# Reconstruction of whitewater kayak waves in Nidelva <br> Master's thesis in Civil and Environmental Engineering Supervisor: Elena Pummer <br> June 2022 

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#### Abstract

Due to changes on the river bed, kayakers in Trondheim lost two popular waves. This thesis aims to reconstruct one of the kayak waves by studying the ideal hydraulic jump for whitewater kayaking. The field that is studied is the Nidelva river, in Trondheim.

A suitable wave for kayaking would be steep, and the water should have a rough surface. Therefore, it is desirable to construct an oscillating jump with a Froude number between 2.5-4.5.

The study investigated the correspondence between a physical and numerical model of the hydraulic jump. The physical model was built in a 1 m wide flume, and scaled 1:50. The numerical model was simulated in Open FOAM. The simulations for this experiment were done with Reynolds-Averaged Navier-Stokes (RANS) equations, utilising the $k-\epsilon$ turbulence model.

Discharge data over the last nine years have been analysed. The discharges 40, 140, 200, 289 and $400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ were chosen to represent the situation in the river and were run in the physical and numerical model. $\mathrm{Q}=40 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ was too small for testing in the physical model.

A hydraulic jump was induced for all tested discharges. Comparing the different results, it appears to be several errors with the physical model. Therefore, data from the numerical model was used to calculate the weir height necessary to induce a satisfying hydraulic jump for given discharges. The calculated weir height shows that a weir with $0.82<\Delta \mathrm{h}$ $<1.42$ will induce a wave for the four tested discharges with a Froude number between 2.5 and 4.5.

Further research aims to use these results to decide whether it is desired to adjust the river bed as the desired wave is established.


Keywords: Hydraulic jump, OpenFOAM, physical model, whitewater kayak

## Sammendrag

Etter å ha endret elvebunnen i Nidelven mistet kajakkpadlere i Trondheim to populære bølger. Denne masteroppgaven tar sikte på å rekonstruere en av kajakkbølgene ved å studere det ideelle vannstandsspranget for kajakkpadling. Området som studeres er Nidelva, i Trondheim.

En bølge for kajakkpadling vil være bratt, og vannet bør ha en ru overflate i en ideell situasjon. Derfor er det $\varnothing$ nskelig å konstruere et oscillerende vannstandssprang med et Froude-tall mellom 2,5-4,5.

Studien undersøkte samsvaret mellom en fysisk og numerisk modell av vannstandsspranget i Nidelva. Den fysiske modellen ble bygget i en 1 m bred renne, skalert 1:50. Den numeriske modellen ble simulert i OpenFOAM. Simuleringene for dette eksperimentet ble gjort med Reynolds-Averaged Navier-Stokes (RANS) ligninger, ved å bruke $k-\epsilon$ turbulensmodellen. Vannføringer fra de siste ni årene ble analysert. Vannføringene 40, 140, 200, 289 og 400 $\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ ble valgt for å representere situasjonen i elven og ble kjørt i den fysiske og numeriske modellen. $\mathrm{Q}=40 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ var for lav for testing i den fysiske modellen.

Et vannstandssprang ble indusert for alle vannføringer. Ved å sammenligne resultatene, ser det ut til à være flere feil ved den fysiske modellen. Derfor ble data fra den numeriske modellen brukt til å designe overløpshøyden som er nødvendig for å indusere et tilfredsstillende vannstandssprang for gitte vannføringer. Den beregnede overløpshøyden viser at et overløp med en høyde på $0,82<\Delta \mathrm{h}<1,42$ vil indusere en bølge med et Froude-tall mellom 2,5 og 4,5 for de fire testede vannføringene.

Videre forskning tar sikte på å bruke disse resultatene til å justere elvebunnen for å etablere den $ø$ nskede bølgen. Elvebunnen bør optimaliseres i den numeriske modellen før den fysiske modellen brukes som prototype.

Nøkkelord: Vannstandssprang, OpenFOAM, fysisk modell, elvekajakk

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## 1 Introduction

Hydraulic engineering has been a central part of society since its inception. Since the earliest societies, water has been an essential factor when settling. Historically, humans have chosen to settle close to rivers because of agricultural and domestic water supply (Fang and Jawitz, 2019). Even though our primary needs induce the choice of settling close to water, as a side product, hydraulic engineering has also been used in the service of aesthetic design and leisure activities. There are several examples of how earlier societies used water for cultural use; there are ruins of decorative fountains from ancient Greece. In Vietnam, traditional theatre uses water as the main element (Gaboriault, 2009).

The kayak is also an example of ancient hydraulic engineering. The Inuits and Aleuts have been practising the kayaking skill since the first migrants settled in Eastern Arctic around 1250 AD (Walls, 2016). The skill has rapidly grown from an essential part of the Inuit lifestyle for hunting and transport. Today advanced hydraulic engineering has been used to optimize kayaks' speed, design, and equipment used in competitions and championships, such as the Olympic Games.

As the world keeps getting industrialized, we have a greater need for recreational activities, and there are constant developments in water sports. The attainment of the skill of Eskimo roll, which was first completed by a European in 1927 but is an old Inuit skill, brought a new dimension of safety to whitewater kayaking (Nickel, 1996). Today this technique is taught as a primary safety method, making kayaking more available.

Because people settled close to water resources years ago, several European cities have a river in the city centre. In several cities, people use these city rivers for water sports. Also, in Trondheim, Nidelva is used for recreational activities. Several sports teams use the river to practice sports, like whitewater kayaking and surfing.

Before 2017, there were primarily two waves in Nidelva that stood out among whitewater kayaking enthusiasts; under the Sluppen bridge and further upstream: the Drop of Death. Elevation differences in the river bed would induce a hydraulic jump in both these areas. This type of wave dissipates a significant amount of energy, creating severe erosion on the river bed and bridge piers. Because of this challenge, the area was filled with course material to minimize the scouring effect. The filling changed the flow pattern in the river,
and the kayakers lost two popular waves.
This thesis aims to study the possibility of reconstructing the river's kayak wave. The kayak wave should be optimized as a hydraulic jump for a wide range of flows and must satisfy the shape conditions for whitewater kayaking. The possibilities of reconstructing the kayak wave will be addressed according to the following research objectives: exploring literature on the topic, simulations in a numerical model, building a physical model, and a recommendation for placing a weir.

The thesis aims to give a recommendation for the changes needed to be made to reconstruct one of the whitewater kayak waves in Nidelva for a wide range of flows.

## 2 Literature review

### 2.1 Physical models

Before the Olympic Games in Athen in 2004, the slalom water course for kayaking was modelled mathematically. To validate the model Christodoulo et al. (2004) built a physical model. These results led to significant modifications of the initially suggested water course. It is concluded that a 1D mathematical model is not sufficient for complex flows.

Lemmin and Rolland (2005) used an ADV in hydraulic research in two laboratory open channels with smooth and gravel beds. The measurement results compare favourably with established laws, for instance, velocities and turbulence. The ADV instrument is a good tool for hydraulic research.

Sweet (2009) used the patent from McLaughlin Whitewater Design Group called Waveshaper to generate waves in a 1:4 scaled physical model. The Waveshaper's use of adjustable vanes induced a robust non-retentive wave for a great variation of flows.

Babaali et al. (2015) compared a numerical simulation of a hydraulic jump with a built physical model. The numerical model was conducted in the commercial software Flow3D and was applied to solve the Navier-Stokes equation. The standard k- $\epsilon$ and RNG model was used to study the turbulence. The physical model and CFD results showed promising results, and Babaali recommends further comparisons of numerical and physical models to understand the flow situation better.

Adjustable flaps have been shown to stabilise the surf wave because they will decrease tailwater flow depths. Fuchs (2017) conducted physical laboratory experiments to quantify the effect of adjustable flaps on generated river surf waves. In a small flume, parameters such as discharge, flow depth, drop height, flap length, and angle were varied until favourable surf wave properties were found. The flap significantly increases the wave height for most discharges and mounting of flaps. However, flaps with a slight angle led to a wave height reduction.

Asiaban et al. (2021) introduced a new mechanism for inducing a hydraulic jump on flat river beds. The mechanism is a construction consisting of a ramp, downfall, transition
and finally, a kicker. The structure is found by adjusting a numerical model before the physical model is built as a prototype.

### 2.2 Numerical simulations

Famiglietti (2010) did a numerical simulation where the aim was to create a kayakingsurfing standing wave for a wide range of flows on the Isar River in Munich, Germany. The geometry was modelled using HEC-RAS and Flow 3D. The thesis reached its' aim of constructing a wave by using two different geometries; one that gives a wave with Froude number 1.7 for each discharge and one geometry that gives a wave for Froude numbers over 1.7 for two hundred days per year. For further research, it is recommended to check the numerical simulations against a physical model.

Borman et al. (2014) used a numerical model of three-dimensional transient two-phase RANS CFD-VOF to predict the position of hydraulic jumps within a complex geometry and flow environment. The environment tested was a recreational whitewater course with significant variations in flow rates. The results demonstrated that this type of CFD reliably can predict hydraulic jumps in open channel flow conditions.

Bayon and López-Jiménez (2015) did a numerical model of a hydraulic jump in an open channel. The study addressed the increase of shear stress because of hydraulic jumps and how this affects erosion on the river bed. Turbulence was modelled using RANS. Bayon created a model using OpenFOAM that can be used to study hydraulic jumps with complex geometries.

### 2.3 Field experiments

Lane et al. (1998) wrote a paper describing the use of instruments for determinating three-dimensional flow velocities in rivers; the ADV included a method for positioning and orienting such measurements relative to the local coordinate system to relate flow velocity vectors with the bed and water surface. With this discovery, it was possible to create velocity profiles of the river area.

Laboratory experiments and field investigations Fujita et al. (1998) showed that the LSPIV is a reliable and economically efficient flow diagnostic tool. The output of the

LSPIV analysis is a velocity profile that can be used to calculate, for instance, the Froude number.

Lester et al. (2012) did his master thesis of landscape architecture about Whitewater park design. He identified seven design principles for constructing whitewater through interviews with whitewater designers. The conclusion is that adjustability is the essential principle to allow stakeholders to influence the decisions.

## 3 Theory

### 3.1 Whitewater kayaking

Whitewater kayaking is not much like peaceful ocean kayaking. After dialogue with different kayak enthusiasts from among others, Trondheim kayakklubb, it is stated that practising whitewater kayaking is about finding a perfect wave. In the wave, the kayakers will perform other acrobatics or technical moves. Therefore, river kayaking is about finding a perfect wave where the kayaker can stay and play for a more extended time.

Eddies are essential to do the same wave over again. When doing a wave, kayakers aim for eddies from hydraulic jumps. If they manage to flow with the eddies, they will get some time to rest and the possibility to do the same wave again. This environment, a steep wave with a rough water surface and eddies, is the ideal kayak situation.

### 3.1.1 The hydraulic jump

A hydraulic jump occurs when the flow regime changes rapidly from supercritical to subcritical. The rapid change of flow regimes dissipates a significant amount of energy. Hydraulic jumps are therefore used either as energy dissipation below hydraulic structures or are unwanted because they contribute to erosion on the river bed. (Ghaderi et al., 2020). In the case of whitewater kayakers, hydraulic jumps are highly wanted. Figure 3.1 shows an example of a hydraulic jump.


Figure 3.1: A hydraulic jump in the Drop of Death, Nidelva, taken 23. February 2022. $\mathrm{Q}=102.4 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$

Hydraulic jumps occur in different shapes, depending on, i.e. cross-section, discharge, bathymetry and bed roughness. The different hydraulic jumps are best expressed by the inlet Froude number (Chow, 1959).

## - Pre-jump Fr=1

To induce a hydraulic jump, the flow must transition from supercritical to subcritical flow; it then transits through the critical flow where the Froude number is 1. This jump is the smallest and has a smooth water surface.

## - Undular jump $1<\mathrm{Fr}<1.7$

The surface of the water is rotating, creating small, steady waves. There is little energy loss in this wave, practically zero. Illustrated in figure 3.2.


Figure 3.2: Illustration of an Undular jump (Chow, 1959)

- Weak jump $1.7<\mathbf{F r}<2.5$

Small rollers are created on the water surface. Downstream of the jump, the water surface is smooth. This jump occurs when the velocity of the water is rather low. Illustrated in figure 3.3.


Figure 3.3: Illustration of a Weak jump (Chow, 1959)

## - Oscillating jump $2.5<\mathrm{Fr}<4.5$

Oscillating jets enter the jumps; this creates large waves of irregular periods. Downstream of the jump, relatively large waves are created, making a rougher water surface. Illustrated in figure 3.4.


Figure 3.4: Illustration of an Oscillating jump (Chow, 1959)

## - Steady jump $4.5<\mathbf{F r}<9$

These waves are created in stable conditions, a clear static hydraulic jump. The wave creates an energy dissipation. The water surface is rough. Illustrated in figure 3.5 .


Figure 3.5: Illustration of a Steady jump (Chow, 1959)

## - Strong jump $\mathbf{9}<\mathbf{F r}$

The water surface is rough, and the waves continue for a long distance downstream of the jump. Therefore, this substantial jump creates strong forces at the bed bottom and is often to be avoided because of bed erosion. Special about this jump is that the water flow changes from supercritical to subcritical in a shorter length than the other jumps. Illustrated in figure 3.6.


