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1 **Hydrodynamic modelling approaches to assess mechanisms affecting the**
2 **structural performance and maintenance of vortex drops shaft structures**

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11

12 **Hydrodynamic modelling approaches to assess mechanisms affecting the**
13 **structural performance and maintenance of vortex drops shaft structures**

14 Vortex drop shafts, a key hydraulic structure within modern day deep sewer conveyance
15 systems, must be designed structurally to sustain performance and longevity of operating
16 life under very energetic loading conditions. This has significant cost implications but to
17 date little research has been undertaken to investigate the loading conditions with a view
18 to optimising the shaft designs and thus lowering costs. In this study, several modelling
19 methods were adopted to simulate hydrodynamic conditions within a vortex drop shaft
20 to assess hydrodynamic mechanisms that impact a drop shaft liners structural
21 performance and maintenance. A 1/10 scaled physical hydraulic model of a tangential
22 inlet vortex drop shaft structure is tested and used to validate a three-dimensional
23 multiphase numerical model. Collectively, the study presents methods on identifying
24 hydrodynamic phenomena such as pressures, velocities, erosion and abrasion
25 mechanisms, debris impact locations and blocking mechanisms. The study highlighted
26 that the hydrodynamic forces that threaten structural integrity reside in the vortex
27 generator and a short length of the drop shaft downstream. This is shown through a new
28 model developed by the authors to predict centrifugal forces along the length of the drop.
29 Through these methods, the study proposes that drop shaft liners can be designed more
30 efficiently.

31 Keywords: vortex, drop shaft, drop shaft liners, deep tunnel conveyance, sewers,
32 hydraulic structures

33 **Introduction**

34 Over the past 30 years, existing sewer infrastructure upgrade programs have seen the
35 construction of deep tunnel conveyance and storage systems to help control storm weather
36 overflows from combined sewers in urban areas worldwide (Schultz et al, 2004). A major
37 challenge of such systems is the safe and efficient conveyance of combined sewer flows from
38 existing wastewater networks down to lower tunnel levels through extensive elevation
39 differences which can be as great as 170 m (Jain and Kennedy, 1983; Tai et al, 2009;
40 Williamson, 2001, Vischer and Hager, 1995; Plant and Crawford, 2016). Vortex drop shafts
41 (Figure 1) are efficient, low horizontal footprint devices with a proven record in wastewater

42 engineering applications (Plant et al, 2016, Hager, 1985; Williamson, 2001). They operate by
43 conveying flow tangentially into a vortex chamber to generate a free-surface vortex flow. The
44 diameter of the vortex air core first decreases and then increases from the generator to the
45 vertical drop shaft which forms a throat at the contracted section. The free-surface is not
46 uniform within this region due to the tangential inlet and thus the air core does not maintain
47 centrality or verticality (Chen et al., 2010). As the flow discharges axially from the vortex
48 generator into the drop shaft, the residual centrifugal forces in the flow combined with the
49 Coanda effect (Weiss et al., 2010; Vischer and Hager, 1995) cause the water to cling to the
50 walls of the shaft on its transition to the bottom stilling basin (Weiss et al., 2010). This longer
51 helicoidal path that the fluid takes along the walls induces energy dissipation through friction
52 and aeration (Hager, 1990; Jeanpierre and Lachal, 1966).

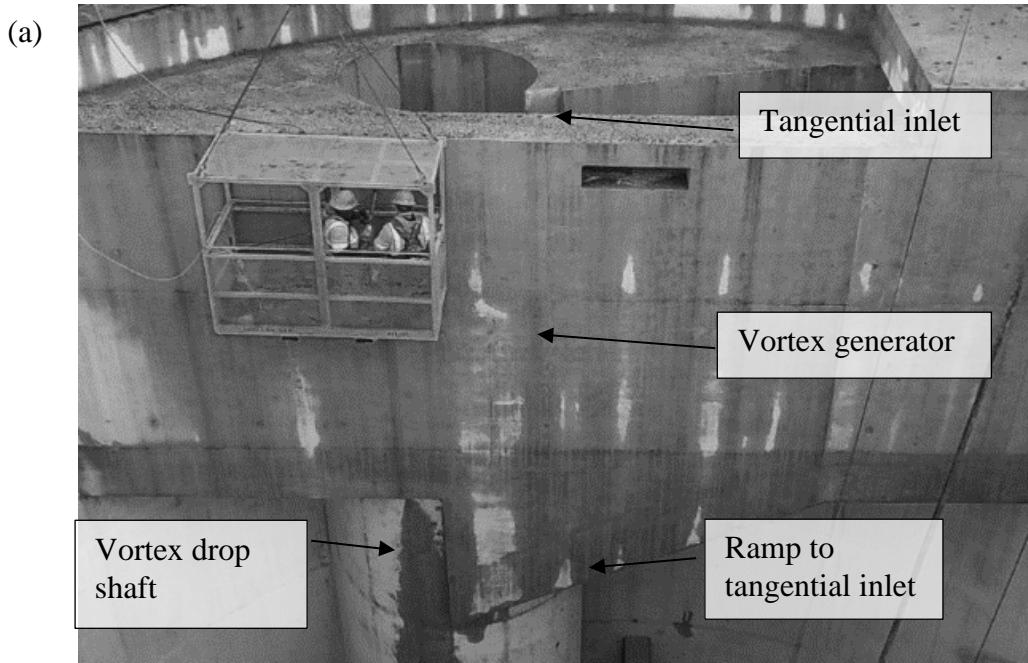
53 In terms of operation, vortex drop structures are generally considered superior to other
54 drop structures such as plunge-flow drop shafts given that (1) they maintain a stable flow
55 pattern for various discharges and (2) energy dissipation is enhanced through the vortex flow
56 mechanics (Williamson, 2001; Rhee et al., 2018). For example, Vischer and Hager (1995)
57 reported a 170 m high vortex drop shaft in Curbans, Italy developed for a design discharge of
58 140 m³/s, while in China, a vortex drop shaft for the Shapai hydropower Station was designed
59 with a drop height of approximately 100 m and a design discharge over 200 m³/s (Dong and
60 Gao, 1995).

61 Apart from efficient energy dissipation, vortex drop shafts provide several other
62 advantages including accurate monitoring of flow by depth measurement, stable air core
63 generation for natural venting, self-limiting operation, minimal risk of blockage and allow for
64 non-uniform approach flow conditions. In terms of maintenance, drop structures are designed
65 to be as maintenance-free as possible; in some cases, it is the upstream or downstream

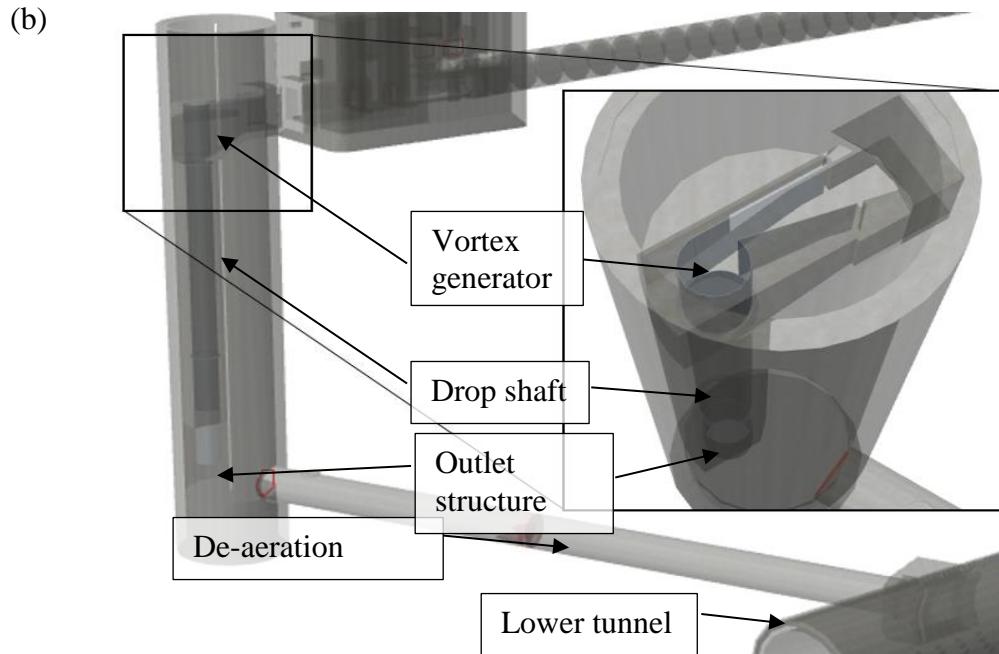
66 appurtenances such as flow gates, monitoring equipment or trash racks that necessitate regular
67 maintenance (Williamson, 2001).

68 Vortex drop shafts comprise three main elements (see Figure 1): an inlet structure, the
69 drop shaft and the outlet structure. The inlet structure is responsible for producing the initial
70 swirling flow as described by Jain and Ettama, (1987) and Mulligan et al., (2016) and typical
71 inlet configurations include the spiral or scroll (subcritical inlet) inlet (Hager, 1990; Mulligan
72 et al, 2016, Mulligan et al., 2018a, Rhee et al., 2018), tangential (supercritical inlet) (Jain, 1984)
73 and slot vortex inlet (Quick, 1990). On the other hand, the outlet structure aims to safely
74 dissipate the remaining energy in a stilling basin and direct an almost vertical annular jet to a
75 horizontal conduit to deaerate the air–water mixture (Vischer and Hager, 1995). Regardless of
76 the type of inlet structure, the flow processes are generally similar in vertical shafts and energy
77 dissipation in the shaft is expected to be of the order of 90% (Jain and Kennedy, 1984). As the
78 flow transitions through the shaft, air mixes with the flow and tremendous forces can be
79 generated, resulting in a variety of hydraulic and structural design issues. Destructive pressure
80 surges, impact damage due to debris and particle laden sewer flows and increased wear through
81 abrasion on structures are some of the key processes that threaten the structural integrity of the
82 vortex drop shaft if not properly considered during the modelling and design stage (Plant and
83 Crawford, 2016; Williamson, 2001).

84



85



86 Figure 1. (a) Supercritical vortex drop shaft in the Main Pumping Station Diversions Project,
87 District of Columbia (Image courtesy of District of Columbia Water and Sewer Authority)
88 and (b) overview of the vortex drop shaft structure (Image courtesy of Ward and Burke
89 Construction Ltd).

90 Numerous physical modelling studies have been carried out on the supercritical
91 approach flow type vortex chambers (Plant and Crawford, 2016; Yu and Lee, 2009; Jain, 1984;
92 Kellenberger, 1988; Motzet and Valentin, 2002). In contrast to physical modelling, only a few

93 studies have been undertaken on vortex drop shafts using numerical methods (Škerlavaj et al.,
94 2014; Mulligan, 2015; Kim et al., 2014; Plant and Crawford, 2016). Experimental studies on
95 vortex drop shafts have mostly focused on site-specific geometries in the context of the design
96 of commercial projects (Jain and Kennedy, 2983; Laushey, 1953). Only a few of these studies
97 investigated mechanisms responsible for structural degradation or failure. For example,
98 Anderson and Dahlin, (1975) have explored (via physical modelling) the effects of impact and
99 scour and various devices have been employed to determine the most effective and economical
100 means of dissipating flow energy. In these studies (Anderson and Dahlin, 1975; Dahlin and
101 Wetzel, 1985; Anderson, 1961) pressure fluctuations and energy spectrums in the outlet
102 structure stilling basin was primarily of interest where the authors made use of pressure
103 transducers or load cells in the model. High spikes indicating high energy dissipation at a
104 discrete frequency could cause damage to the prototype structure if this spike occurred at the
105 natural frequency of the structure (Anderson and Dahlin, 1975).

106 Alongside the stilling basin, knowledge of fluid structure interaction within the vortex
107 generator and drop shaft is key to informing suitable and economical material choice for the
108 drop shaft liner. In general, the pressure forces acting on most of the liner can be said to be
109 small when the annular jet thickness t_j is small (Jain 1987) and the velocity in the jet is
110 primarily axial. However, as described by Zhao et al., (2006) the pressure force could be
111 important when the water thickness varies quickly such as in the vortex generator. As far as
112 the authors are aware, there has so far been no experimental or numerical (hybrid) studies
113 undertaken to investigate the fluid structural interaction in this region of the hydraulic structure
114 where higher levels of knowledge on the underlying hydraulics may aid in progressing
115 economic design as opposed to over-engineered structural solutions.

