

دانشگاه ارومیه  
دانشکده کشاورزی

# گروه مهندسی آب

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مطالب درسی

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## هیدرولیک رسوب

دکتری  
(دوره کارشناسی ارشد، رشته سازه های آبی)

دکتر مهدی یاسی

۱۳۹۴

WaterEng.ir

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- منابع مورد استناد :
- References :

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- (۸) پایان نامه های کارشناسی ارشد، رشته سازه های آبی، دانشگاه ارومیه، توسط:

- ۱- بروز نیقوس ، سال ۱۳۸۰ ، استادانها : دکتر میرزایی .

- ۲- رسم جزء پیرامونی سال ۱۳۸۳

- ۳۔ امیر بیس علی سال ۱۳۸۸ (۲)





## واژه‌ها (Terminology):

Sediment (رسوب): Particles suspended/deposited in water or air.

ذراتی که در هوا یا آب بصورت معلق یا ته‌نشست هستند.

{ Fluvial Sediment : رسوبات ناشی از فرسایش آب

{ Aeolian " : " " " " بادی

{ Alluvium : رسوبات آبرفتی

{ Alluvial rivers : رودخانه‌های آبرفتی

{ Erosion : فرسایش (عمام) - معمولاً در مقیاس بزرگ و در پیوند زمانی طولانی

{ Degradation : فرسایش کف بستر (کف کنی) - رودخانه - در مقیاس طولی بزرگ رودخانه

{ Scour : آبستکی - فرسایش آب در بستر و دیواره رودخانه

{ Local Scour : آبستکی موضعی - در مقیاس کوچکتر و پیوند زمانی کوتاه در رودخانه‌ها

{ Deposition (Sedimentation) : ته‌نشین رسوب (عمام)

{ Aggradation : رسوبگذاری در بستر رودخانه - در مقیاس طولی بزرگ

{ Bar (Sediment Bar) : بار رسوبی (جزایر رسوب) در کف بستر رودخانه

{ Island : جزایر رسوبی تثبیت یافته در بستر رودخانه

{ Sand Mining : برداشت مصالح از بستر رودخانه

(برداشتن از معدن Mining)

{ Channel : آبراهه (عمام) - کانال، رودخانه و ...

{ Stable channel ↔ Stability : آبراهه پایدار

{ Unstable " ↔ Unstability : " " " " ناپایدار

{ Equilibrium State (of Bed) : حالت تعادل (رینامیکی) - بستر

{  $\rightarrow (\text{Rate of Sediment Supply}_{\text{to a reach}} = \text{Rate of Sediment Transport}_{\text{From a reach}})$

Sediment Particles (Material): ذرات رسوبی (مواد رسوبی)

{ Sediment Transport : انتقال رسوب

{ Sediment load : بار رسوبی (Sediment Transport Rate)   
 شدت

{ Bed load : بار کف (بار بستر)

{ Suspended load : بار معلق } sediment load

{ Total load : بار رسوبی کل

Sediment

(عمل)

هیدرولیک رسوب : رابطه متقابل (Interaction) بین :  
 (۱) جریان آب (Flowing water)  
 (۲) ذرات رسوبی (Sediment Particles)  
 که بستگی دارد به :

- ۱- حضور مواد رسوبی - در جریان و در بستر و دیواره ها  
 (Availability of Sediment)
- ۲- قابلیت و قدرت جریان  
 (Capability of flow)

هدف از بررسی :

- a) Estimating rate of :
  - Erosion ... فرسایش
  - Sediment Transport (Load) ... حمل رسوب
  - Deposition / Scout ... ته نشین / آبستنی
- b) Prediction of :
  - Channel Form ... شکل و فرم رودخانه ای
  - Channel Geometry ... هندسه (عمق، عرض، شیب و ...)
- c) Evaluation of :
  - Channel Stability ... پایداری رودخانه
- d) Design of :
  - Stable channels ... طرح پایدار مجرا

# 1. Sediment Sources and Movement (Origins of Sediment)

1. water 2. Wind 3. Gravity 4. Ice

عوامل ایجاد رسوب :  
موارد ۴ در بررس :

- 1) Source areas where the sediment originates its motion.  
(Watershed Management) منابع ایجاد رسوب : عموماً حوزه آبخیز رودخانه و موضوع آبخیزداری
- 2) Channel or Waterway where sediment Transports
- 3) Deposition area where sediment is Terminated its motion.

## Origins of Sediments : 7 Principal Sources.

1) Sheet Erosion : فرسایش سطحی خاک (ورقه‌ای)

درآمد رواناب سطحی ناشی از بارش روی اراضی حوزه (Surface runoff).  
+ عموماً مرحله تشکیل آبراهه‌های شیار (Rill Erosion) در این مرحله قرار می‌گیرد.  
این بخش منبع انتقال رسوب ریزانه و کلوئیدی (رس و سilt) به جریان رودخانه‌ها ،  
و منبع آلودگی آب است.

2) Gully Erosion : فرسایش خندق - نری - آبراهه‌ها

Gully = نری که بطور طبیعی شکل گرفته و با عمق سنگین از بین می‌رود.  
مکانیسم فرسایش عموماً بصورت توسعه فرسایش از بالا است ، یعنی تراشیدن و پس تفریق آب  
(Head cutting) منشأ تولید مواد رسوبی درشت رانه است.

3) Stream / channel Erosion : فرسایش رودخانه‌ای

بصورت : فرسایش بستر (Bed Degradation)  
فرسایش ریشه‌ها (Bank Erosion)

4) Urban Erosion :

ناشی از توسعه شهری ، تغییرات در نحوه کاربری اراضی ، راهها ، خطوط انتقال ،  
فواض صنعتی ، مگونی در محدوده شهری است.

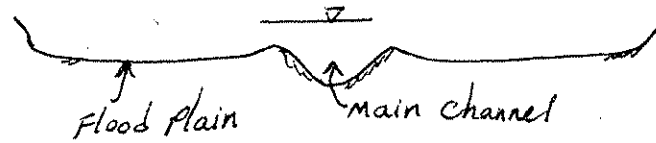
5) Mass Movement of Soil :

حرکت توده‌ای خاک (slump)

- ریزش سطحی از رانه‌ها و سیب‌ها - درآمد Gravity : (Soil Creep)  
- لغزش زمین (Land Slide)

فرسایش سطحی - در اثر جریان سیلابی - در دست سیلابی اورخانه

6) Flood Plain Erosion



7) Mining, Industrial, and Sewage Wastes.

پس آب های معدنی، صنعتی و شهری (فاضلاب) - که حاوی رسوبات و مواد جامد هستند.

نصورت منابع سطحی و قابل کنترل بحساب می آید  $\leftarrow$  Point sources  
و پرورش ماهی fish Industries

برای حوضه های بزرگ، عوامل ۱، ۲، ۳ مهم هستند دارند.  
از این میان، Sheet Erosion مهم بعدی دارد  $\leftarrow$  اهمیت حفاظت خاک و آبخوانداری  
عامل (۶)، قابل کنترل و برنامه ریزی با سبب است (Point sources).

نظور کلی، مثلاً ۴۴، تشخیص منابع تولید رسوب، و توزیع مکانی (۳۳ هر زیر حوزه در شبکه آبخوانداری)  
درجه اهمیت حرکت از منابع - با توجه به اهداف و شرایط مورد نظر.

شکل:

- \* جهت احوال سد مخرنی  $\leftarrow$  کل بار رسوبی مهم  $\leftarrow$  کنترل Sheet Erosion مهم.
- \* ارزیابی کیفیت آب اورخانه برای مصرف شهری  $\leftarrow$  کنترل رسوبات ریزدانه که بصورت بار معلق حمل و انتقال می یابد.
- \* مشکل Aggradation در یک reach اورخانه  $\leftarrow$  ته نشینت زیاد مواد رسوبی در دست دانه  $\leftarrow$  کنترل بارکف (Bedload)
- $\leftarrow$  کنترل فرسایش Channels و Gullies
- \* ارزیابی برداشت مصالح اورخانه ای  $\leftarrow$  ظرفیت بار رسوبی و ته نشینت یا فرسایش در بازه اورخانه (اجازه برداشت مصالح در بازه ای که تحت Bed Degradation است، داده نمی شود).

دانشجویان: مکانیزم فرسایش را مطابق سری سائل و شماره یک بررسی کنید.

(شرح خلاصه وی دقت از علل فرسایش و هیدرولیک فرسایش و دقت ای،  
نظور و حقیقت و اورخانه ای - مطابق مطالب صفحه).

سرس مسائل شماره یک : "منشاء و انتقال رسوبات در فانداس"

① مشخصات انتخاب و تفکیک یازده های در فانداس ( River Reaches ) را بطور خلاصه و دقیق - با ذکر منابع مورد استفاده - ارائه نماید .

② مکانیزم Sheet Erosion و Rill Erosion بطور خلاصه و دقیق شرح دهید .

③ مکانیزم ایجاد و توسعه Gully Erosion و Gully Erosion را شرح دهید .

④ در حل مسائل هیدرولیکی و هیدروکیلی ، روش زیر قابل تفکیک هستند :

- a) Deterministic Methods
- b) Stochastic Methods

این روش را بطور خلاصه و دقیق شرح داده و تفاوت آنها را مورد مقایسه و بحث قرار دهید .

⑤ مفردات فیزیکی و معادل فارسی واژه های زیر را ارائه نماید .

- a) Erosion
- b) Deposition
- c) Aggradation
- d) Degradation
- e) Tidal Rivers / non-Tidal Rivers
- f) Channel / Canal
- g) Flood Plain
- h) Stream bed
- i) Stream bank
- j) River Form
- k) Cross - Section
- l) Tributaries

⑥ نقش برف و ذوب برف و هموعانی دوره ی ذوب برف و بارندگی در فرسایش خاک و انتقال رسوب را بنویسید .



## RIVER HYDRAULICS AND SEDIMENT TRANSPORT

## CHAPTER ONE

Ref. (1): R.J. Keller (1996)

## ORIGINS OF SEDIMENT

## INTRODUCTION

The continuing landform development occurring on the earth's surface necessarily implies the production and subsequent distribution of sediments. Earth and rock particles are removed from one location and deposited at another, and there is a need to quantify these erosion and deposition rates. Because water is the prime entraining agent and mover of eroded materials, it is virtually impossible to plan, design, construct, or maintain river basin projects rationally without postulating the distribution of these materials to downslope and downstream locations. Typical erosion and deposition occurrences are indicated in Figure 1.1.

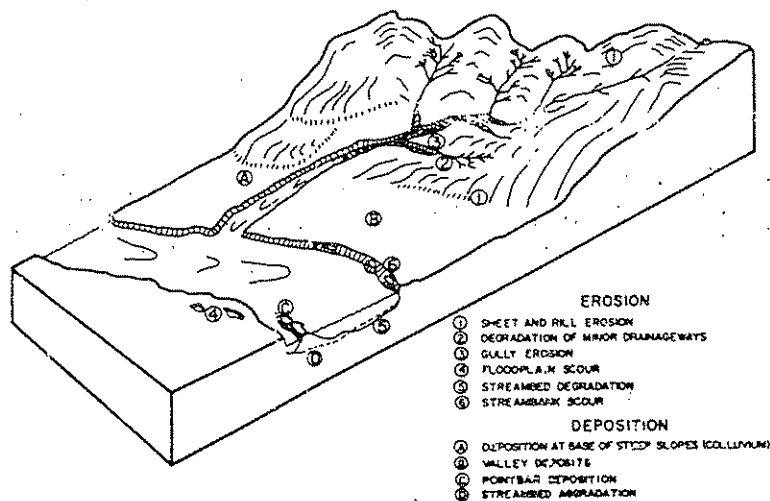


FIGURE 1.1. Typical Erosion and Deposition Occurrences.

Most individuals have observed soil erosion and deposition phenomena in nature and could ascribe general reasons for these occurrences with some degree of confidence. The interplay of the forces causing erosion is less obvious, however. As with other natural occurrences, erosion and deposition rates could be accurately predicted if all causes were known and could be taken into account. In nature, and often in the laboratory, it is seldom possible, or practical, to measure all these variables in isolation so that a completely deterministic model can be developed. Thus, to obtain quantitative estimates of erosion and deposition for a given situation, probabilistic values based on measurements must be

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assigned to the major causative variables.

The adequacy of measurement records and the degree of success in analyzing them determine the degree to which deterministic methods rather than stochastic (probabilistic) methods have been utilized for estimating rates of erosion, sediment transport, and deposition.

From an engineering point of view, the accelerated erosion most often induced by man's activities is of special concern. In fact a large proportion of material produced by accelerated erosion derives from sheet erosion over cultivated lands. The concentration of runoff in large and small drainageways often causes extensive channel erosion. Other erosion from such specialized activities as mining, and the construction of houses, factories, highways and utilities is becoming increasingly important in some localities.

All of these erosion types combine to create challenging problems in land management and in the design of sediment control measures. But the overall goal is the economic management of our land resource so that the rate of normal geologic erosion, plus an allowable rate of man-made erosion, will not exceed our ability to sustain the soil. Attainment of this goal would minimize the engineering and aesthetic problems arising from accelerated sediment movement downstream.

In this chapter the principal sources of stream borne sediment are identified and their relative importance discussed.

### ORIGINS OF SEDIMENT

There are seven principal sources of stream-borne sediment, namely:

- (1) Sheet erosion by surface runoff from precipitation on agricultural range, forest, and waste land - sheet erosion being defined by soil conservationists as the removal of surface soil by overland flow without the formation of channels of sufficient depth to prevent cultivation or crossing by farm machinery.
- (2) Gullying, or the cutting of channels in soil or unconsolidated geologic formations by concentrated runoff.
- (3) Stream-channel erosion, including bank cutting and bed degradation of formerly well-defined channels.
- (4) Urban erosion incident to cultural developments, including roads, railroads, powerlines, and clearing for housing and industrial projects.



- 3/a
- (5) Mass movements of soil - landslides, slumps, and soil creep.
  - (6) Flood erosion, or the removal of surface soil by flood flows sweeping across flood plains.
  - (7) Mining, industrial, and sewage wastes discharged into streams or left in waste dumps favorable to erosion.

Of these, the first three are by far the most important, quantitatively in all large drainage areas, although in urban areas the fourth source may be of major importance. In general, sheet erosion is the dominant source of the total sediment load in larger drainage areas which have an annual rainfall of more than 500 mm and where agriculture is a prominent land use. Gullying and stream-channel erosion generally furnish the greater part of the total stream load in forest and range areas and in drainage areas having less than 500 mm of annual precipitation.

Note

In some sediment problems the total <sup>Sediment</sup> stream load is of primary importance. For example, all of the load may contribute to reducing the storage capacity of reservoirs. In other problems, however, such as stream-channel aggradation or filtration of water for domestic use, either the coarse bed-load fraction or the fine suspended-load fraction of the total load is the critical factor. Hence, in a study of a particular problem, primary consideration must be given to the sources of the sediment involved in that problem. These sources may differ significantly from the sources of the total sediment load passing the points where the problem exists.

In the following sections, the first four sources in the above list are discussed in further detail.

#### SHEET EROSION (and hill erosion)

Soil movement resulting from raindrop splash and surface runoff is often called sheet erosion. Sheet erosion removes the lighter soil particles, organic matter, and soluble nutrients from the land and is thus a serious detriment to the maintenance of soil fertility and productivity. Since sheet erosion occurs rather uniformly over the slope, it may go unnoticed until most of the productive topsoil has been removed. For this reason, sheet erosion must be considered as most serious.

As the surface water accumulates, it moves downslope. This water rarely moves as a uniform sheet over the surface of the land. It would move in this manner if the surface were smooth and uniformly inclined,

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which is seldom the case. The surface is almost always irregular. Surface areas a few feet square generally exhibit in miniature the drainage pattern of a major watershed. Each small portion of the runoff water takes the path of least resistance, concentrating in depressions and gaining in velocity as the depth of water and the slope of the land increases.

*The erosiveness of flowing water depends upon its velocity, turbulence, and the amount and type of abrasive material it transports.* Velocity increases as the depth of flow and the slope of the land increases. Turbulence of flow increases as the rainfall becomes more intense and as the surface flow concentrates in depressions. Abrasive capacity of the runoff depends upon the energy of the flowing water and the amount and type of suspended material in the water.

*Soil particles are detached by a combination of rolling, lifting, and abrasive action.* When flowing water moves over a soil surface, horizontal forces act upon the particles in the direction of flow. These forces detach particles from the soil mass by rolling or dragging them out of position. As the surface flow concentrates in depressions, the flow becomes more turbulent, and the different velocities and pressures cause vertical currents and eddies. The upward movement of the water past the soil particles detaches them by a lifting action. Soil detachment by abrasion occurs when particles already in transit in the flow strike or drag over particles on the soil surface and set them in motion.

*Soil particles are transported by a combination of surface creep, saltation, and suspension.* The horizontal forces of water flowing over the surface transport soil particles by rolling or sliding them along in contact with the land surface. This is called surface creep. Movement by saltation occurs when forces due to turbulence lift the particles from the surface and move them along by a continuous series of steps or jumps. When the upward velocities in the flow exceed the settling velocities of the detached particles, transportation by suspension occurs. Particles transported by suspension may travel long distances before settling to the land surface.

The amount of material transported depends upon the transporting capacity of the runoff and the transportability of the soil. The transportability of the soil is influenced by the size, density, and shape of the individual soil particles, and by the retarding effect of vegetation

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and obstructions. Soil that is moved downslope by the action of the raindrops and by shallow flow over the soil surface consists of the smaller and lighter soil particles. The larger and heavier soil particles are more difficult to transport, hence they are not moved as great a distance.

Other variables affecting sheet erosion have been identified from small plot studies at experiment stations across the United States. Vegetation cover is clearly one important aspect and the small plot studies have indicated that for conditions of clean ploughed land planted in row crops the soil losses under sheet erosion average more than 200 times those for areas planted in pasture. Fertility levels in the soil and crop rotation rates can also be important and further information on these and other variables is contained in the ASCE Sedimentation Engineering Manual.

As with all natural phenomena it is difficult to ascertain exact quantitative relationships between the many variables and to apply them to ungauged regions where different soil, topographic, and management conditions prevail. (Information on the interplay between the variables and the prediction of sheet erosion rates is contained in the ASCE Sedimentation Engineering Manual.) ←

### GULLY EROSION

When surface channels have been eroded to the point where they cannot be smoothed over by normal ploughing operations, they are called gullies. Gullies may develop as a result of several factors. Four important factors are discussed briefly below.

*Channels.* Soil is removed by surface water concentrating in and flowing through surface channels in sufficient volume to form a gully. Gully formation by this process is usually relatively slow, particularly where the soil is fairly resistant to erosion.

*Waterfalls.* Water from surface channels is often discharged over an abrupt change in grade. This stream of water falling to a lower elevation has greatly increased eroding power as compared to the same stream on a uniform grade. The channel at the foot of the waterfall is deepened, and the banks are undermined and cave in. Gullies formed by this process may be quite deep; some in the deep loess soils attain depths of over 20 m.

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*Freezing and thawing.* Alternate freezing and thawing of the exposed gully banks result in sloughing of the sides and enlargement of the gully.

*Slides and mass movement of soil.* On gully banks gravitational and seepage forces tend to cause movement of the soil mass from a higher to a lower elevation. These forces induce a shearing stress within the soil mass which slips into the gully if the soil does not have sufficient resistance to these forces. The soil which has been detached and transported by gully erosion is of less value than soil removed by sheet erosion because it contains a higher percentage of subsoil. It costs much more to bring this type of erosion under control, but it is much easier to get action in establishing protective measures. However, the farmer and society pay a severe penalty for allowing erosion to develop to this stage.

Gullies, or upland channels, are common to most regions, and their development is usually associated with severe climatic events, improper land use, or changes in stream base levels. Gully growth patterns can be cyclic, steady, or spasmodic and can result in the formation of continuous or discontinuous channels. Gullies can also form on the perimeter of upland fields and actively advance into these fields. Most of the significant gully activity, in terms of quantities of sediment produced and delivered to downstream locations, is found in regions of moderate to steep topography having thick soil mantles. The total sediment outflow from eroding gullies, though large, is usually less than that produced by sheet erosion, although the economic losses from dissection of upland fields, damage to roads and drainage structures, and deposition of relatively infertile overwash on flood plains are disproportionately large.

Gully advance rates typically have been obtained by periodic surveys, measurements to steel reference stakes or concrete-filled auger holes that are placed in the gully head and bank, or examination of gully changes from existing small-scale map or aerial photographs, or combinations of these. The gully erosion process has been described for several regions of the United States, but the cause-effect interrelationships of gully formation have never been put into proper perspective. Methods are, therefore, not available for any given locality and under any set of existing or assumed conditions, for accurately predicting rates of gully erosion or gully advance. However, studies are producing quantitative

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information and some empirical procedures have been postulated (see ASCE Sedimentation Engineering Manual for further information).

### CHANNEL EROSION

Channel erosion, which includes stream bed and stream bank erosion, can be very significant under some circumstances. Accelerated stream bed erosion, for example, can cause the lowering of ground-water levels, and in water-short areas, this can drastically reduce the yield of crops. It can also trigger downcutting cycles in tributary channels and gullies because of the lowering of the base level. Stream bank erosion, often caused by the clearing of protective cover from banks and from channel straightening and realignment measures, affects the flow through changes in slope and in stream competence.

Quantitative estimates of channel erosion on deposition rates are obtained from time sequence comparisons of surveyed cross sections, from maps and aerial photographs, and from historical records. Predictions of future channel changes are based on erosion or deposition rates as estimated by these methods; when future changes in the flow regime are expected, rough estimates of scour or fill can be obtained from sediment discharge formulae, the application of principles of fluvial morphology, the use of the regime theory, or other methods that consider the forces exerted on the stream boundaries.

### URBAN EROSION SOURCES

The task of evaluating urban erosion sources and controlling the damages resulting therefrom, both on-site and downstream, involves a consideration of similarities and differences between urban and rural erosion phenomena. Procedures and guidelines presently available for measuring, predicting, and controlling agricultural erosion rates are an invaluable starting point for dealing with urban erosion problems.

There are many sources of sediment in urban areas, but home building, highway construction, and other activities involving earthwork in metropolitan areas causes special concern. Even the sediment from "stabilized" sections of a city, from streets and gutters, can be significant when it is delivered to stream channels incapable of transporting it, or to estuaries that must be maintained by dredging.

Erosion considerations in areas undergoing urban development are unique in some respects. The soil loss rates are many times the pre-

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construction rates. Damages are usually more serious to downstream landowners and to the affected municipality than to the developer of a new housing tract. Exposed subsoils often contain larger particles with less cohesive material and thus pose special problems because little is known of their permeability, erodibility, and related properties. The larger particle sizes of eroding subsoils can affect the width-depth relation and other conveyance characteristics of downstream channels at a time when the channels are already rapidly enlarging themselves to accommodate the more frequent and larger peaks and runoff quantities due to the increased imperviousness of the basin.

The transition from relatively stable rural terrain to a steady-state urban environment may take from 2 - 10 years, depending on the size of the drainage area, the intensity of home building, size of subdivisions, and sequence of placement of streets, water and sewage systems and other utilities.

The implications of these comments are important to engineers concerned with urban erosion rates during the transient period of construction. It is difficult to design sediment retention works for urban watersheds with any degree of efficiency since, during the short period of instability, abnormal climatic conditions could cause large differences in soil loss.

#### OTHER SEDIMENT SOURCES AND EROSION TYPES

Sediments also originate from construction activities, logging operations, excavation and dredging for sands and gravels, mining, and flood-plain scour. Regardless of the erosion source, the movement of sediment is maximized by factors that enhance the processes of erosion and overland flow. Factors that affect erosion do not necessarily affect overland flow in the same manner. High erosion rates are a function of soil erodibility, high rainfall energies and intensities, steep and long landslopes, sparse vegetal cover, and poor land treatment. Overland flow rates are related to most of these variables although such runoff-inducing soil properties as high clay content and low permeability are not well correlated with erodibility.

Often a careful choice of variables is possible that will lessen sediment movement. For example, a minimum or no-plough cultural treatment will usually not reduce runoff from agricultural lands (and may increase it because of reduced evaporation and greater moisture retention in the soil surface profile) but will drastically reduce erosion rates and sediment movement.

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Erosion by runoff has been treated in the foregoing sections. Wind is another important eroding agent in many localities, and in geologic time it played a major role in shaping the landscape.

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آن را نیز نابود می سازد و این امر فرسایش را تشدید می کند. اثر تخریبی تگرگ در صورتی که همراه با باران باشد بیشتر است زیرا ضربه دانه های تگرگ خاکدانه ها را خرد کرده، خلل و فرج را مسدود می سازد و آب ناشی از باران ذرات خرد شده را منتقل می کند. به طوری که زاخار اظهار می دارد تگرگ همراه با باران قادر است تمام خاک سطحی را از بین ببرد و سبب حدود ۱۰۰۰ متر مکعب در هکتار فرسایش گردد. در ایران تگرگ معمولاً در اراضی کوهستانی، در اواسط بهار یا اواخر تابستان اتفاق می افتد و سبب وقوع فرسایش و سیل های غیر منتظره می گردد.

### ۳-۱-۲ - نقش برف در فرسایش خاک

اثر فرسایشی باران و تگرگ به علت تخریب خاکدانه ها و پاشمان ناشی از برخورد قطرات با سطح خاک خیس است، در حالی که اثر فرسایشی آب ناشی از ذوب برف به دلیل تخریب خاکدانه ها در اثر یخبندان همچنین نفوذپذیری به علت یخ زدن لایه های زیرین می باشد. در اثر ذوب برف آبدوی ایجاد می شود که می تواند فرسایش ایجاد کند. با وجود اینکه این فرسایش در برخی از مناطق مهمترین نوع فرسایش است ولی قابل مقایسه با فرسایش حاصل از ضربات قطرات باران نمی باشد. این نوع فرسایش در صورتی شدید خواهد بود که مقدار زیادی برف بر روی زمین متراکم شده، به طور ناگهانی ذوب شود.

به طور کلی فرسایش حاصل از برف خیلی کمتر از فرسایش ناشی از باران است زیرا برف مدت زیادی در سطح زمین باقی می ماند و بلافاصله به صورت آبدوی جاری نمی شود [به همین دلیل اخیراً محققان به این فکر افتاده اند که در مناطق کوهستانی باران را به برف تبدیل کنند. انجام این کار علاوه بر جلوگیری از فرسایش خاک از نظر حفاظت آب نیز اهمیت دارد.

### ۴-۱-۲ - نقش یخبندان در فرسایش خاک

یخبندان می تواند به روش های مختلف در فرسایش مؤثر باشد:

افزایش قدرت فرسایشی آبدوی تا زمانی است که آبدوی به حداکثر توان حمل خود برسد. وقتی میزان مواد منتقله بیش از توان حمل آبدوی باشد رسوب گذاری شروع خواهد شد.

### مقایسه قدرت فرسایشی باران و آبدوی حاصل از آن

انرژی جنبشی ناشی از قطرات باران بمراتب بیشتر از انرژی جنبشی آبدوی حاصل از باران است زیرا سرعت قطرات باران ۱۰-۶/۵ متر در ثانیه است، در حالی که سرعت جریان آبدوی معمولاً کمتر از ۱ متر در ثانیه می باشد. البته باید در نظر داشت که این ارقام از نظر مقایسه مقدار دو انرژی است و در مورد مقدار مواد منتقله آنها صدق نمی کند، زیرا بخش بزرگی از این دو انرژی در اثر اصطکاک با سطح زمین از بین می رود. میزان از بین رفتن انرژی در مورد قطرات باران بیشتر از آبدوی است، به این صورت که فقط ۲/۰ درصد انرژی قطرات باران و ۴-۳ درصد انرژی جریان آب در فرسایش مواد دخالت دارند. در واقع می توان گفت که انرژی قطرات باران نسبت به جریان سطحی بالقوه زیادتر است اما قسمت اعظم قطرات باران صرف جداسازی ذرات خاک می گردد.

### ۲-۱-۲ - نقش تگرگ در فرسایش خاک

فرسایش حاصل از تگرگ به دلیل جرم زیاد و درشتی دانه ها و در نتیجه بالا بودن سرعت سقوط قطرات بمراتب بیشتر از فرسایش ناشی از بارانهای شدید است، زیرا سرعت سقوط دانه های تگرگ خیلی بیشتر از سرعت سقوط قطرات باران است. سرعت سقوط دانه های تگرگ در جدول زیر نشان داده شده است.

قطر تگرگ به میلیمتر	سرعت سقوط به متر در ثانیه
۱۵	۱۲
۲۰	۱۶
۷۶	۵۲



## 2. Properties of Sediment

مقدمه:

Sediment Transport depends on both:

- 1) Characteristics of Flow  
and, 2) Sediment.

Properties of Sediment are of:

a) Individual Particles (grains): ذرات منفرد  
(Such as: Size; Shape; Density ( $\rho_s$ );  
Fall velocity ( $w_s$ ); Drag Coeff. ( $C_D$ ))

b) The Sediment as a whole (Bulk): مجموعه رسوب  
(Such as: bulk specific weight; Porosity;  
Angle of Repose; Size distribution; and  
In fine sediments, flocculation).

در تشکیل خاکدانه - در اثر جذب سطحی ذرات ریزانه و چسبندگی

## ① Size of Sediment Particles:

① مهمترین خصوصیت فیزیکی: (اندازه ذرات)

1- روش ASTM (Amer. System for Testing material)  
بیشتر در مکانیک خاک

2- روش AGU (Amer. Geophysical Union)

Table (2.1) ← Sediment Transport  
in Ref. (1) (همچنین جدول ضمیمه گری (HR walking))

استانداردهای مختلف طبقه بندی

از روش گری دیگر می توان Unified و  
Taylor, British system, (۱۹۳۶) و  
تقسیم بندی تصویر:

Very large Boulders → Cobbles → Gravel → Sand → Silt → clay →  
تخته سنگ      قلوه سنگ      شن      ماسه      لای      رس

Very fine clay → Colloidal (Always Flocculated)  
رس ریز      مواد کلوئیدی (کای)

یعنی اندازه مهم آن مثل اندازه ماسه

{ Sizes  $\gg$  Sand  $\Rightarrow$  non-cohesive material  $\Rightarrow$  by Sieving Method.  
[ Sizes  $<$  Sand  $\Rightarrow$  Cohesive  $\Rightarrow$  by Hydrometry ]

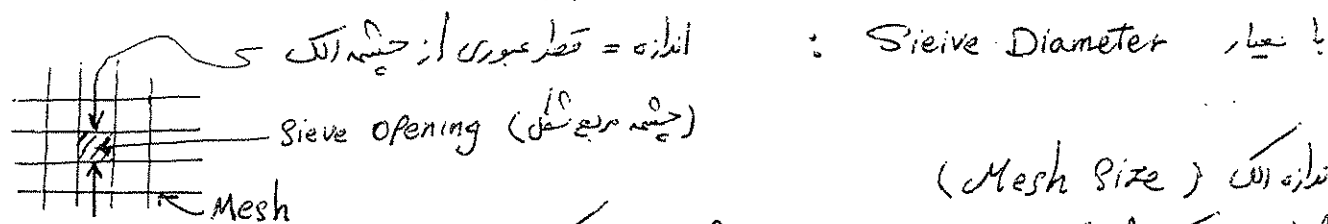
( $D \gg 0.0625 \text{ mm}$ ) - هستند (Non-cohesive) غیر چسبندگی

↳

حواله اندازه گیری با الک استاندارد (AGU) (۰.۰۶۲۵ - ۲.۰) mm

## روش‌ها و معیارهای اندازه‌گیری

(۱) روش الک برای ذرات Sand و بزرگتر ( $D \geq 0.0625 \text{ mm}$ ) و کوچکتر از شن متوسط

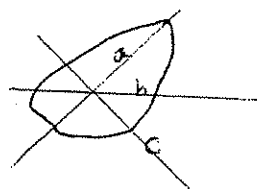


اندازه الک (Mesh Size)

شماره الک شماره ۴ (No. 4)  $c =$  چشمه مربعی در یک اینچ طولی

(۲) برای ذرات بزرگتر از الک‌های استاندارد :

اندازه متوسط ذره برابر با اندازه‌گیری شده بعد عمود برهم (بزرگ، کوچک، بیانی) محاسبه می‌شود.



$$D = \frac{a+b+c}{3}$$

(اندازه متوسط معادل)

اندازه‌گیری با متر  
و یا استفاده از الک‌های بزرگتر

(۲) روش هیدرومتر برای ذرات Silt و کوچکتر - برابر با سرعت سقوط ذرات.

با معیار Sedimentation Diameter (قطر رسوب) = قطر معادل کروی که  $S_g$  و  $w_s$  برابر

$$w_s = F(S_g, D)$$

با ذره مورد نظر دارد.

$w_s$  = سرعت سقوط (Fall velocity)

(در بیان اندازه باید سیستم اندازه‌گیری ذکر شود که مهم است)

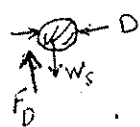
$S_g = \frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma_w}$  = دانسیته نسبی (Specific Gravity)

## ② Shape

شکل ذره

مقایسه با کروی شکل بودن با حجم معادل است

و مقطع گوشه دار بودن یا نبودن نسبت به یکدیگر ضرایب عمودی ذره است.



اهمیت شکل در : ۱. سرعت سقوط ذره  $w_s$

۲. نیروی کشش (Drag Force) و تعیین (Co) Drag Coeff.

$$\text{Shape Factor : } S.F. = \frac{C}{\sqrt{a \cdot b}}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} S.F. = 1 : \text{بر ذره کروی} \\ S.F. \approx 0.7 : \text{بر ذرات صلب Quartz} \\ S.F. \text{ حدود } 0.7 \text{ (ست } 0.2, 0.3, 0.9 \text{ نمی‌شود) (ماده روشن...)} \end{array} \right. \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a = \text{بزرگترین بُعد ذره} \\ b = \text{متوسط بُعد} \\ c = \text{کوچکترین بُعد} \end{array} \right.$$

## ③ فصل شدگی ذرات به هم (Keying)

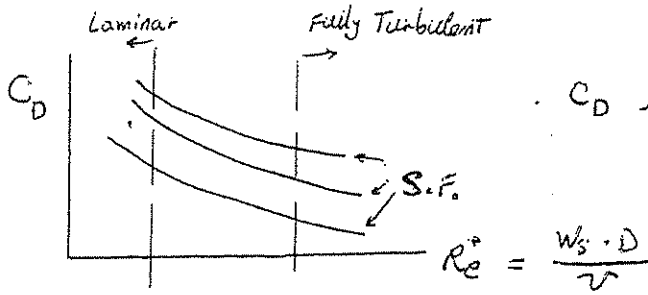


Fig. (2.1) ملاحظه شود:  $C_D$  در برابر  $S.F.$   $\rightarrow$   $\frac{1}{Re}$  متنوع شماره (۱).

$D$ : اندازه ذره  
 $W_s$ : سرعت سقوط

### ③ Specific Gravity ( $S_g$ )

③ دانسیته ویژه

Bulk Density  $\rho$   $\rightarrow$   $\frac{\text{وزن خشک}}{\text{حجم}}$   
Specific weight:  $\gamma_s = \frac{W_{dry}}{V} = \frac{\rho_s g}{\rho_w}$   
Specific Gravity:  $S_g = \frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma_w} = \frac{\rho_s}{\rho_w}$

$$S_g = \frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma_w} = \frac{\rho_s}{\rho_w}$$

$\rho$  = دانسیته (Density)  
 $\gamma = \rho g$

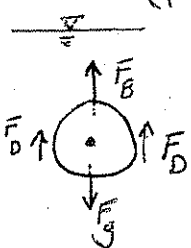
برای سولفید آهن با منساز Quartz:  $S_g = 2.65$   
و معمولاً:  $S_g = (2.5 - 2.7)$

### ④ Fall Velocity / Settling Velocity / Terminal Velocity: $W_s, \underline{W_s}, V_s$

$W_s = f(\text{size, shape, Density, Fluid viscosity, Extent of fluid})$   
(D) (S.F.) ( $\rho_s$  یا  $S_g$ ) ( $\nu$ ) (عمق)

No. of Particles falling, Turbulence Intensity  
تعداد ذرات - تلاطم جریان

(به صورت ذرات و تغییر در سرعت و موقعیت)



تحلیل:  
یک ذره کروی با قطر  $D$  در سیال ساکن و عمیق:  
 $F_g = \gamma_s V_s = \gamma_s \frac{\pi}{6} D^3$  (وزن)  $\rightarrow$  Submerged weight =  $F_g - F_B$   
 $F_B = \gamma_p V_s = \gamma_p \frac{\pi}{6} D^3$  (Bouyant force)  $\rightarrow$  وزن شناور

سرعت:  $W_s$

$$F_D = C_D A \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho W_s^2 \right) \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{Drag Force} \\ \text{Resisting Force} \end{cases}$$

$$A = \pi D^2 / 4$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \rho W_s^2$$

$$F_D = C_D \frac{\pi}{8} \rho D^2 W_s^2$$

At Terminal velocity: ( $W_s = \text{const.}$ )

$$\sum F = 0 \Rightarrow (F_g - F_B) - F_D = 0$$

$$\text{Also, } \gamma = \rho g, S_g = \frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma_w} = \frac{\rho_s}{\rho_w} \quad (۲۴)$$

✓

$$\Rightarrow C_D \frac{\pi}{8} \rho_f D^2 \omega_s^2 = \frac{\pi D^3}{6} g (\rho_s - \rho_f)$$

برای سکن و محقق و زره کروی شکل : (1)  $\omega_s = \left[ \frac{4}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{C_D} \cdot g D (\rho_s - \rho_f) \right]^{1/2}$

شماره قطر ذره  $\downarrow$   $\uparrow$  سرعت ثابت سقوط

مسئله تعیین  $C_D$  ؟

نتیجه تجربی برای سکن و محقق و زره کروی :  $C_D = F(R_e^+)$  ,  $R_e^+ = \frac{\omega_s D}{\nu}$

\* For Laminar Flow ( $R_e^+ < 1$ )  $\Rightarrow C_D = \frac{24}{R_e^+}$  (Stokes' Eq.)

$\therefore \omega_s = \frac{g(\rho_s - \rho_f)}{18 \nu} D^2$  : (2)

where,  $D \leq 0.1 \text{ mm}$

\* For Fully Turbulent Flow ( $R_e^+ > 4000$ )  $\Rightarrow C_D = 1/2$

$\omega_s = \left[ \frac{8}{3} g (\rho_s - \rho_f) D \right]^{1/2}$  : (3)

گراف های تجربی تعیین  $C_D$  در کپی صفحه : و نیز Fig. (2.1) از منبع شماره (1).

\* رابطه ی تجربی Rubey (1933) - برای فزاد محلی رابطه شماره (1) :

$\omega_s = F * [g(\rho_s - \rho_f) D]^{1/2}$  : (4)

For  $D > 1 \text{ mm}$  , quartz , in water of  $10 \leq T_c \leq 25$   
 $\therefore F = 0.79$  ( $\rho_s = 2.65$ ) ( $\nu$  در  $^\circ \text{C}$ )

For  $D < 1 \text{ mm} \Rightarrow F = \left[ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{36 \nu^2}{g D^3 (\rho_s - \rho_f)} \right]^{1/2} - \left[ \frac{36 \nu^2}{g D^3 (\rho_s - \rho_f)} \right]^{1/2}$

توسعه هندسی

\* گراف تجربی محاسبه  $\omega_s$  بصورت تابعی از دما ( $T_c$ ) ، سطح ذره (S.F.) و اندازه ذره (D)

برای ذرات quartz در آب سکن و صاف (مستقر)  $\Rightarrow$  Fig. (2-2) از منبع (1).

\* روابط تجربی دیگر ، کپی صفحه .

نکات مهم : (1) در جریان سیال ،  $\omega_s$  کمتر از سیال سکن است . چرا ؟  $\omega_s \downarrow \Rightarrow Re = \frac{v R}{\nu} \uparrow$

(2) تأثیر خلط مواد رسوبی مخلوط در آب این  $\omega_s$  .

$\omega_s \downarrow \Rightarrow$  نیروی شناوری  $\uparrow F_B \Rightarrow$  (لا،  $\nu$ ) مخلوط آب در آب  $\Rightarrow$  حضور رسوبات مخلوط

همین دلیل ، ته نشین مواد مخلوط در جریان کمتر  $\Rightarrow$  ظرفیت حمل رسوب توسط جریان بیشتر .

\* مطالعه و بررسی کنید .  
 - تأثیر دما بر سرعت رسوب رسوبات  
 - تأثیر نسبت رسوبات در مخلوط رسوبات بر سرعت رسوب رسوبات

## در جریان آب :

سرعت سقوط ذرات رسوب تابعی است از :

- ۱- نیروی وزن ذره ، شکل ذره ، لزجت سیال .  
(این عوامل در سقوط ذره در آب ساکن مؤثر هستند)

۲- تلاطم جریان و حد تلاطم جریان (Turbulence level).

{ فواید زمانی سرعت در حد نقطه }  
{ عدم تغییر در رفتار سرعت }  
از خواص جریان تلاطم است

عوامل تلاطم بصورت مؤلفه تانگن سرعت (تغیرت بالا) می

- ۳- وجود رسوب در آب (بخصوص موئمت ذرات بزرگ)

نظریه تجربی :

$$(W_s)_{adj} = W_s - W'_s$$

سرعت معادل      سرعت سقوط  
در تلاطم      در آب ساکن

نظریه تجربی :

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{AVCI (1991) : } W'_s = \alpha_o V \\ V = \text{سرعت متوسط (m/s)} \\ \alpha_o = \frac{0.132}{\sqrt{\gamma}} \quad (\text{بدان ضریب تصحیح رسوب نگیرد}) \\ \gamma = \text{مخوق آب (m)} \\ \text{Sootdi ( ) : } W'_s = 0.132 D_s^{1.2} \quad (\text{در طرح ضریب تصحیح رسوب نگیرد}) \\ D_s = \text{شماره اندازه سار بر (mm)} \\ \text{(سرعت جریان آب در حوضچه ناچیزند فن نشده)}$$

## ⑤ Porosity (P) : تخلخل مواد رسوبی :

نکته: از خصوصیات توده رسوبی (Bulk) است. در برآورد حجم رسوب ته نشین یا تبدیل دی حجم رسوب به دبی وزنی رسوب مهم است.

$$P = \frac{V_v}{V_t} = \frac{V_t - V_s}{V_t}$$

$V_t$  = حجم کل رسوب  
 $V_v$  = حجم فضای خالی (Void)  
 $V_s$  = حجم جامد رسوب

$$V_t = \frac{V_s}{1-P}$$

## ⑥ Angle of Repose ( $\phi$ ) زاویه ایستایی یا زاویه اصطکاک داخلی یا زاویه قرار (برای ذرات غیر چسبیده : $C=0$ )

(Internal Friction Angle)

$\phi$  = زاویه سبب که مواد رسوبی ریخته شده در آب بخود میگیرند (زاویه پایدار جلیبی مواد رسوبی)

$$\phi = F(\text{Size}, \text{Shape}, \text{Angularity})$$

Yang (1996) :  $\phi$  = زاویه سبب مواد در آستانه لغزش سطح

$\phi \uparrow$  با بزرگتر شدن ذرات و گردتر شدن ذرات



نتایج تجربی تعیین  $\phi$  توسط (Lane, 1953) و (Simons, 1955) در گلی ضعیف است.  
 + جدول گلی ضعیف (Ref. HR Wallingford, 1998)

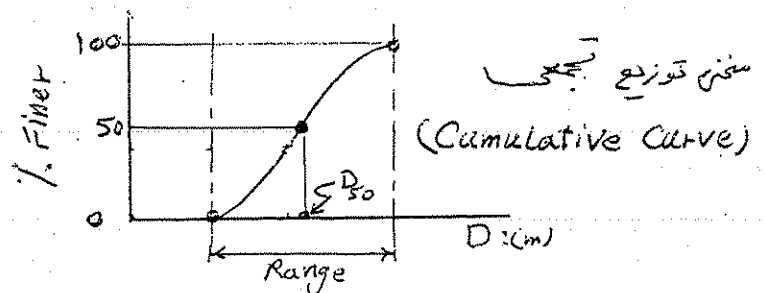
## ⑦ Particle Size Distribution (Grading) توزیع دانه بندی رسوب

بدلیل تنوع گوناگون اندازه ذرات رسوب ← تحلیل آماری روی توزیع اندازه ها.  
 از طریق گروه بندی (Classification) ← منحنی توزیع مواد رسوبی.

با فرض :  $W_p$  برای ذرات رسوبی بزرگتر از  $D_p$  (حجم - وزن) ذرات رسوبی  
 روش تحلیل :

الف) برای مواد رسوبی شن و ریزتر ← روش یک استاندارد و تحلیل آماری (روش وزنی)

D : (mm) اندازه	W% Percentage Finer by weight
$D_{max}$	100
...	...
...	...



اندازه یک تعیین کننده در خصوص وزنی اندازه ی کوچکتر از (۲۷)



ب) برای مواد بستر درشت دانه سطحی بستر رودخانه ها ← ارزش نمونه برداری سطحی و تحلیلی Grid-By-Number در رودخانه های با مواد بستر درشت دانه (Coarse-bed rivers)، ارزش نمونه برداری حجمی و توصیفی و تحلیلی به روش وزنی امکان پذیر نیست. زیرا تغییرات مکانی اندازه مواد زیاد و اندازه مواد نیز بزرگتر از آنک های استاندارد و با سطحی های غیرکروی است.

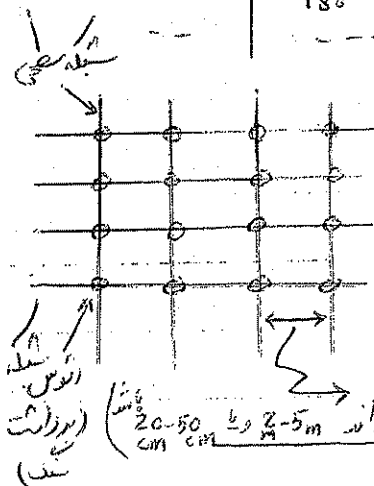
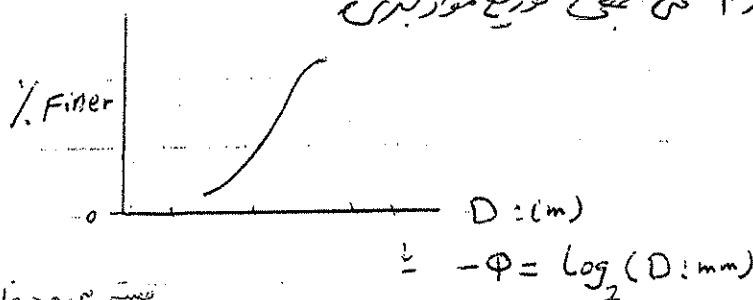
لایه سطحی بستر درشت دانه در حالت سنگ فرس → Surface layer  
 لایه زیرسطحی: ریزتو غیریکنواخت تر → Sub-surface layer

روش:  
 - نمونه برداری از مواد سطحی بصورت تصادفی و در قالب شبکه بندی گسترده در سطح بستر رودخانه  
 - اندازه گیری قطر متوسط (معدنی) ذرات از روش شبکه سطحی  
 - محاسب درصد ذرات براساس شمارش تعداد ذرات در مجموعه نمونه برداری شده

$$D = \frac{a+b+c}{3}$$

شماره گزیده	محدوده اندازه (mm)	تعداد ذرات در هر گزیده	درصد ذرات در هر گزیده	% Finer درصد کوچکتر از حد بالایی گزیده	D (mm) اندازه میانگین
1	400-500	4	$(4/N) \times 100$	100%	500
2	350-400	1			
3	180-200	1			
		$N = \text{تعداد گزیده ها}$			

رسم منحنی تجربی توزیع مواد بستر



ساختارهای مهم در ارزیابی توزیع اندازه مواد رسوبی:

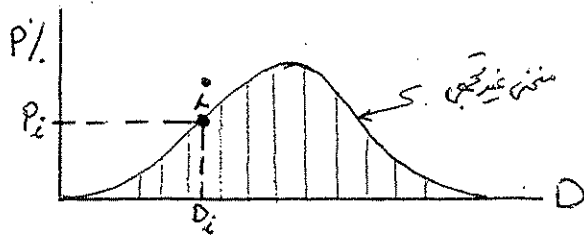
- 1- محدوده اندازه ذرات (Range) - محول:  $(D_5 \rightarrow D_{95})$  یا  $(D_{10} \rightarrow D_{90})$
- 2- اندازه میانه ذرات  $(D_{50})$ :  
 Median size:  $D_{50} = \text{The size for which 50\% of material is Finer.}$
- 3- اندازه متوسط هندسی  $(D_g)$ :

Geometric Mean size:  $D_g = \sqrt{D_{16} \cdot D_{84}}$  با فرض توزیع نرمال اندازه ها

$(D_{16} = D_{50} - 0.84 \sigma \text{ و } D_{84} = D_{50} + 0.84 \sigma)$   $\sigma = \text{Standard Deviation}$

۴- اندازه متوسط ( $D_m$ ):

$$\text{Mean Size : } D_m \approx \frac{\sum P_i \cdot D_i}{100}$$



$D_i$  = متوسط اندازه هر گروه ذرات  
 $P_i$  = درصد وزنی مربوط به هر گروه

Range	$D_i$	$P_i$
1-3	2	20
3-5	4	30
5-9	7	20
...	!	!
		100+

۵- اندازه حداکثر ذرات (Peak)

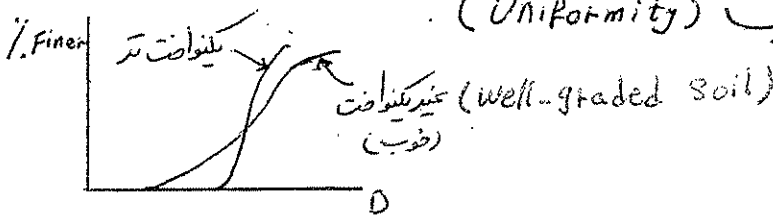
$$\text{Max. Size : } D_{\max} \approx D_{95} \pm D_{90}$$

کا، ربرد: ضخامت D به سطحی برسر

۶- اندازه‌های شاخص (Representative Sizes)

EX.  $D_{50}$ ,  $D_{35}$ ,  $D_{65}$ ,  $D_{84}$ ,  $D_{90}$ ,  $D_{10}$ , ... (% Finer by weight).

۷- ارزیابی یکپارچگی توزیع مواد رسوب (Uniformity)



معیارهای ارزیابی:

۱-۷ ضریب یکپارچگی ( $C_u$ ):

$$\text{Uniformity Coeff. : } C_u = \frac{D_{60}}{D_{10}}$$

$C_u < 4$  : Uniform size  
 $C_u > 4$  : Non-Uniform  
 توزیع اندازه‌های مختلف

well-graded

۲-۷ انحراف معیار هندسی ( $\sigma_g$ ):

$$\text{Geometric Standard Deviation : } \sigma_g = \sqrt{D_{84}/D_{16}}$$

فرض: توزیع نرمال  
 (مواد طبیعی رسوبی)

$\sigma_g < 1.5$  : Uniform  
 $\sigma_g > 2.0$  : Non-Uniform (well graded)

۳-۷ ضریب رانده بندی ( $G$ ):

$$\text{Gradation Coeff. : } G = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{D_{84}}{D_{50}} + \frac{D_{50}}{D_{16}} \right)$$

شاخص تمیز یکپارچگی ارائه شده

$$\text{Sorting Coeff. : } S = \sqrt{D_{75}/D_{25}}$$

(ضریب رانده بندی)

\* برآیند نهی دو نوع

رانده بندی می‌توان استفاده و ارزیابی نمود. (S یا G) بیشتر رانده بندی بهتر

سری مسائل شماره دو : خصوصیات فیزیکی مواد رسوبی

① The cumulative size distribution of bed material in The Yellow river (in China) is :

Particle Diameter (mm)	$\leq 0.005$	0.01	0.025	0.05	0.10	0.25
% Finer	5.1	7.0	12.8	26.4	78.6	100

- Plot the size-Frequency distribution Curve.
- Determine  $D_{50}$ ,  $D_{75}$ ,  $D_{90}$ ,  $D_{10}$ ,  $D_{35}$
- Calculate mean diameter ( $D_m$ ); geometric mean size ( $D_g$ ); Geometric standard deviation ( $\sigma_g$ ); gradation Coeff. ( $G$ ); and Uniformity Coeff. ( $C_u$ ).
- Discuss on the degree of uniformity and gradation of the bed material.

②

- Determine the fall velocities of sediment particles using Rubey's Formula with diameters of 0.4, 1.2, and 2.5 mm, respectively. The water temperature is  $20^\circ\text{C}$  and the specific gravity of the sediment is 2.65.
- Compare the results with those in Fig. (2.2) of your lecture printed material, with a shape factor of 0.7 (an average for QUARTZ-based sand material).
- Calculate the fall velocity of particles with median diameter of  $D_{50} = 1.2$  mm Using different Formula in your lecture note, and Compare the results in the form of a Table.

(۲۰)

۳) مواد بستر در بازه آب شیرین از رورخانه شور از نوع "ماسه کوارتز" با اندازه متوسط  $D_{50} = 1.0 \text{ mm}$  است. ضریب شکل برای این ذرات  $S.F. = 0.7$  در نظر گرفته شده است. سرعت حد سقوط برای ذرات متوسط معادل  $W_s = 0.2 \text{ m/s}$  محاسبه و برآورد شده است. تعیین کنید ضریب کشش یا برش ( $C_D$ : Drag Coeff.) را برای اندازه متوسط ذرات. راضیاتی :- از (2-1)  $F_{10}$  مطالب کمی درسی و هر نوع رابطه ارائه شده دیگر میتواند استفاده کنید. دمای آب  $20^\circ\text{C}$  ( $\nu = 1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ )

۴) در مقطعی از رورخانه نازلو، برای تحلیس دانه بندی مواد لایه سطحی بستر، یک شبکه سطحی به اندازه  $(30^m \times 30^m)$  با چشمه های  $(3^m \times 3^m)$  ایجاد گردید. در جدول زیر، اندازه سه محوری ذرات جمع آوری شده از رئوس شبکه بندی اندازه گیری و ارائه شده است. معنی دانه بندی را رسم نموده و روی توزیع ذرات در لایه سطحی بستر بحث نمایید.

اندازه سه محوری (mm)		
کوتیک	میان	طولی
60	65	95
10	10	15
55	73	110
20	32	40
10	80	90
33	55	90
40	98	170
40	130	140
25	45	58
60	33	68
25	43	90
25	45	65
10	15	25
32	70	120
20	40	50
18	70	140
15	68	60
75	53	95
30	45	60
160	120	320
75	195	210
100	40	70
30	38	70
48	100	185
25	35	55
35	100	140
35	60	75
55	130	170
60	120	150
68	75	85
25	30	40
10	10	30
20	35	45

اندازه سه محوری (mm)		
کوتیک	میان	طولی
15	75	120
10	15	30
23	55	65
30	70	75
135	105	200
35	65	90
20	60	90
22	25	40
20	55	65
15	50	70
40	40	75
40	110	150
45	70	100
65	120	150
95	95	200
30	80	120
32	25	55
25	55	70
23	45	65
15	20	40
20	65	85
18	30	25
50	70	95
70	140	180
65	110	130
55	85	100
40	65	90
90	160	270
28	40	60
20	55	60
37	90	120
28	65	95
35	60	80

اندازه سه محوری (mm)		
کوتیک	میان	طولی
30	75	110
17	25	30
50	120	160
48	80	110
10	90	110
15	90	180
33	25	60
30	40	65
25	45	55
18	35	45
38	58	75
15	50	80
17	40	50
25	50	60
50	140	210
60	100	120
40	55	100
20	43	70
30	110	140
17	60	80
48	50	75
28	45	55

### ۴-۳-۴- اطلاعات رسوب

اطلاعات رسوب تنها برای اجرای مدل BRI-STARS بکار می رود زیرا همانطور که گفته شد مدل HEC-RAS در حال حاضر قابلیت انجام محاسبات انتقال رسوب را ندارد. اما جهت اجرای مدل BRI-STARS در حالت بستر متحرک، علاوه بر اطلاعات هندسی، هیدرولیکی و هیدرولوژیکی به اطلاعات رسوب نظیر دانه بندی مواد بستر لایه فعال (زیر سطحی)، دبی رسوب ورودی از بالادست بازه و درجه حرارت آب در زمان سیلاب های مورد شبیه سازی، ضروری می باشد.

### ۴-۳-۴-۱- دانه بندی مواد بستر

بستر رودخانه شامل دو لایه اصلی به نامهای سطحی و زیر سطحی می باشد. لایه سطحی بستر، درشت دانه و به حالت سنگ فروش می باشد اما لایه زیر سطحی، ریزدانه تر و یکنواخت تر است. معمولاً در طرحهای مهندسی رودخانه اطلاعات دانه بندی هر دو لایه لازم می باشد. لذا در این تحقیق نیز هم دانه بندی مواد لایه سطحی و هم زیرسطحی تجزیه و تحلیل شده است. <sup>①</sup> از دانه بندی لایه سطحی، اندازه متوسط ذرات  $D_{50}$  یا  $D_{90}$  (اندازه ذره ای که نود درصد ذرات از آن کوچکترند) استخراج و در محاسبه ضریب زبری مانینگ از معادلات تجربی نظیر معادله استریکلر و میر-پتر و مولر مورد استفاده قرار گرفت. و از دانه بندی لایه زیرسطحی نیز جهت استخراج درصد مواد موجود در هر کلاس اندازه ذرات برای معرفی به مدل BRI-STARS استفاده شده است.

①  
۳۳

برای مواد بستری درشت دانه لایه سطحی بستر رودخانه ها، روش نمونه برداری سطحی یا روش Grid-by-number و تحلیل دانه بندی به روش شمارش ذرات و ترسیم منحنی مربوطه بکار گرفته می شود زیرا روش نمونه برداری حجمی و موضعی و تحلیل به روش وزنی امکان پذیر نیست، زیرا تغییرات مکانی اندازه مواد زیاد و اندازه مواد نیز بزرگتر از الکهای استاندارد و با شکل های غیر کروی است (یاسی، ۱۳۸۱).

بنابراین در این تحقیق برای دانه بندی مواد لایه سطحی از روش Grid-by-number استفاده شد. در این روش نمونه برداری از مواد لایه سطحی بصورت تصادفی و در قالب شبکه بندی گسترده در سطح رودخانه یا بصورت قدم زدن در سطح بستر رودخانه و برداشت سنگهای بستر بطور کاملاً تصادفی انجام می گیرد و سپس اندازه گیری سه بعد طول و عرض و ارتفاع سنگ و نیز قطر متوسط آن از رابطه  $(D = \frac{a+b+c}{3})$  انجام می گیرد. پس از آن درصد ذرات بر اساس شمارش تعداد ذرات در هر گروه ذرات در مجموعه نمونه برداری شده محاسبه می شود و از روی آن درصد کوچکتر از حد بالایی هر گروه بدست می آید که در نهایت با توجه به درصد کوچکتر از حد بالایی هر گروه و اندازه حد بالایی، منحنی دانه بندی رسم می شود. بررسی ها نشان می دهد که بهترین نمودار در این روش اینست که محور X که اندازه ذرات می باشد بر اساس لگاریتم در مبنای دو قطر ذرات  $\log_2(D: \text{mm})$  باشد. منحنی های دانه بندی مواد لایه سطحی در شکل های (۴-۱۲) و (۴-۱۳) نشان داده شده اند.

۲

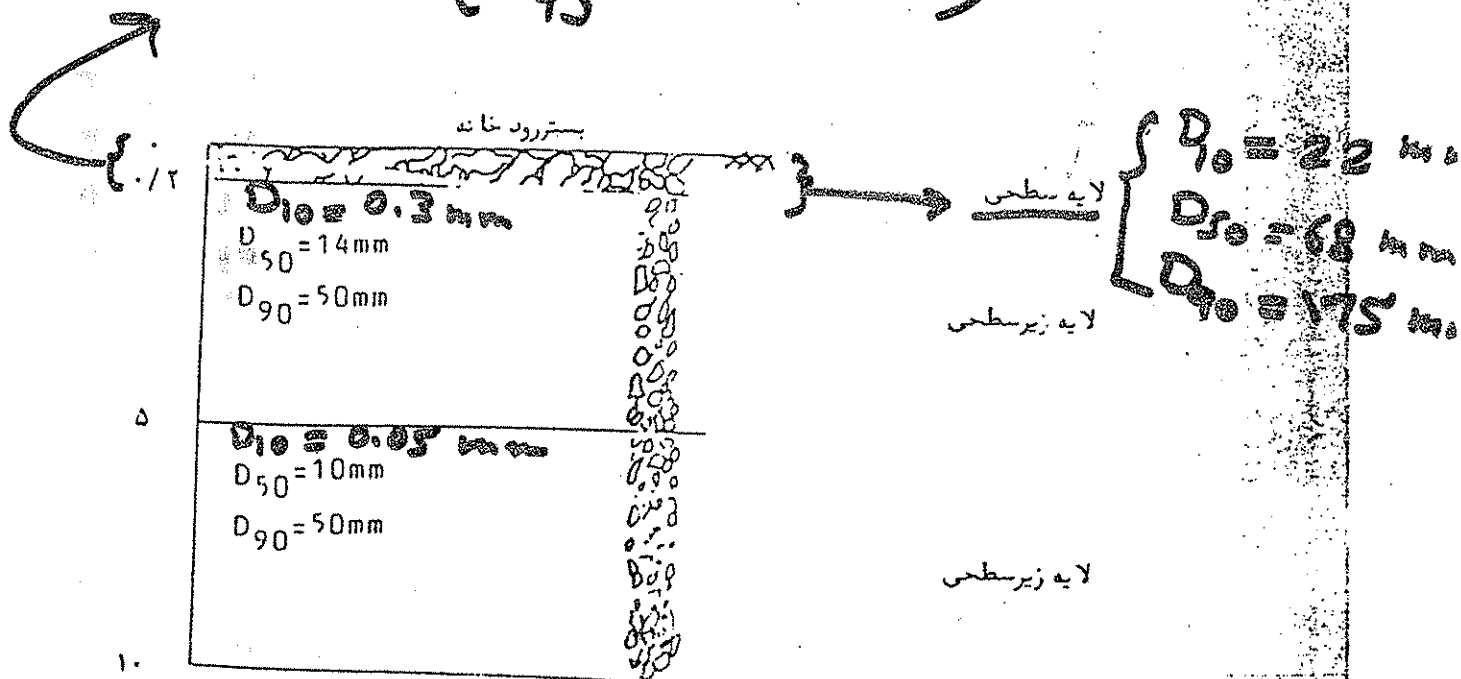
۳۳

روش نمونه برداری مواد لایه زیر سطحی با توجه به ضابطه مربوط به مدل BRI-STARS انجام گرفت، بدین ترتیب که در دیبهای مورد شبیه سازی در بالادست و پایین دست هر یک از بازه ها گودالهایی به عمق حدود ۳۰ درصد عمق هیدرولیکی مربوط به دبی ماکزیمم مورد شبیه سازی، در بستر رودخانه حفر شده و نمونه برداری از آنها انجام گرفت (شکل ۴-۱۴). با توجه به اینکه مواد لایه زیرسطحی ریزتر و یکنواخت تر از لایه سطحی می باشد و ذرات درشت تر از ۲ اینچ نیز در بین ذرات وجود داشت، لذا برای دانه بندی این مواد از هر دو روش الک و شمارش ذرات استفاده شده بدین ترتیب که مواد ریزتر از ۲ اینچ در هر یک از نمونه ها توسط آزمایشگاه مکانیک خاک راه و ترابری استان کردستان به روش الکهای استاندارد دانه بندی شده و اعداد و ارقام به همراه منحنیهای مربوط به هر یک از نمونه ها توسط آزمایشگاه مذکور تهیه گردیدند. از طرف دیگر مواد درشتتر از ۲ اینچ ابتدا در گروههایی دسته بندی شده و سپس با شمارش تعداد سنگهای هر گروه، حجم کل سنگهای هر گروه محاسبه شده و با ضرب آن در عدد ۲/۶۵ که ثقل مخصوص کوارتز می باشد وزن کل سنگهای هر گروه بدست آمد و وزن مانده یا بزرگتر در گروههای مختلف محاسبه شد. از طرف دیگر اعداد بدست آمده از دانه بندی ذرات کوچکتر از ۲ اینچ توسط آزمایشگاه در جدول قرار داده شدند. درصدهای مانده یا بزرگتر و بالاخره درصد رد شده یا کوچکتر مربوط به هر اندازه از ذرات محاسبه شدند. بدین ترتیب تلفیق بین روش الک با روش شمارش برای تمام نمونه مواد لایه زیر سطحی انجام گرفت. در شکل های (۴-۱۵) و (۴-۱۶)، منحنیهای دانه بندی هر یک از نمونه ها و متوسط آنها در هر دو بازه نشان داده شده است. همانطور که در شکل های (۴-۱۳) و (۴-۱۴) ملاحظه می شود، منحنیهای دانه بندی نمونه های مربوط به بالادست و پایین دست و متوسط هریک از بازه ها روی یک نمودار رسم شده اند که در نهایت برای استخراج اطلاعات ورودی به مدل BRI-STARS از منحنی متوسط استفاده شد.

۳۳

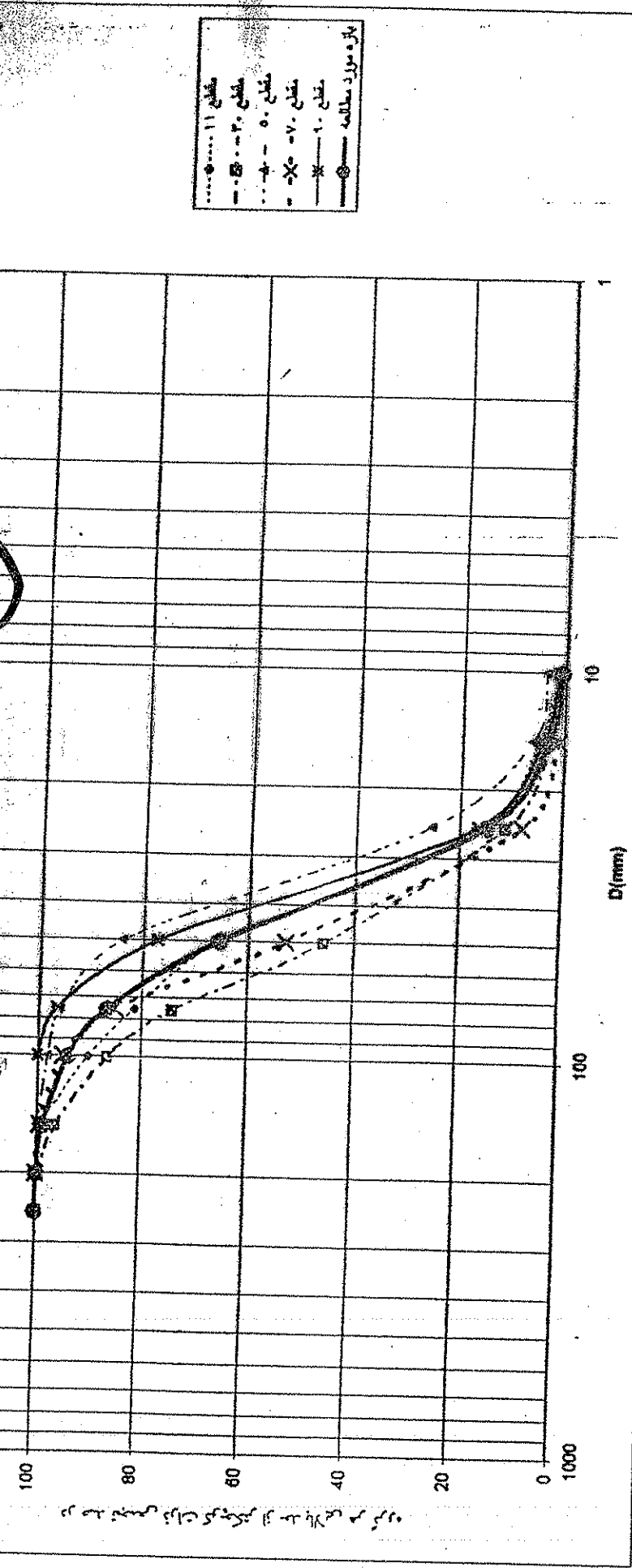
در فایل اطلاعات ورودی مدل BRI-STARS، حداکثر تا ۱۰ کلاس اندازه ذرات و درصد مواد موجود در هر کلاس باید تعریف شود. در این تحقیق با توجه به غیر یکنواخت بودن نسبی ذرات مواد لایه زیر سطحی بستر در هر دو رودخانه و تنوع اندازه ها، ۱۰ کلاس اندازه ذرات مشخص و درصد ذرات موجود در هر کلاس تعیین شد که در جداول (۴-۷) و (۴-۸) برای هر دو رودخانه ارائه شده است.

په ضخامت لایه سطحی ( $D_{95} = 200 \text{ mm}$ )



شکل (۲-۱) : نمایش ترکیب عمومی پروفیل قائم بستر رودخانه فیلان

در مورد لایه‌ها، سلبه بر سلبه تا به حد کافی ببار  
 آید - تغییرات ظاهر در سلبه‌ها  
 به هر ۲۰ سانتیمتر یک تغییر در سلبه  
 در سلبه‌ها به اندازه ۱۰ سانتیمتر  
 در سلبه‌ها به اندازه ۱۰ سانتیمتر



شکل (۴-۱) : مقایسه منحنی دانه بندی سطحی مقاطع نمونه برداری شده با متوسط کل آنها در پاره مورد مطالعه



Ref. (1)

AGU

صنایع نفت

proposed by the subcommittee on Sediment Terminology of the American Geophysical Union is presented in Table 2.1. It has proven advantageous in sediment work because the sizes are arranged in a geometric series with a ratio of two, and because the sizes correspond closely to the mesh opening in sieves in common use as shown in the table.

coarse  
درشت دانه

(اندازه از ماسه ریز تا شن متوسط هست)

Class name (1)	Size Range				Approximate Sieve Mesh Openings per inch	
	Millimeters		Microns (4)	Inches (5)	Tyler (6)	United Stat standard (7)
	(2)	(3)				
Very large boulders		4,096-2,048		160-80		
Large boulders		2,048-1,024		80-40		
Medium boulders		1,024-512		40-20		
Small boulders		512-256		20-10		
Large cobbles		256-128		10-5		
Small cobbles		128-64		5-2.5		
Very coarse gravel		64-32		2.5-1.3		
Coarse gravel		32-16		1.3-0.6		
Medium gravel		16-8		0.6-0.3	2-1/2	
Fine gravel		8-4		0.3-0.16	5	5
Very fine gravel		4-2		0.16-0.08	9	10
Very coarse sand	2-1	2,000-1,000	2,000-1,000	finest sieve size	16	18
Coarse sand	1-1/2	1,000-500	1,000-500		32	35
Medium sand	1/2-1/4	500-250	500-250		60	60
Fine sand	1/4-1/8	250-125	250-125		115	120
Very fine sand	1/8-1/16	125-62	125-62		250	230
Coarse silt	1/16-1/32	0.062-0.031	62-31			
Medium silt	1/32-1/64	0.031-0.016	31-16			
Fine silt	1/64-1/128	0.016-0.008	16-8			
Very fine silt	1/128-1/256	0.008-0.004	8-4			
Coarse clay	1/256-1/512	0.004-0.0020	4-2			
Medium clay	1/512-1/1,024	0.0020-0.0010	2-1			
Fine clay	1/1,024-1/2,048	0.0010-0.0005	1-0.5			
Very fine clay	1/2,048-1/4,096	0.0005-0.00024	0.5-0.24			

TABLE 2.1. Sediment Grade Scale. (AGU SYSTEM)

Note that the smallest sieve has a mesh size of 1/16 of a millimeter, which, by definition, is the size dividing the sands and silts. This also corresponds roughly to the finest sediment found in appreciable quantities in the beds of most streams.

Natural sediment particles are of irregular shape and, therefore, any single length or diameter that is to characterize the size of a group of grains must be chosen either arbitrarily or according to some convenient method of measurement. Three such diameters recommended for use by the subcommittee on Sediment Terminology of the American Geophysical Union are defined as follows:

1. Sieve diameter is the length of the side of a square sieve opening through which the given particle will just pass. *Commonly used one*
2. Sedimentation diameter is the diameter of a sphere of the same specific weight and the same terminal settling velocity as the

(۳۸)

"Unified" سیمپلایز

Ref. Craig (1977), "Soil Mechanics"

Description			Group Symbols	Laboratory criteria			
				Fines (%)	Grading	Plasticity	Notes
Coarse grained (more than 50% larger than 63 μm BS or No. 200 US sieve size)	Gravels (more than 50% of coarse fraction of gravel size)	Well graded gravels, sandy gravels, with little or no fines	GW	0-5	$C_u > 4$ $1 < C_c < 3$		Dual symbols if 5-12% fines. Dual symbols if above A-line and $4 < PI < 7$
		Poorly graded gravels, sandy gravels, with little or no fines	GP	0-5	Not satisfying GW requirements		
		Silty gravels, silty sandy gravels	GM	> 12		Below A-line or $PI < 4$	
		Clayey gravels, clayey sandy gravels	GC	> 12		Above A-line and $PI > 7$	
	Sands (more than 50% of coarse fraction of sand size)	Well graded sands, gravelly sands, with little or no fines	SW	0-5	$C_u > 6$ $1 < C_c < 3$		
		Poorly graded sands, gravelly sands, with little or no fines	SP	0-5	Not satisfying SW requirements		
		Silty sands	SM	> 12		Below A-line or $PI < 4$	
		Clayey sands	SC	> 12		Above A-line and $PI > 7$	
Fine grained (more than 50% smaller than 63 μm BS or No. 200 US sieve size)	Silts and clays (liquid limit less than 50)	Inorganic silts, silty or clayey fine sands, with slight plasticity	ML	Use plasticity chart			
		Inorganic clays, silty clays, sandy clays of low plasticity	CL	Use plasticity chart			
		Organic silts and organic silty clays of low plasticity	OL	Use plasticity chart			
	Silts and clays (liquid limit greater than 50)	Inorganic silts of high plasticity	MH	Use plasticity chart			
		Inorganic clays of high plasticity	CH	Use plasticity chart			
		Organic clays of high plasticity	OH	Use Plasticity chart			
Highly organic soils		Peat and other highly organic soils	Pt				

Table 2.1. Soil classification according to size

دانه بندی مواد بزرگ

Soil	Size: mm	Drainage characteristics (تخله پذیری)
Clay	< 0.002 or $2\mu$ (microns)	Impervious (intact clays) Very poor (weathered clays)
Silt	0.002–0.06	Poor (کمزور)
Sand	0.06–2.0	Fair (Not Bad)
Gravel	2.0–60	Good
Cobbles	60–600	Good
Boulders	> 600	Good

granular soils ( $D_{50}$  is usually taken as the nominal size; it corresponds to the size below which 50% of particles by weight are smaller) and by sedimentation techniques for cohesive soils. It should be noted that, as this classification is based on size, it is not always absolutely logical: for example not all clay-size soils are formed by clay minerals and vice versa.

The results of sieving and sedimentation analysis are represented graphically in grading curves such as those shown in Figure 2.1. The x-axis represents the particle size in logarithmic scale and the y-axis is a natural scale giving the percentage by weight finer than the corresponding particle size. Grading curves provide information on the type of soil and on the range of particles of which the soil is composed. Soils formed by a wide range of particle sizes have gently sloping grading curves. These well-graded soils tend to have greater strength and stability than uniform or poorly graded soils, which have steeper grading curves; however, uniformly graded materials usually have good drainage characteristics.

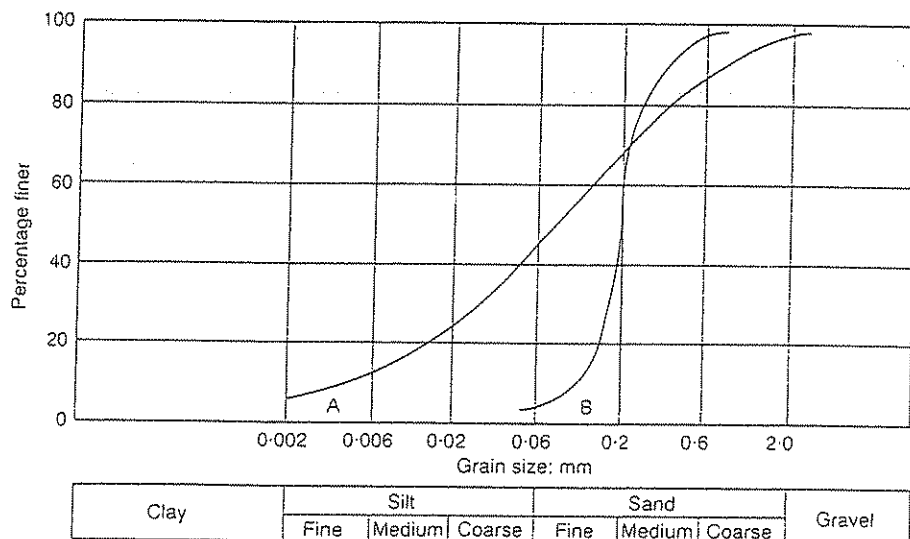


Figure 2.1. Examples of grading curves: (A) — well graded soil; (B) — uniformly graded soil

معمولی دانه بندی

دانه بندی خوب  
(غیر یکپارچه)

دانه بندی یکپارچه

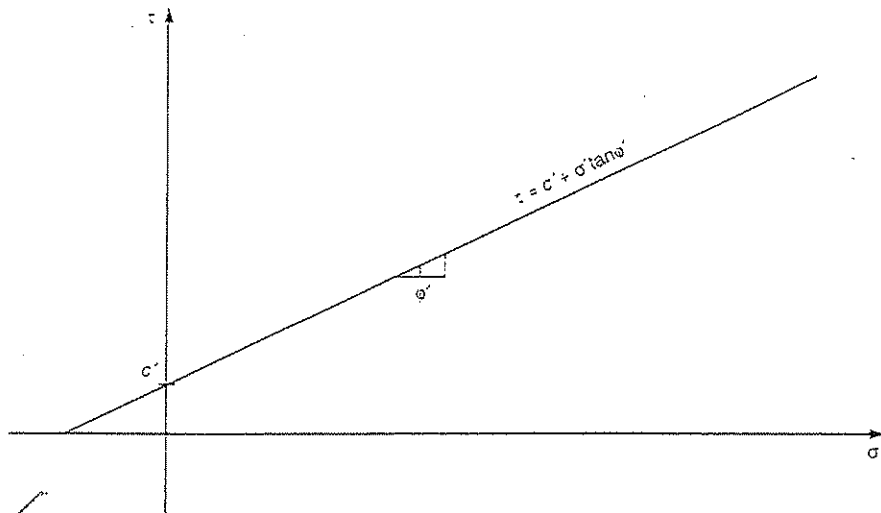


Figure 2.2. Typical Mohr-Coulomb graph (effective shear strength against effective normal stress)

undrained soil samples have shown that the values  $c'$  and  $\phi'$  are generally very close to  $c$  and  $\phi$  obtained from tests where the samples are sheared under conditions of full drainage.

In Table 2.2, values of the angle of internal friction are also presented for granular soils of various sizes and shapes, and for riprap. These values are approximately the same as the values of the angle of repose, which is the angle to the horizontal at which a heap of material will stand without support, for

Table 2.2. Values of cohesion and angle of internal friction ( $c, \phi$ )

Material	Cohesion $c$ : kN/m <sup>2</sup>	Angle of internal friction $\phi^*$ : °		
Clays		$\phi$ متنوع عامل چسبندگی بر ذرات دانه غالب است		
Very stiff or hard	> 150			
Stiff	100-150			
Firm to stiff	75-100			
Firm	50-75			
Soft to firm	40-50			
Soft	20-40			
Very soft	≤ 20	27-34		
Silty sand				
Granular soils		Rounded (مکوره)	Rounded and angular	Angular (شکسته)
Particle size $D_{50}$	$C = 0.0$			
< 1 mm		30	~33	33-35
1-10 mm		30-32	32-36	33-40
10-100 mm		32-37	33-40	~40
Riprap ( $D > 100$ mm)			40-45	

\*For uncompacted sand, the angle of internal friction  $\phi$  coincides with the angle of repose. For riprap the angle of repose is typically between 35 and 42°.

To describe the samples a standardized nomenclature should be used. A sand rule can be of good help. In Table 5.1 a classification based on particle sizes has been given (British Standard).

The colour of the samples should be noted on the measuring form. Caution: the colour of wet material could differ from the same dry material. If possible a description should be made of the different minerals that occur in the sample and their relative occurrence.

Also the shape of the grains should be noted.

A table in which strength and structural characteristics are given can be a good guide for field identification of bottom samples (Table 5.5). As much as possible descriptive remarks about the sample and the location should be noted down.

Even a description of the river banks may be useful for interpretation of the results or to use the bottom sample data for studying the river banks or the morphology in general.

Bottom samples can be taken with a Van Veen bottom grab.

Two types of this grab are available: small size (weight = 2.4 kg, capacity 0.5 litre), medium size (weight = 5.25 kg) and medium size + extra lead blocks (weight = 11 kg, content 2 litres).

In spite of the heavy closing force it can happen, if the grabs are sampling gravel or a mixture of sand and gravel, that a pebble sticks between the buckets. Be aware that in such a case the sample is not representative; the smaller parts have been lost during hoisting. It is always a good rule of thumb to take at least six samples at every location and base the conclusions on the total of all samples. This is especially important if the bottom is less regularly shaped and the bottom material consists of a mixture of materials.

For a heavy gravel bottom the 'Van Veen' grab is less useful. For this purpose a *drag grab* is better. This grab is a heavy bucket with a larger sharp circumference. It should be towed along the bottom over a distance of a few metres.

## 5.7 GRAIN SIZES

Various methods can be used for particle size analysis: sedimentation methods for particles in the clay and silt range; sieving in the case of sand and gravel; weighing when cobbles and boulders are present. The analysis may result in particle size distribution curves. From these curves the information needed for computation of bed material load can be read.

Table 5.5 Table of strength and structural characteristics (after: Hayes, 1959).

Strength			Structure	
Types	Term	Field Test	Term	Field Identification
Coarse grained, non-cohesive درشت دانه (غیر چسبنده)	Bounders Cobbles Gravel	Can be excavated with spade, 2" wooded peg can easily be driven in	Homogeneous	Deposit consisting essentially of one type
	Uniform Sands	Require pick for excavation, 2" wooded peg hard to drive more than a few inches	Stratified	Alternatively layers of varying types
	Graded درشت دانه درشت دانه	Visual examination. Pick remove soil in lumps which can be abraded with thumb	Slightly cemented	
Fine grained, cohesive ریز دانه (چسبنده)	Low plasticity	Easily moulded in fingers. Particles mostly barely or not visible; dries moderately and can be dusted from the fingers	Homogeneous	Deposit consisting essentially of one type
		Can be moulded by strong pressure in fingers	Firm	Alternating layers of varying types
	Medium plasticity	Exudes between fingers when squeezed in fist	Fissured	Breaks into polyhedral fragments along fissure planes
		Easily moulded in fingers	Intact	No fissures
	High plasticity	Can be moulded by strong pressure in the fingers general: dry lumps can be broken, but not powdered; disintegrates under water; sticks to the fingers; dries slowly with cracks	Homogeneous stratified	Deposits consisting of essentially one type. Alternating layers of varying types if layers are thin, the soil may be described as laminated
Organic سوداکی	Peats	Cannot be moulded in fingers	Stiff	
		Brittle or very tough	Hard	Usually exhibits crumbly or columnar structure
		Fibre compressed together, colour brown to black	Firm	
		Very compressible and open structure, colour brown to black	Spongy	

91

( 34 )

✓

$\phi$  ?

Internal Friction = The resistance due to interlocking of the particles  
مقاومت ناشی از قفل شدن ذرات

Angle of Internal Friction ( $\phi$ ) : زاویه اصطکاک داخلی

10: آزمایش برش (Shear Test) تحت شرایط زلزله کابل نمونه خاک (Full Drainage)  
به دست می آید

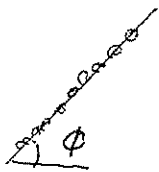
(۳)

Angle of Repose = The angle to horizontal at which a heap of material will stand without support.  
(زاویه ایستایی یا مقدار)

زاویه پایدار سوار رسوب  
در حالت { ۱- بدون تراکم (Uncompacted) }  
{ ۲- خشک (Dry) یا متفوق (در آب) }

Yang (1996) : زاویه سیب سوار در آستانه لغزش سطحی (Surface Sliding)

زاویه سیب طبیعی و پایدار سوار در آب



روش تحلیلی در ارزیابی (Angle of Repose) ← (Yang (1996), P. 42)

$\phi$  = Angle of Internal Friction

$\phi \approx$  Angle of Repose

HR Wallingford (1998) : { برای سوار غیرچسبده (یا رشن) }  
{ در شرایط { بدون تراکم }  
{ خشک یا متفوق } }

(۴۶)

Ref. Yang (1996)

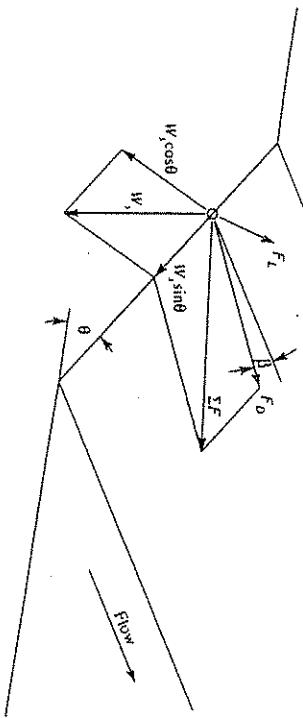


FIGURE 2.12  
Forces acting on a particle resting on the side of a trapezoidal channel (Graf, 1971).

The forces acting on a particle resting on the side of a trapezoidal channel are shown in Fig. 2.12. The angle of repose  $\phi$  under a given flow condition is given by (Graf, 1971)

$$\tan \phi = \frac{[(W_s \sin \theta)^2 + 2F_D W_s \sin \theta \sin \beta + F_D^2]^{1/2}}{W_s \cos \theta - F_L} \quad (2.44)$$

where  $F_D$  = drag force,

$F_L$  = lift force,

$\theta$  = angle of inclination from the bank with the horizontal,

$W_s$  = submerged weight of a sediment particle, and

$\beta$  = angle of inclination of the shear stress as a result of secondary motion, which is especially pronounced in flow through curves.

When Eq. (2.44) is applied to the bottom of a straight channel, the channel side angle of inclination is replaced by the longitudinal angle of inclination  $\alpha$ , and  $\sin \beta = 1$ . In this case, the angle of repose along the channel bottom is given by

$$\tan \phi = \frac{W_s \sin \alpha + F_D}{W_s \cos \alpha - F_L} \quad (2.45)$$

The values of  $F_D$ ,  $F_L$ , and  $W_s$  can be computed using Eqs. (2.12), (2.19), and (2.21), respectively. Substituting these into Eq. (2.45), the critical channel bottom velocity  $(V_b)_{cr}$  can be obtained by solving

$$\frac{(V_b)_{cr}}{(\rho_s/\rho - 1)gd} = \frac{\frac{1}{3}\pi(\tan \phi \cos \alpha - \sin \alpha)}{C_D + C_L \tan \phi} \quad (2.46)$$

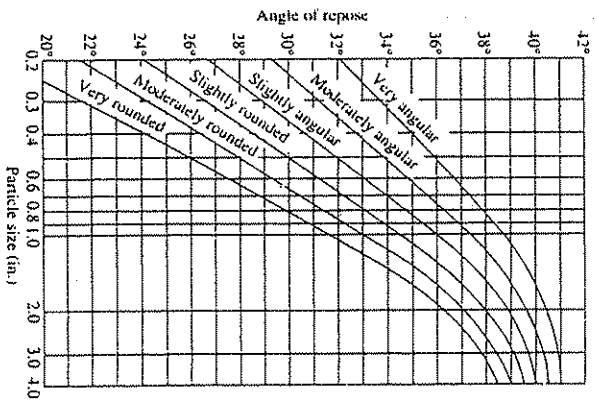


FIGURE 2.13  
Angles of repose of noncohesive material (Lane, 1953).

The angles of repose of different materials are given by Lane (1953) as shown in Fig. 2.13.

Lane (1953) developed stable channel design curves for trapezoids with different typical side slopes. These curves are based on maximum allowable tractive force, and are shown in Fig. 2.14. Figure 2.14(a) is for the channel sides and 2.14(b) is for the channel bottom. Figure 2.14 indicates that the maximum shear stress is about equal to  $\gamma DS$  and  $0.75\gamma DS$  for the bottom and the sides of the channel, respectively. Lane's study also showed that there is zero shear stress at the corners.

The shear stress acting on the channel side at incipient motion is

$$\tau_w = W_s \cos \theta \tan \phi \left(1 - \frac{\tan^2 \theta}{\tan^2 \phi}\right)^{1/2} \quad (2.47)$$

At the bottom of a channel,  $\theta = 0$ , and Eq. (2.47) becomes

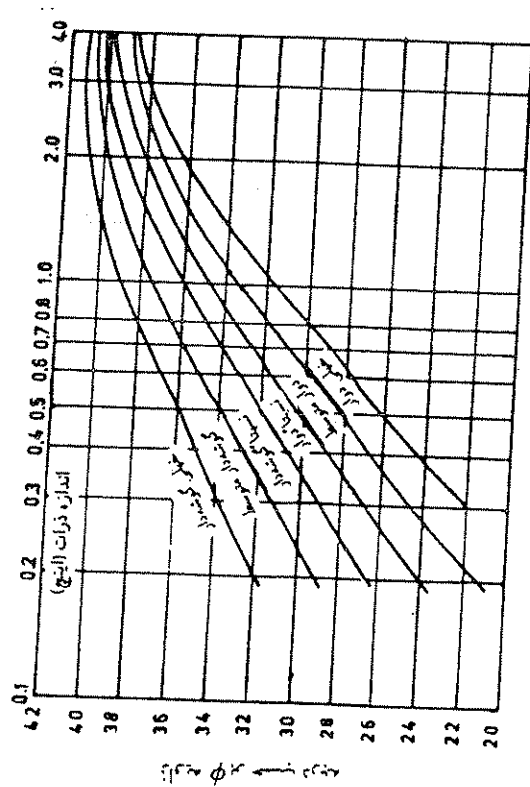
$$\tau_b = W_s \tan \phi \quad (2.48)$$

The ratio of limiting tractive forces acting on the channel side and channel bottom is

$$K = \frac{\tau_w}{\tau_b} = \cos \theta \left(1 - \frac{\tan^2 \theta}{\tan^2 \phi}\right)^{1/2} \quad (2.49)$$

For stable channel design, the value of  $\tau_b$  can be obtained from the Shields





شکل ۲-۳: زاویه ایستایی مواد رسوبی بر حسب اندازه و شکل ذرات (Lane, 1953)

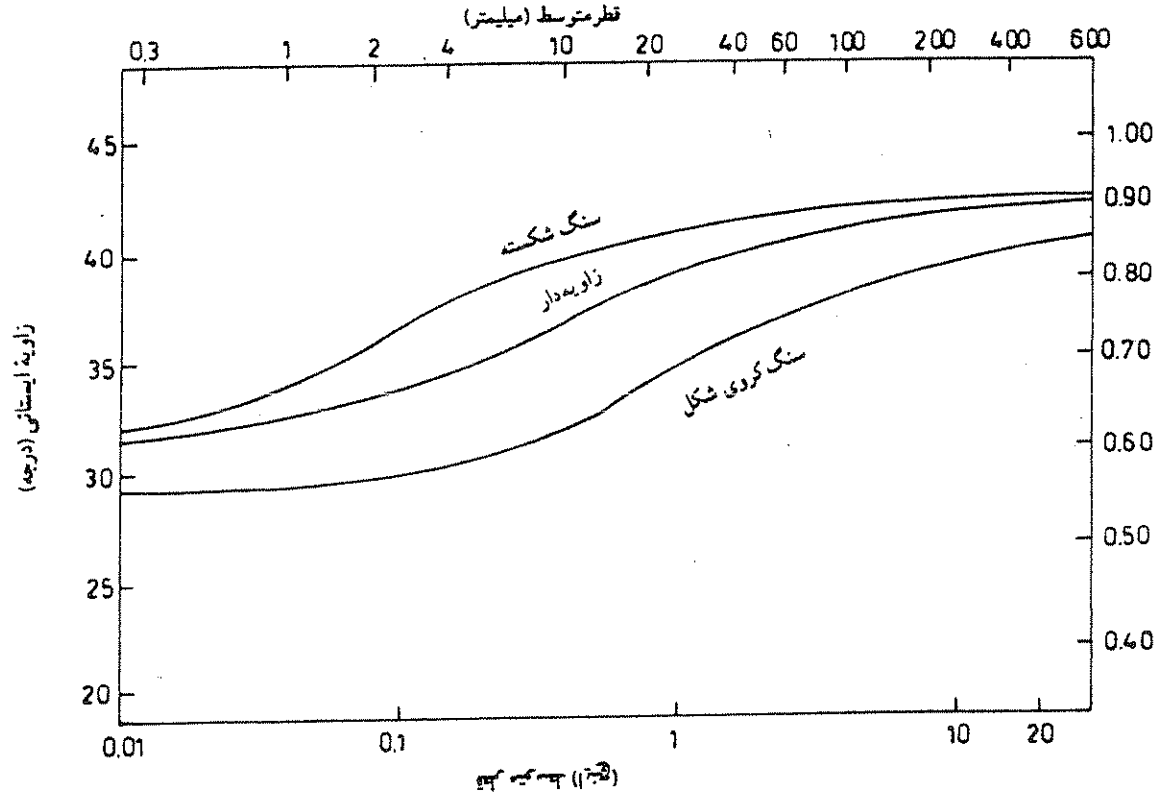
### ۲-۵- شکل ذره (۱)

شکل ذرات بستگی به منبع سنگ مادر و نحوه هوا زدگی آن دارد. برای مشخص کردن شکل ذره و تبدیل آن به پارامترهایی که قابل استفاده در فرمولها باشد از معیارهای مختلفی استفاده می شود که عبارتند از:

### ۲-۵-۱- کروییت (۲)

کروییت عبارت است از نسبت مساحت کره هم حجم ذره به سطح جانبی واقعی ذره مورد نظر که مقدار آن برای ذرات، کروی برابر واحد بوده و برای سایر ذرات، کمتر از واحد می باشد. چون بدست آوردن سطح واقعی ذرات رسوب مشکل می باشد، از نسبت زیر برای بیان کروییت استفاده می شود.

تأثیر زاویه ایستایی (زاویه ایستایی) بر آبریزش در رسوبات



شکل ۲-۲: زاویه ایستایی بر حسب اندازه متوسط ذرات و شکل ذرات

(Simons, 1955)

Ref. (6)

(۲۸)

10/

Ref. (2)

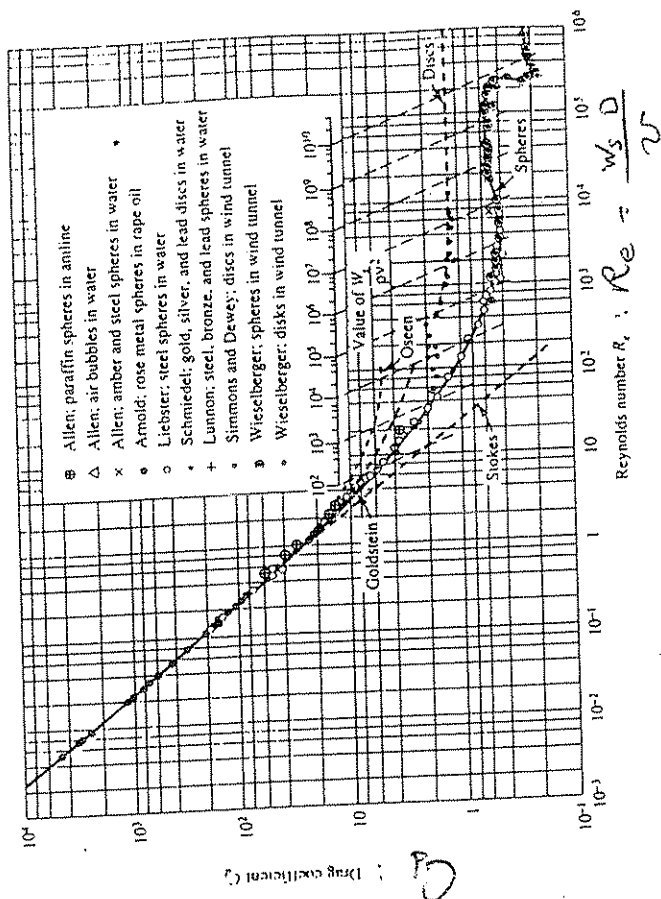


FIGURE 1.2  
Drag coefficients as functions of Reynolds number (Rouse, 1937).

**1.4.4.4 EXPERIMENTAL DETERMINATION OF DRAG COEFFICIENT AND FALL VELOCITY.** The drag coefficient cannot be found analytically when the Reynolds number is greater than 2.0. Therefore, it has to be determined experimentally by observing fall velocities in still fluids. These relationships were summarized by Rouse (1937), as shown in Fig. 1.2. After the drag coefficient has been determined from Fig. 1.1 or 1.2, the fall velocity of a spherical sediment can be computed by solving Eqs. (1.6) and (1.7). The tedious calculation can be avoided by using the auxiliary scale of  $W_s/\rho\nu^2$  in Fig. 1.2, where  $W_s$  is the submerged weight of spherical sediment. For natural sand, the shape factor is usually less than 1.0, and Figs. 1.1 and 1.2 cannot be applied directly. The most practical approach is the application of Fig. 1.3 when the particle size, shape factor, and water temperature are given. Figure 1.3 is recommended by the U.S. Interagency Committee on Water Resources, Subcommittee on Sedimentation (1957). For most natural sands, a shape factor of 0.7 should be used.

**1.4.4.5 FACTORS AFFECTING THE FALL VELOCITY.** Factors that may affect the fall velocity are relative density between fluid and sediment, fluid viscosity, sediment surface roughness, sediment size and shape, suspended sediment concentration, and strength of turbulence.

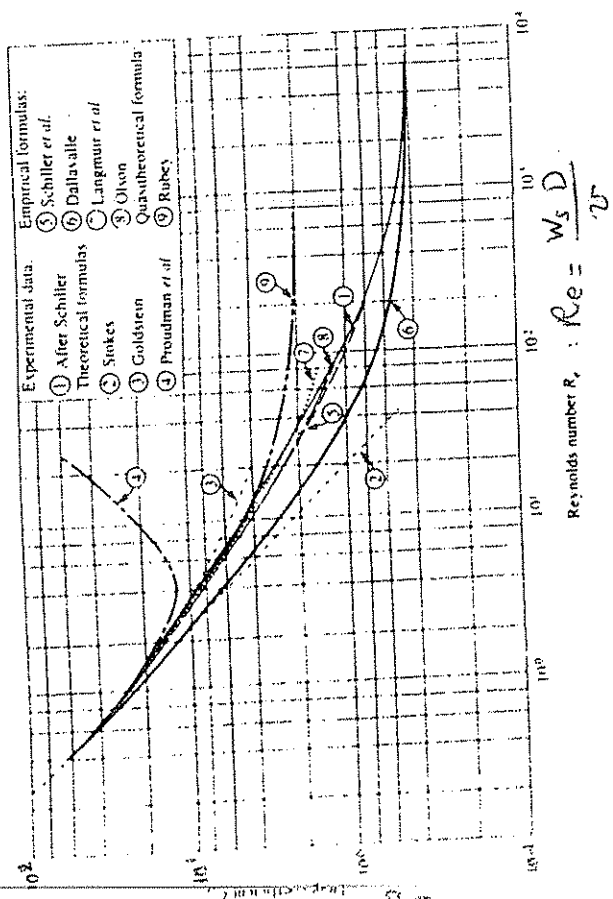


FIGURE 1.1  
Relationship between drag coefficient and Reynolds number for sphere (Graf and Acaroglu, 1966).

Acaroglu (1966) (see Fig. 1.1). When the Reynolds number is greater than 2.0, the relationship should be determined experimentally.

**1.4.4.3 RUBEY'S FORMULA.** Rubey (1933) introduced a formula for the computation of fall velocity of gravel, sand, and silt particles. For quartz particles with diameter greater than 1 mm, the fall velocity can be computed by

$$\omega = F \left[ dg \left( \frac{\gamma_s - \gamma}{\gamma} \right) \right]^{1/2} \quad (1.15)$$

where the parameter  $F = 0.79$  for particles greater than 1 mm settling in water with temperature between 10°C and 25°C, and  $d$  is the particle diameter.

For smaller grain sizes

$$F = \left[ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{36\nu^2}{gd^3(\gamma_s/\gamma - 1)} \right]^{1/2} - \left[ \frac{36\nu^2}{gd^3(\gamma_s/\gamma - 1)} \right]^{1/2} \quad (1.16)$$

For particle sizes greater than 2 mm, the fall velocity in 16°C water can be approximated by

$$\omega = 6.01d^{1/2} \quad (\omega \text{ in ft/s, } d \text{ in ft}) \quad (1.17a)$$

$$\omega = 3.32d^{1/2} \quad (\omega \text{ in m/s, } d \text{ in m}) \quad (1.17b)$$

or

Ref. (1)

importance in abrasion studies.

The shape of a solid particle can exert a profound influence on the drag and attention has been directed towards identifying a single shape factor which can be used to characterise the drag coefficient. A recommended approach is the use of the shape factor defined by

$$SF = \frac{c}{\sqrt{ab}} \quad \text{: shape factor} \quad \dots (2.1)$$

in which a, b, and c are, respectively, the length of the longest, intermediate, and shortest mutually perpendicular areas of the particle. Figure 2.1 shows graphically the relationship between drag coefficient and Reynolds number (defined in terms of the nominal diameter) for river gravel and crushed gravel of various shape factors as defined by Equation 2.1.

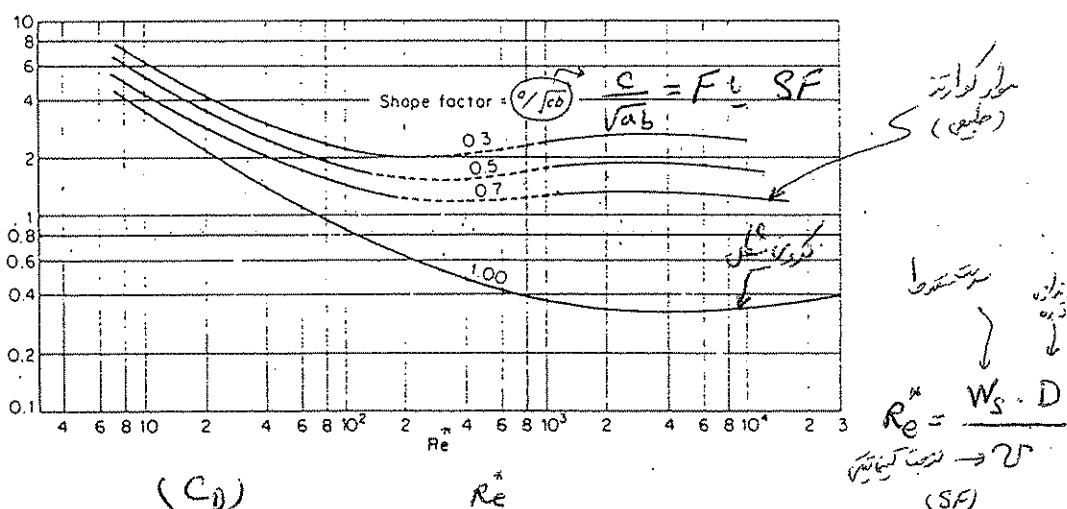


FIGURE 2.1: Drag Coefficient vs. Reynolds Number for Different Shape Factors.

Practically all sediments, whether borne by wind or water, have their origin in rock material, and all constituents of the parent material can usually be found in the sediment. However, as the materials become finer due to weathering and abrasion, the less stable minerals tend to weather faster and be carried away as fine particles or in solution, leaving behind the more stable components. The highest degree of sorting of minerals is to be expected in the fine fractions of sediment. Coarse material, e.g. boulders, may be a part of the parent rock and contain all the constituents of the original material.

Although quartz, because of its great stability, is by far the commonest mineral found in sediments moved by water and wind, numerous other minerals also are present. Despite the presence of other minerals,



## Appendix 1 Formulae for viscosity and settling velocity

Kinematic viscosity,  $\nu$ :

اللزوجة الحركية  $\nu = \frac{1.79 \cdot 10^{-6}}{1 + 0.03368T + 0.000221T^2}$

where T is the temperature in degrees centigrade.

There are a number of formulae for calculating settling velocity  $w_s$ . Some of these formulae require the dimensionless grain size  $D_{gr}$  to be calculated

$$D_{gr} = \left[ \frac{(s-1)g}{\nu^2} \right]^{1/3} D$$

where

$\nu$  = kinematic viscosity of fluid in  $m^2/s$

D = sediment size in m

s = ratio of densities of grain and fluid

$$S = S_g = \frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma_w} = \frac{\rho_s}{\rho_w}$$

Formula given by Hallermeier to calculate fall velocity is:

$$\begin{aligned} w_s &= \frac{\gamma D_{gr}^3}{18 D} \quad \text{for } D_{gr}^3 \leq 39 \\ w_s &= \frac{\gamma D_{gr}^{2.1}}{6 D} \quad \text{for } 39 < D_{gr}^3 < 10^4 \\ w_s &= \frac{1.05 D_{gr}^{1.5} \gamma}{D} \quad \text{for } 10^4 < D_{gr}^3 < 3 \times 10^6 \end{aligned}$$

Formula derived by Van Rijn for fall velocity is:

$$\begin{aligned} w_s &= \frac{\gamma D_{gr}^3}{18 D} \quad \text{for } D_{gr}^3 < 16.187 \\ w_s &= \frac{10 \gamma}{D} \left[ \sqrt{1 + 0.01 D_{gr}^3} - 1 \right] \quad \text{for } 16.187 < D_{gr}^3 < 16187 \end{aligned}$$

14/ 2/2

$$(2) \left\{ w_s = \frac{\gamma}{D} \sqrt{1.21 D_{gr}^3} \text{ for } D_{gr}^3 > 16187 \right.$$

The formula derived by Soulsby for fall velocity is:

$$(3) \left[ w_s = \frac{\gamma}{D} \left[ \sqrt{10.36^2 + 1.049 D_{gr}^3} - 10.36 \right] \text{ for all } D_{gr} \right.$$

Fall velocity of the particle,  $w_s$ , in m/s as given by Gibbs et al, 1971.

$$(4) \left\{ w_s = \frac{\left[ 9v^2 + 10^{-9} D^2 g (s_g - 1) (0.03869 + 0.0248D) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} - 3v}{[0.11607 + 0.074405D] \cdot 10^{-3}} \right.$$

where

$v$  = kinematic viscosity of fluid in  $m^2/s$   
 $D$  = sediment size in mm  
 $s_g$  = specific gravity of sediment

A comparison of the predictions of fall velocity as given by these four formulae was carried out against a large data set (115 measurements) of settling velocities of natural sands and irregular shaped lightweight grains, Soulsby (1993).

The error analysis used was:

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left| 1 - \frac{\text{Predicted}}{\text{Observed}} \right|$$

The table below shows the percentage of predictions lying within 10% or 20% of the observations.

Formula	10%	20%
Hallermeier	60.0	88.7
Soulsby	66.1	89.6
Van Rijn	59.1	89.6
Gibbs	34.8	50.4

The Soulsby formula gives the best results with Hallermeier and Van Rijn almost as good, but more complicated. The poor performance of the Gibbs formula is because it was intended for spheres, not natural grains.

(53)

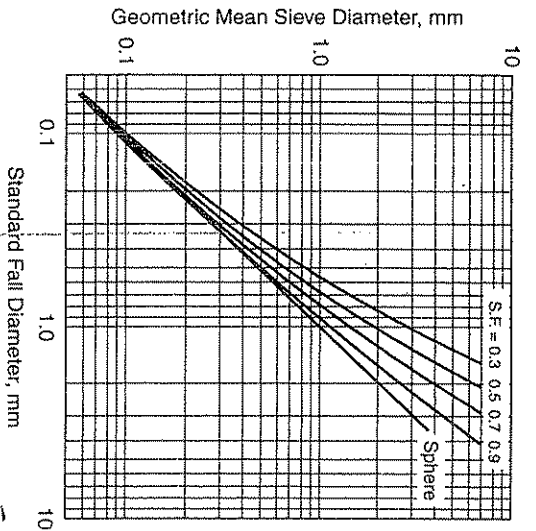


FIGURE 10.3

Relationship between fall diameter and sieve diameter for different shape factors of naturally worn sand particles (U.S. Interagency Committee 1957).

**EXAMPLE 10.1** Find the fall velocity of a medium sand with a sieve diameter of 0.50 mm (0.00164 ft) falling in water at 20°C by two methods: (1) using Figures 10.2 and 10.3 and (2) from Equation 10.10.

**Solution.** From Figure 10.3, for a sieve diameter of 0.50 mm (0.00164 ft) and a shape factor of 0.7, the standard fall diameter is 0.47 mm (0.00154 ft). Then, we calculate  $d_s$  for the sphere with fall diameter,  $d_f$ , as

$$d_s = \left[ \frac{1.65 \times 9.81 \times 0.00047^3}{(1 \times 10^{-6})^2} \right]^{1/2} = 11.9$$

From Figure 10.2,  $Re \approx 33$  so that  $w_f = 33 \times (1 \times 10^{-6})/0.00047 = 7.0 \times 10^{-2}$  m/s (0.23 ft/s).

In the second method, which can be used only for sand grains,  $d_s$  is recalculated for the sieve diameter,  $d_s$ , of 0.5 mm to give a value of 12.6. Then, we substitute into (10.10) to obtain

$$\frac{w_f d_s}{\nu} = 8 \times \left[ \sqrt{1 + 0.0139 \times 12.6^3} - 1 \right] = 35$$

from which  $w_f = 35 \times (1 \times 10^{-6})/0.0005 = 7.0 \times 10^{-2}$  m/s (0.23 ft/s).

### Grain Size Distribution

While some natural sorting occurs in rivers with the formation of a thin armor layer of coarser particles in the bed under conditions of degradation, generally a wide

range of sizes can be found in transport and in the riverbed. Some measure of the degree of sorting of the grain sizes is required using statistical frequency distributions. The lognormal probability density function commonly is applied to river sands, with an estimate of its parameters (mean and standard deviation) being used to characterize the particle size distribution as obtained from sieve analysis. The lognormal probability density function simply is the normal probability density function applied to the logs of the sieve diameters, so it is given by

$$f(\zeta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\zeta^2/2} \quad (10.11)$$

in which  $\zeta = (\log d_s - \mu)/\sigma$ ,  $d_s$  is sieve diameter;  $\mu$  is the mean of the logs of the sieve diameters; and  $\sigma$  is the standard deviation of the logs of the sieve diameters. The geometric standard deviation,  $\sigma_g$ , is used more often to describe grain size distributions, and it is defined by  $\log \sigma_g = \sigma$ .

The cumulative distribution function,  $F(\zeta)$ , is used to relate the theoretical probability distribution of (10.11) to the results of a grain-size analysis. It represents the cumulative probability that a grain size is less than or equal to a given sieve diameter, and it is measured as the cumulative weight passing a given sieve size as a fraction of the total weight of the sediment sample. Mathematically, it is obtained from the area underneath the probability density function as

$$F(\zeta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\zeta} e^{-t^2/2} dt \quad (10.12)$$

in which  $t$  is a dummy variable of integration, and  $100 \times F(\zeta)$  = percent finer of the theoretical lognormal distribution. Shown in Figure 10.4 are the individual data

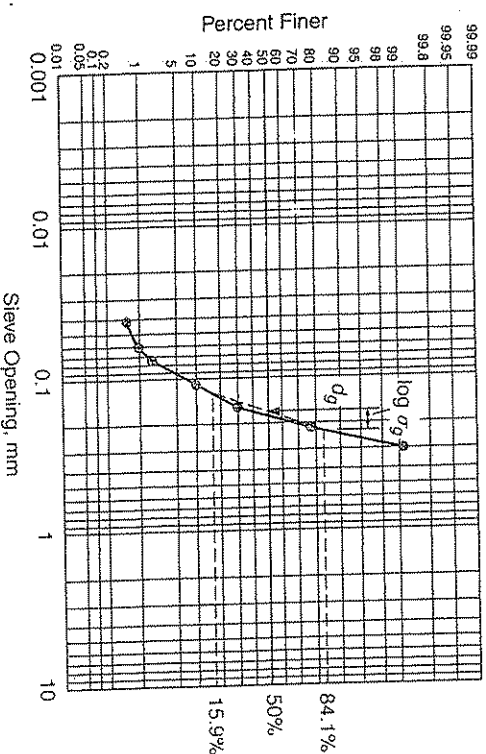


FIGURE 10.4

Size distribution of a sand sample on log-normal scale.

which is valid up to a Reynolds number of approximately  $2 \times 10^5$  when the drag crisis occurs as the laminar boundary layer changes to a turbulent boundary layer and the separation point moves further downstream on the surface of the sphere. Iteration or a numerical solution of (10.4) is unnecessary, however, for the Stokes range ( $Re < 1$ ), for which there is an exact solution by Stokes for the drag force and coefficient of drag under the assumption of negligible inertia terms in the Navier-Stokes equations; that is, creeping motion. In this special case,  $C_D = 24/Re$  or the drag force  $D = 3\pi\mu\gamma_s d$ . Substituting the Stokes solution for drag force on the left hand side of (10.3) and solving for the fall velocity gives Stokes' law for the fall velocity:

$$w_f = \frac{1}{18} \frac{(\gamma_s/\gamma - 1)gd^2}{\nu} \quad (10.6)$$

in which  $\gamma_s$  = specific weight of the sphere;  $\gamma$  = specific weight of the fluid;  $d$  = diameter of the sphere; and  $\nu$  = kinematic viscosity of the fluid. Stokes' law is limited to  $Re < 1$ , which can be used to substitute into (10.6) for the fall velocity,  $w_f$ , to obtain the maximum sphere size for which Stokes' law applies. The result for a quartz sphere falling in water at  $20^\circ C$  is  $d_{max} = 0.1$  mm, which is a very fine sand.

For spherical particles outside the Stokes range, an alternative to the iterative solution involving Figure 10.1, or the numerical solution using Equation 10.5, is to rearrange the dimensional analysis of the problem. The difficulty with Figure 10.1 is that it was developed for predicting the drag force on a sphere, whereas the problem of interest here is the determination of fall velocity of the sphere, and the fall velocity appears in the definition of both  $C_D$  and  $Re$ . However, according to the rules of dimensional analysis, any dimensionless group can be replaced by some combination of the other groups as discussed in Chapter 1. In this case, a good choice would be  $C_D Re^2$  because the fall velocity is eliminated in this group. The evaluation of a related dimensionless group can be obtained from

$$\frac{3}{4} C_D Re^2 = \frac{(\gamma_s/\gamma - 1)gd^3}{\nu^2} \quad (10.7)$$

in which the constant of  $4/3$  on the right hand side has been moved to the left hand side. Now define a more convenient dimensionless number,  $d_*$ , given by

$$d_* = \left[ \frac{(\gamma_s/\gamma - 1)gd^3}{\nu^2} \right]^{1/3} \quad (10.8)$$

Taking Equation 10.5 for the drag coefficient and plotting  $Re$  vs.  $d_*$  results in Figure 10.2, in which the abscissa is calculated from (10.8). The Reynolds number then can be read directly from the figure to determine the fall velocity outside the Stokes range.

It remains to apply the methods just developed for spheres to sediment particles that are not spherically shaped. One method for accomplishing this task is to define the sedimentation diameter as described in the section on sediment size, which relates the fall velocity to the diameter of a fictitious sphere having the same fall velocity as the given particle. Unfortunately, sedimentation diameter varies

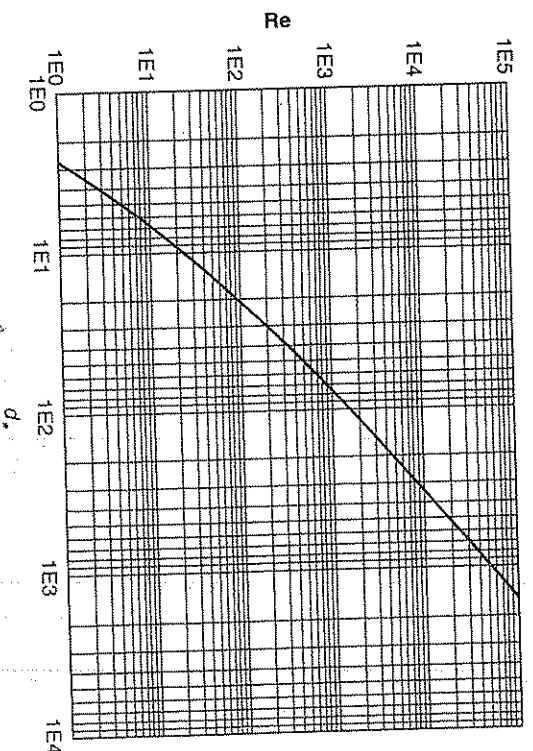


FIGURE 10.2  
Fall velocity of a sphere as a function of dimensionless particle diameter  $d_*$ .

with Reynolds number, so it has been standardized for a fluid temperature of  $24^\circ C$ , and called the *standard fall diameter*. If the fall velocity of a sediment has been measured, its standard fall diameter can be determined from Figure 10.1 and Equation 10.4. However, for sand grains, the sieve diameter  $d_s$  usually is measured by taking the geometric mean of the sieve sizes just passing and retaining the given sand grain in a nest of sieves. What is needed then is a conversion from the sieve diameter of the actual sediment to the fall diameter, which depends on the shape factor, as shown in Figure 10.3. Once the fall diameter is known, any of the methods just discussed for spheres can be used to obtain the fall velocity. Fortunately, the fall diameter does not vary significantly from the standard fall diameter over a temperature range of  $20^\circ$  to  $30^\circ C$ .

As an alternative to using sedimentation diameter to find the fall velocity, the coefficient of drag of sand particles can be determined directly and given in a  $C_D$  vs.  $Re$  diagram like that of Figure 10.1. Engelund and Hansen (1967) have suggested the following best fit to the data for sand and gravel ( $Re < 10^4$ ):

$$C_D = \frac{24}{Re} + 1.5 \quad (10.9)$$

Equation 10.9 can be used in combination with Equation 10.4 for the fall velocity to obtain an exact solution for the fall velocity, which is given by (Julien 1995):

$$Re = \frac{w_f d_s}{\nu} = 8 \left[ \sqrt{1 + 0.0139 d_s^2} - 1 \right] \quad (10.10)$$



terms of sieve diameter because of the convenience of this method. Therefore, it is also convenient to have a relation between sieve diameter and fall velocity. Such a relation is given in Figure 2.2 for naturally worn quartz particles falling in distilled water, and for a range of water temperature and particle shape factor, SF, as given by Equation 2.1. These curves give average values that should be considered as estimates. When fall velocity is of major importance it should be measured for the sediment of the stream under study.

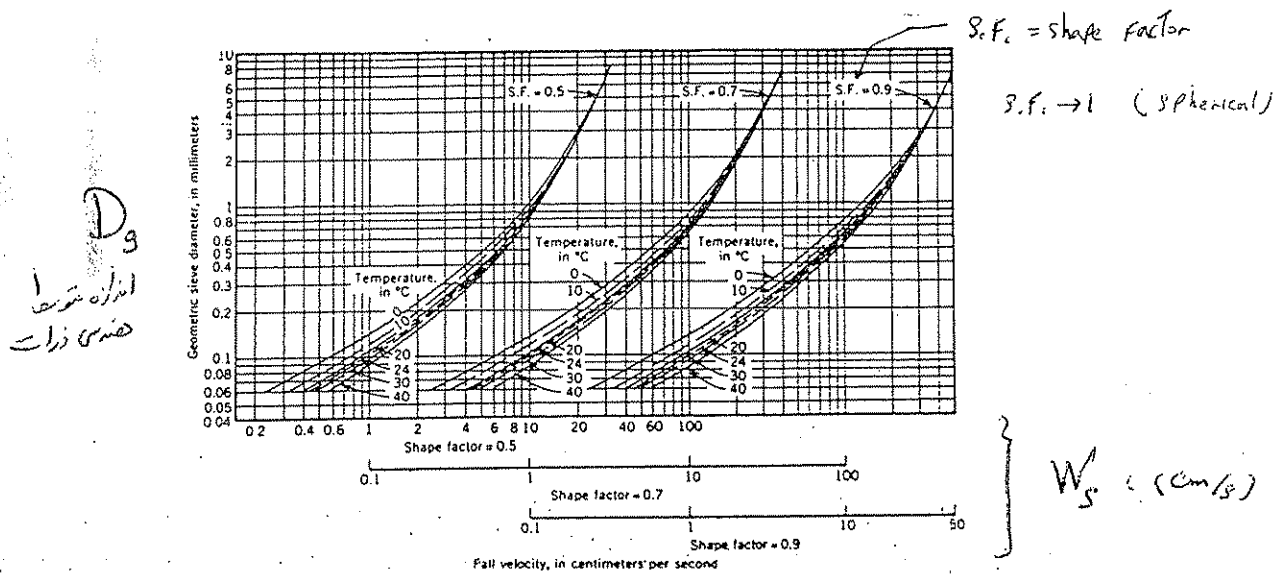


FIGURE 2.2: Relation between Sieve Diameter, Fall Velocity, and Shape Factor for Naturally Worn Quartz Sand Particles Falling in Distilled Water. ( $S_g = 2.65$  آب شفاف)

In attempts to represent particles falling in a turbulent fluid, workers have made theoretical and experimental studies of spheres in oscillating fluids. These studies showed that spherical particles would settle more slowly in a fluid oscillating in the vertical direction than in one at rest. The reduction in fall velocity results from the nonlinear relation between drag on the particles and their velocity relative to the fluid. The oscillating fluid is not a realistic model of a turbulent flow. However, it seems reasonable to expect that because the relative velocity between the fluid and a particle in a turbulent flow has an unsteady component, the tendency is for the fall velocity of the particle to be less than in a quiescent fluid.

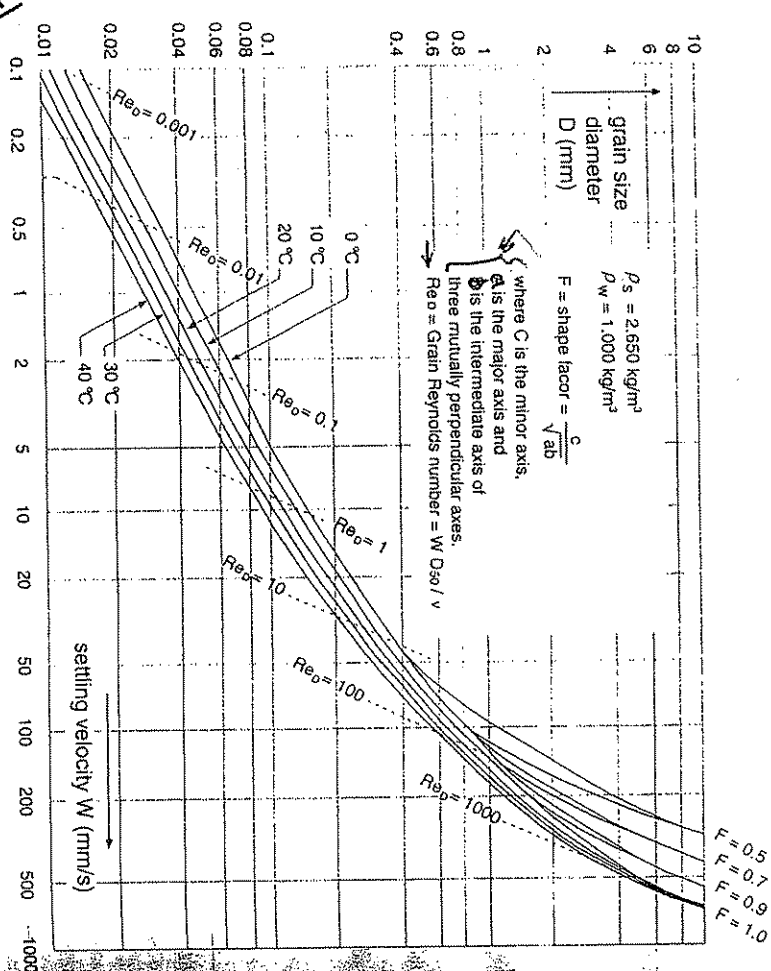
If many samples are involved and the only information required concerns the percentages in which some characteristic grain sizes are present in the mixture, the processing of sieve data can be programmed and the presentation of the output adapted to this purpose.

Other factors used to identify sediments are the particles' shape, density and settling velocity.

The shape of the particles is characterized by the following parameters of which only the first one has practical value:

- *shape factor*:  $c/v(ab)$  in which  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$  are respectively the longest, intermediate and shortest of the three mutually perpendicular axes of the particle. Most natural sand particles have a shape factor of about 0.7;
- *sphericity*: ratio of surface area of a sphere with equal volume as the particle to the surface area of the particle considered;
- *roundness*: ratio of average radius of curvature to radius of circle inscribed in the maximum projected area of the particle.

Figure 5.14. Settling velocity as a function of particle size, shape factor and grain Reynolds number.



Sample n°	MITCH	D90 = 520 µm
date:	18 August 1972	D65 = 340 µm
location:	Section Ballena	D50 = 290 µm
Remarks:	ADENAVI NEDECO	D35 = 270 µm
440m, from the right bank		Dm = 340 µm

Data of the lab.		Sieve curve		tail velocity	
mesh width (µm)	weight of material (gr)	% on the sieve	% on	% through	
$D_i$		$P_i$			
4,800	2,4411	0.38	0.38	99.62	18.24
3,400	1,7454	0.27	0.65	99.35	9.18
2,400	2,1369	0.33	0.98	99.02	7.92
1,700	1,7756	0.28	1.26	98.74	4.76
1,200	0,8152	0.13	1.39	98.61	1.56
850	11,2605	1.75	3.14	96.89	14.88
710	9,3621	1.45	4.59	95.41	10.30
600	7,2702	1.13	5.72	94.28	6.78
500	35,9903	5.59	11.31	98.69	27.95
420	45,1928	7.01	18.32	81.68	28.44
350	80,9600	12.57	30.89	69.11	44.00
300	88,9037	13.80	44.69	55.31	41.40
250	185,7796	28.85	73.54	26.46	72.13
210	104,2715	16.19	99.73	10.27	34.00
175	34,9966	5.43	95.16	4.84	9.50
150	14,7413	2.29	97.45	2.55	3.43
125	9,6216	1.49	98.94	1.06	1.96
105	2,8867	0.45	99.39	0.61	0.47
90	1,9222	0.30	99.69	0.31	0.27
75	0,9871	0.15	99.84	0.16	0.11
50	0,6152	0.10	99.94	0.06	0.05

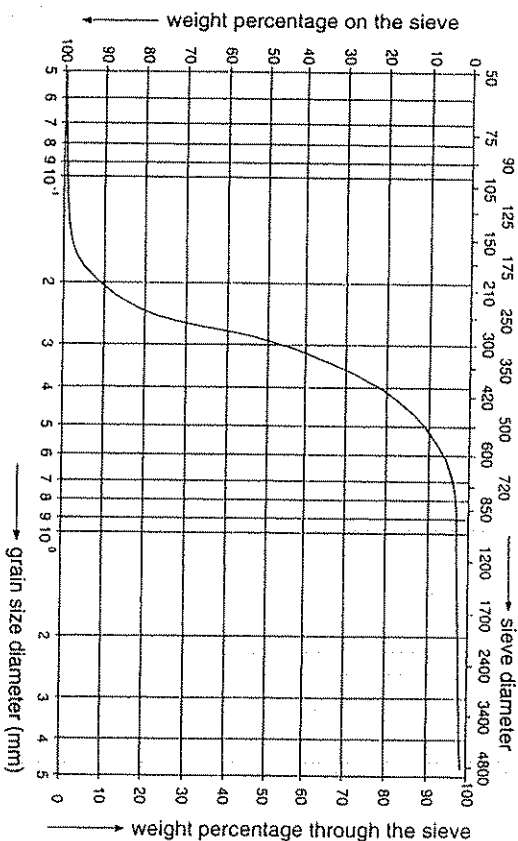
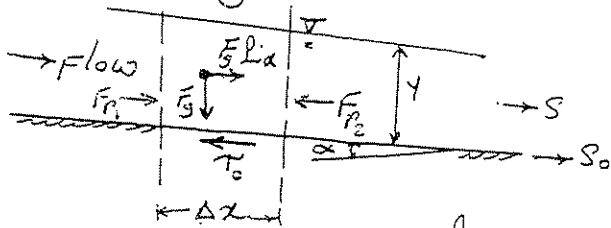


Figure 5.15. Sieve Analysis Form and Sieve Curve (after Nedeco, 1973).

# فصل سوم : "سرریز بر توزیع سرعت و تنش برش در مجاری روباز"

$\tau_0$  : Boundary Shear Stress



$$F_1 - \sum F_s = ma = 0 \Rightarrow F_3 L \alpha - F_v = 0$$

$$(\gamma A \Delta x) L \alpha = \tau_0 (P \cdot \Delta x)$$

$$\tau_0 = \gamma \left( \frac{A}{P} \right) L \alpha = \gamma R L \alpha$$

$$L \alpha \approx y \alpha \approx S_0 \Rightarrow$$

$$\tau_0 = \gamma R S_0$$

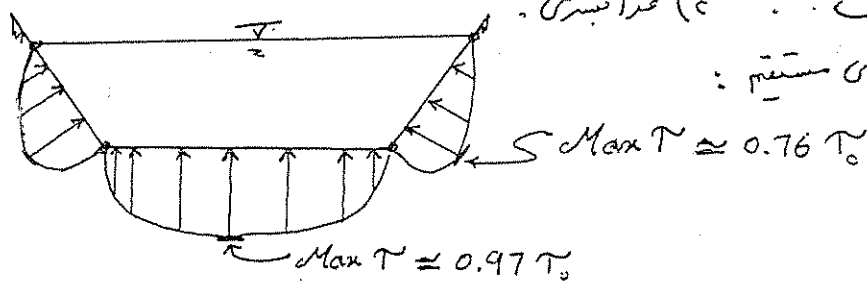
$$\tau_0 = \gamma R S_f \text{ For Non-Uniform Flow}$$

$\tau_0 = \gamma R S$  Boundary Shear Stress : متوسط تنش برش در بستر جریان  
OR Mean Shear Stress acting on channel boundaries.

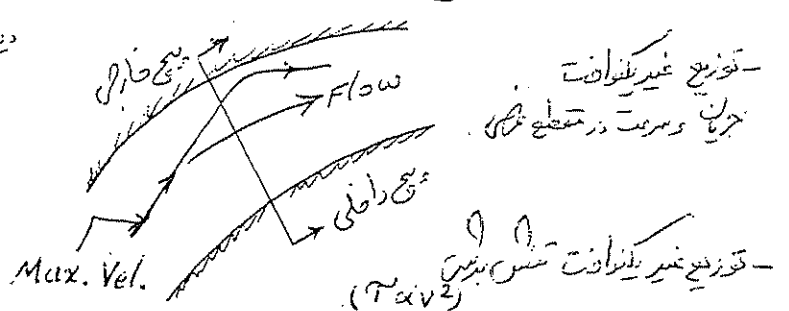
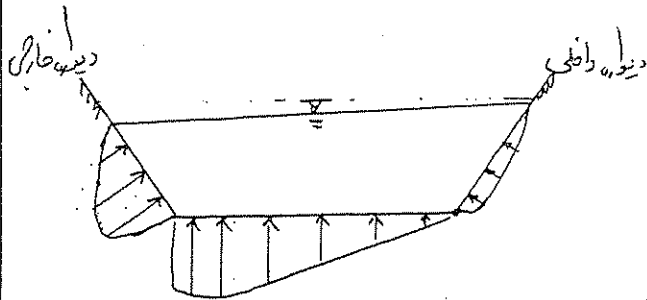
تعریف : Shear Velocity :  $U_* = \sqrt{\frac{\tau_0}{\rho}} = \sqrt{\gamma R S}$  (بند سرعت حاد)  $\rightarrow$

نکته مهم : توزیع  $\tau_0$  در کف بستر (Bed) و در دیواره ها (Banks) یک منحنی و دایره ای است از :  
(۱) شکل مقطع جریان (۲) تفاوت زبری کف بستر و دیواره ها ؛

(۳) راستای مجرای جریان (۴) غلظت بستر  
(الف) در کانال ذوزنقه ای و راستای مستقیم :



(ب) در مقطعی از یک میچ :

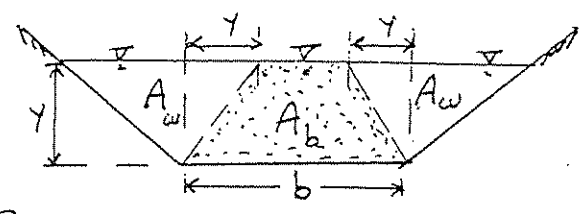
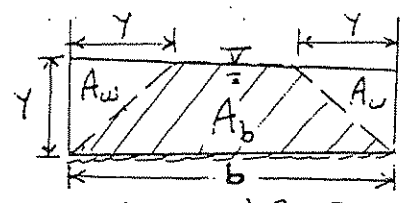


۲- تنش برش کف بستر :  $\tau_b$  : Bed Shear Stress (acting along the bed)

$\tau_b = \gamma R_b S$  : متوسط تنش برشی در کف بستر

$R_b$  = Hydraulic radius related to bed

$\gamma, S = \text{Const.} \Rightarrow \tau_b \propto R_b$  : (الف) برای مقاطع هندسی (مستطیل و دوزخه)



$\tau_b = \gamma R_b S = \gamma \left( \frac{A_b}{b} \right) S$

$A_b$  = سطح مقطع مربوط به کف بستر (bed) = بخش از سطح جریان که توسط هندسه کف اشغال شده است.  
 $A_w$  = ... دیواره ها ... = ...

ب) برای مجاری عرضی و کم عمق (Wide channels) :  $(R \approx y)$

(سهم عرض کف بر دیواره ها غالب است) :  $\tau_b \approx \tau_o = \gamma y S$  : مقطع مستطیلی عرضی

$\tau_b \approx \tau_o = \gamma D S$  ,  $(D = \frac{A}{B})$  : مقطع دایره ای عرضی  
 B = عرض سطح آب

تأثیر شکل و فضا بستر (Bed Form) :  $\tau_b$

$\tau_b = \tau'_b + \tau''_b = \gamma R'_b S + \gamma R''_b S = \gamma S (R'_b + R''_b)$

$R_b = R'_b + R''_b$

$\tau = \rho U_*^2 \Rightarrow U_*^2 = U_*'^2 + U_*''^2$

$\tau'_b$  = Due to Surface Drag (Grain Roughness) : تنش برش کف ناشی از زبری بستر (اصطفاکی)  
 $\tau''_b$  = Due to Shape and Form Drag : ... فضا بستر

شکل فضا بستر :  
 Ripple-bed Form :   
 Dune :

در کانال های مستوی یا مجاری ضریبش با بستر پایدار و تخت :

$\tau''_b \approx 0$   
 $\tau_b = \tau'_b$  (فردا بستر نباشد ← بستر تخت : Plain bed)

۳- تنش برش دیواره ها :  $\tau_w$  : wall shear stress (متوسط تنش برشی دیواره)

$\tau_w = K \tau_o$

K = ضریب تجربی تابع از شکل مقطع و راستای مجرا. (در محدوده پیچ به طور تجربی مقدار K حدود 50٪ میرسد)

۴- تنش برش جریان (Flow Shear Stress)  $\tau$  :  $\tau = \tau' + \tau''$

تنش برش جریان = مقاومت سیال در برابر جریان در اثر دو عامل زیر :  
الف) خاصیت لزجت سیال

خاصیت Cohesion  $\leftarrow$  Viscosity ( $\mu$ )

برای سیال نیوتن (آب)  $\mu = \text{const.}$

$\tau' \propto \frac{du}{dy}$  ,  $\tau' = \mu \frac{du}{dy}$  (Newton's eq. of Viscosity)

این عامل برای جریان آرام (Laminar) غالب است.

ب) انتقال مومنتم ذرات جریان (Momentum Transfer)

مقاومت در اثر تحرك و برخورد ذرات جریان  $\leftarrow$  در جریان متلاطم (Turbulent) غالب است.

