Free surface flow over square bars at different Reynolds numbers

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Abstract

Large-eddy simulations of free surface flow over bed-mounted square bars are performed for laminar, transitional and turbulent flows at constant Froude number. Two different bar spacings are selected corresponding to transitional and k-type (reattaching flow) roughness, respectively. The turbulent flow simulations are validated with experimental data and convincing agreement between simulation and measurement is obtained in terms of water surface elevations and streamwise velocity profiles. The water surface deforms in response to the underlying bed roughness ranging from mild undulation for transitional roughness to distinct standing waves for k-type roughness. The instantaneous water surface deformations increase with an increase in Reynolds number. Contours of the mean streamwise and wall-normal velocities, the total shear stress and the streamfunction reveal the presence and extension of recirculation zones in the trough between two consecutive bars. The flow is governed by strong local velocity gradients as a result of the rough bed and the deformed water surface. The local Froude number at the free surface increases for low Reynolds number in the flow over transitional roughness and decreases for low Reynolds number in the flow over k-type roughness. The transitional and turbulent flows exhibit a very similar distribution of the pressure coefficient C_p in both cases, whilst C_p

Preprint submitted to Journal of IAT_{EX} Templates

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is generally lower for the laminar flow. Regarding the friction coefficient, C_f , it is significantly lower in the turbulent case than in the transitional and laminar cases. The bar spacing does not affect significantly the relative contribution of friction and pressure forces to the total force, neither does the Reynolds number. The friction factor is greater for transitional roughness and decreases with increasing Reynolds number.

Keywords: Free surface flow, large-eddy simulation, rough-bed flow, turbulent flow, transitional flow, laminar flow.

1 1. Introduction

Shallow flows over rough beds are ubiquitous in nature, in particular in 2 relatively steep channels or when traveling at high Froude numbers. These 3 flows are characterised by significant deformation of the water surface, localised standing waves or even hydraulic jumps. The nature of deformation of the water surface of shallow flows over rough beds is influenced by several parameters including the Froude and Reynolds number, the channel bed slope as well as the bed's roughness topography. The cause of water surface deformations is the bulk 8 flow and its turbulence structure. Scrutinizing the water surface deformation as a result of bulk flow characteristics and turbulence structures in response to 10 the channel's rough bed can lead to a detailed understanding of shallow free 11 surface flow hydrodynamics and hence to advanced non-intrusive river gauging 12 methods or aerial flow measurements. 13

The geometrical characteristics of the bed roughness manipulates the flow's 14 quantities and their distributions such as the velocity profile and the total drag. 15 Here, a train of two-dimensional square bars, placed on a bed perpendicular to 16 the flow at a given bar spacing, comprises the roughness. The main two types 17 of this roughness, known as d-type (closely spaced bars) and k-type (widely 18 spaced bars), were first identified by Perry et al. (1969). They summarised that 19 the effective roughness, which is used to characterise the drag increment due 20 to the roughness (Jiminez, 2004), is proportional to the integral length scale of 21

the flow for the d-type roughness and to the roughness height for the k-type 22 roughness. Thus, at a given bulk Reynolds number, the transition between d-23 and k-type roughness over two-dimensional roughness elements depends only 24 on the streamwise spacing of the bars. The mean and turbulent flow charac-25 teristics over square bar roughness have been investigated both experimentally 26 (Okamoto, Seo, Nakaso and Kawai, 1993; Djenidi, Elavarasan and Antonia, 27 1999; Krogstad, Andersson, Bakken and Ashrafian, 2005; Djenidi, Antonia, 28 Amielh and Anselmet, 2008; Roussinova and Balachandar, 1969) and numer-29 ically (Cui, Patel and Lin, 2003; Stoesser and Rodi, 2004; Ikeda and Durbin, 30 2007; Stoesser and Nikora, 2008; McSherry, Chua and Stoesser, 2017). Although 31 this roughness geometry is rather simple, it has been helpful in studying the flow 32 features over rough surfaces such as the transition from d- to k-type roughness 33 which occurs at around $\lambda/k = 4 - 5$, where λ is the crest-to-crest bar spacing 34 and k is the bar height (Simpson, 1973; Tani, 1987; Jiminez, 2004). Although 35 many of the works mentioned focused on single-phase flows (closed channels). 36 some investigated free surface flows over bars where the submergence plays a 37 key role in the formation of the flow structure. In flows with large submergence, 38 the entire cavity between roughness elements is occupied by a stable vortex for 39 d-type roughness; however, for k-type roughness the flow reattaches to the bed 40 after a wake region between two bars (Stoesser and Rodi, 2004). Stoesser and 41 Nikora (2008) used large-eddy simulation (LES) for free surface flow with in-42 termediate submergence and showed that for $\lambda/k > 8$ the bars are isolated and 43 the flow reattaches to the bed between two square bars. This was also shown 44 in single-phase flows (Leonardi, Orlandi, Smalley, Djenidi and Antonia, 2003). 45 Experiments of the flow with different submergence for two k-type spacings (λ/k 46 = 9 and 18) revealed that for the larger spacing the roughness effect extends 47 up to a distance of 3k from the bed while for smaller spacing the outer layer is 48 affected by the roughness too. In flows with low submergence, the free surface 49 experience changes due to the roughness especially in the form of standing wave 50 or hydraulic jump at the free surface. These surface modulations are mainly 51 generated over k-type roughness. Large scale turbulent structures, strong tur-52

bulence production and energy dissipation contribute to these deformation at 53 the free surface (Chanson and Brattberg, 2000; Chanson, 2009). McSherry et al. 54 (2018) carried out several LES and laboratory experiments to study the hydro-55 dynamics of shallow flows and quantified the effects of roughness spacing and 56 relative submergence on hydraulic resistance in such flows. Six flow cases, with 57 transitional (between d- and k-type) and k-type roughness types and varying 58 relative submergence were investigated. Flow features such as free surface de-59 formation, double averaged velocities and shear stresses and the contributions 60 to the overall momentum balance were presented. 61