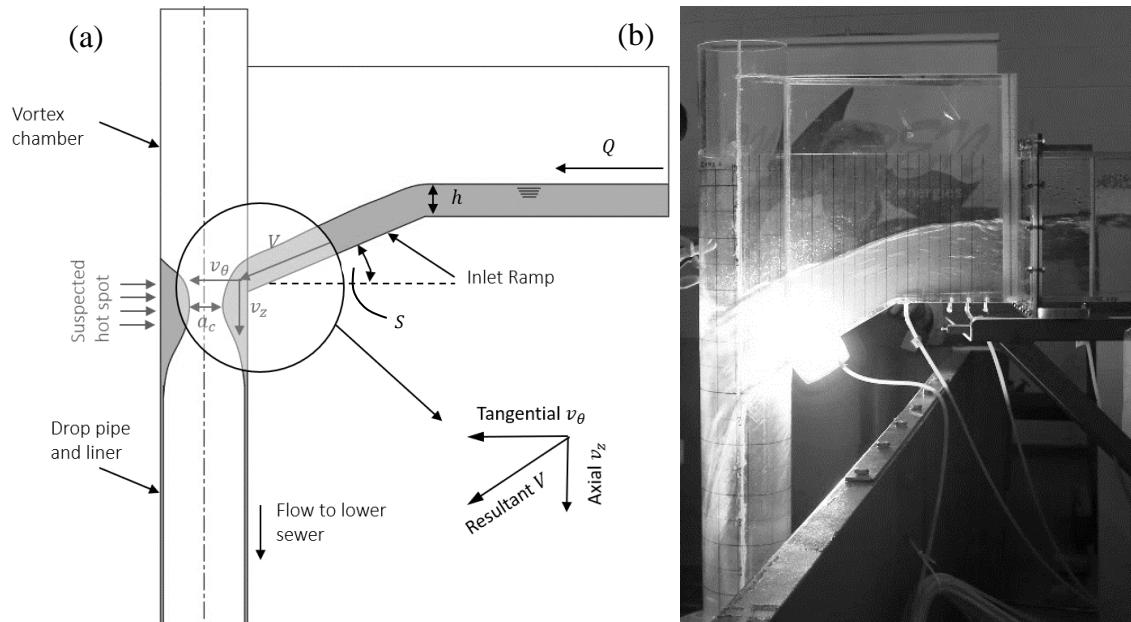
116 In terms of material choice, Williamson (2001) describes a wide variety of material
117 linings, plastic membranes, coatings and other materials to maximize longevity against impact,

118 erosion and corrosion where durability, maintenance, constructability and cost are considered
119 for the appropriate selection of materials. Recently, high structural and corrosive resistance
120 design capacity materials such as stainless steel has been the material choice for the full extent
121 of the drop shaft (Stayton, 2017; UK Water Projects, 2015). This is most likely for the purpose
122 of conservatism in the absence of a proper understanding of the fluid structure interaction in
123 the vortex liner system. With the vortex generator only constituting a small portion of the
124 overall drop shaft structure, the question is posed as to whether high structural design capacity
125 materials are necessary for the full extent of the structure. Thus, the argument in this study put
126 forward is, through an enhanced understanding of hydrodynamics in the vortex drop shaft, can
127 the hydraulic structure be designed and constructed more economically without compromising
128 structural longevity?

129 In this article, an experimental and numerical (hybrid) study was undertaken to
130 investigate the hydrodynamic flow processes and mechanisms that influence structural
131 performance of the vortex drop shaft liner. In particular, the focus of the study is to consider
132 the transition from the linear approach flow in the upper sewer system to the annular jet flow
133 in the downstream drop shaft and consider the driving mechanisms that influence design.
134 Physical modelling was used to investigate the general hydraulic behavior, track streamline
135 projections in the generator to consider the dominance of centrifugal and axial forces, identify
136 locations prone to impact by debris within the flow, resolve critical free-surface characteristics
137 and to determine pressure fluctuations acting on the drop shaft liner. This physical data was
138 also used to validate a three-dimensional numerical model of the hydraulic structure from the
139 generator to the drop shaft outlet and consider global pressures and forces acting on the
140 structure. Comments with regards to maintenance of the hydraulic structure are also outlined
141 following highly conservative debris blocking scenarios. All modelling and analysis was
142 undertaken on a 1/10 scaled model of a tangential inlet vortex drop shaft.

143 **Theory and Operation**

144 At the inlet to the hydraulic structure, the water is conveyed from the existing sewer or
145 culvert via a rectangular open channel of width B and an approach flow depth h . As the flow
146 rate Q is conveyed down the ramp of slope S , the approach flow channel begins to narrow
147 towards a throat width of b before entering the vortex generator. The kinetic energy of the
148 water increases as it accelerates down the channel, and a further increase in the velocity due to
149 a decrease of cross-sectional area converts the available potential energy largely into kinetic
150 energy at the inlet which is available to initiate a strong vortex flow. Due to the combined
151 effects of the ramp and the converging inlet, the fluid entrance velocity has two major
152 components described through the polar coordinate system θ, r, Z as outlined in Figure 2; the
153 tangential (angular) velocity v_θ and the downwards axial velocity v_z . The third, radial velocity
154 component v_r can be assumed to be negligible (Zhao et al., 2006). The resulting velocity vector
155 V at the inlet can be resolved through continuity from Q/bh (Mulligan et al, 2016; Ackers and
156 Crump, 1960) and from this, $v_\theta = Q/bh \cos S$ and $v_z = Q/bh \sin S$ where S (assuming that
157 the angle of the mean flow velocity at the inlet approximates closely to the inlet ramp slope S).
158 v_θ plays a crucial role in generating centrifugal forces through v_θ^2/r_{in} (where r_{in} is the inlet
159 radius or expressed as the drop shaft diameter by $r_{in} = D/2$ for friction energy dissipation in
160 the chamber. The vortex strength is then governed by the bulk circulation $\Gamma_\infty = 2\pi r v_\theta$. In
161 many studies, the vortex is assumed to be fully irrotational such that the circulation is constant
162 and thus the tangential velocity v_θ at radius r can be resolved through $v_\theta = \Gamma_\infty / 2\pi r$ (Yu and
163 Lee, 2009; Zhao et al., 2006).



164

165 Figure 2: (a) Cross sectional schematic of the flow domain outlining the interaction between
166 the major hydraulic parameters and the hydraulic structure and (b) physical model of
167 approach flow channel and vortex generator

168 **Physical Hydraulic Modelling**

169 ***Hydraulic Similitude***

170 In prototype sewer hydraulic structures, the tunnels, culverts and shafts will most likely be
171 empty at the beginning of a storm event and will fill gradually reaching maximum capacity
172 during extreme storm events. In other events, a full flow can be reached almost instantaneously
173 due to the opening of a sluice gate or other processes putting additional shock stresses on
174 hydraulic structures. In this study, model investigations of a scaled vortex drop shaft at 1/10
175 scale were explored for the full range of flows typically expected in such a sewer project. In
176 both the prototype and the model, gravity is the predominant force governing hydraulic
177 conditions. Thus, the greatest degree of dynamic similarity is when Froude similitude is
178 maintained between the model and prototype. The scaling factors outlined in Table 1 were
179 developed based on Froude similitude for the geometric length ratio $\lambda = L_p/L_m = 10$.

180

181 Table 1. Scaling laws based on Froude similitude

Variable	Dimensions	Unit	Scaling Law
Length	L	L	$L_p = \lambda L_m = 10L_m$
Time	T	T	$T_p = \lambda^{1/2} T_m = 3.16T_m$
Velocity	V	LT^{-1}	$V_p = \lambda^{1/2} V_m = 3.16V_m$
Acceleration	A	LT^{-2}	$A_p = A_m$
Discharge	Q	L^3T^{-1}	$Q_p = \lambda^{5/2} Q_m = 316.22V_m$
Force	F	MLT^{-2}	$F_p = \frac{F_m}{\lambda^{1/2}} = 0.316F_m$
Pressure	P	ML^2T^{-3}	$P_p = \lambda P_m = 10P_m$
Mass	M	M	$M_p = \lambda^3 M_m = 1000M_m$

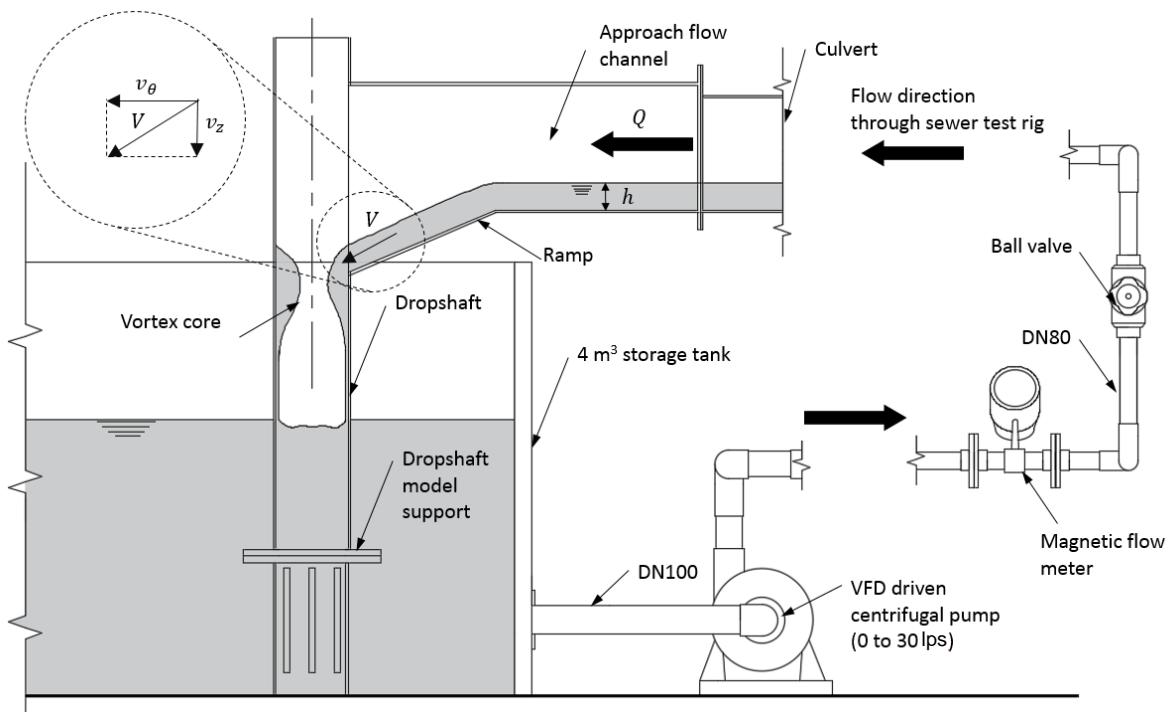
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183 As a result of obeying Froude similitude alone, there is a likelihood for scale effects to
 184 also be entrained in the model as a consequence of neglecting the effects of surface tension and
 185 viscosity; characterised by the Weber number and Reynolds number respectively. Flow
 186 characteristics and energy dissipation are however said to be properly simulated in a Froude
 187 model once the flow is sufficiently turbulent. For vortex drop shafts it is necessary to achieve
 188 $Re > 10^5$ (Zielinski and Villemonte, 1968) and $We > 120$ (Jain et al., 1978). In the current study,
 189 the minimum model Reynolds and Weber numbers in the vortex drop shaft were found to be
 190 above these limits.

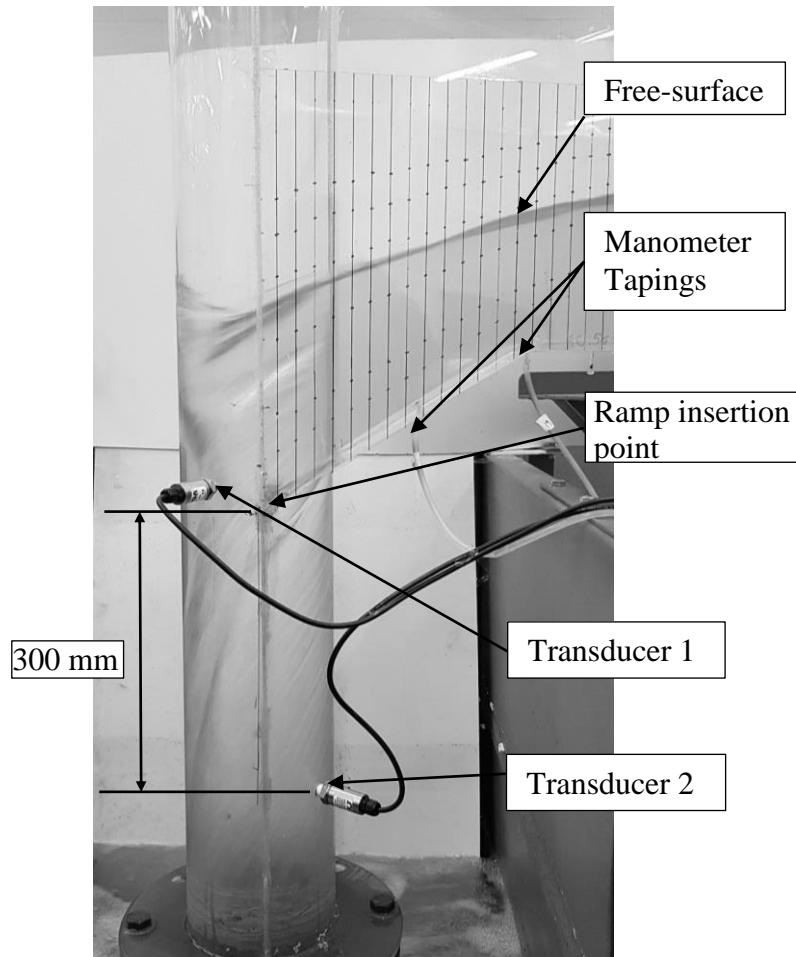
191 ***Hydraulic Model and Test Rig***

192 The physical model had shaft diameter of $D = 168$ mm and was constructed from 6 mm
 193 transparent acrylic, see Figure 2 (a) and (b). The model was installed on an existing sewer
 194 model test rig which comprises of a $4 m^3$ water storage tank and 100 mm uPVC pipe system,
 195 seen in Figure 3. Flow was pumped through the system with a range of between 0 to 30 l/s
 196 which was controllable using a variable speed drive and monitored using electromagnetic flow
 197 meters which have a max reading error of $\pm 0.2\%$ and a reading standard deviation of ± 0.006

198 l/s. Water levels were extracted from the planar acrylic surface of the approach flow. A 0 to 2
 199 PSI (0 to 1.4 m head of water) pressure transducer (Omega PX309-002GV) with a 3.25 % error
 200 (determined during calibration) was installed horizontally at two locations in the drop shaft, (1)
 201 located at 50 mm above the ramp insertion point to the drop shaft, where the focused inlet jet
 202 impacts in the vortex generator and (2) 300 mm downstream of the ramp insertion point of the
 203 vortex generator to monitor pressure fluctuations in both regions respectively, as seen in Figure
 204 4. Pressure readings were monitored at 50 Hz for one minute using Instrunet World. The
 205 hydraulic grade line was accessible along the channel invert approaching the drop shaft using
 206 manometer tapings. For all investigations, steady flowrates of $Q = 3.6, 6.5, 13.3, 18.0, 21.6$
 207 and 24 l/s were investigated. The selection of Q was based on scaled flow conditions that were
 208 to be expected on a live hydraulic structure, which were tested in another project.