Prandtle Law :  $\tau'' \propto \left(\frac{du}{dy}\right)^2$  ,  $\tau'' = \rho l^2 \left(\frac{du}{dy}\right)^2$

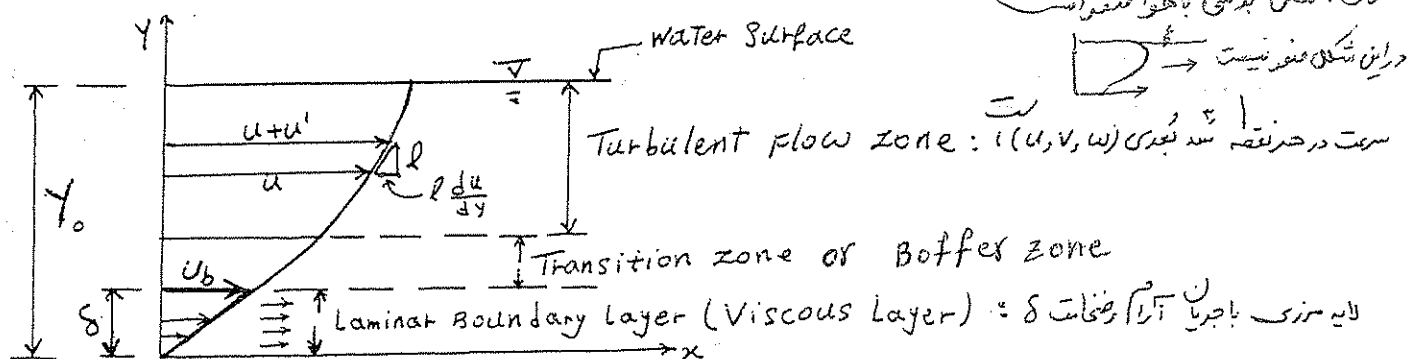
$l$  = طول مشخصه - که تغییرات مؤلفه سرعت قابل تشخیص است

$\tau = \tau' + \tau''$

در جریان متلاطم  $\tau'' \gg \tau' \Rightarrow \tau = \tau''$  (Re 1000)

## ۵- توزیع سرعت و تنش برش جریان

توزیع سرعت در امتداد قائم (Vertical Velocity Distribution) بصورت نمونه در شکل زیر است.



جریان در مجاری روباز همواره متلاطم است :  $(Re = \frac{VR}{\nu} \gg 2000)$

ولک توزیع جریان در محوت بصورت زیر تقسیم میگردد.

الف) لایه مرزی (B.L.) :

یک لایه نازک در مجاورت بستر، تحت ماکزیمم تنش برش (تأثیر اصطکاک بستر و مقاومت جریان با بستر)

جریان بصورت آرام (Laminar) است - خطوط جریان موازات یکدیگر و یک بُعدی است.

و توزیع سرعت خطی است (عامل Viscosity غالب است).  
سرعت در دیواره رکف کمتر خواهد بود ولی در کبی بالا تر تغییرات سرعت زیاد است.

Laminar  $\rightarrow n=1$

(40)

مستحقات لایه مرزی :

$$y | \delta, \quad B.L. \text{ thickness} = \delta$$

توزیع سرعت خطی (جریان آرام) :  $\frac{du}{dy} = \text{Const.} = \frac{U_b}{\delta}$  ,  $\begin{cases} \text{at } y=0 \Rightarrow u=0 \\ \text{at } y=\delta \Rightarrow u=U_b \end{cases}$  : Near-bed velocity

تنش برشی (جریان آرام) :  $\tau_0 = \mu \frac{du}{dy} = \mu \frac{U}{y} \quad : (1)$

معادله پروفیل خطی سرعت :  $u = \frac{\tau_0}{\mu} y \quad : (2)$

حد بالایی لایه مرزی :  $(U_b = \frac{\tau_0}{\mu} \delta \quad , \quad y = \delta)$

۹۵

بطور تجربی :  $Re^* = \frac{U_b \delta}{\nu} = 11.6^2 \quad : (3)$

$Re^* = \frac{(\frac{\tau_0}{\mu}) \delta^2}{\nu} = 11.6^2 \quad : (4)$

But :  $\tau_0 = \rho U_*^2$  ; and  $\nu = \frac{\mu}{\rho} \quad : (5)$

From Eqs. (4), (5) :  $\delta = 11.6 \frac{\nu}{U_*} \quad : (6)$

where,  $U_* = \sqrt{g \gamma S}$

نتیجه :

In B.L.  $\begin{cases} y | \delta = 11.6 \frac{\nu}{U_*} \\ u = P(y) = \frac{\tau_0}{\mu} y = \frac{U_*^2}{\nu} y \\ U_b = \frac{\tau_0}{\mu} \delta = \frac{U_*^2}{\nu} \delta \quad , \quad U_* = \sqrt{g \gamma S} \end{cases}$

گفته شد :

- ضخامت B.L. در مقایسه با عمق آب بسیار کم است  $\delta \ll y_0$   
 - تأیید این لایه در توزیع سرعت و محاسبه جریان قابل ملاحظه نیست ؛  
 ولی در تحلیل حرکت مواد ریزش کف بستر مهم می باشد.

بطور تجربی :

$\delta$ : (mm)	Field ملاحظات : زمانیکه ، نورخانه	Lab. تجارب : آزمایشگاه
Min.	0.02	0.1
Max.	0.33	3.9

منبع : کتاب تغییرات دینامیک رودها  
 ص ۲۹-۳۰

ب) ناصیه جریان اشغالی (Transition zone)

در این ناصیه ، توزیع سرعت و تنش نامنظم بوده و از آنجا که شرایط تغییرات و مرزبندی مشخص ندارد.  
 (۶۱)

(ج) ناحیه جریان متلاطم (Fully Turbulent zone)

در این ناحیه، ذرات جریا مولفه های سه بعدی دارد و پدیده Momentum Transfer غالب بوده و حالت اختلاط Mixing و تعدیل توزیع سرعت می باشد.

تشریح:  $\tau = \tau' + \tau''$

$\tau'' \gg \tau' \Rightarrow \tau \approx \tau'' = \rho l^2 \left( \frac{du}{dy} \right)^2$

بطور تجربی ربرای آب صاف:

فردیب تلاطم نمی گویند  $\rightarrow$  (Karman Const.)  $K \approx 0.4$  ،  $l = Ky$  : طول مشخصه

$\therefore \tau = \rho K^2 y^2 \left( \frac{du}{dy} \right)^2$

OR  $\frac{du}{dy} = \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{\rho}} \cdot \frac{1}{Ky}$

But  $U_* = \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{\rho}}$

$\Rightarrow \frac{du}{dy} = \frac{U_*}{Ky}$  (7): گزینش سرعت در ناحیه تلاطمی جریان

$\Rightarrow du = \frac{U_*}{K} \cdot \frac{dy}{y}$

$\xrightarrow[U_* : \text{known}]{K = \text{const.} = 0.4}$

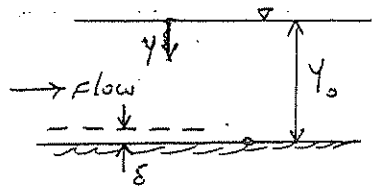
$U = \frac{U_*}{K} \ln y + C_1$

OR

$\frac{U}{U_*} = 2.5 \ln y + C$  (8):

معادله توزیع سرعت محلی (جریان متلاطم)

مسئله:  $C$  یا انتخاب B.C. مناسب.



با فرض اینکه: جریان در تمام محلی  $(y/y_0)$  متلاطم باشد.

at  $y = y_0 \Rightarrow U = 0$

From Eq. (8):  $C = -2.5 \ln y_0$  (9)

$\therefore \frac{U}{U_*} = 2.5 \ln \left( \frac{y}{y_0} \right) = 5.75 \log \left( \frac{y}{y_0} \right)$  (10)

معادله توزیع سرعت تمام با فرض جریان متلاطم در تمام محلی (Nikuradse Eq., 1933)

نکته مهم:

معادله (10) در محدوده جریان متلاطم صادق است؛ یعنی

$y/(y_0 - \delta) \Rightarrow U/U_{*0}$  (سرعت تدریجی)  $\Rightarrow U/U_{*0}$  (سرعت سطحی)

بنابراین، مشکل تعریف  $y$  در رابطه (10) است.

بعبارت ریاضی  $y$  متفاوت از محلی آب خواهد بود. و تابعی از شرایط هیدرولیکی بستری است.

## معادله توزیع سرعت در محق

راصل تجربی برای  $\gamma_0$  در رابطه (10) :

خصوصیات جریان برای  $\gamma$  تاثیر نمی زید بر  $\gamma_0$  با شایسته زیر به سه گروه تقسیم می شود.

Shields (1936) :  $Re^* = \frac{K_s U_*}{\nu}$  (Particle Reynolds no.)

$K_s$  = ارتفاع معادل زبری بسته

$$\begin{cases} K_s = D_{50} & \text{Shields (1936), van Rijn (1984)} \\ K_s = D_{65} & \text{Einstein (1950)} \end{cases}$$

حالات جریان :

① Hydraulically Smooth Boundary Flow  
where,  $Re^* \leq 5$

یعنی بسته از نظر هیدرولیکی صاف است  
(زبری نمی بینیم)

بصورت تجربی :  $\gamma_0 = \frac{\nu}{9 U_*}$  : (11)

Eq. (8), (11)  $\xrightarrow{\text{نهایت کینه}} \frac{U}{U_*} = 2.5 \ln \frac{\gamma U_*}{\nu} + 5.5 = 5.75 \log \frac{\gamma U_*}{\nu} + 5.5$  : (12)

یعنی توزیع سرعت مستقل از زبری بسته ( $K_s$ ) است.

② Fully Rough - Turbulent Boundary Flow

where,  $Re^* \gg 70$  : (Rough Boundary) یعنی بسته از نظر هیدرولیکی زبر

بصورت تجربی :  $\gamma_0 = \frac{K_s}{30}$  : (13)

Eq. (8), (13)  $\xrightarrow{\text{نهایت کینه}} \frac{U}{U_*} = 2.5 \ln \frac{\gamma}{K_s} + 8.5 = 5.75 \log \frac{\gamma}{K_s} + 8.5$  : (14)

یعنی توزیع سرعت بستگی به زبری بسته ( $K_s$ ) یا زبری نمی دارد.

③ Transitional Flow

where,  $5 < Re^* < 70 \Rightarrow \frac{U}{U_*} = 8.74 \left( \frac{\gamma U_*}{\nu} \right)^{1/4}$  : (15)

این رابطه تجربی جورت و از توزیع نهایی سرعت بدست آمده است.

معادله عمومی توزیع سرعت محقق Einstein (1950) :

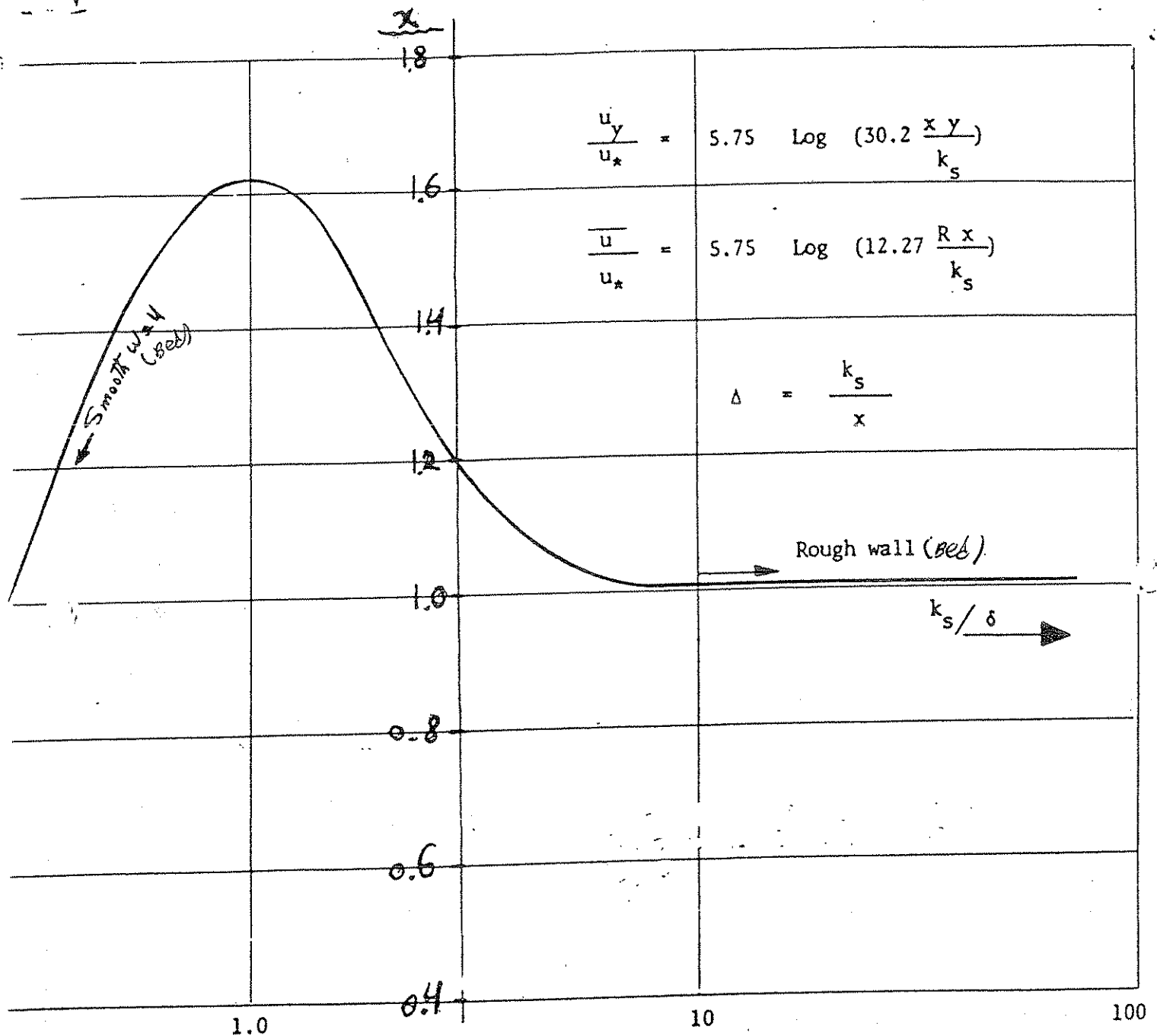
$\frac{U}{U_*} = 5.75 \log \left( \frac{30.2 \gamma x}{K_s} \right)$  : (16)

که  $K_s = D_{65}$  ;  $\gamma$  = فاصله عمقی از قاع بسته ;  $x = F\left(\frac{K_s}{\delta}\right)$  که از گراف ضمیمه بدست می آید.  
(تابعی از حالت جریان است).

معادله عمومی Einstein (1950) که توسط van Rijn (1993) تراشیده شده است :

$\frac{U}{U_*} = 5.75 \log \left( \frac{\gamma x}{K_s} \right) + 8.5$  : (17) (۱۳) ← ثابت کنید





$$K_s = D_{65}$$

$$\frac{U}{U_*} = 5.75 \log \frac{y x}{K_s} + 8.5$$

$$\frac{K_s}{\delta}$$

ضریب تصحیح  $x$  در رابطه توزیع سرعت

$\delta$  : Thickness of viscous sublayer (over the bed / from the wall)  
ضخامت لایه مرزی (از بستر یا دیواره)

$$\delta = \frac{11.6 \nu}{U_*}$$

$$U_* = \sqrt{\tau / \rho} = g R S$$

Shear velocity

$\nu$  = kinematic viscosity

$$K_s = D_{65}$$

$U_y$  : سرعت در عمق  $y$  از کف

$\bar{U}$  : سرعت متوسط عمقی

$R$  : شعاع حیدرآبگویی

لزجت کینماتیکی

۶- سرعت متوسط ( $\bar{V}$  : Average Velocity)

سرعت متوسط در مقطع عرضی :  $\bar{V} = \frac{1}{A} \int_A u dA$

سرعت متوسط عمقی (Depth-averaged velocity) :  $\bar{V} = \frac{1}{y_0} \int_0^{y_0} u dy$

الف) در کانالی عمیق مستطیلی :  $u = f(y)$  depends on  $Re^*$

۱- الف) Hydraulically smooth bed:

$$\bar{V} = \frac{u_*}{y_0} \int_0^{y_0} (2.5 \ln \frac{y u_*}{\nu} + 5.5) dy = u_* \left[ 5.75 \log \frac{y_0 u_*}{\nu} + 3 \right] \quad (18)$$

۲- الف) Rough flow:

$$\bar{V} = u_* \left[ 5.75 \log \frac{y_0}{K_s} + 6 \right] \quad (19)$$

۳- الف) Transitional flow:

$$\bar{V} = u_* \left[ 5.75 \log \frac{12.27 y_0}{K_s} x \right]$$

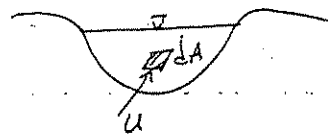
در این رابطه  $y_0$  = عمق آب ،  $x$  = ازگراف ضمیمه

ب) برای مقاطع غیر مستطیلی : به مرجع شماره (۶) - ص ۲۷ - مراجعه شود.  
(کتاب هیدرولیک راب)

۷- ضرایب توزیع سرعت (Velocity Distribution Coeff.)

در معادله انرژی :  $\alpha = \frac{\int u^3 dA}{\bar{V}^3 A}$

در معادله مومنتم :  $\beta = \frac{\int u^2 dA}{\bar{V}^2 A}$



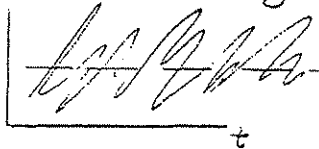
$$\alpha > \beta > 1$$

به مرجع شماره (۶) - ص (۴۱-۳۱) - مراجعه شود.  
(کتاب هیدرولیک راب)

# تلاطم و حد تلاطمی جریان

## Turbulence and Turbulence level

جریان در مجاری روباز عموماً تلاطم (Turbulent) است.  
 خصوصیات جریان تلاطم :  
 - نوسانات شدید زمانی در بردار سرعت (مقدار و جهت) در هر نقطه  
 - سه بعدی بودن سرعت در هر نقطه  $\Rightarrow$  Mixing و اختلاط

u.   $\bar{U} = \frac{1}{T} \int u dt$  : (Time-averaged velocity)

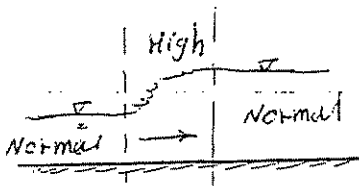
$$\vec{V} = u + v + w$$

\* شاخص مهم در تشخیص حد تلاطم جریان (Turbulence Level) :  
 - بطور کلی : از نظر کیفی :

1. Normal Turbulence Level :  $(\frac{R}{W} > 26)$  در پیچهای ملایم
2. High " " :  $(\frac{R}{W} < 26 \Rightarrow \text{Sharp Bends})$  در پیچهای تند

در محل وقوع جوش هیدرولیکی ، در پاشش ریزش سازه ها آبی ،

در محل پایه های پل ، سوانج ، آبگن ها و ...



- از نظر کمی :

Turbulence = Random fluctuation of flow velocity around the mean value.

شاخص : Turbulence Intensity (TI) : تلاطم

$$TI = \frac{\text{RMS of } U}{\bar{U}} = \frac{\text{"Root Mean Square" of Streamwise velocity component}}{\text{Time-averaged velocity in Streamwise direction}}$$

مهم : اشاره گیر سرعت در تدریجی کمتر مورد نظر است - (Near-bed velocity)

Near-bed velocity ( $U_b$ ) = velocity at 10% of the water depth above the bed.

به Fig. (2.15) و Table (2.6) من HR-Wallingford (1978) مراجعه شود.  $\leftarrow$  صفحه بعد

$U_b$  ؟

از نتایج تجربی

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{For } TI \leq 0.5 \Rightarrow U_b = (-1.48 TI + 1.04) U_d \\ \text{For } TI > 0.5 \Rightarrow U_b = (-1.48 TI + 1.34) U_d \end{array} \right.$$

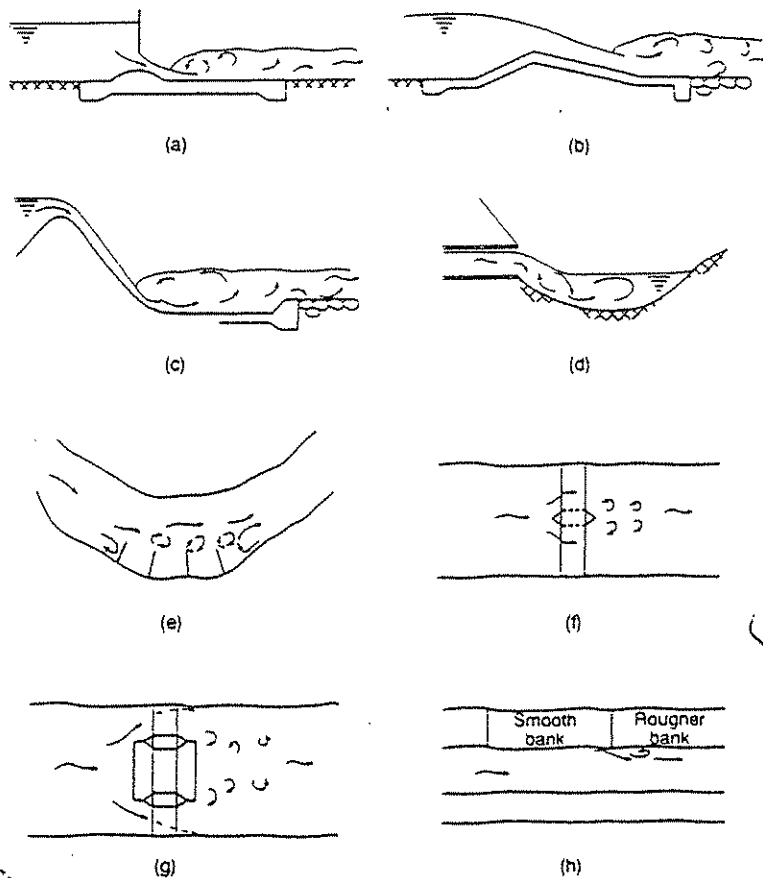
For  $TI < 0.2$  , Straight River Reaches  $\Rightarrow U_b = (0.74 - 0.9) U_d$

where,  $U_d$  = Depth-averaged velocity =  $\frac{1}{Y} \int u dy$

$U_d \approx U_m = \frac{Q}{A}$  (Mean velocity)  $\Leftarrow$  در صورتیکه اطلاعات  $U$  در روابط بالا موجود نباشد

Also, in Rough Turbulent Flow :  $U_b = \frac{U_m}{0.68 \log(4/D_{50}) + 0.71}$  (معمولاً  $Y=4$ )

- ۱- ارتفاع سطح آب
- ۲- آسفتی و نوسانات در سطح آب و ایجاد موج های فونانی
- ۳- نیروهای موی (در غشایش) بر روی کف و دیواره ها
- ۴- حمل و انتقال رسوب



شال های از  
تلاطم شدید  
جریان

(Eddy current)  $\leftrightarrow$  (High Turbulence)

Figure 2.15. Typical situations of high turbulence: (a) gated weir; (b) ungated weir; (c) spillway and stilling basin; (d) culvert (discharging perpendicularly to a stream); (e) groynes (plan view); (f) bridge piers (plan view); (g) cofferdam (plan view); (h) transitions (plan view)

Table 2.6. Turbulence levels

حد تلاطم جریان

Situation	Turbulence level	
	Qualitative	Turbulence intensity $TI$
Straight river or channel reaches and wide natural bends ( $R/W > 26$ )*	Normal (low)	0.12
Edges of revertments in straight reaches	Normal (higher)	0.20
Bridge piers, caissons and groynes; transitions	Medium to high	0.35-0.50 <sup>†</sup>
Downstream of hydraulic structures (weirs, culverts, stilling basins)	Very high	0.60 <sup>‡</sup>

\*  $R$  — centreline radius of bend;  $W$  — water surface width at the upstream end of the bend (see Section 2.4.2).

<sup>†</sup> The lower limit should be used when protecting across the width of the river or channel whereas the upper limit refers to local protection around piers or groynes.

<sup>‡</sup> Important note: this value refers to turbulence levels persisting downstream of hydraulic structures or of stilling basins and concrete aprons, where these are present: the value therefore does not apply to sections very close to large weirs or spillways not provided with energy dissipation structures.

o Sharp Bend :  $R/W < 26$

نوسانات زمانی سرعت (سرعت لحظه‌ای  $U_t$ ) در یک نقطه از جریان  
 فرکانس اندازه‌گیری سرعت  $(\frac{1}{20} \text{ sec})$  یا ۲۰ بار در ثانیه - با دستگاه ثبت کننده الکتریکی

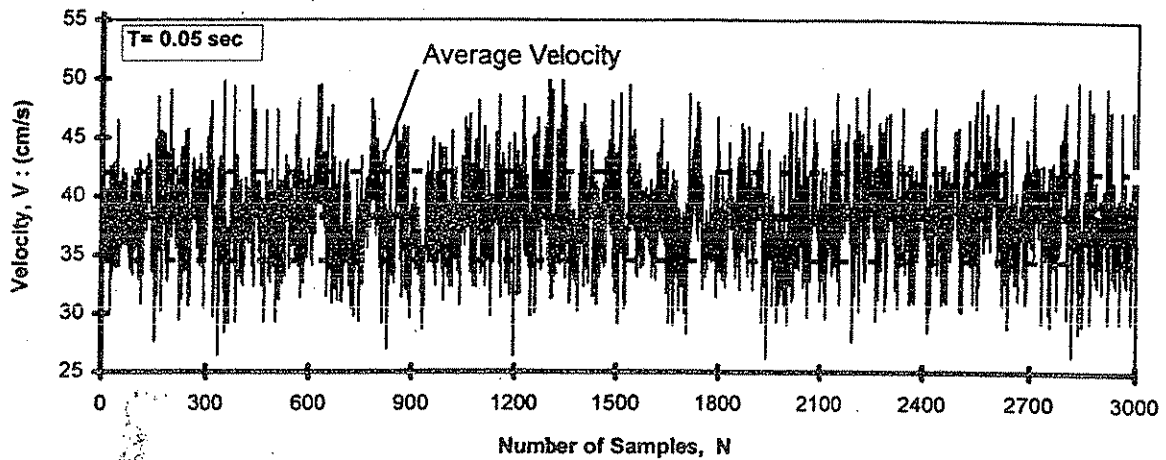


Figure (3-9): Velocity fluctuations at a point in flow behind a groyne

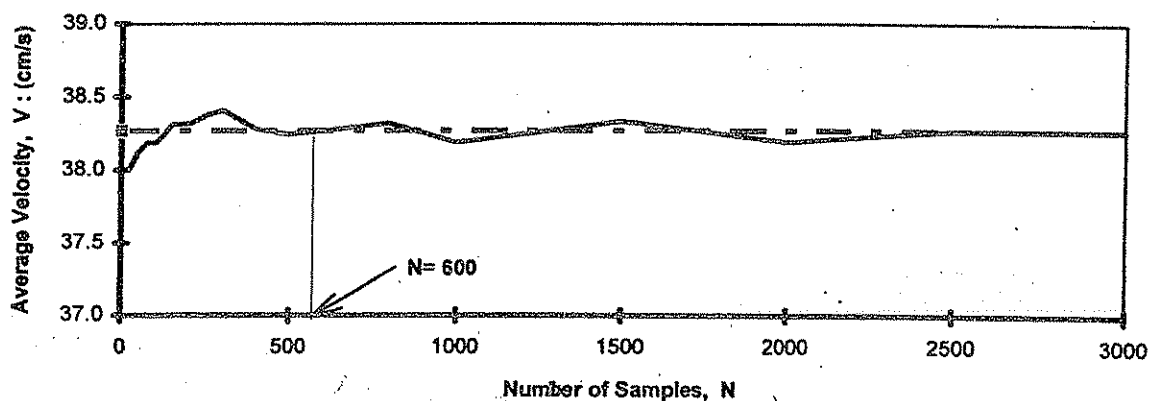


Figure (3-10): Time-averaged velocity at a point in flow behind a groyne

شکل (3-9): اندازه‌گیری سرعت در یک نقطه از جریان با دستگاه ثبت کننده الکتریکی  
 هر بار که فرکانس اندازه‌گیری سرعت بیشتر شد تغییرات سرعت و نوسانات شدیدتری مشاهده  
 می‌شود. این پدیده در اثر وجود زرات انتقالی همراه با Turbulance (تurbulence) دیده می‌شود.  
 در این شکل سرعت در یک نقطه از جریان با فرکانس ۲۰ بار در ثانیه، 3000 بار اندازه‌گیری شده و نمودار آن رسم



# MEAN FLOW AND TURBULENCE IN OPEN-CHANNEL BEND

By Koen Blanckaert<sup>1</sup> and Walter H. Graf,<sup>2</sup> Member, ASCE

**ABSTRACT:** Flow over a developed bottom topography in a bend has been investigated experimentally. The measuring section is in the outer-bank half of the cross section at 60° into the bend. Spatial distributions of the mean velocities, turbulent stresses, and mean-flow and turbulent kinetic energy are presented. The cross-sectional motion contains two cells of circulation: besides the classical helical motion (center-region cell), a weaker counterrotating cell (outer-bank cell) is observed in the corner formed by the outer bank and the water surface. The downstream velocity in the outer half-section is higher than the one in straight uniform flow; the core of maximum velocities is found close to the separation between both circulation cells, well below the water surface. The turbulence structure in a bend is different from that in a straight flow, most notably in a reduction of the turbulent activity toward the outer bank. Both the outer-bank cell and reduced turbulent activity have a protective effect on the outer bank and the adjacent bottom and thus influence the stability of the flow perimeter and the bend morphology.

## INTRODUCTION

Most natural rivers meander and tend to erode the outer banks in their successive bends. Important engineering efforts are undertaken on rivers of all scales to stabilize the banklines. This is an essential component of projects to improve navigability: increase flood capacity and decrease floodplain destruction; avoid massive loss of fertile soil (Odgaard 1984); and reduce dredging requirements of the river. Recently, there has been an increased interest in the modeling of the erosional behavior of the outer bank (see the discussion section). However, little is known about the characteristics of the mean flow and turbulence near the outer bank, where the flow pattern is highly three-dimensional (3D).

A large amount of research on flow in bends has been performed in the last decades, but most of the experimental investigations concentrated on the central portion of the flow and often did not cover the outer-bank region in detail. Moreover, in most investigations a fixed rectangular section with a smooth bed was imposed on the flow. This is different from the rough turbulent flow over a typical developed bed topography, as found in nature. Furthermore, in most experimental investigations, not all of the three velocity and six turbulent stress components were measured, and the measuring grids were rather coarse. A literature review of experimental research on flow in open-channel bends is given in Table 1.

More recently, environmental problems such as the spreading and mixing of pollutants or the transport in suspension of polluted sediments have become of major concern in river management. These phenomena are closely related to the turbulence structure of the flow.

The scarcity of reliable experimental data on the 3D flow pattern and turbulence structure, particularly in bends, is responsible for the lack of insight into the physical mechanisms, such as those related to outer-bank erosion and the mixing of pollutants. Furthermore, this lack hampers the verification of investigations by means of numerical simulations.

In this study, detailed measurements were made of a rough turbulent flow in equilibrium with its developed bottom topography. Special attention was given to the complex flow

region near the fixed vertical outer bank. Nonintrusive measurements were made on a fine grid with an acoustic Doppler velocity profiler (ADVP), which simultaneously measures instantaneous profiles of all velocity components. This enables one to evaluate the three mean velocity components,  $v_j$  ( $j = s, n, z$ ), along the downstream, transversal, and vertical axes, respectively [Figs. 1 (a and c)], as well as the six turbulent stress components,  $-\rho \overline{v_j v_k}$  ( $j, k = s, n, z$ ).

This paper aims at improving our understanding of the flow and turbulence in bends and their relationship to boundary erosion and spreading (mixing) of pollutants. Furthermore, due to the detailed measurements on a fine grid, we want to provide a useful data set for verification of numerical simulations of the flow field. The paper gives a description of the experimental facility, hydraulic parameters, ADVP, and data-treatment procedures. Spatial distributions of the mean downstream velocity, mean cross-sectional motion, turbulent normal and shear stresses, and mean-flow and turbulent kinetic energy are presented and analyzed. The importance of the observed flow and turbulence distributions with respect to the stability of the outer bank and the adjacent bottom are discussed.

## EXPERIMENTAL INSTALLATION

Experiments were performed in a  $B = 0.4$  m wide laboratory flume with fixed vertical sidewalls made of plexiglass, consisting of a 2 m long straight approach section followed by a 120° bend with a constant radius of curvature of  $R = -2$  m [Fig. 1(a);  $R$  is negative along the  $n$ -axis]. Initially, a horizontal bottom of nearly uniform sand,  $d_{50} = 2.1$  mm, was installed. Subsequently, a discharge corresponding to clear-water scour conditions was established. As a result, the bottom in the straight approach channel remained stable, but a typical bar-pool bottom topography developed in the bend. Ultimately, this topography stabilized and there was no active sediment transport along the flume. The resulting developed bottom topography is shown in Fig. 1(a). The transversal bottom slope increases from  $\sim 0^\circ$  at the bend entry to a maximum value of  $\sim 24^\circ$  at  $45^\circ$  into the bend and subsequently shows an oscillating behavior [Fig. 1(b)]. A number of analytical models for the flow and the bottom topography have been proposed that qualitatively predict such a behavior (de Vriend and Struiksmma 1984; Odgaard 1986). A comparison of different models can be found in Parker and Johannesson (1989). A superelevation of the water surface [Fig. 1(b)] develops from the bend entry onto  $\sim 45^\circ$  into the bend. Subsequently it remains nearly constant (the fluctuations are within the measuring accuracy) at  $\sim 0.65^\circ$ , yielding a difference of  $\Delta z_s = 4.5$  mm  $= 1.5(B/R)(U^2/g)$  in water surface elevation between the two banks.

The hydraulic conditions of the flow over this bottom to-

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(99-2)



# A simple method for measuring shear stress on rough boundaries

## Une méthode simple pour mesurer les contraintes tangentielles sur des parois rugueuses

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### ABSTRACT

This technical note presents a simple method for the real time measurement of bed shear stress with a LabView Program for turbulent flow over uniformly rough boundaries, based on the classical logarithmic velocity distribution equation. The method is based on a step-wise linearization of the additive coefficient in the classical logarithmic velocity distribution equation.

### RÉSUMÉ

Cette note technique présente une méthode simple pour la mesure en temps réel de la contrainte tangentielle le long du lit à l'aide d'un programme LabView d'écoulement turbulent sur une paroi de rugosité uniforme, basé sur l'équation classique de distribution logarithmique de la vitesse. La méthode est fondée sur une linéarisation par morceaux du terme additif de l'équation de distribution logarithmique de la vitesse.

### Introduction

In open channels, turbulent flow over rough boundaries is common and it is often necessary to find the bed shear stress to calculate the velocities and flow rate, possible erosion of the bed as well as the rate of sediment transport. A simple method is to use the Preston tube (Preston 1954), in which the dynamic pressure  $\Delta p$  measured by a total head tube located on the boundary facing the flow, is correlated with the boundary shear stress  $\tau_0$  using the law of the wall. For smooth boundaries, the calibration curve provided by Patel (1965) is generally used whereas for uniformly rough boundaries, the calibration curves developed by Hollingshead and Rajaratnam (1980) may be used. In the course of writing a LabView program for real time measurement of bed shear stress on uniformly rough boundaries, it was found necessary to develop a modified procedure and this method is presented herein.

### Development of the method

For a Preston tube (which is really a Pitot tube) of external diameter of  $d$  placed on an uniformly rough bed with an equivalent roughness height of  $k_s$ , facing the flow, neglecting the effects of turbulence and the Pitot displacement effect, the velocity  $u_0$  at the center of the tube, may be assumed to be given by the equation

$$\frac{u_0}{u_*} = 5.75 \log [y_0/k_s] + B \quad (1)$$

where  $y_0$  is the distance of the center of the tube from the datum of the rough bed,  $u_*$  is the shear velocity, equal to  $\sqrt{(\tau_0/\rho)}$ ;  $\tau_0$  is the boundary shear stress;  $\rho$  is the mass density of the fluid and  $B$  is given by the following set of equations (Nikuradse 1933):

$$B = 5.75 \log R_s + 5.5 \quad \text{for } R_s \leq 3.5 \quad (2a)$$

$$B = 3.5 \log R_s + 6.59 \quad \text{for } 3.5 < R_s \leq 7.1 \quad (2b)$$

$$B = 9.58 \quad \text{for } 7.1 < R_s \leq 14.1 \quad (2c)$$

$$B = 11.5 - 1.62 \log R_s \quad \text{for } 14.1 < R_s \leq 70 \quad (2d)$$

$$B = 8.5 \quad \text{for } 70 < R_s \quad (2e)$$

In Eq. 2,  $R_s = u_* k_s / \nu$  and the variation of  $B$  with  $R_s$  is also shown in Fig. 1. Since  $B$  is in general a function of the unknown parameter  $R_s$ , Eq. 1 may be seen as an implicit equation for calculating the shear velocity  $u_*$ .

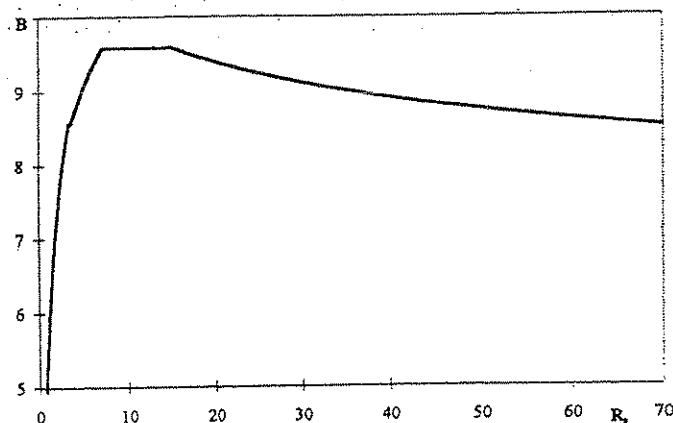


Fig. 1. Variation of  $B$  with  $R_s$ .

For a given roughness and Pitot (or Preston) tube, the first term on the right hand side of Eq. 1 is a constant, which may be written as  $A$ . Multiplying Eq. 1 with  $R_s$ ,

$$R_0 = AR_s + BR_s \quad (3)$$

where  $R_0 = u_0 k_s / \nu$  and  $R_0$  can be calculated for a given fluid, roughness and measured velocity. The first term on the right hand side of Eq. 3 is a linear function of  $R_s$ . For  $R_s \leq 70$ , the variation of the second term with  $R_s$  is shown in Fig. 2 which is simpler than the variation of  $B$  in Fig. 1. When  $R_s$  is greater than 70, the second term is also a linear function of  $R_s$ , equal to  $8.5 R_s$ . Approximating the nonlinear variation of  $BR_s$  by two linear equations (shown as dotted lines in Fig. 2), Eq. 3 is rewritten as

$$R_0 = AR_s + aR_s + b \quad (4)$$

Revision received April, 2000. Open for discussion till April 30, 2001.

where  $a$  and  $b$  are constants. The constants  $a$  and  $b$  were found to have the values of 9.94 and  $-4.70$  for  $R_s$  in the range of 1.0 to 14.1; 8.30 and 19.50 for  $R_s$  in the range of 14.1 to 70 and 8.50 and 0 for  $R_s$  70. Fig. 3 shows the relative error introduced by the linearization of  $BR_s$ , which is less than  $\pm 2\%$  for  $R_s$  in the range of 8 to 70 and less than  $\pm 5\%$  for  $R_s$  in the range 1 to 8.

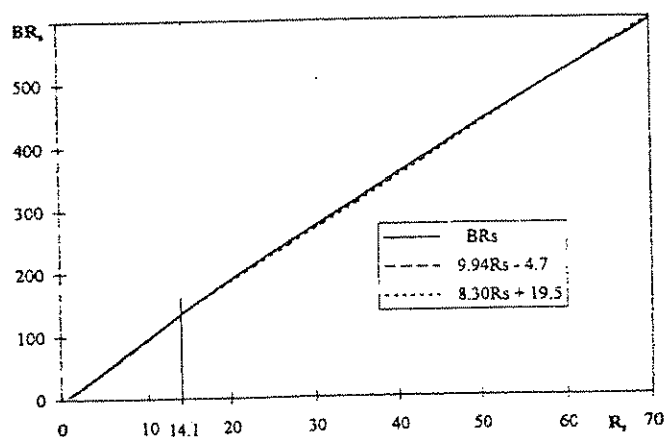


Fig. 2. Variation of  $BR_s$  with  $R_s$

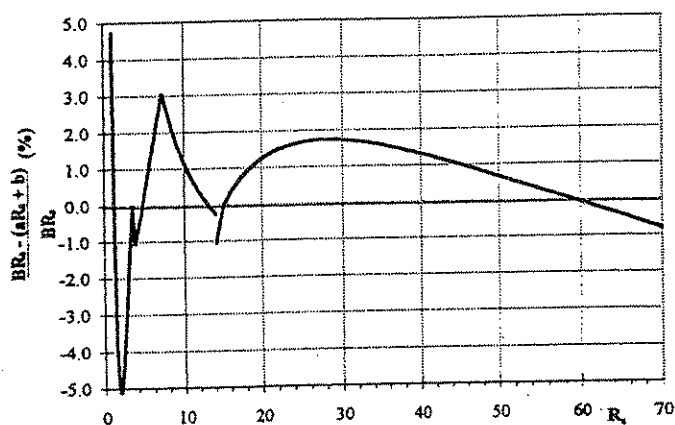


Fig. 3. Variation of the relative error of linearization with  $R_s$

Eq. 4 may be rewritten as

$$R_s = \frac{R_0 - b}{A + a} \quad (5)$$

In order to calculate the shear velocity with Eq. 5, it is effective to start with the ( $a = 8.30$  &  $b = 19.50$ ) set for  $R_s$  in the intermediate range of 14.1 to 70. After calculating  $R_s$  from Eq. 5, the proper values of  $a$  and  $b$  are obtained to give the final value of  $u_*$  from the equation

$$u_* = \frac{u_0 - b \frac{\nu}{k_s}}{A + a} \quad (6)$$

This technique has been successfully built into a LabView program and has been used to measure the bed shear stress in a project on flow around simple bodies.

## Conclusions

A simple method is presented in this note for the real time measurement of bed shear stress for turbulent flow over uniformly rough boundaries, based on the classical logarithmic velocity distribution equation. The technique is based on a step-wise linearization of the additive coefficient in the classical logarithmic velocity distribution equation. The relative error introduced by this approximation has also been assessed.

## Appendix I. References

- HOLLINGSHEAD, A. B. and RAJARATNAM, N.(1980). A Calibration Chart for the Preston Tube. J. of Hydraulic Research, IAHR, 18(4), 313-326.
- NIKURADSE, J.(1933). English Translation: Law of Flow in Rough Pipes. TM 1292, NACA, USA (in German: Gesetzmässigkeiten der turbulenten Strömung in rauhen Röhren. Forsch. Ing. Wesen, Heft 361).
- PRESTON, J. H.(1954). The Determination of Turbulent Skin Friction by means of Pitot Tubes. J. of Royal Aero. Soc. London, England. 58, 109-121.

## Appendix II. Notation

The following symbols are used in this note:

- $A$  constant in the velocity distribution equation;  
 $a$  coefficient;  
 $B$  coefficient in the velocity distribution equation;  
 $b$  coefficient;  
 $d$  diameter of the Preston tube;  
 $k_s$  equivalent sand roughness;  
 $R_0$  parameter equal to  $u_0 k_s / \nu$ ;  
 $R_s$  parameter equal to  $u_* k_s / \nu$ ;  
 $u_0$  velocity at the geometric center of the tube of diameter of  $d$ ;  
 $u_*$  shear velocity;  
 $y_0$  distance of the geometric center of the tube from the datum;  
 $\Delta p$  dynamic pressure indicated by the tube;  
 $\nu$  kinematic viscosity of the fluid;  
 $\rho$  mass density of the fluid;  
 $\tau_0$  boundary shear stress.

# Incipient Motion / آستانه حرکت مواد رسوبی

## The Threshold of Motion / Initiation of Motion of Sediment Particles

مقدمه:  
الف)

حالات جریان بر روی یک بستر - با مواد غیر چسبند (Non-Cohesive) و در جهت اندر آستانه حرکت جریان:

### 1) Clear-Water Flow :

مواد بستر حرکت ندارند: دبی رسوب ورودی و دبی رسوب خروجی برابر است:  $(Q_s)_{in} = (Q_s)_{out}$  (حالات خاص: از بلارت رسوب وارد نشود)

### 2) The Threshold of motion :

شرایط آستانه حرکت مواد بستر.

در: طوافی / کانالاس پایدار با مواد بستر فرسایش: طوافی اندک سنگها و خاکی در بستر و دریاها را

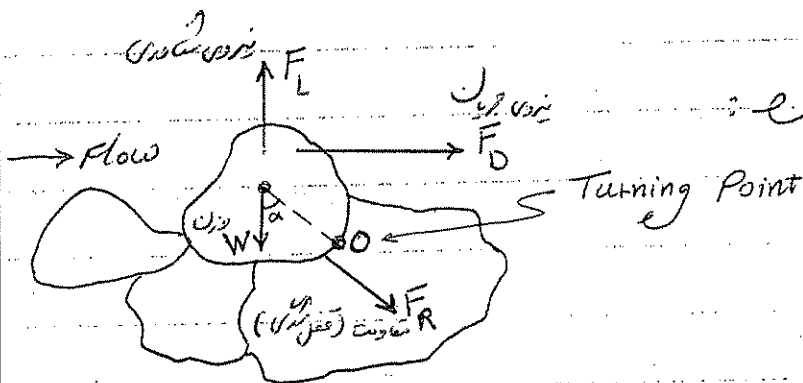
### 3) Sediment Transporting flow :

جریان با حمل رسوبات بستر (جریان صلیبی در رودخانه ها در شرایط طوافی)

موضوع بررسی: نقش بارها رسوبی و تغییرات فرم بستر؛ برآورد بار رسوبی در

ب) شرایط فیزیکی آستانه حرکت:

بر اساس تحلیل نیروها و گشتاور حاصل می شود:



### 1) Applied Forces :

#### (1-1) Fluid Forces

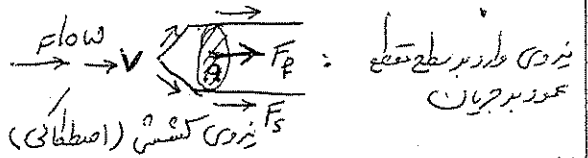
نیروهای سیال

$F_L$  : Lift Force (BOYANT FORCE) = نیروی شناوری

$F_D$  : Drag Force ;  $F_D = F_s + F_p$

$F_s$  = Surface Drag (Viscous Skin Friction Force)

$F_p$  = Form Drag (Normal Drag Force)



Generally :  $F_D = C_D \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 \right) A$

↑ Drag Coeff.

#### 1-2) The Weight Component

$= W \sin \theta$

( $\theta$  = زاویه شیب بستر نسبت به افق)  
( $\gamma \gamma$ )

## 2) Resisting Forces (نیروهای مقاوم)

2-1) Normal Component of Weight ( $W$ )

2-2) Any forces due to neighbouring particles (keying) :  $F_R$

نیروی مقاوم ناشی از قفل شدن ذرات مجاور در یکدیگر

$$M_a = M_R$$

گشتاور در نیروها متساوی گشتاور در نیروهای وارده

شرایط آستانه حرکت : حول محور چرخش معین (O) :

مسئلات در روش تحلیلی :

- ۱- جریان متلاطم  $\Rightarrow$  غسانات در نیروهای جریان (در مقدار، جهت و نقطه اثر)
- ۲- غیریکنواختی اندازه مواد بستری (از نظر شکل، اندازه، موقعیت قرارگیری)
- ۳- مشکل ارزیابی نیروی  $F_R$  (ناشی از قفل شدن ذرات غیریکنواخت)
- ۴- تأثیر متقابل ذرات با یکدیگر در شرایطی که حرکت در میانه (نیروی متقابل جدید)

نتیجه گیری

الف) یک روش تحلیلی جامع برای شرایط آستانه حرکت مواد بستری ارائه شده است.

روش های موجود "تجرب" یا "تحلیلی-تجرب" هستند.

معمولاً برای تحلیل یک ذره متفرد غیرچسبنده استوار است.

بطور کلی دو روش ارزیابی ارائه شده است.

Two Approaches :

1) Shear Stress Approach : روش تنش برشی

برای تعیین یک نیرو (یا تنش) حسی یا بحرانی در آستانه حرکت ذرات

2) Velocity Approach : روش سرعت حد

برای تعیین یک سرعت حسی (Competent velocity) برای شروع حرکت ذرات

$$V_{cr} = K \cdot W^{1/6}$$

شکل :  $Brahms (1753)$  :  $V_{cr}$  : سرعت حسی  $W$  : وزن ذره

ب) از نظر فیزیکی و تجربی :

بسیار عمومی : شرایطی از جریان که مواد بستری بطور عمومی (و یا مشخص چندگانه) شروع حرکت میکنند.

زیرا در آنجا { ذرات تا جریان متلاطم به یک حد سرعت معین نمیتوان رسید که همه ذرات دانه بندی و قفل شدن ذرات } به هم و بطور ناآهانی در هم زمان شروع به حرکت کنند.

$\Rightarrow$  Condition at which bed movement has become generally established.

\* مکانیزم جریان روی بستر رسوب از مرجع شماره (۱) - کمی درسی ضمیمه مطالعه شود.

# روش های ارزیابی شرایط آستانه حرکت

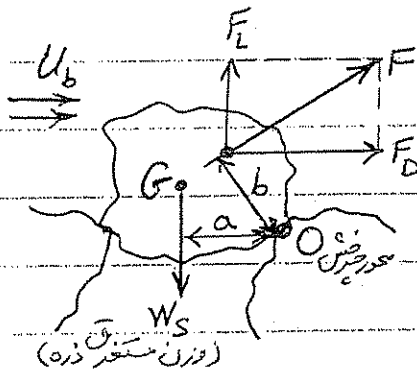
## ① روش تنش برشی (Shear Stress Approach)

۱- الف) روش تحلیلی: بر اساس ارزیابی برآیند نیروهای مؤثر بر یک ذره رسوبی متغیر در شرایط آستانه حرکت می باشد: White (1940)

برپایه فرضیات زیاد در حل تحلیلی، روش عمومی و کاربردی نیست.  
به مرجع شماره (۶) - ص ۷۷-۷۹: و مرجع شماره (۲) - P.P. 20-21 - مراجعه شود.

۱- ب) روش نیمه تحلیلی (تحلیلی-تجربی): بر اساس تحلیل پارامترهای مؤثر در حرکت ذره بارش تحلیلی-اجزایی و نتایج تجربی انجام یافته است: Shields (1936)

در این روش، پایداری یک ذره غیرچسبده بصورت تابعی از نیروهای  $F_L$  و  $F_D$  و  $W_s$  در نظر گرفته شده که نیروی برآیند  $F$  جایگزین دو نیروی  $F_L$  و  $F_D$  میشود.  
ذرات بصورت کروی (با قطر معادل  $D$ ) در نظر گرفته شده، و سرعت مؤثر جریان معادل سرعت نزدیک بستر ( $U_b$ : Near-bed velocity) قرار میگیرد.



در شرایط تعادل: At Equilibrium State:

$$M_o = F \cdot b = W_s \cdot a \quad (1)$$

$$\begin{cases} \vec{F} = \vec{F}_D + \vec{F}_L & \text{با فرض غلبه } F_D \text{ بر } F_L \\ F = C \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho U_b^2 \right) A = C_F \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho U_b^2 \right) \frac{\pi D^2}{4} & (2) \\ C_F = \text{Combined the Lift and Drag Coefficients} \\ W_s = \frac{\pi}{6} D^3 (\rho_s - \rho_w) g & (3) \end{cases}$$

Eq. (2) and (3) in Eq. (1):

$$\left[ C_F \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho U_b^2 \right) \left( \frac{\pi D^2}{4} \right) \right] \cdot b = \left[ \frac{\pi}{6} D^3 (\rho_s - \rho_w) g \right] \cdot a \quad (4)$$

Assuming  $U_b \propto U_*$  where  $U_* = \sqrt{\tau_b / \rho}$ : Shear velocity

$\tau_b$  = Bed Shear Stress

$$\text{Then, Eq. (4): } \frac{\rho U_*^2}{(\rho_s - \rho_w) g D} = F_s \quad (5) \rightarrow \text{ضریب تابع می باشد}$$

$$\text{But, } S_g = \frac{\rho_s}{\rho_w}$$

$$F_s = \frac{U_*^2}{(S_g - 1) g D} = \frac{\tau_b}{\gamma (S_g - 1) D} \quad (6) \quad \text{Shields Function}$$

ارزیابی تابع  $F_s$  در رابطه (6) ؟

از روش تحلیل ابعادی (Dimensional Analysis) - استفاده از تئوری  $\pi$  :

$F_1 (\tau, (\rho_s - \rho), D, v, g) = 0$  پارامترهای مؤثر :

$F_2 \left( \frac{\tau}{\gamma(s_g - 1)D}, \frac{u_* D}{\nu} \right) = 0$  معبر بر روی نمودار : (7)

But;

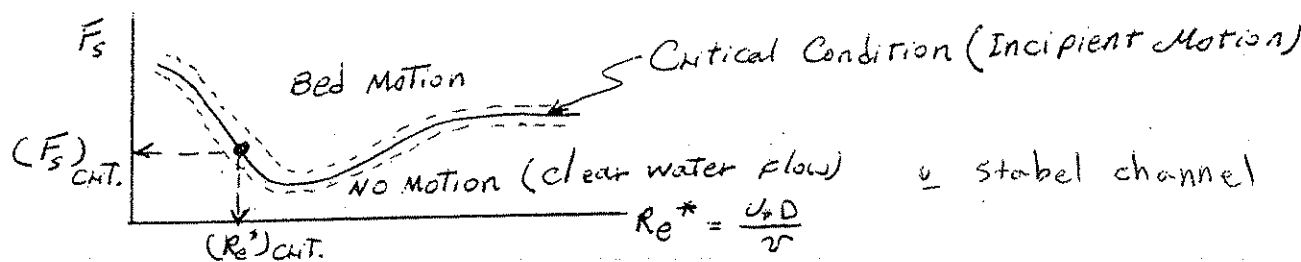
$\frac{\tau}{\gamma(s_g - 1)D} = F_s$  ,  $Re^* = \frac{u_* D}{\nu}$  : Particle Reynold No.

Shields به طور تجربی نشان داد که  $Re^*$  پارامتر خوبی برای خصوصیات جریان در نزدیکی بستر است.

From Eq. (7):

$F_2 (F_s, Re^*) = 0 \Rightarrow F_s = f(Re^*)$  (8)

Shields رابطه  $F_s$  و  $Re^*$  را به طور تجربی به صورت "دیاگرام شیلز" (Shields Diagram) ارائه نمود.



Shields (1936) :  $D = D_{50}$   
 R.J. Keller (1993) ; Henderson (1967) :  $D = D_{50} = D_{75}$   
لایه زیر سطحی  
(یا نمونه برای حجم)

در مطلب ضمنی ، نتایج اولیه Shields را نیز دیاگرام اصلاح شده شیلز (Modified Shields)

ref. (1)  $\rightarrow$  Fig. (1.3)

ref. (2)  $\rightarrow$  Fig. (2.2)

ارائه گردیده است . برای غنیمت مطالعات یکپارچه در اصلاح نمودار شیلز ، روند این مختصر تغییر اساسی یافته است .

مختصر شیلز نشانگر شرایط بحرانی در استانه حرکت مواد بستر است .

$(F_s)_{crit.} = \frac{\tau_c}{\gamma(s_g - 1)D}$

where,  $\tau_c$  = Critical Shear Stress - for incipient of bed Motion of Size  $D$

$(u_*)_c = \sqrt{\tau_c / \rho}$  : Critical Shear velocity

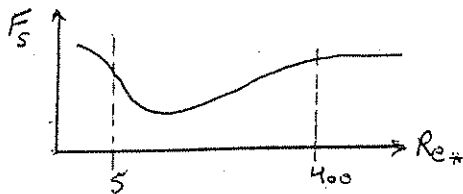
$F_s < (F_s)_c \rightarrow \tau < \tau_c$  (بستر پویا) (۷۵)

در سیتی Shields "سه نامیه هیدرونیکی جریان قابل تشخیص است:

- 1)  $Re_* < 5 \Rightarrow F_s \propto \frac{1}{Re_*}$  : Hydraulically Smooth Flow  
(Laminar flow near the bed)  $\Leftarrow$  تاثیر لزجت در کف غالب است.
- 2)  $Re_* > 400 \Rightarrow F_s \approx \text{Const.}$  ,  $F_s = \underline{0.056}$  OR  $\underline{0.047}$   
: Fully Turbulent flow at bed,  
where laminar sublayer at bed has no effect on the velocity distribution.  
بیست و یکم، جریان در کف تابع  $Re_*$  نیست (تأثیر لزجت در کف نیست)
- 3)  $5 < Re_* < 400$  : Transition zone ( $F_s = f(Re_*)$ )

\* فرضیات توسعه سیتی Shields و محدودیت های کاربردی آن توسط Yang (1996) در مرجع شماره (۲) - 22-23 PP شرح داده شده است. مطالعه کنید

"بر اساس تنش برشی بحرانی از سیتی شیلدز"



الف) روش مستقیم از سیتی شیلدز:

$$F_s = f(Re_*) \quad \text{و} \quad F_s = \frac{\tau}{\gamma(S_g - 1)D} = \frac{U_*^2}{gD(S_g - 1)} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{matrix} F_s = f(Re_*) \\ F_s = \frac{\tau}{\gamma(S_g - 1)D} \end{matrix}} \right\} \Rightarrow F_s = \left[ \frac{v^2}{gD^3(S_g - 1)} \right] Re_*^2$$

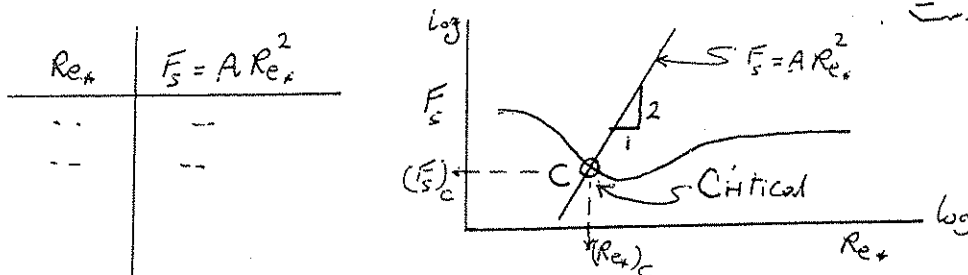
$$Re_* = \frac{U_* D}{\nu} \quad \text{و} \quad U_* = \frac{\nu Re_*}{D} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{matrix} Re_* = \frac{U_* D}{\nu} \\ U_* = \frac{\nu Re_*}{D} \end{matrix}} \right\} \Rightarrow F_s = F(Re_*^2)$$

برای یک مانع معين  $\Leftarrow v$  : known  
برای سازه بتنی معين  $\Leftarrow D, S_g$  : known

where,  $A = f(v, D, S_g) = \text{Const.}$

(log-log) رسم :  $\log F_s = \log A + 2 \log Re_*$

سیتی "Shields" نیز در سیم (رسم-log) است. رابطه  $(F_s - Re_*^2)$  بصورت یک خط با شیب (1H:2V) قابل رسم است.



$\tau_c \Leftarrow (F_s)_c = \frac{\tau_c}{\gamma(S_g - 1)D}$

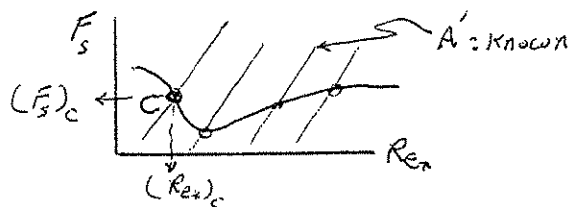
$\Leftarrow (Re_*)_c, (F_s)_c$

(ب) رابطه تجربی ASCE (Vanoni, 1977):

$$F_s = A' Re_*^2 \quad , \quad A' = \frac{D}{\nu} [0.1(S_g - 1)gD]^{1/2}$$

براین اسکل و معادله خطی  $F_s = A' Re_*^2$  بر روی منحنی (زونا-س) Shields رسم گردیده است.

نتایج بصورت خطوطی با شاقص معلوم  $A'$  روی Fig. (2.2) توسط Yang (1996) - P. 22 از مرجع شماره (۲) رسم گردیده است.



$$(F_s)_c \Leftrightarrow \tau_c$$

(ج) رابطه Van Rijn (1984):  $\tau_c = \rho U_*^2 = [\gamma(S_g - 1)D_{50}] \theta_c$

براین منحنی "شیلز اصلاح شده" توسط Van Rijn (1984) نشان بر روی منحنی زیر ارائه شده است.

$$\text{Critical bed shear stress} : \tau_c = \rho U_*^2 = [\gamma(S_g - 1)D_{50}] \theta_c$$

where,  $\theta_c$  = Critical Shields function =  $f(D_{gr})$

and,  $D_{gr}$  = Dimensionless characteristic particle parameter

$$D_{gr} = D_{50} \left[ \frac{g(S_g - 1)}{\nu^2} \right]^{1/3}$$

$D_{gr}$	$\theta_c$
$\leq 4$	$0.24 D_{gr}^{-1}$
$4 < \leq 10$	$0.14 D_{gr}^{-0.64}$
$10 < \leq 20$	$0.04 D_{gr}^{-0.1}$
$20 < \leq 150$	$0.013 D_{gr}^{0.29}$
$> 150$	$0.055$

\* منحنی شیلز اصلاح شده (بیشتر به کار می آید).

مسئله کاربرد:

مسئله (۱):

using Shields' Diagram,  $D_{50} = ?$  in a stable channel of Trapezoidal shape with rigid banks and erodible bed.

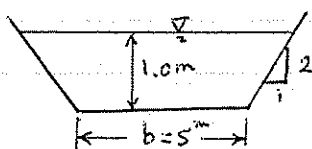
$$Q = 0.15 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$$

$$S_0 = 0.008$$

$$y = 1.0 \text{ m}$$

$$S_g = 2.65$$

$$\nu = 1.3 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$$



$$A = (b + zy)y = 7 \text{ m}^2$$

$$P = b + 2y\sqrt{1+z^2} = 9 \text{ m}$$

$$R = A/P = 7/9$$

(۷۷)



✓

روش تئوری تنش برشی سلیزر مبتنی بر نتایج ویتکوری آکس صاف بوده است.

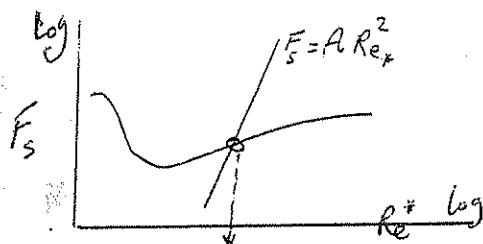
$$\tau_c = \gamma R S_0 = (9810 \text{ N/m}^3) (\gamma/9) (0.0008) = 6.1 \text{ N/m}^2$$

$$U_* = \sqrt{\tau_c / \rho} = \sqrt{6.1 / 1000} = 0.078 \text{ m/s}$$

$$Re_* = \frac{U_* D}{\nu} = \frac{0.078 D}{1.3 \times 10^{-6}} = 6 \times 10^4 D \quad : (1)$$

$$F_s = \frac{U_*^2}{9D(S_0-1)} = \frac{(0.078)^2}{9.81 D (2.65-1)} = 3.8 \times 10^{-4} \left( \frac{1}{D} \right) \quad : (2)$$

Using Iteration Procedure :



D (m)	$Re_*$	$F_s$	$A = \frac{F_s}{Re_*^2}$
0.01	586	0.035	$103 \times 10^{-9}$
0.015	878	0.024	$30 \times 10^{-9}$
0.009	527	0.009	$42 \times 10^{-9}$
:	:	:	:

در سطح پایدار، بهتر:  $D_{s0} > D$  ،  $(Re_*)_c \Rightarrow D$

In a wide Rectangular channel with rigid banks and stable : شال (۲)  
bed of material with  $D_{s0} = 2.5 \text{ mm}$  ,  $S_0 = 2.65$  on a slope of  $S_0 = 0.005$  ,  
Calculate Max. flow depth, and Max. flow rate

$$\nu = 1.3 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s} , \quad Y_{\max} = ? \quad \text{where, } \tau_c = \tau_c , \quad R \approx Y$$

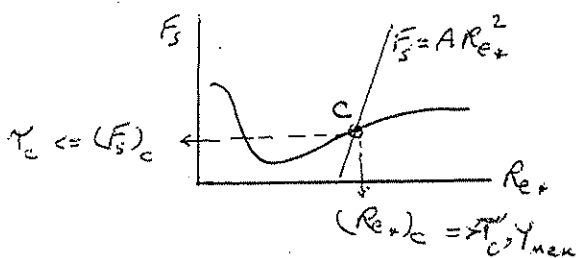
Solution :

$$U_*^2 = g R S_0 \approx g Y S_0 = 0.049 Y$$

$$Re_* = \frac{D_{s0} U_*}{\nu} = 134 Y^{1/2} \quad : (1)$$

$$F_s = \frac{U_*^2}{9D(S_0-1)} = 5.9 \times 10^{-4} Y^2 \quad : (2)$$

Answer : The depth  $Y$  , which satisfies two eqs. (1), (2) by placing the  
Point on the Shields' curve is given by  $Y = \dots \text{ m}$



$Y$	$F_s$	$Re_*$

$$\text{Note: } \tau_c < \tau_c \Leftrightarrow Y < Y_{\max} , Y = 0.8 Y_{\max}$$

شال (۳) و (۴) : از کتاب هیدرولیک روبر ص ۷۴-۷۵ مطالعه شود. (Ref. (6))

(VN)

## ۲) روش سرعت حد جبرانی - برای استاندارد حرکت مواد بستر

### "The Competent Velocity Approach"

مسئله تعریف سرعت حد است.  
اگر معادله سرعت توسط جریان باشد:

$$V = V_{ave}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \tau = 845 \Rightarrow \gamma \uparrow \Rightarrow \tau \uparrow \\ \text{But, when } \gamma \uparrow \Rightarrow V_{ave} \downarrow \text{ and } \tau \propto V^2 \Rightarrow \tau \downarrow \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \text{تناقض}$$

راه بهتر:

سرعت در نزدیکی بستر ( $U_b$ ) بعنوان سرعت حد در نظر گرفته شود.  
ولی مسئله به تعیین  $U_b$  یا رابطه بین  $U_b$  و  $V_{ave}$  است.  
همین دلیل، روش های تجربی برای ارزیابی سرعت حد جبران ارائه شده است.

الف) نتایج تجربی: Fortier and Scobey (1929)

برای نرخ نتایج جبرانی در گامای آبیاری و زگوشی صورت Table (2.1) توسط Yang (1996) در مرجع شماره (۲) ارائه شده است. (P. 25). برای طاق مقداتی ممکن است استفاده گردد.  
(سرعت متوسط جریان برابر رابطه پایدار است: برای همگامی و همگامی نهایی)

ب) روش تجربی Hjulst Thom (1935):

در این روش نتایج صورت:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Fig. (2.4) - رابطه } (V_{ave} \text{ و } D_{50}) \text{ توسط Yang (1996) در مرجع شماره} \\ \text{Fig. (2.5) - رابطه } (V_{crit} \text{ و } D_{50}) \text{ (۲) - PP. (25-27) ارائه شده است} \end{array} \right.$$

ج) روش نیمه تجربی Yang (1996):

در مرجع شماره (۲) - PP. (27-31) - ارائه شده است

برای تحلیل نیروهای مؤثر  $F_D$  و  $F_L$  و فرض توزیع لغزشی سرعت در عمق، رابطه ای برای محاسبه  $(\frac{V_{crit}}{W_s} = \frac{\text{سرعت بحرانی}}{\text{سرعت سقوط}})$  ارائه می دهد.

For  $Re_* \gg 70$  (Fully Rough Flow):

$$\frac{V_{crit}}{W_s} = 2.05$$

For  $1.2 < Re_* < 70$ :

$$\frac{V_{crit}}{W_s} = \frac{2.5}{\log(Re_*) - 0.06} + 0.66$$

نتایج فوق بصورت Fig. (2.6) - P. 30 - نشان داده شده است.

(د) اوش تجرب : Shafai - Bajestan (1941)

- در کتاب هیدرولیک رسوب - ص ۸۷-۸۸ - مرجع شماره (۶) ارائه شده است.

$$\frac{V_{cr.}}{[3(S_g-1)D]^{1/2}} = \begin{cases} 2.2 & \text{for } \frac{D_{so}}{Y} < 0.1 \\ 1.252 \left( \frac{Y}{D_{so}} \right)^{1/4} & \text{for } \frac{D_{so}}{Y} > 0.1 \end{cases}$$

where,  $\frac{D_{so}}{Y}$  =  $\frac{\text{متوسط اندازه مواد بترسی}}{\text{عمق آب}}$  : Relative Roughness (نسبت زبری)

(ه) اوش تجرب USBR برای محاسب  $\tau_c$  در طرالی گمانه‌ای پایدار

$$\tau_c = f(D_{so})$$

که صورت Fig. (2.4) توسط Yang (1996) در مرجع شماره (۲) - P. 34 - ارائه شده است.  
(ی) به روش گمانه‌ای دیگر در صفحه ۳۳ از مرجع Yang (1996) مراجعه شود.

نکات اضافی:

① برای:

- ۱- آستانه حرکت مواد بترسی در درخانه‌ها با مواد بترسی متغیر متفاوت ؟
  - ۲- ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ بسترهای باسیب زیاد
- به کتاب هیدرولیک رسوب - ص ۱۰۸-۱۰۹ - مرجع شماره (۶) مراجعه شود.

② برای "آستانه معلق شدن مواد بترسی"

به کتاب هیدرولیک رسوب : ص ۱۱۰-۱۰۸ - مرجع شماره (۶) مراجعه شود.



# Ask DOCTOR Hydro

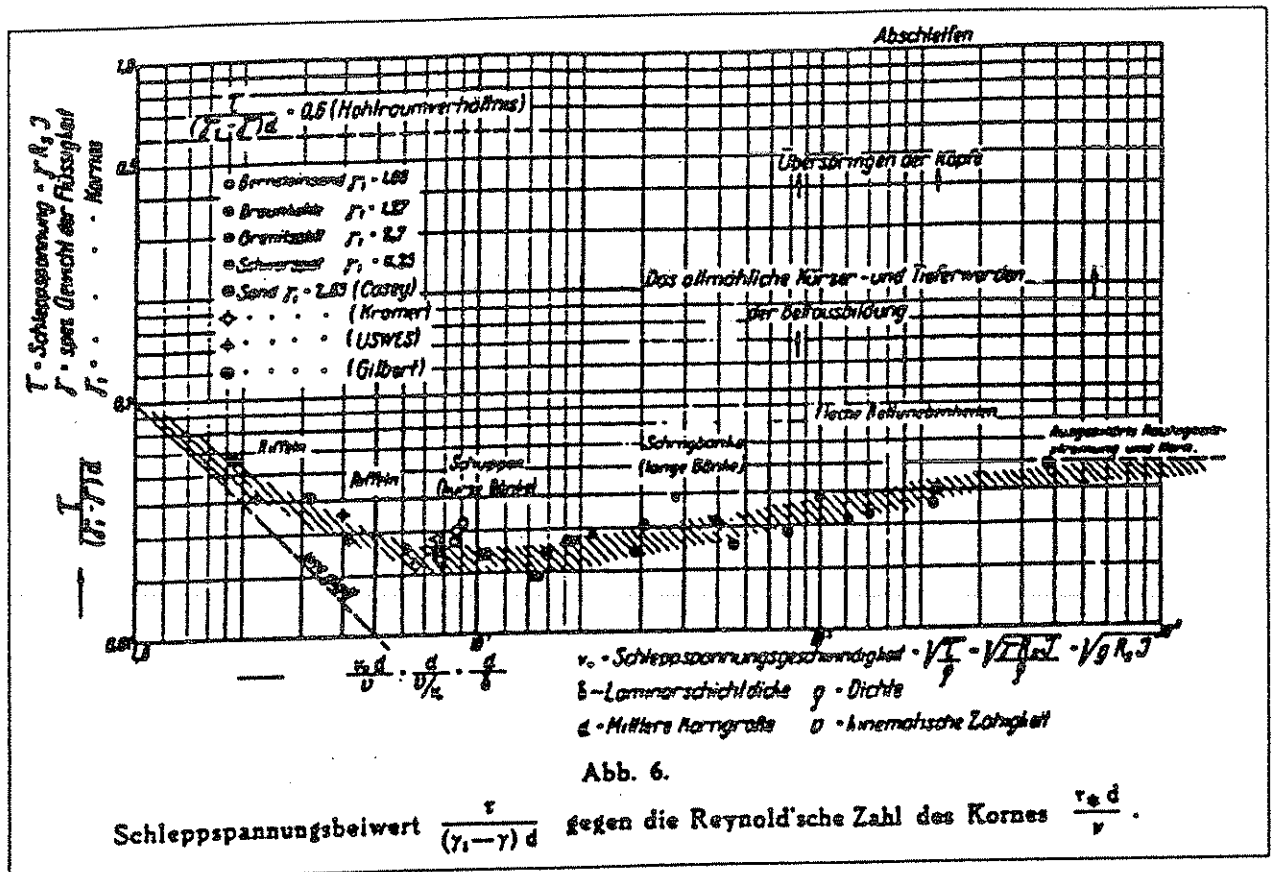
Dear Doc Hydro: Everyone is familiar with the Shields diagram for critical tractive force (initiation of motion), but I haven't seen other publications written by Shields. Who was Shields and whatever happened to him?

Albert F. Shields (1908-1974) was an American who obtained his doctoral degree in Nazi

Germany from the Technischen Hochschule Berlin in 1936. Going to Germany on a scholarship, his original intent was to do a thesis on ship design, but the only available research assignment was in the field of bedload sediment transport. The now famous Shields Diagram (see below) appeared in his doctoral thesis and was later translated into English.

Shields was unable to find full-time employment in his newly chosen field upon returning to the United States and had a successful career as a machine designer and inventor. At the time of his retirement, he held more than 200 patents in the corrugated-box machinery design field.

For more information on the fascinating chain of events surrounding Shields and the eventual discovery of his work in America see: Kennedy, J.F., 1995. The Albert Shields Story. ASCE Journal of Hydraulic Engineering, p. 766-772.



The original diagram by Shields: Shields, A. 1936. "Anwendung der Aehnlichkeitsmechanik und der Turbulenzforschung auf die Geschiebebewegung." Mitteilungen der Preussischen Versuchsanstalt für Wasserbau und Schiffbau, Heft 26, Berlin, Germany (in German), English translation by W.P. Ott and J.C. van Uchelen available as Hydrodynamics Laboratory Publication No. 167, Hydrodynamics Lab., California Institute of Technology, Pasadena.



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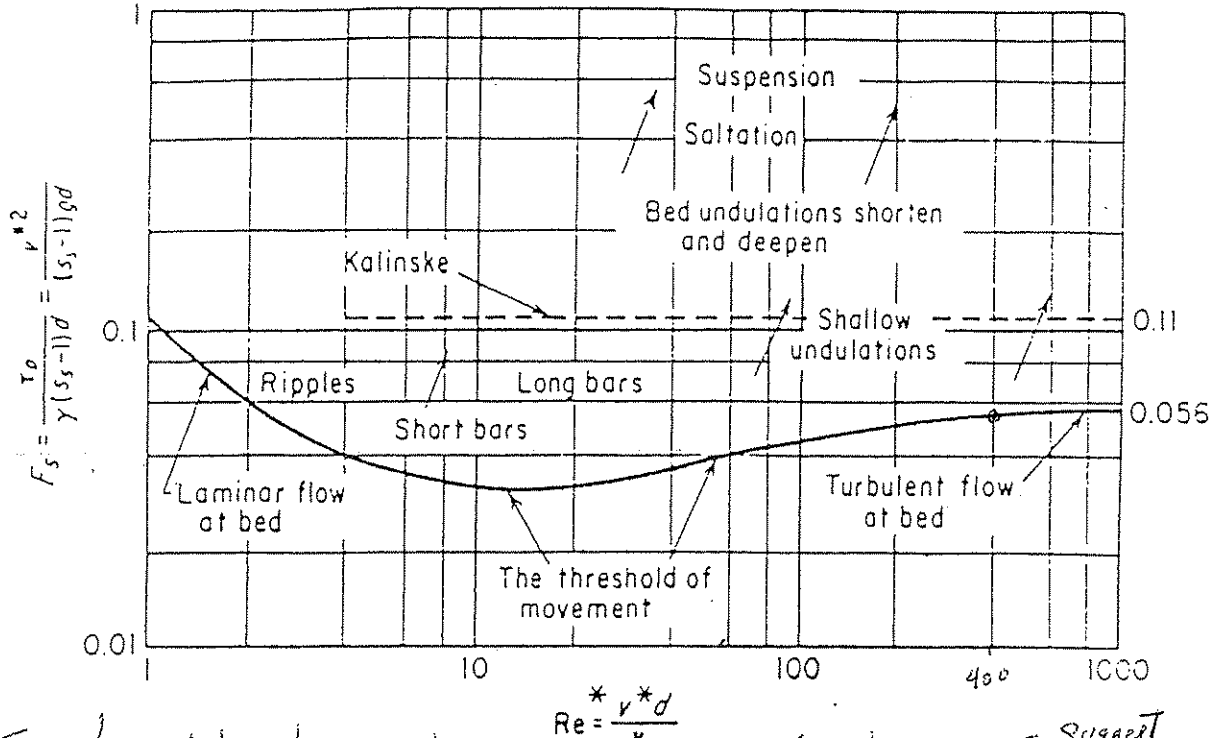


Figure 1.3: Shields Entrainment Function.

The initiation of motion is involved in many geomorphic and hydraulic problems such as clear-water scour, stable channel design, and rip-rap design, each of which is considered in later lectures. These problems can be properly handled only when the concept of the threshold of motion is clearly understood.

Many experimental studies on the inception of motion have been carried out since the original work of Shields and, although there are some minor differences in detail, the general trend of Shields' results has not been questioned. The least data are available at the fine material end of the Shields' curve. In 1973, Mantz (5) reported some results from experiments with small flakes. His experiments covered flakes with a range of fall diameters from 22 to 80  $\mu\text{m}$  and face diameters of up to double this size. The plot of his experimental data at the inception of motion has a much flatter slope than the line of Shields. The lower entrainment values of flakes are explained by the fact that the flakes are separated by a fluid film and, hence, are able to slide more easily because only fluid friction has to be overcome.

#### 1.4 The Competent Velocity Approach

Some authors prefer to express the inception of sediment motion in terms of the average velocity because it is a more familiar parameter to practising hydraulic engineers than is the shear velocity. The main drawback in using the flow velocity as the threshold parameter is that the boundary shear stress for the same mean velocity of flow decreases with increasing depth of flow. Other authors have used a critical bed velocity in place of a critical

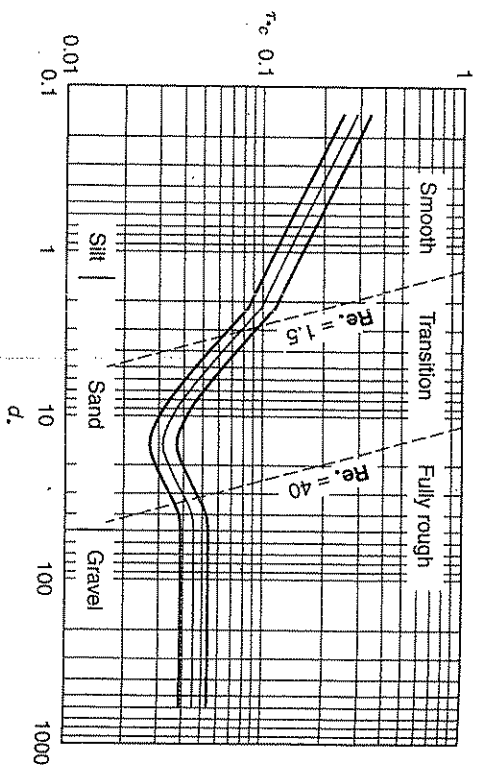


FIGURE 10.6

An alternate form of the Shields diagram for direct determination of critical shear stress (after Julien 1995). (Source: P. Y. Julien, *Erosion and Sedimentation*, © 1995, Cambridge University Press. Reprinted with the permission of Cambridge University Press.)

angularity of the grains. In this formulation,  $\tau_{*c}$  varies from 0.039 for very fine gravel to 0.050 for very coarse gravel to 0.054 for boulders in the constant  $\tau_{*c}$  region in which  $d_*$  is greater than about 40.

The variability of the constant value of  $\tau_{*c}$  for large values of the boundary Reynolds number and the scatter of data in Figure 10.5 emphasize that a range of "critical conditions" should form the Shields diagram. Accordingly, two additional curves appear in Figure 10.6, which are defined by  $\pm 1$  times the standard error in log units between the curve in Figure 10.5 and the data given there.

Regardless of the value chosen for the Shields parameter, a corresponding value of critical velocity can be calculated from Keulegan's (1938) equation for fully rough turbulent flow. If the critical value of shear velocity,  $u_{*c}$ , is related to  $\tau_{*c}$  with water as the fluid, Keulegan's equation becomes

$$V_c = 5.75 \sqrt{\tau_{*c} (SG - 1) g d_{50}} \log \left[ \frac{12.2R}{k_s} \right] \quad (10.17)$$

in which  $SG$  = specific gravity of the sediment;  $R$  = hydraulic radius; and  $k_s$  = equivalent sand-grain roughness, which varies, as discussed in Chapter 4, from  $1.4d_{50}$  to  $3.5d_{50}$ . It is of interest to note that the critical velocity, which is a mean cross-sectional velocity, varies with the hydraulic radius and therefore the flow depth for the same value of the Shields parameter. Hence, reports of critical velocity for sediments of varying grain size should correspond with a specific depth range over which they are applicable. If Manning's equation is used instead of Keulegan's equation with Manning's  $n$  expressed in terms of a Strickler-type

expression ( $n = c_n d_{50}^{1/6}$ ), then the critical water velocity for a very wide channel can be expressed as

$$V_c = \frac{K_n}{c_n} \sqrt{(SG - 1) \tau_{*c} d_{50}^{1/3} y_0^{1/6}} \quad (10.18)$$

in which  $K_n = 1.49$  in English units and  $1.0$  in SI units;  $c_n$  = constant in Strickler-type relationship for Manning's  $n$  ( $n = c_n d_{50}^{1/6}$ ), which is equal to  $0.039$  in English units and  $0.0475$  in SI units;  $SG$  = specific gravity of the sediment;  $\tau_{*c}$  = critical value of the Shields parameter;  $d_{50}$  = median grain diameter; and  $y_0$  = depth of uniform flow. (Note that a value of  $c_n = 0.034$  in English units commonly is used for the Strickler constant, as discussed in Chapter 4.)

If the grain size is such that the flow is not fully rough turbulent, then the value of  $\tau_{*c}$  is obtained from the Shields diagram and substituted into a Keulegan-type equation for velocity derived by Einstein (1950) and given by

$$V_c = 5.75 u_{*c} \log \left[ \frac{12.2R' x}{k_s} \right] \quad (10.19)$$

in which  $u_{*c}$  = critical value of the shear velocity =  $[\tau_{*c} (SG - 1) g d_{50}]^{0.5}$ ;  $R'$  = hydraulic radius due to grain roughness, independent of form roughness caused by ripples and dunes (to be discussed in the next section);  $x$  = a correction factor for smooth and transitional turbulent flow, which is equal to unity for fully rough turbulent flow; and  $k_s$  = equivalent sand-grain roughness, which Einstein equated to  $d_{65}$ , the 65 percent finer grain size. The correction factor,  $x$ , is a function of  $k_s \delta$ , as shown in Figure 10.7, where  $\delta$  = viscous sublayer thickness =  $11.6 \nu / u_{*c}$  and  $\nu$  = shear

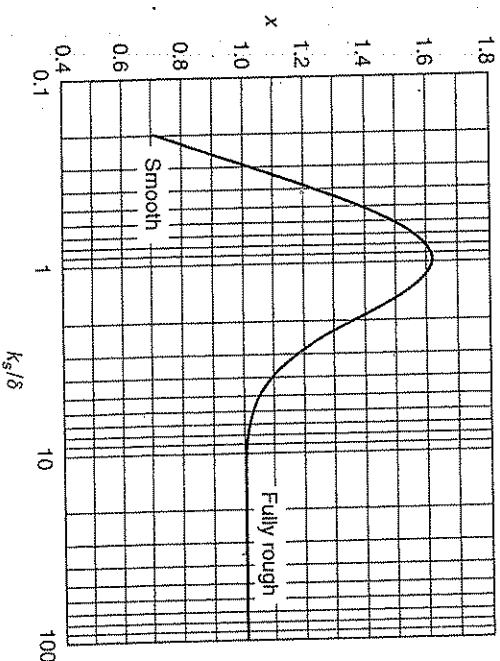


FIGURE 10.7

Einstein velocity correction factor,  $x$ , for calculating mean velocity in smooth and transition turbulent flow (Einstein 1950).

velocity due only to grain or surface roughness  $= (gR S_0)^{0.5}$ . Coarse sediments have no bed forms so the hydraulic radius  $R = R'$ , and furthermore  $x = 1.0$  for fully rough turbulent flow, with the result that Equation 10.19 reduces to Equation 10.17 for sediments coarse enough to fall in the fully rough turbulent regime.

The relationships for critical velocity in Equations 10.17, 10.18, and 10.19 can be placed in dimensionless form in terms of a critical value of the sediment number,  $N_{sc}$ , as defined by (Carstens 1966)

$$N_{sc} = \frac{V_c}{\sqrt{(SG - 1)gd_{50}}} \quad (10.20)$$

Neill (1967) has done extensive experiments on "first displacement" of uniformly graded gravel and proposed a best fit relationship as shown in Figure 10.8 and given by

$$N_{sc}^2 = 2.50 \left( \frac{d_g}{y_0} \right)^{-0.20} \quad (10.21)$$

in which  $d_g$  = geometric mean diameter and  $y_0$  = depth of uniform flow. As reported by Pagán-Ortiz (1991), Parola obtained similar experimental results for uniform flow over a gravel bed when utilizing Neill's criterion of first displacement. Shown for comparison in Figure 10.8 are Equations 10.17 and 10.18 in terms of  $N_{sc}$  (with  $\tau_{*c} = 0.045$ ;  $k_s = 2d_{50}$ ;  $d_{50} = d_g$ ; and the Strickler constant  $c_n = 0.034$

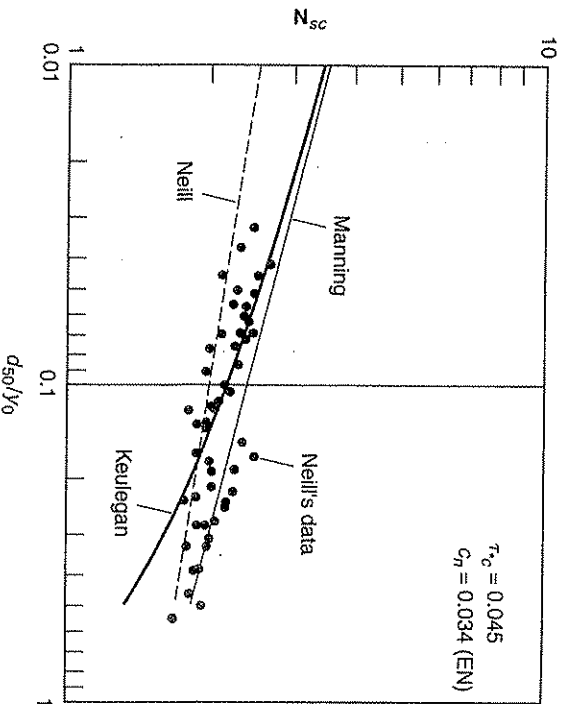


FIGURE 10.8 Critical sediment number for initiation of motion of coarse sediment (data from Neill 1967).

in English units). For  $d_{50}/y_0 > 0.1$ , Manning's  $n$  begins to vary with depth as the roughness elements become large relative to the depth as discussed in Chapter 4. In this zone, Manning's equation tends to overestimate the critical velocity; while Keulegan's and Neill's equations underestimate it and so are on the conservative side. Manning's equation provides a more conservative estimate if  $c_n = 0.039$  in English units.

**EXAMPLE 10.2** Find the critical shear stress and critical velocity for a medium sand with  $d_{50} = 0.3$  mm ( $9.8 \times 10^{-4}$  ft) and a medium gravel with  $d_{50} = 10$  mm ( $0.0328$  ft) for a uniform flow depth of water ( $20^\circ\text{C}$ ) of  $1.0$  m ( $3.28$  ft).

**Solution.** First calculate the dimensionless sediment number,  $d_*$ , for both sediment sizes. For sand with a specific gravity of 2.65 and water with a viscosity of  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s ( $1.08 \times 10^{-5}$  ft<sup>2</sup>/s),  $d_*$  is determined by

$$d_* = \left[ \frac{(SG - 1)gd_{50}^3}{\nu^2} \right]^{1/3} = \left[ \frac{1.65 \times 9.81 \times (0.0003)^3}{(1 \times 10^{-6})^2} \right]^{1/3} = 7.59$$

A similar calculation for the gravel yields  $d_* = 253$ . Then, from Figure 10.6,  $\tau_{*c} = 0.041$  for the sand and 0.045 for the gravel with the former in the transitional turbulent range and the latter in the fully rough turbulent range. The corresponding value of critical shear stress for the sand is

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_c &= (\gamma_s - \gamma)d_{50}\tau_{*c} = 1.65 \times 9810 \times 0.0003 \times 0.041 \\ &= 0.20 \text{ N/m}^2 \text{ (0.0042 lbf/ft}^2\text{)} \end{aligned}$$

and for the gravel it is  $7.28 \text{ N/m}^2$  or  $\text{Pa}$  ( $0.152 \text{ lbf/ft}^2$ ).

To find the critical velocity for the sand, use Equation 10.19 with  $x$  determined from Figure 10.7. Assume that no bed forms exist at initiation of motion, so that  $R' = R$ . Take  $k_s = 2d_{50} = 0.0006$  m ( $0.002$  ft) and  $\delta = 11.6 \nu / u_{*c} = 11.6 \times 10^{-6} / (0.20/1000)^{1/2} = 8.20 \times 10^{-4}$  m ( $2.69 \times 10^{-3}$  ft). Then,  $k_s/\delta = 0.73$ , and from Figure 10.7,  $x = 1.57$  so that the critical velocity is calculated from Equation 10.19 as

$$\begin{aligned} V_c &= 5.75 \sqrt{\frac{\tau_c}{\rho} \log \left[ \frac{12.2 y_0 x}{k_s} \right]} \\ &= 5.75 \times (0.20/1000)^{1/2} \times \log \left[ \frac{(12.2 \times 1.0 \times 1.57)}{0.0006} \right] = 0.37 \text{ m/s (1.2 ft/s)} \end{aligned}$$

For the gravel, use Equation 10.18 (Manning) with  $c_n = 0.0414$  and  $K_n = 1.0$  for SI units to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} V_c &= \frac{K_n}{c_n} \sqrt{(SG - 1) \tau_{*c} d_{50}^{1/3} y_0^{1/6}} \\ &= \frac{1.0}{0.0414} \times (1.65 \times 0.045)^{1/2} \times (0.01)^{1/3} \times (1.0)^{1/6} = 1.42 \text{ m/s} \end{aligned}$$

or  $4.66$  ft/s. For comparison, the reader can confirm that the critical velocity for the gravel from Equation 10.17 (Keulegan) for the same value of  $\tau_{*c}$  is  $1.37$  m/s ( $4.50$  ft/s) and from Equation 10.21, it is  $1.01$  m/s ( $3.31$  ft/s). The latter value from Neill's results is considerably more conservative than either Equation 10.17 or 10.18 for this value of  $d_{50}/y_0 = 0.033$ .

(0.5) 2.2



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## CHAPTER

## 2

# INCIPIENT MOTION CRITERIA AND APPLICATIONS

## 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Incipient motion is important in the study of sediment transport, channel degradation, and stable channel design. Due to the stochastic nature of sediment movement along an alluvial bed, it is difficult to define precisely at what flow condition a sediment particle will begin to move. Consequently, it depends more or less on an investigator's definition of incipient motion. "Initial motion," "several grain moving," "weak movement," and "critical movement" are some of the terms used by different investigators. In spite of these differences in definition, significant progress has been made on the study of incipient motion, both theoretically and experimentally.

This chapter will introduce the general concepts leading to the establishment of incipient motion criteria. Examples will be used to illustrate how these criteria can be applied to the computation of channel degradation and stable channel design.

## 2.2 GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

The forces acting on a spherical sediment particle at the bottom of an open channel are shown in Fig. 2.1. For most natural rivers, the channel slopes are

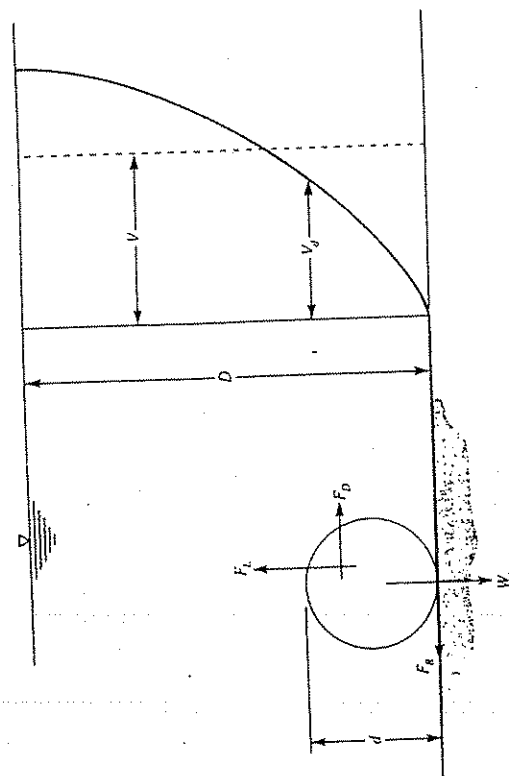


FIGURE 2.1  
Diagram of forces acting on a sediment particle in open channel flow.

small enough that the component of gravitational force in the direction of flow can be neglected compared with other forces acting on a spherical sediment particle. The forces to be considered are the drag force  $F_D$ , lift force  $F_L$ , submerged weight  $W$ , and resistance force  $F_R$ . A sediment particle is at a state of incipient motion when one of the following conditions is satisfied:

$$F_L = W, \quad (2.1)$$

$$F_D = F_R \quad (2.2)$$

$$M_O = M_R \quad (2.3)$$

where  $M_O$  = overturning moment due to  $F_D$  and  $F_R$ , and  $M_R$  = resisting moment due to  $F_L$  and  $W$ .

Most incipient motion criteria are derived from either a shear stress or a velocity approach. Because of the stochastic nature of bed load movement, probabilistic approaches have also been used.

## 2.3 SHEAR STRESS APPROACH

### 2.3.1 White's Analysis

White (1940) assumed that the slope and lift force have insignificant influence on incipient motion, and hence can be neglected compared with other factors. The drag force is proportional to the product of bed shear stress and the square diameter of the particle, i.e.,

$$F_D = C_1 \tau d^2 \quad (2.4)$$

where  $\tau$  = shear stress,  
 $d$  = particle diameter, and  
 $C_1$  = constant.

If the distance above the point of rotation to the point of action is proportional to the particle diameter then the overturning moment is

$$M_O = C_1 C_2 \tau d^3 \quad (2.5)$$

where  $C_2$  = constant.

The resisting moment is the product of the submerged weight of the particle  $C_3(\gamma_s - \gamma_f)d^3$  and its moment arm  $C_4d$ , i.e.,

$$M_R = C_3 C_4 (\gamma_s - \gamma_f) d^4 \quad (2.6)$$

where  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  = constants, and

$\gamma_s$  and  $\gamma_f$  = specific weights of sediment and fluid, respectively.

A particle will start to move when the shear stress is such that  $M_O = M_R$ . This value is called the critical shear stress. From Eqs. (2.5) and (2.6),

$$\tau_c = C_5 (\gamma_s - \gamma_f) d \quad (2.7)$$

where  $C_5$  = constant and

$\tau_c$  = critical shear stress at incipient motion.

Thus the critical shear stress is proportional to the particle diameter. The factor  $C_5$  is a function of the density and shape of the particle, the fluid properties, and the arrangement of sediment particles on the bed surface. Values of  $C_5(\gamma_s - \gamma_f)$  for sand in water range from 0.013 to 0.04 when the British system is used. Because the shear stress is proportional to the channel slope and to the square of the velocity, and the sediment particle weight is proportional to the third power of the particle diameter, the weight of a particle that can be moved by flowing water is directly proportional to the sixth power of the velocity applied to the particle. This relationship is called the sixth-power law for incipient motion, and can be derived from Eq. (2.7).

### 2.3.2 Shields Diagram

Shields (1936) believed that it was very difficult to express analytically the forces acting on a sediment particle. He applied dimensional analysis to determine some dimensionless parameters and established his well-known diagram for incipient motion.

The factors that are important in the determination of incipient motion are the shear stress  $\tau$ , the difference in density between sediment and fluid  $\rho_s - \rho_f$ , the diameter of the particle  $d$ , the kinematic viscosity  $\nu$ , and the gravitational acceleration  $g$ . These five quantities can be grouped into two dimensionless quantities, namely,

$$d \frac{(\tau_c / \rho_f)^{1/2}}{\nu} = \frac{dU_*}{\nu} \quad (2.8)$$

and

$$\frac{\tau_c}{d(\rho_s - \rho_f)g} = \frac{\tau_c}{d\gamma[(\rho_s / \rho_f) - 1]} \quad (2.9)$$

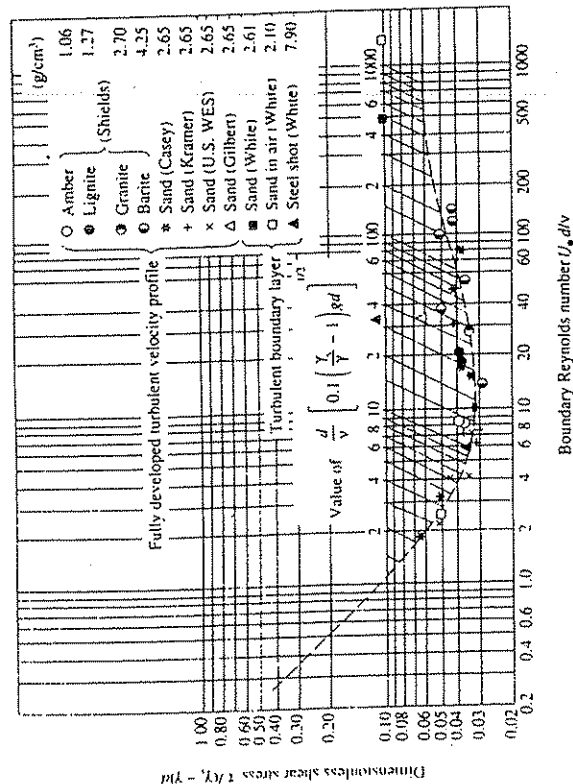


FIGURE 2.2

Shields diagram for incipient motion (Vanoni, 1975).

where  $\rho_s$  and  $\rho_f$  = densities of sediment and fluid, respectively,

$\gamma$  = specific weight of water,

$U_*$  = shear velocity, and

$\tau_c$  = critical shear stress at initial motion.

The relationship between these two parameters is then determined experimentally. Figure 2.2 shows the experimental results obtained by Shields and other investigators at incipient motion. At points above the curve, the particle will move. At points below the curve, the flow is unable to move the particle. It should be pointed out that Shields did not fit a curve to the data, but showed a band of considerable width. The curve shown in Fig. 2.2 was first proposed by Rouse (1939).

In his experiments, Shields measured various values of  $\tau / [d(\rho_s - \rho_f)g]$  at least twice as large as the critical value and then extrapolated to the point of zero sediment discharge. This indirect method was used to avoid the difficulty of determining the precise condition at which a sediment particle should move.

Although the Shields diagram has been widely used by engineers as a criterion for incipient motion, considerable dissatisfaction can be found in the literature. Yang (1973) pointed out the following factors, and suggested that Shields' diagram may not be the most desirable criterion for incipient motion.

1. The justification for selecting shear stress instead of average velocity is based on the existence of a universal velocity distribution law that

facilitates computation of the shear stress from shear velocity and fluid density. Theoretically, water depth does not appear to be related directly to the shear stress calculation, while the mean velocity is a function of water depth. However, in common practice, the shear stress is replaced by the average shear stress or tractive force  $\tau = \gamma DS$ , where  $\gamma$  is the specific weight of water,  $D$  is the water depth, and  $S$  is the energy slope. In this case, the average shear stress is not independent of the water depth.

2. Although by assuming the existence of a universal velocity distribution law, the shear velocity or shear stress is a measure of the intensity of turbulent fluctuations, our present knowledge of turbulence is limited mainly to laboratory studies.
3. Shields derived his criterion for incipient motion by using the concept of a laminar sublayer, according to which the laminar sublayer should not have any effect on the velocity distribution when the shear velocity Reynolds number is greater than 70. However, the Shields diagram clearly indicates that his dimensionless critical shear stress still varies with shear velocity Reynolds number when the latter is greater than 70.
4. Shields extends his curve to a straight line when the shear velocity Reynolds number is less than 3. As shown by Liu (1958), this means that when the sediment particle is very small, the critical tractive force is independent of sediment size. However, White (1940) showed that for a small shear velocity Reynolds number, the critical tractive force is proportional to the sediment size.
5. It is not appropriate to use both shear stress  $\tau$  and shear velocity  $U_*$  in the Shields diagram as dependent and independent variables, because they are interchangeable by  $U_* = (\tau/\rho)^{1/2}$ , where  $\rho$  is the fluid density. Consequently, the critical shear stress cannot be determined directly from Shields' diagram; it must be determined through trial and error.
6. Shields simplified the problem by neglecting the lift force and considered only the drag force. The lift force cannot be neglected, especially at high shear velocity Reynolds numbers.
7. Because the rate of sediment transport cannot be uniquely determined by shear stress (Brooks, 1955; Yang, 1972), it is questionable whether critical shear stress should be used as the criterion for incipient motion of sediment transport.

As stated before, one of the objections to the use of the Shields diagram is that the dependent variables appear in both ordinate and abscissa parameters. Depending on the nature of the problem, the dependent variable can be critical shear stress or grain size. The American Society of Civil Engineers Task Committee on the Preparation of Sediment Manual (Vanoni, 1977) uses a third parameter

$$\frac{d}{\nu} \left[ 0.1 \left( \frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma} - 1 \right) g d \right]^{1/2}$$

TABLE 2.1  
Permissible canal velocities (Fortier and Scobey, 1926)

Original material excavated for canal (1)	Velocity† (ft/s)			Water-transporting noncolloidal silts, sands, gravels, or rock fragments (4)
	Clear water, no detritus (2)	Water-transporting colloidal silts (3)		
Fine sand (noncolloidal)	1.50	2.50		1.50
Sandy loam (noncolloidal)	1.75	2.50		2.00
Silt loam (noncolloidal)	2.00	3.00		2.00
Alluvial silts when noncolloidal	2.00	3.50		2.00
Ordinary firm loam	2.50	3.50		2.25
Volcanic ash	2.50	3.50		2.00
Fine gravel	2.50	5.00		3.75
Stiff clay (very colloidal)	3.75	5.00		3.00
Graded, loam to cobbles, when noncolloidal	3.75	5.00		5.00
Alluvial silts when colloidal	3.75	5.00		3.00
Graded, silt to cobbles, when colloidal	4.00	5.50		5.00
Coarse gravel (noncolloidal)	4.00	6.00		6.50
Cobbles and shingles	5.00	5.50		6.50
Shales and hard pans	6.00	6.00		5.00

† For channels with depth of 3 ft or less after aging.

sediment size and average flow velocity for erosion, transportation, and sedimentation. Figure 2.5 summarizes the relationship between critical velocities proposed by different investigators and mean particle size. Figure 2.5 was suggested by the American Society of Civil Engineers Sedimentation Task Committee (Vanoni, 1977) for stable channel design.

The permissible velocity relationship shown in Fig. 2.4 is restricted to a flow depth of at least 3 ft or 1 m. If the relationship is applied to a flow of different depth, a correction factor should be applied based on equal critical unit tractive force (Mehrota, 1983), i.e.,

$$\tau_c = \gamma R_1 S_1 = \gamma R_2 S_2 \quad (2.10)$$

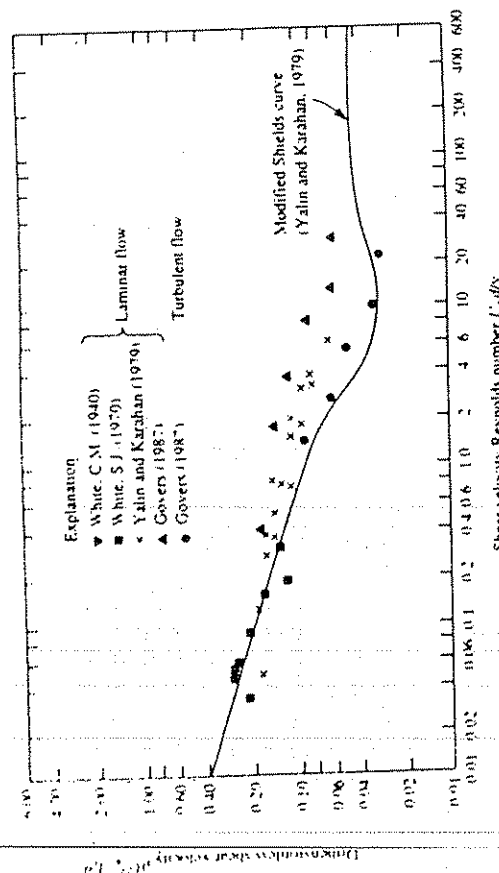


FIGURE 2.3  
Modified Shields diagram (Govers, 1987).

as shown in Fig. 2.2. The use of this parameter enables us to determine its intersection with the Shields diagram and its corresponding values of shear stress. The basic relationship shown in Fig. 2.2 has been tested and modified by different investigators. Figure 2.3 shows the results summarized by Govers (1987) in accordance with a modified Shields diagram suggested by Yalin and Karahan (1979).

## 2.4 VELOCITY APPROACH

### 2.4.1 Fortier and Scobey's Study

Fortier and Scobey (1926) made an extensive field survey of maximum permissible value of mean velocities in canals. The permissible velocities for canals of different materials are summarized in Table 2.1.

Although there is no theoretical study to support or verify the values shown in Table 2.1, these results are based on inputs from experienced irrigation engineers and should be useful for preliminary designs.

### 2.4.2 Hjultstrom and ASCE Studies

Hjultstrom (1935) made a detailed analysis of data obtained from the movement of uniform materials. Because the channel bottom velocity, which is directly responsible for sediment movement, is difficult to measure, his study was based on average flow velocity. Figure 2.4 gives the relationship between

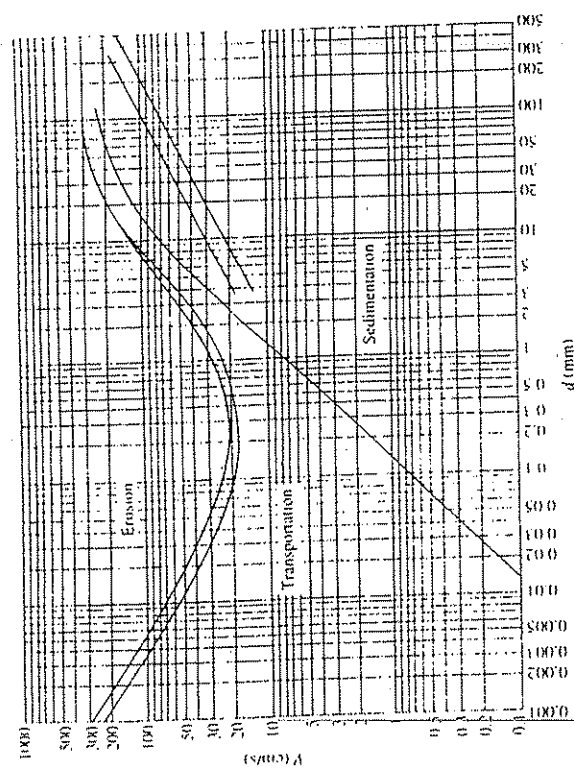


FIGURE 2.4  
Erosion-deposition criteria for uniform particles (Hjulstrom, 1935).

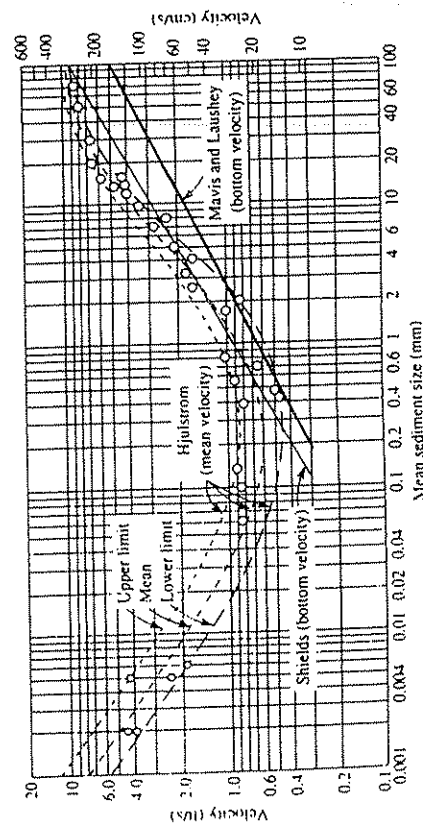


FIGURE 2.5  
Critical water velocities for quartz sediment as a function of mean grain size (Vanoni, 1977).

where  $R_1, R_2$  = hydraulic radii and

$S_1, S_2$  = channel slopes.

Assuming Manning's roughness coefficient and channel slope remain the same for the two channels of different depth, a correction factor  $k$  can be obtained from Manning's formula as

$$k = \frac{V_2}{V_1} = \left( \frac{R_2}{R_1} \right)^{1/3} \quad (2.11)$$

### 2.4.3 Yang's Criteria

The development of Yang's criteria is presented here in detail to illustrate how some basic theories in fluid mechanics can be applied to the study of incipient motion.

The forces acting on a spherical sediment particle at the bottom of an open channel are shown in Fig. 2.1. For most natural streams, the channel slopes are small enough that the component of gravitational force in the direction of flow can be neglected compared with other forces acting on a spherical sediment particle. The drag force can be expressed as

$$F_D = C_D \frac{\pi d^2 \rho}{4} V_d^2 \quad (2.12)$$

where  $C_D$  = drag coefficient at velocity  $V_d$ ,

$\rho$  = density of water, and

$V_d$  = local velocity at a distance  $d$  above the bed.

The terminal fall velocity of a spherical particle is reached when there is a balance between drag force and submerged weight of the particle, i.e., when

$$C_D \frac{\pi d^2 \rho}{4} \omega^2 = \frac{\pi d^3}{6} (\rho_s - \rho)g \quad (2.13)$$

where  $C_D$  = drag coefficient at  $\omega$  and

$\omega$  = terminal fall velocity.

By substituting  $C_D$  with  $\phi_1 C_D$ , and eliminating  $C_D$  from Eqs. (2.12) and (2.13), the drag force becomes

$$F_D = \frac{\pi d^3}{6 \phi_1 \omega^2} (\rho_s - \rho)g V_d^2 \quad (2.14)$$

If we assume that the logarithmic law for velocity distribution can be applied in this case then

$$\frac{V_y}{U_*} = 5.75 \log \frac{y}{d} + B \quad (2.15)$$

where  $V_y$  = local velocity at distance  $y$  above the bed and

$B$  = roughness function.

Then the local velocity at  $y = d$  becomes

$$V_d = BU_* \quad (2.16)$$

The average velocity can be obtained by integrating Eq. (2.15) from  $y = \epsilon$  to  $y = D$  with  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ :

$$V = U_* \left[ 5.75 \left( \log \frac{D}{d} - 1 \right) + B \right] \quad (2.17)$$

From Eqs. (2.14), (2.16), and (2.17),

$$F_D = \frac{\pi d^3}{6\psi_1} (\rho_s - \rho) g \left( \frac{V}{\omega} \right)^2 \left[ \frac{B}{5.75 [\log(D/d) - 1] + B} \right]^2 \quad (2.18)$$

The lift force acting on the particle can be obtained as

$$F_L = C_L \frac{\pi}{4} d^2 \frac{\rho}{2} V_d^2 \quad (2.19)$$

The relationship between lift coefficient  $C_L$  and drag coefficient  $C_D$  can be determined experimentally. If we let  $\psi_2 C_L = C_D$ , and follow the same procedure as in obtaining Eq. (2.18), we have

$$F_L = \frac{\pi d^3}{6\psi_1 \psi_2} (\rho_s - \rho) g \left( \frac{V}{\omega} \right)^2 \left[ \frac{B}{5.75 [\log(D/d) - 1] + B} \right]^2 \quad (2.20)$$

The submerged weight of the particle is

$$W_s = \frac{\pi d^3}{6} (\rho_s - \rho) g \quad (2.21)$$

Then the resistant force becomes

$$F_R = \psi_3 (W_s - F_L) = \frac{\psi_3 \pi d^3}{6} (\rho_s - \rho) g \left\{ 1 - \frac{1}{\psi_1 \psi_2} \left( \frac{V}{\omega} \right)^2 \left[ \frac{B}{5.75 [\log(D/d) - 1] + B} \right]^2 \right\} \quad (2.22)$$

where  $\psi_3$  = friction coefficient.

Assume that the incipient motion occurs when  $F_D = F_R$ . From Eqs. (2.18) and (2.22),

$$\frac{V_{cr}}{\omega} = \left[ \frac{5.75 [\log(D/d) - 1]}{B} + 1 \right] \left[ \frac{\psi_1 \psi_2 \psi_3}{\psi_2 + \psi_3} \right]^{1/2} \quad (2.23)$$

where  $V_{cr}$  = average critical velocity at incipient motion and  $V_{cr}/\omega$  = dimensionless critical velocity.

Equation (2.23) is the basic equation specifying the flow condition when a sediment particle is ready to move on the bottom of an open channel. The values of  $\psi_1$ ,  $\psi_2$ , and  $\psi_3$  have to be determined experimentally. The roughness function  $B$  depends on whether the boundary is in a hydraulically smooth, transition, or completely rough regime.

In the hydraulically smooth regime,  $B$  is a function of only the shear velocity Reynolds number  $U_* d/\nu$  (Schlichting, 1962), i.e.,

$$B = 5.5 + 5.75 \log \frac{U_* d}{\nu}, \quad 0 < \frac{U_* d}{\nu} < 5 \quad (2.24)$$

Then Eq. (2.23) becomes

$$\frac{V_{cr}}{\omega} = \left[ \frac{\log(D/d) - 1}{\log(U_* d/\nu) + 0.956} + 1 \right] \left[ \frac{\psi_1 \psi_2 \psi_3}{\psi_2 + \psi_3} \right]^{1/2} \quad (2.25)$$

which is a hyperbola on a semilog plot between  $V_{cr}/\omega$  and  $U_* d/\nu$ . The relative roughness  $d/D$  should not have any significant influence on the shape of this hyperbola in the hydraulically smooth regime.

In the completely rough regime, the protrusions reach outside the laminar sublayer. The laminar friction contribution can be neglected, and  $B$  is a function of only the relative roughness  $d/D$ , i.e.,

$$B = 8.5, \quad \frac{U_* d}{\nu} > 70 \quad (2.26)$$

Then Eq. (2.23) becomes

$$\frac{V_{cr}}{\omega} = \left[ \frac{\log(D/d) - 1}{1.48} + 1 \right] \left[ \frac{\psi_1 \psi_2 \psi_3}{\psi_2 + \psi_3} \right]^{1/2} \quad (2.27)$$

Equation (2.27) indicates that in the completely rough regime, the plot of  $V_{cr}/\omega$  against  $U_* d/\nu$  is a straight horizontal line. The position of this horizontal line depends on the value of the relative roughness,  $\psi_1$ ,  $\psi_2$ , and  $\psi_3$ .

In the transition regime with the shear velocity Reynolds number between 5 and 70, protrusions extend partly outside the laminar sublayer. Both the laminar friction and turbulent friction contributions should be considered. In this case,  $B$  deviates gradually from Eq. (2.24) with increasing  $U_* d/\nu$ . It is reasonable to expect that, basically, Eq. (2.25) is still valid, but with the relative roughness  $d/D$  playing an increasingly important role as  $U_* d/\nu$  increases.

Laboratory data collected by different investigators were used by Yang (1973) for the determination of coefficients in Eqs. (2.25) and (2.27). The incipient motion criteria thus obtained are

$$\frac{V_{cr}}{\omega} = \frac{2.5}{\log(U_* d/\nu)} + 0.66, \quad 1.2 < \frac{U_* d}{\nu} < 70 \quad (2.28)$$

and

$$\frac{V_{cr}}{\omega} = 2.05, \quad 70 \leq \frac{U_* d}{\nu} \quad (2.29)$$

Equation (2.28) indicates that the relationship between dimensionless critical average flow velocity and Reynolds number follows a hyperbola when the Reynolds number is less than 70. When the Reynolds number is greater than 70,  $V_{cr}/\omega$  becomes a constant, as shown in Eq. (2.29). Comparisons between Eqs. (2.28), (2.29), and laboratory data are shown in Fig. 2.6. It should be pointed out that, although Eq. (2.27) indicates that  $V_{cr}/\omega$  should be a function

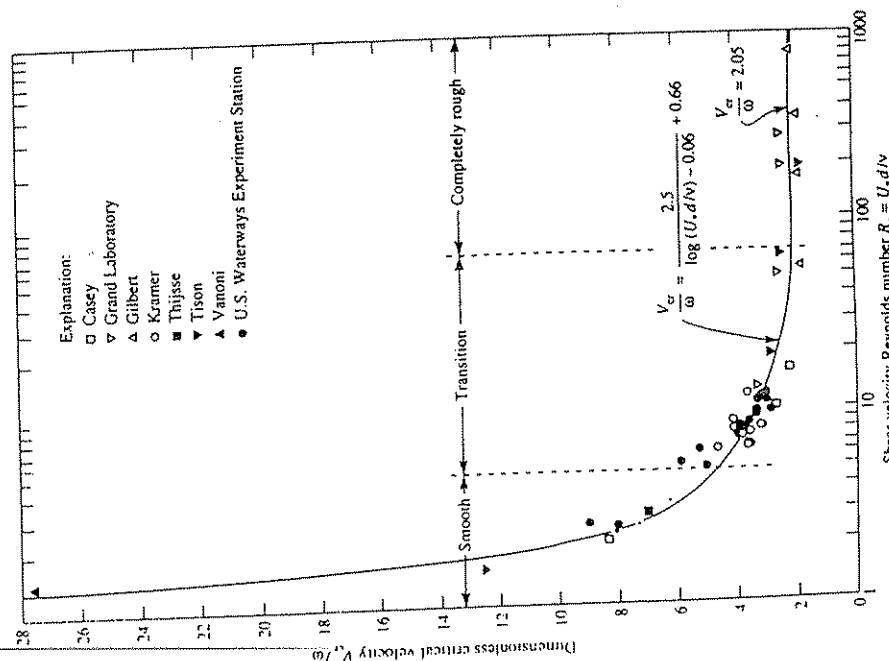


FIGURE 2.6 Relationship between dimensionless critical average velocity and Reynolds number (Yang, 1973).

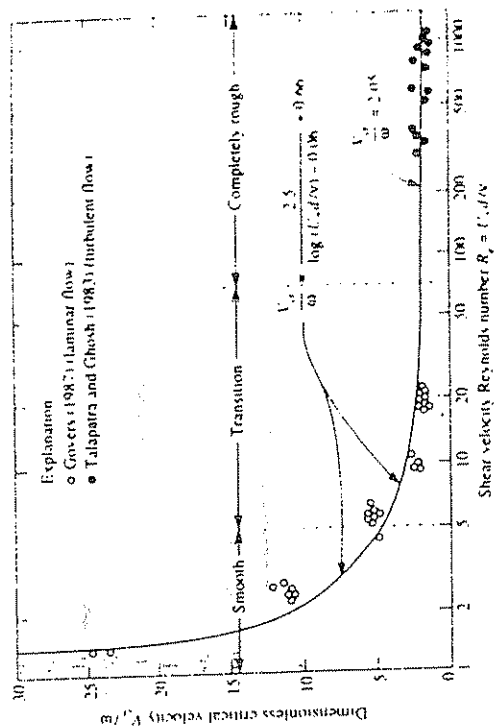


FIGURE 2.7 Verification of Yang's incipient motion criteria.

of relative roughness  $d/D$ , available data are insufficient to determine its effect on incipient motion. Consequently, this effect was ignored and a constant value was used by Yang in Eq. (2.29). Figure 2.7 summarizes independent laboratory verification of Yang's criteria by Govers (1987) and Talapatra and Ghosh (1983).

## 2.5 PROBABILISTIC CONSIDERATION

The incipient motion of a single sediment particle along an alluvial bed is probabilistic in nature. It depends on the location of a given particle with respect to particles of different sizes as well as to its position on a bed form, such as ripple and dune. It also depends on the instantaneous strength of turbulence and the orientation of the sediment particles. The criteria presented so far represent the mean condition that there is a 50% chance for a given sediment to move under specified flow and sediment conditions. Gessler (1965, 1970) measured the probability that grains of a specific size will stay. The study was based on measuring the grain size distribution of the eroded as well as the armor materials (see Section 2.7.1, for the definition of armor). It was shown that the probability of a given grain to stay on the bed depends mainly on the Shields parameter and slightly on the grain Reynolds number. The ratio between critical shear stress  $\tau_c$ , determined from the Shields diagram and the bottom shear stress  $\tau$  is directly related to the probability that a sediment

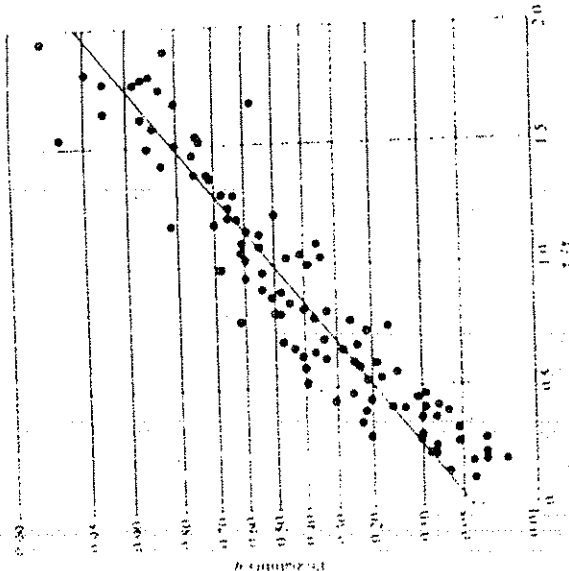


FIGURE 2.8  
Probability for grains to stay:  $q$   
versus  $\tau/\tau_c$  (Gessler, 1965).

particle will stay. This relationship is shown in Fig. 2.8. It can be used to determine the grain size distribution in the armor layer. Let

$$P_a(k) = \int_{k_{\min}}^k p_a(k) dk \quad (2.30)$$

where  $p_a$  = frequency function of the original distribution and  $k$  = grain size.

The armor layer size frequency function is

$$p_a(k) = k_1 q p_0(k) \quad (2.31)$$

where  $q$  = probability for a grain of size  $k$  to stay and  $k_1$  = constant.

The value of  $q$  varies with grain size  $k$ , and can be found from Fig. 2.8. The  $k$  value can be determined by

$$\int_{k_{\min}}^k p_a(k) dk = 1 \quad (2.32)$$

The grain size distribution of the armor layer is

$$P_a(k) = \frac{\int_{k_{\min}}^k q p_0(k) dk}{\int_{k_{\min}}^k q p_0(k) dk} \quad (2.33)$$

The grain size distribution of the moving material is

$$P_s(k) = \frac{\int_{k_{\min}}^k (1-q) p_0(k) dk}{\int_{k_{\min}}^k (1-q) p_0(k) dk} \quad (2.34)$$

Once a stable armor layer is developed, sediments of finer size than that given in Eq. (2.34) will cease to move.

## 2.6 OTHER INCIPIENT MOTION CRITERIA

In addition to those just described, the following criteria have been used by engineers for the determination of incipient motion and the formation of an armor layer.

### 2.6.1 Meyer-Peter and Müller Criterion

From Meyer-Peter and Müller's (1948) bed load equation, the sediment size at incipient motion can be obtained as

$$d = \frac{SD}{K_1(n/d_{90}^{1/6})^{3/2}} \quad (2.35)$$

where  $d$  = sediment size in the armor layer (in mm),

$S$  = channel slope,

$D$  = mean flow depth,

$K_1$  = constant (= 0.19 when  $D$  is in ft and 0.058 when  $D$  is in m),

$n$  = channel bottom roughness or Manning's roughness coefficient, and

$d_{90}$  = bed material size where 90% of the material is finer.

Detailed discussions of the Meyer-Peter and Müller formula are given in Chapter 4.

### 2.6.2 Mavis and Laushey Criterion

Mavis and Laushey (1948) developed the following relationship for a sediment particle at its incipient motion condition:

$$V_b = K_2 d^{1/2} \quad (2.36)$$

where  $V_b$  = competent bottom velocity =  $0.7 \times$  mean flow velocity,

$K_2$  = constant (= 0.51 when  $V_b$  is in ft/s and 0.155 when  $V_b$  is in m/s),

and

$d$  = sediment size (in mm).



### 2.6.3 U.S. Bureau of Reclamation Criterion

The critical shear stress can be expressed by

$$\tau_c = \gamma DS \quad (2.27)$$

where  $\tau_c$  = critical tractive force or shear stress (in lb/ft<sup>2</sup> or gm/m<sup>2</sup>),  
 $\gamma$  = specific weight of water (= 62.4 lb/ft<sup>3</sup> or 1 ton/m<sup>3</sup>), and  
 $D$  = mean flow depth (in ft or m).

The relationship between critical tractive force and mean sediment diameter for stable channel design recommended by the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation (1977) is shown in Fig. 2.9.

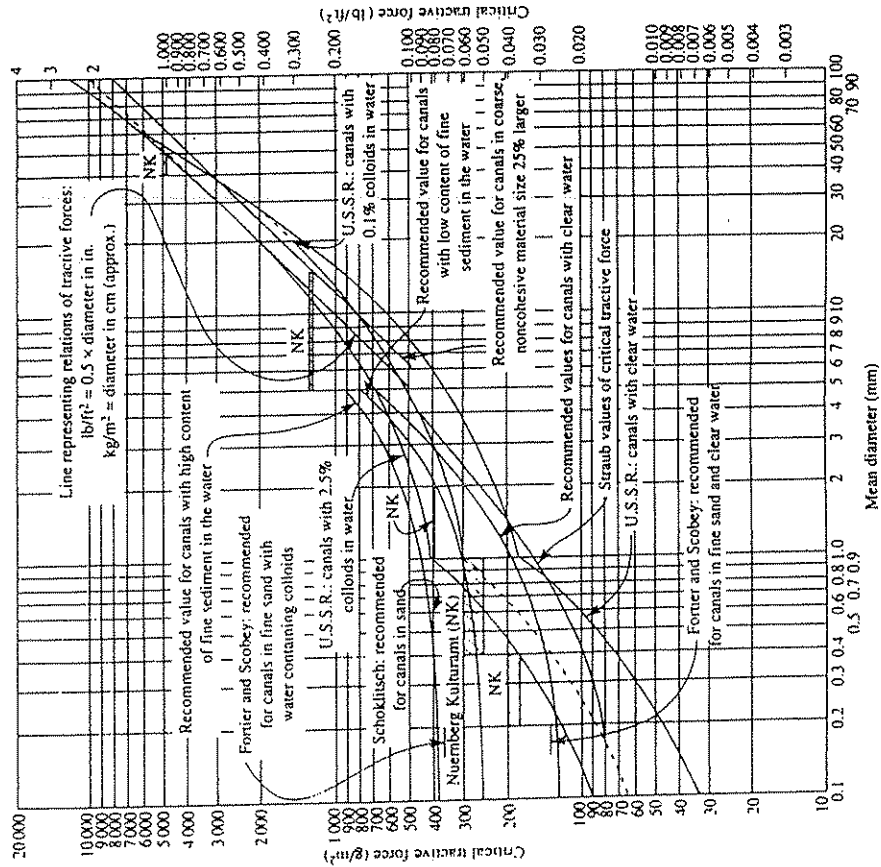


FIGURE 2.9  
Tractive force versus transportable sediment size (U.S. Bureau of Reclamation, 1987).

### 2.7 CHANNEL DEGRADATION AND ARMORING

#### 2.7.1 Armoring Process

When a channel's sediment transport capability exceeds the rate of sediment supply from upstream, the balance of sediment load has to come from the channel itself. In this case, the channel starts to degrade. Because of the nonuniformity of the bed-material size, finer materials will be transported at a faster rate than the coarser materials, and the remaining bed material become coarser. This coarsening process will stop once a layer of coarse material completely covers the streambed and protects the finer materials beneath it from being transported. After this process is completed, the streambed is armored and the coarser layer is called the armor layer. Due to the variation of flow condition of a natural river, usually more than one layer of armoring material is required to protect the finer material beneath it from being eroded. A definition sketch of armoring is shown in Fig. 2.10. From this,

$$Y_a = Y - Y_d \quad (2.38)$$

where  $Y_a$  = thickness of the armoring layer,  
 $Y$  = depth from original streambed to bottom of the armoring layer,  
 and  
 $Y_d$  = depth from the original streambed to the top of the armoring layer  
 or the depth of degradation.

Based on the definition of armoring layer thickness,  $Y_a$  can also be expressed as

$$Y_a = (\Delta p) Y \quad (2.39)$$

where  $\Delta p$  = decimal percentage of material larger than the armoring size.

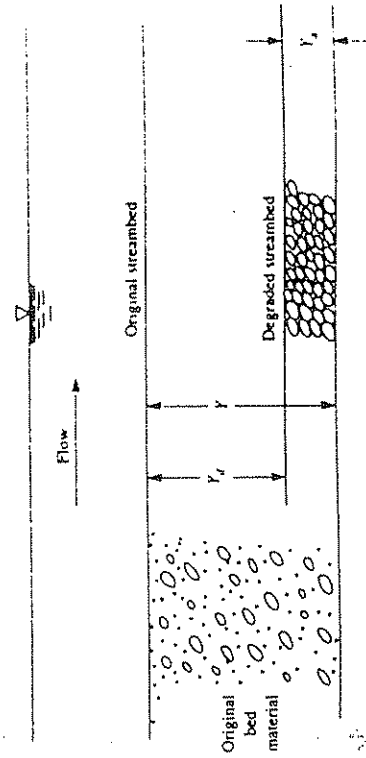


FIGURE 2.10  
Definition sketch of streambed armoring.



① در قشر استیک کانال مستطیلی شکل با بستر فرسایش و دیواره های تمام خاکی خاکی شده طراحی گردد. شیب متوسط زمین در مسیر کانال  $S_0 = 0.01$  می باشد. مواد بستر در کانال از نوع کوارتز با بابت شنی (Quartz Gravel) با  $S_g = 2.65$  است. ظرفیت طراحی کانال ( $Q_{max} = 10 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ ) تعیین گردیده است. منبع تامین آب از یک رودخانه است. تأسیسات آبیگری شامل یک سد انحرافی، درجه های آبگیر و حوضچه رسوب گیر می باشد. انتظار می رود که جریان آب در رودی به کانال فاقد رسوبات در دست داند (بارکف) باشد، و قابلیت فرسایش در کانال نیز نداشته باشد.

ابعاد هندسه حیدر و لکی کانال (عرض، عمق آب)، سرعت متوسط جریان (V) و عدد فرود (Fr) را محاسبه نمایید، در شرایطی که:

- اگر شایع اندازه مواد بستر به ترتیب:  $10^{\text{mm}}$ ,  $50^{\text{mm}}$ ,  $100^{\text{mm}}$  باشد.
- نسبت عرض به عمق ( $\frac{B}{Y}$ ) را بصورت تابعی از اندازه مواد بستر (d) ارزیابی و ثبت نمایید.
- سرعت متوسط جریان را برای هر سه حالت با سرعت حد جریان ( $V_{cr}$ ) مقایسه و ارزیابی نمایید.
- اگر اندازه مواد بتری ( $d_{75} = 4^{\text{mm}}$ ) باشد، ابعاد حیدر و لکی کانال را حساب نمایید.

راهنما:

- روش حل مسئله در حالت الف برای  $d_{75} = 50^{\text{mm}}$  بطور مثال برای شما حل شده است.
- ضریب زبری Manning (n) را از رابطه Strickler بصورت زیر محاسبه نمایید.  
$$n = 0.038 (d_{75})^{1/6} \quad ; \quad d : \text{cm}$$
- تنش جوی مواد بتری را از روش Shields محاسبه نمایید.

② The flow and Sediment conditions of a river are as follows:

Discharge,  $Q = 15000 \text{ cfs}$  ; Average depth,  $D = 6 \text{ ft}$  ; Average velocity,  $V = 2 \text{ fps}$  ; Bed-material sizes vary from 1 to 2 mm ; Bed slope,  $S_0 = 0.0001$  ; and Water Temperature,  $T = 40^\circ \text{F}$ .

Based on the Shields criterion, determine whether the bed material will move.

③ Design a rectangular channel on a sandy soil with  $d_{50} = 1.5 \text{ mm}$ .

The channel bed should not erode with a design discharge  $Q = 60 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}$  ; width  $W = 20 \text{ ft}$  ; and slope  $S = 0.0005$ .

\* Use the Yang's incipient motion criteria.

- ④ Prove that the minimum stone size for which Shields entrainment function is constant at the inception of motion is 6 mm.

Given:  $\nu = 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ ,  $S_g = 2.65$

- ⑤ Prove that for an Unlined Trapezoidal channel in alluvium, the ratio of the shear stress on the side wall ( $\tau_c$ ) to that on the bed ( $\tau_b$ ) at the inception of motion is given by:

$$\frac{\tau_c}{\tau_b} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{\sin^2 \phi}}$$

where,  $\theta$  is the side slope; and  $\phi$  the natural angle of repose of the alluvium.

Comment on any assumptions made.

- ⑥ A trapezoidal irrigation channel of base width 2.4 m with grass-covered sides must carry prolonged flows of  $2.8 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  on a slope of 0.01.

(a) If the side slopes are 2H:1V, and the Manning's  $n$  is estimated to be 0.03, determine the minimum size of gravel which should be used to line the centre of this channel to avoid sediment transport.

(b) Calculate critical depth, and Froude number in the given channel cross section.

- ⑦ A channel which will carry a discharge of  $30 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  is to be cut on a slope of 0.0005 through coarse, well-sorted alluvium having a  $D_{75}$  size of 25 mm and  $S_g = 2.65$ .

(a) Assuming side slopes of 2H:1V, determine the minimum base width, using a "safety factor" of 20%.

(b) Does your solution of (a) represent an economical cross-section? Discuss.

- ⑧ Determine the depth of degradation in an alluvial channel based on the methods of Meyer-Peter and Muller, Mavis and Laursen, the USBR, Shields, and Yang; where,  $Q = 1000 \text{ cfs}$ ,  $W = 50 \text{ ft}$  (width),  $D = 4 \text{ ft}$  (depth),  $V = 5 \text{ ft/s}$ ,  $S_b = 0.006$ ,  $d_{50} = 25 \text{ mm}$ ,  $d_{90} = 50 \text{ mm}$ ,  $S_g = 2.65$ ,  $n = 0.045$

⑨

A channel which is to carry  $57 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  is to be excavated on a slope of 0.001 through country made up of coarse alluvium having a  $d_{75}$  size of 37 mm. The material can be described as "slightly rounded". The channel is to be unlined and of most efficient cross-section.

(a) Determine its shape and stable dimensions.

(b) Compare the resulting cross-section of Part (a) with that of a Trapezoidal section designed according to the method of Example 2.2 (in your Lecture note on "Stable Channel Design" by R. J. Keller).

⑩

Design a curved unlined trapezoidal channel with a ratio of radius of curvature to top width ( $r_c/B$ ) of 3 under the following given flow and sediment conditions:

water discharge  $Q = 500 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}$ ; Channel slope  $S = 0.001$ ;

Manning's roughness coefficient  $n = 0.012$ ; and mean bed-material diameter  $d = 30 \text{ mm}$  (slightly rounded).

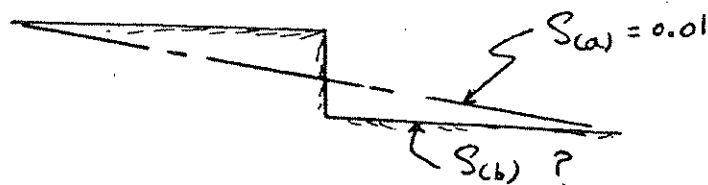
⑪ یا سراج به منبع شماره (۱) - بخش (Stable-Channel Design) :

تغییرات نسبت عرض به عمق در محاسبات با استفاده از ارزیابی نماید.

