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**INTERACTIONS BETWEEN LARGE BOUNDARY
ROUGHNESS AND HIGH INFLOW TURBULENCE
IN OPEN CHANNEL: A PHYSICAL STUDY INTO
TURBULENCE PROPERTIES TO ENHANCE
UPSTREAM FISH MIGRATION**

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HYDRAULIC MODEL REPORTS

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Interactions between Large Boundary Roughness and High Inflow Turbulence in Open channel: a Physical Study into Turbulence Properties to Enhance Upstream Fish Migration

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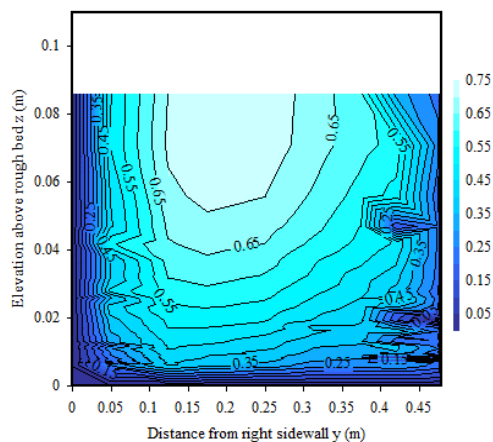
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Left: Contour curves of constant longitudinal velocity in the 12 m long channel with rough bed and sidewall (Configuration 3) for $Q = 0.0261 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ at $x = 8 \text{ m}$

Right: Culvert operation beneath Cornwall Street, Stones Corner on 31 December 2001

ABSTRACT

Culverts are road crossings passing underneath an embankment (e.g. roadway, railroad) to allow continuous flow of water. Although the discharge capacity is based upon hydrological and hydraulic engineering considerations, large velocities in the structure may create a fish passage barrier. In this study, the effects of boundary roughness on turbulent properties were tested in channels with high inflow turbulence. Physical modelling was conducted in laboratory under controlled flow conditions to test systematically three boundary roughness configurations, with the aim to facilitate upstream fish migration by maximising slow flow and recirculation regions suitable to small fish (<10 cm total length) passage. The project focused on the development of a simple solution to retrofit of existing box culverts. Three test channels were investigated in a bio-hydrodynamics laboratory at the University of Queensland, equipped by a fish-friendly water reticulation system. A key feature was the presence of upstream and downstream screens to contain fish movements in designated test areas, resulting in inflow conditions with large turbulence levels. Three boundary roughness configurations were tested: (1) smooth boundaries, (2) rough invert and (3) rough invert and sidewall. The measurements showed the marked effect of boundary roughness on the distributions of time-averaged velocity and velocity fluctuations. With the rough bed and sidewall (Configuration 3), the results showed an asymmetrical velocity field, the existence of the velocity dip and the presence of secondary currents. This roughness configuration appeared to provide excellent recirculation regions next to the rough sidewall and at the corner between the rough sidewall and channel bed, which might be suitable to the upstream passage of small body mass fish, typical of Australian streams. Preliminary experiments in a water tunnel showed that fish swimming performance data depended critically upon a careful testing protocol, as well as upon a sound velocity measurement technique.

Keywords: Open channel flows, Large boundary roughness, Secondary currents, Turbulence, Fish passage, Culverts, Physical study.

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LIST OF SYMBOLS

The following symbols are used in this report:

A	channel cross-section area (m ²);
B	channel width (m);
D _H	hydraulic diameter depth (m);
d	water depth (m);
d _c	critical flow depth (m);
d _o	inflow depth (m);
Fr	Froude number; for a rectangular channel: $Fr = \frac{V}{\sqrt{g \times d}}$
f	Darcy-Weisbach friction factor;
g	gravity acceleration (m/s ²): g = 9.80 m/s ² in Brisbane, Australia;
k _s	equivalent sand roughness height (m);
L	channel length (m);
Q	water discharge (m ³ /s);
P	pressure (Pa);
q	water discharge per unit width (m ² /s);
S _f	friction slope;
S _o	bed slope;
T _f	amount of time (s) that the fish swam in the final increment;
Tu	turbulence intensity: Tu = v _x '/V _x ;
U _{crit}	critical swimming speed (m/s);
U _f	penultimate velocity (m/s) during fish swimming performance testing;
V	flow velocity (m/s) positive downstream;
V _c	critical flow velocity (m/s);
V _{fs}	free-surface velocity (m/s);
V _{max}	maximum velocity (m/s); free-stream velocity (m/s) above boundary layer
V _{mean}	cross-sectional mean velocity (m/s): V _{mean} = Q/A;
V _o	inflow velocity (m/s);
V _x	longitudinal velocity component (m/s);
V _y	transverse velocity component (m/s);
V _z	vertical velocity component (m/s);
\bar{V}	mean velocity (m/s)
v _o '	standard deviation (m/s) of V _o ;
v _x '	standard deviation (m/s) of V _x ;
v _y '	standard deviation (m/s) of V _y ;
v _z '	standard deviation (m/s) of V _z ;

x	longitudinal distance (m) positive downstream;
$Y_{V_{\max}}$	transverse distance (m) where $V_x = V_{\max}$;
y	transverse distance (m) measured from the right sidewall positive towards the left sidewall;
$Z_{V_{\max}}$	vertical elevation (m) where $V_x = V_{\max}$;
$Z_{v_x'_{\max}}$	vertical elevation (m) where $v_x' = (v_x')_{\max}$;
$Z_{v_y'_{\max}}$	vertical elevation (m) where $v_y' = (v_y')_{\max}$;
$Z_{v_z'_{\max}}$	vertical elevation (m) where $v_z' = (v_z')_{\max}$;
z	vertical distance (m) positive upwards with $z = 0$ at the invert;
ΔH	manometer reading (m);
ΔT	time increment (s);
δ	boundary layer thickness (m);
μ	dynamic viscosity (Pa.s) of water;
ρ	water density (kg/m^3);
σ	surface tension (N/m) between air and water;
\emptyset	diameter (m);

Subscript

max	maximum value;
min	minimum value;
o	inflow conditions;
x	longitudinal direction positive downstream;
y	transverse direction positive towards the left sidewall;
z	vertical direction positive upwards;
1	upstream flow conditions;

Abbreviations

ADV	acoustic Doppler velocimeter;
C	Celsius;
PVC	polyvinyl chloride;
s	second;
TL	total length.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 PRESENTATION

Culverts are road crossings passing underneath an embankment (e.g. roadway, railroad) to allow continuous flow of water. Numerous waterway culverts are installed worldwide. Figure 1-1 presents typical examples. Culvert designs are diverse, using various shapes and materials determined by stream width, peak flows, stream gradient, and minimum cost (CHANSON 2004). For the past two decades, concerns regarding the ecological impact of culvert crossings have led to an evolution in their design. Although the overall culvert discharge capacity is based upon hydrological and hydraulic engineering considerations, large culvert flow velocities may create a fish passage barrier. In some cases, the environmental impact on fish passage may affect the upstream catchment with adverse impact on the stream ecology, because the installation of road crossings can limit the longitudinal connectivity of streams for fish movement (WARREN and PARDEW 1998, BRIGG and GALAROWICZ 2013). Common culvert fish passage barriers include excessive vertical drop at the culvert outlet (perched outlet), high velocity or inadequate flow depth within the culvert barrel, excessive turbulence, and debris accumulation at the culvert inlet (OLSEN and TULLIS 2013). The increased velocities in the barrel can also produce reduced flow depths (potentially inadequate flow depths for fish passage) relative to the culvert size. Higher culvert exit velocities may also increase perched outlet fall heights (fish barrier) with increased scour hole development downstream. Hydraulic jumps in the culvert inlet or outlet could generate further hindrance to fish passage. Figure 1-1H shows a hydraulic jump in a culvert inlet.

One of the primary ecological concerns regarding culvert crossings is the potential velocity barrier to upstream fish passage resulting from the constriction of the channel as illustrated in Figure 1-1. In an effort to minimize the impact of culvert crossings on stream ecology, several jurisdictions have developed guidelines to ensure that their design will allow for the upstream passage of fish. In Canada, these guidelines are based on a number of criteria including average flow velocity and minimum embedment depth (HUNT et al. 2012). For culvert rehabilitation applications where fish passage may be a concern, baffles installed along the invert may provide a more fish-friendly alternative, provided that adequate culvert discharge capacity is maintained (OLSEN and TULLIS 2013, CHANSON and UYS 2016). At low flows, baffles would decrease the flow velocity and increase the water depth for fish passage. For medium to larger discharges, baffles would induce locally lower velocities and generate recirculation regions.



(A)



(B)



(C)



(D)



(E)



(F)



(G)



(H)

Fig. 1-1 - Culvert operation during small to medium rainstorms in Queensland, Australia - (A) Inlet of culvert in St Lucia on 31 Dec. 2001 at 5:40am; (B) Outlet of culvert beneath Cornwall Street, Stones Corner on 31 Dec. 2001 around 6:10am; (C) Outlet of culvert beneath Cornwall Street, Stones Corner on 20 May 2009 between 8:40 and 8:45am; (D) Details of culvert inlet flow beneath Cornwall Street on 20 May 2009 between 10:35 and 10:40am; (E) Outlet of culvert beneath Ridge Street, Stones Corner on 31 Dec. 2001 around 6:10am; (F) Culvert inlet operation upstream of Ridge Street, Stones Corner on 7 Nov. 2004 around 13:15; (G) Culvert outlet downstream of Ridge Street, Stones Corner on 20 May 2009 between 10:25 and 10:35am; (H) Inlet operation of culvert beneath Ridge Street, Stones Corner on 20 May 2009 at 11:00am with details of hydraulic jump roller in front of culvert barrel - White arrows show flow direction

Although culvert type may not have a major role influencing the fish longitudinal movement, a general data trend indicated that box culverts (e.g. Fig 1-1B and 1-1C) were most effective (BRIGG and GALAROWICZ 2013). The culvert length is another important factor in allowing upstream passage of some fish species. For example, in northeastern Kansas streams, fish movement data supported culvert length as an important factor since the culverts limiting upstream fish passage were the longest culverts in the study (BRIGG and GALAROWICZ 2013). The behavioural response by some fish species to culvert length and flow turbulence could play a role in their swimming ability and culvert passage rate. The critical parameters of a culvert in terms of fish passage are the dimensions of the barrel, including its length and cross-sectional characteristics and the invert slope. These geometric characteristics, together with the water levels upstream and downstream of the structure, determine the hydraulic behaviour of the culvert, i.e. the flow discharge, the head loss through the culvert, the flow pattern and the turbulent velocity field in the barrel (HENDERSON 1966, HEE 1969, CHANSON 2004). The variability of the culvert dimensions is linked to the characteristics and constraints of the site where the road crossing has to be built, the flow discharge passing through the facility and the compliance with specifications for

volumetric power dissipation. This variability results in a wide diversity in flow patterns that can be observed in existing culverts. These flow patterns are one of the elements determining the capacity of the facility to allow the targeted fish species to pass successfully. A recent discussion paper recommended that three-dimensional analysis of culvert flows should be considered to gain an understanding of the turbulence and secondary flow motion (PAPANICOLAOU and TALEBBEYDOKHTI 2002). The authors recommended an in-depth examination of the spanwise and vertical velocity distributions as well as turbulent intensities and kinetic energy, in view of the importance of these parameters to fish passage.

1.2 CULVERT FISH PASS DESIGN

The selection of the type of culvert fish pass and of the fish pass characteristics depends on the swimming capacities of the fish species. If the fish swimming power is greater than the maximum volumetric power (BATES 2000), the fish will be able to pass the successive baffles and rest in each pool, thus successfully negotiate a fish pass consisting of a large number of pools without difficulty. Currently there is no simple technical means for measuring the characteristics of turbulence in fish pass, although it is acknowledged that the turbulence in fish pass plays a key role in fish behaviour (LIU et al. 2006, YASUDA 2011, BRETON et al. 2013). A number of key turbulence characteristics, which are deemed most important to migrating fish, have been identified: turbulence intensity, Reynolds stresses, turbulent kinetic energy, vorticity, dissipation (PAVLOV et al. 2000, HOTCHKISS 2002, NIKORA et al. 2003). Recent observations further showed that fish may take advantage of the unsteady character of turbulent flows (WANG et al. 2010, TARRADE et al. 2011).

In Australia, national guidelines on fish passage requirements for waterway crossings developed in 2003 were based on limited data for native Australian fish. The biological information which underpinned these recommendations was based on research and evaluation of overseas fish species (e.g. salmonids) that display vastly superior swimming capabilities compared to most Australian native fish. Current Australian national recommendations provide little guidance concerning specific culvert design parameters. They merely indicate that water depth should range between 0.2 to 0.5 m with bulk velocity less than 0.3 m/s during base flows, and that culvert cross-sectional area should maximise geometric similarities of the natural waterway profile (FAIRFULL and WITHERIDGE 2003), thus yielding uneconomical culvert designs. Newer research suggested that bulk velocity maxima should to be revised down to 0.1 m/s for culvert lengths up to 15 m (RODGERS et al. 2014).

1.3 ROLE OF BOUNDARY ROUGHNESS

In recent years, rock-ramp fish passes were introduced as naturelike fish passage (BAKI et al. 2014), while a number of studies investigated the effects of large bed roughness (LACEY and RENNIE 2012, CASSAN et al. 2014). The large bed roughness induced characteristic coherent flow structures, creating or masking trails that can be tracked by fish (JOHNSON and RICE 2014). Observations in fishways indicated that fish behaviour was strongly affected by the turbulent flow and its structure (DAVID et al. 2012). Substrate roughening was observed to increase the likelihood of successful passage of small-bodied (¹) native Australian fish species (HEASLIP 2015). To date most studies considered the effects of bed roughness, and the role of sidewall roughness was not considered.

On the other hand, carefully-controlled experiments suggested that the bed roughness and inflow turbulence might have little effects on fish swimming velocities (NIKORA et al. 2003). The same study hinted however the potential interplay between turbulence length scales and fish dimensions.

1.4 STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT

In this report, the effects of boundary roughness on turbulent properties were tested in channels with high inflow turbulence. Physical modelling was conducted in laboratory under controlled flow conditions to test systematically three boundary roughness configurations, with the aim to facilitate upstream fish migration by maximising slow flow and recirculation regions suitable to small fish passage. The project focused on the development of a simple solution to retrofit of existing box culverts.

¹ That is, small-bodied and/or juvenile fish less than 100 mm long. Examples of small-bodied Australia native fish species include Empire Gudgeon, Firetail Gudgeon, Western Carp Gudgeon, Striped Gudgeon, Mountain Galaxias, Southern Pygmy Perch, Unspecked Hardyhead, Common Jollytail, Olive Perchlet, Fly-specked Hardyhead, Australian Smelt and Duboulay's Rainbowfish.

2. EXPERIMENTAL STUDY, INSTRUMENTATION AND METHODOLOGY

2.1 PRESENTATION

Physical models are commonly used in hydraulic engineering to optimise a structure and to ensure a sound operation of the open channel system. In laboratory, the flow conditions must be similar to those at full-scale: that is, a similarity of form, of motion and of forces (NOVAK and CABELKA 1981, HUGHES 1993, CHANSON 2004, NOVAK et al. 2010). In many hydraulic engineering applications, including the present one, the physical model is smaller than the prototype, and scale effects might take place.

For any dimensional analysis, the relevant parameters include the fluid properties and physical constants, the channel geometry and initial flow conditions. Considering the simple case of a steady flow in a rectangular, horizontal channel, a dimensional analysis yields a series of relationship between the flow properties at a location (x,y,z) and the initial flow conditions, channel geometry and fluid properties:

$$\frac{d}{d_c}, \frac{P}{\rho \times g \times d_c}, \frac{V_x}{V_c}, \frac{V_y}{V_c}, \frac{V_z}{V_c}, \frac{v_x'}{V_c}, \frac{v_y'}{V_c}, \frac{v_z'}{V_c} = F\left(\frac{x}{d_c}, \frac{y}{d_c}, \frac{z}{d_c}, \frac{V_o}{\sqrt{g \times d_o}}, \frac{v_o'}{V_c}, \rho \times \frac{q}{\mu}, \frac{B}{d_c}, \frac{k_s}{d_c}, \frac{g \times \mu^4}{\rho \times \sigma^3}, \dots\right) \quad (2-1)$$

where d is the flow depth, P is the instantaneous pressure at a location (x, y, z), with x the longitudinal coordinate positive downstream, y the transverse coordinate positive towards the left sidewall and z the vertical elevation positive upwards, V_x , V_y , V_z are respectively the time-averaged longitudinal, transverse and vertical velocity components, v_x' , v_y' , v_z' are respectively some characteristic longitudinal, transverse and vertical velocity fluctuations, d_c and V_c are respectively the critical flow depth and velocity (²), d_o and V_o are the inflow depth and velocity respectively, v_o' is an initial characteristic velocity fluctuations, B is the channel width, k_s is the equivalent sand roughness height of the channel boundary, g is the gravity acceleration, q is the water discharge per unit width ($q = V_c \times d_c$), ρ and μ are the water density and dynamic viscosity respectively, and σ is the surface tension between air and water. Equation (2-1) describes the dimensionless steady flow properties at a position as functions of a number of dimensionless parameters, including the inflow Froude number (4th term), the inflow turbulence intensity (5th term) the Reynolds number (6th term) and the Morton number (9th term).

In a geometrically similar model, a true dynamic similarity is achieved only if each dimensionless parameter has the same value in both model and prototype. Scale effects may exist when one or

² For a rectangular channel: $d_c = (Q^2/(g \times B^2))^{1/3}$ and $V_c = (g \times Q/B)^{1/3}$ (HENDERSON 1966, CHANSON 2004).

more dimensionless numbers have different values between the model and prototype. In free-surface flows, a Froude similitude is commonly used (NOVAK and CABELKA 1981, LIGGETT 1994). When the same fluids (air and water) are used in both model and prototype, the Morton number becomes a constant. Herein Froude and Morton number similarities were applied and the experiments were conducted in a large size facility operating at relatively large Reynolds numbers. These conditions may correspond to a 1:4 to 1:5 scale study of box culvert cells shown in Figures 1-1B to 1-1H, thus ensuring that the extrapolation of the laboratory data to prototype conditions is unlikely to be adversely affected by significant scale effects.

2.2 EXPERIMENTAL FACILITIES

New experiments were conducted in the Seddon bio-hydrodynamics laboratory at the University of Queensland. Three experimental facilities were used: (1) a 12 m long 0.5 m wide flume, (2) a 3.2 m long 0.25 m wide flume and (3) a recirculating water tunnel with a 0.259×0.251 m² cross-section. The bulk of the measurements were conducted in the 12 m long flume, tests with juvenile silver perch fish (*Bidyanus bidyanus*) were performed in the water tunnel, and calibration tests were undertaken in the 3.2 m long flume.

2.2.1 12 m long flume

Several experiments were conducted in a relatively large rectangular tilting flume (Fig. 2-1A). The channel was 12 m long 0.5 m wide and the channel bed was horizontal herein. The flume was made of smooth PVC bed and glass walls. The waters were supplied by a constant head tank feeding a large intake basin (2.1 m long, 1.1 m wide, 1.1 m deep) leading to the test section through a series of flow straighteners, followed by a bottom and sidewall convergent. The channel ended with a free overfall at $x = 12$ m. Both upstream and downstream of the flume, stainless steel screens were installed to ensure the safety of small fish. The mesh wire had a 1.6 mm diameter, the mesh pattern was square and the mesh opening was 6.75 mm (inside dimensions). Figure 2-2 presents photographs of the screens. The upstream screen was located in the intake basin immediately upstream of the bottom and sidewall convergent. The downstream screen was located 0.57 m upstream of the free overfall. The same flume was previously used by SIMON and CHANSON (2013) and LENG and CHANSON (2014), without upstream and downstream screens.

The water discharge was supplied by a constant head reticulation system, equipped with a biological filter system, enabling fish-friendly chemical-free water. The flow rate was measured with an orifice meter that was designed based upon the British Standards (British Standard 1943) and calibrated on site against a V-notch weir, and the integration of the measured velocity profiles

obtained with the acoustic Doppler velocimeter and with the Prandtl-Pitot tube (³). The percentage of error was expected to be less than 2%.