209
 210 Figure 3. Schematic of the test rig configuration outlining flow circulation and major
 211 instrumentation



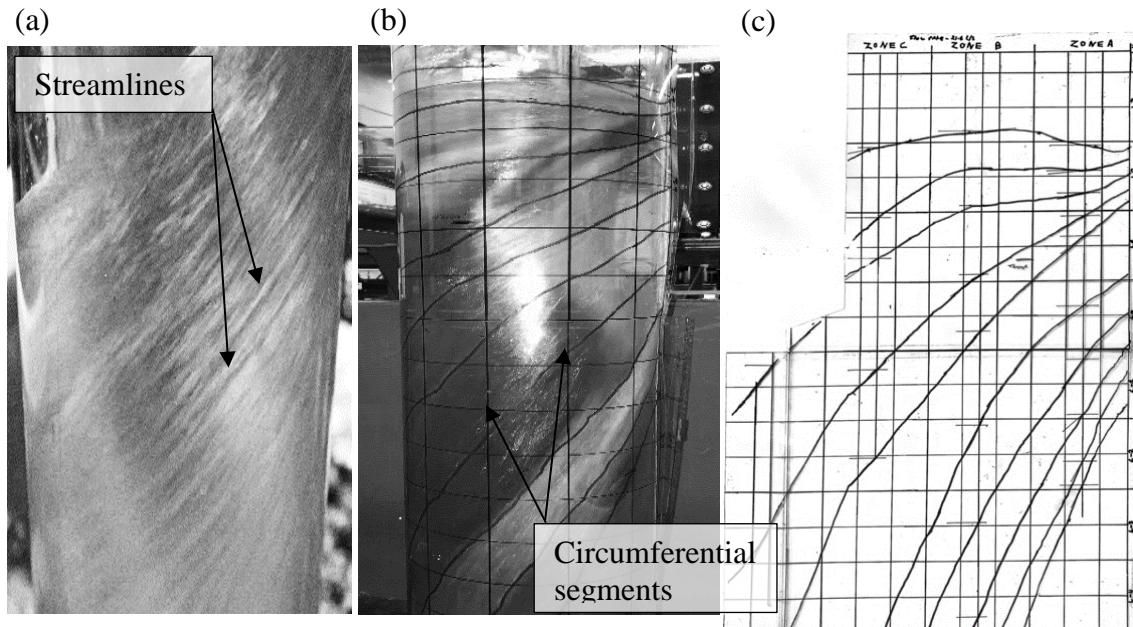
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213 Figure 4. Image of vortex generator and initial portion of drop shaft outlining the position of
214 pressure transducers and manometer tapings

215 *Streamline and Debris Impact Analysis*

216 Through the use of streamline tracing it was possible to visualise the trajectory of the mean
217 fluid patterns as its transitions into the drop shaft. In the physical model, the streamlines
218 manifest as stable and lightly aerated flow lines which were easily visualised when illuminated
219 using an LED light as shown in Figure 5 (a). A circumferentially segmented chart made from
220 and acetate sheet was used to shroud the shaft wherein the streamlines could be isolated and
221 tracked as shown in Figure 5(b). Each segment was divided in to $360^\circ/4$ sections
222 circumferentially and 900mm split into 100 mm sections vertically along the z –axis. The
223 extracted streamlines were subsequently used to decipher the projection of the streamlines or

224 the rate of change of the streamline angle α with vertical height Z ($d\alpha/dZ$) from the inlet
225 throughout the drop shaft within each quadrant as seen in Figure 5(c).

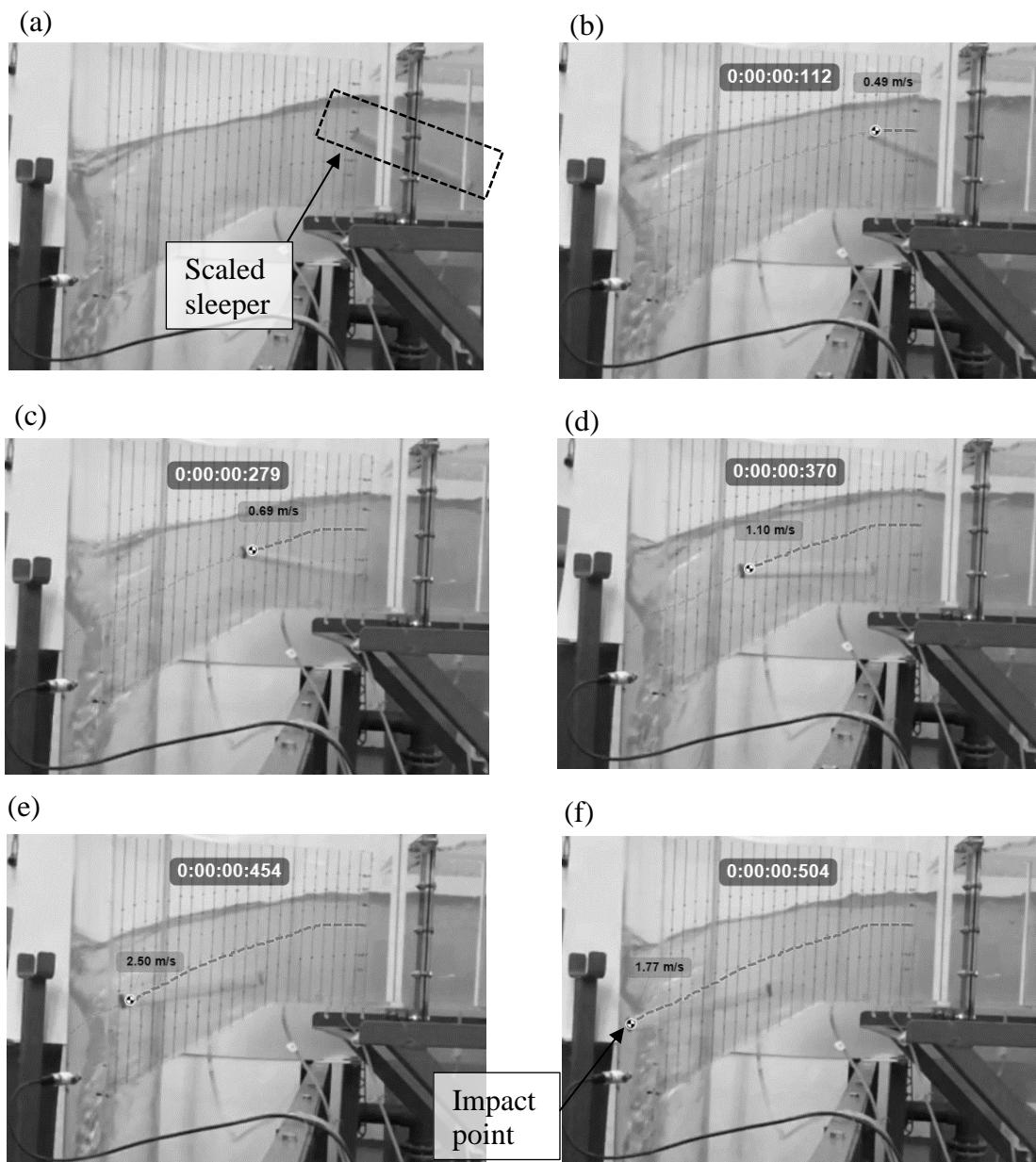


226 Figure 5: (a) Streamlines visible in drop shaft, (b) shrouding chart for extracting streamlines
227 and (c) extracted streamlines spanning each quadrant indicating the relationship between
228 axial and centrifugal forces in a drop shaft up to 500mm below the inlet.

229 **Debris tracking analysis**

230 As debris enters the vortex generator approach flow, it accelerates and gains momentum. A
231 change in direction of this momentum as a result of contact with the hydraulic structure can
232 result in significant impact forces. In the vortex generator, this may be particularly concerning
233 in the region of the inlet where the debris must undergo a significant change in direction at the
234 shaft liner at the hot spot outlined in Figure 2 previously. Using the *Kinovea* tracking software
235 (www.kinovea.org), the trajectory of debris could be resolved up to their point of impact with
236 the drop shaft liner. In this analysis, scaled railway sleepers (270 mm x 13 mm x 26 mm) with
237 a density of 900 kg/m³ were observed in transit into the drop shaft as shown in Figure 6. A
238 marker was placed on the leading edge of the sleeper to facilitate tracking and its trajectory
239 could be extracted as seen in Figure 6 below. Six debris trajectories and impact points were
240 determined per flowrate.

241



242 Figure 6: Debris tracking (a) initial entry and tracking at time-steps (b) $t = 0:112$ s, (c) $t =$
 243 $0:279$ s, (d) $t = 0:370$ s, (e) $t = 0:454$ s, (f) $t = 0:504$ s,

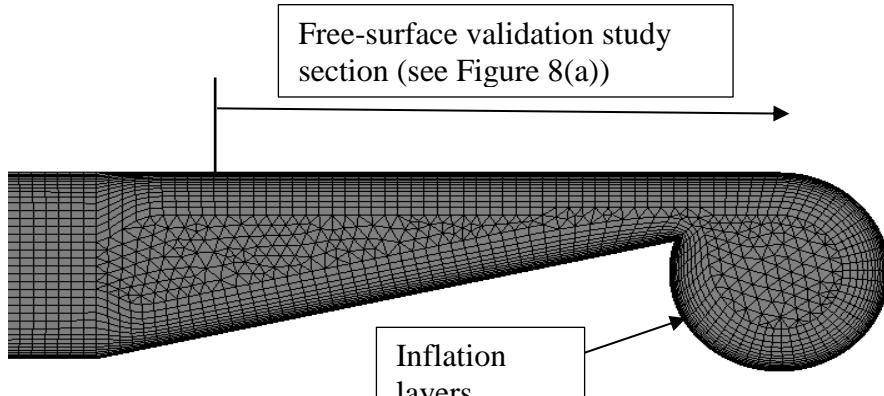
244 **Numerical Modelling**

245 Numerical modelling was performed using the commercial CFD software packages ANSYS
 246 FLUENT (V19.0) and ANSYS CFX (V14.5). Both codes use different approaches to
 247 discretising the Navier-Stokes equations (Wilcox, 1993). ANSYS CFX uses a hybrid finite-
 248 element/finite-volume (finite element based finite volume method) whereas in contrast, the
 249 ANSYS FLUENT solver uses finite volumes (cell centered numerics). Both CFD codes were

250 used to investigate the hydraulics of the vortex drop shaft following a CFD validation study
251 which is described in detail by Mulligan et al., (2018b) and is described briefly here. The two-
252 phase fluid domain was modelled using a homogeneous Eulerian-Eulerian multiphase flow
253 model. This is a limiting case of the full Eulerian-Eulerian model which assumes that interphase
254 momentum transfer is negligible and is valid for the current test case where the phases are
255 completely stratified and the interface (free-surface) is well defined. In the homogenous
256 approach, both phases are treated as interpenetrating continua parted by a well-defined
257 interface and share common velocity, pressure and turbulence field. The tracking of the
258 interface between the phases is accomplished by solving the volume fraction equation for one
259 of the phases. For free-surface flows, this is based on the Volume of Fluid (VOF) method (Hirt
260 and Nicholas, 1981).

261 Based on previous studies, it is recommended that for flows with strong rotation, the mesh
262 should be aligned with the general flow pattern (Mulligan, 2015; Škerlavaj et al., 2014). As a
263 result, a quasi-structured mesh was adopted as shown in Figure 7. This was achieved using an
264 inflation layer with a first layer thickness of 0.5 mm which was also required to resolve the
265 turbulent boundary layer. 6 mesh configurations were investigated as per Table 2 during the
266 validation study to determine solution sensitivity to mesh density.

