

CHAPTER SEVEN

Advective diffusion of air bubbles in turbulent water flows

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ABSTRACT

Air bubble entrainment is defined as the exchange of air between the atmosphere and flowing water. Also called self-aeration, the continuous exchange between air and water is most important for the biological and chemical equilibrium on our planet. Air bubble entrainment is observed in chemical, coastal, hydraulic, mechanical and nuclear engineering applications as well as in the natural environment such as waterfalls, mountain streams and river rapids, and breaking waves on the ocean surface. The resulting "white waters" provide some spectacular effects. The entrainment of air bubbles may be localised at a flow discontinuity or continuous along an air-water free-surface: i.e., singular and interfacial aeration respectively. At a flow singularity, the air bubbles are entrained locally at the impinging perimeter and advected in a region of high turbulent shear stresses. The interfacial aeration is the air bubble entrainment process along an air-water interface which is parallel to the flow direction. The onset of air bubble entrainment may be expressed in terms of the tangential Reynolds stress and the fluid properties. Once self-aeration takes place, the distributions of void fraction may be modelled by some analytical solutions of the advective diffusion equation for air bubbles. The microscopic structure of turbulent bubbly flows is complex and a number of examples are discussed. The results reveal the turbulent nature of the complex two-phase flows and the complicated interactions between entrained air bubbles and turbulence.

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The exchange of air between the atmosphere and flowing water is usually called air entrainment, air bubble entrainment or self-aeration. The continuous exchange between air and water is most important for the biological and chemical equilibrium on our planet. For example, the air-water mass transfer at the surface of the oceans regulates the composition of the atmosphere. The aeration process drives the exchange of nitrogen, oxygen and carbon dioxide between the atmosphere and the sea, in particular the dissolution of carbon dioxide into the oceans and the release of supersaturated oxygen to the atmosphere. Another form of flow aeration is the entrainment of un-dissolved air bubbles at the air-water free-surface. Air bubble entrainment is observed in chemical, coastal, hydraulic, mechanical and nuclear engineering applications. In Nature, air bubble entrainment is observed at waterfalls, in mountain streams and river rapids, and in breaking waves on the ocean surface. The resulting "white waters" provide some spectacular effects (Fig. 7.1 to 7.4). Figures 7.1 to 7.3 illustrates the air bubble entrainment in hydraulic structures during river floods, and



Figure 7.1. Air bubble entrainment on the Wivenhoe Dam spillway (Qld, Australia) on 17 January 2011.



Figure 7.2. Air bubble entrainment downstream of Burdekin Falls Dam (Qld, Australia) in February 2009 (Courtesy of Queensland Department of Environment and Mineral Resources (DERM, Dam Safety) and David Li) – Looking upstream at the chute flow and aerated jet formation at spillway toe – Note the “brownish” dark colour of the flow caused by the suspended load and the “white” waters downstream of the spillway toe highlighting the air bubble entrainment.



Figure 7.3. Free-surface aeration during the overtopping of Mount Crosby weir and bridge (Qld, Australia) on 17 Jan. 2011 – Flow direction from left to right.



Figure 7.4. Air entrainment at wave breaking – Honeymoon Bay, Moreton Island (Qld, Australia) on 7 July 2011 (Shutter speed 1/500 s).

Figure 7.4 presents some air bubble entrainment at a plunging breaking wave. Note that the free-surface aeration in large systems may be seen from space (Chanson 2008).

Herein we define air bubble entrainment as the entrainment or entrapment of un-dissolved air bubbles and air pockets that are advected within the flowing waters. The term air bubble is used broadly to describe a volume of air surrounded continuously or not by some liquid and encompassed within some air-water interface(s). The resulting air-water mixture consists of both air packets within water and water droplets surrounded by air, and the flow structure may be quite complicated.

Further the entrainment of air bubbles may be localised at a flow discontinuity or continuous along an air-water free-surface: i.e., singular or interfacial aeration respectively. Examples of singular aeration include the air bubble entrainment by a vertical plunging jet. Air bubbles are entrained locally at the intersection of the impinging water jet with the receiving body of water. The impingement perimeter is a source of both vorticity and air bubbles. Interfacial aeration is defined as the air bubble entrainment process along an air-water interface, usually parallel to the flow direction. It is observed in spillway chute flows and in high-velocity water jets discharging into air.

After a review of the basic mechanisms of air bubble entrainment in turbulent water flows, it will be shown that the void fraction distributions may be modelled by some analytical solutions of the advective diffusion equation for air bubbles. Later the micro-structure of the air-water flow will be discussed and it will be argued that the interactions between entrained air bubbles and turbulence remain a key challenge.

7.2 FUNDAMENTAL PROCESSES

7.2.1 Inception of air bubble entrainment

The inception of air bubble entrainment characterises the flow conditions at which some bubble entrainment starts. Historically the inception conditions were expressed in terms of a time-averaged velocity. It was often assumed that air entrainment occurs when the flow velocity exceeds an onset velocity V_e of about 1 m/s. The approach is approximate and it does not account for the complexity of the flow nor the turbulence properties. More detailed studies linked the onset of air entrainment with a characteristic level of normal Reynolds stress(es) next to the free-surface. For example, Ervine and Falvey (1987) and Chanson (1993) for interfacial aeration, Cummings and Chanson (1999) for plunging jet aeration, Brocchini and Peregrine (2001). Although present knowledge remains empirical and often superficial, it is thought that the inception of air entrainment may be better described in terms of tangential Reynolds stresses.

In turbulent shear flows, the air bubble entrainment is caused by the turbulence acting next to the air-water interface. Through this interface, air is continuously being trapped and released, and the resulting air-water mixture may extend to the entire flow. Air bubble entrainment occurs when the turbulent shear stress is large enough to overcome both surface tension and buoyancy effects (if any). Experimental evidences showed that the free-surface of turbulent flows exhibits some surface "undulations" with a fine-grained turbulent structure and larger underlying eddies. Since the turbulent energy is high in small eddy lengths close to the free surface, air bubble entrainment may result from the action of high intensity turbulent shear close to the air-water interface.

Free-surface breakup and bubble entrainment will take place when the turbulent shear stress is greater than the surface tension force per unit area resisting the surface breakup. That is:

$$|\rho_w \times v_i \times v_j| > \sigma \times \frac{\pi \times (r_1 + r_2)}{A} \quad \text{inception of air entrainment (7.1)}$$

where ρ_w is the water density, v is the turbulent velocity fluctuation, (i, j) is the directional tensor $(i, j = x, y, z)$, σ is the surface tension between air and water, $\pi \times (r_1 + r_2)$ is the perimeter along which surface tension acts, r_1 and r_2 are the two principal radii of curvature of the free surface deformation, and A is surface deformation area. Equation (7.1) gives a criterion for the onset of free-surface aeration in terms of the magnitude of the instantaneous tangential Reynolds stress, the air/water physical properties and the free-surface deformation

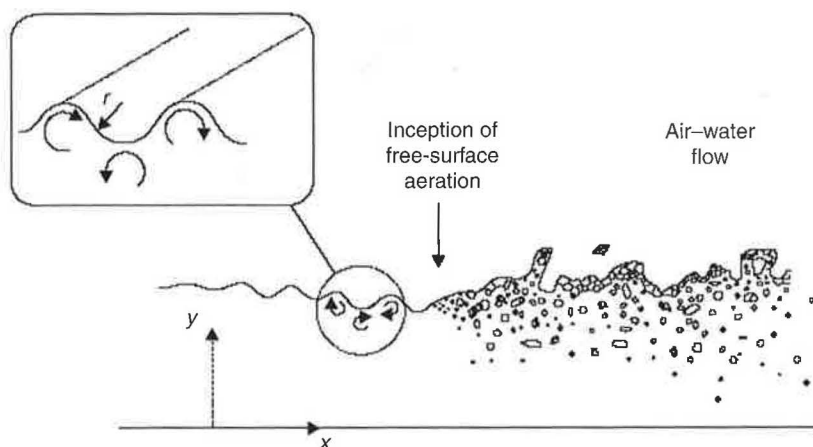


Figure 7.5. Inception of free-surface aeration in a two-dimensional flow.

properties. Simply air bubbles cannot be entrained across the free-surface until there is sufficient tangential shear relative to the surface tension force per unit area.

Considering a two-dimensional flow for which the vortical structures next to the free-surface have axes predominantly perpendicular to the flow direction, the entrained bubbles may be schematised by cylinders of radius r (Fig. 7.5). Equation (7.1) may be simplified into:

$$|\rho_w \times v_i \times v_j| > \frac{\sigma}{\pi \times r} \quad \text{cylindrical bubbles (7.2a)}$$

where x and y are the streamwise and normal directions respectively. For a three-dimensional flow with quasi-isotropic turbulence, the smallest interfacial area per unit volume of air is the sphere (radius r), and Equation (1) gives:

$$|\rho_w \times v_i \times v_j| > \frac{\sigma}{2 \times \pi \times r} \quad \text{spherical bubbles (7.2b)}$$

Equation (7.2) shows that the inception of air bubble entrainment takes place in the form of relatively large bubbles. But the largest bubbles will be detrained by buoyancy and this yields some preferential sizes of entrained bubbles, observed to be about 1 to 100 mm in prototype turbulent flows (e.g. Cain 1978, Chanson 1993, 1997).

7.2.2 Bubble breakup

The size of entrained air bubbles in turbulent shear flows is an important parameter affecting the interactions between turbulence and air bubbles. Next to the entrainment point, a region of strong mixing and momentum losses exists in which the entrained air is broken into small bubbles while being diffused within the air-water flow.

At equilibrium, the maximum bubble size in shear flows may be estimated by the balance between the surface tension force and the inertial force caused by the velocity changes over distances of the order of the bubble size. Some simple dimensional analysis yielded a criterion for bubble breakup (Hinze 1955). The result is however limited to some equilibrium situations and it is often not applicable (Chanson 1997, pp. 224–229).

In air-water flows, experimental observations of air bubbles showed that the bubble sizes are larger than the Kolmogorov microscale and smaller than the turbulent macroscale. These observations suggested that the length scale of eddies responsible for breaking up the bubbles is close to the bubble size. Larger eddies advect the bubbles while eddies with length-scales substantially smaller than the bubble size do not have the necessary energy to break up air bubbles.

In turbulent flows, the bubble break-up occurs when the tangential shear stress is greater than the capillary force per unit area. For a spherical bubble, it yields a condition for bubble breakup:

$$|\rho_w \times v_i \times v_j| > \frac{\sigma}{\pi \times d_{ab}} \quad \text{spherical bubble (7.3a)}$$

where d_{ab} is the bubble diameter. Equation (7.3a) holds for a spherical bubble and the left handside term is the magnitude of the instantaneous tangential Reynolds stress. More generally, for an elongated spheroid, bubble breakup takes place for:

$$|\rho_w \times v_i \times v_j| > \sigma \times \frac{\pi \times (r_1 + r_2)}{2 \times \pi \times r_1 \times \left(r_1 + r_2 \times \frac{\text{Arcsin} \left(\sqrt{1 - \frac{r_1^2}{r_2^2}} \right)}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{r_1^2}{r_2^2}}} \right)} \quad \text{elongated spheroid (7.3b)}$$

where r_1 and r_2 are the equatorial and polar radii of the ellipsoid respectively with $r_2 > r_1$. Equation (7.3b) implies that some turbulence anisotropy (e.g. $v_x, v_y \gg v_z$) must induce some preferential bubble shapes.

7.3 ADVECTIVE DIFFUSION OF AIR BUBBLES. BASIC EQUATIONS

7.3.1 Presentation

Turbulent flows are characterised by a substantial amount of air-water mixing at the interfaces. Once entrained, the air bubbles are diffused through the flow while they are advected downstream. Herein their transport by advection and diffusion are assumed two separate additive processes; and the theory of superposition is applicable.