Figure 3.6: Illustration of a Strong jump (Chow, 1959)

The kayak is first to be analyzed when studying the perfect kayak wave. Unlike ocean kayaking, the kayaks used for river kayaking are short. Therefore, these kayaks are suitable for steeper waves than surfers, with longer boards. The undular jump is the steepest of the waves, but the water surface is too smooth downstream of the jump (Chow, 1959). Therefore, the desired wave is the oscillating jump. This wave is steep, and downstream it has several smaller waves and a rough water surface, a whitewater effect. Consequently, it is ideal for constructing a wave with a Froude number between 2.5 and 4.5 that will induce varied discharges in Nidelva.

### 3.1.2 Standing surfing waves in Europe

The popularity of surfing and kayaking is growing, as is the availability of standing surfing waves. Across Europe, several countries construct multiple standing surfing waves in city centres by changing the river bed or introducing adjustable weirs in the rivers. This method has been implemented in several inland countries, where the shoreline and surfing waves are distant. In Nidelva, it would be ideal to change the river bed to induce a hydraulic jump.

For some years, leisure hydraulics have been practised in great pools where a mechanical device or a pump will induce the waves which travel across the pool. This solution gives an environment and a water surface close to what a surfer would experience along the shore. An example of this is shown in figure 3.7 where an artificial surf lake is built in

Queensland, Australia.


Figure 3.7: Photo of a artificial surf lake in Queensland (SurfLakes, 2020)

It is a popular method, but the challenge is to dedicate enough area for these significant installations. Especially in urban areas, it is desired to create area-efficient solutions. As a result, the concept of surfing on a simple standing wave was created. These waves can be made in artificial environments using the natural components and slope of the river.

International Association for Hydro-Environment Engineering and Research's member Magazine, Hydrolink, dedicated in February 2018 an issue to leisure hydraulics, focusing on the standing surfing waves. These installations, made to induce the standing waves, have the same purpose as this thesis; to create a standing kayak/surfing wave for a wide range of flow by using the natural components in the river. In addition, some of the solutions also include a weir or a ramp that is placed in the river.


Figure 3.8: Photo of surfers on the Eisbach river. Photo from Steven A. Martin (Martin, 2019)

The February issue of Hydrolink describes several solutions and approaches for creating an artificial leisure hydraulic area. One of the most well-known is the Eisbach River in Munich, Germany, as shown in figure 3.8. In this river, a standing wave of 1 m forms. The waveforms are due to optimizing the up-and downstream characteristics and the river bed geometry, which adjusts itself according to the discharge (Fuchs, 2017). Since its installation in 1980, the wave has become a popular attraction for surfers and tourists. Because of this success, several European cities have adopted this form of constructing a standing surf wave in the middle of the town. Projects like this are also brought up in Norway. Akerselva, Numedalslågen and Evje are examples of places where studies are made to examine the possibilities of constructing kayak waves. Unfortunately, these were not available for comments.

### 3.2 Study area

The river examined in this thesis is Nidelva, located in Trondheim, Norway, as shown in figure 3.9. The river's discharge varies greatly because three upstream hydropower stations regulate it; Øvre Leirfossen, Nedre Leirfossen and Bratsberg power station. The river originates in Trondheimsfjorden, approximately $8,7 \mathrm{~km}$ north of the studied area. The tide affects the northern part of the river, closest to the fjord. However, the tide does not influence the water depth in the cross-sections examined in this thesis because of the far distance to the fjord.


Figure 3.9: The placing of the study area can be seen as the red dot on the map, Nidelva in Trondehim.

### 3.2.1 Discharge

Because of the regulation from the upstream hydropower plants, the discharge in Nidelva highly varies. According to Statkraft, which controls the plants and monitors the river, there is no "normal" discharge in the river. The day-to-day differences create a challenge when designing a weir whose purpose is to generate a hydraulic jump. Therefore, the weir, or river bed, must satisfy conducting a wave for several discharges. By analyzing discharge data from the last nine years, it is possible to get a mapping of the discharges that dominate the river. The dominated discharge is found by looking at the 40th percentile every day for the last nine years. The 40th percentile corresponds to approximately 150 days a year. These values are presented in figure 3.10, while the minimum, average and maximum of these values are presented in table 3.1.


Figure 3.10: Over a perspective of nine years, this represent the 40 th percentile of discharge in Nidelva.

| Variation in 40th percentile |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Value | Discharge $\left[\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}\right]$ |
| $Q_{\text {min }}$ | 64.95 |
| $Q_{\text {middle }}$ | 102.98 |
| $Q_{\text {max }}$ | 145.38 |

Table 3.1: Flow duration in Nidelva, presented by minimum, middle and maximum of the 40th percentile values the last nine years.

### 3.2.2 Changes in river bed and possible solutions

The flow changes due to the erosion under the bridge are represented in a report from Sweco. Before the filling, the waves in the area attracted many people. In 2015 the Norwegian Championship in slalom kayak was arranged by Trondheim kajakklubb in this area. According to Sweco, three main changes in the rived bed affect the hydraulic jumps.

- The depth between the bridge pillars is decreased. The rived bed has been increased 0.5-1.0 m.
- The difference between before and after the filling can be up to 3 m .
- Before the filling, there was a variation in the depth between the pillars. After the filling, they are all the same.

It is possible to construct an adjustable weir that can be modified for different discharges to facilitate the hydraulic jump. These weirs are a popular solution for similar installations in Southern Europe (Aufleger and Neisch, 2018). This type of weir will be too complex to build and expensive for this project. The preferred solution will be to build a classic weir. Another solution is to remove sediments downstream of the bridge to increase the water depth, but this can be risky considering erosion on the river bed. Because of erosion challenges, Trondheim kommune has forbidden removing sediments under the bridge. The preferred solution is, therefore, to construct a weir. The shape of the weir will be found and optimized by analyzing the water stream in a physical and numerical model of Nidelva.

### 3.2.3 Popular whitewater kayak waves in Nidelva

The kayakers from Trondheim kajakklubb have suggested several areas in the river where a kayak wave is desired.


Figure 3.11: Screenshot of the relevant area between Sluppen and Kroppan bridge in Nidelva.

The first solution is to create a weir downstream of the Sluppen bridge, as shown in figure 3.11 and 3.12. The width of the river channel in this area is 62.3 m , and the distance between the bridge piers is approximately 10 m .


Figure 3.12: Downstream Sluppen bridge, taken 23. February 2022.

Further upstream of the Sluppen bridge, downstream of Kroppan bridge, there is a popular kayak area called "Dødens drop", which translates to "The Drop of Death". A kayak wave in the shape of a hydraulic jump already exists in this area, as shown in 3.13. Before the filling under the bridge, the wave was even steeper and better fitted for whitewater kayaking than it is today. After the filling under the bridge, the tailwater of the hydraulic jump rose and downscaled the jump's effect. Today, the kayakers are still enthusiastic about the wave in the Drop of Death, but it is still possible to optimize the wave, make it even stepper, and adjust it to the kayaker's desires.


Figure 3.13: "The Drop of Death", taken 23. February 2022.

In addition to these two river areas, several smaller drops and rapids can be examined and modelled. For this thesis, "the Drop of Death" will be the main study.

### 3.3 Hydraulics

A numerical model will be simulated to study and validate the desired wave, and a physical model will be built. This subchapter explains the hydraulic principles on which the models are based.

### 3.3.1 The continuity equation

The quantity of water flow will be constant as water flows down a river because it is an incompressible fluid. Therefore, the water must adjust its velocity to be compiled to changes on the river bed and cross-section changes. Since the quantity is constant, so is the product of the velocity and the cross-section area.

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q=U A \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

This equation describes the conservation of mass and forms the basis for many further calculations in hydraulics. It is called the continuity equation. (Chow, 1959)

### 3.3.2 Froude number

The Froude number is very relevant when looking at hydraulic jumps. The number is defined as the square of the ratio of the flow's internal and external forces. U is the flow velocity, and $g$ and $y$ are the gravitonial influence and the water depth.

$$
\begin{equation*}
F r=\frac{U}{\sqrt{g y}} \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The Froude is dimensionless and represents the effect of gravity on the state of flow in a stream (Chow, 1959). The number determines the flow regime, whether subcritical, critical or supercritical. The number also determines the direction the disturbances travel. Therefore, the Froude number determines what type of hydraulic jump will occur.

- $\operatorname{Fr}<1$ sub-critical flow regime The flow is downstream controlled
- $\mathrm{Fr}=1$ critical flow
- $\operatorname{Fr}>1$ supercritical flow

The flow is upstream controlled.

### 3.3.3 Reynolds number

The Reynolds number represents the ratio of internal forces to viscous forces within a fluid. When calculating the Reynolds number, the internal forces are the product of the hydraulic radius and the fluid velocity, while the viscous forces are the kinematic viscosity of the water. The ratio determines whether the flow is turbulent or laminar (Chow, 1959).

- $\operatorname{Re}>2000=$ Turbulent flow
- $\operatorname{Re}<500=$ Laminar flow
- All values between are transition stages

$$
\begin{equation*}
R e=\frac{U R_{h}}{v} \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 3.3.4 Manning's formula

Manning's equation is the most common formula for average velocity in a channel with uniform flow. (Olsen, 2017)

$$
\begin{equation*}
U=\frac{1}{n} R_{h}^{2 / 3} I^{1 / 2} \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here, n is Manning's coefficient, representing the roughness of the channel bed. $R_{h}$ is the hydraulic radius, which is the cross-section area divided by the wetted perimeter. Lastly, I is the slope of the bed.

### 3.3.5 Flow over weir

The Norwegian directorate regarding rivers and water distribution, subordinate to the oil and energy ministry, has published guidelines for designing weirs. (NVE, 2020) For the weirs, the discharge is to be calculated on the following method:

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q=C L_{e f f} H_{O}^{3 / 2} \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here the following parameters are:

- Q is the total water capacity, discharge
- C is the weir coefficient, which is calculated from several empirical formulas. Here, H is the water height above the weir, and B is the width of the weir.
- $L_{e f f}$ is the efficient length of the weir. Which is the length when side contraction is taken into account.
- $H_{O}$ is the designed water height above the weir


### 3.3.6 The height of hydraulic jump

The water level is higher downstream than upstream the hydraulic jump. (Chow, 1959) defines this height ratio and relates it to the Froude number. The ratio is expressed like this:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{y_{2}}{y_{1}}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\sqrt{1+8 F r^{2}}-1\right) \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 3.3.7 Critical flow

When a hydraulic jump is induced, the water transitions from super to subcritical flow. This transmission forces the water through a critical flow situation. Therefore, identifying the critical water depth and velocity can indicate whether or not a hydraulic jump will induce.

The critical flow depth is derived from the sum of energy, also called the specific energy height of water flow in a channel, and is expressed:

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{c}=\sqrt[3]{\frac{q^{2}}{g}} \tag{3.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

By using the continuity equation, 3.1 on this equation, 3.7 the critical velocity can be expressed:

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{c}=\sqrt{g y_{c}} \tag{3.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 3.3.8 The Energy equation

Looking at water flow in an open channel, there are two types of energy; Kinematic energy due to the water velocity and pressure energy due to the weight of the water and the water depth. (Olsen, 2017)

$$
\begin{equation*}
E=E_{k}+E_{p}=y+\frac{u^{2}}{2 g} \tag{3.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Over a weir, the water will go through a critical flow regime before transitioning to supercritical flow downstream. (Olsen, 2017) Therefore, the energy over the weir can be defined as the critical energy, which is denoted:

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{w e i r}=E_{c}=\frac{3}{2} y_{c} \tag{3.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

As energy is conserved, the energy over a weir will be the same downstream. The different parameters are illustrated in figure 3.14, meaning that

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{1}=E_{c}+\Delta h \tag{3.11}
\end{equation*}
$$



Figure 3.14: Illustration of the different parameters occurring in the energy equation.

### 3.3.9 Bed shear stress

The hydraulic jump is often avoided because of its energy dissipation and erosion challenges.
The bed shear stress is calculated to validate a wave's scouring effect on the river bed. This is done by calculating the forces induced on a particle in the water flow (Olsen, 2017). The forces induced are illustrated in 3.15.


Figure 3.15: Illustration of the different forces working on a particle in the river. There is assumed that the particle has a diameter, d .

There are four forces induced on the particle:

- Drag forces, D

$$
\begin{equation*}
D=k_{2} \tau_{0} d^{2} \tag{3.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

The drag force is the water suction and pressure parallel with the river bed. Here $\tau_{0}$ is the bed shear stress.

- Friction forces, F

$$
\begin{equation*}
F=(G-L) \tan (\alpha) \tag{3.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

- Gravity forces, G

$$
\begin{equation*}
G=k_{1}\left(\rho_{s}-\rho_{w}\right) g d^{3} \tag{3.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

- Lifting forces, L

$$
\begin{equation*}
L=k_{3} \tau_{0} d^{2} \tag{3.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

The lifting force is due to the difference in pressure because of local velocity differences in the sediment.