- ① A rectangular irrigation channel is required to carry a discharge of  $15 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  on a slope of  $0.01$  through coarse alluvium having a  $D_{75}$  size of  $40 \text{ mm}$ , and  $S_g = 2.65$ .

\* If the banks are protected against erosion,

- Determine what width the channel will have to be if no drop structures are to be used.
- If the channel width is made equal to half the value calculated in part (a), determine what proportion of the total fall has to be accomplished by means of drop structures.



\*\* If the channel is completely unlined, determine suitable dimensions for a trapezoidal cross-section.

- ② A non-erodible canal is to be constructed in gravel of  $D_{75} = 3 \text{ mm}$ . The channel slope is  $1.6 \times 10^{-4}$  and scour is to be avoided.

Design the most efficient stable cross-section to carry a discharge of

- $20 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$
- $2 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$

Assume:

\*  $V = 1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$

\*  $\phi = 35^\circ$

\*  $n = 0.038 D_{75}^{1/6}$

# فصل پنجم: طراحی کانال‌های پایدار (Stable Channel Design)

د-1) طراحی کانال‌های پایدار - رس‌ریز - ته‌ریز - ته‌ریز - رس‌ریز :

Non-Scouring, Non-Silting Erodible Bed Channel.

2-1-1) پایدار بودن : Bed Stability  
روش‌های مختلف برای بررسی پایداری

$\tau_c =$  تنش بحرانی - تنش بحرانی

$\tau_o = \gamma R S$  متوسط تنش برشی

if  $\tau_o > \tau_c \Rightarrow$  Scouring  $\Rightarrow$  Change in Cross Section  
تغییر در مقطع عرضی

$\Rightarrow$  Unstable Channel.

if  $\tau_o < \tau_c$  : Stable - Channel Bed

{	Non-Scouring	از مقدار تنش (تنش) کمتر
	Non-Deposition	روند رسوب کمتر

{	Clear water Flow	کانال‌های پایدار در شرایط خالص
	Water Flowing Containing Fine Suspended material	(ماده آلوده: ماسه، گل، رس)

میزان بار (Bed load) بار دریاچه ته‌ریز و رسوبات دریاچه  
انتقال رسوبات دریاچه به دریاچه  
(۱.۲)

مثال: اختراک آب از دروازه - عدد از رستویی در حوضه رستویی

طرح حوضه رستویی: ۱. بافت لایه

۲. بافتن قاع به نشانه لایه

یا آبیاری از سر راه (از درختی) به سمت رستویی و به سمت دروازه قاع  
به نشانه

برای استفاده از توری شش برشته، چنانچه باطل به نشانه لایه در دروازه

طرح کانال بافت به بیدار ماند:

- کانال به نشانه در دروازه حفاظت شده یا تمام به پیش

یا (در دروازه با دروازه های سطح) و یا (کانال خاص با پوشش بعضی دروازه ها)

- جاری عرض - متصل - سه دروازه جانبی به سمت یک سمت

← معیار طراحی: بیداری کانال

روش طراحی: برای روش شش جری - در طراحی بیداری کانال

مثال: استفاده از روش Shields به عنوان  $\tau_c$  در شبیه سازی

یا روش Van Rijn

شرایط کاربرد:

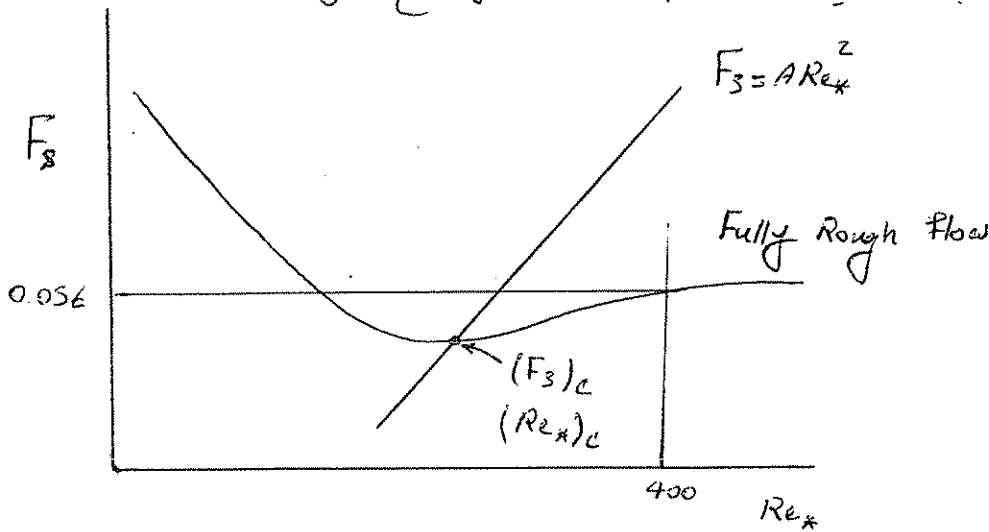
For a given  $\tau_c$  and  $\nu$  (مثبت آب)  $\rightarrow$  طرح مقطع کانال

$g \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \alpha \text{ size} \\ S_g = 2.65 \end{array} \right.$

$g_0 (1.03)$



حصول از روابط در دست یافتن  $\tau_0$  ← طالع مقطع کانال



$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} F_s = A Re_*^2, \quad A = \frac{v^2}{g D^3 (S_g - 1)} = \text{Known} \\ , \\ \text{معنی جریان شلر} \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow (F_s)_c, (Re_*)_c$$

$$\Rightarrow \tau_c = (F_s)_c [ \gamma_w D_s (S_g - 1) ]$$

شکل شلر

$$\tau_0 = \gamma R S_g = \tau_c \rightarrow \text{Cross Section} \rightarrow R$$

مقطع شلر در کانال برای یک شکل خاص، مشخصات مقطع در دست یافتن

$$(T_b)_{max} \approx \tau_0 = \gamma R S_g$$

اشاره حاصل شد که این است، منبسط می‌شود و در نقطه آخر به صورت شلر در می‌آید  
 و این مقدار از  $\tau_0$  (مثلاً 20/25) (یعنی 20/25) کمتر است.

آدمی در دست یافتن ← تغییر در : ۱. شلر  
 ۲. مقدار  $\tau_0$

شکل شلر در کانال (برای جریان در نقطه در دست یافتن شلر در کانال)  
 در شکل منبسط می‌شود و در کانال (مثلاً 20/25) (یعنی 20/25) کمتر است.

1) if  $D_{size} : \text{Unknown}$

1) If Fully Rough Flow

در این حالت عدد رینولدز باید به قدری بزرگ باشد که لایه مرزی به صورت کاملاً زبر درآید.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} Re_* \geq 400 \\ (F_s)_c = 8_{nst.} = 0.056 \end{array} \right\}$$

$$(0.056) \rightarrow \tau_c \rightarrow \text{مقدار}$$

$$0.056 = \frac{\tau_c}{\gamma D (S_g - 1)}, \quad \tau_c = \gamma R S_0 \Rightarrow D_{75} = D_{50}$$

$\gamma$  وزن مخصوص آب  
 $S_g$  جزایر آب  
 $D_{75}$  و  $D_{50}$  (مقادیر اندازه ذرات)

$$D_{50} > D_{50}(\text{مقدار})$$

Ref. no. (1) : For water,  $S_g = 2.65$  Prove that

$$D_{50} > 6 \text{ mm} \text{ where the flow is Fully Rough} \Rightarrow (F_s)_c = 0.056$$

در این حالت Fully Rough در  $6 \text{ mm}$  و  $D_{50}$  باید بزرگتر از این مقدار باشد.

$$(F_s)_c = 0.056 = \frac{\tau_0}{\gamma D (S_g - 1)} = \frac{\gamma R S}{\gamma D (S_g - 1)} = \frac{R S}{D (S_g - 1)}$$

Where :

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} S_g = 2.65 \text{ (برای آب)}, \quad v \approx 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}, \quad D > 6 \text{ mm} \\ \tau_0 = \gamma R S \text{ (مقدار)} \rightarrow \sin \alpha \approx \tan \alpha \approx S_0 \end{array} \right.$$

$$F_v = F_g \sin \alpha$$

then:  $D = 11 R S \rightarrow \text{Min Size of bed material}$

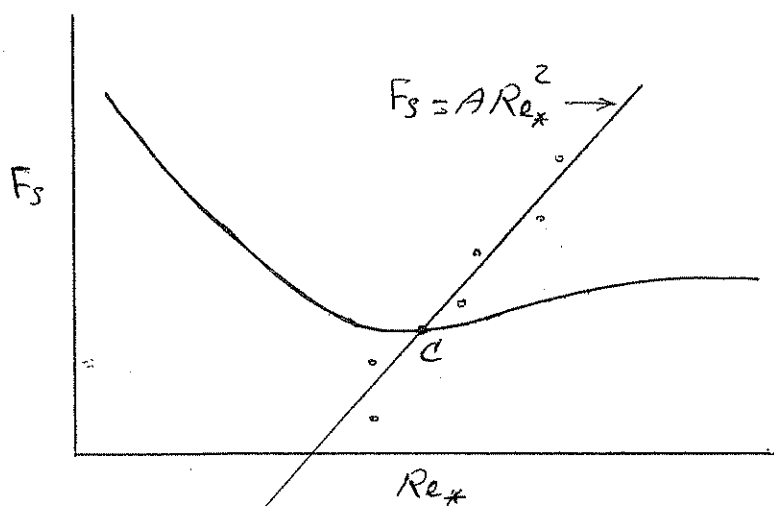
$$D_{50} \leftarrow \text{مقدار} \quad (D_{50} \text{ مقدار}) \quad \gamma = R, S_0, D_{50} \text{ مقدار}$$

مثال (2.1) از منبع (11) در دسترس است. مثال 2.1.3 (PP. 2.3)

$D_{75} (mm)$	$B/y$
10	?
50	$\approx 20$ (Not ok!)
100	?

این را از روی جدول (3) حل شود

— (2)  $\nexists D < 6 \text{ mm} \Rightarrow (F_s)_c \neq 0.056$



ریشه (1) - (2) است. در این حالت است. (3)

at intersection C:

$$(F_s)_c = \dots \Rightarrow \tau_c = \tau_0$$

Ex. (2.1) حل شود

$D$	$A = f(v, \rho, g, D)$	$Re_*$	$F_s$

منطقه برای خط منحنی (جواب)  $\log - \log$  بودن در دسترس است.

در دسترس است:  $(F_s, Re_*) \rightarrow D = ?$

از منبع (11) در دسترس است. (3) در دسترس است. (3) در دسترس است.

# ۵-۱-۲) ایستایی پهنای کانال : (Bank Stability)

مقدمه:

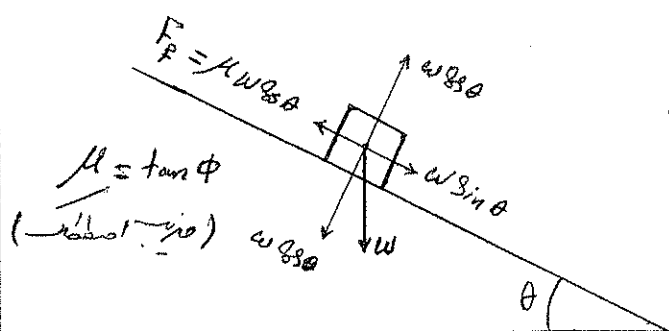
در معادله  $\tau_0 = \tau_{cr}$  فرض کنیم که  $\tau_0$  و  $\tau_{cr}$  به هم برابرند و در این صورت  $\alpha$  بسیار کوچک می شود.

$$\alpha \text{ "So Small"} \Rightarrow F_g \sin \alpha \approx 0$$

در این پهنای کانال (Side Slope) : مؤلفه وزن در جهت طولی

الف - مقطع زوزنقادی پهنای کانال:

کلی نیروها براساس (Lane 1953)



فرضیات:

ایستایی

۱- کلی نیروها براساس (1D)

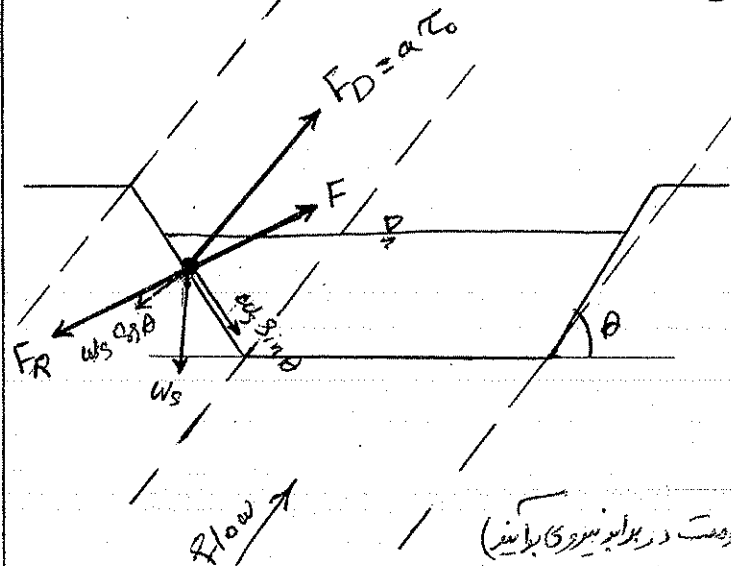
۲- جریان یکنواخت (Steady Flow):  $Q = Q_{const}$

۳- جریان یکنواخت (Uniform Flow):  $F_D$  برابر با نیروی اصطکاک است.

۴- نیروی  $Uplift (F_L)$  مستند شده - در جهت  $F_D$  و  $F_L$  است.

۵- زلزله روی شیب در جهت حرکت (Rolling) : نه غلتش (Sliding)

۶- به حالت اصطکاک کمترین روی شیب سطح مؤثر اصطکاک است.



$F_D = \alpha \tau_0$  : نیروی اصطکاک در جهت حرکت

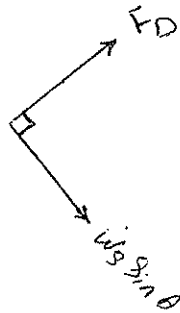
$F$  : در جهت  $(W \sin \theta, F_D)$

نیروی اصطکاک مؤثر در جهت

$F_R$  : در جهت خلاف جهت نیروی  $F$  (نیروی اصطکاک در جهت برآورد)

(۱۰۷)

$$\vec{W}_s \sin \theta \perp \vec{F}_D$$



نیروی  $F_D$  در راستای کف جهت حرکت است.

$W_s \sin \theta$  در جهت است.

$$\vec{F} = \vec{F}_D + \vec{W}_s \sin \theta$$

Acting Forces: نیروهای مؤثر

۱)  $W_s \sin \theta$  : مؤلفه وزن در جهت موازی با زاویه  $\theta$

$W_s$  = Submerged weight of the particle

یعنی نیروی شیب در جهت موازی با کف است؛

در جهت موازی با سطح مقطع (در جهت موازی با کف)

۲)  $F_D$  : Flow shear Force (Drag), in direction of flow  
(Bed slope) جویات شیب کم به جهت حرکت

نیروی کشش در جهت حرکت = نیروی حرکت

$$F_D = \alpha \tau_0$$

$\alpha$  : سطح مقطع در جهت شیب

$\tau_0$  : شیب در جهت موازی با کف - موازی با کف

۳) Resistance Force : نیروی مقاوم در جهت لغزش

نیروی مقاوم در جهت موازی با کف (در جهت موازی با کف)  $(F)$

$$F_R = (W_s \cos \theta) \tan \phi$$

where:  $\tan \phi$  = Friction def.

در جهت موازی با کف;  $\phi$  = Angle of Repose of material.

شرایط استتاد حرکت زرد روی دیوار :

- معادلات استتاد :

(چون حرکت لغزش در جهت عمود بر سطح است پس شرط  $\sum M_o = 0$  را نداریم)

$$\sum \vec{F} = 0 \Rightarrow (\sum F)_{acting} = (\sum F)_{Resist}$$

$$F = \sqrt{F_D^2 + (W_S \sin \theta)^2} = F_R$$

$$\sqrt{(\alpha \tau_o)^2 + (W_S \sin \theta)^2} = W_S \cos \theta \cdot \tan \phi$$

$$\tau_o = \left(\frac{W_S}{\alpha}\right) \cos \theta \tan \phi \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{\tan^2 \theta}{\tan^2 \phi}\right)} = (\tau_w)_{critical}$$

تنش برشی بحرانی در دیوار : Critical Shear Stress on side wall :  
مقدار بحرانی دیوار

شکل : زرد با شکل، اندازه مختلف  $\theta$ ،  $\alpha$  و  $W_S$  را در نظر بگیرید.

if  $\theta = 0 \rightarrow \tau_o \rightarrow \tau_c (W_S \cos \theta)$

موضع مهم : دیوار عمود بر سطح عمود بر سطح است.

$$\theta = 0 \rightarrow \tau_c = \frac{W_S}{\alpha} \tan \phi = (\tau_b)_{critical}$$

تنش برشی بحرانی در دیوار  
بافت عمود

$$\frac{(\tau_w)_c}{(\tau_b)_c} = \cos \theta \sqrt{1 - \frac{\tan^2 \theta}{\tan^2 \phi}}$$

هم : از این  $(\tau_w)_c$  از رابطه بالا می توانیم  $\alpha$  و  $W_S$  را بدست آوریم.

نسبت  $\frac{(\tau_w)_c}{(\tau_b)_c}$  به نسبت  $\alpha$  و  $W_S$  و مقدار  $(\tau_b)_c$  از رابطه بالا می توانیم بدست آوریم.  
(1.9)

Prove that:

فرض کنید  $\theta$  و  $\phi$  زاویه های بحرانی باشند

$$\left( \frac{\tau_w}{\tau_b} \right)_{critical} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{\sin^2 \phi}}$$

$(\tau_b)_{critical}$  : بیشترین تنش برشی که به طور مستقیم در سطح تنش برشی ایجاد می شود

$$(\tau_w)_{crit.} = (\tau_b)_{crit.} \times K$$

$$K = F(\theta, \phi)$$

فرض کنید

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{if } \theta = 0 \Rightarrow (\tau_w)_{crit.} = (\tau_b)_{crit.} \\ \text{if } \theta > 0 \Rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{if } \phi = \theta \Rightarrow (\tau_w)_{crit.} = 0 \\ \text{حالتی که در این حالت تنش برشی در سطح تنش برشی ایجاد می شود} \\ \text{و تنش برشی در سطح تنش برشی ایجاد می شود} \\ \text{و تنش برشی در سطح تنش برشی ایجاد می شود} \\ \text{in Design: } \theta < \phi \Rightarrow (\tau_w)_{crit.} < (\tau_b)_{crit.} \end{array} \right. \end{array} \right.$$

تنش برشی بحرانی در سطح تنش برشی ایجاد می شود و تنش برشی در سطح تنش برشی ایجاد می شود

نتیجه:

تنش برشی بحرانی در سطح تنش برشی ایجاد می شود و تنش برشی در سطح تنش برشی ایجاد می شود

حالتی که در این حالت تنش برشی در سطح تنش برشی ایجاد می شود و تنش برشی در سطح تنش برشی ایجاد می شود

$$\theta < \phi \Rightarrow (\tau_w)_{crit.} < (\tau_b)_{crit.} \Rightarrow \text{معمولاً تنش برشی در سطح تنش برشی ایجاد می شود}$$

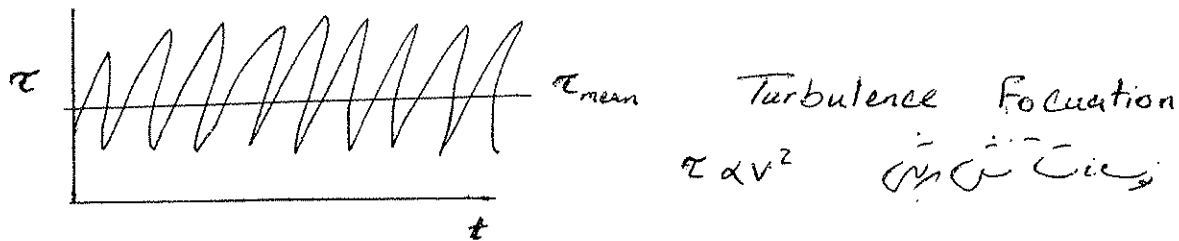
فرض کنید اگر تنش برشی در سطح تنش برشی ایجاد می شود و تنش برشی در سطح تنش برشی ایجاد می شود

۲. معادله تنش برشی در سطح تنش برشی ایجاد می شود و تنش برشی در سطح تنش برشی ایجاد می شود

عدد رینولدز بحرانی  $\left(\frac{\tau_w}{\tau_b}\right)_{crit.}$  :

۱. نیروی  $F_L$  (Lift Force) برشماره می‌شود

۲. از نوعیت بدست و علامت جریان متوسط یا اتم‌های جریان در رنده است.



۳. با توجه به میزان مقدار تنش برشی این از حد متوسط بیشتر  $\leftarrow$  سوار روی رنده تنش برشی می‌شود که می‌تواند حرکت خواهد کرد.

۴. تا اثر جریان نیاید و غیر یکنواخت، منتهی جریان یا اتم‌های جریان (نیروی  $F_D$  که است در جهت شب رویه نیروی درنگ می‌کند).

۵. غلظت ربات به حد نیامده، که به صورت شیری ربات به نقش انجام می‌دهد. در غلظت اشکال یک تعدادی داریم که در نقش سطح امواج می‌داریم.

۶. افزایش مقاومت در برابر حرکت در اثر فصل شدن و چسبندگی مانده می‌ماند در رنده رنده شده است. (مخلوط در روی یک رنده مقدار)

تایم سوار روی رنده:

بعد از افزایش مقدار  $(\tau_w)_{crit.}$  می‌شود

$$(\tau_w)_{crit.} < \text{مقدار واقعی } (\tau_w)_{crit.}$$

از نظر تجربی:

می‌شود  $(\tau_w)_{crit.}$  از روابط فوق عدد  $\rho$  و  $\mu$  افزایش می‌دهد (Overestimation) دارد



$$\tau_w = \tau_b \left( \sqrt{1 - \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{\sin^2 \phi}} \right)$$

$$\tau_b = \gamma/\rho S \simeq \gamma/\rho S$$

∴  $\frac{1}{2} \times 100 = 50$

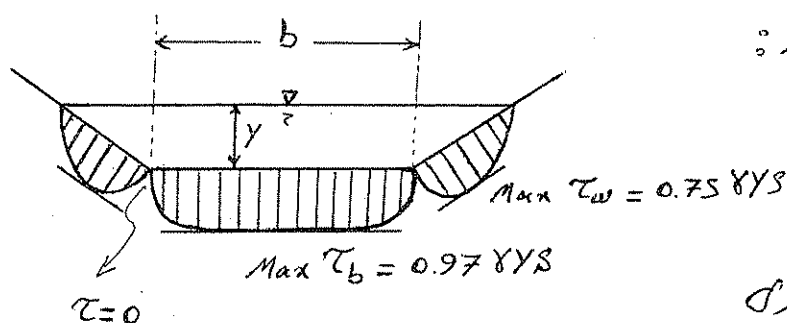
$$\sqrt{2} Q \sim \sqrt{2} Q_{crit} (r_{crit})$$

(Safety Factor)  $\leftarrow \sqrt{N_0 \frac{1}{\sigma_{\text{max}}}}$

- محدودیت در نحوه توزیع مشرب در کف دیواره :

کتاب دوم: کتبیه شریفه در واقع متوسط است در میان کتب آیه در سوره است ولی توزیعش متفاوت است.

- توزیع شش برای کامل روزنه :



USBR (Lane, 1953)

منقول، ٢٨٣١

٨٧٩، ع

$$(\theta = 0, \theta = \phi \text{ and } \phi)$$

$$(\tau_w)_{max} < (\tau_b)_{max}$$

از حد مرسوم  $\tau_{max}$  مراد  $\tau$  می باشد، یعنی هیچ نقطه ای از یک تیر به ریانه  $\tau_{max}$

Viols Te no n. 1. 2.

$$0.75 \text{ gys} \approx (\tau_w)_{\text{crit.}} \quad \leftarrow \text{منه}$$

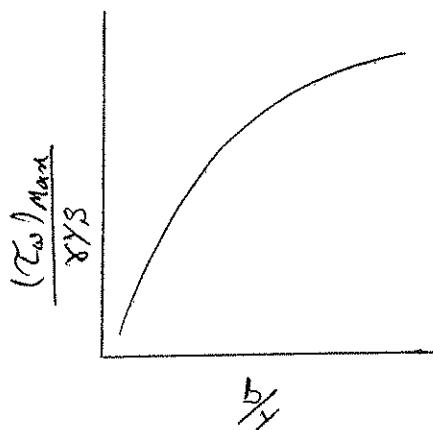
$$\tau_0 = \gamma R S$$

۱- متوسط شش ریه حاد (رف در بزرگسالان)

تفصیل در باره حیوانات:  $\left( \begin{array}{c} \tau_1 \\ \tau_2 \end{array} \right) < \tau_3$  (در باره حیوانات)

۱۲/  $\frac{\tau_{Max}}{\tau_{mean}} = \frac{\tau_{Max}}{VRS} = f(\theta, \frac{b}{y})$  : در کانال‌های نرفته‌ای ریشه‌ایک

این نمودار برای مقایسه و انتخاب



نمودار در Fig. 2.3

مربوع به (۱۱) - Bob Keller

P. 2.7

در مراحلی:

معیار کانال‌های نرفته‌ای ریشه‌ایک

مراحلی مقصود کانال‌های نرفته‌ای Safe Design

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{ریشه‌ایک} : (\tau_b)_{max} = 0.97 VRS = VRS \\ \text{در مراحلی} : (\tau_{ws})_{max} = 0.75 VRS \end{array} \right. \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{(به توجیه)} \\ \text{(Fig. 2.3)} \end{array}$$

کلاً روابط بدست آمده برای کانال‌های نرفته در جهت مستقیم است.

- روش مراحلی برای کانال‌های نرفته‌ای:

Design Procedure For Stable Trapezoidal Channel:

1) Determine  $\phi$  From bed material

2) Determine  $\theta$ : Side slope  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Try } \theta < \phi \\ \text{Preferably } \theta \ll \phi \end{array} \right.$



معمولاً (3-5) در مراحلی ریشه‌ایک

z و مقبوض از 0.25 انتخاب

مراحلی ریشه‌ایک :  $z = 1.5$

مراحلی ریشه‌ایک :  $z \leq 2$

(۱۱۳)

3) Determine  $(\tau_b)_c$  : (Critical Shear stress on Horizontal bed)  
(e.g. Shields Function, ...)

4) Determine  $(\tau_w)_c$  : (Critical Shear Stress on Side Slope)

$$\text{From : } \frac{(\tau_w)_{crit.}}{(\tau_b)_{crit.}} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{\sin^2 \phi}}, (\tau_b)_c$$

5) Determine Depth of Flow ( $Y$ ) From:

$(\tau_w)_{crit.} = \text{Max. allowable stress on the side slope}$

کازیم ش جید در رس رویه

$$\frac{(\tau_b)_{crit.} \text{ From Step 4}}{\text{ش کانی رس رویه}} = \frac{0.75 \gamma S_0}{\text{کازیم ش جید در رس رویه}}$$

نکات:  
① مقدار ش بیش کانی رس رویه است

② کازیم ش جید در رس رویه  $(0.75 \gamma S_0)$

6) Reduce  $Y$  (From Step 5) by 20% (Safety Factor)

and/or

Reduce  $\tau_o$  (From Step 4) " " "

$(\tau \propto Y)$

تکثیر کردن ش جید در رس رویه

به کاهش ش جید در رس رویه

7) Calculate Base Width ( $b$ ) From Manning's Eq. and Continuity Eq.

See Ex. 2.2 in your Notebook. (Bub. P. 2.8 = (11) در کتاب)

ش جید در رس رویه (7.3), (7.4), French (1986), (114)

# Most Efficient Stable Cross-Section

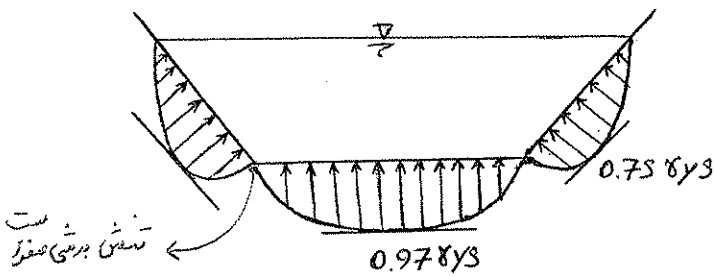
مقدمه:

مقطع زوئیته ای از نظر ضریب رانندگی و پایداری و از نظر هیدرولیکی

در کانال های بوشی، زوئیته ترین سطح مقطع به نیم دایره ای است ← از نظر هیدرولیکی  $(\frac{A}{P})$  حداقل و از نظر ایمنی سازه است که برای پایداری مقطع زوئیته ای هیدرولیکی مواضع داشته باشیم.

در کانال های خاکی:

توزیع نامساوی تنش برای دایره نیم دایره



$$\tau = \left( \frac{0}{0.978y_s} \right) \rightarrow \frac{0.978y_s}{2} \text{ Max در مرکز}$$

اصل طراحی ← حد برای تنش در دیواره ها

$$\tau_{max} = 0.75 (848) \text{ مثلاً تنش مجاز در بتن}$$

مقطع ایده آل: ایستادگی و انتقال بار و همپا تر شده یک دایره.  
(نسبت به دیواره های دایره ای و دایره ای)

Efficient جان مقطع از نظر هیدرولیکی:

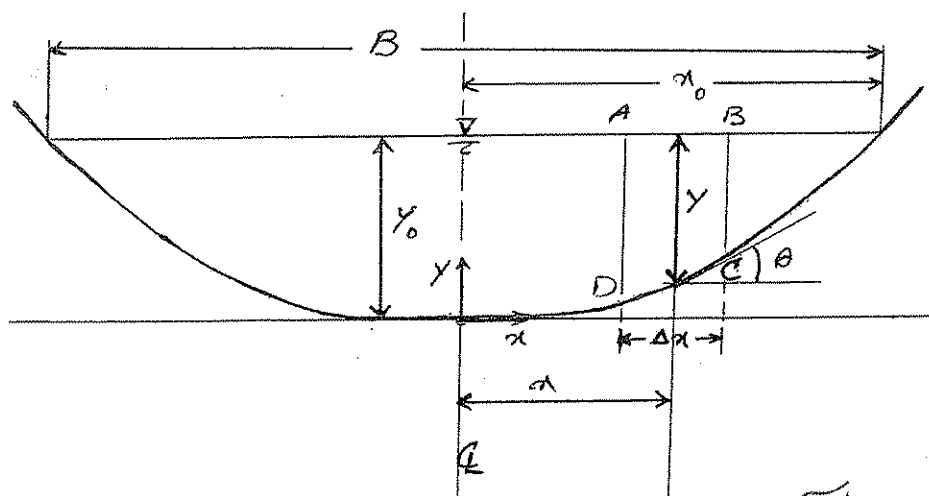
- یکفاز و توزیع تنش  $(\tau)$  روی همپا تر شده (حالت ایده آل)

- ریزش انداختن  $\tau$  مجاز در طراحی (از حد  $Min$  و  $Max$  کم شود) ← توزیع تنش متساوی شود

← { طرح مسقط عرض اخوند خان خانی } →

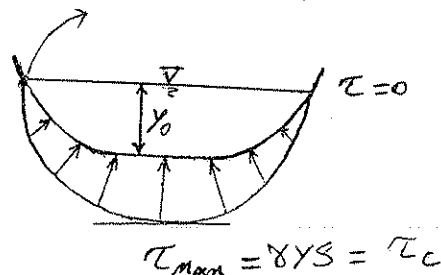
د/ا  
حدائق مریف مجاز یا تفتیش بدشی بجوانی بدست یارانش

(Lane 1953), USSR) طبع سنه ۱۳۵۱ هـ



در حالت عملی: تنش در سطح آب منفر خواهد بود

فصل پنجم در بیان احوال و مشیقه



•  $\frac{d}{dx} \bar{u}(y-x) \approx \frac{d}{dx} \bar{u}(x)$

$$\text{Eq. (14)}: \frac{(\tau_w)_c}{(\tau_b)_c} = c_{3\theta} \sqrt{1 - \frac{\tan^2 \theta}{\tan^2 \phi}}$$

تذکرہ اہل بیت  
میرزا یونس یونس  
ص ۱۰۰

نکته: هم نشانه  $(ABCD)$  در طول دایره کمانی و عرض کوسین  $\Delta n$  یعنی  $\Delta$  و

$\therefore 4 \times 1 \times 2 = 8$

فرض افکنیم: جریان یکنواخت و نیروی برش روی سطح CD (زن شده) مانند نیروی نمونه در آنجا - همگرا در امتداد شیب است طولی کانال باشد (در جهت جریان یکنواخت).

$\sum F = 0$  : رو حالت تعادل

$W \sin \alpha = F_v \iff$  نیروی عمودی - افقی همگرا در امتداد شیب کانال = نیروی مقاومت برش در جهت شیب کانال

فرض دیگر: نیروی برش بین همگراهای کانال در جهت شیب کانال.

$\tau \propto \frac{du}{dy} = 0 \Rightarrow u = \text{const.}$

در این صورت در مقطع عرضی نداریم (تکلیف یک عدد) و تاثیر نیروی برش Element های سطح کانال را حذف میکنیم.

(نتیجه USBR: فرض کردن تغییرات ضریب اصطکاق در سطح کانال)

در امتداد جریان یکنواخت:  $\sum F = 0$  شرایط تعادل

$W_{(c.v.)} \sin \alpha = \tau_o (DL \cdot L) \quad (15)$

نیروی عمودی - افقی در جهت یکنواخت (نمونه نیروی وزن در جهت شیب طولی کانال در امتداد شیب کانال)

$L$ : طول کانال  
 $\alpha$ : زاویه شیب طولی کانال  
 $\alpha \downarrow \Rightarrow \sin \alpha \approx \tan \alpha = \delta_o$

$\tau_o$ : متوسط تنش برش در جهت شیب کانال

$\gamma (\gamma \cdot \Delta n \cdot L) \delta_o = \tau_o \left( \frac{\Delta n}{\delta_{3\theta}} \cdot L \right) \quad (16)$

(نیروی برش عمودی - افقی در جهت شیب کانال)

$\gamma \gamma \Delta n \delta_o = \tau_o \frac{\Delta n}{\delta_{3\theta}} \quad (17)$  در واحد طولی کانال

14

$$\Rightarrow \tau_0 = \gamma \gamma_0 \rho_0 \theta : (18)$$

تبع تابع ش بر حسب  $\theta$   
(در واقع ش بر حسب  $\theta$ )

$$\rho_0 \theta \rightarrow \text{مقدار ثابت}$$

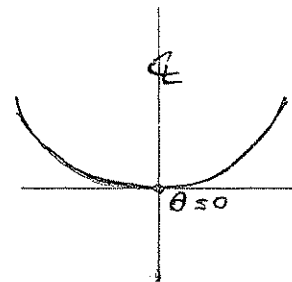
$$\text{But: } \hat{\theta}, \gamma = f(x) \Rightarrow \tau_0 = F(x) : \text{ش تابعی از } x$$

$$\text{at } x=0 \Rightarrow \hat{\theta} = 0$$

$\theta$  : مقدار ثابت

$$\text{Max } \tau_0 : \text{at } \theta=0, \gamma=\gamma_0 \text{ at } Q (x=0)$$

در این نقطه  $\tau_0$  به بیشینه می‌رسد  
( $\tau_0$ )<sub>Max</sub> است و در این نقطه  $\tau_0=0$



$$\tau \text{ at } x=0 \rightarrow \tau_c \approx \gamma_0 \rho_0 = \tau_c \text{ (مقدار ثابت ش بر حسب } \theta \text{)}$$

$$(19) : \frac{\tau_0}{\tau_c} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_0} \rho_0 \theta = \frac{\text{ش بر حسب } \theta}{\text{ش بر حسب } \theta} : \text{تبع تابع ش}$$

Comparison btw. Eq. (14), Eq. (19):

$$\frac{\gamma}{\gamma_0} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{\tan^2 \theta}{\tan^2 \phi}} : (20)$$

$$\text{But: } \tan \theta = \frac{dy}{dx} \rightarrow \text{in Eq. (20)}$$

$$\left( \frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_0} \right)^2 \tan^2 \phi = \tan^2 \phi : (21)$$

$$\boxed{\frac{dy}{\sqrt{1 - \left( \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_0} \right)^2}} = \tan \phi \cdot dx} : (22)$$

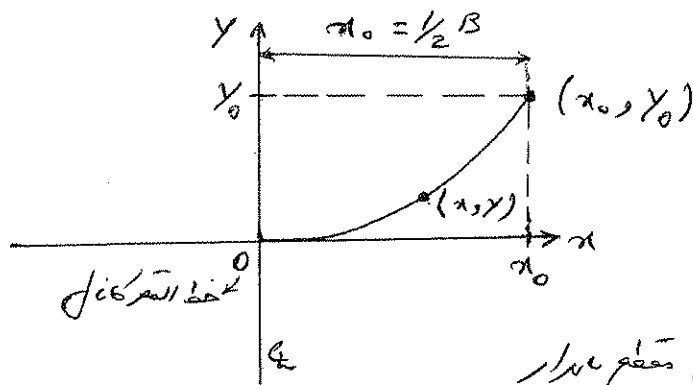
$\phi$  : زاویه ای که در آن  $\tau_0$  به بیشینه می‌رسد

B.C. : 
$$\begin{cases} x=0 \text{ at } \phi & , y=0 \\ x=x_0 & , y=y_0 \end{cases}$$

$\bar{y} \leftarrow y$

By Integration: 
$$\frac{y}{y_0} = \cos \left[ \frac{x \tan \phi}{y_0} \right] \quad : (23)$$

بیشتر موارد سیم (23) و  $\bar{y}$  می باشد.  $\bar{y}$  می باشد.  $(y_0)$  می باشد.  $\bar{y}$  می باشد.  $y = F(x)$  می باشد.  $\bar{y}$  می باشد.



$\bar{y} \leftarrow y$  می باشد.  $\bar{y}$  می باشد.  $\bar{y}$  می باشد.  $\bar{y}$  می باشد.

From Eq. (23):

$$B = \frac{\pi y_0}{\tan \phi} \quad : (24)$$

$$\left( \begin{matrix} x = x_0 \\ y = y_0 \end{matrix} \right), B = 2x_0$$

$\bar{y} \leftarrow y$  می باشد.  $\bar{y}$  می باشد.  $\bar{y}$  می باشد.  $\bar{y}$  می باشد.

$$A = \frac{2y_0^2}{\tan \phi} \quad : (25)$$

$$P = \frac{2y_0}{\sin \phi} E \quad : (26), E = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \phi \sin^2 \alpha} d\alpha$$

$$\alpha = x \tan \frac{\phi}{y_0}$$

where  $E = F(\phi)$  , From Table 2.1 Not Book - P. 2.13  
(119)



$$R = \frac{A}{P} = \frac{Y_0 S_0 \phi}{E} \quad : (27)$$

نکته مهم: جمع کردن از روابط بالا به دست می آید

معادلات (23) و (27): معادله رابطه بین ریزش سطح مقطع، شیب طولی و عرض مقطع را می توان به صورت زیر نوشت. در این رابطه  $Q$  در هر مقطع و  $Y_0$  در هر مقطع را می توان به صورت زیر نوشت.

From Manning's Eq.:

$$Q = \frac{1}{n} A R^{2/3} S_0^{1/2} \quad : (29)$$

$$A, R = f(Y_0)$$

$Q$  و  $R$  به صورت تابعی از  $A$  و  $R$  و  $S_0$  و  $n$  می باشد.

$Q$ : Discharge Capacity of the Cross-Section

ظرفیت انتقال بار در مقطع عرضی

که به صورت  $Y_0$  (عرض کانال) و  $S_0$  و  $\phi$  و  $Q_n$  معادله می باشد.

مشکل: این روش معادله Design Discharge

در طراحی روابط زیر را می توانیم:

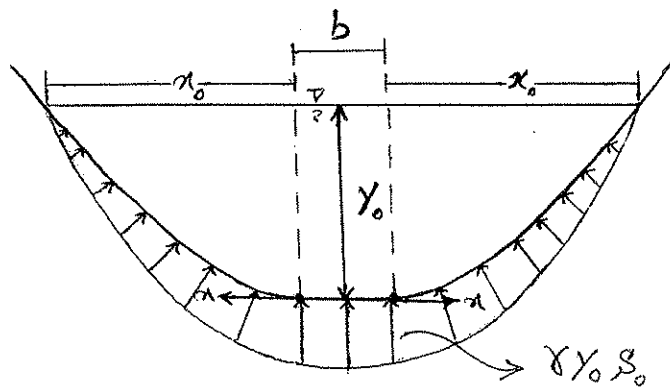
$$Q > Q_{\text{From Eq. 8 (23-29)}} \quad \text{الف -}$$

چون این روش کلی بر اساس فرضیات است و در هر مقطع عرضی، به عنوان یک

مقطع عرضی ثابت  $Y_0$  و عرض  $b$  و  $Q$  می باشد.

در واقع این  $Q_{50}$  که  $Q_{\text{max}}$  در عرض  $b$  می باشد.

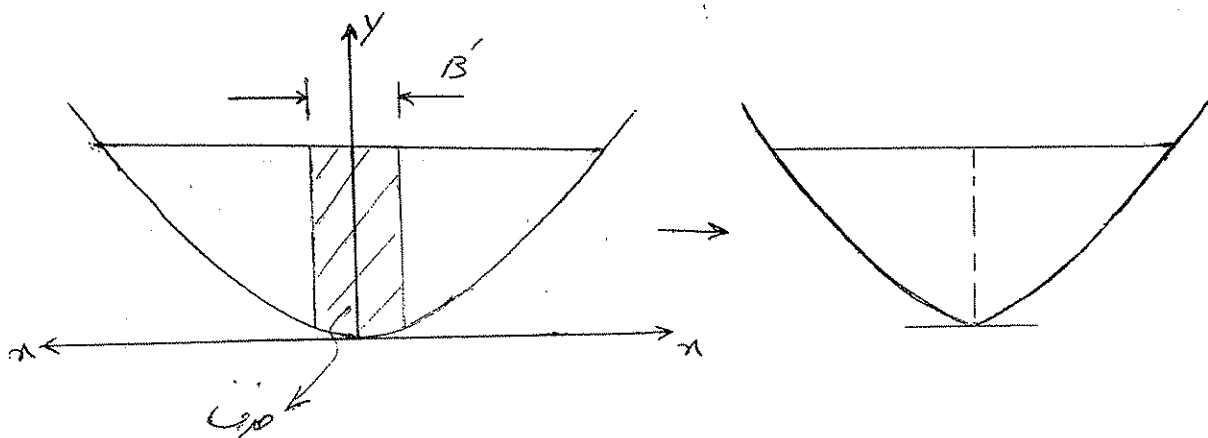
$b$  و  $Q$  به صورت ثابت می باشد (از معادله Manning استفاده می شود).  
(140)



هدف توزیع یکنواخت شدن  
برقرار است.

From Eqs. (23-29)  $Q < Q_{\text{موزون}}$

بدلیل هدف یکنواخت شدن یک بخش مقطع  $Q$  از دسترس  $Q$  حذف می‌شود  
(تقریباً به یک خط عمودی)



Using Manning's Eq. :

Ref. Chow (1959)

$$B' = 0.96 \left( 1 - \sqrt{\frac{Q'}{Q}} \right) B \quad (30)$$

Where :  $Q' < Q$

$Q'$  : دبی واقعی موزون

Discharge Capacity :  $Q$

این فرم مقطع  $Q$  موزون در یک خط عمودی قرار می‌گیرد، و در این حالت  
دست آمده است.  
(۱۲۱)

## Design Procedure :

- 1) Determine  $\phi$ ,  $n$  (از نوع مواد بستر)

$$\phi = \frac{\phi_{\text{از نوع}}}{1.25} \quad \text{تقریباً مقدار } \phi \text{ 25\% کمتر از مقدار } \phi_{\text{از نوع}}$$

- 2) Determine  $\tau_c$  (e.g. From Shields)  $\tau_c$  (از نوع مواد بستر)

- 3) Calculate  $\gamma_0$  From  $\tau_c = \gamma \gamma_0 S_0$   $\tau_c$  (از نوع مواد بستر)

$$S.F. = 20\% \quad \text{معمولاً}$$

$$\gamma_0 = \text{مقدار } \gamma_0 \text{ از نوع مواد بستر}$$

$$\gamma_0 = \text{مقدار } \gamma_0 \text{ از نوع مواد بستر}$$

$$\text{then: } \gamma_0 = 0.8 \frac{\tau_c}{\gamma S_0} \quad \tau_c \text{ (از نوع مواد بستر)}$$

- 4) Calculate  $B, A, R$  From Eqs. (24-28),  $(n, \gamma) \Rightarrow \gamma = f(n)$

- 5) Calculate Discharge Capacity,  $Q = \frac{A}{n} R^{2/3} S_0^{1/2} \rightarrow$   $Q$  (از نوع مواد بستر)

- 6) Compare  $Q$  (Discharge Capacity) with the  $Q'$  (Design Discharge)

Then adjust the channel width ( $B$ ) as necessary.

- 6-1) if  $Q' < Q_{\text{calculated}}$   $Q'$  (از نوع مواد بستر)

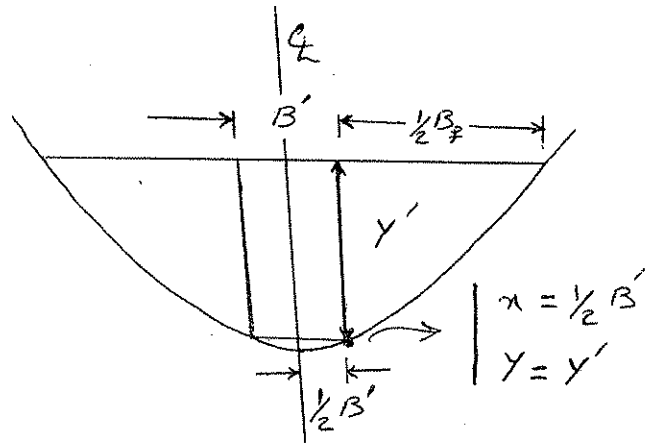
$$\text{Calculate } B' \text{ From Eq. (30): } B' = 0.96 \left(1 - \sqrt{\frac{Q'}{Q}}\right) B$$

۲۲

Then the actual surface width:  $B_f \leq B - B'$

— Calculate new Max depth by:

$$Y' = Y_0 \left( B' \tan \phi / 2Y_0 \right) \quad : (31)$$



6-2) If  $Q' > Q_{calc}$ .

Select the width "b" of a rectangular section of

depth  $Y_0$  to be included at the channel center.

How?

$$Q' = \frac{1}{n} A' R'^{2/3} S_0^{1/2}$$

$$A' = \frac{2Y_0^2 E + bY_0}{\sin \phi}$$

A: (Eq. 25)

$$P' = \frac{2Y_0 E + b}{\sin \phi}$$

P: (Eq. 26)

$$R' = \frac{A'}{P'} \quad (133)$$

۴۷ :  $\bar{m}$  for  $E, \phi, \gamma_0, S_0, n, Q'$

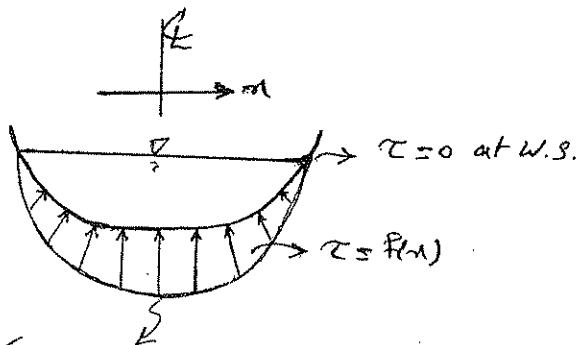
By Trial and Error  $\Rightarrow b$

New Surface width :  $B' = B + b = \frac{\pi \gamma_0}{\tan \phi} + b$   
 $\frac{E \gamma_0 (24)}{E \gamma_0 (24)}$

See Ex. (2.3) in your Notebook.

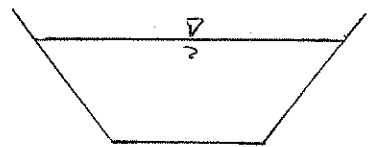
معمولی مقطع هندسی :

در کانال های هندسی



$\tau_{max} = 8 \gamma_0 S_0 = \tau_c$

در کانال های هندسی



در کانال های هندسی

$(R \approx \frac{A}{P}) \uparrow$

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} y \downarrow \\ P \downarrow \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow$

مقطع  $A$  (مجموعه)  $Q$  را

معمولی

اندازه مقطع سطح پوشش

کانال انتقال  $Q$  را

مثال (2.3) از کتاب Bob

توزیع تنش برافشانه (در مشاهدات)  $\tau_c = 8 \gamma_0 S_0$  است

در کانال های هندسی

$\tau_{max} = \tau_c = 0.75 \cdot 8 \gamma_0 S_0$

در این حالت در کانال های هندسی

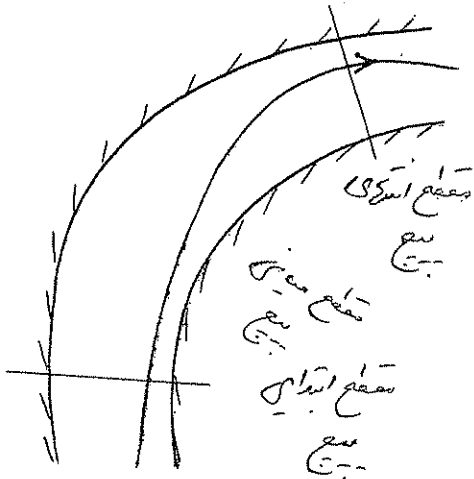
عمر و حجم  $\leftarrow$  ظرفیت انتقال بالابرد

(۱۲۴) روشی از سطح پوشش

۲-۵) طرح مقطع کانالی فرسایشی به شکل ذوزنقه‌ای در مقطع

## Curved Trapezoidal Channel

درای دروازه‌ها



Max Velocity Stream Line :

خط جریان با بیشترین سرعت  
در بخش ابتدایی ( $V_{max}$ )

$$\tau \propto v^2$$

- حالت بحرانی در بخش ابتدایی

در مقطع شکلی، نامیده می‌شود:

- در قسمت خارجی مقطع

- به سمت دروازه خارجی مقطع

- نزدیک دروازه انتقال به دروازه

در آن نقطه جریان به گونه‌ای در حال تغییر است:

مکانی که در مقطع در بخش ابتدایی از راستای مستقیم منحرف شود.

در محل مقطع:

- غیر یکنواختی توزیع عمق آب در بخش ابتدایی

- غیر یکنواختی در بخش دروازه

- در نقطه بحرانی، نامیده می‌شود به سمت دروازه خارجی مقطع در درجهت پایین رفتن آب (۱۲۵)

۲۵- تعقیب شش برشی ریب کامل در تخته‌ای بر روی صاف و در آنجا (Yang (1996)

تعقیب شش برشی ریب تعقیب است از:

۱- شکل مقطع

۲- عمق جریان (ریت عرض به عمق)

۳- شدت جریان (Q) - ریب کم و زیاد

۴- زاویه ریب (ایند ریب) و انداز ریب  $(\frac{r_c}{B})$

۵- زوایای

۶- موقعیت ریب (مردود - میان - مردود)

۷- شیب

$$\frac{\tau_o}{\tau_o \text{ در ریب مستقیم}} = f\left(\frac{r_c}{B}, \text{Bed Roughness}\right)$$

$\tau_o$  ریب مستقیم       $\tau_o$  در ریب مستقیم  
 انداز ریب      ریب مستقیم  
 ریب مستقیم      ریب مستقیم

$r_c$ : انداز ریب مستقیم

$B$ : عرض سطح آب - ریب ← انداز ریب مستقیم

توضیح: ملاحظه:

$$\frac{(\tau_o)_{max}}{\tau_o} = \begin{matrix} 2 \\ \downarrow \\ \text{Smooth} \end{matrix} - \begin{matrix} 3 \\ \downarrow \\ \text{Rough} \end{matrix}$$

در ملاحظه

$(\tau_o)_{max}$ : شش بزرگ ریب

$\tau_o$ : متوسط شش ریب ریب مستقیم

منبع: Yang (1996) - PP. 47-48 + French (1986) - P. 297

در مراحلی که کانال:

① نسبت  $\frac{r_c}{B}$  به:

نسبت  $\frac{r_c}{B} \approx 3$  : نسبت  $\frac{r_c}{B}$  در مراحلی که

②  $(\tau_o)_{max} \text{ at Bend} / (\tau_o \text{ along the approach channel})$

در  $\frac{r_c}{B}$  در  $\text{Fig. (2.16)}$  و  $\text{Yeney (1996)}$  در مراحلی که

③  $(\tau_o)_{max} = \tau_o$  : نسبت  $\frac{r_c}{B}$  در مراحلی که

$\tau_c = (\tau_o)_{max} = 8\gamma_s$  در مراحلی که Shields

در مراحلی که Shields ... در مراحلی که

$(\tau_o)_{max}$  در مراحلی که  $\tau_o$  در مراحلی که

$\tau_c = (\tau_o)_{max} = 8\gamma_s$

نسبت  $\frac{r_c}{B}$  در مراحلی که

در مراحلی که  $\tau_o$  در مراحلی که (۳) در مراحلی که



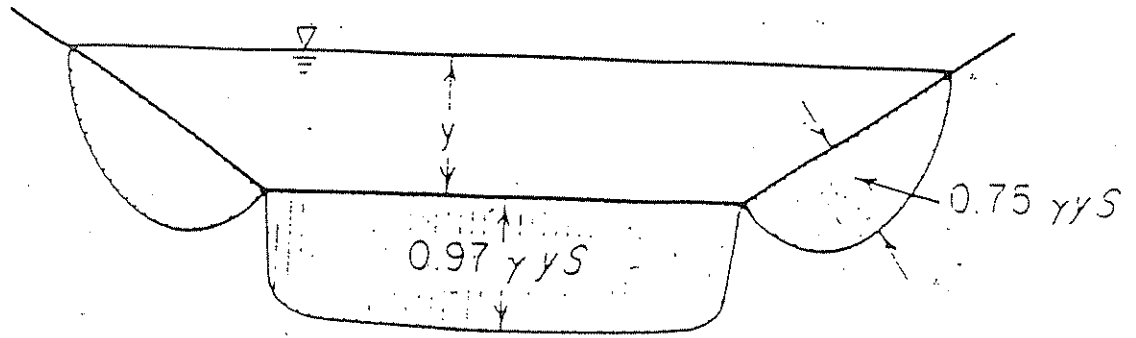
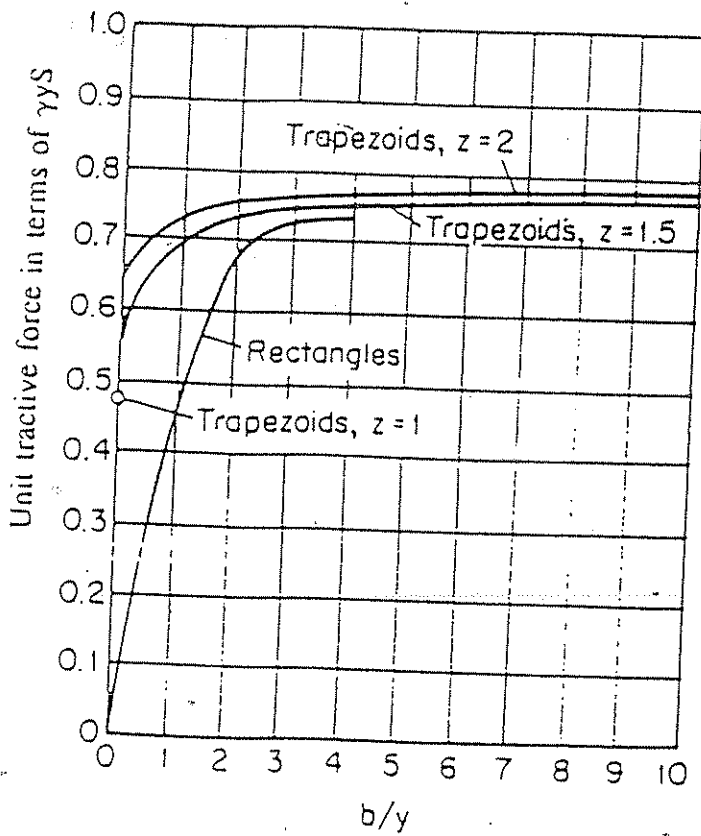
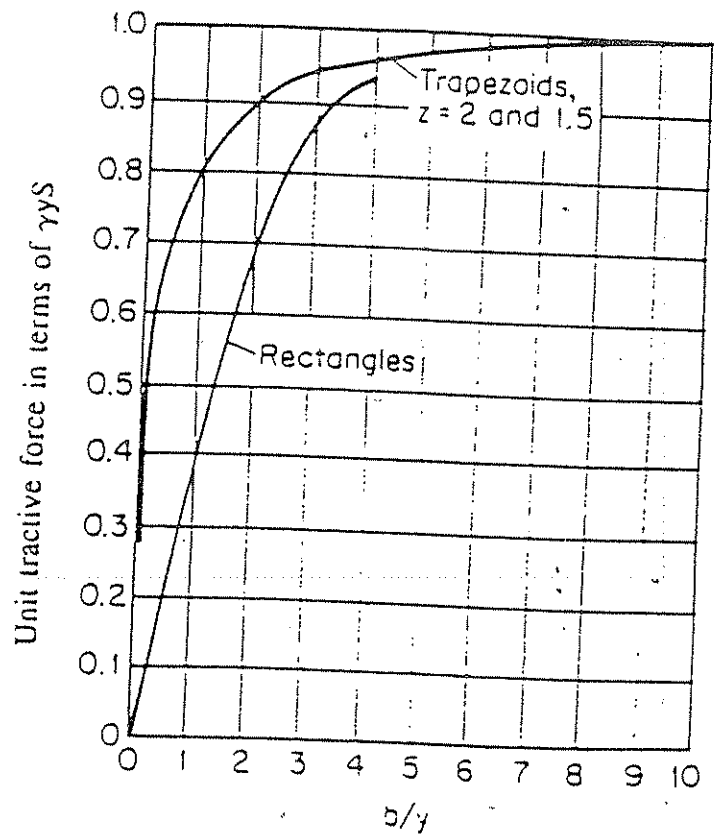


Figure 2.2: Shear Stress Distribution in a Typical Trapezoidal Channel Section.



On sides of channels

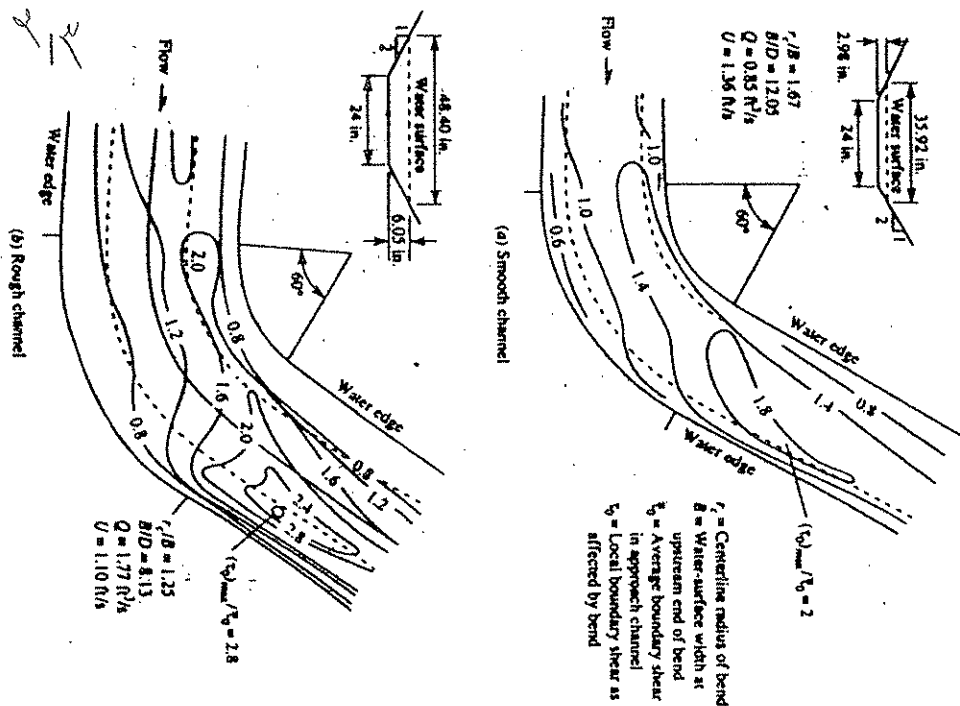


On bottom of channels

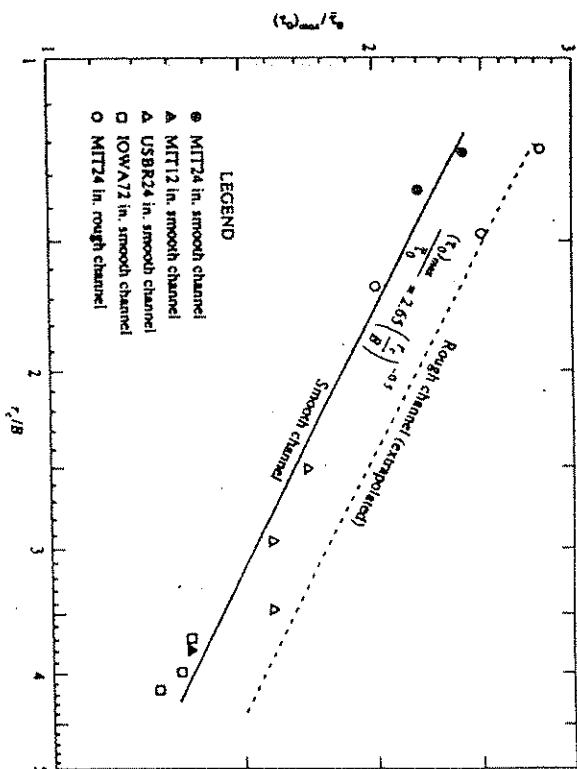
Figure 2.3: Maximum Shear Stress in terms of  $\gamma y S$ .

### 2.8.2 Curved Channel

The stable channel design methods based on incipient motion criteria stated in previous sections of this chapter are intended for straight channels. For a curved channel, the velocity is generally higher near the concave side. This uneven velocity distribution is related to the uneven shear stress distributions across a curved channel. Figure 2.15 shows the boundary shear distributions in curved trapezoidal channels measured by Ippen and Drinker (1962). Depending on the smoothness of the channel boundary, the maximum shear stress in a

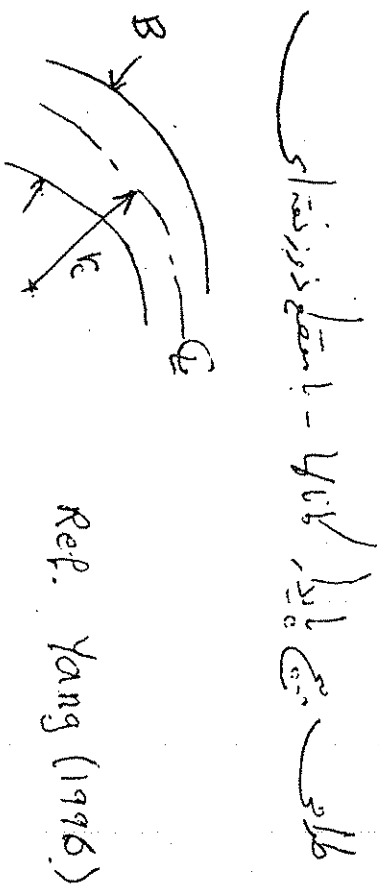


**FIGURE 2.15**  
Boundary shear distributions in curved trapezoidal channels (Ippen and Drinker, 1962).



**FIGURE 2.16**  
Maximum boundary shear stress at channel bends (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 1970).

curved channel can be 2-3 times the shear stress in its approaching straight channel. The U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (1970) suggested that Fig. 2.16 be used to determine the ratio between maximum shear at a bend and its straight approach channel as a function of the channel radius of curvature and the channel width.



Ref. Yang (1996)

(129)

$\phi$	K	E	$\phi$	K	E	$\phi$	K	E
0°	1.5708	1.5708	50°	1.9356	1.3055	82° 0'	3.3699	1.0278
1°	1.5709	1.5707	51°	1.9539	1.2963	82° 12'	3.3946	1.0267
2°	1.5713	1.5703	52°	1.9729	1.2870	82° 24'	3.4199	1.0256
3°	1.5719	1.5697	53°	1.9927	1.2776	82° 36'	3.4460	1.0245
4°	1.5727	1.5689	54°	2.0133	1.2682	82° 48'	3.4728	1.0234
5°	1.5738	1.5678	55°	2.0347	1.2587	83° 0'	3.5004	1.0223
6°	1.5751	1.5665	56°	2.0571	1.2492	83° 12'	3.5288	1.0213
7°	1.5767	1.5650	57°	2.0804	1.2397	83° 24'	3.5581	1.0202
8°	1.5785	1.5632	58°	2.1047	1.2301	83° 36'	3.5884	1.0192
9°	1.5805	1.5611	59°	2.1300	1.2206	83° 48'	3.6196	1.0182
10°	1.5828	1.5589	60°	2.1565	1.2111	84° 0'	3.6519	1.0172
11°	1.5854	1.5564	61°	2.1842	1.2015	84° 12'	3.6853	1.0163
12°	1.5882	1.5537	62°	2.2132	1.1921	84° 24'	3.7198	1.0153
13°	1.5913	1.5507	63°	2.2435	1.1826	84° 36'	3.7557	1.0144
14°	1.5946	1.5476	64°	2.2754	1.1732	84° 48'	3.7930	1.0135
15°	1.5981	1.5442	65°	2.3088	1.1638	85° 0'	3.8317	1.0127
16°	1.6020	1.5405	66°	2.3439	1.1546	85° 12'	3.8721	1.0118
17°	1.6061	1.5367	67°	2.3809	1.1454	85° 24'	3.9142	1.0110
18°	1.6105	1.5326	68°	2.4198	1.1362	85° 36'	3.9583	1.0102
19°	1.6151	1.5283	69°	2.4610	1.1273	85° 48'	4.0044	1.0094
20°	1.6200	1.5238	70° 0'	2.5046	1.1184	86° 0'	4.0528	1.0087
21°	1.6252	1.5191	70° 30'	2.5273	1.1140	86° 12'	4.1037	1.0079
22°	1.6307	1.5142	71° 0'	2.5507	1.1096	86° 24'	4.1574	1.0072
23°	1.6365	1.5090	71° 30'	2.5749	1.1053	86° 36'	4.2142	1.0065
24°	1.6426	1.5037	72° 0'	2.5998	1.1011	86° 48'	4.2746	1.0059
25°	1.6490	1.4981	72° 30'	2.6256	1.0968	87° 0'	4.3387	1.0053
26°	1.6557	1.4924	73° 0'	2.6521	1.0927	87° 12'	4.4073	1.0047
27°	1.6627	1.4864	73° 30'	2.6796	1.0885	87° 24'	4.4812	1.0041
28°	1.6701	1.4803	74° 0'	2.7081	1.0844	87° 36'	4.5609	1.0036
29°	1.6777	1.4740	74° 30'	2.7375	1.0804	87° 48'	4.6477	1.0031
30°	1.6858	1.4675	75° 0'	2.7681	1.0764	88° 0'	4.7427	1.0026
31°	1.6941	1.4608	75° 30'	2.7998	1.0725	88° 12'	4.8479	1.0022
32°	1.7028	1.4539	76° 0'	2.8327	1.0686	88° 24'	4.9654	1.0017
33°	1.7119	1.4469	76° 30'	2.8669	1.0648	88° 36'	5.0988	1.0014
34°	1.7214	1.4397	77° 0'	2.9026	1.0611	88° 48'	5.2527	1.0010
35°	1.7313	1.4323	77° 30'	2.9397	1.0574	89° 0'	5.4349	1.0008
36°	1.7415	1.4248	78° 0'	2.9786	1.0538	89° 6'	5.5402	1.0006
37°	1.7522	1.4171	78° 30'	3.0192	1.0502	89° 12'	5.6579	1.0005
38°	1.7633	1.4092	79° 0'	3.0617	1.0468	89° 18'	5.7914	1.0005
39°	1.7748	1.4013	79° 30'	3.1064	1.0434	89° 24'	5.9455	1.0003
40°	1.7868	1.3931	80° 0'	3.1534	1.0401	89° 30'	6.1278	1.0002
41°	1.7992	1.3849	80° 12'	3.1729	1.0388	89° 36'	6.3509	1.0001
42°	1.8122	1.3765	80° 24'	3.1928	1.0375	89° 42'	6.6385	1.0001
43°	1.8256	1.3680	80° 36'	3.2132	1.0363	89° 48'	7.0440	1.0000
44°	1.8396	1.3594	80° 48'	3.2340	1.0350	89° 54'	7.7371	1.0000
45°	1.8541	1.3506	81° 0'	3.2553	1.0338	90°	$\infty$	1.0000
46°	1.8692	1.3418	81° 12'	3.2771	1.0326			
47°	1.8848	1.3329	81° 24'	3.2995	1.0313			
48°	1.9011	1.3238	81° 36'	3.3223	1.0302			
49°	1.9180	1.3147	81° 48'	3.3458	1.0290			

Table 2.1: Table of Complete Elliptic Integrals.



## 2.3 Non-scouring Erodible Bed Channels

## (a) BED STABILITY

Where a channel is designed to carry clear water, or water containing fine sediment which will not deposit, the maximum allowable bed shear stress is that at the inception of motion of the bed and bank particles. Clearly if the maximum bed shear stress exceeds the value at the inception of motion, scour will occur and the cross-section characteristics will change. This is an unstable condition.

The first, and simplest, example considered is that of a rectangular channel with a mobile bed and rigid walls. In this case, the problem may be solved by direct application of Shields' entrainment function. The problem becomes even simpler when the flow is governed by the right-hand limb of the inception curve [see Figure 1.3] where  $F_s$  is a constant. If it is assumed that the fluid is water and that  $S_s = 2.65$ , which is true in most cases in practice, it can be readily shown that a constant value of  $F_s$  at the inception of motion corresponds to a grain size, d exceeding 6 mm. This corresponds to coarse alluvium. Shields' entrainment function may then be written as

$$F_s = 0.056 = \frac{\tau_o}{\gamma d (S_s - 1)}$$

Since  $\tau_o = \gamma R S$ , Equation (2.8) may be written in the form

$$\frac{RS}{d (S_s - 1)} = 0.056 \quad (2.9)$$

Then, with  $S_s$  placed equal to 2.65, Equation (2.9) becomes

$$d_{min} = 11 RS$$

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_o &= 1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ N/m}^2 \\ S_s &= 2.65 \\ d &> 6 \text{ mm} \end{aligned}$$

(2.10)

Equation (2.10) gives in simple form the minimum size of stone which will remain at rest on a horizontal bed of a channel of given R and S. The application of the equation is best illustrated by an example.

(1) Example 2.1

Determine the dimensions of a rectangular canal for use in terrain where the slope is pre-determined and given by  $S = 0.01$ . The canal is to carry  $10 \text{ m}^3/\text{sec.}$  of clear water and is to be scour free. The banks are protected from scour. The bed material is a coarse quartz gravel with a  $d_{75}$  size of 50 mm and specific gravity of 2.65.

**Solution**

For a  $d_{75}$  of 50 mm the threshold of motion will occur when the flow is fully rough turbulent - i.e. when  $F_s = 0.056$ . Equation (2.10) is then applicable and

$$R = \frac{d}{11S} = \frac{0.050}{11 \times 0.01} \\ = 0.45\text{m}$$

If it is assumed that the channel is wide, then  $y \approx R = 0.45\text{m}$ .

The next step is to calculate the mean velocity in the canal, for which Mannings equation is used.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } n &= 0.038 (d_{75})^{1/6} \\ &= 0.038 (0.050)^{1/6} \\ &= 0.023 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \frac{R^{2/3} S^{1/2}}{n} \\ &= \frac{(0.45)^{2/3} (0.01)^{1/2}}{0.023} \\ &= 2.55\text{m/sec.} \end{aligned}$$

The final step is to use the continuity equation to calculate the canal width:

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= V \times A = V \times y \times B \\ \therefore B &= \frac{10}{2.55 \times 0.45} \\ &= 8.72\text{m.} \end{aligned}$$

Since this is a minimum width, a conservative value would be 10m.

The width to depth ratio is, thus,  $8.72/0.45 = 19.38$ . It is left as an exercise for the reader to test how this ratio varies for larger (less erodible) and smaller (more erodible) sediment particles. This test can be used to check the validity of the conclusions reached in Section 2.2.

Equation (2.10) is applicable only for particle sizes larger than 6mm. For smaller particles the value of Shields entrainment function at the inception of motion will, in general, differ from 0.056 and must be determined using Fig. 1.3. The details are left as an exercise for the reader.

Once the value of  $F_s$  at the inception of motion has been determined, it is substituted for 0.056 in Equation (2.9) and the solution follows the same steps as in Example 2.1.

For practical design purposes; it may be conservatively assumed that, on the bed, the shear stress has the value  $\gamma y S$  and that on the side slopes, the shear stress is given by  $0.75 \gamma y S$ .

Finally, application of Equation (2.16) requires knowledge of the natural angle of repose,  $\phi$ , of the sediment. Extensive tests by the US Bureau of Reclamation have shown that  $\phi$  depends on the size of the sediment particles and on their shape. The results of these tests are plotted in Figure 2.4. Note that the abscissa of Figure 2.4 is in inches.

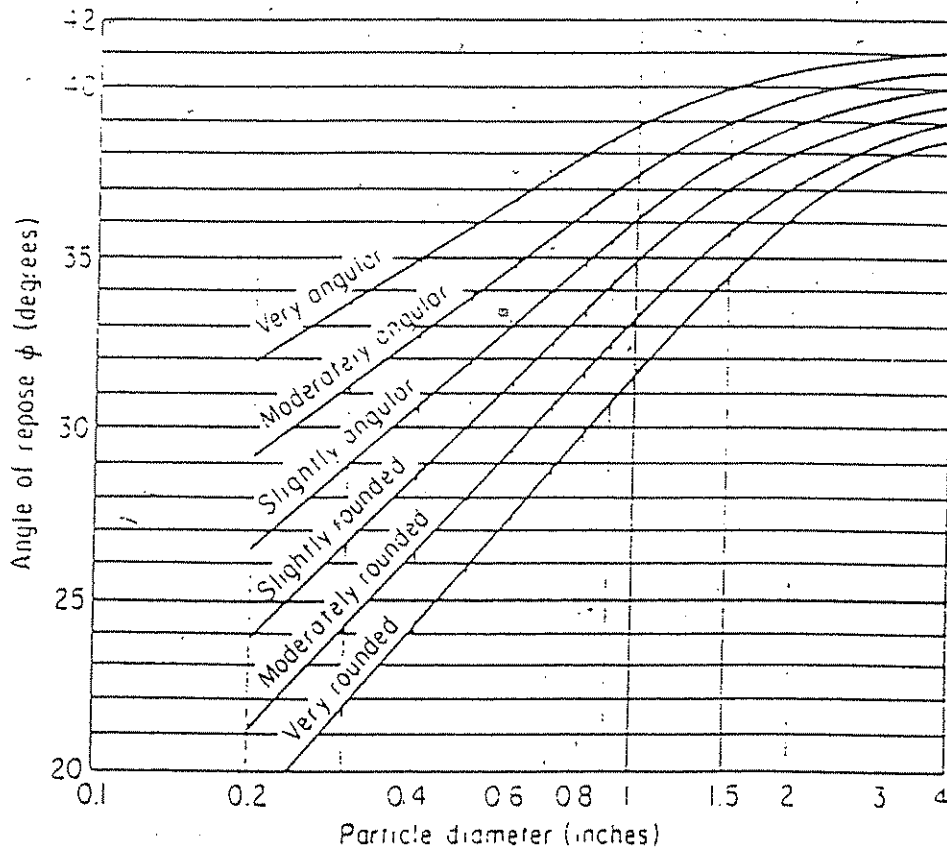


Figure 2.4: Natural Angles of Repose of Non-cohesive Sediments.

The application of Equation (2.16) to the design of a stable trapezoidal channel in coarse sediments is best illustrated by an example.

### Example 2.2

A channel which is to carry  $57 \text{ m}^3/\text{sec}$  is to be excavated on a slope of 0.001 through country made up of coarse alluvium having a  $d_{75}$  size of 37 mm. The stones can be described as "slightly rounded". Assuming that the channel is to be unlined and of trapezoidal section, determine suitable values for the base width and side slope.

Solution: From Figure 2.4:  $\phi = 37^\circ$ .

$$\therefore \sin \phi = 0.602$$

Any convenient value would do for the side slope  $\theta$ , provided it is materially less than  $\phi$ . A slope of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  H:1V, i.e.  $\cot \theta = 1.5$ , might be too close to  $\phi$  for comfort, so a slope of 1.75 H:1V is utilized.

$$\therefore \cot \theta = 1.75$$

$$\sin \theta = 0.496$$

Then from Equation (2.16)

$$\frac{\tau_o}{\tau_c} = \sqrt{1 - \left[ \frac{0.496}{0.602} \right]^2}$$

$$= 0.567$$

at the threshold of motion. Thus the design criterion to be used is that

$$\frac{\tau_o}{\tau_c} \leq 0.567$$

where  $\tau_o$  is the actual shear stress on the bank, equal to  $0.75 \gamma y S$ , and  $\tau_c$  is the critical shear stress required to move stones of this size on a flat bed.

$$\text{Now, } \frac{\tau_c}{\gamma d_{75}(S_s - 1)} = 0.056$$

$$\text{So, } \tau_c = 0.056 \times 1000 \times 9.81 \times 0.037 \times 1.65$$

$$= 33.54 \text{ N/m}^2$$

and the limiting condition is that

$$\tau_o = 0.567 \tau_c = 19.02 \text{ N/m}^2$$

$$\tau_o = 0.75 \gamma y S = 19.02$$

$$\therefore y = \frac{19.02}{0.75 \times 1000 \times 9.81 \times 0.001}$$

$$= 2.585 \text{ m.}$$

It is wise to build in a safety factor of, say, 20% and reduce the maximum depth to about 2.1 m.

The final stage is to choose a base width  $b$  so that the channel will deliver  $57 \text{ m}^3/\text{sec}$  at a depth  $\leq 2.1 \text{ m}$ .

$$\text{Now, } n = 0.038(0.037)^{1/6}$$

$$= 0.022$$



$$\frac{Q_n}{S^{1/2}} = AR^{2/3} \text{ from Mannings equation}$$

$$\text{or } AR^{2/3} = \left[ \frac{57 \times 0.022}{(0.001)^{1/2}} \right]$$

$$= 39.66$$

$$\therefore 2.1(b + 3.675) \left[ \frac{2.1(b + 3.675)}{b + 8.465} \right]^{2/3} = 39.66$$

This equation is best solved by trial, leading to a value of  $b = 10.33$  m. Since this is a **minimum** to avoid scour, a conservative value would be 10.5 m with side slopes of 1.75 H:1V.

#### (c) MOST EFFICIENT STABLE CROSS-SECTION

Although the trapezoidal shape discussed in the previous section is commonly used in practice, it is not particularly efficient because the condition of impending sediment motion occurs only over a very small length of the wetted perimeter. On the other hand, the ideal stable hydraulic cross-section would have reached the stage of impending motion at all points of the cross-section at the same time. For a given sediment and discharge, this ideal section has the least excavation and width and the maximum allowable mean velocity.

The shape of such a section has been developed at the US Bureau of Reclamation, using methods suggested by Lane (1,2,3,4). The method depends on the use of Equation (2.15) to determine a condition of limiting equilibrium at each point on the cross-sectional profile shown in Figure 2.5. It is assumed further that, with reference to Figure 2.5, the shear force on the surface element DC is due only to the weight component of the prism ABCD resolved down the longitudinal slope of the channel. This assumption neglects lateral shear forces between adjacent prisms due to the transverse velocity gradient, but more precise studies by the US Bureau of Reclamation have yielded very similar results.

The force equilibrium yields

$$\gamma y \Delta x S = \tau_0 \frac{\Delta x}{\cos \theta} \quad (2.17)$$

where  $\Delta x$  is the length AB.

$$\therefore \tau_0 = \gamma y S \cos \theta \quad (2.18)$$

Noting that  $\tau_c$  is the maximum critical shear stress at  $y = y_0$ ,

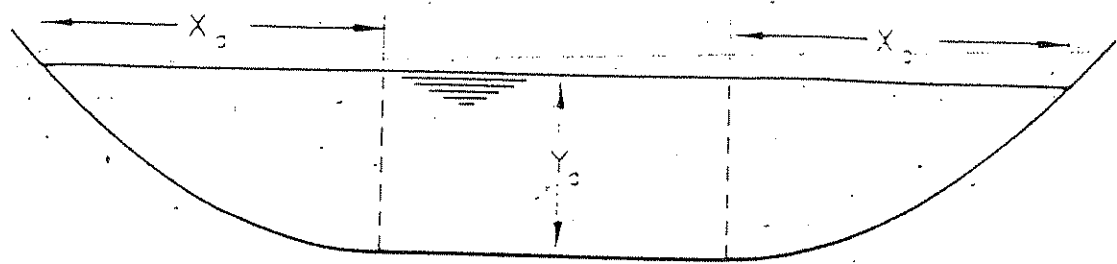


Figure 2.6: Stable Cross-section for Threshold Conditions with Inserted Constant Depth Section.

The application of the procedures of this section are best illustrated by an example.

### Example 2.3

A non-erodible channel is to be excavated on a slope of 0.001 through country made up of a coarse alluvium having a  $D_{75}$  size of 10 mm. The stones can be described as "slightly rounded". Assuming that the channel is to be unlined of most efficient cross-section, determine its shape if it is to carry a discharge of (a)  $5 \text{ m}^3/\text{sec.}$ , (b)  $2 \text{ m}^3/\text{sec.}$

### Solution

From Figure 2.4,  $\phi = 29^\circ$ .

It is common to adopt a safety factor for the stated natural angle of repose. If a factor of 1.25 is used (7), the natural angle of repose for design is  $29/1.25 = 23^\circ$ .

Now, 
$$\frac{\tau_c}{\gamma d_{75}(S_s - 1)} = 0.056$$

So, 
$$\begin{aligned} \tau_c &= 0.056 \times 1000 \times 9.81 \times 0.010 \times 1.65 \\ &= 9.064 \text{ N/m}^2 \\ &= \gamma y_0 S \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore y_0 = \frac{9.064}{1000 \times 9.81 \times 0.001}$$
  

$$= 0.924 \text{ m}$$

✓/Λ  
If a safety factor of 20% is adopted, the maximum depth is reduced to 0.74m. Then from Equation (2.23)

$$\begin{aligned} y &= 0.74 \cos (x \tan 23^\circ / 0.74) \\ &= 0.74 \cos (0.574x) \end{aligned}$$

where the term in brackets is in radians.

The discharge capacity of the cross-section without central insertion may now be calculated from Equations (2.25) to (2.28), Table 2.1 and Mannings equation.

From Equation (2.25)

$$\begin{aligned} A_0 &= 2 y_0^2 / \tan \phi \\ &= 2 \times (0.74)^2 / \tan 23^\circ \\ &= 2.58 \text{ m}^2. \end{aligned}$$

From Table 2.1

$$E = 1.509$$

From Equation (2.28)

$$\begin{aligned} R_0 &= y_0 \cos \phi / E \\ &= 0.74 \cos (23^\circ) / 1.509 \\ &= 0.451 \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore Q_0 = \frac{A_0 R_0^{2/3} S^{1/2}}{n}$$

where  $n = 0.038 \times (0.010)^{1/6} = 0.018$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{2.58 \times (0.451)^{2/3} \times (0.001)^{1/2}}{0.018} \\ &= \underline{2.720 \text{ m}^3/\text{sec}.} \end{aligned}$$

$$(a) \quad Q = 5 \text{ m}^3/\text{sec}. > Q_0.$$

Thus, a section of uniform depth of 0.74m must be inserted between the two curved banks. Its width may be determined by trial from Mannings equation.

$$\begin{aligned} A &= 2 y_0^2 / \tan \phi + y_0 \times b \\ &= 2.58 + 0.74b. \end{aligned}$$

From Equation (2.26) and allowing for the additional width

$$P' = \frac{2y_0}{\sin \phi} E + b$$

$$= \frac{2 \times 0.74}{\sin 23^\circ} \times 1.509 + b$$

$$= 5.716 + b$$

$$R = \frac{2.58 + 0.74b}{5.716 + b}$$

$$Q = \frac{AR^{2/3}S^{1/2}}{n}$$

$$5 = \frac{(2.58 + 0.74b)^{5/3}}{(5.716 + b)^{2/3}} \times \frac{0.001^{1/2}}{0.018}$$

$$\frac{(2.58 + 0.74b)^{5/3}}{(5.716 + b)^{2/3}} = 2.846$$

Solution by trial gives  $b = 2.35\text{m}$ . The total surface width is then given, with the aid of Equation (2.24), as

$$B = \pi y_0 / \tan \phi + 2.35$$

$$= \pi \times 0.74 / \tan 23^\circ + 2.35$$

$$= 7.83\text{m}$$

The resulting cross-section can be compared with that of a trapezoidal section designed according to the method of Example 2.2. The details are left as an exercise for the reader.

$$(b) \quad Q' = 2\text{m}^3/\text{sec} < Q_0.$$

Equation (2.29) must be used, yielding

$$B' = 0.96 \left[ 1 - \sqrt{\frac{2}{2.72}} \right] \times B$$

where, from Equation (2.24),

$$B = \pi y_0 / \tan \phi$$

$$= \pi \times 0.74 / \tan 23^\circ$$

$$= 5.48$$

$$\therefore B' = 0.75\text{m}$$

which is the width which should be removed from the central portion of the section

2.16

(139) J. J. J.

(139)

335 341 11.315

Ref. French (1986)

TABLE 7.8 A design procedure for unlined, stable earthen channels

Step	Process
1	Estimate $n$ or $C$ for specified material composing the perimeter
2	Estimate angle of repose for channel perimeter material (Fig. 7.9)
3	Estimate channel sinuosity from the type of topography through which it will pass and determine the tractive force correction factor (Table 7.6)
4	Assume side slope angle (Table 7.2) and (bottom width)/(normal depth of flow)
5	Assume sides of the channel are the limiting factor in the channel design
6	Calculate the maximum permissible tractive force on sides in terms of the unit tractive force. Use the correction factor from Fig. 7.7a and the sinuosity correction factor (step 3)
7	Estimate tractive force ratio [Eq. (7.3.7)]
8	Estimate permissible tractive force on bottom (Fig. 7.10) and correct for sinuosity (step 3)
9	Combine the results of steps 6 to 8 to determine the normal depth of flow $y_N$
10	Determine the bottom width with the results of steps 4 and 9
11	Compute $Q$ and compare this value with the design flow $Q_D$ , return to step 4, and repeat the design process with trial $b/y$ ratios until $Q = Q_D$
12	Compare permissible tractive force on bottom (step 8) with actual tractive force given by $\gamma y_N S$ and corrected for shape (Fig. 7.7a)
13	Check 1. Minimum permissible velocity if the water carries silt and for vegetation 2. Froude number
14	Estimate required freeboard [Eq. (7.1.1)] or (Fig. 7.1)
15	Summarize results with dimensioned sketch

## EXAMPLE 7.3

A channel which is to carry  $10 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  ( $350 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}$ ) through moderately rolling topography on a slope of 0.0016 is to be excavated in coarse alluvium with 25 percent of the particles being 3 cm (1.2 in) or more in diameter. The material which will compose the perimeter of this channel can be described as being moderately rounded. Assuming that the

channel is to be unlined and of trapezoidal section, find suitable values of  $b$  and  $z$ .

**Solution**

Step 1 Estimate  $n$  from Table 4.8.

$$n = 0.025$$

Step 2 Estimate the angle of repose.

$$d_{25} = 3 \text{ cm} = \frac{3}{2.54} \text{ in} = 1.18 \text{ in}$$

From Fig. 7.9

$$\alpha = 34^\circ$$

Step 3 Estimate channel sinuosity correction factor (Table 7.6).

$$C_s = 0.75$$

Step 4 Assume side slope 2:1 and  $b/y_N = 4$ .

Step 5 Assume side slopes are a limiting factor.

Step 6 Find maximum permissible tractive forces on sides (Fig. 7.7a).

$$\tau_s = 0.75 \gamma y_N S$$

Step 7 Estimate tractive force ratio [Eq. (7.3.7)].

$$K = \frac{\tau_s}{\tau_b} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{\sin^2 \Gamma}{\sin^2 \alpha}}$$

$$\Gamma = \tan^{-1} (\%) = 26.6^\circ$$

$$K = \sqrt{1 - \frac{\sin^2 26.6^\circ}{\sin^2 34^\circ}} = 0.60$$

Step 8 Estimate permissible tractive force on bottom (Fig. 7.10).

$$\tau_b = 0.47 \text{ lb/ft}^2 \quad \text{for } d_{25} = 1.18 \text{ in (30 mm)}$$

Correct for sinuosity.

$$\tau_b = C_s \tau_b = 0.75(0.47) = 0.35 \text{ lb/ft}^2 \text{ (17 N/m}^2\text{)}$$

Step 9 Estimate  $y_N$ .

$$\frac{\tau_s}{\tau_b} = K$$

$$\tau_s = K \tau_b$$

$$D_{75} = 3 \text{ cm}$$

finer

$$0.75\gamma_N S = K\tau_b$$

$$\gamma_N = \frac{0.60(17)}{0.75(9658)(0.0016)} = 0.88 \text{ m (2.9 ft)}$$

$$\text{Step 10 } b/\gamma_N = 4.$$

$$b = 4(0.88) = 3.5 \text{ m (11 ft)}$$

$$\text{Step 11 Determine } Q.$$

$$A = (b + zy)y = [3.5 + 2(0.88)](0.88) = 4.6 \text{ m}^2 (50 \text{ ft}^2)$$

$$P = b + 2y\sqrt{1 + z^2} = 3.5 + 2(0.88)\sqrt{5} = 7.4 \text{ m (24 ft)}$$

$$R = \frac{A}{P} = \frac{4.6}{7.4} = 0.60 \text{ m (2.0 ft)}$$

$$Q = \frac{AR^{2/3}}{n} \sqrt{S} = \frac{4.6(0.60)^{2/3}}{0.025} \sqrt{0.0016} = 5.2 \text{ m}^3/\text{s} (180 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s})$$

$Q$  is less than  $Q_D$  and, therefore, additional computations are required in which  $b/\gamma_N$  is variable and  $C_s$ ,  $K$ , permissible  $\tau_b$  and  $z$  are constant.

$b/\gamma_N$	$\gamma_N$ , m	$b$ , m	$A$ , m <sup>2</sup>	$P$ , m	$R$ , m	$Q$ , m <sup>3</sup> /s
5	0.88	4.4	5.4	8.3	0.65	6.5
8.25	0.88	7.3	8.0	11	0.71	10.2
8.15	0.88	7.2	7.9	11	0.71	10

Then, for  $z = 2$  and  $b/\gamma_N = 8.15$ ,  $\gamma_N = 0.88 \text{ m (2.9 ft)}$ ,  $b = 7.2 \text{ m (24 ft)}$ , and  $Q = 10 \text{ m}^3/\text{s} (350 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s})$ .

$$\text{Step 12 Check tractive force on bottom.}$$

$$\text{Permissible } \tau_b = C_s \tau_b = 17 \text{ N/m}^2 \quad (\text{see step 8})$$

$$\text{Computed } \tau_b = 0.99\gamma_N S \quad (\text{Fig. 7.7b})$$

$$\tau_b = 0.99(9658)(0.88)(0.0016) = 13 \text{ N/m}^2 (0.27 \text{ lb/ft}^2)$$

Since this is the actual, computed tractive force, the design is acceptable.

$$\text{Step 13 Check velocity and Froude number.}$$

$$\bar{U} = \frac{Q}{A} = \frac{10}{7.9} = 1.3 \text{ m/s (4.3 ft/s)}$$

This velocity should prevent vegetative growth and sedimentation.

$$F = \frac{\bar{U}}{\sqrt{gD}} = 0.48$$

Therefore, this is a subcritical flow.

$$\text{Step 14 Estimate required freeboard from Eq. (7.1.1).}$$

$$\text{Design depth of flow} = 0.88 \text{ m (2.9 ft)}$$

$$\text{Design flow} = 10 \text{ m}^3/\text{s} (350 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}).$$

$$\text{Estimate } C \text{ in Eq. (7.1.1) as 1.6.}$$

$$\text{Then } F = \sqrt{Cy} = \sqrt{1.6(2.9)} = 0.66 \text{ m (2.2 ft)}$$

The results of this design are summarized in Fig. 7.12.

It must be emphasized that the approach discussed in the foregoing section is not the only methodology which can be applied to the problem of designing stable channel sections. For example, the basic principles and results associated with the concept of threshold of movement can also be applied to this problem. Shields (1936) used an experimental approach to define the threshold of movement, and his results can be stated in terms of two dimensionless parameters:

$$R_* = \frac{u_* d}{\nu} \quad (7.3.13)$$

$$\text{and } F_s = \frac{\tau_o}{\gamma(S_s - 1)d} = \frac{u_*^2}{(S_s - 1)gd} \quad (7.3.14)$$

where  $R_*$  = a Reynolds number based on the shear velocity and the particle size (this number is also known as the particle Reynolds number)

$u_*$  = shear velocity

$\nu$  = fluid kinematic viscosity

$S_s$  = specific gravity of the particles composing the perimeter which is usually taken to be 2.65

$d$  = diameter of the particles composing the perimeter of the channel

For conservative design  $d$  can usually be assumed to be the diameter of the particle of which 25 percent of all the particles, measured by weight, are larger. The results of Shields are usually summarized in a graphical form (Fig. 7.13) in

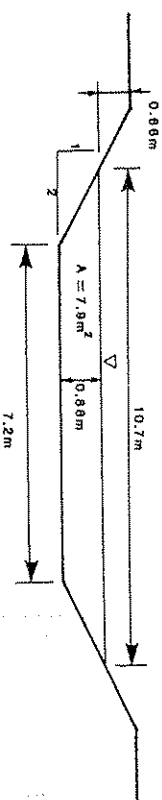


FIGURE 7.12 Summary of results for Example 7.3.

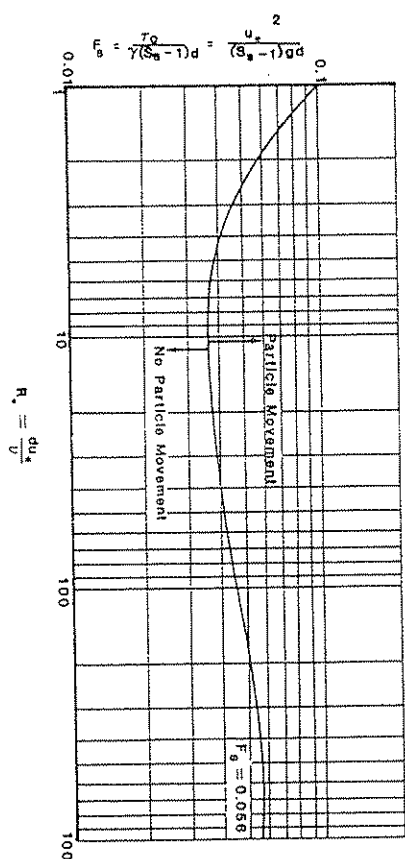


FIGURE 7.13 Threshold of movement as a function of particle Reynolds number. (Shields, 1936.)

which the curve delineates the threshold of movement. These results have been confirmed, in a general sense, by the theoretical results of White (1940) and the field results of Lane (1955) which are summarized in Fig. 7.10a.

If it is assumed that  $S_s = 2.65$ , then when  $R_*$  exceeds a value of 400, the perimeter particle size must be in excess of 0.25 in (0.006 m). In this case, the channel perimeter material can accurately be classified as coarse alluvium, and Eq. (7.3.14) becomes

$$\frac{\tau_o}{d\gamma(S_s - 1)} = 0.056 \quad (7.3.15)$$

where  $\tau_o = \gamma R S$

Therefore,

$$\frac{\gamma R S}{d(S_s - 1)} = \frac{R S}{d(2.65 - 1)} = 0.056$$

$$d \approx 11 R S \quad (7.3.16)$$

Equation (7.3.16) provides a simple method of estimating the size of the material which will remain at rest in a channel of specified  $R$  and  $S$ . Note, for values of  $d$  less than 0.25 in (0.006 m) Eq. (7.3.16) is not valid, but the curve in Fig. 7.9 can be used to find appropriate values of  $F_s$  and analogous relations can be developed for these sizes.

#### EXAMPLE 7.4

In the previous example, the specified slope was 0.0016 and 25 percent of the channel perimeter particles were 3 cm (1.2 in) or more in diam-

eter. Use the results summarized in Fig. 7.10 to show that the design arrived at in this example represents a conservative design.

#### Solution

Assume  $S_s = 2.65$  and that  $R \approx \gamma_N$  for wide channels. Under these assumptions, Eq. (7.3.16) becomes for level surfaces

$$\tau = \frac{\gamma d}{11}$$

From the previous example, the tractive force ratio is

$$\frac{\tau_s}{\tau_b} = K = \sqrt{1 - \frac{\sin^2 \alpha}{\sin^2 \alpha}} = 0.60$$

Substituting  $\tau_b = C_s \left( \frac{\gamma d}{11} \right)$  and  $\tau_s = 0.75 \gamma_N S$  in the above equation yields

$$\frac{0.75 \gamma_N S}{C_s (\gamma d / 11)} = 0.60$$

or the maximum value of  $\gamma_N$  for a stable channel is

$$\gamma_N = \frac{C_s d (0.60)}{11 (0.75) S} = \frac{0.75 (3/100) (0.60)}{11 (0.75) (0.0016)} = 1.0 \text{ m (3.3 ft)}$$

Thus, the previous computation yields a conservative result for  $\gamma_N$ . It should be noted that this result provides a check on the validity of the solution obtained by the recommended design methodology.

#### The Stable Hydraulic Section

The permissible tractive force design techniques presented in the previous section yield a channel cross section in which the tractive force is equal to the permissible value on only a part of the wetted perimeter, usually the sides. It seems logical to attempt to define a channel cross section such that the condition of incipient particle motion prevails at all points of the channel perimeter. The equations defining this channel section were developed by the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation (Glover and Florey, 1951) for erodible channels carrying clear water through noncohesive materials, and this methodology yields what is known as a stable hydraulic section of maximum hydraulic efficiency.

The assumptions required to develop the equations defining the stable hydraulic section are:

1. The soil particles are held in place in the channel by the component of the submerged weight of the particle acting normal to the bed.

2. At and above the water surface, the channel side slope is the angle of repose of the noncohesive material under the action of gravity.
3. At the centerline of the channel, the side slope is zero, and the tractive force alone is sufficient to produce a state of incipient particle motion.
4. At points between the center and edge of the channel, the particles are kept at a state of incipient motion by the resultant of the tractive force and the gravity component of the submerged weight of the particles.
5. The tractive force acting on an area of the channel is equal to the component of the weight of the water above the area acting in the direction of flow. If this assumption is valid, then there is no lateral transfer of tractive force. It is noted that with the exception of assumptions 2 and 3, these are the same assumptions which were used in the previous section.

Consider a channel of longitudinal slope  $S$  with the side slope being defined at any point in the section ( $x, y$ ) by the angle  $\Gamma$  (Fig. 7.14). Then, by assumption 5, the critical tractive stress acting on area  $AB$  in a unit length of channel is

$$\tau_s = \frac{\gamma y S dx}{\sqrt{(dx)^2 + (dy)^2}} = \gamma y S \cos \Gamma \quad (7.3.17)$$

From the previous development, the critical tractive force acting on the side of the channel is given by

$$\tau_s = K \tau_b = \gamma y N S \cos \Gamma \sqrt{1 - \frac{\tan^2 \Gamma}{\tan^2 \alpha}} \quad (7.3.18)$$

where  $\tau_b = \gamma y N S$  is the tractive force at the centerline of the channel where the depth of flow is  $y_N$ . Combining Eqs. (7.3.17) and (7.3.18) and solving for  $y$  yields

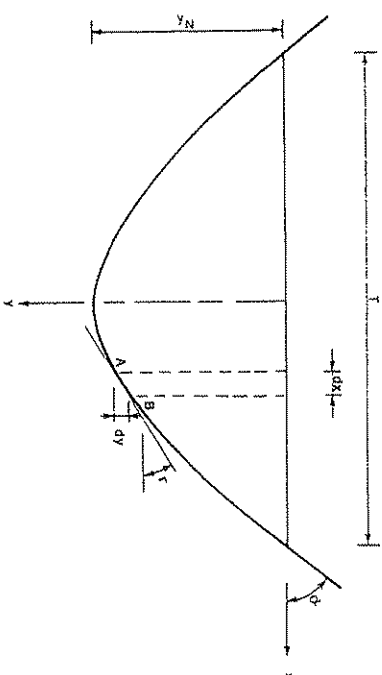


FIGURE 7.14 Schematic definition of parameters for stable hydraulic section.

$$y = \frac{y_N}{\tan \alpha} \sqrt{\tan^2 \alpha - \tan^2 \Gamma} \quad (7.3.19)$$

Substituting  $dy/dx = \tan \Gamma$  into Eq. (7.3.19) yields a differential equation that defines the shape of the cross section

$$\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y}{y_N}\right)^2 \tan^2 \alpha - \tan^2 \alpha = 0 \quad (7.3.20)$$

Given the condition that at  $x = 0$ ,  $y = y_N$ , the solution of Eq. (7.3.20) is

$$y = y_N \cos \left( \frac{x \tan \alpha}{y_N} \right) \quad (7.3.21)$$

An alternate form of Eq. (7.3.21) can be obtained by noting that at  $x = T/2$ ,  $y = 0$ . This condition can be satisfied only if

$$\frac{T \tan \alpha}{2 y_N} = \frac{\pi}{2} \quad (7.3.22)$$

$$\text{or} \quad y_N = \frac{T \tan \alpha}{\pi} \quad (7.3.23)$$

Then Eq. (7.3.21) becomes

$$y = y_N \cos \left( \frac{\pi x}{T} \right) \quad (7.3.24)$$

Equations (7.3.21) and (7.3.24) define the channel section which has the smallest width and the largest hydraulic radius for a given area. Thus, this channel has the greatest hydraulic efficiency of all stable, unlined, earthen channels built through noncohesive materials at a longitudinal slope  $S$  and carrying clear water.

The flow area of the channel defined by Eqs. (7.3.21) and (7.3.24) is

$$A = 2 \int_0^{T/2} y dx = 2 y_N \int_0^{T/2} \cos \left( \frac{x \tan \alpha}{y_N} \right) dx = \frac{2 T y_N}{\pi} \quad (7.3.25)$$

and the wetted perimeter

$$P = 2 \int_0^{T/2} \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} dx = \frac{2 y_N}{\sin \alpha} E(\sin \alpha) \quad (7.3.26)$$

where  $E(\sin \alpha)$  is a complete elliptic integral of the second kind.  $E(\sin \alpha)$  can be evaluated either by standard mathematical tables or by

$$E(\sin \alpha) = \frac{\pi}{2} \left[ 1 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \sin^2 \alpha - \left(\frac{1 \cdot 3}{2 \cdot 4}\right)^2 \frac{\sin^4 \alpha}{3} - \left(\frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6}\right)^2 \frac{\sin^6 \alpha}{5} - \dots \right] \quad (7.3.27)$$



The discharge of the channel can then be computed by the Manning equation

$$Q = \frac{2.98 \gamma_N^{3/2} (\cos \alpha)^{2/3} \sqrt{S}}{n (\tan \alpha) [E(\sin \alpha)]^{2/3}} \quad (7.3.28)$$

The discharge  $Q$  is the flow that would be obtained in a channel designed for the greatest efficiency in a given noncohesive material at a specified longitudinal slope. If the design discharge  $Q_D$  is larger or smaller than  $Q$ , then the channel defined by Eqs. (7.3.21) and (7.3.24) must be modified. If  $Q_D > Q$ , then additional flow area must be provided; however, the maximum depth of flow can be no greater than the stability depth  $\gamma_N$  since an increase in depth would result in an increased tractive force and instability. Therefore, a rectangular section is added at the center of the theoretical section (Fig. 7.15). The additional width required,  $T'$ , is found by a trial-and-error solution of the Manning equation or

$$Q_D = \frac{1.49}{n} \sqrt{S} \left\{ \frac{[(2\gamma_N/\tan \alpha) + T'\gamma_N]^{5/3}}{[2\gamma_N E(\sin \alpha)/(\sin \alpha) + T']^{2/3}} \right\} \quad (7.3.29)$$

If  $Q_D < Q$ , then economy dictates that a portion of the theoretical section must be removed (Fig. 7.16). The width of the channel which must be removed,  $T''$ , is also found by a trial-and-error solution of the Manning equation

$$Q = \frac{1.49}{n} \sqrt{S} \frac{[(2\gamma_N/\tan \alpha) \sin \alpha (T \tan \alpha/2\gamma_N) - \sin(T'' \tan \alpha/2\gamma_N)]^{5/3}}{(2\gamma_N/\tan \alpha) E(\sin \alpha) (\pi/2)(1 - T''/T)} \quad (7.3.30)$$

where  $E[\sin \alpha, (\pi/2)(1 - T''/T)]$  is an incomplete, elliptic integral of the third kind.  $T''$  can be estimated by assuming that the mean velocity in the theoretical

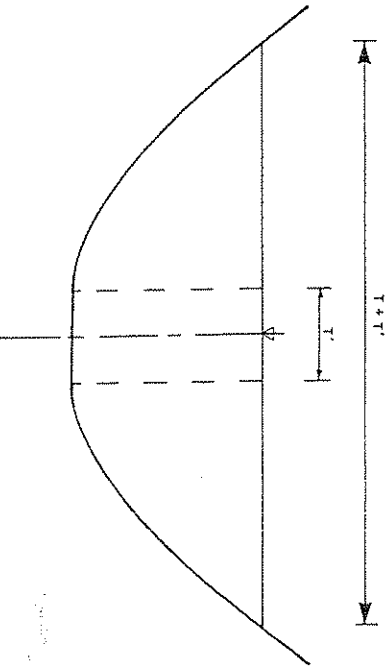
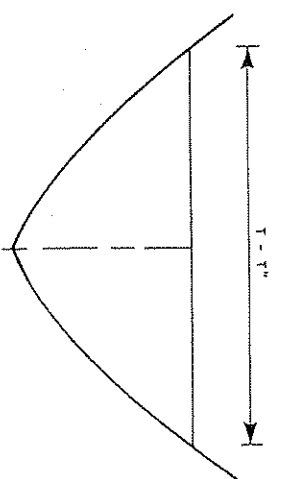


FIGURE 7.15 Definition sketch for stable hydraulic section where  $Q < Q_D$ .

FIGURE 7.16 Definition sketch for stable hydraulic section when  $Q > Q_D$ .



section and the adjusted section are equal and thus that the discharges are proportional to the flow areas or

$$Q = \frac{2\gamma_N^2}{\tan \alpha} \bar{u} = \frac{2T^2 \tan \alpha}{\pi^2} \bar{u} \quad (7.3.31)$$

$$\text{and} \quad Q_D = \frac{2(T - T'')^2 \tan \alpha}{\pi^2} \bar{u} \quad (7.3.32)$$

Combining Eqs. (7.3.31) and (7.3.32) results in an equation which can be used to estimate  $T''$

$$T'' = T \left( 1 - \sqrt{\frac{Q_D}{Q}} \right) \quad (7.3.33)$$

#### EXAMPLE 7.5

Design the stable section of greatest hydraulic efficiency for a canal which is to be constructed through a noncohesive material on a slope of 0.0004. Preliminary testing of the natural material which will compose the channel perimeter indicates that  $\tau_o = 0.10 \text{ lb/ft}^2$  ( $4.8 \text{ N/m}^2$ ),  $n = 0.02$ , and  $\alpha = 31^\circ$ . The design flow is  $300 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}$  ( $8.5 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ ).

#### Solution

The depth of flow can be determined from Eq. (7.3.2) where it is assumed that  $\gamma_N = R$ .

$$\tau_o = \gamma \gamma_N S$$

$$\gamma_N = \frac{\tau_o}{\gamma S} = \frac{0.10}{62.4(0.0004)} = 4.0 \text{ ft (1.2 m)}$$

The shape of the channel is obtained by combining Eqs. (7.3.23) and (7.3.24)

$$\gamma_1 = \gamma_N \cos \left( \frac{x \tan \alpha}{\gamma_N} \right) = 4.0 \cos \left( \frac{x \tan 31^\circ}{4} \right) = 4.0 \cos(0.15 x)$$

$$\text{and } T = \frac{\pi y_N}{\tan \alpha} = \frac{4\pi}{\tan 31^\circ} = 21 \text{ ft (6.4 m)}$$

$$A = \frac{2Ty_N}{\pi} = \frac{2(21)(4)}{\pi} = 53 \text{ ft}^2 (4.9 \text{ m}^2)$$

The discharge of this channel can then be found from Eq. (7.3.28).

$$Q = \frac{2.98y_N^{8/3}(\cos \alpha)^{2/3}\sqrt{S}}{n \tan \alpha [E(\sin \alpha)]^{2/3}} = \frac{2.98(4)^{8/3}(\cos 31^\circ)^{2/3}\sqrt{0.0004}}{0.02(\tan 31^\circ)(1.46)^{2/3}} = 140 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s} (4.0 \text{ m}^3/\text{s})$$

Since  $Q < Q_D$ , a trial-and-error solution of Eq. (7.3.29) for  $T'$  is required.

$$Q_D = \frac{1.49}{n} \sqrt{S} \left[ \frac{[(2y_N^2/\tan \alpha) + T'y_N]^{5/3}}{[(2y_N/\sin \alpha)E(\sin \alpha) + T']^{2/3}} \right]$$

$$\frac{nQ_D}{1.49\sqrt{S}} = \frac{[(2y_N^2/\tan \alpha) + T'y_N]^{5/3}}{[(2y_N/\sin \alpha)E(\sin \alpha) + T']^{2/3}}$$

$$\frac{0.02(300)}{1.49\sqrt{0.0004}} = \frac{[2(4)^2/\tan 31^\circ + 4T']^{5/3}}{[2(4)/(1.46)/\sin 31^\circ + T']^{2/3}}$$

$$201 = \frac{(53.3 + 4T')^{5/3}}{(22.7 + T')^{2/3}}$$

Trial $T'$ , ft	$(53.3 + 4T')^{5/3}/$ $(22.7 + T')^{2/3}$
5	140
10	188
11.5	203

Therefore, the top width required to convey this flow is  $(21 + 11.5) = 32 \text{ ft (9.8 m)}$ . The results of this design are summarized in Fig. 7.17.

### Channel Seepage Losses

Although a channel may require lining for many reasons (Section 7.2), one of the primary reasons for lining a channel constructed in materials which would otherwise not require lining is seepage losses. The loss of water due to seepage from an unlined channel depends on a variety of factors including, but not limited to, the dimensions of the channel, the gradation of the materials composing the perimeter, and the groundwater conditions. Although a number of attempts to theoretically estimate the seepage from a channel have been made (e.g., Bou-

wer, 1965), direct measurement of seepage loss is still preferred. There are basically three direct methods of measuring seepage loss:

1. In an existing channel, lined or unlined, selected reaches of the channel may be isolated by dikes to form closed basins of known volume. A mass balance will then suffice to estimate the seepage loss. Since this method usually requires that the channel be removed from service for an extended period of time, these tests are normally performed in the "off season." In such a case, care must be taken to ensure that the losses measured are typical of the season of interest.
2. If a very careful record of the inflow and outflow to a reach of channel is kept, seepage loss may be estimated from this record. In this method, the canal is not removed from service, but the accuracy of the method is less than that of the previously described ponding method.
3. In the case of a proposed channel, test reaches of the channel may be constructed and the ponding method used.

A fourth method which is relatively simple but reliable is based on historical measurements. In Table 7.9, a set of values originally developed by Etchevery and Harding in 1933 are summarized (Davis and Sorenson 1969). The values in this table are the result of many field measurements and have been found to be reasonably accurate; however, it is recommended that these values should be used only as a design guide given a specific site.

A fifth method of estimating the seepage from an unlined or partially lined channel involves the solution of the relevant porous media equations for an appropriate set of boundary conditions. Subramanya et al. (1973) examined two cases of seepage from partially lined channels. In this investigation the following assumptions were made. First, the lining was assumed to be impervious and its thickness negligible. Second, the porous material beneath the channel was assumed to be isotropic, homogeneous, and of infinite depth. Third, capillary action was assumed absent.

The first situation considered by these investigators was a channel in which the sides were lined but the bottom was unlined (Fig. 7.18a). In Fig. 7.19 the results are graphically summarized. In this figure,  $q$  = total seepage loss per unit length of channel,  $K$  = coefficient of permeability of material underlying the channel,  $\beta$  = angle made by the sides of the channel with the horizontal in

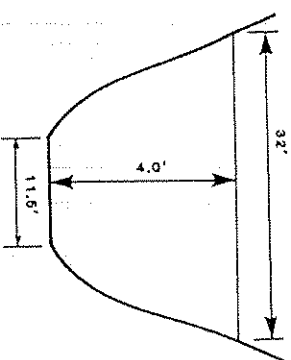


FIGURE 7.17 Summary of results for Example 7.5.

unit tractive force. In a wide channel,  $\gamma_N \approx R$  and Eq. (7.3.2) becomes  $\tau_o = \gamma_N S$ .

In most channels, the tractive force is not uniformly distributed over the perimeter, and, therefore, before an accurate design methodology can be developed, the distribution of the tractive force on the perimeter of the channel must be estimated.

Although many attempts to determine the distribution of the tractive force on a channel perimeter have been made using both field and laboratory data, they have not been successful (Chow, 1959). In Fig. 7.7, the maximum unit tractive force on the sides and bottoms of various channels as determined by mathematical studies are shown as a function of the ratio of the bottom width to the depth of flow. It is noted that for the trapezoidal section, which is the section generally used in unlined canals, the maximum tractive force on the bottom is approximately  $\gamma_N S$  and on the sides  $0.76 \gamma_N S$  (Lane, 1955).

When a particle on the perimeter of a channel is in a state of impending motion, the forces acting to cause motion are in equilibrium with the forces resisting motion. A particle on the level bottom of a channel is subject to the tractive force  $A_e \tau_L$  where  $\tau_L$  = unit tractive force on a level surface and  $A_e$  = effective area. Movement is resisted by the gravitational force  $W_s$  multiplied by a coefficient of friction which is approximated by  $\tan \alpha$  where  $W_s$  = submerged particle weight and  $\alpha$  = angle of repose for the particle. When motion is incipient,

$$A_e \tau_L = W_s \tan \alpha \quad (7.3.3)$$

$$\text{or} \quad \tau_L = \frac{W_s}{A_e} \tan \alpha \quad (7.3.4)$$

A particle on the sloping side of a channel is subject to both a tractive force  $\tau_s A_e$  and a downslope gravitational component  $W_s \sin \Gamma$  where  $\tau_s$  = unit tractive force on the side slopes and  $\Gamma$  = side slope angle. These forces and their resultant  $\sqrt{(W_s \sin \Gamma)^2 + (\tau_s A_e)^2}$  are shown schematically in Fig. 7.8. The force resisting motion is the gravitational component multiplied by a coefficient of friction  $W_s \cos \Gamma \tan \alpha$ . Setting the forces tending to cause motion equal to those resisting motion,

$$W_s \cos \Gamma \tan \alpha = \sqrt{(W_s \sin \Gamma)^2 + (A_e \tau_s)^2} \quad (7.3.5)$$

$$\text{or} \quad \tau_s = \frac{W_s}{A_e} \cos \Gamma \tan \alpha \sqrt{1 - \frac{\tan^2 \Gamma}{\tan^2 \alpha}} \quad (7.3.6)$$

Equations (7.3.4) and (7.3.6) usually combine to form the tractive force ratio

$$K = \frac{\tau_s}{\tau_L} = \cos \Gamma \sqrt{1 - \frac{\tan^2 \Gamma}{\tan^2 \alpha}} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{\sin^2 \Gamma}{\sin^2 \alpha}} \quad (7.3.7)$$

where  $K$  = tractive force ratio.

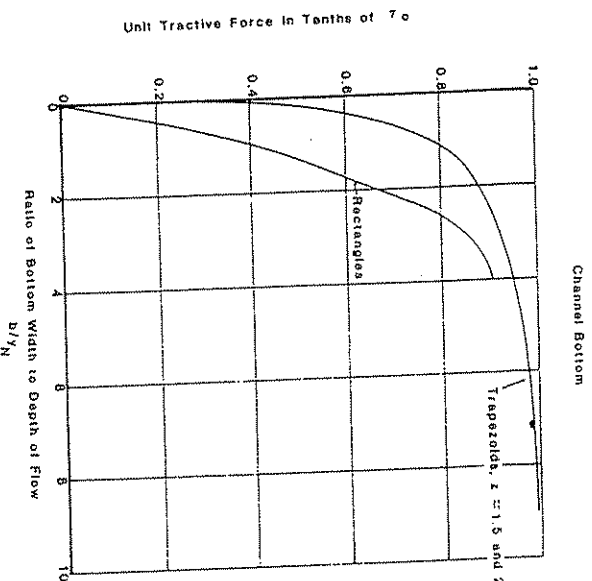
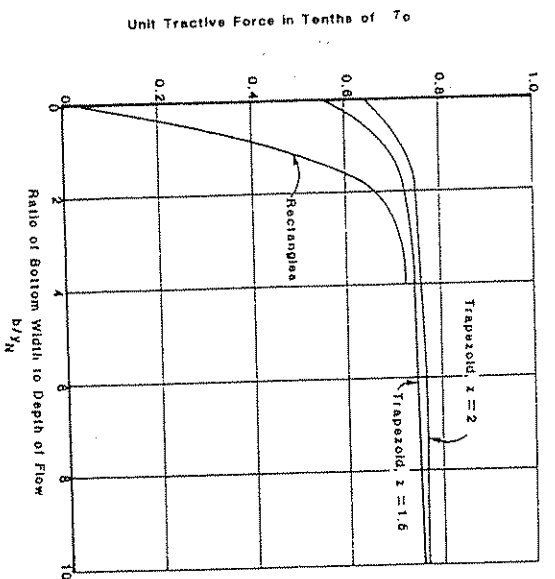


FIGURE 7.7 (a) Maximum unit tractive force in terms of  $\gamma_N S$  for channel sides. (b) Maximum unit tractive forces in terms of  $\gamma_N S$  for channel bottoms.

TABLE 7.6 Comparison of maximum tractive forces for canals with varying degrees of sinuosity (Lane, 1955)

Degree of sinuosity	Relative limiting tractive force
Straight canals	1.00
Slightly sinuous canals	0.90
Moderately sinuous canals	0.75
Very sinuous canals	0.60

$$\frac{L_c}{L_s} = \frac{\text{critical depth}}{\text{sinuosity depth}}$$



principles. From Eq. (7.3.1) the critical tractive force on the channel boundary for a depth of flow  $y_1$  is

$$\tau_c = \gamma R_1 S_1 \quad (7.3.8)$$

Where  $R_1$  and  $S_1$  are the hydraulic radius and slope, respectively, corresponding to the depth  $y_1$ . Then, for any other uniform depth of flow  $y_2$  in a channel whose bed is composed of the same soil type, the critical tractive force is

$$\tau_c = \gamma R_2 S_2 \quad (7.3.9)$$

Since the same channel perimeter material is involved in both cases, the critical tractive forces must be equal, and hence

$$R_1 S_1 = R_2 S_2$$

$$\text{or} \quad \frac{R_1}{R_2} = \frac{S_2}{S_1} \quad (7.3.10)$$

Considering the Manning uniform flow equation for both situations, it can be demonstrated that

$$\frac{\bar{u}_2}{\bar{u}_1} = \left( \frac{R_2}{R_1} \right)^{2/3} \left( \frac{S_2}{S_1} \right)^{1/2}$$

and substituting Eq. (7.3.10),

$$\frac{\bar{u}_2}{\bar{u}_1} = \left( \frac{R_2}{R_1} \right)^{1/6} = k \quad (7.3.11)$$

The parameter  $k$  in Eq. (7.3.11) can be considered a correction factor which should be applied to the maximum permissible velocity (Table 7.5), if the uniform depth of flow  $y_2$  is different from the depth of flow corresponding to the maximum permissible velocity. If  $y_1 = 3$  ft (0.91 m) and the channel is wide, Eq. (7.3.11) becomes

$$k = \left( \frac{y_2}{3} \right)^{1/6} \quad (7.3.12)$$

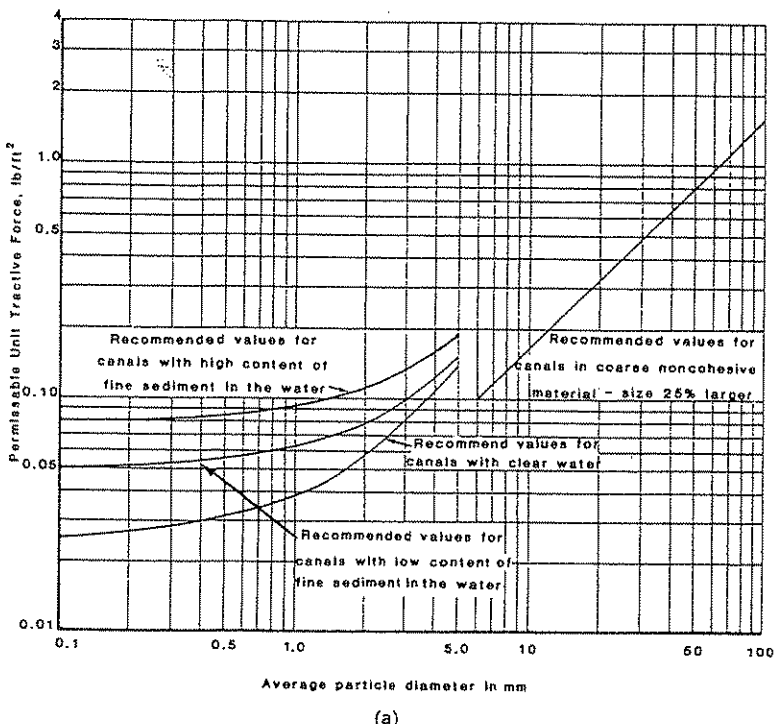
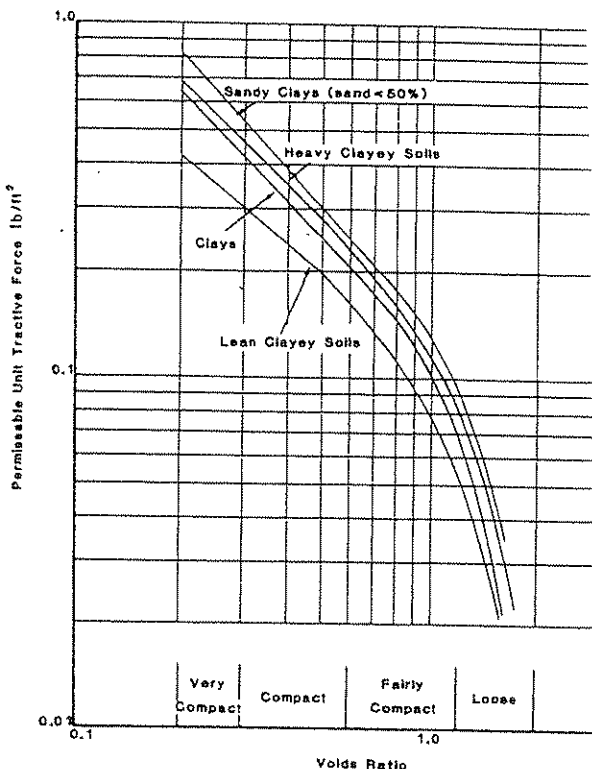


FIGURE 7.10 (a) Recommended permissible unit tractive forces for canals built in noncohesive material. (Lane, 1955.) (b) Permissible unit tractive forces for canals in cohesive materials. (Chow, 1959.)

(7.3.1)

The above assumption leads to large discrepancies between computed and measured discharges under flood flow (above bank-full stages) conditions. The interaction between the slower moving berm flows and the fast moving main channel flow significantly increases head losses. As a result, the discharge computed by this conventional method will overestimate the flow. Utilising the recent research data from the Flood Channel Facility at Wallingford, Ackers<sup>1,2</sup> has shown that the discrepancy between the conventional calculations and the measured flow is dependent on flood flow levels. He formulated appropriate correction factors for each region of flow; a detailed exposure of the analysis of the research is beyond the scope of the book.

### 8.5 Channel design

The design of open channels involves the selection of suitable sectional dimensions such that the maximum discharge will be conveyed within the land in which the channel is to be constructed.

In the design of an open channel a resistance equation, the Darcy or Chezy or Manning, may be used. However at least one other equation is required to define the relationship between width and depth. This second series of equations incorporates the design criteria; for example in rigid boundary (non-erodible) channels the designer will wish to minimise the construction cost resulting in what is commonly termed 'the most economic section'. In addition there may be a constraint on the maximum velocity to prevent erosion or on the minimum velocity to prevent settlement of sediment.

In the case of erodible (unlined) channels excavated in natural ground e.g. clay, silts, etc.) the design criterion will be that the boundary shear stress exerted by the moving liquid will not exceed the 'critical tractive force' of the bed and side material.

(a) Rigid boundary channels — economic section.

Using the Darcy-type resistance equation,

$$Q = A \sqrt{\frac{8g}{f} \frac{A}{P} S_o} = \frac{KA^{5/2}}{P^{1/2}}$$

$$A = f(y); \quad P = f(y).$$

$$Q \text{ max. is achieved when } \frac{dQ}{dy} = 0 \text{ i.e. } \frac{d}{dy} \left( \frac{A^3}{P} \right) = 0$$

$$\frac{3A^2}{P} \frac{dA}{dy} - \frac{A^3}{P^2} \frac{dP}{dy} = 0$$

$$\text{whence } 3P \frac{dA}{dy} - A \frac{dP}{dy} = 0$$

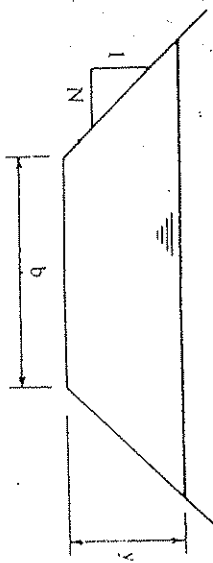


Figure 8.4 Trapezoidal channel

For a given area  $\frac{dA}{dy} = 0$ ; then for  $Q \text{ max.}$   $\frac{dP}{dy} = 0$ , i.e. the wetted perimeter is a minimum. For a trapezoidal channel (see fig. 8.4):

$$A = (b + Ny)y$$

$$P = b + 2y \sqrt{1 + N^2}$$

For a given area  $A$ ,

$$P = \frac{A}{y} - Ny + 2y \sqrt{1 + N^2}$$

$$\text{For } Q \text{ max. } \frac{dP}{dy} = -\frac{A}{y^2} - N + 2 \sqrt{1 + N^2} = 0$$

$$\text{i.e. } \frac{dP}{dy} = -(b + Ny) - Ny + 2y \sqrt{1 + N^2} = 0$$

$$\text{or } b + 2Ny = 2y \sqrt{1 + N^2} \quad (8.8)$$

It can be shown that if a semicircle of radius  $y$  is drawn with its centre in the liquid surface it will be tangential to the sides and bed. Thus the most economic section approximates as closely as possible to a circular section which is known to have the least perimeter for a given area.

For a rectangular section ( $N = 0$ ) and  $b = 2y$ .

(b) Mobile boundary channels (erodible)

The 'critical tractive force' theory and the 'maximum permissible velocity' concept are commonly used in the design of erodible channels for stability.

(1) Critical tractive force theory

The force exerted by the water on the wetted area of a channel is called the 'tractive force'. The average 'unit tractive force' is the average shear stress given by  $\bar{\tau}_0 = \rho g R S_o$ . Boundary shear stress is not, however, uniformly distributed; the distribution varies somewhat with channel shape but not with size. For trapezoidal sections the maximum shear stress on the bed may be taken as  $\rho g y S_o$  and on the sides as  $0.76 \rho g y S_o$  (See fig. 8.5); however, the shear distribution depends on the channel aspect ratio,  $b/y$  (see Table 8.7).

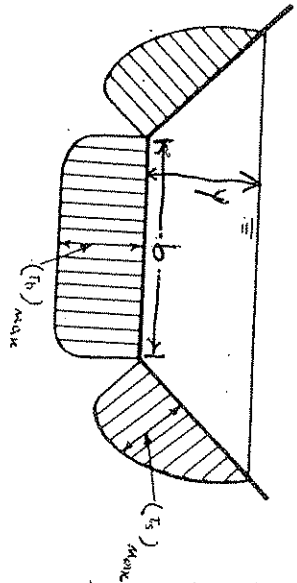


Figure 8.5 Distribution of shear stress on channel boundary

Table 8.2 Maximum bed/side shear stress

Aspect ratio, b/y	$\tau_{b \text{ max}} / \rho g y S_0$	$\tau_{s \text{ max}} / \rho g y S_0$
2	0.890	0.735
4	0.970	0.750
>8	0.985	0.780

$$\tau_b = \gamma y S_0 = \rho g y S_0$$

If the shear stresses can be kept below that which will cause the material of the channel boundary to move, the channel will be stable. The critical tractive force of a particular material is the unit tractive force which will not cause erosion of the material on a horizontal surface. Material on the sides of the channel is subjected, in addition to the shear force due to the flowing water, to a gravity force down the slope. It can be shown (see e.g. Chow<sup>5</sup>) that if  $\tau_{cb}$  is the critical tractive force the maximum critical shear stress due to the water flow on the sides is

$$\tau_{cs} = \tau_{cb} \sqrt{\frac{1 - \sin^2 \theta}{\sin^2 \phi}} \quad (8.9)$$

where  $\theta$  is the slope of the sides to the horizontal, and  $\phi$  is the angle of repose of the material.

Table 8.3 gives some typical values of critical tractive force and permissible velocity.

(ii) Maximum permissible mean velocity concept.

This appears to be a rather uncertain concept since the depth of flow has a significant effect on the boundary shear stress. Fortier and Scobery<sup>6</sup> published the values in Table 8.3 for well-seasoned channels of small bed slope and depths below 1 m.

(Chow, 5.11)

### 8.6 Uniform flow in part-full circular pipes

Circular pipes are widely used for underground storm sewers and wastewater sewers. Storm sewers are usually designed to have a velocity of 1.5 m/s.

Table 8.3 Critical tractive force and mean velocity for different bed materials

Material	Size mm	Critical tractive force $N/m^2$	Approximate mean velocity m/sec	Manning's coefficient of roughness
Sandy loam (non-colloidal)		2.0	0.50	0.020
Silt loam (non-colloidal)		2.5	0.60	0.020
Alluvial silt (non-colloidal)		2.5	0.60	0.020
Ordinary firm loam		3.7	0.75	0.020
Volcanic ash		3.7	0.75	0.020
Stiff clay (very colloidal)		1.22	1.15	0.025
Alluvial silts (colloidal)		12.2	1.15	0.025
Shales and hard-pans		31.8	1.85	0.025
Fine sand (non-colloidal)	0.062-0.25	1.2	0.45	0.020
Medium sand (non-colloidal)	0.25-0.5	1.7	0.50	0.020
Coarse sand (non-colloidal)	0.5-2.0	2.5	0.60	0.020
Fine gravel	4-8	3.7	0.75	0.020
Coarse gravel	8-64	14.7	1.25	0.025
Cobbles and shingles	64-256	44.0	1.55	0.035
Graded loam and cobbles (non-colloidal)	0.004-64	19.6	1.15	0.30
Graded silts to cobbles (colloidal)	0-64	22.0	1.25	0.30

(179)

فصل ۶ } طراحی کانالهای پایدار در شرایط بستر متحرک

stable-live-Bed channels

or stable-Mobile-Bed channels

روشنمای فصل ۵ برای ۱- clear water flow  
۲- fixed-Bed channel

مثل جریان بدون رسوب کف و بدون رسوب معلق قابل ته نشینی  
در کانال با مواد بستر درشت دانه بطوریکه  $(\tau \leq \tau_0)$  با  
تئوری تنش برشی بحرانی طراحی کردیم.

نتیجه: ← No-scour (نه بردار) و No-deposition (نه بگذار)  
صورت گیرد.

در فصل ۶:

برای شرایط ← Mobile-Bed, live-Bed channel یعنی  
قابلیت حرکت بستر داریم و نتیجتاً:

یعنی:

کانال با مواد بستر ریزدانه  
(fine-Bed material) و یا

- جریان حاوی رسوبات قابل ته نشینی است →  
(Sediment-Transporting flow)

که در این در مقابل clear water flow می باشد.

اساس طراحی پایدار کانال در یک Reach ←

$$(Sediment Load - in) = (Sediment Load - out)$$

که تغییر در فرم بستر صورت نگیرد.

یا

No scour, No Deposition

بنابراین نیاز به :



- ۱- معادلات تنش برشی (برای آستانه حرکت مواد بستر)
- ۲- معادلات انتقال رسوب (حل و انتقال رسوبات و روی به بازه)

مشکل ① معادلات انتقال رسوب : تجربی و شرایط کاربرد محدود

② سهم فرسایش کف و دیواره ها در حمل رسوب

④ درازنای معادلات حرکت با استفاده از تنش برشی روش موجود مثل دیگرام سلینز برای آب صاف است نه آب خروار و رسوب

روش عمومی (ایده عمومی) ← استفاده از روش تئوری رژیم است

(Regime Theory)

(فرضیه رژیم)

(Regime Approach)

مفهوم Regime : ۲ تا تعریف مطرح است :

تعریف اول

① Ignoring plan geometry, an alluvial channel can adjust its width, depth and slope to achieve a stable condition in which it can transport a certain amount of water and sediment.

(صرف نظر از شکل منرسی یک مجرای آبرفتی وقتی به حالت تعادل که شیب، عرض و عرض

مقدار را برای انتقال یک مقدار حین آب و رسوب تنظیم کند)

② یک رودخانه زمانی در حالت رژیم است که شیب و سطح مقطع آن در شرایط

تعادل قرار داشته باشد یعنی فرسایش یا رسوبگذاری نداشته باشد هر چند که

حمل رسوبات همراه جریان آب ممکن است باشد. (کتاب هیدرولیک رسوب)

یک حالت تعادل دینامیکی بین فرسایشات جریان (آب و رسوب) و هندسه هیدرولیکی



هدف: برای جریان عین آب در سوب ابعاد هندسه میرویکلی (شیب، عرض، عمق)،  
رادر شرایط تعادل (پایداری حالت رژیم) بدست آوریم.

روشهای حل:

① روش تجربی Empirical Methods (regime methods)  
هندسه میرویکلی پایه را بر اساس نتایج صحرایی

② روشهای تحلیلی Analytical Regime methods  
بر اساس عوامل مؤثر در تغییرات رودخانه‌ای (انتقال رسوب، مقاومت جریان  
پایداری شیب دیواره‌ها) یک روابط و بنای تئوریک می‌سازند. (تحلیل  
پایداری در محدوده آستانه حرکت مواد) - عملاروش تحلیلی وجود ندارد.

③ روش ترکیبی (نیمه تجربی) Combined Methods

۱-۶) تئوری رژیم - تجربی (Empirical-Regime Theory)  
مبنای این روش ارائه محادلات ساده و تجربی از اطلاعات صحرایی کانالها  
رودخانه‌ها در حالت رژیم (In Regime channel) - این روش توسط  
انگلیسی‌ها معمولاً در منه وستان اولیه بوده - در یک دوره زمانی ۱۰ ساله تغییرات  
قابل ملاحظه نبوده است.

محدودیت کاربرد: تناسب با شرایط ارائه شده در هر رابطه  
Regime Method by Lacey (1929)

سه معادله برای کانالهای در حال رژیم مربوط به ۳ درجه آزادی هندسه کانال  
(عرض، عمق، شیب) برای کانالهای با مسیر مستقیم

سرع

$$\textcircled{I} \quad V = 0.625 \sqrt{f_s R} \quad \text{یا} \quad R = 2.56 \frac{V^2}{f_s}$$

شاخص بحق و شلال  
در مستطیلی عرض (R=B)

سیستم  
واحدی SI

$$\textcircled{II} \quad P = 4.84 \sqrt{Q} \Rightarrow \text{در مستطیلی عرض (P=B)}$$

$$\textcircled{III} \quad S = 0.000304 f_s^{5/3} \cdot Q^{-1/6}$$

$f_s$ : ضریب رسوب ← (silt factor) عامل رسوب یا نوع

رودخانه از نظر مواد بستری

$$f_s = \sqrt{2500 D} \quad \textcircled{IV} \quad D_{50} = D \text{ مواد بستری (m)}$$

حق و عرض و شیب بصورت تابعی از  $Q$  و  $Q_s$  است.