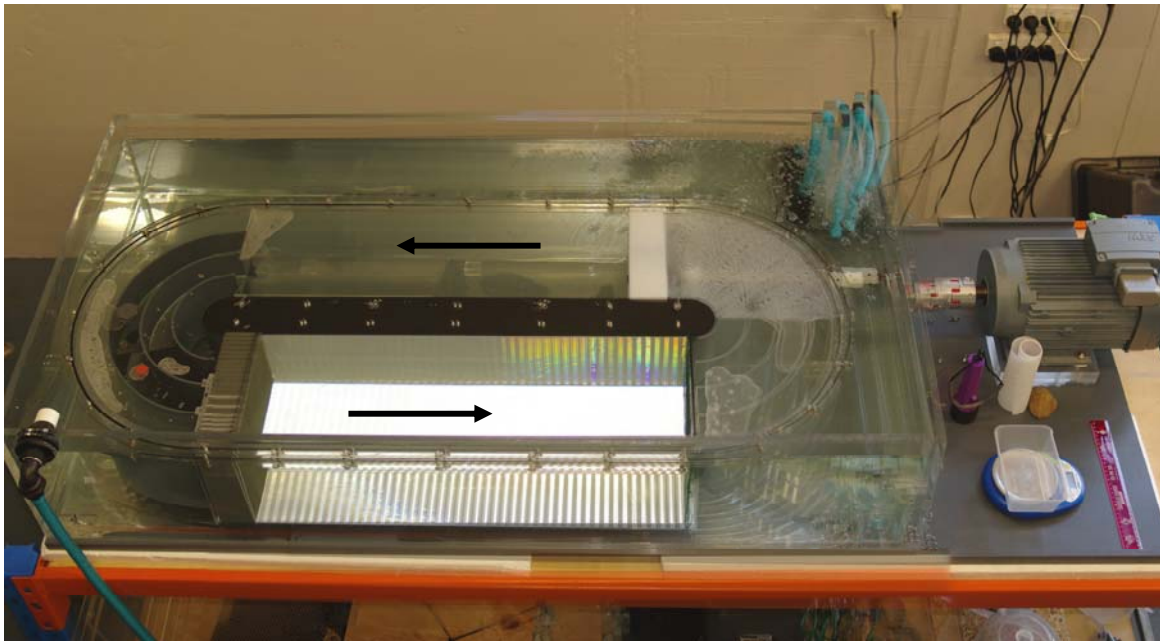


(A) 12 m long flume looking upstream; (Left) Rough bed configuration - note in the background the intake structure, the upstream screen and flow straighteners behind; (Right) Rough bed and rough left sidewall configuration



(B1) General overview - Arrow shows flow direction in working section

³ The calibration data sets are reported in Appendix A.



(B2) View in elevation - Arrows indicate flow direction

(B) Recirculating water tunnel

Fig. 2-1 - Sketch of the experimental facilities

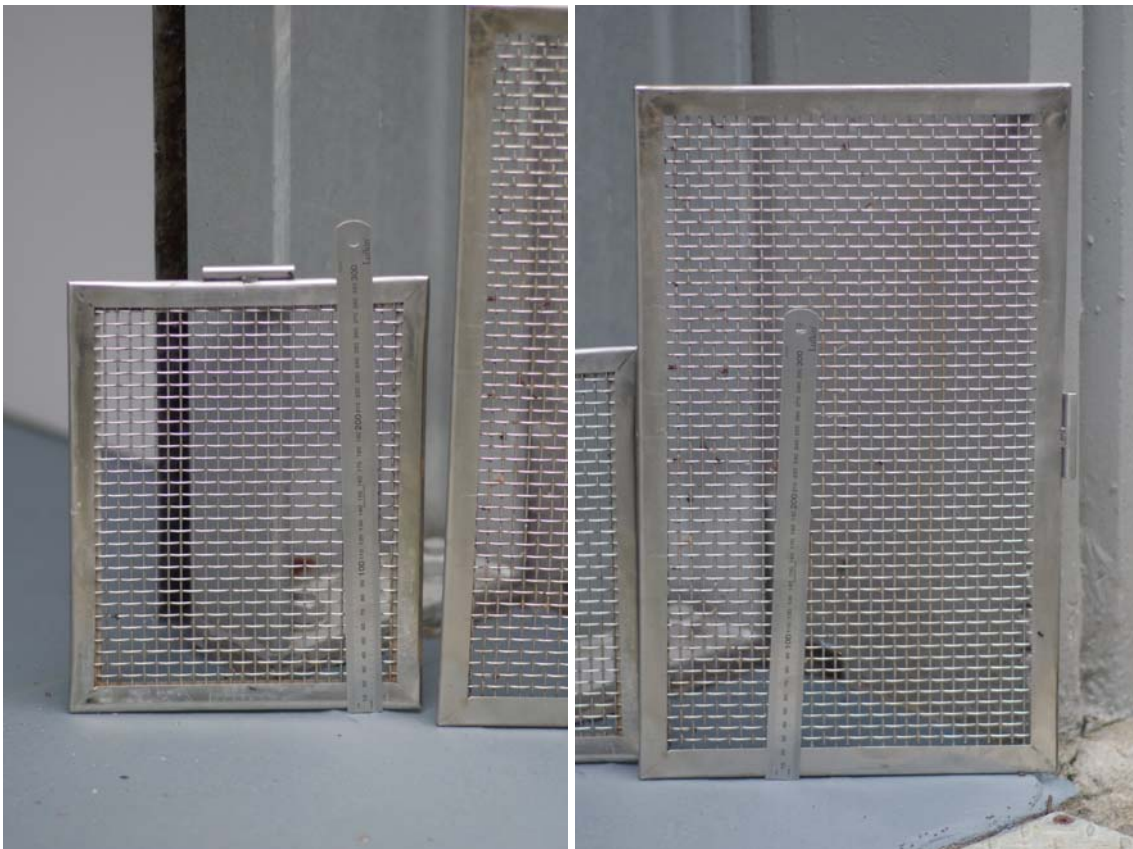


Fig. 2-2 - Details of the stainless steel mesh screens - Mesh wire diameter: 1.6 mm, square opening, opening size: 6.75 mm

2.2.2 3.2 m long flume

Calibration tests were performed in a 3.2 m long 0.25 m wide rectangular tilting flume. The PVC channel bed was horizontal herein and the sidewalls were made out of glass. The waters were supplied by the constant head tank system feeding a small intake basin leading to the test section through a series of flow straighteners, followed by a convergent. The channel ended with a free overfall at $x = 3.2$ m. Both upstream and downstream of the flume, stainless steel screens (⁴) were installed to ensure the safety of small fish. The upstream screen was located in the intake basin immediately upstream of the bed and sidewall convergent. The downstream screen was located 0.21 m upstream of the free overfall. The flow rate was measured with a Venturi meter that was designed based upon the British Standards (British Standard 1943) and calibrated on site (Appendix A).

2.2.3 Water tunnel

The fish swimming tests were conducted using a small LoligoTM recirculating water tunnel with a 0.86 m long 0.251 m wide and 0.259 m high working section made of perspex (Fig. 2-1B). The volume of the water tunnel system was 0.185 m³ and it was placed in a 0.4 m³ rectangular water tank. The top section was equipped with a 0.215 m diameter access panel to insert the velocimeter. Screens and mesh were installed at both test section ends to restrict the fish movements.

Water quality was maintained using a continuous flow of filtered fresh water from an external reservoir enabling a constant temperature of 24 C \pm 0.5 C. A continuous flow motion in the tunnel test section was delivered by a screw pump.

The flow hydrodynamics in the water tunnel were assessed before swimming tests with direct measurements covering a velocity range from 0.1 m/s to 1.1 m/s.

2.3 INSTRUMENTATION

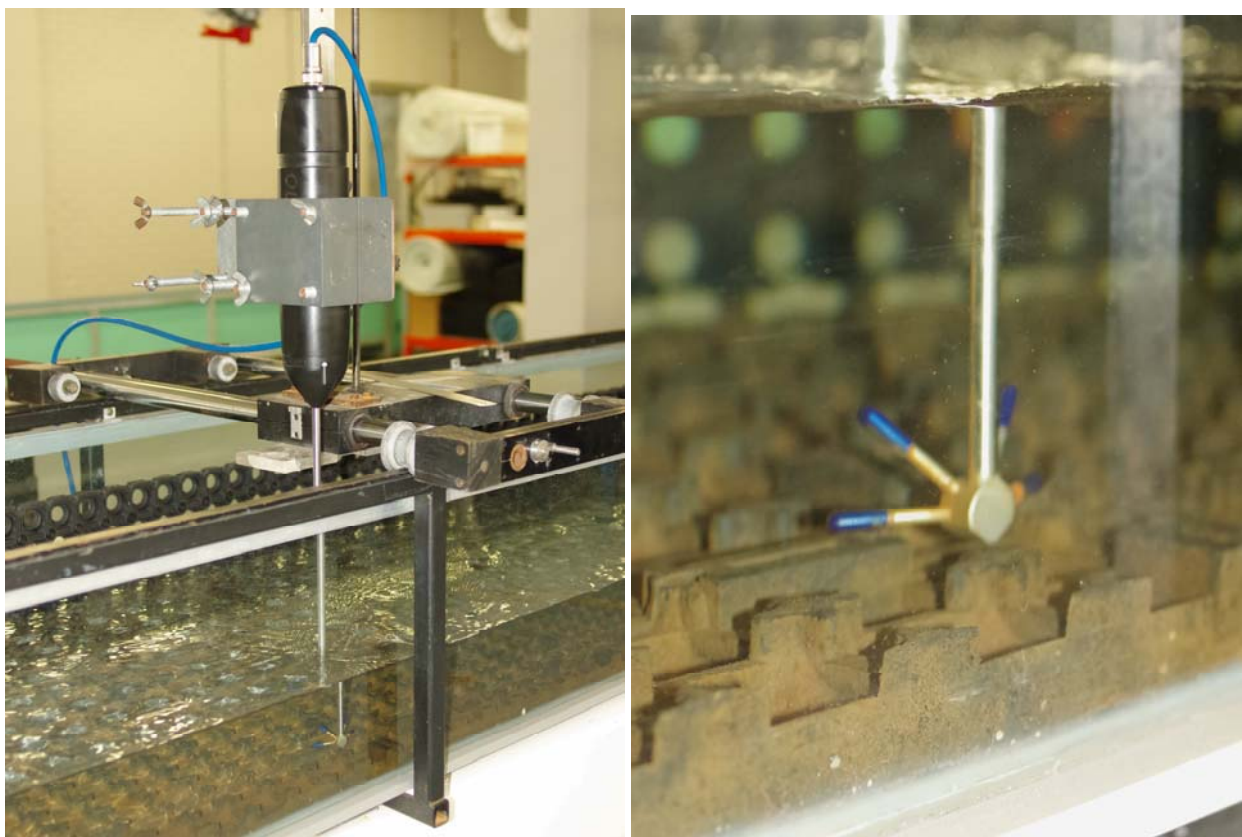
2.3.1 Presentation

The water depths were measured using rail mounted pointer gauges.

In the 12 m long and 3.2 m long flumes, the velocity measurements were conducted with either a Prandtl-Pitot tube or an acoustic Doppler velocimeter (ADV). The Pitot tube was a Dwyer® 166 Series Prandtl-Pitot tube with a 3.18 mm diameter tube made of corrosion resistant stainless steel, and featured a hemispherical total pressure tapping ($\text{\O} = 1.19$ mm) at the tip with four equally spaced static pressure tappings ($\text{\O} = 0.51$ mm) located 25.4 mm behind the tip. The tip design met

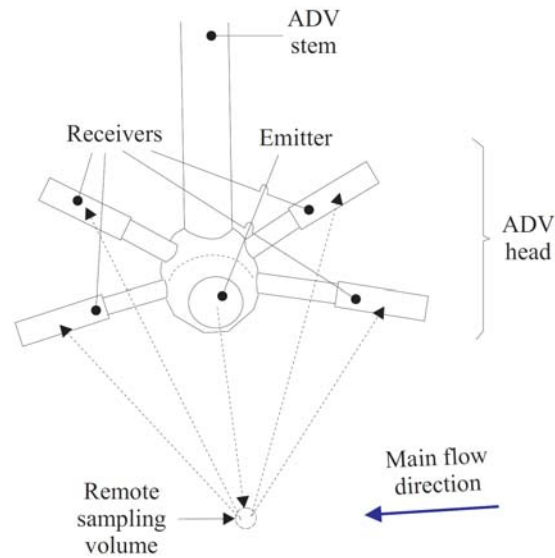
⁴ The same screen mesh was used for both 12 m long and 3.2 m long flumes, with a mesh wire diameter: 1.6 mm, square opening, opening size: 6.75 mm (Fig. 2-2).

AMCA and ASHRAE specifications and the tube did not require calibration (⁵). The acoustic Doppler velocimeter was a Nortek™ Vectrino+ (Serial No. VNO 0436) unit equipped with a three-dimensional side-looking head (Fig. 2-3). The velocity range was ± 1.0 m/s and the sampling rate was 200 Hz. The ADV was set up with a transmit length of 0.3 mm and a sampling volume of 1.5 mm height. The ADV signal was sampled at 200 Hz for 180 s at each point. The translation of the Pitot-Prandtl and ADV probes in the vertical direction was controlled by a fine adjustment travelling mechanism connected to a Mitutoyo™ digimatic scale unit. The error on the vertical position of the probes was $\Delta z < 0.025$ mm. The accuracy on the longitudinal position was estimated as $\Delta x < \pm 2$ mm. The accuracy on the transverse position of the probe was less than 1 mm.



(A, Left) General view of the ADV unit, flow from left to right
(B, Right) Details of the ADV head above the roughness bed

⁵ Reference: <http://www.dwyer-inst.com/Product/TestEquipment/PitotTubes/Series160>.



(C) Sketch of the ADV side-looking head

Fig. 2-3 - Acoustic Doppler velocimeter

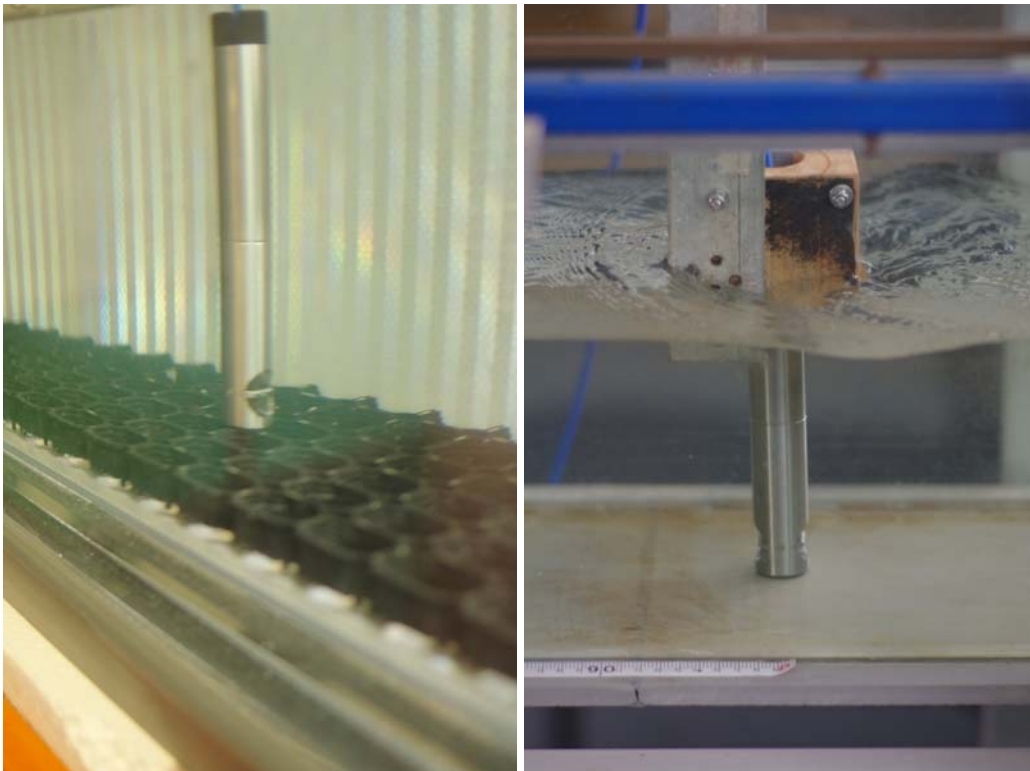


Fig. 2-4 - Propeller velocimeter - Left: in the recirculating water tunnel; Right: in the 3.2 m long flume, with flow direction from left to right

In the water tunnel, the velocity was measured using a HontzschTM vane wheel AC10002 meter. The meter consisted of a 30 mm diameter body with a 25 mm circular housing and a 22 mm

diameter propeller ⁽⁶⁾. The propeller meter was also tested in the 3.2 m long flume against the ADV and Pitot tube data (Appendix B). Figure 2-4 shows photographs of the propeller meter.

Additional information was obtained with digital cameras PentaxTM K-3 and CasioTM Exlim EX-10, with movie mode set at 240 fps (512×384 pixels).

2.3.2 Acoustic Doppler velocimetry and data processing

The acoustic Doppler velocimeter (ADV) operation is based on the Doppler shift effect. The velocity measurements are inferred from the Doppler shift measurements of particles in a remote sampling volume (VOULGARIS and TROWBRIDGE 1998, McLELLAND and NICHOLAS 2000). For each velocity component sample, the ADV system records the level of signal strength, correlation value and signal-to-noise ratio. These parameters are indicative of the quality and reliability of velocity measurements (McLELLAND and NICHOLAS 2000, CHANSON 2008). Past and present experiences demonstrated some recurrent issues because the ADV signal outputs combined the effects of velocity fluctuations, Doppler noise, signal aliasing, turbulent shear and other errors (LEMMIN and LHERMITTE 1999, GORING and NIKORA 2002, CHANSON et al. 2007,2008, DOROUDIAN et al. 2007, DOCHERTY and CHANSON 2010).

For all experiments, the present experience highlighted some problems with the velocity data, including low correlations and low signal to noise ratios. Initially this was primarily caused by a lack of particles in the channel water at the start of the experiments. After several days of operation, natural particles circulated into the reticulation system and no further problem was observed.

The post processing of ADV data was conducted with the software WinADVTM version 2.030. The signal post processing included the removal of communication errors, the removal of average signal to noise ratio data less than 5 dB and the removal of average correlation values less than 60%. In addition, the phase-space thresholding technique developed by GORING and NIKORA (2002) and implemented by WAHL (2003) was used to remove spurious points in the data set.

The proximity of a solid boundary may affect adversely the ADV probe output. Several studies discussed the effects of boundary proximity on sampling volume characteristics and the impact on the time-averaged velocity (FINELLI et al. 1999, LIU et al. 2002, CHANSON et al. 2007). The findings highlighted that acoustic Doppler velocimeter outputs were adversely affected when the solid boundary was less than 30 to 50 mm from the probe sampling volume. Herein, with the side-looking head, the vertical velocity component V_z data were adversely affected by the bed proximity for $z < 0.030$ m, where z is the vertical elevation above the bed, as documented by CHANSON (2010), DOCHERTY and CHANSON (2012) and LENG and CHANSON (2014). Further all

⁶ When the propeller casing sat on the bed, the propeller axis was 17.3 mm above the invert.

velocity components were affected when the control volume was located less than 50 mm from the sidewalls (⁷), with a significant drop in average signal correlations, in average signal-to-noise ratios and in average signal amplitudes.

2.4 BED CONFIGURATIONS AND CHARACTERISTICS

Three types of bed roughness were tested in the 12 m long flume and water tunnel. Some experiments were performed with the smooth PVC invert and smooth sidewalls (Configuration 1). Further experiments were conducted with a rough bed and smooth sidewalls (Configuration 2). The last configuration consisted of a rough bed, a rough sidewall and a smooth sidewall (Configuration 3). All these boundary roughness configurations are illustrated in Figure 2-5. For Configurations 2 and 3, the smooth channel bed was covered with a series of industrial rubber floor mats for $0.05 \text{ m} < x < 10.65 \text{ m}$. The rubber mats consisted of square patterns (Fig. 2-5). They were cut to the channel width and laid on the PVC. With Configuration 3, a series of rubber mats were glued to one sidewall.