267



268

Figure 7: (a) Plan and (b) elevation of numerical mesh

270

271 **Boundary Conditions and Test Cases**

272 A mass flow or velocity at the inlet and a static pressure condition at the outlet utilised an
273 opening with a zero-pressure boundary condition was imposed at the outlet and at the top of
274 the structure. The walls were treated as no-slip smooth wall boundaries. Turbulence models are
275 generally a modification of the unsteady Navier-Stokes equations by introduction of averaged
276 and fluctuating quantities to yield the Reynolds Averaged Navier-Stokes (RANS) (Wilcox,
277 1993) equations. In this study, the key eddy viscosity turbulence models including the $k - \varepsilon$,
278 shear stress transport (SST), SST with curvature correction (CC), transition SST four equation
279 model were evaluated to assess the solution dependence on each accordingly.

280 Table 2: Phase 1 Sensitivity Study

#	Mesh Size (m) *	No. of Elements	Inlet Boundary Type	Turbulence Model	CFD Code
1	0.020	10,000	Fixed Head	$k - \varepsilon$	FLUENT
2	0.010	40,000	Fixed Head	$k - \varepsilon$	FLUENT
3	0.005	175,000	Fixed Head	$k - \varepsilon$	FLUENT
4	0.005	175,000	Fixed Head	SST	FLUENT
5	0.005	175,000	Fixed Head	SST-CC	FLUENT
6	0.005	175,000	Fixed Head	Transition SST	FLUENT
7	0.010	130,000	Fixed Head	$k - \varepsilon$	FLUENT
8	0.010	396,036	False Floor	SST	CFX
9	0.005	496,000	False Floor	SST	CFX
10	0.005	496,000	False Floor	SST-CC	CFX
11	0.005	496,000	False Floor	$k - \varepsilon$	CFX

* Mesh size is relative to the mesh size in the vortex drop shaft

281 ***Numerical-Experimental Validation***

282 In this section, the sensitivity of the numerical model and its accuracy in simulating the physical
 283 data is discussed with reference to the models tested in Table 2. Results from the free-surface
 284 and velocity were used for validation using the physical model. It's also important to mention
 285 here that modelling the drop shaft liner material was not undertaken as its effect in the model
 286 would have no bearing on the hydraulic behavior in the simulation. From this it is possible to
 287 show that the solution becomes more or less independent of the mesh when the number of
 288 elements exceeds 200,000. This corresponded to a drop shaft cell size of 5 mm (approximately
 289 3 % of the drop shaft diameter). It was also found that significant errors can be introduced to
 290 the free-surface when inflation layers are omitted from the mesh structure. Table 3 presents the
 291 inlet velocity solutions (and error) for the various turbulence models. For the solution
 292 independent case it was found that the solution was not significantly reliant on the choice of
 293 turbulence model with relative errors falling below 9 %.

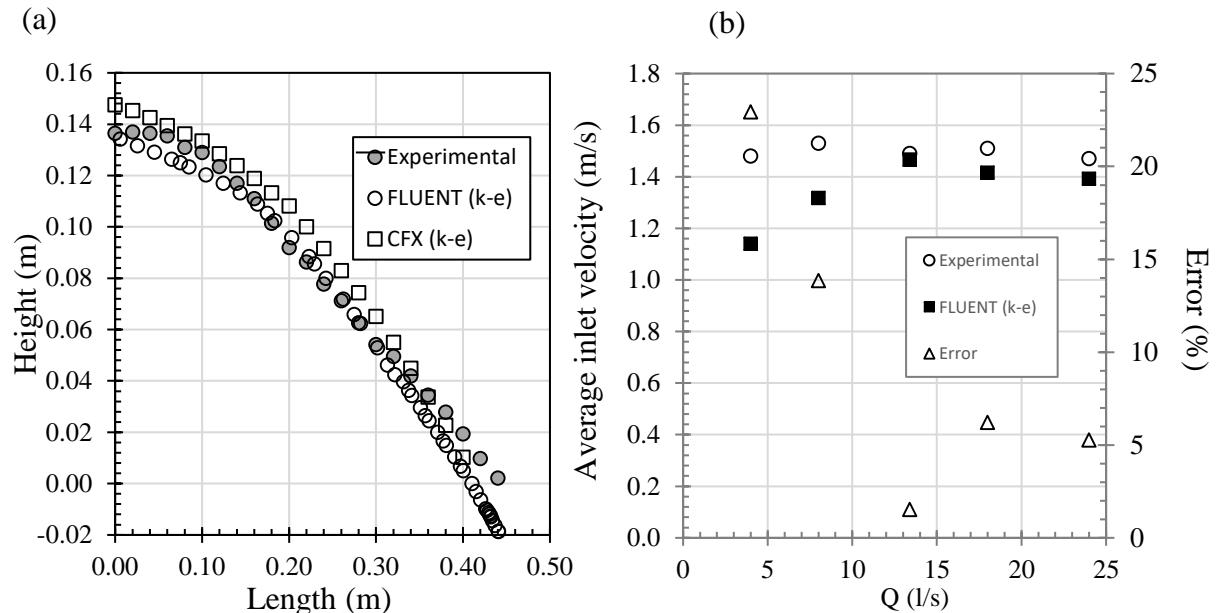
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295 Table 3: Solution sensitivity to turbulence model

#	Code	Turbulence Model	Velocity (m/s)	Error (%)	No. of Elements
1	FLUENT	k-epsilon	1.162	20.41	10,000
2	FLUENT	k-epsilon	1.130	22.60	40,000
3	FLUENT	k-epsilon	1.335	8.56	175,000
4	FLUENT	k-epsilon	1.140	9.93	55,000
5	FLUENT	k-epsilon	1.380	10.27	130,000
6	FLUENT	SST	1.315	10.41	175,000
7	FLUENT	SST-CC	1.310	21.92	175,000
8	FLUENT	Transition SST	1.308	5.48	175,000
9	CFX	SST	1.580	8.22	396,036
10	CFX	SST	1.540	5.48	490,000
11	CFX	k-epsilon	1.500	2.74	490,000
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Velocity obtained at inlet to vortex generator b from continuity 					

296 Figure 8 (a) presents a comparison between the approach flow free surface for the physical,
 297 FLUENT and CFX models. A good agreement can be observed between all of the models with
 298 discrepancy (or model divergence) beyond 400 mm where the physical model water surface
 299 rises due to the formation of a small hydraulic jump in the inlet throat. Figure 8(b) presents a
 300 comparison between the physical and numerical (FLUENT) inlet velocity data for each
 301 approach flow test case. The errors were found to be stronger for the low approach flows and
 302 reduce to reasonable levels for flows greater than $Q = 10 \text{ l/s}$. This was attributed to effects of
 303 surface tension (neglected in the numerical model) which may become influential for these
 304 lower flow conditions where the Weber number $\text{We} \rightarrow 120$ (Jain et al., 1978). Errors for lower
 305 flow conditions may also originate from mesh resolution issues near the invert boundary
 306 condition. Table 4 provides a qualitative comparison of all model results (physical, FLUENT
 307 and CFX) where excellent agreements were observed in the free-surface position and shape,
 308 including the jump observed beyond the inlet.

309



310

311 Figure 8. (a) Physical and numerical comparison of free-surface in the vortex generator
 312 approach flow channel and (b) error in predicting the average velocity at the inlet of the
 313 vortex generator

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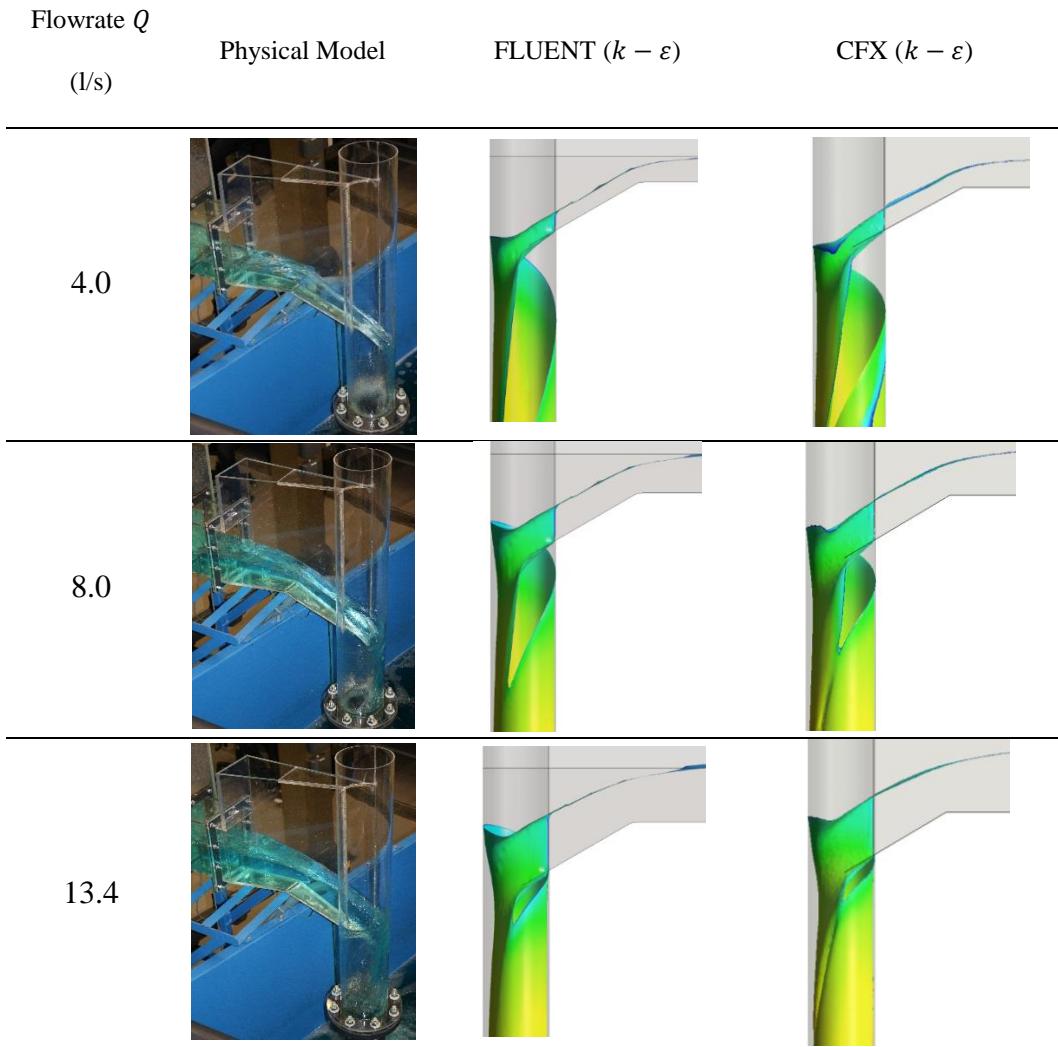
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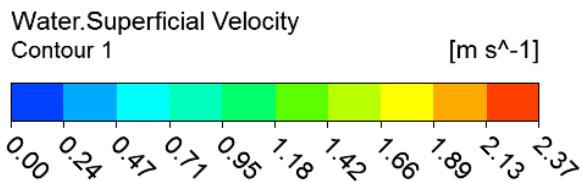
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327 Table 4: Comparison between physical and numerical free-surfaces (FLUENT and CFX) for
 328 $Q = 4 \text{ l/s}, 8 \text{ l/s}$ and 13.4 l/s (see Figure 9 for contour legend)

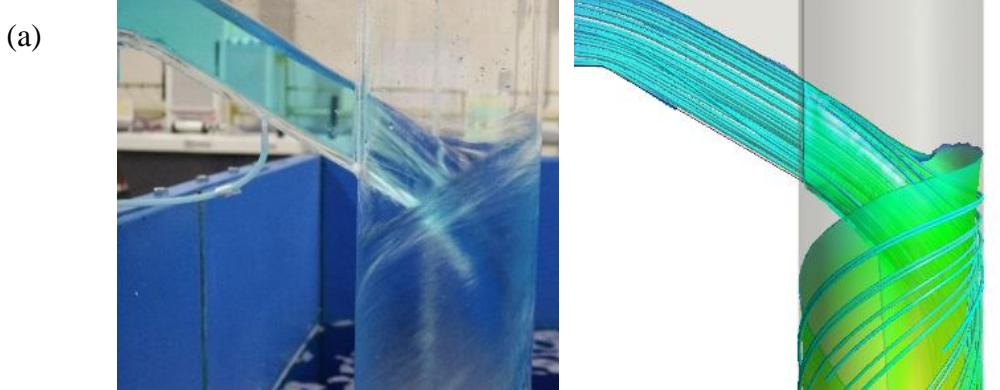


329
 330 As discussed previously, the vortex air core and its stability is a principal aspect to be
 331 checked to ensure good performance of vortex drop shaft structures. Figure 9(a) presents a
 332 comparison between the physical model air core and the numerical simulation achieved with
 333 CFX where the shape and eccentric position of the core was well replicated. The transition
 334 between the free-drainage condition and inlet disturbance conditions was also well captured
 335 demonstrating that the numerical approach is a useful tool for identifying problematic stability
 336 conditions in the flow.