از سه معادله فوق پارامترهای دیگر را می توان بدست آورد.

$$Q = A \cdot V = P R V = 4.84 \sqrt{Q} R (0.625 \sqrt{f_s R})$$

$$\Rightarrow Q = 3.025 \sqrt{Q f_s R^3} \Rightarrow Q^2 = 9.1506 Q f_s R^3$$

$$\text{If } Q = AV \xrightarrow[\textcircled{V}]{\textcircled{I} \text{ و } \textcircled{II}} R = \left( \frac{Q}{9.15 f_s} \right)^{1/3}$$

$$y, B, S = f(Q, D) \quad \text{به عبارت دیگر}$$

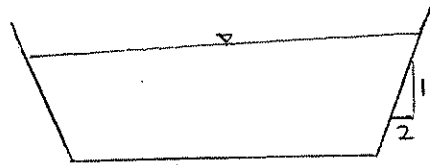
مثال: باروش Lacey مقطع پایه را به شکل ذوزنقه با شیب دیواره

(2H:1V) همراهی کنیز، روش Lacey برای clear water نیست.

اگر شرایط sediment transporting flow هستیم از روش فصل قبل می توان استفاده کرد.

معادلات بالا برای آب رسوب دار است نه آب صاف

۵۴



$$Q = 311.3 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$$

$$D_{50} = 0.23 \text{ mm} = 0.23 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}$$

$$\text{حل: } f_s = 0.758 \quad \textcircled{\text{IV}}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{مقایسه} \\ \text{شماره} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} P = 85.4 \quad \textcircled{\text{II}} \\ R = 3.515 \\ V = 0.625 \sqrt{f_s R} = 1.02 \text{ m/s} \quad \textcircled{\text{I}} \end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{از رابطه نتیجه رابطه I و V} \end{array}$$

$$A = \frac{Q}{V} = P \times R = 300 \text{ m}^2$$

$$\textcircled{\text{III}} \text{ از رابطه } S_o = 7 \times 10^{-5}$$

عرض کف کانال:  $b$

عمق آب کانال:  $y$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} A = (b + zy)y \\ P = b + 2y\sqrt{1+z^2} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} 300 = by + 2y^2 \\ 85.4 = b + 4.47y \end{array}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} b = 67.5 \text{ m} \\ y = 4 \text{ m} \\ S_o = 0.7 \times 10^{-4} \end{array} \right.$$

Blench (1966) - مطالب ضمیمه مراجعه شود - کتاب هیدرولیک رستو  
simons and Albertson (1966)

به جدول (6.9) Table - PP<sub>290-292</sub> از کتاب Prezedowski

مراجعه شود برای معادلات رژیم رودخانه‌ای و مدیریت تر-

مثال (۴-۴) کتاب هیدرولیک رسوب ص ۱۳۶ بررسی شود.

نتایج معروض در یک جدول برای  $S, d, B, V$  ارائه و مقایسه شود.

# روش های ارزیابی درفloodدین

## ۱-۲) روش های کیفی (Qualitative Methods)

از برای کیفی رابطه تعادل دنیایک بین متغیرها وابسته و مستقل.  
 بررسی کیفی احتمال تغییرات در شکل و فرم اورخانه و ابعاد هندسه هیدرولیک

→ Lane (1955) :  $(Q.S) \propto (Q_s \cdot D_{s0})$

→ Li and Simons (1982) :  $(Q.S) \propto (Q_s \cdot \frac{D_{s0}}{C_p})$

برای اورخانه های کوچک مقیاس - با مواد بتره دشت رانه

$D_{s0}$  = اندازه متوسط مواد بارکن :  $C_p$  : ضریب بار بارکن (در حالت تعادل)

→ Schumm (1969, 1984) : رابطه شماره  $(\bar{v} \bar{t} \bar{r})$  - ص ۴۵

و Table (2) از منبع (Fisher 1992).

→ Schumm (1984) :

تغایه کیفی تغییر متغیرها بر روی فرم تغییرات اورخانه ای (شکل صحنه)

→ Li and Simons (1982) :

برای اورخانه بتره - اس (جدول صحنه ۱)

" " بتره شنی و مملو سنگی : (جدول صحنه ۲)

→ Fisher (1992) :

در اورخانه های با شیب زیاد و بارکن زیاد (Upland River) - ستیم، شریانی : گسترش اورخانه و تغییرات  
 " " " " کم (Lowland) - سیلاب دشت : " " " " " "

## ۲-۲) روش فرضیه رژیم (Regime Theory)

فرضیه : اورخانه در یک بستر آب رفته و آزاد (بدون کنترل ها صبی یا مصنوعی) ،  
 شرایط تعادل پایدار دنیایک بین متغیرهای مستقل و وابسته برقرار می کند

معادلات تجربی

نتیجه تجربی (تحلیلی - تجربی)

روابط در

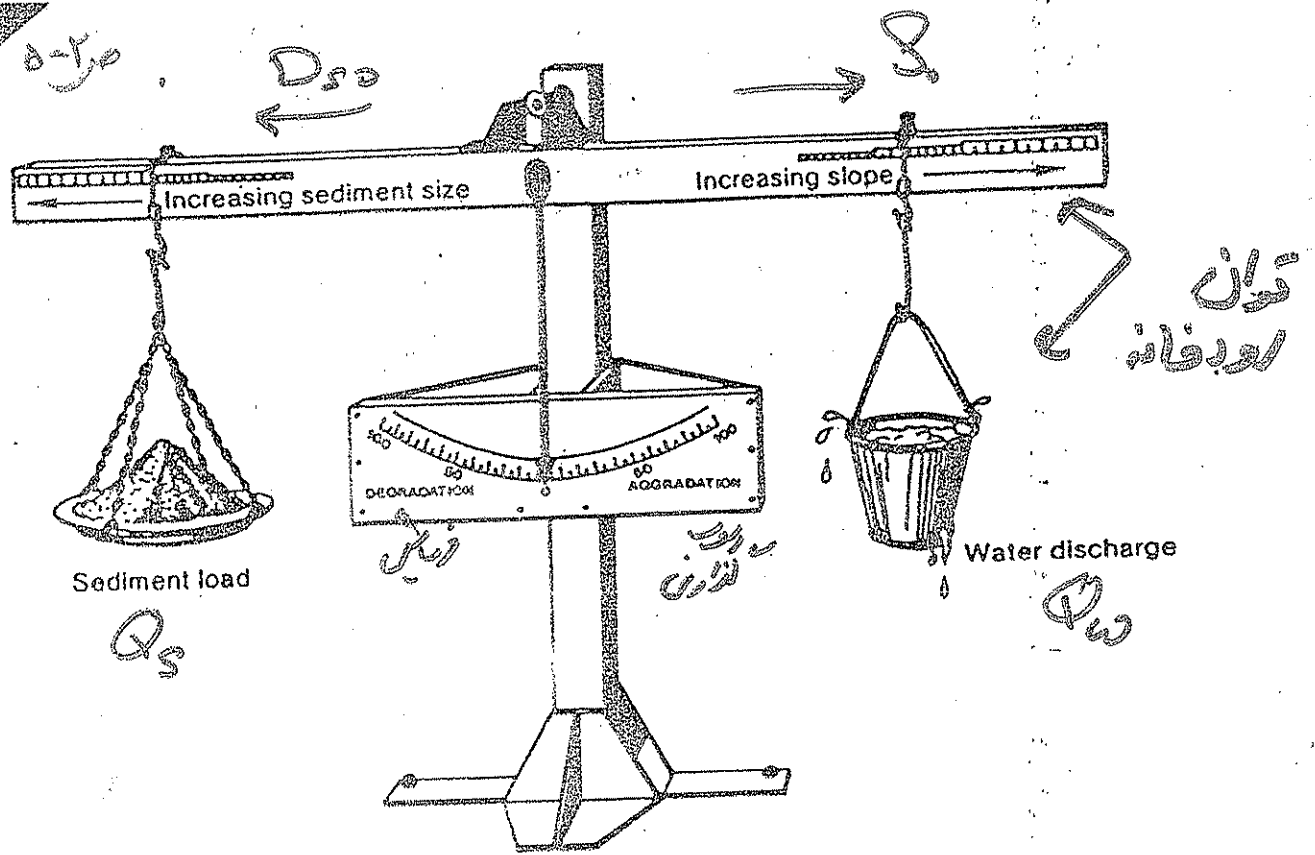


Figure 1: Stable Channel Balance (I)

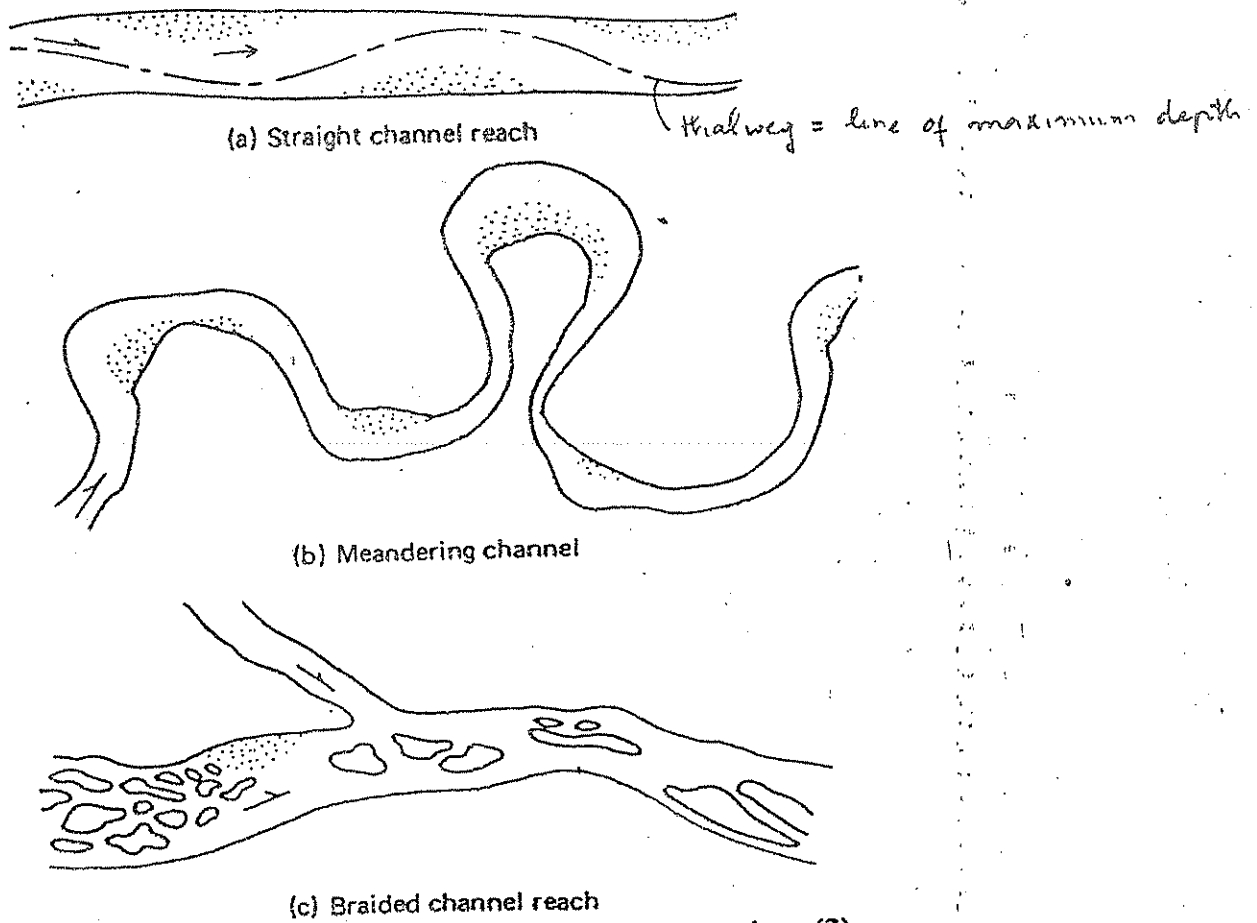


Figure 2: Typical Channel Configurations (3)

۲-۶ روش تحلیلی تئوری رژیم (Analytical Regime Method)  
در روش تحلیلی مندرج پایه دار رودخانه بر اساس سه عامل زیر بررسی شوند:

- ۱- sediment Transport Relationships (معادلات انتقال رسوب)
- ۲- flow Resistance formula (معادلات مقاومت جریان) مثل (Manning)
- ۳- Bed/Bank stability (معادلات ثبات بستر و کناره)  
ثبات سوا در بستر و در کناره  
مثل معادلات تنش برشی یا  
توان جریان و ...

سوالات مهم:

- الف) روابط و معادلات مناسب برای ترکیب تعیین شود.
- ب) که یک از این سه عامل - در یک شرایط معین - غالب هستند.

مشکلات موجود:

- ① معادلاتی برای "حل رسوب" و "مقاومت جریان" داریم ولی محو  
تجربی هستند.
  - ② معادلاتی برای Bank stability توسعه نیافته است.
- نتیجه: یک روش تحلیلی جامع وجود ندارد.  
راه حلها: روش نیمه تجربی (تحلیلی - تجربی)

۳-۶ روش مای نیمه تجربی (ترکیبی) semi-Empirical  
روشهای موجود در منبع Fisher PP. 50-51 لیست شده است.  
Ref. No. (3)

- در این روشها: - عامل انتقال رسوب و مقاومت جریان بطور مشخص وارد شده است.
- عامل Bank stability با عامل دیگری مانند ① Regime width  
② Min. stream power جایگزین کردند. (برای پایه آبراه استفاده کرده  
مثل ← Chang)

## a) Regime - width Equation

عرض در حالت رژیم

By Simons and Albertson (1960)

(Revised Lacey Eq)

رژیم: عرض پایه از رودخانه  
 $B = K_1 Q^{1/2}$  : width function : عرض کانال (سطح آب)

$$B = F(\sqrt{Q})$$

$K_1$ : ضریبی که تابع خصوصیات مواد بستر و دیواره کانال است.  
 (شائقی از فرسایش پذیری یا پایداری مواد بستر و دیواره)  
 در (1995) Fisher P. 51 یا ص 137 هیدرولیک رسوب  
 «سیستم انگلیسی» که بصورت جدول ارائه شده است.

مثال کاربردی

Bakker, et. al. (1986) در روش فرد استفاده کرد از

۱- رابطه Ackers and white برای معادله انتقال رسوب

۲- رابطه Van Rijn برای مقاومت جریان

۳- رابطه width-Function برای Bank stability

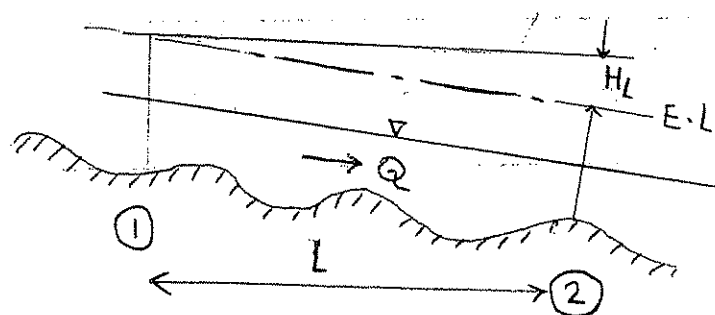
b) Min stream power concept : فرضیه:

تعریف: - برای تمامی شرایط جریان (آب صاف یا آب با محل رسوب)  
 می تواند به کار رود (بر خلاف تنش برشی که برای آستانه آب صاف است)  
 - ساده تر است - با توان ۳ سرعت متناسب است.

$$Power = \frac{F \cdot L}{T} = \frac{\text{کار}}{\text{زمان}}$$

مثلاً (پار): (کار جریان در واحد زمان)  $Power = \gamma Q H$  در هیدرولیک(انرژی مصرفی بر واحد طول)  $stream power = \gamma Q H_L$  توان جریان

توان جریان: توانی که مصرف می شود تا جریان بادی  $Q$  طول  $(Reach)$   $(L)$  را طی کند.



$$\text{توان از دست رفته (که صرف جریان شده است)} = \frac{\Delta E}{\text{Time}}$$

stream power: توان مصرفی جریان در طول  $L$  بازه رودخانه که

شماختی از تغییرات رودخانه و stability می باشد.

مصرف انرژی (قدرت فرسایش)  $\uparrow$  پایداری  $\rightarrow$  stream power  $\downarrow$  کمتری شود.

$$\text{unit stream power (در واحد طول)} = \gamma Q \left( \frac{H_L}{L} \right) = \gamma Q S$$

(انرژی مصرفی جریان در واحد زمان، در واحد طول)

$$= \gamma (AV) S = \gamma (By) VS$$

(مستطیلی)

$$\text{stream power per unit bed Area} = \gamma (y) VS = \underbrace{\gamma y S}_{\tau_0} V$$

(در واحد سطح بستر)  
بصورت تنش

$$= \tau_0 \cdot V$$

برای هر شکلی صادق است.

$$\text{Boundary shear stress} = \tau_0$$

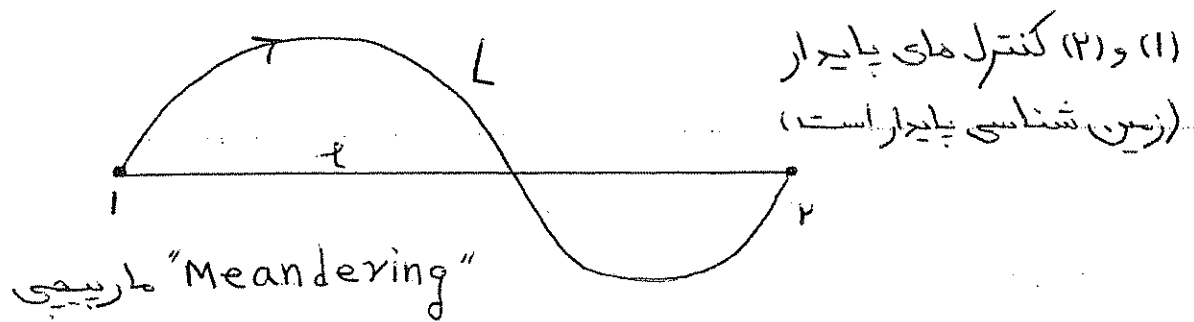
$$\text{Mean velocity} = V$$

$$\tau_0 \propto V^2$$

در جریان متلاطم کامل }  
stream power با توان سوم سرعت  
رابطه دارد.

فرضیه: رودخانه ها در فرایندهای طبیعی - در جهت تعادل و پایداری مارپیچی می شوخ.





$$L \uparrow \Rightarrow S \downarrow \Rightarrow \text{stream power} = \rho Q S \downarrow$$

با مارپیچی شدن

Min stream power  $\Leftrightarrow$  channel stability

یعنی انرژی مصرفی کمتر تا از نقطه ① به نقطه ② برسد.

مداقل قدرت جریان و حداقل تران مصرفی است که بتواند جریان را برقرار نگه دارد بدون قدرت فرسایشی.

مثال: (بالا رفتن از کوه)  $\leftarrow$  انرژی مصرفی در واحد زمان را با مارپیچی رفتن کم می کنیم  $\leftarrow$  تران مصرفی کم می شود  $\leftarrow$  مقاومت داریم و بالای رویم channel stability (تنظیم شیب، راستا) (مارپیچی بدون) (و هندسه متعلق)

$$\text{channel stability} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \text{No scour} \\ \text{No deposition} \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \text{max - capacity of sediment transport} \\ (\text{sediment In} = \text{sediment Out})$$

یعنی رسوبگذاری نتواند بکند که باعث تغییر مقطع شود.

به عبارت دیگر: channel stability

- ۱- قابلیت فرسایشی رودخانه به حداقل برسد  $\leftarrow$  Min stream power
  - ۲- قابلیت رسوبگذاری رودخانه به حداقل برسد  $\leftarrow$  max. capacity of sediment transport
- Target

سرعت زیاد  $\leftarrow$  تخریب شدید  
سرعت کم  $\leftarrow$  رسوبگذاری

نتیجه: حالت پایدار رودخانه (stability)  $\Leftrightarrow$  Min stream power  $\Leftrightarrow$  Min ( $Q S$ )

رودخانه به حالت تعادل برسد (Equilibrium state of channel)  
مثلاً اگر در یک کانال خاکی که در حال رژیم است، اگر  $Q S$  از حساب  
کنیم  $\Leftarrow$  Min ام است. یعنی اگر  $Q$  زیاد شود یا میان بری کنیم و  $S$  زیاد  
شود  $\Leftarrow$   $Q S \uparrow \Leftarrow$  تغییرات رودخانه ای داریم.

پس stream power شاخص  $\text{chang (1985, 1988)}$  b-1  
ارزیابی پارامتری بهتری است.

برای  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} Q \text{ دبی معین} \\ Q \text{ بار رسوبی معین} \end{array} \right\}$  در یک کانال با  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{مواد بستر معین} \\ \text{و} \\ \text{شکل معین (ذوزنقه ای یا ...)} \end{array} \right\}$

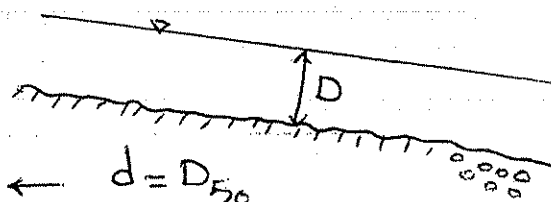
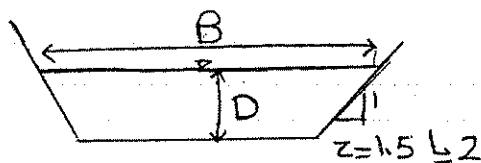
سه درجه آزادی  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{شیب} \\ \text{عرض} \\ \text{عمق} \end{array} \right\}$  برای تنظیم هندسه می‌رویکلی (تعادل پایدار)  
وجود دارد، بطوریکه کانال به حد Min stream power برسد. یعنی  
نه تقریب و نه سایش نه رسوبگذاری.

محدودیت‌های روش  $\text{chang}$ :

- ۱- برای شرایط Low flow-Regime ( $F_r \ll 1$ )
- ۲- sand-Bed channel
- ۳- فرم بستر
- ۴- شکل مقطع ذوزنقه‌ای  $z = 1.5 \text{ تا } 2$

$\rightarrow Q \quad F_r \ll 1$   
sand Bed

Ripple-Bed form



Bed Material  $\leftarrow d = D_{50}$

نتایج: شرایط آستانه حرکت مواد بستر در جریان باصل رسوب:  
(از شیلدزنی توان استفاده کرد)

در واقع از شرایط  
Min stream power بدست آمده است.

$$\frac{S_c}{\sqrt{d}} = \frac{0.00238}{Q^{0.51}}$$

$S_c$ : شیب بحرانی برای آستانه حرکت مواد بستر

$d = D_{50} \text{ (mm)}$

$Q$ : دبی جریان (cfs)

مثال: در یک کانال دوزنقهای با بستر ماسه‌ای، برای  $Q$  و  $d$  معین

$S < S_c$  شیب کف برای پایداری کف

در حالت طرح پایدار کامل:

$B = f(Q^{1/2})$ : width Function → که بصورت تجربی بدست آمده است

$$B = 4.17 \left( \frac{S}{\sqrt{d}} - \frac{S_c}{\sqrt{d}} \right)^{0.05} Q^{0.5}$$

در سیستم انگلیسی

$d \text{ (mm)}$

$S$ : شیب کف

$$D = 0.055 \left( \frac{S}{\sqrt{d}} - \frac{S_c}{\sqrt{d}} \right)^{-0.3} Q^{0.3}$$

عمق آب در  
کانال دوزنقهای  
(عمق معادل می‌رود)  
نیست

Bed Load): بار رسوبی کف

$$\frac{S}{\sqrt{d}} = 0.433 \frac{Q_s^{0.736}}{Q^{0.789}} + \frac{S_c}{\sqrt{d}}$$

$Q_s$  = بار رسوبی کف - دبی جسی (cfs) در حالت پایدار یعنی ثابت است

(یعنی ظرفیت انتقال بار کف در حالت پایدار)

$Q$ : دبی (cfs)

نتایج: صورت Design chart ارائه شده است.

- 8,9 از مطالب (1995) → Fisher برای  $z=2$   
 - شکل های (4-11) - (4-9) کتاب هیدرولیک رسوب برای  $z=1.5$

\* ظاهراً یکی نتیجه دیگری  
 باید درست باشد \*

مثال (4-6) از کتاب هیدرولیک رسوب ۱۴۲-۱۴۴ بررسی شود و  
 مثال فوق با استفاده از گراف ارائه شده توسط Fisher مقایسه شود.

b-2) White, Paris and Bettles Method (1980)

Ref. Fisher (1995) - PP. 53-54, fig (10)

اساس تئوری:

مهندسه هیدرولیکی باید در جهت دستیابی به:

- ۱- حداکثر ظرفیت بار رسوبی (برای جلوگیری از رسوبگذاری)
  - ۲- Min stream power (برای کنترل ترسایش)
- تنظیم می شود

۲ متغیر واردی کنه:

۱) سرعت متوسط (V) ۲) عمق متوسط جریان (d) - احتمالاً  $d = \frac{A}{B}$   
 عمق هیدرولیکی

۳) شیب کف (S) ۴) دبی جریان (Q)

۵) غلظت بار رسوبی (X) ۶) عرض سطح آب (B)  
 احتمالاً غلظت بار رسوبی کل

با استفاده از:

① معادله پیرستگی (جریان پایدار) ② رابطه بار رسوبی

③ رابطه مقاومت جریان ④ در شرایط تعادل براساس ماکزیمم

بار رسوبی معادل شرایط (Min stream power) ابعاد پایدار کانال را  
 تعیین می کند.

$$\Rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} D_{35} \text{ مواد بتری} \\ S, Q : \text{known} \\ \text{calculate: } V, d, B, K \end{array} \right.$$

محدودیت های روش فوق :

- steady flow
- uniform flow
- Non cohesive / Homogenous bed and Bank material

مثال طراحی : ابعاد مقطع پایدار را طرح کنید ؟

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} Q = 10 \text{ m}^3/\text{s} \\ S = 0.2 \times 10^{-3} \\ D_{35} = 0.35 \text{ mm} \end{array} \right. \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{(این روش برای (Sediment Transporting flow) است.)} \\ \text{(در واقع ابعاد یک مقطع مستطیل معادل بدست} \\ \text{آید) ولی مقطع یک ذوزنقه خواهد بود.} \end{array}$$

مل عددی نتایج تجربی بر حسب هر  $D_s$  معین بصورت ←  
Design Table ارائه شده است.

Ref "white, et.al. (1981 a). "Tables for the design of stable alluvial channels" Report IT

بطور مثال برای  $D_{35} = 0.35 \text{ mm}$  ← fig (10) از fisher (1995)

غلظت بارشوی (x)			
			$D_{35} = 0.35 \text{ mm}$
	$V: m/s$	$Q = 10 m^3/s$	
	$S \times 10^3$	$S = 0.187 \times 10^{-3} \approx 0.2 \times 10^{-3}$	
	$d: (m)$	$V = 0.63 m/s$	
	$B: (m)$	$\text{عمق آب} = d = 1.32 \text{ m}$	
	$f_L \times 10$	$B = 12.1 \text{ m}, n = 0.043$	
		$x = 40 \text{ ppm}$	

مدالثر ظرفیت بارشوی

ابتدا مقطع مستطیل معادل محاسب می شود.  
منرورتا مقطع کانال ذرنته ای خواهد بود.  
Z رابر اساس موادبستری انتخاب می کنیم ( 1.5:1 ) یا ( 2:1 )

این مثال باروش ← (chang) حل ونتایج درجدول ارائه شود.

مسئله مهم جهت بررسی :

درطراحی رودخانه های پایدار، کدام دبی (Q) رابایه درنظرگرفت ؟

جواب: دبی غالب effective discharge = Dominant Discharge

سوال ①  $Q_D$  (دبی غالب درشکل گیری فرم پایه رودخانه) ؟

۱- قابل ملاحظه باشد (دبی پایه زوری برای تغییرات ندارد).

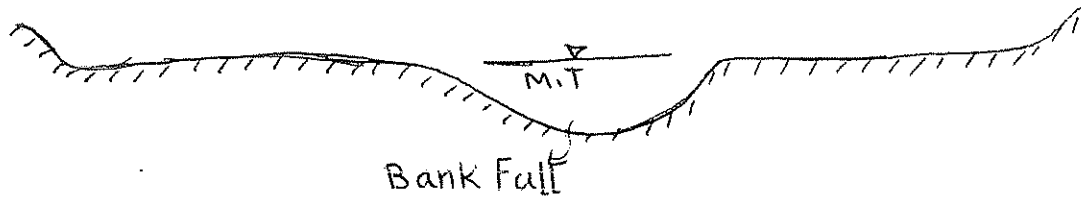
۲- متناوب نیز باشد (تناوب مناسبی باشد) مثلا دبی سیل ۲۵ ساله، فرست

تنظیم رودخانه ای ندارد.

ترم دیگر: Bank full discharge (دبی مقطع پر)

له بیشتر دررودخانه های سیلاب دشتی با قطع برب طرح است

# سیل متناوب فرم رودخانه را کنترل می کند.



۲. سوال: تعریف و معیارهای ←  
 full Bank full discharge

↳ Dominant Discharge





جدول (9-6)  
خلاصه روابط رژیم در رسوبات

Table 6.9. Summary of regime relations for hydraulic geometry of rivers.

Source	Formulae	Remarks
Lambor (1966)	$I = I \text{ given}$ $h_s = 13.34 \left[ \frac{QnI^{1/3}}{\eta} \right]^{1/8}$ $B = \frac{h_s \eta}{1000 I}$ $u = \frac{1}{\eta} H_s^{2/3} I^{1/2}$ $A = B h_s$	$\eta = 1000 a I$ - Lambor's Contraction constant. For Central European rivers: $\eta = 15.5 + 21.6$ - Vistula River $\eta = 12.0 + 18.2$ - Oder River $\eta = 14.6 + 19.1$ - Elbe River $\eta = 7.1 + 8.9$ - Warta River $a = B/h_s$ - shape factor of the cross-section
Grišanin (1976)	$I = I \text{ given}$ $P = k (Q/I^3)^{2/7}$ $R_h = \frac{MQ^{1/2}}{(gP)^{1/4}}$ $A = R_h$ $k = \frac{g^{3/7} n^{12/7}}{M^{20/7}}$	Rivers in the Soviet Union $M = 1.05$ - Grišanin's similarity constant for non-erodible and non-silting channels
Grišin (Altunin formula)	$I = I \text{ given}$ $B = A Q^{0.5} / I^{0.2}$ $h_s = B^m / a$	Rivers in the Soviet Union: $A = 0.7 + 0.9$ - mountain (gravel bed) rivers $A = 1.1 + 1.7$ - lowland (sand bed) rivers $m = 1.0 + 0.8$ - gravel bed rivers $m = 0.8 + 0.5$ - sand bed rivers $a = 8 + 12$ - gravel bed rivers $a = 4 + 3$ - sand bed rivers
Bray (1982)	1. Threshold method $B = 4.83 Q_2^{0.500}$ $h = 0.0585 Q_2^{0.428} D_{50}^{-0.285}$ $u = 3.53 Q_2^{0.0715} D_{50}^{0.285}$ $I = 0.968 Q_2^{-0.428} D_{50}^{1.285}$ 2. Kellerhals' method $B = 3.26 Q_2^{0.500}$ $h = 0.183 Q_2^{0.400} D_{90}^{-0.120}$ $u = 1.67 Q_2^{0.100} D_{90}^{0.120}$ $I = 0.026 Q_2^{-0.400} D_{90}^{0.920}$	
Bray (1982)	3. Best-fit dimensionless expressions $B = 2.68 Q_2^{0.496} D_{50}^{-0.241}$ $h = 0.20 Q_2^{0.397} D_{50}^{0.008}$ $u = 1.87 Q_2^{0.107} D_{50}^{0.233}$	For Alberta gravel-bed rivers $Q_2$ - 2-year flood flow The ranges of the parameters: $Q_2 = 5.5 + 3920 \text{ [m}^3/\text{s]}$ $B = 14.3 + 566 \text{ [m]} \text{ (at } Q_2)$ $h = 0.442 + 6.93 \text{ [m]} \text{ (at } Q_2)$ $I = 0.00022 + 0.015$ $D_{50} = 19 + 145 \text{ [mm]}$

Table 6.9. (Continued).

Source	Formulae	Remarks
	$I = 0.063 Q_2^{-0.375} D_{50}^{0.937}$ 4. Best-fit expressions $B = 3.83 Q_2^{0.528} D_{50}^{-0.070}$ $h = 0.246 Q_2^{0.331} D_{50}^{-0.025}$ $u = 1.05 Q_2^{0.140} D_{50}^{0.095}$ $I = 0.018 Q_2^{-0.334} D_{50}^{0.586}$	
Hey (1982)	$R_h = 0.161 Q_{bf}^{0.41} D_{50}^{-0.15}$ $h_{\max} = 0.252 Q_{bf}^{0.38} D_{50}^{-0.16}$ $I = 0.679 Q_{bf}^{-0.53} S_b^{0.13} D_{50}^{0.97}$ $p = I_r/I$ $L_A = 2\pi B$	For data from 66 sites of gravel-bed rivers in the UK The ranges of the parameters: $Q_{bf} = Q_{1.5}$ - bankfull discharge = 1.5 year flood $Q_{bf} = 2.12 \div 820 \text{ [m}^3/\text{s]}$ $S_b = 7.5 \cdot 10^{-5} \div 3.74 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ [m}^3/\text{s]}$ $D_{50} = 0.021 \div 0.190 \text{ [m]}$ $\sigma_{50} = 2.03 \div 8.52$ $\sigma_D = [D_{84}/D_{16}]^{1/2}$ $e_s = 7.92 \div 83.76 \text{ per cent}$ $I_r = 0.000334 \div 0.0215$
Hey (1985)	$B = 4.33 Q_{bf}^{0.50}$ $B = 3.33 Q_{bf}^{0.50}$ $B = 2.73 Q_{bf}^{0.50}$ $B = 2.34 Q_{bf}^{0.50}$ $h = 0.22 Q_{bf}^{0.37} D_{50}^{-0.11}$ $h_{\max} = 0.20^{0.37\sigma_D} Q_{bf}^{0.36} D_{50}^{-0.21}$ $I = 0.087^{0.84\sigma_D} Q_{bf}^{-0.43} D_{50}^{0.75} S^{0.10}$ $p = I_r/I$ $L_A = 6.31 B$	Vegetation I Data from 62 gauging stations of gravel-bed rivers in the UK (with bankside vegetation). The ranges of the parameters: $Q_{bf}$ = bankfull discharge $Q_{bf} = 3.9 \div 424 \text{ [m}^3/\text{s]}$ $S_b = 0.001 \div 14.14 \text{ [kg/s]}$ $D_{50} = 0.014 \div 0.176 \text{ [m]}$ $\sigma_D = (1/2) \log(D_{84}/D_{16}) = 0.24 \div 0.68$ $I_r = 0.0219 \div 0.00166$ Vegetation II Vegetation III Vegetation IV
Brownlie (1983)	Flow depth for the lower regime $\frac{h}{D_{50}} = 0.3724 q_*^{0.654} I^{-0.254} \sigma_g^{0.105}$ Flow depth for the upper regime $\frac{h}{D_{50}} = 0.2836 q_*^{0.625} I^{-0.288} \sigma_g^{0.080}$ $q_* = \frac{q}{\sqrt{g D_{50}^3}}$ $q = Q/B$ $\sigma_g = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{D_{84}}{D_{50}} + \frac{D_{50}}{D_{16}} \right)$	Range of data used in analysis: $D_{50} = 0.088 \div 2.8 \text{ [mm]}$ $q = 0.012 \div 40 \text{ [m}^3/\text{s]}$ $Q = 0.0032 \div 22\,000 \text{ [m}^3/\text{s]}$ $I = 0.000003 \div 0.037$ $R_h = 0.025 \div 17.0 \text{ [m]}$ $T = 0 \div 63^\circ \text{C (temperature)}$

Table 6.9. (Continued).

Source	Formulae	Remarks
Hâncu and Batuca (1988)	$h = 8.03 D_{50} (Q_{bf} / D_{50}^2)^{0.29}$ $B = 0.21 D_{50} (Q_{bf} / D_{50}^2)^{0.56}$ $u = 0.61 (g D_{50})^{0.50} (Q_{bf} / D_{50}^2)^{0.15}$ $\frac{B^{0.52}}{h} = 0.056 D_{50}^{-0.48}$	Field data collected on earth canals in India, and on certain stable reaches of some Romanian rivers
Julien (1988)	$h \sim Q^{1/a} D^{(6\alpha-1)/b} \Theta^{-3/b} \Theta_r^{1/a}$ $B \sim Q^{(1+2\alpha)/a} D^{-(1+4\alpha)/b} \Theta^{1/b} \Theta_r^{-(1+\alpha)/a}$ $u \sim Q^{\alpha/a} D^{(1-\alpha)/a} \Theta^{1/a} \Theta_r^{\alpha/a}$ $I \sim Q^{-1/a} D^{5/b} \Theta^{(7+6\alpha)/b} \Theta_r^{-1/a}$ <p>where</p> $a = 2 + 3\alpha$ $b = 4 + 6\alpha$	
Wilson (1988)	$B \sim Q^\alpha$ $h \sim Q^\beta$ $I \sim Q^{-(\alpha-\beta)}$	Values of exponents $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are shown in Fig. 6.13

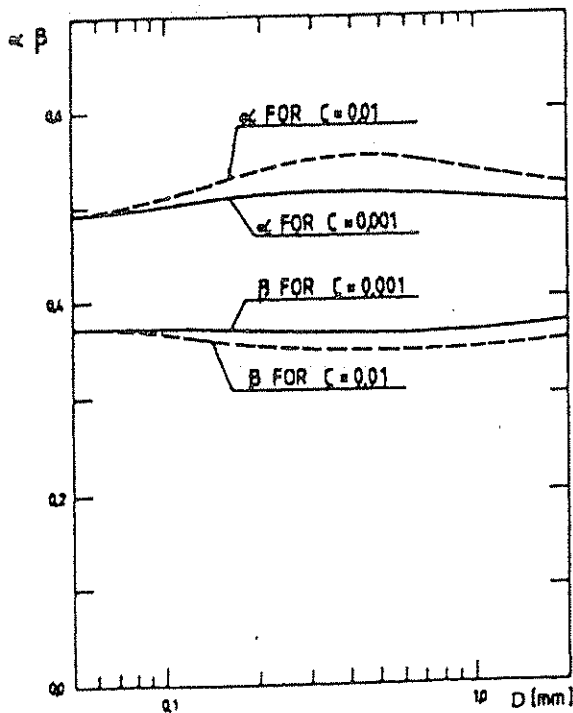


Fig. 6.13. Exponents for Wilson's regime relations (after Wilson, 1988).

equations, can be used for the design of stable gravel-bed rivers with small sediment transport. The Kellerhals' method can be acceptable for estimating channel slope; however, this method for estimating channel width, depth and mean velocity is the poorest (see Table 6.10). Bray explained this by the fact that Kellerhals' channels were pri-



$$R = \frac{A}{P} = 0.58$$

متر

$$Q = \frac{1}{n} R^{2/3} S^{1/2} A = \frac{1}{0.02} \times 0.58 \times \sqrt{0.0016} \times 4.03$$

$$Q = 5.6 \text{ m}^3/\text{sec}$$

۷- از آنجا که ظرفیت کانال طراحی شده بیش از ظرفیت کانال مورد نظر می باشد، مقطع بدست آمده باید کوچکتر انتخاب شود لذا نسبت  $\frac{B}{d}$  را برابر ۳ انتخاب کرده و محاسبات ادامه داده شود، در آن صورت:

$$A = 3.44 \text{ m}^2$$

$$R = 0.555 \text{ m}$$

$$Q = 4.64$$

$$d = 0.83 \text{ m}$$

$$B = 2.49 \text{ m}$$

که نسبتاً خوب و قابل قبول می باشد. ضمناً مقدار  $4.8$  متر نیز بعنوان عمق آزاد در نظر گرفته می شود.

۴-۴- تئوری رژیم

تئوری رژیم یک روش تجربی است که در هندوستان بخصوص در ارتباط با کانالهای آبیاری بوجود آمد. یک کانال و یا رودخانه زمانی در حالت رژیم است که شیب و سطح

گرفته است مقادیر  $Z$ ,  $n$  و  $\theta$  انتخاب می شوند:

$$Z = 2$$

$$n = 0.02$$

$$\theta = 33^\circ$$

$$\tau_{cb} = 1.8 \text{ kg/m}^2$$

۲- تنش برشی مجاز از شکل ۴-۷ برابر است با:

$$K = \sqrt{1 - \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{\sin^2 30}} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{\sin^2 (26.5)}{\sin^2 (33)}} = 0.57$$

۳- از طرفی

$$\frac{B}{d} = 4$$

۴- فرض

$$\tau_{cs} = 0.78 \gamma S d$$

۵- از شکل ۴-۶،  $C_2 = 0.78$  و در نتیجه:

برای پایداری:

$$\tau_{cs} = K \tau_{cb}$$

$$0.78 \gamma S d = 0.57 \tau_{cb}$$

$$0.78 \times 1000 \times 0.0016 \times d = 0.57 \times 1.8$$

$$d = 0.82 \text{ m}$$

$$B = 4d = 4 \times 0.82 = 3.28 \text{ متر}$$

$$A = (B + zd) d = (3.28 + 2 \times 0.82) 0.82 = 4.03$$

کانال به کانال دیگر ثابت می باشد. لسی دریافت که ضریب تصحیحی به نوع لای در کانال بستگی دارد، رابطه لسی بصورت زیر می باشد:

$$V = 1.17 \sqrt{fR} \quad (۳-۷)$$

که در آن  $f$  فاکتور لای می باشد و به اندازه ذرات لای بصورت زیر ربط دارد:

$$f = 8 \sqrt{D_{50}} \quad (۳-۸)$$

که  $D_{50}$  اندازه متوسط ذرات بر حسب اینچ می باشد.

لسی  $f$  و  $n$  (ضریب مانینگ) را به صورت زیر بهم مربوط می داند. معادلات دیگری نیز توسط لسی بصورت زیر ارائه شد.

$$A f^2 = 3.8 V^5 \quad (۳-۹)$$

و یا

$$Q f^2 = 3.8 V^6 \quad (۳-۱۰)$$

معادلات بالا تماماً در سیستم انگلیسی (FPS) می باشند.

از معادلات ۳-۷، ۳-۸، ۳-۹ و ۳-۱۰ می توان روابط زیر را استخراج کرد:

$$R = 0.7305 \frac{V^2}{f} \quad (۳-۱۰ ب)$$

$$S = \frac{f^{5/3}}{1750 Q^{1/6}} \quad (۳-۱۱)$$

مقطع آن در شرایط تعادل قرار داشته باشد، یعنی اینکه، فرسایش و رسوبگذاری نداشته باشد. هر چند که حمل رسوبات همراه جریان آب ممکن است وجود داشته باشد.

چنین حالتی را اصطلاح "بستر زنده" (۱۱) می گویند و معمولاً در کانالهای ماسهای نرم وجود دارد. برای حالتی که حرکت مواد رسوبی دیده نمی شود و کانال نیز در حالت رژیم می باشد، اصطلاح "بستر ثابت" (۱۲) اطلاق می شود و معمولاً در کانالهای آبرفتی شنی مشاهده می شود.

تئوری رژیم از نقطه نظر ریاضی یک تئوری محض نیست زیرا برای آنچه که ارائه می دهد معانی فیزیکی ممکن است وجود نداشته باشد. مبنای این تئوری بر معادلات ساده و تجربی نهفته است که با استفاده از اطلاعات صحرایی جمع آوری شده از رودخانه ها و یا کانالهای مصنوعی در حالت تعادل بدست آمده است. در اواخر قرن نوزدهم میلادی شمار زیادی از مهندسان هیدرولیک بخصوص کندی (۱۳) عقیده داشت که در کانالهای در حال رژیم بین سرعت و عمق جریان رابطه ای بصورت زیر برقرار می باشد:

$$V = K d^n \quad (۴-۶)$$

کندی ضرایب  $K$  و  $n$  را در سال ۱۸۹۵ بر اساس اطلاعات بدست آمده از کانالهای آبیاری واقع در هندوستان و پاکستان بصورت زیر پیدا کرد (سیستم آحاد انگلیسی) (۱۴)

$$K = 0.49$$

$$n = 0.64$$

بعدها مشخص شد که ضریب  $n$  از یک کانال به کانال دیگر متفاوت می باشد و مقدار آن بین  $0.52$  تا  $0.74$  قرار می گیرد. بعدها لسی (۱۵) روابط مشخص تری را پیشنهاد کرد. لسی در روابط خود بجای عمق جریان، شیب هیدرولیکی را بکار برد و دریافت که توان  $R$  برابر با  $0.5$  خواهد بود و در صورتی که ضریب تصحیحی منظور شود مقدار توان  $R$  نیز از یک

1 - Live - bed

2 - Fixed - bed

3 - Kennedy (1895)

۴ - در سیستم متریک  $K = 0.49$  و  $n = 0.64$  می باشد.

5 - Laezy, (1929)

$$B = \sqrt{\frac{f_b Q}{f_s}} \quad \text{معمولی متوسط} \quad (۴-۱۸)$$

$$d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{f_s Q}{f_b^2}} \quad \text{محلی متوسط} \quad (۴-۱۹)$$

و معادله کلی برای شیب به صورت زیر است:

$$S = \frac{f_b^{5/6} f_s^{1/2} v^{1/4}}{3.63 Q^{1/6} (1 + C / 2330)} \quad (۴-۲۰)$$

که  $v$  از چوت سینتیک و مقدار  $C$  برابر با مقدار بار مطلق بر حسب قسمت در میلیون به صورت وزنی (ppm) می باشد (مقدار پیشنهادی فاکتور بدنه  $f_b$  برابر است با  $۱۰/۲۰$  و به ترتیب برای بدنه کانالهای با مصالح مختصر، متوسط و چسبندگی زیاد). مقدار پیشنهادی فاکتور بستر برابر است با:

سوردریزه	$f_b$
چمنی $m^2$	۵.۱
سورسط $m$	۵.۲
زیار	۵.۳

$$f_b = 9.6 \sqrt{D_{50} (1 + 0.012 C)} \quad (۴-۲۱)$$

بارمقی  $C = (ppm)^3$

$$f_b = 1.9 \sqrt{D_{50}} \quad (۴-۲۲)$$

که  $D_{50}$  بر حسب میلیمتر می باشد.

سایمون و آلبرتسون<sup>(۱)</sup> داده های زیادی از کانالها و رودخانه های در حال رژیم از هندوستان و آمریکای شمالی جمع آوری کردند. این داده ها دامنه تغییرات وسیعی را شامل می شود. با بکار بردن این داده ها آنها روابطی ارائه دادند که می تواند برای انواع مختلف کانالها مورد استفاده قرار گیرد. سایمون و آلبرتسون پنج نوع کانال بشرح زیر را تشخیص دادند.

$$P = 5.2 \frac{V^3}{f} \quad (۴-۱۲)$$

$$P = 2.68 \sqrt{Q} \quad (۴-۱۳)$$

$$S = 0.00055 \frac{f^{5/3} Q^{1/6}}{Q} \quad (۴-۱۴)$$

برای طراحی کانال پایدار با روش لیبسی بدین ترتیب عمل می شود که با معلوم بودن مقدار  $Q$  و مشخصات مصالح رسوبی، ابتدا سرعت از رابطه (۴-۱۰) و سپس  $R$ ،  $A$ ،  $S$  و  $P$  از روابط (۴-۹)، (۴-۱۰)، (۴-۱۱)، (۴-۱۲)، (۴-۱۳)، (۴-۱۴)، (۴-۱۵) محاسبه می شود.

پس از لیبسی معادلات دیگری نیز ارائه شده است بطور مثال بلنچ<sup>(۱)</sup> در تکمیل معادلات

لیبسی دو فاکتور لای به صورت فاکتور بستر و فاکتور کناره معرفی کرد:

$$f_b = \frac{V^2}{d} : Bed Factor \quad (۴-۱۵)$$

$$f_s = \frac{V^3}{B} : Side Factor \quad (۴-۱۶)$$

که در آن  $d$  عمق متوسط و  $B$  عرض متوسط کانال می باشد یا این تعاریف معادله مقاومت در مقابل جریان برابر خواهد بود با:

$$\frac{V^2}{g d S} = 3.63 \left( 1 + \frac{C}{2330} \right) \left( \frac{V B}{d} \right)^{0.25} \quad (۴-۱۷)$$

برای یک کانال در حال رژیم می توان نوشت:

میلیمتر و مقدار غلظت مواد معلق جریان ۲۰۰ قسمت در میلیون می باشد. این مثال با روش لسی، بلنج و سایمون و آلبرتسون حل کنید.

جدول (۳-۴): ضرایب روش سایمون و آلبرتسون

ضریب	۱	۲	۳	۴	نوع کانال
$K_1$	$2/5$	$2/6$	$2/7$	$1/7$	$0$
$K_2$	$0/52$	$0/44$	$0/37$	$0/23$	$1/7$
$K_3$	$12/9$	$14/0$	$17/9$	$19/0$	$1/7$
$K_4$	$0/23$	$0/54$	$0/87$	$—$	$—$
$m$	$0/33$	$0/33$	$—$	$0/29$	$0/29$

حل:

$$C = 200 \text{ ppm}$$

$$Q = 2100 \text{ cfs}$$

$$D_{50} = 0.34 \text{ mm}$$

$$D_{50} = 0.34 \text{ mm} = 0.0134 \text{ in}$$

$$P = 2.67 Q^{1/2} = 122.4 \text{ ft}$$

$$f = 8 \sqrt{0.0134} = 0.93$$

الف: روش لسی  
Lacey (1929)

محیط خیس شده کانال:

Simons and Albertson  
(1963)

۱- بستر و بدنه ماسه‌ای

۲- بستر ماسه‌ای و بدنه چسبنده

۳- بستر و بدنه چسبنده

۴- مصالح غیر چسبنده درشت

۵- مثل ۲ ولی بار معلق زیاد ( $2000 \text{ ppm}$  تا  $8000 \text{ ppm}$ )

روابط ارائه شده توسط سایمون و آلبرتسون به صورت زیر می باشد:

$$P = K_1 \sqrt{Q}$$

(۳-۲۳)

$$B = 0.9 P$$

(۳-۲۴)

$$B = 0.92 T - 2.0$$

(۳-۲۵)

$$R = K_2 Q^{0.36}$$

(۳-۲۶)

$$d = 1.21 R$$

$$R \leq 7 \text{ ft}$$

(۳-۲۷)

$$d = 2 + 0.93 R$$

$$R \geq 7 \text{ ft}$$

(۳-۲۸)

$$V = K_3 (R^2 S)^m$$

(۳-۲۹)

$$\frac{C^2}{g} \frac{V^2}{d S} = K_4 \left( \frac{V_B}{V} \right)^{0.37}$$

(۳-۳۰)

در این معادلات  $P, R, S, Q$  قبلاً معرفی شده اند.  $C$  ضریب ثابت شری می باشد.  $B$  عرض متوسط کانال.  $T$  عرض بالایی (سطح آب) کانال ضرایب  $K_1, K_2, K_3, K_4$  و  $m$  در جدول (۳-۲۹) ارائه شده است.

مثال (۳-۴)

مطلوب است طرح یک کانال بایدار که جریانی معادل ۲۱۰۰ فوت مکعب در ثانیه را بتواند عبور دهد. مصالح بستر و بدنه کانال چسبنده و اندازه متوسط ذرات برابر ۰/۳۴

وضع کانال

(۳۱)



$$S = \frac{1.11^{5/6} \times 0.2^{1/12} \times (10^{-5})^{1/4}}{3.63 \times 32.2 \times 2100^{1/6} \times (1 + 200/2330)} = 0.00018$$

و مقدار شیب

c: روش سایمونز و آلبرتسون (1963)

$$m = 0.33, K_3 = 16.0, K_2 = 0.44, K_1 = 2.6$$

نوع کانال ۲ می باشد در نتیجه  $K$

از جدول (۳-۴) ص ۱۳۷

$$P = K_1 \sqrt{Q} = 2.6 \sqrt{2100} = 119.15$$

$$B = 0.9 \times 119.15 = 107.2 \text{ ft}$$

$$B = 0.92 T - 2.0 = 107.2 \text{ ft} \Rightarrow T = 118.7 \text{ ft}$$

$$R = K_2 Q^{0.36} = 0.44 (2.00)^{0.36} = 6.9 \text{ ft}$$

$$d = 1.21 R = 1.21 \times 6.9 = 8.4 \text{ ft}$$

$$V = \frac{Q}{Bd} = 2.34 \text{ ft/sec}$$

و سرعت:

$$V = K_3 (R^2 S)^m = 16.0 (R^2 S)^{0.33}$$

$$S = 0.000062$$

و شیب کانال برابر است با:

شیب کانال (۳-۴).

$$\frac{Q}{A} = 1.11 \sqrt{f \left( \frac{A}{P} \right)}$$

رابطه ۷-۴ را می توان به صورت زیر نوشت:

که پس از قرار دادن  $Q = 2100$  و  $P = 122.4$  و  $f = 0.93$ ، سطح مقطع جریان برابر

$$A = 778 \text{ ft}^2$$

است با:

برای محاسبه عمق کانال از رتبه های با داشتن  $A$ ،  $P$  و  $Z = 1.5$  مقدار  $d$  محاسبه می شود که

$$d = 6.8 \text{ ft}$$

تقریباً برابر است با:

شیب کانال از رابطه (۳-۱۴) برابر است با:

$$S = 0.00055 \frac{0.93^{5/3}}{2100^{1/6}} = 0.00014$$

ب: روش بلنچ (Blench, 1966)

با استفاده از رابطه (۳-۲۲):

$$f_b = 1.9 \sqrt{D_{50}} = 1.11$$

با یکار بردن معادلات ۸-۴ و ۹-۴ و  $f_s = 0.2$  می توان نوشت:

$$B = 108 \text{ ft}, \quad d = 7.0 \text{ ft}$$

$$T = B + 2Zd = 129 \text{ ft}$$

و عرض بالا

در نتیجه می توان عرض کف  $B$  و عمق کانال  $d$  را از روابط زیر بدست آورد:

$$3206.2 = Bd + 2d^2$$

$$280 = B + 2d \sqrt{1 + 4} = B + 4.47d$$

که پس از حل تقریباً  $d = 13 \text{ ft}$  و  $B = 222.0 \text{ ft}$  حاصل خواهد شد.

#### ۴-۵ طراحی کانال پایدار با روش حداقل قدرت جریان (Min. Stream Power)

چانگ<sup>(۱)</sup> با ارائه تئوری حداقل قدرت جریان، روشی را برای طراحی کانال پایدار عرضه کرد که در این قسمت به آن اشاره می گردد. چانگ اظهار می دارد که یک کانال آبرفتی موقعی در حالت تعادل می باشد که قدرت جریان در واحد طول کانال یعنی  $Q \text{ ft}$  در حداقل باشد. بنابراین برای هر میزان دبی جریان و دبی رسوب وارد شده، به حداقل مشخصات آن کانال یعنی شیب، عمق و عرض کف طوری تغییر خواهد کرد که مقدار  $Q S$  در حداقل باشد. از آنجا که  $Q$  و  $S$  ثابت هستند بنابراین تغییرات مشخصات کانال تا زمانی که گ به حداقل برسد ادامه خواهد داشت. با این تعریف، چانگ مراحل طراحی کانال آبرفتی را به شرح زیر ارائه کرد:

ابتدا مقادیر  $Q$  (دبی جریان)،  $Q_d$  (دبی رسوب)،  $D$  (اندازه مواد رسوبی کانال)،  $S$  (وزن واحد حجم مواد رسوبی کانال) و لزجت کینماتیک انتخاب می گردند. ضمناً شیب بدنه کانال را می توان با توجه به نوع مواد بدنه کانال انتخاب کرد.

سپس با فرض کردن مقادیر مختلفی برای عرض کف کانال ( $B$ ) و عمق جریان ( $d$ )، سرعت جریان ( $V$ ) را از یکی از معادلات مقارنت در مقابل جریان و شیب کانال را از

۶/۲

#### مثال (۴-۵)

در صورتی که دبی رودخانه برابر ۱۰۰۰ فوت مکعب در ثانیه و مصالح بستر دارای ماسه با  $50/100 = 0.5$  میلیمتر باشد مطلوب است طرح مقطع کانال پایدار به شکل دوزنقه در حالتی که شیب بدنه آن  $z = 2$  باشد.

حل: از روش لیبسی

با داشتن  $D$  مقدار فاکتور لای برابر خواهد بود با:

$$f = 1.59 \sqrt{0.23} = 0.76$$

مقدار محیط خیس شده (از رابطه ۴-۱۹):

$$P = 2.68 \sqrt{11000} = 281.0 \text{ ft}$$

مقدار سرعت (از رابطه ۴-۱۵):

$$11000 \times (0.76)^2 = 3.8 (V)^6$$

و از آنجا:

$$V = 3.45 \text{ ft/sec}$$

مقدار شمع هیدرولیکی (از رابطه ۴-۱۲ یا ۴-۱۶):

$$R = 0.7305 \frac{(3.45)^2}{0.76} = 11.41 \text{ ft}$$

مقدار شیب کف کانال از رابطه (۴-۱۷) و یا (۴-۲۰):

$$S = \frac{(0.76)^{5/3}}{1750 (11000)^{1/6}} = 7.7 \times 10^{-5}$$

سطح مقطع جریان:

$$A = PR = 281.0 \times 11.41 = 3206.2 \text{ ft}^2$$

آن تبعیت خواهد کرد  $0.00018$  و اندازه ذرات بستر  $0.34$  میلیمتر می باشد. مطابق است تعیین عرض کف، عمق جریان و غلظت مواد بستر در حالت تعادل.

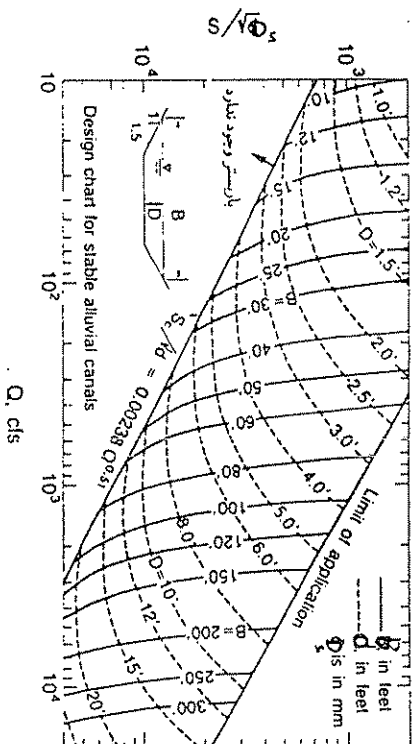
حل :

$$Q = 2100 \quad \frac{S}{\sqrt{D_s}} = 3.1 \times 10^{-4} \quad \text{ابتدا}$$

می باشد، از شکل ۹-۴ و یا روابط ۲۲-۴ و ۲۳-۴ مقادیر  $B$  و  $d$  برابر است با:

$$B = 130 \text{ ft} \quad d = 6.7 \text{ ft}$$

همچنین با استفاده از شکل ۱۱-۴ حداکثر غلظت بار بستر برابر  $200 \text{ ppm}$  می باشد.



شکل (۹-۴): منحنی های طراحی کانال پایدار برای  $Z = 1/5$

(به نقل از Chang 1988)

یکی از معادلات بار بستر محاسبه می کنند. آنگاه مقدار دبی جریان را با توجه به رابطه  $Q = AV$  محاسبه کرده و با دبی ورودی مقایسه می گردد. چنانچه این مقادیر با هم برابر بودند، مقادیر فرضی  $B$  و  $d$  محاسبه شده با دبی ورودی برابر می شوند.

شیبهای بدست آمده در مرحله دوم با هم مقایسه شده و حداقل شیب مورد نظر انتخاب می گردد. مشخصات کانال مربوط به این شیب، پارامترهای مربوط به کانال پایدار می باشد.

چانگ برای حالت  $Z = 1/5$  و بکار بردن روش یاد شده در بالا، منحنی هایی برای طراحی کانال پایدار ارائه کرده که در شکل ۹-۴، ۱۰-۴ و ۱۱-۴ نشان داده شده است.

مطابق شکل، برای شرایط آستانه حرکت رابطه ریاضی زیر را می توان نوشت :

$$\frac{S_c}{\sqrt{D_s}} = \frac{0.00238}{Q^{0.51}} \quad (۳-۳۱)$$

که در اینجا  $D_s$  بر حسب میلیمتر  $d$  بر حسب  $d_{90}$  و عبارت است از شیب بحرانی کف کانال مربوط به شروع حرکت بار بستر.

ضمناً عرض کف کانال پایدار و عمق جریان را می توان به صورت روابط ریاضی زیر نشان داد:

$$B = 4.17 \left( \frac{S}{\sqrt{D_s}} \cdot \frac{S_c}{\sqrt{D_s}} \right)^{0.5} Q^{0.5} \quad (۳-۳۲)$$

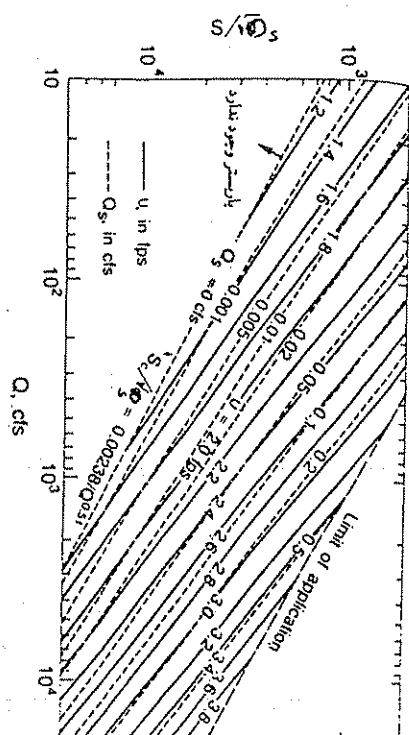
$$d = 0.055 \left( \frac{S}{\sqrt{D_s}} \cdot \frac{S_c}{\sqrt{D_s}} \right)^{0.3} Q^{0.3} \quad (۳-۳۳)$$

مثال (۴-۶)

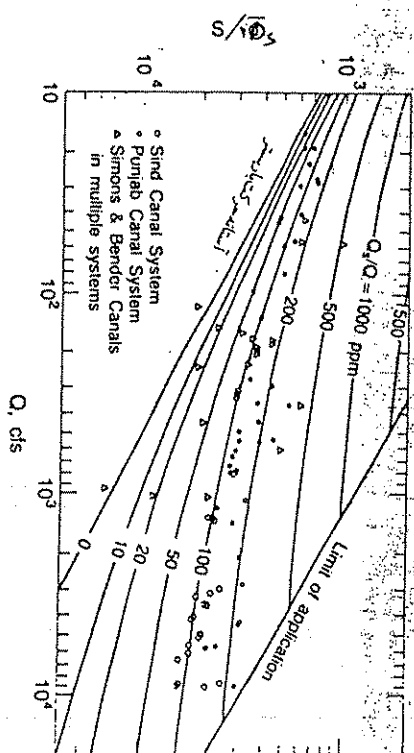
کانال پایداری طراحی کنید که دبی  $Q = 2100$  را بتواند عبور دهد. شیب زمین که کانال از

## فصل پنجم

فرم بستر  
در  
رودخانه های آبرفتی



شکل (۴-۱۰) مقدار بار بستر و سرعت جریان معیار برای مقدار دبی و  $\frac{S}{\sqrt{D_s}}$  مشخصی  
(به نقل از Chang, 1988)



شکل (۴-۱۱) غلظت بار مواد بستر تابعی از  $\frac{S}{\sqrt{D_s}}$   
(به نقل از Chang, 1988)

Ref. Fisher, K.R. (1995). 'Manual of Sediment Transport in Rivers'. Report No. SR 359, HR Wallingford, UK.



Calculate discharges per unit width for depths of flow between 0.20m and 2.0m

	Depth (m)				
	0.2	0.5	1.0	1.5	2.0
$v_*$	0.099	0.157	0.221	0.271	0.313
$D_{gr}$	47.4	47.4	47.4	47.4	47.4
$n$	0.061	0.061	0.061	0.061	0.061
$A$	0.173	0.173	0.173	0.173	0.173
$F_{tg}$	0.55	0.87	1.231	1.507	1.741
$F_{gr}(\text{lower})$	0.290	0.388	0.5	0.585	0.657
$u$ (lower) m/s	0.848	1.274	1.773	2.169	2.509
$U_E^L$	0.004	0.006	0.008	0.010	0.012
$F_{gr}(\text{upper})$	0.463	0.708	0.959	1.139	1.277
$u$ (upper) m/s	1.398	2.415	3.553	4.409	5.094
$U_E^U$	0.007	0.012	0.017	0.021	0.024
$U_E^L + U_E^U$	0.011	0.018	0.025	0.031	0.036
$\lambda$	0.109	0.121	0.031	0.030	0.030
$u$ (m/s)	0.848	1.274	3.553	4.409	5.094
$Fr$	0.61	0.58	1.13	1.15	1.15
$q$ ( $m^3/s/m$ )	0.17	0.637	3.553	6.614	10.188

At depths 0.2 and 0.5 m the flow is in the lower regime at depths 1.0, 1.5 and 2.0 m the flow is in the upper regime mode.

## 5 Regime Theory

The problem of determining a stable cross-section geometry and slope of an alluvial channel has been the subject of considerable research over eighty years and continues to be of great practical interest. Ignoring plan geometry, an alluvial channel can adjust its width, depth and slope to achieve a stable condition in which it can transport a certain amount of water and sediment. Thus, it has three degrees of freedom and the problem is to establish relationships which determine these three quantities of width, depth and slope.

The various approaches to this problem fall into two broad categories: the empirical regime and the analytical regime methods. The empirical method relies on available data and attempts to determine appropriate relationships from the data. The usefulness of this method depends on the quality of the

data and the validity of the assumed form of the relationships. It has always been acknowledged that the various coefficients derived may not be truly constant but may vary slightly and that the equations should only be applied in situations similar to those for which the data were collected.

The analytical method relies on specifying equations which describe the dominant individual processes such as sediment transport, flow resistance, and bank stability. This approach can only be successful if the dominant processes are correctly identified and appropriate equations exist to describe them adequately. These approaches represent two extremes and obviously it is possible to combine aspects of both.

### 5.1 Empirical regime theory

The theory was first developed by British engineers working in the Indian sub-continent in response to the problem of designing large irrigation canal systems. Extensive measurements were taken on existing stable channels, that is channels that were 'in regime'. Lacey (1929) was instrumental in developing this data into a series of design functions:

$$V = 0.625 \sqrt{f_s R} \quad (104)$$

$$P = 4.84 \sqrt{Q} \quad (105)$$

$$S = 0.000304 f_s^{\frac{5}{3}} Q^{-\frac{1}{6}} \quad (106)$$

where:

- Q = discharge (m<sup>3</sup>/s)
- u = mean velocity of flow, Q/A (m/s)
- R = hydraulic mean depth, A/P (m) - (Hydraulic Radius)
- P = wetted perimeter of flow (m)
- S = slope of channel
- f<sub>s</sub> = a silt parameter for sediment size
- A = cross-sectional area of flow (m<sup>2</sup>)

The silt parameter was related to sediment size, D (m), through:

$$f_s = \sqrt{2500D} \quad (107)$$

Although there were three main equations to correspond with the three degrees of freedom of adjustment of a straight channel, algebraic manipulation could, and, did yield countless others. For example using the continuity equation (104) could be replaced by:

$$R = \left( \frac{Q}{9.45 f_s} \right)^{\frac{1}{3}} \quad (108)$$

(109)

The general form of the equations can be written as:

$$d = f_1 (Q) \quad (109)$$

$$B = f_2 (Q) \quad (110)$$

$$S = f_3 (Q) \quad (111)$$

## 5.2 Analytical regime theory

In the analytical approach two sets of equations are readily available defining the sediment transport and the frictional characteristics, but it is unclear what to use as a third. Several proposals have been made for a suitable equation, some concerned with bank stability, others based on some variational principle such as minimum stream power or minimum unit stream power.

The table below makes reference to several sediment transport and alluvial roughness functions already mentioned in chapters 3 and 4 and the variety of functions used to describe the third fundamental physical process which controls channel geometry. All the methods are based on sound physical principles, taking account, to varying degrees and in different ways, of the need for dimensional consistency, similarity principles and the mechanics of bed material movement and turbulent suspension. They were mostly, and in some cases entirely, based on the analysis of laboratory experiments in flumes, within the individual researcher's framework of physical principles.

توضیح: برای کار برتری داشت

Author	Date	Functions used	Comments
Smith	1970 1974	• Colby sand transport • Modified Einstein-Brown • Regime width	Computer program Confirmed by Lower Chenab canal data
→ Chang	1979 1985 ۱۹۸۵	• Various transport eqns • Various resistance • Min stream power	Lower and upper bed forms could give dual solution. Design charts
Ramette	1979 1980	• Meyer-Peter bed load • Strickler or E & H • Max bed load and scour concept	Algebraic solution Extended to meandering and braided natural channels
Ackers	1980	• Ackers and White • White, Paris & Bettess • Regime width	Numerical solution with graphical representation. Confirmed by Lower Chenab

Author	Date	Functions used	Comments
White, Paris and Bettess	1981	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ackers and White</li> <li>• White, Paris &amp; Bettess</li> <li>• Optimal principle</li> </ul>	Table developed from computer solution
Bakker, Vermas and Choudri	1986	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ackers and White</li> <li>• Van Rijn bed roughness</li> <li>• Lacey width with revised coefficients</li> </ul>	Confirmed by data from Pakistan canals (ACOP)

As shown in the table some of the methods are based on empirical width functions and others include optimal principles.

### 5.3 Regime width equation

While there is a consensus of opinion on and good confirmation of channel design based on one or other of the recent and reliable combinations of functions for transport and for resistance, the same degree of consensus has not been reached in terms of a width-controlling function. Width can be based on a regime-type function with its coefficient value determined from the characteristics of the banks themselves, for example the values of  $K_1$  given by Simons and Albertson (1960) for different regional conditions, in the equation:

$$B = K_1 Q^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad \therefore \text{Width Function} \quad (112)$$

The table below shows the  $K_1$  values for regime width equation.

Classification	$K_1$ ( metric )
Sand bed and banks	6.34
Sand bed and cohesive banks	4.71
Sand bed and cohesive banks with heavy sediment load, 2000 -8000mgm/l	3.08
Cohesive bed and banks	3.98
Coarse non-cohesive material	3.17

An example of this method was used by Bakker et al (1986) and used the Van Rijn (1984) friction equations, described in Section 4.1.3, combined with the Ackers and White sediment transport equations detailed in Section 3.5.1.

The channel width is determined from the Lacey regime equation but with revised coefficients. Using the ACOP data Bakker et al determined the  $K_1$  coefficient obtaining  $K_1 = 4.7$  for the Punjab and 4.0 for the Sind.

There is an alternative to using an empirical width function, which then meets the requirement for all functions to have a sound basis in physics. This is to use optimisation concepts to determine width. The premise is that the natural



adjustment process develops towards a channel which has maximum efficiency in transporting the water and sediment: the geometry adjusts so that the channel slope finds a minimum consistent with the two process functions for transport rate and channel resistance.

#### 5.4 Chang's method (1985)

Chang developed a graphical method for the design of stable alluvial channels with sand bed channels with 2 to 1 side slopes. Under the inflow quantities of water discharge, sediment load, and its characteristics, a canal has three degrees of freedom in its width, depth and slope. These three variables are obtained such that the inflow discharge and bed load are transported at the minimum channel slope while fulfilling the usual hydraulic laws of flow resistance and bed-load transport. (In the analysis the bed load is used since it is primarily responsible for moulding the shape of alluvial channels.) ←

\* The method should be restricted to canals in the lower flow regime and with ripple and sand beds.

(Bed load)  $\frac{S_c}{\sqrt{d}} = \frac{0.00238}{Q^{0.51}}$  (113)

The graphs for using the Chang method are shown in Figures 8 and 9. The lower bound of Figure 8 is at the threshold for bed movement which may be represented by the equation (113):

where:  $S_c$  = critical channel slope corresponding to bed-load threshold.

$d = D_{50}$  of bed material

The graphical relationship for width in Figure 8 can be represented by the following equation:

$$B = 4.17 \left( \frac{S}{\sqrt{d}} - \frac{S_c}{\sqrt{d}} \right)^{0.05} Q^{0.5} \quad \text{or} \quad B = f(Q) \quad (114)$$

Therefore the width is primarily a function of the discharge; its dependence on S and d are not very significant. The depth in Figure 8 can be represented by the following equation:

عمق  $D = 0.055 \left( \frac{S}{\sqrt{d}} - \frac{S_c}{\sqrt{d}} \right)^{-0.3} Q^{0.3} \quad (115)$

Therefore the depth is more dependent on S and d than the width. The graphical relationship for bed load in Figure 9, can be represented by the following equation:

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$$\frac{S}{\sqrt{d}} = 0.433 \frac{Q_s^{0.736}}{Q^{0.789}} + \frac{S_c}{\sqrt{d}} \quad (116)$$

in which  $Q_s$  = bed-load discharge.

The design chart for stable alluvial channels in Figure 8, when used in conjunction with Figure 9, provides a simple graphical method for design of channels. Given the discharge of a channel, the slope should be chosen so that it falls along a line of constant  $uS$  in Figure 9. Then the width and depth of each channel are directly obtained from Figure 8.

### 5.5 White, Paris and Bettess method (1980)

The theory is based on sediment transport and frictional characteristic and advocates a variational principle based on the assumption that an alluvial channel adjusts its geometric characteristics and gradient in such a way that the sediment transporting capacity is maximised. Although there is no physical justification to support the principle of maximising the sediment transporting capacity it is regarded as a useful hypothesis which leads to acceptable predictions over a large range of flow conditions.

Six variables that describe the channel system are considered: the average velocity,  $V$ , average depth,  $d$ , slope,  $S$ , discharge,  $Q$ , sediment concentration,  $X$ , and channel width,  $B$ . Relating these variables are equations for the continuity of water flow, sediment transport formulae, flow resistance formulae, and the condition that the sediment transport should be maximised, or equivalently the stream power minimised. If two of the variables are known then the others can be calculated. For example knowing the discharge,  $Q$  and the slope,  $S$ , the corresponding values of  $V$ ,  $d$ ,  $X$  and  $B$  can be determined. Implicit in this method are the assumptions that the flow is steady and uniform and that the bed and bank material is noncohesive.

The Ackers and White equations (1973) are used to calculate the sediment concentration as detailed in Section 3.5.1. White, Paris and Bettess (1980) describe the movement of sediment in terms of three dimensionless groups in the prediction of alluvial friction as described in Section 4.1.5.

One extra equation was needed to solve the system. The hypothesis used is that for a particular water discharge and slope the width of the channel adjusts itself to maximise the sediment transport rate. If one imposes values of discharge and slope but does not impose the condition of maximum sediment transport, then there are a family of solutions each with different values of  $b$ ,  $X$ ,  $v$  and  $d$ , only one of which provides the maximum sediment transport rate. All the remaining solutions have sediment transport rates less than the maximum and widths both less than and greater than that provided by the maximum transport rate. These all represent possible solutions of the system if it is constrained in some way, for example, by the relative erodibility of the bed and banks. Thus, a channel with banks which are less erodible than the bed will have a width smaller than that corresponding to the maximum sediment transport case, while a channel whose banks are more erodible than the bed will have a width correspondingly larger.

V/11

HR Wallingford has published a set of alluvial channel design tables based on this methodology, to avoid the engineer having the burden of a complex computational procedure. (White et al 1981a.)

The tables should only be used for channels passing through homogenous alluvium and should not be used where the composition of the bed and banks are markedly different nor where there are constraints on the width or depth such as the presence of inerodible material. The tables presented by White, Paris and Bettess can only be used for the determination of the geometric and flow characteristics of stable alluvial channels.

#### Example 5.5 Use of White, Paris and Bettess tables for design of stable alluvial channels

A channel is required to carry a discharge of  $10\text{m}^3/\text{s}$  at a slope of  $0.2 \times 10^{-3}$ , the  $D_{35}$  of the bed material being  $0.35\text{mm}$ . What are the suitable stable dimensions for the channel?

The appropriate table is reproduced in Figure 10. If one looks down the column corresponding to a discharge of  $10\text{m}^3/\text{s}$  one can see that the slopes corresponding to sediment concentrations of 10, 20, 40 and 60 ppm are  $0.09 \times 10^{-3}$ ,  $0.13 \times 10^{-3}$ ,  $0.19 \times 10^{-3}$  and  $0.24 \times 10^{-3}$ .

The slope  $0.19 \times 10^{-3}$  is closest to the required slope of  $0.2 \times 10^{-3}$  corresponding to a sediment concentration of 40ppm. An approximation to the required channel characteristics are given by:

velocity	0.63m/s
depth	1.32m
surface width	12.1m
sediment concentration	40 ppm

Interpolation within the table in Figure 10 could be used to refine this estimate.

#### 5.6 Application and use of regime theory

The original application of regime theory was to irrigation canals. A characteristic of such canals is that the range of discharge is limited so that there is little inherent difficulty in deciding the discharge to be used in the regime relations. More recently regime theory has been applied to natural rivers. By contrast natural rivers have a wide range of discharges varying throughout the year and from year to year. It is thus more difficult to know which is the discharge that should be used in the regime theory.

It has been assumed that the dimensions of a river channel can be related to a particular discharge, referred to as the dominant discharge. At this discharge, equilibrium is most closely approached and the tendency to change is least. This condition may be regarded as the integrated effect of all varying conditions over a long period of time. Unfortunately there is no universally agreed method of determining the dominant discharge.

Regime theory can be used in the design of physical models. As part of an investigation for an irrigation scheme, HR Wallingford designed a mobile bed model of the Sabi River, a large sand river in Zimbabwe. The river channel was in regime and the physical model was designed on the basis that the

model channel must also be in regime. The resulting model successfully reproduced the behaviour of the prototype.

River improvements or changes to river due to maintenance can have a morphological impact. Regime theory can be used in assessing the impact of these changes to a river, HR Wallingford (1992).

Using ideas from regime theory a method for predicting plan shape and the impact of change on plan shape has been derived. The method is based upon the principle that plan shape results as a compromise between the regime slope required for equilibrium and the slope of the river valley, Bettess and White (1983).

## 6 Sediment sampling and analysis

As the behaviour of sediments is very dependent on sediment size, it is important to establish the size of the sediment under consideration. There are

a number of concerns that must be considered when collecting sediment samples:

- (1) the sample should be representative of the sediment under consideration;
- (2) the sample that is collected should be representative of the sediment that is present, that is, sampling should not preferentially select some sizes at the expense of others;
- (3) the sample size should be sufficient to ensure that the required statistics can be determined accurately.

These aspects are considered in more detail.

- (1) The sample should be representative of sediment under consideration. Particularly in gravel rivers there can be significant variations in sediment composition both in plan and through the depth. Care must be taken in selecting a sample site to ensure that the sample will provide the required information. The beds of gravel rivers are frequently armoured, that is, the surface layer of sediment is coarser than the underlying sediment. This should be considered when selecting an appropriate method of sampling. The reader is referred to BS 3680 Part 10E: 1993/ISO 9195:1992, Sampling and analysis of gravel bed material
- (2) The sample should be representative of the sediment present. The act of sampling can quite frequently introduce bias into the sample. Most forms of sampling introduce some form of bias; for example, when grab samples are collected from underwater, it is common for fine sediments to be washed out of the sample preferentially. One should be aware of possible sources of bias and try to design the sampling size to overcome them.
- (3) The sample should be sufficient to determine required statistics with the required degree of accuracy. Samples should, if at all possible, be large enough to enable an adequate size grading to be carried out. This normally means that there is a sufficient number of particles in each size class. For silts and clays this is normally not too difficult and depending

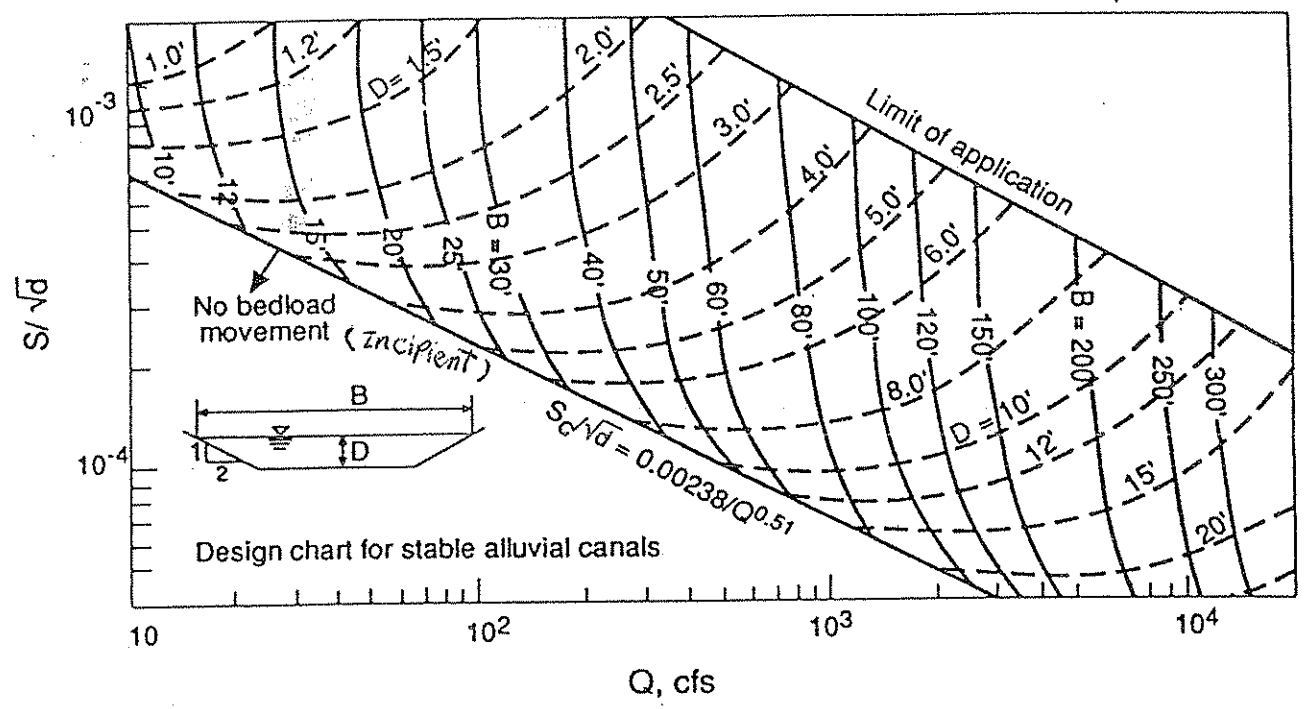
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Surface Water Width : \_\_\_\_\_ B, in feet

Water Depth = \_\_\_\_\_ D, in feet

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} D_{50} = d \text{ is in mm} \\ \text{Size of bed material} \end{array} \right.$

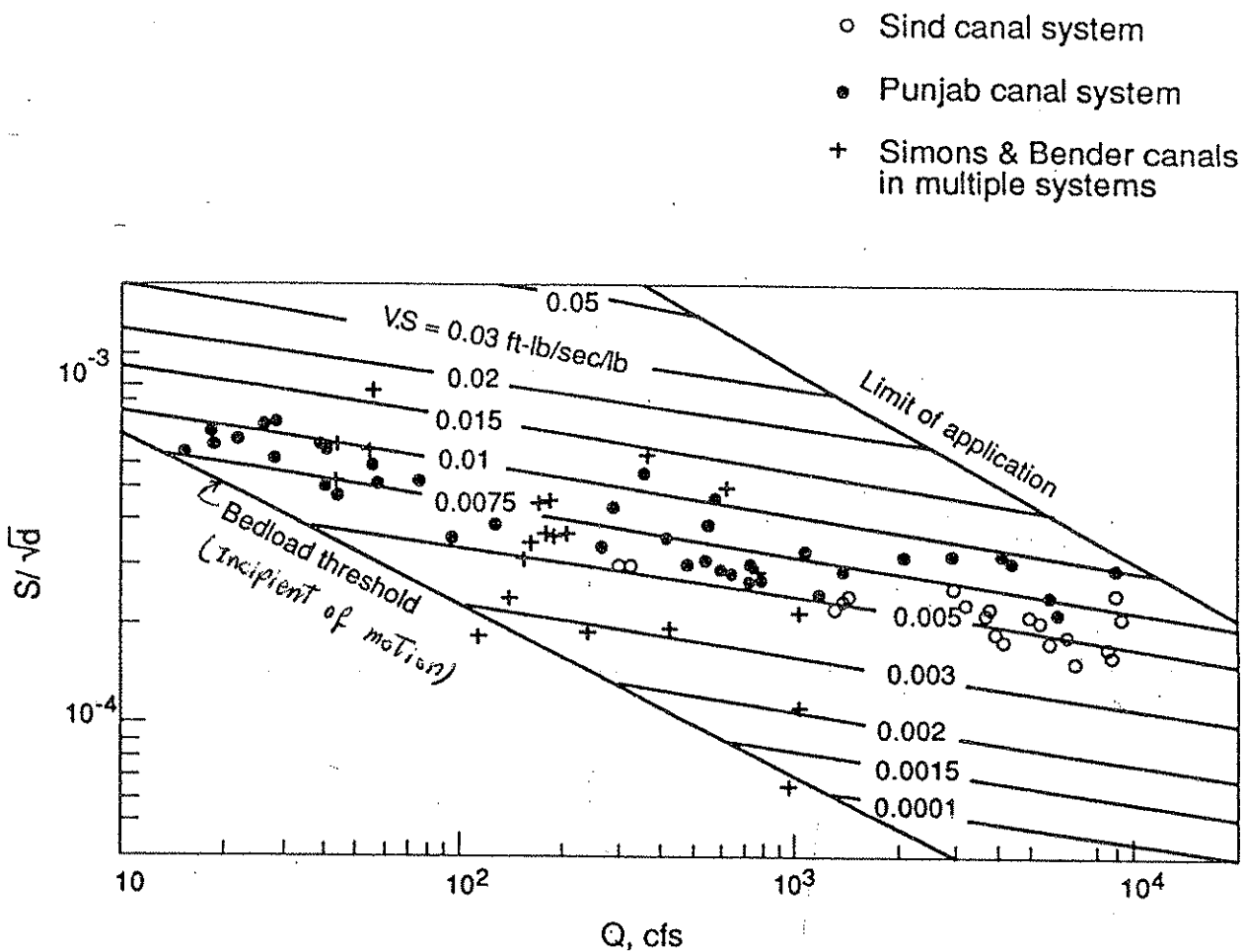


"Chang's Method" (1985)

KF/8/3-93/PA

Figure 8 Design chart for stable alluvial canals with sand bed

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Chang's Method (1985)

KF/9/3-93/PA

Figure 9 Velocity-slope product as function of water discharge, slope and sediment size

(188)

بدای هر  $D_{50}$  مختلف یک جدول دیگری باید باشد

SAND SIZE 0.35 MILLIMETRES

$D_{50} = 0.35 \text{ mm}$

VELOCITY (METRES/SEC)  
SLOPE \*1000  
DEPTH (METRES)  
WIDTH (METRES)  
FRICTION FACTOR \*10

SEDIMENT CONCENTRATION (PPH)		DISCHARGE (CUMEC/S)									
	0.5	1.0	2.0	5.0	10.0	20.0	50.0	100.0	200.0	500.0	1000.0
10	0.43 0.218 0.47 2.5 0.326	0.45 0.176 0.63 3.5 0.326	0.48 0.143 0.83 5.1 0.324	0.51 0.110 1.20 8.1 0.325	0.54 0.091 1.57 11.7 0.326	0.57 0.076 2.07 16.9 0.331	0.63 0.061 2.98 26.8 0.334	0.66 0.052 3.83 39.5 0.338	0.71 0.044 4.97 57.0 0.342	0.77 0.037 6.97 93.0 0.348	0.83 0.032 8.96 134.5 0.350
20	0.45 0.284 0.48 2.6 0.373	0.48 0.233 0.58 3.6 0.371	0.50 0.193 0.77 5.2 0.371	0.55 0.152 1.10 8.3 0.372	0.58 0.128 1.44 12.0 0.374	0.62 0.109 1.89 17.1 0.377	0.68 0.089 2.69 27.5 0.381	0.72 0.077 3.49 39.6 0.385	0.78 0.067 4.52 56.8 0.388	0.84 0.056 6.37 91.2 0.392	0.92 0.050 8.25 131.3 0.404
40	0.47 0.384 0.48 2.6 0.433	0.50 0.321 0.54 3.7 0.432	0.54 0.271 0.70 5.3 0.433	0.58 0.218 1.01 8.5 0.434	0.63 0.187 1.32 12.1 0.436	0.67 0.162 1.72 17.3 0.438	0.74 0.135 2.44 27.7 0.441	0.80 0.118 3.18 39.3 0.444	0.87 0.104 4.13 59.9 0.446	0.94 0.089 5.79 89.5 0.448	1.04 0.079 7.51 127.9 0.458
60	0.49 0.468 0.38 2.7 0.474	0.52 0.395 0.51 3.8 0.473	0.56 0.336 0.67 5.4 0.473	0.61 0.275 0.95 8.6 0.474	0.65 0.238 1.24 12.3 0.481	0.71 0.207 1.63 17.3 0.477	0.79 0.174 2.31 27.5 0.479	0.85 0.156 3.00 39.1 0.480	0.93 0.136 3.89 55.5 0.481	1.04 0.117 5.48 87.7 0.481	1.13 0.105 7.09 125.0 0.488
80	0.50 0.542 0.37 2.7 0.506	0.54 0.461 0.49 3.8 0.505	0.58 0.395 0.64 5.4 0.504	0.64 0.325 0.91 8.6 0.505	0.68 0.283 1.19 12.2 0.505	0.74 0.248 1.55 17.4 0.506	0.82 0.210 2.22 27.3 0.507	0.90 0.186 2.88 38.7 0.507	0.98 0.166 3.74 54.8 0.507	1.10 0.146 5.24 86.8 0.505	1.20 0.129 6.80 122.8 0.511
100	0.51 0.610 0.36 2.7 0.532	0.55 0.522 0.47 3.8 0.530	0.59 0.450 0.62 5.5 0.529	0.65 0.372 0.89 8.6 0.529	0.71 0.325 1.16 12.2 0.530	0.77 0.286 1.51 17.3 0.529	0.86 0.243 2.15 27.2 0.529	0.93 0.217 2.79 38.5 0.528	1.02 0.194 3.62 54.3 0.527	1.14 0.169 4.13 86.1 0.534	1.25 0.152 5.94 121.5 0.528
200	0.56 0.903 0.32 2.8 0.620	0.60 0.784 0.43 3.9 0.617	0.66 0.686 0.57 5.4 0.615	0.73 0.578 0.80 8.7 0.610	0.79 0.512 1.04 12.2 0.607	0.86 0.455 1.36 17.0 0.604	0.97 0.392 1.93 26.6 0.599	1.06 0.353 2.51 37.4 0.595	1.17 0.319 3.25 52.5 0.590	1.32 0.279 4.60 82.1 0.590	1.46 0.254 6.04 115.2 0.584
400	0.61 1.382 0.29 2.8 0.719	0.66 1.215 0.38 3.9 0.720	0.73 1.074 0.50 5.5 0.706	0.82 0.920 0.72 8.5 0.697	0.89 0.824 0.93 12.1 0.690	0.98 0.739 1.22 16.6 0.682	1.12 0.645 1.73 25.8 0.671	1.23 0.585 2.25 36.1 0.662	1.36 0.531 2.94 50.2 0.662	1.55 0.470 4.13 77.9 0.648	1.73 0.430 5.32 108.5 0.630
600	0.65 1.795 0.27 2.8 0.782	0.72 1.591 0.36 3.9 0.772	0.78 1.414 0.47 5.5 0.762	0.88 1.221 0.67 8.4 0.749	0.97 1.097 0.87 11.8 0.737	1.07 0.991 1.14 16.4 0.728	1.22 0.869 1.63 25.2 0.713	1.34 0.791 2.12 35.1 0.711	1.49 0.722 2.75 48.8 0.698	1.72 0.642 3.86 75.2 0.673	1.92 0.588 5.00 104.2 0.660
800	0.68 2.174 0.26 2.8 0.827	0.75 1.933 0.34 3.9 0.815	0.83 1.729 0.45 5.3 0.803	0.93 1.498 0.64 8.3 0.787	1.03 1.352 0.84 11.5 0.774	1.14 1.223 1.10 16.1 0.761	1.29 1.078 1.56 24.8 0.753	1.43 0.984 2.01 34.7 0.738	1.60 0.899 2.63 47.6 0.716	1.85 0.803 3.70 73.1 0.696	2.06 0.737 4.78 101.5 0.680
1000	0.71 2.529 0.25 2.8 0.844	0.78 2.256 0.33 3.9 0.849	0.86 2.022 0.43 5.4 0.835	0.98 1.761 0.62 8.2 0.816	1.08 1.591 0.81 11.4 0.801	1.20 1.444 1.06 15.7 0.785	1.36 1.276 1.51 24.3 0.776	1.51 1.165 1.96 33.8 0.760	1.69 1.068 2.52 46.9 0.735	1.96 0.953 3.58 71.4 0.713	2.19 0.877 4.62 98.7 0.695
2000	0.81 4.104 0.22 2.8 0.979	0.89 3.695 0.30 3.8 0.957	1.00 3.339 0.39 5.1 0.935	1.14 2.934 0.56 7.9 0.906	1.26 2.672 0.73 10.8 0.901	1.40 2.437 0.95 15.1 0.875	1.61 2.169 1.35 22.9 0.846	1.81 1.970 1.75 31.6 0.815	2.03 1.831 2.29 43.0 0.792	2.35 1.642 3.21 66.3 0.763	2.64 1.516 4.15 91.3 0.741
6000	0.93 6.791 0.20 2.7 1.098	1.04 6.161 0.26 3.7 1.066	1.16 5.598 0.35 5.0 1.035	1.33 4.959 0.49 7.6 0.995	1.48 4.541 0.64 10.5 0.980	1.66 4.161 0.85 14.2 0.950	1.94 3.723 1.21 21.3 0.902	2.19 3.433 1.59 28.8 0.872	2.44 3.163 2.04 40.2 0.846	2.84 2.853 2.90 60.7 0.820	3.18 2.639 3.73 84.2 0.795

Figure 10 Example of White, Paris and Bettess table for the design of stable alluvial channels



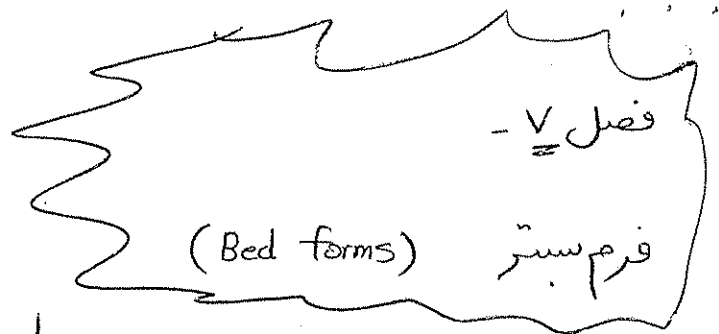


سری سال شماره ۵ : کتابی فرمایش

- ① Define the terms ripple, dune, and antidune ; and briefly describe the conditions under which each forms.
- ② With reference to the continuity equation for sediment motion or otherwise Prove that dunes migrate downstream and that antidunes migrate upstream.
- ③ Write down the expressions for Shields entrainment function and Particle Reynolds number, and briefly explain the importance of each in the study of sediment transport.
- ④ Discuss the role of the Froude number in resistance to flow.
- ⑤ A river flowing in its own alluvium has the following dimensions :  
Bankfull discharge :  $1400 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$   
Thalweg slope :  $0.003$   
Breadth :  $200 \text{ m}$   
Average depth :  $4 \text{ m}$   
Bed and bank material : Sand,  $D_{50} = 0.3 \text{ mm}$   
(a) Use the work of Kennedy and his co-workers to estimate the energy gradient. (See Yang (1996), pp. 79-80)  
(b) Compare this with the estimate from regime theory.
- ⑥ What is the balance of forces on a sediment grain as it is just about to lift off the stream bed into the flow?



ص ۱



فرم بستر در نتیجه تأثیر متقابل (interaction) بین  
 - جریان (flow) : قابلیت جریان در تغییر  
 - قابلیت حرکت مواد بستر (bed mobility) :  
 بود و می آید.

تأثیر مستقیم فرم بستر بر روی مقاومت جریان (Bed roughness / flow resistance)

مثال کاربردی

محاسبات پروفیل سطح آب، توزیع سرعت و بار رسوبی سیلنگی با ارزیابی «bed form resistance» دارد.

سؤال : بستر چگونه تغییر شکل می دهد ؟  
How the bed deforms ?

تغییر بستر فرم بستر در جاری با بستر ماسه ای (sand - bed) بطور مثال رودخانه هایی که با بستر ماسه ای در دستهای سنگینی  
 بهاری هستند با افزایش :

- سرعت متوسط جریان (mean velocity)  $\bar{v}$

- عدد فرود  $(Fr)$   $\bar{v}$

-  $Stream\ power \propto \bar{v}^3$

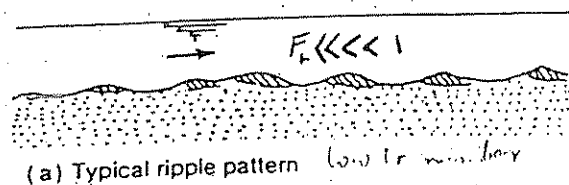
باعث تغییر شکل بستر می شوند.

Fig. 5.2 | کتاب Hydrometry Rhyne  
 P. 159 | کپی انگلیسی ضمیمه برای تغییر بستر در جریان یک سیلاب در رودخانه

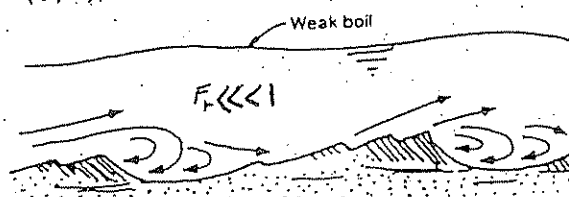
در مورد رودخانه های با مواد بستر درشت دان عامل لای سطحی و خصوصیات جریان، فرم بستر متغی

می سازد که با خصوصیات جریان ارتباط معین دارند.

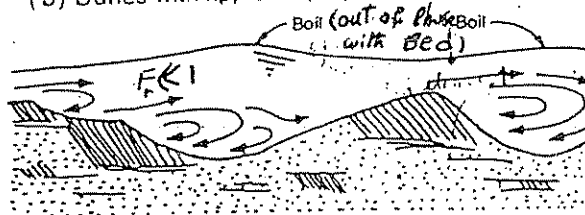




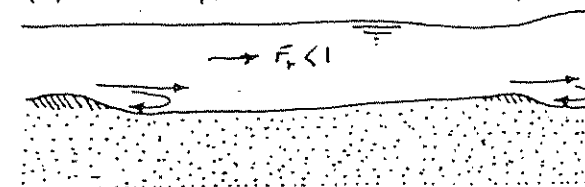
(a) Typical ripple pattern (low  $F_r$  number)



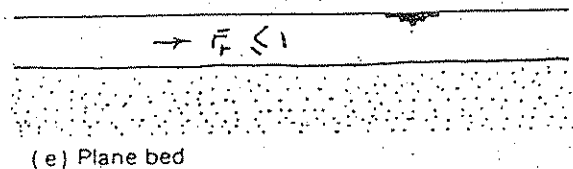
(b) Dunes with ripples superposed  $F_r \uparrow$



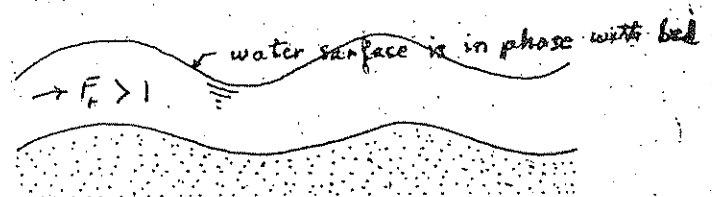
(c) Dunes  $F_r \uparrow$



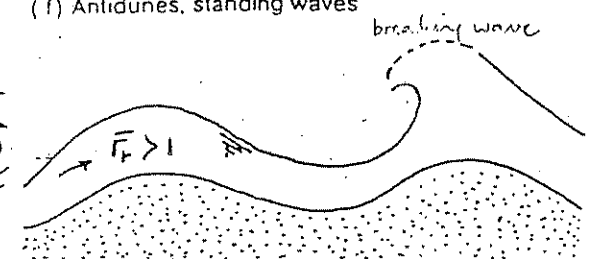
(d) Washed-out dunes or transition



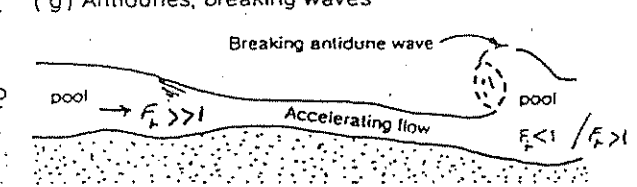
(e) Plane bed



(f) Antidunes, standing waves



(g) Antidunes, breaking waves



(h) Chutes and pools

### Idealised Bed Forms in Alluvial Channels

^  
Sand-bed

HR Wallingford

60 SEDIMENT TRANSPORT, YALING (1996)

Because Eqs. (3.18a, b) were obtained from a small laboratory flume with uniform sand, they should not be applied directly to natural rivers with nonuniform bed materials.

Meyer-Peter and Müller (1948), considering a sand mixture, transformed Strickler's formula to

$$\frac{d_{50}^{1/4}}{n} = 26 \quad (3.19)$$

where  $d_{50}$  = sediment diameter (in m) for which 50% of the mixture is finer. Equation (3.19) can be used to approximate Manning's coefficient when the bed is not covered by cobbles or armored.

Lane and Carlson (1953) in their study of the San Luis Valley canals suggested that

$$n = \frac{d_{50}^{1/4}}{39} \quad (3.20)$$

where  $d_{50}$  = sediment diameter (in in.) for which 75% of the mixture is finer. The beds of the canals studied by Lane and Carlson were paved with cobbles.

### 3.3 BED FORMS

There is a strong interrelationship between resistance to flow, bed configuration, and rate of sediment transport. In order to understand the variation of resistance to flow under different flow and sediment conditions, it is necessary to know the definitions and the conditions under which different bed forms exist.

#### 3.3.1 Terminology

The commonly used terms for bed forms in the literature can be summarized as follows (Simons and Richardson, 1960):

1. **Plane bed:** this is a plane bed surface without elevations or depressions larger than the largest grains of bed material.
2. **Ripples:** these are small bed forms with wavelengths less than 30 cm and heights less than 5 cm. Ripple profiles are approximately triangular, with long gentle upstream slopes and short, steep downstream slopes.
3. **Bars:** these are bed forms having lengths of the same order as the channel width or greater, and heights comparable to the mean depth of the generating flow. There are *point bars*, *alternate bars*, *middle bars*, and *tributary bars*, as shown in Fig. 3.1.

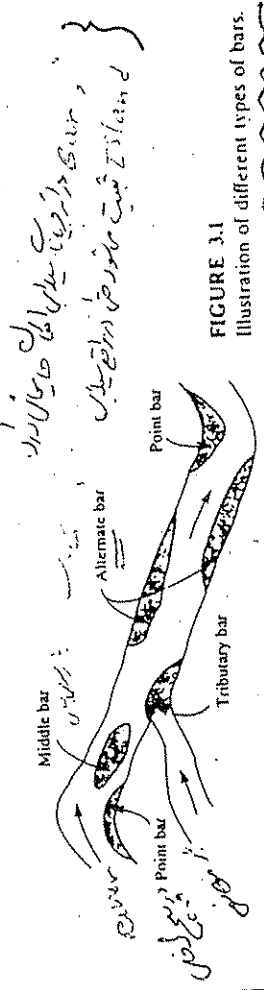


FIGURE 3.1 Illustration of different types of bars.

4. **Dunes:** these are bed forms smaller than bars but larger than ripples. Their profile is out of phase with the water surface profile.
5. **Transition:** the transitional bed configuration is generated by flow conditions intermediate between those producing dunes and plane bed. In many cases, part of the bed is covered with dunes while a plane bed covers the remainder.
6. **Anitidunes:** these are also called *standing waves*. The bed and water surface profiles are in phase. While the flow is moving in the downstream direction, the sand waves and water surface waves are actually moving in the upstream direction.
7. **Chutes and pools:** these occur at relatively large slopes with high velocities and sediment concentrations. They consist of large elongated mounds of sediment.

Figure 3.2 illustrates different bed forms for sand bed channels.

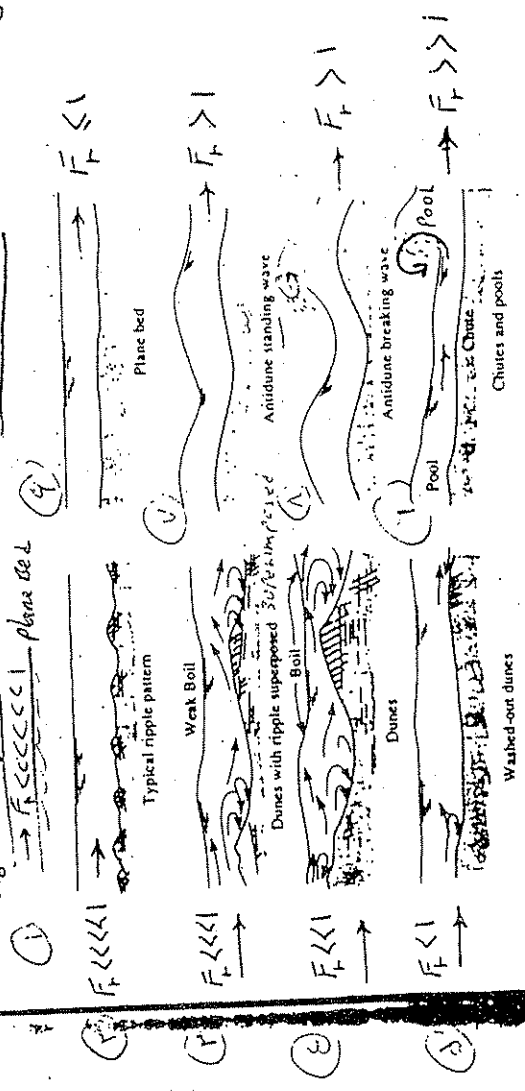


FIGURE 3.2 Bed forms of sand bed channels (Simons and Richardson, 1966).

By accelerating the flow: (با افزایش دترت جریان)

Step 1:  $\rightarrow v \approx 0$  تقریباً ساکن  
w.s. Horizontal  
plane bed (Flat bed)

تغییرات کم از اندازه ماکزیم مواد ستری بیشتر نیست.  $\Delta z \leq D_{max}$  میسر می

$$Max D_{max} = 2mm$$

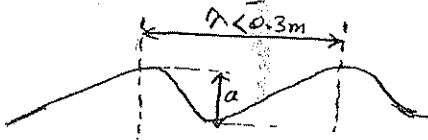
یعنی بزرگی ستری را داریم.

Step 2: w.s. Flat (very much Horizontal)

$$\rightarrow Fr \lllll 1$$

Ripples

استای عمودی ستری تخت است ولی سطح ستری، دندانهای می شود (مواجه بصورت گندهای یا اثرهای است)



$$a \leq 0.03m : Bob$$

$$a \leq 0.05m : Yang$$

ابعاد Ripples مستقل از عرق جریان و با افزایش سرعت جریان ایجاد می شود.



(saw tooth shape) شکل اثرهای

دریا در دست، سیب کم طولانی و در پایین دست، سیب برابر  $\phi$

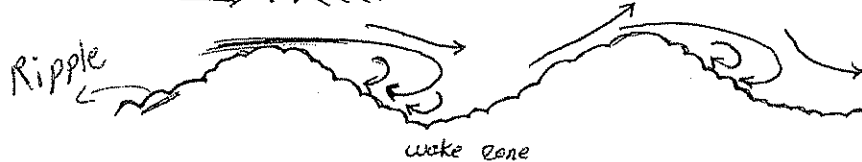
(سیب برابر)  $\phi$ : angle of repose

Step 3:

weak boil (due to circulation)

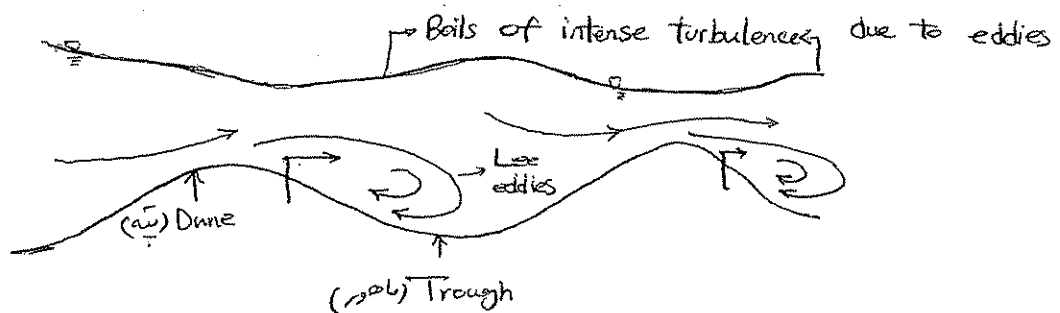
$$\rightarrow Fr \lllll 1$$

آشفتنی ضعیف در سطح آب



Ripples on Dunes

Step 4:



- in this form, ripples disappear and dunes developed with smooth face.

- Dunes are out of phase with the w.s. profile (in subcritical flow)

(کف بالایی رود، سطح آب پائین می افتد)

- ارتفاع Dune ها بیشتر از Ripple و کمتر از Bars می باشد.

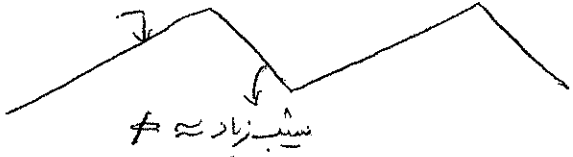
- سرعت جریان و محل رسوبات بیشتر ایجاد شده است.

- شکل و فرم Dune ها تابع عمق جریان می باشد

- Dunes migrate D/s حتی در جریان پائین، با گذشتن فرمان، Dune به D/s جابجا می شود.

شیب طولانی بسیار کم

- در مقطع طولی، شکل مثلثی دارند.



$\phi$ : Angle of repose

step 5: Transition

Flat w.s.

$Fr < 1$

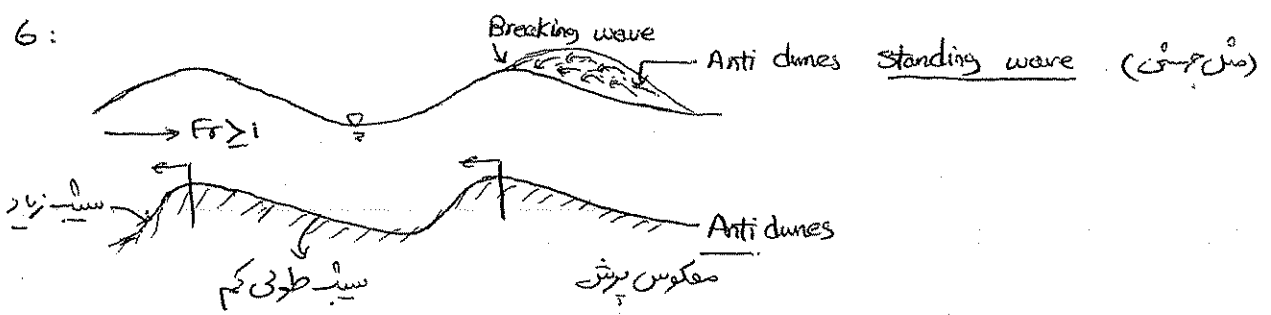


Washed out Dunes

Transition

at higher flow intensity than Dunes deformed

step 6:



- شرایط وجود دو حرکت آن خلاف Dune است

- smooth face

کف بالایی رود، سطح آب بالا می رود.

- The bed form in phase with w.s. profile (in super critical flow)

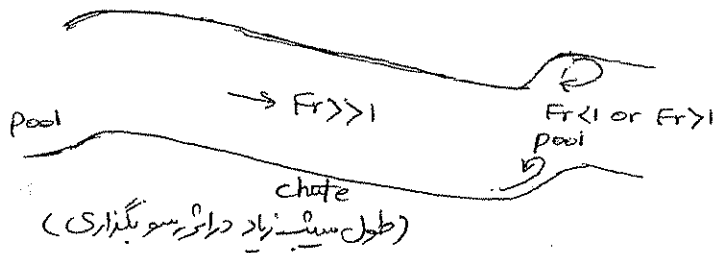


— They move U/S (both Dunes and standing waves)

— با افزایش سرعت و  $Fr$ ، سطح آب پایین می افتد تا اینکه به سبب منعکس دریا پس دست برخورد می کند و شکسته می شود و حالت جهش ایجاد می شود.

— پروفیل طولی آن تابع  $Fr$  و محل رسوبات است، و تیر ریز از حالت مثلی به حالت سینوسی (در  $Fr$  بیشتر) می رسد.

step 7:



— در سترانطی که سبب زیاد ستر، طول زیاد و محل رسوب زیاد

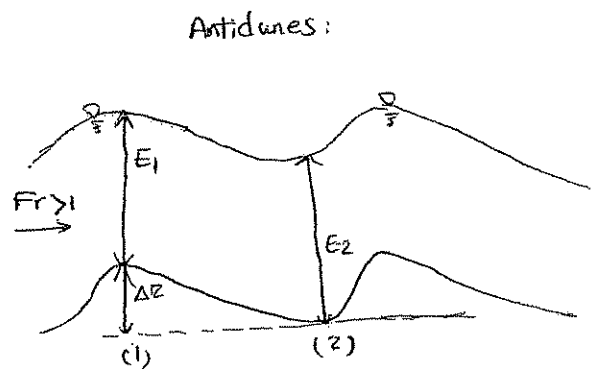
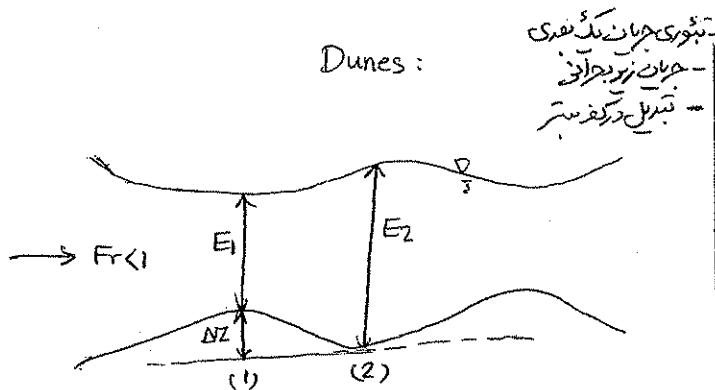
جریان در طول chute شتاب می گیرد و حالت فوق بحرانی دارد و دریا پس دست chute وارد pool می شود که ممکن است جریان در انتها فوق بحرانی و یا زیر بحرانی باشد.

سوالات مهم:

سوال ۱: چرا در حالت Dune و Antidune پروفیل سطح آب متفاوت هستند؟

In Dunes: water surface out of phase with the bed?

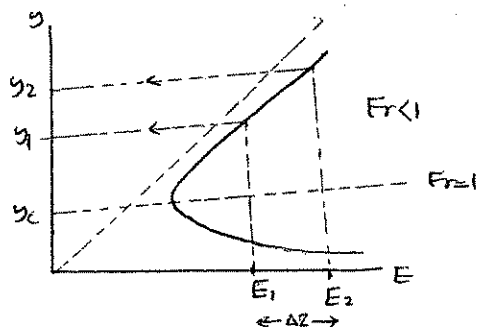
In Antidunes: water surface in phase with the bed?



## Dunes:

$$Fr < 1$$

$$\Delta Z < 0 \text{ (Transition in bed, step down)}$$



$$E_1 + \Delta Z = E_2 \Rightarrow y_2 > y_1$$

$$Fr < 1$$

$$\frac{dE}{dy} = 1 - Fr^2 \Rightarrow \frac{dE}{dy} > 0$$

$$Fr < 1$$

$$\frac{dE}{dy} > 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta y} > 0 \quad E_2 - E_1 = z_2 - z_1 = -\Delta Z$$

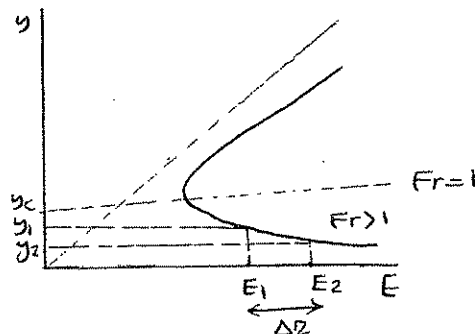
$$\Delta E = -\Delta Z \Rightarrow \frac{\Delta Z}{\Delta E} < 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\Delta Z}{\Delta y} < 0$$

$\Delta Z < \Delta y \Rightarrow$  ارتفاع سطح آب بالای رود.  
تغییر مقطع کانال از استریم در یک پهنای رود.

## Antidunes:

$$Fr > 1$$

$$\Delta Z < 0 \text{ (step down)}$$



$$\frac{dE}{dy} = 1 - Fr^2 \Rightarrow \frac{dE}{dy} < 0$$

$$Fr > 1$$

$$E_2 = E_1 + \Delta Z$$

$$E_2 > E_1 \rightarrow \Delta E = -\Delta Z$$

$$E_2 - E_1 = z_2 - z_1 \Rightarrow -\Delta Z = \Delta E$$

$$(E \uparrow \Rightarrow z \downarrow)$$

$$\frac{dE}{dy} = \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta y} < 0$$

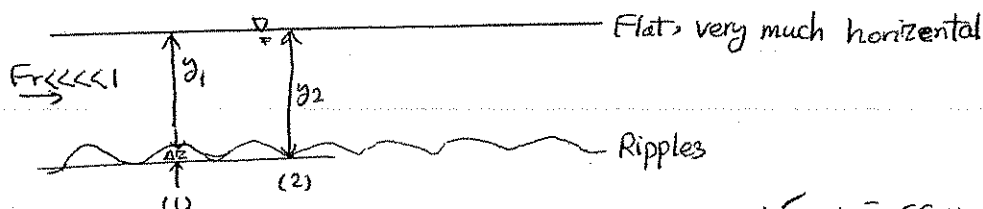
$\Delta E = -\Delta Z \Rightarrow \frac{\Delta Z}{\Delta y} > 0$  یا  $\Delta Z > \Delta y$   
کاهش در استریم از افزایش در عمق رود است.

## Bed form

سوالات دهم

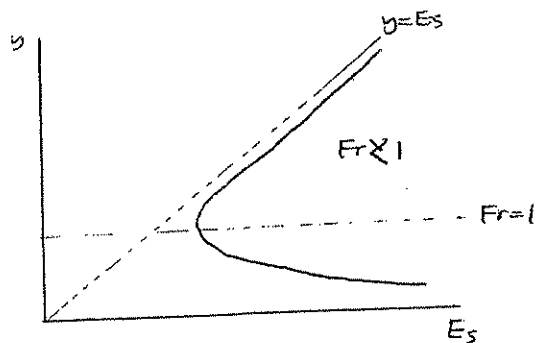
۱- پروفیل سطح آب روی Dune یا Antidune؟ (قبلاً ارائه شده است)

۲- چرا در فرم استریم نوع Ripple، سطح آب صاف و تقریباً افقی است. (دانشجویان مطالعه کنند)



بر اساس تئوری جریان یک بعدی و تبدیل در کف

$v$



$$Fr \ll 1$$

شاخص ضریبی  $(E-y)$  به سمت مخالف  
 $(y-E)$  میل می‌کند.

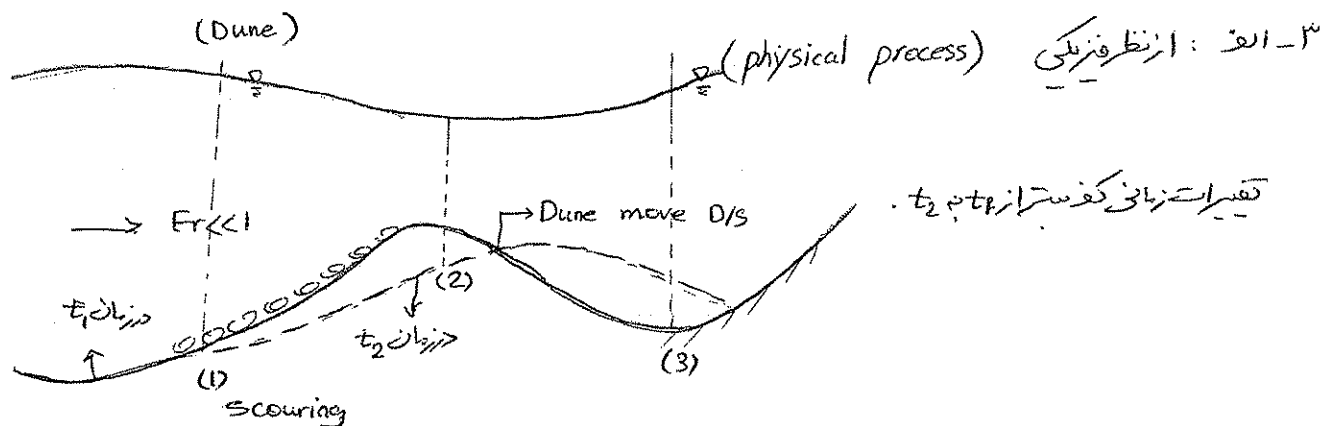
$$\frac{dy}{dE} \rightarrow 1 \xrightarrow{E=y+\frac{v^2}{2g}} \frac{v^2}{2g} \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow S_w \rightarrow 0$$

(میل آب‌سنگ)

$S_w$  سیل سطح آب

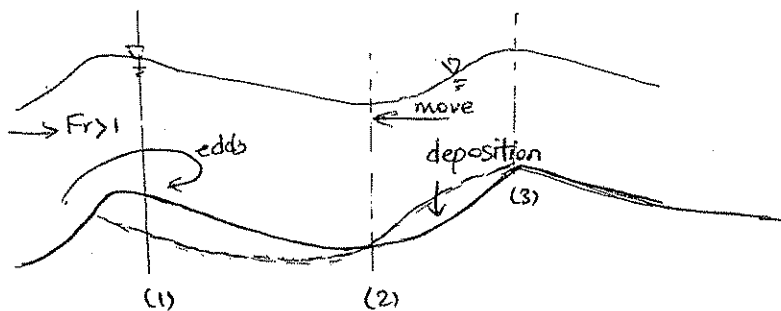
Dunes move  $D/S$   
 Antidunes move  $V/S$

دیس فزیکلی  
 تحلیل ریاضی  
 برای اینکه چرا؟



Btw. 1 and 2 :  $z \uparrow \xrightarrow{Fr < 1} v \downarrow \xrightarrow{\text{موسیقی}} v \uparrow \Rightarrow \tau_b \propto v^2 \uparrow \uparrow \Rightarrow \text{scouring}$

Btw. 2 and 3 :  $z \downarrow \xrightarrow{Fr < 1} v \uparrow \rightarrow v \downarrow \Rightarrow \tau_b \propto v^2 \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow$  no scouring, but deposition of washed out sediment.



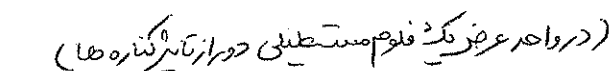
eddy باعث تشدید فرسایش Dune است.

Btw. 1 and 2 :  $z \downarrow \Rightarrow v \downarrow \Rightarrow v \uparrow \Rightarrow \tau_b \uparrow \Rightarrow \text{scouring}$

Btw. 2 and 3 :  $z \uparrow \Rightarrow v \uparrow \Rightarrow v \downarrow \Rightarrow \tau_b \downarrow$  مواد فرسایش یافته روی سیل بالادست دune بهی  
 تم‌نشت می‌کنند.

1-D <sup>کدھدی</sup> = Continuity Equation for bed load sediment transport

تقدیر در کف : تقدیر در بار سویی (مضمون بار کف)



Loose bed → سست فرسائی

(loose) ہمارے دوست سے ملو (loose)

اصل بقای جسم در این نوعی برقرار است:

۹۵: بار رسوبی کف در واحد عرض

۵۵ معادله موسیقی / سون

$\Delta Z \rightarrow 0$  (No change in bed)  $\Rightarrow q_{S_1} = q_{S_2}$

if sediment transport :  $\left| \begin{array}{l} \text{assuming linearization} \\ \Delta x \text{ is so small} \end{array} \right.$

$$q_{s2} = q_{s1} + \frac{\partial q_s}{\partial x} \Delta x$$

$$\Delta q_s = \frac{\partial q_s}{\partial x} \Delta x \quad \text{is Rate of sediment load btw. 1 and 2}$$

دو معادله از نظر فیزیکی برای تغییر در کف ممکن است (2 alternate equation)

①: وثقی فرساستی اتفاق بیفتد:

$$\frac{\Delta \psi_s}{\Delta t} = - \frac{\partial q_s}{\partial x} \Delta x = \Delta q_s \quad (q_{s2} > q_{s1} \Leftrightarrow \psi_{s1} > \psi_{s2})$$

۷ : جمع ذرات رسوبی

در انفراسا سبز ۵۰ کم می شود.

سُتِ كَاهِسُ نَعَمِ، سَوْبِي دَر نَعَمِ كُنْتَرَل (2 → 1) دَر وَا حَرِ عَرَضِ

II) وقتی رسو نگزاری صورت گیرد:

$$\frac{\Delta V_s}{\Delta t} = \gamma \frac{\partial z}{\partial t} \Delta z \rightarrow \text{تغییر حجم ستر}$$

سُورَةُ اَنْزِلَتْ فِي رَجَبٍ رِسُوْلَاتِ رَجَعَمَ كَثْرَتِ (رواه عن)

$$(1 - \eta) = \text{Porosity} = P = \frac{\text{Grain volume}}{\text{Total bed volume}}$$

در یک حجم کنترل: فرسایش = رسوبگذاری (اصل بقای جرم)  
(معنی تغییر در کف فرسایش با رسوب)

معادله (۱) معادله ۱۵ پیوستگی رسوب کف (Exner Eq (1931))  

$$\frac{\partial q_s}{\partial x} + \gamma \frac{\partial z}{\partial t} = 0$$

$$q_s: \text{بار رسوبی کف، حجمی است (m}^3/\text{s)}$$

برای سترتایت: معادلات جریان (پیوستگی + مومنم): معادلات (سنت-وانت)

برای سترتایت: معادله پیوستگی رسوب (Exner Eq) نیاز به معادله بار رسوبی ( $q_s$ ) دارد.

اشکال: خصوصیات جریان در فرسایش فوق سینت. معادله پیوستگی رسوب به معادله پیوستگی جریان نیاز دارد.

نکته مهم: رابطه  $q_s$  با خصوصیات جریان

Exner (1931)  $q_s \propto V$  (2)

$V$ : سرعت متوسط محلی  
(در واحد عرض حل می کنیم)

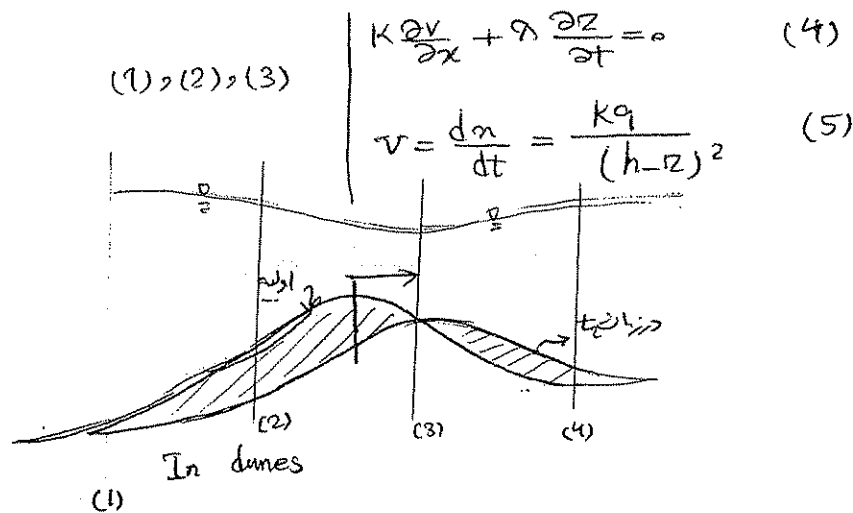
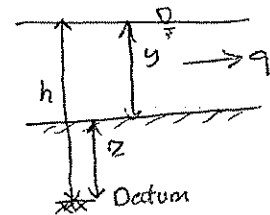
For non-cohesive bed material

$q = f(V)$

در واحد عرض جریان آب

$q = Vy = V(h-z)$

$q = V(h-z)$  (3)



U/s side of the Dune (Btw 1 and 2)  $z \uparrow \rightarrow (h-z) \downarrow \xrightarrow{\text{Eq (5)}} V \uparrow$   
 out of phase  
 y = سطح آب

$q_s \propto V$  (Eq. 2)  $q_s \uparrow \Rightarrow \frac{\partial q_s}{\partial x} = +ve$  (positive) زیاد می شود  
 در جهت پائین دست  $q_s$  زیاد می شود

From Eq. (1) :  $\frac{\partial \eta_s}{\partial x} + \eta \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} < 0$

با گذشت زمان سطح بستر در حد فاصل مقطع (1) و (2) (U/s side) پایین می آید (فرضاً سطح بالا رفته)

D/s side of the Dune (Btw. (3) and (4))

$\eta \downarrow \rightarrow (h-z) \uparrow \rightarrow v \downarrow \rightarrow \eta_s \downarrow \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \eta_s}{\partial x} = -ve$  (negative)

From Eq. (1)  $\Rightarrow \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} > 0$

سطح بستر D/s با گذشت زمان بالا می آید ← رسوبگذاری ← جابجایی Dune سمت پایین رفته.

→ move U/s ثابت کنه Antidunes ←

الف) تقسیم بندی فرم بستر بر اساس شرایط جریان :

Sand - bed در رودخانه های

فرم بستر از نظر هندسی بسته گروه جریان تقسیم می شود.

1) Lower flow regime ( $Fr < 1$ )

2) Transition zone

3) Upper flow regime ( $Fr > 1$ )

مشخصات در کف ضمیمه ارائه شده است.

در مجاری بسترشنی: عموماً بستر تخت است (plane bed)

در مجاری بستر درشت دانه تر: بستر ناهموار | بستر اصلی جریان بصورت تخت در بستر خراش و بارهای رسوبی وجود دارند

عامل اصلی تفاوت با بستر ماسه ای تشکیل لایه سطحی بستر (درشت تر، صاف تر و مقاوم تر)

ب: پیش بینی فرم بستر : (prediction of bed form)

یک روش تحلیلی جامع برای پیش بینی شرایط وقوع و خصوصیات هندسی کف و هندسه رودکی جریان فرم بستر و تابلوی مقاومت جریان و صورت زارر. بیشتر نتایج تجربی یا تجربی-تحلیلی است.

# FLOW REGIMES

- Lower flow regime: (Sub Critical Flow)  $F_r < 1$ 
  - \* Ripples, dunes with ripples superimposed, dunes
- Transition:
  - \* Dunes > plane bed and standing waves (Washed-out dunes)
- Upper flow regime: (Super Critical flow)  $F_r > 1$ 
  - \* Plane bed, antidunes, chutes and pools

HR Wallingford

## BED FORM CLASSIFICATION

Flow Regime	Bed Form	Bed Material Concn. (ppm)	Mode of Sediment Transport	Type of Roughness	Phase Relation Between Bed and Water Surface
Lower Regime $F_r < 1$	Ripples Ripples on dunes Dunes	10-200 100-1,200 200-3,000	Discrete steps	Form roughness predominates	Out of phase
Transition Zone	Washed out dunes	1,000-3,000		Variable	
Upper Regime $F_r > 1$	Plane beds Antidunes Chutes and pools	2,000-6,000 Above 2,000 Above 2,000	Continuous	Grain roughness predominates	In phase

HR Wallingford

Bed Resistance =  $F$  (Grain Roughness, Bed Form)

تقاربت جریان در بستر

زیرینت ناشی از سازه بستر

شکل ضد سازه  
Form Roughness

(۲۰۴)

مقاومت جریان و خوردن را در بستری نایب و دریا قوی تحلیل است.

روشهای موجود:

ب-۱) روش (Simons and Richardson (1966)

- برای فلوهای آزمائشی رودخانه های کوچک

- صجاری سترماسه ای (Sand-Bed)

فرم ستر بصورت تابعی از  $\left. \begin{array}{l} \tau_{0V} \\ D_{50} \end{array} \right\}$  Stream power / unit of area

Fig. (3.6)

P.66

Yang (1996)

نتایج درکی همینه هیدرولیک رسوب ۱۶۱-۱۵۴ - شکل (۵-۳) ۱۵۶ یا  
نتیجه: در رودخانه های سترشی فرم Dune ظاهر می شود. (Dune نرم)  $\Rightarrow D_{50} > 1.2 \text{ mm}$

ب-۲) روش (Athallah (1968) (اقتصادی آگستنی) ۱۵۶ - شکل (۵-۴) هیدرولیک رسوب [

بر حسب  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Froude No. : Fr} \\ \frac{R}{D_{50}} = \frac{v}{D_{50}} \text{ relative roughness} \end{array} \right.$  نتایج تجربی درکی همینه

- برای رودخانه های طبیعی ارزیابی نشده است.

ب-۳) Englund and Hansen (1966)

- بر اساس آزمائش فلو

بر حسب  $\left[ \begin{array}{l} Fr \\ \frac{v}{v_*} \end{array} \right]$  نوع ستری

کی همینه Fig. (3.5) - Yang (1986)  
P.65

انواع دیگر رسوبات و شرایط کار بردی آنها  $\Rightarrow$  Table 3.5 - P.67 از کتاب Yang (بررسی شود)



— براساس آزمایش در قلم و مبر (رودخانه)

— نظری ستراسه ای

— با فرض: فرم بستر توسط bed load شکل می گیرد (فرم بستی)

$$\tau_b = F(T, D_*)$$

↑  
معمولاً جریان  
↓  
معمولاً مواد بستی  
↓  
بار رسوبی کف

$$T = \frac{\tau_b - \tau_c}{\tau_c}$$

بار مترششی برشی بدون به  
(Transport stage parameter)

— براساس

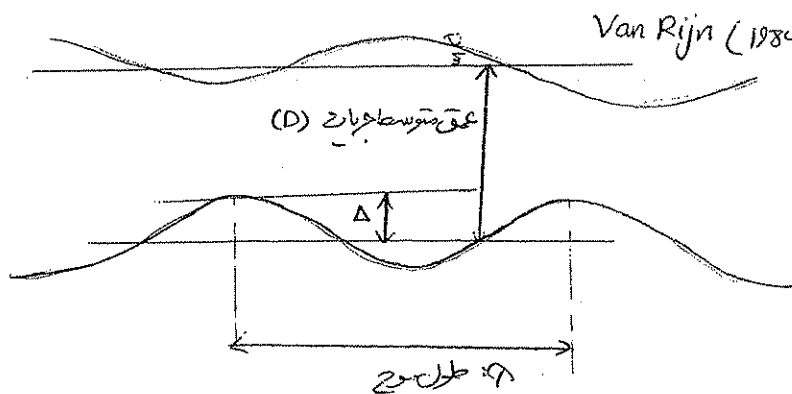
$$D_* = f(D_{50})$$

شاخص اندازه مواد بستی - بدون به

نوع بستر بصورت Dune در کپی صفحه تعیین می شود

ج: ابعاد هندسی فرم بستی (bed form dimensions)

اطلاعات موجود:



Van Rijn (1984) ← برای مطابقت ابعاد Dune

فرض: فرم بستی Dune بصورت

سینوسی است.

Δ: ارتفاع فرم بستر (متوسط)

λ: طول موج فرم بستر

D: عمق متوسط جریان

برای جاری ستراسه ای (Sand Bed) و (Lower flow regime) که Dunes تشکیل می شود، معادلات و نتایج کوفندک در کپی صفحه است.