The friction force works parallel with the river bed. The $\alpha$ is the angle of repose of the particle.

The coefficients $k_{1}, k_{2}$ and $k_{3}$ are coefficients for the geometry for different particles. By combining the equations of the forces working on the particle and the equilibrium of forces along the direction of the bed, the expression of Shields number is derived.

$$
\begin{gather*}
F=D  \tag{3.16}\\
\tan (\alpha)\left[k_{1} g\left(\rho_{s}-\rho_{w}\right) d^{3}-k_{4} \tau d^{2}\right]=k_{3} \tau d^{2} \tag{3.17}
\end{gather*}
$$

The equation is solved for d to find the diameter of the sediment that will be eroded.

$$
\begin{equation*}
d=\frac{\tau_{c}}{g\left(\rho_{s}-\rho_{w}\right)\left[\frac{k_{1} \tan (\alpha}{k_{3}+k_{4} \tan (\alpha}\right]}=\frac{\tau_{c}}{g\left(\rho_{s}-\rho_{w}\right) \tau^{*}} \tag{3.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

The parameter $\tau^{*}$ was originally found experimental by Shields (Olsen, 2017) and can be found in Shields diagram 3.16:


Figure 3.16: Shields diagram giving the critical shear stress for movement of a sediment particle from Numerical Modelling and Hydraulics (Olsen, 2017)

The x -axis in the diagram represents the Reynolds number and is denoted as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
R e_{*}=\frac{v_{*} d}{v}=\frac{d \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{\rho_{w}}}}{v} \tag{3.19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here, $v_{*}$ is the sheer velocity of the water, d is the sediment diameter, and $v$ is the viscosity of water. $v_{*}$ can be described as the square root of the ratio between the bed shear stress, $\tau$ and the density of water. The bed shear stress is relevant for solving this equation and is expressed as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tau=\rho g h I \tag{3.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

The critical bed shear stress can be calculated from Equation 3.18 when the diameter of the sediments is known. Then it can be validated whether there will be erosion or not on the river bed. The critical bed shear stress results can be compared to actual bed shear stress, equation 3.20 and it can be validated whether there will be erosion or not.

### 3.3.10 The Navier-stokes equation

The Navier-Stokes equation describes the water velocity, U , in the river, and is expressed:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial U_{i}}{\partial t}+U_{j} \frac{\partial U_{i}}{\partial x_{j}}=\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{j}}\left(-P \delta_{i j}+\rho v\left(\frac{\partial U_{i}}{\partial x_{j}}+\frac{\partial U_{j}}{\partial x_{i}}\right)\right. \tag{3.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

P is the pressure, t is the time, v is the kinematic energy, $\rho$ is the water density and $\delta_{i j}$ is the Kronecker delta. The Kronecker delta is 0 unless when $\mathrm{i}=\mathrm{j}$, then $\delta_{i j}=1$.

Because the flow in the river is turbulence, there is a need to use Reynold's averaged version of the Navier-Stokes equation, also called the RANS equation (Olsen, 2017).

Firstly, assumption of incompressible Newtion fluid is made:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial u_{i}}{\partial x_{i}}=0 \tag{3.22}
\end{equation*}
$$

The velocity is then divided into a fluctating value $u$ and the average value $U$. These parameters are intersteted in 3.21 . By simplifing the equation, the Navier-stokes for turbulence flow is expressed:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial U_{i}}{\partial t}+U_{j} \frac{\partial U_{i}}{\partial x_{j}}=\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{j}}\left(-P \delta_{i j}+\rho \bar{u}_{i} \bar{u}_{j}\right) \tag{3.23}
\end{equation*}
$$

The new term, to the right in 3.23 is Reynold's stress term:

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\rho \overline{u_{i}} \bar{u}_{j}=\rho v_{T}\left(\frac{\partial U_{i}}{\partial x_{j}}+\frac{\partial U_{j}}{\partial x_{i}}\right)-\frac{2}{3} \rho k \delta_{i} j \tag{3.24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here $v_{T}$ is the eddy-viscosity. Inserting 3.24 in 3.23 , the RANS equation is derived.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial U_{i}}{\partial t}+U_{j} \frac{\partial U_{i}}{\partial x_{j}}=\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{j}}\left(-\left(P+\frac{2}{3} k\right) \delta_{i j}+\rho v_{T}\left(\frac{\partial U_{i}}{\partial x_{j}}+\frac{\partial U_{j}}{\partial x_{i}}\right)\right. \tag{3.25}
\end{equation*}
$$

There is a convective and transient term on the right side, and on the left, there is a pressure term, a diffusive term and the stress term derived from Reynold's stress term.

The k in this equation represents the kinetic energy. To solve this equation, there is a
need for a turbulence model.

### 3.3.11 The k- $\epsilon$ turbulence model

The most commonly used turbulence model is the $\mathrm{k}-\epsilon$ model (Jones and Launder, 1973). This model can be used to solve the stress term in 3.25 . The eddy-viscosity is by the $\mathrm{k}-\epsilon$ model expressed as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
v_{T}=c_{\mu} \frac{k^{2}}{\epsilon} \tag{3.26}
\end{equation*}
$$

k is here the kinetic energy, which is defined as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
k=\frac{1}{2} \bar{u}_{i} \bar{u}_{j} \tag{3.27}
\end{equation*}
$$

k is modelled by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial k}{\partial t}+U_{j} \frac{\partial k}{\partial x_{j}}=\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{j}}\left(\frac{v_{T} \partial k}{\sigma_{k} \partial x_{j}}\right)+P_{k}-\epsilon \tag{3.28}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $P_{k}$ is expressed as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{k}=v_{T} \frac{\partial U_{j}}{\partial x_{i}}\left(\frac{\partial U_{j}}{\partial x_{i}}+\frac{\partial U_{j}}{\partial x_{j}}\right) \tag{3.29}
\end{equation*}
$$

The dissipation of k is denoted $\epsilon$, and the expression for the $\mathrm{k}-\epsilon$ model is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial t}+U_{j} \frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial x_{j}}=\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{j}}\left(\frac{v_{T} \partial \epsilon}{\sigma_{\epsilon} \partial x_{j}}\right)+C_{\epsilon 1} \frac{\epsilon}{k} P_{k}+C_{\epsilon 2} \frac{\epsilon^{2}}{k} \tag{3.30}
\end{equation*}
$$

The different constants that are being used in this model are the following (Olsen, 2017):

- $c_{\mu}=0.09$
- $C_{\epsilon 1}=1.44$
- $C_{\epsilon 2}=1.92$
- $\sigma_{k}=1.0$
- $\sigma_{\epsilon}=1.3$


## 4 Modelling of the hydraulic jump

The hydraulic jump will only occur under a flow regime that transitions from super to subcritical. There are several ways to achieve this essential flow transition; one option is to increase the subcritical depth by removing sediments in Nidelva. Because of the challenges of scouring the river bed, Trondheim kommune has forbidden removing sediments under the bridge. There might be possible to remove sediments and increase the water depth by the Drop of Death because it is placed upstream of the bridge. However, it is desired to look most into decreasing the supercritical flow depth.

The decrease can be done by placing a weir on the river bed, illustrated in figure 4.1. The weir will force a supercritical flow. The water will transition through critical flow during the shut of the weir and eventually transition to subcritical flow as the depth increases.


Figure 4.1: Illustration of a weir forcing the flow regime to transfer from supercritical to subcritical.

If the sub and supercritical water depths ratio are insufficient, a weir is essential to force a hydraulic jump (NEH, 2007). The main part of the experiment will be about monitoring how the hydraulic jump behaves and is induced for different water discharges. Secondly, a weir is modelled in the numerical model to examine how decreasing supercritical water depth will improve the hydraulic jump. The measurements that will be made are visual monitoring, velocity and depth measurements, and camera documenting.

### 4.1 Calibration

In 2020 Sweco Trondheim was engaged in a project examining and measuring the area around the Sluppen bridge as a mapping of the consequences of the filling in the river. They, therefore, conducted water depth measurements by the Drop of Death. The measurements were made right under the bridge over the drop. Their results are presented in table 4.1.

| Q Nidelva | Q Drop of death | Water depth |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $289 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | $67 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | 2 m |

Table 4.1: Measurements made by Sweco in 2020. Q Nidelva is collected from sildre.no

These data will be used to calibrate the physical and numerical model. As the table 4.1 shows, there is a difference between the total discharge in Nidelva and the quantitative water that flows through the Drop of Death. The ratio between these two discharges has been used when calculating the discharge over the Drop of Death for other discharges scenarios in Nidelva.

### 4.1.1 Discharge

To validate the assumptions made by looking at the 40th percentile of the discharge over the last nine years, a dialogue was established with Statkraft. Statkraft states that there is no "normal" discharge in Nidelva, but discharges between $40 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ and $200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ are common. In addition to the more common discharges, a recommendation is to test for the typical value during the melting and flood period, respectively, spring and autumn, which is $Q_{10}=400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$. The discharges recommended by Statkraft are listed below in table 4.2 and do not vary much from the 40th percentile values.

| Recomended discharge scenarios from Statkraft |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Value | Discharge $\left[\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}\right]$ |
| $Q_{1}$ | 40.00 |
| $Q_{2}$ | 140.00 |
| $Q_{3}$ | 200.00 |
| $Q_{4}$ | 400.00 |

Table 4.2: Flow duration in Nidelva, recomended from Statkraft.

The water level determines the downstream conditions in Nidelva. One of the challenges
in this modelling is the varieties in discharge from the upstream power plants. Because it is desired to do the test with a controlled discharge, the discharge is defined after dialogue with Statkraft. The discharges that are to be tested are presented in table 4.3 and include the discharges from Statkraft including the discharge present when Sweco did measures in Nidelva.

| Recomended discharge scenarios from Statkraft |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Value | Discharge $\left[\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}\right]$ |
| $Q_{1}$ | 40.00 |
| $Q_{2}$ | 140.00 |
| $Q_{3}$ | 200.00 |
| $Q_{4}$ | 289.00 |
| $Q_{5}$ | 400.00 |

Table 4.3: Discharge in Nidelva, recomended from Statkraft.

The models will be tested under these five conditions.

### 4.2 Physical modelling

The physical modelling will involve building a scaled model of the desired area, the Drop of Death. The model will be built in Norges Hydrotekniske Laboriatorium at NTNU in Trondheim. Trondheim kommune will finance the building of the physical model, which will be used for further research on this topic after these measurements are done.

The physical model building will be simplified by using one of the flumes that already exists in the laboratory, as shown in figure 4.2 . The experiments will be carried out in a rectangular flume that is 12.6 m long, 1 m wide and 1 m deep. The slope of the flume can be adjusted. The flume has transparent walls made of Plexiglas, making it easy to monitor and visually inspect the hydraulic jump. The see-through walls also make documenting the experiment easier because the flow is available for a camera.

The water in the flume is pumped into a closed system. There are two pumps in the system that have a capacity of approximately $260 \mathrm{l} / \mathrm{s}$ each. At the downstream end of the flume, there is a tailgate. By adjusting this, it is possible to change the water level in the flume.


Figure 4.2: The flume were the physical model will be built. The width of the flume is 1 m.

To validate that a wave is the desired oscillating wave, finding the velocity and depth that gives the desired Froude number is necessary. These parameters can be modelled by combining equation (3.2) and Chow's definition of the height of a hydraulic jump, equation (3.6).

The equation (3.6) is solved for the Froude number. The aim is to validate if the Froude number is in the desired interval (2.5-4.5). If not, the water depth is adjusted by a weir in the numerical model.

### 4.2.1 Bathymetry

There are two solutions to how the model of the river bed is to be constructed; one that is somewhat complex and one simplified solution. It is necessary to have detailed and up to date bathymetry of the desired area to build a model as accurate as possible. The bathymetry could then be modelled and scaled digital to be 3D-printed to match the physical model. Building the river bed and weir with gravel or more minor rocks is also
possible. The experiment will eventually consist of the bathymetry placed in the flume with a realistic rock weir. Another option is to make a simplified river bed geometry.

The bathymetry is essential to understanding the geometry of the river bed. The bathymetry is plotted by creating a triangular model in HEC-RAS and importing satellite data. The cross-sections are drawn and scaled in AutoCAD.

The blue rectangular in figure 4.3 shows the part of the river built in the flume. The cross-sections are drawn for every 5 meters as in 4.4, and more often if there are significant elevation differences or changes in the river bed. The cross-sections are then placed in order, and the complete model can be shown as 4.5 .


Figure 4.3: Illustration of the part of the river that is going to be modelled.


Figure 4.4: Cross sections drawn in AutoCAD of the area that is to be modelled.


Figure 4.5: A 3D model of the physical model.

If it is desired to validate the bathymetry, a point of action could be to do new measurements of the environment where it is desired to place the weir. ADCP measurements could do the validation. If these measurements are necessary depends on whether the modelling depends on a true copy of the river geometry or if a simplified geometry is sufficient.

After discussing with experienced lab technicians and supervisors, it is decided that the model will be built with the actual bathymetry from the river but with a smooth surface. The bathymetry is 3D-modeled in AutoCAD. This model is then printed on high-density polyurethane foam, the river bed in the physical model in the flume. One of the river bed modules is shown in 4.6.