In the bubbly flow region, the air bubble diffusion transfer rate in the direction normal to the advective direction varies directly as the negative gradient of concentration. The scalar is the entrained air and its concentration is called the void fraction C defined as the volume of air per unit volume of air and water. Assuming a steady, quasi-one-dimensional flow, and for a small control volume, the continuity equation for air in the air-water flow is:

$$\text{div}(C \times \vec{V}) = \text{div}(D_t \times \overrightarrow{\text{grad}} C - C \times \vec{u}_r) \quad (7.4)$$

where C is the void fraction, \vec{V} is the advective velocity vector, D_t is the air bubble turbulent diffusivity and \vec{u}_r is the bubble rise velocity vector that takes into account the effects of

buoyancy. Equation (7.4) implies a constant air density, neglects compressibility effects, and is valid for a steady flow situation.

Equation (7.4) is called the advective diffusion equation. It characterises the air volume flux from a region of high void fraction to one of smaller air concentration. The first term ($C \times V$) is the advective flux while the right handside term is the diffusive flux. The latter includes the combined effects of transverse diffusion and buoyancy. Equation (7.4) may be solved analytically for a number of basic boundary conditions. Mathematical solutions of the diffusion equation were addressed in two classical references (Carslaw and Jaeger 1959, Crank 1956). Since Equation (7.4) is linear, the theory of superposition may be used to build up solutions with more complex problems and boundary conditions. Its application to air-water flows was discussed by Wood (1984, 1991) and Chanson (1988, 1997).

7.3.2 Buoyancy effects on submerged air bubbles

When air bubbles are submerged in a liquid, a net upward force is exerted on each bubble. That is, the buoyancy force which is the vertical resultant of the pressure forces acting on the bubble. The buoyant force equals the weight of displaced liquid.

The effects of buoyancy on a submerged air bubble may be expressed in terms of the bubble rise velocity u_r . For a single bubble rising in a fluid at rest and in a steady state, the motion equation of the rising bubble yields an exact balance between the buoyant force (upwards), the drag force (downwards) and the weight force (downwards). The expression of the buoyant force may be derived from the integration of the pressure field around the bubble and it is directly proportional to minus the pressure gradient $\partial P / \partial z$ where P is the pressure and z is the vertical axis positive upwards. In a non-hydrostatic pressure gradient, the rise velocity may be estimated to a first approximation as:

$$u_r = \pm (u_r)_{Hyd} \times \sqrt{\frac{\left| \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} \right|}{\rho_w \times g}} \quad (7.5)$$

where $(u_r)_{Hyd}$ is the bubble rise velocity in a hydrostatic pressure gradient (Fig. 7.6), ρ_w is the liquid density, herein water, and z is the vertical direction positive upwards. The sign of the rise velocity u_r depends on the sign of $\partial P / \partial z$. For $\partial P / \partial z < 0$, u_r is positive. Experimental results of bubble rise velocity in still water are reported in Figure 7.6. Relevant references include Haberman and Morton (1954) and Comolet (1979a,b).

7.3.3 A simple application

Let us consider a two-dimensional steady open channel flow down a steep chute (Fig. 7.7). The advective diffusion equation becomes:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(V_x \times C) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(V_y \times C) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(D_t \times \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(D_t \times \frac{\partial C}{\partial y} \right) \\ &\quad - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (-u_r \times \sin \theta \times C) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (u_r \times \cos \theta \times C) \end{aligned} \quad (7.6)$$

where θ is the angle between the horizontal and the channel invert, x is the streamwise direction and y is the transverse direction (Fig. 7.7). In the uniform equilibrium flow region,

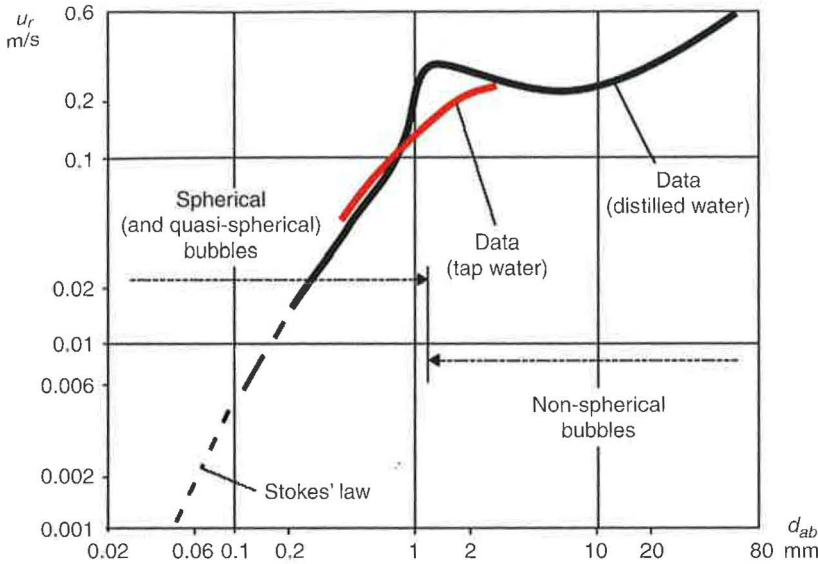


Figure 7.6. Bubble rise velocity in still water.

the gravity force component in the flow direction is counterbalanced exactly by the friction and drag force resultant. Hence $\partial/\partial x = 0$ and $V_y = 0$. Equation (7.6) yields:

$$0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(D_t \times \frac{\partial C}{\partial y} \right) - \cos \theta \times \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (u_r \times C) \quad (7.7)$$

where D_t is basically the diffusivity in the direction normal to the flow direction.

At a distance y from the invert, the fluid density is $\rho = \rho_w \times (1 - C)$ where C is the local void fraction. Hence the expression of the bubble rise velocity (Eq. (7.5)) becomes:

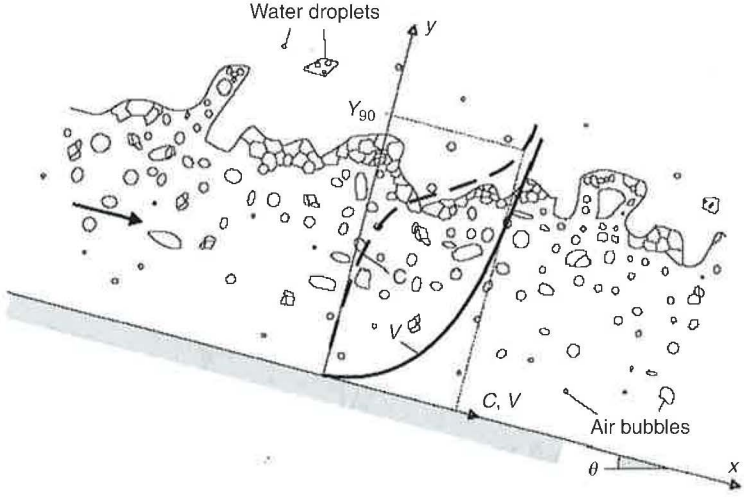
$$u_r = (u_r)_{Hyd} \times \sqrt{1 - C} \quad (7.8)$$

Equation (7.8) gives the rise velocity in a two-phase flow mixture of void fraction C as a function of the rise velocity in hydrostatic pressure gradient. The buoyant force is smaller in aerated waters than in clear-water. For example, a heavy object might sink faster in "white waters" because of the lesser buoyancy.

The advective diffusion equation for air bubbles may be rewritten in dimensionless terms:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y'} \left(D' \times \frac{\partial C}{\partial y'} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial y'} (C \times \sqrt{1 - C}) \quad (7.7b)$$

where $y' = y/Y_{90}$, Y_{90} is the characteristic distance where $C = 0.90$, $D' = D_t / ((u_r)_{Hyd} \times \cos \theta \times Y_{90})$ is a dimensionless turbulent diffusivity and the rise velocity in hydrostatic pressure gradient $(u_r)_{Hyd}$ is assumed a constant. D' is the ratio of the air bubble diffusion coefficient to the rise velocity component normal to the flow direction time the characteristic transverse dimension of the shear flow.



(A) Definition sketch.



(B) Self-aeration down Jordan weir on Lockyer Creek (Qld, Australia) on March 2011 (shutter speed: 1/8,000 s).

Figure 7.7. Self-aeration in a high-velocity open channel flow.

A first integration of Equation (7.7) leads to:

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial y'} = \frac{1}{D'} \times C \times \sqrt{1 - C} \tag{7.9}$$

Assuming a homogeneous turbulence across the flow ($D' = \text{constant}$), a further integration yields:

$$C = 1 - \tanh^2 \left(K' - \frac{y'}{2 \times D'} \right) \quad (7.10)$$

where K' is an integration constant and $\tanh(x)$ is the hyperbolic tangent function. The void fraction distribution (Eq. (7.10)) is a function of two constant parameters: the dimensionless diffusivity D' and the dimensionless constant K' . A relationship between D' and K' is deduced at the boundary condition $C = 0.90$ at $y' = 1$:

$$K' = K^* + \frac{1}{2 \times D'} \quad (7.11)$$

where $K^* = \tanh^{-1}(\sqrt{0.1}) = 0.32745015\dots$ If the diffusivity is unknown, it can be deduced from the depth averaged void fraction C_{mean} defined as:

$$C_{mean} = \int_0^1 C \times dy' \quad (7.12)$$

It yields:

$$C_{mean} = 2 \times D' \times \left(\tanh \left(K^* + \frac{1}{2 \times D'} \right) - \tanh(K^*) \right) \quad (7.13)$$

7.4 ADVECTIVE DIFFUSION OF AIR BUBBLES. ANALYTICAL SOLUTIONS

In turbulent shear flows, the air bubble entrainment processes differ substantially between singular aeration and interfacial aeration. Singular (local) air entrainment is localised at a flow discontinuity: e.g., the intersection of the impinging water jet with the receiving body of water. The air bubbles are entrained locally at the flow singularity: e.g., the toe of a hydraulic jump or at the impact of a plunging breaking wave (Fig. 7.4). The impingement perimeter is a source of air bubbles as well as a source of vorticity. Interfacial (continuous) aeration takes place along an air-water free-surface, usually parallel to the flow direction: e.g., spillway chute flow (Fig. 7.7). Across the free-surface, air is continuously entrapped and detained, and the entrained air bubbles are advected in regions of relatively low shear.

In the following paragraphs, some analytical solutions of Equation (7.4) are developed for both singular and interfacial air entrainment processes.

7.4.1 Singular aeration

7.4.1.1 Air bubble entrainment at vertical plunging jets

Considering a vertical plunging jet, air bubbles may be entrained at impingement and carried downwards below the pool free surface (Fig. 7.8). This process is called plunging jet entrainment. In chemical engineering, plunging jets are used to stir chemicals as well as to increase gas-liquid mass transfer. Plunging jet devices are used also in industrial processes (e.g. bubble flotation of minerals) while planar plunging jets are observed at dam spillways

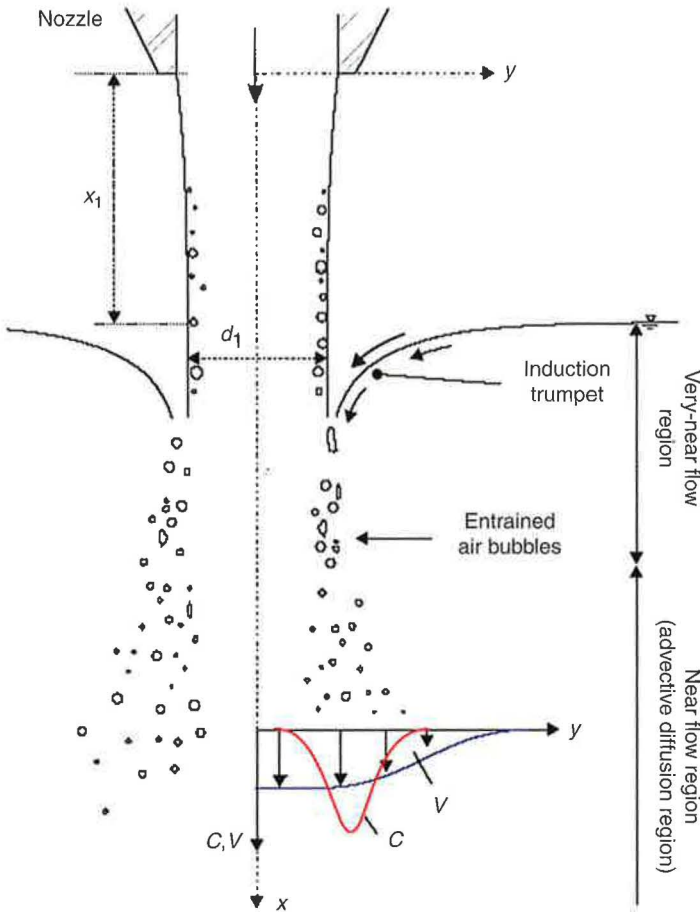


Figure 7.8. Advection of air bubbles downstream of the impingement of a vertical plunging jet.

and overfall drop structures. A related flow situation is the plunging breaking wave in the ocean (Fig. 7.3).

