac{u_{\star}\sqrt{1-C_0}}{v} y + A \qquad (2.21)$$

and

$$\mathcal{U}_{*} = \left(\frac{\mathcal{L}_{1}}{P(1-c_{0})}\right)^{2}$$
$$= \sqrt{g \, d_{1} \left(\sin \theta + b \cos \theta\right)}$$
(2.22)

 \mathcal{U} = velocity at y where

> = distance normal from bed У

$$\mathcal{U}_*$$
 = shear velocity

 d_1 = depth at which velocity is maximum

 C_0 = air concentration at bed

 γ = kinematic viscosity of water

$$A,k,b = constants.$$

where

k

Siao considered the upper subregion a region of free turbulent flow and the mixing length is therefore constant and proportional to the depth of the lower region

$$\boldsymbol{\ell} = Dx d_{t}$$
(2.23)
$$\boldsymbol{\ell} = mixing length$$
$$d_{t} = transition depth, or depth of flow in lower region$$
$$D = proportional constant$$

The velocity profile in this sub region is therefore linear with an adverse gradient

$$\frac{\mathcal{U}_{1} - \mathcal{U}_{*}}{\mathcal{U}_{*}} = D * \frac{\mathcal{Y} - \mathcal{U}_{1}}{\mathcal{U}_{t}} \times \left(\frac{\mathcal{I} - \mathcal{C}_{0}}{\mathcal{I} - \mathcal{C}_{m}}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
(2.24)
where v_{1} = velocity at d_{1} or the maximum velocity
 C_{m} = mean air concentration in lower region
Siao used the experimental data of Straub and Lamb (Ref. 19) to de-
termine the constants in Equations (2.21) and (2.24). He found
 $k = 0.22, A = -2.3$ and $D = 11.5$.

2.7 Rational Design Basis

As has been discussed in Section 2.2, some formulas have been proposed for the design of hydraulic structures involving high-velocity, air-entrained flow. Since these formulas were based upon observation of full size structures, some of them would suit some particular cases better when the conditions of the designed structure were similar to those of the existing structure.

Studies of the mechanism of air-entrainment were carried out in laboratories. Fruitful results were obtained by Halbronn, Bauer, Viparelli and Straub and Anderson. Bauer's work on the development layer of the turbulent boundary/both on smooth and rough spillway surfaces has led to the determination of the point of air entrainment inception and the depth of the flow along the spillway up to that point.

The Air-Entrainment Research Group at the Institute of Hydrotechnical Research in Peking extended the method for the calculation of the point of air inception on spillways including curved sections (Ref. 21).

The extensive experimental work carried out by Straub and Anderson has led to a conclusion that the quantity of the entrained air depends on the intensity of turbulent fluctuations generated at the bed and the depth of the flow. Since the channel roughness was constant in their experiments, the mean air concentration was therefore plotted against a parameter $S/q^{1/5}$ where S = sine function of the slope angle and q = unit discharge.

Based upon the result of Straub and Anderson and also upon some full size observations on Kittitas Chute, the Task Committee on Air Entrainment in Open Channels, A.S.C.E. recommends (Ref. 22)

$$\overline{C} = 0.743 \log_{10} (S/q^{1/5}) + 0.876$$
 (2.25)

with standard error for air concentration,

 $s_c = 0.061$ where $\bar{C} =$ mean air concentration S = sine function of slope angle q = unit discharge $s_z =$ standard error for air concentration

Straub and Anderson observed that the depth of the aerated flow increased appreciably with increased air concentration. At high air concentrations, the total depth was nearly four times as large as that of a corresponding nonaerated flow. Anderson also conducted investigations on the effect of bed surface roughness on the aerated flow (Ref. 23). He concluded that both the depth of the flow and the mean air concentration increase with the bed surface roughness because of the higher turbulence level generated at the bed and the distribution of the entrained air more uniform due to the more intense mixing.

For the mean velocity of the air-water mixture, Straub and

Anderson (Ref. 15) suggest

$$\bar{V} = C d_t^{\frac{1}{2}} S^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
 (2.26)

where \overline{V} = mean velocity of air-water mixture

- d_t transition depth
- S = sine function of slope angle
- C = Chezy coefficient

They found that C has approximately the same value in the same channel for non aerated flow when the transition depth d_t is used as the effective depth.

3. The Air-entrained Flow in the Developing Zone

Since Ehrenberger's pioneering study, the work on air-entrainment has been concentrated on fully developed flow. In fully developed flow, both the quantity of the entrained air and its distribution remain constant with distance and the flow is in a uniform flow condition in which both the depth and the velocity remain constant with distance downstream.

As has been mentioned in Section 2.4, air entrainment commences at the point where the turbulent boundary layer reaches the flow surface. Downstream of this point both the quantity of the water particles projected into the air and the quantity of air entrained into the flow increase with distance downstream. Since air-entrainment is usually associated with steep slopes and the point of inception of air entrainment occurs within a comparatively short distance from the crest, the flow may still be accelerated beyond the point of air inception. Theoretical treatment of the flow in the developing zone would be extremely difficult because, in addition to the factors affecting the flow in the fully developed zone, there would exist in the developing zone a longitudinal air concentration gradient and also a longitudinal velocity gradient.

In previous studies (Refer Section 2), experimental work has been found to be most valuable in the understanding of the mechanism and the laws that govern the flow in the fully developed zone. It is expected that systematic experimental investigation can also provide useful information in the understanding of the air entrained flow in the developing zone.

In the study of the air-entrained flow in the developing zone which will be described in the subsequent sections, the velocity profile, the distribution of air and the growth of the mixed air-water layer will be included.

4. Experimental Aspects

4.1 The Laboratory Flume

Experiments were conducted in a glass-bottom flume with "perspex" side walls. The smooth "perspex" walls were used to minimize the boundary effects from the sides to the central portion of the flow in the flume, and visual observation of the behaviour of the flow could also be made. The length of the flume was 27 ft. and the width 18 inches. The flume was connected to a head tank, the top of which was 12 ft. from the floor level.

The slope of the flume could be adjusted, the maximum of which was 24 degrees with the horizontal. Water was supplied to the head tank through an 8" dia. pipeline. Grids were fitted inside the head tank to damp down as much as possible the turbulence so that quiescent flow could be introduced to the flume through a smooth faired transition. The flow rate was measured by the dynamic head of a pitot tube which was inserted into a straight length of the supply line. Having been placed in position, the dynamic head of the pitot tube was calibrated for the flow rate against a V-notch at the end of the drainage channel. Fig. 2 shows the general view of the laboratory flume.

4.2 Experimental Apparatus

The experimental apparatus for velocity and air-concentration measurements consisted essentially of a pitot tube, a glass bottle, a water manometer, a positive displacement pump, an air collecting cylinder and a water collecting cylinder. The experimental apparatus arrangement is shown schematically in Fig. 3. Fig. 4 shows the general view of the set-up.

The pitot tube was sharp-edged. The outside diameter of the tube was 0.100 in. and the diameter of the opening 0.084 in. Fig. 5 shows the general view of the pitot tube.

4.3 Experimental Procedure

During the experiments, two slopes $(18^{\circ} \text{ and } 24^{\circ})$ and three dis-

charges (1.2, 1.7 and 2.2 cu.ft./sec.) were used. At small discharges, the depth of the flow was still thick enough to be measured (approximately 1 inch). At higher discharges the length of the flow in the developing zone was still reasonably long so that observation and measurements could be made. Measurements were made at 7 sections, 3 ft. apart, the first being 9 ft. from the crest. Velocity profiles were obtained for all sections and air concentration profiles were determined at sections where the layer of air-water mixture was thick compared with the size of the pitot tube.

Velocity was measured with the pitot tube. The dynamic head of the flow on the tip of the pitot tube was shown on the water manometer with all valves closed except that leading to the manometer (Valve No. 1, Fig. 3). When the pitot tube was submerged in the layer of air-water mixture, some air bubbles might enter and accumulate in the line. Valve No. 1 was then closed and the air was drained back to the flow by opening slowly valve No. 2 which connected the high head feed to the system. After the air in the line had been drained, valve No. 2 was then closed and valve No. 1 again opened. This process was repeated until a steady dynamic head was shown on the manometer.

The velocity of water is then obtained from the following relationship (Ref. 2)

 $H = \rho_w (1 - \lambda c) \frac{u\omega}{2g}$

(4.1)

It has been shown by Halbronn and others (Ref. 2) that, when the size of the air bubbles is small compared with that of the pitot tube, the tapping coefficient λ can be taken as unity. However, the pitot tube used in this investigation was calibrated. It was found that the value of λ depended on the air concentration being slightly smaller than 1 at low air concentrations and slightly greater than 1 at higher air concentrations. Details of the calibration will be discussed in the following sub section (Section 4.4). Since the error involved in the calculation of the velocity and also in the determination of the air concentration was small when the value of λ departed slightly from unity, its value was taken as unity in this investigation and Equation 4.1 thus becomes

$$H = \rho_{w} (1 - C) \frac{\mu_{w}^{2}}{2g}$$
(4.2)

Values of air concentration were obtained by using the pitot tube as a sampler, similar in principle to the closed sampler used by Viparelli (Ref. 24). During sampling, the values to the manometer (Value No. 1), to the high head feed (Value No. 2) and to the air collecting cylinder (Value No. 3) were closed. Value No. 4 downstream of the pump and the
flow rate meter was used for adjustment of the sampling rate and Valve No.5 at the end of the system was a cock which could stop sampling instantaneously. Air was separated in the glass bottle and only water passed through the pump and was collected in the cylinder. After sampling, valve No.2 (from the high head feed) and Valve No.3 (to the air collecting cylinder) were opened to release the air from the bottle. The air was then collected in the cylinder and was measured at atmospheric pressure. The air concentration is thus

$$C = \frac{V_a}{V_2}$$
(4.3)

where

C = air concentration

 V_a = volume of air at atmospheric pressure V_2 = volume of water displaced from the system

Viparelli (Ref. 24) has shown that air concentration obtained by this method depends on the sampling rate. Therefore, when sampling, the velocity of flow through the tube was adjusted to that in the flume. As the velocity of the flow in the flume depends on the air concentration (Equation 4.2) a trial and error process has to be used. The air concentration of the flow was determined as was the velocity, when the air concentration computed by Equation (4.3) was the same as that assumed in Equation (4.2).

4.4 Verification of the Experimental Apparatus as an Effective Means of Measurement

4.41 General

Though the phenomenon of air entrainment has long been observed

and Ehrenberger began his pioneering work more than four decades ago, the progresstowards the basic understanding of the phenomenon has been slow. The reason for the slow progress was due to the lack of suitable instruments for experimental purposes (Ref. 25).