Figure 4.6: The finish result after printing the river bed on polyrethane.

The area between the two bridges has a complex geometry because the river turns at this point. The turning and the uneven river bed give a flow situation challenging to study in a physical model, like a flume. The study is challenging because when the river is modelled, the surroundings that do not fit in the flume are either neglected or simplified. Examining the flow situation when entering the modelled area is necessary to get a flow situation as accurately as possible. The flow situation is mapped and recreated in the physical model by examining the river.

### 4.2.2 Scaling by Froude similarity

When deciding the scaling of the model, two main parameters need to be weighed against each other. If the model is too small, it could cause significant scaling issues. At the same time, the costs increase as the model grows in size; here, the flume sets the boundary for the model's size. If the model is scaled less, less area will be modelled. Therefore the river is scaled by $1: 50$.

Froude similarity is the preferred model law because the dominant forces on the particles
in the river are gravitational. To avoid significant scaling issues because of Reynolds similarity, the flow in the flume must be turbulent. In addition, a minimum water depth of $4-5 \mathrm{~cm}$ must be maintained due to the scaling issues of surface tension of water. By using Froude similarity, the scaling ratios presented in 4.4 are to be used (Heller, 2012),

| Froude similarity |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Parameter | Froude scale ratio |
| Length | $\lambda$ |
| Area | $\lambda^{2}$ |
| Time | $\lambda^{1 / 2}$ |
| Velocity | $\lambda^{1 / 2}$ |
| Discharge | $\lambda^{5 / 2}$ |
| Force | $\lambda^{3}$ |

Table 4.4: The scale ratio for different parameters according to Froude similarity

The discharges Statkraft recommended are the amount of water that will pass through the whole cross-section of the river. When the discharges are modelled in the flume, it is necessary to adjust them for the cross-section that is being modelled. The cross-section spans approximately 100 m . The part that is being modelled is more narrow. Therefore the discharge is multiplied by the ratio Sweco found between total and discharge over the drop. The scaling is calculated in python by Froude similarity as shown in 4.7. The results are presented in table 4.5.


Figure 4.7: Calculations and scaling performed in python to find the relevant discharge for the physical model.

| Recomended discharge scenarios from Statkraft |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Value | Discharge $\left[\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}\right]$ | Scaled discharge $\left[\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}\right]$ | Scaled discharge $[\mathrm{l} / \mathrm{s}]$ |
| $Q_{1}$ | 40.00 | 0.0005 | 0.52 |
| $Q_{2}$ | 140.00 | 0.0018 | 1.84 |
| $Q_{3}$ | 200.00 | 0.0026 | 2.62 |
| $Q_{4}$ | 289.00 | 0.0038 | 3.79 |
| $Q_{4}$ | 400.00 | 0.0052 | 5.25 |

Table 4.5: Discharge for physical model, given scaling 1:50.

### 4.2.3 Monitoring and measuring

The flow situation in the flume can easily be monitored by visualising through the walls made of plexiglass. Five cameras are mounted around the flume in the following set-up to document and monitor the flow situations obtained in the flume, as shown in 4.8, 4.9, 4.10 and 4.11 .


Figure 4.8: Mounting of camera 1


Figure 4.9: Mounting of camera 2 and 3


Figure 4.10: Mounting of camera 4


Figure 4.11: Mounting of camera 5

Documenting the flow situation with video cameras will make it easier to communicate the experiment results to stakeholders like Trondheim kajakklubb and kommunen. It will also be added colour drops in the water to better understand the flow situation.

When running the flume with discharges below $11 \mathrm{l} / \mathrm{s}$, the discharge measurement mounted to the pipe system has difficulties reading the discharge. Therefore, to validate the velocity and discharge in the flume, a Vectrino ADV is mounted upstream of the model 4.13. Here the flow is approximately uniform, as shown in 4.12 , so that it will give a good validation of the discharge running over the drop of death.


Figure 4.12: Flow situation by the Vectrino


Figure 4.13: The placing of the ADV, Vectrino

The Vectrino is an acoustic doppler velocity meter, ADV, with an accuracy of $\pm 0.5 \%$ of measured value $\pm 1 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{s}$ (NORTEK, 2018)

The ADV instrument is shaped like a stick with four branches. The ADV is placed vertically in the water through the water surface. By using five transducers, the ADV determines the velocity of the water. The transmitter, one of the transducers, sends out a short acoustic pulse, and the other four transmitters record the echo of the pulse. The echo is processed to find the Doppler shift. Adjustments for the speed of sound in liquids are made, and the velocity is recorded on a computer.(NORTEK, 2018)

The other parameter measured during the experiments is the water depth, an essential parameter to validate the Froude number. Therefore, the inlet will measure the water depth to the model and where the flow is supercritical and subcritical. The water depth is measured with ultrasonic mic+ sensors. The instruments use ultrasonic technology to measure the distance to the water level, which is converted and documented in software. The first sensor is located at the inlet, the second is placed with the movable Vectrino, and the third is placed at the outlet. The degree of precision of the mic+ sensor is $\pm 1 \%$. (Microsonic, 2020)

In addition to the digital instruments, the water depth is controlled manually using a ruler. This validation will minimise the failure and uncertainty of using digital instruments.

### 4.2.4 Experimental Procedure

The hydraulic jump in the Drop of Death will be monitored and studied by running different discharges. The aim is to better understand how the jump changes by different discharges and changes in the river bed. An example of a hydraulic jump in the flume is shown in 4.14. The aim is to run the physical model with representative discharges for the area in Nidelva studied. The final experimental set-up is shown in figure 4.15.


Figure 4.14: The hydraulic jump over the model for a random discharge.


Figure 4.15: The flume where the experiment is conducted.

### 4.3 Numerical modeling

### 4.3.1 Software

The open-source finite volume software OpenFOAM was conducted for the numerical modelling of the Drop of Death. Olsen (Olsen, 2015) used OpenFOAM to model flow and water elevation over a weir with accurate results compared to a physical model. The simulations for this experiment were done with Reynolds-Averaged Navier-Stokes (RANS) equations, utilising the $k$ - $\epsilon$ turbulence model. The specific solver used was interFoam, a volume of fluid (VOF) solver for multiphase flow.

### 4.3.2 Dimensions

Numerical modelling can be time-consuming. Choosing a one-dimensional model can save time but give a less accurate result than a 3D model. The one-dimensional model can present accurate models of hydraulic jumps, but only if they appear uniformly across the cross-section of the river. This is not the case in the Drop of Death. Hydraulic jumps that appear at weirs are localised and can therefore not be said to be uniform across the cross-section as the wave will follow the shape of the weir. (Gordon, 2016). A 3D model is chosen to achieve a comparable result with the physical model and as accurate as possible.

### 4.3.3 Geometry and bathyemtry

Several software is used to preprocess the model. The bathymetry is extracted from a raster file based on in-situ GPS measurements and satellite data. The profile lines are drawn before extracting to AutoCAD by loading the raster file in GIS. In AutoCAD, the profile lines are joined. AutoCAD is conducted to mesh the area between the profile lines. This software makes adjustments so that the topography matches the accurate site. The 3D surface of the bathymetry is then exported as a stereolithographic file (STL format), which can be utilised directly in OpenFOAM.

After the file is exported into OpenFOAM, a mesh of the flow domain is created. The tool blockMesh is used to create s structured grid of cells. These are defined in the blockMeshDict. The initial cell size are approximately $0.3 \times 0.3 \times 0.1 \mathrm{~m}$, in X- Y- Zdirection respectively. Then the structured grid is snapped to the unstructured bathymetry STL file. The snapping is done by snappyHexMesh. The result is an unstructured mesh consisting of $2.010^{6}$ cells.

### 4.3.4 Boundary conditions

While meshing the domain, the boundary conditions are defined. Regarding the velocity, the surfaces representing the river bed are given no-slip boundary conditions.

The outlet is defined by inletOutlet. This means a Dirichlet boundary condition handles outflow. The reverse flow is then defined as zero. variableHeightInFlowRate defines the inlet. This definition means inflow is defined as a fixed volumetric inflow rate. Here the
water level is adjusted according to the calculated water level. The initial water level was set prior to start the simulation. The relevant wall functions were used for the riverbed for the Reynolds-Averaged Stress terms (k, $\epsilon, \mu \mathrm{t}$ ).

### 4.3.5 Solver

OpenFOAM allows discretisation to be set for each variable. As a default second-order Gaussian scheme is set. Whereas variables for the turbulence model, $k-\epsilon$, are discretised by the first-order upwind scheme. The Courant number limited the timestep. For stability reasons, a Co-number under 0.3 is maintained. The VOF-equation is solved with the MULES algorithm. The velocity field is derived from the pressure field using the PIMPLE algorithm, combined with the SIMPLE and PISO method. This explanation can be summarised as an iterative solver that uses a guessed value for the pressure field and solving for the correct pressure and the velocity field.

The model was run for 100 seconds. A stable situation was found, and post-processing was conducted using Paraview, an open-source graphical data analysis tool well suited for handling results from OpenFOAM.

## 5 Results

The physical model was run with the different discharges. The different discharges were conducted through visual monitoring by cameras and water depth measurements. The water discharge was controlled by a Vectrino upstream of the model.

Because the changes and adjustments in the flume were made manually by turning a valve, it was challenging to achieve the proper discharge. Therefore the measured discharge often has a slight variation or deviation from the original discharge.

### 5.1 Calibration

To ensure that the model is tested for a realistic environment, the model was calibrated for the measurement data conducted by Sweco in 2020. To create a realistic environment, it had to be sure that both the discharge and water depth were correct, which, by the continuity equation (3.1) will give a realistically scaled velocity in the flume. The desired values are presented in table 5.1.

|  | Q Nidelva | Q Drop of death | Water depth |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Real | $289 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | $67 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | 2 m |
| Scaled | $0,016 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | $0,0038 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | $0,04 \mathrm{~m}$ |

Table 5.1: Data used to calibrate the model. Measurements made by Sweco in 2020. Q Nidelva is collected from the measurement station Rathe, from sildre.no.

Calibrating the physical model was an iterative process. First, the flume's system was filled with water, ensuring the water level was above the level of the pipes and pump. The water level needed to be monitored during the measuring process, ensuring no air entrainment in the pump system. When the water level was correct, the system was emptied for air. Air in the pumps would cause either inaccurate discharges or the pump stops as a safety measure.

Upstream the model, the Vectrino is mounted, measuring the water velocity. After several measurements and adjusting the inlet from the pump, the correct discharge that corresponds to $67 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ is found. The correct discharge was found by starting the pump and the inlet to the flume; the system would then start pumping water with continuous
discharge. The tailgate is adjusted, so the water flows over the gate to create a realistic environment. This way, the flume is outlet controlled. The tailgate is adjusted until the reference point measure the correct water depth, corresponding to 2 m .

## $5.2 \mathrm{Q}=40 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$

$\mathrm{Q}=40 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ were supposed to be the lowest discharge tested in the physical model. This discharge corresponds to the minimum water flow in Nidelva. Experimenting showed that it was impossible to get this discharge in the flume. The scaled discharge is $0,5 \mathrm{l} / \mathrm{s}$ which is approximately $0,2 \%$ of the maximum capacity of the flume. Several attempts were made to adjust the low discharge, but with no good results.

## 5.3 $\mathrm{Q}=140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$

$\mathrm{Q}=140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ was the lowest discharge that was tested in the flume. The hydraulic jump seen from camera 5 is shown in figure 5.1.


Figure 5.1: Picture of the hydraulic jump induced for $\mathrm{Q}=140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, seen from camera 5. Flow direction from right to left.

The equivalent discharges to $\mathrm{Q}=140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ in Nidelva are presented in table 5.2.

| Q Nidelva | Q Drop of Death | Q flume |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | $32,46 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | $31 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ |

Table 5.2: Real discharge in Nidelva and in the side channel, the Drop of Death and the discharge the experiment is conducted under.

The probes measured the following water depths when running the flume for this discharge. The water depths are presented in table 5.3.

| Measure | Inlet | Supercritical flow depth | Subcritical flow depth |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Probe [V] | 4.7 | 0.62 | 2.8 |
| Water depth $[\mathrm{mm}]$ | 14 | 4.9 | 2.0 |

Table 5.3: Water depths for $\mathrm{Q}=140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ from the physical model

From the visual inspection, the hydraulic jump can be seen as a smaller hydraulic jump. The wave height is significantly lower than for the more significant discharges, but there is a rough water surface and some small eddies occurring even though the discharge is low, as shown in 5.2 and 5.3.


Figure 5.2: The flow situation for $\mathrm{Q}=140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ seen from upstream, camera 1.


Figure 5.3: Picture of the hydraulic jump for $\mathrm{Q}=140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ in Nidelva, seen from camera 3.

The numerical modelling in OpenFOAM shows that a hydraulic jump is induced for $\mathrm{Q}=$ $m^{3} / \mathrm{s}$. The hydraulic jump seen from the same angle as camera 5 is presented in figure 5.4. Figure 5.5 shows the simulation of the hydraulic jump seen from upstream of the jump.