The air bubble diffusion at a plunging liquid jet is a form of advective diffusion. For a small control volume and neglecting the buoyancy effects, the continuity equation for air bubbles becomes:

$$\text{div}(C \times \vec{V}) = \text{div}(D_t \times \text{grad } C) \quad (7.14)$$

In Equation (7.14), the bubble rise velocity term may be neglected because the jet velocity is much larger than the rise velocity.

For a circular plunging jet, assuming an uniform velocity distribution, for a constant diffusivity (in the radial direction) independent of the longitudinal location and for a small control volume delimited by streamlines (i.e. stream tube), Equation (7.14) becomes a simple advective diffusion equation:

$$\frac{V_1}{D_t} \times \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{r} \times \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(y \times \frac{\partial C}{\partial y} \right) \quad (7.15)$$

where x is the longitudinal direction, y is the radial distance from the jet centreline, V_1 is the jet impact velocity and the diffusivity term D_t averages the effects of the turbulent diffusion and of the longitudinal velocity gradient.

The boundary conditions are: $C(x < x_1, y \leq d_1/2) = 0$ and a circular source of total strength Q_{air} at $(x - x_1 = 0, y = d_1/2)$ where d_1 is the jet diameter at impact (Fig. 7.8). Equation (7.15) can be solved analytically by applying a superposition method. The general solution of the advective diffusion equation is:

$$C = \frac{Q_{air}}{Q_w} \times \frac{1}{4 \times D^\# \times \frac{x - x_1}{d_1/2}} \times \exp \left(-\frac{1}{4 \times D^\#} \times \frac{\left(\frac{y}{d_1/2} \right)^2 + 1}{\frac{x - x_1}{d_1/2}} \right) \times I_0 \left(\frac{1}{2 \times D^\#} \times \frac{\frac{y}{d_1/2}}{\frac{x - x_1}{d_1/2}} \right) \quad \text{Circular plunging jet (7.16)}$$

where I_0 is the modified Bessel function of the first kind of order zero and $D^\# = D_t / (V_1 \times d_1/2)$.

For a two-dimensional free-falling jet, the air bubbles are entrapped at the point sources $(x = x_1, y = +d_1/2)$ and $(x = x_1, y = -d_1/2)$. Assuming an uniform velocity distribution, for a diffusion coefficient independent of the transverse location and for a small control volume (dx, dy) limited between two streamlines, the continuity equation (Eq. (7.14)) becomes a two-dimensional diffusion equation:

$$\frac{V_1}{D_t} \times \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial y^2} \quad (7.17)$$

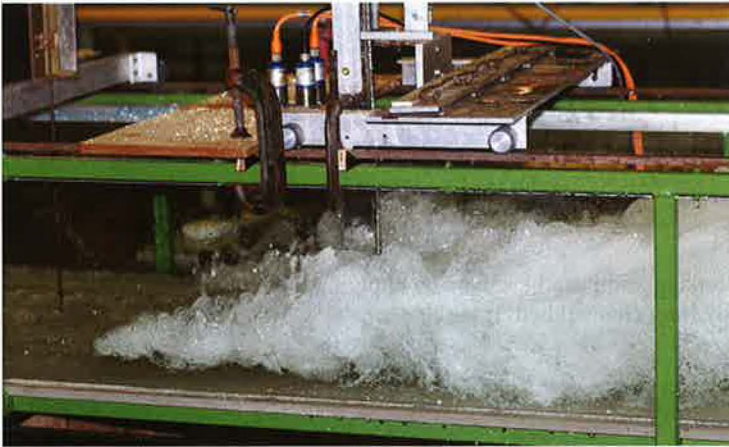
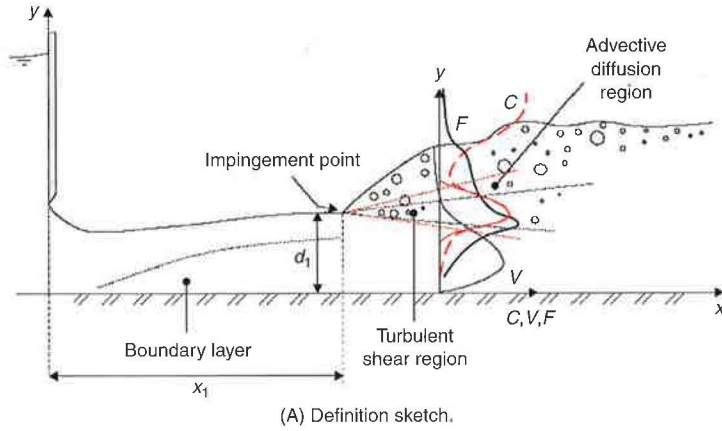
where y is the distance normal to the jet centreline (Fig. 7.8). The problem can be solved by superposing the contribution of each point source. The solution of the diffusion equation is:

$$C = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{Q_{air}}{Q_w} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{4 \times \pi \times D^\# \times \frac{x - x_1}{d_1}}} \times \left(\exp \left(-\frac{1}{4 \times D^\#} \times \frac{\left(\frac{y}{d_1} - 1 \right)^2}{\frac{x - x_1}{d_1}} \right) + \exp \left(-\frac{1}{4 \times D^\#} \times \frac{\left(\frac{y}{d_1} + 1 \right)^2}{\frac{x - x_1}{d_1}} \right) \right) \quad \text{Two-dimensional plunging jet (7.18)}$$

where Q_{air} is the entrained air flow rate, Q_w is the water flow rate, d_1 is the jet thickness at impact, and $D^\#$ is a dimensionless diffusivity: $D^\# = D_t / (V_1 \times d_1)$.

Discussion

Equations (7.16) and (7.18) are the exact analytical solutions of the advective diffusion of air bubbles (Eq. (7.18)). The two-dimensional and axi-symmetrical solutions differ because of the boundary conditions and of the integration method. Both solutions are three-dimensional



(B) Hydraulic jump in a rectangular channel ($V_1/\sqrt{g \times d_1} = 6.5$, $\rho_w \times V_1 \times d_1/\mu_w = 1.5 \text{ E} + 5$) - Flow from left to right.



(C) Hydraulic jump downstream of Moree weir (NSW, Australia) on 16 December 1997 during some runoff - Flow from top left to bottom right.

Figure 7.9. Advection of air bubbles in hydraulic jumps.

solutions valid in the developing bubbly region and in the fully-aerated flow region. They were successfully compared with a range of experimental data.

7.4.1.2 Air bubble entrainment in a horizontal hydraulic jump

A hydraulic jump is the sudden transition from a supercritical flow into a slower, subcritical motion (Fig. 7.9). It is characterised by strong energy dissipation, spray and splashing and air bubble entrainment. The hydraulic jump is sometimes described as the limiting case of a horizontal supported plunging jet.

Assuming an uniform velocity distribution, for a constant diffusivity independent of the longitudinal and transverse location, Equation (7.14) becomes:

$$V_1 \times \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} + u_r \times \frac{\partial C}{\partial y} = D_t \times \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial y^2} \quad (7.19)$$

where V_1 is the inflow velocity and the rise velocity is assumed constant. With a change of variable ($X = x - x_1 + u_r/V_1 \times y$) and assuming $u_r/V_1 \ll 1$, Equation (7.19) becomes a two-dimensional diffusion equation:

$$\frac{V_1}{D_t} \times \frac{\partial C}{\partial X} = \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial y^2} \quad (7.20)$$

In a hydraulic jump, the air bubbles are supplied by a point source located at ($X = u_r/V_1 \times d_1, y = +d_1$) and the strength of the source is Q_{air}/W where W is the channel width.

The diffusion equation can be solved by applying the method of images and assuming an infinitesimally long channel bed. It yields:

$$C = \frac{Q_{air}}{Q_w} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{4 \times \pi \times D^\# \times X'}} \times \left(\exp\left(-\frac{1}{4 \times D^\#} \times \frac{\left(\frac{y}{d_1} - 1\right)^2}{X'}\right) + \exp\left(-\frac{1}{4 \times D^\#} \times \frac{\left(\frac{y}{d_1} + 1\right)^2}{X'}\right) \right) \quad (7.21)$$

where d_1 is the inflow depth, $D^\#$ is a dimensionless diffusivity: $D^\# = D_t/(V_1 \times d_1)$ and:

$$X' = \frac{X}{d_1} = \frac{x - x_1}{d_1} \times \left(1 + \frac{u_r}{V_1} \times \frac{y}{x - x_1}\right)$$

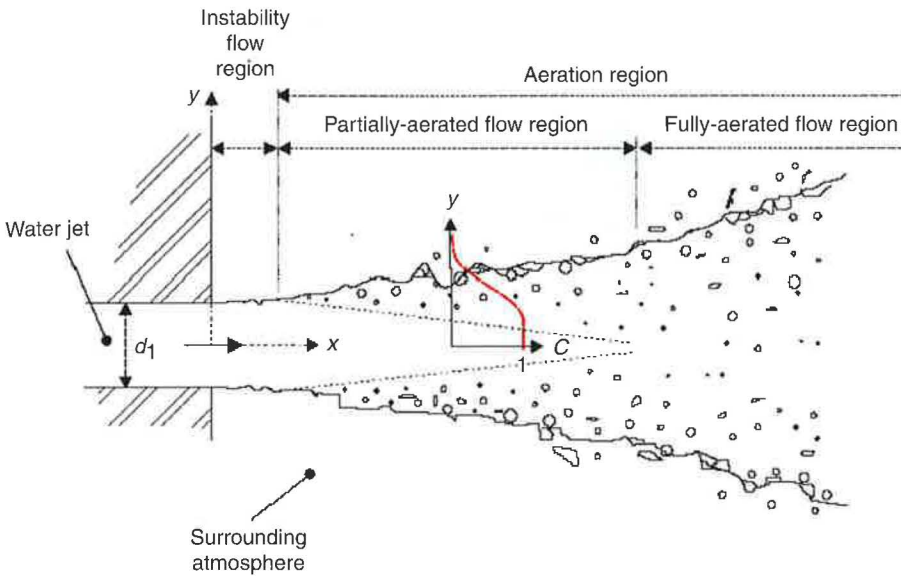
Equation (7.21) is close to Equation (7.18) but the distribution of void fraction is shifted upwards as a consequence of some buoyancy effect. Further the definition of d_1 differs (Fig. 7.9). In practice, Equation (7.21) provides a good agreement with experimental data in the advective diffusion region of hydraulic jumps with partially-developed inflow conditions.