In the early stage of the study into this phenomenon, the pitot tube was used invariably in laboratories for the measurements of velocity (for example by Viparelli, Halbronn and others). The determination of air concentration was by sampling the air-water mixture (for example. by Viparelli, and Einstein and Sibul (Ref. 26). Objection to the use of the pitot tube in velocity measurements was that the air-water mixture is a non-homogeneous mixture. At low air concentrations, the presence of the pitot tube could cause separation of the air and water. At high air concentrations, the dynamic head was caused by successive impingement of water droplets against the tip of the pitot tube (Ref. 25). When closed samplers were used to determine the air concentration. Viparelli found that the air concentration obtained depends on the shape of the sampler. the position of the opening and also the rate of sampling (Ref. 14). When the closed sampler was used, Viparelli found that the air concentration obtained was higher than that by other methods (Ref. 27). Based upon the salt-velocity principle, Straub and Killen in 1954 (Ref. 25) developed a velocity meter (the St. Anthony Falls velocity meter) for the measurement of velocity of the air-water mixture. Yet, a direct check of the S.A.F.

velocity meter with a pitot tube in non-aerated flow indicated that their meter always gave slightly lower velocities (1 to 2 pc.). In addition, the S.A.F. Velocity Meter could not be used at air concentration levels higher than 70 per cent to 80 per cent because at such high concentration level, the water is mainly in the form of isolated droplets in the air flow. An electrical method was developed by Lamb and Killen (Ref. 28) for the measurement fair concentration. Because of the success with this instrument, Straub and Anderson were able to conduct an extensive investigation (Ref. 15) which clarifies much of the previous work in this field.

In this investigation, the experimental apparatus used has been described in Section 4.2. A pitot tube was used for velocity measurement and in the meantime served as a sampler because it was simple in principle and easy to handle, and because both quantities could be obtained at the same point. Since doubts have arisen about the accuracy, the physical meaning of the quantities obtained with this type of apparatus, the equipment was calibrated before it was used in the experiments.

4.42 Verification of Equation (4.3)

When the pitot tube is used as a sampler, the air concentration can be expressed as the ratio of the two measured volumes (Equation 4.3) that is,

$$C = \frac{V_a}{V_2}$$

where

C = air concentration

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(4.3)

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V = volume of air measured at atmospheric pressure

 V_2 = volume of water displaced from the system

The volume of water displaced from the system is in fact the volume of water entering through the pitot tube plus the volume of air accumulated in the bottle. The volume of air in the bottle does not exactly equal that in the flow entering the pitot tube because the pressure in the bottle during sampling would be below atmospheric. Therefore

$$V_2 = V_w + V_1$$
 (4.4)

$$V_1 = \frac{p_a}{p_1} V_a \tag{4.5}$$

where p

p₂ = atmospheric pressure

p₁ = pressure in bottle during sampling
V₁ = volume of air in bottle
V_a = volume of air corresponding to V₁ at p_a
V_w = volume of water drawn into sampler

The air concentration in the air-water mixture (designated as C') is defined as the ratio of the volume of air per unit volume of the mixture. The pressure within the flow is assumed to be atmospheric because of its small depth. Therefore

$$C' = \frac{V_a}{V_w + V_a}$$
$$= \frac{V_a}{V_2 - V_1 + V_a}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\frac{1}{C} - (\frac{p_c}{p_1} - 1)}$$

(4.7)

Since $C' \leq 1$

 $\frac{1}{C} - \left(\frac{p_a}{p_1} - 1\right) \ge 1$ or $C \le \frac{p_1}{p_a}$

or
$$p_1 \ge C p_a$$

During sampling $p_1 \leq p_a$

 $C p_a \leq p_1 \leq p_a$

When C is large, $p_1 \rightarrow p_a$ and C \rightarrow C'.

In order to evaluate the pressure drop in the system, and also to evaluate the error in C' when the air concentration is smaller, the pitot tube was submerged in pure water and only water was pumped through the system. It was found that, within the experimental range, the minimum pressure in the bottle was about two-thirds of the atmospheric pressure, or $\frac{Pa}{P_1} \approx 1.5$. For small air concentrations, for example C = 0.05, Equation (4.7) leads to

$$C' = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{C} - (1.5 - 1)}$$

= 1.03C

or an error of only about 3 per cent.

The error will be smaller for higher air concentrations, because the pressure drop will be much less for an air-water mixture with large percentage of air.

4.43 Verification of the Experimental Apparatus

The experimental apparatus has been described in Section 4.2. The pitot tube was used for velocity measurement and also used as a sampler for the determination of air concentration. The relationship between the velocity and the dynamic head measured is shown by In Equation (4.1), the value of the tapping coefficient λ Equation (4.1). depends on the ratio of the diameter of the air bubbles and the diameter of the pitot tube and also on the air concentration (Ref. 2, 29). When the pitot tube was used as a sampler, Viparelli found that the air concentration obtained was greater than that obtained with an electrical gauge The experimental apparatus was therefore calibrated with (Ref. 27). an air-water mixed jet with known velocity and discharges to determine the value of λ and the relationship of the measured and computed air concentration values.

The air-water mixed jet was produced by injecting air into a $\frac{1}{2}$ " dia. brass tube carrying a water discharge. A wire mesh was inserted inside the tube to diffuse the water particles and the air-water mixture emerged from the other end of the tube through a 1/4" dia. nozzle as an air-water mixed jet. The details of the device are shown in Fig. 7.

The water flow was supplied by a 1" pump and the discharge rate was measured volumetrically at the discharge end. Air flow was supplied by a compressor and the flow rate was measured by a "Critical Flow Rate Meter". (Ref. 30).

Details of the device are shown in Fig. 8.

In the calibration, the velocity of the air-water mixed jet varied from 15 ft./sec. to 25 ft./sec., and the air concentration ranges from approximately 0.4 to 0.8.

During the calibration, the pitot tube was placed in line with the axis of the air-water mixed jet, and the tip was 1/8'' from the nozzle. The dynamic head was measured, and with the computed values of velocity and air concentration, the value of the tapping coefficient λ was determined from Equation (4.1). It was found that the value of λ depends on the air concentration. For small air concentration values, λ is smaller than 1, with its minimum value of about 0.91 at C = 0.40. For large air concentration values, λ is greater than 1, the maximum value being about 1.09 at C = 0.75. The value of the tapping coefficient as a function of air concentration is shown in Fig. 9.

After being calibrated for velocity measurement, the air-water mixed jet was sampled through the pitot tube. Fig. 10 shows the air concentration values obtained with various sampling rates. From this figure it can be seen that the air concentration value increases with the sampling rate. Within a small range of sampling rates, the increase in air concentration values is small and is approximately linear. Fig. 10 also shows the air concentration value, which would be obtained if the

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sampling rate was adjusted to have the velocity at the tip of the pitot tube the same as that in the jet. Fig. 11 shows the air concentration obtained at the correct sampling rates against the computed air concentration values. The small departure of the points from the 45[°] line as shown in Fig. 11 justifies the use of the experimental apparatus and the technique in obtaining velocity and air concentration in an air-water mixture.

5. Experimental Results

5.1 General

Experiments were conducted with two slopes $(18^{\circ} \text{ and } 24^{\circ})$ and three discharges (1.2, 1.7 and 2.2 cu.ft./sec.). In the experiment, measurements of the dynamic head of the flow on the tip of the pitot tube and the sampling of the air-water mixture at various rates were included. From these data, velocity and air concentration profiles at the 7 sections along the centre line of the flume for each flow were obtained. Since the data from all the slopes and discharges used showed the same trend and supported the general conclusions derived, only the data for the 24° slope and the 1.7 c.f.s. discharge were used in the following discussions in Sections 5 and 6.

The data for the other slope and the other discharges are shown in Figs. 22 to 24 inclusive for reference.

5.2 Dynamic Head

The dynamic head measured at the seven sections for θ = 24^O and Q = 1.70 c.f.s. is shown in Fig. 12. The dynamic head increases first with distance from the bed. For the first section (9 ft. from the crest), the rate of increase of the dynamic head becomes very small towards the flow surface, indicating the thickness of the boundary layer is very close to the depth of the flow. A flat-tipped pitot tube with a thin, wide opening (see Fig. 5) was used to sample the flow just below the surface and no air was found to exist in the flow at this section. At the second section (12 ft. from the crest) the rate of increase of the dynamic head is also small near the flow surface, but siphoning of the flow indicated that there was a thin layer of air-water mixture near the surface of the flow. Calculation of the thickness of the boundary layer shows the layer reached the flow surface at a distance 9.87 ft. from the crest. For the downstream sections, the dynamic head decreases rapidly towards the flow surface after a maximum value has been reached. The position of the maximum dynamic head at a section becomes closer to the bed of the flume with distance downstream.

5.3 Velocity Profile

After the dynamic head was measured and the air concentration at the point determined, the velocity was computed by Equation (4.2). The velocity profiles are shown in Fig. 13. Fig. 13 shows the velocity increases with distance from the bed. Above a certain distance from the bed with the existence of the entrained air bubbles the velocity of the flow increases rapidly to a maximum. Above this point, the velocity decreases rapidly towards the flow surface.

5.4 Air Concentration Profile

Fig. 14 shows the air concentration profiles. It can be seen that, near the point of air entrainment inception, the entrained air bubbles do not penetrate deeply into the flow and a layer of pure water flow exists. The fact that the point of zero air concentration is closer to the bed with distance indicates the deeper penetration of the air bubbles. Over a section, the air concentration increases with distance from the bed, and approaches unity at the flow surface.

6. Analysis of Experimental Results

6.1 Distribution of Air in the Flow

The air concentration profiles for $\theta = 24^{\circ}$ and Q = 1.7 c.f.s. are shown in Fig. 14. At the starting stage of air-entrainment, air does not penetrate deeply into the flow. At sections where air was found to exist, the air concentration increased towards the flow surface. The air concentration gradient also increased until a maximum was reached (the point of inflection on the air concentration profile). Above that point, the air concentration gradient decreased but the air concentration approached unity at the flow surface. In fact, the air concentration in the developing zone has a similar shape to that in the fully developed zone. Straub and Anderson (Ref. 15) divided the aerated flow in the fully developed zone into two regions. In the upper region, water particles are projected from the flowing liquid into the air and move in a stream of air. In the lower layer, the entrained discrete air bubbles are distributed throughout the flow by the turbulence in stream. The depth dividing the two regions is called the transition depth which is the depth with the maximum air concentration gradient.

When the air concentration profiles are plotted on logarithmicprobability paper with air concentration on the probability scale and depth on the logarithmic scale as shown in Fig. 15, the experimental points for one section fall on a straight line followed by a curve at lower air concentrations.