Figure 5.4: Numerical model of the hydraulic jump for $\mathrm{Q}=140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, seen from the side. Flow direction from left to right.


Figure 5.5: Numerical model of the hydraulic jump for $\mathrm{Q}=140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, seen from the top

The measured flow depths in the numerical model were taken in the hydraulic jump's super and subcritical flow regime. The data and the calculated and corresponding Froude
number, equation 3.2, are shown in 5.4.

| Supercritical flow depth $[\mathrm{m}]$ | Subcritical flow depth $[\mathrm{m}]$ | Fr |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0.29 | 1.87 | 2.62 |

Table 5.4: Water depths and Froude number, 3.2 for $\mathrm{Q}=140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, numerical model

## 5.4 $\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$

$\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ is the second-lowest discharge situation tested in the flume. During this discharge, approximately $46 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ runs over the drop of death in Nidelva. The hydraulic jump is more extensive than the lower discharge, the water surface is rougher, and it is a more significant trend for eddies formation - based on visual monitoring. The hydraulic jump is shown in 5.6


Figure 5.6: Picture of the hydraulic jump induced for $\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, seen from camera 5 . Flow direction from right to left.

The equivalent discharges to $\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ in Nidelva are presented in table 5.5.

| Q Nidelva | Q Drop of Death | Q flume |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | $46,4 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | $46 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ |

Table 5.5: Real discharge in Nidelva and in the side channel, the Drop of Death and the discharge the experiment is conducted under.

The probes measured the following water depths when running the flume for this discharge. The water depths are presented in table 5.6.

| Measure | Inlet | Supercritical flow depth | Subcritical flow depth |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Probe [V] | 4.8 | 0.7 | 2.8 |
| Water depth [mm] | 16 | 7.1 | 2.0 |

Table 5.6: Water depths for $\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ from the physical model

The flow situation and the hydraulic jump are documented and shown in 5.7 and 5.8.


Figure 5.7: The flow situation for $\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ seen from upstream, camera 1.


Figure 5.8: Picture of the hydraulic jump for $\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ in Nidelva, seen from camera 3.

The numerical modelling in OpenFOAM shows that an hydraulic jump is induced for $\mathrm{Q}=$ $\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$. The hydraulic jump seen from the same angle as camera 5 is presented in figure 5.9. Figure 5.10 shows the simulation of the hydraulic jump seen from upstream the jump.


Figure 5.9: Numerical model of the hydraulic jump for $\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, seen from the side. Flow direction from left to right.


Figure 5.10: Numerical model of the hydraulic jump for $\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, seen from the top

The measured flow depths in the numerical model were taken in the hydraulic jump's super and subcritical flow regime. The data and the calculated and corresponding Froude
number, Equation 3.2, are shown in 5.7.

| Supercritical flow depth $[\mathrm{m}]$ | Subcritical flow depth $[\mathrm{m}]$ | Fr |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0.39 | 1.93 | 2.41 |

Table 5.7: Water depths and Froude number, 3.2 for $\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, numerical model

## $5.5 \mathrm{Q}=289 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$

$\mathrm{Q}=289 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ was the discharge used to calibrate the model, and because the relationship between water depth and discharge was known, it was decided to use the discharge for further testing.


Figure 5.11: Picture of the hydraulic jump induced for $\mathrm{Q}=289 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, seen from camera 5. Flow direction from right to left.

The equivalent discharges to $\mathrm{Q}=289 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ in Nidelva are presented in table 5.8.

| Q Nidelva | Q Drop of Death | Q flume |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $289 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | $67 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | $64 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ |

Table 5.8: Real discharge in Nidelva and in the side channel, the Drop of Death and the discharge the experiment is conducted under.

The probes measured the following water depths when running the flume for this discharge.
The water depths are presented in table 5.9.

| Measure | Inlet | Supercritical flow depth | Subcritical flow depth |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Probe [V] | 6.8 | 1.8 | 3.0 |
| Water depth $[\mathrm{mm}]$ | 34.0 | 40.0 | 6.0 |

Table 5.9: Water depths for $\mathrm{Q}=289 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ from the physical model

From the visual inspection of the experiment, it can be seen a rougher water surface and higher wave height as the discharge increases. The flow situation and the hydraulic jump are documented and shown in 5.12 and 5.13.


Figure 5.12: The flow situation for $\mathrm{Q}=289 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ seen from upstream, camera 1.


Figure 5.13: Picture of the hydraulic jump for $\mathrm{Q}=289 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ in Nidelva, seen from camera 3.

The numerical modelling in OpenFOAM shows that an hydraulic jump is induced for Q $=289 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$. The hydraulic jump seen from the same angle as camera 5 is presented in figure 5.14. Figure 5.15 shows the simulation of the hydraulic jump seen from upstream the jump.


Figure 5.14: Numerical model of the hydraulic jump for $\mathrm{Q}=289 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, seen from the side. Flow direction from left to right.


Figure 5.15: Numerical model of the hydraulic jump for $\mathrm{Q}=289 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, seen from the top

The measured flow depths in the numerical model were taken in the hydraulic jump's super and subcritical flow regime. The data and the calculated and corresponding Froude
number, Equation 3.2, are shown in 5.10.

| Supercritical flow depth $[\mathrm{m}]$ | Subcritical flow depth $[\mathrm{m}]$ | Fr |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0.49 | 2.0 | 2.49 |

Table 5.10: Water depths and Froude number, 3.2 for $\mathrm{Q}=289 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, numerical model

## $5.6 \mathrm{Q}=400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$

$\mathrm{Q}=400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ is the maximum discharge tested in the flume. It is a discharge that does not occur as often as the other discharges tested in the flume. $\mathrm{Q}=400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ is the $Q_{10}$ in Nea-Vassdraget, which Nidelva is a part of (NVE, 2001).


Figure 5.16: Picture of the hydraulic jump induced for $\mathrm{Q}=400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, seen from camera 5.Flow direction from right to left.

The equivalent discharges to $\mathrm{Q}=400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ in Nidelva are presented in table 5.11.

| Q Nidelva | Q Drop of Death | Q flume |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | $92,7 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | $90 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ |

Table 5.11: Real discharge in Nidelva and in the side channel, the Drop of Death and the discharge the experiment is conducted under.

The probes measured the following water depths when running the flume for this discharge.
The water depths are presented in table 5.12.

| Measure | Inlet | Supercritical flow depth | Subcritical flow depth |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Probe [V] | 5.7 | 1.3 | 3 |
| Water depth $[\mathrm{mm}]$ | 34.0 | 24.3 | 6.0 |

Table 5.12: Water depths for $\mathrm{Q}=400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ from the physical model

The flow situation and the hydraulic jump for the maximum tested discharge are documented and shown in 5.17 and 5.18.


Figure 5.17: The flow situation for $\mathrm{Q}=400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ seen from upstream, camera 1.


Figure 5.18: Picture of the hydraulic jump for $\mathrm{Q}=400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ in Nidelva, seen from camera 3.

The numerical modelling in OpenFOAM shows that an hydraulic jump is induced for Q $=400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$. The hydraulic jump seen from the same angle as camera 5 is presented in figure 5.19. Figure 5.20 shows the simulation of the hydraulic jump seen from upstream the jump.

## Time: 98.600000



Figure 5.19: Numerical model of the hydraulic jump for $\mathrm{Q}=400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, seen from the side. Flow direction from left to right.


Figure 5.20: Numerical model of the hydraulic jump for $\mathrm{Q}=400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, seen from the top

The measured flow depths in the numerical model were taken in the hydraulic jump's super and subcritical flow regime. The data and the calculated and corresponding Froude
number, Equation 3.2, are shown in 5.13.

| Supercritical flow depth $[\mathrm{m}]$ | Subcritical flow depth $[\mathrm{m}]$ | Fr |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0.63 | 2.16 | 2.35 |

Table 5.13: Water depths and Froude number, 3.2 for $\mathrm{Q}=400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, numerical model

### 5.7 Summarize result

From the different results, it can be summarized to increase in three of the most important parameters for kayakers when increased discharge:

- Rougher water surface.
- Height and slope of hydraulic jump. The jump gets higher and steeper when discharge increases.
- Formation of eddies increases as discharge increases.
- The Froude number is satisfied for $\mathrm{Q}=140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$

A comparison of the results from the heighest and lowest tested discharge is presented in figure 5.21, 5.22, 5.23 and 5.24.


Figure 5.21: $\mathrm{Q}=140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$. Comparison of the highest and lowest water discharge tested in the flume. Flow direction from right to left.


Figure 5.22: $\mathrm{Q}=400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$. Comparison of the highest and lowest water discharge tested in the flume. Flow direction from right to left.


Figure 5.23: $\mathrm{Q}=140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$. Comparison of the highest and lowest water discharge tested in the numerical model. Flow direction from left to right.

## Time: 98.600000



Figure 5.24: $\mathrm{Q}=400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$. Comparison of the highest and lowest water discharge tested in the numerical model. Flow direction from left to right.

By looking at the Froude numbers calculated from the numerically measured water depths, it is found that for $\mathrm{Q}=140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, the form of the hydraulic jump is satisfying for the kayakers. It is, though, desired to optimize the waveform for the other discharges.

## 6 Discussion

### 6.0.1 Different discharges

To compare the nuemrical and physical model the footage from the experiments and simulations are compared to equivalent dishcarges in Nidelva. The two discharges documented in Nidelva, over the drop of death are $\mathrm{Q}=102.4 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, as shown in figure 6.1, and $\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$, as shown in figure 6.2. Here $\mathrm{Q}=102.4 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ is compared to $\mathrm{Q}=$ $140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ as tested in the lab and simulated in the Numerical model. $\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ is compared to $\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$.


Figure 6.1: Nidelva, The drop of death, Figure 6.2: Nidelva, The drop of death, $\mathrm{Q}=102.4 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ $\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$

As seen in the pictures taken from Nidelva, there is a visible difference in water quantity and surface roughness between the two discharges. The higher discharge has a white water effect, as the water breaks and the rough surface continues after the hydraulic jump; this effect is better seen in figure 6.6 and 6.9.


Figure 6.3: Camera 1, Physical model
Figure 6.4: Camera 1, Physical model, $\mathrm{Q}=140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ $\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$

When comparing the two water discharges from the physical model, visual differences are less than for the river. The water flow is approximately the same, forming the same patterns in the flume. The comparison is shown from upstream angle in figure 6.3 and 6.4.

The two discharges can be compared from the same angle in the three different environments in the following pictures. Discharge $\mathrm{Q}=140$ and $102 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ is shown in the physical model 6.5 , in situ 6.6 and in the numerical model 6.7. Discharge $\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ is shown in the physical model 6.8, in situ 6.9 and in the numerical model 6.10.


Figure 6.5: Physical model, $\mathrm{Q}=140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$. Flow direction from right to left.


Figure 6.6: Nidelva, The drop of death, $\mathrm{Q}=102.4 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$. Flow direction from right to left.


Figure 6.7: Numerical model, $\mathrm{Q}=140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$. Flow direction from left to right.


Figure 6.8: Physical model, $\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$. Flow direction from right to left.


Figure 6.9: Nidelva, The drop of death, $\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$. Flow direction from right to left.


Figure 6.10: Numerical model, $\mathrm{Q}=200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$. Flow direction from left to right.

### 6.1 Sources of error

### 6.1.1 Scale effects

Even though there are few visible scaling effects in the physical model, some might be present. The scaling issues often happen due to force errors, such as friction or surface tension. These forces are especially present when the water level is low, which is the case
in the physical model in this experiment. The lowest measured water depth is 2 cm , below the recommended water depth ( $4-5 \mathrm{~cm}$ ) to avoid significant scale effects Heller (2012). This limitation is set because friction forces and surface tension might not be correctly scaled and realistic for these water depths. An extreme version of this environment is when water is left on a blackboard after cleaning it. The water will stick to the board because the surface tension and friction forces are more potent than the gravitational. In the physical experiment, the gravitational forces are still dominating, but the friction forces and surface tension might be more present and influence than in situ.

According to Heller (2012), scale effects increase as the model decreases. Because the physical model is scaled relatively much, some scale effects could be avoided by looking at a minor part of the river. Less scaling is the best method for avoiding greater scaling issues.

When conducting the physical experiment, monitoring the flow situation and adjusting when visible scaling issues or other errors occurred was possible. Avoiding scaling issues would be more complicated if the flume were not equipped with Plexi glass walls.

### 6.1.2 Tilting

The river bed's slope is considered when designing and modelling the bathymetry in AutoCAD drawings. The first calibration could not achieve the desired discharge and water depth ratio. Because of this challenge, it was discovered that the flume was tilted, as shown in 6.11 and 6.12.


Figure 6.11: The tilting of the flume before adjustments were made.


Figure 6.12: The tilting of the flume after adjustmenst.

As the plaque on the spirit level says, the tilting still has an accuracy of $\pm 0.003 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{m}$ even though the spirit level says the flume is levelled. Not propper levelling can affect the discharge or water depth through the flume, 3.4

### 6.1.3 Human errors

The intake to the flume is a pipe with a diameter of approximately 40 cm . The pump velocity is regulated on a panel, figure 6.14, and a valve regulates the quantitative of inlet water. When running as low discharges as was necessary for the physical experiment, the panel could not read the velocity or discharge. Therefore, the settings on the panel were left static, and the valve was used to adjust the discharge. The valve had to be operated manually by turning the wheel, as shown in figure 6.13 .