Herein the water depths were measured above the top of the rubber mats, that is $z = 0$ as shown in Figure 2-6. On rough walls, the effective origin of the boundary layer is not known (PERRY et al. 1987). In line with studies of d-type roughness (DJENIDI et al. 1999), the assumption of $z = 0$ at the top of the mats was used and it was supported by visual observations suggesting zero to negligible flow motion through the mats themselves.

The hydraulic roughness of the three boundary roughness configurations was tested in the 12 m long flume for a range of steady flow conditions. The gradually-varied flow profiles were recorded in the fully-developed flow region for a range of steady flow rates. The boundary shear stress was deduced from the measured free-surface profiles and estimated friction slopes (⁸). The estimates of Darcy-Weisbach friction factor f for the smooth boundary Configuration 1 ranged from 0.015 to 0.017, corresponding to mean equivalent sand roughness height $k_s = 0.2 \text{ mm}$. The equivalent Darcy friction factor of the rough bed Configuration 2 was $f = 0.07$ to 0.10 (Config. 2), while the friction factor of the rough boundary Configuration 3 was $f = 0.08$ to 0.12 (Config. 3). The results corresponded to an equivalent sand roughness height $k_s \approx 20 \text{ mm}$ (Config. 2) and 30 mm (Config. 3) on average (⁹). The equivalent rugosity height of Configuration 2 was close to the earlier findings

⁷ The same issue was experience with both glass sidewall and rough sidewall herein.

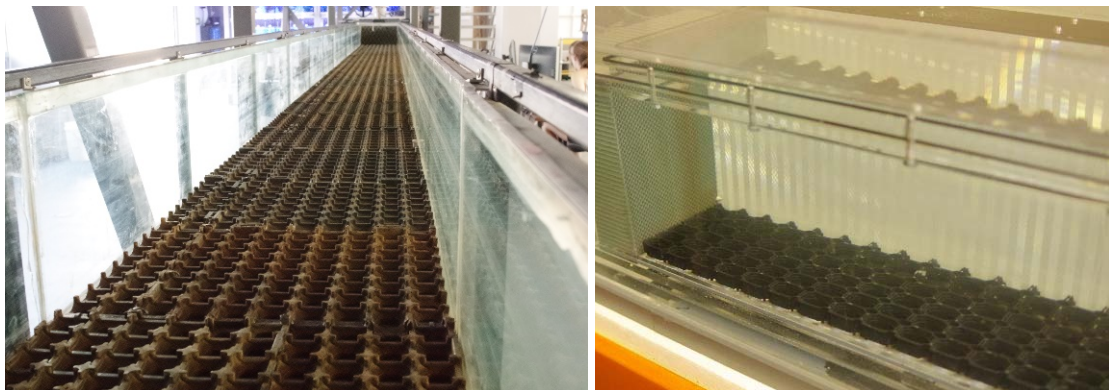
⁸ The friction slope S_f is the slope of the total head line. S_f is related to the Darcy-Weisbach friction factor f by: $S_f = f \times V^2 / (2 \times g \times D_H)$ where D_H is the equivalent pipe diameter (HENDERSON 1966, CHANSON 2004).

⁹ Further experiments with Configuration 3 and $0.015 < Q < 0.053 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ yielded an equivalent Darcy friction factor $0.07 < f < 0.11$ corresponding to an equivalent sand roughness height $20 < k_s < 25 \text{ mm}$.

of LENG and CHANSON (2014) with the same bed roughness configuration ⁽¹⁰⁾.



(A) Configuration 1: smooth bed and sidewalls



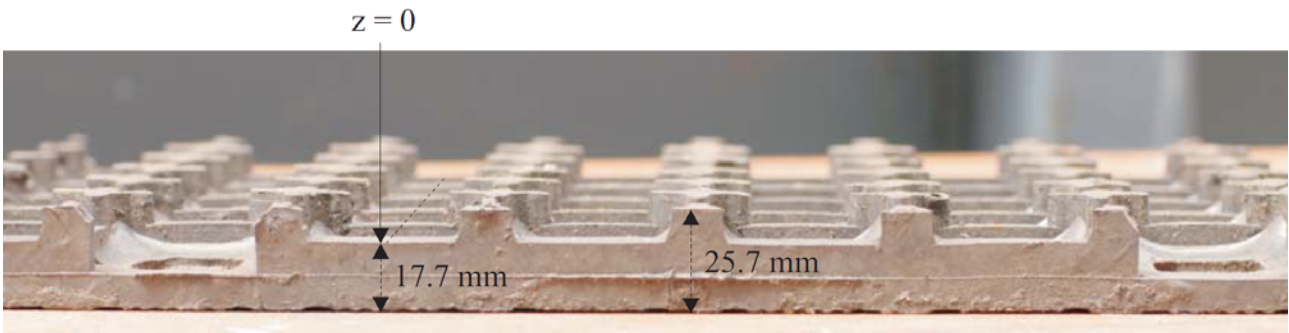
(B) Configuration 2: rough bed and smooth sidewalls



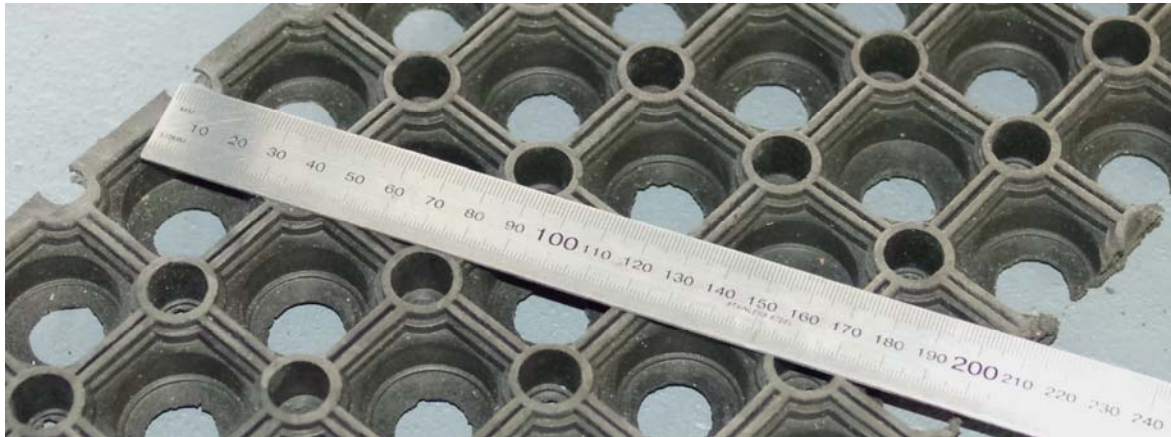
(C) Configuration 3: rough bed, and combination of rough and smooth sidewall

Fig. 2-5 - Roughness configurations in the 12 m long flume (Left) and water tunnel (Right)

¹⁰ In the same flume with the same bed materials, LENG and CHANSON (2014) reported Darcy friction factors $f = 0.09$ to 0.18 corresponding to an equivalent sand roughness height $k_s = 39$ mm. However the inflow conditions differed: no upstream screen was located in the intake basin during their experiments.



(A) Rubber mat used on the 12 m long channel bed (after LENG and CHANSON 2014) - Note the rubber 'spikes' protruding above the vertical origin ($z = 0$)



(B) Rubber mat used in the water tunnel and along the 12 m long flume sidewall - The vertical origin ($z = 0$) was set at the top of the mat where the ruler is



(C) Rubber mat used in the water tunnel and along the 12 m long flume sidewall

Fig. 2-6 - Rubber mat details

2.5 EXPERIMENTAL FLOW CONDITIONS

Several series of experiments were conducted. In the 12 m long flume, the measurements focused on the effects of boundary roughness on the turbulent flow properties, with some relatively high inflow turbulence. The 3.2 m long flume was used to perform comparative tests of velocimeters with a smooth bed and sidewalls (Appendix B). The small recirculating water tunnel was used to undertake fish swimming performance tests (Appendix D).

Table 2-1 summarises the experimental flow conditions.

Table 2-1 - Experimental flow conditions and boundary conditions

Facility	Q m ³ /s	B m	Boundary conditions	Velocity measurement technique
12 m long flume	0.261 0.556	0.50 ^(a) 0.478 ^(b)	PVC bed & glass sidewalls Rough bed & glass sidewalls Rough bed & rough sidewall	Flow meter, Pitot tube, acoustic Doppler velocimeter
3.2 m long flume	0.010 0.020	0.25	PVC bed & glass sidewalls	Flow meter, Pitot tube, acoustic Doppler velocimeter, Propeller
Recirculating water tunnel	--	0.25 ^(a) 0.225 ^(b)	Smooth bed & sidewalls Rough bed & smooth sidewalls Rough bed & rough sidewall	Propeller

Notes: B: channel width; Q: water discharge; (--) data not available; ^(a) Configurations 1 and 2 with smooth sidewalls; ^(b): Configuration 3 with rough left sidewall.

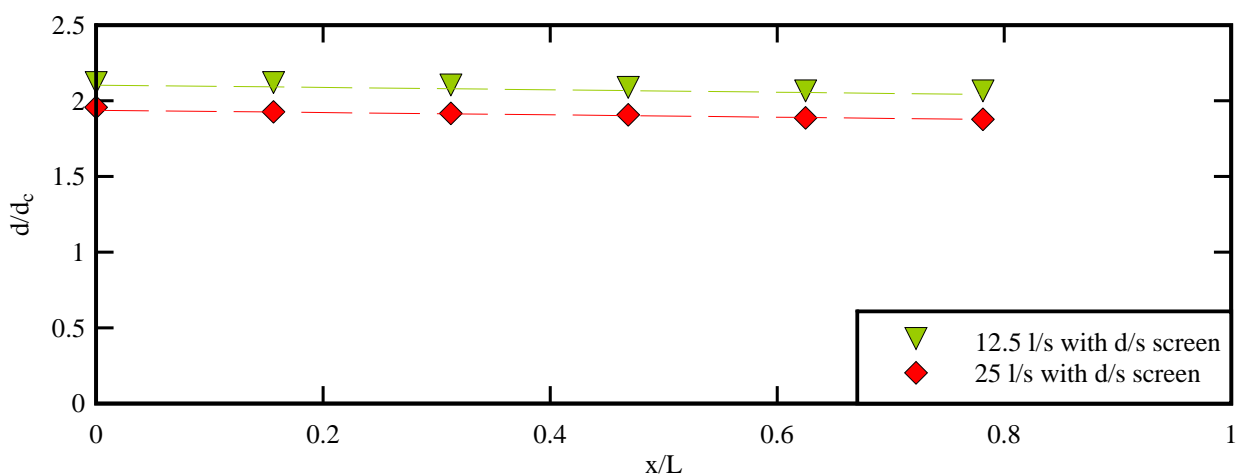
3. TIME-AVERAGED VELOCITY AND TURBULENCE MEASUREMENTS

3.1 PRESENTATION

In the 12 m and 3.2 m long channels, the upstream flow was relatively turbulent, because of the upstream screens, located at the upstream end of the intake convergent. The inflow turbulence was measured with the acoustic Doppler velocimeter. At the upstream end of the channels, the turbulence intensity Tu ranged from 17% to 20% in the 3.2 m long channel, while $Tu \approx 16\%$ in the 12 m long flume irrespective of the channel roughness configuration (¹). Herein the turbulence intensity is defined as $Tu = v_x'/V_x$, where v_x' is the standard deviation of the longitudinal velocity component and V_x is the time-averaged longitudinal velocity component. For comparison, DOCHERTY and CHANSON (2012) and SIMON and CHANSON (2013) measured some inflow turbulence in the 12 m long channel in absence of screens: i.e., about $Tu \sim 5\text{-}10\%$, depending upon the discharge.

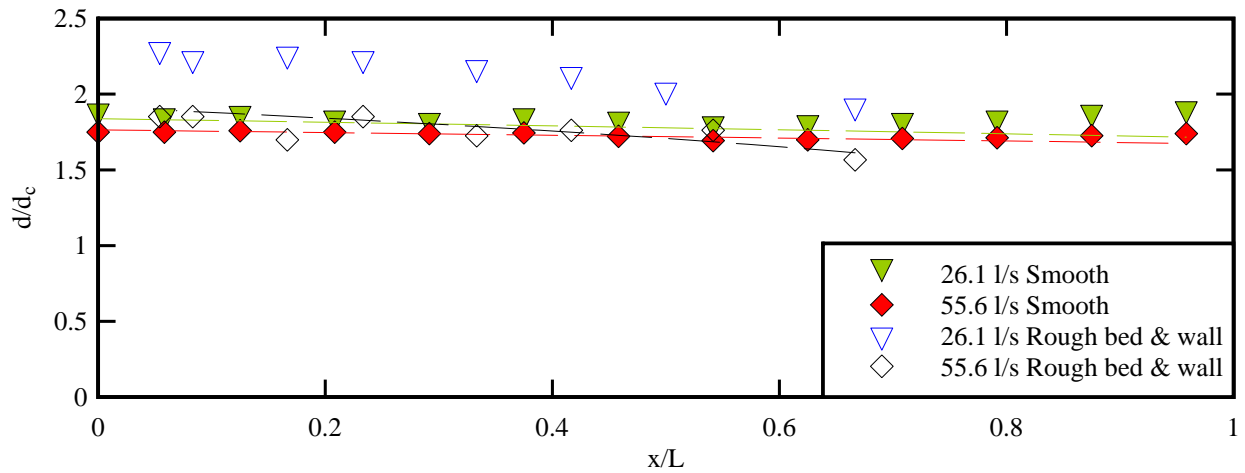
The flow was subcritical along both channels, with decreasing water depth with increasing downstream distance. The longitudinal free-surface profiles presented a H2 backwater profile (BRESSE 1860, CHOW 1959). This is illustrated in Figure 3-1. In presence of boundary roughness, the boundary friction induced a greater rate of decrease in water depth with increasing downstream distance.

Another flow feature was the 'backwater effect' induced by the downstream screen, because the downstream screen induced some energy loss. Herein the downstream screen was regularly cleaned to prevent any clogging.



(A) 3.2 m long flume with smooth PVC bed and glass sidewalls

¹ The data were recorded with the ADV unit in the free-stream on the channel centreline at $x = 0.65$ m in 12 m long channel and $x = 0.5$ m in 3.2 m long flume.



(B) 12 m long flume: comparison between Configuration 1 (smooth PVC bed and glass sidewalls) and Configuration 3 (rough bed and rough left sidewall)

Fig. 3-1 - Dimensionless longitudinal free-surface profiles - Comparison between experimental observations and backwater calculations (dashed lines)

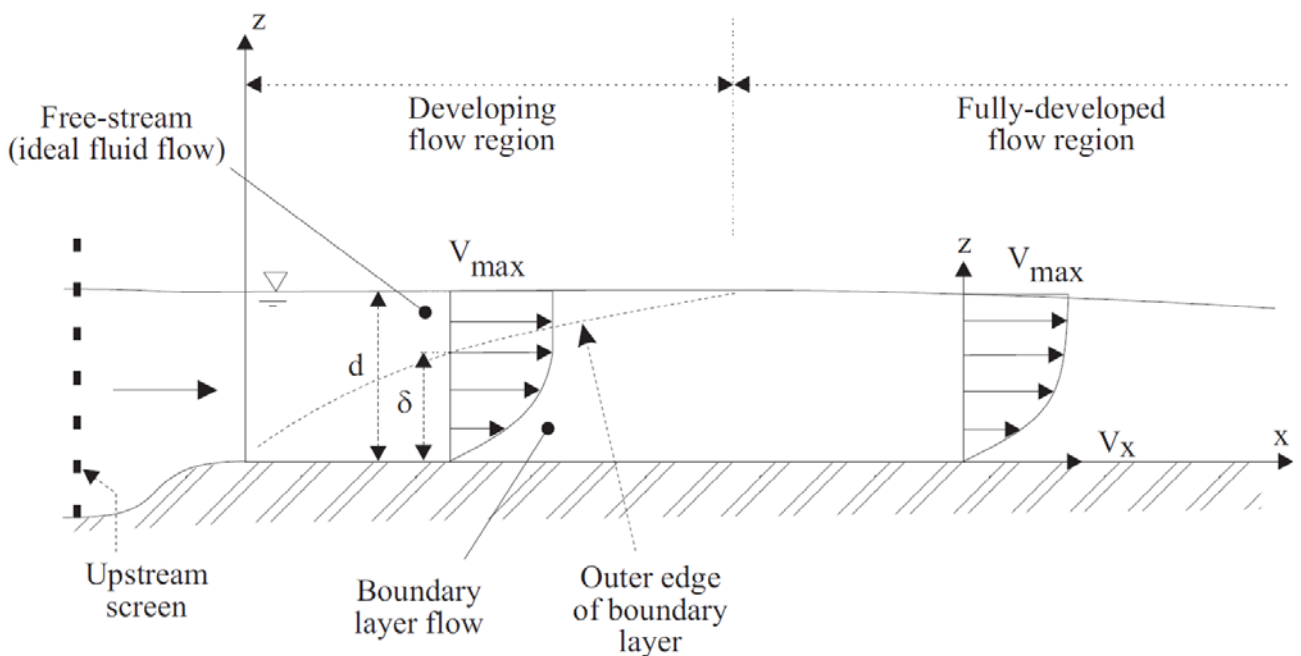
Detailed velocity measurements were conducted on the channel centreline with smooth and rough bed configurations (Config. 1 & 2). Experimental flow conditions are summarised in Table 3-1 and compared with relevant laboratory studies. In the 3.2 m long flume, the flow was partially-developed for the whole length of the channel for all flow conditions (Table 3-1). That is, the vertical velocity distributions exhibited a sharp velocity gradient in a relatively thin region next to the bed, called boundary layer, and the velocity profile was uniform above the boundary layer.

In the 12 m long flume, the results indicated that the upstream part of the channel flow was characterised by a developing boundary layer with an ideal fluid flow region above. Further downstream the outer edge of the boundary layer interacted with the free-surface and the downstream flow became fully-developed. The longitudinal flow pattern is sketched in Figure 3-2A. Typical vertical distributions of time-averaged longitudinal velocity V_x and standard deviations of velocity components v_x' , v_y' and v_z' are shown in Figures 3-2B and 3-2C for smooth and rough bed configurations respectively. In the 12 m long flume, the flow became fully-developed for $x > 6.5-8$ m on the smooth bed configuration (Config. 1) and for $x > 4-5$ m on the rough bed configuration (Config. 2).