Since the straight line portion of the air concentration profiles on the logarithmic-probability plot passes through C = 0.50, the maximum air concentration gradient of the profile occurs at that depth. If that depth is denoted as $y_{0.50}$, y being the distance above the bed and the subscript 0.5 being the air concentration value, then the transition depth which is defined as the depth with the maximum air concentration gradient, i.e. $d_t = y_{0.50}$ and the air concentration at the transition depth is $C_T = 0.50$. Experimental data by Straub and Anderson also showed that even in the fully developed zone the transition depth occurred at a depth with an air concentration value C = 0.50 for slopes of channel not exceeding 30 degrees (Ref. 15).

In the developing zone, the flow may be divided into three layers; a layer of pure water near the bottom, a layer of air-water mixture with discrete air bubbles moving in the liquid stream (the lower region of air-water mixture), and a layer of air-water mixture with water droplets moving in a stream of air (the upper region of air-water mixture). The two regions of air-water mixture are divided by the transition depth with an air concentration C = 0.50. The distribution of air in these two regions is described in the following sections.

6.2 Distribution of Air in the Upper Region

Downstream of the point of air entrainment inception, the water particles leave the flow surface as a result of turbulent velocity fluctuations. The movement and distribution of the water particles will be affected by those from upstream and also by those returning to the flow by gravity. Since the flow in the open channel is two dimensional, the points of equal air concentration will form a surface and the surfaces of equal air concentration converge at the point of air entrainment inception from which the water particles start to be projected.

From experiments already completed it appeared that the frequency of water particles that reach above the transition surface a distance of y from the bed follows more closely one half of a log normal distribution,

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rather than a normal distribution (Ref. 15), then

$$f(y) = \frac{2}{h\sqrt{\pi}} \exp(-\frac{(\log y_1 - \log d_t)^2}{h^2})$$
(6.1)

where f(y) = frequency of water particles that reach above transition

surface a distance y measured from bed ($y \ge d_T$)

- d_t = transition depth
- h = a measure of the mean distance of the water particles

being projected above the transition surface.

The proportion of the particles leaving the transition surface that reach or pass through the plane at an elevation y is

$$p(y) = \frac{2}{h/\pi} \int_{\log y - \log d_t}^{\infty} \exp(-\frac{(\log y - \log d_t)^2}{h^2}) \star d(\log y) (6.2)$$

The number of water particles in a unit volume of the air-water mixture at a distance y can be expressed as $(1 - C_y)$, and hence at the transition surface $(1 - C_T)_{,C_y}$ and C_T being air concentration at y and $d_{\tilde{t}}$ respectively. Equation (6.2) thus becomes

$$\frac{1 - C_{y}}{1 - C_{T}} = \frac{2}{h/\pi} \int_{\log y - \log d_{t}}^{\infty} \exp\left(\frac{(\log y - \log d_{t})}{h^{2}}\right) d(\log y) (6.3)$$

Therefore, the distribution of air in the upper region may be described by a cumulative lognormal distribution and Fig. 16 shows the distribution of air following this distribution as shown by Equation 6.3.

A plot of the experimental data by Straub and Anderson (Ref. 15) also reveals that the distribution of air in the upper region in the fully developed zone may also be described by Equation 6.3 as shown in Fig. 17.

In Equation 6.3, the mean height h, which is a measure of the mean distance the water particles projected above d_t , is defined as

$$\log(d_t + h) - \log d_t = S \sqrt{2}$$
 (6.4)

where S = standard deviation of air distribution above d_t

In the fully developed zone, the mean height h is a constant, while in the developing zone, this mean height should increase with distance from the point of air inception. Fig. 18 shows the value of h with distance from the point of air inception.

6.3 Distribution of Air in the Lower Region

In the fully developed zone, the distribution of the air in the lower region can be described by Equation 2.13. Equation 2.13 was derived from the consideration of the balance between the buoyancy of the air bubbles and the downward transport of these air bubbles by the turbulence in the stream. When plotted logarithmically the air concentration C varies linearly with the depth parameter $\frac{y}{d_t - y}$ having a slope equal to z (the value of z is shown by Equation 2.14).

In the developing zone, when considering the balance between the buoyancy and transport of the air bubbles, the longitudinal air concentration and velocity gradient should also be included. However, in order to observe the distribution of air in the lower region, the air concentration is again plotted against the depth parameter $\frac{y}{d_t}$ as shown in Fig. 19.

Fig. 19 shows that, the experimental points fall on a smooth curve. For a constant air concentration C value, the depth parameter $\frac{y}{d_t - y}$ becomes smaller with distance downstream, indicating deeper penetration and also a larger quantity of the air in the flow.

6.4 Velocity Distribution

When the velocity profile is plotted semi-logarithmically as shown in Fig. 20, a straight line can be drawn through the experimental points in the bottom layer in which no air was found. This indicates that the velocity follows a logarithmic law and that the velocity distribution in this region is not affected by the existence of another layer on top of it.

Above this layer of pure water the velocity in the air-water mixture increases rapidly to a maximum value and then decreases rapidly towards the flow surface. It is observed experimentally that the maximum velocity occurs just below the transition depth; this was also found to be true in the fully developed zone when comparing the air concentration and velocity profiles obtained by Straub and Lamb (Ref. 1) and by Halbronn and others (Ref. 2).

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6.5 The Flow Profile

The depth of flow in the flume not too far downstream from the crest could be measured with a point gauge. At a certain distance from the crest, fluctuation of the flow surface became appreciable. The flow just below the surface was sampled with a pitot tube having a flat tip and

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a thin, wide opening (Fig. 5). It was found air existed in or a small distance downstream of the section where fluctuation of the flow surface became appreciable.

The point of air entrainment inception was computed, using the method suggested by Bauer (Ref. 9). An expression for the boundary layer thickness derived by Halbronn (Ref. 10) for smooth boundary and logarithmic velocity distribution was used. The computed and observed values of the position of the point of air entrainment inception and the corresponding depth of flow were in good agreement.

Downstream of the point of air inception, the flow surface is arbitrarily defined at $y_{0.95}$ (y being the distance from the bed and with an air concentration value C = 0.95). The longitudinal flow profile is shown in Fig. 21. The longitudinal flow profile shows that the depth of the flow in the developing zone decreases continually with distance downstream, but with a rate much smaller than that if the flow were not aerated.

Fig. 21 also shows the transition depth, and the nominal lower limit of the air-water mixture which is arbitrarily defined at a depth with an air concentration $C = 0.005 (y_{0.005})$. The figure also shows that the penetration of the entrained air toward the bed and the decrease of the "effective" depth of the flow (the transition depth from which water particles are projected) first rapidly and then gradually with distance downstream.

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7. Growth of the Aerated Flow in the Developing Zone

7.1 General

From the experimental results as discussed in the previous two sections (Sections 5 and 6), the aerated flow in the developing zone can be divided into three layers. In the developing zone, the quantity of water droplets and the vertical distance of their projection out of the flow increase with distance because of the increasing turbulence intensity. The quantity of the discrete entrained air bubbles and their depth of penentration into the flow also increase with distance. Therefore, the thickness of the airwater mixture increases with distance downstream. On the other hand, because of the projection of the water particles and the penetration of the air bubbles, and also because of a longitudinal velocity gradient, the thickness of the pure water layer decreases with distance.

In this section, an analytical approach is used for the computation of the depth of the self-aerated flow in the developing zone. In this respect the flow is considered to consist of two layers: the top layer being the upper region of the air-water mixture and the bottom layer being the lower region of the mixture plus the pure water region. The boundary for these two regions is therefore the transition depth of the flow. Basic assumptions used and the derivation of the theoretical equations are discussed in the following sections.

7.2 Basic Assumptions

7.21 Air Concentration Profile

Measurement of air concentration (Sections 5.4 and 6.1) shows

that, when air is found to exist, the air concentration increases rapidly to the transition depth. Above the transition depth, the air concentration increases with a decreasing concentration gradient and approaches unity towards the flow surface.

Below the transition depth, since the quantity of entrained air is small, its effect of bulking in the flow is neglected.

Above the transition depth, since the thickness of the upper layer is usually small compared with the total depth of the flow, for simplicity the air concentration in the top layer is assumed to vary linearly from 0.5 at the transition depth to unity at the flow surface.

The simplified concentration profile is shown in Fig. 25.

7.22 Velocity Profile

Measurement of the flow velocity (Sections 5.3 and 6.4) shows that in the pure water region the velocity follows the logarithmic law of distribution. In the lower region of the air-water mixture, the velocity increases rapidly to a maximum near the transition depth and then decreases towards the flow surface.

For simplicity, it is assumed that the logarithmic law is valid throughout the depth of the lower layer (including the pure water region and the lower region of the air-water mixture). The maximum velocity without considering the effects of the entrained air, designated as U₁, is obtained by extending the velocity profile logarithmically to the transition depth.

In the upper layer, the velocity decreases from its maximum The maximum velocity, designated as value towards the flow surface. U₂, is assumed to occur at the transition depth.

Since the thickness of the upper layer is small, it is assumed that the velocity profile consists of a straight line with an adverse gradient, with the velocity at the flow surface equal to $(1 - K)U_2$, K being the velocity gradient coefficient, the value of which will be discussed in Section 7.41.

The simplified velocity profile is shown in Fig. 26.