Figure 6.13: The panel where the pump is operated from.


Figure 6.14: The valve that adjusts the inlet of the pump.

Because the experiment was done with discharges that are only $1 \%$ of the maximum capacity of the flume, the valve was almost closed for all time. Only minor adjustments were made to change the discharge in the flume. Even minor adjustments caused significant changes in discharges, which made the changes unpredictable. The Vectorino validated the discharge, but the data needed to be handled propper as the only validation.

### 6.1.4 Air in pump system

Because the flume was run with low discharges compared to the maximum capacity, there were repeated problems with air in the pumping system. To get the correct calibration of discharge and water depth, the water depth in the system was sometimes adjusted lower than the in- and outlet of the pipes, causing air entrainment in the system. An illustration of the challenges with air entrainment is shown in figure 6.15.


Figure 6.15: Illustration of the pumping system of the flume. The scaling or mounting of the system is not correct.

Air in the piping and pump system would cause inaccurate discharges, or the pump stops as a safety measure. The air issues were solved by emptying the air in the pumps and filling the system with water. If it was significant differences between the discharges delivered by the pump and what was measured, it was possible to expose the error. It is possible that more minor errors were delivered in measured and actual discharge as an effect of air in the pumping system.

### 6.2 Bathymetry and roughness

During an inspection of the river area, it was discovered that under the Sluppen bridge, the river bed is covered with rocks with a diameter of approximately $50-60 \mathrm{~cm}$. The stones are course with roughness at about 10 cm , as illustrated in figure 6.16. These stones were placed on the river bed due to erosion challenges.


Figure 6.16: Illustration of rocks on the river bed under the Sluppen bridge .

For the physical experiment, a smooth riverbed surface printing the bathymetry on highdensity polyurethane foam was chosen. The printing was more time-efficient than it would have been to build a replica of the accurate bathymetry and roughness. When choosing this simplification, the bathymetry remains realistic, but the river bed rocks' roughness and irregularities are not preserved. Manning's equation 3.4 shows that this simplification can affect the water depth and discharge ratio and thereby cause inaccuracies.

### 6.2.1 Instrument errors

The measuring instrument used in the experiment was mainly Vectrino and Mic + sensor. The Vectrino has an accuracy of $\pm 0.5 \%$ of measured value $\pm 1 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{s}$ (NORTEK, 2018), while the Mic+ sensor has a degree of precision of the mic + sensor is $\pm 1 \%$. These accuracies mean the instruments are relatively precise, but there is still room for errors. The most common error experienced during the experiments were either incorrect mounting of the instruments, causing them to have the wrong calibration or the disturbance of air bubbles. During experiments, small unsees by the human eye; air bubbles would attach to the sensor on the Vectrino, causing incorrect measurements. The error was only discovered when the Vectrino gave unrealistic data, for instance, when the valve was almost closed. The Vectrino said that the discharge in the flume was equivalent to the experiment's most extensive discharge. The air bubbles were removed by wiping the sensor with paper, and the Vectrino delivered accurate data.

### 6.3 Water depths

A significant discrepancy has been identified by studying the correspondence between the water depths and the experiments' film footage. The different measurements are plotted in figure 6.17.


Figure 6.17: A representation of the measured water depths from different discharges

The different probes are placed in the different stages of the hydraulic jump; the inlet, the supercritical flow and the subcritical flow. From literature and the physical experience, the changes in water depths should be something like illustrated in 6.18, (Chow, 1959):


Figure 6.18: A biref representation of how the changes in water depths should be according to literature and physical experiments (Chow, 1959)

According to the laboratory technicians, there are probably technical errors with the sensors or the calibration of the sensors. A possibility is that all the sensors measure correct, but due to poor calibration, they do not read from the same heights levels, as if they do not speak the same language. They will therefore measure correct, but it is impossible to see the correspondence in the changes in water depths because it is impossible to compare the data.

Because the probes might measure correct, but the data is not comparable, it might be that the probe used for calibration of the flume, Probe 3, still gives accurate data. This means that the system is still calibrated, and the results will still be realistic. The greatest error will be if there are some technical errors with the sensors. Making all the results useless. Because the water depth manually was controlled with a ruler during the calibration, the essential measure is correct, validating the reliability of the other results. Because of this error, the water depts measured with the sensors will not be used to calculate the Froude number. Instead, the water depths from the numerical model will be used.

### 6.4 Comparing the numerical and physical model

The numerical and physical models are both calibrated with the same boundary conditions.
When deciding whether to build a physical model or do a numerical simulation, time and cost are the heaviest factors. Building a physical model is both time-consuming and expensive. Using a flume that already exists in the lab can save time, but calibrating and running the experiments demands a higher presence than a numerical simulation does. The physical experiment is also expensive, as it demands the use of expensive equipment and the engagement of employees.

Even though physical modelling is time-consuming and expensive, it is often preferred if the results are communicated to external people. In this case, Trondheim kommune will inspect the results. The modelling will present a visualisation of the hydraulic jump that will be implemented in the river, which has a great value when involving stakeholders that do not have a hydraulic background.

Numerical models are also time-consuming, requiring a significant understanding of the flow situation to simulate it. The simulations are often complex, which is demanding to calibrate and model. When the experiments are run, it can take several hours, depending on the complexity of the meshing and modelling. On the other hand, running the actual experiment might be more time consuming, but it does not demand supervision.

The numerical models are also expensive as they require expensive computers that can run great simulations.

Both models have pros and cons, but they give easy results to communicate and illustrate the actual situation.

### 6.5 Stakeholders

If changes are implemented, the aim should be to meet as many stakeholders' interests as possible. If Trondheim kommune, or others, are to make changes on the river bed in Nidelva, for instance, by introducing a weir, many stakeholders need to be kept in mind. When doing changes like this that will affect an established natural regime, several organisations, the public sector, industries, and private persons will or could be affected
by the changes. The following stakeholders should be orientated or included in the project if changes are made.

### 6.5.1 Statens vegvesen

Suppose changes are to be done at the drop of death. In that case, Statens vegvesen is not an essential stakeholder because their area of responsibility is not likely to be affected by changes. However, if there are to be conducted changes under the Sluppen bridge, the changes in the flow regime could increase the scouring of the river bed and bridge pillars. Erosion like this can have fatal consequences. Therefore, it will be essential to calculate the erosion effect due to the hydraulic jump. Statens vegvesen should be included in this part of the project, as they will likely know the bridge's capacity.

### 6.5.2 Trondheim Omland Fiskeadministrasjon

Upstream the city centre in Trondheim, Nidelva is a popular area for practising sport fishing, especially is the river famous for its salmon fishing conditions despite the river being short. Trondheim Omland Fiskeadminsitrasjon, TOFA (Trondheim fish administration) is an organisation aiming to ensure good conditions for sports fishing and outdoors life in Nidelva. They are doing this by facilitating for the fish in Nidelva, ensuring their habitat is satisfying for the fish. (TOFA, 2021).

After dialogue with TOFA, changes in the river bed can affect the fish. These changes can force the fish to move further upstream and significantly influence the fish's spawning pattern. In an email correspondence with TOFA, they say that if protection against erosion is conducted by adding leftover rocks from tunnel extraction, the river bed can be compared with a "dead" river bed; there are no more plants or vegetation. To make specific changes to the river bed that are compatible with the fish and natural river pattern, TOFA should be included in the project.

### 6.5.3 Norges Vassdrags- og Energidirektorat

Norges Vassdrags- og Energidirektorat, NVE, represent the Govurenment, and are under the ministry of oil and energy production. They are responsible for managing and monitoring the watercourses in Norway. Because NVE monitors the rivers, they would be
wise to include in the project because of their competence and experience. In addition to being essential to support the project, they could have information on other projects with development and construction in or along the river.

### 6.5.4 Trondheim kommune

Trondheim kommune has an ongoing project aiming to develop and urbanise the Sluppen area. (Trondheimkommune, 2020). Therefore they are already engaged and an important part of the project regarding reconstructing the kayak waves in Nidelva. Changes in the Sluppen area enabled changes on the river bed under the Sluppen bridge. By changing the transport pattern in the area, especially by moving vehicle transport away from the bridge, the demands regarding structural safety dimensions and scouring under the bridge are decreased, which means it will be possible making river bed changes.

Trondheim kommune is involved in most of the projects in the area and could be an essential stakeholder in optimising this project. They can also be an economic contributor if they find the project an excellent contributor to the local environment.

### 6.5.5 Surfers

Before the filling under the bridge, the wave downstream attracted surfers and kayakers. The induced hydraulic jump was not an oscillating wave but a standing wave. Whereas the kayaker's ideal wave has a Froude number between 2.5 and 4.5 , the ideal surfing wave has an inlet Froude number at 1.7 (Famiglietti, 2010). The surfers should therefore be included in the project so that it could be possible also to satisfy their interests. Perhaps it could be possible to dedicate different areas in the river to different wave types.

### 6.5.6 Trondheim Kajakklubb

This project's main stakeholder is Trondheim kajakklubb and NTNUI Padling. These sports teams in Trondheim use Nidelva for recreation and leisure by practising whitewater kayaking. Early in the project, these groups were involved with dialogue and taking inceptions of the river and its current waves. The dialogue gave valuable information about their desires and the state of the river. As they spend much time in the river, they know it and its behaviour well. For further work, representations from these sports teams
should inspect the solutions for improving the waves. They will provide helpful input for modifying or adjusting the wave to meet their needs.

All of the mentioned stakeholders should be addressed if there are changes on the river bed. How much they need to be directly involved in the project varies and is up to the project leader. It is easier to make the best solution on the first try by addressing these groups first.

### 6.6 The weir

By studying the different results from the physical and numerical modelling, it appears that a hydraulic jump is induced for every discharge tested. However, the Froude numbers tell that the hydraulic jumps can be improved and optimised to the kayaker's desires. The optimising can be done by placing a weir in the river and decreasing the supercritical water depth.

Because the inlet Froude number determines the outcome of the wave, it is desired to define an interval for the correlating supercritical depth, $y_{1}$.

$$
\begin{align*}
& F r=\frac{q}{\sqrt{g y_{1}}} \\
& F r=\frac{Q}{y}_{y_{1}}^{\sqrt{g y_{1}}}  \tag{6.1}\\
& y_{1}=\frac{Q}{F r \sqrt{g}}^{2 / 3}
\end{align*}
$$

The $y_{1}$ is solved for both $F r_{\min }=2.5$ and $F r_{\max }=4.5$. Giving an interval for the correlation $y_{1}$ shown in table 6.1.

| Discharge | $y_{1}$ for $\mathrm{Fr}=2.5$ | $y_{1}$ for $\mathrm{Fr}=4.5$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | 0.30 | 0.20 |
| $200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | 0.38 | 0.26 |
| $289 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | 0.49 | 0.33 |
| $400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | 0.60 | 0.40 |

Table 6.1: $y_{1}$ must be inside these intervals for the correlating discharge to induce the desired hydraulic jump.

The height of the weir, $\Delta \mathrm{h}$ is calculated from the conservation energy equation. The intervals of $y_{1}$ are used for the different discharges.

$$
\begin{align*}
& E_{1}=E_{c}+\Delta h \\
& y_{1}+\frac{v^{2}}{2 g}=\frac{3}{2} y_{c}+\Delta h  \tag{6.2}\\
& \Delta h=y_{1}+\frac{v^{2}}{2 g}-\frac{3}{2} y_{c}
\end{align*}
$$

The critical water depth, $y_{c}$, is calculated from eq 3.7. q is found by dividing Q in the channel by the width of the channel, $\mathrm{W}=25 \mathrm{~m}$. The results are shown in table 6.2.

| Discharge | $y_{c}[\mathrm{~m}]$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | 0.55 |
| $200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | 0.70 |
| $289 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | 0.90 |
| $400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | 1.11 |

Table 6.2: The critical water depth for the different discharges

The equation for $\Delta \mathrm{h} 6.2$ is solved with the minimum and maximum value of $y_{1}$ for each discharge. The results are shown in table 6.3.

| Discharge | $\Delta$ h for $\mathrm{Fr}=2.5[\mathrm{~m}]$ | $\Delta \mathrm{h}$ for Fr $=2.5[\mathrm{~m}]$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | 0.41 | 1.42 |
| $200 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | 0.52 | 1.81 |
| $289 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | 0.67 | 2.33 |
| $400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ | 0.82 | 2.87 |

Table 6.3: The interval of the desired $\Delta \mathrm{h}$ for inducing the desired hydraulic jump.

The differences in values of $\Delta \mathrm{h}$ span from 0.41 m to 2.87 m . From 0.82 m to 1.42 m , the weir will, for all the four discharges, induce a hydraulic jump with a Froude number between 2.5 and 4.5 .

If the weir is to be constructed in the river, it is desired to make it compatible with the environment. Therefore, the aim should be to use materials that imitate the sediments in the river. These materials will ensure that the changes influence the fish and the ecosystem as little as possible. The river bed's natural environment will be maintained using these materials.