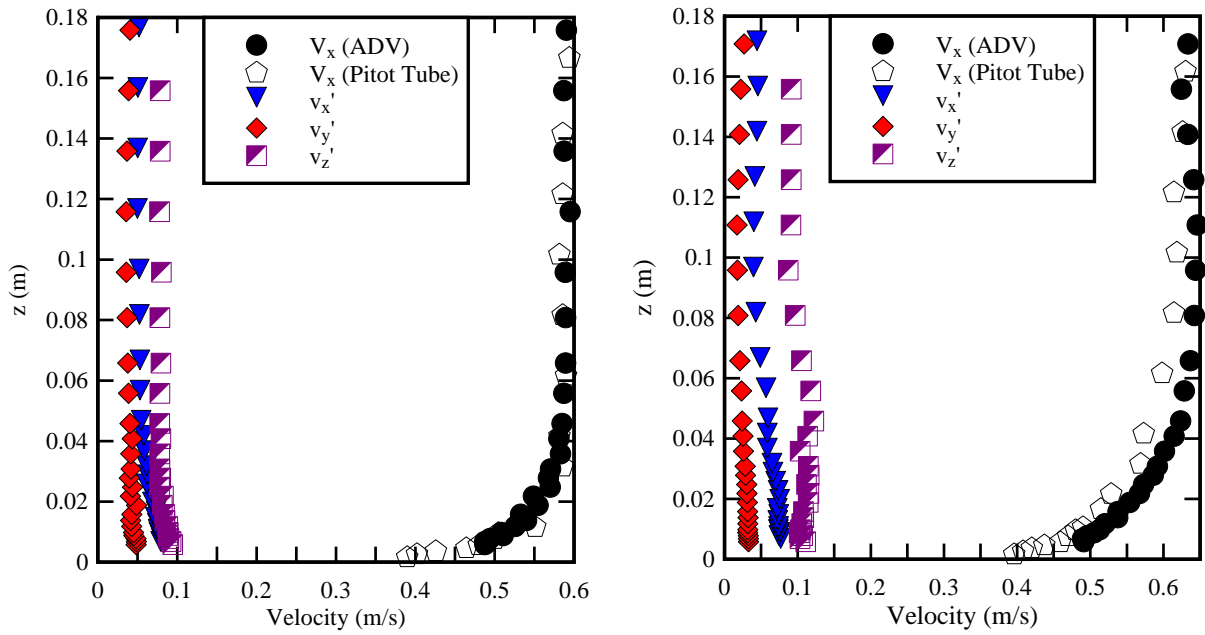
Table 3-1 - Experimental flow conditions for velocity measurements in open channels

Facility	Boundary conditions	S_o	B m	Q m^3/s	d m	B/d
Present Study 12 m long flume	PVC bed & glass sidewalls	0	0.50	0.261	0.121-0.124	4.03-4.13
				0.556	0.185-0.193	2.54-2.7
	Rough bed & glass sidewalls	0	0.50	0.261	0.112-0.129	3.9-4.48
				0.556	0.192-0.206	2.43-2.6
	Rough bed & rough sidewall	0	0.478	0.261	0.129-0.154	3.15-3.7
0.556				0.174-0.222	2.6-2.87	
Present Study 3.2 m long flume	PVC bed & glass sidewalls	0	0.25	0.010	0.115-0.120	2.08-2.17
				0.020	0.165-0.170	1.47-1.51
NEZU & RODI (1985)	Smooth invert	--	0.60	0.018	0.060	10
				0.0052	0.060	10
				0.029	0.100	6
			0.20	0.011	0.101	2
			0.175	0.025	0.103	1.69
			0.2	0.020	0.195	1.0
APELT & XIE (2011) 13.5 m long flume	Smooth plywood	0.0003	0.40	0.015	0.125	3.2

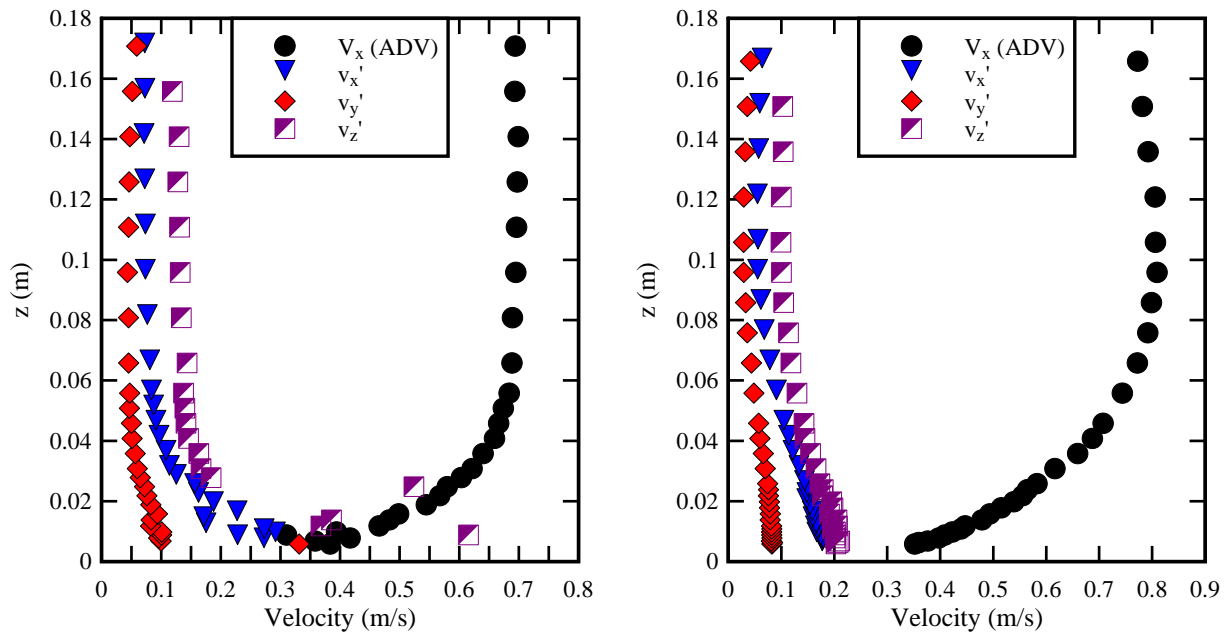
Notes: B: channel width; d: water depth measured above invert; Q: water discharge; S_o : bed slope; (–): information not available.



(A) Definition sketch



(B) Vertical distributions of time-averaged velocity V_x and standard deviations of velocity components v_x' , v_y' and v_z' in the 12 m long flume for $Q = 0.0556 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$, smooth PVC bed (Config. 1) - Left: partially-developed flow at $x = 2.8 \text{ m}$, Right: fully-developed flow at $x = 8 \text{ m}$



(C) Vertical distributions of time-averaged velocity V_x and standard deviations of velocity components v_x' , v_y' and v_z' in the 12 m long flume for $Q = 0.0556 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$, rough PVC bed (Config. 2) - Left: partially-developed flow at $x = 2.8 \text{ m}$, Right: fully-developed flow at $x = 6.5 \text{ m}$

Fig. 3-2 - Centreline velocity profiles on smooth and rough bed configurations (Config. 1 and 2)

In the developing flow region, the boundary shear stress was derived from the momentum integral equation applied to the developing boundary layer flow (SCHLICHTING 1979, CHANSON 2009).

Typical results are presented in Figure 3-3 for the 12 m long flume, where τ_o is the boundary shear stress, ρ is the water density, V_{max} is the free-stream velocity (i.e. ideal fluid flow velocity) and L is the channel length ($L = 12$ m). In Figure 3-3, the smooth bed configuration data are compared with the analytical solution for a turbulent developing boundary layer above a smooth plate in absence of pressure gradient (dashed black line). The data showed a relatively close agreement between the smooth bed data and theoretical solution, as well as a marked increase in dimensionless boundary shear stress for the rough bed configuration. The results were little affected by the flow rate within the range of investigated flow conditions (Table 3-1).

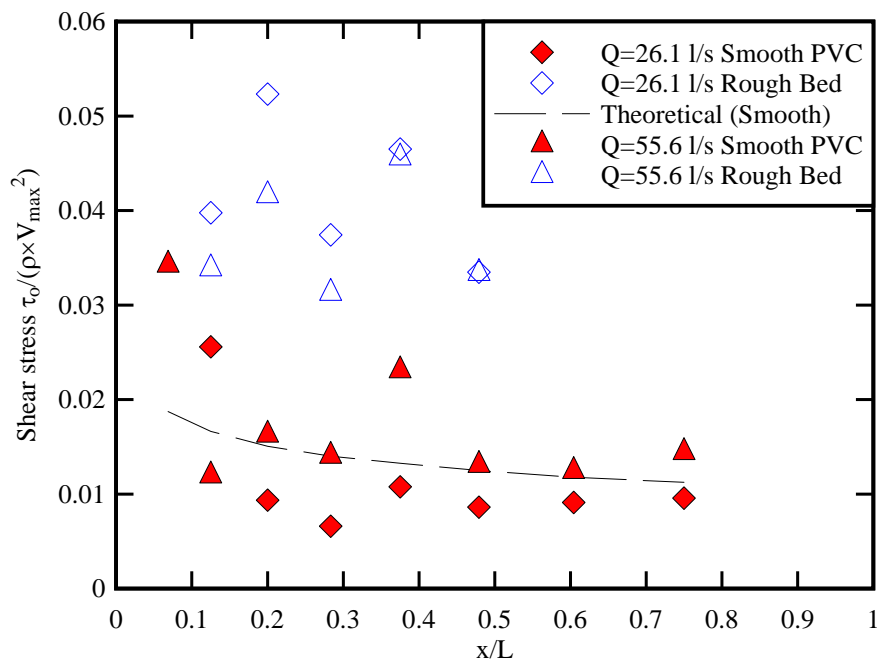


Fig. 3-3 - Dimensionless longitudinal distribution of boundary shear stress in the developing flow region in the 12 m long flume - Comparison between smooth and rough bed configuration data (Config. 1 and 2) and analytical solution for a turbulent developing boundary layer above a smooth plate in absence of pressure gradient

3.2 ROUGH BED AND SIDEWALL CONFIGURATION OBSERVATIONS

For the Configuration 3, the boundary roughness was asymmetrical, with a rough invert, a rough left wall and a smooth right wall. Owing to the presence of the free-surface and of differences in boundary friction along the wetted perimeter, the velocities in the channel were not uniformly distributed and the velocity field was not symmetrical about the channel centreline. This was clearly evidenced with dye injection showing a slower flow motion next to the rough invert and next to the rough left sidewall, with some complicated flow pattern next to the left corner. Visual observations suggested the development of a sidewall boundary layer at the upstream end of the channel, which

interacted with the bottom boundary layer. The resulting flow motion led to a complicated secondary flow pattern. Next to a rough boundary, the flow was retarded, and some complicated flow patterns developed: e.g., next to the corners. In turn, some flow motion was generated at right angle to the longitudinal current: i.e., secondary currents. Secondary flow velocities are typically very small (e.g. 1 to 2% of mean flow velocity), but the secondary currents transport some momentum from the channel centre towards the corners and sidewalls (SCHLICHTING 1979, LIGGETT 1994). It is well-known that secondary currents play a major role in open channel flows including both natural rivers and man-made waterways (KNIGHT et al. 1984, MACINTOSH 1990, NEZU and NAKAGAWA 1993, APELT and XIE 1995,2011, XIE 1998) ⁽²⁾. Laboratory and field observations showed the existence of large streamwise vortices with lateral length scale of between 1.5 and 3 times the water depth (NEZU and RODI 1985, TAMBURRINO and GULLIVER 2007, TREVETHAN et al. 2008).

The time-averaged longitudinal velocity contours are illustrated in Figure 3-4. In Figure 3-4, the left graphs correspond to $Q = 0.0261 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ while the right graphs were obtained for $Q = 0.0556 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$. On each graph, the left axis corresponds to the smooth right wall and the right axis to the rough left wall. At the upstream end of the channel, the effects of boundary friction were confined to a narrow region close to the bed and sidewalls (e.g. Fig.. 3-4A and 3-4B). With increasing downstream distance, the flow region affected by boundary friction extended to the entire cross-section area. The velocity data showed a complicated velocity pattern in the left bottom corner with the rough bed and rough left sidewall.

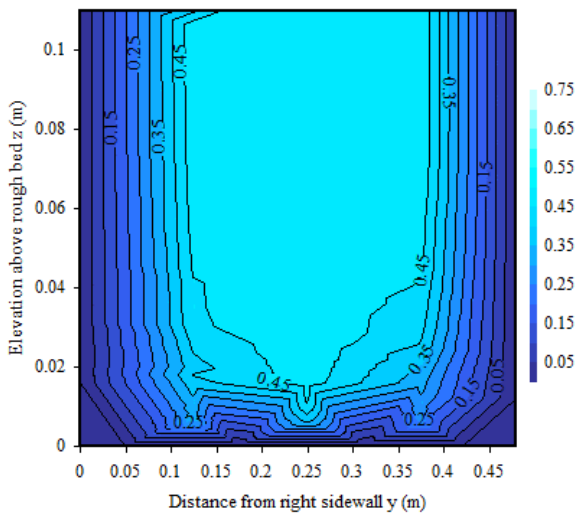
A phenomenon of velocity dip is seen in Figure 3-4, in which the maximum velocity V_{\max} at each transverse location was observed at a vertical elevation $Z_{V_{\max}}/d < 1$, where d is the depth of flow. The dip in velocity profile was believed to be caused by the presence of secondary currents (NEZU and RODI 1985, APELT and XIE 2011). Low momentum fluid was transported from near the side walls to the centre and high momentum fluid was moved from the free surface toward the bed (GIBSON 1909, NEZU and RODI 1985, XIE 1998).

In Configuration 3, the maximum velocity and its location were found to be functions of the transverse locations (Fig. 3-5). Figure 3-5 regroups experimental observations in fully-developed flows for Configurations 1, 2 and 3, where B is the channel width and V_{mean} is cross-sectional averaged velocity: $V_{\text{mean}} = Q/(B \times d)$. On average, the cross sectional maximum velocity was observed at about $Z_{V_{\max}}/d \approx 0.62$ and $Y_{V_{\max}}/B = 1/3$, where $V_{\max}/V_{\text{mean}} \approx 1.6$. That is, the cross-sectional maximum was observed below the free-surface towards the right smooth sidewall. The relative elevation of cross-sectional maximum velocity was close to the observations of XIE (1998)

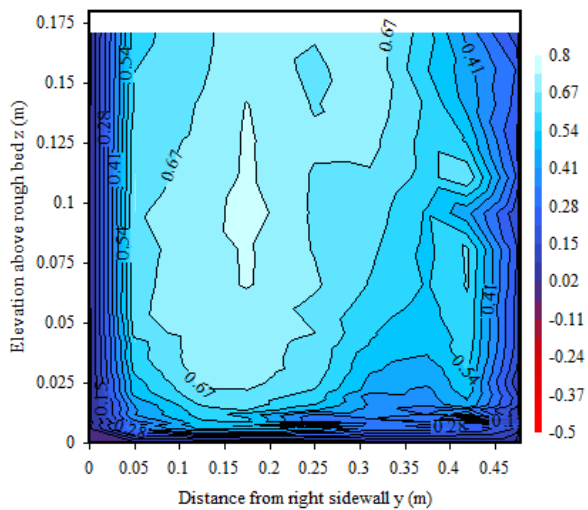
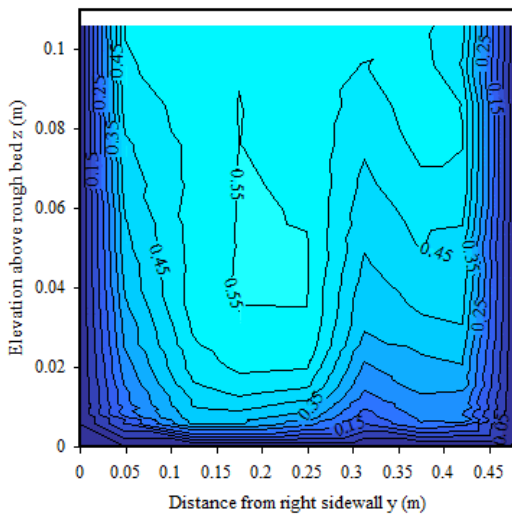
² For a historical account, see MONTES (1998).

in a smooth channel: $Z_{V_{\max}}/d \approx 0.66$ (also APELT and XIE 2011).

On the channel centreline ($y/B = 0.5$), the ratio of maximum velocity to free-surface velocity equalled 1.03 on average (Configuration 3), close to $V_{\max}/V_{fs} \approx 1.02$ in Configuration 2 ⁽³⁾. For comparison, NEZU and RODI (1985) reported $V_{\max}/V_{fs} \approx 1.1$ in a smooth and wide channel ($B/d = 10$). Close to the sidewalls, the ratio of maximum velocity to free-surface velocity was larger than or equal to 1.1, and the relative elevation of maximum velocity was within $Z_{V_{\max}}/d \approx 0.3-0.5$ (Fig. 3-4B). Full results are summarised in Appendix C.

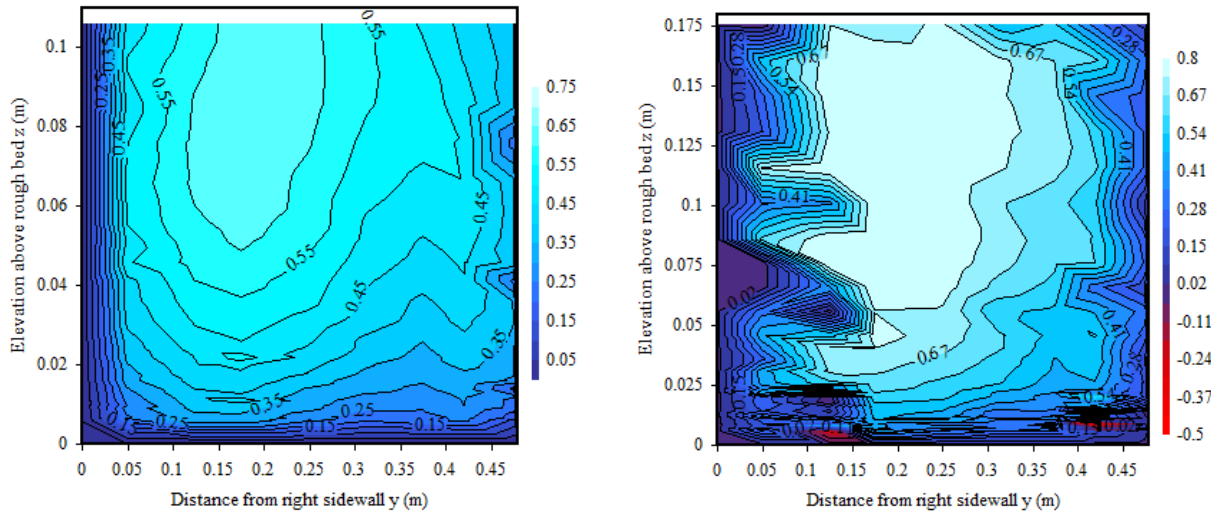


(A) $x = 0.65$ m - Left: $Q = 0.0261$ m³/s

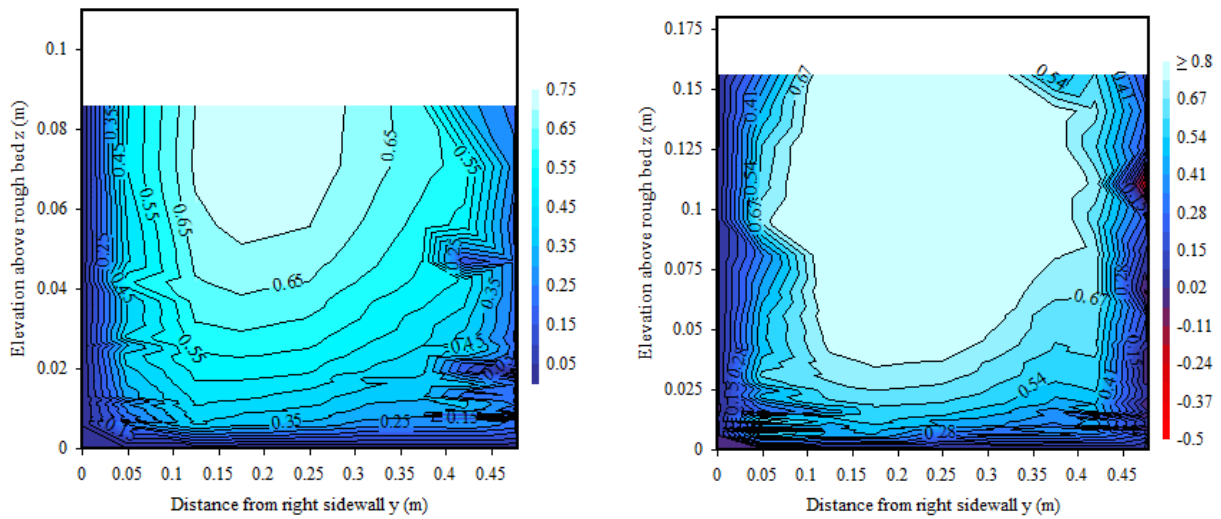


(B) $x = 2.0$ m - Left: $Q = 0.0261$ m³/s; Right: $Q = 0.0556$ m³/s

³ Observations in the fully-developed flow region ($x > 4-4.5$ m).