7.23 Acceleration of the Flow in the Developing Zone

In the developing zone, the flow is being accelerated by gravity. But the acceleration decreases with distance because of boundary friction between the solid boundary and the fluid and also the drag of air on or near the flow surface. If the channel is long enough, a terminal velocity can be reached. Townsend (Ref. 32, p. 267) has stated that for boundary layer flow under pressure gradient, self-preserving flow can only occur if the free-stream velocity

$$U_{I} \propto (x - x_{0})^{a}$$
(7.1)
$$U_{I} \propto e^{\mu z}$$
(7.2)

(7.2)

in low and said the line well and

where U₁ = free stream velocity = distance х ALTA AL ANTIAL -

or

 a,μ = constants

Application of the experimental data to these two functional forms showed that both a and μ are not constants, but, reasonably good fit was obtained when the maximum velocity of a section x ft. from the crest was assumed to have an exponential form similar to Equation 7.2 with

$$\mathcal{U} = T \ \boldsymbol{e}^{-F/Rx}$$
(7.3)
where
$$\mathcal{U} = \text{maximum velocity at a section}$$
$$T = \text{terminal maximum velocity}$$
$$e = \text{exponential constant}$$
$$F = \text{retardation factor}$$
$$R_{x} = \text{Reynolds number} \left(=\frac{\mathcal{U}x}{\mathcal{V}}\right)$$
$$x = \text{distance from crest}$$
$$\mathcal{V} = \text{kinematic viscosity}$$

The terminal maximum velocity T and the retardation factor F for each flow are obtained from the experimental results. When the maximum velocity \mathcal{U} is plotted against $1/R_{\mathbf{x}}$ for each flow semilogarithmically with \mathcal{U} on the logarithmic scale as shown in Fig. 27, the experimental points fall approximately on a straight line. When a bestfit straight line is drawn through the experimental points, the intercept with the ordinate shows the terminal maximum velocity and the retardation factor is obtained from the slope of the line, or

F = 2.3 (log₁₀ T - log₁₀
$$\mathcal{U}$$
) x $\frac{1}{R_x}$

In the lower layer, Equation (7.3) is written as

$$U_{I} = T_{1} e^{-F_{1}/R_{x1}}$$
 (7.3a)

and in the upper layer

$$U_2 = T_2 e^{-F_2/R_{X^2}}$$
 (7.3b)

The value of the terminal maximum velocity and the retardation factor for each flow is tabulated in Tables 7.1 and 7.2 respectively for the lower layer and the upper layer.

			v		
Discharge (c.f.s.)	Slope Angle				
	18 ⁰		24 ⁰		
	$T_1(ft/sec)$	$F_1 \times 10^{-5}$	$T_1(ft/sec)$	F ₁ x10 ⁻⁵	
1.20 1.70	18.99 2 1.38	3 8. 38 51.44	21.6 1 23.87	44.13	
2.20	23.25	63.89	26.16	69.67	

Table 7.1: Values of T1 and F1 for Lower Layer

Table 7.2: Values of T_2 and F_2 for Upper Layer

Discharge (c.f.s.)	Slope Angle			
2-2-2-2- go ()	18 ⁰		24 ⁰	
	$T_2(ft/sec)$	$F_{2}x10^{-5}$	$T_2(ft/sec)$	$F_2 x 10^{-5}$
1.20	21.03	43.57	22.00	29.98
1.70	23.47	61.52	25.34	59.56
2.20	25.43	79.18	27.75	78.38

The experimental value of the maximum velocity together with the computed value from Equations (7.3a) and (7.3b) is plotted in Figures 28 to 31 inclusive for comparison.

7.3 The Lower Layer

7.31 Theory

The relationship between the thickness of the lower layer and other characteristics of the flow may be obtained by applying the momentum equation to the flow within a control surface as shown in Fig. 32. The flux of momentum in the x-direction through the control surface is equal to the sum of the forces acting on the control surface in the same direction.

Referring to the prism of length Δx in the lower layer as shown in Fig. 32, the forces acting on the prism include the boundary shear \mathcal{T}_0 , the pressure force p_1 and the body force W_1 . The shearing force \mathcal{T}_i on the interface between the upper layer and the lower layer is small, because the maximum velocity occurs very close to the interface and is therefore neglected.

The momentum flux through the control surface in the x-direction include the momentum flux across the upstream and downstream faces of the prism and also that across the interface.

The momentum influx in the x-direction across the upstream face is $M = \int_{0}^{\delta_{I}} \rho_{\omega} u^{2} dy$. The momentum efflux across the downstream face is $M + \frac{dM}{dx} \star \Delta x = \int_{0}^{\delta_{I}} \rho_{\omega} u^{2} dy + \frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{\delta_{I}} \rho_{\omega} u^{2} dy \star \Delta z$.

Across the interface, there is a mass efflux from the control surface because water particles are being continuously projected out of

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the flow from the bottom layer. The mass efflux across the interface is equal to the difference in the rate of the mass flow through the downstream and upstream faces of the control surface, or,

$$\frac{dm}{dx} \times \Delta x = \int_{0}^{\delta_{1}} P_{\omega} \, u \, dy + \frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{\delta_{1}} P_{\omega} \, u \, dy \, \Delta x - \int_{0}^{\delta_{1}} P_{\omega} \, u \, dy}{= \frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{\delta_{1}} P_{\omega} \, u \, dy \times \Delta x}$$

The magnitude of the momentum efflux along the x-direction across the interface is the product of the mass efflux and the velocity of the flow along the x-direction at the interface, which is U_1 . The magnitude of this momentum efflux is therefore

From the principle of conservation of linear momentum, it follows

that

or

$$\int_{0}^{\delta_{1}} P_{\omega} u^{2} dy + \frac{d}{dz} \int_{0}^{\delta_{1}} P_{\omega} u^{2} dy \cdot \Delta z - \int_{0}^{\delta_{1}} P_{\omega} u^{2} dy$$

$$- \mathcal{U}_{1} \frac{d}{dz} \int_{0}^{\delta_{1}} P_{\omega} u dy \cdot \Delta z$$

$$= - \mathcal{T}_{0} \Delta z + \frac{d}{dz} \int_{0}^{\delta_{1}} P_{1} dy \cdot \Delta z + \int_{0}^{\delta_{1}} P_{\omega} g \int dy \cdot \Delta z \quad (7.4)$$

$$\frac{d}{dz} \int_{0}^{\delta_{1}} P_{\omega} u^{2} dy - \mathcal{U}_{1} \frac{d}{dz} \int_{0}^{\delta_{1}} P_{\omega} u dy$$

$$= - \mathcal{T}_{0} + \frac{d}{dz} \int_{0}^{\delta_{1}} P_{1} dy + \int_{0}^{\delta_{1}} P_{\omega} g \int dy \quad (7.5)$$

where

 f_{ω} = mass density of water

- u = velocity at distance y from bed
- U₁ = velocity of flow at the interface which is also the maximum velocity in the lower layer
- S, = thickness of lower layer this reaction bould be

 \mathcal{T}_{o} = shear stress at boundary

 $p_1 = pressure intensity$

S = sine function of slope angle θ

g = gravitational constant

In Equation (7.4) a 'minus' sign has been used for the term $\mathcal{U}_{I} \frac{d}{dz} \int_{0}^{\delta_{I}} \mathcal{U}_{J} \frac{dy}{dz}$ which is the momentum efflux across the interface and is the product of the mass efflux and the velocity of the flow at the interface. The rate of mass flow across the interface $\frac{d}{dz} \int_{0}^{\delta_{I}} \mathcal{L}_{J} \frac{dy}{dz} \cdot \mathcal{L}_{Z}$ when integrated from 0 to δ_{I} , and then differentiated with respect to x will be negative because of the projection of water particles out of the lower layer. In Equation (7.4), the momentum efflux is taken as positive and a 'minus' sign is therefore used to make the momentum efflux term $\mathcal{U}_{I} \frac{d}{dz} \int_{0}^{\delta_{I}} \mathcal{L}_{J} \frac{dy}{dz} \mathcal{L}_{J}^{\delta_{I}} \mathcal{L}_{J} \frac{dy}{dz} \mathcal{L}_{J}^{\delta_{I}} \mathcal{L}_{J} \frac{dy}{dz} \mathcal{L}_{J}^{\delta_{I}} \mathcal{L}_{J} \frac{dy}{dz} \mathcal{L}_{J}^{\delta_{I}} \mathcal{L}_$

When displacement thickness

$$S_d = \int_{\delta}^{\delta_1} (1 - \frac{u}{u_1}) \, dy$$

and momentum thickness

$$S_m = \int_0^{\delta_1} \left[\left(\frac{u}{u_1} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{u}{u_1} \right)^2 \right] dy$$

are used, Equation (7.5) can be written as

$$-P_{\omega} \mathcal{U}_{i}^{2} \frac{d\delta m}{dx} - P_{\omega} \mathcal{U}_{i} \frac{d\mathcal{U}_{i}}{dx} \times (\delta d + 2\delta m - \delta_{i})$$

$$= -\varepsilon_{0} + \frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{\delta_{i}} P_{i} dx + \int_{0}^{\delta_{i}} P_{\omega} g S dy \qquad (7.6)$$

It will be shown in Section 7.41, for the same reason as in the upper layer, that the pressure term is small compared with the other terms in Equation (7.6) and the pressure term is therefore neglected. On integration, the weight term becomes

$$\int_{0}^{\delta_{I}} P_{\omega} g S dy = P_{\omega} g S \delta_{I} \qquad (7.7)$$

The shear stress \mathcal{L}_0 at the boundary can be expressed as

$$\tau_o = \frac{1}{2} c_f P_\omega U_l^2 \qquad (7.8)$$

where

 C_f = local drag coefficient,

$$\sqrt{c_f} = \sqrt{2} \quad \frac{\sqrt{\tau_0/\rho_\omega}}{U_I} \tag{7.9}$$

 \mathbf{or}

When the pressure term is neglected, and Equations (7.7) and (7.9) are substituted into Equation (7.6), the momentum equation becomes

$$- P_{\omega} U_{i}^{2} \frac{d \delta m}{d z} - P_{\omega} U_{i} \frac{d U_{i}}{d z} \left(\delta d + 2 \delta m - \delta_{i} \right)$$
$$= -\frac{1}{2} c_{f} P_{\omega} U_{i}^{2} + P_{\omega} g S \delta_{i}$$

 \mathbf{or}

$$\frac{d\delta m}{dz} = \frac{1}{z}c_{f} - \frac{gS\delta_{I}}{U_{I}^{2}} + \frac{1}{U_{I}}\frac{dU_{I}}{dz}(\delta_{I} - \delta_{d} - 2\delta_{m}) (7.10)$$

It can be seen that Equation (7.10) is the same as the von Karman momentum integral equation except that the pressure term has been neglected and the body force included.

In the developing zone of the air-entrained flow, since logarithmic velocity distribution has been assumed for the lower layer (Refer Section 7.22 and Fig. 20), and, for smooth boundary, the velocity 'u' at a distance 'y' from the bed is

upper layer mat the pressure ma

$$\frac{\mu}{\sqrt{\tilde{c}/P_{\omega}}} = 2.5 \log_{e} \left(\frac{\sqrt{\tilde{c}/P_{\omega}}}{\sqrt{\tilde{c}}} y\right) + 5.5$$

 \mathbf{or}

$$\frac{u}{\sqrt{\tau_o/\rho_\omega}} = 2.5 / oge \left(\frac{9 \sqrt{\tau_o/\rho_\omega}}{v} y \right)$$
(7.11)

where

 γ = kinematic viscosity

When $y = S_1$ and $u = U_1$, Equation (7.11) becomes

$$\frac{\mathcal{U}_{I}}{\sqrt{\tau_{o}/r_{\omega}}} = 2.5 \log \left(\frac{9\sqrt{\tau_{o}/r_{\omega}}}{\sqrt{\tau_{o}/r_{\omega}}} \delta_{I}\right) \qquad (7.12)$$

Let

et $z = 0.4 \frac{\mathcal{U}_i}{\sqrt{\tau_o/\rho_o}}$ (7.13)

and, from Equation (7.9)

$$z = \frac{0.566}{\sqrt{c_{\rm f}}}$$
(7.14)

$$c_f = \frac{0.32}{z^2}$$
 (7.15)

 \mathbf{or}

From Equations (7.12) and (7.13), the thickness of the lower layer δ_l can be expressed as

$$\delta_{I} = \frac{0.278 y Z e^{2}}{U_{I}}$$
(7.16)

For logarithmic velocity distribution, the displacement thickness

can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \delta d &= \int_{0}^{\delta_{I}} \left(1 - \frac{u}{u_{I}} \right) dy \\ &= 1.765 \sqrt{c_{f}} \delta_{I} \\ &= \frac{\delta_{I}}{z} \end{aligned}$$
(7.17)

and the momentum thickness

$$\begin{split} & \delta_m = \int_0^{\delta'} \left[\left(\frac{u}{u_i} \right) - \left(\frac{u}{u_i} \right)^2 \right] dy \\ &= 1.765 \sqrt{c_f} \left(1 - 3.54 \sqrt{c_f} \right) \\ &= \frac{\delta_I}{\overline{z}} \left(1 - \frac{2}{\overline{z}} \right) \end{split} \tag{7.18}$$

49.