7.4.2 Interfacial aeration

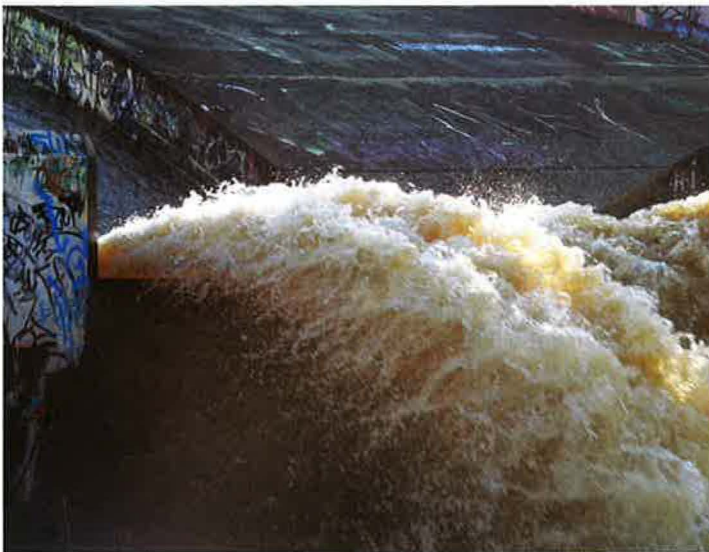
7.4.2.1 Interfacial aeration in a water jet discharging into the atmosphere

High velocity turbulent water jets discharging into the atmosphere are often used in hydraulic structures to dissipate energy. Typical examples include jet flows downstream of a ski jump

at the toe of a spillway, water jets issued from bottom outlets, flows above a bottom aeration device along a spillway and water jets in fountains (Fig. 7.10). Other applications include mixing devices in chemical plants and spray devices. High-velocity water jets are used also for fire-fighting jet cutting (e.g. coal mining), with Pelton turbines and for irrigation.



(A) Definition sketch.



(B) High-velocity water jet taking off the flip bucket of Lake Kurungbah Dam spillway (Qld, Australia) on 22 May 2009 during a low overflow event.

Figure 7.10. Advective dispersion of air bubbles in a turbulent water jet discharging into air.



(C) Vertical water jet (Jet d'eau) at the Bassin de l'Obélisque, Château de Versailles (France) on 20 June 1998 – Designed between 1704 and 1705 by Jules Hardouin-Mansart.

Figure 7.10. Continued

Considering a water jet discharging into air, the pressure distribution is quasi-uniform across the jet and the buoyancy effect is zero in most cases. For a small control volume, the advective diffusion equation for air bubbles in a steady flow is:

$$\text{div}(C \times \vec{V}) = \text{div}(D_t \times \overrightarrow{\text{grad}} C) \quad (7.14)$$

For a circular water jet, the continuity equation for air becomes:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(C \times V_1) = \frac{1}{y} \times \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(D_t \times y \times \frac{\partial C}{\partial y} \right) \quad (7.22)$$

where x is the longitudinal direction, y is the radial direction, V_1 is the jet velocity and D_t is the turbulent diffusivity in the radial direction.

Assuming a constant diffusivity D_t in the radial direction, and after separating the variables, the void fraction:

$$C = u \times \exp \left(-\frac{D_t}{V_1} \times \alpha_n^2 \times x \right)$$

is a solution of the continuity equation provided that u is a function of y only satisfying the Bessel's equation of order zero:

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{1}{y} \times \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \alpha_n^2 \times u = 0 \quad (7.23)$$

At each position x , the diffusivity D_t is assumed a constant independent of the transverse location y . The boundary conditions are $C = 0.9$ at $y = Y_{90}$ for $x > 0$ and for $C = 0$ for $x < 0$. An analytical solution is a series of Bessel functions:

$$C = 0.9 - \frac{1.8}{Y_{90}} \times \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{J_0(y \times \alpha_n)}{\alpha_n \times J_1(Y_{90} \times \alpha_n)} \times \exp\left(-\frac{D_t}{V_1} \times \alpha_n^2 \times x\right) \quad (7.24)$$

where J_0 is the Bessel function of the first kind of order zero, α_n is the positive root of: $J_0(Y_{90} \times \alpha_n) = 0$, and J_1 is the Bessel function of the first kind of order one. Equation (7.24) was numerically computed by Carslaw and Jaeger (1959) for several values of the dimensionless diffusivity $D'' = D_t \times x / (V_1 \times Y_{90}^2)$.

Equation (7.24) is valid close to and away from the jet nozzle. It is a three-dimensional solution of the diffusion equation that it is valid when the clear water core of the jet disappears and the jet becomes fully-aerated.

For a two-dimensional water jet, assuming an uniform velocity distribution, and for a constant diffusivity independent of the longitudinal and transverse location, Equation (7.14) becomes:

$$V_1 \times \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} = D_t \times \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial y^2} \quad (7.25)$$

where V_1 is the inflow depth. Equation (7.25) is a basic diffusion equation (Crank 1956, Carslaw and Jaeger 1959).

The boundary conditions are: $\lim(C(x > 0, y \rightarrow +\infty)) = 1$ and $\lim(C(x > 0, y \rightarrow -\infty)) = 1$ where the positive direction for the x - and y -axes is shown on Figure 7.10A. Note that, at the edge of the free-shear layer, the rapid change of shear stress is dominant. The effect of the removal of the bottom shear stress is to allow the fluid to accelerate. Further downstream the acceleration decreases rapidly down to zero.

The analytical solution of Equation (7.25) is:

$$C = \frac{1}{2} \times \left(2 + \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{\frac{y}{d_1} - \frac{1}{2}}{2 \times \sqrt{\frac{D_t}{V_1 \times d_1} \times \frac{x}{d_1}}}\right) + \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{\frac{y}{d_1} + \frac{1}{2}}{2 \times \sqrt{\frac{D_t}{V_1 \times d_1} \times \frac{x}{d_1}}}\right) \right) \quad (7.26)$$

where d_1 is the jet thickness at nozzle, erf is the Gaussian error function, and the diffusivity D_t averages the effect of the turbulence on the transverse dispersion and of the longitudinal velocity gradient. The boundary conditions imply the existence of a clear-water region between the air-bubble diffusion layers in the initial jet flow region as sketched in Figure 7.10A.

The two-dimensional case may be simplified for a two-dimensional free-shear layer: e.g. an open channel flow taking off a spillway aeration device or a ski jump. The analytical solution for a free shear layer is:

$$C = \frac{1}{2} \times \left(1 + \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{\frac{y}{d_1}}{2 \times \sqrt{\frac{D_t}{V_1 \times d_1} \times \frac{x}{d_1}}}\right) \right) \quad (7.27)$$

where $y = 0$ at the flow singularity (i.e. nozzle edge) and $y > 0$ towards the atmosphere.

7.4.2.2 Interfacial aeration in a high-velocity open channel flow

For a two-dimensional steady open channel flow, a complete solution was developed in section 7.3.3. Assuming a homogeneous turbulence across the flow ($D' = \text{constant}$), the integration of the advective diffusion equation yields:

$$C = 1 - \tanh^2 \left(K' - \frac{y'}{2 \times D'} \right) \quad (7.10)$$

where K' is an integration constant (Eq. (7.11)) and $\tanh(x)$ is the hyperbolic tangent function. The void fraction distribution (Eq. (7.10)) is a function of the dimensionless diffusivity $D' = D_t / ((u_r)_{Hyd} \times \cos \theta \times Y_{90})$ assuming that both the turbulent diffusivity D_t and bubble rise velocity in hydrostatic pressure gradient $(u)_{Hyd}$ are constant.

Equation (7.10) was successfully tested against prototype and laboratory data, and a pertinent discussion is developed in Chanson (1997).

7.4.3 Discussion

The above expressions (Sections 7.4.1 & 7.4.2) were developed assuming a constant, uniform air bubble diffusivity. While the analytical solutions are in close agreement with experimental data (e.g. Chanson 1997, Toombes 2002, Gonzalez 2005, Murzyn et al. 2005), the distributions of turbulent diffusivity are unlikely to be uniform in complex flow situations. Two well-documented examples are the skimming flow on a stepped spillway and the flow downstream of a drop structure (Fig. 7.11).

For a two-dimensional open channel flow, the advective diffusion equation for air bubbles yields:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y'} \left(D' \times \frac{\partial C}{\partial y'} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial y'} (C \times \sqrt{1 - C}) \quad (7.7b)$$

where $y' = y/Y_{90}$, Y_{90} is the characteristic distance where $C = 0.90$, and $D' = D_t / ((u_r)_{Hyd} \times \cos \theta \times Y_{90})$ is a dimensionless turbulent diffusivity that is the ratio of the air bubble diffusion coefficient to the rise velocity component normal to the flow direction time the characteristic transverse dimension of the shear flow. In a skimming flow on a stepped chute (Fig. 7.11A), the flow is extremely turbulent and the air bubble diffusivity distribution may be approximated by:

$$D' = \frac{D_o}{1 - 2 \times (y' - \frac{1}{3})^2} \quad (7.28)$$

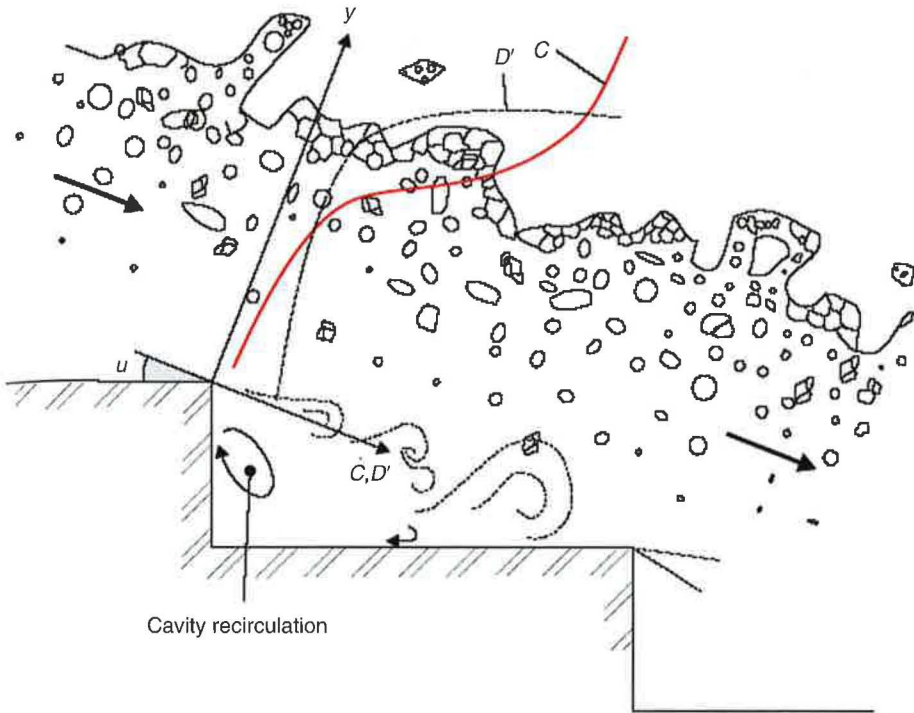
The integration of the air bubble diffusion equation yields a S-shape void fraction profile:

$$C = 1 - \tanh^2 \left(K' - \frac{y'}{2 \times D_o} + \frac{(y' - \frac{1}{3})^3}{3 \times D_o} \right) \quad (7.29)$$

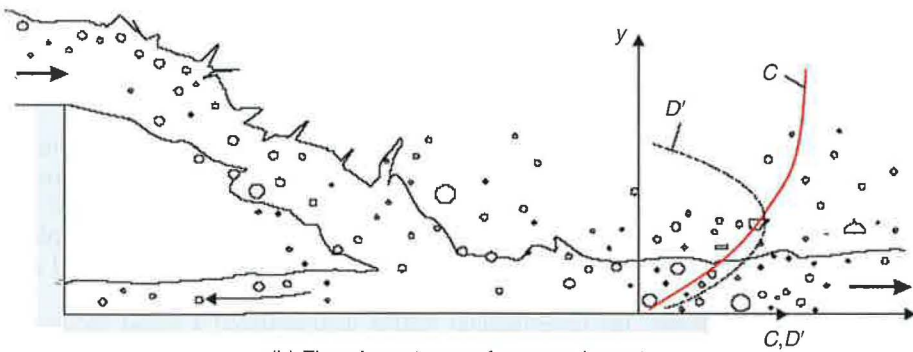
where K' is an integration constant and D_o is a function of the mean void fraction only:

$$K' = K^* + \frac{1}{2 \times D_o} - \frac{8}{81 \times D_o} \quad \text{with } K^* = 0.32745015 \dots \quad (7.30)$$

$$C_{mean} = 0.7622 \times (1.0434 - \exp(-3.614 \times D_o)) \quad (7.31)$$



(a) Skimming flow on a stepped chute.