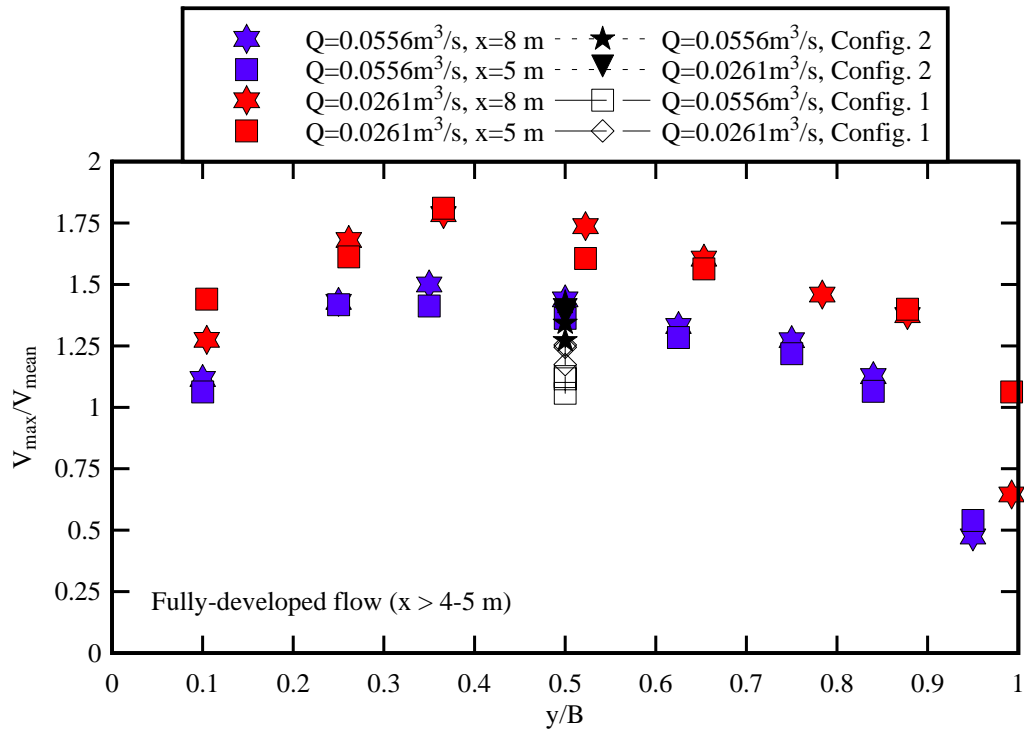
(C) $x = 5.0 \text{ m}$ - Left: $Q = 0.0261 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$; Right: $Q = 0.0556 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$



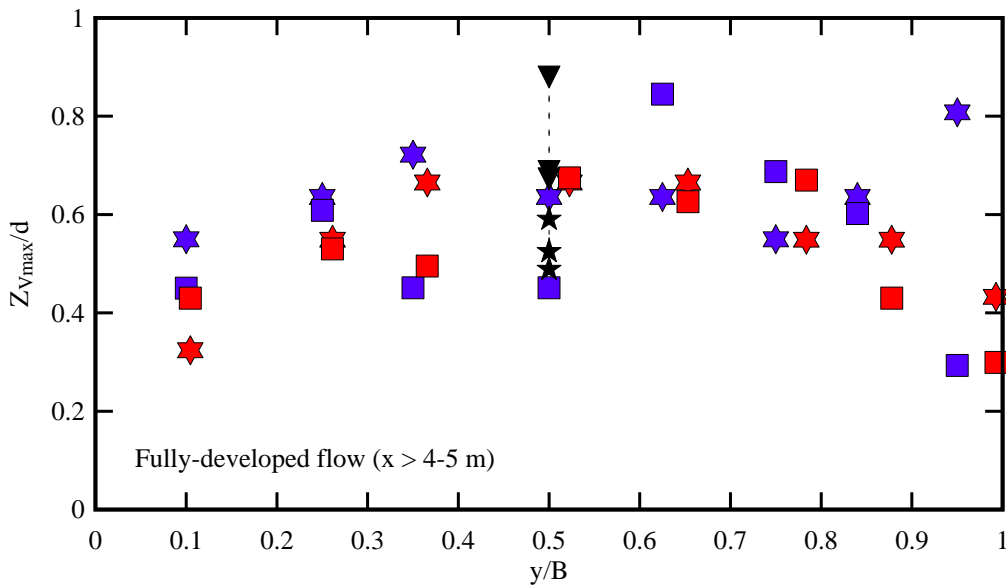
(D) $x = 8.0 \text{ m}$ - Left: $Q = 0.0261 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$; Right: $Q = 0.0556 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$

Fig. 3-4 - Contour curves of constant longitudinal velocity V_x in the 12 m long channel with rough bed and sidewall (Configuration 3) - $y = 0$ at the right smooth sidewall, velocity scale in m/s - Note the vertical distortion

Visual observations, supported with dye injection, showed some recirculation motion next to the left rough sidewall and at the corner between the rough bed and sidewall. A strong longitudinal vortex stretched near the channel bed and a smaller vortex took place on the left side near the free surface. No similar vortex pattern was seen in the right side of the channel, possibly because the transverse velocity gradient $\partial V_x / \partial y$ was large and dye recirculation was not visible. These vortical structures are called 'bottom vortex' and 'free surface vortex' respectively (APELT and XIE 2011). The free surface vortex was studied by many researchers (GIBSON 1909, NEZU and RODI 1985) while the bottom vortex was first evidenced by NEZU and RODI (1985) (XIE 1998, APELT and



(A) Maximum velocity V_{max}



(B) Vertical elevation of maximum velocity Z_{Vmax}

Fig. 3-5 - Transverse distribution of maximum velocity and its location as function of the transverse location in the 12 m long channel with rough bed and sidewall (Configuration 3), with the same legend for all graphs - Comparison with centreline data for Configurations 1 and 2 - Note $y = 0$ at the right smooth sidewall

Contours of distributions of longitudinal velocity fluctuations v_x' are shown in Figure 3-6. The graphs show the distributions of v_x' at three different longitudinal locations for the same discharge. Maximum velocity fluctuations were recorded close to the rough bed and rough sidewall. Along most vertical lines away from side walls, the longitudinal velocity fluctuations v_x' presented a local minimum below the free surface, at about the same elevation where the longitudinal velocity V_x was maximum. From this local minimum, v_x' increased slightly towards the free surface and increased substantially with depth to its maximum close the invert (⁴). The trend was also seen with the smooth bed and rough bed data, and previously reported by APELT and XIE (2011).

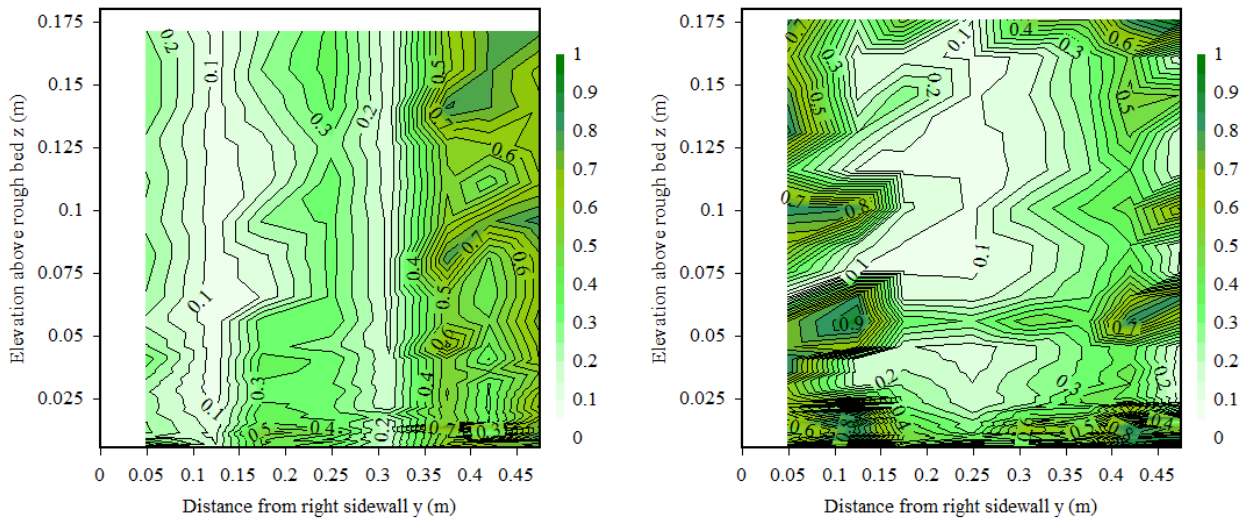
The cross sectional minimum values of longitudinal velocity fluctuations were about the centre line with $(v_x')_{\min}/V_{\text{mean}} \sim 0.10-0.12$. Such minimum values were close to the smooth bed and rough bed data. The cross-sectional maximum value of $(v_x')_{\max}/V_{\text{mean}}$ was observed close to the bottom left rough wall, with values about 1.6-2.0. Physically the magnitude of v_x' increased in regions where the velocity gradients $\partial V_x/\partial y$ and $\partial V_x/\partial z$ increased. The change in boundary roughness along the wetted perimeter affected these gradients and resulted in a re-distribution of turbulent kinetic energy. The boundary roughness change had a most significant effect on the turbulence intensity. The magnitude of velocity fluctuations was large near the rough side wall across most of the water column, but it became much smaller near the channel centreline.

Contours of distributions of transverse and vertical velocity fluctuations, v_y' and v_z' respectively, are presented in Figure 3-7. The graphs show data in the fully-developed flow region ($x = 8$ m) for the same flow conditions as in Figure 3-6C. Compared to the distributions of longitudinal velocity fluctuations, the data were similar except for the following differences. The vertical velocity fluctuation v_z' was reduced next to the free surface while v_x' was enhanced due to the water surface, as observed by XIE (1998). Another difference was the magnitudes of v_z' , consistently larger than those of v_x' . The reason remains unclear but it might have been linked to the instrumentation. While it is hard to find precise data of the transverse velocity fluctuations v_y' in the literature, the present v_y' data in most parts away from solid boundaries of each cross section were small, consistently smaller than v_x' .

A comparison between the distributions of v_x' and v_y' suggested similar distribution patterns. Along most vertical lines away from sidewalls, the transverse velocity fluctuation v_y' had a local minimum below the free surface. This local minimum was located in the region where the time-averaged longitudinal velocity V_x was maximum. From this local minimum, v_y' increases towards the free surface and increased with depth to its maximum next to the channel bed. The minima of v_y' at all

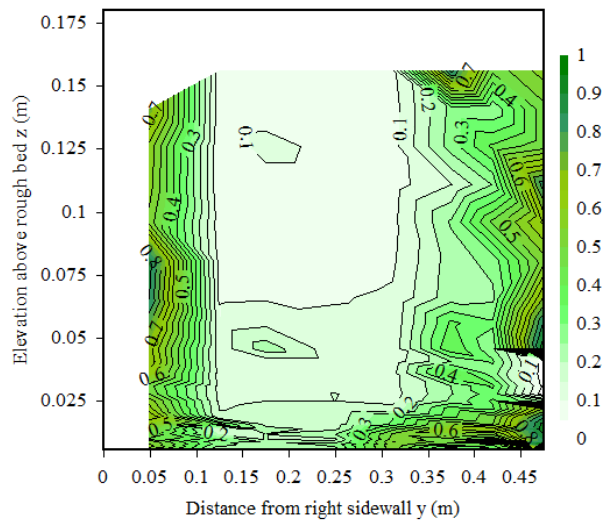
⁴ Theoretically, v_x' , v_y' and v_z' should be zero at $z = 0$, but the lowest ADV sampling elevation was $z = 0.0058$ m.

locations in the fully-developed flow region were about $(v_y')_{\min}/V_{\text{mean}} \sim 0.05\text{-}0.07$ on average. Near the sidewalls, v_y' exhibited high values over most parts of the water column.



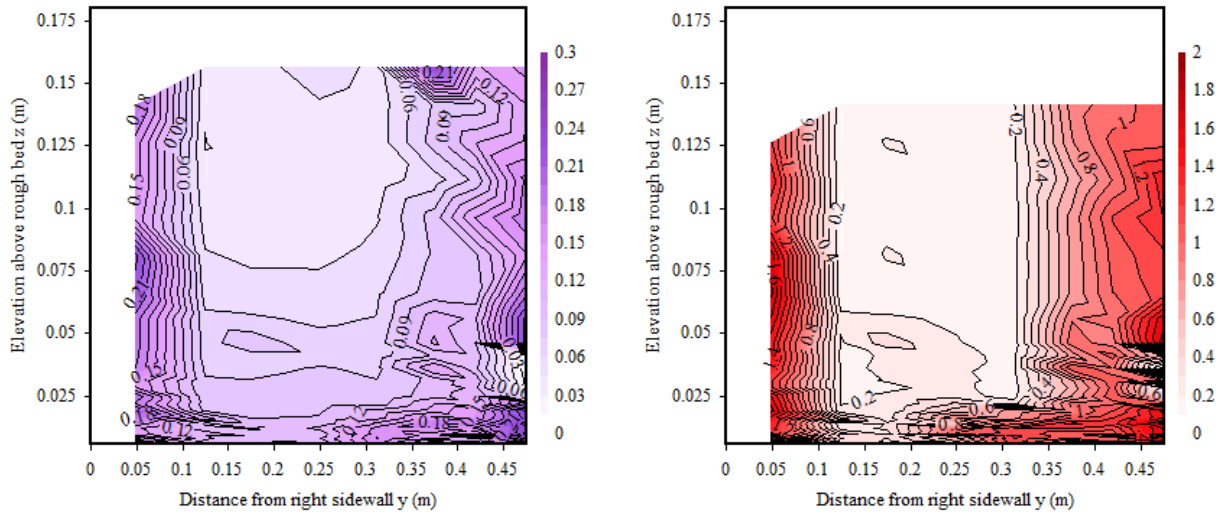
(A) $x = 2$ m

(B) $x = 5$ m



(C) $x = 8$ m

Fig. 3-6 - Contour curves of constant longitudinal velocity fluctuations v_x' in the 12 m long channel with rough bed and sidewall (Configuration 3) - $Q = 0.0556 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$, $y = 0$ at the right smooth sidewall, velocity scale in m/s - Note the vertical distortion



(A) Transverse velocity fluctuation v_y'

(B) Vertical velocity fluctuation v_z'

Fig. 3-7 - Contour curves of constant transverse and vertical velocity fluctuations v_x' at $x = 8$ m in the 12 m long channel with rough bed and sidewall (Configuration 3) - $Q = 0.0556 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$, $x = 8$ m, $y = 0$ at the right smooth sidewall, velocity scale in m/s - Note the vertical distortion

4. SUMMARY

A physical study was undertaken to characterise the turbulence properties in open channels, aiming to find suitable flow conditions to maximise slow and recirculation regions, which might facilitate the passage of fish with small body mass (¹), in particular upstream migration. Three test channels were investigated in the new Seddon bio-hydrodynamics laboratory at the University of Queensland, characterised by a fish-friendly water reticulation system. A key feature was the presence of upstream and downstream screens to contain fish movements in designated test areas without harm, resulting in inflow conditions with large turbulence levels. A total of three boundary roughness configurations were tested, consisting of the smooth boundary Configuration 1, the rough bed Configuration 2 and the rough bed and sidewall Configuration 3. The latter consisted of a very rough bed plus a very rough sidewall and a smooth sidewall.

Both free-surface and velocity measurements implied a fully-rough turbulent flow motion. In boundary roughness Configurations 1 and 2, the data showed that the upstream channel flow consisted of a developing boundary layer with an ideal fluid flow region above. When the outer edge of the boundary layer interacted with the free-surface, the flow became fully-developed and remained fully-developed further downstream. With the smooth bed Configuration 1, the velocity data were close to those for a developing boundary layer on a smooth plate, albeit higher turbulence levels in the free-stream: i.e., free-stream turbulence intensity Tu ranging from 16% to 20%. The experimental measurements showed a marked increase in dimensionless boundary shear stress for the rough bed Configuration 2, in both the developing and fully-developed flow regions.

With the rough bed and sidewall Configuration 3, the analysis of the results showed an asymmetrical velocity field, the existence of the velocity dip and the presence of secondary currents in the three-dimensional turbulent flows. Visual observations and dye injection indicated a recirculation motion next to the left rough sidewall and at the corner between the rough bed and sidewall. The maximum velocity and its location were found to be functions of the transverse locations. The cross-sectional maximum was observed below the free-surface towards the right smooth sidewall. The relative elevation of cross-sectional maximum velocity was close to past observations in smooth channels. Maximum velocity fluctuations were recorded close to the rough bed and rough sidewall. Along most vertical lines away from side walls, the longitudinal and transverse velocity fluctuations, v_x' and v_y' respectively, presented a local minimum below the free surface. This minimum was observed at the same elevation where the longitudinal velocity V_x was maximum. The trend was also seen with the smooth bed and rough bed configuration data. The

¹ That is, small-bodied and juvenile fish less than 100 mm total length.

minima of v_x' and v_y' at all locations in the fully-developed flow region were about $(v_x')_{\min}/V_{\text{mean}} \sim 0.10-0.12$. and $(v_y')_{\min}/V_{\text{mean}} \sim 0.05-0.07$ on average. The vertical velocity fluctuation v_z' was reduced next to the free surface while the vertical velocity fluctuation v_x' was enhanced locally due to the water surface, as observed by XIE (1998).

Overall and based upon the physical modelling, the boundary roughness Configuration 3 appeared to provide excellent recirculation regions next to the rough sidewall and at the corner between the rough sidewall and channel bed, which might be suitable to the upstream passage of small body mass fish, typical of Australian streams. Preliminary experiments in a water tunnel showed that fish swimming performance data depended critically upon a careful testing protocol, as well as upon a sound velocity measurement technique. It must be acknowledged that the present findings are preliminary. Further testing must be conducted to develop quantitative design guidelines, with tests encompassing real fish to be complemented by field monitoring of prototype structures.

5. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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APPENDIX A - DISCHARGE CALIBRATION OF THE SEDDON BIO-HYDRODYNAMICS FLUMES

The Seddon bio-hydraulics laboratory includes five flumes for experimentation: two 12 m by 0.5 m (upper and lower) flumes and three 3.2 m by 0.25 m (#1 blue, #2 green and #3 yellow) flumes. All the flumes were made of a smooth PVC bed and glass side walls, and were supplied by a constant head tank. The 12 m long flumes and two 3.2 m long flumes (#2 green & #3 yellow) had an orifice meter installed on the supply line to measure the water discharge, whereas the other 3.2 m long flume (#1 blue) had a Venturi meter. Within this report, the focus of the experiments was the 12 m long (lower) flume and 3.2 m long (#1 blue) channel.

The water discharge was calibrated on site using different methods: a sharp crest weir, a free overfall, Pitot tube and acoustic Doppler velocimeter. The sharp crest weir method was used for low flow rates to maintain the air pocket on the downstream side of the weir and the free overfall method was used for higher flow rates, where the air pocket was not present. The Pitot tube and ADV were used to measure longitudinal velocities, and the vertical distributions of velocity were integrated.

The results are summarised in Table A-1 and two calibration data sets are reported in Figures A-1 and A-2. Present results were compared with previous calibrations of the same devices. Note that, herein, the free fall method was less reliable than the sharp crest weir method, because of the interference of support structures built on the channel sidewalls to the downstream screen.

Table A-1 - Summary of flume calibration curves

Flume	Calibration curve Q in [L/s], ΔH in [mm]	R ²	Comments
12 m long (Lower)	$Q=1.1892 \times \Delta H^{0.5107}$	N/A	Orifice meter. Vertical (90°) air-water manometer.
12 m long (Upper)	Including free overfall data: $Q=1.2422 \times \Delta H^{0.4920}$	0.9993	Orifice meter. Vertical (90°) air-water manometer.
	Excluding free overfall data: $Q=1.1787 \times \Delta H^{0.4997}$	0.9990	
3.2 m long #1 [Blue]	$Q=0.8077 \times \Delta H^{0.5144}$	0.9997	Venturi meter. 30° inclined air-water manometer. Free fall method could not be used as the flow converged for values of ΔH larger than that used in the sharp-crest weir method
3.2 m long #2 [Green]	$Q=0.3495 \times \Delta H^{0.5404}$	0.9989	Orifice meter. 30° inclined air-water manometer. Free fall data not used as it didn't follow the trend of the sharp-crest weir data
3.2 m long #3 [Yellow]	$Q=0.3809 \times \Delta H^{0.5182}$	0.9999	Orifice meter. 30° inclined air-water manometer. Free fall data was not used as it didn't follow the trend of the sharp-crest weir data

Notes: Q: water discharge; ΔH: reading on manometer, as set per column 4.