The hydraulic jump over the rock weir could cause erosion and scouring. Therefore this must be taken into account. The USBR report on Rock weir hydraulics and failure mechanisms shows that the primary cause of rock weirs' instability and failure is scouring
on the foundation and river bed. (Gordon, 2016) Therefore, it is necessary to calculate the bed shear stress and protect against scouring. Also, the guidelines from NVE regarding the construction of rock weirs must be followed during the design process 3.5

## 7 Further research

Further research aims to use these results to adjust the river bed as the desired wave is established.

The rived bed should be optimized in the numerical model before the physical model is used as a prototype. Relevant stakeholders should be invited to the laboratory to visualize the new hydraulic jump. It is also necessary to decide whether or not there is a need for new measurements of the water depths.

A hydraulic jump in a river could have side effects when scouring the river bed. Because scouring earlier has shown to be a problem under the Sluppen bridge, this effect must be considered when designing the hydraulic jump. This is done by controlling the bed shear stress the wave applies on the river bed. If the aim is to examine the scouring process, a geometry covered in gravel or smaller, scaled sediments will better understand the process. There must, therefore, be considered how much time is valuable to invest in building the model.

For further research, it would also be interesting to look at other popular parts of the river, like the Sluppen bridge. The idea is that the distance between the bridge piers could be modelled individually and optimized for different discharges. By doing this, there will be a hydraulic jump under the bridge for every discharge in Nidelva.

## 8 Conclusion

This thesis aims to study the possibility of reconstructing the river's kayak wave in The Drop of Death area. After changes in the river bed in Nidelva, due to safety measures due to erosion, two of the popular kayak waves were affected. The study was conducted using a numerical model and a physical model.

A hydraulic jump was induced for every discharge tested for the physical and numerical model. From the different results, it can be summarized by the following; there is an increase in three "kayak-parameters" when the discharge is increased:

- Rougher water surface.
- Height and slope of hydraulic jump. The jump gets higher and steeper when discharge increases.
- Formation of eddies increases as discharge increases.

The Froude number varied depending on the discharges but was satisfying for $\mathrm{Q}=$ $140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$.

The decided solution is to design a weir to achieve a wave with the desired Froude number. The calculated weir height shows that a weir with a height of $0.82<\Delta \mathrm{h}<1.42$ will induce a wave for discharges from $\mathrm{Q}=140 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ to $400 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}$ with a Froude number between 2.5 and 4.5. What should be done next is to measure the current step in the physical and numerical model. The step should be adjusted so that the height is between the minimum and maximum height of the interval inducing the desired hydraulic jump.

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## 9 Appendix

## A1 Discharge data the last nine years


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 Discharge in Nidelva. Data from Rathe measuring station, NVE All the yellow cells were missing data. "Calibrated" by looking at average values.





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Discharge in Nidelva. Data from Rathe measuring station, NVE All the yellow cells were missing data. "Calibrated" by looking at average values.





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A All the yellow cells were missing data. "Calibrated" by looking at average values.


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|  |  |  | Discharge in Nidelva. Data from Rathe measuring station, NVE |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | All the yellow cells were missing data. "Cailirated" by looking at average values. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Date | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| 1-May |  | 174.34 | 57.32 | 76.61 | 38.14 | 113.87 | 126.15 | 38.31 | 79.37 | 158.68 |
| 2-May |  | 163.12 | 69.81 | 91.49 | 38.42 | 136.81 | 133.71 | 47.35 | 110.01 | 158.21 |
| 3-May |  | 180.20 | 96.37 | 78.18 | 38.42 | 142.00 | 133.52 | 47.74 | 90.79 | 161.91 |
| 4-May |  | 180.73 | 99.56 | 82.80 | 38.70 | 145.30 | 131.08 | 76.96 | 72.65 | 158.03 |
| 5-May |  | 171.49 | 76.42 | 148.05 | 37.77 | 135.12 | 101.53 | 73.84 | 76.30 | 139.24 |
| 6-May |  | 173.40 | 114.67 | 144.45 | 37.58 | 61.07 | 74.42 | 63.74 | 102.58 | 72.09 |
| 7-May |  | 177.61 | 115.06 | 146.24 | 36.12 | 65.48 | 67.75 | 110.97 | 102.50 | 70.24 |
| 8-May |  | 179.95 | 109.24 | 125.02 | 44.53 | 56.98 | 48.14 | 143.53 | 92.55 | 157.51 |
| 9-May |  | 172.94 | 111.88 | 107.91 | 36.66 | 119.84 | 38.10 | 153.47 | 72.63 | 154.85 |
| 10-May |  | 177.79 | 88.37 | 38.81 | 36.48 | 105.37 | 88.79 | 145.28 | 65.97 | 97.75 |
| 11-May |  | 184.12 | 113.94 | 40.96 | 51.92 | 107.18 | 126.41 | 153.31 | 44.80 | 106.09 |
| 12-May |  | 186.24 | 131.57 | 39.86 | 45.89 | 106.45 | 105.08 | 217.30 | 60.23 | 101.45 |
| 13-May |  | 184.34 | 141.19 | 39.85 | 38.23 | 63.64 | 73.29 | 202.25 | 136.88 | 118.67 |
| 14-May |  | 178.72 | 130.75 | 40.35 | 37.58 | 36.39 | 64.01 | 182.40 | 181.40 | 114.25 |
| 15-May |  | 187.75 | 125.58 | 39.65 | 37.21 | 36.48 | 104.95 | 176.46 | 138.64 | 113.87 |
| 16-May |  | 183.26 | 112.01 | 69.22 | 37.12 | 36.12 | 79.33 | 140.79 | 177.68 | 103.58 |
| 17-May |  | 179.93 | 126.15 | 40.74 | 37.77 | 82.04 | 103.09 | 113.70 | 177.92 | 102.87 |
| 18-May |  | 186.65 | 132.59 | 40.71 | 76.35 | 97.63 | 103.19 | 82.26 | 178.42 | 144.63 |
| 19-May |  | 187.63 | 120.00 | 41.52 | 60.69 | 164.70 | 122.64 | 37.90 | 178.96 | 141.34 |
| 20-May |  | 184.14 | 134.14 | 99.35 | 70.22 | 159.47 | 89.76 | 37.67 | 178.60 | 145.74 |
| 21-May |  | 173.41 | 153.11 | 64.67 | 62.99 | 142.43 | 101.54 | 37.60 | 172.60 | 132.59 |
| 22-May |  | 180.76 | 138.89 | 101.54 | 42.30 | 137.67 | 162.24 | 60.78 | 177.69 | 163.74 |
| 23-May |  | 182.14 | 181.83 | 175.76 | 37.67 | 150.23 | 172.95 | 58.85 | 183.95 | 164.94 |
| 24-May |  | 181.02 | 170.55 | 194.66 | 37.30 | 173.51 | 173.28 | 37.58 | 202.75 | 159.00 |
| 25-May |  | 179.27 | 49.64 | 188.13 | 38.89 | 175.25 | 176.35 | 37.62 | 194.87 | 161.83 |
| 26-May |  | 182.75 | 41.41 | 194.50 | 79.17 | 175.75 | 176.96 | 37.81 | 187.86 | 173.51 |
| 27-May |  | 183.80 | 130.19 | 191.35 | 96.09 | 171.03 | 171.67 | 38.53 | 175.71 | 171.28 |
| 28-May |  | 183.49 | 124.17 | 179.49 | 102.33 | 163.74 | 170.98 | 67.01 | 170.13 | 179.03 |
| 29-May |  | 183.49 | 130.06 | 145.31 | 131.34 | 164.70 | 176.30 | 51.82 | 160.59 | 178.53 |
| 30-May |  | 184.83 | 96.53 | 151.95 | 182.35 | 157.36 | 174.63 | 65.25 | 129.18 | 172.02 |

Discharge in Nidelva．Data from Rathe measuring station，NVE







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Discharge in Nidelva．Data from Rathe measuring station，NVE
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Discharge in Nidelva．Data from Rathe measuring station，NVE
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Discharge in Nidelva. Data from Rathe measuring station, NVE

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| 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| 103.291 | 107.9469 | 74.38059 | 40.81428 | 99.18263 | 103.9837 | 107.5438 | 70.09416 | 126.2318 |
| 113.5137 | 84.18835 | 63.847755 | 43.50716 | 96.94634 | 105.1663 | 99.56935 | 71.19189 | 87.40054 |
| 89.87687 | 42.74428 | 72.89349 | 103.0427 | 56.13708 | 88.37592 | 103.7632 | 44.02034 | 138.9581 |
| 62.46801 | 39.01742 | 64.80701 | 90.5966 | 71.33888 | 81.34883 | 103.4948 | 41.07444 | 124.8013 |
| 59.1628 | 76.02242 | 83.227795 | 90.43317 | 91.25191 | 74.91743 | 76.14972 | 64.17339 | 128.4535 |
| 67.90741 | 110.6506 | 105.61295 | 100.5753 | 93.56969 | 64.40749 | 93.9763 | 68.99879 | 124.6005 |
| 65.2038 | 112.3711 | 109.77575 | 107.1804 | 80.82424 | 96.76829 | 106.9854 | 67.24562 | 84.83474 |
| 66.89104 | 103.4031 | 69.71474 | 36.02638 | 116.158 | 85.43554 | 108.3019 | 67.77718 | 120.8229 |
| 53.79082 | 60.76205 | 48.304245 | 35.84644 | 96.09492 | 76.78152 | 104.5313 | 67.05316 | 82.04496 |
| 56.95033 | 50.17733 | 55.68754 | 61.19775 | 109.3812 | 92.33224 | 68.7487 | 70.26112 | 127.4322 |
| 46.39488 | 46.16311 | 56.152995 | 66.14288 | 115.9661 | 71.01698 | 63.89778 | 78.77026 | 41.51072 |
| 44.1536 | 114.9999 | 99.061315 | 83.12273 | 123.3993 | 66.6321 | 59.60011 | 75.91404 | 83.40912 |
| 61.39132 | 110.8483 | 116.13125 | 121.4142 | 96.7756 | 52.43898 | 68.1589 | 71.3083 | 39.48059 |
| 84.31017 | 97.54242 | 93.49975 | 89.45708 | 55.18239 | 61.88329 | 73.78407 | 76.2137 | 82.33509 |
| 108.7965 | 94.53282 | 65.369865 | 36.20691 | 119.45 | 35.92934 | 50.53721 | 94.73019 | 39.98268 |
| 108.0426 | 99.41882 | 67.587735 | 35.75665 | 129.2742 | 38.13765 | 85.16041 | 100.0602 | 39.52839 |
| 47.07037 | 57.83985 | 50.319095 | 42.79834 | 120.4295 | 37.44596 | 65.01489 | 112.0812 | 83.64016 |
| 52.38402 | 42.86628 | 39.177245 | 35.48821 | 111.9853 | 36.07178 | 39.1974 | 119.6499 | 39.48059 |
| 81.9257 | 108.2883 | 71.666025 | 35.04375 | 95.92516 | 36.23925 | 64.22181 | 127.8435 | 44.21832 |
| 88.54354 | 69.15188 | 52.320045 | 35.48821 | 60.31373 | 36.26661 | 72.30389 | 147.4098 | 40.92477 |
| 105.7912 | 61.86976 | 49.219735 | 36.56971 | 64.68577 | 64.51773 | 65.77522 | 183.116 | 41.1188 |
| 105.3241 | 61.41108 | 51.210505 | 41.00993 | 91.41628 | 73.53204 | 38.87191 | 193.7142 | 41.21707 |
| 129.1531 | 58.32313 | 49.422505 | 40.52188 | 89.61921 | 75.81702 | 45.16571 | 263.1988 | 41.65894 |
| 125.1991 | 46.76407 | 42.63857 | 38.51307 | 91.08788 | 67.49462 | 75.3595 | 353.2543 | 41.69954 |
| 77.52266 | 40.00769 | 54.770175 | 69.53266 | 91.41628 | 73.6273 | 66.00633 | 227.826 | 75.76742 |
| 74.09429 | 46.32104 | 61.629645 | 76.93825 | 83.89817 | 75.69841 | 134.4677 | 181.5685 | 41.00993 |
| 87.88269 | 68.81107 | 69.6477225 | 70.484375 | 61.32477 | 62.94359 | 132.7748 | 168.4624 | 107.5452 |
| 100.9701 | 85.30698 | 74.66874 | 64.0305 | 44.01809 | 65.43325 | 84.75857 | 163.9875 | 100.226 |
| 134.1001 | 63.10601 | 68.713005 | 74.32 | 63.63931 | 93.37485 | 41.95537 | 149.3465 | 104.6493 |
| 138.5399 | 56.32738 | 66.485915 | 76.64445 | 62.60372 | 89.91859 | 70.71741 | 155.5935 | 104.4701 |