The research reported here investigates shallow flows over a transitional and 62 a k-type roughness at three Reynolds numbers resulting in laminar, transitional 63 and turbulent flow at the same Froude number. The objective of the present 64 work is to investigate the effect of Reynolds number on the free surface char-65 acteristics, the underlying hydrodynamics, the distribution of the fluid stress 66 and the relative contributions of pressure and friction drag to the total drag of 67 shallow flows over bar-roughened beds. This paper is organized in four sections. 68 Section 2 describes the applied numerical method and details of the simulations, 69 section 3 presents and discusses the results. The manuscript is wrapped up by 70 a summary and conclusion in section 4. 71

72 2. Numerical framework and simulations performed

73	Large-eddy simulation (LES) is employed in this research, a method per-
74	ceived to be particularly suitable to simulate flows which are affected by large-
75	scale turbulence structures (Stoesser, 2014). Due to the eddy-resolving na-
76	ture of this approach energetic large-scale structures of the flow are calcu-
77	lated directly and the effect of the small scales on the large scales is mod-
78	elled. Another time-resolved computational method, unsteady Reynolds-aver-
79	aged Navier-Stokes (URANS), is deemed unsuitable for this due its inability to
80	predict accurately and reliably flow separation and reattachment, an important
81	feature of the flows under consideration. Direct numerical simulation (DNS)

is the only approach which resolves all scales of turbulence but it is compu-82 tationally uneconomical and requires enormous computational resources. The 83 in-house LES code HYDRO3D is employed to simulate the flows reported in 84 this study. It has been validated thoroughly for a large number of flows of 85 similar complexity (Stoesser, 2010; Bomminayuni and Stoesser, 2011; Stoesser, 86 McSherry and Fraga, 2015; Fraga, Stoesser, Lai and Socolofsky, 2016b; Fraga 87 and Stoesser, 2016a; Ouro, Harrold, Stoesser and Bromley, 2017a; Ouro and 88 Stoesser, 2017b). The code solves the spatially filtered Navier-Stokes equations 89

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0 \tag{1}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u} = -\nabla p + \frac{1}{Re} \nabla^2 \mathbf{u} - \nabla \cdot \tau$$
⁽²⁾

for turbulent, incompressible, three-dimensional flow. In equations (1) and (2) 90 **u** is the velocity vector with the three components u, v, w in the streamwise 91 (x), spanwise (y) and wall-normal (z) directions, p is the pressure, τ is the 92 subgrid scale stress tensor, $Re = U_b H/\nu$ is the Reynolds number where U_b is 93 the bulk velocity, H is the depth defined as the distance between the mean water 94 surface position before starting the simulation and the mean bed elevation (see 95 Fig. 1), and ν is the fluid kinematic viscosity. The effects of the small-scale 96 turbulence on the large eddies is approximated using the Wall-Adapting Local 97 Eddy-viscosity (WALE) (Nicoud and Ducros, 1999) model. There are several 98 advantages of using this model compared to the classical Smagorinsky model 99 such as detecting all the turbulent structures relevant to kinetic energy dissi-100 pation and/or no need of a damping function or constant adjustments near the 101 wall as the eddy-viscosity goes naturally to zero in that region. A fractional-step 102 method with a second order Runge-Kutta time integration scheme is used to 103 solve equations (1) and (2) on a staggered Cartesian grid. In the predictor step 104 a second order finite difference method is used to compute diffusive terms and 105 a fifth-order weighted, essentially non-oscillatory (WENO) scheme is used to 106 compute the convective terms (Shu, 2009). The WENO scheme offers the nec-107 essary compromise between numerical accuracy and algorithm stability which 108

is especially important for the free-surface algorithm (Kara, Kara, Stoesser and 109 Sturm, 2015b). A multi-grid method is employed in the corrector step to solve 110 the pressure Poisson equation and to achieve a divergent flow field at the end 111 of each time step. The accuracy and credibility of LES results are more sensi-112 tive to the treatment of boundary conditions, also called super-grid modeling, 113 and use of high-order spatial discretization schemes together with sufficiently 114 fine grids (Stoesser, 2014; Rodi, Constantinescu and Stoesser, 2013). Validating 115 the present results with similar experiments (Fig. 2) shows that the numeri-116 cal implementation of the Navier-Stokes equations are accurate enough for the 117 applied grid resolution. The Level Set Method (LSM), proven to be success-118 ful in the description of complex air-water interfaces, is used for free surface 119 capturing(Sussman, Smereka and Osher, 1994; Kang and Sotiropoulos, 2012; 120 Kara, Stoesser, Sturm and Mulahasan, 2015c; Kara, Kara, Stoesser and Sturm, 121 2015b). A level set signed distance function, ϕ , which is zero at the phase 122 interface, negative in air and positive in water is employed. The interface is 123 tracked by solving a pure advection equation (Sethian and Smereka, 2003) 124