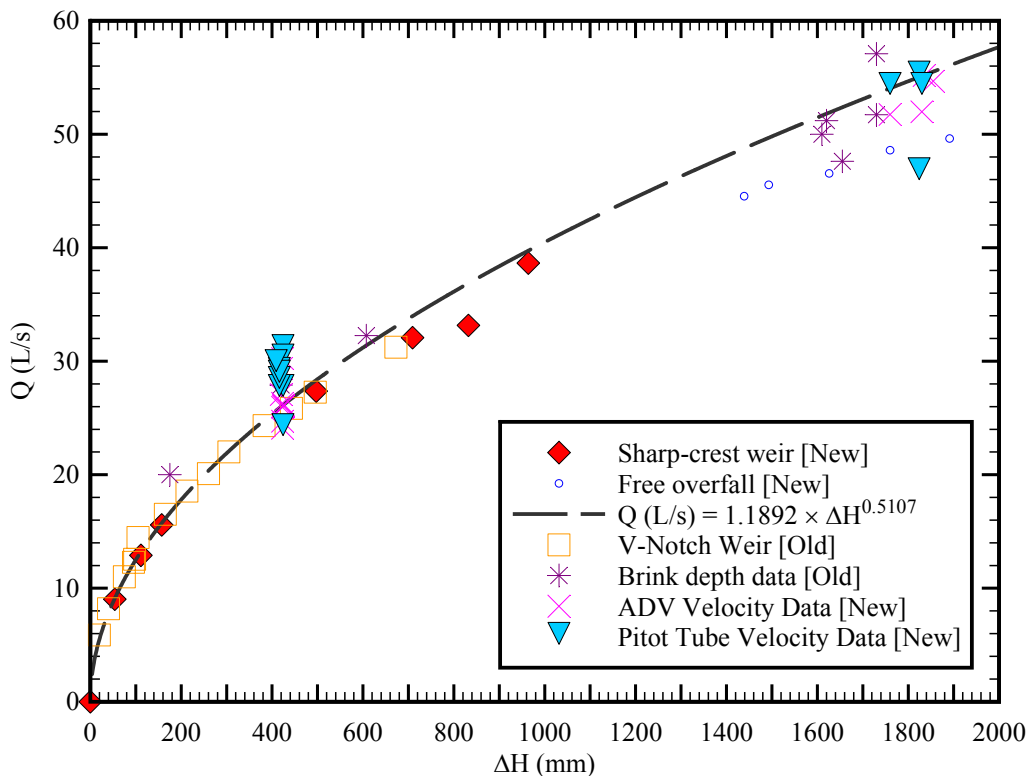


Fig. A-1 - Flow meter calibration of the 12 m long (lower) flume

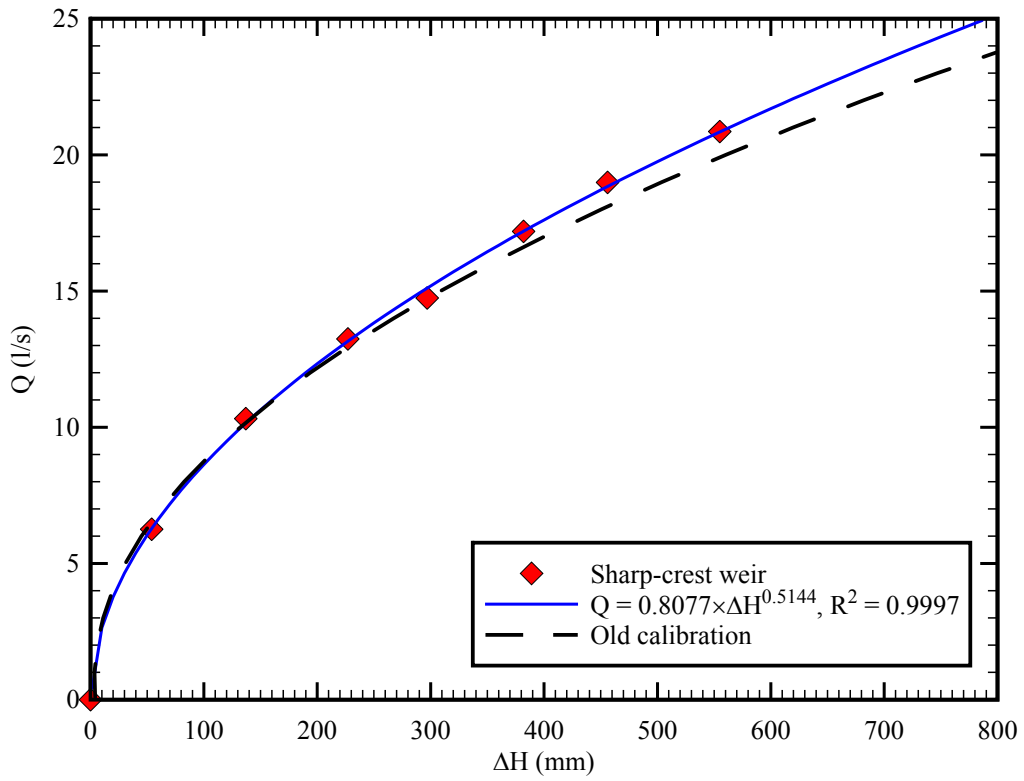


Fig. A-2 - Flow meter calibration of the 3.2 m long (#1 blue) flume

APPENDIX B - VELOCITY MEASUREMENTS: COMPARISON BETWEEN DIFFERENT TECHNIQUES

Water velocities were measured by different techniques and instruments. These included cross-sectional-averaged velocity V_{mean} and local time-averaged longitudinal velocity V_x . A series of tests were conducted to compare the different techniques, and the key results are presented below.

INSTRUMENTATION AND EXPERIMENTAL CONDITIONS

The cross-sectional-averaged velocity was deduced from the equation of conservation of mass for an incompressible flow:

$$V_{\text{mean}} = \frac{Q}{A} \quad (\text{B-1})$$

where Q is the water discharge measured with a flow meter (Appendix A) and A is the flow cross-section area. For an open channel flow in a rectangular channel: $A = B \times d$, with B the channel width and d the flow depth measured with a pointer gauge.

In the 12 m long and 3.2 m long flumes, the local time-averaged velocities were recorded using either a Prandtl-Pitot tube or an acoustic Doppler velocimeter (ADV). The Pitot tube was a Dwyer® 166 Series Prandtl-Pitot tube with a 3.18 mm diameter tube made of corrosion resistant stainless steel, and featured a hemispherical total pressure tapping ($\varnothing = 1.19$ mm) at the tip with four equally spaced static pressure tapings ($\varnothing = 0.51$ mm) located 25.4 mm behind the tip. The tip design met AMCA and ASHRAE specifications and the tube did not require calibration ⁽¹⁾. The acoustic Doppler velocimeter was a Nortek™ Vectrino+ (Serial No. VNO 0436) unit equipped with a three-dimensional side-looking head. The velocity range was ± 1.0 m/s and the sampling rate was 200 Hz ⁽²⁾. The translation of the Pitot-Prandtl and ADV probe in the vertical direction was controlled by a fine adjustment travelling mechanism connected to a Mitutoyo™ digimatic scale unit. The error on the vertical position of the probe was $\Delta z < 0.025$ mm. The accuracy on the longitudinal position was estimated as $\Delta x < \pm 2$ mm. The accuracy on the transverse position of the probe was less than 1 mm.

In the water tunnel and 3.2 m long flume, the local time-averaged velocity was measured with a Hontzsch™ vane wheel FA ZS meter. The meter consisted of a 30 mm diameter body with a 25 mm

¹ Reference: <http://www.dwyer-inst.com/Product/TestEquipment/PitotTubes/Series160>.

² See more details, including on the signal processing, in Section 2.

circular housing and a 22 mm diameter propeller ⁽³⁾.

Comparative measurements were conducted between four techniques in the 3.2 m long 0.25 m wide flume, while vertical and transverse velocity profiles were conducted in the water tunnel using the propeller meter. A summary of the testing conditions is presented in Table B-1.

Table B-1 - Summary of testing flow conditions

Flume	Flow conditions	Instrumentation
3.2 m long (#1 Blue)	Q = 0.010 m ³ /s x = 2.5 m d = 0.1175 m Smooth PVC bed	Flow meter and pointer gauge Pitot tube ADV Hontzsch TM propeller meter
	Q = 0.020 m ³ /s x = 2.5 m d = 0.168 m Smooth PVC bed	Flow meter and pointer gauge Pitot tube ADV Hontzsch TM propeller meter
Water tunnel	Smooth walls 0.251 m wide 0.259 m high test section	Hontzsch TM propeller meter
	Rough bed 0.251 m wide 0.233 m high test section	Hontzsch TM propeller meter
	Rough bed and left wall 0.225 m wide 0.233 m high test section	Hontzsch TM propeller meter

Notes: d: water depth; Q: water discharge; x: longitudinal location.

COMPARATIVE RESULTS

Different velocity measurement techniques were tested in the 3.2 m long 0.25 m wide flume: namely the flow meter (Eq. (B-1)), Pitot tube, ADV system, and propeller meter. The results are reported in Figure B-1. In Figure B-1, the thick blue line shows the water surface, while the thick black line indicates the cross-sectional-averaged velocity V (Eq. (B-1)).

The flow meter, ADV and Pitot tube data gave very close results. Further the vertical distributions of Pitot tube-and ADV velocity measurements were integrated over the water depth:

$$V_{avg} = \frac{1}{d} \times \int_{z=0}^d V_x \times dz \quad (B-2)$$

where the no-slip condition was applied to the channel boundaries: e.g., $V_x(z=0) = 0$. With both

³ When the propeller casing sat on the bed, the propeller axis was 17.3 mm above the invert.

Pitot tube and ADV data, the depth-averaged velocity V_{avg} was within 2% of the cross-sectional-averaged velocity V_{mean} deduced from the flow meter.

The propeller data tended to overestimate the velocity, as well as showing a trend of slightly decreasing velocity with increasing elevation.

Discussion

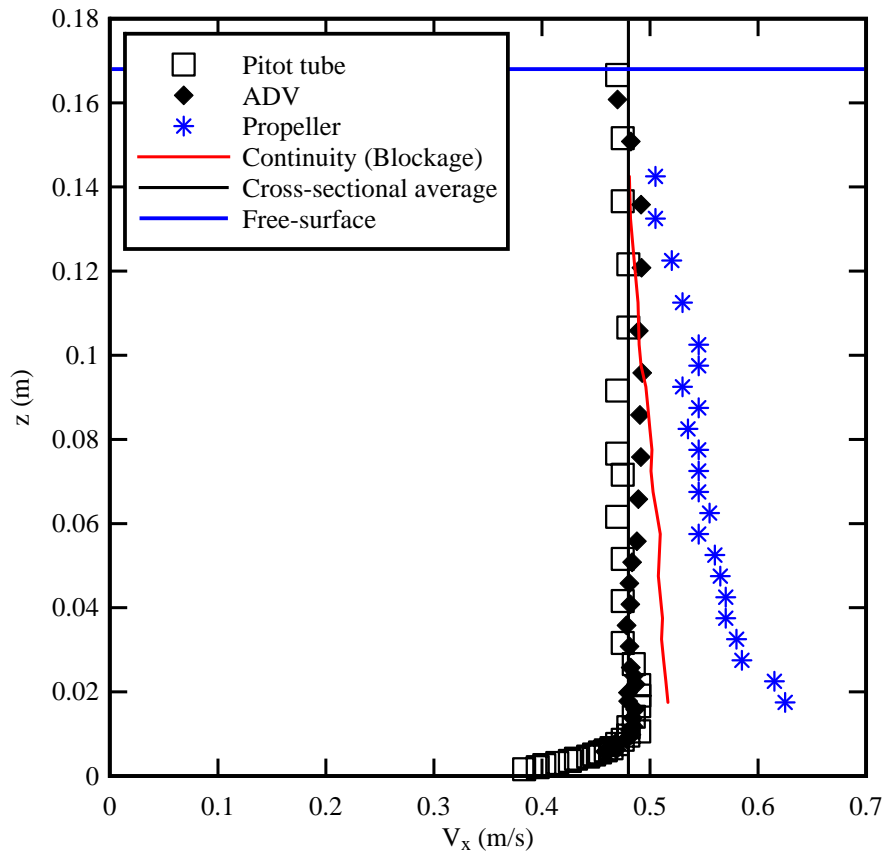
The propeller casing was a 30 mm diameter solid body, but for the propeller opening. The size of the casing induced some blockage effect, evidenced visually when the propeller was inserted in the flow. The blockage tended to generate a local fluid acceleration around the propeller, and the local velocity may be estimated from continuity:

$$V_{local} = \frac{A_1}{A_1 - \Delta A} \times V_x \quad (B-2)$$

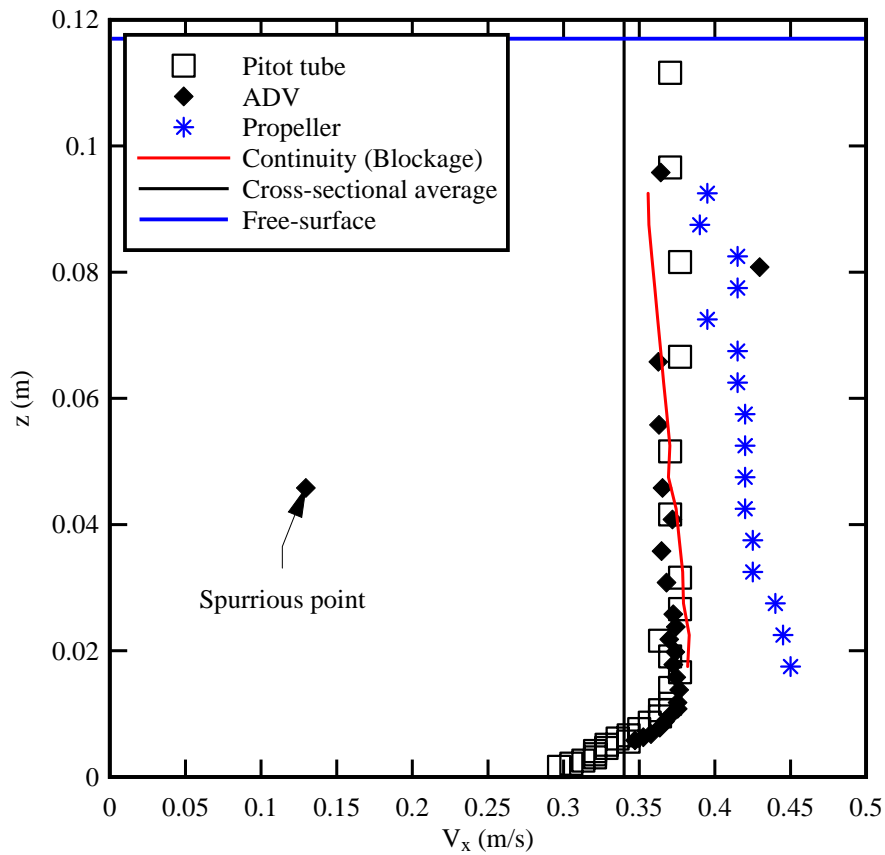
where A_1 is the upstream cross-section area: $A_1 = B \times d_1$, ΔA is the propeller casing's submerged projected area (⁴), B is the channel width and d_1 is the upstream water depth. Equation (B-2) is shown in Figure B-1 in a thick red line, based upon the ADV data. The trend shows that the blockage effect decreased with increasing propeller elevation, as expected since the propeller casing projected area decreased.

A comparison between propeller data and Equation (B-2) suggested that the propeller readings overestimated the cross-sectional average velocity by 5% to 20% depending upon the propeller elevation, in the 3.2 m long 0.25 m wide smooth channel. The worst overestimates were observed when the propeller was close to the bed.

⁴ The submerged projected area of propeller casing is: $\Delta A = 0.030 \times l$, where l is the height of casing submerged in water. When the casing lies on the bed, $l = d$ with d the water depth.



(A) $Q = 0.010 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$, $x = 2.5 \text{ m}$, $d = 0.1175 \text{ m}$, smooth PVC bed



(B) $Q = 0.020 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$, $x = 2.5 \text{ m}$, $d = 0.168 \text{ m}$, smooth PVC bed

Fig. B-1 - Comparison between different velocity measurements (Flow meter (Eq. (B-1)), Pitot tube,

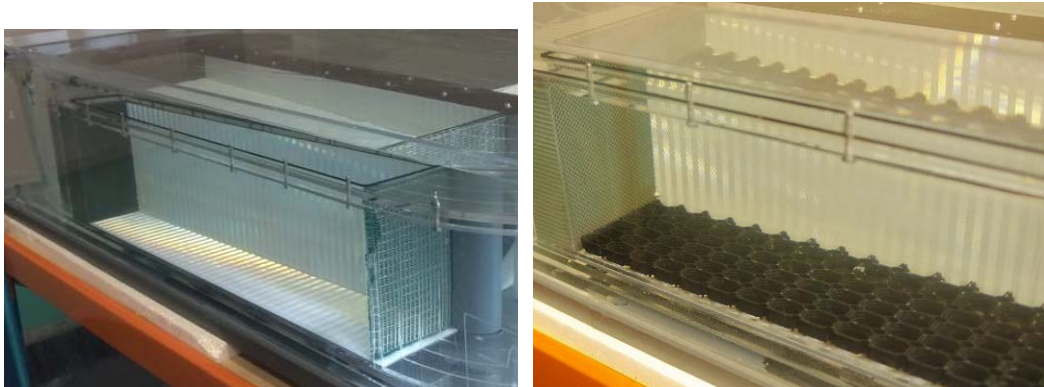
ADV, propeller meter) in the 3.2 m long flume - Equation (B-1) is reported in thick red line

VELOCITY MEASUREMENTS IN THE WATER TUNNEL

Propeller velocity measurements were conducted in the water tunnel at several locations for several flow conditions with three different boundary conditions. Figure B-2 illustrates the three boundary roughness configurations. In Configurations 1 and 2, measurements were conducted at three vertical elevations along the test section centreline (⁵). In Configuration 3, velocity recordings were performed at three elevations and at three transverse locations for each elevation. Typical results are shown in Figure B-3. Note that herein all propeller velocity data were corrected for the blockage effect induced by the propeller casing using.

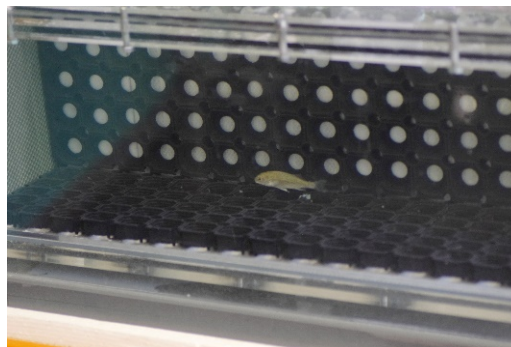
$$V_x = \frac{A_1 - \Delta A}{A_1} \times V_{local} \quad (B-3)$$

where V_{local} is the propeller observation.



(A, Left) Configuration 1: smooth bed and sidewalls

(B, Right) Configuration 2: rough bed and smooth sidewalls



(C) Configuration 3: rough bed, and combination of rough and smooth sidewall

Fig. B-2 - Roughness configurations in the 12 m long flume (Left) and water tunnel (Right)

⁵ All measurements were conducted at 0.50 m downstream of the upstream screen.