(b) Flow downstream of a nappe impact.

Figure 7.11. Advective dispersion of air bubbles in highly-turbulent open channel flows.

Equations (7.31) and (7.29) are sketched in Figure 7.11A. They were found to agree well with experimental measurements at step edges.

Downstream of a drop structure (Fig. 7.11B), the flow is fragmented, highly aerated and extremely turbulent. A realistic void fraction distribution model may be developed assuming a quasi-parabolic bubble diffusivity distribution:

$$D' = \frac{C \times \sqrt{1 - C}}{\lambda \times (K' - C)} \quad (7.32)$$

The integration of Equation (7.7b) yields:

$$C = K' \times (1 - \exp(-\lambda \times y')) \quad (7.33)$$

where K' and λ are some dimensionless functions of the mean air content only:

$$K' = \frac{0.9}{1 - \exp(-\lambda)} \quad (7.34)$$

$$C_{mean} = K' - \frac{0.9}{\lambda} \quad (7.35)$$

Equations (7.32) and (7.33) are sketched in Figure 7.11B. In practice, Equation (7.33) applies to highly-aerated, fragmented flows like the steady flows downstream of drop structures and spillway bottom aeration devices, and the transition flows on stepped chutes, as well as the leading edge of unsteady surges. Note that the depth-averaged air content must satisfy $C_{mean} > 0.45$.

7.5 STRUCTURE OF THE BUBBLY FLOW

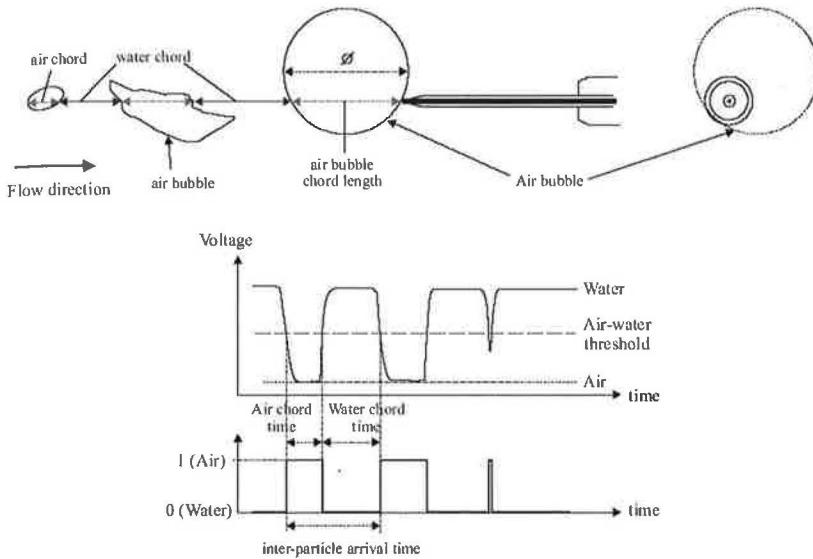
In Sections 7.3 and 7.4, the advective diffusion equation for air bubbles is developed and solved in terms of the void fraction. The void fraction is a gross parameter that does not describe the air-water structures, the bubbly flow turbulence nor the interactions between entrained bubbles and turbulent shear. Herein recent experimental developments are discussed in terms of the longitudinal flow structure and the air-water time and length scales following Chanson and Carosi (2007).

7.5.1 Streamwise particle grouping

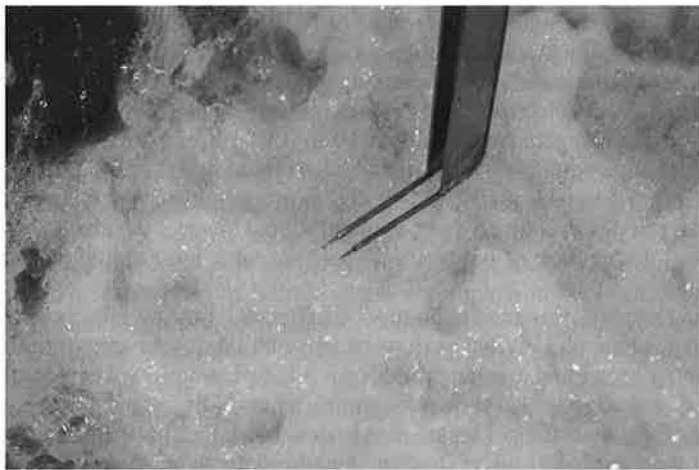
With modern phase-detection intrusive probes, the probe output signals provide a complete characterisation of the streamwise air-water structure at one point. Figure 7.12 illustrates the operation of such a probe. Figure 7.12B shows two probes in a bubbly flow, while Figure 7.12A presents the piercing of air bubbles by the probe sensor. Some simple signal processing yields the basic statistical moments of air and water chords as well as the probability distribution functions of the chord sizes.

In turbulent shear flows, the experimental results demonstrated a broad spectrum of bubble chords. The range of bubble chord lengths extended over several orders of magnitude including at low void fractions. The distributions of bubble chords were skewed with a preponderance of small bubbles relative to the mean. The probability distribution functions of bubble chords tended to follow a log-normal and gamma distributions. Similar findings were observed in a variety of flows encompassing hydraulic jumps, plunging jets, dropshaft flows and high-velocity open channel flows.

In addition of void fraction and bubble chord distributions, some further signal processing may provide some information on the streamwise structure of the air-water flow including bubble clustering. A concentration of bubbles within some relatively short intervals of time may indicate some clustering while it may be instead the consequence of a random occurrence. The study of particle clustering events is relevant to infer whether the formation frequency responds to some particular frequencies of the flow. Figure 7.13 illustrates some occurrence of bubble pairing in the shear layer of a hydraulic jump. The binary pairing indicator is unity if the water chord time between adjacent bubbles is less than 10% of the



(A) Sketch of a phase-detection intrusive probe and its signal output.



(B) Photograph of two single-tip conductivity probes side-by-side in a hydraulic jump ($Fr_1 = 6.6, \rho_w \times V_1 \times d_1/\mu_w = 8.6 E+4$) – Flow from bottom left to top right.

Figure 7.12. Phase-detection intrusive probe in turbulent air-water flows.

median water chord time. The pattern of vertical lines seen in Figure 7.13 is an indication of patterns in which bubbles tend to form bubble groups.

One method is based upon the analysis of the water chord between two adjacent air bubbles (Fig. 7.12A). If two bubbles are closer than a particular length scale, they can be considered a group of bubbles. The characteristic water length scale may be related to the water chord statistics: e.g., a bubble cluster may be defined when the water chord was less than a given percentage of the mean water chord. Another criterion may be related to the leading bubble size itself, since bubbles within that distance are in the near-wake of and may be influenced by the leading particle.

Binary pairing indicator

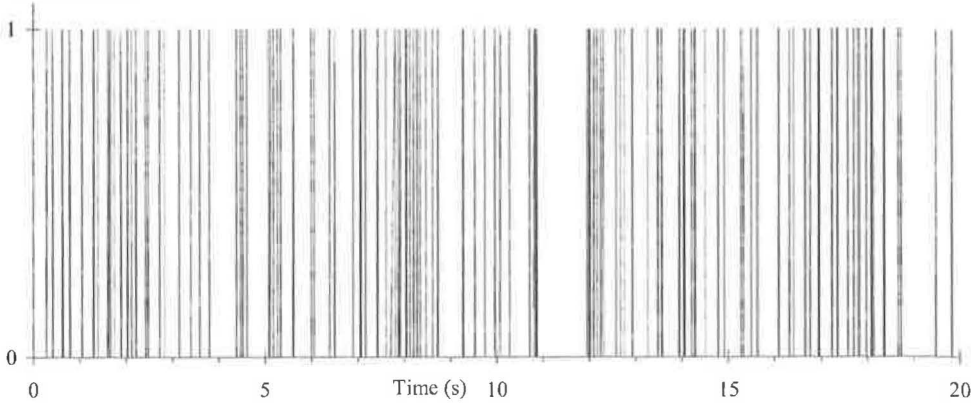


Figure 7.13. Closely spaced bubble pairs in the developing shear layer of a hydraulic jump – $Fr_1 = 8.5$, $\rho_w \times V_1 \times d_1 / \mu_w = 9.8 E + 4$, $x - x_1 = 0.4$ m, $d_1 = 0.024$ m, $y/d_1 = 1.33$, $C = 0.20$, $F = 158$ Hz.

Typical results may include the percentage of bubbles in clusters, the number of clusters per second, and the average number of bubbles per cluster. Extensive experiments in open channels, hydraulic jumps and plunging jets suggested that the outcomes were little affected by the cluster criterion selection. Most results indicated that the streamwise structure of turbulent flows was characterised by about 10 to 30% of bubbles travelling as parts of a group/cluster, with a very large majority of clusters comprising of 2 bubbles only. The experimental experience suggested further that a proper cluster analysis requires a high-frequency scan rate for a relatively long scan duration. However the analysis is restricted to the longitudinal distribution of bubbles and does not take into account particles travelling side by side.

Some typical result is presented in Figure 7.14. Figure 7.14 shows the vertical distribution of the percentage of bubbles in clusters (lower horizontal axis) and average number of bubbles per cluster (upper horizontal axis) in the advective diffusion region of a hydraulic jump. The void fraction distribution is also shown for completeness. The criterion for cluster existence is a water chord less than 10% of the median water chord. For this example, about 5 to 15% of all bubbles were part of a cluster structure and the average number of bubbles per cluster was about 2.1.

For a dispersed phase, a complementary approach is based upon an inter-particle arrival time analysis. The inter-particle arrival time is defined as the time between the arrival of two consecutive bubbles recorded by a probe sensor fixed in space (Fig. 7.12A). The distribution of inter-particle arrival times provides some information on the randomness of the structure. Random dispersed flows are those whose inter-particle arrival time distributions follow inhomogeneous Poisson statistics assuming non-interacting point particles (Edwards and Marx 1995a). In other words, an ideal dispersed flow is driven by a superposition of Poisson processes of bubble sizes, and any deviation from a Poisson process indicates some unsteadiness and particle clustering.

In practice, the analysis is conducted by breaking down the air-water flow data into narrow classes of particles of comparable sizes that are expected to have the same behaviour (Edwards and Marx 1995b). A simple means consists in dividing the bubble/droplet population in terms of the air/water chord time. The inter-particle arrival time analysis may provide some information on preferential clustering for particular classes of particle sizes.

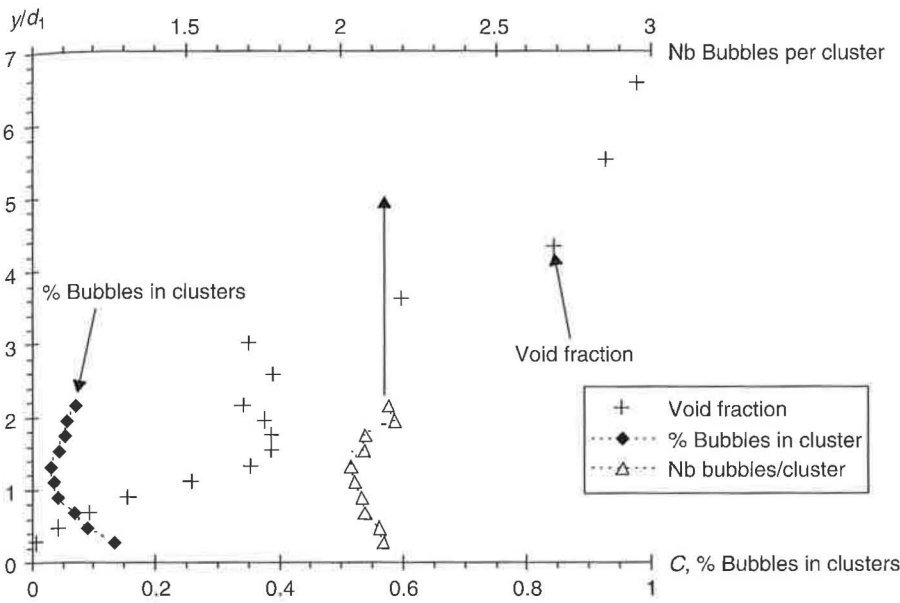


Figure 7.14. Bubble clustering in the bubbly flow region of a hydraulic jump: percentage of bubbles in clusters, average number of bubbles per cluster and void fraction – Cluster criterion: water chord time <10% median water chord time – $Fr_1 = 8.5$, $\rho_w \times V_1 \times d_1 / \mu_w = 9.8 E + 4$, $x - x_1 = 0.3$ m, $d_1 = 0.024$ m.