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \phi = 0 \tag{3}$$

A transition zone is introduced at either side of the phase interface to avoid numerical instability. This instability may be caused due to sudden change and discontinuity of density and viscosity of the two immiscible fluids. In the transition zone, with the thickness of two grid spacings, ϕ is calculated as $|\phi| \leq \varepsilon$ where ε is half of the thickness of the interface. The density ρ and dynamic viscosity μ are calculated as

$$\rho(\phi) = \rho_g + (\rho_l - \rho_g)\mathcal{H}(\phi) \tag{4}$$

$$\mu(\phi) = \mu_g + (\mu_l - \mu_g)\mathcal{H}(\phi) \tag{5}$$

where $\mathcal{H}(\phi)$ is a Heaviside defined as $\mathcal{H}(\phi) = 0$ for $\phi < -\varepsilon$, $\mathcal{H}(\phi) = 1/2(1 + \phi/\varepsilon + \sin(\pi\phi/\varepsilon)/\pi)$ for $|\phi| < \varepsilon$ and $\mathcal{H}(\phi) = 1$ for $\phi > \varepsilon$. Equation (3) is

solved using the WENO scheme as this is a pure advection problem and us-127 ing central differencing schemes cause stability problem (Rodi, Constantinescu 128 and Stoesser, 2013). The solution domain is decomposed into a certain number 129 of sub-domains and the code solves the equations in each domain separately 130 via parallel computing. The Message Passing Interface (MPI) is used to allow 131 communication between sub-domains. More details of the code can be found in 132 (Cevheri, McSherry and Stoesser, 2016; Ouro, Fraga, Lopez-Novoa and Stoesser, 133 2018; Kara, Stoesser and McSherry, 2015a) 134

Large-eddy simulations of the flow over two-dimensional square bars of height 135 (k) at two different bar spacings, $\lambda/k = 5.2$ and $\lambda/k = 10.4$, where λ is the dis-136 tance from bar to bar, are carried out at three different Re, corresponding to 137 laminar, transitional and turbulent flow are performed. Table 1 provides an 138 overview of the various simulations as well as geometrical and hydraulic pa-139 rameters for each case. The $\lambda/k = 5.2$ case is neither d-type (skimming flow) 140 nor k-type (reattaching flow) roughness so it is considered transitional (wake 141 interference flow) roughness, while the $\lambda/k = 10.4$ case is classified as k-type 142 roughness. The global Froude number, $Fr = U_b/\sqrt{gH}$, is kept constant for all 143 cases (g is the gravity acceleration). The two turbulent flows are carried out at 144 two different grid resolutions (medium and fine) and also double-sized domain 145 (double the length and width in streamwise and spanwise directions, respec-146 tively) to investigate the sensitivity of the simulation results to grid resolution 147 and domain size. Fig. 1 presents the schematic of the computational domains. 148 For both bars spacings the length of the domain, L_x , is 10.4k, the width, L_y 149 and height (including both water and air), L_z , are both 5k and hence for 150 the $\lambda/k = 5.2$ case the domain included two troughs while for $\lambda/k = 10.4$ it 151 only contained one trough. For the double-sized domain the streamwise and the 152 spanwise extent of the domain are doubled without changing the grid resolution 153 and for the fine grid the grid numbers are doubled in all directions on the reg-154 ular-sized domain. In all cases the grid spacing is uniform in all directions. The 155 geometrical configurations and flow variables are generally similar to the exper-156 iments and simulations of McSherry et al. (2018) while some details regarding 157

boundary conditions and flow simulations differs. A no-slip boundary condition 158 is applied at the bottom and at the surface of the bars. Periodic boundary con-159 dition are applied in the streamwise and spanwise directions to ensure that the 160 flow is quasi two-dimensional (i.e. homogeneous in the spanwise direction) and 161 without secondary currents (McSherry et al., 2018). The turbulent and tran-162 sitional flows simulations are driven by a constant pressure gradient of similar 163 value to the flume experiments discussed in McSherry et al. (2018) while the 164 laminar simulations are driven by an adjusted pressure gradient to maintain a 165 constant mass flow rate to ensure that U_b is similar to the turbulent cases. The 166 friction velocity, as listed in Table. 1, used to calculate the grid spacings in 167 wall units, is calculated from $U_{\tau} = (dp/dx)(h/\rho)$ where dp/dx is the pressure 168 gradient in the streamwise direction and h is the mean water surface elevation 169 from the bed at still water level (see Fig. 1). All simulations are initiated with a 170 free-slip boundary condition at the still water level and the simulations are run 171 for 10 to 15 flow through periods, $T_f (= L_x/U_b)$, to allow for the flow to develop 172 fully. The simulations are then restarted with the level set algorithm to track the 173 free surface. Averaging of the flow quantities is begun after another 4 to 6 flow 174 through periods when the free-surface flow is fully developed, and continued for 175 between 40 and 60 further flow through periods to obtain converged turbulence 176 statistics. The differences in Fr and Re between the work of McSherry et al. 177 (2018) and the present simulations for turbulent flows is due to uncertainties 178 in the experiments. However, the difference in Fr or Re is less than 10% or 179 5%, respectively for the turbulent flows suggesting adequacy of grid, domain 180 size and boundary conditions. In this following, time-averaged quantities are 181 denoted with an overbar, the double- (temporal- and spatial-) averaged quanti-182 ties are denoted by both the overbar and brackets < >, the small symbols with 183 prime are fluctuations and small symbols without any of these are instantaneous 184 quantities. 185