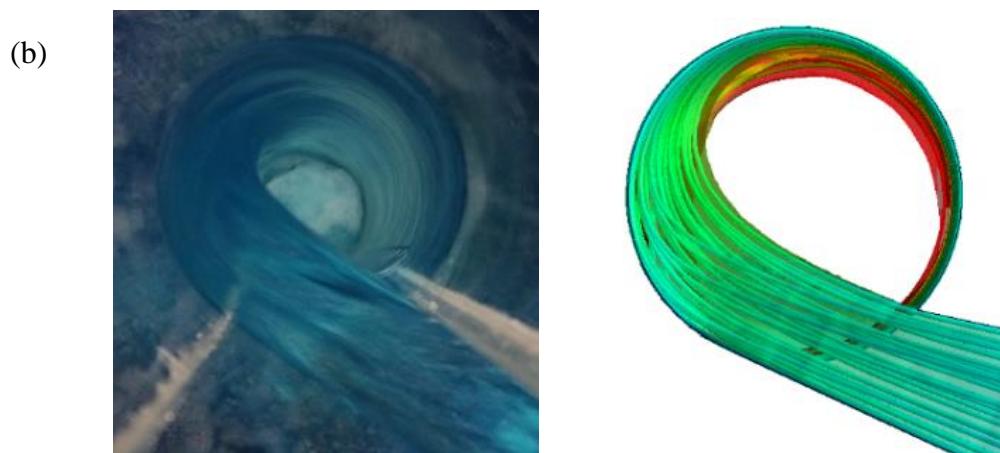
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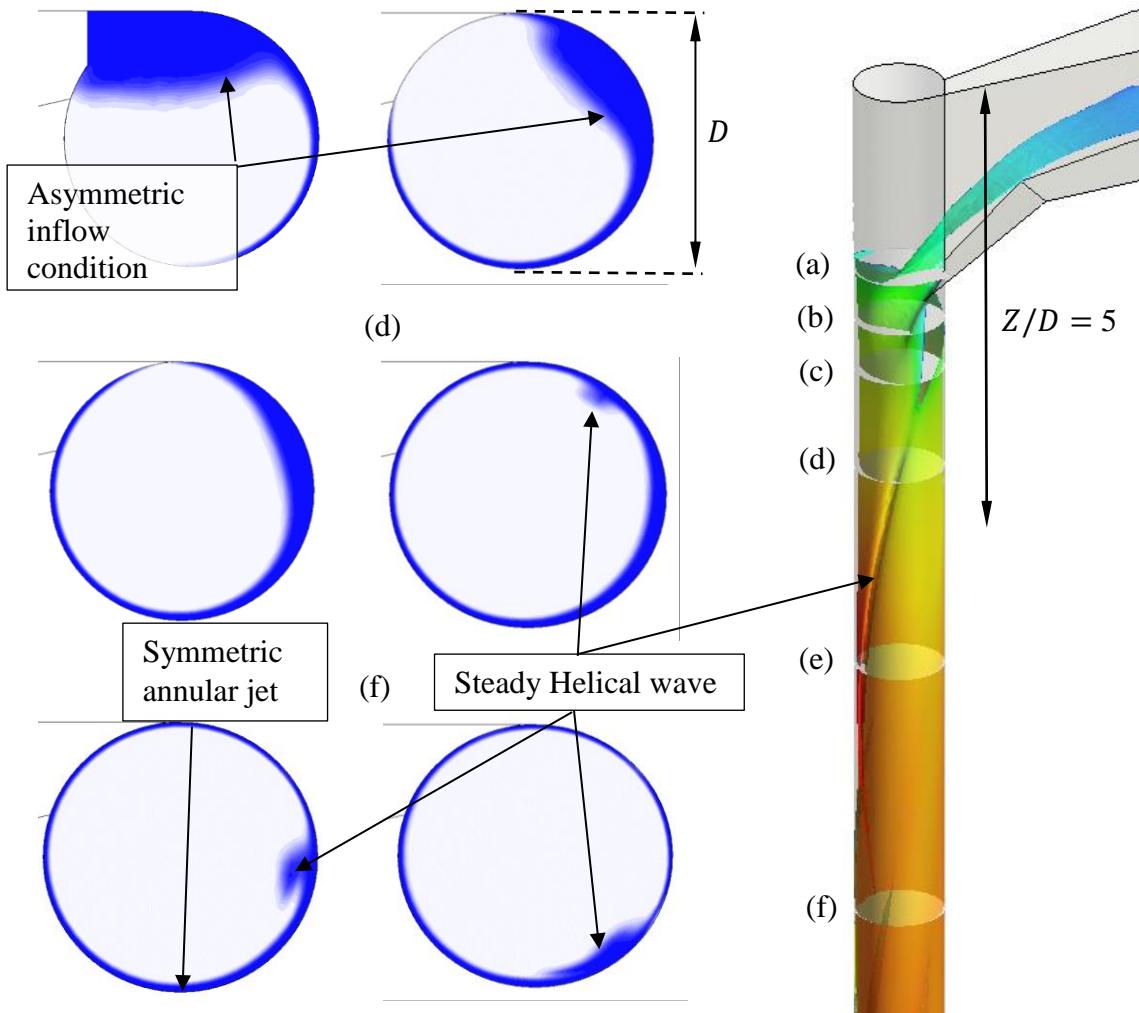
340 Figure 9. (a) Comparison of physical and numerical model for (a) inlet condition in the
341 vortex generator highlighting a good prediction of the free-drainage discharge and (b)
342 free-surface streamlines and asymmetric flow condition in the initial section of the drop
343 shaft

344 Results

345 Air Core, Velocity and Pressure

346 Figure 10 shows the distribution of the air core and annular jet thickness t_j for various
347 axial positions of the drop shaft Z . In the vortex generator, there is a rapid variation of air
348 core circumferentially and vertically. As described by other studies, the air core is not

349 central or vertical in this region. The annular jet is more uniformly distributed below Z/D
 350 = 5 however still lacks complete symmetry in this region due to a steady helical wave that
 351 extends the full length of the drop shaft (see Figure 10 d, e and f).

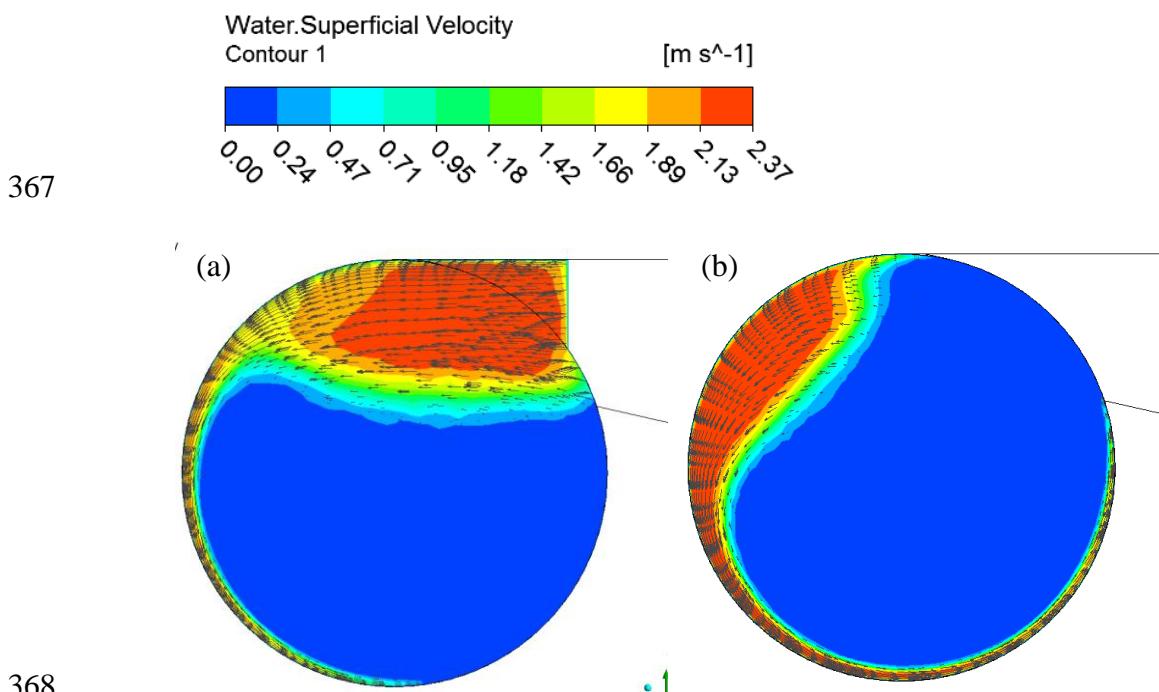


352 Figure 10. Air core characteristics axially in the vortex drop shaft for $Q = 8 \text{ l/s}$
 353 highlighting asymmetric sections (a to c), largely axisymmetric annular flow (d to f) and
 354 the position of the steady helical wave (d to f)

355 Figure 11 presents velocity vector plots on the horizontal planes (a) and (b) (as
 356 highlighted in Figure 10) in the vortex generator. Once again, poor symmetry in the
 357 velocity distribution is depicted resulting from the tangential inlet. It can also be inferred
 358 from the velocity vectors that the tangential velocity distribution in the radial direction in
 359 the vortex drop shaft is largest near the drop shaft periphery and reduces close to the core

360 which infers that the velocity distribution follows that of a forced vortex (i.e. the
361 circulation Γ is not constant in the vortex flow field as was assumed in past studies).

362 Figure 12 presents the axial distribution of tangential and axial velocity
363 throughout the full extent of the vortex drop shaft for $Q = 8 \text{ l/s}$. The tangential velocity
364 is at a maximum in the vortex generator but is dissipated due to friction and converted to
365 axial velocity as is depicted by the growth in the axial velocity from a minimum at the
366 vortex generator to a maximum at its departure from the bottom of the drop shaft.



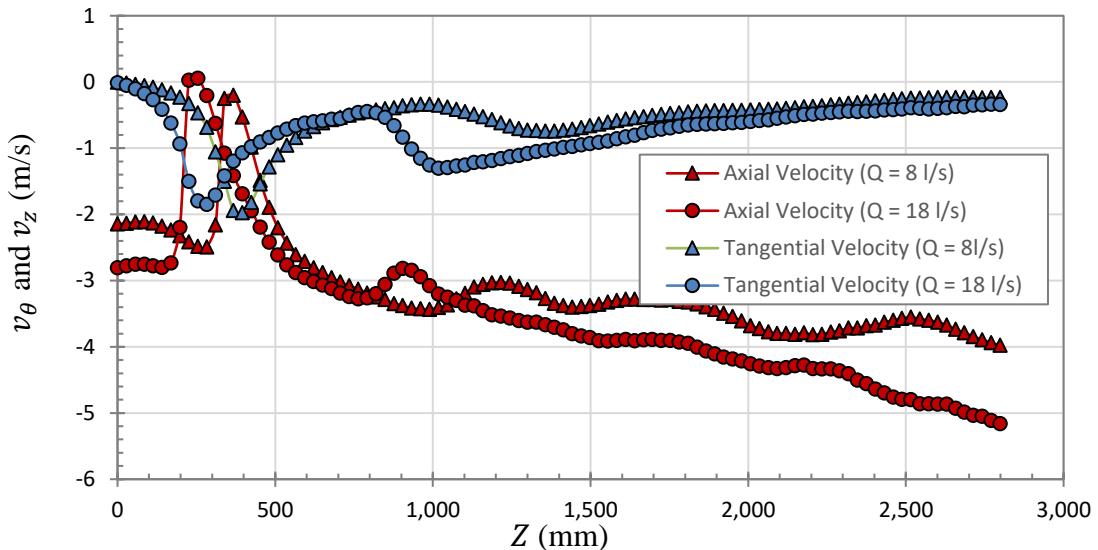
368

369 Figure 11. Velocity vector distribution for horizontal cross sections (a) and (b) in the
370 vortex generator (refer to Figure 10) from CFX simulation