Some results in terms of inter-particle arrival time distributions are shown in Figure 7.15 for the same flow conditions and at the same cross-section as the data presented in Figure 7.14. Chi-square values are given in the Figure 7.7 captions. Figure 7.15 presents some inter-particle arrival time results for two chord time classes of the same sample (0 to 0.5 ms and 3 to 5 ms). For each class of bubble sizes, a comparison between data and Poisson distribution gives some information on its randomness. For example, Figure 7.15A shows that the data for bubble chord times below 0.5 m did not experience a random behaviour because the experimental and theoretical distributions differed substantially in shape. The second smallest inter-particle time class (0.5–1 m) had a population that was 2.5 times the expected value or about 11 standard deviations too large. This indicates that there was a higher probability of having bubbles with shorter inter-particle arrival times, hence some bubble clustering occurred. Simply the smallest class of bubble chord times did not exhibit the characteristics of a random process.

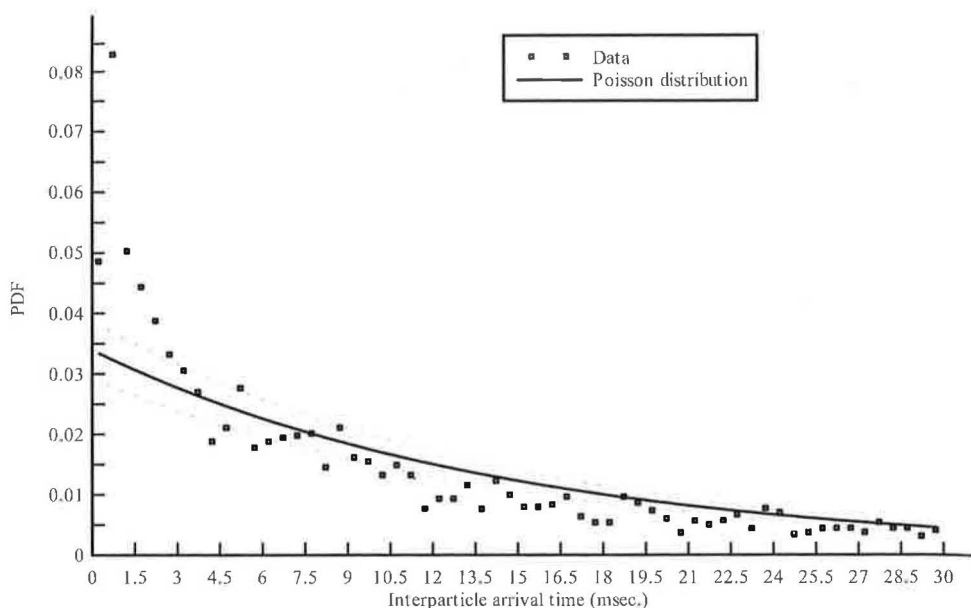
Altogether both approaches are complementary, although the inter-particle arrival time analysis may give some greater insight on the range of particle sizes affected by clustering.

7.5.2 Correlation analyses

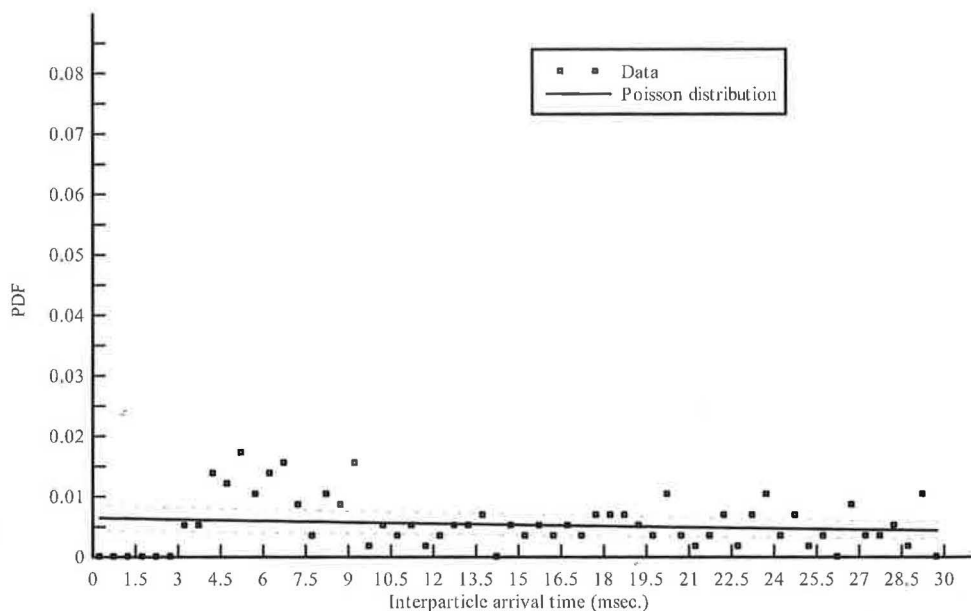
When two or more phase detection probe sensors are simultaneously sampled, some correlation analyses may provide additional information on the bubbly flow structure. A well-known application is the use of dual tip probe to measure the interfacial velocity (Fig. 7.16). With large void fractions ($C > 0.10$), a cross-correlation analysis between the two probe sensors yields the time averaged velocity:

$$V = \frac{\Delta x}{T}$$

(7.36)



(A) Inter-particle arrival time distributions for bubble chord times between 0 and 0.5 ms, 3055 bubbles, $\chi^2 = 461$.



(B) Inter-particle arrival time distributions for bubble chord times between 3 and 5 ms, 581 bubbles, $\chi^2 = 110$.

Figure 7.15. Inter-particle arrival time distributions in the bubbly flow region of a hydraulic jump for different classes of air chord times – Comparison between data and Poisson distribution – Expected deviations from the Poisson distribution for each sample are shown in dashed lines – $Fr_1 = 8.5$, $\rho_\omega \times V_1 \times d_1 / \mu_\omega = 9.8 E + 4$, $x - x_1 = 0.3$ m, $d_1 = 0.024$ m.

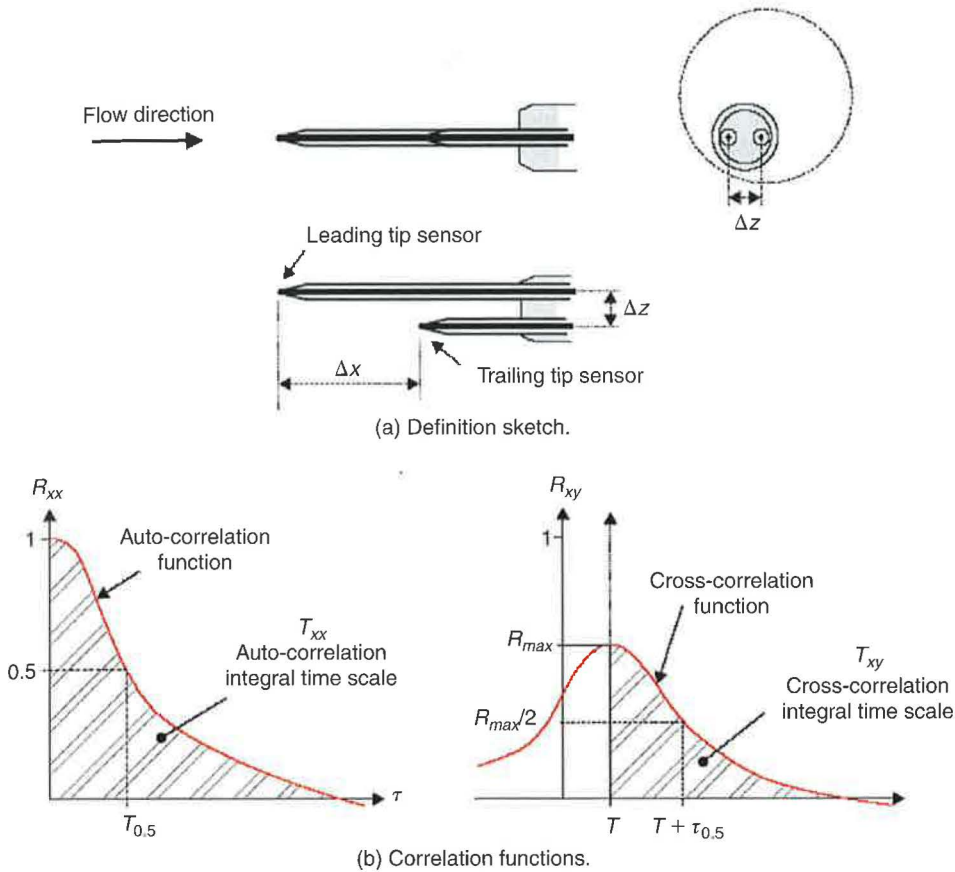


Figure 7.16. Dual sensor phase detection probe.

where T is the air-water interfacial travel time for which the cross-correlation function is maximum and Δx is the longitudinal distance between probe sensors (Fig. 7.16). Turbulence levels may be further derived from the relative width of the cross-correlation function:

$$Tu = 0.851 \times \frac{\sqrt{\tau_{0.5}^2 - T_{0.5}^2}}{T} \quad (7.37)$$

where $\tau_{0.5}$ is the time scale for which the cross-correlation function is half of its maximum value such as: $R_{xy}(T + \tau_{0.5}) = 0.5 \times R_{xy}(T)$, R_{xy} is the normalised cross-correlation function, and $T_{0.5}$ is the characteristic time for which the normalised auto-correlation function equals: $R_{xx}(T_{0.5}) = 0.5$ (Fig. 7.16). Physically, a thin narrow cross-correlation function ($(\tau_{0.5} - T_{0.5})/T \ll 1$) must correspond to little fluctuations in the interfacial velocity, hence a small turbulence level Tu . While Equation (7.37) is not the true turbulence intensity u'/V , it is an expression of some turbulence level and average velocity fluctuations.

More generally, when two probe sensors are separated by a transverse or streamwise distance, their signals may be analysed in terms of the auto-correlation and cross-correlation functions R_{xx} and R_{xy} respectively. Figure 7.12B shows two probe sensors separated by a transverse distance Δz , while Figure 7.16 presents two probe sensors separated by a

streamwise distance Δx . Practically the original data set may be segmented because the periodogram resolution is inversely proportional to the number of samples and it could be biased with large data sets (Hayes 1996).

Basic correlation analysis results include the maximum cross-correlation coefficient $(R_{xy})_{max}$, and the integral time scales T_{xx} and T_{xy} where:

$$T_{xx} = \int_{\tau=0}^{\tau=\tau(R_{xx}=0)} R_{xx}(\tau) \times d\tau \quad (7.38)$$

$$T_{xy} = \int_{\tau=\tau(R_{xy}=(R_{xy})_{max})}^{\tau=\tau(R_{xy}=0)} R_{xy}(\tau) \times d\tau \quad (7.39)$$

where R_{xx} is the normalised auto-correlation function, τ is the time lag, and R_{xy} is the normalised cross-correlation function between the two probe output signals (Fig. 7.16). The auto-correlation integral time scale T_{xx} represents the integral time scale of the longitudinal bubbly flow structure. It is a characteristic time of the eddies advecting the air-water interfaces in the streamwise direction. The cross-correlation time scale T_{xy} is a characteristic time scale of the vortices with a length scale y advecting the air-water flow structures. The length scale y may be a transverse separation distance Δz or a streamwise separation Δx .