186 3. Results and discussion

The credibility of the simulations is assessed first by comparing computed 187 two-dimensional water surface elevation and the temporal mean streamwise ve-188 locity of the two turbulent cases with data reported in McSherry et al. (2018). 189 Fig. 2 (a,b) present time- and spanwise-averaged water surface elevations for all 190 grid spacings and domain sizes together with experimental and numerical data 191 (case C2 and C5) in McSherry et al. (2018). There is a good agreement between 192 the present LES results and the reference data. Fig. 2 (c,d) show the adequacy 193 of the domain size and grid spacing chosen for the turbulent case as well. Fig. 194 3 and Fig. 4 show profiles of the time- and spanwise-averaged streamwise ve-195 locity together with the corresponding data reported in McSherry et al. (2018) 196 from both experiments and LES. There were two measurement locations for 197 $\lambda/k = 5.2$ and four for $\lambda/k = 10.4$ (Fig. 1). Both figures show good agreement 198 of the present results with McSherry et al. (2018)'s data. The results of the 199 simulations on the fine grid and with the double domain (not shown here) are 200 similar to the results obtained on the chosen domain and grid size and are hence 201 not worth presenting. The simulation outputs in terms of turbulence statistics 202 are not sensitive to the grid resolution and domain size. The grid resolution of 203 the transitional Re is identical to the grid resolution of the turbulent cases while 204 the the laminar cases were carried out on a coarser grid, however due to the 205 low Reynolds number the grid is effectively finer than for the other two cases. 206 Table 1 demonstrates the adequacy of the grid size for all simulated cases. 207

208 3.1. Water surface

The time- and spanwise-averaged water surface profile is plotted in Fig. 5 for all Re simulated. There was no considerable difference in water surface between the three flow cases over the $\lambda/k = 5.2$ bars except for some weak undulation between two consecutive bars in the turbulent and transitional flows, whilst the free surface of the laminar flow is almost flat. Over the $\lambda/k = 10.4$ bars the general feature of the water surface is similar for all Re, exhibiting a standing

wave between the bars. Increasing the Re results in the standing wave becoming 215 steeper with the trough of the wave deeper. Fig. 6 shows the instantaneous three 216 dimensional free surface of all six flows considered highlighting the differences 217 in water surface behaviour of the simulated cases. The main difference for both 218 $\lambda/k = 5.2$ and $\lambda/k = 10.4$ is that the water surface is the more disturbed 219 the higher the Re. Instantaneous water surface disturbances are absent for the 220 laminar cases and featured only a very weak undulation and a small standing 221 wave for every two bars, Fig. 6(a) and (d) respectively. In the transitional Re, 222 water surfaces are disturbed and the undulations over the $\lambda/k = 5.2$ bars and the 223 standing wave over the $\lambda/k = 10.4$ bars are distinguished more clearly. In the 224 turbulent flows, instantaneous water surface disturbances, the undulations and 225 standing waves are well-established for both roughness arrangements. Due to 226 the temporal- and spanwise-averaging instantaneous disturbances of the water 227 surface are not seen in Fig. 5. The main features of the water surfaces are 228 similar for all Re and for both $\lambda/k = 5.2$ and $\lambda/k = 10.4$, by increasing Re the 229 instantaneous perturbations of the water surface are enhanced and modulate 230 the time-averaged water surfaces. 231

²³² 3.2. Mean velocity contours and streamfunction

The velocity and stress distributions are examined to provide a more detailed 233 understanding of the flow fields and momentum transport. Fig. 7 presents con-234 tours of the time- and spanwise-averaged streamwise velocity normalized by the 235 bulk velocity for all six flow cases. Also plotted is the local Fr calculated at 236 the free surface. In all cases the flow separates at the bars leading to the gen-237 eration of recirculation bubbles just downstream of the bars. The recirculation 238 zones include significant negative velocity near the bed in the transitional and 239 turbulent flows over both bars spacing. In the flow over the $\lambda/k = 5.2$ bars this 240 recirculation bubble occupied the entire trough between two consecutive bars 241 while over $\lambda/k = 10.4$ this zone extends to a reattachment point after which the 242 flow recovers to a boundary layer. The recirculation zone is the longest in the 243 transitional flow and shortest in the laminar flow. The large shear stress in the 244