Since δ_d , δ_m and δ_i can be expressed in terms of z

50.

and U_1 , the momentum equation can be written as

$$\frac{dz}{dz} = 0.576 \frac{U_1}{v} \frac{1}{e^{z}(z^2 - 2z + 2)} - \frac{gS}{U_1^2} \frac{z^3}{(z^2 - 2z + 2)} + \frac{1}{U_1} \frac{dU_1}{dz} \times z$$
(7.19)

- FIPS

Noting that

(7.3a)

and

$$\mathcal{U}_{I} = T_{I} \ \mathcal{C}$$

$$R_{z} = \frac{\mathcal{U}_{I} \chi}{\gamma}$$

$$\frac{d\mathcal{U}_{I}}{dz} = \frac{F_{I} \mathcal{U}_{I}^{2}}{\gamma} \times \frac{1}{R_{z}} \times \frac{1}{R_{z} - F_{I}}$$

$$\frac{dR_{z}}{dz} = \frac{\mathcal{U}_{I}}{\gamma} \times \frac{R_{z}}{R_{z} - F_{I}}$$

$$\frac{dL}{dz} = \frac{dL}{dR_{z}} \times \frac{dR_{z}}{dz}$$

$$= \frac{\mathcal{U}_{I}}{\gamma} \times \frac{R_{z}}{R_{z} - F_{I}} \times \frac{dL}{dR_{z}}$$

The momentum equation finally becomes

$$\frac{dz}{dR_z} = 0.576 \frac{R_z - F_I}{R_z} \times \frac{1}{e^{\frac{z}{2}(z^2 - 2z + 2)}} - \frac{95V e^{3F_I/R_z}}{T_I^3} \times \frac{R_z - F_I}{R_z} \times \frac{z^3}{R_z} + \frac{z^3}{(z^2 - 2z + 2)} + \frac{F_I}{R_z^2} \frac{z}{z}$$
(7.20)

7.32 Experimental Verification

For a section with a given Reynolds number ' R_x ', the value of z can be obtained by solving the differential equation, Equation (7.20), numerically. The maximum velocity U_1 of the flow in the lower layer is obtained from Equation (7.3a) and the distance 'x' of the section from the crest is obtained by substituting \mathcal{U}_1 , into $R_{\mathcal{Z}} \left(=\frac{\mathcal{U}_1 \mathcal{Z}}{\mathcal{V}}\right)$. The thickness S_1 of flow in the lower layer is therefore obtained by substituting the values of 'z' and ' \mathcal{U}_1 ' into Equation (7.16).

In order to solve Equation (7.20), initial values of 'z' and ' U_1 ' of a given section have to be used.

Since the developing zone commences at the point of inception of air entrainment (the critical point), the values of 'z' and ' \mathcal{U}_{l} ' at that section can be used as initial values, and Equation (7.20) is then integrated numerically downstream from that point. At the critical point, the turbulent boundary layer reaches the flow surface and the discharge of flow per unit width at that section can be written as

$$q = \mathcal{U}_1(\delta_1 - \delta_d) \tag{7.21}$$

where g = discharge of flow per unit width. When the values of S_1 and S_2 from Equations (7.16) and (7.17) respectively are used, Equation (7.21) becomes

$$q = 0.278 \, \mathcal{V} \, (z - 1) \, e^{z} \tag{7.22}$$

The value of z can be obtained from Equation (7.22) since the discharge of flow per unit width is known.

The initial value of U_1 and the distance x at the point of air entrainment inception from the crest can be obtained by equating Equations (2.5) and (7.17), i.e.

$$\delta_{1} = \frac{0.0104}{5^{0.0485}} \chi^{0.8545}$$
(2.5)

$$\delta_{1} = \frac{0.278 \, \mathcal{V} \, \mathcal{Z} \, \mathcal{C}^{2}}{U_{1}} \tag{7.17}$$

The velocity \mathcal{U}_{I} at section x ft. from the crest is obtained by treating the flow outside the boundary layer in the pure water region as a potential flow (Ref. 9), or

$$\mathcal{U}_{I} = \sqrt{29S \chi} \tag{7.23}$$

When these initial values were used, it was found the thickness of the lower layer increased with distance downstream. Since water particles are being continuously projected out of the flow from the lower layer and in the developing zone, the flow is still being accelerated, it is obvious that the thickness of this layer should decrease with distance. Decrease in thickness of this layer was also confirmed by the experimental results even with a certain amount of entrained air in the flow (Refer Section 6.5 and Figure 21).

The reason for the computed thickness of the lower layer to increase with distance when the initial values of z and U_1 at the critical point were used, was revealed by further examining Equation (7.10)

$$\frac{d\delta_m}{dz} = \frac{1}{2}c_f - \frac{gS\delta_l}{U_l^2} + \frac{1}{U_l}\frac{dU_l}{dz}(\delta_l - \delta_d - 2\delta_m) (7.10)$$

In Equation (7.10), the first term on the right hand side is the effect of the boundary resistance to the flow, the second term the effect due to the gravitational force and the third term the effect of the velocity gradient

52.

and

53.

in the x-direction. For the thickness of the lower layer to decrease with distance, the numerical sum of these three terms should be smaller than zero, or $\frac{d\delta m}{dz}$ is negative.

When the values of z and U_1 at the critical point were used, it was found that the absolute value of the second term was always greater than that of the first term, thus making the sum of these two terms smaller than zero. This should be the case, because only in a uniform flow the gravitational force is balanced by the boundary friction and the sum of these two terms is equal to zero. In calculating the third term, $\frac{d'U_1}{dz}$ is obtained by differentiating Equation (7.3a) with respect to x, or

$$\frac{1}{u_{i}}\frac{du_{i}}{dz} = \frac{F_{i}u_{i}}{v}*\frac{1}{Rz}*\frac{1}{Rz-F_{i}}$$
$$= \frac{F_{i}}{Rz-F_{i}}*\frac{1}{z}$$
(7.24)

It was found that, in every case, at the critical point, the third term was large to make the sum of the three terms positive, resulting in an increase of the thickness of this layer with distance.

The velocity gradient in the x-direction immediately downstream of the critical point was therefore compared with that of the potential flow immediately upstream of the critical point. The velocity gradient of the potential flow was obtained by differentiating Equation (7.23) with respect to x, and we obtain

$$\frac{1}{U_1}\frac{dU_1}{dz} = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{z}$$
(7.25)

In the developing zone, the velocity gradient should be smaller because of boundary friction, or when comparing Equations (7.24) and (7.25),

$$\frac{F_1}{R_z - F_1} < \frac{1}{2}$$

when R_x at the critical point and the retardation factor F_1 were used, it was found that $\frac{F_1}{R_z - F_1}$ for every case was greater than $\frac{1}{2}$. For example, when $\theta = 24^{\circ}$ and Q = 1.70 c. f. s., $R_{zo} = 1.31 \times 10^{7}$, $F_1 = 0.53 \times 10^{7}$ and $\frac{F_1}{R_{zo} - F_1} = \frac{0.53}{1.31 - 0.53} = 0.68^{7} \frac{1}{2}$.

Therefore, though Equation (7.3a) was shown to describe the experimental result of the velocity of the flow reasonably well (refer Figure 27) it could not be used to calculate the velocity close to the critical point because it gives too large a velocity gradient.

However, when the experimental values of \mathcal{U}_{I} and \tilde{S}_{I} (hence z from Equation (7.16)) and $\frac{1}{\mathcal{U}_{I}} \frac{d\mathcal{U}_{I}}{dz}$ still from Equation (7.24) for sections sufficiently far from the critical point were substituted into Equation (7.20), the sum of the three terms on the right hand side of the equation was smaller than zero (refer Table 7.3). The experimental values of \mathcal{U}_{I} and \tilde{S}_{I} (and hence z) at a section when the sum becomes negative were then used as initial values and Equation (7.20) was integrated numerically by the fourth order Runge-Kutta method (Ref. 31) with the aid of a digital computer. The computer programme together with a sample of results is shown in Appendix I. The computed