When identical experiments are repeated with different separation distances y ($y = \Delta z$ or Δx), an integral turbulent length scale may be calculated as:

$$L_{xy} = \int_{y=0}^{y=y((R_{xy})_{max}=0)} (R_{xy})_{max} \times dy \quad (7.40)$$

The length scale L_{xy} represents a measure of the transverse/streamwise length scale of the large vortical structures advecting air bubbles and air-water packets.

A turbulence integral time scale is:

$$\mathbf{T} = \frac{\int_{y=0}^{y=y((R_{xy})_{max}=0)} (R_{xy})_{max} \times T_{xy} \times dy}{L_{xy}}$$

The turbulence integral time scale \mathbf{T} represents the transverse/streamwise integral time scale of the large eddies advecting air bubbles.

Figures 7.17 to 7.19 present some experimental results obtained in a hydraulic jump on a horizontal channel and in a skimming flow on a stepped channel. In both flow situations, the distributions of integral time scales showed a marked peak for $0.4 \leq C \leq 0.6$ (Fig. 7.17 and 7.18). Note that Figure 7.17 presents some transverse time scales T_{xy} while Figure 7.18 shows some longitudinal time scales T_{xx} . The distributions of transverse integral length scales exhibited some marked differences that may reflect the differences in turbulent mixing and air bubble advection processes between hydraulic jump and skimming flows. In Figure 7.19, the integral turbulent length scale L_{xy} represents a measure of the transverse

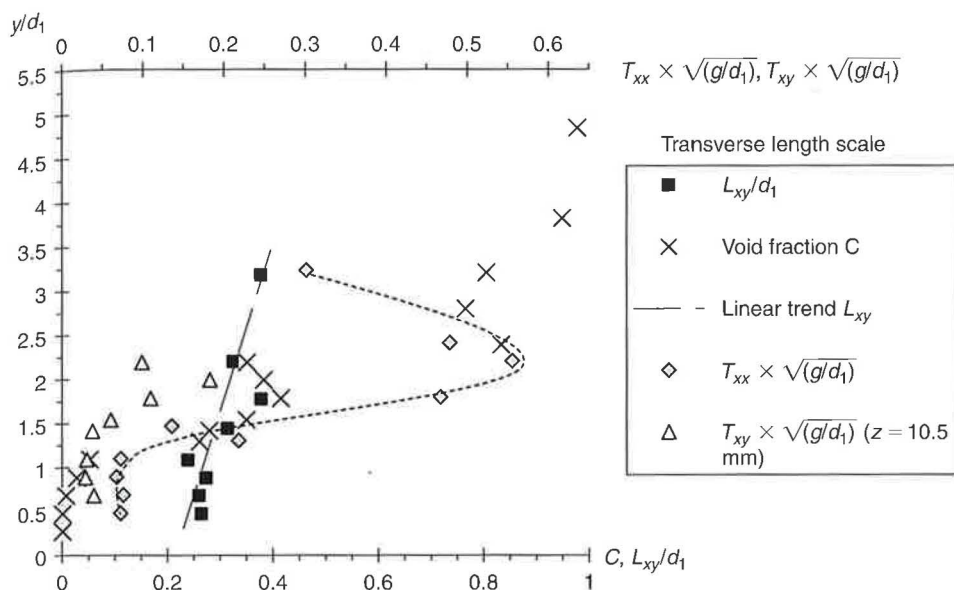


Figure 7.17. Dimensionless distributions of auto- and cross-correlation time scales $T_{xx} \times \sqrt{g/d_1}$ and $T_{xy} \times \sqrt{g/d_1}$ (transverse time scale, $y = \Delta z = 10.5$ mm), and transverse integral turbulent length scale L_{xy}/d_1 of Expression in a hydraulic jump – $Fr_1 = 7.9$, $\rho_\omega \times V_1 \times d_1/\mu_\omega = 9.4 E + 4$, $x - x_1 = 0.1$ m, $d_1 = 0.0245$ m.

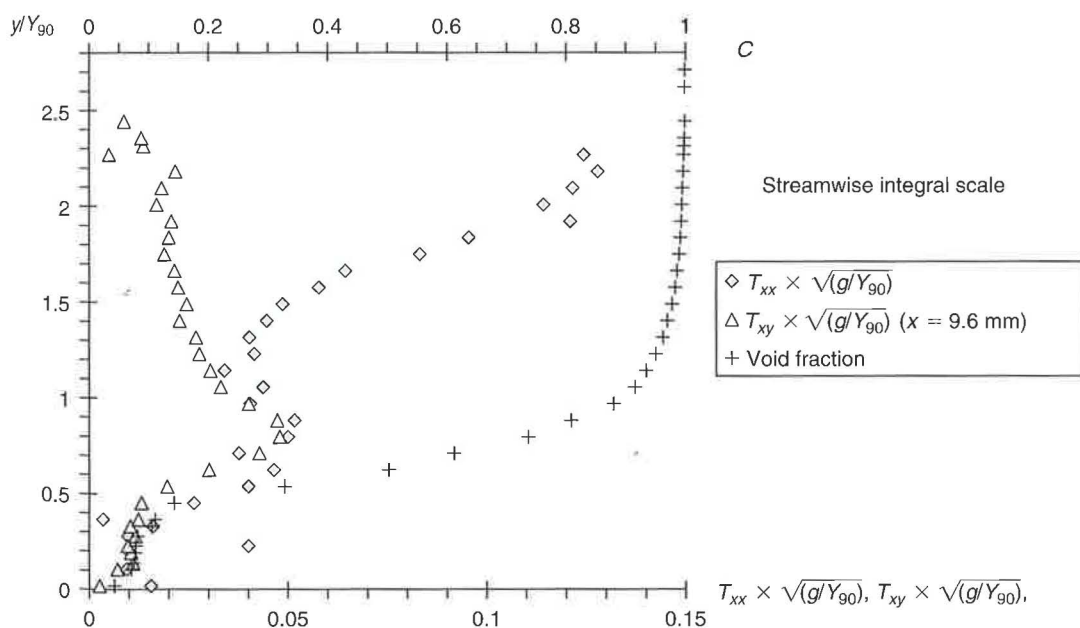


Figure 7.18. Dimensionless distributions of auto- and cross-correlation time scales $T_{xx} \times \sqrt{g/Y_{90}}$ and $T_{xy} \times \sqrt{g/Y_{90}}$ (longitudinal time scale, $y = \Delta x = 9.6$ mm) in a skimming flow on a stepped chute – $d_c/h = 1.15$, $\rho_\omega \times V_1 \times d_1/\mu_\omega = 1.2 E + 5$, Step 10, $Y_{90} = 0.0574$ m, $h = 0.1$ m, $\theta = 22^\circ$.

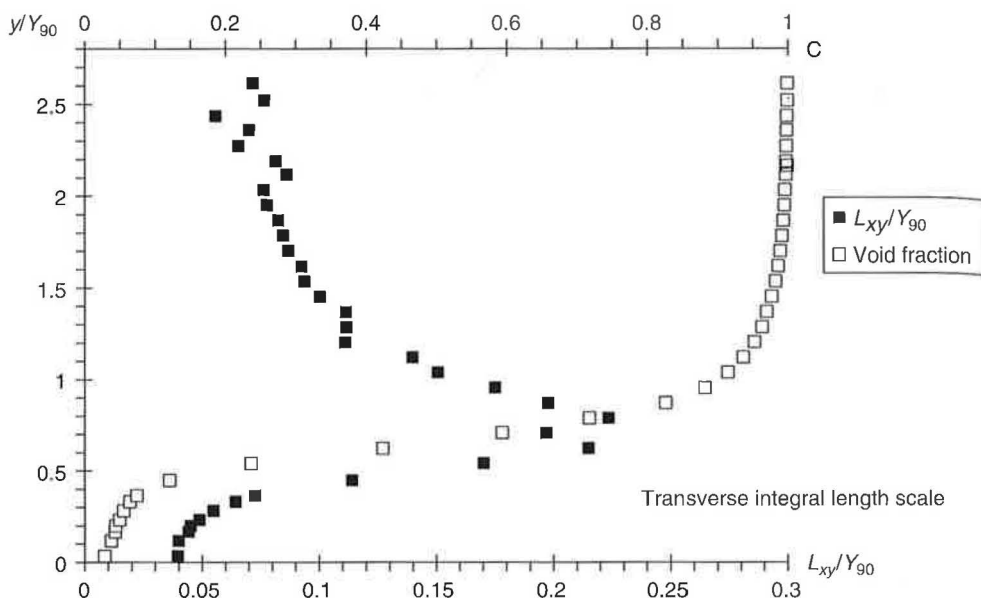


Figure 7.19. Dimensionless distributions of transverse integral turbulent length scale L_{xy}/Y_{90} in a skimming flow on a stepped chute – $d_c/h = 1.15$, $\rho_w \times V_1 \times d_1/\mu_w = 1.2 E + 5$, Step 10, $Y_{90} = 0.0598$ m, $h = 0.1$ m, $\theta = 22^\circ$.

size of large vortical structures advecting air bubbles in the skimming flow regime. The air-water turbulent length scale is closely related to the characteristic air-water depth Y_{90} : i.e., $0.05 \leq L_{xy}/Y_{90} \leq 0.2$ (Fig. 7.19). Note that both the integral turbulent length and time scales were maximum for about $C = 0.5$ to 0.7 (Fig. 7.18 & 7.19). The finding emphasises the existence of large-scale turbulent structures in the intermediate zone ($0.3 < C < 0.7$) of the flow, and it is hypothesised that these large vortices may play a preponderant role in terms of turbulent dissipation.

7.6 CONCLUSION

In turbulent free-surface flows, the strong interactions between turbulent waters and surrounding atmosphere may lead to some self-aeration, air entrainment, spray and splashing. This is the entrainment/entrapment of air bubbles which are advected within the bulk of the flow and the light diffraction on the entrained bubble interfaces gives a whitish appearance to the waters, called commonly white waters. In Nature, free-surface aeration may be encountered at waterfalls, in steep mountain streams and river rapids, as well as at breaking. The 'white waters' provide always some spectacular effect as illustrated in Figures 7.20 and 7.21. Although classical examples include the tidal bore of the Qiantang river in China, the Zambesi rapids in Africa, and the 980 m high Angel Falls in South America, 'white waters' are observed also in smaller streams, torrents and rivers. The rushing waters may become gravitationless in waterfalls, impacting downstream on rocks and water pools where their impact is surrounded by splashing, spray and fog as at Niagara Falls and Iguazu Falls. Self-aeration in man-made structures is also common, ranging from artistic fountains, attraction parks to engineering and industrial applications (Fig. 7.20 & 7.21).



Figure 7.20. Bassin de Latone,Château de Versailles (France) on 27 July 2008 (shutter speed: 1/800 s) – Built between 1668 et 1670 by André Le Nôtre, the fountain was inspired by the Metamorphosis by Ovid.

The entrainment of air bubbles may be localised at a flow discontinuity or continuous along an air-water free-surface: i.e., singular and interfacial aeration respectively. At a flow singularity, the air bubbles are entrained locally at the impinging perimeter and they are advected in a region of high shear. Interfacial aeration is the air bubble entrainment process



Figure 7.21. Splashing ahead of a water slide ride at Window of China (Taoyuan, Taiwan) on 15 November 2010 (shutter speed: 1/200 s).

along an air-water interface that is parallel to the flow direction. A condition for the onset of air bubble entrainment may be expressed in terms of the tangential Reynolds stress and the fluid properties. With both singular and interfacial aeration, the void fraction distributions may be modelled by some analytical solutions of the advective diffusion equation for air bubbles. Examples are illustrated and some comparison between physical data and analytical models is presented.

The microscopic structure of turbulent bubbly flows is discussed based upon some developments in metrology and signal processing. The findings may provide new information on the air-water flow structure and the turbulent eddies advecting the bubbles.