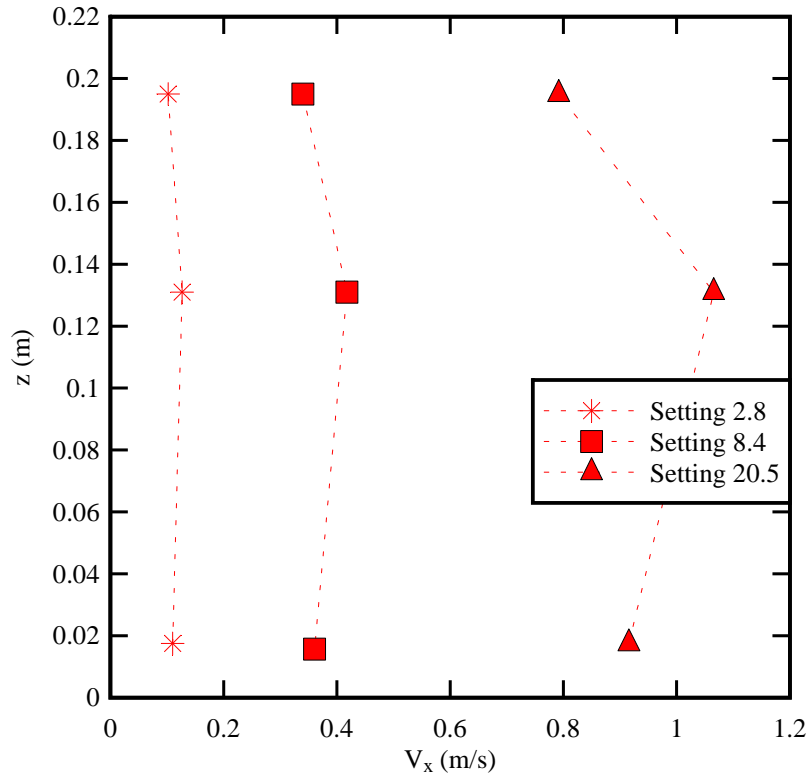


Fig. B-3 - Velocity measurements in the water tunnel with a rough bed (Configuration 2) - All velocity data corrected for blockage effect (Eq. (B-3))

The velocity distributions were integrated over the full height and width of the water tunnel's test section to obtain the cross-sectional-averaged velocity:

$$\bar{V} = B \times \int_0^D V_x \times dz \quad \text{Two-dimensional flow (B-4a)}$$

$$\bar{V} = \int_0^B \int_0^D V_x \times dz \times dy \quad \text{Three-dimensional flow (B-4b)}$$

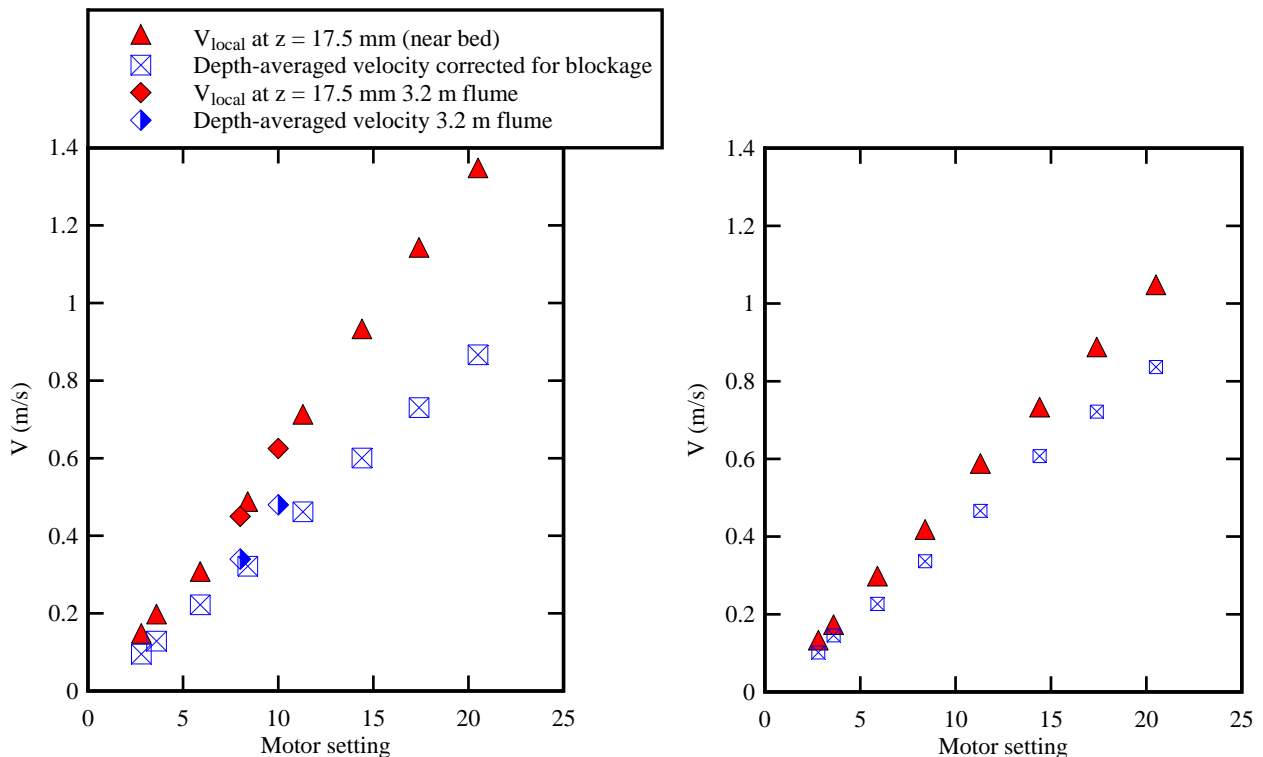
where D is the internal height and B is the internal width of the water tunnel. Equation (B-4) was integrated using the velocity data corrected for the blockage effect induced by the propeller casing (⁶) and assuming the no-slip condition at the solid boundaries: $V_x(z=0) = V_x(z=D) = 0$ and $V_x(y=0) = V_x(y=B) = 0$.

Typical results are reported in Figure B-4, showing the cross-sectional averaged velocity \bar{V} as a function of the motor setting. The data are compared with the propeller observation on the channel centreline when the propeller casing sat on the bed for the same motor setting: that is, $V_{\text{local}}(z=15.7 \text{ mm}, y=B/2)$. For completeness, the observations in the 3.2 m long flume are compared to the water

⁶ using Equation (B-3).

tunnel data for Configuration 1 (Fig. B-4A). Depending upon the bed roughness configuration, the local propeller observation overestimated the cross-sectional-averaged velocity between 20% and 80%, with a 50% overestimation on average. This simple comparison suggested that a single-point velocity measurement was unlikely to be representative of the cross-sectional-averaged velocity, particularly in a three-dimensional flow like Configuration 3.

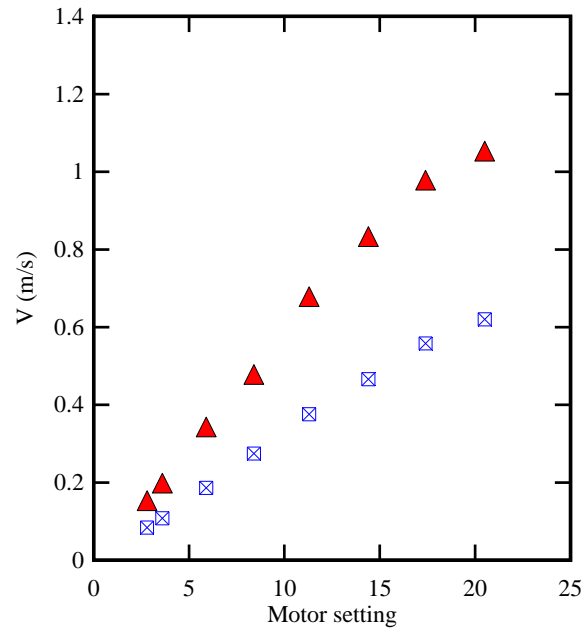
Importantly the above results assumed that the propeller was correctly calibrated at the time. This crude assumption was questionable, as seen in Figure B-1.



(A, Left) Configuration 1: smooth bed and sidewalls - Comparison with 3.2 m long observations

(smooth PVC bed and glass sidewalls), with \bar{V} deduced from water discharge flow meter

(B, Right) Configuration 2: rough bed and smooth sidewalls



(C) Configuration 3: rough bed, and combination of rough and smooth sidewall

Fig. B-4 - Cross-sectional averaged velocity in the water tunnel as a function of the motor setting - Comparison with the propeller observation on the channel centreline when the propeller casing sat on the bed $V_{local}(z=15.7 \text{ mm}, y=B/2)$

APPENDIX C - SUMMARY OF VELOCITY DISTRIBUTION DATA IN THE 12 M LONG CHANNEL

C.1 PRESENTATION

Detailed velocity measurements were conducted in a 12 m long 0.5 m wide horizontal channel. The flume was made of smooth PVC bed and glass walls. The waters were supplied by a constant head tank feeding a large intake basin (2.1 m long, 1.1 m wide, 1.1 m deep) leading to the test section through a series of flow straighteners, followed by a bottom and sidewall convergent. The channel ended with a free overfall at $x = 12$ m. Both upstream and downstream of the flume, stainless screens were installed to ensure the safety of small fish. The mesh wire had a 1.6 mm diameter, the mesh pattern was square and the mesh opening was 6.75 mm (inside dimensions).

The water depths were measured using rail mounted pointer gauges. The velocity measurements were conducted with an acoustic Doppler velocimeter (ADV) and the time-averaged velocity data were checked against a Prandtl-Pitot tube.

The post processing of ADV data was conducted with the software WinADVTM version 2.030. The signal post processing included the removal of communication errors, the removal of average signal to noise ratio data less than 5 dB and the removal of average correlation values less than 60%. In addition, the phase-space thresholding technique developed by GORING and NIKORA (2002) and implemented by WAHL (2003) was used to remove spurious points in the data set. Herein, with the side-looking head, the vertical velocity component V_z data were adversely affected by the bed proximity for $z < 0.030$ m. Further all velocity components were affected when the control volume was located less than 50 mm from the sidewalls, with a significant drop in average signal correlations, in average signal-to-noise ratios and in average signal amplitudes.

C.2 BOUNDARY CONDITIONS

Three types of bed roughness were tested in the 12 m long flume and water tunnel. Some experiments were performed with the smooth PVC invert and smooth sidewalls (Configuration 1). Further experiments were conducted with a rough bed and smooth sidewalls (Configuration 2). The last configuration consisted of a rough bed, a rough sidewall and a smooth sidewall (Configuration 3). For Configurations 2 and 3, the smooth channel bed was covered with a series of industrial rubber floor mats for $0.05 \text{ m} < x < 10.65 \text{ m}$. The rubber mats consisted of square patterns, cut to the channel width and laid on the PVC. With Configuration 3, a series of rubber mats were glued to one sidewall.

Herein the water depths were measured above the top of the rubber mats. The hydraulic roughness

of the three boundary roughness configurations was tested for a range of steady flow conditions. The gradually-varied flow profiles were recorded in the fully-developed flow region for a range of steady flow rates. The bed shear stress was deduced from the measured free-surface profiles and estimated friction slopes. The estimates of Darcy-Weisbach friction factor f for the smooth boundary Configuration 1 ranged from 0.015 to 0.017, corresponding to mean equivalent sand roughness height $k_s = 0.2$ mm. The equivalent Darcy friction factor of the rough bed Configuration 2 was $f = 0.07$ to 0.10 (Config. 2), while the friction factor of the rough boundary Configuration 3 was $f = 0.08$ to 0.12 (Config. 3). The results corresponded to an equivalent sand roughness height $k_s \approx 20$ mm (Config. 2) and 30 mm (Config. 3) on average (¹). The equivalent rugosity height of Configuration 2 was close to the earlier findings of LENG and CHANSON (2014) with the same bed roughness configuration (²).

C.3 BASIC RESULTS

In the 12 m long flume, the results indicated that the upstream part of the channel was characterised by a developing boundary layer with an ideal fluid flow region above. Further downstream the outer edge of the boundary layer interacted with the free-surface and the downstream flow became fully-developed. The experimental data indicated that the flow became fully-developed for $x > 6.5$ -8 m on the smooth bed configuration (Config. 1) and for $x > 4$ -5 m on the rough bed configuration (Config. 2). With the rough bed and sidewall configuration (Config. 3), both sidewall and bed boundary layer developments were observed together with strong interactions between the two boundary layer processes. The velocity data suggested that an ideal fluid flow core was observed at $x = 2$ m, and that the flow was fully-three-dimensional for $x > 4$ m.

Table C-1 summarises some basic result in terms of maximum velocity and its location, free-surface velocity (³), maximum standard deviation of velocity component and corresponding location. Figure C-1 presents a number of results.

¹ Further experiments with Configuration 3 and $0.015 < Q < 0.053$ m³/s yielded an equivalent Darcy friction factor $0.07 < f < 0.11$ corresponding to an equivalent sand roughness height $20 < k_s < 25$ mm.

² In the same flume with the same bed materials, LENG and CHANSON (2014) reported Darcy friction factors $f = 0.09$ to 0.18 corresponding to an equivalent sand roughness height $k_s = 39$ mm. However the inflow conditions differed: no upstream screen was located in the intake basin during their experiments.

³ Herein the 'free-surface velocity' is the nearest data from the free-surface.

Table C-1 - Basic velocity distribution results

Rough. config	Description	Q m ³ /s	x m	d m	V _{mean} m/s	y/B	V _{max} /V _{mean}	V _{max} /V _{fs}	(v _x ') _{max} /V _{mean}	(v _y ') _{max} /V _{mean}	(v _z ') _{max} /V _{mean}	Z _{Vmax} /d	Z _{v_x'm} /d	Z _{v_y'm} /d	Z _{v_z'm} /d
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
1	Smooth boundaries	0.0261	0.65	0.121	0.4314	0.5	1.059	--	0.180	0.101	0.362	0.131	0.626	0.874	0.792
			1	0.123	0.4244	0.5	1.052	--	0.166	0.095	0.334	0.706	0.047	0.868	0.051
			2	0.123	0.4244	0.5	1.077	--	0.165	0.085	0.311	0.104	0.047	0.868	0.047
			2.8	0.1235	0.4227	0.5	1.108	--	0.186	0.078	0.412	0.181	0.047	0.869	0.383
			4	0.1235	0.4227	0.5	1.108	--	0.259	0.078	0.472	0.177	0.047	0.047	0.055
			5	0.124	0.421	0.5	1.117	--	0.290	0.089	0.544	0.248	0.047	0.047	0.063
			6.5	0.118	0.4424	0.5	1.174	1.05	0.251	0.075	0.571	0.354	0.142	0.142	0.125
			8	0.123	0.4244	0.5	1.254	1.02	0.250	0.076	1.758	0.380	0.173	0.104	0.157
10	0.122	0.4279	0.5	1.245	1.02	0.537	0.152	1.324	0.498	0.064	0.064	0.056			
1	Smooth boundaries	0.0556	0.65	0.197	0.5645	0.5	1.161	--	0.246	0.155	0.369	0.892	0.095	0.085	0.126
			1	0.185	0.6011	0.5	1.016	--	0.139	0.126	0.174	0.977	0.031	0.075	0.031
			2	0.189	0.5884	0.5	1.017	--	0.136	0.093	0.159	0.957	0.036	0.073	0.036
			2.8	0.191	0.5822	0.5	1.022	--	0.137	0.084	0.162	0.920	0.036	0.098	0.030
			4	0.192	0.5792	0.5	1.033	--	0.132	0.069	0.164	0.499	0.051	0.098	0.030
			5	0.192	0.5792	0.5	1.021	--	0.141	0.065	0.171	0.655	0.030	0.082	0.030
			6.5	0.191	0.5822	0.5	1.057	1.06	0.123	0.059	0.205	0.397	0.030	0.030	0.397
			8	0.192	0.5792	0.5	1.116	1.04	0.133	0.057	0.211	0.577	0.030	0.030	0.239
10	0.193	0.5762	0.5	1.125	1.04	0.137	0.061	0.217	0.574	0.051	0.051	0.046			
2	Rough bed	0.0261	0.65	0.129	0.4047	0.5	1.186	--	0.355	0.165	0.432	0.820	0.060	0.049	0.045
			1	0.12863	0.4058	0.5	1.228	--	0.396	0.157	0.511	0.900	0.061	0.061	0.061
			2	0.12625	0.4135	0.5	1.263	--	0.591	0.195	0.895	0.838	0.062	0.062	0.062
			2.8	0.1235	0.4227	0.5	1.293	--	0.324	0.147	0.445	0.695	0.051	0.063	0.079
			4	0.1235	0.4227	0.5	1.377	1.01	0.543	0.191	0.848	0.695	0.047	0.047	0.047
			5	0.11925	0.4377	0.5	1.363	1.00	0.908	0.288	2.422	0.887	0.149	0.183	0.049
6.5	0.1115	0.4682	0.5	1.380	1.01	0.279	0.144	0.376	0.680	0.052	0.052	0.196			
2	Rough bed	0.0556	0.65	0.206	0.5398	0.5	1.186	--	0.354	0.174	0.418	0.683	0.038	0.033	0.033
			1	0.206	0.5398	0.5	1.241	--	0.368	0.156	0.464	0.756	0.028	0.028	0.028
			2	0.189	0.5884	0.5	1.165	--	0.330	0.146	0.394	0.904	0.031	0.031	0.031
			2.8	0.206	0.5398	0.5	1.295	--	1.298	0.614	3.336	0.683	0.028	0.028	0.028

			4	0.192	0.5792	0.5	1.272	1.00	0.370	0.153	0.473	0.525	0.030	0.030	0.030
			5	0.196	0.5673	0.5	1.343	0.99	0.384	0.161	0.527	0.591	0.032	0.035	0.032
			6.5	0.196	0.5673	0.5	1.426	1.10	0.315	0.147	0.371	0.489	0.035	0.032	0.035
3	Rough bed and sidewall	0.0261	2	0.149	0.3661	0.1045	1.374	--	0.738	0.263	1.742	0.710	0.039	0.039	0.046
				0.152	0.3589	0.2612	1.457	--	0.293	0.166	0.349	0.564	0.038	0.041	0.038
				0.153	0.3565	0.3657	1.558	--	0.352	0.157	0.404	0.267	0.041	0.038	0.038
				0.151	0.3612	0.5225	1.534	--	0.601	0.231	0.905	0.303	0.038	0.038	0.038
				0.153	0.3565	0.6531	1.396	--	0.304	0.148	0.386	0.626	0.041	0.077	0.038
				0.149	0.3661	0.7837	1.438	--	0.203	0.124	0.181	0.643	0.079	0.093	0.240
				0.152	0.3589	0.8777	1.396	--	1.261	0.390	2.920	0.499	0.334	0.038	0.334
				0.153	0.3565	0.9927	0.942	--	0.382	0.150	1.002	0.365	0.051	0.038	0.064
3	Rough bed and sidewall	0.0261	5	0.153	0.3565	0.1045	1.440	1.09	1.334	0.396	2.743	0.430	0.058	0.058	0.058
				0.143	0.3814	0.2612	1.612	1.08	0.321	0.158	0.373	0.530	0.048	0.055	0.044
				0.153	0.3565	0.3657	1.810	1.02	0.362	0.173	0.405	0.495	0.038	0.064	0.044
				0.142	0.3841	0.5225	1.606	1.01	0.419	0.185	0.585	0.675	0.044	0.044	0.076
				0.153	0.3565	0.6531	1.564	1.00	0.343	0.158	0.392	0.626	0.038	0.051	0.038
				0.143	0.3814	0.7837	1.292	1.00	0.170	0.278	0.190	0.670	0.285	0.083	0.083
				0.153	0.3565	0.8777	1.399	1.11	0.343	0.154	0.589	0.430	0.064	0.044	0.041
				0.153	0.3565	0.9927	1.063	1.04	1.848	0.494	3.121	0.299	0.267	0.267	0.038
3	Rough bed and sidewall	0.0261	8	0.129	0.4228	0.1045	1.275	1.08	1.664	0.457	3.425	0.324	0.091	0.091	0.053
				0.129	0.4228	0.2612	1.681	1.01	0.323	0.166	0.375	0.549	0.053	0.045	0.068
				0.129	0.4228	0.3657	1.786	1.00	0.368	0.167	0.407	0.665	0.049	0.068	0.045
				0.129	0.4228	0.5225	1.737	1.00	0.393	0.181	0.444	0.665	0.053	0.045	0.045
				0.129	0.4228	0.6531	1.605	1.00	0.347	0.182	0.417	0.665	0.049	0.053	0.134
				0.129	0.4228	0.7837	1.459	1.22	0.291	0.146	0.417	0.549	0.134	0.134	0.134
				0.129	0.4228	0.8777	1.375	1.75	2.048	0.536	3.981	0.549	0.099	0.099	0.057
				0.129	0.4228	0.9927	0.645	1.20	1.544	0.410	3.296	0.433	0.150	0.072	0.150
3	Rough bed and sidewall	0.0556	2	0.189	0.5884	0.1	1.128	--	0.726	0.227	1.371	0.507	0.036	0.036	0.041
				0.189	0.5884	0.25	1.214	--	0.261	0.139	0.309	0.242	0.031	0.031	0.031
				0.189	0.5884	0.35	1.310	--	0.914	0.271	1.970	0.507	0.062	0.062	0.062
				0.189	0.5884	0.5	1.156	--	0.764	0.218	1.880	0.348	0.062	0.031	0.062
				0.189	0.5884	0.625	1.239	--	0.453	0.170	1.441	0.904	0.099	0.099	0.084
				0.222	0.5009	0.75	1.182	--	1.590	0.463	3.424	0.634	0.062	0.062	0.364
				0.222	0.5009	0.84	1.319	--	1.475	0.442	3.116	0.499	0.432	0.035	0.432
				0.222	0.5009	0.95	0.544	--	1.679	0.487	3.508	0.702	0.044	0.031	0.031
3	Rough bed and sidewall	0.0556	5	0.1905	0.5837	0.1	1.063	--	1.448	0.493	2.971	0.450	0.214	0.345	0.529