245	laminar flow leads to boundary layer formation near the wall earlier than two
246	other types of flow and this pushes the reattachement point back towards the
247	bars which generates smaller recirculation zone. In turbulent flow, where there
248	are the strongest disturbances, the intense mixing near the wall increase the
249	momentum exchange. This affects the weak negative streamwise velocity at the
250	end of the recirculation bubble hence contributes to a small recirculaton zone.
251	In the transitional flow though, the shear stress and the turbulent motions are
252	not at their maximum strength thus the negative streamwie velocity induced by
253	the bar extends to a larger area and makes the recirculation zone the longest.
254	In the flow over $\lambda/k = 5.2$ streamwise gradients of the streamwise velocity are
255	almost absent above the bars while they are quite significant above the bars
256	over $\lambda/k = 10.4$. The flow accelerates just above the bars near the free surface
257	leading to a local increase of Fr until it reaches a maximum, after that the flow
257 258	leading to a local increase of Fr until it reaches a maximum, after that the flow decelerates as the height of the recirculation bubble decreases relatively and
257 258 259	leading to a local increase of Fr until it reaches a maximum, after that the flow decelerates as the height of the recirculation bubble decreases relatively and the water depth increases suddenly hence a decrease in the streamwise velocity
257 258 259 260	leading to a local increase of Fr until it reaches a maximum, after that the flow decelerates as the height of the recirculation bubble decreases relatively and the water depth increases suddenly hence a decrease in the streamwise velocity keeps a constant mass flow rate. This sudden deceleration is evidenced by the
257 258 259 260 261	leading to a local increase of Fr until it reaches a maximum, after that the flow decelerates as the height of the recirculation bubble decreases relatively and the water depth increases suddenly hence a decrease in the streamwise velocity keeps a constant mass flow rate. This sudden deceleration is evidenced by the collapse in the local Fr . Local acceleration followed by a sudden deceleration
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257 258 259 260 261 262 263 264 265	leading to a local increase of Fr until it reaches a maximum, after that the flow decelerates as the height of the recirculation bubble decreases relatively and the water depth increases suddenly hence a decrease in the streamwise velocity keeps a constant mass flow rate. This sudden deceleration is evidenced by the collapse in the local Fr . Local acceleration followed by a sudden deceleration results in the formation of the standing wave at the water surface (McSherry, Chua, Stoesser and Mulahasan, 2018). Fig. 7a, b, c show that the variations of the local Fr is significantly less in the $\lambda/k = 5.2$, and hence local variations of the water depth for these cases are much smaller, resulting in the afore-
257 258 260 261 263 263 264 265 266	leading to a local increase of Fr until it reaches a maximum, after that the flow decelerates as the height of the recirculation bubble decreases relatively and the water depth increases suddenly hence a decrease in the streamwise velocity keeps a constant mass flow rate. This sudden deceleration is evidenced by the collapse in the local Fr . Local acceleration followed by a sudden deceleration results in the formation of the standing wave at the water surface (McSherry, Chua, Stoesser and Mulahasan, 2018). Fig. 7a, b, c show that the variations of the local Fr is significantly less in the $\lambda/k = 5.2$, and hence local variations of the water depth for these cases are much smaller, resulting in the afore- mentioned mild undulations. Noteworthy are high local Fr in the laminar case
257 258 259 260 261 262 263 264 265 266 267	leading to a local increase of Fr until it reaches a maximum, after that the flow decelerates as the height of the recirculation bubble decreases relatively and the water depth increases suddenly hence a decrease in the streamwise velocity keeps a constant mass flow rate. This sudden deceleration is evidenced by the collapse in the local Fr . Local acceleration followed by a sudden deceleration results in the formation of the standing wave at the water surface (McSherry, Chua, Stoesser and Mulahasan, 2018). Fig. 7a, b, c show that the variations of the local Fr is significantly less in the $\lambda/k = 5.2$, and hence local variations of the water depth for these cases are much smaller, resulting in the afore- mentioned mild undulations. Noteworthy are high local Fr in the laminar case over the $\lambda/k = 5.2$ bars, which is due to the significant viscous stress, resulting
257 258 259 260 261 262 263 264 265 266 267 268	leading to a local increase of Fr until it reaches a maximum, after that the flow decelerates as the height of the recirculation bubble decreases relatively and the water depth increases suddenly hence a decrease in the streamwise velocity keeps a constant mass flow rate. This sudden deceleration is evidenced by the collapse in the local Fr . Local acceleration followed by a sudden deceleration results in the formation of the standing wave at the water surface (McSherry, Chua, Stoesser and Mulahasan, 2018). Fig. 7a, b, c show that the variations of the local Fr is significantly less in the $\lambda/k = 5.2$, and hence local variations of the water depth for these cases are much smaller, resulting in the afore- mentioned mild undulations. Noteworthy are high local Fr in the laminar case over the $\lambda/k = 5.2$ bars, which is due to the significant viscous stress, resulting in a quasi-parabolic velocity profile and consequently high streamwise velocities

The distribution of the total shear stress (viscous plus turbulent) signifies momentum flux. Contours of the the sum of the time- and spanwise-averaged shear stresses, viscous and Reynolds shear stress, normalized by the squared (global) shear velocity are shown in Fig. 8. In the laminar flow over $\lambda/k = 5.2$ the time-averaged shear stress is negative near the water surface, whereas in the transitional and turbulent flows it is near zero almost everywhere. The ever-so-

slightly deformed water surface in this case creates local form drag and hence 276 the flow decelerates very close to the water surface. The negative shear stress 277 is the result of negative streamwise velocity gradients and this is particularly 278 pronounced in the laminar flow in which the viscosity is very high. In the 279 laminar flow over $\lambda/k = 10.4$ the mean shear stress is negative just below 280 the water surface as well and also in the transitional flow while it is positive 281 upstream of the standing wave in the turbulent flow. The standing wave creates 282 significant drag below the water surface, again leading to decelerated flow near 283 the surface. In the laminar flow the extent of the negative shear stress is quite 284 significant as there are large changes in the surface elevation especially around 285 the standing wave. Due to high viscosity the effects of large water surface de-286 formations in this case extend to larger flow depth hence the negative shear 287 stress in this case is weaker than that in the laminar flow over $\lambda/k = 5.2$ as 288 the boundary layer is thicker in the former than the latter. In the transitional 289 flow the negative shear stress is only significant just downstream of the stand-290 ing wave as the viscous effects are still considerable whereas in the turbulent 291 flow it is strongest only immediately downstream of the wave as larger distur-292 bances especially at the standing wave induce large disturbances in the flow 293 field and contribute to larger turbulent shear stress. In the laminar flow in 294 both geometries the maximum of the time- and space-averaged shear stress is 295 at the crest of the bars where the velocity gradient is the largest but in the 296 transitional and turbulent flows this maximum is downstream of the bars, due 297 to only small contributions of the viscous stress and large contributions of the 298 turbulent stress at higher Re. The effect of high viscosity is also observed near 299 the bed. In the laminar flows pockets of the negative time- and space-averaged 300 total shear stress are visible downstream of the bar (as a result of recirculation). 301 In the transitional flows though, these pockets are visibly smaller, due to the 302 viscous stress being less dominant and in the turbulent flows, where the viscous 303 stress contribution is very small, they are reduced to a very thin layer adjacent 304 to the wall in the recirculation bubbles. 305