					dRy				
x (ft.)	U ₁ (ft/sec)	S_1 (in)	$R_x \times 10^{-5}$	Z	$\frac{0.16}{Z^2} \times 10^4$	$\frac{gS\delta_1}{U_1^2} \times 10^4$	$\frac{F_1 \delta}{F_x - F_1} (1 - \frac{3}{Z} + \frac{4}{Z^2}) \frac{1}{x} \times 10^4$	$F(R,Z) \times 10^4$ =(6)-(7)+(8)	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	
					·······				
$\theta = 18$; Q = 1.20 c.f.s; F ₁ = 38.38 x 10 ⁵									
12	14.3	0.75	142	10.1706	15.47	30.41	14.35	-0.59	
15	15.6	0.67	193	10.1471	15.54	22.83	6.87	-0.42	
18	16.1	0.64	240	10.1342	15.58	20.47	4.19	-0.70	
21	16.7	0.65	289	10.1789	15.44	19.44	2.94	-1.06	
24	16.8	0.64	333	10.1729	15.46	18.80	2.15	-1.19	
27	17.1	0.62	380	10.1574	15.51	17.68	1.60	-0.57	
$\theta = 18^{\circ}; Q = 1.70 \text{ c.f.s.}; F_1 = 51.44 \times 10^5$									
15	16.6	0.89	206	10.4628	14.62	26.78	12.34	+0.18	
18	17.2	0.88	256	10.4851	14.55	24.66	7.68	-2.43	
21	17.9	0.85	311	10.4894	14.54	22.00	5.01	-2.45	
24	18.8	0.82	373	10.5014	14.51	19.24	3.42	-1.31	
27	19.0	0.80	424	10.4885	14.54	18.37	2.56	-1.27	
$\theta = 18^{\circ}$;	Q = 200 c.f.s.	$; F_1 = 63.8$	9 x 10 ⁵					•	
15	17.2	1.11	213	10.6969	13.98	31.11	19.92	+2.79	
18	18.5	1.08	275	10.7384	13.88	26.16	11.42	-0.86	
21	19.2	1.02	333	10.7201	13.92	22.94	7.25	-1.77	
24	19.8	1.00	393	10.7302	13.90	21.15	5.09	-2.16	
27	20.1	0.98	449	10.7254	13.91	20.11	3.79	-2.41	
$\theta = 24^{\circ}$	Q = 1.20 c.f.s	; F ₁ = 44. 1	3 x 10 ⁵						
15	17.8	0.67	221	10, 2673	15,18	23.08	6.93	-0.97	
18	18.8	0.61	280	10,2316	15.28	18,84	3.94	+0.38	
21	18.6	0.56	323	10, 1440	15.55	17.67	2.61	+0.49	
24	19.3	0.56	383	10.1776	15.45	16.41	1.88	+0.92	
27	19.3	0.56	431	10.1776	15.45	16.41	1.46	+0.50	
$\theta = 24^{\circ}$	Q = 1.70 c.f.s	; F ₁ = 53.1	7 x 10 ⁵						
12	17.3	0.88	171	10,4873	14.55	32.28	20,69	+2.96	
15	19.6	0.85	243	10,5723	14.31	24.15	9.99	+0.15	
18	20.2	0.74	301	10.4755	14.58	19.70	5.51	+0.39	
21	20.6	0.70	358	10.4427	14.67	17.92	3.63	+0.38	
24	20.7	0.70	410	10.4427	14.67	17.92	2.71	-0.54	
27	21.1	0.71	471	10.4753	14.58	17.41	2.09	-0.74	
$h = 24^{\circ} \cdot 0 = 2.20 \text{ cf s} \cdot \text{F}_{4} = 69.67 \times 10^{5}$									
	17.7	1 12	176	10 7313	13 89	39.02	38 48	+13 35	
12	10.5	1.12	242	10.7343	13.89	29.28	17.30	+ 1 91	
15	19.5	0.93	311	10.7132	13.94	23.24	9.38	+ 0.08	
18	20.5	0.89	375	10,7031	13.97	20.82	6.08	- 0.77	
21	21.0	0.91	436	10,7403	13.87	20,52	4.53	- 2,12	
24	22.0	0.92	518	10,7989	13.72	18.66	3.33	- 1.61	
1 21	40.4	0.02						1 1.01	

Table 7.3: Experimental Value of F (R, Z) in $\frac{d\delta m}{dR_{m}} = F(R, Z)$

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value of S_1 is plotted on Figures 33 and 34. Also plotted on the figures are the experimental values ($S_1 = \mathcal{G}_{0.50}$) for comparison,

- 7.4 The Upper Layer
 - 7.41 Theory

Referring to the pri sm of length 4% in the upper layer as shown in Fig. 32, the forces acting on the prism in the upper layer are the shearing force on the surface of the air-water mixture 2%, the pressure force p_2 and the weight of the air-water mixture W_2 . Again, the shearing force on the interface between the upper layer and the lower layer is neglected.

The net efflux of x momentum from the control surface includes the difference between the efflux across the downstream face and the influx across the upstream face and also the influx across the interface.

The momentum integral equation can be written as $\frac{d}{dz} \int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} P_{m} u^{2} dy - U_{2} \frac{d}{dz} \int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} P_{m} u dy$ $= - \tau_{a} + \frac{d}{dz} \int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} P_{2} dy + \int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} P_{m} g S dy$ (7.26)

where P_m = mass density of air-water mixture u = velocity at a distance y from the interface U_2 = maximum velocity S_2 = thickness of upper layer C_a = shear stress on flow surface P_2 = pressure intensity S = sine functions of slope angle

g = gravitational constant

It has been assumed that, in the upper layer, the air concentration varies linearly from 0.5 at the interface to 1.0 at the flow surface (refer Section 7.21). The mass density of the air-water mixture is therefore

where C_y = air concentration at a distance y from the interface $\int \omega$ = mass density of water δ_z = thickness of upper layer

For a linear velocity distribution with a velocity at the surface equal to $(1 - K) U_2$ (Section 7.22), the velocity at a distance y from the interface equals

$$u = U_2 (1 - K - \frac{y}{\delta_2})$$
 (7.28)

The velocity gradient coefficient K is not a constant, but varies with distance. Near the critical point, the water droplets projected into the air preserves their initial momentum along the x-axis and the velocity of the water droplets is uniform over its small depth, i.e. zero value of K. Further downstream, the flow in the lower layer is accelerated by gravity, but the water droplets near the surface are subject to a drag by the air, resulting in an increasing velocity gradient and also an increasing value of K. Measurement of the velocity of aerated flow in the fully developed zone (Straub and Lamb, Ref. 1) showed that the velocity at the surface was about half of the maximum velocity, or K = 0.5. Since there is only meagre information regarding the velocity of the flow in the developing zone, it is assumed that the coefficient K varies with distance in the form

$$K = 0.5 \frac{R \delta}{R \delta t}$$
(7.29)

where K = velocity gradient coefficient

Rs = Reynolds number with respect to depth (= $\frac{U_1 \delta_2}{\gamma}$) Rs = terminal Reynolds number with respect to depth (= $\frac{T_2 \delta_{2t}}{\gamma}$) T₂ = terminal maximum velocity in the upper layer δ_{2t}^2 = terminal thickness of upper layer.

Substituting ho_{m} , u and K and integrating, the net efflux of x

momentum becomes

$$\frac{d}{dz} \int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} P_{m} u^{2} dy - U_{2} \frac{d}{dz} \int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} P_{m} u dy$$

$$= \frac{d}{24} P_{\omega} \frac{d}{dz} U_{2}^{2} \delta_{2} * (6 - 4K + K^{2})$$

$$- \frac{d}{24} P_{\omega} U_{2} \frac{d}{dz} U_{2} \delta_{2} (6 - 2K)$$
Let $R_{\delta} = -\frac{U_{2} \delta_{2}}{v}$
(7.30)

 $RS_{t} = \frac{T_{2} S_{2t}}{v}$ $W = \frac{RS}{RS_{t}}$

and

Equation (7.30) becomes

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} P_{m} u^{2} dy - U_{2} \frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} P_{m} u dy$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} P_{m} u^{2} dy - U_{2} \frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} P_{m} u dy$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} P_{m} u^{2} dy - U_{2} \frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} P_{m} u dy$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} P_{m} u^{2} dy - U_{2} \frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} P_{m} u dy$$

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$$= \frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} P_{m} u^{2} dy - U_{2} \frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} P_{m} u dy$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} P_{m} u^{2} dy + U_{2} \frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} \frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{\delta$$

In the upper layer, the pressure intensity

$$p_{2} = f_{m} g(\delta_{2} - y) \cos \theta$$

or $p_{2} = 0.5 f_{w} g \delta_{2} (1 - \frac{y}{\delta_{2}})^{2} \cos \theta$ (7.32)

and the pressure term in Equation (7.26)

$$\frac{d}{dz} \int_{0}^{b_{2}} p_{z} dy$$

$$= 0.5 P_{\omega} g \cos \theta \frac{d}{dz} \int_{0}^{b_{2}} \delta_{z} (1 - \frac{y}{\delta_{z}})^{2} dy$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} P_{\omega} g \cos \theta \frac{d}{dz} \delta_{z}^{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} P_{\omega} g \cos \theta \sqrt{2} \frac{d}{dz} \left(\frac{U_{z}^{2} \delta_{z}^{2}}{V^{2}} \times \frac{1}{U_{z}^{2}}\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \frac{P_{\omega} g \cos \theta \sqrt{2} R \delta_{z}^{2} W}{U_{z}^{2}} \frac{dW}{dz}$$

$$- \frac{1}{3} \frac{P_{\omega} g \cos \theta \sqrt{2} R \delta_{z}^{2} W^{2}}{U_{z}^{3}} \frac{dU_{z}}{dz}$$

(7.33)

Comparing the terms on the right hand side of Equation (7.33) to those on the right hand side of Equation (7.31), it can be seen that the terms in Equation (7.33) are much smaller than those in Equation (7.31), because in steep open channel flows depths are usually small and velocities are high. For example, assuming $\cos\theta = \frac{1}{2}$ (that is, $\theta = 60^{\circ}$), W = 1 (in the fully developed flow W = 1, and in the developing zone, W < 1), and $U_2 = T_2$ (T₂ being the terminal value of U_2), the magnitude of the terms in Equation (7.33) becomes $\frac{1}{6} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g \int_{-\infty}^{2} \frac{dW}{dx}$ and
59. $\frac{1}{6} \rho_{\omega} g \frac{\delta_{2t}}{T_2} \frac{dU_2}{dZ}$, and that in Equation (7.31) becomes $\frac{1.75}{24} \times$ $f_{\omega} T_{2}^{2} S_{2t} \frac{dW}{dZ}$ and $\frac{4.25}{24} f_{\omega} T_{2} S_{2t} \frac{dU_{2}}{dZ}$. When comparing the terms, the ratio of magnitude becomes 2.3 g $\frac{S_{2t}}{T_{2}^{2}}$ and 1.1g $\frac{\delta_{2L}}{T_{2}}$ for $\frac{dW}{dx}$ and $\frac{dU_{2}}{dx}$ respectively. In the experiments, δ_{2t} was about 0.2 ins (approximately 0.02 ft.) and T $_2$ about 25 ft./sec., and the magnitude of the terms in Equation (7.33) was less than half per cent of that in Equation (7.31). Therefore, the pressure term in the momentum equation (Equation 7.26) can be neglected.