				0.1903	0.5843	0.25	1.418	1.13	1.737	0.446	3.338	0.609	0.036	0.036	0.083
				0.1903	0.5843	0.35	1.412	1.19	0.865	0.273	2.035	0.451	0.057	0.057	0.104
				0.1903	0.5843	0.5	1.362	1.06	0.687	0.227	1.527	0.451	0.036	0.036	0.041
				0.1903	0.5843	0.625	1.284	1.51	1.088	0.308	2.450	0.845	0.062	0.062	0.073
				0.1903	0.5843	0.75	1.218	1.29	1.001	0.290	2.433	0.687	0.057	0.057	0.062
				0.1923	0.5783	0.84	1.065	1.95	1.678	0.419	2.987	0.602	0.030	0.030	0.072
				0.1903	0.5843	0.95	0.540	2.56	1.563	0.463	3.559	0.293	0.036	0.041	0.041
3	Rough bed and sidewall	0.0556	8	0.1743	0.638	0.1	1.116	1.46	1.639	0.405	2.995	0.550	0.045	0.045	0.378
				0.1743	0.638	0.25	1.429	1.06	0.580	0.197	0.846	0.636	0.091	0.091	0.091
				0.1743	0.638	0.35	1.500	1.06	0.378	0.162	0.559	0.722	0.050	0.050	0.263
				0.1743	0.638	0.5	1.439	1.05	0.424	0.170	1.590	0.636	0.045	0.068	0.056
				0.1743	0.638	0.625	1.331	1.07	0.866	0.259	1.919	0.636	0.050	0.050	0.050
				0.1743	0.638	0.75	1.273	1.70	0.965	0.285	2.058	0.550	0.079	0.079	0.079
				0.1743	0.638	0.84	1.127	1.17	1.044	0.281	1.978	0.636	0.050	0.050	0.050
				0.1743	0.638	0.95	0.474	1.56	1.565	0.386	2.741	0.808	0.045	0.091	0.079

Notes: V_{\max} : maximum longitudinal velocity component in a vertical profile; V_{mean} : cross-sectional averaged velocity; V_{fs} : free-surface velocity; x : longitudinal distance from the channel's upstream end; y : transverse distance from right smooth sidewall; Z : vertical elevation above the invert.

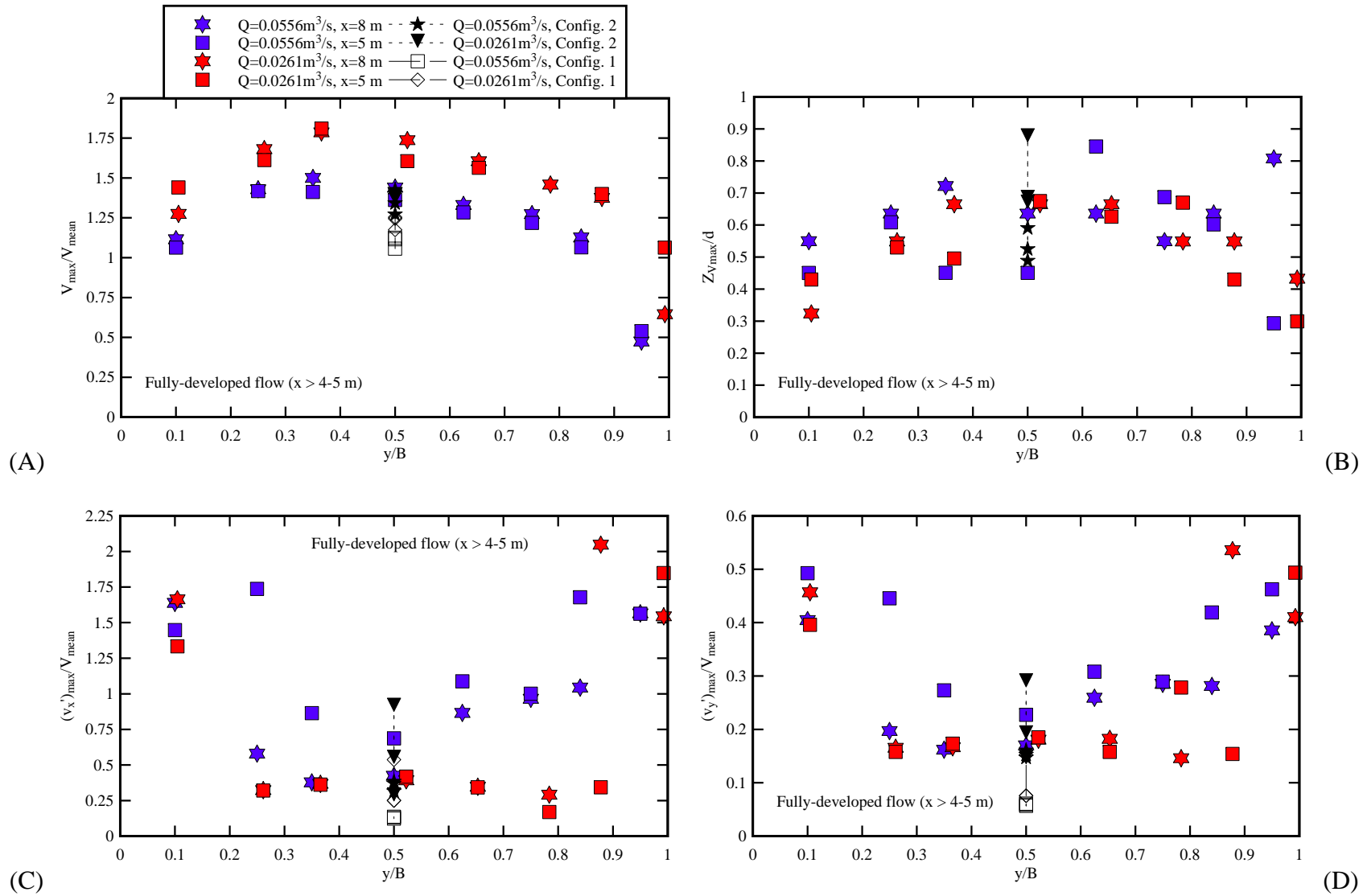


Fig.C-1 - Fig. 3-5 - Transverse distribution of maximum longitudinal velocity, maximum velocity fluctuations and elevation of maximum velocity as function of the transverse location in the 12 m long channel with rough bed and sidewall (Configuration 3) - Same legend for all graphs - Comparison with centreline data for Configurations 1 and 2 - Note $y = 0$ at the right smooth sidewall

APPENDIX D - FISH SWIMMING PERFORMANCE TESTS

D.1 PRESENTATION

The swimming performances of juvenile Silver Perch (*Bidyanus bidyanus*) were tested in a small Loligo™ recirculating water tunnel with a 0.86 m long 0.251 m wide and 0.259 m high working section. The water tunnel volume was 0.185 m³ and it was placed in a 0.4 m³ rectangular water tank. Screens and mesh were installed at both test section ends to restrict the fish movements. Water quality was maintained via a continuous flow of filtered fresh water from an external reservoir enabling a constant temperature of 24 C ±0.5 C. A continuous flow motion was delivered by a screw pump.

The tests were conducted on Silver Perch juveniles, following a clearly defined protocol (Table D-1). Each trial began with an acclimation period, consisting of 30 minutes at zero bulk velocity to allow each fish to become accustomed to the flow tank and display normal rheotactic behaviour. When no adverse behaviour was observed during this acclimation period, the bulk water velocity was subsequently increased incrementally every 5 min until the fish fatigued (Table D-1). Fatigue was defined as when the fish rested against the downstream screen mesh for more than 3 s. The critical swimming speed (U_{crit}) of each individual was calculated as (BRETT 1964):

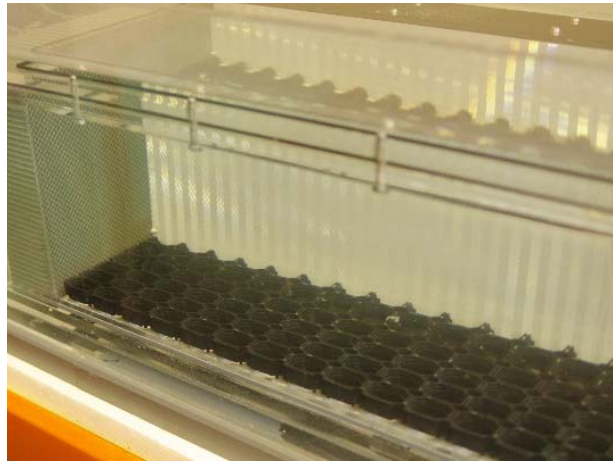
Table D-1 - Fish testing procedure in the water tunnel

Step No.	Procedure
1	Fish were rested and fasted for 24 hours prior to experimentation
2	The fish were placed into the recirculating water tunnel test section and left for 30 minutes with zero flow to adjust to the change in temperature (24 C herein)
3	Using the calibration curves developed for the recirculating flume, accounting for blockage effects and three-dimensional velocity profile, the bulk velocity was increased in increments (4-4.5 cm/s in configuration 2; 2.5-3.5 cm/s in configuration 3) every 5 minutes
4	Photographs and videos (240 fps) were taken of the fish, particularly between 35 cm/s and 55 cm/s
5	The water tunnel was immediately stopped if the fish had been resting on the downstream grate for 3 s
6	The final bulk velocity of the fish, time the fish had been swimming, the weight of the fish and the body length of the fish were recorded
7	The U_{crit} value was calculated: $U_{crit} = U_f + \Delta U \times \frac{T_f}{\Delta T}$

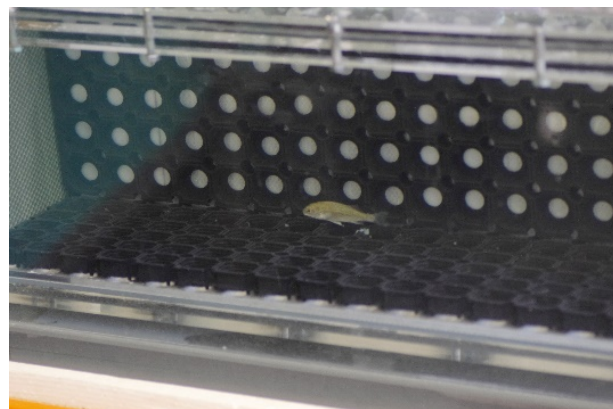
$$U_{crit} = U_f + \Delta U \times \frac{T_f}{\Delta T} \quad (D-1)$$

where U_f is the penultimate velocity, T_f is the amount of time that the fish swam in the final increment, ΔT is the total time increment (5 min) and ΔU is the water velocity increment. Herein all the velocity data are bulk velocities: i.e., cross-sectional averaged velocities.

Only one individual was tested at a time and all tests were conducted with a water temperature at 24 C. Two boundary roughness conditions were used: rough bed and smooth sidewalls (Configuration 2), and rough bed and rough left sidewall (Configuration 3) (Fig. D-1). During each test, photographs and movies were taken to document the fish swimming behaviour in relation to the boundary roughness.



(A) Configuration 2: rough bed and smooth sidewalls



(B) Configuration 3: rough bed, and combination of rough and smooth sidewalls - Note juvenile *Bidyanus bidyanus* swimming close to the corner between rough bed and rough sidewall

Fig. D-1 - Roughness configurations in the recirculating water tunnel

Table D-2 - Fish swimming performance results with rough boundary conditions

Fish ID	Water temperature (C)	Configuration	Final Velocity (m/s)	U_f (m/s)	ΔU (m/s)	Time swum (s)	T_f (s)	ΔT (s)	U_{crit} (m/s)	Weight (g)	Body length (mm)
big R:RR	24.5	Rough bed & smooth sidewalls	0.887	0.845	0.042	5495	95	300	0.858	44.1	130.6
L:RY	24	Rough bed & smooth sidewalls	0.760	0.718	0.042	4547	47	300	0.724	14.1	93.6
L:YY	23	Rough bed & smooth sidewalls	0.633	0.591	0.042	3836	235	300	0.624	14.3	93
L:YR	24	Rough bed & smooth sidewalls	0.675	0.633	0.042	4166	586	300	0.716	9.5	81.5
med R:RR	23.5	Rough bed & smooth sidewalls	1.096	1.053	0.043	6622	22	300	1.057	14.3	97.3
"Big Momma"	23.5	Rough bed & smooth sidewalls	0.930	0.887	0.043	5728	28	300	0.891	73.8	95.8
Small R:RR	23.5	Rough bed & smooth sidewalls	0.718	0.675	0.042	4556	56	300	0.683	7.5	82
med R:RR	24	Rough bed & sidewall	0.604	0.580	0.024	5187	87	300	0.587	14.1	97.3
"Big Momma"	23.5	Rough bed & sidewall	0.529	0.505	0.024	4498	298	300	0.529	75.1	95.8
Small R:RR	24.25	Rough bed & sidewall	0.628	0.604	0.024	5681	259	300	0.625	9.2	82
med R:RR	24.5	Rough bed & sidewall	0.628	0.604	0.024	5598	198	300	0.620	39.4	97.3
L:RY	24	Rough bed & sidewall	0.529	0.505	0.024	4427	227	300	0.523	13.8	93.6
L:YR	23.5	Rough bed & sidewall	0.318	0.290	0.028	1839	39	300	0.294	8.9	81.5

Notes: U_f : final velocity at which the fish swum for the full time increment (m/s), ΔU : velocity increment (m/s), T_f : time swum at the maximum velocity (s), ΔT : time increment (s); Grey shade: rough bed and sidewall configuration 3.

D.2 BASIC RESULTS

During the fish swimming experiments, visual observations of the fish swimming patterns were conducted. For low velocities the majority of fish would swim in the corner at the bottom of the inside wall (Configurations 2 & 3) (Fig. D-1B). For larger velocities, the fish swam in the top corner (Fig. D-2), likely caused by the recirculating flume design. Some fish would move around trying to find lower velocity areas. Overall the experiments showed that the fish tested preferred to swim in regions of low velocity, enabling them a longer effort with minimum fatigue in these areas. The final results are presented in Table D-2. For Silver Perch juveniles, the characteristic speed U_{crit} was consistently larger with the rough bottom (Configuration 2), than with the rough bed and wall (Configuration 3). This is illustrated in Figure D-3. The finding is counter-intuitive, but it is believed to be linked to the non-uniform velocity distribution in the test section and the existence of some recirculation region in the upstream top left corner of the test section.

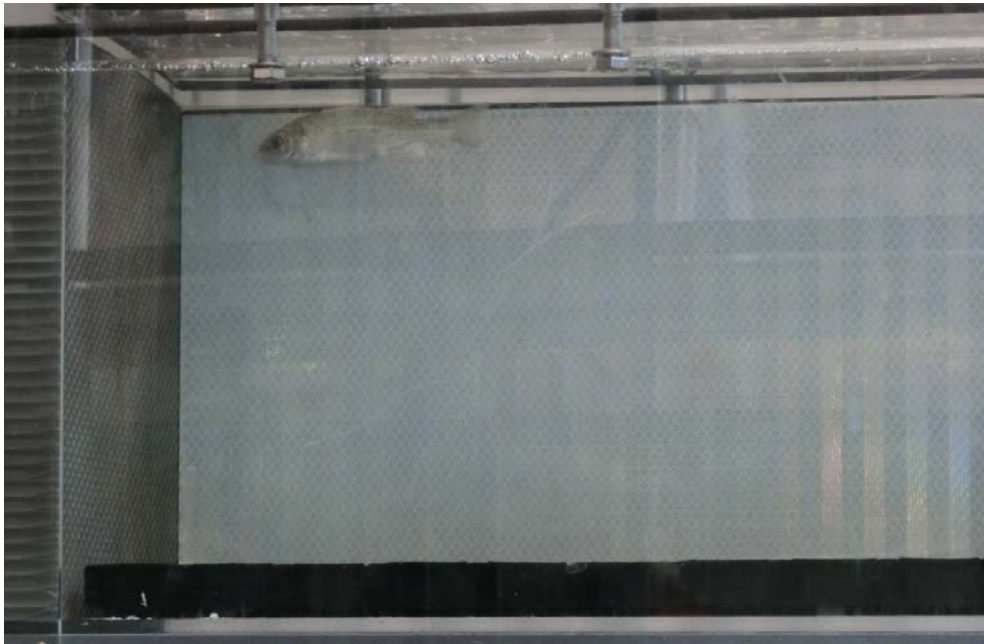


Fig. D-2 - Typical swimming location of juvenile Silver Perch in the upstream top left corner of the test section - Flow direction from left to right, rough bed configuration (Configuration 2)

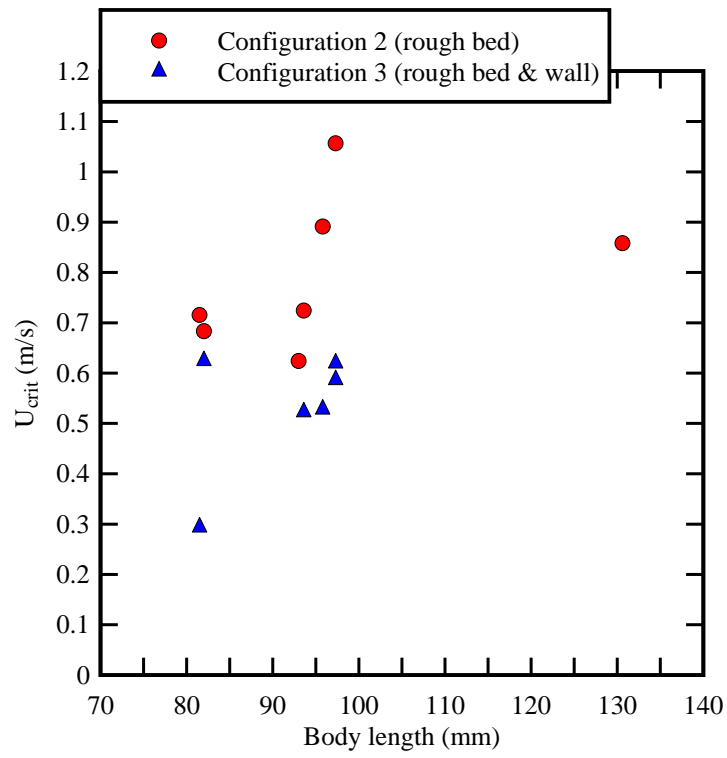


Fig. D-3 - Critical velocity U_{crit} as a function of the body length for juvenile Silver Perch

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