³⁰⁶ Contours of the time- and spanwise-averaged wall-normal velocity normal-

ized by the bulk velocity are presented in Fig. 9 and they highlight significant 307 interaction of the near bed flow with the flow near the water surface, evidenced 308 by pronounced variations of $\langle \overline{w} \rangle$ over the water depth and in the streamwise 309 direction. In the flows over $\lambda/k = 5.2$, alternating regions of positive and neg-310 ative $\langle \overline{w} \rangle$ are found above and below the crest of the bars. In the laminar 311 flow, under the crest of the bars, there are mainly patches of positive $\langle \overline{w} \rangle$ in 312 the wake of the bars followed by negative $\langle \overline{w} \rangle$. The positive patches occupy 313 almost the entire cavity between bars in the transitional and turbulent flows 314 and the regions of negative $\langle \overline{w} \rangle$ are small but strong near the leading edge of 315 the bars. Positive patches near the bed between the bars result in negative ones 316 above extending up to the water surface. At the leading edge of the bars there 317 is local increase in $\langle \overline{w} \rangle$ resulting in regions of positive $\langle \overline{w} \rangle$ above extending 318 to the water surface. Alternating regions of positive and negative time- and 319 spanwise-averaged wall-normal velocity are present in the flow over $\lambda/k = 10.4$ 320 too. The patches of negative $\langle \overline{w} \rangle$ above the crest of the bars results in regions 321 of strong mean wall-normal velocity near the water surface and extending close 322 to the bed between bars in the larger-spacing-simulations. Positive regions of 323 $\langle \overline{w} \rangle$ near the leading edge of the bars extend all the way to the water sur-324 face. A second peak of positive $\langle \overline{w} \rangle$ is observed just below the standing wave. 325 Clearly, maxima and minima of $\langle \overline{w} \rangle$ are greater in the flow over the $\lambda/k = 10.4$ 326 bars than over the $\lambda/k = 5.2$ bars. Fig. 7 and Fig. 9 suggest that the abrupt 327 change of the water surface correlate with local acceleration/deceleration of the 328 flow. These two figures also show that in the flow over $\lambda/k = 5.2$ under the 329 crest of the bars there is flow circulation between two bars while in the flow over 330 $\lambda/k = 10.4$ there is not such flow circulation. 331

Fig. 10 presents contour lines of the spanwise-mean streamfunction for all simulated cases. The dashed lines denote negative values. Consistent with Fig. 7 these plots show that for small bar spacing the recirculation zone occupies the cavity between bars while the mean flow reattaches at the bed for the wide bar spacing beds. Small regions of positive streamfunction, a secondary recirculation zone, driven by the primary recirculation, exists just downstream of the the

bars and they are are of similar size in all transitional and turbulent cases. 338 No such secondary recirculation zone exists in the laminar flow as a result of 339 the primary recirculation being short and weak. There is a small region of 340 negative streamfunction at the leading edge of the bars in the transitional and 341 turbulent cases as the flow accelerates around the leading edge of the bars and 342 detaching from the bed. The streamwise velocity near the bed in the laminar 343 case is significantly smaller than in the other two flows and hence this upstream 344 bubble is absent in the laminar flow. The longest recirculation bubble is found 345 in the transitional flow due to the positive mean shear stress downstream of the 346 bar as shown in Fig. 8. In the turbulent flow the streamwise extension of the 347 recirculation zone is smaller due to the larger contribution of Reynolds shear 348 stress to the mean shear stress which results in the larger region of positive 349 mean shear stress downstream of the bar. 350

351 3.3. Pressure and friction forces

To investigate the interaction of the bulk flow with the bed, the main forces applied on the bed were studied. Pressure coefficient, C_p , which is the ratio of pressure difference over the dynamic pressure calculated by the bulk velocity and friction coefficient, C_f , which is the wall shear stress normalized by the dynamic pressure calculated by the bulk velocity were examined.