371

372

373

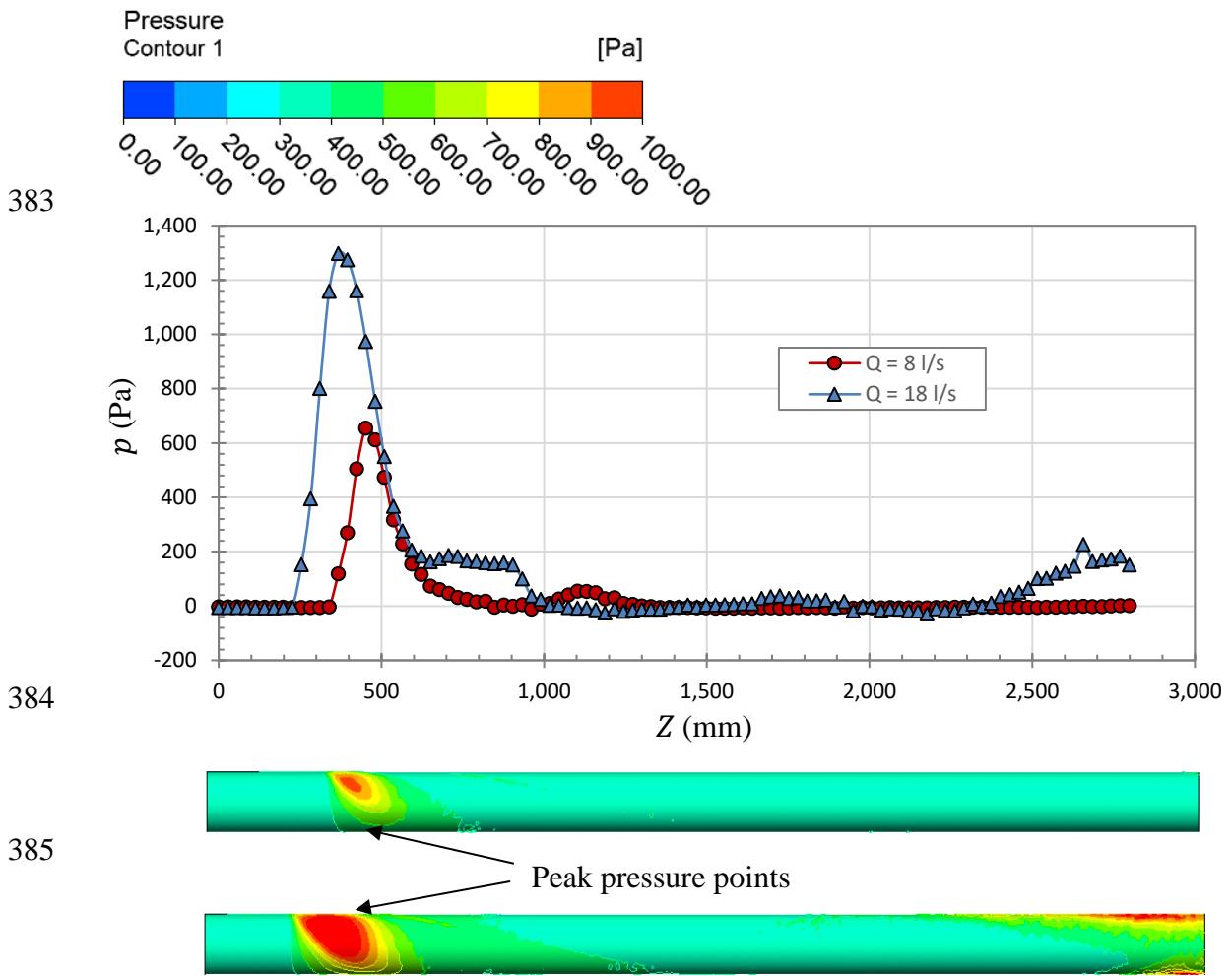


374

375 Figure 12. Tangential and axial velocity distributions axially in the vortex drop shaft
 376 from CFX simulation

377 Figure 13 highlights that axial distribution of wall pressure along the drop shaft for $Q =$
 378 8 l/s and 18 l/s . The peak pressures were experienced in the vortex generator region where
 379 the tangential velocities were also at their maximum. This peak pressure increases as the
 380 flow rate in the vortex generator is increased. The pressure appears to approach zero (and
 381 often sub atmospheric levels) when at a height of $Z/D = 5$ below the vortex generator.

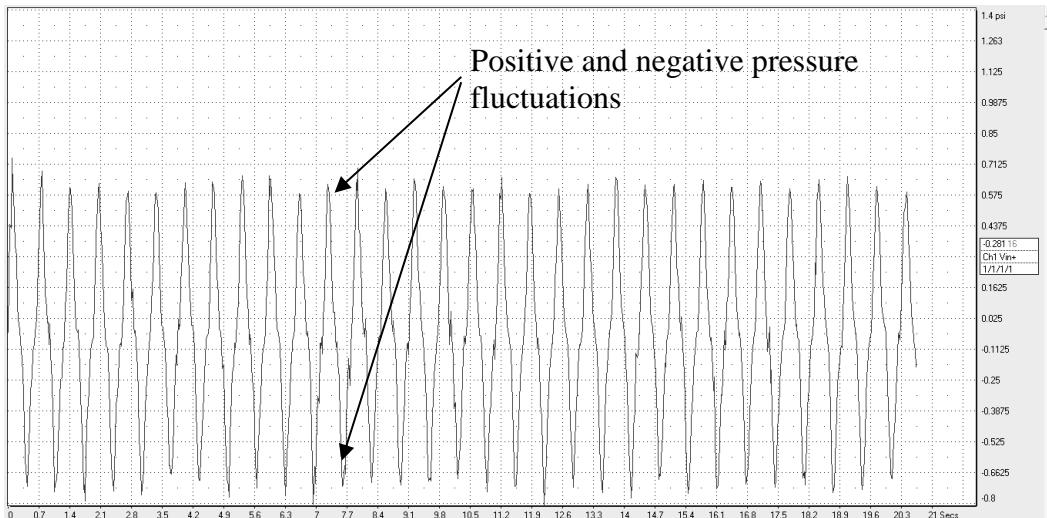
382



387 Figure 13. Time averaged CFX simulation results showing (a) Axial pressure
388 distributions along the drop shaft liner for $Q = 8 \text{ l/s}$ and 18 l/s and pressure contours
389 along the drop shaft liner for (a) $Q = 8 \text{ l/s}$ and (c) $Q = 18 \text{ l/s}$

390 The pressure fluctuations at the peak pressure zone were also monitored as described
391 previously using a diaphragm pressure transducer. The one-minute time series of the
392 pressure is presented in Figure 14 indicating the transient behaviour of the pressure in this
393 region. The transient pressure wave varies from positive to negative values and exhibits
394 frequencies of the order of 1.42 Hz and has variations between negative and positive
395 pressures 8 kPa. The averaged pressure values are however positive and agree well with
396 the numerical pressures resolved from ANSYS CFX and FLUENT.

397



398

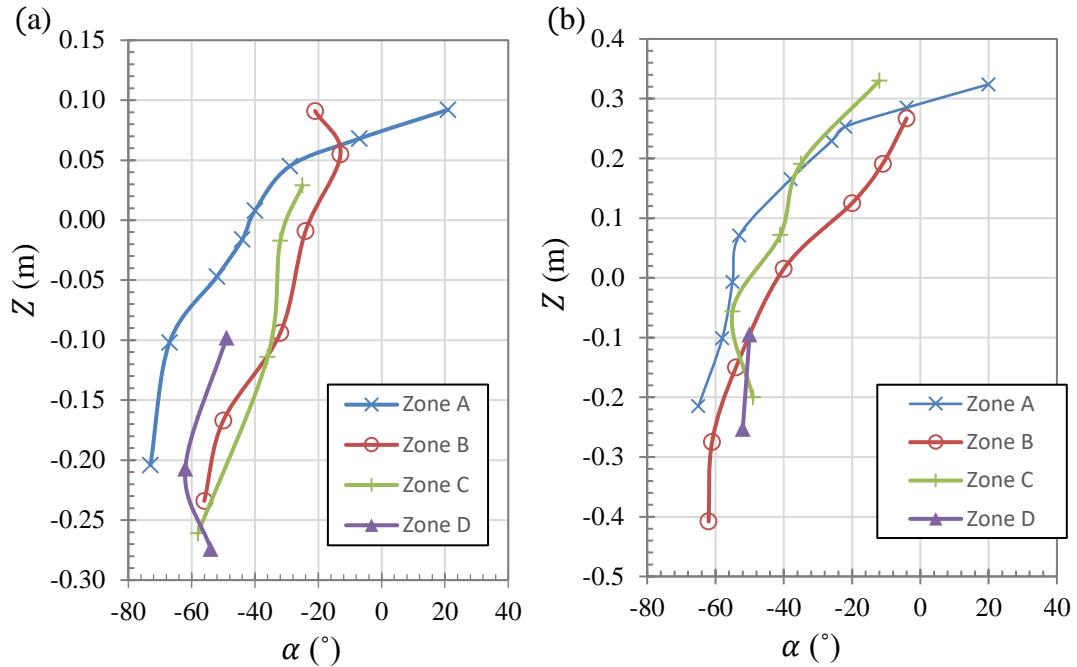
Figure 14. Pressure fluctuations on the drop shaft liner at the vortex generator inlet
(Note, CFX pressure results were time averaged)

400

Streamline Analysis

401

It was initially observed in early stages of the streamline documentation that a definitive
402 relationship was present between the axial and tangential angles. As can be seen in Figure
403 5 (b), Figure 5 (c) and Figure 15 that axial forces gradually overcome centrifugal forces,
404 as the fluid transitions through the drop shaft it gravitates towards full axial flow. Zone
405 A which denotes the first 90 degree turn through the vortex generator after the inlet
406 experiences the highest circulation as is depicted by the slope of the blue line in each case.

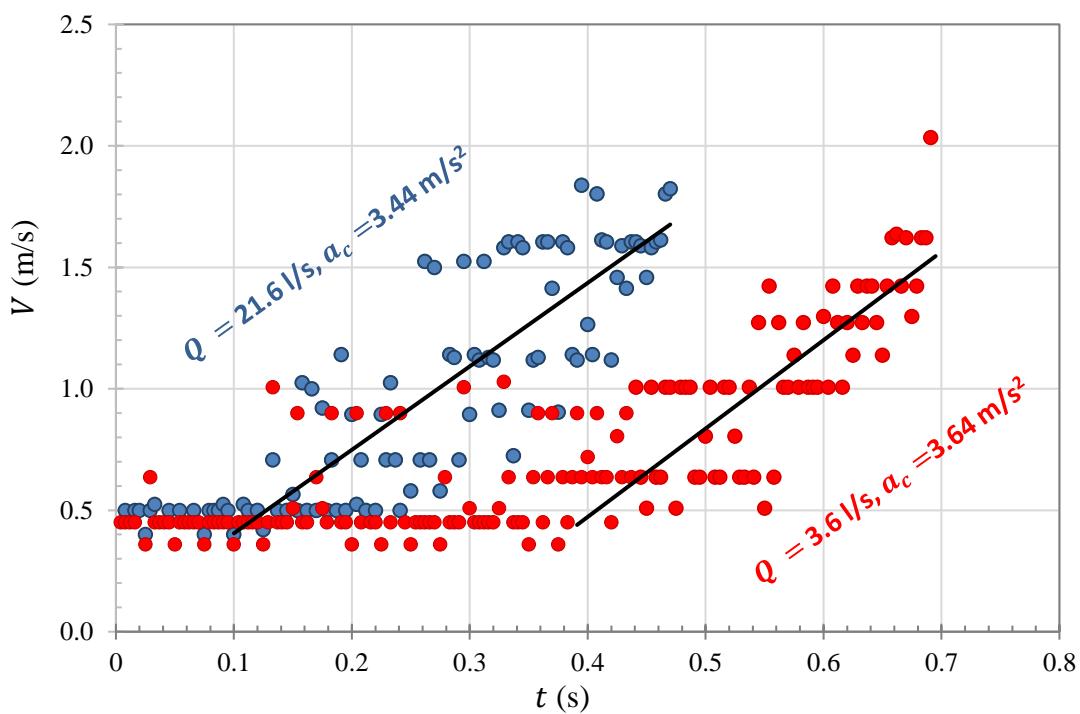


407 Figure 15. Relationships between streamline angle α and axial position Z for (a)
408 $Q = 6.5 \text{ l/s}$ and (b) $Q = 18.0 \text{ l/s}$

410 ***Debris Impact***

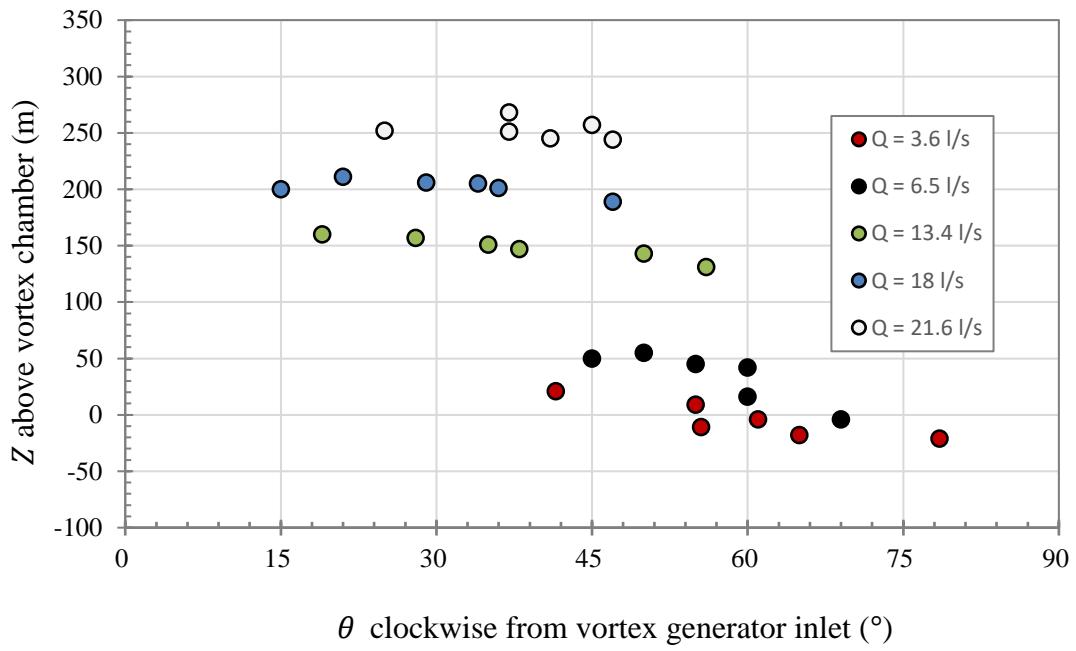
411 Figure 16 highlights the relationship between resultant debris velocity and time for $Q =$
412 3.6 l/s and $Q = 21.6 \text{ l/s}$ as obtained from the debris tracking software. As the debris is
413 initially transported in the approach flow channel, its velocity maintains relatively
414 constant. At some position along the ramp (see Figure 1), the debris gains acceleration
415 which is depicted by the slope in the graph for each case in Figure 16. The point of
416 acceleration is different for each flow, initiating earlier for higher discharges. However,
417 for each flow condition, the total acceleration of debris remains relatively constant at
418 approximately 3.5 m/s^2 . When the debris impacts the drop shaft liner, it appears to
419 undergo a complete change in horizontal and vertical direction. Therefore, it can be
420 assumed that the impact force of $F_d = 0.266 \text{ N}$ (266 N in the prototype) is generated on
421 the drop shaft wall at each specific impact point from the mass and density of the sleeper
422 ($\rho = 900 \text{ kg/m}^3$). This force can be resolved on the drop shaft liner as a force vector with

423 a horizontal component acting perpendicular to at a tangent to the point of impact. The
 424 vertical component can be resolved from the slope of the debris trajectory which was
 425 found to closely approximate the inlet slope angle S . The points of impact were resolved
 426 for 30 impact tests as is shown in Figure 17. It is apparent that the impact points are
 427 localised to a section within the first 90 degree (Zone A) turn of the vortex generator. The
 428 debris point of impact vertically is dependent on the flow discharge where for higher
 429 discharges, the impact points reside higher in the vortex generator.