The results bring new information on the fluid dynamics of air-water flows. They revealed the turbulent nature of the complex two-phase flows. Further developments are needed. For example, physical studies at prototype scale could be undertaken, while numerical modelling of air-water flows may be a future research topic. The computing approach will not be easy because the turbulent free-surface flows encompass many challenges including two-phase flow, turbulence, free surface fluctuations ... It is believed that the interactions between entrained air bubbles and turbulence will remain a key challenge for the 21st century researchers.

List of Symbols

Symbol	Definition	Dimensions or Units
F	air bubble count rate defined as the number of bubbles impacting the probe sensor per second	[Hz]
Fr_1	inflow Froude number of a hydraulic jump	
J_0	Bessel function of the first kind of order zero	
J_1	Bessel function of the first kind of order one	
K'	dimensionless integration constant	
L_{xy}	integral turbulent length scale	[L]
P	pressure	[N L ⁻²]
Q_{air}	entrained air flow rate	[L ³ · T ⁻¹]
Q_{water}	water discharge	[L ³ · T ⁻¹]
R_{xx}	normalized auto-correlation function	
R_{xy}	normalized cross-correlation function	
T	air-water interfacial travel time for which R_{xy} is maximum	[T]
T	transverse/streamwise turbulent integral time scale	[T]
$T_{0.5}$	characteristic time for which $R_{xx} = 0.5$	[T]
T_{xx}	auto-correlation integral time scale	[T]
T_{xy}	cross-correlation integral time scale	[T]
Tu	turbulence intensity	
V_e	onset velocity for air entrainment	[m s ⁻¹]
V_x	streamwise velocity	[m s ⁻¹]
V_y	transverse velocity	[m s ⁻¹]
V_1	jet impact velocity or inflow velocity in the hydraulic jump	[m s ⁻¹]
\vec{V}	advective velocity vector	[m s ⁻¹]
Y_{90}	characteristic distance where $C = 0.90$	[L]
d_{ab}	air bubble diameter	[L]
d_1	jet thickness at impact or inflow depth in hydraulic jump	[L]
erf	Gaussian error function	
g	gravitational acceleration constant	[L T ⁻²]
r	radius of sphere	[L]
r_1	radius of curvature of the free surface deformation	[L]
r_2	radius of curvature of the free surface deformation	[L]
r_1	equatorial radius of the ellipsoid	[L]
r_2	polar radius of the ellipsoid	[L]
t	time	[T]
\vec{u}_r	bubble rise velocity vector	[m · s ⁻¹]
u_r	bubble rise velocity	[m · s ⁻¹]
u_r	bubble rise velocity in a hydrostatic pressure gradient	[m · s ⁻¹]
v_i	turbulent velocity fluctuation in the streamwise direction	[m · s ⁻¹]
v_j	turbulent velocity fluctuation in the normal direction	[m · s ⁻¹]
x	longitudinal/streamwise direction	[L]
x_1	distance between the gate and the jump toe	[L]
y	transverse or radial direction	[L]
y'	dimensionless transverse or radial direction: $y' = y/Y_{90}$	
z	vertical direction positive upward	[L]

(Continued)

List of Symbols

Symbol	Definition	Dimensions or Units
Δx	longitudinal distance between probe sensors	[L]
Δy	transverse distance between probe sensors	[L]
α_n	positive root for $J = (Y_{90} * \alpha_n) = 0$	
θ	angle between the horizontal and the channel invert	
λ	dimensionless function of the mean air content	
μ_w	water dynamic viscosity	[M L ⁻¹ T ⁻¹]
ρ_w	water density	[kg m ⁻³]
σ	surface tension between air and water	[N m ⁻¹]
τ	time lag	[T]
$\tau_{0.5}$	time scale for which $R_{xy} = 0.5 \times R_{xy}(T)$	[T]

APPENDIX B – SYNOPSIS

Self-eration is the entrainment/entrapment of air bubbles which are advected in the bulk of the turbulent flow. The light diffraction on the entrained bubble interfaces gives a whitish appearance to the waters, called commonly white waters. Self-aeration or free-surface aeration may be encountered at Nature as well as in man-made engineering applications. There are two dominant types of self-aeration: singular and interfacial aeration. Singular aeration is the entrainment of air bubbles localised at a flow discontinuity. Interfacial aeration is the continuous air bubble entrainment along an air-water free-surface. The onset of air bubble entrainment may be expressed in terms of the tangential Reynolds stress and the fluid properties. With both singular and interfacial aeration, the void fraction distributions may be modelled by some analytical solutions of the advective diffusion equation for air bubbles. While the advective diffusion equation is identical, differences in boundary conditions lead to different analytical solutions. The microscopic structure of turbulent bubbly flows is complex and its analysis requires some advanced metrology and signal processing. The results highlight the turbulent nature of the complex two-phase flows, while the interactions between entrained air bubbles and turbulence will remain a key challenge for the 21st century researchers.

APPENDIX C – KEYWORDS

Air bubble entrainment
 Self-aeration
 Interfacial aeration
 Singular aeration
 Plunging jet
 Hydraulic jumps
 Advective diffusion equation
 Interactions between turbulence and entrained air
 Bubble size distributions
 Bubble clusters

APPENDIX D – QUESTIONS

What is self-aeration?

Where can we find self-aerated flow?

What is the colour of self-aerated flows?

How can we define the onset of self-aeration?

Can you give several examples of singular aeration?

Can you give at least two examples of interfacial aeration?

What is a bubble cluster?

APPENDIX E - PROBLEMS

E1. For a three-dimensional flow, plot the relationship between turbulent stress and radius for air and water, and air and glycerine (viscosity $1.4 \text{ Pa} \cdot \text{s}$ and surface tension 0.06 N/m at 20°C).

E2. A circular water jet discharges into the atmosphere. The nozzle diameter is 5 mm (ID). The flow rate is 0.95 l/s . Calculate the void fraction distribution at two sections located respectively at 5 and 25 diameters?

E3. A smooth spillway discharges $25 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$. At a sampling location, the air-water depth Y_{90} is estimated to 1.85 m and the depth-averaged void fraction is 0.21 . Calculate the flow velocity and plot the void fraction distribution.

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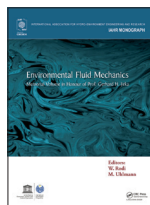
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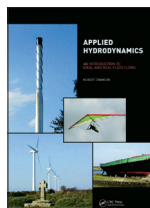
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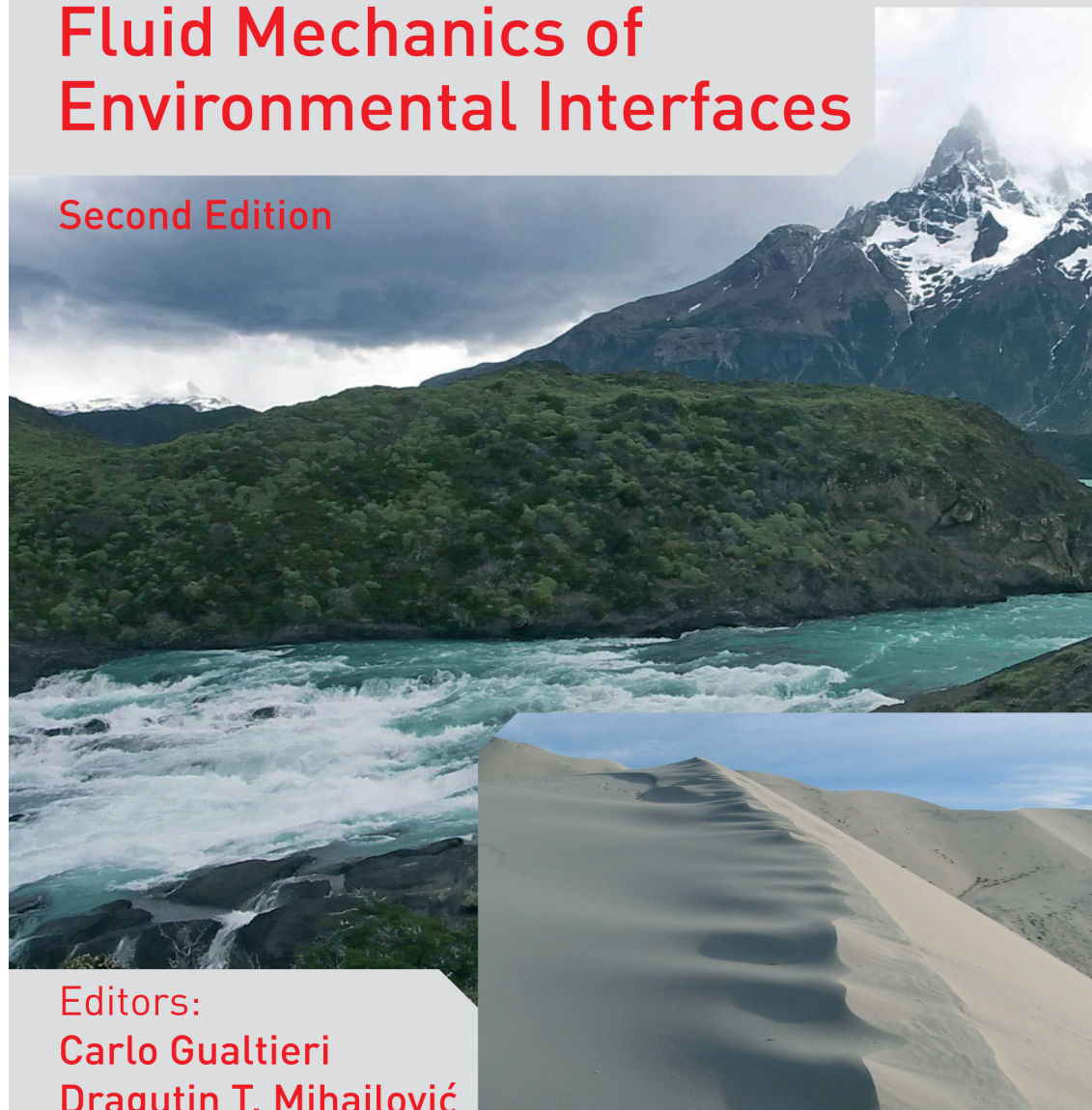
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Fluid Mechanics of Environmental Interfaces

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Fluid Mechanics of Environmental Interfaces

Second Edition

Edited by **Carlo Gualtieri**, *University of Napoli Federico II, Napoli, Italy* & **Dragutin T. Mihailović**, *University of Novi Sad, Novi Sad, Serbia*

Environmental Fluid Mechanics (EFM) studies the motion of air and water at several different scales, the fate and transport of species carried along by these fluids, and the interactions among those flows and geological, biological, and engineered systems. EFM emerged some decades ago as a response to the need for tools to study problems of flow and transport in rivers, estuaries, lakes, groundwater and the atmosphere; it is a topic of increasing importance for decision makers, engineers, and researchers alike.

The second edition of the successful textbook “Fluid Mechanics of Environmental Interfaces” is still aimed at providing a comprehensive overview of fluid mechanical processes occurring at the different interfaces existing in the realm of EFM, such as the air-water interface, the air-land interface, the water-sediment interface, the surface water-groundwater interface, the water-vegetation interface, and the water-biological systems interface. Across any of these interfaces mass, momentum, and heat are exchanged through different fluid mechanical processes over various spatial and temporal scales. In this second edition, the unique feature of this book, considering all the topics from the point of view of the concept of environmental interface, was maintained while the chapters were updated and five new chapters (8, 9, 10, 13 and 16) have been added to significantly enlarge the coverage of the subject area.

- **Takes a novel approach, that is the discussion of the processes of mass, momentum, and heat exchange at various environmental interfaces**
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- **Brings together researchers with many years of experience in the topics covered**

The book will be of interest to graduate students and researchers in environmental sciences, civil engineering and environmental engineering, (geo)physics, atmospheric science, meteorology, limnology, oceanography, and applied mathematics.

Fluid Mechanics of Environmental Interfaces, Second Edition

Edited by **Carlo Gualtieri** & **Dragutin T. Mihailović**

November 2012: 246 x 174 mm: 500 pp.

Hardback: ISBN 978-0-415-62156-4: £82.00 / \$139.95

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