Fig. 11 plots $C_p = (\langle \overline{P} \rangle - \langle \overline{P_{ref}} \rangle) / (0.5 \rho U_b^2)$ where $\langle \overline{P_{ref}} \rangle$ is the 357 temporal and spanwise mean pressure over the free surface at $x = x_{ref}$ (Fig. 358 1). In both roughness spacings, the pressure has its maximum value at the 359 leading edge of the bars. In the transitional and turbulent flows there are no 360 changes in C_p downstream of the bars up to some certain streamwise locations 361 but it increased monotonously after this length with an abrupt sudden increase 362 at the leading edge of the next bar. However, the increasing trend is found 363 in the entire cavity for C_p in the laminar flows. In the flow over $\lambda/k = 5.2$ 364 the length over which the pressure is constant is longer in the transitional and 365 turbulent flows than that in those flows over $\lambda/k = 10.4$. C_p in the transitional 366 and turbulent flows over both roughness types have similar values with the 367

maximum C_p corresponding to the transitional flow. In the laminar flow, C_p 368 is smaller while the difference of C_p between the laminar flow and two other 369 flow cases is greater in the flow over $\lambda/k = 10.4$ than $\lambda/k = 5.2$. Since there is 370 not a large difference between the mean relative submergence for all Re in both 371 geometries (see Fig 5) and there is no dynamic pressure over the surface, C_p can 372 be interpreted as the static pressure over the bed. In the flow over $\lambda/k = 5.2$ 373 the values of the wall-normal velocity near the bed are smaller compared to the 374 value and peaks of $\langle \overline{w} \rangle$ in the flow over $\lambda/k = 10.4$ which are also closer to the 375 bed (Fig. 9). This contributes to the generation of a larger pressure coefficient 376 on the bed in the flow over $\lambda/k = 10.4$ as seen in Fig. 11. 377

Fig. 12 presents the friction coefficient $C_f = (\tau_{wall}) / (0.5 \rho U_b^2)$ where τ_{wall} 378 is the wall shear stress. The sign of C_f for all cases is consistent with the mean 379 streamwise velocity distribution shown in Fig. 7. Here the friction coefficients 380 in the two transitional flows are of the same order as those of the laminar flow 381 cases. The negative peak of C_f in the transitional flow in Fig. 12(a) are further 382 from the trailing edge of the bar on the left compared to the same peak 383 in the laminar flow due to the presence of the relatively larger region of the 384 positive streamwise velocity in the wake of that bar (Fig. 7(a,b)). Having a 385 smaller region of positive $\langle \overline{u} \rangle$ in the turbulent flow in this case leads to the 386 displacement of this peak back towards the upstream bar. Similarly, in Fig. 387 12(b) the first negative peak (1.5 < x/k < 3) is the furthest from the left bar 388 in the transitional flow as the region of the positive streamwise velocity is the 389 largest in this type of flow. The small recirculation region in 9 < x/k < 10 in 390 Fig. 7(d,f) leads to the generation of the second negative peak in Fig. 7(b)391 in the transitional and turbulent flows which causes a decrease in the total C_f 392 in this geometry. Since the viscosity is larger in the laminar flow, the largest 393 value of C_f is expected for both peaks in the laminar flow between the three 394 simulated Re which is the case in Fig. 12 (b). But in the flow over $\lambda/k = 5.2$ 395 the value of the negative peak is similar in the laminar and transitional flows 396 representing the similar maximum tangential velocity above the bed between 307 these two flow types. 398

The pressure and friction drag forces in the streamwise direction are shown 399 in Fig. 13 a. These forces are normalized by the total force $F_T = F_{\tau} + F_P$. 400 Friction drag is calculated at the bed and at the top of the bars and pressure 401 drag is calculated at the front and back faces of the bars. Friction forces are 402 entirely negative in flow over the $\lambda/k = 5.2$ bars (as the recirculation zone 403 occupies the entire through), irrespective of Re, and just positive in all flows 404 over the $\lambda/k = 10.4$ bars due to the recirculation zone being finite. In all 405 cases, pressure drag is significantly larger than friction drag independent of the 406 Reynolds number. Also, the bar spacing does not affect the distribution of the 407 forces for the three *Re* investigated. Fig. 13 b plots friction factors (in the 408 form of the Darcy Weisbach friction factor) as a function of Reynolds number 409 for both roughness types. The friction factor of the flow over k-type roughness 410 is consistently greater than for the flow over transitional roughness and this 411 is in line with previous research. Also in line with previous research of flows 412 over rough beds is that flow resistance decreases with an increase in Reynolds 413 number. 414

415 **4. Conclusions**

Results of large-eddy simulations of flows over spanwise aligned square bars 416 in an open channel flow were presented. Two bar spacings corresponding to 417 transitional and k-type roughness were considered each at three Re correspond-418 ing to laminar, transitional and turbulent flows at a constant Fr. The time- and 419 spanwise-averaged water surface profiles and the instantaneous three-dimensional 420 water surface visualisations showed that the mean water surface deformations 421 are similar for all three Re except for the effects of turbulence which results 422 in perturbations of the instantaneous water surface. In the flow over k-type 423 roughness a standing wave is established at all Re at the water surface and it 424 is steepest in the turbulent flow. The flows over the transitional roughness are 425 characterised by mild water surface undulations at all Re with these being most 426 pronounced for the turbulent flow. Significant streamwise gradients of the time-427