430

431 Figure 16. Relationship between debris resultant velocity and time as the debris is
 432 tracked on the approach to the vortex generator inlet (R^2 is 0.68 and 0.61 for 21.6 and
 433 3.6 l/s respectively)



434

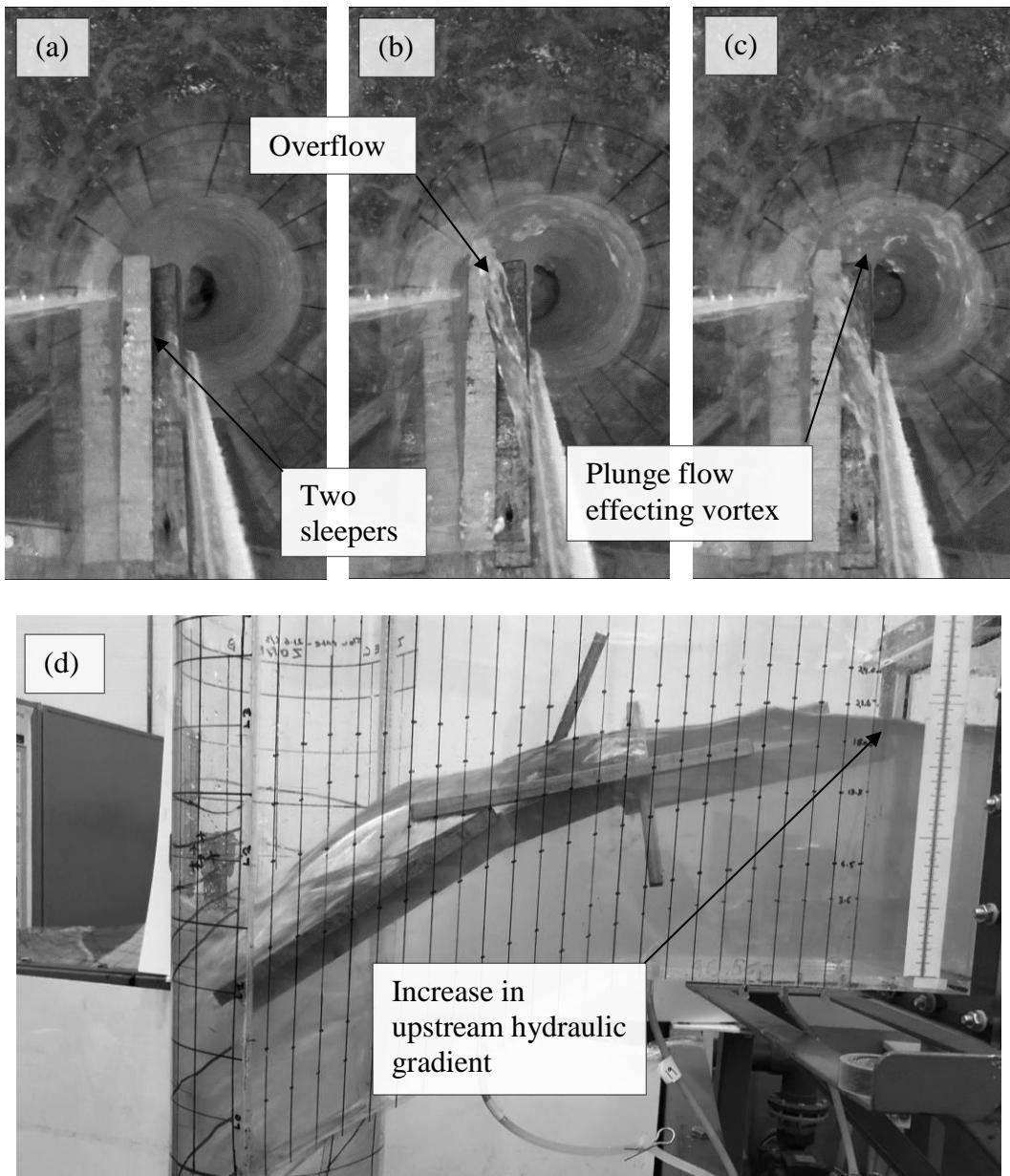
θ clockwise from vortex generator inlet (°)

435 Figure 17. Debris impact locations in the first 90 degree turn of the vortex generator

436 **Blocking Scenarios**

437 Upstream of vortex drop shafts, it is often a case that there exist appurtenances which
 438 obstruct flow laden obstacles and debris. For example, it is known that debris can often
 439 accumulate in or behind flap valves and gates. Under the case where a large quantity of
 440 heavy debris is released abruptly from such appurtenances, they may be transported with
 441 the flow as a debris accumulation and cause issues downstream. As was shown
 442 previously, the vortex drop shaft is capable of passing relatively large debris such as
 443 railway sleepers in isolation. However, an experiment was conducted to observe the effect
 444 of two or more pieces of woody debris entering the vortex generator. This can be
 445 considered to be a highly conservative test given the probability of such an event
 446 occurring; however, the effect of such an event occurring is nonetheless a fruitful
 447 investigation. As can be observed in Figure 18, when two floating sleepers enter the
 448 vortex generator inlet, they become jammed in the narrow entry. The result is an increase
 449 in upstream head and hydraulic gradient which may cause problems upstream. However,

450 as can be seen in Figure 18, this issue also perturbs the downstream flow dynamics where
451 the flow now cascades over the jammed sleepers (b) causing a drowning effect on the
452 vortex flow and air core (d). Essentially the outcome is that the vortex drop shaft is
453 converted into a form of plunge flow drop shaft which is worsened if more debris is to
454 build up behind the jamming mechanism (see Figure 18(d)).



457 Figure 18. (a), (b), (c) debris jamming mechanisms in the vortex generator approach
458 channel resulting in (d) changes in the hydraulic gradient and a (c) plunge flow
459 mechanisms in the drop shaft

460 **Discussion**

461 ***Hydrodynamics***

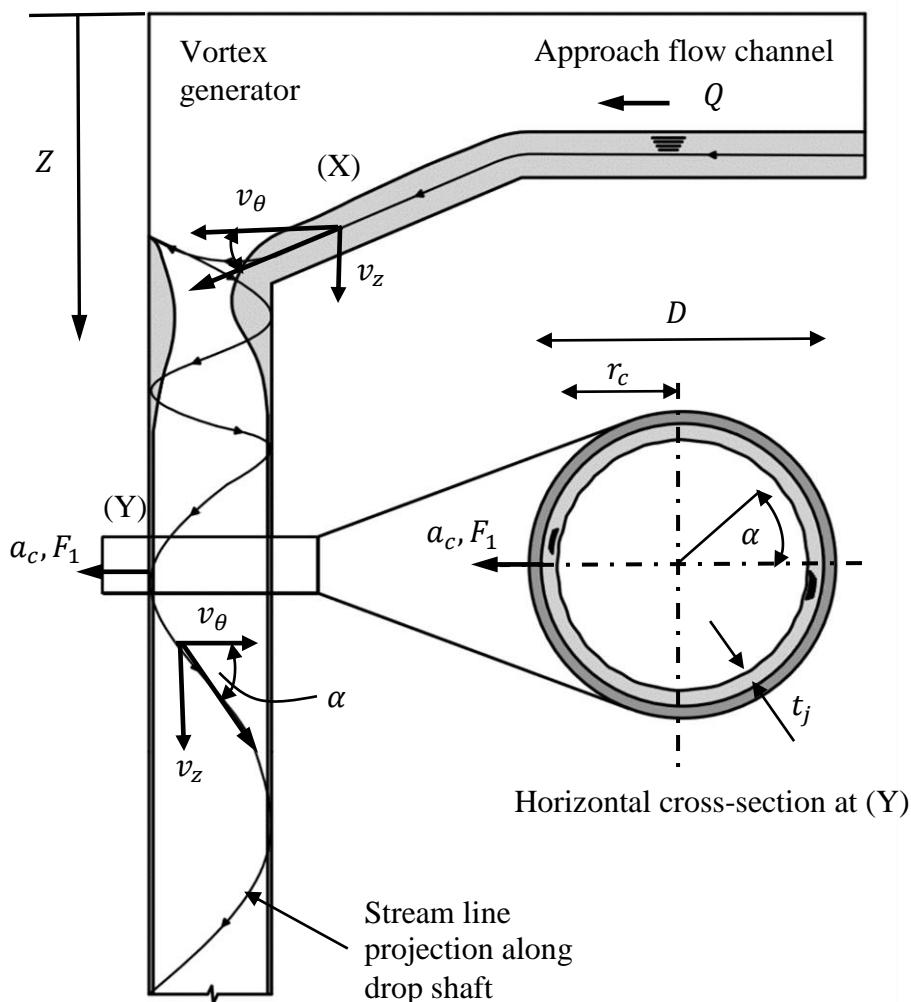
462 In the previous sections, a range of physical and numerical observations have been
463 presented for hydrodynamic effects in a tangential inlet vortex drop shaft having
464 implications on the structural integrity of the hydraulic structure. It is possible to infer
465 from these observations that the fluid dynamics in the structure change rapidly as the flow
466 progresses from the vortex generator to the downstream shaft. Essentially, this rapid and
467 somewhat severe change in flow behaviour can simply be described by the transition of
468 a linear flow in, for example the upstream sewer culverts and channels, to the rotational
469 and largely axisymmetric flow in the downstream drop shaft. As was first observed in the
470 physical and numerical observations of the air core at the vortex generator region, the
471 conveyance of flow down the ramp combined with local acceleration at the inlet results
472 in the generation of substantial kinetic energy in the inlet jet which is to subsequently
473 change direction at the tangential inlet. The result is the generation of a forced vortex
474 which causes the free-surface to jump and spread the flow tangentially around the
475 periphery of the drop shaft. This develops a highly asymmetric free-surface and velocity
476 distribution which is presented in Figures 10 and 11. The change of momentum, due to a
477 change of the fluids direction results in the generation of a reaction force on the drop shaft
478 liner in this region which is to be restrained during safe operation. The pressure on the
479 fluid liner in this region is further intensified by the generation of a centrifugal force $a_c =$
480 v_θ^2/r due to high tangential velocities localised over a small inlet radius r . This inlet
481 flow mechanisms thus explains the peak pressure distributions observed for a distance of
482 $Z/D = 5$ downstream of the vortex generator as is presented in Figure 13 which
483 intensifies as the flowrate and inlet circulation increases. Downstream of this region, the
484 free-surface and velocity distribution in the annular jet becomes more evenly distributed

485 as a result of the energy dissipation process. However, a single steady asymmetric wave
486 exists for the extent of the drop shaft manifesting as a helical free-surface wave.