محدودیت معادلات (۷، ۸) در کپی صفحه:

—  $0 < T < 25$  (حرکت مواد بستی)  $\Leftrightarrow T > 0$

—  $T = 0 \Rightarrow \tau_b = \tau_c$  آستانه حرکت بستر

—  $T = 25$  حد بالایی طایفه برای حضور Dune در بستر

—  $T > 25$  Dunes منتهی می شوند.

حدکشی برای حفور Dune در ستر ماسه ای  $\lambda = 7.3D$  رابطه ۹: با مقیاس ۸ و ۷۸

— برای ایجاد Antidunes Kennedy (1963)

کپی ضمیمه:  $\lambda = 2\pi \frac{v^2}{2g}$  بر اساس فرم سینوسی ستر

$\frac{\Delta}{\lambda} \approx 0.14$  : در حد بالایی (آستانه تبدیل Antidunes به Chute and pool)

### د: مقاومت جریان در مجاری طبیعی

(Hydraulic Resistance of Alluvial channels)

هدف: تعیین ضریب هدیرولیکی (مخوق، عرض سطح آب، سرعت و ...) در ارتباط با اصول، معادلات و پارامترهای مقاومت

جریان

Flow Resistance = f

1) Grain Roughness / Skin Roughness / Roughness	تابعی از اندازه مواد ستری و زبری کف ستر
2) Bed form / form Roughness	شکل و فرم ستر

(نکته مهم) کاربرد معادلات Manning و Chezy و روابط نظری رابطه Strickler برای تعیین ضریب زبری (n)

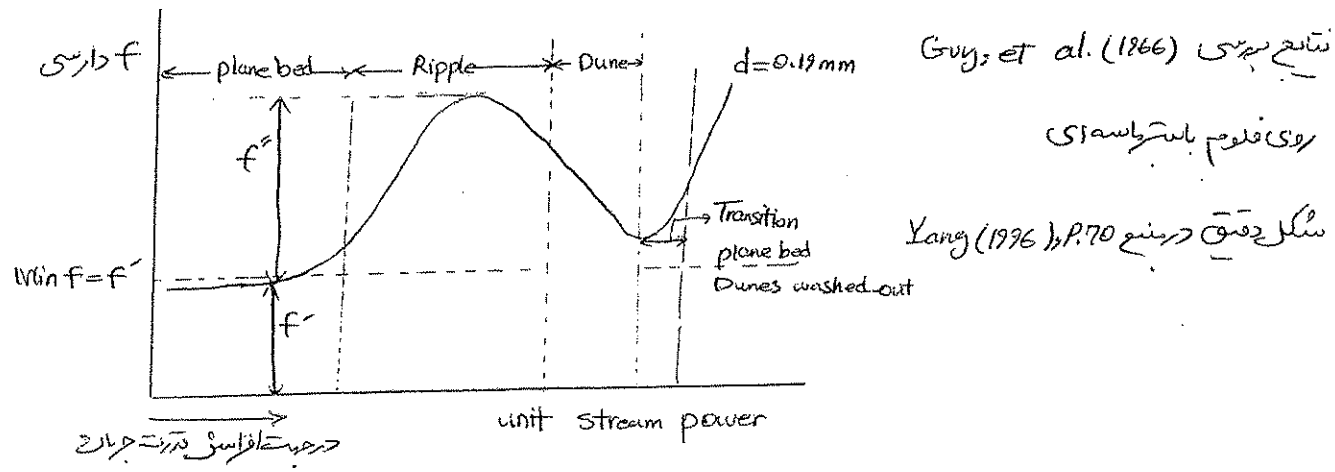
لصورت  $n \propto D^{1/6}$  (این رابطه نیز اساساً برای ستری و در ستر است که فرمهای ستری گفته شده را ندارد)

بر اساس فرم ستری «plane bed» است. (فرم ستری خاصی ندارد) که مقاومت هدیرولیکی ستر ناشی از زبری کف

Grain Roughness است.

در رودخانه های طبیعی، اکثر معادلات مقاومت جریان بر اساس نوع و ابعاد فرم ستر است.

(مقدمه: اگر شاهد مقاومت جریان را با تئور زبری  $n$  یا  $f$  در نظر بگیریم:



از نتایج اندازه گیری مستقیم در قلم برای جریان تکینو اکت میسر:

$$f = \frac{8 \theta R A^2 S}{Q^2} \quad \text{و} \quad n = \frac{A R^{2/3} S^{1/2}}{Q}$$

در همین جریان نیز فرم بستر مشاهده می شود

$$f = f' + f''$$

$f'$ : due to grain roughness  
 $f''$ : due to form roughness

نیمه تاثیر مقاومت یا زبری ناشی از فرم بستر (form roughness) را نمی توان در نظر گرفت.

Using Manning's roughness coeff.

$$n = n' + n'' : \text{Total roughness} \quad n': \text{due to grain roughness} = a D^{1/6}$$

یا اطلاعات تجربی دیگر یا مقادیری که توسط شری Van Rijn ارائه شده است

به سادگی قابل تعیین نمی باشد.  $n''$

بر روش Lovera - Kennedy و برای ارزیابی  $f = f' + f''$  در کتاب Yang (1996) PP. 79-80  
 Alan - Kennedy مراجعه شود

= تنش برشی - شاخص مقاومت جریان

$$\tau = \tau' + \tau'' = \gamma S (R' + R'')$$

(grain) (form)  $\downarrow$  سیستم سازه

$$U_* = (U_{*'}^2 + U_{*''}^2)^{1/2}$$

$\tau'$ : تنش مربوط به سطح تخت و زبر  
 $\tau''$ : تنش مربوط به فرم بستر

$R'$  و  $R''$ : شعاع هیدرولیکی متناظر برای  $\tau'$  و  $\tau''$  (هنر سه مقطع)

از نظر فیزیکی  $R = R' + R'' = A/p$  ، از نظر فیزیکی  $R'$  و  $R''$  اطلاعات موجود نیستند.

برای تعیین مقاومت جریان در رودخانه وجود دارد:

$$1- \text{ تفکیک بین } n' \text{ و } n'' \text{ یا } \tau' \text{ و } \tau'' \text{ به } \tau = \tau' + \tau''$$

۲- تفکیک می کنند.  $\tau$  یا  $n$  را ارزیابی می کنند. (مسئله برآورد  $n''$  یا  $\tau''$  دارند):  $\tau$  بصورت فرآیندی از زیر و فرم ستی مطرح می شود.

نتیجه: روش های مختلف:

۱- روش تفکیکی: Hans Albert Einstein's approach (1950) (سرانول انرژید اول آبرت استین)

Ref. Yang (1966), PP. 71-75

a) Resistance due to grains: معادل شرایط سترتخت و بازری ستر:

$$\frac{V}{U_*} = 5.75 \log \left( 12.27 \frac{R'}{d_{65}} \right) \quad \text{از استرال معادله توزیع سرعت در عمق بسته می آید}$$

معادله ① مربوط به plane bed هست.

$$\Rightarrow \tau' \text{ یا } U_*' \quad \text{where: } \alpha = f(d_{65}, \delta) \rightarrow \text{Fig. 3.9}$$

اما با  $R'$  مشکل داریم

Yang (1966), P. 71

$$\delta = \frac{11.6 \nu}{U_*'} \quad \text{ضخامت لایه مرزی (تئوریک)}$$

b) Resistance due to bed form:

حالت  $\tau'$  را بر حسب  $\tau''$  ارزیابی می کنند

$$\frac{V}{U_*'} = \phi(\psi')$$

$$\text{where } \psi' = (S_g - 1) \frac{d_{35}}{S_o R'}$$

$R'$ : Hyd. rad. 's due to grain roughness

$S_o$ : مسیب کف

$R'$ : شعاع هیدرودینامیکی مربوط به

Grain rough.  $\hookrightarrow$  plane bed

حل جامع Fig. (3.10) - Yang (1966)  
P. 72

Example: 3.1, 3.2

$f = f' + f''$  و سپس  $f'$  و  $f''$  برای محاسبه  $f$  PP. 79-80

همچنین روش های  
Lovera - Kennedy  
Alan - Kennedy (1969)

مناسب برای Sand-bed channels (برای سترشی و در ستهای مناسب سته)

$$V = V_*' \left[ 2.5 \ln \left( \frac{R'}{2.5 D_{65}} x \right) \right]$$

↓  
سرعت متوسط

$$\tau = \tau' + \tau''$$

$$\tau_* = \tau_*' + \tau_*''$$

نصرت پرونده

$$\text{where: } \tau_* = \frac{\tau}{(\gamma_s - \gamma) D} = \frac{RS}{(S_g - 1) D}$$

مشابه  $F_s$  در دایگرام Shields

$$\tau = f(\tau')$$

رابطه بینشال

$$R = f(R')$$

رابطه بینشال

$$\tau_* = \frac{RS}{(S_g - 1) D_{35}}$$

$$\tau_*' = \frac{R'S}{(S_g - 1) D_{35}}$$

$$\tau_*'' = f(Fr, D_{35})$$

(نوع فرمستری و  $D_{35}$ )

مسئله برگردان به وجود دارد.

روش حل: رابطه تجربی بین  $\tau_*$  و  $\tau_*'$

(Yang 1996, Fig. 3.11), pp. 75-79

مطابق Fig. 3.11:

a) For lower flow regime (Ripple/Dune)

$$\text{with } \tau_*' < 0.55 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \tau_* = 0.06 + 0.4 \tau_*'^2 \\ \tau_* \propto \tau_*' \end{cases}$$

b) For Transition flow regime (washed out Dunes)

$$\text{where } 0.55 < \tau_*' < 1 \Rightarrow \tau_* = \tau_*'$$

Transition bed form تأثیری ندارد  
(plane bed)

منحنی خطی با زاویه 45° است.

c) For upper flow regime:

$$\text{if } \tau_*' > 1 \quad (\text{Braunlie 1983}) \quad \tau_* = (1.425 \tau_*'^{-1.8} - 0.425)^{-0.555}$$

در عمل، رودخانه‌ها و کانالها، معمولاً lower flow regime است.

مثال: روش مناسب برای مناسب رابط دبی-اسل در رودخانه‌های Sand bed

۳- روش Richardson and Simons (1967)

PP. 77-82 کتاب Yang (1996) برای فرمهای دیگری مختلف در ستراسهای

۴- روش Yang (1976)

PP. 82-84 در کتاب Yang (1996) و مثال P. 84 خواننده شود. (که برای مناسب  $n$  است بدون نیاز

به نوع فرم ستری و برای هر دو شرایط جریان آب صاف و یا جریان با بار رسوبی. فرضیه: برای شرایط با برابر

(min. stream power) ، رابط محقق دبی و بار رسوبی و در نتیجه ضربه مانینگ کل را می دهیم.

$$\eta = \frac{R^{2/3} S^{1/2}}{v} \quad (SI)$$

۵- روش Brownlie (1983)

کتاب هیدرولیک رسوب ص ۱۹۰-۱۸۴

— براساس آنالیز ابعادی آزمایشات تجربی

— شرایط کاربردی

Sandy rivers

$$D_{50} = (0.88 - 2.8) \text{ mm}$$

$$S_0 = 3 \times 10^{-6} - 3.7 \times 10^{-2}$$

$$R = (0.027 - 17) \text{ m}$$

$$q = 0.012 \text{ m}^3/\text{sec}/\text{m} - 40 \text{ m}^3/\text{sec}/\text{m}$$

$R$  واقعی یا  $R$  که

$$\frac{R_s}{D} = (S_0 - 1) \tau_0 = F\left(\frac{q}{(\rho D^3)^{1/2}}, S_0, \sigma_g\right) \quad \sigma_g = \sqrt{\frac{D_{84}}{D_{16}}} \quad \text{انحراف معیار دشتی}$$

a) For Lower Flow regime:

$$R = 0.3724 D_{50} q_*^{0.6539} S^{-0.2542} \sigma_g^{0.1050} \quad (SI)$$

$$q_* = \frac{q}{(\rho D_{50}^3)^{1/2}} \quad \text{دبی واحد عرض بدون بعد}$$

b) For Upper flow regime:

$$R = 0.2836 D_{50}^{0.6248} S^{-0.2877} \sigma_s^{0.08013}$$

با محاسب R برای شکل معین، عمق جریان محاسب می شود.

$$\text{Type of flow regime} = F \left\{ \begin{array}{l} F_0 = \frac{V}{((s_g - 1) g D_{50})^{1/2}} \\ \frac{D_{50}}{\delta} \end{array} \right.$$

معین نوع جریان؟  
معین نوع جریان؟

باتوجه به شکل (۵-۱۱) کتاب هم رولند، روبرو ۱۹۰-۱۸۴

(البته از مشخص نوع جریان در کانال یا رودخانه (زیر بحرانی یا فوق بحرانی) نیز می توان flow regime را مشخص کرد)

۶- روش Van Rijn (۱۹۸۴) برای Sand bed channels

— براساس جریان در شرایط lower regime و Transition است.

— همبستگی بین  $\tau_b$  و  $\tau_c$  در صورت مستقیم

— براساس دو پارامتر بدون بعد

$$D_{gr} = D_{50} \left[ \frac{(s_g - 1) g}{\nu^2} \right]^{1/3}$$

مقادیر بحرانی  
مقادیر بحرانی

$$\tau_b = \tau_c$$

$$T_s = \frac{\tau_b - \tau_c}{\tau_c} \quad \text{where} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \tau_c = \rho [\theta_{cr} \cdot (s_g - 1) g D_{50}] \\ \theta_{cr} = f(D_{gr}) \end{array} \right.$$

رابطه Van Rijn برای  $\tau_c$

$$\tau_b = \rho \nu_*'^2 \quad \text{bed shear stress related to grain roughness.}$$

(براساس سترتخته)

$$\nu_*' = \frac{\sqrt{g} U}{C'} \quad (\text{براساس معادله اصلاح شده Chézy})$$

همان غریب شری مربوط به سخت می باشد.

$$C' = 18 \log \left( \frac{12R}{K_s} \right)$$

ضریب C مربوط به زبری ستر

کم بصورت تابعی از منظم ستیری و زبری ستر ارائه کرده است.

where  $K_s = 0.003 D_{90} + 1.1 \Delta (1 - e^{25 \psi_s})$

d: عمق آب

$$\psi_s = 0.1364 \frac{\Delta}{d}$$

$\Delta$ : ارتفاع dunes که از روش Van Rijn برست می آید.

if  $\left| \begin{array}{l} T_s < 0 \\ \vdots \\ T_s > 25 \end{array} \right.$

$$\Rightarrow T_b = T'_b$$

یعنی  $T_s < 0$  حرکت ستیری نزار (plane bed)  $T_s > 25$

فرم ستیری نزار (مثلاً اثر dune دانسیتم به سمت

$D/s$  حرکت می کرد)

حالی که dune ها سست می شوند و ستر تحت می شود.

$$T_b = \rho U_*^2 = \rho g R S \Rightarrow S = \frac{U_*^2}{g R}$$

منبع: J. Hyd. Eng. ASCE, 1984 Part C

خبریات روش در منبع Fisher (1996) آمده است.

۷- روش White, Paris and Bettles (1980)

منبع Fisher (1995), PP. 42-48

در این روش:

— از رابطه بار ستیری (bed load) ارائه شده توسط Ackers and White (1973-1990)

استفاده کرده است. (فرضیه: فرم ستیری در اثر بار کف بوجرد می آید)

—  $F_{10}(q)$  مراجعه شود.

— روش حل در PP. 45-46 ارائه شده است.

— مثال حل شده دارد (P. 47) رابطه دبی اسل

این روش برای  $D_{90} \geq 60$  مناسب است

(فنی در ست دان)



Yalin (1964):

$$\frac{h}{H} = \frac{1}{6} \left( 1 - \frac{\tau_c}{\tau} \right) \text{ and } L = 5H \text{ where } \tau_c = \text{critical shear stress for } D_{50}; \text{ and } \tau = \text{bed shear stress}$$

Ranga Raju &amp; Soni (1976):

$$\frac{h}{D_{50}} F_1^3 F_2 = 6.5 \times 10^3 (\tau'_*)^8 \text{ where } F_1 = \frac{V'}{\sqrt{gR_b}}; F_2 = \frac{V'}{\sqrt{\frac{\gamma_s - \gamma}{\rho} D_{50}}}; \tau'_* = \text{dimensionless}$$

bed shear stress due to grain roughness

Allen (1978):

$$\frac{h}{d} = 0.08 + 2.24 \left( \frac{\theta}{3} \right) - 18.13 \left( \frac{\theta}{3} \right)^2 + 70.9 \left( \frac{\theta}{3} \right)^3 - 88.33 \left( \frac{\theta}{3} \right)^4 \text{ where } \theta = \text{dimensionless bed shear stress (Shields parameter)}$$

Van Rijn (1984):

$$\frac{h}{H} = 0.11 \left( \frac{D_{50}}{H} \right)^{0.3} (1 - e^{-0.5T}) (25 - T) \text{ and } L = 7.3H \text{ where } T = \frac{(u'_*)^2 - (u_{*cr})^2}{(u_{*cr})^2}; T = \text{transport stage parameter}; u'_* = \text{bed shear velocity related to grains}; u_{*cr} = \text{critical bed shear velocity}$$

Kennedy &amp; Odgaard (1990):

$$\frac{h}{d} = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \frac{1.2 \lambda \alpha f_0}{8C_D} + \left[ \left( \frac{1.2 \lambda \alpha f_0}{8C_D} \right)^2 + \frac{2\pi F^2 f_0}{C_D C_1} \left( \frac{f}{f_0} - \frac{1.2 \lambda}{2} \right) \right]^{0.5} \right\} \text{ where } f_0, f = \text{grain and total}$$

Darcy-Weisbach friction factor; F=froude number; and  $C_1 = 0.25, C_D = 1.0, \alpha = 5, \lambda = 1.0$ 

Julien &amp; Klassen (1995):

$$\frac{h}{H} = \xi \left( \frac{D_{50}}{H} \right)^{0.3} \text{ and } L = 6.25H \text{ where } 0.8 < \xi < 8 \text{ and } \xi_{avr} = 2.5$$

Karim (1995):

$$\frac{h}{H} = -0.04 + 0.294 \left( \frac{u_*}{\omega} \right) + 0.00316 \left( \frac{u_*}{\omega} \right)^2 - 0.0319 \left( \frac{u_*}{\omega} \right)^3 + 0.00272 \left( \frac{u_*}{\omega} \right)^4 \text{ where } u_* = \text{bed shear velocity; and } \omega = \text{particle fall velocity for } D_{50}$$

Karim (1999):

$$\frac{h}{H} = \frac{\left( S - f' \frac{F^2}{8} \right) \frac{L}{H}}{KF^2 C_1} \text{ where } K = 0.55 \left( \frac{h}{H} \right)^{0.375} \left( \frac{L}{H} \right)^{-0.2}; f' = 0.135 \left( \frac{D_{50}}{H} \right)^{0.33}; C_1 = 0.85;$$

$$\frac{L}{H} = 6.25; S = \text{energy slope gradient; and } F = \text{froude number}$$

Fredsoe (1975):

$$\frac{h}{H} = 0.119 \left( \frac{L}{H} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{0.06}{\theta} - 0.4\theta \right)^2 \text{ where } \theta = \text{dimensionless bed shear stress (Shields)}$$



Table 5.1. Particle size classification according to British Standards.

British Standards	
Clay	< 2 $\mu\text{m}$
Fine silt	2 - 6 $\mu\text{m}$
Medium silt	6 - 20 $\mu\text{m}$
Coarse silt	20 - 60 $\mu\text{m}$
Fine sand	60 - 200 $\mu\text{m}$
Medium sand	200 - 600 $\mu\text{m}$
Coarse sand	600 $\mu\text{m}$ - 2mm
Fine gravel	2 mm - 6 mm
Medium gravel	6mm - 20 mm
Coarse gravel	20 mm - 60 mm
Cobbles	60 mm - 200 mm

- sediment transport measurements (Section 5.5)
- bottom grab and bottom sampling (Section 5.6)
- grain-sizes (Section 5.7)
- intake structures on a meandering river (Section 5.8)
- International Standards (Section 5.9)

## 5.2 SEDIMENT YIELD

Sediments can be divided into two groups: cohesive and non-cohesive. Clays, the finest sediments, belong to the first group; sand and coarser sediments to the second. The distinction is usually made by particle size, as shown in Table 5.1.

The erosion products of a catchment area are washed over the fields and through stream channels to the river whereby they eventually leave the catchment area.

The total sediment outflow from a catchment area passing a control station at the outlet of that catchment area is called the *sediment yield*. It can either be expressed in tons per year, or in  $\text{m}^3$  per square kilometre per year. The latter designation is the average denudation or degradation speed of the catchment area.

Table 5.2 shows some water and sediment characteristics of ten rivers. The figures are very approximate; different sources may give a variation of up to factor 2 in sediment yield. The denudation speed in  $\text{mm}/\text{year}$  is calculated from the figures tons/year, assuming a density of  $1400 \text{ kg}/\text{m}^3$ .

The denudation speed is lowest in flat, overgrown areas with temperate or cold climates, and in deserts where there is no water to transport erosion products. Table 5.2 shows that the denudation speed of the catchment area of the Rhine is in the order of one mm per thousand

Table 5.2. Water discharge and sediment transport of ten rivers.

River	Catchment area $10^6 \text{ km}^2$	Water discharge		Sediment transport		Sediment as ppm mg/l
		$\text{m}^3/\text{s}$	$\text{mm}^3/\text{year}$	$10^6 \text{ ton-}/\text{year}$	$\text{mm-}/\text{year}$	
Congo	3.7	44000	370	70	0.015	50
Nile	2.9	3000	30	80	0.015	630
Volga	1.5	8400	180	25	0.010	100
Niger	1.1	5700	160	40	0.025	220
Ganges	1.0	14000	440	1300	1.000	3600
Orinoco	0.95	25000	830	90	0.065	220
Mekong	0.80	15000	590	80	0.070	170
Hwang Ho	0.77	4000	160	1900	1.750	15000
Rhine	0.36	2200	190	0.72	0.001	10
Chao Phya	0.16	960	190	11	0.050	350

years. At the other end of the scale the Ganges and Hwang Ho have over one mm per year. The latter rivers carry the erosion products of a catchment area with a strong relief covered with fine, erodible material.

Whilst the denudation speed describes the overall erosion of the catchment area, the river engineer is usually more interested in the total amount of solids and in the sediment yield as a function of the water discharge.

Table 5.2 shows examples of these and it is evident that the Hwang Ho emerges as the muddiest river in the world in terms of total sediment yield as well as sediment per unit of water discharge. Rivers with small amounts of sediment (less than 100 ppm) are generally those in areas of temperate climates or with mild slopes.

## 5.3 BED FORMS

It is the general experience that the flow of two media alongside each other will cause waves: air-water, air-sand, water-sand, etc.

For the flow of water over a sandy bed, the following bed forms are classified:

- sub-critical flow,  $Fr < 1$  (lower flow regime)  
*flat bed*. At values of the velocity about equal to the critical velocity, sediment transport without bed forms is possible.
- *ripples*. For sediment sizes  $D < 600 \mu\text{m}$ , ripples with lengths of 5 - 10 cm and heights of about 1 cm will develop with increasing shear stress. Ripples are quite irregular and three-dimensional of nature. Figure 5.1 shows a ripple bed.



Figure 5.1. Ripples.

*dunes*. For all sediment sizes and increasing shear stress, dunes are developed. Dunes have a more two-dimensional character and are longer and higher than ripples.

- critical and supercritical flow (upper flow regime,  $Fr \geq 1$ ) *plane bed*, *washed out dunes*. If the velocity further increases, the dunes will be washed away; the bed becomes flat again. Sediment transport rates are high.
- *antidunes*. Further increasing velocity gives a bed form called antidunes. They travel in upstream direction. The water surface is unstable and in phase with the bed forms.
- *chutes and pools*. At still higher velocities chutes and pools are formed.

For fine sands the transition forms between lower regime and upper regime takes places at Froude values  $Fr < 1$ .

Ripples and dunes both travel in downstream direction.

During floods the bed forms will change.

Figure 5.2 illustrates different bed forms in the River Rhine at Lobith (Germany – the Netherlands border) during the floods of January 1995. The top of the floodwave occurred on 31 January 1995 with a discharge  $Q = 12,100 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  (once per 80 years) at a water level NAP +16.68 m. The bed forms have been measured using an echosounder, taking longitudinal profiles.

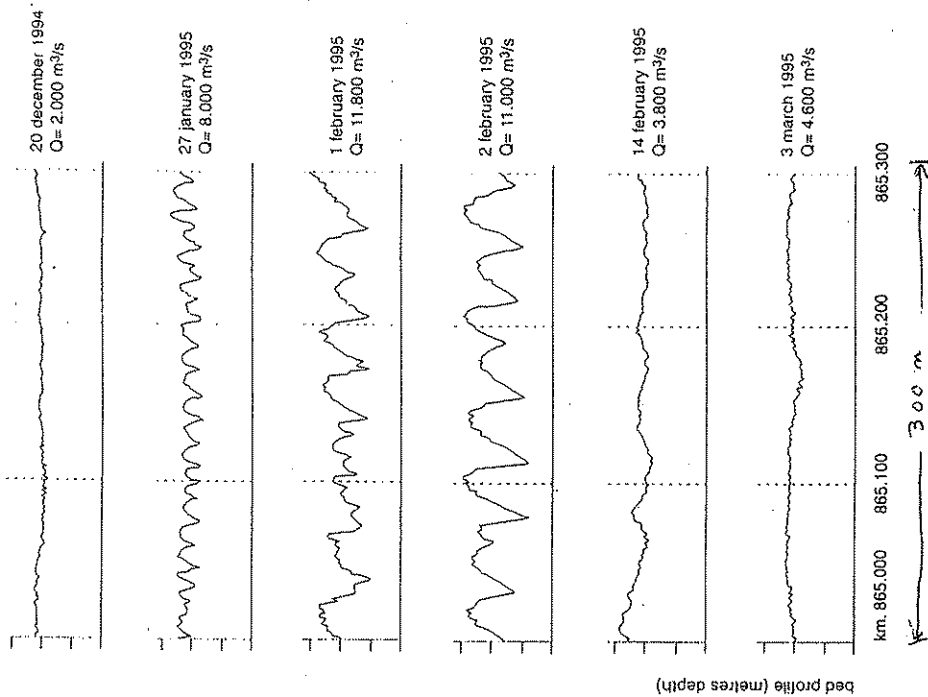


Figure 5.2. Changes in bed form during a flood on the River Rhine.

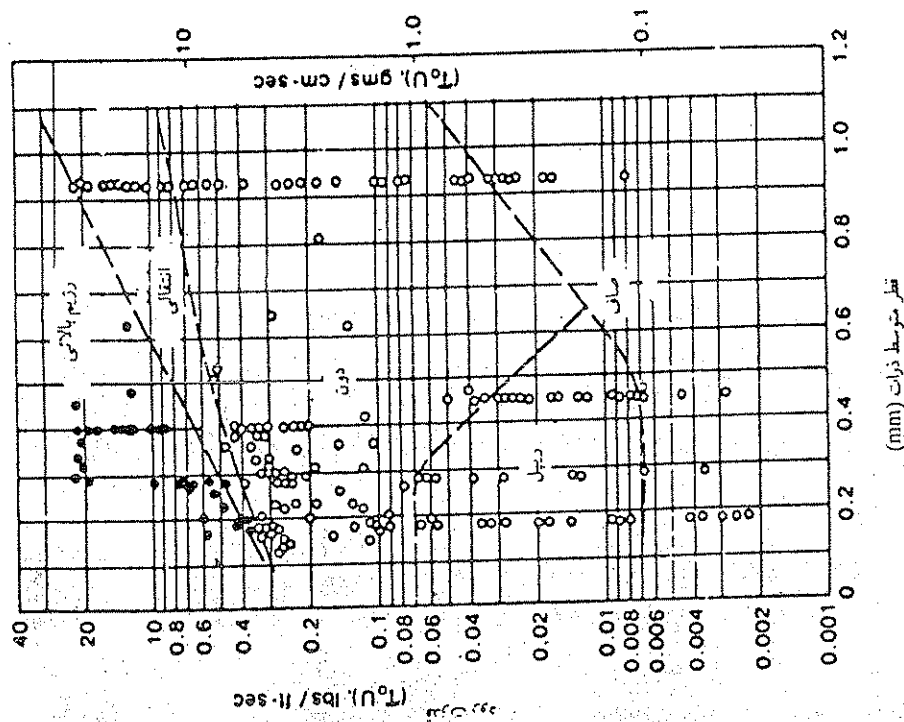
## 5.4 CLASSIFICATION OF SEDIMENT TRANSPORT

### 5.4.1 Introduction

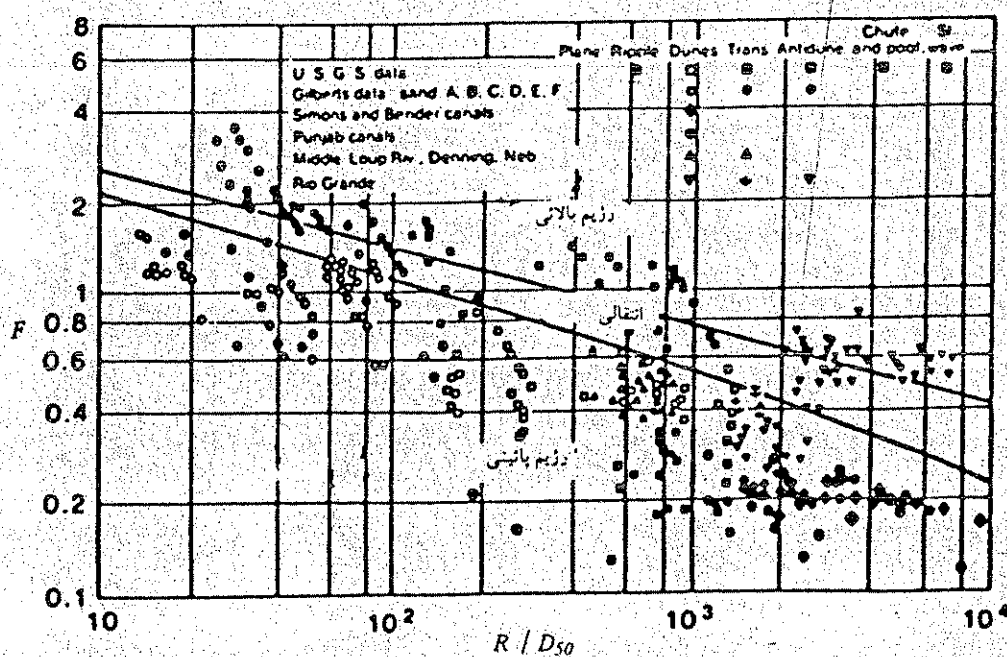
The sediment transport can be classified according to origin and mechanism as illustrated in Figure 5.3.

#### Definitions:

- bed material transport: transport of material which is found in that part of the riverbed that is affected by transport
- wash load: transport of material which is not found in the riverbed, and which is permanently in suspension.
- bed load: transport in almost continuous contact with the riverbed, carried forward by rolling, sliding or jumping



شکل ۵-۳ پیش بینی فرم بستر با روش سایمون و ریچاردسون  
( Simons and Richardson, 1967 )



شکل (۵-۴): پیش بینی فرم بستر بر مبنای عدد فرود و نسبت  $R/D_{50}$  (منبع: Athaullah, 1968)

(۲۱۸)

جریان پائین و انتقالی، فرم بستر ریل که فرض می‌شود و مستقل از عمق جریان می‌باشد در این روش در نظر گرفته نمی‌شود. فان رلین با استدلال آنالیز ابعادی، ارتفاع فرم بستر را به پارامترهای زیر ربط می‌دهد.

$$\frac{\Delta}{d} = F(D_{50}/d, D_{*}, T) \quad (5-5)$$

که در آن  $\Delta$  ارتفاع فرم بستر،  $d$  عمق جریان،  $D_{50}$  اندازه متوسط ذرات بستر،  $D_{*}$  پارامتر ذره (رابطه ۵-۱) و  $T$  پارامتر مقدار حرکت (رابطه ۵-۲) می‌باشد. شیب فرم بستر که عبارت است از نسبت ارتفاع فرم بستر به طول موج آن بصورت رابطه کلی زیر می‌باشد:

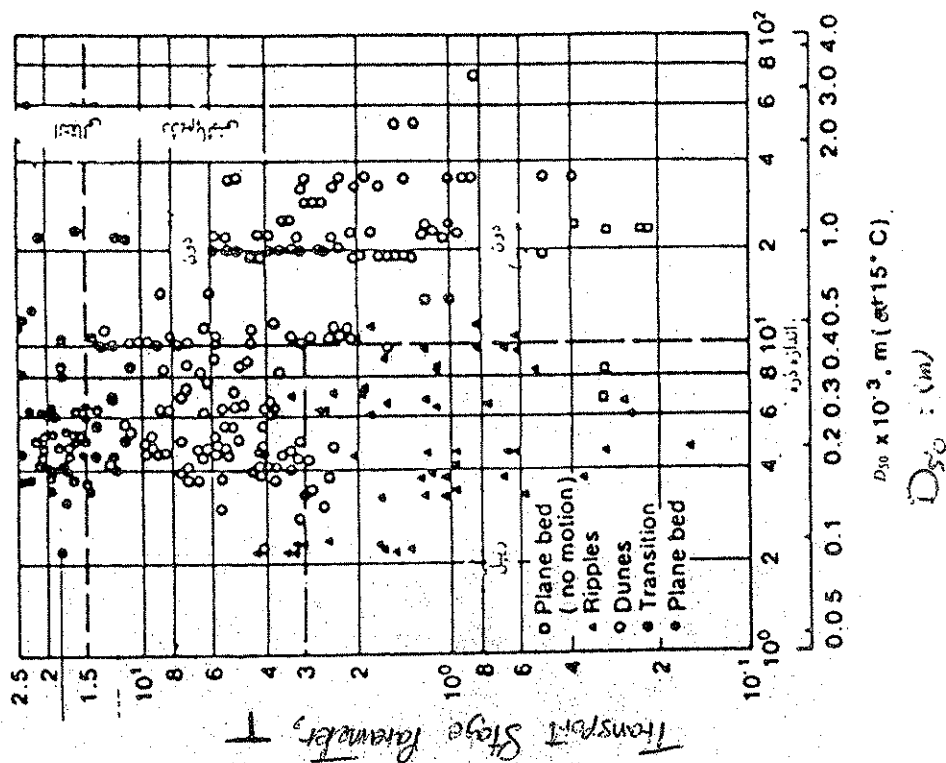
$$\frac{\Delta}{\lambda} = G(D_{50}/d, D_{*}, T) \quad (5-6)$$

که عبارت است از طول موج فرم بستر. اطلاعات بدست آمده در آزمایشگاه صحرا مورد استفاده قرار گرفت تا روابط خاصی برای ارتفاع و شیب فرم بستر بدست آید این روابط عبارتند از:

$$\frac{\Delta}{d} = 0.11 (D_{50}/d)^{0.3} (1 - e^{-0.5T}) (25 - T) \quad (5-7)$$

$$\frac{\Delta}{\lambda} = 0.015 (D_{50}/d)^{0.3} (1 - e^{-0.5T}) (25 - T) \quad (5-8)$$

شکل (۵-۶) روابط بالا را به انضمام اطلاعات بکار رفته، نشان می‌دهد. توجه شود که خط  $T=0$  نشان دهنده آستانه حرکت ذرات می‌باشد و برای  $T > 25$  دونه‌ها شسته می‌شوند.



شکل (۵-۵) - دیاگرام برای طبقه بندی فرم بستر در رژیم جریان پائینی و انتقالی (منبع Van Rijn, 1984)

where  $\gamma_s$  = specific weight of sediment,

$y$  = bed elevation,

$t$  = time,

$q_s$  = sediment discharge per unit channel width, and

$x$  = downstream distance.

Exner (1925) further assumed that

$$q_s = A_0 U_b \quad (3.22)$$

where  $A_0$  = constant and

$U_b$  = flow velocity near the bed.

From Eqs. (3.21) and (3.22),

$$\gamma_s \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} + A_0 \frac{\partial U_b}{\partial x} = 0 \quad (3.23)$$

Equation (3.23) can be solved once the initial and boundary conditions are given. An example of Exner's solution is shown in Fig. 3.4.

For irrotational and incompressible flow subject to the influence of gravity, the velocity component can be expressed as a function of the velocity potential, i.e.,

$$u = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x}, \quad v = -\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \quad (3.24)$$

where  $u$  and  $v$  = velocity components in the  $x$  and  $y$  directions, respectively, and

$\phi$  = velocity potential.

From Eq. (3.24), the continuity equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} = 0 \quad (3.25)$$

is satisfied. With proper initial and boundary conditions, the Laplace equation

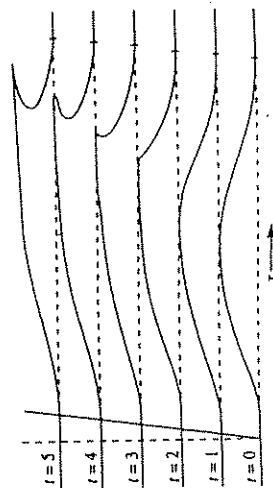


FIGURE 3.4  
Variation of bed forms as a function of time (Exner, 1925).

(3.25) can be solved. An example of this type of solution was given by Milne-Thomson (1960), and a more detailed discussion can be found in Graf (1971).

### 3.3.3. Empirical and Graphical Analyses

The theoretical approach stated in the previous section is limited to some simplified and idealized flow conditions. Their solutions cannot predict the variation of bed forms under actual flow and sediment conditions. Consequently, most predictions of bed forms are based on empirical or semiempirical analyses of laboratory flume data.

Engelund and Hansen (1966) studied the stability of bed forms in laboratory flumes, and plotted the results shown in Fig. 3.5. For a given set of hydraulic conditions, namely, Froude number  $F$ , average flow velocity  $V$ , and

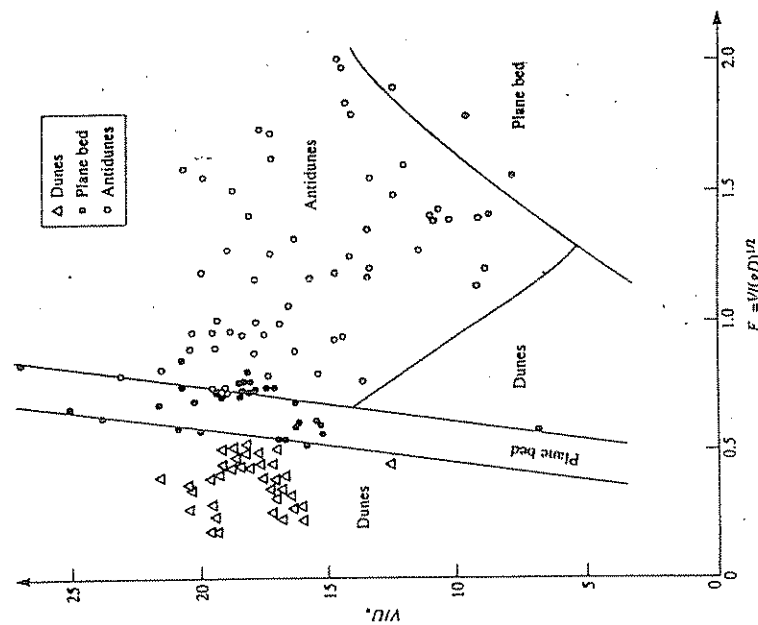


FIGURE 3.5  
Bed form classification based on stability analysis of laboratory data (Engelund and Hansen, 1966).

(۲۲۱)



#### (4) Bed Form Dimensions

Bed form dimensions are clearly of importance in determining the hydraulic roughness of the bed. Indeed, many flow resistance formulae are based on bed form dimensions. Large bed forms, such as dunes and antidunes, may have wave heights which are of the same order of magnitude as the flow depths. Accordingly, their dimensions affect navigation and the prediction of scour depths at bridge piers and abutments. It is usual to add one half of the bed form height to the computed scour depth when determining minimum bed elevations.

A number of methods for determining the magnitude of dunes has been presented in the literature. Van Rijn's method (11) is reasonably accurate and is described in the following as an example of the methods available. Van Rijn used dimensional analysis to produce the functional relationship

$$\frac{\Delta}{D} = f_1\left(\frac{d}{D}, d_*, T\right) \quad (2)$$

where  $\Delta$  is the bed form height,  
 $d$  is the median sediment size,  
 $D$  is the depth of flow,  
 $d_*$  is the dimensionless particle diameter, defined by Equation (3) below,  
 $T$  is the transport stage parameter, defined by Equation (4) below.

$$d_* = d \left( \frac{(\rho_s - \rho)g}{\rho v^2} \right)^{1/3} \quad (3)$$

where  $\rho_s$  is the mass density of sediment,  
 $\rho$  is the mass density of the fluid,  
 $v$  is the kinematic viscosity,  
 $g$  is the acceleration due to gravity

$$T = \frac{\tau'_0 - \tau_c}{\tau_c} \quad (4)$$

where  $\tau_c$  is the critical bed shear stress from Shields curve, as presented by Van Rijn (1984).  
 $\tau'_0$  is the bed shear stress related to grain roughness, computed from

$$\tau'_0 = \rho g \left( \frac{U}{18 \log(12R_b) / (3d_{90})} \right)^2 \quad (5)$$

where  $R_b$  is the hydraulic mean radius of the alluvial bed.

$U$  is the average velocity

Comparable to Equation (2), a functional relationship for the bed form steepness has been developed of the form

$$\frac{\Delta}{\lambda} = f_1\left(\frac{d}{D}, d., T\right) \quad (6)$$

where  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of the bed form.

Extensive flume and field data were utilised to determine the form of the functional relationships (2) and (6) and regression equations were developed as follows:

$$\frac{\Delta}{D} = 0.11\left(\frac{d}{D}\right)^{0.1} (1 - e^{-0.1T})(25 - T) \quad (7)$$

and

$$\frac{\Delta}{\lambda} = 0.015\left(\frac{d}{D}\right)^{0.1} (1 - e^{-0.1T})(25 - T) \quad (8)$$

These equation, together with an error range of a factor of 2 and with the data superimposed, are shown in Figure 5 within the range of application of  $0 < T < 25$ .  $T=0$  represents the threshold of bed load movement and  $T=25$  represents the upper limit for dune formation. It should be noted that  $T$  does not appear in Equations (7) and (8), implying that temperature is not a significant determinant in the dune dimensions.

From Equations (7) and (8), an expression for the dune wavelength may be derived in the form

$$\lambda = 7.3D \quad (9)$$

Kennedy (12) developed an equation for the wavelength of antidunes as follows:

$$\lambda = 2\pi \frac{U^3}{2g} \quad U: \text{average velocity} \quad (10)$$

Equation (10) compares reasonably well with observed wavelengths. At incipient breaking, the antidune steepness (ratio of wave height to wave length) was found by Kennedy to be about 0.14.  $\left(\frac{\Delta}{\lambda} \approx 0.14\right)$

### ③ HYDRAULIC RESISTANCE OF ALLUVIAL CHANNELS

An important aspect of river sedimentation is the determination of the flow induced resistance associated with the bed forms. Alluvial bed roughness has been the subject of extensive investigation with a number of resistance relationships developed. These relationships follow two basic approaches - those that divide total resistance into grain resistance and form resistance and those that do not.

(PPP)

3/3

	Source	Flow velocity U, m/s	Flow depth D, m	Particle size d, $\mu$ m	Temperature $^{\circ}$ C
Flume data	○ Guy et al	0.34-1.17	0.16-0.32	190	8-34
	x Guy et al	0.41-0.65	0.14-0.34	270	8-34
	△ Guy et al	0.47-1.15	0.16-0.32	280	8-34
	b Guy et al	0.77-0.98	0.16	330	8-34
	□ Guy et al	0.48-1.00	0.10-0.25	450	8-34
	○ Guy et al	0.53-1.15	0.12-0.34	930	8-34
	○ Williams	0.54-1.06	0.15-0.22	1350	25-28
	○ Delft Hydr. Lab.	0.45-0.87	0.26-0.49	790	12-18
	○ Stein	0.52-0.95	0.24-0.31	400	20-26
	○ Znamenskaya	0.53-0.80	0.11-0.21	800	-
Field data	● Dutch Rivers	0.85-1.55	4.4-9.5	490-3600	5-20
	■ Rio Parana	1.0	12.7	400	-
	○ Japanese Channels	0.53-0.89	0.25-0.88	1100-2300	-
	■ Mississippi River	1.35-1.45	6-16	350-550	-

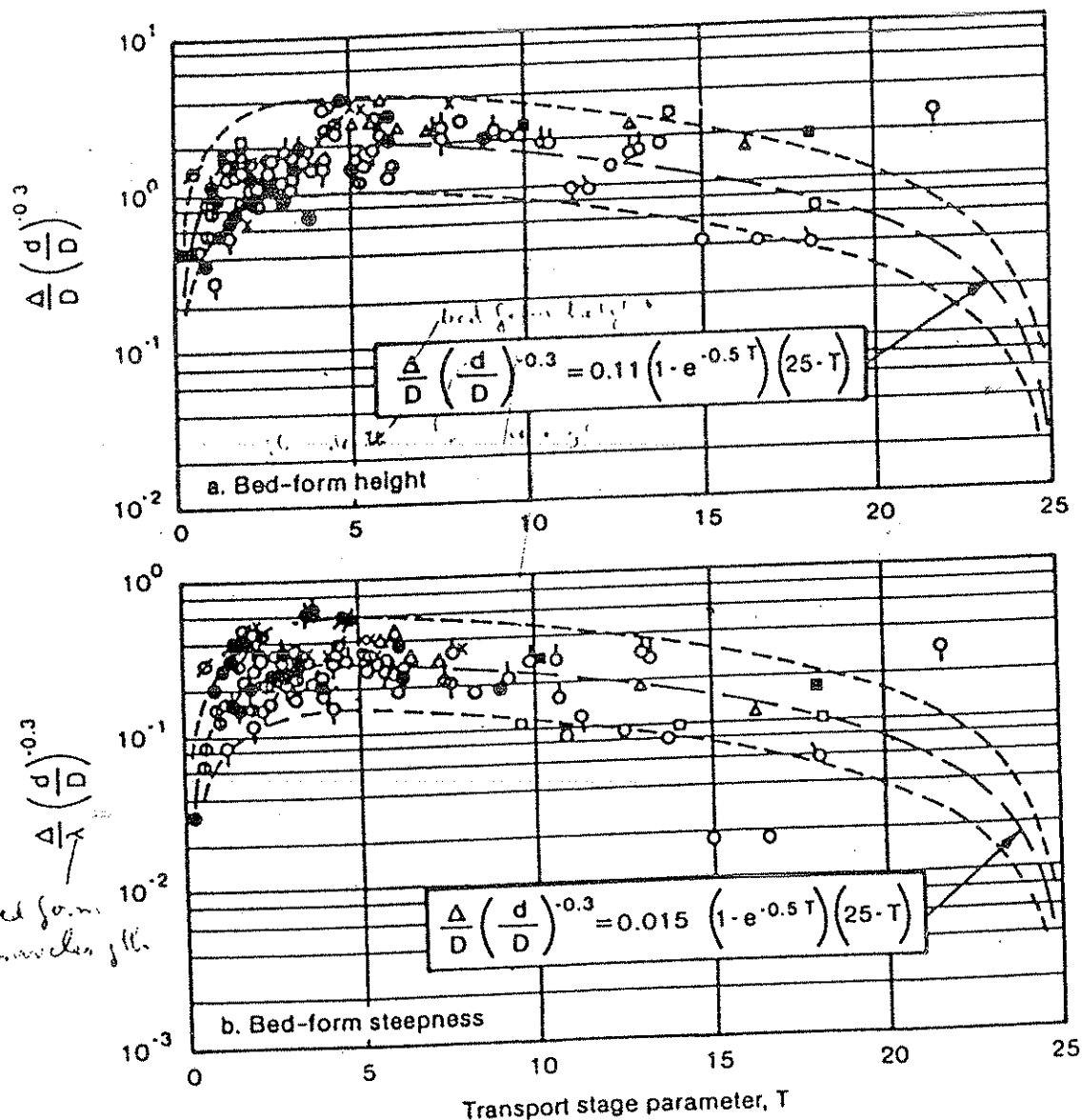


Fig. (5) : Bed Form Height and Steepness

HR Wallingford

D : Flow depth

 $\Delta$  : Bed form height $\lambda$  : Bed form wavelength

(P.K.K.)

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روابط موجود برای الیاد نرم بستر : Dune

Yalin (1964):

$$\frac{h}{H} = \frac{1}{6} \left( 1 - \frac{\tau_{cr}}{\tau_*} \right) \text{ and } L = 5H \text{ where } \tau_{cr} = \text{critical shear stress for } D_{50}; \text{ and } \tau_* = \text{bed shear stress}$$

Ranga Raju & Soni (1976):

$$\frac{h}{D_{50}} F_1^3 F_2 = 6.5 \times 10^3 (\tau_*')^8 \text{ where } F_1 = \frac{V'}{\sqrt{gR_b}}; F_2 = \frac{V'}{\sqrt{\frac{\gamma_s - \gamma}{\rho} D_{50}}}; \tau_*' = \text{dimensionless bed shear stress due to grain roughness}$$

Allen (1978):

$$\frac{h}{d} = 0.08 + 2.24 \left( \frac{\theta}{3} \right) - 18.13 \left( \frac{\theta}{3} \right)^2 + 70.9 \left( \frac{\theta}{3} \right)^3 - 88.33 \left( \frac{\theta}{3} \right)^4 \text{ where } \theta = \text{dimensionless bed shear stress (Shields parameter)}$$

Van Rijn (1984):

$$\frac{h}{H} = 0.11 \left( \frac{D_{50}}{H} \right)^{0.3} (1 - e^{-0.57}) (25 - T) \text{ and } L = 7.3H \text{ where } T = \frac{(u_*')^2 - (u_{*cr})^2}{(u_{*cr})^2}; T = \text{transport stage parameter; } u_*' = \text{bed shear velocity related to grains; } u_{*cr} = \text{critical bed shear velocity}$$

Kennedy & Odgaard (1990):

$$\frac{h}{d} = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \frac{1.2 \lambda \alpha f_0}{8C_D} + \left[ \left( \frac{1.2 \lambda \alpha f_0}{8C_D} \right)^2 + \frac{2\pi F^2 f_0}{C_D C_1} \left( \frac{f}{f_0} - \frac{1.2 \lambda}{2} \right) \right]^{0.5} \right\} \text{ where } f_u, f = \text{grain and total Darcy-Weisbach friction factor; } F = \text{froude number; and } C_1 = 0.25, C_D = 1.0, \alpha = 5, \lambda = 1.0$$

Julien & Klassen (1995):

$$\frac{h}{H} = \xi \left( \frac{D_{50}}{H} \right)^{0.3} \text{ and } L = 6.25H \text{ where } 0.8 < \xi < 8 \text{ and } \xi_{avr} = 2.5$$

Karim (1995):

$$\frac{h}{H} = -0.04 + 0.294 \left( \frac{u_*}{\omega} \right) + 0.00316 \left( \frac{u_*}{\omega} \right)^2 - 0.0319 \left( \frac{u_*}{\omega} \right)^3 + 0.00272 \left( \frac{u_*}{\omega} \right)^4 \text{ where } u_* = \text{bed shear velocity; and } \omega = \text{particle fall velocity for } D_{50}$$

Karim (1999):

$$\frac{h}{H} = \frac{\left( S - f' \frac{F^2}{8} \right) \frac{L}{H}}{K F^2 C_1} \text{ where } K = 0.55 \left( \frac{h}{H} \right)^{0.375} \left( \frac{L}{H} \right)^{-0.2}; f' = 0.135 \left( \frac{D_{50}}{H} \right)^{0.33}; C_1 = 0.85; \frac{L}{H} = 6.25; S = \text{energy slope gradient; and } F = \text{froude number}$$

Fredsoe (1975):

$$\frac{h}{H} = 0.119 \left( \frac{L}{H} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{0.06}{\theta} - 0.4\theta \right)^2 \text{ where } \theta = \text{dimensionless bed shear stress (Shields)}$$

(PPV)

indicator of the relative contribution of bedload and suspended sediment load to the total sediment load. One stated advantage of this change is to include the temperature effect on the bed form height, since fall velocity depends on the fluid temperature. The resulting relationship for  $\Delta y_0$  is given by

$$\frac{\Delta y_0}{y_0} = -0.04 + 0.294 \left( \frac{u_*}{w_f} \right) + 0.00316 \left( \frac{u_*}{w_f} \right)^2 - 0.0319 \left( \frac{u_*}{w_f} \right)^3 + 0.00272 \left( \frac{u_*}{w_f} \right)^4 \quad (10.45)$$

for  $0.15 < u_*/w_f < 3.64$ , and  $\Delta y_0 = 0$  for  $u_*/w_f < 0.15$  or  $u_*/w_f > 3.64$ . Equation 10.45 is based on only the laboratory flume data reported by Guy, Simons, and Richardson (1966) and some Missouri River data. Equation 10.45 in combination with Equations 10.40 through 10.42 is applied to the full data set of the Karim-issippi River to predict depth-velocity rating curves. Mean normalized errors in both depth and velocity for all data sets are approximately 10 percent.

More recently, Karim (1999) developed another relationship for  $\Delta y_0$  that provides a better fit than previous methods for a data set consisting of field data from the Missouri River, Jamuna River, Parana River, Zaire River, Bergshe Mass River, and the Rhine River as well as Pakistan canal data. The relationship of Julien and Klaassen (1995) given as Equation 10.30 also performed well for this data set.

**EXAMPLE 10.3.** The Middle Loup River in Nebraska has a slope of 0.001 and a median grain size  $d_{50} = 0.26$  mm (0.000852 ft). The values of  $d_{65} = 0.32$  mm (0.00105 ft) and  $d_{90} = 0.48$  mm (0.00157 ft). For a discharge per unit width of 3.0 ft<sup>2</sup>/s (0.28 m<sup>2</sup>/s), find the depth and velocity of flow using the Engelund method, van Rijn method, and Karim-Kennedy method.

**Solution.** Assume that the channel is very wide so that  $R = y_0$  in all the methods.

1. *Engelund Method.* Assume a value of  $y_0' = 0.3$  ft (0.09 m). Then calculate  $\tau_*'$  as

$$\tau_*' = \frac{y_0' S}{(y_0' - \gamma) d_{50}} = \frac{0.3 \times 0.001}{1.65 \times 0.000852} = 0.21$$

The velocity is given by

$$V = \sqrt{8 y_0' S \left[ 6 + 5.75 \log \frac{y_0'}{2 d_{65}} \right]} = \sqrt{32.2 \times 0.3 \times 0.001 \times \left[ 6 + 5.75 \log \frac{0.3}{2 \times 0.00105} \right]} = 1.81 \text{ ft/s}$$

or 0.55 m/s. From Figure 10.15, find  $\tau_*$  or use Equation 10.34a assuming lower regime bed forms, from which

$$\tau_* = \sqrt{2.5 (\tau_*' - 0.06)} = \sqrt{2.5 \times (0.21 - 0.06)} = 0.61$$

Now calculate  $y_0$  from the definition of  $\tau_*$  to give

$$y_0 = \frac{\tau_* (SG - 1) d_{50}}{S} = \frac{0.61 \times 1.65 \times 0.000852}{0.001} = 0.86 \text{ ft (0.26 m)}$$

Finally, calculate  $q = Vy_0 = 1.81 \times 0.86 = 1.56$  ft<sup>3</sup>/s (0.145 m<sup>3</sup>/s). Because this is smaller than the given value of 3.0 ft<sup>3</sup>/s (0.28 m<sup>3</sup>/s), repeat for a larger value of  $y_0'$ . For  $y_0' = 0.5$  ft (0.15 m),  $\tau_*' = 0.36$  and  $V = 2.50$  ft/s (0.76 m/s). Then  $\tau_* = 0.86$  and  $y_0 = 1.21$  ft (0.37 m) so that  $q = 3.02$  ft<sup>3</sup>/s (0.281 m<sup>3</sup>/s). This is close enough, but check for lower regime bed forms. Calculate  $\tau_0 = \gamma y_0 S = 62.4 \times 1.21 \times 0.001 = 0.076$  lbf/ft<sup>2</sup> (3.6 Pa) and stream power  $= \tau_0 V = 0.076 \times 2.5 = 0.19$  lbf/(ft-s) (2.8 N/(m-s)). Then, for a fall diameter of 0.25 mm (see Figure 10.3), the Simons-Richardson diagram (Figure 10.12) indicates dunes, so this is a satisfactory solution:  $y_0 = 1.21$  ft (0.37 m) and  $V = 2.50$  ft/s (0.76 m/s).

2. *Van Rijn Method.* Assume a depth of 1.0 ft (0.30 m) and from continuity,  $V = q/y_0 = 3.0/1.0 = 3.0$  ft/s (0.91 m/s). Then calculate  $u_*'$  from

$$u_*' = \frac{V}{12 y_0} = \frac{3.0}{12 \times 1.0} = 0.153 \text{ ft/s (0.0466 m/s)}$$

By definition,  $\tau_*' = u_*'^2 / [(SG - 1) g d_{50}] = 0.153^2 / (1.65 \times 32.2 \times 0.000852) = 0.52$ . Obtain  $\tau_{*c}$  by first calculating  $d_*$  as

$$d_* = \left[ \frac{(SG - 1) g d_{50}^3}{\nu^2} \right]^{1/3} = \left[ \frac{1.65 \times 32.2}{(1.2 \times 10^{-5})^2} \right]^{1/3} \times 0.000852 = 6.1$$

so that  $\tau_{*c} = 0.047$  from Figure 10.6 and  $T = \tau_*' / \tau_{*c} - 1 = 0.52 / 0.047 - 1 = 10.1$ . The height of the dunes is obtained from Equation 10.29 as

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\Delta}{y_0} &= 0.11 \left( \frac{d_{50}}{y_0} \right)^{0.3} (1 - e^{-0.5T}) (25 - T) \\ &= 0.11 \times \left( \frac{0.000852}{1.0} \right)^{0.3} (1 - e^{-0.5 \times 10.1}) (25 - 10.1) = 0.20 \end{aligned}$$

so that  $\Delta = 0.20 \times 1.0 = 0.20$  ft (0.061 m). Having the dune height and with the wave length,  $\lambda = 7.3 y_0$ , the equivalent sand-grain roughness height due to the bed forms can be estimated from Equation 10.39 as

$$\begin{aligned} k_s'' &= 1.1 \Delta (1 - e^{-25\Delta/\lambda}) = 1.1 \times 0.20 \times (1 - e^{-25 \times 0.20 / 7.3}) \\ &= 0.109 \text{ ft (0.033 m)} \end{aligned}$$

Finally, the velocity can be obtained from Equation 10.38 based on the total shear velocity:

$$\begin{aligned} V &= 5.75 u_*' \log \frac{12R}{3d_{90} + k_s''} \\ &= 5.75 \sqrt{32.2 \times 1.0 \times 0.001} \log \left[ \frac{12 \times 1.0}{3 \times 0.00157 + 0.109} \right] = 2.09 \text{ ft/s} \end{aligned}$$

or 0.64 m/s. The result for discharge per unit width is  $q = Vy_0 = 2.09$  ft<sup>3</sup>/s (0.194 m<sup>3</sup>/s), which requires a second iteration with a larger value of depth. For  $y_0 = 1.3$  ft (0.40 m), the trial value of velocity is 2.31 ft/s (0.704 m/s) and  $u_*' = 0.114$  ft/s (0.0347 m/s). Then  $\tau_*' = 0.287$  and  $T = 5.11$ . This gives a dune height  $\Delta = 0.291$  ft and  $k_s'' = 0.171$  ft (0.0521 m). Finally, the velocity is 2.29 ft/s (0.70 m/s), which is

very close to the initial value, so the solution by the van Rijn method is  $y_0 = 1.30$  ft (0.40 m) and  $V = 2.30$  ft/s (0.70 m/s).

3. *Karim-Kennedy Method.* First calculate the value of the Shields parameter for an assumed depth of 1.3 ft (0.40 m) to give

$$\tau_* = \frac{y_0 S}{(SG - 1)d_{50}} = \frac{1.3 \times 0.001}{1.65 \times 0.000852} = 0.925$$

which is less than 1.2 and therefore in the lower regime. The relative dune height follows from Equation 10.42 into which the value of  $\tau_*$  has been substituted:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\Delta}{y_0} &= 0.08 + 2.24 \left( \frac{0.925}{3} \right) - 18.13 \left( \frac{0.925}{3} \right)^2 \\ &\quad + 70.9 \left( \frac{0.925}{3} \right)^3 - 88.33 \left( \frac{0.925}{3} \right)^4 = 0.327 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the relative value of the friction factor is obtained from Equation 10.41 as

$$\frac{f}{f_0} = 1.20 + 8.92 \frac{\Delta}{y_0} = 1.20 + 8.92 \times 0.327 = 4.12$$

Finally, the velocity comes from substituting into Equation 10.43 to give

$$\frac{V}{\sqrt{(SG - 1)gd_{50}}} = 6.683 \times \left( \frac{1.3}{0.000852} \right)^{0.626} \times 0.001^{0.583} \times 4.12^{-0.465} = 10.5$$

so that  $V = 10.5 \times (1.65 \times 32.2 \times 0.000852)^{0.5} = 2.23$  ft/s (0.68 m/s). The discharge per unit of width then is 2.90 ft<sup>2</sup>/s (0.269 m<sup>2</sup>/s), which is close, but an additional iteration yields  $y_0 = 1.33$  ft (0.41 m) and  $V = 2.26$  ft/s (0.69 m/s).

The results of the van Rijn method and the Karim-Kennedy method are virtually identical, while the Engelund method gives a depth and velocity both of which are within about 8 percent of the values from the other two methods.

(1.33) 2.26

## 10.7 SEDIMENT DISCHARGE

The prediction of total sediment discharge in an alluvial stream is an important aspect of river engineering with applications from the assessment of changes in stream sediment regime due to urbanization to the evaluation of long-term bridge scour. This section focuses on the bed-material discharge; that is, the portion of the sediment discharge consisting of grain sizes found in the streambed as opposed to wash load, which is defined as the fine sediment resulting from erosion of the watershed.

Two distinct approaches are taken to the problem of determining total bed-material discharge. The first was pioneered by Einstein (1950), in which total bed-material discharge is divided into bed-load discharge and suspended-load discharge and summed to estimate total sediment discharge. The bed load is that portion of the sediment carried near the bed by the physical processes of intermittent rolling,

sliding, and saltation (hopping) of individual grains at various random locations in the bed, so that the sediment remains in contact with the bed a large percentage of the time. Suspended load, on the other hand, is composed of sediment particles that are lifted into the body of the flow by turbulence, where they remain and are transported downstream. An equilibrium distribution of suspended sediment concentration develops as a result of the balance between turbulent diffusion of the grains upward and gravitational settling of the grains downward. The sediment concentration near the bed as determined by the bed-load discharge is the essential link to estimation of suspended-load discharge because it provides the boundary condition for the vertical distribution of suspended sediment concentration.

In general, the opposing forces of turbulent suspension and gravity are reflected by the dimensionless ratio  $u_*'/w_j$ , in which  $u_*$  is shear velocity and  $w_j$  is the sediment fall velocity. Bed load is the dominant transport mechanism for  $u_*'/w_j < 0.4$ , and suspended load is the primary contributor to sediment load for  $u_*'/w_j > 2.5$  (Julien 1995). In between these two limits, mixed load occurs, with components of both bed load and suspended load.

The second approach to determination of total sediment discharge is to directly relate the total rate of transport to hydraulic variables such as depth, velocity, and slope and to sediment properties. This method depends on large databases of flume and field data to be applicable to a wide variety of situations, and the best-fit relationship often is presented in terms of dimensionless variables for the same reason. In either approach, issues of water temperature, the effect of fine sediment, bed roughness, armoring, and the inherent difficulties of measuring total sediment discharge can cause significant deviations between estimates and measurements of total sediment discharge as demonstrated by Nakato (1990). Nevertheless, such estimates of sediment discharge must be made for engineering purposes. This often involves the use of several different formulas determined to be applicable to the situation of interest and reliance on engineering judgment to make the final estimate.

This section presents a few selected formulas for estimating sediment discharge and limited comparisons with field measurements. For a more complete treatment, refer to the references at the end of this chapter. The transport formulas are presented in terms of the volumetric transport rate of sediment per unit of stream width,  $q$ , with a subscript of  $b$  for bed load,  $s$  for suspended load, and  $t$  for total load. The sediment transport rate also can be expressed in terms of dry weight of sediment transported per unit of width and time as the symbol  $g$  with the same subscripts, so that  $g_b = \gamma_s q_b$  for bed-load discharge, for example. Thus  $q_b$ , for example, has dimensions of  $L^2/T$  (ft<sup>2</sup>/s or m<sup>2</sup>/s), while  $g_b$  has dimensions of  $FL/T$  (lbs/ft or N/s/m). In the English system, the weight rate of transport will be used, but in the SI system a mass transport rate traditionally is used. The mass transport rate per unit of channel width can be obtained by dividing the corresponding weight rate by gravitational acceleration to obtain dimensions of  $MT/L$  (slugs/ft or kg/s/m). The sediment transport rate for the full stream width is obtained as the product of transport rate per unit of width and stream width, and the symbols  $Q$  and  $G$  are utilized for this purpose for volumetric and weight rates of transport, respectively, with the appropriate subscript to indicate bed load ( $b$ ), suspended load ( $s$ ), or total load ( $t$ ).

(1.33) 2.26



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Ref. Fisher (1995)

Annual of Sediment Transport, W.H.R.

#### 4.1.5 White, Paris and Bettess (1980) method

White et al used the same parameters as the Ackers and White (1973 and 1990) sediment transport method. Graded sediments are represented by the  $D_{35}$  bed material size.

Sediment movement was predicted in terms of a sediment mobility number based on the ratio of the shear forces to the immersed weight of the particles.

The general form of the mobility number is given by:

$$F_{gr} = \frac{v_*^n}{\sqrt{gD} (s - 1)} \left( \frac{u}{\sqrt{32} \log \left( 10 \frac{d}{D} \right)} \right)^{1-n} \quad (95)$$

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where  $n$  is an exponent which varies from 1.0 for fine sediments ( $D_{gr} = 1.0$ ) to 0.0 for coarse sediments ( $D_{gr} = 60$ ). Thus for fine sediments:

$$F_{fg} = \frac{u_*}{\sqrt{g D_{35} (s_g - 1)}} \quad (96)$$

and for coarse sediments

$$F_{cg} = \frac{u}{\sqrt{g D (s - 1)} \sqrt{32 \log \left( \frac{10d}{D} \right)}} \quad (97)$$

Figure 7 shows  $F_{fg}$ , the total shear plotted against  $F_{gr}$ , the effective shear. There is a progression away from the  $F_{fg} = F_{gr}$  line with increasing values of  $D_{gr}$  and the line through each data set converges towards the  $F_{fg} = F_{gr}$  line at, or around the value of the mobility number corresponding to the threshold of movement. The data in Figure 7 seem to suggest a functional relationship of the form:

$$\frac{F_{gr} - A'}{F_{fg} - A'} = fn(D_{gr}) \quad (98)$$

within the range  $F < 0.8$  and  $1 < D_{gr} < 60$ , where  $A'$  is the value  $F_{gr}$  at the threshold of movement.

With  $D_{gr}$  based on the  $D_{35}$  size of the parent material, a curve can be fitted as follows:

$$1 - \frac{F_{gr} - A'}{F_{fg} - A'} = 0.76 \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{e^{\log D_{gr}^{1.7}}} \right] \quad (99)$$

lower regime

This is the lower regime relationship.

The upper regime data shows a consistent trend. Data for each  $D_{gr}$  value lies on a single curve with different curves for different  $D_{gr}$  values. As for the lower regime there is a clear progression away from the  $F_{gr} = F_{fg}$  line with increasing values of  $D_{gr}$  the line through each data set converges towards the  $F_{fg} = F_{gr}$  line greater than 60.

The appropriate form for the upper regime is given by:

$$\frac{(F_{gr} - A') + \alpha (F_{gr} - A')^4}{(F_{fg} - A')} = fn(D_{gr}) \quad (100)$$

(131)

The equation fitted to the available data was:

$$\frac{(F_{gr} - A') + 0.07 (F_{gr} - A')^4}{(F_{fg} - A')} = 1.07 - 0.18 \log D_{gr} \quad (101)$$

It is recommended that this equation is not used for values of  $D_{gr}$  greater than 60.

The use of two separate relationships for lower and upper regime creates two problems. The first is the determination of which is the appropriate regime to use in particular circumstances and the second is determining the transition that must take place from one regime to the other. In the account so far the distinction between the two regimes has been provided by a description of the bed features associated with them. It, therefore, seems reasonable that the criterion used to define the upper and lower regime conditions should be related to those used to specify the occurrence of different bed forms. Simons and Richardson (1963) distinguished different bed forms by plotting stream power,  $\tau_o u$  against median fall diameter. Alternatively a non-dimensional unit stream power  $U_E$ , in the form can be used below:

$$U_E = \frac{VS}{(gv)^{\frac{1}{3}} D_{gr}} \quad (102)$$

For values of  $U_E$  less than 0.00035 the bed is plane, for  $0.00035 < U_E < 0.011$  ripples occur provided  $D_{gr} < 10$ . Otherwise for values of  $U_E$  in this range the bed feature is predominantly dunes. The transition region is approximately  $0.011 < U_E < 0.02$  while flat bed and anti-dunes occur for  $U_E > 0.02$ . The lower regime curves are appropriate if  $U_E$  is less than 0.011 and the upper regime curve if  $U_E$  is greater than 0.011.

If there is no prior information regarding the nature of the flow then one must assume in turn that the flow corresponds to lower and upper regime and then determine which assumption leads to a consistent result.

If the above equations are used to calculate the velocity for the upper and lower regimes then the non-dimensional stream power for each regime can be determined,  $U_E^L$  and  $U_E^U$ . As  $U_E^U > U_E^L$  there are three different cases to be considered:

- 1  $U_E^L < 0.011$  and  $U_E^U < 0.011$   
In this case since the use of the upper regime equation leads to a solution that implies lower regime conditions the only consistent approach is that the system is in lower regime.
- 2  $U_E^L > 0.011$  and  $U_E^U > 0.011$   
As the use of the lower regime equation leads to an inconsistency the system must be in upper regime.

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- 3  $U_E^L < 0.011$  and  $U_E^U > 0.011$

In this case both assumptions lead to a consistent result. Either result represents a stable solution and the form adopted in practice will depend on the previous history of the flows.

#### 4.1.6 Procedure for calculating alluvial friction using White, Paris and Bettess (1980)

- 1 The mean velocity of flow in m/s is calculated from:

d depth (m)  
 S slope  
 $D_{35}$  sediment size (m)  
 $s_s$  specific gravity of particles (2.65 for sand)  
 $\nu$  kinematic viscosity (can be calculated from temperature, Appendix 1)

- 2 Determine shear velocity,  $u_*$ :

$$u_* = \sqrt{gdS}$$

- 3 Determine the mobility related to total shear stress,  $F_{tg}$ :

$$F_{tg} = \frac{u_*}{\sqrt{gD_{35}(s_s - 1)}}$$

- 4 Calculate dimensionless particle size,  $D_{gr}$ :

$$D_{gr} = D_{35} \left[ \frac{g(s_s - 1)}{\nu^2} \right]^{1/3}$$

- 5 Calculate the values of  $n$  and  $A$  from the following equations:

If  $D_{gr} > 60$ , then  
 $n=0.0$ ,  $A=0.17$   
 and if  $1 < D_{gr} < 60$  then

$$n = 1 - 0.56 \log D_{gr}$$

$$A = \frac{0.23}{\sqrt{D_{gr}}} + 0.14$$

If  $F_{tg} < A$  then there is no sediment movement. The bed form roughness will depend on the flow history, so the friction cannot be predicted.

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- 6 If  $F_{fg} > A$ , calculate the mobility related to effective shear stress for lower regime

$$F_* = 1.0 - 0.76 \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{\exp[(\log D_{gr})^{1.7}]} \right] \rightarrow e^{[\log \dots]}$$

$$F_{gr} = F_*(F_{fg} - A) + A$$

- 7 Determine the mean velocity of flow for lower regime from the following equation:

$$u = \sqrt{32} \log \left( \frac{10^4 d}{d_{35}} \right) \left[ \frac{F_{gr} \sqrt{0.001 g D_{35} (s_g - 1)}}{u_*^n} \right]^{\frac{1}{1-n}}$$

- 8 Calculate non-dimensional stream power for lower regime  $U_E^L$  using:

$$U_E = \frac{uS}{(gv)^{\frac{1}{3}} D_{gr}}$$

- 9 Calculate  $F_{gr}$  for upper regime using:

$$\frac{(F_{gr} - A) + 0.07 (F_{gr} - A)^4}{(F_{fg} - A)} = 1.07 - 0.18 \log D_{gr}$$

- 10 Calculate velocity for upper regime using same equation as under 7.


- 11 Calculate non-dimensional stream power for upper regime  $U_E^U$  using same equation as under 8.

- 12 If  $U_E^L + U_E^U > 0.022$  then use upper regime velocity in the equation below. If  $U_E^L + U_E^U < 0.022$ , then use lower regime velocity in the equation below.

$$\lambda = 8 \left( \frac{v_*}{u} \right)^2 \quad (103)$$

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## 4.2 Application and use of alluvial friction predictors

To calculate flow in an alluvial channel the engineer is faced with the problem of determining the frictional losses on the boundary of the channel. For example, a knowledge of the frictional resistance is required for the design of irrigation channels, river improvement works or for the determination of sediment transport rates. One would expect that the roughness of the surface depends on the size of the bed material which is indicated by the value of  $D_{gr}$ . The friction should also be affected by the quantity of sediment in motion and hence should depend on the mobility number  $F_s$  and the density ratio  $s_s$ . The ratio of the flow depth to the grain diameter will be significant if the friction is dependent upon how the sediment is distributed in the bulk of flow.

→ All the methods discussed in Section 4.1 are steady state methods in which the friction is dependent on the local values of the variables involved. They also assume that the friction does not depend on the history of previous flows but only on the conditions prevalent at that time. In the cases where the transport rate is zero it is clear that the friction will depend on the past flows as the friction will be influenced by bed features present which were created by earlier, larger flows. These bed features will remain and influence the flow until the sediment transport rate is large enough to remove them. It may be that the type and size of bed feature depends not only on the flow conditions at the present but also on the history of previous flows.

✓ It is recommended that the White et al method is used and a worked example is given below:

### Example 4.2

A sand bed has a slope of 0.005. The bed material is a uniform 2.0mm sand of specific gravity 2.65.

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Calculate discharges per unit width for depths of flow between 0.20m and 2.0m

	Depth (m)				
	0.2	0.5	1.0	1.5	2.0
$v_*$	0.099	0.157	0.221	0.271	0.313
$D_{gr}$	47.4	47.4	47.4	47.4	47.4
$n$	0.061	0.061	0.061	0.061	0.061
$A$	0.173	0.173	0.173	0.173	0.173
$F_{tg}$	0.55	0.87	1.231	1.507	1.741
$F_{gr}(\text{lower})$	0.290	0.388	0.5	0.585	0.657
$u$ (lower) m/s	0.848	1.274	1.773	2.169	2.509
$U_E^L$	<u>0.004</u>	<u>0.006</u>	0.008	0.010	0.012
$F_{gr}(\text{upper})$	0.463	0.708	0.959	1.139	1.277
$u$ (upper) m/s	1.398	2.415	3.553	4.409	5.094
$U_E^U$	0.007	0.012	<u>0.017</u>	<u>0.021</u>	<u>0.024</u>
$U_E^L + U_E^U$	0.011	0.018	0.025	0.031	0.036
$\lambda$	0.109	0.121	0.031	0.030	0.030
$u$ (m/s)	0.848	1.274	3.553	4.409	5.094
$Fr$	<u>0.61</u>	<u>0.58</u>	1.13	1.15	1.15
$q$ ( $m^3/s/m$ )	0.17	0.637	3.553	6.614	10.188

At depths 0.2 and 0.5 m the flow is in the lower regime at depths 1.0, 1.5 and 2.0 m the flow is in the upper regime mode.

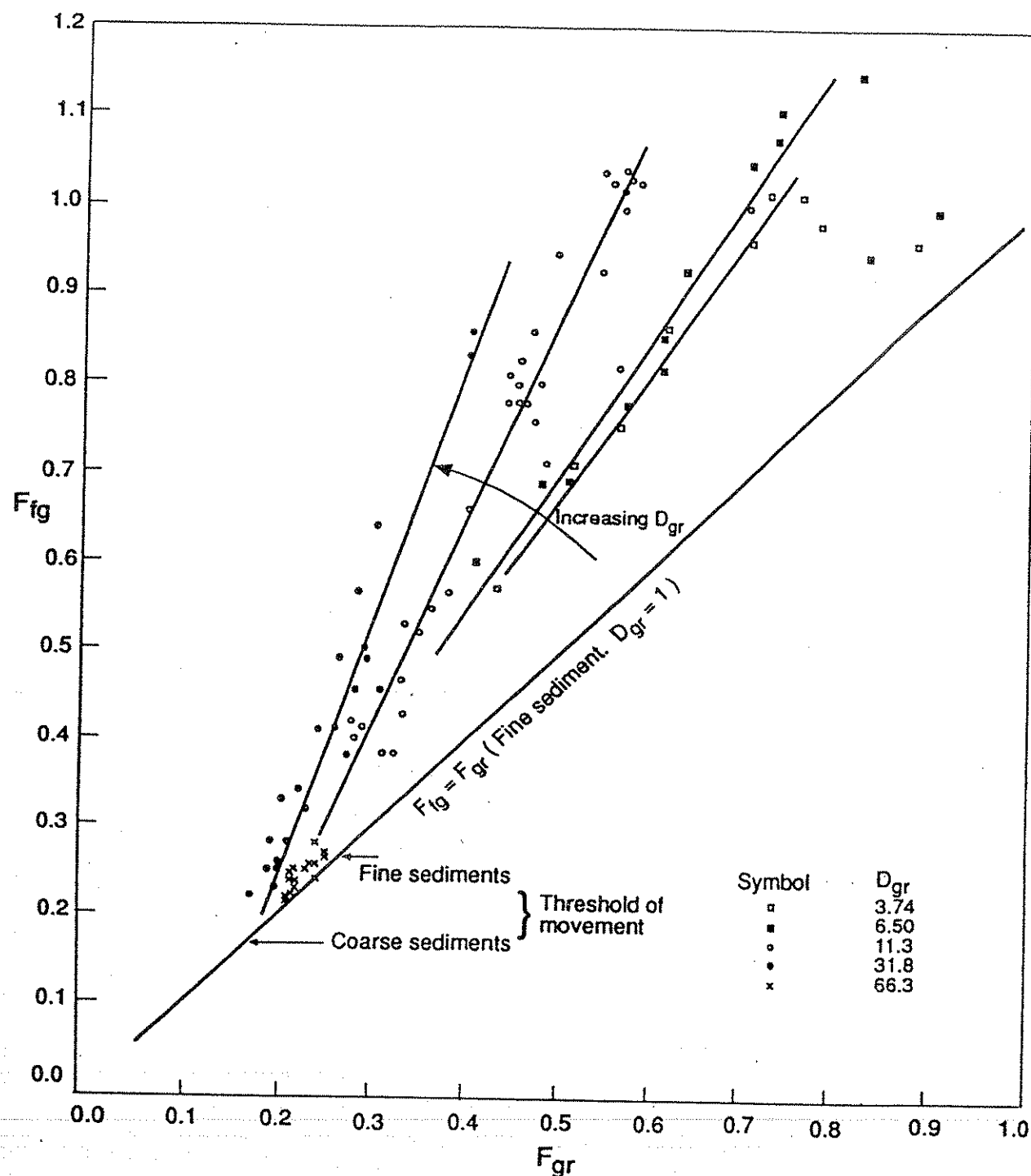
## 5 Regime Theory

The problem of determining a stable cross-section geometry and slope of an alluvial channel has been the subject of considerable research over eighty years and continues to be of great practical interest. Ignoring plan geometry, an alluvial channel can adjust its width, depth and slope to achieve a stable condition in which it can transport a certain amount of water and sediment. Thus, it has three degrees of freedom and the problem is to establish relationships which determine these three quantities of width, depth and slope.

The various approaches to this problem fall into two broad categories: the empirical regime and the analytical regime methods. The empirical method relies on available data and attempts to determine appropriate relationships from the data. The usefulness of this method depends on the quality of the

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Figure 7  $F_{fg}$  versus  $F_{gr}$  for selected data

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(Flow Resistance)  $\tau$  و  $\omega$

(Bed forms)

Yang (1946)

shear velocity  $U_*$ , Fig. 3.5 can be used to determine the bed forms in laboratory flumes.

Simons and Richardson (1966) plotted the stream power  $\tau V$  against median fall diameter of sediment particles for laboratory flume and some canal data as shown in Fig. 3.6. This figure can be used for the determination of bed forms in laboratory flumes and small streams. An evaluation of different

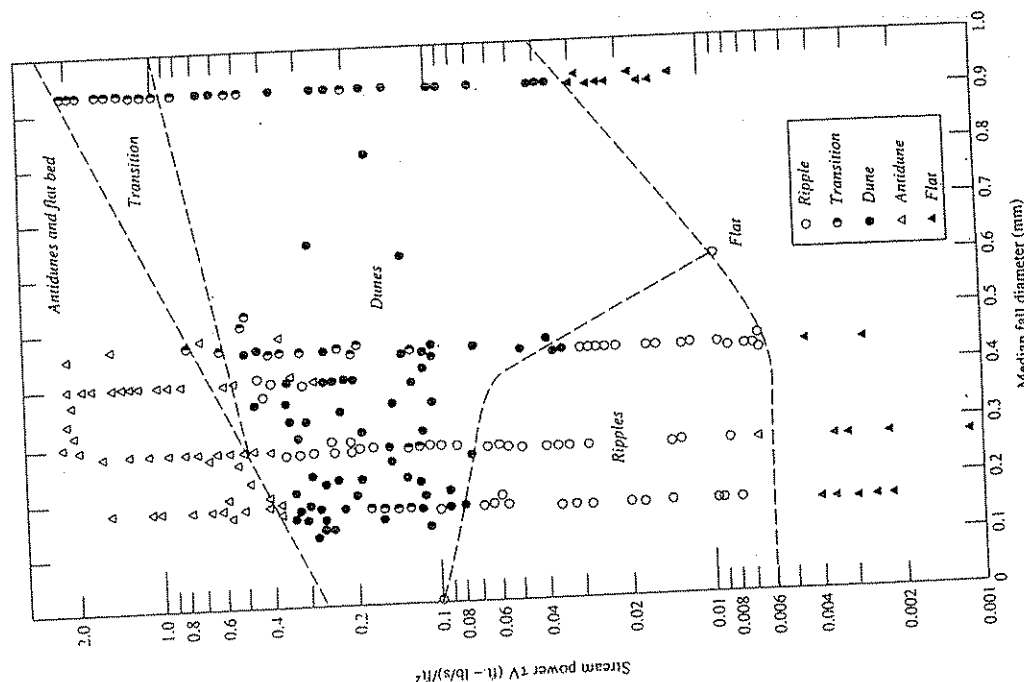


FIGURE 3.6  
Relation of bed form to stream power and median fall diameter of bed sediment (Simons and Richardson, 1966).

TABLE 3.5  
Evaluation of different graphical analyses (Simons and Sentürk, 1977)

Variables	Investigator	Comments
$\frac{U_* d_{50}}{v}, \omega$	Liu (1957) Albertson <i>et al.</i> (1958)	Criterion based on flume data did not predict field data well. Most promise appears to lie in the prediction of beginning of motion.
$\tau$	Garde and Albertson (1959)	Criterion did not predict Rio Grande data well.
$\frac{(\rho_s - \rho) g d_{50}^3}{(g R)^{1/2}}$		
$\frac{R}{d_{50}}, \frac{S}{d_{50} - \rho}$	Garde and Raju (1963)	Considerable scatter evident, especially with the Gilbert and U.S. Geological Survey data.
$\frac{g d_{50}}{U_*^2}, d_{50}$	Bogardi (1958)	Difficulty in using the same criterion for flume and field data.
$\tau V, d_{50}$	Simons and Richardson (1966)	Difficulty in using the same criterion for flume and large rivers, but the relation does fairly well for small natural streams.
$\frac{U_*}{\omega}, S$	Athallah (1968)	Failed to discriminate between bed forms in natural systems.
$\frac{\tau}{\gamma_s d_{50}}, \frac{d\omega}{v}$	Sentürk (1973)	Define bed forms according to their resistance to flow. Failure to define antidunes.

graphical analyses of bed forms has been given by Simons and Sentürk (1977): see Table 3.5.

### 3.3.4 Factors Affecting Bed Forms

Theoretical analysis of bed forms cannot be applied to field studies directly for the prediction of bed forms, because it is difficult to satisfy the assumptions used in the analysis. Results from empirical or graphical analysis of laboratory data cannot be applied to field conditions with confidence, because these conditions are far more complex than those observed in laboratory flumes. Factors affecting bed forms and resistance to flow include (but are not limited to) water depth, slope, fluid density, fine material concentration, bed material size, bed material gradation, fall velocity of sediment particles, channel cross-sectional shape, and seepage force. Some general tendencies of the effects of these factors on bed forms and resistance to flow can be summarized as follows (Simons and Sentürk, 1977).

1. *Depth:* water depth is related to the relative depth  $D/d$ , or relative roughness  $d/D$ , and flow velocity distribution. An increase in water depth can cause a dune bed to become a plane bed or antidune. A decrease in depth may reverse the process. An example of the effect of change of depth or hydraulic radius on bed form and flow velocity is shown in

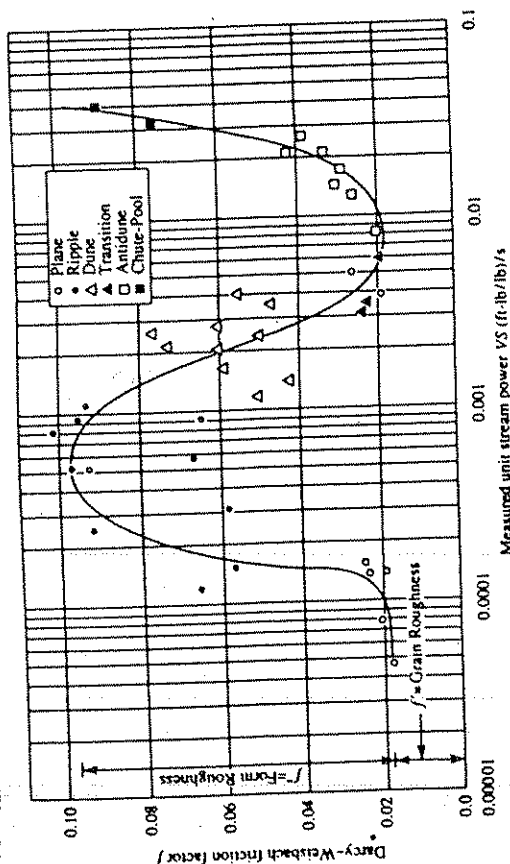


FIGURE 3.8 Variation of friction factor with bed form and measured unit stream power.

$$n = n' + n''$$

where  $n'$  = Manning's coefficient due to grain roughness and

$n''$  = Manning's coefficient due to form roughness.

The value of  $n'$  is proportional to the sediment particle diameter to the sixth power, as shown in Eqs. (3.18a, b), (3.19), or (3.20). There is no reliable method for the computation of  $n''$ . Our inability to determine or predict the variation of form roughness poses a major problem in the study of alluvial hydraulics.

### 3.4.2 Surface Drag and Form Drag

Similarly to the division of total roughness into grain roughness and form roughness, the shear stress or drag force acting along an alluvial bed can be divided into two parts, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned}\tau &= \tau' + \tau'' \\ &= \gamma S(R' + R'')\end{aligned}\quad (3.27)$$

where

$\tau$  = total drag force acting along an alluvial bed,

$\tau'$  = drag force due to grain roughness and form roughness, respectively,

$\gamma$  = specific weight of water,

$S$  = energy or channel slope, and

$R'$  and  $R''$  = hydraulic radii due to grain roughness and form roughness, respectively.

Different methods have been suggested in the literature for the determination of total roughness or resistance to flows in alluvial channels.

### 3.4.3 Einstein's Approach

Einstein (1950) expressed the resistance due to grain roughness or skin friction by

$$\frac{V}{U_*'} = 5.75 \log \left( 12.27 \frac{R'}{k_s} x \right) \quad (3.28)$$

where  $U_*'$  = shear velocity due to skin friction or grain

roughness =  $(gR'S)^{1/2}$ ,

$R'$  = hydraulic radius due to skin friction,

$k_s$  = equivalent grain roughness =  $d_{95}$ ,

$x$  = a function of  $k_s/\delta$ , and

$\delta$  = boundary-layer thickness, which can be expressed as

$$\delta = \frac{11.6\nu}{U_*'} \quad (3.29)$$

where  $\nu$  = kinematic viscosity.

The relationship between  $x$  and  $k_s/\delta$  suggested by Einstein (1950) is shown in Fig. 3.9. With the given values of  $V$ ,  $d_{95}$ , and  $x$  determined from Fig. 3.9, Eq. (3.28) can be used to compute the value of  $R'$ . Einstein (1950) suggested that

$$\frac{V}{U_*'} = \phi(\psi') \quad (3.30)$$

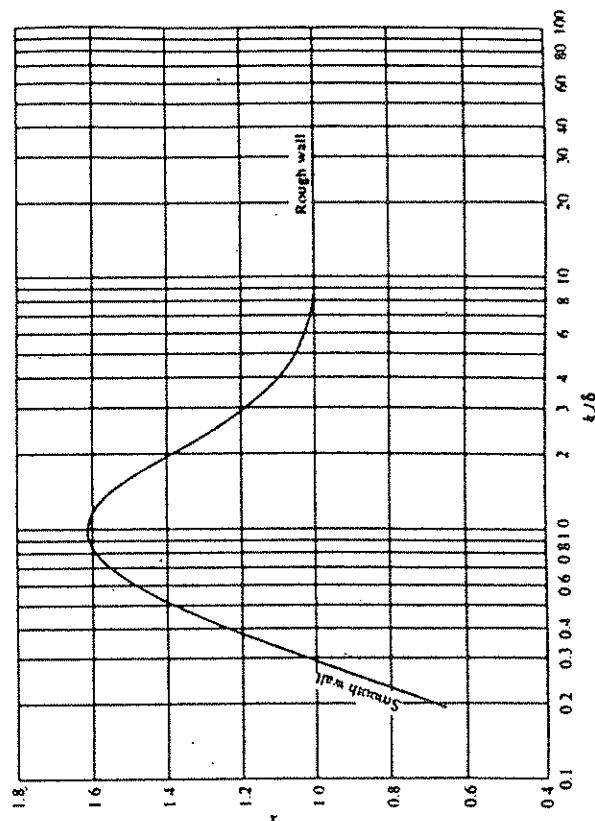


FIGURE 3.9 Correction factor in the logarithmic velocity distribution (Einstein, 1950).

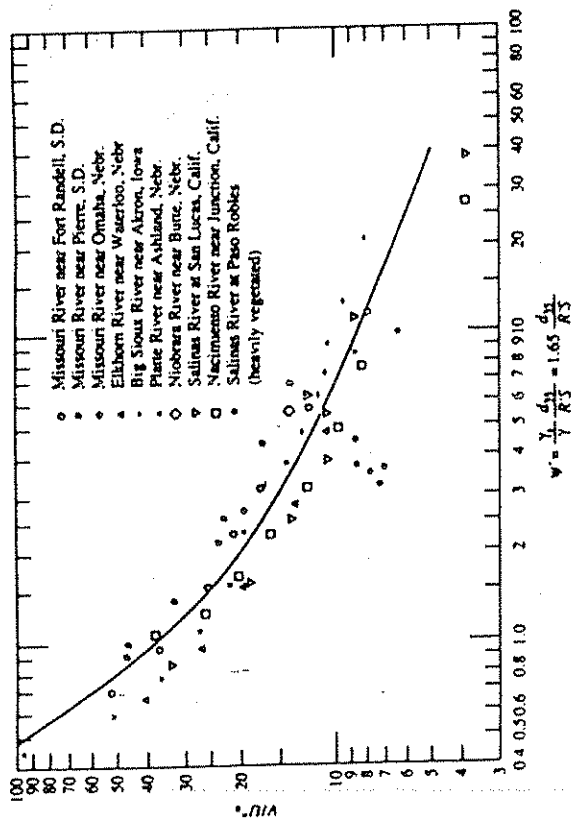


FIGURE 3.10 Friction loss due to channel irregularities as a function of sediment transport rate (Einstein and Barbarossa, 1952).

where

$$\psi' = \frac{\gamma_s - \gamma}{\gamma} \frac{d_{35}}{SR'} \quad (3.31)$$

The functional relationship between  $V/U_*'$  and  $\psi'$  was determined from field data by Einstein and Barbarossa (1952) as shown in Fig. 3.10.

The following procedures for the computation of total hydraulic radius due to grain and form roughness when the water discharge is given, or vice versa, were suggested by Einstein and Barbarossa (1952).

**Case A.** Determine  $R$  with given  $Q$

**Step 1:** Assume a value of  $R'$ .

**Step 2:** Apply Eq. (3.28) and Fig. 3.9 to determine  $V$ .

**Step 3:** Compute  $\psi'$  using Eq. (3.31) and the corresponding value of  $V/U_*'$  from Fig. 3.10.

**Step 4:** Compute  $U_*'$  and the corresponding value of  $R'$ .

**Step 5:** Compute  $R = R' + R''$  and the corresponding channel cross-sectional area  $A$ .

**Step 6:** Verify using the continuity equation  $Q = VA$ . If the computed  $Q$

agrees with the given  $Q$ , the problem is solved. Otherwise, assume another value of  $R'$  and repeat the procedure until agreement is reached between the computed and the given  $Q$ .

**Case B.** Determine  $Q$  with given  $R$ . The first five steps are identical to those for Case A. After the  $R$  value has been computed, it is compared with the given value of  $R$ . If these values agree with each other, the problem is solved and  $Q = VA$ . If not, the computation procedures will be repeated by assuming different values of  $R'$  until the computed  $R$  agrees with the given  $R$ .

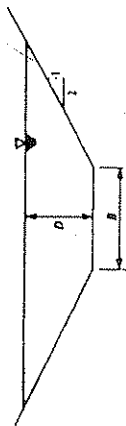
**Example 3.1.** Given the following data, determine the flow depth  $D$  for the channel shown using the Einstein procedures:

$$Q = 40 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}, \quad B = 5 \text{ m}$$

$$v = 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}, \quad S = 0.0008$$

Specific gravity of sand = 2.65

$$d_{35} = 0.3 \text{ mm}, \quad d_{45} = 0.9 \text{ mm}$$



**Solution**

(a) Assume  $R'$

(b) Determine velocity from Eq. (3.28):

$$V = 5.75 U_*' \log \left( 12.27 \frac{R'}{k_s} x \right)$$

The equivalent sand roughness  $k_s$  may be taken as equal to  $d_{45} = 0.0009 \text{ m}$ , and the shear velocity  $U_*'$  is

$$U_*' = (gR'S)^{1/2} = 0.089(R')^{1/2}$$

The correction factor  $x$  is a function of  $k_s/\delta$ , and may be read from Fig. 3.9. The laminar sublayer thickness  $\delta$  can be estimated from Eq. (3.29), i.e.,

$$\delta = \frac{11.6\nu}{U_*'} = \frac{11.6(10^{-6})}{0.089(R')^{1/2}} = \frac{1.31 \times 10^{-4}}{(R')^{1/2}}$$

so

$$\frac{k_s}{\delta} = \frac{0.0009(R')^{1/2}}{1.31 \times 10^{-4}} = 6.87(R')^{1/2}$$

Substituting for  $U_*'$  and  $k_s$ , the velocity can be estimated from

$$V = 0.509(R')^{1/2} \log (13.633R'x)$$

(c) Compute  $\psi'$  from Eq. (3.31):

$$\psi' = (2.65 - 1) \frac{d_{35}}{SR'} = 1.65 \frac{0.0003}{0.0008R'} = \frac{0.619}{R'}$$

and determine  $V/U_*'$  from Fig. 3.10

(d) Compute  $U_*'$  and  $R^*$  from

$$U_*' = \left( \frac{V}{U_*''} \right) V$$

$$R^* = \frac{(U_*'')^2 (U_*'')^2}{gS} = 0.0078$$

(e) Determine  $R = R^* + R^*$  and the corresponding depth  $D$  and area  $A$ .

(f) Determine  $Q = AV$ , and reiterate if necessary.  
The determination of depth and area from the hydraulic radius may be facilitated by developing curves relating these variables. The relations may be expressed as

$$A = 5D + 2D^2$$

$$R = \frac{5D + 2D^2}{5 + 4.47D}$$

Assuming values of  $D$ , the relationship between  $D$ ,  $A$ , and  $R$  can be computed from the above two equations as follows:

$D$	$A$	$R$
0.6	3.72	0.484
0.8	5.28	0.616
1.0	7.00	0.737
1.2	8.88	0.857
1.5	12.00	1.025
2.0	18.00	1.290

The following is a tabulation of the solution procedure.

Assumed									
$R^*$ (m)	$k_s$ $\delta$	$x$	$V$ (m/s)	$\psi'$	$\frac{V}{U_*''}$ (m/s)	$R^*$ (m)	$R$ (m)	$A$ (m <sup>2</sup> )	$Q$ (m <sup>3</sup> /s)
0.50	4.86	1.06	1.39	1.24	31	0.045	0.26	0.76	7.0
0.20	3.07	1.18	0.798	3.10	15	0.053	0.36	0.56	4.5
1.00	6.87	1.02	2.11	0.619	75	0.028	0.10	1.10	14.0
1.20	7.53	1.01	2.35	0.516	97	0.024	0.08	1.28	18.0
1.15	7.37	1.01	2.29	0.538	90	0.025	0.08	1.23	16.5
1.17	7.43	1.01	2.32	0.529	93	0.025	0.08	1.25	17.0
1.18	7.46	1.01	2.33	0.525	94	0.025	0.08	1.26	17.5

For  $Q = 40 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ ,  
 $R = 1.254 \text{ m}$

The corresponding water depth is  $D = 1.93 \text{ m}$ .

**Example 3.2.** Use the fluid and sediment properties given in Example 3.1 and the flow depth determined there, compute the water discharge using the Einstein procedures.

**Solution.** Use the same procedure as outlined for Example 3.1, but reiterate until the computed  $R$  agrees with the actual  $R$ ; then determine the discharge  $Q = AV$ . The following is a tabulation of the solution procedure:

Assumed

$R^*$ (m)	$k_s$ $\delta$	$x$	$V$ (m/s)	$\psi'$	$\frac{V}{U_*''}$ (m/s)	$R^*$ (m)	$R$ (m)
1.17	7.43	1.01	2.32	0.529	93	0.025	0.08
1.18	7.46	1.01	2.33	0.525	94	0.025	0.08

For  $R = 1.254 \text{ m}$ ,  
 $V = 91.4 \times 0.025 = 2.335 \text{ m/s}$

Channel cross-sectional area

$$A = 5(1.93) + 2(1.93)^2 = 17.10 \text{ m}^2$$

Discharge

$$Q = 17.10(2.335) = 39.9 \text{ m}^3/\text{s} \approx 40 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$$

### 3.4.4 Engelund and Hansen's Approach

Engelund and Hansen (1966) expressed the energy loss or frictional slope due to bed form as

$$S^* = \frac{\Delta H''}{L} = \frac{q^2}{2gL} \left( \frac{1}{D - \frac{1}{2}A_m} - \frac{1}{D + \frac{1}{2}A_m} \right) = \frac{V^2}{2gL} \left( \frac{A_m}{D} \right)^2 \quad (3.32)$$

where  $\Delta H''$  = frictional loss due to bed forms of wavelength  $L$ ,

$q$  = flow discharge per unit width;

$D$  = mean depth, and

$A_m$  = amplitude of sand waves.

Using an idea similar to Eq. (3.27), the total shear stress can also be expressed as

$$\tau_* = \tau_*' + \tau_*'' \quad \tau_* = \gamma R(S^* + S^*) \quad (3.33)$$

or

$$\frac{\tau_*}{\gamma R} = \frac{\tau_*'}{\gamma R} + S^* \quad (3.34)$$

Substituting Eq. (3.32) for  $S^*$  into Eq. (3.34) and assuming  $R \approx D$  for a wide open channel,

$$\frac{\tau_*}{\gamma D} = \frac{\tau_*'}{\gamma D} + \frac{V^2}{2gL} \left( \frac{A_m}{D} \right)^2 \quad (3.35)$$

Let

$$\theta = \frac{DS}{[(\rho_s/\rho) - 1]d} = \tau_* \quad (3.36)$$

$$\theta' = \frac{DS'}{[(\rho_s/\rho) - 1]d} = \tau_*' \quad (3.37)$$

$$\theta^* = \frac{1}{2} F_*^2 \frac{A_m^2}{[(\rho_s/\rho) - 1] dL} \quad (3.38)$$

where  $\rho_s$  and  $\rho$  = densities of sediment and water, respectively.

$D$  and  $D'$  = water depth and corresponding depth due to grain roughness, respectively.

$d$  = sediment particle size, and

$F_*$  = Froude number =  $V/(gD)^{1/2}$ .

From Eqs. (3.36), (3.37), and (3.38)

$$\theta = \theta' + \theta'' \quad \text{and} \quad \tau_* = \tau_*' + \tau_*'' \quad (3.39)$$

This relation was proposed by Engelund and Hansen (1967). For narrow channels,  $D$  and  $D'$  should be replaced by  $R$  and  $R'$  in Eqs. (3.35)–(3.37).

The relationship between  $\theta$  and  $\theta'$  for different bed forms is shown in Fig. 3.11. For the upper flow region, it can be assumed that form drag is not associated with the flow, and  $\theta = \theta'$ . Figure 3.11 can be applied to the determination of a stage-discharge relationship by the following procedure.

**Step 1:** Determine  $S$  and  $D$  from a field survey of slope and channel cross-section.

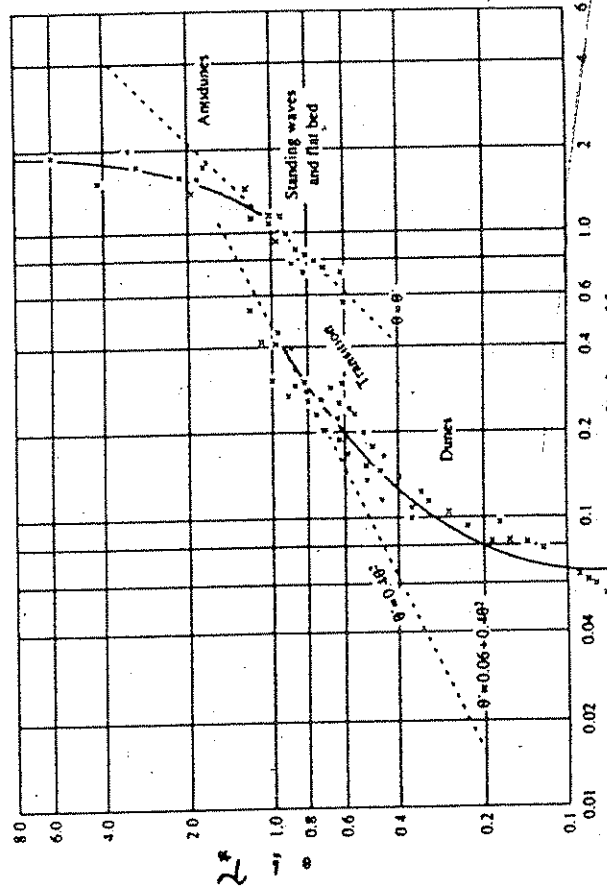


FIGURE 3.11  
Flow resistance relationship (Engelund and Hansen, 1967).

**Step 2:** Compute  $\theta$  from Eq. (3.36) for the given sediment size  $d$ .

**Step 3:** Determine  $\theta'$  from Fig. 3.11 with  $\theta$  from Step 2.

**Step 4:** Compute  $D'$  from Eq. (3.37).

**Step 5:** Compute  $V$  from Eq. (3.28).

**Step 6:** Determine the channel cross-sectional area  $A$  corresponding to the  $D$  value selected in Step 1.

**Step 7:** Compute  $Q = AV$ . The stage-discharge relationship can be determined by selecting different  $D$  values and repeating the processes.

**Example 3.3.** For the fluid and sediment properties and channel cross-section given in Example 3.1, obtain the stage-discharge relationship using the procedure proposed by Engelund and Hansen.

#### Solution

(a) Assume a depth of flow  $D$ .

(b) Compute  $\theta$  for given  $R$ ,  $S$ , and  $d$  from Eq. (3.36):

$$\tau_* = \theta = \frac{RS}{(\rho_s/\rho - 1)d}$$

For this analysis, the slope will be assumed equal to  $S_0$  (uniform flow) and the sediment size  $d$  will be assumed equal to

$$d = \frac{1}{2}(d_{35} + d_{65}) = \frac{1}{2}(0.3 + 0.9) = 0.6 \text{ mm}$$

The hydraulic radius  $R$  may be determined from the assumed depth as

$$R = \frac{5D + 2D^2}{5 + 2D\sqrt{5}}$$

Substituting,

$$\theta = \frac{0.0008(5D + 2D^2)}{1.65(0.0006)(5 + 2D\sqrt{5})} = 0.808 \frac{5D + 2D^2}{5 + 2D\sqrt{5}}$$

(c) Determine  $\theta'$  from Fig. 3.11.

(d) Compute  $R'$  from

$$R' = \frac{\theta'(\rho_s/\rho - 1)d}{S} = \frac{\theta'(1.65)(0.0006)}{0.0008} = 1.24\theta'$$

(e) Compute the velocity  $V$  from Eq. (3.28):

$$V = 5.75 U_*' \log \left( 12.27 \frac{R'}{k_s x} \right)$$

The shear velocity  $U_*' = (gR'S)^{1/2} = [9.81(0.0008)R']^{1/2} = 0.089(R')^{1/2}$ . The equivalent sand roughness  $k_s$  may be taken as equal to  $d_{65} = 0.9$  mm, and the correction factor  $x$  may be determined from Fig. 3.9. A necessary parameter for the use of Fig. 3.9 is  $k_s/\delta$ , which can be computed from Eq. (3.29):

$$\frac{k_s}{\delta} = \frac{k_s U_*'}{11.6\nu} = \frac{0.0009(0.089)(R')^{1/2}}{11.6(10^{-6})} = 6.87(R')^{1/2}$$

- (f) Compute the cross-sectional area  $A$  from  
 $A = 5D + 2D^2$   
 (g) Determine the discharge  $Q$  by continuity as  
 $Q = AV$ .

This procedure should be repeated for various values of  $D$ . Computations are shown in the following table.

Assumed									
$D$ (m)	$R$ (m)	$\theta$	$\theta'$	$R'$ (m)	$k_s/\delta$	$x$	$U'$ (m/s)	$V$ (m/s)	$Q$ (m <sup>3</sup> /s)
0.5	0.415	0.335	0.12	0.15	2.7	1.22	0.034	0.663	2.0
1.0	0.739	0.597	0.18	0.22	3.2	1.05	0.042	0.845	5.9
			(0.59)	(0.73)	(5.9)	(1.02)	(0.076)	(1.76)	(12.3)
1.5	1.02	0.828	0.28	0.35	4.0	1.10	0.052	1.10	13.2
			(0.80)	(0.99)	(6.8)	(1.01)	(0.088)	(2.09)	(25.1)
2.0	1.29	1.04	0.50	0.62	5.4	1.02	0.070	1.58	28.4
			(1.0)	(1.24)	(7.7)	(1.00)	(0.099)	(2.41)	(43.4)
2.5	1.55	1.25	0.66	0.82	6.2	1.00	0.080	1.86	46.5
			(1.2)	(1.49)	(8.4)	(1.00)	(0.108)	(2.68)	(67.0)
3.0	1.79	1.45	0.87	1.08	7.1	1.00	0.092	2.20	72.6
			(1.25)	(1.55)	(8.6)	(1.00)	(0.110)	(2.74)	(90.4)
3.5	2.03	1.64	1.13	1.31	8.7	1.00	0.112	2.80	118
4.0	2.27	1.84	1.37	1.70	9.0	1.00	0.116	2.91	151
4.5	2.51	2.03	1.43	1.77	9.1	1.00	0.118	2.97	187
5.0	2.74	2.21	1.5	1.86	9.4	1.00	0.121	3.06	230

Values in parentheses are for the upper flow regime or antidune.

The stage-discharge relationship for Example 3.3 thus obtained is shown below.

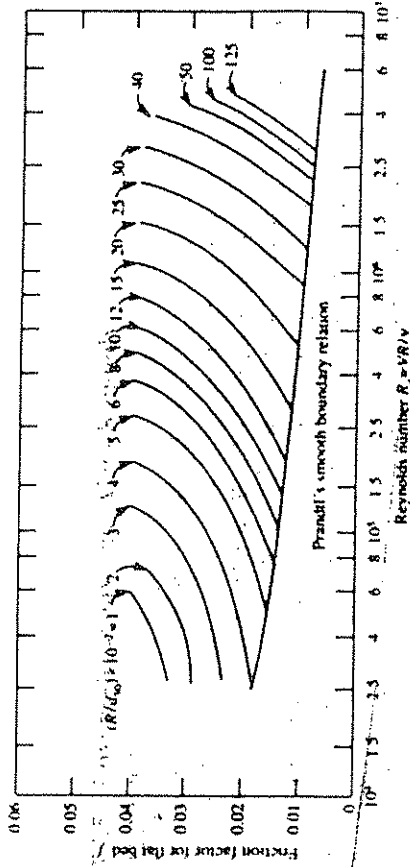
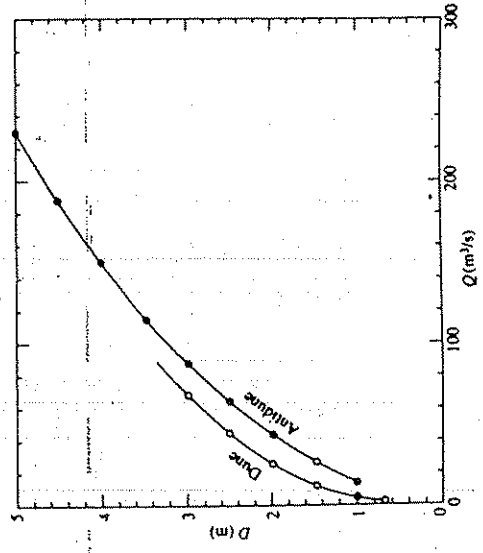


FIGURE 3.12 Friction factors for flat beds in alluvial channels (Lovera and Kennedy, 1969).

### 3.4.5 Lovera-Kennedy and Alan-Kennedy Approach

Lovera and Kennedy (1969) analyzed available data on friction factors for plane bed flows in both laboratory flumes and natural rivers. They derived a relationship between the Darcy-Weisbach friction factor due to grain roughness  $f'$ , relative roughness  $R/d_{50}$ , and Reynolds number  $R_* = VR/v$  as shown in Fig. 3.12. The hydraulic radius  $R$  is the total hydraulic radius. Figure 3.12 can be used for the determination of the grain roughness of plane bed channels.

Alan and Kennedy (1969) studied available flume, river and canal data for the determination of form roughness. They suggested that the Darcy-Weisbach friction factor due to form roughness be expressed by

$$f'' = \phi \left( \frac{V}{(gd_{50})^{1/2}}, \frac{d_{50}}{R} \right) \quad (3.40)$$

This functional relationship is shown in Fig. 3.13. Once  $f'$  and  $f''$  have determined from Figs. 3.12 and 3.13, respectively, the total Darcy-Weisbach friction factor  $f$  can be computed as

$$f = f' + f'' \quad (3.41)$$

### 3.4.6 Richardson and Simons' Approach

Richardson and Simons (1967) suggested the following resistance equations for different bed forms:

for a plane bed without sediment transport,

$$\frac{C}{g^{1/2}} = 5.9 \log \frac{D}{d_{85}} + 5.44 \quad (3.42)$$

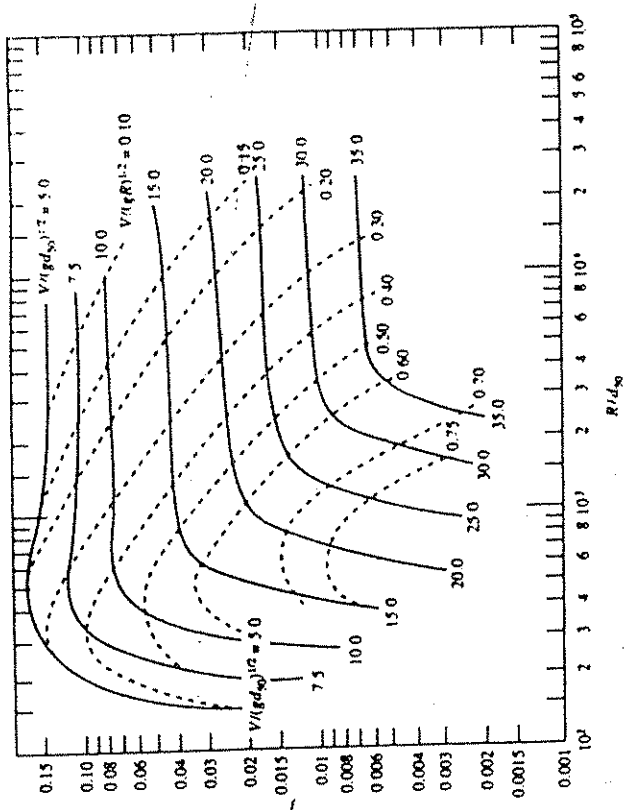


FIGURE 3.13  
Graphical predictor for the form friction factor (Alan and Kennedy, 1969).

for a plane bed with sediment transport,

$$\frac{C}{g^{1/2}} = 7.4 \log \frac{D}{d_{85}} \quad (3.43)$$

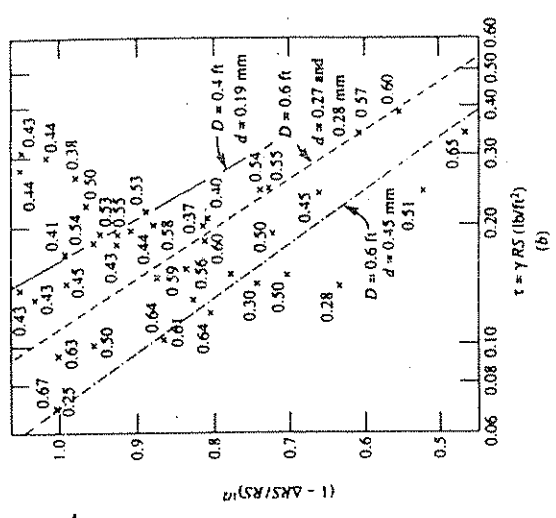
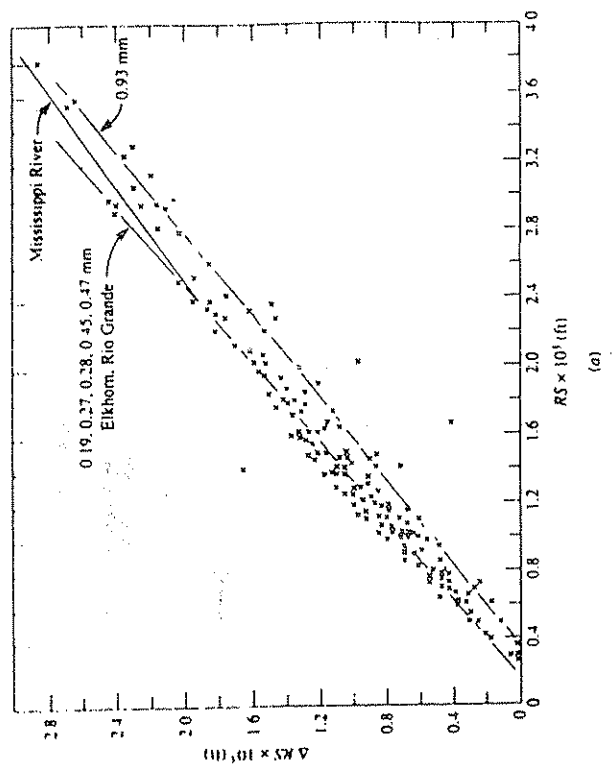
for ripples,

$$\frac{C}{g^{1/2}} = \left( 7.66 - \frac{0.3}{U_*} \right) \log D + \frac{0.13}{U_*} + 11 \quad (3.44)$$

for dunes and antidunes,

$$\frac{C}{g^{1/2}} = 7.4 \left( 1 - \frac{\Delta RS}{RS} \right)^{1/2} \log \frac{D}{d_{85}} \quad (3.45)$$

where  $d_{85}$ ,  $RS$ ,  $\Delta RS$ , and  $D$  are in ft. The term  $\Delta RS$  is an adjustment for  $RS$  to compensate for the form roughness. Figure 3.14(a) shows the relationship between  $\Delta RS$  and  $RS$  for a dune bed configuration. The upper line is for  $d_{50} < 0.5$  mm and the lower one for  $d_{50} = 0.93$  mm. Figure 3.14(b) shows the relation between the correction factor in Eq. (3.45) and the shear stress for an antidune bed configuration. The value next to each point in Fig. 3.14(b) is the median sediment particle size in mm.



Richardson and Simons (1967) suggested the following procedure for the determination of average flow velocity in a sand bed channel:

- Step 1: assume a bed form.
- Step 2: compute  $C/g^{1/2}$  from an equation corresponding to the assumed bed form.
- Step 3: compute the average velocity from Chezy's equation, i.e., Eq. (3.12).
- Step 4: compute the stream power  $\tau V = (\gamma D S) V$ .
- Step 5: find the bed form from Fig. 3.6 for the given  $d_{50}$  and computed stream power. If the bed form thus obtained is the same as the assumed one, the computed velocity is correct. Otherwise, assume a different bed form and repeat the procedure.

### 3.4.7 Yang's Approach

Most of the approaches used in the determination of total roughness of alluvial channels are based on the concept of dividing the roughness into grain and form roughnesses. The procedures suggested by different investigators have mainly been derived from laboratory data. Computed results from these approaches often differ from each other and from measurements in natural rivers. The basic problem stems from our inability to predict bed forms on a sound theoretical basis. Even if the bed form is given, the form roughness still varies significantly, as is apparent from the data shown in Fig. 3.8. This prompted Yang (1976) to adopt an approach that does not rely on knowledge of the bed form.

Consider a uniform flow in an alluvial channel of a given width  $W$ . The continuity equation for water is

$$Q = WDV \quad (3.46)$$

The total bed-material concentration can be expressed as

$$C_t = \phi(V, S, D, d, v, \omega) \quad (3.47)$$

Because the total roughness is unknown, theoretically, Manning's equation cannot be solved without relying on some empirical or semiempirical methods for the determination of the roughness coefficient.

The theory of minimum rate of energy dissipation (Yang, 1976; Yang and Song, 1979, 1984) states that when a dynamic system reaches its equilibrium condition, its rate of energy dissipation is at a minimum. The minimum value depends on the constraints applied to the system. For a uniform flow of given channel width where the rate of energy dissipation due to sediment transport can be neglected, the rate of energy dissipation per unit weight of water is

$$\frac{dY}{dt} = \frac{dx dY}{dt dx} = VS = \text{unit stream power} \quad (3.48)$$

where  $Y$  = potential energy per unit weight of water.

Thus, the theory of minimum unit stream power requires that

$$VS = V_m S_m = \text{a minimum} \quad (3.49)$$

subject to the given constraints of carrying a given amount of water discharge  $Q$  and sediment concentration  $C_t$  of a given size  $d$ . The subscript  $m$  denotes the value obtained with minimum unit stream power. Utilization of Eq. (3.49) in conjunction with Eqs. (3.46) and (3.47) can give a solution for the three unknowns  $V$ ,  $D$ , and  $S$  without knowledge of the total roughness. The sediment transport equation recommended by Yang (1976) is his unit stream power equation (Yang, 1973), namely

$$\log C_m = 5.435 - 0.286 \log \frac{\omega d}{v} - 0.457 \log \frac{U_*}{\omega} + \left( 1.799 - 0.409 \log \frac{\omega d}{v} - 0.314 \log \frac{U_*}{\omega} \right) \log \left( \frac{VS}{\omega} - \frac{V_m S_m}{\omega} \right) \quad (3.50)$$

where  $C_m$  = total sand concentration (in ppm by weight),

$\omega$  = terminal fall velocity,

$d$  = median sieve diameter of sediment particles,

$v$  = kinematic viscosity,

$g$  = gravitational acceleration,

$VS$  = unit stream power, and

$V_m S_m$  = critical unit stream power required at incipient motion.

The value of the critical average flow velocity at incipient motion,  $V_m$ , can be computed by using Eq. (2.28) or (2.29). The following procedure was suggested by Yang (1976) for the determination of Manning's coefficient.

Step 1: assume a value of the depth  $D$ .

Step 2: for the given values of  $Q$ ,  $C_m$ ,  $W$ ,  $d$ ,  $\omega$ , and  $v$ , solve Eqs. (3.46) and (3.50) for  $V$  and  $S$ .

Step 3: compute the unit stream power as the product of  $V$  and  $S$ .

Step 4: select another  $D$  and repeat the above steps.

Step 5: compare all the computed  $VS$  values and select the one with minimum value as the solution in accordance with Eq. (3.49).

Step 6: once  $VS$  has been determined, the corresponding values of  $V$ ,  $S$ , and  $D$  can be computed from Eqs. (3.46) and (3.50). Manning's coefficient can be computed from Eq. (3.16a) or (3.16b) without any knowledge of the bed form.

Figure 3.15 shows an example of the relationship between generated unit stream power  $VS$ , and water depth  $D$ . The minimum unit stream power  $V_m S_m$  thus determined is in close agreement with the measured unit stream power  $VS$ . Examples of comparisons between measured and computed results from the above procedure are shown in Fig. 3.16. The subscript  $m$  in Fig. 3.16



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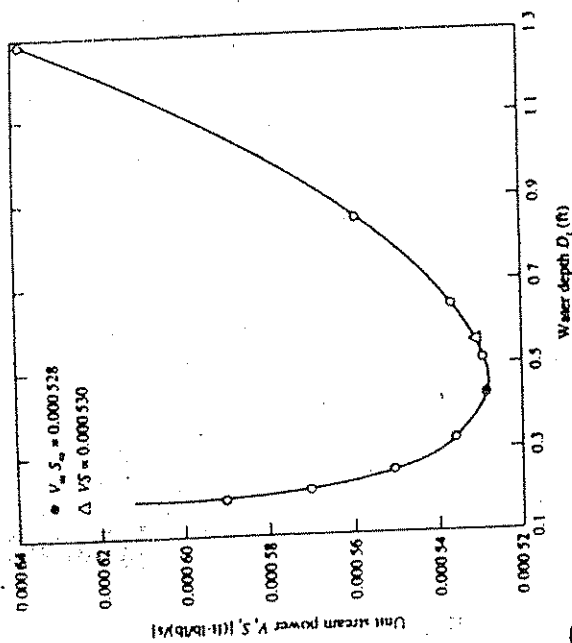


FIGURE 3.15 Relationship between unit stream power and water depth with 0.19 mm sand in a laboratory flume (Yang, 1976).

denotes the value obtained using Eq. (3.49). In the above procedure, it is assumed that Eq. (3.50) is accurate in predicting the total bed material concentration. If the measured concentration is significantly different from the computed one, the agreement may not be as good as those shown in Fig. 3.16. Parker (1977), in his discussion of Yang's (1976) paper, made a comparison between the resistance relationship obtained from the theory of minimum unit stream power and those from extensive actual data fitting. Parker's comparison is shown in Fig. 3.17. These results suggest that the theory of minimum unit stream power can provide a simple theoretical tool for the determination of roughness of alluvial channels, at least for the lower flow region, where the sediment transport rate is not too high and the rate of energy dissipation due to sediment transport can be neglected. As the sediment concentration or the Froude number increases, the accuracy of Yang's method decreases. Yang's method cannot be used for critical or supercritical flows, where the rate of energy dissipation due to sediment transport is high and cannot be neglected.

Example 3.4. The following data were collected from the Rio Grande River Section F with width of 370 ft near Bernalillo, New Mexico:

$$d_{50} = 0.31 \text{ mm}, \quad V = 3.2 \text{ ft/s}, \quad D = 2.41 \text{ ft}, \quad S = 0.00076, \quad T = 21.1^\circ\text{C}$$

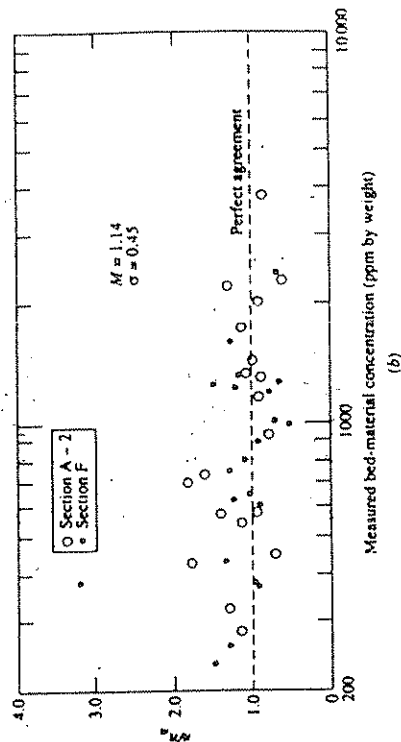
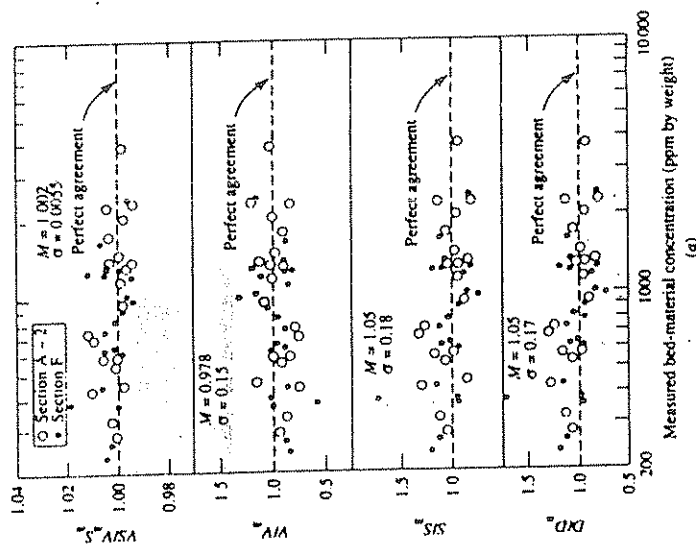


FIGURE 3.16 Comparisons between measured data from the Rio Grande River and computed values from the theory of minimum unit stream power: (a) hydraulic parameters; (b) Manning's roughness coefficient (Yang and Song, 1979).

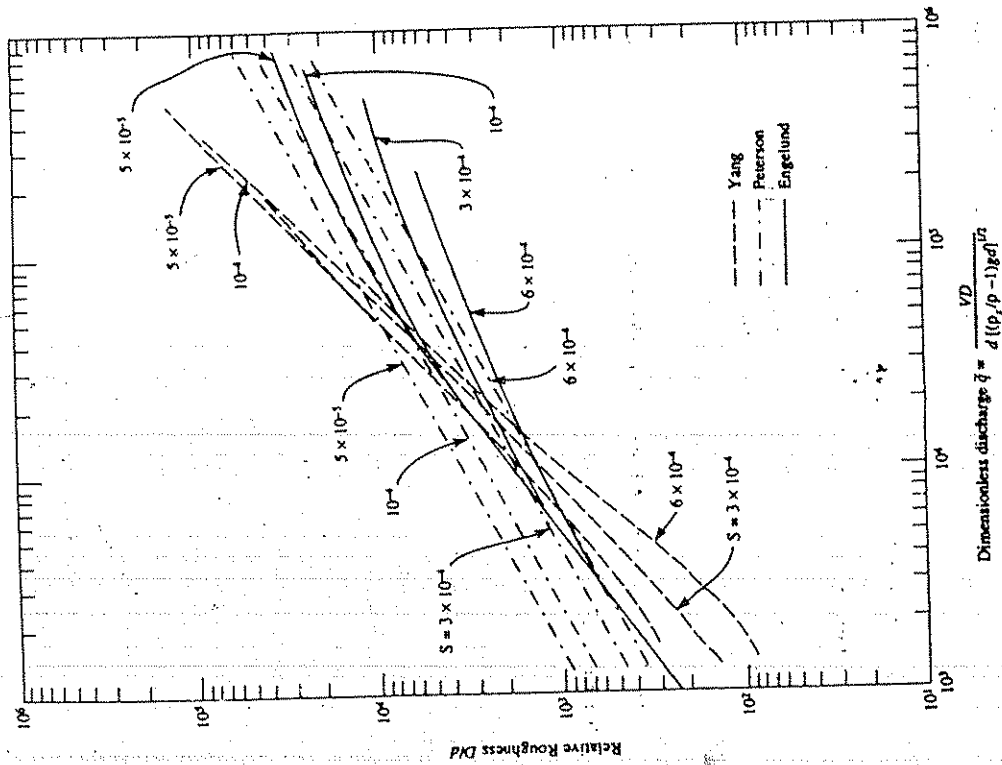


FIGURE 3.17 Comparisons between relative roughness determined from the theory of minimum unit stream power and those obtained by Peterson and Engelund (Parker, 1977).

Determine Manning's roughness coefficient using the minimum unit stream power theory and Yang's (1973) unit stream power equation.

**Solution.** The computed sediment concentration from Eq. (3.50) is 517 ppm by weight. The minimum unit stream power computation is summarized in the following table:

$D_r$ (ft)	$V_r$ (ft/s)	$S_r$	$V_r S_r$ [(ft-lb/lb)/s]
3.51	2.2	0.001114	0.002451
3.08	2.5	0.000977	0.002443
2.75	2.8	0.000870	0.002435
2.49	3.1	0.000784	0.002431
2.27	3.4	0.000715	0.002430 (min.)
2.08	3.7	0.000657	0.002432
1.93	4.0	0.000608	0.002433
1.79	4.3	0.000566	0.002434
1.71	4.5	0.000541	0.002435

The minimum unit stream power  $V_m S_m = 0.002430$  (ft-lb/lb)/s, which is close to the measured unit stream power  $V S = 0.002432$  (ft-lb/lb)/s. The corresponding values of depth, velocity, and slope are

$$D_m = 2.27 \text{ ft}, \quad V_m = 3.4 \text{ ft/s}, \quad S_m = 0.000715$$

Manning's roughness coefficient with minimum unit stream power is

$$n_m = \frac{1.49}{V_m} D_m^{2/3} S_m^{1/2} = \frac{1.49}{3.4} (2.27)^{2/3} (0.000715)^{1/2} = 0.0203$$

The actual  $n$  value based on the measured  $V$ ,  $S$ , and  $D$  is

$$n = \frac{1.49}{3.2} (2.41)^{2/3} (0.00076)^{1/2} = 0.0231$$

### PROBLEMS

3.1. The formulas proposed by Darcy-Weisbach, Chezy, and Manning are the three most commonly used by hydraulic engineers for the computation of velocity in open channels. Determine the relationships among the roughness coefficients  $f$ ,  $C$ , and  $n$  in these formulas.

3.2. The following data were collected in an 8 ft-wide laboratory flume:

Particle size	Velocity (ft/s)	Slope	Concentration (ppm)	Temperature (°C)	Depth (ft)	Bed form
0.19	2.69	0.0013	1270	19.7	1.02	Dune
0.19	4.33	0.0030	9240	18.9	0.64	Antidune

Determine the bed form based on the methods suggested by Engelund and Hansen and by Simons and Richardson. Compare and discuss the predicted and observed results.

3.3. The following data were collected from the Mississippi River at St. Louis: discharge  $Q = 467,863$  ft<sup>3</sup>/s, mean velocity  $V = 5.37$  ft/s, slope  $S = 0.000085$  1, bed-material concentration  $C_b = 38.4$  ppm by weight, water temperature  $T =$

27.8°C, average depth  $D = 49.9$  ft, average width  $W = 1746$  ft, bed-material size  $d_{35} = 0.5$  mm,  $d_{50} = 0.7$  mm,  $d_{65} = 0.8$  mm. Compute the flow depth using the Einstein procedure and compare with the measured result.

3.4. Use the data given in Problem 3.3 to compute the flow discharge using the Einstein procedure and compare with the measured discharge.

3.5. A typical set of data measured at the U.S. Geological Survey gauging station at Section A-2 of the Rio Grande near Bernalillo has the following values: particle size  $d_{35} = 0.25$  mm,  $d_{50} = 0.3$  mm,  $d_{65} = 0.4$  mm,  $d_{85} = 0.45$  mm, velocity  $V = 3.71$  ft/s, slope  $S = 0.00076$ , total bed-material concentration  $C = 582$  ppm by weight, water temperature  $T = 21.1^\circ\text{C}$ , channel width  $W = 269$  ft, and average depth  $D = 2.76$  ft. The channel cross-section is rectangular in shape. Obtain the stage-discharge relationships using the procedures proposed by Engelund and Hansen. Compare and discuss the result with that shown in Fig. 3.7.

3.6. Use the data given in Problem 3.5 to determine the Darcy-Weisbach friction factor  $f$ .

3.7. Use the data given in Problem 3.5 to determine Chézy's coefficient  $C$  based on the method suggested by Richardson and Simons.

3.8. The following data were collected from a laboratory flume: particle size,  $d_{50} = 0.19$  mm, discharge  $Q = 4.092$  ft<sup>3</sup>/s, velocity  $V = 0.93$  ft/s, slope  $S = 0.0057$ , total bed-material concentration  $C = 4$  ppm by weight, water temperature  $T = 18.1^\circ\text{C}$ , depth  $D = 0.55$  ft, width  $W = 8$  ft. The observed bed form is ripples. Compute the velocity, depth, slope, and Manning's roughness coefficient based on Yang's minimum unit stream power theory and his 1973 unit stream power equation. Compare the computed minimum unit stream power with that shown in Fig. 3.15.

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سری سائل سارو ۶ : فزائست و سائوت جزی در مجاری سببی

① The following data were collected in an 8 ft-wide laboratory flume:

Particle Size (mm)	Velocity (ft/s)	Slope	Concentration (ppm)	Temp. (°C)	Depth (ft)	Observed Bed Form
0.19	2.69	0.0013	1270	19.7	1.02	Dune
0.19	4.33	0.0030	9240	18.9	0.64	Antidune

- \* Determine the bed form based on the methods suggested by: (a) Engelund and Hansen (1966), (b) Simons and Richardson (1967).
- \* Compare and discuss the predicted and observed results.

② The following data are available from a river reach.

Discharge  $Q = 13240 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ ; mean velocity  $V = 1.63 \text{ m/s}$ ; slope  $S = 0.85 \times 10^{-4}$ ; bed-material concentration  $C_t = 38.4 \text{ ppm}$  by weight; water temperature  $T = 27.8^\circ\text{C}$ ; average depth  $D = 15.1 \text{ m}$ ; average width  $W = 529 \text{ m}$ ; bed material size  $d_{35} = 0.5 \text{ mm}$ ,  $d_{50} = 0.7 \text{ mm}$ ,  $d_{65} = 0.8 \text{ mm}$ .

- Compute the flow depth using the Einstein procedure
- Compare the calculated depth with the measured depth.

③ Use the data given in Problem ② to compute the flow discharge using the Einstein procedure, and compare with the measured discharge.