averaged streamwise velocity, mainly occurring near the free surface and below 428 the crest of the bars, are present in the flow over the k-type roughness. It was 429 also revealed that the variations of the local Fr explained the formation of the 430 standing waves, signifying a sudden drop in streamwise velocity near the water 431 surface and hence a sudden deceleration of the flow leading to a sudden increase 432 in water depth. The mean total shear stress is negative just below the water 433 surface in the laminar flows over both bar spacing and its maximum value was 434 in the flow over transitional roughness. This led to the rise of Fr to its largest 435 value at the free surface in this flow type. The time-averaged wall-normal ve-436 locity varies significantly throughout the domain regardless of bar arrangement 437 and Reynolds number. There is flow circulation below the crest of the bars over 438 transitional roughness occupying the entire trough between bars. The largest 439 recirculation bubble in the flow over k-type roughness was found in the transi-440 tional flow as the positive mean shear stress in the wake of the bars shifted the 441 recirculation zone away from them. The larger contribution of Reynolds shear 442 stress to the mean shear stress in the turbulent flow resulted in the decrease of 443 the streamwise extension of the recirculation zone in this flow type. The max-444 imum value of pressure on the bed corresponds to the transitional flows and 445 the minimum value to the laminar flows in flow over both bar spacings. The 446 peak of the pressure in every flow case occurs at the leading edge of the bars. 447 Larger wall-normal velocity in the flow over k-type roughness contributes to 448 larger C_p in this geometry. Small regions of positive streamwise velocity shifts 449 the peak of C_f in the streamwsie direction. The tangential velocity adjacent 450 to the wall is lager in the laminar flow over transitional roughness than k-type 451 roughness, the cases in which the friction coefficients are maximum between all 452 investigated Re. In the flow cases studied here, increasing the Re leads to a 453 small increase in the pressure force applied on the bed and a small decrease in 454 the viscous force while the bar spacing had even a smaller effect on the value of 455 these forces. Generally pressure drag dominates this flow. In terms of friction 456 factors, as expected k-type roughness features larger flow resistance and flow 457 resistance generally decreases with an increase in Reynolds number. 458

459 Acknowledgements

Financial support was provided by the EPSRC/UK project "Rapid Monitoring of River Hydrodynamics and Morphology using Acoustic Holography", grant
number EP/R022135/1. The fine-grid and large-domain large-eddy simulations
were carried out on UCL's high performance computer Grace.

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		$\lambda/k = 5.2, H/k = 2.5$			-		
Case	U_b	U_{τ}	Re	Fr	Δx^+	Δy^+	Δz^+
Turbulent	0.24	0.073	7.2×10^3	0.44	58.3	68.3	36.4
$\mathrm{Turbulent_{fine}}$	0.25	0.073	7.5×10^3	0.46	29.5	34.8	18.1
$\operatorname{Turbulent_{double\ domain}}$	0.25	0.073	7.5×10^3	0.46	59.3	68.7	36.0
Transitional	0.23	0.073	$6.9{ imes}10^2$	0.42	5.8	6.8	3.6
Laminar	0.24	0.081	7.2×10^1	0.44	1.0	1.5	0.8
McSherry et al. (2018)	0.28	0.077	8.3×10^3	0.51	75.1	71.8	38.8
		$\lambda/$	k = 10.4, h	-			
Case	U_b	U_{τ}	Re	Fr	Δx^+	Δy^+	Δz^+
Turbulent	0.23	0.074	8.0×10^{3}	0.39	59.5	69.7	37.2
$\mathrm{Turbulent_{fine}}$	0.24	0.075	8.3×10^3	0.41	30.2	35.4	18.9
$\mathrm{Turbulent_{double\ domain}}$	0.24	0.075	8.3×10^3	0.41	60.4	70.7	37.7
Transitional	0.22	0.075	$7.7{ imes}10^2$	0.38	5.9	7.0	3.7
Laminar	0.23	0.11	8.0×10^1	0.39	1.3	2.0	1.1

Table 1: Hydraulic conditions and computational details.



Figure 1: Schematic of the computational domain.



Figure 2: Time- and spanwise-averaged free surface elevations for (a,c) $\lambda/k = 5.2$ and (b,d) $\lambda/k = 10.4$.



Figure 3: Temporal and spanwise mean streamwise velocity for $\lambda/k = 5.2$ at selected steamwise locations.



Figure 4: Time- and spanwise-averaged streamwise velocity for $\lambda/k = 10.4$ at selected steamwise locations.



Figure 5: Time- and spanwise-averaged water surface profiles in turbulent, transitional and laminar flow for (a) $\lambda/k = 5.2$ and (b) $\lambda/k = 10.4$.



Figure 6: Instantaneous water surface in turbulent, transitional and laminar flow for (a-c) $\lambda/k = 5.2$ and $(d-f)\lambda/k = 10.4$.



Figure 7: Contours of the time- and spanwise-averaged streamwise velocity together with the local Froude number at the water surface for turbulent, transitional and laminar flow for (a-c) $\lambda/k = 5.2$ and (d-f) $\lambda/k = 10.4$.



Figure 8: Contours of time- and spanwise-averaged viscous and Reynolds shear stresses in turbulent, transitional and laminar flow for (a-c) $\lambda/k = 5.2$ and (d-f) $\lambda/k = 10.4$.



Figure 9: Time- and spanwise-averaged wall-normal velocity in turbulent, transitional and laminar flow for (a-c) $\lambda/k = 5.2$ and (d-f) $\lambda/k = 10.4$.



Figure 10: Contour lines of the spanwise-averaged streamfunction in turbulent, transitional and laminar flow for (a-c) $\lambda/k = 5.2$ and (d-f) $\lambda/k = 10.4$.



Figure 11: Pressure coefficient in turbulent, transitional and laminar flow for (a) $\lambda/k = 5.2$ and (b) $\lambda/k = 10.4$.



Figure 12: Friction coefficient in turbulent, transitional and laminar flow for (a) $\lambda/k = 5.2$ and (b) $\lambda/k = 10.4$.



Figure 13: (a) Friction and pressure forces, (b) variation of friction factor with Reynolds number.