The weight term in Equation (7.26) on integration becomes

$$\int_{0}^{\delta_{2}} Pm g S dy = \frac{1}{4} P\omega g S \delta_{2}$$
$$= \frac{1}{4} P\omega g S \dot{\nu} \frac{R\delta}{U_{2}}$$
(7.34)

Since there is no solid boundary, the flow in the upper layer is a According to Prandtl's mixing length theory, the free turbulent flow. shearing stress can be expressed as

$$\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{P}\ell^2 \left| \frac{du}{dy} \right| \frac{du}{dy} \tag{7.35}$$

In free turbulent flows, the mixing length $\boldsymbol{\ell}$ can be taken as a constant over a section of flow and proportional to the width of the flow at that section (Lin, Ref. 33, p. 144). Since $u = U_2 (1 - K \frac{y}{2})$, (Equation 7.28), $\frac{du}{dy} = -\frac{KU_2}{S_2}$ and Equation (7.35) becomes $\mathcal{T} = PA^2 \delta_2^2 \frac{\kappa^2 U_a^2}{\delta_2^2}$ (7.36)- PA2 K2 112

where A = proportional constant in ℓ = A δ_2

Alternatively, if a kinematic eddy viscosity is introduced, the shearing stress can be expressed as (Schlichting Ref. 34, p. 592),

$$\mathcal{I} = \mathcal{P}\mathcal{E} \frac{du}{dy} \tag{7.37}$$

with

$$\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{B} \, \mathcal{S}_2^{(U_{\text{max}} - U_{\text{min}})} \tag{7.38}$$

= B S2 K U2

where B is an empirical constant and $(U_{max} - U_{min}) = K U_2$. Substituting into Equation (7.37) we obtain

$$\varepsilon = \rho B \kappa^2 U_2^2 \tag{7.39}$$

It can be seen that Equations (7.36) and (7.39) are the same except for the two constants A^2 and B.

Now, it is further examined whether the mixing length theory with $\mathcal{L} = A \mathcal{S}_2$ or the use of a kinematic eddy viscosity with $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{B} \mathcal{S}_2 \times (U_{\max} - U_{\min})$ can be applied to the flow in the upper layer of the developing zone.

At the critical point, the projection of the water droplets depends on the turbulence level of the flow upstream. The mixing length theory with $\ell = A \delta_2$ requires a zero mixing and the use of $\mathcal{E} = B \delta_2 \times$ $(U_{\text{max}} - U_{\text{min}})$ also results in a zero kinematic eddy viscosity. Downstream of the critical point, there is a certain momentum flux across the interface and the flow in the upper layer would also be affected by the turbulence intensity of the flow in the lower layer.

Since the mixing length theory and the use of a kinematic eddy viscosity both lead to the same expression of the shearing stress in A terms of other characteristics of the flow (Equations 7.36 and 7.39), the following analysis concentrates only on the use of a kinematic eddy viscosity. In the investigation of instantaneous energy equilibrium of eddies in turbulent shear flows, before that the kinematic eddy viscosity is nearly constant over the whole width was established, Townsend (Ref. 32 p. 127) assumed the kinematic eddy viscosity to be a constant and compared his theory with experimental results. For the case under consideration, the same approach is used except that the eddy kinematic viscosity is assumed constant along the direction of the flow. The validity of this assumption will further be discussed in Section 7.42.

When the kinematic eddy viscosity is assumed to be constant and proportional to the kinematic viscosity of water, we have

$$\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{D} \mathcal{V} \tag{7.40}$$

where

 \mathcal{D} = proportional constant

 γ = kinematic viscosity of water.

In equation (7.37), if the mass density ho is taken to have the mean value of the mass density of the air-water mixture in the upper layer, we have $ho =
ho_m = \frac{1}{4}
ho_\omega$ and Equation (7.37) becomes

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{T} &= \int_{m}^{m} \mathcal{E} \frac{du}{dy} \\
&= \frac{1}{4} \int_{\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{D} \mathcal{Y} \frac{\mathcal{K} U_{2}}{\delta_{2}} \\
&= \frac{1}{4} \int_{\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{D} \frac{\mathcal{K} U_{3}^{2}}{\mathcal{R}_{5}^{2}} \\
&= \frac{1}{8} \int_{\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{D} \mathcal{W} \frac{U_{2}}{\mathcal{R}_{5}^{2}}
\end{aligned}$$

17.44

(7.41)

since
$$R \varsigma = \frac{U_2 \delta_2}{V}$$
 and $K = \frac{1}{2} \frac{R \delta}{R \delta_4} = \frac{1}{2} W$ (Equation 7.29).

Substituting all known quantities into Equation (7.26) and noting

$$\frac{dW}{dx} = \frac{dW}{dR_x} * \frac{dR_x}{dz}$$
$$= \frac{U_2 R_z}{\mathcal{V}(R_z - F_2)} \frac{dW}{dR_z}$$
$$\frac{dU_2}{dz} = \frac{F_2 U_2^2}{\mathcal{V}R_z} * \frac{1}{R_z - F_2}$$

and

the momentum equation becomes

$$(2W - 0.75 W^{2}) \times \frac{dW}{dR_{x}}$$

$$= \frac{3D}{R\delta_{c}^{2}} \times \frac{Rz - F_{z}}{Rz} + (6 - 2W + 0.25 W^{2}) \frac{F_{z}W}{Rz^{2}}$$

$$= \frac{69SV}{T_{z}^{3}} e^{3F_{z}/Rz} \times W \frac{Rz - F_{z}}{Rz}$$
(7.42)

The value of the proportional constant D can be determined when the flow approaches the fully developed zone. When R_x approaches infinity, both $\frac{dW}{dR_x}$ and $\frac{F_2}{R_x^2}$ approach zero and $\frac{R_x - F_2}{R_x}$, e^{3F_2/R_x} and W approach unity and the value of D is

$$D = \frac{2950}{T_2^3} R S_t^2$$
(7.43)

Substituting D back into Equation (7.42) the momentum equation finally becomes

$$(2W - 0.75W^{2}) \frac{dW}{dR_{x}}$$

$$\frac{69S\nu}{T_{z}^{3}} \frac{R_{z} - F_{z}}{R_{z}} + (6 - 2W + 0.25W^{2}) \frac{F_{z}W}{R_{z}^{3}}$$

$$- \frac{69S\nu}{T_{z}^{3}} e^{3F_{z}/R_{z}} \times W \frac{R_{z} - F_{z}}{R_{z}}$$

(7.44)

7.42 Experimental Verification

An inspection of Equation (7.44) reveals that, at the critical point where W = 0, $\frac{dW}{dR_x} = \infty$ since both the second and third termson the right hand side of the equation equal to zero but the first term remains finite. However, near the critical point where W remains small, the second and third terms on the right hand side of the equation are small compared with the first term. When these two terms are neglected, the equation becomes integrable resulting in

$$w^2$$
 - 0.25 w^3

$$= \frac{695\nu}{T_2^3} \left[(R_z - R_{z_0}) - F_2 (loge R_z - loge R_{z_0}) \right] (7.45)$$

where R_{xo} is the Reynolds number with respect to distance at the critical point and $R_x = R_{xo} + \Delta R_x$. For a given R_{xo} and a given ΔR_x , W is solved which in turn is used as the initial value of W in Equation (7.44) and the differential equation is then solved numerically by the fourth order Runge-Kutta method (Ref. 31) with the aid of a digital computer. The computer program, together with a sample of the results is shown in Appendix II.

The computer results show the value of W for the corresponding R_x values. At the experimental sections where U_2 , x and S_2 (i.e. R_x and R_s) are known, the terminal Reynolds number R_s (= R_s / W) and then the proportional constant D and also the kinematic eddy viscosity (from Equations 7.43 and 7.40) can be computed.

The computation results show that the kinematic eddy viscosity is not a constant but increases along the direction of the flow. When plotted against K $U_2 \delta_2$, as shown in Fig. 35, the computed values of \mathcal{E} lie within a narrow band. A best fit curve is drawn through the points with

$$\mathcal{E} = \Theta_{\circ} 415 \text{ K } U_2 S_2 + 0.011$$
 (7.46)

Further examination of Fig. 35 reveals two facts. The first one is that the kinematic eddy viscosity depends on the slope of the channel because most of the points for the 24[°] slope lie above the best fit curve and most of the points for the 18° slope below it. The second one is that for a particular flow, for example $\theta = 24^{\circ}$, Q = 2.20 c.f.s., or θ = 18°, Q = 2.20 c.f.s. the value of \mathcal{E} remains approximately constant below a certain value of K U $_{2}\delta$ $_{2}$ and then increases linearly with it. This indicates that at the starting stage, the flow in the upper layer is affected by the turbulence level of the flow upstream and also by the turbulent intensities of the flow in the lower layer. However, when an is used in each case for the computation of the average value of ε thickness of the layer (Figs, 36 and 37) the measured thickness is smaller for the sections close to the critical point because of smaller \mathcal{E} values and the measured thickness larger for sections further downstream be-のたまえや、 cause of larger \mathcal{E} values than the average. The flow profile for the upper layers is shown in Figs. 36 and 37.

8. Conclusions

As a result of this investigation, the following conclusions have been reached.

8.1: For a gravity flow down a steep open channel of sufficient length, the flow will consist of two regions, a region of pure water flow followed by a region of air water mixed flow. The region of air-water mixed flow will further be divided into two zones, the developing zone and the fully developed zone if the channel is sufficiently long. In the developing zone, both the velocity of the flow and the quantity of the entrained air increase with distance downstream until a uniform flow condition is reached in which both the velocity of the flow and the quantity of entrained air remain constant with distance further downstream (the fully developed zone).

8.2: In the developing zone, the flow will be divided into three layers: a layer of pure water near the bottom, a middle layer of air-water mixture with discrete air bubbles moving in the stream and a top layer of water droplets moving in a stream of air.

8.3: In the top layer, the distribution of the water droplets or alternatively the air concentration conforms to a function of the cumulative log normal distribution as shown by Equation 6.3.

8.4: In the middle layer, the distribution of the entrained air does not fit a simple relationship with other parameters of the flow. However,

experimental results show that the quantity of entrained air and the penetration of the air bubbles into the flow increase with distance downstream, resulting in an increasing thickness of this layer.

8.5: In the lower layer, the velocity of the flow follows a logarithmic law of velocity distribution. The velocity increases more rapidly with distance from the bed to a maximum in the lower layer of the air water mixture and then decreases sharply towards the flow surface.

8.6: In order to investigate the growth of the flow with distance in the developing zone, the flow was divided into two layers, the dividing line being the transition depth.

8.7: In the lower layer, since the experiments were conducted in a smooth flume, the quantity of entrained air is small and the bulking effect slight. This layer was treated as a boundary layer. The boundary drag (from Equations7.20 and 7.15) and the thickness of this layer (from Equation (7.16)) were calculated. The calculation shows that the thickness of this layer decreases with distance downstream which is confirmed by the experimental results (Figs. 33 and 34).

8.8: The top layer was treated as a free turbulent flow because there were no solid confining walls. A kinematic eddy viscosity was used to correlate the shearing stress with other characteristics of the flow (Equation 7.37). At the starting stage of the flow (i.e. close to the critical point), the top layer is influenced by the turbulence level of

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the flow upstream of the critical point and also of the flow in the lower layer. At distances far downstream, the kinematic eddy viscosity follows a relationship as suggested by Prandtl (Equation 7.38) for free turbulent flow.

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Figure 2: General view of the laboratory flume.