487 As is summarised in Figure 19 and, despite the minor asymmetry in the flow, it
488 can be assumed that the stream line angle α at any circumferential position θ is constant
489 for axial heights downstream of $Z/D = 5$. Thus the streamline angle can be approximated
490 for this region by:

$$\alpha = \tan^{-1} \frac{v_z}{v_\theta} \quad (1)$$

491



492

493 Figure 19. Hydraulic analysis of flow in the vortex drop shaft as a result of initial
494 circulation conditions in the vortex generator

495

496 For an axisymmetric annular flow, it can also be assumed that the axial velocity is
 497 constant over the annular cross section at say (1), thus:

$$v_{z(1)} = \frac{Q}{\pi(\frac{D^2}{4} - r_c^2)} \quad (2)$$

498 Therefore, at any Z depth in the drop shaft, it is then possible to resolve the tangential
 499 velocity in the annular jet by:

$$v_{\theta(1)} = \frac{Q}{\pi(\frac{D^2}{4} - r_c^2) Tan\alpha} \quad (3)$$

500 or the centrifugal force applied on the walls of the drop shaft by:

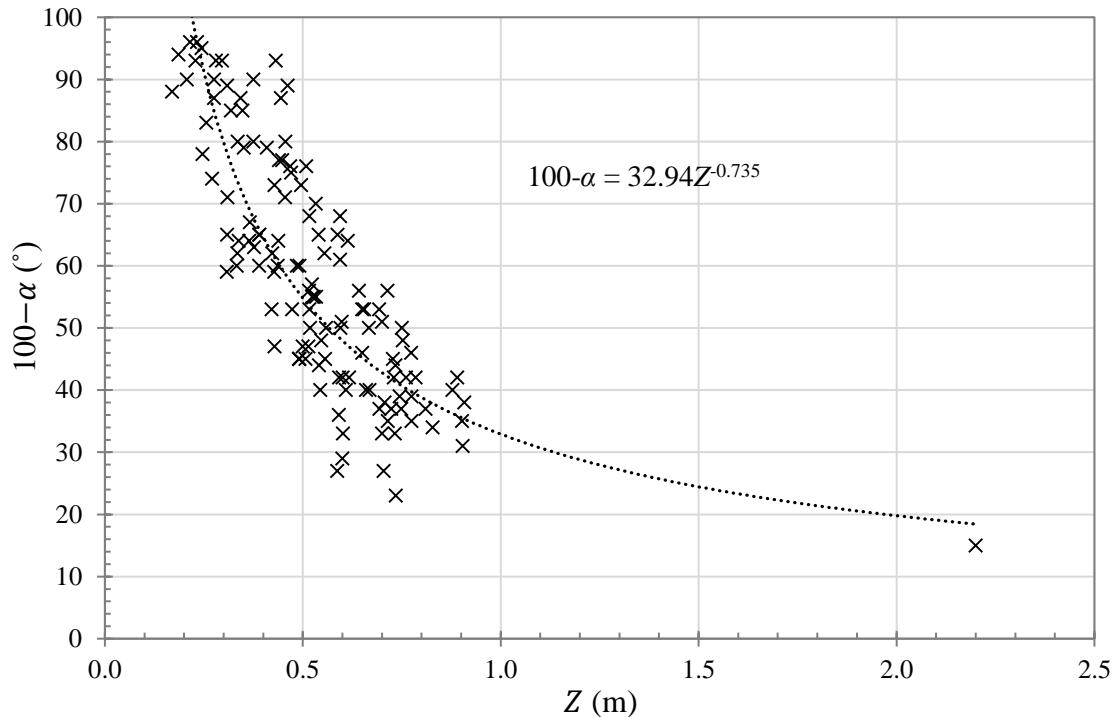
$$a_{c(1)} = \frac{\left(\frac{Q}{\pi(\frac{D^2}{4} - r_c^2) Tan\alpha} \right)^2}{r} \quad (4)$$

501 Thus, if the nature of the streamline behaviour throughout the vertical extent of the drop
 502 shaft is known (i.e. $d\alpha/dZ$), and the annular jet thickness is $t_j = D/2 - r_c$ is assumed to
 503 be constant as is a good approximation for $Z \geq Z/D = 5$. In this study, the streamline
 504 trajectories $d\alpha/dZ$ were resolved for the initial portion of the drop shaft. A good
 505 relationship between α and Z was resolved for all data points (see Figure 20) and was
 506 expressed:

$$\alpha = 32.94Z^{-0.735} + 100 \quad (5)$$

507 where a power curve was used as a best fit line assuming that the final streamline exiting
 508 the drop shaft had an angle of 90° which is typical in the exit of a vortex drop shaft
 509 structure (Weiss et al, 2010). Verticality of the streamline in this region can also be
 510 ascertained from the numerical modelling results where the tangential velocity at the exit
 511 approaches 0 m/s (see Figure 12) Provided this best fit curve provides a good
 512 approximation of the streamline angles for $Z \geq 1.0$, its equation can be combined with
 513 Eq(4) can be used to resolve the axial distribution of force and pressure along the drop
 514 shaft liner can be resolved for design purposes. Thus, by only physically modelling a

515 small portion of the drop shaft (26 % in this case) it is possible to resolve crucial design
516 information without the requirements of consulting costly physical modelling facilities
517 (permitting sufficient vertical space for physical model builds) or numerical modelling
518 software.



519
520 Figure 20. Relationship between α and Z for all data obtained in the stream line
521 analysis. Data point at 2.2 was assumed to provide a strong relationship between α and
522 Z

523 ***Mechanisms Driving Liner Degradation – Impact, Erosion and Abrasion***

524 Apart from corrosion, the liner material in a drop shaft is subject to degradation due to
525 several hydrodynamic mechanisms, namely impact, erosion and abrasion. Physical model
526 studies on debris impact were presented previously using woody debris such as railway
527 sleepers. A localised region prone to impact was identified in the vortex generator again
528 due to the severe change of fluid acceleration and direction in the tangential inlet. Debris
529 accelerations were resolved for each discharge and were found to be of the order of 3.5

530 m/s² driven by gravitational acceleration on the ramp and local fluid acceleration both
531 horizontally and axially. The impact force of the debris was calculated to be of the order
532 of 0.26 N in the model (260 N in the prototype). Appearing to be small, if the debris
533 impacts the liner at its sharp edge, the force applied over a small localised area may
534 manifest as a high puncturing stress which may breach the surface of the liner. Given that
535 the point of impact of the debris in the experiments was localised, continuous impact due
536 to debris laden flows is an item which should be considered when designing and choosing
537 a suitable material for a drop shaft liner. It must also be noted that this issue would only
538 be prominent in the vortex generator region where in the remaining drop shaft, the flow
539 conditions are largely axial.

540 With knowledge of the streamline angles and hence the tangential and axial
541 velocities in the vicinity of the liner surface, it is also possible to draw conclusions on the
542 wearing effects of erosion and abrasion on the liner given that such flows generally
543 contain large solids concentrations. Abrasion is a wear phenomenon involving
544 progressive material loss due to hard particles forced against and moving along a solid
545 surface (Auel et al., 2015). Particles are transported in sliding, rolling or saltation motion
546 depending on the flow conditions causing grinding, rolling or saltating impact stress on a
547 liner material. According to Sklar and Dietrich (2001), the governing process causing
548 abrasion is saltation, whereas sliding and rolling do not cause significant wear. Regarding
549 the vortex chamber flow dynamics, saltation would be expected to be largely present
550 again at the entrance to the vortex generator due to the change of direction of flow. Sliding
551 and rolling would dominate the remainder of the drop shaft where the radial velocity is
552 negligible. A number of models exist to predict the abrasion rate of materials due to the
553 abovementioned mechanisms (Ishibashi, 1983; Sklar and Dietrich, 2004; Auel, 2015)
554 wherein the parameters required can be derived from the hydrodynamic variables

555 explored in this study (impact angle, stream velocity components, suspended solids
556 concentration, centrifugal forces, wall pressures etc.) together with material properties.
557 Although not explored further in this study, this topic wold nonetheless be a fruitful future
558 investigation.

559 **Critical Helical Height Hypothesis**

560 From the previous discussion, it is clear that the vortex drop shaft is most prone to
561 structural damage or degradation in the vortex generator region for an axial distance
562 downstream of the generator (found in this study to be limited to $5D$ downstream from
563 the vortex generator). This is due to (1) reaction forces generated at the inlet, (2)
564 centrifugal forces resulting from a circulation dominated flow producing high wall
565 pressures, (3) large pressure fluctuations which, combined with high local fluid velocities
566 may lead to the onset of cavitation, (4) localised debris impact locations and (5) saltation
567 abrasion mechanisms at the vortex generator inlet. All the previous mechanisms can be
568 seen to be attributed to rotational flow hydrodynamics which dominates the first section
569 of the drop shaft. However, it is also evident from the axial distributions of velocity and
570 pressure that the centrifugal forces diminish in a streamwise direction downstream. This
571 can be further revealed through Eq(3) which shows that as the streamline angle
572 approaches 90 degrees, the tangential velocity tends towards 0. Therefore, it is here
573 proposed that there must exist some critical height where, depending on the material
574 properties of the drop shaft liner, the mechanisms driving structural damage or wear in
575 the drop shaft are minimal such that a change of material from a high structural design
576 capacity to a lower one could be considered to save in costs. This proposal has significant
577 implications on potential cost savings in heavy infrastructure projects requiring large drop
578 shaft structures. For example, rather than employing a stainless-steel drop shaft liner for
579 the full length of drop, if an axial location Z in the drop can be identified where the use

580 of stainless-steel material is excessive from a material strength perspective, a changeover
581 of material to a lower cost material can be justified to carry the flow to the bottom of the
582 drop shaft structure.

583 **Conclusions**

584 In this study, a comprehensive investigation into the hydrodynamic mechanisms affecting
585 the structural performance and maintenance of vortex drops shaft structures is undertaken
586 using physical and numerical models. Physical model studies for a 1/10 scaled model of
587 a tangential inlet vortex drop shaft are undertaken to investigate free-surface
588 characteristics, streamline characteristics, pressure fluctuations, debris impact and debris
589 blocking mechanisms. The data was used to validate a multiphase numerical model of the
590 flow to reveal further three-dimensional velocity and pressure distributions along the full
591 length of drop structure. The key conclusions from the research are as follows:

592 • The research identified five primary hydrodynamic mechanisms that affect the
593 structural integrity of drop shafts: (1) the reaction forces generated at the inlet, (2) the
594 centrifugal forces resulting from a circulation dominated flow producing high wall
595 pressures, (3) the large pressure fluctuations which, combined with high local fluid
596 velocities may lead to the onset of cavitation, (4) the localised debris impact locations
597 and (5) the saltation abrasion mechanisms at the vortex generator inlet all instigated
598 by centrifugal forces which dominate this region of the drop shaft. To the authors'
599 knowledge, this is the first study to explicitly identify these mechanisms and they are
600 therefore a key novelty of the research. We recommend that they should set the basis
601 for progressing further fluid structure interaction studies on vortex drop shaft
602 structures.

603 • The identified hydrodynamic mechanisms are attributed to the vortex generator and a

604 distance of drop shaft downstream, below which the centrifugal forces diminish
605 lowering the risk to potential structural damage. A relationship to model the reduction
606 in centrifugal forces on the drop shaft liner and identify the critical helical height for
607 the shaft was developed. This requires only a brief streamline investigation to be
608 carried out on the vortex generator section of the overall drop structure. In this study
609 the critical height was found to be five times the shaft diameter ($5D$).

610 Due to a lowered risk of potential damage below the critical height the authors propose
611 that there is scope for significant cost savings in the design and construction of vortex
612 drop shafts by substituting costly, high strength materials for lower cost materials for the
613 portion of the shaft below $5D$. The location of material changeover could be identified by
614 analysing the streamline angles and air core diameters for various flow conditions in a
615 short section of the vortex generator and drop to predict the centrifugal force along the
616 full extent of the drop.

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619 support when compiling this article. The authors would further like to express gratitude
620 to Edward Kilcullen and Dermot Mc Dermott for their assistance during physical
621 modelling investigations.

622 Notation

Γ	= circulation	$(m^2 s^{-1})$	H	= chamber height	(m)
Γ_∞	= bulk circulation	$(m^2 s^{-1})$	θ, r, z	= coordinates	($-$)
Q	= flow rate	$(m^3 s^{-1})$	t	= time	(s)
v_θ	= tangential velocity	$(m s^{-1})$	σ	= surface tension coefficient	$(N m^{-1})$
v_z	= axial velocity	$(m s^{-1})$	g	= gravitational coefficient	$(m s^{-2})$
v_r	= radial velocity	$(m s^{-1})$	ν	= kinematic viscosity	$(m^2 s^{-1})$
p	= pressure	$(N m^{-2})$	α	= Streamline angle	($^\circ$)
D	= drop shaft diameter	(m)	F	= outlet Froude number	($-$)
h	= approach flow depth	(m)	Re	= Reynolds number	($-$)
r	= radius	(m)	We	= weber number	($-$)
r_{in}	= inlet radius	(m)	S	= ramp of slope	($^\circ$)

B	= inlet channel width	(m)	λ	= Froude similitude scaling factor	(-)
b	= throat width	(m)	$L_{m,p}$	= Length (model, prototype)	(m)
a_c	= Centrifugal force	(N)	D	= Shaft diameter	(m)
h	= Flow depth	(m)	Z	= Vertical height	(m)
t_j	= annular jet thickness	(m)	θ	= Circumferential position	(°)
V	= resulting velocity vector at inlet	(m s ⁻¹)	r_c	= Drop shaft radius	(m)
L	= Length	(m)	F	= Force	(N)
T	= Time	(s)	P	= Pressure	(N m ⁻²)
A	= Acceleration	(m/s ²)	M	= Mass	(kg)

623

624

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