①

۱۳۰۴

# فصل ۱: انتقال رسوب (Sediment Transport)

شرایط حمل رسوب:

- ۱) حضور مواد رسوبی Availability of Sediment
- ۲) قابلیت جریان برای انتقال رسوب Capability of flow for sediment transport

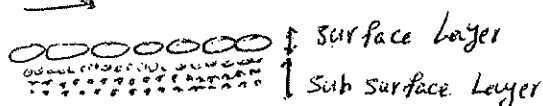
تنوع در روشهای حمل رسوب عموماً:

- بار رسوب رسوبی غیر چسبند (Non-cohesive) - تا حدی رسوب رسوبیت درخت

$$\text{Uniform Size} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} C_u < 4 \\ \sigma_g < 1.3 \end{array} \right. \quad \text{نسبتاً یکنواخت}$$

- عموماً تأثیر Bed Armoring و Paving (در نظر گرفته نشد است) (در رودخانههای غیر نشیمن)

- بیشتر در مجاری رسوب رسوبی (Sand bed) - یکنواختی توزیع ذرات در عمق:



- نتایج تجربی عموماً در محاسباتی آزمونگاهی

- ضرایب تجربی دارند - محدودیت کاربرد مناسب تا شرایط استخراج معادلات

حمل رسوب بستگی دارد به:

- ۱- خصوصیات جریان/موقعیتی در بازه مورد نظر (Local flow condition)
- ۲- خصوصیات فیزیکی مواد رسوبی (sediment characteristics)

$$\text{خصوصیات جریان/موقعیتی} \rightarrow \underbrace{V, d, S, u_* \text{ یا } T}_{\text{جریان}} \text{ و } \underbrace{\rho, \mu, \sigma_g}_{\text{رسوب}}$$

(۲۵۲)

(۲)

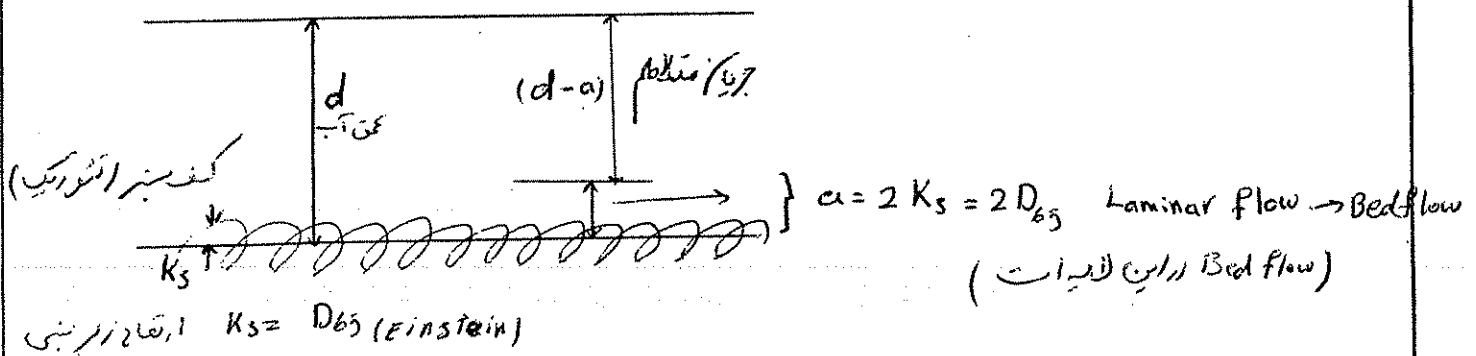
خصوصیات فیزیکی مواد رسوبی مانند :

اندازه شاخص مواد متری ( $D_s$ ) و دانسیته نسبی ( $S_g$ ) و انحرافت معیار چندی ذرات سبب ( $G_g$ )  
و سرعت سقوط ( $w_s$ ) و ...

حالات انتقال رسوب : Mode of Sediment Transport

Sediment Suspend flow جریان معلق در ناحیه جریان متلاطم	Wash Load بار نشسته قابلیت نشینی را ندارد	in suspension تعلیق کامل - معلق ریخته	Measured Load
		Saltation حالت جهش دپوش دارد (ناپوشه)	un measured Load
Sediment Bed flow جریان در لایه بستر	Bed material load $\neq$ bed load	Contact Load غلطی و لغزش (پوشه درگ سر دراز) در تماس با بستر است	
بر اساس مکانیزم حرکت مواد رسوبی (در لایه بستر یا در لایه جریان متلاطم)	بر اساس ترکیب مواد رسوبی (از نظر قابلیت نشینی مواد) توضیحات در صفحه ۱۳ و ۱۴	از نظر مکانیزم حرکت مواد (از میخاوش تا جلدی عم است)	از نظر اندازه گیری (سکونت و حرکت)

بار کف + بار معلق که قابلیت نشینی را دارند = Bed material load



ضخامت  $a$  : Bed layer (لایه بستر) که جریان در آن لامینار است

بار معلق: باری است که قابلیت نشینی دارد و Wash load (شامل نمی شود)



۳۱

مقدار  $\alpha$  قرار داری است

Einstein :  $\alpha = 2 D_{65}$

Van Rijn :  $\alpha \gg 0.01 d$  یعنی برابر سبب است

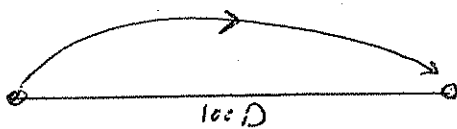
در این لایه نیز بر نقل غلبه است و حرکت مواد درشت رانه در این لایه است

حرکت مواد به صورت :

①  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{sliding (لغزشی)} \\ \text{Rolling (غلتشی)} \end{array} \right\} \leftarrow \text{Contact Bed load}$   
 (لغزش و غلتش) (لغزش و غلتش)  
 رسوب (لغزش و غلتش) (لغزش و غلتش)

②  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Jumping (پرش)} \\ \text{Bouncing (شماره)} \end{array} \right\} \leftarrow \text{Saltation}$   
 حرکت مواد به صورت پرش و پرتاب  
 (go-stop)  
 در شرایط high flow

در حالت Saltation :



H. Einstein  
 در هر بار ۱۰۰ برابر اندازه خود زره حرکت می کند

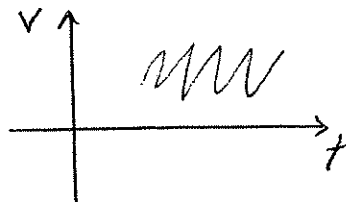
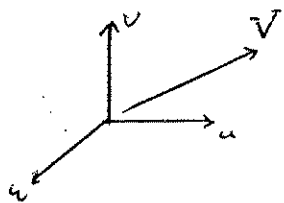
در محقق  $(\alpha - d)$  بالای لایه سبتر :  $\text{Turbulent}$  (توربولنت)

- مواد موجود در این لایه نیز رانه تراز مواد موجود در لایه سبتر  $(\alpha)$  هستند  
 عامل غالب  $\text{Turbulence}$  است نه  $\text{Gravity}$  (جاذبه) (توربولنت)

۴

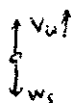
در چه تلامی بیشتر باشد معلوم بودن بیشتر خواهد بود.

$$\vec{V} = (u, v, w)$$



- حرکت به صورت معلق است. عوامل Suspension :

۱- مولفه قائم حرکت به طرف بالا که بر سرعت سقوط ( $w_s$ ) غلبه کند.



upward motion

۲- عامل Momentum Exchange (یا Density Current)

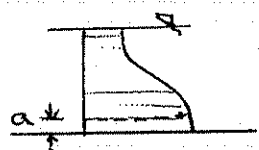
جریان از خلطت (خلوط آب و رسوب) بیشتر به خلطت کمتر. (از لایه بتیر به لایه بار بالا)

در اثر مولفه قائم رو به بالا، جریان به خلطت رسوبی بتیر به لایه بار بالا تری رود.  
همچنین در اثر Gravity به پایین می آید.

→ تعلیق

یک حالت تعادل بوجود می آید { در اثر Gravity ذرات پایین می آید  
در اثر Turbulence ذرات بالا می روند

→ توزیع تعادلی خلطت رسوب در لایه های مختلف جریان به وجود می آید.  
همچنین ذرات به هم ضربه می زنند و سرعت ته نشینی نمی دهند



خلطت رسوب دره زود  
ولی ضخامت کم است

به عبارت دیگر { نه اینکه هر ذرات در اثر Gravity پایین بیایند بلکه  
Turbulence بالا می روند

۳- مواقع و نام منظمی هستند جریان که عامل Eddy و Turbulence است

→ عامل تعلیق بتیر (نقل اثر خود را از ذرات می دهند) - حتی ذرات درشت را نه بصورت معلق از آن آید

(5)

: wash load

مواد رسوبی که قابلیت ته نشینی قابل ملاحظه در جریان ندارند و در مخزن

مواد ریز و کلوئیدین: Clay، کلوئیدال، Fine Silt

- عموداً منشأ فرسایش حوزه رودخانه دارند.

در لایه سطحی خاک در اثر sheet Erosion بوجود آمده و وارد جریان رودخانه می شوند.

- اهمیت بیشتر در کیفیت آب است (شیمیایی و بیولوژیکی) به دلیل جذب سطحی با ذرات رس

→ wash load رابطه معین با خصوصیات جریان ندارد (تابع خصوصیات جریان نیست)

→ ولی Bed Material Load تابع خصوصیات جریان (نش، تلاطم و...) است.

یعنی رابطه ریاضی و هیدرولیکی مباشر آن وجود دارد.

(مواد رسوبی که قابلیت ته نشینی دارند - هر چند در بازه بزرگ است بخشی به صورت معلق باقی می ماند)

\* شکل:

سرریز فیزیکی بین }  
wash load و  
Bed material load  
→ از نظر گابریل

در بازه مورد نظر به  $\Rightarrow$  مواد لایه بتری  $D_{10}$  < ذرات معلق در جریان Einstein: عنوان wash load در نظر گرفته می شود

↓ کیفیت آب  $\Rightarrow$  \* if wash load ↑

هم: مواد شبنم نشان دهنده قابلیت ته نشینی مواد رسوبی حمل شده در یک بازه معین رودخانه است

\* معیار هیدرولیکی و بیسی است - بین دو بازه متفاوت است.

(بکلی کتاب - Hydrometry (P. 162-3) مراجعه شود.)  
(۲۵۲)

(6)

معادلات رسوب :

تفکیکی از نظر Mode }  $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Bed Load Formula - 1} \\ \text{(بار کف یا بار بستر)} \\ \text{Suspended Load Formula - 2} \\ \text{(بار معلق)} \end{array} \right\}$  مشکل تقریبی سرزین این دو است

ترکیبی =  $\text{Total Load - 3}$    
 Formula   
 (Bed material Load)   
 خطا کمترین در دو بخش محاسباتی را ندارد.

از نظر کلی و اشیان خطا و تخمین. نه اندک است معادلات  $\text{Total Load}$  بهتر از تفکیکی ها جواب می دهد.

شامل بار رفته (wash load) می شود.

نه اینده حتماً معادلات  $\text{Total Load}$  بهتر از تفکیکی ها جواب می دهد.

در حالت ایده آل :

$$\text{Total Load} = \text{Bed Load} + \text{Suspended Load} = \text{Bed Material Load}$$

- از نظر هیدرولیکی رودخانه (اندازه گیری بار رسوبی در استیجای هیدرولیکی) :

برای اندازه گیری بار رسوبی در رودخانه (برای اندازه گیری بار رسوبی در رودخانه)   
 بار معلق (بار شناخته شده) + بار کف = بار کل رسوبی   
 اندازه گیری بار رسوبی در رودخانه (برای اندازه گیری بار رسوبی در رودخانه)

- از نظر هیدرولیکی رودخانه (برای اندازه گیری بار رسوبی در رودخانه) :

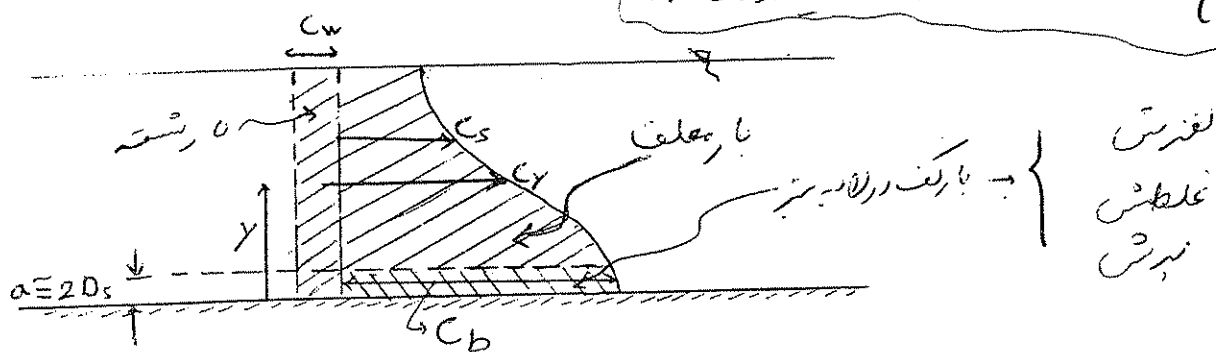
$$\text{بار معلق (بار شناخته شده)} + \text{بار کف} = \text{بار کل رسوبی}$$

به دلیل محدودیت تنوع در اطلاعات هیدرولیکی (از طریق اندازه گیری بار رسوبی در رودخانه) (از طریق اندازه گیری بار رسوبی در رودخانه)

۱- روش های محاسبه بار رسوبی   
 ۲- روش های محاسبه تفکیکی بار رسوبی و بار کف : حجم بار رسوبی   
 (۲۵۷)

(۷)

# توزیع غلظت رسوب در یک رودخانه



$C_p$  : غلظت کل بار رسوبی در عمق لا از کف بستر (kg/l)

$C_w$  : غلظت بار رسوبی (wash load) - یکنواخت در عمق (ذرات رسوبی اندک آنرا که قابلیت ته نشین شدن ندارند)

به تابع نیروی تحمل (تعلیق)

\* بار رسوبی تابع سرعت و به وسیله نیروی تحمل و در هر عمقی می تواند به غلظت ثابت باشد.

$C_s$  : غلظت بار معلق (suspended load)

(ذرات درشت تر از بار رسوبی هستند که به سرعت معلق حرکت نکنند ولی

قابلیت ته نشینی در سرعت های کمتر - در پایین رست - دارند)

به تابع تلاطم جریان و نیروی تحمل هستند.

اگر سرعت و تلاطم جریان در پایین رست کم شود به ازای یک معلق به بارکف در آن آید

غلظت  $C_s$  در عمق متغیر است

$C_b$  : غلظت بارکف (مواد درشت را نه در ضخامت کم  $a$  حرکت میکنند)

غلظت ثابت در تله گرد فته می شود

به تابع نیروی تحمل هستند (از نیروی تحمل ابرام است)



Bed Load →

When bed load measurements are carried out, it is important to realise that this transport takes place as the propagation of bed forms; the transport intensity on the top of the dunes is large and in the troughs small or nil.

The integration time for a bed load sampler is relatively small (2 minutes) for technical reasons, whereas the period of the fluctuations in the bed load transport varies between several hours and even days. Consequently, an estimate of the average bed load in a cross section can only be obtained by taking a large series of measurements. Measurements should therefore cover at least the time required for several dunes, to pass the control section.

#### 5.4.3 Suspended load

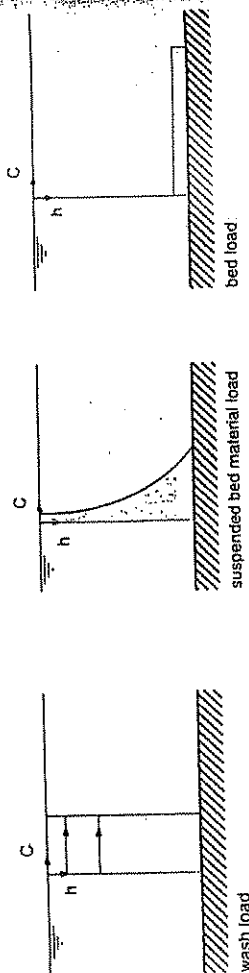
Suspended load is the transport of bed particles which are in suspension when the gravity force is counterbalanced by upward forces due to the turbulence of the flowing water. This means that the particles make larger or smaller jumps, but eventually return to the riverbed. By that time, however, other particles from the bed will be in suspension and, consequently, the concentration of particles transported as suspended load does not change rapidly in the various layers.

A strict division between bed load and suspended load is not possible; in fact, the mechanisms are related. It is therefore not surprising that the so-called 'total load equations' have a similar construction as the bed load equations. Bed load and suspended load together are often called bed material load or total load (wash load is not included).

Many total load equations have been developed, such as the equation of Engelund and Hansen. These equations do not give information on the distribution of the concentration of particles in the vertical. The value of the concentration ( $C$ ) is often determined theoretically. In most cases it is recommended to carry out suspended-load measurements, taking measuring points at various heights in each vertical in order to know the concentration-distribution in the vertical.

Figure 5.4 shows the distribution in the vertical for the various kinds of transport.

Figure 5.4. Distribution of concentration in the vertical (after: Hayes, 1978).



#### 5.4.4 Wash load

Wash load is the transport of small particles finer than the bulk of the bed material and rarely found in the bed. Transport quantities found from bed load, suspended-load and total load formulae do not include wash load quantities.

However, in dynamic braided sections big quantities of silt may accumulate behind bars, in abandoned scour holes, etc., complicating the conditions considerably.

Whereas for a certain cross section quantities of suspended load and bed load can be calculated with the use of the locally valid hydraulic conditions, this is not the case for wash load. The rate of wash load is mainly determined by climatological characteristics and the erosion features of the whole catchment area.

As there is normally no interchange with bed particles, wash load is not important for local scour. Due to the very low fall velocity of the wash load particles, wash load only contributes to sedimentation in areas with low flow velocities (harbours, reservoirs, dead river branches, etc.) Due to the small fall velocity, in turbulent water the concentration of the particles over a vertical (generally expressed in parts per million, p.p.m) is rather uniform, so that even with one water sample a fairly good impression can be obtained. The wash load concentration over the width, however, may vary considerably.

### 5.5 SEDIMENT TRANSPORT MEASUREMENTS

#### 5.5.1 Introduction

The instruments and methods, mentioned in this section, were developed for the measurement of bed load, suspended-load and wash load.

Many instruments – not mentioned here – are used in various parts of the world.

The great variety of instruments and methods is mainly related to the high inaccuracy which makes a clear selection of instruments and methods rather difficult.

A number of national institutes with a wide experience in hydrometric surveys are still continuing to improve existing instruments and to develop new types and methods.

The instruments described here are an arbitrary collection, subdivided according to the type of sediment load, as follows.

For a more detailed description of a number of instruments of the various types, reference is made to literature (Van Rijn, 1986).

## ۲-۲ روشهای اندازه گیری بار رسوبی

## ۲-۲-۱ روشهای اندازه گیری بار معلق

یکی از شکلهای حرکت مواد رسوبی، حالت معلق (Suspension) می باشد. این شکل حرکتی نسبی می باشد، با این وجود، ذرات بار معلق در مقایسه با مواد بستری بسیار ریزتر می باشند و در اندازه گیری مستقیم، بار رسوبی شسته نیز در مجموعه بار معلق اندازه گیری می شود.

## ۲-۲-۱-۱ انواع نمونه بردارها

نمونه برداری از مواد معلق با استفاده از دونوع نمونه بردار دستی DH-48 و نمونه بردار وزنی DH-9 به روش تجمعی عمقی انجام می شود. انتخاب نمونه بردار تابع خصوصیات جریان می باشد. نمونه بردارها براساس نحوه نمونه گیری به دو نوع تقسیم می شوند:

(الف) - نمونه بردارهای نقطه ای (Point Integrating).

(ب) - نمونه بردارهای عمقی (Depth Integrating).

## (الف) - نمونه بردارهای نقطه ای (PI)

نمونه بردارهای نقطه ای (PI)، برای تعیین توزیع رسوب معلق در یک نقطه عمقی معین از جریان بکار گرفته می شود و نمونه بردارهایی از این نوع کلیه مواد معلق را اندازه گیری می نمایند.

(ب) - نمونه بردارهای عمقی (DI)

نمونه بردار عمقی (DI) با حرکت رفت و برگشتی با سرعت ثابت در عمق، مورد استفاده قرار می گیرند. مشخصات این دستگاه در ضمیمه (۱-۲) ارائه شده است.

## ۲-۲-۱-۲ انتخاب محل نمونه برداری

چون حداکثر حمل رسوب در مواقع سیلابی رخ می دهد، لذا نمونه برداری رسوب می بایستی در برگرنده جریانات سیلابی نیز باشد. مناسب ترین محل برای نمونه گیری، مقاطعی از رودخانه می باشد که جریان متلاطم کامل باشد، تا نمونه برداری رسوب بهتر صورت گیرد. انتخاب مناسب موقعیت ایستگاه های هیدرومتری جهت اندازه گیری آب و نمونه برداری از رسوب از اهمیت ویژه ای برخوردار است [۴].

## ۲-۲-۱-۳ روش های نمونه برداری

## ۱- روش چند مقطعی:

در این روش، مقطع اندازه گیری جریان مشخص شده و عرض مقطع به فواصل مساوی تقسیم می شود. نمونه برداری در هریک از فواصل و در عمیق ترین قسمت انجام می گردد.



حاصل ضرب دبی هر مقطع جزئی ( $Q_i$ ) در غلظت متوسط همان مقطع ( $C_i$ ) دبی مواد معلق در هر مقطع جزئی را نشان می دهد. دبی مواد معلق کل مقطع ( $Q_s$ )، بوسیله رابطه زیر محاسبه می شود.

$$Q_s = \sum_{i=1}^n C_i Q_i \quad (1-2)$$

$C_i$  = غلظت مواد معلق در مقطع جزئی  $i$ ام؛  $Q_i$  = دبی جریان در مقطع جزئی  $i$ ام رودخانه؛  $Q_s$  = دبی مواد معلق و  $n$  تعداد مقاطع جزئی می باشد.

یکی از کاربردها و امتیازات روش چند مقطعی، استفاده از این روش در مواقع سیلابی می باشد، بطوریکه با نمونه برداری از عمیق ترین نقطه مقطع می توان میزان غلظت متوسط مواد معلق مقطع را برآورد نمود. سپس با تعیین دبی جریان، دبی مواد معلق را تعیین کرد. لازمه نیل به این هدف انجام مراحل محاسباتی ذیل می باشد:

غلظت متوسط برای کل مقطع ( $C_m$ ) از رابطه زیر تعیین شود

$$C_m = \frac{Q_s}{Q} \quad (2-2)$$

$C_m$  = غلظت متوسط و  $Q$  = دبی کل مقطع می باشد.

نسبت غلظت در عمیق ترین نقطه مقطع  $C_f$  به غلظت متوسط ( $C_m$ ) در مقابل  $Q$  رسم می شود. چنانچه حداقل ۲۰ داده در دبی های مختلف در طول یک سال نمونه برداری گردیده و نسبت فوق محاسبه شده باشد، در جریانهای سیلابی تنها با مشخص کردن  $C_f$  و  $Q$  مقدار متوسط  $C_m$  محاسبه و مقدار  $Q_s$  بصورت زیر محاسبه می گردد:

$$Q_s = 0.0864 Q C_m \quad (3-2)$$

$Q_s$  = دبی مواد معلق بر حسب (ton/day)؛  $Q$  = دبی رودخانه بر حسب ( $m^3/s$ )؛  $C_m$  = غلظت مواد رسوبی بر حسب (mg/lit).

## ۲- روش سه مقطعی

در صورتی که نمونه برداری به روش چند مقطعی امکان پذیر نباشد، مقطع عرضی به سه قسمت تقسیم می شود، بطوریکه دبی هر قسمت تقریباً با هم مساوی باشند. آنگاه از وسط هر قسمت یک نمونه به روش عمقی تجمعی برداشت می شود. ضمناً اگر مقطع را نتوان به سه قسمت تقسیم نمود که دبی یکسان داشته باشند، دبی هر قسمت را باید به طریقی محاسبه کرد و در این صورت مقدار بار معلق برابر است با [۴]:

$$Q_s = Q_1 C_1 + Q_2 C_2 + Q_3 C_3 \quad (4-2)$$

## ۳- روش سازمان آب

نمونه برداری از مواد معلق در رودخانه ها همزمان با عملیات هیدرومتری انجام می شود و لازمه برآورد دقیق بار معلق، عملیات هیدرومتری دقیق می باشد.

عملیات هیدرومتری مراحل زیر را شامل می گردد.

## • انتخاب و تقسیم بندی مقطع عرضی

عملیات هیدرومتری در یک مقطع پایدار و مشخص باید انجام گردد، این مقطع، عموماً مقطع عرضی ایستگاه هیدرومتری می باشد. در صورتیکه در مقاطعی غیر از مقاطع ایستگاههای هیدرومتری نیاز به نمونه برداری باشد، (بطور مثال: در برخی شاخه های فرعی بدون ایستگاه و یا در اندازه گیری بار کف که لزوماً در محل ایستگاهها انجام نمی شود) مقطع انتخابی باید عمود بر راستای جریان بوده و در بازه ای با راستای نسبتاً مستقیم از رودخانه با دیواره های پایدار قرار داشته باشد. تقسیم بندی مقطع عرضی با کابل مدرج تثبیت یافته در سواحل رودخانه ای انجام می شود.

نقاط بر روی کابل به فواصل یک متر نشانه گذاری شده اند و فاصله از ساحل با شمارش متوالی نقاط نشان دار معین میگردد. دو نقطه بر روی کابل مدرج که در هریک از آنها اندازه گیری سرعت با مولینه انجام می شود، تشکیل دهنده یک مقطع جزئی می باشند. فاصله این دو نقطه با توجه به پهنای رودخانه، شرایط بستر و نوسانات دبی تعیین می گردد. بعنوان مثال، چنانچه بر رودخانه شرایط سیلابی حاکم باشد، عرض مقاطع جزئی بزرگتر انتخاب میگردد و در شرایط کم آبی عکس این حالت رخ می دهد.

تعیین عمق جریان (اندازه قاعده های مقاطع جزئی) با میله مدرج انجام می شود. با مشخص شدن عمق جریان، سطح مقطع تقریبی جریان و مقطع عرضی جریان مشخص می شود.

## • اندازه گیری سرعت

با توجه به عمق جریان، سرعت جریان با مولینه در هریک از زیر مقاطع اندازه گیری می شود. چنانچه عمق آب (d) کمتر از ۰/۶ متر باشد، سرعت جریان تنها در عمق ۰/۶d از سطح آب اندازه گیری میگردد. در عمقهای بیشتر از ۰/۷ متر سرعت جریان در عمقهای ۰/۲d و ۰/۸d از سطح آب اندازه گیری می شود. میانگین دو سرعت اندازه گیری شده، سرعت متوسط جریان خواهد بود. با اندازه گیری سرعت جریان در هریک از زیر مقاطع، دبی کل مقطع عرضی قابل محاسبه می باشد. پس از اتمام عملیات هیدرومتری و تعیین دبی جریان نمونه برداری از مواد معلق انجام می شود. نمونه محاسبات هیدرومتری در جدول (۲-۱) ارائه شده است.

## • نمونه برداری بار معلق

نمونه برداری از بار معلق بصورت پیوسته عمقی و در سه مقطع انجام می گردد. این سه مقطع شامل، ناحیه ساحل راست، ناحیه ساحل چپ و مقطع میانی جریان (عمیق ترین نقطه جریان) می باشد. در نمونه برداری عمقی بطری شیشه ای در داخل نمونه گیر قرار گرفته و نمونه گیر بصورت رفت و برگشت تا ۸۰٪ حجم بطری پر می گردد. نمونه ها پس از انتقال به آزمایشگاه رسوب، تعیین غلظت شده و متوسط غلظت سه مقطع به کل مقطع لحاظ می شود. با در نظر گرفتن دبی جریان، مقدار کل بار معلق عبوری از مقطع مشخص می شود.

## ۲-۱-۴- محاسبه بار معلق

چنانچه اشاره گردید، نمونه برداری و محاسبات بار رسوبی معلق در محل ایستگاه های هیدرومتری بروش سه مقطعی انجام می شود. نمونه محاسبات بار معلق در جدول (۲-۲) ارائه شده است.

۴/۱۱

جدول (۱-۲): نمونه محاسبات دبی جریان در ایستگاه های هیدرومتری

(برگه اندازه گیری)											
روزه آبریز		مدار		رودخانه		ظهور		ایستگاه		پل یزدگان	
شماره	نقطه	مساحت	عمق	ارتفاع	تعداد	مده	سرعت	سرعت	سرعت	سرعت	سرعت
نقطه	مبدا	م	م	م	دور	س	م/ث	م/ث	م/ث	م/ث	م/ث
1	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
2	3.00	0.25	0.50	317	40	2.059	2.059	2.059	2.059	2.059	2.059
3	7.00	0.18	0.60	238	40	1.546	1.546	1.546	1.546	1.546	1.546
4	11.00	0.39	0.60	301	40	1.955	1.955	1.955	1.955	1.955	1.955
5	15.00	0.27	0.60	296	40	1.923	1.923	1.923	1.923	1.923	1.923
6	16.00	0.26	0.60	309	40	2.007	2.007	2.007	2.007	2.007	2.007
7	19.00	0.25	0.60	279	40	1.812	1.812	1.812	1.812	1.812	1.812
8	22.00	0.27	0.60	321	40	2.085	2.085	2.085	2.085	2.085	2.085
9	25.00	0.20	0.60	237	40	1.539	1.539	1.539	1.539	1.539	1.539
10	28.00	0.09	0.60	116	40	0.753	0.753	0.753	0.753	0.753	0.753
11	31.00	0.20	0.60	224	40	1.455	1.455	1.455	1.455	1.455	1.455
12	36.00	0.00	0.00	0	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

معمول سرعت: ۱.۵۶ م/ث  
 سطح مقطع: ۷.۷۰ مترمربع  
 دبی: ۱۲.۸۰۲ مترمکعب بر ثانیه  
 واحد: دانه گندله

جدول (۲-۲): نمونه محاسبات بار معلق برش سه مقطعی

آزمایش رسوب									
سازمان آب منطقه ای آذربایجان غربی									
ایستگاه پل یزدگان									
روبخانه قطورچای									
تاریخ	82/02/30	تاریخ	تاریخ	تاریخ	تاریخ	تاریخ	تاریخ	تاریخ	تاریخ
شماره	نمونه	وزن کاغذ	حجم	وزن کاغذ	وزن خالص	لغظت	معمول	دبی رسوب	تاریخ
شماره	نمونه	وزن کاغذ	حجم	وزن کاغذ	وزن خالص	لغظت	معمول	دبی رسوب	تاریخ
شماره	نمونه	وزن کاغذ	حجم	وزن کاغذ	وزن خالص	لغظت	معمول	دبی رسوب	تاریخ
1	1.3093	370	2.7066	1.3973	3775	3795	4197.62	12.802	157
2	1.3467	370	2.5095	1.1628	3143				
3	1.3449	395	3.1085	1.7636	4465				

کنترل کننده

تاریخ تهیه

## ۲-۲-۲- روشهای اندازه گیری بار کف

اندازه گیری رسوبات حمل شده در نزدیکی بستر به دلیل دشواری در نمونه برداری، تأثیر عوامل مختلف هیدرولیکی و مرفولوژیک بستر یکی از مسایل پیچیده در مهندسی رودخانه و هیدرومتری محسوب می شود.

### ۲-۲-۲-۱- انواع نمونه بردارها

نمونه بردارها را به دو گروه می توان تقسیم کرد:

- نمونه بردارهای ثابت یا پیوسته

- نمونه بردارهای متحرک

نمونه بردارهای ثابت یا پیوسته

برای ایجاد این نوع نمونه بردارها، ترانشه یا گودالی در کف رودخانه حفر می شود و تجهیزات اندازه گیری در داخل آن جای می گیرد. این نوع نمونه بردارها میزان بار کف را بطور پیوسته اندازه گیری کرده و به سهولت می توان نوسانات زمانی بار کف را بررسی نمود [۲۸].

این نوع نمونه بردارها معمولاً به دلیل هزینه بالا، کاربری عمومی نداشته و تنها در شرایط خاص و تحقیقاتی استفاده می شوند.

نمونه بردارهای متحرک

اولین نوع این نمونه بردارها، نمونه بردار Arnheim می باشد. که امروزه فرم اصلاح شده آن با عنوان (Helley-Smith) بصورت (Bed Load Sampler) در مقیاس وسیع جهانی کاربرد دارد. این وسیله توسط سازمان نقشه برداری و زمین شناسی آمریکا ساخته شده است [۱۹].

مشخصات و شکل دستگاه در ضمیمه (۲-۲)، ارائه شده است.

### ۲-۲-۲-۲- انتخاب محل نمونه برداری

جریانهای رودخانه ای حداکثر بار رسوبی (بار کف و بار معلق) را در مواقع سیلابی به همراه دارند. با توجه به ابعاد و وزن دستگاه و سرعت و عمق بالای جریان، نمونه برداری بایستی در ایستگاه های هیدرومتری دارای پل تلفریک انجام شود.

- در انتخاب محل ایستگاه نمونه برداری، بایستی ارزیابی اولیه از نقاط قوت و ضعف ایستگاه منتخب در مقایسه با سایر ایستگاه ها صورت پذیرد. بطور مثال، انتخاب ایستگاه های نمونه برداری رسوب در مکانهایی که در پایین دست آن سازه های آبی قرار داشته یا در حال احداث می باشند در ارجحیت می باشند.

- پروفیل عرضی در محل ایستگاه تهیه گردد.

- مشخصات مواد بستری از قبیل اندازه مواد، شکل، ترکیب و نوع مواد بستری مورد بررسی قرار گیرد [۷].

### ۲-۲-۲-۳- روش های نمونه برداری

نمونه برداری بار کف با استفاده از دستگاه هلی اسمیت به چهار روش انجام می شود:

الف - روش تقسیم بندی مقطع به اجزاء مساوی و با یک بار نمونه برداری رفت و برگشتی از مقطع (SEWT).

- ب - روش تقسیم‌بندی مقطع به اجزاء مساوی و با چندین بار نمونه‌برداری رفت و برگشتی از مقطع (MEWI).  
 پ - روش تقسیم بندی مقطع به اجزاء غیر مساوی (UWI).  
 ج - روش متداول سازمان آب در ایران.

#### الف - نمونه‌برداری به روش (SEWI)

- (۱) - مقطع عرضی با توجه به عرض رودخانه به فواصل مساوی تقسیم می‌شود بطوریکه حداقل دارای ۲۰ قسمت مساوی باشد، لیکن فواصل دو نقطه متوالی نبایستی بیشتر از ۱۵ متر و کمتر از ۳۰ سانتیمتر باشد.
- (۲) - نمونه‌برداری از وسط هر جزء تقسیم انجام می‌شود.
- (۳) - نمونه‌برداری از یک طرف ساحل شروع و پس از اتمام عملیات، مجدداً از ساحل اولیه نمونه‌برداری تکرار می‌شود.
- (۴) - زمان نمونه‌برداری (زمان توقف دستگاه نمونه‌بردار در بستر) می‌بایست برای همه اندازه‌گیریها در یک مقطع عرضی یکسان باشد.
- (۵) - نمونه‌های برداشت شده از محورهای عمودی می‌توانند با یکدیگر ترکیب شوند ولی به منظور شناخت تغییرات بار رسوبی در عرض بهتر است نمونه‌ها هر کدام بصورت جداگانه آنالیز شوند.
- (۶) - زمان نمونه‌برداری، تاریخ، محل، نام متصدی، شماره، عرض مقطع، جزء مقطع، تعداد کل نمونه‌ها و دیگر مشخصات لازم جهت محاسبات بار کف یادداشت گردد [۷].

#### ب - نمونه‌برداری به روش (MEWI)

- (۱) - مقطع عرضی رودخانه به ۴ یا ۵ قسمت مساوی تقسیم می‌شود.
- (۲) - نمونه‌برداری از یک طرف ساحل شروع و پس از اتمام عملیات، مجدداً از ساحل اولیه نمونه‌برداری تکرار می‌شود. این عمل بین ۸ تا ۱۰ بار تکرار شده تا در مجموع ۴۰ نمونه برداشت شود.
- (۳) - نمونه‌برداری از وسط هر جزء تقسیم انجام می‌شود.
- (۴) - در این روش چنانچه از نمونه‌های ترکیبی استفاده شود، لازم است زمان نمونه‌برداری در هر محور عمودی با هم برابر باشد، ولی چنانچه نمونه‌های برداشت شده در هر محور بطور جداگانه ثبت و وزن گردند، لازم نیست زمان نمونه‌برداری یکسان باشد.
- (۵) - زمان نمونه‌برداری، تاریخ، محل، نام متصدی، شماره، عرض مقطع، تعداد کل نمونه‌ها و دیگر مشخصات لازم جهت محاسبات بار کف یادداشت می‌گردد [۷].

#### پ - نمونه‌برداری به روش (UWI)

- (۱) - مقطع عرضی رودخانه حداقل به چهار قسمت تقسیم می‌شود به نحوی که هر قسمت تقریباً دارای بار رسوبی یکسان باشد.
- (۲) - نمونه‌برداری از یک طرف ساحل شروع و پس از اتمام عملیات، مجدداً از ساحل اولیه نمونه‌برداری تکرار می‌گردد. نمونه برداری، تا تهیه حداقل ۴۰ نمونه ادامه پیدا می‌کند.

۷/۱۲  
۳- انتخاب محل نمونه برداری اختیاری می باشد، در وسط مقاطع جزئی یا در انتهای هریک از مقاطع جزئی.

۴- در این روش چنانچه از نمونه های ترکیبی استفاده شود، لازم است زمان نمونه برداری در محورهای عمودی با هم برابر باشند ولی چنانچه نمونه های برداشت شده در هر محور بطور جداگانه ثبت و وزن شود، لازم نیست زمان نمونه برداری یکسان باشد.

۵- زمان نمونه برداری، تاریخ، محل، نام متصدی، شماره، عرض مقطع، تعداد کل نمونه ها و دیگر مشخصات لازم جهت محاسبات بار کف یادداشت میگردد [۷].

### ج- روش متداول سازمان آب در ایران

پس از اتمام عملیات هیدرومتری، با استقرار دستگاه هلی اسمیت در مقاطع مختلف رودخانه ای، نمونه برداری از مواد بستری آغاز می شود.

در دبی های کم تعیین محل مقطعی که در آن بار کف یا حرکت مواد بستری وجود دارد، نیازمند تجربه عملی و مهارت کاربر دستگاه هلی اسمیت می باشد. در غیر این صورت دستگاه باید در هریک از مقاطع جزئی قرار گیرد. قرارگیری دستگاه در تمامی مقاطع جزئی در مواقع سیلابی الزامی می باشد. محل استقرار دستگاه هلی اسمیت باید در کف رودخانه باشد، از قرار دادن دستگاه بر روی عوارض رودخانه ای (تخته سنگ ها و گودی ها) ممانعت شود. مدت زمان استقرار دستگاه بصورت دقیق اندازه گیری می شود. زمان استقرار دستگاه در بستر جریان بستگی به شدت انتقال مواد بستری دارد. در جریانهای سیلابی و دبی های بالا، مدت زمان استقرار دستگاه کوتاه بوده و در دبی های کم و جریانهای کم عمق، مدت زمان قرارگیری دستگاه طولانی تر خواهد بود. توجه به این نکته ضروری می باشد که نبایستی بیش از ۶۰٪ کیسه نمونه بردار پر شود [۳۲، ۷، ۲۹].

پس از خروج دستگاه از آب، بایستی وزن خشک نمونه مشخص گردد. چنانچه تعداد نمونه ها زیاد نباشد و امکان حمل نمونه ها ممکن باشد. نمونه ها به آزمایشگاه رسوب انتقال می یابد و در این آزمایشگاه وزن خشک ذرات رسوبی تعیین می شود. ولی چنانچه امکان انتقال نمونه ها به آزمایشگاه نباشد، وزن مستغرق نمونه ها در محل تعیین می شود و سپس توسط رابطه زیر به وزن خشک تبدیل می شود.

$$W_{dr} = \frac{G_s}{G_s - 1} W_{ss} \quad (5-2)$$

$G_s$  = چگالی ذرات رسوبی؛  $W_{ss}$  = وزن مستغرق رسوبات (مرطوب)؛  $W_{dr}$  = وزن خشک رسوبات

برای تکرار نمونه برداری کیسه کاملاً شسته شده و دستگاه دوباره جایگذاری می شود، جایگذاری دستگاه باید سریع انجام شود. نمونه برداری در هر مقطع حداقل در سه تکرار انجام می شود و در صورت اختلاف بیشتر از ۱۵٪ بین تکرارها، تعداد تکرارها افزایش می یابد.

دستگاه مورد استفاده سازمان آب، در بازه های مورد مطالعه دارای دهانه  $3in \times 3in$  می باشد. این دستگاه بدلیل محدودیت دهانه ورودی در مواقع سیلابی فاقد کارایی لازم است. بنابراین در مواقع سیلابی بایستی از دستگاه با دهانه  $6in \times 6in$  استفاده شود، که کاربرد این دستگاه بدلیل نامناسب بودن پل تلفریک و ایستگاه های هیدرومتری مورد استفاده قرار نمی گیرد.

• نکات کاربردی در نمونه‌برداری بار کف

چنین بنظر می‌رسد که، با استفاده از نمونه‌برداری به سادگی می‌توان میزان بار کف را محاسبه نمود، لیکن با توجه به عوامل محدودکننده شامل شکل و ترکیب و نوع مواد بستری، تغییرات و نوسانات بار کف نسبت به زمان و مکان، سبب ایجاد ابهامات و پیچیدگیهای زیادی در محاسبه بار کف گردیده‌است. رعایت موارد زیر در نمونه‌برداری صحیح و دقیق می‌تواند موثر واقع شود.

- ۱- در یک مقطع عرضی مشخص، تغییرات بار کف در عرض رودخانه با استفاده از روش (SEWT) و تغییرات زمانی بار کف با روشهای (UWI) و (MEWT) مشخص گردد و سپس نمونه‌برداری نهایی انجام شود.
- ۲- انجام عملیات نمونه‌برداری بار کف، بار معلق و هیدرومتری نیازمند پرسنل دقیق و با تجربه و آشنا با علم هیدرولیک می‌باشد و عامل انسانی در صحت عملیاتهای هیدرومتری نقش تعیین کننده‌ای دارد.
- ۳- لغزش و حرکت دستگاه هلی اسمیت و یا قرارگیری کاربر در کنار دستگاه - بویژه در رودخانه‌های ماسه‌ای و ناپایدار- سبب آبستنگی می‌شود که از وقوع آنها باید اجتناب شود.
- ۴- فرم بستری و موقعیت دستگاه نمونه‌برداری نقش مهمی در میزان بار کف ورودی به دستگاه هلی اسمیت دارد [۷،۳۲].

۲-۲-۴- محاسبه بار کف

پس از اتمام نمونه‌برداری میزان بار کف در هریک از مقاطع جزئی محاسبه می‌گردد. میزان بار کف در هر مقطع جزئی از رابطه (۲-۶) محاسبه می‌شود:

$$q_{bi} = \frac{km_i}{t} \quad (2-6)$$

$$Q_b = \sum_{i=1}^n q_{bi} \quad (2-7)$$

$q_{bi}$  = دبی بار کف در هر مقطع جزئی نام (ton/day)؛  $m_i$  = وزن متوسط خشک نمونه‌ها (gr)؛  $t_i$  = زمان نمونه‌برداری (sec)؛  $K$  = ضریب ثابت دستگاه های هلی اسمیت برای دهانه‌های ۲ و ۶ اینچ درمقیاس SI بترتیب ۱/۱۳۴ و ۰/۵۶؛  $Q_b$  = میزان کل بار کف عبوری از مقطع عرضی جریان (ton/day).  
جدول (۲-۳)، نمونه محاسبات بار کف را نمایش می‌دهد.

9/15

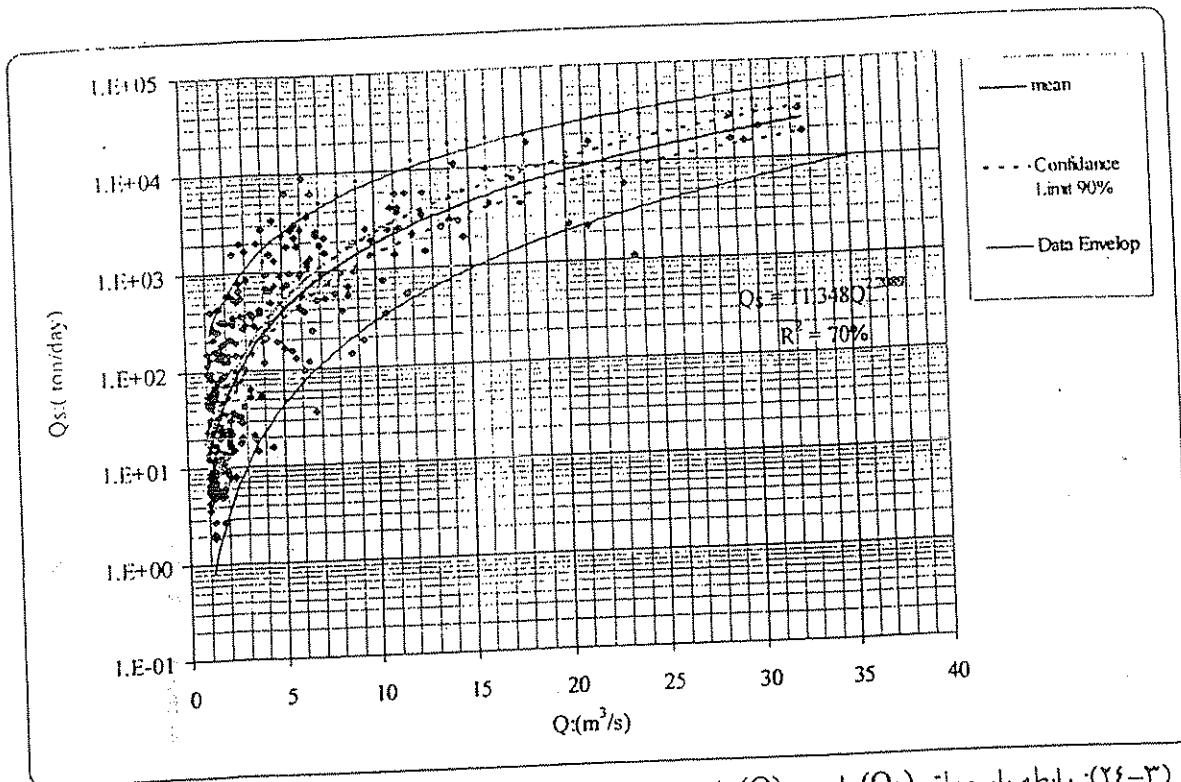
32/2/30 تاريخ التذليل  
14 جمادى 16 157

بر شامه رایانه ای متاعه: اکبر امیر

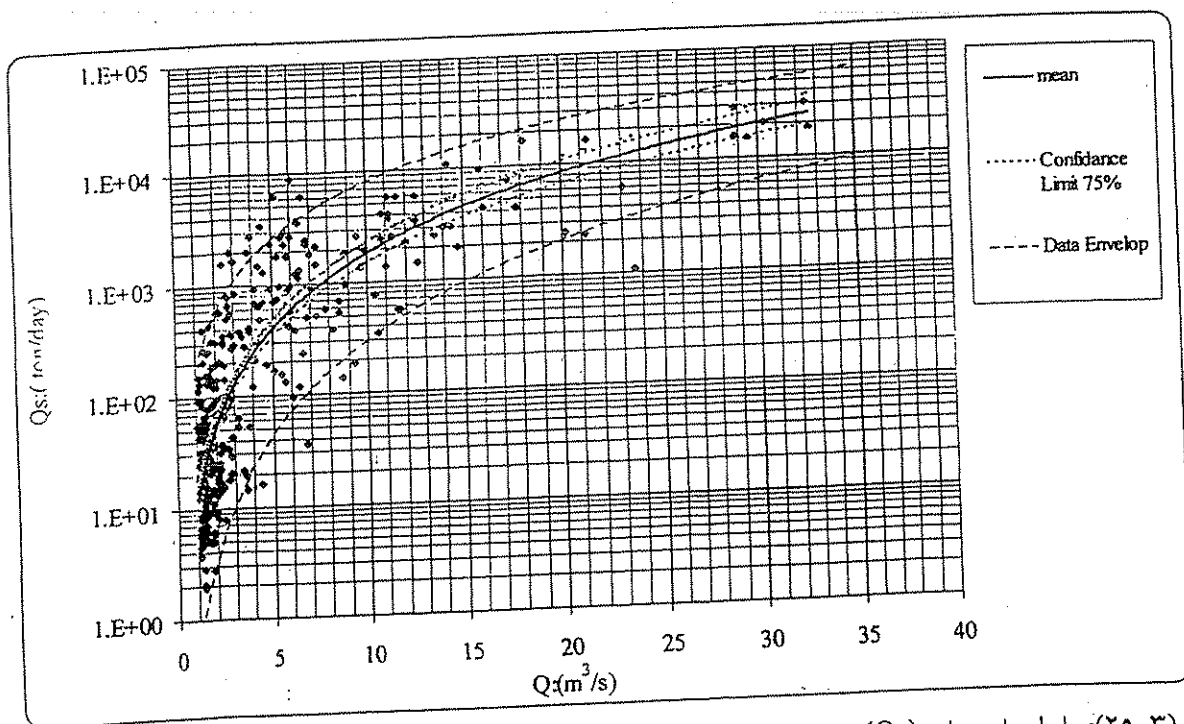
IV  
(449)



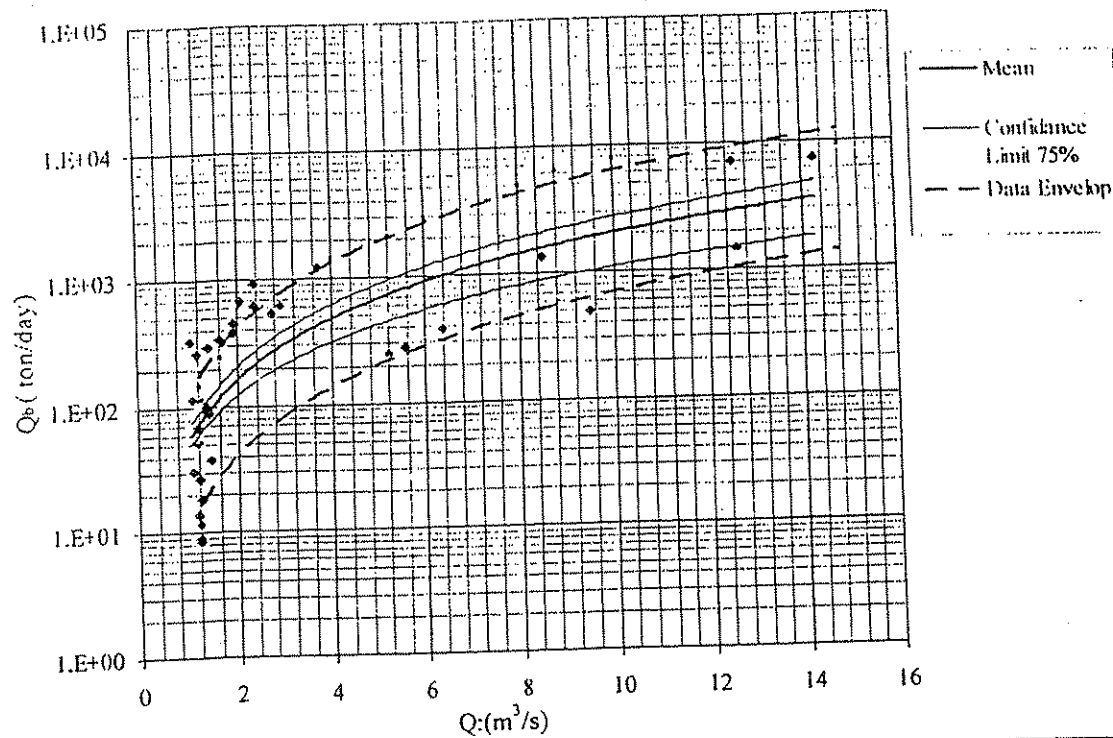
۱۰/۱۲



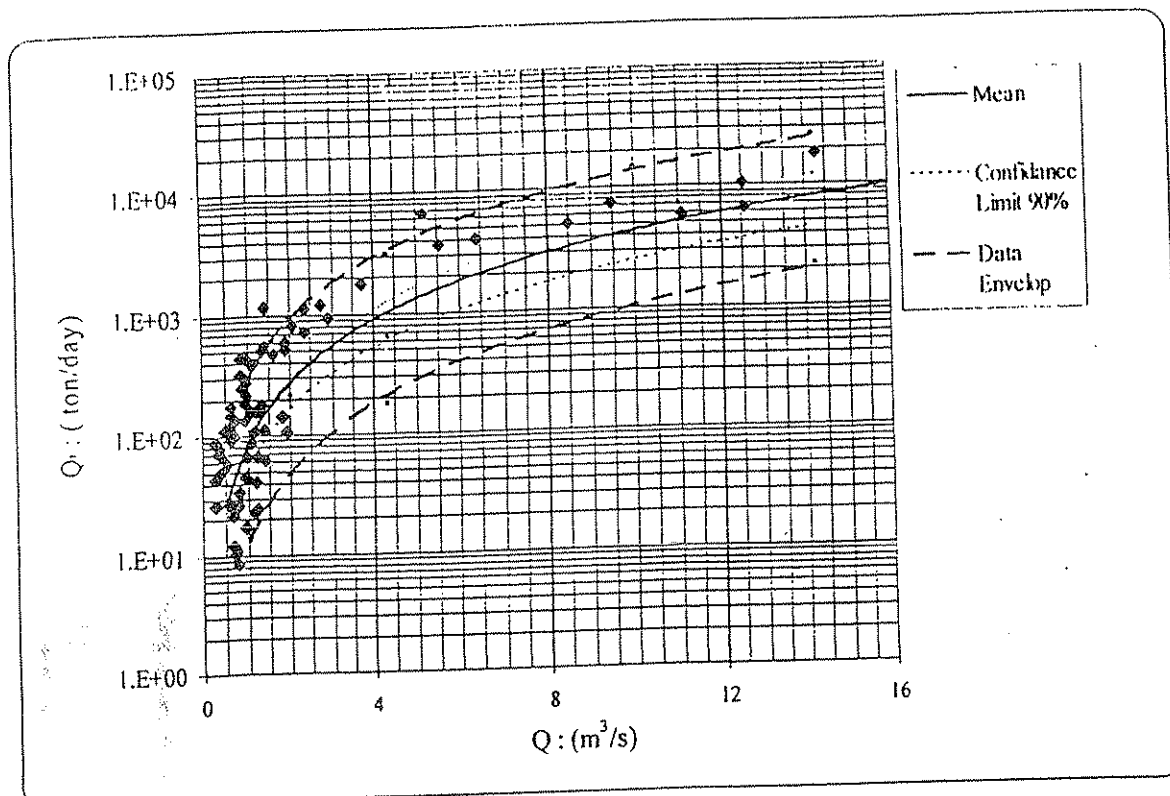
شکل (۳-۲۴): رابطه بار معلق ( $Q_s$ ) با دبی ( $Q$ ) با نمایش پوش داده ها و محدوده اطمینان ۹۰٪ در بازه بدلان



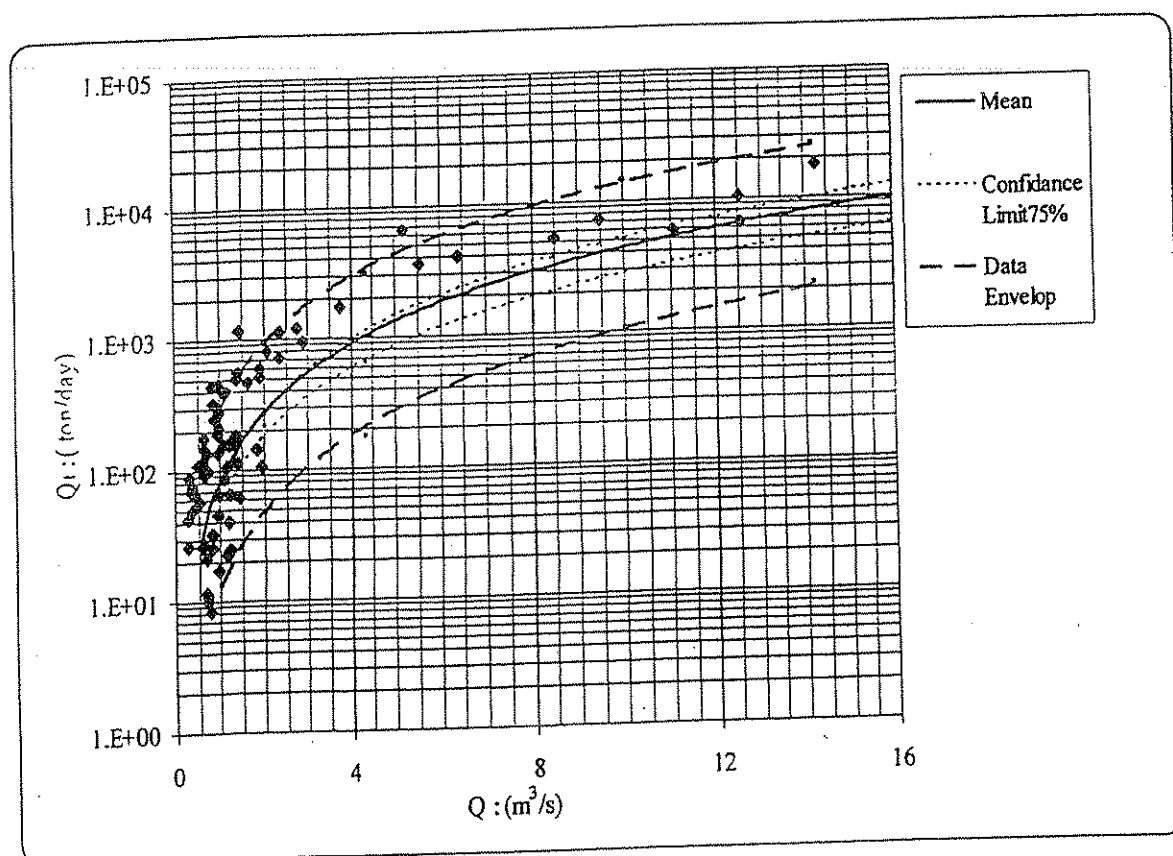
شکل (۳-۲۵): رابطه بار معلق ( $Q_s$ ) با دبی ( $Q$ ) با نمایش پوش داده ها و محدوده اطمینان ۷۵٪ در بازه بدلان



شکل (۳-۳): رابطه بار کف ( $Q_b$ ) با دبی ( $Q$ ) با نمایش پوش داده ها و محدوده اطمینان ۷۵٪ در بازه بدلان



شکل (۳-۳۴): رابطه بار کل رسوبی ( $Q_i$ ) با دبی ( $Q$ ) با نمایش پوش داده‌ها و محدوده اطمینان ۹۰٪ در بازه بدلان



شکل (۳-۳۵): رابطه بار کل رسوبی ( $Q_i$ ) با دبی ( $Q$ ) با نمایش پوش داده‌ها و محدوده اطمینان ۷۵٪ در بازه بدلان



روسی  
روس ما حیدر اولی

بد آورد

بار روسی

در  
رورخانه حما

(YVA)

۷

# برآورد بار رسوبی به اوش حیدرولیکی

(Bed Load Relationships)

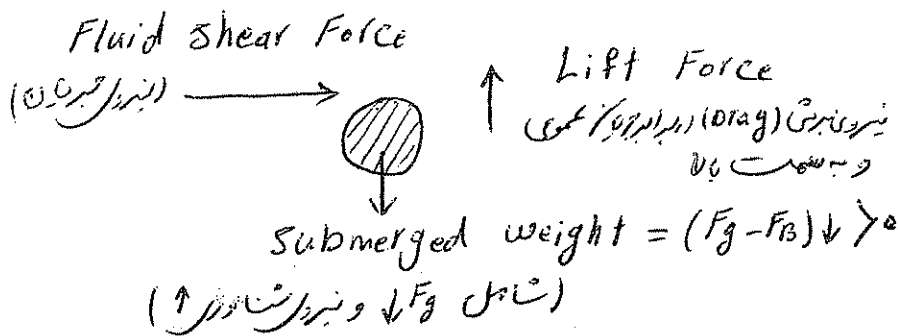
روابط بار رسوبی (با بار مته):

Sliding  
Rolling  
Saltating } موارد رسوبی که در لایه مته بافت a عبور می کنند

اساس:

۱) موارد غیر چسبند و درشت دانه

۲) از نظر تحلیلی



$$Q = A \cdot V$$

خصوصیات مواد رسوبی      خصوصیات سیال      خصوصیات محیط

$$Q_b = F [(\rho_s, \rho, \gamma), (\mu, \nu), (g, \omega_s, \omega)]$$

(Bed Load)      of flow      of fluid      of sediment

لحظه منبای بسیار از اکانسیرهای ابعادی

روشهای مختلف: Different APPROACHES

① shear stress / Discharge / velocity  
(Dubois (1879) Types)

① شرایط آستانه حرکت مواد مته

برای آنکه حرکت مواد رسوبی:  $(T_c \text{ یا } V_{cr} \text{ و } q_c)$   
تنش برشی بحرانی      سرعت بحرانی      دبی آستانه حرکت  
(۲۷۶)

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مثال  $q_b \propto (T - T_c)$  for  $T < T_c \Rightarrow q_b = 0$

## ② Regime Type Relationships :

در حالت Regime، رودخانه ظرفیت انتقال رسوب معینی دارد.  
رابطه بین عمق و عرض و شیب و دبی با بار رسوبی گت

برای هر شیب و عرض و دبی که رودخانه از حالت Regime خارج شود  
(اگر عمق و عرض و شیب در حالت رژیم خارج شود به بار رسوبی گت تغییر کند)

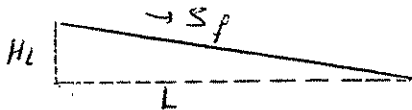
## ③ Energy slope ( $S_f$ ) Approach :

قدرت جریان با  $S_f$  است :  $(T \propto S_f)$

مثال : Meyer - Peter and Muler (1948)

$$q_b = f(S_f)$$

$$S_f = \frac{H_L}{L} = \text{مقدار افت انرژی (انداغ انرژی) در واحد طول رودخانه}$$



افت انرژی صرفاً جابجایی و انتقال مواد بستر است

## ④ Bed Form Approach

تفسیر فرم بستر به تغییر بار رسوب

(Enner 1931)

ارائه معادله پیوستگی بار رسوبی گت :

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{1-P} \cdot \frac{\partial q_b}{\partial x} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial t} \approx \frac{\partial z}{\partial t}$$

تغییر گت بستر (ارتفاع)

P: Porosity

ب P. 99 (۲۷۷) Yanq (1996) مراجعه شود



10

## ⑤ Probabilistic Approach

روش احتمالات :

برای خصوصیات تلام جزئی و پارامترهای آن بر :

مثال : Einstein (1942-1950)

Einstein - Brown (1950)

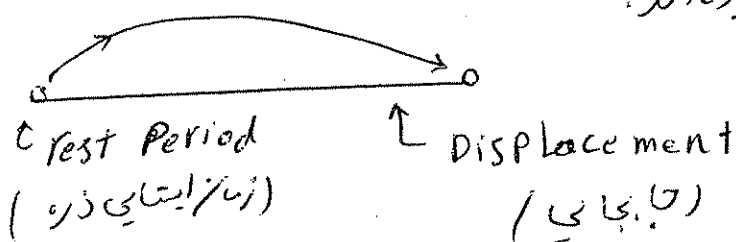
متوسط سرعت و تنش عوامل مهمی برای حرکت بهتر نیست بلکه تلام و نوسانات این پارامترها رفتار دارند. مثلاً در جریان گردابی.

## ⑥ Stochastic Approach

برای تحلیل فیزیک حرکت مواد پرت (برای س مکاتیزم حرکت)

Yang and Sayer (1971) :

حرکت مواد پرتی به صورت سر پرتی است. (چون غلبه بر سر خوردن معادلات پیچیده خواهد داشت.)  
تابع حرکت مواد را تعیین کرده اند.



$$q_b = (1 - f) V_s \frac{A}{z}$$

where  $V_s = \frac{d\bar{u}}{dt}$  <sup>که Displacement</sup>

Einstein:  $d\bar{u} = 100 D$

سرعت جابجایی ذرات

(۲۷۸)

11

## ⑦ Regression Approach :

برای سنجش نیازهای و نتایج تجربی

معادلات Regression چندمتغیره

مثال : Rottner (1959)

## ⑧ Equal mobility Approach

برای سنجش قابلیت یک حرکت مواد در رودخانه های بسترشی (Gravel Bed)

به صورت تابعی از خصوصیات جریان و مواد بستر

مثال : Parker (1990)

(12)

بار رسوبی کف :

معادلات اساسی بار رسوبی کف :

a) DuBoys' Formula (1879)

Critical Shear Stress : براساس

$$\tau_b = k \cdot T \cdot (\tau - \tau_c) \quad (ES)$$

(ارسیم انگلیسی)

$$k = \frac{0.173}{D_{50}^{3/4}} \quad \text{ft}^6/\text{lb}^2 \cdot \text{s}$$

 $D_{50} : \text{mm}$ 

\* اگر  $\tau_c = \tau$  باشد بار مبرر صفر می شود یعنی در حد آستانه است.  
روابط  $\tau$  به آکنده، بهتر اصلاح  $k$  است.

b) Shields Function (1936)

Critical shear stress : براساس

$$\frac{\tau_b \cdot \gamma_s}{\gamma \cdot \omega \cdot g} = 10 \frac{(\tau - \tau_c)}{(\gamma_s - \gamma \omega) D_{50}}$$

$$\tau = \gamma \gamma_s$$

 $\gamma$  : رپ واحد عرضی (پوند) $\tau_b$  : رپ واحد عرضی رسوب کف

c) Smart (1984)

$$q_b = 4.2 (\theta - \theta_c) D_{50}^{0.5} U^{0.5} \cdot s_f$$

where  $\theta = \frac{u_*^2}{g D_{50} (s_g - 1)}$

$$u_* = s_p \cdot T_c$$

d) van Rijn (1984-1993)

$$\theta_c = \text{critical value}$$

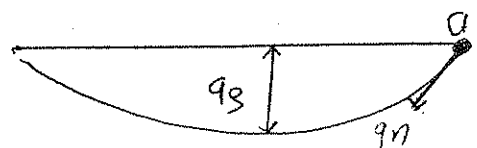
Equation of motion

saltation height

$u_b$ : particle velocity

$s_b$ : saltation height

$C_b$ : bed load concentration



$$q_b = u_b \cdot s_b \cdot C_b$$

like

(lower flow regime bed form, small scale bed form) plane bed

$$Fr < 0.9, \quad \tau_c h > 100 \text{ mm}, \quad D_{50} = 0.2 - 2 \text{ mm}$$

(KAI)

(۱۴)

روش تحلیلی:

(۱) روش Deterministic: براساس متوسط زمانی پارامتر  $q_b$  رایج

(۲) Stochastic: براساس توزیع آماری تغییر خصوصیات تکامل جریان

\* For Deterministic approach  $q_b$  را با متوسط تنش برشی می بینند.

$$(ST \text{ سیستم}) : q_b = 0.053 \sqrt{g(s_g - 1)} D_{50}^{1.5} \frac{T_s^{2.1}}{D_{gr}^{0.3}} \quad \text{if } T_s < 3$$

$$q_b = 0.1 \sqrt{g(s_g - 1)} D_{50}^{1.5} \frac{T_s^{1.5}}{D_{gr}^{0.3}} \quad \text{if } T_s > 3$$

where  $q_b = \text{m}^3/\text{s}/\text{m}$  دی حجمی رسوب بکف در واحد عرض

$$\text{Sediment Particle Parameter : } D_{gr} = D_{50} \left[ \frac{g(s_g - 1)}{v^2} \right]^{1/3}$$

$$\text{Transport stage parameter : } T_s = \frac{T_b - T_c}{T_c}$$

Van Rijn (1984) :

$$T_c = \rho [\theta_c (s_g - 1) g D_{50}]$$

$$\theta_c = f(D_{gr})$$

مقدار ارائه شده است

$$(D_* = D_{gr})$$

$$\theta_c = \begin{cases} 0.24 D_*^{-0.64} & 1 < D_* < 4 \\ 0.14 D_*^{-0.64} & 4 < D_* < 10 \\ 0.04 D_*^{-0.1} & 10 < D_* < 20 \\ 0.013 D_*^{0.29} & 20 < D_* < 150 \\ 0.056 & D_* > 150 \end{cases}$$

(۲۸۲)

(18)

$\tau_b' = \text{Effective bed shear stress} : \text{N/m}^2$   
(for the effect of bed form)

$$\tau_b' = \mu \tau_b$$

$$\tau_b = \rho \left( \frac{g}{c^2} \right) V^2 \quad \text{Chezy معادله}$$

(از نظر تحلیل ابعادی)

$$\mu = \left( \frac{c}{c'} \right)^2$$

$\tau_b$  : تنش برشی کل بستر

$\tau_b'$  : تنش برشی ناشی از زبری بستر

$c$  و  $c'$  : ضرایب شوری در سیستم متریک (  $\text{m}^{1/2}/\text{s}$  )

$T = T' + T''$  ← محاسبه تأثیر Bed Form را در نظر دار و  $\tau_b''$  را برآوردی نتوانسته وارد کند.

For Hydraulically Rough flow:

$$c = 18 \log \left( \frac{12h}{D_{50}} \right)$$

$h$  : عمق آب در بستر

$$c' = 18 \log \left( \frac{12h}{30D_{90}} \right)$$

e) Bed Load function of Einstein (1942-1950)

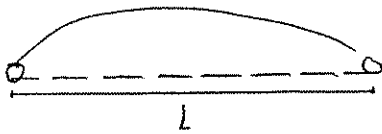
،

Einstein - Brown (1950)

(۲۸۳)

(16)

اساس: حرکت ذرات بستر به صورت Saltation (مانند آویش Van Rijn)



$$L \propto D$$

$$L \approx 100D$$

حرکت ذره در اثر به آویز نیروهای حرکتی (در جریان متلاطم)

نسبتی به احتمال وقوع (P) دارد که خصوصیات جریان متلاطم آماری

$$D: 0.78 - 28.6 \text{ mm}$$

کاربرد:

رابطه Einstein (1942-50) در کتاب هیدرولیک اسوب و 224-225

Einstein-Brown (1950) در کتابی ضمیمه (باررسوی گف Yang (1966) pp. 106-107)

f) Meyer - Peter and muler (1948)

اساس: Grain Roughness عامل موثر در مقاومت جریان و در نتیجه  $q_b$  از  $N$  به  $q_b$  استقارده نمودند

کاربرد: - اورفانه بسترشنی (Gravel bed)  $D > 3 \text{ mm}$

- بدون فرم بستر (Plane bed) - عامل مقاومت جریان زبری بستر  $N \propto D^{1/6}$

رابطه در کتابی ضمیمه: باررسوی گف Yang (1966) pp. 96-97

g) Parker et al (1982)

و Parker (1990)

- برابر رودخانه‌های طبیعی با بهترین درخت رانه :

$$D = (0.6 - 1.2) \text{ mm} \rightarrow (76 - 102) \text{ mm}$$

شرایط مطلوب :  $D_{50} = 18 \text{ mm} - 28 \text{ mm}$

- براساس Field Data (رودخانه)

- اساس : برفرضیه Equal Mobility Hypothesis

یا قابلیت حرکت یکسان برای مواد لایه زیرسطحی

یا شانس یکسان حرکت برای هر محصوره ذرات در لایه زیرسطحی

(وقتی بارکف صورت می‌گیرد که لایه سطحی به پایه رود و لایه زیرسطحی در معرض جریان قرار گیرد)  
Paving

- در رودخانه‌های با مواد سبب درخت رانه

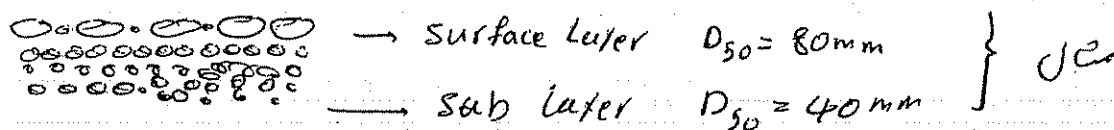
← پایه Paving (Bed Armoring) در لایه سطحی به (Surface Layer)

- قابلیت حرکت در اثر اعمال نیروهای جریان روی بستر

- وقتی که لایه سطحی حرکت نکند، ذرات زیرسطحی کلاً در معرض حرکت قرار نخواهند گرفت

(نیروی برقی جریان اگر قادر به حرکت لایه سطحی نباشد، لایه زیرسطحی کاملاً در معرض قرار نمی‌گیرد)

به حرکت در می‌آید و به جریان بران غالب است



\* - شافعی اندازه مواد لایه زیرسطحی معینیت، مثلاً می‌توان  $D_{50}$  را گرفت یا  $D_{45}$

- بار رسوبی در اثر حرکت و انتقال مواد لایه زیرسطحی است.



وقتی که لایه سطحی ستر (درخت رانده تر) تحت آفتابگیری قرار گیرد و لایه زیر سطحی در معرض جریان قرار می گیرد.  
(در این دانه - یک تفاوت تر (حقیقی) است)  
همه قابلیت حرکت همزمان و یکسان برابر سوار از زیر سطحی  $q_b$

( $D$  لایه زیر سطحی  $q \propto$ )

از این بار ستر توسط حرکت لایه زیر سطحی مقدار پیدا می کند.

$q_b$  : تابع رانده بندی لایه زیر سطحی نیست (مثلاً تابعی از  $D_{70}$  یا  $D_{90}$  نیست)  
 $q_b$  حساسیت به اندازه ها ندارد

معیار:  $D_{90}$  لایه زیر سطحی

معارفات دیگری صمیمه Yang (۱۹۹۶) = pp. ۱۱۸-۱۱۹

رابطه دی جی (۱) با دی رسوب بارگفت ( $Q_b$ ) :

$$Q_b = C_b ( \gamma_w \cdot Q )$$

$\text{ton/s}$                        $\text{ton/m}^3$                        $\text{m}^3/\text{s}$

↓                                      ↓  
 خلالت با رسوب بکند                      رسوب وزنی آب  
 ppm by weight

از اندازه گیری

$Q$	$C_b$	
⋮	⋮	

هم به صفت ۲۰ یا نام دیگر آنرا جزء پورما صفت بشود

# suspended Load Transport

بار رسوبی معلق :

عوامل Suspension :

(۱) Turbulence  $\Leftarrow$  در اثر مولفه قائم روبه بالای جریان - که در آب صاف نیز داریم.

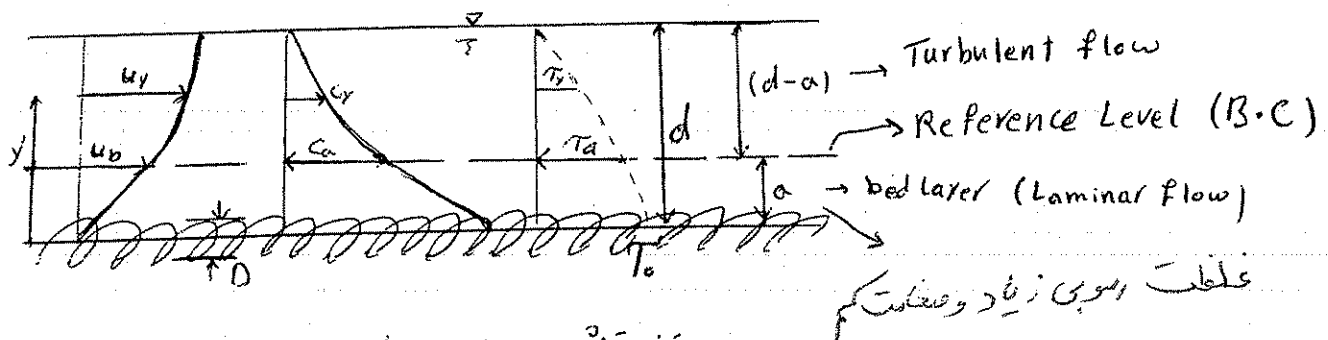
(۲) Momentum Exchange : ذرات با  $(m.v)$  به جاهای مختلف می روند.  
در اثر اختلاط خلطت رسوبی (یا رانسته مخلوط آب و رسوب) در لایه های آب که روی توزیع سرعت و خلطت رسوب تاثیر می گذارد. (سرعت باعث برخورد ذرات و جابجایی در عمق می شود)

(۳) Eddy : در اثر هندسه نامنظم مقالع و وجود موانع. (ناهمواری در مسیر جریان)

در رودخانه های طبیعی با سترساده ای برابر با Yang (۱۹۹۶) :

سم Bed Load از کل بار رسوبی ۵ - ۲۵٪ اهمیت از نظر تغییرات رودخانه ای  
به suspended Load از کل بار رسوبی ۷۵ - ۹۵٪ اهمیت از نظر مقدار بار رسوبی

در رودخانه های سترشنی و درشت تر، سم Bed Load خیلی بیشتر از حد فوق است.



توزیع تنش    توزیع خلطت رسوب    توزیع سرعت

suspension ← Turbulent flow : (d-a)

near bed velocity :  $u_b$

$c_a$  : غلظت رسوب سوزی بین لایه کف و لایه جریان متلاطم

at depth  $a = 2D$  (Reference Level)  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{غلظت : } c_a \\ \text{سرعت : } u_b \rightarrow \text{Near Bed velocity} \\ \text{تنش : } T_a \end{array} \right.$

B-C برای لایه جریان متلاطم

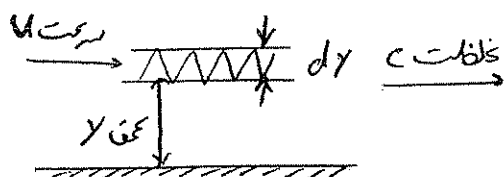
\* استیلاز یا برعلی : آب با رسوب همراه است (سرعت یکسان دارند)

نکته مهم :

در  $\text{Bed layer}$  ، به خاطر  $\text{Gravity}$  ، غلظت رسوبی (وزن در واحد حجم) زیاد است و اندازه رسوبات درشت. ولی عمق لایه کم است ( $a \approx 20\%$ ) و نیز سرعت در این لایه کم است ←  $\text{Bed Load}$  کمتر خواهد بود.

At any depth  $y$  from the bed ( $y/a$ )  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} c_y \\ u_y \\ T_y \end{array} \right.$

فرضیه : ذرات رسوب معلق با خصوصیات جریان عکس العمل نشان می دهند و تئوری وجود دارند  
 \* تابع توزیع سرعت و غلظت رسوبی در عمق آب (در لایه متلاطم)  
 طبق تعریف، ذرات قابل ته نشینی هستند



بار رسوبی معلق در واحد عرض :

در هر مقطعی ( $dy \times 1$ ) که به فاصله  $y$  از کف قرار دارد، سرعت متوسط  $u$  و غلظت  $c$  داریم.

$$\text{بار رسوبی معلق در واحد عرض} = \int_a^d (u \cdot c) dy = \frac{\text{انتگرال بار رسوبی معلق}}{\text{ارتفاع لایه معلق} = \text{تفاضل عمق} = d-a} = \frac{\text{دبی جریان در عمق} = \text{متلاطم (عمق} = d-a \text{)} \times \text{غلظت بار معلق} = c}{V \cdot A}$$

(۲۱)

رابطه حجبی :  $q_{sv} = \int_a^d (u \cdot c) dy$

رابطه وزنی :  $q_{sw} = \gamma_s \int_a^d (u \cdot c) dy$   $\frac{\text{ton}}{m^2} \times \frac{m^3}{s} = \frac{\text{ton}}{s}$

$u$  و  $c$  : سرعت و غلظت رسوب (حجبی) در محق  $y$  (  $y$  از  $a$  )

\* مشکل تعیین روابط  $u = f(y)$  و  $c = g(y)$  می باشد.

الف) معادله توزیع  $u$  در محق  $y$  :  $u = f(y)$

روابط مختلف داریم . مثال :

① Einstein Eq.

$$\frac{u}{u_*} = 5.75 \log \left( \frac{30.2 y}{D_{65}} n \right)$$

② Prandtl - von Karman . معادله توزیع سرعت

$$\frac{du}{dy} = \frac{u_*}{K \cdot y} \quad (K = 0.4 \text{ for clear water})$$

ب) معادله توزیع غلظت رسوبات رسوبی  $c$  در محق  $y$  :  $c = f(y)$

از نظر فیزیکی :

- هر چه رسوبات رسوبی درشت تر باشند ، نیروی ثقل غالب است :

$$c \propto \left(\frac{1}{y}\right) \Rightarrow y \uparrow \Rightarrow c \downarrow \quad \gamma : \text{فاصله از کف بستر}$$

غلظت رسوبی با افزایش فاصله از کف کم می شود

- هر چه رسوبات رسوبی ریزانه تر ، Turbulence غالب است .

$$\frac{dc}{dy} = 0 \quad \text{یا} \quad c = \text{const.} \quad \text{توزیع یکنواخت در محق}$$

(۲۱۹)

مثلاً Vane یا - در ورعانه یا ایجار Eddy باعث میکسافتی توزیع رسوب می شود

رابطه عمومی :  $C = f(y)$

توزیع غلظت رسوبی (C) در عمق y :

رابطه اصلاح شده

Rouse (1937) از رابطه Rouse به دست آمده است  $\frac{C_y}{C_a} = \left[ \frac{(d-y)}{y} \cdot \frac{a}{(d-a)} \right]^{Z_1}$

اثبات کنند : where  $Z = \frac{w_s}{K u_*}$  و  $Z_1 = \frac{Z}{\beta} = \frac{w_s}{(\beta K) u_*}$

$\beta$  : ضریبی است مربوط به عامل وجود رسوبات در آب (برای آب بدون رسوب  $\beta = 1$ )

Settling Velocity :  $w_s$

Shear // :  $u_*$

$K$  : ثابت تلاطم Von Karman const. (برای آب خالص  $K = 0.4$ )

$(\beta K)$  : اوضاع تقسیم عامل رسوب در آب است.

هم  $\leftarrow$  عامل رسوب روی توزیع به علت تأثیر دارن

$\beta$  : ضریب تناسب - سبکی به بافت رسوبات معلق در آب

محل صدای ۱) به از رسوبات رسوبی که در آنجا  $\beta = 1$  (میکسافتی رسوب بر عین داریم)

مثل اینکه ذرات رسوب با ذرات آب همان عمل می کنند Intraction ندارند.

در این اندازه کوچک رسوبات معلق  $\downarrow w_s$  به  $\downarrow w_s$   $\downarrow Z = \frac{w_s}{K u_*}$   $\leftarrow$  از جاده Rouse  $\frac{C_y}{C_a} = 1$  (یعنی Turbulence غالب و Gravity ناچیز)

یعنی میکسافتی نبی توزیع رسوبات معلق.

$C = \text{const. over the depth } (d-a)$

(۲۳)

K تابعی از حوضه خاص است و چگونه اوس توزیع سرعت تأثیر میگذارد؟

if clear water :  $K=0.4$  ,  $(\beta=1)$  (رسوبت بسیار اندک)

Then :  $\frac{C_y}{C_a} = \left[ \frac{(d-y)}{y} \cdot \frac{a}{(d-a)} \right]^z$

انتخاب نمود

where  $z = \frac{W_s}{K u_*} = \frac{W_s}{0.4 u_*}$

Rouse  
(1937)

(۲) برابر صواب در رست دانه و برابر س توزیع منبسطه نگارشی سرعت :  $u = f(\log y)$   
(رسوبت صاف، در رست دانه و قابل ملاحظه باشند)

$$B < 1 \Leftrightarrow K < 0.4$$

$$\log y \left| \frac{A_T}{u} \right|$$

$K = 2.30 u_* \cdot J$  where  $J = \frac{d(\log y)}{du}$  شیب بر منبسطه سرعت  
(به توزیع منبسطه نگارشی)

پ. ۱۲۸ - Yang (1996) - pp (122-128) بر مبنای نمودار

P. 128 Fig 5.5

شکل وجود رسوبت در آ. - باید که K و نمودار به ضریب تصحیح  $B < 1$  نمایش داده شود

Chen (1954):

$$\beta = e^{-L^2 z^2 / \pi} + \left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^{1/2} L \cdot z \int_0^{\left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^{1/2} L \cdot z} e^{-u^2/2} du$$

where

$$X = L \ln y$$

$$L = \frac{1 + KR}{1 + 0.3}$$

منابع (6.5) تا (6.7) کتاب هیدرولیک رسوب ۲۳۲-۲۳۱ مطالعه نمودار

(۲۹۱)

(۲۶)

محاسبه بار رسوبی معلق :

رابطه عمومی :

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} q_s = \int_a^d (u \cdot c) dy \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{l} u = f(y) \\ c = g(y) \end{array} \right. \end{array} \right.$$

$$a \approx 2 D_{\text{ref. level}}$$

← مشکل تعیین  $a$  ؟← مشکل تعیین  $c_a$  ؟

نتیجه : روابط تحلیلی تجربی مختلفی وجود دارد :

a) Einstein Approach (1950)

$$\text{رابطه تجربی بار رسوبی معلق} \quad q_s = \int_a^d (u \cdot c) dy$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{قبل از تقسیم } B \text{ سطح شده است} \rightarrow B=1 \text{ و } K=0.4 \\ u_* \rightarrow u_*' \quad \text{shear velocity due to grain roughness} \end{array} \right. \text{ فرض}$$

نمایش Bed Form نباشد (Plane bed)

که از معادله توزیع سرعت Plane bed نتوان استفاده نمود.

$$\bar{z} = \frac{w_s}{0.4 u_*'}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} u = 5.75 u_*' \log \left( \frac{30.2 K d}{D_{65}} \right) \\ c = c_a \left( \frac{(d-y)}{y} \cdot \frac{a}{(d-a)} \right)^2 \end{array} \right.$$

← از گراف اینستین بدست می آید

← رابطه اولی Rouse (1937) است

$$a \approx 2 D_{65}$$

(۲۵)

بار رسوبی وزنی معلق در واحد عرض :  $q_{sw} = \int_a^d (u \cdot c) dy$

C : غلظت وزنی (PPM (mg/l)

با اشتغال گیری معادله 5-25 از کتاب Yang  $q_{sw} = 11.6 u_*' \cdot C_a \cdot a \left[ 2.303 \log \left( \frac{30.2 X d}{D_{65}} \right) I_1 + I_2 \right]$

$I_1, I_2 = f \begin{cases} A = \frac{a}{d} = \frac{2 D_{65}}{d} \\ Z = \frac{w_s}{0.4 u_*'} \end{cases}$

کپی ضمیمه (Yang, 1996)

حل گرانتی از Yang آمده است  
آقایان بر روی معادله حل کرده اند

تقریب  $C_a$  :

فرصت : سوار رسوبی معلق از نوع سوار سبتری است که به تعلیق در می آید. (رسوب معلق = قابل ته نشینی)

نتیجه : از روابط  $Bed\ load$   $\approx$  غلظت سوار سبتر در عمق  $a$   $C_a$   
 $Bed\ load\ by\ weight$

اثبات شود :

غلظت وزنی بار کف در عمق  $a$  :

$C_a = \frac{1}{11.6} \cdot \frac{C_{bw} \cdot q_{bw}}{a u_*'} \quad (\text{رابطه 5-28 کتاب Yang})$

Yang 1996

بر اساس جزئیات به کپی ضمیمه و کتاب هیدرولیک رسوب مرصع شود (مثال 4-8) ص ۲۴۵  
ص ۲۴۵ هیدرولیک رسوب

En. (5.1)

P. 137

b) Van Rijn (1984)

بر اساس سترها

غلظت متوسط  $\times$  دی آب = دی رسوبی : فرضیه

(۲۹۳)



(۲۶)

در واحد عرض  $\bar{u} d = q$

رابطه جبری  $q_s = \int_a^d (c \cdot u) dy = F [( \bar{u} d ) C_a] = ( \bar{u} \cdot d ) ( F \cdot C_a )$   
 غلظت متوسط در واحد عرض  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{له سرین شوی} \\ \text{له محنت} \end{array} \right.$

وزنی  $q_{sw} = (F \cdot C_a) \underbrace{q}_{\bar{u} \cdot d} \cdot S_g \times 10^6$   
 له غلظت متوسط استواریا محلول

غلظت بار رسوبی جبری  
 (در سطح مربعی)

$C_a = 1.5 \times 10^{-5} \cdot \frac{D_{50}}{a} \times \frac{T_s^{1.5}}{D_{gr}^{0.3}}$

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} a = 0.00692 d \left[ \frac{D_{50}}{d} \right]^{0.2} [1 - e^{-0.5 T_s}] (25 - T_s) \\ a \geq 0.01 d \end{array} \right. \leftarrow \text{مداخله}$   
 عمق آب

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} T_s = \frac{T_b' - T_c}{T_c} \\ D_{gr} \end{array} \right. \rightarrow \text{از روابط فورمان بدست می آید}$   
 قبلاً تشریح شده اند (Van Rijn 1984)

فریب بار محلول  $F = \frac{[\frac{a}{d}]^{Z'_y} - [\frac{a}{d}]^{1.2}}{(1 - \frac{a}{d})^{Z'_y} [1.2 - Z'_y]}$

where  $Z'_y = Z_y + \Phi$

$Z_y = \frac{w_s}{K \beta U_*} = \frac{w_s}{0.4 \beta U_*} \quad K = \frac{g}{f}$

(۲۷)

$w_s$ : سرعت سقوط ذرات با اندازه  $D_s$  با رابطه زیر:

$$* D_s = [1 + 0.0011 (b_g - 1) (T_s - 25)] D_{50}$$

$w_s$  از روابط ارائه شده در فصل (۲) جزوه می‌توانی استخراج کنی.

$$b_g = \sqrt{\frac{D_{84}}{D_{16}}}$$

$$u_* = \sqrt{g R S}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \beta = 1 + 2 \left( \frac{w_s}{u_*} \right)^2 & \text{if } \frac{w_s}{u_*} < 1 \\ \beta = 3 & \text{if } \frac{w_s}{u_*} \geq 1 \end{array} \right.$$

$$\Phi = 2.5 \left[ \frac{w_s}{u_*} \right]^{0.8} \left[ \frac{C_a}{0.65} \right]^{0.4}$$

اوتش می‌تونی:

-  $T_s$  را می‌توانی بگیرد.

-  $a$  و  $C_a$  ~

-  $w_s$  از فرمولهای تجربی (Van Rijn)

-  $\Phi$  و  $\beta$  و  $u_*$

-  $Z_y$  و  $Z_{y'}$

-  $F$

-  $q_{sw} = F \cdot C_a \cdot g \cdot S_y \times 10^6$  وزنی

روابط دیگر در کتابی منسوب به Yang (1976) و کتاب هیدرولیک رسوبات می‌توانی ببینی.

نکته مهم :

روابط فوق و معادله اصلی  $q = \int (c \cdot u) dy$  برابر همبستگی بین غلظت (c) و سرعت (u) در عمق لا از کف است. این فرضیه برابر معادله رسوب مطلق قابل رد نیست.

برابر Wash Load این همبستگی بین c و u در عمق لا بصورت معنی دار وجود ندارد.  
سم Wash Load حقیق را است!

بار رسوبی کل : TOTAL sediment Load

(اوروش)

① تفکیکی

$$q_t = q_b + q_s$$

قطعه Wash Load را c مینویسند

مثال :

Einstein (1930) روش اینشتین }  
van Rijn (1984) ~~~~~ }

به طور نمونه رابطه Van Rijn (1984) آورده شد است :

$$X_{VR} = (n_b + n_s) \cdot S_g \times 10^6$$

غلظت رسوبی کل  
PPm by weight

$n_b$  : غلظت رسوبی باریک  
PPm by volume

$n_s$  : غلظت رسوبی معلق  
PPm by volume

$$Q_s = Q \times X_{VR}$$

رسوب رسوبی

صم ۱ از نظر جی سباتی ، رویش های که ارائه شده :

$$\text{بارمعلق} + \text{بارکف} = \text{باررسوبی کل}$$

(رواقع Bed material load است بدین wash load

از نظر اندازه گیری رودخانه : باررسوبی کل شامل wash load نیز می شود

(۲) روش های مستقیم  $q_b$

کننده های روابطی به  $q_b$  :  $q_b$  مستقیم :

مثال : a) Ackers and white (1973-1990)

- براساس اصول فیزیکی رابطه بین Stream Power با حرکت مواد رسوبی ،  
عمرجه Stream Power / حرکت مواد رسوبی / (فرآیند شیب ، حرکت ، تنش)

- بارکف : رابطه بین حرکت مواد رسوبی با تنش برشی روی ذرات برقرار است .

• برای بارمعلق که اندازه هستند رابطه بین حرکت مواد رسوبی با تنش برشی روی ذرات  
قابل مشاهده نیست . بلکه رابطه با کل تنش برشی جریان دارد . شامل wash load نخواهد بود .  
(Flow shear stress)

- با استفاده از تحلیل ابعاد - عوامل هیدروکیکی که روی حرکت مواد رسوبی کف و معلق موثر هستند

(more than 1000 flume data)

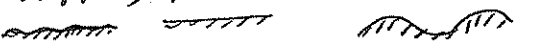
\* شرایط و محدودیت‌های کاربرد:

(1) sand bed channels

$$0.04 \text{ mm} < D_{50} < 2.5 \text{ mm} \quad (2)$$

(of nearly uniform size)

$Cu < 4$  توزیع دان‌بندی  
یکنواخت است

(3) روابط و نتایج حاصل از Bed form: دانه‌ها، Dune، ripple، plan  


در بستر صاف، فرآیند داریم و در اطراف قله‌ها نیز دانه‌ها است و در این رابطه نتایج تفکیک شده است

$$Fr < 0.8 \quad (4)$$

مغزیه‌های روابط می‌باشد  $q_t$  به طور مستقیم:

$$q_t = X q = \frac{\rho}{\rho_s} \cdot q$$

یا

$$q_t = \left[ \frac{G_{gr} \cdot d_{35}}{D} \left( \frac{u}{u_*} \right)^n \right] q$$

$q_t$ : دبی حجمی رسوب ( $m^3/s/m$ )

$q$ : دبی جریان (در واحد عرض) ( $m^3/s/m$ )

$u$ : سرعت متوسط ( $m/s$ )

$u_* = \sqrt{g R S}$ : سرعت برنج ( $m/s$ )

$D$ : عمق آب ( $m$ )

$X$ : غلظت بار رسوبی کلی (By volume) - خروجی را با رسوب لای و معلق

$\rho$ : اندازه‌گیری کرده است (By weight)

$d_{35}$ : اندازه 35٪ صواب (م) (۲۹۸)

۳۰

\* پارامترهای دگر و حل معادله آرکی فمیه (Yang 1996 - PP. 154) می باشد  
( $n$  و  $G$ ) و  $n$

سؤال: شرط عمل رسوب در معادله آرکی چیست؟  
بر اساس تئوری تنش برشی

\* برابر آنالیز ابعادی

b) Brownlie (1981)

PP. 17-18 - Fisher (1995) کتاب

Field-Flume Data

از نظر کاربرد

- برابر معادله تبری غیر یکنواخت قابل استفاده است ( $G_g, D_{50}$ )

- برابر شرایط Field, Flume Data (River data) قابل تقلید است.

رابطه عمومی:

Sediment concentration (PPm by weight)

$$* q_{br} = 727.6 C_F (F_g - (F_g)_{cr})^{1.978} S^{0.6661} \left( \frac{R}{D_{50}} \right)^{-0.3361}$$

توانی ابعادی (شرطی بدون بعد)  $S$  = شیب کف ،  $R$  = شعاع هیدرولیکی

$$F_g = \frac{u}{[(s_g - 1) g D_{50}]^{0.5}} \quad ; \quad \text{grain Frude number} \quad ; \quad F_g$$

$$(F_g)_{cr} = ?$$

$$(F_g)_{cr} = ? \quad R_g = \frac{(g D_{50}^3)^{0.5}}{31620} \quad \text{Grain Roughness No.} \quad \text{بدون بعد}$$

(۲۹۹)

۳۱

$$\gamma = (\sqrt{s_g - 1} R_g)^{-0.6} \quad \text{بدون بعد}$$

$$T_{ci} = 0.22 \gamma + 0.06 (10)^{-7.7 \gamma} \quad \text{تنش برشی بدون بعد بعد (مخبرانی):}$$

$$\delta_g = \sqrt{D_{84}/D_{16}}$$

$$(F_g)_{cr} = 4.596 T_{ci}^{0.5293} S^{-0.1405} \delta_g^{-0.1666}$$

$$\begin{cases} C_F = 1 & \text{For Lab. flame} \\ C_F = 1.268 & \text{Field (River)} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{if } F_g < (F_g)_{cr} \Rightarrow \kappa_{br} = 0 \Rightarrow \phi_{+} = 0 \quad \text{clear water flow}$$

مشرط میل رسوب  
اطلاعات رودخانه ای شامل افزایش بار رسوبی به میزان حدود 30٪ نسبت به اطلاعات قدما است

c) England and Hansen (1967)

Dune bed form و Sand bed براساس آبرسانی روی

توصیف کاربردی:

① Upper flow Regime

② Dune bed form

$$\textcircled{3} D_{50} \geq 0.15 \text{ mm} \rightarrow 0.15 \text{ mm} < D_{50} \leq 2 \text{ mm}$$

④ Sand bed

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روش حل معادله : Englund and Hansen

$$\theta = \frac{\tau}{(\gamma_s - \gamma)d} \quad (I)$$

$$f' = \frac{2gSD}{V^2} \quad (II)$$

$$f' \phi = 0.7 \theta^{5/2} \quad (III)$$

$$\phi = q_t \left[ \gamma_s \left( \frac{\gamma_s - \gamma}{\gamma} \right) g d^3 \right]^{-1/2} \Rightarrow q_t \quad (IV)$$

$S = S_f$  Energy slope

$q_t$  : Total sediment discharge by weight per unit width

$d$  : Median particle diameter ( $D_{50}$ )

$\tau_{crs}$

d) Yang (1972-73) approach :

برای س : تحلیل ابعادی و آزمایشات تجربی Flume

از محاسبات :  $U_*$  ,  $W_s$  , Stream power

به یکی عنین Yang (1996) PP. 156 و هیدرولیک اسوب ۲۵۰-۲۵۲ مرلعه شود

معادله اصلی (1993) برابر سترما سهای  $D \leq 2 \text{ mm}$  به است آید است بعداً برابر شش  $2 \text{ mm} < D \leq 10 \text{ mm}$

روابط اصلی را در سترما است به قات به هیدرولیک اسوب ۲۵۰-۲۵۲

(۳۰۱)



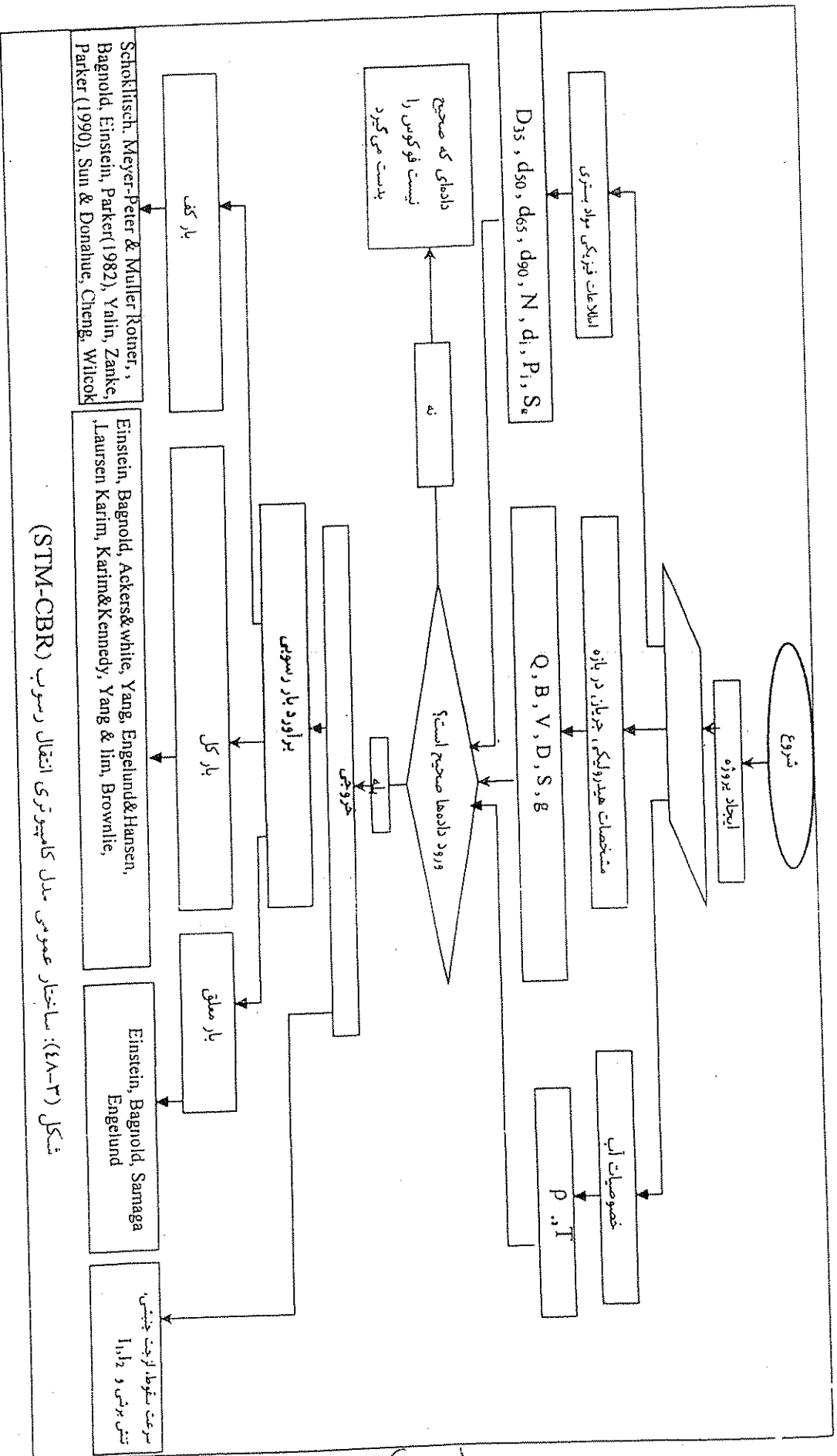
جدول (۳-۲۸): روشهای برآورد بار رسوبی در مدل توسعه یافته STM-CBR

روش	محاسبه بار رسوبی			توصیه‌های کاربردی
	بارکف	بارمعلق	بارکل	
Schoklitsch (1934)	*			در رودخانه‌های با مواد بستری درشت‌دانه، اندازه ذرات رسوبی $D = (0.12 - 0.5)mm$
Schoklitsch (1943)	*			در رودخانه‌های با مواد بستری درشت‌دانه، اندازه ذرات $D = (0.12 - 0.5)mm$
Meyer-Peter & Muller (1948)	*			در رودخانه‌های با مواد بستری درشت‌دانه و برای، اندازه ذرات رسوبی: $D = (0.12 - 2.0)mm$
Rottner (1959)	*			بر اساس خمبستگی آماری و نتایج آزمایشگاهی و با کاربرد وسیع
Parker, et.al.(1982)	*			برای رودخانه‌های بستری شنی با لایه سطحی محافظ
Bagnold (1966)	*	*	*	برای رودخانه‌های که دارای فرم بستر می‌باشند
Einstein (1950)	*	*	*	برای رودخانه‌های بستری شنی و ماسه غیریکنواخت، رودخانه‌هایی که بار معلق دارند و رودخانه‌هایی با فرم بستر.
Engelund (1965)		*		در رودخانه‌های مختلف و بر اساس دبی‌های مختلف بدست آمده است.
Samaga (1985)		*		برای رودخانه‌ها با فرم بسترهای مختلف، برای حالات مختلف جریان و اندازه‌های مختلف رسوبات
Ackers & White (1990)			*	برای انواع فرم بستر و جریان زیر بحرانی
Yang (1982)			*	در رودخانه‌های با مواد بستری درشت دانه، برای فرم بسترهای مختلف و برای حالات مختلف جریان
Engelund & Hansen (1967)			*	برای رودخانه‌هایی که دارای فرم بستر دیون می‌باشند.
Karim & Kennedy (1990)			*	برای رودخانه‌های مختلف
Laursen (1958)			*	برای داده‌های آزمایشگاهی با اندازه مواد بستری (۰/۰۱۱-۴/۰۸)
Yalin (1977)+	*			در رودخانه‌های ماسه ای و شنی با جریان کامل متلاطم
Zanke (1987)+	*			کاربرد در رودخانه‌های با مواد بستری درشت دانه
Parker (1990)+	*			برای رودخانه‌های بستری شنی با لایه سطحی محافظ
Sun & Donahue (2000)+	*			برای رودخانه‌های با مواد بستری درشت دانه و برای ذرات (۲/۰ تا ۱۰ میلیمتر)
Cheng (2002)+	*			برای شرایط مختلف انتقال بار رسوبی و قابل کاربرد برای رودخانه‌های با مواد بستری درشت دانه
Wilcock & Crowe, (2003)+	*			رودخانه‌های با مواد بستری درشت دانه و شامل دانه بندی‌های مختلف مواد رسوبی در محدوده ۸۲ الی ۰/۵ میلیمتر
Brownlie (1981)+			*	بر اساس محدوده وسیعی از داده‌های صحرایی و آزمایشگاهی
Karim (1998)+			*	برای رودخانه‌های مختلف بدون لایه سپری در بستر
Yang & Lim (2003) +			*	برای رودخانه‌های آبرفتی در محدوده اندازه مواد رسوبی ۲/۲ الی ۰/۸۲

((+)) روابط جدید که در توسعه مدل بکار رفته است.

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(100)



شکل (۴۸-۳): ساختار عمومی مدل کامپیوتری انتقال رسوب (STM-CBR)

۲۵  
 هانس آلبرت انشتین (۱۹۰۴-۱۹۷۳) : پدر هیدرولیک و انتقال رسوب  
 در مجاری روباز  
 اولین پسر از اولین زن "آلبرت انشتین" (۱۸۷۹-۱۹۵۵)

# HANS A. EINSTEIN'S CONTRIBUTIONS IN SEDIMENTATION

By Hsieh W. Shen,<sup>1</sup> M. ASCE

← مشارکت "انشتین پسر" در علم انتقال رسوب →  
 INTRODUCTION

Hans Albert Einstein (Fig. 1) died on July 26, 1973 in the Falmouth Hospital, just 4 weeks after his heart attack while at the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institute in Massachusetts. He was in a coma for the entire 4 weeks, and was buried at Woods Hole. His contributions in the field of sedimentation were enormous. His death, at just about the time he was planning to record some of his experiences, is a great loss to our profession.

The main purpose of this paper is to examine some aspects of his influence on the field of sedimentation. The emphasis is on presenting the writer's personal views on some of Einstein's contributions and there is no attempt to even briefly summarize his works. It is hoped that this paper can stimulate active conversations among researchers and practical engineers. For a list of his major contributions, the reader is referred to Ref. 58.

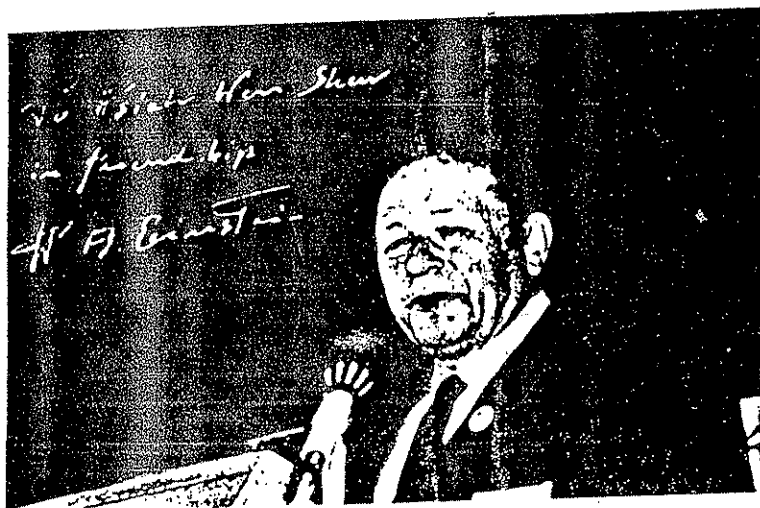


FIG. 1.—Hans A. Einstein (1904–1973)

(۷+۱۳) مورد مشفق در مشارکت پسر در علم هیدرولیک

This paper examines some of Einstein's major contributions to the field of sedimentation. Einstein was the first (together with his colleagues) to: (1) Establish the separation of wash load and bed material load; (2) separate alluvial bed roughness into form resistance and grain resistance; (3) determine the variation of form resistance with flow; (4) establish experimentally the continuous exchange of bed load particles in motion and the particles on bed layer; (5) apply stochastic analysis to sediment transport analysis; (6) formulate a stochastic model for sediment bed load transport; (7) introduce the importance of instantaneous lift force on particles and conduct experiments to determine its values; (8) relate the probability of particle motion to flow parameter; (9) relate the probability of particle motion to sediment transport rate; (10) introduce hiding factors for lift force correction in sediment mixture (nonuniform sizes); (11) recommend a comprehensive procedure to calculate sediment transport rate of each size fraction range and then to sum them up as total transport rate; (12) relate bed load rate to the integration of suspended load (13) present a graphical solution and integrate the total suspended load. Although not covered in this paper, Einstein also made significant contributions on secondary currents, erosion and deposition of cohesive material, flow fluctuation in viscous sublayer, transport of bed particles due to oscillating flow motion, vorticity, deposition of suspended particles in a gravel bed, sediment transport in pipes, and many others. His influence in sedimentation cannot be overstated.

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Yang (1986)

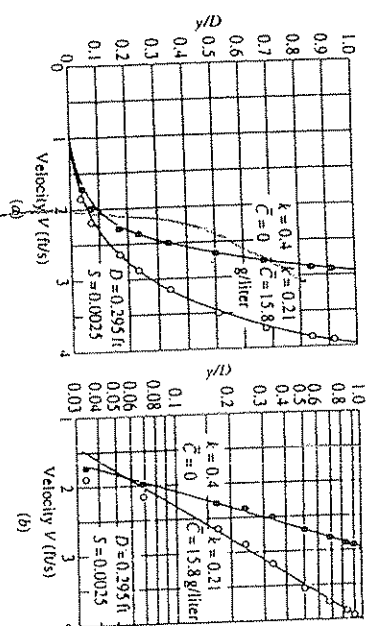


FIGURE 5.5 Velocity profiles for clear water and sediment-laden flow (Vanoni and Nomikos, 1960).

changing  $k$  on the vertical velocity distribution is shown in Fig. 5.5. A summary of the effect of suspended load on the  $k$  value and the velocity distribution is given by Graf (1971).

## 5.4 SUSPENDED LOAD FORMULAS

### 5.4.1 Lane and Kalinske's Approach

Lane and Kalinske (1941) assumed that  $\epsilon_s = \epsilon_m$  and  $\beta = 1$ , for which Eq. (5.10) becomes

$$\epsilon_s = k U_*^2 \frac{y}{D} (D - y) \quad (5.15)$$

The average value of  $\epsilon_s$  along a vertical is

$$\bar{\epsilon}_s = \frac{\int_0^D \epsilon_s dy}{D} = \frac{k U_*^2}{D^2} \int_0^D (yD - y^2) dy \quad (5.16)$$

For  $k = 0.4$ ,

$$\bar{\epsilon}_s = \frac{1}{3} U_*^2 D \quad (5.17)$$

Introducing Eq. (5.17) into Eq. (5.6) yields

$$C = C_a \exp \left[ -\frac{15\omega}{U_*} \left( \frac{y-a}{D} \right) \right] \quad (5.18)$$

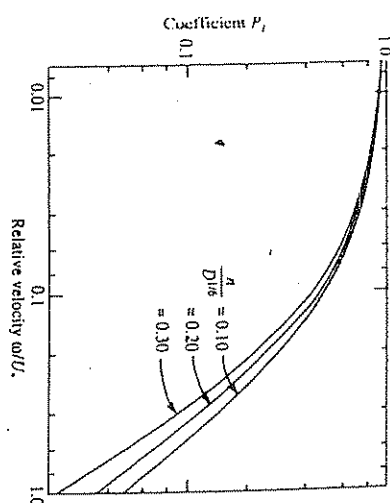


FIGURE 5.6 Relationship between  $P_L$  and  $\omega/U_*$  (after Lane and Kalinske, 1941).

where  $C$  and  $C_a$  = suspended sediment concentrations at distances  $y$  and  $a$  above the bed, respectively, and  $\omega$  = fall velocity corresponding to  $d_{50}$ . Equation (5.18) can be integrated through the depth of flow to obtain the average suspended concentration, provided that the concentration at  $y = a$  is known.

We define  $P_L$  as

$$P_L = \bar{C}/C_a \quad (5.19)$$

where  $\bar{C}$  = depth-integrated average sediment concentration. Then the suspended sediment load by weight can be computed as

$$q_{sw} = q C_a P_L \exp \left( \frac{15\omega a}{U_* D} \right) \quad (5.20)$$

The relationship between  $P_L$  and the relative fall velocity  $\omega/U_*$ , in Imperial (English) units is shown in Fig. 5.6. In Eq. (5.20),  $C_a$  is the concentration in dry weight. When the concentration is expressed as a percentage, it must be multiplied by the unit weight of water (62.4 lb/ft<sup>3</sup>) to give the concentration in dry weight.

### 5.4.2 Einstein's Approach

Einstein (1950) assumed that  $\beta = 1$  and  $k = 0.4$ . Replacing  $U_*$  with  $U_*'$ , the shear velocity due to grain roughness, then gives

$$Z_1 = Z = \frac{\omega}{0.4 U_*'} \quad (5.21)$$

The velocity can be expressed as

$$\frac{U}{U_*'} = 5.75 \log \left( 30.2 \frac{y}{\Delta} \right) \quad (5.22)$$

Substituting Eqs. (5.12) and (5.22) into (5.1a) and expressing  $C_a$  in terms of concentration by weight yields

$$q_{sw} = \int_a^D C_a \left( \frac{D-y}{y} \frac{a}{D-a} \right)^Z 5.75 U_*' \log \left( \frac{30.2y}{\Delta} \right) dy \quad (5.23)$$

where  $\Delta = k_s/x = d_{ns}/x$   
and  $x = a$  correction factor given in Fig. 3.9.  
Replacing  $a$  with  $E = a/D$  and  $y$  with  $y' = y/D$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} q_{sw} &= \int_E^1 u C D dy' \\ &= U_*' C_a \left( \frac{E}{1-E} \right)^Z D 5.75 \int_E^1 \left( \frac{1-y'}{y'} \right)^Z \log \left( \frac{30.2}{\Delta/D} \right) dy' \\ &= 5.75 C_a U_*' D \left( \frac{E}{1-E} \right)^Z \left[ \log \left( \frac{30.2D}{\Delta} \right) \int_E^1 \left( \frac{1-y'}{y'} \right)^Z dy' \right. \\ &\quad \left. + 0.434 \int_E^1 \left( \frac{1-y'}{y'} \right)^Z \ln y' dy' \right] \quad (5.24) \end{aligned}$$

Because it was not possible to integrate Eq. (5.24) analytically, Einstein (1950) rewrote it as

$$q_{sw} = 11.6 U_*' C_a a \left[ 2.303 \log \left( \frac{30.2D}{\Delta} \right) I_1 + I_2 \right] \quad (5.25)$$

and numerically integrated the terms  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  for various  $E$  and  $Z$  values, where

$$\left. \begin{aligned} I_1 &= 0.216 \frac{E^{Z-1}}{(1-E)^Z} \int_E^1 \left( \frac{1-y'}{y'} \right)^Z dy' \\ I_2 &= 0.216 \frac{E^{Z-1}}{(1-E)^Z} \int_E^1 \left( \frac{1-y'}{y'} \right)^Z \ln y' dy' \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (5.26)$$

The values of  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  in terms of  $A$  for values of  $Z$  can be obtained from Figs. 5.7 and 5.8, respectively.

Einstein (1950) assumed that  $a = 2d$ , where  $d$  is the representative grain size of bed material, and the concentration at  $y = a$  is

$$C_a = \frac{A_3 i_{bw} q_{bw}}{a U_b} \quad (5.27)$$

where  $i_{bw} q_{bw}$  = bed-load transport rate by weight of size  $i_{bw}$ ,  
 $U_b$  = average bed-load velocity, which was assumed by Einstein to be proportional to  $U_*'$ , and  
 $A_3$  = a correction factor ( $= 1/11.6$ ).

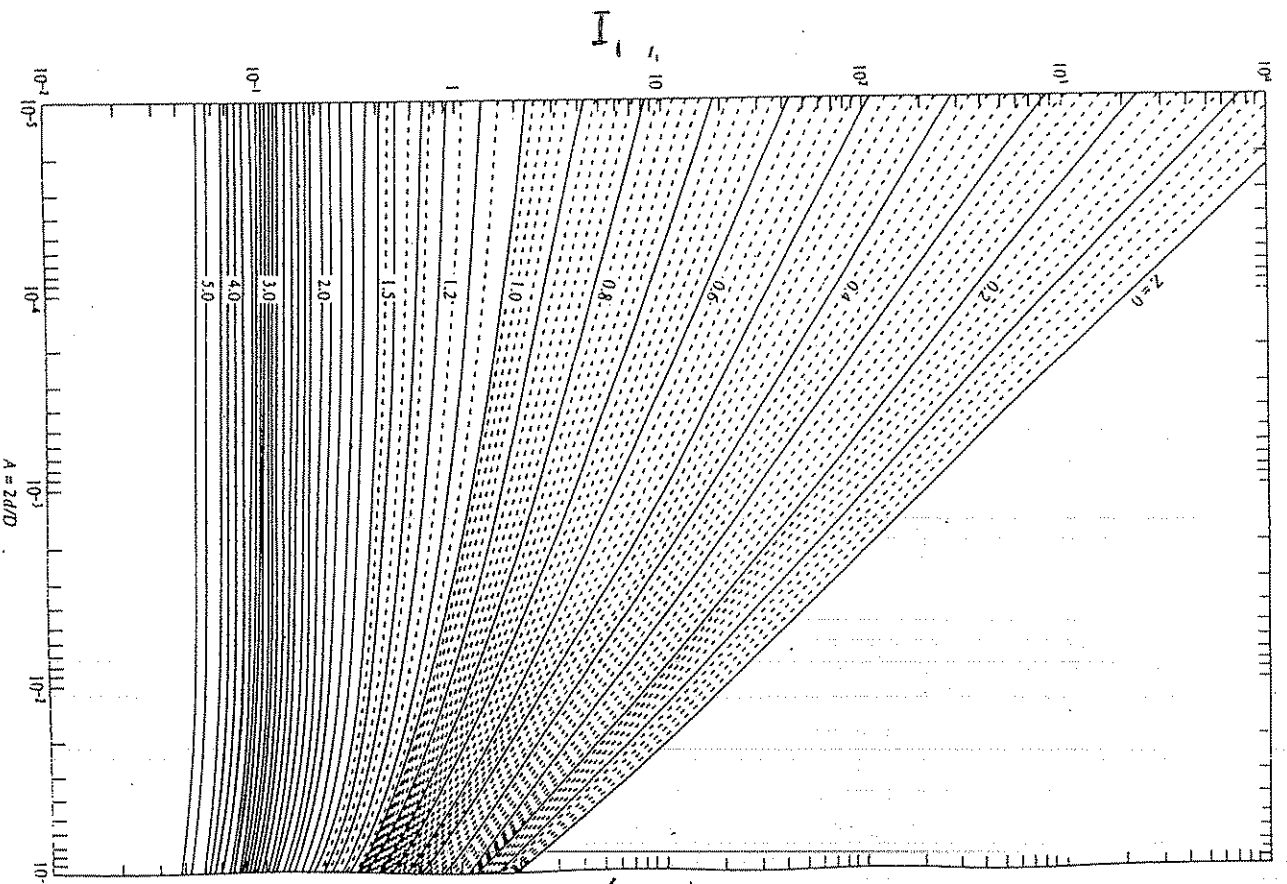


FIGURE 5.7  
The function  $I_1$  in terms of  $A$  for different values of  $Z$  (Einstein, 1950).

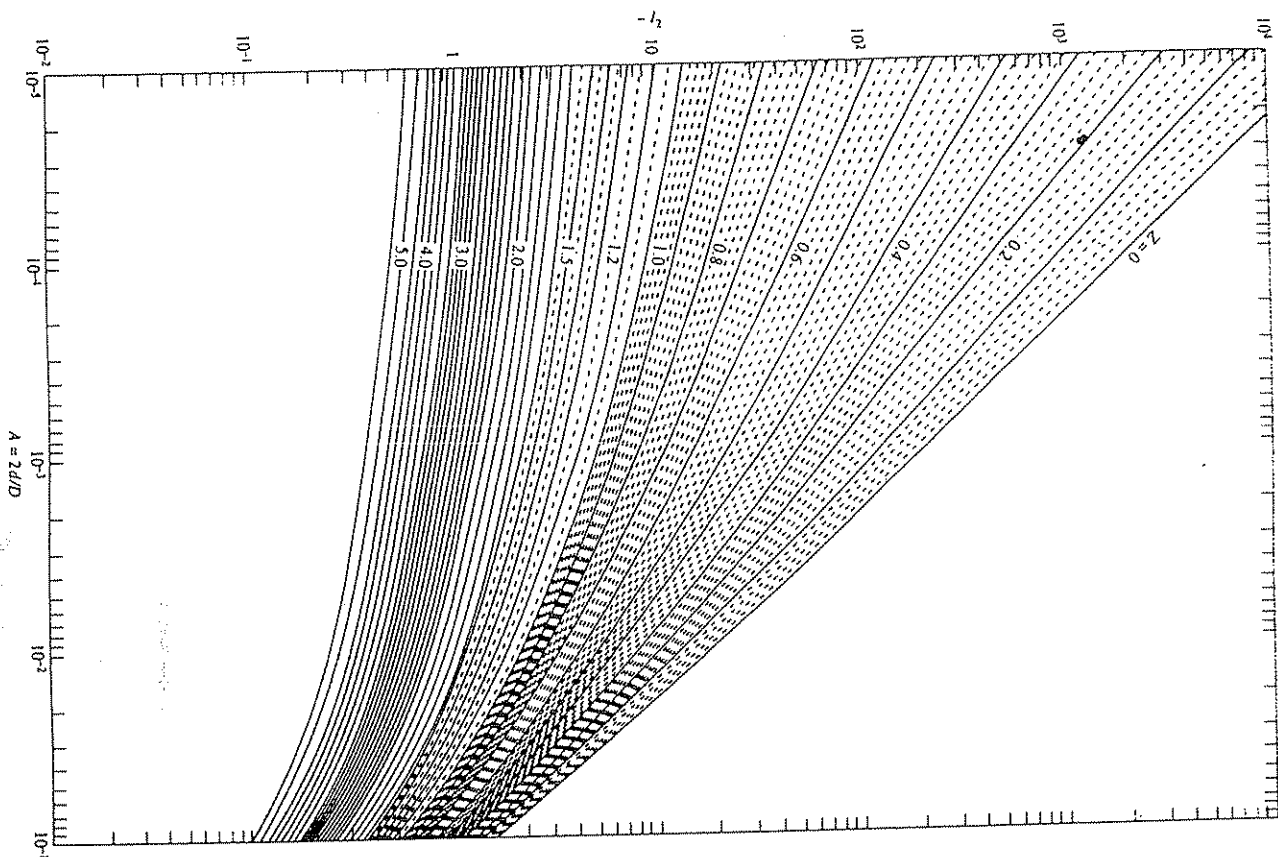


FIGURE 5.8  
The function  $I_2$  in terms of  $A$  for different values of  $Z$  (Einstein, 1950).

With these assumptions, Eq. (5.27) becomes

$$C_a = \frac{1}{11.6} \frac{i_{bw} q_{bw}}{a U_*'} \quad (5.28)$$

The equation for suspended load discharge for each fraction  $i_{sw} q_{sw}$  can be derived from Eqs. (5.25) and (5.28), i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} i_{sw} q_{sw} &= i_{bw} q_{bw} \left[ 2.303 \log \left( \frac{30.2D}{\Delta} \right) I_1 + I_2 \right] \\ &= i_{bw} q_{bw} (P_E I_1 + I_2) \end{aligned} \quad (5.29a)$$

or

$$q_{sw} = 11.6 U_*' C_a a \left\{ \left[ 2.303 \log \frac{30.2D}{\Delta} \right] I_1 + I_2 \right\} \quad (5.29b)$$

where

$$P_E = 2.303 \log \frac{30.2D}{\Delta} \quad (5.30)$$

where  $C_a$  = concentration by dry weight at  $y = a$ .

Equation (5.29a) relates the bed-load transport to suspended load transport for all size fractions for which the bed-load function exists.

Equation (5.30) is dimensionally homogeneous, and may be solved using any consistent system of units. The unit of  $q_{sw}$  is weight per unit time and width.

### 5.4.3 Brooks' Approach

Brooks (1963) assumed that the logarithmic velocity distribution is applicable and the vertical sediment concentration follows Eq. (5.13), giving a relationship similar to that of Einstein (1950):

$$q_{sw} = C_{md} q \left[ 1 + \frac{U_*'}{K V} \int_E^1 \left( \frac{1-y}{y} \right)^{2.1} dy + \frac{U_*'}{K V} \int_E^1 \left( \frac{1-y}{y} \right)^{2.1} \ln y dy \right] \quad (5.31)$$

where  $q$  = water discharge per unit width and

$C_{md}$  = reference sediment concentration at  $y = \frac{1}{2}D$ .

Equation (5.31) can also be expressed in terms of a transport function  $T_B$ :

$$\frac{q_{sw}}{C_{md} q} = T_B \left( K \frac{V}{U_*'}, Z_1, E \right) \quad (5.32)$$

Taking a lower limit of integration at  $u = 0$ , and

$$E = e^{-(K V / U_*) - 1} \quad (5.33)$$

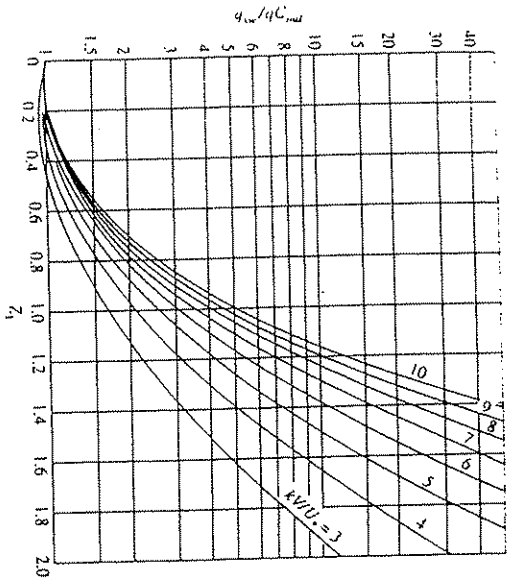


FIGURE 5.9  
Brooks' suspended load transport function (Brooks, 1963).

Eq. (5.32) reduces to

$$\frac{q_{sw}}{q_{C_{md}}} = T_B \left( k \frac{V}{U_*}, Z_1 \right) \quad (5.34)$$

where  $q_{sw}$  = sediment weight per unit time and width. The application of this relation is illustrated by Fig. 5.9.

#### 5.4.4 Chang, Simons, and Richardson's Approach

Chang, Simons, and Richardson (1965) assumed that Eq. (5.15) is valid and rewrote it as

$$e_s = \beta k D \xi U_* (1 - \xi)^{1/2} \quad (5.35)$$

where  $\xi = y/D$  and

$$U_* = (gDS)^{1/2}$$

Substituting Eq. (5.35) into Eq. (5.6) yields

$$\frac{C}{C_a} = A_1 \left[ \frac{\xi_a^{1/2}}{1 - (1 - \xi_a)^{1/2}} \right]^{Z_2} \quad (5.36)$$

with

$$A_1 = \left[ \frac{1 - (1 - \xi_a)^{1/2}}{(\xi_a)^{1/2}} \right]^{Z_2}, \quad Z_2 = \frac{2\omega}{\beta U_* k}, \quad \xi_a = \frac{a}{D}$$

Then the expression for the suspended load becomes

$$q_{sw} = \int_a^D C u dy = D C_a \left( V l_1 - \frac{2U_*}{k} l_2 \right) \quad (5.37a)$$

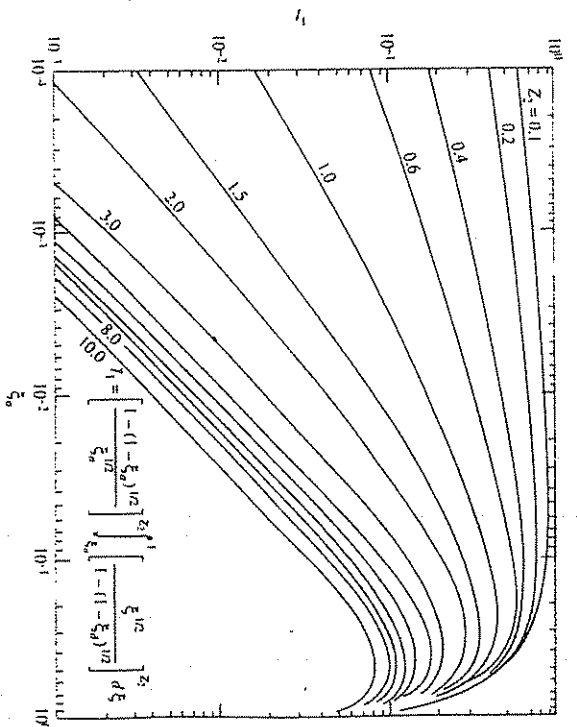


FIGURE 5.10  
The function  $l_1$  in terms of relative contact bed material layer thickness  $\xi_a$  for various values of the exponent  $Z_2$  (Chang et al., 1965).

where  $l_1$  and  $l_2$  = integrals that can be obtained from Figs. 5.10 and 5.11, respectively.

The transport rate  $q_{sw}$  in Eq. (5.37a) is measured in weight per unit volume of water-sediment mixture.

If  $q_{sw}$  is expressed in weight per second per unit channel width and  $C_a$  is concentration by weight then

$$q_{sw} = \gamma D C_a \left( V l_1 - \frac{2U_*}{k} l_2 \right) \quad (5.37b)$$

Similarly to Einstein's approach, Eq. (5.37a) can be reduced to

$$q_{sw} = R_s q_{bw} \quad (5.38)$$

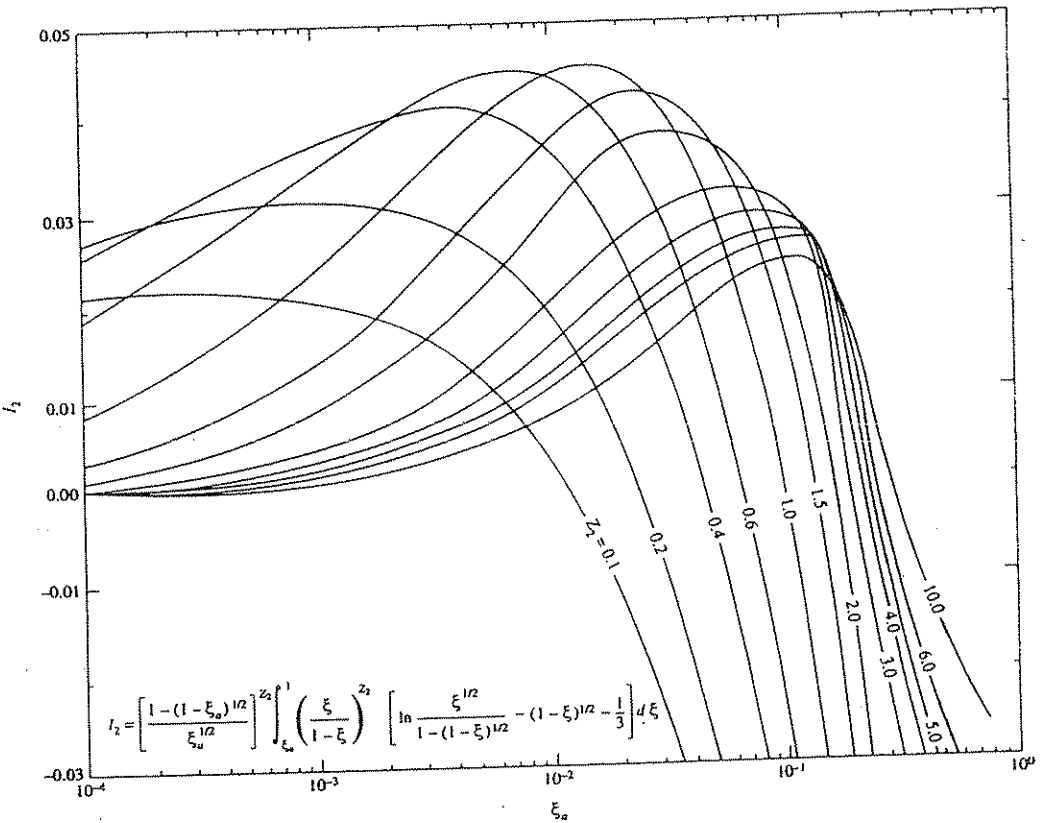
by assuming that the velocity of bed sediment  $u_b = 0.8V$ , where

$$R_s = \frac{D}{0.8aV} \left( V l_1 - \frac{2U_*}{k} l_2 \right) \quad (5.39)$$

and that the thickness of bed layer is based on DuBoys' (1879) assumption, i.e.,

$$a = \frac{\tau - \tau_c}{(1 - \lambda)(\gamma_s - \gamma) \tan \phi} \quad (5.40)$$





**FIGURE 5.11**  
The function  $I_2$  in terms of relative contact bed material layer thickness  $\xi_a$  for various values of exponent  $Z_2$  (Chang *et al.*, 1965).

where  $\tau$  and  $\tau_c$  = the shear stress on the bed and the critical shear stress, respectively,  
 $i$  = experimental constant ( $= 10$ ),  
 $\lambda$  = porosity of bed material, and  
 $\phi$  = angle of repose of the submerged bed material.

**Example 5.1** Given the following data, compute the suspended load using Lane and Kalinske's method, Einstein's method, Brooks' method, and Chang, Simons, and Richardson's method:

$$\begin{aligned} q &= 5 \text{ (m}^3\text{/s)/m} = 53.8 \text{ (ft}^3\text{/s)/ft}, & \omega &= 0.07 \text{ m/s} = 2.75 \text{ in./s}, \\ R &= R' = D = 5 \text{ m} = 196.8 \text{ in.}, & a &= 0.25 \text{ m} = 9.84 \text{ in.}, \\ C_a &= 0.0001 \text{ by dry weight}, & n &= 0.02, \quad S = 0.0001, \\ g &= 9.81 \text{ m/s}^2 = 386.22 \text{ in./s}^2, & v &= 0.000001 \text{ m}^2/\text{s} = 0.00155 \text{ in.}^2/\text{s}, \\ d_{85} &= 0.0006 \text{ m} = 0.0236 \text{ in.}, & \gamma &= 62.4 \text{ lb/ft}^3. \end{aligned}$$

#### Solution

Lane and Kalinske's method. From Eq. (5.20),

$$\begin{aligned} q_{sw} &= q C_a P_L \exp \left( \frac{15 \omega a^2}{U_* D} \right) \\ U_* &= (g D S)^{1/2} = [(386.22)(196.8)(0.0001)]^{1/2} = 2.75 \text{ in./s} \\ \exp \left( \frac{15 \omega a^2}{U_* D} \right) &= \exp \left[ \frac{(15)(2.75)(9.84)}{(2.75)(196.8)} \right] = 2.117 \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{n}{D^{1/6}} = \frac{0.02}{(196.8)^{1/6}} = 0.008, \quad \frac{\omega}{U_*} = 1.0$$

From Fig. 5.6,  $P_L = 0.065$

$$q_{sw} = (53.8 \text{ ft}^2/\text{s})(62.4 \text{ lb/ft}^3)(0.0001)(0.065)(2.117) = 0.046 \text{ (lb/s)/ft}$$

Einstein's method. From Eq. (5.29b),

$$q_{sw} = 11.6 U_* C_a a \left[ \left( 2.303 \log \frac{30.2D}{\Delta} \right) i + I_2 \right]$$

$$a = 2d_{85} = 0.0472 \text{ in.} = 0.003937 \text{ ft}$$

$$U_* = U_* = 2.75 \text{ in./s} = 0.229 \text{ ft/s}$$

$$\frac{k_s}{\delta^7} = \frac{U_*^3 d_{85}}{11.6 \nu} = \frac{(2.75)(0.0236)}{(11.6)(0.00155)} = 3.61$$

From Fig. 3.9,  $x = 1.15$ ,

$$\Delta = \frac{k_s}{x} = \frac{d_{85}}{x} = \left( \frac{0.0236}{1.15} \right) = 0.021 \text{ in.}$$

Assuming  $d = d_{85}$ ,

$$A = \frac{2d}{D} = \frac{0.0472}{196.8} = 2.4 \times 10^{-4}$$

From Eq. (5.21),

$$Z = \frac{\omega}{0.4U_*} = \frac{2.75}{(0.4)(2.75)} = 2.5$$

From Fig. 5.7 with  $Z = 2.5$ ,  $A = 2.4 \times 10^{-4}$ ,

$$I_1 = 0.16$$

From Fig. 5.8,

$$I_2 = -1.2$$

From Eq. (5.25),

$$q_{sw} = (11.6)(0.229 \text{ ft/s})(10^{-4})(62.4 \text{ lb/ft}^3)(0.003937 \text{ ft}) \\ \times \left\{ \left[ 2.303 \log \frac{(30.2)(16.404 \text{ ft})}{0.00171 \text{ ft}} \right] (0.16) - 1.2 \right\} \\ = 5.3 \times 10^{-5} \text{ (lb/s)/ft}$$

Brooks' method. We have

$$Z = \frac{\omega}{kU_*} = \frac{2.75}{(0.4)(2.75)} = 2.5$$

From Fig. 5.3,

$$Z_1 = 2.2 = Z/\beta, \quad \beta = 1.14$$

$$y = 2.5$$

$$\frac{C_{md}}{C_a} = \left( \frac{D-y}{y} \frac{0.25}{5-0.25} \right)^{2.2}$$

$$= 0.001537$$

$$C_{md} = (0.0001)(0.001537) = 1.537 \times 10^{-7}$$

$$k \frac{V}{U_*} = 0.4 \frac{(5/5)}{(2.75)(0.0254)} = 5.73$$

Extending the curves in Fig. 5.9 to  $Z_1 = 2.2$ ,

$$\frac{q_{sw}}{qC_{md}} = 280$$

$$q_{sw} = (280)[53.8 \text{ (ft}^3/\text{s)/ft}][62.4 \text{ lb/ft}^3](1.537 \times 10^{-7}) \\ = 0.144 \text{ (lb/s)/ft}$$

Chang, Simons, and Richardson's method. From Eq. (5.37b),

$$q_{sw} = \gamma D C_a \left( V I_1 - \frac{2U_*}{k} I_2 \right)$$

$$\xi_0 = \frac{a}{D} = \frac{0.25}{5} = 0.05$$

$$Z_2 = \frac{2\omega}{\beta U_* k} = \frac{2(0.07)}{(1.14)(0.07)(0.4)} = 4.38$$

From Fig. 5.10,

$$I_1 = 0.04$$

From Fig. 5.11,

$$I_2 = 0.025$$

$$q_{sw} = (1 \text{ metric ton/m}^3)(5 \text{ m})(0.0001) \left[ (1 \text{ m/s})(0.04) - \frac{2(0.07 \text{ m/s})(0.025)}{0.4} \right] \\ = 0.0000156 \text{ (metric ton/s)/m} \\ = (0.0000156 \text{ (metric ton/s/m)})(2204.62 \text{ lb/metric ton}) \left( \frac{1 \text{ m}}{3.28 \text{ ft}} \right) \\ = 0.0105 \text{ (lb/s)/ft}$$

## PROBLEMS

- 5.1. The Rouse equation is one of the basic equations used by researchers for the determination of vertical suspended sediment concentration distribution in a given cross-section. What is the fundamental principle used in developing the Rouse equation?
- 5.2. Explain, on the basis of Eq. (5.2), why suspended sediment particles will not eventually all settle to the bottom of a turbulent open-channel flow.
- 5.3. The following suspended bed-material concentration and associated sediment and hydraulic parameters were measured from the Mississippi River at St. Louis: median bed-material particle diameter  $d_{50} = 0.25 \text{ mm}$ , average flow velocity  $V = 5.11 \text{ ft/s}$ , water surface slope  $S = 0.000072$ , measured suspended bed-material concentration  $C_m = 147.8 \text{ ppm}$  by weight, water temperature  $T = 1.7^\circ\text{C}$ , average flow depth  $D = 34 \text{ ft}$ , river width  $W = 1672 \text{ ft}$ . Assume that the bed materials are fairly uniform in size. Compute the suspended sediment concentration using Lane and Kalinske's method, Einstein's method, Brooks' method, and Chang, Simons and Richardson's method. Compare the computed results with the measured result. Assume that the  $C_a$  and  $\alpha$  values in Ex. 5.1 are applicable.
- 5.4. Compute the suspended sediment concentration using Einstein's method based on the data given in Problem 4.2.