- 1. Tubes leading to manometer for discharge measurement in flume.
- 2. Tube leading to manometer for total head measurement.
- 3. Tube from high pressure feed.
- 4. Flume.
- 5. Air-water separation bottle.

- 6. Air release valve.
- 7. Air collecting cylinder.
- 8. To water collecting cylinder.
- 9. Pumping rate meter.
- 10. Positive displacement pump.
- 11. Tube leading from sampling probe.

Figure 4: General View of Apparatus Arrangement.



1. Flat Tip 2. Cylindrical Tip Figure 5: The pitot tubes.



Nozzle
 Pitot tube
 Air-water mixed jet
 Calibration of the pitot tube against an air-water mixed jet.





DETAILS OF HEAD



Air compresser. 2. Pressure gauge. 3. Thermometer. 4. Critical Flow Rate Meter.
 1" pump. 6. Nozzle. 7. Pitot tube. 8. Air-water mixed jet.

Figure 8: General view of device for producing air-water mixed jet.



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Figure 11: Relationship between measured and computed air concentration.



Figure 12: The dynamic head ($\theta = 24^{\circ}$, Q = 1.70 c.f.s.)



Figure 13: Velocity Profile ($\theta = 24^{\circ}$, Q = 1 70 c.f.s.)



Figure 14: Air concentration profile ($\theta = 24^{\circ}$, $\Theta = 1.70$ c.f.s.)



Figure 15: Air concentration profile (logarithmic - probability plot).

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Figure 16: Air concentration in upper region of developing flow (cumulative lognormal distribution).



Figure 17: Air concentration in upper region of fully developed flow.





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Figure 19: Air concentration in lower region of developing flow.

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Figure 20: Velocity profile (semi-logarithmic plot).



Figure 21: Longitudinal flow profile.





Figure 23: Velocity profiles.



Figure 24: Air concentration profiles.


Figure 25: Measured and assumed air concentration profile.



Figure 26: Measured and assumed velocity profile.

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FIGURE 27. MAXIMUM VELOCITY AS A FUNCTION OF REYNOLDS NUMBER



Figure 28: Maximum velocity as a function of distance from crest (lower layer $\theta = 18^{\circ}$)



Figure 29: Maximum velocity as a function of distance from crest (lower layer, $\theta = 24^{\circ}$)



Figure 30: Maximum velocity as a function of distance from crest (upper layer, $\theta = 18^{\circ}$)



Figure 31: Maximum velocity as a function of distance from crest (upper layer, $\theta = 24^{\circ}$)







Figure 33: Thickness of lower layer ($9 = 18^{\circ}$).



Fig. 34: Thickness of Lower Layer ($\theta = 24^{\circ}$).

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Figure 35: Kinematic eddy viscosity as a function of $\frac{\mathrm{KU}_2\,\delta_2}{\mathrm{S}_2}$





Figure 37: Thickness of the upper layer ($\theta = 24^{\circ}$)

APPENDIX I

COMPUTER PROGRAMME FOR LOWER LAYER $(\theta = 24^{\circ}, Q = 1.70 \text{ c.f.s.})$

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TABLE OF RESULTS

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RETNUS# 244.00000	LF 19.2/120	14 10 212	21 DEPEND 0.00/4/	
RET1015# 245. JUN	24 10.57147	10 230		12.4/94
RETNUSE 246.03300	ZF 10677697	14 10 267	09 DEDETNA 0 04304	AT 12.4/8/4
REYNUSE 241.00000	27 10.57048	UF 17.247		AF 12-2/80/
* RF FNUS 748.00000	19.30440	U# 19.207		A* 12•2//41
KETNUSE 249.00000	Z# 10.70947	114 10 206		AT 13.6/6/5
KETNUST 200.00000	L# 10.20591	US 17.270		A7 17.0/01/
RETNUSE 251.00000	22 10.208.32	07 19-212		A= 12.1/22 ·
REYNUS# 252.00000	12 10.20///	U= 19.324	40 UEPFINF U.33/03	AT 15-11488
RETNUSE 253.00000	2= 19-70/18	07 19.347	27 DEPENS J.82020	17 07474
REYNUS# 254.00000	27 10-20021	05 19.301		A= 12.97169
RETNUST 255.00000	25 10.20292	07 19.377		12 02212
REVNUS1 256.00000	Ze 10-20231	19.193	29 DEPEINS 0.87/51	A* 12.97223
REYNUS# 257.00000	2= 10-20467	0. 19.408	9/ IFPFINT U.95122	AT 10-02197
REYNUS# 258.00000	Z* 10.564C1	07 19.424	24 DEPFINE 0.04992	A# 10.0/14/
REVNUS: 259.00000	/= 10.56333	07 19.440		A= 10.12088
REYNUS# 260.00000	28 10.30203	07 19-422	20 UEPFINS U.84/32	AT 12-1/922
REYNOS# 261.00000	27 10.56196	07 19.470	61 UEPFIN7 9.84601	AT 10-21953
REYNUS# 262.00000	28 19.50125	U2 19.407	15 DEPFINE 9.84470	A= 10.2097/
REYNUS# 267.00000	Z= 10.56054	07 19.500	79 NEPEINE 0.84335	X 10-3100/
REYNOS# 264.00000	2* 10.55982	07 19-212	13 DEPFINE 0.84/07	A3 10-20522
REYNUSF 265.00000	Za 10.55909	0= 19.530	5/ HEPEINE J.840//	A# 10.41767
*REYNOS# 266.00000	Z# 10.55836	UF 19-545	31 DEPFINE 0.83944	A# 10-90/38
REYNUS# 267.00000	Z# 10.55761	0= 19-559	95 OFFFINE 0.8381	X# 10-71092
REYNUS# 268.70000	Z# 10.55686	U# 19.5/4	48 DEPEINE 0.83654	A2 10.55040
REYNUS# 769.00000	Z# 10.55611	03 19.588	93 DEPEINS 0.8337	A= 10.0107
REYNUS# 270.30003	Z# 10.55534	U# 19.603	27 DEPEINS 0.8442	X8 10.65558
REYNUS# 271.00000	Z# 10.55458	U# 19.61/	52 DEPENS 0.8324	A= 42+(1715
REYNDS# 272.00000	ZF 10.55381	U# 19.631	68 DEPFINE 9.84102	AT 10.16414
REYNOS# 273.00000	Z# 10.55303	0# 19.645	74 DEPEINE 9.83032	38 19-51411
REYNUS# 274.00000	Za 10.55225	U# 19.659	11 DEPEINE U.82402	14 10.00273
REYNUS# 275.00000	Z# 10.55147	U# 19.673	59 DEPEINE 0.82/14	AE 10-91374
REYNUS# 276.00000	Z# 10.55068	U# 19.68/	17 DEPFINE U. BZ04	AT 10.00210
REYNOS# 277.0(100	Z# 10.54989	0= 19.701	07 DEPEIN# 0.8251	A# 11-012/8
REYNOS# 278.00000	7# 10.54910	UE 19./14	68 NEPEINE 7.87320	
REVNOS# 279.00000	Z# 10.54831	U# 19.728	20 DEPEIN# 9.8227	
REYNDS# 280.00000	Z# 10.54752	U# 19.741	63 DEPTINE 0.82131	
REYNUS# 281. 10203	Z# 10.54672	0# 19.754	98 DEPEIN# 0.82004	
REYNUS# 282.00000	Z# 10.54593	U# 19.758	23 DEPEINE 0.81878	A* 1/./b102
. REYNUS# 293.00000	Z# 10.54513	U# 19.781	41 DEPFIN# 0.81752	A5 17+21270
REYNUS# 284.0000	Z4 10.54433	U# 19.794	50 DEPEIN# 0.8162	X= 17-36048
REYNOS 285.00000	Z# 19-54354	· U# 19.807	51 DEPEIN# 0.8150	X7 [7.91057 -
REYNUS #. 286.0000	2# 10.54274	U# 19.820	43 DEPFIN# 0.81370	A TE 17.45976
REYNDS# 287. K 000	Z 19.54194	U# 19.833	28 DEPETN# 0.81254	X 17.5.946
REYNUS= 288-00000	Z# 10.54115	U# 19.846	04 DEPEIN# 0.8113	X3 17:55917
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FYNOS# 290.00000	Z# 10.53956	U# 19.871	32 NEPFIN# 0.8098	X# 17.65961
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APPENDIX II

COMPUTER PROGRAMME FOR UPPER LAYER $(\theta = 24^{\circ}, Q = 1.70 \text{ c.f.s.})$

1 NM46	* PROGR 1H I * C 0 LUPR Y 0 C * F= * U= * U=	K, Y, LA S, PPCCRAM SUL FEPENIIAL ECC FR LAYER DF S U/REI. RC# 78 TANCE, F# 78 TANCE, F# 78 TANCE, F# 78 TANCE, F# 78 TANCE, F# 78 TANCE, F# 78 TAL CONSITIC NC 44 SUC 5.13FFC 5.13FFC	I, PAGES VFS RY DATION FLF-ACI EYNOLDS TAPDATI APDATI CAPDATI CAPDATI CAPDATI CAPDATI CAPBACA VIS NEAL	#50,TINE#3 FAJRTH OF FUNTP,N647 NG, W.R.T PTH, R70R SCOSITYC* AV. CONST. 0,E,F,G,H CRITICAL	3, KP., 26 OER. RUN UW/DR< IN DEV: REVNDX (*1C*** 102*** 102*** 0, 5#SIN C,P,Q,F PCINT	IG - CO A LO /ELO /44 + 1 (45 - 5 /2 /2 /2 /2 /2 /2 /2 /2 /2 /2 /2 /2 /2	KUTIA METHOD CALCULATE D PING ZONE. NI 04*47-54, ROT VNCLOS NO. W X#FIST. IN i 04762COCITY, ETAC, THETA; T,U,Y,W,X,Y,	THE EPTH OF ITATIONS. *7TERMIN/ R.T.FRCM CHTERMIN SLOPE ANG Z)	άι VAL SLE,
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7174 37890 12 37890 12 3789 444 444 445	40 T4 REY W=W PEL L=C C FND 2000 FOR 30CC CUN SCATA BASIC CATA	H*FLV(R3,w3) +(11+2.CDO+T2 FF SCLVRG [=FREYNCX =EXP(RG1) /TEL FCC LCALCCA FCC ALCA STTC 5,TCC FCC ALCA TTALE 6#1.70 CFS,	2+2.000 GUATIO JLATION VRCX,W, YNOX#0 X#0,F	*T3+T4)/6 . GO (N 1 5, PR INT F UA (A 1 C 5, T3) (0 .5< 24 DEGREES	CDG CCALCU RESULTS	h#	E VELOCITY AM	ND DISTAN	NCE
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Acknowledgements.

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