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Discharge in Nidelva．Data from Rathe measuring station，NVE
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 |  | All the yellow cells were missing data．＂Calibrated＂by looking at average values． |  |  |  |  |
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| $\mathbf{1 2 9 . 5 1 9 9}$ | 39.92516 | 51.39336 | 62.86156 | 35.84644 | 73.45114 |
| 56.34596 | 36.95144 | 49.84204 | 62.73264 | 34.51521 | 57.8213 |
| 44.38618 | 59.94334 | 61.27353 | 62.60372 | 36.56971 | 37.36081 |
| 62.2177 | 68.62823 | 79.148695 | 89.66916 | 90.92387 | 38.29372 |
| 66.01065 | 51.18482 | 83.95971 | 116.7346 | 81.43305 | 37.54262 |
| 47.36134 | 47.83727 | 80.475435 | 113.1136 | 71.05908 | 37.74183 |
| 65.69069 | 42.70513 | 59.3091 | 75.91307 | 86.88731 | 37.84581 |
| 59.35278 | 37.12662 | 55.79523 | 74.46384 | 100.226 | 57.97728 |
| 98.97784 | 36.63257 | 54.83266 | 73.03275 | 105.5488 | 52.36914 |
| 83.25375 | 67.13792 | 70.44202 | 73.74612 | 97.6309 | 47.41592 |
| 100.2315 | 56.34986 | 64.40752 | 72.46518 | 78.41827 | 53.64944 |
| 94.87755 | 41.59808 | 57.315415 | 73.03275 | 73.60303 | 74.37584 |
| 121.4585 | 38.17788 | 55.605315 | 73.03275 | 113.1136 | 68.75443 |
| 149.0565 | 37.37428 | 55.203515 | 73.03275 | 118.2813 | 92.74882 |
| 102.2445 | 44.20321 | 58.61798 | 73.03275 | 147.3017 | 64.40886 |
| 55.33657 | 37.8664 | 55.734715 | 73.60303 | 148.873 | 82.24514 |
| 56.4773 | 70.00002 | 71.801525 | 73.60303 | 91.41628 | 72.55064 |
| 112.2972 | 50.09594 | 62.136065 | 74.17619 | 35.39908 | 95.15694 |
| 122.5305 | 37.56169 | 56.084855 | 74.60802 | 35.39908 | 72.13759 |
| 109.8936 | 65.62827 | 69.90223 | 74.17619 | 50.45362 | 69.13996 |
| 73.94735 | 68.22572 | 71.99657 | 75.76742 | 61.19775 | 71.98201 |
| 56.00442 | 93.70792 | 84.08588 | 74.46384 | 59.06517 | 60.00831 |
| 75.038 | 69.18147 | 71.822655 | 74.46384 | 104.6493 | 53.05086 |
| 79.6136 | 79.8424 | 77.44193 | 75.04146 | 86.56934 | 37.38211 |
| 100.8654 | 69.28053 | 72.81596 | 76.35139 | 46.52432 | 37.3815 |
| 114.8093 | 61.92474 | 69.652555 | 77.38037 | 44.94744 | 70.65353 |
| 135.4098 | 60.39948 | 68.30227 | 76.20506 | 111.4239 | 101.2259 |
| 138.9238 | 64.49306 | 70.642195 | 76.79133 | 117.6996 | 104.7489 |
| 132.2146 | 40.19457 | 58.41951 | 76.64445 | 115.392 | 108.39 |
| 128.3018 | 39.369 | 58.006725 | 76.64445 | 96.43488 | 112.3822 |
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Discharge in Nidelva．Data from Rathe measuring station，NVE
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156.4266 163.2653 152.0481 112.3606 $\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{0}$ $\stackrel{\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathrm{M}}}{\underset{\sim}{\mathrm{N}}}$ 115.201 102.6879 102.3338 83.58746 82.50565
水 100.5753
115.201 119.2547 58.57051 2015
 75.76742 68.84592 75.91307 74.60802

 81.12828
81.43305 88.16607 83.12273


 $\underset{\sim}{\tilde{\sim}}$
 87.68504 $\infty$
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N
© $\stackrel{\infty}{\circ}$ 87.36536萑 응
 0

0
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 2014 59.524125

 $\stackrel{\sim}{\sim}$ 72.73529 63.06634
70.77986 76.49776 68.84592 80.52095 71.47898
 ヘic
㞧 63.89989 51.80939 43.71105 46.31205 61.19775
67.48573 66.41003 63.12021 56.49787 33.73206 60.06269
 88.16607 2.55049 36.81052

 J
先
$i$ $\stackrel{n}{\underset{\sim}{\dot{m}}}$ 65.22789
81.77343 89.21658
80.04256 80.91956 74.24156 77.41164
55.15138 72.25795 74.42458 84.29231 70.00002 9.48403 47.3436
80.78501 70.66827 96.15113 78.61456
116.2876 99.37876 68.9997 134.0053
2012 138.3444
127.2255 134.2389 132.7581 87.69787
 89.38644 81.3766 130.2357 131.2017

 118.2622
76.02841 76.02841
82.97551 $\stackrel{m}{\grave{N}}$ 114.2583
 54.51012
 77.29297 64.64828
68.87987 73.22714
74.33879 74.33879
 131.9624 N
N
O
 $\stackrel{7}{N}$ 149.5806 130.4794 125.014
64.67223 116.32
 126.0125 113.7963 103.3689 80.99451
82.02668 82.02668
78.10229 100.6753 94.81219 112.962 N
0
0

0
 101.7301
 117.1226 137.6238 125.312 104.4962 111.2014 120.0578 147.4167
132.3049





|  |  |  | Discharge in Nidelva. Data from Rathe measuring station, NVE |  |  |  |  | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | All the yellow cells were missing data. "Calibrated" by looking at average values. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Date | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 |  |  |  |
| 27-Nov | 95.73508 | 8.0562 | 150.5278 | 83.12273 | 81.28065 | 65.34547 | 34.64537 | 125.662 | 109.4322 | 135.5 |
| 28-Nov | 69.60917 | 143.7022 | 130.8356 | 46.95085 | 79.01534 | 98.14644 | 35.24854 | 77.80421 | 120.8574 | 128.8634 |
| $29-\mathrm{Nov}$ | 127.2671 | 165.5853 | 144.0725 | 68.43609 | 76.49776 | 90.43317 | 34.58306 | 68.55633 | 122.2634 | 70.22382 |
| 30-Nov | 136.3844 | 170.1659 | 143.7205 | 63.89989 | 76.64445 | 89.78168 | 34.79055 | 71.97932 | 106.6253 | 127.6359 |
| 1-D | . 4705 | . 5558 | 144.8024 | 73.03275 | 78.56734 | 74.60802 | 34.60868 | 49.215 | 17.444 | 1.05908 |
| 2-Dec | 69.06026 | 159.9907 | 162.0802 | 76.79133 | 77.67599 | 120.2332 | 35.25888 | 49.31957 | 137.2803 | 105.0084 |
| 3-Dec | 104.2619 | 194.1425 | 140.7141 | 91.74546 | 76.79133 | 56.853875 | 36.91642 | 68.84853 | 146.3691 | 68.43609 |
| 4 -Dec | 67.01762 | 210.5966 | 105 | 98.66374 | 75.91307 | 56.20427 | 36.49547 | 70.74106 | 126.309 | 84.05373 |
| 5 -Dec | 62.14569 | 173.7773 | 119.9171 | 66.14288 | 76.79133 | 174.2541 | 35.84301 | 80.9313 | 81.44019 | 127.6359 |
| 6-Dec | 120.0617 | 171.8666 | 137.2876 | 69.67059 | 77.23277 | 172.2666 | 35.3443 | 106.8038 | 63.37632 | 83.74265 |
| 7-Dec | 126.4041 | 170.987 | 126.7295 | 44.32641 | 79.91656 | 188.5814 | 35.52704 | 61.34646 | 64.86954 | 73.88925 |
| 8 -Dec | 123.6833 | 198.0453 | 143.7629 | 68.70918 | 86.25229 | 222.48 | 62.27654 | 33.44995 | 60.3894 | 82.96815 |
| 9 -Dec | 108.8797 | 210.3695 | 143 | 72.89056 | 87.20586 | 356.7106 | 44.28693 | 35.88132 | 71.64765 | 39.2706 |
| 10-Dec | 90.23199 | 214.7362 | 133.3348 | 65.61066 | 87.36536 | 440.0186 | 60.02134 | 83.89535 | 83.05566 | 79.46512 |
| 11-Dec | 58.48222 | 215.1588 | 89.54771 | 67.35061 | 86.25229 | 31.3638 | 99.67144 | 96.10157 | 69.98458 | 122.4042 |
| 12-Dec | 65.86793 | 215.2679 | 76.54221 | 68.43609 | 86.88731 | 175.7542 | 87.05523 | 98.51196 | 72.89435 | 120.2332 |
| 13-Dec | 112.3796 | 215.1122 | 110.0001 | 64.42312 | 86.72823 | 167.8487 | 77.62434 | 86.68278 | 73.40649 | 81.73871 |
| 14-Dec | 109.2649 | 214.0181 | 90.8745 | 56.61851 | 87.52518 | 172.2666 | 92.42411 | 88.68922 | 63.62318 | 83.29449 |
| $15-\mathrm{Dec}$ | 99.48669 | 259.3051 | 78.16349 | 61.96206 | 87.68504 | 179.7957 | 113.8506 | 55.43665 | 62.93066 | 126.2318 |
| 16-Dec | 110.1231 | 276.8988 | 93.27998 | 68.29974 | 85.77819 | 171.0319 | 110.0766 | 46.06816 | 75.24385 | 141.6048 |
| 17-Dec | 106.0257 | 328.4109 | 120.7231 | 89.13322 | 86.09412 | 122.6029 | 93.50732 | 87.28163 | 82.02698 | 119.6982 |
| 18-Dec | 63.49137 | 335.1811 | 135 | 80.06731 | 85.46286 | 127.0249 | 105.5108 | 73.38405 | 96.064 | 107.8811 |
| 19 -Dec | 65.30736 | 351.2525 | 125.0372 | 63.89989 | 88.00564 | 149.3239 | 104.2274 | 55.80958 | 106.9122 | 107.39665 |
| 20-Dec | 112.8179 | 323.3957 | 96.72942 | 42.19669 | 88.16607 | 172.762 | 114.6963 | 42.47904 | 104.8636 | 106.130125 |
| 21-Dec | 123.1751 | 300.0386 | 65.13891 | 45.78405 | 168.824 | 179.2871 | 83.57001 | 64.14357 | 84.66169 | 95.3959075 |
| 22-Dec | 124.4869 | 281.0396 | 61.49614 | 58.81751 | 149.0984 | 178.7796 | 93.29587 | 61.76575 | 99.54499 | 97.47044875 |
| 23-Dec | 105.503 | 242.4482 | 71.34516 | 56.13708 | 104.2909 | 182.6085 | 62.56898 | 74.86532 | 91.49517 | 94.48280938 |
| 24-Dec | 85.91233 | 261.8336 | 62.18896 | 57.10248 | 83.58746 | 183.1229 | 68.69249 | 61.10886 | 88.22153 | 91.35216969 |
| $25-\mathrm{Dec}$ | 52.1257 | 222.0641 | 63.87663 | 62.86156 | 84.36554 | 161.8347 | 68.75052 | 41.47569 | 113.6533 | 102.5027348 |
| 26-Dec | 38.89078 | 231.247 | 78.98951 | 67.48573 | 85.77819 | 127.2284 | 65.3927 | 64.22893 | 100.558 | 101.5303674 |


|  |  |  | Discharge in Nidelva. Data from Rathe measuring station, NVE |  |  |  |  |  | 2019 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | All the yellow cells were missing data. "Calibrated" by looking at average values. |  |  |  |  | 2018 |  |  |
| Date | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 |  |  | 2020 |
| 27-Dec | 43.64389 | 233.8362 | 73.01498 | 71.33888 | 75.76742 | 156.4266 | 99.82936 | 64.33672 | 111.4761 | 106.5032337 |
| 28-Dec | 67.55135 | 251.2778 | 67.28292 | 100.9254 | 75.76742 | 111.4239 | 110.2308 | 71.4937 | 104.4894 | 105.4963169 |
| 29-Dec | 61.57082 | 189.7752 | 69.82478 | 114.2491 | 75.62181 | 130.7188 | 72.64671 | 64.51422 | 71.81645 | 88.65638343 |
| 30-Dec | 38.42107 | 171.5142 | 70.94415 | 82.35194 | 75.91307 | 117.6996 | 37.53371 | 68.18186 | 75.35937 | 82.00787671 |
| 31-Dec | 72.84451 | 170.8795 | 70.00002 | 72.04155 | 76.79133 | 118.8647 | 54.96998 | 65.50175 | 111.0248 | 96.51633836 |

## A2 Water depth measurements in numerical model



Figure A2.1: Water depth measured at place 1, upstream the jump.


Figure A2.2: Water depth measured at place 2, supercritical.

Figure A2.3: Water depth measured at place 3, subcritical.


Figure A2.4: Placing for water depth measurements. Seen from upstream; place 1 (upstream), 2 (supercritical) and 3 (subcritical).

## A3 Place for slicing the numerical model



Figure A3.1: Placing for slicing the numerical model to get a view orthogonal on the hydraulic jump

Kunnskap for en bedre verden