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- Einstein, H. A. (1950). "The Bed-Load Function for Sediment Transportation in Open Channel Flows." U.S. Department of Agriculture, Soil Conservation Service, Technical Bulletin no. 1026.

where  $q_b$  = bed-load [in (kg/s)/m],

$q$  = water discharge [in (kg/s)/m],

$S$  = slope, and

$d$  = particle size (in m).

The constants 17 and 0.4 are valid only for sand with a specific gravity of 2.65. Meyer-Peter's formula can be applied only to coarse material with particle size greater than 3 mm. For mixtures of nonuniform material,  $d$  should be replaced by  $d_{35}$ , where 35% of the mixture is finer than  $d_{35}$ . Comparisons between Eq. (4.14) and data are shown in Fig. 4.5(a).

#### 4.3.2 Meyer-Peter and Müller's Approach

After 14 years of research and analysis, Meyer-Peter and Müller (1948) transformed the Meyer-Peter formula (4.14) into the Meyer-Peter and Müller formula

$$\gamma \left( \frac{K_s}{K_r} \right)^{3/2} R S = 0.047 (\gamma_s - \gamma) d + 0.25 \rho^{1/3} q_b^{2/3} \quad (4.15a)$$

where  $\gamma$  and  $\gamma_s$  = specific weights of water and sediment, (in metric tons/m<sup>3</sup>), respectively,

$R$  = hydraulic radius (in m),

$S$  = energy slope,

$d$  = mean particle diameter (in m),

$\rho$  = specific mass of water (in metric ton-s/m<sup>3</sup>),

$q_b$  = bedload rate in underwater weight per unit time and width [in (metric ton/s)/m], and

$(K_s/K_r) S$  = the kind of slope, which is adjusted such that only a portion of the total energy loss, namely, that due to the grain resistance  $S_r$ , is responsible for the bed-load motion.

Equation (4.15a) can also be expressed in dimensionless form as

$$\left[ \frac{q_b (\gamma_s - \gamma)}{\gamma_s} \right]^{2/3} \left( \frac{\gamma}{g} \right)^{1/3} \frac{0.25}{(\gamma_s - \gamma) d} = \left( \frac{K_s/K_r}{\gamma_s} \right)^{3/2} \frac{\gamma R S}{\gamma_s} - 0.047 \quad (4.15b)$$

The energy slope can be obtained from Strickler's formula

$$K = \frac{1}{n} \quad S = \frac{V^2}{K_s^2 R^{4/3}} \quad \text{Manning's } S \quad (4.16)$$

If the energy loss due to grain resistance can also be calculated from Strickler's formula

$$S_r = \frac{V^2}{K_r^2 R^{4/3}} \quad (4.17)$$

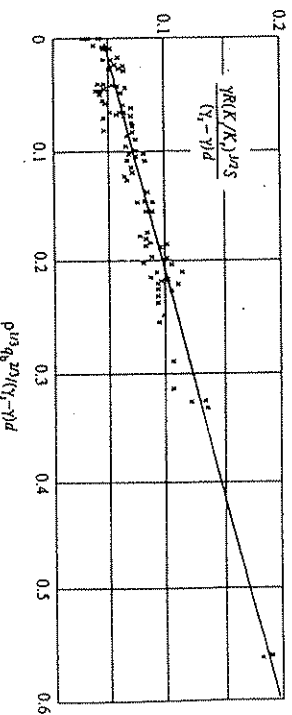
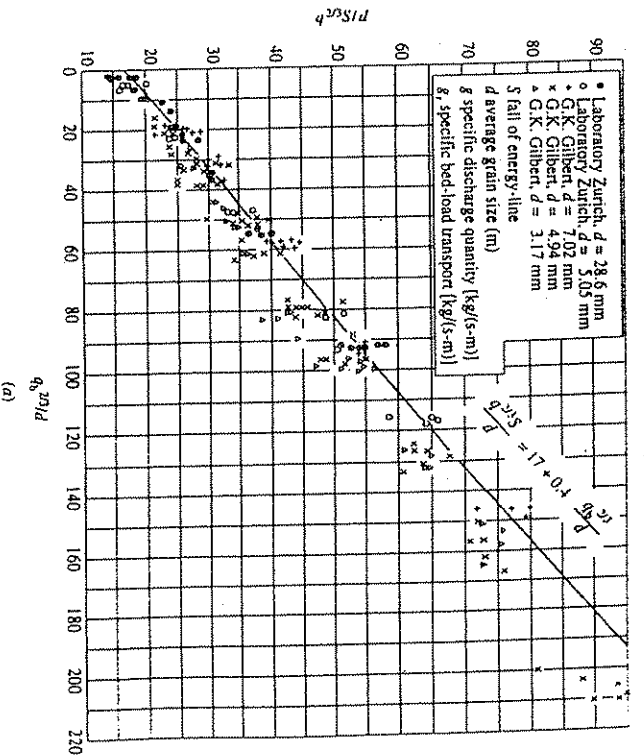


FIGURE 4.5 Meyer-Peter (1934) and Meyer-Peter and Müller transport functions: (a) Meyer-Peter et al. (1948); (b) Meyer-Peter and Müller (1948).

then

$$\frac{K_s}{K_r} = \left( \frac{S_r}{S} \right)^{1/2} \quad (4.18)$$

However, test results showed the relationship to be of the form

$$\left( \frac{K_s}{K_r} \right)^{3/2} = \frac{S_r}{S} \quad (4.19)$$

which is used in Eq. (4.15). The coefficient  $K$ , was determined by Müller as

$$K_r = \frac{26}{d^{1/6}} \quad (4.20)$$

where  $d_{90}$  = the size of sediment for which 90% of the material is finer.

From Eqs. (4.15a), (4.17), (4.19), and (4.20), the rate of bed-load can be calculated. The Meyer-Peter and Müller formula enjoys great popularity in Central Europe.

#### 4.4 DISCHARGE APPROACH

Schoklitsch pioneered the use of water discharge for the determination of bed load. There are two Schoklitsch formulas: the first was published in 1934 and the second in 1943. The 1934 Schoklitsch formula in metric units is

$$q_b = 7000 \frac{S^{3/2}}{d^{1/2}} (q - q_c) \quad (4.21)$$

where

$q_b$  = bed load [in (kg/s)/m],

$d$  = particle size [in mm], and

$q$  and  $q_c$  = water discharge and critical discharge at incipient motion, respectively [in (m<sup>3</sup>/s)/m].

The critical water discharge in Eq. (4.21) for sediments with specific gravity 2.65 is given by

$$q_c = \frac{0.00001944d}{S^{4/3}} \quad (4.22)$$

Equation (4.22) was determined by plotting, for given flow and grain diameter, a curve of bed-load as ordinate against slope as abscissa; and then extrapolating the curve to zero bed-load to obtain the intercept with the abscissa. This intercept is the critical slope for a given water discharge and particle size.

The 1943 Schoklitsch formula in metric units is

$$q_b = 2500S^{3/2}(q - q_c) \quad (4.23)$$

For sediments with specific gravity 2.65, the critical discharge in Eq. (4.23) is

$$q_c = \frac{0.6d^{3/2}}{S^{7/6}} \quad (4.24)$$

where  $d$  = the particle size (in m).

#### 4.5 VELOCITY APPROACH

The basic DuBoys formula (4.5), can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} q_b &= K(\gamma S D)(\gamma S D - \gamma S D_c) \\ &= K(\gamma S)^2(D)(D - D_c) \end{aligned} \quad (4.25)$$

where  $D$  and  $D_c$  = normal and critical water depths at incipient motion, respectively.

Donate (1929) assumed that Chezy's equation can be used and that Chezy's  $C$  value remains the same for  $D$  and  $D_c$ . Equation (4.25) can then be changed to

$$q_b = \frac{K}{C^2} \gamma^2 V^2 (V^2 - V_c^2) \quad (4.26)$$

where

$C$  = Chezy's roughness coefficient,

$\gamma$  = specific weight of water, and

$V$  and  $V_c$  = average and critical velocities at incipient motion, respectively.

The  $K$  value can be obtained from Fig. 4.2.

#### 4.6 BED FORM APPROACH

The bed-load can be computed directly from the bed form movement. Consider the case shown in Fig. 3.3; the continuity equation of the sand wave is

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{(1-p)} \frac{\partial q_b}{\partial x} = 0 \quad (4.27)$$

where  $p$  = porosity of sand bed.

Let

$$\delta = x - V_s t \quad (4.28)$$

where  $V_s$  = velocity of sand wave.

Then

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial \delta} \frac{\partial \delta}{\partial t} = -V_s \frac{\partial y}{\partial \delta} \quad (4.29)$$

$$\frac{\partial q_b}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial q_b}{\partial \delta} \frac{\partial \delta}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial q_b}{\partial \delta} \quad (4.30)$$

Equation (4.27) becomes

$$-V_s \frac{dy}{d\delta} + \frac{1}{1-p} \frac{dq_b}{d\delta} = 0 \quad (4.31)$$

Integration of Eq. (4.31) yields

$$\begin{aligned} q_b &= (1-p)V_s Y_0 \\ &= (1-p)V_s \frac{A}{2} \end{aligned} \quad (4.32)$$

where  $Y_0$  = volume of sediment moved per unit width =  $A/2$  and

$A$  = average amplitude of triangular sand wave.

Equation (4.32) can be used to determine bed-load movement if the size of the bed form is measured.

Step 3: bed-load by weight per unit width of a given size  $i_{bw}q_{bw}$  can be computed from Eq. (4.41), i.e.,

$$\phi = \frac{i_{bw}q_{bw}}{i_{bw}\rho_s g} \left[ \frac{\rho}{(\rho_s - \rho)gd^3} \right]^{1/2} \quad (4.41')$$

Step 4: the total bed-load can be obtained by following the preceding steps for each size fraction and summing the results over the size range of bed material.

Step 5: for mixtures with small size spread, the total bed material of the mixture can be determined directly using  $d_{50}$  as the effective diameter.

It is laborious to solve the resistance-to-flow problem using the Einstein procedure explained in Chapter 3. Vanoni and Brooks (1957) simplified the solution of the problem by using two parameters  $V^2/gv_s$  and  $V/(gk_s S)^{1/2}$ , where  $k_s = d_{65}$ , as shown in Fig. 4.8(a). This figure was extended to higher values of  $V^2/gv_s$  as shown in Fig. 4.8(b) (Simons and Senturk, 1976). Figures 4.8(a, b) can be used in conjunction with the procedure described above to determine the bedload transport rate.

#### 4.7.2 The Einstein-Brown approach

Brown (1950) developed a bed-load transport function based on Einstein's (1942) formula, i.e.,

$$\phi = f\left(\frac{1}{\psi}\right) \quad (4.58)$$

where

$$\phi = \frac{q_{bw}}{\gamma_s K [g(\gamma_s/\gamma - 1)d^3]^{1/2}} \quad (4.59)$$

$$\frac{1}{\psi} = \frac{\tau}{(\gamma_s - \gamma)d} \quad (4.60)$$

$$K = \left[ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{36v_s^2}{gd^3(\gamma_s/\gamma - 1)} \right]^{1/2} - \left[ \frac{36v_s^2}{gd^3(\gamma_s/\gamma - 1)} \right]^{1/2} \quad (4.61)$$

The bed-load discharge  $q_{bw}$  in Eq. (4.59) is given as volume per unit time. Equation (4.59) can also be written as

$$\phi = \frac{q_{bw}}{K[g(\gamma_s/\gamma - 1)d^3]^{1/2}} \quad (4.62)$$

where  $q_{bw}$  and  $q_{bw}$  = bed-load discharges by volume and weight, respectively. Equation (4.60) is identical to the Shields parameter shown in Fig. 2.2. The  $d_{50}$

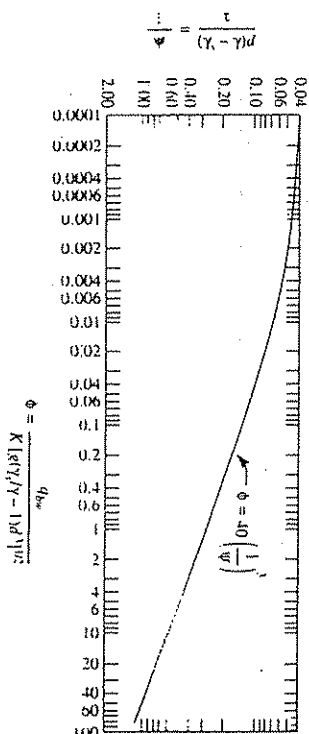


FIGURE 4.9  
 $\phi = f(1/\psi)$  for the Einstein-Brown formula (Brown, 1950).

value should be used for  $d$  in the Einstein-Brown formula. The functional relationship given by Eq. (4.58) is shown in Fig. 4.9. When  $1/\psi$  is greater than 0.09, the Einstein-Brown formula can be expressed as

$$\phi = 40 \left( \frac{1}{\psi} \right)^3 \quad (4.63)$$

#### 4.8 STOCHASTIC APPROACH

The concept of describing the bed-load movements of a single particle by step length and rest period was introduced by Einstein (1937). This concept can be used directly in conjunction with the analysis of bed form profile for the determination of bed-load transport rate.

A general one-dimensional stochastic model was developed by Yang and Sayre (1971) to simulate the movement of a single sediment particle along an alluvial bed. A particle may roll along the bed or may be entrained temporarily in the flow and then rest on the bed, where it will remain, usually becoming covered by other particles until it is re-exposed and can take another step. Thus, the movement of a particle can be described as a stochastic process consisting of alternating sequence of steps and rest periods.

Let  $\{X_i; i = 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$  be a set of random variables describing step lengths that are independently and identically distributed according to a probability density function  $f_s(x)$ , and let  $\{T_i; i = 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$  be a set of random variables describing rest period durations that are independently and identically distributed according to a probability density function  $f_r(t)$ . If the initial condition is that the process starts with a rest period then the total displacement for a particle after  $n$  steps from the origin is

$$x(n) = \sum_{i=0}^n X_i = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \quad (4.64)$$

## 4.10 EQUAL MOBILITY APPROACH

The hypothesis of equal mobility was proposed by Parker (1990) and Parker *et al.* (1982) for the development of a bed-load or gravel transport formula. They assumed that bed-load transport in gravel bed rivers is accomplished by means of the mobilization of grains exposed on the bed surface. This mobilization results from the action of fluid forces on the exposed grains. Substrate particles can participate in the bed-load movement only to the extent that local or global scour results in their exposure on the surface. The coarser surface layer with bed-load movement is referred to as the pavement, which is different from the immobile armor layer. A consequence of the equal mobility hypothesis is that the bed-load size distribution is approximated by that of the substrate for all flows capable of mobilizing most available gravel sizes.

This approximation allowed Parker *et al.* (1982) to develop an empirical gravel transport relationship based solely on field data. By choosing appropriate parameters, the relationship between a dimensionless bed-load transport function  $W^*$  and a dimensionless shear stress parameter  $\phi_i$  is shown in Fig. 4.10. These parameters are defined as

$$W^* = \frac{(\gamma_s/\gamma - 1)q_{bi}}{\rho_i(gDS)^{1/2}DS} \quad (4.79)$$

$$\phi_i = \frac{DS}{(\gamma_s/\gamma - 1)d_i\tau_{*i}^*} \quad (4.80)$$

The value of  $\tau_{*i}^*$  based on  $d_{50}$  is 0.0875, i.e.,

$$\tau_{*i}^* = 0.0875d_{50}/d_i \quad (4.81)$$

where  $q_{bi}$  = bed-load per unit channel width in size fraction  $d_i$  and  $p_i$  = fraction by weight in size  $d_i$ .

Because of equal mobility of all sizes, only one grain size, namely, the subpavement size  $d_{50}$ , is used to characterize bed-load discharge as a function of the dimensionless shear stress, i.e.,

$$W^* = 0.0025 \exp \{ [4.2(\phi_{50} - 1) - 9.28(\phi_{50} - 1)^2], \quad 0.95 < \phi_{50} < 1.65 \} \quad (4.82)$$

or

$$W^* = 11.2 \left( 1 - \frac{0.822}{\phi_{50}} \right)^{4.5}, \quad \phi_{50} > 1.65 \quad (4.83)$$

In Eqs. (4.82) and (4.83),  $\phi_{50}$  is based on the subpavement size  $d_{50}$ . These two

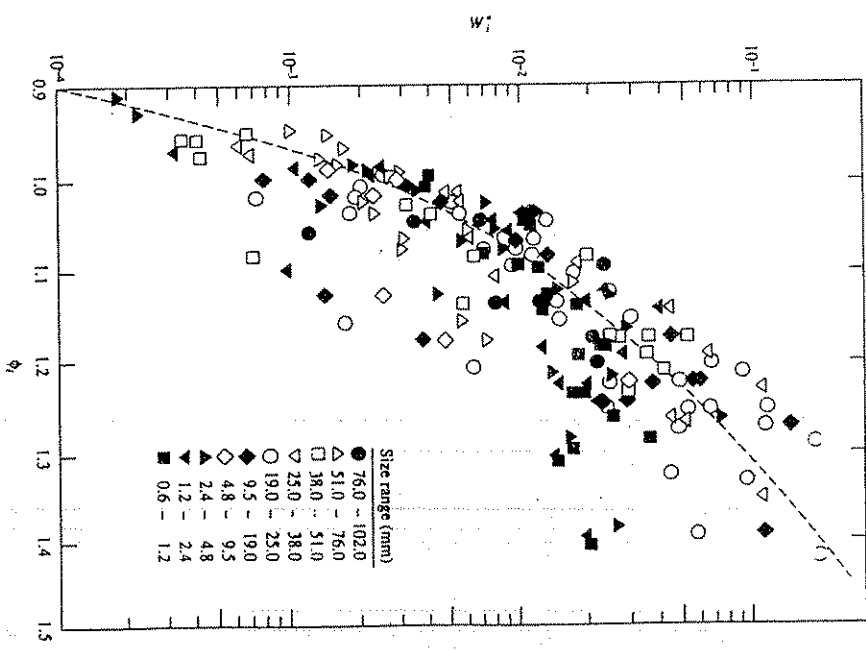


FIGURE 4.10 Similarity plot of  $W^*$  with indicated size ranges (Parker *et al.*, 1982).

equations were empirically fitted using field data from several gravel-bed streams with grain sizes ranging from 18 to 28 mm.

## PROBLEMS

4.1. It has been assumed in this chapter that the bed-load transport rate could be expressed as a function of shear stress, slope, or velocity. Show that these assumptions are actually interchangeable. In order to make them interchangeable, what basic assumption must be made, and what is its weakness?

4.2. The following data were measured by the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation from a river station: water discharge  $Q = 7000 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}$ , average depth  $D = 9.8 \text{ ft}$ , slope  $S = 0.00044$ , width  $W = 200 \text{ ft}$ , Manning's roughness coefficient  $n = 0.04$ , particle size  $d_{50} = 0.46 \text{ mm}$ , and water temperature  $T = 10^\circ\text{C}$ . The bed-material size distribution

Yang (1966)

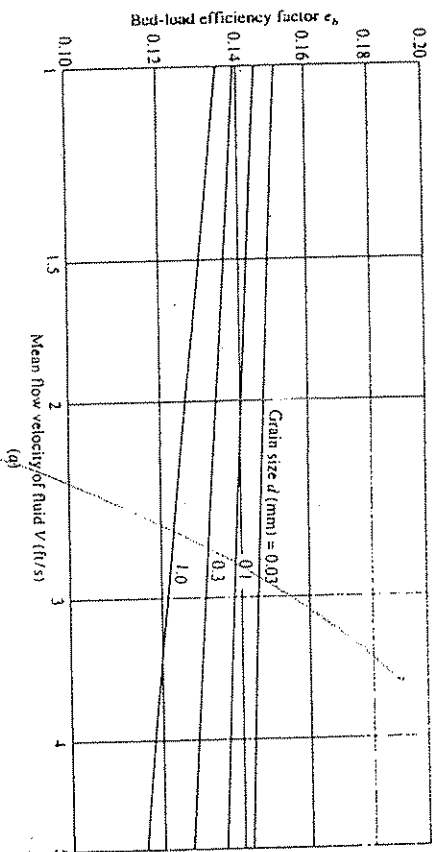


FIGURE 6.5  
Variation of  $e_b$  and  $\tan \alpha$  in Bagnold's bed-load transport function (Bagnold, 1966).

In Eq. (6.38),  $\tau V$  is the stream power or the power per unit area acting along the bed. The values of  $e_b$  and  $\tan \alpha$  as given by Bagnold are shown in Fig. 6.5. The rate of work needed in transporting the suspended load is

$$\phi_s = \frac{\gamma_s - \gamma}{\gamma} q_{sw} \frac{\omega}{\bar{u}_s} \quad (6.39)$$

where  $q_{sw}$  = suspended load discharge in dry weight per unit time and width,

$\bar{u}_s$  = mean transport velocity of suspended load, and

$\omega$  = fall velocity of suspended sediment.

The rate of energy available for transporting the suspended load is

$$\phi_s' = \tau V (1 - e_b) \quad (6.40)$$

Based on general physics, the rate of work being done should be related to the power available times the efficiency of the system, i.e.,

$$\frac{\gamma_s - \gamma}{\gamma} q_{sw} \frac{\omega}{\bar{u}_s} = \tau V (1 - e_b) e_s \quad (6.41)$$

where  $e_s$  = suspended load transport efficiency coefficient.

Equation (6.41) can be rearranged as

$$\frac{\gamma_s - \gamma}{\gamma} q_{sw} = (1 - e_b) e_s \frac{\bar{u}_s}{\omega} \tau V \quad (6.42)$$

Assuming  $\bar{u}_s = V$ , Bagnold found  $(1 - e_b) e_s = 0.01$  from flume data. Thus, the suspended load can be computed by

$$\frac{\gamma_s - \gamma}{\gamma} q_{sw} = 0.01 \tau V^2 / \omega \quad (6.43)$$

The total load in dry weight per unit time and unit width is the sum of bed-load and suspended load, i.e., from Eqs. (6.38) and (6.43),

$$q_t = q_{bw} + q_{sw} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_s - \gamma} \tau V \left( \frac{e_b}{\tan \alpha} + 0.01 \frac{V}{\omega} \right) \quad (6.44)$$

where  $q_t$  = total load [in (lb/s)/ft].

(6.3.2.2) ENGELUND AND HANSEN'S APPROACH. Engelund and Hansen (1972) applied Bagnold's stream power concept and the similarity principle to obtain a sediment transport function

$$f' \phi = 0.1 \theta^{5/2} \quad (6.45)$$

with

$$f' = \frac{2gSD}{V^2} \quad (6.46)$$

$$\phi = q_t \left[ \gamma_s \left( \frac{\gamma_s - \gamma}{\gamma} \right) g d^3 \right]^{-1/2} \quad (6.47)$$

$$\theta = \frac{\tau}{(\gamma_s - \gamma)d} \quad (6.48)$$

where

$g$  = gravitational acceleration,

$S$  = energy slope,

$V$  = average flow velocity,

$q_s$  = total sediment discharge by weight per unit width,

$\gamma_s$  and  $\gamma$  = specific weights of sediment and water, respectively,

$d$  = median particle diameter, and

$\tau$  = shear stress along the bed.

Strictly speaking, Eq. (6.45) should be applied to those flows with dune beds in accordance with the similarity principle. However, Engelund and Hansen found that it can be applied to the dune bed and the upper flow regime with particle size greater than 0.15 mm without serious deviation from the theory.

**6.3.2.3 ACKERS AND WHITES APPROACH.** Based on Bagnold's stream power concept, Ackers and White (1973) applied dimensional analysis to express the mobility and transport rate of sediment in terms of some dimensionless parameters. They postulated that only part of the shear stress on the channel bed is effective in causing the movement of coarse sediment, while in the case of fine sediment, suspended load movement predominates, and the total shear stress is effective in causing the movement of sediment. Their mobility number for sediment is

$$F_{gr} = U_*^n \left[ g d \left( \frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma} - 1 \right) \right]^{-1/2} \left[ \frac{V}{\sqrt{32} \log(\alpha D/d)} \right]^{1-n} \quad (6.49)$$

where  $U_*$  = shear velocity,

$n$  = transition exponent, depending on sediment size,

$\alpha$  = coefficient in rough turbulent equation ( $= 10$ ),

$d$  = sediment particle size, and  $\varphi = d/3\zeta$

$D$  = water depth.

They also expressed the sediment size by a dimensionless grain diameter

$$d_{gr} = d \left[ \frac{g(\gamma_s/\gamma - 1)}{V^2} \right]^{1/3} \quad (6.50)$$

where  $v$  = kinematic viscosity.

A general dimensionless sediment transport function can then be expressed as

$$G_{gr} = f(F_{gr}, d_{gr}) \quad (6.51)$$

with

$$G_{gr} = \frac{XD}{d\gamma_s/\gamma} \left( \frac{U_*}{V} \right)^n \quad (6.52)$$

where  $X$  = rate of sediment transport in terms of mass flow per unit mass flow rate, i.e., concentration by weight of fluid flux.

The generalized dimensionless sediment transport function can also be expressed as

$$C = C(F_{gr} - 1)^m \quad (6.53)$$

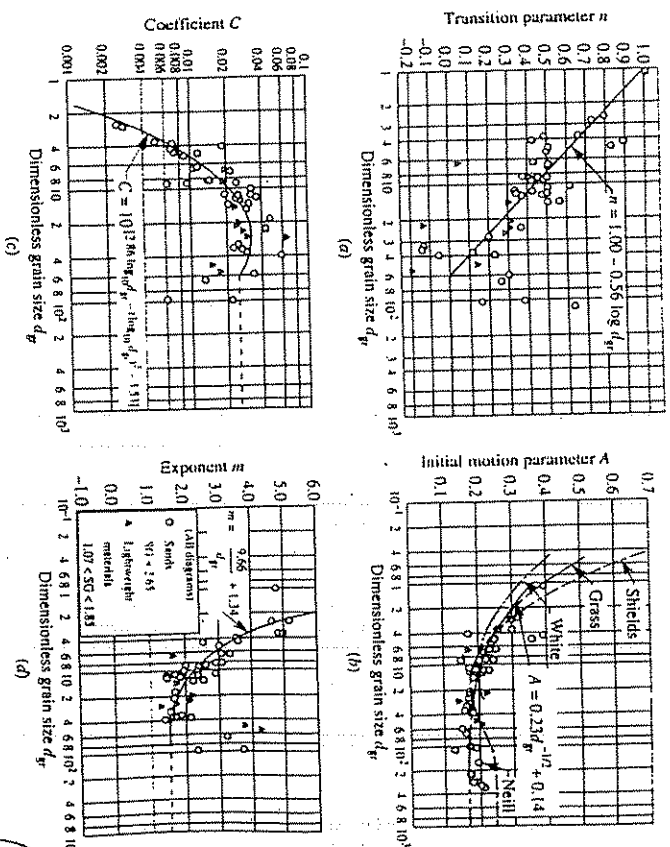


FIGURE 6.6  
Coefficients in Ackers and White's sediment transport function (Ackers and White, 1973).

The values of  $A$ ,  $C$ ,  $m$ , and  $n$  were determined by Ackers and White (1973), (1974) based on best-fit curves of laboratory data with sediment size greater than 0.04 mm and Froude number less than 0.8, as shown in Fig. 6-6:

The procedures to use the best-fit relationships shown in Fig. 6.6 are summarized below.

→ For the transition zone with  $1 < d_{gr} \leq 60$

$$m = \frac{6.83}{d_{gr}} + 1.67 \quad n = 1.00 - 0.56 \log d_{gr} \quad (6.54)$$

$$\log C = 2.79 \log(d_{gr}) - 0.18 \left[ \log d_{gr} \right]^2 - 3.46 \quad A = 0.23 d_{gr}^{-1/2} + 0.14 \quad (6.55)$$

→ For coarse sediments,  $d_{gr} > 60$ ,

$$n = 0.00 \quad (6.56)$$

$$A = 0.17 \quad (6.57)$$

$$m = 1.50 - 1.78 \quad (6.58)$$

$$C = 0.025 \quad (6.59)$$



Next, values of  $n$  and  $A$  were inserted using Eqs. (6.54)–(6.57), and resultant best-fit values of  $C$  and  $m$  were determined and plotted against  $d_{gr}$ . Of the two graphs, the variation of  $m$  with  $d_{gr}$  shown in Fig. 6.6(d) has the following relationships. For the transition zone,

$$m = \frac{9.66}{d_{gr}} + 1.34 = \frac{6.83}{d_{gr}} + 1.67 \quad (6.60)$$

In the final stage of optimization, best-fit values of  $C$  were obtained using the values of  $n$ ,  $A$ , and  $m$  defined by the preceding equations. The results are shown in Fig. 6.6(c). Thus, for the transition zone,

$$\log C = \frac{2.79}{d_{gr}^{0.48}} - (\log d_{gr})^2 - 3.53 \quad (6.61)$$

The procedures for the computation of sediment transport rate using Ackers and White's approach are summarized as follows.

1. Determine the value of  $d_{gr}$  from known values of  $d$ ,  $g$ ,  $\gamma_s/\gamma$ , and  $v$  in Eq. (6.50).
2. Determine values of  $n$ ,  $A$ ,  $m$ , and  $C$  associated with the derived  $d_{gr}$  value from Eqs. (6.54)–(6.61).
3. Compute the value of the particle mobility  $F_{gr}$  from Eq. (6.49).
4. Determine the value of  $G_{gr}$  from Eq. (6.53), which represents a graphical version of the new sediment transport function.
5. Convert  $G_{gr}$  to sediment flux  $X$ , in ppm by weight of fluid flux, using Eq. (6.52).

**6.3.2.4 YANG'S APPROACH.** Yang (1972) reviewed the basic assumptions used in the derivation of conventional sediment transport equations. He concluded that the assumption that sediment transport rate could be determined from water discharge, average flow velocity, energy slope, or shear stress is questionable. Consequently, the generality and applicability of any equation derived from one of these assumptions is also questionable. The rate of energy per unit weight of water available for transporting water and sediment in an open channel with reach length  $x$  and total drop of  $Y$  is

$$\frac{dY}{dt} = \frac{dx}{dt} \frac{dY}{dx} = VS \quad (6.62)$$

Yang (1972) defines the unit stream power as the velocity-slope product. The rate of work being done by a unit weight of water in transporting sediment must be directly related to the rate of work available to a unit weight of water.

Thus, total sediment concentration or total bed-material load must be directly related to unit stream power. While Bagnold (1966) emphasized the power applies to a unit bed area, Yang (1972, 1973) emphasized the power available per unit weight of fluid to transport sediments.

To determine total sediment concentration, Yang (1973) considered a relation between the relevant variables of the form

$$\phi(C_t, VS, U_*, v, \omega, d) = 0 \quad (6.63)$$

where  $C_t$  = total sediment concentration, with wash load excluded (in ppm by weight),

$VS$  = unit stream power,

$U_*$  = shear velocity,

$v$  = kinematic viscosity,

$\omega$  = fall velocity of sediment, and

$d$  = median particle diameter.

Using Buckingham's  $\pi$  theorem,  $C_t$  in Eq. (6.63) can be expressed in the following dimensionless form:

$$C_t = \phi\left(\frac{VS}{\omega}, \frac{U_*}{\omega}, \frac{\omega d}{v}\right) \quad (6.64)$$

Because a critical unit stream power  $V_{cr}S$  is required at incipient motion, Eq. (6.64) is modified to

$$C_t = \phi\left(\frac{VS}{\omega} - \frac{V_{cr}S}{\omega}, \frac{U_*}{\omega}, \frac{\omega d}{v}\right) \quad (6.65)$$

From the analysis of laboratory flume data, Yang (1973) found the best form of Eq. (6.65) to be

$$\log C_t = I + J \log\left(\frac{VS}{\omega} - \frac{V_{cr}S}{\omega}\right) \quad (6.66)$$

$I$  and  $J$  in Eq. (6.65) are dimensionless parameters reflecting the flow and sediment characteristics. Based on Eq. (6.65) and analysis of flume data,

$$I = a_1 + a_2 \log \frac{\omega d}{v} + a_3 \log \frac{U_*}{\omega} \quad (6.67)$$

$$J = b_1 + b_2 \log \frac{\omega d}{v} + b_3 \log \frac{U_*}{\omega} \quad (6.68)$$

where  $a_1, a_2, a_3, b_1, b_2, b_3$  = coefficients.

The coefficients in Eq. (6.67) and (6.68) were determined by considering  $\log C_t$  as the dependent variable, and  $\log(\omega d/v)$ ,  $\log(U_*/\omega)$ ,  $\log(VS/\omega - V_{cr}S/\omega)$ ,



و یا:

$$\frac{Q_1}{Q} = 0.05 \left( \frac{G_s}{G_s - 1} \right) \frac{v_s}{l (G_s - 1) g D_m l^{1/2}} \frac{R_s}{(G_s - 1) D_m} \quad (9-110)$$

که در آن  $Q_1$  عبارت است از دبی کل رسوب و  $Q$  عبارت است از دبی جریان و  $G_s$  چگالی ذرات رسوب و سایر ترمها قبلاً تعریف شده‌اند.

۹-۴-۶- روش دیگر - وایت<sup>(۱)</sup>

رابطه آیکر - وایت برای محاسبه بار مواد بستر به صورت زیر است:

$$\frac{Q_1}{Q} = C \frac{D_m}{R} \left( \frac{v}{u_o} \right)^n \left( \frac{F}{A} g_s - 1 \right)^m \quad (9-111)$$

که مقادیر ضرایب  $n$ ,  $C$ ,  $A$  و  $m$  در جدول ۹-۴ قید گردیده است.

دو این روابط  $D$  پارامتر می‌باشد که به صورت زیر تعریف می‌شود:

$$D_g = D_m \left[ \frac{g(\rho_s / \rho - 1)}{v^2} \right]^{1/3} \quad (9-112)$$

بالا جهت کینماتیک و  $F_g =$  عدد حرکت می‌باشد که به صورت زیر تعریف می‌شود:

۹-۴-۳- روش انگلوند - هانسن<sup>(۱)</sup>

رابطه انگلوند برای محاسبه بار مواد بستر به صورت زیر می‌باشد:

$$f' \varphi = 0.1 (T_o)^{5/2} \quad (9-108)$$

که در آن:

$$\varphi = \frac{q_1}{\gamma_s l (\gamma_s / \gamma - 1) g D_m^3 l^{1/2}} \quad (9-107)$$

و  $f'$  ضریب زبری از دیانگام مودی یا رابطه دارسی و ایسناخ محاسبه می‌شود:

$$f' = \frac{2 g R_s}{v^2} \quad (9-106)$$

$$T_o = \frac{\tau_o}{(\gamma_s - \gamma) D_m} \quad \text{قطر میانه سقوط} = D_m \quad (9-105)$$

پس از معرفی سه پارامتر بالا در رابطه (۹-۱۰۶) این رابطه را می‌توان به صورت زیر

نوشت:

و یا:

$$q_1 = 0.05 \gamma_s v^2 \sqrt{\frac{D_{50}}{g (G_s - 1)}} l^{\frac{\tau_o}{(\gamma_s - \gamma) D_{50}}} \quad (9-104)$$

و میزان استهلاک انرژی به دلیل تغییر در انرژی پتانسیل می باشد. این میزان تغییر انرژی در واحد وزن آب در طول عبور است با:

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{dx}{dt} \frac{dz}{dx} = VS \quad (9-113)$$

در اینجا حاصل ضرب سرعت در شیب کانال را قدرت یک جریان<sup>(۱)</sup> می نامند. از آنجا که رسوب صرفاً بخاطر شرایط جریانهای درهم منتقل می شود، میزان کل رسوب باید به قدرت یک جریان مستقیماً وابسته باشد. یانگ و مولیناس<sup>(۲)</sup> با استفاده از اصول اولیه حاکم بر جریانهای درهم نشان دادند که رابطه زیر باید بین میزان کل رسوب و قدرت یک جریان برقرار باشد:

$$\log C_T = M + N \log \frac{VS}{\omega_s} \quad (9-115)$$

که در آن  $M$  و  $N$  پارامترهای تجربی هستند که به خصوصیات جریان و رسوب بستگی دارند.  $\omega_s$  عبارت است از سرعت سقوط ذرات رسوب، ضرایب  $M$  و  $N$  با استفاده اطلاعات آزمایشگاهی و بر اساس رگرسیون بدست آمده و در نتیجه رابطه یانگ (۱۱۷۳) برای رودخانه بامواد بستر مسامی ( $D_s \leq 2 \text{ mm}$ ) به صورت زیر ارائه گردید (به نقل از Chang, 1988):

$$\log C_T = 5.435 - 0.286 \log \frac{\omega_s D_s}{\nu} - 0.457 \log \frac{u_*}{\omega_s} + (1.799 - 0.409 \log \frac{\omega_s D_s}{\nu} - 0.314 \log \frac{u_*}{\omega_s}) \log \left( \frac{VS}{\omega_s} - \frac{V_c S}{\omega_s} \right) \quad (9-116)$$

جدول ۴- عرضراب مربوط به معادله آیکر - وایت.

ضریب	$D_g > 60$	$1 < D_g \leq 60$
C	0.025	$\log C = 2.86 \log D_g - (\log D_g)^2 - 3.53$
n	0.00	$1 - 0.56 \log D_g$
A	0.17	$\frac{0.23}{\sqrt{D_g}} + 0.14$
m	1.5	$\frac{9.66}{D_g} + 1.34$

$$F_g = \frac{u_*^n}{[\log D_m (\rho_s / \rho - 1)]^{1/2}} \left[ \frac{V}{\sqrt{32 \log (10 R / D_m)}} \right]^{1-n} \quad (9-117)$$

روش آیکر - وایت بر مبنای جمع آوری هزار داده آزمایشگاهی با ذرات بیش از  $0.4$  میلیتر و عدد فرود کمتر از  $8/10$  استوار می باشد.

۶-۴-۵- روش یانگ<sup>(۱)</sup>

یانگ میزان بار مواد بستر را به میزان استهلاک انرژی جریان ربط داد و رابطهای برای برآورد میزان بار مواد بستر پیشنهاد کرد.

یانگ اظهار می دارد که در جریان ماندگار یکپارخت، تغییر انرژی جنبشی وجود ندارد.

$$\rho_1 = 2650 \text{ kg/m}^3 \text{ میلیمتر و } \rho_2 = 1000 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

مطلوب است مدت زمانی که نصف حجم مخزن بر اثر رسوب شده باشد. مخزن را به صورت مستطیل فرض کنید.

$$v = 1.1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 / \text{sec}$$

$$V = \frac{87}{5 \times 10} = 1.74 \text{ m/sec}$$

$$R = \frac{A}{P} = \frac{10 \times 5}{10 + 2 \times 5} = 2.5 \text{ m}$$

$$u_s = \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{\rho}} = \sqrt{g R S} = \sqrt{9.81 \times 2.5 \times 1 / 3000} = 0.0904 \text{ m}^3 / \text{sec}$$

$$D_g = D_{50} \left[ \frac{g(\rho_s / \rho - 1)}{v^2} \right]^{1/3} = 0.3 \times 10^{-3} \left[ \frac{9.81(2650 / 1000 - 1)}{(1.1 \times 10^{-6})^2} \right]^{1/3}$$

$$D_g = 7.12$$

چون  $60 < D_g < 1$  بنابراین:

$$n = 1 - 0.56 \log D_g = 1 - 0.56 \log (7.12) = 0.5226$$

$$m = 1.34 + \frac{9.66}{D_g} = 1.34 + \frac{9.66}{7.12} = 2.697$$

$$A = 0.14 + \frac{0.23}{\sqrt{D_g}} = 0.14 + \frac{0.23}{\sqrt{7.12}} = 0.2262$$

$$\log C = 2.86 \log D_g - (\log D_g)^2 - 3.53$$

که در آن  $C$  عبارت است از کل رسوب منتقل شده بر حسب قسمت در میلیون (وزنی). در سال ۱۹۸۴، یسازگی رابطه دیگری را برای رودخانه‌های بیا بستر شنی  $mm < D_s < 10mm$  به صورت زیر ارائه کرد (به نقل از Chang, 1988)

$$\log C_r = 6.681 - 0.633 \log \frac{D_s}{v} - 4.816 \log \frac{u_*}{\omega_s} + (2.784 - 0.305$$

$$\log \frac{\omega_s D_s}{v} - 0.282 \log \frac{u_*}{\omega_s} \log \left( \frac{V S}{\omega_s} \cdot \frac{V_c S}{\omega_s} \right) \quad (9-117)$$

در روابط فوق  $V$  عبارت است از سرعت متوسط جریان در آستانه حرکت و با سرعت بحرانی،  $V_c$  روابط زیر را برای محاسبه  $V_c$  ارائه کرد:

الف) برای کانال با بستر نرم و منطقه بینابین یعنی وقتی عدد رینولدز مرزی بین  $10^3$  تا  $10^4$  باشد.

$$\frac{V_c}{\omega_s} = \frac{2.5}{\log(u_* D_s / v) - 0.06} + 0.66 \quad (9-118)$$

ب) برای کانال با بستر زیر یعنی وقتی عدد رینولدز مرزی بیش از  $10^4$  باشد.

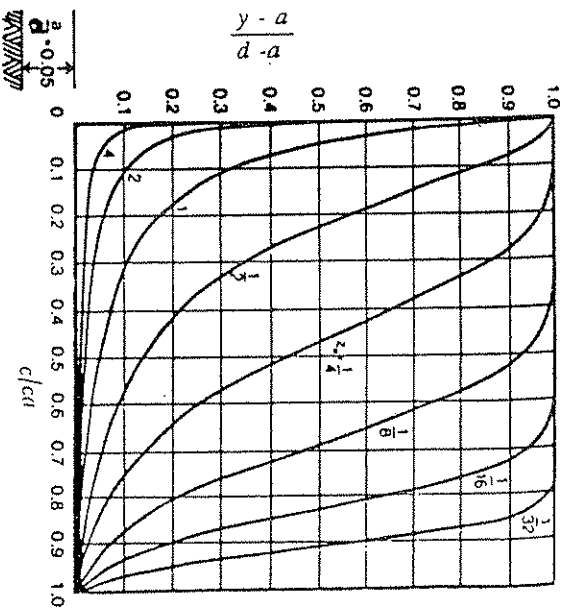
$$\frac{V_c}{\omega_s} = 2.05 \quad (9-119)$$

مثال ۹-۲:

ظرفیت مخزن پشت سد برابر با  $20 \times 10^6 \text{ m}^3$  می‌باشد. رودخانه‌ای که دارد مخزن می‌شود دارای مشخصات زیر است:

عرض ده متر، شیب کف ۱ به ۱۲۰۰۰، دبی ۸۷ متر مکعب در ثانیه، عمق ۵ متر

۱۵/۳



شکل (۲-۵): نمایش ترسیمی توزیع غلظت مواد معلق برای  $\frac{a}{d} = 0.05$  و مقادیر مختلف Z (نقل ۱۹۷۵ Vanoni).

رودخانه به ترتیب  $4000 \text{ ppm}$  و  $1000 \text{ ppm}$  باشد، (مطلوب است رسم پروفیل C در مقابل راز از ارتفاع ده سانتی متری به بالا. عمق آب ۲ متر است.

طریقه حل :

استفاده از معادله راس

$$\frac{C}{C_a} = \left[ \frac{a}{y} \times \frac{d-y}{d-a} \right]^Z$$

$$\frac{1000}{4000} = \left[ \frac{0.1}{0.3} \times \frac{2-0.3}{2-0.1} \right]^Z \Rightarrow Z = 1.146$$

$$\omega C + \beta k u_* \frac{y}{d} (d-y) \frac{dC}{dy} = 0 \quad (۲-۸۵)$$

و از آنجا:

$$\frac{dC}{C} = \frac{-\omega dy}{\beta k u_* (1-y/d) Y} = -Z \frac{dy}{(1-y/d) y} \quad (۲-۸۶)$$

که در آن  $Z = \frac{\omega}{\beta k u_*}$  می باشد.

با انتگرال گیری از رابطه (۲-۸۶):

$$\left[ L n C \right]_a^d = \left[ L n \left( \frac{d-y}{y} \right) \right]_a^d \quad (۲-۸۷)$$

که پس از ساده کردن:

$$\frac{C}{C_a} = \left( \frac{d-y}{y} \frac{a}{d-a} \right)^Z \quad (۲-۸۸)$$

که  $C_a$  عبارت است از میزان غلظت مواد معلق در عمق  $h$  از بستر رودخانه.

معادله اخیر، که توزیع غلظت مواد معلق را در اعماق مختلف نشان می دهد، به معادله راس معروف است. شکل (۲-۵) توزیع غلظت را بر حسب مقادیر مختلف Z نشان می دهد.

مطابق این شکل، ملاحظه می شود که هر چه مقدار Z کوچکتر شود و یا اندازه ذرات ریزتر شوند پروفیل غلظت این ذرات در عمق کانال یکنواخت تر خواهد بود.

مثال ۲۵-۵: بار رسوبی در رودخانه

اگر غلظت مواد معلق رودخانه‌ای در ارتفاع ۱۰ و ۳۰ سانتی متری بالای بستر

مثال ۲-۴: بار رسوبی معلوم

مصالح بستر رودخانه‌ای شامل اندازه‌های  $0.025$ ،  $0.05$ ، میلیتر می‌باشد. عرض رودخانه  $25$  فوت و عمق آن  $8$  فوت است. شیب رودخانه  $0.00022$  می‌باشد. مطلوب است رسم منحنی  $C$ ، هر یک از اندازه‌های فوق از ارتفاع یک فوتی تا سطح آب  $K = 0.4$  و  $\beta = 1$  درجه حرارت  $20.0^\circ C$  باشد.

$$\frac{C}{C_a} = \left[ \frac{d-y}{d-a} \frac{a}{y} \right]^Z$$

$$Z = \frac{\omega}{\beta K u_*}$$

سرعت سقوط ذرات که از شکل  $(8-3)$  با فرض  $S.F. = 0.7$  می‌توان بدست آورد.

$$\omega = 1 \text{ cm / sec} = 0.033 \text{ fps}$$

برای  $0.125 \text{ mm}$

$$\omega = 3 \text{ cm / sec} = 0.098 \text{ fps}$$

برای  $0.25 \text{ mm}$

$$\omega = 8 \text{ cm / sec} = 0.262 \text{ fps}$$

برای  $0.5 \text{ mm}$

$$u_* = \sqrt{g R S} = \sqrt{32.2 \times 8 \times 0.00022}$$

$$u_* = 0.238 \text{ ft/sec}$$

برای هر یک از اندازه‌های فوق به شرح زیر است:

در نتیجه معادله پروفیل  $C$  در مقابل  $y$  برابر خواهد بود با:

$$\frac{C}{4000} = \left[ \frac{0.1}{y} \frac{2-y}{2-0.1} \right]^{1.146}$$

و یا:

2.0	1.5	1.2	0.9	0.7	0.5	
0	39	86	172	279	483	$C$ (ppm)

مثال ۴-۴: بار رسوبی معلوم

اگر غلظت مواد معلق رودخانه‌ای در ارتفاع یک دو فوتی بالایی بستر رودخانه‌ای به ترتیب  $2000 \text{ ppm}$  و  $500 \text{ ppm}$  باشد مطلوب است غلظت مواد معلق در ارتفاع چهار فوتی از بستر رودخانه در حالی که عمق رودخانه ده فوت باشد.

حل: از فرمول راس استفاده می‌شود:

$$\frac{500}{2000} = \left[ \frac{10-2}{10-1} \frac{1}{2} \right]^Z$$

$$\frac{C}{2000} = \left[ \frac{10-4}{10-1} \frac{1}{4} \right]^{1.71} \Rightarrow C = 93 \text{ ppm}$$

با فرض  $2000 \text{ ppm}$  و  $C_a = 1$  ابتدا با داشتن غلظت در دو عمق، مقدار  $a$  محاسبه می‌شود.

$$q_s = 11.6 C_a u_a^2 \left[ 2.303 \log \left( \frac{30.2 x d}{D_{65}} \right) I_1 + I_2 \right]$$

(۲-۹۱)

که در آن:

$$I_1 = 0.216 \frac{A^{z-1}}{(1-A)^z} \int_A^1 \left( \frac{1-B}{B} \right)^z Z_L n B d B \quad (۲-۹۲)$$

$$I_2 = 0.216 \frac{A^{z-1}}{(1-A)^z} \int_A^1 \left( \frac{1-B}{B} \right)^z Z_L n B d B \quad (۲-۹۳)$$

که در آن  $A = \frac{a}{d}$  و  $B = \frac{y}{d}$  می باشد.

مقادیر  $I_1$  و  $I_2$  را می توان با استفاده از روشهای عددی محاسبه کرد و یا اینکه از شکل های (۲-۶) و (۲-۷) بدست آورد.

چنانچه مقدار  $C_a$  اندازه گیری شود می توان رابطه (۲-۹۱) را برای تعیین بار معلق به کار برد.

اینستین فرض کرد که مواد معلق مشکل از مواد بستر هستند بنابراین مقدار  $C_a$  را برابر بار بستر در عمق  $D_1$  یعنی در انتهای لایه بالایی لایه بستر فرض کرد. با این فرضیه مقدار  $C_a$  برای هر اندازه ای از مواد معلق برابر خواهد بود با:

(۲-۹۴)

$$Z = \frac{0.033}{1 \times 0.4 \times 0.238} = 0.346$$

برای اندازه  $mm$  0.125

$$Z = \frac{0.098}{1 \times 0.4 \times 0.238} = 1.03$$

برای اندازه  $mm$  0.25

$$Z = \frac{0.262}{1 \times 0.4 \times 0.238} = 2.75$$

برای اندازه  $mm$  0.5

۲-۳-۶- معادله اینستین برای بار معلق

اینستین میزان بار معلق را با ترکیب پروفیل توزیع سرعت و پروفیل توزیع غلظت مواد معلق به صورت زیر بوجود آورد:

$$q_s = \int_a^d C v d y \quad (۲-۸۹)$$

با جایگزینی مقدار  $C$  از رابطه (۲-۸۸) و مقدار  $v$  از رابطه (۲-۷۴) می توان نوشت:

$$q_s = \int_a^d C_a \left( \frac{d-y}{y} \right)^a \left( \frac{a}{d-a} \right)^z Z_{5.75} u_a^2 \cdot \log \left( \frac{30.2 x d}{D_{65}} \right) d y \quad (۲-۹۰)$$

پس از انتگرال گیری از رابطه (۲-۹۰):



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حل :

الف) معادله پروفیل سرعت به صورت زیر می باشد:

$$\frac{v}{u_*} = 5.75 \log \left( \frac{30.2 y x}{D_{65}} \right)$$

$$\delta = 11.6 \frac{u_*}{y} = 11.6 \frac{\sqrt{g d s}}{\delta}$$

$$\delta = 11.6 \frac{\sqrt{32.2 \times 10 \times 0.0001}}{1.21 \times 10^{-5}} = 0.00078 \quad \text{فوت}$$

$$\frac{D_{65}}{\delta} = \frac{0.01}{0.00078} = 12.8$$

در نتیجه با استفاده از شکل (۸-۱) مقدار برابر خواهد بود با:

$$x = 1$$

در نتیجه پروفیل سرعت:

$$v = 5.75 \sqrt{32.2 \times 10 \times 0.0001} \log \left( \frac{30.2 y \cdot 216}{0.01} \right)$$

$$v = 1.03 \log (3020 y)$$

(مقدار بار معلق برابر خواهد بود با:

که در آن  $v =$  سرعت مواد لایه بستر می باشد که نامشخص است. اینشتین فرض کرده که  $v$  برابر است با سرعت جریان در لایه بستر، یعنی در عمق  $D_1 = 2$   $y$  که با جایگزین کردن این مقدار در رابطه توزیع لگاریتمی سرعت اینشتین (رابطه ۷۳-۱)، مقدار  $v$  برابر خواهد بود با:

$$v_b = 11.6 u_* \quad (9-90)$$

در نتیجه با قرار دادن مقدار  $v$  در رابطه ۹۴-۶ و سپس جایگزین کردن مقدار  $C_a$  از رابطه ۹۴-۶ در رابطه ۹۱-۶، می توان نوشت:

$$q_s = P_i q_b \left[ \frac{2303}{D_{65}} \log \left( \frac{30.2 x d}{D_{65}} \right) I_1 + I_2 \right] \quad (9-91)$$

رابطه بالا به رابطه بار معلق اینشتین معروف است.

مثال ۸-۶: برآورد بار رسوب حمل شده با شیلینگ

یک رودخانه آبرفتی عرضی دارای عمق ۱۰ فوت و شیب کف ۰/۰۰۱ است. مواد بستر بطور کلی شن ریزه با  $D_{65}$  برابر با ۰/۰۱ فوت می باشد. با فرض اینکه فرم بستر در این رودخانه تشکیل نمی شود و درجه حرارت آب ۶۰°F است، مطلوب است:

الف) معادله پروفیل سرعت نسبت به عمق

ب) بار معلق در واحد عرض کانال.

توزیع غلظت مواد معلق در این رودخانه به صورت تابع زیر می باشد:

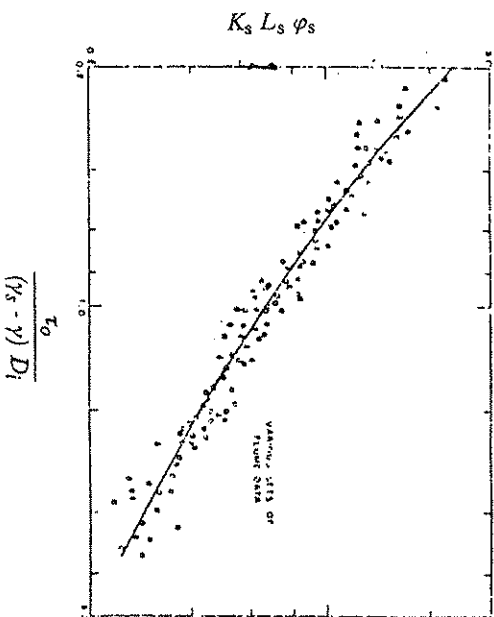
$$C = 1000 - 10 y^2$$

که در آن  $C$  بر حسب قسمت در میلیون (بر حسب وزن) و  $y$  بر حسب فوت است.

براساس این روش و با استفاده از داده‌های آزمایشگاهی رابطه زیر را می‌توان بدست آورد:

$$k_s L_s \phi_s = f(T_o) \quad (9-98)$$

این رابطه در شکل (9-98) نشان داده شده است.



شکل (9-98) روش ساماگا (Garde and Raju, 1985)

با استفاده از شکل (9-98) و با معلوم بودن  $T_o$  مقدار  $L_s \phi_s$  بدست می‌آید سپس از جدول (9-99) مقدار  $K_s$  با زاویه مقدار مختلف  $T_o$  (که در آن  $R_s = \gamma$ ) تنش برش بحرانی است که از دیاگرام شیلدرز حاصل می‌شود) و از جدول (9-99) مقدار  $L_s$  با زاویه مقدار مختلف  $K_s$  (همان  $K_s$  یعنی ضریب کارمن است که بیشتر آنرا ثابت و مساوی  $0.4$  در نظر می‌گیرند) نتیجه می‌شود. با در دست داشتن مقادیر  $K_s$  و  $L_s$  که از جدول (9-99) و (9-98) بدست آمد مقدار  $\phi_s$  و  $L_s K_s$  که از شکل (9-98) بدست آمد مقدار  $\phi_s$  و متعاقب آن بار معلق را می‌توان تعیین کرد.

$d$

$$q_s = \int C v d y$$

$a$

$$q_s = 10^{-6} \gamma \int (1000 - 10 y^2) [0.447 \ln (3020 y)] dy$$

$$q_s = 4.48 \times 10^{-7} \gamma \left\{ \frac{1000}{3020} [3020 (\ln 3020 y - 3020 y)] \right\}_0^{10}$$

$$- \frac{10}{3} \left[ y^3 \left( \ln 3020 y - \frac{1}{3} \right) \right]_0^{10}$$

$$q_s = 1.67 L b / \text{sec} / \text{ft}$$

(9-99) روش ساماگا (۱)

در این روش دو پارامتر به صورت زیر معرفی شده است:

$$\phi_s = \frac{q_s}{\gamma_s D_s} \sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma_s - \gamma}} \frac{1}{g D_s} \quad (9-97)$$

وقتی ذرات یکتراخت باشند بجای  $D_s$  از  $D_{50}$  استفاده می‌شود.

$$T_o = \frac{T_o}{(\gamma_s - \gamma) D_s}$$

Appendix A - Example calculations1 Example of use of regime tables for design of stable alluvial channels

A channel is required to carry a discharge of  $10 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  at a slope of  $0.2 \times 10^{-3}$ , the  $D_{35}$  of the bed material being  $0.35 \text{ mm}$ . What are suitable stable dimensions for the channel?

The appropriate table from the regime tables is reproduced in Figure A1. If one looks down the column corresponding to a discharge of  $10 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  one can see that the slopes corresponding to sediment concentrations of 10, 20, 40 and 60 ppm are  $0.09 \times 10^{-3}$ ,  $0.13 \times 10^{-3}$ ,  $0.19 \times 10^{-3}$  and  $0.24 \times 10^{-3}$ .

The slope  $0.19 \times 10^{-3}$  is closest to the required slope of  $0.2 \times 10^{-3}$  corresponding to a sediment concentration of 40 ppm. So an approximation to the required channel characteristics are given by:

velocity =  $0.63 \text{ m/s}$   
depth =  $1.32 \text{ m}$   
surface width =  $12.1 \text{ m}$   
sediment concentration =  $40 \text{ ppm}$

Interpolation within the table could be used to refine this estimate

2 Example of sediment transport calculation

Since river works can affect channel morphology it is important that an estimate of the rate of sediment transport is made at the design stage of new channel or when channel improvements are made. Using the Ackers and White sediment transport theory outlined in Section 3.5 an example application is given here.

## Example Calculation

2-1

A channel has the following dimensions: width  $24 \text{ m}$ , depth  $2 \text{ m}$ . If the channel comprises sand with a  $D_{35}$  of  $1 \text{ mm}$  and a specific gravity of  $2.65$  what is the sediment transport for a discharge of  $48 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  with a velocity of  $1 \text{ m/s}$  and a surface water slope of  $0.0004$ ?

ن خصوصیات جریان

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \quad d = 2 \text{ m} \\ \quad V = 1 \text{ m/s} \\ \quad S = 0.0004 \\ \quad Q = 48 \text{ m}^3/\text{s} \end{array} \right.$$

ن خصوصیات مواد بستر

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 2. \quad D_{35} = 0.001 \text{ m (1 mm)} \\ \quad sg = 2.65 \end{array} \right.$$

$$3. \quad D_{gr} = 0.001 \left[ \frac{9.81(2.65-1)}{0.00000114^2} \right]^{\frac{1}{3}} = 23$$

$$4. \quad n = 0.2374$$

(۳۲۸)

$$\begin{aligned} A &= 0.188 \\ m &= 1.97 \\ C &= 0.0333 \end{aligned}$$

$$5. \quad v_* = \sqrt{9.81 \cdot 2 \cdot 0.0004} = 0.0886$$

$$6. \quad F_{gr} = \frac{0.0886^{0.2374}}{\sqrt{(9.81 \cdot 0.001(2.65-1))}} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{32 \log(10 \cdot \frac{2}{0.001})}} \right)^{0.7626} = 0.3877$$

$$7. \quad G_{gr} = 0.0333 \left( \frac{0.3877}{0.188} - 1 \right)^{1.97} = 0.0375$$

$$8. \quad X = 0.0375 \left( \frac{2.65 \cdot 0.001}{2} \right) \left( \frac{1}{0.0886} \right)^{0.2374} = 0.000088 = 88 \text{ ppm}$$

$$9. \quad q_s = 0.000088 \cdot 48 = 0.00424 \text{ tonnes/s}$$

2-2 →

If the channel dimensions are changed so that the width is increased by 10 m the discharge capacity of the channel will increase from 48 m<sup>3</sup>/s to 70 m<sup>3</sup>/s. All the other dimensions remain the same.

$$\begin{aligned} 1. \quad d &= 2 \text{ m} \\ V &= 1.03 \text{ m/s} \\ S &= 0.0004 \\ Q &= 70 \text{ m}^3/\text{s} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 2. \quad D_{35} &= 0.001 \text{ m (1 mm)} \\ sg &= 2.65 \end{aligned}$$

$$3. \quad D_{gr} = 0.001 \left( \frac{9.81(2.65-1)}{0.00000114^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{3}} = 23$$

$$\begin{aligned} 4. \quad n &= 0.2374 \\ A &= 0.188 \\ m &= 1.97 \\ C &= 0.0333 \end{aligned}$$

$$5. \quad v_* = \sqrt{9.81 \cdot 2 \cdot 0.0004} = 0.0886$$

$$6. \quad F_{gr} = \frac{0.0886^{0.2374}}{\sqrt{(9.81 \cdot 0.001(2.65-1))}} \left( \frac{1.03}{\sqrt{32 \log(10 \cdot \frac{2}{0.001})}} \right)^{0.7626} = 0.3965$$

(۷۲۹)

$$7. \quad G_{gr} = 0.0333 \left( \frac{0.3965}{0.188} - 1 \right)^{1.97} = 0.0408$$

$$8. \quad X = 0.0408 \left( \frac{2.65 + 0.001}{2} \right) \left( \frac{1.03}{0.0886} \right)^{0.2374} = 0.000097 = 97 \text{ ppm}$$

$$9. \quad q_s = 0.000097 \cdot 70 = 0.00677 \text{ tonnes/s}$$

2-3)

→ If the depth is increased instead of the width to provide a channel with capacity of  $70 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ . The depth would increase from 2m to 2.83m

$$1. \quad \begin{aligned} d &= 2.83 \text{ m} \\ V &= 1.03 \text{ m/s} \\ S &= 0.0004 \\ Q &= 70 \text{ m}^3/\text{s} \end{aligned}$$

$$2. \quad \begin{aligned} D_{35} &= 0.001 \text{ m (1 mm)} \\ sg &= 2.65 \end{aligned}$$

$$3. \quad D_{gr} = 0.001 \left[ \frac{9.81(2.65-1)}{0.00000114^2} \right]^{\frac{1}{3}} = 23$$

$$4. \quad \begin{aligned} n &= 0.2374 \\ A &= 0.188 \\ m &= 1.97 \\ C &= 0.0333 \end{aligned}$$

$$5. \quad v_* = \sqrt{9.81 \cdot 2.83 \cdot 0.0004} = 0.1054$$

$$6. \quad F_{gr} = \frac{0.1054^{0.2374}}{\sqrt{(9.81 \cdot 0.001(2.65-1))}} \left[ \frac{1.03}{\sqrt{32} \log(10 \cdot 2 \cdot \frac{83}{0.001})} \right]^{0.7626} = 0.4025$$

$$7. \quad G_{gr} = 0.0333 \left( \frac{0.4025}{0.188} - 1 \right)^{1.97} = 0.0432$$

$$8. \quad X = 0.0432 \left( \frac{2.65 + 0.001}{2.83} \right) \left( \frac{1.03}{0.0886} \right)^{0.2374} = 0.0000724 = 72 \text{ ppm}$$

$$9. \quad q_s = 0.000072 \cdot 70 = 0.00507 \text{ tonnes/s}$$

2/2

(230)

14

The sediment transport rate increases for both the cases of channel improvement. This indicates that there is more likelihood of deposition as the river is carrying more sediment. However the exact nature of any morphological problems cannot be determined from these simple calculations and it is recommended that a morphological model study be carried out.

Several physically reasonable dimensionless ratios are used with a calibration data set (615 laboratory and field flows), and nonlinear regression analysis is carried out for the dimensionless sediment discharge and velocity. The resulting values of sediment discharge and velocity then are compared with measured values for a control data set and the least significant independent dimensionless variables removed from the analysis. This process is repeated several times until the final relationship is obtained as

$$\log \phi_s = \log \frac{q_s}{\sqrt{(SG-1)gd_{50}^3}} = -2.279 + 2.972 \log \left[ \frac{V}{\sqrt{(SG-1)gd_{50}}} \right] + 1.060 \log \left[ \frac{V}{\sqrt{(SG-1)gd_{50}}} \right] \log \left[ \frac{u_* - u_{*c}}{\sqrt{(SG-1)gd_{50}}} \right] + 0.299 \log \left( \frac{y_0}{d_{50}} \right) \log \left[ \frac{u_* - u_{*c}}{\sqrt{(SG-1)gd_{50}}} \right] \quad (10.77)$$

in which  $q_s$  = total volumetric sediment discharge per unit width;  $V$  = flow velocity;  $y_0$  = flow depth;  $SG$  = sediment specific gravity;  $d_{50}$  = median sediment grain size;  $u_*$  = shear velocity; and  $u_{*c}$  = critical shear velocity. The mean normalized error of Equation 10.77, defined as the mean of the ratios formed by the absolute values of the differences between predicted and measured sediment discharges over the measured values, is found to be approximately 43 percent for the control data set and 40 percent for the combined data set. The combined data set includes flow depths from 0.03 to 5.9 m (0.1 to 19 ft), velocities from 0.3 to 2.7 m/s (1.0 to 8.9 ft/s),  $d_{50}$  values from 0.08 to 28.6 mm ( $2.6 \times 10^{-4}$  ft to  $9.4 \times 10^{-2}$  ft), and total sediment discharge concentrations from 9 to 49,300 ppm by weight.

Karim (1998) proposed a simpler power relationship for the same data sets as employed in the Karim-Kennedy analysis, with the result given by

$$\frac{q_s}{\sqrt{(SG-1)gd_{50}^3}} = 0.00139 \left[ \frac{V}{\sqrt{(SG-1)gd_{50}}} \right]^{2.97} \left[ \frac{u_*}{w_f} \right]^{1.47} \quad (10.78)$$

The mean normalized error for Equation 10.78 is 45 percent for the control data set, which is not significantly different from the performance of Equation 10.77. The mean normalized errors for the Yang formula and the Engelund-Hansen formula for the same control data set are 63 percent and 49 percent, respectively.

Karim applied Equation 10.78 to laboratory and field data having nonuniform sediments by dividing the sediment into size fractions. The sediment discharge is computed in each size fraction by Equation 10.78 multiplied by a partial bed armoring factor and a hiding factor. The partial armoring factor is intended to account for portions of the bed that are armored and unavailable for transport, while the hiding factor takes into account the sheltering effect of larger grains on smaller grains. The sediment discharges in each size fraction then are summed, and the total sediment discharge values found to be comparable to those computed from Equation 10.78 using only the median grain size,  $d_{50}$ .

Several other total sediment discharge formulas can be found in the literature, including those of Bagnold (1966), Laursen (1958b), Ackers and White (1973), and Brownlie (1981). A more complete review and ranking of various formulas for computation of total sediment discharge can be found in Alonso (1980), ASCE Task Committee (1982), Yang (1996), and Bechteler and Vetter (1989). In the last reference, the Karim-Kennedy formula was "recommended best for common use" while the formulas of Yang and Bagnold, "within the range of validity," were found to "yield the most reliable results."

Sediment transport formulas should be chosen that have a database within which the flow and sediment conditions of interest fit, and several formulas should be used and compared whenever possible. For example, the Engelund-Hansen formula is most appropriate for sand transport in the lower regime, while the Meyer-Peter and Müller formula should be chosen when there is coarse bed material in bed-load transport. On the other hand, the Einstein-Brown formula is not a good choice when appreciable bed material is carried in suspension. Where they exist, gauging stations are useful for developing sediment rating curves between measured sediment discharge and either water discharge or velocity. However, the wash load has to be subtracted from the measured suspended sediment discharge, and the bed load and unmeasured suspended sediment discharge usually have to be calculated and added to the measured suspended sediment discharge to obtain the total bed-material discharge (see Colby and Hembree 1995).

**EXAMPLE 10.4.** The Niobrara River has a measured flow depth of 1.60 ft (0.49 m) and measured velocity of 3.57 ft/s (1.09 m/s) to give  $q = 5.71$  ft<sup>2</sup>/s (0.53 m<sup>2</sup>/s) with an energy slope of 0.0017. The median sediment size  $d_{50} = 0.27$  mm (0.000885 ft),  $d_{90} = 0.48$  mm (0.00157 ft), and  $\sigma_s = 1.58$ . The temperature is 68° F. The mean total sediment concentration for these conditions was measured to be 1890 ppm by weight. Calculate the total sediment discharge using the van Rijn method, Yang method, and Karim-Kennedy method.

**Solution.** First, calculate some quantities common to all three methods. For the given temperature,  $\nu = 1.08 \times 10^{-5}$  ft<sup>2</sup>/s ( $1.0 \times 10^{-6}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s) and  $d_s$  is obtained from  $d_s = d_{90}[(SG-1)g/\nu^2]^{1/2} = 0.000885 \times [1.65 \times 32.2/(1.08 \times 10^{-5})^2]^{1/2} = 6.81$

The fall velocity then is

$$w_f = \frac{8\nu}{d_{50}} \left[ (1 + 0.0139d_s^2)^{0.5} - 1 \right] = \frac{8 \times 1.08 \times 10^{-5}}{0.000885} \left[ (1 + 0.0139 \times 6.81^2)^{0.5} - 1 \right] = 0.129 \text{ ft/s}$$

or 0.0392 m/s, and the critical value of Shields' parameter is  $\tau_{*c} = 0.045$  from Figure 10.6. The corresponding value of  $u_{*c} = [\tau_{*c}(SG-1)gd_{50}]^{0.5} = [0.045 \times 1.65 \times 32.2 \times 0.000885]^{0.5} = 0.046$  ft/s (0.014 m/s). The shear velocity is

$$u_* = \sqrt{gy\phi_s} = \sqrt{32.2 \times 1.60 \times 0.0017} = 0.296 \text{ ft/s (0.0902 m/s)}$$

Note that  $u_*/w_f = 2.3$  so that the sediment discharge is mostly suspended load.

1. *Van Rijn's Method.* The value of  $T$  is needed, and it depends on  $u_*'$ . As in Example 10.3,  $u_*'$  is obtained from Keulegan's equation using the measured velocity and  $k_s = 3d_{50}$ :

$$u_*' = \frac{V}{5.75 \log \frac{12y_0}{3d_{50}}} = \frac{3.57}{5.75 \log \frac{12 \times 1.6}{3 \times 0.00157}} = 0.172 \text{ ft/s (0.0524 m/s)}$$

Then, by definition,  $\tau_*' = u_*'^2 / [(SG - 1)gd_{50}] = 0.172^2 / (1.65 \times 32.2 \times 0.000885) = 0.63$ . The resulting value of  $T = \tau_*' / \tau_{*c} - 1 = 0.63 / 0.045 - 1 = 13.0$ , and the bed-load discharge from (10.57) becomes

$$q_b = 0.053 \sqrt{(SG - 1)gd_{50}^3} \frac{T^{2.1}}{d_{50}^{0.3}} = 0.053 \sqrt{1.65 \times 32.2 \times 0.000885^3} \frac{13.0^{2.1}}{6.8^{0.3}} = 0.00125 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}$$

or  $1.16 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ . For the suspended sediment discharge, values of  $\beta$ ,  $R_0$ ,  $\Delta R_0$ ,  $a$ , and  $C_0$  are needed. For this example, Equation 10.73 gives a relatively small correction to  $d_{50}$  for the effective grain size, so the value of  $d_{50}$  is used. The value of  $\beta$  comes from Equation 10.69:

$$\beta = 1 + 2 \left[ \frac{w_f}{u_*'} \right]^2 = 1 + 2 \left[ \frac{0.129}{0.296} \right]^2 = 1.38$$

and then from the definition of  $R_0$ , we have

$$R_0 = \frac{w_f}{\beta k u_*'} = \frac{0.129}{1.38 \times 0.4 \times 0.296} = 0.790$$

The reference concentration,  $C_0$ , is calculated from Equation 10.71, in which the reference level is taken as half the dune height from Equation 10.29 to give  $a = 0.11 \text{ ft (0.034 m)}$ . The value of  $C_0$  as a volumetric concentration from (10.71) is

$$C_0 = 0.015 \frac{d_{50}}{a} \frac{T^{1.5}}{d_{50}^{0.3}} = 0.015 \times \frac{0.000885}{0.11} \times \frac{13.0^{1.5}}{6.8^{0.3}} = 0.0032$$

Now the correction to  $R_0$  follows from Equation 10.70:

$$\Delta R_0 = 2.5 \left[ \frac{w_f}{u_*'} \right]^{10.8} \left[ \frac{C_0}{C_0'} \right]^{10.4} = 2.5 \left[ \frac{0.129}{0.296} \right]^{10.8} \left[ \frac{0.0032}{0.65} \right]^{10.4} = 0.15$$

so that  $R_0' = R_0 + \Delta R_0 = 0.79 + 0.15 = 0.94$ . The integration factor,  $I_f$ , to calculate the suspended sediment discharge comes from Equation 10.73b:

$$I_f = \frac{\left[ \frac{a}{y_0} \right]^{R_0'} - \left[ \frac{a}{y_0} \right]^{12}}{\left[ 1 - \frac{a}{y_0} \right]^{R_0'} [1.2 - R_0']} = \frac{\left[ \frac{0.11}{1.6} \right]^{0.94} - \left[ \frac{0.11}{1.6} \right]^{12}}{\left[ 1 - \frac{0.11}{1.6} \right]^{0.94} [1.2 - 0.94]} = 0.166$$

Finally, the suspended sediment discharge is given by

$$q_s = I_f V C_0 = 0.166 \times 3.57 \times 1.6 \times 0.0032 = 0.00303 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s (2.82} \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^3/\text{s)}$$

The total sediment discharge,  $q_t$ , is the sum of the bed-load and suspended-load discharges and equal to  $(0.00125 + 0.00303) = 0.00428 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s (3.98} \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^3/\text{s)}$ . Converted to tons/day,  $q_t = 7.9 q_t = 2.65 \times 62.4 \times 0.00428 \times 86,400/2000 = 30.6 \text{ tons/day (28,000 kg/day)}$  and  $C_t = 10^6 (7.9/q_t) = 10^6 \times 2.65 \times 0.00428/5.71 = 1990 \text{ ppm}$ .

2. *Yang's Method.* First, the critical velocity from Equation 10.76 is needed, since  $u_* d_{50}^{0.7} = 0.296 \times 0.000885/1.08 \times 10^{-5} = 24.3 < 70$ , so

$$V_c = w_f \left[ \frac{2.5}{\log(u_* d_{50}^{0.7}/\nu) - 0.06} + 0.66 \right] = 0.129 \times \left[ \frac{2.5}{\log(24.3) - 0.06} + 0.66 \right] = 0.328 \text{ ft/s (0.10 m/s)}$$

Then,  $VS/w_f = 3.57 \times 0.00170/0.129 = 0.0470$  and  $V_c S/w = 0.328 \times 0.00170/0.129 = 0.00432$ . The other two independent variables required are  $u_* w_f = 0.296/0.129 = 2.30$  and  $w_f d_{50}^{0.7} = 0.129 \times 0.000885/1.08 \times 10^{-5} = 10.6$ . Substituting directly into Equation 10.75, we have

$$\log C_t = 5.435 - 0.286 \log(10.6) - 0.457 \log(2.30) + [1.799 - 0.409 \log(10.6) - 0.314 \log(2.30)] [\log(0.0470 - 0.00432)] = 3.24$$

and then  $C_t = 1.740 \text{ ppm}$ .

3. *Karim-Kennedy's Method.* Three dimensionless variables are required for the total sediment discharge computation:

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \frac{3.57}{\sqrt{(SG - 1)gd_{50}}} = \frac{3.57}{\sqrt{1.65 \times 32.2 \times 0.000885}} = 16.5 \\ \frac{u_* - u_{*c}}{\sqrt{(SG - 1)gd_{50}}} &= \frac{0.296 - 0.046}{\sqrt{1.65 \times 32.2 \times 0.000885}} = 1.15 \\ \frac{y_0}{d_{50}} &= \frac{1.6}{0.000885} = 1808 \end{aligned}$$

Substituting directly into Equation 10.77, we have

$$\log \frac{q_t}{\sqrt{(SG - 1)gd_{50}^3}} = -2.279 + 2.972 \log(16.5) + 1.060 \log(16.5) \log(1.15) + 0.299 \log(1808) \log(1.15) = 1.477$$

Taking the antilog and solving, we have  $q_t = 0.00575 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s (5.34} \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^3/\text{s)}$ . Converting to concentration,  $C_t = 10^6 \times 2.65 \times 0.00575/5.71 = 2,670 \text{ ppm}$ . On the other hand, if we use the Karim power formula (Equation 10.78), we have

$$\frac{q_t}{\sqrt{(SG - 1)gd_{50}^3}} = 0.00139 \times (16.5)^{2.97} \times (2.30)^{1.47} = 19.5$$

with the result that  $q_t = 0.00374 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s (3.47} \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^3/\text{s)}$  and  $C_t = 1,740 \text{ ppm}$ .

(0.00374) (3.47)





# Total Sediment Load (Total Load)

Prediction of total bed material discharge

Prévision de débit solide total

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## ABSTRACT

A new and user-friendly formula for the computation of total bed material load in alluvial channels under equilibrium transport conditions has been developed based on the stream power concept and diffusion theory. The advantages of this formula include: high accuracy in prediction, the ease of computation and the wide range of application. The total sediment concentration is computed directly using the variables of flow depth, mean flow velocity, energy slope, median sediment size and sand density, and water temperature. The verification for the new equation uses over 3500 published total-load data from flume studies, and the over-all results show that 84% of the data are predicted within 0.5 and 2 times the measured values. This is an encouraging score considering the large database and the range of variables covered.

## RÉSUMÉ

Une nouvelle formule facile à utiliser pour le calcul du débit solide total dans des lits alluviaux, sous des conditions de transport en équilibre, a été développée en se basant sur le concept d'énergie de l'écoulement et la théorie de diffusion. Les avantages de cette formule sont : la grande précision de la prévision, la facilité du calcul et le large champ d'application. La concentration totale en sédiment est calculée directement à partir des caractéristiques hydrauliques, tirant d'eau, vitesse moyenne, pente d'énergie, taille médiane de sédiment et densité de sable, et température de l'eau. La vérification de la nouvelle formule s'est faite sur plus de 3500 données de débit solide total publiées à partir des études en canal, et les résultats d'ensemble montrent que 84% des données sont prévues entre 0.5 et 2 fois les valeurs mesurées. Ce sont des résultats encourageants vu la dimension de la base de données et l'étendue des variables couvertes.

**Keywords:** Total bed material load, equilibrium transport, diffusion theory.

## 1. Introduction and background

The mechanism of sediment transport has been an important subject in the design and operation of canal systems, and river regulation. To date, there are many formulas for the calculation of the rate of sediment discharge or concentration; there are basically three types, i.e., bed-load, suspended load and total load formulas. The total load is also termed as the bed material load because it is made up of only those solid particles consisting of grain sizes represented in the bed, and the wash load is usually not included in these formulas.

① The total load can be determined as the sum of the bed-load and suspended load, computed separately using appropriate bed-load and suspended-load formulas, this method is somehow an indirect approach of the addition of the two fractions. Compared to the indirect ways, approaches that can directly estimate the total load are useful for ordinary river engineers because in some cases they only want to know the total load in a particular cross-section of river, and in sometimes the artificial distinction between the bed load and suspended mode of transport is very difficult in measurement for both of them are interchangeable (Chien and Wan, 1999).

The phenomenon of sediment transport is related to many variables, such as water discharge, average flow velocity, particle size and its gradation, water temperature, bed shear stress, energy slope, channel shape etc., some of these variables are interrelated and dependent on each other. Since it is difficult to consider all these variables simultaneously in an equation, it is natural for researchers to characterize the sediment transport processes by selecting some relatively important variables. Therefore, different characteristic parameters have been proposed previously to calculate the sediment concentration. To this end, it is not appropriate to review all of them here as most of the existing parameters and formulas have been well documented, for example, in Yalin (1977), Raudkivi (1990), Chien and Wan (1999) etc.

Chien and Wan provide a good summary of the notable equations, such as those proposed by Einstein (1942), Meyer-Peter and Muller (1948), Bagnold (1973), Yalin (1977), Engelund and Hanson (1972), and Ackers and White (1973). They have shown that all these equations can be expressed using the Einstein bedload parameter,  $\Phi$  as a function of the Shields shear stress parameter,  $\theta$  ( $\theta = 1/\Psi$ , where  $\Psi$  = Einstein's flow intensity

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(www)

It is assumed that  $u'_s(\beta u'_s - u_{*c}) = \alpha_1(u_s'^2 - u_{*c}^2)$  for the simplification, thus (13a) becomes

$$g_s = k \left( \frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma_s - \gamma} \right) T_T \quad (14)$$

where  $T_T = \tau_0(u_s'^2 - u_{*c}^2)/\omega$  is called the total-load transport parameter and the dimensionless parameter  $k$  is expressed as

$$k = \alpha_1 \left[ \beta \frac{1 - k_1}{1 + \alpha} + 2.5k_1 \ln \left( \frac{11h}{2d_{50}} \right) \right] \quad (15)$$

Alternatively, Eq. (14) can be obtained more directly from the definition of total load:

$$g_s = \gamma_s V h \bar{C} \quad (16)$$

the depth-averaged velocity  $V$  can be expressed as follows:

$$V = \frac{u'_s}{\kappa} \ln \frac{11h}{2d_{50}} \quad (17)$$

The mean sediment concentration  $\bar{C}$  by volume could be expressed with various forms, to simplify the expression of  $\bar{C}$ , the following equation for sediment concentration distribution is selected (Yalin, 1977; Nielsen, 1992)

$$c = C_0 e^{-\frac{u'_s}{\kappa u_{*c}} \frac{y}{d_{50}}} \quad (18)$$

in which  $C_0$  is the sediment concentration at reference level ( $y_0 = 2d_{50}$ ). Then the mean sediment concentration can be obtained by integrating Eq. (18) with respect to  $y$  from the bed to the free surface,

$$\bar{C} h = \int_{y_0}^h c dy = C_0 \left[ -\frac{\kappa u_s (2d_{50})}{\omega} e^{-\frac{u'_s}{\kappa u_{*c}} \frac{y}{d_{50}}} \right]_{y_0}^h \quad (19)$$

for  $h \gg y_0$ , then Eq. (19) reads

$$\bar{C} h = \int_{y_0}^h c dy = C_0 \frac{\kappa u_s (2d_{50})}{\omega} \quad (20)$$

The extensive analysis conducted by van Rijn (1984a) shows that the reference concentration  $C_0$  can be expressed as follows:

$$C_0 = \alpha_2 \frac{\tau' - \tau_c}{\tau_c} = \frac{\alpha_2}{(\gamma_s - \gamma) d_{50}} \frac{(y_s - \gamma) d_{50}}{u_{*c}^2} (u_s'^2 - u_{*c}^2) \quad (21)$$

where  $\alpha_2$  = re-suspension parameter. Substituting Eqs (17), (20) and (21) into Eq. (16), one gets Eq. (14), where

$$k = 2\alpha_2 \ln \frac{11h}{2d_{50}} \frac{(\gamma_s - \gamma) d_{50}}{\tau_c} \quad (22)$$

Equations (22) and (15) show that  $k$  is a function of the water depth  $h$ , sediment size  $d_{50}$ , sediment density  $\rho_s$ , or in general, it can be expressed as

$$k = f_1 \left( \frac{h}{d_{50}}, \frac{b}{h}, \frac{\rho_s}{\rho} \right) = f_1 \left( \frac{h}{d_{50}}, \frac{b}{h}, S, \rho_s \right) = 12.5 \quad (23)$$

The total sediment concentration by weight can be obtained from Eq. (14),

$$C = \frac{g_s}{Vh} = k \frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma_s - \gamma} \frac{\tau_0}{Vh} \frac{u_s'^2 - u_{*c}^2}{\omega} \quad (24)$$

The sensitivity of the various parameters on  $k$  will be investigated using a large database of about 3500 data sets.

### 3 Computation of total sediment discharge

The total sediment concentration  $C$  may be calculated using (24) given the following basic data: Flow discharge,  $Q$  or mean flow velocity,  $V$ ; channel width,  $b$ ; flow depth,  $h$  or hydraulic radius,  $R$ ; median sediment size,  $d_{50}$ ; energy slope  $S$ ; fluid density,  $\rho$ ; sediment density,  $\rho_s$ ; and water temperature.

The procedure of calculation is as follows:

- ① Determine  $u_{*c}'$  from the Shields curve based on  $d_{50}$ .
- ② Calculate the grain shear velocity  $u_{*c}'$  using

$$\frac{V}{u_{*c}'} = 2.5 \ln \left( \frac{11R}{2d_{50}} \right) \Rightarrow V, R, d_{50} \Rightarrow u_{*c}' \quad (25)$$

- ③ Calculate the mean bed shear stress,  $\tau_0 = \gamma R S$
- ④ Use  $k = 12.5 \ln (24)$ .

### 4 Data analysis and verification

The 3500 data sets used for the verification of (24) were compiled by Brownlie (1981). In the following sections, the large number of data sets are sub-divided and plotted in Figs 2-4 in the form of predicted sediment concentration against the measured values, in which the solid lines represent perfect agreement between both of them and the dotted lines represents 0.5 and 2 times of the solid line value. The main purpose is to study the influence of the various parameters in (23) on the constancy of  $k$  and also to achieve a clearer presentation. Note that details of the authors of the data in the figures not quoted in the reference section can be found in Brownlie (1981) for details.

The first step involves in checking the constancy of  $k$  in (24). The preliminary results (see Fig. 1) using Stein's data show excellent agreement between the computed, and measured data with  $k = 12.5$ . To this end, 341 data sets from 10 different researchers are used and the results are shown in Fig. 2. The hydraulic conditions of these data are summarized in Table 1. The good agreement in Fig. 2 testifies that  $k = 12.5$  in (24) is a constant.

Figure 3 shows only Gilbert's (1914) data. The water temperature was not measured and it is assumed a temperature of 20°C in the calculations. A total of 763 out of 774 data points were used in the plot because the data with  $(u_s'^2 - u_{*c}^2) < 0$ , and those with concentration less than 10 ppm were excluded. It is obvious that the assumption of a constant temperature will result in some errors, especially for fine sand due to the influence of viscosity on the fall velocity. Indeed, the results show the agreement is better for coarse sand data than that of the fine sand data.

In Table 2, Gilbert's data is used to do a further check on the reliability of the proposed equation. As shown in Fig. 1 that among all previous hydraulic parameters for the prediction of sediment transport, the dimensionless unit stream power  $VS/\omega$  is preferable to others in terms of correlation coefficient. Therefore, it is meaningful to compare the correlation coefficients based on Gilbert's data by use of  $VS/\omega$  and the new parameter. In Table 2, column 1 shows the sediment size and column 2 indicates the number of experimental runs done by Gilbert; column 3 gives

نتیجه بهر روش

$$C = k \times \frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma_s - \gamma} \times \frac{\tau_0}{Vh} \times \frac{u_s'^2 - u_{*c}^2}{\omega}$$

↓

$C = 12.5 \times \frac{2.65}{2.65 - 1} \times \frac{8 \times 9.81 \times 2.65}{1.18 \times 10^{-3} \times 1.18} \times \frac{1.18^2 - 0.04^2}{1.18 \times 10^{-3}}$

نتیجه بهر روش

Table 5 Study on the effect of sediment density for various predictive formulas based on US Waterway Experiment Station data (1936)

A (T/m <sup>3</sup> )	Runs	d <sub>50</sub> (mm)	% Scores of predicted sediment concentration and range of discrepancy r											
			0.75 < r < 1.5				0.5 < r < 2				0.33 < r < 3			
			Y*	E-H	VR	K	Y	E-H	VR	K	Y	E-H	VR	K
1.85	26	0.96	50	50	61	15	69	76	85	23	92	88	92	65
1.85	32	0.833	44	50	40	10	69	78	68	25	81	84	81	56
1.74	29	0.833	59	52	62	14	83	83	75	27	86	93	89	62
1.35	31	0.97, 3.107	35	55	38	16	71	77	58	32	87	93	83	71
1.32	64	1.32-3.0	42	37	36	9	78	66	62	26	89	87	84	47
1.26	14	1.16-4	57	21	7	14	79	28	14	14	86	50	71	50
1.11	30	1.29-2.4	60	10	50	3	73	33	83	10	93	50	93	27
1.05	72	0.84-3.2	40	11	22	22	55	25	55	35	89	42	86	37
Total	298		48	36	40	13	72	58	63	24	88	73	85	52

\*Y = Yang Eq. (24), E-H = Engelund and Hansen, VR = van Rijn, K = Kurim.

verification. In this respect, it is reasonable to say that an indirect comparison has been achieved and the new equation is verified by more datasets than others did, and on average, 84% of the data were predicted within the 0.5 and 2 times of the measured values.

### Conclusions

A new sediment discharge formula, Eq. (24) has been developed. The main advantages of the new formula are its accuracy in prediction, the ease of computation and the wide range of application. The total sediment discharge,  $g_t$ , is computed directly and is linearly related to the new total-load transport parameter,  $T_r = \tau_0(u_*^2 - u_{*c}^2)/\omega$  and a factor of proportionality,  $k$ . The former involves variables that are easily obtainable from measurements. The factor of proportionality,  $k$  in Eq. (24) have been checked for a wide range of hydraulic conditions and it remains a constant = 12.5, irrespective of sediment size, sediment density, channel aspect ratio, sediment concentration.

The range of the variables tested in the verification of the formula were: median sediment size from 0.011 to 28 mm, specific gravity of sediment from 1.03 to 2.65, sediment concentration up to 110 kg/m<sup>3</sup>, water depth from 0.03 to 16.4 m, and channel aspect ratio as small as 0.3. The verification exercise for the new equation used over 3500 published total-load data from flume studies, and the results showed, on average, 84% of the data were predicted within the 0.5 and 2 times of the measured values. Considering the large database used and the range of applicability of the formula, the result obtained is comparable, if not better than most of the existing total sediment discharge formulas. The good achievement of the new equation can be attributed to that it encompasses all the "missing" elements in existing formulas, i.e., water depth or hydraulic radius, mean velocity, energy slope, shear stress and sediment size.

### Acknowledgments

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### Notation

- $b$  = width of channel
- $c$  = sediment concentration
- $\bar{C}$  = mean sediment concentration by volume
- $C'$  = Chezy's coefficient
- $C$  = sediment concentration of total bed-material by weight
- $d$  = sediment diameter
- $d_{50}$  = median sediment size
- $D_*$  = dimensionless grain size parameter
- $e_b$  = energy efficiency defined by Bagnold
- $E$  = energy dissipated rate
- $E_s$  = power rate for suspension
- $E_b$  = power rate for bed-load transport
- $g_t$  = total sediment discharge in dry weight per time and unit width
- $g_b$  = bed-load transport rate
- $g_s$  = suspension transport rate
- $g$  = gravitational acceleration
- $h$  = water depth
- $q$  = discharge per unit width
- $k$  = universal constant = 12.5
- $k_0, k_1, k_2$  and  $k_3$  = coefficients
- $n_h$  = particle number moving in horizontal direction
- $n_v$  = particle number moving in vertical direction
- $n_2$  = particle number settling to the bed
- $r$  = correlation coefficient, discrepancy ratio
- $R'_b$  = hydraulic radius corresponding to bed
- $R$  = hydraulic radius
- $S$  = energy slope
- $T$  = van Rijn's transport stage parameter
- $u_p$  = flow velocity near the bed
- $u_*$  = mean velocity of suspended particle
- $u_{*c}$  = critical velocity for incipient sediment motion

$$u_* = \sqrt{gRS}$$

$$u_*c =$$

$$V = \text{سرعت متوسط}$$

$$\omega = \text{سرعت حلقه}$$

$$R = \text{رادیوس (بافت)}$$

$$(334)$$

$$u_* = \sqrt{gRS}$$

$$u_*c = \text{سرعت بحرانی در جهت عمودی}$$

$$C = 110 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

$$(25)$$

(w w v)

- ① It has been assumed that the "bed-load Transport rate" could be expressed as a function of shear stress, slope, or velocity. Show that these assumptions are actually interchangeable. In order to make them interchangeable, what basic assumption must be made, and what is its weakness?

- ② The following data were measured from a river station :  
water discharge  $Q = 200 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  ; average flow depth  $D = 3 \text{ m}$  ; Slope  $S = 0.00044$  ; width  $w = 60 \text{ m}$  ; Manning's roughness coefficient  $n = 0.04$  ; and water temperature  $T = 10^\circ\text{C}$  . The bed-material size distribution is given in the following Table :

Size Fraction (mm)	Percentage available (%)
0.002 - 0.0625	0.9
0.0625 - 0.125	4.4
0.125 - 0.25	14.2
0.25 - 0.50	74.9
0.5 - 1.0	5.0
1.0 - 2.0	0.5
2.0 - 4.0	0.1

Compute the bed-load Transport rate using (a) DuBoys' ; (b) Shields' ; (c) Meyer - Peter and Muller's ; (d) Einstein's ; (e) van Rijn's ; (f) Parker, et al.'s and Compare the results.

- ③ What is the fundamental principle used in developing the Rouse equation (For the determination of vertical suspended sediment concentration distribution in a given cross-section) ?

- ④ Explain, on the basis of the following equation, why suspended sediment particles will not eventually all settle to the bottom of a turbulent open-channel flow.

$$W_s C + \epsilon_s \frac{dC}{dy} = 0$$

: Sediment Continuity equation in vertical direction

(۳۳۸)

⑤ Given the following data, Compute the suspended sediment load using:

(a) Einstein's method ; and (b) van Rijn's method

Then compare the results.

$$Q = 500 \text{ m}^3/\text{s} ; D = R = 5 \text{ m} ; W = 100 \text{ m} ; S = 0.0001 ;$$

$$n = 0.02 ; g = 9.81 \text{ m/s}^2 ; \gamma = 1 \text{ Ton/m}^3 ; V = 1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s} ;$$

$$d_{16} = 0.29 \text{ mm} ; d_{50} = 0.45 \text{ mm} ; d_{65} = 0.6 \text{ mm} ; d_{84} = 0.83 \text{ mm} ;$$

$$d_{90} = 1.08 \text{ mm} ; S_g = 2.65 ; d_{35} = 0.39 \text{ mm}$$

\* Calculate Fall velocity ( $W_s$ ) using van Rijn (1984) method as presented in your lecture note.

⑥ Use the data given in Problem 5, Compute the total sediment load with the methods proposed by:

(a) Ackers and White (1973, 1990)

(b) Brownlie (1981)

(c) Engelund and Hansen (1967)

Then compare the results.

⑦ مدل های ریاضی هر یک باروش های مختلف عمل می کنند. شما در یک صفحه تمام مدل های را بنویسید و بگوئید از کدام روش باروش های مربوط را حساب می کنند.

## فصل دوم آبرستگی (Scour)

مقدمه : تغییر در تراز بستر رودخانه بصورت :

### Degradation/Aggradation ①

A Very Slow Process → Long Term change in channel bed.

- در یک جابه‌جوانی از رودخانه ارزیابی می‌شود.
- به منظور تعیین روند تغییرات رودخانه در حالت طبیعی - پتانسیل برداشت مصالح بستر رودخانه
- مبنای ارزیابی مقایسه هندسه هیدرولیک در یک بازه زمانی بلندمدت است. (مداخله یا عدم مداخله)

### منابع بررسی :

۱- سری عکس‌های هوایی - نقشه‌های توپوگرافی (History of Variation)

۲- بررسی پیلان ریسوپی رودخانه در طول جابه‌جوانی (باررسوپی ورودی و خروجی) - معمولاً تغییرات باررسوپی سالانه در یک دوره آماری در حد فاصل دو مقطع ارزیابی می‌کنند. (روشن هیدرولژی)

۳- روشن هیدرولیکی : محل همزمان مهارلات جریان آب و مقدار رسوبی کف = Exner

### ② General / constriction

#### Scour

لکه فرسایش کف بستر که در اثر افزایش سرعت و تنش برشی و توان جریان است. ⇒ خاشی از کاهش مقطع جریان است.

- در یک Reach کوتاه‌تر اتفاق می‌افتد.

- با کاهش مقطع جریان.

مثال (۱) : در محدوده احداث پل (At Bridge Site)

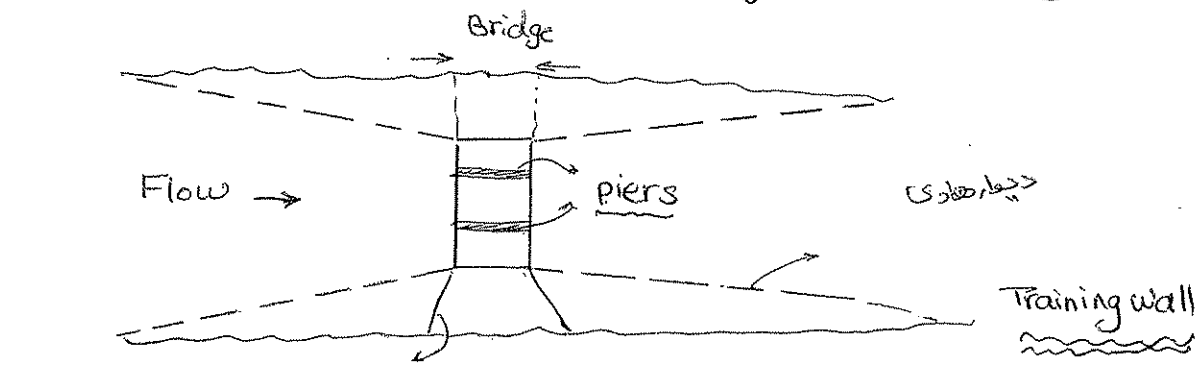
- در اثر - احداث تکیه‌گاه مانی و دیواره‌های

- پایه پل (Piers)

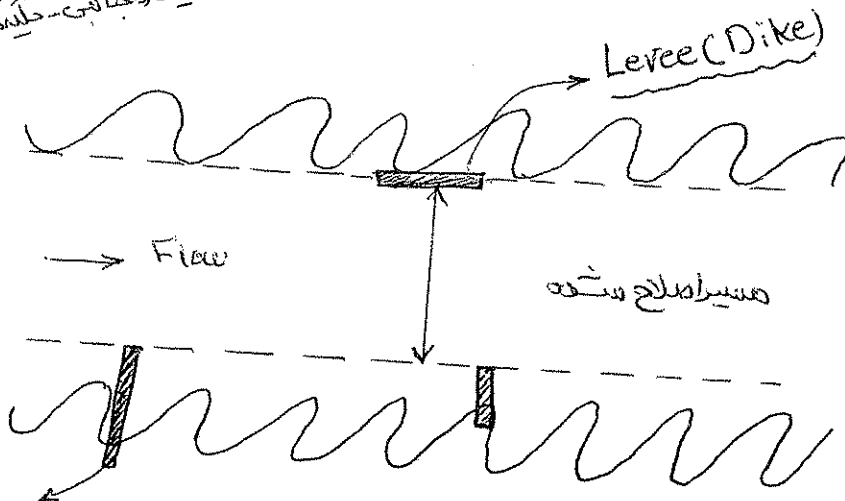
- تجمع اجسام شناور و آشغال (Debris)

۲/۱۶

مثال (۲) در اثر اصلاح مسیر رودخانه (River Training) :



Abutment  
دیواره‌های کنار رودخانه



Groyne (آب‌شکن)

Local Scour (۳)

آب‌نشستگی موضعی :

علت : ایجاد و توسعه جریان‌های گردابی (Vortex) با قدرت فرسایشی زیاد.

در محل پایه‌های پل : piers

در محل (دمنه) تکیه‌گاهها : Abutment

نیامون سازه‌های حفاظتی تسوخل رودخانهها : (Groynes)

خامین هست سازه‌های آبی، آبشارها، دریچه‌ها و حوضچه‌های آرامش

\* آب‌نشستگی موضعی در یک محل مشخص و کوچک و با قدرت انتقال می‌افتد

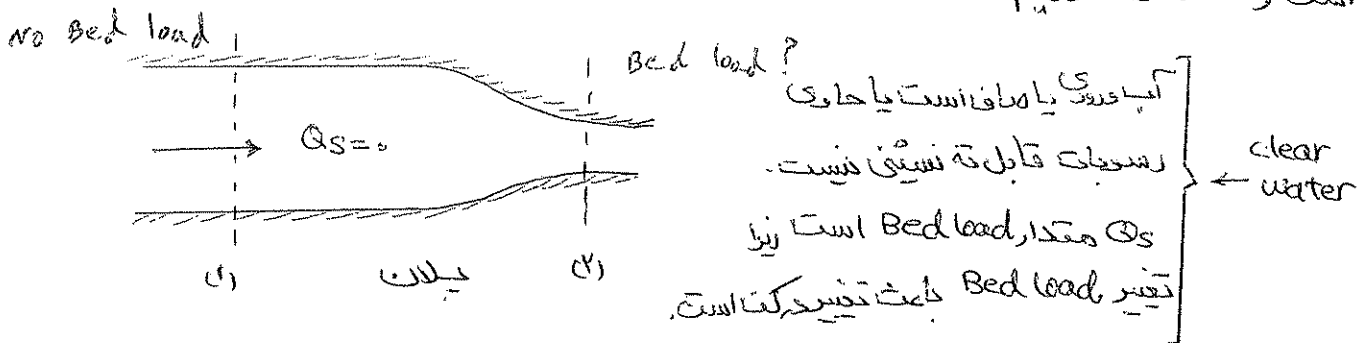


# الف) آبستنی عمومی : (General Scour)

## الف-۱) clear water Scour

خونق آبستنی داریم :

آب عبوری clear water است و آن مقطع تغییر شکل داده است و در نتیجه سوت و تنش تغییر پیدا کرده است و Scour داریم.



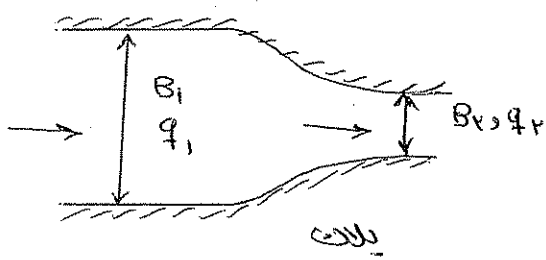
At Approach Flow (جریان در مقطع جلادست)  $\rightarrow \begin{cases} T_b < T_c \\ Q_s = 0 \end{cases}$

At constricted Reach  $\rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{در اثر تنگی (جابجایی)} \\ \text{اگر } T_b > T_c \rightarrow Q_s > 0 \end{cases} \rightarrow \begin{matrix} \text{سوت} \nearrow \\ \text{افزادگی} \nearrow \\ Z \downarrow \Rightarrow y \uparrow \Rightarrow V \uparrow \end{matrix}$

$(T_b \propto V^3) \quad T_b \downarrow \rightarrow \text{Equilibrium state} \rightarrow (Z = \text{const.} \quad T_b = T_c)$

## تحلیل جریان و آبستنی :

\* برای مستطالی عرض

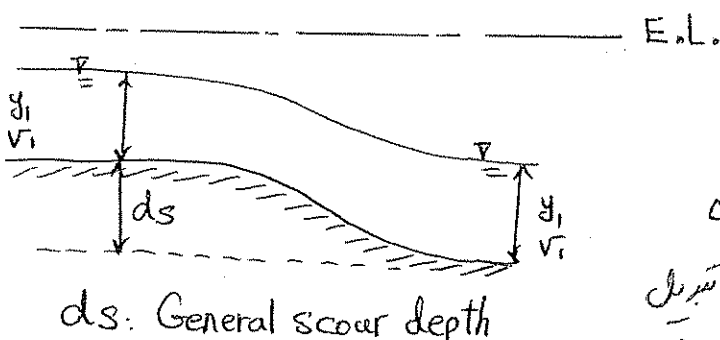


## مادون اثری ناچیز

در اکثر فواصل و ایجاد تکرار در پروفیل نسبت به

تغییر تدریجی صورت می گیرد  $\Delta H_{1,2} \approx 0$

\* اگر تغییر در عرض ایجاد کردیم، جریان آب تغییر در کف ایجاد می کند که خودش را به تعادل دینامیکی برساند



۴/۱۴

فرض: ۱- جریان Steady (Q = const.)

۲- بازه تنگ شده بهر کافعی طولانی است تا جریان یکمواخت ایجاد شود.

(Steady uniform flow in along contraction.)

۳- در بازه تنگ شده: Scour ادامه پیدا کند تا  $\tau_b \approx \tau_c$  و حالت تعادل بستر برقرار شود.

۴- از روش تنش برشی استفاده می شود. (رابطه  $\tau_c = \tau_b$  بر اساس روش Shields) چون clear water است پس از shields می شود استفاده کرد.

۵- در حالت تعادل برای clear water، شوری تنش برشی کافی است. تغییرات بستر اندک و  $H \approx \frac{1}{2} b$

Manning Eq.  $V_r = \frac{Q}{A_r} = \frac{R_r^{2/3} \cdot S_r^{1/2}}{n_r}$  ← از رابطه مانینگ: عرض جریان کنونی در بازه تنگ شده. (۱)

Bed shear stress:  $\tau_o = \gamma R S_o$  و  $\tau_r = \gamma R_r S_r$  (۲)

From Eqs. (۱) و (۲):  $\tau_r = \frac{\gamma Q^2 n_r^2}{A_r^2 R_r^{1/3}}$  (۳)

Shields Function:  $F_s = \frac{\tau_c}{\gamma D_{va} (S_g - 1)}$  (۴)  $\tau_r = \tau_c$   $\tau_r = \tau_c$   $(\tau_r)_{cr} = (F_s)_{cr} \cdot \gamma \cdot (S_g - 1) D_{va}$

From Eqs. (۳) و (۴): (شرط تعادل بستر)  $A_r^2 R_r^{1/3} = \frac{Q^2 n_r^2}{(F_s)_{cr} (S_g - 1) D_{va}}$  (۵)

For Fully Turbulent Flow (Rough Flow)  $\rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} Re^* > 400 \\ D_{va} > 4 \text{ mm} \\ S_g = 1.65 \end{array} \right\} (F_s)_{cr} = 0.054$

(۳۴۳)

1/4 From Strickler Eq.  $n = 0.48 (D_{va})^{\frac{1}{4}}$   $m \leftarrow D_{va}$

IF Rectangular Cross Section  $\rightarrow \begin{cases} A_r = B_r y_r \\ R_r = \frac{B_r y_r}{B_r + y_r} \end{cases}$  [ان مقطع مستوی نباشد  
آزمون خطای پیش می آید]

Then Eq. (2) simplified:  $\frac{y_r^V}{B_r + y_r} = 1.49 \times 10^{-2} \times \frac{Q^{\frac{4}{3}}}{B_r^{\frac{1}{3}} \times D_{va}^{\frac{2}{3}}} \quad (4)$

IF wide channel:  $R_r \approx y_r$

Then Eq. (4):  $y_r = 0.148 \left( \frac{Q^{\frac{4}{3}}}{B_r^{\frac{1}{3}} \times D_{va}^{\frac{2}{3}}} \right)^{\frac{1}{4}} \quad (5)$   $y_r$ : عمق آب در بازه شیب شده

از تقریبی معادله (5) عمق  $y_r$  را ۱٪ کمتر می دهد.

clear water:  $[y_r = 1.12 (y_r \text{ From Eq. (5)})] \quad (6)$  نیز در طایفی نیستند شیب است که

$ds = \Delta Z = (E_r - E_1) = (y_r + \frac{q_r^2}{2g y_r^2}) - (y_1 + \frac{q_1^2}{2g y_1^2}) \quad (7)$   
عمق آب است

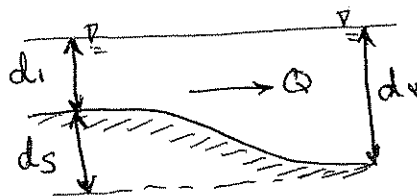
$E =$  انرژی مخصوص

فرض: افزایش انرژی صرفه نشده است.  $(\Delta H \approx 0)$  Smooth بودن تبدیل مقطع در اثر انتقال فرسایشی

$E$ : انرژی مخصوص  $Q$  و خصوصیات جلا هست  $(q_1, y_1)$  و در پایین دست  $(q_r, y_r)$  معلوم  $ds$  محاسبه می شود.

رابطه  $\text{Straub}$

$\frac{d_r}{d_1} = \left( \frac{B_1}{B_r} \right)^{\frac{4}{11}} \left( \frac{\tau_1}{\tau_r} \right)^{\frac{3}{11}}$



$ds = d_r - d_1$

$B =$  عرض سطح آب

فرض: افقی بودن سطح آب (مکان پایین رفتن کف بستر و کاهش عرض مقطع)  
(۴۴۴)

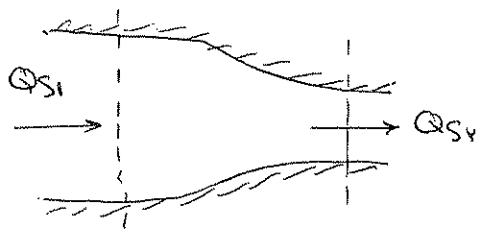
۴/۱۴

(بستر زنده نخورید آشفته است) Live-bed Scour: (۲-الف)

That means Sediment Transporting Flow in the upstream channel.

جریان بالادست پتانسیل فرسایشی (بخش من فرسایش گف) دارد - بار پست در بالادست داریم.

مثال: آشفته‌گی عمومی در رودخانه - جریان بالادست حاوی رسوبات است.



در اثر تغییر مقطع:  $Q_{s2} > Q_{s1}$  At the First period

At the End Equilibrium state.  $Q_{s2} = Q_{s1}$

نتیجه: رابطه بین  $Q_s$  با حمل رسوب ( $Q_s$ ) لازم است زیرا با افتد کج سرعت و شیب

مقاومتی نیست. لذا رابطه  $Q_s = F(\tau)$  نیز لازم است مثل رابطه DeBoys و ...

از طرف تهالی مشکل وجود دارد

$$Re = \frac{VR}{\nu} \Rightarrow Re \downarrow \text{ (در توری لایه آ) } \Rightarrow Re \downarrow$$

کاهش  $Re \Rightarrow$  افزایش مقاومت جریان  $\Rightarrow$  سرعت جریان کم ( $V \downarrow$ )

از طرف بستر

$$\tau = \gamma R S$$

برای آب جاری شده:  $\tau \propto \mu \alpha$  لا یسند  $\tau \uparrow$

$$\tau \propto V^2 \Rightarrow V \uparrow$$

نتیجه: تناقض در معادلات تئوری ایجاد می‌گردد!

روش حل تهالی مشکل می‌شود. (فرضیه: آب جاری رسوب بخشی از قدر خود را صرف بر خورد

مومنتم ذرات می‌کند) %

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روشن تجربی برآورد آبیستایی :

از نتایج تجربی : چنانچه سیل فرسایشی آب صاف بیشتر است. آب صاف ظرفیت حمل و نقل رسوب بیشتری دارد.

تعیین می‌کند :  $Clear\ water\ Scour \sim Live\ Bed\ Scour$   
 $\approx 1/1 (Live\ bed\ Scour)$

بر اساس آزمایشات در علوم و در آب جاری رسوب نهشته از اثرش و توان صرف به خود می‌دهد  
 بین خاکی در جریان می‌گذرد.

یعنی در عمل مناسبه  $d$  در روابط  $Clear\ water$  انجام شده و ضریب اهمیت  $S.F=1/1$  برای  
 اهمیت آن بیشتر در نتایج خواهد بود.

نتیجه تجربی هم دیرینه حد ما فریم آبیستایی نظریه ریتی است که جریان بلادشت در شرایط  $T_c = T_{b1}$  باشد را با ما  
 روابط نتیجه تجربی ناشی از ترکیب :  $T_{b1} = T_c \Rightarrow MAX\ d$  و  $d_s$  معادل آبیستایی  
 ۱) معادله هانتینگ ۲) معادله تنش برشی ۳) معادله رسوب  
 ارائه شده است.

مثال : روشن (۱۹۶۰ و ۱۹۸۰) Lauvsen (۱۹۶۰) رجوع شود به open channel Hydr. (PP. 428-430)

$$Lauvsen(1960) \left. \begin{aligned} \frac{y_v}{y_1} &= \left( \frac{Q_t}{Q_c} \right)^{\frac{1}{3}} \left( \frac{B_1}{B_r} \right)^{\frac{(1+a)/2}{(3+a)/2}} - \left( \frac{h_v}{h_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{3(1+a)}} \end{aligned} \right\}$$

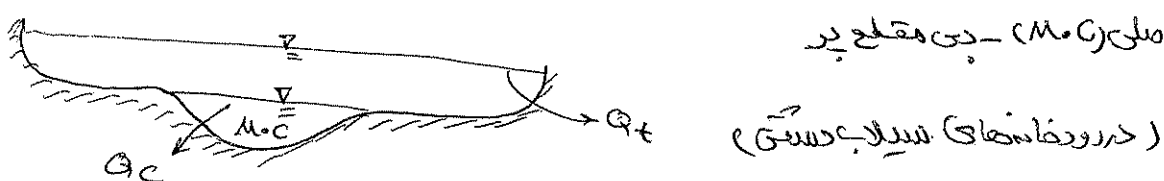
$$d_s = y_v - y_1 \quad \therefore \quad \frac{y_v}{y_1} = 1 + \frac{d_s}{y_1}$$

اندیس ۱) و ۲) ترتیب برای مقطع بالادست و پایین دست است.

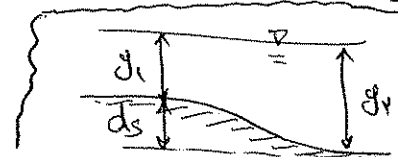
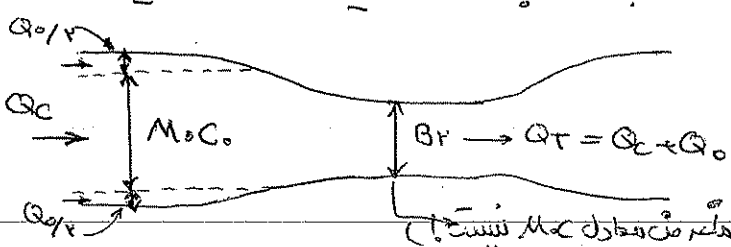
$B_1$  و  $B_r$  ← عرض سطح آب در  $M.C$  بالادست و در مقطع تنگ شده.

$Q_t$  ← کل دبی مقطع گیر سیلابی بالادست که از مقطع تنگ شده عبور می‌کند. (دبی جریان از بالادست)

$Q_c$  ← دبی مقطع اصلی (M.C) - دبی مقطع پر



همه‌چیز در محدوده  $M.C$  اموات می‌شود و جریان بالادست از این مقطع هدرایت می‌شود

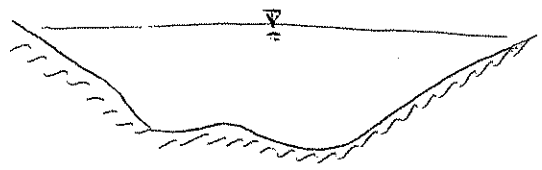


(۳۴۶)

(توجه : من معادله  $M.C$  نیست.)

N/14

در رودخانه‌های با مقطع ساده: فقط یک مقطع داریم یا Contract برای M.C. بالادست و مقطع تنگ شده پایین دست است.



$$\left( \frac{Q_{tr}}{Q_e} = 1 \text{ و } \frac{n_2}{n_1} \approx 1.0 \right) \rightarrow \frac{y_2}{y_1} = \left( \frac{B_1}{B_2} \right)^{\frac{2(2+a)}{7(3+a)}}$$

Single channels or Braided channels.

$n_1$  : بر اساس کتاب (open channel Hyd)   
 عریض و شیبانی   
 $n_2$  : شیب بزرگ در مقطع تنگ شده (تغییرات معادل M.C.)   
 $\frac{n_2}{n_1} \approx 1.0$    
 اگر  $C = B_1 = B_2$   $\frac{y_2}{y_1} = \left( \frac{Q_e}{Q_c} \right)^{\frac{4}{7}}$    
 اگر  $Q_e = Q_c$  (مقطع استاندارد یا جریان در محدوده M.C.)   
 $\frac{y_2}{y_1} = \left( \frac{B_1}{B_2} \right)^{\frac{4}{7}}$

نوع جابجایی	$u_* / w_s$	a
چارکن	$< 0.5$	0.25
چارکن + مخلوق	0.5 - 2.0	1
چارمخلوق	$> 2.0$	2.25

$a$  : ضریب تجربی (تابع نوع جابجایی)   
 معیار کمی برای تشخیص نوع جابجایی   
 رودخانه خفویت نسبت  $\left( \frac{u_*}{w_s} \right)$    
 معرفی شده است.   
 $u_* = \sqrt{g R S_b}$

(نسبت برشی در مقطع بالادست)

$w_s = \left[ 4.75 * \frac{g D_{50}}{C_D} (S_g - 1) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$  : سرعت سقوط مواد سنگری   
 $C_D \approx 1.8$  برای مواد سنگری   
 وقعه سنگری   
 Borah (1989)   
 P.130 روش   
 Presedouski (1996)

ب) آبشستگی موضعی: (Local Scour)

در نتیجه تاسیر متقابل (interaction) بین جریان بالادست و مانع (پل، تکیه گاه‌های جانبی، آب سنگین و دیامین حسن سازه‌ها) بوجود می‌آید.

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# ب) آشنایی موضعی (Local Scour)

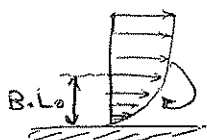
دارد تا اینکه متقابل بین جریان بالادست و مانع (پایه پل یا آبشکن) و نیز پایین دست متازدهای آبی (نویز) می آید.

ب-۱) پایه های پل (Local scour around pier) : براساس مکانیزم جریان فرسایشی در (Fig 4.2) کتی ضمیمه و شکل (۸-۲) کتاب هیدرولیک (سویب ص ۲۵۷) :

۱- اختلاف فشار قابل ملاحظه در بالادست و پایین دست مانع (در بالادست فشار استاتیکی داریم)  $(\frac{P}{\rho} + \frac{V^2}{2g})$

۲- Back water در بالادست (در اثر Stagnation pressure در سطح بالا دست مانع)

۳- گراخیزان سرعت در امتداد قائم (در ضخامت B.O.L - فرنیگ لیستر) وجود دارد.



۴- جریان قائم به سمت پایین (Down ward Flow) ایجاد می گردد. (چون مانع در برابر جریان است)

۵- جریان قائم در برخورد با مانع و پیچش دور پایه پل  $\rightarrow$  سیستم جریان گردابی (Vortex System)

و چسبندگی شکل اسبی (Horse-Shoe-Vortex) باعث فرسایش شدید است. (سویب حریفی از سرامین مانع افزایش می یابد)

۶- توسعه جریان چرخشی  $\rightarrow$  عامل ایجاد خاصه جریانی جریان (Flow separation) در پیرامون پایه پل و نسبت پایین دست است.

۷- با توسعه فرسایش پیرامون مانع عمق موضعی آب زیاد می گردد.  $\rightarrow$  از قدرت Vortex کاسته می شود.  $\rightarrow$  تا اینکه به برقرار شدن Dynamic Equilibrium stat می رسد. (در حفره فرسایشی)  $(Q_{scin} = Q_{scout})$

مشکل : رابطه مشخصی برای ارزیابی قدرت Vortex و رابطه آن با توزیع سرعت در امتداد قائم

و خصوصیات پایه پل یا مانع آشنایی بستر وجود ندارد.  $T_c \rightarrow T_c$  نیست که قابل ارزیابی باشد.  $\rightarrow$  در حفره جریان گردابی که همان Separation line است و Net Flow معکوس است  $\rightarrow$

و سرعت متوسط تقریباً صفر است. بلکه Turbulence و نوسانات سرعت و تنش اساسی دارند تا متوسط زمانی سرعت و تنش.

نتیجه : لیست روابط موجود تقریبی یا نیمه تجربی بوده و بر اساس خصوصیات متوسط جریان در

بالادست و عمق آشنایی موضعی (Local) برآورد می شود. این روشها Conceptual methods نیستند!

۱۰/۱۴

برای معایسه در شرایط clear water و live-bed (در جریان‌های پل)  
 به مطالب کتاب open channel hyd. - P. 432-433 (Fig. 10-25) ضمیمه مراد بماند.  
 10-26

بطور مثال: برای ارزیابی عمق آبستنی (ds) در محل پایه‌های پل با عرض (b) با استفاده از  
 آنالیز ابعادی و تصحیح پارامترهای مؤثر:

$$\frac{ds}{b} = f \left( \frac{u_* D_{50}}{v}, \frac{u_*^2}{g D_{50} (S_g - 1)}, \frac{D_{50}}{b}, \frac{D_{50}}{b}, Fr_0, S_g \right)$$

$D_{50}$ : عمق بالادست  $b$ : عرض پایه عمود بر راستای جریان

$u_*$ : سرعت بالادست  $Fr_0$  و  $Fr$ : بالادست -  $u_*$ : سرعت بستر

$S_g$ : انحراف معیار هندسی مواد بستر  $D_{50}$ : اندازه مشخص معاد بستر و در آنسوی و غیره مواد  
 $S_g$ : نسبت آب

۱- برای شرایط clear-water یا Live-bed

۲- محدودیت‌های تجربی کاربرد معادله (از حق‌ضریان) مواد بستر، هندسه پل

۱) نمونه روابط در جدول (۸-۱) کتاب هیدرولیک رسوب ص ۳۴۱ ارائه شده است. (ضمیمه)

۲) برخی روابط مهم:

Laursen (1962):  
 برای پایه‌های مستطیلی

$$\frac{b}{D_0} = 5.5 \frac{ds}{D_0} \left[ \frac{1}{11.5} \cdot \frac{ds}{D_0} + 1 \right]^{1.7}$$

۱) برای پایه‌های مستطیلی

۲) از پارامتر سرعت جریان  $D_{50}$  استفاده نمی‌کند.

۳)  $D_{50} (0.46-2.2)$  mm (و برای مستطیلی)

Flow →



$b$ : عرض پایه عمود بر جریان  $D_0$ : عمق جریان بالادست

$ds$ : عمق آبستنی (از سطح متوسط بستر)

Shen, et al. (1969):

برای پایه‌های مستطیلی

$$\frac{ds}{b} = 3.4 (Fr_0)^{2/3} \left( \frac{D_0}{b} \right)^{1/3}$$

$u_*$ : سرعت متوسط بالادست

$$Fr_0 = \frac{u_*}{\sqrt{g D_0}}$$

$Fr_0$ : برای جریان بالادست

(و در حوضچه‌های مواد بستر تالودان)

For Rectangular pier  $D_0$ : عمق بالادست

(۳۴۹)



۲۱/۱۹

Richardson, et al. (1975) (For Rectangular piers)

جایه های مستطیلی

$$\frac{ds}{D_0} = 2.2 \left( \frac{b}{D_0} \right)^{0.65} Fr_0^{0.43}$$

نسبت طول جایه عرض  $\frac{L}{b}$   $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{نسبت طول جایه عرض} \\ \text{نسبت طول جایه عرض} \end{array} \right\}$  ضرایب توسعه برای

( $k_1$ ) ضریب توسعه شکل جایه

۱/۰ مربع مستطیل

۰/۱۹ استوانه ای

۰/۱۸ دماغه مثلثی

۰/۱۹ دره ای

$$\frac{ds}{D_0} = k_1 \left( 2.2 \left( \frac{b}{D_0} \right)^{0.65} Fr_0^{0.43} \right)$$

نسبت  $\frac{L}{b}$  برای ضریب توسعه

شماره ۱۸ در کتاب ضمیمه تحلیل مرجع شود. یا از اطلاعات Melville (1992) استفاده کرد.

Ref Melville (1992) (pp. 435-436 → open channel Hyd.) روش عمومی تر قابل امتداد

$$\frac{ds}{b} = 2.1 k_1 k_2 k_3 \quad \text{if } \frac{b}{D_{50}} > 11$$

$$\frac{ds}{b} = 0.45 k_1 k_2 k_3 \left( \frac{b}{D_{50}} \right)^{0.53} \quad \frac{b}{D_{50}} < 11$$

این آدام را همه در پیل می شناسند

$b$ : عرض جایه

$D_{50}$ : مواد بستر

$b$ : عرض جایه (عمود بر استای جریان)

$k_1$  = ضریب مربوط به تأثیر نوع شکل جایه  $k_1 = F(\text{shape})$   $k_2$  = ضریب مربوط به تأثیر زاویه برخورد جریان با جایه

$k_3 = F\left(\frac{L}{b}\right)$   $(\theta \text{ در رابطه با شکل جایه تعریف شده است})$   $k_3$  = ضریب مربوط به تأثیر غیر یکنواختی مواد بستر شکل

$(1-3)$  از کتاب هیدرولیک سوابق  $k_3 = F(D_{50})$   $D_{50}$  = مربوط به این بستر

$ds$  = حداکثر عمق آبستکی موضعی از کف متوسط بستر

مثال (۱-۱) صفحه ۳۹۲ کتاب هیدرولیک سوابق

Richardson, Simons, Julien (1990):

$$\frac{ds}{b} = 2 k_s k_\theta k_b k_a \left( \frac{y_1}{b} \right)^{0.35} Fr_1^{0.43} \quad (\text{hec-18})$$

روش تجربی Melville (1997) برای عمق آبستکی موضعی در محل جایه های پیل از کبی

ضمیمه بررسی شود

نکات مهم

depth) (عمق استیلا قلمی :

(۲) تأثیر فرم بستری (Effect of bed form)

عشق تعادل آسستگی با قرض :

۱) دوام زمانی: سیلاب برای حصول تطلل نیست - مدت دوام کافی برای ایجاد تطلل  
 ۲) شرایط بستر: plain bed - فرم بسترى خداریم

۱- آرماسیت و زنجیر منبوزیز عمماً بر اساس بستر یفتا (Plain) و یا استقراری جی پایداری و ثابت بوده است.

نکته: معاملات تجربی موجود است و مستحق اعتبار است. دوره زمانی یک ری سیلاب می دهد. (وقت شرایط معروف بدست آمده اند) که محال عمیق تجاوز آبست.

Richardson et al. (1975):

تعیین برای  $Q$  در شرایط اولیه

از عمق تکالی محاسبه شده از روی  $1.3 = \text{عمق} \sqrt{\text{Max آب}} = \text{عمق} \sqrt{\text{Max}} \quad (d_s)_{\text{Max}}$

جواب

چ. بنام مؤلفان ربی میلادی و عمود ابسنسکی بسیر از حالت جریان جاری است. (نسبت به بری است)

ح. جری ملایم است و ولی که معادلین من در کتب کثیر از حالتی است که همان ربی بصورت متوسطیک  
 هرگز در آن است.

۷) سرعت تغییرات بیستری با سرعت تغییرات جریان سیلابی هماهنگ نیست. رتبه‌بندی عدم وابستگی  
 به سرعت تغییرات دبی نیست) همواره یک و اما زمانی بین این دو وجود دارد.

عموماً بی‌مأذوم سیلاب آن‌قدر اذیت‌ناپذیر است که آب مستقیم بر روی آن‌ها می‌ریزد و طول بسیار  
 مخصوص در شرایط Flash Flood (سیلاب‌های ناگهانی و سریع) رخ می‌دهد.

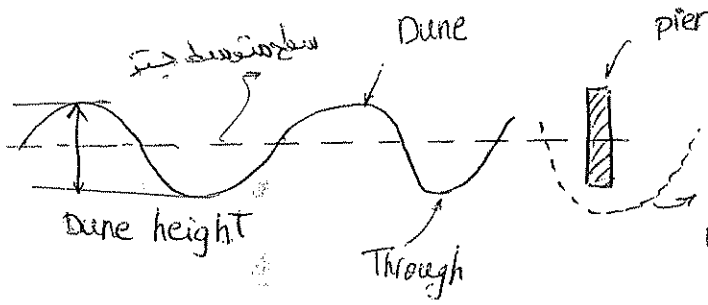
نتیجه: احتمال بیاورد زیاد عمق آبستگنی در پی طغای چارواک موجود وجود دارد!

۱۳/۱۴

۱۵) پائول هیدروگراف شیلد، رسوبات پاریستری در حوضه آبستگلی نه نسبت می کنند.

← اندازه گیری های پیکار سیلاب، نماینده واقعی آبستگلی در موقع سیلاب نیست.

۱۶) Bed Form : در جریان زیر بحرانی ( $Fr_0 < 1$ ) اگر تغییرات قعر بستر به صورت Dune (در رودخانه های پاریستری و امده ای) داشته باشیم حرکت Dune ها به چپ دست خواهد بود.



[در حین حرکت معادنیستری،

حالت برای این است که Trough

به نامیا بستگی از تال یابد.]

$$ds = C_{max} d_s + \frac{1}{2} (Dune\ height)$$

له برای Sand bed

با Dune bed Form

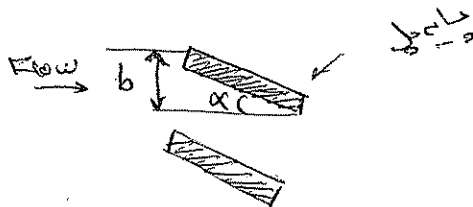
Dune height ← در رودخانه می سی سی پی ۹ متر است

← این تا سر روی رودخانه های در دست طنه نامی است.

۱۷) راستای پایه میل با جهت جریان :

در حالت سنگ زیر scour عمیق تری شود. زیر اعرفه مقعر پایه در برابر جریان (b) بستری می گردد.

← حرکت جریان در طایر می گردد. برخی ضرایب تصحیح برای راستای جریان ارائه داده اند.



\* زاویه  $\alpha$  : این زاویه با توجه به محور در خاکی  
مطابق شکل در خط گرفته شده است

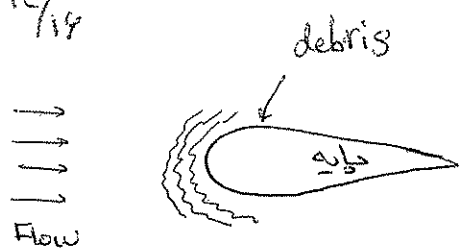
۱۸) تأثیر شکل پایه :

برای stream lined piers، عمق آبستگلی کمتری گردد. از طرف دیگر امکان بسته افتادن

آستان ها را برده می شود ← عمق آبستگلی زیاد می شود

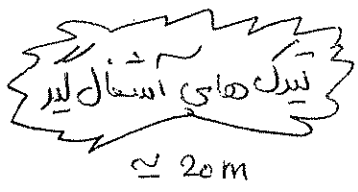
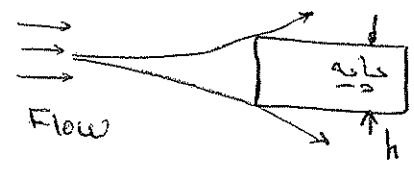
مقایسه لید

۱۴/۱۶



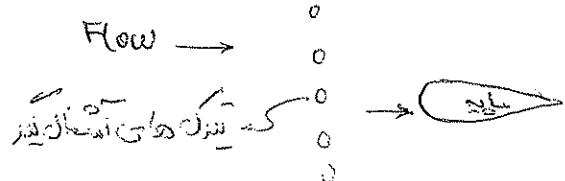
تجمع بیست استال ... در بالادست خایه

مقایسه  
 ← پایه‌های منحنی  
 ← پایه‌های مستطیل



لیکن از راحل‌ها

(پهنه‌ها در رودخانه‌های پایدار  
 شناور توکله‌ای نیارد)

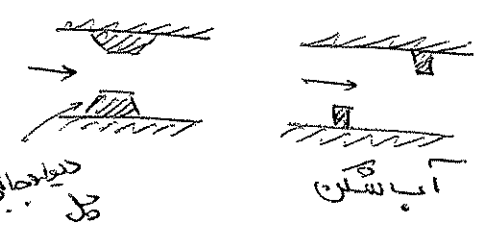


استال لیری انجام می‌شود ← افزایش بار در محل خایه‌ها بین می‌برد.

ارتش قنایستی جریان را کمتر می‌کند (قدرت و سطح مقطع جریان در پایین را کاهش می‌دهد)

(۷) روابط موجود برای Non-cohesive bed material (برای شرایطی که مواد لپستری غیر چسبیده، شن و ماسه و ... است و حرکت می‌دهند)

ب-۲) آب‌سنگین موضعی در محل تکیه گاه پل‌ها و دیواره‌های حفاظتی و آب‌سنگین‌های رودخانه‌ای. Local Scour around Embankment (Abutment) or Groynes.



مکانیزم جریان قنایستی پیرامون Abutments  
 Figs. (4.3) و (4.4) مطالب گویای مندی و اندلیسی ← مراجعه کنید

مکانیزم جریان پیرامون Groynes : مطالب گویای ارائه شده ← مراجعه کنید.

مکانیزم جریان و مطالب عمومی ارائه شده عموماً برای دو سازه فوق مناسب بوده و می‌تواند مورد استفاده قرار گیرد. (Embankment / کوتاه کردن / Groynes ← بلند)

جریان سیلابی جلادست در برخورد به مانع (دیواره‌های جانبی - آب‌سنگین) → قوسه Vortex (۳۵۲)

۱۵/۱۶

روابط تجربی:

Liu, et al. (1961)

بنیاس شناج معماری روی رودخانه  
Dune bed Form moving  $D/s$  با  $(\text{رودخانه پستریهاسته ای})$  می‌سی‌سی‌پی  
جاذبه (۹ تا ۱۶ متر) و آب شکن های سنگی زروای:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{ds}{D_o} = C \left( \frac{b}{D_o} \right)^{0.4} Fr_o^{0.33} & \text{For } \frac{b}{D_o} < 25 \\ \frac{ds}{D_o} = 4 Fr_o^{0.33} & \text{For } \frac{b}{D_o} > 25 \end{cases}$$

$b$  = طول آب شکن یا دیوار تکیه - عمود بر جهت جریان


$D_o$  = عمق آب جالانست  
 $Fr_o$  = عدد فرود جالانست  
زاویه آب شکن است (قانون) پروتیل عرضی

$C = 1/1$  : Spill slope  
 $C = 1/15$  : Vertical wall  
(پلان) دیواره جانبی قائم و دما

معادلات فوق برای  $\theta = 90^\circ$  زاویه آب شکن چار استای جریان (مطلق شکل) است.

برای  $\theta$  های دیگر ضریب تصحیح وجود دارد.  
(Fig (2-2) : کپی منه انالسی)

برای کمتر از  $90^\circ$  ،  $d_s$  کمتر برای  $\theta > 90^\circ$  ،  $d_s$  بیشتر می‌شود.

Laurson (1980) :  
Flow  $\rightarrow$  

For  $\theta = 90^\circ$

دیوارهای جانبی قائم آب شکن

$$\begin{cases} \text{live-bed scour} : \frac{ds}{D_o} = 1.5 \left( \frac{b}{D_o} \right)^{0.48} \\ \text{clear-water scour} : \frac{b}{D_o} = 2.75 \left( \frac{ds}{D_o} \right) \left[ \left( \frac{1}{11.5} \cdot \frac{ds}{D_o} + 1 \right)^{1.69} - 1 \right] \end{cases}$$

برای دیوارهای جانبی قائم  
(از روابط فوق  $d_s = 0.8$ )  
(۳۵۴)

روش Melville (1992):

$$\begin{cases} d_s = 2k_s \cdot b & \text{if } \frac{b}{D_o} < 1 & \text{Short Groynes} \\ d_s = 2k_s^* \cdot k_\theta^* (D_o \cdot b)^{0.5} & \text{if } 1 \leq \frac{b}{D_o} \leq 25 & \text{Intermediate Groynes} \\ d_s = 10k_\theta^* D_o & \text{if } \frac{b}{D_o} > 25 & \text{Long Groynes} \end{cases}$$

$k_s$  = ضریب تأثیر شکل دایره ← جدول کی ضمیمه (Fig 2-3, table 2-3)

$k_\theta$  = ضریب تأثیر استای دایره بلعین ← شکل کی ضمیمه (Fig 2-2)

$$\begin{cases} k_s^* = k_s & \text{if } \frac{b}{D_o} \leq 10 \\ k_s^* = k_s + (1 - k_s)(0.1 \frac{b}{D_o} - 1.5) & \text{if } 10 < \frac{b}{D_o} < 25 \\ k_s^* = 1 & \text{if } \frac{b}{D_o} > 25 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} k_\theta^* = k_\theta & \frac{b}{D_o} \geq 3 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} k_\theta^* = k_\theta + (1 - k_\theta)(1.5 - 0.5 \frac{b}{D_o}) & \text{if } 1 < \frac{b}{D_o} < 3 \end{cases}$$

مثال (۱-۲) کتاب هیدرولیک رسوب منصفه ۳۷۴ مطالعه شود.  $\frac{b}{D_o} \leq 1$

\* حفونهای از رواج موجود برای آب شكن هادر جداره ضمیمه ارائه شده است.

ب-۳) عمق آبستنی باین دست سازه های هیدرولیکی

مکانیزم و رواج موجود در کتاب هیدرولیک رسوب ص ۳۸۲-۳۷۴ ← مطالعه گردد.

(شامل انواع فرسایش و رواج تجربی و مثال)

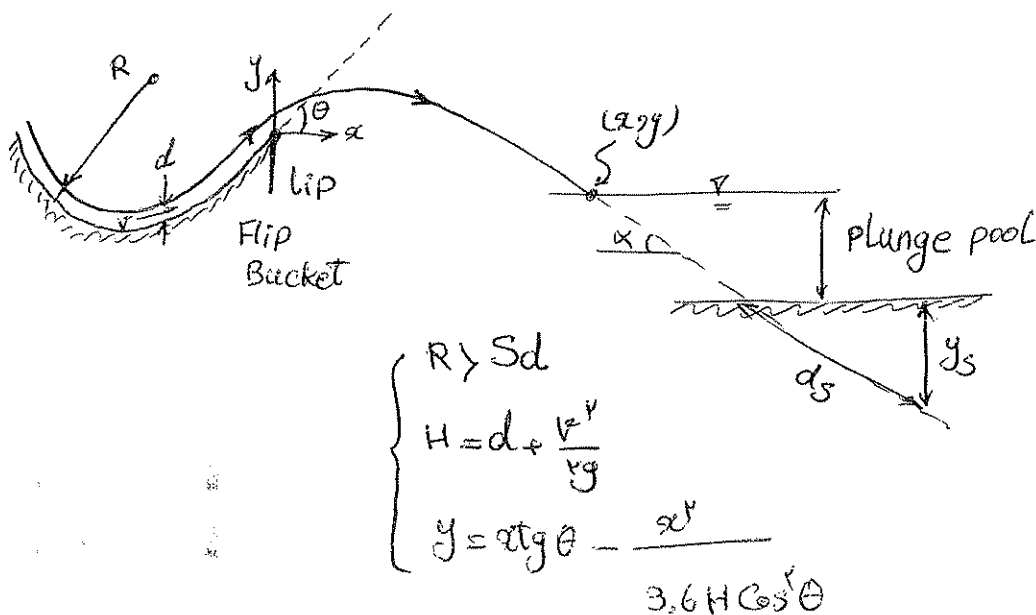
$$d_s \cdot \cot \theta = \text{سطح صخره آبستنی}$$

نصفه آخر:  $\phi = F(D_{50})$   $\phi$  = زاویه قرار:  $\phi = F(D_{50})$   
 عمق آبستنی موهنی + عمق آبستنی عمو = عمق آبستنی کل (۳۵۵)

USBR (1987)

عمق استخفاف آب خروجی از سرریز به حوضچه استخراق

منبع: ۱

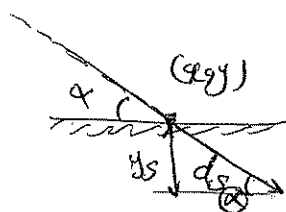


θ زاویه انحراف می‌شود تا موقعیت مورد نظر (دری) تأمین گردد.

$$y_s = d_s \cdot \sin \alpha$$

↑  
terminal scour depth

عمق استخفاف در تالاب پایانی  
برای مواد یکدانه استخفاف  
حوضچه استخراق



α ← متوسط زاویه ورودی آب به حوضچه

$$d_s = C_s H^{0.225} q^{0.54}$$

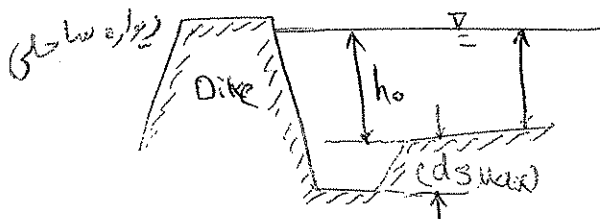
H: Effective Head at Tailwater level      انرژی جهت آب در برخورد به سطح آب

$$q = \frac{Q}{B} = \frac{\text{دبی جریان}}{\text{Bucket width}}$$

$$C_s \begin{cases} 1.32 & \text{ES} \\ 1.90 & \text{SI} \end{cases}$$

ضمیمه ۲

برای محاسبه عمق آب شستنی دریای دیواره طولی (ساحلی) رودخانه (در راستای مغزی یا جریان باشد)



Breusers (1966)

$$\frac{(ds_{max})}{h_0} = \left(\frac{t}{t_1}\right)^{\lambda}$$

$h_0 \leftarrow$  عمق آب در محل دیواره (m)

$ds_{max} \leftarrow$  حداکثر عمق آب شستنی

$\lambda = 0.4$  ضریب تجربی  
زنکسوی

$t_1 = t$  اگر  $ds = h_0$  باشد از خطر تجربی دارای یک ضرایب حری است. ولی

$$ds = h_0 \text{ حد اکثر}$$

مستقل از نوع مصالح

قاعداً  $t < h_0$  باید باشد.

محدودیت

عامل مواد بستر نیست!



# معادلات آبستگ در پیچ خابله - بارش قوس و محدوده بارش این دهانه

۲۸۵، ۹۵، ۲

( $\Delta z$ )

Turne به منظور تعیین میزان آبستگ در قوس رابطه زیر را ارائه کرده است:

$$\frac{\Delta z}{h_0} = 1.07 - \log\left(\frac{r}{B} - 2\right) \text{ for } (2 < \frac{r}{B} < 22) \quad (7)$$

در رابطه فوق  $\frac{\Delta z}{h_0}$  نسبت تغییرات تراز بستر به عمق اولیه

جریان در بالادست و  $\frac{r}{B}$  نسبت شعاع انحنای قوس به عرض کانال است (Hoffmans, 1997)   
 Yen and Lee (1995) نیز رابطه زیر را برای تعیین عمق آبستگ قوس ارائه کردند:

$$\frac{\Delta z}{h_0} = -0.814 \tanh\left[10\left(\frac{r}{r_c} - 0.16\right)\right] - 0.0135 \quad (8)$$

که در این رابطه  $r_c$  شعاع انحنای مرکزی قوس است (Yen and Lee, 1995)

در جدول ۳ مقادیر پیش بینی شده برای حداکثر عمق آبستگ توسط دو رابطه فوق و نتایج دهقانی و همکاران با نتایج تحقیق حاضر مقایسه شده است که در مقادیر حاصل از حل عددی نزدیکی قابل ملاحظه ای به تجربیات آزمایشگاهی مشاهده می شود.

$\Delta Z =$  حداکثر آبستگ

$h_0 =$  عمق جریان در دهانه (معمولی)

$r_c =$  شعاع انحنای مرکزی

$B =$  عرض دهانه (معمولی)

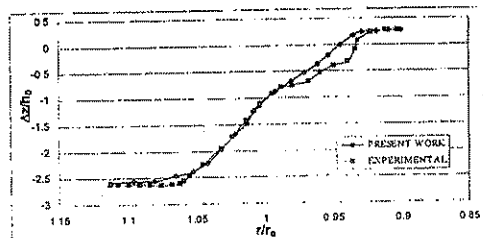
$r = ? \approx r_c$

در رابطه (۷)

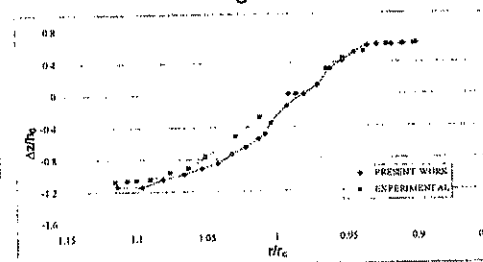
جدول ۳- مقادیر پیش بینی شده حداکثر آبستگ از روابط مختلف و تحقیق حاضر

نام مدل	Turne	Lee و Yen	دهقانی و همکاران	شبیه سازی عددی
180-1	-۰/۰۵۶	-۰/۰۶۷	-۰/۲۱۱	-۰/۲۰۷۷۵
180-2	-۰/۱۰۳	-۰/۱۲۲	-۰/۱۶۱	-۰/۱۶۹۷۳
180-3	-۰/۱۳۶	-۰/۱۶۰	-۰/۱۷۸	-۰/۱۸۸۱۴

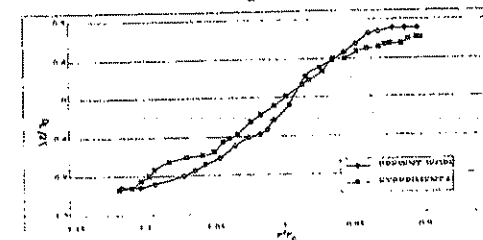
در شکل ۵ (الف، ب و ج) پروفیل عرضی بستر در مقطع چاله فرسایشی با نتایج آزمایشگاهی دهقانی و همکاران مقایسه شده است.



۵- الف مدل 180-1



۵- ب مدل 180-2



۵- ج مدل 180-3

شکل ۵- مقایسه تغییر شکل بستر در مقطع ۶۰ درجه

## ۹- خلاصه نتایج

رسوبگذاری قرار دارد که این ناشی از جریان ثانویه است که مقدار حداکثر سرعت را در سطح آب به دیواره خارجی منتقل و رسوبات را در کف به سمت دیواره داخلی هدایت می کند.

۲- در تمام حالات شبیه سازی شده در حوالی زاویه ۵۵ درجه چاله فرسایشی ایجاد می گردد و با نزدیک شدن به

۱- همانگونه که در نتایج تحلیل عددی و آزمایشگاهی دیده می شود، دیواره بیرونی قوس همواره در معرض فرسایش و آبستگ و دیواره داخلی دائماً در معرض

Hoffmans, G. J., (1997), "Scour manual", A. A. Balkema, Rotterdam, The Netherlands.

Yen, C. L. and Lee, K. T., (1995), "Bed topography and sediment sorting in channel bend with unsteady flow," Journal of Hydraulic Engineering, ASCE, 121(8), 591-599.

شعاع  
آبستگ

✓

دهقانی و همکاران (۱۳۸۱)  
تجربیات دیگر



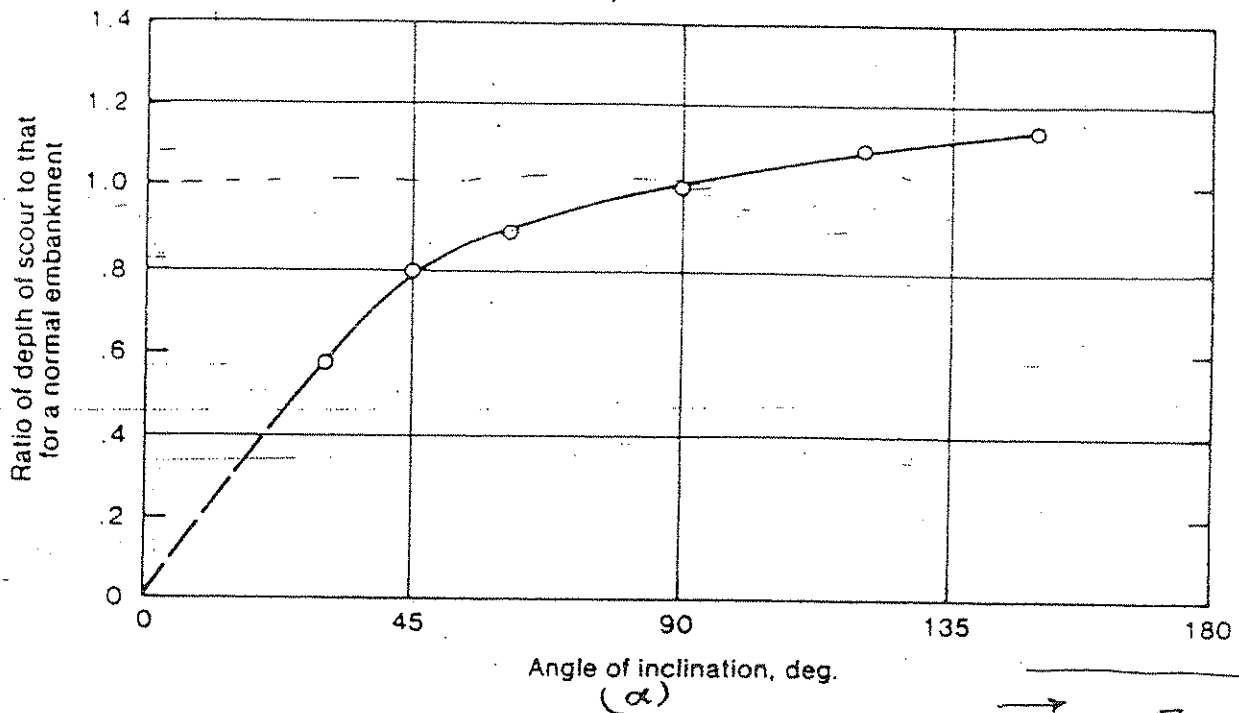


FIGURE 4.6: Correction Factor for Embankment Scour for Angle of Inclination.

#### 4.5 Scour Protection

In general, three basic methods may be used to protect structures from damage due to local scour. ~~The first~~ is to prevent damaging vortices from developing and the ~~second~~ is to provide protection at some level at or below the stream bed to arrest development of the scour hole. ~~The third~~ is to place the foundations of structures at such a depth that the deepest scour hole will not threaten the stability of the structure. The last method is often very expensive, and risk is involved because of the uncertainty associated with estimating the additive effects of scour due to constriction and local effects.

**VORTEX REDUCTION:** Streamlining the piers can reduce scour depth by 10 to 20 percent. Another method of reducing the vortex strength at the pier is to construct barriers upstream of bridge piers, as for instance with a cluster of piles. While the piles will be subjected to scour, such action will not damage the bridge. Debris can collect on the upstream piles, which tends to increase the vortex strength. This keeps the noses of the bridge piers relatively free of debris. The pile-up of water at the upstream piles reduces the dynamic pile-up of water at the bridge piers and reduces the vortex strength at the piers.

Spur dikes can be placed at the ends of approach embankments to reduce local scour:

**BED PROTECTION:** <sup>①</sup>Riprap piled up around the base of the pier is a common method of controlling scour. It should be expected that the region of the bed beyond the riprap will

scour, and as the scour hole is formed the riprap will slide down into the scour hole eventually armouring the side and bed of the scour hole adjacent to the pier. An estimate of the depth of scour is needed to determine the quantity of riprap required for effective protection. Because of armouring, the effective depth of scour may be less than that calculated from the procedures discussed herein. There are few studies to establish dependable guidelines, but 50 to 60 percent reduction in  $D_s$  may be used to estimate the final scour depth. By frequent inspection it can be determined whether the size and quantity of riprap used initially is adequate. If additional amounts of riprap are necessary, placement from the water surface is possible in times of low flow with consideration given to the falling path of rocks in a flowing stream.

\* (2) A structural concrete shelf placed at about  $0.5 D_s$ , where  $D_s$  is calculated from one of the Equations (4.8) to (4.10), extending laterally from the pier and completely surrounding the pier may be effective in limiting the scour depth. The lateral extent of the shelf may be about  $0.3 D_s \cot \phi$ , where  $\phi$  is the angle of repose of the bed material. While this method may be effective for  $D_s < 6m$ , it may become impractical for larger values of  $D_s$ .

(3) Protective mattresses made from rock and wire (Reno Mattresses) have been suggested in the past, and have been used in some circumstances. While they may have merit where adequate size riprap may be scarce, anchoring and stabilisation of the mattresses to conform with scour holes may be difficult. Use of mattresses in conjunction with riprap may be quite effective if the mattress performs essentially as a flexible filter blanket which deforms as the scour hole develops.

## References

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2. KELLER, R.J. (1977): *General Scour in a Long Contraction*, MWD Central Laboratories Report No. 3-77/1.
3. KELLER, R.J. (1983): General Scour in a Long Contraction, *Proceedings*, XXth Congress of IAHR, Moscow, USSR, Vol. II, pp. 280-289.
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6. LAURSEN, E.M. (1962): Scour at Bridge Crossings, *Transactions*, ASCE, Vol. 127 (1), pp. 166-180.

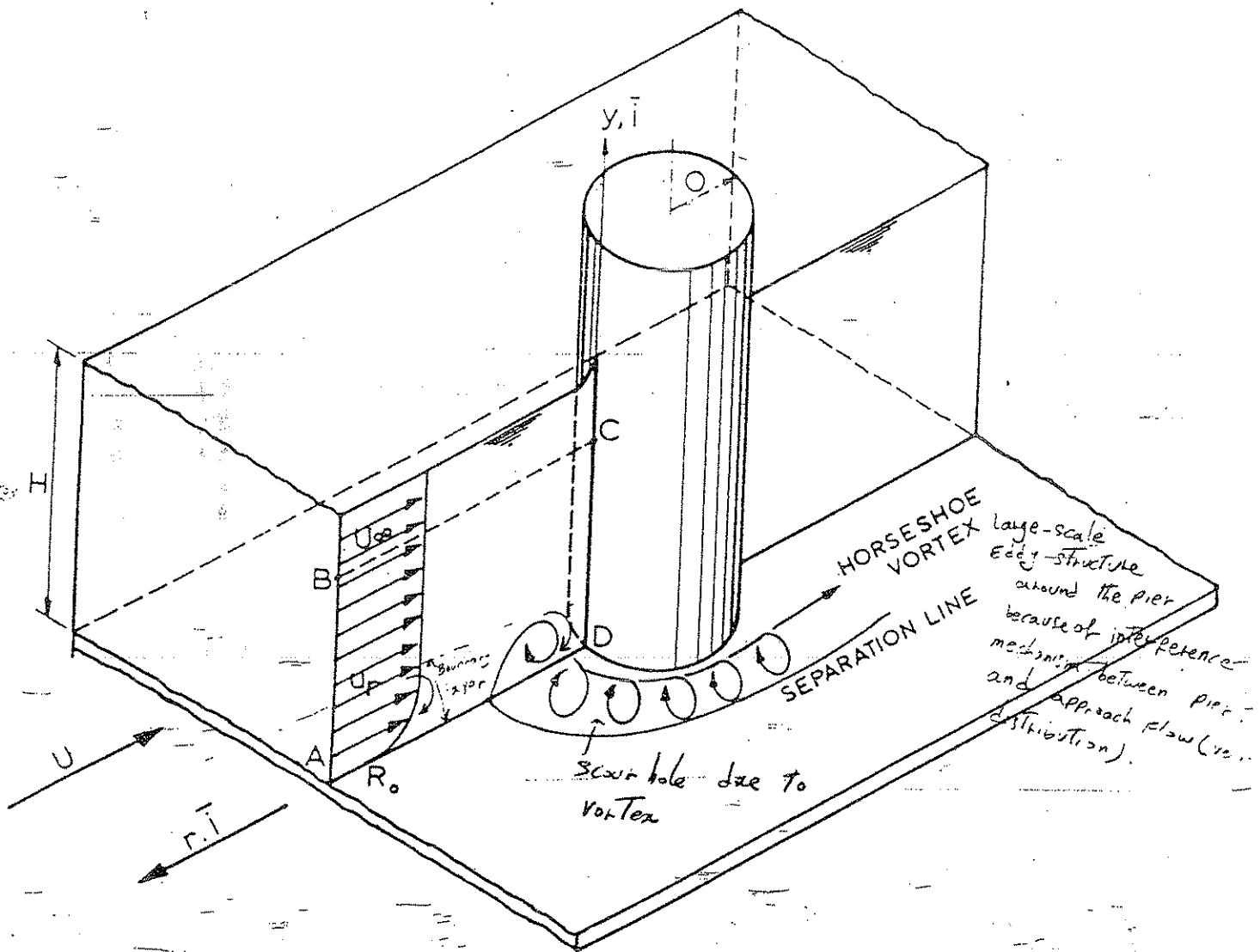


FIGURE 4.2: Horseshoe vortex system around circular pier.

away from the local region is greater than the transport rate into the region a scour hole will develop. As the depth of scour is increased, the strength of the vortex is reduced, reducing the transport rate from the hole. Ultimately, a state of equilibrium is established.

Although the vortex system is known to be the cause of local scour, the present state of the art is not sufficiently advanced to permit the calculation of the strength of the vortex and to relate the velocity field with subsequent scour. For this reason, the formulae developed for predicting local scour around bridge piers are based on experimental data, most of which has been obtained in the laboratory. These formulae utilise average velocity and local flow depth.

چون گرداب منظم قدرت دارد. اگر شدت 30 متر عمقا آبشنگی است تعجب نکنند امکان دارد.

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The interaction between vortex strength and corresponding scour depth has not been yet understood.

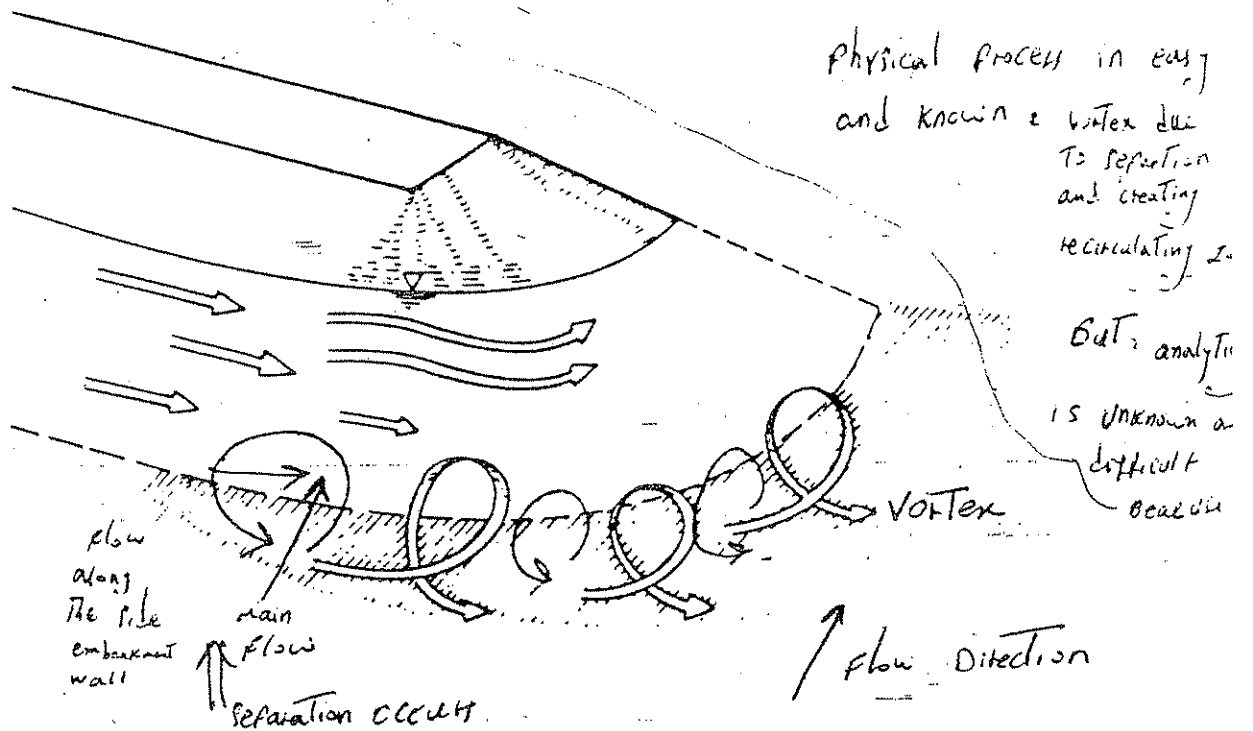


FIGURE 4.3: Schematic representation of vortex formation at an embankment.

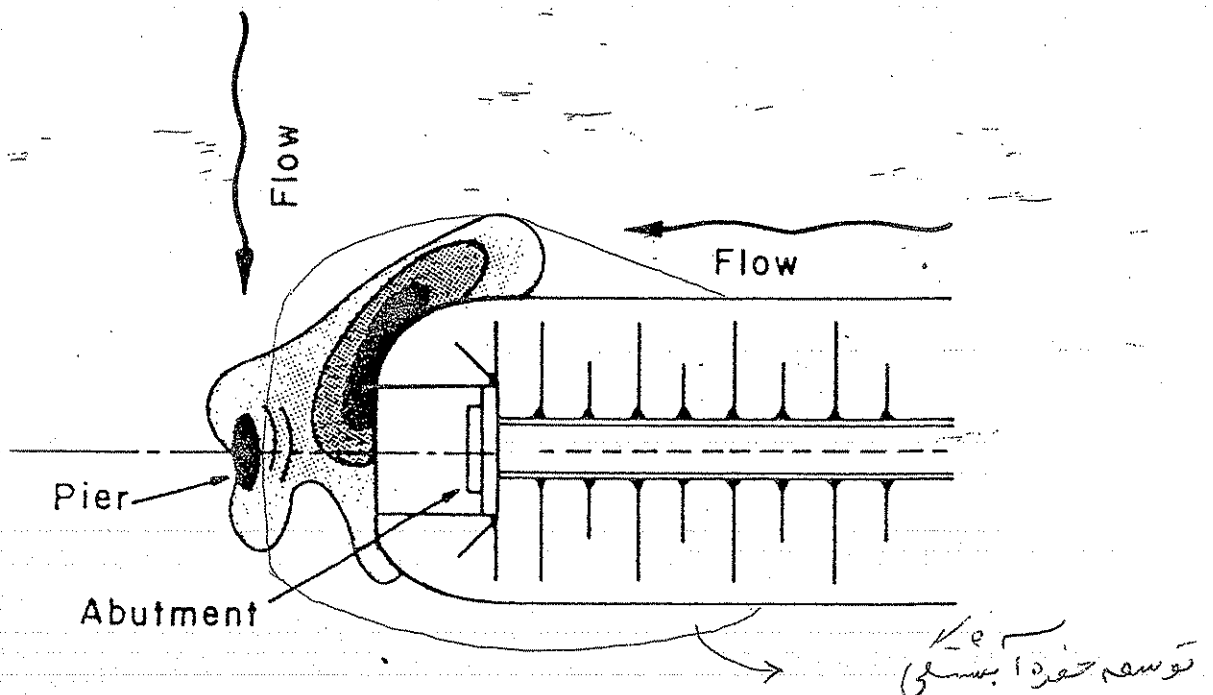


FIGURE 4.4: Typical scour at an embankment and adjacent pier.

No conclusions can be drawn about the accuracy of the methods in Example 10.4 based on a single data point for one river. The Niobrara River data are included in the control data set of 341 data points used by Katim (1998) to test his method as well as Yang's method, for which the mean normalized errors are 45 percent and 63 percent, respectively. Furthermore, note that the measured velocity and depth values are used in the sediment discharge predictions, but are predicted rather than measured in the general case.

### 10.8 STREAMBED ADJUSTMENTS AND SCOUR

The sediment transport relationships developed in previous sections of this chapter assumed equilibrium sediment transport conditions, for which the sediment transport rate into a river reach was considered identical to the sediment transport rate out of the reach with no net aggradation, degradation, or scour of the bed within the reach. The bed itself was considered movable with bed forms, but on average, the bed was assumed not to be undergoing significant changes in elevation on an engineering time scale, which may be on the order of several years. In the short term, however, sediment storage (plus or minus) compensates for imbalance in the inflow and outflow sediment discharges for a river reach. Under these circumstances, the independent variables are the stream slope and water discharge, in addition to the sediment properties; and the dependent variables are the depth, velocity, and sediment discharge, which are interrelated. The bed forms adjust themselves to provide a roughness consistent with the depth and velocity necessary to carry the equilibrium sediment discharge. On the other hand, there may be no depth-velocity combination for the given water discharge and slope to carry the equilibrium sediment discharge, so that in the short-term, local scour and deposition may occur, albeit without altering the stream slope over a long reach (Kennedy and Brooks 1965).

On a much longer time scale, on the order of hundreds of years, the water discharge and sediment discharge become the independent variables; and the stream width, slope, and stream planform adjust themselves so as just to be able to transport the water and sediment discharge delivered to the upstream end of the stream reach. This is Mackin's (1948) concept of the "graded stream." If, for example, the sediment discharge to a stream reach over many years is too large for the stream to transport, some sediment will deposit, steepening the reach, or the meander length or stream width will change, so that the stream equilibrium is restored.

In this section, applications of these concepts are considered for the important engineering problem of bridge scour. Both long-term and short-term channel bed adjustments as well as the scour caused by bridge obstructions can undermine bridge foundations, with possible failure and loss of life. First, long-term channel aggradation and degradation are discussed, then contraction scour caused by the restricted bridge opening is analyzed. Finally, local scour caused by bridge piers and abutments is considered.

#### Aggradation and Degradation

Long-term aggradation and degradation of an alluvial stream can occur at a proposed or existing bridge site. In addition to changes in bed elevation that can be in the form of either scour or fill, the stream planform can shift laterally away from the designed bridge opening and cause local scour around the abutments and embankments. Some brief discussion of different types of alluvial streams with respect to planform is needed to understand the various geomorphic changes that can occur in response to human activities such as building dams and bridges to cross the stream.

→ Alluvial streams can be classified as straight, meandering, or braided, with transitional forms between each type. The sinuosity of a stream, defined as the stream length divided by the valley length, is used to distinguish between straight and meandering streams. In general, a stream is considered to be meandering if the sinuosity exceeds a value of 1.5. Even straight streams can have an oscillating thalweg at low stages as the flow moves from one bank to the other around sandbars. In meandering streams, the oscillating thalweg initiates streambank erosion and the formation of a continuous series of bends connected by crossings, as shown in Figure 10.21. Erosion of the outside of a bend carries sediment to the inside of the next

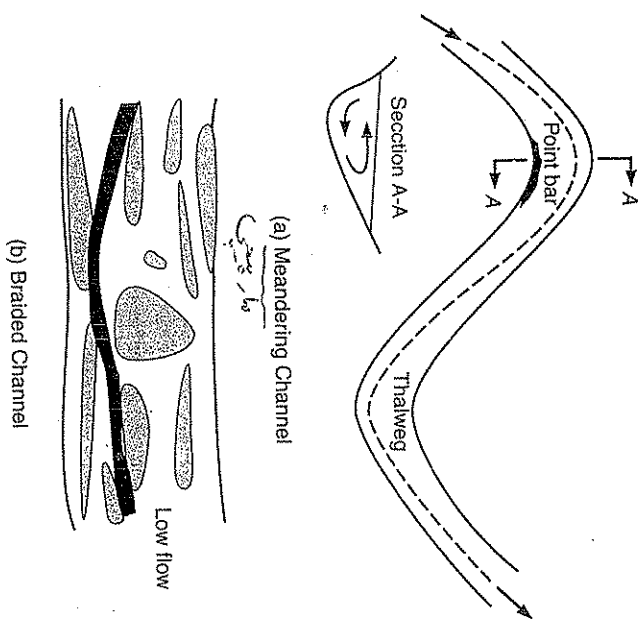


FIGURE 10.21  
Schematic of meandering and braided channels.

streambed armoring, in which the larger sizes of the size distribution are left behind in the degradation process. In this case, the slope may increase or decrease, depending on the relative magnitudes of the other changes, but degradation limited by both armoring and reductions in  $Q$  is a common result (Lagasse et al. 1991). Schumm's analysis (1969) further showed that long-term river metamorphosis can result from changes in water discharge and type of sediment load. Again, using the construction of a dam as an example, decreases in both water discharge and bed-material load (primarily sand) can result in decreases in width and width-depth ratio while sinuosity increases.

Quantitative analysis of long and short-term changes in stream morphology can be accomplished with a numerical solution of the sediment continuity equation (Exner equation) given by

unsteady  $B(1 - p_s) \frac{\partial z_b}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} = 0$  (10.80)

in which  $B$  = stream width;  $p_s$  = porosity of the sediment bed;  $z_b$  = bed elevation;  $x$  = longitudinal distance along the stream; and  $Q$  = total volumetric sediment discharge. The equation can be solved simultaneously with the one-dimensional unsteady flow equations as described in Chapter 8, or if the changes in bed elevation are slow compared to the time scale of the changes in water surface elevations, a quasi-steady approach can be employed. In this approach, Equation 10.80 is solved and the sediment bed elevations are updated for the current quasi-steady, gradually varied flow profile. The change in bed elevation is assumed to be the same at all cross-sectional points within the specified movable-bed width. Then the water surface profile is recomputed with the new bed elevations, using the standard step method for the current quasi-steady water discharge. The sediment and flow equations are solved alternately in this uncoupled fashion at each time step to determine the development of bed elevation changes. A sediment transport relationship is required for the solution of Equation 10.80, and the roughness coefficient has to be specified. This is the basic approach used by the U.S. Corps of Engineers (1995) program HEC-6, which also accounts for bed armoring using the method proposed by Gessler (1970).

Chang (1982, 1984) proposed a similar water and sediment routing procedure, except that stream width changes are accounted for by minimizing the stream power per unit of length,  $\gamma Q S$ . This is equivalent to adjusting the width of adjacent cross sections until  $QS$  approaches a constant value along the stream. If  $Q$  is relatively constant along the stream, the result is to minimize the variation in the energy gradient,  $S$ , in the streamwise direction. In general, increasing the width at a cross section corresponds with larger values of  $S$  and vice versa. A weighted average energy gradient of adjacent cross sections is computed, and if the actual energy gradient is higher (lower), channel width at this cross section is decreased (increased) to decrease (increase) the energy gradient. Once the width adjustment has been made, the remaining change in sediment cross-sectional area is applied to the bed. For deposition, the bed is allowed to build up in horizontal layers, while scour is applied according to the distribution of the excess shear stress with respect to critical shear stress across the section. Chang (1985, 1986) applied his water and sed-

iment routing model (FLUVIAL-12) with width adjustment and simplified modeling of bank erosion due to stream curvature to define thresholds for different planning of rivers from meandering to braided.

The water and sediment routing model IALLUVIAL (Holly, Yang, and Karim 1984) is a one-dimensional model developed to predict long-term degradation of the Missouri River. Rather than specifying the value of Manning's  $n$ , the sediment discharge relationship and the friction-factor relationship are coupled and solved at each time step to model bed form changes and their interaction with the flow and sediment transport (Karim and Kennedy 1981, 1990). In the first stage of the time step, the water surface profile is obtained from a quasi-steady, simultaneous solution of the energy and continuity equations as well as the sediment discharge and friction-factor relationships. In the second stage, the sediment continuity equation is solved by an implicit finite-difference approximation to update the bed elevations uniformly. Bed armoring procedures and the option of specifying a known bank erosion rate are included in the model.

Several other numerical models of aggradation-degradation have been developed, but all are limited to varying degrees by an incomplete knowledge of the mechanics of bank erosion and width adjustment. Kovacs and Parker (1994) provided some insight by developing a vectorial bed-load formulation that takes into account the particle movement on steep, noncohesive banks, as influenced by gravity as well as fluid shear. They applied their bed-load formulation along with the sediment continuity equation and the momentum equation utilizing a simple algebraic turbulence closure model for steady, uniform flow. The initial trapezoidal channel evolved into an equilibrium cross-section shape consisting of a flat bed near the central part of the channel that connected smoothly to a curving, concave bank having a slope that approached the angle of repose. Comparisons with experimental measurements showed good agreement.

Several other models of width adjustment have been reviewed by the ASCE Task Committee on River Width Adjustment (ASCE 1998). Problems of a variety of different bank failure mechanisms, unknown shear stress distributions in the near-bank zone, limited understanding of the erosion behavior of cohesive sediment banks, lack of data on the longitudinal extent of mass failures of the bank, and the significance of overbank flows indicate that much remains to be learned about the mechanics of bank erosion and width adjustment. The computational tools presently available for predicting width adjustments are approximate at best. In spite of this, evaluation of a bridge-crossing site should include as much qualitative and quantitative information as possible on the current state of equilibrium of the stream or lack thereof, and possible consequences of the construction of a bridge crossing.

### Bridge/Contraction Scour

General Scour

The acceleration of the flow caused by a bridge contraction can lead to scour in the bridge opening that extends across the entire contracted channel. The contraction can arise from a narrowing of the main channel as well as blockage of flow on the floodplain, if the abutments are at the banks of the main channel and overbank flow



is occurring. If the abutments are set back from the edge of the main channel, contraction scour can occur on the floodplain in the setback area as well as in the main channel. Relief bridges on the floodplain or over a secondary stream in the overbank area also can cause contraction scour.

The type of contraction scour can be either clear water or live bed. In clear water scour, the velocities and shear stresses in the approach cross-section upstream of the bridge are insufficient to initiate sediment motion, so no sediment transport is coming into the contracted area. In this case, scour continues in the contracted section until the enlargement of the cross-section is such that the velocity approaches the critical velocity and no additional sediment can be transported out of the contraction. This is the equilibrium condition that is approached asymptotically in time. Live-bed scour, on the other hand, occurs when sediment is being transported into the contraction from upstream. Scour continues until the sediment discharge out of the contracted section is equal to the sediment discharge into the section from upstream, at which time equilibrium conditions have been reached.

Laursen (1958a, 1960) developed expressions for both live-bed and clear-water contraction scour, assuming that the contraction is long so that the approach flow and the contracted flow both can be considered uniform. The live-bed case is considered first with reference to Figure 10.23, which shows the limiting case of the contracted section formed by the abutments set at the banks of the main channel in an idealized sketch. The approach main channel width is  $B_1$ , and the main channel in the contracted section has a width of  $B_2$ . The approach channel discharge is  $Q_c$ , and the overbank discharge is  $Q_o$ . From the continuity equation, it must be true that

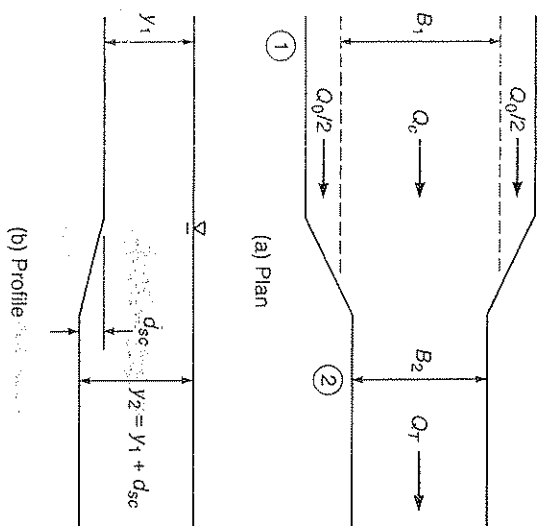


FIGURE 10.23 Scour in an idealized long contraction (Laursen 1958a).

the total discharge in the contracted section  $Q_T = Q_c + Q_o$ . In addition, equilibrium of the live-bed scour process is reached when sediment continuity is satisfied; that is, assuming sediment transport occurs only in the main channel, we have

$$(C_{s1})_T M C_1 = (C_{s2})_T M C_2 \quad (C_{s1} Q_c = C_{s2} Q_T) \quad (10.81)$$

in which  $C_{s1}$  is the mean sediment concentration in the approach section and  $C_{s2}$  is the mean sediment concentration in the contracted section. Laursen applied his total sediment discharge formula (Laursen 1958b) given by

$$C_{s, \text{ppm}} = (1 \times 10^4) \left[ \frac{d_{50}}{y_0} \right]^{7/6} \left( \frac{\tau'_0}{\tau_c} - 1 \right) f \left( \frac{u_*}{w_f} \right) \quad (10.82)$$

in which  $C_s$  is the total sediment concentration in parts per million (ppm) by weight;  $d_{50}$  = median grain size;  $y_0$  = depth of uniform flow;  $\tau'_0$  = grain shear stress;  $\tau_c$  = critical shear stress; and  $f(u_*/w_f)$  is a specified graphical function of the ratio of shear velocity,  $u_*$ , to fall velocity,  $w_f$ , which Laursen determined from laboratory data. The ratio of grain shear stress to critical shear stress is evaluated from the Manning and Strickler equations and from the critical value of the Shields parameter,  $\tau_{*c}$ , to yield

$$\frac{\tau'_0}{\tau_c} = \frac{c_n g}{K_n \tau_{*c}} \left[ \frac{V^2}{(SG - 1) g y_0^{1/3} d_{50}^{2/3}} \right] \quad (10.83)$$

in which  $c_n$  is the constant in the Strickler equation;  $g$  = gravitational acceleration;  $K_n$  = the Manning equation constant = 1.49 in English units and 1.0 in SI units;  $V$  = mean velocity; and  $SG$  = specific gravity of the sediments, with all other variables defined as in the previous equation. Laursen applied English units and used  $\tau_{*c} = 0.039$ ,  $SG = 2.65$ , and  $c_n = 0.034$  in English units (0.041 in SI units) to give

$$\frac{\tau'_0}{\tau_c} = \frac{V^2}{120 y_0^{1/3} d_{50}^{2/3}} = \frac{Q^2}{120 B^2 y_0^{1/3} d_{50}^{2/3}} \quad (10.84)$$

which is specific to English units. Furthermore, the shear velocity also is evaluated from Manning's equation to give

$$u_* = \sqrt{g y_0 S} = \frac{n \sqrt{g Q}}{K_n B y_0^{2/3}} \quad (10.85)$$

Then, assuming that  $\tau'_0/\tau_c \gg 1$ , and that  $f(u_*/w_f)$  is a power function =  $k_p (u_*/w_f)^a$ , the sediment transport formula for  $C_s$  (Equation 10.82) is substituted into Equation 10.81 along with Equations 10.84 and 10.85 to produce

$$\text{Live-bed Scour} \quad \frac{y_2}{y_1} = \left( \frac{Q_T}{Q_c} \right)^{6/7} \left( \frac{B_1}{B_2} \right)^{\frac{6}{7} \frac{2+a}{3+a}} \left( \frac{n_2}{n_1} \right)^{\frac{6}{7} \frac{a}{3+a}} \quad (10.86)$$

The values of  $a$  are the exponent in the power fit to the graphical function of  $u_*/w_f$  and have the values  $a = 0.25$  for  $u_*/w_f < 0.5$ ;  $a = 1$  for  $0.5 < u_*/w_f < 2$ ; and  $a = 2.25$  for  $u_*/w_f > 2$ . These ranges in  $u_*/w_f$  correspond to transport modes of mostly bed load, mixed load, and mostly suspended load, respectively.

The ratio of  $n$  values is assumed to be close to unity and so is neglected. Then special cases of Equation 10.86 can be identified. For an overbank contraction in which  $B_1 = B_2$ , the result for live-bed contraction scour is

$$\frac{y_2}{y_1} = \left( \frac{Q_T}{Q_c} \right)^{6/7} \quad (10.87)$$

while for a main channel contraction in which  $Q_T = Q_c$ , the equation for contraction scour becomes

$$\frac{y_2}{y_1} = \left( \frac{B_1}{B_2} \right)^{n_1} \quad (10.88)$$

in which  $p_1$  has values of 0.59 (bed load), 0.64 (mixed load), or 0.69 (suspended load). Finally, Laursen assumed that, at the end of scour, both the change in velocity head and the friction loss from section 1 to section 2 were small, so that the energy equation reduces to  $y_2/y_1 = d_{sc}/y_1 + 1$ , in which  $d_{sc}$  = depth of contraction scour as shown in Figure 10.23. It is interesting to observe that live-bed contraction scour for the overbank contraction, as given by (10.87), is independent of the mode of sediment transport, while for main-channel contraction only, the mode of sediment transport makes some difference in the exponent  $p_1$ .

The clear-water contraction scour formula also can be derived from the long contraction theory as described by Laursen (1963) for relief bridge scour. Following a simplification of the derivation as presented in HEC-18 (Richardson and Davis 1995), the value of  $\tau_0$  is set equal to  $\tau_c$  at the contracted section (2) at equilibrium when the sediment transport rate out of the contracted section approaches zero. Then Equation 10.83 is solved for depth  $y_2$  and divided by depth  $y_1$  to yield

$$\frac{y_2}{y_1} = \left( \frac{d_{sc}}{y_1} + 1 \right) = \left( \frac{C_n^2 g}{K_n^2} \right)^{3/7} \left[ \frac{q_2^2}{\tau_c (SG - 1) g^{1/3} d_{50}^2} \right]^{3/7} \quad (10.89)$$

in which  $y_2$  = depth after scour in the contracted section;  $y_1$  = depth before scour in the contraction;  $d_{sc}$  = contraction scour depth;  $q_2 = Q/B_2$ ;  $B_2$  = contracted width;  $g$  = gravitational acceleration;  $d_{50}$  = median sediment grain size; and  $SG$  = specific gravity of the sediment. The coefficient in front of the square brackets has the same value in SI or English units, depending on the choice of the Strickler constant,  $C_n$ , and so Equation 10.89 is expressed in nondimensional form. For  $C_n = n/d_{50}^{1/6} = 0.0340$  in English units or 0.0414 in SI units, for example,  $(C_n^2 g/K_n^2)^{3/7} = 0.174$ . The value of  $\tau_c$  was taken equal to 0.039 by Laursen, but other values can be substituted into Equation 10.89.

Guidance is provided in HEC-18 (Richardson and Davis 1995) for the application of the contraction scour equations. The first step is to determine if live-bed or clear-water scour is occurring by comparing approach velocities with the critical velocity, which can be determined as described in a previous section. If there is an overbank contraction, heavy vegetation on the floodplain may prevent sediment transport and so the case may be one of clear-water scour even though the sediment itself has a critical velocity less than the floodplain velocity, based on sediment size alone. This often is the case for relief bridges on the floodplain. Significant backwater caused by the bridge can reduce velocities upstream so that what otherwise

may have been live-bed conditions can be changed to clear-water scour in the contraction. Furthermore, if the value of  $u_*'/w_j$  is very large, the incoming sediment discharge is likely to be washed through the contraction as suspended load only, and so in reality, this is a case of clear-water scour because there is no interaction between the sediment being scoured out of the contraction and the incoming sediment load.

For overbank contractions or main channel contractions with no setback of the abutments from the banks of the main channel, the application of either the live-bed or clear-water scour equations is relatively straightforward. For significant setback distances, separate contraction scour computations should be made for the main channel and the setback overbank areas, with the flow distribution between main channel and overbank area in the bridge contraction estimated by WSPRO, for example. If the setback distance is less than three to five flow depths, it is likely that contraction scour and local abutment scour occur simultaneously and are not independent (Richardson and Davis 1995). This case will be considered further in the discussion of abutment scour.

### Local Scour

Local scour around bridge piers and abutments is caused by obstruction and separation of the flow with attendant generation of a system of vortices. There is a stagnation line on the front of the pier with decreasing pressure downward due to the lower velocities near the bed. This causes a downflow directed toward the bed near the front of the obstruction that separates and rolls up into a horseshoe vortex wrapped around the base of the pier. In addition, there are wake vortices in the separation zone. This system of vortices fluidizes the bed and carries the sediment out of the separation zone to create a highly localized scour hole adjacent to the obstruction. This is illustrated for a bridge pier in Figure 10.24, which shows both the horseshoe and wake vortices.

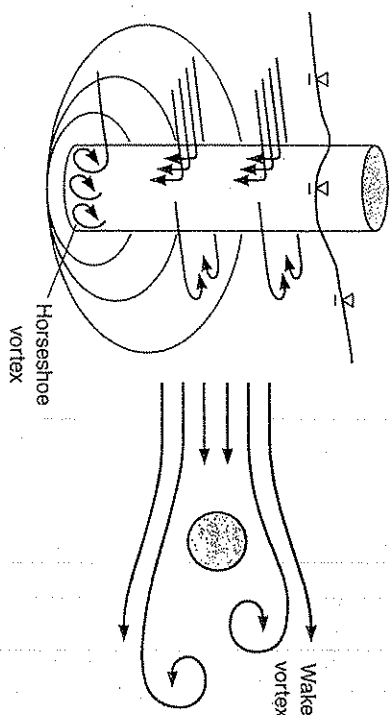


FIGURE 10.24 Schematic representation of scour around a bridge pier (Richardson and Davis 1995).

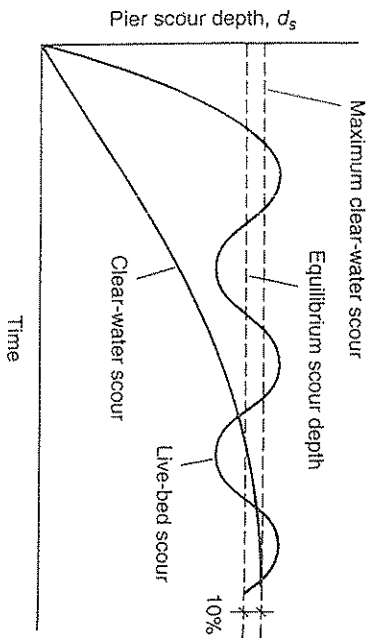


FIGURE 10.25 Illustration of development of pier scour with time (Richardson and Davis 1995).

Either clear-water or live-bed local scour can occur just as for contraction scour. The main difference is in the time scale required to reach equilibrium scour. Because clear-water scour tends to occur in coarser bed material, it takes longer to reach equilibrium, as shown in Figure 10.25 for a bridge pier. The approach to equilibrium is asymptotic, so maximum clear-water scour depth is considered to occur when further changes in the bed elevations are negligibly small. Live-bed scour occurs more rapidly as shown in Figure 10.25 and tends to oscillate around the equilibrium depth due to passage of bed forms through the scour hole. The equilibrium live-bed scour depth for piers is only about 10 percent less than the maximum clear-water scour (Shen, Schneider, and Karaki 1969). Scour depth is shown as a function of approach velocity in Figure 10.26 with the critical velocity dividing clear-water from live-bed scour. A peak is shown at the critical velocity with an abrupt decrease in scour depth as sediment begins to be transported into the scour hole. Thereafter, the scour depth increases again to a second, lower peak that is associated with planing out of the bed forms (Raudkivi 1986).

**Pier scour**  $d_s = f(K_s, K_b, b, V_1, \gamma_1, g, \rho, \mu, (\rho_s - \rho), d_{50}, \sigma_g)$   
Scour depth at a pier is a function of pier geometry, flow variables, fluid properties, and sediment properties:

$$d_s = f(K_s, K_b, b, V_1, \gamma_1, g, \rho, \mu, (\rho_s - \rho), d_{50}, \sigma_g) \quad (10.90)$$

in which  $K_s$  = pier shape factor = 1.0 for cylindrical piers;  $K_b$  = pier alignment factor;  $b$  = pier width;  $V_1$  = approach velocity;  $\gamma_1$  = approach depth;  $g$  = gravitational acceleration;  $\rho$  = fluid density;  $\rho_s$  = sediment density;  $\mu$  = fluid viscosity;  $d_{50}$  = median sediment size; and  $\sigma_g$  = geometric standard deviation of sediment size distribution. Choosing  $\rho$ ,  $V_1$ , and  $b$  as repeating variables and carrying out the dimensional analysis results in

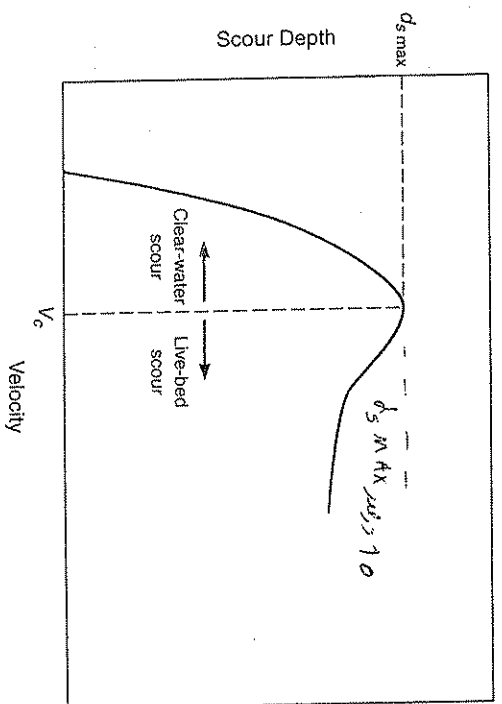


FIGURE 10.26 Illustration of clear-water and live-bed scour at a pier (after Raudkivi 1986). (Source: A. J. Raudkivi, "Functional Trends of Scour at Bridge Piers," *J. Hydr. Engrg.*, © 1986, ASCE. Reproduced by permission of ASCE.)

$$\frac{d_s}{b} = f_2 \left[ K_s, K_b, \frac{\gamma_1}{b}, \frac{V_1}{\sqrt{g \gamma_1}}, \frac{\rho V_1 b}{\mu}, \frac{\rho_s - \rho}{\rho}, \frac{\gamma_1}{d_{50}}, \sigma_g \right] \quad (10.91)$$

Combining the Froude number  $V_1/(g \gamma_1)^{0.5}$ , with  $(\rho_s - \rho)/\rho$  and  $\gamma_1/d_{50}$  results in the sediment number  $N_s = V_1/[(SG - 1)g d_{50}]^{0.5}$ , which can be replaced by  $V_1/u_{*c}$  from the Shields diagram in the absence of viscous effects ( $\tau_{*c}$  = constant). Furthermore, it is apparent from the Keulegan equation written for critical velocity that  $\gamma_1/d_{50}$  can be expressed in terms of  $V_1/u_{*c}$ , in which  $V_c$  is the critical velocity. Finally, the ratio of  $V_1/u_{*c}$  to  $V_1/u_{*c}$  just gives a sediment mobility parameter  $V_1/V_c$ . Thus, an alternative choice for the relative submerged density is the sediment mobility parameter. In addition,  $\gamma_1/d_{50}$  can be replaced by  $b/d_{50}$ . With these substitutions and neglecting viscous effects, the result is

$$\frac{d_s}{b} = f_3 \left[ K_s, K_b, \frac{\gamma_1}{b}, \frac{V_1}{\sqrt{g \gamma_1}}, \frac{V_1}{V_c}, \frac{b}{d_{50}}, \sigma_g \right] \quad (10.92)$$

Most pier scour equations can be placed in this form, but some of the independent variables are neglected in all of them (Etema, Melville, and Barkdoll 1998).

The pier scour equation recommended by the Federal Highway Administration in HEC-18 (Richardson and Davis 1995) is the Colorado State University (CSU) formula (Richardson, Simons, and Julien 1990) given by

$$\frac{d_s}{b} = 2.0 K_s K_b K_a \left( \frac{\gamma_1}{b} \right)^{0.35} F_1^{0.43} \quad (10.93)$$

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in which  $K_s$  = pier shape factor,  $K_\theta$  = pier skewness factor,  $K_c$  = correction factor for bed condition,  $K_a$  = bed armoring factor,  $\gamma_1$  = approach depth directly upstream of the pier,  $b$  = pier width, and  $F_1$  = approach flow Froude number. Equation 10.93 is based on laboratory data and recommended for both live-bed and clear-water scour. The value of  $K_s$  = 1.0 for round nose, cylindrical, and groups of cylindrical piers, while it has the value of 1.1 for square-nose piers and 0.9 for sharp-nose piers. The skewness factor is expressed as a function of the angle of attack,  $\theta$ , of the flow direction relative to the longitudinal axis of the pier:

$$K_\theta = \left( \cos \theta + \frac{L_p}{b} \sin \theta \right)^{0.65} \quad (10.94)$$

in which  $L_p$  = length of the pier and  $b$  = width of pier. The maximum value of  $L_p/b$  is taken to be 12, even if the actual value exceeds 12. The value of  $K_\theta$  = 1.0 for  $\theta$  = 0.0, but it can be significantly different from unity. For  $L_p/b$  = 4, for example, and  $\theta$  = 30°,  $K_\theta$  = 2.0. Therefore, piers should be aligned with the flow direction during flood conditions. For attack angles greater than 5°,  $K_\theta$  dominates  $K_s$ , which is taken to be 1.0 for this case. The value of  $K_b$  reflects the presence or absence of bed forms and so is related to maximum clear-water vs. live-bed scour. The value of  $K_b$  = 1.1 for clear-water scour and for live-bed scour with plane bed, antidunes, and small dunes ( $0.6 < \Delta < 3.0$  m). For dune heights  $\Delta$  from 3.0 to 9.0 m,  $K_b$  = 1.1 to 1.2, while for  $\Delta$  greater than 9.0 m,  $K_b$  = 1.3. Finally, the armoring correction factor is defined by

$$K_a = [1.0 - 0.89(1.0 - V_r)^{2.05}] \quad (10.95)$$

in which  $V_r = (V_1 - V_0)/(V_{c90} - V_0)$ ;  $V_1$  = approach velocity in meters per second (m/s);  $V_{c90}$  = critical velocity for  $d_{90}$  bed material size in m/s; and  $V_0$  = approach velocity in m/s when sediment grains begin to move at the pier. The value of  $V_1$  in m/s is calculated from

$$V_1 = 0.645 \left[ \frac{d_{90}}{b} \right]^{0.053} V_{c90} \quad (10.96)$$

where  $V_{c90}$  = critical velocity for  $d_{90}$  bed material size in m/s. The factor  $K_a$  applies only for  $d_{90} \geq 60$  mm. It has a minimum value of 0.7 and a maximum value of 1.0 when  $V_r > 1.0$ .

Laursen and Toch (1956) measured pier scour in the laboratory for conditions of live-bed scour around cylindrical piers with a subcritical approach flow and bed-load transport of sediment. They argued that neither the approach velocity nor the sediment size affected their results for depth of scour because a change in either one simply caused a proportional change in sediment transport rate both into and out of the scour hole to set up a new equilibrium in transport rate with essentially the same scour depth. The resulting pier-scour formula as given by Jain (1981) is

$$\frac{d_s}{b} = 1.35 \left[ \frac{\gamma_1}{b} \right]^{0.3} \quad (10.97)$$

The experiments covered the range of  $1 \leq \gamma_1/b \leq 4.5$ , and  $d_{90}$  from 0.44 to 2.25 mm (medium to very coarse sand).

Jain (1981) proposed a formula for maximum clear-water scour around cylindrical piers that includes an effect of sediment size. In the dimensional analysis of Equation 10.92,  $V_1/V_c = 1$  at maximum clear-water scour so that the Froude number  $F_1 = F_c = V_1/(g\gamma_1)^{0.5}$ , which is the critical value of the Froude number calculated from the critical velocity evaluated from Keulegan's equation and the Shields diagram, as described previously. The resulting formula is based on the experimental data of Shen, Schneider, and Karaki (1969) and Chabert and Engelinger (1956). It is given by

$$\frac{d_s}{b} = 1.84 \left[ \frac{\gamma_1}{b} \right]^{0.3} F_c^{0.25} \quad (10.98)$$

The exponent on  $\gamma_1/b$  is the same as for the Laursen and Toch formula. The range in  $\gamma_1/b$  of the data varied from 0.7 to 7.0, while the mean sediment sizes of the data were between 0.24 and 3.0 mm. Equation 10.98 provides an upper envelope for the data.

Jain and Fischer (1980) investigated live-bed pier scour around cylindrical piers at high velocities. They measured the scour depths around piers in a flume using threads placed vertically in the sediment bed prior to scour. At the end of scour, the threads were excavated and the scour depth was measured at the elevation at which the threads were bent over. This procedure was intended to avoid the bias caused by partial infilling of the scour hole when the experimental flow was stopped. The resulting scour formula is similar to Equation 10.98, except that the scour depth is related to the excess Froude number ( $F_1 - F_c$ ), because the formula applies only to the live-bed case. The results showed a slight decrease in scour depth after maximum clear-water scour followed by increases in scour depth with increases in ( $F_1 - F_c$ ). The live-bed scour formula is

$$\frac{d_s}{b} = 2.0 \left[ \frac{\gamma_1}{b} \right]^{0.5} [F_1 - F_c]^{0.25} \quad (10.99)$$

which provides an envelope of the data. Most of the data had  $\gamma_1/b$  values of either 1 or 2 with three data points in the range of 4 to 5. Sediment sizes varied from 0.25 to 2.5 mm.

Melville and Sutherland (1988) and Melville (1997) developed an empirical pier scour equation based on a large number of laboratory experiments at the University of Auckland, New Zealand. It has the form

$$\frac{d_s}{b} = K_s K_\theta K_a K_b K_c K_d \quad (10.100)$$

in which  $K_s$  and  $K_\theta$  are the shape and skewness correction factors as before;  $K_r$  = expression for effect of flow intensity;  $K_\gamma$  = expression for effect of flow depth;  $K_d$  = expression for effect of sediment size; and  $K_\sigma$  = expression for effect of sediment gradation. Raudkivi and Ettema (1983) showed that, for clear-water scour, sediment gradation caused a large reduction in scour depth due to armoring for  $\sigma_g > 1.3$ . However, Melville and Sutherland (1988) presented a method for accounting for sediment gradation effects by defining an armor velocity  $V_a > V_c$  at which live-bed scour begins. The value of  $V_a$  is calculated as  $0.8 V_{c90}$  in which  $V_{c90}$  is the

critical velocity of the coarsest armor size given by  $d_{\max}/1.8$ , where  $d_{\max}$  is some representative maximum grain size in the sediment mixture. Then, the flow intensity expression,  $K_f$ , is evaluated from

$$K_f = 2.4 \left[ \frac{V_1 - (V_a - V_c)}{V_c} \right] \quad \text{if } \frac{V_1 - (V_a - V_c)}{V_c} < 1 \quad (10.101a)$$

$$K_f = 2.4 \quad \text{if } \frac{V_1 - (V_a - V_c)}{V_c} \geq 1 \quad (10.101b)$$

These expressions for  $K_f$  have the effect of collapsing the scour data for both uniform and nonuniform sediments in both clear-water and live-bed scour. For uniform sediments,  $V_a = V_c$ , so that the determining sediment mobility factor is  $V_1/V_c < 1$  for clear-water scour. For nonuniform sediments, it must be true that  $V_a > V_c$ ; otherwise,  $V_a$  is set equal to  $V_c$ . The depth effect, which is due to interaction of the surface roller and the downflow on the upstream face of the pier (Raudkivi and Ettema 1983), is accounted for by

$$K_y = 0.78 \left( \frac{y_1}{b} \right)^{0.255} \quad \text{if } \frac{y_1}{b} < 2.6 \quad (10.102a)$$

$$K_y = 1.0 \quad \text{if } \frac{y_1}{b} \geq 2.6 \quad (10.102b)$$

The sediment size effect depends on the value of  $b/d_{50}$  as given by

$$K_d = 0.57 \log \left[ \frac{2.24b}{d_{50}} \right] \quad \text{if } \frac{b}{d_{50}} < 25 \quad (10.103a)$$

$$K_d = 1.0 \quad \text{if } \frac{b}{d_{50}} \geq 25 \quad (10.103b)$$

For nonuniform sediments,  $d_{50}$  is replaced by the armor sediment size,  $d_{\max}/1.8$ . The maximum possible value of  $d/b$  is 2.4, and this formulation provides an upper envelope to the scour data. The data range for the Melville and Sutherland method includes sediment sizes from 0.24 to 5.24 mm,  $y_1/b$  values from 0.7 to 12, and  $V_1/V_c$  values between 0.4 and 5.2 (Melville 1997). Slight changes in the depth expression  $K_y$  were made by Melville (1997) to include wide piers ( $y_1/b < 0.2$ ) as well as intermediate width and narrow piers.

Froehlich (1988) completed a regression analysis of live-bed scour at bridge piers at some 23 field sites. He presented a best-fit relationship given by

$$\frac{d_s}{b} = 0.32 K_s K_\theta \left[ \frac{y_1}{b} \right]^{10.46} \left[ \frac{b}{d_{50}} \right]^{9.08} \quad (10.104)$$

in which  $K_s$  = pier shape factor;  $K_\theta$  = skewness factor =  $(b'/b)^{0.62}$ ,  $b' = b \cos \theta + L_p \sin \theta$ ;  $b$  = pier width;  $L_p$  = pier length;  $y_1$  = depth of approach flow;  $F_1$  = Froude number of approach flow; and  $d_{50}$  = median grain size. The skewness factor essentially is the same as Equation 10.94 used in the CSU formula. The power on  $b/d_{50}$  is very small, indicating a relatively minor influence. The coefficient of determination of Equation 10.104 is 0.75. Froehlich recommended an envelope

curve obtained by adding a factor of safety of 1.0 to the right hand side of Equation 10.104.

Comparisons between several pier scour formulas and laboratory and field data have been made by Jones (1983), Johnson (1995), and Landers and Mueller (1996). Jones concluded that the CSU formula enveloped all of the laboratory and field data tested, but it gives smaller estimates of scour depth than the Laursen and Toch, Jain and Fischer, and Melville and Sutherland formulas at low values of the Froude number. Johnson found that all four of these scour formulas have high values of bias (ratio of predicted to measured scour depth) for  $y_1/b < 1.5$ , with high values of the coefficient of variation (COV) as well. For  $y_1/b > 1.5$ , the CSU formula performed well with a low value of COV and a bias from 1.5 to 1.8, providing a reasonable factor of safety. In general, the Melville and Sutherland formula overpredicted more than any of the formulas tested with bias values varying from 2.2 to 2.9 for  $y_1/b > 1.5$ , for example. Landers and Mueller (1996) evaluated pier-scour formulas on the basis of a much more extensive data set of 139 field pier-scour measurements from 90 piers at 44 bridges obtained during high-flow conditions. Data were separated into live-bed scour and clear-water scour measurements. Although the data showed considerable scatter, it was concluded that the influence of flow depth on scour depth did not become insignificant at large values of the ratio of flow depth to pier width, as indicated by the Melville and Sutherland formula. In addition, no influence of the Froude number and only a very weak influence of sediment size were found. Both the HEC-18 and Froehlich scour formulas performed well as conservative design equations but overpredicted the scour by large amounts for many cases.

#### Abutment scour

Melville (1992, 1997) proposed an abutment scour formula that is similar in form to the Melville and Sutherland pier scour formula, arguing that short abutments behave like piers. The abutment scour formula is given by

$$d_s = K_w K_f K_d K_y K_\theta K_G \quad (10.105)$$

in which  $K$  represents expressions accounting for various influences on scour depth:  $K_w$  = depth-size effect;  $K_f$  = flow intensity effect;  $K_d$  = sediment size effect;  $K_y$  = abutment shape factor;  $K_\theta$  = skewness or alignment factor; and  $K_G$  = channel geometry factor. The depth-size factor is defined by the following expressions:

$$K_w = 2L_a; \quad L_a/y_1 \leq 1 \quad (10.106a)$$

$$K_w = 2\sqrt{y_1 L_a}; \quad 1 < \frac{L_a}{y_1} < 25 \quad (10.106b)$$

$$K_w = 10y_1; \quad \frac{L_a}{y_1} \geq 25 \quad (10.106c)$$

in which  $y_1$  = approach flow depth and  $L_a$  = embankment or abutment length. These expressions indicate that scour depth is independent of depth for short abutments ( $L_a/y_1 < 1$ ) and independent of abutment length for long abutments ( $L_a/y_1 >$



25). The flow intensity factor essentially is the same as for piers, except that the maximum value of  $d_f/b = 2.4$  for piers has been removed to give

$$K_f = \frac{V_1 - (V_a - V_c)}{V_c} \quad \text{for} \quad \frac{V_1 - (V_a - V_c)}{V_c} < 1 \quad (10.107a)$$

$$K_f = 1 \quad \text{for} \quad \frac{V_1 - (V_a - V_c)}{V_c} \geq 1 \quad (10.107b)$$

in which  $V_a$  = armor velocity defined in the same way as for piers;  $V_c$  = critical velocity; and  $V_1$  = velocity in the bridge approach section. The depth adjustment factor,  $K_d$ , is the same as for piers, as expressed by Equations 10.103, except that the pier width,  $b$ , is replaced by the abutment length,  $L_a$ . The abutment shape factor is assumed to be 1.0 for vertical-wall abutments and 0.75 for wing-wall abutments. Spill-through abutments are assigned values of  $K_s = 0.6, 0.5$ , and 0.45 for 0.5:1 ( $H:V$ ), 1:1, and 1.5:1 side slopes, respectively. These values of shape factor apply only to shorter abutments, for which  $L_d/y_1 \leq 10$ . Shape effects were found to be unimportant for longer abutments, so that  $K_s = 1.0$  for  $L_d/y_1 \geq 25$ . For abutment lengths between these two extremes, a linear interpolation was suggested:

$$K_s^* = K_s + 0.667(1 - K_s) \left( 0.1 \frac{L_a}{y_1} - 1 \right) \quad \text{for} \quad 10 < \frac{L_a}{y_1} < 25 \quad (10.108)$$

in which  $K_s$  represents the shape factor for short abutments, and  $K_s^*$  is the interpolated value for intermediate length abutments. Values of  $K_d$  for flow alignment and  $K_g$  for abutments that protrude into the main channel from the floodplain are given by Melville (1997).

Froehlich (1989) applied a regression analysis to a laboratory data set for live-bed abutment scour from several investigators to produce the relationship

$$\frac{d_s}{y_1} = 2.27 K_s K_\theta \left[ \frac{L_a}{y_1} \right]^{0.43} F_1^{0.61} + 1 \quad (10.109)$$

in which  $d_s$  = local abutment scour depth;  $y_1$  = approach flow depth;  $K_s$  = abutment shape factor;  $K_\theta$  = skewness factor;  $L_a$  = abutment length; and  $F_1$  = approach flow Froude number. The value of 1.0 added to the right-hand side of Equation 10.109 is a factor of safety. Froehlich calculated the approach Froude number based on an average velocity and depth in the area obstructed by the embankment and abutment in the approach flow cross section. All the experimental results in the regression analysis came from experiments in rectangular flumes.

Richardson and Richardson (1998) argued that experimental results for rectangular flumes that depend on abutment length as an independent variable do not accurately reflect the abutment scour process for compound channels, which have a nonuniform velocity and discharge distribution across the channel. Sturm and Janjua (1994) demonstrated that a discharge contraction ratio,  $M$ , represents the redistribution of flow between main channel and floodplain as the flow passes

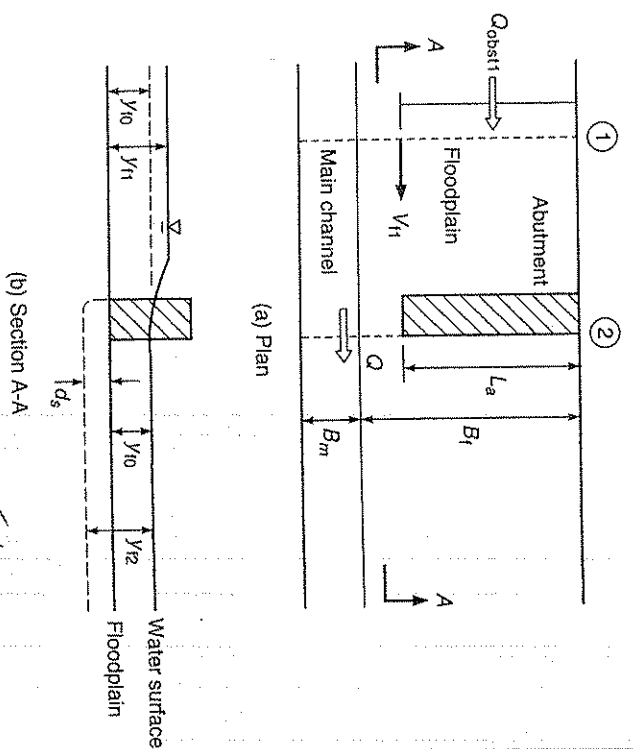


FIGURE 10.27 Definition sketch for idealized abutment scour in a compound channel (Sturm 1999b).

through the bridge contraction. As shown in Figure 10.27, the discharge contraction ratio,  $M$ , is defined by

$$M = \frac{Q - Q_{\text{obs1}}}{Q} \quad (10.110)$$

in which  $Q_{\text{obs1}}$  = obstructed floodplain discharge over a length equal to the abutment length projected onto the approach cross section; and  $Q$  = total discharge through the bridge opening for an abutment on one side only, as in Figure 10.27, or  $Q$  = total discharge from the outer edge of the floodplain to the centerline of the main channel for abutments on both sides of the main channel. The variable  $(1-M)$  was proposed by Kindsvater and Carter (1954) to characterize the effect of a bridge on flow obstruction to measure discharge, and it is used in the FHWA/USGS program WSPRO to determine bridge backwater (see Chapter 6). Sturm and Janjua (1994) showed that  $M$  is approximately equal to the ratio of discharges per unit of width in the approach and contracted floodplain areas,  $q_1/q_2$ , for an abutment that terminates on the floodplain.

With reference to Figure 10.27, the idealized long contraction scour is formulated first, followed by equating the local abutment scour to some multiplier of the contraction scour as originally proposed by Laursen (1963). In two different compound channel geometries, Sturm and Sadriq (1996) and Sturm (1999a, 1999b) have

shown that this approach to the problem results in a clear-water abutment scour equation given by

$$\frac{d_s}{y_o} = 8.14K_s \left[ \frac{q_{r1}}{M V_{oc} y_o} - 0.4 \right] + 1 \quad (10.111)$$

in which  $d_s$  = local clear-water abutment scour;  $y_o$  = floodplain depth for uncontracted flow;  $K_s$  = abutment shape factor;  $q_{r1}$  = approach discharge per unit width in the floodplain =  $V_{r1} y_{r1}$ ;  $M$  = discharge contraction ratio;  $V_{oc}$  = critical velocity in the floodplain at the uncontracted depth  $y_o$  for setback abutments and critical velocity in the main channel at the uncontracted depth in the main channel for bankline abutments. The factor of 1 on the right hand side of Equation 10.111 is a factor of safety. If the approach floodplain velocity  $V_{r1}$  exceeds the critical value  $V_{rc}$ , then  $V_{r1}$  is set equal to  $V_{rc}$  for maximum clear-water scour. The shape factor  $K_s = 1$  for vertical-wall abutments, while for spill-through abutments, it is given by

$$K_s = 1.52 \frac{\xi - 0.67}{\xi - 0.4} \quad \text{for } 0.67 \leq \xi \leq 1.2 \quad (10.112)$$

where  $\xi = q_{r1}/(M V_{oc} y_o)$ , and  $K_s = 1.0$  for  $\xi > 1.2$  as the contraction effect becomes more important than the abutment shape. Equation 10.111 is compared with the experimental data for an asymmetric compound channel having a floodplain width of 3.66 m and a main channel width of 0.55 m in Figure 10.28, which

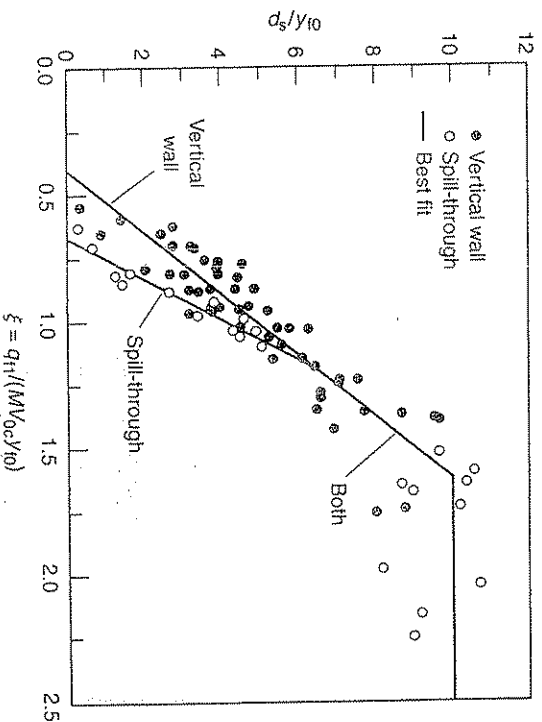


FIGURE 10.28  
Abutment scour relationship for compound channels (Sturm 1999b).

shows that  $d_s/y_o$  has a maximum value of 10. The  $r^2$  value for the best-fit equation without a factor of safety is 0.86 with a standard error of 0.74 in  $d_s/y_o$ .

**EXAMPLE 10.5.** A bridge with a 228.6 m (750 ft) opening length spans Burdell Creek, which has a drainage area of 971 km<sup>2</sup> (375 mi<sup>2</sup>). The exit and bridge cross sections are shown in Figure 10.29 with three subsections and their corresponding values of Manning's  $n$ . The slope of the stream reach at the bridge site is constant and equal to 0.001 m/m. The bridge has a deck elevation of 6.71 m (22.0 ft) and a bottom chord to 0.001 m/m. The bridge has a deck elevation of 6.71 m (22.0 ft) and a bottom chord elevation of 5.49 m (18.0 ft). It is a Type 3 bridge (see Chapter 6) with 2:1 abutment slopes and embankment slopes, and it is perpendicular to the flow direction (no skew). The tops of the left and right spill-through abutments are at X stations of 281.9 m (925 ft) and 510.5 m (1675 ft), and the abutments are set back from the banks of the main channel. There are six cylindrical bridge piers, each with a width of 1.52 m (5.00 ft). The sediment has a median grain diameter,  $d_{50}$ , of 2.0 mm ( $6.56 \times 10^{-5}$  ft). Estimate the clear-water abutment scour and pier scour for the 100 yr design flood, which has a peak discharge of 397 m<sup>3</sup>/s (14,000 cfs).

**Solution.** The FHWA/USGS program WSPRO, described in Chapter 6, is run to obtain the hydraulic variables needed in the scour prediction formulas, although HEC-RAS could also be used. The program actually is run twice, first to obtain the water surface elevations for both the uncontracted and constricted flows at the approach cross section and, second, with the HP 2 data records to compute the velocity distribution in the approach section for the uncontracted (undisturbed) water surface elevation of 4.038 m (13.25 ft) and the constricted water surface elevation of 4.157 m (13.64 ft). The scour parameters then are determined from the WSPRO results. Calculations are made for the left abutment, which has a length,  $L_a$ , of 233 m (764 ft). From the computed velocity distribution for the constricted flow, the blocked discharge in the approach

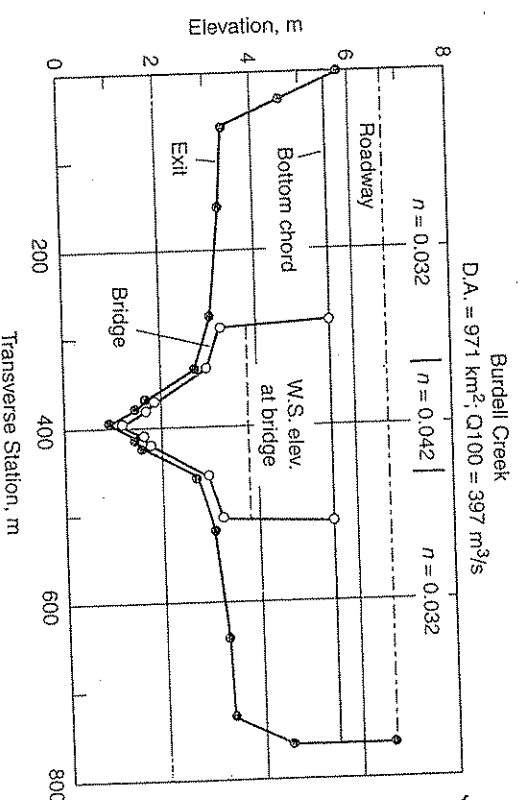


FIGURE 10.29  
Bridge cross-sections for Example 10.5.

section for the left abutment is  $39.1 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  (1380 cfs) with a blocked cross-sectional area of  $106.8 \text{ m}^2$  (1150  $\text{ft}^2$ ). The discharge from the left edge of water in the approach cross section to the centerline of the main channel is  $210 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  (7413 cfs). Then, the value of  $M = (210 - 39.1)/210 = 0.81$ . Now we can calculate  $V_{f1} = Q_{f1}/A_{f1} = 39.1/106.8 = 0.366 \text{ m/s}$  (1.20 ft/s) and  $V_{f1} = A_{f1}/L_a = 106.8/233 = 0.458 \text{ m}$  (1.50 ft). In a similar way, the value of  $V_{f0}$  is found for the unconstricted cross section to be  $0.357 \text{ m}$  (1.17 ft).

The critical velocities for coarse sediments are determined by substituting into Equation 10.17 (Keulegan's equation). For the constricted approach section and for a floodplain depth of  $0.458 \text{ m}$ , we have

$$V_{fc} = 5.75 \times \sqrt{(0.045)(2.65 - 1)(9.81)(0.002)} \times \log \frac{(12.2)(0.458)}{2 \times 0.002} \\ = 0.69 \text{ m/s} (2.3 \text{ ft/s})$$

in which the Shields parameter has been taken to be  $0.045$  for this sediment size and the equivalent sand-grain roughness  $k_s = 2d_{50}$ . Because  $V_{f1} < V_{fc}$ , it is apparent that we have clear-water scour. In a similar manner, the value of  $V_{fc}$  for an unconstricted floodplain depth of  $0.357 \text{ m}$  (1.17 ft) is  $0.67 \text{ m/s}$  (2.2 ft/s).

To compute the scour depth for the setback abutments, substitute into Equation 10.111 to obtain

$$\frac{d_s}{y_0} = 8.14 \times 0.63 \times \left[ \frac{(0.366)(0.457)}{(0.81)(0.67)(0.357)} - 0.4 \right] + 1.0 = 3.4$$

in which the shape factor  $K_s = 0.63$  from Equation 10.112 and the safety factor of  $1.0$  has been included. Finally, the left abutment scour depth is  $3.4 \times 0.357 = 1.2 \text{ m}$  (3.9 ft). In general, this calculation would be repeated for the right abutment, but this example has an essentially symmetric cross section.

Next, consider the scour around the bridge piers and use the largest flow depth in the cross section, assuming that the thalweg might migrate laterally. The WSPRO results give a water surface elevation of  $3.80 \text{ m}$  (12.5 ft) in the bridge section, which corresponds to a maximum depth of  $2.63 \text{ m}$  (8.63 ft). The maximum velocity in the bridge section is  $1.68 \text{ m/s}$  (5.51 ft/s). The resulting value of the pier approach Froude number is  $V/(g y_p)^{0.5} = 1.68/(9.81 \times 2.63)^{0.5} = 0.33$ . Substituting into the CSU pier scour formula and recalling that the pier width  $b = 1.52 \text{ m}$  (5.0 ft), we have

$$d_s = b \times 2.0 K_s K_d K_b K_a \left[ \frac{y_1}{b} \right]^{0.35} F^{0.43} \\ = 1.52 \times 2 \times (1.0)(1.0)(1.1)(1.0) \left[ \frac{2.63}{1.52} \right]^{0.35} [0.33]^{0.43} = 2.5 \text{ m}$$

(or  $8.2 \text{ ft}$ ), in which all the correction factors have the value of  $1$  except the bed correction, which is taken to be  $1.1$  for clear-water scour. The Laursen-T Toch equation gives a pier scour depth of

$$d_s = b \times 1.35 \left[ \frac{y_1}{b} \right]^{0.3} = 1.52 \times 1.35 \times \left[ \frac{2.63}{1.52} \right]^{0.3} = 2.4 \text{ m} (7.9 \text{ ft})$$

### Total Scour

It is recommended in HEC-18 (Richardson and Davis 1995) that degradation, contraction scour, and abutment or pier scour be added to produce a conservative total

scour estimate. For setback abutments, contraction scour has to be calculated separately for the setback area and the main channel in the bridge section. Another conservative design suggestion is to use the calculated maximum scour depth at a pier in the main channel for a pier in the setback area as well, assuming lateral migration of the main channel into the setback area. For bankline abutments, contraction scour and abutment scour occur simultaneously rather than independently, so that adding abutment scour and contraction scour for this case may be overly conservative. If scour calculations indicate that foundation depths are excessively large, then scour countermeasures such as rock riprap protection and guide banks can be used (see Lagasse et al. 1991).

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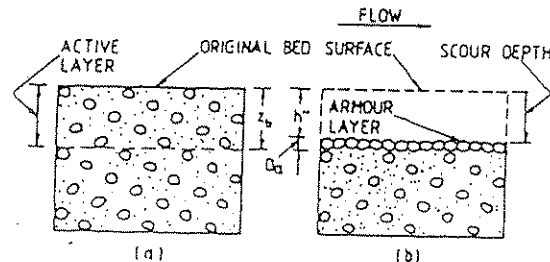


Fig. 2.67. Formation of armour layer: (a) - Well-mixed original bed material; and (b) - Armour layer with underlying bed material (after Borah, 1989).

## 2. In gravel-bed rivers with coarse and poorly sorted bed material.

These armour layers are classified as static (immobile) or mobile. The static armour layer is the result of imbalance between the sediment transport capacity of the flow and the amount of sediment inflow to a given river reach. Such a layer is formed by the continuous action of the water flow especially during floods. During such periods the bed shear stress often exceeds the critical shear stress of the bed mixture. The larger grains which are non-transportable under the given flow conditions, remain on the bed and gradually create a surface armour layer markedly coarser than the substrate. This armour layer can be defined as a coarse surface layer that never moves and protects the subsurface bed material from motion. In natural conditions such a layer forms bottom sills making the bed level unchangeable. For example this type of sill was found in the bed of the Noteć River (see Part 2, Chapter 7) as the result of cutting of the valley slope (Przedwojski, 1989b).

In the presence of graded materials, the bed scour, e.g. in case of the bed degradation below a dam, can be restricted by formation of an armour layer (Fig. 2.67).

The scour depth is computed as (Borah, 1989):

$$h'' = z_b - D_a \quad (2.304)$$

and

$$z_b = \frac{D_a}{(1-p)P_a} \quad (2.305)$$

$$D_a = 68 \left( \frac{hI}{s-1} \right)^{1.67} (u_* \nu)^{0.67} \quad \text{for} \quad \frac{u_* D_{50}}{\nu} \leq 10 \quad (2.306)$$

$$D_a = 27 \left( \frac{hI}{s-1} \right)^{0.68} \left( \frac{\nu}{u_*} \right)^{0.14} \quad \text{for} \quad 10 < \frac{u_* D_{50}}{\nu} \leq 500 \quad (2.307)$$

$$D_a = 17 \left( \frac{hI}{s-1} \right) \quad \text{for} \quad \frac{u_* D_{50}}{\nu} > 500 \quad (2.308)$$

in which  $z_b$  is the thickness of the active layer,  $D_a$  is the smallest armour size,  $p$  is the porosity of the bed material,  $P_a$  is the fraction of all the armour sizes present in the bed material,  $h''$  is the scour depth,  $u_* = (ghI)^{1/2}$  is the shear velocity,  $g$  is the acceleration due to gravity,  $h$  is the depth of flow,  $I$  is the energy slope,  $D_{50}$  is the median particle size,  $\nu$  is the kinematic viscosity of water,  $s = \rho_s/\rho$  is the specific

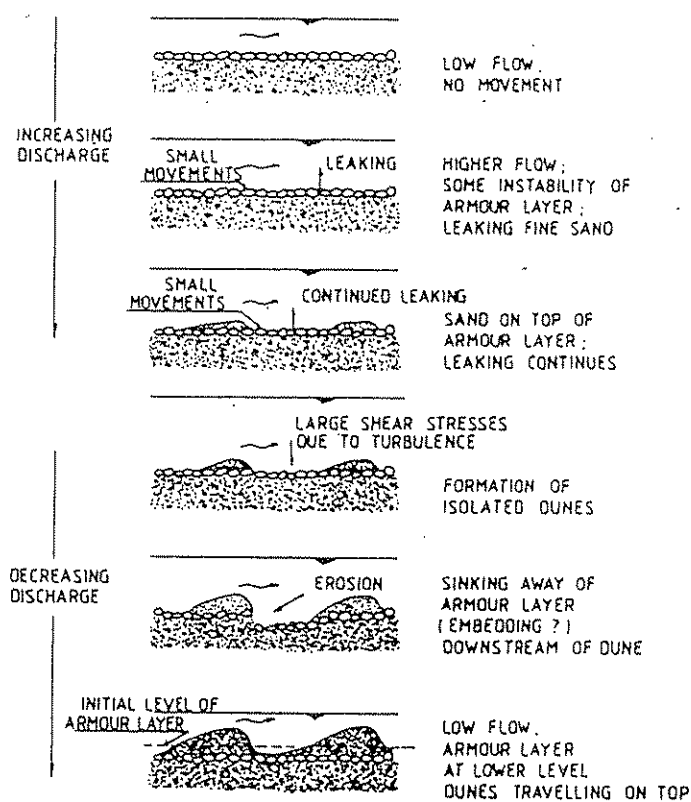


Fig. 2.68. Schematic indication of breaking up of armour layer during passage of flood (after Klaassen, 1990).

*Other aspects of armoured river beds:*

- sampling of bed material,
- methods of measuring sediment transport,
- critical shear stress,
- selective transport of mixtures,
- formation of mobile armour layer,
- resistance to flow and bed-forms occurrence,
- downstream fining,
- regime equation,
- two-dimensional phenomena,
- deposition of fine sediments in armour layers,
- ecological aspects.

→ Most of the problems mentioned above are discussed in the present book. However, this book is generally closely connected with sand-bed lowland rivers. As the Klaassen (1990) paper is dealing with gravel-bed rivers, thus, only general ideas and conclusions have been presented. Based on literature review and on his own sand-flume experiments Klaassen (1990) draws the following conclusions:

۱/۲

نویسنده یا ارائه دهنده سادله	فرم سادله
<i>Angils</i> همکاران (1939)	$\frac{d_s + d_o}{b} = 1.7 \left( \frac{q^{0.75}}{b} \right)^{0.78}$
<i>Laursen</i> , (1952)	$\frac{b}{d_o} = 5.5 \left[ \frac{d_s}{d_o} \left( \frac{1}{12} \cdot \frac{d_s}{d_o} + 1 \right)^{7/4} / \left( \frac{V_o}{V_c} \right)^{1/2} - 1 \right]$
<i>Isard and Bradley</i> , (1958)	$d_s = 1.45 q^{2/3}$
<i>Bata</i> , (1960) (پایه سیلندری)	$\frac{d_s}{d_o} = 10 \left( \frac{V_o^2}{g d_o} - \frac{3D}{d_o} \right)$
<i>Chitale</i> , (1962)	$\frac{d_s}{d_o} = 6.65 \left( \frac{V_o^2}{g d_o} \right) - 0.51 - 5.44 \left( \frac{V_o^2}{g d_o} \right)^2$
<i>Breusers</i> , (1965)	$d_s = 1.4 b$
<i>Carstens</i> , (1966)	$\frac{d_s}{b} = 0.546 \left( \frac{N_s^2 - 1.64}{N_s^2 - 5.02} \right)^{5/6} N_s = \frac{V_o}{\sqrt{g(G_s - 1) D_{50}}}$
<i>Shen et al</i> , (1969)	$\frac{d_s}{b} = 3.4 \left( \frac{V_o^2}{g b} \right)^{0.67} \left( \frac{d_o}{b} \right)^{1/3} P$
<i>Jain</i> , (1981)	$\frac{d_s}{b} = 1.84 \left( \frac{d_o}{b} \right)^{0.30} \left( \frac{V_o^2}{g d_o} \right)^{0.25}$
<i>Gurysaki</i> , (1986)	$\frac{d_s}{D} = 1.133 \left( \frac{d_o}{D} \right)^{0.471}$ برای پی با مقطع دایره ای $\frac{d_s}{b} = 1.484 \left( \frac{d_o}{b} \right)^{0.569}$ برای پی مستطیل شکل
<i>Froehlich</i> , (1988)	$d_s = 0.32 K_1 \left( \frac{b}{b} \right)^{0.62} \left( \frac{d_o}{b} \right)^{0.46} F^{0.2} \left( \frac{b}{D_{50}} \right)^{0.08} + 1/10$
رابطه $K_1$ و $K_2$ ضرایبی از جدول (۸-۳) →	$\frac{d_s}{d_o} = 20 K_1 K_2 \left( \frac{b}{d_o} \right)^{0.65} F^{0.43}$
<i>Jain and Fisher</i> (1979)	$\frac{d_s}{b} = 2.0 \left( F_o - F_c \right)^{0.25} \left( \frac{d_o}{b} \right)^{0.5}$
الف) برای بستر زنده عبارت است از عدد فرود برای آستانه حرکت. ب) برای حداکثر عمق آبشستگی و آب زلال	$\frac{d_s}{b} = 1.85 \left( F_c \right)^{0.25} \left( \frac{d_o}{b} \right)^{0.5}$

جدول (۸-۱): خلاصه‌ای از سادلات تجربی پیشنهادی برای محاسبه عمق آبشستگی در پایه پل

ی مخصوص ذرات

$$G_s = \frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma} = \frac{\rho_s}{\rho}$$

$$u_* = \sqrt{g d_o S} = \sqrt{\frac{\tau_o}{\rho}}$$

کار بردن تئوری بایکنگهام، رابطه کلی برای تعیین عمق آب شستگی به صورت ی باشد:

$$\frac{d_s}{b} = f \left( \frac{u_* D_{50}}{d_o}, \frac{V_o^2}{g(G_s - 1) D_{50}}, \frac{d_o}{b}, \frac{D_{50}}{b}, \frac{V_o}{b}, \frac{V_o}{\sqrt{g d_o}} \right) \quad (۸-۱۸)$$

### ۸-۲ روشهای تخمین میزان عمق آبشستگی

(۸-۱۸) یک رابطه کلی به منظور تعیین عمق آبشستگی موضعی پایه پل می باشد. نظور تعیین رابطه دقیق ریاضی، نیاز به داده های آزمایشگاهی می باشد. از طرفی ر کردن تأثیر کلیه پارامترها کار بسیار مشکل و غیر ممکن است از این رو محققان تم با حذف اثر بعضی از پارامترها و انجام آزمایش، روابطی عمدتاً با استفاده از رگرسیون بدست آورده اند که تعدادی از این روابط در جدول (۸-۱) ارائه شده تعداد زیادی از این روابط می توان به صورت رابطه خلاصه شده زیر نیز نوشت:

$$\frac{d_s}{b} = f \left( F_o, \frac{d_o}{b} \right) \quad (۸-۱۹)$$

در آن  $F_o = \frac{V_o}{\sqrt{g d_o}}$  عدد فرود می باشد. در چنین رابطه ای البته، تأثیر بعضی

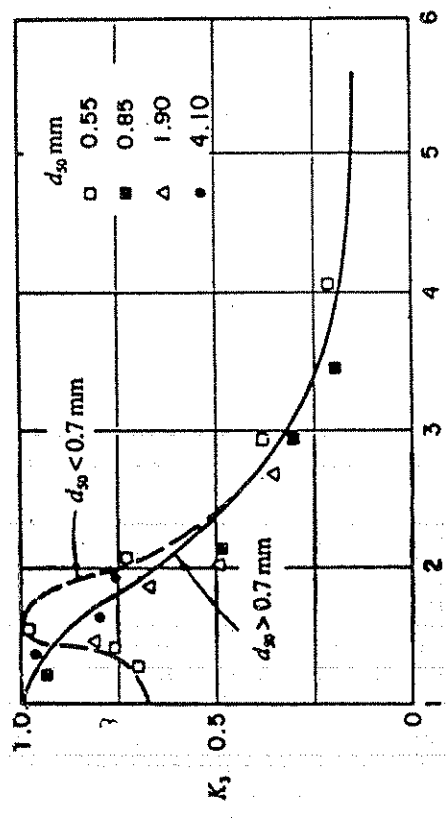
امت ها نظله شکار، باید، زاویه قرار گرفتن پل نسبت به جریان و غیر یکنواختی ذرات

(۳۶۱)

آزمایشگاه می باشد و این روابط را می توان بصورت فرمول کلی زیر هم نوشت:

$$\frac{d_g}{d_o} = a \left( \frac{L}{d_o} \right)^\alpha (F_o)^\beta \quad (۸-۲۵)$$

در این رابطه  $d$  عمق آب شستگی،  $d_o$  عمق آب،  $L$  طول دیواره (عود بر سواحل رودخانه)،  $a$  ضرایبی هستند که از اطلاعات آزمایشگاهی تعیین خواهند شد.



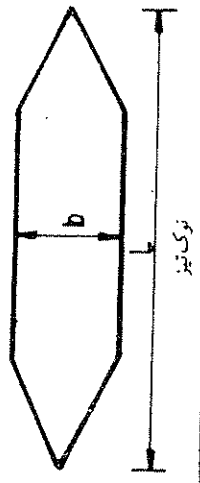
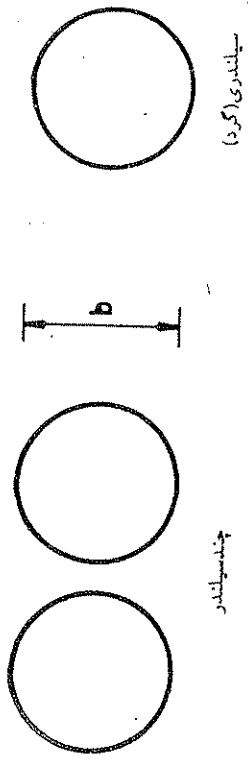
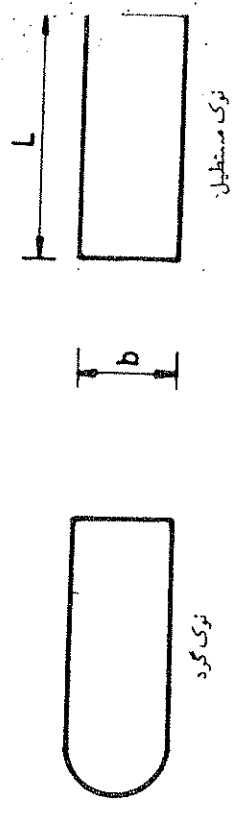
$$K_3 = \sqrt{d_{50}/d_{16}}$$

شکل (۸-۳): ضریب اصلاحی  $K_3$  برای تأثیر ضریب غیر یکنواختی مصالح

بستر رودخانه (Enema, 1980)

برای دیواره های جانبی که  $0 < \frac{L}{d_o} < 25$  و دیواره شیب دار باشد آقای لیو و همکاران<sup>(۱)</sup> مقادیر زیر را برای  $a$  و  $\beta$  بدست آوردند:

$$a = 1.1$$



ضریب اصلاحی $K_2$		ضریب اصلاحی		نوع پایه
$L/b = 12$	$L/b = 8$	$L/b = 4$	$\theta$	
۱/۰	۱/۰	۱/۰	۰	نوک مستطیل
۲/۵	۲/۰	۱/۵	۱۵	نوک گرد
۳/۵	۲/۵	۲/۰	۳۰	سیلندری
۴/۳	۳/۳	۲/۳	۴۵	نوک تیز
۵/۰	۳/۹	۲/۵	۹۰	چند سیلندر

جدول (۸-۲): ضرایب اصلاح  $K_1$  و  $K_2$

$C_v$  which takes the value 1 for straight channels and for the inside of bends. In these situations laboratory studies have indicated vertical velocity profiles following a power law; the profiles became more uniform in height at the outer side of bends. Because of this increase in velocity near the bed (probably caused by secondary currents), there is greater potential for riprap movement.  $C_v$  can be calculated as follows (Maynard, 1993):

$$C_v = 1.283 - 0.2 \log_{10}(R/W) \quad (2.24)$$

and

$$C_v = 1 \quad \text{for } R/W \geq 26 \quad (2.25)$$

where

$R$  is the centreline radius of the bend

$W$  is the water surface width at the upstream end of the bend.

Depending on the geometry of the bend, this coefficient will typically increase the size of the necessary stone or blocks by up to about 30%, when compared with conditions in straight channels. Although this coefficient was derived for the US Army Corps of Engineers' Design Procedure, in view of the lack of other suitable formulae, its use is suggested for application with the other design equations presented in Chapter 4.

Care should be taken in the application of this coefficient for bends in highly turbulent environments. The coefficient was introduced to reflect non-standard velocity profiles, which can be due to a number of causes, one of them being high turbulence. Where flows are very turbulent (for example downstream of hydraulic structures) the approach recommended in Section 2.4.1 should be followed since it is likely that the destabilising effect of turbulence will override that of bends.

Based on work developed in bends with  $R/W = 2.3$ , the US Army Corps of Engineers (1981) recommends that protection should be extended upstream to a minimum of one mean water surface width and downstream to a length 1.5 times the mean water surface width.

#### 2.4.3. Scour around structures

Encounters between the flow and obstructions to its motion such as bridge piers, groynes (or spur dykes) and bridge abutments, result in marked changes in the vertical velocity profile and in the level of turbulence of the flow. In alluvial rivers and channels these changes, in turn, are likely to generate erosion of the following types:

- erosion due to the increase in velocity resulting from a reduction in cross-section imposed by the structure
- localised erosion that is produced directly by the presence of obstructions in the flow path.

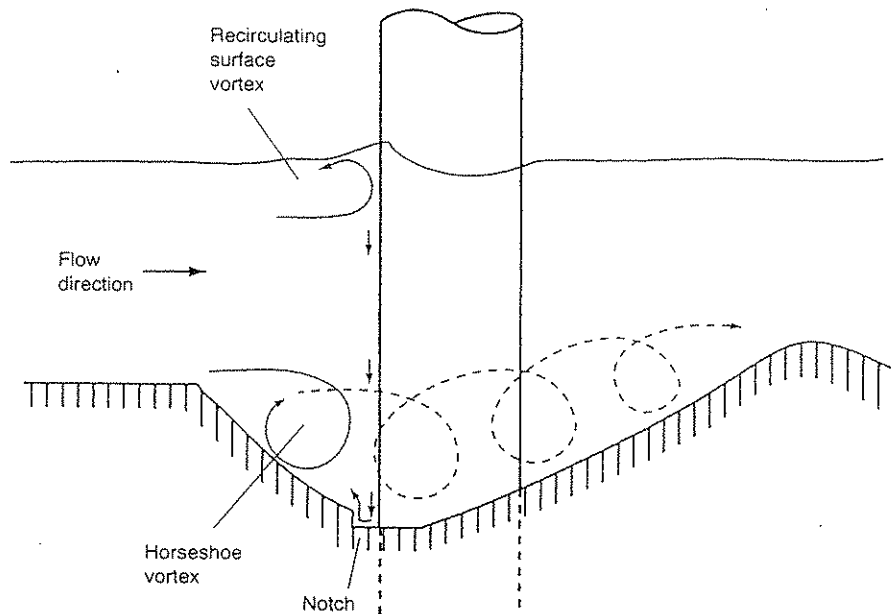


Figure 2.19. Illustration of flow patterns around structures (from May and Willoughby, 1990)

Although the resulting flow pattern is dependent on the shape of the obstruction, some flow features have been observed that are common to most cases, whether the obstruction is a circular bridge pier or an abutment, for example. These features, which are illustrated in Figure 2.19, include an upstream surface roller, descending flow along the face of the structure and wake and horseshoe vortices.

A comprehensive description of the complex processes of scour generation and development is beyond the scope of this book, but it is important to point out a few aspects. The first aspect is that erosion and ultimate scour depths around structures depend on a wide number of parameters that need to be considered in design: the flow depth and velocity, the shape, size and orientation of the structure and the bed sediment are the main ones in current flows.

In situations where waves or tides are present, the complexity of scour problems is further enhanced by the limited information available in the existing literature. This is also the case for local scouring in rivers and channels with cohesive beds, as most studies have dealt with granular materials. It should also be pointed out that, as mentioned earlier, local scour is in part produced by an increase in the turbulence of the flow. Section 2.4.1 deals with the effect that high levels of turbulence have on stability of river revetments and some limited guidance is given there for protection near bridge piers.

### Protection of bridge piers

One way of protecting the foundations of bridge piers consists of preventing the development of local scour holes around piers by means of an apron. The apron

may be formed by riprap, gabion mattresses, concrete block mattresses or other suitable material.

Neill (1973) recommends that the apron be laid below the expected general scour level. As a guideline for design, the extent of the apron around the pier should be approximately 1.5 times the pier width. In the case of a riprap mattress, the thickness should not be less than twice the  $D_{50}$  of the stone.

The sizing of the apron material can be carried out using Equations (2.17), (2.19) or (2.22) recommended in Section 2.4.1. When using Equation (2.17), Table 2.6 should be consulted for the choice of turbulence intensity  $TI$ . The value of flow velocity for use in the protection of bridge piers is the velocity through a span of the bridge. When using Equations (2.19) and (2.22), it is important to note that, in general, local scour starts at about half the threshold velocity of the sediment in the undisturbed bed upstream of the pier. For this reason, the value of flow velocity to be used in the equations should be twice the mean cross-sectional velocity upstream of the pier.

For complex situations the reader is recommended to consult other publications (for example, Neill, 1973, and Breusers and Raudkivi, 1991), which give formulae for the estimation of likely scour depths around structures and guidance on measures to limit scour development. For the particular case of cofferdams or caissons, which are large obstructions in shallow water (with ratios of water depth to structure width usually of 1 or less), see May and Willoughby (1990). In many cases, however, it is advisable to conduct physical model tests to predict scour depths with some confidence.

#### ~~2.4~~ 4. Combined loads

In most situations, the river engineer has to deal with a combination of different loadings, such as currents and waves, due to wind and/or boat movement. The joint action of these loads imposes destabilising forces on revetments that are likely to be more severe than any of the individual forces. However, design information on the sizing of revetments subjected to combined loads is currently not available (at least for the conditions encountered in rivers), and this is an area that requires future research.

The way in which different hydraulic loadings combine is a complex subject, more accurately dealt with by probabilistic methods of revetment design since the probability of loads occurring at the same time is an important factor. Although this book adopts a deterministic approach, some guidance is nonetheless given here for sizing of revetments under combinations of currents and waves. An approximate analysis was carried out in which the effect of waves on stability of revetments was considered to be represented by an equivalent flow velocity. This was defined as  $c(gH)^{0.5}$ , where  $c$  is a numerical constant,  $H$  is the design wave height and  $g$  is the acceleration due to gravity. Consideration of the resultant of the fluid forces due to the combined waves and currents led to the following approximate guideline:

(prg)



## I-3 - GroyneS (And Abutments)

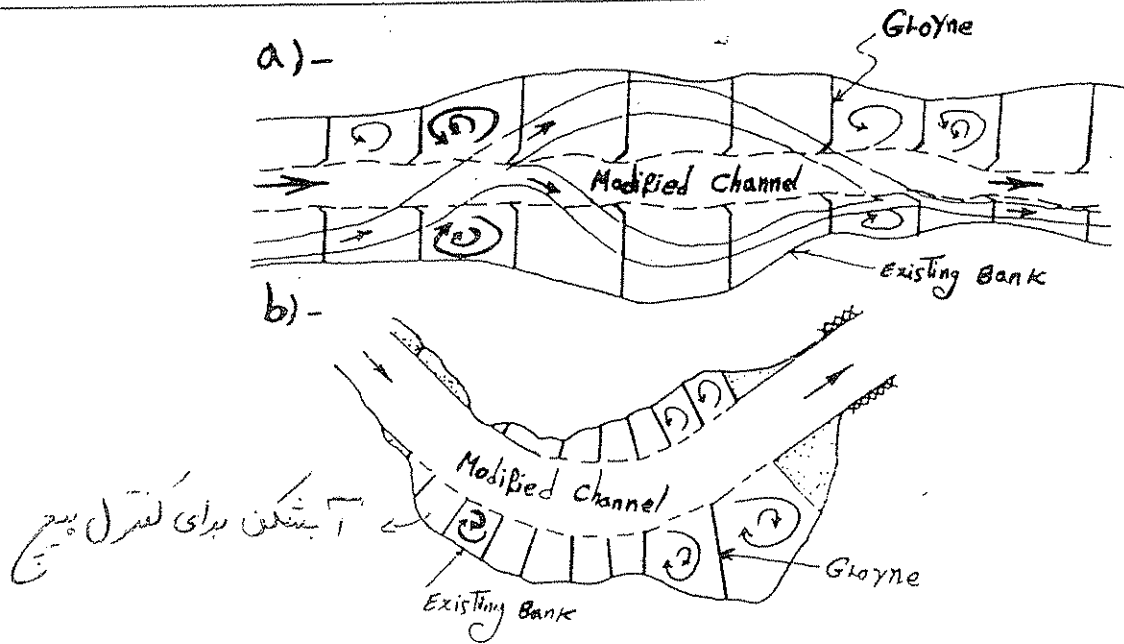


Fig. (7). River Training and Streambank Protection by GroyneS. a) - Straight reach; b) - River bend.

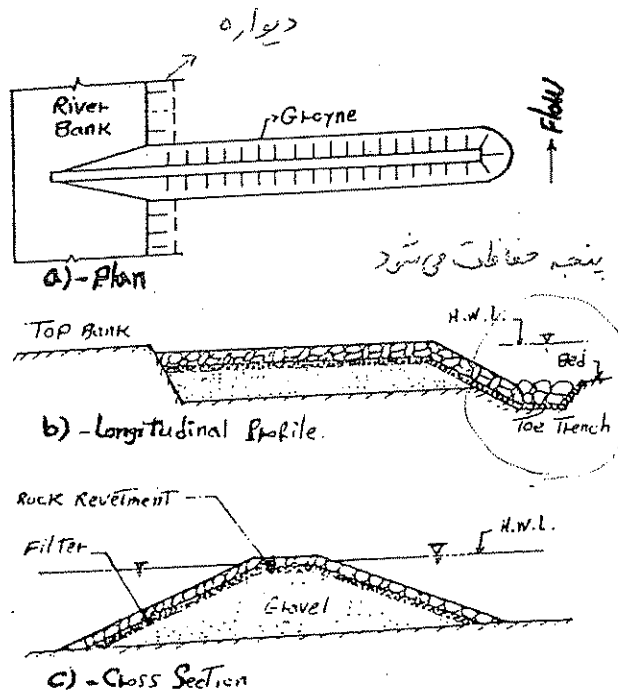


Fig. (8). A Typical Stone-filled Groyne.

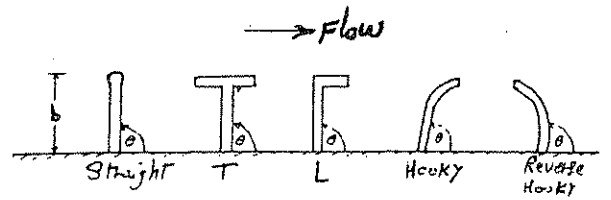


Fig. (9) - Types of GroyneS.

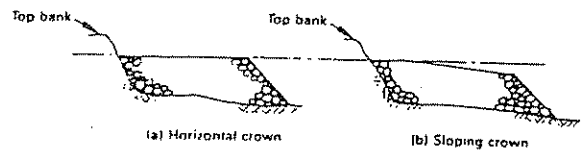
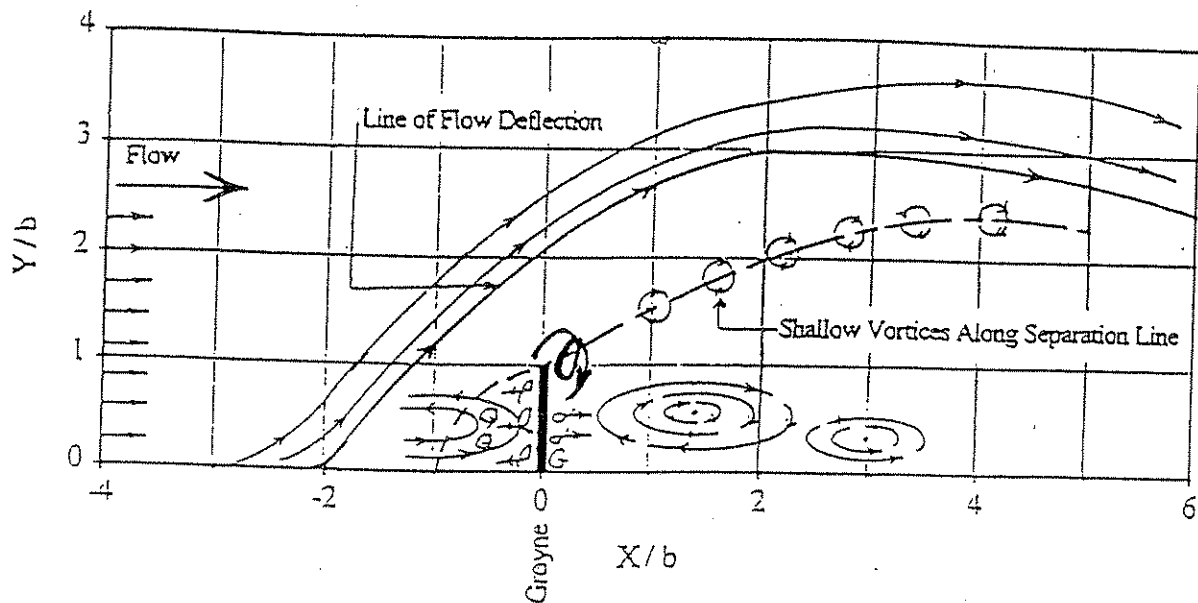


Figure (10). Crown profiles for GroyneS.

(a): Plan view of flow pattern near water surface



(b): Cross-sectional profile near the tip of the groyne

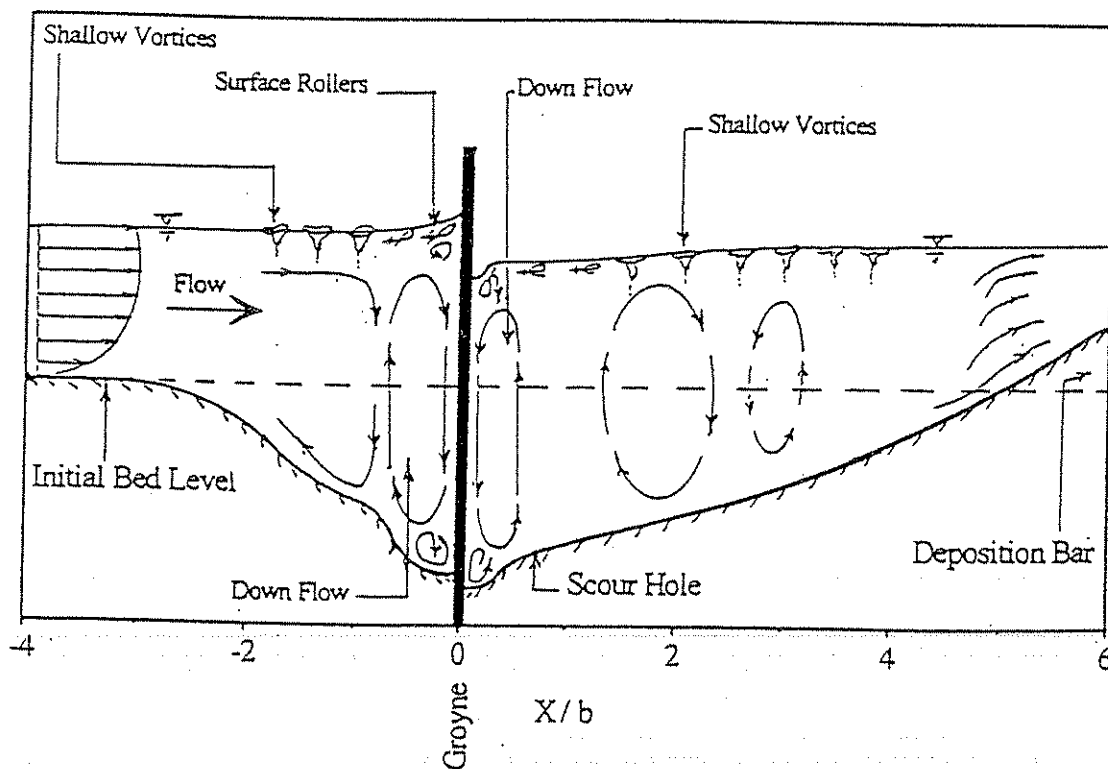
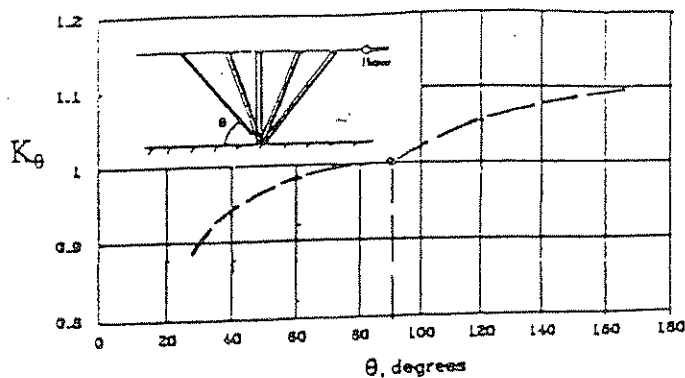


Figure (4-26): A schematic view of flow pattern around the groyne



$$K_{\theta} = 1 \quad \leftarrow \theta = 90$$

Figure (2-2): Inclination factor of dike (groyne),  $K_{\theta}$ ; (Melville, 1992)

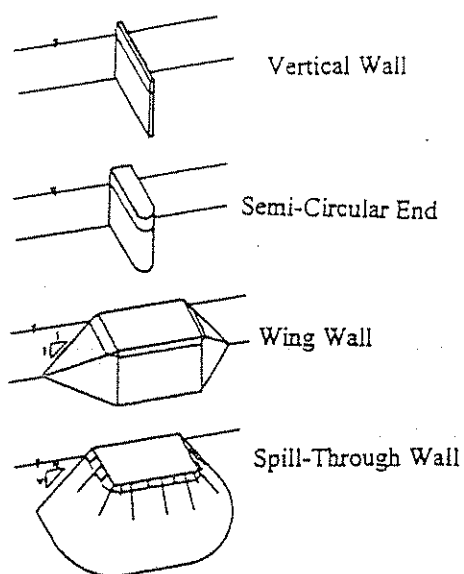


Figure (2-3): Dike (groyne) shapes; (Melville, 1992)

Table (2-3): Dike-shape factor,  $K_s$ ; (Melville, 1992)

Shape	Shape Factor, $K_s$
Vertical-thin plate or narrow vertical wall	1.0
Vertical wall with semicircular end	0.75
45-degree wing wall	0.75
Spill-through dike (H : V):	
0.5 : 1	0.60
1 : 1	0.50
1.5 : 1	0.45

رابطہ برآورد عمق آسبندگی پیرامون یک آب شکن سادہ

Table (2-2): Predictive equations for maximum scour depth near a single groyne

N0.	Method	Relative Maximum Scour Depth: $(ds+h)/h$	Type of the Approach
1	Ahmad (1951)	$= C_1 \cdot (1/h) \cdot [(Q/(B-b))^\alpha]$	Dimensional Analysis
2	Awazu (1967)	$= C_1 + C_2 \cdot \text{LOG}[(b/N_0)/(1/b_0/N_0)]$ $N_0 = (g \cdot a^3)/h^3 ; (1/b_0/N_0) = C_3 \cdot (1/C_4 \cdot a \cdot C_5)^{1/2}$	Dimensional Analysis
3	Blench (1969)	$= C_1 \cdot (1/h) \cdot [(Q/(B-b))^\alpha \cdot (F_{b0})^{-\beta}]$	Lacey - Regime Concept
4	Couto et al. (1994)	$= 1 + C_1 \cdot (b/h)^{-\alpha} \cdot (h/D_{50})^\beta \cdot F_r^\gamma$	Regression Analysis
5	Das (1972)	$= C_1 \cdot [10^{(a-\alpha)} \cdot F_r^\beta \cdot (D_{50}/h)^{-\gamma}]$	Dimensional Analysis
6	Gill (1972)	$= C \cdot [(D_{50}/h)^\alpha \cdot (1/a)^\beta]$	Analogy to Long Contraction
7	Garde et al. (1961)	$= C_1 \cdot [(1/a) \cdot F_r^\alpha]$	Dimensional Analysis
8	Inglis (1949)	$= C_1 \cdot (1/h) \cdot (Q/f)^\alpha$	Lacey - Regime Concept
9	Izzard and Bradley (1957)	$= C_1 \cdot (1/h) \cdot [(Q/(B-b))^\alpha]$	Lacey - Regime Concept
10	Khosla (1936)	$= C_1 \cdot (1/h) \cdot [(Q/(B-b))^\alpha \cdot (f_l)^{-\beta}]$	Lacey - Regime Concept
11	Lacey (1929)	$= C \cdot (1/h) \cdot (Q/B)^\alpha \cdot (f_l)^{-\alpha}$	Lacey - Regime Concept
12	Laurisen (1962, 1963)	$= C_1 \cdot (b/h) \cdot [(C_2 \cdot d_s/h + 1)^\alpha - 1]^{-1} + 1$	Analogy to Long Contraction
13	Liu et al. (1961)	$= C_1 + C_2 \cdot [(B-b)/h]^\alpha \cdot (1/a)^\beta \cdot F_r^\gamma$	Dimensional Analysis
14	Mukhamedov et al. (1971)	$= (C_1/h) \cdot [5 \ln^{10} \varphi \cdot C_2 \varphi^{10} / (a \cdot (D_{50}/D_m)^{10}) \cdot (1 + 0.09 C)] \cdot [(U_* \cdot h^{1.5}) / \varphi^{0.5} \cdot (1 + 135 F_r)^{10}]$	Dimensional Analysis
15	Melville (1992)	$= 2K_s(b/h) + 1 ; (b/h) < 1$ $= 2K_s K_0 \cdot (b/h)^{0.5} + 1 ; 1 \leq (b/h) \leq 25$ $= 10K_0 + 1 ; (b/h) > 25$	Dimensional Analysis
16	Rajaratnam and Nwachukwu (1983)	$= 1 + C_1 \cdot (1/b/h)$	Dimensional Analysis
17	Zaghlool (1983)	$= C \cdot (1/a) \cdot (\theta)^{-\beta} \cdot (F_r)^\gamma$	Dimensional Analysis ; Lacey - Regime Concept
18	Zhao (1994)	$= 1 + (1/h) \cdot [C_1 \cdot (h/3b)^\alpha \cdot (V/U_s)^\alpha \cdot (b-h) \cdot K_\theta \cdot K_\varphi]$	Analogy to Bridge Pier

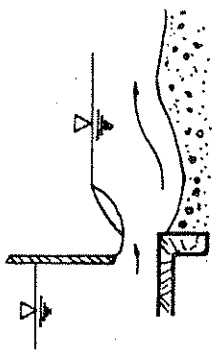
B = Channel width ; b = Groyne length ; a = (B-b)/B = constriction ratio ;  $\varphi$  = Groyne inclination angle ;  $\phi$  = Groyne side-slope angle

Q = Flow rate ; h = Water depth at upstream ; hm = Max. water depth at upstream ; V = Q/(B·h) = Mean velocity at upstream

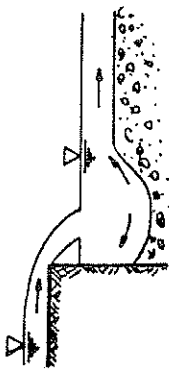
Vm = Max velocity at upstream ; Fr = V/(g·h)<sup>0.5</sup> Froude number ; Tb = Bed-shear stress ; Tc = Critical bed-shear stress

D50, D85 = Size of bed material ; ds = Maximum depth of scour at the tip of groyne ( at equilibrium state )

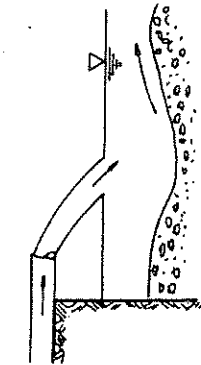
$\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  = Constant Coefficients ; C, C1, C2, C3 = Constants, also include the Unit System



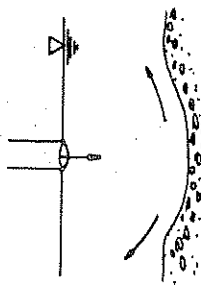
(ب) پائین دست دریاچه کشونی  
جهت افقی



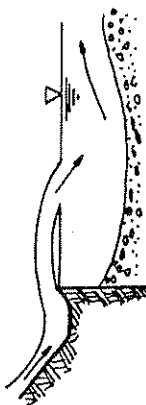
(الف) پائین دست آبشار عمودی



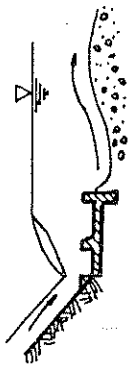
(د) پائین دست سرریزهای لوله‌ای



(ج) جهت عمودی دایره‌ای



(و) پائین دست پاکت



(ه) پائین دست حوضچه آرامش



(ز) پائین دست سازه‌های کنترل شیب

شکل (۸-۷): نمایش فرسایش موضعی پائین دست سازه‌های مختلف هیدرولیکی

$$\frac{Q}{q d_0} = 2.75 \left( \frac{d_s}{d_0} \right) \left[ \left( \frac{d_s}{4.1 d_0} + 1 \right)^{7/6} - 1 \right]$$

که با توجه به اینکه عرض مسیل ۱۰۰۰ متر می‌باشد بنابراین:

$$Q_0 = \text{دبی در مسیل برابر } 850 \text{ m}^3 / \text{sec}$$

$$\frac{850}{14 \times 1.52} = 2.75 \left( \frac{d_s}{1.52} \right) \left[ \left( \frac{d_s}{4.1 \times 1.52} + 1 \right)^{7/6} - 1 \right]$$

و از آنجا:

$$d_s = 10.34 \text{ متر}$$

### ۸-۵- عمق آب شستگی پائین دست سازه‌های هیدرولیکی

آب شستگی موضعی پائین دست سازه‌های هیدرولیکی نظیر سدها، سرریزها، شوت‌ها، سازه‌های پله کانی و غیره پدیده طبیعی است که بدلیل وجود سرعت محلی بیش از سرعت بحرانی بوجود می‌آید و دلایل آن را می‌توان به صورت زیر بیان کرد:

- (۱) ناکافی بودن مقدار استهلاک انرژی
- (۲) تشکیل پرش هیدرولیکی ناپایدار و یا انتقال پرش خارج از کف حوضچه آرامش.
- (۳) بوجود آمدن جریانهای ادی در پائین دست سازه‌های هیدرولیکی.

شکل (۸-۷) چند نوع سازه هیدرولیکی و آب‌شناسی پائین دست آنها را نشان می‌دهد. میزان عمق آب‌شناسی و برای هر یک از سازه‌ها بستگی به شرایط هیدرولیکی جریان و مشخصات رسوب و شرایط هندسی سازه دارد. تخمین میزان عمق آب شستگی از این رو اهمیت دارد که ممکن است باعث تخریب سازه گردد. یک فرمول خاص که بتواند برای تعیین میزان عمق فرسایش در هر یک از حالات ذیل مورد استفاده قرار گیرد وجود ندارد.

۲/۲

نام محقق	شرح مقاله یا کتاب	فرمول
Carroll (1966)	پایین دست دریاچه کبوتری (جست افری)	$\left(\frac{d_s}{d}\right)^6 = 2.85 \times 10^{-3} \left(\frac{V}{V_1}\right)^{2.5} \left(\frac{D_{50}}{D_{90}}\right)^{0.5} \left(\frac{b}{b_1}\right)^{0.5}$
Daddah (1953)	پایین دست دریاچه کبوتری (جست افری)	$\frac{d_s}{d} = \left(\frac{H_{50}}{H}\right)^{0.2} \left(\frac{b}{b_1}\right)^{0.2} \left[\ln 6 \left(0.45 + 0.04 \log \left(\frac{H_{50}}{H}\right)\right)\right]$
Eggenberger (1963)	پایین دست سد و سد های کبوتری	$d_s = 22.8 \frac{H^{0.5} q^{0.6}}{D_{90}^{0.4}} \cdot Y^2$
Eggenberger (1963)	پایین دست سد و سد های کبوتری	$d_s = 10.35 \frac{H^{0.5} q^{0.6}}{D_{90}^{0.4}} \cdot Y^2$
Frank (1960)	پایین دست سد و سد های کبوتری	$d_s = 2.42 \frac{H^{0.5} q^{0.6}}{D_{90}^{0.4}} \cdot Y^2$
Meade (1964)	سد و سد های کبوتری	$d_s = \frac{C}{Y} \left(\frac{q}{Y}\right)^{0.5} \left(\frac{D_{90}}{D_{50}}\right)^{0.6}$
Schickel (1932)	سد و سد های کبوتری	$d_s = 4.75 \frac{H^{0.5} q^{0.6}}{D_{90}^{0.4}} \cdot Y^2$
Valiani (1969)	پایین دست سد و سد های کبوتری	$\log \left(\frac{d_s}{d}\right) = \frac{V \sqrt{q^2 - 0.2}}{4.7} + 0.55 \log \left(\frac{D_{90}}{b}\right)$
Mackin (1967)	سد و سد های کبوتری (پایین دست سد و سد های کبوتری)	$d_s = \frac{2.89 q^{0.6}}{D_{90}^{0.4}} \left(\frac{d_s}{d}\right)^{0.91} \cdot d^2$
Shahin & Bousmina (1991)	پایین دست سد و سد های کبوتری	$d_s = \left[ \frac{2.32}{\sin \phi} \frac{V^2 Y^{0.25}}{D_{90}^{0.25}} \sin \phi + \alpha \right] \sin \phi \cdot d$

جدول ۸-۴ معادلات تجربی برای تخمین میزان آب شستگی موضعی پایین دست سد های سد و سد های

(۵۷۸)

ال (۸-۳):

مطلوب است تعیین حداکثر عمق آب شستگی پایین دست دریاچه کبوتری در  
دریاچه کبوتری که:  
ادبستراز نوع شن با  $7 \text{ mm} = D_{90}$  و  $5 \text{ mm} = D_{50}$  و  $G_s = 2.65$  و  $\phi = 38^\circ$   
ن در واحد عرض  $m - \text{Sec}^{-1}$  و عمق آب بالا دست دریاچه ده متر و عمق باز  
گی  $3.36$  متر و عمق آب پایین دست  $5$  متر می باشد.

ی محاسبه میزان عمق آب شستگی، می توان از رابطه اگن برگر، یا کارستز و یا  
ن تالین به شرح زیر استفاده کرد:

ده های موجود:

$$d_s = 10.35 \frac{H^{0.5} q^{0.6}}{D_{90}^{0.4}} \cdot d^2$$

$$H = 10 - 5 = 5, q = 2, D_{90} = 7, d_2 = 5$$

$$d_s = 10.35 \frac{5^{0.5} 2^{0.6}}{7^{0.4}} \cdot 5 = 11.11 \text{ m}$$

نار  $d_s$ :

$$\left(\frac{d_s}{d}\right)^6 = 2.85 \times 10^{-3} \left(N_s^2 - 4\right)^{2.5} \tan \phi \left(\frac{D_{50}}{d}\right) \left(\frac{V_1}{d}\right)$$

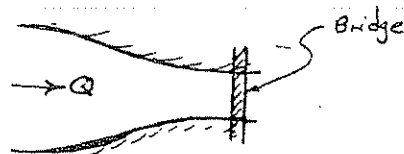
ی واحد عرض دریاچه ( $b = 1$ ) محاسبات انجام می شود.

①

(a) A stream of width 40 m flows on a slope of 0.001. The stream contracts smoothly through a bridge site whose width is 10 m. The bed comprises alluvial material of  $D_{75}$  size 10 mm. For a discharge of 50  $m^3/s$  and an upstream bed elevation of 100.0 m, determine the bed elevation within the bridge site.

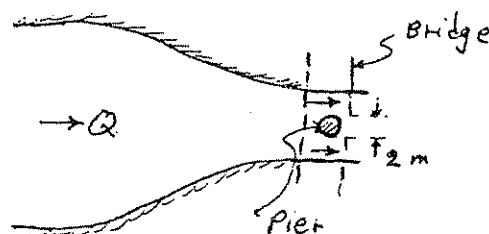
Assume:

- \* No energy loss through the bridge site
- \* The stream cross-section is rectangular
- \* Flow within the bridge site may be modelled as uniform flow
- \*  $n = 0.038 D_{75}^{1/6}$



(b) The constructed bridge has two spans and the central pier is a cylinder of diameter 2 m.

Using a suitable equation, calculate the bed elevation immediately adjacent to the pier.



Hint: Total Scour = General Scour + Local Scour

② مکانیزم جریان فرسایش را در حالات زیر بطور خلاصه و دقیق شرح دهید.  
الف) آشنایی عمومی در اثر کاهش عرض رودخانه در یک طرح اصلاح مسیر.  
ب) آشنایی مفهومی در محل پایه یک پل.

ادامه (۲)

- ج) آسبستگی موضعی پیرامون یک آب‌نگن (Groyne).  
 د) آسبستگی موضعی در پائین‌رست یک آبشار قائم (A vertical drop).

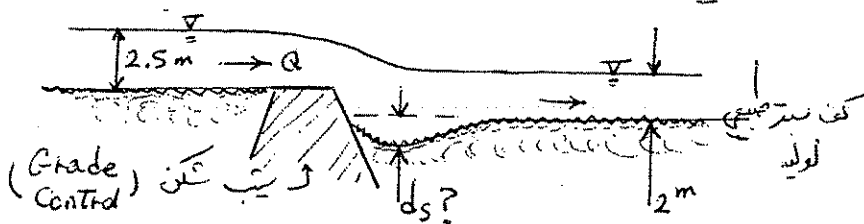
۳) روش‌های حفاظت یک سازه (نظیر پایله آب‌نگن) را در برابر تخریب ناشی از وقوع آسبستگی موضعی نام برده و بطور خلاصه شرح دهید.

- ۴) تفاوت در روش تحلیل آسبستگی را در دو شرایط زیر مشخص کنید:  
 الف) Clear-Water Scour  
 ب) Live-Bed Scour (Sediment Transporting Scour).

۵) عمق آسبستگی موضعی (Max. local scour depth) را در پیرامون یک آب‌نگن (Groyne) با مشخصات زیر با روابط ارائه شده توسط: (۱) Melville (۱۹۹۲)؛ (۲) Liu, et al. (۱۹۶۶)؛ (۳) Laursen (۱۹۸۰)؛ و Froehlich (۱۹۸۷) محاسبه و سپس در یک جدول مقایسه کنید.

شکل مقطع آب‌نگن: (Spill slope, 1.5H:1V) زاویه ران آب‌نگن:  $\theta = 60^\circ$ ؛ طول آب‌نگن:  $L = 60 \text{ m}$ ؛  
 متوسط سرعت جریان بالارست:  $U_0 = 3 \text{ m/s}$ ؛ متوسط عمق جریان بالارست:  $D_0 = 2 \text{ m}$ ؛  
 موارد بستر رودخانه:  $D_{16} = 2 \text{ mm}$ ،  $D_{50} = 6 \text{ mm}$ ،  $D_{75} = 8 \text{ mm}$ ،  $D_{84} = 9 \text{ mm}$ .

۶) ماکزیمم عمق آسبستگی را در پائین‌رست یک سازه سیب‌نگن (کف بند) در بستر یک رودخانه با مشخصات زیر محاسبه کنید.



دبی واحد عرض رودخانه:  $q = 5 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}/\text{m}$

موارد بستر:  $D_{50} = 7 \text{ mm}$ ،  $D_{90} = 10 \text{ mm}$

\* راضیاتی: از رابطه Schoklitsch (۱۹۳۲) استفاده کنید





